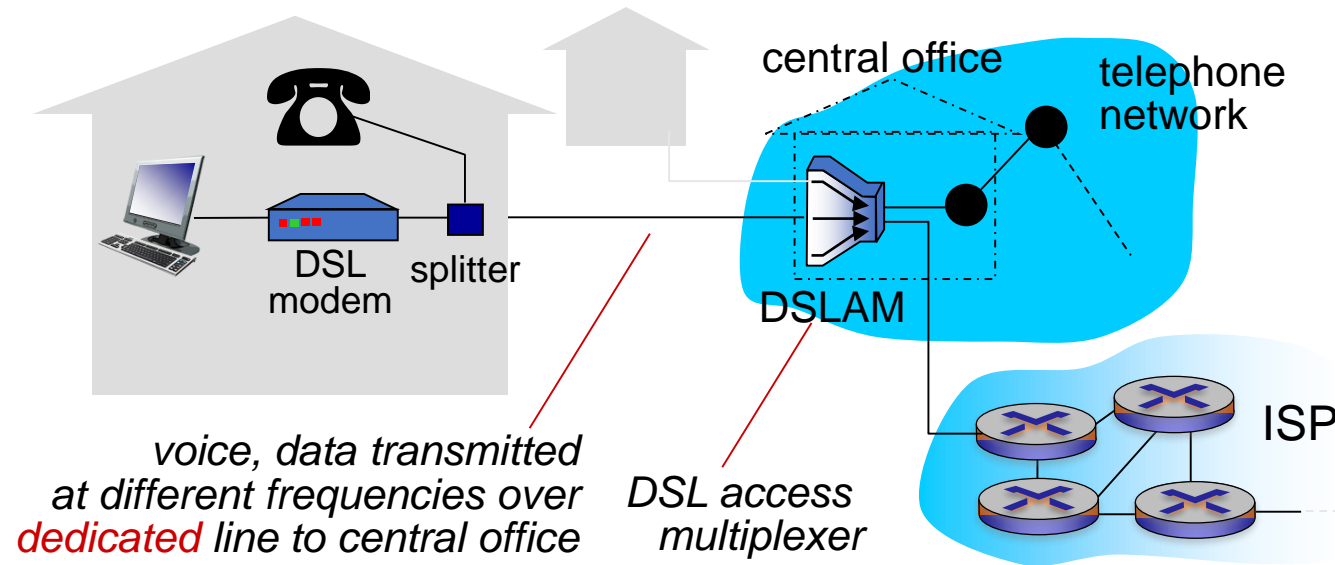


A photograph of a network switch or patch panel. The device has multiple ports, each with a glowing green LED indicator light. Numerous blue and orange Ethernet cables are plugged into the ports, creating a dense array of lines. The background is dark, and the overall lighting is a mix of the green from the LEDs and the blue/orange from the cables.

CS 3357 Fall 2019

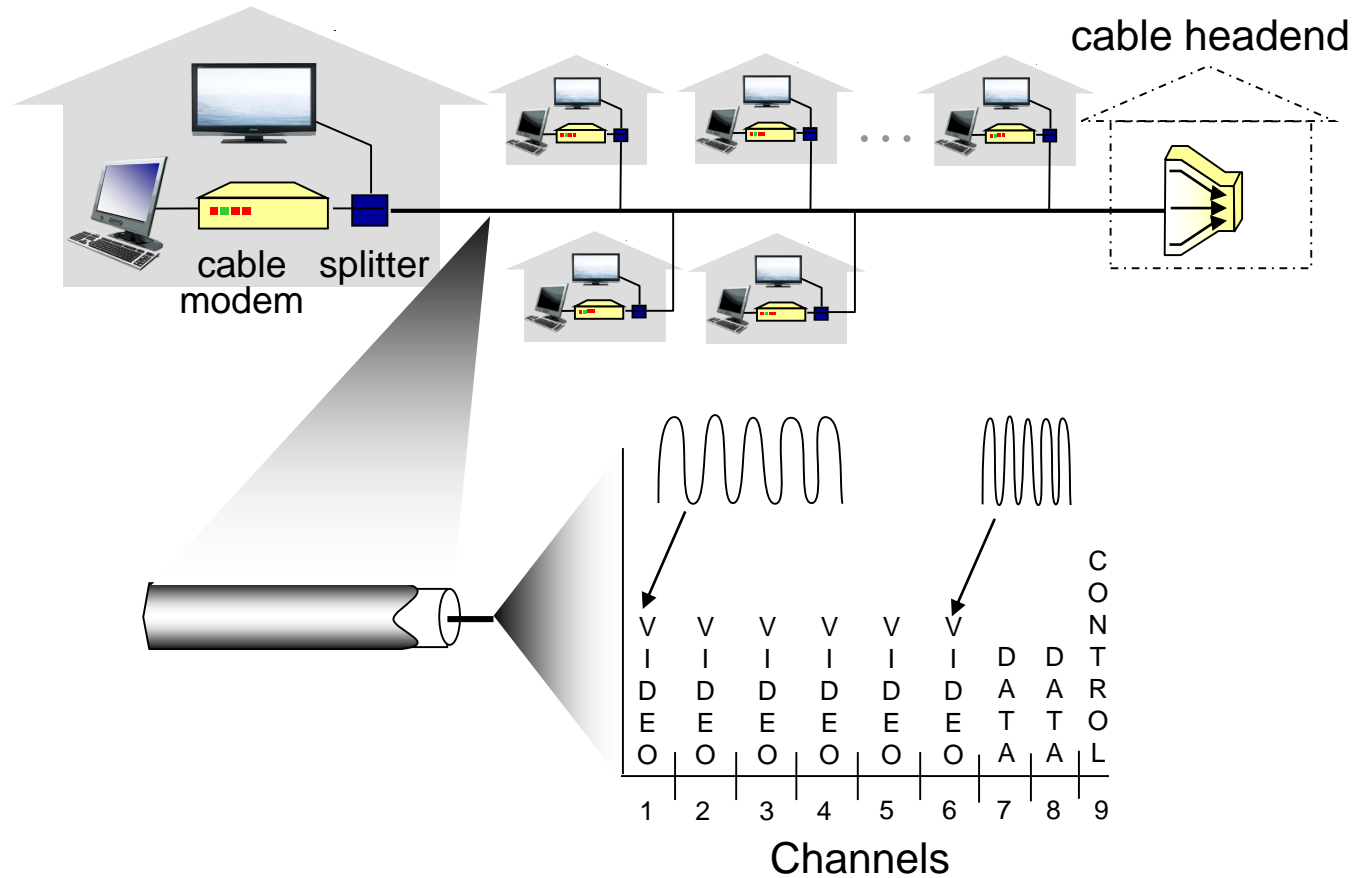
Midterm Test Review of Selected Topics
Wednesday Oct 30th, 2019

Access network: digital subscriber line (DSL)



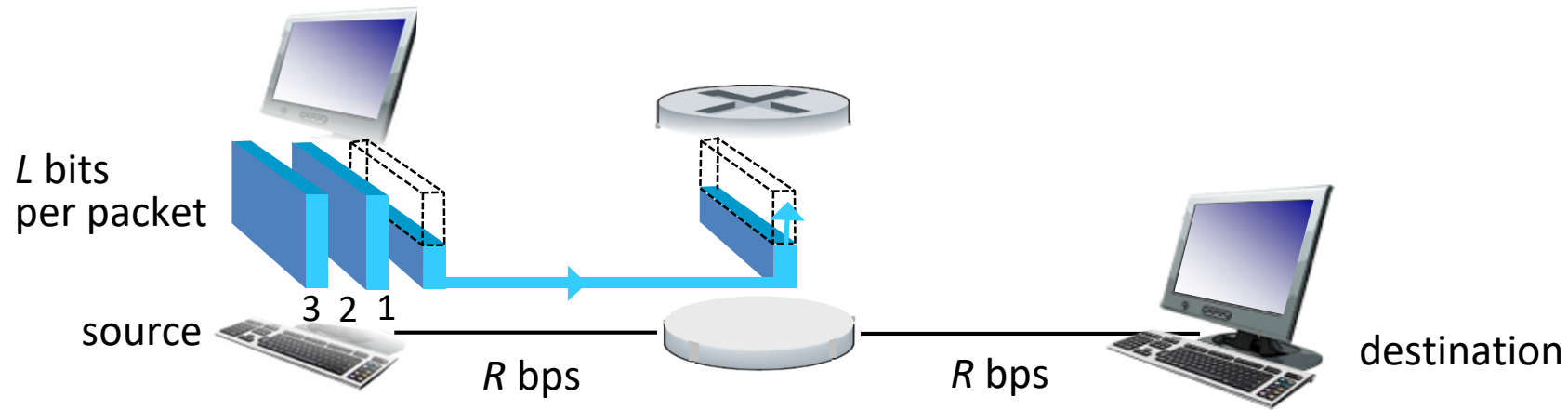
- use *existing* telephone line to central office DSLAM
 - data over DSL phone line goes to Internet
 - voice over DSL phone line goes to telephone net
- < 10 Mbps upstream transmission rate (typically < 5 Mbps)
- < 100 Mbps downstream transmission rate (typically < 15 Mbps)

Access network: cable network



frequency division multiplexing: different channels transmitted in different frequency bands

Packet-switching: store-and-forward



- takes L/R seconds to transmit (push out) L -bit packet into link at R bps
- **store and forward:** entire packet must arrive at router before it can be transmitted
- on next link, end-end delay = $2L/R$ (assuming zero propagation delay)

one-hop numerical example:

- $L = 7.5$ Mbits
- $R = 1.5$ Mbps
- one-hop transmission delay = 5 sec

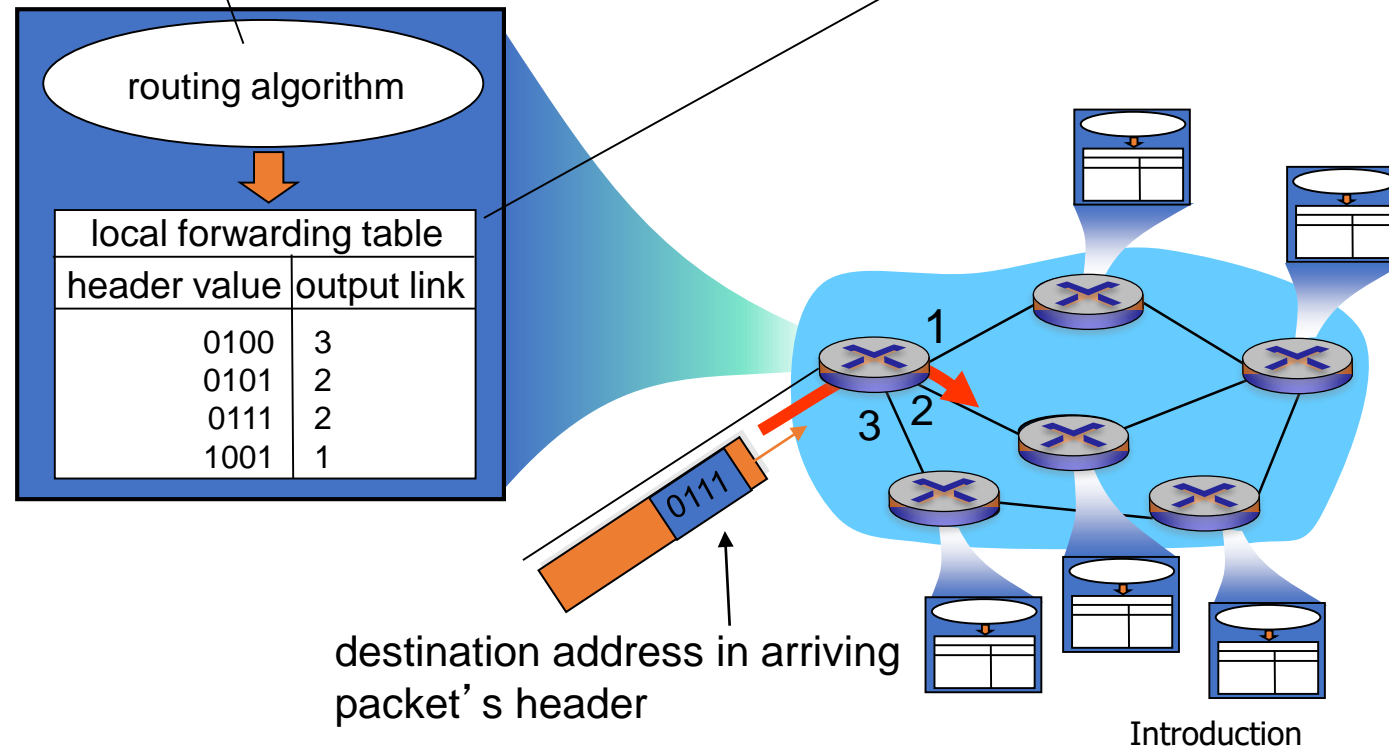
} more on delay shortly ...

