

Lecture 3

Distributed Hash Tables (1)

Overlay Networks, Decentralized Systems and Their Applications

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0. Lecture Overview

1. Distributed Management and Retrieval of Data

1. Comparison of strategies for data retrieval
2. Central server
3. Flooding search
4. Distributed indexing
5. Comparison of lookup concepts

2. Fundamentals of Distributed Hash Tables

1. Distributed management of data
2. Addressing in Distributed Hash Tables
3. Routing
4. Data Storage

3. DHT Mechanisms

1. Node Arrival
2. Node Failure / Departure

4. DHT Interfaces

1. Comparison: DHT vs. DNS
2. Summary: Properties of DHTs

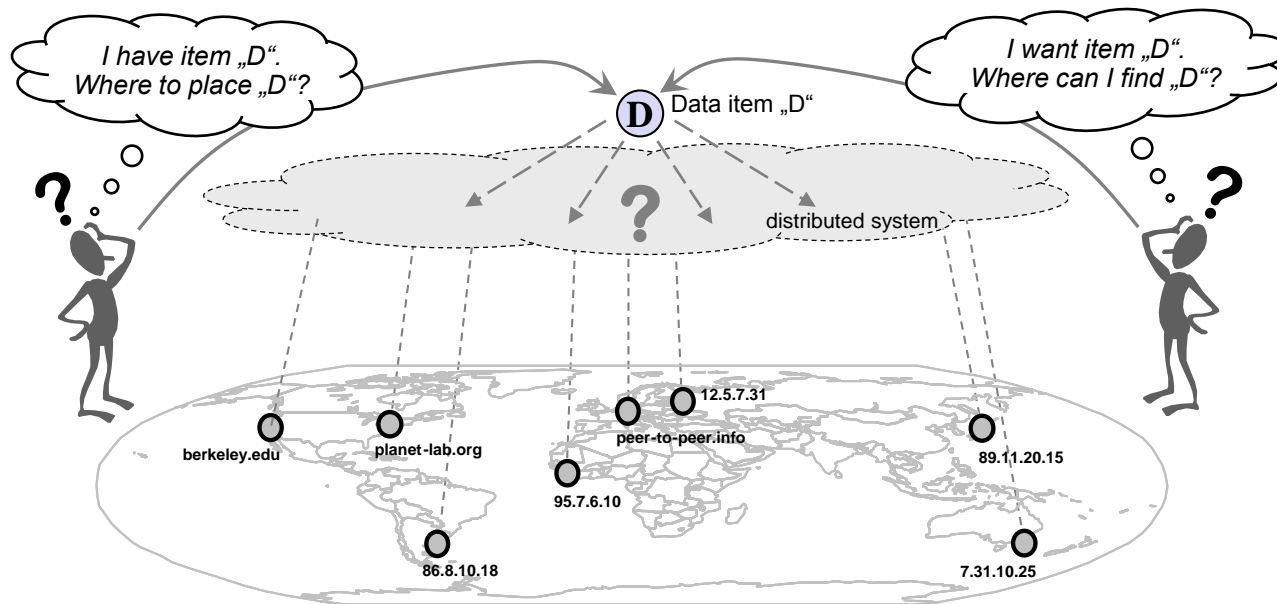
5. Routing and API

1. Routing Information
2. Routing Procedure
3. Node Addition and Failure
4. Common API
5. TomP2P

1. Distributed Management and Retrieval of Data

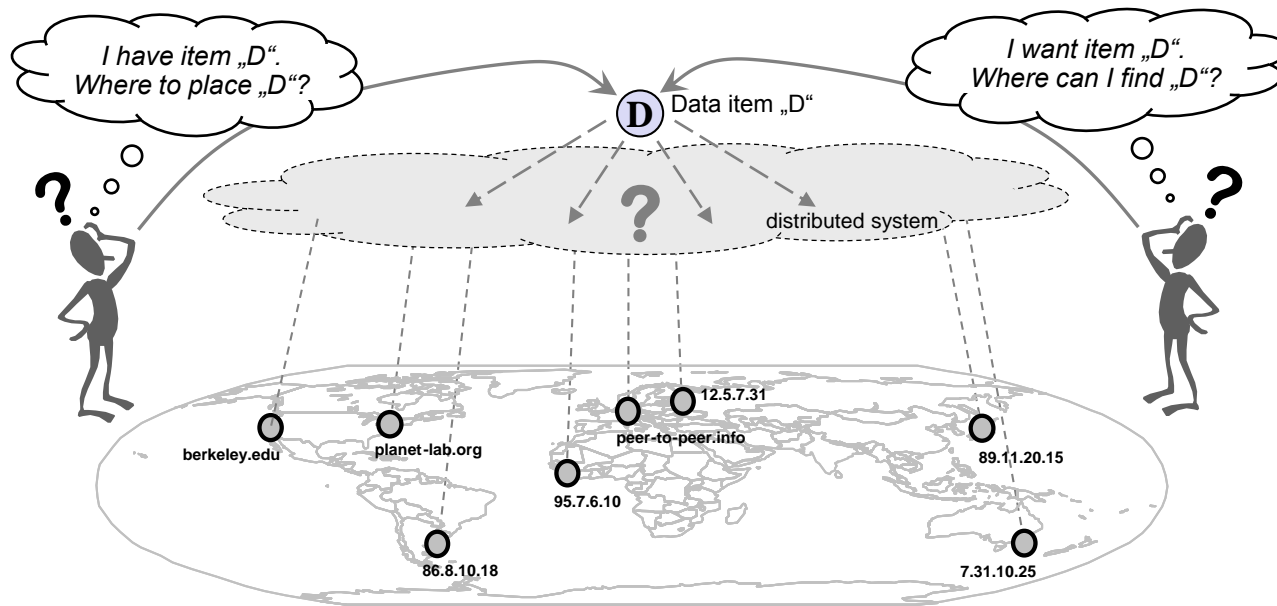
**Comparison of Strategies:
Central Server, Flooding, Distributed Indexing**

1. Distributed Management and Retrieval of Data



- **Essential challenge** in (most) Peer-to-Peer systems?
 - ▶ Location of a data item among systems distributed
 - Where shall the item be stored by the provider?
 - How does a requester find the actual location of an item?
 - ▶ **Scalability**: keep the complexity for communication and storage scalable
 - ▶ **Robustness** and **resilience** in case of faults and frequent changes

1.1. Comparison of Strategies for Data Retrieval



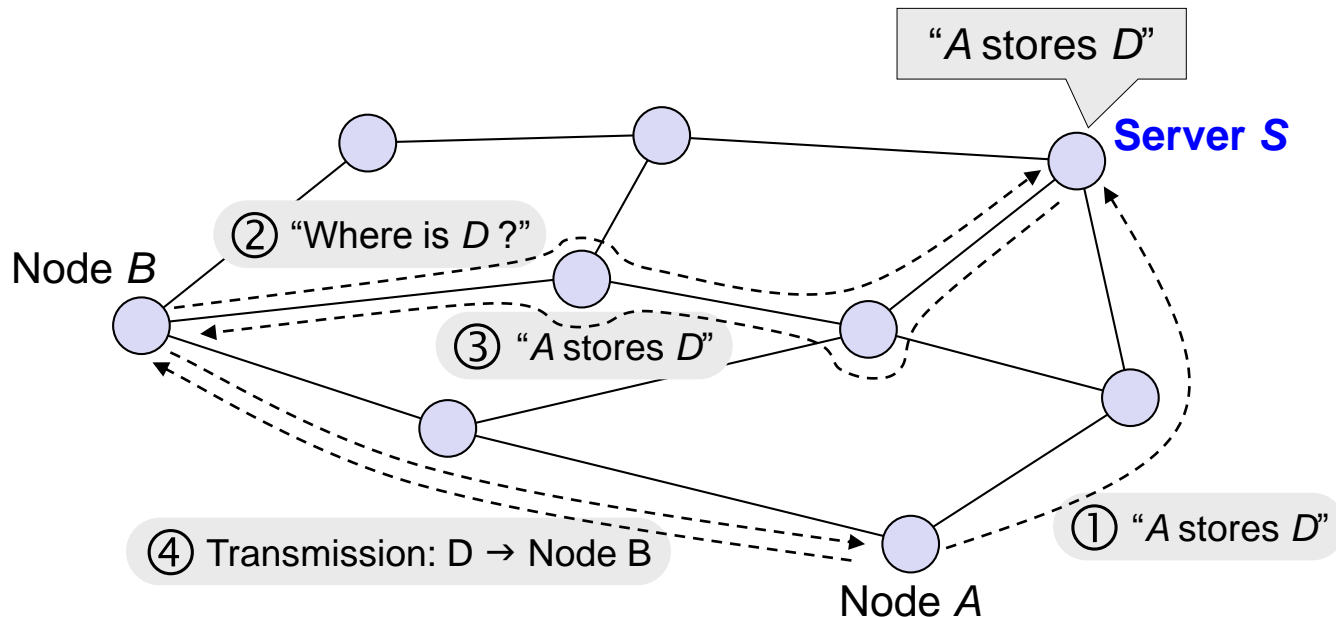
- Strategies to store and retrieve data items in distributed systems
 - ▶ Central server
 - ▶ Flooding search
 - ▶ Distributed indexing

