Process-Algebraic Models of Multi-Writer
Multi-Reader Non-Atomic Registers

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Abstract
We present process-algebraic models of multi-writer multi-reader safe, regular and atomic registers. We establish the relationship between our models and alternative versions presented in the literature. We use our models to formally analyse by model checking to what extent several well-known mutual exclusion algorithms are robust for relaxed atomicity requirements. Our analyses refute correctness claims made about some of these algorithms in the literature.

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Supplementary Material Model: https://github.com/mCRL2org/mCRL2/tree/master/examples/academic/non-atomic_registers
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1 Introduction
The mutual exclusion problem was first outlined by Dijkstra [9]. Given \( n \) threads executing some code with a special section called the “critical section”, the problem is to ensure that at any one time at most one of the threads is executing its critical section. Dijkstra explicitly states that communication between threads should be done through shared registers, and that reading from and writing to these registers should be considered atomic operations; when two threads simultaneously interact with the register, be it through reading or writing, the register behaves as though these operations took place in some total order.

Lamport argued that solutions to the mutual exclusion problem that assume atomicity of register operations do not fundamentally solve it [19]. After all, implementing atomic operations would require some form of mutual exclusion at a lower level. Many algorithms have been proposed that solve the mutual exclusion problem without requiring atomicity of register operations, most famously Lamport’s own Bakery algorithm [18].

Analysing distributed algorithms using non-atomic registers for communication between threads can be difficult, and correctness proofs are error-prone. Due to the vast number of execution paths of distributed algorithms, especially when overlapping register operations need to be taken into account, manual correctness proofs are likely to miss issues. One better uses computer tools (e.g., model checkers or theorem provers) to support correctness claims with a detailed and preferably exhaustive analysis. This introduces the need for formal models of non-atomic registers.
Lamport proposed a general mathematical formalism for reasoning about the behaviour of concurrent systems that do not rely on the atomicity of operations, which he then uses to analyse the correctness of four solutions to the mutual exclusion problem not relying on atomicity [19, 20]. In [21], he studies in more detail the notion of single-writer multi-reader (SWMR) non-atomic register to implement communication between concurrent threads of computation; there, he distinguishes two variants, which he refers to as safe and regular. When a read operation to a SWMR safe register does not overlap with any write operations, then it will return the value stored in the register, but when it does overlap with a write operation then it may return a completely arbitrary value in the domain of the register. A SWMR regular register is a bit less erratic in the sense that a read operation overlapping with write operations will at least return any of the values actually being written. Raynal presented a straightforward generalisation of the notion of SWMR safe register to the multi-writer case [28]. How the notion of SWMR regular register should be generalised to the multi-writer case, however, is less obvious. Shao et al. discuss four possibilities [29].

The formalisms in [21, 28, 29] for studying the behaviour of non-atomic registers are not directly amenable for analysing the correctness of distributed algorithms by explicit-state model checking, e.g., using the mCRL2 toolset [7]. In fact, it is not clear whether the four variants of MWMR regular registers presented in [29] will lead to a finite-state model even if the number of readers and writers and the set of data values of the register are finite. In [23], Lamport demonstrates a method of modelling SWMR safe registers through repeatedly writing arbitrary values before settling on the desired value, but this approach does not generalise to multi-writer registers. The main contribution of this paper is to present process-algebraic models of multi-writer multi-reader safe, regular and also atomic registers that can be directly used in mCRL2 to analyse the correctness of distributed algorithms.

We have used our process-algebraic models to analyse to what extent various mutual exclusion algorithms are robust for relaxed non-atomicity requirements. We find that Peterson’s algorithm [27] no longer guarantees mutual exclusion if the atomicity requirement is relaxed for the turn register. A variant of Peterson’s algorithm presented in [4] does guarantee mutual exclusion even if registers are only safe. The variant presented in [29], however, does not guarantee mutual exclusion with regular registers, despite a claim that it does. We also find that some of the algorithms proposed in [31, 32] do not guarantee mutual exclusion for regular registers, which seems to contradict claims that they are immune to the problem of flickering bits during writes. When analysing Lamport’s 3-bit algorithm [20] we discovered that its mutual exclusion guarantee crucially depends on how one of the more complex statements of the algorithm is implemented. Finally, we confirm that Aravind’s BLRU algorithm [3], Dekker’s algorithm [1], Dijkstra’s algorithm [9] and Knuth’s algorithm [17] guarantee mutual exclusion even with safe registers.

This paper is organised as follows. In Section 2 we present some basic definitions pertaining to SWMR registers, including formalisations of Lamport’s notions of SWMR safe, regular and atomic registers. In Section 3 we present and discuss our process-algebraic definitions of MWMR safe, regular and atomic registers, and establish formal relationships with their SWMR counterparts. In Section 4 we compare our notion of MWMR regular register with the variants of MWMR regular registers proposed by [29]. In Section 5 we report on our analyses of the various mutual exclusion algorithms. Finally, we present conclusions and some ideas for future work in Section 6.
2 Single-writer multi-reader registers

The definitions presented in this section are adapted from [29] and [22].

We consider \( n \) threads operating on a register with values in a finite set \( D \) of register values; the initial value of the register will be denoted by \( d_{\text{init}} \). Threads are identified by a natural number in the set \( T = \{0, \ldots, n-1\} \). A read operation by thread \( i \in T \) on the register, with return value \( d \in D \), is a sequence \( r_i(d) = sr_i w_i r_i(d) \) consisting of an invocation \( sr_i \) (for “thread \( i \) starts to read”), and a matching response \( fr_i(d) \) (for: “the read by thread \( i \) finishes with return value \( d' \)”). A write operation of thread \( i \) on the register, with write value \( d \), is a sequence \( w_i(d) = sw_i(d) w_i \) consisting of an invocation \( sw_i(d) \) (for: “thread \( i \) starts to write value \( d' \)”) and a matching response \( fw_i \) (for: “the write by thread \( i \) finishes”). An operation of thread \( i \) is either a read operation or a write operation of that thread.

