Operating Systems (Honor Track)

#### File System 5: Storage and File Systems in Modern Computer Systems

Xin Jin Spring 2022

Acknowledgments: Ion Stoica, Berkeley CS 162

#### Storage and File Systems in Modern Computer Systems

- IO devices: disks with dedup
  - FAST'08 Dedup
- IO: end-to-end management
  - SOSP'13 IOFlow
- Modern file systems
  - SOSP'03 GFS
- RAID and erasure coding
  - OSDI'16 EC-Cache
- File systems for distributed applications
  - SIGCOMM'01 Chord

### Avoiding the Disk Bottleneck in the Data Domain Deduplication File System

Benjamin Zhu, Kai Li, Hugo Patterson USENIX FAST 2008

Acknowledgments: Kai Li

### What is "Deduplication?"

- Deduplication is *global compression* that removes the redundant segments globally (across many files)
- Local compression tools (gzip, winzip, ...) encode redundant strings in a small window (within a file)

### Idea of Deduplication



~2-3X compression

~10-50X compression

Large window  $\Rightarrow$  more redundant data

### Backup Data Example



= Unique variable segments
 = Redundant data segments
 = Compressed unique segments

### Deduplication Process (Fingerprinting)



### High-Speed High Compression at Low HW Cost

- Three techniques
  - Summary vector
  - Stream informed segment layout
  - Locality preserved caching (LPC)

# **Summary Vector**

Goal: Use minimal memory to test for new data

- ⇒ Summarize what segments have been stored, with Bloom filter (Bloom'70) in RAM
- $\Rightarrow$  If Summary Vector says no, it's new segment



## **Stream Informed Segment Layout**

Goal: Capture "duplicate locality" on disk

- Segments from the same stream are stored in the same "containers"
- Metadata (index data) are also in the containers



# Locality Preserved Caching (LPC)

Goal: Maintain "duplicate locality" in the cache

- Disk Index has all <fingerprint, containerID> pairs
- Index Cache caches a subset of such pairs
- On a miss, lookup Disk Index to find containerID
- Load the metadata of a container into Index Cache, replace if needed



# Putting Them Together



#### Real World Example at Datacenter A



#### Real World Compression at Datacenter A



### Real World Example at Datacenter B



#### Real World Compression at Datacenter B



# Summary

- Deduplication removes redundant data globally
- Advanced deduplication file system
  - Has become a de facto standard to store highly redundant data because of reduction in cost, performance, power, space, ...
- Three techniques to improve performance
  - Summary vector
  - Stream informed segment layout
  - Locality preserved caching (LPC)

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# IOFlow: a Software-Defined Storage Architecture

Eno Thereska, Hitesh Ballani, Greg O'Shea, Thomas Karagiannis, Antony Rowstron, Tom Talpey, Richard Black, Timothy Zhu

Microsoft Research

"IOFlow: A Software-Defined Storage Architecture. Eno Thereska, Hitesh Ballani, Greg O'Shea, Thomas Karagiannis, Antony Rowstron, Tom Talpey, and Timothy Zhu. In SOSP'13, Farmington, PA, USA. November 3-6, 2013. "

### Background: Enterprise data centers



- General purpose applications
  - Application runs on several VMs
- Separate network for VM-to-VM traffic and <u>VM-to-Storage</u> traffic
- Storage is virtualized
- Resources are <u>shared</u>

# Motivation

Want: predictable application behaviour and performance

Need system to provide end-to-end SLAs, e.g.,

- Guaranteed storage bandwidth B
- Guaranteed high IOPS and priority
- Per-application control over decisions along IOs' path

## It is hard to provide such SLAs today

### Example: guarantee aggregate bandwidth B for Red tenant



Deep IO path with 18+ different layers that are configured and operate independently and do not understand SLAs

# Challenges in enforcing end-to-end SLAs

- No storage control plane
- No enforcing mechanism along storage data plane
- Aggregate performance SLAs
  - Across VMs, files and storage operations
- Want non-performance SLAs: control over IOs' path
- Want to support unmodified applications and VMs

# IOFlow architecture



# Contributions

- Defined and built storage control plane
- Controllable queues in data plane
- Interface between control and data plane (IOFlow API)
- Built centralized control applications that demonstrate power of architecture

