Course Snapshot

We have covered all the fundamental OS components:

- Architecture and OS interactions
- Processes and threads
- Synchronization and deadlock
- Process scheduling
- Memory management
- File systems and I/O



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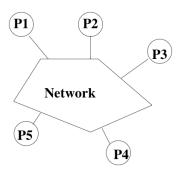
The Next Few Classes

- Distributed Systems
 - Networking Basics
 - Distributed services (email, www, telnet)
 - Distributed Operating Systems
 - Distributed File Systems
- Guest lectures and special topics
 - Linux



Distributed Systems

• **Distributed system:** a set of physically separate processors connected by one or more communication links



- Nearly all systems today are distributed in some way.
 - Email, file servers, network printers, remote backup, world wide web



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Parallel versus Distributed Systems

- **Tightly-coupled systems:** "parallel processing"
 - Processors share clock, memory, and run one OS
 - Frequent communication
- Loosely-coupled systems: "distributed computing"
 - Each processor has its own memory
 - Each processor runs an independent OS
 - Communication should be less frequent



Advantages of Distributed Systems

Resource sharing:

- Resources need not be replicated at each processor (for example, shared files)
- Expensive (scarce) resources can be shared (for example, printers)
- Each processor can present the same environment to the user (for example, by keeping files on a file server)

Computational speedup:

- n processors potentially gives you n times the computational power
- Problems must be decomposable into subproblems
- Coordination and communication between cooperating processes (synchronization, exchange of results) is needed.



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Advantages of Distributed Systems

Reliability:

- Replication of resources yields fault tolerance.
- For example, if one node crashes, the user can work on another.
- Performance will degrade, but system remains operational.
- However, if some component of the system is centralized, a single point of failure may result
- Example: If an Edlab workstation crashes, you can use another workstation. If the file server crashes, none of the workstations are useful.

Communication:

- Users/processes on different systems can communicate.
- For example, mail, transaction processing systems like airlines, and banks, WWW.



Distributed Systems

- Modern work environments are distributed => operating systems need to be distributed
- What do we need to consider when building these systems?
 - Communication and networks
 - Transparency (how visible is the distribution?)
 - Security
 - Reliability
 - Performance and scalability
 - Programming models



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Distributed System Design

What gets harder when we move from a stand alone system to a distributed environment?

- resource sharing
- timing (e.g., synchronization)
- critical sections
- deadlock detection and recovery
- failure recovery



Networks

- Networks are usually concerned with providing efficient, correct, and robust message passing between two separate nodes.
- Local Area Network (LAN) usually connects nodes in a single building and needs to be fast and reliable (for example, Ethernet).
 - Media: twisted-pair, coaxial cable, fiber optics
 - **Typical bandwidth:** 10-100-1000 Mb/s (10Gb/s now available)
- Wide Area Network (WAN) connects nodes across the state, country, or planet.
 - WANs are typically slower and less reliable than LAN (for example, Internet).
 - **Media:** telephone lines (T1 service), microwave links, satellite channels
 - **Typical bandwidth:** 1.544 Mb/s (T1), 45 Mb/s (T3)



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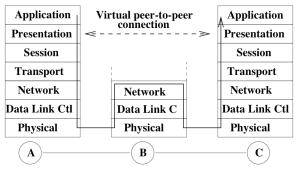
Principles of Network Communication

- Data sent into the network is chopped into "packets", the network's basic transmission unit.
- Packets are sent through the network.
- Computers at the switching points control the packet flow.
- Analogy: cars/road/police packets/network/computer
- Shared resources can lead to contention (traffic jams).
- Analogy:
 - Shared node Mullins Center
 - Shared link bridge



Communication Protocols

- Protocol: a set of rules for communication that are agreed to by all parties
- Protocol stack : networking software is structured into layers
 - Each layer N, provides a service to layer N+1, by using its own layer N procedures and the interface to the N-1 layer.
 - Example: International Standards Organization/ Open Systems Interconnect (ISO/OSI)





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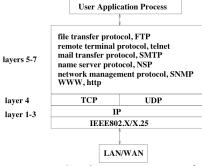
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ISO Network Protocol Stack

- **Application layer:** applications that use the net, e.g., mail, netscape, X-services, ftp, telnet, provide a UI
- **Presentation layer:** data format conversion, e.g., big/little endian integer format)
- **Session layer:** implements the communication strategy, such as RPC. Provided by libraries.
- **Transport layer:** reliable end-to-end communication between any set of nodes. Provided by OS.
- **Network layer:** routing and congestion control. Usually implemented in OS.
- **Data Link Control layer:** reliable point-to-point communication of packets over an unreliable channel. Sometimes implemented in hardware, sometimes in software (PPP).
- **Physical layer:** electrical/optical signaling across a "wire". Deals with timing issues. Implemented in hardware.