For every \( i \in T \), let \( A_i = \{sr_i, fr_i(d), sw_i(v), fw_i \mid d \in D\} \), and let \( A = \bigcup_{i \in T} A_i \). If \( \sigma \) is a sequence of elements of \( A \), then we denote by \( \sigma[i] \) the subsequence of \( \sigma \) consisting of the elements in \( A_i \). A schedule on a register is a finite or infinite sequence \( \sigma \) of elements of \( A \) such that \( \sigma[i] \) consists of alternating invocations and matching responses, beginning with an invocation, and if \( \sigma[i] \) is finite, ending with a response. Note that, by these requirements and our definition of the notion of operation, \( \sigma[i] \) can then be obtained as the concatenation of read and write operations \( o_0 o_1 o_2 \ldots \) executed by thread \( i \). We shall denote by \( \text{ops}(\sigma, i) \) the set of all operations executed by thread \( i \) (i.e., \( \text{ops}(\sigma, i) = \{o_0, o_1, o_2, \ldots\} \)) and by \( \text{ops}(\sigma) \) the set of all operations executed by any of the threads. It is technically convenient to include in \( \text{ops}(\sigma) \) a special write operation \( w_{\text{init}} \) that writes the initial value of the register. Then \( \text{ops}(\sigma) = \{w_{\text{init}}\} \cup \bigcup_{i \in T} \text{ops}(\sigma, i) \). We also use \( \text{reads}(\sigma) \) and \( \text{writes}(\sigma) \) for the subsets of \( \text{ops}(\sigma) \) respectively consisting of the read operations and the write operations only.

A schedule \( \sigma \) induces a partial order on \( \text{ops}(\sigma) \): if \( o, o' \in \text{ops}(\sigma) \), then we write \( o <_{\sigma} o' \) if, and only if, the response of \( o \) precedes the invocation of \( o' \) in \( \sigma \). We stipulate that \( w_{\text{init}} < o \) for all \( o \in \text{ops}(\sigma) \}\{w_{\text{init}}\}. Let \( r \in \text{ops}(\sigma) \) be a read operation and let \( w \in \text{ops}(\sigma) \) be a write operation. We say that \( w \) is fixed for \( r \) if \( w <_{\sigma} r \); \( \text{fix-writes}(\sigma, r) \) denotes the set of all writes that are fixed for \( r \). We say that \( w \) is relevant for \( r \) if \( r \not<_{\sigma} w \); \( \text{rel-writes}(\sigma, r) \) denotes the set of all writes in \( \text{ops}(\sigma) \) that are relevant for \( r \). Note that, by the inclusion of \( w_{\text{init}} \), the sets \( \text{rel-writes}(\sigma, r) \) and \( \text{fix-writes}(\sigma, r) \) are non-empty for all \( r \in \text{reads}(\sigma) \). We say that \( r \in \text{reads}(\sigma) \) can read from \( w \in \text{writes}(\sigma) \) if \( w \) is relevant for \( r \) and there does not exist \( w' \in \text{writes}(\sigma) \) such that \( w <_{\sigma} w' <_{\sigma} r \). An operation \( o \) has overlapping writes if there exists \( w \in \text{writes}(\sigma) \) such that \( o \not<_{\sigma} w \) and \( w \not<_{\sigma} o \).

In [29], a register model is defined as a set of schedules satisfying certain conditions. Restricting attention to single-writer multi-reader (SWMR) registers only, Lamport considers three register models: safe, regular and atomic [22]. We proceed to define Lamport’s models by formulating conditions on single-writer schedules, i.e., schedules in which all write operations are by one particular thread. If \( \sigma \) is a single-writer schedule, then, since a write cannot have overlapping writes, every non-empty finite set \( W \) of writes has a \( <_{\sigma}-\text{maximum} \), i.e., an element \( w \in W \) such that \( w <_{\sigma} w' \) for all \( w' \in W \setminus \{w\} \). Since writes that are fixed for \( r \) have their responses in the finite prefix of \( \sigma \) preceding the invocation of \( r \), we have that \( \text{fix-writes}(\sigma, r) \) is finite for every \( r \). Since \( \text{fix-writes}(\sigma, r) \) is non-empty, it always has a \( <_{\sigma}-\text{maximum} \).

\( ^1 \) The same operation may occur multiple times in \( \sigma[i] \). Henceforth, when we consider an operation in \( \sigma[i] \) we actually mean to refer to a specific occurrence in \( \sigma[i] \) of the operation. To disambiguate between two different occurrences of the same operation \( o \) we could, e.g., annotate each occurrence of \( o \) with its position in \( \sigma[i] \). We will not do so explicitly, because it will unnecessarily clutter the presentation. But the reader should keep in mind that, whenever we refer to an operation in a schedule \( \sigma \) we actually mean to refer to a particular occurrence of that operation in \( \sigma[i] \).
A SWMR register is safe if a read that does not have overlapping writes returns the most recently written value. A read that does have overlapping writes may return any arbitrary value in the domain $D$ of the register.

▶ **Definition 1.** A single-writer schedule $\sigma$ is safe if every read $r$ without overlapping writes returns the value written by the $<_\sigma$-maximum of the set fix-writes($\sigma, r$).

A SWMR register is regular if it is safe, and a read that has overlapping writes returns the value of one of the overlapping writes or the most recently written value.

▶ **Definition 2.** A single-writer schedule $\sigma$ is regular if every read $r$ returns either the value written by the $<_\sigma$-maximum of the set fix-writes($\sigma, r$) or the value of an overlapping write.

A SWMR register is atomic if all reads and writes behave as though they occur in some definite order. A serialisation is a total order $S$ on a subset $O$ of $\text{ops}(\sigma)$ that is consistent with $<_\sigma$ in the sense that for all $o, o' \in O$ we have that $o <_\sigma o'$ implies $o S o'$. A serialisation $(O, S)$ is legal if every read operation returns the value of the most recent write operation according to $S$, that is, whenever $r \in O$ is a read operation with return value $v$, then $v$ is the write value of $S$-maximum of rel-writes($\sigma, r$).

▶ **Definition 3.** A single-writer schedule $\sigma$ is atomic if $\text{ops}(\sigma)$ has a legal serialisation.

## 3 Multi-writer multi-reader registers

We now want to define multi-write multi-reader (MWMR) safe, regular and atomic registers. Since our goal is to verify the correctness of mutual exclusion algorithms by model checking, we prefer operational, process-algebraic definitions of register models over definitions in terms of schedules. We are going to define register models by giving recursive process definitions that, given the state of the register, admit certain interactions with the register, resulting in an update of the state of the register. Which information needs to be maintained in the state of the register depends on the register model, but the state of register should at least reflect which operations are currently active. So, with each register model $m \in \{s, r, a\}$ we associate a set of states $S_m$, and we assume that the following functions are defined on $S_m$:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text{rdrs}, \text{wrtrs}, \text{idle} & : S_m \to \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{T}) \\
\text{usr}_i, \text{ufr}_i, \text{ufw}_i & : S_m \to S_m \\
\text{usw}_i & : D \times S_m \to S_m.
\end{aligned}
$$

(1)

The mappings $\text{rdrs}$ returns the set of all threads that are currently reading, i.e., $i \in \text{rdrs}(s)$ if, and only if, thread $i$ has invoked a read operation but the matching response has not yet occurred. Similarly, $\text{wrtrs}$ returns the set of all threads that are currently writing, and $\text{idle}$ returns the set of all threads that are currently not reading and not writing. The mappings $\text{usr}_i$, $\text{ufr}_i$, $\text{usw}_i$, and $\text{ufw}_i$ perform update operations on the state of the register, corresponding to whether the most recent interaction of the register was an invocation ($\text{usr}_i$) or response ($\text{ufr}_i$) of a read, or an invocation ($\text{usw}_i$) or a response ($\text{ufw}_i$) of a write. The update operation $\text{usw}_i$ also takes the write value into account.

