CS162
Operating Systems and Systems Programming
Lecture 24

Networking and TCP/IP (Con't), RPC, Distributed File Systems

April 21st, 2022
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Recall: Distributed Consensus Making

- Consensus problem
  - All nodes propose a value
  - Some nodes might crash and stop responding
  - Eventually, all remaining nodes decide on the same value from set of proposed values
- Distributed Decision Making
  - Choose between "true" and "false"
  - Or Choose between "commit" and "abort"
- Equally important (but often forgotten!): make it durable!
  - How do we make sure that decisions cannot be forgotten?
    - » This is the "D" of "ACID" in a regular database
  - In a global-scale system?
    - » What about erasure coding or massive replication?
    - » Like BlockChain applications!

Recall: Two-Phase Commit Protocol

- Persistent stable log on each machine: keep track of whether commit has happened
  - If a machine crashes, when it wakes up it first checks its log to recover state of world at time of crash
- Prepare Phase:
  - The global coordinator requests that all participants will promise to commit or rollback the transaction
  - Participants record promise in log, then acknowledge
  - If anyone votes to abort, coordinator writes `"Abort"` in its log and tells everyone to abort; each records `"Abort"` in log
- Commit Phase:
  - After all participants respond that they are prepared, then the coordinator writes `"Commit"` to its log
  - Then asks all nodes to commit; they respond with ACK
  - After receive ACKs, coordinator writes `"Got Commit"` to log
- Log used to guarantee that all machines either commit or don't

Distributed Decision Making Discussion (1/2)

- Why is distributed decision making desirable?
  - Fault Tolerance!
  - A group of machines can come to a decision even if one or more of them fail during the process
    - » Simple failure mode called "failstop" (different modes later)
  - After decision made, result recorded in multiple places
- Why is 2PC not subject to the General's paradox?
  - Because 2PC is about *all nodes eventually coming to the same decision – not necessarily at the same time!*
  - Allowing us to reboot and continue allows time for collecting and collating decisions

Distributed Decision Making Discussion (2/2)

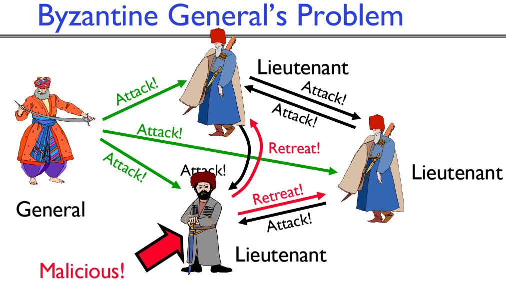
- Undesirable feature of Two-Phase Commit: Blocking
  - One machine can be stalled until another site recovers:
    - » Site B writes "prepared to commit" record to its log, sends a "yes" vote to the coordinator (site A) and crashes
    - » Site A crashes
    - » Site B wakes up, check its log, and realizes that it has voted "yes" on the update. It sends a message to site A asking what happened. At this point, B cannot decide to abort, because update may have committed
    - » B is blocked until A comes back
  - A blocked site holds resources (locks on updated items, pages pinned in memory, etc) until learns fate of update

Alternatives to 2PC

- Three-Phase Commit: One more phase, allows nodes to fail or block and still make progress.
- PAXOS: An alternative used by Google and others that does not have 2PC blocking problem
  - Develop by Leslie Lamport (Turing Award Winner)
  - No fixed leader, can choose new leader on fly, deal with failure
  - Some think this is extremely complex!
- RAFT: PAXOS alternative from John Osterhout (Stanford)
  - Simpler to describe complete protocol

- What happens if one or more of the nodes is malicious?
  - Malicious: attempting to compromise the decision making
  - Use a more hardened decision making process: Byzantine Agreement and Block Chains

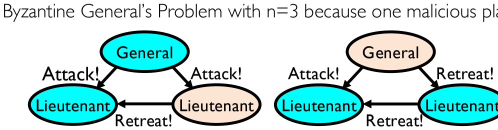
Byzantine General's Problem



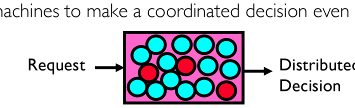
- Byzantine General's Problem (n players):
  - One General and n-1 Lieutenants
  - Some number of these (f) can be insane or malicious
- The commanding general must send an order to his n-1 lieutenants such that the following Integrity Constraints apply:
  - IC1: All loyal lieutenants obey the same order
  - IC2: If the commanding general is loyal, then all loyal lieutenants obey the order he sends

Byzantine General's Problem (con't)

- Impossibility Results:
  - Cannot solve Byzantine General's Problem with n=3 because one malicious player can mess up things

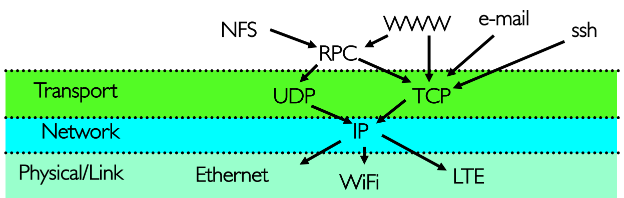


  - With f faults, need $n > 3f$ to solve problem
- Various algorithms exist to solve problem
  - Original algorithm has #messages exponential in n
  - Newer algorithms have message complexity $O(n^2)$
    - » One from MIT, for instance (Castro and Liskov, 1999)
- Use of BFT (Byzantine Fault Tolerance) algorithm
  - Allow multiple machines to make a coordinated decision even if some subset of them (< n/3) are malicious

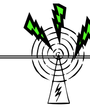


Network Protocols

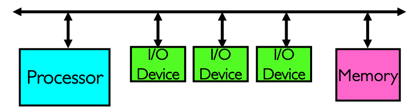
- Networking protocols: many levels
  - Physical level: mechanical and electrical network (e.g., how are 0 and 1 represented)
  - Link level: packet formats/error control (for instance, the CSMA/CD protocol)
  - Network level: network routing, addressing
  - Transport Level: reliable message delivery
- Protocols on today's Internet:



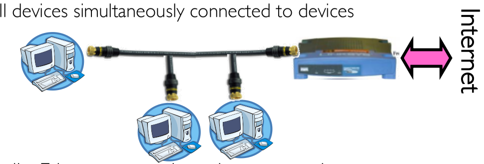
Broadcast Networks



- Broadcast Network: Shared Communication Medium

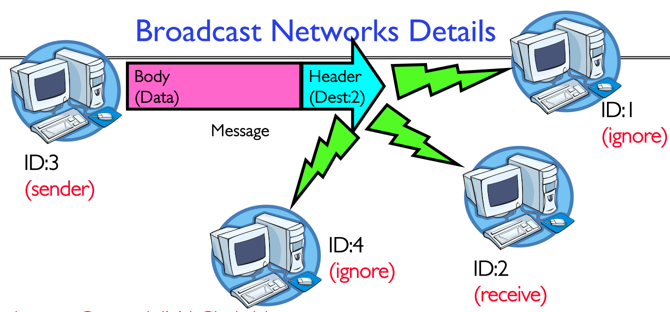


  - Shared Medium can be a set of wires
    - » Inside a computer, this is called a bus
    - » All devices simultaneously connected to devices



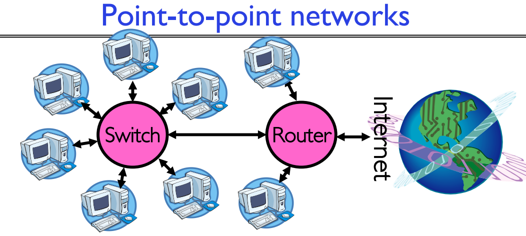
  - Originally, Ethernet was a broadcast network
    - » All computers on local subnet connected to one another
  - More examples (wireless: medium is air): cellular phones (GSM, CDMA, and LTE), WiFi

Broadcast Networks Details



- Media Access Control (MAC) Address:
  - 48-bit physical address for hardware interface
  - Every device (in the world!?) has a unique address
- Delivery: When you broadcast a packet, how does a receiver know who it is for? (packet goes to everyone!)
  - Put header on front of packet: [Destination MAC Addr | Packet]
  - Everyone gets packet, discards if not the target
  - In Ethernet, this check is done in hardware
    - » No OS interrupt if not for particular destination

