Paradigms for Process Interaction Andrews, Chapter 09

Three basic patterns for distributed programs

- producer/consumer
- client/server
- interacting peers

Basic patterns can be combined in several paradigms

- Parallel computation:
 - Manager/workers
 - * distributed bag of tasks
 - Heartbeat algorithms
 - * periodically send then receive
 - Pipeline algorithms
 - * information flows with receive then send
- Distributed systems:
 - Probes (sends) and echoes (receives)
 - * disseminate then gather in trees and graphs
 - Broadcast algorithms
 - * decentralized decision making
 - Token-passing algorithms
 - * another approach to decentralized decision making
 - Replicated server processes
 - * manage multiple instances of resources

§9.1 Manager/Workers (Distributed Bag of Tasks)

§9.1.1 Sparse matrix representation

- ullet Compute product $A \times B = C$ of $n \times n$ matrices.
- Requires n^2 inner products.
- A matrix is *dense* if most entries are nonzero.
- A matrix is *sparse* if most entries are zero.
- Sparse matrix representation:

```
int lengthA[n];
pair *elementsA[n]
```

• Example:

lengthA	elementsA
1	(3, 2.5)
0	
0	
2	(1, -1.5) $(4, 0.6)$
0	
1	(0, 3.4)

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 2.5 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\ 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\ 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\ 0.0 & -1.5 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.6 & 0.0 \\ 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\ 3.4 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Sparse matrix multiplication

- ullet Represent A and C by rows, B by columns.
- \bullet Each row of A is a task.
- \bullet Each task will need all columns of B.

```
module Manager
  type pair = (int index, double value);
  op getTask(result int row, len; result pair [*]elems);
  op putResult(int row, len; pair [*]elems);
body Manager
  int lengthA[n], lengthC[n];
  pair *elementsA[n], *elementsC[n];
  # matrix A is assumed to be initialized
  int nextRow = 0, tasksDone = 0;
  process manager {
    while (nextRow < n or tasksDone < n) {</pre>
      # more tasks to do or more results needed
      in getTask(row, len, elems) ->
          row = nextRow;
          len = lengthA[i];
          copy pairs in *elementsA[i] to elems;
          nextRow++;
      [] putResult(row, len, elems) ->
          lengthC[row] = len;
          copy pairs in elems to *elementsC[row];
          tasksDone++;
      ni
end Manager
```

Figure 9.1 (a) Sparse matrix multiplication: Manager process.

```
process worker[w = 1 to numWorkers] {
  int lengthB[n];
  pair *elementsB[n]; # assumed to be initialized
  int row, lengthA, lengthC;
  pair *elementsA, *elementsC;
  int r, c, na, nb; # used in computing
  double sum; # inner products
  while (true) {
    # get a row of A, then compute a row of C
    call getTask(row, lengthA, elementsA);
    lengthC = 0;
    for [i = 0 to n-1]
        INNER_PRODUCT(i); # see body of text
        send putResult(row, lengthC, elementsC);
    }
}
```

Figure 9.1 (b) Sparse matrix multiplication: Worker processes.

```
sum = 0.0; na = 1; nb = 1;
c = elementsA[na]->index; # column in row of A
r = elementsB[i][nb]->index; # row in column of B
while (na <= lengthA and nb <= lengthB) {</pre>
  if (r == c) {
    sum += elementsA[na]->value *
             elementsB[i][nb]->value;
    na++; nb++;
    c = elementsA[na]->index;
    r = elementsB[i][nb]->index;
  } else if (r < c) {</pre>
    nb++; r = elementsB[i][nb]->index;
  } else { # r > c
    na++; c = elementsA[na]->index;
if (sum != 0.0) { # extend row of C
  elementsC[lengthC] = pair(i, sum);
  lengthC++;
```

Inner product code for Worker i in sparse matrix multiplication.