Two key network-core functions

routing: determines source-destination route taken by packets

- *routing algorithms*

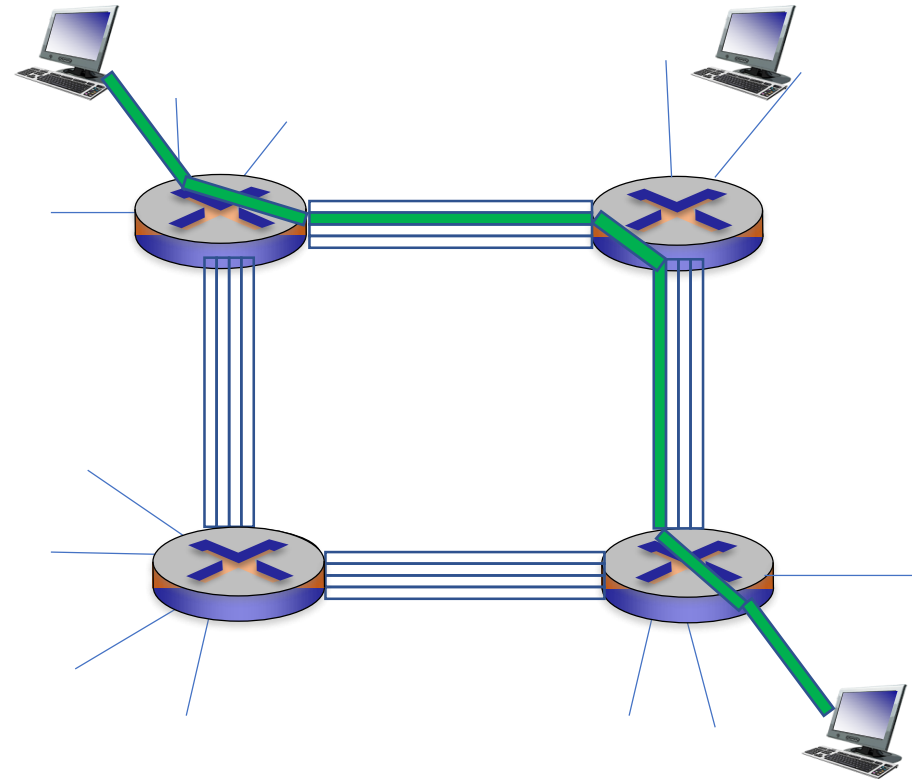
forwarding: move packets from router's input to appropriate router output



Alternative core: circuit switching

end-end resources allocated to, reserved for “call” between source & dest:

- in diagram, each link has four circuits.
 - call gets 2nd circuit in top link and 1st circuit in right link.
- dedicated resources: no sharing
 - circuit-like (guaranteed) performance
- circuit segment idle if not used by call (*no sharing*)
- commonly used in traditional telephone networks

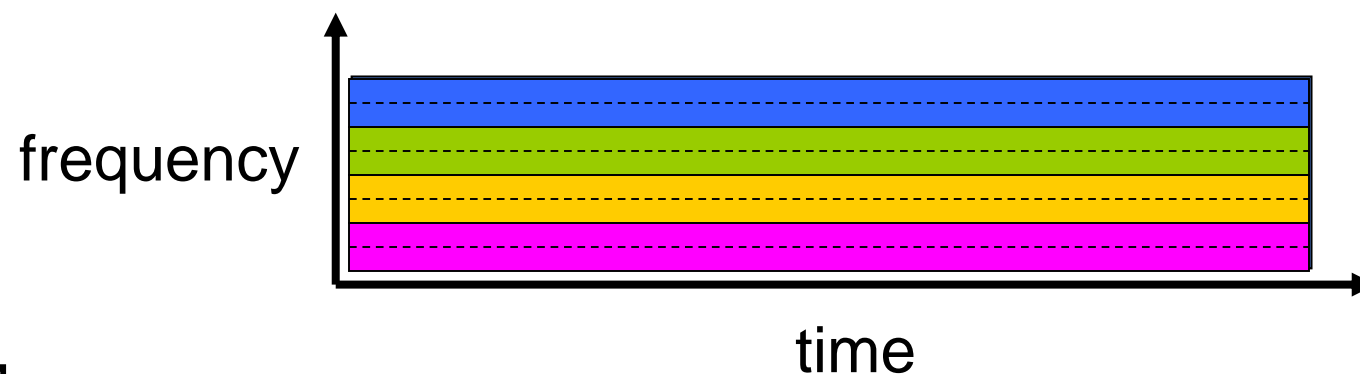


Circuit switching: FDM versus TDM

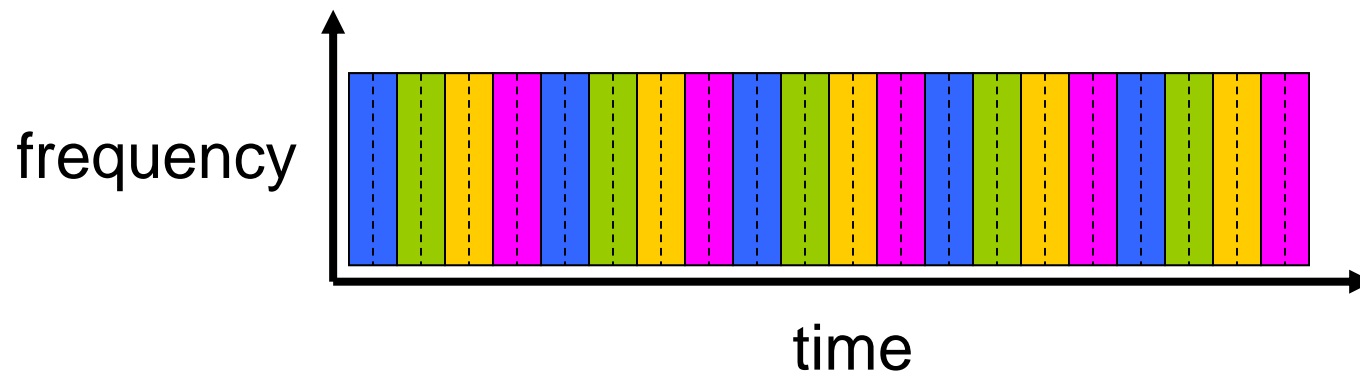
FDM

Example:

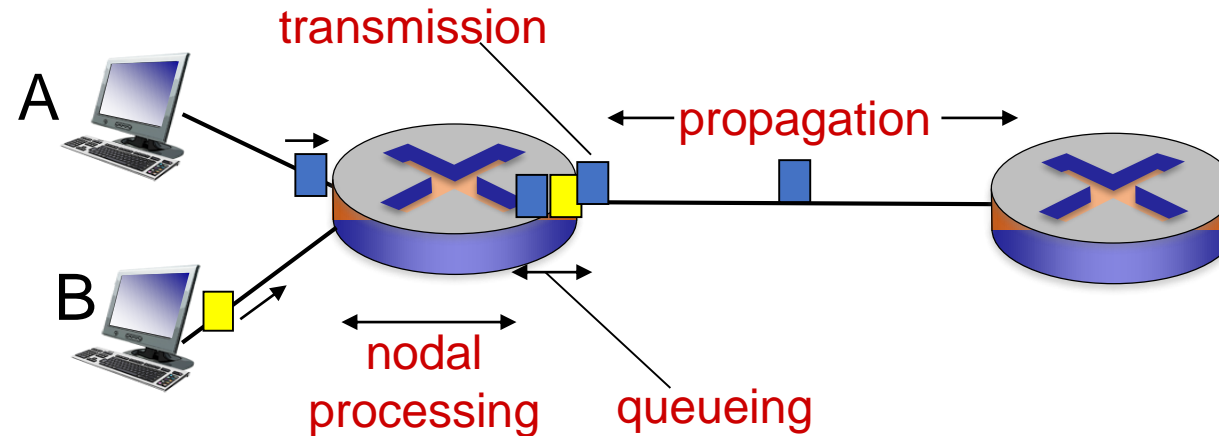
4 users



TDM



Four sources of packet delay



$$d_{\text{nodal}} = d_{\text{proc}} + d_{\text{queue}} + d_{\text{trans}} + d_{\text{prop}}$$

d_{trans} : transmission delay:

- L : packet length (bits)
- R : link bandwidth (bps)
- $d_{\text{trans}} = L/R$

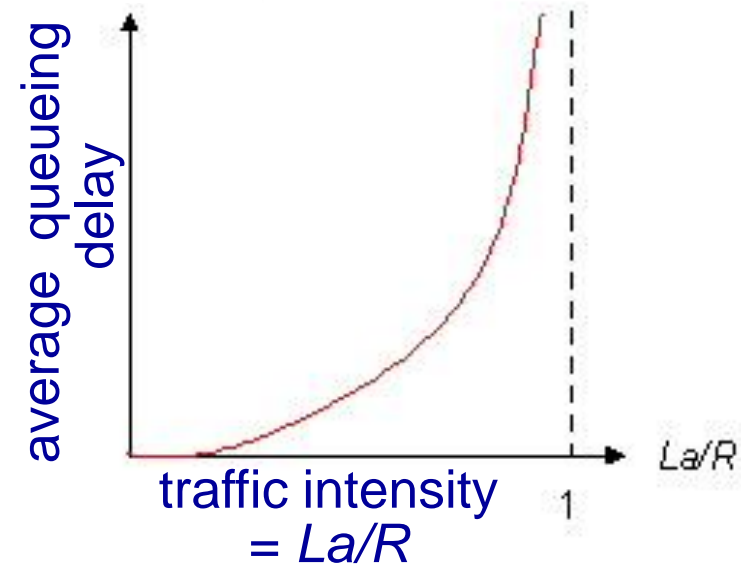
d_{prop} : propagation delay:

- d : length of physical link
- s : propagation speed ($\sim 2 \times 10^8$ m/sec)
- $d_{\text{prop}} = d/s$

← d_{trans} and d_{prop} →
very different

Queueing delay (revisited)

- R : link bandwidth (bps)
- L : packet length (bits)
- a : average packet arrival rate (packets/sec)



- $La/R \sim 0$: avg. queueing delay small
- $La/R \leq 1$: avg. queueing delay varies
- $La/R > 1$: more “work” arriving than can be serviced, average delay infinite!



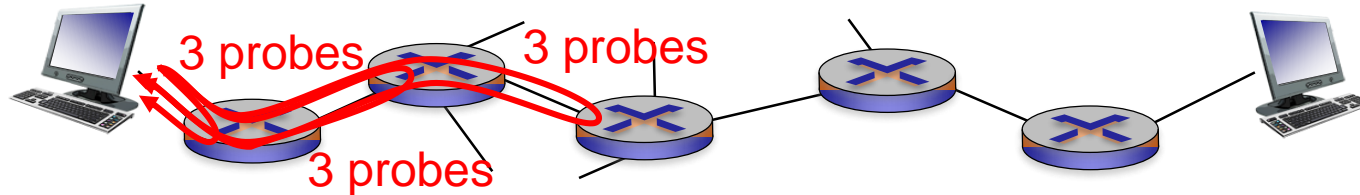
$La/R \sim 0$



$La/R \rightarrow 1$

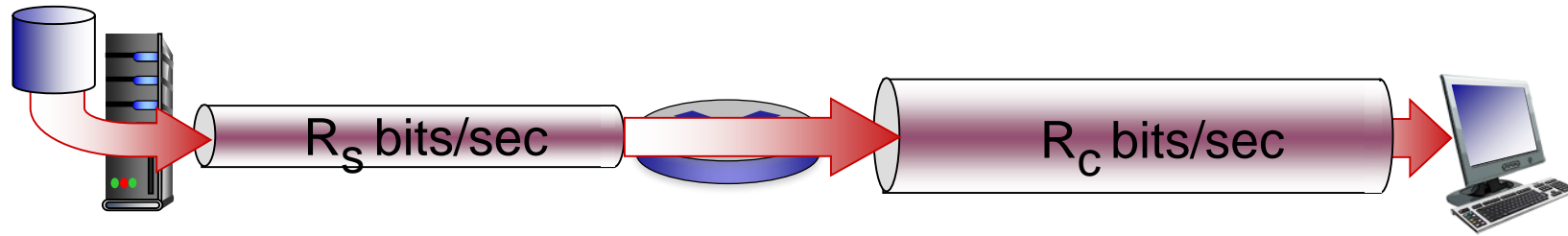
“Real” Internet delays and routes

- what do “real” Internet delay & loss look like?
- **traceroute** program: provides delay measurement from source to router along end-end Internet path towards destination. For all i :
 - sends three packets that will reach router i on path towards destination
 - router i will return packets to sender
 - sender times interval between transmission and reply.

