Resource discovery over P2P networks for the creation of dynamic virtual clusters

Carlos Paulo Ferreira Santos P2P-Clusters: criação dinâmica de clusters em cycle-sharing

> Instituto Superior Técnico CPFSantos@netcabo.pt

Abstract. The importance of cycle-sharing and distributed computing has grown in the past years and the amount of internet traffic over peer-to-peer networks is increasing. The methods that peer-to-peer applications use to maintain scalability and perform their goals can be used to improve upon current grid systems to facilitate the creation and maintenance of dynamic virtual clusters allowing them to grow further or perform better. We intend to draw upon the strengths of P2P and grid systems to create a system capable of dynamically creating or adjusting virtual clusters for the execution of distributed applications, thus allowing for higher cluster availability as well as lessen the wasted computational resources.

Keywords: Peer-to-peer, Grid computing, Virtual clusters, Cycle-sharing

1. Introduction

In the ever-evolving modern world, one of the few constants in regards to computers has been growth. This growth manifests itself both in terms of computationally more demanding applications as well as a higher availability of computational resources.

One would think these patterns of growth would neatly overlap, yet that is not so. A high amount of computer cycles are being wasted at all times all over the world, and yet, at the same time there are applications that have a strict demand for computational power that requires more than a simple computer's effort to satisfy.

Over the length of the past 20 or so years, several approaches to this problem have been created. Initially most heavy computational processes were handled by supercomputers and mainframes, but this solution was both expensive and inherently generated inefficiency.

With the passing of time the concept of a computational cluster became the norm. A group of machines, similar both in hardware and software specifications, but also connected by high-throughput and high-availability networks, solely dedicated to the solving of a common problem through the uses of distributed and shared computing mechanisms.

However, while locally capable of providing for the needs of any entity requiring such form of computational power, it still failed to provide a solution except for the most wealthy and stable of companies[9]. The common user was still without a solution, the vast resources of the internet were still not being used, and above all, there was still a high amount of computational power that was wasted, not only during idle times in computer clusters, but also in the raw untapped power of millions of personal computers and other computational devices (such as the ever popular portable cellphones, handheld devices, etc.) all over the world connected to the internet[26].

Several partial solutions appeared with the passing of time, each focusing on a certain approach and method to solve the challenges required to implement a platform that would both maximize computational power available as well as minimize resource waste.

The concept of distributed and parallel computing itself is one of the interesting points that evolved alongside the clustering paradigm. Cycle-sharing and Grid computing are different approaches to this concept, each with their own goals and constraints. These constraints that still prevent public computing from having access to proper clustering tools. In a way, public computing and computer clusters are still like two islands in a sea, totally separate, due to the lack of tools to overcome such constraints. Should a tool arise that could allow for the dynamic creation and alteration of clusters based on a peer-to-peer network, we could finally reach the goal of allowing the computational power of clusters to the general public.

We will discuss the objectives of our own approach in section 2. A global analysis of previous approaches will be presented in section 3. Such analysis will be escorted with a short evaluation and analysis of a few strengths and weaknesses of such approaches, what they are lacking and where they succeed. and how we plan on overcoming those weak spots while capitalizing on the strengths of prior approaches. Section 4 contains the description of our plan on how to overcome those weak spots while capitalizing on the strengths our program to solve the two major issues ahead of us. This description will be evaluated using the methods described in section 5 and we are confident that the results will show the strength of our approach. This document wraps up with section 6 where we present a short reflection of the results of our labor and the impact the solution could have in the current computing environments.

2. Objectives

Our goal is to design a system based on a public, peer-to-peer overlay network of nodes representing computers offering or needing resources that can on a per-request basis locate a list of the best candidates for the creation of a virtual cluster from the nodes present in the network. With this list we will make a choice of the exact machines that will be part of the cluster and finally create the cluster itself, always maintaining the capability of adjusting its size or members.

This system must be able to:

- Allow the soft and controlled entrance and exit of nodes from the network.
- Locate resources in useful time, ensuring that if a resource exists, it can be found

- Take into consideration each machine's specifications including CPU type, clock speed, core availability as well as available bandwidth

 Allow each request to specify QOS-level metrics to refine the search and provide the best candidates for a cluster.

- Be capable of finding a cluster of the appropriate size and specifications to meet the needs of the request

- Maintain a high level of scalability and reduced bottlenecks/points of failure.
- Create and maintain a cluster from heterogeneous machines if necessary
- Initiate a cluster dynamically, at request execution time

– Dynamically Alter the size of a cluster, if the application to be executed requires it, effectively enabling the cluster to be elastic and have a higher capability for adaptation.

In order to do this, we will create an approach that involves both a P2P-based protocol for resource discovery, a P2P-based node handling system and an application for the deployment of the code to be executed on the recently created virtual cluster.

This will solve the major issues highlighted in the previous section, our approach will perform such tasks in an efficient way, making use of resources located not only in fixed, easy to access networks but mainly via perishable networks like the internet. We will present a system that allows a user to share local resources, set up QOS (quality of service) levels in several aspects in order to locate a machine or group of machines currently available that best fits the execution of an application as well as actually relaying the execution of the application in that machine or virtual cluster.

To achieve this, there are three main problems to solve. The first of those lies with the nature of the network wherein we will locate our resources. The internet is not without fails and faults, and even though its reliability (and availability) has greatly increased in the past years, we cannot assume a node present at a time to be available at another time. Our system must be able to allow a node to make itself known and announce its available resources without generating a unsustainable amount of control messages in order to ensure a capacity for scaling.

The second issue is directly interlinked with the first one. Our protocol must be able to locate resources that have been announced that fit the criteria defined in the QoS specifications. The same care must be shown in order to avoid flooding the network, but also we have to pay attention to the amount of time spent locating the "perfect" resources, and whether locating them is feasible.

The third and final issue appears once we have obtained a list of candidates for execution of the required application. From that list, we will have to choose a machine or group of machines that can most satisfy the QoS requirements and start a virtual cluster for the execution of the code. Those resources will have to be reserved, execute the code, the results of the execution must be gathered and assembled and then the resources should be freed, to be reused. This can be achieved by using an appropriate tool (like a small applet or virtual appliance) that is dynamically deployed onto the machines of the selected nodes.

