1. Concepts of Distributed Systems

Concurrence, Parallelism and Distributed Systems (CPDS) Facultat d'Informàtica de Barcelona (FIB) Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya (UPC) 2018/2019 Q2



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Arrange an appointment by mail





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Definition of a distributed system

Challenges of distributed systems

Architectures for distributed systems





- It is one in which the failure of a computer you didn't even know existed can render your own computer unusable
 - [Lamport87]
- This apparently humorous definition entails the basic aspects of a distributed system:
 - The transparency of distribution ("a computer you didn't even know existed")
 - The interdependency of components ("the failure ... can render your own computer unusable")



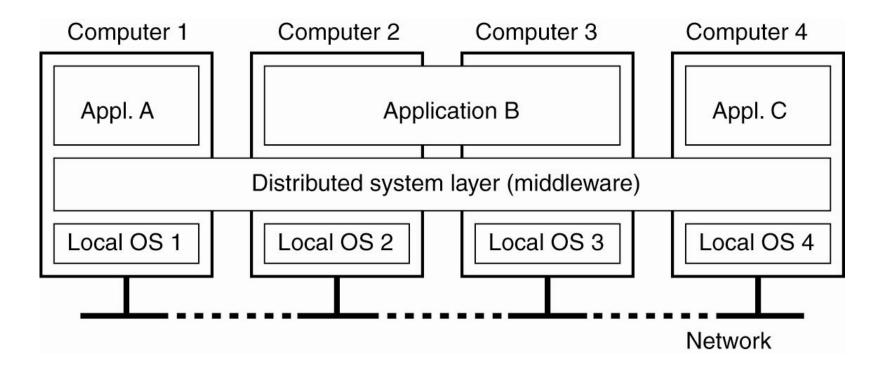


- A collection of autonomous computing elements that appears to its users as a single coherent system
 - [Tanenbaum]
- A system where components located at networked computers communicate and coordinate their actions only by passing messages
 - [Coulouris]





- (1) independent networked computers but
- (2) single-system view: **middleware**







- Consequences of the definition:
- 1. Multiple <u>heterogeneous</u> computers
- 2. Multiple <u>autonomous</u> processes
- 3. Processes execute concurrently
- 4. Knowledge on each computer is <u>local</u>
- 5. Process address space is <u>not shared</u>
- 6. Only communication is by message passing
- 7. Network <u>delays</u> in process communication





- Consequences of the definition:
- 8. <u>Independent (imperfect) clocks</u> (no global time and perfect synchronization unfeasible)
- 9. Processes can fail independently
- 10.Processes may <u>not always be available</u> (network partitions, process disconnections)
- 11. High probability of failures (it grows with number of components)





- Why do we build distributed systems?
 - Functional: computers have different functionality
 - e.g. clients vs. servers
 - Load distribution: work divided among computers
 - e.g. P2P, distributed computing systems (SETI@HOME)
 - Fault tolerance: replication
 - Accommodate a natural geographic distribution
 - e.g. weather stations, remote resources
 - Resource sharing
 - e.g. printer in a LAN
 - Economic: many computers cheaper than one big





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1. Heterogeneity

 Need to accommodate different computers, programming languages, operating systems, ...

2. Security

- Need for confidentiality, integrity, authentication across administrative domains, ...
- Out of the scope of this course

3. Global view

- Need to assemble <u>meaningful</u> global views of the system
- Some problems that we will cover in Module III:





a) Global time

- Only low accuracy system clock on each node
- Results in <u>clock skew</u> (two clocks, two times) and <u>clock</u> <u>drift</u> (two clocks, two count rates)
- i. Synchronize machines within a given bound with a master (with a UTC receiver) or with one another
- ii. Agree on the **order** in which events occur rather than the **time** at which they occurred

b) Global state

- Each process is independent
- Perfect clock synchronization is not feasible
- i. We need to assemble a <u>meaningful</u> global state from local states recorded at different real times





4. Coordination

- Need to coordinate actions in different machines, as they are running processes <u>concurrently</u> and <u>autonomously</u> (no single point of control)
- Some problems that we will cover in Module III:
- a) Mutual exclusion
 - Processes coordinate their accesses to some shared resource (critical section) using solely message passing
- b) Leader election
 - Election of a unique coordinator of a group of processes (many algorithms need a process to act as coordinator)





c) Atomic multicast

 Agree on which messages a group of processes receive and in which order. For instance, in a bulletin board:

Bulletin board: os.interesting			
Item	From	Subject	
23	A.Hanlon	Mach	
24	G.Joseph	Microkernels	
25	A.Hanlon	Re: Microkernels	
26	T.L'Heureux	RPC performance	
27	M.Walker	Re: Mach	
end			

d) Consensus

 A set of processes agree on some value after one or more of them have proposed what that value should be





5. Asynchrony

- Messages take (variable) time to be delivered
- This results on two types of distributed systems:
- A. Synchronous distributed systems
 - Process execution time, message delay and clock drift rate have known bounds
 - **Timeouts** can be used to detect <u>reliably</u> process failures, lost messages, ...
- B. Asynchronous distributed systems
 - Process execution time, message delay and clock drift rate <u>are not bounded</u>
 - No assumptions can be made about time intervals on any execution





6. Openness

- Interoperability
 - Components from different manufacturers can work together by merely relying on each other's services
- Portability
 - Component made for a given system can run unmodified on another one implementing the same interfaces
- Extensibility
 - Ability to add new components or replace existing ones without affecting those that stay in place
- ⇒ Offer services according to standard interfaces describing their semantics and syntax





7. Transparency

 Ability of a distributed system of presenting itself as a single computer system

Transparency	Description
Access	Enable local and remote objects to be accessed using identical operations by hiding differences in data representation and invocation mechanisms
Location	Enable objects to be accessed without knowledge of their physical location
Mobility	Allow the movement of objects and users within a system without affecting their operation
Replication	Allow multiple instances of an object to exist without knowledge of the replicas by users
Concurrency	Enable several users to operate concurrently on shared objects without interference between them
Failure	Mask from an object the failure and possible recovery of other objects





- Transparency may be set as a goal, but fully achieving it is a different story
 - A. There are communication latencies (due to distant locations) that cannot be hidden
 - B. Completely hiding failures is impossible
 - In asynchronous systems, you cannot distinguish a slow node from a failing one
 - C. Trade-off between transparency & performance
 - e.g. replication transparency requires keeping replicas up-to-date with the master copy
 - e.g. failure transparency tries repeatedly to contact a server before trying another one





- Transparency may be set as a goal, but fully achieving it is a different story
 - D. Exposing distribution could be good, especially when location is important
 - e.g. use of location-based services on mobile phones (finding your nearby friends or the nearest restaurant)
 - e.g. use a busy nearby printer rather than an idle one in another building
 - e.g. deal with users in different time zones





8. Fault tolerance

- A <u>failure</u> is any deviation of the observed behavior of a system from the specified behavior
- Failures on a single machine often affect the entire system
- Failures on distributed systems can be partial (only some nodes fail)
- A fault tolerant system is able to meet its specifications even with <u>partial failures</u>
- Important ability since the probability of failure grows with number of nodes in the system





Classification of failure models

Type of failure	Description
Crash failure Fail-stop crash Fail-silent crash	Process halts and remains halted Other processes can reliably detect the failure Other processes may not be able to detect the failure
Omission failure Receive omission Send omission	Sent message never arrives at the other end Process fails to receive incoming messages Process fails to send outgoing messages
Timing failure	Process response lies outside a specified time interval
Response failure Value failure State transition failure	Process response is incorrect The value of the response is wrong The process deviates from the correct flow of control
Arbitrary (Byzantine) failure	Process may produce arbitrary messages at arbitrary times, commit omissions, stop, or take incorrect steps





- Use failure detectors to know about <u>crash</u> failures of processes
 - They are generally based on the use of <u>timeouts</u>
 - Setting timeouts properly is not easy
- Two implementation options:
 - A. <u>Heartbeats</u>: I am alive!
 - B. Pinging: Are you alive?: Yes!
- How reliable are the detectors?
 - A. Unreliable
 - B. Reliable





A. Unreliable: a process can be ...

- Unsuspected: Recent evidence that the process has not failed
 - e.g. a message has recently received from it
- Suspected: Hint that the process may have failed
 - e.g. no messages from the process from a nominal maximum time

