

Network, Transport and Application protocols

Network layer – IP addresses, masks, DHCP, NAT, ICMP, IPv6

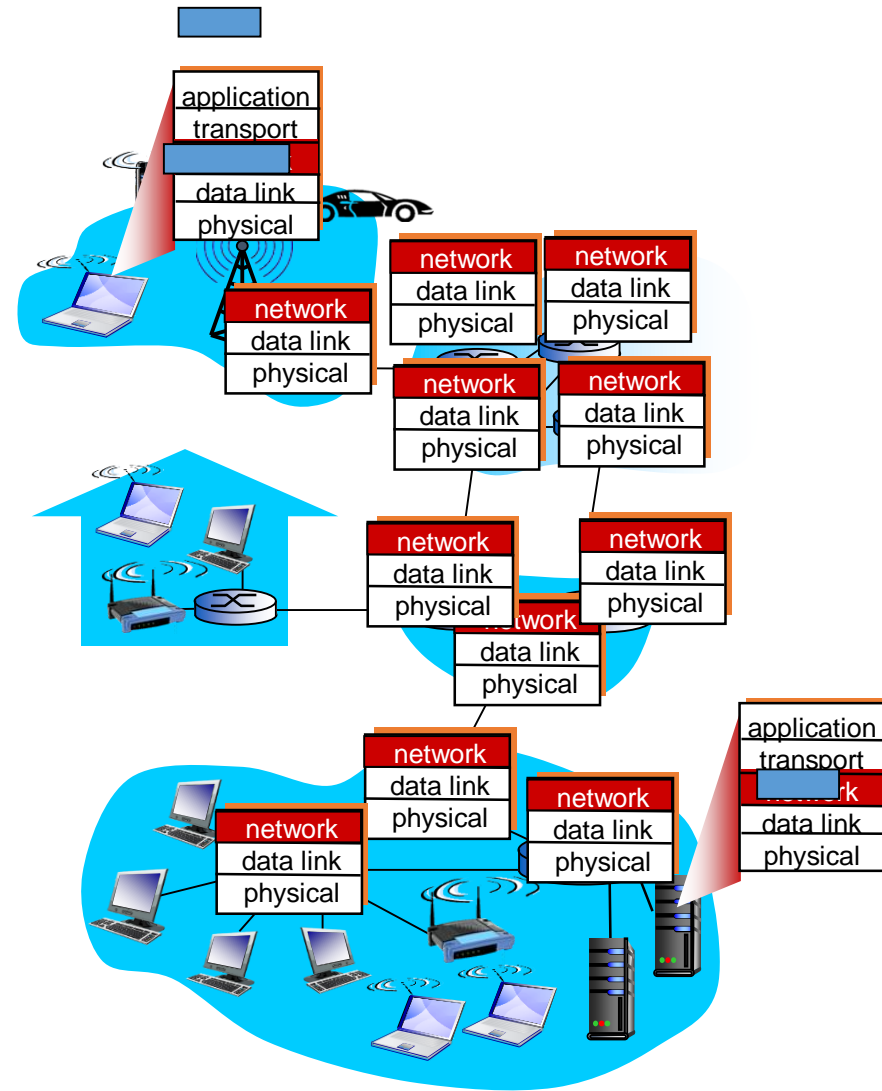
Hierarchical routing, AS

Transport protocols – UDP, TCP

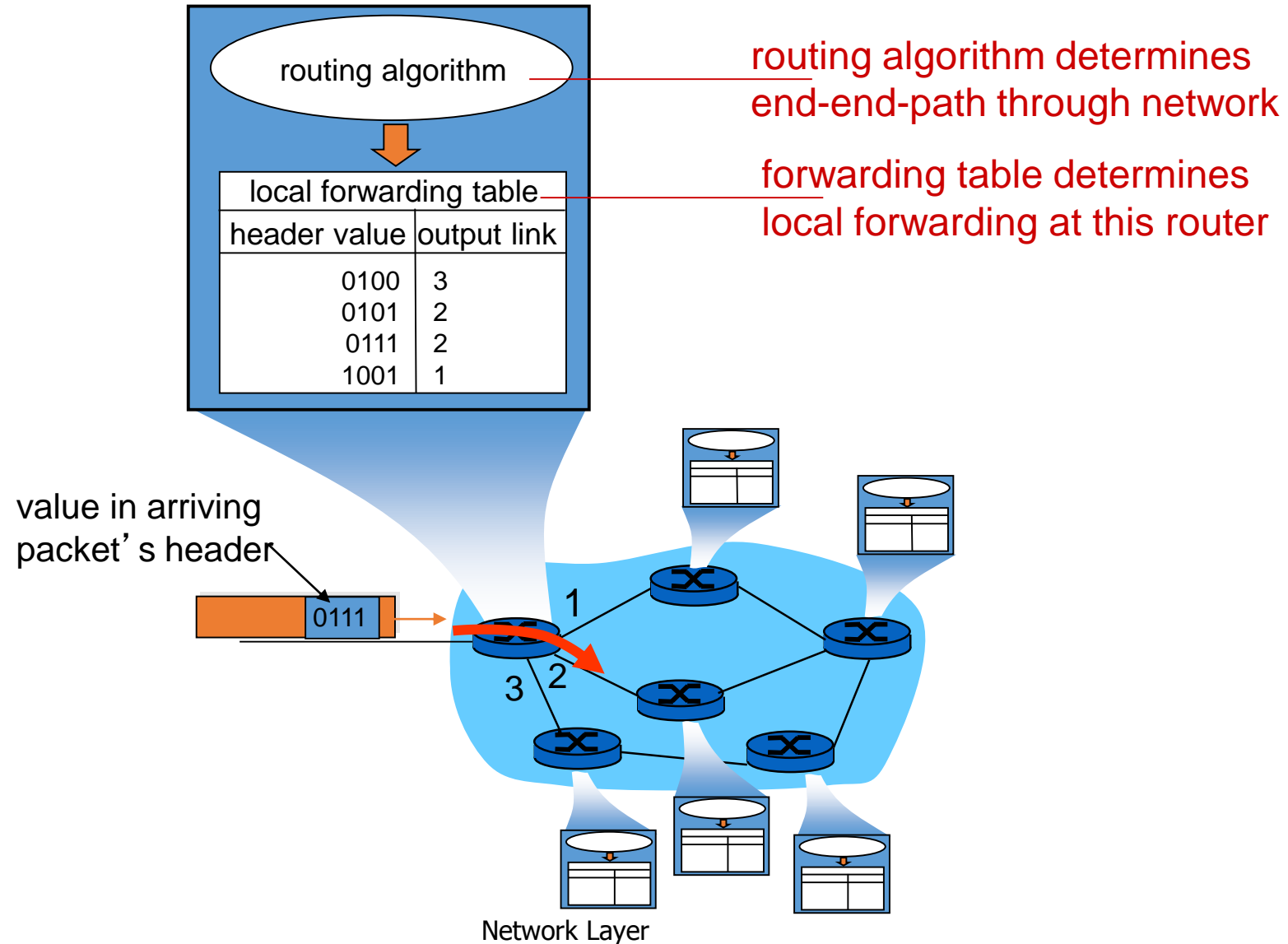
Application protocols – email, DNS,

Network layer

- transport segment from sending to receiving host
- on sending side encapsulates segments into datagrams
- on receiving side, delivers segments to transport layer
- network layer protocols in *every* host, router
- router examines header fields in all IP datagrams passing through it



