III. Basic Interaction and Cooperation Mechanisms

Basis: (c.f. Definition of Distributed Systems)

- *Hardware:* Distributed, heterogenous compute nodes connected by various types of networks.
- Software: Application and operating system processes (or threads) in a mix of sequential, nondeterministic interleaving or truly parallel execution on the same or different nodes.

Target Distributed Systems Model:

- ► System(s) of active processes get some *common* work done
 - \implies Information exchange through interaction mechanisms
- ▶ Interaction defines two principal Roles: 'provider' vs. 'recipient'
 - Shared Memory: 'writer' vs. 'reader'
 - Distributed Memory: 'sender' vs. 'receiver'
 - \implies Information exchange introduces a causal dependency where the recipient depends on the provider.

Preview: Dependency degrees and coupling

- 1. **No** direct or in-direct **interaction** \implies no coupling asynchronous processes with isolated local states only
- 2. **Signal**: **existence** (pure) of information representation 'pure' synchronization $\Longrightarrow very \ tight \ coupling$ Example: P_r waits for signal from P_p ; check for non-null ref.
- 3. Data: existence plus content $\Longrightarrow tight\ coupling$ Example: P_r reads content of data or message provided by P_p
- 4. Task: existence plus content plus interpretation of information representation $\Longrightarrow moderate\ coupling$ Expl.: Server P_r gets method call and parameters from client P_p
- 5. Self-contained: existence plus content plus procedure to deal with content $\Longrightarrow loose\ coupling$ Expl.: P_r gets method call, parameters and executable from P_p

III.1 Process System Model

- 1. Static Structure prescribes the scope for behavior
 - a finite set of **States** Q with a specific initial state $q_0 \in Q$ and a (possibly empty) set of final states Q_F
 - ullet a finite set of **Rules** R describing all system steps permitted, i.e., all allowed state changes $oup \in Q \times Q$
- 2. **Dynamic Behavior** results from possibly infinite sequences of state changes, so-called **processes** that adhere to all rules of R.

Definition III.1: (Process)

Process is a sequence of steps $q_0 \xrightarrow{a_1} q_1 \xrightarrow{a_2} q_2 \xrightarrow{a_3} q_3 \dots where$

- each step is performed by an action a_{i+1} that results in a state change $q_i \rightarrow q_{i+1}$ $(i \in [0:\infty])$
- all resulting states q_i of a process are permissible, i.e., $q_i \in Q$
- the action for each step is permitted by some rule in R
- each single action is assumed to be atomic, i.e., indivisible.

Processes as Execution Sequences

Two dual aspects of a process are equivalent:

- $passive\ view\$ as a sequence (trace) of states q_0,q_1,\ldots
- $active \ view \ as \ a \ sequence \ (trace) \ of \ actions \ a_1, a_2, \dots$

Note: 'Trace' is often used for single execution sequences

Sequential vs. Parallel Execution

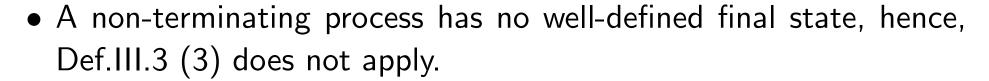
- ► A single process as a sequence of steps is always sequential
 - * the steps of the same process are executed in a $linear\ total\ order$
 - * for any two actions a and b in a process holds: $(a \sqsubset b)$ or $(b \sqsubset a)$
- ▶ Parallelism is made possible by potential and execution means:
 - * Execution of several processes in different components that are (more or less) independent from each other ($partial\ order$).
 - * Combining more than one subsystem to a new system that allows for more than one execution step at the same time.

Definition III.2: (Process System Model)

- 1. A process system PS consists of a set $\{P_1, \ldots, P_n\}$ of sequential processes P_1, \ldots, P_n .
- 2. The Action Execution Order \square_{PS} of PS describes the admissible overall execution orders of all processes of PS:
 - (a) For each $P \in PS$ all actions are in a linear, sequential order.
 - (b) Actions from different processes $P_a \neq P_b$ are not ordered and said to be independent and concurrent.
 - (c) \sqsubseteq_{PS} is an irreflexive, asymmetric and transitive partial order relation among the actions of all processes of PS
- ▶ The starting point of any PS is an almost unordered system where each process adheres to its own linear order but all actions from different processes are completely independent from each other.
- ► Introducing interaction among processes defines additional dependencies and restricts the overall execution space.

Definition III.3: (Properties of Processes and Systems)

- 1. P terminates: P is in a state $q \in Q$ where the rule R permits no more actions $\implies q \in Q_F$ is a final state.
- 2. PS is deterministic : \iff $\forall q \in Q \exists$ exactly one $process\ P\ starting\ with\ q$.
- 3. PS is determinate : $\iff \forall \ q \in Q \ holds$: All terminating processes starting with $q \in Q$ also end in the same finite state q'.



• Deterministic vs. Determinate Systems:

- * a deterministic system is always also determinate.
- * a determinate system is not required to be deterministic.

Determinacy is more relaxed but ensures the correct result.

Two Aspects of Non-Determinism

- **Don't Know**-Non-Determinism as a modeling mechanism
 - complex systems with high spectrum of possible behavior
 - not every detail can be captured in a model of reasonable size
 - worst-case-assumptions are needed to avoid system malfunctions

Examples: securing a user interface integration of a black-box device in a software system

- ▶ **Don't Care**-Non-Determinism as an *abstraction mechanism*
 - problem allows for different approaches to find 'a' solution
 - system allows for tolerance in execution orders due to independent 'concurrent' system parts
 - different execution orders end up with the same results

Examples: non-deterministic automata models evaluation orders for expressions, functional languages

Specification Level vs. Execution Level

Programs specify the rules R that restrict the **processes** of a system.

- 1. A **sequential** program specifies exactly one process P.
- 2. A **non-deterministic** program specifies an arbitrary process P_i of a possibly infinite set $\{P_1, P_2, \dots\}$ of processes.
- 3. A **concurrent** program specifies a set $\{P_1, P_2, \ldots\}$ of more or less independent processes with partially ordered actions.

 \implies 'Concurrency' is a specification level property.

Program execution uses the potential of relaxed strictness tailored to the underlying hardware:

- ullet Availability of more than one processor allows for $true\ parallelism$.
- Otherwise, non-deterministic interleaving (pseudo-parallel execution) by choosing an overall total execution order \sqsubseteq_{ex} that respects the partial order \sqsubseteq_{PS} ($\sqsubseteq_{PS} \subseteq \sqsubseteq_{ex}$) becomes possible.

⇒ 'Parallelism' is an execution level property.

Example: Concurrency, Parallelism and Atomicity

- ▶ Concurrent program does not imply an order on a_1 and a_2 i := 5; parbegin $\{\underbrace{i++}_{a_1}\}$ \parallel $\{\underbrace{i++}_{a_2}\}$ parend; y := i; end;
- \triangleright 'Three' admissible execution orders:
 - \triangleright quasi-parallel execution orders $a_1; a_2$ or $a_2; a_1 \implies y \approx 7$
 - ightharpoonup truly parallel execution $a_1 \parallel a_2 \implies y \approx 6$ actions read simultaneously 5, increment by 1 and write 6 back $\implies Pseudo-Parallelism\ does\ not\ simulate\ true\ parallelism.$
- On execution level there are not only 2, but 'at least' 6 actions: $i++ \approx i=i+1 \approx LD \ R1,i; \ INC \ R1; \ ST \ R1,i$
 - * LoaD \approx MEM \rightarrow Register / STore \approx Register \rightarrow MEM
 - * OS-scheduling may interrupt processes at all times
 - * Example: LD_a1; INC_a1; LD_a2; ST_a1; INC_a2; ST_a2;
 - \blacktriangleleft more than three admissible execution orders on machine level $\Longrightarrow Atomicity\ must\ not\ be\ assumed\ at\ program\ level.$

III.2 Coordination, Interaction and Causality

- ➤ Coordination is needed to guide the work of different processes running in a distributed system towards a common goal, e.g.,
 - * organizing a parallel search in a bunch of documents
 - * reaching a common agreement concerning a trusted entity
- ▶ **Interaction** is required to implement coordination efforts.
 - a process publishes (part of) it's state, e.g.,
 - * handing a file descriptor to another process, e.g. OS
 - * forwarding a search result for filtering
 - a process re-acts based on the state of another process, e.g.,
 - * Printing a file when signalled as 'completed'
 - * Continue with a calculation when all partial results are available

Interaction is implemented based on the underlying paradigm:

- SMS: Writing and reading the same data
- DMS: Sending and receiving messages

Dependencies, Causality and Execution Orders

- ▶ Interaction defines two principal **Roles**: 'provider' vs. 'recipient' c.f.
- Interaction introduces dependencies between actors of these roles: III-1
 - * SMS: 'Reader' depends on 'Writer' to provide current data
 - * DMS: 'Receiver' depends on 'Sender' for sending message

Principle of Causality: 'Cause and Effect'

- Information is only accessible after it has been provided.
- The *execution order* between different parts of an interaction is essential for the overall result, e.g.,
 - A Reader may read outdated (current) data when the read access is executed before (after) the corresponding write actions, which may violate determinacy.
 - A Receiver may be blocked from further execution while waiting for a message that does not arrive which results in a nonterminating 'blocked' system.