1.2. Approach I: Central Server (1)

- Simple strategy: **Central Server**

- ▶ Server stores information about locations

- ① Node A (provider) tells server that it stores item D
- ② Node B (requester) asks server S for the location of D
- ③ Server S tells B that node A stores item D
- ④ Node B requests item D from node A



1.2. Approach I: Central Server (2)

- **Advantages**

- ▶ Search complexity of $O(1)$ – *“just ask the server”*
- ▶ Complex and fuzzy queries are possible (i.e. not only exact match queries)
- ▶ Simple and fast

- **Problems**

- ▶ No Scalability
 - $O(N)$ node state in server
 - $O(N)$ network and system load of server
- ▶ Single point of failure or attack (also for lawsuits, or not ;-)
- ▶ Central server not suitable for systems with massive numbers of users

- **But overall, ...**

- ▶ Best principle for small and simple applications!

1.3. Approach II: Flooding Search (1)

- **Fully-distributed Approach**

- ▶ Central systems are vulnerable and do not scale
- ▶ Unstructured Peer-to-Peer systems follow opposite approach
- ▶ No information on location of a content

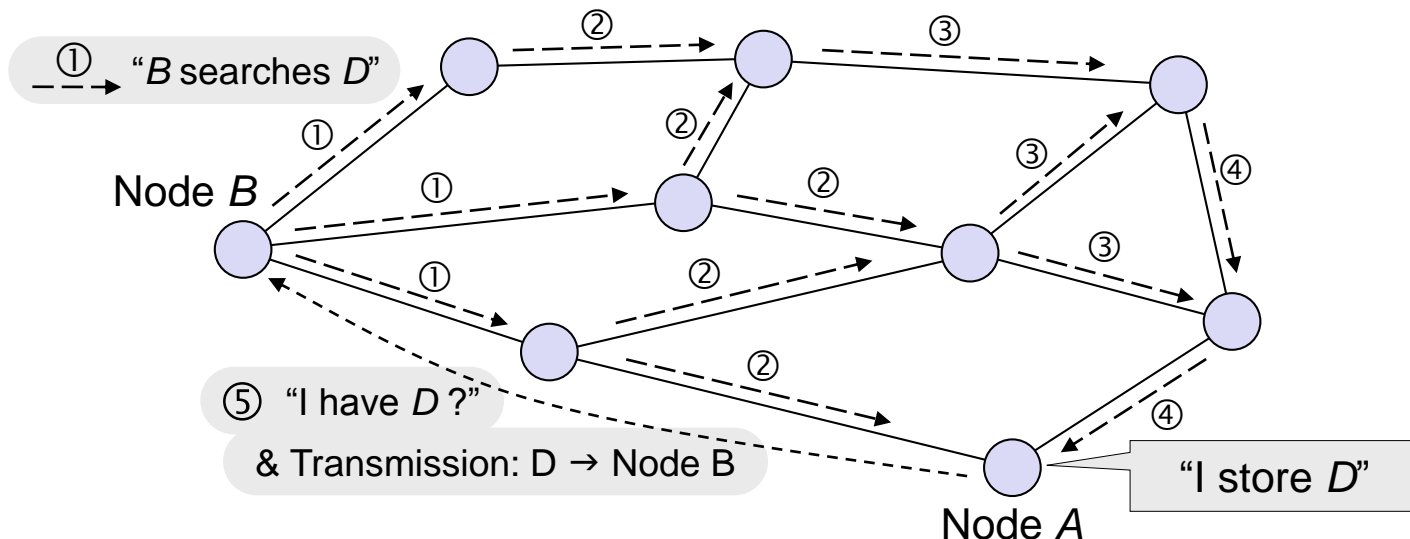
- **Retrieval of data**

- ▶ No routing information for content
- ▶ Necessity to ask as much systems as possible / necessary
- ▶ Approaches
 - Flooding: high traffic load on network, does not scale
 - Highest degree search: quick search through large areas – large number of messages needed for unique identification

1.3. Approach II: Flooding Search (2)

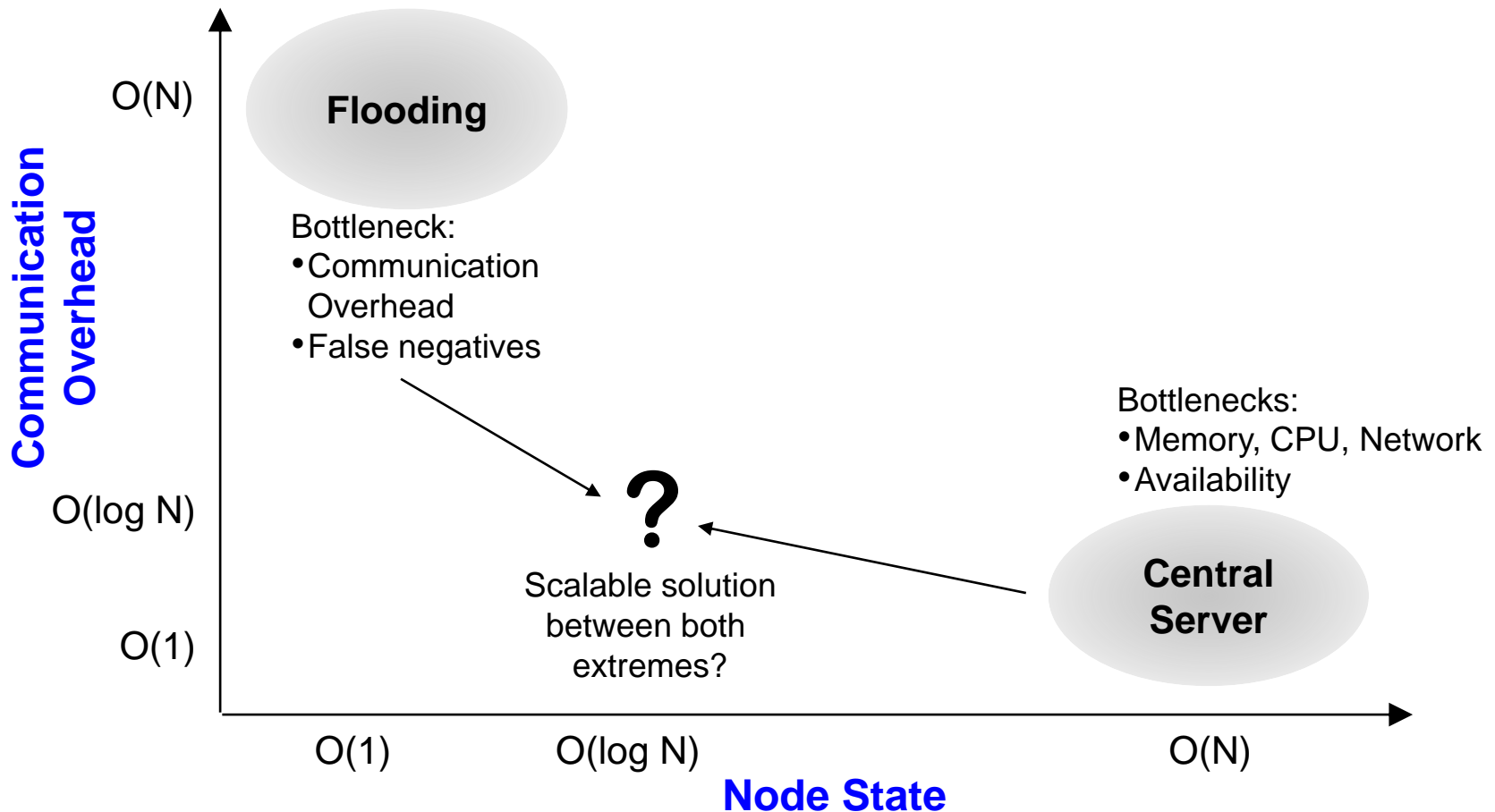
- **Fully Decentralized Approach: Flooding Search**

