Structured Peer-to-Peer Networks

- The P2P Scaling Problem
- Unstructured P2P Revisited
- Distributed Indexing
- Fundamentals of Distributed Hash Tables

- DHT Algorithms
  - Chord
  - Pastry
  - Can
- Programming a DHT

Graphics repeatedly taken from:
R.Steinmetz, K. Wehrle: *Peer-to-Peer Systems and Applications*, Springer LNCS 3485, 2005
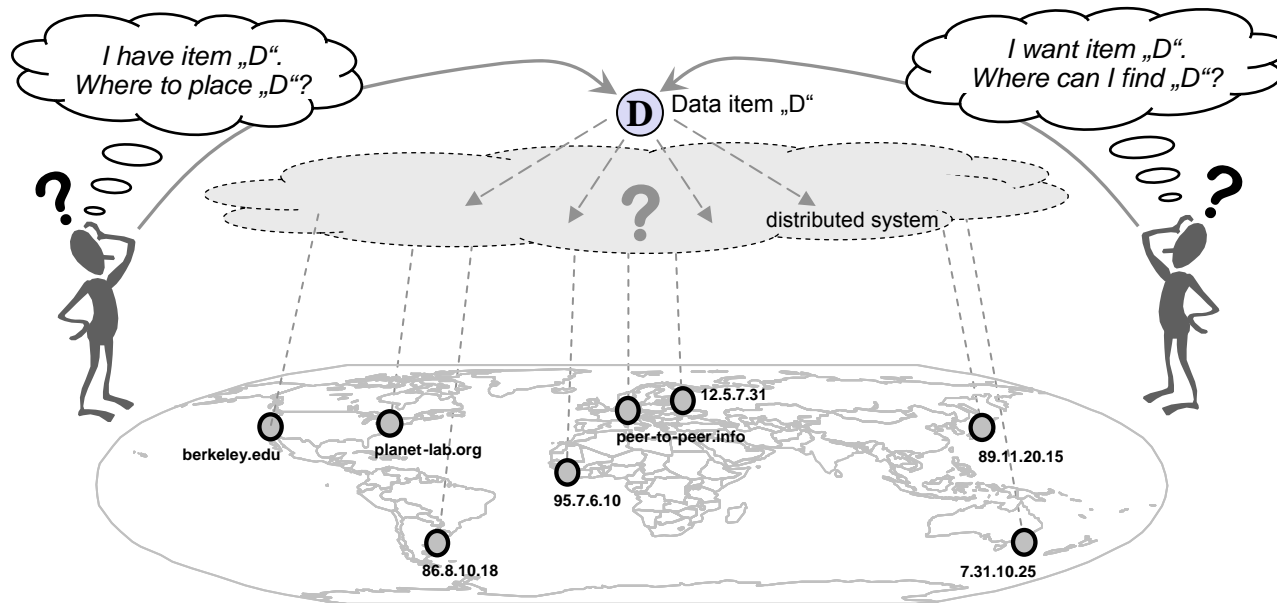
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Demands of P2P Systems

➡ Instant Deployment

    ➡ Independent of infrastructural provisions

➡ Flexibility

    ➡ Seamless adaptation to changing member requirements

➡ Reliability

    ➡ Robustness against node or infrastructure failures

➡ Scalability

    ➡ Resources per node do not (significantly) increase as the P2P network grows

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The Challenge in Peer-to-Peer Systems

- Location of resources (data items) distributed among systems
  - Where shall the item be stored by the provider?
  - How does a requester find the actual location of an item?
- Scalability: limit the complexity for communication and storage
- Robustness and resilience in case of faults and frequent changes

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Unstructured P2P Revisited

Basically two approaches:

➡ Centralized

   ➡ Simple, flexible searches at server ($O(1)$)

   ➡ Single point of failure, $O(N)$ node states at server
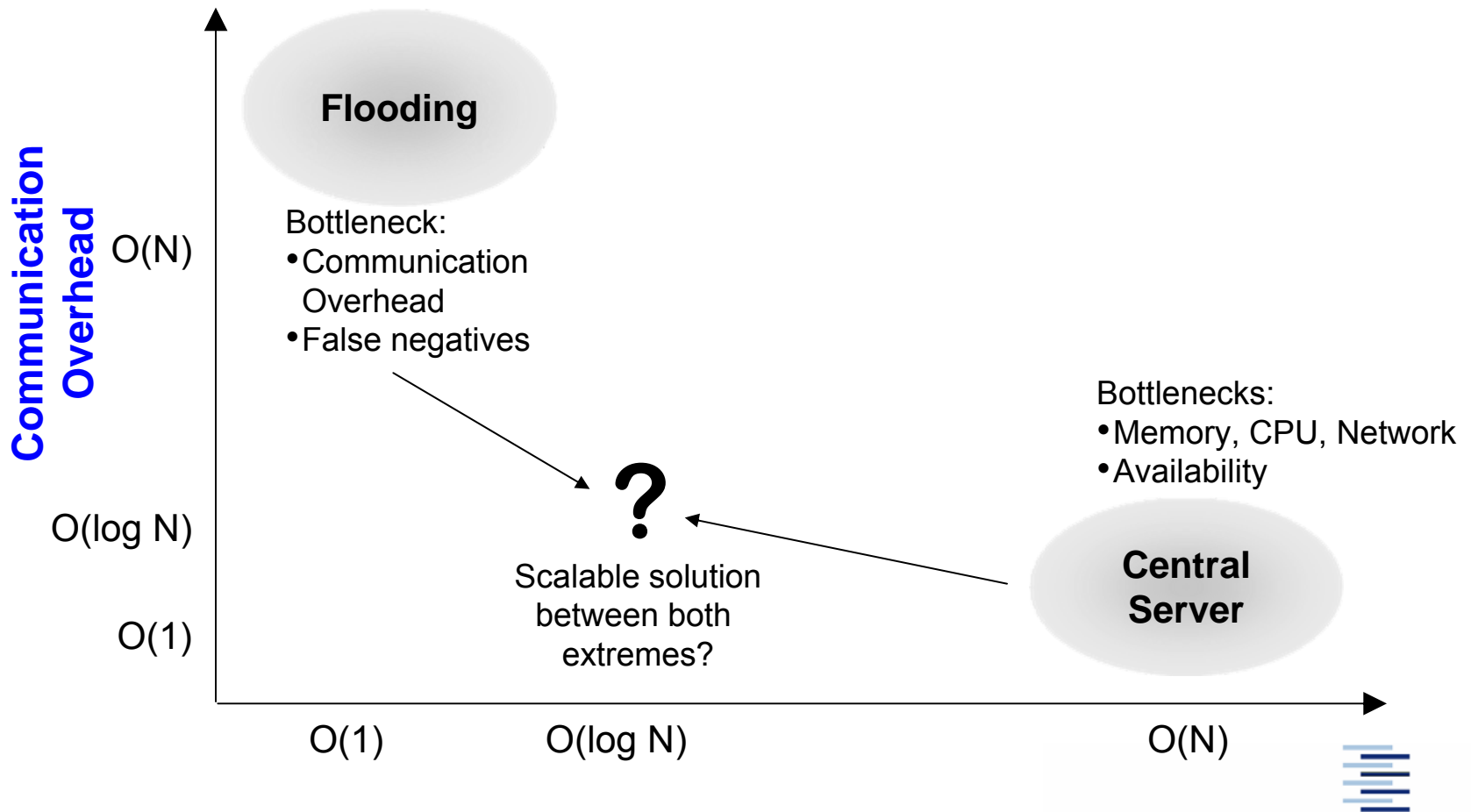
➡ Decentralized Flooding

   ➡ Fault tolerant, $O(1)$ node states

   ➡ Communication overhead $\geq O(N^2)$, search may fail

But:

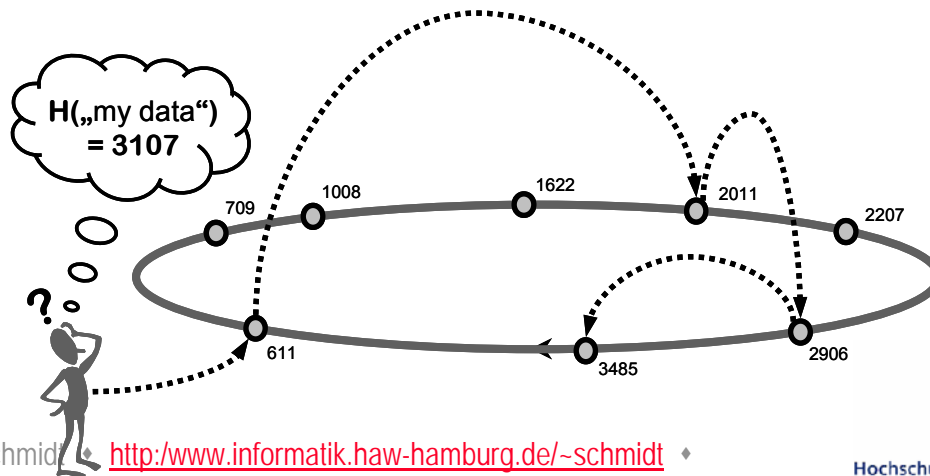   ➡ No reference structure between nodes imposed

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Unstructured P2P: Complexities

Flooding

Bottleneck:
- Communication Overhead
- False negatives

Bottlenecks:
- Memory, CPU, Network
- Availability

?

Scalable solution between both extremes?

Central Server

Communication Overhead (vertical axis): O(N), O(log N), O(1)

Horizontal axis: O(1), O(log N), O(N)

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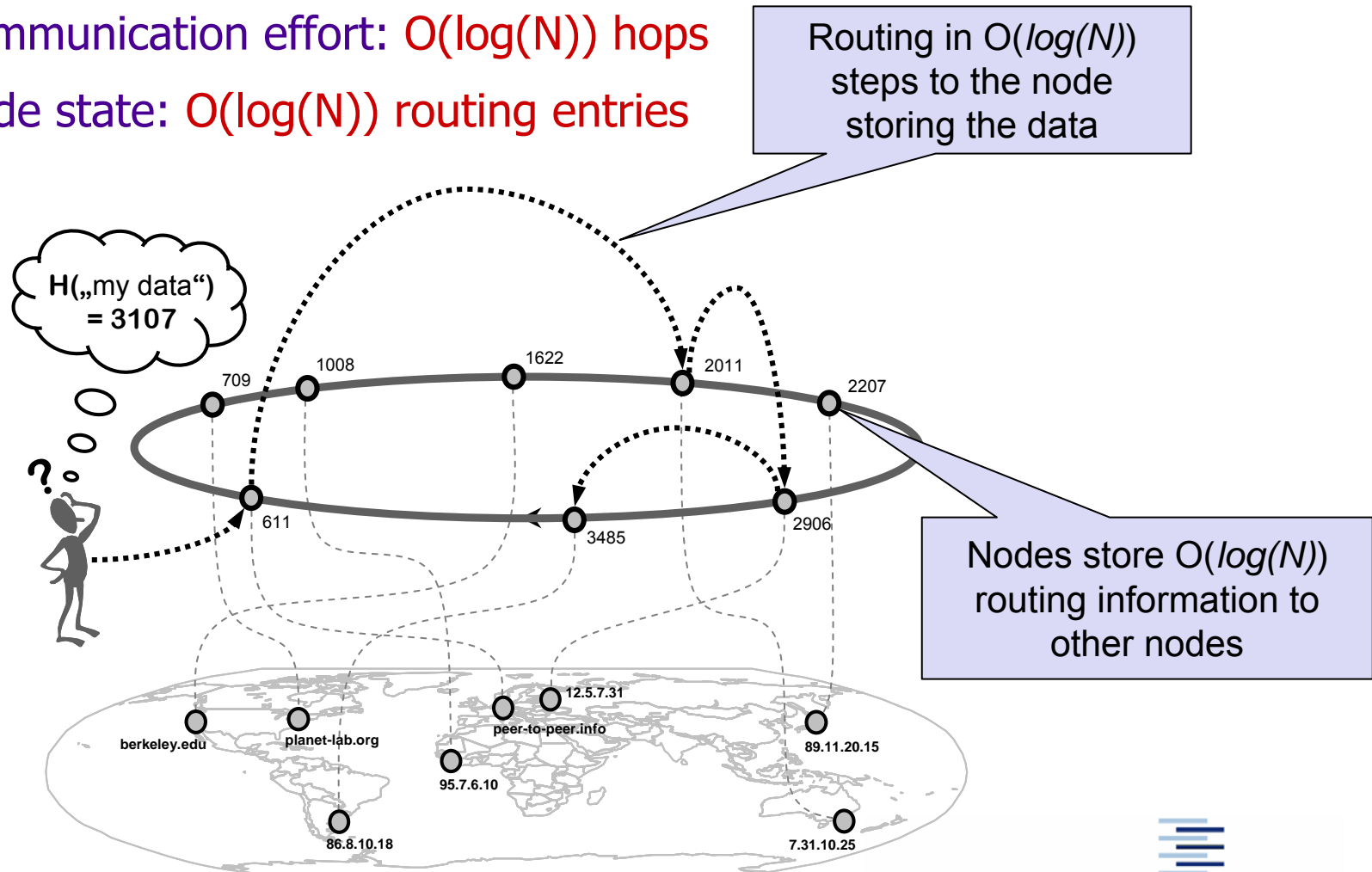Hamburg University of Applied Sciences

Idea: Distributed Indexing

➤ Initial ideas from distributed shared memories (1987 ff.)