Example: One-way Interaction and Dependency

(i) Shared-Memory-Model

```
g=0; parbegin {g=F(3); a=2*g} // {x=3*g}
                                         parend
```

- * P2 reads variable written by P1
 - \Rightarrow Execution order is important for P2, but not specified **SMS** requires additional restriction on execution order \sqsubseteq_{PS}
- (ii) Message-Passing-Model: two alternative specifications (A/B)

```
parbegin \{g=0; g=F(3); snd(g,P2); a=2*g\}
(A)
           // {g=0;
                                         rcv(g,P1); x=3*g
                                                            parend
```

(B) parbegin {g=0;
$$snd(g,P2)$$
; $g=F(3)$; $a=2*g$ } // {g=0; $rcv(g,P1)$; $x=3*g$ } parend

- * P2 receives and uses ('old' vs. 'new') value from sender P1
 - => Execution order is important and specified via snd/rcv

DMS: Access and order restriction in a single statement

Example: Mutual Interaction and Dependency

(i) Shared-Memory-Model

$$g = 0$$
; $h=0$; parbegin $\{g=h+1\}$ // $\{h=g+2\}$ parend;

Processes P1 and P2 read and write the same variable:

P1 before P2: $g \leftarrow 1$ and $h \leftarrow 3$

P2 before P1: $g \leftarrow 3$ and $h \leftarrow 2$

Execution order relevant for both processes.

Additional Problem: true parallelism and atomicity

P1 and P2 in parallel: $g \leftarrow 1$ and $h \leftarrow 2$

> Execution sequences without interrupts are needed, i.e., guaranteeing atomicity for sequences consisting of many steps.

(ii) Message-Passing-Model: no simple one-to-one correspondence, but sending and receiving of data among more than two processes causes similar effects and problems.

c.f. pg.

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A Dependency Model for SMS and DMS – 1

Abstract Model independent of underlying programming model

- Information exchange is implemented by data exchange.
- Supplying data by a *provider role* is done by **Write**-Actions.
- Using data by a recipient role is done by **Read**-Actions.

Definition III.4: (Basic Interaction Primitives)

Let PS be a process system, P a process and a an action of P.

1. The effect of an action a on the state of a process P is characterized by the following sets of data used:

Read(a) denotes all data read in a

Write(a) denotes all data written in a

 $Data(a) := Read(a) \cup Write(a) \ denotes \ all \ data \ \mathbf{used} \ by \ a.$

2. The overall effect of P is defined by it's overall data usage $Read(P) := \bigcup_{a \in P} Read(a); Write(P), Data(P) resp.$

A Dependency Model for SMS and DMS – 2

- The **basic inter-action step** between two processes P_1 and P_2 is executed by actions $a_1 \in P_1$ and $a_2 \in P_2$ such that $Data(a_1) \cap Data(a_2) \neq \emptyset$.
- The detailed structure of $Data(a_1) \cap Data(a_2)$ defines the type of dependency between the actions and, hence, the processes.

Definition III.5: (Different Types of Dependencies)

Let PS be a process system and $a_1 \in P_1$; $a_2 \in P_2$ actions.

1. One-way Read-Write-Dependency:

$$a_1 \xrightarrow{rw} a_2 :\iff Write(a_2) \cap Read(a_1) \neq \emptyset$$

2. Mutual Read-Write-Dependency:

$$a_1 \stackrel{mu}{\longleftrightarrow} a_2 : \iff (a_1 \stackrel{rw}{\longleftrightarrow} a_2) \land (a_2 \stackrel{rw}{\longleftrightarrow} a_1)$$

3. Mutual Write-Write Conflict:

$$a_1 \stackrel{ww}{\longleftrightarrow} a_2 :\iff Write(a_1) \cap Write(a_2) \neq \emptyset$$

Example: Write-Write Dependencies

(
$$\stackrel{ww}{\longleftrightarrow}$$
): $x := 1; z := x; a := 3;$ parbegin $y := x+z \parallel y := 2*a;$ parend; $a := x+y;$ $a_1 \stackrel{ww}{\longleftrightarrow} a_2$, because $Write(a_1) \cap Write(a_2) = \{y\} \neq \emptyset$ $\Rightarrow a_1$ executed before $a_2 \Rightarrow a \approx 7$ $\Rightarrow a_2$ executed before $a_1 \Rightarrow a \approx 3$ $\Rightarrow a_1 \parallel a_2$ executed truly parallel $\Rightarrow Value(y) \in \{2,6\}$ undefined

Note: Dependency relation is not always transitive!

```
... parbegin ... x := y+1 ... ||... y := 2*z ... ||... z := a+b ... parend; ...
```

- $a_1 \xrightarrow{rw} a_2$ caused by y and $a_2 \xrightarrow{rw} a_3$ caused by z
- a_1 and a_3 with disjoint Read/Write-sets are 'independent'.

Problem: if a_1 is executed after $a_2 \implies$ the order between a_2 and a_3 matters for a_1 (debugging nightmare)

Dependencies, Concurrency and Non-Determinism

- ► Imperative, sequential programming is built upon MEM accesses, i.e., 'assignments', and dependencies but can rely on a fixed total linear execution order.
- ◄ Imperative, concurrent programming utilizes the potential of nondeterminism and partial execution orders:
 - Different executions of the same system in different orders may lead to different results, so-called **Race-Conditions**.
 - The causal order implied by dependencies has to be respected.
 otherwise, the result is an in-determinate process system.
- ightharpoonup Imperative, concurrent programming makes use of synchronization to restrict the permissible execution orders such that
 - * dependencies are respected as much as needed in order to guarantee determinacy, and the
 - * potential of non-determinism is preserved as much as possible.

Definition III.6: (Synchronization)

Let Prog be a concurrent program that describes the process system PS and it's action execution order \square_{PS} . The extension of \square_{PS} by means of additional order restrictions for ensuring determinacy of PS is called synchronization.

Statements used in the modified program Prog' in order to specify synchronization are called synchronization mechanisms.

- > Shared Memory uses special mechanisms that guard parallel access to data or block processes until current data are available.
- $\triangleright Distributed \ Memory$ uses snd and rcv which are inherently causally ordered because a message can only be received if it has been sent before, i.e., $snd \sqsubseteq_{PS} rcv$.

Caution: Synchronization should be used with great care!

- actions waiting for predecessors that are not executed are blocked.
- cycles of order restrictions among processes may lead to deadlocks.

Example: Synchronizing One-Way Dependencies

- 1. One-way dependency $a_1 \xrightarrow{rw} a_2 \implies \sqsubseteq_{PS} := \sqsubseteq_{PS} \cup a_2 \sqsubseteq a_1$ is respected using one-way synchronization
 - ightharpoonup a priori known order \Longrightarrow fixed **statically** in program code Example: P2 requires result from P1
 - ▶ Simple Mechanism: signal(k)/wait(k) where $k \in \mathbb{IN}$ Semantics: $\forall k \in \mathbb{IN}$ holds $signal(k) \sqsubset wait(k)$

Example:

```
g=0; parbegin
     {g=F(3); a=2*g}
     //
     {x=3*g}
     parend
```

```
(left side without - right side using synchronization) c.f.
```

- * Undesirable order no longer admissible: system is determinate
- * Message Passing uses snd/rcv with 'implicit' signal/wait

right side

pg. III-12

Example: Synchronizing Mutual Dependencies

- 2. Mutual Dependency $a_1 \stackrel{mu,ww}{\longleftrightarrow} a_2 \implies (a_2 \sqsubseteq a_1)$ or $(a_1 \sqsubseteq a_2)$ has to be respected using multi-way synchronization
 - ◆ Problem: often no real preference for a specific order
 ⇒ static decision for one-way synchronization makes no sense.
 - ► Typical Scenario: lots of processes access common data
 - * actual execution order is insignificant, but
 - st specific Read and Writes should be executed without interrupt i.e., $Atomicity\ for\ a\ sequence\ of\ actions$ is required
 - ⇒ dynamic mutual exclusion synchronization mechanism

