Simplified Distributed Programming with Micro Objects

Jan-Mark S. Wams, Maarten van Steen
VU University Amsterdam

Developing large-scale distributed applications can be a daunting task. Object-based environments have attempted to alleviate problems by providing distributed objects that look like local objects. We advocate that this approach has actually only made matters worse, as the developer needs to be aware of many intricate internal details in order to adequately handle partial failures. The result is an increase of application complexity. We present an alternative in which distribution transparency is lessened in favor of clearer semantics. In particular, we argue that a developer should always be offered the unambiguous semantics of local objects, and that distribution comes from copying those objects to where they are needed. We claim that it is often sufficient to provide only small, immutable objects, along with facilities to group objects into clusters.

1 Introduction

Developing large-scale distributed applications has demonstrated to be a difficult task. Although one may argue that considerable progress has been made in supporting application developers, the fact alone that data, processes, and control are distributed across a potentially very large network of computers introduces unique problems that cannot be concealed. Many problems are related to the dependability of a distributed application, including availability and reliability of components, but also to integrity and security of the application as a whole [3]. Furthermore, most distributed applications have been designed with a high degree of concurrency in mind, which in turn can easily lead to intricate communication and coordination patterns [8, 15].

Underlying many, if not all approaches toward simplifying distributed application development, is the idea that we should hide the intricacies of distribution from application developers. In other words, we should make distribution as transparent as possible. This thought has led to a myriad of paradigms with distributed object-based programming as perhaps the most prevalent. More recently, we are witnessing modern variants of this paradigm in the form of Web services [1] and service-oriented computing in general [9].

Common to all these approaches is the client-server computing paradigm, in which a client process requests a server process to execute an advertised service on its behalf, and to return the result. Note that the peer-to-peer computing paradigm is often just a variant of the client-server model: in that case peers are client and server at the same time. However, because the successful remote execution of instructions can never be guaranteed, the client will always need to be prepared to handle partial failures that characterize distributed systems. Of course, this result is well-known [5], but despite the attention that it has been given in the past in the context of practical programming and systems development [7, 11, 18, 20] its ramifications have so far still been largely ignored, leaving the programmer to solve the problem when it occurs. Yet, again, recent findings on the impossibility of combining consistency and availability in partitionable networks confirm that we have a serious problem to address [6].

Given these inherent difficulties, we argue, as others have done before us, that we should no longer try to hide what cannot be hidden. We claim that the whole idea of remote execution of instructions in the
presence of failures often increases the complexity of applications instead of making them simpler. Distributed applications are not, and never will be the same as their nondistributed variants. What is needed are models in which distribution is apparent (and not transparent), and with clear and well-understood semantics. In this paper, we propose to radically abandon the remote-instruction model in favor of a model that allows only for the execution of local instructions, and which minimizes synchronization between dislocated processes.

Our approach has a number of far-reaching consequences. First and foremost, being able to executing only local operations and not delegate instructions to remote servers implies a copy-before-use model: if a process wants to operate on a data object, that object will have to be fetched from somewhere. This also implies that we need an efficient object-location mechanism. Minimizing synchronization between dislocated processes can be best supported by avoiding the need to move a fetched object; instead, it should merely need to be copied, which leads to potentially massive replication of data objects. To come to scalable solutions, we should then prevent synchronization of replicas in the presence of updates, which can be achieved by making objects immutable.

In this paper, we present a simple, yet powerful programming model and system for developing distributed applications. Our model is founded on local-only operations on immutable micro objects that can (and generally will) be massively replicated across a distributed system. We demonstrate how this simple model can be used to develop complex distributed data structures such as complete file systems and messaging applications. In doing so, we do not claim that we are presenting the best solution to the problems that are tampering distributed programming. Instead, we wish to fuel the discussion on distribution transparency, as we do believe that it deserves much more attention than researchers and practitioners are currently giving it.

2 The Micro Object

At the heart of our approach lies the notion of a micro object. A micro object is a relatively small container used to ferry copies of distributed data around. It should not be confused with traditional objects from object-based programming in the sense that it is not an encapsulation unit for data and associated operations. For the creation of larger distributed data structures, micro objects can be clustered into arbitrary graphs. The organization of a micro object is shown in Fig. 1.

A micro object is used to distribute an immutable and a mutable data part. The immutable part comprises a token by which the object can be uniquely identified and looked up, but more profound is the fact that this section also consists of a limited-sized buffer of (encrypted) application data, or payload. We stress that the payload cannot be modified, a design choice to which we return below. To accommodate at least some changes, a micro object can group related micro objects into a cluster. Clusters allow for the construction of data structures as graphs, which we believe to be strong enough for a huge class of applications. Technically, a cluster is akin to an append-only list: members can only be added, but never removed. As we discuss below, this restriction simplifies distribution and the development of distributed applications. These mutability constraints might seem too limiting, however in Section 6 we will show
this not to be the case. The immutable and mutable section together form the distributed part of a micro object. This part is copied and updated across a network by the micro-object system, also referred to as the MO system. An important issue is that the distributed part is securely protected against unauthorized access.

