

TDDD25

Distributed Systems

Models of Distributed Systems

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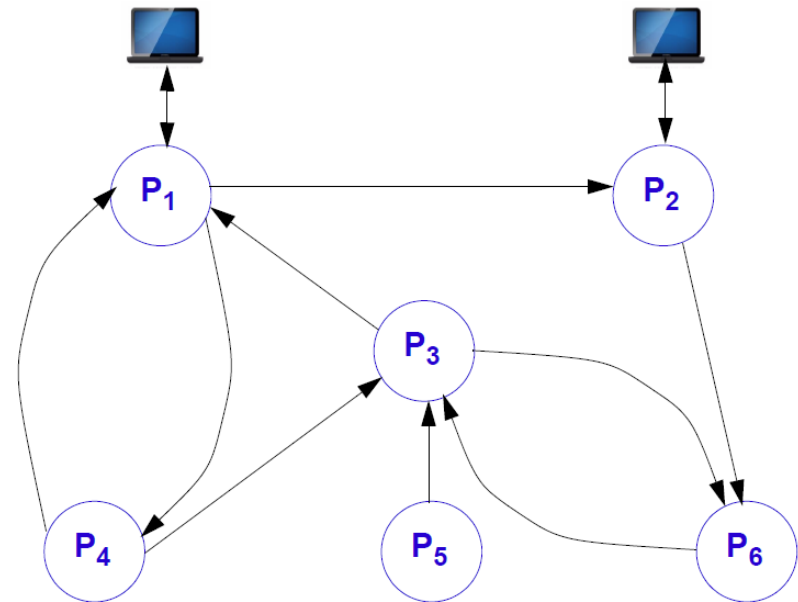
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Agenda

- 1. Architectural Models**
- 2. Interaction Models**
- 3. Fault Models**

Basic Notions

- **Resources** in a distributed system are *shared* between users.
 - They are normally *encapsulated* within *one* of the computers and can be accessed from other computers by *communication*.
- Each resource is managed by a program, the **resource manager**
 - It offers a *communication interface* enabling the resource to be accessed by its users.
 - Resource managers can, in general, be modelled as **processes**.
- If the system is designed according to an object-oriented methodology, resources are **encapsulated in objects**.



Architectural Models

What are architectural models about?

- **Software** architecture and hardware architecture
- How are **responsibilities** distributed between system components, and how are these components **placed**?
 - **Client-server model**
 - **Peer-to-peer**

And variations of the above two:

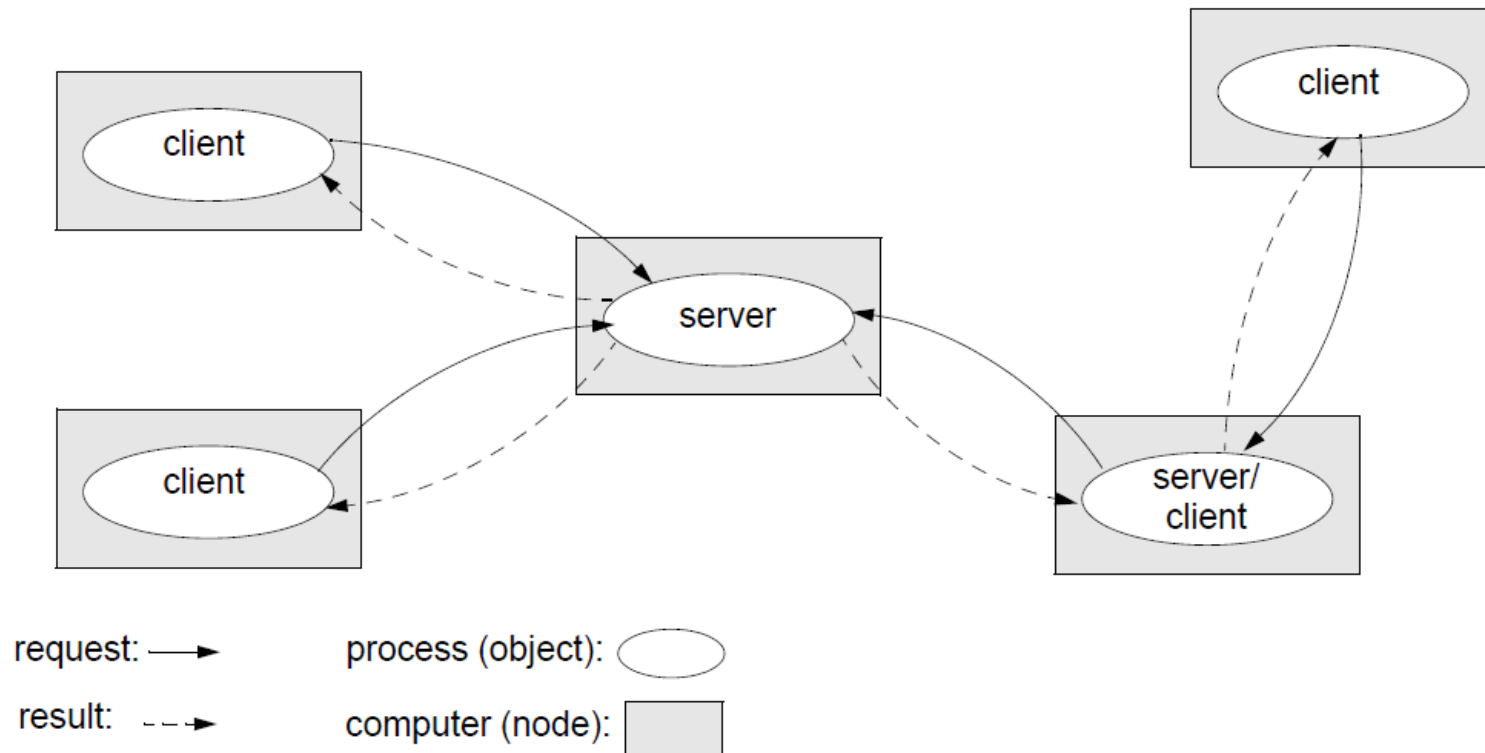
- **Proxy server**
- **Mobile code**
- **Mobile agents**
- **Network computers**
- **Thin clients**
- **Mobile devices**

Client – Server Architecture Model

- The system is structured as a set of processes, called **servers**, that offer *services* to the service users, called **clients**.
- The client-server model is usually based on a simple request/reply protocol, implemented
 - with **send/receive** primitives or
 - using **remote procedure calls (RPC)** or **remote method invocation (RMI)**:
 - The *client* sends a **request (invocation)** message to the server asking for some service.
 - The *server* does the work and returns a **result** (e.g. the data requested) or an **error code** if the work could not be performed.

Client-Server Architecture Model

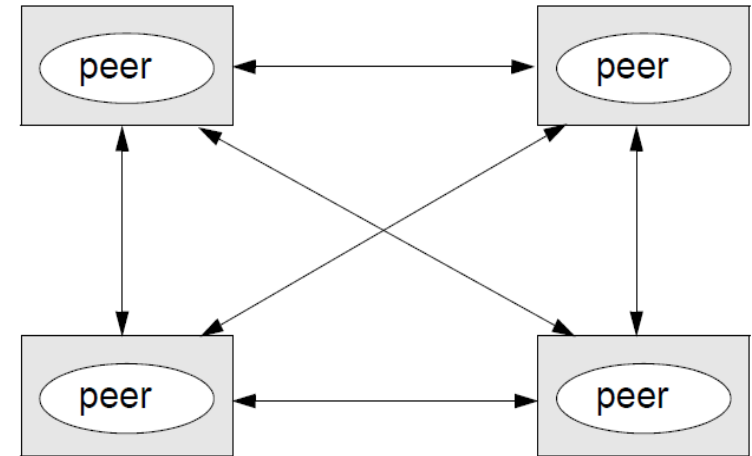
- *Client* and *Server* are **software roles** associated with **processes**, which may be mapped differently to hardware (computer nodes).
- E.g., a server can itself request services from other servers; in this new relation, the server itself acts like a client.



