

MATERIAL / PACE

- Please classify your perspective on material covered in today's class (15 respondents):
- 1-mostly review, 5-equal new/review, 10-mostly new
- **Average 6.87** (↑ previous 6.80)
- Please rate the pace of today's class:
- 1-slow, 5-just right, 10-fast
- Average 5.73 (\downarrow previous 5.80)

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L16.5

FEEDBACK FROM 3/2

- "On the slide on Anti Entropy Effectiveness, how is the number of rounds to propagate a single update to all nodes O(log(N))?
- What if there are multiple updates to the nodes, would it just be a cumulative sum of O(log(N)) resulting in a final runtime of O(log(N))?
- This is based on page 230 of the text in Chapter 4.4.
- Regarding the number of rounds to propagate a single update, the text references [Jelasity et al., 2007] which is likely the textbook author's PhD student.
 - Neither the textbook or paper describes how Big 0 is estimated for the number of rounds
 - Multiple updates to the nodes will likely require multiple flights of messages – one flight for each message
 - For N=10,000, each flight requires about ~14 messages (see graph)

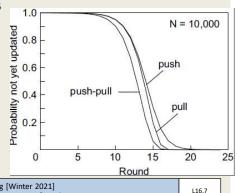
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L16.6

FEEDBACK - 2

- The purpose of the slide is to compare the number of rounds for push, pull, and push-pull messaging between nodes for gossip-based data dissemination for spreading information in very large-scale distributed systems
- Here the example is 10,000 nodes



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FEEDBACK - 3

- While reading on advantages of Kafka, I read one advantage Kafka automatically balances consumers in the event of failure. Could please discuss how Kafka automatically balances consumers?
- Kafka Topics are stored using partitions
 - On topic may have let's say 4 partitions
 - Messages for the topic are spread across the partitions
- Partitions are then replicated across Kafka nodes called brokers
 - Each partition has a <u>leader</u> (for write) and <u>followers</u> (for read replication)
- Consumer reads for a topic are balanced across all of the partitions of the topic - that is different parts of the topic are stored using different partitions (e.g. 4)
- Concurrent reads from consumers to the same message at the same time can be balanced across partition replicas (leader and followers)

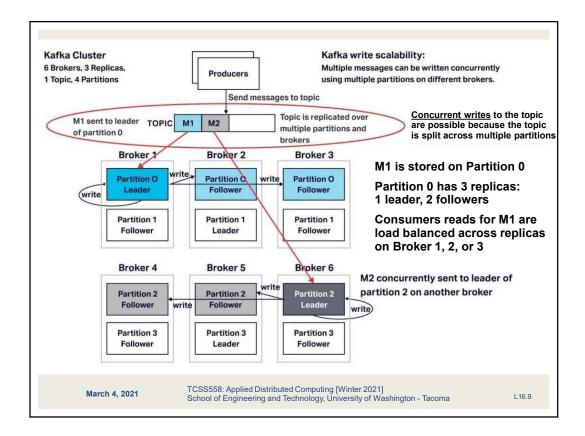
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L16.8

L16.4 Slides by Wes J. Lloyd



FEEDBACK - 4

- Could you discuss the difference between zookeeper and load balancer? (Specifically I didn't get broker concept in the zookeeper)
- In Apache Kafka the zookeeper is like the TCP membership server in Assignment #2
- The Zookeeper tracks the list of brokers in the cluster
- The Zookeeper itself is replicated. (unlike Assignment #2)
 - The Zookeeper must be fault tolerant
 - Typically there are 3 to 5 replicas
 - An odd number is used so there is always a majority and minority in the event there needs to be a consensus decision
 - On failure the zookeepers may not agree on the membership list
 - The majority vote wins (3 of 5 servers)

October 24, 2016

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FEEDBACK - 5

■ For more on Apache Kafka see:

https://www.cloudkarafka.com/blog/2016-11-30-part1-kafka-for-beginners-what-is-apache-kafka.html

https://www.instaclustr.com/the-power-of-kafka-partitions-how-to-get-the-most-out-of-your-kafka-cluster/

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L16.11

OBJECTIVES - 3/4

- Questions from 3/2
- Assignment 2: Replicated Key Value Store
- Chapter 4.4 Review Questions
- Chapter 6: Coordination
 - Chapter 6.1: Clock Synchronization
 - Chapter 6.2: Logical Clocks
 Vector Clocks
- Class Activity Total Ordered Multicasting
 - Chapter 6.3: Distributed Mutual Exclusion

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SHORT-HAND-CODES FOR MEMBERSHIP TRACKING APPROACHES

- Include readme.txt or doc file with instructions in submission
- Must document membership tracking method

>> please indicate which types to test <<

Description Static file membership tracking – file is not reread Static file membership tracking DYNAMIC - file is periodically reread to refresh membership list TCP membership tracking – servers are configured to

refer to central membership server
U UDP membership tracking - automatically discovers

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L16.13

ASSIGNMENT 2

- Sunday March 14th
- Goal: Replicated Key Value Store
- Team signup to be posted on Canvas under 'People'
- Build off of Assignment 1 GenericNode

nodes with no configuration

- Focus on TCP client/server w/ replication
- How to track membership for data replication?
 - Can implement multiple types of membership tracking for extra credit

