

Algebraic Signatures for Scalable Distributed Data Structures

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Abstract

Signatures detect changes to the data objects. Numerous schemes are known, e.g., the popular hash based SHA-1 standard. We propose a new scheme we call algebraic signatures. We use the algebraic calculus in a Galois Field. One major consequence, new for any known signature scheme, is sure detection of limited changes of parameterized size. More precisely, we detect for sure any change that does not exceed n -symbols for an n -symbol signature. For larger changes, the collision probability is typically insignificant, as for the other known schemes. We apply the algebraic signatures to the Scalable Distributed Data Structures (SDDS). We filter at the SDDS client node the updates that do not actually change the records. We also manage the concurrent updates to data stored in the SDDS RAM buckets at the server nodes. We further use the scheme for the fast disk backup of these buckets. We sign our objects with 4-byte signatures, instead of 20-byte standard SHA-1 signatures that would be impractical for us. Our algebraic calculus is then also about twice as fast. We present the theory of the scheme, discuss the implementation in our SDDS-2000 prototype, overview the performance, and directions for further work.

Keywords

Algebraic Signatures, Scalable Distributed Data Structure, File backup, Concurrent

1 Introduction

A signature is a string of a few bytes intended to uniquely identify the contents of a data object (a record, a page, a file, etc.). The concept is that different signatures prove the inequality of the contents, while identical signatures indicate equality, with high probability at least. Signatures appear therefore as a potentially useful tool to detect the updates or discrepancies among the data objects [1, 2, 3, 6, 17, 22]. Their practical use required further properties, b

since the updates often follow common patterns. In a text document the collision probability of a switch (switch) of n symbols usually dominates. A database record update often changes only a few bytes. Common updates should change the signature only by a few bits. Signature updates should not lead to collisions. The collision probability should be also low for every possible update, although no schemes can guarantee the signature change for any update. Many signature schemes with further “good properties” for specific applications have been proposed, e.g., for documents, against corruption, transmission errors, malicious alterations ... [5, 8, 9]. The prominent public signature scheme is SHA-1, which provides a 160-bit secure hash signature, [20, 10]. The use of a signature appeared to us useful for the management of a Scalable Distributed Data Structure (SDDS). Most known SDDS schemes are a hash LH* or RP* file, or a range partitioned RP* file [12, 13, 14], managed by the SDDS prototype system available for download [4]. SDDSs are intended for use in local or distributed databases on multicomputers, grid or P2P systems [15, 2]. SDDS-2000 files reside in distributed RAM buckets for access performance recently reaching more than 100 times improvement over the disk data.

The use of signatures appeared motivated in the SDDS context as follows. First, some applications of SDDS-2000 may need the disk back up of the data from time to time. One needs then to find the only areas that changed in the data since the last backup. For reasons we detail later, essentially because SDDS was not initially designed for this need, the traditional dirty bit approach is impractical in our case. The signatures appeared in contrast potentially workable approach.

Next, it appears useful to sign the record updates. It was indeed observed that when an application requests a record update, often it does not mean that a change to the record effectively occurred. Equality of the signatures before and after images means then that the record transfers between the application node and the SDDS data storage server, would be useless. Likewise, a subsequent write at the server would be the waste of time as well. Finally, it appears that the signatures may also prevent the concurrent record updates.

However, it appeared that the properties of known signature schemes, like the 20B size and calculus time of SHA-1, do not fit best our purpose. We introduce therefore a new method that we call the algebraic signatures. Our new signature is the concatenation of n power series of Galois Field (GF) symbols over $\text{GF}(2^8)$ or $\text{GF}(2^{16})$. While our algebraic signatures are not cryptographic secure, they exhibit a number of attractive properties. First, we may produce signatures, sufficient for our goals, e.g., 4B long. Next, the scheme is simple, known, to the best of our knowledge, to guarantee that the objects differ by one symbol have guaranteed different n -symbol signatures. Furthermore, the probability that a switch or any update leads to a collision is also sufficiently low. We may also calculate the signature of an updated object from the signature of the object before update and from the previous signature. Finally, we may gather signature trees of signatures, speeding up the localization of changes.

Below, we first describe more in depth our motivating SDDS needs. We recall basic properties of a GF. Afterwards, we present our approach, we cover the implementation, and we discuss the experimental results. We conclude with directions for the further work.

2 Signatures for an SDDS

We recall that a Scalable Distributed Data Structure (SDDS) uses the servers to store a file consisting of records or more generally objects. Records or objects have a unique key and are stored on each server in buckets. The data structure implements the key-based operations of inserts, deletes, and updates as well as scan queries. The application requests these operations from the SDDS on its node. The client manages the query delivery through the network to the appropriate server(s) and receives the reply if any. The file scales with the number of servers through the splits. Each split sends about half of a bucket to a new one, which is then locally appended. The buckets reside for the processing entirely in the distributed RAM. We apply the signatures to the disk backup of SDDS buckets and record updates. While these were our motivating needs, others appeared over time and we signal them in the Conclusion.

