Large-scale Distributed Systems

Lecture 2: Basic abstractions

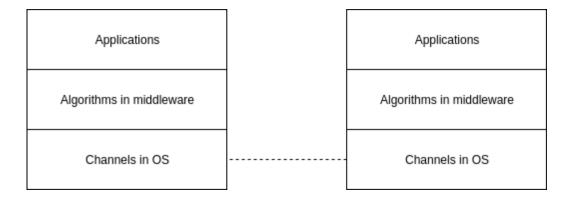


Today

- Define basic abstractions that capture the fundamental characteristics of distributed systems.
 - We will later define more elaborate abstractions on top of those.
- Three main abstractions:
 - Process abstractions
 - Link abstractions
 - Timing abstractions
- A distributed system model = a combination of the three categories of abstractions.

Need for distributed abstractions

- Core of any distributed system is a set of distributed algorithms.
 - Implemented as a middleware between network (OS) and the application.
- Reliable applications need underlying services stronger than transport protocols (e.g., TCP or UDP).



Network protocols are not enough

- Communication
 - Reliability guarantees (e.g. with TCP) are only offered for one-to-one communication (client-server).
 - How to do group communication?
- High-level services
 - Sometimes one-to-many communication is not enough.
 - Need reliable higher-level services.
- Strategy: build complex distributed systems in a bottom-up fashion, from simpler ones.

High level services:

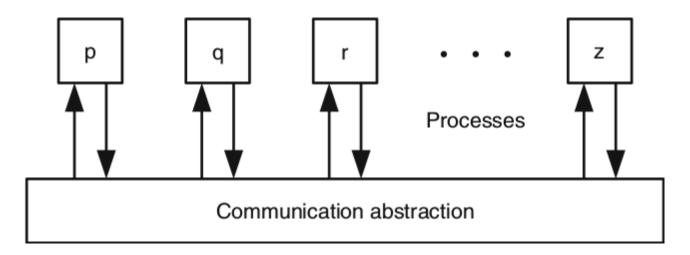
shared memory consensus atomic commit group membership

Group communication:

reliable broadcast causal order broadcast total order broadcast terminating reliable broadcast

Distributed computation

Distributed computation



- A distributed algorithm is a distributed collection $\Pi=\{p,q,r,...\}$ of N processes implemented by identical automata.
- The automaton at a process regulates the way the process executes its computation steps.
- Processes jointly implement the application.
 - Need for coordination.

Programming with events

- Every process consists of modules or components.
 - Modules may exist in multiple instances.
 - Every instance has a unique identifier and is characterized by a set of properties.
- Asynchronous events represent communication or control flow between components.
 - Each component is constructed as a state-machine whose transitions are triggered by the reception of events.
 - Events carry information (sender, message, etc)
- Reactive programming model:

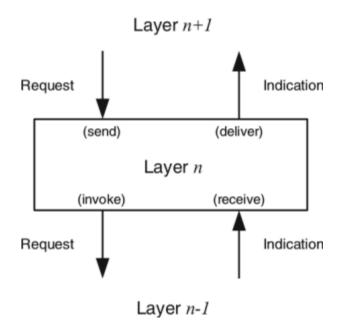
```
upon event \langle co_1, Event_1 | att_1^1, att_1^2, \dots \rangle do
do something;
trigger \langle co_2, Event_2 | att_2^1, att_2^2, \dots \rangle;

upon event \langle co_1, Event_3 | att_3^1, att_3^2, \dots \rangle do
do something else;
trigger \langle co_2, Event_4 | att_4^1, att_4^2, \dots \rangle;

#send some other event
```

• Effectively, a distributed algorithm is described by a set of event handlers.

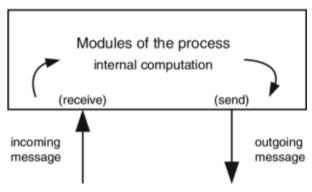
Layered modular architecture



- Components can be composed locally to build software stacks.
 - The top of the stack is the application layer.
 - The bottom of the stack the transport or network layer.
- Distributed programming abstraction layers are typically in the middle.
- We assume that every process executes the code triggered by events in a mutually exclusive way, without concurrently processing ≥ 2 events.