➤ Nodes are structured according to some address space

➤ Data is mapped into the same address space

➤ Intermediate nodes maintain routing information to target nodes

  ➤ Efficient forwarding to „destination" (content – not location)
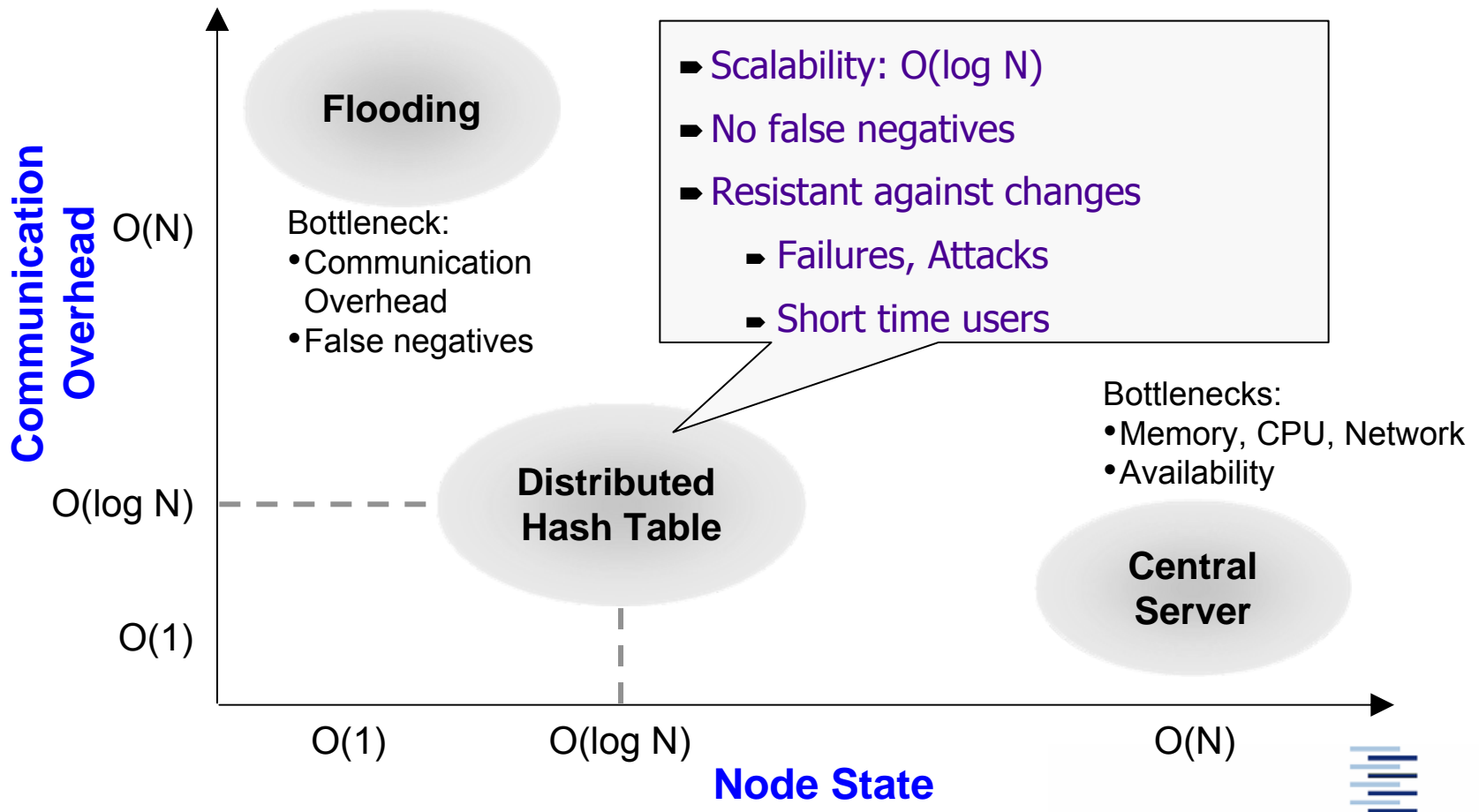
  ➤ Definitive statement about existence of content

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Scalability of Distributed Indexing

- Communication effort: O(log(N)) hops

- Node state: O(log(N)) routing entries

Routing in $O(log(N))$ steps to the node storing the data

Nodes store $O(log(N))$ routing information to other nodes

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Distributed Indexing: Complexities

Flooding

Bottleneck:
- Communication Overhead
- False negatives

➤ Scalability: O(log N)

➤ No false negatives

➤ Resistant against changes

   ➤ Failures, Attacks

   ➤ Short time users

Distributed Hash Table

Bottlenecks:
- Memory, CPU, Network
- Availability

Central Server

Communication Overhead (y-axis)

O(N)

O(log N)

O(1)

Node State (x-axis)

O(1)   O(log N)   O(N)

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Fundamentals of Distributed Hash Tables

- Desired Characteristics:
  Flexibility, Reliability, Scalability

- Challenges for designing DHTs

  - 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

  - Maintenance of routing information

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Distributed Management of Data

1. **Mapping of nodes and data into same address space**

   ➡ Peers and content are addressed using flat identifiers (IDs)

   ➡ Nodes are responsible for data in certain parts of the address space

   ➡ Association of data to nodes may change since nodes may disappear

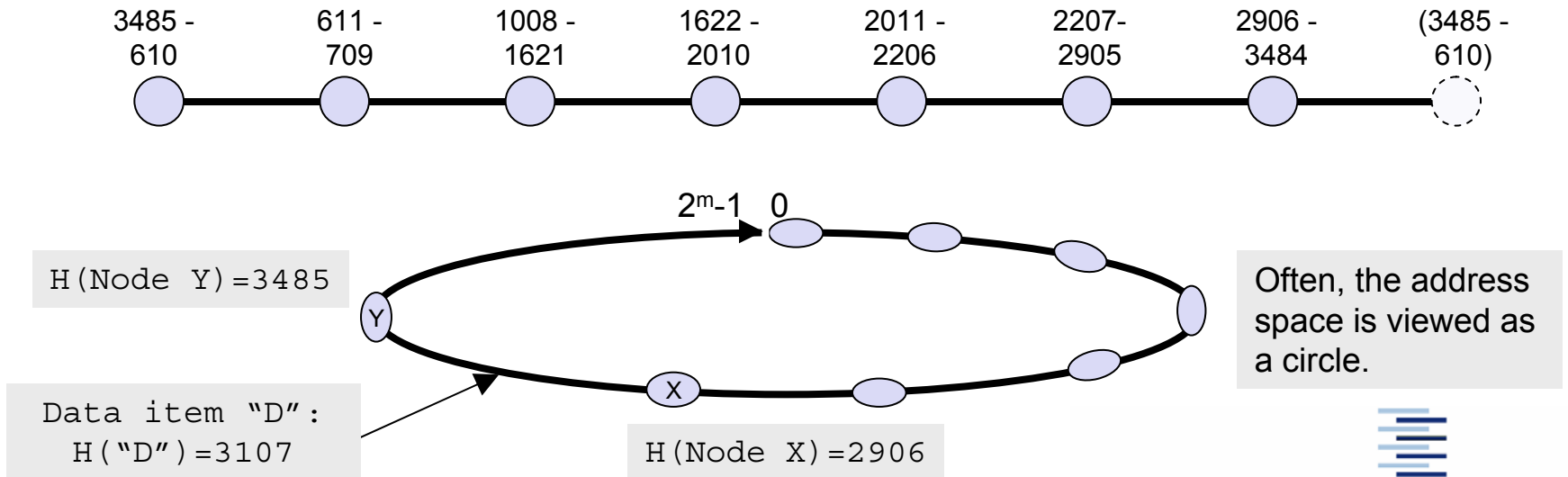2. **Storing / Looking up data in the DHT**

   ➡ Search for data = routing to the responsible node

      ➡ Responsible node not necessarily known in advance

      ➡ Deterministic statement about availability of data

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Addressing in Distributed Hash Tables

Step 1: Mapping of content/nodes into linear space

- Usually: $0, …, 2^m-1 \gg$ number of objects to be stored

- Mapping of data and nodes into an address space (with hash function)

  - E.g., Hash(*String*) mod 2^m: H(„*my data*") $\rightarrow$ 2313

- Association of parts of address space to DHT nodes

3485 - 610	611 - 709	1008 - 1621	1622 - 2010	2011 - 2206	2207- 2905	2906 - 3484	(3485 - 610)

2^m-1 0

```
H(Node Y)=3485
```

```
Data item "D":
  H("D")=3107
```

```
H(Node X)=2906
```

Often, the address space is viewed as a circle.

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Mapping Address Space to Nodes
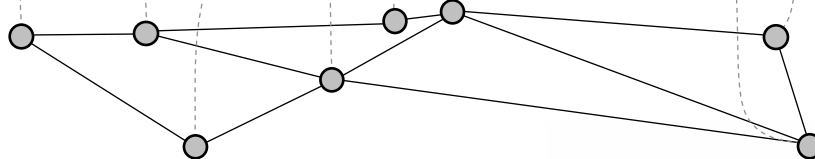
Each node is responsible for part of the value range

➡ Often with redundancy (overlapping of parts)

➡ Continuous adaptation

➡ Real (underlay) and logical (overlay) topology so far uncorrelated

> Node 3485 is responsible for data items in range 2907 to 3485
> (in case of a Chord-DHT)

Logical view of the Distributed Hash Table

709 1008 1622 2011 2207

611 3485 2906

Mapping on the real topology

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Routing to a Data Item

Step 2: Locating the data (content-based routing)
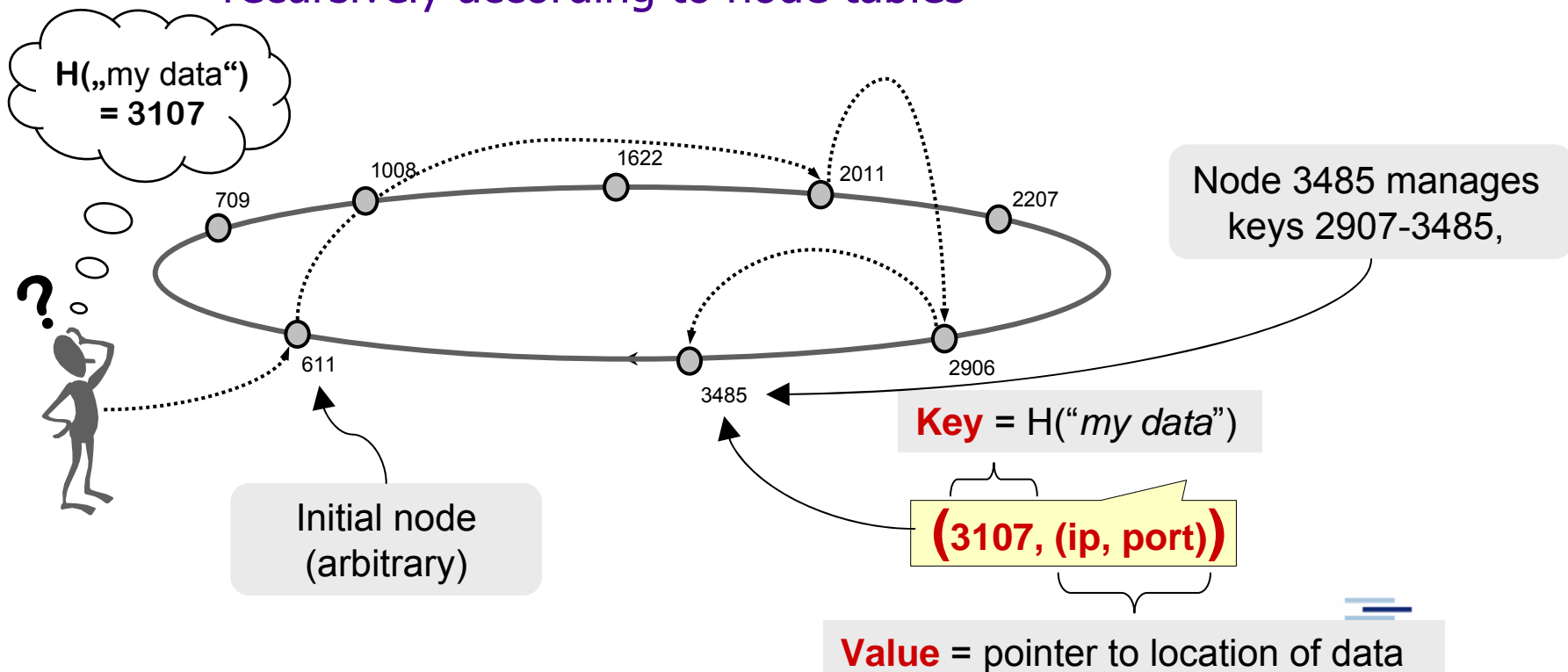
Goal: Small and scalable effort
- O(1) with centralized hash table
- Minimum overhead with distributed hash tables
  - O(log N): DHT hops to locate object
  - O(log N): number of keys and routing information per node (N = # nodes)