§9.1.2 Adaptive Quadrature Revisited

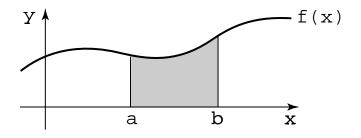


Figure 1.4 The quadrature problem.

```
double fleft = f(a), fright, area = 0.0;
double width = (b-a) / INTERVALS;
for [x = (a + width) to b by width] {
  fright = f(x);
  area = area + (fleft + fright) * width / 2;
  fleft = fright;
}
```

Iterative Quadrature Program

```
double quad(double left,right,fleft,fright,lrarea) {
   double mid = (left + right) / 2;
   double fmid = f(mid);
   double larea = (fleft+fmid) * (mid-left) / 2;
   double rarea = (fmid+fright) * (right-mid) / 2;
   if (abs((larea+rarea) - lrarea) > EPSILON) {
        # recurse to integrate both halves
        larea = quad(left, mid, fleft, fmid, larea);
        rarea = quad(mid, right, fmid, fright, rarea);
   }
   return (larea + rarea);
}
```

Recursive Procedure for Quadrature Problem

```
module Manager
  op getTask(result double left, right);
  op putResult(double area);
body Manager
  process manager {
    double a, b; # interval to integrate
    int numIntervals; # number of intervals to use
    double width = (b-a)/numIntervals;
    double x = a, totalArea = 0.0;
    int tasksDone = 0;
    while (tasksDone < numIntervals) {</pre>
      in getTask(left, right) st x < b ->
          left = x; x += width; right = x;
      [] putResult(area) ->
          totalArea += area;
          tasksDone++;
      ni
    print the result totalArea;
end Manager
double f() { ... } # function to integrate
double quad(...) { ... } # adaptive quad function
process worker[w = 1 to numWorkers] {
  double left, right, area = 0.0;
  double fleft, fright, lrarea;
  while (true) {
    call getTask(left, right);
    fleft = f(left); fright = f(right);
    lrarea = (fleft + fright) * (right - left) / 2;
    # calculate area recursively as shown in Section 1.5
    area = quad(left, right, fleft, fright, lrarea);
    send putResult(area);
```

Combination of iterative and recursive
 Figure 9.2 Adaptive quadrature using manager/workers paradigm.

§9.2 Heartbeat Algorithms

```
process Worker[i = 1 to numWorkers] {
  declarations of local variables;
  initialize local variables;
  while (not done) {
    send values to neighbors;
    receive values from neighbors;
    update local values;
  }
}
```

Structure of heartbeat algorithms.

- Useful for data parallel iterative applications.
- Each worker updates part of the data.
- Each worker then requires data from its neighbors to continue.

Heartbeat algorithms

- If the data is a grid it can be broken up into strips or blocks.
- 3D data can be broken up into planes, prisms, or cubes.
- Examples:
 - region labelling
 - Game of Life

§9.2.1 Image Processing: Region Labeling

Sample image for the region-labeling problem.

- Image has *three* regions (using 4-neighbors).
- Initially each point is given a unique label: mi + j.
- Iterate until no changes:

 If adjacent pixels are lit, set label of each to maximum.
- Final labels are regions.

Region labelling

- We could assign a task to each pixel.
- This would be appropriate on a SIMD machine, such as a graphics card.
- For MIMD machines, these tasks are too small.
- Break image up into strips.
- On each iteration, each task needs to exchange its edge values with its neighbor.
- Each individual task could examine its pixels once, or (to cut down on the messaging) iterate until they don't change.
- Workers cannot determine when to terminate.
- Coordinator detects termination by receiving messages from all workers.
- Could speed up termination detection with a butterfly.

```
chan first[1:P](int edge[n]);  # for exchanging edges
chan second[1:P](int edge[n]);
chan answer[1:P](bool);
                                 # for termination check
process Worker[w = 1 to P] {
  int stripSize = m/W;
  int image[stripSize+2,n];  # local values plus edges
  int label[stripSize+2,n]; # from neighbors
  int change = true;
  initialize image[1:stripSize,*] and label[1:stripSize,*];
  # exchange edges of image with neighbors
  if (w != 1)
    send first[w-1](image[1,*]);  # to worker above
  if (w != P)
    send second[w+1](image[stripSize,*]); # to below
  if (w != P)
    receive first[w](image[stripSize+1,*]); # from below
  if (w != 1)
    receive second[w](image[0,*]);  # from worker above
 while (change) {
    exchange edges of label with neighbors, as above;
    update label[1:stripSize,*] and set change to true if
      the value of the label changes;
    send result(change); # tell coordinator
    receive answer[w](change); # and get back answer
```

Figure 9.3 (a) Region labeling: Worker processes.

