

# CSE 421/521 - Operating Systems Fall 2018

LECTURE - XXIII

## DISTRIBUTED SYSTEMS - II

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# Roadmap

- Distributed Mutual Exclusion
- Distributed Deadlock Prevention
- Distributed Deadlock Detection



# Distributed Mutual Exclusion (DME)

- Assumptions
  - The system consists of  $n$  processes; each process  $P_i$  resides at a different processor
  - Each process has a critical section that requires mutual exclusion
- Requirement
  - If  $P_i$  is executing in its critical section, then no other process  $P_j$  is executing in its critical section
- We present different approaches to ensure the mutual exclusion of processes in their critical sections

# 1. Centralized Approach

- One of the processes in the system is chosen to coordinate the entry to the critical section
- A process that wants to enter its critical section sends a request message to the coordinator
- The coordinator decides which process can enter the critical section next, and it sends that process a reply message
- When the process receives a reply message from the coordinator, it enters its critical section
- After exiting its critical section, the process sends a release message to the coordinator and proceeds with its execution
- This scheme requires three messages per critical-section entry: *request*, *reply*, *release*
- **Single point of failure!** -> would need a new coordinator to be elected..

## 2. Fully Distributed Approach

- When process  $P_i$  wants to enter its critical section, it generates a new timestamp,  $TS$ , and sends the message *request* ( $P_i$ ,  $TS$ ) to all processes in the system
- When process  $P_j$  receives a *request* message, it may reply immediately or it may defer sending a reply back
- When process  $P_i$  receives a *reply* message from all other processes in the system, it can enter its critical section
- After exiting its critical section, the process sends *reply* messages to all its deferred requests

## Fully Distributed Approach (Cont.)

- The decision whether process  $P_j$  replies immediately to a  $request(P_i, TS)$  message or defers its reply is based on three factors:
  - If  $P_j$  is in its critical section, then it defers its reply to  $P_i$
  - If  $P_j$  does *not* want to enter its critical section, then it sends a *reply* immediately to  $P_i$
  - If  $P_j$  wants to enter its critical section but has not yet entered it, then it compares its own request timestamp with the timestamp  $TS$ 
    - If its own request timestamp is greater than  $TS$ , then it sends a *reply* immediately to  $P_i$  ( $P_i$  asked first)
    - Otherwise, the reply is deferred
- **Example:** P1 sends a request to P2 and P3 (timestamp=10)  
P3 sends a request to P1 and P2 (timestamp=4)

# Undesirable Consequences

- The processes need to know the identity of all other processes in the system, which makes the dynamic addition and removal of processes more complex
- If one of the processes fails, then the entire scheme collapses
  - This can be dealt with by continuously monitoring the state of all the processes in the system, and notifying all processes if a process fails

==> More suitable for small, stable set of coordinating processes

### 3. Token-Passing Approach

- Circulate a token among processes in system
  - **Token** is special type of message
  - Possession of token entitles holder to enter critical section
- Processes *logically* organized in a **ring structure**
- Unidirectional ring guarantees freedom from starvation
- Two types of failures
  - Lost token - election must be called
  - Failed processes - new logical ring established



# Election Algorithms

- Determine where a new copy of the coordinator should be restarted
- Assume that a unique priority number is associated with each active process in the system, and assume that the priority number of process  $P_i$  is  $i$
- The coordinator is always the process with the highest priority number. When a coordinator fails, the algorithm must elect that active process with the largest priority number
- Two algorithms, the bully algorithm and a ring algorithm, can be used to elect a new coordinator in case of failures

# 1. Bully Algorithm

- Applicable to systems where every process can send a message to every other process in the system
- If process  $P_i$  sends a request that is not answered by the coordinator within a time interval  $T$ , assume that the coordinator has failed;  $P_i$  tries to elect itself as the new coordinator
- $P_i$  sends an election message to every process with a higher priority number,  $P_i$  then waits for any of these processes to answer within  $T$

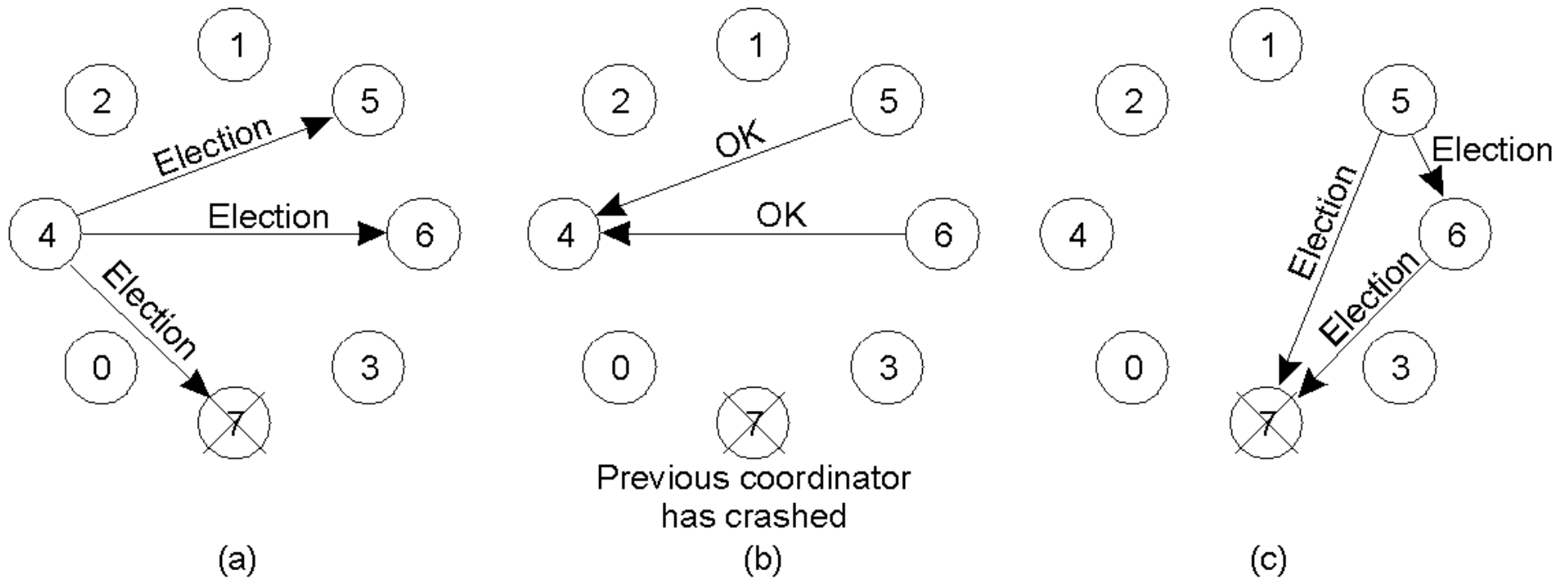
## Bully Algorithm (Cont.)