- ▶ No information about location of data in the intermediate systems
- ▶ Necessity for broad search
 - ① Node B (requester) asks neighboring nodes for item D
 - ②-④ Nodes forward request to further nodes (breadth-first search / flooding)
 - ⑤ Node A (provider of item D) sends D to requesting node B



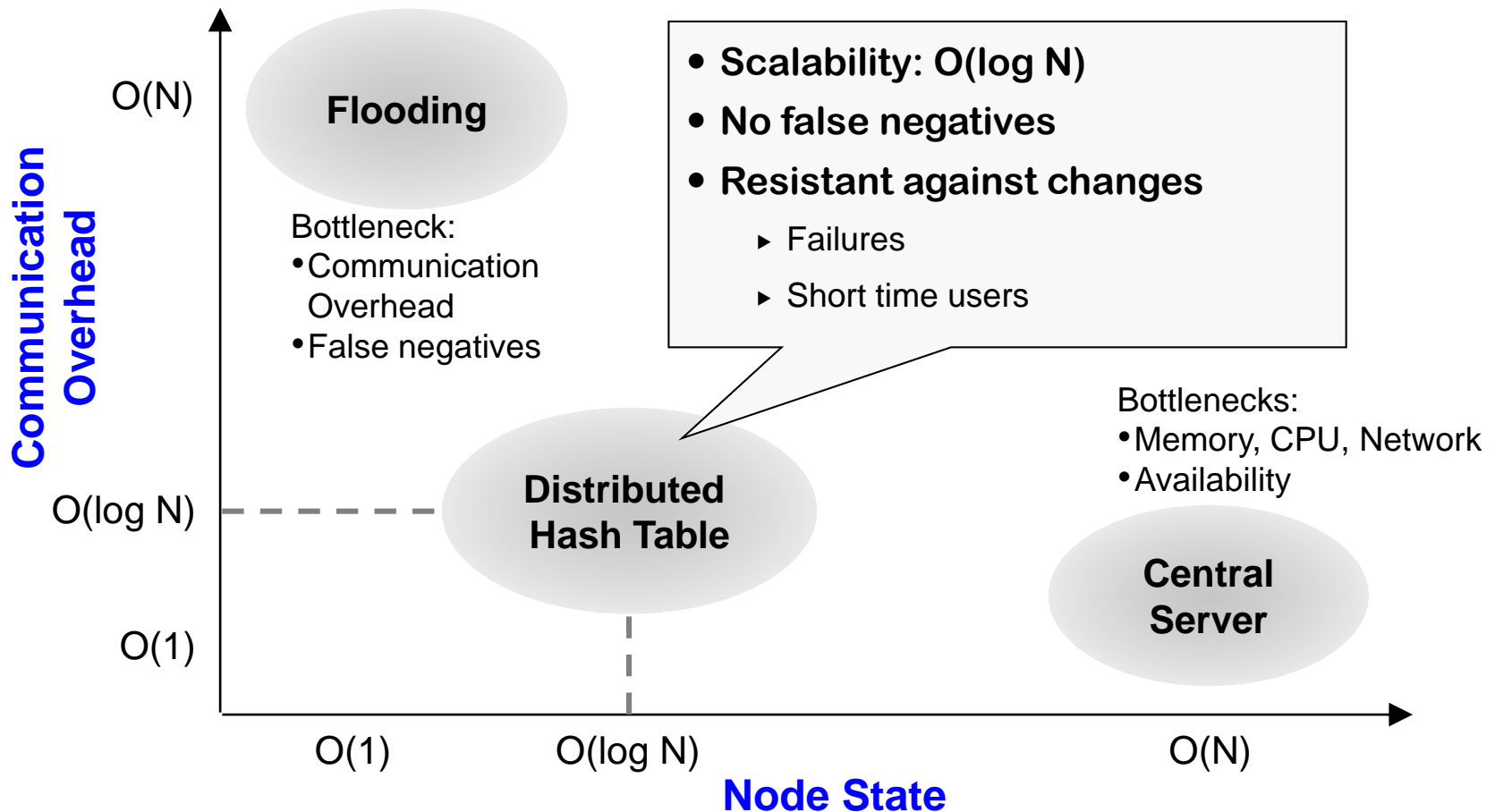
1.4. Motivation Distributed Indexing (1)

- **Communication overhead vs. node state**



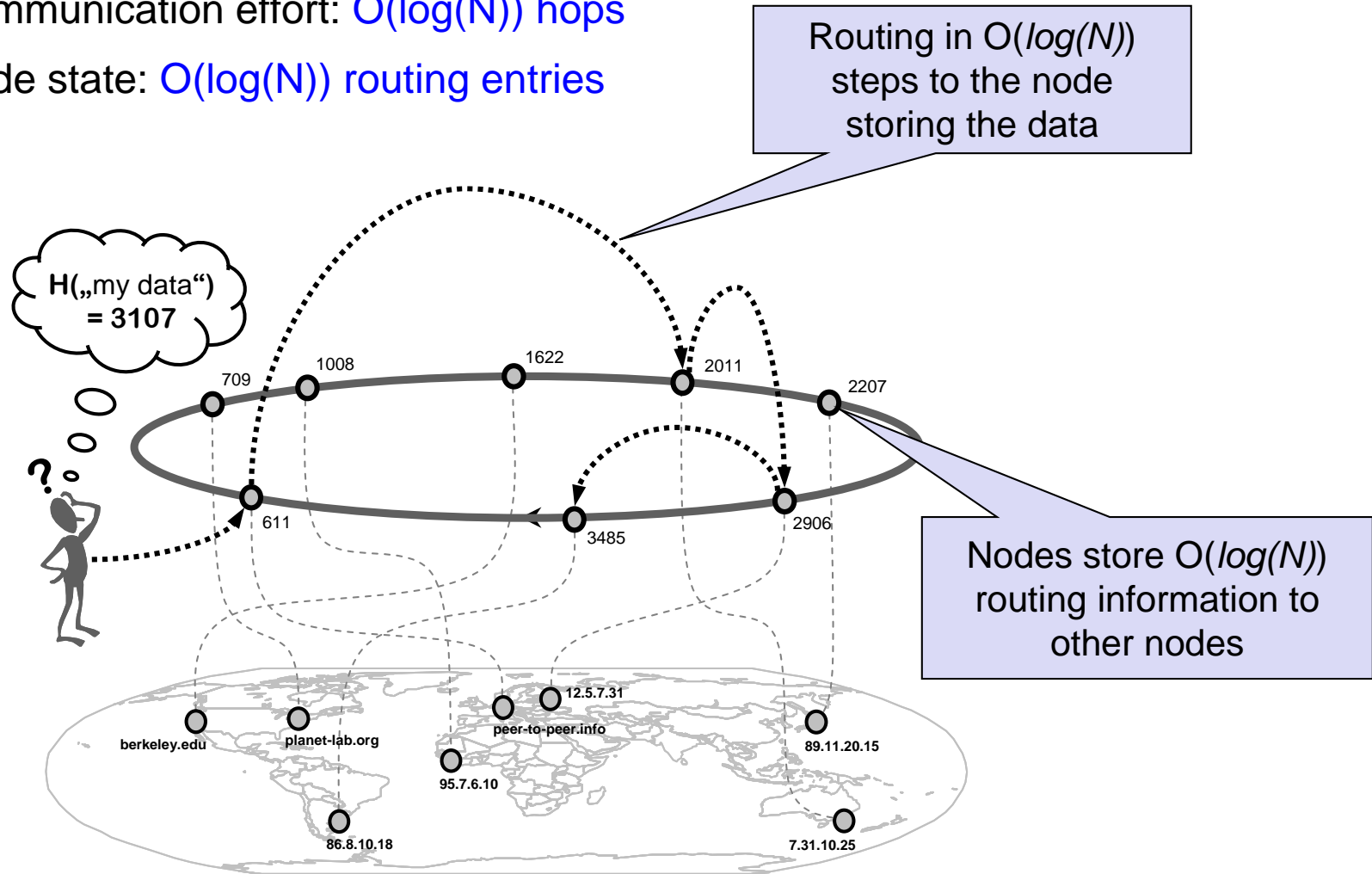
1.4. Motivation Distributed Indexing (2)

