Models of fault-tolerant distributed computation via dynamic epistemic logic

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Abstract

The computability power of a distributed computing model is determined by the communication media available to the processes, the timing assumptions about processes and communication, and the nature of failures that processes can suffer. In a companion paper we showed how dynamic epistemic logic can be used to give a formal semantics to a given distributed computing model, to capture precisely the knowledge needed to solve a distributed task, such as consensus. Furthermore, by moving to a dual model of epistemic logic defined by simplicial complexes, topological invariants are exposed, which determine task solvability. In this paper we show how to extend the setting above to include in the knowledge of the processes, knowledge about the model of computation itself. The extension describes the knowledge processes gain about the current execution, in problems where processes have no input values at all.

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1 Introduction

Dynamic epistemic logic (DEL) considers multi-agents systems and studies how knowledge changes when communication events occur. An epistemic S5 model is typically used to represent states of a multi-agent system, where edges of the Kripke structure are labeled with the agents that do not distinguish between the two states. A Kripke model represents the knowledge of the agents about an initial situation, and an action model represents their knowledge about the possible events taking place in this situation. A product update operator defines the Kripke model that results as a consequence of executing actions on the initial model. In the simplest case, public announcement to all the agents of a formula \( \psi \) are considered, but there is a general logical language to reason about information and knowledge change \([3, 4]\) to represent the execution of actions that are indistinguishable to a process.

We are interested in using DEL to study the computability power of a distributed computing model. It is known that the computability power of a model is determined by the communication media available to the processes, the timing assumptions about processes and communication, and the types of failures that processes can suffer. The basic model consists of a set of processes communicating by writing and reading shared registers, each process runs at its own speed that can vary and is independent of other processes speed, and any number of processes can fail by crashing. A task, such as consensus, is defined by possible input values to the processes, output values to be produced at the end of the protocol, and an input/output relation. The wait-free theorem of \([15]\) characterizes the tasks that are solvable in this model, by exposing the intimate relation between topology and distributed computing. It shows that the topology of the input complex is fully preserved after a read/write wait-free protocol is executed, and paved the way to show that other models also carry topological information that determines their computability power; for an overview of the theory see \([14]\).

In a companion paper \([12]\) we show how DEL can be used to give a formal semantics to a given distributed computing model, capturing precisely the knowledge needed to solve a task. To expose the underlying topological invariants induced by the action model, a simplicial complex model corresponding, in a precise categorical sense, to the dual of the Kripke structure is used. In the figure below, \( I \) is the input model, an initial epistemic simplicial complex model (equivalent to Kripke model), and the protocol model \( P \) is the product with an action model, representing the knowledge gained after a certain number of communication steps. The action model
preserves topological invariants from the initial model $I$ to the complex $P$ after the communication actions have taken place. We explored a class of action models that fully preserve the topology of the initial complex. For a given task, we defined another knowledge goal action model, that when used to make the product with the initial epistemic model, yields an epistemic model $\Delta$ representing what the agents should be able to know to solve the task, after applying the communication action model. There is sufficient knowledge in $P$ if there exists a (properly defined) morphism $h$ from $P$ to $\Delta$ that makes the diagram (of underlying Kripke frames) commute.

**Motivation** While many distributed problems have the flavor of a distributed function, and can be defined as a task, some actually do not refer to input/output relations, but to properties about the execution itself; processes have no inputs at all. All these problems share a striking commonality. There is just one initial state of the system, and the initial Kripke model of the setting in [12] consists of just one state. Indeed, all processes have exactly the same knowledge initially. Then, no matter what the action model is, in the final protocol Kripke model after any number of communication steps, the processes gain no knowledge. This indeed implies that there is nothing the processes can compute in terms of producing outputs from input values. This contradicts the fact that there are wait-free distributed algorithms for many inputless problems.

**Contributions** Indeed, the problem above is that the processes do not know the model of computation itself. We propose a novel way of using DEL to encode a given model of computation as knowledge that the processes have in the initial Kripke model. The processes know the model in the sense that they know which actions the environment can take, and their structure. Then, in the protocol Kripke model, processes do gain knowledge about the execution. How much knowledge is determined by the model of computation itself, encoded in the action model. Then we can indeed prove, that an inputless problem is solvable if and only if in the protocol Kripke model the processes gained sufficient knowledge to solve it.

In this paper we work out only the case of inputless tasks, where each process should produce a single output value. We first present the setting using Kripke models, and then we observe that by moving from Kripke
models to their dual as in [12], topological invariants are exposed which determine the solvability of a given inputless task. Also, we concentrate on iterated models, where the setting becomes very elegant, due to their recursive nature. Furthermore, for concreteness, we work with the case where processes communicate by a sequence of shared arrays: they all go through the same sequence in the same order, i.e. in each one, they first write a value and then they take an atomic snapshot of the array.

In this setting our action model becomes very simple. The environment can schedule the processes to do their operations in a given round, by deciding an interleaving of their write and read operations. We call such an interleaving a joint action of the environment. To be more specific, the initial Kripke model (that we call $M_0$ in the sequel) contains one state for each such joint action. The atomic proposition associated with each of these states means, informally, that the processes consider the joint action as a possible future event of the environment. Furthermore, in the input model $A$ all states are indistinguishable to all processes. Now, the action model $A$ has also one action point for each possible joint action, but here the accessibility relation is non-trivial. Two states are related to process $i$ if the process could not distinguish which of the two joint actions actually took place. Then, the product of $M_0$ and $A$ gives a protocol model $M_1$, which then should have sufficient knowledge to solve the task.

Related work Seminal work on knowledge and distributed systems is of course one of the inspirations of the present work (and of [12]), e.g. [21], as well as the combinatorial topology approach for fault-tolerant distributed computing, see e.g. [14]. But the authors know no previous work on relating the combinatorial topological methods of [14] with Kripke models. It should be mentioned though that between Kripke models and interpreted systems have also been compared, from a categorical perspective in e.g. [20].

In this paper we use dynamic epistemic logic (DEL) [5, 9]. Complex epistemic actions can be represented in action model logic [4, 9]. Various examples of epistemic actions have been considered, especially public announcement logic, a well-studied example of DEL, with many applications in dynamic logics, knowledge representation and other formal methods areas. However, to the best of our knowledge, it has not been used in distributed computing theory, where fault-tolerance is of primal interest. DEL [4, 9] extends epistemic logic through dynamic operators formalizing information change. Plaza [19] first extended epistemic logic to model public announcements, where the same information is transmitted to all agents. Next, a
variety of approaches (e.g., [3, 9]) generalized such a logic to include com-
communication that does not necessarily reach all agents. Here, we build upon
the approach developed by Baltag et al. [3] employing action models. We
have focused in this paper on the classical semantics of multi-modal S5 log-
ics.

