

60009

Distributed Algorithms
Imperial College London

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Course Structure & Logistics



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The module is taught by Dr Narankar Dulay.

Theory For weeks 2 \rightarrow 10:

- Elixir (learning programming language)
- Introduction
- Reliable Broadcast
- FIFO, casual and total order Broadcast
- Consensus
- Flip Improbability Result
- Temporal Logic of Actions
- Modelling Broadcast
- Modelling Consensus

1.2 Course Resources

The course website contains all available slides and notes.

1.3 Distributed Systems

Distributed System	Definition 1.3.1
<p>A set of processes connected by a network, communicating by message passing and with no shared physical clock.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No total order on events by time (no shared clock) • No shared memory. • Network is logical - processes may be on the same OS process, same VM, same machine different machines communicating over a physical network. 	

Distributed systems must contend with the inherent uncertainty (failure, communication delay and an inconsistent view of the system's state) in communication between potentially physically independent processes (fallible machines, networks and software).

Leslie Lamport	Extra Fun! 1.3.1
<p>A computer scientist and mathematician, credited with creating TLA (used on this course), as well as being the initial developer of latex (used for these notes).</p> <p>” There has been considerable debate over the years about what constitutes a distributed system. It would appear that the following definition has been adopted at SRC:</p> <p>A distributed system is one in which the failure of a computer you didn't even know existed can render your own computer unusable. ”</p>	

1.4 Distributed Algorithms

Liveness Properties	Definition 1.4.1	Safety Properties	Definition 1.4.2
<p><i>Something good happens eventually</i> (Cannot be violated by finite computation)</p>		<p><i>Nothing bad happens</i> (Only violated by finite computations)</p>	

As liveness properties depend on computation, they can be constrained by a *fairness property*.

unconditional fairness Every process gets its turn infinitely often.

strong fairness Every process gets its turn infinitely often if it is enabled infinitely often.

weak fairness Every process gets its turn infinitely often if it is continuously enabled from a particular point in the execution.

1.4.1 Key Aspects

1. **The problem** Specified in terms of the *safety* and *liveness* properties of the algorithm.

2. **Assumptions made**

Bounds on process delays (timing assumption)

Types of process failures tolerated (failure assumption)

Use of reliable message passing (communication assumption)

3. **The algorithm** Expresses the solution to *the problem*, given *the assumptions*.

- Must prove the algorithm is correct (satisfies all *safety* and *liveness* properties)

- Time and space complexity of the algorithm

Mutual Exclusion Properties	Example Question 1.4.1
<p>What are the safety, liveness and fairness properties required for mutual exclusion of processes over some critical section?</p>	

Safety	At most one process accesses the critical section.	$(s \parallel t) \wedge (s \neq t) \Rightarrow \neg(cs(s) \wedge cs(t))$
Liveness	Every request for the critical section is eventually granted.	$req(s) \Rightarrow (\exists t : s \preceq t \wedge cs(t))$
Fairness	Requests are granted in the order.	$req_start(s) \wedge req_start(t) \wedge (s \rightarrow t) \Rightarrow (next_cs(s) \rightarrow next_cs(t))$

Note that \preceq is the *happens-before* relation.

Consensus

Definition 1.4.3

Processes Propose Values \rightarrow Processes decide on value \rightarrow Agreement Reached

Agreement Property	Two correct processes cannot decide on different values.
Validity Property	If all processes propose the same value, then the decided value is the proposed value.
Termination Property	System reaches agreement in finite time.

Consensus is impossible to solve for a fully asynchronous system, some timing assumptions are required.

It is difficult to prove the correctness of even simple distributed systems formally. By specifying an abstract model of an algorithm automatic model checkers can be used to verify properties.

1.4.2 Timing Assumptions

Asynchronous Systems

Definition 1.4.4

A system where process execution steps and inter-process communication take arbitrary time.

- No assumptions that processes have physical clocks.
- Sometimes useful to use *logical clocks* (used to capture a consistent ordering of events on a virtual timespan)

Synchronous Systems

Definition 1.4.5

A system containing assumptions on the upper bound timings for executing steps in a process.

- This means there are upper bounds for steps such as receiving messages, sending messages, arithmetic, etc.
- Easier to reason about.
- Implementation must ensure bounds are always met, this can potentially require very high bounds (so guarantee holds) which reduce performance. *Eventually synchronous models* were created to overcome this.

