

# Computer Networking

Lent Term  
M/W/F 11:00-12:00  
LT1 in Gates Building

Slide Set 3 (Topic 5)

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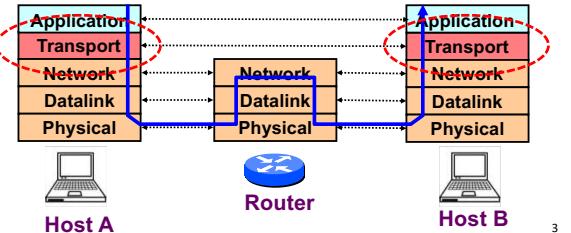
## Topic 5 – Transport

### Our goals:

- understand principles behind transport layer services:
  - multiplexing/demultiplexing
  - reliable data transfer
  - flow control
  - congestion control
  - beyond TCP
- learn about transport layer protocols in the Internet:
  - UDP: connectionless transport
  - TCP: connection-oriented transport
  - TCP congestion control
  - TCP flow control

## Transport Layer

- Commonly a layer at end-hosts, between the application and network layer



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## Why a transport layer?

- IP packets are addressed to a host but end-to-end communication is between application processes at hosts
  - Need a way to decide which packets go to which applications (*more multiplexing*)

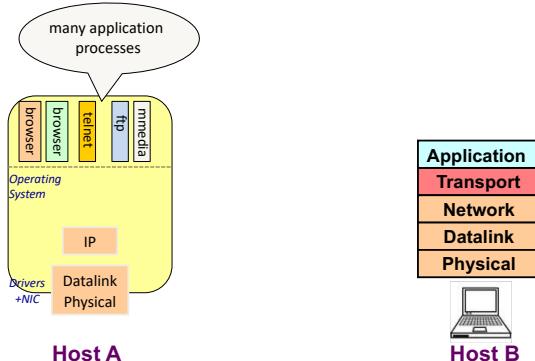
## Why a transport layer?



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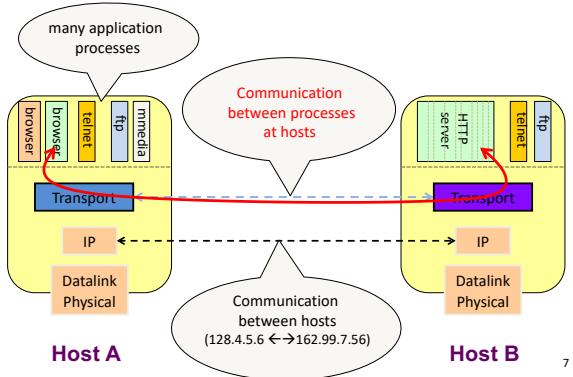
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## Why a transport layer?



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## Why a transport layer?



Host B

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## Why a transport layer?

- IP packets are addressed to a host but end-to-end communication is between application processes at hosts
  - Need a way to decide which packets go to which applications (mux/demux)
- IP provides a weak service model (*best-effort*)
  - Packets can be corrupted, delayed, dropped, reordered, duplicated
  - No guidance on how much traffic to send and when
  - Dealing with this is tedious for application developers

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## Role of the Transport Layer

- Communication between application processes
  - Multiplexing between application processes
  - Implemented using *ports*

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## Role of the Transport Layer

- Communication between application processes
- Provide common end-to-end services for app layer [optional]
  - Reliable, in-order data delivery
  - Paced data delivery: flow and congestion-control
    - too fast may overwhelm the network
    - too slow is not efficient

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## Role of the Transport Layer

- Communication between processes
- Provide common end-to-end services for app layer [optional]
- TCP and UDP are the common transport protocols
  - also SCTP, MTCP, SST, RDP, DCCP, ...

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## Role of the Transport Layer

- Communication between processes
- Provide common end-to-end services for app layer [optional]
- TCP and UDP are the common transport protocols
- UDP is a minimalist, no-frills transport protocol
  - only provides mux/demux capabilities

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## Role of the Transport Layer

- Communication between processes
- Provide common end-to-end services for app layer [optional]
- TCP and UDP are the common transport protocols
- UDP is a minimalist, no-frills transport protocol
- TCP is the *totus porcus* protocol
  - offers apps a reliable, in-order, byte-stream abstraction
  - with congestion control
  - but **no** performance (delay, bandwidth, ...) guarantees

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## Role of the Transport Layer

- Communication between processes
  - mux/demux from and to application processes
  - implemented using ports

## Context: Applications and Sockets

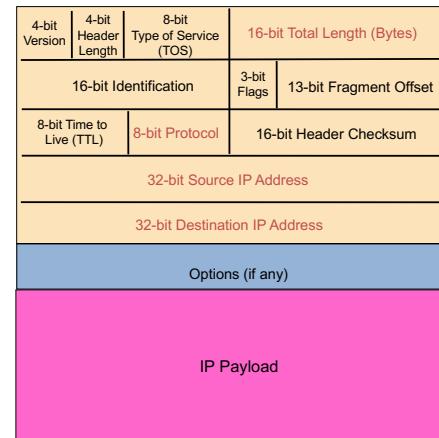
- Socket: software abstraction by which an application process exchanges network messages with the (transport layer in the) operating system
  - `socketID = socket(..., socket.TYPE)`
  - `socketID.sendto(message, ...)`
  - `socketID.recvfrom(...)`
- Two important types of sockets
  - UDP socket: TYPE is `SOCK_DGRAM`
  - TCP socket: TYPE is `SOCK_STREAM`

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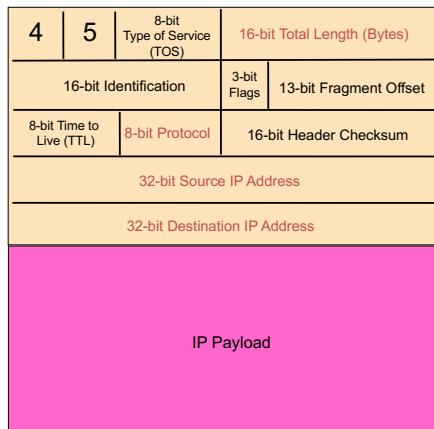
## Ports

- Problem: deciding which app (socket) gets which packets
- Solution: **port** as a transport layer identifier
  - 16 bit identifier
  - OS stores mapping between sockets and **ports**
  - a packet carries a source and destination port number in its transport layer header
- For UDP ports (SOCK\_DGRAM)
  - OS stores (local port, local IP address) ↔ socket
- For TCP ports (SOCK\_STREAM)
  - OS stores (local port, local IP, remote port, remote IP) ↔ socket

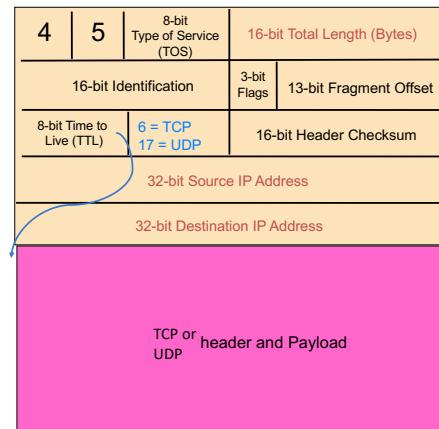


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4	5	8-bit Type of Service (TOS)	16-bit Total Length (Bytes)
16-bit Identification	3-bit Flags	13-bit Fragment Offset	
8-bit Time to Live (TTL)	6 = TCP 17 = UDP	16-bit Header Checksum	
32-bit Source IP Address			
32-bit Destination IP Address			
16-bit Source Port	16-bit Destination Port		
More transport header fields ....			
TCP or UDP header and Payload			

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## Recap: Multiplexing and Demultiplexing

- Host receives IP packets
  - Each IP header has source and destination **IP address**
  - Each Transport Layer header has source and destination **port** number
- Host uses IP addresses and port numbers to direct the message to appropriate **socket**

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## More on Ports

- Separate 16-bit port address space for UDP and TCP
- “Well known” ports (0-1023): everyone agrees which services run on these ports
  - e.g., ssh:22, http:80
  - helps client know server’s port
- Ephemeral ports (most 1024-65535): dynamically selected: as the source port for a client process

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## UDP: User Datagram Protocol

- Lightweight communication between processes
  - Avoid overhead and delays of ordered, reliable delivery
- UDP described in RFC 768 – (1980!)
  - Destination IP address and port to support demultiplexing
  - Optional error checking on the packet contents
    - (checksum field of 0 means “don’t verify checksum”)
    - ((this idea of optional checksum is removed in IPv6))

SRC port	DST port
checksum	length
DATA	

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## Why a transport layer?

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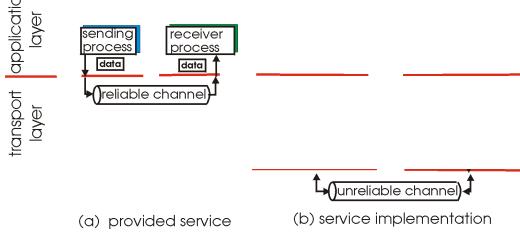
## Principles of Reliable data transfer

- important in app., transport, link layers
  - top-10 list of important networking topics!
    - In a perfect world, reliable transport is easy
- But the Internet default is *best-effort*
- All the bad things best-effort can do
    - a packet is corrupted (bit errors)
    - a packet is lost
    - a packet is delayed (*why?*)
    - packets are reordered (*why?*)
    - a packet is duplicated (*why?*)
- 
- (a) provided service

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## Principles of Reliable data transfer

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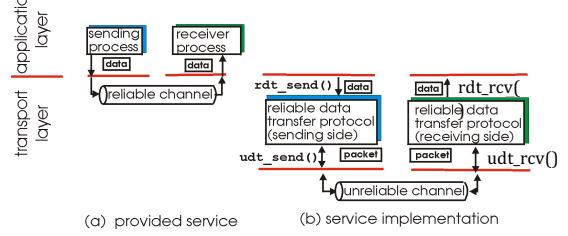


- characteristics of unreliable channel will determine complexity of reliable data transfer protocol (rdt)

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## Principles of Reliable data transfer

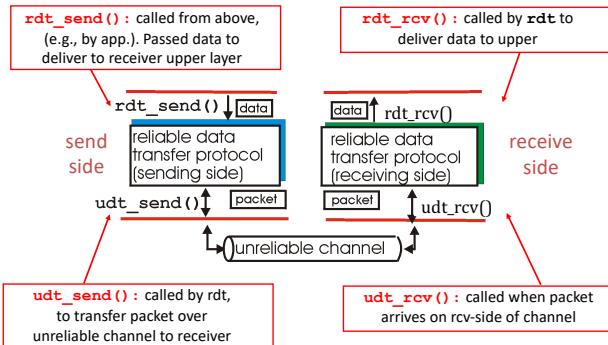
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- characteristics of unreliable channel will determine complexity of reliable data transfer protocol (rdt)

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## Reliable data transfer: getting started



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## Reliable data transfer: getting started

We'll:

- incrementally develop sender, receiver sides of reliable data transfer protocol (rdt)
- consider only unidirectional data transfer
  - but control info will flow on both directions!
- use finite state machines (FSM) to specify sender, receiver



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## KR state machines – a note.