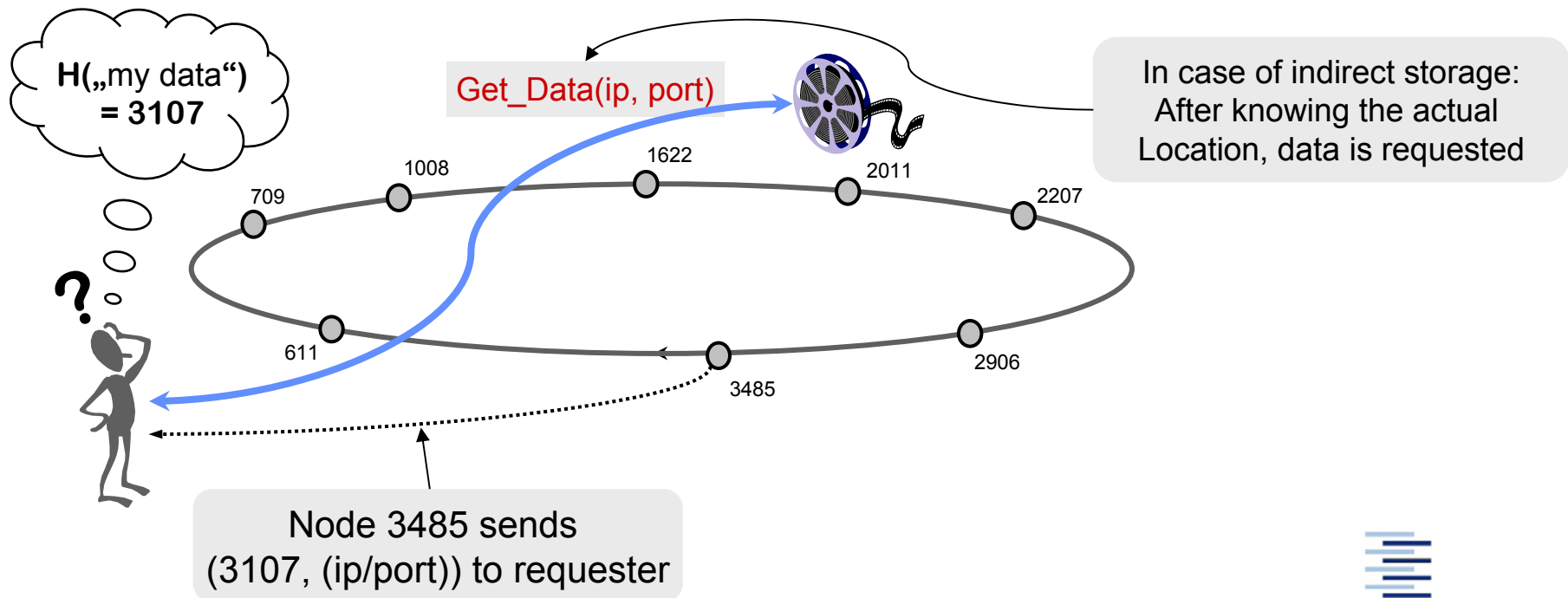Hochschule für Angewandte Wissenschaften Hamburg
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Routing to a Data Item (2)

➤ Routing to a Key-Value-pair

  ➤ Start lookup at arbitrary node of DHT

  ➤ Routing to requested data item (key) recursively according to node tables

H(„my data") = 3107

709 1008 1622 2011 2207

611 3485 2906

Node 3485 manages keys 2907-3485,

Initial node (arbitrary)

Key = H("*my data*")

(3107, (ip, port))

Value = pointer to location of data

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Routing to a Data Item (3)

➡ Getting the content

  ➡ K/V-pair is delivered to requester

  ➡ Requester analyzes K/V-tuple
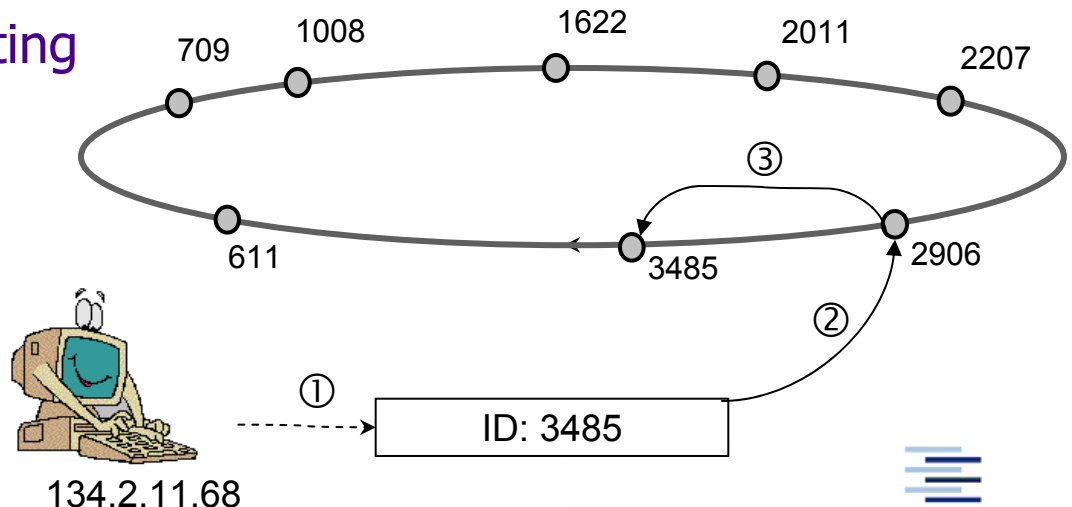 (and downloads data from actual location – in case of indirect storage)

H("my data")
= 3107

Get_Data(ip, port)

In case of indirect storage:
After knowing the actual
Location, data is requested

?

1008
709
1622
2011
2207
611
3485
2906

Node 3485 sends
(3107, (ip/port)) to requester

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Data Storage

- Direct storage

  - Content is stored in responsible node for H("*my data*")

  → Inflexible for large content – o.k. for small data (<1KB)

- 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

Dynamic of a DHT: Node Arrival

Bootstrapping/Joining of a new node

1. Calculation of node ID
2. New node contacts DHT via arbitrary node
3. Assignment of a particular hash range
4. Copying of K/V-pairs of hash range (usually with redundancy)
5. Binding into routing environment (of overlay)

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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

   ➡ Partitioning of hash range to neighbor nodes

   ➡ Copying of K/V pairs to corresponding nodes

   ➡ Unbinding from routing environment

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DHT Algorithms

- **Lookup algorithm** for nearby objects (Plaxton et al 1997)
  - Before P2P … later used in Tapestry
- **Chord** (Stoica et al 2001)
  - Straight forward 1-dim. DHT
- **Pastry** (Rowstron & Druschel 2001)
  - Proximity neighbour selection
- **CAN** (Ratnasamy et al 2001)
  - Route optimisation in a multidimensional identifier space
- **Kademlia** (Maymounkov & Mazières 2002) …

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Chord: Overview

➡ Early and successful algorithm

➡ Simple & elegant

  ➡ easy to understand and implement

  ➡ many improvements and optimizations exist

➡ Main responsibilities:

  ➡ Routing

    ➡ Flat logical address space: l-bit identifiers instead of IPs

    ➡ Efficient routing in large systems: log(N) hops, with N number of total nodes

  ➡ Self-organization
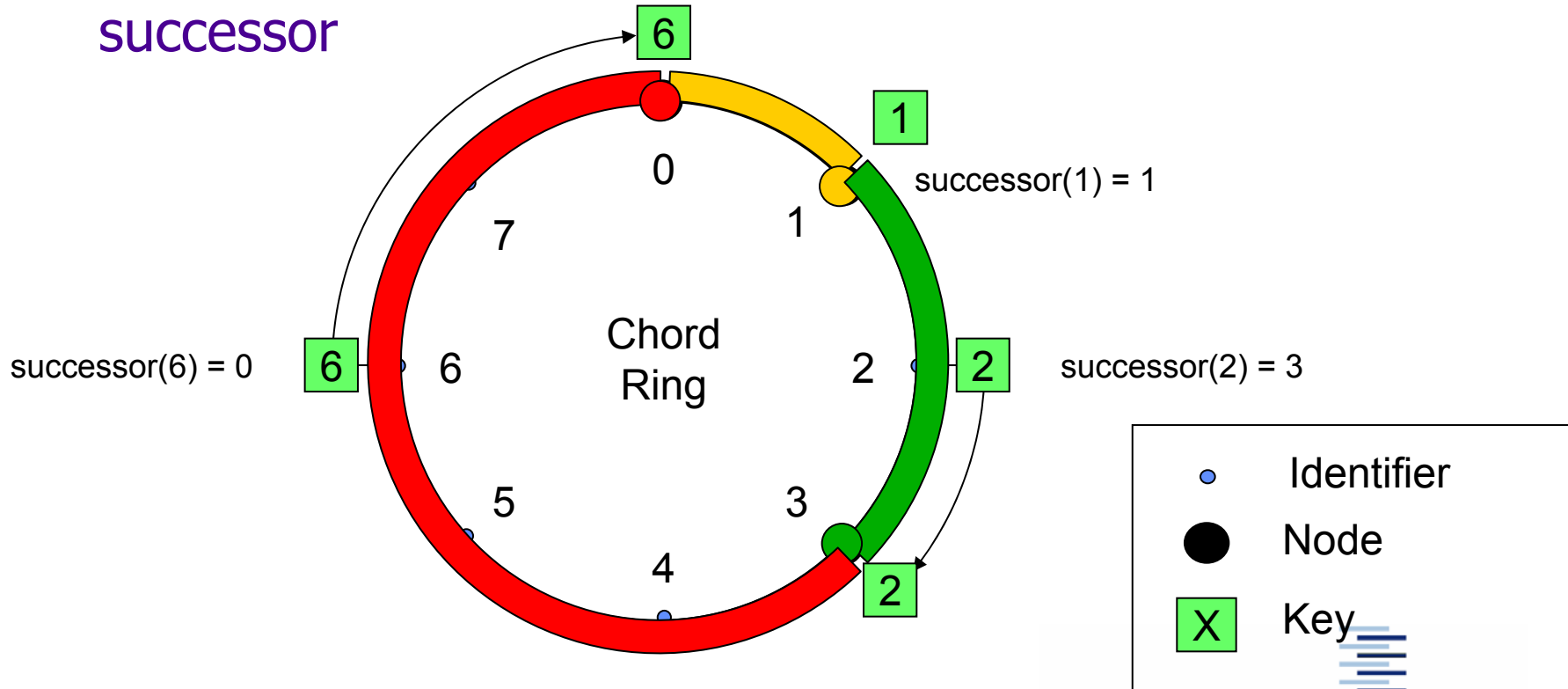
    ➡ Handle node arrival, departure, and failure

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Chord: Topology

➡ Hash-table storage

➡ put (key, value) inserts data into Chord

➡ Value = get (key) retrieves data from Chord

➡ Identifiers from consistent hashing

➡ Uses monotonic, load balancing hash function

➡ E.g. SHA-1, 160-bit output → $0 <=$ identifier $< 2^{160}$

➡ *Key* associated with data item

➡ E.g. key = sha-1(value)

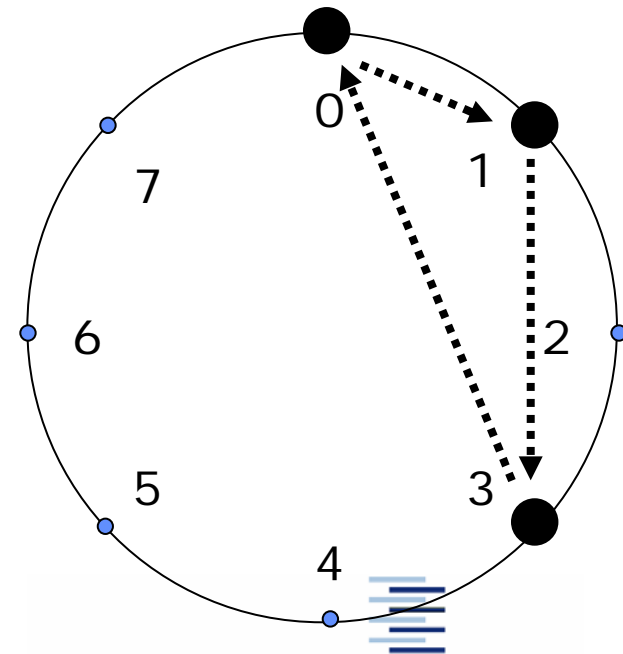➡ *ID* associated with host

➡ E.g. id = sha-1 (IP address, port)