Many inputless problems have been considered in the past. For example,
the participating set problem [7] and its variants, where processes should pro-
duce as output sets of processes ids that they have seen participating in an
execution, such that any two such sets can be ordered by containment, plays
a role in the set agreement impossibility proof of [6, 22]. Other examples of
inputless problems include the timestamp object of [10] (called weak counter
in [13]). A weak counter provides a single operation, Get-Timestamp, which
returns an integer. It has the property that if one operation precedes an-
other, the value returned by the later operation must be larger than the
value returned by the earlier one. (Two concurrent Get-Timestamp oper-
ations may return the same value.) Also, the test&set object, specifying
that in any execution exactly one process should output 1 and the others
should output 0.

2 Distributed systems background

We describe our setting in a concrete family of models, that are of interest
in distributed computing. We first recall some basic notions about shared
memory computation, e.g. [2, 16]. Then we represent the executions of a
model in a state/transition framework adapting adapt the model of [18] (in
turn following the style of [21]).

2.1 Distributed computing models

Our basic model is the one-round read/write asynchronous model, WR. It
consists of $n + 1$ processes denoted by the numbers $[n] = \{0, 1, \ldots, n\}$, re-
ferred to as ids. A process is a deterministic (possibly infinite) state machine.
Processes communicate through a shared memory array $\text{mem}[0\ldots n]$ which
consists of $n + 1$ single-writer/multi-reader atomic registers. Each process
accesses the shared memory by invoking the atomic operations $\text{write}(x)$ or
$\text{read}(j)$, $0 \leq j \leq n$. The $\text{write}(x)$ operation is used by process $i$ to write
value $x$ to its own register, $i$, and process $i$ can invoke $\text{read}(j)$ to read reg-
ister $\text{mem}[j]$, for any $0 \leq j \leq n$. Any interleaving of the $\text{write}()$ and $\text{read}(j)$
operations of the processes is possible. The protocol $D$ that the processes
execute represent their state machines, they define the next operation to
execute, and what to remember. To have concrete examples, it is convenient to assume the protocol has the following canonical form. In its first operation, process \( i \) writes a value to \( \text{mem}[i] \), then a process reads each of the \( n+1 \) registers, in an arbitrary order. Such a sequence of read operations, is abbreviated by Collect(), and when it is preceded by a write(\( x \)) it is abbreviated by WCollect(\( x \)). In the one-round read/write asynchronous model, WR, the protocol of each process consists of a single WCollect(\( x \)). A protocol in this canonical form has to determine only the values the processes write to the shared memory, and what do they remember about the values read from the shared memory, but the next operation to execute is determined by the round structure of the WR model. More generally, in the \( N \)-multi-round read/write model WR, the program of every process consists of a sequence of \( N \) WCollect() operations.

The iterated WR model, is obtained by composing the one-round WR model \( N \) times. Processes communicate through a sequence of arrays, \( \text{mem}_1, \text{mem}_2, \ldots, \text{mem}_N \). They all go through the sequence of arrays, executing a single WCollect() operation on \( \text{mem}_r \), for each \( r \geq 0 \). Namely, each process \( i \) executes one write to \( \text{mem}_r[i] \) and then reads one by one all entries \( j, \text{mem}_r[j], \) in arbitrary order, before proceeding to do the same on \( \text{mem}_{r+1} \). Again, any interleaving of the operations of the processes is possible.

Several sub-models have been considered in the literature, equivalent to each other in terms of their task computability power (for an overview of such results see [14]). The snapshot version of the previous models, is obtained by replacing the WCollect() by a WSnap() operation, that guarantees that the reads of the \( n+1 \) registers happen all atomically, at the same time. To obtain versions that tolerate \( t \) processes crashing, in each round, a process writes a value and then repeatedly reads the shared memory (either using a collect or snapshot, depending on the model) until it sees that at least \( n+1-t \) processes have written a value for that round. Finally, the more structured immediate snapshot WR models, are such that executions are organised in concurrency classes (here a \( t \)-resilient version is not obtained directly [8]). Each concurrency class consists of a set of processes, that are all scheduled to do their write operations concurrently, and then they all execute a snapshot operation concurrently.

In this paper we assume processes have no inputs; all processes are in the same initial state (differing only in their process ids).
2.2 States and actions

In addition to the set of processes, $0, 1, 2, \ldots, n$, there is an environment, denoted by $e$, which is used to model the shared memory, as well as the scheduling of the operations of the processes. For every $i \in \{e, 0, 1, \ldots, n\}$, there is a set $L_i$ consisting of all possible local states for $i$. The set of global states, simply called states, consist of $\mathcal{G} = L_e \times L_0 \times \cdots \times L_n$. We denote by $x_i$ the local state of $i$ in the state $x$. Notice that in the above models, given a state $x$, that includes the contents of the shared-memory in the environment’s state, scheduling a set of processes to execute their next operations, uniquely determines the subsequent state of the system. This is the state resulting by executing the next operations by the scheduled processes, and updating the environment’s state to reflect the contents of the shared-memory accordingly, and the new local states of the processes that executed an operation. A scheduling action is a set $\text{Sched} \subseteq \{0, \ldots, n\}$ of the processes that are scheduled to move next. Thus, a run of a deterministic protocol $D$ can be represented in the form $x \circ sa_1 \circ sa_2 \circ \cdots$ where $x$ is an initial state and $sa_i$ is a scheduling action for every integer $i \geq 0$. An execution is a subinterval of a run, starting and ending in a state. Sometimes it is convenient to talk about composed scheduling actions, consisting of a sequence of scheduling actions $[sa_1, sa_2, \ldots, sa_k]$. Given an execution $R$ (possibly consisting of just one state), and a (possibly composed) scheduling action $sa$, $R \circ sa$ denotes the execution that results from extending $R$ by performing the (composed) scheduling action $sa$.

Let $\text{Sch}$ be the set of all infinite schedules of a given distributed computing model, and let $N - \text{Sch}$ the set of all the prefixes, where every process takes $N$ steps. The set of all $N$-step schedules for the write-collect models is denoted $\text{WR}_R$, and can be viewed as all permutations of the process ids, where each id appears exactly $N$ times (although we often organise such a permutation as a sequence of sets, a composed scheduling action). The set of all $N$-step schedules for the other models are denoted analogously, $\text{IS}_R$ and $\text{IIS}_R$. Thus, when $N$ is clear from the context, we omit it.

Finally, we define an $N$-step model aware system that will serve us well to define an epistemic model, by including in the environment’s state the schedule itself. This implies that the environment also runs a deterministic protocol. Namely, for each possible $N$-step schedule in the model, there is one initial state of the environment. All initial states of the environment have the shared memory empty. There is a single initial state of each process.

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1 When non-commuting operations are included in the schedule, we assume some fixed a priori ordering to execute them, say always first the writes and then the reads.
associated to its id $i$. Thus, the initial states $G_0$ of a model are as follows. The initial states of all processes are identical, except that the initial state of process $i$ contains its id $i$. The initial states of the environment are in a 1 to 1 correspondence to all possible composed scheduling actions of the model. For each $N$-step composed scheduling action there is an initial state of the environment. In addition, the environment’s state encodes that the shared memory is initially empty. Thus, each state in $G_0$ can be denoted as $x = ([s_0, \ldots, s_k], q_0, q_1, \ldots, q_n)$, where $x_e = [s_0, \ldots, s_k]$ is an initial state of the environment (specifying that each process takes $N$ steps, and in which order) and $x_i = q_i$ is the initial state of process $i$. The only scheduling action that can be applied to $x$ is $[s_0, \ldots, s_k]$, and once a distributed protocol $D$ is fixed, it defines a unique execution, $x \odot [s_0, \ldots, s_k]$ whose last state is a $N$-step protocol state. The set of all such states is denoted $G_P$.

