

Lecture Notes

Distributed System

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Chapter 1

Verteilte Systeme/Distributed Systems

1.1 Orga

VL Di 10-12 (nicht am 23.04.)
Ue Do 10-12

1.1.1 Elektisches

- (kvv)
- Website AG
- Sakai

1.1.2 Übungen

- ca. 5 Übungsblätter, 14-tägig
- Vorträge in Gruppen über „verteilte Systeme“

1.1.3 Material/Inhalt

1. Hälfte Distributed Systems (Tanenbaum, van Steen)
 - Architektur
 - Prozesse
 - Kommunikation
 - Namen
 - Synchronisation
 - Konsistenz
 - Replikation
 - Fehlertoleranz
2. Hälfte Distributed Algorithms (Nancy Lynch)
 - synchronous network algorithms
 - network models (leader election, shortest path, distributed consensus, byzantine agreement)

- asynchronous network algorithms (shared memory, mutual exclusion, resource allocation, consensus)
- timing
- network resource allocation
- failure detectors

Chapter 2

Distributed Systems

Def: A distributed System is a collection of independent computers that appears to it's users as a single coherent system.

Characteristics:

- autonomous components
- appears as single system
- communication is hidden
- organisation is hidden
(could be high-performance mainframe or sensor net)
- heterogenous system offers homogenous look/interface

Objectives:

- provide resources (printer, storage, computing)
 - share in a controlled, efficient way
 - grant access
- ⇒ connect users and resources

Transparency:

hide the fact that processes and resources are physically distributed.

Types of transparency:

access hide differences in representation and how a resource is accessed

location

migration move ressources

relocation move ressources while using

replication

concurrency

failure

transparency is desirable, but not always perfectly possible

tradeoff between transparency and complexity, maintainability and performance

Open System

- service interfaces specified using Interface Definition Language (IDL)
- service specification as text

Scalability is an important property

- scalable in size (number of nodes)

- scalable in geographic spread
- scalable in administration

Problems

- centralized services
- centralized data
- centralized algorithms

Scaling techniques

- use only asynchronous communication
- distribution, split components
- replication of components

pitfalls

1. reliable network
2. secure network
3. homogenous network
4. constant topology
5. zero latency
6. infinite bandwidth
7. zero transport cost
8. one administrator!

Types of distributed systems

- computing systems
 - cluster computing

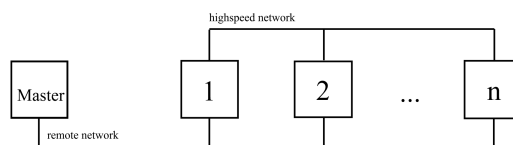


Figure 2.1: cluster computing

- grid computing(virtual organisation, geographically distributed and heterogenous))
- distributed information systems
 - transaction processing systems (database)
 - ACID (atomicity, consistency, isolated, durable)
 - enterprise systems
- Distributed pervasive systems
 - small, wireless, adhoc, no administration
 - home automation, health systems, sensor networks

Why do we need distributed systems?

- performance
- distribution inherent
- reliability
- incremental growth (scalability)
- sharing resources

Chapter 3

Architectures of distributed Systems

- how to split software into components
⇒ Softwarearchitecture
 - how to build a system out of the components
⇒ Systemarchitecture
- Middleware can help to create distribution transparency

Architecturestyles:

- Layered architecture
⇒ network stack, messages or data flow up and down
 - control flow between layers
 - requests down
 - reply up
- Object-based architectures
 - interaction between components
 - e.g. remote procedure calls
 - can be client-server system
- data-centered architectures
 - data is key element
 - communication over data, distributed database
 - web-systems mostly data-centric
- event-based architecture
 - publish-subscribe systems
 - processes communicates through events
 - publisher announces events at broker
 - ⇒ loose coupling (publisher and subscriber need not to know each other), decoupled in space
 - ⇒ scalability better than client-server, parallel processing, caching

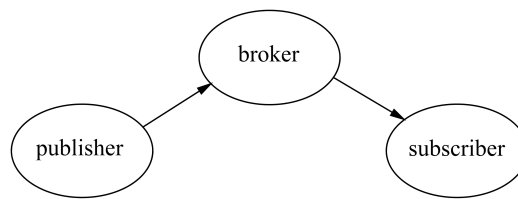


Figure 3.1: publish subscribe system

Event-based and data-based can be combined
 ⇒ shared Data space

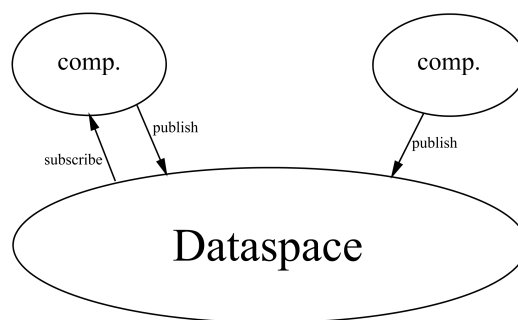


Figure 3.2: shared data space

3.1 System architectures

1. centralized architectures
 - client - server

- (i) single point of failure
- (ii) performance (server is bottleneck)

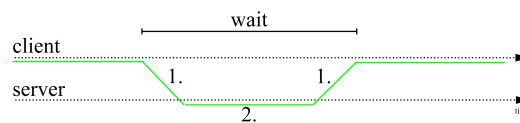


Figure 3.3: client server simple waiting situation

- (a) communication problems
- (b) server problems

can request be repeated without harm?

⇒ request is idempotent

(iii) application layering

Layers:

- 1.) User interface
- 2.) processing
- 3.) data level

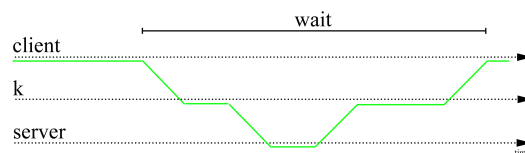


Figure 3.4: application layer

⇒ a lot of waiting

⇒ does not scale

2. Decentralized architectures

- vertical distribution (layering)
different logic on different machines
- horizontal distribution
replicated client/server operating on different data
⇒ overlay-underlay hides physical structure by adding logical structure

Structured P2P architectures

- most popular technique is distributed hashtables (DHT)
- randomly 128 bit or 160 bit ke for data and nodes. Two or more keys are very unlikely
- Chord system arranges items in a ring
 - data item k is assigned to node with smallest identifier $id \geq k$

ie item 1 belongs to node 1

item 2 belongs to node 2

for each item k_i $\text{succ}(k)=id$

returns the name of the node k is assigned to

to find data item k the function $\text{LOOKUP}(k)$ returns the adress of $\text{succ}(k)$ in $O(\log(N))$ (later!)

membership management

join:

create SHA1 identifier

$\text{LOOKUP}(id) = \text{succ}(id)$

contact $\text{succ}(id)$ and $\text{pred}(id)$ to join ring

leave:

node id informs $\text{succ}(id)$ and $\text{pred}(id)$ and assigns it's data to $\text{succ}(id)$

Content adressable network (CAN)

- d-dimensional cartesian space
- every node draws random number
- space is divided among nodes
- every data draws identifier (coordinates) which assigns a node
- join
 - select random point
 - half the square in which id falls
 - assign item to centers
- leave
 - one node takes the rectangle

⇒ reassign rectangles periodically

Unstructured P2P Network

- random graph
 - each node maintains a list of c neighbours
 - partial view or neighbourhood list with age
 - nodes exchange neighbour information
- active thread
select peer