Execution

Process



- The execution of a distributed algorithm is a sequence of steps executed by its processes.
- A process step consists in
 - o receiving a message from another process,
 - executing a local computation,
 - sending a message to some process.
- Local messages between components are treated as local computation.
- We assume deterministic process steps (with respect to the message received and the local state prior to executing a step).

Liveness and safety

- Implementing a distributed programming abstraction requires satisfying its correctness in all possible executions of the algorithm.
 - i.e., in all possible interleaving of steps.
- Correctness of an abstraction is expressed in terms of liveness and safety properties.
 - Safety: properties that state that nothing bad ever happens.
 - A safety property is a property such that, whenever it is violated in some execution E of an algorithm, there is a prefix E' of E such that the property will be violated in any extension of E'.
 - Liveness: properties that state something good eventually happens.
 - A liveness property is a property such that for any prefix E' of E, there exists an extension of E' for which the property is satisfied.
- Any property can be expressed as the conjunction of safety property and a liveness property.

Correctness examples

Traffic lights at an intersection

- Safety: only one direction should have a green light.
- Liveness: every direction should eventually get a green light.



Correctness examples

TCP

- Safety: messages are not duplicated and received in the order they were sent.
- Liveness: messages are not lost.
 - o i.e., messages are eventually delivered.

Assumptions

- In our abstraction of a distributed system, we need to specify the assumptions needed for the algorithm to be correct.
- A distributed system model includes assumptions on:
 - failure behavior of processes and channels
 - timing behavior of processes and channels

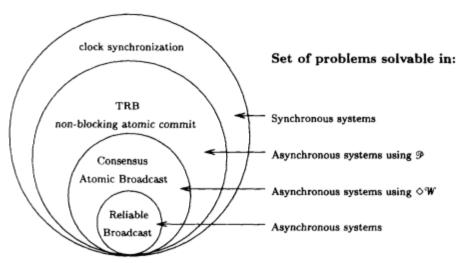


Fig. 9. Problem solvability in different distributed computing models.

Together, these assumptions define sets of solvable problems.

Process abstractions

Process failures

- Processes may fail in four different ways:
 - Crash-stop
 - Omissions
 - Crash-recovery
 - Byzantine / arbitrary
- Processes that do not fail in an execution are correct.

Crash-stop failures

- A process stops taking steps.
 - Not sending messages.
 - Not receiving messages.
- We assume the crash-stop process abstraction by default.
 - Hence, do not recover.
 - [Q] Does this mean that processes are not allowed to recover?

Omission failures

- Process omits sending or receiving messages.
 - Send omission: A process omits to send a message it has to send according to its algorithm.
 - Receive omission: A process fails to receive a message that was sent to it.
- Often, omission failures are due to buffer overflows.
- With omission failures, a process deviates from its algorithm by dropping messages that should have been exchanged with other processes.

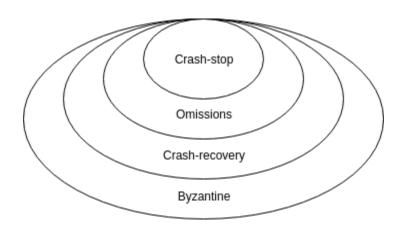
Crash-recovery failures

- A process might crash.
 - It stops taking steps, not receiving and sending messages.
- It may recover after crashing.
 - The process emits a <Recovery> event upon recovery.
- Access to stable storage:
 - May read/write (expensive) to permanent storage device.
 - Storage survives crashes.
 - E.g., save state to storage, crash, recover, read saved state, ...
- A failure is different in the crash-recovery abstraction:
 - o A process is faulty in an execution if
 - It crashes and never recovers, or
 - It crashes and recovers infinitely often.
 - Hence, a correct process may crash and recover.

Byzantine failures

- A process may behave arbitrarily.
 - Sending messages not specified by its algorithm.
 - Updating its state as not specified by its algorithm.
- Might behave maliciously, attacking the system.
 - Several malicious nodes might collude.