In the remainder of this section we shall first present our models of MWMR safe, regular and atomic registers, and then comment on the representation of these models in mCRL2.

### 3.1 MWMR Safe Registers

Lamport’s SWMR safe register model (see Definition 1) accounts for how reads and writes behave when they do not have overlapping writes, and how reads behave when they do have overlapping writes. To generalise Lamport’s notion to MWMR registers, we need to define
how writes behave when they have overlapping writes. We follow Raynal’s approach and define that when a write has overlapping writes, then its effect is that some arbitrary value in $\mathbb{D}$ is written to the register \[28\].

Our process-algebraic definition of a MWMR safe register is shown in Figure 1. The equation defines the behaviour of processes $R_s(d, s)$; the parameter $d \in \mathbb{D}$ reflects the current value of the register, and the parameter $s \in S_s$ reflects its current state. For the behaviour of the safe register it must be determined for every read or write operation of a thread whether, during its interaction with the register, there was an overlapping write operation by some other thread. Therefore, in addition to the functions specified in Equation 1, we presuppose on $S_s$ a predicate $\text{overlap}_i(s)$ such that $\text{overlap}_i(s)$ holds if during the interaction of thread $i$ with the register there was an overlapping write by another thread. At the response of a write that is not overlapping with other writes, the current value $d$ of the register needs to be replaced by the write value. Hence, whenever a write is invoked, the write value is stored in $s$ through $\text{usw}_i(s)$; this value can be retrieved with the mapping $\text{next}: S_s \to \mathbb{D}$ if the write had no overlapping writes. If there were overlapping writes, $\text{next}$ is undefined. The right-hand side of the equation in Figure 1 specifies the behaviour of the register using standard process-algebraic operations: $\cdot$ denotes sequential composition, $+$ denotes non-deterministic choice, $\rightarrow$ denotes a conditional, and $\sum$ denotes choice quantification [14].

The definition in Figure 1 induces a transition relations $\rightarrow_{\alpha} (a \in A)$ on the set of tuples $\langle d, s \rangle (d \in \mathbb{D}, s \in S_s)$. For instance, if $i \in \text{rdrs}(s)$ and $\neg \text{overlap}_i(s)$, then there is a transition

$$\langle d, s \rangle \xrightarrow{\text{fr}_i(d)} \langle d, \text{usw}_i(s) \rangle \; ,$$

according to the third summand of the definition in Figure 1; and if $i \in \text{wrtrs}(s)$ and $\text{overlap}_i(s)$, then, for every $d' \in \mathbb{D}$, there is a transition

$$\langle d, s \rangle \xrightarrow{\text{fw}_i} \langle d', \text{usw}_i(s) \rangle \; ,$$

according to the last summand of the definition in Figure 1.

We let $s_{\text{init}}$ denote the initial state of the safe register, and we define $\text{idle}(s_{\text{init}}) = \mathbb{T}$, $\text{wrtrs}(s_{\text{init}}) = \emptyset$, $\text{overlap}_i(s_{\text{init}})$ is false, and $\text{next}(s) = d_{\text{init}}$. Henceforth, we shall abbreviate $R_s(d_{\text{init}}, s_{\text{init}})$ by $R_s$. A trace of $R_s$ is a finite or infinite sequence $a_0a_1 \cdots a_{n-1}a_n \cdots$ of elements of $A$ such that there exist $d_0, d_1, d_2, \ldots, d_n, \ldots \in \mathbb{D}$ and $s_0, s_1, s_2, \ldots, s_n \in S_s$ with $d_0 = d_{\text{init}}$ and $s_0 = s_{\text{init}}$ and $\langle d_0, s_0 \rangle \xrightarrow{a_0} \langle d_1, s_1 \rangle \xrightarrow{a_1} \ldots \xrightarrow{a_{n-1}} \langle d_n, s_n \rangle \xrightarrow{a_n} \cdots$. We denote by $\mathcal{T}_s$ the set of all traces of $R_s$. A trace $\alpha \in \mathcal{T}_s$ is complete if, for all $i \in \mathbb{T}$, either $\alpha | i$ is infinite or $\alpha | i$ ends with a response. A single-writer trace is a trace in which all invocations and responses of write operations are by the same thread.

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\begin{align*}
R_s(d : \mathbb{D}, s : S_s) = & \sum_{i \in \mathbb{T}} \left( i \in \text{idle}(s) \rightarrow s\text{r}_i \cdot R_s(d, \text{usr}_i(s)) \right. \\
+ & \left. (i \in \text{idle}(s)) \rightarrow \sum_{d' \in \mathbb{D}} \text{sw}_i(d') \cdot R_s(d, \text{usr}_i(d', s)) \right. \\
+ & \left. (i \in \text{rdrs}(s) \land \neg \text{overlap}_i(s)) \rightarrow \text{fr}_i(d) \cdot R_s(d, \text{usw}_i(s)) \right. \\
+ & \left. (i \in \text{rdrs}(s) \land \text{overlap}_i(s)) \rightarrow \sum_{d' \in \mathbb{D}} \text{fr}_i(d') \cdot R_s(d, \text{usw}_i(s)) \right. \\
+ & \left. (i \in \text{wrtrs}(s) \land \neg \text{overlap}_i(s)) \rightarrow \text{fw}_i \cdot R_s(\text{next}(s), \text{usw}_i(s)) \right. \\
+ & \left. (i \in \text{wrtrs}(s) \land \text{overlap}_i(s)) \rightarrow \sum_{d' \in \mathbb{D}} \text{fw}_i \cdot R_s(d', \text{usw}_i(s)) \right) \\
\end{align*}
\end{figure}
We argue that there is a one-to-one correspondence between the single-writer safe schedules and the single-writer complete traces of $R_s$. First, note that schedules and complete traces adhere to exactly the same restrictions regarding the order in which invocations and responses of read and write operations can occur: the invocation of an operation by some thread can only occur when that same thread is not currently executing another operation, and a response to some thread for an operation can only occur if the last interaction of that thread was, indeed, an invocation of that same operation. Write values are not restricted in schedules, nor in complete traces. Moreover, in the single-writer case the value of the parameter $d$ of the process $R_s$ will always be the write value of write operation of which the execution finished last. Finally, note that both in schedules and in complete traces of $R_s$, if a read operation overlaps with a write operation, then it may return any value, and if it does not, then it will, indeed, return the value of the most recent write operation.