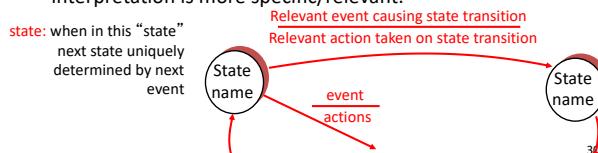
### Beware

Kurose and Ross has a confusing/confused attitude to state-machines.

I've attempted to normalise the representation.

UPSHOT: these slides have differing information to the KR book (from which the RDT example is taken.)

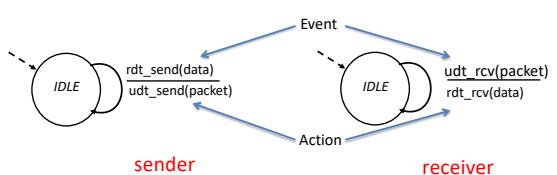
in KR "actions taken" appear wide-ranging, my interpretation is more specific/relevant.



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## Rdt1.0: reliable transfer over a reliable channel

- underlying channel perfectly reliable
  - no bit errors
  - no loss of packets
- separate FSMs for sender, receiver:
  - sender sends data into underlying channel
  - receiver read data from underlying channel



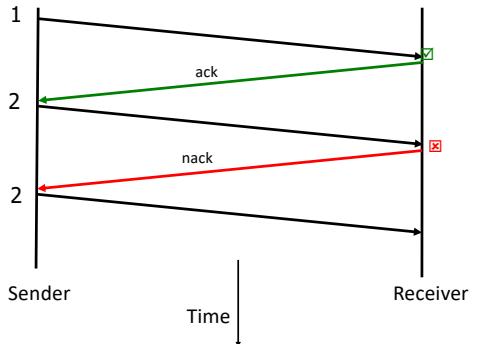
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## Rdt2.0: channel with bit errors

- underlying channel may flip bits in packet
  - checksum to detect bit errors
- the question: how to recover from errors:
  - acknowledgements (ACKs)**: receiver explicitly tells sender that packet received is OK
  - negative acknowledgements (NAKs)**: receiver explicitly tells sender that packet had errors
  - sender retransmits packet on receipt of NAK
- new mechanisms in **rdt2.0** (beyond **rdt1.0**):
  - error detection
  - receiver feedback: control msgs (ACK,NAK) receiver->sender

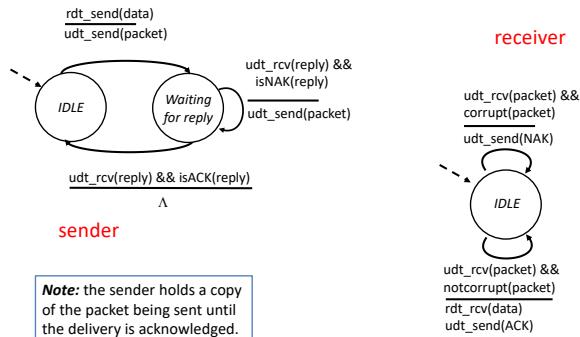
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## Dealing with Packet Corruption



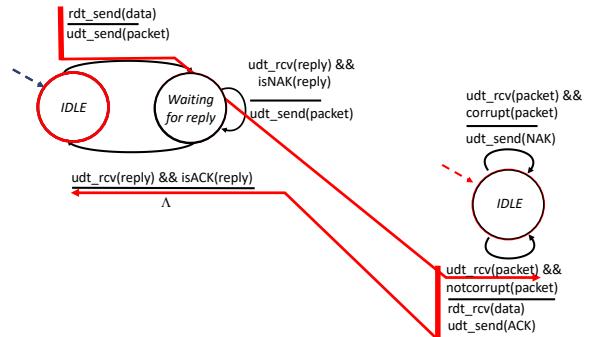
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## rdt2.0: FSM specification



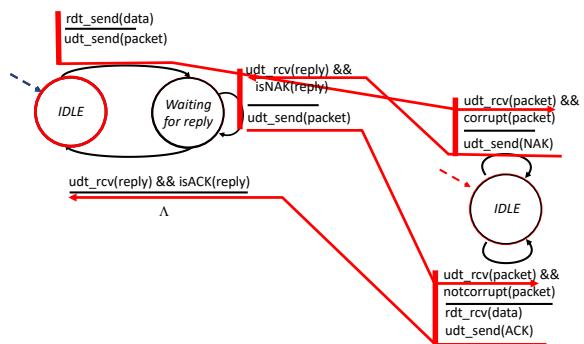
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## rdt2.0: operation with no errors



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## rdt2.0: error scenario



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## rdt2.0 has a fatal flaw!

What happens if ACK/NAK corrupted?

- sender doesn't know what happened at receiver!
- can't just retransmit: possible duplicate

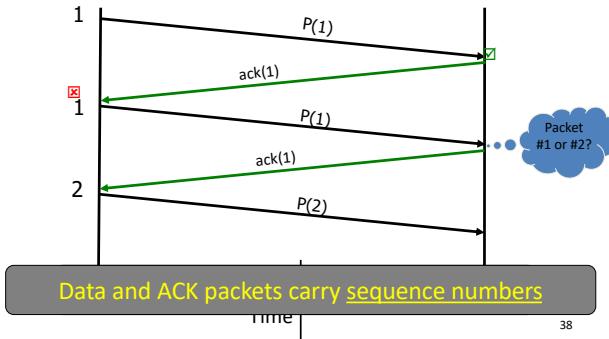
Handling duplicates:

- sender retransmits current packet if ACK/NAK garbled
- sender adds **sequence number** to each packet
- receiver discards (doesn't deliver) duplicate packet

stop and wait  
Sender sends one packet, then waits for receiver response

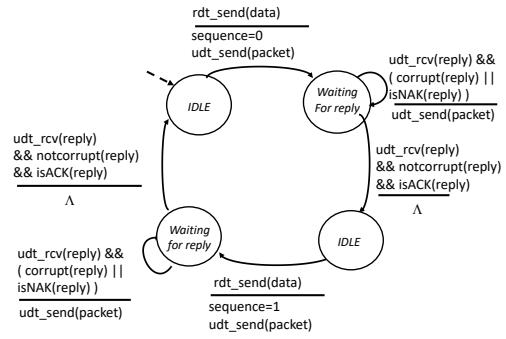
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## Dealing with Packet Corruption



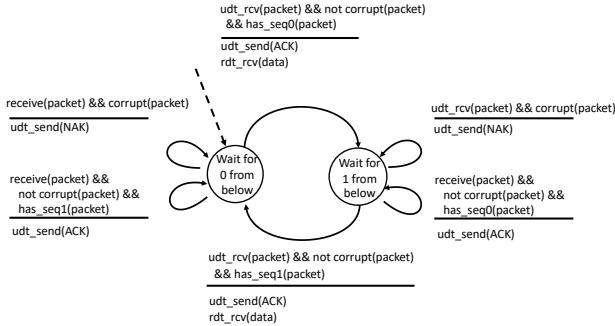
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## rdt2.1: sender, handles garbled ACK/NAKs



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## rdt2.1: receiver, handles garbled ACK/NAKs



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## rdt2.1: discussion

### Sender:

- seq # added to pkt
- two seq. #'s (0,1) will suffice. Why?
- must check if received ACK/NAK corrupted
- twice as many states
  - state must “remember” whether “current” pkt has a 0 or 1 sequence number

### Receiver:

- must check if received packet is duplicate
  - state indicates whether 0 or 1 is expected pkt seq #
- note: receiver can *not* know if its last ACK/NAK received OK at sender

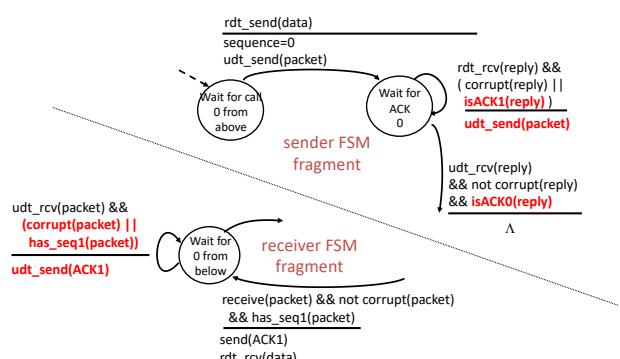
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## rdt2.2: a NAK-free protocol

- same functionality as rdt2.1, using ACKs only
- instead of NAK, receiver sends ACK for last pkt received OK
  - receiver must *explicitly* include seq # of pkt being ACKed
- duplicate ACK at sender results in same action as NAK: *retransmit current pkt*

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## rdt2.2: sender, receiver fragments



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rdt3.0: channels with errors *and* loss

New assumption: underlying channel can also lose packets (data or ACKs)

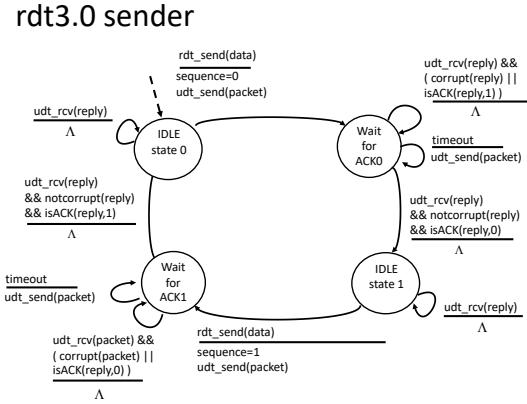
- checksum, seq. #, ACKs, retransmissions will be of help, but not enough
  - retransmits if no ACK received in this time
  - if pkt (or ACK) just delayed (not lost):
    - retransmission will be duplicate, but use of seq. #'s already handles this
    - receiver must specify seq # of pkt being ACKed
  - requires countdown timer