B. Reliable: a process can be <u>Unsuspected</u> or

- Failed: the detector has determined that the process has failed
- These are only possible in synchronous systems





- Hide the occurrence of failure from other processes using redundancy. Three types:
 - 1. <u>Information redundancy</u>
 - Add extra bits to allow for error detection/recovery
 - e.g. parity bits, cyclic redundancy checks (CRC)
 - 2. Physical redundancy
 - Replicate hardware and/or software
 - e.g. process replication
 - We will cover this in Module III
 - 3. <u>Time redundancy</u>
 - Retry an operation until a reply is received
 - e.g. remote method invocations





- Time redundancy works well if the operation is <u>idempotent</u>
 - Can be performed repeatedly with the same effect as if it had been performed exactly once
 - Pure read operations: e.g. loading a static web page
 - <u>Strict overwrite operations</u>: e.g. update your billing address in an online shop
 - What if the operation is non-idempotent?
 - e.g. electronic transfer of money
 - This requires adding 'Duplicate filtering' and 'Retransmission of results'
 - The server must be stateful





<u>Duplicate filtering</u>

- Client assigns a <u>unique identifier</u> to each request
- Server filters out duplicate requests to avoid reexecuting the operations

Retransmission of results

- Server keeps a <u>history</u> of prior results to resend lost replies without re-executing the operations
- How to avoid the history to become huge?
 - If clients can make only one request at a time, server can interpret each request as an ACK of its prior reply
 - History must contain only the last reply message
 - Messages are also discarded after a period of time





9. Scalability

- Ability to support the growing in the number resources/users, the distance between nodes, or the number of administrative domains
- A. Number of users and/or resources
 - Size scalability
- B. Maximum distance between nodes
 - Geographical scalability
- C. Number of administrative domains
 - Administrative scalability





Scaling problems

A. Size scalability

- 1. Centralized services and/or data
 - e.g. a single server providing a service becomes a bottleneck when the requests increase due to:
 - Limits on its computational capacity
 - Limits on its storage capacity and the I/O transfer rate between CPUs and disks
 - Limits on the network bandwidth with its users

2. Centralized algorithms

 e.g. optimal routing needs complete information about the load of all machines and lines. This information would overload the network





Scaling problems

B. Geographical scalability

- 1. Latency may easily prohibit synchronous clientserver interactions in wide-area networks (WAN)
- 2. Communication in WAN is less reliable and offers limited bandwidth
- 3. WAN lack support for multipoint communication

C. Administrative scalability

- 1. The various domains have to protect themselves against malicious attacks from each other
 - Components within a single domain can often be trusted by users within that domain





Scaling techniques

1. Hide communication latencies

- Use <u>asynchronous communication</u>
- Helpful to achieve geographical scalability
- ↓ Not every application can use this model
 - e.g. interactive applications

2. Partitioning and distribution

- Split data and/or computations and spread them across multiple computers
 - e.g. move computations to clients (Java applets)
 - e.g. decentralized naming services (DNS)
 - e.g. decentralized information systems (WWW)





Scaling techniques

3. Replication/caching

- Replicate components across the system
 - e.g. replicated web servers and databases
 - e.g. mirrored web sites
 - e.g. file and web caches (in browsers and proxies)
- Caching: decision is taken by client of a resource
- Having multiple copies leads to inconsistencies
 - Strong consistency requires global synchronization on each modification, which precludes large-scale solutions
 - Need for synchronization is reduced if we can tolerate some inconsistencies, but this is application dependent
- We will cover this in Module III





Scaling techniques

4. Use decentralized algorithms

- No machine has complete information about the system state
- Decisions based only on machine local information
- Failure of one machine does not ruin the algorithm
- No implicit assumption that a global clock exists
- e.g. routing in P2P systems





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 - Types of communication
 - Communication paradigms

