



# Distributed Operating Systems Issues

## Chapters 16 and 18

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# Objectives

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- To provide a high-level overview of distributed systems
- To discuss the general structure of distributed operating systems
- To describe various methods for achieving mutual exclusion in a distributed system
- To present schemes for handling deadlock prevention, deadlock avoidance, and deadlock detection in a distributed system
- To present distributed algorithms used in case of failure



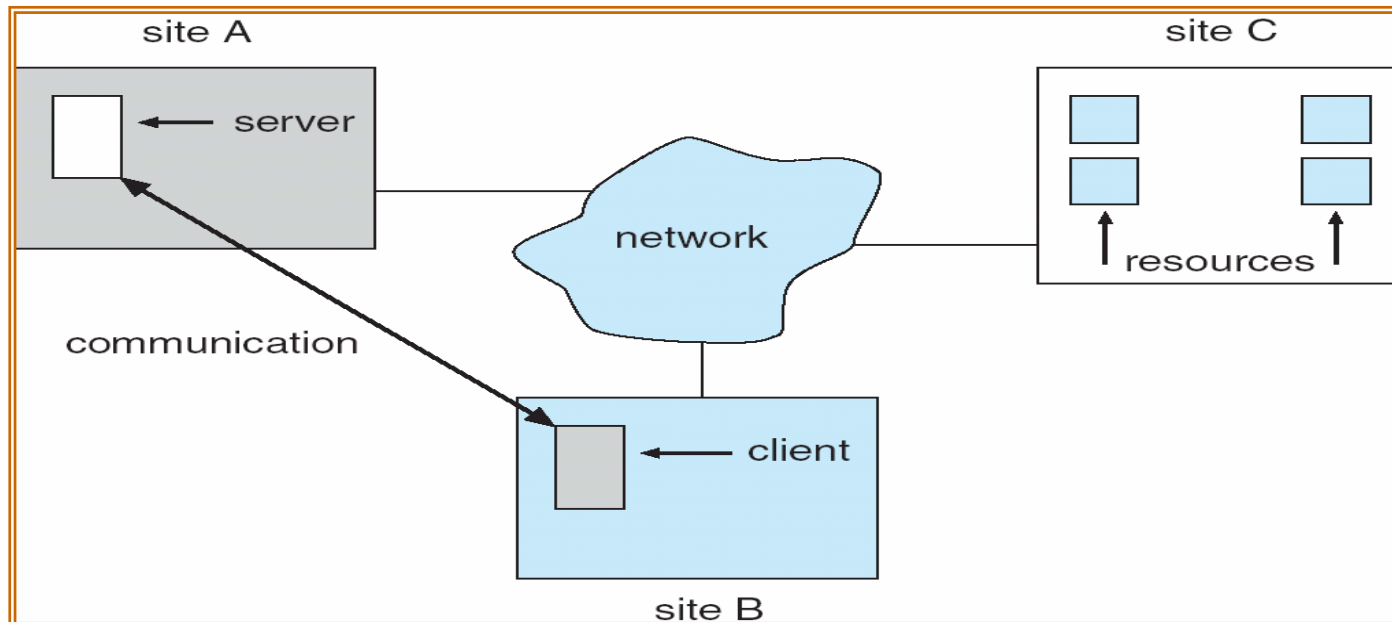
# Outline

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- Motivation (16.1)
- Types of Distributed Operating Systems 16.2)
- Event Ordering (18.1)
- Mutual Exclusion (18.2)
- Deadlock Handling (18.5)
- Election Algorithms (18.6)

## - Motivation ...

- **Distributed system** is collection of loosely coupled processors interconnected by a communications network
- Processors variously called *nodes*, *computers*, *machines*, *hosts*
  - *Site* is location of the processor





## ... - Motivation

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- Reasons for distributed systems
  - Resource sharing
    - sharing and printing files at remote sites
    - processing information in a distributed database
    - using remote specialized hardware devices
  - Computation speedup – load sharing
  - Reliability – detect and recover from site failure, function transfer, reintegrate failed site
  - Communication – message passing



## - Types of Distributed Operating Systems ...

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- Network Operating Systems
  - Users are aware of multiplicity of machines. Access to resources of various machines is done explicitly by:
    - Remote logging into the appropriate remote machine (telnet, ssh)
    - Transferring data from remote machines to local machines, via the File Transfer Protocol (FTP) mechanism
- Distributed Operating Systems
  - Users not aware of multiplicity of machines
    - Access to remote resources similar to access to local resources
  - Data Migration – transfer data by transferring entire file, or transferring only those portions of the file necessary for the immediate task
  - Computation Migration – transfer the computation, rather than the data, across the system