3 Distributed computing with DEL

The distributed computing modeling in Section 2.1 is based on executions. Here we rephrase it using Kripke models.

3.1 Kripke frames

A Kripke frame is defined in terms of a set of (global) states, together with the following accessibility relation. Two states $u, v \in S$ are indistinguishable by $a$, $u \sim_a v$, if and only if the state of process $a$ is the same in $u$ and in $v$. Notice that $u \sim_a v$ defined this way is indeed an equivalence relation.

Let $M = \langle S, \sim^A \rangle$ and $N = \langle T, \sim^A \rangle$ be two Kripke frames. A morphism of Kripke frame $M$ to $N$ is a function $f$ from $S$ to $T$ such that for all $u, v \in S$, for all $a \in A$, $u \sim_a v$ implies $f(u) \sim_a f(v)$. It easy is to check that morphisms compose. We call $\mathcal{K}$ the category of Kripke frames, with morphisms of Kripke frames. This category enjoys many interesting properties, among which the fact that cartesian products exist. Let $M = \langle S, \sim^A \rangle$ and $N = \langle T, \sim^A \rangle$ be two Kripke frames, and define $M \times N = \langle U, \sim^A \rangle$ as follows: states $U$ are pairs $u = (s, t)$ of states $s \in S$ and $t \in T$ and the accessibility relation is defined as $(s, t) \sim_a (s', t')$ if and only if $s \sim_a s'$ and $t \sim_a t'$.

Lemma 1 The product of Kripke frames is the cartesian product in the categorical sense, coming with projections $\pi_M : M \times N \rightarrow M$ and $\pi_N : M \times N \rightarrow N$, which are morphisms of Kripke frames.
3.2 Distributed computability in terms of Kripke frames

Fix a model of distributed computation with \( N \)-step schedules \( \mathcal{S}_\text{ch} \), and the corresponding initial states \( \mathcal{G}_0 \) as defined at the end of Section 2.2. The initial Kripke frame is \( \mathcal{I} = (\mathcal{G}_0, \sim^A) \). Notice, that no process can distinguish between two states in \( \mathcal{G}_0 \), while the environment always distinguish them.

Given a deterministic protocol \( D \), and an integer \( N \), the protocol Kripke frame is \( \mathcal{P} = (\mathcal{G}_P, \sim^A) \), where \( \mathcal{G}_P \) consists of all the states at the end of all \( N \)-step executions starting in \( \mathcal{G}_0 \). Abusing notation, we use \( \mathcal{P} \) as the function which sends each \( x \in \mathcal{G}_0 \) to the state \( x' \in \mathcal{G}_P \) obtained by executing the schedule \( x_e \) defined by the environment in the initial state \( x \). Examples of protocol Kripke frames are in Section 4.

We define a inputless task \( T = (\mathcal{G}_0, \mathcal{G}_\text{out}, \Delta) \) in terms of an output Kripke frame, \( \mathcal{G}_\text{out} \) where each element \( x \in \mathcal{G}_\text{out} \) defines a value to be decided by each process. (the environment is not part of \( x \)). The relation \( \Delta \) is from \( \mathcal{G}_0 \) to \( \mathcal{G}_\text{out} \). Let \( x \in \mathcal{G}_0 \) and \( x' \) any state in \( \Delta(x) \). Then, in an execution with schedule indicated by \( x_e \), it is valid for the processes to decide \( x' \), i.e., each \( i \) decides \( x'_i \).

Protocol \( D \) solves in \( N \) steps the inputless task \( T = (\mathcal{G}_0, \mathcal{G}_\text{out}, \Delta) \) if there exists a morphism \( f \) from \( \mathcal{P} = (\mathcal{G}_P, \sim^A) \) to \( O = (\mathcal{G}_\text{out}, \sim^A) \) such that the composition of \( \mathcal{P} \) and \( f \) belongs to \( \Delta \), i.e., \( f(\mathcal{P}(x)) \in \Delta(x) \).

Let us discuss this definition. If \( f(u) = x \) then indeed each process \( i \) can decide (operationally, in its program) the value \( x_i \), because the value is a function only of its local state: if \( u \sim^i v \) then \( f(u) \sim^i f(v) \), namely, \( f(u)_i = f(v)_i \). Second, these decisions are respecting the task specification, because if we consider an initial state \( s_0 \), then the execution starting in \( s_0 \) ends in state \( s = \mathcal{P}(s_0) \), which is then mapped to a state \( t = f(s) \), with \( t \in \Delta(s_0) \). Finally, if such a morphism \( f \) does not exist, then it is impossible to solve the task in \( N \) steps by a deterministic protocol \( D \) in model \( M \), because any such protocol would actually be defining the required morphism.

Consider any protocol \( D \), and its protocol Kripke frame after \( N \) steps, \( \mathcal{P} = (\mathcal{G}_P, \sim^A) \), and let \( F \) be the full information protocol, where each time a process writes, it writes its local state, and when it reads, it concatenates the value read to its local state. Let \( F = (\mathcal{G}_\text{full}, \sim^A) \) be its \( N \) step protocol Kripke frame. As the Lemma below formalizes it, and as observed in a slightly different formal context in [11], the (\( N \) step) full information protocol is initial in the wide sub-category of Kripke frames consisting of (\( N \) step) protocols (see Figure 1):”

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2In previous papers, the problem is a task, and hence \( \Delta \) is a carrier map.
Lemma 2 Protocol $F = \langle G_{full}, \sim^A \rangle$ solves $\langle G_0, G_P, P \rangle$.

For the proof, notice that the functions $F$ and $P$ are determined by the $N$-step schedules. Thus, given an initial state $x$ with schedule $sc$, and $y = P(x)$, define $f$ by $f(F(x)) = P(x)$. To show that $f$ is a morphism, notice that if $u \sim^i v$ for $u, v \in G_{full}$ then $f(u) \sim^i f(v)$ because if $i$ does not distinguish between $u, v$ in a full information protocol, it certainly does not distinguish in any other protocol.

Corollary 1 If $T = \langle G_0, G_{out}, \Delta \rangle$ is solvable in $N$ steps by a protocol $P = \langle G_P, \sim^A \rangle$ with morphism $f'$, then it is solvable by the $N$-step full information protocol with morphism $f \circ f'$.

3.3 Dynamic epistemic logic

Additional background on dynamic epistemic logic is in Appendix A.