Equally important is that the application using a (copy of a) micro object stays in full control regarding the replication of the mutable part (i.e., the cluster) of that micro object. An application (programmer) only has to express the policy for replicating the object’s cluster according to its own local demands. For example, if rapid dissemination is needed, an application may specify that a cluster should be flooded throughout the network. Whether flooding actually takes place depends on the (again local) needs of potential recipients. We return to these issues below.

This protection and control is achieved through the nondistributed part of a micro object. The nondistributed part consists of two sections. The closed shared section describes how the payload and cluster sections of the micro object are protected. Typically, this section contains policy descriptors and encryption keys; information that may only be disclosed within a closed group through secure channels. The openly shared section describes the rules (i.e., the replication policy) that should be followed when copying (changes in) cluster information to and from other address spaces. By its nature, replication data has to be shareable, however, it does not classify as distributed data, because it does not have to be the same for every individual copy of a given micro object. As we discuss below, these local policies provide a high degree of flexibility in distributing and replicating micro objects.

3 Example Scenario

To illustrate the organization and usage of micro objects, consider the following simple scenario. Alice, Bob, and Clare regularly publish news items that they would like to share (as micro objects) over a longer period of time. To this end, Alice takes the initiative to create a long-lasting micro object $M$ for storing their shared news items. In doing so, Alice’s local MO server becomes the home location for $M$, effectively allowing others to be able to retrieve a copy of $M$ from that server. To keep matters simple, the home server’s contact address is encoded in $M$’s token. We denote Alice’s local copy of $M$ as $M_A$. Alice then passes the token of $M$ to Bob and Clare, using any out-of-band communication method, and Bob and Clare retrieve their copy of $M$ (referred to as $M_B$ and $M_C$, respectively) from the MO system.

If we consider the who-knows-who graph based on the information contained in $M$’s token, we obtain the situation as sketched in Fig. 2(a): the MO server of Bob and Clare, respectively, know only the MO server of Alice.

The payload of $M$ will not need to hold any data other than perhaps a description of the type of news items it is intended to contain. In order to express that additions to the cluster of $M$ should be actively forwarded to other parties, Alice, Bob, and Clare decide to set the replication policy of their local copies of $M$ to FLOODING. Now assume that Bob produces a news item that he wants to share with Alice and Clare. To that end, he creates a micro object ($N_1$ at his local MO server) containing the actual news and adds the object’s token to his local copy $M_B$ of $M$, as shown in Fig. 2(b).

At that point, the MO server storing $M_B$ will make an attempt to forward any of the elements contained in the object’s cluster, as shown in Fig. 2(c). The only server it knows about, is the home server of $M$, i.e. Alice’s local MO server. Bob’s server will then contact all the servers in the replication data of $M_B$, in this case only the home server of $M$, to report the additions to the cluster of $M$. This reporting is done by means of an ASSENT request, which essentially initiates a harmonization of cluster elements between $M_A$ and $M_B$. From there on, the dissemination of the token proceeds as shown in Fig. 2.
| Action                                                                 | Effect                                                                 |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| (a) Alice passes $M$ to Bob and Clare                                  | Bob and Clare know about the MO server of Alice                        |
| (b) Bob creates micro object $N_1$ and adds its token to $M_B$         | Token of $N_1$ is contained in $M_B$                                   |
| (c) Bob’s MO server attempts to flood elements contained in $M_B$’s cluster | Token of $N_1$ is passed on to Alice; Alice’s MO server learns about Bob’s MO server |
| (d) Clare creates micro object $N_2$ and adds its token to $M_C$       | Token of $N_2$ is contained in $M_C$                                   |
| (e) Clare’s MO server attempts to flood elements contained in $M_C$’s cluster | Token of $N_2$ is passed on to Alice; Alice’s MO server learns about Clare’s MO server |
| (f) Alice’s MO server attempts to flood elements contained in $M_A$’s cluster | Token of $N_2$ is passed on to Bob; Bob’s MO server learns about Clare’s MO server |
| (g) Bob’s MO server attempts to flood elements contained in $M_B$’s cluster | Token of $N_2$ is passed on to Clare; Clare’s MO server learns about Bob’s MO server |

Figure 2: The dissemination of a micro object over time. The replication policy has been set to FLOODING.
similar for other newly created (tokens of) news items.

There are a number of important observations to make. First, note that cluster elements are only tokens. As a consequence, after the clusters of $M_A$, $M_B$, and $M_C$ have been merged (or, more strictly, harmonized), the servers of Alice, Bob, and Clare will still need to explicitly fetch $N_1$ or $N_2$ to get (the payload of) the new messages. Also note that that news items can be forwarded only to MO servers that are known to the forwarder and that have indicated that they are willing to accept such items by means of a matching replication policy. An important effect of this need for matching is that, for example, Bob cannot produce a news (or any other) item that will be stored at Alice’s, Clare’s or any other server without cooperation of that server.

