CS162
Operating Systems and Systems Programming
Lecture 20

Reliability, Transactions
Distributed Systems

November 9th, 2015

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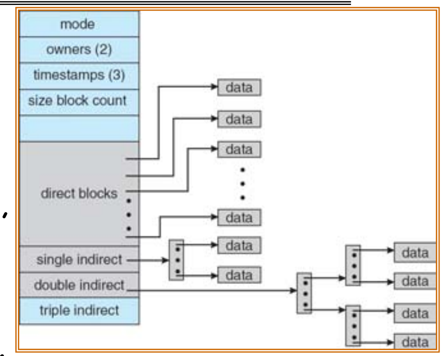
Recall: Multilevel Indexed Files (Original 4.1 BSD)



- Sample file in multilevel indexed format:
  - 10 direct ptrs, 1K blocks
  - How many accesses for block #23? (assume file header accessed on open)?
    - » Two: One for indirect block, one for data
  - How about block #5?
    - » One: One for data
  - Block #340?
    - » Three: double indirect block, indirect block, and data
- UNIX 4.1 Pros and cons
  - Pros: Simple (more or less)
    Files can easily expand (up to a point)
    Small files particularly cheap and easy
  - Cons: Lots of seeks
    Very large files must read many indirect block (four I/Os per block!)

File System Caching

- Key Idea: Exploit locality by caching data in memory
  - Name translations: Mapping from paths→inodes
  - Disk blocks: Mapping from block address→disk content
- Buffer Cache: Memory used to cache kernel resources, including disk blocks and name translations
  - Can contain "dirty" blocks (blocks yet on disk)
- Replacement policy? LRU
  - Can afford overhead full LRU implementation
  - Advantages:
    - » Works very well for name translation
    - » Works well in general as long as memory is big enough to accommodate a host's working set of files.
  - Disadvantages:
    - » Fails when some application scans through file system, thereby flushing the cache with data used only once
    - » Example: `find . -exec grep foo {} \;`
- Other Replacement Policies?
  - Some systems allow applications to request other policies
  - Example, 'Use Once':
    - » File system can discard blocks as soon as they are used

File System Caching (con't)

- Cache Size: How much memory should the OS allocate to the buffer cache vs virtual memory?
  - Too much memory to the file system cache ⇒ won't be able to run many applications at once
  - Too little memory to file system cache ⇒ many applications may run slowly (disk caching not effective)
  - Solution: adjust boundary dynamically so that the disk access rates for paging and file access are balanced
- Read Ahead Prefetching: fetch sequential blocks early
  - Key Idea: exploit fact that most common file access is sequential by prefetching subsequent disk blocks ahead of current read request (if they are not already in memory)
  - Elevator algorithm can efficiently interleave groups of prefetches from concurrent applications
  - How much to prefetch?
    - » Too many imposes delays on requests by other applications
    - » Too few causes many seeks (and rotational delays) among concurrent file requests

File System Caching (con't)

- **Delayed Writes:** Writes to files not immediately sent out to disk
  - Instead, `write()` copies data from user space buffer to kernel buffer (in cache)
    - » Enabled by presence of buffer cache: can leave written file blocks in cache for a while
    - » If some other application tries to read data before written to disk, file system will read from cache
  - Flushed to disk periodically (e.g. in UNIX, every 30 sec)
  - Advantages:
    - » Disk scheduler can efficiently order lots of requests
    - » Disk allocation algorithm can be run with correct size value for a file
    - » Some files need never get written to disk! (e..g temporary scratch files written /tmp often don't exist for 30 sec)
  - Disadvantages
    - » What if system crashes before file has been written out?
    - » Worse yet, what if system crashes before a directory file has been written out? (lose pointer to inode!)

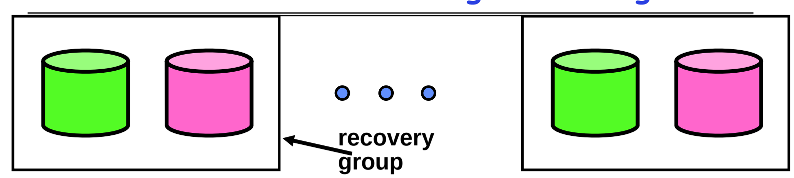
Important "ilities"

- **Availability:** the probability that the system can accept and process requests
  - Often measured in "nines" of probability. So, a 99.9% probability is considered "3-nines of availability"
  - Key idea here is independence of failures
- **Durability:** the ability of a system to recover data despite faults
  - This idea is fault tolerance applied to data
  - Doesn't necessarily imply availability: information on pyramids was very durable, but could not be accessed until discovery of Rosetta Stone
- **Reliability:** the ability of a system or component to perform its required functions under stated conditions for a specified period of time (IEEE definition)
  - Usually stronger than simply availability: means that the system is not only "up", but also working correctly
  - Includes availability, security, fault tolerance/durability
  - Must make sure data survives system crashes, disk crashes, other problems

How to make file system durable?

- Disk blocks contain Reed-Solomon error correcting codes (ECC) to deal with small defects in disk drive
  - Can allow recovery of data from small media defects
- Make sure writes survive in short term
  - Either abandon delayed writes or
  - use special, battery-backed RAM (called non-volatile RAM or **NVRAM**) for dirty blocks in buffer cache.
- Make sure that data survives in long term
  - Need to replicate! More than one copy of data!
  - Important element: **independence of failure**
    - » Could put copies on one disk, but if disk head fails…
    - » Could put copies on different disks, but if server fails…
    - » Could put copies on different servers, but if building is struck by lightning….
    - » Could put copies on servers in different continents…
- **RAID:** Redundant Arrays of Inexpensive Disks
  - Data stored on multiple disks (redundancy)
  - Either in software or hardware
    - » In hardware case, done by disk controller; file system may not even know that there is more than one disk in use

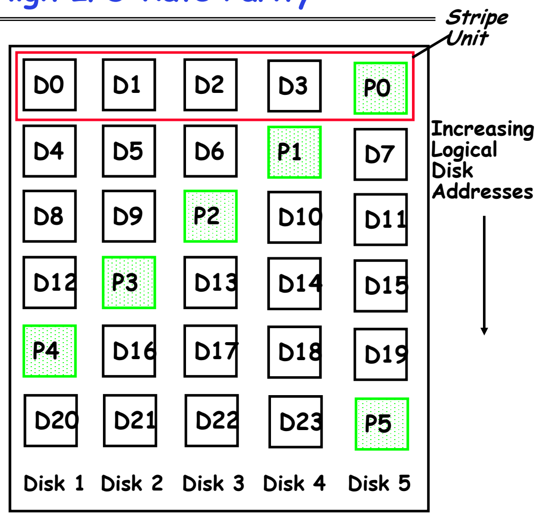
RAID 1: Disk Mirroring/Shadowing



- Each disk is fully duplicated onto its "shadow"
  - For high I/O rate, high availability environments
  - Most expensive solution: 100% capacity overhead
- Bandwidth sacrificed on write:
  - Logical write = two physical writes
  - Highest bandwidth when disk heads and rotation fully synchronized (hard to do exactly)
- Reads may be optimized
  - Can have two independent reads to same data
- Recovery:
  - Disk failure $\Rightarrow$ replace disk and copy data to new disk
  - **Hot Spare:** idle disk already attached to system to be used for immediate replacement

RAID 5+: High I/O Rate Parity

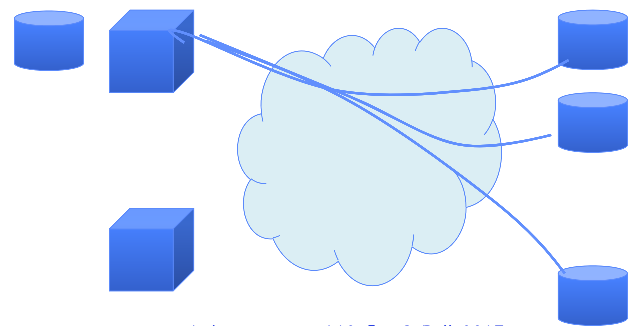
- Data stripped across multiple disks
  - Successive blocks stored on successive (non-parity) disks
  - Increased bandwidth over single disk
- Parity block (in green) constructed by XORing data bocks in stripe
  - $P0=D0\oplus D1\oplus D2\oplus D3$
  - Can destroy any one disk and still reconstruct data
  - Suppose D3 fails, then can reconstruct: $D3=D0\oplus D1\oplus D2\oplus P0$



- Later in term: talk about spreading information widely across internet for durability.