Approach: sender waits  
“reasonable” amount of time for ACK

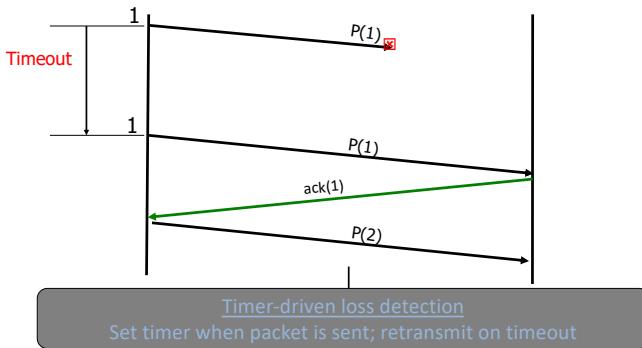
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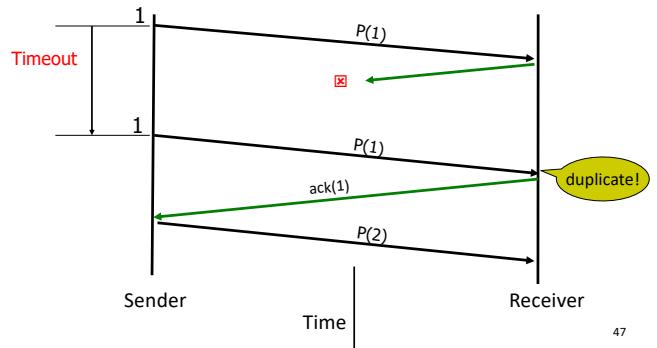
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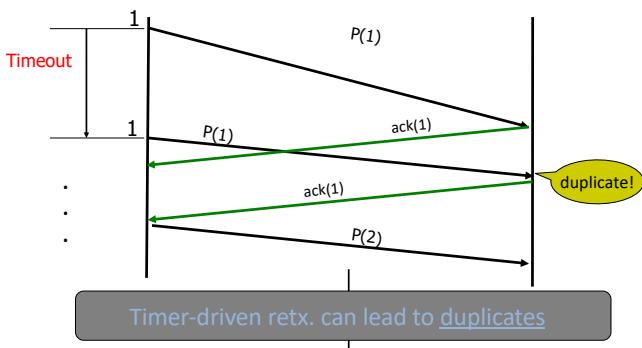
## Dealing with Packet Loss



## Dealing with Packet Loss



## Dealing with Packet Loss



## Performance of rdt3.0

- rdt3.0 works, but performance stinks
  - ex: 1 Gbps link, 15 ms prop. delay, 8000 bit packet:

$$d_{trans} = \frac{L}{R} = \frac{8000\text{bits}}{10^9 \text{bps}} = 8 \text{ microseconds}$$

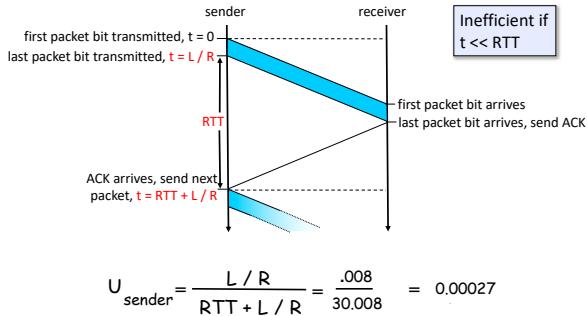
m  $U_{\text{sender}}$ : utilization – fraction of time sender busy sending

$$U_{\text{sender}} = \frac{L/R}{RTT + L/R} = \frac{.008}{30.008} = 0.00027$$

- 1KB pkt every 30 msec  $\rightarrow$  33kB/sec throughput over 1 Gbps link
- network protocol limits use of physical resources!

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## rdt3.0: stop-and-wait operation

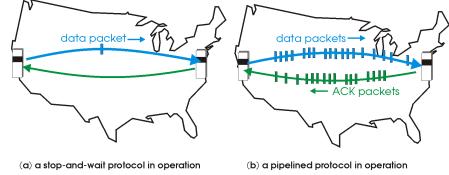


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## Pipelined (Packet-Window) protocols

**Pipelining:** sender allows multiple, “in-flight”, yet-to-be-acknowledged pkts

- range of sequence numbers must be increased
- buffering at sender and/or receiver



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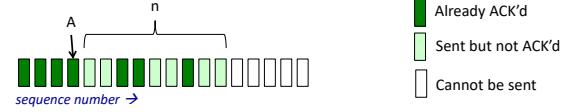
## A Sliding Packet Window

- **window** = set of adjacent sequence numbers
  - The size of the set is the **window size**; assume window size is  $n$
- General idea: send up to  $n$  packets at a time
  - Sender can send packets in its window
  - Receiver can accept packets in its window
  - Window of acceptable packets “slides” on successful reception/acknowledgement

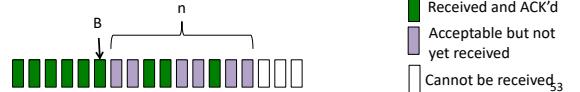
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## A Sliding Packet Window

- Let A be the **last ack'd packet of sender without gap**; then window of sender =  $\{A+1, A+2, \dots, A+n\}$



- Let B be the **last received packet without gap** by receiver, then window of receiver =  $\{B+1, \dots, B+n\}$



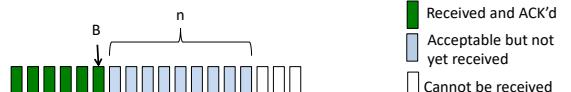
## Acknowledgements w/ Sliding Window

- Two common options
  - cumulative ACKs: ACK carries next in-order sequence number that the receiver expects

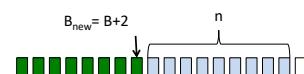
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## Cumulative Acknowledgements (1)

- At receiver



- After receiving  $B+1, B+2$



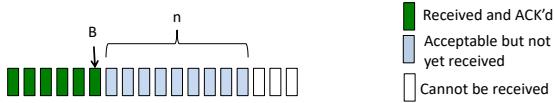
- Receiver sends  $\text{ACK}(B_{\text{new}}+1)$

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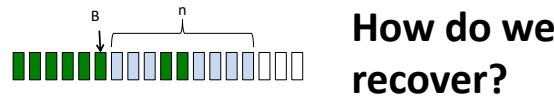
## Cumulative Acknowledgements (2)

## Go-Back-N (GBN)

- At receiver



- After receiving B+4, B+5



- Receiver sends  $\text{ACK}(B+1)$

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- Sender transmits up to  $n$  unacknowledged packets

- Receiver only accepts packets in order
  - discards out-of-order packets (i.e., packets other than  $B+1$ )
- Receiver uses **cumulative acknowledgements**
  - i.e., sequence# in ACK = next expected in-order sequence#

- Sender sets timer for 1<sup>st</sup> outstanding ack ( $A+1$ )
- If timeout, retransmit  $A+1, \dots, A+n$

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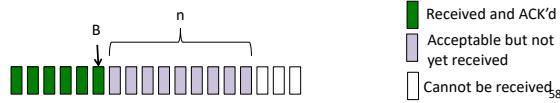
## How do we recover?

## Sliding Window with GBN

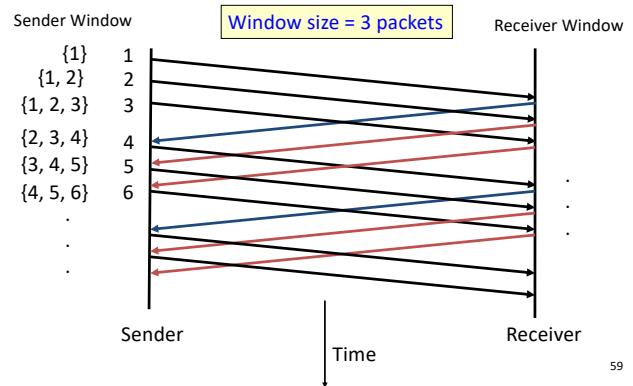
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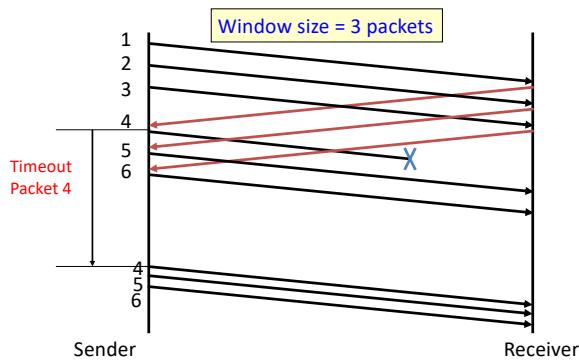


## GBN Example w/o Errors



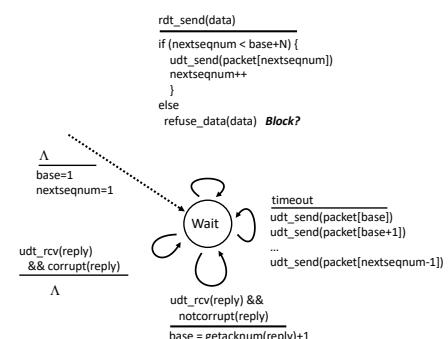
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## GBN Example with Errors



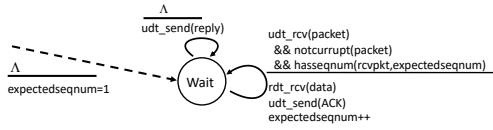
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## GBN: sender extended FSM



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## GBN: receiver extended FSM



- ACK-only: always send an ACK for correctly-received packet with the highest *in-order* seq #
- may generate duplicate ACKs
  - need only remember **expectedseqnum**
- out-of-order packet:
    - discard (don't buffer) -> **no receiver buffering!**
    - Re-ACK packet with highest in-order seq #

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## Acknowledgements w/ Sliding Window

- Two common options
  - cumulative ACKs: ACK carries next in-order sequence number the receiver expects
  - selective ACKs: ACK individually acknowledges correctly received packets
- Selective ACKs offer more precise information but require more complicated book-keeping
- Many variants that differ in implementation details

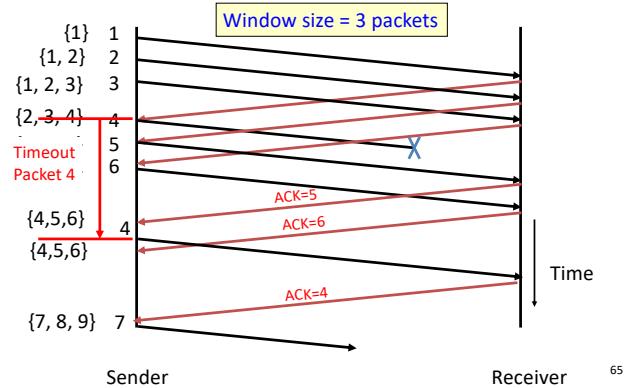
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## Selective Repeat (SR)