Interplay between routing and forwarding



Transport vs. network layer

❖ *network layer:*

logical
communication
between hosts

❖ *transport layer:*

logical
communication
between processes

- relies on, enhances,
network layer
services

household analogy:

*12 kids in Ann's house
sending letters to 12 kids in
Bill's house:*

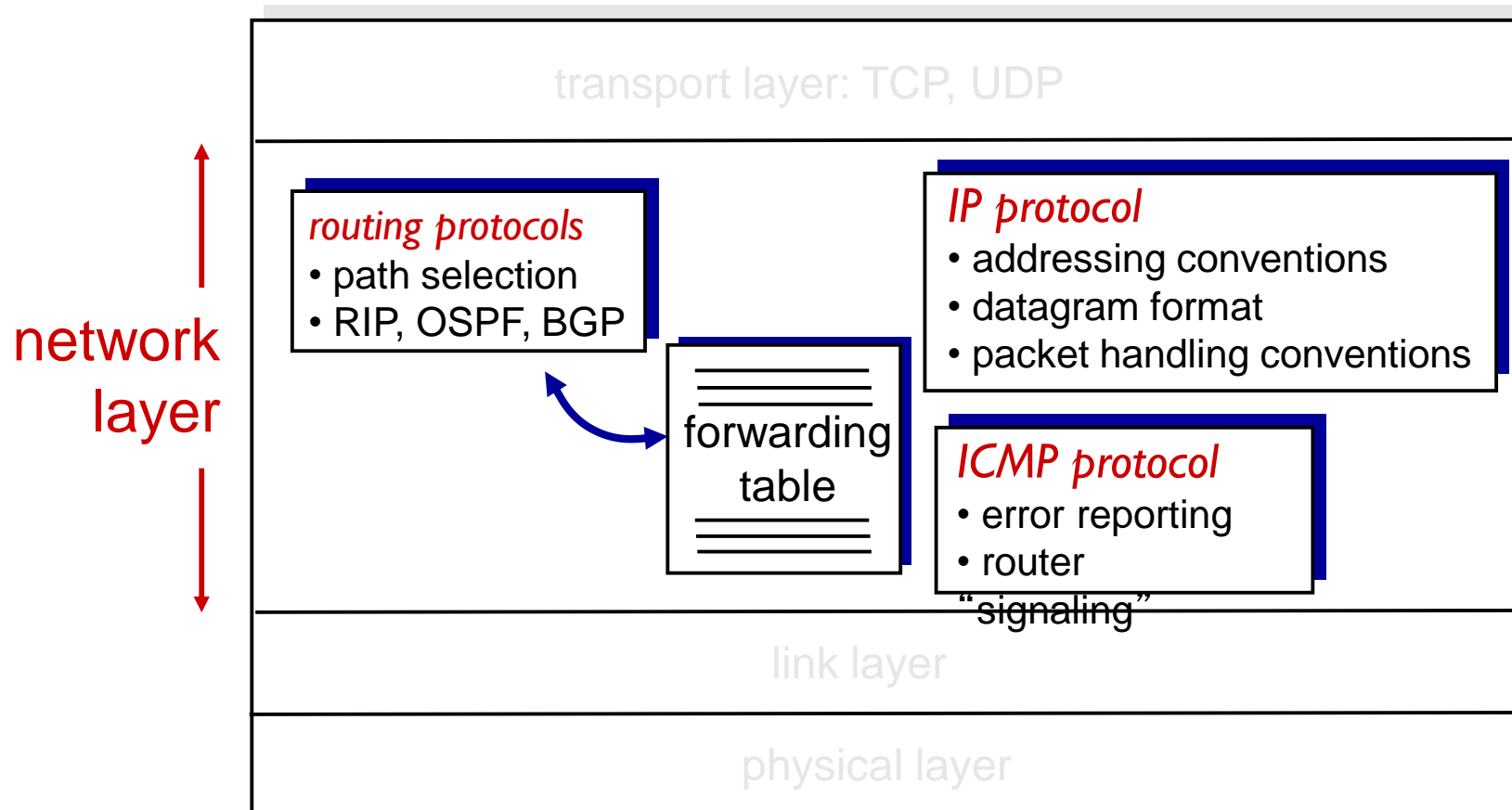
- hosts = houses
- processes = kids
- app messages = letters in envelopes
- transport protocol = Ann and Bill who demux to in-house siblings
- network-layer protocol = postal service

