

Programação em Sistemas Distribuídos MEI-MI-MSI 2018/19

2. Distributed Systems Paradigms

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Review of basic Distributed systems paradigms

Naming and addressing



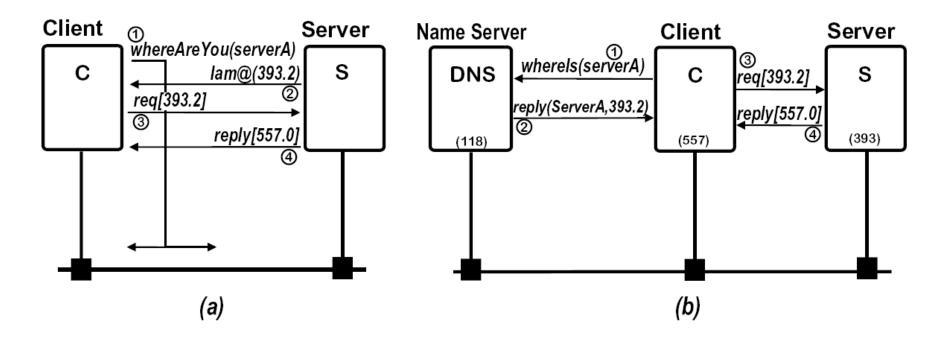


Figure 2.2. Name to Address Translation: (a) Broadcast; (b) Name Server

Message passing



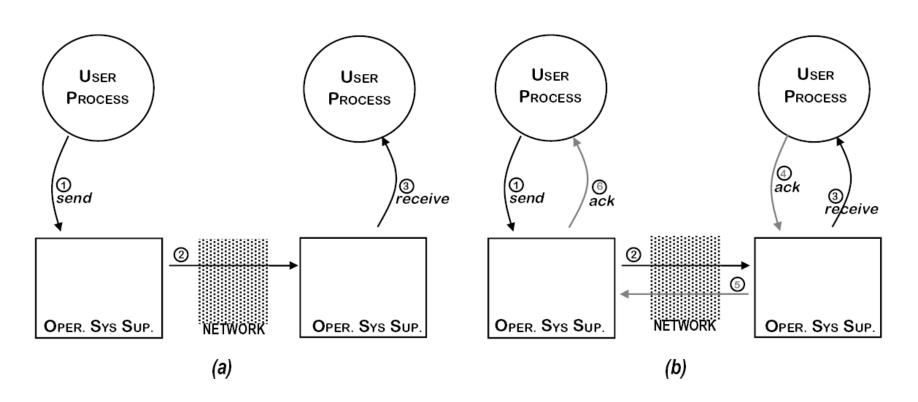


Figure 2.4. Message Passing Protocols: (a) Send-Receive; (b) Acknowledged-Send

Message passing



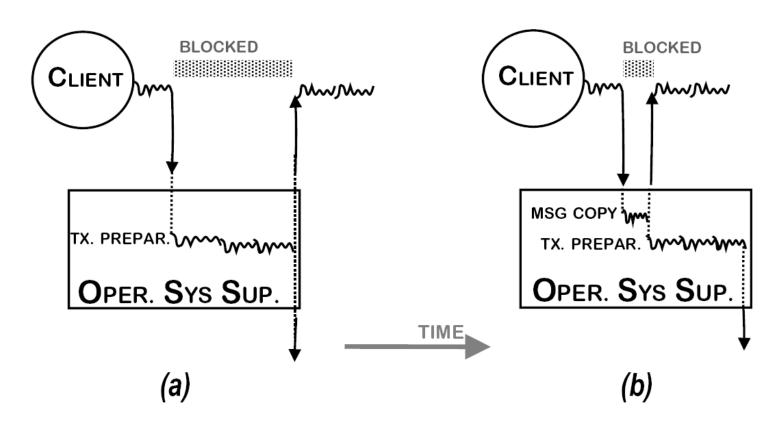


Figure 2.5. Message Send Blocking: (a) User Buffer; (b) Driver Buffer

Remote operations



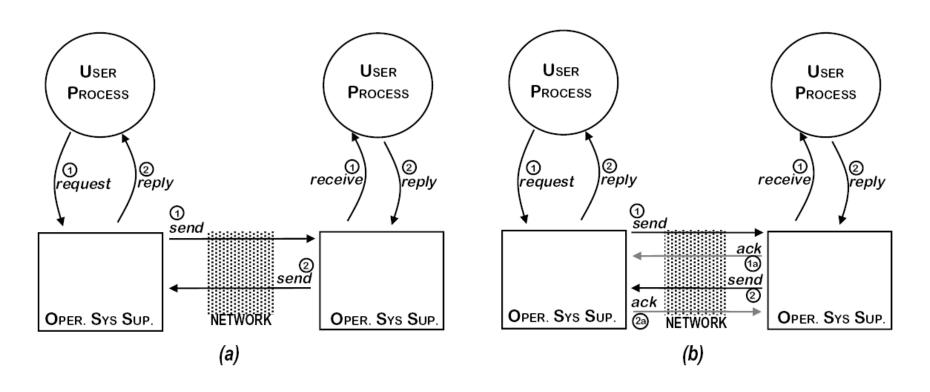


Figure 2.6. Remote Operation Protocols: (a) Plain Request-Reply; (b) Acknowledged

Remote operations



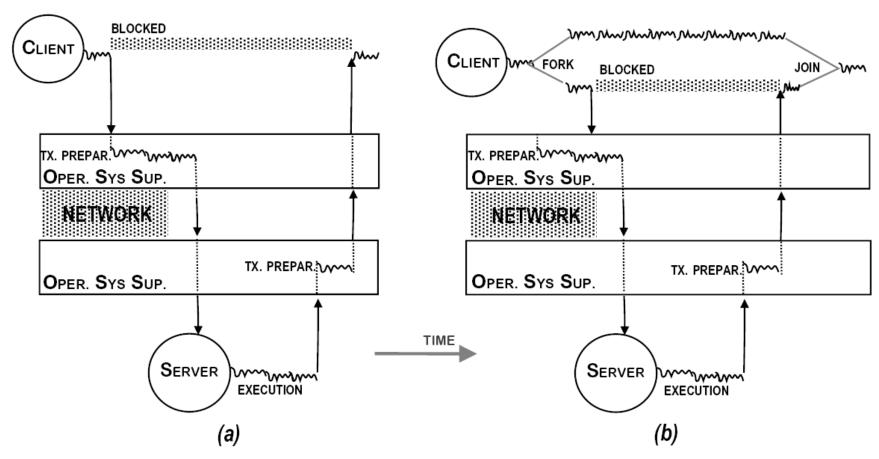


Figure 2.8. Remote Operation Interfaces: (a) Blocking; (b) Non-Blocking

Multicast



- Process groups
- Group communication service
