Distributed Deadlock

COMP 5150
DS Deadlock Topics

- **Prevention**
  - Too expensive in time and network traffic in a distributed system

- **Avoidance**
  - Determining safe and unsafe states would require a huge number of messages in a DS

- **Detection**
  - May be practical, and is primary chapter focus

- **Resolution**
  - More complex than in non-distributed systems
DS Deadlock Detection

• Bi-partite graph strategy modified
  – Use Wait For Graph (WFG or TWF)
    • All nodes are processes (threads)
    • Resource allocation is done by a process (thread) sending a request message to another process (thread) which manages the resource (client-server communication model, RPC paradigm)
  – A system is deadlocked IFF there is a directed cycle (or knot) in a global WFG
DS Deadlock Detection, Cycle vs. Knot

• The **AND** model of requests requires all resources currently being requested to be granted to un-block a computation
  – A **cycle is sufficient** to declare a deadlock with this model

• The **OR** model of requests allows a computation making multiple different resource requests to un-block as soon as any are granted
  – A **cycle is a necessary** condition
  – A **knot is a sufficient** condition
Deadlock in the **AND** model; there is a cycle but no knot

**No Deadlock** in the **OR** model
Deadlock in both the **AND** model and the **OR** model; there are *cycles* and a *knot*.
DS Detection Requirements

• **Progress**
  – No undetected deadlocks
    • All deadlocks found
    • Deadlocks found in finite time

• **Safety**
  – No false deadlock detection
    • *Phantom deadlocks* caused by network latencies
    • Principal problem in building correct DS deadlock detection algorithms
Control Framework

• Approaches to DS deadlock detection fall in three domains:
  – Centralized control
    • one node responsible for building and analyzing a real WFG for cycles
  – Distributed Control
    • each node participates equally in detecting deadlocks … abstracted WFG
  – Hierarchical Control
    • nodes are organized in a tree which tends to look like a business organizational chart
Total Centralized Control

• Simple conceptually:
  – Each node reports to the master detection node
  – The master detection node builds and analyzes the WFG
  – The master detection node manages resolution when a deadlock is detected

• Some serious problems:
  – Single point of failure
  – Network congestion issues
  – False deadlock detection
Total Centralized Control (cont)

• The Ho-Ramamoorthy Algorithms
  – Two phase (can be for AND or OR model)
    • each site has a status table of locked and waited resources
    • the control site will periodically ask for this table from each node
    • the control node will search for cycles and, if found, will request the table again from each node
    • Only the information common in both reports will be analyzed for confirmation of a cycle
    • The algorithm turns out to detect phantom deadlocks
Total Centralized Control (cont)

• The Ho-Ramamoorthy Algorithms (cont)
  – One phase (can be for AND or OR model)
    • each site keeps 2 tables; process status and resource status
    • the control site will periodically ask for these tables (both together in a single message) from each node
    • the control site will then build and analyze the WFG, looking for cycles and resolving them when found
    • So far, algorithm seems to be phantom free
Distributed Control

• Each node has the same responsibility for, and will expend the same amount of effort in detecting deadlock
  – The WFG becomes an abstraction, with any single node knowing just some small part of it
  – Generally detection is launched from a site when some thread at that site has been waiting for a “long” time in a resource request message
Distributed Control Models

• Four common models are used in building distributed deadlock control algorithms:
  – Path-pushing
    • path info sent from waiting node to blocking node
  – Edge-chasing
    • probe messages are sent along graph edges
  – Diffusion computation
    • echo messages are sent along graph edges
  – Global state detection
    • sweep-out, sweep-in (weighted echo messages); WFG construction and reduction
Path-pushing

• Obermarck’s algorithm for path propagation is described in the text: (an AND model)
  – based on a database model using transaction processing
  – sites which detect a cycle in their partial WFG views convey the paths discovered to members of the (totally ordered) transaction
  – the highest priority transaction detects the deadlock “Ex => T1 => T2 => Ex”
  – Algorithm can detect *phantoms* due to its asynchronous snapshot method
Edge Chasing Algorithms