- **Communication overhead vs. node state**



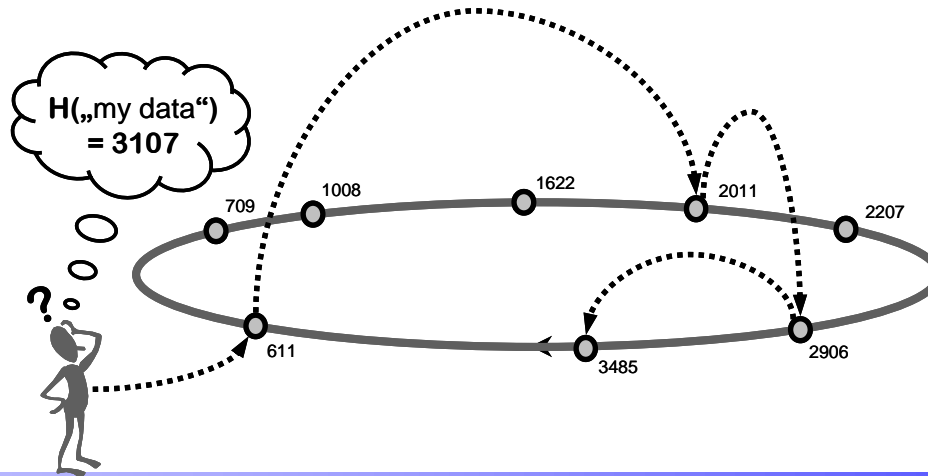
1.4. Distributed Indexing (1)

- Goal is scalable complexity for
 - ▶ Communication effort: $O(\log(N))$ hops
 - ▶ Node state: $O(\log(N))$ routing entries



1.4. Distributed Indexing (2)

- **Approach of distributed indexing schemes**
 - ▶ Data and nodes are mapped into same address space
 - ▶ nodes maintain routing information to other nodes
 - Definitive statement of existence of content
- **Problems**
 - ▶ Maintenance of routing information required
 - ▶ Fuzzy queries not primarily supported (e.g., wildcard searches)



1.5. Comparison of Lookup Concepts

System	Per Node State	Communication Overhead	Fuzzy Queries	No false negatives	Robustness
Central Server	$O(N)$	$O(1)$	✓	✓	✗
Flooding Search	$O(1)$	$O(N)$	✓	✗	✓
Distributed Hash Tables	$O(\log N)$	$O(\log N)$	✗	✓	✓

2. Fundamentals of Distributed Hash Tables

**Distributed Data Management
Addressing, Routing, Data Storage**

2. Fundamentals of Distributed Hash Tables

- **Challenges for designing DHTs**

- ▶ **Desired Characteristics**
 - Reliability / Scalability
- ▶ **Equal distribution of content among nodes**
 - Crucial for efficient lookup of content
- ▶ **Permanent adaptation to faults, joins, exits of nodes**
 - Assignment of responsibilities to new nodes
 - Re-assignment and re-distribution of responsibilities in case of node failure or departure

2.1 Hash Table vs. Distributed Hash Table

- **Hash Table**

- ▶ $\text{Bucket} = \text{hash}(x) \bmod n$
- ▶ If n changes, remapping / bucket changes
- ▶ N changes if capacity is reached
 - `HashMap.class: static final float DEFAULT_LOAD_FACTOR = 0.75f;`
- ▶ Remapping is expensive in DHT!
 - **Why?**

- **Distributed Hash Table**

- ▶ Consistent hashing → nodes responsible for **hash value intervals**
- ▶ More peers = smaller responsible intervals

2.1. Distributed Management of Data

Sequence of operations

1. Mapping of nodes and data into same address space

- ▶ Peers and content are addressed using flat identifiers (IDs)
- ▶ Common address space for data and nodes
- ▶ Nodes are responsible for data in certain parts of the address space
- ▶ Association of data to nodes may change since nodes may disappear

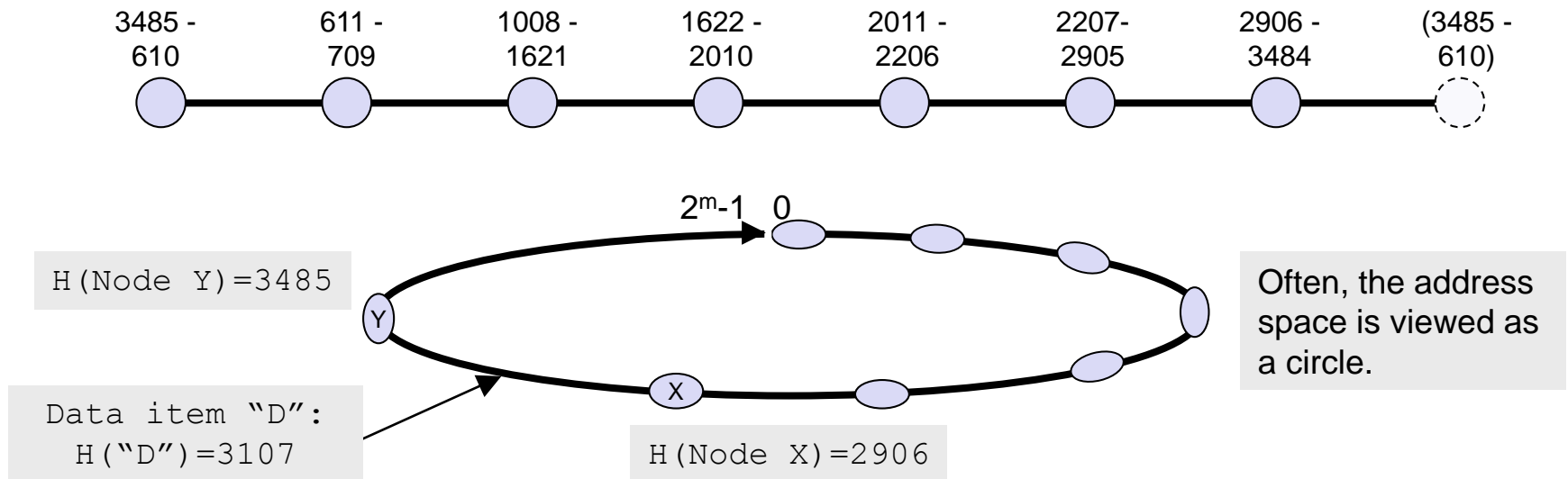
2. Storing / Looking up data in the DHT

- ▶ Search for data = routing to the responsible node
 - Responsible node not necessarily known in advance
 - Node state $O(n)$ vs. $O(\log n)$

2.2. Addressing in Distributed Hash Tables

- **Step 1: Mapping of content/nodes into linear space**

- ▶ Usually: $0, \dots, 2^m - 1 \gg$ number of objects to be stored
- ▶ Mapping of data and nodes into an address space (with hash function)
 - E.g., $\text{Hash}(\text{String}) \bmod 2^m$: $H(\text{"my data"}) \rightarrow 2313$
- ▶ Association of parts of address space to DHT nodes