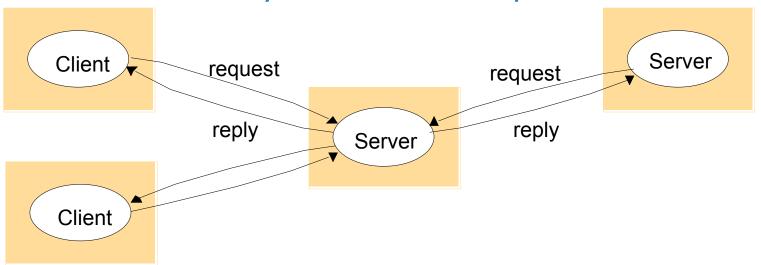




System architectures

A. Client-server architectures

- Servers offer services and clients use them
- Based in the <u>request-reply</u> behavior
- Traditional (and successful) model until now
- Some scalability and robustness problems







Client-server architectures

Clients

- Software combines user interfaces and solutions for achieving distribution transparency, e.g.:
 - Client-side stubs for remote method invocations
 - Invoke several replicas, pass a single response to client
 - Mask communication failures by retrying connections

Servers

- Sequential server serves one request at a time
 - Can service multiple requests by employing events and asynchronous communication
- Concurrent server spawns a process or thread for each request (can also use a pre-spawned pool)





Client-server architectures

Servers

- Stateless server does not keep data of its clients,
 and can change its state without informing clients
 - e.g. web server (but cookies can store client's info)
- Stateful server keeps track of status of its clients
 - e.g. file server allowing client caching
 - Better client-perceived performance but complicates server recovery from a crash
- Server can maintain a soft state for a limited time
- Servers can organize in <u>tiered architectures</u>
 - Servers may in turn be clients of other servers

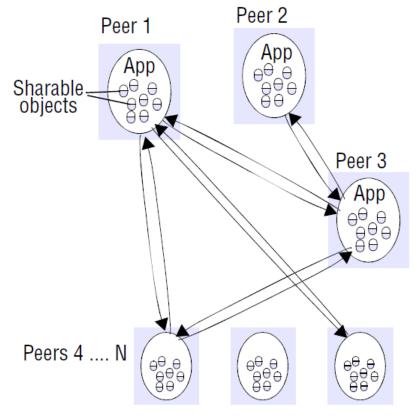




System architectures

B. Peer-to-peer architectures

- Removes distinction between clients and servers
 - Nodes symmetric in function
- Overlay network
 - Data is routed over connections set up between the nodes
- No centralized control
- High availability & scalability
- Resilience to failures







Peer-to-peer architectures

1. Structured Peer-to-Peer architectures

- Topology constructed deterministically
 - Nodes are organized following a specific distributed data structure and they are responsible for data items based only on their ID
 - Typically Distributed Hash Tables (DHT) (e.g. Chord)

2. Unstructured Peer-to-Peer architectures

- Topology based on randomized algorithms
 - Each node picks a random set of nodes and becomes their neighbor and data items are assumed to be randomly placed on nodes
 - e.g. Gnutella

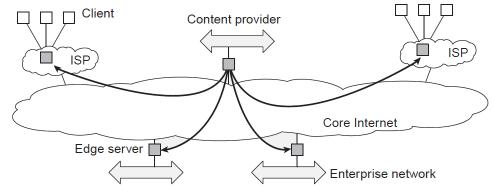




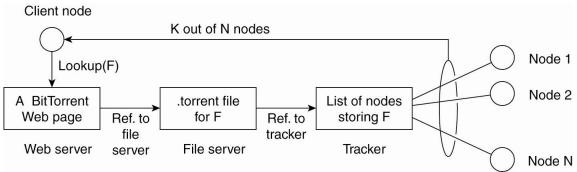
System architectures

C. Hybrid architectures

 Combination of client-server architectures with peer-to-peer solutions



e.g. edge-server systems (Content Distribution Networks)



e.g. collaborative systems (BitTorrent)





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A. Direct communication

- Senders explicitly direct messages/invocations to the associated receivers
- Senders must know receivers identity and both must exist at same time
- e.g. sockets, remote method invocations

B. Indirect communication

- Communication through an intermediary with no direct coupling between senders and receivers
- Indirect communication allows time and/or space decoupling between senders and receivers





A. Space decoupling

- Senders do not need to know who they are sending to
- e.g. event-based systems (publish-subscribe)

B. Time decoupling

- The sender and the receiver do not need to exist at the same time
- e.g. e-mail
- Time decoupling also allows distinguishing persistent from transient communications





A. Persistent communications

- The receiver does not need to be operational at the communication time
 - The message is **stored** at a communication server as long as it takes to deliver it at the receiver
- e.g. e-mail

