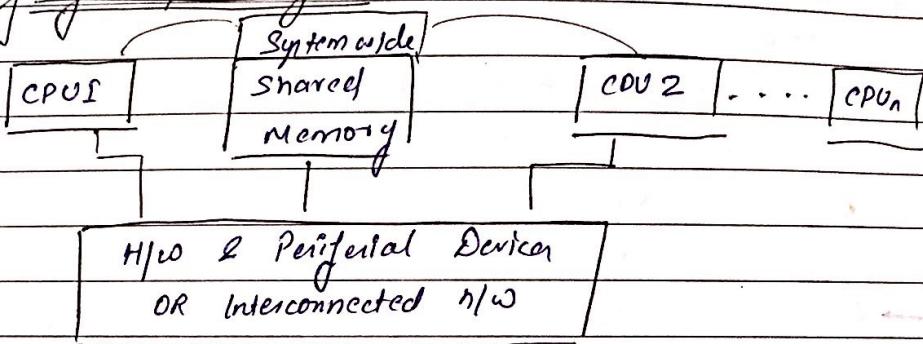


## \* COMPUTER ARCHITECTURE :-

- ↳ Tightly Coupled System
- ↳ Loosely Coupled System.

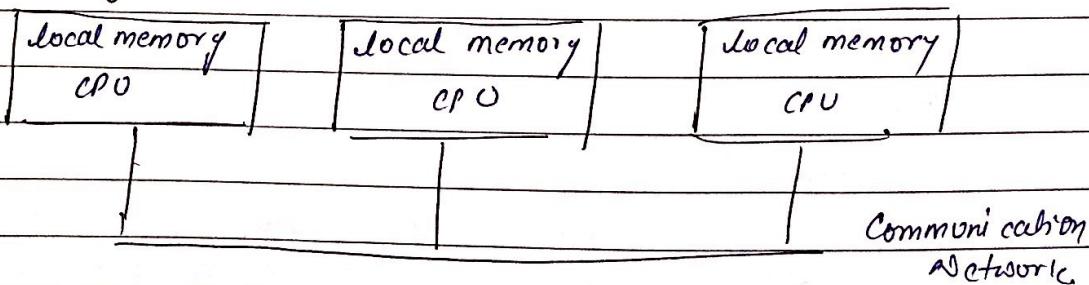
These architectures consist of interconnected multiple processors.

### ① Tightly Coupled System :-



- It has single address space

### ② Loosely Coupled System :-



- Every system is sharing its own memory space that is its local memory.

## DEFINITION OF DISTRIBUTED SYSTEM :-

A distributed computing system is collection of independent computer that appear to its user as a single coherent

system.

OR

A collection of processors interconnected by a communication network in which, -

- Each processor has its own local memory and other peripheral devices.
- Communication b/w any two processors takes place by message passing.
- For any particular processor its own resources are local resources and resources on the other processor will appear as remote resources.
- Together a processor and its resources are usually referred as a node or a site or a machine of the distributed computing system.

→ In distributed computing system is organised as middle ware.

→ Middle ware layer extend up over multiple machines.

18/08/18

### Challenges In Distributed System! -

- ① Heterogeneity :-
- ② Openness
- ③ Security - Single system is more secure than distributed system.
- ④ Scalability - Scale up & scale down can be done but it cause problem in policies.
- ⑤ Failure Handling
- ⑥ Concurrence
- ⑦ Transparency → It should be transparent for every single node in the system.