Higher Durability/Reliability through Geographic Replication

- Highly durable – hard to destroy bits
- Highly available for reads
- Low availability for writes
  - Can't write if any one is not up
  - Or – need relaxed consistency model
- Reliability?



File System Reliability

- What can happen if disk loses power or machine software crashes?
  - Some operations in progress may complete
  - Some operations in progress may be lost
  - Overwrite of a block may only partially complete
- Having RAID doesn't necessarily protect against all such failures
  - Bit-for-bit protection of bad state?
  - What if one disk of RAID group not written?
- File system wants durability (as a minimum!)
  - Data previously stored can be retrieved (maybe after some recovery step), regardless of failure

Storage Reliability Problem

- Single logical file operation can involve updates to multiple physical disk blocks
  - inode, indirect block, data block, bitmap, …
  - With remapping, single update to physical disk block can require multiple (even lower level) updates
- At a physical level, operations complete one at a time
  - Want concurrent operations for performance
- How do we guarantee consistency regardless of when crash occurs?

Threats to Reliability

- Interrupted Operation
  - Crash or power failure in the middle of a series of related updates may leave stored data in an *inconsistent state*.
  - e.g.: transfer funds from BofA to Schwab. What if transfer is interrupted after withdrawal and before deposit
- Loss of stored data
  - Failure of non-volatile storage media may cause previously stored data to disappear or be corrupted

Administrivia

- Midterm II: Coming up in 2 weeks! (11/23)
  - 7-10PM, "here" (2040, 2050, 2060 VLSB)
  - Topics up to and including previous Wednesday
  - 1 page of hand-written notes, both sides
- Moved HW4 forward 1 week (hand out next Monday)
- No class on Wednesday (it is a holiday)
- Only 5 official lectures left (including this one!)
- Final (optional) lecture
  - Monday of RRR week (12/07)
  - Whatever topics you would like!
  - Let me know what you want to hear about
  - Examples: IoT, security hardware, quantum computing…..

Reliability Approach #1: Careful Ordering

- Sequence operations in a specific order
  - Careful design to allow sequence to be interrupted safely
- Post-crash recovery
  - Read data structures to see if there were any operations in progress
  - Clean up/finish as needed
- Approach taken in FAT, FFS (fsck), and many app-level recovery schemes (e.g., Word)

FFS: Create a File

Normal operation:

- Allocate data block
- Write data block
- Allocate inode
- Write inode block
- Update bitmap of free blocks
- Update directory with file name -> file number
- Update modify time for directory

Recovery:

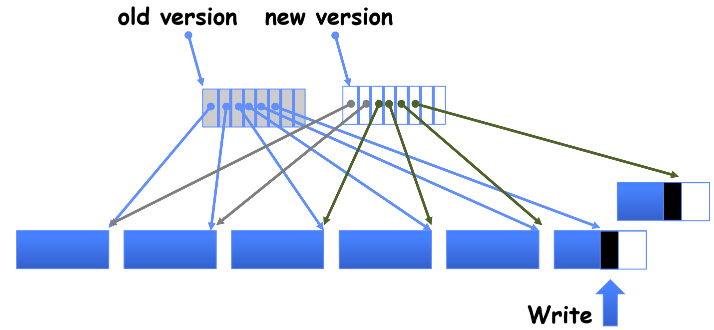
- Scan inode table
- If any unlinked files (not in any directory), delete
- Compare free block bitmap against inode trees
- Scan directories for missing update/access times

Time proportional to size of disk

Reliability Approach #2: Copy on Write File Layout

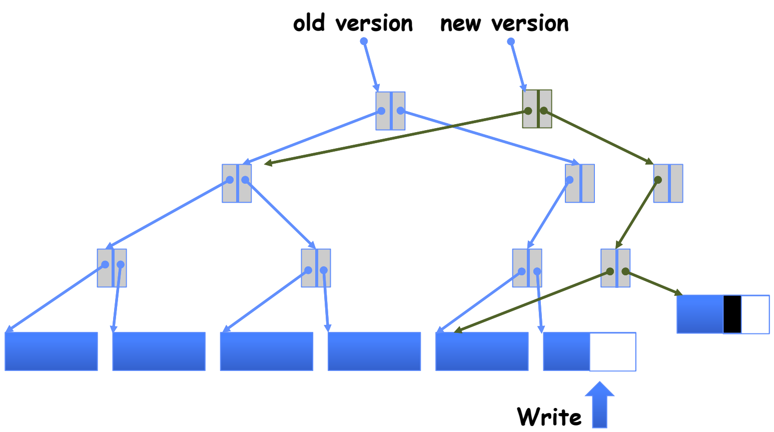
- To update file system, write a new version of the file system containing the update
  - Never update in place
  - Reuse existing unchanged disk blocks
- Seems expensive! But
  - Updates can be batched
  - Almost all disk writes can occur in parallel
- Approach taken in network file server appliances (WAFL, ZFS)

COW integrated with file system



- If file represented as a tree of blocks, just need to update the leading fringe

COW with smaller-radix blocks



- If file represented as a tree of blocks, just need to update the leading fringe

ZFS

- Variable sized blocks: 512 B – 128 KB
- Symmetric tree
  - Know if it is large or small when we make the copy
- Store version number with pointers
  - Can create new version by adding blocks and new pointers
- Buffers a collection of writes before creating a new version with them
- Free space represented as tree of extents in each block group
  - Delay updates to freespace (in log) and do them all when block group is activated

More General Solutions

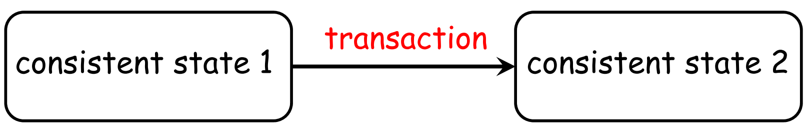
- Transactions for Atomic Updates
  - Ensure that multiple related updates are performed atomically
  - i.e., if a crash occurs in the middle, the state of the systems reflects either *all or none* of the updates
  - Most modern file systems use transactions internally to update the many pieces
  - Many applications implement their own transactions
- Redundancy for media failures
  - Redundant representation (error correcting codes)
  - Replication
  - E.g., RAID disks

Transactions

- Closely related to critical sections in manipulating shared data structures
- Extend concept of atomic update from memory to stable storage
  - Atomically update multiple persistent data structures
- Like flags for threads, many ad hoc approaches
  - FFS carefully ordered the sequence of updates so that if a crash occurred while manipulating directory or inodes the disk scan on reboot would detect and recover the error, -- fsck
  - Applications use temporary files and rename

Key concept: Transaction

- An atomic sequence of actions (reads/writes) on a storage system (or database)
- That takes it from one consistent state to another



Typical Structure

- **Begin** a transaction – get transaction id
- Do a bunch of updates
  - If any fail along the way, **roll-back**
  - Or, if any conflicts with other transactions, **roll-back**
- **Commit** the transaction

"Classic" Example: Transaction

```
BEGIN;    --BEGIN TRANSACTION
 UPDATE accounts SET balance = balance - 100.00
   WHERE name = 'Alice';

 UPDATE branches SET balance = balance - 100.00
   WHERE name = (SELECT branch_name FROM accounts
   WHERE name = 'Alice');

 UPDATE accounts SET balance = balance + 100.00
   WHERE name = 'Bob';

 UPDATE branches SET balance = balance + 100.00
   WHERE name = (SELECT branch_name FROM accounts
   WHERE name = 'Bob');


COMMIT;    --COMMIT WORK
```