Fault-tolerance hierarchy

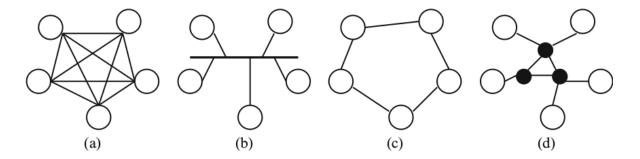


[Q] Explain how failure modes are special cases of one another.

Communication abstractions

Links

- Every process may logically communicate with every other process (a).
- The physical implementation may differ (b-d).



Link failures

- Fair-loss links
 - Channel delivers any message sent, with non-zero probability.
- Stubborn links
 - Channel delivers any message sent infinitely many times.
 - Can be implemented using fair-loss links.
- Perfect links (reliable)
 - o Channel delivers any message sent exactly once.
 - Can be implemented using stubborn links.
 - By default, we assume the perfect links abstraction.
- [Q] What abstraction do UDP and TCP implement?

Stubborn links: interface

Module:

Name: StubbornPointToPointLinks, instance sl.

Events:

Request: $\langle sl, Send \mid q, m \rangle$: Requests to send message m to process q.

Indication: $\langle sl, Deliver \mid p, m \rangle$: Delivers message m sent by process p.

Properties:

SL1: Stubborn delivery: If a correct process p sends a message m once to a correct process q, then q delivers m an infinite number of times.

SL2: No creation: If some process q delivers a message m with sender p, then m was previously sent to q by process p.

[Q] Which property is safety/liveness/neither?

Perfect links: interface

Module:

Name: PerfectPointToPointLinks, instance pl.

Events:

Request: $\langle pl, Send \mid q, m \rangle$: Requests to send message m to process q.

Indication: $\langle pl, Deliver | p, m \rangle$: Delivers message m sent by process p.

Properties:

PL1: Reliable delivery: If a correct process p sends a message m to a correct process q, then q eventually delivers m.

PL2: No duplication: No message is delivered by a process more than once.

PL3: No creation: If some process q delivers a message m with sender p, then m was previously sent to q by process p.

[Q] Which property is safety/liveness/neither?

Perfect links: implementation

Implements:

PerfectPointToPointLinks, instance pl.

Uses:

StubbornPointToPointLinks, instance sl.

```
upon event \langle pl, Init \rangle do delivered := \emptyset;
```

```
upon event \langle pl, Send | q, m \rangle do trigger \langle sl, Send | q, m \rangle;
```

```
upon event \langle sl, Deliver | p, m \rangle do

if m \notin delivered then

delivered := delivered \cup \{m\};

trigger \langle pl, Deliver | p, m \rangle;
```

[Q] How does TCP efficiently maintain its delivered log?

Correctness of PL

- PL1. Reliable delivery
 - Guaranteed by the Stubborn link abstraction. (The Stubborn link will deliver the message an infinite number of times.)
- PL2. No duplication
 - Guaranteed by the log mechanism.
- PL3. No creation
 - Guaranteed by the Stubborn link abstraction.

Timing assumptions

Timing assumptions

- Timing assumptions correspond to the behavior of processes and links with respect to the passage of time. They relate to
 - o different processing speeds of processes;
 - o different speeds of messages (channels).
- Three basic types of system:
 - Asynchronous system
 - Synchronous system
 - Partially synchronous system

Asynchronous systems

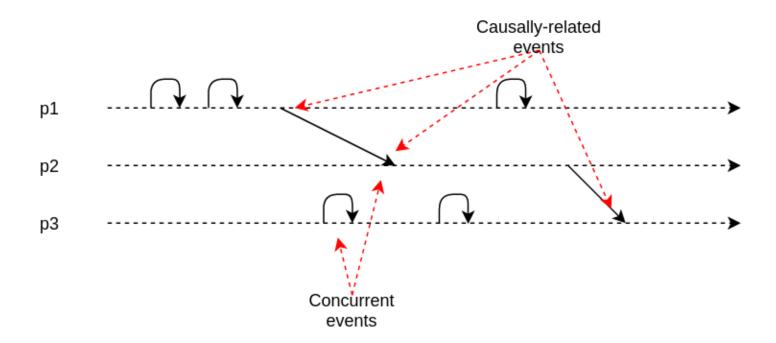
- No timing assumptions on processes and links.
 - Processes do not have access to any sort of physical clock.
 - Processing time may vary arbitrarily.
 - No bound on transmission time.
- But causality between events can still be determined.
 - o How?

