On the Correctness of Goscinski's Algorithm¹

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In this paper, the correctness of the mutual exclusion algorithm proposed by Goscinski (J. Parallel Distribut. Comput. 9(7), 77–82 (1990)), hereafter \mathcal{G} , is discussed and its features are compared with other token-based algorithms already published. In particular, we show that \mathcal{G} works correctly only using a communication system that guarantees a total ordering of messages, otherwise it is incorrect. We further give a modified version of \mathcal{G} , hereafter \mathcal{BCG} , and show that \mathcal{BCG} is actually a simple modification of the Suzuki-Kasami algorithm (ACM Trans. Comput. Systems 3(5), 344–349 (1985)). © 1995 Academic Press. Inc.

1. INTRODUCTION

Many distributed mutual exclusion (dmutex) algorithms have been proposed in the literature and they have been classified by Raynal [8] in two families: the *permission-based* algorithms and the *token-based* ones. The token-based algorithm family exchanges a virtual object among the processes called token, and its possession gives a process the permission to enter its critical section (CS). We can split the token-based algorithms in two subfamilies (in function of how the token is exchanged among the processes): the *token-asking* [2, 12, 10] and the *logical ring* [7]. In token-asking algorithms, the token is passed among the processes only if someone asks for it.

Dmutex algorithms are based on some communication assumptions. A communication system usually guarantees one of the following message ordering abstractions:

No ordering (NO): (a) the communication is reliable and (b) the transmission times are unpredictable but finite; Partial ordering (PO): (a), (b), and (c) for each pair of processes messages are received in the order they were sent:

Causal ordering (CO): (a), (b), and (d) if two emissions of messages are ordered by the "happened before" relation [6], each process receives such messages in that order [9];

Total ordering (TO): (a), (b), and (e) all the messages are fully ordered among themselves. (This abstraction is also known as logically instantaneous communication mode.)

Of course (e) implies (d), which in turn implies (c). Such

relation means that a TO system needs more complex protocols to be implemented than a CO one and so on. Therefore, the message ordering abstraction that the system must guarantee, in order that the algorithm works correctly, is an important comparison index.

Due to the relative simplicity of the protocol (only two causal messages) and to the centralized approach (there is only one data structure that contains requests to be served), token-based algorithms need relaxed assumptions than the others. In particular, while the permission-based algorithms [11, 1] require a PO system to work properly, token-based algorithms [2, 12, 10] need only an NO system.

 \mathcal{G} falls into the token-asking family, in particular it is an all-asking such as [12, 10] and, therefore, the number of messages exchanged per CS is n where n is the number of processes; \mathcal{G} is based on two communication system assumptions: (i) there is a homogeneous or heterogeneous network and (ii) it is an error-free network; i.e., the messages are not lost and are delivered in the order they were sent. The latter assumption is ambiguous and it can be interpreted in two ways: \mathcal{G} runs on a PO system or on a TO system. However, in both cases, \mathcal{G} needs a complex communication system than other similar token-based algorithms.

In the sequel we will show that, using a PO system, \mathscr{G} is incorrect; i.e., it prevents neither the occurrence of starvation nor deadlock. Starvation may occur because the algorithm may lose requests and deadlock may occur because the algorithm may duplicate requests. We will also show that \mathscr{G} runs only on a TO system, while with a CO system starvation may yet manifest itself. In the final section, we will make the necessary corrections to \mathscr{G} in order to obtain an algorithm (\mathscr{RCG}) that runs on an NO system. We will see that \mathscr{RCG} is actually a simple modification of [12]. For brevity's sake all formal proofs are available in [3].

Finally, we want to underline that the worth of G was to point out the necessity of introducing priority-based discipline in dmutex algorithms. Indeed, all the proposed algorithms in the literature used FirstCome-FirstServed as the discipline to serialize requests. A thorough examination of the insertion impact of the priority in dmutex algorithms is in [2].