Peer-to-Peer (P2P) Architecture Model

All processes (objects) play a similar role:

- Processes (objects) interact without particular distinction between clients and servers.
- The pattern of communication depends on the particular application.
- A large number of data objects are shared
 - Any individual computer holds only a small part of the application data(base).
- *Processing and communication loads* for access to objects are distributed across many computers and access links.



This is the most general and flexible model.

- Data / file sharing (→later)
- Most common representative / standard in HPC:
MPI Message Passing Interface <https://www.mpi-forum.org>
 - Covered in great detail in TDDE65

Peer-to-Peer vs. Client-Server

Some problems with client-server:

- Centralisation of service → poor scaling

Limitations:

- capacity of server
- bandwidth of network connecting the server

Peer-to-Peer tries to solve some of the above problems

- It distributes shared resources widely
→ computing and communication loads are shared

Problems with peer-to-peer:

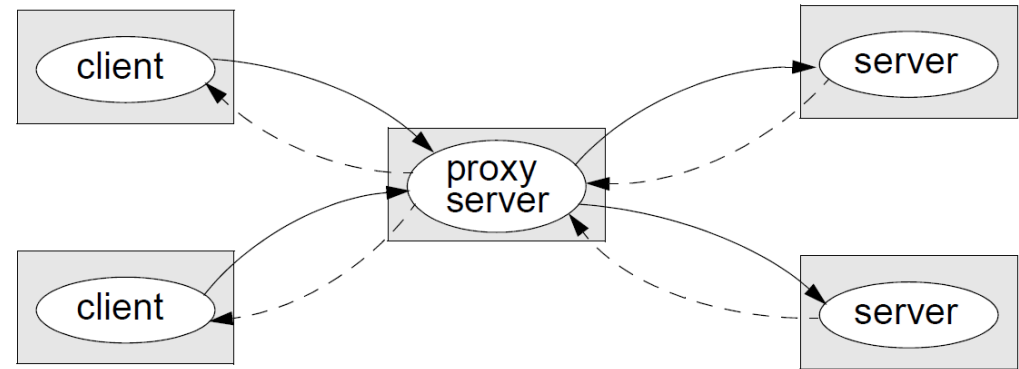
- High complexity, due to need to
 - cleverly place individual objects
 - retrieve the objects
 - maintain a potentially large number of replicas.

Variations of the Basic Models

- Client-server and peer-to-peer can be considered as basic models.
- Several variations have been proposed, →
considering factors such as:
 - multiple servers and proxy servers / caches
 - mobile code and mobile agents
 - mobile devices

Proxy Server

A **proxy server** provides copies (replications) of resources which are managed by other servers.



- Proxy servers are typically used as **caches** for remote resources.
 - They maintain a cache of recently visited web pages or other resources.
 - When a request is issued by a client, the proxy server is first checked if the requested object (information item) is available there.
- Proxy servers can be located at each client, or can be shared by several clients.
- The purpose is to increase performance and availability, by avoiding frequent accesses to remote servers.
- **Extension** of proxy principle: Heavily used servers can be **replicated** to multiple “back-end” servers (the service/data is “**mirrored**”)
 - server farm or spread geographically, plus front-end (proxy) server
 - the proxy server delegates service tasks (e.g., web page / file download, video streaming, search) e.g. **round-robin** across the back-end servers

Mobile Code

- **Mobile code:**
code sent from one computer to another and run at the destination.
 - Advantage: remote invocations are replaced by local ones.
 - Typical example: Java applets

Step 1: load applet



Step 2: interact with applet



Applet: Java
bytecode for
standardized
Java VM,
is fully portable

Weak vs. Strong Mobility of Code

- **Weak mobility:**

code (and possibly input data) sent from one computer to another and run at the destination *from the beginning*

- Examples:

- ▶ Java applets (as seen),
- ▶ uploading code to a server for remote execution, e.g.
 - (Java) servlets,
 - virtual machine images in cloud computing, or
 - functions in *FaaS* (function-as-a-service, “serverless”) cloud computing