PUSH

select $c/2$ youngest entries+myself
send to peer

PULL

receive peer buffer
construct new partial view
increment age

passive thread
recieve buffer from peer

PULL:

select $c/2$
send to peer
construct new partial view increment age

Chapter 4

PeerSim

Chapter 5

Processes

processes

- execution of program
- processor creates virtual processor
- for each program everything is stored in process table
- transparent sharing of resources,(processor, memory) separation
- each virtual processor has it's own independent adress space
- process switch is expensive, (save cpu context, pointers, translation lookaside buffer (TLB), memory management unit (MMU))
- perhaps even swaps to disk, if memory exhausted

2 possible solutions:

1. scheduler activation, upcall to achieve process switch
2. light-weight processes (LWP)
user level thread package

threads

- several threads share CPU
- thread context has little memory information, perhaps mutex lock
- threads avoid blocking application (e.g. spreadsheet, computation of dependent cells, intermediate backup)
- thread switch is fast
- user level threads allow parallel computation of program sections
- I/O or other blocking system calls block all threads, but thread creation/deletion is kernel task = expensive
- advantages of threads over processes vanishes

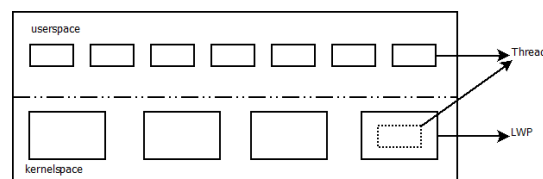


Figure 5.1: light-weight processes can run threads

execute scheduler and run thread of parent
may block on systemcall, then other LWP may run
triggered from userspace

Advantages of LWP and user-level thread package:

1. creation, deletion etc is easy, no kernel intervention
2. blocking syscall does not suspend process if enough LWPs are available
3. applications do not see LWP. They only see user-level threads
4. LWP can run on different processors in multiprocessor systems

Disadvantages:

1. LWP creation as expensive as creation of kernel-level thread

Advantages:

- a blocking syscall blocks only thread, not process \Rightarrow system call for communication in distributed systems

Multiple threads in clients and servers

Clients:

- multiple thread may hide communication delay (distribution transparency)
- web browser opens several connections to load parts of a document/page
- web server may be replicated in same or different location
 \Rightarrow truly parallel access to items and parallel download

Servers:

- single threaded, e.g. file server
thread serves incoming request, waits for disk, returns file
serves next
- multithreaded
dispatcher thread receives request
hands over to worker thread
waits for disk etc.
dispatcher takes next request
- finite state machine
only one thread
examines request, either read from . . . or from disk
during wait stores requests in table
serves next request
manage control either new request or reply from disk
act accordingly
process acts as finite state machine that receives messages and acts/changes state

Summary:

| model | characteristics |
|----------------------|------------------------------------|
| single thread | no parallelism, blocking syscalls |
| multi thread | parallelism, blocking syscalls |
| finite state machine | parallelism, non-blocking syscalls |

5.1 Virtualisation

V pretends there are more resources than available.



Figure 5.2: virtualisation

Reasons for the need for Virtualization

-hardware changes much faster then SW

⇒ improves portability

-networks consist of different hardware

⇒ enables portability of programs for all usage (distributed applications, network protocols)

2 Types of Architectures for Virtualisation:

1. Runtime system providing instruction set

Virtualization of processes (e.g. Wine)

- interpreted as Java
- emulated as for Windows applications on UNIX-platform processes VM

2. Virtualisation shields hardware and offers instruction set of the same or other hardware

- can host different OS that run simultaneously

⇒ VMM such as VMware, Xen

5.2 Client-/Serverprocesses

Clients:

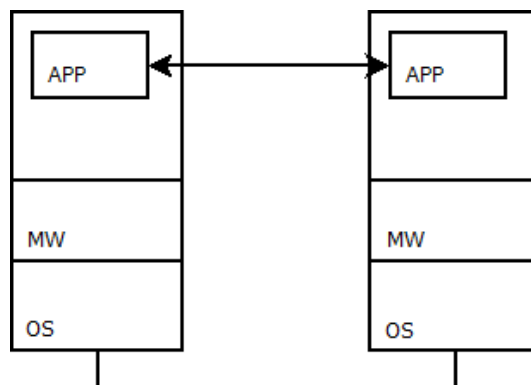


Figure 5.3: app specific communication

- b) allows to store data at the server
- **thin client** e.g. X-windows
- thin client should separate application logic from user interaction

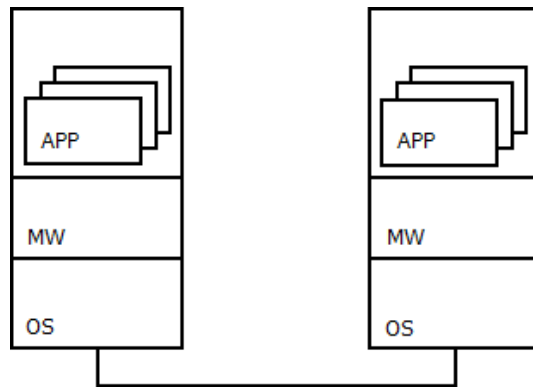


Figure 5.4: machine only communication

- often not implemented \Rightarrow poor performance
- compression of interaction commands as solution
- compound documents where user interaction triggers several processing steps on the server. must be implemented (e.g. rotation of picture changes placement in texts)

Servers:

- serves requests on behalf of the client (can server one request at a time)
- Types of servers
 - **iterative Server** handles requests itself
 - **concurrent server** passes requests to worker, e.g. multithreaded server
- server listens to port, endpoint to the client; some ports are reserved for special services

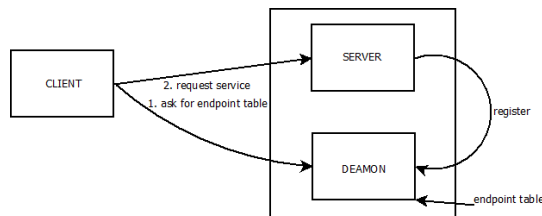


Figure 5.5: listener server

- superserver listens to several ports, replacing several (mostly idle) servers

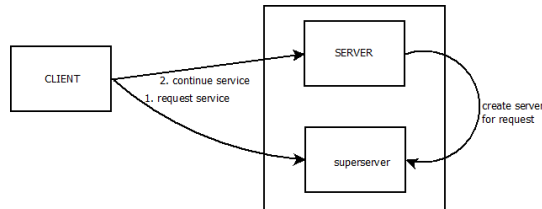


Figure 5.6: superserver

- stateless servers, keep no information on state of client → change state without informing the client, e.g. web server



Figure 5.7: stateless server

- soft state server, maintains client state for limited time, e.g. servers informing about updates
- stateful server keeps information about client (file server keeps (client, file) table), often better performance, fault-tolerance poorer
- cookies allow to share information for server upon next visit client sends it's cookies, allows state information for stateless server

Distributed Servers



Figure 5.8: distributed server

- servers in different locations that have different ip-addresses in DNS under the same name
- MIPv6: mobility support for IPv6
- mobile node has home network with stable home address (HoA)
- special router is home agent and takes care of traffic to the mobile node
- mobile node receives care-of-address (CoA), never seen by client
- route optimisation avoids routing through home agent

5.3 Code Migration

- Code migration on (running) process - Why?
- service placement in distributed system ⇒ minimize communication cost

