Atomic Upgrading of Distributed Systems

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Abstract
Upgrading distributed systems is a complex process. It requires installing the right services on the right machines, configuring them correctly, and so on, which is error-prone and tedious. Moreover, since services in a distributed system depend on each other and are updated separately, upgrades typically are not atomic: there is a time window during which some but not all services are updated, and a new version of one service might temporarily talk to an old version of another service. Previously we implemented the Nix package management system, which allows atomic upgrades and rollbacks on single systems. In this paper we show an extension to Nix that enables the deployment of distributed systems on the basis of a declarative deployment model, and supports atomic upgrades of such systems.

1. Introduction
Distributed systems can be described as a collection of independent computers that appear to a user as one logical system (Nadiminti et al. 2006). Services in a distributed system are working together to reach a common goal by exchanging data with each other. Services have dependencies on components on the same system, the so-called intra-dependencies, but also on services on other machines in the network, the inter-dependencies.

Upgrading services in distributed systems is usually a semi-automatic process. Some tasks are executed manually and for some tasks specific deployment tools are used. The problem with this approach is that it requires people with knowledge about these upgrade tasks and up-to-date documentation. The upgrade process becomes problematic when the documentation is missing or outdated, or if people with necessary skills are not available. Another problem of upgrading distributed systems is integrity. If we want to change the deployment state of a distributed system to a new state, for instance by adding, removing or replacing services on machines or migrating services from one machine to another we do not want end up with a system in an inconsistent state, i.e., a mix of the old and new configurations. Thus, if we upgrade a distributed system, there should never be a point in time where a new version of a service on one machine can talk to an old version of a service on another machine.

To make the upgrade process reproducible and more efficient, the deployment and upgrade process should be automatic. Therefore, we need to capture the services and network, as well as the assignment of services to machines in the network in a model. This model allows us to deterministically replicate a deployment scenario in a particular environment. The second advantage of such a model is that we can reason about its correctness. Finally, with a model of the deployment, we always know the deployment state of the distributed system. To guarantee the correctness of the deployment we need some notion of a transactional, atomic commit similar to database systems. That is, the transition from the current deployment state to the new deployment state should be performed completely or not at all, and it should not be observable half-way through.

We previously developed the Nix package manager (Dolstra 2006), a software deployment system that builds software packages from purely functional models. It guarantees that dependency specifications are complete and supports atomic upgrades and rollbacks. However, its models and atomic upgrades deal with single systems. In this paper we propose an extension to Nix, called Disnix, which extends the Nix language to model distributed deployments. We also show how distributed systems can be upgraded atomically.

2. The Nix package manager
Conventional package managers such as RPM (Foster-Johnson 2003) do not support atomic updates to packages. This is because updating a package requires replacing all the files belonging to the package with newer versions, which is not something that can be done in an atomic transaction on most file systems. Thus, during the update, there is a time window during which the system is in an inconsistent state: the file system contains some files belonging to the old ver-
The Nix package manager (Dolstra et al. 2004; Dolstra 2006) solves this problem by building and storing packages in a purely functional manner: packages are built from source using descriptions in a simple purely functional language, and build results are immutable. This ensures that multiple versions of a package can coexist on a system, that upgrades can be performed in an atomic manner, and that it is possible to rollback to previous configurations. It is used among other things as the basis for NixOS (http://nixos.org/), a Linux distribution with a purely functional configuration management model (Dolstra and Löh 2008).

Figure 1 shows how Nix stores packages. Rather than storing packages in global namespaces such as the /usr/bin directory on Unix, each package is stored in isolation of others in a subdirectory of the Nix store, the directory /nix/store. For instance, the directory /nix/store/pz3g9yq2x2ql...firefox-2.0.0.16 contains a particular instance of Mozilla Firefox. The string pz3g9yq2x2ql... is a 160-bit cryptographic hash of the inputs to the build process of the package: its source code, the build script, dependencies such as the C compiler, etc. This scheme ensures that different versions or variant builds of a package do not interfere with each other in the file system. For instance, a change to the source code (e.g., due to a new version) or to a dependency (e.g., using another version of the C compiler) will cause a change to the hash, and so the resulting package will end up under a different path name in the Nix store.

Nix builds packages from a description in a purely functional language called the Nix expression language. Nix expressions describe dependency graphs of build actions, called derivations, that each build a path in the Nix store. The effect of using the package during this time window (e.g., starting a program in the package) is undefined.

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to default-24, we can switch to the new configuration. Since replacing a symlink can be done atomically on Unix, upgrading can be done atomically.

Packages in the store are deleted by a garbage collector that determines liveness by following package runtime dependencies from a set of roots, namely, the symlinks in /nix/var/nix/profiles. Thus, only when the symlink default-23 is removed can the garbage collector delete Firefox 2.0.0.14. Running processes and open files are also roots. This makes it safe to run the garbage collector at any time.