Let $AP$ be a countable set of atomic propositions. If $X \subseteq \text{Lit}(AP)$, then $X$ is $AP$-maximal iff $\forall p \in AP$, either $p \in X$ or $\neg p \in X$. Assume a set $A = \{a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n\}$ of $n + 1$ agents and a countable set $AP$ of propositional variables. An epistemic model $M = \langle S, \sim^A, L^AP \rangle$ consists of a Kripke frame $\langle S, \sim^A \rangle$ and a function $L^AP : S \to 2^{\text{Lit}(AP)}$ such that $\forall s \in S$, $L(s)$ is consistent and $AP$-maximal. We will often suppress explicit reference to the sets $AP$ and $A$, and denote an epistemic model as $M = \langle S, \sim, L \rangle$. The knowledge $K_a$ of an agent $a$ with respect to a state $s$ is the set of formulas which are true in all states $a$-accessible from $s$.

We can organize Kripke models as a category, by defining Kripke model morphisms. Let $M = \langle S, \sim^A, L^AP \rangle$ and $N = \langle T, \sim^A, L^AP \rangle$ be two Kripke
models. A morphism of Kripke models is a morphism $f$ of the underlying
Kripke frames of $M$ and $N$ such that $L^{AP}(f(s)) \subseteq L^{AP}(s)$ for all states $s$ in
$S$ (although in the sequel we will have for all our morphisms $L^{AP}(f(s)) = L^{AP}(s)$).

The following simple lemma from [12] says that morphisms can only “lose
knowledge” (whereas it is well-known that $p$-morphisms preserve knowledge
[5]) :

**Lemma 3** Consider now two Kripke models $M' = \langle S', \sim'^A, L' \rangle$ and $M =
\langle S, \sim^A, L \rangle$, and a morphism $f$ from $M$ to $M'$. Then for every agent $a \in A$,
for all states $s \in M$, $M', f(s) \models K_a \phi \Rightarrow M, s \models K_a \phi$.

**Proof 1** Recall that :

$$M, s \models K_a \phi \text{ iff for all } s' \in S : s \sim_a s' \text{ implies } M, s' \models \phi$$

Consider $t \sim_a s : f(t) \sim_a f(s)$ and as $M', f(s) \models K_a \phi$, by definition
of the semantics of $K_a$ that we recapped above, we know that $M', f(t) \models \phi$.
Therefore $\phi \in L^{AP}(f(t))$, and by definition of morphisms of Kripke models,
$\phi \in L^{AP}(f(t)) \subseteq L^{AP}(t)$. So $M, t \models \phi$ and $M, s \models K_a \phi$.

We now turn our attention to information change. Recall that in DEL
an action model is a structure $M = \langle S, \sim, \text{pre} \rangle$, where $S$ is a domain of action
points, such that for each $a \in A$, $\sim_a$ is an equivalence relation on $S$, and
$\text{pre} : S \rightarrow L$ is a precondition function that assigns a precondition $\text{pre}(s)$ to
each $s \in S$. Each action can be thought of as an announcement made by
the environment, which is not necessarily public, in the sense that not all
system agents receive these announcements.

Let $M = \langle S, \sim^A, L^{AP} \rangle$ be a Kripke model and $A = \langle T, \sim, \text{pre} \rangle$ be an
action model. In the product update model$^3$ $M[A] = \langle S \times T, \sim^A, L^{AP} \rangle$, each
world of $M[A]$ is a pair $(s, t)$ where $s \in S, t \in T$, such that $\text{pre}(t)$ holds in
$s$. Then, $(s, t) \sim_a (s', t')$ if and only if $s \sim_a s'$ and $t \sim_a t'$. The valuation of
$p$ at a pair $(s, t)$ is as it was at $s$. Therefore the underlying Kripke frame of
the product update model $M[A]$ is the cartesian product of the underlying
Kripke frames of $M$ and of $A$.

**3.4 Action models for distributed computing**

We extend the task formalism in terms of Kripke frames from Section 3.2
to define an epistemic model.

$^3$Usually pointed Kripke models and action models are used, but we do not need them
here.
3.4.1 Action models for inputless tasks

Let $G_0$ be the input Kripke frame of all possible $N$-step schedules in a given model. Consider an inputless task, $T = \langle G_0, G_{out}, \Delta \rangle$, where $G_{out}$ is the output Kripke frame, and $\Delta$ is a relation from $G_0$ to $G_{out}$.

Define atomic propositions that state what the id of a process is, and others that define what the schedule is. Then, the input model $I = \langle G_0, \sim^A, L^{AP} \rangle$, where $\langle G_0, \sim^A \rangle$ is the input Kripke frame, and the function $L^{AP} : S \to 2^{\text{Lit}(AP)}$ states that the id of process $i$ is $i$, and that the environment is in state $sc$, for some $N$-step schedule of the model.

The action model for $T$ is $\langle S, \sim, \text{pre} \rangle$, defined as follows.

The action points in $S$, are identified with the states of $G_{out}$, so action point $ap = \langle d_0, \ldots, d_n \rangle$ is interpreted as “agent $i$ decides value $d_i$”, with precondition that is true in every input state $u$ such that $ap \in \Delta(u)$. Thus, the action model has as Kripke frame precisely $O = \langle G_{out}, \sim^A \rangle$.

The output model is obtained by the product update of the input model $\langle G_0, \sim^A, L^{AP} \rangle$ and the action model $T = \langle S, \sim, \text{pre} \rangle$. Each state in the product can be represented by $\langle \text{sch}, ap \rangle$, where $\text{sch}$ identifies an initial state in $G_0$. These states are labeled with the same atomic propositions as the initial state of $\text{sch}$. Also, two states satisfy $\langle \text{sch}, ap \rangle \sim_i \langle \text{sch}', ap' \rangle$ when process $i$ decides the same value, $ap_i = ap'_i$.

3.4.2 Action models for protocols

Consider an input model $I = \langle G_0, \sim^A, L^{AP} \rangle$, for the $N$-step schedules in a given model.

The $N$-step action model for protocol $D$ is $A = \langle R, \sim, \text{pre} \rangle$, where each action point in $R$ corresponds to an $N$-step schedule of the distributed computing model, and $u \sim_i v$ whenever process $i$ ends up in the same state after schedule $u$ and after schedule $v$, running $D$. The precondition is the identity, stating that $\text{pre}(sc)$ is true in the initial state of $G_0$ with schedule $sc$. Note that when $D$ is the full-information protocol, if $u \sim_i v$, then in every protocol, process $i$ cannot distinguish schedule $u$ from schedule $v$, and we get the (sort of canonical, or initial as we noticed earlier) $N$-step action model of the distributed computing model.

Given an input model $I = \langle G_0, \sim^A, L^{AP} \rangle$ and an action model $A = \langle R, \sim, \text{pre} \rangle$ for protocol $D$, we get the product update, protocol Kripke model $I[A] = \langle G_0 \times R, \sim^A, L^{AP} \rangle$, which is decorated with the atomic propositions from $I$, and its Kripke frame is the protocol Kripke frame. A state in the product can be represented by $ac$, an $N$-step schedule of the model, and has
the same atomic propositions as the initial state corresponding to $ac$. Thus, as far as problem solvability is concerned, one can view the action model as acting on a single initial state of the processes, and replicating it once for each possible $N$-step schedule, and copying the atomic propositions, and having the same indistinguishability relation as in the action model.