- load balancing in multiprocessor machine or cluster \Rightarrow performance
- (security)

Models of Migration

- or process model
 1. code segment, instructions
 2. resource segment, references to external resources, i.e. file, printer, devices
 3. execution segment, execution state process, stack, private data, program counter
- **Migration types**
 - weak mobility, transfer code, (1), make 3)), which executes from beginning (i.e. java applets)
 - strong mobility, transfer 1)3), stop executions, transfer, resume

Migrating resource segment 2) is difficult

Consider process to resource binding

1. binding by identifier, URL, ftp-server-name
2. binding by value, libraries for programming
3. binding by type, local device, monitor

Resource-machine-binding

1. unattached
2. fastend
3. fixed

| pass tp resource binding | unattached | fastened | fixed |
|--------------------------|------------|--------------|-----------|
| by identifier | MV | GR(or MV) | GR |
| by value | CP | GR(or CP) | GR |
| by type | RB | RB(or GR,CP) | RB(or GR) |

MV:move, GR, global ref-

erence, CP: copy value, RB: rebind to locally available resource

Chapter 6

Communication

- Communication in distributed systems is always based on low-level message passing as offered by the underlying network
- message passing is harder than using primitives based on shared memory, as in nondistributed systems
- low-level communication facilities of computer networks are in many ways not suitable due to their lack of distribution transparency.

6.1 RPC - Remote Procedure Call

- allow programs to call procedures located on other machines
- When a process on machine A calls a procedure on machine B, the calling process on A is suspended, and execution of the called procedure takes place on B.
- Remote procedure call uses stubs to pack parameters in message
- client stub: packs the parameters into a message and requests that message to be sent to the server
- server stub: transforms requests coming in over the network into local procedure calls
- No message passing at all is visible to the programmer
- neither client nor server need to be aware of the intermediate steps or the existence of the network

A remote procedure call occurs in the following steps:

1. The client procedure calls the client stub in the normal way.
2. The client stub builds a message and calls the local operating system.
3. The client's as sends the message to the remote as.
4. The remote as gives the message to the server stub.
5. The server stub unpacks the parameters and calls the server.
6. The server does the work and returns the result to the stub.
7. The server stub packs it in a message and calls its local as.

8. The server's as sends the message to the client's as.
9. The client's as gives the message to the client stub.
10. The stub unpacks the result and returns to the client.

Parameter Marshaling

parameter marshaling: packing parameters into a message is called

Passing Value Parameters

- values are packed into messages (client) and unpacked from messages (server)
- transferred byte-by-byte
- as long as the client and server machines are identical this model works fine
- in a large distributed system, it is common that multiple machine types are present
- ⇒ problems because of different character encoding (EBCDIC vs ASCII), representation of integers (one's complement vs two's complement) or endianness (little endian vs. big endian)

Passing Reference Parameters

- extremely difficult
- pointers are meaningful only within the address space of the process in which it is being used
- replace with copy/restore: copy the datastructure, send it to the server, work on it, send it back, restore at the client

6.2 Asynchronous RPC

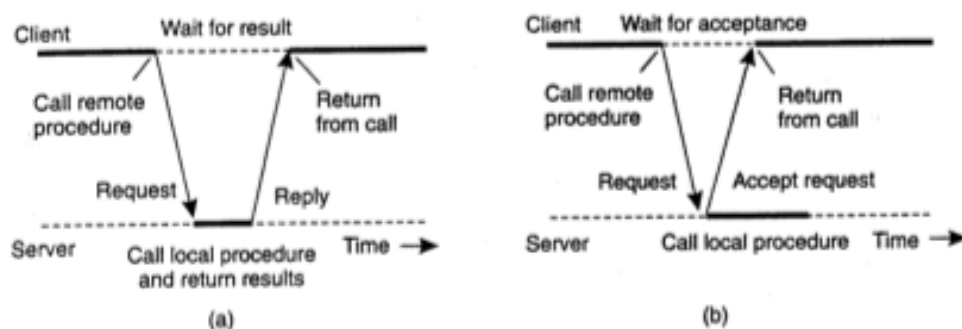


Figure 6.1: a: synchronous b: asynchronous RPC

- in conventional procedure calls, when a client calls a remote procedure, the client will block until a reply is returned
- asynchronous RPCs: the server immediately sends a reply back to the client the moment the RPC request is received. Reply acts as an acknowledgment.
- client will continue without further blocking as soon as it has received the server's acknowledgment

- Examples: transferring money from one account to another, adding entries into a database, starting remote services, batch processing...
- Asynchronous RPCs can also be useful when a reply will be returned but the client doesn't need to wait for it and can do nothing in the meantime
- One-Way RPCs: the client does not wait for an acknowledgment from the server
- deferred synchronous RPC: organize the communication between the client and server through two asynchronous RPCs
- foo

6.3 Message oriented communication

General Idea: avoid synchronous communication which blocks sender (RPC)

6.3.1 Message-Oriented Transient Communication

transient: flüchtig, vorübergehend

Berkeley Sockets

A socket is a communication end point to which an application can write data that are to be sent out over the underlying network, and from which incoming data can be read. A socket forms an abstraction over the actual communication end point that is used by the local operating system for a specific transport protocol.

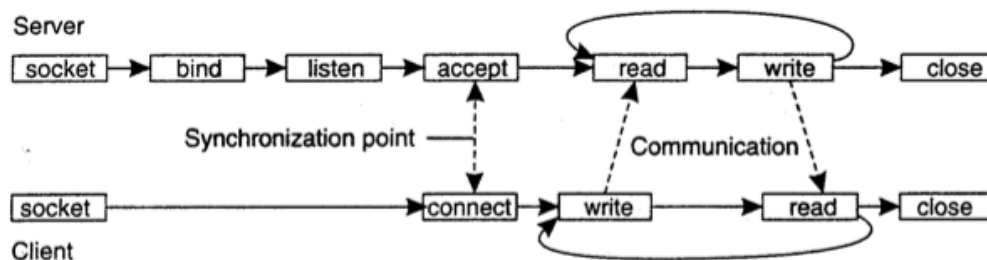


Figure 6.2: Connection-oriented communication pattern using sockets

- socket: create a new communication end point
- bind: attach a local address to a socket
- listen: announce willingness to accept connections
- accept: block caller until a connection request arrives
- connect: actively attempt to establish a connection
- send: send some data over the connection
- receive: receive some data over the connection
- close: release the connection

Message-passing-interface (MPI)

- standard for message passing

- designed for parallel applications
- communication within groups of processes
- A (*groupID, processID*) pair uniquely identifies the source or destination of a message (used instead of a transport-level address)

6.3.2 Message-Oriented Persistent Communication

aka Message-queuing-system, Message-oriented-middleware (MoM)



Figure 4-20. The general organization of a message-queuing system with routers.