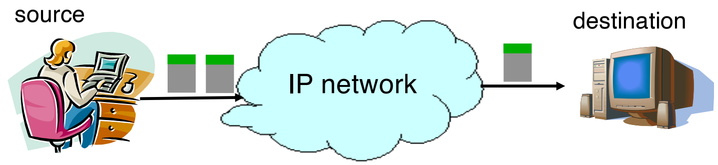
Point-to-point networks



- Why have a shared bus at all? Why not simplify and only have point-to-point links + routers/switches?
  - Originally wasn't cost-effective, now hardware is cheap!
- Point-to-point network: a network in which every physical wire is connected to only two computers
- Switch: a bridge that transforms a shared-bus (broadcast) configuration into a point-to-point network
  - Adaptively figures out which ports have which MAC addresses
- Router: a device that acts as a junction between physical networks to transfer data packets among them
  - Routes between switching domains using (for instance) IP addresses

The Internet Protocol (IP)

- Internet Protocol: Internet's network layer
- Service it provides: "Best-Effort" Packet Delivery
  - Tries it's "best" to deliver packet to its destination
  - Packets may be lost
  - Packets may be corrupted
  - Packets may be delivered out of order
- IP Is a Datagram service!
  - Routes across many physical switching domains (subnets)



IPv4 Address Space

- IP Address: a 32-bit integer used as destination of IP packet
  - Often written as four dot-separated integers, with each integer from 0—255 (thus representing 8x4=32 bits)
  - Example CS file server is: 169.229.60.83 ≡ 0xA9E53C53
- Internet Host: a computer connected to the Internet
  - Host has one or more IP addresses used for routing
    - » Some of these may be private and unavailable for routing
  - Not every computer has a unique IP address
    - » Groups of machines may share a single IP address
    - » In this case, machines have private addresses behind a "Network Address Translation" (NAT) gateway
- Subnet: network connecting hosts with related IP addresses
  - A subnet is identified by 32-bit value, with the bits which differ set to zero, followed by a slash and a mask
    - » Example: 128.32.131.0/24 designates a subnet in which all the addresses look like 128.32.131.XX
    - » Same subnet: 128.32.131.0/255.255.255.0
  - Mask: The number of matching prefix bits
    - » Expressed as a single value (e.g., 24) or a set of ones in a 32-bit value (e.g., 255.255.255.0)
  - Often routing *within* subnet is by MAC address (smart switches)

IPv4 Packet Format

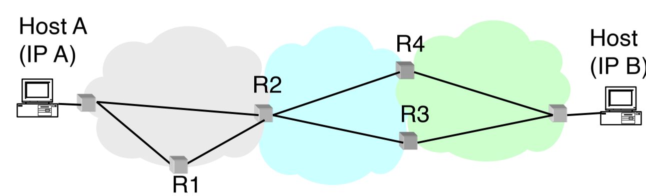
- IP Packet Format:

4	IHL	ToS	Total length(16-bits)	
16-bit identification			flags	13-bit frag off
TTL	protocol		16-bit header checksum	
32-bit source IP address				
32-bit destination IP address				
options (if any)				
Data				

- IP Datagram: an unreliable, unordered, packet sent from source to destination
  - Function of network – deliver datagrams!

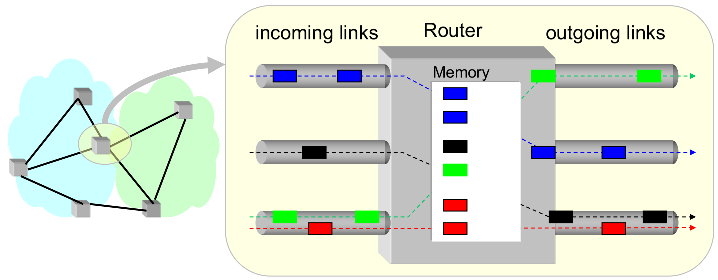
Wide Area Network

- **Wide Area Network** (WAN): network that covers a broad area (e.g., city, state, country, entire world)
  - E.g., Internet is a WAN
- WAN connects multiple physical (datalink) layer networks (LANs)
- Datalink layer networks are connected by **routers**
  - Different LANs can use different communication technology (e.g., wireless, cellular, optics, wired)



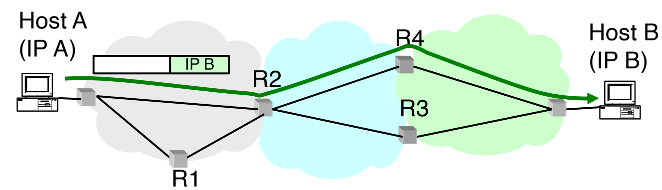
Routers

- **Forward** each packet received on an **incoming link** to an **outgoing link** based on packet's destination IP address (towards its destination)
- **Store & forward**: packets are buffered before being forwarded
- **Forwarding table**: mapping between IP address and the output link



Packet Forwarding

- Upon receiving a packet, a router
  - read the IP destination address of the packet
  - consults its forwarding table → output port
  - forwards packet to corresponding output port
- Default route (for subnets without explicit entries)
  - Forward to more authoritative router



IP Addresses vs. MAC Addresses

- Why not use MAC addresses for routing?
  - Doesn't scale
- Analogy
  - MAC address → SSN
  - IP address → (unreadable) home address
- MAC address: uniquely associated with device for the entire lifetime of the device
- IP address: changes as the device location changes
  - Your notebook IP address at school is different from home

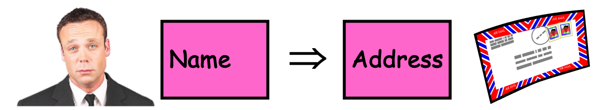
IP Addresses vs. MAC Addresses

- Why does packet forwarding using IP addr. scale?
- Because IP addresses can be aggregated
  - E.g., all IP addresses at UC Berkeley start with **0xA9E5**, i.e., any address of form 0xA9E5**** belongs to Berkeley
  - Thus, a router in NY needs to keep a **single** entry for **all** hosts at Berkeley
  - If we were using MAC addresses the NY router would need to maintain **an entry for every** Berkeley host!!
- Analogy:
  - Give this letter to person with SSN: 123-45-6789 vs.
  - Give this letter to "John Smith, 123 First Street, LA, US"

Administrivia

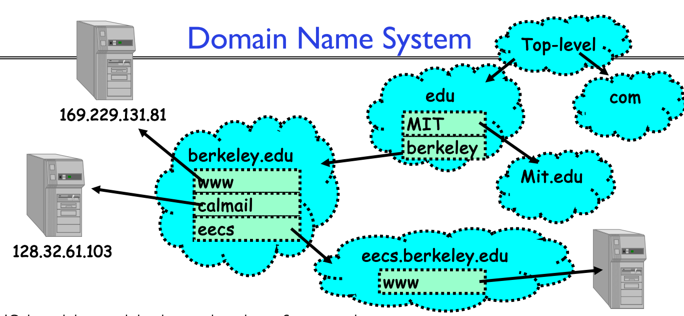
- Midterm 3: Thursday 4/28: 7-9PM
  - All course material
  - Review session Monday 4/25 1-3PM

Naming in the Internet



- How to map human-readable names to IP addresses?
  - E.g. www.berkeley.edu ⇒ 128.32.139.48
  - E.g. www.google.com ⇒ different addresses depending on location, and load
- Why is this necessary?
  - IP addresses are hard to remember
  - IP addresses change:
    - » Say, Server 1 crashes gets replaced by Server 2
    - » Or – google.com handled by different servers
- Mechanism: Domain Naming System (DNS)

Domain Name System



- DNS is a hierarchical mechanism for naming
  - Name divided in domains, right to left: www.eecs.berkeley.edu
- Each domain owned by a particular organization
  - Top level handled by ICANN (Internet Corporation for Assigned Numbers and Names)
  - Subsequent levels owned by organizations
- Resolution: series of queries to successive servers
- Caching: queries take time, so results cached for period of time

How Important is Correct Resolution?