In further detail, our resource-discovery protocol will be based on a structured peer to peer approach and will be oriented towards locating machines that can, partially or fully, satisfy the QoS-level metrics presented by the request. These metrics can include characteristics such as the machines' number of CPUs, their CPU availability, available RAM, storage space, network latency and/or bandwidth available, among others.

The system we will design for handling the entrance, exit and maintenance of nodes in the network will be based in a peer-to-peer approach to ensure a low amount of overhead generated by control messages. It will have to maintain the data on resources, node availability and characteristics in order to sustain the node network's health as well as feed the resource discovery protocol

Finally, the prototype application will both serve to deploy the code to be executed onto the target dynamically created cluster and provide an interface for the usage of our proposed system.

We will show our solution in finer detail in section 4.

3. Related Work

Isaac Newton once said "If I have seen further it is only by standing on the shoulders of giants." and we are in the same position. Our work is based on gradual evolution in the field, both in the academic world and in the computer industry. In this section we will describe the evolution in two main fields within which our work is based. The first one is regarding resource discovery in peer-to-peer/grid networks while the second one relates to the creation of dynamic clusters itself.

The following subsections contain a short analysis of the origin and evolution of those technologies, as well a analyze why they succeeded and failed.

3.1. Peer-to-Peer

Peer to peer (or more commonly P2P) is a concept where resources are shared among several nodes in a network, be those resources tasks, information or storage. The networks based on this concept can be both structured and unstructured. We will first give an example of unstructured ones.

These systems share responsibilities amongst the nodes and allow for far greater resource availability than existed in previous single-point or centralized approaches.

A peer to peer system is characterized by its level of decentralization, which is how distant from the ideal that all nodes in the network are equal. This affects not only the homogeneity of the nodes in the network but also the degree of scalability and performance issues that might arise.

Another important point in these systems is resource discovery, or the method for which a node discovers other nodes/resources in nodes. This can greatly affect the performance of a system, to the point of actually making it not useable in practice.

One issue concerning these systems is the entrance and exit of nodes from the network. This is directly tied to its level of decentralization, but is independent enough that merits mentioning. Although it has only a partial impact on scalability, it can greatly hinder the performance of a system if not handled correctly.

3.1.1 Unstructured P2P

This concept was first made famous by the application Napster that quickly accrued upwards of 80 million files shared between 1999 and 2001[27]. Napster, however, is unlike more modern P2P implementations in the fact that it was a not a fully decentralized technology, using superservers to direct and control entrance into the network, resource discovery and node publication, among other tasks.

Napster

Napster uses in fact a Hybrid Decentralized Architecture[5] which uses the aforementioned superserver in addition to normal peer nodes in a network. This particular feature is one of the weaknesses of this type of approach offering an individual point where failure or fault greatly compromises the P2P network, as well as offering a bottleneck that can greatly affect scalability of the system.

This approach in fact limits one of the strong points of P2P systems: scalability. More modern approaches use either one of two different P2P types, which vary exactly in the equality of peers within the network. A Partially Centralized Architecture[5][12], such as the one used by the FastTrack protocol (as used in KaZaa¹ or ED2K based systems[15]) is based on the existence of some peers that accumulate more responsibility than that of the usual client, and thus also have tasks of control and organization of the network.

FastTrack

Unlike Napster's approach, the lack of a central server means there is no bottleneck, and the tolerance for fails and faults is much higher. The sudden absence of one of these superpeers does not compromise the network. If it is necessary, a new superpeer can be elected to take the place of the previous one, or in some cases another already existing superpeer can take over for the absent one. In any case, these peers are required to present certain characteristics in order to be promoted to a superpeer, both in terms of computational power as well as bandwidth available to them.

The final type of P2P system is the Purely Decentralized Architecture[12][1]. This system presents true equality among peers, not using superpeers or centralized servers. For a new node to join a network of this type, he simply needs to know the address of a node already in the network, and the system itself accommodates for the new node and spreads the information of its existence.

While this may seem to offer less bottlenecks than the previous two types, there is an issue with resource discovery. Due to the lack of nodes with the responsibility of containing information on the resources present in the network, a much higher amount of control messages might be required in the system.

Traditionally the spreading and discovery of resources was handled by flooding the network. The evolution of these systems started using other methods such as random walks [20] and Distributed Hash Tables[17][11] (as seen in the Bittorrent[23] protocol and several of the structured networks present in the following subsection **3.1.2.**)

^{1:} Kazaa homepage http://kazaa.com

3.1.2 Structured P2P

Unlike the peer to peer based systems described in the previous subsection, structured peer to peer architectures use a rigid organization to govern the nodes within the network. This well-defined structure allows some knowledge over the nodes to be passed onto their itself as well as both ensure that resource locating algorithms do not flood the network and that if a resource exists, it is found in a well-known and predictable number of steps[14].

Examples of systems that use a structured peer to peer approach are for example, Chord [8] and CAN [4]. There are some systems such as Pastry [19] and Kademlia [16] that use portions of both unstructured and structured systems, but in their essence function as structured approaches. The great advantage these approaches have over an unstructured approach is the control over node joining and content that lies within the node structure, ensuring both a lower amount of control messages as well as faster (or at least more certain) searches.

Chord

Chord was one of the first structured peer to peer systems, developed at MIT, and uses a Distributed Hash Table to store pairs of keys and values. Each node stores all values for any keys he is responsible for, and the system enforces how each key is given to each node.

Resource discovery in Chord takes two steps: first you locate the node that is responsible for the key, then you locate the key (and appropriate value) in such a node. Like many structured approaches of this type, the nodes in Chord are structured in a figurative directed circle. Each node has another node as a successor and one as a predecessor in the circle.

In order for chord to function, the system uses a consistent-hashing system to generate a unique identifier with a length of N bits. The maximum number of nodes in a Chord circle is 2ⁿ nodes, and each of these is responsible for a number of keys equal to the total number of keys divided by the number of nodes.

To ensure safe departure from the network, each node has not only information of its successor, but also information on a few of the following nodes, ensuring that the circle is not broken upon network or node failure. Whenever a new node joins the network, the responsibility of each node is recalculated to ensure an even distribution of keys.