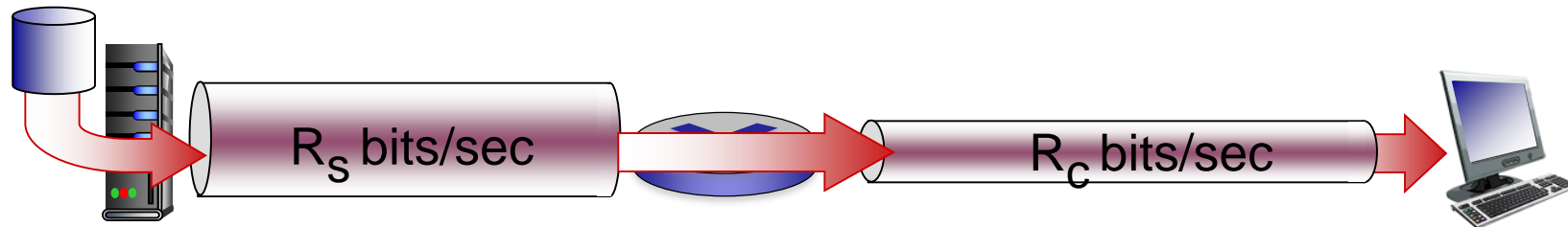


Throughput (more)

- $R_s < R_c$ What is average end-end throughput?



- $R_s > R_c$ What is average end-end throughput?

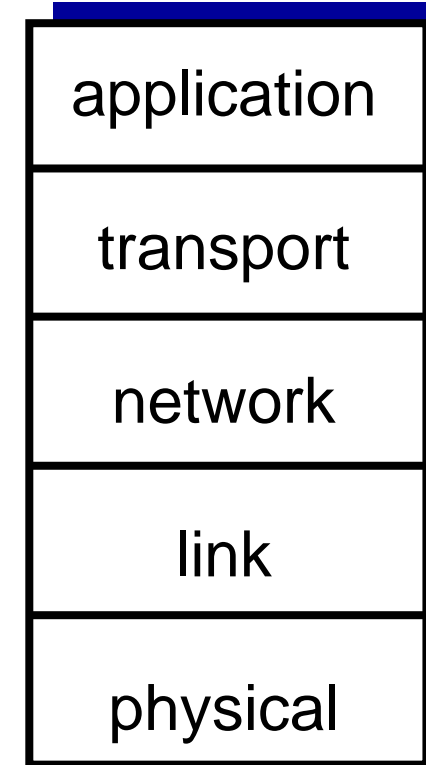


bottleneck link

link on end-end path that constrains end-end throughput

Internet protocol stack

- *application*: supporting network applications
 - FTP, SMTP, HTTP
- *transport*: process-process data transfer
 - TCP, UDP
- *network*: routing of datagrams from source to destination
 - IP, routing protocols
- *link*: data transfer between neighboring network elements
 - Ethernet, 802.111 (WiFi), PPP
- *physical*: bits “on the wire”



Internet history

1980-1990: new protocols, a proliferation of networks

- 1983: deployment of TCP/IP
 - 1982: smtp e-mail protocol defined
 - 1983: DNS defined for name-to-IP-address translation
 - 1985: ftp protocol defined
 - 1988: TCP congestion control
- new national networks: CSnet, BITnet, NSFnet, Minitel
 - 100,000 hosts connected to confederation of networks

Internet history

1990, 2000 's: commercialization, the Web, new apps

- early 1990's: ARPAnet decommissioned
 - 1991: NSF lifts restrictions on commercial use of NSFnet (decommissioned, 1995)
 - early 1990s: Web
 - hypertext [Bush 1945, Nelson 1960's]
 - HTML, HTTP: Berners-Lee
 - 1994: Mosaic, later Netscape
 - late 1990's: commercialization of the Web
- late 1990's – 2000's:
 - more killer apps: instant messaging, P2P file sharing
 - network security to forefront
 - est. 50 million host, 100 million+ users
 - backbone links running at Gbps

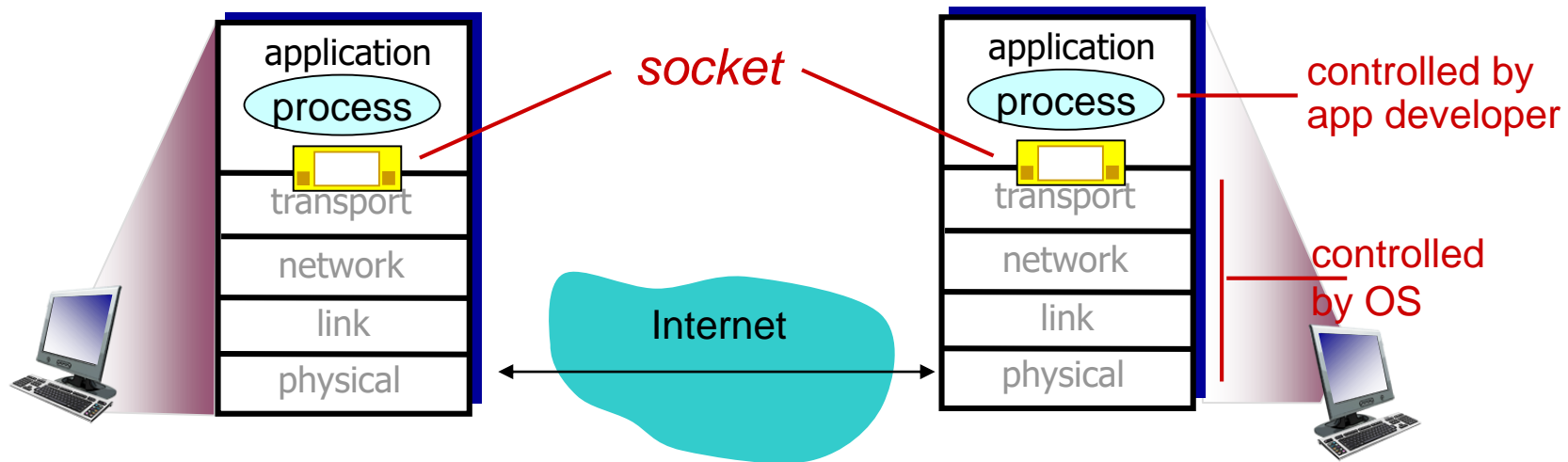
Internet history

2005-present

- ~5B devices attached to Internet (2016)
 - smartphones and tablets
- aggressive deployment of broadband access
- increasing ubiquity of high-speed wireless access
- emergence of online social networks:
 - Facebook: ~ one billion users
- service providers (Google, Microsoft) create their own networks
 - bypass Internet, providing “instantaneous” access to search, video content, email, etc.
- e-commerce, universities, enterprises running their services in “cloud” (e.g., Amazon EC2)

Sockets

- process sends/receives messages to/from its **socket**
- socket analogous to door
 - sending process shoves message out door
 - sending process relies on transport infrastructure on other side of door to deliver message to socket at receiving process



Addressing processes

- to receive messages, process must have *identifier*
- host device has unique 32-bit IP address
- Q: does IP address of host on which process runs suffice for identifying the process?
- A: no, *many* processes can be running on same host
- *identifier* includes both **IP address** and **port numbers** associated with process on host.
- example port numbers:
 - HTTP server: 80
 - mail server: 25
- to send HTTP message to gaia.cs.umass.edu web server:
 - **IP address:** 128.119.245.12
 - **port number:** 80
- more shortly...

Internet transport protocols services

TCP service:

- *reliable transport* between sending and receiving process
- *flow control*: sender won't overwhelm receiver
- *congestion control*: throttle sender when network overloaded
- *does not provide*: timing, minimum throughput guarantee, security
- *connection-oriented*: setup required between client and server processes

UDP service:

- *unreliable data transfer* between sending and receiving process
- *does not provide*: reliability, flow control, congestion control, timing, throughput guarantee, security, or connection setup,

Q: why bother? Why is there a UDP?

Internet apps: application, transport protocols

application	application layer protocol	underlying transport protocol
e-mail	SMTP [RFC 2821]	TCP
remote terminal access	Telnet [RFC 854]	TCP
Web	HTTP [RFC 2616]	TCP
file transfer	FTP [RFC 959]	TCP
streaming multimedia	HTTP (e.g., YouTube), RTP [RFC 1889]	TCP or UDP
Internet telephony	SIP, RTP, proprietary (e.g., Skype)	TCP or UDP

Securing TCP

TCP & UDP

- no encryption
- cleartext passwds sent into socket traverse Internet in cleartext

SSL

- provides encrypted TCP connection
- data integrity
- end-point authentication

SSL is at app layer

- apps use SSL libraries, that “talk” to TCP

SSL socket API

- cleartext passwords sent into socket traverse Internet encrypted
- see Chapter 8

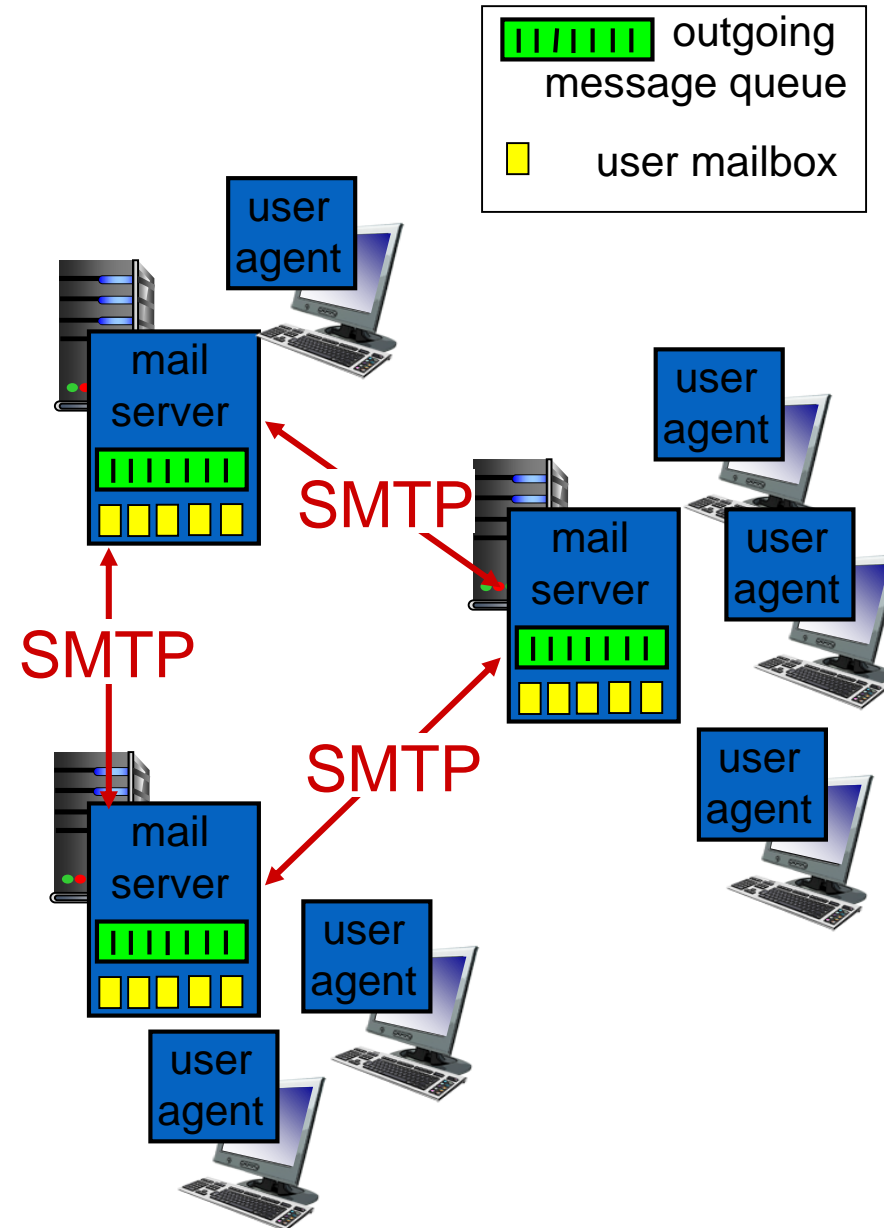
Electronic mail

Three major components:

- user agents
- mail servers
- simple mail transfer protocol: SMTP

User Agent

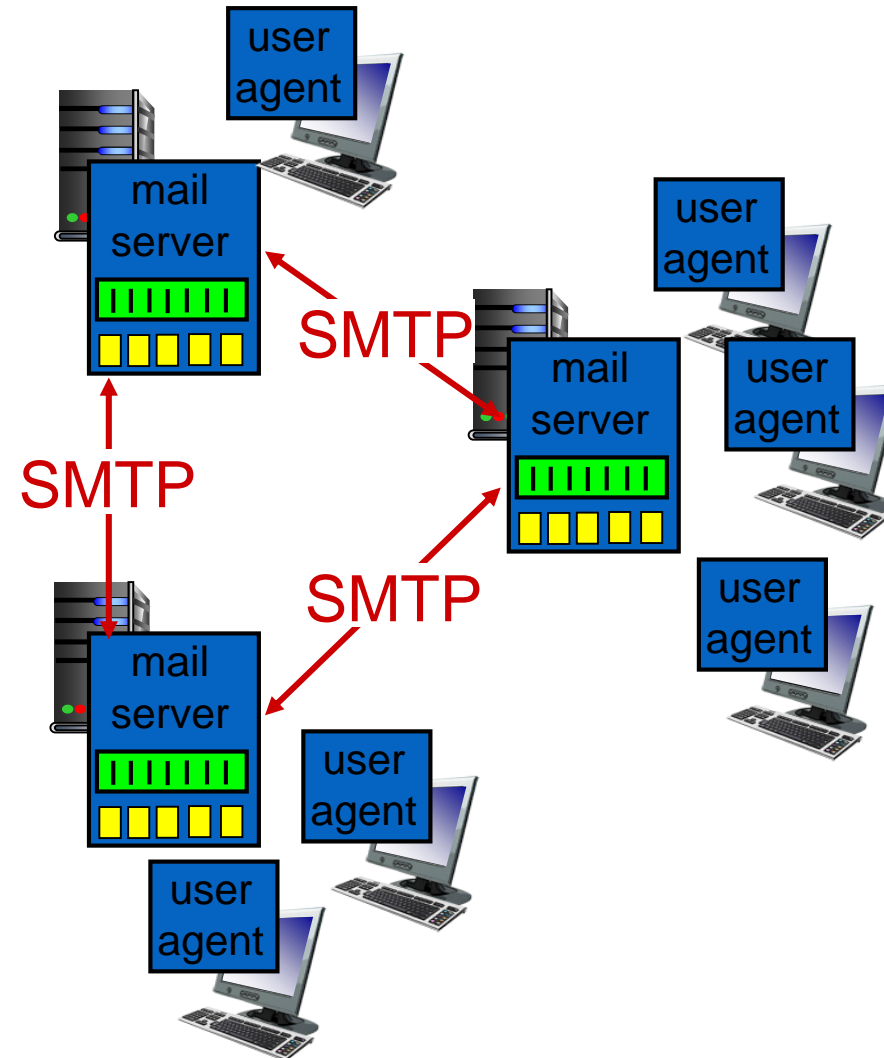
- a.k.a. “mail reader”
- composing, editing, reading mail messages
- e.g., Outlook, Thunderbird, iPhone mail client
- outgoing, incoming messages stored on server



Electronic mail: mail servers

mail servers:

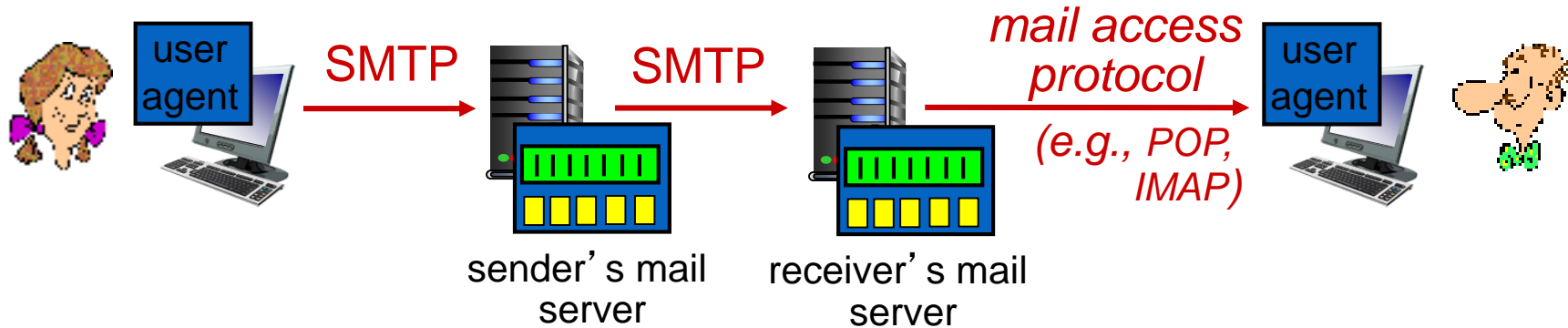
- *mailbox* contains incoming messages for user
- *message queue* of outgoing (to be sent) mail messages
- *SMTP protocol* between mail servers to send email messages
 - client: sending mail server
 - “server”: receiving mail server



Electronic Mail: SMTP [RFC 2821]

- uses TCP to reliably transfer email message from client to server, port 25
- direct transfer: sending server to receiving server
- three phases of transfer
 - handshaking (greeting)
 - transfer of messages
 - closure
- command/response interaction (like HTTP)
 - **commands**: ASCII text
 - **response**: status code and phrase
- messages must be in 7-bit ASCII

Mail access protocols



- **SMTP**: delivery/storage to receiver's server
- mail access protocol: retrieval from server
 - **POP**: Post Office Protocol [RFC 1939]: authorization, download
 - **IMAP**: Internet Mail Access Protocol [RFC 1730]: more features, including manipulation of stored messages on server
 - **HTTP**: gmail, Hotmail, Yahoo! Mail, etc.

DNS: domain name system

people: many identifiers:

- SSN, name, passport #

Internet hosts, routers:

- IP address (32 bit) - used for addressing datagrams
- “name”, e.g.,
www.yahoo.com - used by humans

Q: how to map between IP address and name, and vice versa ?

Domain Name System:

- *distributed database*
implemented in hierarchy of many *name servers*
- *application-layer protocol:*
hosts, name servers
communicate to *resolve* names (address/name translation)
 - note: core Internet function, implemented as application-layer protocol
 - complexity at network’s “edge”

DNS: services, structure

DNS services

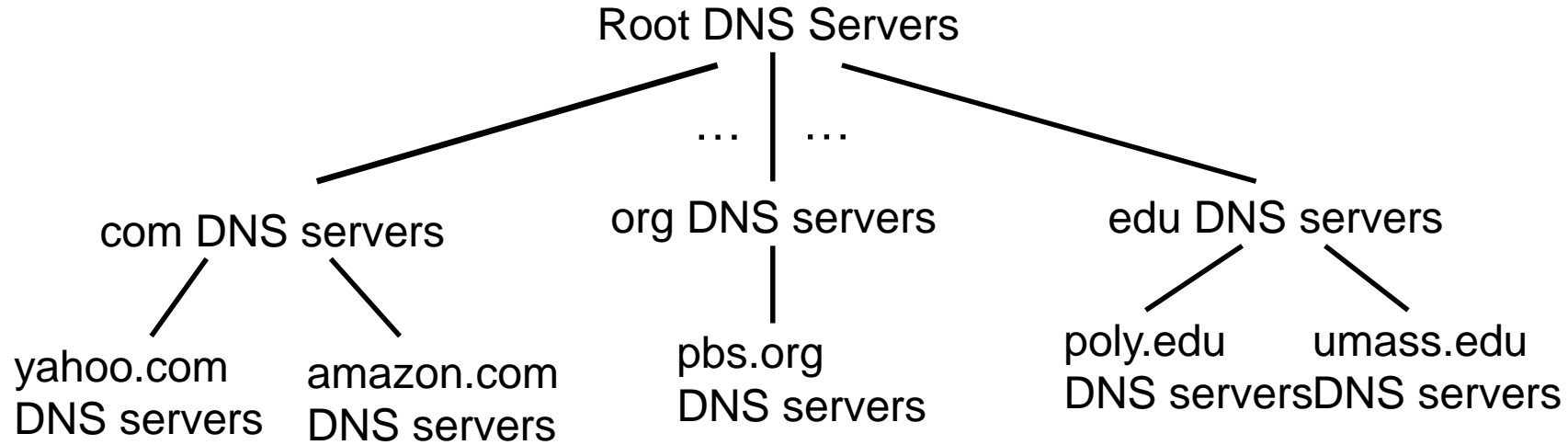
- hostname to IP address translation
- host aliasing
 - canonical, alias names
- mail server aliasing
- load distribution
 - replicated Web servers: many IP addresses correspond to one name

why not centralize DNS?

- single point of failure
- traffic volume
- distant centralized database
- maintenance

A: doesn't scale!

DNS: a distributed, hierarchical database

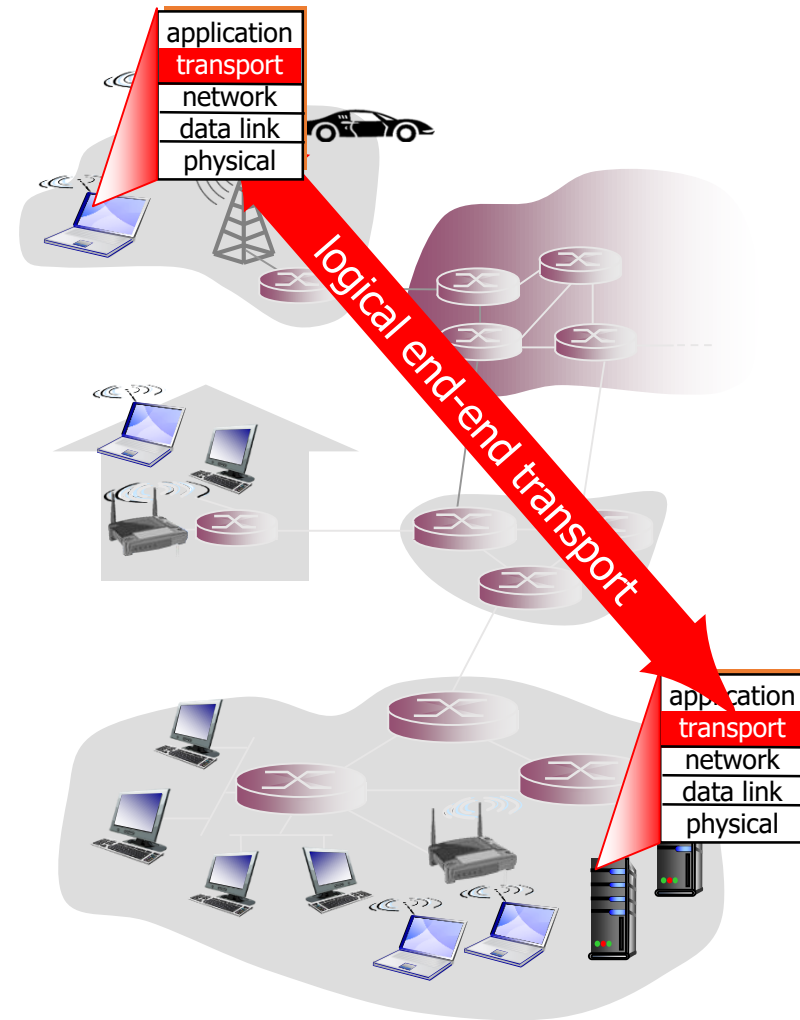


client wants IP for www.amazon.com; 1st approximation:

- client queries root server to find com DNS server
- client queries .com DNS server to get amazon.com DNS server
- client queries amazon.com DNS server to get IP address for www.amazon.com