## Different models in distributed system :-

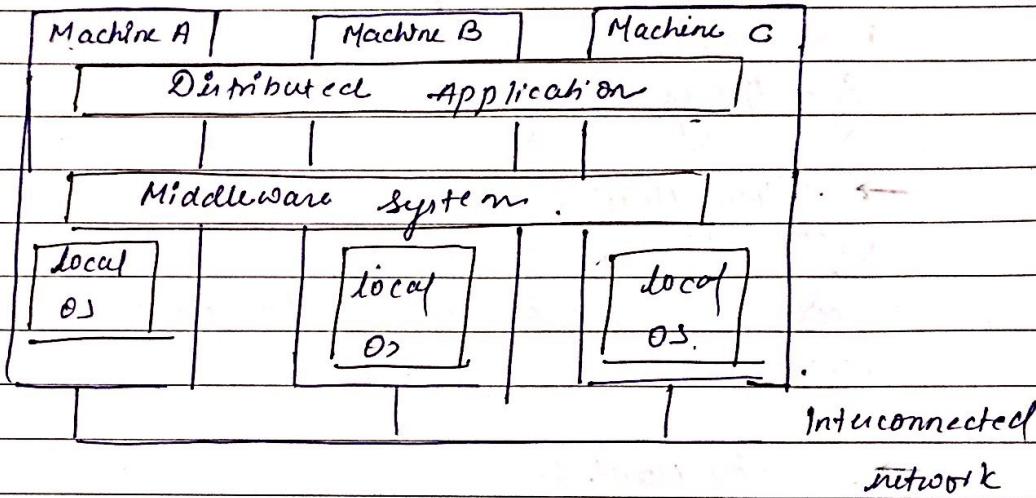
### ① Architectural Model :-

- An architectural model in distributed system is concern with replacement of the parts & the relationship b/w them.

→ Software layers :-

Middleware

layer is responsible for performing all the task of distributed system.



20/08/18

### ② → System Architecture :-

It includes division of responsibilities between system components

→ Types of System Architecture :-

(i) Client-Server

(ii) Peer to Peer

(iii) Interface an object .

→ Design Requirements :-

① Performance ② Quality of Service ③ Use of Replication, Parallel Caching

## → Dependability Issues :-

### ② Fundamental / Functional Model :-

These are concern with a more formal description of the properties that are common in all the architectural models.

### → Interaction Model :-

In the interaction model we deal with the performance and also deal with difficulty of setting time limitations in a distributed system.

Eg - Message delivery.

### → Failure Model :-

It attempts to give a precise information of the faults that can occur & that can be executed by processes & common channels.

### → Security Model :-

It discusses the possible threats to processes and to the communication channel.

Eg - Protecting objects, Securing processes & their interactions.

• 23/08/18

## Limitation Of Distributed System :-

- Problem of local CLK and global CLK.

Then logical CLK here we are giving the number to the events.

- Shared Memory

## → INHERENT LIMITATION OF DISTRIBUTED SYSTEM :-

### ① Absence of global clock :-

In a distributed system concept of global time does not exist.

It is a limitation for distributed system. We cannot solve this problem by either having a clock common to all the computer in the system or having a synchronised clock in each computer system because if we use a global clock (common clock) then two diff processes can observe a global clock value at diff instances due to unpredictable message transfer delays.

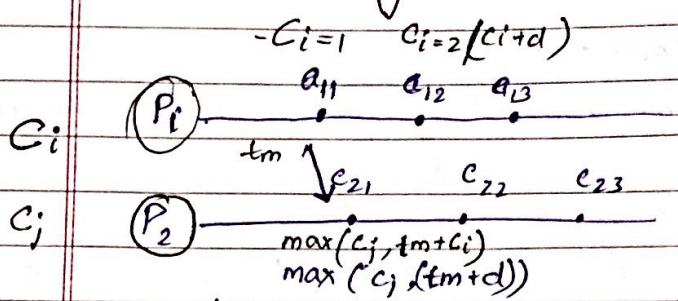
On the other hand if we provide each computer in a system a physical clock and try to synchronise them then physical clock can drift from the physical time. And the drift rate may vary from clock to clock due to technical limitation.

Due to absence of global time it is difficult to reason about or comment about the temporal order of the events in distributed system.

### ② Absence of Shared Memory :-

In distributed system do not share common memory so an upto date state of the entire system is not available for any individual process.