- Sender: transmit up to  $n$  unacknowledged packets
- Assume packet  $k$  is lost,  $k+1$  is not
- Receiver: indicates packet  $k+1$  correctly received
- Sender: retransmit only packet  $k$  on timeout
- Efficient in retransmissions but complex book-keeping
  - need a timer per packet

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## SR Example with Errors



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## Observations

- With sliding windows, it is possible to fully utilize a link, provided the window size ( $n$ ) is large enough. Throughput is  $\sim (n/RTT)$ 
  - Stop & Wait is like  $n = 1$ .
- Sender has to buffer all unacknowledged packets, because they may require retransmission
- Receiver may be able to accept out-of-order packets, but only up to its buffer limits
- Implementation complexity depends on protocol details (GBN vs. SR)

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## Recap: components of a solution

- Checksums (for error detection)
- Timers (for loss detection)
- Acknowledgments
  - cumulative
  - selective
- Sequence numbers (duplicates, windows)
- Sliding Windows (for efficiency)
- Reliability protocols use the above to decide when and what to retransmit or acknowledge

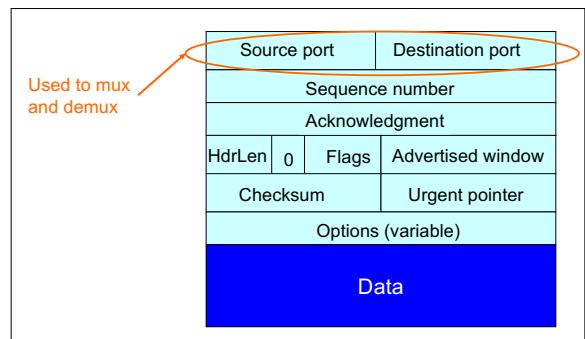
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## What does TCP do?

Most of our previous tricks + a few differences

- Sequence numbers are byte offsets
- Sender and receiver maintain a sliding window
- Receiver sends cumulative acknowledgements (like GBN)
- Sender maintains a single retx. timer
- Receivers do not drop out-of-sequence packets (like SR)
- Introduces **fast retransmit** : optimization that uses duplicate ACKs to trigger early retx
- Introduces timeout estimation algorithms

## TCP Header



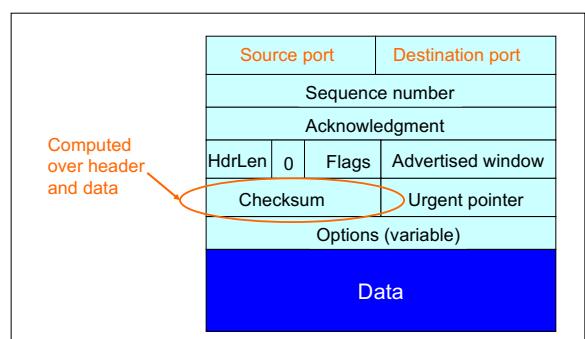
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## What does TCP do?

Many of our previous ideas, but some key differences

- Checksum

## TCP Header



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## What does TCP do?

Many of our previous ideas, but some key differences

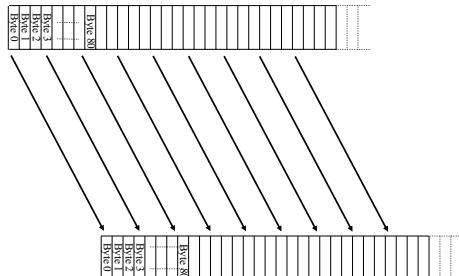
- Checksum
- Sequence numbers are byte offsets

## TCP: Segments and Sequence Numbers

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## TCP “Stream of Bytes” Service...

Application @ Host A

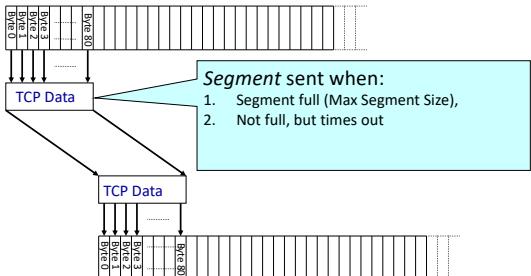


Application @ Host B

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## ... Provided Using TCP “Segments”

Host A



Host B

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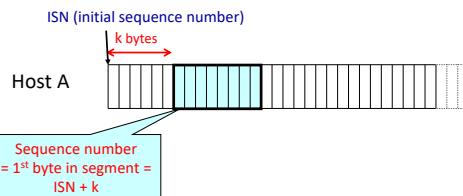
## TCP Segment



- IP packet
  - No bigger than Maximum Transmission Unit (**MTU**)
  - E.g., up to 1500 bytes with Ethernet
- TCP packet
  - IP packet with a TCP header and data inside
  - TCP header  $\geq$  20 bytes long
- TCP segment
  - No more than **Maximum Segment Size (MSS)** bytes
  - E.g., up to 1460 consecutive bytes from the stream
  - $MSS = MTU - (\text{IP header}) - (\text{TCP header})$

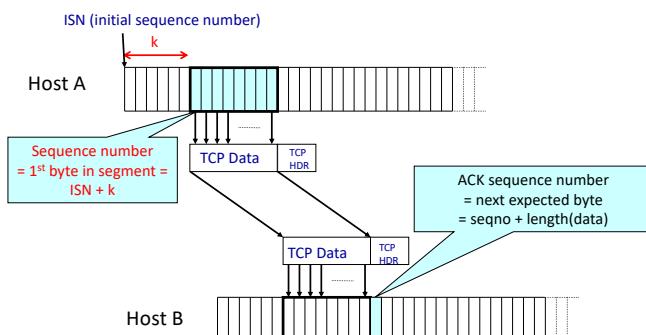
78

## Sequence Numbers



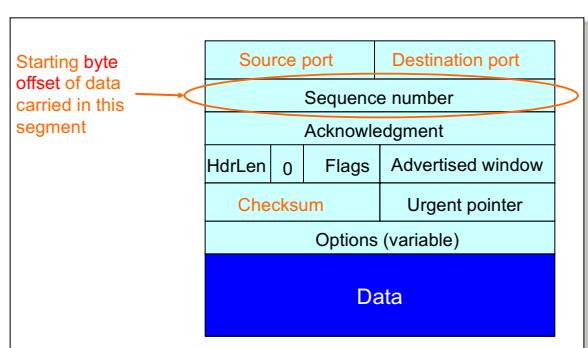
79

## Sequence Numbers



80

## TCP Header



81

## What does TCP do?

- What does TCP do?

Most of our previous tricks, but a few differences

- Checksum
- Sequence numbers are byte offsets
- Receiver sends cumulative acknowledgements (like GBN)

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## ACKing and Sequence Numbers

- Sender sends packet
  - Data starts with sequence number X
  - Packet contains B bytes [X, X+1, X+2, ..., X+B-1]
- Upon receipt of packet, receiver sends an ACK
  - If all data prior to X already received:
    - ACK acknowledges **X+B** (because that is next expected byte)
  - If highest in-order byte received is Y s.t.  $(Y+1) < X$ 
    - ACK acknowledges **Y+1**
    - Even if this has been ACKed before

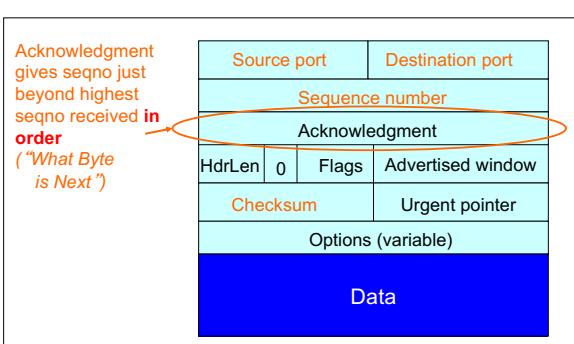
## Normal Pattern

- Sender: seqno=X, length=B
- Receiver: ACK=X+B
- Sender: seqno=X+B, length=B
- Receiver: ACK=X+2B
- Sender: seqno=X+2B, length=B
- Seqno of next packet is same as last ACK field

84

85

## TCP Header



86

## What does TCP do?

Most of our previous tricks, but a few differences

- Checksum
- Sequence numbers are byte offsets
- Receiver sends cumulative acknowledgements (like GBN)
- Receivers can buffer out-of-sequence packets (like SR)

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## Loss with cumulative ACKs

- Sender sends packets with 100B and seqnos.:
  - 100, 200, 300, 400, 500, 600, 700, 800, 900, ...
- Assume the fifth packet (seqno 500) is lost, but no others
- Stream of ACKs will be:
  - 200, 300, 400, 500, 500, 500, ...

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## What does TCP do?

- Most of our previous tricks, but a few differences
- Checksum
  - Sequence numbers are byte offsets
  - Receiver sends cumulative acknowledgements (like GBN)
  - Receivers may not drop out-of-sequence packets (like SR)
  - Introduces fast retransmit: optimization that uses duplicate ACKs to trigger early retransmission

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## Loss with cumulative ACKs

- “Duplicate ACKs” are a sign of an isolated loss
  - The lack of ACK progress means 500 hasn’t been delivered
  - Stream of ACKs means some packets are being delivered
- Therefore, could trigger resend upon receiving k duplicate ACKs
  - TCP uses k=3
- But response to loss is trickier....

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## Loss with cumulative ACKs

- Two choices:
  - Send missing packet and increase W by the number of dup ACKs
  - Send missing packet, and wait for ACK to increase W
- Which should TCP do?

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## What does TCP do?

- Most of our previous tricks, but a few differences
- Checksum
  - Sequence numbers are byte offsets
  - Receiver sends cumulative acknowledgements (like GBN)
  - Receivers do not drop out-of-sequence packets (like SR)
  - Introduces fast retransmit: optimization that uses duplicate ACKs to trigger early retransmission
  - Sender maintains a single retransmission timer (like GBN) and retransmits on timeout

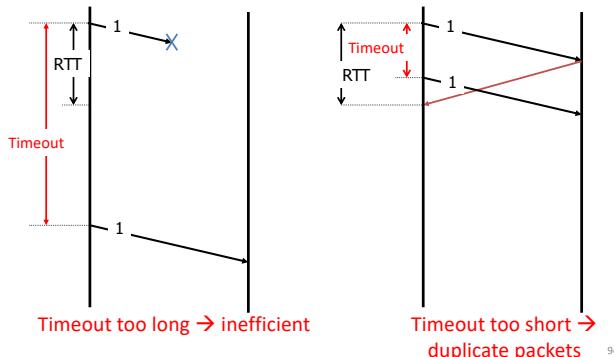
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## Retransmission Timeout

- If the sender hasn’t received an ACK by timeout, retransmit the first packet in the window
- How do we pick a timeout value?