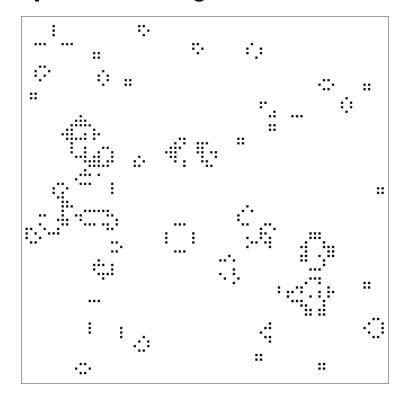
```
chan result(bool); # for results from workers

process Coordinator {
  bool chg, change = true;
  while (change) {
    change = false;
    # see if there has been a change in any strip
    for [i = 1 to P] {
       receive result(chg);
       change = change or chg;
    }
    # broadcast answer to every worker
    for [i = 1 to P]
       send answer[i](change);
  }
}
```

Figure 9.3 (b) Region labeling: Coordinator process.

Game of Life

- http://pmav.eu/stuff/javascript-game-of-life-v3.1.1/
- I have provided a Racket implementation (from rosettacode.org).
- Rules:
 - A live cell with zero or one live neighbors dies from loneliness.
 - A live cell with two or three live neighbors survives.
 - A live cell with four or more live neighbors dies from overpopulation.
 - A dead cell with exactly three live neighbors becomes alive.



```
chan exchange[1:n,1:n](int row, column, state);

process cell[i = 1 to n, j = 1 to n] {
  int state;  # initialize to dead or alive
  declarations of other variables;
  for [k = 1 to numGenerations] {
    # exchange state with 8 neighbors
    for [p = i-1 to i+1, q = j-1 to j+1]
        if (p != q) (p != i or q != j)
            send exchange[p,q](i, j, state);
    for [p = 1 to 8] {
        receive exchange[i,j](row, column, value);
        save value of neighbor's state;
    }
    update local state using rules in text;
}
```

Figure 9.4 The Game of Life.

§9.3 Pipeline Algorithms

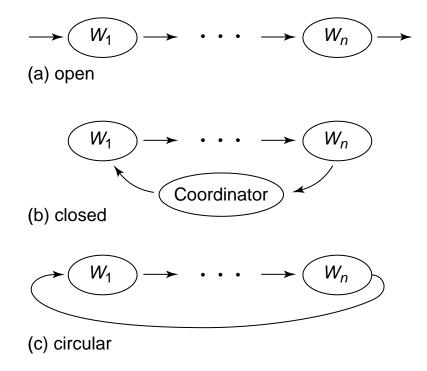


Figure 9.5 Pipeline structures for parallel computing.

§1.8 used a circular pipeline for distributed matrix multiplication.

```
process worker[i = 0 to n-1] {
  double a[n];  # row i of matrix a
  double b[n]; # one column of matrix b
  double c[n];  # row i of matrix c
double sum = 0.0; # storage for inner products
  int nextCol = i; # next column of results
  receive row i of matrix a and column i of matrix b;
  # compute c[i,i] = a[i,*] \times b[*,i]
  for [k = 0 \text{ to } n-1]
    sum = sum + a[k] * b[k];
  c[nextCol] = sum;
  # circulate columns and compute rest of c[i,*]
  for [j = 1 to n-1] {
    send my column of b to the next worker;
    receive a new column of b from the previous worker;
    sum = 0.0;
    for [k = 0 \text{ to } n-1]
      sum = sum + a[k] * b[k];
    if (nextCol == 0)
      nextCol = n-1;
    else
      nextCol = nextCol-1;
    c[nextColl = sum;
  send result vector c to coordinator process;
```