## Lamport's Logical clock :-

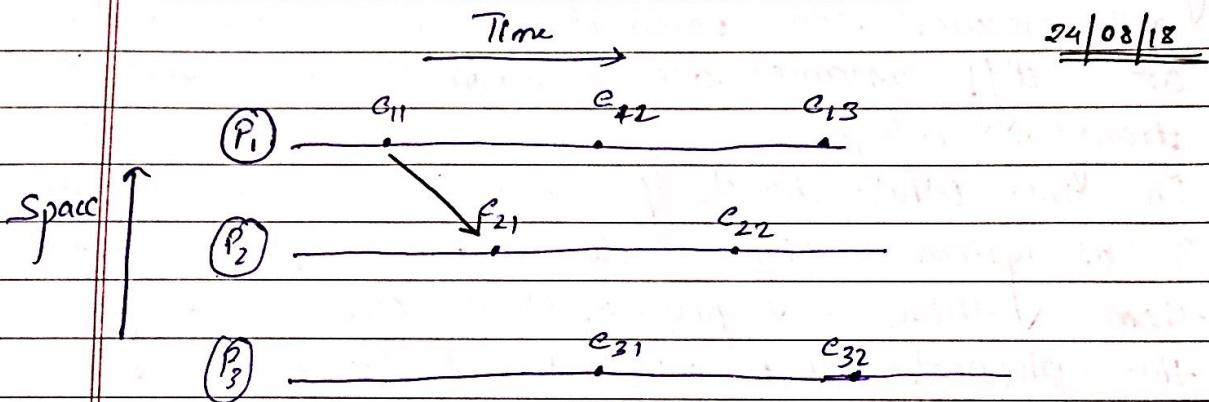


We do not care about the actual time for the occurring of an event.

when  $d$  is a difference

' $\rightarrow$ ' : happen before relation

If there is no happens before relation then it is concurrent events



Lamport proposed a scheme to order events in a distributed system using logical clock. Due to the absence of perfectly synchronised clock and global time in D system, the order in which 2 events occur at 2 different computers can't be determined based on the local time at which they occur.

Happen before relation ( $\rightarrow$ ) :- It captures the causal dependencies b/w events that is whether 2 events are causally related or not. The relation ( $\rightarrow$ ) is defined as follows —

①  $a \rightarrow b$  :  $a$  happens before  $b$

If  $a$  and  $b$  are events in same process &  $a$  occurred

before b

$$\text{eg} - e_{11} \rightarrow e_{12}$$

②  $a \rightarrow b$  :- If 'a' is an event of sending message 'm' in a process & 'b' is an event of receipt of same msg 'm' by another process.

$$\text{Eg} - e_{11} \rightarrow e_{21}$$

③ If  $a \rightarrow b$  &  $b \rightarrow c$  then  $a \rightarrow c$  is referred as causal effect that is ' $\rightarrow$ ' relation is transitive.

All the events that can be ordered by ( $\rightarrow$ ) are referred as causal effects.

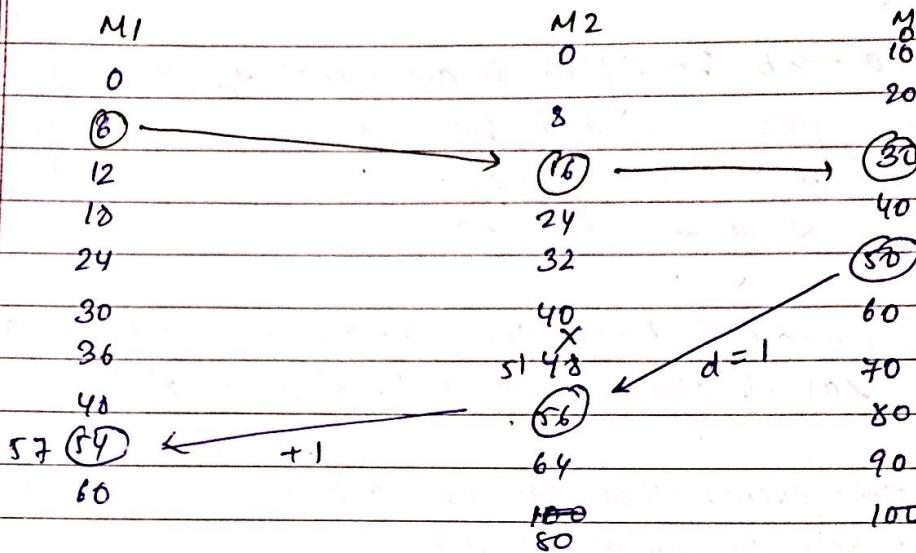
Concurrent Events :- Two distinct events 'a' & 'b' are said to be concurrent event denoted by  $a \parallel b$  if  $a \rightarrow b$  &  $b \rightarrow a$  i.e concurrent event do not causally affect each other.

