Module 3
Accessing Remote Resources
Two Issues

• Remote service invocation
  ➔ How do we request services from remote objects

• Distributed naming
  ➔ How do we assign and know the names of remote objects
Remote Service Invocation
Programming Models for Distributed Applications

- Remote Procedure Call (RPC)
  - Extension of the conventional procedure call model
  - Allows client programs to call procedures in server programs

- Remote Method Invocation (RMI)
  - Object-oriented
  - Extension of local method invocation
  - Allows an object in one process to invoke the methods of an object in another process

- Message-Based Communication
  - Allows sender and receiver to communicate without blocking and without the receiver having to be running
Essentials of Interprocess Communication

- Ability to communicate - exchange messages
  - This is the responsibility of the networks and the request-reply protocol
- Ability to “talk” meaningfully
  - Interfaces
  - Processes have to be able to understand what each other is sending
    ✦ Agreed standards for data representation
Interface

- Defines what each module can do in a distributed system
- Service interface (in RPC model)
  - specification of procedures offered by a server
- Remote interface (in RMI model)
  - specification of methods of an object that can be invoked by objects in other processes
- Example: CORBA IDL

```idl
// In file Person.idl
Struct Person {
    string name;
    string place;
    long year;
};

Interface PersonList {
    readonly attribute string listname;
    void addPerson(in Person p);
    void getPerson(in string name, out Person p);
    long number();
};
```
Remote Procedure Call (RPC)

• Extension of the familiar procedure call semantics to distributed systems (with a few twists)
• Allows programs to call procedures on other machines
• Process on machine A calls a procedure on machine B:
  ➡ The calling process on A is suspended; and execution of the called procedure takes place on B;
  ➡ Information can be transported from the caller to the callee in the parameters; and information can come back in the procedure result
  ➡ No message passing or I/O at all is visible to the programmer
• Subtle problems:
  ➡ Calling and called procedures execute in different address spaces
  ➡ Parameters and results have to be passed, sometimes between different machines
  ➡ Both machines can crash
Local Procedure Call

Consider a C program with the following call in the main program:

\[
\text{count} = \text{read}(\text{fd}, \text{buf}, \text{nbytes})
\]

where \text{fd} (file descriptor) and \text{nbytes} (no. bytes to read) are integers, and \text{buf} (buffer into which data are read) is an array of characters.

The read routine is extracted from library by linker and inserted into the object program. It puts the parameters in registers and issues a READ system call by trapping to the kernel.
RPC Operation

- Objective: Make interprocess communication among remote processes similar to local ones (i.e., make distribution of processes transparent)
- RPC achieves its transparency in a way analogous to the read operation in a traditional single processor system
  - When read is a remote procedure (that will run on the file server’s machine), a different version of read, called client stub, is put into the library
  - Like the original read, client stub is called using the calling sequence described in previous slide
  - Also, like the original read, client stub traps to the kernel
  - Only unlike the original read, it does not put the parameters in registers and ask the kernel to give it data
  - Instead, it packs the parameters into a message and asks the kernel to send the message to the server
  - Following the call to send, client stub calls receive, blocking itself until the reply comes back
  - When reply returns, extract results and return to caller.
RPC Operation (2)

1. Client procedure calls the stub as local call
2. Client stub builds the message and calls the local OS
3. Client OS sends msg to server OS
4. Server OS hands over the message to server stub
5. Server stubs unpacks parameters and calls server procedure
6. Server procedure does its work and returns results to server stub
7. Server stub packs results in a message and calls its local OS
8. Server OS sends msg to client OS
9. Client OS hands over the message to client stub
10. Client stubs unpacks result and returns from procedure call
Parameter Passing

- Parameter passing by value
  - Compose messages that consist of structures for values
  - Problem: Multiple machine types in a distributed system. Each often has its own representation for data! ➔ Agree on data representation

- Parameter passing by reference
  - Difficult
  - Use copy/restore

Kernel

Client machine

```
.  
.  
n=sum(4,7);  
.  
```

Message

```
sum
4 7
```

Parameter passing by value

Stubs

Server machine

```
sum(i,j)
int i,j;
{
return(i+j);
}
```

Kernel
Five different classes of failures can occur in RPC systems:
- The client is unable to locate the server
- The request message from the client to the server is lost
- The reply message from the server to the client is lost
- The server crashes after receiving a request
- The client crashes after sending a request
Client Cannot Locate the Server