2.1 File Backup

We wish to backup an SDDS bucket B on disk. We only want to move the parts of the bucket that are changed from the current disk copy. The traditional approach is to divide the buckets into pages of reasonably small granularity and maintain a dirty bit for each page. We reset the dirty bit when the page is written to the disk and set it when the page is read back. We move only dirty pages to disk. The implementation of this approach for our running prototype SDDS-2 would demand refitting a large part of the existing code that was not designed accordingly. As often, this appeared an impossible task in practice. The code is a large software that updates the bucket in many places. Different functional parts of the code were produced over years by different students who have left the team since.

Another approach is to calculate a signature for each page when data is moved to the disk. This computation is independent of the history of the page and does not interfere with the existing maintenance of a data structure. This is the crucial advantage in our context.

More in detail, we provide the disk copy of the bucket with a signature map which is simply the collection of all its page signatures. Before we move the bucket to disk, we recalculate its signature. If the signature is identical to the existing signature map, we do not write the page.

The slicing of the buckets into pages is somewhat arbitrary. The signature

should fit entirely into RAM (or even the L2 cache using for example the macro). Smaller pages minimize transfer sizes, but increase the map and signature calculus overhead. One may expect the practical page size somewhere between 512B and 64KB. The best choice is application depend. In any case, signature calculus speed is THE challenge as it has to be small with respect to disk write time. Another challenge is that the practical absence of the collision to avoid an update loss. The ideal case is the zero probability of a collision, but is impossible or, in our case, too expensive in practice, it should be small enough to live with. After all, recall that when we write database updates to disk, it is only very likely, but never sure that they are actually posted. The databases generally do not bother anyway.

Presently, we implement the signature map simply as a table, since it fits into RAM. Otherwise, the algebraic signatures allows to structure the map into a signature tree. In a tree, one may compute the signature at the node from the signature of all descendents of the node. This speeds up the identification of the pages in the map where the signatures have changed (similar to [17] et al.) More details in Section 4.1.

2.2 Record Updates

We recall that an update operation only manipulates the non-key part of a record R . We distinguish between the *before-image* R_b , that is the contents of R before the client update, and the *after-image* R_a , the contents after the update. Let S_b and S_a denote the signatures of the before and after-image, resp. The update is *normal* if R_a depends on R_b , e.g., $\text{Salary} := \text{Salary} + 0.01 * \text{Sales}$. The update is *blind* if R_a is set independently of R_b , e.g., if one requests $\text{Salary} = \text{value}$. A house surveillance camera updates the stored image. The application is normal for a normal update and perhaps not for a blind one. In both cases, it is clear how to be aware whether the actual result is effectively $R_a \neq R_b$. As in the above example, for unlucky salesmen in the dot-bust era, or as long as there is no burglary in the house.

The application nevertheless typically requests the update from the data management system that also typically executes it. This “trusting” policy, i.e. that if it is an update request, then it had to be the data change, characterizes in principle all the DBMSs we are aware of. It is kind of surprising after all, since this policy can often cost a lot. Tough times can leave thousands of salesmen without a sale, leading to useless transfers between clients and servers and to the unnecessary processing on both nodes of thousands of records with the tuples. Like a security camera image is often a clip or movie of several Mbytes, leading to an equally futile effort.

Furthermore, on the server side, several clients may attempt to read or update concurrently the same SDDS record R . It is best to let every client read or update without any wait. The subsequent updates should not however override each other.

Our approach to this classical constraint is freely inspired by the optimism of the concurrency control of MS-Access which is not the traditional one in database books such as [11].

In this context, the usefulness of signatures for SDDS updates comes from the following scheme. The application that needs R_b for a normal update requests a key search of R from the client. When done with its update calculus, the application returns to the client R_b and R_a . The client computes S_a and S_b . If $S_a = S_b$ then the update actually did not change the record. Such updates terminate at the client. Only if $S_a \neq S_b$ does the client send R_a and S_b to the server. The server accesses R and computes its signature S . If $S_b = S$, then the server updates $R := R_a$. Otherwise, it abandons the update. A concurrent update had to access R in the meantime, since the client read R_b and the server received it before R_a . If the new update proceeded, it would override that one, making the update non-serializable. The server notifies the client about the rollback, which alerts the application. The application may read R again and redo the update.

For a blind update, the application provides only R_a to the client. The client computes S_a and sends the key of R_a to the server requesting S . The server computes S and sends it to the client as S_b . From this point, the client and the server proceed as for the normal update. Calculating and sending S alone as S_b avoids the transfer of R_b to the client. It may avoid further the useless transfer of R_a to the server. These can be substantial savings, e.g., for the surveillance of images.

The scheme does not need locks. Also, as we have seen, the signature calculus saves the useless record transfers. Besides, neither the key search, nor the update or deletion need the signature calculus. Hence, none of these operations need the concurrency management overhead. All together, the degree of concurrency can be potentially high. The scheme roughly corresponds to the R-Co isolation level of the SQL3 standard. Its properties make it attractive for applications that do not need transaction management. Especially, if search is the predominant operation, as one considers in general for an optimistic scheme.