Transfer $100 from Alice's account to Bob's account

The ACID properties of Transactions

- **Atomicity:** all actions in the transaction happen, or none happen
- **Consistency:** transactions maintain data integrity, e.g.,
  - Balance cannot be negative
  - Cannot reschedule meeting on February 30
- **Isolation:** execution of one transaction is isolated from that of all others; no problems from concurrency
- **Durability:** if a transaction commits, its effects persist despite crashes

Transactional File Systems

- Better reliability through use of log
  - All changes are treated as *transactions*
  - A transaction is *committed* once it is written to the log
    - » Data forced to disk for reliability
    - » Process can be accelerated with NVRAM
  - Although File system may not be updated immediately, data preserved in the log
- Difference between "Log Structured" and "Journaled"
  - In a Log Structured filesystem, data stays in log form
  - In a Journaled filesystem, Log used for recovery
- Journaling File System
  - Applies updates to system metadata using transactions (using logs, etc.)
  - Updates to non-directory files (i.e., user stuff) can be done in place (without logs), full logging optional
  - Ex: NTFS, Apple HFS+, Linux XFS, JFS, ext3, ext4
- Full Logging File System
  - All updates to disk are done in transactions

Logging File Systems

- Instead of modifying data structures on disk directly, write changes to a journal/log
  - Intention list: set of changes we intend to make
  - Log/Journal is append-only
  - Single commit record commits transaction
- Once changes are in the log, it is safe to apply changes to data structures on disk
  - Recovery can read log to see what changes were intended
  - Can take our time making the changes
    - » As long as new requests consult the log first
- Once changes are copied, safe to remove log
- But, …
  - If the last atomic action is not done … poof … all gone
- Basic assumption:
  - Updates to sectors are atomic and ordered
  - Not necessarily true unless very careful, but key assumption

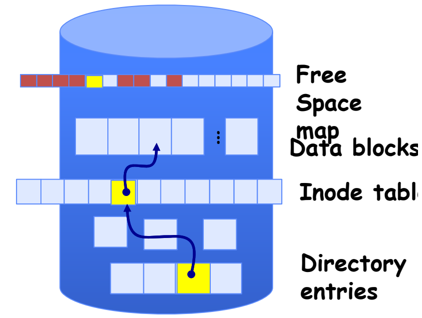
Redo Logging

- **Prepare**
  - Write all changes (in transaction) to log
- **Commit**
  - Single disk write to make transaction durable
- **Redo**
  - Copy changes to disk
- **Garbage collection**
  - Reclaim space in log
- **Recovery**
  - Read log
  - Redo any operations for committed transactions
  - Garbage collect log

Example: Creating a file

- Find free data block(s)
- Find free inode entry
- Find dirent insertion point

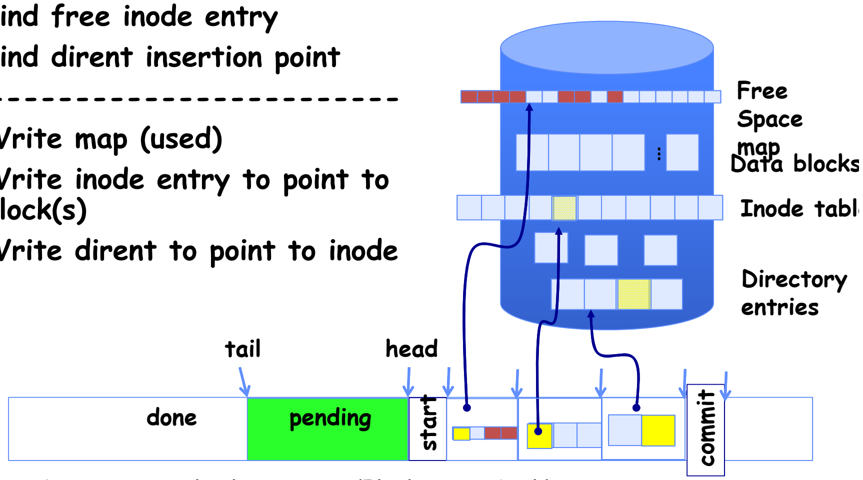
- Write map (i.e., mark used)
- Write inode entry to point to block(s)
- Write dirent to point to inode



Ex: Creating a file (as a transaction)

- Find free data block(s)
- Find free inode entry
- Find dirent insertion point

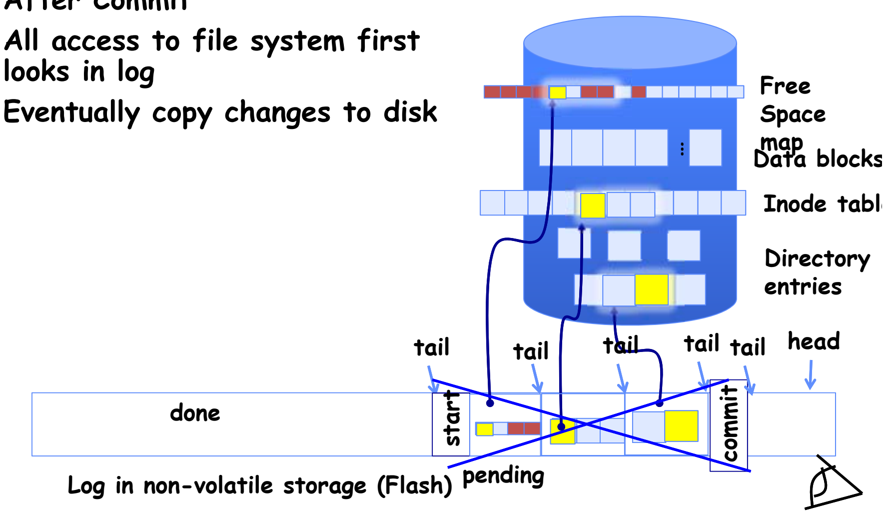
- Write map (used)
- Write inode entry to point to block(s)
- Write dirent to point to inode



Log in non-volatile storage (Flash or on Disk)

ReDo log

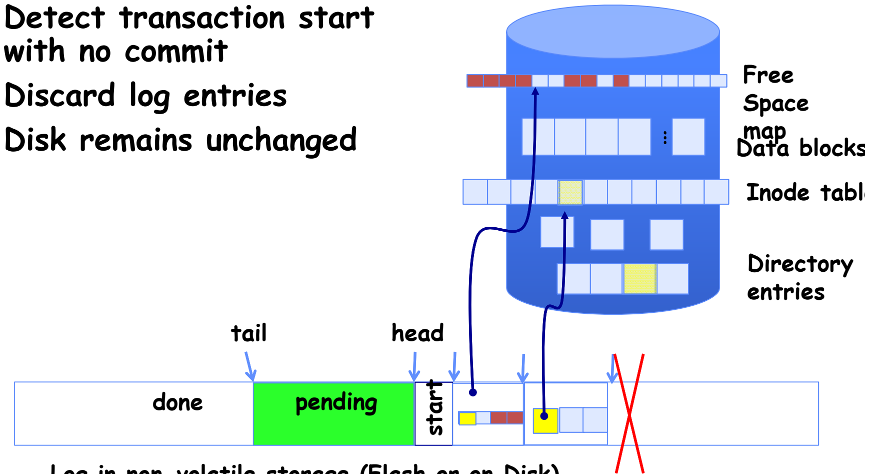
- After Commit
- All access to file system first looks in log
- Eventually copy changes to disk



Log in non-volatile storage (Flash)