Causal order

The happened-before relation $e_1 \to e_2$ denotes that e_1 may have caused e_2 . It is true in the following cases:

- FIFO order: e_1 and e_2 occurred at the same process p and e_1 occurred e_2 ;
- Network order: e_1 corresponds to the transmission of m at a process p and e_2 corresponds to its reception at a process q;
- Transitivity: if $e_1 o e'$ and $e' o e_2$, then $e_1 o e_2$.

Causal order



Similarity of executions

- \bullet The view of p in E , denoted $E\,|\,p$ is the subsequence of process steps in E restricted to those of p
- Two executions E and F are similar w.r.t. to p if E | p = F | p.
- Two executions E and F are similar if E | p = F | p for all processes p.

Computation theorem

If two executions E and F have the same collection of events and their causal order is preserved, then E and F are similar executions.

Logical clocks

In an asynchronous distributed system, the passage of time can be measured with logical clocks:

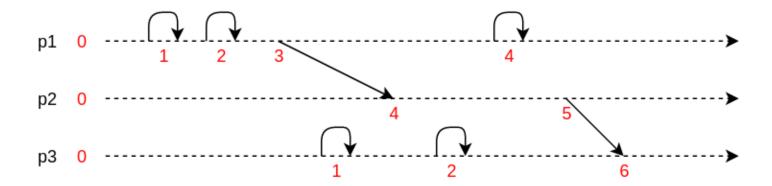
- Each process has a local logical clock l_p , initially set a 0.
- Whenever an event occurs locally at p or when a process sends a message, p increments its logical clock.

$$\circ l_p := l_p + 1$$

- When p sends a message event m, it timestamps the message with its current logical time, $t(m) := l_p$.
- When p receives a message event m with timestamp t(m), p updates its logical clock.

$$\circ \ l_p := \max(l_p, t(m)) + 1$$

Logical clocks



Clock consistency condition

Logical clocks capture cause-effect relations:

$$e_1
ightarrow e_2 \Rightarrow t(e_1) < t(e_2)$$

- If e_1 is the cause of e_2 , then $t(e_1) < t(e_2)$.
 - o Can you prove it?
- But not necessarily the opposite:
 - $\circ \ t(e_1) < t(e_2)$ does not imply $e_1 o e_2$.
 - \circ e_1 and e_2 may be logically concurrent.

Vector clocks

Vector clocks fix this issue by making it possible to tell when two events cannot be causally related, i.e. when they are concurrent.

- ullet Each process p maintains a vector V_p of N clocks, initially set at $V_p[i] = 0 \ orall i.$
- Whenever an event occurs locally at p or when a process sends a message, p increments the p-th element of its vector clock.

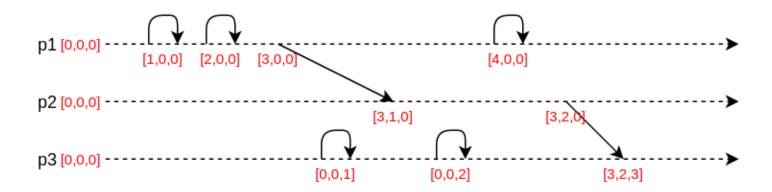
$$\circ \ V_p[p] := V_p[p] + 1$$

- When p sends a message event m, it piggybacks its vector clock as $V_m := V_p$.
- When p receives a message event m with the vector clock V_m , p updates its vector clock.

$$V_p[p] := V_p[p] + 1$$

$$\circ \ V_p[i] := \max(V_p[i], V_m[i])$$
 , for $i
eq p$.

