EEL-4736/5737 Principles of Computer System Design

Lecture Slides 6
Textbook Chapter 4
Client-service Organization – Enforcing
Modularity

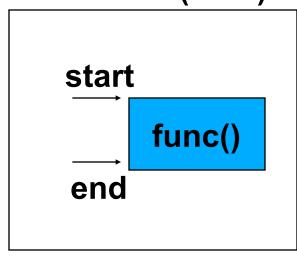
Introduction

- Modular design does not imply modularity is enforced
 - "Soft" modularity can be bypassed due to programming error, or malicious intent
- Let us study approaches that have been used to enforce modularity
 - Clients and services
 - Virtualization (ch 5)

An example

```
procedure MEASURE (func)
  start <- GET_TIME (SECONDS)
  func()
  end <- GET_TIME (SECONDS)
  return end-start</pre>
```

MEASURE(func)



```
procedure GET_TIME (units)
  time <- CLOCK
  time <- CONVERT_TO_UNITS (time, units)
  return time</pre>
```

Modularity

• Why?

- From the perspective of measurement, you want to measure a difference in seconds, and support multiple systems
 - Which units? Which syscall API?
- Split measurement from clock interactions
 - GET_TIME() can be different depending on hardware

How?

- Two procedures run in the same application process: same register set, same memory
- Procedure call stack convention implemented by compiler

Stack discipline

- Typical way to support for procedure calls stack memory abstraction
 - Push add to top of stack
 - Pop retrieve from top of stack
 - Different instruction sets implement this abstraction in different ways
 - PUSH/POP instructions
 - Stack pointers and loads/stores
 - Stack grow up or down
- At the end of invocation of a procedure
 - Should leave the stack as was found

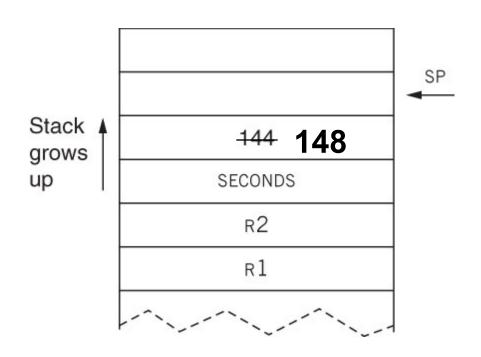
An example

```
procedure MEASURE (func)
                                                      Sta ck
                                                                SP
   start <- GET TIME (SECONDS)</pre>
                                                   Space for local
                                                    variables
                                          growing
   func()
                                                  Return address
                                                               Stack frame cal lee
                                            up
                                                    Argmets
   end <- GET TIME (SECONDS)</pre>
                                                 tempora ry reg isters
   return end-start
                                                   Space for local
                                                               Stack frame cal ler
                                                    variables
Start
                                                    end
procedure GET TIME (units)
   time <- CLOCK
   time <- CONVERT_TO UNITS (time, units)
   return time
```

RISC-like machine code

		MEASURE:
Save registers	STORE R1, SP	100:
that will use	ADD 4, SP	104:
	STORE R2, SP	108:
	ADD 4, SP	112:
Argument for callee	MOV SECONDS, R1	116:
J	STORE R1, SP	120:
	ADD 4, SP	124:
	MOV 148, R1	128:
Return address	STORE R1, SP	132:
	ADD 4, SP	136:
Call GET TIME	MOV 200, R1	140:
	JMP R1	144:
		148.

Peeking into the stack



RISC-like machine code

<u>GET TIME:</u> MOV SP, R1 200: Position R1 as index **SUB 8, R1** 204: to read R2=argument LOAD R1, R2 208: 212: ... get time body **R0** = return value 220: MOV time, R0 MOV SP, R1 224: Load return address **SUB 4, R1** 228: LOAD R1, PC 232:

148: Back to MEASURE; adjust stack (sub 16), restore registers R1, R2, use R0

Stack convention

- This example assumes that:
 - Callee leaves stack as it was found
 - Callee returns where caller told it to
 - Callee places return value in R0
 - Caller places values of temporary registers in stack not expecting callee to change them
- This is a convention
 - The compiler follows this convention when generating the machine code
- Suppose now that GET_TIME is linked to an object file