Example:

c.f. pg. III-21

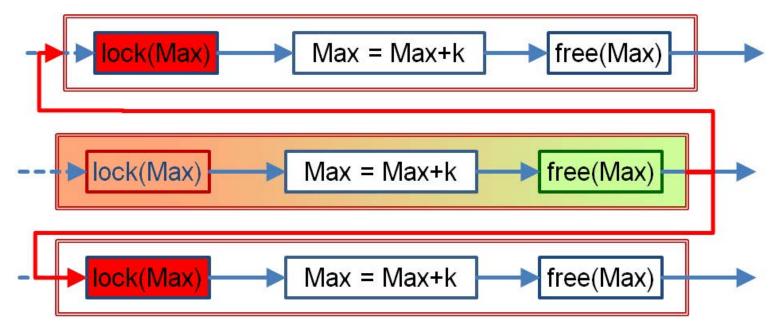
- calculation of the frequency of key occurrences in text buffers Buf
- \bullet single processes search locally for a single key in a single buffer
- ullet global updates add local frequencies up to a global result

Example: 3 Processes with local orders plus update

State 1 of PS k = search(key,Buf) update(Max,k) get(key) get(Buf) get(key) k = search(key,Buf) update(Max,k) get(Buf) get(key) get(key) get(Buf) k = search(key,Buf) update(Max,k) get(key) get(key) State 2 of PS update(Max,k) k = search(key, Buf) get(Buf) get(key) get(key) update(Max,k) get(key) get(key) get(Buf) k = search(key,Buf) update(Max,k) k = search(key,Buf) get(Buf) get(key) get(key) Execution state of process actions executed active to do blocked Original action execution order — Additional order pairs due to synchronization

• Max used by all processes in update \Longrightarrow all processes are mutual dependent w.r.t. Max, i.e., $\stackrel{mu}{\longleftrightarrow}$ and $\stackrel{ww}{\longleftrightarrow}$

Example: Internal Mechanism for Synchronization



Programming language construct: lock/free for variables

- Detailed execution order does not matter for overall result.
- 'First' successful lock(Max) introduces new \square_{PS} pairs between free(max) at the end of the active update and $all\ other$ lock(Max) actions yet to be executed.
- Executing corresponding free supersedes new pairs from \Box_{PS}
- Reading and writing Max is done without any other process accessing Max during this sequence of steps.

Definition III.7: (Critical Section and Mutual Exclusion)

Let $K \subseteq PS$ be a set of processes from PS that are mutual dependent and let M be the data this dependency is based upon, i.e., M is part of the intersection of data sets from all processes.

- 1. A sequence of actions $cs = a_l a_{l+1} \dots a_f$ of $P \in K$ that causes the dependency is called **critical section** w.r.t. $M :\iff$ If cs is **active**, the execution order \Box_{PS} of PS ensures that no other process from PS executes an action a which uses data from M, i.e., $Data(a) \cap M \neq \emptyset$.
- 2. The class CS(M) of all cs from K is strictly mutual exclusive $w.r.t.\ data\ M$.

Remark: A finite sequence of actions $a_l a_{l+1} \dots a_f$ is **active** in a state of PS if at least a_l has been executed and a_f has not yet finished its execution.

A weaker Notion of Critical Sections

- \triangleright A **critical section** of **Order** k (k > 0) allows for a **maximum** of k active critical sections cs in parallel (at the same time).
- \triangleright Strict mutual exclusion is the special case of a cs of order k=1

Example: Reader-Writer Problems

- k Reader processes $R_1, R_2, \dots R_k$ use data M
- m Writer processes W_1, \ldots, W_m write data M
- Restrictions on parallel access:
 - 1. Only one Writer is allowed at a specific time ($\stackrel{ww}{\longleftrightarrow}$)
 - 2. Writers and Readers are mutual exclusive ($\stackrel{rw}{\longrightarrow}$)
 - 3. A maximum of k=3 Readers are allowed for parallel access, e.g., caused by insufficient resources

c.f. pg. III-43

Definition III.8: (Blocking, Deadlocks, Starvation)

Let PS be a process system with processes $\{P_1, \ldots, P_n\}$.

- 1. PS is safe w.r.t. critical sections : \iff Definition III.7 holds for all critical sections CS(M) of PS.
- 2. A process $P \in PS$ is permanently blocked if the rule R does prevent P permanently from the execution of it's next action because P has to wait for actions of other processes from PS.
- 3. A subset $D \subseteq PS$ of processes is called **Deadlock** if all processes of D are permanently blocked due to a cyclic wait for actions from other processes from D caused by \sqsubseteq_{PS} .
- 4. A process $P \in PS$ is treated unfair, i.e., is subject to Starvation if the process P cannot proceed for an infinite amount of steps, although the next action of P is allowed by the rule R.
 - ullet Blocking and Deadlock are caused by the specification level \sqsubseteq_{PS} .
 - Starvation is caused by the execution environment, typically by keeping a process from resource access for an infinite long 'time'.

Cooperation, Coordination and Interaction

- \triangleright In order to get common work done, processes have to cooperate.
- \gt Cooperation is made possible by coordination using interaction.
- \triangleright Interaction implies interaction roles and causes dependencies.
- \triangleright Combining dependencies with non-deterministic specifications of execution orders may lead to $race\ conditions$ and, hence, indeterminate systems.
- \triangleright In order to *ensure determinacy*, additional restrictions on execution orders and, thus, reduced potential for parallel execution may be required.
- $\triangleright Synchronization$ is used to implement execution order restrictions.
- ightharpoonup Synchronization mechanisms are dependent from the underlying interaction model.
- **Cooperation**: Coordinated Interaction ruled by means of synchronization mechanisms to ensure determinate systems in order to get some common work done.

SMS vs. DMS Synchronization Specification

Shared-Memory paradigm:

c.f. pg. III-10

- Interaction \approx Read/Write of common variables, data blocks or files
- Order restrictions among processes:
 - Imperative programming languages use dedicated statements for synchronization, e.g., signal/wait or locks.
 - **⇒** Synchronization and interaction in separate constructs
 - ▶ Object-oriented languages combine synchronization with attributes or methods (code blocks) of classes.
 - **⇒** Synchronization and interaction object-based.

Message-Passing paradigm:

- Interaction by means of sending/receiving messages
- Order restrictions are built into Message-Passing constructs
- ⇒ Synchronization and Interaction in the same construct.

III.3 Implementing Synchronization for SMS

Important Facts:

- ► Atomicity on single nodes is an indispensable prerequisite for synchronization among different nodes.
- ▶ On a single node, hardware-based atomic actions are required.
- \lhd Synchronizing n>2 processes is much harder than synchronizing only 2 processes, esp. due to fairness considerations.

Different Levels and Efficiency Considerations:

- Low-level atomicity mechanisms have to be based on processes $actively\ polling$ for access until granted.
 - \implies spin locks cost CPU time (active waiting)
- ullet Higher levels of atomicity provided by the operating system de-schedule processes to WAIT-Queues when access is not granted.
 - \implies sleep locks cost dispatch overhead (passive waiting)

Example: No synchronization without atomic basis

Objective: Data M should be used **mutual exclusive** by P_1 and P_2 **Attempt:** M 'guarded' by int d: M free \iff d==0; d initial 0

- \bullet processes check actively whether (d == 0) before entering cs
- ullet processes assign d=1 when entering and d=0 before leaving cs

Entry Prologue for
$$P_1$$
 Epilogue ... while $(d \neq 0)$ { }; $d=1$... cs_1 ... $d=0$; Entry Prologue for P_2 Epilogue Epilogue Epilogue

Problem: Reading a value and writing afterwards is not atomic

- ▶ P_1 and P_2 read d in state 0; both assign d = 1; both enter cs⇒ process system is $not \ safe$ w.r.t. M.
- \lhd Scheduling may allow P_1 access n>1 times, even if P_2 is also trying to get access to $M \Longrightarrow \mathsf{process}$ system is $not \ fair$.