- If attacker manages to give incorrect mapping:
  - Can get someone to route to server, thinking that they are routing to a different server
    - » Get them to log into "bank" – give up username and password
- Is DNS Secure?
  - Definitely a weak link
    - » What if "response" returned from different server than original query?
    - » Get person to use incorrect IP address!
  - Attempt to avoid substitution attacks:
    - » Query includes random number which must be returned
- In July 2008, hole in DNS security located!
  - Dan Kaminsky (security researcher) discovered an attack that broke DNS globally
    - » One person in an ISP convinced to load particular web page, then all users of that ISP end up pointing at wrong address
  - High profile, highly advertised need for patching DNS
    - » Big press release, lots of mystery
    - » Security researchers told no speculation until patches applied

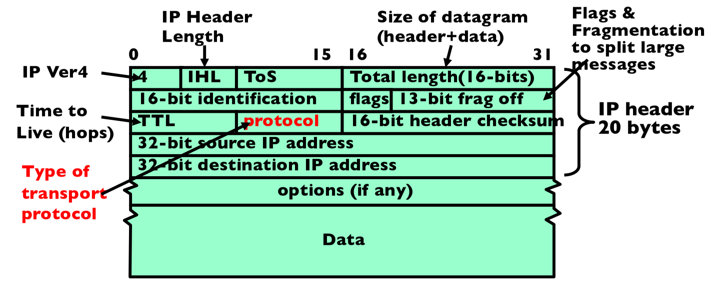
Network Layering

- Layering: building complex services from simpler ones
  - Each layer provides services needed by higher layers by utilizing services provided by lower layers
- The physical/link layer is pretty limited
  - Packets are of limited size (called the "Maximum Transfer Unit or MTU: often 200-1500 bytes in size)
  - Routing is limited to within a physical link (wire) or perhaps through a switch
- Our goal in the following is to show how to construct a secure, ordered, message service routed to anywhere:

Physical Reality: Packets	Abstraction: Messages
Limited Size (MTU)	Arbitrary Size
Unordered (sometimes)	Ordered
Unreliable	Reliable
Machine-to-machine	Process-to-process
Only on local area net	Routed anywhere
Asynchronous	Synchronous
Insecure	Secure

Recall: IPv4 Packet Format

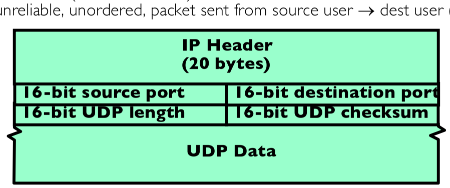
- IP Packet Format:



- IP Datagram: an unreliable, unordered, packet sent from source to destination
  - Function of network – deliver datagrams!

Building a messaging service on IP

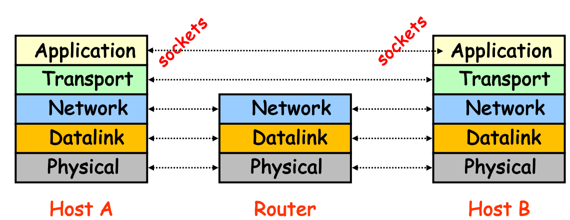
- Process to process communication
  - Basic routing gets packets from machine→machine
  - What we really want is routing from process→process
    - » Add "ports", which are 16-bit identifiers
    - » A communication channel (connection) defined by 5 items: [source addr, source port, dest addr, dest port, protocol]
- For example: The Unreliable Datagram Protocol (UDP)
  - Layered on top of basic IP (IP Protocol 17)
    - » Datagram: an unreliable, unordered, packet sent from source user → dest user (Call it UDP/IP)



  - Important aspect: low overhead!
    - » Often used for high-bandwidth video streams
    - » Many uses of UDP considered "anti-social" – none of the "well-behaved" aspects of (say) TCP/IP

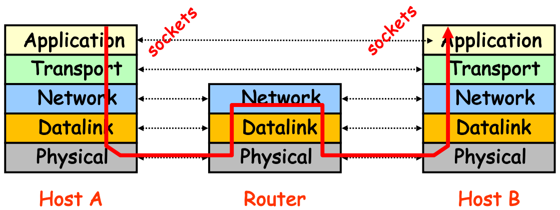
Internet Architecture: Five Layers

- Lower three layers implemented everywhere
- Top two layers implemented only at hosts

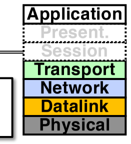


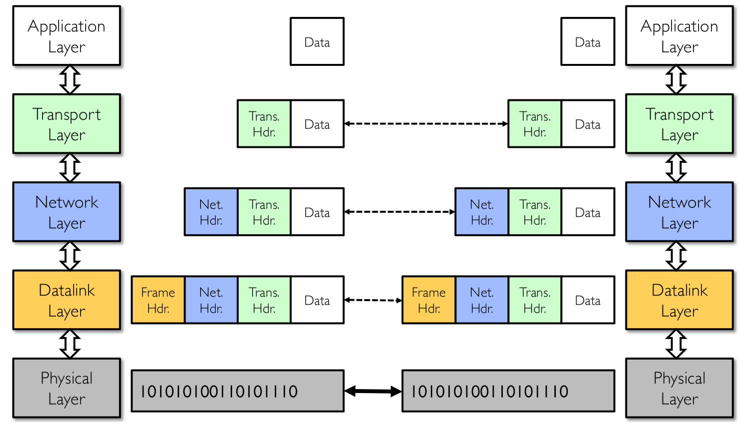
Internet Architecture: Five Layers

- Communication goes down to physical network
- Then from network peer to peer
- Then up to relevant layer

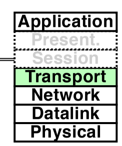


Layering Analogy: Packets in Envelopes



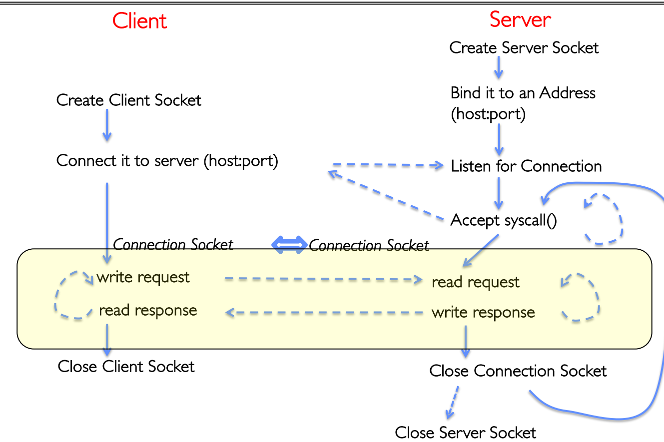


Internet Transport Protocols



- Datagram service (UDP): IP Protocol 17
  - No-frills extension of "best-effort" IP
  - Multiplexing/Demultiplexing among processes
- Reliable, in-order delivery (TCP): IP Protocol6
  - Connection set-up & tear-down
  - Discarding corrupted packets (segments)
  - Retransmission of lost packets (segments)
  - Flow control
  - Congestion control
- Other examples:
  - DCCP (33), Datagram Congestion Control Protocol
  - RDP (26), Reliable Data Protocol
  - SCTP (132), Stream Control Transmission Protocol

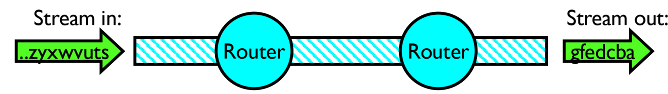
Recall: Sockets in concept



Reliable Message Delivery: the Problem

- All physical networks can garble and/or drop packets
  - Physical media: packet not transmitted/received
    - » If transmit close to maximum rate, get more throughput – even if some packets get lost
    - » If transmit at lowest voltage such that error correction just starts correcting errors, get best power/bit
  - Congestion: no place to put incoming packet
    - » Point-to-point network: insufficient queue at switch/router
    - » Broadcast link: two host try to use same link
    - » In any network: insufficient buffer space at destination
    - » Rate mismatch: what if sender send faster than receiver can process?
- Reliable Message Delivery on top of Unreliable Packets
  - Need some way to make sure that packets actually make it to receiver
    - » Every packet received at least once
    - » Every packet received at most once
  - Can combine with ordering: every packet received by process at destination exactly once and in order

