# Distributed Dependable Systems

#### 4. Erasure Coding

### Problem Statement

- I have data to save
  - E.g., 100GB
- I can store data on N different servers
  - Say I pay storage per GB
- I want to be able to recover my data even if M servers fail and lose my data
- How to minimize the cost?

## Trivial Solution: Replication

- To safeguard myself against M server failures, I put a copy of all my data on M+1 servers
- Of course, I'm safe if M servers die
- Redundancy—i.e., the ratio between amount of data I store and the amount of original data is M+1
  - E.g., for M=2 and 100GB of data, I need 300GB
  - Redundancy: 3

## N=3, M=1: Parity

- I split my data in 2 blocks B<sub>0</sub> and B<sub>1</sub>
  - E.g., N=2 blocks of 50GB each
- I create a parity redundant block B<sub>R</sub>
  - $-B_R = B_0 XOR B_1$
- If I lose one of the blocks B<sub>i</sub>, I can recover it as
  - $-B_i = B_R XOR B_{1-i}$
  - This is because  $x \times XOR (x \times XOR y) = y$
- Redundancy: 1.5
  - E.g., for 100GB, I need 150GB storage
  - Only 100GB to recover all the original data

## M=1, Any N

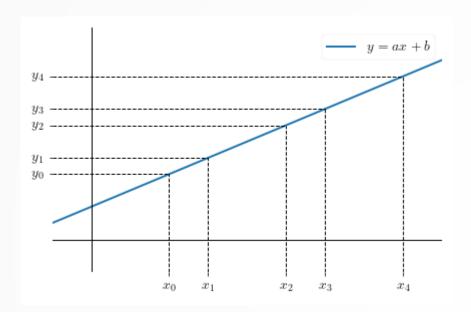
- I split my data in K=N-1 blocks of the same size
  - E.g., N=6, 100GB: 5 blocks  $B_0, ..., B_{K-1}$  of 20GB each
- I create a parity redundant block B<sub>R</sub>
  - $-B_R = B_1 XOR B_2 XOR ... XOR B_N$
- If I lose one of the blocks B<sub>i</sub>, I can recover it as
  - $-B_i = B_1 XOR B_2 ... XOR B_{i-1} XOR B_{i+1} ... XOR B_{K-1} XOR B_R$
  - This is because  $x \times XOR (x \times XOR y) = y$
  - Here  $y=B_1 XOR B_2 ... XOR B_{i-1} XOR B_{i+1} ... XOR B_{K-1} XOR B_R$
- Redundancy: N/K=N/(N-1)
  - Say N=6, 100GB: redundancy 6/5=1.2, I need 120GB
  - Again, only 100GB to recover all original data

## Erasure Coding Magic: Any N & M

- I encode my data in N blocks, each of size 1/K<sup>th</sup> of the original data, where K=N-M
  - E.g., M=2, N=6: 6 blocks of size 25GB
- I can decode any K of those blocks to recover my original data
  - E.g., any 4 of the N=6 blocks in the example
  - Once again, I just need any blocks totaling 100GB to recover my original data
- Redundancy: N/(N-M)
  - 1.5 in the example, 150GB total

#### **A Day Trip Into Erasure Coding**

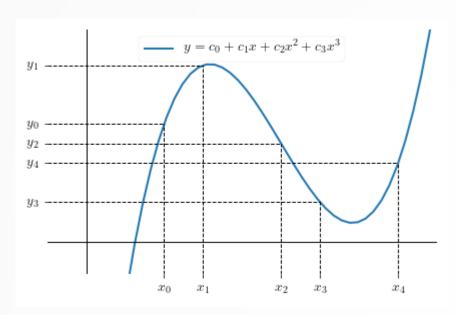
### Any N, M=N-2: Linear Oversampling



- A single straight line connects any two distinct points
- Hence, we can compute a and b with any two (x<sub>i</sub>,y<sub>i</sub>) pairs
  - If values of x<sub>i</sub> are predetermined,
     no need to send those

- Message: a, b
  - -e.g., a=3, b=2
- Encoded message:  $y_0 = f(x_0)$ ,  $y_1 = f(x_1)$ , ...,  $y_{n-1} = f(x_{n-1})$ 
  - With  $x_i = i$ : (2, 5, 7, ...)
- With any two distinct (x<sub>i</sub>, y<sub>i</sub>) pairs, a system of two linear equations and 2 variables:
  - E.g., With  $y_2 = 8$  and  $y_5 = 17$ :
    - $ax_2+b=8 \rightarrow 2a+b=8$
    - $ax_5+b=17 \rightarrow 5a+b=17$
  - From here, it's trivial to compute the message
- If message and all x<sub>i</sub> are all integers, all y<sub>i</sub> will be too: no need to handle noninteger math!