Stack convention

- This example assumes that:
 - Callee leaves stack as it was found
 - A mistake in GET TIME may set the wrong value for SP
 - Cascades to MEASURE getting incorrect values for R1, R2; other procedures which called MEASURE?
 - Callee returns where caller told it to
 - A malicious programmer can try to return somewhere else so to gain control of sensitive information
 - Caller places values of temporary registers in stack not expecting callee to change them
 - Mistake may cause callee to overwrite stack and register values restored
- Caller will fail if convention is not followed
 - Specification; without enforcement

Other opportunities

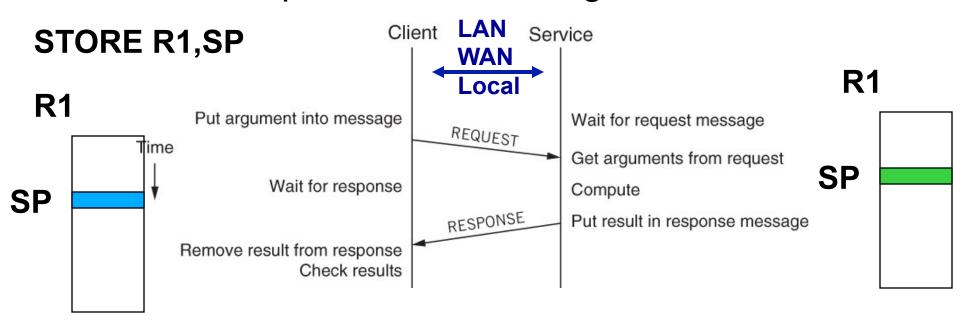
- Errors can propagate when memory is improperly modified
 - E.g. a procedure that is passed a pointer to a data structure
 - Global variables
- Procedures share the same memory name space and the same register set
 - The same context a process

Language and run-time support

- Languages have evolved to support techniques to 'beef up' soft modularity
 - "Strongly typed" Java and C#
 - Language and runtime restricts that programs write only to memory locations that correspond to variables managed by the language
 - In accordance with their type
 - E.g. cannot use an Integer variable as an address of a memory location
- Still, many applications or modules written in languages that don't enforce modularity

Client/Service Organization

- Limit interaction among modules to explicit messages
 - Contrast with the previous example, where both procedures are in the same memory name space and share registers



Client/service organization

- Benefits
 - Isolation
 - Ability to run clients/services across two or more computers
 - Scalability, redundancy
- Disadvantage
 - Performance cost
 - Packing and sending messages has an overhead

Revisiting our example

```
procedure MEASURE (func)
    SEND_MESSAGE (NameForTimeService, {"Get Time",
    CONVERT2EXTERNAL(SECONDS)})
    response <- RECEIVE_MESSAGE (NameForClient)
    start <- CONVERT2INTERNAL (response)
    func()
...</pre>
```

Revisiting our example

```
procedure TIME_ SERVICE ()
  do forever
  request <- RECEIVE MESSAGE (NameForTimeService)
  opcode <- GET OPCODE (request)</pre>
  unit <- CONVERT2INTERNAL
  (GET ARGUMENT(request))
  if opcode = "Get time" and (unit = SECONDS or unit =
  MINUTES) then
     time <- CONVERT TO UNITS (CLOCK, unit)
     response <- {"OK", CONVERT2EXTERNAL(time)}
  else
     response <- {"Bad request"}
  SEND MESSAGE (NameForClient, response)
```

New things to worry about

CONVERT2INTERNAL / EXTERNAL

 Two computers may use different internal representations for data – big endian, little endian

Words	0				1			
Bytes	0	1		7	0	1		7
Bits	20 21 22			2 ⁶³	2 ⁰ 2 ¹ 2 ²			2 ⁶³

Words	n				n-1			
Bytes	7		1	0	7		1	0
Bits	2 ⁶³			22 21 20	2 ⁶³			22 21 20

Send 0xABCDh, receive 0xDCBAh

New things to worry about

- Marshaling
 - Conversion of all data to be sent in a message into an array of bytes
 - Suitable for transmission and proper conversion to an object by the receiver
- Need to name and discover client and service endpoints
- Need to name and discover which services are exposed and their interface