Hardware Basis for Atomic Actions

Atomicity basis depends on underlying hardware model:

- based on Processors:
 - Single cores/processors: masking interrupts for some steps
 - Multi-cores/processors: locking access to bus/interconnect
- based on Memory access

 - special hardware support for atomic read-and-write
 - > easy to implement efficient operating system level primitives
 - not always available and not portable across architectures
 - serialized MEM support for atomic reads or writes
 - ⊲ algorithms a bit more 'tricky' to ensure atomicity
 - work on all machines due to lower demands
 Note: restricted to basic data types like boolean or int

Atomic read-and-write for synchronizing 2 processes

Assembler construct: test_and_set(x,R)

- Parameters: *local* register R; boolean variable x from MEM
- Semantics: uninterrupted execution of a 3 statement sequence
 begin R = x; if (R == 0) then x=1 fi; end

Implementing mutual exclusion: initial state (bolt == 0)

```
Entry Prologue for P_1 Epilogue x1=1; ... while (x1==1) test_and_set(bolt,x1) ... cs_1 ... bolt=0; Entry Prologue for P_2 Epilogue Epilogue Epilogue Epilogue
```

- Interpretation: cs is free, i.e., bolt is open \iff (bolt == 0)
- Epilogue is not critical as it is only a single write operation
- Additional assumptions: cs_1/cs_2 last only finite time bolt is only used in prologue/epilogue

Atomic read-and-write for n>2 processes

Basic Concept: Epilogue hands cs over to 'next' waiting process

- boolean Wait[0:n-1] initial [0, ..., 0] registers waiting processes
- ullet Prologue $_i pprox ext{register}$ in Wait[i] and set flag X_i
- Condition for waiting: P_i is registered and flag X_i is set
- End of Prologue_i: unregister via (Wait[i] = 0) (3)
- Epilogue_i: iff no process is waiting $\implies cs$ is freed: bolt=0; (4-6) otherwise free next process P_i by (Wait[j] = 0) (7)

\triangleright Prologue_i:

- (1) Wait[i]=1; Xi=1;
- (2) while (Wait[i]==1) & (Xi==1) test_and_set(bolt,Xi);
- (3) Wait[i]=0;

\triangleright Epilogue_i:

- (4) $j = (i+1) \mod n;$ /* next process in array */
- (5) while (j <> i) and (Wait[j] == 0) do j = (j+1) mod n; od;
- if (j == i) then bolt=0; (6)
- (7)else Wait[j]=0;

A two-process solution using atomic read-or-write

Characteristics:

- Weak assumption: only a single Read or Write is atomic
- Processes synchronize based on active waits, i.e., spin locks

Techniques to ensure safeness under these conditions:

- 1. Always register first before trying to enter a critical section in order to ensure safeness.
 - Counterexample: Naive Algorithm with parallel access to bolt
- 2. Avoid cyclic waits and deadlocks by introducing additional decision criteria that respect fairness in case of conflict.
- 3. Avoid starvation by means of introducing a round-robin mechanism among all waiting processes.
- 4. Fairness considerations are only meaningful if there is more than one waiting process.

c.f.

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Unsuccessful Attempts using atomic read-or-write

1. **separate global variables**; register first, then test

$$x1=0; x2=0;$$

- >> safe, but system may end up in **Deadlock**
- 2. same variable but processes use distinct values (round-robin)

turn
$$\in \{$$
 1, 2 $\}$;

Entry Prologue for
$$P_1$$
 Epilogue P_1 While (turn==2) { }; ... cs_1 turn=2; P_2 while (turn==1) { }; ... cs_2 ... turn=1; Epilogue Epilogue

>> safe, no deadlock, fair, but prone to **permanent blocking**

Peterson-Algorithm synchronizing 2 prozesses

(1981)

```
x1=0; \{0,1\}\approx P_1 \text{ {not registered, registered}} 
x2=0; \{0,1\}\approx P_2 \text{ {not registered, registered}} 
turn=1; \{1,2\}\approx \text{ decides in case of conflict}
```

```
Prologue_1 \ x1=1; \ turn=1; \\ while (x2==1) \ and (turn==1) \ \{ \ \}; \\ critical \ section \ cs_1 \\ Epilogue_1 \ x1=0; \\
```

Case-based Analysis of Peterson-Algorithm - 1

- ightharpoonup Processes register using private variable **before** $cs \implies$ **Safeness**
- ightharpoonup 'turn' ensures round-robin access $1-2-1-2-1-\ldots \Longrightarrow$ **Fairness**
- 'turn' influences execution in case of conflict only (and)

⇒ no **permanent blocking**

- 1. Safeness: P_i in $cs_i \implies$
 - (a) $(x_{3-i} == 0) \lor (turn \neq i)$ due to while-Condition and
- (b) $(x_i == 1)$, due to registration; reset at the end of cs_i only.

Case Analysis for P_i in cs_i :

I: $(x_{3-i} == 0) \implies P_{3-i} \text{ not in } cs_{3-i} \text{ due to (b)}$

II: $(x_{3-i} == 1) \implies (turn \neq i)$ due to (a) $\implies (turn == 3 - i)$ $\implies P_{3-i}$ waits in $Prologue_{3-i} \implies P_{3-i}$ not in cs_{3-i}

Result: always at most one of the processes is in critical section

Case-based Analysis of Peterson-Algorithm - 2

- 2. P_i permanently blocked? Prologue_i is only critical sequence $\implies P_i$ permanently in Prologue_i
 - \implies Condition $(x_{3-i} == 1) \land (turn == i)$ holds permanently
 - $\implies P_{3-i}$ registered & (turn = 3 i) before P_i
 - $\implies P_{3-i}$ is allowed to enter critical section cs_{3-i}
 - As cs_{3-i} is finite $\implies P_{3-i}$ executes Epilogue_{3-i}, esp., $x_{3-i}=0$
 - \Longrightarrow Condition for P_i does not hold anymore (Contradiction)
- 3. Starvation for P_i ? Reason: P_{3-i} 'passes' P_i n > 1 times

 P_i waits in Prologue_i; P_{3-i} in cs_{3-i}

As cs_{3-i} is finite $\implies P_{3-i}$ executes $x_{3-i} = 0$ in Epilogue_{3-i}

But: P_{3-i} re-enters $Prologue_{3-i}$ **before** P_i executes its test anew

 P_{3-i} executes $(x_{3-i}=1) \implies P_i$ still has to wait

 P_{3-i} executes $(turn = 3-i) \implies P_{3-i}$ blocks itself in Prologue_{3-i}

 $\implies P_i$ evaluates $(turn \neq i)$ and leaves $Prologue_i(Contradiction)$

Alternative Analysis – State-Space Exploration

Graphical Model: Algorithm is ruled by three variables

- ightharpoonup States $Q \approx \langle x_1, x_2, turn \rangle \in \{0, 1\} \times \{0, 1\} \times \{-, 1, 2\}$
- \triangleright Initial state $q_0 < 0, 0, ->$ (initial value of turn is irrelevant)
- \triangleright **Actions:** Prologue-Steps, cs_i ; cs_{3-i} , Epilogue-Steps
- \triangleright only finite set of states \implies finite diagram by using loops

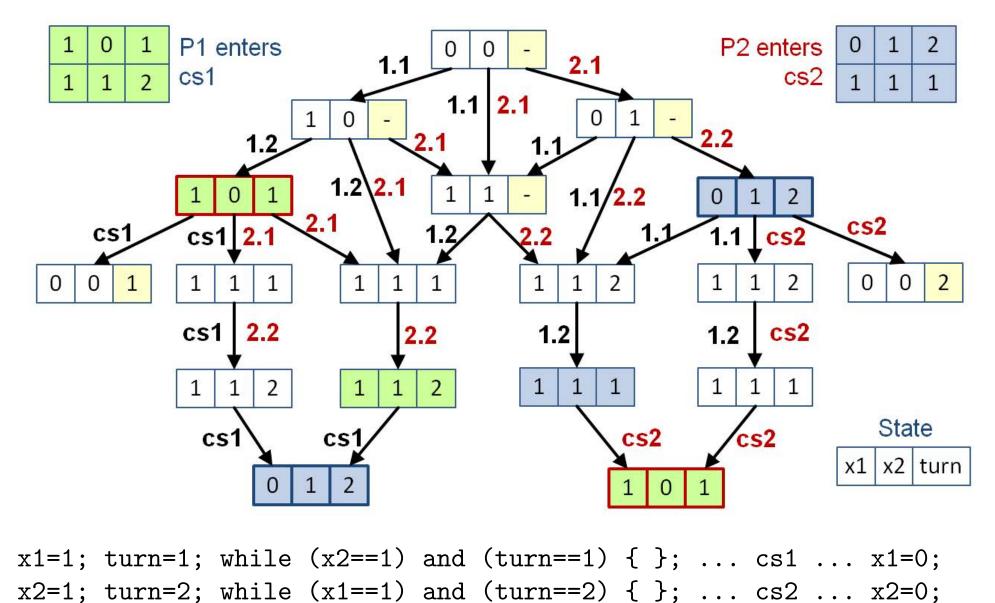
Properties of Algorithm defined in terms of diagram states:

- 1. If there is no state s.t. cs_1 and cs_2 can be entered \Longrightarrow safe
- 2. If there is no state s.t. **only** Prologue-Loops are executed in both processes \Longrightarrow **no permanent blocking**
- 3. If in each cyclic, i.e., possibly infinite run cs_1 and cs_2 are allowed in a round-robin fashion iff both are registered \Longrightarrow no starvation

Pros and Cons for these kinds of models:

- Case Analysis is prone to the same errors as the algorithm.
- State-Space tends to get huge for complicated systems.