• Examples:
  ➡ Server might be down
  ➡ Server evolves (new version of the interface installed and new stubs generated) while the client is compiled with an older version of the client stub

• Possible solutions:
  ➡ Use a special code, such as “-1”, as the return value of the procedure to indicate failure. In Unix, add a new error type and assign the corresponding value to the global variable `errno`.
    ✦ “-1” can be a legal value to be returned, e.g., `sum(7, -8)`
  ➡ Have the error raise an exception (like in ADA) or a signal (like in C).
    ✦ Not every language has exceptions/signals (e.g., Pascal). Writing an exception/signal handler destroys the transparency
Lost Request Message

- Kernel starts a timer when sending the message:
  - If timer expires before reply or ACK comes back: Kernel retransmits
  - If message truly lost: Server will not differentiate between original and retransmission ➔ everything will work fine
  - If many requests are lost: Kernel gives up and falsely concludes that the server is down ➔ we are back to “Cannot locate server”
Lost Reply Message

- Kernel starts a timer when sending the message:
  - If timer expires before reply comes back: Retransmits the request
    - Problem: Not sure why no reply (reply/request lost or server slow)?
  - If server is just slow: The procedure will be executed several times
    - Problem: What if the request is not idempotent, e.g. money transfer
  - Way out: Client’s kernel assigns sequence numbers to requests to allow server’s kernel to differentiate retransmissions from original
Server crashes

- Problem: Clients’ kernel cannot differentiate between (b) and (c)
  (Note: Crash can occur before Receive, but this is the same as (c).)
- 3 schools of thought exist on what to do here:
  - Wait until the server reboots and try the operation again. Guarantees that RPC has been executed at least one time (at least once semantics)
  - Give up immediately and report back failure. Guarantees that RPC has been carried out at most one time (at most once semantics)
  - Client gets no help. Guarantees nothing (RPC may have been carried out anywhere from 0 to a large number). Easy to implement.
Client Crashes

• Client sends a request and crashes before the server replies: A computation is active and no parent is waiting for result (orphan)
  ➡ Orphans waste CPU cycles and can lock files or tie up valuable resources
  ➡ Orphans can cause confusion (client reboots and does RPC again, but the reply from the orphan comes back immediately afterwards)

• Possible solutions
  ➡ Extermination: Before a client stub sends an RPC, it makes a log entry (in safe storage) telling what it is about to do. After a reboot, the log is checked and the orphan explicitly killed off.
    ✦ Expense of writing a disk record for every RPC; orphans may do RPCs, thus creating grand orphans impossible to locate; impossibility to kill orphans if the network is partitioned due to failure.
Client Crashes (2)

- Possible solutions (cont’d)
  - **Reincarnation**: Divide time up into sequentially numbered epochs. When a client reboots, it broadcasts a message declaring the start of a new epoch. When broadcast comes, all remote computations are killed. Solve problem without the need to write disk records
    ✦ If network is partitioned, some orphans may survive. But, when they report back, they are easily detected given their obsolete epoch number
  - **Gentle reincarnation**: A variant of previous one, but less Draconian
    ✦ When an epoch broadcast comes in, each machine that has remote computations tries to locate their owner. A computation is killed only if the owner cannot be found
  - **Expiration**: Each RPC is given a standard amount of time, $T$, to do the job. If it cannot finish, it must explicitly ask for another quantum.
    ✦ Choosing a reasonable value of $T$ in the face of RPCs with wildly differing requirements is difficult
Asynchronous RPC

Traditional (synchronous) RPC interaction

Asynchronous RPC interaction

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A client and server interacting through two asynchronous RPCs
Where do stub procedures come from?

- In many systems, stub procedures are generated automatically by a special stub compiler.
- Given a specification of the server procedure and the encoding rules, the message format is uniquely determined.
- It is, thus, possible to have a compiler read the server specification and generate a client stub that packs its parameters into the officially approved message format.
- Similarly, the compiler can also produce a server stub that unpacks the parameters and calls the server.