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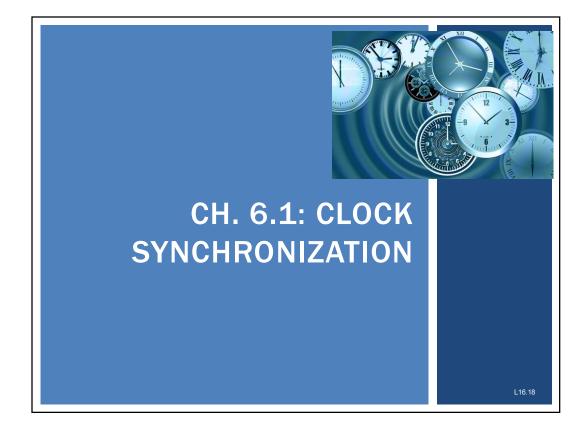
CHAPTER 6 - COORDINATION

- 6.1 Clock Synchronization
 - Physical clocks
 - Clock synchronization algorithms
- 6.2 Logical clocks
 - Lamport clocks
 - Vector clocks
- 6.3 Mutual exclusion
- 6.4 Election algorithms
- 6.6 Distributed event matching (light)
- 6.7 Gossip-based coordination (*light*)

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CLOCK SYNCHRONIZATION

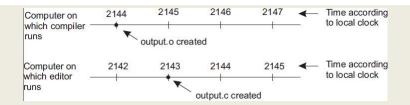
- **Example:**
- "make" is used to compile source files into binary object and executable files
- As an optimization, make only compiles files when the "last modified time" of source files is more recent than object and executables
- Consider if files are on a shared disk of a distributed system where there is no agreement on time
- Consider if the program has 1,000 source files

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TIME SYNCHRONIZATION PROBLEM FOR DISTRIBUTED SYSTEMS



- Updates from different machines, may have clocks set to different times
- Make becomes confused with which files to recompile

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PHYSICAL CLOCKS

- Computer timers: precisely machined quartz crystals
- When under tension, they oscillate at a well defined frequency
- In analog electronics/communications crystals once used to set the frequency of two-way radio transceivers for
- Today, crystals are associated with a counter and holding register on a digital computer.

1960s ERA radio crystal →

- Each oscillation decrements a counter by one
- When counter gets to zero, an interrupt fires
- Can program timer to generate interrupt, let's say 60 times a second, or another frequency to track time

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COMPUTER CLOCKS

- Digital clock on computer sets base time
- Crystal clock tracks forward progress of time
 - Translation of wave "ticks" to clock pulses
- CMOS battery on motherboard maintains clock on power loss
- Clock skew: physical clock crystals are not exactly the same
- Some run at slightly different rates
- Time differences accumulate as clocks drift forward or backward slightly
- In an automobile, where there is no clock synchronization, clock skew may become noticeable over months, years



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116.22

L16.11 Slides by Wes J. Lloyd

UNIVERSAL COORDINATED TIME

- Universal Coordinated Time (UTC) Thu Nov 16 10:13:39 UTC 2017
 - Worldwide standard for time keeping
 - Equivalent to Greenwich Mean Time (United Kingdom)
 - 40 shortwave radio stations around the world broadcast a short pulse at the start of each second (WWV)
 - World wide "atomic" clocks powered by constant transitions of the non-radioactive caesium-133 atom
 - 9,162,631,770 transitions per second
- Computers track time using UTC as a base
 - Avoid thinking in local time, which can lead to coordination issues
 - Operating systems may translate to show local time

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COMPUTING: CLOCK CHALLENGES

- How do we synchronize computer clocks with real-world clocks?
- How do we synchronize computer clocks with each other?

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CLOCK SYNCHRONIZATION

- UTC services: use radio and satellite signals to provide time accuracy to 50ns
- Time servers: Server computers with UTC receivers that provide accurate time
- Precision (π) : how close together a set of clocks may be
- Accuracy: how correct to actual time clocks may be
- Internal synchronization: Sync local computer clocks
- External synchronization: Sync to UTC clocks
- Clock drift: clocks on different machines gradually become out of sync due to crystal imperfections, temperature differences, etc.
- Clock drift rate: typical is 31.5s per year
- Maximum clock drift rate (ρ) : clock specifications include one

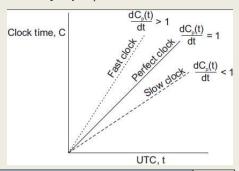
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CLOCK SYNCHRONIZATION - 2

- If two clocks drift from UTC in opposite directions, after time Δt after synchronization, they may be 2ρ apart.
 - ρ clock drift rate, π clock precision (max 50ns)
- Clocks must be resynchronized every $\pi/2\rho$ seconds
- Network time protocol
- Provide coordination of time for servers
- Leverage distributed network of time servers