We can thus define formally a model of computation as a set of infinite schedules, together with an indistinguishability relation defined on finite prefixes of those schedules, induced by the full-information protocol. Namely, two things are needed to completely define a model. First, a set of schedules, which specify properties such as, that at most $t$ processes crash, or some partial synchrony assumption. A schedule is just a sequence of sets of agents to be scheduled, and hence the same set of schedules can be used for different models. Thus, remarkably, the effect of different models is captured by $\sim$, the relation specifying when a process cannot possibly distinguish between two schedules. The relation is implementable, in the sense that the full information protocol achieves precisely the relation. Then, for each integer $N$ there is a corresponding set of initial states $G_0$, and an $N$-step action model $A = \langle R, \sim, \text{pre} \rangle$ characterizing the reachable states in the distributed computing model. Other protocols are defined by a coarsening of the relation $\sim$ of the full-information protocol, see Lemma 2.

In the following theorem, we lift the task solvability definition of Section 3.2 from the category of Kripke frames to the category of Kripke models. For short, we say that a morphism $h$ from the protocol Kripke model $I[A]$ to the output model $I[T]$ respects $\Delta$ if for each state $x \in G_0$ with scheduler $x_e$, and the corresponding state $x' \in I[A]$, the state $y = h(x')$, is such that $y \in \Delta(x)$.

**Theorem 1** Let $\mathcal{T} = \langle G_0, G_{\text{out}}, \Delta \rangle$ be an inputless task, and consider the corresponding input model $I$, and protocol action model $A$ and task action model $T$. Then task solvability is equivalent to the existence of a Kripke morphism $h$ from the protocol Kripke model $I[A]$ to the output model $I[T]$, that respects $\Delta$.

We can only improve knowledge from $I$ to $I[A]$ (the protocol should improve knowledge of the processes about the execution through communication), and by Lemma 3, the task is solvable if and only if enough knowledge is gained, such that there is $h$ associating states of $I[A]$ to states of $I[T]$, in a way that any formula $\phi$ and process $i$ (at any state $y$), $I[T], y \models K_i \phi$ then $I[A], s \models K_i \phi$, in any $x$ with $h(x) = y$. That is, at each state $x$, there is at least as much knowledge of the processes at $x$ than at $h(x)$.
3.5 Kripke models and topology

We briefly describe the equivalence of categories between Kripke models and simplicial complex models from [12], and thus transport the semantics of distributed systems from (proper, i.e. models in which no distinct state are indistinguishable by all agents) Kripke models to simplicial complex models. This exposes the fact that knowledge exhibits topological invariants, and that the possibility of solving an inputless task depends on such invariants, by bringing in results developed elsewhere e.g. [14].

A \( n \)-dimensional complex \( C \) is a family of subsets of a set \( S \), called simplices, such that for all \( X \in C, Y \subseteq X \) implies \( Y \in C \), and the largest simplexes have all exactly \( n+1 \) elements; maximal elements are the facets, and because they all have the same size we say the complex is pure. The elements of a simplex are called vertices. Each vertex of a simplex will be colored with a different process id (through some map \( l \)). We will consider chromatic simplicial maps, \( f : C \to D \), a function that maps the vertices of a complex \( C \) to the vertices of a complex \( D \), preserving ids, and such that \( a \) if a set of vertices \( s \) are a simplex of \( C \) then \( f(s) \) is a simplex of \( D \). Let \( p\mathbb{CS} \) be the category of pure chromatic \( n \)-complexes. (see Appendix B for notations and additional details).

A Kripke frame for the \( n+1 \) processes is equivalent to the \( n \)-dimensional chromatic complex, where states of the Kripke frame are uniquely identified to facets of the complex. Two facets \( s, s' \) share a vertex with id \( i \) iff the associated states in the frame satisfy \( s \sim_i s' \). Kripke morphisms correspond to chromatic simplicial maps.

**Lemma 4** Let \( A \) be a finite set and \( p\mathbb{CS}_A \) (resp. \( \mathcal{K}_A \)) be the full subcategory of pure chromatic simplicial complexes with colors in \( A \) (resp. the full subcategory of proper Kripke frames with agent set \( A \)). \( p\mathbb{CS}_A \) and \( \mathcal{K}_A \) are equivalent categories.

The equivalence of categories we have between pure chromatic simplicial complexes and Kripke frames can be extended to hold between Kripke models models) and these pure chromatic simplicial complexes, where facets are decorated with \( \text{AP} \)-maximal literals. Simplicial maps \( f \) are then extended to map these literals associated to facets \( X \) to the same literals, associated to facet \( f(X) \). In fact, a more common way to describe actual states in this combinatorial topological approach is by decorating vertices of simplicial complexes by local states of processes.

Thus we formally define a simplicial model as a triple \((C, l, v)\) where \((C, l)\) is a pure chromatic simplicial set, and \( v : S \to \varphi(\text{AP}) \) an assignment.
of subsets of the set of literals of \( AP \) for each state \( s \in S \) such that for all facets \( f = (s_0, \ldots, s_n) \in C, \bigcup_{i=0}^{n} v(s_i) \) (that we denote as \( v(f) \) by an abuse of notation) is \( AP \)-maximal.

Lemma 4 extends to the following, in a straightforward manner:

**Theorem 2** Let \( A \) be the set processes, and \( SM_{A,G} \) (resp. \( KM_{A,AP} \)) be the full subcategory of pure simplicial models with colors in \( A \) and states in \( G \) (resp. the full subcategory of proper Kripke models with agent set \( A \) and atomic propositions in \( AP \)) and suppose we have a complete interpretation \([\cdot]\) of propositions in \( AP \) in \( \cup_{i \in \{0,\ldots,n\}} L_i \). Then \( SM_{A,G} \) and \( KM_{A,G} \) are equivalent categories.

By this equivalence between (proper) Kripke models and simplicial models, the approach to task solvability described in the previous section can easily be rephrased in terms of simplicial maps, as in [14]. We can interpret the task solvability Theorem 1 in purely topological terms, the interest being that some topological invariants will prevent us from finding a map \( h \) as above, showing impossibility of the corresponding task specification. In case of wait-free read/write memory models, we know that \( P(I) \) corresponds to some subdivision of \( I \), hence \( \pi_I : P(I) \to I \) is a weak homotopy equivalence, this restricts a lot what task specifications \( \Delta \) can be solved, as also exemplified below.

## 4 Examples and applications

### 4.1 Action model for IIS

Consider the iterated immediate snapshot model \( IIS \) of Section 2.1, obtained by composing the one-round \( IS \) model \( N \) times. Processes communicate through a sequence of arrays, \( \text{mem}_1, \text{mem}_2, \ldots, \text{mem}_N \), executing an immediate snapshot \( IS() \) operation on each \( \text{mem}_r \).

This model is represented by schedules of the environment as follows.