Crash during logging - Recover

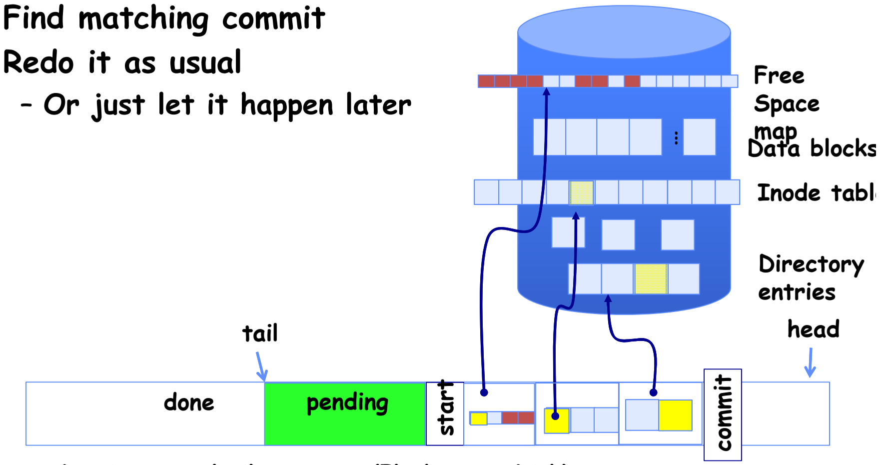
- Upon recovery scan the long
- Detect transaction start with no commit
- Discard log entries
- Disk remains unchanged



Log in non-volatile storage (Flash or on Disk)

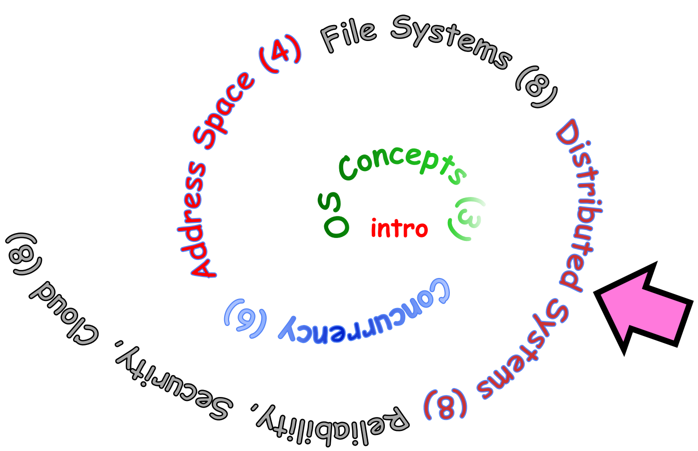
Recovery After Commit

- Scan log, find start
- Find matching commit
- Redo it as usual
  - Or just let it happen later



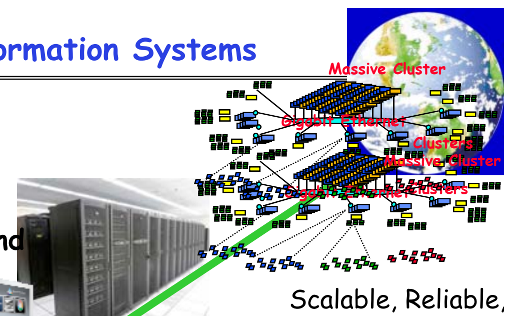
Log in non-volatile storage (Flash or on Disk)

Course Structure: Spiral

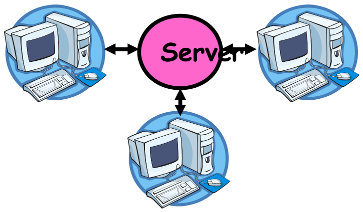


Societal Scale Information Systems

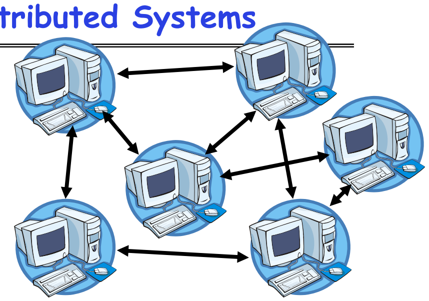
- The world is a large distributed system
  - Microprocessors in everything
  - Vast infrastructure behind them



Centralized vs Distributed Systems



Client/Server Model



Peer-to-Peer Model

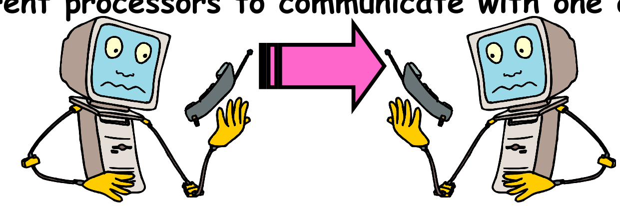
- **Centralized System:** System in which major functions are performed by a single physical computer
  - Originally, everything on single computer
  - Later: client/server model
- **Distributed System:** physically separate computers working together on some task
  - Early model: multiple servers working together
    - » Probably in the same room or building
    - » Often called a "cluster"
  - Later models: peer-to-peer/wide-spread collaboration

Distributed Systems: Motivation/Issues

- Why do we want distributed systems?
  - Cheaper and easier to build lots of simple computers
  - Easier to add power incrementally
  - Users can have complete control over some components
  - Collaboration: Much easier for users to collaborate through network resources (such as network file systems)
- The *promise* of distributed systems:
  - Higher availability: one machine goes down, use another
  - Better durability: store data in multiple locations
  - More security: each piece easier to make secure
- Reality has been disappointing
  - Worse availability: depend on every machine being up
    - » Lamport: "a distributed system is one where I can't do work because some machine I've never heard of isn't working!"
  - Worse reliability: can lose data if any machine crashes
  - Worse security: anyone in world can break into system
- Coordination is more difficult
  - Must coordinate multiple copies of shared state information (using only a network)
  - What would be easy in a centralized system becomes a lot more difficult

Distributed Systems: Goals/Requirements

- **Transparency:** the ability of the system to mask its complexity behind a simple interface
- Possible transparencies:
  - **Location:** Can't tell where resources are located
  - **Migration:** Resources may move without the user knowing
  - **Replication:** Can't tell how many copies of resource exist
  - **Concurrency:** Can't tell how many users there are
  - **Parallelism:** System may speed up large jobs by spliting them into smaller pieces
  - **Fault Tolerance**: System may hide varoius things that go wrong in the system
- Transparency and collaboration require some way for different processors to communicate with one another



What Is A Protocol?

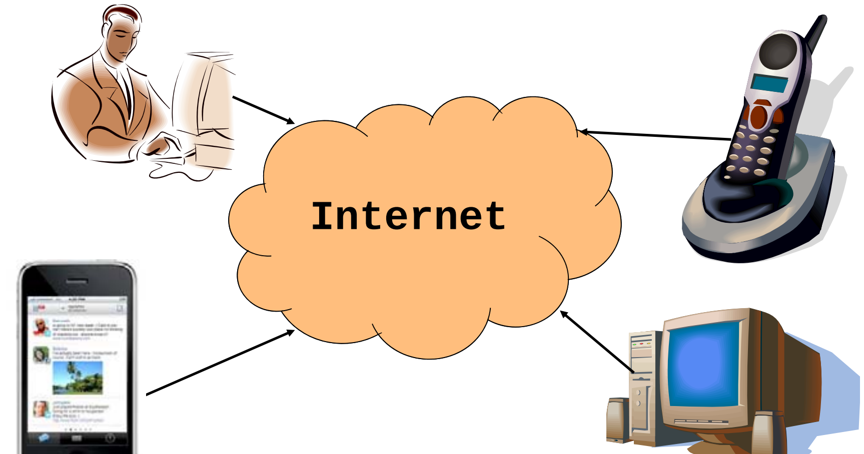
- A protocol is an **agreement on how to communicate**
- Includes
  - **Syntax**: how a communication is specified & structured
    - » Format, order messages are sent and received
  - **Semantics**: what a communication means
    - » Actions taken when transmitting, receiving, or when a timer expires
- Described formally by a state machine
  - Often represented as a message transaction diagram