Thus, Nix achieves atomicity of package upgrades due to two properties: first, the new version of the package is built and stored separately, not interfering with the currently active version; and second, the new version is activated in an atomic step by updating a single symlink. In the remainder of this paper, we show an extension to Nix that allows atomic upgrades to services and distributed deployments.

3. Disnix

Just as distributed systems appear to a user as one logical system, we also would like to deploy software on a distributed system as if it were a single system. However, this ideal is hard to achieve with conventional deployment tools. First, the deployment system necessarily has to know to what machine each service should be deployed. Second, it must know the dependencies between services on different machines. So in addition to local dependencies between packages on a single machine, the intra-dependencies, there are also dependencies between services on different machines, the inter-dependencies.

To make distributed deployment possible we need to extend the Nix deployment system. We call this extension Disnix. The Disnix deployment system contains an interface which allows another process or user to access the Nix store and Nix user profiles remotely through a distributed communication protocol, e.g. SOAP. The Disnix system also consists of tools that support distributed installing, upgrading, uninstalling and other deployment activities by calling these interfaces on the nodes in the distributed system.

To deploy packages on a single machine Nix just needs to know the compositions of each package and how to build them. Disnix needs some additional information for deploying services on multiple machines. Therefore we introduce three models: a services model, an infrastructure model and a distribution model. The services model describes the services that can be distributed across nodes in the network. Each service is essentially a package, except that it has an extra property called dependsOn which describes the inter-dependencies on other services. Figure 3 shows a Nix expression that describes a model for two services: HelloService, which has no dependencies, and HelloWorldService, which depends on the former.

The infrastructure model is a Nix expression that describes certain attributes about each machine in the network.

```nix
{ services = rec {
  pkgs = import ./pkgs.nix;
  HelloService = {
    pkg = pkgs.HelloService;
    dependsOn = [
      HelloWorldService
    ];
  };
  HelloWorldService = {
    pkg = pkgs.HelloWorldService;
    dependsOn = [ HelloService ];
  };
};
}
```

Figure 3. services.nix

```nix
{ service = services.HelloService;
  target = infrastructure.scratchy;
} { service = services.HelloWorldService;
  target = infrastructure.itchy;
} { service = infrastructureservice.itchy;
  target = infrastructure.scratchy;
}
```

Figure 4. infrastructure.nix

```nix
{ services, infrastructure}:

{ service = services.HelloService;
  target = infrastructure.itchy;
} { service = services.HelloWorldService;
  target = infrastructure.scratchy;
}
```

Figure 5. distribution.nix

Figure 4 shows an example of a network with two machines. In the model we describe the hostname and the target endpoint references (targetEPR) of the Disnix interface. The targetEPR is a URL that points to the Disnix webservice that can execute operations on the remote Nix store and profiles.

The distribution model is a Nix expression that connects the services and infrastructure model as its inputs and returns a list of pairs. Each pair describes what service should be distributed to which machine in the network. Figure 5 shows an example.

Figure 6 shows an overview of the Disnix system. It consists of a distribution function that takes a distribution model as input. After building the services in the model it distributes them to the target machines and finally activates them. Services that are no longer in use are deactivated. Activation and deactivation are performed via the Disnix interfaces on the target machines.

4. Distributed deployment states

A distributed system has certain services installed on certain machines in its network. We can describe this as a deployment state of the distributed system. If we want to change this deployment state, e.g. by installing new services, unin-
stalling old services, replacing services with newer versions, or by migrating services from one machine to another, we do this by defining a new distribution model. By calculating the intersection of the outputs of the current distribution model and the new distribution model we can derive for each machine in the network what services should be removed and what services should be installed.

Let’s take $O = \{D \mid D \in (service, machine)\}$ as the output of the previous distribution model and $N = \{D \mid D \in (service, machine)\}$ as the output of the new distribution model. Let’s take $I = O \cap N$. Then the services we should uninstall in the network are: $O - I$ and the services we should install in the network are: $N - I$. The distribution actions in set $I$ remain unchanged.

The transition from the old state to the new state can be done by passing the outputs of the current and the new distribution model to the distribution function. By keeping older versions of the outputs it is also possible to switch back to older generations of deployment states. This can be done by passing the output of the current distribution model and the output of an older generation to the distribution function.

Observe that it is always possible to reconstruct the current distribution model and deployment state by capturing the global state of the distributed system. Obviously, this can become a costly operation in a large distributed environment with a lot of machines and slow network connections.

5. Atomic upgrading

To make the transition from the current deployment state to the new deployment state in the distributed system an atomic operation, we use a variant of the two-phase commit protocol (Skeen and Stonebraker 1987). This transition phase has to be atomic because we do not want to end up in an inconsistent state in case of a failure. Either all services should be activated and deactivated as described in the distribution model or the deployment state should stay as it currently is.