Connection, connection-less service

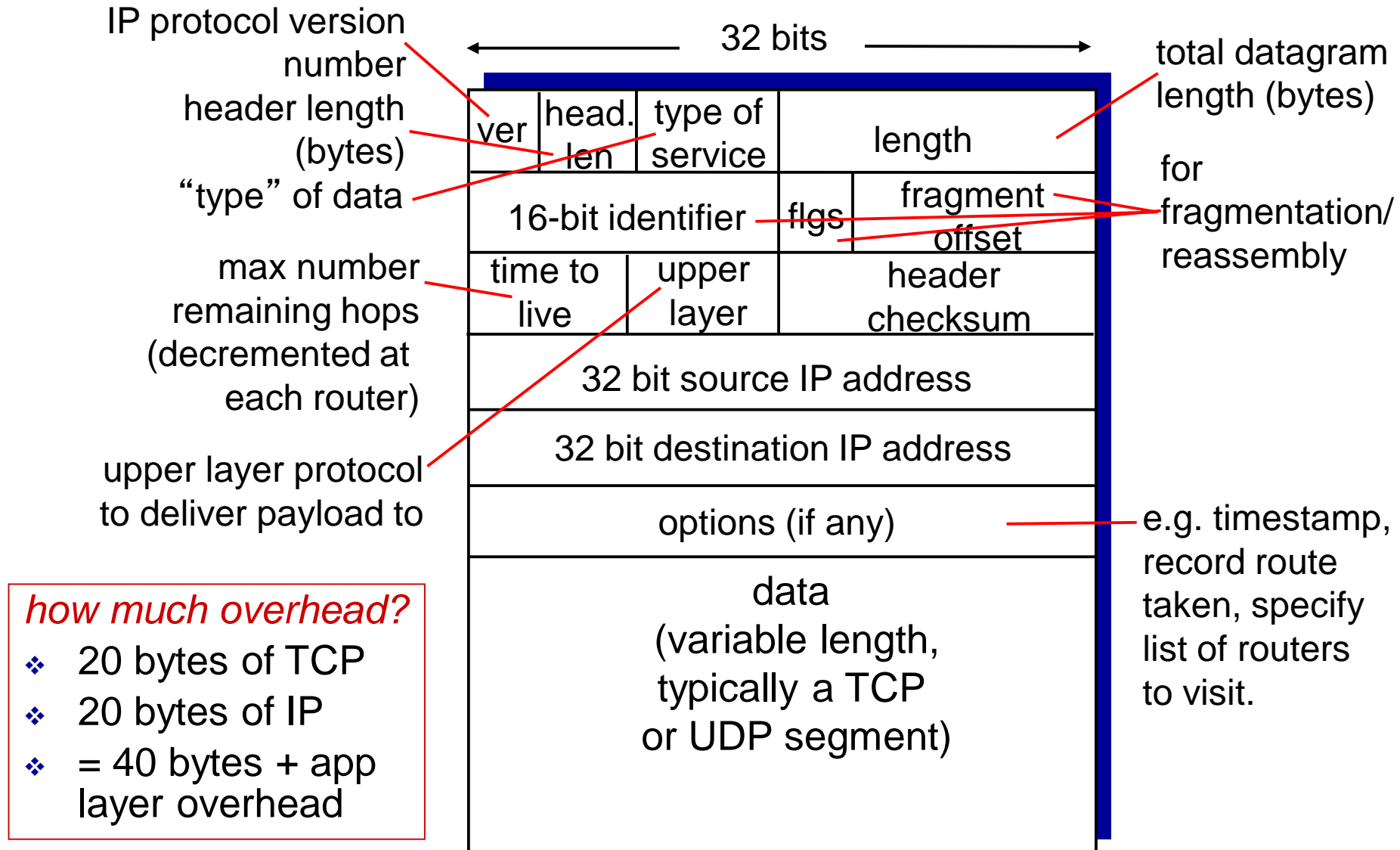
- ❖ *datagram* network provides network-layer *connectionless* service
- ❖ *virtual-circuit* network provides network-layer *connection* service
- ❖ analogous to TCP/UDP connection-oriented / connectionless transport-layer services, but:
 - *service*: host-to-host
 - *no choice*: network provides one or the other
 - *implementation*: in network core

The Internet network layer

host, router network layer functions:

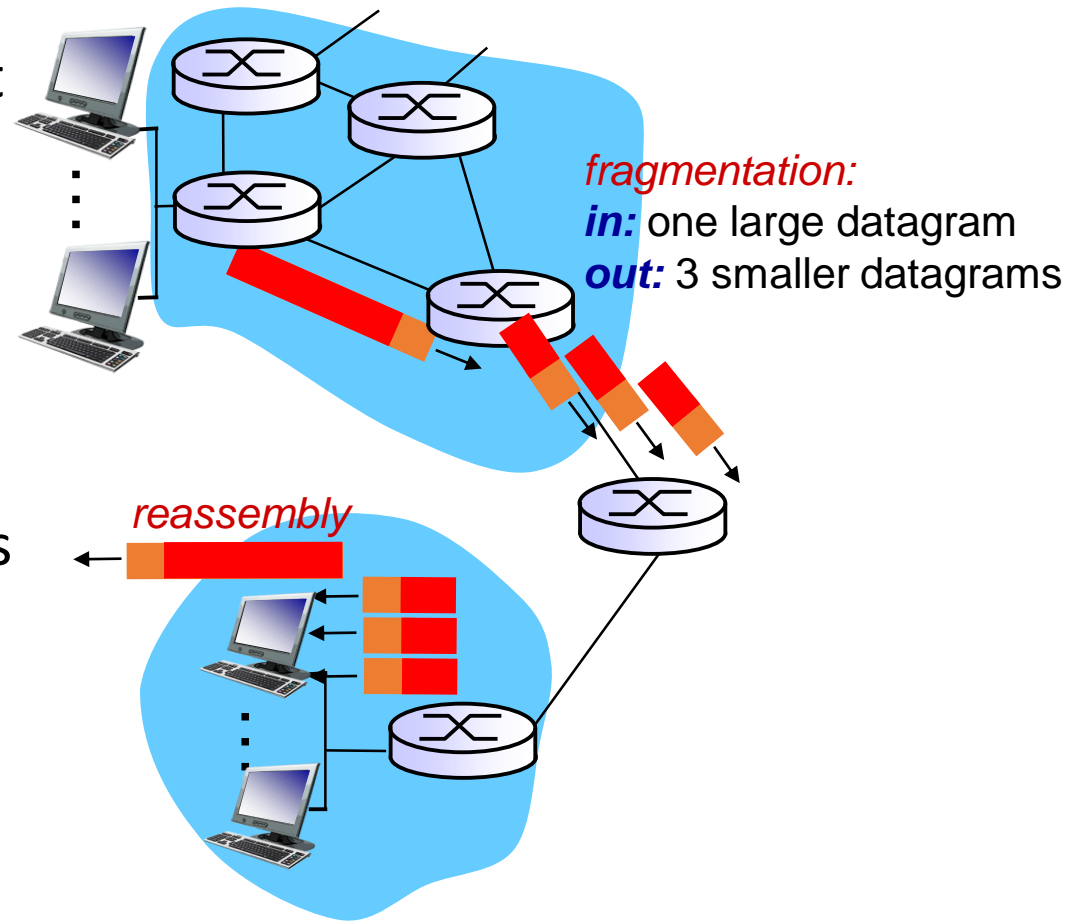


IP datagram format



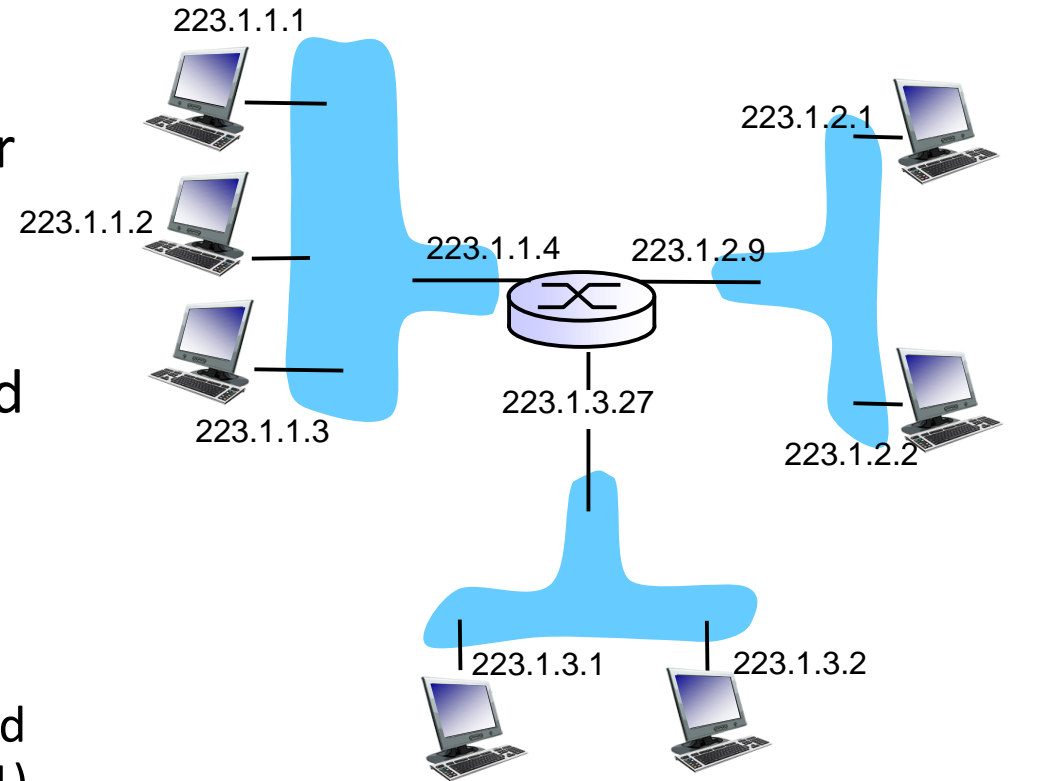
IP fragmentation, reassembly

- 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*



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

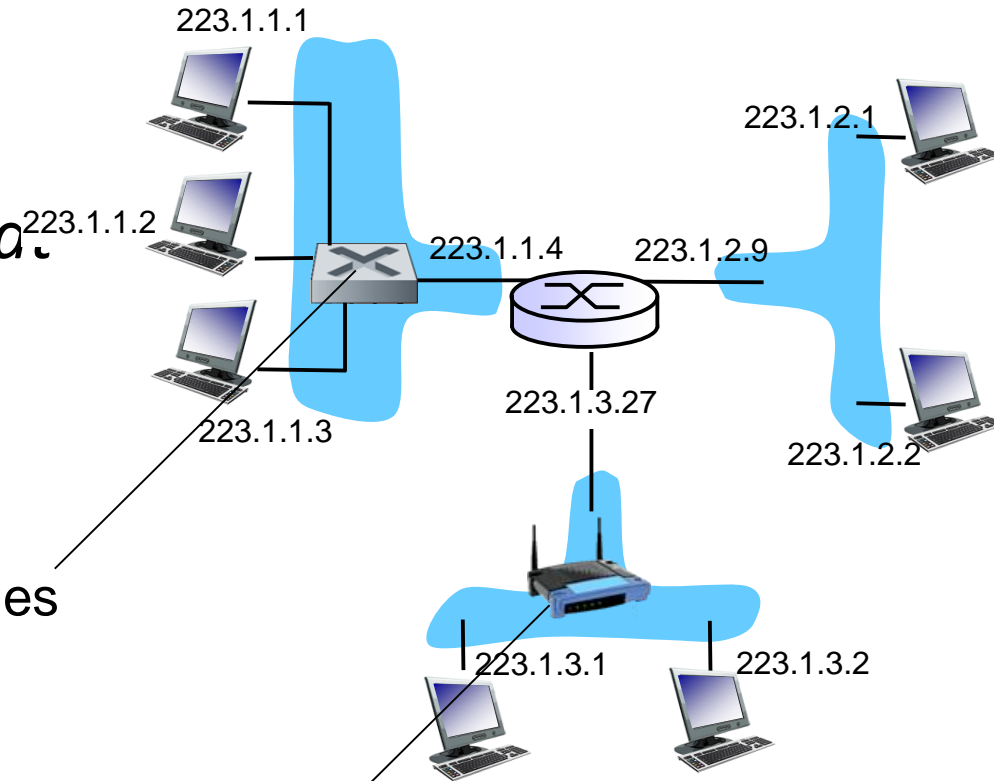
IP addressing: introduction

Q: how are interfaces actually connected?

A: we'll learn about that in chapter 5, 6.

A: wired Ethernet interfaces connected by Ethernet switches