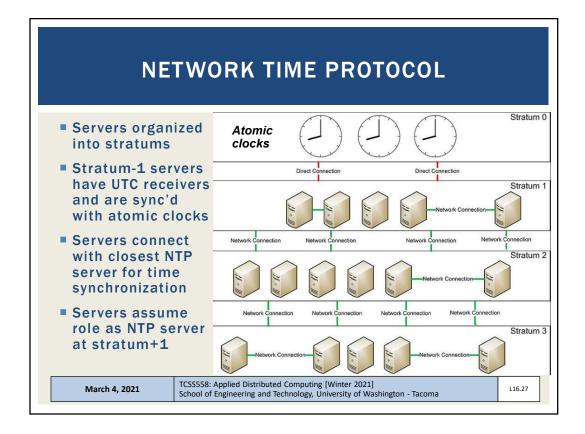


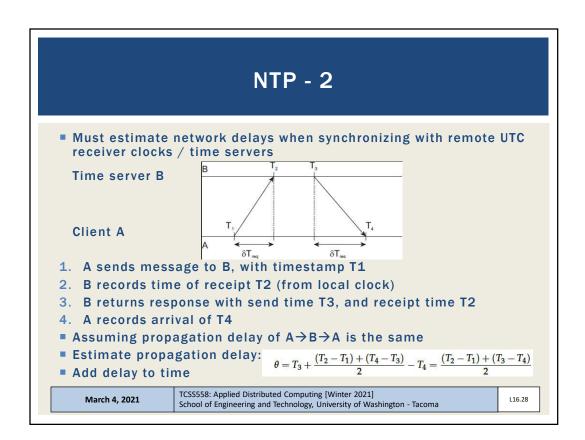
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NTP - 3

- Cannot set clocks backwards (recall "make" file example)
- Instead, temporarily slow the progress of time to allow fast clock to align with actual time
- Change rate of clock interrupt routine
- Slow progress of time until synchronized
- NTP accuracy is within 1-50ms
- In Ubuntu Linux, to quickly synchronize time: \$apt install ntp ntpdate
- Specify local timeservers in /etc/ntp.conf server time.u.washington.edu iburst server bigben.cac.washington.edu iburst
- Shutdown service (sudo service ntp stop)
- Run ntpdate: (sudo ntpdate time.u.washington.edu)
- Startup service (sudo service ntp start)

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BERKELEY ALGORITHM

- Berkeley time daemon server actively polls network to determine average time across servers
- Suitable when no machine has a UTC receiver.
- Time daemon instructs servers how much to adjust clocks to achieve precision
- Accuracy can not be guaranteed
- Berkeley is an internal clock synchronization algorithm

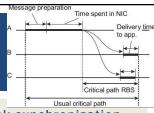
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- Sensor networks bring unique challenges for clock synchronization
 - Address resource constraints: limited power, multihop routing slow
- Reference broadcast synchronization (RBS)
- Provides precision of time, not accuracy as in Berkeley
- No UTC clock available
- RBS sender broadcasts a reference message to allow receivers to adjust clocks
- No multi-hop routing
- Time to propagate a signal to nodes is roughly constant
- Message propagation time does not consider time spent waiting in NIC for message to send
 - Wireless network resource contention may force wait before message even <u>can</u> be sent

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REFERENCE BROADCAST SYNCHRONIZATION (RBS)

- Node broadcasts reference message m
- Each node p records time Tp,m when m is received
- Tp,m is read from node p's clock
- Two nodes p and q can exchange delivery times to estimate mutual relative offset
- Then calculate relative average offset for the network:

$$Offset[p,q] = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{M} (T_{p,k} - T_{q,k})}{M}$$

- Where M is the total number of reference messages sent
- Nodes can simply store offsets instead of frequently synchronizing clocks to save energy

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REFERENCE BROADCAST SYNCHRONIZATION (RBS) - 2

- Cloud skew: over time clocks drift apart
- Averages become less precise
- Elson et al. propose using standard linear regression to predict offsets, rather than calculating them
- IDEA: Use node's history of message times in a simple linear regression to continuously refine a formula with coefficients to predict time offsets:

$$Offset[p,q](t) = \alpha t + \beta$$

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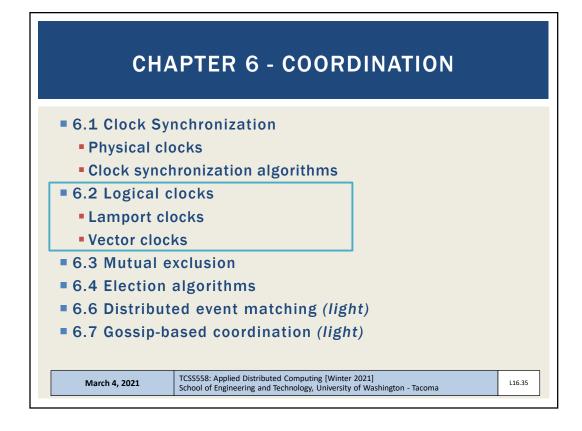
Vector Clocks

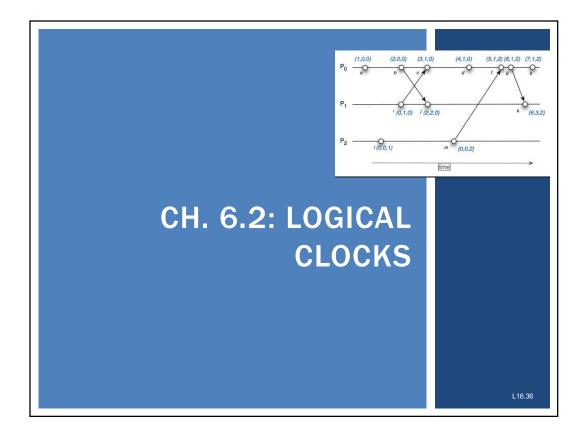
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LOGICAL CLOCKS