- Group membership (views)
- Main components of a multicast protocol:
 - routing
 - omission tolerance
 - flow-control
 - ordering
 - failure recovery

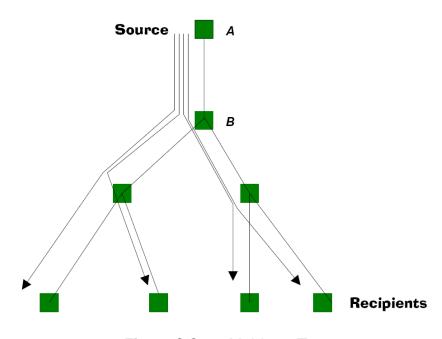


Figure 2.9. Multicast Tree



Advanced Distributed systems paradigms



Time and Clocks

Time and Clocks



- Common uses of clocks in distributed systems:
 - Trigger events
 - Register the time at which events occurred
 - Measure durations
- Examples:
 - File timestamping
 - Measuring benchmark program speed
- Artifact: support protocol implementation
 - Timers and clocks
 - Message ordering

Global Time Why?



- Trigger events
 - How do you synchronise distributed event triggering?
- Register the time at which events occurred
 - How do you correlate distributed registers?
- Measure durations
 - How do you measure what starts here and ends there?

- Global Clock:
 - Abstraction: a set of mutually synchronised local clocks

Absolute Time Why?