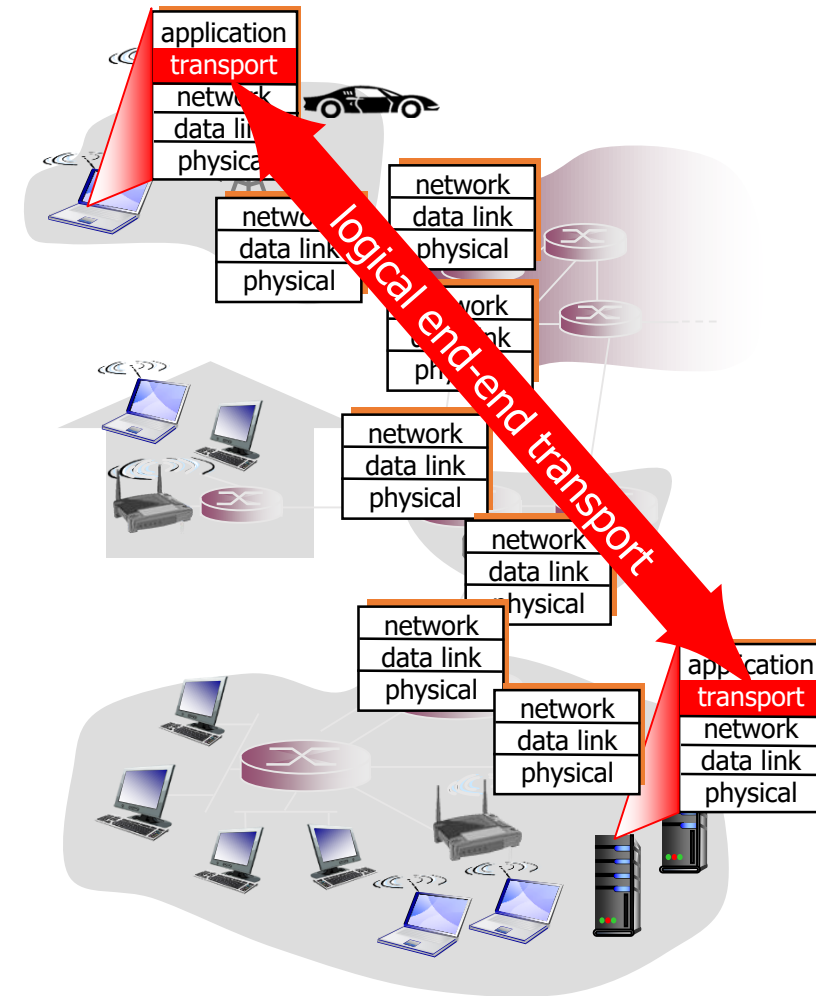
Transport services and protocols

- provide *logical communication* between app processes running on different hosts
- transport protocols run in end systems
 - send side: breaks app messages into *segments*, passes to network layer
 - rcv side: reassembles segments into messages, passes to app layer
- more than one transport protocol available to apps
 - Internet: TCP and UDP



Internet transport-layer protocols

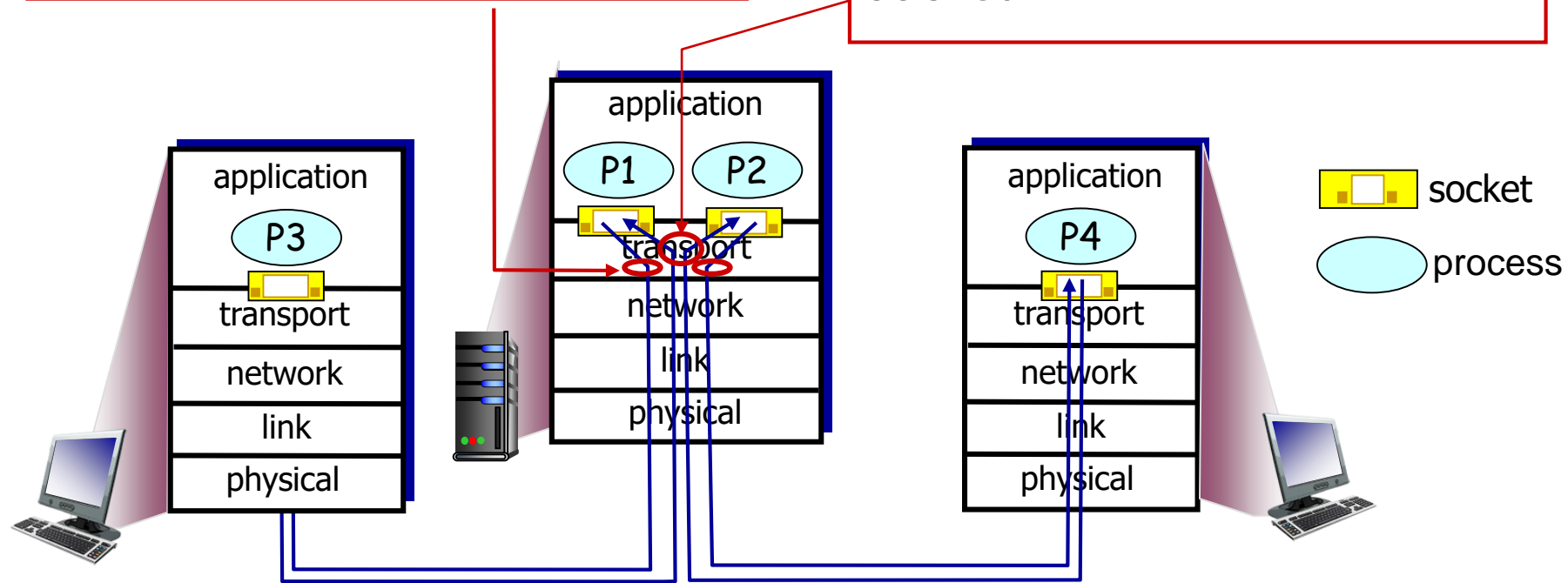
- reliable, in-order delivery (TCP)
 - congestion control
 - flow control
 - connection setup
- unreliable, unordered delivery: UDP
 - no-frills extension of “best-effort” IP
- services not available:
 - delay guarantees
 - bandwidth guarantees



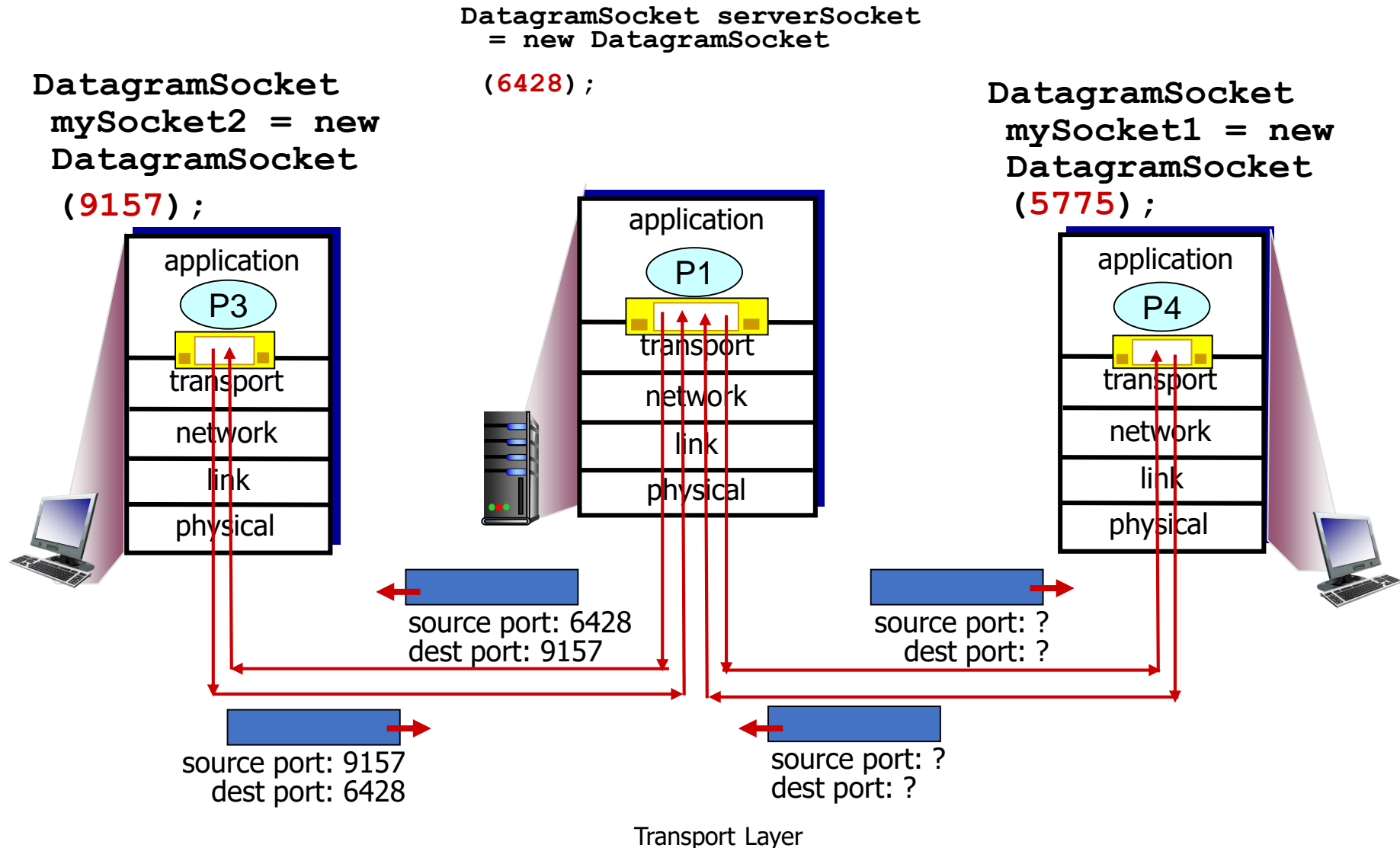
Multiplexing/demultiplexing

multiplexing at sender:
handle data from multiple sockets, add transport header (later used for demultiplexing)

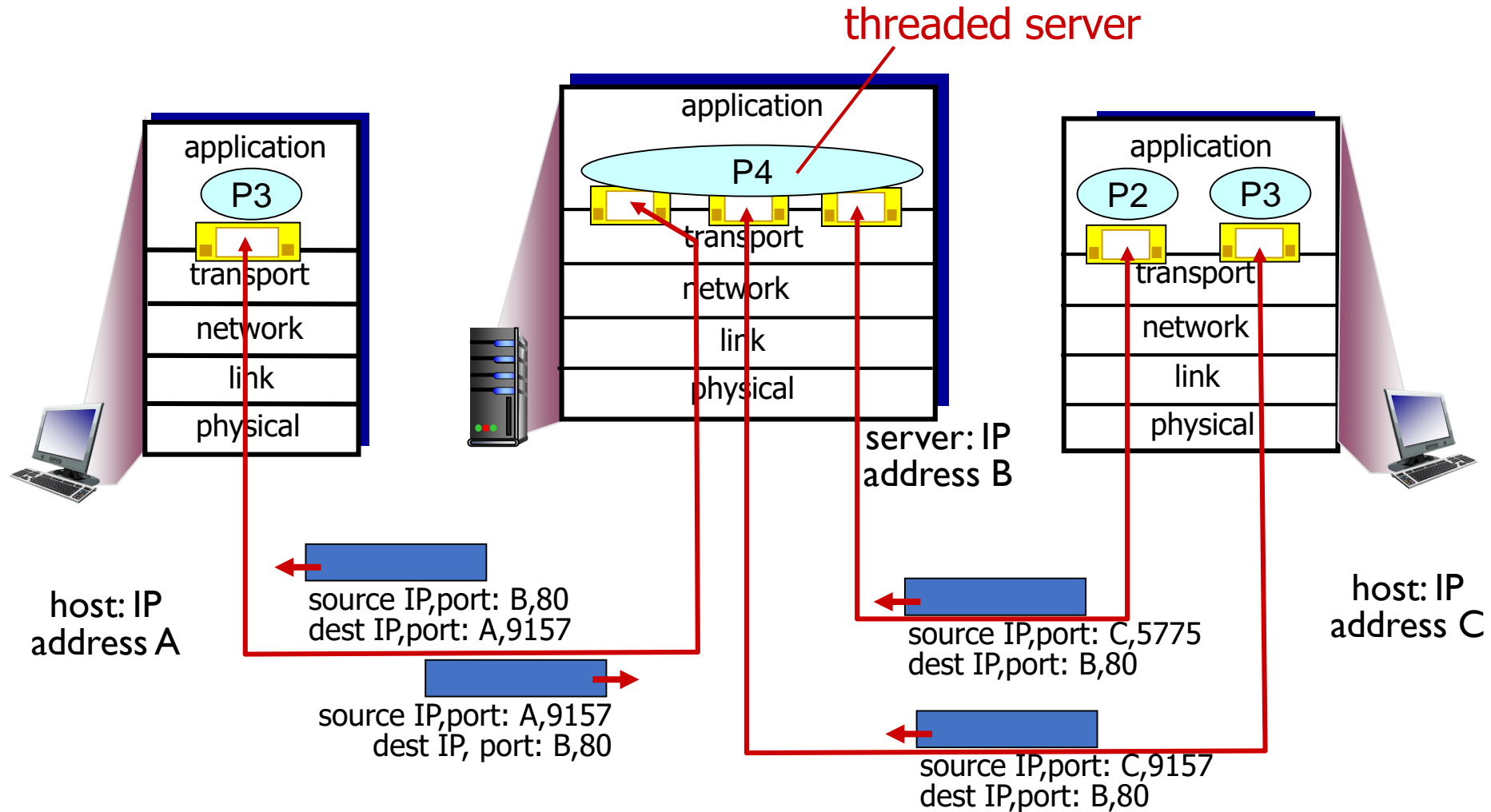
demultiplexing at receiver:
use header info to deliver received segments to correct socket