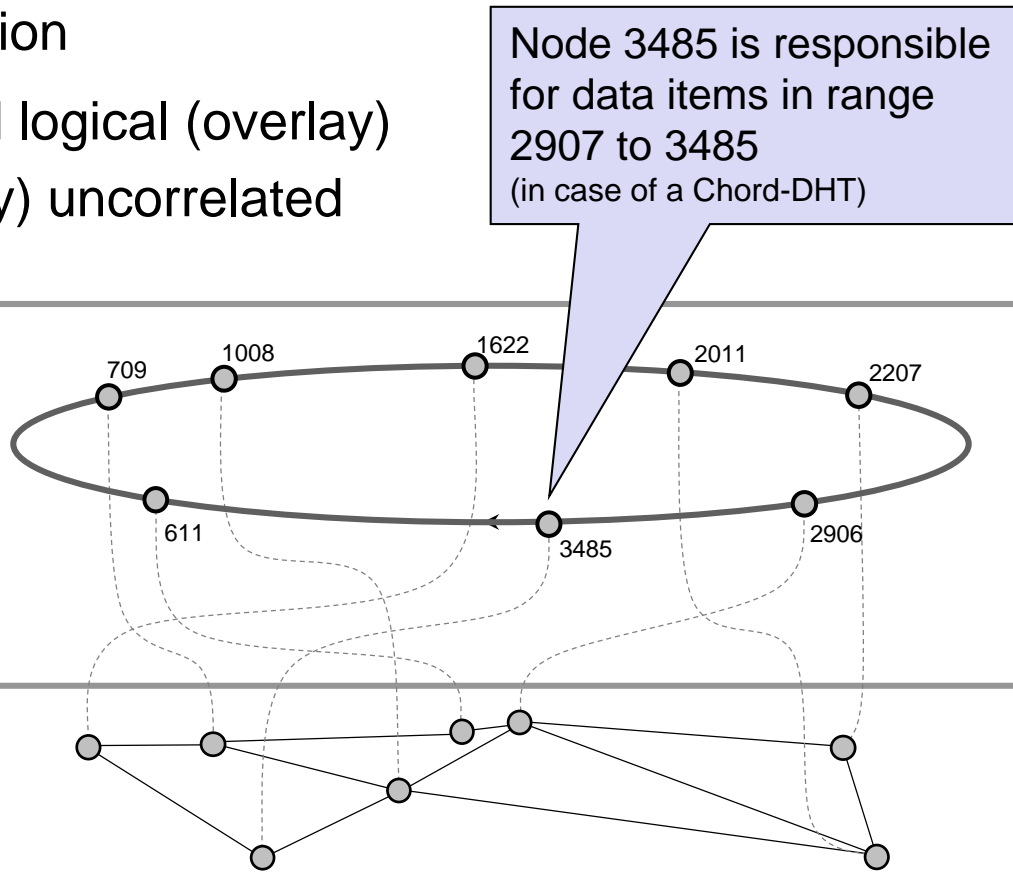


2.2. Association of Address Space with Nodes

- Each node is responsible for part of the value range
 - ▶ Often with redundancy (overlapping of parts)
 - ▶ Continuous adaptation
 - ▶ Real (underlay) and logical (overlay) topology are (mostly) uncorrelated

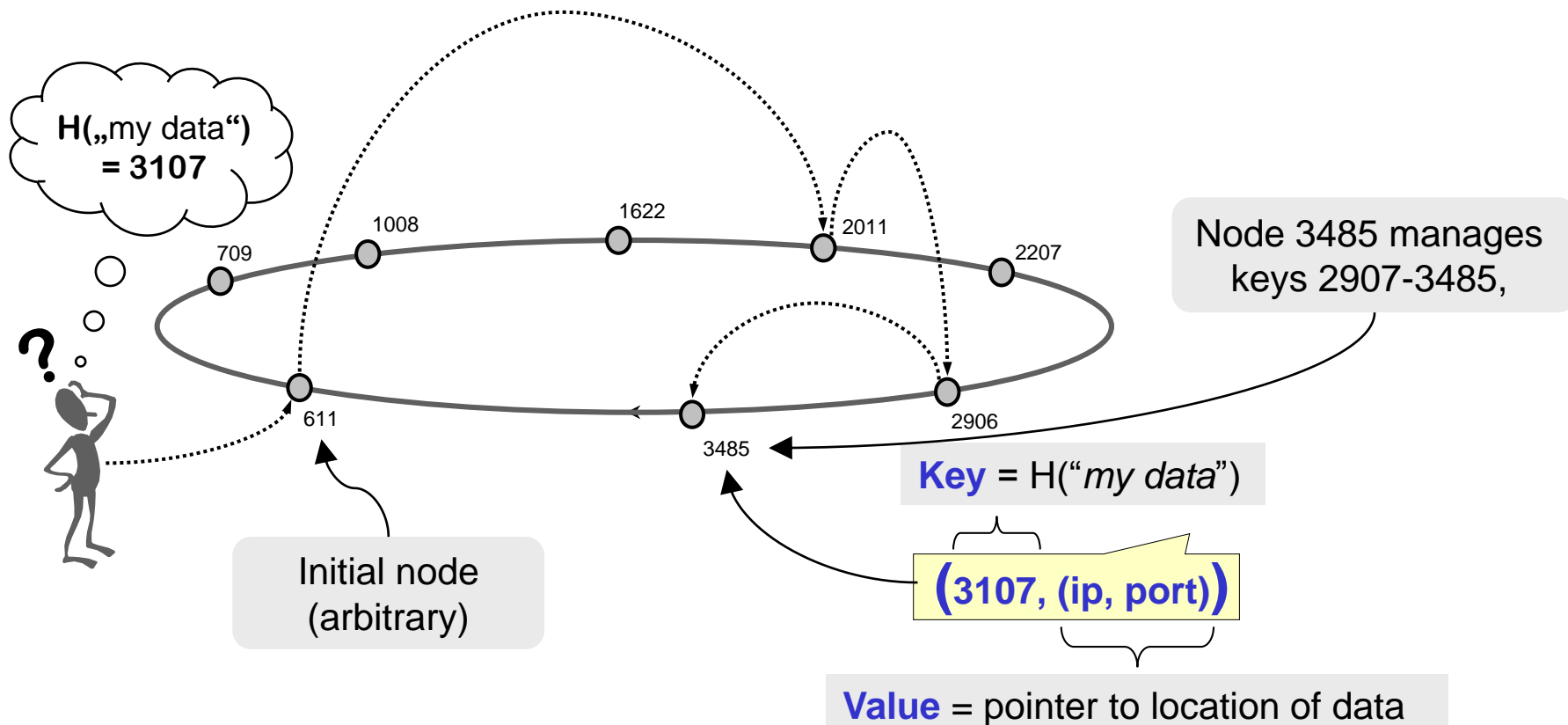
Logical view of the Distributed Hash Table