Vector clocks



Comparing vector clocks

- $egin{aligned} ullet V_p &= V_q \ &\circ \ ext{iff} \ orall i \ V_p[i] &= V_q[i]. \end{aligned}$
- $egin{aligned} ullet V_p &\leq V_q \ &\circ ext{ iff } orall i V_p[i] \leq V_q[i]. \end{aligned}$
- $ullet V_p < V_q \ \circ \ ext{iff} \ V_p \leq V_q \ ext{AND} \ \exists j \ V_p[j] < V_q[j]$
- ullet V_p and V_q are logically concurrent.
 - $\circ \ \ \text{iff NOT} \ V_p \leq V_q \ \text{AND NOT} \ V_q \leq V_p$

Synchronous systems

Assumption of three properties:

- Synchronous computation
 - o Known upper bound on the process computation delay.
- Synchronous communication
 - Known upper bound on message transmission delay.
- Synchronous physical clocks
 - Processes have access to a local physical clock;
 - Known upper bound on clock drift and clock skew.

[Q] Why studying synchronous systems? What services can be provided?

Partially synchronous systems

A partially synchronous system is a system that is synchronous most of the time.

- There are periods where the timing assumptions of a synchronous system do not hold.
- But the distributed algorithm will have a long enough time window where everything behaves nicely, so that it can achieve its goal.

[Q] Are there such systems?

Timing abstractions

Failure detection

- It is tedious to model (partial) synchrony.
- Timing assumptions are mostly needed to detect failures.
 - o Heartbeats, timeouts, etc.
- We define failure detector abstractions to encapsulate timing assumptions:
 - Black box giving suspicions regarding node failures;
 - Accuracy of suspicions depends on model strength.

Implementation of failure detectors

A typical implementation is the following:

- Periodically exchange hearbeat messages;
- Timeout based on worst case message round trip;
- If timeout, then suspect node;
- If reception of a message from a suspected node, revise suspicion and increase timeout.

Perfect detector: interface

Assuming a crash-stop process abstraction, the perfect detector encapsulates the timing assumptions of a synchronous system.

Module:

Name: PerfectFailureDetector, instance \mathcal{P} .

Events:

Indication: $\langle \mathcal{P}, Crash \mid p \rangle$: Detects that process p has crashed.

Properties:

PFD1: Strong completeness: Eventually, every process that crashes is permanently detected by every correct process.

PFD2: Strong accuracy: If a process p is detected by any process, then p has crashed.

[Q] Which property is safety/liveness/neither?

Perfect detector: implementation

```
Implements:
      PerfectFailureDetector, instance \mathcal{P}.
Uses:
      PerfectPointToPointLinks, instance pl.
upon event \langle \mathcal{P}, Init \rangle do
      alive := \Pi;
      detected := \emptyset;
      starttimer(\Delta);
upon event ( Timeout ) do
      for all p \in \Pi do
            if (p \notin alive) \land (p \notin detected) then
                   detected := detected \cup \{p\};
                   trigger \langle \mathcal{P}, Crash \mid p \rangle;
            trigger \langle pl, Send \mid p, [HEARTBEATREQUEST] \rangle;
      alive := \emptyset:
      starttimer(\Delta);
upon event \langle pl, Deliver | q, [HEARTBEATREQUEST] \rangle do
      trigger \langle pl, Send \mid q, [HEARTBEATREPLY] \rangle;
upon event \langle pl, Deliver | p, [HEARTBEATREPLY] \rangle do
      alive := alive \cup \{p\}:
```

Correctness

We assume a synchronous system:

- The transmission delay is bounded by some known constant.
- Local processing is negligible.
- The timeout delay Δ is chosen to be large enough such that
 - every process has enough time to send a heartbeat message to all,
 - o every heartbeat message has enough time to be delivered,
 - the correct destination processes have enough time to process the heartbeat and to send a reply,
 - the replies have enough time to reach the original sender and to be processed.

Correctness:

- PFD1. Strong completeness
 - A crashed process p stops replying to heartbeat messages, and no process will deliver its messages. Every correct process will thus eventually detect the crash of p.
- PFD2. Strong accuracy
 - The crash of p is detected by some other process q only if q does not deliver a message from p before the timeout period.
 - \circ This happens only if p has indeed crashed, because the algorithm makes sure p must have sent a message otherwise and the synchrony assumptions imply that the message should have been delivered before the timeout period.