The two-phase commit protocol is a distributed algorithm that lets all nodes in a distributed system agree to commit a transaction. One node is called the coordinator, which initialises each phase, and the rest of the nodes in the network are called the cohorts.

The first phase of the algorithm is the distribution or commit-request phase. In this phase all the nodes execute the transaction until the point that the modifications should be committed. The second phase of the algorithm is the commit phase. If all the cohorts succeed in executing the steps in the commit-request phase then the changes will be committed by each cohort. If one of the cohorts fail then every cohort will do a rollback.

In the commit-request or distribution phase the derivations in the distribution model are built in the Nix store on the machine of the coordinator.

Once all services have been built, the distribution function decides what service to distribute to which target machine by calculating the intersection of the outputs of the current and the previous distribution. The closures of these services under the intra-dependency relation are transferred to the machines in the network through the Disnix interface. After receiving the closures, the interface will import the services in the Nix store on the target machine.

If all steps in the commit-request phase succeed then the commit or transition phase will start. In this phase each cohort acquires an exclusive lock so that no other process can modify the target profile (e.g. /nix/var/nix/profiles/default) on the target machine. All obsolete services are uninstalled from, and new services are installed into the profiles of the target machines. Because the profiles are garbage collector roots, the services will not be garbage collected. After executing the transition each cohort releases the lock.

If the commit-request phase fails then there is nothing we have to do. It is not necessary to undo the changes, because there are no files overwritten due to the non-destructive model of the Nix package manager. The closures that are transferred to the target machines are not activated in the profiles. The transferred services do not have a garbage collector root, so they are still garbage and will be deleted by the garbage collector.

Of course, merely installing new versions of each service is not enough to achieve atomicity. We must also block access to services while the commit is in progress. This can be done by wrapping services in a proxy that does the following. In the commit-request phase, the proxy “drains” current connections, i.e., it waits for current connections to the old version of the wrapped service to finish. Once all connections are finished, it acknowledges the commit request. Second, once the commit request has been received, it blocks new incoming connections (i.e., connections are accepted, but are kept inactive). Thus, the commit phase can only start whenever no connections to old versions of services exist. In the commit phase, the old version of the service is stopped, the new version is started, and the blocked connections are unblocked and forwarded to the new version of the service. From this point, all connections will be to the new versions of the services in the system. There is no time window in which one can simultaneously reach the old version of some service and the new version of another.
6. Distributed profiles

Nix supports a static and a dynamic mechanism for binding intra-dependencies. Dynamic binding is supported by means of Nix profiles. Essentially, Nix profiles are lookup tables which map file names to Nix store locations (see Figure 1). They can be automatically upgraded and downgraded, and they enable dynamic binding of intra-dependencies. Consequently, a user does not need to remember the store location of a program HelloWorldService herself, but by having nix-profile/bin in her search path, typing HelloWorldService will map to the proper Nix store location of the version of HelloWorldService that is active in the current profile.

Static binding of intra-dependencies is supported by means of Nix expressions. In this case, our example program HelloWorldService which has an inter-dependency on HelloService receives a reference to the Nix store location of HelloService from Nix at build-time. This reference cannot be changed afterward. Only by rebuilding HelloWorldService a different binding to HelloService can be realized, but this will result in another instance of HelloWorldService in the Nix store.

Static binding through Nix expressions is also supported for *inter-dependencies*. The locations of services can be hard-coded in executables or be stored in configuration files. Whenever a dependency changes, Nix ensures that the corresponding bindings are updated accordingly, while the transaction mechanism of Disnix ensures that all required upgrades to the distributed environment are performed together as an atomic upgrade action. A disadvantage of static binding is that even if only the location of a service changes, all services that transitively depend on it will have to be (partially) rebuild and redeployed.

Alternatively, we extend the concept of Nix profiles to distributed profiles to also support dynamic binding. A distributed profile is similar to a Nix profile in that it maps names to locations. In contrast to Nix profiles, names and locations correspond to service names and network locations, respectively, rather than to file names and Nix store locations. Actually, these mappings correspond directly to a distribution model (see Figure 5). A special lookup service provides remote access to a distributed profile. A distribution model thus serves as input for Disnix to realize a distribution model explicitly.

We assume that we only need to remove and install services in the profiles of the target machines in order to activate and deactivate them. For some services this process is sufficient. For instance Apache Axis2 supports hot deployment (Apache Software Foundation 2008). Some services however need to be started and stopped explicitly. There are even services that run inside containers, for instance Enterprise Java Beans (EJB) (Dearle 2007). To activate these services we need to restart the container. Currently, the only way to activate and deactivate processes explicitly is by calling a remote process through the Disnix interface.

### References