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Chord: Topology

➡ Keys and IDs on ring, i.e., all arithmetic modulo 2^{160}

➡ (key, value) pairs managed by clockwise next node: successor

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Chord: Topology

➡ Topology determined by links between nodes

    ➡ Link: knowledge about another node

    ➡ Stored in routing table on each node

➡ Simplest topology: circular linked list
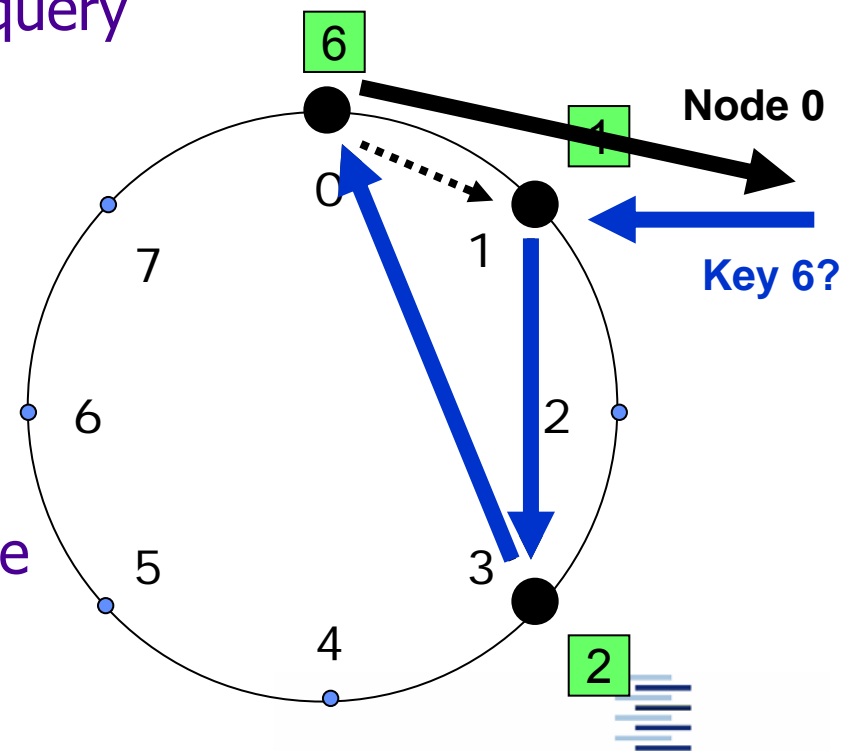
    ➡ Each node has link to clockwise next node

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Routing on Ring ?

➡ Primitive routing:

  ➡ Forward query for key x until successor(x) is found

  ➡ Return result to source of query

➡ Pros:

  ➡ Simple

  ➡ Little node state

➡ Cons:

  ➡ Poor lookup efficiency: O(1/2 * N) hops on average (with N nodes)

  ➡ Node failure breaks circle

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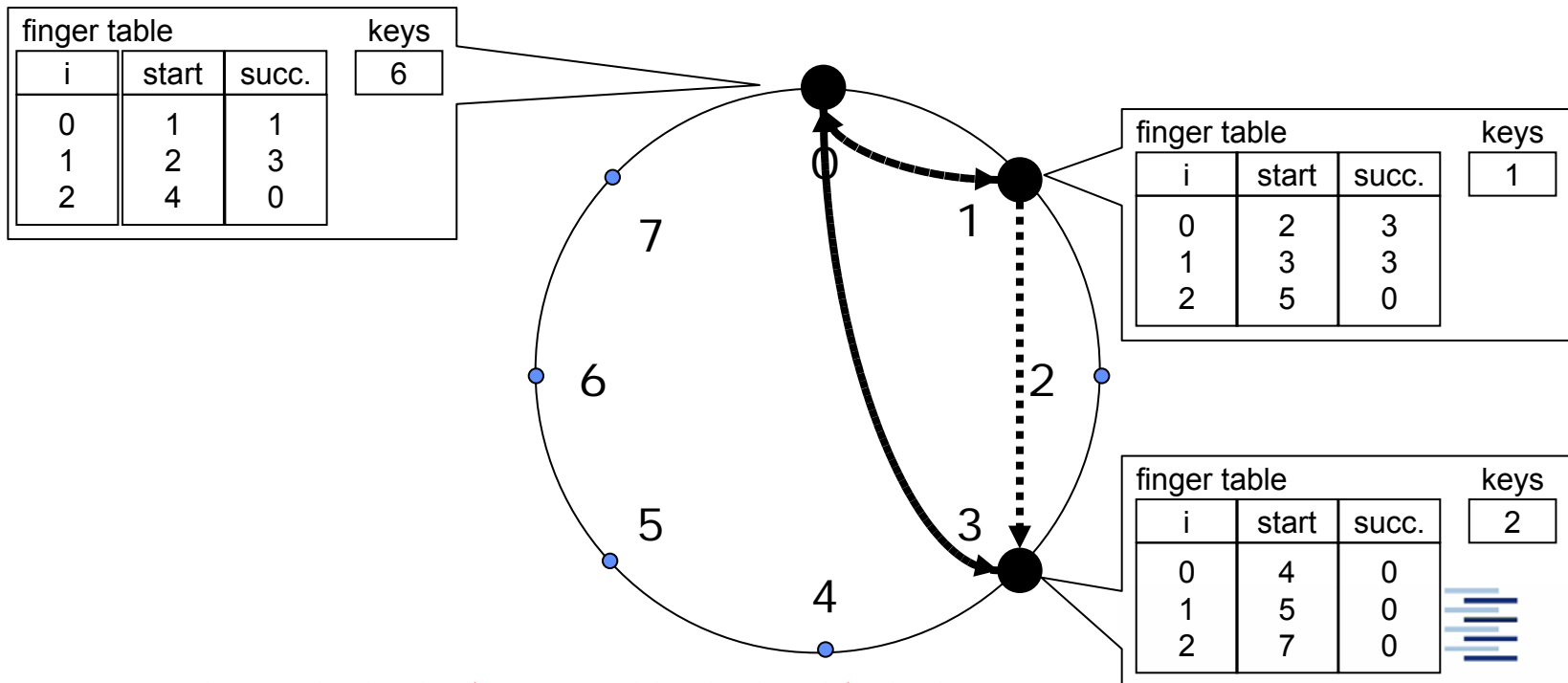Hamburg University of Applied Sciences

Improved Routing on Ring?

➡ Improved routing:

- ➡ Store links to z next neighbors, Forward queries for k to farthest known predecessor of k

- ➡ For z = N: fully meshed routing system
  - ➡ Lookup efficiency: $O(1)$
  - ➡ Per-node state: $O(N)$

- ➡ Still poor scalability in linear routing progress

➡ Scalable routing:

- ➡ Mix of short- and long-distance links required:
  - ➡ Accurate routing in node's vicinity
  - ➡ Fast routing progress over large distances
  - ➡ Bounded number of links per node

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Chord: Routing

Chord's routing table: *finger table*

- ➡ Stores log(N) links per node
- ➡ Covers exponentially increasing distances:
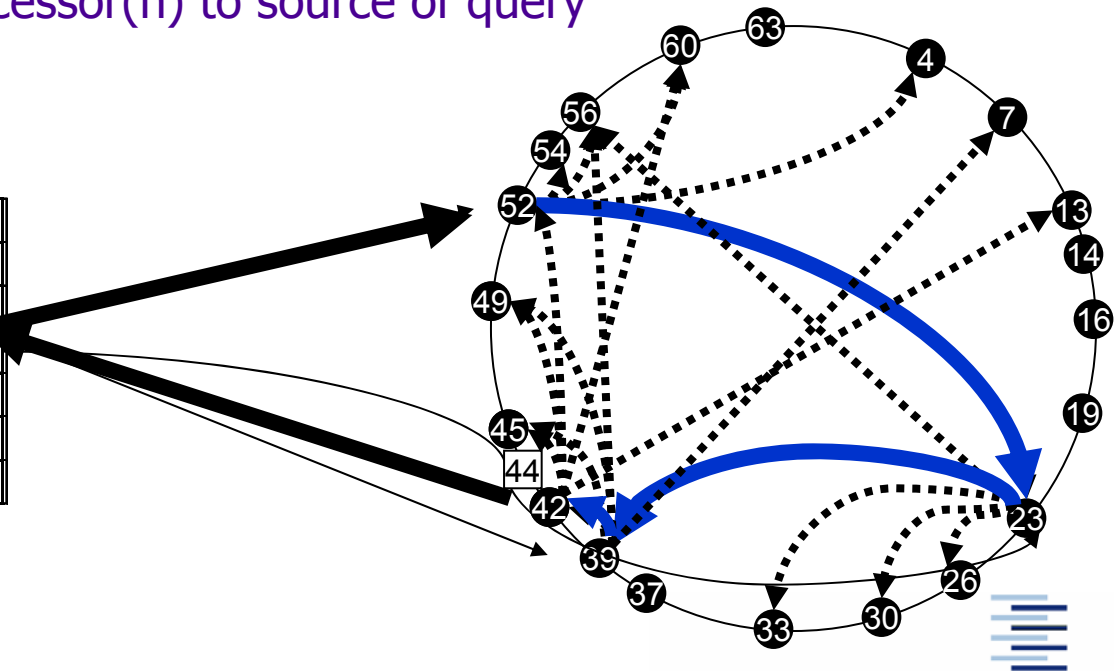 - ➡ Node n: entry i points to successor($n + 2^i$) (*i-th finger*)

finger table			keys
i	start	succ.	6
0	1	1	
1	2	3	
2	4	0	

finger table			keys
i	start	succ.	1
0	2	3	
1	3	3	
2	5	0	

finger table			keys
i	start	succ.	2
0	4	0	
1	5	0	
2	7	0	

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Chord: Routing

Chord's routing algorithm:

➡ Each node n forwards query for key k clockwise

- ➡ To farthest finger preceding k
- ➡ Until n = predecessor(k) and successor(n) = successor(k)
- ➡ Return successor(n) to source of query

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Chord: Self-Organization

➡ Handle changing network environment

    ➡ Failure of nodes

    ➡ Network failures

    ➡ Arrival of new nodes

    ➡ Departure of participating nodes

➡ Maintain consistent system state for routing

    ➡ Keep routing information up to date

        ➡ Routing correctness depends on correct successor information

        ➡ Routing efficiency depends on correct finger tables
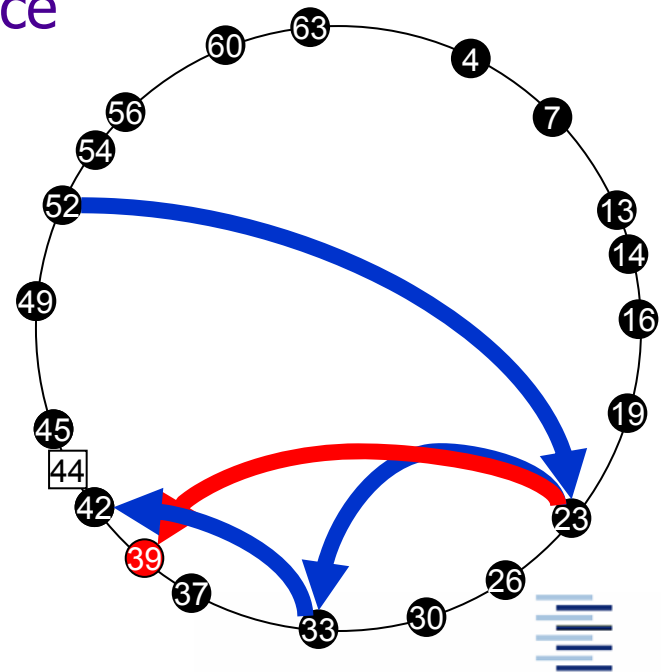
    ➡ Failure tolerance required for all operations

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Chord: Failure Tolerance in Storage

➡ Layered design
  ➡ Chord DHT mainly responsible for routing
  ➡ Data storage managed by application
    ➡ persistence
    ➡ consistency

➡ Chord soft-state approach:
  ➡ Nodes delete (key, value) pairs after timeout
  ➡ Applications need to refresh (key, value) pairs periodically
  ➡ Worst case: data unavailable for refresh interval after node failure

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Chord: Failure Tolerance in Routing

➡ Finger failures during routing

  ➡ query cannot be forwarded to finger

  ➡ forward to previous finger (do not overshoot destination node)