Examples of Protocols in Human Interactions

- Telephone
  1. (Pick up / open up the phone)
  2. Listen for a dial tone / see that you have service
  3. Dial
  4. Should hear ringing …
  5. Callee: “Hello?”
  6. Caller: “Hi, it’s John….”
     Or: “Hi, it’s me” (← what’s *that* about?)
  7. Caller: “Hey, do you think … blah blah blah …” pause

  1. Callee: “Yeah, blah blah blah …” pause
  2. Caller: Bye
  3. Callee: Bye
  4. Hang up

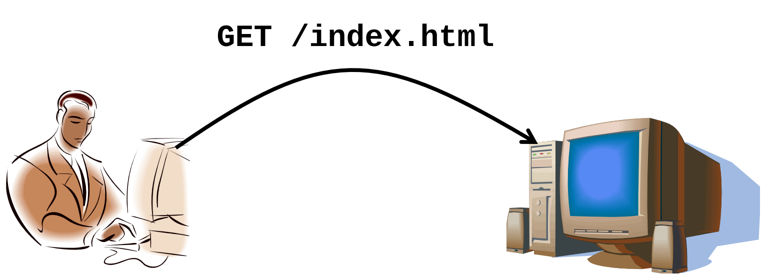
End System: Computer on the ‘Net



Also known as a “host”…

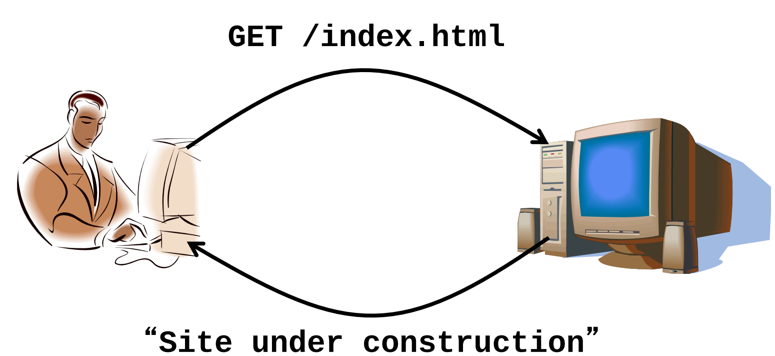
Clients and Servers

- Client program
  - Running on end host
  - Requests service
  - E.g., Web browser



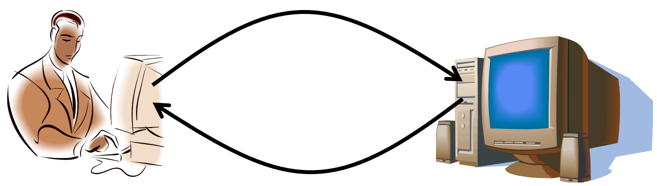
Clients and Servers

- Client program
  - Running on end host
  - Requests service
  - E.g., Web browser
- Server program
  - Running on end host
  - Provides service
  - E.g., Web server



Client-Server Communication

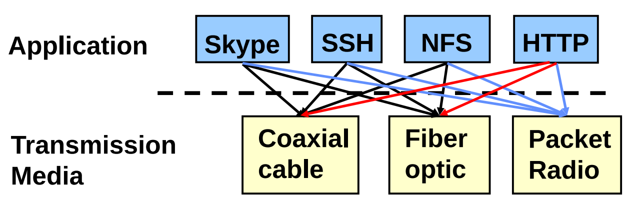
- Client “sometimes on”
  - Initiates a request to the server when interested
  - E.g., Web browser on your laptop or cell phone
  - Doesn’t communicate directly with other clients
  - Needs to know the server’s address
- Server is “always on”
  - Services requests from many client hosts
  - E.g., Web server for the *www.cnn.com* Web site
  - Doesn’t initiate contact with the clients
  - Needs a fixed, well-known address



Peer-to-Peer Communication

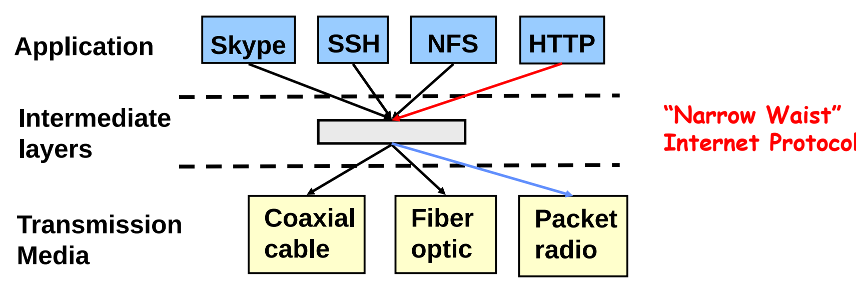
- No always-on server at the center of it all
  - Hosts can come and go, and change addresses
  - Hosts may have a different address each time
- Example: peer-to-peer file sharing (e.g., BitTorrent)
  - Any host can request files, send files, query to find where a file is located, respond to queries, and forward queries
  - Scalability by harnessing millions of peers
  - Each peer acting as both a client and server

Global Communication: The Problem



- Many different applications
  - email, web, P2P, etc.
- Many different network styles and technologies
  - Wireless vs. wired vs. optical, etc.
- How do we organize this mess?
  - Re-implement every application for every technology?
- No! But how does the Internet design avoid this?

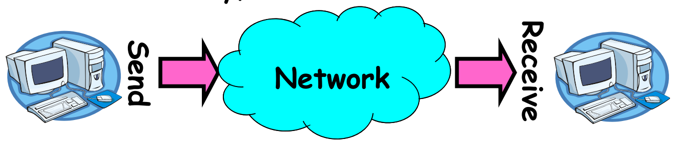
Solution: Intermediate Layers



- Introduce intermediate layers that provide set of abstractions for various network functionality & technologies
  - A new app/media implemented only once
  - Variation on “add another level of indirection”

Distributed Applications

- How do you actually program a distributed application?
  - Need to synchronize multiple threads, running on different machines
    - » No shared memory, so cannot use test&set



  - One Abstraction: send/receive messages
    - » Already atomic: no receiver gets portion of a message and two receivers cannot get same message
- Interface:
  - Mailbox (mbox): temporary holding area for messages
    - » Includes both destination location and queue
  - `Send(message,mbox)`
    - » Send message to remote mailbox identified by mbox
  - `Receive(buffer,mbox)`
    - » Wait until mbox has message, copy into buffer, and return
    - » If threads sleeping on this mbox, wake up one of them

Using Messages: Send/Receive behavior

- When should `send(message,mbox)` return?
  - When receiver gets message? (i.e. ack received)
  - When message is safely buffered on destination?
  - Right away, if message is buffered on source node?
- Actually two questions here:
  - When can the sender be sure that receiver actually received the message?
  - When can sender reuse the memory containing message?
- Mailbox provides 1-way communication from T1→T2
  - T1→buffer→T2
  - Very similar to producer/consumer
    - » Send = V, Receive = P
    - » However, can't tell if sender/receiver is local or not!