Figure 6.3: general organization of a message-queuing system with routers

- asynchronous persistent communication
- offer intermediate-term storage capacity for messages, without requiring either the sender or receiver to be active during message transmission
- transfer may take minutes, not milliseconds
- applications communicate by inserting messages into queues
- messages are only put into and read from local queues
- the message-queuing system takes care that messages are transferred from their source to their destination queue
- message carries destination address
- queue managers
 - a queue manager interacts directly with the application that is sending or receiving a message

- also special queue managers that operate as routers, or relays: they forward incoming messages to other queue managers
- message brokers transform type A into type B, using a set of rules
 - application-level gateway in a message-queuing system
 - convert incoming messages so that they can be understood by the destination application
 - transform messages of type A into type B, using a set of rules
- Examples: Email, workflow, batch processing, queries accross several databases

6.4 stream oriented communication

- temporal relationship between items important
- multimedia data is compressed
- QoS is important
 - bit rate
 - max delay for session setup
 - max end-to-end delay
 - max delay variance (jitter)
 - max round trip delay
- networking solution such as differentiated services
- synchronisation of streams

6.5 Multicast communication

- application level multicast uses overlay
- tree, unique path between each pair of nodes
- mesh, more robust, fault-tolerant

Example: Construct overlay tree for chord

- node that wants to start multicast generates key 128bit/160bit (nid) randomly
- lookup of succ(nid) finds node responsible for key mid
⇒ succ(nid) becomes root of tree
- join: lookup (nid) creates lookup message with join request routed from P to succ(nid)
- request is forwarded Q (first time forward), Q becomes forwarder
⇒ P child of Q
- request is first time forwarded by R, R becomes forwarder
⇒ Q becomes child of R
- multicast: lookup(nid) sends message to the root
multicast from root

Efficiency?

Quality of application level tree

1. Link stress, number of traversals of same link per packet
2. stretch, relative delay penalty (RDP)

$$\frac{\text{transmission time in overlay}}{\text{transmission time in delay/network}} \Rightarrow \text{minimize aggregated stretch, average RDP over all note pairs}$$
3. tree cost, minimize aggregated link cost, link cost = cost between end points
 ⇒ find minimal spanning tree

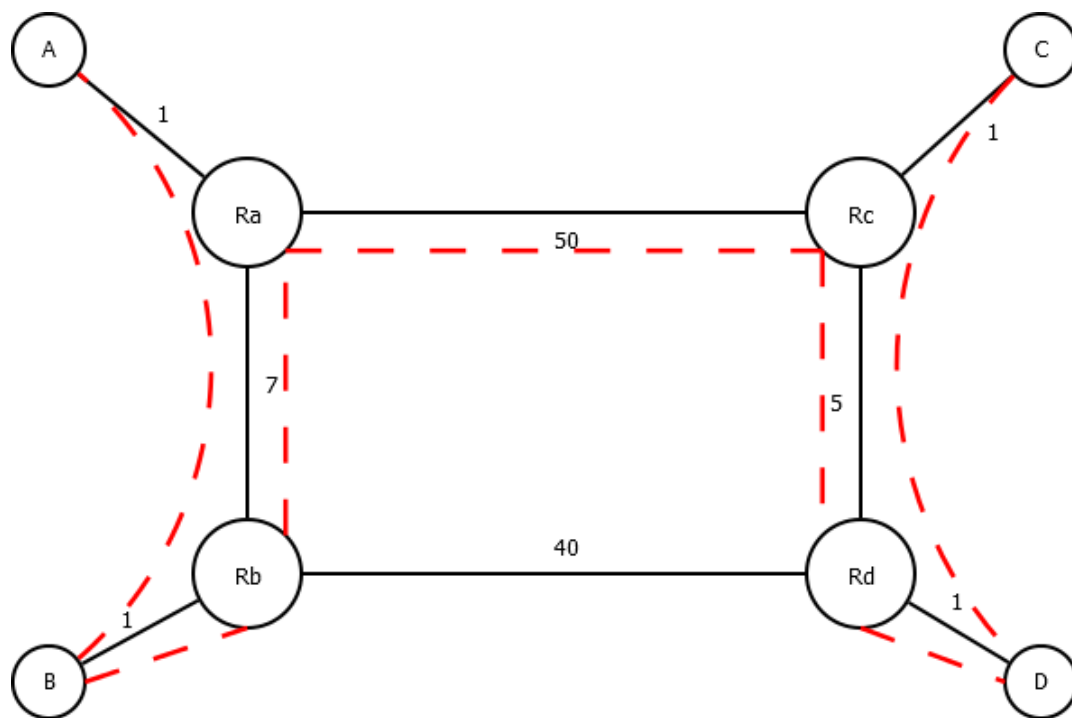


Figure 6.4: example of a overlay network

6.6 Gossip-based-communication

- epidemic behaviour
- a node does not have new data (susceptible), it has the data (infected) or is unwilling to spread (removed)
Anti-entropy-model
P chooses randomly Q
 1. P pushes its data to Q
 2. P pulls Q's data
 3. P and Q exchange data
- if many nodes are infected probability for selecting susceptible node is low
⇒ low probability of data dissemination
- pull works when many nodes are infected. Susceptible node determines spread. They have a high probability to contact infected nodes
- if only one node is infected push/pull is best
- Round is period in which each node at least once selects a neighbor
number of rounds needed to spread $\approx \mathcal{O}(\log(N))$, N is number of nodes

Rumor spreading, gossiping:

function of nodes that never obtain data: $s = e^{-(k+1)(1-s)}$

e.g. $k = 4$, $\ln(s) = 4,97$

$\Rightarrow s = 0,007$

less than 0,7 remain without data

removing data is difficult : delete message is send via gossiping

Chapter 7

Naming

7.1 Flat naming

7.1.1 Distributed Hash Tables

- m-bit identifier (128 or 160 Bit)
- entity with key k is under jurisdiction of node with smallest identifier $id \geq k$
 $\Rightarrow succ(k)$
- resolve key k to address of $succ(k)$
- option 1: each node p keeps $succ(p)$, $pred(p)$ node forwards request for key k to a neighbor if $pred(p) < k \leq p$, return(p)
 \Rightarrow not scalable
- better solution: each Chord node maintains finger table of length m

$$\forall 1 \leq i \leq m : FT[i] = succ(p + 2^{i-1}) \mod 2^m$$

$FT[i] = succ(p + 2^{i-1}) = succ(p + 1) = succ(2)$ (smallest id, such that $id \geq 2$)
 i -th entry points to 2^{i-1} ahead of p

- to lookup k node p forwards request to p with index j in p 's finger table:
 $q = FT_p[j] \leq k < FT_p[j+1]$
- example:
resolve $k = 26$ from node 1
 $k = 26 > FT_1[5] \Rightarrow$ forward request to node
 $18 = FT_1[5]$
 - node 18 selects node 20 $FT_{18}[2] \leq k < FT_{18}[3]$
 - node 20 selects node 21 $\Rightarrow 28$ which is responsible for key 26
 - lookup generally requires $O(\log(N))$ steps, N nodes in system
 - join/leave is rather simple
 - keeping finger table up to date is expensive
- example2:

| | |
|----|----|
| 30 | |
| 1 | 37 |
| 2 | 37 |
| 3 | 37 |
| 4 | 38 |
| 5 | 45 |
| 6 | 0 |

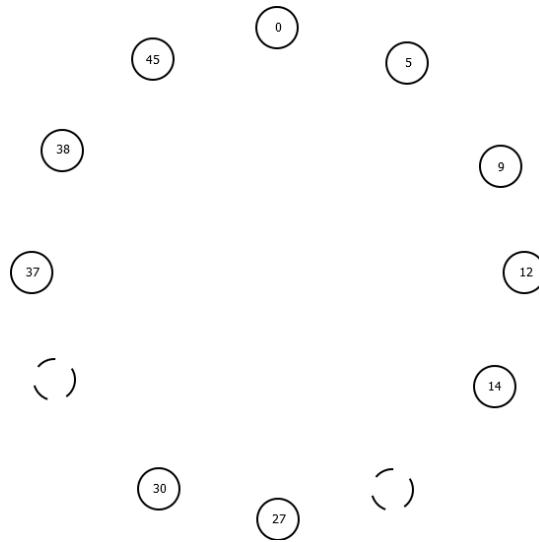


Figure 7.1: Ring

Superpeers: 2^k , therefore 2^{m-k} normal nodes.
Probability that a node is a supernode: $n \cdot \frac{2^k}{2^m} = 2^{k-m} \cdot n$, with m number of bits, k is number of bits that mark superpeers, n is number of nodes (not maximum possible but the actual number).
Number of superpeers to be expected: $E(x) = n \cdot p$