- In distributed systems, synchronizing to actual time may not be required...
- It may be sufficient for every node to simply agree on a current time (e.g. logical)
- Logical clocks provide a mechanism for capturing chronological and <u>causal</u> relationships in a distributed system
- Think counters . . .
- Leslie Lamport [1978] seminal paper showed that absolute clock synchronization often is not required
- Processes simply need to agree on the order in which events occur

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LOGICAL CLOCKS - 2

- Happens-before relation
- $A \rightarrow B$: **Event A**, happens before **event B**...
- All processes must agree that event A occurs first
- Then afterward, event B
- Actual time not important. . .
- If event A is the event of proc P1 sending a msg to a proc P2, and event B is the event of proc P2 receiving the msg, then A→B is also true...
- The assumption here is that message delivery takes time
- Happens before is a transitive relation:
- $A \rightarrow B$, $B \rightarrow C$, therefore $A \rightarrow C$

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L16.38

L16.20

LOGICAL CLOCKS - 3

- If two events, say event X and event Y do not exchange messages, not even via third parties, then the sequence of X→Y vs. Y→X can not be determined!!
- Within the system, these events appear concurrent
- Concurrent: nothing can be said about when the events happened, or which event occurred first
- Clock time, C, must always go forward (increasing), never backward (decreasing)
- Corrections to time can be made by adding a positive value, but never by subtracting one

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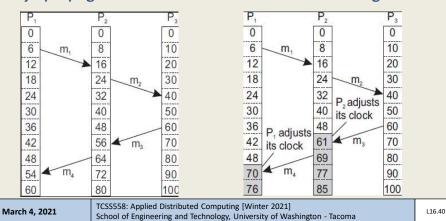
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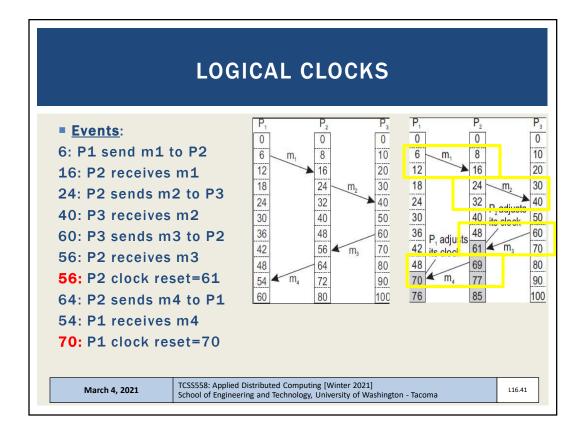
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LOGICAL CLOCKS - 4

- Three processes each with local clocks
- Lamport's algorithm corrects process clock values
- Always propagate the most recent known value of logical time





LAMPORT LOGICAL CLOCKS - IMPLEMENTATION

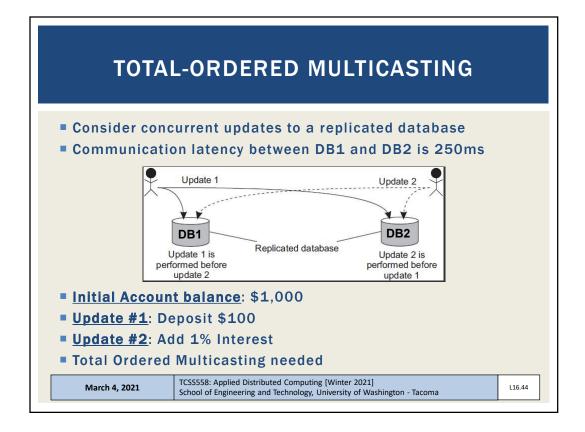
- Negative values not possible
- When a message is received, and the local clock is before the timestamp when then message was sent, the local clock is updated to message_sent_time + 1
- Clock is incremented before an event: sending a message, receiving a message, some other internal event Pi increments Ci: Ci ← Ci + 1
- 2. When Pi send msg m to Pj, m's timestamp is set to Ci
- 3. When Pj receives msg m, Pj adjusts its local clock Cj ← max{Cj, timestamp(m)}
- 4. Ties broken by considering Proc ID: i<j; <40,i> < <40,j> Both Lamport clocks are = 40
 The winner has a higher alphanumeric Process ID
 J (winner) is greater than i, alphabetically

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TOTAL-ORDERED MULTICASTING EXAMPLE

- Two messages (m₁, m₂) must be distributed, to two processes (p₁, p₂)
- We assume messages have correct lamport clock timestamps
- $\mathbf{m}_{1}(\mathbf{10}, \mathbf{p}_{1}, \text{ add } \mathbf{100})$
- $\mathbf{m}_{2}(12, p_{2}, \text{ add } 1\% \text{ interest})$
- Each process maintains a queue of messages
- Arriving messages are placed into queues ordered by the Lamport clock timestamp
- In each queue, each message must be acknowledged by every process in the system before operations can be applied to the local database

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TOTAL-ORDERED MULTICASTING EXAMPLE

- Two messages (m₁, m₂) must be distributed, to two processes (p₁, p₂)
- We assume messages have correct lamport clock timestamps
- $\mathbf{m}_{1}(10, p_{1}, add $100)$

Key point:

Multicast messages are also received by the sender (itself)