- If no response within  $T$ , assume that all processes with numbers greater than  $i$  have failed;  $P_i$  elects itself the new coordinator
- If answer is received,  $P_i$  begins time interval  $T'$ , waiting to receive a message that a process with a higher priority number has been elected
- If no message is sent within  $T'$ , assume the process with a higher number has failed;  $P_i$  should restart the algorithm

## Bully Algorithm (Cont.)

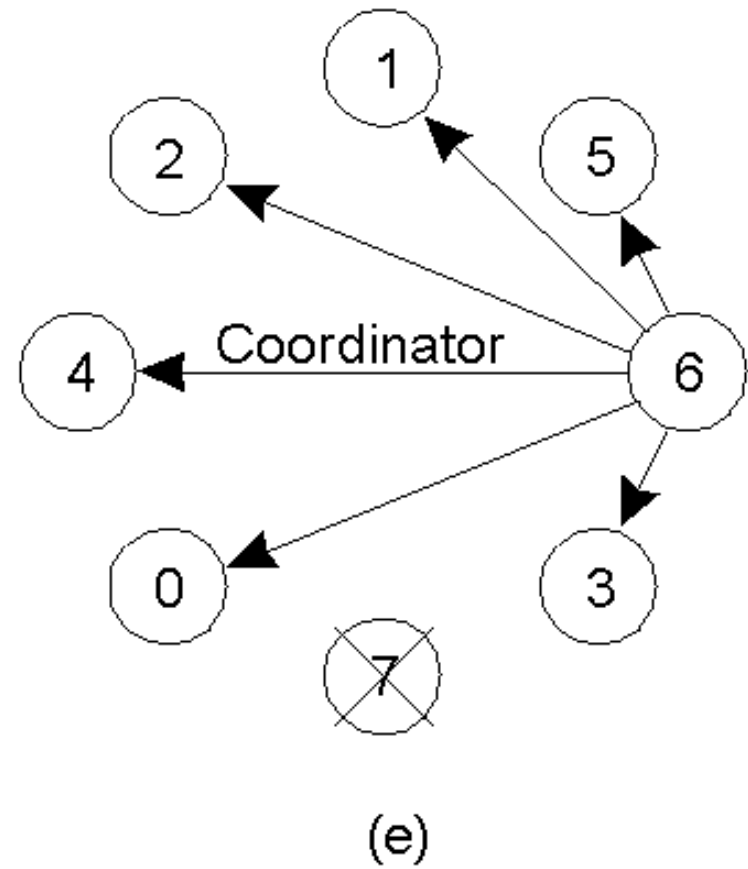
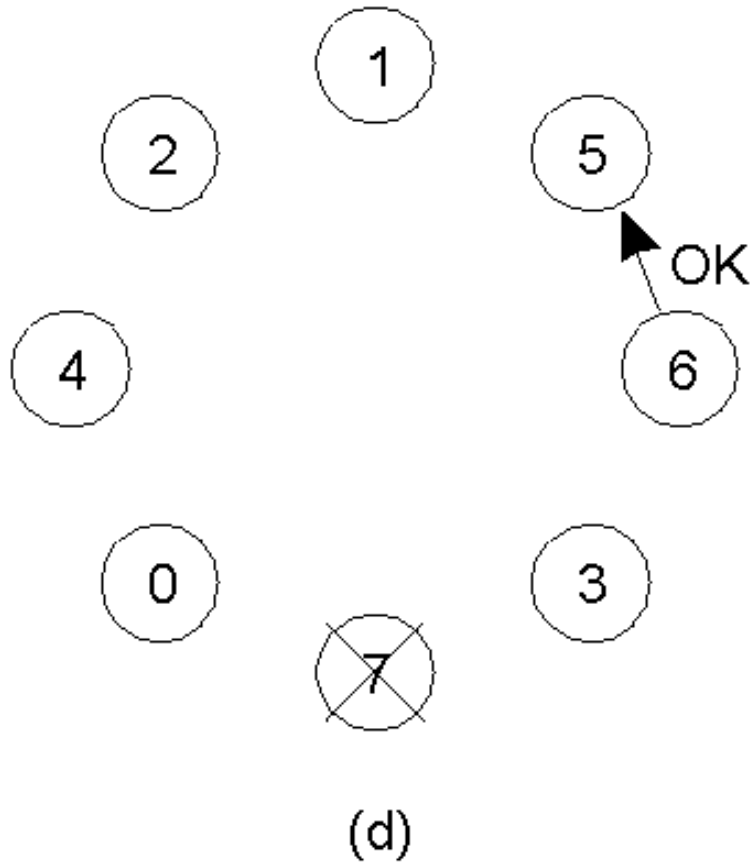
- If  $P_i$  is not the coordinator, then, at any time during execution,  $P_i$  may receive one of the following two messages from process  $P_j$ 
  - $P_j$  is the new coordinator ( $j > i$ ).  $P_i$ , in turn, records this information
  - $P_j$  started an election ( $j < i$ ).  $P_i$ , sends a response to  $P_j$  and begins its own election algorithm, provided that  $P_i$  has not already initiated such an election
- After a failed process recovers, it immediately begins execution of the same algorithm
- If there are no active processes with higher numbers, the recovered process forces all processes with lower number to let it become the coordinator process, even if there is a currently active coordinator with a lower number