Proposition 4. Every single-writer safe schedule is a trace of $R_s$, and every complete single-writer trace of $R_s$ is a safe schedule.

3.2 MWMR regular registers

According to Lamport’s definition of SWMR regular registers (see Definition 2), a read either returns the write value of the $<_\sigma$-maximum of fix-writes($\sigma$, $r$) or the value written by one of its overlapping writes. When writes may have overlapping writes, then fix-writes($\sigma$, $r$) may not have a $<_\sigma$-maximum. It is then necessary to determine, for every read $r$, which of the $<_\sigma$-maximal elements of fix-writes($\sigma$, $r$) should be taken into account when determining the return value of $r$, and to what extent different reads should agree on this choice.

Our considerations are as follows. First, we want our MWMR regular register model to coincide with Lamport’s SWMR regular register model when there are no writes overlapping other writes, so that our analyses of algorithms that rely on SWMR regular registers are valid with respect to Lamport’s model. Second, our model should be suitable for explicit-state model checking. This precludes any definition that requires keeping track of unbounded information pertaining to the history of the computation. To limit the amount of information that the model is required to remember, we let the register commit to a unique value when there are no active writes. In this respect, our model deviates from three of the four models considered in [29]; in Section 4 we provide a more detailed comparison.

To be consistent with Lamport’s SWMR regular registers, a read $r$ should be able return the value of any overlapping write. To determine which of the elements of the fixed writes is taken into account when determining the return value of $r$, our model non-deterministically inserts a special order action $ow_i$ somewhere between the invocation and the response of every write of every thread $i \in T$. One may think of the order action as marking the moment at which the write truly takes place. Note that this order action is purely for modelling purposes, we make no claims on the implementation of a regular register. The write value associated with the most recent order action preceding the invocation of a read (or the initial value if no order actions have occurred yet) is taken into account as possible return value for that read. Thus, a serialisation of all writes is generated on-the-fly through the order actions: all read operations agree on the order of the writes.

Our process-algebraic definition of a MWMR regular register is given in Figure 2. Here, $S_r$ denotes the set of possible states of the MWMR regular register. The register keeps track of the readers, writers and idle threads, similar to the safe register. It additionally keeps track of the set $\text{pending}(s)$ of threads that have invoked a write but for which the order action has not yet occurred. The update function $uow_i : S_r \to S_r$ associated with the order action
To this end, we introduce, for every thread $i$, a process-algebraic model that should generate the legal serialisation of all operations on-the-fly. Thus, the set of traces described by our model includes all regular schedules according to Definition 2 whenever there are no writes overlapping other writes. Hence, a read in our model never returns a value that could not be returned according to Lamport’s SWMR definition of regular registers. Moreover, if there is a trace of $R_r$ in which the order action $ow_i$ of a write that overlaps with $r$ occurs before the invocation of $r$, then there also exist a trace in which it occurs after the invocation of $r$. Thus, the set of traces described by our model includes all regular schedules according to Definition 2 whenever there are no writes overlapping other writes.

$\begin{align*}
R_r(d : D, s : S_r) &= \sum_{\sigma \in \mathcal{T}} \begin{cases} 
(i \in idle(s)) \rightarrow sr_i \cdot R_r(d, usr_i(s)) \\
(i \in idle(s)) \rightarrow \sum_{d' \in \mathbb{D}} sw_i(d') \cdot R_r(d, usw_i(d', s)) \\
(i \in rdrs(s)) \rightarrow \sum_{d' \in \mathcal{P}_{\text{val}}(s)} fr_i(d') \cdot R_r(d, ufr_i(s)) \\
(i \in pndng(s)) \rightarrow ow_i \cdot R_r(uval_i(s), uow_i(s)) \\
(i \in wrtrs(s) \land i \notin pndng(s)) \rightarrow fw_i \cdot R_r(d, ufw_i(s)) 
\end{cases}
\end{align*}$

Figure 2 Regular register model.

$ow_i$ removes thread $i$ from $pndng(s)$. For every thread $i \in pndng(s)$, $uval_i(s)$ is the write value of that write; it is used to correctly update the current value $d$ of the register when $ow_i$ occurs. For every thread $i \in rdrs(s)$, $\mathcal{P}_{\text{val}}(s)$ is the set of values that a read $r$ invoked by thread $i$ may return. That is, it consist of the values of all writes overlapping with $r$ (thus far) and the value of the write with the most recent $ow_i$ before the invocation of $r$.

For $i \in \mathcal{T}$, let $A_r^i = A_i \cup \{ow_i\}$, and let $A_r^\mathcal{T} = \bigcup_{i \in \mathcal{T}} A_r^i$. The process definition in Figure 2 induces transition relations $\xymatrix{a \ar[r] & A_r}$ on the set of tuples $(d, s) (d \in D, s \in S_r)$. As before $idle(s_{\text{init}}) = \mathcal{T}$, $rdrs(s_{\text{init}}) = wrtrs(s_{\text{init}}) = \emptyset$. We also have $pndng(s_{\text{init}}) = \emptyset$, and $\mathcal{P}_{\text{val}}(s_{\text{init}}) = \emptyset$ for all $i \in \mathcal{T}$. The initial values for $uval_i(s_{\text{init}})$ do not matter, since $uval_i(s)$ only matters when $i \in pndng(s)$. We use $R_r$ to abbreviate $R_r(d_{\text{init}}, s_{\text{init}})$, and define a trace of $R_r$, also as before, as a finite or infinite sequence of elements of $A_r^\mathcal{T}$ appearing as labels in a transition sequence starting at $(d_{\text{init}}, s_{\text{init}})$. We denote by $\mathcal{T}_r$ the set of all traces of $R_r$.

Compared to schedules, the traces of $R_r$ have extra $ow_i$ actions. If $\alpha$ is a finite or infinite sequence of elements of $A_r^\mathcal{T}$, then we denote by $\bar{\alpha}$ the sequence of elements of $A$ obtained from $\alpha$ by deleting all occurrences of $ow_i (i \in \mathcal{T})$. We can then formulate a correspondence between the single-writer traces of $R_r$ (i.e., the traces in which all invocations and responses of write operations are by the same thread) and single-writer regular schedules.