CAN

CAN (short for Content Addressable Network) is another DHT-based structured P2P system. Unlike chord, the nodes are not sorted in a circular fashion. CAN interprets the node space as a N-Dimensional Cartesian system. Nodes are assigned coordinates as if they were a point in the axial system and each node is assigned a partition of the total dimension that the node becomes responsible for.

Each node contains a list of its neighbor nodes as well as their IP addresses and maintains this information in a routing table of sorts. Also unlike Chord, a node's entrance into the network causes not a calibration of the whole weight, but only a split in one of the spaces assigned to a node. The new node contacts a node already present in the network and discovers a node (either by picking random coordinates in the system) that is responsible for a certain amount of space. That node splits his space into two between itself and the new node, and informs the neighboring nodes of the new responsibilities. The information is then propagated across the network.

This small change causes a much smaller amount of overhead (when compared to Chord) in networks with high amounts of nodes and keys, but conversely does not guarantee that the keys are evenly distributed as Chord does.

The process for a node's leave from the network is more complex. There has to be a control mechanism that periodically probes the nodes for livelihood. Once an absent node is found, its space is merged with one of its neighbor nodes and that information is once again propagated to the merged node's neighbors and the network. To ensure that the routing protocol in CAN is obeyed, the choice of which neighbor gets the responsibility over the space previously assigned to the node that left follows strict rules regarding the shape of the final space. If no merge is possible, then the neighbor node with the smallest space is assigned responsibility over the departed node's space as well.

The actual of a resource is handled based on the resource's coordinates in the axial system. From any node, you simply move the request onto the neighboring node that is in the direction of the resource's , and the request moves forward in this fashion until the is finally reached.

Pastry

Pastry is in many ways similar to Chord. Nodes are also arranged in a circle, and the system also uses a Dynamic Hash Table to store key-value pairs. The main difference between the two are the lds that each system handles.

Pastry uses a 128-bit ID setup that represents a position in the circle. Node IDs are assigned at random and on top of the circular node setting pastry uses an external routing overlay network. This overlay maintains information on node "proximity" (be it through the existence of a low amount of hops between them, low latency, etc) in a list of neighbor nodes.

Each node also maintains a list of leaf nodes which are the closest nodes to itself in terms of node ID, totally disregarding the metric. The routing list basically looks at each 128 bit key as a length of digits or characters as if it were a string, and sets farther nodes (in terms of the metric) to strings that have only 1 of the digits or characters in common to it, while nodes "closer" might share more characters in common. For example, given a node with key ABCD, the node FGHD is farther away than the node CBCD.

The actual routing of a message takes multiple steps. If a node wants to send a message to a certain key, that node sends it directly to that space. The node with the ID closest to it on the circle then scans its leaf nodes to check for the key being present there. Should it be there, the message is delivered. Should the key be absent, the node's routing table is consulted to attempt to find a node with the a longer string in common with the target key.

This structure allows real life constraints such as bandwidth and round trip times to determine proximity in nodes, which can greatly increase the performance of such a system.

Kademlia

Kademlia[16], like Chord and Pastry before it, also uses a Dynamic Hash Table, but in this case the hashing is directly tied to the IDs of the nodes. In a Kademlia network, resource is an iterative, gradual approach. Every step of this process attempts to find "closer" nodes to the target key, and proximity is determined by a simple XOR of node IDs.

Each of these steps ensures that either a better match is found, or that either the node is absent or that we've found the key being procured. Another large differentiating feature in Kademlia is that the distance of nodes is kept in lists by each node. There is one list for each bit in the node ID, so if there were 32 bits in such an id, there would be 32 lists kept in each node. The first one contains the nodes farthest away from this one, and each subsequent list contains nodes closer. These lists are updated as nodes are encountered, which generates a very low overhead and keeps the routing list fresh.

3.1.3 Analysis and comparison

For ease of reference, we will provide a comparison table between the systems described above, containing a few of the main characteristics of each.

We define overhead in this table as the amount of control and system messages necessary to maintain the correct state of the system, its nodes and the resources available. Ideally in a single-machine system, these are nearly nonexistent. The lower the overhead resulting from these messages, the smoother the system scales with a growing number of nodes. This is a defining point of any system, as it can determine the capability of our system to accompany a large growth in the number of nodes. The control messages usually stem from resource requests and finds, file transfers, among others.

Also, when referring to "servers", these are specialized machines, not selected from normal nodes, and multiple in number, as opposite to super-peers which can sometimes be drawn from the normal node pool. These specialized machines are centralized in fashion and predetermined by the system itself.

Name	P2P type	Level of Decentralizatio n	Resource	Types of nodes	Overhead
Napster[27]	Unstructured Hybrid decentralized	Central Server	Server-side	Peers, server	Small
Direct Connect	Unstructured Hybrid decentralized	Servers	Server-side	Peers, servers	Medium

Kazaa	Unstructured Partially Decentralized	Super-peers	Super-peer controlled flood	Super-peer Peers, controlled super-peers flood	
Edonkey[15]	Unstructured Partially Decentralized	Super-peers	Super-peer controlled flood	Peers, super-peers	Large
Freenet	Unstructured partially decentralized	Super-peers	Super-peer controlled flood	Peers, super-peers	Large
Gnutella	Unstructured partially decentralized	Super-peers	Super-peer controlled flood	Peers, super-peers	Large
Ares	Unstructured partially decentralized	Super-peers	Super-peer controlled flood	Peers, super-peers	Large
Chord[8]	Structured	Fully Decentralized	2-step search by nodeID and key	Peers	Medium
CAN[4]	Structured	Fully Decentralized	Routing by neighbor peers	Peers	Small
Pastry[19]	Structured	Fully Decentralized	Peer overlay and nodeID	Peers	Small
Kademlia[16]	Structured	Fully Decentralized	Iterative list search	Peers	Small

3.2 Grid systems

Grid computing is the process of using computer resources from disparate s and architectures to join together in order to overcome a common computational challenge[33]. It is somewhat related to traditional computer clusters in the sense that it uses several machines to solve a computational problem, but the similarities end there.

Grid computing utilizes resources spread throughout several organizations and/or individuals instead of all belonging to the same organization. In addition to this, machines in a grid system are not required to have similar specifications, which is common in cluster systems[3].