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## Timing Illustration



## Retransmission Timeout

- If haven't received ack by timeout, retransmit the first packet in the window
- How to set timeout?**
  - Too long**: connection has low throughput
  - Too short**: retransmit packet that was just delayed
- Solution: make timeout proportional to RTT
- But how do we measure RTT?

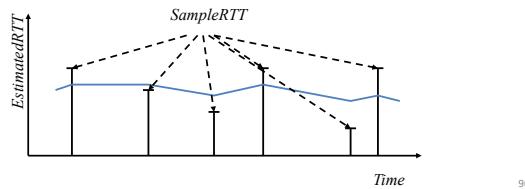
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## RTT Estimation

- Use exponential averaging of RTT samples

$$\begin{aligned} \text{SampleRTT} &= \text{AckRcvdTime} - \text{SendPacketTime} \\ \text{EstimatedRTT} &= \alpha \times \text{EstimatedRTT} + (1 - \alpha) \times \text{SampleRTT} \\ 0 < \alpha \leq 1 \end{aligned}$$

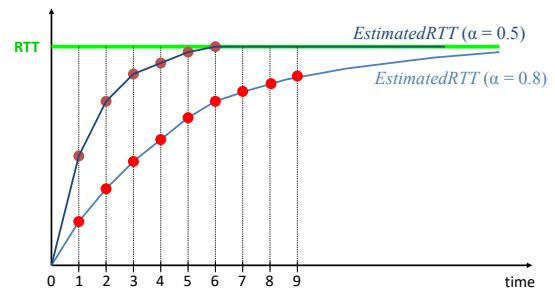


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## Exponential Averaging Example

$$\text{EstimatedRTT} = \alpha * \text{EstimatedRTT} + (1 - \alpha) * \text{SampleRTT}$$

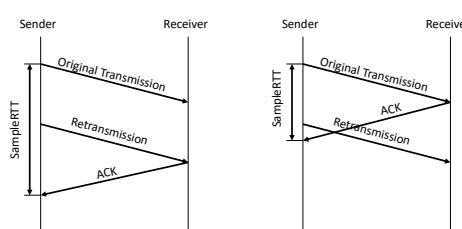
Assume RTT is constant  $\rightarrow \text{SampleRTT} = \text{RTT}$



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## Problem: Ambiguous Measurements

- How do we differentiate between the real ACK, and ACK of the retransmitted packet?



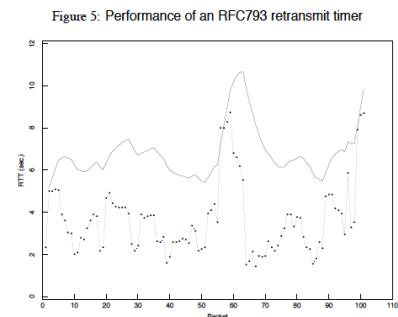
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## Karn/Partridge Algorithm

- Measure *SampleRTT* only for original transmissions
  - Once a segment has been retransmitted, do not use it for any further measurements
- Computes EstimatedRTT using  $\alpha = 0.875$
- Timeout value (RTO) =  $2 \times \text{EstimatedRTT}$
- Employs **exponential backoff**
  - Every time RTO timer expires, set RTO  $\leftarrow 2 \cdot \text{RTO}$
  - (Up to maximum  $\geq 60$  sec)
  - Every time new measurement comes in (= successful original transmission), collapse RTO back to  $2 \times \text{EstimatedRTT}$

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## Karn/Partridge in action



from Jacobson and Karels, SIGCOMM 1988

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## Jacobson/Karels Algorithm

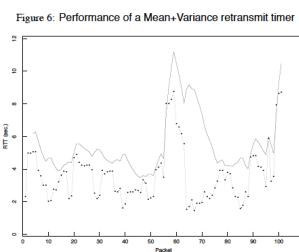
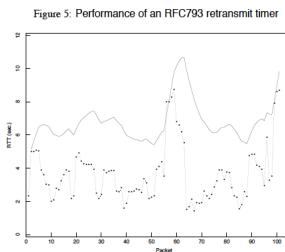
- Problem: need to better capture variability in RTT
  - Directly measure **deviation**
- Deviation =  $| \text{SampleRTT} - \text{EstimatedRTT} |$
- EstimatedDeviation: exponential average of Deviation
- RTO = EstimatedRTT + 4 x EstimatedDeviation

## With Jacobson/Karels

## What does TCP do?

Most of our previous ideas, but some key differences

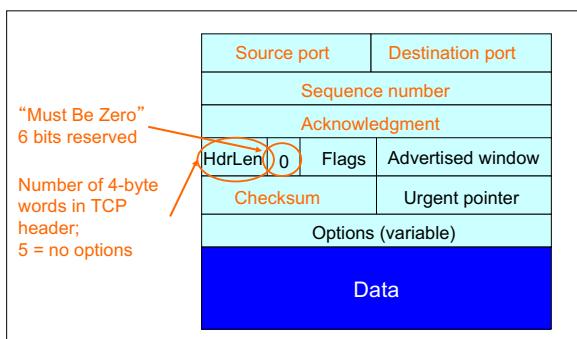
- Checksum
- Sequence numbers are byte offsets
- Receiver sends cumulative acknowledgements (like GBN)
- Receivers do not drop out-of-sequence packets (like SR)
- Introduces fast retransmit: optimization that uses duplicate ACKs to trigger early retransmission
- Sender maintains a single retransmission timer (like GBN) and retransmits on timeout



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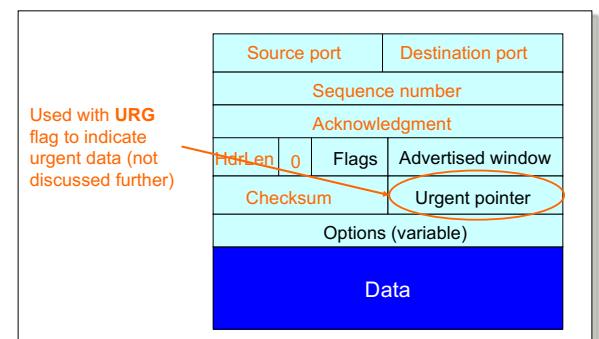
103

## TCP Header: What's left?



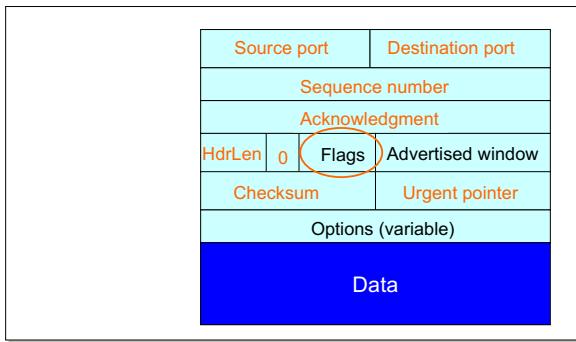
104

## TCP Header: What's left?



105

## TCP Header: What's left?



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## TCP Connection Establishment and Initial Sequence Numbers

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## Initial Sequence Number (ISN)

- Sequence number for the very first byte
- Why not just use ISN = 0?
- Practical issue
  - IP addresses and port #s uniquely identify a connection
  - Eventually, though, these port #s do get used again
  - ... small chance an old packet is still in flight
- TCP therefore requires changing ISN
- Hosts exchange ISNs when they establish a connection

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## Establishing a TCP Connection

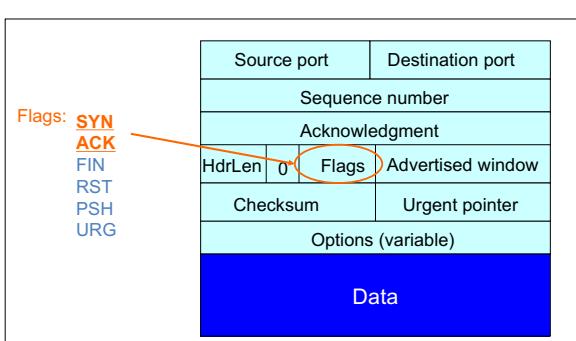


Each host tells its ISN to the other host.

- Three-way handshake to establish connection
  - Host A sends a SYN (open; "synchronize sequence numbers") to host B
  - Host B returns a SYN acknowledgment (SYN ACK)
  - Host A sends an ACK to acknowledge the SYN ACK

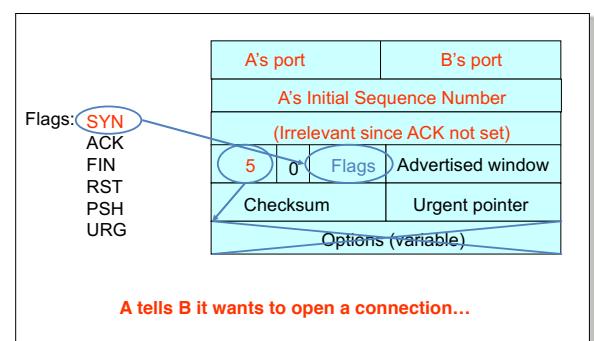
109

## TCP Header



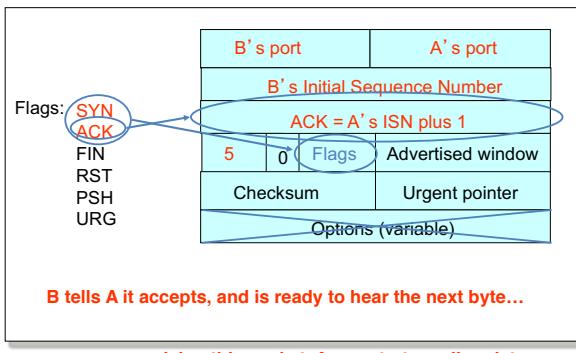
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## Step 1: A's Initial SYN Packet