Having both stub procedures generated from a single formal spec. of the server not only make life easier for the programmers, but reduces the chance of error and makes the system transparent with respect to differences in internal representation of data.
Writing Clients/Servers (using DCE RPC)

How does the client locate the server?

- Hardwire the server address into the client
  - Fast but inflexible!

- A better method is **dynamic binding**:
  - When the server begins executing, the call to initialize outside the main loop **exports** the server interface
  - This means that the server sends a message to a program called a **binder**, to make its existence known. This process is referred to as **registering**
  - To register, the server gives the binder its name, its version number, a unique identifier (32-bits), and a **handle** used to locate it
  - The handle is system dependent (e.g., Ethernet address, IP address, an X.500 address, ...)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Binder interface</th>
<th>Call</th>
<th>Input</th>
<th>Output</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Register</td>
<td>Name, version, handle, unique id</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deregister</td>
<td>Name, version, unique id</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Dynamic Binding

• When the client calls one of the remote procedures for the first time, say, read:
  ➡ The client stub sees that it is not yet bound to a server, so it sends a message to the binder asking to import version x of server interface
  ➡ The binder checks to see if one or more servers have already exported an interface with this name and version number.
    ✦ If no currently running server is willing to support this interface, the read call fails
    ✦ If a suitable server exists, the binder gives its handle and unique identifier to the client stub
  ➡ Client stub uses the handle as the address to send the request message to. The message contains the parameters and a unique identifier, which the server’s kernel uses to direct incoming message to the correct server
Dynamic Binding (2)

- **Advantages**
  - **Flexibility**
  - Can support multiple servers that support the same interface, e.g.:
    - Binder can spread the clients randomly over the servers to even load
    - Binder can poll the servers periodically, automatically deregistering the servers that fail to respond, to achieve a degree of fault tolerance
    - Binder can assist in authentication: For example, a server specifies a list of users that can use it; the binder will refuse to tell users not on the list about the server
  - The binder can verify that both client and server are using the same version of the interface

- **Disadvantages**
  - The extra overhead of exporting/importing interfaces costs time
  - The binder may become a bottleneck in a large distributed system
Message-Based Communication

• Lower-level interface to provide more flexibility
• Two (abstract) primitives are used to implement these
  ➔ send
  ➔ receive
• Issues:
  ➔ Are primitives blocking or nonblocking (synchronous or asynchronous)?
  ➔ Are primitives reliable or unreliable (persistent or transient)?
Synchronous/Asynchronous Messaging

• Synchronous
  ➡ The sender is blocked until its message is stored in the local buffer at the receiving host or delivered to the receiver.

• Asynchronous
  ➡ The sender continues immediately after executing a send
  ➡ The message is stored in the local buffer at the sending host or at the first communication server.
Transient/Persistent Messaging

• Transient
  ➔ The sender puts the message on the net and if it cannot be delivered to the sender or to the next communication host, it is lost.
  ➔ There can be different types depending on whether it is asynchronous or synchronous

• Persistent
  ➔ The message is stored in the communication system as long as it takes to deliver the message to the receiver
## Socket Primitives for TCP/IP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primitive</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Socket</td>
<td>Create a new communication endpoint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bind</td>
<td>Attach a local address to a socket</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listen</td>
<td>Announce willingness to accept connections</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accept</td>
<td>Block caller until a connection request arrives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Connect</td>
<td>Actively attempt to establish a connection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Send</td>
<td>Send some data over the connection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receive</td>
<td>Receive some data over the connection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Close</td>
<td>Release the connection</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Connection-Oriented Communication Using Sockets

Server

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>socket</th>
<th>bind</th>
<th>listen</th>
<th>accept</th>
<th>read</th>
<th>write</th>
<th>close</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Synchronization point

Client

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>socket</th>
<th>connect</th>
<th>write</th>
<th>read</th>
<th>close</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

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CS655
Persistent Messaging

• Usually called message-queuing system, since it involves queues at both ends
  ➔ Sender application has a queue
  ➔ Receiver application has a queue
  ➔ Receiver does not have to be active when sender puts a message into sender queue
  ➔ Sender does not have to be active when receiver picks up a message from its queue

• Basic interface:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primitive</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Put</td>
<td>Append a message to a specified queue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Get</td>
<td>Block until the specified queue is nonempty, and remove the first message</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poll</td>
<td>Check a specified queue for messages, and remove the first. Never block</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Notify</td>
<td>Install a handler to be called when a message is put into the specified queue</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Different Message Queuing Models

(a) Sender running \rightarrow Receiver running

(b) Sender running \rightarrow Receiver passive

(c) Sender passive \rightarrow Receiver running

(d) Sender passive \rightarrow Receiver passive
General Architecture of a Message-Queuing System (1)

- The relationship between queue-level addressing and network-level addressing.