2. THE & ALGORITHM

Two algorithms were proposed in [5]: one is suitable for the environment requiring priorities (P-system) and the

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other one for real-time environments (RT-system). The differences between these algorithms are implied by the features of environments as well as methods used to ensure freedom from starvation. The skeleton of these two algorithms is the same, therefore in the following we will describe only the P-system version. The algorithm is based on: (i) one process per site, (ii) no knowledge about the token location. $\mathcal G$ uses in each process a local priority queue (Q) to store incoming requests from other processes and a priority queue associated with the token (P) to memorize the processes waiting for CS entry (for further details, see [5]). The structure of the code executed by process i is the following (the notation is similar of $\mathcal G$):

```
procedure wants_to_enter (p); {p is the
     priority of the request}
   begin
         requesting := true;
         if have token
             then begin
                 broadcast REQUEST(i, p(i));
                 wait until receive TOKEN(P)
1.
2.
                 have_token := true;
             end:
   critical section;
         if \neg((Q = \emptyset) \land (P = \emptyset))
            then begin
3.
                 append (P, Q) \rightarrow P;
                 have token := false;
4 .
5.
                 send TOKEN(tail(P)) to head(P);
         requesting := false;
   end.
   procedure request_arrives (j, p); {this procedure
must be done atomically)
   begin
         if □ have_token
            then discard the request;
             else begin
                  add (j, Q) \rightarrow Q;
7.
                  acts like 3 and 5;
             end
   end.
```

2.1. Correctness

A token-asking algorithm must avoid loss and multiplication of requests. The loss is due to the lack of processes

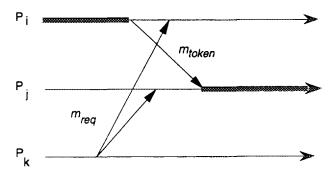


FIG. 1. Loss of a request.

that register requests, the multiplication is due to multiple insertion of the same request in *P*. The loss may lead to *starvation* since a process may wait forever the token (step 1), whereas the multiplication leads to token loss since after a finite time the token will be passed (step 5 or 7) to a process not waiting for it. We consider this event as a *deadlock*. In the sequel we will consider message duplication only, since the removal of duplicated requests executed by every process carries to multiplication removal.

Suppose that the communication system guarantees PO. In this hypothesis & creates the conditions for starvation and deadlock.

Starvation may occur since requests can be lost. Indeed, according to G, the process having the token disables the reception of requests (step 4) before executing the send-token statement (step 5). To the contrary, a process starts to record requests only upon the receipt of the token (step 2), otherwise it discards requests (step 6). A PO system may deliver a request both to the process sending and to the process receiving the token when they are disabled to accept the request (see Fig. 1). Note that a time-out based mechanism to retransmit requests (as suggested in [5]) does not avoid starvation, since a request could be always delivered in time intervals during which no process accepts requests (see Fig. 2).

Deadlock can occur since a request can be delivered, by a PO system, both to the process sending and to the process receiving the token when they are enabled to accept the request (see Fig. 3) with consequent creation of an unexpected request (i.e., requests in P without a process waiting for them). Indeed, in \mathcal{G} no check is done to avoid the presence in P of multiple copies of the same request (step

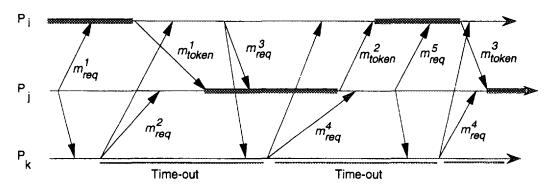


FIG. 2. Starvation due to infinite losses of a request.

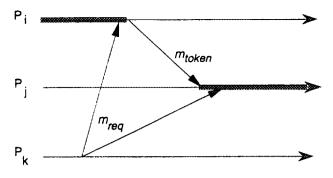


FIG. 3. Request duplication.

3 and 7). Other token-asking algorithms [2, 12] mark requests with a sequence number. This label avoids having a request served more than once.

Let us suppose to have a CO system. In this case the duplication of requests is removed tout-court, since the broadcast message m_{req} of Fig. 3 is causally ordered with m_{token} . Therefore, the communication system will deliver m_{token} to the user process only after the delivery of m_{req} ,

even though the communication system will receive m_{token} first. Unfortunately the messages of Fig. 1 are not causally ordered, therefore starvation may yet manifest itself.

If we assume a TO system, we avoid both the loss of requests and the request multiplication: the duplication is avoided since total order implies causal order, the loss is avoided since the situation of Fig. 1 can never occur. We can get a total order attaching a progressive number, given by a central coordinator, to each message and the system will deliver the messages according to that order to each process. Such ordering can be easily implemented making simple modifications to the centralized broadcast protocol proposed in [4].