# Storage flows

Storage "Flow" refers to all IO requests to which an SLA applies

<{VMs}, {File Operations}, {Files}, {Shares}> ---> SLA source set destination sets

- Aggregate, per-operation and per-file SLAs, e.g.,
  <{VM 1-100}, write, \*, \\share\db-log}>---> high priority
  <{VM 1-100}, \*, \*, \\share\db-data}> ---> min 100,000 IOPS
- Non-performance SLAs, e.g., path routing

<VM 1, \*, \*, \\share\dataset>---> bypass malware scanner

# IOFlow API: programming data plane queues

- 1. Classification [IO Header -> Queue]
- 2. Queue servicing [Queue < < token rate, priority, queue size>]
- 3. Routing [Queue -> Next-hop]



## Lack of common IO Header for storage traffic

SLA: </W 4, \*, \*, \share\dataset>--> Bandwidth B



# Flow name resolution through controller

SLA: {VM 4, \*, \*, //share/dataset} --> Bandwidth B



Rate limiting for congestion control

Queue servicing [Queue -> <token rate, priority, queue size>]

- Important for performance SLAs
- Today: no storage congestion control



Challenging for storage: e.g., how to rate limit two VMs, one reading, one writing to get equal storage bandwidth?

## Rate limiting on payload bytes does not work



# Rate limiting on bytes does not work



# Rate limiting on IOPS does not work



# Rate limiting based on cost

- Controller constructs empirical cost models based on device type and workload characteristics
  - RAM, SSDs, disks: read/write ratio, request size

- Cost models assigned to each queue
  - ConfigureTokenBucket [Queue -> cost model]

Large request sizes split for pre-emption

# Recap: Programmable queues on data plane

- Classification [IO Header -> Queue]
  - Per-layer metadata exposed to controller
  - Controller out of critical path
- Queue servicing [Queue -> <token rate, priority, queue size>]
  - Congestion control based on operation cost
- Routing [Queue -> Next-hop]

### How does controller enforce SLA?

Distributed, dynamic enforcement <{Red VMs 1-4}, \*, \* //share/dataset> --> Bandwidth 40 Gbps



- SLA needs per-VM enforcement
- Need to control the aggregate rate of VMs 1-4 that reside on different physical machines
- Static partitioning of bandwidth is suboptimal
### Work-conserving solution



VMs with traffic demand should be able to send it as long as the aggregate rate does not exceed 40 Gbps

• **Solution:** *Max-min fair sharing* 

# Max-min fair sharing

Well studied problem in networks

- Existing solutions are distributed
  - Each VM varies its rate based on congestion
  - Converge to max-min sharing
- Drawbacks: complex and requires congestion signal

#### But we have a centralized controller

Converts to simple algorithm at controller

40

### Controller-based max-min fair sharing

t = control interval

*s* = *stats sampling interval* 



- Infers VM demands
- Uses centralized max-min within a tenant and <u>across</u> tenants
- Sets VM token rates
- Chooses best place to enforce



OUTPUT: per-VM allocated token rate

# Controller decides where to enforce

Minimize # times IO is queued and distribute rate limiting load



#### **SLA constraints**

- Queues where resources shared
- Bandwidth enforced close to source
- Priority enforced end-to-end

**Efficiency considerations** 

- Overhead in data plane ~ # queues
- Important at 40+ Gbps

### Centralized vs. decentralized control

Centralized controller in SDS allows for simple algorithms that focus on SLA enforcement and **not** on distributed system challenges

Analogous to benefits of centralized control in softwaredefined networking (SDN)

# **IOFlow implementation**



2 key layers for VM-to-Storage performance SLAs

- 4 other layers. Scanner driver (routing). User-level (routing)
- . Network driver . Guest OS file system

Implemented as filter drivers on top of layers



# IOFlow's ability to enforce end-to-end SLAs Aggregate bandwidth SLAs Priority SLAs and routing application in paper Performance of data and control planes

### **Evaluation setup**



	Switch	
	Storage server	
P		

<u>Clients:</u>10 hypervisor servers, 12 VMs each 4 tenants (Red, Green, Yellow, Blue) 30 VMs/tenant, 3 VMs/tenant/server <u>Storage network:</u> Mellanox 40Gbps RDMA RoCE full-duplex