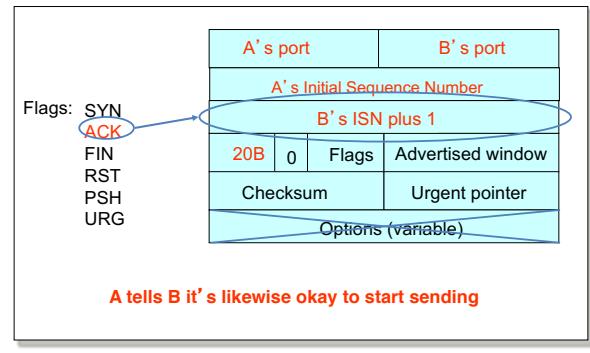


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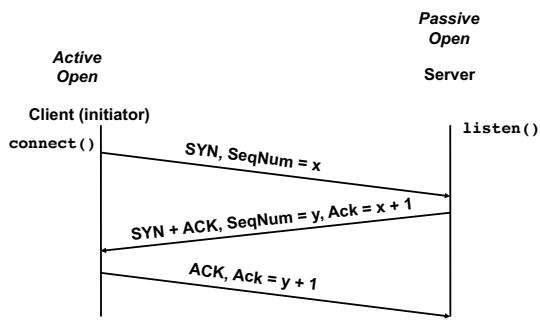
## Step 2: B's SYN-ACK Packet



## Step 3: A's ACK of the SYN-ACK



## Timing Diagram: 3-Way Handshaking



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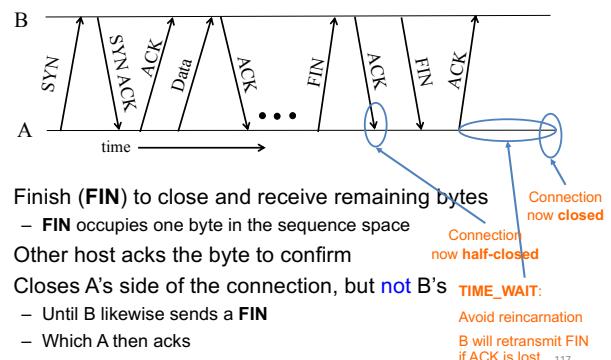
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## What if the SYN Packet Gets Lost?

- Suppose the SYN packet gets lost
  - Packet is lost inside the network, or:
  - Server discards the packet (e.g., it's too busy)
- Eventually, no SYN-ACK arrives
  - Sender sets a timer and waits for the SYN-ACK
  - ... and retransmits the SYN if needed
- How should the TCP sender set the timer?
  - Sender has no idea how far away the receiver is
  - Hard to guess a reasonable length of time to wait
  - SHOULD (RFCs 1122 & 2988) use default of 3 seconds
    - Some implementations instead use 6 seconds

## Tearing Down the Connection

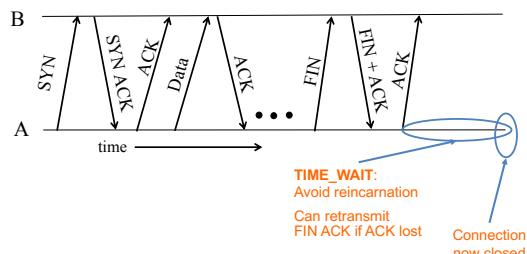
### Normal Termination, One Side At A Time



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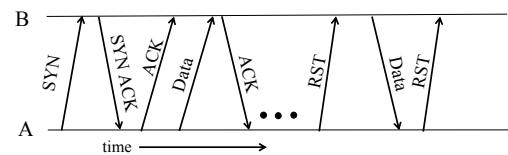
## Normal Termination, Both Together



- Same as before, but B sets FIN with their ack of A's FIN

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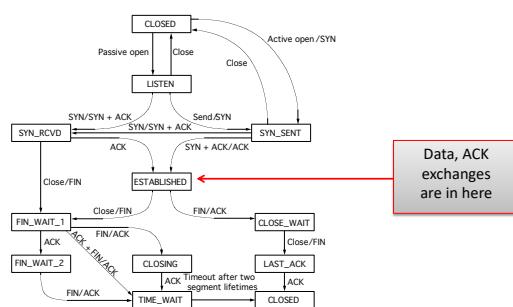
## Abrupt Termination



- A sends a RESET (**RST**) to B
  - E.g., because application process on A crashed
- That's it**
  - B does **not** ack the **RST**
  - Thus, **RST** is **not** delivered **reliably**
  - And: any data in flight is **lost**
  - But: if B sends anything more, will elicit **another RST**

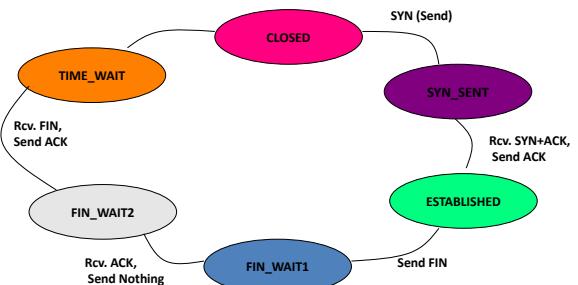
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## TCP State Transitions



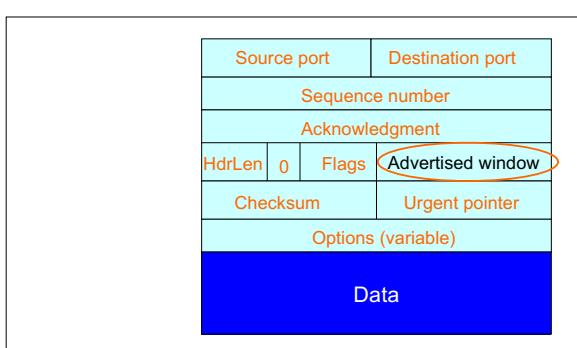
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## An Simpler View of the Client Side



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## TCP Header



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- What does TCP do?
  - ARQ windowing, set-up, tear-down
- Flow Control in TCP

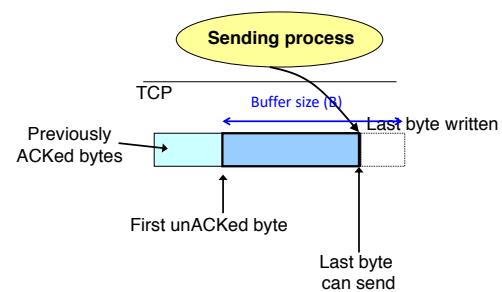
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## Recap: Sliding Window (so far)

- Both sender & receiver maintain a **window**
- Left edge** of window:
  - Sender: beginning of **unacknowledged** data
  - Receiver: beginning of **undelivered** data
- Right edge: Left edge + *constant*
  - constant only limited by buffer size in the transport layer

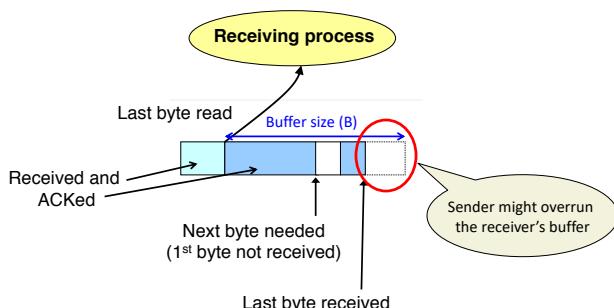
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## Sliding Window at Sender (so far)



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## Sliding Window at Receiver (so far)



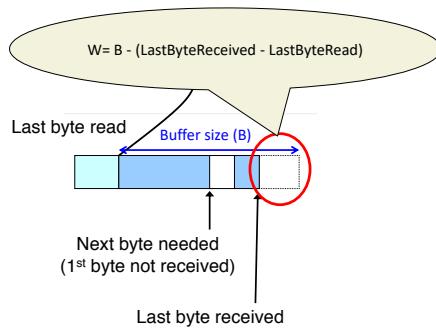
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## Solution: Advertised Window (Flow Control)

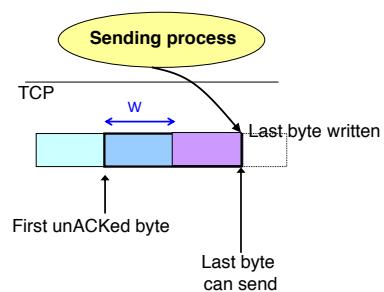
- Receiver uses an “Advertised Window” ( $W$ ) to prevent sender from overflowing its window
  - Receiver indicates value of  $W$  in ACKs
  - Sender limits number of bytes it can have in flight  $\leq W$

## Sliding Window at Receiver



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## Sliding Window at Sender (so far)



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## Sliding Window w/ Flow Control

- Sender: window **advances** when new data ack'd
- Receiver: window advances as receiving process **consumes** data
- Receiver **advertises** to the sender where the receiver window currently ends ("righthand edge")
  - Sender agrees not to exceed this amount

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## Advertised Window Limits Rate

- Sender can send no faster than  $W/RTT$  bytes/sec
- Receiver only advertises more space when it has consumed old arriving data
- In original TCP design, that was the **sole** protocol mechanism controlling sender's rate
- What's missing?

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## TCP

- The concepts underlying TCP are simple
  - acknowledgments (feedback)
  - timers
  - sliding windows
  - buffer management
  - sequence numbers

- What does TCP do?
  - ARQ windowing, set-up, tear-down
- Flow Control in TCP
- Congestion Control in TCP

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## Statistical Multiplexing → Congestion

### We have seen:

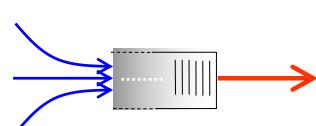
- **Flow control**: adjusting the sending rate to keep from overwhelming a slow *receiver*

### Now lets attend...

- **Congestion control**: adjusting the sending rate to keep from overloading the *network*

- If two packets arrive at the same time
  - A router can only transmit one
  - ... and either buffers or drops the other
- If many packets arrive in a short period of time
  - The router cannot keep up with the arriving traffic
  - ... **delays** traffic, and the buffer may eventually **overflow**
- Internet traffic is **bursty**

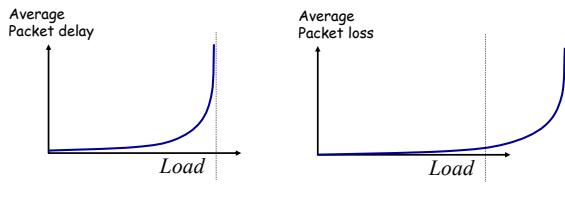
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## Congestion is undesirable

Typical [queuing system](#) with bursty arrivals



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## Who Takes Care of Congestion?