# The Bully Algorithm (Example)



- ➡ Process 4 holds an election
- ➡ Process 5 and 6 respond, telling 4 to stop
- ➡ Now 5 and 6 each hold an election

# The Bully Algorithm (Example)



# Bully Algorithm Analysis

- Best case
  - The node with second highest identifier detects failure
  - Total messages =  $N-2$ 
    - One message for each of the other processes indicating the process with the second highest identifier is the new coordinator.
- Worst case
  - The node with lowest identifier detects failure. This causes  $N-1$  processes to initiate the election algorithm each sending messages to processes with higher identifiers.
  - Total messages =  $O(N^2)$

## 2. Ring Algorithm

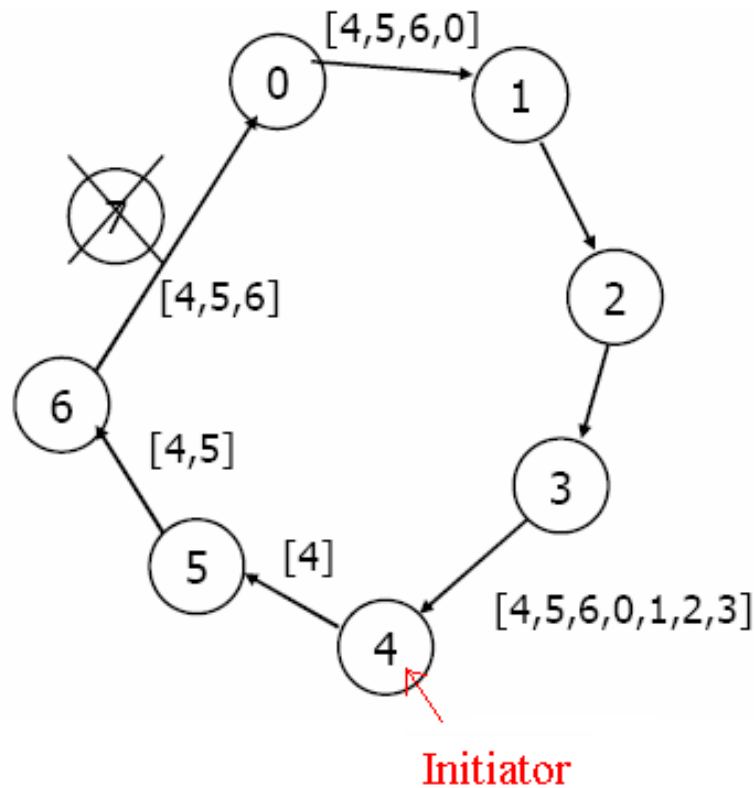
- Applicable to systems organized as a ring (logically or physically)
- Assumes that the links are unidirectional, and that processes send their messages to their right neighbors
- Each process maintains an active list, consisting of all the priority numbers of all active processes in the system when the algorithm ends
- If process  $P_i$  detects a coordinator failure, it creates a new active list that is initially empty. It then sends a message  $\text{elect}(i)$  to its right neighbor, and adds the number  $i$  to its active list



## Ring Algorithm (Cont.)

- If  $P_i$  receives a message  $elect(j)$  from the process on the left, it must respond in one of three ways:
  - ◆ If this is the first *elect* message it has seen or sent,  $P_i$  creates a new active list with the numbers  $i$  and  $j$ 
    - It then sends the message  $elect(i)$ , followed by the message  $elect(j)$
  - ◆ If  $i \neq j$ , the message does not contain  $P_i$ 
    - $P_i$  adds  $j$  to its active list and forward message to the right
  - ◆ If  $i = j$ , then  $P_i$  receives the message  $elect(i)$ 
    - The active list for  $P_i$  contains all the active processes in the system
    - $P_i$  can now determine the largest number in the active list to identify the new coordinator process

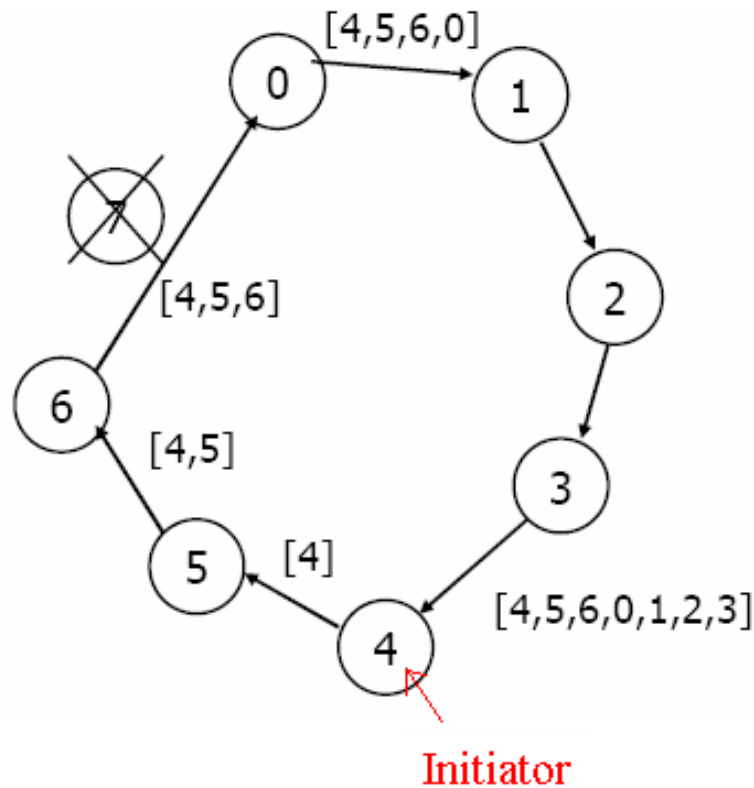
# Ring Algorithm (Example)