The scheme does not store signatures. Hence, the storage overhead can be interestingly strictly zero. This is not possible for timestamps, probably used in MS-Access, although that overhead is usually negligible, hence perfectly acceptable in practice. In fact, it can still be advantageous to vary the signature scheme by storing the signatures with their records. As we show later, the storage overhead on the server can be then also usually negligible, of only about 4B per signature. The client sends in this case also S_a to the server which stores it in the file. If the server accepts the update, it sends R with S . If the server rejects the update, it sends S alone, the server simply extracts S from R , instead of dynamically calculating it. All together, one saves the S_b calculus at the client and the transfer of S to the server. Also, and more significantly perhaps in practice, the signature calculus becomes entirely deported at the client. Hence, it is entirely parallel and independent of concurrent clients. This can enhance the update throughput even further.

Whether one stores the signature or not, the speed of the signature calculation is clearly *the* challenge again. Since a record key search in or insert into a database reaches the speed of 0.1 ms at present, the record signature calculation time must be longer than dozens of microseconds in practice. Another challenge is, again, the total or at least practical absence of the collisions, to avoid any data loss.

3 Galois Fields

A Galois field (GF) is a finite field. Addition and multiplication in a GF are associative, commutative, and distributive. There are neutral elements called 0 and 1, one for addition and multiplication respectively, and there exist inverse elements regarding addition and multiplication. We denote by $\text{GF}(2^f)$ a GF over the set of all binary strings of a certain length f . $\text{GF}(2^8)$ and $\text{GF}(2^{16})$ are our main fields. Their elements are respectively byte and 2-byte strings.

We identify each binary string with a binary polynomial in one formal variable x known x . For example, we identify the string 101001 with the polynomial $x^5 + x^3 + 1$. We further associate a *generator polynomial* $g(x)$ with the GF. $g(x)$ is a polynomial of degree f that cannot be written as a product of two other polynomials other than the trivial result of a multiplication of 1 with itself.

The addition of two elements in our GF is that of their binary polynomials. In practice, the sum of two strings is the XOR of the strings. The product of two elements is the binary polynomial obtained by multiplying the two polynomials and taking the remainder modulo $g(x)$. There are several methods to implement this calculus. We use the logarithmic multiplication method well known soon. It uses the *primitive* elements of a GF with s elements, which are elements with the following properties. The *order* of a non-zero element α , $\text{ord}(\alpha)$, is the smallest exponent non-zero i such that $\alpha^i = 1$. All non-zero elements in a GF have a finite order. An element α is primitive, if $\text{ord}(\alpha) = s - 1$. It is well known that for any given primitive element α , all the non-zero elements in the field are the powers α^i , each with a uniquely determined exponent $i \in \{0, \dots, s - 1\}$. A GF usually has several primitive elements. In particular, any α^i is also a primitive element if i and $s - 1$ are coprime, i.e., without non-trivial factors in common. Our GFs contain 2^f elements, hence the prime decomposition of $2^f - 1$ does not contain the prime 2. For our basic values of $f = 8, 16$, $2^f - 1$ has only few prime factors, hence there are relatively many primitive elements. For example, for $f = 8$ we count 127 primitive elements or roughly half the elements in the GF.

We fix one primitive element α . Every non-zero element β is a power of α . $\beta = \alpha^i$, we call i the logarithm of β with respect to α and write $i = \log_\alpha \beta$. Conversely, we call β the *beta* the antilogarithm of i with respect to α and write $\beta = \text{antilog}_\alpha i$. The logarithms are uniquely determined if we choose i to be $0 \leq i \leq 2^f - 1$. We set $\log(0) = -\infty$.

The multiplication is now given by the following formula which uses modulo $2^f - 1$:

$$\beta \cdot \gamma = \text{antilog}_\alpha(\log_\alpha(\beta) + \log_\alpha(\gamma)).$$

We implement GF multiplication on this basis as follows. We create one logarithms of size 2^f symbols. We also create another one for antilogarithms of size $2^f \cdot 2$. That table has two copies of the basic antilog table. It accommodates indices up to size $2f \cdot 2$ avoiding the slower modulo calculus of the form $x \bmod (2^f - 1)$. For $f = 8, 16$ both tables may fit also into the L1 or L2 cache of current processors (not all for $f = 16$). We also check for the special case of one of the operands being equal to 0. All together, we obtain the following simple C-pseudo-code:

```
GFElement mult(GFElement left, GFElement right) {
    if(left==0 || right == 0) return 0;
    return antilog[log[left]+log[right]];}
```

In terms of Assembly instructions, the typical execution costs of the above sub-program are two comparisons, four additions (three for table-look-up and one for memory fetches and the return statement).

4 Algebraic Signatures

4.1 Basic Properties

We call a page a string of l symbols $p_i; i = 0, \dots, l - 1$. In our case, the symbols are bytes or two-byte words. The symbols are elements of a Galois field $\text{GF}(2^f)$ with $f = 8$ or $f = 16$. We assume that $l < 2^f - 1$.