Whenever  $a \rightarrow b$  holds for 2 events a & b their exist a path from a to b which moves only forward along with a time axis in the space time diagram.

- In a space-time diagram  $e_{11}, e_{12}$  &  $e_{13}$  are events in the process  $P_1$  &  $e_{21}, e_{22}$  are events in the process  $P_2$ . A arrow represents message transfer b/w the process. For eg -  $e_{11} \rightarrow e_{21}$  corresponds to a message m send from process  $P_1$  to  $P_2$ .  $e_{11}$  is the event of sending the message & m at  $P_1$  &  $e_{21}$  is the event of receiving the same

message at  $P_2$ .

28/07/18



$56 \xrightarrow{+1} 57$

$$\max(56 + 1, 16) = 16.$$

30/08/18

### VECTOR LOGICAL CLOCKS :-

- In order to realize the relation ' $\rightarrow$ ' Lamport introduce the following system of logical clocks.
- There is a clock  $C_i$  at each process  $P_i$  in the system.  $C_i$  can be thought as a function that assigns a number  $C_i(a)$  to any event  $a$  at  $P_i$ . The numbers assigned by system of clocks have no relation with to physical time & hence the name logical clock.
- The logical clock takes monotonically increasing values. Hence clock can be implemented by counters.
- The happen before relation ' $\rightarrow$ ' can now be checked by using the logical clock if the following two conditions are satisfied.
  - For any 2 events  $a, b$  in process  $P_i$

if 'a' occurs before 'b' then  $c_i(a) < c_i(b)$

② If 'a' is an event of sending a message 'm' in process 'Pi' and 'b' is the event of receiving the same message 'm' at process 'Pj' then  $c_i(a) < c_j(b)$

The following implementation rules for the clocks guarantees that the clock will satisfy the correctness condition ① & ②.

① Clock  $C_i$  is incremented b/w any 2 successive events in process  $P_i$

$$[C_i = C_i + d] \quad (d > 0)$$

If 'a' and 'b' are 2 successive events in process  $P_i$  then & 'a  $\rightarrow$  b' then  $[C_i(b) = C_i(a) + d]$

② If event 'a' is sending the message 'm' by process  $P_i$  then 'm' is assigned a timestamp ' $t_m$ ' On receiving the same message 'm' by Process  $P_j$ ,  $C_j$  is set to a value greater than or equal to its present value and greater than ' $t_m$ '

$$C_j = \max(C_j, t_m + d)$$

We are solving the problem of causally ordered events!

### VECTOR CLOCKS:-

Timestamp lead to a situation where all events in a distributed system are totally ordered with the property that if event 'a' happened before event 'b' then 'a' will also be positioned in that ordering before 'b' i.e  $|C_i(a) < C_i(b)|$  However with timestamp nothing can be said about the relationship b/w 2 events 'a' & 'b' by merely comparing their time values  $C_a$  and  $C_b$  respectively. In other words if  $C_a < C_b$  then this does not necessarily imply that 'a' indeed happen before 'b' some more information is required for that.

when we are passing info. Using that info and updating that info and using that. It is known as piggy backing.

Page .....  
Date 03/09/18

The problem with timestamp is it does not capture causality. This issue can be captured by means of vector timestamp.

- If vector timestamp ' $VT(a)$ ' assign to an event 'a' has the property that if  $VT(a) < VT(b)$  for some event 'b' then event 'a' is known to casually precede event 'b'
- Vector timestamp are constructed by letting each process ' $P_i$ ' maintain a vector ' $v_i$ ' with the following 2 properties —
  - (1)  $v_i[i]$  is the number of events that have occurred so far at ' $P_i$ '.
  - (2) If  $v_i[j] = k$  then, ' $P_i$ ' knows that 'k' event has occurred at ' $P_j$ '

- The 1<sup>st</sup> property is maintained by incrementing  $v_i[i]$  on the occurrence of each new event that happens at process ' $P_i$ '
- The 2<sup>nd</sup> property is maintained by piggy backing vectors along with messages that are sent.
- When ' $P_i$ ' sends message 'm' it also sends along its current vector or a timestamp ' $vt$ '.
- In this case a receiver is informed about that no. of events that have occurred ~~that at ' $P_i$ '~~. However ~~is at~~ in that receiver is told that how many events at other process have taken place before ' $P_i$ ' sends message 'm'. In other words timestamp ' $vt$ ' of 'm' tells the receiver how many events in other processes have preceded 'm', and on which event 'm' may casually depend.