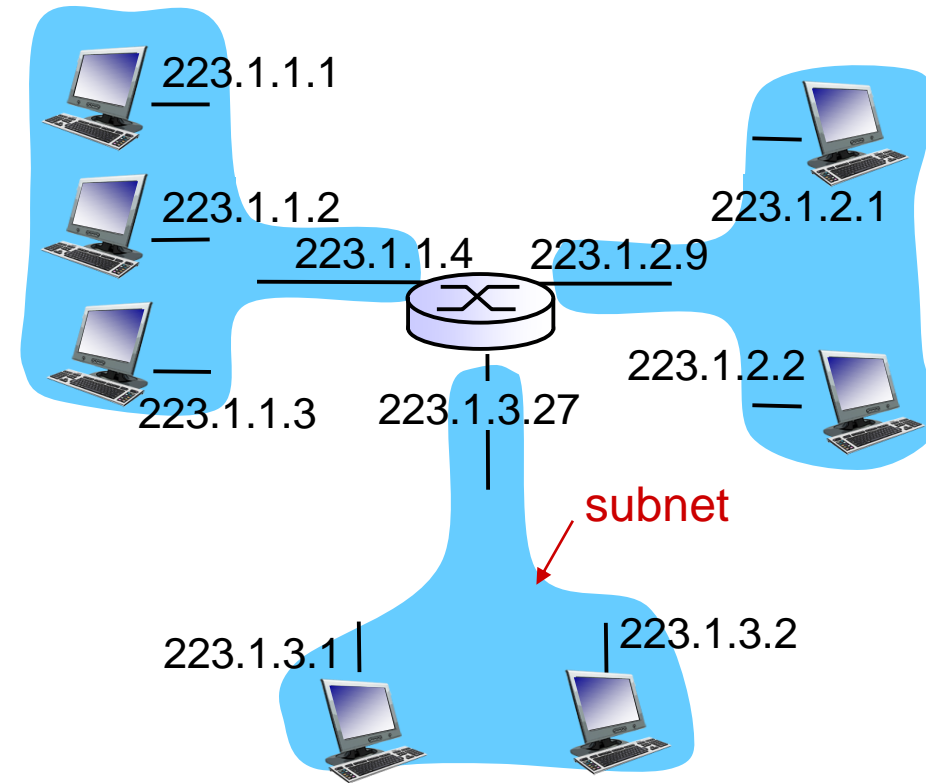
For now: don't need to worry about how one interface is connected to another (with no intervening router)



A: wireless WiFi interfaces connected by WiFi base station

Subnets

- IP address:
 - subnet part - high order bits
 - host part - low order bits
- *what 's a subnet ?*
 - device interfaces with same subnet part of IP address
 - can physically reach each other *without intervening router*