### Any N&M: Polynomial Oversampling



- Any K=N-M distinct points identify a single polynomial of degree K-1
- Hence, we can find the message with any  $K(x_i, y_i)$  pairs
  - Again, we can agree beforehand what all  $x_i$  values are
- Could sound familiar if you already studied secret sharing in cryptography

- Message: c<sub>0</sub>, ..., c<sub>K-1</sub>
- Encoded message:  $f(x_0)$ ,  $f(x_1)$ , ...,  $f(x_{N-1})$
- With any n distinct (x<sub>i</sub>,y<sub>i</sub>)
  pairs, a system of n
  linear equations and n
  variables
  - $c_0 + c_1 x_i + c_2 x_i^2 + \dots + c_{k-1} x_i^{k-1} = y_i$
  - The nonlinear part
     disappears because all x<sub>i</sub>
     values are known

#### Polynomial Oversampling: Example

- N=7, M=3, K=4
- Sampling points  $x_0, ..., x_6 = 0, ..., 6$
- Message:  $(c_0, ..., c_3)$ ;  $f(x)=c_0+c_1x+c_2x^2+c_3x^3$
- Suppose we lose the other values and remain with  $y_0 = f(x_0) = f(0) = 4$ ,  $y_2 = 40$ ,  $y_3 = 100$ ,  $y_5 = 364$ . We get the equations
  - $-c_0 = 4$
  - $-c_0+2c_1+4c_2+8c_3=40$
  - $-c_0+3c_1+9c_2+27c_3=100$
  - $-c_0+5c_1+25c_2+125c_3=364$
- We can obtain the original message by solving the equations (e.g., by substitution)
  - Please do as an exercise
  - Solution:  $(c_0, ..., c_3) = (4, 2, 4, 2)$
  - Function  $f(x)=4+2x+4x^2+2x^3$
  - Encoded message  $y_0$ , ...,  $y_6 = 4$ , 12, 40, 100, 204, 364, 592
- **Problem**: numbers grow in size! If we encode them as bits, numbers in the encoded message will be **bigger** than those in the original one
- Is there a magic way to make sure numbers don't become bigger as we multiply them by powers of x?
  - Yes there is! They're called
- finite fields

#### It's OK If You Don't Remember Fields

- Informally: a field is a set in which addition, substraction, multiplication and division are defined and behave "as in" real and rational numbers
- Disclaimer: in this and the following slides, **bold red** symbols +, -, \*, /, 0, 1 and -1 refer to operation on the field, and not on the numbers we're used to
- Properties:
  - Associativity
    - (a+b)+c=a+(b+c) and (a\*b)\*c=a\*(b\*c)
  - Commutativity
    - a+b=b+a and a\*b=b\*a
  - Additive & Multiplicative identity
    - a+0=a, a\*1=a
  - Distributivity
    - a\*(b+c)=(a\*b)+(a\*c)
  - Additive and multiplicative inverses
    - a+(-a)=0, a\*(a-1)=1 (the multiplicative inverse is not defined for 0)
- It's useful in our case because we can solve our linear equations in a field
  - If you think about it, to solve them you do substitutions and or add/multiply/divide the same number from both sides of an equation

## Finite Fields (Galois Fields)

- Fields that have just a finite number of elements
- Discovered (invented?) by Évariste Galois (1811-1832)
- They're cool, because we can give a number to each element of the field, and encode those numbers using log<sub>2</sub>(n) bits for a field of size n, and do everything as before!



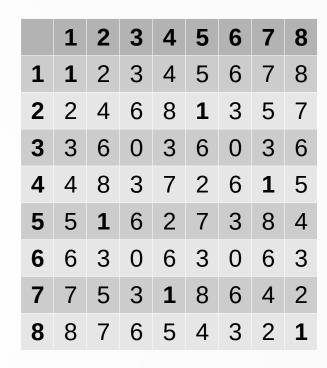
## Integers Modulo A Prime Number Are A Finite Field

- Elements of the set: 0, 1, ..., p-1
- Obvious definition of 0, 1, multiplication, addition and additive inverse
  - -0=0, 1=1,  $-a=-a \mod p$
  - $-a+b=a+b \mod p$
  - $-a*b=ab \mod p$
  - What about the multiplicative inverse? We'll see later
- Most properties are easy to prove (please try at home)... But what about the multiplicative inverse?

### Multiplication Table Modulo *m*

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	2	4	6	1	3	5
3	3	6	2	5	1	4
4	4	1	5	2	6	3
5	5	3	1	6	4	2
6	6	5	4	3	2	1

- *m*=7 (*prime*)
- There's exactly one 1 in every row and column
- In the "modulo 7" field,  $5^{-1}=3$  and  $2^{-1}=4$