If writes have no overlapping writes, then the most recent order action when a read $r$ is invoked either corresponds to the $<_r$-maximum of fix-writes($\sigma, r$), or to a write that overlaps with $r$. In the first case, the set of possible values that can be returned by the read according to our model will coincide with the set of possible values that it can return according to Definition 2. In the latter case, our model allows a subset of the values possible according to Definition 2 to be returned. Hence, a read in our model never returns a value that could not be returned according to Lamport’s SWMR definition of regular registers. Moreover, if there is a trace of $R_r$ in which the order action $ow_i$ of a write that overlaps with $r$ occurs before the invocation of $r$, then there also exist a trace in which it occurs after the invocation of $r$. Thus, the set of traces described by our model includes all regular schedules according to Definition 2 whenever there are no writes overlapping other writes.

- Proposition 5. For every single-writer regular schedule $\sigma$ there is a trace $\bar{\alpha}$ of $R_r$ such that $\bar{\alpha} = \sigma$, and if $\alpha$ is a complete single-writer trace of $R_r$, then $\bar{\alpha}$ is a regular schedule.

### 3.3 MWMR atomic registers

Definition 3, formalising Lamport’s notion of SWMR atomic register, straightforwardly generalises to MWMR registers by omitting the single-writer restriction on schedules. Our process-algebraic model should generate the legal serialisation of all operations on-the-fly. To this end, we introduce, for every thread $i$, execution actions $er_i$ and $ew_i$ to mark the exact moment at which an operation is treated as occurring. An operation’s execution action...
must, of course, occur between its invocation and response. The value that is returned at the response of a read is the value that the register stored at the moment of that read’s execution; the register’s stored value is updated to a write’s value at that write’s execution.

The process-algebraic model of our MWMR atomic register is shown in Figure 3. The set of states of $R_a$ is denoted by $S_a$. In addition to the standard update functions, there are extra update functions $uer_i, uew_i : S_a → S_a$ for the execution actions. The effect of applying $uer_i$ on $s$ is to store the current value $d$ of the register as the value that should be returned at the response of the active read by thread $i$; this value can then be retrieved with $vals_i(s)$, and $vals_i(s) = ⊥$ until then. The effect of applying $uew_i$ is to update the current value $d$ of the register to the write value of the active write by thread $i$; this value can also be retrieved with $vals_i(s)$, and $vals_i(s) = ⊥$ thereafter. Note that, by setting $vals_i(s)$ to $⊥$ before a read has been executed and after a write has been executed, we can use $vals_i(s)$ in combination with $rdrs(s)$ and $wrtrs(s)$ to determine whether the execution of an operation has taken place.

$$R_a(d : \mathbb{D}, s : S_a) = \sum_{a \in T} \begin{pmatrix} (i \in idle(s)) \rightarrow sr_i \cdot R_a(d, usr_i(s)) \\ + (i \in idle(s)) \rightarrow \sum_{d' \in D} sw_i(d') \cdot R_a(d, usw_i(d', s)) \\ + (i \in drds(s) \wedge vals_i(s) = ⊥) \rightarrow er_i \cdot R_a(d, uer_i(s)) \\ + (i \in wrtrs(s) \land vals_i(s) \neq ⊥) \rightarrow ew_i \cdot R_a(vals_i(s), uew_i(s)) \\ + (i \in drds(s) \land vals_i(s) \neq ⊥) \rightarrow fr(vals_i(s)) \cdot R_a(d, ufr_i(s)) \\ + (i \in wrtrs(s) \land vals_i(s) = ⊥) \rightarrow fw_i \cdot R_a(d, ufw_i(s)) \end{pmatrix}$$

Figure 3 Atomic register model.

For $i \in T$, let $A^a_i = A \cup \{er_i, ew_i\}$, and let $A^a = \bigcup_{i \in T} A^a_i$. The process definition in Figure 3 induces transition relations $\xrightarrow{a} (a \in A^a)$ on the set of tuples $(d, s) (d \in \mathbb{D}, s \in S_a)$. As before $idle(s_{init}) = T$ and $rdrs(s_{init}) = wrtrs(s_{init}) = \emptyset$; the initial values for $vals_i(s_{init})$ do not matter. We use $R_a$ to abbreviate $R_a(d_{init}, s_{init})$, and define a trace of $R_a$, also as before, as a finite or infinite sequence of elements of $A^a$ appearing as labels in a transition sequence starting at $(d_{init}, s_{init})$. We denote by $T_a$ the set of all traces of $R_a$.

Compared to schedules, the traces of $R_a$ have extra $er_i$ and $ew_i$ actions. If $\alpha$ is a finite or infinite sequence of elements of $A^a$, then we denote by $\hat{\alpha}$ the sequence obtained from $\alpha$ by deleting all occurrences of $er_i$ and $ew_i$ for $i \in T$. The correspondence between atomic schedules and complete traces of $R_a$ follows straightforwardly. It suffices to prove that $R_a$ admits exactly those traces $\alpha$ such that there exists a legal serialisation of $\hat{\alpha}$. To this end, note that the execute actions provide such a serialisation, and the definition of $R_a$ has the responses of operations behave in accordance with this serialisation.

Proposition 6. For every atomic schedule $\sigma$ there is a trace $\alpha$ of $R_a$ such that $\hat{\alpha} = \sigma$, and if $\alpha$ is a complete trace of $R_a$, then $\hat{\alpha}$ is an atomic schedule.

3.4 mCRL2 implementation

The mCRL2 toolset [7] provides tools for model checking and equivalence checking. Models are defined in the mCRL2 language [14], which comprises a process-algebraic specification language and facilitates the algebraic specification of data types. Properties defined in the
modal $\mu$-calculus can be checked on those models. One nice feature of mCRL2 is that when a property does not hold a counterexample can be generated. For more information we refer to [14] as well as the toolset’s website\(^2\).

We have implemented the models presented in Figures 1, 2 and 3 in the mCRL2 language. By adding processes that model the threads executing the desired algorithm in a manner compatible with the interface of the register models, we can verify the same algorithm easily under different atomicity assumptions. An added benefit is that we can assume different levels of atomicity for different registers simultaneously, so that we pinpoint exactly to what extent the algorithm is robust for non-atomicity. The model can be found as part of the examples delivered with the mCRL2 distribution\(^3\).