TCP/IP Protocol Stack



- Most Internet sites use TCP/IP Transmission Control Protocol/ Internet Protocol.
 - It has fewer layers than ISO to increase efficiency.
 - Consists of a suite of protocols: UDP, TCP, IP...
 - TCP is a reliable protocol -- packets are received in the order they are sent
 - UDP (user datagram protocol) an unreliable protocol (no guarantee of delivery).

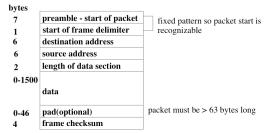


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Packet

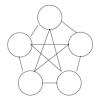
- Each message is chopped into packets.
 - Each packet contains all the information needed to recreate the original message.
 - For example, packets may arrive out of order and the destination node must be able to put them back into order.
 - Ethernet Packet Contents



 The data segment of the packet contains headers for higher protocol layers and actual application data



Point-to-Point Network Topologies



Fully Connected

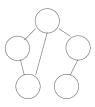
- Fully connected: all nodes connected to all other nodes
 - Each message takes only a single "hop", i.e., goes directly to the destination without going through any other node
 - Failure of any one node does not affect communication between other nodes
 - Expensive, especially with lots of nodes, not practical for WANs



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Point-to-Point Network Topologies

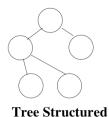


Partially Connected

- Partially connected: links between some, but not all nodes
 - Less expensive, but less tolerant to failures. A single failure can partition the network.
 - Sending a message to a node may have to go through several other nodes
 => need routing algorithms.
 - WANs typically use this structure.



Point-to-Point Networks Topologies



• Tree structure: network hierarchy

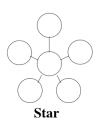
- All messages between direct descendants are fast, but messages between "cousins" must go up to a common ancestor and then back down.
- Some corporate networks use this topology, since it matches a hierarchical world view...
- Not tolerant of failures. If any interior node fails, the network is partitioned.



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Point-to-Point Networks Topologies

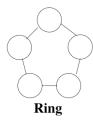


• Star: - all nodes connect to a single centralized node

- The central site is generally dedicated to network traffic.
- Each message takes only two hops.
- If one piece of hardware fails, that disconnects the entire network.
- Inexpensive, and sometimes used for LAN



Ring Networks Topologies



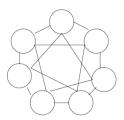
- One directional ring nodes can only send in one direction.
 - Given *n* nodes, message may need to go *n-1* hops.
 - Inexpensive, but one failure partitions the network.
- **Bi-directional ring** nodes can send in either direction.
 - With *n* nodes, a message needs to go at at most n/2 hops.
 - Inexpensive, tolerates a single failure by increasing message hops. Two failures partition the network.



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Ring Networks Topologies

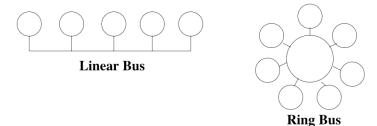


Doubly Linked Ring

- Doubly connected ring nodes connected to neighbors and one away neighbors
 - A message takes at most n/4 hops.
 - More expensive, but more tolerant of failures.



Bus Network Topologies



- Bus nodes connect to a common network
- **Linear bus** single shared link
 - Nodes connect directly to each other using multiaccess bus technology.
 - Inexpensive (linear in the number of nodes) and tolerant of node failures.
 - Ethernet LAN use this structure.
- Ring bus single shared circular link
 - Same technology and tradeoffs as a linear bus.



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Resource Sharing

There are many mechanisms for sharing (hardware, software, data) resources.

- Data Migration: moving the data around
- Computation Migration: move the computation to the data
- **Job Migration**: moving the job (computation and data) or part of the job
- => The fundamental tradeoff in resource sharing is to complete user instructions as fast and as cheaply as possible. (Fast and cheap are usually incompatible.)

