NETWORKING FUNDAMENTALS

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UC San Diego

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ATTRIBUTION

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- These slides incorporate material from:
 - Alex C. Snoeren, UC San Diego
 - Michael Freedman and Kyle Jamieson, Princeton University
 - Internet Society
 - Computer Networking: A Top Down Approach 6th edition

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ANNOUNCEMENTS

Peterson & Davie 1.3 (network architectures), 1.4, 1.5, 2.5, 3.2

Class Q&A forum (via Google) now available (link off course web page)

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Outline

- 1. Packet switching
- 2. Addressing
- 3. Performance
- 4. TCP and sockets
- 5. Reliable transmission

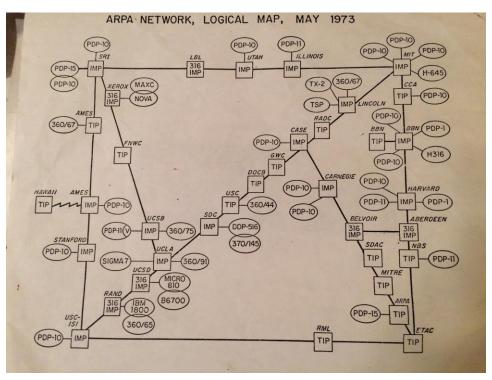


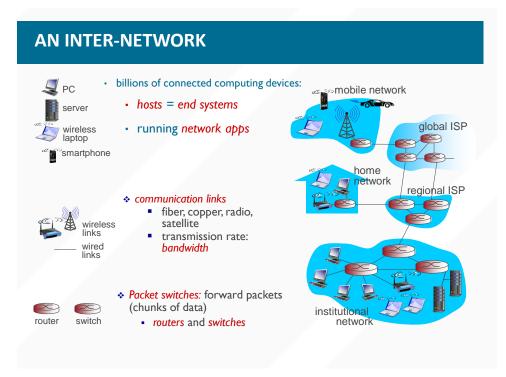
BRIEF HISTORY OF THE INTERNET

- 1968 DARPA (Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency) Contracts with BBN (Bolt, Beranek & Newman) to create ARPAnet
- 1970 First five nodes:
 - UCLA
 - Stanford
 - UC Santa Barbara
 - U of Utah, and
 - BBN
- 1974 TCP specification by Vint Cerf
- 1984 On January 1, the Internet with its 1000 hosts converts en masse to using TCP/IP for its messaging

Data from the Internet Society

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PACKET SWITCHING

- Data transmitted from source to destination in discrete packets
 - Variable size, usually a maximum transmission unit (MTU) of ~1500 bytes
 - 1 GB file is approx 715,000 packets
- Each packet routed independently
 - Has its own source and destination address used to find the route to the ultimate destination

NETWORK TERMINOLOGY



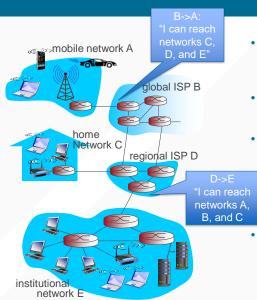
A single packet-switched network



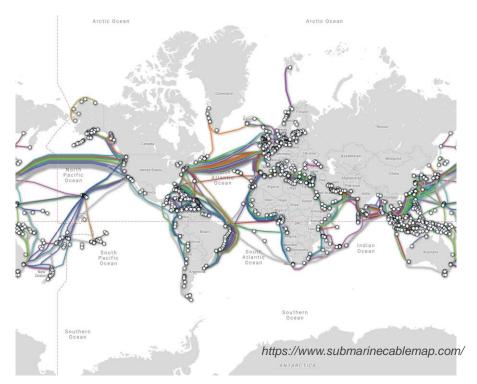
Interconnection of networks

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ROUTING PACKETS BETWEEN NETWORKS



- Networks use Border Gateway Protocol (BGP) to announce reachability
- Each network talks just with its neighbors
- Goal is to get a packet to the destination network
 - It is up to that destination network to get individual packets to their ultimate destination
- Back-to-back packets from the same "connection" might take different paths!
 - Might arrive out of order too