Finally, we point out that, in our example, the clusters of the local copies of $M$ did converge, as distributed data should. However, the replication data of the local copies of $M$ did not (need to) converge. In effect, only after some elapse of time did all news items reach all interested parties.

4 Design Issues

The main goal of the MO system is to make it easier for programmers to design and develop distributed applications. We claim that the MO system makes it easier to identify, locate, delete, update, protect, and replicate distributed data by providing a clear and singular way of dealing with these issues. Some of the protection and replication aspects, however, depend on local (temporary) circumstances, and have to be dynamically directed by the application. To this end, the MO system offers a limited number of security and replication policies for the application (programmer) to choose from that can be tuned by changing local security and replication data. The replication data is shared throughout the MO system when necessary, the security data, however, is closed shared data, because it is shared only in a closed group. Furthermore, the MO system has no data access control, but is able to detect bogus data to some extent. We will elaborate on the design issues concerning all of these points below.

4.1 Identifying and Locating Data

Each micro object contains a systemwide unique token in order to simplify its processing in a highly distributed environment. There are two important requirements for tokens. First, it should be relatively easy to fetch a copy of an object given its token. Second, we need to ensure that a token always refers to the same (unmodified) micro object.

Concerning fetching an object given only its token, in our current design each object has an associated home location where it is guaranteed to be available for copying until a specified copy-expire date. The contact address of the home location as well as the copy-expire date are encoded in an object’s token, making an initial lookup extremely simple. Unless special measures have been taken, more sophisticated lookup mechanisms will need to be used after the expire date, for example, as deployed in peer-to-peer systems [14], or explicit location services [17]). Currently, we simply allow a home server to keep storing a micro object. Note, however, that the original guarantees concerning the availability have actually expired.

A token also consists of a hash, which is computed over the home location, copy-expire date, the object’s payload, and a few other (smaller) fields. Essentially, the hash ensures, with a high probability, that the token is indeed systemwide unique, but is also uniquely associated with the payload, which, in turn, is important for data integrity. Note that a token can be computed locally; there is no need to communicate with another party.
A consequence of this design is that the creator of a micro object is responsible for keeping it online until its copy-expire date. We do not consider this a drawback, but instead maintain it introduces a form of fairness as data creators should now also provide the resources for keeping their data in the system. In this way, creators hold a bigger share in the cost of resources (CPU time, storage, network bandwidth) in comparison to other approaches, like systems based on NNTP or SMTP.

Still, to make this home location scheme work, the system has to provide the means—until expiration—to retrieve a copy of a given micro object from its token. Therefore, a home server needs to be always online, just like the WWW depends on servers being online. This scheme is simple, but not very robust. To compensate, the MO system contains additional replication options as we will describe below. As an alternative, we have developed a system that allows for stable identifiers to be mapped to a possibly changing collection of (home) servers [16]. This alternative has not yet been integrated with the MO system.

### 4.2 Deleting Data

Deleting a distributed object means deleting all its local copies. A delete operator could be fairly complex, especially if it would need to guarantee that all replicas of an object had indeed been removed. To offload the MO system from these issues so that we can keep it as simple as possible, we have decided to purposefully not provide a delete operator. Instead, the only thing the MO system guarantees is that it will not remove an object from its home location until its associated copy-expire date. In order to keep an object longer than its copy-expire date, an application will need to explicitly take action, such as requiring its local server to sustain the lifetime of the object. As we explain below, it can do so by specifying a local SUSTAIN replication policy. A sustained object can still be located using the information in its token.

To prevent premature copy expiration some form of clock synchronization between all participating parties is needed. The granularity of this synchronization need not be too fine and can easily be satisfied through a time protocol such as NTP. Assuming that the clock of a server can be kept up-to-date with a precision of $T$ time units, a simple solution to premature expiration is to keep every micro object for a grace period $T^{+} > T$ units after it’s copy-expire date has ended. Note that each server can locally determine its own grace period based on the granularity and precision of its time synchronization mechanism.

To further simplify matters, an object may possibly also have a near-endless expiration date, effectively implying that the MO system will never remove it from its home server. Such an approach is possible only if an infinite lifetime of the home server can be guaranteed, or rather, that by using its address one can always fetch a copy of the object. Such a scheme is not infeasible, as we have demonstrated when using mobile IPv6 addresses [16], yet it is well known that providing hard guarantees on the preservation of objects is far from trivial [2]. We foresee that never deleting any data is a realistic, viable option for systems such as ours, and that it may considerably contribute to keeping distributed programming simple. However, in this paper we will not pursue this idea any further.

### 4.3 Updating Data

In all but the most trivial applications, data changes, and if the data is distributed, a local, cached or replicated copy of that data might need to be updated. One of the major challenges of any distributed system is supporting timely propagation of updates of distributed data. However, it is difficult, and often even impossible for a system to predict which data will be updated, where updates will be needed, and
when. This lack of knowledge is unfortunate, as better predictions will enhance the positive effects of replication, such as responsiveness and availability. Since even the application programmer often has a hard time predicting changes, we separated the distributed part in a mutable and immutable part, as shown previously in Fig. 1.