If communication is cheap: use all resources

If computation is slow/expensive: local processing

Reality is somewhere in between



Client/Server Model

- One of the most common models for structuring distributed computation is by using the *client/server* paradigm.
 - A *server* is a process or collection of processes that provide a service, e.g., name service, file service, database service, etc.
 - The server may exist on one or more nodes.
 - A *client* is a program that uses the service.
 - A client first binds to the server, i.e., locates it in the network and establishes a connection.
 - The client then sends the server a request to perform some action. The server sends back a response.
 - RPC is one common way this structure is implemented.



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Remote Procedure Call

Basic idea:

- Servers export procedures for some set of clients to call.
- To use the server, the client does a procedure call.
- OS manages the communication.

Remote Procedure Call: Implementation Issues

For each procedure on which we want to support RPC:

- The RPC mechanism uses the procedure *signature* (number and type of arguments and return value)
 - to generate a client stub that bundles up the RPC arguments and sends it off to the server, and
 - to generate the server stub that unpacks the message, and makes the procedure call.



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Remote Procedure Call: Implementation Issues

Client Stub:

Server Stub:

build message send message wait for response unpack reply return result create threads
loop
wait for a command
unpack request parameters
call procedure with thread
build reply with result(s)
send reply

end loop

Comparison between RPC and a regular procedure call

- Name of procedure
- Parameters
- Result
- Return address



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Remote Procedure Call

- How does the client know the right port?
 - The binding can be static fixed at compile time.
 - Or the binding can be dynamic fixed at runtime.
- In most RPC systems, dynamic binding is performed using a name service.
 - When the server starts up, it exports its interface and identifies itself to a network name server
 - The client, before issuing any calls, asks the name service for the location of a server whose name it knows and then establishes a connection with the server.



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Example: Remote Method Invocation (RMI) in Java

- Java provides the following classes/interfaces:
 - Naming: class that provides the calls to communicate with the remote object registry
 - public static void bind(String name, Remote obj) Binds a server to a name.
 - public static Remote lookup(String name) Returns the server object that corresponds to a name.
- UnicastRemoteObject: supports references to non-replicated remote objects using TCP, exports the interface automatically when the server object is constructed
- Java provides the following tools:
 - rmiregistry server-side name server
 - **rmic:** given the server interface, generates client and server stubs that create and interpret packets



Example: Server in Java

Server

- Defines an interface listing the signatures of methods the server will satisfy
- Implements each of the methods in the interface
- Main program for server:
 - Creates one or more server objects normal constructor call where the object being constructed is a subclass of RemoteObject
 - Registers the objects with the remote object registry

Client

- Looks up the server in the remote object registry
- Uses normal method call syntax for remote methods
- Should handle RemoteException



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Example: Hello World Server Interface

Declare the methods that the server provides:

```
package examples.hello;

// All servers must extend the Remote interface.
public interface Hello extends java.rmi.Remote {

    // Any remote method might throw RemoteException.
    // Indicates network failure.
    String sayHello() throws java.rmi.RemoteException;
}
```



Example: Hello World Server

```
package examples.hello;
import java.rmi.*;
import java.rmi.server.UnicastRemoteObject;

public class HelloImpl extends UnicastRemoteObject implements Hello
{
    public HelloImpl() throws RemoteException {
        // The superclass constructor exports the interface and gets a port super();
    }

public String sayHello() throws RemoteException {
        // This is the "service" provided.
        return "Hello World!";
    }
}
```



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Example: Hello World Server (contd)

```
public static void main(String args[])
{
    // Create and install a security manager
    System.setSecurityManager(new RMISecurityManager());

    // Construct the server object.
    HelloImpl obj = new HelloImpl();

    // Register the server with the name server.
    Naming.rebind("//myhost/HelloServer", obj);
}
```



Example: Hello World Client



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Example: Hello World Client (contd)

```
// Calls the sayHello method on the remote object.
message = obj.sayHello();
} catch (RemoteException e) {
    System.out.println("HelloApplet RemoteException caught");
}

public void paint(Graphics g) {
    // The applet will write the string returned by the remote method
    // call on the display.
    g.drawString(message, 25, 50);
}
```



Summary

- Virtually all computer systems contain distributed components
- Networks hook them together
- Networks make tradeoffs between speed, reliability, and expense



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