- Coordination of systems that do not communicate directly
- Bounding the error in lengthy duration measurement

Absolute global clock:

- Abstraction: a set of local clocks synchronised individually to a common reference, which besides should be universal
- E.g., UTC- Universal Time Coordinated; TAI- Temps Atomique Internacional

Time and clocks Properties of a Global Clock System



- Physical Granularity (g)
 - fundamental tick or pulse of hardware clock
- Virtual Granularity (gv)
 - tick of the virtual clock, multiple of g
- Convergence (δv)
 - measures how close virtual clocks are to each other immediately after the synchronization algorithm terminates
- Precision (∏v)
 - measures how closely virtual clocks remain synchronized to each other at any time
- Rate (ρv)
 - instantaneous rate of drift of virtual clocks
- Envelope Rate (ρa)
 - long-term, or average rate of drift
- Accuracy (αν)
 - measures how closely virtual clocks are synchronized to an absolute real time reference, provided externally

Clock synchronisation

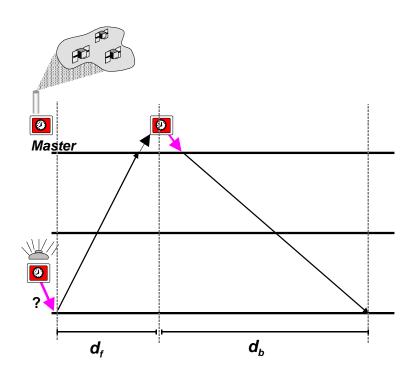


- Hardware clocks drift with time
 - Some (e.g. cesium or rubidium GPS clocks) are extremely stable
 - But PC and workstation HW clocks are bad (worse than 1ppm)
- So they have to be synchronised periodically
 - Clock synchronisation protocols
- Internal synchronisation:
 - Ensures precision
 - Normally clocks cooperatively readjust (agreement or convergence based)
- External synchronisation:
 - Ensures accuracy and precision ($\pi_v = 2 \alpha_v$)
 - normally clocks read from an external master (round-trip-based)

Clock synchronisation Master- or round-trip based



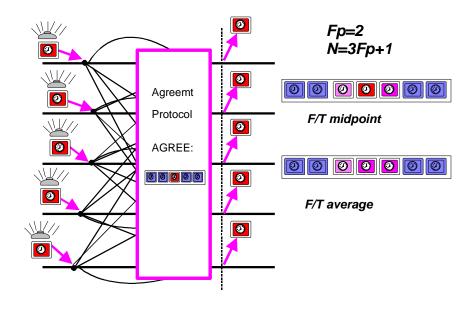
- External synchronization:
 - Based on round-trip measurement from central master clock
- Accuracy:
 - Assessed by measuring round-trip delay
 - Depends on delay symmetry
 - Best run when (df+db)/2 ≈ df ≈ db
- Precision:
 - Precision is twice worse than accuracy $(\pi_v = 2 \alpha_v)$



Clock synchronisation Agreement-based



- Agreement based:
 - Convergence based on F/T average or median
 - Clocks are Byzantine, to represent value faults
- Precision:
 - Precision depends on clock reading error
 - Processors compute common value to set clocks to
 - Time for agreement is in critical path of precision



Duration measurement errors

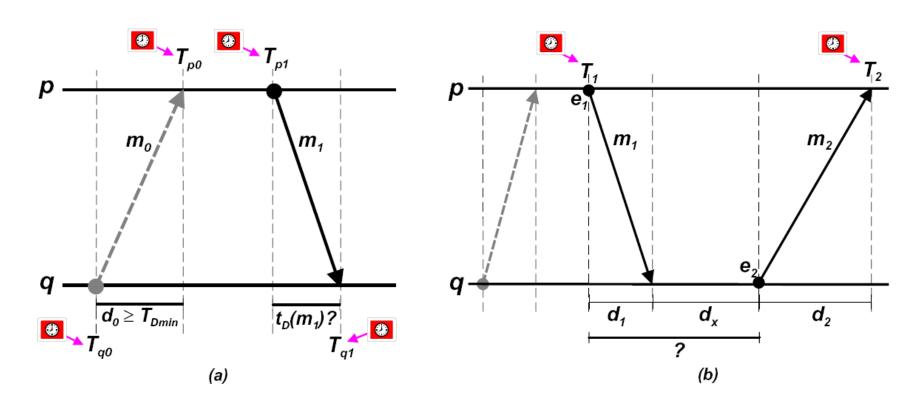


- Local duration measurement between a e b, using local timestamps (ignoring ρ)
 - Tb Ta = t(b) $t(a) \pm \varepsilon$, $0 \le \varepsilon \le g$
- Distributed duration measurement between a e
 b, using global timestamps (ignoring ρ)
 - Tb Ta = t(b) $t(a) \pm \varepsilon$, $0 \le \varepsilon \le \pi + g$
- Roundtrip duration measurement
 - Based on a message ping-pong, avoids using explicitly synchronised clocks, at the cost of a potentially higher error

