LibrumCI: Leveraging Container Cluster Management Framework Natives in Continuous Integration

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ABSTRACT

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Keywords

Continuous Integration; Kubernetes; Continuous Delivery; Docker; Cluster Management Frameworks; VCS; Agile

1. INTRODUCTION

With organisational structures diversifying to off-shore, insource and outsource development needs, software is increasingly being developed by fully- or partially-distributed teams. The contributions from team members must, at a minimum, be first validated under a test infrastructure that is automated and robust enough to allow for high levels of code churn. This development requirement is reflected in in the sustained and growing adoption of Continuous Integration (CI) practices in open-source and enterprise software projects (Duvall et al., 2007; Fitzgerald and Stol, 2014; Vasilescu et al., 2015).

To-do, mention the requirements and then pitfalls/challenges of CI (expense of provisioning prod-like envs, configuration management, slow feedback). To-do, mention the advent of containerisation and container cluster management frameworks. To-do, mention the lacking CI open-source tooling support for containers. To-do, define container cluster management frameworks and mention how they can remedy CI challenges, CI container support and more.

2. RELATED WORK

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3. BACKGROUND

Traditionally most software projects have been characterised as having poor integration practices. More often than often not a siloed team will conduct all development activities, arguably over a lengthy period, and defer acceptance testing and code integration. Importantly, during this period one can assert that the software is in an inoperative state, as there has been no motivation to actually run the software and use it in a production-like environment.

Humble and Farley (2010) argue that many projects "schedule lengthy integration phases at the end of development to allow the development team time to get the branches merged and the application working so it can be acceptance-tested". More concerning is that when some projects arrive at this point "their software is not fit for purpose". These long-winded and challenging phases, commonly referred to as "integration hell", pose difficulties for the engineers working through the integration and too for the leads and managers estimating the project delivery.

Applications of Continuous Integration practices have been found to effectively remove these phases at source (Vasilescu et al., 2015; Fitzgerald and Stol, 2014; Humble and Farley, 2010; Duvall et al., 2007). As a practice, CI seeks to reduce software deployment lead time by facilitating frequent code churn through verifying contributions with automated builds and tests. Depending on the structure of the team

and software, Humble and Farley (2010) advise that a team member should integrate their work at least once daily. An effective undertaking of this process means that the software is always in a working state.

To-do, highlight of challenges applying CI (provisioning build farms with things like Puppet, compute expense, configuration management, maintaining production parody). To-do, highlight the advent of containerisation (effective smart building, prod build and config parody can be more easily achieved). To-do, briefly discuss how distributed container technology works (distributed caching of layers and images across nodes) To-do, discuss production-grade container scheduling and management frameworks vs traditionally build farm technology (Kuberentes vs Jenkins).

3.1 Continuous Integration

Practices resembling Continuous Integration could be said to stem as far back as the original lean manufacturing method. Nevertheless in software engineering the practice was codified by Beck (2000) as a core tenant of the Extreme Programming (XP) method. Following, CI was also included in the Agile Manifesto as an encouraged quality assurance practice. Amidst its wide adoption and popularity however, there is some variability in how teams are employing the practice, resulting is some debate as to exactly which integration activities one should follow (Ståhl and Bosch, 2014). Nevertheless, at its core, CI forwards several central principles and high-level activities.

3.1.1 CI Activities

Before implementing CI a process for a given project, all software source code and assets must be captured under a version control system (e.g. Git, SVN or Mercurial). Such a system manages file changes using a controlled access repository. Importantly, this provides the mechanism for developers to persist and maintain a mainline branch of the working software (e.g. the head or trunk branch), this is where any desired contributions are to be frequently integrated/merged (Vasilescu et al., 2015). Version control systems also support reverting back to previous revisions of the software, which is commonly availed of in CI.

Central to CI is the mechanism in which integrations are built, tested and fed back to the team. More often than not an automated CI system will manage these tasks. Today existing systems are available as either hosted services or standalone setups (Gousios et al., 2015), and there are a multitude of such offerings in both the open-source and commercial spaces. The most notable of which are Jenkins, TravisCI, CruiseControl, CircleCI and Bamboo. As we will later explore, these systems offer varying approaches to how one configures and defines a build pipeline, nevertheless on an integration build machine or cluster the following workflow generally occurs:

- the CI server will poll, or listen to, contributions made against the version control repository.
- upon receiving a contribution, the CI server will retrieve the source files and subsequently run build and tests scripts.
- the following build results are most commonly made available through a web interface and possibly email.
- the built application package, such as a WAR or EXE file, is also made available (Ståhl and Bosch, 2014).