B. Transient communications

- A message is **discarded** by a communication server as soon as it cannot be delivered at the next server, or at the receiver
- e.g. sockets, remote method invocations





A. Asynchronous communications

- The sender **continues** with other work immediately upon sending a message to the receiver
- e.g. publish-subscribe systems, e-mail

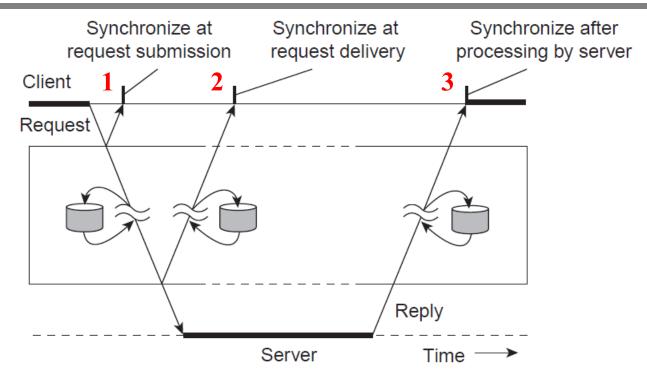
B. Synchronous communications

- The sender **blocks**, **waiting** for a reply from the receiver, before doing any other work
- This tends to be the default model for requestreply paradigms (e.g. RPC/RMI)





Synchronous communications



- 1. Submission-based: Block until the middleware notifies that it will take over transmission of the request
- 2. Delivery-based: Block until request is delivered to recipient
- 3. Response-based: Block until recipient replies with response





A. Discrete communications

- Exchange of 'independent' units of information
- Timing has no effect on correctness
- e.g. e-mail, remote method invocations

B. Continuous communications

- Messages are related to each other by the order they are sent, or by a <u>temporal</u> relationship
- Timing between data items must be preserved to interpret correctly the data
- e.g. streams (audio, video, ...)





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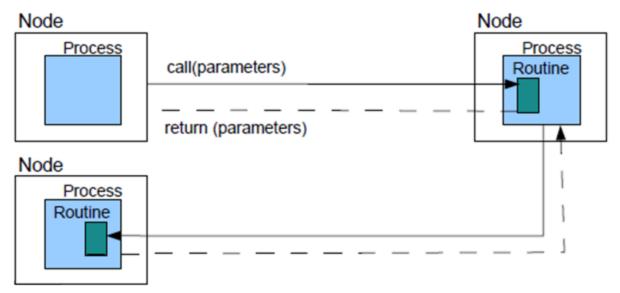
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Remote invocation

- <u>Transparent</u> extension to traditional programming: a node can call a function in another one as if it was local (e.g. RPC, RMI)
- <u>Direct</u>, <u>transient</u>, <u>synchronous</u> point-to-point interactions
- Middleware handles the marshaling/unmarshaling of parameters
- Protocol is sessionless and server is stateless about client
 - Function can change server's state, but client must maintain its state

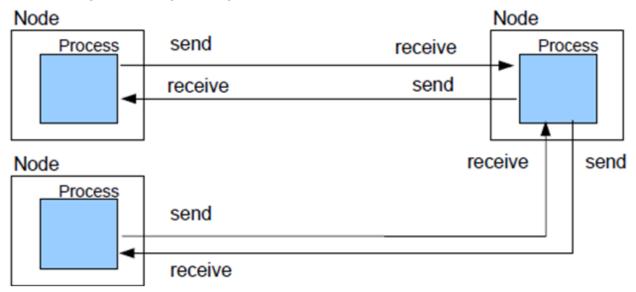






Message passing

- <u>Direct</u>, <u>transient</u> networked communication between processes
 - e.g. sockets, MPI
- Generally <u>synchronous</u> and point-to-point
 - MPI supports also non-blocking and multipoint communication
- It is not middleware mediated
- Lacks transparency: exposes the network characteristics/issues