Initiation:

1. Process 4 sends an ELECTION message to its successor (or next alive process) with its ID

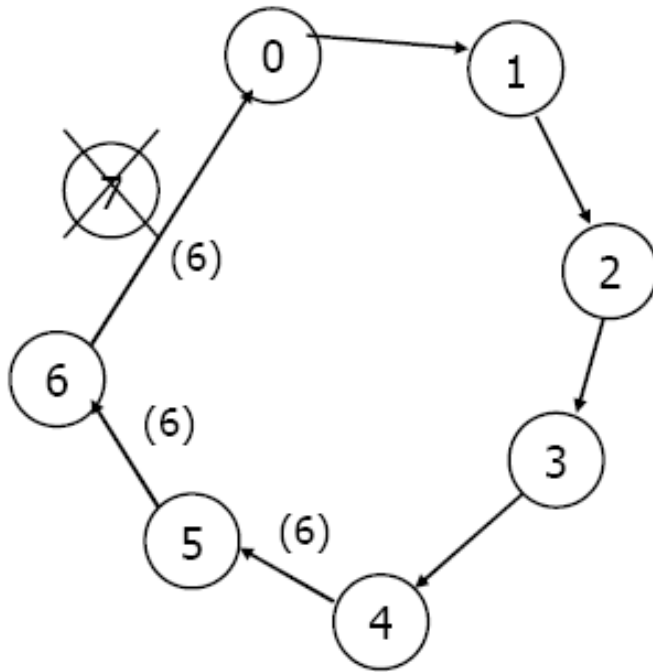
# Ring Algorithm (Example)



Initiation:

2. Each process adds its own ID and forwards the ELECTION message

# Ring Algorithm (Example)



Leader Election:

3. Message comes back to initiator, here the initiator is 4.

4. Initiator announces the winner by sending another message around the ring

# Ring Algorithm Analysis

- At best  $2(N-1)$  messages are passed
  - One round for the ELECTION message
  - One round for the COORDINATOR
  - Assumes that only a single process starts an election.
- Multiple elections cause an increase in messages but no real harm done.

# Distributed Deadlock Prevention

- Resource-ordering deadlock-prevention

=>define a *global* ordering among the system resources

- Assign a unique number to all system resources
- A process may request a resource with unique number  $i$  only if it is not holding a resource with a unique number greater than  $i$
- Simple to implement; requires little overhead

- Timestamp-ordering deadlock-prevention

=>unique Timestamp assigned when each process is created

1. wait-die scheme -- non-preemptive
2. wound-wait scheme -- preemptive

# 1. Prevention: Wait-Die Scheme

- non-preemptive approach
- If  $P_i$  requests a resource currently held by  $P_j$ ,  $P_i$  is allowed to wait only if it has a smaller timestamp than does  $P_j$  ( $P_i$  is older than  $P_j$ )
  - Otherwise,  $P_i$  is rolled back (dies - releases resources)
- Example: Suppose that processes  $P_1$ ,  $P_2$ , and  $P_3$  have timestamps 5, 10, and 15 respectively
  - if  $P_1$  request a resource held by  $P_2$ , then  $P_1$  will wait
  - If  $P_3$  requests a resource held by  $P_2$ , then  $P_3$  will be rolled back
- The older the process gets, the more waits