Time and clocks

Round-trip Duration Measurement





(a) Message delay

(b) Distributed Duration

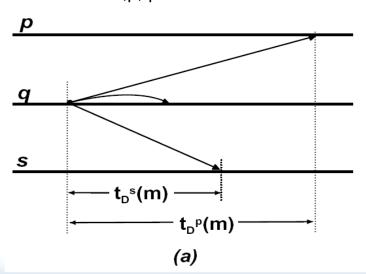


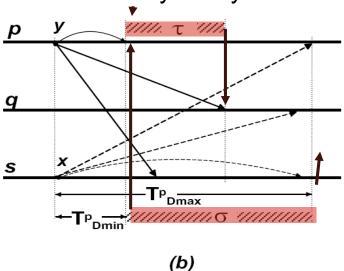
Synchronism

Synchronism



- Synchronism means (w.r.t. messages):
 - Known and bounded message delivery delay
- Synchronism metrics of quality:
- Steadiness (σ) [estabilidade]
 - $-\sigma = \max_{p} (T_{Dmax} T_{Dmin})$ (variance of delivery delay across execs)
- Tightness (τ) [rigidez]
 - $-\tau = \max_{m,p,q} (t_D^p(m) t_D^q(m))$ (variance of delivery delay in same exec)

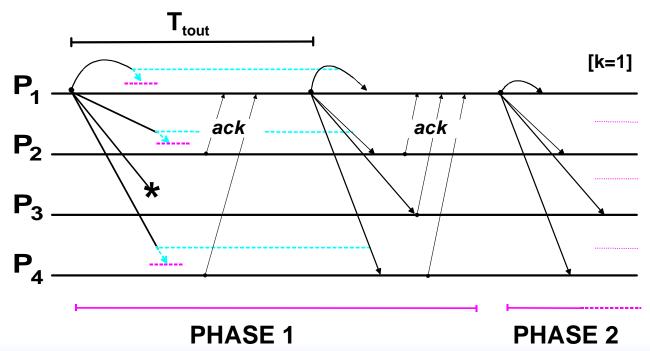




Degrees of steadiness and tightness



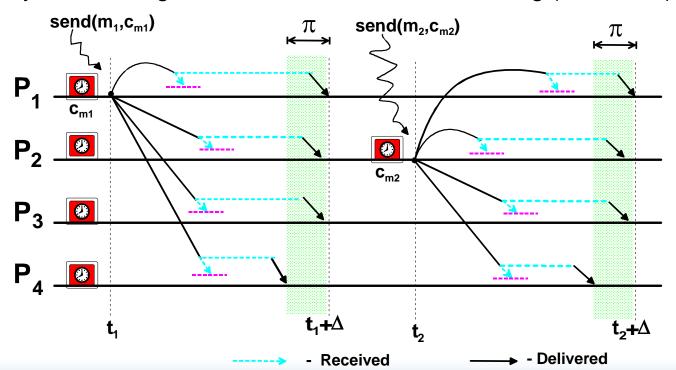
- Protocol with little steadiness and tightness
- Trade-off: tolerates omissions up to k (retransmits k+1 times)
- Consider δ_{\min} and δ_{\max} as min and max delivery time, resp., and $T_{tout} \ge 2\delta_{\max}$ the re-transmission timeout
- Then delivery delays are: T_{Dmax} ≤ (k+1)T_{tout} and T_{Dmin} ≥ δ_{min}



Degrees of steadiness and tightness



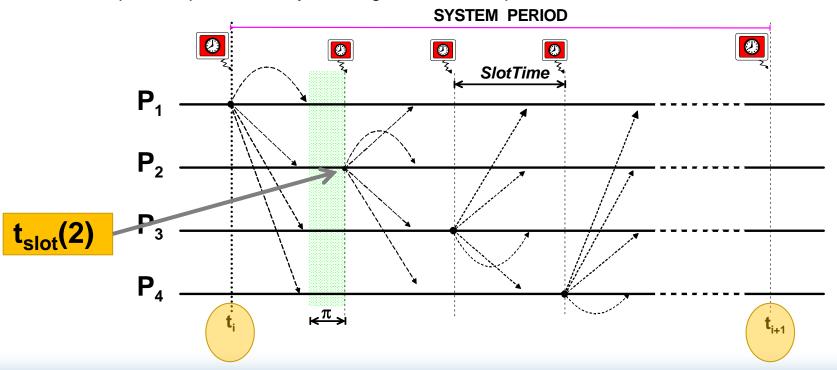
- Protocol with high steadiness and tightness, of the ∆ class
- Receives message and waits t_{send} + ∆ before delivering
 - Everywhere "at the same time" (tightness), with same delay Δ (steadiness)
 - Any two messages delivered in the order of sending (clock time)