Connectionless demux: example



Connection-oriented demux: example



UDP: User Datagram Protocol [RFC 768]

- “no frills,” “bare bones” Internet transport protocol
 - “best effort” service, UDP segments may be:
 - lost
 - delivered out-of-order to app
 - *connectionless*:
 - no handshaking between UDP sender, receiver
 - each UDP segment handled independently of others
- UDP use:
 - streaming multimedia apps (loss tolerant, rate sensitive)
 - DNS
 - SNMP
 - reliable transfer over UDP:
 - add reliability at application layer
 - application-specific error recovery!

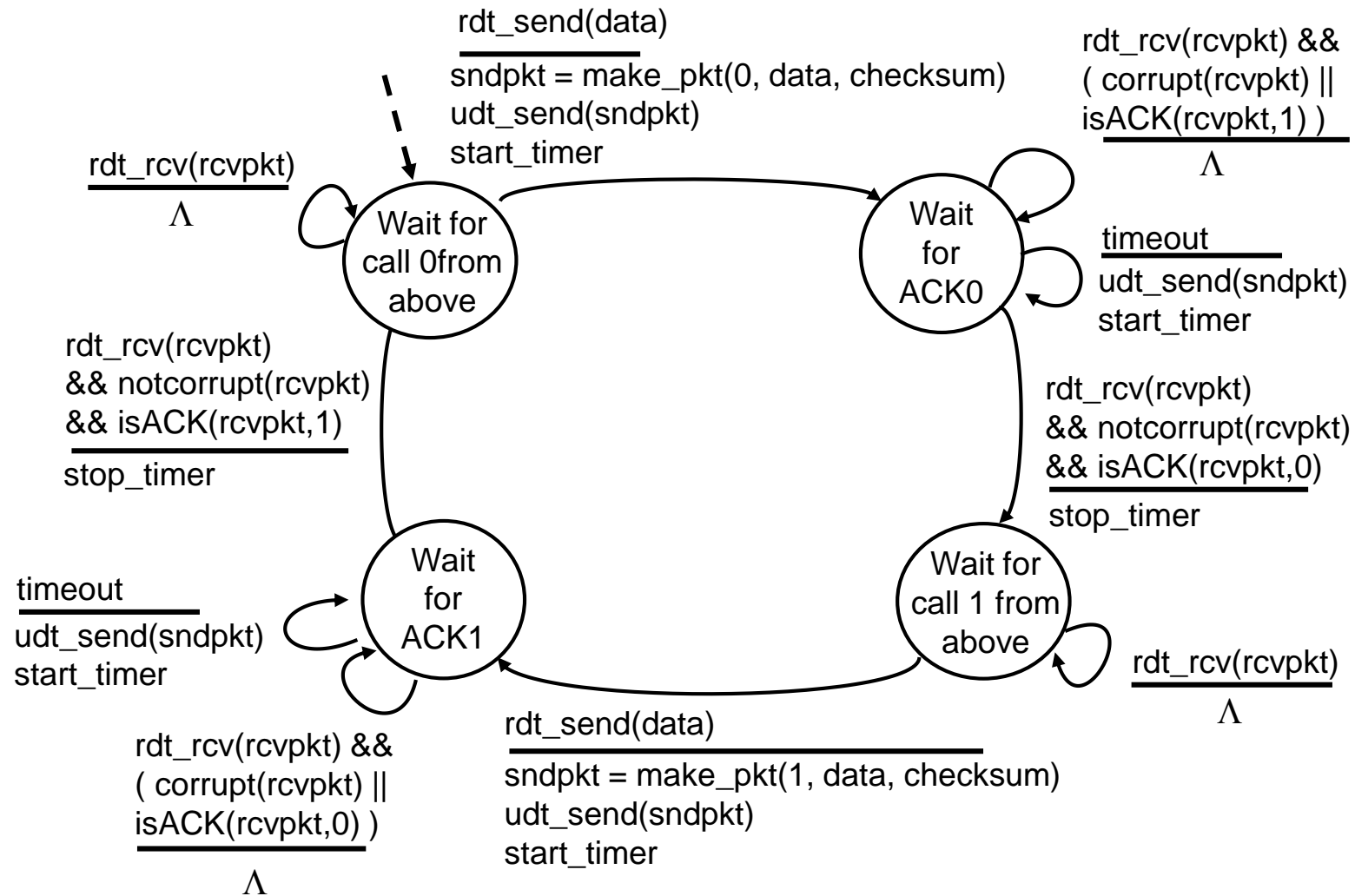
Internet checksum: example

example: add two 16-bit integers

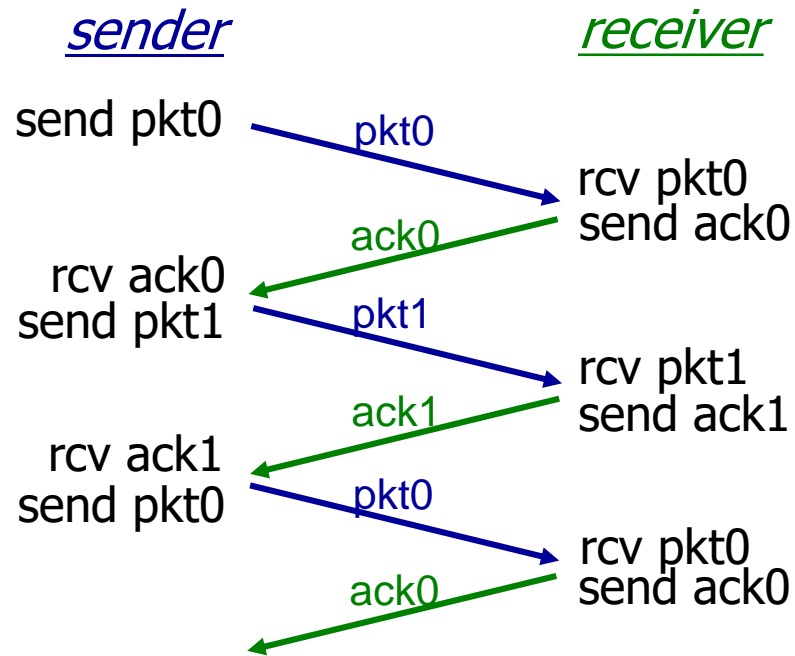
	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0
	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1
<hr/>																
wraparound	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1
<hr/>																
sum	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	0
checksum	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1

Note: when adding numbers, a carryout from the most significant bit needs to be added to the result