Continuously integrating reduces software project risk through the preventative deciton of defects by in turn reducing quality assumptions, and by eliminating manual repetitive integration processes "time, costs and effort" can be saved (Vasilescu et al., 2015). CI also affords the software being in a deployable state at any time (Humble and Farley, 2010). Indeed, as a process CI is quite arguably beneficial, nevertheless challenges do exist around implementing a robust CI system and encompassing process.

3.1.2 CI Challenges

Employing an effective configuration management strategy is perhaps one of the most challenging aspects of CI. It involves ensuring that every application-level configuration needed per build phase (e.g. build, deploy and test) is captured and managed under one's version control system. The same is required for the configurations around one's entire production infrastructure, from the patch-level of an operating system (OS) to the configuration files of databases and load-balancers. Furthermore, all of the dependencies between artefacts should also be expressed. Humble and Farley (2010) define this as "the process by which all artefacts relevant to your project, and the relationships between them, are stored, retrieved, uniquely identified, and modified". Codifying the entire state of an infrastructure in version control is certainly not trivial for most projects, particularly for non-greenfield projects.

Humble and Farley (2010) argue that a successful configuration strategy requires a "holistic approach to managing all infrastructure". This involves the "desired state", or current configuration, of one's infrastructure being tracked under version control. A major benefit of keeping absolutely everything in version control is that source changes made at any level will trigger a CI build, which is in turn integrated, tested and deployable. That includes DBAs updating SQL scripts and operations members changing firewall rules. However, supporting this requires implementing automated infrastructure provisioning. For instance, bumping the OS version which serves the application software must trigger a CI build, but first this must cause the OS to be reprovisioned on the CI server and the rest of the downward dependencies to be rebuilt (e.g. OS libraries, middleware, application build script). Tools like Chef, Puppet and Ansible are established automation tools in this space however, as we will later discuss, we argue that such heavyweight solutions are less well placed in modern CI practices.

True for both hosted services and standalone setups, powerful servers or build farms usually underly a CI system to ensure that build-times are as a quick as possible (Campos et al., 2014). As a consequence, these shared remote resources "become a bottleneck when the number of developers increases" as more concurrent builds can occur (Gambi et al., 2015). Several practices have been adopted to alleviate these limitations. One addresses this horizontally through the "componentisation of larger applications", wherein a codebase is divided into well-defined parts that are developed and integrated separately. Thus, resulting in separate CI builds for each component (Humble and Farley, 2010). Other approaches emphasise on test selection. For instance, those tests related to the changes made in a given contribution are ran first ("pre-submit"), and if successful the integration is

made, then the remaining tests are executed ("post-submit") and if a failure occurs the integration is rolled back (Elbaum et al., 2014).

3.1.3 CI in Practice

Industry studies have found that 57% of companies are employing CI on a daily or weekly basis[1], however there is a clear disparity in how those practitioners are actually implementing the process. Ståhl and Bosch (2014) have revealed that there are several disagreements in the existing research around how CI is actually practiced in industry.

CI has also become a well adopted practice in open-source projects, particularly for those projects (75%) hosted on GitHub. Those surveyed integrators have been found to use "few quality evaluation tools other than continuous integration" in their integration workflows (Gousios et al., 2015). In the case of GitHub hosted projects, TravisCI is currently the most popular tool (Yu et al., 2015). Similar to many other modern hosted CI solutions, a repository is primarily configured with the system through a repository-level YAML file that declares the entire build workflow (Santos and Hindle, 2016). This file includes the infrastructural configuration (e.g. host OS type, host OS version, middleware dependancies), the application-level configuration, and finally the build and test scripts to be ran. The following `.travis-ci.yml` file is quite similar to that used on the Ruby on Rails project:

```
# use a Linux image with Ruby pre-installed
os: linux
language: ruby
sudo: false

cache:
  bundler: true
  directories:
    - # between builds cache installed 'bundler'
    - # packages (gems) and any other directories
before_install:
  - # before starting services and add-ons fetch
  - # and configure other system and/or
  - # middleware dependancies
# ensure services are running and available
# over the network
services:
  - memcached
  - redis
  - rabbitmq
addons: # use beta services
  postgresql: ''9.4"
before_script:
  - # before running tests run some commands
  - # like (re)configuring the application
script:
  - ci/run_tests.rb # test script to run
  - ci/run_inter.rb # integration script to run
# use each Ruby versions against the test script
rvm:
- 2.2.5
- ruby-head
# run the test script again under each specified
# environment variable
env:
  matrix:
    - 'SOME_FLAG=0'
    - 'SOME_FLAG=1'
notifications:
  - # send builds statuses to IRC
```