## ... - Distributed-Operating Systems

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- Process Migration – execute an entire process, or parts of it, at different sites
  - Load balancing – distribute processes across network to even the workload
  - Computation speedup – subprocesses can run concurrently on different sites
  - Hardware preference – process execution may require specialized processor
  - Software preference – required software may be available at only a particular site
  - Data access – run process remotely, rather than transfer all data locally



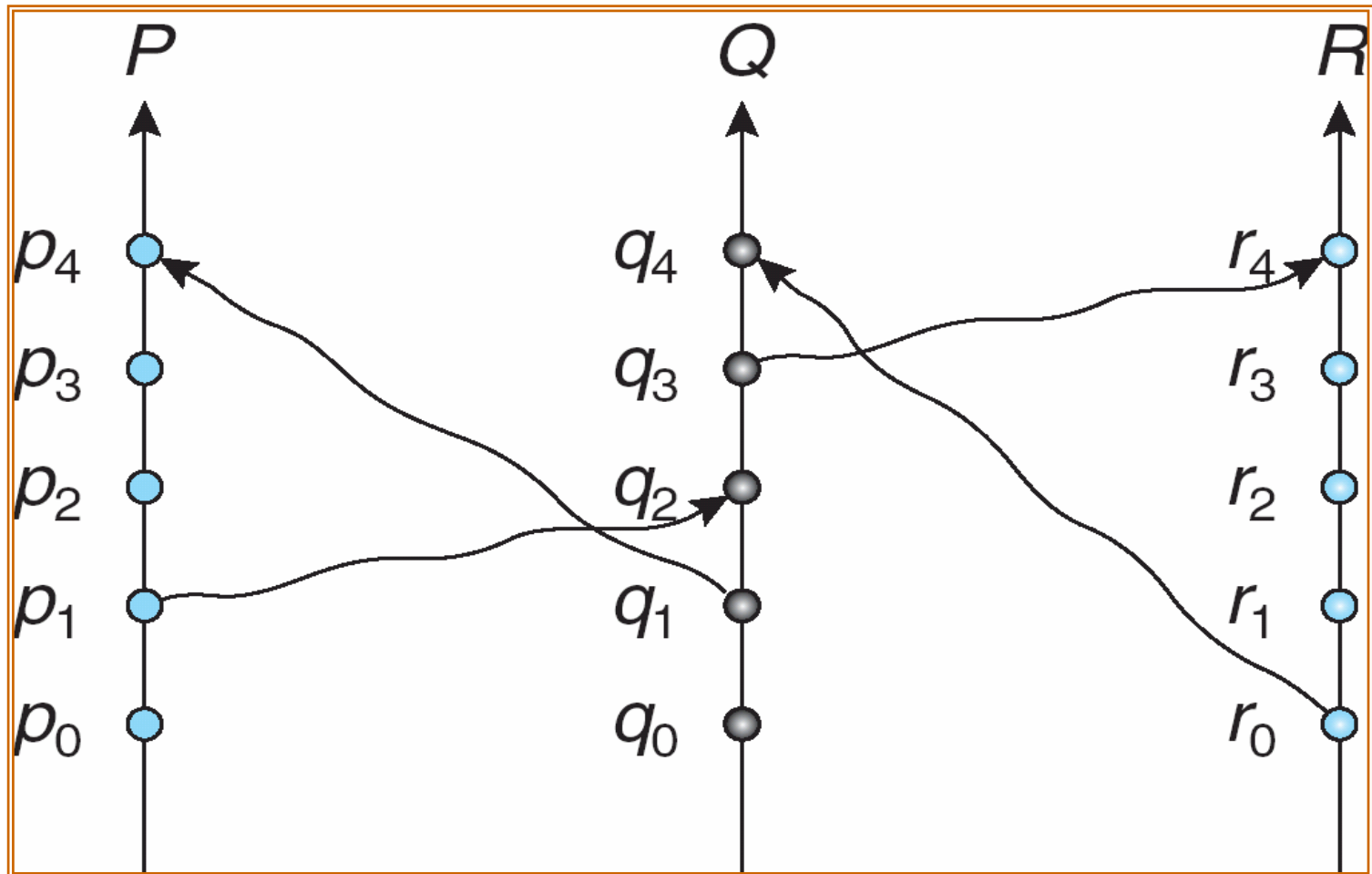
## - Event Ordering

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- *Happened-before* relation (denoted by  $\rightarrow$ )
  - If  $A$  and  $B$  are events in the same process, and  $A$  was executed before  $B$ , then  $A \rightarrow B$
  - If  $A$  is the event of sending a message by one process and  $B$  is the event of receiving that message by another process, then  $A \rightarrow B$
  - If  $A \rightarrow B$  and  $B \rightarrow C$  then  $A \rightarrow C$