## 2. Prevention: Wound-Wait Scheme

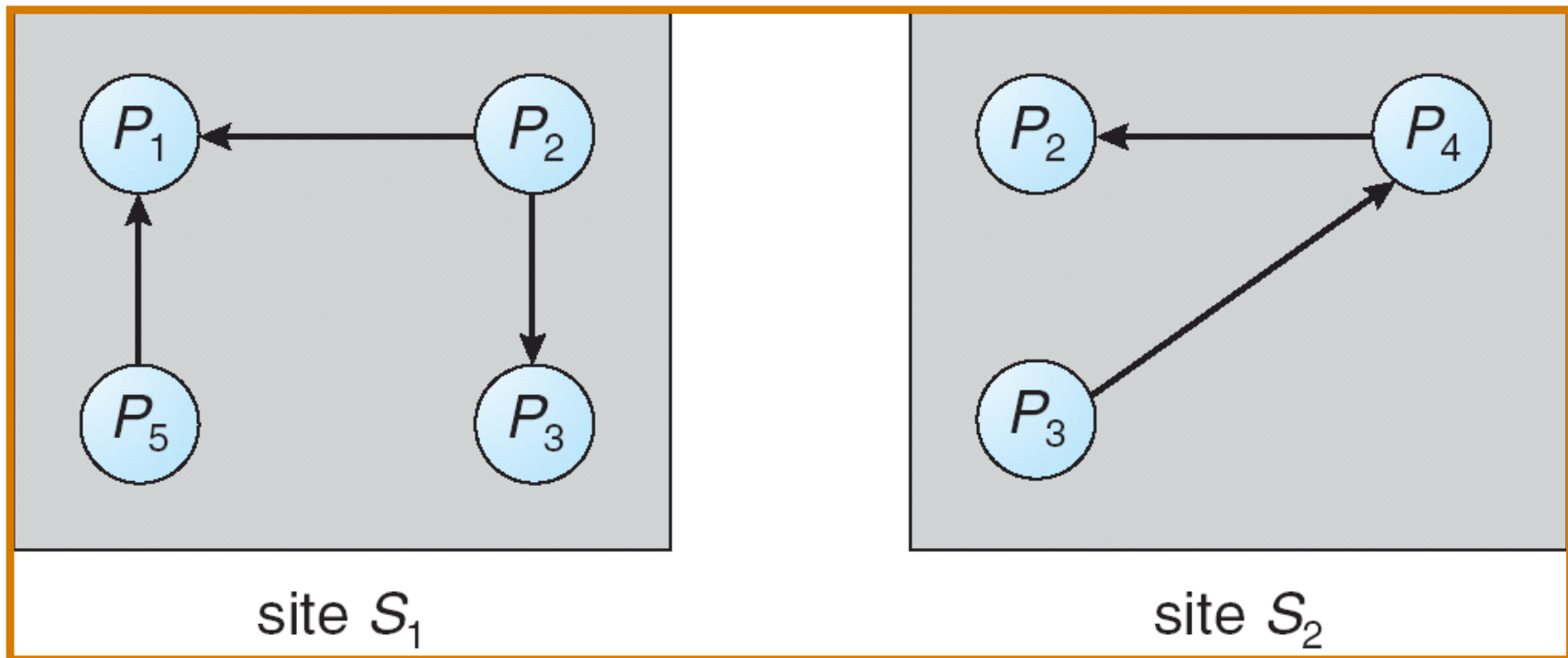
- Preemptive approach, counterpart to the wait-die
- If  $P_i$  requests a resource currently held by  $P_j$ ,  $P_i$  is allowed to wait only if it has a larger timestamp than does  $P_j$  ( $P_i$  is younger than  $P_j$ ). Otherwise  $P_j$  is rolled back ( $P_j$  is wounded by  $P_i$ )
- Example: Suppose that processes  $P_1$ ,  $P_2$ , and  $P_3$  have timestamps 5, 10, and 15 respectively
  - If  $P_1$  requests a resource held by  $P_2$ , then the resource will be preempted from  $P_2$  and  $P_2$  will be rolled back
  - If  $P_3$  requests a resource held by  $P_2$ , then  $P_3$  will wait
- The rolled-back process eventually gets the smallest timestamp.



# Comparison

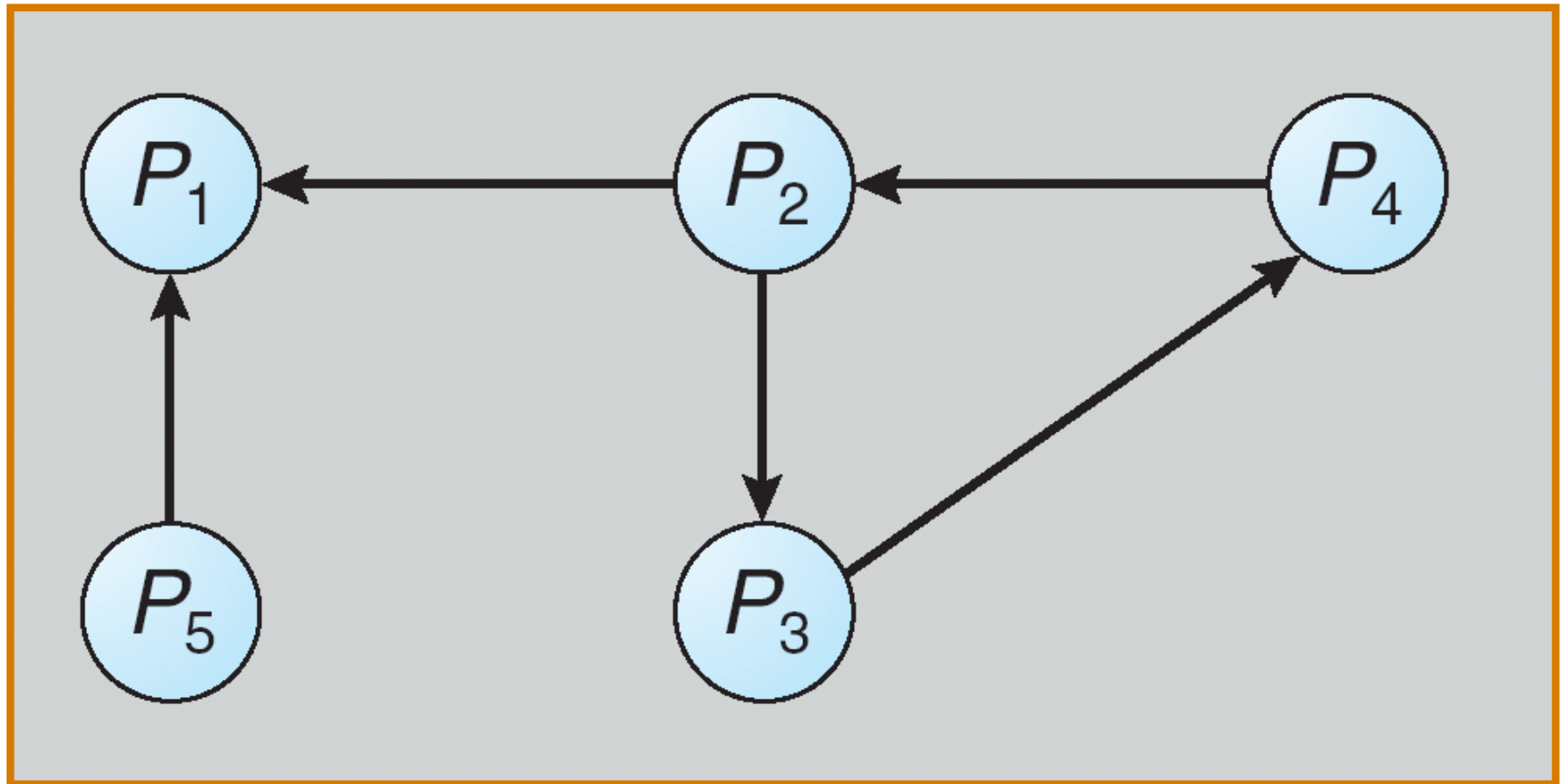
- Both avoid starvation, provided that when a process is rolled back, it is not assigned a new timestamp
- In **wait-die**, older process must wait for the younger one to release its resources. In **wound-wait**, an older process never waits for a younger process.
- There are fewer roll-backs in **wound-wait**
  - Assume  $P_i$  is younger than  $P_j$
  - **Wait-Die:**
    - $P_i \rightarrow P_j$ ;  $P_i$  dies, requests the same resources;  $P_i$  dies again...
  - **Wound-Wait:**
    - $P_j \rightarrow P_i$ ;  $P_i$  wounded. requests the same resources;  $P_i$  waits..