This separation effectively concentrates changes in the mutable part of an object, making them better explicit to both the application (programmer) as well as the MO system. The mutable part (i.e., the cluster) exclusively contains only tokens of micro objects. Allowing only a set of tokens to change simplifies updates considerably. In our design, even the update operations on the mutable part are limited. In particular, there is only an “add-token” operator and no “remove-token,” further simplifying the update process.

Moreover, the mutable part has been specially constructed for efficient replication by sorting its elements on their copy-expire date. This sorting allows us to construct efficient representations of clusters so that two parties can quickly detect differences in their respective clusters. Note that since the copy-expire date is part of the token, a list of tokens can be sorted locally, in line with our design philosophy.

This model forces the application (programmer) to express distributed application objects as immutable parts glued together in a way that is efficient for distribution. It can be argued that the combination of an immutable payload and a limited mutable cluster is not enough to allow for distribution of arbitrary mutable application data. We advocate, however, that a broad range of fully mutable distributed application objects can be efficiently supported. In Section 6, we will substantiate this claim by means of an example.

### 4.4 Protecting Data

The MO system supports fine granulated security of distributed data, because of the strict separation of security management and object management. Note that different policies can be applied to securing an object’s payload and its cluster information. Distributing data raises fundamental security challenges. The potential number of people that could access distributed data could be huge and integrity and confidentiality of data are not protected by personal hardware as is possible for nondistributed data. Therefore, additional protection is needed. We opted for combined end-to-end encryption and authentication, because it significantly lessens the security demands for remote parties. Encryption prevents an attacker from reading an object but does not protect against manipulating the data. Authentication can protect against manipulation of data but does not protect against reading of the data.

Note that although a combination of end-to-end encryption and authentication can be used to implement various security policies, it does not always suffice. Attacks based on traffic analysis could be repulsed by sophisticated cryptographic protocols like mix-networks.

### 4.5 Replicating Data

As stated before, the MO system always utilizes a local copy of a data object, where the traditional approach is to utilize a remote copy of a data object through RPC or RMI. This difference has important implications for data replication. In a traditional system, replication is deployed to enhance performance or availability. As a result, separate mechanisms are needed to support replica placement, consistency enforcement, and redirecting clients to the best replica. Moreover, replication may require the collaboration of third-party servers, leading to the incentives and fairness problems hampering many of today’s decentralized peer-to-peer systems [19].
In a local-copy system such as the one we propose, purposefully replicating objects for availability and performance can come at virtually no extra costs. First, in order to access an object, an application will have to make a local copy of that object. We refer to this copying as basic replication. As a result, objects are already replicated on demand to where they are needed. Combining basic replication with sustaining local copies and efficient lookup procedures beyond copy-expire dates, automatically increases availability and access performance.

If an application strives for higher performance, robustness, or availability, it can specify this by means of an additional replication policy, which is associated with the local copy of an object and its cluster. MO servers with matching policies for the same object will then collaborate in (proactively) copying associated clusters. An example of such a policy is FLOODING, which we discussed in Section 3. Additional replication is established as an ad hoc agreement within a group of collaborating local applications, whereas basic replication is supported by all MO servers, independent of applications. In addition, as we explain later in Section 6, we allow for the specification of a replication depth, i.e., to which level of referenced micro objects a replication policy should extend.

Having basic replication allows relaxation of demands put on the additional replication. For example, assume a group of applications jointly follow a gossip-based dissemination and replication of their objects by applying an anti-entropy protocol [4]. These protocols are known to disseminate data in a robust way, but may easily introduce inconsistencies as different nodes will see a different set of objects. Since the MO system can always rely on basic replication, these problems are alleviated when gossiping is used as an additional way to replicate objects. If the payload of a micro object is needed immediately, it can always be fetched from its home server.

At first it might seem odd to allow a subset of MO servers to engage in an additional replication policy. In fact, we consider it one of the stronger points of the MO system that local copies of the same micro object can have different replication policies. For example, imagine a distributed file system based on the MO system and assume that—at some point in time—a given file would be opened by a few of the participating applications. In this case, it would make perfect sense to let only those participating applications select a high-cost, high-performance replication policy to keep the shared data structure (effectively consisting of local clusters of replicated micro objects) consistent.

5 Systems Design

We will now discuss the design and parts of the implementation of our system. The infrastructure of the MO system is not unlike the e-mail system in that a distributed application does not directly contact other applications. Instead, a network of servers is used for distributing micro objects.

An application contacts a local server, much like an e-mail client application would do so for transferring new messages between itself and a server provided by a company or ISP. These servers will communicate as peers to distribute micro objects. Just like the e-mail system, an application can be
offline without disrupting any ongoing replication scheme.

Unlike the e-mail system, however, the MO system does not do end-point delivery. In delivering information, it is more like the WWW system: information is stored in a single known place and, possibly, cached near the destination. Like WWW proxy caching, multiple applications will generally be using the same server cache for a better cache hit ratio.

On top of this basic “pull on demand” replication, the MO system features additional dynamic replication policies. The application (programmer) can specify when a server needs to spend additional resources on replicating a specific micro object.