- Network? End hosts? Both?
- TCP's approach:
  - End hosts adjust sending rate
  - Based on **implicit feedback** from network
- Not the only approach
  - A consequence of history rather than planning

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## Some History: TCP in the 1980s

- Sending rate only limited by flow control
  - Packet drops → senders (repeatedly!) retransmit a full window's worth of packets
- Led to “congestion collapse” starting Oct. 1986
  - Throughput on the NSF network dropped from 32Kbits/s to 40bits/sec
- “Fixed” by Van Jacobson’s development of TCP’s congestion control (CC) algorithms

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## Jacobson’s Approach

- Extend TCP’s existing window-based protocol but adapt the window size in response to congestion
  - [required no upgrades to routers or applications!](#)
  - patch of a few lines of code to TCP implementations
- A pragmatic and effective solution
  - but many other approaches exist
- Extensively improved on since
  - topic now sees less activity in ISP contexts
  - but is making a comeback in datacenter environments

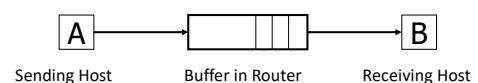
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## Three Issues to Consider

- Discovering the available (bottleneck) bandwidth
- Adjusting to variations in bandwidth
- Sharing bandwidth between flows

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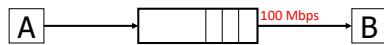
## Abstract View



- Ignore internal structure of router and model it as having a single queue for a particular input-output pair

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## Discovering available bandwidth



- Pick sending rate to match bottleneck bandwidth
  - Without any *a priori* knowledge
  - Could be gigabit link, could be a modem

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## Adjusting to variations in bandwidth



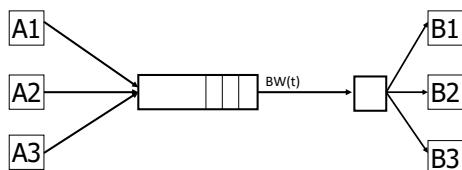
- Adjust rate to match **instantaneous** bandwidth
  - Assuming you have rough idea of bandwidth

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## Multiple flows and sharing bandwidth

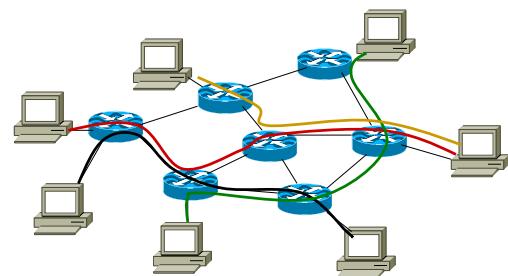
Two Issues:

- Adjust total sending rate to match bandwidth
- Allocation of bandwidth between flows



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## Reality

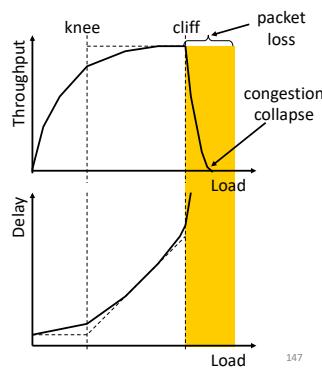


Congestion control is a resource allocation problem involving many flows, many links, and complicated global dynamics

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## View from a single flow

- Knee – point after which
  - Throughput increases slowly
  - Delay increases fast
- Cliff – point after which
  - Throughput starts to drop to zero (congestion collapse)
  - Delay approaches infinity



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## General Approaches

- (0) Send without care
  - Many packet drops

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## General Approaches

(0) Send without care

(1) Reservations

- Pre-arrange bandwidth allocations
- Requires negotiation before sending packets
- Low utilization

## General Approaches

(0) Send without care

(1) Reservations

(2) Pricing

- Don't drop packets for the high-bidders
- Requires payment model

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## General Approaches

(0) Send without care

(1) Reservations

(2) Pricing

(3) Dynamic Adjustment

- Hosts probe network; infer level of congestion; adjust
- Network reports congestion level to hosts; hosts adjust
- Combinations of the above
- Simple to implement but suboptimal, messy dynamics

## General Approaches

(0) Send without care

(1) Reservations

(2) Pricing

(3) Dynamic Adjustment

### All three techniques have their place

- *Generality* of dynamic adjustment has proven powerful
- Doesn't presume business model, traffic characteristics, application requirements; does assume good citizenship

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## TCP's Approach in a Nutshell

- TCP connection has window
  - Controls number of packets in flight
- Sending rate:  $\sim$ Window/RTT
- Vary window size to control sending rate

## All These Windows...

- Congestion Window: **CWND**
  - How many bytes can be sent without overflowing routers
  - Computed by the sender using congestion control algorithm
- Flow control window: **AdvertisedWindow (RWND)**
  - How many bytes can be sent without overflowing receiver's buffers
  - Determined by the receiver and reported to the sender
- Sender-side window = **minimum{CWND,RWND}**
  - Assume for this material that RWND  $\gg$  CWND

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## Note

- This lecture will talk about CWND in units of MSS
  - (Recall MSS: Maximum Segment Size, the amount of payload data in a TCP packet)
  - This is only for pedagogical purposes
- **In reality this is a LIE:** Real implementations maintain CWND in bytes

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## Two Basic Questions

- How does the sender detect congestion?
- How does the sender adjust its sending rate?
  - To address three issues
    - Finding available bottleneck bandwidth
    - Adjusting to bandwidth variations
    - Sharing bandwidth

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## Detecting Congestion

- Packet delays
  - Tricky: noisy signal (delay often varies considerably)
- Router tell endhosts they're congested
- **Packet loss**
  - Fail-safe signal that TCP already has to detect
  - Complication: non-congestive loss (checksum errors)
- Two indicators of packet loss
  - No ACK after certain time interval: **timeout**
  - Multiple **duplicate ACKs**

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## Not All Losses the Same

- **Duplicate ACKs:** isolated loss
  - Still getting ACKs
- **Timeout:** much more serious
  - Not enough dupacks
  - Must have suffered several losses
- **We will adjust rate differently for each case**

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## Rate Adjustment

- Basic structure:
  - Upon receipt of ACK (of new data): increase rate
  - Upon detection of loss: decrease rate
- How we increase/decrease the rate depends on the phase of congestion control we're in:
  - Discovering available bottleneck bandwidth *vs.*
  - Adjusting to bandwidth variations

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## Bandwidth Discovery with Slow Start

- Goal: estimate available bandwidth
  - start slow (for safety)
  - but ramp up quickly (for efficiency)
- Consider
  - RTT = 100ms, MSS=1000bytes
  - Window size to fill 1Mbps of BW = 12.5 packets
  - Window size to fill 1Gbps = 12,500 packets
  - Either is possible!

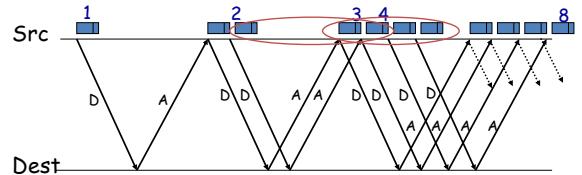
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## “Slow Start” Phase

- Sender starts at a slow rate but increases **exponentially** until first loss
- Start with a small congestion window
  - Initially, CWND = 1
  - So, initial sending rate is MSS/RTT
- Double the CWND for each RTT with no loss

## Slow Start in Action

- For each RTT: double CWND
- Simpler implementation: for each ACK, CWND += 1



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## Adjusting to Varying Bandwidth

- Slow start gave an estimate of available bandwidth
- Now, want to track variations in this available bandwidth, oscillating around its current value
  - Repeated probing (rate increase) and backoff (rate decrease)
- TCP uses: “Additive Increase Multiplicative Decrease” (AIMD)
  - We’ll see why shortly...

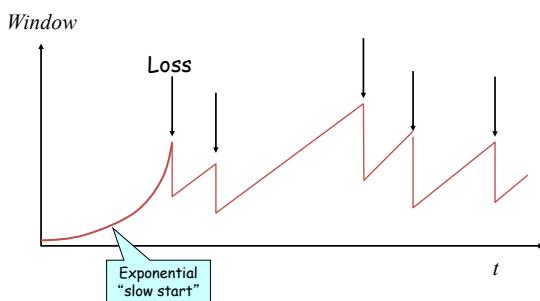
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## AIMD

- Additive increase
  - Window grows by one MSS for every RTT with no loss
  - For each successful RTT, CWND = CWND + 1
  - Simple implementation:
    - for each ACK, CWND = CWND + 1/CWND
- Multiplicative decrease
  - On loss of packet, divide congestion window in **half**
  - On loss, CWND = CWND/2

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## Leads to the TCP “Sawtooth”



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## Slow-Start vs. AIMD

- When does a sender stop Slow-Start and start Additive Increase?
- Introduce a “slow start threshold” (**ssthresh**)
  - Initialized to a large value
  - On timeout, ssthresh = CWND/2
- When CWND = ssthresh, sender switches from slow-start to AIMD-style increase

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- What does TCP do?
  - ARQ windowing, set-up, tear-down
- Flow Control in TCP
- Congestion Control in TCP
  - AIMD
- What does TCP do?
  - ARQ windowing, set-up, tear-down
- Flow Control in TCP
- Congestion Control in TCP
  - AIMD, Fast-Recovery

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## One Final Phase: Fast Recovery

- The problem: congestion avoidance too slow in recovering from an isolated loss

## Example (in units of MSS, not bytes)

- Consider a TCP connection with:
  - CWND=10 packets
  - Last ACK was for packet # 101
    - i.e., receiver expecting next packet to have seq. no. 101
- 10 packets [101, 102, 103,..., 110] are in flight
  - Packet 101 is dropped
  - What ACKs do they generate?
  - And how does the sender respond?