In fact, the most common tools at the disposal of a Grid System are physically and geographically distant computers joining together in a loosely coupled way over networks that span from lans to wans to the internet itself. By harnessing the collective power of these machines, one can create virtual supercomputers capable of handling much more complex tasks. The immediate comparison to traditional cluster systems shows pros and cons on both sides. The typical cluster system can take a greater advantage of the machines at its disposal, but requires a large investment in planning and hardware. Cluster systems by definition may are only limited the machines available and the network connecting them, but can join together a much larger amount of machines and thus derive more computational power from them.

One of the more modern details regarding Grid systems is the usage of established middleware to deploy (and possibly partition) or integrate with the code to be executed among the machines that will perform that task, thus reducing the system's need to focus on that point.

In its essence, a Grid System is a type of distributed computing, or more precisely a type of parallel computing that uses whole machines it has low direct physical control over, connected through networks that the system also has low control over. The following table will show a small comparison over the three types of systems mentioned above.

	Supercomputer	Computer cluster	Grid system
Number of machines	1	Several	Many
Machine specs	Several similar processors	Several similar machines	Many different machines
Connection type	High speed bus	Reliable LAN/WAN	LAN/WAN/Internet
Machine owner	Single organization	Single organization	Single organization or Multiple owners
Owner investment	High investment	High investment	Low investment
Performance potential	High	High	Average to very high
Duration of service	Long term	Long term	Task oriented
Overhead	Nearly nonexistent	Small	Medium
Resource wasting	Idle periods	Idle periods	Very small

Grid systems as a whole have been used in the solving of several computationally intensive problems in several ares of science and academics, from the discovery of new medicine and drugs to the execution of complex mathematical calculations.

One of the advantages of this approach is that the individual machines that form the grid can be purchased independently of each other, on a per-need basis, and later be used in the virtual supercomputer created by the grid. The obvious advantage here lies with the low initial cost and investment. [25]

Many small companies requiring higher computational power were for several years barred from attaining it due to the steep initial investment costs inherent to the acquisition of a supercomputer or the creation of a cluster. Grid systems present themselves as the cost-effective solution as well as having the potential for very high computational performance.

However, not all is advantageous when it comes to Grids. Due to the very nature of the machines involved, individual nodes cannot be relied upon as machines in a cluster can. Not only can the nodes themselves be unreliable, the network connecting them may present faults or fails as well. To prevent compromising the computation being done, the system must apply strict measures to prevent a single machine's failure or absence from critically affecting a job that is underway.

A certain type of distributed computing that is a particular form of grid systems is what is called Cycle-scavenging[7] (sometimes called cycle-stealing or public computing). This is what is behind the many well-known volunteer computing programs like Folding@home and Seti@home. The latter one has in the past years changed its system to use BOINC, one of the several grid-oriented middleware applications available.

The applications using cycle-scavenging are typically installed in a voluntary fashion by the machine's owner and run when the computer itself is idle. There is little cost to the machine's owner, and these applications serve purposes of general interest. The main goal of reducing idle times in computers is achieved by these applications, but still the goal of allowing supercomputing to be accessible to the general public is still unsatisfied.

However, grid computer is becoming more mainstream than simple cyclescavenging programs. The CERN has become a great proponent of Grid systems and there are several initiatives throughout Europe that aim to further the Grid system's evolution.

We will now present a more closer look at some examples of systems using grid technologies as well as cycle-scavenging/public computing.

MPI

Message Parsing Interface is a protocol specification designed to allow computer processes to communicate with each other. It was first announced in draft form in 1994 and aimed at being used in distributed and parallel computing in systems where the costs for accessing non-local memory are too high[29].

It is easy to see the importance such a protocol can have in distributed computing systems like clusters and grids, and the impact MPI had can quickly be seen in the fact that even though it is not considered a standard, it has all but become a *de facto* one in today's parallel and distributed computing world, being used in the vast majority of appropriate systems.

Being only a specification, MPI allows several implementations to exist, in several programming languages as well as having two different versions, with different scopes. MPI-1.2 (commonly shortened to MPI-1) is more focused on the actual message passing while MPI-2 also includes parallel I/O, dynamic process management and remote memory operations[28].

MPI-1 focuses mostly on topology, communication and synchronization between processes. It achieves this by using unique objects and concepts (e.g. process barriers) for each specialized situation, from using "communicator" objects to handle multiple processes to mechanisms aimed at passing a message from a particular process to another (or broadcasting it to all other). It also defines specific data types for usage with the specification.

Globus

The Globus toolkit[13] is a set of open source tools for the creation of computing grids. It was developed from 1995 onwards by an international association that eventually came to form the Globus Alliance in 2003.

It has a specialized tool for resource management called GRAM[2] (Globus Resource AI and Management protocol). GRAM can handle most basic job-related functions as well as more advanced functions such as managing credentials and monitoring the status of resources. GRAM receives a job as a single submission directed at a single computational resource and can provide not only input files but also output files for the result.

For the management of credentials and security, Globus uses a tool called GSI (Grid Security Interface). GSI ensures that data is not tampered with, can be authenticated and is read only by those that have a responsibility with it. Within the Globus toolkit a legacy tool called MDS-2 (Monitoring and Discovery Services) for the monitoring of computer resources in the grid, but support for this tool is scheduled to be stopped and the tool removed from the kit.

Condor

Condor[10] is a software framework for distributed computing aimed at distributing the workload over a dedicated cluster of computers, but may also be used to draw unused computer cycles from idle machines. It was developed in the University of Wisconsin in Madison as a means to tackle the problems inherent to distributed computing. It is firmly set on an Open Source philosophy.

One of Condor's advantages is the seamless integration of heterogeneous and disparate resources, from clusters to regular desktop computers. This in part derives from the developer's strong focus in the philosophy of flexibility as a requirement for a system of this type.

The Condor system uses a component called Condor-G as an interface to communicate with Grid resources (and also Cloud resources). Its name derives from that of Globus (mentioned further in this document) which was the Grid creation method Condor used at first.

Condor supports the MPI specification but also has a proprietary library called Master Worker. MW is aimed at tasks that require a substantially higher degree of parallelism.

Boinc

Boinc is a Grid middleware application developed in the Berkeley University of California in 2002². its original goal was as a platform to support Seti@home but it quickly outgrew that goal and started being used in a more widespread fashion around the world. According to statistics publicized monthly, the Boinc-powered virtual supercomputer has risen above 4 000 Tera flops (average) of computational power³, spread out over more than 20 different projects.