- Chandy-Misra-Haas Algorithm (an AND model)
  - probe messages M(i, j, k)
    - initiated by Pi and sent from Pj to Pk
    - probe messages work their way through the WFG and if they return to sender (i.e. if a message has a form of i = k), a deadlock is detected
    - make sure you can follow the example in Figure 7.1 of the book
Chandy-Misra-Haas Algorithm

Probe (1, 9, 1) here i=k

S1

Probe (1, 3, 4)

P1 launches

Probe (1, 6, 8)

Probe (1, 7, 10)

S2
Edge Chasing Algorithms (cont)

- Mitchell-Meritt Algorithm (an AND model)
  - propagates message in the reverse direction
  - uses public - private labeling of messages
  - messages may replace the public labels at a given site depending on the sending site label
  - when a message arrives at a site with a matching public label, a deadlock is detected (by only the process with the largest public label in the cycle) which normally does resolution by self-destruct
Mitchell-Meritt Algorithm

1. P6 initially asks P8 for its Public label and changes its own 2 to 3
2. P3 asks P4 and changes its Public label 1 to 3
3. P9 asks P1 and finds its own Public label 3 and thus detects the deadlock P1=>P2=>P3=>P4=>P5=>P6=>P8=>P9=>P1
Deadlock Detection Algorithm

- Mitchell & Merritt’s algorithm [1984]
  - Detects local and global deadlocks
  - Exactly one process detects deadlock
    - Simplifies deadlock resolution
  - For continuous detection, a pair of labels (numbers) can be used for deadlock detection
  - Deadlock detected when a label makes a “round-trip” among set of blocked processes
Mitchell-Merritt Example

Initial State

Arrows indicate waiting.
Artificial deadlock without feedback.
Mitchell-Merritt Example

Transmit Step

Public Label

Private Label

Deadlock Detected
Diffusion Computation

• Deadlock detection computations are diffused through the WFG of the system
  – Query messages are sent from a computation (process or thread) on a node and diffused across the edges of the WFG
  – When a query reaches an active (non-blocked) computation the query is discarded, but when a query reaches a blocked computation the query is echoed back to the originator when (and if) all outstanding queries of the blocked computation are returned to it
  – If all queries sent are echoed back to an initiator, there is deadlock
Diffusion Computation of Chandy et al (an OR model)

• A waiting computation on node x periodically sends a query to all computations it is waiting for (the dependent set), marked with the originator ID and target ID

• Each of these computations in turn will query their dependent set members (only if they are blocked themselves) marking each query with the originator ID, their own ID and a new target ID they are waiting on

• A computation cannot echo a reply to its requestor until it has received replies from its entire dependent set, at which time it sends a reply marked with the originator ID, its own ID and the dependent (target) ID

• When (and if) the original requestor receives echo replies from all members of its dependent set, it can declare a deadlock when an echo reply’s originator ID and target ID are its own
Diffusion Computation of Chandy et al
Diffusion Computation of Chandy et al

P1 => P2 message at P2 from P1 (P1, P1, P2)

P2 => P3 message at P3 from P2 (P1, P2, P3)

P3 => P4 message at P4 from P3 (P1, P3, P4)

P4 => P5 ETC.

P5 => P6

P5 => P7

P6 => P8

P7 => P10

P8 => P9 (P1, P8, P9), now reply (P1, P9, P1)

P10 => P9 (P1, P10, P9), now reply (P1, P9, P1)

P8 <= P9 reply (P1, P9, P8)

P10<= P9 reply (P1, P9, P10)

P6 <= P8 reply (P1, P8, P6)

P7 <= P10 reply (P1, P10, P7)

P5 <= P6

P5 <= P7

P4 <= P5

P3 <= P4

P2 <= P3

P1 <= P2 reply (P1, P2, P1)

P5 cannot reply until both P6 and P7 replies arrive!

deadlock condition
Global State Detection

• Based on 2 facts of distributed systems:
  – A consistent snapshot of a distributed system can be obtained without freezing the underlying computation
  – A consistent snapshot may not represent the system state at any moment in time, but if a stable property holds in the system before the snapshot collection is initiated, this property will still hold in the snapshot
Global State Detection
(the P-out-of-Q request model)