## -- Relative Time for Three Concurrent Processes





## -- Implementation of $\rightarrow$

- Associate a timestamp with each system event
  - Require that for every pair of events A and B, if  $A \rightarrow B$ , then the timestamp of A is less than the timestamp of B
- Within each process  $P_i$  a **logical clock**,  $LC_i$  is associated
  - The logical clock can be implemented as a simple counter that is incremented between any two successive events executed within a process
    - Logical clock is **monotonically increasing**
- A process advances its logical clock when it receives a message whose timestamp is greater than the current value of its logical clock
- If the timestamps of two events A and B are the same, then the events are concurrent
  - We may use the process identity numbers to break ties and to create a total ordering



## - Distributed Mutual Exclusion (DME)

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- 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 two algorithms to ensure the mutual exclusion execution of processes in their critical sections
  - Centralized approach
  - Fully distributed approach



## -- DME: Centralized Approach

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- 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



## -- DME: Fully Distributed Approach ...

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- 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 other 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



## ... -- DME: Fully Distributed Approach

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- 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



## -- Desirable Behavior of Fully Distributed Approach

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- Freedom from Deadlock is ensured
- Freedom from starvation is ensured, since entry to the critical section is scheduled according to the timestamp ordering
  - The timestamp ordering ensures that processes are served in a first-come, first served order
- The number of messages per critical-section entry is
$$2 \times (n - 1)$$

This is the minimum number of required messages per critical-section entry when processes act independently and concurrently.



## -- Three Undesirable Consequences

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- 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
- Processes that have not entered their critical section must pause frequently to assure other processes that they intend to enter the critical section
  - This protocol is therefore suited for small, stable sets of cooperating processes





## -- Token-Passing Approach

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- 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**
- Algorithm similar to Chapter 6 algorithm 1 but token substituted for shared variable
- Unidirectional ring guarantees freedom from starvation
- Two types of failures
  - Lost token – election must be called
  - Failed processes – new logical ring established



## - Deadlock Handling

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- The following 3 deadlock algorithms presented in Chapter 7 can be used with distributed systems, provided that appropriate modifications are made
  - Avoidance
    - Banker's Algorithm
  - Prevention
  - Detection and recovery



## -- Deadlock Avoidance

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- Banker's algorithm
  - designate one of the processes in the system as the process that maintains the information necessary to carry out the Banker's algorithm
    - Every resource request must be channeled through the designated process.
    - Also implemented easily, but may require too much overhead
  - Not practical because the designated process may become a bottleneck due to excessive messages that it has to process



## -- Deadlock Prevention

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- Resource-ordering deadlock-prevention Scheme
- Time stamped Deadlock-Prevention Scheme
  - Wait-Die Scheme
  - Would-Wait Scheme



## --- Resource-ordering deadlock-prevention Scheme

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- 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.



## -- Time stamped Deadlock-Prevention Scheme

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- Each process  $P_i$  is assigned a unique priority number
- Priority numbers are used to decide whether a process  $P_i$  should wait for a process  $P_j$ ; otherwise  $P_i$  is rolled back
- The scheme prevents deadlocks
  - For every edge  $P_i \rightarrow P_j$  in the wait-for graph,  $P_i$  has a higher priority than  $P_j$
  - Thus a cycle cannot exist
- Disadvantage - starvation
  - Solution :- priorities based on timestamps
    - Wait-die scheme (nonpreemptive)
    - Wound-wait scheme (preemptive)



## --- Wait-Die Scheme

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- 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)
- In short, if the requesting process is:
  - Old: waits
  - Young: dies
- 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



## --- Would-Wait Scheme

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- 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  $P_i$ )
- In short, if the requesting process:
  - young: wait
  - old: never waits-wounds the young
- 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





## --- Both (Wait-die and Wound-wait) schemes

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- In Wait-die
  - Older waits for younger
  - Younger is not allowed to wait (Killed)
- In Wound-wait
  - Older never waits for younger
  - Younger is allowed to wait
- In both schemes unnecessary rollback can occur
- Both schemes can avoid starvation provided that, when a process is rolled back its timestamp doesn't change.