State Space Analysis - Peterson Algorithm



Assessment of low-level Synchronization Solutions

- ► Indispensable basis for any kind of synchronization
 - Assembler level is not the ultimate basis for a solution.
 - Similar problems in electronics due to varying signal propagation times $\implies glitches$ caused by hazards, i.e., race conditions
- Missing abstraction: Low level results in ill-structured code.
- $Wasted\ CPU\text{-}time$: Basic level has to rest on possibly long-time $active\ waiting \implies costly\ in\ multi-process\ environments.$

Solution: Multi-layered SW Architecture w.r.t. synchronization

c.f. pg. III-28

- ullet HW-supported $spin\ locks$ for 'short' critical sections on OS level
- Higher-level lock-constructs based on sleep locks due to OS scheduling and WAIT-Queues in programming languages.
- Well-structured *object-oriented* and *pattern-based* techniques embedded in languages and libraries for parallel programming.

III.4 Higher level SMS Synchronization

- □ Generalized high-level concepts
 - > **Semaphore**s as an abstraction from active wait

Dijkstra

- ► Monitors as the basis for object-oriented synchronization
- Standard data structures with synchronization properties

Definition III.9: (Semaphore – User View)

A Semaphore is a shared integer variable that is only manipulated by the following three operations:

• init(sem,n): $initializes \ a \ semaphore \ \texttt{sem} \ where \ \texttt{n} \in \mathbb{N}_0.$

• P(sem): decrements sem by 1

• V(sem): increments sem by 1

A semaphore sem respects always the following two rules:

- 1. All operations on sem are mutually exclusive actions.
- 2. A process trying a P() operation that would render the value of sem negative is blocked.

Using simple Semaphores for Synchronization

- 2. **Mutual exclusion:** A specific semaphore for **each** data structure **Example:** global g is updated in n > 1 processes by g = g + N

⇒ Semaphore implements a signal/wait mechanism.

Initialization: Semaphore s; init(s,1);

 P_i : P(s); cs_i ; V(s); ...

⇒ Semaphore implements a lock/release mechanism.

c.f.

III-13

Alternative Variants for Semaphores

- \triangleright **boolean** Semaphore uses only $\{0,1\}$ as its value domain
- \triangleright **integer** Semaphore uses value domain \mathbb{N}_0 (**counting** Semaphore)
- ▶ additive Semaphore: Integer-Sem. with comfortable operations

```
• P(sem,k): decrements sem by k \in \mathbb{N}
```

• V(sem,k): increments sem by $k \in \mathbb{N}$

Note: P(sem,k) blocks if sem < k

Application for an additive semaphore:

3. Reader/Writer system allowing 3 Readers maximum in parallel

Initialization: Semaphore rw; init(rw,3)

Reader: ... P(rw,1); READ; V(rw,1); ...

Writer: ... P(rw,3); WRITE; V(rw,3); ...

Writer is blocked by trying P(rw,3) if a Reader is currently active.

virter is blocked by trying I (I w, 0) if a reader is currently active.

c.f.

III-24

Definition III.10: (Semaphore – Implementation View)

A Semaphore is a data structure built from an integer counter variable sem and a waiting room for processes (PCBs) susp. The semaphore implements the following mutual exclusive operations:

Note:

- |s.sem| yields the number of blocked processes for integer sem.
- Fairness for a single semaphore is warranted if the PCBQueue is a FIFO-Queue.

Monitors for Object-Based Synchronization

Brinch-Hansen 1973 Hoare 1974

- ► Monitors explicitly connect the shared data to be guarded from parallel access and the operations used to do so.
- ▶ Monitor concept incorporates an explicit concept of interface.

Definition III.11: (Monitor (naive))

A Monitor is a data structure D consisting of

- 1. a set of shared variables and
- 2. $a \ set \ of \ allowed \ access \ operations \ OP = \{ \ op_1, \ \dots \ , op_n \ \}.$
- OP constitutes a class of critical sections CS(D) of order 1.
- Naive monitor concept is much too restrictive:
 - ullet No parallel actions on D permitted at all
 - Lots of meaningful interaction techniques are not implementable
- Relaxed monitor concept with additional functionality needed.

Example: Bounded-Buffer using Event-Variables

Motivation: $op_i \in OP$ only meaningful after $op_{j\neq i}$ changes data e.g., 'get' ('put') makes no sense if buffer is empty (full) \Longrightarrow process has to release monitor in order to proceed eventually.

```
TYPE buffer = MONITOR (* BOUNDED BUFFER EXAMPLE *)

VAR count: INTEGER;

VAR not_full, not_empty: EVENT;

PROCEDURE put_buf(r: DATA)

BEGIN IF is_full? THEN wait(not_full); ... signal(not_empty) END;

PROCEDURE get_buf(VAR r: DATA)

BEGIN IF is_empty? THEN wait(not_empty); ... signal(not_full) END;

FUNCTION is_full? BEGIN is_full? := (count = 100) END;

FUNCTION is_empty? BEGIN is_empty? := (count = 0) END;

BEGIN count := 0 END; (* Initialization: Number of Elements *)
```

Language Construct: Monitor enhanced by Event Variable e

- wait(e) blocks calling process until signal(e) is issued
- signal has no effect if waiting queue for e is empty(\neq Semaphore)
- signal(e) re-activates one of the waiting processes: Which one?

Problem: Strategies for Passing Monitor Access

Process finishes monitor *op*: How to hand over monitor access?

- ullet 'global' waiting queue for monitor may hold n>1 processes
- ullet 'local' queues for several events may also hold n>1 processes

Application semantics is crucial: No 'generic best solution'!

- 1. P is granted mutex by op_i and blocks immediately due to wait(e) P did not alter state \Longrightarrow processes P' waiting internally are not re-activatable \Longrightarrow release for processes waiting in 'global' queue outside monitor.
- 2. P holds mutex via op_i and $alters\ state\ of\ data$ in monitor \Longrightarrow processes from all wait-queues may be allowed to proceed \Longrightarrow Competition among local and global wait-Queues

Note: Fairness considerations are in favor of processes waiting internally w.r.t. events.

Case Study: Synchronization in Java – 1

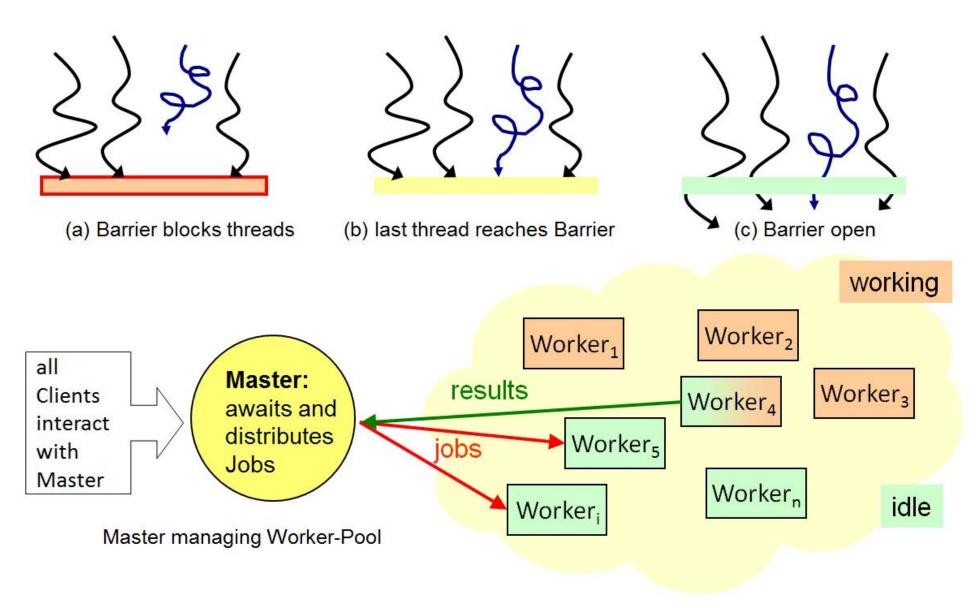
- \triangleright Access to basic 32-Bit data is atomic, but
 - **◄** 64/128-Bit require n > 1 accesses and may be interrupted.
 - Internal optimization like caching prevents timely propagation of shared values between different threads on the same JVM.
 - ⇒ Use volatile in order to eliminate both problems.
- ightharpoonup All objects are monitors and support locking by use of
 - synchronized: entire objects, methods or critical code blocks
 - Set of waiting threads (WaitSet) that is manipulated by
 - st Threads trying to acquire a 'used' lock end up in WaitSet
 - * Threads explicitly waiting (using timeouts) to release lock
 - * Thread interrupts and end of timeouts to quit waiting
 - st Object notify to re-activate a random single thread
 - st Object notifyAll to re-activate all waiting threads

Problem: Fairness is **not** ensured, esp. with notify!