Let $\vec{\alpha} = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$ be a vector of different non-zero elements of the field. We call $\vec{\alpha}$ the n -symbol signature base or simply base. The n -symbol signature of P based on $\vec{\alpha}$ is the vector $\vec{\text{sig}}_{\vec{\alpha}}(P) = (\text{sig}_{\alpha_1}(P), \text{sig}_{\alpha_2}(P), \dots, \text{sig}_{\alpha_n}(P))$. For each α we set $\text{sig}_\alpha(P) = \sum_{i=0}^{l-1} p_i \alpha^i$. We call each coordinate of $\vec{\text{sig}}_{\vec{\alpha}}(P)$ a component signature.

We have not completely investigated what choice of the coordinates is best for other applications. We primarily use the base $\vec{\alpha} = (\alpha, \alpha^2, \alpha^3, \dots, \alpha^n)$ with α a primitive element of $\text{GF}(2^f - 1)$ and write $\text{sig}_{\alpha,n}$ instead of $\vec{\text{sig}}_{\vec{\alpha}}$. The collision probability of $\text{sig}_{\alpha,n}$ is at best 2^{-nf} . This is probably insufficient for $n = 1$.

We are also interested in the signature $\text{sig}_{\alpha,n}^{(2)} = \vec{\text{sig}}_{\vec{\alpha}}^{(2)}$ with $\vec{\alpha} = (\alpha, \alpha^2, \dots, \alpha^{2n-2})$, where the base coordinates are all primitive.

The basic new property of $\text{sig}_{\alpha,n}$ is that any change of up to n symbols in P changes the signature *for sure*. This is our primary concern in this scheme. Formally we state this property as follows.

Proposition 1 *Provided the page length l is $l < \text{ord}(\alpha) = 2^f - 1$, $\text{sig}_{\alpha,n}$ is invariant under any change of up to n symbols per page.*

Proof: As α is primitive and our GF is $\text{GF}(2^f)$ we have $\text{ord}(\alpha) = 2^f - 1$. that the file symbols at locations i_1, i_2, \dots in P have been changed, but signatures of the original and the altered file are the same. Call d_v the difference between the respective symbols in position $i - v$. The difference of the original signatures is then:

$$\sum_{v=1}^n \alpha^{i_v} d_v = 0 \quad \sum_{v=1}^n \alpha^{2 \cdot i_v} d_v = 0 \quad \dots \quad \sum_{v=1}^n \alpha^{n \cdot i_v} d_v = 0.$$

The d_v values are the solutions of a homogeneous linear system

$$\begin{pmatrix} \alpha^{i_1} & \alpha^{i_2} & \alpha^{i_3} & \alpha^{i_4} & \dots & \alpha^{i_n} \\ (\alpha^{i_1})^2 & (\alpha^{i_2})^2 & (\alpha^{i_3})^2 & (\alpha^{i_4})^2 & \dots & (\alpha^{i_n})^2 \\ (\alpha^{i_1})^3 & (\alpha^{i_2})^3 & (\alpha^{i_3})^3 & (\alpha^{i_4})^3 & \dots & (\alpha^{i_n})^3 \\ (\alpha^{i_1})^4 & (\alpha^{i_2})^4 & (\alpha^{i_3})^4 & (\alpha^{i_4})^4 & \dots & (\alpha^{i_n})^4 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ (\alpha^{i_1})^n & (\alpha^{i_2})^n & (\alpha^{i_3})^n & (\alpha^{i_4})^n & \dots & (\alpha^{i_n})^n \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} d_1 \\ d_2 \\ d_3 \\ d_4 \\ \vdots \\ d_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

The coefficients in the first row are all different, since the exponents $i_v < \text{ord}(\alpha)$. The matrix is of Vandermonde type, hence invertible. The vector of differences $(d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n)^t$ is thus the zero vector. This contradicts our assumption. The algorithm detects any up to n -symbol change. CQFD

Notice that Prop. 1 trivially holds for $\text{sig}_{\alpha,n}^{(2)}$ with $n \leq 2$. $\text{sig}_{\alpha,n}$ has a possible behavior of for changes limited to n symbols. An application can possibly change up to $l > n$ symbols. We now prove that $\text{sig}_{\alpha,n}$ still exhibits a low collision probability typically expected from a signature schema.

Proposition 2 *Assuming a page length $l < \text{ord}(\alpha)$ and every possible page content equally likely, the signatures $\text{sig}_{\alpha,n}(P_1)$ and $\text{sig}_{\alpha,n}(P_2)$ of two different pages P_1 and P_2 collide (coincide) with a probability of 2^{-nf} .*