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ROUTING PACKETS WITHIN A SINGLE NETWORK

- E.g. UCSD, San Diego Comcast, a Google datacenter
- Packet switches communicate with each other using an intradomain protocol called a Linkstate protocol
 - Each packet switch sends a list of its neighbors to every other switch via a broadcast
 - As a result, each switch has the same "map" of what the network's topology looks like

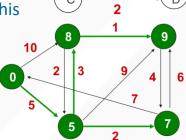


ROUTING PACKETS WITHIN A SINGLE NETWORK

 Each packet switch uses its local topology map to choose paths to each destination

 Typically using Dijkstra's shortest path algorithm

 Packets are forwarded along this shortest path tree



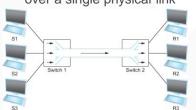
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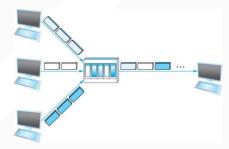
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RESOURCE SHARING

Multiplexing multiple logical flows over a single physical link



- Resource: links and nodes
- How to share a link?
 - Multiplexing
 - De-multiplexing
 - Queueing



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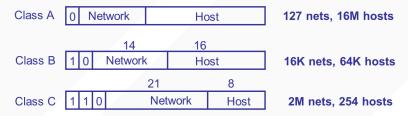
ADDRESSING CONSIDERATIONS

- Fixed length or variable length addresses?
- Issues:
 - Flexibility
 - Processing costs
 - Header size
- Engineering choice: IP uses fixed length addresses

- 32-bits in an IPv4 address
 - Dotted decimal format a.b.c.d
 - Each represent 8 bits of address
- Hierarchical: Network part and host part
 - E.g. IP address 128.54.70.238
 - 128.54 refers to the UCSD campus network
 - 70.238 refers to the host ieng6.ucsd.edu
- Which part is network vs. host?

CLASS-BASED ADDRESSING

• Most significant bits determines "class" of address



- Special addresses
 - Class D (1110) for multicast, Class E (1111) experimental
 - 127.0.0.1: local host (a.k.a. the loopback address)
 - Host bits all set to 0: network address
 - Host bits all set to 1: broadcast address

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IP FORWARDING TABLES

- Router needs to know where to forward a packet
- Forwarding table contains:
 - List of network names and next hop routers
 - Local networks have entries specifying which interface
 - Link-local hosts can be delivered with Layer-2 forwarding
- E.g. www.ucsd.edu address is 132.239.180.101
 - Class B address class + network is 132.239
 - Lookup 132.239 in forwarding table
 - Prefix part of address that really matters for routing

SUBNETTING

- Individual networks may be composed of several LANs
 - Only want traffic destined to local hosts on physical network
 - Routers need a way to know which hosts on which LAN
- Networks can be arbitrarily decomposed into subnets
 - Each subnet is simply a prefix of the host address portion
 - Subnet prefix can be of any length, specified with netmask



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SUBNET ADDRESSES

- Every (sub)network has an address and a netmask
 - Netmask tells which bits of the network address is important
 - Convention suggests it be a proper prefix
- Netmask written as an all-ones IP address
 - E.g., Class B netmask is 255.255.0.0
 - Sometimes expressed in terms of number of 1s, e.g., /16
- Need to size subnet appropriately for each LAN
 - Only have remaining bits to specify host addresses

IP ADDRESS PROBLEM (1991)

- Address space depletion
 - In danger of running out of classes A and B
- Why?
 - Class C too small for most organizations (only ~250 addresses)
 - Very few class A very careful about giving them out (who has 16M hosts anyway?)
 - Class B greatest problem

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CIDR

- Classless Inter-Domain Routing (1993)
 - Networks described by variable-length prefix and length
 - Allows arbitrary allocation between network and host address



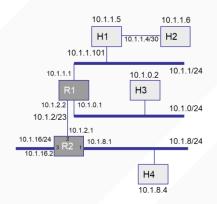
- e.g. 10.95.1.2 contained within 10.0.0.0/8:
 - 10.0.0.0 is network and remainder (95.1.2) is host
- Pro: Finer grained allocation; aggregation
- Con: More expensive lookup: longest prefix match