Degrees of steadiness and tightness



- Protocol with high steadiness and tightness, of the TDMA class
- P_k waits for t_{slot}(k) before transmitting
 - Short broadcast medium enforces fair transmission tightness and steadiness
 - But delivery tightness and steadiness enforced by lattice periods i, i+1, ...
 - Any two messages delivered within a same period i are concurrent, message delivered in period i precedes any message delivered in period i+1



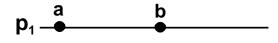


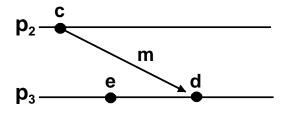
Ordering

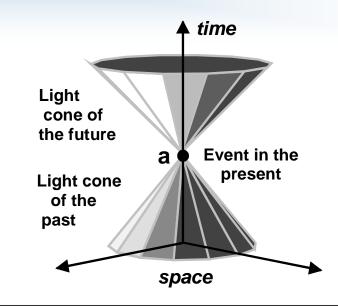
Causal Order



So, is
$$c \rightarrow e$$
?







Happened-before relation:

- $-a \rightarrow b$ iff:
- a before b locally
- a send and b reception of m

Cause-effect order:

- natural universe order
- A partial order:
 - depends of time-like and spacelike separation of events
 - relativistic effect due to speed difference between local and message events

Ordering



Causal Delivery

 For any two messages M1 and M2, sent by p and q, delivered to any correct processes,

if $send(M1) \rightarrow send(M2)$, then $deliver(M1) \rightarrow deliver(M2)$

- Example: clients compete over a server to schedule a trip, buy some stock, and communicate between them at the same time; only causal order reflects the inter-client relations on the server requests
- FIFO Delivery (first-in-first-out)
 - For any two messages M1 and M2, sent by p, delivered to any correct processes,
 - if $send(M1) \rightarrow send(M2)$, then $deliver(M1) \rightarrow deliver(M2)$
 - Example: this is a reduction of the general causal order to messages originated from only one sender (e.g. TCP ordering)

Causal Ordering implementations



- Logical implementations are usual (LC, VC)
 - A message m1 logically precedes (— $\mathcal{L}\rightarrow$) m2 iff: m1 is sent before m2 by the same participant or m1 is delivered to the sender of m2 before it sends m2 or there exists m3 s.t. m1 $\mathcal{L}\rightarrow$ m3 and m3 $\mathcal{L}\rightarrow$ m2
- Why does logical order work?
 - if participants only exchange information by sending and receiving messages through a given protocol, causality is developed only through those messages

Is logical ordering always faithful? NO!

Causal Ordering implementations



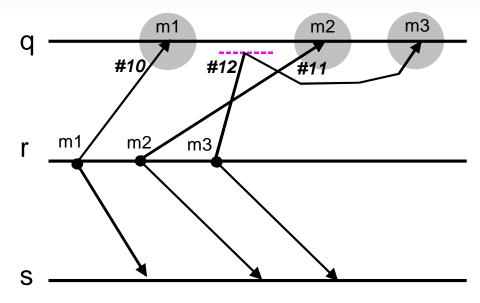
When not?

- When there are interactions outside the ordering protocol, logical ordering yields ordering anomalies
- Temporal ordering
 - A message m1 is said to temporally precede message m2 iff: m1 and m2 are sent by the same or any two participants, respectively at real times t1 and t2, and (t2 t1) > δ_t , $\delta_t \ge 0$
- Notes:
 - We call it δt -precedence (m1 $-\delta_t$ \rightarrow m2)
 - A temporal ordering can also yield a total ordering very easily

Operations in FIFO order

The most intuitive ordering

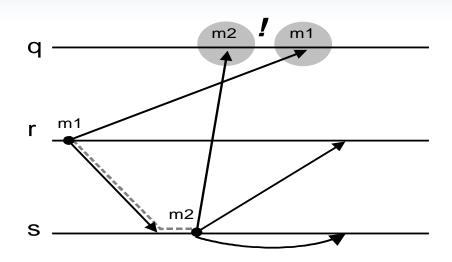




- r is solving a problem by executing 3 modules in sequence
- He disseminates intermediate results (m1, m2, m3) to s and q, who
 perform the second phase, which depends on the sequence order
- q got m1 with #10 and then m3 with #12, he knows m2 with #11 is missing and delays delivery of m3 until m2 arrives and only then it delivers messages m2 and m3 in that sequence
- NB: in complex protocols, reception often different from delivery