Figure 9.6 (a) Matrix multiplication pipeline: Coordinator process.

```
process Worker[w = 0 to n-1] {
  double a[n], b[n], c[n]; # my row or column of each
  double temp[n]; # used to pass vectors on
  double total; # used to compute inner product
  # receive rows of a; keep first and pass others on
  receive vector[w](a);
  for [i = w+1 to n-1] {
    receive vector[w](temp); send vector[w+1](temp);
  # get columns and compute inner products
  for [j = 0 to n-1] {
    receive vector[w](b); # get a column of b
    if (w < n-1) # if not last worker, pass it on
      send vector[w+1](b);
    total = 0.0;
    for [k = 0 to n-1] # compute one inner product
     total += a[k] * b[k];
    c[j] = total;  # put total into c
  # send my row of c to next worker or coordinator
  if (w < n-1)
    send vector[w+1](c);
  else
    send result(c);
  # receive and pass on earlier rows of c
  for [i = 0 to w-1] {
    receive vector[w](temp);
    if (w < n-1)
      send vector[w+1](temp);
    else
     send result(temp);
```

Figure 9.6 (b) Matrix multiplication pipeline: Worker processes.

Properties of the circular solution

- Messages chase each other around the pipeline: rows of a, then columns of b, then rows of c.
- There is little delay between receiving a message and passing it along.
- Once a has been distributed, inner products with b are computed very fast.
- The number of columns of b is arbitrary.
- Each worker could have a strip of rows of a.
- Pipeline could be open and part of a larger pipeline.

Matrix multiplication by row/column circular queues.

$$a_{1,2}, b_{2,1}$$
 $a_{1,3}, b_{3,2}$ $a_{1,4}, b_{4,3}$ $a_{1,1}, b_{1,4}$
 $a_{2,3}, b_{3,1}$ $a_{2,4}, b_{4,2}$ $a_{2,1}, b_{1,3}$ $a_{2,2}, b_{2,4}$
 $a_{3,4}, b_{4,1}$ $a_{3,1}, b_{1,2}$ $a_{3,2}, b_{2,3}$ $a_{3,3}, b_{3,4}$
 $a_{4,1}, b_{1,1}$ $a_{4,2}, b_{2,2}$ $a_{4,3}, b_{3,3}$ $a_{4,4}, b_{4,4}$

Initial arrangement for matrix multiplication by blocks.

- Use n^2 processes and $2n^2$ channels.
- Shift rows and columns initially as above.
- On each iteration, shift a's to the left, b's up.
- ullet After n-1 shifts, each process has computed its inner product.
- Can use blocks instead of single cells to reduce number of processes and channels.

```
chan left[1:n,1:n](double); # for circulating a left
chan up[1:n,1:n](double); # for circulating b up
process Worker[i = 1 to n, j = 1 to n] {
 double aij, bij, cij;
  int LEFT1, UP1, LEFTI, UPJ;
 initialize above values:
  # shift values in aij circularly left i columns
  send left[i,LEFTI](aij); receive left[i,j](aij);
  # shift values in bij circularly up j rows
  send up[UPJ,j](bij); receive up[i,j](bij);
  cij = aij * bij;
  for [k = 1 \text{ to } n-1] {
    # shift aij left 1, bij up 1, then multiply and add
    send left[i,LEFT1](aij); receive left[i,j](aij);
    send up[UP1,j](bij); receive up[i,j](bij);
   cij = cij + aij*bij;
```

Figure 9.7 Matrix multiplication by blocks.

§9.4 Probe/Echo Algorithms

• Distributed version of depth-first search.

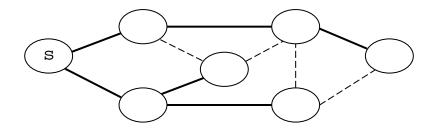


Figure 9.8 A spanning tree of a network of nodes.

• If a single node knows the network topology:

compute the spanning tree send message and tree to all descendents in tree each descendent forwards message and tree to its descendents

 Network topology: data structure describing all connections of all nodes

```
type graph = bool [n,n];
chan probe[n](graph spanningTree; message m);

process Node[p = 0 to n-1] {
   graph t; message m;
   receive probe[p](t, m);
   for [q = 0 to n-1 st q is a child of p in t]
      send probe[q](t, m);
}

process Initiator { # executed on source node S
   graph topology = network topology;
   graph t = spanning tree of topology;
   message m = message to broadcast;
   send probe[S](t, m);
}
```

Figure 9.9 Network broadcast using a spanning tree.

What if we don't know the topology?