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## The problem – A timeline

- ACK 101 (due to 102) cwnd=10 dupACK#1 (no xmit)
- ACK 101 (due to 103) cwnd=10 dupACK#2 (no xmit)
- ACK 101 (due to 104) cwnd=10 dupACK#3 (no xmit)
- **RETRANSMIT 101 ssthresh=5 cwnd= 5**
- ACK 101 (due to 105) cwnd=5 + 1/5 (no xmit)
- ACK 101 (due to 106) cwnd=5 + 2/5 (no xmit)
- ACK 101 (due to 107) cwnd=5 + 3/5 (no xmit)
- ACK 101 (due to 108) cwnd=5 + 4/5 (no xmit)
- ACK 101 (due to 109) cwnd=5 + 5/5 (no xmit)
- ACK 101 (due to 110) cwnd=6 + 1/5 (no xmit)
- **ACK 111 (due to 101) ↪ only now can we transmit new packets**
- **Plus no packets in flight so ACK “clocking” (to increase CWND) stalls for another RTT**

## Solution: Fast Recovery

Idea: Grant the sender temporary “credit” for each dupACK so as to keep packets in flight

- If dupACKcount = 3
  - ssthresh = cwnd/2
  - cwnd = ssthresh + 3
- While in fast recovery
  - cwnd = cwnd + 1 for each additional duplicate ACK
- Exit fast recovery after receiving new ACK
  - set cwnd = ssthresh

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## Example

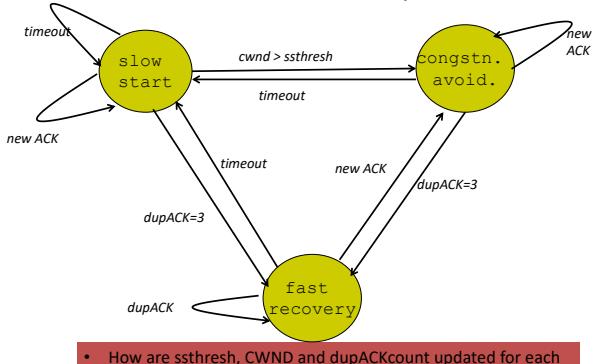
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## Timeline

- ACK 101 (due to 102) cwnd=10 dup#1
- ACK 101 (due to 103) cwnd=10 dup#2
- ACK 101 (due to 104) cwnd=10 dup#3
- REXMIT 101 ssthresh=5 cwnd= 8 (5+3)**
- ACK 101 (due to 105) **cwnd= 9** (no xmit)
- ACK 101 (due to 106) cwnd=10 (no xmit)
- ACK 101 (due to 107) cwnd=11 (xmit 111)
- ACK 101 (due to 108) cwnd=12 (xmit 112)
- ACK 101 (due to 109) cwnd=13 (xmit 113)
- ACK 101 (due to 110) cwnd=14 (xmit 114)
- ACK 111 (due to 101) cwnd = 5 (xmit 115) ← exiting fast recovery**
- Packets 111-114 already in flight**
- ACK 112 (due to 111) cwnd = 5 + 1/5 ← back in congestion avoidance

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Putting it all together:  
The TCP State Machine (partial)



- How are ssthresh, CWND and dupACKcount updated for each event that causes a state transition?

## TCP Flavors

- TCP-Tahoe**
  - CWND =1 on triple dupACK
- TCP-Reno**
  - CWND =1 on timeout
  - CWND = cwnd/2 on triple dupack
- TCP-newReno**
  - TCP-Reno + improved fast recovery
- TCP-SACK**
  - incorporates selective acknowledgements

## TCP Flavors

- What does TCP do?
  - ARQ windowing, set-up, tear-down
- Flow Control in TCP
- Congestion Control in TCP
  - AIMD, Fast-Recovery, Throughput

- TCP-Tahoe**
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  - CWND = CWND/2 on triple dupack
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  - TCP-Reno + improved fast recovery
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  - incorporates selective acknowledgements

Our default assumption

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## Interoperability

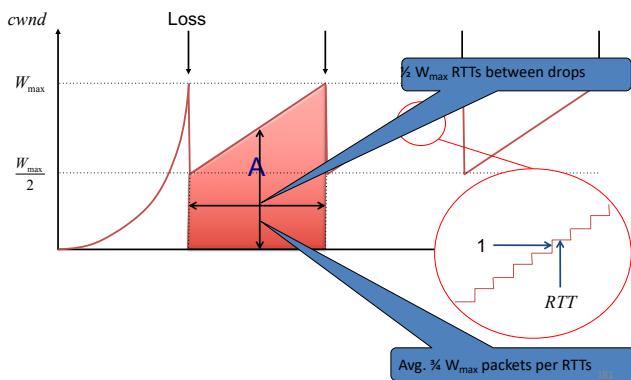
- How can all these algorithms coexist? Don't we need a single, uniform standard?
- What happens if I'm using Reno and you are using Tahoe, and we try to communicate?

## TCP Throughput Equation

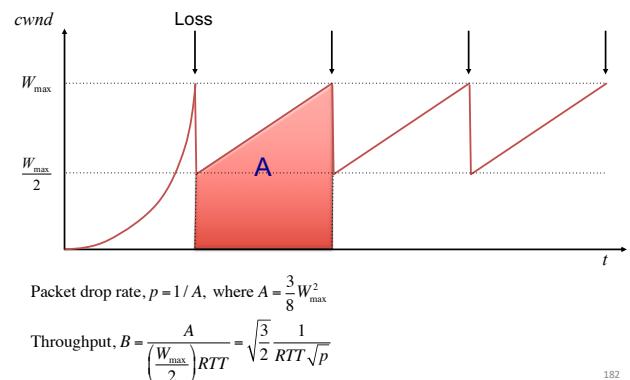
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### A Simple Model for TCP Throughput



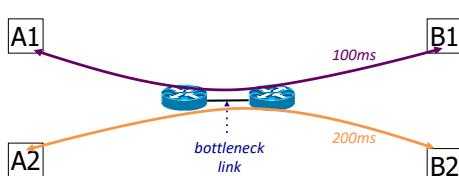
### A Simple Model for TCP Throughput



### Implications (1): Different RTTs

$$\text{Throughput} = \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}} \frac{1}{RTT \sqrt{p}}$$

- Flows get throughput inversely proportional to RTT
- **TCP unfair in the face of heterogeneous RTTs!**



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### Implications (2): High Speed TCP

$$\text{Throughput} = \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}} \frac{1}{RTT \sqrt{p}}$$

- Assume RTT = 100ms, MSS=1500bytes
- What value of  $p$  is required to reach 100Gbps throughput  
–  $\sim 2 \times 10^{-12}$
- How long between drops?  
–  $\sim 16.6$  hours
- How much data has been sent in this time?  
–  $\sim 6$  petabits
- These are not practical numbers!

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## Adapting TCP to High Speed

- Once past a threshold speed, increase CWND faster
  - A proposed standard [Floyd'03]: once speed is past some threshold, change equation to  $p^{-8}$  rather than  $p^{-5}$
- Let the additive constant in AIMD depend on CWND
- Other approaches?
  - Multiple simultaneous connections (hack but works today)
  - Router-assisted approaches (will see shortly)

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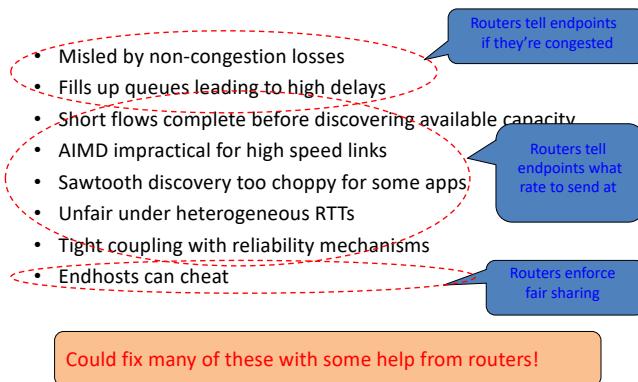
## Implications (3): Rate-based CC

$$\text{Throughput} = \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}} \frac{1}{RTT\sqrt{p}}$$

- TCP throughput is “choppy”
  - repeated swings between  $W/2$  to  $W$
- Some apps would prefer sending at a steady rate
  - e.g., streaming apps
- A solution: “Equation-Based Congestion Control”**
  - ditch TCP’s increase/decrease rules and just follow the equation
  - measure drop percentage  $p$ , and set rate accordingly
- Following the TCP equation ensures we’re “TCP friendly”
  - i.e., use no more than TCP does in similar setting

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## Recap: TCP problems



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## Router-Assisted Congestion Control

- Three tasks for CC:
  - Isolation/fairness
  - Adjustment\*
  - Detecting congestion

\* This may be *automatic* eg loss-response of TCP

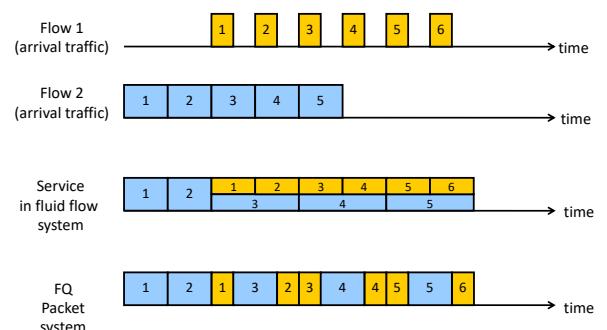
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## Fair Queuing (FQ)

- For each packet, compute the time at which the last bit of a packet would have left the router *if* flows are served bit-by-bit
- Then serve packets in the increasing order of their deadlines

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## Example



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## Fair Queuing (FQ)

- Think of it as an implementation of round-robin generalized to the case where not all packets are equal sized
- **Weighted** fair queuing (WFQ): assign different flows different shares
- Today, some form of WFQ implemented in almost all routers
  - Not the case in the 1980-90s, when CC was being developed
  - Mostly used to isolate traffic at larger granularities (e.g., per-prefix)

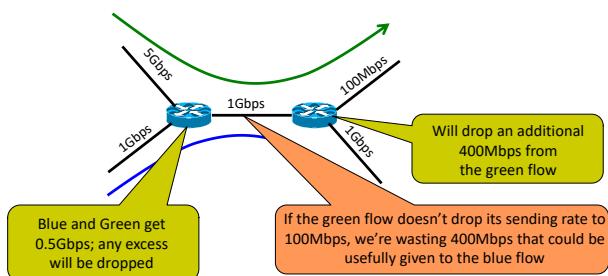
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## FQ vs. FIFO

- **FQ advantages:**
  - Isolation: cheating flows don't benefit
  - Bandwidth share does not depend on RTT
  - Flows can pick any rate adjustment scheme they want
- **Disadvantages:**
  - More complex than FIFO: per flow queue/state, additional per-packet book-keeping

## FQ in the big picture

- FQ does not eliminate congestion → it just manages the congestion



## Explicit Congestion Notification (ECN)

- Single bit in packet header; set by congested routers
  - If data packet has bit set, then ACK has ECN bit set
- Many options for when routers set the bit
  - tradeoff between (link) utilization and (packet) delay
- Congestion semantics can be exactly like that of drop
  - I.e., endhost reacts as though it saw a drop
- Advantages:
  - Don't confuse corruption with congestion; recovery w/ rate adjustment
  - Can serve as an early indicator of congestion to avoid delays
  - Easy (easier) to incrementally deploy
    - defined as extension to TCP/IP in RFC 3168 (uses diffserv bits in the IP header)

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## TCP in detail

- What does TCP do?
  - ARQ windowing, set-up, tear-down
- Flow Control in TCP
- Congestion Control in TCP
  - AIMD, Fast-Recovery, Throughput
- Limitations of TCP Congestion Control
- Router-assisted Congestion Control (eg ECN)

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## Recap

- TCP:
  - somewhat hacky
  - but practical/deployable
  - good enough to have raised the bar for the deployment of new, more optimal, approaches
  - though the needs of datacenters might change the status quo
- Beyond TCP (discussed in Topic 6):
  - QUIC / application-aware transport layers

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