Eventually Synchronous Systems

Definition 1.4.6

Mostly synchronous systems. Do not have to *always* meet bounds, and can have periods of asynchronicity.

1.4.3 Failure Classes

Process Failure	Definition 1.4.7								
<p>A process internally fails and behaves incorrectly. Process sends messages it should not, or does not send messages it should.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Can be caused by a software bug, termination of process by user or OS, OS failure, hardware failure, cyber attack by adversary.• The process may be slowed down to the point it cannot send messages it needs to (or meet some timing assumption) <table><tr><td>Fail-Stop</td><td>Failure can be reliably detected by other processes.</td></tr><tr><td>Fail-Silent</td><td>Not Fail-Stop.</td></tr><tr><td>Fail-Noisy</td><td>Failure can be detected, but takes time.</td></tr><tr><td>Fail-Recovery</td><td>Failing process can recover from failure.</td></tr></table> <p>A process that is not faulty is a Correct Process.</p>		Fail-Stop	Failure can be reliably detected by other processes.	Fail-Silent	Not Fail-Stop.	Fail-Noisy	Failure can be detected, but takes time.	Fail-Recovery	Failing process can recover from failure.
Fail-Stop	Failure can be reliably detected by other processes.								
Fail-Silent	Not Fail-Stop.								
Fail-Noisy	Failure can be detected, but takes time.								
Fail-Recovery	Failing process can recover from failure.								

Link Failure	Definition 1.4.8	Byzantine Failure	Definition 1.4.9
<p>A link allowing for processes to communicate is disconnected and remains disconnected.</p> <p>A network connecting machines hosting processes may become partitioned due to a <i>link failure</i></p>		<p>Also called Fail-Arbitrary, a process exhibits some arbitrary behaviour (can be malicious).</p>	

Omission Failure	Definition 1.4.10
Send Omission	Fails to send all messages required by the algorithm.
Recv Omission	Fails to properly receive all messages required.

1.4.4 Communication Assumptions

Asynchronous Message Passing

Processes continue after sending messages, they do not wait for a message to be delivered. It is possible to build a synchronous message passing abstraction from asynchronous message passing.

Reliable Message Communication

Messages are assumed to be conveyed using a reliable medium.

- All sent messages are delivered.
- No duplicate messages are created.
- All delivered messages were sent.

Network failure is still a concern (breaks assumption), so TCP is used for messages, and more reliable message passing abstractions built on top.

Message delays are bounded, as a timeout is used.

1.4.5 Complexity

Complexity can be characterised using:

- Number of messages exchanged.
- Size of messages exchanged.
- Time taken from the perspective of an external observer, or some clock on a synchronous system.
- Memory, CPU time or energy used by processes.

Chapter 2

Elixir

2.1 learning Elixir

- [Introduction To Elixir & Installation](#)
- [Elixir Documentation and Standard Library](#)
- [Elixir Learning Resources](#)
- [Devhints Exlixir Cheatsheet](#)
- [Elixir Quick Reference](#)
- [Learn Elixir in Y Minutes](#)

Two Sum

Example Question 2.1.1

Write a program to provide the two indexes of numbers in a list that sum to a given target. (This is the famous leetcode problem two sum).

```
defmodule Solution do
  @spec two_sum(nums :: [integer], target :: integer) :: [integer]
  def two_sum(nums, target) do
    nums
    |> Enum.with_index()
    |> Enum.reduce_while(%{}, fn {num, idx}, acc ->
      case Map.get(acc, target - num) do
        nil ->
          {:cont, Map.put(acc, num, idx)}
        val ->
          {:halt, [idx, val]}
      end
    end)
  end
end
```

We could also write this recursively with a helper function

```
defmodule Solution do
  @spec two_sum(nums :: [integer], target :: integer) :: [integer]
  def two_sum(nums, target) do
    two_sum_aux(nums, target, %{}, 0)
  end

  defp two_sum_aux([next | rest], target, prevs, index) do
    val = Map.get(prevs, target - next)
    if val != nil do
      [val, index]
    else
      two_sum_aux(rest, target, Map.put(prevs, next, index), index + 1)
    end
  end
end
```

```

    end
  end
end

```

Add two numbers

Example Question 2.1.2

Given The following linked list structure, write a program taking two numbers (represented in reverse as linked lists), and produce a linked list of their sum. (This is leetcode problem add two numbers)