Chapter 8

Synchronisation

8.1 Clock synchronisation algorithms

System model: each machine has timer that causes H interrupts per second

- clock C adds up ticks (interrupts)
- $C_p(t)$ is clock time on machine p
- perfect clock: $\forall p, t : C_p(t) = t$
 $\iff C'_p(t) = \frac{dC_p(t)}{dt} = 1$
 $\hat{=}$ frequency of clock C_p at time t

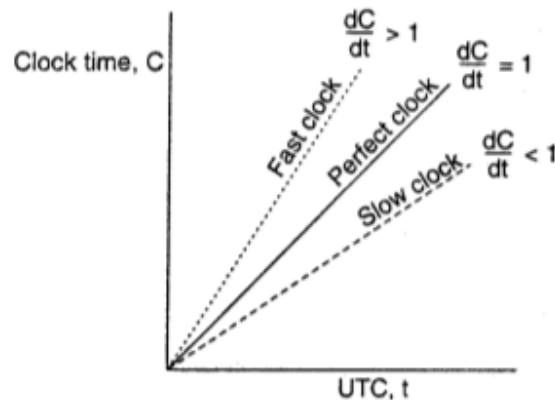


Figure 6-5. The relation between clock time and UTC when clocks tick at different rates.

Figure 8.1: fast, slow & perfect clock

- $C'_p(t) - 1 \hat{=}$ skew of p 's clock, difference to perfect clock.
- $C_p(t) - t \hat{=}$ offset
- real timers do not interrupt exactly H times per second
- maximum drift ρ is a constant guaranteed/specified by the vendor
 $1 - \rho \leq \frac{dC_p(t)}{dt} \leq 1 + \rho$

- at time Δt after two clocks were synchronized the drift can be max:
 $|C_2(\Delta t) - C_1(\Delta t)| \leq 2\rho\Delta t$
- if the difference should never exceed δ then synchronisation every $\frac{\delta}{2\rho}$ seconds is needed
- time always moves forward.

example: given values for C_1 and C_2 :

$$C_1 = \rho = 0.001$$

$$C_2 = \rho = 0.001$$

$$\frac{dC}{dt} = \frac{1}{2 \cdot 0.001} = \frac{1}{0.002} = \frac{1}{2} * 10^3$$

Clocks C_1 and C_2 need to be synchronized every 500s to keep time in the same second.

8.2 Network Time Protocol (NTP)

- nodes contact time server that has an accurate clock
- time server passive

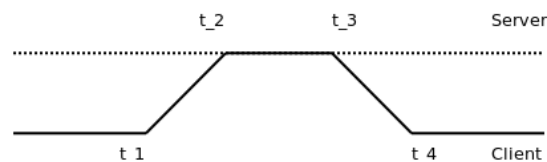


Figure 8.2: ntp

A estimates its offset to B as

$$\Theta = \frac{(T_2 - T_1) + (T_4 - T_3)}{2}$$

assuming communication time is symmetric

delay:

$$\delta = (T_4 - T_1) - (T_3 - T_2) = (T_2 - T_1) + (T_4 - T_3)$$

- A probes B, B probes A
- NTP stores 8 pairs (Θ, δ) per node pair using $\min(\delta)$ for smallest delay
- either A or B can be more stable
- reference node has stratum 1 (clock has stratum 0) (stratum = # Servers to a reference clock)
- lower stratum level is better, will be used.

8.3 Berkeley algorithm

- assumes no node has 'good' time
- time server polls all nodes for their time
- takes average and adjusts speed of nodes correspondingly
- all nodes agree on time, which may not be correct

8.4 Lamports Logical Clocks

- logical time need not correct in real time.
- needs 'happens before' relation $a \rightarrow b$

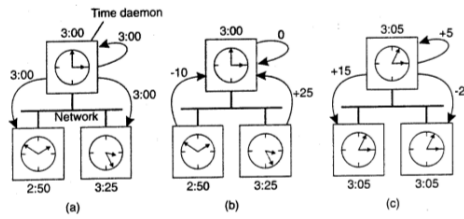


Figure 8.3: (a) The time daemon asks all the other machines for their clock values (b) The machines answer. (c) The time daemon tells everyone how to adjust their clock.

1. if a, b are events in the same process and a happens before b , then $a \rightarrow b$ is true
 2. if a denotes the event of sending a message and b the event of receiving this message by another process then $a \rightarrow b$ is true
- happens before is transitive:
 $a \rightarrow b \wedge b \rightarrow c \Rightarrow a \rightarrow c$
 - concurrency:
 if x, y happen in different processes and neither $x \rightarrow y$ nor $y \rightarrow x$, then x, y are concurrent (which means, it is not known who comes first)
 - \forall events a , we can assign it a time $C(a)$ on which all processes agree.
 - if $a \rightarrow b$ then $C(a) < C(b)$
 - 4 properties of logical time
 1. No two events get assigned the same time.
 2. Logical times of events in each process are strictly increasing
 3. logical time of send event is strictly smaller than receive event for the same message
 4. for any $t \in T$ only finitely many events get assigned logical times smaller than t .
 - Example:

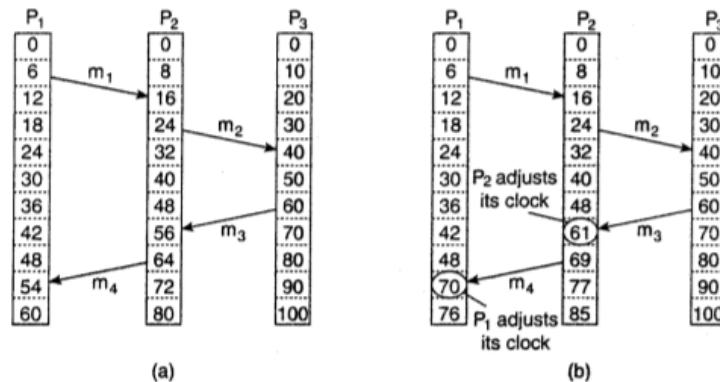


Figure 6-9. (a) Three processes, each with its own clock. The clocks run at different rates. (b) Lamport's algorithm corrects the clocks.

Figure 8.4: ...