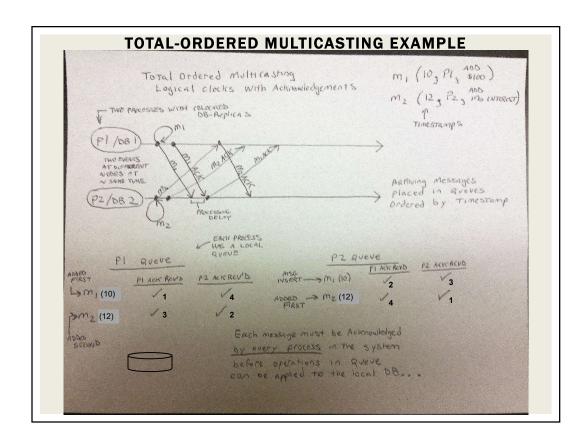
Lamport clock timestamp

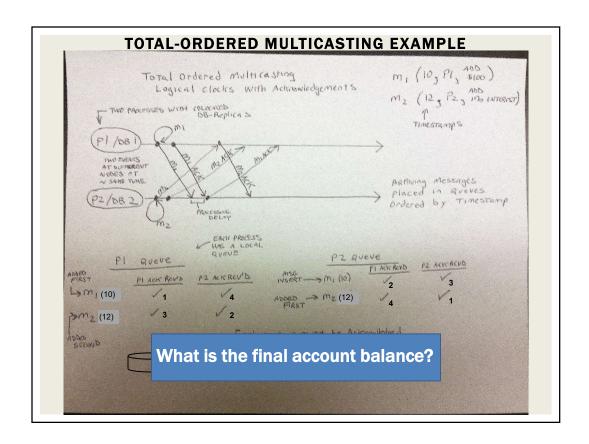
In each queue, each message must be acknowledged by every process in the system before operations can be applied to the local database

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TOTAL-ORDERED MULTICASTING - 2

- Each message timestamped with local logical clock of sender
- Multicast messages are also received by the sender (itself)
- Assumptions:
 - Messages from same sender received in order they were sent
 - No messages are lost
- When messages arrive they are placed in local queue <u>ordered</u> <u>by timestamp</u>
- Receiver <u>multicasts</u> acknowledgement of message receipt to other processes
 - Time stamp of message receipt is lower the acknowledgement
- This process <u>replicates</u> queues across sites
- Messages delivered to application (database) only when message at the head of the queue has been acknowledged by every process in the system

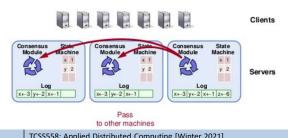
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TOTAL-ORDERED MULTICASTING - 3

- Can be used to implement replicated state machines (RSMs)
- Concept is to replicate event queues at each node
- (1) Using logical clocks and (2) exchanging acknowledgement messages, allows for events to be "totally" ordered in replicated event queues
- Events can be applied "in order" to each (distributed) replicated state machine (RSM)



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Vector Clocks

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VECTOR CLOCKS

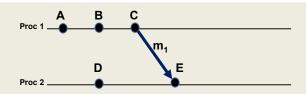
- Lamport clocks don't help to determine causal ordering of messages
- Vector clocks capture causal histories and can be used as an alternative
- But what is causality? ...

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- Having a causal relationship between two events (A and E) indicates that event E results from the occurrence of event A.
- When one event results from another, there is a causal relationship between the two events.
- This is also referred to as cause and effect.

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CAUSALITY - 2

- Disclaimer:
- Without knowing actual information contained in messages, it is not possible to state with certainty that there is a causal relationship or perhaps a conflict
- Lamport/Vector clocks can help us suggest possible causality
- But we never know for sure...

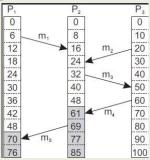
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Consider the messages:



- P2 receives m1, and subsequently sends m3
- Causality: Sending m3 may depend on what's contained in m1
- P2 receives m2, receiving m2 is <u>not</u> related to receiving m1
- Is sending m3 causally dependent on receiving m2?

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VECTOR CLOCKS

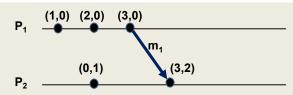
- Vector clocks help keep track of <u>causal history</u>
- If two local events happened at process P, then the causal history H(p2) of event p2 is {p1,p2}
- P sends messages to Q (event p3)
- Q previously performed event q1
- Q records arrival of message as q2
- Causal histories merged at Q H(q2)= {p1,p2,p3,q1,q2}
- Fortunately, can simply store history of last event, as a vector clock → H(q2) = (3,2)
- Each entry corresponds to the last event at the process

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- Each process maintains a vector clock which
 - Captures number of events at the local process (e.g. logical clock)
 - Captures number of events at all other processes
- Causality is captured by:
 - For each event at Pi, the vector clock (VC_i) is incremented
 - The msg is timestamped with VC_i; and sending the msg is recorded as a new event at P_i
 - P_j adjusts its VC_j choosing the <u>max</u> of: the message timestamp -orthe local vector clock (VC_j)