→ When process ' $P_j$ ' receives message 'm' it will adjust its own vector by setting each entry  $V_j[k] = \max(V_j[k], v_t[k])$ . The vector now reflects the no. of messages that ' $P_j$ ' must receive to have at least seen the same messages that preceded the sending of 'm'. Here after ' $V_j[J]$ ' is incremented by '1' representing the event of receiving the next message. With the slight adjustment vector timestamp can be used to correctly deliver message delivery. In particular a message 'r' is delivered only if

- (1)  $v_t(r)[J] = v_k[J] + 1$
- (2)  $v_t(r)[i] \leq v_k[i]$  for all  $i \neq J$

⇒ The 1<sup>st</sup> condition states that 'r' is the next message that ' $P_k$ ' was expecting from process ' $P_j$ '  
 ⇒ The 2<sup>nd</sup> condition states that ' $P_k$ ' has not seen any message that were also not seen by ' $P_j$ ' when it send message 'r'. In particular this means that ' $P_k$ ' has already seen message 'a'

→ GLOBAL STATE :-

7/9/18.

Uses of Global State

① Deadlock Detection

② Termination Detection

In the global state we take snapshot of the entire distributed system and share the snapshot with each node of distributed system so that nodes will have information of all the processes and state of the processes running in a distributed system.

With the help of global state we can predict the behaviour of entire distributed system that all the processes in the

distributed systems are terminated successfully or the entire systems have entered into deadlock state.

### → Causal Ordering of Messages

#### Election Algorithm —

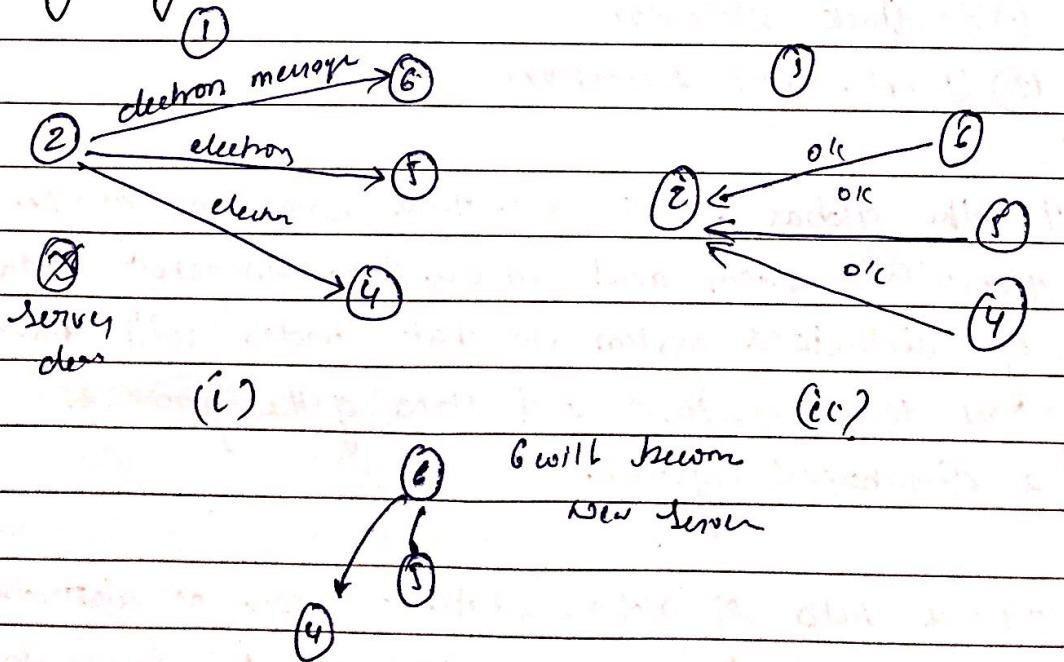
##### ① The Bully Algorithm —

When any process notices that the coordination is no longer responsive to a message / request it initiates an election. The process p holds an election as follows —

→ P sends an election message to all the processes with higher number if no one responds with 'OK' message P uses the election and becomes co-ordinator

→ If one of the here up answer it takes over and their jobs are done.