# Distributed Deadlock Detection



Two Local Wait-For Graphs

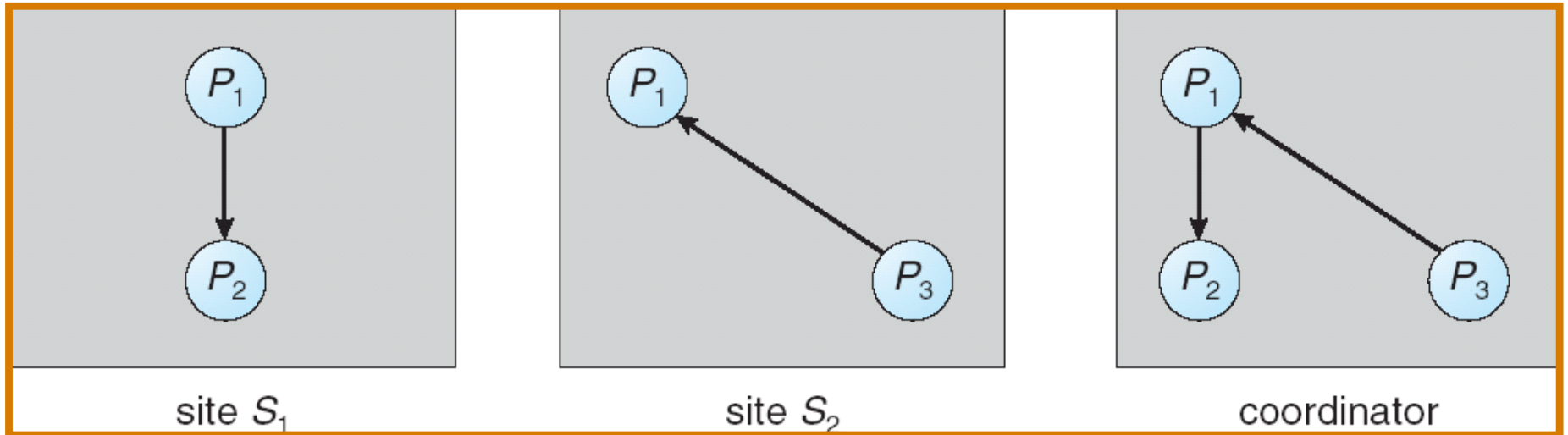
## Global Wait-For Graph



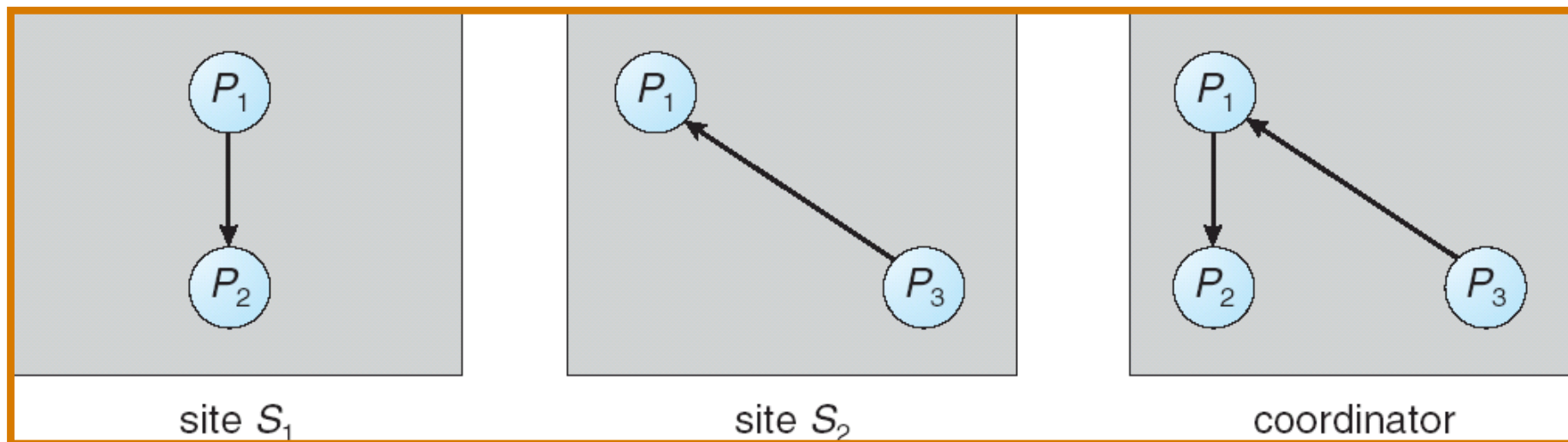
# 1. Deadlock Detection - Centralized Approach