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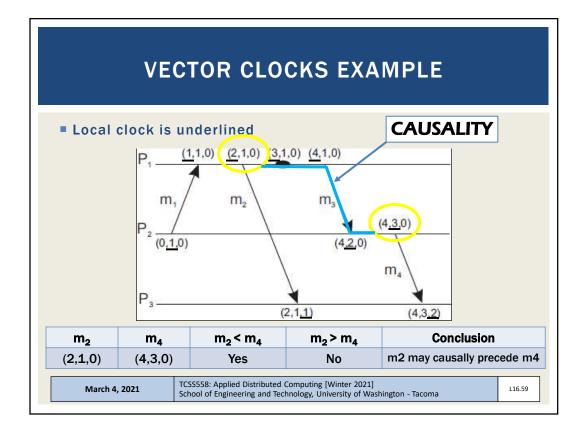
VECTOR CLOCKS - 3

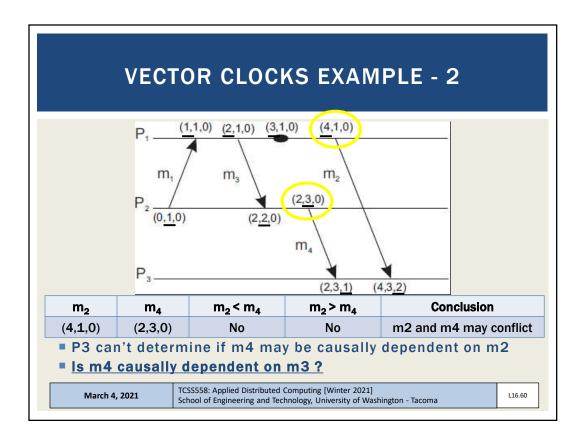
- Pj knows the # of events at Pi based on the timestamps of the received message
- Pj learns how many events have occurred at other processes based on timestamps in the vector
- These events "may be causally dependent"
- In other words: they may have been necessary for the message(s) to be sent...

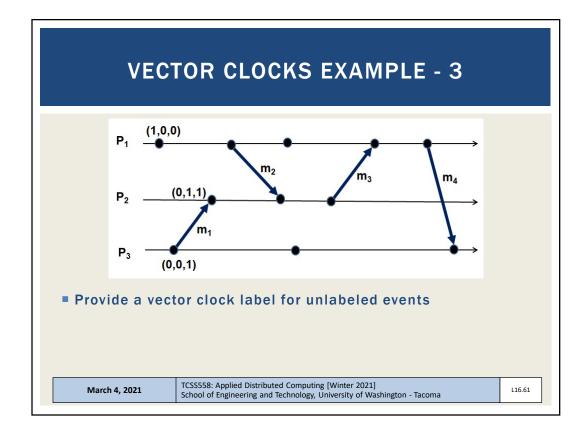
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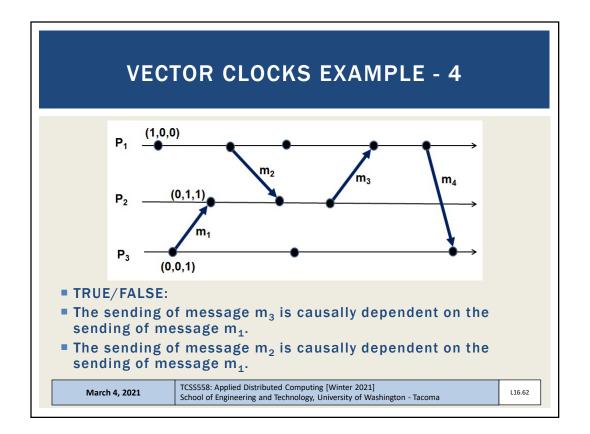
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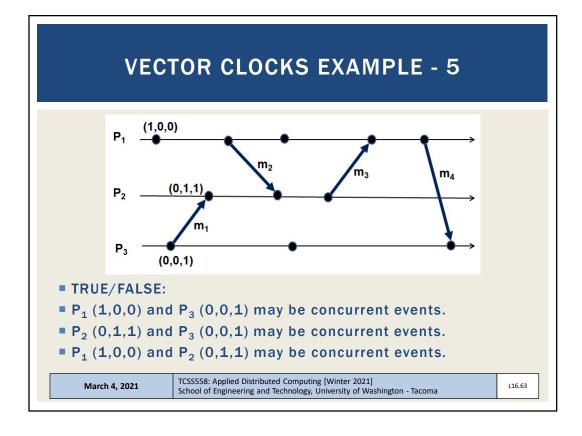
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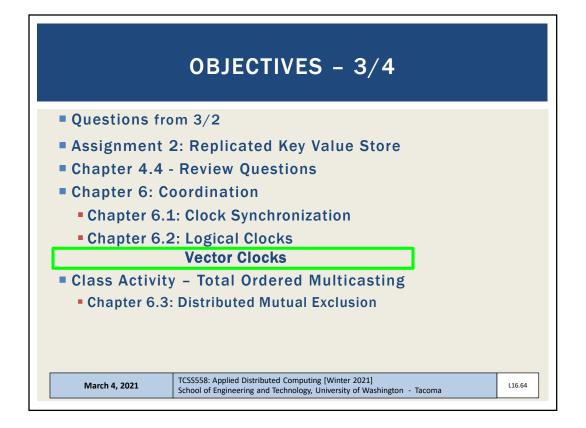