A *block action* \( sc_i \) is an ordered partition \([s_0, \ldots, s_k]\) of the set of ids \( A = \{0, \ldots, n\} \), consisting of *concurrency classes*, \( s_i \). The concurrency classes \( s_i \) are non-empty, disjoints subsets of \( A \), whose union is \( A \), representing that all processes in \( s_i \) are concurrently scheduled to write, and then they are all concurrently scheduled to read. Thus, \( 0 \leq k \leq n \). When \( k = n \) processes will be scheduled sequential (processes take immediate snapshots one after the other), and when \( k = 0 \) fully concurrent (they all execute an immediate
snapshot concurrently). Let us denote by $L^sc_e$ the set of all possible block actions.

The initial states $G_0$ for one round, $N = 1$, are as follows. The initial states of all processes are identical, except that the initial state of process $i$ contains its id $i$. The initial states of the environment are in a 1 to 1 correspondence to all possible block actions, $L^sc_e$; for each block action $[s_0, \ldots, s_k]$ there is an initial state of the environment. In addition, the environment’s state encodes that the shared memory is initially empty. Thus, each state in $G_0$ can be denoted as $([s_0, \ldots, s_k], q_0, q_1, \ldots, q_n)$, where $[s_0, \ldots, s_k]$ is a state of the environment and $q_i$ is the initial state of process $i$.

The 1-step action model for protocol $D$ is $A = (R, \sim, \pre)$, has an action point in $R$ for each block action $[s_0, \ldots, s_k]$. For the accessibility relation $\sim$, define $\text{view}_i(\text{act})$, $\text{act} = [s_0, \ldots, s_k]$, to be the set of ids that are scheduled before or together with process $i$, namely; $\text{view}_i(\text{act}) = s_0 \cup \cdots \cup s_j$, where $i \in s_j$. For two block actions $\text{act} = [s_0, \ldots, s_k]$, $\text{act}' = [s'_0, \ldots, s'_k]$, it holds that $\text{act} \sim_i \text{act}'$ iff $\text{view}_i(\text{act}) = \text{view}_i(\text{act}')$. Indeed, in every protocol $D$, process $i$ cannot tell if the schedule applied is $\text{act}$ or $\text{act}'$, in both it reads all values written by processes in $\text{view}_i(\text{act}) = \text{view}_i(\text{act}')$. Furthermore, in every protocol $D$ (even not full-information) if $\text{view}_i(\text{act}) \neq \text{view}_i(\text{act}')$, then it is not the case that $\text{act} \sim_i \text{act}'$, assuming a process always writes something to the shared memory. Thus we have the following.

**Lemma 5** For every protocol $D$, the 1-step action model is $A = (R, \sim, \pre)$, where $R$ consists of all block actions $[s_0, \ldots, s_k]$ and $\sim$ on two block actions $\text{act}, \text{act}'$ is defined by $\text{act} \sim_i \text{act}'$ iff $\text{view}_i(\text{act}) = \text{view}_i(\text{act}')$.

Furthermore, the $N$-step action model for the iterated immediate snapshot model IIS is easily obtained because action models compose [9], and because the iterated model uses a fresh memory in each round.[4] (For the non-iterated version of the model, the accessibility relation $\sim$ is more complicated, see [1].) Notice however, that the IIS model is represented by the action composition only for the full-information protocol, because in another protocol $D$, even if a process $i$ was able to distinguish between two schedules in the first round, $D$ might not announce it to the shared memory in the second iteration.

**Theorem 3** The $N$-step action model for the full-information protocol $D$ is the composition of the 1-step action model, $N$-times.

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[4] We confuse the notation of the actual number of steps a process executes, and the number of rounds in the IIS model, to avoid further notation
The set of all $N$-step runs $\mathcal{R}$ of protocol $D$ in the IIS model that start in initial states $\mathcal{G}_0$ can be obtained by applying schedules of the following form. Every execution in $\mathcal{R}$ is of the form $x \odot sc_1 \odot sc_2 \odot \cdots \odot sc_R$ where $x \in \mathcal{G}_0$ and $sc_i$ is a block scheduling action for every integer $1 \leq i \leq R$. To apply the block action $sc_1 = [s_0, \ldots, s_k]$ to initial state $(s_0, \ldots, s_k, q_0, q_1, \ldots, q_n)$, and obtain state $x \odot [s_0, \ldots, s_k]$, the environment schedules the processes in the following order, to execute their read and write operations on $\text{mem}_1$. It first schedules the processes in $s_0$ to execute their write operations, and then it schedules them to execute their read operations (the specific order among writes is immaterial, and so is the case for the reads). Then the environment repeats the same for the processes in $s_1$, scheduling first the writes and then the reads, and so on, for each subsequent concurrency class $s_i$. See Figure 2. Notice that the read and write operations of block action $sc_i$ are applied to memory $\text{mem}_1$. See Figure 3.

Consider the composition of the block actions $sc_1 \odot sc_2 \odot \cdots \odot sc_R$. Let $IIS_R$ denote the set of all such composition of block actions. That is,

$$sc_1 \odot sc_2 \odot \cdots \odot sc_R \in IIS_R$$

if and only if each $sc_i$ is an ordered partition of $A$, $[s_0, \ldots, s_k]$. Then, any execution of $\mathcal{R}$ of protocol $D$ in the IIS model can be obtained by applying a composed block action of $IIS_R$ to an initial state in $\mathcal{G}_0$. In other words, $\mathcal{R}$ can be seen as the product of $\mathcal{G}_0$ and $IIS_R$.

In Figure 4 the protocol complex after one round and after two rounds are illustrated, with several examples of schedules. Each vertex of a simplex has a color that represents one of the agents. The input complex is not depicted, it consists of a single 2-dimensional simplex and all its faces (a triangle). Thus, it corresponds to a single initial state $x$. The complex on the lower left corner is a chromatic subdivision of the input triangle. It represents the protocol complex after one round, where each one of three processes (in the figure called $p,q,r$) are scheduled to execute first one write operation to $\text{mem}_1$, and then one read of all the registers in $\text{mem}_1$.

The green simplex in the lower left complex is obtained by applying the schedule $\{p\}{qr}$ to the initial state $x$. First $p$ writes to its component of $\text{mem}_1$ then it reads all three components. Then $q$ and $r$ are scheduled to concurrently write to their components of $\text{mem}_1$, and finally $q$ and $r$ are scheduled to concurrently read $\text{mem}_1$. Similarly, the schedule $\{p\}{q}\{r\}$ schedules first $p$ (its write followed by its reads), then it schedules $q$, and finally it schedules $r$. Notice that $\{p\}{qr}$ and $\{p\}{q}\{r\}$ are points of the action model, and they are indistinguishable to both $p$ and to $r$, which
Figure 2: Schedules \([\{0\}, \{1\}, \{2\}], \{\{0\}, \{1, 2\}\}, \{\{0, 1\}\}, \{\{0, 1, 2\}\}\), the arrows are labeled with processes that do not distinguish between the schedules.