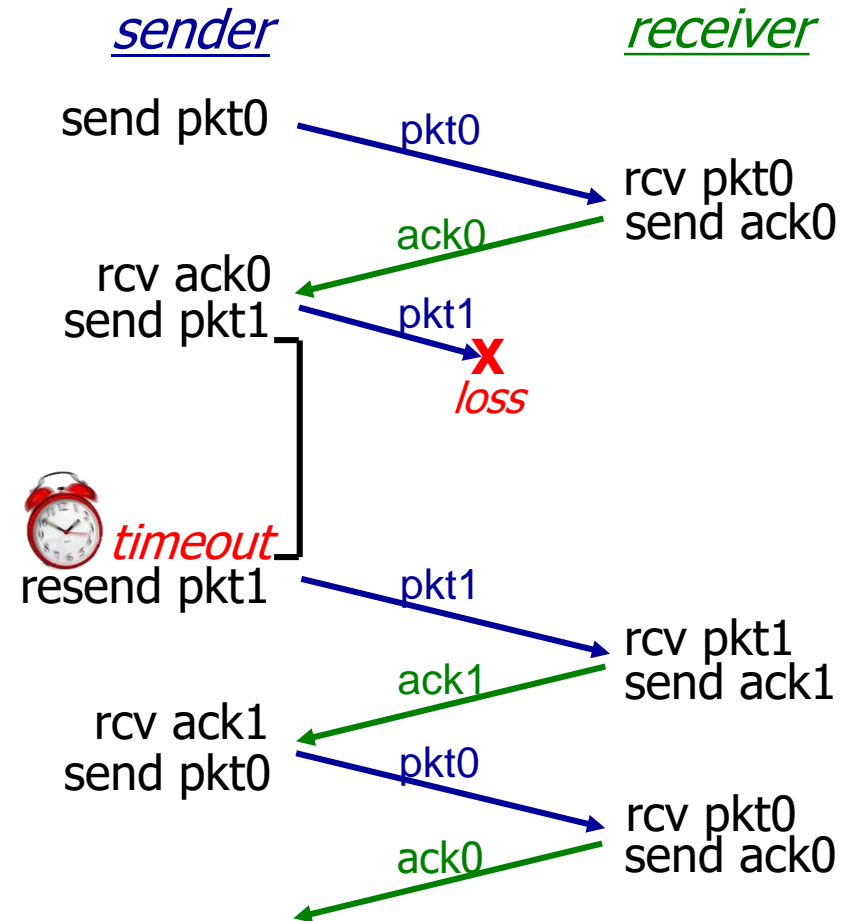
rdt3.0 sender



rdt3.0 in action

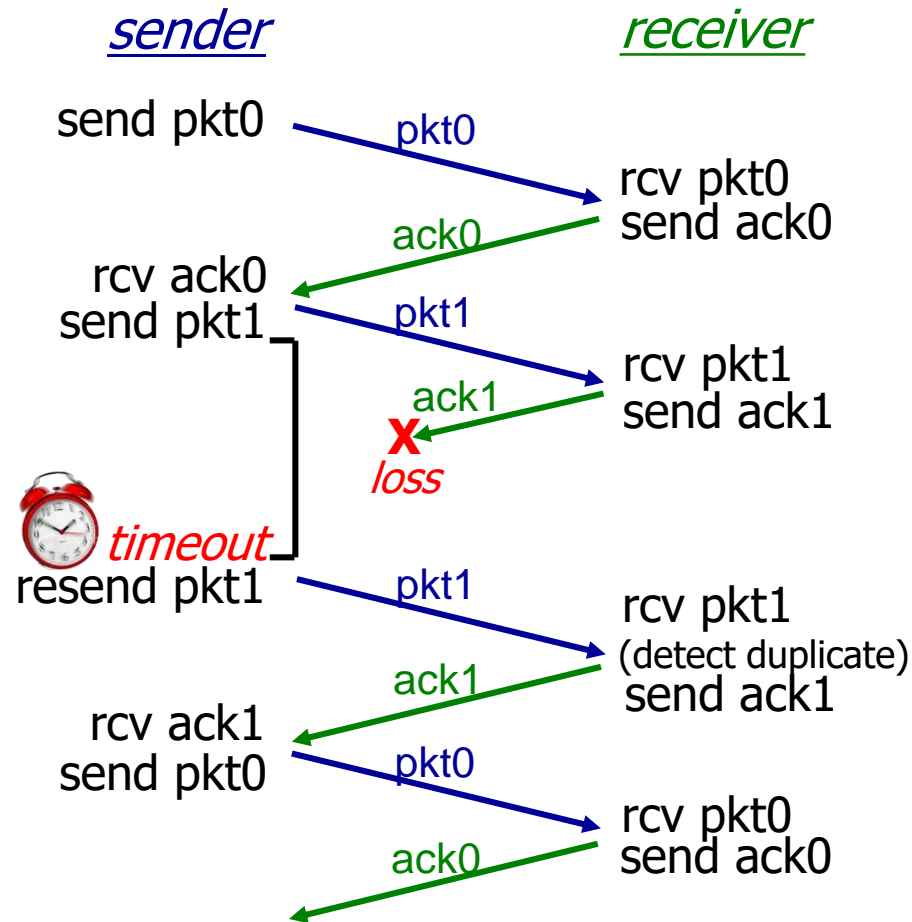


(a) no loss

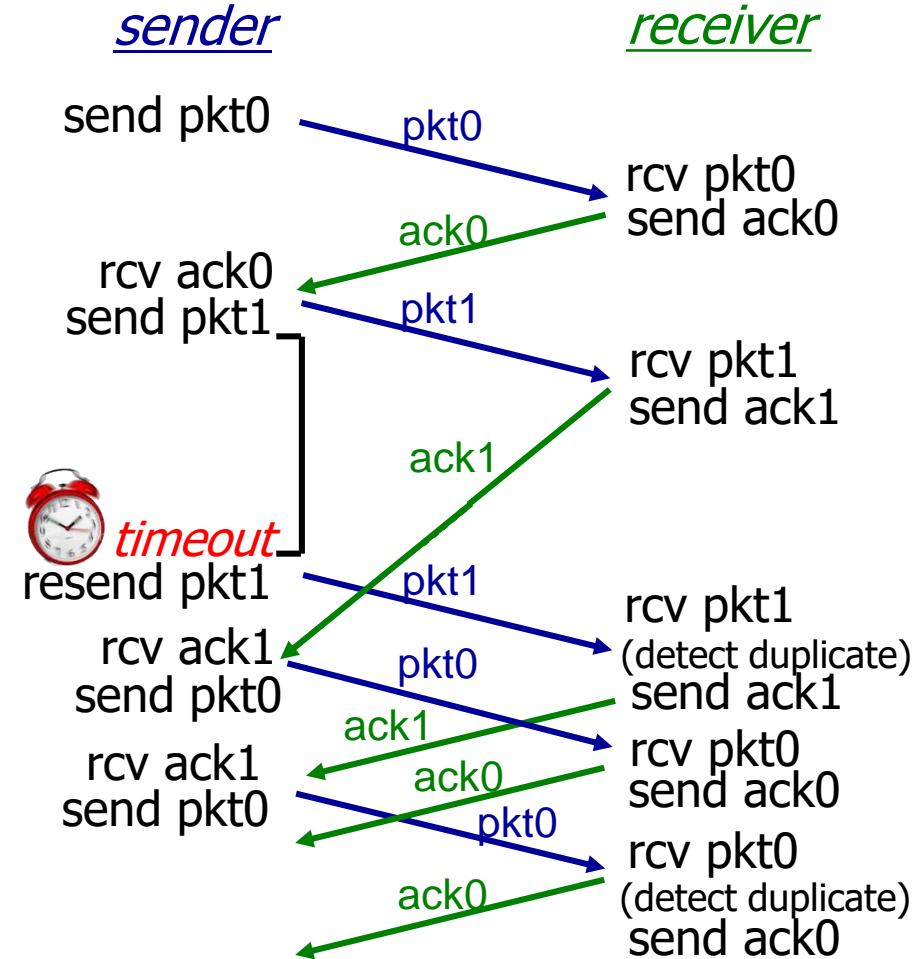


(b) packet loss

rdt3.0 in action



(c) ACK loss



(d) premature timeout/ delayed ACK

TCP seq. numbers, ACKs

sequence numbers:

- byte stream “number” of first byte in segment’s data

acknowledgements:

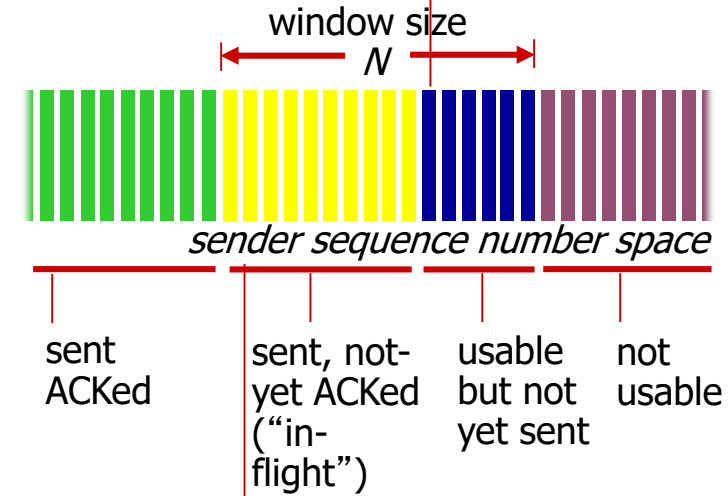
- seq # of next byte expected from other side
- cumulative ACK

Q: how receiver handles out-of-order segments

- **A:** TCP spec doesn’t say, - up to implementor

outgoing segment from sender

source port #	dest port #
sequence number	
acknowledgement number	
	rwnd
checksum	urg pointer

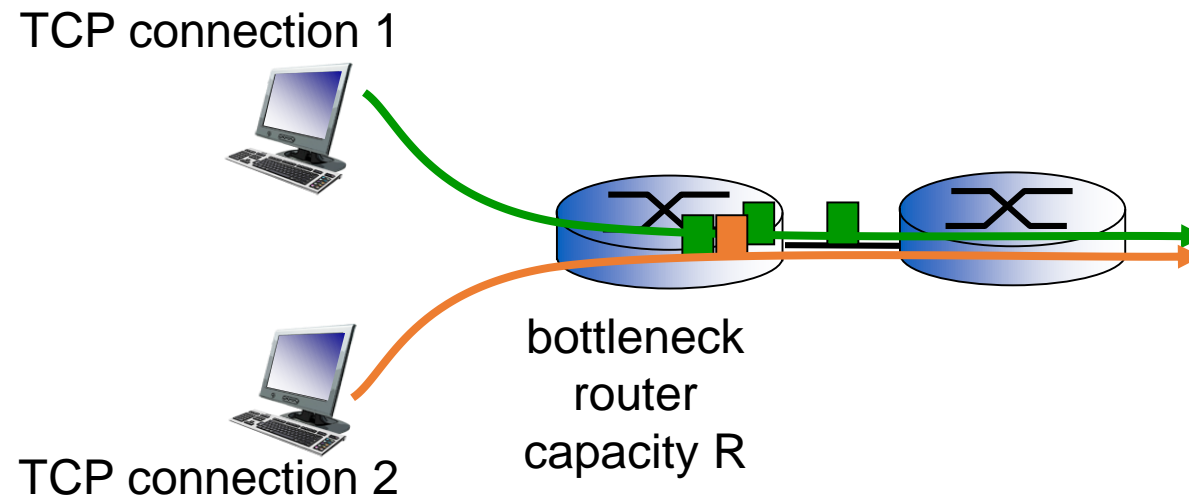


incoming segment to sender

source port #	dest port #
sequence number	
acknowledgement number	
	A
checksum	urg pointer

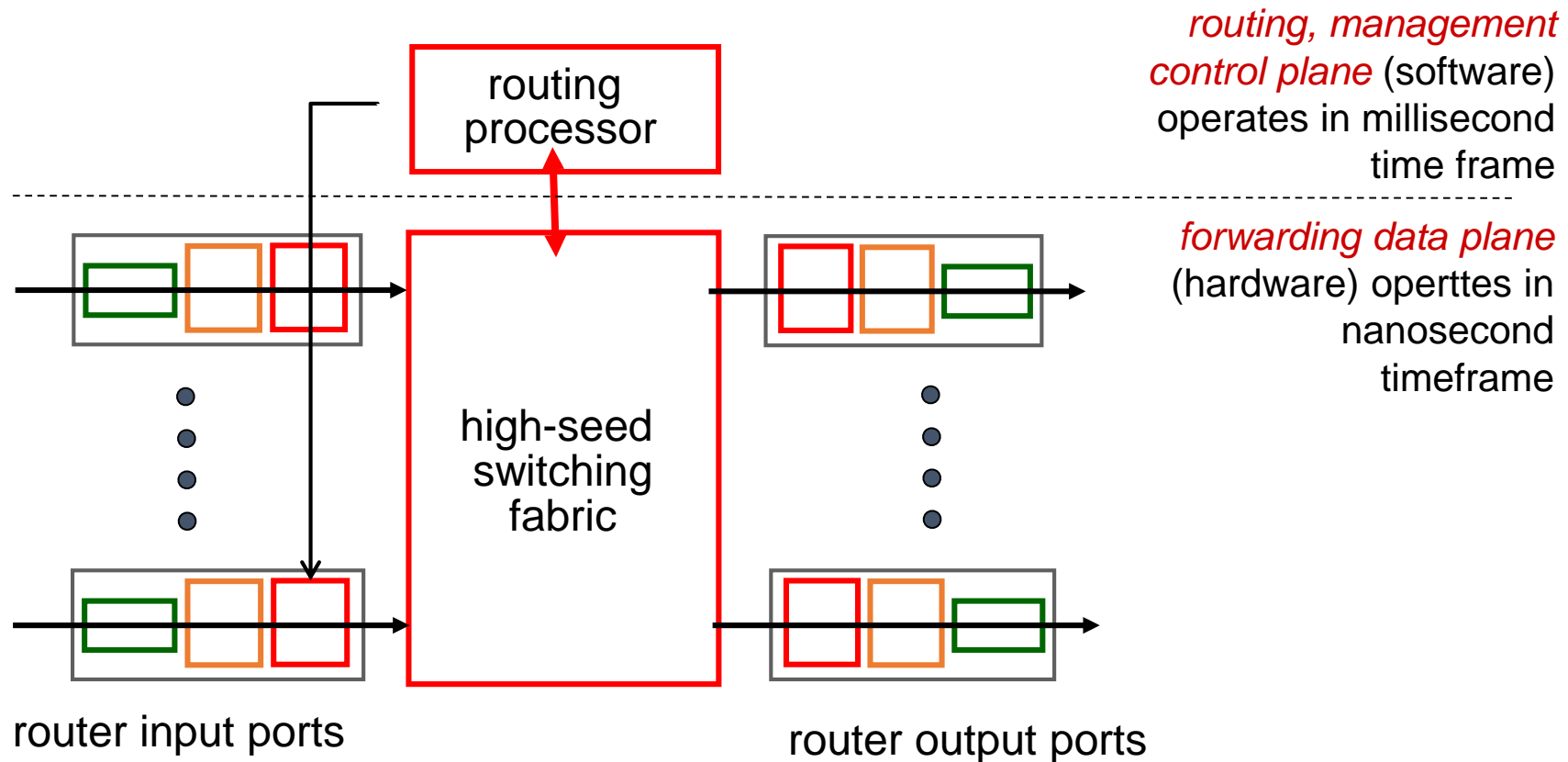
TCP Fairness

fairness goal: if K TCP sessions share same bottleneck link of bandwidth R , each should have average rate of R/K



Router architecture overview

- high-level view of generic router architecture:



Longest prefix matching

longest prefix matching

when looking for forwarding table entry for given destination address, use *longest* address prefix that matches destination address.

Destination Address Range	Link interface
11001000 00010111 00010*** *****	0
11001000 00010111 00011000 *****	1
11001000 00010111 00011*** *****	2
otherwise	3

examples:

DA: 11001000 00010111 00010110 10100001

which interface?

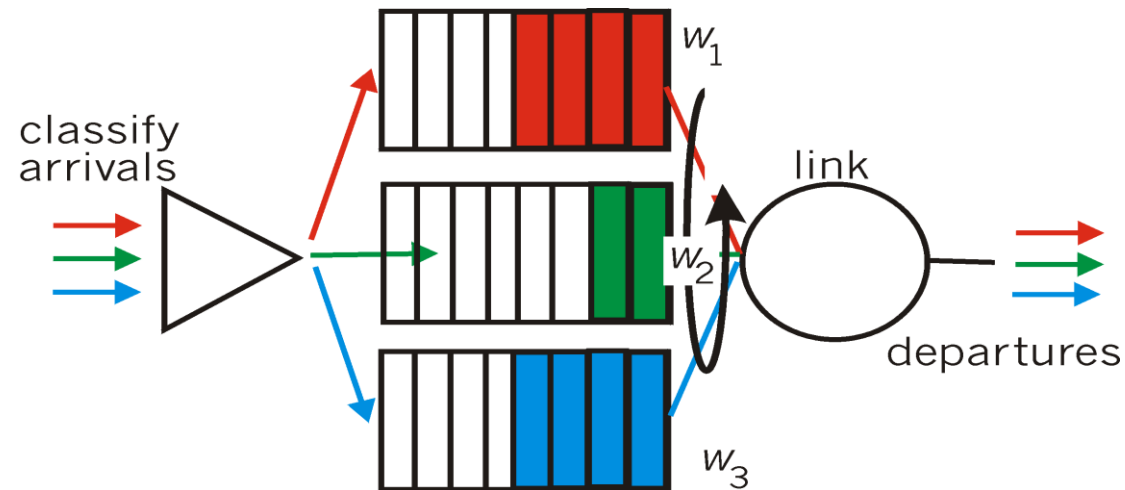
DA: 11001000 00010111 00011000 10101010

which interface?