Algorithm

C_i = local counter of process P_i

1. Before executing an event (sending a msg over the network, delivering a msg to an app, some internal events) P_i executes
 $C_i \leftarrow C_i + 1$
2. When process P_i sends message m to P_j it sets the timestamp $ts(m)$ of m to the current time
 $ts(m) \leftarrow C_i$.
3. upon receipt of a message m process P_j adjust its time to $C_j \leftarrow \max(C_j, ts(m))$, then executes step 1 and delivers message

Examples

- Consider a bank with two data centers A and B, that need to be kept consistent. Each request uses the nearest copy.
 Assume a customer has \$1000,- in his bank account and decides to add \$100,- using copy A. At the same time 1% interest is added to copy B. What happens? How can we solve the problem?
- Totally ordered multicast
 - every message is sent to all receivers+itself with timestamp
 - Assumption 1: messages from the same sender are received in the order they were sent, and that no messages are lost
 - Assumption 2: no two events get assigned the same time
 - When msg is received
 1. put it into a local priority queue ordered to the msg's timestamp
 2. multicast an acknowledgment to all other processes (following Lamport $\Rightarrow ts(msg) < ts(ack)$)
 - eventually all queues are identical \Rightarrow total order
 - Process delivers a queued msg to the app only when
 1. msg is at head of queue
 2. ack received by every process

8.5 Vector Clocks

- Lamport's logical clock causally order
- $T_{sent}(m_i) < T_{recv}(m_i)$ does $T_{recv}(m_i) < T_{sent}(m_j)$ tell something about m_i, m_j
 use Vector Clocks
- each process P maintains VC
 1. $VC_i[i]$ is I of events that occurred so far at P_i VC in the logical clock of P_i
 2. $VC_i[j] = k$, P_i stores k events at P_j .
 useful for causally ordered multicast

Chapter 9

Mutual Exclusion

Access to shared resources

2 types of algorithms: token-based and permission-based

- token is simple, reliability problem (lost token)
- permission difficult in distributed systems

9.1 Centralised algorithm

- one process is coordinator
- coordinator allows access only to one process
- fair, requests are processed in order of arrival
- no starvation
- easy to implement
- coordinator is single point of failure
- (handle message loss with ack)
- dead coordinator looks like permission denied

9.2 Decentralised algorithm

- Each resource is replicated n times, $rname_i$ is the name of the replica
- each replica has its own controller, the name is a hash of the $rname_i$
- if $rname$ is known, each process can generate the address of the controllers
- access to resource when $m > n/2$ controllers grant it
- Let p probability that a coordinator resets during Δt
 $P[k] = \text{prob}\{k \text{ out of } m \text{ coordinators reset during } \Delta t\} = \binom{m}{k} p^k (1-p)^{m-k}$
- at least $2m - n \geq n + 2 - n = 2$ coordinators need to reset in order to violate the voting. This happens with probability $\sum_{k=2m-n}^n P[k]$
e.g. $\Delta t = 10s, n = 32, m = 0.75n$
Probability of violation in 10^{-40}
- if a process gets less than m votes access to the resource is denied
- random backoff, retry
many requests, no one gets access

- heavy load \Rightarrow drop in utilisation

9.3 A distributed algorithm

- deterministic
- uses total ordering of events
- process that wants to access a resource sends out message containing (resource name, process no, current localtime) to all other processes and itself
- process receives a message. Either:
 1. returns OK, if does not want a resource
 2. queues request, if it has resource
 3. compares timestamps, sends OK if timestamp is smallest, queues request and sends no reply else
- grants mutual exclusion without deadlocks or starvation

Problems:

- note failure \Rightarrow dito
- load, all processes take part in decisions (needs $2(n-1)$ messages for n processes)
- algorithm is slower, more complicated, more expensive, less robust than centralised alg.
- not a good algorithm

9.4 Token Ring Algorithm

- processes form a logical ring
- token circulates
- owner of token can access resource
- simple and efficient
- not fair under heavy load

Problems:

- token loss
-

9.5 Comparison

| Algorithm | messages per entry/exit | Delay before access | Problems |
|---------------|-------------------------|---------------------|--------------------------------------|
| Centralised | 3 | 2 | coordinator crash |
| Decentralised | $3mk$ | $2m$ | starvation, low efficiency |
| Distributed | $2(n-1)$ | $2(n-1)$ | crash of any process |
| Token Ring | 1 to ∞ | 0 to ∞ | lost token, process crash, fairness? |

Chapter 10

Leader Election algorithms

10.1 leader election in a synchronnous ring

Network is a graph G consisting of n nodes connected by unidirectional links. Use $\text{mod } n$ for labels

- elected node is "leader"
- leader election is not possible for identical processes/nodes
- \rightarrow processes have unique id (UID)

10.1.1 LCR algorithm

(Le Lann, Chang, Roberts)

- unidirectional communication
- ring size unknown
- only leader produces output
- algorithm compares UID

```
1 For each node
2   a = a UID, initially i's UID
3   send = a UID or NULL, initially i's UID
4   status = {unknown, leader} initially unknown
5
6 message generation
7   send = current value of send to node i+1
8
9 state transitions
10  send = NULL
11  if incoming message is v (a UID) then
12    v > u: send v
13    v = u: status = leader
14    v < u: do nothing
```

Correctness

Let max index of process with $\max(UID)$ let u_{max} is its UID

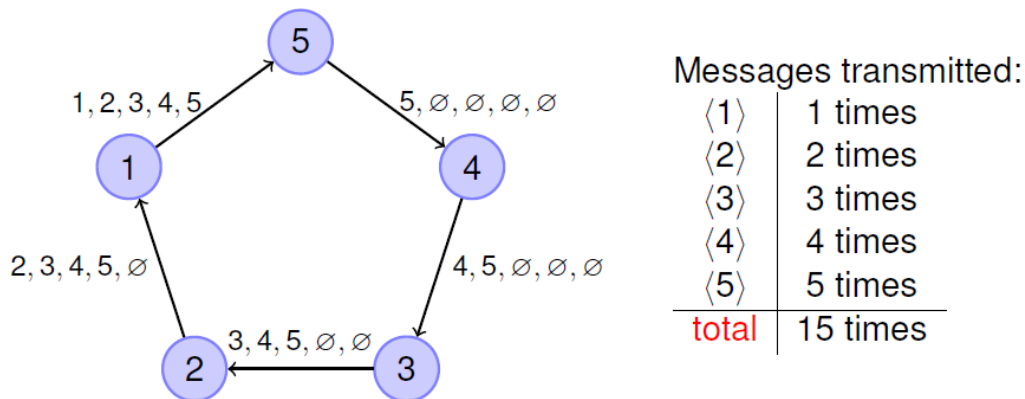


Figure 10.1: LCR algorithm

Show:

- (i) process \max outputs "leader" after n rounds
- (ii) no other process does the same

We clarify:

- (iii) After n rounds $\text{status}_{\max} = \text{leader}$ and

- (iv) For $0 \leq r \leq n-1$ after r rounds

$$\text{send}_{\max} = u_{\max}$$

find UID at distance r from i_{\max} as it has to go once around.