This is more than twice the fastest supercomputer currently available (the Jaguar-Cray XT5 HE, at approximately 1750 Tera flops⁴), which is a number that not only proves the efficiency and potential of Grids, it also shows their rapid exponential growth, reaching this peak in only 6 years.

If we consider peaks of performance instead of averages, the Boinc virtual supercomputer has achieved over 5 400 Tera flops.

Boinc itself is a free mechanism for anyone that wishes to start a volunteer computing system, and is mostly used for scientific purposes and is currently the largest open Grid system in existence.

Folding@home

Folding@home is a cycle-scavenging system designed in the Stanford University in California in 2000 to model protein folding in order to gain insight over several diseases and medicine⁵.

Much like any cycle-scavenging system, it relies on a user installing its client in a machine so that it can access the machine. It has achieved a peak of 5 600 Tera flops but averages out at approximately 5 000 Tera flops divided over seven different "cores" of research, each with their own peculiarities.

Seti@home

Seti@home is a cycle-scavenging system released in 1999 destined to scan data obtained in the Arecibo astronomical observatory in order to attempt to find hints at the existence of extra-terrestrial life⁶.

From 2005 onwards, Seti@home started using the Boinc platform stead of its own proprietary system. It is currently averaging approximately 730 teraflops, or approximately 17% of the Boinc virtual supercomputer.

LHC Computing Grid

As mentioned above, the CERN has embraced Grid systems as an answer to the large computational power required to interpret the immense amount of data being gathered from the LHC experiments[6].

It was started at the end of 2008 and currently has participating nodes spread over three continents and contains machines of over 140 different institutions⁷.

3.2.1 The grid and p2p convergence

At the current point of time, peer to peer systems and grid systems are largely independent. They were, after all, developed independently and aimed to solve different goals. Yet, the evolution of both systems may show a confluence between them in the near future[18].

^{2:}BOINC website, http://boinc.berkeley.edu/

^{3:} BOINC statistics http://boincstats.com/stats/project_graph.php?pr=bo

^{4:} Top 500 Supercomputer List http://www.top500.org/lists/2010/06

^{5:} Folding@home http://folding.stanford.edu/English/License

As grid systems grow, scalability issues will require them to start using tools commonly used in peer-to-peer systems to avoid bottlenecks and slowdowns as well as possible points of failure. On the other hand, as peer to peer systems become more abridging and attempt to claim more possible uses, they too start using structured models commonly seen in Grid systems.

One could say that eventually there will cease to be any distinction between the two types of systems, and that a single, common architecture will be present to fulfill the goals of both systems: resource sharing (be it in terms of computational power, data storage, or data itself) and the avoidance of resource wasting. How soon it happens is still unknown, but it is a near certainty of modern advances.

3.2.2 Cloud Computing

One unavoidable concept in today's distributed computing world is that of cloud computing. The company Amazon is one of the entities most responsible for the appearance of the concept of cloud computing. It came to be during the company's internal hardware system restructure, an action whose goal was to minimize the wasted computational resources inherent to the company's everyday work.

A company study showed that sometimes only 10% of the machine's total capacity was being used. During attempts to solve that, the idea of a pool of computational resources evolved into the modern notion of the cloud. Of course, had it remained simply a tool for the internal use of the company, the cloud would not be a topic as well known as it is today. In 2006, Amazon started to provide cloud computing to the outside public⁸.

A more careful look at the cloud shows it using concepts already present both in grid systems, cluster systems and public computing, but with a different implementation and a more restricted set of premisses.

From the point of view of a regular user, cloud computing seems to solve all the tasks we set forth to achieve with this work, but after careful analysis, it is not so. Cloud computing as it is currently pictured ends the client user's control after the request is made and any decision on the cluster is done without the client user's interference. While it does add to general agility for typical use, it denies the user the capacity of adjusting the clusters to his own needs.

Furthermore, the cloud is still closed in the sense that the machines providing the computational capabilities will not request more capacity themselves, and that a typical user cannot provide his own unused computer cycles to someone else. These points are strong enough that a niche for our work exists, and this niche is substantial enough that it warrants a solution, a proper answer to the issue at hand.

^{6:} Seti@home http://seticlassic.ssl.berkeley.edu/about_seti/about_seti_at_home_4.html

^{7:} The CERN Large Hadron Colider computing grid http://lcg.web.cern.ch/LCG/

3.3 Virtual Clusters

The concept of a virtual cluster[24] is tied directly to that of the traditional computer cluster. Originally, clusters were groups of similar computers belonging to a single organization in order to either improve performance by spreading computational load, diminish network load impact by spreading traffic around or ensuring a higher availability of data. These computers were traditionally connected by high-bandwidth networks, had similar specifications and were closely monitored and under strict organization.

Virtual clusters deviate from tradition by being more loosely coupled and not necessarily physically close to each other. In addition, the biggest diverging point is that while clusters are permanently assigned to their particular job, machines participating in a virtual cluster might be performing that job only a shorter period of time, being released afterward.

In addition to the constraints and concerns already present in the creation of a normal cluster, some additional issues arise when we observe the creation of dynamic virtual clusters. Some of those issues stem from the difference in networks present between the nodes of the cluster while others arise from the lack of homogeneity between nodes.

The network connecting the machines itself adds additional focus points. In applications that require a hefty amount of data transfer between them, high bandwidth may be required, and that can influence the performance of the virtual cluster, while on the other hand if a small amount of data is passed amongst nodes, but it is done fairly often, a globally low latency becomes the priority.

Additionally, the necessity for the cluster to be dynamic or elastic, that is, being able to alter its size or nodes at will, requires control mechanisms aimed at allowing departure and entrance into the cluster as well as job management and handling throughout the changing node network. This management must be able to provide strict control of the resources within the cluster.

A bottom-up approach to virtual clusters would lead us first to the actual creation of the cluster. Krsul [32] described a way to create virtual clusters by using virtual machines. A single virtual machine image would be cloned throughout the machines belonging to the cluster. This virtual machine would then receive a directed acyclical graph containing configuration instructions and with them the machine would be set up. Foster [31] provided a solution to the same problem by introducing the concept of a virtual workspace. This virtual workspace is nothing but another virtual machine which instead receives its configuration instructions as an argument and then is deployed to the actual physical resources in the cluster.