#### **1** storage server:

16 CPUs, 2.4GHz (Dell R720) SMB 3.0 file server protocol 3 types of backend: RAM, SSDs, Disks

<u>**Controller:</u>** 1 separate server 1 sec control interval (configurable)</u>

### Workloads

- 4 Hotmail tenants {Index, Data, Message, Log}
  Used for trace replay on SSDs (see paper)
- IoMeter is parametrized with Hotmail tenant characteristics (read/write ratio, request size)

	Index	Data	Message	Log
Read %	75%	61%	56%	1%
IO Sizes	4/64 KB	8 KB	4/64 KB	0.5/64 KB
Seq/rand	Mixed	Rand	Rand	Seq
# IOs	32M	158M	36M	54M

# Enforcing bandwidth SLAs

4 tenants with different storage bandwidth SLAs

Tenant	SLA	
Red	{VM1 – 30} -> Min 800 MB/s	
Green	{VM31-60} -> Min 800 MB/s	
Yellow	{VM61-90} -> Min 2500 MB/s	
Blue	{VM91 – 120} -> Min 1500 MB/s	

Tenants have different workloads

Red tenant is aggressive: generates more requests/second

# Things to look for

Distributed enforcement across 4 competing tenants

Aggressive tenant(s) under control

Dynamic inter-tenant work conservation

Bandwidth released by idle tenant given to active tenants

Dynamic intra-tenant work conservation

- Bandwidth of tenant's idle VMs given to its active VMs



Data plane overheads at 40Gbps RDMA

Negligible in previous experiment. To bring out worst case varied IO sizes from 512Bytes to 64KB



Reasonable overheads for enforcing SLAs

Controller configures queue rules, receives statistics and updates token rates every interval

Control plane overheads: network and CPU





- Defined and built storage control plane
- Controllable queues in data plane
- Interface between control and data plane (IOFlow API)
- Built centralized control applications that demonstrate power of architecture
- Ongoing work: applying to public cloud scenarios

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# The Google File System

Firas Abuzaid

The Google File System. Sanjay Ghemawat, Howard Gobioff, and Shun-Tak Leung. In ACM SOSP'03.

### Why build GFS?

- Node failures happen frequently
- Files are huge multi-GB
- Most files are modified by appending at the end
  - Random writes (and overwrites) are practically non-existent
- High sustained bandwidth is more important than low latency
  - Place more priority on processing data in bulk

### Typical workloads on GFS

- Two kinds of reads: large streaming reads & small random reads
  - Large streaming reads usually read IMB or more
  - Oftentimes, applications read through contiguous regions in the file
  - Small random reads are usually only a few KBs at some arbitrary offset
- Also many large, sequential writes that append data to files
  - $\circ$   $\,$  Similar operation sizes to reads
  - Once written, files are seldom modified again
  - Small writes at arbitrary offsets do not have to be efficient
- Multiple clients (e.g. ~100) concurrently appending to a single file
  - e.g. producer-consumer queues, many-way merging

#### Interface

- Not POSIX-compliant, but supports typical file system operations: create, delete, open, close, read, and write
- snapshot: creates a copy of a file or a directory tree at low cost
- record append: allow multiple clients to append data to the same file concurrently
  - At least the very first append is guaranteed to be atomic

#### Architecture



#### Architecture

#### • Very important: <u>data flow is decoupled from control flow</u>

- Clients interact with the master for metadata operations
- Clients interact directly with chunkservers for all files operations
- This means performance can be improved by scheduling expensive data flow based on the network topology

#### The Master Node

- Responsible for all system-wide activities
  - managing chunk leases, reclaiming storage space, load-balancing
- Maintains all file system metadata
  - Namespaces, ACLs, mappings from files to chunks, and current locations of chunks
  - all kept in memory, namespaces and file-to-chunk mappings are also stored persistently in
    <u>operation log</u>
- Periodically communicates with each chunkserver in HeartBeat messages
  - This let's master determines chunk locations and assesses state of the overall system

### The Operation Log

- Only persistent record of metadata
- Also serves as a logical timeline that defines the serialized order of concurrent operations
- Master recovers its state by replaying the operation log
  - To minimize startup time, the master checkpoints the log periodically