Transmission Control Protocol (TCP)

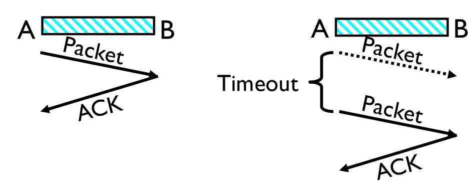


- Transmission Control Protocol (TCP)
  - TCP (IP Protocol 6) layered on top of IP
  - Reliable byte stream between two processes on different machines over Internet (read, write, flush)
- TCP Details
  - Fragments byte stream into packets, hands packets to IP
    - » IP may also fragment by itself
  - Uses window-based acknowledgement protocol (to minimize state at sender and receiver)
    - » "Window" reflects storage at receiver – sender shouldn't overrun receiver's buffer space
    - » Also, window should reflect speed/capacity of network – sender shouldn't overload network
  - Automatically retransmits lost packets
  - Adjusts rate of transmission to avoid congestion
    - » A "good citizen"

Problem: Dropped Packets

- All physical networks can garble or drop packets
  - Physical hardware problems (bad wire, bad signal)
- Therefore, IP can garble or drop packets
  - It doesn't repair this itself (end-to-end principle!)
- Building reliable message delivery
  - Confirm that packets aren't garbled
  - Confirm that packets arrive **exactly once**

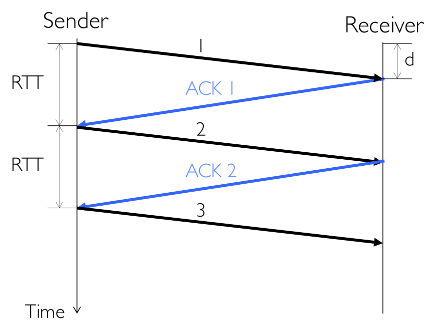
Using Acknowledgements



- How to ensure transmission of packets?
  - Detect garbling at receiver via checksum, discard if bad
  - Receiver acknowledges (by sending "ACK") when packet received properly at destination
  - Timeout at sender: if no ACK, retransmit
- Some questions:
  - If the sender doesn't get an ACK, does that mean the receiver didn't get the original message?
    - » No
  - What if ACK gets dropped? Or if message gets delayed?
    - » Sender doesn't get ACK, retransmits, Receiver gets message twice, ACK each

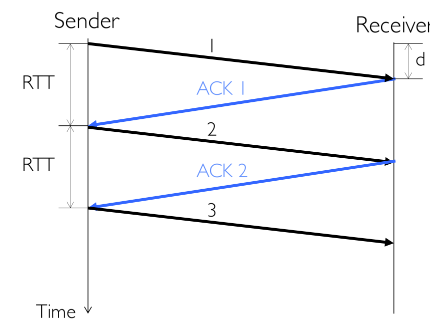
Stop-and-Wait (No Packet Loss)

- Send; wait for ACK; repeat
- Round Trip Time (RTT): time it takes a packet to travel from sender to receiver and back
  - One-way latency (d): one way delay from sender and receiver
- For symmetric latency,
  $RTT = 2d$



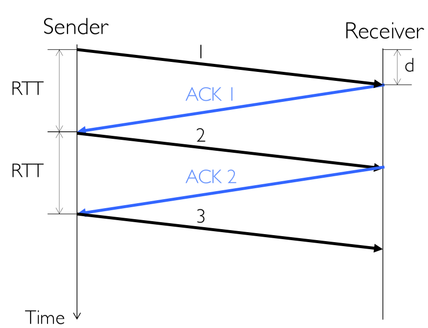
Stop-and-Wait (No Packet Loss)

- How fast can you send data?
- Little's Law applied to the network:
  $n = B \cdot \text{RTT}$
- For Stop-and-Wait, $n = 1$ packet
- So bandwidth is 1 packet per RTT
  - Depends only on latency, not network capacity (!)



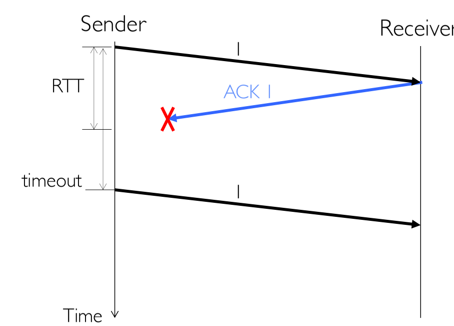
Stop-and-Wait (No Packet Loss)

- So bandwidth is 1 packet per RTT
  - Depends only on latency, not network capacity (!)
- Suppose RTT = 100 ms and 1 packet is 1500 bytes
- Throughput = $\frac{1500 \cdot 8}{0.1}$ = 120 Kbps
- Very inefficient if we have a 100 Mbps link!



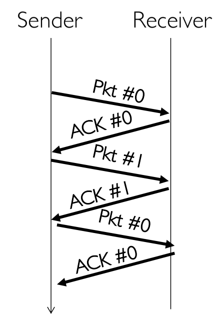
Stop-and-Wait with Packet Loss

- Loss recovery relies on timeouts
- How to choose a good timeout?
  - Too short – lots of duplication
  - Too long – packet loss is really disruptive!
- How to deal with duplication?
  - Retransmission certainly opens up the possibility for



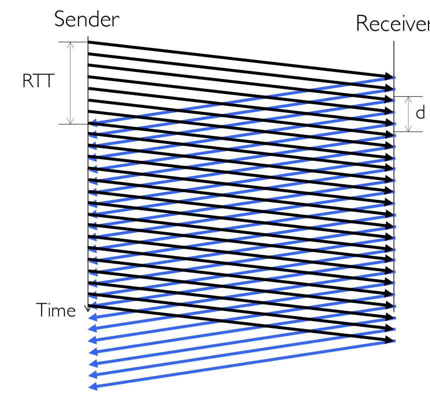
How to Deal with Message Duplication?

- Solution: put sequence number in message to identify re-transmitted packets
  - Receiver checks for duplicate number's; Discard if detected
- Requirements:
  - Sender keeps copy of unACK'd messages
    - » Easy: only need to buffer messages
  - Receiver tracks possible duplicate messages
    - » Hard: when ok to forget about received message?
- Alternating-bit protocol:
  - Send one message at a time; don't send next message until ACK received
  - Sender keeps last message; receiver tracks sequence number of last message received
- Pros: simple, small overhead
- Con: doesn't work if network can delay or duplicate messages arbitrarily



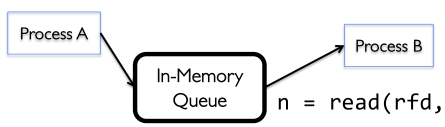
Advantages of Moving Away From Stop-and-Wait

- Larger space of acknowledgements
  - Pipelining: don't wait for ACK before sending next packet
- ACKs serve dual purpose:
  - Reliability: Confirming packet received
  - Ordering: Packets can be reordered at destination
- How much data is in flight now?
  - Bytes in-flight: W_{send} = RTT × B
  - Here B is in "bytes/second"
  - $W_{send} \equiv$ Sender's "Window Size"
  - Packets in flight = (W_{send} / packet size)
- How long does the sender have to keep the packets around?
- How long does the receiver have to keep the packets' data?
- What if sender is sending packets faster than the receiver can process the data?