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FORWARDING TABLE EXAMPLE (R2)

- Packet to 10.1.1.6
- Matches 10.1.0.0/23

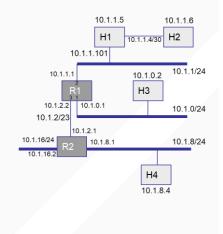
Destination	Next Hop	
127.0.0.1	loopback	
Default or 0/0	10.1.16.1	
10.1.8.0/24	interface1	
10.1.2.0/23	interface2	
10.1.0.0/23	10.1.2.2	
10.1.16.0/24	interface3	



FORWARDING TABLE EXAMPLE 2

- Packet to 10.1.1.6
- Matches 10.1.1.4/30
 - Longest prefix match
 Routing table at R1

Destination	Next Hop	
127.0.0.1	loopback	
Default or 0/0	10.1.2.1	
10.1.0.0/24	interface1	
10.1.1.0/24	interface2	
10.1.2.0/23	interface3	
10.1.1.4/30	10.1.1.101	



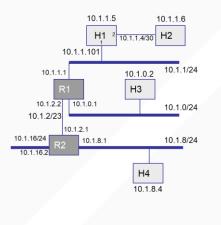
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FORWARDING TABLE EXAMPLE 3

- Packet to 10.1.1.6
- Direct route
 - Longest prefix match

Routing table at H1

Destination	Next Hop	
127.0.0.1	loopback	
Default or 0/0	10.1.1.1	
10.1.1.0/24	interface1	
10.1.1.4/30	interface2	



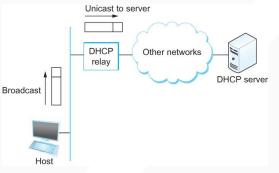
ASSIGNING ADDRESSES VIA DHCP

- DHCP server is responsible for providing configuration information to hosts
- There is at least one DHCP server for an administrative domain
- DHCP server maintains a pool of available addresses

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DHCP IN ACTION

- Newly booted or attached host sends DHCPDISCOVER message to a special IP address (255.255.255)
- DHCP relay agent unicasts the message to DHCP server and waits for the response



DNS HOSTNAME VERSUS IP ADDRESS

- DNS host name (e.g. www.cs.ucsd.edu)
 - Mnemonic name appreciated by humans
 - Variable length, full alphabet of characters
 - Provides little (if any) information about location
- IP address (e.g. 128.112.136.35)
 - Numerical address appreciated by routers
 - Fixed length, decimal number
 - Hierarchical address space, related to host location

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MAPPING NAMES TO ADDRESSES

LINKED LIST OF 'ADDRINFO' STRUCTS

- Q: Why a linked list?
- Q: Which of the multiple results should you use?

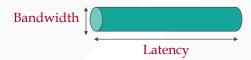
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PERFORMANCE METRICS



- Bandwidth: number of bits transmitted per unit of time
- Latency = Propagation + Transmit + Queue
 - Propagation = Distance/SpeedOfLight(*)
 - Transmit = 1 bit/Bandwidth
- Overhead
 - # secs for CPU to put message on wire
- Error rate
 - Probability P that message will not arrive intact

* In that particular medium

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BANDWIDTH VS. LATENCY

1 Byte Object

	Latency: 1 ms	Latency: 100 ms
Bandwidth: 1 Mbps	1,008 μs	100,008 μs
Bandwidth: 100 Mbps	1,000 μs	100,000 μs

10 MB Object

	Latency: 1 ms	Latency: 100 ms
Bandwidth: 1 Mbps	80.001 s	80.1 s
Bandwidth: 100 Mbps	.801 s	.9 s

TERMINOLOGY STYLE

- Mega versus Mega, Kilo versus Kilo
 - Computer architecture: Mega \rightarrow 2^20, Kilo \rightarrow 2^10
 - Computer networks: Mega → 10⁶, Kilo → 10³
- Mbps versus MBps
 - · Networks: typically megabits per second
 - Architecture: typically megabytes per second
- Bandwidth versus throughput
 - Bandwidth: available over link
 - Throughput: available to application