  ➡ trigger repair mechanism: replace finger with its successor

➡ Active finger maintenance

  ➡ periodically check fingers "`fix_fingers`"

  ➡ replace with correct nodes on failures

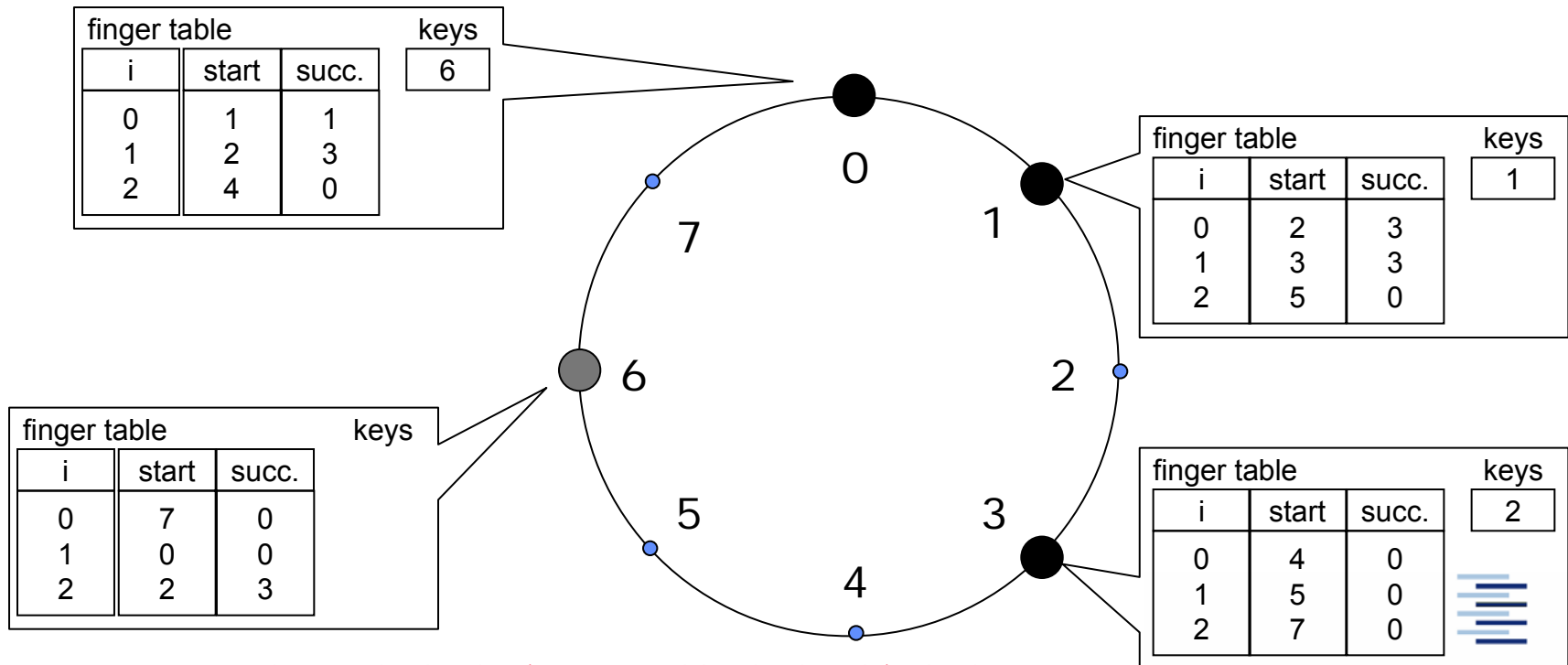 ➡ trade-off: maintenance traffic vs. correctness & timeliness

Chord: Failure Tolerance in Routing

- Successor failure during routing

  - Last step of routing can return node failure to source of query
    -> all queries for successor fail

  - Store n successors in *successor list*

    - successor[0] fails -> use successor[1] etc.

    - routing fails only if n consecutive nodes fail simultaneously

- Active maintenance of successor list

  - periodic checks similar to finger table maintenance
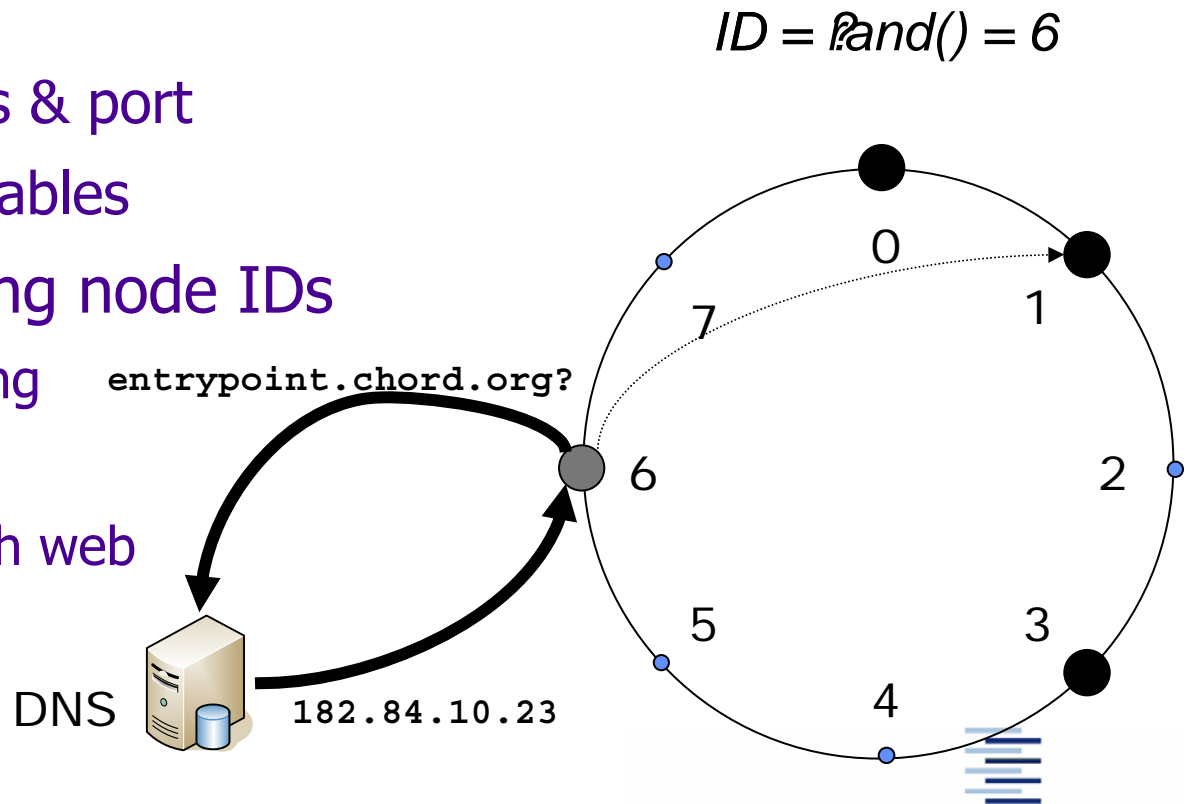   "`stabilize`" uses predecessor pointer

  - crucial for correct routing

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Chord: Node Arrival

- New node picks ID
- Contact existing node
- Construct finger table via standard routing/lookup()
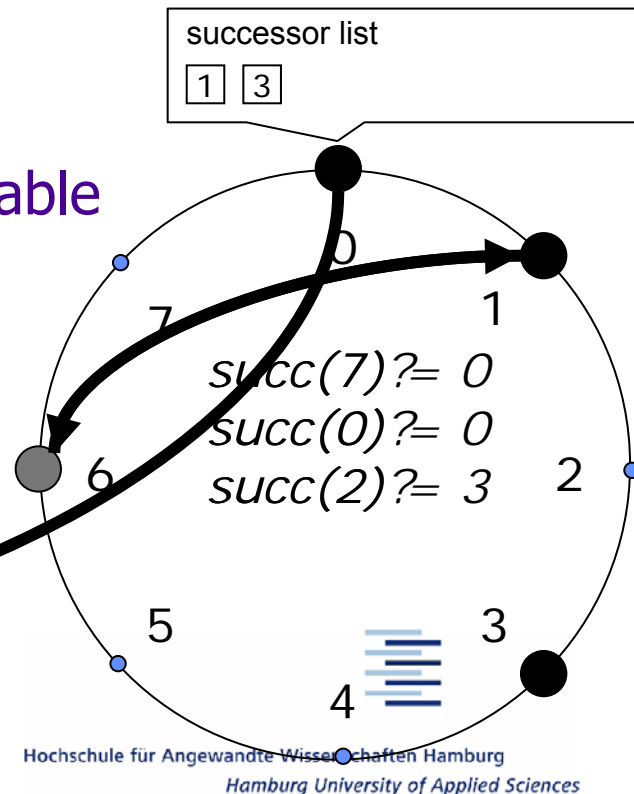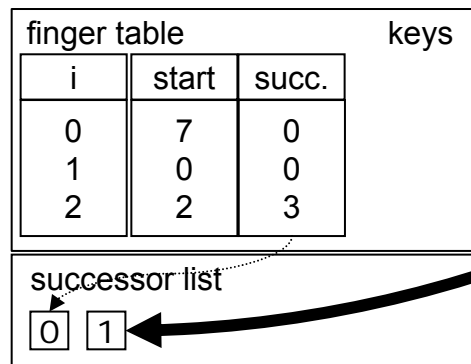- Retrieve (key, value) pairs from successor

finger table (node 0) — keys: 6

i	start	succ.
0	1	1
1	2	3
2	4	0

finger table (node 1) — keys: 1

i	start	succ.
0	2	3
1	3	3
2	5	0

finger table (node 6) — keys

i	start	succ.
0	7	0
1	0	0
2	2	3

finger table (node 3) — keys: 2

i	start	succ.
0	4	0
1	5	0
2	7	0

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Chord: Node Arrival

➤ Examples for choosing new node IDs

  ➤ random ID: equal distribution assumed but not guaranteed

  ➤ hash IP address & port

  ➤ external observables

➤ Retrieval of existing node IDs

  ➤ Controlled flooding

  ➤ DNS aliases

  ➤ Published through web

  ➤ etc.

$ID = \mathit{?rand}() = 6$

entrypoint.chord.org?

DNS

182.84.10.23

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Chord: Node Arrival

- Construction of finger table
  - iterate over finger table rows
  - for each row: query entry point for successor
  - standard Chord routing on entry point
- Construction of successor list
  - add immediate successor from finger table
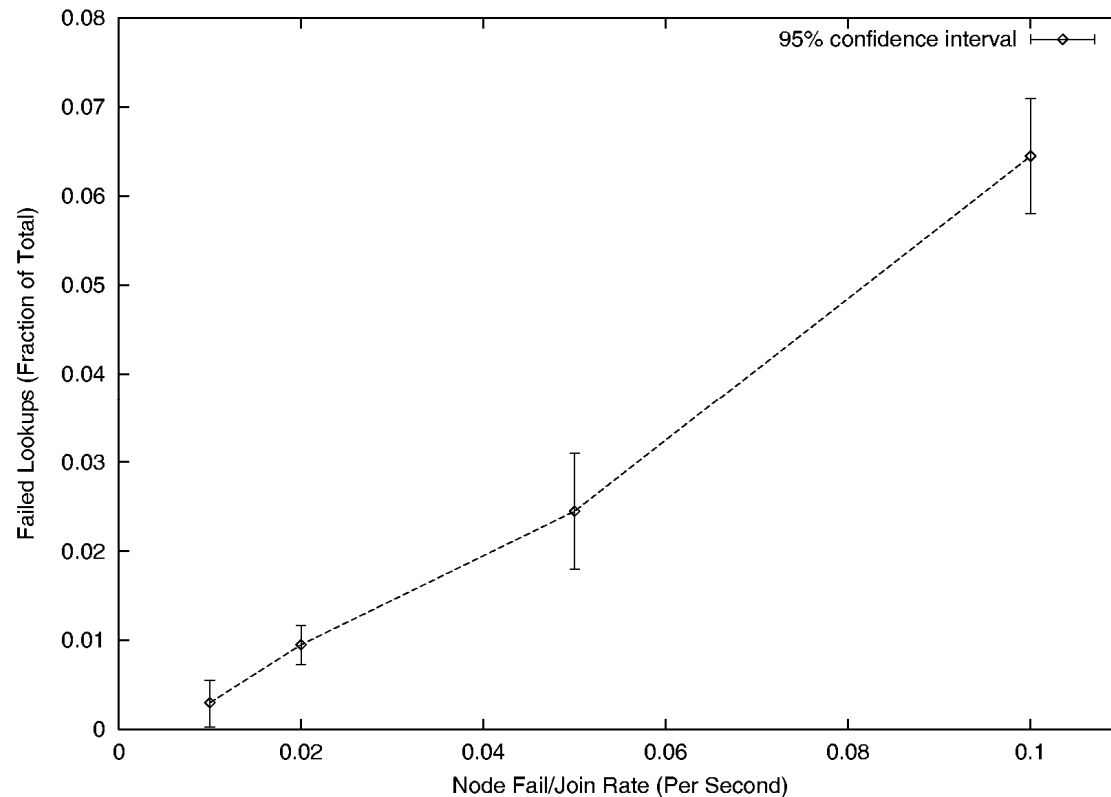 - request successor list from successor