While both above solutions are fine for a low number of machines, they would not scale well with a sufficiently high number of machines, and alternatives for larger clusters were created [30]. Here, the deployment itself is accelerated by means of virtual disk caches (and other techniques) which contain any and all required software, thus greatly hastening the initial deployment.

^{8:} The Amazon elastic cloud, http://aws.amazon.com/ec2/

Past the initial deployment step, the existence of a virtual cluster requires managing of jobs and resources. To do so, a virtual cluster requires the existence of a Resource Managing System (RMS) that can assign jobs, extract job results, control node absence and presence, maintain the integrity of the computational exercise being done and ensure the general stability of the virtual cluster[21].

To do so, the RMS must, upon reception of a request, estimate the impact the request would have on each machine, and then generate a plan for job distribution and handling amongst the machines in the cluster. In addition, the RMS must also provide the security aspect of a request, by authenticating credentials and ensuring data confidentiality within the cluster.

4. Architecture

The design presented in this paper focuses on three individual parts as mentioned in section 2. In this section we will provide a more detailed look into both our system and the inherent protocol it uses to achieve its goals. In general our system will provide means for a new node to join a network in order to be able to utilize resources on remote computers as well as allow his own resources to be used by remote requests.

4.1 Network System



Figure 1: System overview

The figure above shows the overview of our system and a general outline of the several actions in a typical request. To be able to perform these actions, the three individual parts (the peer-to-peer network system, the resource protocol and the clustering virtual application) of our work must interact and communicate amongst themselves in well-defined ways. A more detailed description of these parts and their interfaces will now be depicted.

Our system is based on a structured peer-to-peer network of nodes. We choose this type of network to allow quick and efficient of resources and swift routing to specific nodes, thus promoting scalability and still maintaining the decentralized architecture. We will model our system in PeerSim, providing the added functionality for node joining and leaving as well as resource availability control and job request specification.

The system will allow a machine to join a network by simply knowing the IP or address of a node already in the network (as depicted in Figure 2), and will accommodate the new node in its overlay. Both the departure of a node (loss of available resources) and the joining of one (increase in available resources) will be propagated throughout the network in a controlled way in order to not flood the system.



Figure 2: The entering of a node into the network.

4.2 Resource discovery Protocol

The actual submission of a job request can be escorted with several quality of service metrics. A request can be made for a cluster of a specific number of computers and values to each of the QoS metrics can be provided with the request to later allow our resource discovery protocol to refine the list of candidates and correctly estimate the machines that best fit the requirements of the request. For instance, we could request a cluster composed of 6 machines where we would give a very high weight to a low latency in the network connections between them as well as the individual machines' CPU type and number of cores, in order to accommodate an application with low size messages being swapped among the machines in the cluster.

After a request is submitted, our resource protocol sets in, working on the node network maintained by our system and will attempt to locate resources that either fit the request's QoS metrics completely, or at least locate machines that partially fit the request, all the while maximizing their adaptation to the task. Considering the heterogeneous nature of the nodes in the network, it is most likely that only partial matches can be found[22], but the capacity for this protocol to maximize the cluster's capacities to fit the request are a crucial point. Thus, we allow each node to, upon request submission, specify minimum thresholds for both partial and global resource satisfaction.

The protocol itself will be modeled in the form of PeerSim classes tailored to fit our system. The protocol's work has two steps. In the first step, the protocol must locate a list of potential candidates from within the nodes present in the network and grade them considering the metrics provided in the request. It must then select the best candidates from among that list.

4.3 Cluster setup

After the machines that will be a part of the cluster are selected, our virtual appliance will then be deployed onto each of those machines. This application will be a small virtual machine capable of receiving configuration instructions as an argument, and will be also responsible for the execution of the code.

For each machine, the configuration instructions will either be responsible for setting up the execution of the clustered application code (either via library, e.g., MPI or deploying a full system virtual machine with OS and application, e.g., using Xen or QEMU) or contain instructions to connect to a third machine that will act as the cluster's coordinator. After the cluster is fully deployed and set up, the execution of the job begins. Upon its completion, the node chosen as controller or RMS must collect the results and deliver them to the machine that initiated the request.



Figure 3: Virtual appliance deployment

The system itself evolves over time, and as such the machines present in the overlay network can change, as well as the clusters in it and even the machines belonging to each cluster. Figure 4 represents the same sample of the overlay in two different moments in time.



Figure 4: Changes in the overlay and its clusters.

4.4 Further detail and Implementation Issues

To implement our resource discovery protocol we will address a number of Variants that can be later compared regarding completeness, efficiency and scalability. We can opt for a decentralized method with flooding via neighboring nodes and random walks (Variant A), which is a method used in several existing systems. This approach is both simple and effective, but might not be the most efficient one.

Additionally we can use an approach similar to that of CAN (Variant B), where resources are located by obtaining from the resource key its respective set of coordinates in the N-Dimensional space. After obtaining the resource's coordinates, getting to the resource is a question of forwarding the request to the neighboring node that is in the direction of the set of coordinates.

This second approach will require a more strict placement of resources. In order for the location to help us, we must have to set similar machines in similar spaces, thus ensuring that should we require, for example, several machines with 3000 MHz of CPU, 2 GB of available ram and low latency between them, we can know where in the space to look. In order to avoid two machines falling into the same space, there must be a certain degree of leeway in the exact coordinates. Two machines with the exact same components might end up at coordinates X,Y,Z and X+- α ,Y+- β ,Z+- γ . We will now provide a simple depiction of the progress of the resource location protocol in this approach.

Main steps in resource discovery:

-Locate the coordinates of a resource from its characteristics and key

-From the local node's coordinates, locate the neighboring node that lies in the

direction of the coordinates of the resource we obtained in the previous step

- If the resource is located in that node's space, stop, if not, we locate the next

neighboring node that is in the direction of the coordinates

- We then repeat the previous two steps

In Figure 5 we can see an example of the representation of a few nodes in a coordinate system such as this one. For the sake of simplicity, we will only use two dimensions, one for the number of cores and the other for each core's clock speed, but any amount of characteristics can be presented in a N-dimensional space.