To handle basic and additional replication, the MO system follows the classical three-tier approach. The three tiers in our implementation consists of the application, the lib-server, and the MO server (see Fig. 3). The first tier, the application, shares its address space with the second tier, the library server, also referred to as the lib-server. The second tier, the lib-server, provides library functions and spawns process threads acting like a server, hence the name. The lib-server communicates with the third tier, its local MO server, through a relative secure and fast connection, for example a LAN. The MO server has to be always online whereas the lib-server can be regularly offline. In what follows we will take a closer look at the MO server and the lib-server.

5.1 The MO server

The MO server, sketched in Fig. 4, fulfills three major roles. First, the MO server has to store every micro object that a trusted MO-application has created. The server will store such an object until its copy-expire date, thus acting as the object’s home server. Second, it has to cache incoming micro objects. Third, it has to run threads to execute replication policies.

The store and cache differ mainly only in how they clean up their contents. Micro objects can be removed from the store only after their copy-expire date, while they can be removed from the cache at any time. Just as with additional replication, cache management has no external dependencies as a discarded micro object can always be retrieved from its home server. An MO server has a remote and a local communication channel. The local channel differs from the remote channel in the sense that we assume it can be made as trustworthy as needed, for example, by means of strong encryption. In practice though, the local channel will simply be a LAN or ISP network offering low latency and possibly also high bandwidth. The MO server is a basic request/response system. We will refer to a request through the local channel as a local request, and to requests through the remote channel as remote requests.

A remote request/response sequence is used by the MO servers to communicate with their remote peers. There are several types of such communications. For example, if one MO server needs a micro object, it can ask any other MO server for it by sending the latter a FETCH-request containing a valid token. If the receiving MO server has the requested micro object (in its cache or store), it can send the micro object back in response. Since encryption is used at a higher level, there is no need for security checks, most notably there is no distributed infrastructure for security. It will also be difficult to forge a valid token, mostly due to the sparsity of the token space.

To facilitate load balancing and additional replication policies a remote response can contain further
information by means of a ditto-list. A ditto-list contains a number of MO servers that are likely to give the proper response. In general, an MO server on a ditto-list has previously made a similar request and may therefore have relevant information to generate a proper response to the request.

Any remote request can trigger a BUSY-response with a ditto-list. This reply indicates that the MO server is swamped with similar requests. It is then up to the requesting MO server to re-route the remote request to another MO server. Note that this solution is now sometimes applied to alleviate hot-spot problems in the Web (see, e.g., [13]).

The ASSENT request is sent whenever two MO servers want to make their respective copies of a micro object consistent, i.e., make sure that the two associated clusters are harmonized. To this end, an MO server A can send an ASSENT-request to MO server B containing micro object M. This request will allow B to possibly merge the elements contained in A’s copy of M’s cluster with its own copy of M’s cluster. B can now also detect which elements are missing from A’s copy of M’s cluster and pass this information back to A. If both A and B decide to add the missing elements to their respective copies, the two will be the same after the ASSENT exchange. After merging, A or B might decide to forward information to other servers, as we have seen in the example in Section 3. Note, however, that each party is completely free to decide which elements to include in its local copy of M. As clusters may be very large, efficiency of handling ASSENT requests is essential.

A local request/response sequence is used by the MO server to communicate with a (trusted) lib-server. An obvious local request is REQUEST-PAYLOAD, which is issued by the lib-server. It forces the MO server to get the payload of a requested micro object, either in its cache or store or by means of a remote fetch request. If the MO server is the home for the requested micro object (and its copy-expire date has not been exceeded), it will—by definition—find the micro object in its store. If not, the MO server can use a remote FETCH-request to a peer MO server, most notably the home MO server of the requested micro object. It will forward the response to the lib-server, but also extract the micro object from the response and put it in its cache. Note that in this case the MO server acts like a proxy server. As with the FETCH-request, there is no need to check for access permissions.

Only a trusted application can ask an MO server to adopt—become the home of—a micro object. It does so by sending a local ADOPT-request. The MO server will—if local policies allow—put the micro object in its store.

Also only a trusted application can ask an MO server to start (or stop) executing a replication policy for a given micro object. It does so by sending a local REPLICATE-request to the server. The MO server will—again, local policies permitting—start the requested replication policy for the cluster of the given micro object. Note that several replication policies can be active at the same time for a given micro object. Therefore, the MO server has to be able to handle replication data of multiple replication policies per micro object.

Trusted applications are also allowed to send a local UPDATE-request. Such a request contains one or more tokens that are to be added to a given object’s cluster. If the micro object in question is in the cache or store, its cluster is updated immediately. Also if there are replication policies active for this micro object, they are evaluated, because the arrival of new cluster members may necessitate some action.