successor list

| 1 | 3 |

finger table   keys

i	start	succ.
0	7	0
1	0	0
2	2	3

successor list

| 0 | 1 |

$succ(7)? = 0$
$succ(0)? = 0$
$succ(2)? = 3$

0
1
2
3
4
5
6
7

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Chord: Node Departure

➡ Deliberate node departure

   ➡ clean shutdown instead of failure

➡ For simplicity: treat as failure

   ➡ system already failure tolerant

   ➡ soft state: automatic state restoration

   ➡ state is lost briefly

   ➡ invalid finger table entries: reduced routing efficiency

➡ For efficiency: handle explicitly

   ➡ notification by departing node to

      ➡ successor, predecessor, nodes at finger distances
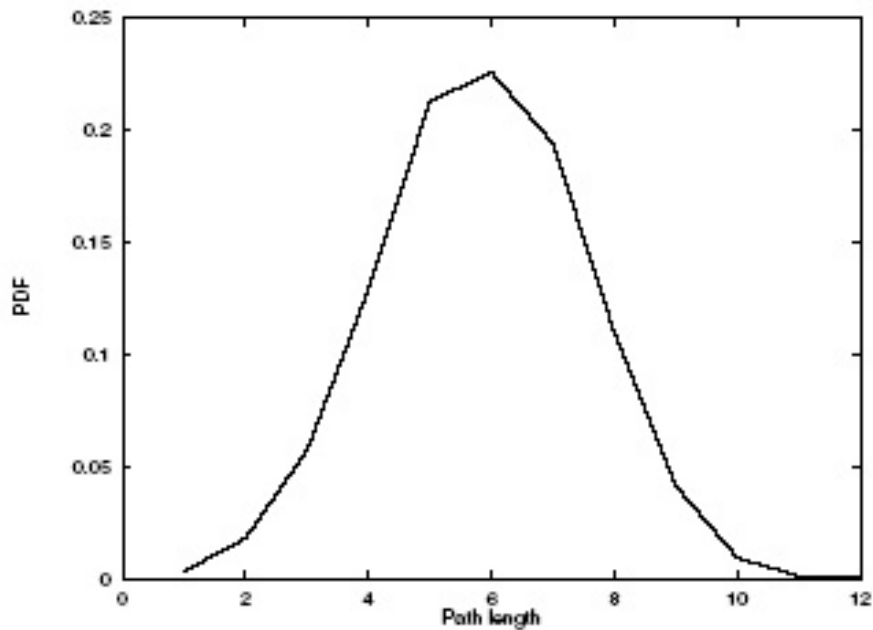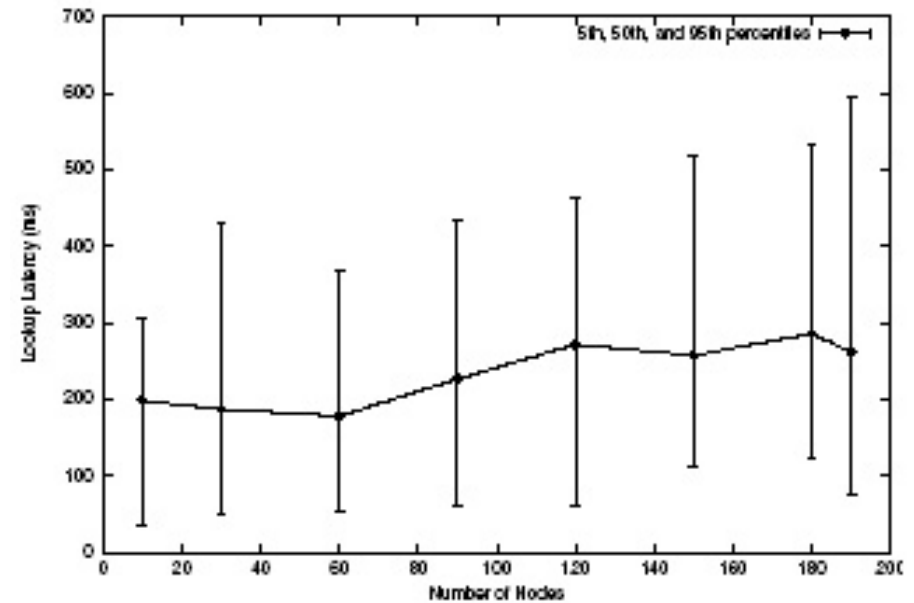
   ➡ copy (key, value) pairs before shutdown

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Chord: Performance

➡ Impact of node failures on lookup failure rate

  ➡ lookup failure rate roughly equivalent to node failure rate

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Chord: Performance
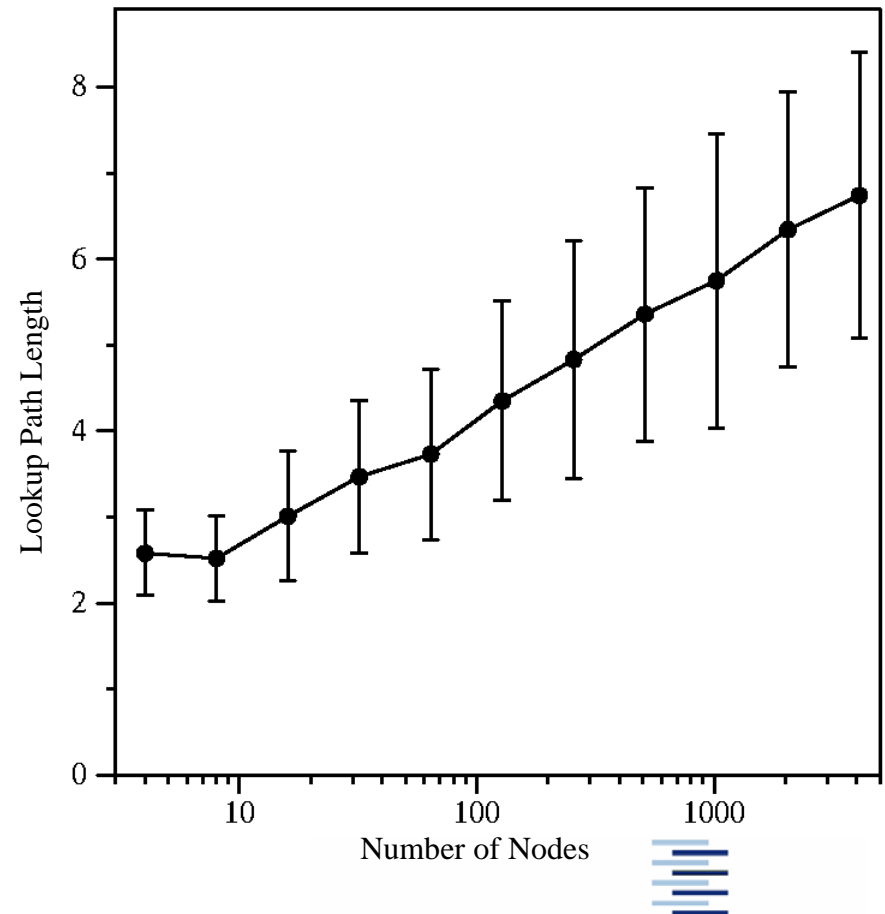

Moderate impact of number of nodes on lookup latency

Consistent average path length

Chord: Performance

► Lookup latency (number of hops/messages):
  ~ 1/2 $\log_2(N)$

► Confirms theoretical
  estimation

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Chord: Summary

- Complexity
  - Messages per lookup: O(log N)
  - Memory per node: O(log N)
  - Messages per management action (join/leave/fail): $O(\log^2 N)$
- Advantages
  - Theoretical models and proofs about complexity
  - Simple & flexible
- Disadvantages
  - No notion of node proximity and proximity-based routing optimizations
  - Chord rings may become disjoint in realistic settings
- Many improvements published
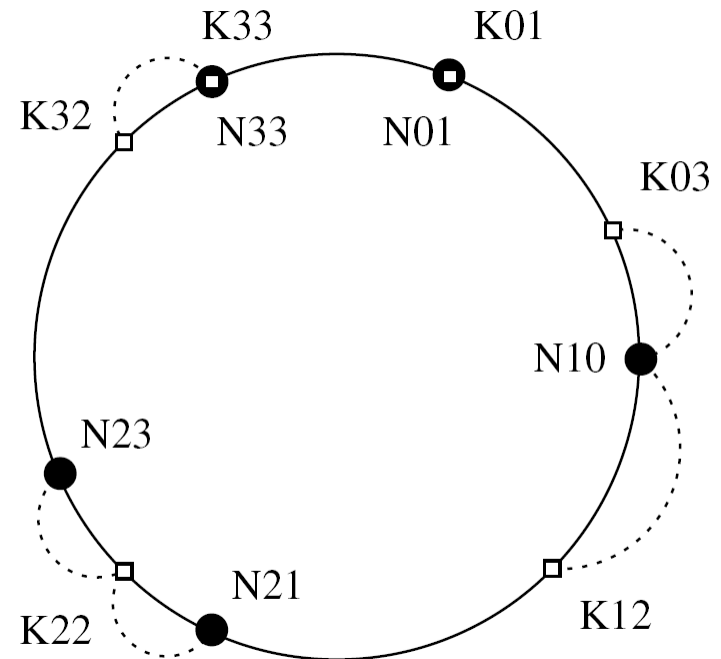 - e.g. proximity, bi-directional links, load balancing, etc.

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Pastry: Overview

- Similar to Chord: Organises nodes & keys in a ring of flat hash IDs $0 \leq ID \leq 2^{128} -1$

- Uses prefix-based routing:

  - Interprets identifiers as digit strings of base 2^b, $b \approx 4$

  - Routing according to "longer prefix match"

  - Result: routing down a tree

- Routing table built according to proximity selection

  - enhanced routing efficiency due to locality

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Pastry: Identifier Mapping

➡ Pastry views ℓ-bit identifiers as digit strings of base 2^b

➡ Example: $\ell = 4$, $b = 2$

➡ Keys (K..) are stored at closest node (N..) according to prefix metric

➡ In case of equal distance key is stored on both neighbouring nodes (K22)

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Pastry Routing Table

➤ Contains ℓ/b rows ("the range of string lenths")

➤ 2^b -1 columns ("the digits", one represents the node)

➤ Cell position approximates pastry node v within overlay, using the index transformation ("·" concatenates):

$$T(i,j) = prefix(i-1, (hash(v)) \cdot j_b,$$

➤ Cell value maps to corresponding network address

➤ As there are several nodes with same prefix match: topologically closest selected for routing table

➔ Proximity Neighbour Selection (PSN)

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Prefix-Match Routing Table

Node ID $v = 103220$, $\ell= 12$, $\ell = 2$

	0	1	2	3
0	031120	1	201303	312201
1	0	110003	120132	132012
2	100221	101203	102303	3
3	103031	103112	2	103302
4	103200	103210	2	103233
5	0	103221	103222	103223

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Routing & Lookup Tables

Three tables:

➤ Routing – Prefix Match

➤ Leaf Set – Closest Nodes in Overlay

➤ Neighbourhood Set – Closest Nodes in phys. Network according to given metric: RTT, Hops, …

Node 103220

Routing Table

0	031120	*1*	201303	312201
1	*0*	110003	120132	132012
2	100221	101203	102303	*3*
3		103112	*2*	103302
4		103210	*2*	
5	*0*			

Leaf Set

103123	103210	103302	103330

Neighborhood Set

031120	312201	120132	101203

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Pastry Routing

Step 1: Check, if key k is within the range of the leaf set

➔ Request forwarded to closest node in leaf set

Step 2: For k not in the range of leaf set, lookup routing table

➔ Try to identify entry with longer common prefix

➔ If not available, route to entry closer to key

Note: Routing is loop-free, as forwarding is strictly done according to numerical closeness.