Node	Clock Speed (MHz)	Number of cores	Available Bandwidth (Mb)	RAM (MB)	Latency (ms)
1	2000	2	12	2000	55
2	2500	2	30	2000	43
3	3000	2	8	4000	118
4	3500	8	100	8000	45
5	3000	4	30	4000	61



Figure 5: Node representation in variant B

19/25

Each circle represents a node in this section of the overlay, and each node's location in the 2-dimensional space tells us of the node's characteristics. By using this information we can easily locate resources with specific characteristics.

A more advanced approach (Variant C) can extend the latter one, by using not the exact position but the relative size of a resource in several 2-dimensional planes. The more CPU a machine might have available, the larger the area it occupies on that dimension in the coordinate space, and thus the higher chance a random coordinate might fit it.

With this approach, the crucial point is not the node's location in the space, but rather its size relative to the others. We will show the same nodes used in the example above, this is a possible representation of these nodes in regards to clock speed.



Figure 6: Possible node representation on variant C regarding clock speed

The relative size would ensure that any resource location request aimed at a random point in the N-dimensional space would have a higher chance to locate resources with a higher or better characteristic. In this case, the biggest issue would be the empty space, which although CAN already partially deals with the matter, is something we must deal with.

In this approach, the location of a resource is, for each plane (we represent each characteristic as a 2-dimensional axis), we create a random 2-dimension coordinate. The machines with more processing power, or more bandwidth, or more RAM, or less latency (size can in this case be inversely related to the latency shown in the network) are more likely to be chosen than the others. This can greatly accelerate resource location and maximize resource occupation in the network.

Cluster Deployment

To facilitate cluster setup we will adhere to the Open Virtualization Format (OVF) standard. This will allow us to utilize .OVA files that can be customized from preexisting templates in order to allow us to refer our virtual appliance to resources located on virtual disks containing the application to be executed. These packages can be extended with configuration data to be accessed by the virtual machine post-deployment.

Simulation

We will structure our system on top of PeerSim using classes developed to handle node entrance and exit, as well as common resource discovery requests and job execution requests (as depicted in Figure 7). To properly test the system's performance, we will also include a small scripting engine capable of receiving scripts containing basic tasks performed by simulated nodes as well as its periodicity (in seconds or ticks). For example, we might have a script that makes 2 random machines leave the overlay every 20 seconds and have 3 random machines join every 30 seconds, plus one cluster request with a random number (with limits) of machines with random characteristics.

Our scripting engine will be fed with scripts containing the actions described above. This same engine will then forward the action to the appropriate handler, the node entrance and exit module in case of node presence chance in the overlay or the resource discovery protocol in the case of a job request.

Both the resource discovery protocol and the scripting engine itself will be capable of outputting information on the simulated outcome. This output can already be in a format that our virtual appliance can interpret and execute or it might simply be a description of the change in the overlay. Such a change can be the creation, disbanding or altering of a cluster, for example.



Figure 7: Our class model

5. Evaluation Methodologies and Metrics

To correctly evaluate our application, we will measure its performance in both quantitative and qualitative terms. Our quantitative analysis will reflect whether or not our system fulfills the requirements we had for it while the quantitative analysis will be further focused on the system's actual performance, both in abstract as well as in comparison to other systems.

5.1 System Qualitative Evaluation

We must ensure that our system can:

- Handle orderly node entrance and exit;

- Handle a node's unexpected disconnection from the network;

- Place each node in a location that is appropriate for the resource location protocol variant in use;

5.2 Protocol Qualitative Evaluation

We must ensure that our protocol can:

- Locate resources to match each request, if they exist;

- Locate enough resources to provide the best match possible for each request;

- Correctly estimate the best candidates to establish the cluster;

- Distribute resource usage in order to avoid the same nodes being chosen often while others are nearly unused;

- Allow stretching or thinning a cluster, if the job to be executed requires it;

5.3 Virtual Appliance Qualitative Evaluation

We must ensure that our virtual appliance can:

- Be correctly deployed to the machines chosen to be part of a cluster;
- Correctly communicate with the cluster coordinator to organize the cluster;
- Correctly execute the application to be run;

5.4 Quantitative Evaluation

To properly assess the system's adaptation to the our goal, we have also to implement measures that can estimate how well our system and protocol handle the typical requests of a system such as ours. To do that, we will, using our scripting engine and appropriate scripts, evaluate:

- Percentage of satisfied requests;
- Ratio of fully satisfied and partially satisfied to total requests
- Total number and size of messages sent;
- Average number of hops per query;
- Time taken to resolve a query;
- Amount of memory used by each node required to perform resource discovery;
- Amount of resources wasted on requests that fully occupy all available capacity
- Number of failures due to peer disconnects or unavailability of resources/services.

5.3 Comparative Evaluation

Finally, we will attempt to compare our system's performance using the aforementioned parameters to the performance of other existing systems, particularly in what relates to resource discovery. This, taking into consideration the fact that no other allows a request to locate several nodes and locate them as a group instead of several individual machines, as well as few allowing the fine-tuning of QoS-level metrics that our system permits.

6. Conclusion

The amount of computational resources worldwide that sit idle for lengthy periods of time while connected to a network is immense. By utilizing these untapped resources we could harness a massive amount of computational power. The increasing complexity of applications and computations required by the typical home-user is growing and by providing such users with the means to access computational power that typically was only accessible to large-scale companies allows him to better and faster perform everyday computational tasks, which is particularly useful for the most time-consuming ones.

The great obstacles to such an outcome are the lack of systems and architectures capable of not only allowing local resources to be available to others, but also to properly utilize remote resources and shape them into organized clusters capable of adapting to the characteristics of the application to be executed.

We present in this paper a system that can overcome such obstacles, a system capable of efficiently locating remote resources, setup specialized clusters and allow a high degree of control to the user, in the form of quality-of-service metrics that specify in fine-grain exactly the characteristics that such a cluster needs to best fit the application being ran. This system performs this in over a peer-to-peer overlay of nodes in order to allow for greater scalability with a growing number of nodes, as well as faster resource discovery.