Mapping on the real topology



2.3. Step 2: Routing to a Data Item (2)

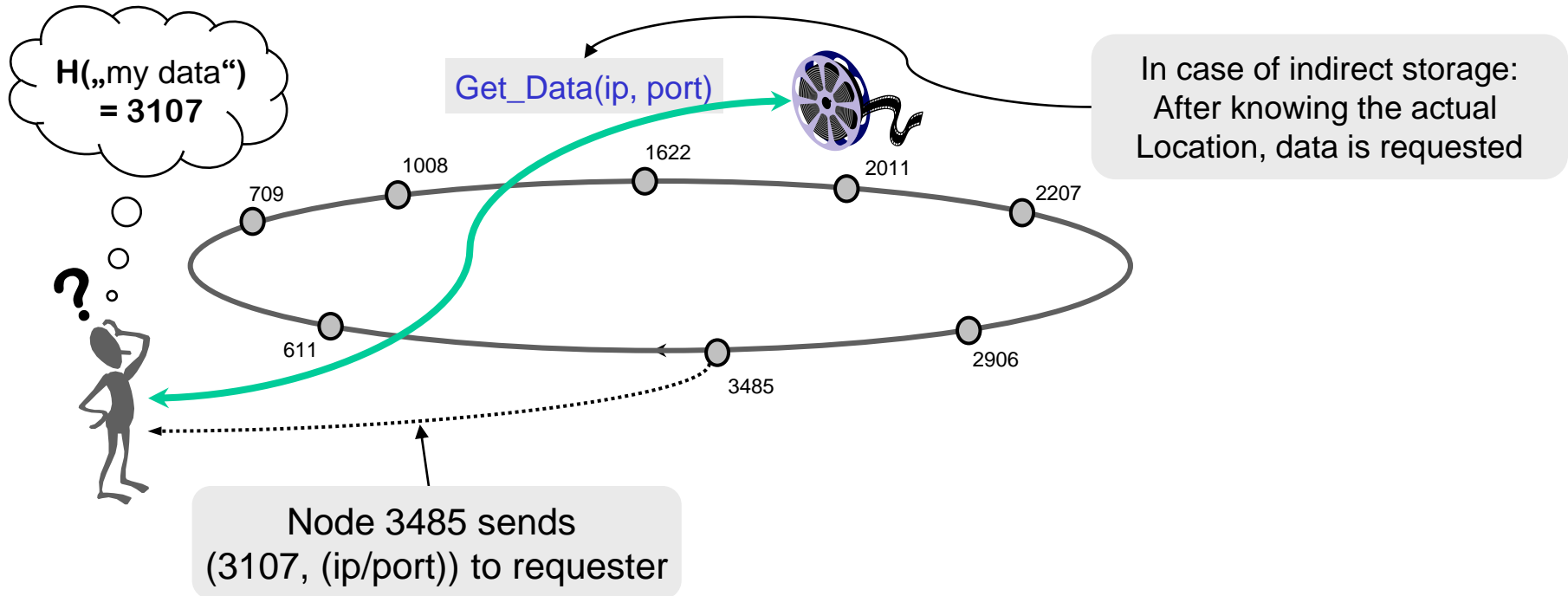
- Step 2: **Locating the data** / Routing to a K/V-pair
 - ▶ Start lookup at arbitrary node of DHT
 - ▶ Routing to requested data item (key)



2.3. Step 2: Routing to a Data Item (3)

- **Getting the content**

- ▶ K/V-pair is delivered to requester
- ▶ Requester analyzes K/V-tuple
(and downloads data from actual location – in case of indirect storage)



2.4. Association of Data with IDs – Direct Storage

- How is content stored on the nodes?

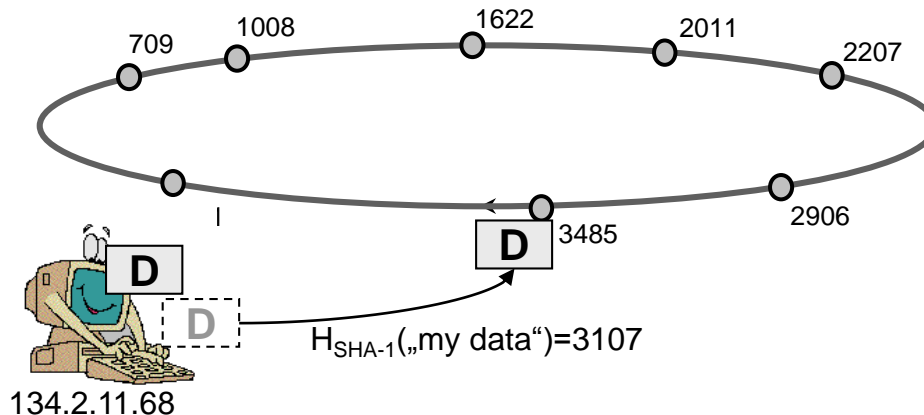
- ▶ Example:

$H(\text{"my data"}) = 3107$ is mapped into DHT address space

- Direct storage

- ▶ Content is stored in responsible node for $H(\text{"my data"})$

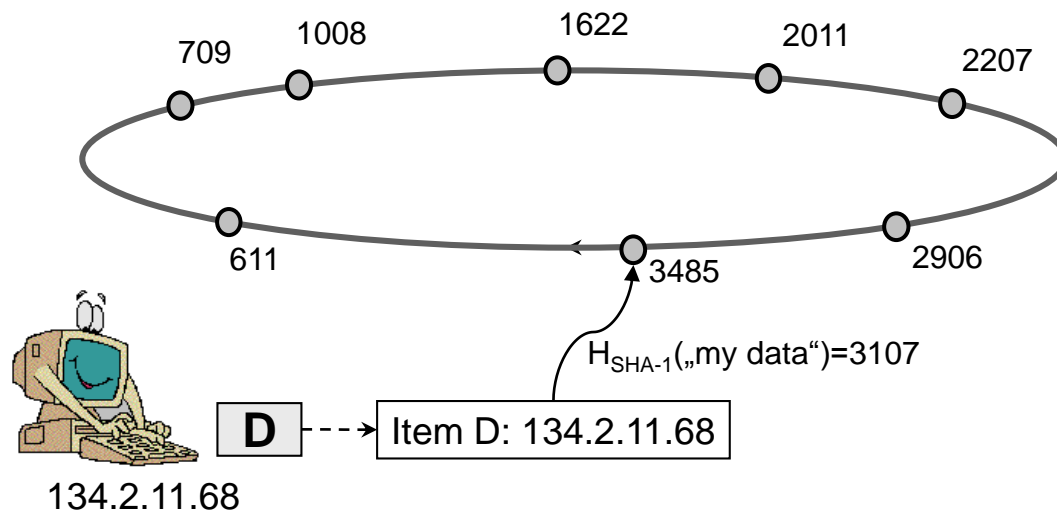
→ **Inflexible** for large content – o.k., if small amount data (~KB)



2.4. Association of Data with IDs – Indirect Storage

- Indirect storage

- ▶ Nodes in a DHT store tuples like (key,value)
 - Key = Hash(„my data“) → 2313
 - Value is often real storage address of content:
(IP, Port) = (134.2.11.140, 4711)
- ▶ More flexible, but one step more to reach content



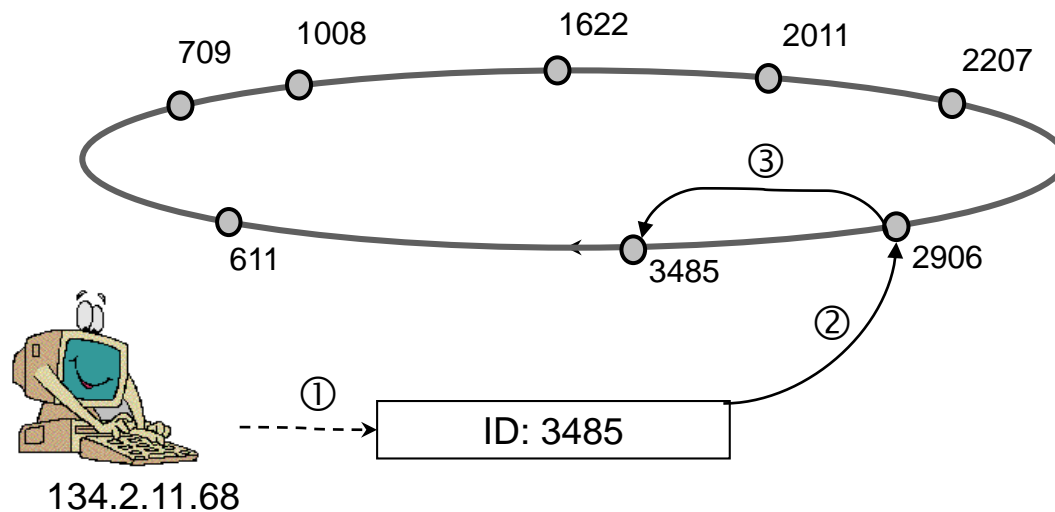
3. DHT Mechanisms

Node Arrival
Node Failure / Departure

3.1. Node Arrival

- **Joining of a new node**

1. Calculation of node ID (normally random / or based on PK)
2. New node contacts DHT via arbitrary node (bootstrap node)
3. Binding into routing environment
4. Copying of K/V-pairs of hash range (replication)