Pastry Routing Examples

Key *k = 103200*

Node ID *v = 103220*

Key *k = 102022*

Key *k = 103000*

Routing Table

0	031120	*1*	201303	312201
1	*0*	110003	120132	132012
2	100221	101203	102303	*3*
3		103112	*2*	103302
4		103210	*2*	
5	*0*			

Leaf Set

103123	103210	103302	103330

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Pastry: Node Arrival

- New node n picks Pastry ID and contacts a Pastry node k nearby w.r.t the proximity metric

- As k is nearby, its neighbourhood set is copied to n

- The leaf set is copied from the numerically closest overlay node c, which n reaches by a join message via k

- The join message is forwarded along nodes with increasingly longer prefixes common to n and will trigger routing updates from intermediate nodes to n

- Finally n sends its state to all nodes in its routing tables (active route propagation incl. time stamps)
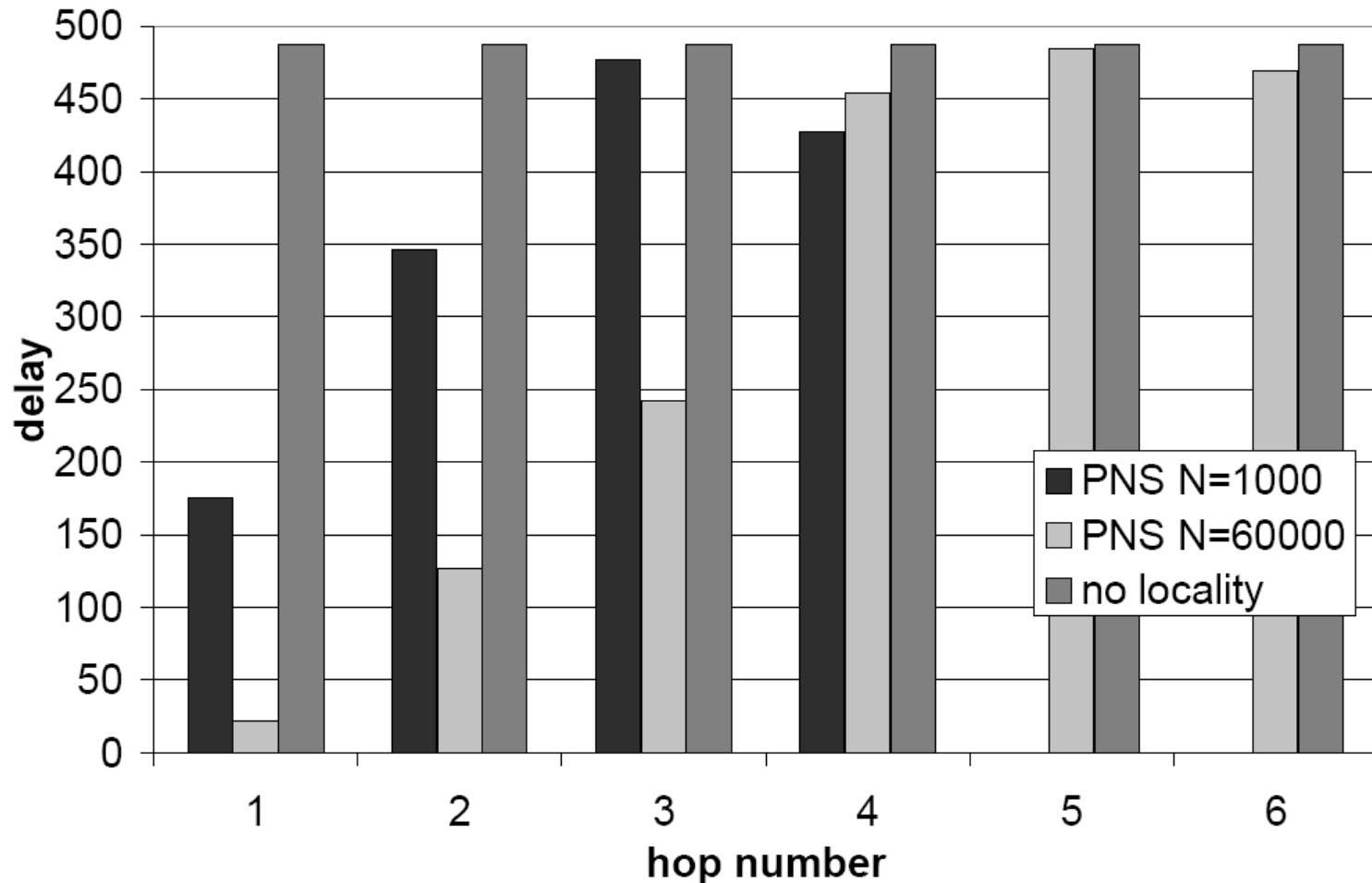
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Pastry: Node Failure
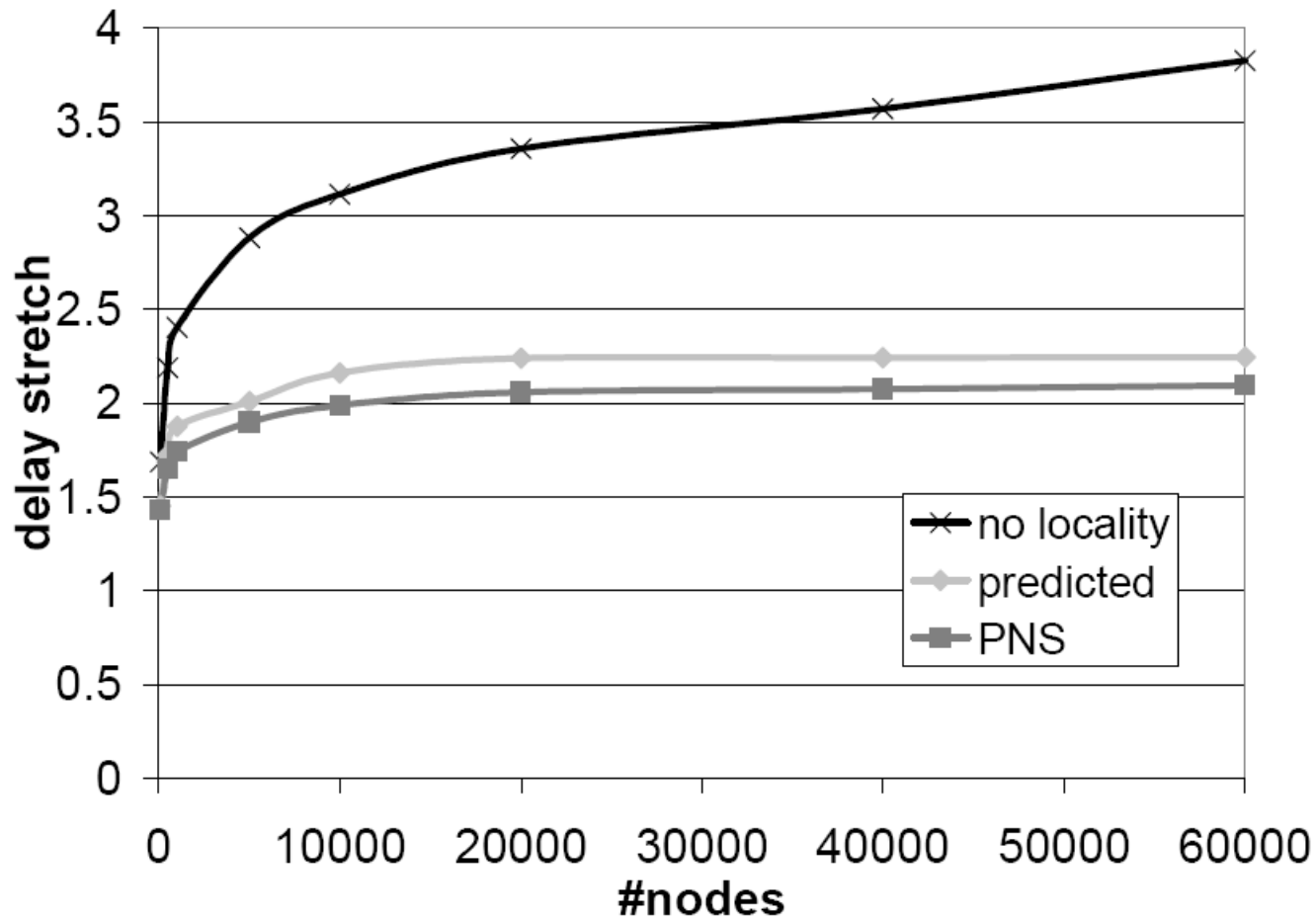
➤ Node failure arrives at contact failures of tabulated nodes

  ➤ Lazy failure detection

➤ Pastry provides several redundancies:

  ➤ Routing tables may include several equivalent entries

  ➤ Forwarding may take place to an adjacent entry

➤ Routing & neighbourhood table repair:

  ➤ Query nodes neighbouring in table rows

  ➤ If unsuccessful: query entries from previous rows

  ➤ Lively routing tables are advertised from new nodes

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Pastry: Hop Performance

◆ Prof. Dr. Thomas Schmidt ◆ http:/www.informatik.haw-hamburg.de/~schmidt ◆

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Pastry: Delay Stretch

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Pastry: Summary

- Complexity
  - Messages per lookup: O($\log_{2^b} N$)
  - Messages per mgmt. action (join/leave/fail): O($\log_{2^b} N$)/O($\log_b N$)
  - Memory per node: O(b · $\log_{2^b} N$)

- Advantages
  - Exploits proximity neighbouring
  - Robust & flexible

- Disadvantages
  - Complex, theoretical modelling & analysis more difficult

- Pastry admits constant delay stretch w.r.t. # of overlay nodes, but depends on network topology – Chord's delay stretch remains independent of topology, but depends on overlay size
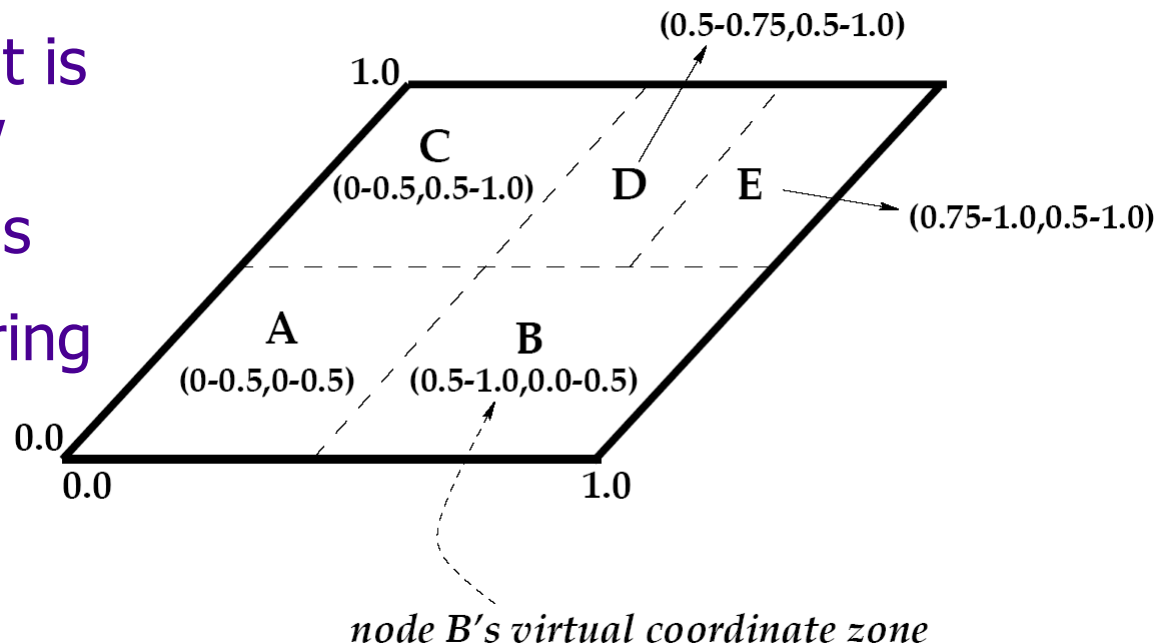
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CAN: Overview

- Maps node IDs to regions, which partition d-dimensional space

- Keys correspondingly are coordinate points in a d-dim. torus: $<k_1, ..., k_d>$

- Routing from neighbour to neighbour – neighbourhood enhanced in high dimensionality

- d tuning parameter of the system

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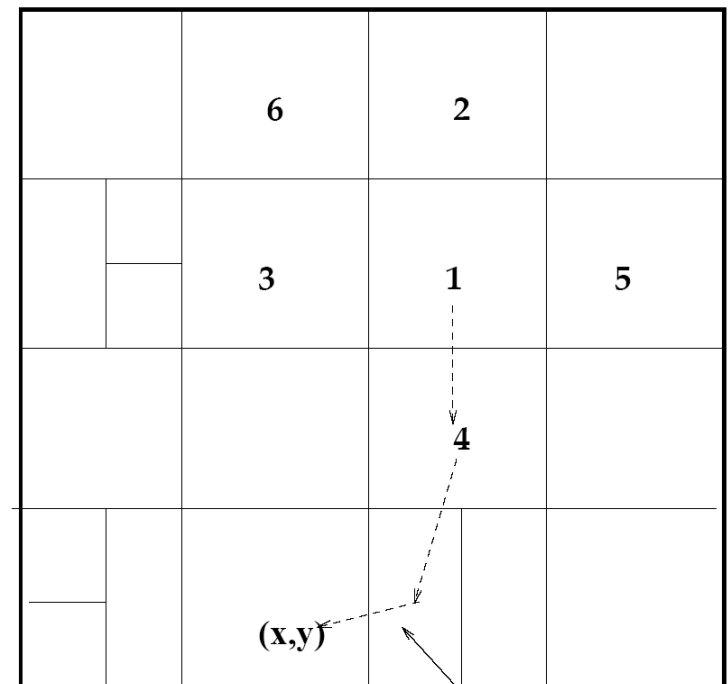Hamburg University of Applied Sciences

CAN: Space Partitioning

- Keys mapped into $[0,1]^d$ (or other numerical interval)

- Node's regions always cover the entire torus

- Data is placed on node, who owns zone of its key

- Zone management is done by splitting / re-merging regions

- Dimensional ordering to retain spatial coherence

node B's virtual coordinate zone

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CAN Routing

➤ Each node maintains a coordinate neighbour set (Neighbours overlap in (d-1) dim. and abut in the remaining dim.)