Messaging for Producer-Consumer Style

- Using send/receive for producer-consumer style:

```
Producer:
   int msg1[1000];
   while(1) {
      prepare message;
      send(msg1,mbox);
   }
Consumer:
   int buffer[1000];
   while(1) {
      receive(buffer,mbox);
      process message;
   }
```

Send Message

Receive Message

- No need for producer/consumer to keep track of space in mailbox: handled by send/receive
  - One of the roles of the window in TCP: window is size of buffer on far end
  - Restricts sender to forward only what will fit in buffer

Messaging for Request/Response communication

- What about two-way communication?
  - Request/Response
    - » Read a file stored on a remote machine
    - » Request a web page from a remote web server
  - Also called: client-server
    - » Client ≡ requester, Server ≡ responder
    - » Server provides "service" (file storage) to the client
- Example: File service

```
Client: (requesting the file)
   char response[1000];

   send("read rutabaga", server_mbox);
   receive(response, client_mbox);

Server: (responding with the file)
   char command[1000], answer[1000];

   receive(command, server_mbox);
   decode command;
   read file into answer;
   send(answer, client_mbox);
```

Request File

Get Response

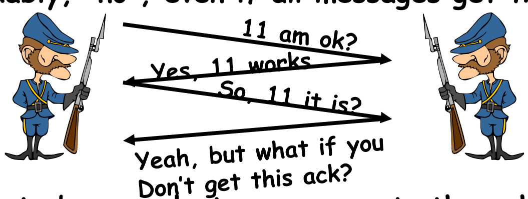
Receive Request

Send Response

General's Paradox

- General's paradox:
  - Constraints of problem:
    - » Two generals, on separate mountains
    - » Can only communicate via messengers
    - » Messengers can be captured
  - Problem: need to coordinate attack
    - » If they attack at different times, they all die
    - » If they attack at same time, they win
  - Named after Custer, who died at Little Big Horn because he arrived a couple of days too early

- Can messages over an unreliable network be used to guarantee two entities do something simultaneously?
  - Remarkably, "no", even if all messages get through



  - No way to be sure last message gets through!

Two-Phase Commit

- Since we can't solve the General's Paradox (i.e. simultaneous action), let's solve a related problem
  - Distributed transaction: Two machines agree to do something, or not do it, atomically
- Two-Phase Commit protocol does this
  - Persistent stable log on each machine: keep track of whether commit has happened
    - » If a machine crashes, when it wakes up it first checks its log to recover state of world at time of crash
  - Prepare Phase:
    - » The global coordinator requests that all participants will promise to commit or rollback the transaction
    - » Participants record promise in log, then acknowledge
    - » If anyone votes to abort, coordinator writes "Abort" in its log and tells everyone to abort; each records "Abort" in log
  - Commit Phase:
    - » After all participants respond that they are prepared, then the coordinator writes "Commit" to its log
    - » Then asks all nodes to commit; they respond with ack
    - » After receive acks, coordinator writes "Got Commit" to log
  - Log can be used to complete this process such that all machines either commit or don't commit

2PC Algorithm

- Developed by Turing award winner Jim Gray (first Berkeley CS PhD, 1969)
- One coordinator
- N workers (replicas)
- High level algorithm description
  - Coordinator asks all workers if they can commit
  - If all workers reply "VOTE-COMMIT", then coordinator broadcasts "GLOBAL-COMMIT",

    Otherwise coordinator broadcasts "GLOBAL-ABORT"
  - Workers obey the GLOBAL messages
- Use a persistent, stable log on each machine to keep track of what you are doing
  - If a machine crashes, when it wakes up it first checks its log to recover state of world at time of crash

Detailed Algorithm

Coordinator Algorithm

Coordinator sends **VOTE-REQ** to all workers

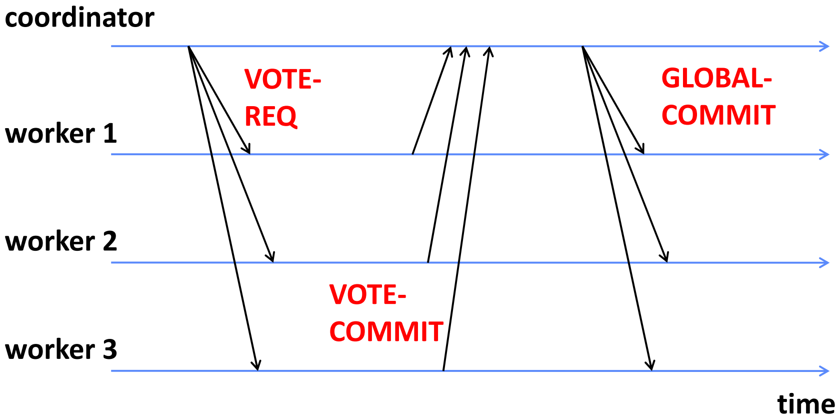
- If receive VOTE-COMMIT from all N workers, send GLOBAL-COMMIT to all workers
- If doesn't receive VOTE-COMMIT from all N workers, send GLOBAL-ABORT to all workers

Worker Algorithm

- Wait for **VOTE-REQ** from coordinator
- If ready, send **VOTE-COMMIT** to coordinator
- If not ready, send **VOTE-ABORT** to coordinator
  - And immediately abort

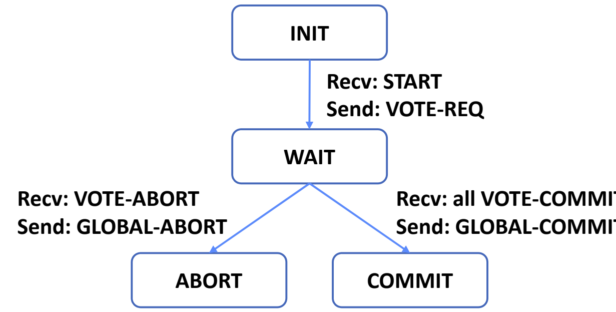
- If receive GLOBAL-COMMIT then commit
- If receive GLOBAL-ABORT then abort

Failure Free Example Execution

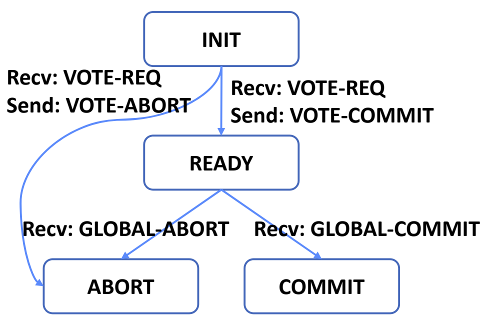


State Machine of Coordinator

- Coordinator implements simple state machine:

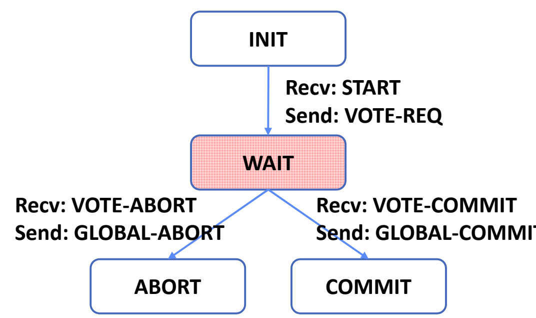


State Machine of Workers

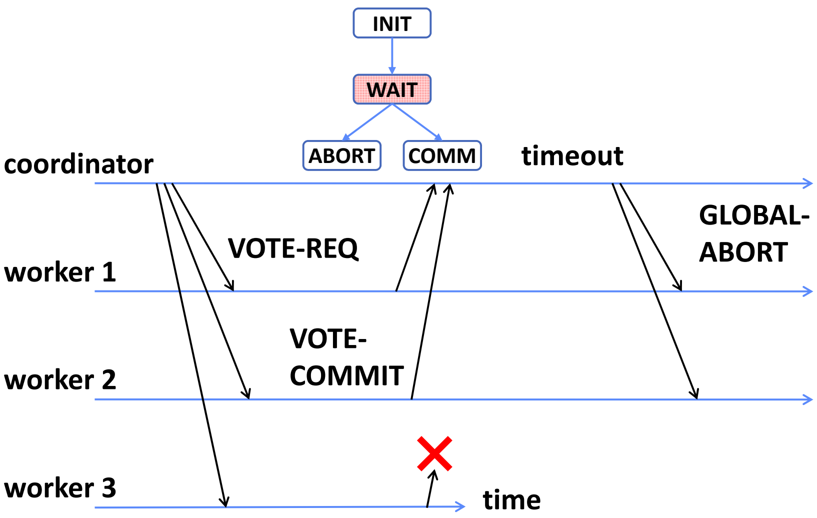


Dealing with Worker Failures

- How to deal with worker failures?
  - Failure only affects states in which the node is waiting for messages
  - Coordinator only waits for votes in "WAIT" state
  - In WAIT, if doesn't receive
  - N votes, it times out and sends
  - GLOBAL-ABORT