Figure 3: All block schedules for 3 processes. The bottom row of each table contains the views of the processes at the end of the schedule.
is why the green and the yellow triangle share an edge labeled with the colors of $p$ and $r$. Furthermore, these two schedules are indistinguishable whenever applied to two initial states indistinguishable to both $p$ and $r$. The schedule where all three write concurrently and then all three do their reads concurrently consists of a single concurrency class $\{pqr\}$, and yields the triangle at the center.

Now, consider the complex at the top right of the figure. The triangle at the center of the green part of the complex is obtained by applying to $x$ the schedule $\{p\}\{qr\} \odot \{pqr\}$, where the processes first access $mem_1$ following $\{p\}\{q\}$ and then $mem_2$ following $\{pqr\}$. Consider the other green triangle in the second round complex, obtained by the schedule $\{p\}\{qr\} \odot \{pr\}\{q\}$. Notice that now the action points are indistinguishable to $q$ only, that is, $\{p\}\{qr\} \odot \{pqr\} \sim_q \{p\}\{qr\} \odot \{pr\}\{q\}$, and indeed the two green triangles share only a white vertex.

An interesting example is the yellow triangle at the corner of the 2nd round complex, obtained by the schedule $\{p\}\{qr\}\{q\} \odot \{p\}\{r\}\{q\}$, namely, processes are scheduled sequentially to access first $mem_1$ and then again sequentially $mem_2$.

Consider the green and yellow triangles in the two round protocol, obtained through the 2nd round schedule $\{pr\}\{q\}$. The green one is obtained by $\{p\}\{qr\} \odot \{pr\}\{q\}$ while the yellow one by $\{p\}\{q\} \odot \{pr\}\{q\}$. It is illustrating to consider the one round chromatic subdivision complex as an input complex, and then apply the 1-round action model to it, to obtain the complex at the top right.

We would like to stress that the same schedule may have different semantics in different models. In this iterated model, $\{p\}\{r\}\{q\} \odot \{p\}\{r\}\{q\}$ is equivalent to the schedule $\{p\}\{p\}\{r\}\{r\}\{q\}$ (the three processes end up in the same local states in both schedules). In contrast, in the non-iterated version of the model, where there is only one shared array $mem$, the two schedules produce different states. Actually, in the non-iterated IS model, the action points $\{p\}\{r\}\{q\} \odot \{p\}\{r\}\{q\}$ and $\{p\}\{p\}\{r\}\{r\}\{q\}$ are distinguishable to the three processes!

Recall that in the non-iterated IS model executions are organized in concurrency classes, where in each on, a set of processes is scheduled to first write (to their corresponding registers) in $mem$ and then read $mem$ (all the registers). The action model for $N$ has one point for each such schedule, where each process executes the same number of operations, $N$. 

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The indistinguishability relation \( \sim_i \) of when process \( i \) does not distinguish between the two schedules is characterized in [1].

### 4.2 Solving a task in IIS

Examples of inputless problems have been mentioned in the introduction. Here we bring together the pieces of the framework developed in the paper, by studying the solvability of a simple inputless task. To simplify the presentation, we develop only the case of 3 processes, because all the essential elements appear already here.

Consider here the 2-test\&set inputless task for three processes, specifying that in any execution at most two process should output 1 and the others should output 0, and such that if one (or two) process terminates its execution without seeing any other processes, it should output 1 (or if two finish without seeing the third, they both should output 1). The inputless task in terms of Kripke frames is \( T = (G_0, G_{out}, \Delta) \), where \( G_0 \) defines \( N \)-step schedules. The output Kripke frame, \( G_{out} \), has a corresponding 2-dimensional chromatic complex, as is illustrated in Figure 5 (processes are denoted \( p, q, r \) to distinguish them from output values 0, 1). The input/output relation \( \Delta \) is specified, as follows. Any input state \( s \) in \( G_0 \) with a schedule \( act \), where \( i \) never reads a value by another process, \( \Delta \) requires \( i \) to decide 1. Similarly, any state \( s \) in \( G_0 \) with a schedule \( act \), where \( i \) and \( j \) never read a value by the other process, \( \Delta \) requires \( i \) and \( j \) to decide 1,
Figure 5: Output Kripke frame and corresponding output complex for the 2-test&set task. A black vertex is associated to $p$, a white one to $q$ and a grey one to $r$.

and the other process to decide 0. In all other cases, $\Delta$ allows any outputs where are most two processes decide 1.

**Theorem 4** The 2-test&set task is not solvable in the IIS model.

**Proof 2** In the proof we will be moving freely (and abusing notation) between the category of Kripke models and that of complexes, by Theorem 2.

Let $I = \langle G_0, \sim^A, L^{AP} \rangle$ be the $N$-step input model for the IIS model. Thus, each state $s \in G_0$ corresponds to an $N$-step schedule of the IIS distributed computing model.

Let $T = \langle G_{\text{out}}, \sim, \text{pre} \rangle$, be the action model for the 2-test&set task, where the action points are identified with binary decisions $ap = (d_0, d_1, d_2)$, not all equal. An action point act has precondition that is true in every input state $u$ such that $ap \in \Delta(u)$, where $\Delta$ is the input/output relation of the 2-test&set task. The action model has as Kripke frame precisely $O = \langle G_{\text{out}}, \sim^A \rangle$ illustrated in Figure 5.

Consider a full-information protocol $D$ for $N$-steps. First notice that we can assume without loss of generality that $D$ is full information (e.g. see Lemma 2). Now, let $A = \langle R, \sim, \text{pre} \rangle$ be the $N$-step action model for protocol
$D$ is where each action point in $R$ corresponds to an $N$-step schedule of the distributed computing model. The protocol Kripke model $I[A] = \langle G_0 \times R, \sim^A, L^{AP} \rangle$ is obtained by the product update of the action model $A$ and the input model $I$. The corresponding 2-dimensional chromatic complex for $N = 2$ is illustrated in Figure 4, which is indeed, in general, an iterated chromatic subdivision (e.g. see [14]).

If the task is solvable by the protocol $D$, by Theorem 4 there exists morphism $h$ from the protocol Kripke model $I[A]$ to the output model $I[T]$, that respects $\Delta$.

Let $\pi$ be the projection morphism from (the underlying Kripke frame of) $I[T]$ (which is $I \times T$) to the output complex $G_{out}$. Then $\pi \circ h$ is a chromatic simplicial map from $I[A]$ to $G_{out}$. However, this map cannot exist, because $I[A]$ is a subdivision of a simplex, and $\pi \circ h$ sends the boundary of $I[A]$ to the boundary of $G_{out}$. This is a contradiction, because the boundary of $I[A]$ is contractible to a point within $I[A]$, while the boundary of $G_{out}$ is not.