➤ Routing is done from neighbour to neighbour along the straight line path from source to destination:

➤ Forwarding is done to that neighbour with coordinate zone closest to destination

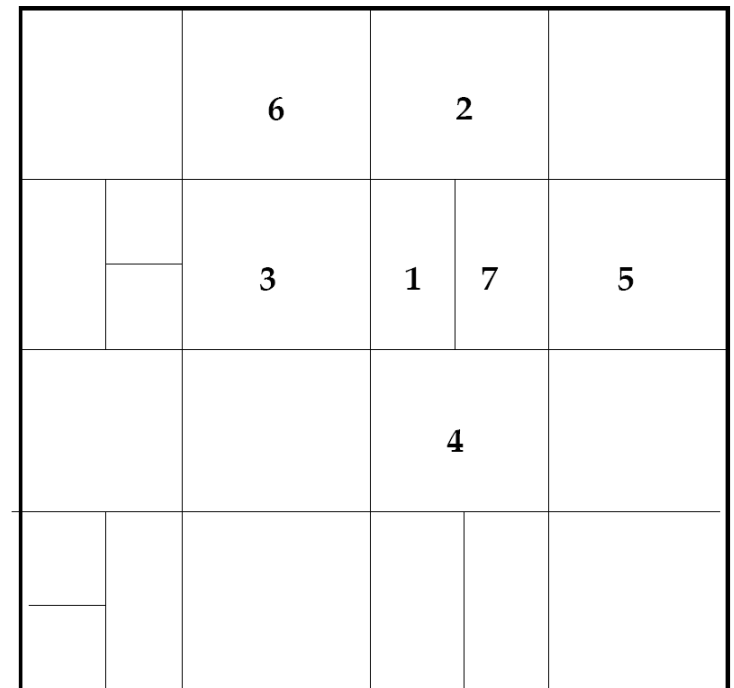

sample routing path from node 1 to point (x,y)

1's coordinate neighbor set = {2,3,4,5}
7's coordinate neighbor set = { }

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CAN Node Arrival

The new node

1. Picks a random coordinate

2. Contacts any CAN node and routes a join to the owner of the corresponding zone

3. Splits zone to acquire region of its picked point & learns neighbours from previous owner

4. Advertises its presence to neighbours

1's coordinate neighbor set = {2,3,4,7}
7's coordinate neighbor set = {1,2,4,5}

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Node Failure / Departure

➡ Node failure detected by missing update messages

➡ Leaving gracefully, a node notifies neighbours and copies its content

➡ On node's disappearance zone needs re-occupation in a size-balancing approach:

  ➡ Neighbours start timers invers. proportional to their zone size

  ➡ On timeout a neighbour requests 'takeover', responded only by those nodes with smaller zone sizes

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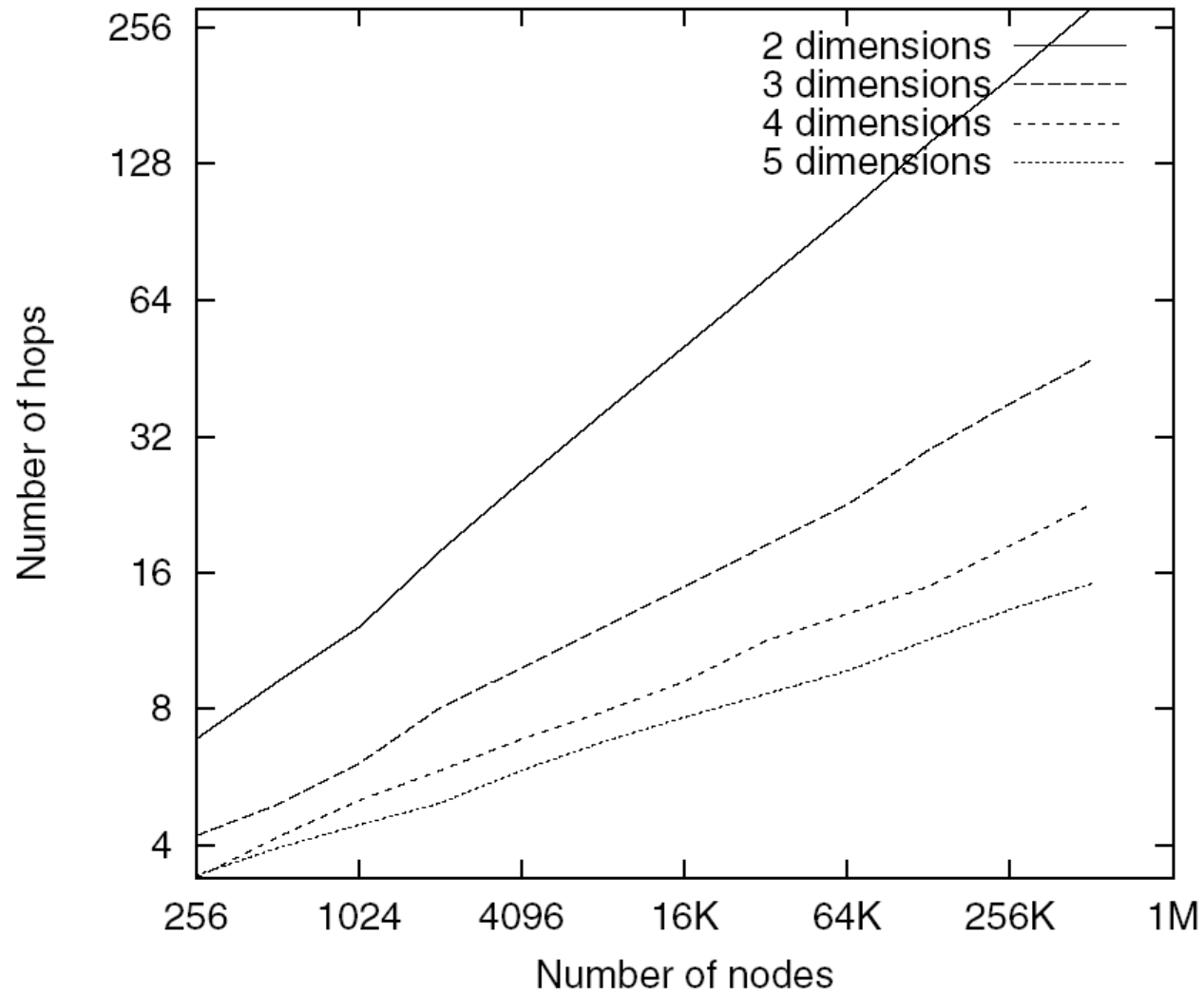Hamburg University of Applied Sciences

CAN Optimisations

➡ Redundancy:
Multiple simultaneous coordinate spaces - Realities

➡ Expedited Routing: Cartesian Distance weighted by network-level measures

➡ Path-length reduction: Overloading coordinate zones

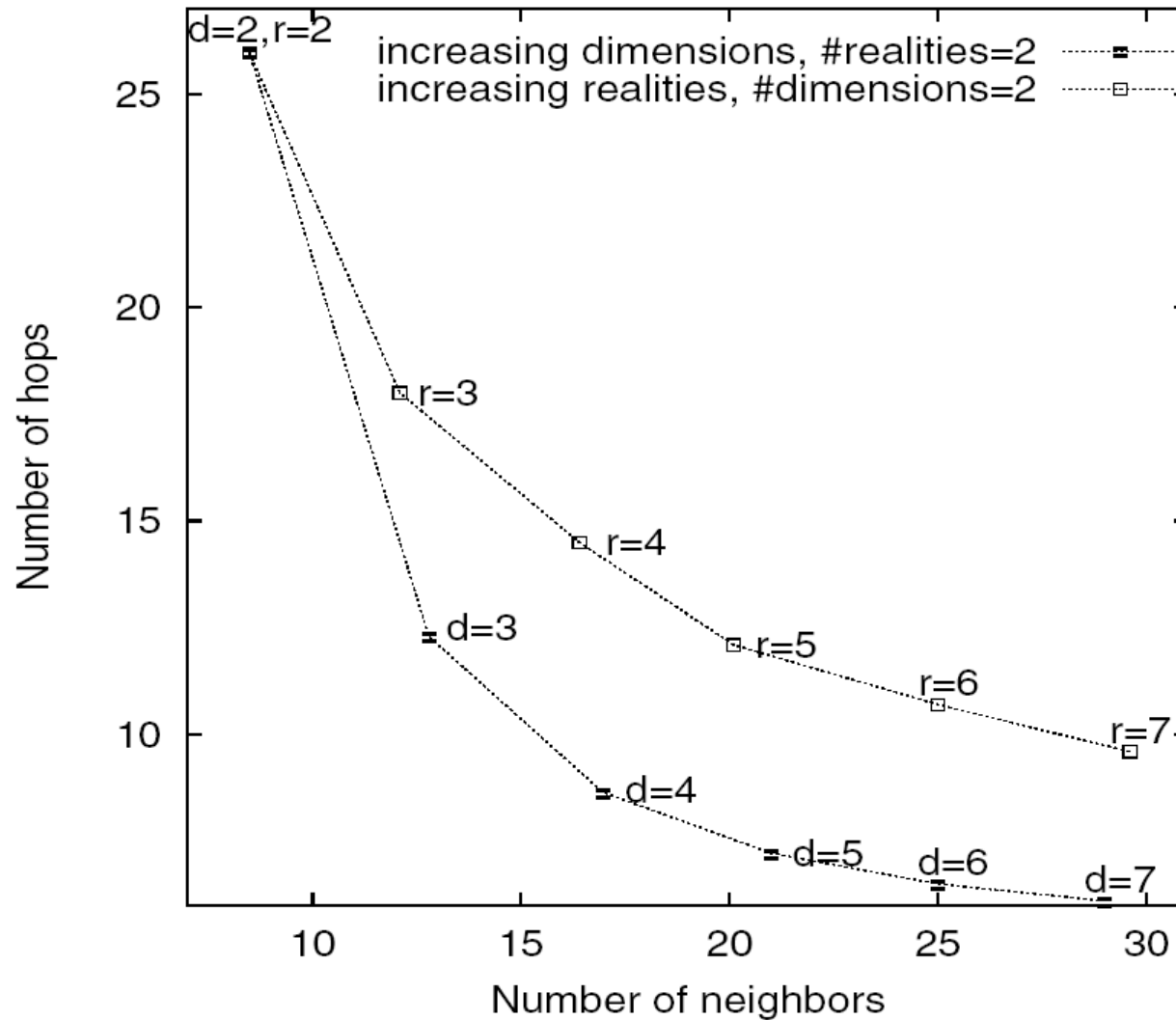➡ Proximity neighbouring: Topologically sensitive construction of overlay (landmarking)

➡ ...

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CAN Path Length Evaluation

• Prof. Dr. Thomas Schmidt • http:/www.informatik.haw-hamburg.de/~schmidt •

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CAN Path Length Evaluation (2)

Number of nodes = 131,072

CAN: Summary

- Complexity
  - Messages per lookup: $O(N^{1/d})$
  - Messages per mgmt. action (join/leave/fail): $O(d/2\ N^{1/d})/O(2\ d)$
  - Memory per node: $O(d)$
- Advantages
  - Performance parametrisable through dimensionality
  - Simple basic principle, easy to analyse & improve
- Disadvantages
  - Lookup complexity is not logarithmically bound
- Due to its simple construction, CAN is open to many variants, improvements and customisations

Implementations / Deployment

➡ Many concepts & implementations …

  ➡ Storage Systems   ➡ Content Distribution

  ➡ Indexing/Naming   ➡ DB Query Processing, …

➡ Real Deployment:

  ➡ Public DHT-Service: OpenDHT

  ➡ Filesharing: Overnet (eDonkey), BitTorrent (newer)

  ➡ Media Conferencing: P2P-SIP

  ➡ Music Indexing: freeDB

  ➡ WebCaching: Coral

➡ Problems: Overload + Starvation, Need Fairness Balance

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