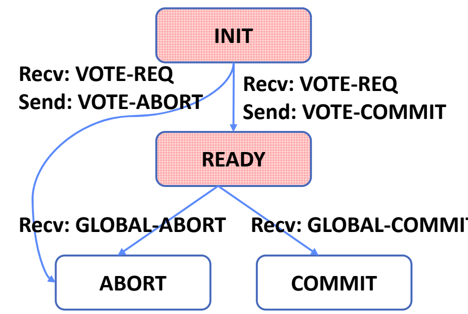


Example of Worker Failure

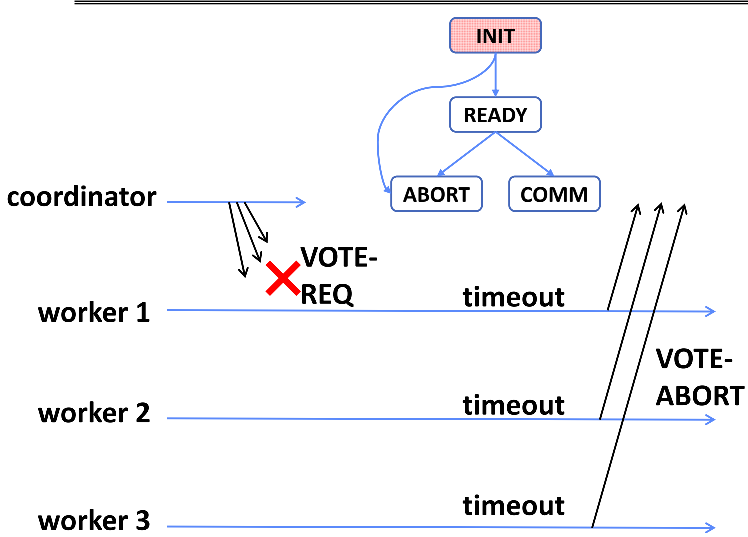


Dealing with Coordinator Failure

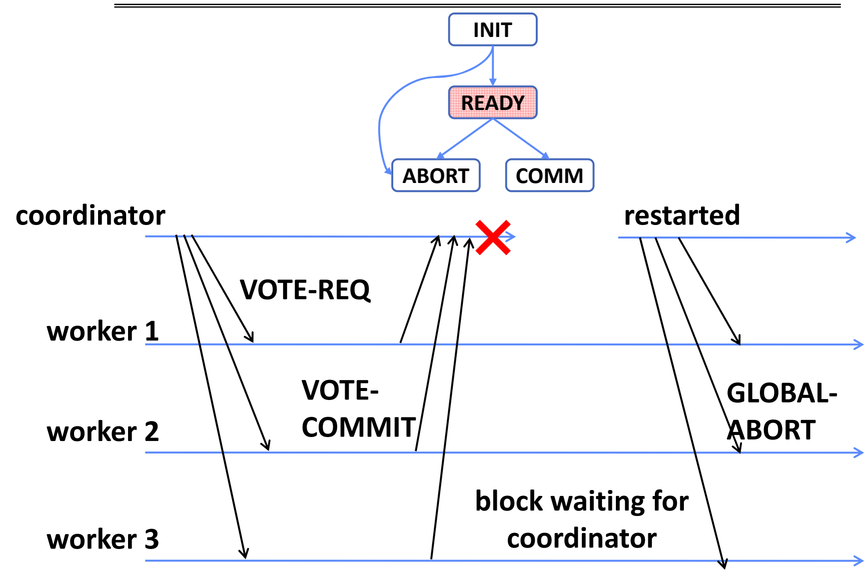
- How to deal with coordinator failures?
  - worker waits for VOTE-REQ in INIT
    - » Worker can time out and abort (coordinator handles it)
  - worker waits for GLOBAL-* message in READY
    - » If coordinator fails, workers must BLOCK waiting for coordinator to recover and send GLOBAL_* message



Example of Coordinator Failure #1



Example of Coordinator Failure #2

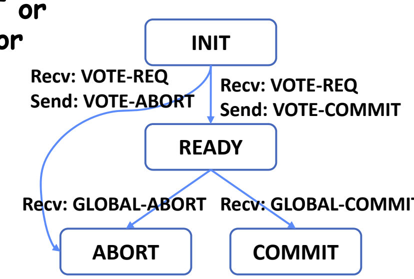


Durability

- All nodes use stable storage* to store which state they are in
- Upon recovery, it can restore state and resume:
  - Coordinator aborts in INIT, WAIT, or ABORT
  - Coordinator commits in COMMIT
  - Worker aborts in INIT, ABORT
  - Worker commits in COMMIT
  - Worker asks Coordinator in READY
- * - stable storage is non-volatile storage (e.g. backed by disk) that guarantees atomic writes.

Blocking for Coordinator to Recover

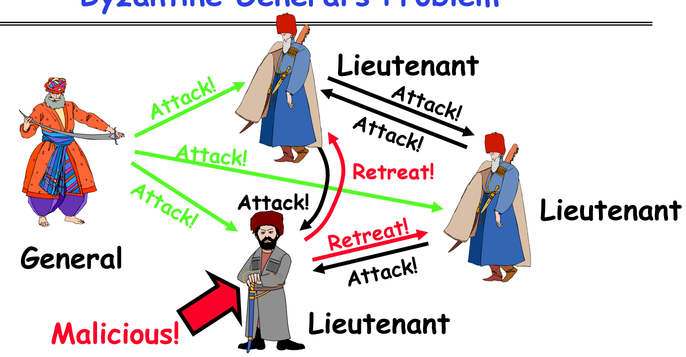
- A worker waiting for global decision can ask fellow workers about their state
  - If another worker is in ABORT or COMMIT state then coordinator must have sent GLOBAL-*
    - » Thus, worker can safely abort or commit, respectively
  - If another worker is still in INIT state then both workers can decide to abort
  - If all workers are in ready, need to BLOCK (don't know if coordinator wanted to abort or commit)



Distributed Decision Making Discussion

- Why is distributed decision making desirable?
  - Fault Tolerance!
  - A group of machines can come to a decision even if one or more of them fail during the process
    - » Simple failure mode called "failstop" (different modes later)
  - After decision made, result recorded in multiple places
- Undesirable feature of Two-Phase Commit: Blocking
  - One machine can be stalled until another site recovers:
    - » Site B writes "prepared to commit" record to its log, sends a "yes" vote to the coordinator (site A) and crashes
    - » Site A crashes
    - » Site B wakes up, check its log, and realizes that it has voted "yes" on the update. It sends a message to site A asking what happened. At this point, B cannot decide to abort, because update may have committed
    - » B is blocked until A comes back
  - A blocked site holds resources (locks on updated items, pages pinned in memory, etc) until learns fate of update
- PAXOS: An alternative used by GOOGLE and others that does not have this blocking problem
- What happens if one or more of the nodes is malicious?
  - Malicious: attempting to compromise the decision making

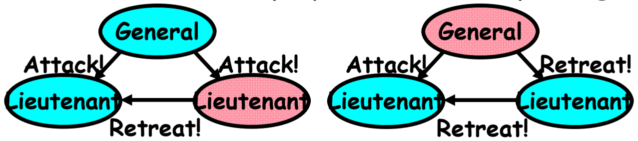
Byzantine General's Problem



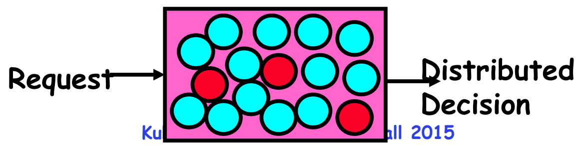
- Byazantine General's Problem (n players):
  - One General
  - n-1 Lieutenants
  - Some number of these (f) can be insane or malicious
- The commanding general must send an order to his n-1 lieutenants such that:
  - IC1: All loyal lieutenants obey the same order
  - IC2: If the commanding general is loyal, then all loyal lieutenants obey the order he sends