[1]http://info.thoughtworks.com/rs/thoughtworks2/images/Continuous%20Delivery%20%20A%20Maturity%20Assessment%20Model FINAL.pdf

Upon receiving a contribution, such a service will provision and build a virtual environment based on the repository's CI configuration file, cache those whitelisted directories for subsequent builds, then and run any specified scripts or commands (which are generally for testing and integrating). Most services offer a web interface wherein build statuses and be observed, and integrations with other tools for notifying build statuses. As you would expect, a build failure occurs when a provisioning-, test- or integration-related command terminates unsuccessfully.

In theory, for most commercial software projects it is impossible to employ a mature CI process under such tools. The execution environments offered by such services are generally limiting. For instance, TravisCI supports only three virtual environments for build execution: Ubuntu 12.04, OS X Mavericks and Ubuntu 14.04. CI under these constraints may be adequate for software projects that only rely on unit- and functional- level testing. However, as we will later explore, more complex "n-tierd" applications require build pipelines that include acceptance testing on an environment akin to production.

Standalone setup CI systems offer greater flexibility around build execution environments. For instance, under Jenkins one can configure a build pipeline which automatically provisions build execution environments. Such a pipeline might involve running unit and functional tests in a smaller production-like environment, and upon success run acceptance tests in a production sandbox environment. Thus, truly increasing confidence in the integrated contribution and ensuring that the software is always in a working state.

3.2 Containerisation

Selecting appropriate automation tools generally comes down to what is "best fit for your environment and development process". Duvall et al. (2007) argues that this includes the functionality, reliability, longevity and usability of the given tool. All too often these evaluations "often transcend the practical and escalate into what sounds like a religious debate". As we will subsequently explore, recently established standards and technologies in containerisation afford significant opportunities to CI.

3.2.1 Establishing the Container Standard

Containerisation is a recently resurged computing paradigm that is having a significant impact on how applications are being built, shipped and ran. Along with being less resource intensive and more portable, containers simplify dependency management, application versioning and service scaling, as opposed to deploying applications or application components directly onto a host operating system. Docker, albeit a relatively young project, has successfully established a container standard.

Containers have a long history in computing though much of their recent popularity surround the recent developments

of both LXC and the Docker platform. The former can be described as a container execution environment, or more formally, a Linux user space interface to access new kernel capabilities of achieving process isolation through namespaces and cgroups (Pahl and Lee, 2015). The latter is an open-source suite of tools managed by Docker Inc. which extends upon container technology such as LXC, in turn allowing containers to behave like "full-blown hosts in their own right" whereby containers have "strong isolation, their own network and storage stacks, as well as resource management capabilities to allow friendly co-existence of multiple containers on a host" (Turnbull, 2015).

Uncertainties around Docker's maturity and production-readiness have been expressed (Kereki, 2015; Powers, 2015; Merkel, 2014), however over the last two years the states of both Docker and the containerisation ecosystem continue to rapidly progress. Last year Docker has seen an unprecedented increase in development, adoption and community uptake (Merkel, 2014). Most notably was the introduction of customisable container execution environments. This means as opposed to LXC one can "take advantage of the numerous isolation tools available" such as "OpenVZ, systemd-nspawn, libvirt-sandbox, qemu/kvm, BSD Jails and Solaris Zones". Also included in this 0.9 release was the new built-in container execution driver "libcontainer", which replaced LXC as the default driver. Going forward on all platforms Docker can now execute kernel features such as "namespaces, control groups, capabilities, apparmor profiles, network interfaces and firewalling rules" predictably "without depending on LXC" as an external dependency (Hykes, 2014).

Interestingly, libcontainer itself was the first project to provide a standard interface for making containers and managing their lifecycle. Subsequently the Docker CEO announced the coming together of industry leaders and others in partnership with the Linux Foundation to form a "minimalist, non-profit, openly governed project" named The Open Container Initiative (OCI), with the purpose of defining "common specifications around container format and runtime" (Golub, 2015). Thereafter Docker donated its base container format and runtime, libcontainer, to be maintained by the OCI.