We ensure that our system is up to the task with several evaluation measures that will prove how well the protocol performs, both in scalability, speed and effectiveness in handling resources. We believe the architecture shown in this paper is thus capable of providing a much needed tool to a substantial niche in today's computer user world, furthering the state of the art in distributed computing and contributing to fulfill the basic two goals we set forth to reach, allowing common users with computational power far beyond what was available in the past and efficiently managing resources in such a way as to diminish resource wasting in today's interconnected world.

Bibliography

1: Schollmeier, R, A Definition of Peer-to-Peer Networking for the Classification of Peer-to-Peer Architectures and Applications, Proceedings. First International Conference on Peer-to-Peer Computing, 2001. IEEE 2: Foster, I; Kesselman, C; Lee, C; Lindell, B; Nahrstedt, K; Roy, A, A distributed resource management architecture that supports advance reservations and co-allocation, Seventh International Workshop on Quality of Service, 1999. IWQoS'99

3: Buyya, R; Venugopal, S, A Gentle Introduction to Grid Computing and Technologies, 2005, Computer Society of India

4: S. Ratnasamy, P. Francis, M. Handley, R. Karp, and S. Schenker, A scalable content-addressable network, Proceedings of the 2001 conference on Applications, technologies, architectures, and protocols for computer communications, 2001, ACM

5: Ghosemajumder, S, Advanced Peer-Based Technology Business Models, MIT Sloan School of Management, 2002, Citeseer

6: Jon Brodkin, Case Study: Parallel Internet: Inside the Worldwide LHC computing Grid, 2008, Techworld 7: A.; Karaul, M., Kedem, Z., Wyckoff, P, Charlotte: Metacomputing on the Web, 9th International Conference on Parallel and Distributed Computing Systems, 1996 8: I Stoica, R Morris, D Karger, and M Kaashoek, Chord: A scalable peer-to-peer lookup service for internet

8: I Stoica, R Morris, D Karger, and M Kaashoek, Chord: A scalable peer-to-peer lookup service for internet applications, Proceedings of the 2001 conference on Applications, technologies, architectures, and protocols for computer communications, 2001, ACM

9: STIMI, K.O., CLUSTER COMPUTING, 2008, COCHIN UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY 10: Thain, D; Tannenbaum, T; Livny, M, Distributed Computing in Practice: the Condor Experience, 2005, University of Wisconsin

11: Ghodsi, A, Distributed k-ary System: Algorithms for Distributed Hash Tables, 2006, KTH-Royal Institute of Technology

12: Veiga, L; Rodrigues, R; Ferreira, P, Gigi: An ocean of gridlets on a "grid-for-the-masses", Seventh IEEE International Symposium on Cluster Computing and the Grid, 2007, IEEE

13: Foster, I; Kesselman, C, Globus: A metacomputing infrastructure toolkit, International Journal of High Performance Computing Applications, 1997, SAGE Publications

14: Loguinov, D; Kumar, A; Rai, V; Ganesh, S, Graph-theoretic analysis of structured peer-to-peer systems: routing distances and fault resilience, Proceedings of the 2003 conference on Applications, technologies, architectures, and protocols for computer communications, 2003, ACM

15: ED2K, http://kent.dl.sourceforge.net/pdonkey/eDonkey-protocol-0.6.2.html eDonkey protocol documentation 16: P. Maymounkov; D. Mazières, Kademlia: A peer-to-peer informationsystem based on the xor metric, IPTPS02 Peer-to-Peer Systems, 2002, Springer

17: Balakrishnan, H; Kaashoek, MF; Karger, Ď; Morris, R; Stoica, I, Looking up data in P2P systems, 2003, Communications of the ACM

18: Foster, I; Iamnitchi, A, On Death, Taxes, and the Convergence of Peer-to-Peer and Grid Computing, 2003, University of Chicago

19: Rowstron, A; Druschel, P, Pastry: Scalable, decentralized object location and routing for large-scale peer-topeer systems, 2001, Microsoft Research LTD

20: Gkantsidis, C; Mihail, M; Saberi, A, Random walks in peer-to-peer networks: algorithms and evaluation, 2006, Georgia Institute of Technology

21: Begnum, KM; Disney, M, Scalable deployment and configuration of high-performance virtual clusters, International Journal of Applied Mathematics and Computer Sciences, 2005, Citeseer

22: Silva, JN; Ferreira, P; Veiga, L, Service and resource discovery in cycle-sharing environments with a utility algebra, 2010 IEEE International Symposium on Parallel & Distributed Processing (IPDPS), 2010, IEEE 23: Tamilmani, K, Studying and enhancing the BitTorrent protocol, 2003, Stony Brook University

24: Nakada, H; Yokoi, T; Ebara, T; Tanimura, Y; Ogawa, H; Sekiguchi, S, The design and implementation of a virtual cluster management system, Proceedings of the first IEEE/IFIP International Workshop on End-to-end Virtualization and Grid Management, 2007, IEEE

25: Foster, I; Kesselman, C, The Grid: Blueprint for a New Computing Infrastructure, 1999, Morgan Kaufmann Publishers

26: Nisan, N, The POPCORN Market – an Online Market for Computational Resources, 1998, Citeseer

27: Carlsson, B; Gustavsson, R, The Rise and Fall of Napster - An Evolutionary Approach, 6th International Computer Science Conference on Active Media Technology, 2001, Springer

28: Gropp, W; Thakur, R; Lusk, E, Using MPI-2: Advanced Features of the Message Passing Interface, 1999, MIT Press, 0-262-57133-1

29: Gropp, W; Lusk, E; Skjellum, A, Using MPI: Portable Parallel Programming with the Message-Passing Interface, 1994, MIT Press, 0-262-57104-8

30: Nishimura, H; Maruyama, N; Matsuoka, S, Virtual clusters on the fly-fast, scalable, and flexible installation, 2007, IEEE Computer Society

31: Keahey, K; Foster, I; Freeman, T; Zhang, X; Galron, D, Virtual workspaces in the grid, 2005, Euro-Par Parallel Processing

32: Krsul, I; Ganguly, A; Zhang, J; Fortes, JAB; Figueiredo, RJ, Vmplants: Providing and managing virtual

machine execution environments for grid computing, Supercomputing. Proceedings of the ACM/IEEE SC2004 Conference, 2004, ACM/IEEE 33: Foster, I, What is the Grid? A Three Point Checklist, GRID today, 2002, University of Chicago