##### ② Ring Algorithm —



## → DISTRIBUTED MUTUAL EXCLUSION

Requirements of Mutual Exclusive Algorithm -

The primary objective of a mutual exclusive algorithm is to maintain mutual exclusive that is to guarantee that only one request access the critical section (C.S) at a time.

In addition, following characteristics are considered important in an mutual exclusive algorithms.

(1) Freedom from deadlock

(2) Freedom from saturation starvation

(3) Fairness

(4) Fault Tolerance

(1) Freedom from deadlock - Two or more sites should not endlessly wait for messages that will not arrive

(2) Freedom from starvation - A site should not be forced to wait for infinite time to execute critical section while other sites are repeatedly executing critical section

(3) Fairness - Fairness dictates that request must be executed in the order they were made since, the physical global clock does not exact time is determined by logical clock  
Note that fairness implies freedom from starvation but not vice-versa.

(4) Fault Tolerance - A mutual exclusive algorithm is fault tolerant if in the wake of a failure it can recognise itself so that it continues to function without any distraction.

## → How to Measure the Performance?

- ① No of messages
- ② Synchronization Delay.
- ③ Response Time
- ④ System Throughput -

## → TOKEN BASED & NON-TOKEN BASED ALGORITHM

### ① Non - Token Based Algorithm :-

- In Non-token based mutual exclusive algorithms a site communicates with a set of other sites to arbitrate who should execute the critical section next.
- For a site  $S_i$ , request set  $R_i$  contains IP's of all the sites from which site  $S_i$  must acquire permission before entering into critical section.
- Non-token based mutual exclusion algorithms use timestamp to order request for the critical section, and to resolve the conflict b/w simultaneous request for the critical section.
- In these algorithms logical clocks were maintained and updated according to Lamport's scheme. Each request for the critical section gets a timestamp & smaller timestamp request have priority over larger timestamp request.

Eg - Lamport, Richard - Agrawala, Mackawa Algorithms

## ② TOKEN BASED ALGORITHMS :-

- In token based algorithm the unique token is shared among all the sites. A site is allowed to enter into critical section if it possess the token.
- Token based algorithm use 'sequence number' instead of timestamp. Every request for the token contains a sequence number and sequence number of the site advance independently.
- A site increments its sequence number counter every time it makes a request for the token.

Eg - Suzuki - Kasami's  
Singhal's algorithm  
Raymond's tree  
Broadcast algorithm

NON-TOKEN BASED -(1) Lamport's Algorithm :-

Lamport was first one to give student mutual exclusive algorithm as an illustration of its clock synchronization scheme. in Lamport algorithm

In Lamport algorithm

$$\forall i : 1 \leq i \leq n ; R_i = \{s_1, s_2 \dots s_n\}$$

Every site -  $s_i$  keeps a queue: request queue (rq.) which contains mutual exclusive request ordered by their timestamp.

Algorithm -

## (a) Requesting the critical section

(i) When a site  $s_i$  wants to enter in critical section it sends a request message REQUEST( $t_{s_i}, i$ ) to all the sites in its request set ( $R_i$ ) and places the request on request queue where ( $t_{s_i}, i$ ) is timestamp of the request.

(ii) When a site  $s_j$  receives a request REQUEST( $t_{s_i}, i$ ) message from the site  $s_i$ , it returns a timestamp reply to  $s_i$  and places site  $s_i$  request on request queue.

(b) Executing the critical section: when the following 2 conditions hold:

(i)  $s_i$  have received a message with timestamp larger than ( $t_{s_j}, j$ ) all the other sites

(ii)  $s_i$ 's request is at the top of request queue.