### Why a Single Master?

- The master now has global knowledge of the whole system, which drastically simplifies the design
- But the master is (hopefully) never the bottleneck
  - Clients never read and write file data through the master; client only requests from master which chunkservers to talk to
  - Master can also provide additional information about subsequent chunks to further reduce latency
  - Further reads of the same chunk don't involve the master, either

### Why a Single Master?

- Master state is also replicated for reliability on multiple machines, using the operation log and checkpoints
  - If master fails, GFS can start a new master process at any of these replicas and modify DNS alias accordingly
  - "Shadow" masters also provide read-only access to the file system, even when primary master is down
    - They read a replica of the operation log and apply the same sequence of changes
    - Not mirrors of master they lag primary master by fractions of a second
    - This means we can still read up-to-date file contents while master is in recovery!

#### Chunks and Chunkservers

- Files are divided into fixed-size <u>chunks</u>, which has an immutable, globally unique 64-bit <u>chunk handle</u>
  - By default, each chunk is replicated three times across multiple chunkservers (user can modify amount of replication)
- Chunkservers store the chunks on local disks as Linux files
  - Metadata per chunk is < 64 bytes (stored in master)
    - Current replica locations
    - Reference count (useful for copy-on-write)
    - Version number (for detecting stale replicas)

#### Chunk Size

- 64 MB, a key design parameter (Much larger than most file systems.)
- Disadvantages:
  - Wasted space due to internal fragmentation
  - Small files consist of a few chunks, which then get lots of traffic from concurrent clients
    - This can be mitigated by increasing the replication factor
- Advantages:
  - Reduces clients' need to interact with master (reads/writes on the same chunk only require one request)
  - Since client is likely to perform many operations on a given chunk, keeping a persistent TCP connection to the chunkserver reduces network overhead
  - $\circ$  Reduces the size of the metadata stored in master  $\rightarrow$  metadata can be entirely kept in memory

### System Interactions

- If the master receives a modification operation for a particular chunk:
  - Master finds the chunkservers that have the chunk and grants a <u>chunk lease</u> to one of them
    - This server is called the <u>primary</u>, the other servers are called <u>secondaries</u>
    - The primary determines the serialization order for all of the chunk's modifications, and the secondaries follow that order
  - After the lease expires (~60 seconds), master may grant primary status to a different server for that chunk
    - The master can, at times, revoke a lease (e.g. to disable modifications when file is being renamed)
    - As long as chunk is being modified, the primary can request an extension indefinitely
  - If master loses contact with primary, that's okay: just grant a new lease after the old one expires

### System Interactions

- Client asks master for all chunkservers (including all secondaries)
- 2. Master grants a new lease on chunk, increases the chunk version number, tells all replicas to do the same. Replies to client. <u>Client no longer has to talk to master</u>
- 3. Client pushes data to all servers, <u>not necessarily to</u> <u>primary first</u>
- 4. Once data is acked, client sends write request to primary. Primary decides serialization order for all incoming modifications and applies them to the chunk



### System Interactions

- 5. <u>After finishing the modification</u>, primary forwards write request and serialization order to secondaries, so they can apply modifications in same order. (If primary fails, this step is never reached.)
- 6. All secondaries reply back to the primary once they finish the modifications
- 7. Primary replies back to the client, either with success or error
  - If write succeeds at primary but fails at any of the secondaries, then we have inconsistent state  $\rightarrow$  error returned to client
  - Client can retry steps (3) through (7)

Note: If a write straddles chunk boundary, GFS splits this into multiple write operations



#### Conclusions

- Decouple data plane from control plane
  - Control plane: centralized single master
  - Data plane: distributed chuck servers
- Similar concept has been applied to many other systems

	Google	Hadoop	
File System	GFS	Hadoop File System (HDFS)	
Structured Data Management	BigTable	HBase	
Data Processing Engine	MapReduce	Hadoop 🗪 Spark	

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**EC-Cache**: Load-balanced, Low-latency Cluster Caching with Online Erasure Coding

> Rashmi Vinayak UC Berkeley

> > Joint work with

Mosharaf Chowdhury, Jack Kosaian (U Michigan) Ion Stoica, Kannan Ramchandran (UC Berkeley)