OBJECTIVES - 3/4

- Questions from 3/2
- Assignment 2: Replicated Key Value Store
- Chapter 4.4 Review Questions
- Chapter 6: Coordination
 - Chapter 6.1: Clock Synchronization
 - Chapter 6.2: Logical Clocks
 Vector Clocks
- Class Activity Total Ordered Multicasting
 - Chapter 6.3: Distributed Mutual Exclusion

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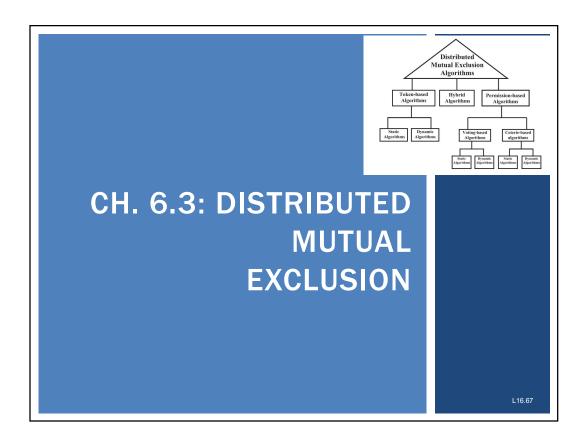
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DISTRIBUTED MUTUAL EXCLUSION ALGORITHMS

- Coordinating access among distributed processes to a shared resource requires Distributed Mutual Exclusion
- Algorithms in 6.3
- Token-ring algorithm
- Permission-based algorithms:
- Centralized algorithm
- Distributed algorithm (Ricart and Agrawala)
- Decentralized voting algorithm (Lin et al.)

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TOKEN-BASED ALGORITHMS

- Mutual exclusion by passing a "token" between nodes
- Nodes often organized in ring
- Only one token, holder has access to shared resource
- Avoids starvation: everyone gets a chance to obtain lock
- Avoids deadlock: easy to avoid

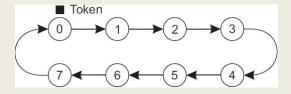
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TOKEN-RING ALGORITHM

- Construct overlay network
- Establish logical ring among nodes



- Single token circulated around the nodes of the network
- Node having token can access shared resource
- If no node accesses resource, token is constantly circulated around ring

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TOKEN-RING CHALLENGES

- 1. If token is lost, token must be regenerated
 - Problem: may accidentally circulate multiple tokens
- 2. Hard to determine if token is lost
 - What is the difference between token being lost and a node holding the token (<u>lock</u>) for a long time?
- 3. When node crashes, circular network route is broken
 - Dead nodes can be detected by adding a receipt message for when the token passes from node-to-node
 - When no receipt is received, node assumed dead
 - Dead process can be "jumped" in the ring

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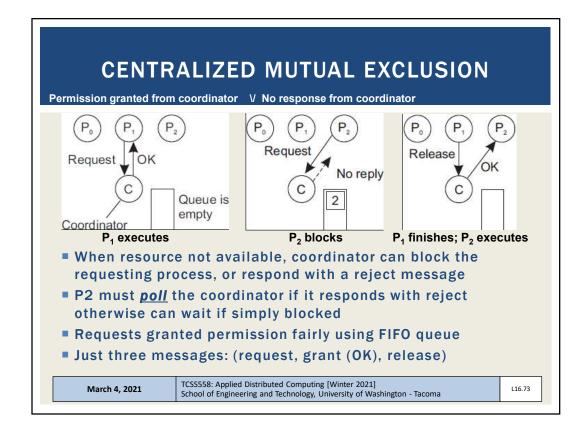
DISTRIBUTED MUTUAL EXCLUSION ALGORITHMS - 3

- Permission-based algorithms
- Processes must require permission from other processes before first acquiring access to the resource
 - CONTRAST: Token-ring did not ask nodes for permission
- Centralized algorithm
- Elect a single leader node to coordinate access to shared resource(s)
- Manage mutual exclusion on a distributed system similar to how it mutual exclusion is managed for a single system
- Nodes must all interact with leader to obtain "the lock"

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CENTRALIZED MUTUAL EXCLUSION - 2

- Issues
- Coordinator is a single point of failure
- Processes can't distinguish dead coordinator from "blocking" when resource is unavailable
 - No difference between CRASH and Block (for a long time)
- Large systems, coordinator becomes performance bottleneck
 - Scalability: Performance does not scale
- Benefits
- Simplicity: Easy to implement compared to distributed alternatives

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DISTRIBUTED ALGORITHM

- Ricart and Agrawala [1981], use total ordering of all events
 - Leverages Lamport logical clocks
- Package up resource request message (AKA Lock Request)
- Send to all nodes
- Include:
 - Name of resource
 - Process number
 - Current (logical) time
- Assume messages are sent reliably
 - No messages are lost

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DISTRIBUTED ALGORITHM - 2

- When each node receives a request message they will:
- 1. Say OK (if the node doesn't need the resource)
- 2. Make no reply, queue request (node is using the resource)
- 3. If node is also waiting to access the resource: perform a timestamp comparison -
 - 1. Send OK if requester has lower logical clock value
 - 2. Make no reply if requester has higher logical clock value
- Nodes sit back and wait for all nodes to grant permission
- Requirement: every node must know the entire membership list of the distributed system