Recall: Communication Between Processes

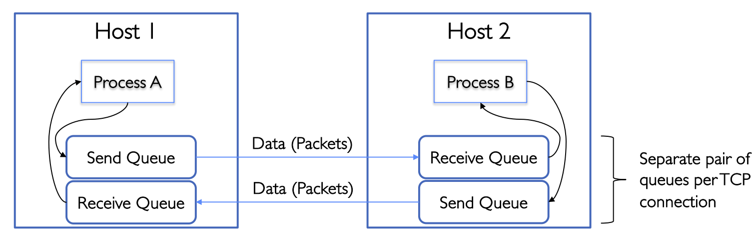
```
write(wfd, wbuf, wlen);
```




```
n = read(rfd,rbuf, rmax);
```

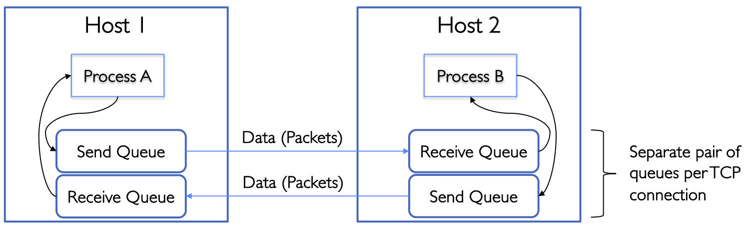
- Data written by A is held in memory until B reads it
- Queue has a fixed capacity
  - Writing to the queue blocks if the queue if full
  - Reading from the queue blocks if the queue is empty
- POSIX provides this abstraction in the form of *pipes*

Buffering in a TCP Connection



- A single TCP connection needs *four* in-memory queues:
  - Send buffer: add data on write syscall, remove data when ACK received
  - Receive buffer: add data when packets received, remove data on read syscall

Window Size: Space in Receive Queue



- A host's *window size* for a TCP connection is how much remaining space it has in its receive queue
- A host advertises its window size in *every* TCP packet it sends!
- Sender never sends more than receiver's advertised window size

Sliding Window Protocol

- TCP sender knows receiver's window size, and aims never to exceed it
- But packets that it previously send may arrive, filling the window size!

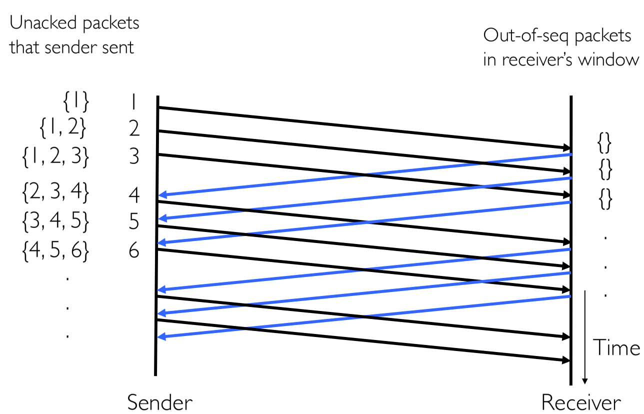
Rule: TCP sender ensures that:

Number of Sent but UnACKed Bytes < Receiver's Advertised Window Size

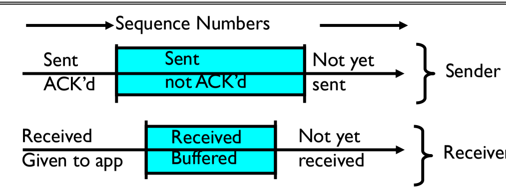
- Can send new packets as long as sent-but-unacked packets haven't already filled the advertised window size

Sliding Window (No Packet Loss)

- Example:Window size (w) = 3 packets
- Window size to fill link is given by:
  $w = B_{pkt} \cdot \mathrm{RTT}$
- $B_{pkt} \equiv Packets/sec$
- Little's Law once again!
- For TCP, window is in *bytes, not packets*

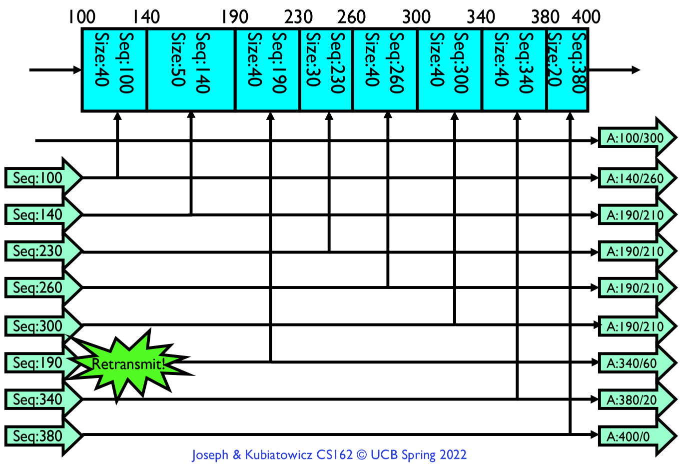


TCP Windows and Sequence Numbers: PER BYTE!



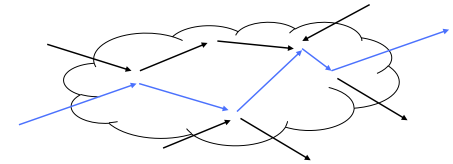
- Sender has three regions:
  - Sequence regions
    - » sent and ACK'd
    - » sent and not ACK'd
    - » not yet sent
  - Window (colored region) adjusted by sender
- Receiver has three regions:
  - Sequence regions
    - » received and ACK'd (given to application)
    - » received and buffered
    - » not yet received (or discarded because out of order)

Window-Based Acknowledgements (TCP)



Congestion

- Too much data trying to flow through some part of the network

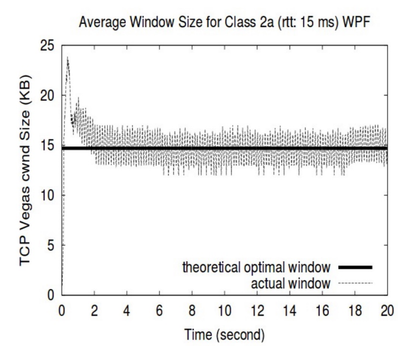


- IP's solution: Drop packets
- What happens to TCP connection?
  - Lots of retransmission – wasted work and wasted bandwidth (when bandwidth is scarce)

Congestion Avoidance

- Congestion
  - How long should timeout be for re-sending messages?
    - » Too long → wastes time if message lost
    - » Too short → retransmit even though ACK will arrive shortly
  - Stability problem: more congestion ⇒ ACK is delayed ⇒ unnecessary timeout ⇒ more traffic ⇒ more congestion
    - » Closely related to window size at sender: too big means putting too much data into network
- How does the sender's window size get chosen?
  - Must be less than receiver's advertised buffer size
  - Try to match the rate of sending packets with the rate that the slowest link can accommodate
  - Sender uses an adaptive algorithm to decide size of N
    - » Goal: fill network between sender and receiver
    - » Basic technique: slowly increase size of window until acknowledgements start being delayed/lost
- TCP solution: "slow start" (start sending slowly)
  - If no timeout, slowly increase window size (throughput) by 1 for each ACK received
  - Timeout ⇒ congestion, so cut window size in half
  - "*Additive Increase, Multiplicative Decrease*"

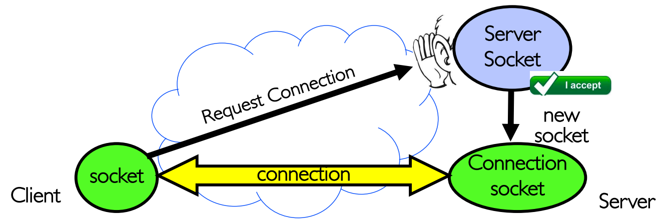
Congestion Management



From Low, Peterson, and Wang, "Understanding vegas: Duality Model", J. ACM, March 2002.

- TCP artificially restricts the window size if it sees packet loss
- Careful control loop to make sure:
  1. We don't send too fast and overwhelm the network
  2. We utilize most of the bandwidth the network has available
  - In general, these are conflicting goals!