3. THE BEE ALGORITHM

Considering the algorithm of Section 2, the filter of step 6 plays a key role in avoiding request loss, whereas the data structures Q and P play a key role in removing request duplication. In particular, to avoid any loss of requests, we

```
procedure wants_to_enter (p); {p is the priority of the request}
   begin
         requesting := true;
         if have_token
            then begin
                 RN[i, 1] := RN[i, 1] + 1; RN[i, 2] := p;
                 broadcast REQUEST(i, RN[i, 1], RN[i, 2]);
                 wait until receive TOKEN(P, LN);
                 have_token := true;
            end:
   critical section;
         LN[i] := RN[i, 1];
1.
2.
         for each j \in \{1, \ldots n\} - \{i\} do
З.
            if (\neg in(P, j) \land (RN[j, 1] = LN[j] + 1)) then add(j, Q) \rightarrow Q;
4.
         append(P,Q) \rightarrow P;
         if \neg (P = \emptyset)
            then begin
5.
                 have_token := false;
6.
                 send TOKEN(tail(P), LN) to head(P);
         requesting := false;
   end.
   procedure request_arrives (j, n, p); {this procedure must be done atomically}
   begin
7.
         if RN[j, 1] < n
                  RN[j,1] := n ; RN[j,2] := p ;
                  if have_token \land (\neg requesting) \land (RN[j, 1] = LN[j] + 1)
                     then begin
8.
                           have_token := false;
9.
                           send TOKEN(tail(P), LN) to head(P);
                     end
            end
         else discard the request;
   end.
```

FIG. 4. The 9866 algorithm.

```
if (P = \emptyset)
then for each j \in \{1, \dots n\} - \{i\} do
if (\neg \operatorname{in}(P, j) \land (RN[j, 1] = LN[j] + 1)) then \operatorname{add}(j, P) \rightarrow P;
```

FIG. 5. The % CC algorithm using an FCFS discipline.

should prevent processes from discarding requests or that they at least discard only requests that were already served. Therefore, step 6 should be removed or at least changed. The request duplication can be dealt with by increasing the local and global information about the requests. P and Q does not contain indeed enough information.

In this section, we correct \mathscr{G} in order to have an algorithm that (i) runs on an NO system and (ii) serves requests according to their priority avoiding starvation. The \mathscr{RCC} algorithm is shown in Fig. 4.

Duplication is avoided by applying the sequence number mechanism cited in the previous section (for further details, see [12]). We need a new data structure that travels with the token LN and a local one at each process RN. LN is a vector whose size is n and LN[i] stores the sequence number of the last served request of process i. RN is an array with n rows and 2 columns. Process i stores in $RN_i[j, 1]$ the largest sequence number received from process j and in $RN_i[j, 2]$ its priority.

When process i exits from the CS, it updates its sequence number in the LN vector (step 1) and appends to P the requests stored in RN_i verifying the condition of step 3. Such a condition guarantees that P never include requests duplications. Due to the simplicity of the protocol (only two causal messages: REQUEST and TOKEN), we note that requests whose sequence number is less than that stored in RN can be discarded since they have already been served. Hence the filter of step 7.

From the code of Fig. 4, we see that an FCFS discipline can be obtained by replacing lines 2 to 4 with those shown in Fig. 5. Doing so, we get the Suzuki-Kasami algorithm. Hence, the proofs that \mathcal{BCC} guarantees mutual exclusion and is deadlock free are omitted since they are similar to those in [12]. As far as starvation is concerned, the proof given in [5] holds.

4. CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, we showed that the dmutex algorithm proposed by Goscinski [5] runs only on a TO communication system. If an NO communication system, which is the standard system of other similar token-based algorithms [2, 10, 12], is available, \mathcal{G} prevents neither starvation nor deadlock. We gave a correct version of the algorithm (\mathcal{BCC}) and we showed that \mathcal{BCC} is actually a simple modification of the Suzuki-Kasami algorithm [12]. Finally, we want to emphasize that Goscinski was the first to point out the necessity of introducing a priority-based discipline in dmutex algorithms. A thorough examination of the insertion impact of the priority in dmutex algorithms can be

found in [2]. All the formal proofs concerning the incorrectness of \mathcal{G} and the correctness of \mathcal{GHG} can be found in [3].

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