Show (iv) for all r : Induction
then (iii)

Complexity

- time complexity is n rounds
- communication complexity $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$
- not very expensive in time many messages

10.1.2 Algorithm of Hirschberg and Sinclair (HS-Alg)

- reduces number of messages to $\mathcal{O}(n \log n)$

- 1 each process has states with components
- 2 u , UID: initially i 's UID
- 3 $u \leftarrow \text{send} + u$ containing NULL or $(\text{UID}, \text{flag}\{\text{in}, \text{out}\}, \text{hopcount})$: initially u (i 's UID, out, 1)
- 4 $\text{send} \leftarrow \text{send} +$

```

5   status  $\in E\{\text{unknown}, \text{leader}\}$  initially unknown phase  $\in \mathbb{N}$ : initially 0
6
7   message generation
8   send current send+ to process i+1
9   send current send- to process i-1
10
11  state transitions
12  send+=NULL
13  send-=NULL
14  if message from (i-1) is (v, out, h) then
15     $v > u \wedge h > 1$ : send+ = (v, out, h-1)
16     $v > u \wedge h = 1$ : send- = (v, in, 1)
17    v=u status = leader
18  if message from i+1 is (v, out, h) then
19     $v > u \wedge h > 1$ : send- = (v, out, h-1)
20     $v > u \wedge h = 1$ : send+ = (v, in, 1)
21    v=u status=leader
22  if message from i-1 is (v, in, 1)  $\wedge v \neq u$  then
23    send+=(v, in, 1)
24  if message from i+1 is (v, in, 1)  $\wedge v \neq u$  then
25    send-=(v, in, 1)
26  if both messages from i-1 and i+1 are (u, in, 1) then
27    phase++
28    send+=(u, out,  $2^{\text{phase}}$ )
29    send-=(u, out,  $2^{\text{phase}}$ )

```

Complexity

Total number of phases is at most $1 + \lceil \log(n) \rceil$

the total number of messages is at most $(1 + \lceil \log(n) \rceil) \approx \mathcal{O}(n \log n)$

Total time complexity is at most $3n$ if n power of 2 other wise is $5n$

10.1.3 Time slice algorithm

- ring size n is known
- unidirectional
- elects minimum

```

1   phases with n rounds
2   in phase r consisting of rounds  $(v-1)n+1, \dots, vn$ 
3   only a token carrying UID v is permitted
4   if a process with UID v exists, then it elects itself leader and
    sends a token with it 'sUID

```

Complexity: number of messages is n , time complexity $n \cdot u_{\min}$

10.1.4 Variable speeds algorithm

- each process i creates a token to travel around the ring, carrying UID u of origin
- tokens travel at different speed

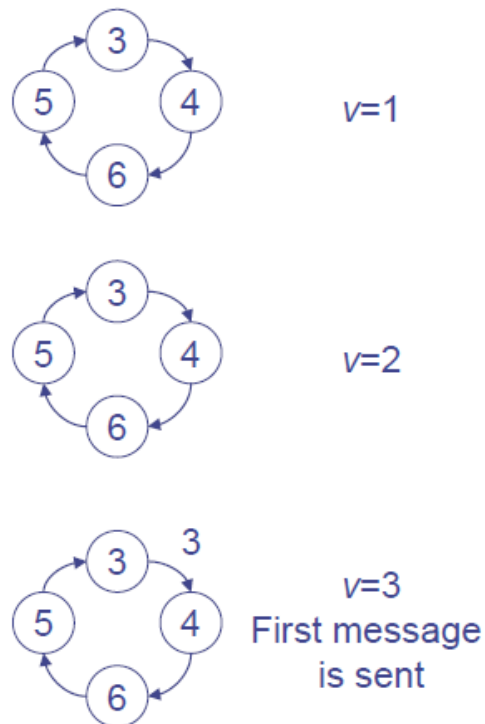


Figure 10.2: Timeslice algorithm

- token carrying UID v travels 1 messages every 2^v rounds
- each process memorises smallestUID
- return to origin elects UID

Complexity

...

How many messages in total? $\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{2^{k-1}} (< 2n)$

Time complexity: $n \cdot 2^{u_{min}}$

10.2 Leader election in a wireless environment

- consider time needed for communication
- every node can initiate an election
- the select is based on information like battery lifetime or processing power
- the nodes only participate in one election, also there are more than one initiating nodes

Process to choose a leader:

Look at figure 10.3

1. one node starts the election and sends ELECT to its neighbours
2. the node, which send the ELECT message becomes the parent of the node
3. the node sends the request to all neighbours except the parent node
4. the node acknowledges the parent after all the children acknowledged the election

5. if a node receives an ELECT message, but has already a parent, it acknowledges immediately
6. if a node has only neighbours, which are the parent or have other parents, the node becomes a leaf and sends back its value
7. the waiting nodes send the node id and the highest value of the childrens to the parent, after all acknowledged
8. in the end, the initiating node knows the node with the highest value and broadcast to all nodes, that this is the leader

10.3 The Bully Algorithm(flooding) (Garcia-Molina, 1982)

- process P holds election
 1. P sends ELECT message to all processes
 2. P wins if there is no response \Rightarrow P is leader and sends COORDINATOR message to all available nodes.
 3. if Q answers with OK, Q takes over and sends ELECT again.

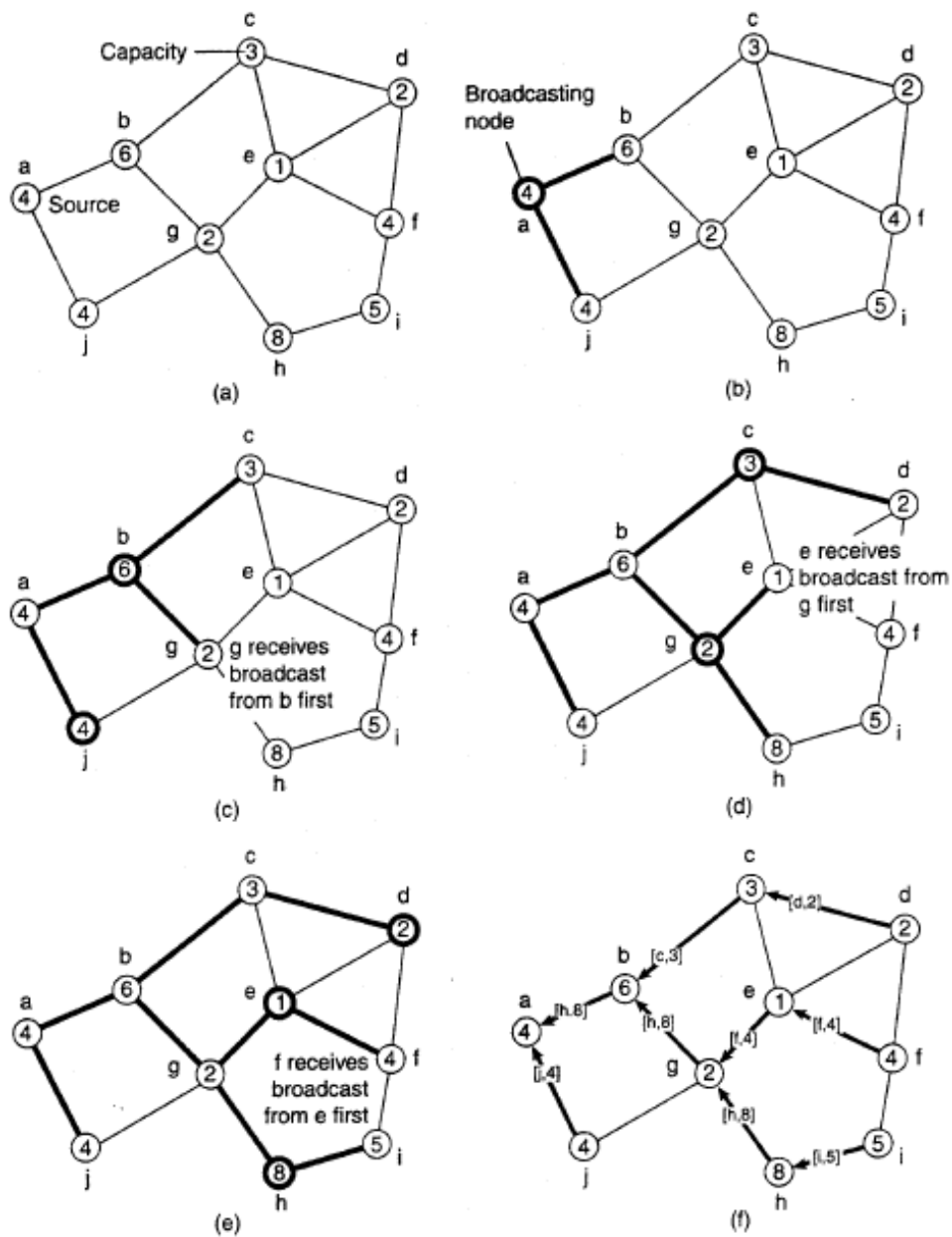


Figure 6-22. Election algorithm in a wireless network, with node *a* as the source. (a) Initial network. (b)-(e) The build-tree phase (last broadcast step by nodes *f* and *i* not shown). (f) Reporting of best node to source.