Recall: Connection Setup over TCP/IP

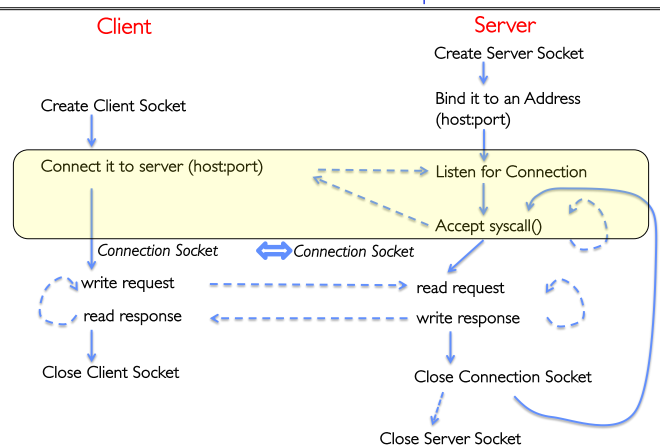


- 5-Tuple identifies each connection:
  1. Source IP Address
  2. Destination IP Address
  3. Source Port Number
  4. Destination Port Number
  5. Protocol (always TCP here)
- Often, Client Port "randomly" assigned
  – Done by OS during client socket setup
- Server Port often "well known"
  – 80 (web), 443 (secure web), 25 (sendmail), etc
  – Well-known ports from 0—1023

Establishing TCP Service

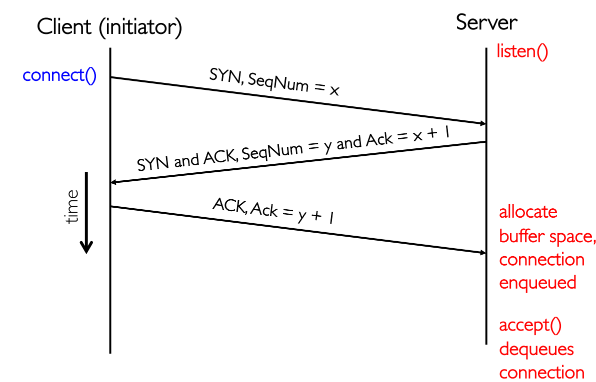
1. Open connection: 3-way handshaking
2. Reliable byte stream transfer from (IPa, TCP_Port1) to (IPb, TCP_Port2)
   – Indication if connection fails: Reset
3. Close (tear-down) connection

Sockets in concept

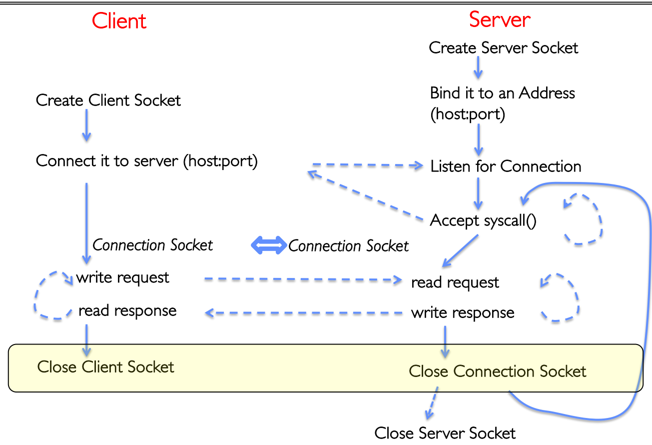


Open Connection: 3-Way Handshake

- Server calls listen() to wait for a new connection
- Client calls connect() providing server's IP address and port number
- Each side sends SYN packet proposing an initial sequence number (one for each sender) and ACKs the other

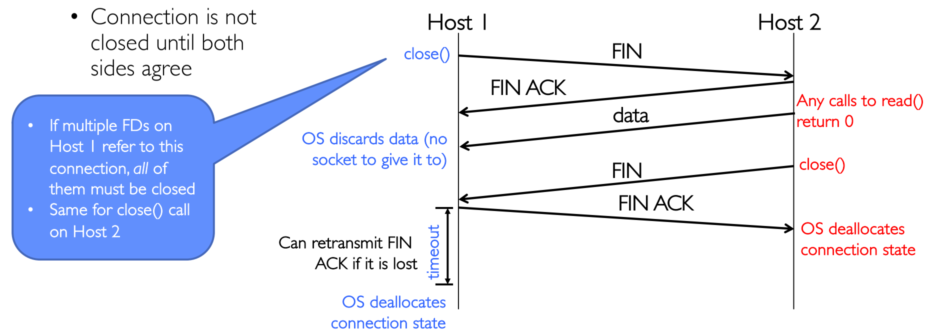


Sockets in concept



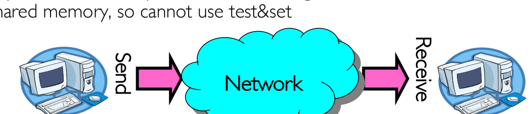
Close Connection: 4-Way Teardown

- Connection is not closed until both sides agree



Recall: Distributed Applications Build With Messages

- How do you actually program a distributed application?
  - Need to synchronize multiple threads, running on different machines
    - » No shared memory, so cannot use test&set



  - One Abstraction: send/receive messages
    - » Already atomic: no receiver gets portion of a message and two receivers cannot get same message
- Interface:
  - Mailbox (mbox): temporary holding area for messages
    - » Includes both destination location and queue
  - Send(message,mbox)
    - » Send message to remote mailbox identified by mbox
  - Receive(buffer,mbox)
    - » Wait until mbox has message, copy into buffer, and return
    - » If threads sleeping on this mbox, wake up one of them

Question: Data Representation

- An object in memory has a machine-specific binary representation
  - Threads within a single process have the same view of what's in memory
  - Easy to compute offsets into fields, follow pointers, etc.
- In the absence of shared memory, externalizing an object requires us to turn it into a sequential sequence of bytes
  - **Serialization/Marshalling**: Express an object as a sequence of bytes
  - **Deserialization/Unmarshalling**: Reconstructing the original object from its marshalled form at destination

Simple Data Types

```
uint32_t x;
```

- Suppose I want to write a `x` to a file
- First, open the file: `FILE* f = fopen("foo.txt", "w");`
- Then, I have two choices:
  1. `fprintf(f, "%lu", x);`
  2. `fwrite(&x, sizeof(uint32_t), 1, f);`
     » Or equivalently, `write(fd, &x, sizeof(uint32_t));` (perhaps with a loop to be safe)
- Neither one is "wrong" but sender and receiver should be consistent!

Machine Representation

- Consider using the machine representation:
  - `fwrite(&x, sizeof(uint32_t), 1, f);`
- How do we know if the recipient represents `x` in the same way?
  - For pipes, is this a problem?
  - What about for sockets?

Endianness

- For a byte-address machine, which end of a machine-recognized object (e.g., int) does its byte-address refer to?
- Big Endian: address is the most-significant bits
- Little Endian: address is the least-significant bits

Processor	Endianness
Motorola 68000	Big Endian
PowerPC (PPC)	Big Endian
Sun Sparc	Big Endian
IBM S/390	Big Endian
Intel x86 (32 bit)	Little Endian
Intel x86_64 (64 bit)	Little Endian
Dec VAX	Little Endian
Alpha	Bi (Big/Little) Endian
ARM	Bi (Big/Little) Endian
IA-64 (64 bit)	Bi (Big/Little) Endian
MIPS	Bi (Big/Little) Endian

```
int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
  int val = 0x12345678;
  int i;
  printf("val = %x\n", val);
  for (i = 0; i < sizeof(val); i++) {
    printf("val[%d] = %x\n", i, ((uint8_t *) &val)[i]);
  }
}
```

```
(base) CullerMac19:code09 culler$ ./endian
val = 12345678
val[0] = 78
val[1] = 56
val[2] = 34
val[3] = 12
```


What Endian is the Internet?

NAME

arpa/inet.h - definitions for internet operations

SYNOPSIS

```
#include <arpa/inet.h>
```

DESCRIPTION

The **in_port_t** and **in_addr_t** types shall be defined as described in <netinet/in.h>.

The **in_addr** structure shall be defined as described in <netinet/in.h>.

The INET_ADDRSTRLEN [IP6] and INET6_ADDRSTRLEN macros shall be defined as described in <netinet/in.h>.

The following shall either be declared as functions, defined as macros, or both. If functions are declared, function prototypes

```
uint32_t htonl(uint32_t);
uint16_t htons(uint16_t);
uint32_t ntohl(uint32_t);
uint16_t ntohs(uint16_t);
```

The **uint32_t** and **uint16_t** types shall be defined as described in <inttypes.h>.