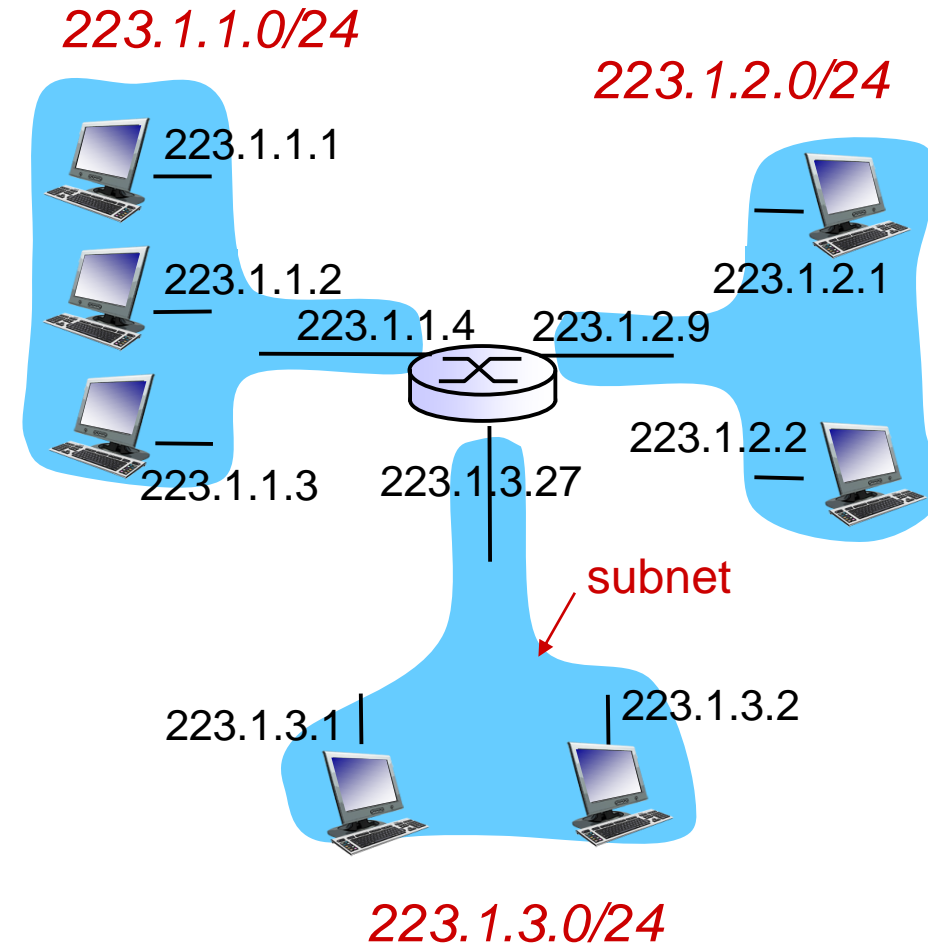


network consisting of 3 subnets

Subnets

recipe

- ❖ to determine the subnets, detach each interface from its host or router, creating islands of isolated networks
- ❖ each isolated network is called a *subnet*

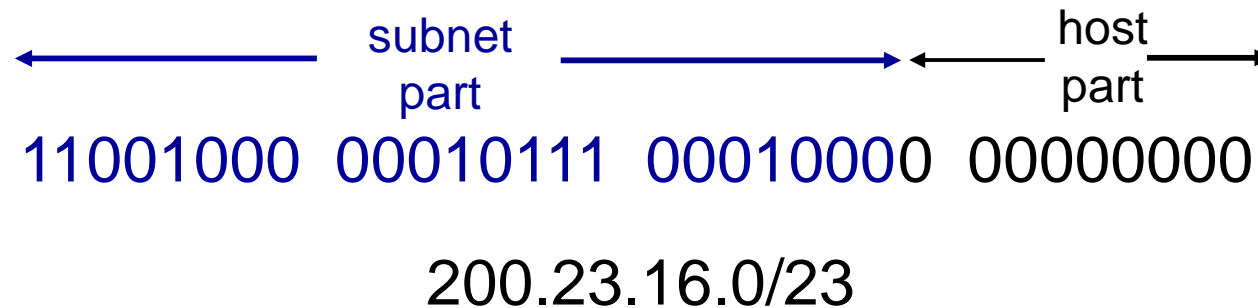


subnet mask: /24

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



IP addresses: how to get one?

Q: How does a *host* get IP address?

- hard-coded by system admin in a file
 - Windows: control-panel->network->configuration->tcp/ip->properties
 - UNIX: /etc/rc.config
- **DHCP:** Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol:
dynamically get address from as server
 - “plug-and-play”