3.2.2 *Supporting 'N'-Tiered Applications*

Amidst establishing a container standard, Docker has made significant headway in supporting multi-host cloud production environments. In terms of native tooling, over the last two years Docker has implemented a suite of tools for provisioning and orchestrating containers:

- **Docker Machine** allows one to provision Docker hosts, which are simply Linux virtual machines (VMs) supporting Docker, on a local machine or cloud. Its pluggable driver API currently supports "provisioning Docker locally with Virtualbox as well as remotely" on cloud providers such Digital Ocean, AWS, Azure and VMware.

- **Docker Swarm** is a clustering solution which takes the standard "Docker Engine and extends it to enable you to work on a cluster of containers". This in turn allows one to "manage a resource pool of Docker hosts and schedule containers to run transparently on top, automatically managing workload and providing failover services".

- **Docker Compose** is the "glue" allowing one to compose a multi-host application on top of a Swarm cluster whereby you can specify how each application is to be ran in the the cluster, in turn allowing one to orchestrate and choreograph local or cloud containers.

In many cases an existing cloud infrastructure depends upon one or more orchestration tools, for example Consul for service discovery. Typically, such tools cannot be migrated away from easily and in turn cause "vendor lock-in". Consequently, Docker have implemented this trio of orchestration tools in a generic way, providing "a standard interface to service providers so that they can almost be used as plug-and-play solutions" on top of the Docker platform (Holla, 2015).

3.2.3 *Applicability in CI*

For a given software application or component, Docker allows one codify most of all potential environmental configuration into one manifest or declaration, a `Dockerfile`. Apart from the hardware resource requirements of the application (cpu, memory and disk), herein one can capture all system- and application- level configurations. Thus, in CI terms, it effectively acts as a standardised built script also capable of specifying target OS type and version. Consider that, for unit and functional testing only, we require a build execution environment for a NodeJS application running on Ubuntu Xenial, where "`runTests.sh *`" executes our test suites. Such a `Dockerfile` would be as follows:

```
FROM ubuntu:16.04
ENV NPM_CONFIG_LOGLEVEL info
RUN apt-get update
RUN apt-get install -y apt-utils curl git
RUN curl -sL deb.nodesource.com/setup_6.x \
  | bash -
RUN apt-get install -y nodejs
RUN rm -rf /var/lib/apt/lists/* \
  && apt-get purge -y --auto-remove apt-utils curl
WORKDIR /app
COPY . /app/
RUN npm install
RUN chmod +x /app/runTests.sh
EXPOSE 8080
ENTRYPOINT ["/app/runTests.sh"]
CMD ["*"]
```

To-do, mention Docker's underlying use of filesystems and how this makes builds layered, faster and cachable. To-do, mention how starting a container is extremely fast compared to VMs. To-do, mention how n-tiered application acceptance testing may be supported (docker-compose running separate services) and lead into next section.

3.3 Container Cluster Management

To-do, introduction to tie in CI and Docker. To-do, reference pains of provisioning CI 'production-like' clusters. Practitioners and industry experts note that cluster management tooling supporting Docker vary greatly in terms of capability, architecture and target cluster proportion (Goasguen, 2015; Holla, 2015). This is unsurprising when we consider that all infrastructures are not subject to same orchestration requirements and software release cycles. For instance, slow moving infrastructures can be characterised

as having infrequent application deployments, hard-coded service configurations and rare service failures which may not have an urgent impact. In contrast, more fast moving infrastructures feature continuous deployments and strong automation in terms of service configuration and recovery.

3.3.1 Service orchestration

Central to cloud cluster management is the ability to elastically provision and tear down clusters. Many cloud providers have introduced their own service orchestration tools such as CloudFormation from AWS and Heat by OpenStack (Dudouet et al., 2015). On a high-level, these tools simply define a cluster template which can be later orchestrated with possibly extended configurations. As previously mentioned, the native Docker orchestration tools support similar features that can clusterise multi-host containers. Docker Compose conceptually defines a similar template to that of Amazon's CloudFormation and allows one to perform orchestration tasks such as provisioning, destroying and scaling on per container basis.

Pahl and Lee (2015) describe container-based clusters as consisting of several hosts which are "virtual servers on hypervisors or possibly bare-metal servers", each of which typically runs several containers that are responsible for scheduling, load balancing and serving an application or service. Meaning containers can be distributed across one or more host machines wherein these hosts might be virtual servers running other services that must also be orchestrated.