• The Kshemkalyani-Singhal algorithm is demonstrated in the text
  – An initiator computation snapshots the system by sending FLOOD messages along all its outbound edges in an outward sweep
  – A computation receiving a FLOOD message either returns an ECHO message (if it has no dependencies itself), or propagates the FLOOD message to it dependencies
    • An echo message is analogous to dropping a request edge in a resource allocation graph (RAG)
  – As ECHOs arrive in response to FLOODs the region of the WFG the initiator is involved with becomes reduced
  – If a dependency does not return an ECHO by termination, such a node represents part (or all) of a deadlock with the initiator
  – Termination is achieved by summing weighted ECHO and SHORT messages (returning initial FLOOD weights)
Hierarchical Deadlock Detection

• These algorithms represent a middle ground between fully centralized and fully distributed
• Sets of nodes are required to report periodically to a control site node (as with centralized algorithms) but control sites are organized in a tree
• The master control site forms the root of the tree, with leaf nodes having no control responsibility, and interior nodes serving as controllers for their branches
Hierarchical Deadlock Detection

- Master Control Node
- Level 1 Control Node
- Level 2 Control Node
- Level 3 Control Node
Hierarchical Deadlock Detection

• The Menasce-Muntz Algorithm
  – Leaf controllers allocate resources
  – Branch controllers are responsible for finding deadlock among the resources that their children span in the tree
  – Network congestion can be managed
  – Node failure is less critical than in fully centralized
  – Detection can be done many ways:
    • Continuous allocation reporting
    • Periodic allocation reporting
Hierarchical Deadlock Detection (cont’d)

- The Ho-Ramamoorthy Algorithm
  - Uses only 2 levels
    - Master control node
    - Cluster control nodes
  - Cluster control nodes are responsible for detecting deadlock among their members and reporting dependencies outside their cluster to the Master control node (they use the one phase version of the Ho-Ramamoorthy algorithm discussed earlier for centralized detection)
  - The Master control node is responsible for detecting intercluster deadlocks
  - Node assignment to clusters is dynamic
Agreement Protocols

COMP 5150
Agreement Protocols

• When distributed systems engage in cooperative efforts like enforcing distributed mutual exclusion algorithms, processor failure can become a critical factor

• Processors may fail in various ways, and their failure modes and communication interfaces are central to the ability of healthy processors to deal with such failures
The System Model

- There are $n$ processors in the system and at most, $m$ of them can be faulty.
- The processors can directly communicate with other processors via messages (fully connected system).
- A receiver computation always knows the identity of a sending computation.
- The communication system is pipelined and reliable.
Faulty Processors

• May fail in various ways
  – Drop out of sight completely
  – Start sending spurious messages
  – Start to lie in its messages (behave maliciously)
  – Send only occasional messages (fail to reply when expected to)

• May believe themselves to be healthy

• Are not known to be faulty initially by non-faulty processors
Communication Requirements

• Synchronous model communication is assumed in this section:
  – Healthy processors receive, process and reply to messages in a lockstep manner
  – The receiving, processing, and replying sequence is called a *round*
  – In the synch-comm model, processes know what messages they expect to receive during a round

• The synch model is critical to agreement protocols, and the agreement problem is **not solvable** in an asynchronous system
Processor Failures

• Crash fault
  – Abrupt halt, never resumes operation

• Omission fault
  – Processor “omits” to send required messages to some other processors

• Malicious fault
  – Processor behaves randomly and arbitrarily
    – Known as *Byzantine faults*
Authenticated vs. Non-Authenticated Messages

- **Authenticated messages** (also called *signed* messages)
  - assure the receiver of correct identification of the sender
  - assure the receiver the message content was not modified in transit (no man-in-middle attack)

- **Non-authenticated messages** (also called *oral* messages)
  - are subject to intermediate manipulation
  - may lie about their origin
Authenticated vs. Non-Authenticated Messages (cont’d)

• To be generally useful, agreement protocols must be able to handle non-authenticated messages