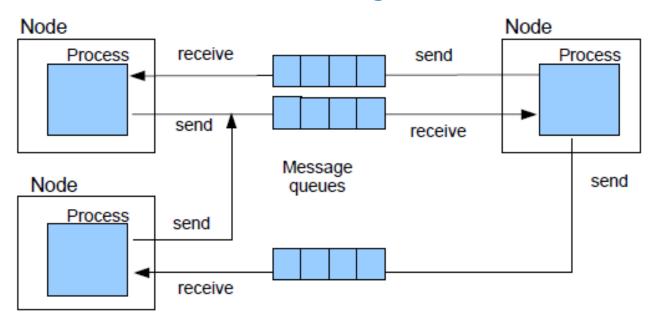






Message queuing

- Sender puts message into a queue, receiver gets it from queue
 - e.g. e-mail, Message Oriented Middleware (Apache ActiveMQ*, RabbitMQ*)
- <u>Persistent</u> and <u>asynchronous</u>, by means of message queues
- Point-to-point (sender ⇔ queue ⇔ receiver)
- Middleware stores/forwards messages

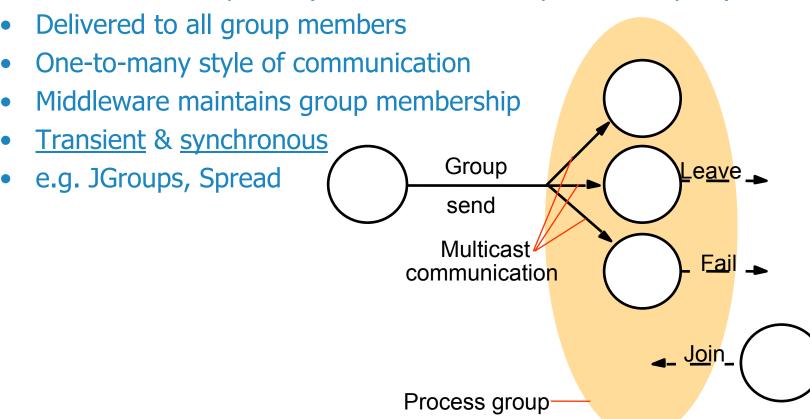






Group communication

 Messages sent to a group via the group identifier: do not need to know the recipients (communication is space decoupled)

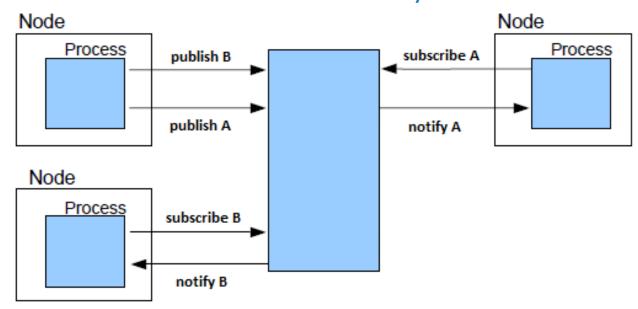






Publish-subscribe

- <u>Indirect</u>, <u>asynchronous</u> communication by propagating events
 - Producers publish structured events, consumers express interest in events through subscriptions (e.g. Apache Kafka, Apache ActiveMQ*, Scribe)
- One-to-many style of communication (<u>space decoupled</u>)
- Middleware efficiently matches subscriptions against published events and ensures the correct delivery of event notifications

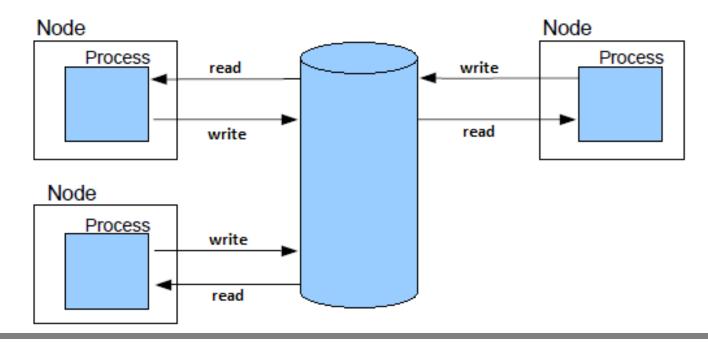






Shared data space

- <u>Persistent</u>, <u>asynchronous</u> communication using a shared storage
 - e.g. JavaSpaces, which also provides space decoupling by means of pattern matching on contents
- Post items to shared space; consumers pick up at a later time
- One-to-many style of communication