General Architecture of a Message-Queuing System (2)

• The general organization of a message-queuing system with routers.

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Message Brokers

The general organization of a message broker in a message-queuing system.

Distributed Naming
Names, Addresses, etc.

• Names
  ➔ Identification of objects
    ✦ Resource sharing: Internet domain names
    ✦ Communication: domain name part of email address
  ➔ How much information about an object is in a name?
    ✦ Pure names: uninterpreted bit patterns
    ✦ Non-pure names: contain information about the object, e. g., its location

• Name Services
  ➔ Entries of the form <name, attributes>, where attributes are typically network addresses
  ➔ Type of lookup queries
    ✦ name ➔ attribute values
    ✦ also called name resolution

• Directory Services
  ➔ <name, attributes> entries
  ➔ Types of lookup queries
    ✦ name ➔ attribute values
    ✦ attribute values ➔ names
Composed Naming Domains

URL


DNS lookup

Resource ID (IP number, port number, pathname)

55.55.55.55 8888 WebExamples/earth.html

Network address

2:60:8c:2:b0:5a

Web server

Socket

file

Requirements on Name Services

• Usage of a convention for unique global naming
  ➔ Enables sharing
  ➔ It is often not easily predictable which services will eventually share resources
• Scalability
  ➔ Naming directories tend to grow very fast, in particular in Internet
• Consistency
  ➔ Short and mid-term inconsistencies tolerable
  ➔ In the long term, system should converge towards a consistent state
• Performance and availability
  ➔ Speed and availability of lookup operations
  ➔ Name services are at the heart of many distributed applications
• Adaptability to change
  ➔ Organizations frequently change structure during lifetime
• Fault isolation
  ➔ System should tolerate failure of some of its servers
Name Spaces

• Set of all valid names to be used in a certain context, e. g., all valid URLs in WWW
• Can be described using a generative grammar (e. g., BNF for URLs)
• Internal structure
  ➡ Flat set of numeric or symbolic identifiers
  ➡ Hierarchy representing position (e. g., UNIX file system)
  ➡ Hierarchy representing organizational structure (e. g., Internet domains)
• Potentially infinite
  ➡ Holds only for hierarchic name spaces
  ➡ Flat name spaces finite size induced by max. name length
• Aliases
  ➡ In general, allows a convenient name to be substituted for a more complicated one
• Naming domain
  ➡ Name space for which there exist a single administrative authority for assigning names within it
Naming Graph with Single Root

Data stored in n1

n2: "elke"
n3: "max"
n4: "steen"

Leaf node

Directory node

n0

home

keys

elke

max

steen

.nwmc

mbox

"/keys"

"/home/steen/keys"

"/home/steen/mbox"
An example partitioning of the DNS name space, including Internet-accessible files, into three layers.

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A comparison between name servers for implementing nodes from a large-scale name space partitioned into a global layer, as an administrational layer, and a managerial layer.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Global</th>
<th>Administrational</th>
<th>Managerial</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Geographical scale of network</td>
<td>Worldwide</td>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>Department</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number of nodes</td>
<td>Few</td>
<td>Many</td>
<td>Vast numbers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsiveness to lookups</td>
<td>Seconds</td>
<td>Milliseconds</td>
<td>Immediate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Update propagation</td>
<td>Lazy</td>
<td>Immediate</td>
<td>Immediate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of replicas</td>
<td>Many</td>
<td>None or few</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is client-side caching applied?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Tanenbaum and van Steen, Distributed Systems: Principles and Paradigms, 2nd edition
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Issues in Name & Directory Services

• Partitioning
  ➔ No one name server can hold all name and attribute entries for entire network, in particular in Internet
  ➔ Name server data partitioned according to domain