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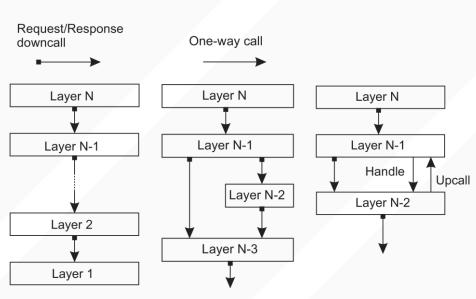


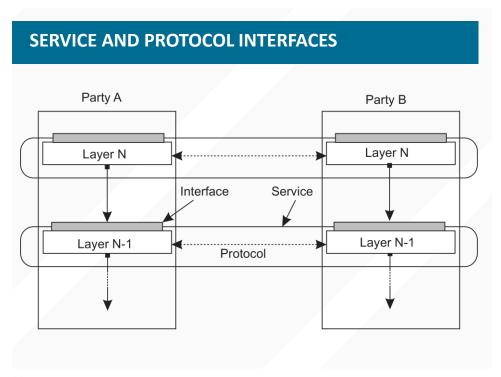
LAYERING: A MODULAR APPROACH TO COMM

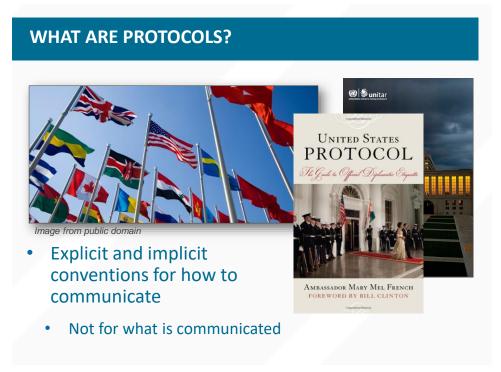
- Sub-divide responsibilities
 - Each layer relies on services from layer below
 - Each layer exports services to layer above
- Interface between layers defines interaction
 - Hides implementation details (encapsulation)
 - Layers can change without disturbing other layers (modularity)
- Interface among peers in a layer is a protocol
 - If peers speak same protocol, they can interoperate

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LAYERED ARCHITECTURES







WHERE DO PROTOCOLS COME FROM?

- Standards bodies
 - IETF: Internet Engineering Task Force
 - ISO: International Standards Organization
- · Community efforts
 - · "Request for comments"
 - Bitcoin
- Corporations/industry
 - RealAudio[™], Call of Duty multiplayer, Skype



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HOW ARE PROTOCOLS SPECIFIED?

Prose/BNF

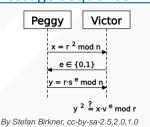
These rules show a field meta-syntax, without regard for the particular type or internal syntax. Their purpose is to permit detection of fields; also, they present to higher-level parsers an image of each field as fitting on one line.

field = field-name ":" [field-body] CRLF

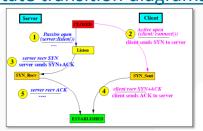
field-name = 1*<any CHAR, excluding CTLs, SPACE, and ":">

field-body = field-body-contents [CRLF LWSP-char field-body]

Message Sequence Diagram



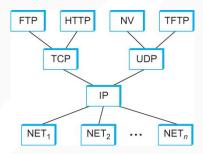
State transition diagrams



Packet formats



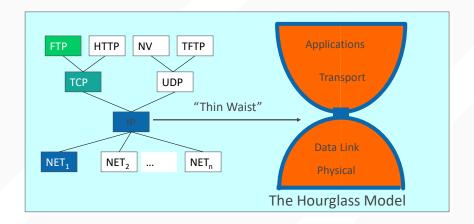
ROLE OF LAYERING IN PROTOCOLS



- Each layer offers useful semantics to layer above
 - IP gets packets to a destination host/server on the Internet (but is unreliable)
 - TCP uses IP to offer reliable, in-order bytestream abstraction
 - TCP useful for file transfer, as well as HTTP/web

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INTERNET PROTOCOL SUITE



TRANSMISSION CONTROL PROTOCOL (TCP)

- Remember 1 GB ~ 715,000 packets?
 - Don't want to keep track of each packet, whether it got there, did it get lost? Did some get reordered??
- TCP offers infinite bytestream abstraction
 - If you put N bytes into TCP connection as sender, those N bytes will arrive to the destination in order, without loss, and without corruption
 - Compelling abstraction for higher-level applications such as web, video, gaming, ...