The store of an MO server holds all the micro objects that are at home at that server. However, the store can be populated with “foreign” micro objects too. To understand why, note that every replication thread has full (i.e., both read and write) access to the store. Consequently, a replication policy like SUSTAIN, by which an object is stored beyond its copy-expire date could put such a foreign micro object in the store. The result would be that this foreign micro object will not be removed from the MO system until its extended copy-expire date. Future replication strategies might have other reasons to put micro objects in the store, for example, to save them from cache cleanups. Note that every MO server can
have its own policies for storage, most notably it could feature a quota system, disallowing or charging excessive usage.

Since every MO server is also a proxy server—in that each application requests all its micro objects through a local MO server—all MO servers feature a micro-object cache. Appropriate caching algorithms for MO servers still need to be investigated in detail. For now, we have adopted an LRU algorithm. Note that the caching algorithm is a local affair, every MO server can make its own local decisions. For example, it could decide to cache requested micro objects dependent on which application issued the request.

We already mentioned the replication policy **SUSTAIN**. This replication policy is special because it postpones the expiration of a micro object past its copy-expire date. Basically, an application (programmer) can ask an MO server to sustain a local copy of a micro object for a limited time (but not forever). We stress that an application needs to sustain the micro object at regular intervals (albeit those intervals may last long). If a micro object is sustained on its home MO server, it will still be available to all other MO servers. If, however, a micro object is sustained on a set of MO servers not including the home MO server, servers outside that set will not be able to fetch it anymore. A prime candidate for prolonged sustaining, for example, would be the root of a distributed file system. Note that this does not imply that an application has to be always online, but only frequently enough to prolong an object’s lifetime.

### 5.2 The Lib-Server

The lib-server is linked into the application’s address space as a library. It provides the API of the MO system. Besides a library with functions, however, it also runs separate threads (in the background) in the application’s address space, acting like a server. By putting the lib-server in the same address space as the application, it has the same trust level. This makes it simpler for the lib-server to safely access security information like passwords.

| home location | copy-expire date | token | payload | cluster | payload security | cluster security | replication | micro object |
|---------------|------------------|-------|---------|---------|------------------|-----------------|-------------|-------------|
| hloc_         | xpir_            | tken_ | plod_   | cter_   | psec_           | csec_          | repl_       | mo_         |

The application programming interface of the MO system (as implemented by the lib-server) consists of a collection of abstract data types (ADTs), each with their own prefix, offering only a few ubiquitous library functions. Fig. 5(a) lists the ADTs (with their prefix). All ADTs, but the one for micro objects, are relatively simple as illustrated by the ADT for the payload (plod_), given in Fig. 5(b). We discuss the internal working of the lib-server by describing the implementation of the micro object (mo_) ADT, which is given (in part) in Fig. 6.

All the API functions are thread-safe. The function `mo_put_cter_clbk()` instructs the interface to execute a given callback function, every time a new token is clustered to a given micro object. If the programmer so chooses an application can also block and wait for new additions by calling `mo_cter_wait()`.

Since the lib-server threads can add tokens preemptively, the application needs a way to express what tokens it considers “old” so the library server can present only the “new” additions. This holds for both
the call-back and the busy-wait functions. To this end a tracker cluster argument has to be supplied. Calling either function with an empty tracker results in call-back function execution (or return from the wait function) for every token that is already in, or consecutively added, to the cluster of the given micro object. Calling either function with a copy of the current cluster will trigger a response only to newly added tokens. Also a `mo_cter_try_uwait()` function is provided. This function either returns a newly clustered token or `NULL` if no new token was added after waiting for at least a given number of micro seconds.

If or when the local lib-server will find out about a remote site adding an object to the cluster, is dependent on the willingness of other MO servers in the system to cooperate and the local replication strategy of myMo. Such cooperation, however, is likely to happen if applications of the same class are running simultaneously (on different machines).

The lib-server also has separate threads that constitute the server part of the lib-server. There are three main reasons to add this server part. First, without separate threads, the MO server would have to resort to rendezvous communication, which would hinder performance. Second, the combination of callback functions and threads will also allow full multi-threaded applications. Third, some cluster security policies will not allow replication at the MO server level, so it has to be handled in the (trusted) application address space, i.e., by the lib-server. We will not go into any details here.

6 The Micro Object Clusters

So far, we have shown that micro objects can be used to ferry application data and that clusters can be used to build graphs of micro objects. We will now demonstrate how micro object clusters can be used to construct complex fully mutable distributed application objects (DAOs). In the MO system, an application (programmer) defines every DAO as a single micro object with a (application specific) graph structure. Sharing only a single micro object will nevertheless enable distributed applications to share a multitude of objects that can be organized in any kind of graph. Since every DAO is a micro object, complex DAOs can be crafted by creating a micro object and adding one or more DAOs to its cluster.

As an example, consider the realization of a file DAO shared by a number of distributed file system applications, shown in Fig. 7. The cluster of the file DAO, `F`, contains two (tokens of) block DAOs. The cluster of the first block DAO, `B1`, contains three content DAOs. The second block DAO, `B2`, holds two

---

Figure 6: List of the major micro object API calls.