Figure 10.3: Election in wireless networks

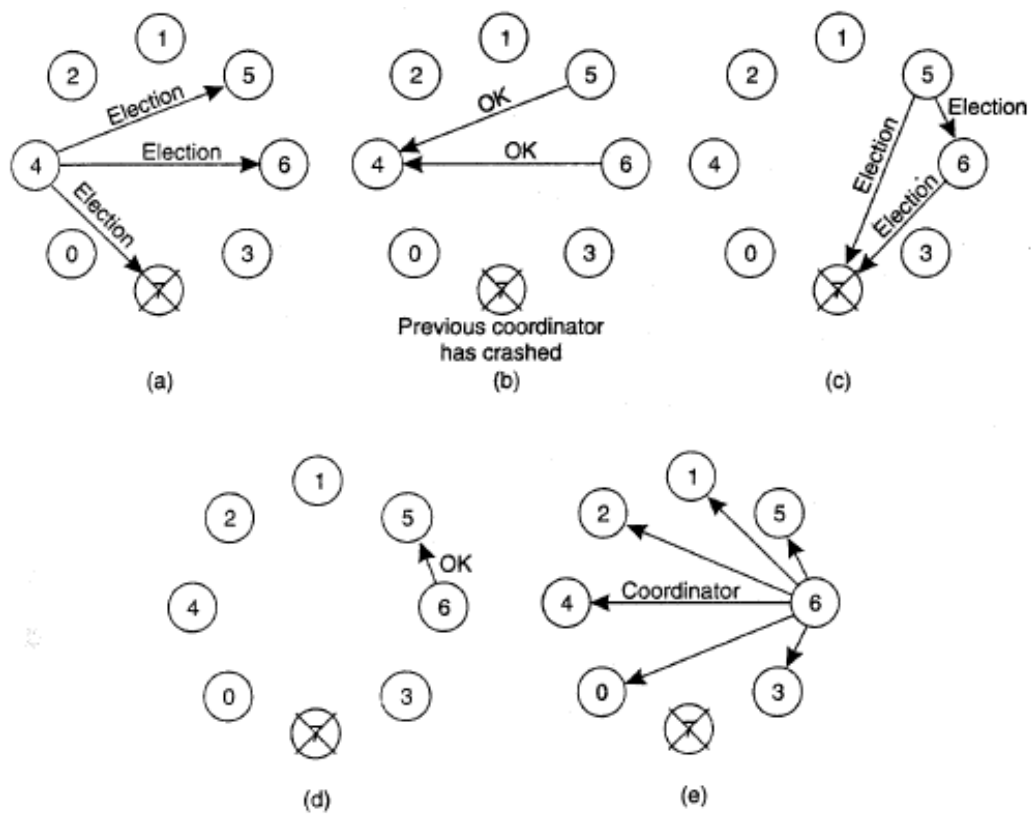


Figure 6-20. The bully election algorithm. (a) Process 4 holds an election. (b) Processes 5 and 6 respond, telling 4 to stop. (c) Now 5 and 6 each hold an election. (d) Process 6 tells 5 to stop. (e) Process 6 wins and tells everyone.

Figure 10.4: The bully election algorithm

Chapter 11

Consistency and Consensus

- Distributed Systems use replication of data to improve performance and/or reliability
- replication for scalability
 - How to keep replicas consistent?
 - Many types of consistency
 - data-centric-consistency
 - client-centric-consistency
 - monotonic reads: successive reads return the same or newer value
 - monotonic write: a write op must be completed before the next write by the same process
 - read-your-own-write: write is always seen by read of same process
 - write-follows-read: write on previous read takes place on the same or more recent value
- Do not discuss replica placement

11.1 Reliable multicast protocols

- atomic multicast requirement
 - all requests arrive at all servers in the same order

11.1.1 Distributed Commit

- an operation is performed by group or non of the nodes of the group
- reliable multicast operation = delivery of message
- distributed transaction: operation = execution of transaction
- uses coordinator
- one-phased commit
- two-phase commit (2PC) (Jim Gray, 1978)
 - distributed transaction involves several processors each on a different machine
 - 2 phases with each 2 steps:
 1. coordinator $\xrightarrow{\text{vote request}}$ all participants
 2. participant $\xrightarrow[\text{vote abort}]{\text{vote commit}}$ coordinator
 3. if all commit

coordinator $\xrightarrow{\text{global-commit}}$ all participants
 else
 coordinator $\xrightarrow{\text{global-abort}}$ all participants

4. if commit, then participants locally commit
 else participants locally abort
- Problems if failures occur

- * coordinator blocks in: wait
- * participant blocks in: ready, init
- ⇒ blocking commit protocol
- use timeouts to unblock
- repeat request
- in state ready P can contact Q
- if Q is in contact, then coordinator died after sending to Q
 before sending to P ⇒ P can commit
- if Q is in abort ⇒ abort
- if Q is in init ⇒ abort
- if Q is in ready → abort or no decision contact R

- Three-phase commit (3PC) (Steen, 1981)

- avoids blocking in the presence of fail-stop crashes
- states satisfy the following conditions
 1. there is no state from which directly follow commit or abort follows
 2. there is no state in which it is not possible to make a final decision and from which a transaction to a commit state can be made
 ⇒ necessary and sufficient conditions for non-blocking commit protocol
- abort branch as in 2PC
- blocking states: participant: init → abort
 coordinator: wait → abort
 precommit, knowing P voted for commit
 ⇒ global-commit+recovery of P
 participant: ready
 coordinator failed as in 2PC
 precommit: contact other participants: if Q in precommit ⇒ commit
 if Q is in init ⇒ abort
- Q can be in INIT only if no participant is in precommit
- participant can reach precommit only if coordinator was in precommit already
- In 2PC a crashed participant could recover to commit, while all others are still in ready
- if one process is in ready recovery can be only to states ready, init, abort, precommit
 ⇒ surviving processes can come to final solution

- Paxos (Leslie Lamport, late 80s)

- does not block with at most $n/2-1$ failures
- Paxos adds to 2PC:
 - * ordering of proposals
 - * majority voting for acceptance
- Duelling proposer

1. Aufgabe: Terminologie (wichtige Konzepte, erklären, vergleichen, bla,bla) dann durch die Themen des Semsters, übungszettel, gerne ausrechnen (Fingertable, Metriken von overlaynetzen, komplexität von protokollen (wie viele nachrichten braucht ein protokoll), logische uhren (stellen oder so)), erklären, Peersimaufgabe(n) (programm angucken, was macht das programm?, überblick, wie modifizieren für fkt x, cycle driven vs event driven (was wofür)), last auf dem netz, kein gnuplot programm auf papier!!! Hilfsmittel: mitbringen, was man will, außer internet, telefon, freunde usw...