The mCRL2 language has support for standard data types such as sets, bags and arrays (implemented as mappings) as well an algebraic specification facility to define new datatypes. This allows us to model the register models staying close to the process-algebraic models presented in this paper.

4 Alternative definitions of MWMR regular registers

In [29] four definitions for MWMR regular registers are proposed. These are formulated as conditions on schedules. We discuss how our definition of MWMR regular registers relates to these definitions.

The following definition captures the weakest condition on schedules presented in [29].

Definition 7. A schedule $\sigma$ satisfies the weak condition if, for every read operation $r$ in $\text{ops}(\sigma)$, there exists a legal serialisation of $\text{writes}(\sigma) \cup \{r\}$.

It follows straightforwardly from our MWMR regular register definition that any complete trace $\alpha \in \mathcal{T}_r$, when transformed into a schedule $\bar{\alpha}$ by deleting the order actions, satisfies Definition 7. As explained in Section 3.2, our model generates a serialisation of all writes. For every read $r$ by thread $i$, it returns either the value of the last write in this serialisation before $sr_i$, or the value of one of the writes overlapping this read. In both cases, we may obtain a legal serialisation of $\text{writes}(\bar{\alpha}) \cup \{r\}$ by taking the serialisation of writes associated with $\bar{\alpha}$ and inserting $r$ right after the write that it reads from. This is consistent with $<_\sigma$ because the serialisation of the writes is, and $r$ will only be placed after a write that either has its response before the invocation of $r$, or that $r$ overlaps with.

Proposition 8. If $\alpha \in \mathcal{T}_r$ is complete, then the schedule $\bar{\alpha}$ satisfies the weak condition.

In all our MWMR register definitions it is the case that when no writes are active on a register, it stores a unique value. It reduces the burden of storing elaborate information on the execution history of the register, as would be necessary with the definitions of [29], and thus leads to a smaller statespace. A consequence of our choice is that not all schedules satisfying the weak condition can be generated by our model.

Example 9. Consider the schedule depicted in Figure 4a. It is argued in [29, Figure 6] that it satisfies the weak condition, but it cannot be generated by our regular register model $R_r$ because once $w_1$ and $w_2$ have ended, the register will have stored a unique value (either 1 or 2). Hence, the return values of $r_1$ and $r_2$ cannot be different. Note that, for the same reason, the schedule cannot be generated by our safe register model $R_s$.

\(^2\) https://www.mcrl2.org
\(^3\) https://github.com/mCRL2org/mCRL2/tree/master/examples/academic/non-atomic_registers (972629b)
As illustrated in the preceding example, there exist schedules satisfying the weak condition that cannot be generated by our safe register model \( R_w \). Conversely, it is easy to see that there exist complete traces generated by our safe register model \( R_s \) (e.g., with overlapping writes resulting in a value that is not written by any of the writes) that do not satisfy the weak condition.

The second condition in [29] associates with every read operation a serialisation and formulates a consistency requirement on these serialisations. If \( r \in \text{reads}(\sigma) \), then an \( r\)-serialisation is a serialisation \( S_r \) on \( \text{rel-writes}(\sigma) \cup \{r\} \).

\[ \text{Definition 10.} \] A schedule \( \sigma \) satisfies write-order if for each read \( r \) in \( \text{ops}(\sigma) \) there exists a legal serialisation \( S_r \) of \( \text{rel-writes}(\sigma) \cup \{r\} \) satisfying the following condition: for all reads \( r_1, r_2 \) in \( \text{ops}(\sigma) \), and for all writes \( w_1, w_2 \in \text{rel-writes}(\sigma, r_1) \cap \text{rel-writes}(\sigma, r_2) \), it holds that \( w_1 S_{r_1} w_2 \) if and only if \( w_1 S_{r_2} w_2 \).

\[ \text{Proposition 11.} \] For every schedule \( \sigma \) satisfying the write-order condition, there exists a trace \( \alpha \) in \( \mathcal{T}_r \) such that \( \tilde{\alpha} = \sigma \).

We give a brief, informal description of how such a trace \( \alpha \) can be constructed here; a more formal argument is presented in [30, Appendix A]. The idea is that order actions can be inserted between the invocation and response of every write in \( \sigma \), such that the return values of the reads match this placement of order actions. Note that for reads that return the value of an overlapping write, this return value is possible according to Figure 2 regardless of how the order actions are placed. In our placement of order actions, we therefore only need to carefully consider reads that return the value of a write that is fixed for them. According to Definition 10, reads in \( \sigma \) agree on the relative ordering of all writes that are relevant to them. Since \( \text{fix-writes}(\sigma, r) \subseteq \text{rel-writes}(\sigma, r) \) for every read \( r \), the reads also agree on the relative ordering of the fixed writes. We use this information to construct an ordering on all writes that is consistent both with \( <_r \) and with the return values of reads that read from writes that are fixed for them. Effectively, we find a single view on the relative order of all the write operations that is possible for every read in the schedule that returns the value of a fixed write. Using this ordering, we can then place the order actions in the schedule \( \sigma \) to create the trace \( \alpha \in \mathcal{T}_r \) such that \( \tilde{\alpha} = \sigma \).

---

4 By considering serialisations of the relevant writes for \( r \), instead of all writes, we deviate from [29]. Since a serialisation \( S \) on \( \text{writes}(\sigma) \cup \{r\} \) must be consistent with \( <_r \), we will have that \( r S w \) for all \( w \in \text{writes}(\sigma) \setminus \text{rel-writes}(\sigma) \). It follows that the restriction of a serialisation \( S \) on \( \text{writes}(\sigma) \cup \{r\} \) to \( \text{rel-writes}(\sigma) \cup \{r\} \) is an \( r\)-serialisation, and \( S \) is legal if, and only if, its restriction is.
Whilst every schedule satisfying Definition 10 corresponds to a trace of our model, not every schedule with a corresponding trace in our model is allowed by the write-order condition.

Example 12. Consider Figure 4b. This schedule is allowed by our model; $r_1$ can read 2 in $x$ because it overlaps with $w_2$ and it is possible for $r_2$ to read 1 if the order action of $w_2$ is done before the order action of $w_1$. This schedule does not meet Definition 10 however; since both writes to $x$ are relevant for both reads, the two reads must agree on the respective order of the writes. For $r_2$ to read 1, it must be the case that $w_2 S_r_2 w_1$. But since $w_1 < r_1$ according to the schedule, this means that $w_2 S_r_1 w_1 S_r_1 r_1$, so $r_1$ cannot read 2.