Scheduling policies: still more

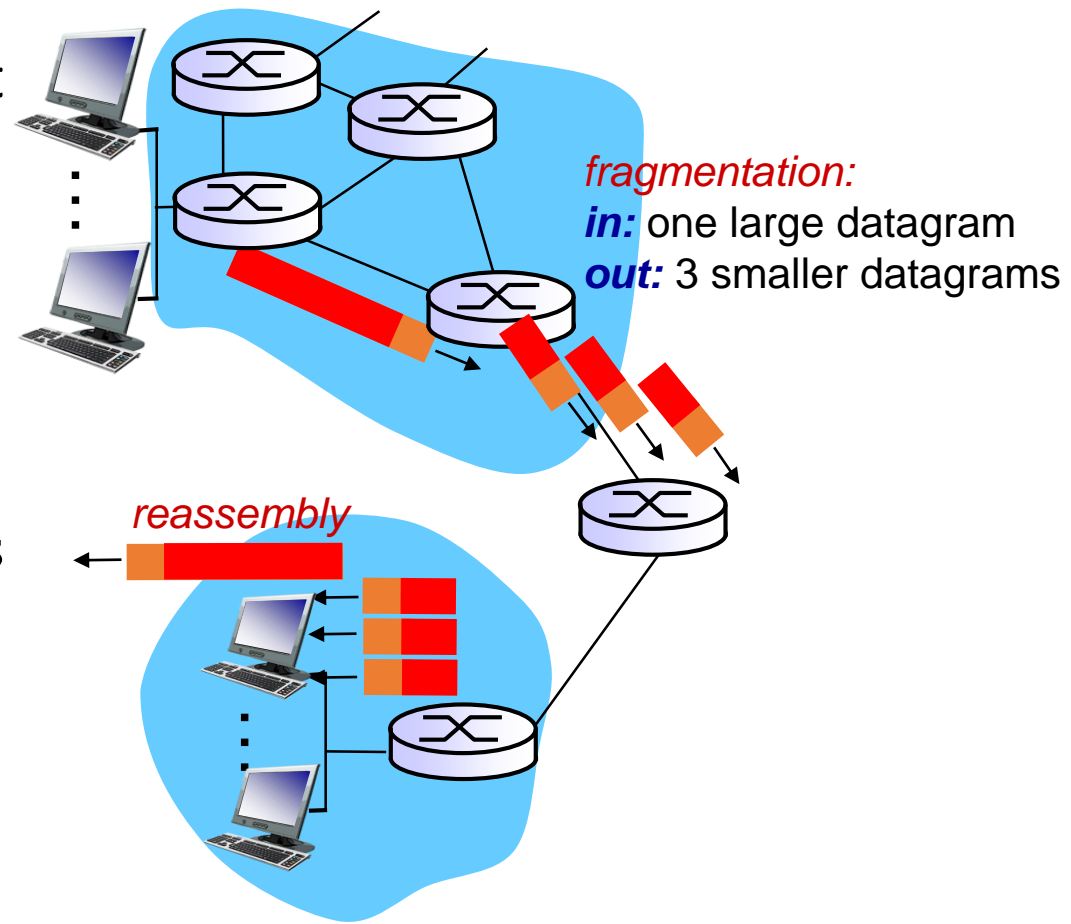
Weighted Fair Queuing (WFQ):

- generalized Round Robin
- each class gets weighted amount of service in each cycle



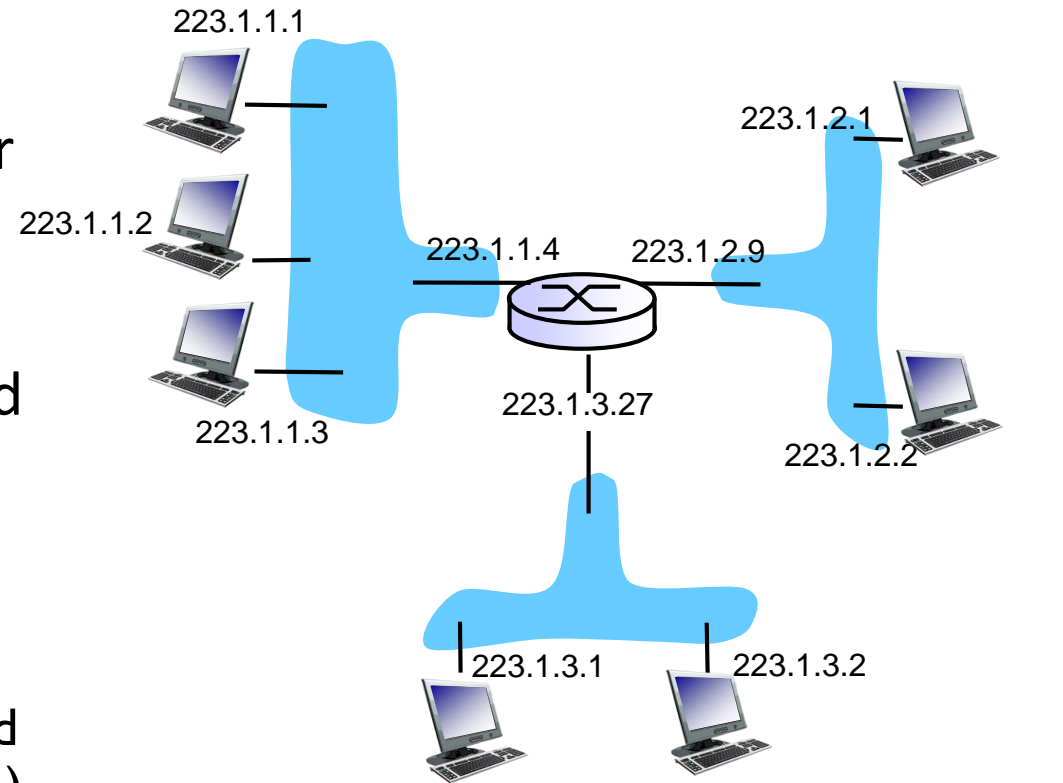
IP fragmentation, reassembly

- network links have MTU (max.transfer size) - largest possible link-level frame
 - different link types, different MTUs
- large IP datagram divided (“fragmented”) within net
 - one datagram becomes several datagrams
 - “reassembled” only at final destination
 - IP header bits used to identify, order related fragments



IP addressing: introduction

- *IP address*: 32-bit identifier for host, router *interface*
- *interface*: connection between host/router and physical link
 - router's typically have multiple interfaces
 - host typically has one or two interfaces (e.g., wired Ethernet, wireless 802.11)
- *IP addresses associated with each interface*

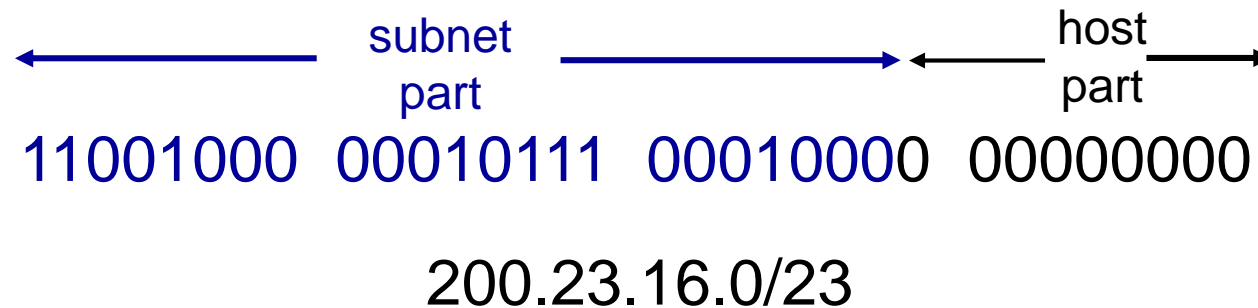


$$223.1.1.1 = \underbrace{11011111}_{223} \underbrace{00000001}_1 \underbrace{00000001}_1 \underbrace{00000001}_1$$

IP addressing: CIDR

CIDR: Classless InterDomain Routing

- subnet portion of address of arbitrary length
- address format: **a.b.c.d/x**, where x is # bits in subnet portion of address

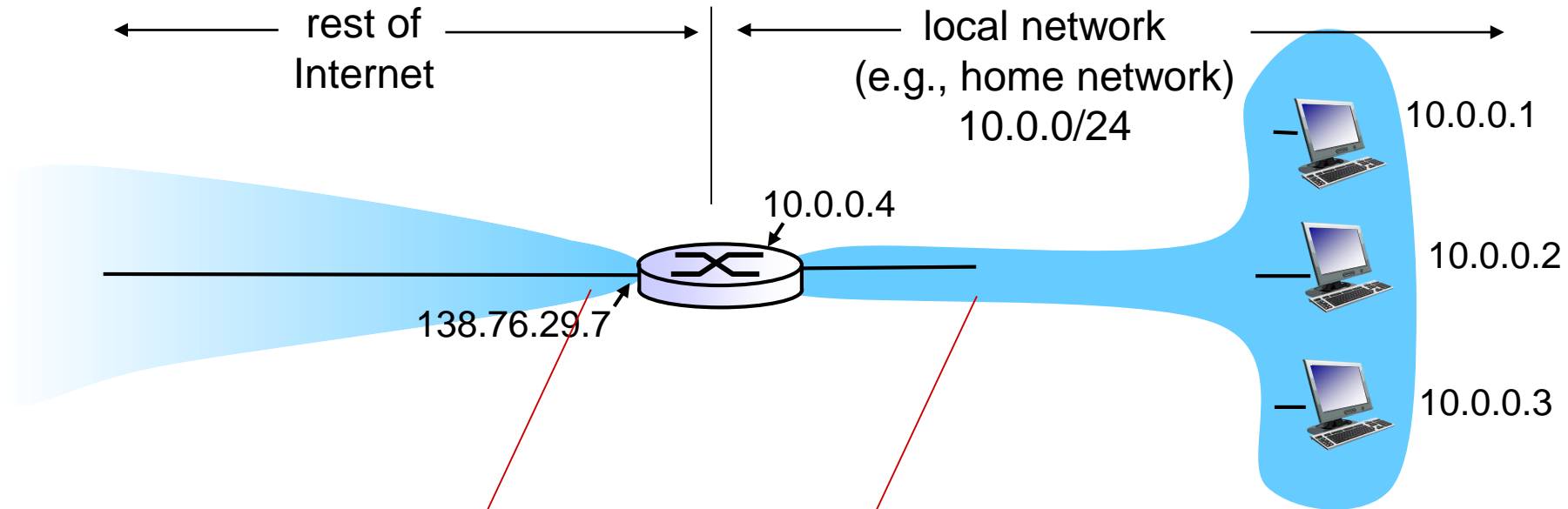


DHCP: more than IP addresses

DHCP can return more than just allocated IP address on subnet:

- address of first-hop router for client
- name and IP address of DNS sever
- network mask (indicating network versus host portion of address)

NAT: network address translation



all datagrams *leaving* local network have *same* single source NAT IP address: 138.76.29.7, different source port numbers

datagrams with source or destination in this network have 10.0.0/24 address for source, destination (as usual)

IPv6: motivation

- *initial motivation*: 32-bit address space soon to be completely allocated.
- additional motivation:
 - header format helps speed processing/forwarding
 - header changes to facilitate QoS

IPv6 datagram format:

- fixed-length 40 byte header
- no fragmentation allowed

Transition from IPv4 to IPv6

- not all routers can be upgraded simultaneously
 - no “flag days”
 - how will network operate with mixed IPv4 and IPv6 routers?
- *tunneling*: IPv6 datagram carried as *payload* in IPv4 datagram among IPv4 routers