Eventually perfect detector: interface

The eventually perfect detector encapsulates the timing assumptions of a partially synchronous system.

Module:

Name: EventuallyPerfectFailureDetector, instance $\Diamond \mathcal{P}$.

Events:

Indication: $\langle \diamond \mathcal{P}, Suspect \mid p \rangle$: Notifies that process p is suspected to have crashed.

Indication: $\langle \diamond \mathcal{P}, Restore \mid p \rangle$: Notifies that process p is not suspected anymore.

Properties:

EPFD1: Strong completeness: Eventually, every process that crashes is permanently suspected by every correct process.

EPFD2: Eventual strong accuracy: Eventually, no correct process is suspected by any correct process.

Eventually perfect detector: impl.

```
Implements:
                                                                                upon event \langle pl, Deliver | q, [HEARTBEATREQUEST] \rangle do
      EventuallyPerfectFailureDetector, instance \Diamond \mathcal{P}.
                                                                                       trigger \langle pl, Send \mid q, [HEARTBEATREPLY] \rangle;
Uses:
                                                                                upon event \langle pl, Deliver | p, [HEARTBEATREPLY] \rangle do
      PerfectPointToPointLinks, instance pl.
                                                                                      alive := alive \cup \{p\}:
upon event \langle \diamond \mathcal{P}, Init \rangle do
      alive := \Pi;
      suspected := \emptyset;
      delay := \Delta;
      starttimer(delay);
upon event ( Timeout ) do
      if alive \cap suspected \neq \emptyset then
            delay := delay + \Delta;
      for all p \in \Pi do
            if (p \notin alive) \land (p \notin suspected) then
                   suspected := suspected \cup \{p\};
                   trigger \langle \diamond \mathcal{P}, Suspect \mid p \rangle;
            else if (p \in alive) \land (p \in suspected) then
                   suspected := suspected \setminus \{p\};
                   trigger \langle \diamond \mathcal{P}, Restore \mid p \rangle;
            trigger \langle pl, Send \mid p, [HEARTBEATREQUEST] \rangle;
      alive := \emptyset;
      starttimer(delay);
```

[Q] Show that this implementation is correct.

Leader election

- Failure detection captures failure behavior.
 - Detects failed processes.
- Leader election is an abstraction that also captures failure behavior.
 - Detects correct nodes.
 - But a single and same for all, called the leader.
- If the current leader crashes, a new leader should be elected.

Leader election: interface

Module:

Name: LeaderElection, instance le.

Events:

Indication: $\langle le, Leader | p \rangle$: Indicates that process p is elected as leader.

Properties:

LE1: Eventual detection: Either there is no correct process, or some correct process is eventually elected as the leader.

LE2: Accuracy: If a process is leader, then all previously elected leaders have crashed.

Leader election: implementation

Implements: LeaderElection, instance le. Uses: PerfectFailureDetector, instance \mathcal{P} . upon event $\langle le, Init \rangle$ do $suspected := \emptyset;$ $leader := \bot;$ **upon event** $\langle \mathcal{P}, Crash \mid p \rangle$ **do** $suspected := suspected \cup \{p\};$ **upon** $leader \neq maxrank(\Pi \setminus suspected)$ **do** $leader := maxrank(\Pi \setminus suspected);$ **trigger** (*le*, *Leader* | *leader*);

[Q] Show that this implementation is correct.

[Q] Is LE a failure detector?

Distributed system models

Distributed system models

We define a distributed system model as the combination of (i) a process abstraction, (ii) a link abstraction, and (iii) a failure detector abstraction.

- Fail-stop (synchronous)
 - Crash-stop process abstraction
 - Perfect links
 - Perfect failure detector
- Fail-silent (asynchronous)
 - o Crash-stop process abstraction
 - Perfect links
- Fail-noisy (partially synchronous)
 - Crash-stop process abstraction
 - Perfect links
 - Eventually perfect failure detector
- Fail-recovery
 - Crash-stop process abstraction
 - Stubborn links

The fail-stop distributed system model substantially simplifies the design of distributed algorithms.

References

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- Fidge, Colin J. "Timestamps in message-passing systems that preserve the partial ordering." (1987): 56-66.