Case Study: Synchronization in Java – 2

- Controlling threads and critical accesses explicitly using interrupts, wait-conditions or scheduling constructs, e.g., sleep, in code.
- > java.util.concurrent.Semaphore: acquire/release
 - * constructed as boolean/additive as well as fair/unfair variant
 - * acquire interruptible, non-interruptible or non-blocking ('try')
- ▷ Atomic Objects for basic data structures supporting atomic compareAndSet, getAndAdd . . . more efficiently than using locks.
- ▶ Queues, linked lists, hash maps etc. as high-level data structures supporting synchronized access efficiently.
- ► High-level thread control: CountDownLatches or Barriers facili- c.f. tating work distribution and master-worker architectures.
- ► High-level execution control: Executors and Futures in order to implement 'asynchronous systems' using postponed or delayed executions based on application logic.

Example: Barrier and Master-Worker Paradigm



III.5 Message Passing Interaction

Constructs: P_1 : SND(exp,...) \longrightarrow ... P_2 : ... \longrightarrow RCV(var,...)

Effect $(P_1 \mapsto P_2)$: 'var_{P2} := VAL(exp)_{P1}'

Causality: Message transport requires time, i.e., SND \sqsubseteq_{PS} RCV

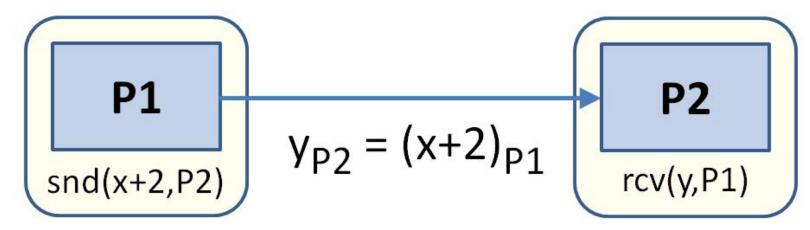
Characteristics of different Message-Passing Paradigms:

1. Message payload specification:

- c.f. II-11/ -II-13
- Result of expression evaluation: int, reference to a linked DS
- ullet Externalization and marshalling of message content
- 2. **Destination address(es) specification**Note: this is not needed in a SMS paradigm
- 3. Different levels of synchronization and coupling between sending and receiving processes beyond SND \square_{PS} RCV.
- 4. **Transient** vs. **Persistent** Communication ranging from no buffering, short-term buffering of msgs, . . ., message queueing

Identification of Message Destination - 1

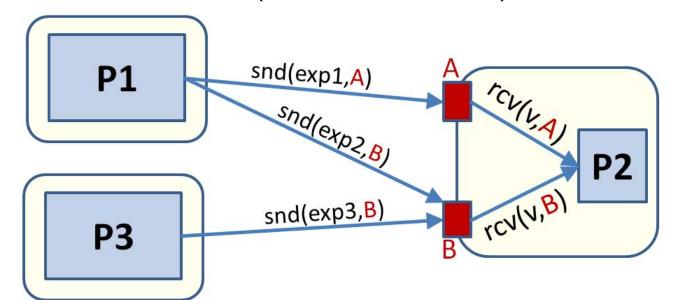
- 1. Direct explicit Naming: Usage of 'process names'
 - ◀ fixed identifier in code ⇒ barely usable
 - > Flexible, internal logical identifier management
 - * standard in parallel programming environments, e.g., MPI
 - * process identifiers as return values from process start managed using logical abstractions, e.g., 'neighborhood'



Modularization and Encapsulation only sufficient when using well-documented, fixed naming conventions.

Identification of Message Destination - 2

- 2. Indirect Naming using Ports yields useful abstraction
 - Sender and receiver process remain anonymous
 - A single process may use different Ports
 - Different processes may use the same port
 - typically no (or only restricted) buffering at ports



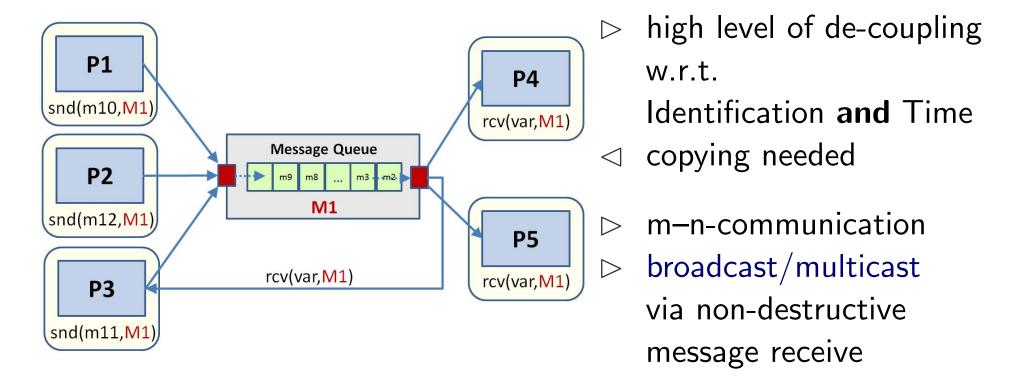
permits n-1 and 1-n interaction
Ports not part of processes but at
OS or NW layers
e.g. UDP sockets

Easy to re-use by parameterizing applications with logical port Identifiers, e.g., in program libraries.

Identification of Message Destination - 3

3. Indirect Naming using Channels

- Connect logical ports by means of Channels
- Definition/set-up by infrastructure specification or during process creation, e.g., TCP sockets
- 4. Mailbox: connections act as buffered channels, e.g., JMS



Synchronization among Communicating Processes

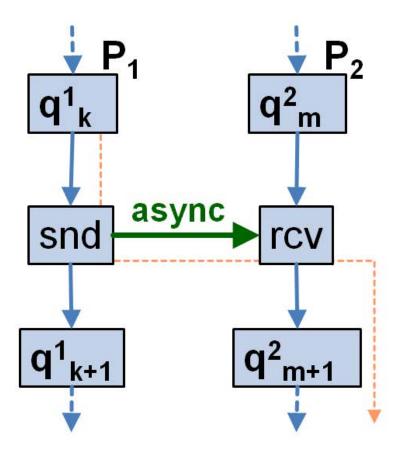
$$P^{1}: q_{0}^{1} \xrightarrow{a_{1}^{1}} q_{1}^{1} \xrightarrow{a_{2}^{1}} \dots \dots q_{k}^{1} \xrightarrow{\operatorname{snd}(\mathbf{P_{2}})} q_{k+1}^{1} \xrightarrow{a_{k+2}^{1}} \dots$$

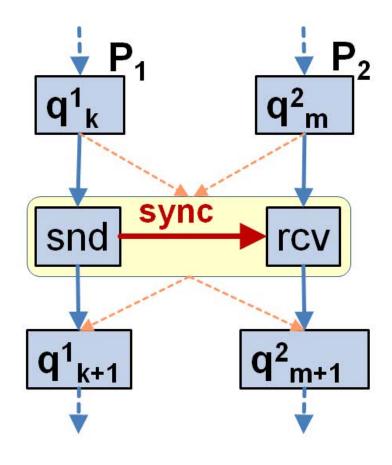
$$P^{2}: q_{0}^{2} \xrightarrow{a_{1}^{2}} \dots q_{m}^{2} \xrightarrow{\operatorname{rcv}(\mathbf{P_{1}})} q_{m+1}^{2} \xrightarrow{a_{m+2}^{2}} \dots$$

c.f. pg. III-56

- Asynchronous Communication: inevitable effect and \sqsubseteq_{PS} rev
 - q_{m+1}^2 in P_2 only reachable if P_1 in q_{k+1}^1
 - $\stackrel{a_{k+2}}{\longrightarrow}$ executable in P_1 even if P_2 not in q_m^2
 - \implies Only P_1 affects execution of P_2 (one-sided effect)
- Synchronous Communication: maximum effect in both procs. rcv after $snd \land snd$ after $rcv \implies$ coincident as a single action!
 - q_{m+1}^2 in P_2 only reachable if P_1 in q_{k+1}^1
 - q_{k+1}^1 in P_1 only reachable if P_2 in q_{m+1}^2
 - $\xrightarrow{snd(P_2)}$ in P_1 ends if P_2 is in q_{m+1}^2
 - \Longrightarrow Symmetrical effect for executing both, P_1 and P_2