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host Application Layer Transport Layer Trouter Trouter Trouter Touter Network Layer IP IP IP IP IP IP INTERIOR SONET INTERIOR INTERIO

ENCAPSULATION VIA HEADERS

Typical web packet:

```
Ethernet Hdr IP Hdr TCP Hdr HTTP Hdr Payload (Web object)

datalink network transport application

Start of packet End of packet
```

- Notice that layers add overhead
 - Space (headers), effective bandwidth
 - Time (processing headers), latency

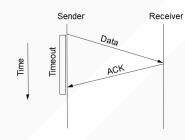
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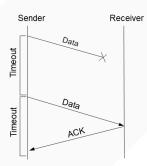
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SIMPLE IDEA: ARQ



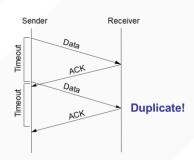


- Receiver sends acknowledgments (ACKs)
 - Sender "times out" and retransmits if it doesn't receive them
- Basic approach is generically referred to as Automatic Repeat Request (ARQ)

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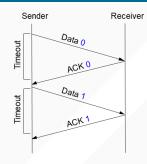
NOT SO FAST!

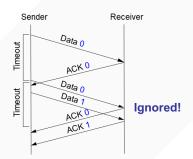




- Loss can occur on ACK channel as well
 - Sender cannot distinguish data loss from ACK loss
 - Sender will retransmit the data frame
- ACK loss—or early timeout—results in duplication
 - The receiver thinks the retransmission is new data

SEQUENCE NUMBERS

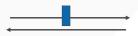




- Sequence numbers solve this problem
 - Receiver can simply ignore duplicate data
 - But must still send an ACK! (Why?)
- Simplest ARQ: Stop-and-wait
 - Only one outstanding frame at a time

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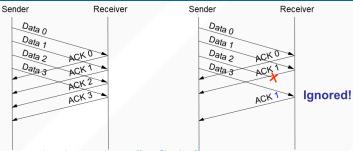
STOP AND WAIT PERFORMANCE





- Lousy performance if xmit 1 pkt << prop. delay
 - How bad?
- Want to utilize all available bandwidth
 - Need to keep more data "in flight"
 - How much? Called the bandwidth-delay product
- Also limited by quality of timeout (how long?)

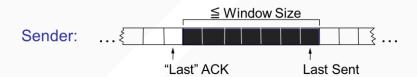
PIPELINED TRANSMISSION



- Keep multiple packets "in flight"
 - Allows sender to make efficient use of the link
 - Sequence numbers ensure receiver can distinguish frames
- Sender buffers outstanding un-acked packets
 - Receiver ACKs the highest consecutive frame received
 - ACKs are cumulative (covers current frame and all previous)

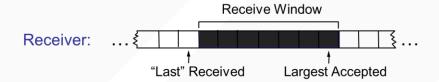
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SLIDING WINDOW: SENDER



- · Window bounds outstanding unACKed data
 - Implies need for buffering at sender
- "Last" ACK applies to in-order data
- What to do on a timeout?
 - Go-Back-N: resend all unacknowledged data on timeout
 - Selective Repeat: timer per packet, resend as needed

SLIDING WINDOW: RECEIVER



- Receiver buffers too:
 - data may arrive out-of-order
 - or faster than can be consumed
 - Flow control: tell sender how much buffer left at receiver.
- Receiver ACK choices:
 - Cumulative, Selective (exempt missing frames), Negative

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DECIDING WHEN TO RETRANSMIT

- How do you know when a packet has been lost?
 - Ultimately sender uses timers to decide when to retransmit
- But how long should the timer be?
 - Too long: inefficient (large delays, poor use of bandwidth)
 - Too short: may retransmit unnecessarily (causing extra traffic)
- Right timer is based on the round-trip time (RTT)
 - Which can vary greatly