The following shall be declared as functions and may also be defined as macros. Function prototypes shall be provided.

```
in_addr_t    inet_addr(const char *);
char        *inet_ntoa(struct in_addr);
const char  *inet_ntop(int, const void *restrict, char *restrict,
                  socklen_t);
int          inet_pton(int, const char *restrict, void *restrict);
```

Inclusion of the *<arpa/inet.h>* header may also make visible all symbols from <netinet/in.h> and <inttypes.h>.

- **Big Endian**
  - **Network byte order**
  - **Vs. "host byte order"**

Dealing with Endianness

- Decide on an "on-wire" endianness
- Convert from native endianness to "on-wire" endianness before sending out data (serialization/marshalling)
  - `uint32_t htonl(uint32_t)` and `uint16_t htons(uint16_t)` convert from native endianness to network endianness (big endian)
- Convert from "on-wire" endianness to native endianness when receiving data (deserialization/unmarshalling)
  - `uint32_t ntohl(uint32_t)` and `uint16_t ntohs(uint16_t)` convert from network endianness to native endianness (big endian)

What About Richer Objects?

- Consider `word_count_t` of Homework 0 and 1 …
- Each element contains:
  - An `int`
  - A *pointer* to a string (of some length)
  - A *pointer* to the next element
- `fprintf_words` writes these as a sequence of lines (character strings with `\n`) to a file stream
- What if you wanted to write the whole list as a binary object (and read it back as one)?
  - How do you represent the string?
  - Does it make sense to write the pointer?

```
typedef struct word_count
{
  char *word;
  int count;
  struct word_count *next;
}
word_count_t;
```


Data Serialization Formats

- JSON and XML are commonly used in web applications
- Lots of ad-hoc formats


```
{
    "glossary": {
        "title": "example glossary",
        "GlossDiv": {
            "title": "S",
            "GlossList": {
                "GlossEntry": {
                    "ID": "SGML",
                    "SortAs": "SGML",
                    "GlossTerm": "Standard Generalized Markup Language",
                    "Acronym": "SGML",
                    "Abbrev": "ISO 8879:1986",
                    "GlossDef": {
                        "para": "A meta-markup language, used to create markup languages such as DocBook.",
                        "GlossSeeAlso": ["GML", "XML"]
                    },
                    "GlossSee": "markup"
                }
            }
        }
    }
}
```

```
<!DOCTYPE glossary PUBLIC "-//OASIS//DTD DocBook V3.1//EN">
 <glossary><title>example glossary</title>
  <GlossDiv><title>S</title>
   <GlossList>
    <GlossEntry ID="SGML" SortAs="SGML">
     <GlossTerm>Standard Generalized Markup Language</GlossTerm>
     <Acronym>SGML</Acronym>
     <Abbrev>ISO 8879:1986</Abbrev>
     <GlossDef>
      <para>A meta-markup language, used to create markup
languages such as DocBook.</para>
      <GlossSeeAlso OtherTerm="GML">
      <GlossSeeAlso OtherTerm="XML">
     </GlossDef>
     <GlossSee OtherTerm="markup">
    </GlossEntry>
   </GlossList>
  </GlossDiv>
 </glossary>
```

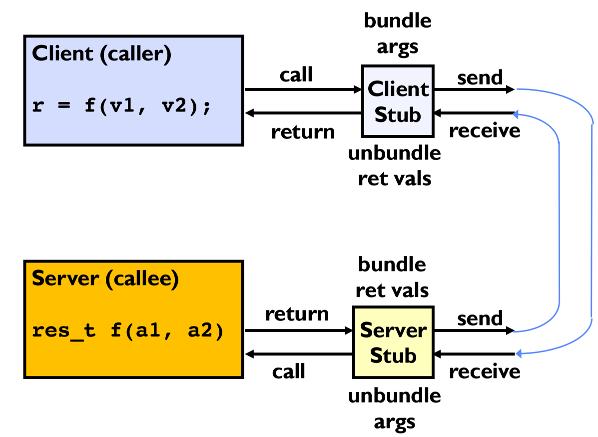

Data Serialization Formats

Name	Creator-maintainer	Based on	Standardized?	Specification	Binary?	Human-readable?	Supports references?	Schema-IDL?	Standard APIs	Supports Zero-copy operations
Apache Avro	Apache Software Foundation	N/A	No	Apache Avro™ 1.8.1 Specification	Yes	No	N/A	Yes (built-in)	N/A	N/A
Apache Parquet	Apache Software Foundation	N/A	No	Apache Parquet[1]	Yes	No	No	N/A	Java, Python	No
ASN.1	ISO, IEC, ITU-T	N/A	Yes	ISO/IEC 8824; X.680 series of ITU-T Recommendations	Yes (BER, DER, PER, OER, or custom via ECN)	Yes (XER, JER, GSER, or custom via ECN)	Partial[f]	Yes (built-in)	N/A	Yes (OER)
Bencode	Bram Cohen (creator) BitTorrent, Inc. (maintainer)	N/A	*De facto* standard via BitTorrent Enhancement Proposal (BEP)	Part of BitTorrent protocol specification	Partially (numbers and delimiters are ASCII)	No	No	No	No	N/A
Binn	Bernardo Ramos	N/A	No	Binn Specification	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes
BSON	MongoDB	JSON	No	BSON Specification	Yes	No	No	No	No	N/A
CBOR	Carsten Bormann, P. Hoffman	JSON (loosely)	Yes	RFC 7049	Yes	No	Yes through tagging	Yes (CDDL)	No	Yes
Comma-separated values (CSV)	RFC author: Yakov Shafranovich	N/A	Partial (myriad informal variants used)	RFC 4180 (among others)	No	Yes	No	No	No	No
Common Data Representation (CDR)	Object Management Group	N/A	Yes	General Inter-ORB Protocol	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	ADA, C, C++, Java, Cobol, Lisp, Python, Ruby, Smalltalk	N/A
D-Bus Message Protocol	freedesktop.org	N/A	Yes	D-Bus Specification	Yes	No	No	Partial (Signature strings)	Yes (see D-Bus)	N/A
Efficient XML Interchange (EXI)	W3C	XML, Efficient XML	Yes	Efficient XML Interchange (EXI) Format 1.0	Yes	Yes (XML)	Yes (XPointer, XPath)	Yes (XML Schema)	Yes (DOM, SAX, StAX, XQuery, XPath)	N/A
FlatBuffers	Google	N/A	No	flatbuffers github page Specification	Yes	Yes (Apache Arrow)	Partial (internal to the buffer)	Yes [2]	C++, Java, C#, Go, Python, Rust, JavaScript, PHP, C, Dart, Lua, TypeScript	Yes
Fast Infoset	ISO, IEC, ITU-T	XML	Yes	ITU-T X.891 and ISO/IEC 24824-1:2007	Yes	No	Yes (XPointer, XPath)	Yes (XML schema)	Yes (DOM, SAX, XQuery, XPath)	N/A
FHIR	Health_Level_7	REST basics	Yes	Fast Healthcare Interoperability Resources	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Hapi for FHIR[1] JSON, XML, Turtle	No
Ion	Amazon	JSON	No	The Amazon Ion Specification	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	N/A
Java serialization	Oracle Corporation	N/A	Yes	Java Object Serialization	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	N/A
JSON	Douglas Crockford	JavaScript syntax	Yes	STD 90/RFC 8259 (ancillary: RFC 6901, RFC 6902), ECMA-404, ISO/IEC 21778:2017	No, but see BSON, Smile, UBJSON	Yes	Yes (JSON Pointer (RFC 6901); alternately: JSONPath, JPath, JSPON, json:select()), JSON-LD	Partial (JSON Schema Proposal, ASN.1 with JER, Kwalify, Rx, Itemscript Schema), JSON-LD	Partial (Clarinet, JSONQuery, JSONPath), JSON-LD	No
MessagePack	Sadayuki Furuhashi	JSON (loosely)	No	MessagePack format specification	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes
Netstrings	Dan Bernstein	N/A	No	netstrings.txt	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Yes
OGDL	Rolf Veen	?	No	Specification	Yes (Binary Specification)	Yes	Yes (Path Specification)	Yes (Schema WD)		N/A
OPC-UA Binary	OPC Foundation	N/A	No	opcfoundation.org	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	N/A
OpenDDL	Eric Lengyel	C, PHP	No	OpenDDL.org	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes (OpenDDL Library)	N/A
Pickle (Python)	Guido van Rossum	Python	*De facto* standard via Python Enhancement Proposals (PEPs)	[3] PEP 3154 -- Pickle protocol version 4	Yes	No	No	No	Yes ([4])	No
Property list	NeXT (creator) Apple (maintainer)	?	Partial	Public DTD for XML format	Yes[a]	Yes[b]	No	?	Cocoa, CoreFoundation, OpenStep, GnuStep	No
Protocol Buffers (protobuf)	Google	N/A	No	Developer Guide: Encoding	Yes	Partial[d]	No	Yes (built-in)	C++, C#, Java, Python, Javascript, Go	No