Proof: The n -symbol signature is a linear mapping between the vector space $\text{GF}(2^f)^l$ and $\text{GF}(2^f)^n$. This mapping is an epimorphism, i.e., every element of $\text{GF}(2^f)^n$ is the signature of some page, an element of $\text{GF}(2^f)^l$. Consider the mapping ϕ , which maps every page with all but the first n elements equal to zero to its signature. Thus, $\phi : \text{GF}(2^f)^l \rightarrow \text{GF}(2^f)^n, (x_1, \dots, x_n, \dots, x_l) \rightarrow \text{sig}_{\alpha,n}((x_1, \dots, x_n, \dots, x_l))$ and:

$$\phi((x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)) = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \alpha^2 & \alpha^3 & \alpha^4 & \dots & \alpha^n \\ \alpha^2 & (\alpha^2)^2 & (\alpha^3)^2 & (\alpha^4)^2 & \dots & (\alpha^n)^2 \\ \alpha^3 & (\alpha^2)^3 & (\alpha^3)^3 & (\alpha^4)^3 & \dots & (\alpha^n)^3 \\ \alpha^4 & (\alpha^2)^4 & (\alpha^3)^4 & (\alpha^4)^4 & \dots & (\alpha^n)^4 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \alpha^n & (\alpha^2)^n & (\alpha^3)^n & (\alpha^4)^n & \dots & (\alpha^n)^n \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \dots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}$$

The matrix is again of Vandermonde type, and hence invertible. This implies that every possible vector in $\text{GF}(2^f)^n$ is the signature of a page with all but one of the n symbols equal to zero, and of only one such page. Consider now an arbitrary vector \vec{s} in $\text{GF}(2^f)^n$. Each page of form $(0, \dots, 0, x_{n+1}, x_{n+2}, \dots, x_l)$ has signature \vec{t} in $\text{GF}(2^f)^n$ as its signature. For any \vec{s} and \vec{t} there is then exactly one page $(x_1, \dots, x_n, 0, 0, \dots, 0)$ has therefore signature \vec{s} . Thus, the number of pages with signature \vec{s} is that of all pages of form $(0, \dots, 0, x_{n+1}, x_{n+2}, \dots, x_l)$. There are $2^{f(l-n)}$ such pages. There are furthermore 2^{fl} pages in total. A random choice of pages leads thus to the same signature \vec{s} with probability $2^{f(l-n)} / 2^{fl} = 2^{-n}$. Assuming that all pages are equally likely to be selected, our proposition is CQFD.

Notice that Proposition 2 also characterizes $\text{sig}_{\alpha,n}^{(2)}$ for $n \leq 2$. Next, our signatures are called *algebraic* and claim at least by name some algebraic properties. Here is one motivating property of $\text{sig}_{\alpha,n}$. Its gains practical importance for its subject to very localized and small changes. This case is typical in data structures where attributes have typically rather few symbols. We show that one may update the $\text{sig}_{\alpha,n}$ signature from the changed symbols and the before signature. This can clearly speed up the calculation of signatures over a complete repository as is necessary for SHA1. Formally:

Proposition 3 *Let us change page $P = (p_0, p_1, \dots, p_{l-1})$ to page P' where we place the symbols starting in position r and ending with position $s-1$ with the string $q_r, q_{r+1}, \dots, q_{s-1}$. We call the string $\Delta = (\delta_0, \delta_1, \dots, \delta_{s-r-1})$ with $\delta_i = q_{r+i} - p_{r+i}$ the Δ string. Then for each α in our base $\vec{\alpha}$ we have*

$$\text{sig}_{\alpha}(P') = \text{sig}_{\alpha}(P) + \alpha^r \text{sig}_{\alpha}(\Delta)$$

Proof: The difference between the signatures is $\text{sig}_{\alpha}(P') - \text{sig}_{\alpha}(P) = \sum_{i=r}^{s-1} (q_i - p_i) \alpha^i = \alpha^r \sum_{i=r}^{s-1} (q_i - p_i) \alpha^{i-r} = \alpha^r \sum_{i=r}^{s-1} \delta_{i-r} \alpha^{i-r} = \alpha^r \sum_{v=0}^{s-r-1} \delta_v \alpha^v = \alpha^r \text{sig}_{\alpha}(\Delta)$. CQFD.

We finish the section with a proof of the practicality of the $\text{sig}_{\alpha}^{(2)}$ scheme in the context of the popular switch (cut / paste) operation. Prop. 1 shows sure data recovery for any switch of length $\leq n/2$. In many applications such as text editing, switching larger pieces of text are common. Prop. 2 does not cover this case. We seek to determine and minimize the collision probability in that context. The base $\vec{\alpha} = (\alpha, \alpha^2, \alpha^4, \dots, \alpha^{2^n})$ has coordinates of largest possible order. Unlike the base $(\alpha, \alpha^2, \alpha^3, \dots, \alpha^n)$. Intuitively therefore, $\text{sig}_{\alpha}^{(2)}$ appears preferable to sig_{α} and the following proposition confirms this in the case of cut and paste operations.

Proposition 4 *Assume an arbitrary page P of length $> 2n$ and three indices r, s, t of appropriate sizes, Figure 1. Assume a base α whose coordinates are in order larger than the length of the page. Cut a string T of length t beginning*

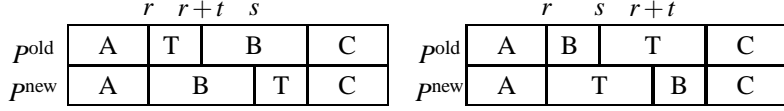


Figure 1: Illustration of the cut and paste operation.

position r and move it to position s in P . Assuming any T to be equally likely, the probability that $\text{sig}_{\alpha}(P)$ changes is 2^{-nf} .