The third and fourth conditions on schedules proposed in [29] we refer to as reads-from [29, Definition 9] and no-inversion [29, Definition 10], respectively. We do not recall these conditions here, and instead refer to [29] for more details.

Our notion of MWMR regular register is incomparable with the notions induced by the reads-from and no-inversion conditions on schedules. First, as already indicated, every schedule that satisfies the write-order condition is also allowed by our model. As it is proven in [29] that the write-order condition is incomparable with the reads-from and no-inversion conditions, this means our model admits schedules not admitted by these definitions. To see that not all schedules satisfying reads-from and no-inversion are admitted by our model, it suffices to observe that the schedule presented in Figure 4a, which is not admitted by our MWMR regular register model, satisfies the reads-from and the no-inversion conditions. (See, e.g., [29, Figure 8] and [29, Figure 9], which satisfy the reads-from and no-inversion conditions, respectively, and have the schedule in Figure 4a as prefix.)

5 Verifying Mutual Exclusion Protocols

We have used the register processes described in Section 3 to analyse several well-known mutual exclusion algorithms. To this end, we have modelled the behaviour of the threads as prescribed by the algorithm also as processes, which interact with the register processes. That a thread is executing its non-critical section is represented in our model by the action noncrit, and that is executing its critical section is represented by the action crit; both actions are parameterised with the thread id. We have checked the following two properties.

Property 1 (Mutex). There is no state reachable from the initial state of the model in which there are two distinct threads $i$ and $j$ such that $\text{crit}(i)$ and $\text{crit}(j)$ are both enabled in this state.

Property 2 (Reach). For all threads $i$, always after an occurrence of a noncrit($i$) action it holds that, as long as a crit($i$) action has not happened, a state is reachable in which crit($i$) is enabled.

The Reach property is implied by starvation freedom, and so if it does not hold, then neither does starvation freedom. We chose to analyse this property rather than starvation freedom itself because the presence of busy waiting loops in our models would require us to use fairness assumptions to dismiss spurious counterexamples. The question of how to interpret fairness assumptions when dealing with non-atomic registers is outside of the scope of this paper.

The results of our verification are shown in Table 1. When doing model checking, we have to instantiate a specific number of threads. We have restricted our verification to three threads for all algorithms, except for Dekker, Attiya-Welch and Peterson, which are only defined for two threads.
### Table 1 Results of verifying mutual exclusion algorithms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Algorithm</th>
<th>Safe Mutex</th>
<th>Safe Reach</th>
<th>Regular Mutex</th>
<th>Regular Reach</th>
<th>Atomic Mutex</th>
<th>Atomic Reach</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aravind (BLRU) [3, Figure 4]</td>
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<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attiya-Welch [4, Algorithm 12]</td>
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<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attiya-Welch alternate [29, Figure 19.1]</td>
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<td>×</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>×</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dijkstra [9]</td>
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<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
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<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lamport (3-bit) [20, Figure 2]</td>
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<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peterson [27]</td>
<td>×</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>×</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Szymanski (flag) [31, Figure 2]</td>
<td>×</td>
<td>×</td>
<td>×</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Szymanski (flag with bits)</td>
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<td>✓</td>
<td>×</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Szymanski (3-bit lin. wait) [32, Figure 1]</td>
<td>×</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>×</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>×</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this section, we discuss some of our most interesting findings. For complete descriptions of counterexamples, as well as further discussion of our results we refer to [30, Appendix B]. All models are available through GitHub\(^5\).

### 5.1 Peterson's Algorithm

**Algorithm 1** Peterson’s algorithm for two threads from [27]. We use \(i\) for the thread’s own id and \(j\) for the other thread’s id.

1: \(\text{flag}[i] \leftarrow 1\)
2: \(\text{turn} \leftarrow i\)
3: \(\text{await flag}[j] = 0 \lor \text{turn} = j\)
4: **critical section**
5: \(\text{flag}[i] \leftarrow 0\)

Peterson’s classic algorithm (see Algorithm 1) was not designed to be correct under non-atomic register assumptions. An analysis of the mutual exclusion violation with safe registers still gives interesting insights into the algorithm and some of the unexpected behaviour of safe registers.

**Figure 5** Counterexample generated by mCRL2 for mutual exclusion for Peterson’s algorithm with safe registers, represented on a timeline.

\(^5\) https://github.com/mCRL2org/mCRL2/tree/master/examples/academic/non-atomic_registers (972629b)
As expected, mCRL2 reports that mutual exclusion does not hold when using non-atomic registers. We present a visualisation of the counterexample generated by mCRL2 for safe registers in Figure 5. There are two instances of overlapping operations. First, since the two writes to \textit{turn}, labelled $w_3$ and $w_4$ in Figure 5, overlap, according to the safe register model the register can have any arbitrary value after they both have ended. In this counterexample, \textit{turn} has the value 1, which allows thread 0 to read the value 1 (the read labelled $r_4$) and enter the critical section. Second, thread 1’s read of \textit{turn} (labelled $r_2$) overlaps with thread 0’s write (labelled $w_4$). The read can therefore return an arbitrary value, in this case the value 0, which allows thread 1 to enter the critical section.

This counterexample shows only overlaps on the \textit{turn} register. We can initialise our model such that the \textit{turn} register is atomic, but both \textit{flag} registers behave as safe registers. We find that mutual exclusion does hold then. This confirms that overlapping operations on the \textit{turn} register are the sole cause of the mutual exclusion violation for Peterson’s algorithm.

We discuss Peterson’s algorithm with regular registers in [30, Appendix B].

### 5.2 Szymanski’s Flag Algorithm

\begin{algorithm}[H]
\caption{Szymanski’s flag algorithm from [31], $i$ is the thread’s own id.}
\begin{algorithmic}[1]
\State $\text{flag}[i] \leftarrow 1$
\State $\text{await } \forall j. \text{flag}[j] < 3$
\State $\text{flag}[i] \leftarrow 3$
\If {$\exists j. \text{flag}[j] = 1$}
\State $\text{flag}[i] \leftarrow 2$
\EndIf
\State $\text{await } \exists j. \text{flag}[j] = 4$
\State $\text{flag}[i] \leftarrow 4$
\State $\text{await } \forall j < i. \text{flag}[j] < 2$
\State \textbf{critical section}
\State $\text{await } \forall j > i. \text{flag}[j] < 2 \lor \text{flag}[j] > 3$
\State $\text{flag}[i] \leftarrow 0$
\end{algorithmic}
\end{algorithm}

There are several variants of Szymanski’s algorithm, which all seem to have been derived from the flag-based algorithm shown as Algorithm 2. In [31], Szymanski proposes this flag-based algorithm and claims that an implementation of it representing the flags using three bits is robust for flickering of bits (i.e., is correct for non-atomic registers). As indicated in Table 1, we find that neither the integer nor the bits variant ensure mutual exclusion when using non-atomic registers. The full analysis of the bits version, as well as a variant of it known as the 3-bit linear wait algorithm [32] are presented in [30, Appendix B]. Here, we only discuss the integer version of the flag algorithm, as the counterexample against Mutex that we have found illustrates the core issue shared by all mentioned variants of Szymanski’s algorithm.