Slow moving infrastructures may not be availing of their provider's orchestration tools as doing so is simply not required. Clusters themselves are manually defined once and the scaling of nodes can be introduced during deployments or at scheduled downtime. Nevertheless, Docker Compose supports this manual workflow. Conversely, fast moving infrastructures profit from their provider's orchestration tools, leveraging them to automate tasks around cluster management. As discussed previously, Swarm is a native Docker clustering tool for containers which pools Docker engines together into a single virtual host. In conjunction with Docker Compose, it facilitates for transparent orchestration across container clusters. (Holla, 2015).

Cluster management frameworks aim to abstract and automate service orchestration activities such as provisioning, scaling, task scheduling, resource utilisation management and failover recovery. Some cloud providers have implemented such frameworks which sit on top of Swarm. For example, Amazon's EC2 Container Service (ECS) is one that uses a shared-state scheduling model to execute tasks on containerised EC2 instances via containers. Each host instance has a preinstalled ECS agent which allows clusterised containers communicate together and with the ECS console. Consequently, via scheduled tasks, ECS clusters can be transparently and dynamically orchestrated.

Stand-alone Swarm or ECS may be fitting orchestration solutions for fast moving infrastructures, however larger-scale clouds that host hundreds or thousands of containers require high-level cluster management platforms such as Apache Mesos and Kubernetes. The former abstracts "distributed hardware resources into a single pool of resources" and can provide similar cluster management facilities to ECS when integrated with scheduling and service management tools such as Marathon. The later is a higher-level platform specifically designed for managing containerised applications across multiple hosts including mechanisms for service deployment, scaling and maintenance.

3.3.2 Service discovery and configuration

Service discovery and configuration management are central cluster management concepts in distributed systems and microservices-based architectures. Both of which are argued to overlap in nature. Service discovery can be described as an approach to achieve "dynamic and automatic software system composition, configuration and adaptation" (Yang et al., 2006). Generally, service discovery implementations accomplish this by allowing application components/services discover information or configurations about their current and neighbouring environments through a distributed key-value store.

Whether operating under a fast or slow moving infrastructure, requiring a service discovery solution is generally related to having a service-orientated architecture style. The more distributed a system becomes, the more regularly do services require information about their own and neighbouring environments. The tooling around service discovery ranges in terms of complexity and provided features. DNS (Domain Name Systems) is a well-known and commonly understood standard which allows us "associate a name with the IP address of one or machines" where the name becomes an "entry point to the IP address of the host running that service" (Newman, 2015). More advanced tools like Consul and Apache Zookeeper support both configuration management and service discovery. The former is designed specifically for service discovery and can use service health checking features to route traffic away from unhealthy nodes. The later is used for wider variety of cases such "configuration management, synchronizing data between services, leader election, message queues and as a naming service" (Newman, 2015).

Container-based service discovery involves the ability to dynamically register and discover multi-host containers among their peers. Holla (2015) poses two techniques to accomplish discovery in Docker; integrating Swarm backend discovery tools or using default Docker features like names and links. Docker Swarm implements a hosted discovery service which uses generated tokens to discover cluster nodes. Being primarily concerned with orchestration, Swarm does not currently support dynamic service registration and configuration. However, to dynamically configure and manage the services in your containers one can use a discovery backend with Swarm such as Etcd, Consul or Zookeeper.

As previously highlighted, Docker Compose provides a mechanism to link named containers on the same host. This is accomplished by "inserting the first container's IP address in /etc/hosts when starting the second container". Importantly, the IP address of a container living on a different host "is not known by the docker daemon running in the current host". The ambassador container pattern achieves cross-host container linking between provider and consumer containers by dynamically configuring network connections through respective intermediate ambassador containers (Holla, 2015).

3.3.3 Kubernetes

To-do, mention project history. To-do, mention the cluster topology it forwards. To-do, feature run-down. To-do, mention some examples of applications of kubernetes as a build farm and/or in testing. Lorem ipsum dolor sit amet, consectetuer adipiscing elit. Ut purus elit, vestibulum ut,

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4. DESIGN AND EVALUATION

To-do, note the poor container/Docker in TravisCI and Jenkins support. To-do, describe LibrumCI system some detail (architecture, screenshots, etc). To-do, matrix of tool comparison.

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5. CONCLUSIONS

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