Proof: Either T or the rest of the page contain at least n symbols, with the latter, the former being analogous. Without loss of generality, we assume a forward move of T within the file from position r to position s . A backward move just undoes this operation and thus has the same effect on the signature. We now define the name for the regions of the block and makes a spurious case distinction depending on whether $r+t < s$ or not. For any coordinate α in the block, the signature of the "before" page (the top scheme for both situations) is

$$\text{sig}_{\alpha}(P^{\text{old}}) = \text{sig}_{\alpha} + \alpha^r \text{sig}_{\alpha}(T) + \alpha^{r+t} \text{sig}_{\alpha}(B) + \alpha^{s+t} \text{sig}_{\alpha}(C).$$

The after page signature is

$$\text{sig}_{\alpha}(P^{\text{new}}) = \text{sig}_{\alpha} + \alpha^r \text{sig}_{\alpha}(B) + \alpha^s \text{sig}_{\alpha}(T) + \alpha^{s+t} \text{sig}_{\alpha}(C).$$

The difference of the two signatures is

$$\begin{aligned} \text{sig}_{\alpha}(P^{\text{new}}) - \text{sig}_{\alpha}(P^{\text{old}}) &= \alpha^r \text{sig}_{\alpha}(T) + \alpha^{r+t} \text{sig}_{\alpha}(B) + \alpha^r \text{sig}_{\alpha}(B) + \alpha^s \text{sig}_{\alpha}(T) \\ &= (\alpha^r + \alpha^s) \text{sig}_{\alpha}(T) + (\alpha^r + \alpha^{r+t}) \text{sig}_{\alpha}(B) \\ &= \alpha^r \left((1 + \alpha^s) \text{sig}_{\alpha}(T) + (1 + \alpha^t) \text{sig}_{\alpha}(B) \right). \end{aligned}$$

This expression is zero only if the right hand side, or the following expression where we use γ_i as an abbreviation, is zero:

$$\begin{aligned} (1 + \alpha_i^s)(1 + \alpha_i^t)^{-1} \text{sig}_{\alpha_i}(T) + \text{sig}_{\alpha_i}(B) = \\ (1 + \alpha_i^s)(1 + \alpha_i^t)^{-1} \text{sig}_{\alpha_i}(T) + \sum_{v=n}^{|B|-1} b_v \alpha_i^v \sum_{v=0}^{n-1} b_v \alpha_i^v = \gamma_i + \sum_{v=0}^{n-1} b_v \alpha_i^v \end{aligned}$$

We now fix the whole situation with the exception of the first n symbols in the change in signatures is

$$\left(\gamma_0 + \sum_{v=0}^{n-1} \alpha_0^v b_v, \gamma_1 + \sum_{v=0}^{n-1} \alpha_1^v b_v, \dots \right) = (\gamma_0, \gamma_1, \dots) + \left(\sum_{v=0}^{n-1} \alpha_0^v b_v, \sum_{v=0}^{n-1} \alpha_1^v b_v, \dots \right)$$

which is zero if and only if

$$(\gamma_0, \gamma_1, \dots) = \left(\sum_{v=0}^{n-1} \alpha_0^v b_v, \sum_{v=0}^{n-1} \alpha_1^v b_v, \dots \right)$$

The left hand side is a linear mapping in the (b_0, b_1, \dots) , which has a matrix invertible because it has a Vandermonde type determinant. Therefore, the only one combination of $(b_0, b_1, \dots, b_{n-1})$ that is mapped by the mapping right hand vector. This combination will be attained by a randomly picked probability 2^{-nf} . CQFD

At this stage of our research, the choice of $\text{sig}_{\alpha,n}^{(2)}$ appears only as a trade-off between smaller probability of collision for possibly frequent updates (Section 2.1 here), and the zero probability of collision for updates up to any n symbols. We are able only to conjecture that there is a α in $\text{GF}(2^8)$ or $\text{GF}(2^{16})$ for which Propositions 1 and 2 holds for $\text{sig}_{\alpha,n}^{(2)}$ with $n > 2$. We did not pursue this investigation further. For our needs, $n = 2$ for $\text{GF}(2^{16})$ was sufficient (Section 2.1). Since $\text{sig}_{\alpha,2}^{(2)} = \text{sig}_{\alpha,2}$ the properties of both schemes coincide anyway.

4.2 Compound Algebraic Signatures

Our signature schemes keep the property of sure detection of n -symbol collisions as long as the page size in symbols is at most $2^f - 2$. For $f = 16$, the limit page size is almost 128 KB. Such granularity suffice for our purpose. Collections have many pages in an SDDS bucket that can reach, e.g., 256 MB for SDDS buckets. The collections of the signatures in the bucket may be seen as a vector. We call it compound signature (of the bucket). More generally, we qualify a compound signature of m pages, as m -fold. The the signature map of Section 2.1 implies a compound signature.