- How can a node know how many times to receive?
- Too few: extra messages are left in the message queues.
- Too many: deadlock waiting for messages never sent.

```
chan probe[n](message m);
process Node[p = 1 to n] {
  bool links[n] = neighbors of node p;
  int num = number of neighbors;
  message m;
  receive probe[p](m);
  # send m to all neighbors
  for [q = 0 to n-1 st links[q]]
    send probe[q](m);
  # receive num-1 redundant copies of m
  for [q = 1 \text{ to } num-1]
    receive probe[p](m);
process Initiator { # executed on source node S
  message m = message to broadcast;
  send probe[S](m);
```

Figure 9.10 Broadcast using neighbor sets.

- Topology not necessary.
- Each node knows exactly how many messages to receive.
- Advanced topic: fault-tolerant broadcast.

Computing the topology of a network

- Two phases:
 - probe: as before, each node sends to all others
 - echo: each node returns local topology
- When the start node receives all echoes, it has the global topology.
- Could then be efficiently broadcast to all nodes.

Computing the topology of an acyclic network (tree)

- Initiator (root) sends probe to all children.
- Each node receives probe from parent, sends probe on to children.
- Leaf nodes receive probe from parent, echo their local topology.
- After an internal node receives all echoes, sends echo to parent including local topology.
- When the root receives all echoes, it will have global topology.

```
type graph = bool [n,n];
chan probe[n](int sender);
chan echo[n](graph topology) # parts of the topology
chan finalecho(graph topology) # final topology
process Node[p = 0 to n-1] {
  bool links[n] = neighbors of node p;
  graph newtop, localtop = ([n*n] false);
  int parent; # node from whom probe is received
  localtop[p,0:n-1] = links; # initially my links
  receive probe[p](parent);
  # send probe to other neighbors, who are p's children
  for [q = 0 to n-1 st (links[q] and q != parent)]
    send probe[q](p);
  # receive echoes and union them into localtop
  for [q = 0 to n-1 st (links[q] and q != parent)] {
    receive echo[p](newtop);
    localtop = localtop or newtop; # logical or
  if (p == S)
    send finalecho(localtop); # node S is root
  else
    send echo[parent](localtop);
process Initiator {
  graph topology;
  send probe[S](S) # start probe at local node
  receive finalecho(topology);
```

Figure 9.11 Probe/echo algorithm for gathering the topology of a tree.

Computing the topology of a general network (graph)

- After receiving a probe, each node sends probes to all its neighbors.
- Each node may thus receive multiple probes.
- All but the first are echoed immediately with null topology.
- Eventually a node will receive echoes from every probe.
- It keeps the union of all these echoes, adding them to its local topology.
- After receiving an echo from every node, the node sends an echo to the *first* probing node with the accumulated topology.

```
type graph = bool [n,n];
type kind = (PROBE, ECHO);
chan probe_echo[n](kind k; int sender; graph topology);
chan finalecho(graph topology);
process Node[p = 0 to n-1] {
  bool links[n] = neighbors of node p;
  graph newtop, localtop = ([n*n] false);
  int first, sender; kind k;
  int need_echo = number of neighbors - 1;
  localtop[p,0:n-1] = links; # initially my links
  receive probe_echo[p](k, first, newtop); # get probe
  # send probe on to to all other neighbors
  for [q = 0 to n-1 st (links[q] and q != first)]
    send probe echo[q](PROBE, p, \emptyset);
  while (need echo > 0) {
    # receive echoes or redundant probes from neighbors
    receive probe_echo[p](k, sender, newtop);
    if (k == PROBE)
      send probe_echo[sender](ECHO, p, \emptyset);
    else # k == ECHO {
      localtop = localtop or newtop; # logical or
      need echo = need echo-1;
  if (p == S)
    send finalecho(localtop);
  else
    send probe_echo[first](ECHO, p, localtop);
process Initiator {
  graph topology; # network topology
  send probe_echo[source](PROBE, source, Ø);
  receive finalecho(topology);
```

• Unified channel: can receive probes or echoes at any time.

Figure 9.12 Probe/echo algorithm for computing the topology of a graph.

§9.5 Broadcast Algorithms

- In previous section we considered networks connected in a graph.
- In local area networks, processors share a common communication channel.
- In this situation, it is easy to support broadcast messages, which transmit a message from one process to all the others.

- Processes use receive for both kinds of messages.
- broadcast is not atomic:
 - broadcast messages from A and B could arrive in any order.