- Each site keeps a local wait-for graph
  - The nodes of the graph correspond to all the processes that are currently either holding or requesting any of the resources local to that site; i.e., P1 is requesting a resource held by P2 on Site S2
- A global wait-for graph is maintained in a single **coordination process**; this graph is the union of all local wait-for graphs
- There are three different options (points in time) when the wait-for graph may be constructed:
  1. Whenever a new edge is inserted or removed in one of the local wait-for graphs
  2. Periodically, when a number of changes have occurred in a wait-for graph
  3. Whenever the coordinator needs to invoke the cycle-detection algorithm

# Local and Global Wait-For Graphs



# False Cycles

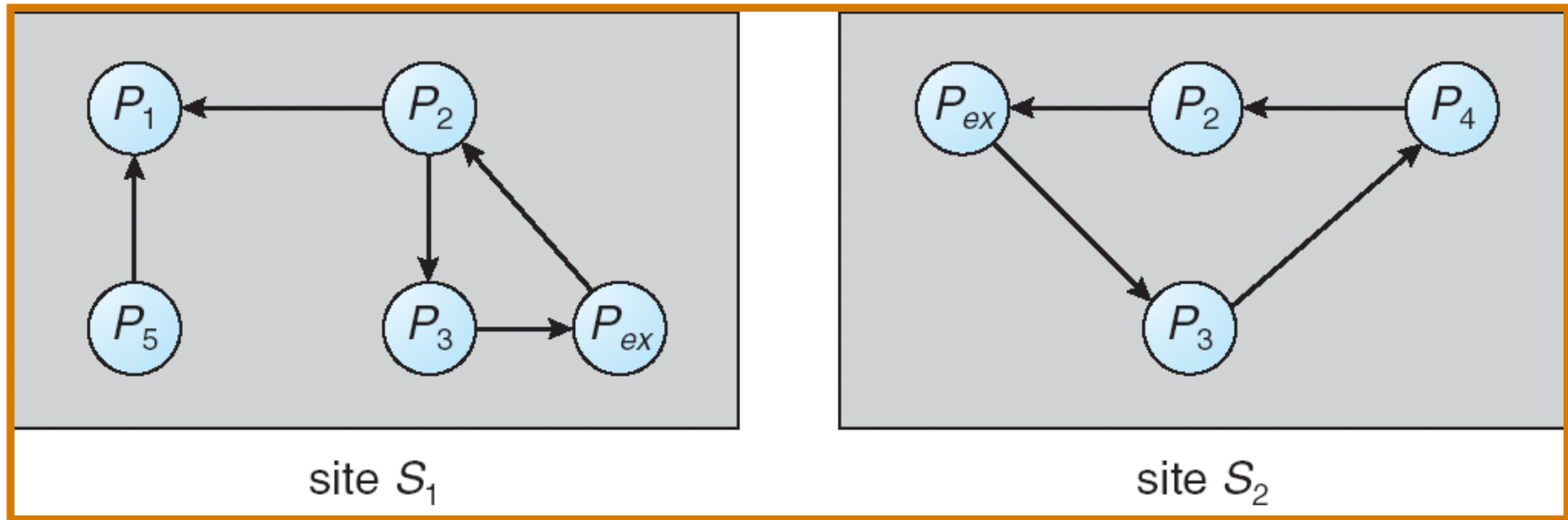


- Assume:
  - $P_2$  releases the resource it was holding
    - (remove  $P_1 \rightarrow P_2$ )
  - $P_2$  makes a request for a resource held by  $P_3$  on site  $S_2$ 
    - (add  $P_2 \rightarrow P_3$ )
- Consider option 1. What will happen if the update messages arrive to the coordination in wrong order?
  - $\Rightarrow$  false deadlock alert!

## 2. Fully Distributed Approach

- All controllers share equally the responsibility for detecting deadlock
- Every site constructs a wait-for graph that represents a part of the total graph
- We add one additional node  $P_{ex}$  to each local wait-for graph
  - $P_i \rightarrow P_{ex}$  exists if  $P_i$  is waiting for a data item at another site being held by another process
- If a local wait-for graph contains a cycle that does not involve node  $P_{ex}$ , then the system is in a deadlock state
- A cycle involving  $P_{ex}$  implies the possibility of a deadlock
  - To ascertain whether a deadlock does exist, a distributed deadlock-detection algorithm must be invoked