#### **Caching for data-intensive clusters**

- Data-intensive clusters rely on distributed, in-memory caching for high performance
  - Reading from memory orders of magnitude faster than from disk/ssd
  - Example: Alluxio (formerly Tachyon<sup>+</sup>)
### Imbalances prevalent in clusters

Sources of imbalance:

- Skew in object popularity
- Background network imbalance
- Failures/unavailabilities

# Imbalances prevalent in cluster

Sources of imbalance:

- Skew in object popularity
- Background network imbalance
- Failures/unavailabilities
- ➡ Adverse effects:
  - load imbalance
  - high read latency

Single copy in memory often not sufficient to get good performance

# **Popular approach: Selective Replication**

- Uses some memory overhead to cache replicas of objects based on their popularity
  - more replicas for more popular objects



# **Popular approach: Selective Replication**

- Uses some memory overhead to cache replicas of objects based on their popularity
  - more replicas for more popular objects



 Used in data-intensive clusters<sup>+</sup> as well as widely used in keyvalue stores for many web services such as Facebook Tao<sup>‡</sup>

<sup>+</sup>Ananthanarayanan et al. NSDI 2011, <sup>‡</sup>Bronson et al. ATC 2013



# Quick primer on erasure coding

- Takes in k data units and creates r "parity" units
- Any k of the (k+r) units are sufficient to decode the original k data units



### EC-Cache bird's eye view: Writes

- Object split into k data units
- Encoded to generate r parity units
- (k+r) units cached on distinct servers chosen uniformly at random



# EC-Cache bird's eye view: Reads

- Read from (k + Δ) units of the object chosen uniformly at random
  - . "Additional reads"
- Use the first k units that arrive
- Decode the data units
- Combine the decoded units



### **Erasure coding: How does it help?**

- **1.** Finer control over memory overhead
  - · Selective replication allows only integer control
  - Erasure coding allows fractional control
  - E.g., k = 10 allows control in of multiples of 0.1

#### 2. Object splitting helps in load balancing

Smaller granularity reads help to smoothly spread load

$$\frac{\text{Var}(L_{\text{EC-Cache}})}{\text{Var}(L_{\text{Selective Replication}})} = \frac{1}{k}$$

#### **Erasure coding: How does it help?**

- 3. Object splitting reduces median latency but hurts tail latency
  - . Read parallelism helps reduce median latency
  - Straggler effect hurts tail latency (if no additional reads)
- 4. "Any k out of (k+r)" property helps to reduce tail latency
  . Read from (k + Δ) and use the first k that arrive
  . Δ = 1 often sufficient to reign in tail latency

#### **Design considerations**

#### **1.** Purpose of erasure codes

	Storage systems		EC-Cache	
•	Space-efficient fault tolerance	•	Reduce read latency Load balance	

#### **Design considerations**

#### 2. Choice of erasure code

Storage systems	EC-Cache
<ul> <li>Optimize resource usage during reconstruction operations<sup>†</sup></li> </ul>	<ul> <li>No reconstruction operations in caching layer; data persisted in underlying storage</li> </ul>
<ul> <li>Some codes do not have "any k out of (k+r)" property</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>"Any k out of (k+r)" property helps in load balancing and reducing latency when reading objects</li> </ul>

#### **Design considerations**

#### 3. How do we use erasure coding: across vs. within objects

	Storage systems	EC-Cache
•	Some systems encode across objects (e.g., HDFS- RAID); some within (e.g., Ceph)	<ul> <li>Need to encode within objects</li> <li>To spread load across both data &amp; parity</li> </ul>
•	Does not affect fault tolerance	<ul> <li>Encoding across: Very high BW overhead for reading object using parities<sup>†</sup></li> </ul>

#### Implementation

- EC-Cache on top of Alluxio (formerly Tachyon)

   Backend caching servers: cache data unaware of erasure coding
   EC-Cache client library: all read/write logic handled
- Reed-Solomon code
  - Any k out of (k+r) property
- Intel ISA-L hardware acceleration library
  - Fast encoding and decoding

#### **Evaluation set-up**

- Amazon EC2
- 25 backend caching servers and 30 client servers
- Object popularity: Zipf distribution with high skew
- EC-Cache uses k = 10,  $\Delta = 1$ 
  - BW overhead = 10%
- Varying object sizes