5 Conclusions

We have developed a framework to give a formal semantics in terms of dynamic epistemic logic (DEL) to distributed computing models where processes communicate by reading and writing shared registers. We showed how the model of computation itself can be represented by an action model, $A$, consisting of the possible schedules of the model, and a relation defining when a process does not distinguish between two schedules. The DEL product update $I[A]$ of the action model with the initial model $I$ represents knowledge gained by the processes in the model. We showed how to model an inputless task also by an action model, $T$. The product update $I[T]$ represents knowledge that processes should be able to gain to solve the task, formally expressed by the existence of a certain morphism from $I[A]$ to $I[T]$. Finally, by moving freely between the category of simplicial complex models, and the equivalent category of Kripke models, we bring benefits back and forth, between DEL and the topological approach to distributed computing.

The framework refines the work of our companion paper [12], that included the formalisation of knowledge change only with respect to the inputs of the processes, and serve well for input/output tasks. Both settings can be incorporated into one setting, but when studying only input/output it would overly complicated. Many open questions remain, these papers are only the beginning of a longer term project to study fault-tolerant distributed com-
puting from a dynamic epistemic logic perspective. For example, we work only with simplicial complexes where all facets have dimension $n$, and this is indeed sufficient to study any task in models where failures are not detectable in finite time. The framework can be extended to arbitrary complexes, to deal well with synchronous systems where processes can crash, this will be the subject of a forthcoming article.

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A Dynamic epistemic logic background

We adhere to the notation of [9]. Let \( AP \) be a countable set of atomic propositions (i.e., propositional variables). The set of literals over \( AP \) is \( \text{Lit}(AP) = AP \cup \{ \neg p \mid p \in AP \} \). The complement of a literal \( p \) is defined by \( \neg p = \neg \neg p = p \), \( \forall p \in AP \). If \( X \subseteq \text{Lit}(AP) \), then \( \overline{X} = \{ \ell \mid \ell \in X \} \); \( X \) is consistent iff \( \forall \ell \in X \), \( \ell \notin X \); and \( X \) is \( AP \)-maximal iff \( \forall p \in AP \), either \( p \in X \) or \( \neg p \in X \).

**Definition 1 (syntax)** Let \( AP \) be a countable set of propositional variables and \( A \) a set of agents. The language \( L_K(A, AP) \) (or just \( L_K \) when the context makes it clear) is generated by the following BNF grammar:

\[
\varphi ::= p \mid \neg \varphi \mid (\varphi \land \varphi) \mid K_a \varphi
\]

**Definition 2 (Semantics of formulas)** Consider an epistemic state \( (M, s) \) with \( M = \langle S, \sim, V \rangle \) a Kripke model, \( s \in S \) and \( \varphi, \psi \in L_K(A, AP) \). The satisfaction relation, determining when a formula is true in that epistemic state, is defined as:

\[
\begin{align*}
M, s \models p & \quad \text{iff} \quad p \in L(s) \\
M, s \models \neg \varphi & \quad \text{iff} \quad M, s \not\models \varphi \\
M, s \models \varphi \land \psi & \quad \text{iff} \quad M, s \models \varphi \land M, s \models \psi \\
M, s \models K_a \varphi & \quad \text{iff} \quad \text{for all } s' \in S : s \sim_a s' \Rightarrow M, s' \models \varphi
\end{align*}
\]

Hence, an agent \( a \) is said to know an assertion in a state \( (M, s) \) iff that assertion of true in all the states it considers possible, given \( s \). Therefore, the knowledge \( K_a \) of an agent \( a \) with respect to a state \( s \) is the set of formulas which are true in all states \( a \)-accessible from \( s \).

**Definition 3 (Language of action model logic)** We define the language of action model logic \( L_{KC\oplus}(A, AP) \) for a set of agents \( A \) and propositional variables \( AP \) as the set of formulas \( \varphi \in L_{KC\oplus}(A, AP) \) and of actions \( \alpha \in L_{KC\oplus}^{\text{act}}(A, AP) \), defined through the following grammar:

\[
\varphi ::= p \mid (\neg \varphi) \mid (\varphi \land \varphi) \mid K_a \varphi \mid [\alpha] \varphi
\]

\[
\alpha ::= (M, s)
\]

where \( p \in P, a \in A \).

**Definition 4 (Semantics of formulas and actions)** Consider an epistemic state \( (M, s) \) with \( M = \langle S, \sim, L \rangle \) a Kripke model, an action model
\[ M = \langle S, \sim, \text{pre} \rangle, \text{ and } \varphi \in \mathcal{L}^{\text{stat}}_{KC \otimes} (A, P), \alpha = (M, s) \in \mathcal{L}^{\text{act}}_{KC \otimes} (A, P). \] The satisfaction relation between formulas and epistemic states is given below, as a set of inductive rules:

- \[ M, s \models p \quad \text{iff} \quad p \in L(s) \]
- \[ M, s \models \neg \varphi \quad \text{iff} \quad M, s \not\models \varphi \]
- \[ M, s \models \varphi \land \psi \quad \text{iff} \quad M, s \models \varphi \quad \text{and} \quad M, s \models \psi \]
- \[ M, s \models K_a \varphi \quad \text{iff} \quad \text{for all } s' \in S: \]
  - \[ s \sim_a s' \implies M, s' \models \varphi \]
- \[ M, s \models [(M, s)] \varphi \quad \text{iff} \quad M, s \models \text{pre}(s) \implies \]
  - \[ (M \otimes M, (s, s)) \models \varphi \]

The restricted modal product \( M \otimes M = \langle S', \sim', L' \rangle \) is defined as:

- \[ S' = \{ (s, s) \mid s \in S, s \in S, \text{ and } M, s \models \text{pre}(s) \} \]
- \[ (s, s) \sim'_a (t, t) \quad \text{iff} \quad s \sim_a t \text{ and } s \sim_a t \]
- \[ p \in L'(s, s) \quad \text{iff} \quad p \in L(s) \]

\section{Combinatorial topology background}

For a textbook covering combinatorial topology notions see [17].

\begin{definition}[Simplicial complex] A simplicial complex \( C \) is a family of non-empty finite subsets of a set \( S \) such that for all \( X \in C, Y \subseteq X \) implies \( Y \in C \) (\( C \) is downwards closed).

Elements of \( S \) (identified with singletons) are called vertices, elements of \( C \) of greater cardinality are called faces. The dimension of a face \( X \in C \), \( \dim X \), is the cardinality of \( X \) minus one. The maximal faces of \( C \) (i.e. faces that are not subsets of any other face) are called facets. The dimension of a simplicial complex is the maximal dimension of its faces. Pure simplicial complexes are simplicial complexes such that the maximal faces are all of the same dimension.

\begin{definition}[Simplicial maps] Let \( C \) and \( D \) be two simplicial complexes. A simplicial map \( f : C \to D \) is a function that maps the vertices of \( C \) to the vertices of \( D \) such that for all faces \( X \) of \( C \), \( f(C) \) (the image set on the subset of vertices \( C \)) is a face of \( D \).

Now, we can define pure simplicial maps respecting facets. Finally, we will associate colors to each vertex of simplicial complexes, representing, as in [14], the names of the different processes involved in a protocol. We also
define chromatic simplicial maps as the simplicial maps respecting colors. This can actually be seen as a slice category constructed out of the pure simplicial category.