§9.5.1 Logical clocks and event ordering

- Actions of processes are either local or communication actions.
- Communication actions must be synchronized.
- In this section, event refers to execution of send, broadcast, or receive.

§9.5.1 Logical clocks and event ordering

- There exists a partial ordering of events:
 - sending a message must *happen before* the receiving of the same message.
- This happens before relation is reflexive, antisymmetric, and transitive: a partial order.
- Not every pair of events is in the ordering:
 - if A sends a message to B and then C, the arrivals of these messages are not ordered.

§9.5.1 Logical clocks and event ordering

- If we had a global clock, we could impose a total ordering with timestamps.
- But perfect synchronization of local clocks is impossible.
- A logical clock is an integer counter that is incremented when events occur.

Logical clock update rules.

Let A be a process and let 1c be a logical clock in the process.

A updates the value of 1c as follows:

- 1. When A sends or broadcasts a message, it sets the timestamp of the message to the current value of 1c and then increments 1c by 1.
- 2. When A receives a message with timestamp ts, it sets lc to the maximum of lc and ts + 1 and then increments lc by 1.

Clock values and a total order for events using logical clocks

- Every send event the clock value is the timestamp of the message.
- Every receive event the clock value is the maximum of lc and ts + 1 (but before incrementing).
- These rules ensure that every event has a clock value.
- These rules also ensure that if an event a *happens before* another event b, the clock value of a will be smaller than the clock value of b.
- We break ties (same clock value) by smaller process ID to get a total order.

- We could use semaphores in a distributed environment by implementing them on a server.
- We can also use semaphores in a distributed environment by decentralizing them.

- Semaphore is an integer s
- Invariant:
 - Number of successful P operations is less or equal to number of V operations plus initial value of s.
 - To implement, we need a way to count P and V operations, and delay P operations.
- Invariant: $s \ge 0$
 - Processes which share a semaphore need to maintain this.

- Processes broadcast when they want to P or V:
 - message includes ID, timestamp, and POP or VOP.
- Processes keep POP and VOP messages in a queue mq, sorted by timestamp.
- Processes also keep their own POP and VOP messages in this queue.
- If all messages were received in order, every process would know all the P and V commands and could maintain the invariants.
- Unfortunately, broadcast is not atomic.
 - Messages broadcast by two different processes can be received in different orders by different processes.

- However, consecutive messages sent by each process do have increasing timestamps.
- Therefore:
 - Suppose a process's message queue mq contains a message m with timestamp ts.
 - Once the process has received a message with a larger timestamp from every other process, it knows it will never see a message with a smaller timestamp.
 - When this happens the message m is said to be fully acknowledged.
- Further, if m is fully acknowledged, then so are all messages in front of it in the queue.
- \bullet Therefore, the part of the queue up to and including m is a stable prefix:
 - no new messages will ever be inserted into it.

ACK messages

- It some process never sends a POP or VOP, nothing will ever be fully acknowledged.
- Possibility of deadlock. Therefore:
- After each process receives a POP or VOP message, it will broadcast an ACK message.
- ACK messages have timestamps and update the logical clocks, but are not stored in the message queue mq.
- Thus they facilitate the full acknowledgement of other messages.

Distributed semaphore implementation

- Each process maintains its own local integer variable s.
- For every VOP message, increment s and delete the message from mq.
- Examine POP messages in stable prefix in timestamp order:
 - if s > 0 decrement s and delete the POP message.
- Invariant *DSEM*:

 $s \ge 0 \land mq$ is ordered by timestamps

- POP messages are processed in stable prefix order.
- All processes handle POP messages in same order.

```
type kind = enum(reqP, reqV, VOP, POP, ACK);
chan semop[n](int sender; kind k; int timestamp);
chan go[n](int timestamp);
process User[i = 0 to n-1] {
  int lc = 0, ts;
  . . .
  # ask my helper to do V(s)
  send semop[i](i, reqV, lc); lc = lc+1;
  # ask my helper to do P(s), then wait for permission
  send semop[i](i, reqP, lc); lc = lc+1;
  receive go[i](ts); lc = max(lc, ts+1); lc = lc+1;
process Helper[i = 0 to n-1] {
  queue mq = new queue(int, kind, int); # message queue
  int 1c = 0, s = 0;
                             # logical clock and semaphore
  int sender, ts; kind k; # values in received messages
  while (true) {
                   # loop invariant DSEM
    receive semop[i](sender, k, ts);
    lc = max(lc, ts+1); lc = lc+1;
    if (k == reqP)
      { broadcast semop(i, POP, lc); lc = lc+1; }
    else if (k == reqV)
      { broadcast semop(i, VOP, lc); lc = lc+1; }
    else if (k == POP or k == VOP) {
      insert (sender, k, ts) at appropriate place in mq;
      broadcast semop(i, ACK, lc); lc = lc+1;
    else { # k == ACK
      record that another ACK has been seen;
      for (all fully acknowledged VOP messages in mq)
        { remove the message from mq; s = s+1; }
      for (all fully acknowledged POP messages in mq st s > 0) {
        remove the message from mq; s = s-1;
        if (sender == i)
                            # my user's P request
          { send go[i](lc); lc = lc+1; }
```

Figure 9.13 Distributed semaphores using a broadcast algorithm.

- We can use distributed semaphores in distributed systems the same way we did in shared memory systems.
 - mutual exclusion
 - barriers
 - etc.
- Broadcast messages and logical clocks can be used to solve other problems as well.
- Every process takes part in every decision, so it does not scale well to large numbers of processes.
- In addition, it must be modified to be fault tolerant.

§9.6 Token-Passing Algorithms

§9.6.1 Distributed mutual exclusion

- Critical sections primarily arise in shared memory programs.
- Often distributed programs must manage a resource that can only be used by a single process at a time:
 - communication link to a satellite
 - distributed file system or database
- Best solution is often an active monitor.
- Another solution is distributed semaphores.
 - no one process has a centralized role
 - but all processes share all decisions
 - lots of broadcast and ACK messages
- Token ring is a third solution.
 - decentralized and fair
 - requires far fewer messages than distributed semaphores

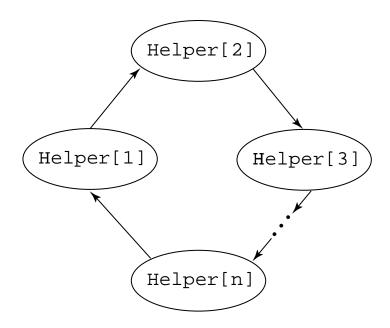


Figure 9.14 A token ring of helper processes.

• DMUTEX:

User[i] in CS \Rightarrow Helper[i] has token \land there is exactly one token

```
chan token[1:n](), enter[1:n](), go[1:n](), exit[1:n]();
process Helper[i = 1 to n] {
 while (true) { # loop invariant DMUTEX
   receive token[i](); # wait for token
   if (not empty(enter[i])) { # does user want in?
     receive enter[i](); # accept enter msg
     send go[i](); # give permission
     receive exit[i](); # wait for exit
   send token[i%n + 1]();  # pass token on
process User[i = 1 to n] {
 while (true) {
   send enter[i](); # entry protocol
   receive go[i]();
   critical section;
   send exit[i](); # exit protocol
   non-critical section;
```

Figure 9.15 Mutual exclusion with a token ring.

§9.6.2 Termination detection in a ring

```
Global invariant RING:

T[1] is blue ⇒ (T[1] ... T[token+1] are blue ∧

ch[2] ... ch[token%n + 1] are empty )

actions of T[1] when it first becomes idle:

color[1] = blue; token = 0; send ch[2](token);

actions of T[2], ..., T[n] upon receiving a regular message:

color[i] = red;

actions of T[2], ..., T[n] upon receiving the token:

color[i] = blue; token++; send ch[i%n + 1](token);

actions of T[1] upon receiving the token:

if (color[1] == blue)

announce termination and halt;

color[1] = blue; token = 0; send ch[2](token);
```

Figure 9.16 Termination detection in a ring.