• The classification of agreement problems includes:
  – The Byzantine agreement problem
  – The consensus problem
  – the interactive consistency problem
## Agreement Problems

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<th>Final Agreement</th>
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<td><strong>Consistency</strong></td>
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Agreement Problems (cont’d)

• **Byzantine Agreement**
  – One processor broadcasts a value to all other processors
  – All non-faulty processors agree on this value, faulty processors may agree on any (or no) value

• **Consensus**
  – Each processor broadcasts a value to all other processors
  – All non-faulty processors agree on one common value from among those sent out. Faulty processors may agree on any (or no) value

• **Interactive Consistency**
  – Each processor broadcasts a value to all other processors
  – All non-faulty processors agree on the same vector of values such that \( v_i \) is the initial broadcast value of non-faulty processor \( i \). Faulty processors may agree on any (or no) value
Agreement Problems (cont’d)

• The **Byzantine Agreement** problem is a **primitive** to the other 2 problems

• The focus here is thus the **Byzantine Agreement** problem

• Lamport showed the first solutions to the problem
  – An initial broadcast of a value to all processors
  – A following set of messages exchanged among all (healthy) processors within a set of message rounds
Agreement Requirements

• **Termination:**
  – Implementation must terminate in finite time

• **Agreement:**
  – All non-faulty processors will agree to a common value

• **Validity:**
  – If the initiator is non-faulty, then the agreed upon value is that of the initiator
The **Byzantine Agreement** problem

- The upper bound on number of faulty processors:
  - It is **impossible** to reach a consensus (in a fully connected network) if the number of faulty processors $m$ exceeds $\left\lfloor \frac{n - 1}{3} \right\rfloor$ (from Pease et al)
  - Lamport et al were the first to provide a protocol to reach Byzantine agreement which requires $m + 1$ rounds of message exchanges
  - Fischer et al showed that $m + 1$ rounds is the **lower bound** to reach agreement in a fully connected network where only processors are faulty (network OK)
  - Thus, in a **three processor system** with one faulty processor, agreement cannot be reached
Lamport - Shostak - Pease Algorithm

• The **Oral Message (OM(\(m\))) algorithm** with \(m > 0\) (some faulty processor(s)) solves the Byzantine agreement problem for \(3m + 1\) processors with at most \(m\) faulty processors
  – The initiator sends \(n - 1\) messages to everyone else to start the algorithm
  – Everyone else begins OM( \(m - 1\) ) activity, sending messages to \(n - 2\) processors
  – Each of these messages causes OM( \(m - 2\) ) activity, etc., until OM(0) is reached when the algorithm stops
  – When the algorithm stops each processor has input from all others and chooses the majority value as its value
Lamport - Shostak - Pease Algorithm (cont’d)

• The algorithm has $O(n^{m+1})$ message complexity, with $m + 1$ rounds of message exchange, where $n \geq (3m + 1)$
  – See the examples on page 186 - 187 in the book, where, with 4 nodes, $m$ can only be 1 and the OM(1) and OM(0) rounds must be exchanged (3 messages in OM(1) and 3*2 in OM(0) = 9 total)
  – The algorithm meets the Byzantine conditions:
    • Termination is bounded by known message rounds
    • A single value is agreed upon by healthy processors
    • That single value is the initiators value if the initiator is non-faulty
Lamport - Shostak - Pease Algorithm (cont’d)

Faulty Lieutenant

Faulty General
Dolev et al Algorithm

• Since the message complexity of the Oral Message algorithm is NP hard, polynomial solutions were sought.

• Dolev et al found an algorithm which runs with polynomial message complexity but requires \(2m + 3\) rounds to reach agreement
  – Low (m+1) threshold fires initiation
  – High (2m+1) threshold allows indirect confirmation
  – High confirmations allow a processor to commit

• The algorithm is a trade-off between message complexity and time-delay (rounds) with \(O(nm + m^3 \log m)\) message complexity
  – see the description of the algorithm on page 187
Applications

• See the example on fault tolerant clock synchronization in the book
  – time values are used as initial agreement values, and the median value of a set of message values is selected as the reset time

• An application in atomic distributed data base commit is also discussed