• Replication
  ➔ A domain has usually more than one name server
  ➔ Availability and performance are enhanced

• Caching
  ➔ Servers may cache name resolutions performed on other servers
    ✦ Avoids repeatedly contacting the same name server to look up identical names
  ➔ Client lookup software may equally cache results of previous requests
Name Resolution

• Translation of a name into the related primitive attribute
• Often, an iterative process
  ➡ Name service returns attributes if the resolution can be performed in it’s naming context
  ➡ Name service refers query to another context if name can’t be resolved in own context
• Deal with cyclic alias references, if present
  ➡ Abort resolution after a predefined number of attempts, if no result obtained
Iterative Navigation Example

1. \(<\text{nl}, \text{vu}, \text{cs}, \text{ftp}>\)
2. \(#<\text{nl}>, <\text{vu}, \text{cs}, \text{ftp}>\)
3. \(<\text{vu}, \text{cs}, \text{ftp}>\)
4. \(#<\text{vu}>, <\text{cs}, \text{ftp}>\)
5. \(<\text{cs}, \text{ftp}>\)
6. \(#<\text{cs}>, <\text{ftp}>\)
7. \(<\text{ftp}>\)
8. \(#<\text{ftp}>\)

Nodes are managed by the same server

Navigation (2)

• Non-recursive, server-controlled
  ➡ Server contacts peers if it cannot resolve name itself
    ✦ by multicast or iteratively by direct contact

• Recursive, server-controlled
  ➡ If name cannot be resolved, server contacts superior server responsible for a larger prefix of the name space
    ✦ recursively applied until name resolved
    ✦ can be used when clients and low-level servers are not entitled to directly contact high-level servers
Recursive Navigation Example

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Recursive Name Resolution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Server for node</th>
<th>Should resolve</th>
<th>Looks up</th>
<th>Passes to child</th>
<th>Receives and caches</th>
<th>Returns to requester</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cs</td>
<td>&lt;ftp&gt;</td>
<td>#&lt;ftp&gt;</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>#&lt;ftp&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vu</td>
<td>&lt;cs,ftp&gt;</td>
<td>#&lt;cs&gt;</td>
<td>&lt;ftp&gt;</td>
<td>#&lt;ftp&gt;</td>
<td>#&lt;cs&gt; #&lt;cs, ftp&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nl</td>
<td>&lt;vu,cs,ftp&gt;</td>
<td>#&lt;vu&gt;</td>
<td>&lt;cs,ftp&gt;</td>
<td>#&lt;cs&gt; #&lt;cs,ftp&gt;</td>
<td>#&lt;vu&gt; #&lt;vu,cs&gt; #&lt;vu,cs,ftp&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>root</td>
<td>&lt;nl,vu,cs,ftp&gt;</td>
<td>#&lt;nl&gt;</td>
<td>&lt;vu,cs,ftp&gt;</td>
<td>#&lt;vu&gt; #&lt;vu,cs&gt; #&lt;vu,cs,ftp&gt;</td>
<td>#&lt;nl&gt; #&lt;nl,vu&gt; #&lt;nl,vu,cs&gt; #&lt;nl,vu,cs,ftp&gt;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Recursive name resolution of <nl, vu, cs, ftp>. Name servers cache intermediate results for subsequent lookups.
Communication Cost Comparison of Iterative vs Recursive

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Name & Directory Services

- Domain Name System (DNS)
  - Name service used across the Internet

- X. 500
  - ITU - standardized directory service

- LDAP
  - Directory service
  - Lightweight implementation of X.500
  - Often used in intranets

- Jini
  - Discovery service used in spontaneous networking
  - Contains directory service component
Domain Name System (DNS)

- Performs name-to-IP mapping
- Distributed database
  ➡ implemented in hierarchy of many name servers
- Application-layer protocol
  ➡ host, routers, name servers to communicate to resolve names (address/name translation)
- Why not centralize DNS?
  ➡ single point of failure
  ➡ traffic volume
  ➡ distant centralized database
  ➡ maintenance
  ➡ doesn’t scale!
DNS Types

• No server has all name-to-IP address mappings
• Local name servers
  → Each ISP, company has local (default) name server
  → Host DNS query first goes to local name server
• Authoritative name server
  → For a host: stores that host’s IP address, name
  → Can perform name-to-address translation for that host’s name
• Root name server
  → Establishes a rooted tree of DNSs
DNS: Root Name Servers