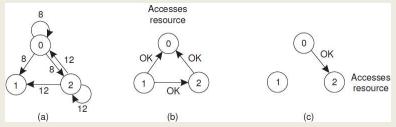
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DISTRIBUTED ALGORITHM - 3

- Node 0 and Node 2 simultaneously request access to resource
- Node 0's time stamp is lower (8) than Node 2 (12)
- Node 1 and Node 2 grant Node 0 access
- Node 1 is not interested in the resource, it OKs both requests



- In case of conflict, lowest timestamp wins!
 - Node 2 rejects its own request (1@) in favor of node 0 (8)

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CHALLENGES WITH DISTRIBUTED ALGORITHM

- Problem: Algorithm has N points of failure!
- Where N = Number of Nodes in the system
- No Reply Problem: When node is accessing the resource, it does not respond
 - Lack of response can be confused with failure
 - Possible Solution: When node receives request for resource it is accessing, always send a reply either granting or denying permission (ACK)
 - Enables requester to determine when nodes have died

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CHALLENGES WITH DISTRIBUTED ALGORITHM - 2

- Problem: Multicast communication required -or- each node must maintain full group membership
 - Track nodes entering, leaving, crashing...
- Problem: Every process is involved in reaching an agreement to grant access to a shared resource
 - This approach <u>may not scale</u> on resource-constrained systems
- Solution: Can relax total agreement requirement and proceed when a simple majority of nodes grant permission
 - Presumably any one node locking the resource prevents agreement
 - If one node gets majority of acknowledges no other can
 - Requires every node to know size of system (# of nodes)
- Distributed algorithm for mutual exclusion works best for:
 - Small groups of processes
 - When memberships rarely change

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DECENTRALIZED ALGORITHM

- Lin et al. [2004], decentralized voting algorithm
- Resource is replicated N times
- Each replica has its own coordinator ...(N coordinators)
- Accessing resource requires majority vote: total votes (m) > N/2 coordinators
- Assumption #1: When coordinator does not give permission to access a resource (because it is busy) it will inform the requester

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DECENTRALIZED ALGORITHM - 2

- Assumption #2: When a coordinator crashes, it recovers quickly, but will have forgotten votes before the crash.
- Approach assumes coordinators reset arbitrarily at any time
- Risk: on crash, coordinator forgets it previously granted permission to the shared resource, and on recovery it errantly grants permission again
- <u>The Hope</u>: if coordinator crashes, upon recovery, the node granted access to the resource has already finished before the restored coordinator grants access again . . .

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DECENTRALIZED ALGORITHM - 3

- With 99.167% coordinator availability (30 sec downtime/hour) chance of violating correctness is so low it can be neglected in comparison to other types of failure
- Leverages fact that a new node must obtain a majority vote to access resource, which requires time

N	m	р	Violation
8	5	3 sec/hour	$< 10^{-15}$
8	6	3 sec/hour	$< 10^{-18}$
16	9	3 sec/hour	$< 10^{-27}$
16	12	3 sec/hour	$< 10^{-36}$
32	17	3 sec/hour	$< 10^{-52}$
32	24	3 sec/hour	$< 10^{-73}$

N	m	p	Violation
8	5	30 sec/hour	$< 10^{-10}$
8	6	30 sec/hour	$< 10^{-11}$
16	9	30 sec/hour	$< 10^{-18}$
16	12	30 sec/hour	$< 10^{-24}$
32	17	30 sec/hour	$< 10^{-35}$
32	24	30 sec/hour	$< 10^{-49}$

N = number of resource replicas, m = required "majority" vote p=seconds per hour coordinator is offline

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DECENTRALIZED ALGORITHM - 4

- Back-off Polling Approach for permission-denied:
- If permission to access a resource is denied via majority vote, process can poll to gain access again with a <u>random</u> delay (known as back-off)
- Node waits for a random amount, retries...
- If too many nodes compete to gain access to a resource, majority vote can lead to low resource utilization
 - No one can achieve majority vote to obtain access to the shared resource
 - Mimics elections where with too many candidates, where no one candidate can get >50% of the total vote
- Problem Solution detailed in [Lin et al. 2014]

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DISTRIBUTED MUTUAL EXCLUSION ALGORITHMS REVIEW

- Which algorithm offers the best scalability to support distributed mutual exclusion in a large distributed system?
- (A) Token-ring algorithm
- (B) Centralized algorithm
- (C) Distributed algorithm
- (D) Decentralized voting algorithm

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DISTRIBUTED MUTUAL EXCLUSION ALGORITHMS REVIEW - 2

- Which algorithm(s) involve blocking when a resource is not available?
- (A) Token-ring algorithm
- (B) Centralized algorithm
- (C) Distributed algorithm
- (D) Decentralized voting algorithm

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DISTRIBUTED MUTUAL EXCLUSION ALGORITHMS REVIEW - 3

- Which algorithm(s) involve arriving at a consensus to determine whether a node should be granted access to a resource?
- (A) Token-ring algorithm
- (B) Centralized algorithm
- (C) Distributed algorithm
- (D) Decentralized voting algorithm

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DISTRIBUTED MUTUAL EXCLUSION ALGORITHMS REVIEW - 4

- Which algorithm(s) have N points of failure, where N = Number of Nodes in the system?
- (A) Token-ring algorithm
- (B) Centralized algorithm
- (C) Distributed algorithm
- (D) Decentralized voting algorithm

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