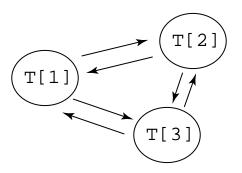


Figure 9.17 A complete communication graph.

```
Global invariant GRAPH:

token has value V 

( the last V channels in cycle C were empty ^

the last V processes to receive the token were blue )

actions of T[i] upon receiving a regular message:

color[i] = red;

actions of T[i] upon receiving the token:

if (token == nc)

announce termination and halt;

if (color[i] == red)

{ color[i] = blue; token = 0; }

else

token++;

set j to index of channel for next edge in cycle C;

send ch[j](token);
```

Figure 9.18 Termination detection in a complete graph.

§9.7 Replicated Servers

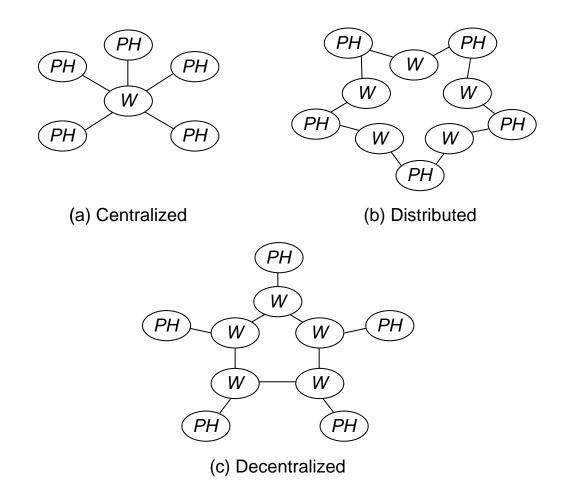


Figure 9.19 Solution structures for the dining philosophers.

```
module Waiter[5]
  op getforks(), relforks();
body
  process the_waiter {
    while (true) {
      receive getforks();
      receive relforks();
end Waiter
process Philosopher[i = 0 to 4] {
  int first = i, second = i+1;
  if (i == 4) {
    first = 0; second = 4; }
  while (true) {
    call Waiter[first].getforks();
    call Waiter[second].getforks();
    eat;
    send Waiter[first].relforks();
    send Waiter[second].relforks();
    think;
```

Figure 9.20 Distributed dining philosophers.

```
module Waiter[t = 0 to 4]
  op getforks(int), relforks(int); # for philosophers
                                    # for waiters
 op needL(), needR(),
     passL(), passR();
 op forks(bool,bool,bool); # for initialization
body
 op hungry(), eat();
                           # local operations
 bool haveL, dirtyL, haveR, dirtyR; # status of forks
 int left = (t-1) % 5;
                               # left neighbor
 int right = (t+1) % 5;
                               # right neighbor
 proc getforks() {
   send hungry(); # tell waiter philosopher is hungry
   receive eat(); # wait for permission to eat
 process the_waiter {
    receive forks(haveL, dirtyL, haveR, dirtyR);
   while (true) {
      in hungry() ->
          # ask for forks I don't have
          if (!haveR) send Waiter[right].needL();
          if (!haveL) send Waiter[left].needR();
          # wait until I have both forks
          while (!haveL or !haveR)
            in passR() ->
                haveR = true; dirtyR = false;
            [] passL() ->
                haveL = true; dirtyL = false;
            [] needR() st dirtyR ->
                haveR = false; dirtyR = false;
                send Waiter[right].passL();
                send Waiter[right].needL()
            [] needL() st dirtyL ->
                haveL = false; dirtyL = false;
                send Waiter[left].passR();
                send Waiter[left].needR();
           ni
          # let philosopher eat, then wait for release
          send eat(); dirtyL = true; dirtyR = true;
          receive relforks();
      [] needR() ->
          # neighbor needs my right fork (its left)
         haveR = false; dirtyR = false;
          send Waiter[right].passL();
      [] needL() ->
          # neighbor needs my left fork (its right)
          haveL = false; dirtyL = false;
          send Waiter[left].passR();
     ni
end Waiter
```

```
process Philosopher[i = 0 to 4] {
   while (true) {
     call Waiter[i].getforks();
     eat;
     call Waiter[i].relforks();
     think;
}

process Main { # initialize the forks held by waiters
   send Waiter[0].forks(true, true, true);
   send Waiter[1].forks(false, false, true, true);
   send Waiter[2].forks(false, false, true, true);
   send Waiter[3].forks(false, false, true, true);
   send Waiter[4].forks(false, false, false, false);
}
```

Figure 9.21 Decentralized dining philosophers.