Enforcing modularity

- Client/service don't rely on shared state
 - E.g. a stack or global variables
 - Failure in one does not directly corrupt data in the other
- Many errors cannot propagate
 - Client does not need to trust the service to return to appropriate return address
 - The service does not control that
 - Arguments can be checked when unmarshalled

Enforcing modularity

- Client can recover from service failure
 - Service goes into infinite loop?
 - Client can time out on waiting for response
 - Client may initiate a recovery process e.g. try a backup, redundant service
 - Setting appropriate timers is not trivial
 - Added complexity that needs to be incorporated in the program (MEASURE example does not have it)

Summary

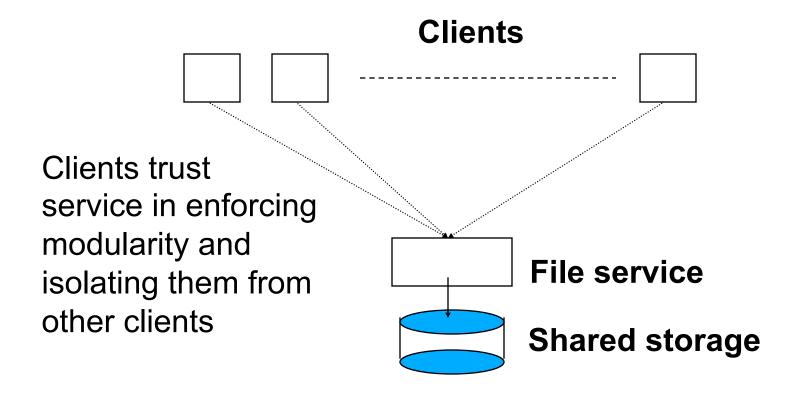
- Example of sweeping simplification
 - Remove all forms of interaction other than messages
- An improvement, but not a panacea
 - Service may allow messages to result in writes of value to any address in its space
- Trade-off
 - Shared data: ease of access within module
 - But, opportunity of error propagation
- Performance considerations put a bound on the size of modules

Additional flexibility

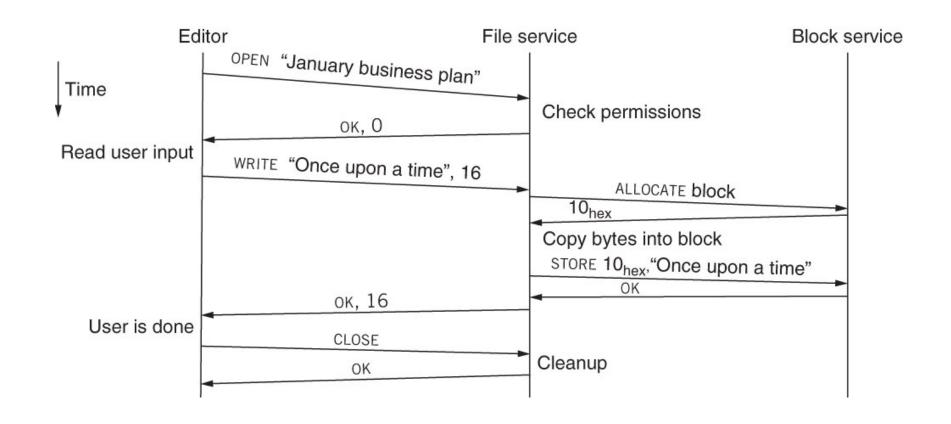
- One service can work for multiple clients
 - E.g. a printer or file server
- One client can use several services
 - E.g. a Web browser
- Single module can be both client and service
 - E.g. a proxy/cache