## -- Deadlock Detection

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- Centralized Approach
- Fully Distributed Approach

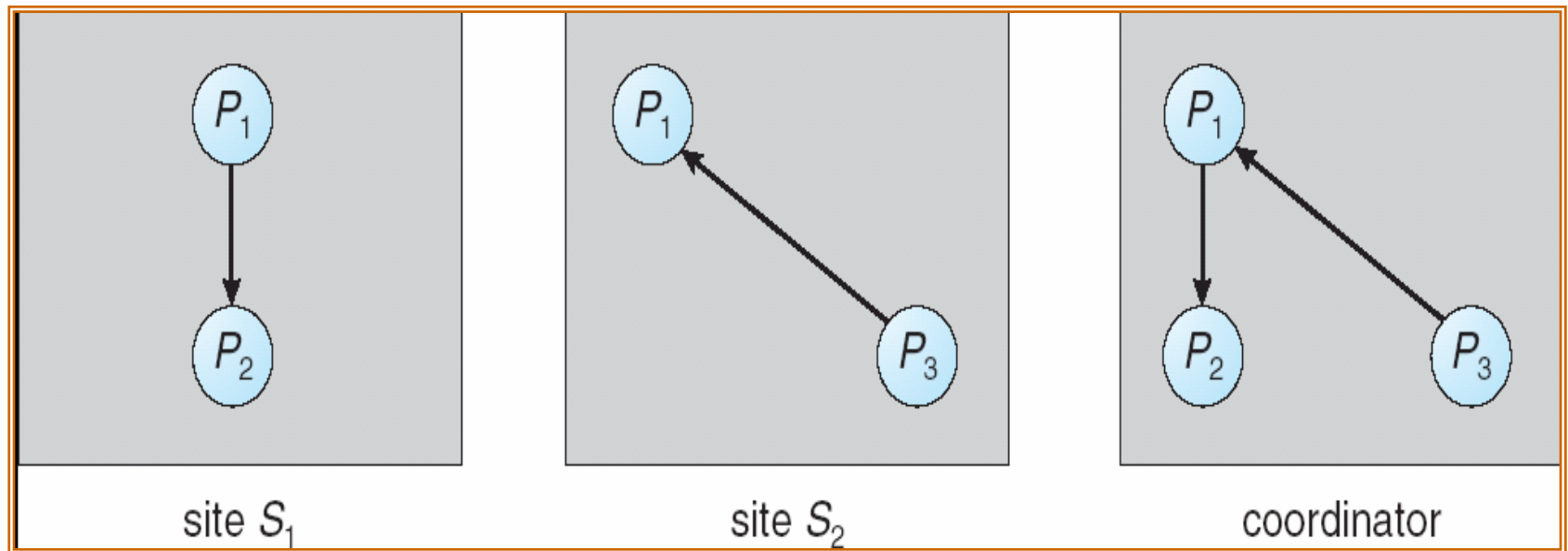


## --- Centralized Approach ...

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- 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
- A global wait-for graph is maintained in a single coordination process; this graph is the union of all local wait-for graphs

## ---- Local and Global Wait-For Graphs





## ... --- Centralized Approach ...

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- 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
- With options 1 and 2, Unnecessary rollbacks may occur as a result of false cycles



## ... --- Centralized Approach ...

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- Option 3:

- Append unique identifiers (timestamps) to requests from different sites
- When process  $P_i$  at site  $A$ , requests a resource from process  $P_j$  at site  $B$ , a request message with timestamp  $TS$  is sent
- The edge  $P_i \rightarrow P_j$  with the label  $TS$  is inserted in the local wait-for of  $A$ . The edge is inserted in the local wait-for graph of  $B$  only if  $B$  has received the request message and cannot immediately grant the requested resource



## ... --- Centralized Approach: Option 3-Algorithm

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1. The controller sends an initiating message to each site in the system
2. On receiving this message, a site sends its local wait-for graph to the coordinator
3. When the controller has received a reply from each site, it constructs a graph as follows:
  - (a) The constructed graph contains a vertex for every process in the system
  - (b) The graph has an edge  $P_i \rightarrow P_j$  if and only if
    - (1) there is an edge  $P_i \rightarrow P_j$  in one of the wait-for graphs, or
    - (2) an edge  $P_i \rightarrow P_j$  with some label TS appears in more than one wait-for graph