Definition for singly-linked list.

```

defmodule ListNode do
  @type t :: %__MODULE__{
    val: integer,
    next: ListNode.t() | nil
  }
  defstruct val: 0, next: nil
end

```

```

defmodule Solution do
  @spec add_two_numbers(l1 :: ListNode.t | nil, l2 :: ListNode.t | nil) :: ListNode.t | nil
  def add_two_numbers(l1, l2) do
    x = get_list(l1) + get_list(l2)
    if x == 0 do
      %ListNode{val: 0, next: nil}
    else
      to_list(x)
    end
  end

  defp get_list(node) do
    case node do
      %ListNode{val: v, next: n} -> v + 10 * get_list(n)
      nil -> 0
    end
  end

  defp to_list(n) do
    case n do
      0 -> nil
      i -> %ListNode{val: rem(i,10), next: to_list(div(i,10))}
    end
  end
end

```

2.2 The Elixir System

Elixir

Definition 2.2.1

A concurrent (with actors) and functional programming language used for fault tolerant distributed systems.

- A modernized successor language to Erlang
- Runs using BEAM (Erlang's virtual machine) and hence compatible with erlang
- Has many additions over erlang (protocols, streams and metaprogramming)

A lightweight user level thread (green threads) managed by the runtime.

- Everything is a process.
- Processes are strongly isolated, when two processes interact it does not matter which nodes, or even machines they run on.
- Processes share no resources (cannot share variables), they can only interact through message passing.
- Process creation and destruction is fast.
- Processes interact by message passing.
- Processes have unique names, if a name is known it can be used to pass messages
- Error handling is non-local.
- Processes do what they are supposed to do or fail.

All elixir processes run within a node, a node can manage many processes (creation, scheduling, and garbage collection).

- A node runs as an OS process, potentially with several OS threads scheduled across several cores.
- Multiple nodes can run on a single machine (or virtual machine such as a docker container).
- A node can efficiently manage thousands to millions of elixir processes.

Communication between processes is implemented through shared memory on the same machine and TCP when over a network. However processes are not exposed to this - the same primitives are used for inter and intra node/machine communication.

2.3 Message Passing

The `send` and `receive` statements are used for message passing.

```
# send somedata (any type) to process p
send p, somedata

# Wait until a message that matches the pattern is added to the message queue
# (or a timeout occurs), then remove it (potentially skipping over messages
# that do not match)
receive do
  somepattern -> dosomething(somepattern)
  # ... some other patterns
end
```

- Each process has its own message queue.
- Messages received are appended to the message queue of the receiving process.
- The sender does not wait for the message to be appended, it continues immediately after sending.

We can implement a basic client-server system in this way. Here we are using a component-based approach (split the program into components, each asynchronously message pass), by convention each component is an elixir module, modules can be instantiated in many processes & (by convention) have a public `start()` function.

```
defmodule Cluster do
  def start do
    # Spawn two processes, with the function start
    # Server.ex and Client.ex are modules containing a public start function
    # (Assuming we have started a client_node and server_node)
    s = Node.spawn(:'server_node@172.19.0.2', Server, :start, [])
    c = Node.spawn(:'client_node@172.19.0.1', Client, :start, [])
  end
end
```

```

# We send the PIDs of the processes to each other, we can pattern match on
# atoms for convenience in receiving
send s, { :bind, c }
send c, { :bind, s }
end
end

```

```

defmodule Server do
  def start do
    receive do
      { :bind, c } -> next(c)
    end
  end

  # next is defined as private, here
  # recursion is used for iteration.
  # To avoid a stack overflow tail
  # recursion is required
  defp next(c) do
    receive do
      { :circle, radius } ->
        send c, { :result, 3.14 * radius
                  * radius }

      { :square, side } ->
        send c, { :result, side * side }
    end
    next(c)
  end
end

```

```

defmodule Client do
  def start do
    receive do
      { :bind, s } -> next(s)
    end
  end

  defp next(s) do
    send s, { :circle, 1.0 }
    receive do
      { :result, area } ->
        IO.puts "Area is #{area}"
    end
    Process.sleep(1000)
    next(s)
  end
end

```

Chapter 3

Credit

Image Credit

Content

Based on the distributed algorithms course taught by Prof Narankar Dulay.

These notes were written by Oliver Killane.