Weak vs. Strong Mobility of Code

- **Strong mobility:**

An *already running* process (with code and current state, including stack and heap contents etc.) at the source node is *interrupted*, sent to another node and *continued* there

- Hard to make completely transparent
 - ▶ Need to serialize and transfer the entire runtime stack etc., and deserialize at destination
 - ▶ Often restricted to a few program points, e.g. at function calls
- Example: Mobile agents →

- **Generalization: Process cloning and migration**

- The interrupted process continues on the source computer concurrently with an exact copy of it at interruption time is migrated to another computer
- The distributed equivalent of the fork() system call

Mobile Agents

Mobile agent:

a running program that travels from one computer to another, carrying out a task on someone's behalf.

- A mobile agent is a complete program, code + data, that can work (relatively) independently.
- The mobile agent can invoke local resources/data.

Typical tasks:

- Collect information
- Install/maintain software on computers
- Compare prices from various vendors by visiting their sites.

Attention: potential security risk (like mobile code)!

Interaction Models

- How do we handle **time**?
- Are there **time limits** on process execution, message delivery, and clock drifts?
- **Synchronous distributed systems**
- **Asynchronous distributed systems**

Synchronous Distributed Systems

- **Main features:**

- Lower and upper bounds on execution time of processes can be set.
- Transmitted messages are received within a known bounded time.
- Drift rates between local clocks have a known bound.

- **Important consequences:**

1. In a synchronous distributed system, there is a notion of **global physical time** (with a known relative precision depending on the drift rate).
2. Only synchronous distributed systems are **predictable** in terms of **timing**.
 - ▶ Only such systems can be used for **hard real-time** applications.
3. In a synchronous distributed system, it is possible and safe to **use timeouts in order to detect failures** of a process or communication link.

But ...

- **It is difficult and costly to implement synchronous distributed systems.**

Asynchronous Distributed Systems

Many distributed systems (including those on the Internet) are **asynchronous**:

- No bound on process execution time
(nothing can be assumed about speed, load, reliability of computers).
- No bound on message transmission delays
(nothing can be assumed about speed, load, reliability of interconnections)
- No bounds on drift rates between local clocks.

Important consequences:

1. In an asynchronous distributed system, there is no global physical time. Reasoning can be only in terms of **logical time**.
2. Asynchronous distributed systems are unpredictable in terms of timing.
3. No timeouts can be used.

Asynchronous systems are widely and successfully used in practice.

- In practice, timeouts *are* used with asynchronous systems for failure detection.
 - However, additional measures have to be applied in order to avoid duplicated messages, duplicated execution of operations, etc. →

Fault Models


What kind of faults can occur and what are their effects?

- **Omission faults**
- **Arbitrary faults**
- **Timing faults**

Faults can occur both in processes and communication channels.

- The reason can be both software and hardware.

Fault models are needed in order to build systems with predictable behavior in case of faults (systems which are fault-tolerant).

A **fault-tolerant** system will function according to the predictions only as long as the real faults behave as defined by the *fault model*. Otherwise ... 

Omission Faults (Fail-Stop Model)

A processor or communication channel fails to perform actions it is supposed to do: the particular action is **not performed** by the faulty component!

- With **omission faults**:
 - If a component is faulty, it does *not* produce any output.
 - If a component produces an output, this output is *correct*.
- With omission faults, in *synchronous* systems, faults are detected by **timeouts**.
 - Since we are sure that messages arrive within a time interval, a timeout will indicate that the sending component is faulty.

Such a system has a **fail-stop behavior**.

Arbitrary (Byzantine) Faults

This is the most general and worst possible fault semantics:

- Intended processing steps or communications are omitted or/and unintended ones are executed.
Results may not come at all,
or may come but carry wrong values.

→ Everything, including the worst, can happen!

Timing Faults

- Timing faults can occur in *synchronous* distributed systems, where *time limits* are set to process execution, communications, and clock drifts.
 - A **timing fault** results in any of these time limits being exceeded.

Acknowledgments

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