Asynchronous vs. Synchronous Communication





- > simulates sync (handshake) snd(P₂); rcv(P₂)
 - $\parallel \text{rcv}(P_1); \text{snd}(P_1)$
- □ but: limits to asynchrony

- > easier to implement
- \lhd 'easier' to Deadlock, e.g.,

 $snd(P_2); rcv(P_2)$

 \parallel snd(P₁); rcv(P₁)

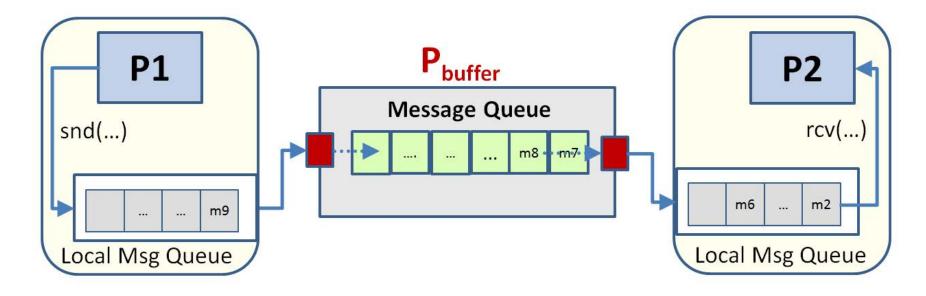
prone to programming errors

Limits in Implementing Asynchrony

Problem: P_1 sends $unbounded \ many$ message to P_2

 P_2 fails to execute $rcv(P_1)$ frequently

⇒ How to build a buffer for infinite many messages?



Different Locations for Buffering:

- \triangleright special buffer process P_{buffer} like, e.g., in a mailbox system
- □ local buffer for receiving process (OS-I/O-Queue)

Theory: Unfeasible as any buffer has only finite capacity

Approximating Asynchronous Semantics

Concept: Sending process acts like asynchronous communication is possible as long as there is sufficient buffer space; otherwise one of several possible programming models is used: *If buffer is full*

- **Buffer-blocking** sender semantics
 - ⇒ block sender as in synchronous communication
 - ⇒ ∃ maximum **synchronous distance** caused by buffer size
 - Communication becomes synchronous if buffer is full
- - ⇒ sender is not blocked but keeps sending
 - \Longrightarrow drop oldest messages \Longrightarrow Non-blocking bounded queue.

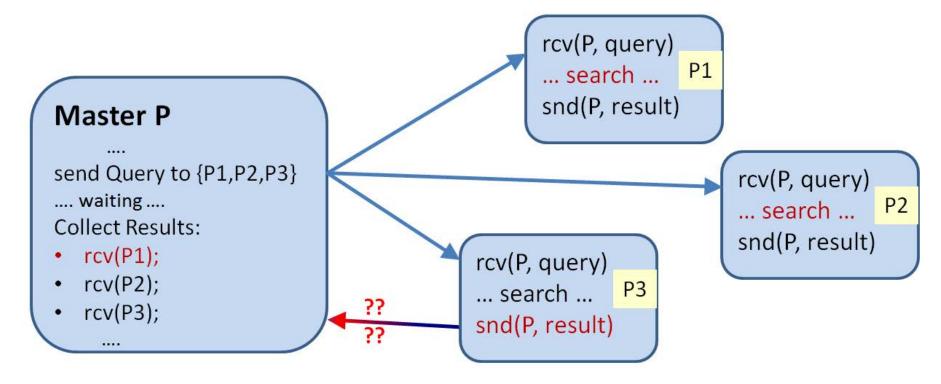
Problem: Semantics is dependent from actual data.

▶ Raise an exception, i.e., the programmer is handed the opportunity to wait, to drop messages (FIFO, LIFO, attributes) or to block the sender until some buffer space becomes available.

De-Coupling using Selective Receives – 1

Setting: $P \longleftrightarrow \{P_1, P_2, P_3\}$ interacts with n > 1 processes.

- Behavior of computation process is not predictable in detail
- no a priori known order of exchanges among processes known
 - > programming a fixed order of rcvs is likely to block processes



 $\implies P$ is blocked by $rcv(P_1)$ although P_3 is able to send a result.

De-Coupling using Selective Receives – 2

Design Space for Programming Language Solutions:

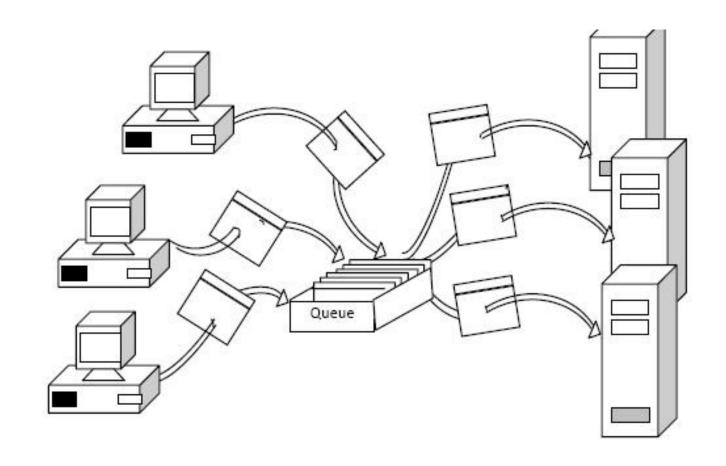
- 1. Thread-per-port: Each sender is served by a thread of its own
- c.f. II-18

- ⇒ check for messages in a round-robin fashion
- ⇒ computation process is not blocked.
- 2. rcv-from-any: Use the same port for all sending processes
 - ⇒ blocks only if no message is found at the port at all
 - ⇒ blocking is no problem as there is no work to be done.
- 3. **Time-out**s: use receive constructs that allow for timeout settings Problem: program tends to react differently due to variable loads and response times.
- 4. **probe** as a non-blocking test whether there are messages or not.
- 5. Snd/Rcv as guarded commands, e.g., in CSP or select in ADA D0 guard₁ \longrightarrow stmt₁ | ... | guard_n \longrightarrow stmt_n | ELSE stmt; OD; Distributed termination iff no more communication is possible.

Dijkstra, Hoare

Preview: Decoupling using Message Queueing

c.f. IV.



- ▶ De-couples systems w.r.t. time and space
- bridges heterogeneity through standardized message formats
- > standard part of (almost) all middleware systems, e.g., Java JMS
- administration and server overhead only pays off in large systems

Overview: Java Message Passing Using Sockets

Two principal types of sockets are of interest here:

- 1. **TCP:** Stream sockets: are used in a Client/Server fashion
 - * ServerSockets wait for accepting connection requests
 - * Client Sockets request connections
 - st successful connections work as two-way streams
- 2. **UDP:** Datagram sockets: similar to traditional message passing
 - * DatagramPackets: payload plus sender/receiver addresses
 - * DatagramSockets are bound to ports for packet send/receive

Addressing uses (IP-Address, Port-Address) based on java.net

Java message passing using UDP sockets will be introduced in the exercises for the first assignment. Message passing using TCP sockets is – for example – one of the topics of DSG-PKS-B 'Programmierung komplexer Systeme'.

III.6 Message Passing Synchronization

- 1. **One-way synchronization:** implement signal/wait by snd/rcv c.f. asynchronous snd; blocking rcv c.f.
- 2. Mutual Exclusion for 'Shared data' may be implemented by
 - (a) Centralized Server: hosts data and is known to all processes
 - (b) **Migrating Server:** migrates data to exactly one requesting process at a time
 - (c) **Distributed Agreement:** allows for many copies of data spread among processes

Safeness: It has to be guaranteed that at any 'point in time' only one single process has write access to 'the data'

Additional Problems:

- unreliable message transport ⇒ message loss and re-ordering
- no global time to 'order' concurrent requests for ensuring fairness.

How to Overcome Unreliable Transport – 1

- lacktriangled Ordering messages or arbitrary events for n>2 processes is done using so-called ' $logical\ time$ ' maintained by algorithms like Lamport-Time or Vector-Time (see chapter VI)
- \blacktriangleright Ordering messages among pairs of processes (P_s, P_r) is easy.