When FIFO order is insufficient

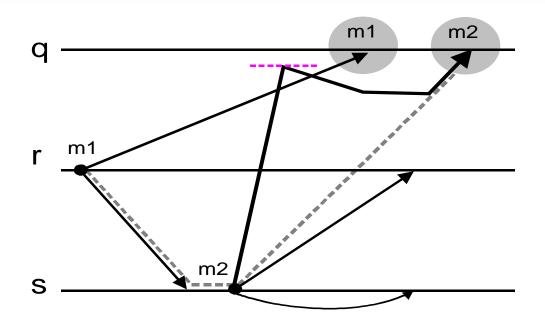




- Problem was complex, so r breaks his job in steps, asking s to perform step
 2 after he does step 1, which he signals with m1
- s executes step 2 when m1 arrives, after which it send m2
- Problem: m1 got delayed, it will be delivered to q after m2
- Since q waits for messages in the order they were issued to perform the second phase, the application fails
- What went wrong is that FIFO protocol does not capture m1 → m2 causal relation and order inversion takes place
- Cannot be used if competing senders also exchange messages

Solution: causal order

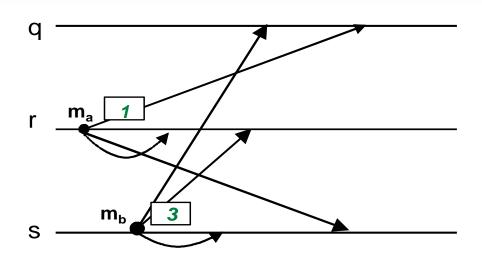




- FIFO is expanded to causal and encompasses all nodes:
 m1 → m2 is now recognised
- m1 is delayed to q, but q delays delivery of m2, to fulfil causal delivery

Operations in causal order

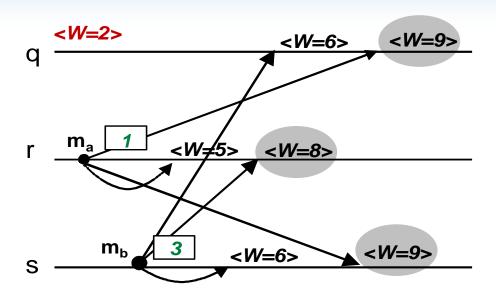




- r leads a team work performing some computations
- Result is accumulated in variable W, update function compares W previous state to new result, takes greatest and adds 3
- Errors in previous works make r request all steps done in parallel by r, q and s, and results disseminated to all, to compare results and replicate W. Any one finishing a step posts result to all including himself, in causal order
- If everybody is doing the same steps, it is expected for W to be the same everywhere

When causal order is insufficient





- Initially W=2, and r and s disseminate their results concurrently
- So, causal order protocol does not order them:
 - m_a = <1> is received first at r, max(2,1)=2, so W=2+3=5
 - Then $m_b = <3>$ is received, max(5,3)=5, so W=5+3=8
 - $m_b = \langle 3 \rangle$ is received first at q, max(2,3)=3, so W=3+3=6
 - Then $m_b = <3>$ is received, max(6,3)=6, so W=6+3=9
- This violates replicated computation correctness and subsequent steps depending on the value of W will not be consistent

Total ordering implementations

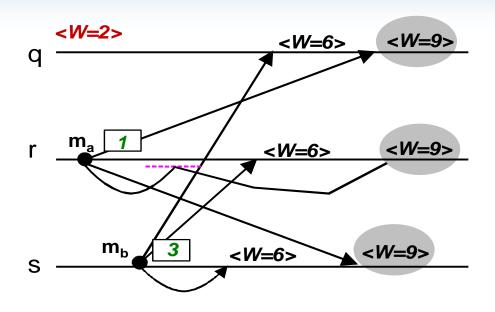


Total ordering

- Any two messages delivered to any pair of participants are delivered in the same order to both participants
- Example: sending operation or update requests to replicas of a server, so that they execute them in the same order and produce the same result and/or assume the same state

Solution: total order





- Previous problem is solved with total order
- Active replica management requires total order, be it causal or not
- In which cases can we do active replicas without total order?
 - Think....