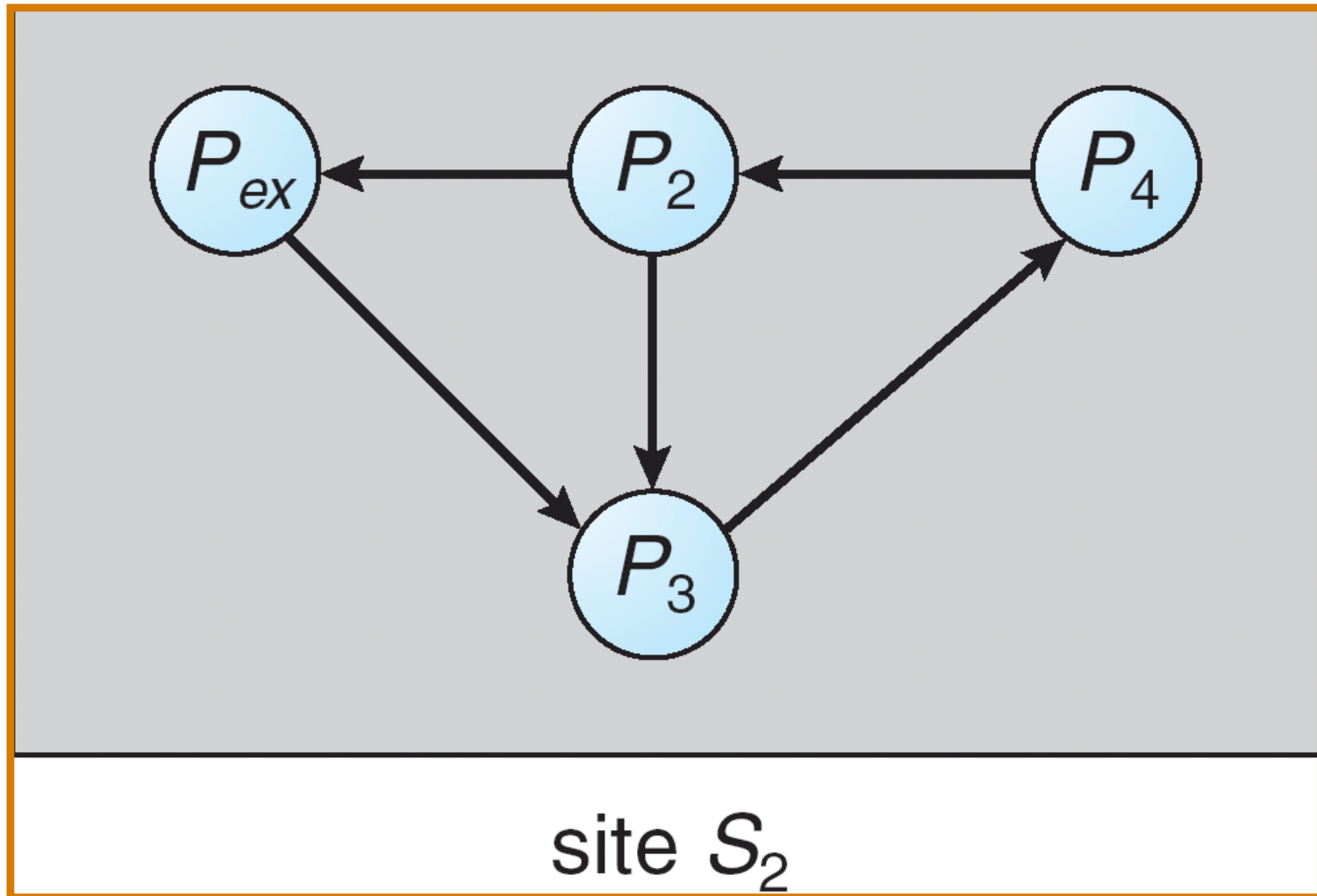
# Augmented Local Wait-For Graphs



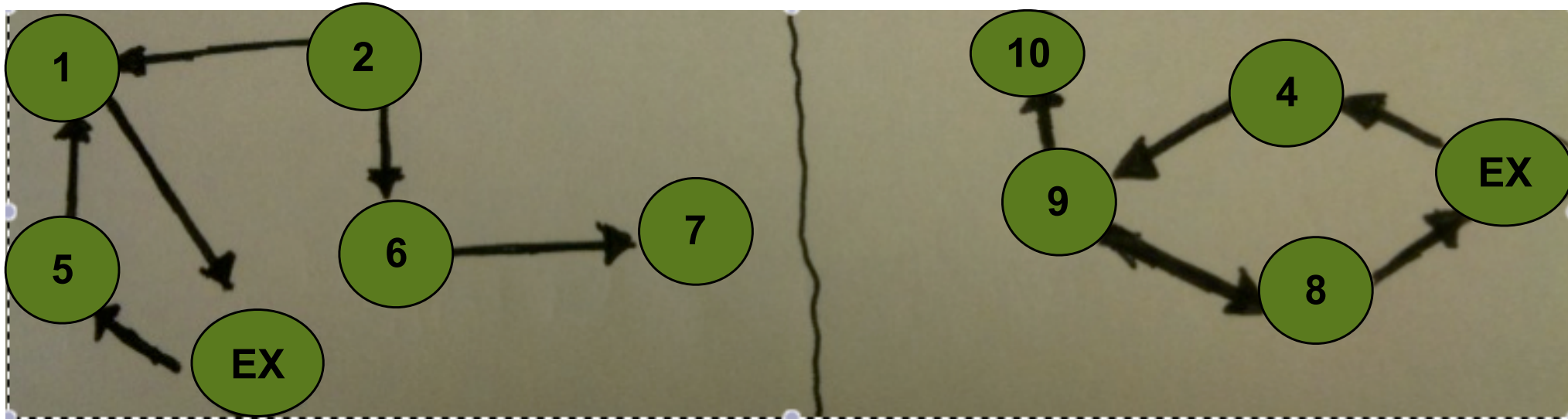
- $S_1$  discovers cycle:  $P_{ex} \rightarrow P_2 \rightarrow P_3 \rightarrow P_{ex}$
- $S_1$  transmits this message to  $S_2$
- $S_2$  learns additional edges from this message, such as  $P_2 \rightarrow P_3$ , and created and augmented graph (next slide)
- Now,  $S_2$  has a cycle which does not involve  $Ex \rightarrow$  deadlock
- Note: outcome would be the same if  $S_2$  detected the local cycle first.



## Augmented Local Wait-For Graph in Site $S_2$



## Exercise



Considering the above local wait-for graphs at sites S1 and S2, is the system D in a deadlocked state? If so, which processes are involved in the deadlock? Show how you would check the existence of a deadlock.

Any Questions?



# Acknowledgements

- “Operating Systems Concepts” book and supplementary material by A. Silberschatz, P. Galvin and G. Gagne
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