- Contacted by local name server that can not resolve name
- Root name server:
  - contacts authoritative name server if name mapping not known
  - gets mapping
  - returns mapping to local name server
- Approximately dozen root name servers worldwide
Simple DNS Example

Host \textbf{db.utoronto.ca} wants IP address of \textbf{akcay.math.uwaterloo.ca}

1. Contacts its local DNS server, \textbf{dns.utoronto.ca}

2. \textbf{dns.utoronto.ca} contacts root name server, if necessary

3. root name server contacts authoritative name server, \textbf{dns.uwaterloo.ca}, if necessary
DNS Example

Root name server:
- may not know authoritative name server
- may know *intermediate name server*: who to contact to find authoritative name server

Diagram:
- Requesting host: db.utoronto.ca
- Intermediate name server: dns.utoronto.ca
- Local name server: dns.uwaterloo.ca
- Authoritative name server: dns.math.uwaterloo.ca
- Root name server: 

DNS: iterated queries

**Recursive query:**
- Puts burden of name resolution on contacted name server
- Heavy load?

**Iterated query:**
- Contacted server replies with name of server to contact
- “I don’t know this name, but ask this server”
DNS Records

• DNS holds resource records (RR)
  ➡ RR format: \((\text{name}, \text{value}, \text{type}, \text{ttl})\)

• Example records:
  ➡ Type=A
    ✦ \text{name} is hostname
    ✦ \text{value} is IP address
  ➡ Type=NS
    ✦ \text{name} is domain (e.g. foo.com)
    ✦ \text{value} is IP address of authoritative name server for this domain
  ➡ Type=CNAME
    ✦ \text{name} is an alias name for some “canonical” (the real) name
    ✦ \text{value} is canonical name
  ➡ Type=MX
    ✦ \text{value} is hostname of mail server associated with \text{name}
# DNS Record Types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Record type</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Main contents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>A computer address</td>
<td>IP number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NS</td>
<td>An authoritative name server</td>
<td>Domain name for server</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CNAME</td>
<td>The canonical name for an alias</td>
<td>Domain name for alias</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOA</td>
<td>Marks the start of data for a zone</td>
<td>Parameters governing the zone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WKS</td>
<td>A well-known service description</td>
<td>List of service names and protocols</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PTR</td>
<td>Domain name pointer (reverse lookups)</td>
<td>Domain name</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HINFO</td>
<td>Host information</td>
<td>Machine architecture and operating system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MX</td>
<td>Mail exchange</td>
<td>List of preference, hosts pairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TXT</td>
<td>Text string</td>
<td>Arbitrary text</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
DNS Protocol & Messages

- Name, type fields for a query
- RRs in response to query
- Records for authoritative servers
- Additional "helpful" info that may be used

16 bit # for query, reply to query uses same #

- Identification
- Flags
- Number of questions
- Number of answer RRs
- Number of authority RRs
- Number of additional RRs

query or reply recursion desired
recursion available
reply is authoritative

12 bytes

questions (variable number of questions)

answers (variable number of resource records)

authority (variable number of resource records)

additional information (variable number of resource records)
Discovery Services

• Directory services that allow clients to query available services in a spontaneous networking environment
  ➔ e. g., which are the available color printers
  ➔ services enter their data using registration interfaces
  ➔ structure usually rather flat, since scope limited to (wireless) LAN

• JINI (http://www.sun.com/jini/)
  ➔ JAVA-based discovery service
    ✦ clients and servers run JVMs
      ✓ communication via Java RMI
      ✓ dynamic loading of code
JINI Discovery Related Services

- Lookup service
  - Holds information regarding available services
- Query of lookup service by Jini client
  - Match request
  - Download object providing service from lookup service
- Registration of a Jini client or Jini service with lookup service
  - Send message to well-known IP multicast address, identical to all Jini instances
  - Limit multicast to LAN using time-to-live attribute
  - Use of leases that need to be renewed periodically for registering Jini services
new client wishes to print on a printer belonging to the finance group

1. ‘finance’ lookup service?

2. Here I am: ..... 

3. Request printing 

4. Use printing service