3.2. Node Failure / Departure

- **Failure of a node**

- ▶ Use of redundant K/V pairs (if a node fails)
- ▶ Use of redundant / alternative routing paths
- ▶ Key-value usually still retrievable if at least one copy remains

- **Departure of a node**

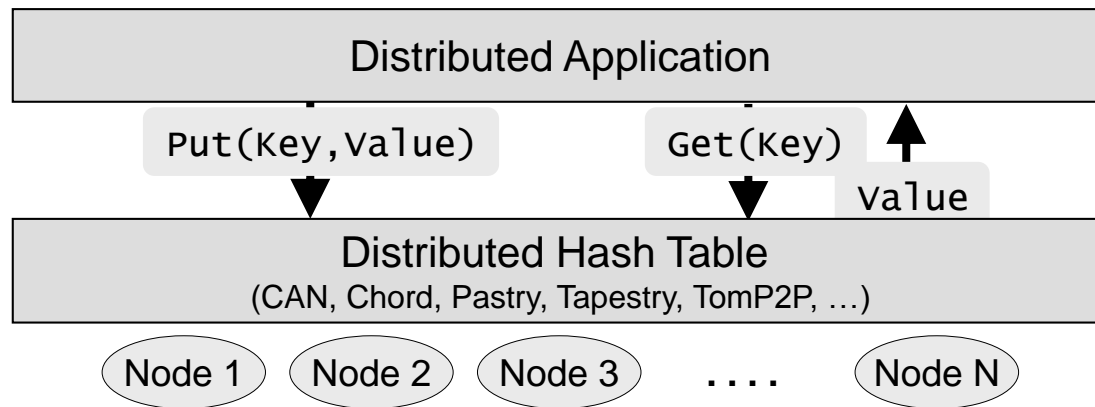
- ▶ Copying of K/V pairs to corresponding nodes
 - Can be before or after unbinding
- ▶ Friendly unbinding from routing environment
 - If unbinding is unfriendly, need for keep-alive messages

4. DHT Interfaces

Comparison: DHT vs. DNS
Summary: Properties of DHTs

4. DHT Interfaces

- **Generic interface of distributed hash tables**
 - ▶ Provisioning of information
 - `Put(key,value)`
 - ▶ Requesting of information (search for content)
 - `Get(key)`
 - ▶ Reply
 - `Value`
- **DHT approaches are interchangeable (with respect to interface)**



4.1. Comparison: DHT vs. DNS (1)

- **Comparison DHT vs. DNS**

- ▶ Traditional name services follow fixed mapping
 - DNS maps a logical node name to an IP address
- ▶ DHTs offer flat / generic mapping of addresses
 - Not bound to particular applications or services
 - „*value*“ in *(key, value)* may be
 - an address
 - a document
 - or other data ...

4.1. Comparison: DHT vs. DNS (2)

Domain Name System

- ▶ Mapping:
Symbolic name → IP address
- ▶ Is built on a hierarchical structure with root servers
- ▶ Specialized to search for computer names and services

Distributed Hash Table

- ▶ Mapping: key → value
can easily realize DNS
- ▶ Does not need a special server
- ▶ Can find data that are independently located of computers

4.2. Summary: Properties of DHTs

- **Use of routing information for efficient search for content**
- **Keys are evenly distributed across nodes of DHT**
 - ▶ No bottlenecks
 - ▶ A continuous increase in number of stored keys is admissible
 - ▶ Failure of nodes can be tolerated
 - ▶ Survival of some attacks possible
- **Self-organizing system**
- **Simple and efficient realization**
- **Supporting a wide spectrum of applications**
 - ▶ Flat (hash) key without semantic meaning
 - ▶ Value depends on application

4.3. DHT Implementations

- **Examples of generic Distributed Hash Tables**
 - ▶ Pastry ([freepastry](#), v2.1, 13.3.2009)
Microsoft Research, Rice University
 - ▶ [Chord](#) (v1.0.5, 11.4.2008)
UC Berkeley, MIT
 - ▶ Tapestry ([chimera](#) 1.20 ~2007)
UC Berkeley
 - ▶ CAN (~2001)
UC Berkeley, ICSI
 - ▶ [P-Grid](#) (v3.2.0_822, 25.11.2008)
EPFL Lausanne
 - ▶ [TomP2P](#) (v5b4, 19.2.2015)
- ... and there are plenty of [others](#)...

5. Routing and API

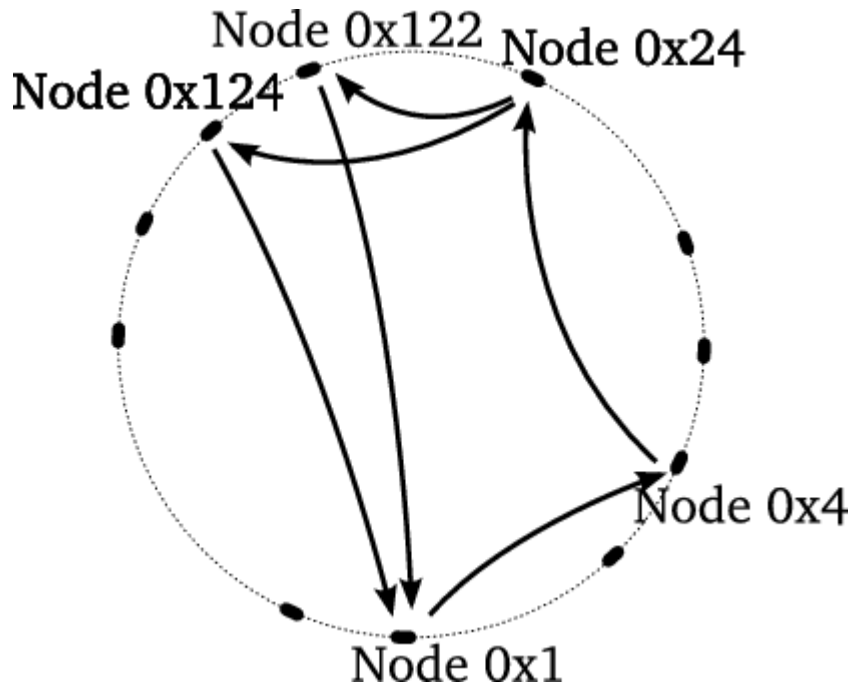
**Routing Information, Routing Procedure,
Node Addition and Failure, Common API,
TomP2P**

5.5 Fundamental Concepts

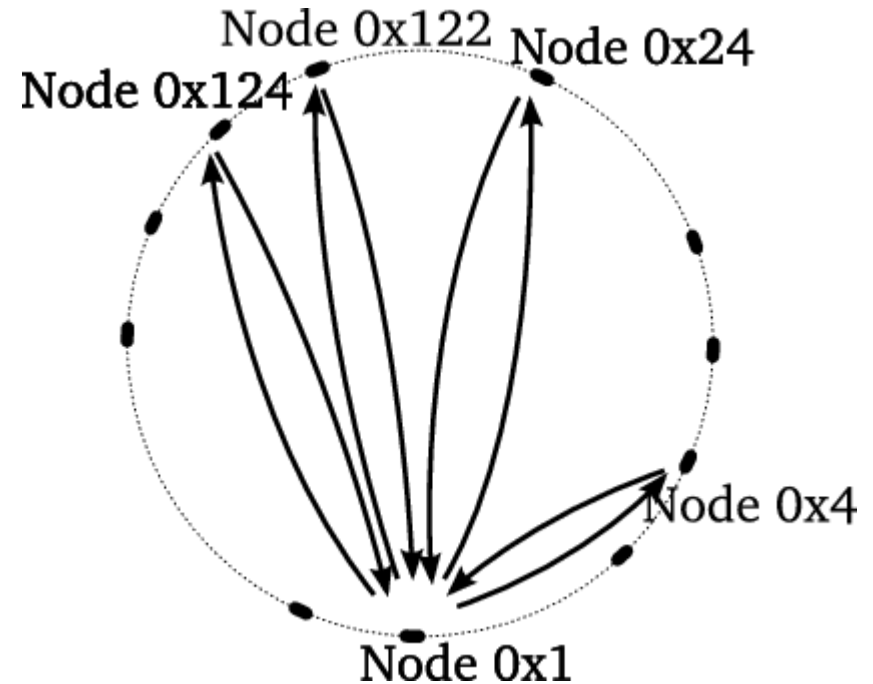
- Recursive routing

vs.