The practical interest of the compound signatures stretches beyond obvious motivating cases. We may usefully apply the concept as an alternative to a signature scheme over an area A not exceeding the limit of $\text{ord}(\alpha) - 1$. To use an m -fold signature scheme for instance, one may divide A into equally sized pages each provided with a signature. We locate then for sure and with granularity of l/m any change of up to n symbols with a priori unknown location (hence Proposition 3 does not apply). This is with respect to $\text{sig}_{\alpha,n}(A)$, i.e., $\text{sig}_{\alpha,n}$ over the entire A with granularity l/m . The overhead is mainly the about m times larger storage overhead. In practice, one can choose m leading to a reasonable compromise. Notice that a yet alternative choice is the m times larger overhead if acceptable, is to enhance the sure change detection resolution to mn symbols anywhere in A , using $\text{sig}_{\alpha,mn}(A)$.

For larger m , we can exploit the algebraic properties of the m -fold signature scheme by implementing signature maps as trees to speed up the search for a changed $\text{sig}_{\alpha,n}$. As we show below, with our schemes, we may algebraically

i.e., without reexamining the pages themselves compute the higher-level features (unlike for more traditional signature schemes we are aware of). If changes, we may update the higher level once again only algebraically. A capabilities of compound signatures can be of obvious interest to our SI backup application.

The following proposition proves the algebraic properties we discuss. The area is partitioned into two pages. Those can be furthermore of different sizes. This is sometimes a useful capability as well, e.g., when A starts with a relative index of the data that follow in A . It generalizes trivially to any larger m pages of different sizes as well.

Proposition 5 Consider two pages P_1 and P_2 of length l and m , $l + m \leq n$. If concatenated into a page (area) $P_1|P_2$. Then $\text{sig}_{\alpha,n}$ of the concatenated page can be calculated from the component pages by the formulae

$$\text{sig}_{\alpha^i}(P_1|P_2) = \text{sig}_{\alpha^i}(P_1) + \alpha^{il} \text{sig}_{\alpha^i}(P_2).$$

Proof Assume that $P_1 = s_1, s_2, \dots, s_l$ and that $P_2 = s_{l+1}, s_{l+2}, \dots, s_{l+m}$. The

$$\begin{aligned} \text{sig}_{\beta}(P_1|P_2) &= \sum_{v=1}^{l+m} s_v \beta^v = \sum_{v=1}^l s_v \beta^v + \sum_{v=l+1}^{l+m} s_v \beta^v = \sum_{v=1}^l s_v \beta^v + \beta^l \sum_{v=1}^m s_{v+l} \beta^v \\ &= \text{sig}_{\beta}(P_1) + \beta^l \cdot \text{sig}_{\beta}(P_2) \end{aligned}$$

for any β in the GF. CQFD Proposition 5 applies to both $\text{sig}_{\alpha,n}$ and sig_{β} . Together, all propositions we have formulated prove the potential of our schemes. They have further algebraic properties we are currently investigating.

5 Experimental Implementation

5.1 Calculus Tuning

We can tune the signature calculus. First, we can interpret the page symbols directly as logarithms. This saves a table look-up. The logarithms range from 0 to $2^f - 2$ (inclusively) with the additional value for $\log(0)$. One can set $\alpha = 2$ to $2^f - 1$. Next, the signature calculations form the product with α^i . i has i as the logarithm. One does not need to look this value up neither. The following pseudo-code for $\text{sig}_{\alpha,1}$ applies these properties. It uses as parameter the address of an array representing the bucket and the size of the bucket. The constant `TWO_TO_THE_F` is 2^f . The type `GFElement` is an alias for the appropriate integer type.

```
GFElement signature(GFElement *page, int pageLength) {
    GFElement returnValue = 0;
```

```
for(int i=0; i< pageLength; i++)
    if(page[i]!=TWO_TO_THE_F-1)
        returnValue ^= antilog[i+page[i]];
return returnValue;
}
```

The application to $\text{sig}_{\alpha,n}$ is easy. In our file backup application, the bucket contains several pages so we typically calculate the compound signature. In this calculus, we should consider the best use of the processor caches, i.e. the L2 caches on our Pentium machines. It seems advantageous to exploit the cache lines on the log table. Then, it may be gainful to first loop upon the calculation of sig_{α} for all the pages, then move to sig_{α^2} and so on. Our experiments confirm this intuition.

5.2 Experimental Performance

We have implemented the motivating applications with the $\text{sig}_{\alpha,1}$ scheme and performed an experimental analysis. The testbed configuration consisted from 1.8 GHz Pentium P4 nodes and from 700 Mhz Pentium P3 nodes over a 100 Mbs Ethernet. One implementation concerned the signature calculus schemes alone with unrelated data. The experiments examined variants of the $\text{sig}_{\alpha,n}$ calculus with respect to implementation issues and some differences with respect to the basic calculus. We have also experimented the $\text{sig}_{\alpha,n}^{(2)}$ whose calculation time turned out to be the same. Finally, we have ported the fastest algorithm of $\text{sig}_{\alpha,n}$ calculus to the SDDS-2000. In both cases, we have divided the bucket into the pages of size 16 B, i.e. a 4-byte signature per page. This choice appears to be a reasonable compromise between the signature size, hence its calculation time, and the overall probability of order 2^{-32} , i.e. over $4 \cdot 10^{-9}$. For record updates, we use the same signature size, but the record size is 100 bytes. If we had used SHA-1, the overhead would be 20 bytes per page or record, [20]. Records had about 100 bytes. Our experiments.