Byzantine General's Problem (con't)

- Impossibility Results:
  - Cannot solve Byzantine General's Problem with n=3 because one malicious player can mess up things



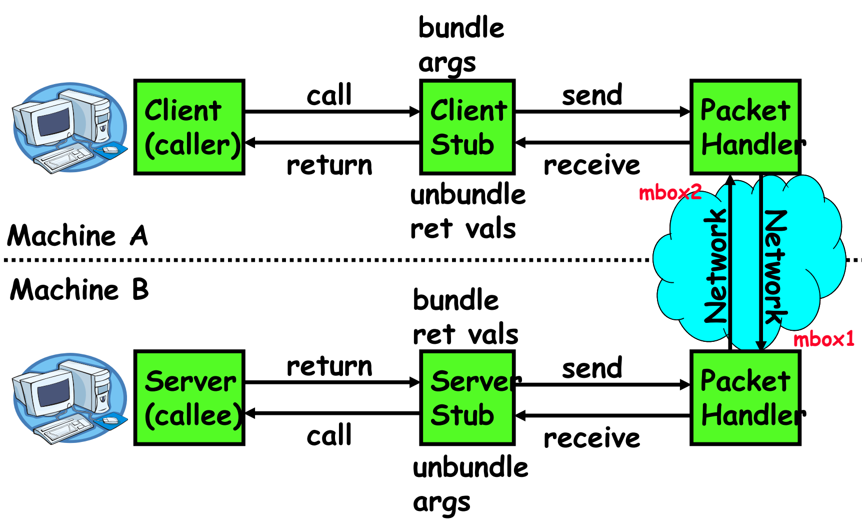
  - With f faults, need n > 3f to solve problem
- Various algorithms exist to solve problem
  - Original algorithm has #messages exponential in n
  - Newer algorithms have message complexity $O(n^2)$
    - » One from MIT, for instance (Castro and Liskov, 1999)
- Use of BFT (Byzantine Fault Tolerance) algorithm
  - Allow multiple machines to make a coordinated decision even if some subset of them (< n/3) are malicious



Remote Procedure Call

- Raw messaging is a bit too low-level for programming
  - Must wrap up information into message at source
  - Must decide what to do with message at destination
  - May need to sit and wait for multiple messages to arrive
- Better option: Remote Procedure Call (RPC)
  - Calls a procedure on a remote machine
  - Client calls:
    `remoteFileSystem→Read("rutabaga");`
  - Translated automatically into call on server:
    `fileSys→Read("rutabaga");`
- Implementation:
  - Request-response message passing (under covers!)
  - "Stub" provides glue on client/server
    - » Client stub is responsible for "marshalling" arguments and "unmarshalling" the return values
    - » Server-side stub is responsible for "unmarshalling" arguments and "marshalling" the return values.
- Marshalling involves (depending on system)
  - Converting values to a canonical form, serializing objects, copying arguments passed by reference, etc.

RPC Information Flow



RPC Details

- Equivalence with regular procedure call
  - Parameters ⇔ Request Message
  - Result ⇔ Reply message
  - Name of Procedure: Passed in request message
  - Return Address: mbox2 (client return mail box)
- Stub generator: Compiler that generates stubs
  - Input: interface definitions in an "interface definition language (IDL)"
    - » Contains, among other things, types of arguments/return
  - Output: stub code in the appropriate source language
    - » Code for client to pack message, send it off, wait for result, unpack result and return to caller
    - » Code for server to unpack message, call procedure, pack results, send them off
- Cross-platform issues:
  - What if client/server machines are different architectures or in different languages?
    - » Convert everything to/from some canonical form
    - » Tag every item with an indication of how it is encoded (avoids unnecessary conversions).

RPC Details (continued)

- How does client know which mbox to send to?
  - Need to translate name of remote service into network endpoint (Remote machine, port, possibly other info)
  - **Binding:** the process of converting a user-visible name into a network endpoint
    - » This is another word for "naming" at network level
    - » Static: fixed at compile time
    - » Dynamic: performed at runtime
- Dynamic Binding
  - Most RPC systems use dynamic binding via name service
    - » Name service provides dynamic translation of service→mbox
  - Why dynamic binding?
    - » Access control: check who is permitted to access service
    - » Fail-over: If server fails, use a different one
- What if there are multiple servers?
  - Could give flexibility at binding time
    - » Choose unloaded server for each new client
  - Could provide same mbox (router level redirect)
    - » Choose unloaded server for each new request
    - » Only works if no state carried from one call to next
- What if multiple clients?
  - Pass pointer to client-specific return mbox in request

Problems with RPC

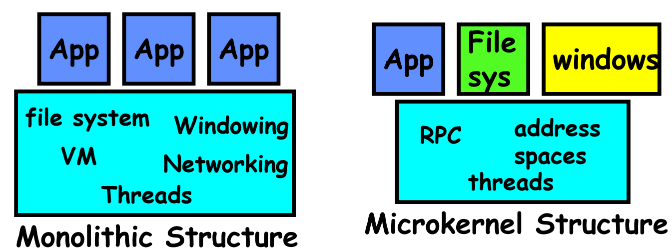
- Non-Atomic failures
  - Different failure modes in distributed system than on a single machine
  - Consider many different types of failures
    - » User-level bug causes address space to crash
    - » Machine failure, kernel bug causes all processes on same machine to fail
    - » Some machine is compromised by malicious party
  - Before RPC: whole system would crash/die
  - After RPC: One machine crashes/compromised while others keep working
  - Can easily result in inconsistent view of the world
    - » Did my cached data get written back or not?
    - » Did server do what I requested or not?
  - Answer? Distributed transactions/Byzantine Commit
- Performance
  - Cost of Procedure call « same-machine RPC « network RPC
  - Means programmers must be aware that RPC is not free
    - » Caching can help, but may make failure handling complex

Cross-Domain Communication/Location Transparency

- How do address spaces communicate with one another?
  - Shared Memory with Semaphores, monitors, etc…
  - File System
  - Pipes (1-way communication)
  - "Remote" procedure call (2-way communication)
- RPC's can be used to communicate between address spaces on different machines or the same machine
  - Services can be run wherever it's most appropriate
  - Access to local and remote services looks the same
- Examples of modern RPC systems:
  - CORBA (Common Object Request Broker Architecture)
  - DCOM (Distributed COM)
  - RMI (Java Remote Method Invocation)

Microkernel operating systems

- Example: split kernel into application-level servers.
  - File system looks remote, even though on same machine



- Why split the OS into separate domains?
  - Fault isolation: bugs are more isolated (build a firewall)
  - Enforces modularity: allows incremental upgrades of pieces of software (client or server)
  - Location transparent: service can be local or remote
    - » For example in the X windowing system: Each X client can be on a separate machine from X server; Neither has to run on the machine with the frame buffer.

Summary (1/2)

- Important system properties
  - Availability: how often is the resource available?
  - Durability: how well is data preserved against faults?
  - Reliability: how often is resource performing correctly?
- RAID: Redundant Arrays of Inexpensive Disks
  - RAID1: mirroring, RAID5: Parity block
- Use of Log to improve Reliability
  - Journaled file systems such as ext3, NTFS
- Transactions: ACID semantics
  - Atomicity
  - Consistency
  - Isolation
  - Durability

Summary (2/2)

- Two-phase commit: distributed decision making
  - First, make sure everyone guarantees that they will commit if asked (prepare)
  - Next, ask everyone to commit
- Byzantine General's Problem: distributed decision making with malicious failures
  - One general, n-1 lieutenants: some number of them may be malicious (often "f" of them)
  - All non-malicious lieutenants must come to same decision
  - If general not malicious, lieutenants must follow general
  - Only solvable if $n \geq 3f+1$
- Remote Procedure Call (RPC): Call procedure on remote machine
  - Provides same interface as procedure
  - Automatic packing and unpacking of arguments without user programming (in stub)