Trusted intermediaries

Example: file service



File service



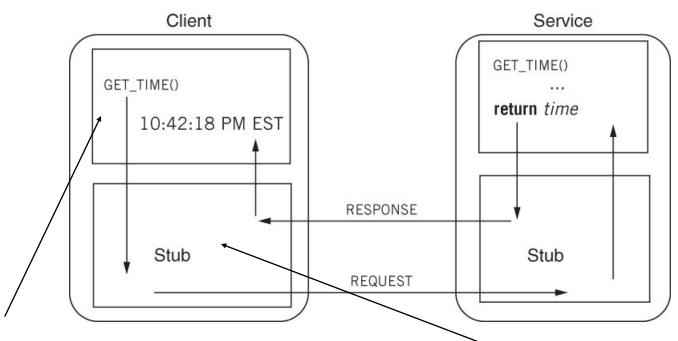
Trusted intermediaries

- There are general downsides
 - Vulnerability in the trusted intermediary can break the modularity enforced by the server
 - (Distributed) denial-of-service
 - Other clients bring service to a crawl
 - Vulnerability exploit
 - E.g. may gain access to other client's files
 - Must trust the intermediary
 - Eavesdropping? Privacy? Censorship?
- Peer-to-peer computing
 - Without intermediaries
 - Each peer a client and a service

Remote Procedure Call - RPC

- A typical client/service interaction has similar semantics to a procedure call
 - Client sends message to initiate a call to a named function with arguments
 - Service receives message, retrieves arguments, processes function
 - Service sends message with return value
 - Client receives message, retrieves return value
- Such a common pattern that it is useful to provide an abstraction and convenient APIs that hides implementation details

RPCs



procedure MEASURE (func)

start <- GET_TIME (SECONDS)</pre>

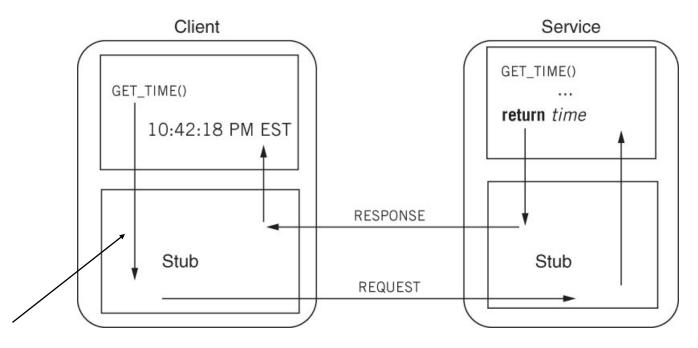
func()

end <- GET_TIME (SECONDS)</pre>

return end-start

Hides marshalling, communication details

RPCs



procedure GET_TIME (unit)

SEND_MESSAGE (NameForTimeService, {"Get Time", unit})

response <- RECEIVE_MESSAGE (NameForClient)
return response</pre>

Using RPCs

- Stubs can be generated automatically
- Need additional logic to handle faults

```
procedure MEASURE (func)
      try
             start <- GET TIME(SECONDS)</pre>
      catch (signal servicefailed)
             return servicefailed
      func ()
      try
             end <- GET TIME(SECONDS)</pre>
      catch (signal servicefailed)
             return servicefailed
      return end - start
```

RPC!=PC

- RPCs take more time than PCs
- RPCs can reduce "fate sharing"
 - Callee failure causes caller to also fail
- RPCs introduce new failures that are not present in procedure calls
 - Service failure
 - No response, timeout
 - How to handle this? Not possible to determine if no response happened before or after service performed the action

Dealing with no-response

- At-least-once RPC:
 - Client stub re-sends as many times as needed until it gets a response
 - Client stub may still give up, after multiple retries – cannot provide guarantee implied by name
 - Service needs to be ready to execute many times the same request
 - Read? Write? Append?
 - Side-effect-free / idempotent operations

Dealing with no-response

- At-most-once RPC:
 - Client tries once; if no response, stub returns error to caller
 - More appropriate for requests with side effects
 - E.g. RPC to transfer funds from one account to another – at-most-once to avoid undesired transfers
 - Implementation needs to account for the underlying network – which may duplicate messages

Dealing with no-response

- Exactly-once RPC
 - Ideal semantics, but in principle impossible to guarantee if client and service are independent
 - What if service goes away forever?
 - Techniques can be used to implement an approximation of this semantics under certain assumptions

Reading

• Sections 4.2, 4.3, 4.5