If the constructed graph contains a cycle  $\Rightarrow$  deadlock



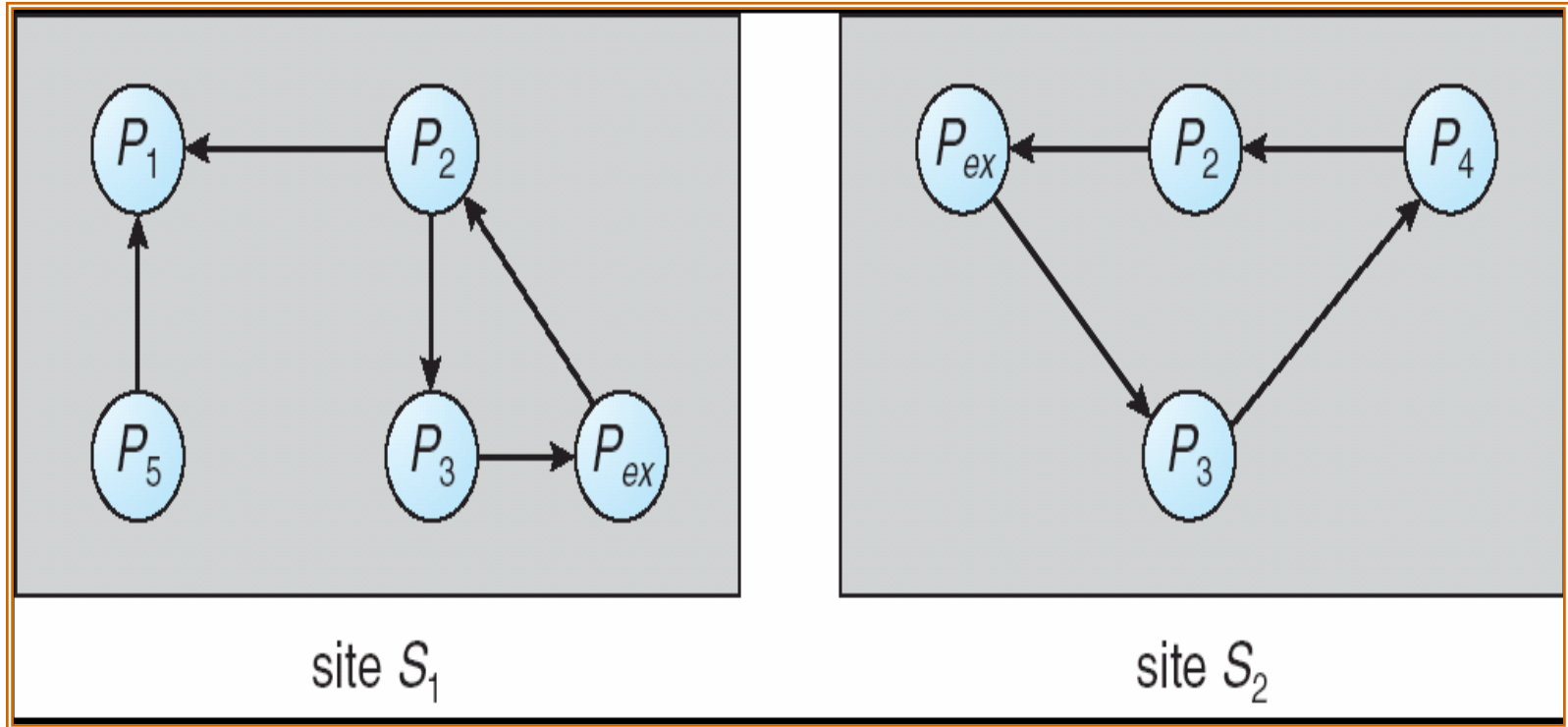
## --- Fully Distributed Approach

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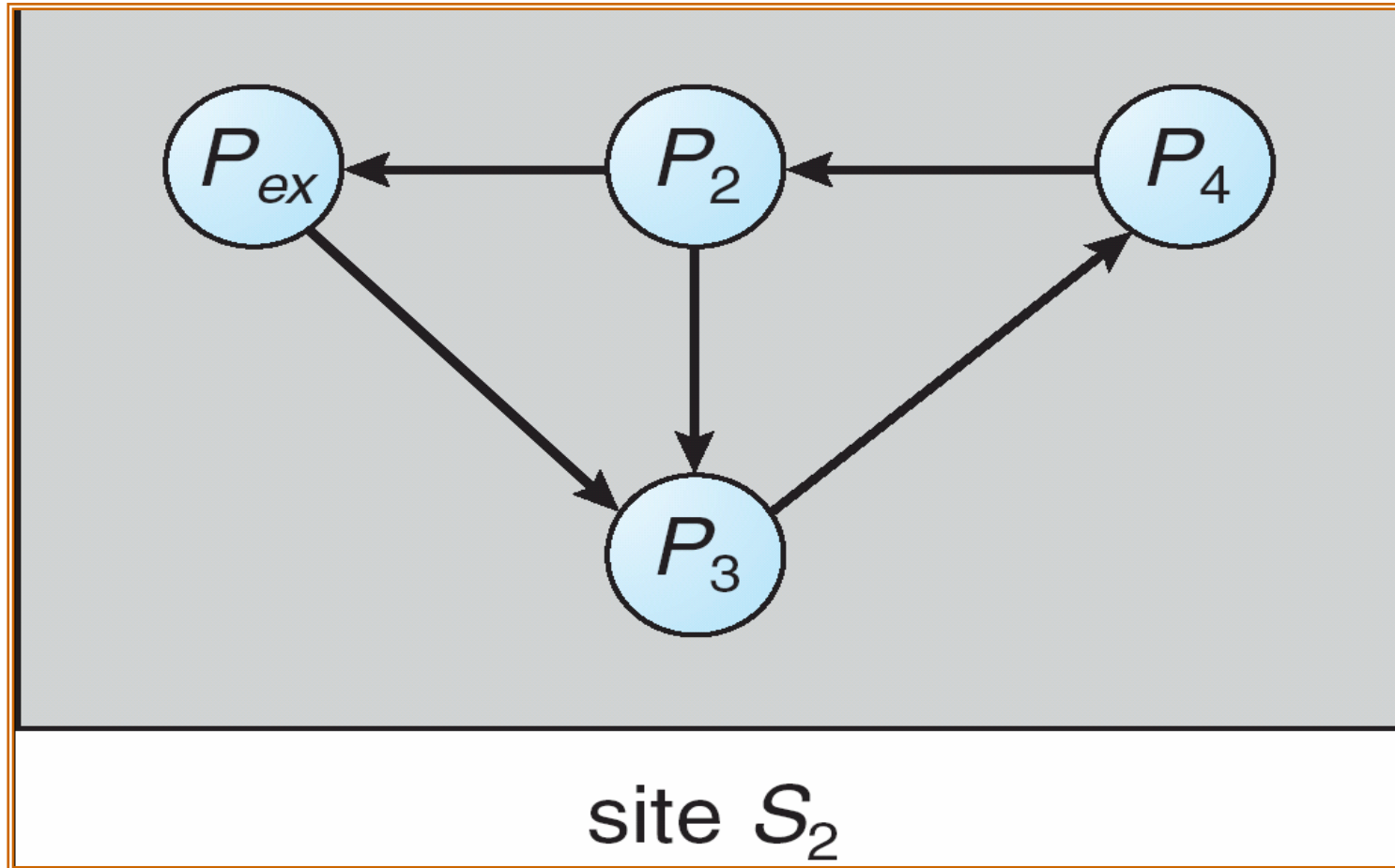
- All controllers share equally the responsibility for detecting deadlock
- Every site constructs a wait-for graph that represents a part of the total graph
- We add one additional node  $P_{ex}$  to each local wait-for graph
- If a local wait-for graph contains a cycle that does not involve node  $P_{ex}$ , 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



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





## - Election Algorithms

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- 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  $i$
- Assume a one-to-one correspondence between processes and sites
- The coordinator is always the process with the largest 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



## -- Bully Algorithm ...

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- 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 ...

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- If no response within  $T_i$ , 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  $T'_i$ , waiting to receive a message that a process with a higher priority number has been elected
- If no message is sent within  $T'_i$ , assume the process with a higher number has failed;  $P_i$  should restart the algorithm



## ... -- Bully Algorithm

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- 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



## -- Ring Algorithm ...

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- 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 `elect(i)` to its right neighbor, and adds the number  $i$  to its active list



## ... -- Ring Algorithm

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- If  $P_i$  receives a message  $elect(j)$  from the process on the left, it must respond in one of three ways:
  1. 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  $elect(j)$
  2. If  $i \neq j$ , then the active list for  $P_i$  now contains the numbers of 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
  3. 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 new coordinator process.





# End of Chapter 16 and 18

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