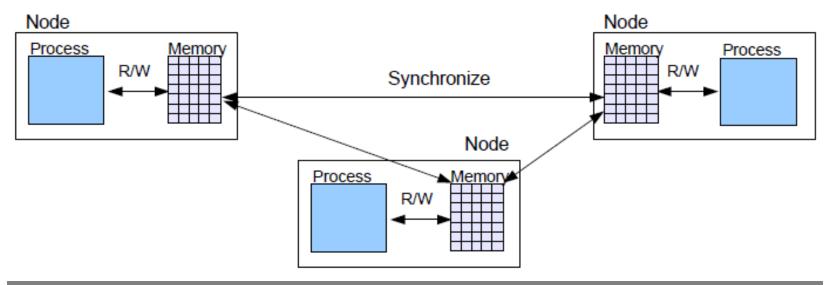






Shared memory

- Share data between processes as if they were in their own local address spaces (extend traditional parallel programming model)
 - e.g. distributed shared memory (DSM): Treadmarks, Linda, Orca
- <u>Indirect</u> (space decoupled) and <u>transient</u> communication
- Interaction is multipoint (many components share memory)
- Middleware synchronizes and maintains the consistency of data

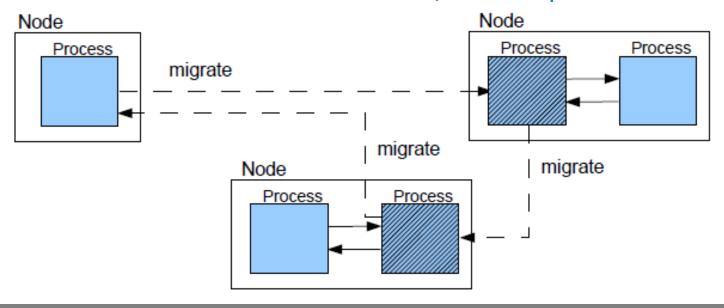






Mobile code / agents

- Code or running processes travel from one node to another and interact locally with other components
 - e.g. code: web applets, JavaScript, Flash, ActiveX
 - e.g. agent: Java Agent Development Framework (JADE), VM migration
- Local interactions are faster, but it is a potential security threat
- Middleware transfers code and saves/restores process state

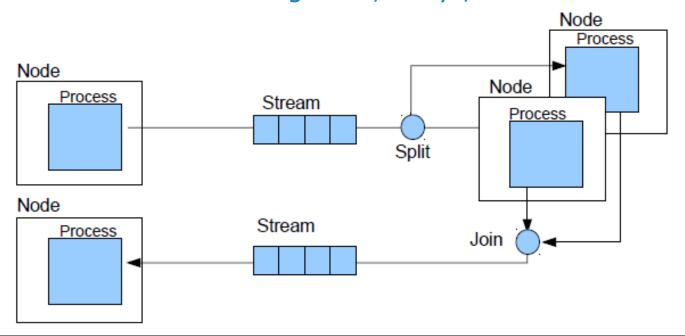






Stream oriented

- Processing of large sequences of <u>continuous</u> data streams
 - e.g. distributed multimedia applications (video, audio), sensor data
- <u>Direct</u>, <u>transient</u>, multipoint communication
- Middleware ensures <u>timing</u>, coordinates flows (splits, joins) and handles issues such as congestion, delays, and failures







Summary

- Definition/motivation for distributed systems
- <u>Challenges</u>: heterogeneity, no global view, security, coordination, asynchrony, openness, transparency, fault tolerance, scalability
- <u>System architectures</u>: client-server, peer-to-peer, hybrid
- <u>Communication types</u>: direct/indirect, space/time decoupling, persistent/transient, asynchronous/synchronous, discrete/continuous





Summary

 <u>Communication paradigms</u>: remote invocation, message passing, message queuing, group communication, publishsubscribe, shared data spaces, shared memory, mobile code/agents, streamoriented





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- Understand the fundamental concepts for building a distributed system from an algorithmic perspective
 - 1. Concepts underlying distributed systems
 - 2. Distributed algorithms
 - A. Time and global states
 - B. Coordination and agreement
 - 3. Distributed shared data
 - A. Distributed transactions
 - B. Consistency and replication





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