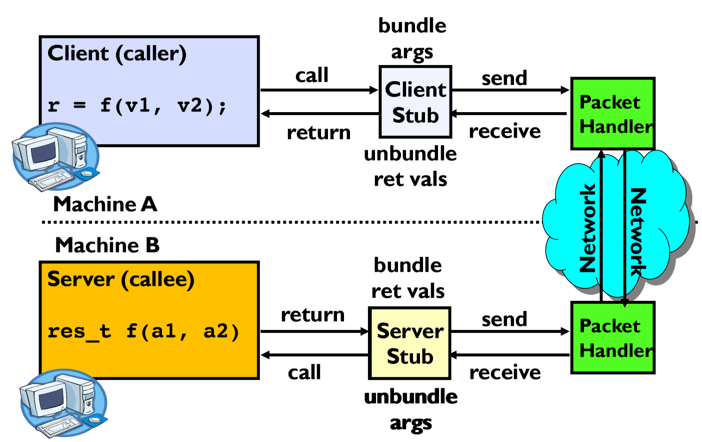
Remote Procedure Call (RPC)

- Raw messaging is a bit too low-level for programming
  - Must wrap up information into message at source
  - Must decide what to do with message at destination
  - May need to sit and wait for multiple messages to arrive
  - And must deal with machine representation by hand
- Another option: Remote Procedure Call (RPC)
  - Calls a procedure on a remote machine
  - Idea: Make communication look like an ordinary function call
  - Automate all of the complexity of translating between representations
  - Client calls:
    `remoteFileSystem→Read("rutabaga");`
  - Translated automatically into call on server:
    `fileSys→Read("rutabaga");`

RPC Concept



RPC Information Flow



RPC Implementation

- Request-response message passing (under covers!)
- "Stub" provides glue on client/server
  - Client stub is responsible for "marshalling" arguments and "unmarshalling" the return values
  - Server-side stub is responsible for "unmarshalling" arguments and "marshalling" the return values.
- Marshalling involves (depending on system)
  - Converting values to a canonical form, serializing objects, copying arguments passed by reference, etc.

RPC Details (1/3)

- Equivalence with regular procedure call
  - Parameters ⇔ Request Message
  - Result ⇔ Reply message
  - Name of Procedure: Passed in request message
  - Return Address: mbox2 (client return mail box)
- Stub generator: Compiler that generates stubs
  - Input: interface definitions in an "interface definition language (IDL)"
    - » Contains, among other things, types of arguments/return
  - Output: stub code in the appropriate source language
    - » Code for client to pack message, send it off, wait for result, unpack result and return to caller
    - » Code for server to unpack message, call procedure, pack results, send them off

RPC Details (2/3)

- Cross-platform issues:
  - What if client/server machines are different architectures/ languages?
    - » Convert everything to/from some canonical form
    - » Tag every item with an indication of how it is encoded (avoids unnecessary conversions)
- How does client know which mbox (destination queue) to send to?
  - Need to translate name of remote service into network endpoint (Remote machine, port, possibly other info)
  - Binding: the process of converting a user-visible name into a network endpoint
    - » This is another word for "naming" at network level
    - » Static: fixed at compile time
    - » Dynamic: performed at runtime

RPC Details (3/3)

- Dynamic Binding
  - Most RPC systems use dynamic binding via name service
    - » Name service provides dynamic translation of service → mbox
  - Why dynamic binding?
    - » Access control: check who is permitted to access service
    - » Fail-over: If server fails, use a different one
- What if there are multiple servers?
  - Could give flexibility at binding time
    - » Choose unloaded server for each new client
  - Could provide same mbox (router level redirect)
    - » Choose unloaded server for each new request
    - » Only works if no state carried from one call to next
- What if multiple clients?
  - Pass pointer to client-specific return mbox in request

Problems with RPC: Non-Atomic Failures

- Different failure modes in dist. system than on a single machine
- Consider many different types of failures
  - User-level bug causes address space to crash
  - Machine failure, kernel bug causes all processes on same machine to fail
  - Some machine is compromised by malicious party
- Before RPC: whole system would crash/die
- After RPC: One machine crashes/compromised while others keep working
- Can easily result in inconsistent view of the world
  - Did my cached data get written back or not?
  - Did server do what I requested or not?
- Answer? Distributed transactions/Byzantine Commit

Problems with RPC: Performance

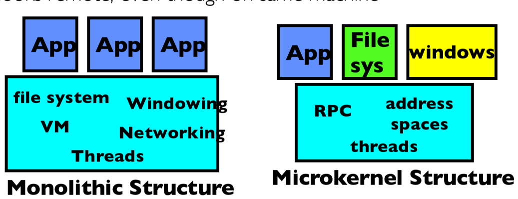
- RPC is *not* performance transparent:
  - Cost of Procedure call « same-machine RPC « network RPC
  - Overheads: Marshalling, Stubs, Kernel-Crossing, Communication
- Programmers must be aware that RPC is not free
  - Caching can help, but may make failure handling complex

Cross-Domain Communication/Location Transparency

- How do address spaces communicate with one another?
  - Shared Memory with Semaphores, monitors, etc…
  - File System
  - Pipes (1-way communication)
  - "Remote" procedure call (2-way communication)
- RPC's can be used to communicate between address spaces on different machines or the same machine
  - Services can be run wherever it's most appropriate
  - Access to local and remote services looks the same
- Examples of RPC systems:
  - CORBA (Common Object Request Broker Architecture)
  - DCOM (Distributed COM)
  - RMI (Java Remote Method Invocation)

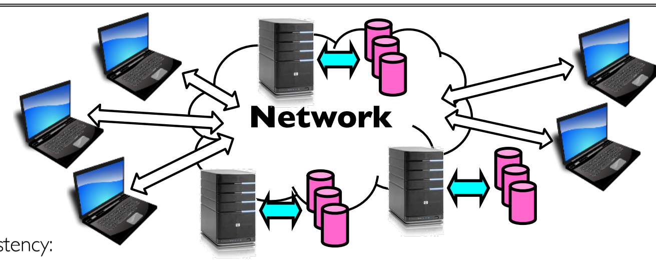
Microkernel operating systems

- Example: split kernel into application-level servers.
  - File system looks remote, even though on same machine



- Why split the OS into separate domains?
  - Fault isolation: bugs are more isolated (build a firewall)
  - Enforces modularity: allows incremental upgrades of pieces of software (client or server)
  - Location transparent: service can be local or remote
    - » For example in the X windowing system: Each X client can be on a separate machine from X server; Neither has to run on the machine with the frame buffer.

Network-Attached Storage and the CAP Theorem



- Consistency:
  - Changes appear to everyone in the same serial order
- Availability:
  - Can get a result at any time
- Partition-Tolerance
  - System continues to work even when network becomes partitioned
- Consistency, Availability, Partition-Tolerance (CAP) Theorem: Cannot have all three at same time
  - Otherwise known as "Brewer's Theorem"

Summary

- TCP: Reliable byte stream between two processes on different machines over Internet (read, write, flush)
  - Uses window-based acknowledgement protocol
  - Congestion-avoidance dynamically adapts sender window to account for congestion in network
- Remote Procedure Call (RPC): Call procedure on remote machine or in remote domain
  - Provides same interface as procedure
  - Automatic packing and unpacking of arguments without user programming (in stub)
  - Adapts automatically to different hardware and software architectures at remote end
- Distributed File System:
  - Transparent access to files stored on a remote disk
  - Caching for performance