Internally, the bucket in SDDS-2000 has a RAM index as it is structured as a RAM B-tree. The index is small, a few KB at largest. Bucket size per page does not make sense there. We set up for the page size of 128 B for the index. For the record updates, we set up for the signature calculus on-the-fly or on-disk. It seemed the most flexible choice, but we could alternatively store the signature for each record, avoiding its calculation. The actual computation took place during the updates. Inserts were not affected.

The analysis of the experiments with the actual SDDS-2000 implementation is presented full in [19]. The main results are as follows. The stand-alone experiments showed, somehow surprisingly, a large variation of the calculation time depending on the data symbols. The reason seemed to be the influence of the caches L1 and L2. For a given page size, the calculus time was linear with

$\text{sig}_{\alpha,n}$ used. The actual calculus times of $\text{sig}_{\alpha,2}$ as actually put into SDDS was of 20-30 ms per 1 MB of RAM bucket, manipulated as a mapped SHA-1, our tests showed about 50-60 ms. The $\text{sig}_{\alpha,2}$ calculation time as wished in the order of dozens of microseconds for the index page or a record. This timing was linear with the bucket or record size, and, also somewhat surprisingly, rather stable regardless of the algebraic signature scheme tested. The calculus time was smaller for a larger page: 64 KB versus 16 KB. It is probably due to the better cache use. The actual transfer time of 1 Mbyte of RAM to disk is about 300 ms. Thus the backup using our signature scheme offers the expected gains. Likewise, our signature based record update management is a practical solution as well.

For both page sizes, calculation in $\text{GF}(2^{16})$ was faster than in $\text{GF}(2^8)$ despite the fact that the logarithm table of the latter could entirely enter the cache of each of our machines, accelerating thus the calculus. The former was used in turn more effectively the 4B words. Being faster, $\text{GF}(2^{16})$ was the choice for SDDS-2000.

6 Conclusion

Our schemes possess properties novel to signature schemes, namely detection of limited changes of parameterized size, and of algebraic operations over the signatures themselves. Together with the high probability of detecting any change, including switches, small overhead, and fast calculus, our scheme proved itself to be useful for our motivating SDDS needs of bucket backup and record updates. The experimental fine-tuning of the implementation of the signature calculus allowed us finally to successfully add the $\text{sig}_{\alpha,n}^2$ scheme to the SDDS-2000 system.

Among future research directions, one concerns the applications of the algebraic properties of the schemes. One direction currently investigated is the text string parallel search (scan) in the non-key fields of records at SDDS-2000. While the need is classical and many algorithms are widely used for years (Boyer-Moore or Knuth), the algebraic signatures lead to a new approach. An interesting feature is that the client can send to each server only the few-bit signature and the length of the string to search, instead of the entire string, perhaps long, hence costly to transmit, especially if the SDDS client should connect to many servers. The server then compares only the incoming signature with that of the actually examined string within the searched record. If the match is successful, and we should move forward in the record, typically by one record, the signature of the new string to examine is algebraically recalculated from the previous one. The calculus uses the properties discussed in Section 4.1. This is much faster than if one had to recalculate it entirely. This would be the case for any other signature scheme we are aware of (making any such attempt un-

practice).

Beyond, one should determine further algebraic properties of the scheme. The conjecture of sure detection of changes also by $\text{sig}_{\alpha,n}^2$ scheme remains to be proved or disproved. Variants of the basic schemes should be studied. The use of signature trees for computing the compound signatures and explore the relationship between maps is an open research area. Finally, we did not explore the Prefetching providing perhaps further savings to the calculus time through better L1 cache management.

Beyond these goals, one can apply our schemes to the automatic file synchronization in presence of several files sharing an SDDS server whose RAM became insufficient for all the files simultaneously, [16]. Next, the signatures appear as a useful tool for the cache management at the SDDS client, allowing to keep the cache and server data synchronized. There is also an interesting relationship between the algebraic signatures and the Reed-Salomon parity calculus with the high-availability SDDS LH*RS scheme, [14]. GFs are the common basis, it appears that the signatures may help preserving the mutual consistency and parity records in presence of lost messages.

Our techniques should help also other database needs. Especially, they appear attractive for a RAM-DBS that typically needs the RAM data in addition to the disk as well. Very large Gbyte RAMs are now widely available, and the enhanced performance of such DBSs increasingly attractive with respect to that of traditional disk-based DBSs, [21]. Likewise, our signature based record synchronization calculus at the SDDS client, should provide similar advantages for a client-based DBS architecture in general. Interesting possibilities appear further in the context of transactional concurrency control, beyond the avoidance of the lost updates.

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