

FACULTY OF EGINEERING AND TECHNOLOGY

Distributed Systems(BCS-701) LECTURE-03

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Resource Sharing and Web

We routinely share hardware resources such as printers, data resources such as files, and resources with more specific functionality such as search engines.

Looked at from the point of view of hardware provision, we share equipment such as printers and disks to reduce costs. But of far greater significance to users is the sharing of the higher-level resources that play a part in their applications and in their everyday work and social activities. For example, users are concerned with sharing data in the form of a shared database or a set of web pages – not the disks and processors on which they are implemented. Similarly, users think in terms of shared resources such as a search engine or a currency converter, without regard for the server or servers that provide these.

In practice, patterns of resource sharing vary widely in their scope and in how closely users work together. At one extreme, a search engine on the Web provides a facility to users throughout the world, users who need never come into contact with one another directly. At the other extreme, in computer-supported cooperative working (CSCW), a group of users who cooperate directly share resources such as documents in a small, closed group. The pattern of sharing and the geographic distribution of particular users determines what mechanisms the system must supply to coordinate users' actions

World Wide Web

key feature of the Web is that it provides a hypertext structure among the documents that it stores, reflecting the users' requirement to organize their knowledge. This means that documents contain links (or hyperlinks) – references to other documents and resources that are also stored in the Web.

The Web is an open system: it can be extended and implemented in new ways without disturbing its existing functionality. First, its operation is based on communication standards and document or content standards that are freely published and widely implemented. For example, there are many types of browser, each in many cases implemented on several platforms; and there are many implementations of web servers. Any conformant browser can retrieve resources from any conformant server. So users have access to browsers on the majority of the devices that they use, from mobile phones to desktop computers.

Second, the Web is open with respect to the types of resource that can be published and shared on it. At its simplest, a resource on the Web is a web page or some other type of content that can be presented to the user, such as media files and documents in Portable Document Format. If somebody invents, say, a new image-storage format, then images in this format can immediately be published on the Web. Users require a means of viewing images in this new format, but browsers are designed to accommodate new content-presentation functionality in the form of 'helper' applications and 'plug-ins'.

The Web has moved beyond these simple data resources to encompass services, such as electronic purchasing of goods. It has evolved without changing its basic architecture. The Web is based on three main standard technological components:

The Hypertext Markup Language (HTML), a language for specifying the contents and layout of pages as they are displayed by web browsers.

□Uniform Resource Locators (URLs), also known as Uniform Resource Identifiers (URIs), which identify documents and other resources stored as part of the Web.

A client-server system architecture, with standard rules for interaction (the Hypertext Transfer Protocol –

HTTP) by which browsers and other clients fetch documents and other resources from web servers.

HTML:

□ It is used to specify text and images that make up the contents of a web page and to say how they are laid out and formatted for presentation to the user.

Different tags are used in html.

Either we can produce html by hand or using any HTML-aware editor.

The html text is stored in a file that a web server can access.

HETEROGENEITY:

The Internet enables users to access services and run applications over a heterogeneous collection of computers and networks. Heterogeneity (that is, variety and difference) applies to all of the following:

Networks

Computer hardware

Operating systems

□programming languages

□Implementations by different developers



OPENNESS:

Openness cannot be achieved unless the specification and documentation of the Key software interfaces of the components of a system are made available to software developers. In a word, the key interfaces are published. This process is akin to the standardization of interfaces, but it often bypasses official standardization procedures, which are usually cumbersome and slow-moving. However, the publication of interfaces is only the starting point for adding and extending services in a distributed system. The challenge to designers is to tackle the complexity of distributed systems consisting of many components engineered by different people. Systems that are designed to support resource sharing in this way are termed open distributed systems to emphasize the fact that they are extensible. They may be extended at the hardware level by the addition of computers to the network and at the software level by the introduction of new services and the reimplementation of old ones, enabling application programs to share resources. A further benefit that is often cited for open systems is their independence from individual vendors.

SECURITY:

Many of the information resources that are made available and maintained in distributed systems have a high intrinsic value to their users. Their security is therefore of considerable importance. Security for information resources has three components: confidentiality (protection against disclosure to unauthorized individuals), integrity (protection against alteration or corruption), and availability (protection against interference with the means to access the resources). In a distributed system, clients send requests to access data managed by servers, which involves sending information in messages over a network. For example:

1. A doctor might request access to hospital patient data or send additions to that data.

2. In electronic commerce and banking, users send their credit card numbers across the Internet.

SCALABILITY:

Distributed systems operate effectively and efficiently at many different scales, ranging from a small intranet to the Internet. A system is described as scalable if it will remain effective when there is a significant increase in the number of resources and the number of users. The number of computers and servers in the Internet has increased dramatically. Figure below shows the increasing number of computers and web servers during the 12-year history of the Web up to 2005.

Date	Computers	Web servers	Percentage
1993, July	1,776,000	130	0.008
1995, July	6,642,000	23,500	0.4
1997, July	19,540,000	1,203,096	6
1999, July	56,218,000	6,598,697	12
2001, July	125,888,197	31,299,592	25
2003, July	~200,000,000	42,298,371	21
2005, July	353,284,187	67,571,581	19

FAILURE HANDLING:

Computer systems sometimes fail. When faults occur in hardware or software, programs may produce incorrect results or may stop before they have completed the intended computation. Failures in a distributed system are partial – that is, some components fail while others continue to function. Therefore the handling of failures is particularly difficult. The following are techniques for dealing with failures. Detecting failures: Some failures can be detected. For example, checksums can be used to detect corrupted data in a message or a file. Chapter 2 explains that it is difficult or even impossible to detect some other failures, such as a remote crashed server in the Internet. The challenge is to manage in the presence of failures that cannot be detected but may be suspected. Masking failures: Some failures that have been detected can be hidden or made less severe. Two examples of hiding failures:

- 1. Messages can be retransmitted when they fail to arrive.
- 2. File data can be written to a pair of disks so that if one is corrupted, the other may still be correct

TRANSPARENCY:

Transparency is defined as the concealment from the user and the application programmer of the separation of components in a distributed system, so that the system is perceived as a whole rather than as a collection of independent components. The implications of transparency are a major influence on the design of the system software.

Access transparency enables local and remote resources to be accessed using identical operations.

Location transparency enables resources to be accessed without knowledge of their physical or network location (for example, which building or IP address).

Concurrency transparency enables several processes to operate concurrently using shared resources without interference between them.

Replication transparency enables multiple instances of resources to be used to increase reliability and performance without knowledge of the replicas by users or application programmers.

TRANSPARENCY:

Failure transparency enables the concealment of faults, allowing users and application programs to complete their tasks despite the failure of hardware or software components. Mobility transparency allows the movement of resources and clients within a system without affecting the operation of users or programs.
Performance transparency allows the system to be reconfigured to improve performance as loads vary.
Scaling transparency allows the system and applications to expand in scale without change to the system structure or the application algorithms.



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