Figure 7: The realization of a distributed file of two blocks.
content DAOs. The content of a file DAO is defined as the concatenation of the content of its clustered block DAOs, ordered by expiration date (B1, B2 in this case). The content of a block DAO is defined as (the payload of) the last content DAO from its cluster, ordered by copy-expire date. Thus the content of file F is the payload of C3 followed by the payload of C5.

From the MO system point of view, every DAO is a regular micro object and the structure of the graph originating from its cluster has no meaning to the MO system. One of the unique features of the MO system, is that it still utilizes these graphs for grouping micro objects. Grouping can be used to improve the effectiveness of replication, especially if the objects are small. This phenomenon is also known from other fields, such as data clustering for efficient replication and distribution of databases [12]. By using a replication level indicator in combination with a DAO, an application can generically inform the MO system that a replication policy should be applied to all micro objects in a subgraph originating from a given cluster. The default value of the replication level is 0, to indicate that only the cluster itself should be replicated.

To continue our example, assume that the sharing applications have set the replication policy of their copy of F to FLOODING at level 3. Consider what happens after one of the applications changes (the second block of) its local copy of the file. To update the file, a new block, C6, is constructed to replace C5. Next C6 is added to (the cluster of) the local copy of B2. Due to the flooding level of F, B2 (level 1 and 2) and the payload of C6 (level 3) will be flooded, too. Had the level been set to 2, only the change would have been flooded (i.e., the cluster of B2), but not the payload of C6. Obviously, setting the level to 4 or higher, would not have made a difference. We stress that the file DAO is fully mutable, even though micro objects, themselves, are not.

The replication level is thus seen to provide the application (programmer) a simple yet powerful means to express replication of larger groups of micro objects.

7 Discussion

In this paper we have introduced a very different approach to distributed computing. Instead of sending messages to (possibly replicated) remote objects, we propose to let operations always take place on local copies, keep data in objects immutable, and support only local graph-like data structures from which objects can never be removed. In our discussion so far, there are several ramifications of our approach that have been barely touched upon. Here, we briefly discuss two important ones: security and emergence.

7.1 Security

Building a secure large-scale distributed systems requires that security infrastructure is integrated into the design from the start. Therefore, the security infrastructure is natively incorporated into the MO system, as illustrated in Fig. 1. The MO system needs data security and system security. Data security is there to protect micro objects from unauthorized access, but also to protect applications against bogus micro objects. System security concentrates on serving benign applications, while denying service to malicious applications.

For data security, the MO system provides separated security policies that utilize (but are not limited to) end-to-end encryption and authentication. All sensitive security data is confined to the application address space.

Bogus micro objects can be detected by end-to-end authentication. However, a bogus micro object
will be detected only at the highest (i.e., application) level. Therefore, bogus micro objects still threaten
the functionality of the lower level (i.e., the MO system itself). To deal with DoS attacks, the MO system
has been designed such that most bogus data can be detected early. Note that it is quite easy to generate
a bogus micro object and then calculate the correct hash value for its token. However, it is unlikely that
some application would ever request such a micro object. Generating a bogus micro object in response
to a specific request is computationally much harder, because the hash of the requested micro object is
given as part of the request.

The system security of the MO system is still subject to further research. The MO system has
rudimentary protection against abuse of storage and transport. In principle, MO servers can be tricked
in to storing bogus data, but it will end up in the cache so that the harm is limited. A set of MO servers
can sometimes be tricked into transporting bogus data, however, newly developed policies and security
for replication might remedy this. The MO system does not yet have protection (other than its hot spot
handling), against denial of service. For example, a flooding attack will put parts of the MO system out
of function. Also, the MO system suffers from the security bootstrapping problem: in order to set up
secure communication between two given parties, some pre-existing shared secret is needed. Flooding
and bootstrapping are common security problems, and they are not specific to the MO system nor is it
clear that these problems can be solved by changing the design.

As mentioned in Section 4.4 the MO system does not (yet) posses any data flow shielding, and may
thus leak sensitive data.

7.2 Emergent Behavior

Our emphasis on local decision making has important ramifications for overall system behavior. For
example, as we explained, objects can be replicated across the system only if local policies of initiating
and intended peers match. In contrast, replication in virtually all traditional distributed systems is based
on explicit and centralized control. The effect of having only local policies is that we will see much more
emergent behavior, observed as the flow of (copies of) micro objects between servers.

It remains to be seen to what extent this emergent behavior can actually be controlled. One avenue
that we are currently exploring is developing various replication policies and to see how combinations
affect the replication and distribution of micro objects. Although the loss of centralized control can be
seen as a disadvantage, we believe that local decision making simplifies development and will certainly
lead to much better scalable solutions.

In this light, our approach is to be compared to the recent increase in gossip-based solutions, which all
evolve around local decision making [4]. These solutions have in common that only by fine tuning local
decision rules can one observe desirable global behavior. Unfortunately, the relation between this local
tuning and global behavior is often not well understood, and only recently have studies been published in
which different approaches are systematically compared [10]. However, it is also clear that local decision
making has excellent scalability properties, allowing systems to easily grow to millions of nodes. This
point has already been demonstrated by traditional decentralized systems such as those for exchanging
news and e-mail.