1. Use counters in order to detect lost messages:

- \forall process pairs (P_s, P_r) counters $S_{s,r}$ and $R_{s,r}$ are introduced.
 - * each sender P_s uses $S_{s,r}$ to count messages sent to P_r
 - * each receiver P_r uses $R_{s,r}$ to count messages received from P_s
 - * all counters in all processes are initialized by 0
 - * for each snd in P_s , the local counter $S_{s,r}^{P_s}$ is incremented
 - * for each rcv in P_r , the local counter $R_{s,r}^{P_r}$ is incremented
 - st up-to-date counters are part of each message: $piggy\ backing$
- When receiving a message, P_r checks whether $(S_{s,r}^{P_s} \neq R_{s,r}^{P_r} + 1)$ holds in order to expose a missing or untimely message from P_S .

How to Overcome Unreliable Transport – 2

- 2. Storing messages and Ackn/Resend control messages based on 1. implement reliable messaging in case of 'finite' errors.
 - P_s stores all messages sent to other processes including the corresponding counter as long as there is no Ackn from P_r .
 - P_r sends a receipt Ackn iff everything is ok, otherwise a Resend message is sent from P_r to P_s .
 - \bullet P_s re-sends missing messages as long as no receipt has been received; afterwards the messages delivered are dropped.

Timeouts may be used to overcome permanently crashed processes.

- 3. Message ordering between exactly two processes:
 - If P_r notices that $(S_{s,r}^{P_s} == R_{s,r}^{P_r} + k$ where k > 1), the message is *buffered* at P_r until the missing messages have been received.
 - After receiving a timely message, P_r checks its local buffer for messages that may be ready to be consumed now.

Centralized Server for Shared Data

• Global Server: specific $P \in PS$ for all critical sections cs(D)FORALL D DO csd.state = 1; csd.Queue.create(); OD; /* Server-Loop as a Guarded Command */ WAIT FOR $rcv(P_i, csd, GET) \implies$ IF (csd.state==1) THEN csd.state = 0; $snd(P_i, csd, OK)$; ELSE csd.Queue.enqueue(P_i); snd(P_i ,csd,WAIT); FI: $rcv(P_i, csd, FREE) \implies$ IF (csd.Queue.isempty()) THEN csd.state = 1; ELSE P' = csd.Queue.frontdequeue(); snd(<math>P',csd,OK); FI; END WAIT; • Arbitrary Client: process $P_i \in PS \setminus P$

```
Arbitrary Client: process P_i \in PS \setminus P

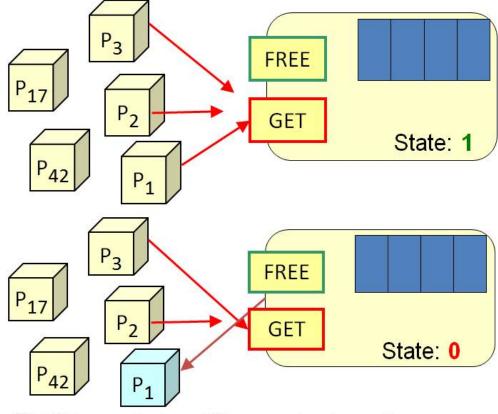
\operatorname{snd}(P,\operatorname{csd},\operatorname{GET}); \operatorname{rcv}(P,\operatorname{csd},\operatorname{X}); /* Prologue with blocking \operatorname{rcv} */
\operatorname{IF}(X==\operatorname{WAIT}) THEN \operatorname{rcv}(P,\operatorname{csd},\operatorname{Y}) FI; /* any more waiting? */
\operatorname{csd}_{P_i};
\operatorname{snd}(P,\operatorname{csd},\operatorname{FREE}); /* Epilogue */
```

Example: Typical Run with Centralized Server - 1

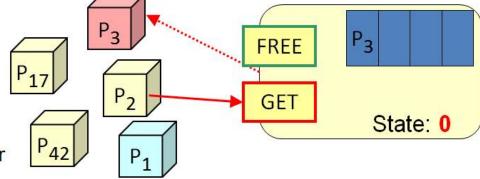
(1) P1, P2 and P3 starting requests for cs;P1 request arrives at server

Client States: no request or no answer WAIT from server received active in critical section Different messages: GET OK WAIT FREE

(3) P3 receives ,WAIT' and is stored in queue P2 request arrives at server



(2) P1 is granted cs; P3 request arrives at server



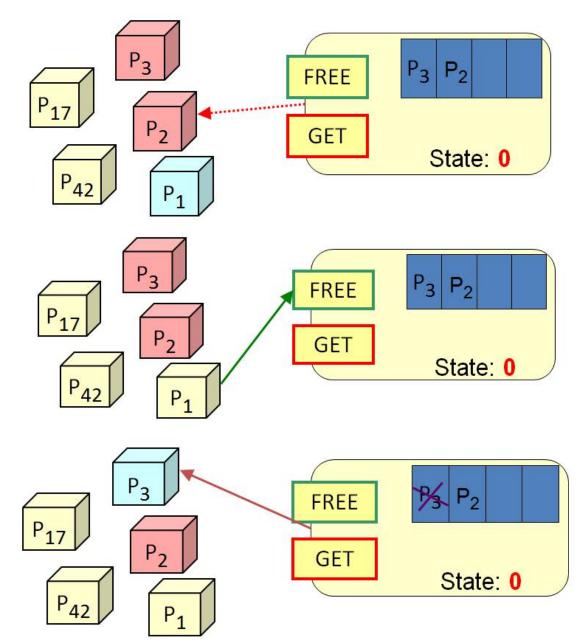
Example: Typical Run with Centralized Server - 2

(4) P2 receives ,WAIT' two processes wait in server Queue now

(5) P1 leaves cs and ,FREE' message from P1 arrives at server

(6) P3 is removed from Queue and gets ,OK' message to enter cs; P2 wait still in Queue

... etc. ...



Assessment of Centralized Server Solution – 1

- ightharpoonup P grants at most a single OK at a time $\implies System \ is \ {\bf safe}.$
- \triangleright Local FIFO Queue inside P is fair, but what about messaging?
 - * Server is only able to treat $known \ requests$ fair.
 - * If messages from a process or subsystem are arbitrarily delayed or dropped, the system cannot be fair.
 - \Longrightarrow Starvation depends on communication system properties.
- Overhead: maximum of 3 messages for a single access to csd.
- **◄ Errors** render entire system useless:
 - Lost GET/WAIT/OK messages block Client process indefinitely
 - Lost FREE messages from Client block server side and csd
 - \lhd Crash of server process P or process P_i currently holding csd block entire system.
 - ⇒ Server process as a single point of failure combined with Client processes as multiple single points of failure.

Assessment of Centralized Server Solution – 2

Pragmatism: Centralized Algorithm works fine iff

- 1. Message transport is reliable and to some extent fair.
- 2. Server runs on reliable hardware, e.g., virtual servers with backup.
- 3. Additional Measures:
 - ullet Use distinct server processes for managing different data sets D
 - ullet Replicate server for the same data set D on different hardware and interact among replicated servers in order to ensure consistent queues and preserve safeness.
 - Use **time-out**s if waiting for control messages lasts too long:
 - * Clients should take actions if servers are down.
 - * Server should take actions if FREEs from clients are overdue.
 - ⇒ Centralized Server works only in a reliable environment.

Note: Migrating servers work similarly and exhibit almost the same properties.

Preview: Truly distributed synchronization?

Two principal classes of really distributed algorithms:

- 1. Negotiation based on local conditions in client processes
 - P_i sends requests to P_j s asking for permission
 - Many algorithms using different request and inform sets
 - st a process has to ask all processes from its request set
 - * a process has to answer all requests from its inform set
 - Sets have to be constructed such that always a **majority** of all processes is asked for permission in order to ensure safeness.
- 2. Access based on exclusive ownership of a control token
 - Methods vary w.r.t. how token is acquired from other processes
 - ullet Simple case: in a ring of processes, token is passed around.

Problems are similar to those detected for the centralized version

- \blacktriangleleft single point-of-failure \longrightarrow multiple single points-of-failure
- algorithms do not work with unreliable communication

Conclusion: Basic Interaction Mechanisms

- ➤ Sufficient abstractions from hardware and network in order to implement portable distributed systems.
- Insufficient abstraction from underlying system to program on a really comfortable level (apart from msg queueing).
- Only (very) tightly coupled systems implementable by directly interacting based on $Read/Write\ sets$ of data, no matter whether c.f. interaction is based on read/write or simple snd/rcv.

Higher levels of abstraction and de-coupling:

- ► Message Queueing is a first step from basics to better de-coupling via more advanced middleware technology.
- ightharpoonup Client-Server is a more abstract paradigm based on remote pro- End cedures, objects and services suitable for typical settings in an internet-based environment.