- iterative routing



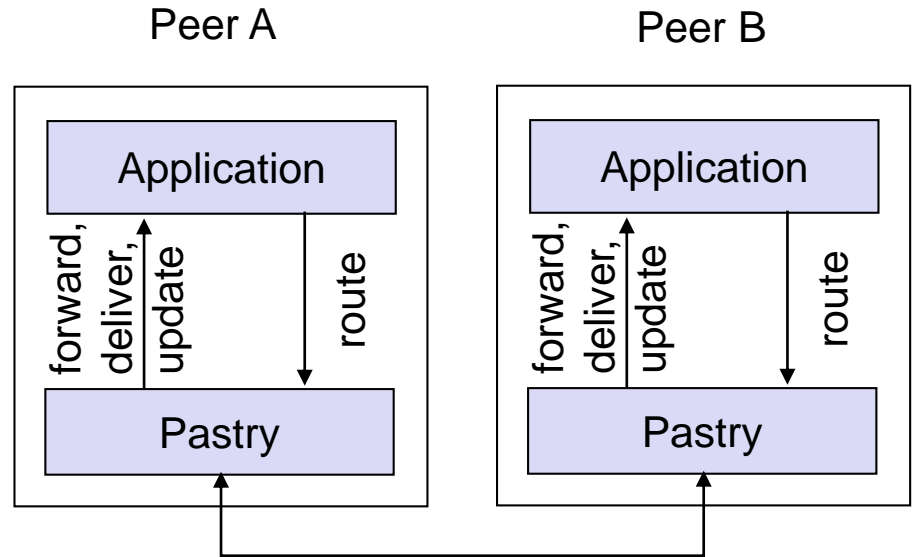
- + online status update
- no tracking of progress



- + control
- neighbor maintenance

5.5. Common API for Structured P2P Overlays (rec.)

- **Standardized interface between applications and overlays using recursive routing**
 - ▶ Implemented by Pastry, others implement it too (Chord, Tapestry, CAN)
- **forward(RouteMessage)**
 - ▶ Called just before a message is forwarded
 - ▶ Message could be changed or dropped
- **deliver(Id, Message)**
 - ▶ Called when a message is received
- **update(NodeHandle, boolean)**
 - ▶ Called when a node's leafset changes (node joined or left)
- **route(Id, Message)**
 - ▶ Send a message to a node numerically closest to an Id (key)



5.5. Common API for Structured P2P Overlays (iterative)

- **Standardized interface between applications and overlays using iterative routing**

- ▶ Implemented by TomP2P, others implement it too

- **bootstrap (ip)**

- ▶ Called when a node wants to join the network (route)

- **put (id, message)**

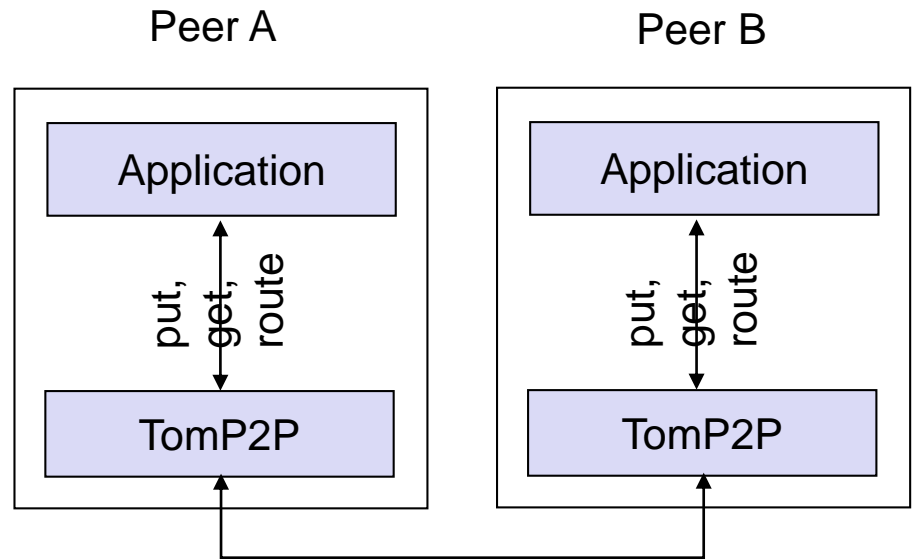
- ▶ To store (redundantly) data in the DHT

- **get (id)**

- ▶ To get data from the DHT. May get more than one result

- **Additional features (add/discover/digest)**

- ▶ Differs based on implementation



5.5. Routing and Bootstrap (iterative)

- **Routing essential**

- ▶ $\text{get}(\text{key}) = \text{routing}(\text{key}) + \text{get}(\text{key})$
- ▶ $\text{put}(\text{key}, \text{value}) = \text{routing}(\text{key}) + \text{put}(\text{key}, \text{value})$
- ▶ $\text{bootstrap}(\text{key}) = \text{routing}(\text{key})$
- ▶ $\text{add}(\text{key}, \text{value}), \text{digest}(\text{key}, \dots), \dots = \text{routing}(\text{key}) + \text{add}(\text{key}, \text{value}), \text{digest}(\text{key}, \dots), \dots$

- **Routing to ID x**

- ▶ Search local neighbors for closest peer to x \rightarrow will return v, w
- ▶ Search on peer v for x \rightarrow will return w, y, ...
- ▶ Search on peer w for x \rightarrow will return y, z, ...
- ▶ ...
- ▶ Found closest peer(s) \rightarrow do operations

5.5. Node Addition and Failure (iterative)

- **Node state (routing information) has to be maintained efficiently**
- **Node Arrivals**
 - ▶ New node with nodeId X asks nearby node A (bootstrap node) to route to key X
 - ▶ As soon as close node is found, replication may kick in
- **Node Failures**
 - ▶ nodes periodically exchange keepalive messages
 - ▶ If a node does not respond for a time T , it is declared dead
 - ▶ Replace node

6. Kademlia

Introduction, Idea, Examples
Concept

6. Kademlia

- **Several approaches to build DHT**
 - ▶ Distance metric as key difference
 - ▶ Chord, Pastry: numerical closeness
 - ▶ CAN: multidimensional numerical closeness
 - ▶ Kademlia: XOR metric
- **Kademlia designed in 2002 by Maymounkov and Mazières**
 - ▶ Many implementations, application specific
 - Kad network: eMule and others
 - BitTorrent (tracker)
 - ▶ Java-based generic implementations
 - TomP2P
 - Openkad, JDHT

6. Kademlia

- Each Kademlia node and data item has unique identifier
 - ▶ 160 bit (SHA-1)
 - ▶ Nodes: Node ID (160bit)
 - Can be calculated from IP address or public key, and data item using secure hash function, or just random
 - ▶ Data items: Keys (160bit), hash of data item
 - ▶ Distance is XOR
- **Keys are located on the node whose node ID is closest to the key**
 - ▶ Kademlia: 160 buckets with size 20 (8)
 - ▶ Knows neighbors well, further nodes not that much
 - ▶ If distance can be represented in m bits, bucket m will be used

6. Kademlia Example

- 2^3 , max size 8

- ▶ Neighbors of 6, if $k=1$

1	2	3
7	4 (or 5)	0 (or 1, 2)

- ▶ Search for 3, ask 0, neighbors of 0

1	2	3
1	2	4 (or 5, 6, 7)

- ▶ Ask 2, neighbors of 2

1	2	3
-	0 (or 1)	4 (or 5, 6, 7)

- ▶ Ask 2, 2 tell that there is no closer node, 2 is the closest one ($2 \text{ xor } 3 = 1$)