The pseudocode for the flag algorithm is shown in Algorithm 2. It is originally presented in [31, Figure 2], but note that we have repaired an obvious typo: [31, Figure 2] erroneously has a conjunction instead of a disjunction in line 10. All \textit{flag} registers are initialised at 0.

See Figure 6 for a visualisation of the counterexample for mutual exclusion with two threads and regular registers that we found using the mCRL2 toolset. The first instance of a read overlapping with a write is irrelevant, reading $\text{flag}[1] = 1$ would also have been possible without overlap. The other two instances of overlap are of interest. Thread 0 is writing the value 3 to $\text{flag}[0]$ and thread 1 reads $\text{flag}[0]$ twice while this write is active. The first
time it reads the new value (3), while the second time it reads the old value (1). Lamport specifically highlights that such a sequence is possible when using regular registers [22]. Since only single-writer registers are used and write-order reduces to Lamport’s definition of regular registers when single-writers in that case [29], this counterexample is also valid for write-order.

5.3 Implementation Details

Our analyses have also revealed that seemingly minor implementation subtleties can make the difference between a correct and an incorrect algorithm. A non-atomic register that is read multiple times in a row may return different values, even if no new writes to this register have started. This means that when the value of a register needs to be checked several times in an algorithm, there is a difference between reading it once and subsequently checking a local copy of the value, or reading it again when needed.

For an example where this affects correctness, consider the Attiya-Welch algorithm. While the presentation in [4, p. 77] ensures reachability of the critical section with safe registers, the seemingly equivalent reformulation of this same algorithm in [29] does not. The latter suggests that a thread needs to read a particular register twice as part of two different conditions that in the former are handled simultaneously. In [29], that presentation of the algorithm is claimed to be correct under all four of their MWMR regular register models; our counterexample shows that it is not. A similar phenomenon occurs with Lamport’s 3-bit algorithm, in which each thread $i$ has a bit $z_i$. As part of the algorithm, a computation is done on $z$ (the function assigning $z_i$ to $i$). Lamport states that “evaluating $[z]$ at $j$ requires a read of the variable $z_j$.” This may lead one to implement this algorithm by having threads re-read variables whenever needed. It turns out this implementation leads to a deadlock. Locally saving all required $z$-values at the start of the computation and then only referencing this local copy during the computation solves this issue. Consequently, these algorithms have a correct implementation, but they are also easily implemented incorrectly. See the discussions of Attiya-Welch and Lamport in [30, Appendix B] for more details.

5.4 Other Verifications

There have been many mechanical verifications of mutual exclusion algorithms with atomic registers. For instance, in recent tutorials on the verification of distributed algorithms in mCRL2, verifications of Dekker’s and Peterson’s algorithms are presented [12, 13]. Several such verifications have also been done with the CADP toolset; see, e.g., [26] for the results of verifying a large number of mutual exclusion algorithms, including Szymanski, Dekker and Peterson, with atomic registers.

To the best of our knowledge, we are the first to propose a systematic approach to mechanically verifying the correctness of mutual exclusion algorithms with respect to non-atomic registers, but there have been some mechanical verifications for specific algorithms.
Lamport himself modelled the Bakery algorithm in TLA+, representing the non-atomic writes as sequences of write actions of arbitrary length, where every action results in an arbitrary value being written, except for the last which writes the intended value [23]. This approach for modelling safe registers only works for SWMR registers; it does not work for MWMR registers. This approach for modelling safe SWMR registers, as well as a similar approach for modelling regular SWMR registers, is presented in [2]. This approach is also used in several verifications done by Wim Hesselink, including of the Lycklama–Hadzilacos–Aravind algorithm in [16] and the Bakery algorithm in [15].

In [8], several mutual exclusion algorithms are verified with atomic registers using timed automata in UPPAAL. Additionally, the Block & Woo algorithm is checked with bit flickering. Their model does not account for writes that overlap with other writes. Additionally, their model for the behaviour of safe registers is specific to the registers used in the algorithm.

Dekker’s algorithm with safe registers is considered in [6]. There it is demonstrated that Dekker’s algorithm does not satisfy starvation freedom when safe registers are used, and a fixed version of the algorithm is presented.

Szymanski’s flag algorithm with atomic registers is proven correct in [25]. This paper demonstrates the importance of checking all threads in the “forall” and “exists” statements in the pseudocode in the same order every time. This is also how we model the algorithm.

There have been other verifications of Szymanski’s algorithms [24, 33], the former paper using the STeP tool. However, the exact pseudocode in those proofs differs from the pseudocode in [31] and [32].

6 Conclusions

We have presented process-algebraic models of safe, regular and atomic multi-writer multi-reader registers and used them to determine the robustness of various mutual exclusion algorithms for relaxed atomicity assumptions. Our analyses revealed issues with several of the algorithms discussed.

There are many more mutual exclusion algorithms that could be analysed in the same way as the ones shown in Section 5. In [32], Szymanski presents three other mutual exclusion algorithms. There also exist several variants of Szymanski’s algorithm [24, 33], all of which are similar to the 3-bit linear wait algorithm but differ in small ways. In [6] it is shown that Dekker’s algorithm does not ensure starvation freedom when safe registers are used and a modified version of the algorithm is presented which does satisfy this property. When we add verification of starvation freedom to our analysis, we can confirm their work.

We have only considered to what extent various algorithms guarantee mutual exclusion and whether the critical section is always reachable for every thread. Our next step will be to consider starvation freedom. Van Glabbeek proves that starvation freedom cannot hold for any mutual exclusion algorithm for which the correctness, on the one hand, relies on atomicity of memory interactions and, on the other hand, does not rely on assumptions regarding the relative speeds of threads [10]. A crucial presupposition for his argument is that a convincing verification hinges on not more than a component-based fairness assumption called justness [11]. In [5] a method is proposed for verifying liveness properties under justness assumptions using the mCRL2 toolset. The method requires a classification of the roles of components in interactions. It should be investigated how to classify the roles of threads and registers in invocations and responses, and, in particular, how to deal with the owi, ewi and eri actions.
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