8 Conclusions

Current message-to-object based distributed frameworks are ignoring partial failures. As an alternative,
we propose a simple and clean model for distributed computing, which evolves around local decision
making. Our design and prototype implementation indicate that we are dealing with a simple-to-realize model. However, it is yet too soon to draw hard conclusions on the viability of our proposal, although it is clear that it contains the essential elements to tackle the hard problems that have been hampering large-scale distributed systems. Some of these hard problems, notably handling partial failures, are strongly alleviated by our choice for combining local computing and immutability. The drawback is some loss in distribution transparency, a loss we believe is worthwhile taking.

It is clear we are only at the beginning of exploring this new paradigm. For the immediate future, we will concentrate our research efforts on, lib-server based cluster replication for enhanced security, ditto-list population algorithms, and finding how many and which replication policies are practically needed.

References

[1] G. Alonso, F. Casati, H. Kuno, and V. Machiraju. *Web Services: Concepts, Architectures and Applications*. Springer, 2004.
[2] M. Baker, M. Shah, D. S. H. Rosenthal, M. Roussopoulos, P. Maniatis, T. Giuli, and P. Bungale. “A Fresh Look at the Reliability of Long-Term Digital Storage.” In *Proc. EuroSys*, pp. 221 – 234, Apr. 2006.
[3] K. Birman. *Reliable Distributed Systems: Technologies, Web Services, and Applications*. Springer, 2005.
[4] P. Eugster, R. Guerraoui, A.-M. Kermarrec, and L. Massoulié. “Epidemic Information Dissemination in Distributed Systems.” *IEEE Computer*, 37(5):60–67, May 2004.
[5] M. Fischer, N. Lynch, and M. Patterson. “Impossibility of Distributed Consensus with one Faulty Processor.” *J. ACM*, 32(2):374–382, Apr. 1985.
[6] S. Gilbert and N. Lynch. “Brewer’s Conjecture and the Feasibility of Consistent, Available, Partition-tolerant Web Services.” *ACM SIGACT News*, 33(2):51–59, June 2002.
[7] R. Guerraoui and M. Fayad. “OO Distributed Programming Is Not Distributed OO Programming.” *Commun. ACM*, 42(4):101–104, Apr. 1999.
[8] G. Hohpe and B. Woolf. *Enterprise Integration Patterns: Designing, Building, and Deploying Messaging Solutions*. Addison-Wesley, 2004.
[9] M. Huhns and M. Singh. “Service-Oriented Computing: Key Concepts and Principles.” *IEEE Internet Comput.*, 9(1):2–8, Jan. 2005.
[10] M. Jelasity, S. Voulgaris, R. Guerraoui, A.-M. Kermarrec, and M. van Steen. “Gossip-based Peer Sampling.” *ACM Trans. Comp. Syst.*, 25(3), Aug. 2007.
[11] D. Lea. “Design for Open Systems in Java.” In *Proc. Second Int’l Conf. Coordination Models & Languages*, vol. 1282 of *Lect. Notes Comp. Sc.*, pp. 32–45, Sept. 1997. Springer.
[12] T. Ozsu and P. Valduriez. *Principles of Distributed Database Systems*. Prentice Hall, 2nd ed., 1999.
[13] J. Patel and I. Gupta. “Overhaul: Extending HTTP to Combat Flash Crowds.” In *Proc. Nineth Web Caching Workshop*, volume 3293 of *Lect. Notes Comp. Sc.*, pp. 34–43, Oct. 2004. Springer.
[14] J. Risson and T. Moors. “Survey of Research towards Robust Peer-to-Peer Networks: Search Methods.” *Comp. Netw.*, 50(17):3485–3521, 2006.
[15] D. Schmidt, M. Stal, H. Rohnert, and F. Buschmann. *Pattern-Oriented Software Architecture – Patterns for Concurrent and Networked Objects*. Wiley, 2000.
[16] M. Szymaniak, G. Pierre, M. Simons-Nikolova, and M. van Steen. “Enabling Service Adaptability with Versatile Anycast.” *Concurrency & Comput.: Pract. & Exp.*, 19(13):1837–1863, Sept. 2007.
[17] M. van Steen, F. Hauck, P. Homberg, and A. Tanenbaum. “Locating Objects in Wide-Area Systems.” *IEEE Commun. Mag.*, 36(1):104–109, Jan. 1998.
[18] W. Vogels, R. van Renesse, and K. Birman. “Six Misconceptions about Reliable Distributed Computing.” In *Proc. Eighth SIGOPS European Workshop*, pp. 276–279, 1998.
[19] Q. Vu, M. Lupu, and B. Ooi. *Peer-to-Peer Computing, Principles and Applications*. Springer, 2010.
[20] J. Waldo, G. Wyant, A. Wolfrath, and S. Kendall. “A Note on Distributed Computing.” In *Proc. Second Workshop on Mobile Object Systems*, volume 1222 of *Lect. Notes Comp. Sc.*, pp. 1–10, July 1997. Springer.