## Load balancing



> 3x reduction in load imbalance metric

### **Read latency**



- Median: 2.64x improvement
- 99th and 99.9th: ~1.75x improvement

#### Varying object sizes



5.5x improvement for 100MB

**Tail latency** 



3.85x improvement for 100 MB

More improvement for larger object sizes

### Role of additional reads (Δ)

Significant degradation in tail latency without additional reads (i.e.,  $\Delta = 0$ )



# Summary

- EC-Cache
  - Cluster cache employing erasure coding for load balancing and reducing read latencies
  - Demonstrates new application and new goals for which erasure coding is highly effective
- Implementation on Alluxio
- Evaluation
  - . Load balancing: > 3x improvement
  - Median latency: > 5x improvement
  - Tail latency: > 3x improvement

#### **Thanks!**

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Chord: A Scalable Peer-to-peer Lookup Service for Internet Applications

> Ion Stoica, Robert Morris, David Karger, M. Frans Kaashoek, Hari Balakrishnan

> > ACM SIGCOMM 2001

presentation based on slides by Daniel Figueiredo and Robert Morris

# Outline

- Motivation and background
- Consistency caching
- □ Chord
- Performance evaluation
- Conclusion and discussion

# Motivation

How to find data in a distributed file sharing system?



Lookup is the key problem



- Requires O(M) state
- □ Single point of failure



□ Worst case O(N) messages per lookup



# **Routing Challenges**

- Define a useful key nearness metric
- □ Keep the hop count small
- Keep the routing tables "right size"
- □ Stay robust despite rapid changes in membership

### Chord Overview

- Provides peer-to-peer hash lookup service:
  - $\Box \quad \text{Lookup(key)} \rightarrow \text{IP address}$
  - Chord does not store the data
- How does Chord locate a node?
- How does Chord maintain routing tables?
- How does Chord cope with changes in membership?

# Chord properties

Efficient: O(Log N) messages per lookup

- N is the total number of servers
- □ Scalable: O(Log N) state per node
- Robust: survives massive changes in membership
- Proofs are in paper / tech report
  - Assuming no malicious participants

### Chord IDs

- m bit identifier space for both keys and nodes
- □ Key identifier = SHA-1(key)

Key="LetItBe" <u>SHA-1</u> → ID=60

- Both are uniformly distributed
- □ How to map key IDs to node IDs?



A key is stored at its successor: node with next higher ID

# **Consistent Hashing**

- Every node knows of every other node
  - requires global information
- Routing tables are large QN
- □ Lookups are fast O(1)





 $\square$  requires O(N) time

# "Finger Tables"

- Every node knows m other nodes in the ring
- □ Increase distance exponentially



# "Finger Tables"

**\square** Finger *i* points to successor of *n+2<sup>i</sup>* 


#### Lookups are Faster



## Joining the Ring

#### □ Three step process:

- □ Initialize all fingers of new node
- Update fingers of existing nodes
- □ Transfer keys from successor to new node
- □ Less aggressive mechanism (lazy finger update):
  - □ Initialize only the finger to successor node
  - Periodically verify immediate successor, predecessor
  - Periodically refresh finger table entries

# Joining the Ring - Step 1

- □ Initialize the new node finger table
  - $\square$  Locate any node p in the ring
  - $\square$  Ask node *p* to lookup fingers of new node N36



# Joining the Ring - Step 2

- Updating fingers of existing nodes
  - new node calls update function on existing nodes
  - existing nodes can recursively update fingers of other nodes



# Joining the Ring - Step 3

- Transfer keys from successor node to new node
  - only keys in the range are transferred



## **Evaluation Overview**

- Quick lookup in large systems
- Low variation in lookup costs
- Robust despite massive failure
- Experiments confirm theoretical results

#### Cost of lookup

□ Cost is O(Log N) as predicted by theory



## Summary

- Pioneering work in peer-to-peer networks
- Elegant solution that bridges theory and practice
- Scalability with theoretical guarantees

- Later developments
  - DHTs  $\rightarrow$  Key-value stores, e.g., Amazon Dynamo
  - Distributed applications  $\rightarrow$  Blockchain, Bitcoin, Ethereum, etc.