- m=9, non-prime
- Not every value has an inverse
- Not a field

# Proof: There's Exactly One Multiplicative Inverse In Modulo p

- Consider a\*b=ab mod p, with a, b in [0, p-1]
  - It can be zero only if one of a or b is 0, because:
    - p is a prime, so ab mod p=0 only if one of a and b is a multiple of p
    - but they can't be multiples of p because they're smaller than p.
- Consider a in [1,p-1] and a\*i for all i in [1,p-1]
  - For all i in [1,p-1],  $a*i \neq 0$ , neither a nor i are 0
  - For all  $i \neq j$  in [1,p-1],  $a*i \neq a*j$ , because:
    - a\*i=a\*j would mean a(i-j)=0 (distributive property)
    - a  $\neq 0$  by hypothesis, i-j  $\neq 0$  because  $i \neq j$
  - Conclusion: all the p-1 a\*i values are different, and they can assume only the p-1 values in [1,p-1]
    - Each value will be represented exactly once, hence there will be a single unique value of i such that a\*i=1
    - Hence, that will be the multiplicative inverse a-1

## Our Example, Modulo p

- N=7, M=3, K=4 \*as before), **p=7** (we need  $p \ge N$ )
- Function  $f(x)=c_0+(c_1*x)+(c_2*x^2)+(c_3*x^3)=c_0+c_1x+c_2x^2+c_3x^3$  mod 7
- Sampling points  $x_0, ..., x_6 = 0, ..., 6$ 
  - we're using all of them now, to add more we need to change p
- Suppose we lose the others and remain with  $y_0 = f(0) = 3$ ,  $y_2 = 1$ ,  $y_3 = 5$ ,  $y_5 = 3$ . We get the equations
  - $-c_0=3$
  - $-c_0+2*c_1+4*c_2+c_3=1$
  - $-c_0+3*c_1+2*c_2+6*c_3=5$
  - $-c_0+5*c_1+4*c_2+6*c_3=3$
- Exercise: solve this! It's not so hard, you convert every number with its value modulo 7
  - E.g. -2 becomes 5 and 22 becomes 1
  - Inverses: 1 1 = 1, 2 1 = 4, 3 1 = 5, 4 1 = 2, 5 1 = 3, 6 1 = 6
  - To divide by x, you multiply by x-1 left and right
- Solution:  $(c_0, ..., c_3) = (3, 1, 5, 4), f(x)=3+x+5(x^2 \mod 7)+4(x^3 \mod 7)$ 
  - Encoded message  $y_0, ..., y_6 = 3, 6, 1, 5, 0, 3, 3$
- Try making others up! It's easy, you convert every number with its value modulo 7

## We Stop Here With Theory

- Almost-practical usage:
  - N is the number of machines that will store your data
  - M is the number of failures you want to tolerate
  - Choose p not smaller than N
  - Divide your data in K=N-M blocks of the same size
    - (find a way, e.g. padding, to make N a multiple of K)
  - Encode it as a series of values smaller than p
  - All elements of the first (original) block will be  $c_0$  coefficients, second block  $c_1$  and so on
  - Encode and put all the  $y_0$  coefficients in the first encoded block, the  $y_1$  coefficients in the second block, and so on

#### There's A Lot More In Coding Theory

- There are finite fields having  $p^m$  elements, any  $m \ge 1$ 
  - But they're harder to explain
  - Of course, computer people in practice use  $2^m$
- You can use coding to do error correction in addition to handle erasures
- They're implemented in hardware
- Found everywhere: telecommunications, QR codes, even CD readers from the 90's!
- If you want to play with them, look for a Reed-Solomon library in your favorite programming language

## More Coding Magic

- Approaches that "waste" a bit of space compared to the "perfect" result but give you great properties
  - I.e., to recover 100 GB of data you'll need a bit more than 100 GB
- Fountain codes: you don't need to choose N to start with
  - Generate as many redundant blocks as you want, as a stream
  - You need a bit more than the amount of the original data to reconstruct it
  - Current standard: RaptorQ, IEEE RFC 6330
- Regenerating codes (Dimakis et al. 2010): if you lose one or a few blocks you don't need the original plaintext to recreate them—just download a few encoded blocks and work from them

## Let's Simulate

- We can return to discrete event simulation and simulate a backup application
  - Can we keep data safe for 100 years?
  - No need to actually do the encoding here, we can claim success if K=N-M blocks are successfully recovered after a disk crash
- Consider a home machine that has, say, 100 GB to backup and can store data on N=10 servers, 500 kBps uplink speed and 2 MBps downlink
  - This machine goes online/offline. For a machine that stays online on average x continuous hours every day, we can use an exponential distribution having average x hours (x\*3600 s) for the online intervals, and 24-x hours for the offline intervals
- Data is split in N blocks of size 100/K GB, and uploaded sequentially to the N servers
- Each server experiences a disk crash after an exponentially distributed amount of time with average y days
  - Stored data is lost
  - The home machine will re-upload the lost block
- After a time chosen exponentially with average z days, the machine's disk will crash, and it
  will try to download K blocks from the servers to recover its backup
  - Play around with different values of K (K=1: replication, K=N: no redundancy), and compare costs (total amount of data stored on server) and probability of recovering backup

## Questions

- What is the interplay between the parameters?
   Which are the most important ones?
- If you were to design the system, how would you tune it to get the best reliability?
- What if we drop the assumption of storing a single block per server? Does the system become better?
- This will be a second piece of work we'll ask at the exam, like the one on scheduling