## (c) Releasing the critical section.

(i) Site  $s_i$  upon releasing the critical section removes its request from the top of its request queue and sends a timestamp release message 'RELEASE' to all the sites in its request set

(ii) When a site  $s_j$  receives message 'RELEASE' from  $s_i$ , it removes  $s_i$  request from its request queue.

→ When a site removes a request from its request queue, its own request may come at the top of the queue enabling it to enter into critical section. The algorithm executes critical section request in the increasing order of timestamp.

### 2) TOKEN BASED :-

#### ① SUZUKI - KASAMI'S BROADCAST ALGORITHM :-

Algorithm :-

- (a) Requesting the critical section
  - (i) If the requesting site  $s_i$  does not have token then it increments its sequence no. 'RN<sub>i</sub>[i]' and sends the REQUEST ( $i, s_n$ ) message to all the site ( $s_n$  is the updated value of "RN<sub>i</sub>[i]" )
  - (ii) When a site  $s_j$  receives this message it sets RN<sub>j</sub>[i] to max (RN<sub>j</sub>[i], s<sub>n</sub>). If  $s_j$  has the <sup>older</sup> token then it sends the token to  $s_i$ , if RN<sub>j</sub>[i] = LN[i] + 1

#### (b) Executing the critical section

- (iii) Site  $s_i$  executes the critical section when it has received the token.

#### (c) Releasing the critical section

Having finished the execution of critical section site  $s_i$  has the following options -

- (iv) It sets LN[i] element of the token array equal to RN[i]

If one process stops then it is starvation  
If whole system works stops then it is deadlock

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(v) For every site  $S_j$  whose ID is not in the token queue, it appends its ID to the token queue if  $RN:[j] = LN[j] + 1$

(vi) If token queue is non-empty after the above update then it deletes the top-most site ID from the queue and sends the token to the site indicated by the ID.

### → Deadlock Detection in Distributed System :-

Deadlock can be dealt with using any of the following 3 strategies.

① Deadlock Prevention :- It is commonly achieved by either having a process acquire all the needed resources simultaneously before it begins the execution. or by preempting a process that holds the needed resource.

② Deadlock Avoidance :- This approach in distributed system a resource is granted to a process if the resulting global system is safe.

③ Deadlock Detection :- It requires an examination of the status of the process resource interaction for the presence of a deadlock condition. To remove the deadlock we have to abort the process deadlock.

## Centralized Deadlock Detection Algorithms :-

A central system has the all information about the all the resources.

## Distributed Deadlock Detection Algorithms :-

- In this algorithms, all sites collectively cooperates to detect a cycle in the state graph that is likely to be distributed over several sites of the system.
- DDDA can be divided into 4 classes.—
  - (1) Path Pushing
  - (2) Edge Chaining
  - (3) Diffusion Computation
  - (4) Global State Detection.

### Path Pushing -

In path pushing algorithms the wait-for dependency info of the global WFG (wait for graph) is disseminated in designated form in the form of path.

### Edge Chaining :-

In edge chaining algorithm special messages called as 'probes' are circulated among the edges of wait WFG to detect a cycle. When a block process receives a probes its propagates the probe message along its outgoing edges in the WFG.

A process declares a deadlock when it receives a probes initiated by it only.

Diffusion Computation -

- These algorithms make use of eco-algorithms to detect deadlock.
- To detect deadlock a process sends out query message along all the outgoing message WFL. Then query queries are successfully propagated through the edges of graph.
- Queries are discarded by a running process and echoed by a standing blocked process. In the following way —
  - When a block process receives first query message for a particular deadlock detection initiated it does not send a reply until it has received by a reply message from every site send by this process for all subsequent query for this deadlock detection it immediately sends back a reply message. The initiator of the deadlock detection detects a deadlock when it receives a reply from every query it sends.

Global State Detection -

- This based deadlock detection algo exploit the following facts —
- A consistent snapshot of a system can be contained without freezing the underlying computation.
  - A consistent snapshot may not represent the system state at any moment of time, but if a stable property holds in the system before the snapshot collection is initiated, this property will still hold in the snapshot.

Therefore distributed deadlocks can be detected by taking the snapshot of a system and examining it for the condition of a deadlock.