DHCP: Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol

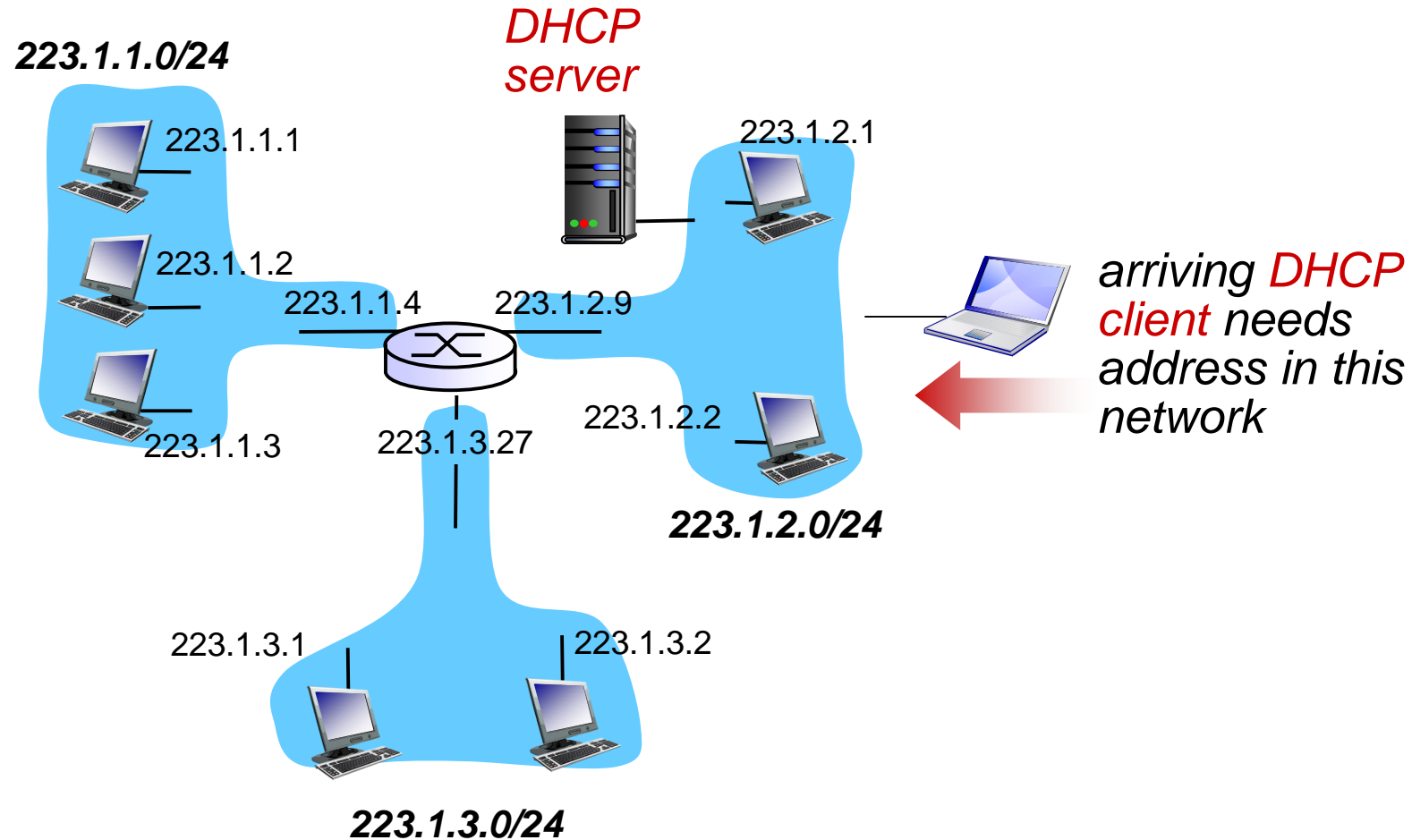
goal: allow host to *dynamically* obtain its IP address from network server when it joins network

- can renew its lease on address in use
- allows reuse of addresses (only hold address while connected/“on”)
- support for mobile users who want to join network (more shortly)

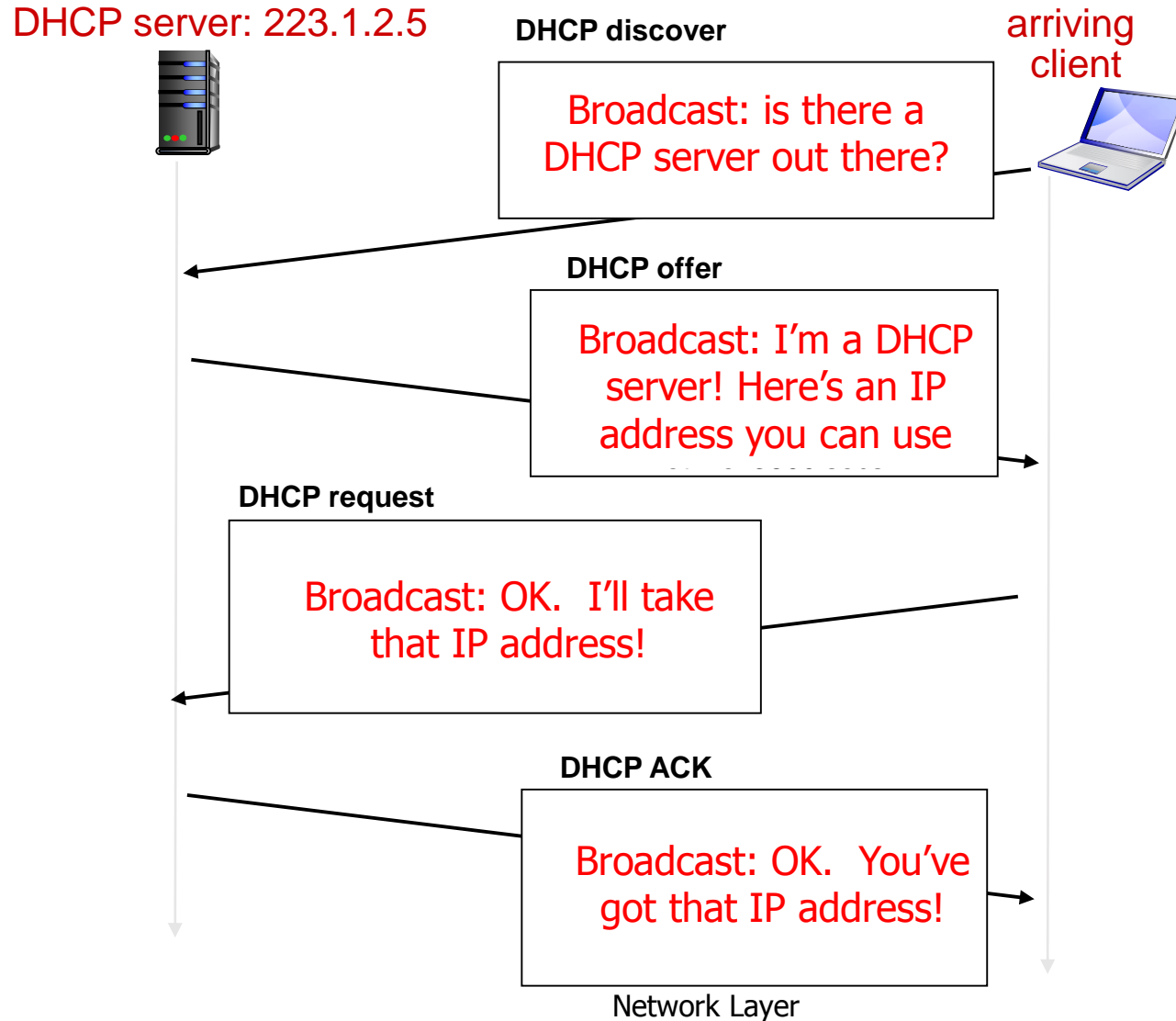
DHCP overview:

- host broadcasts “DHCP discover” msg [optional]
- DHCP server responds with “DHCP offer” msg [optional]
- host requests IP address: “DHCP request” msg
- DHCP server sends address: “DHCP ack” msg

DHCP client-server scenario



DHCP client-server scenario

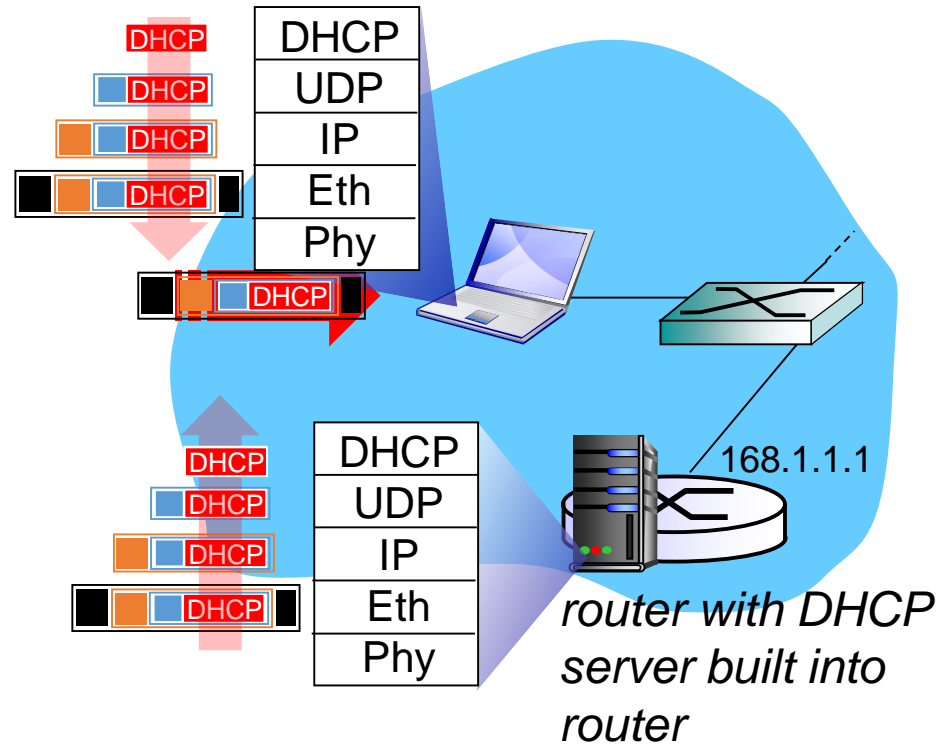


DHCP: more than IP addresses

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

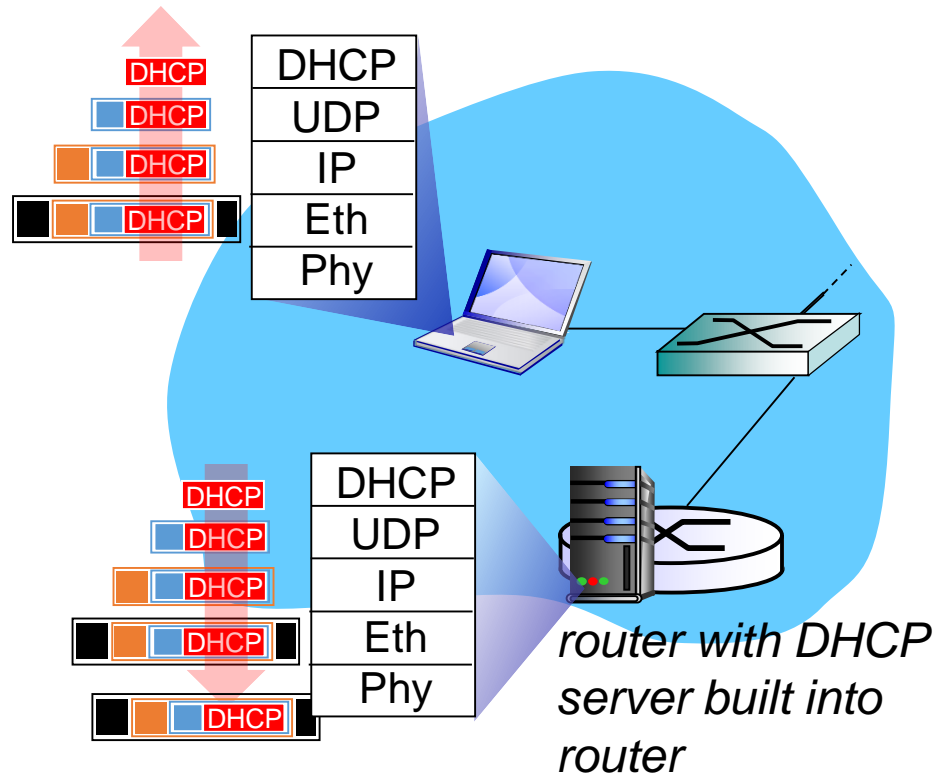
- address of first-hop router for client
- name and IP address of DNS sever
- network mask (indicating network versus host portion of address)

DHCP: example



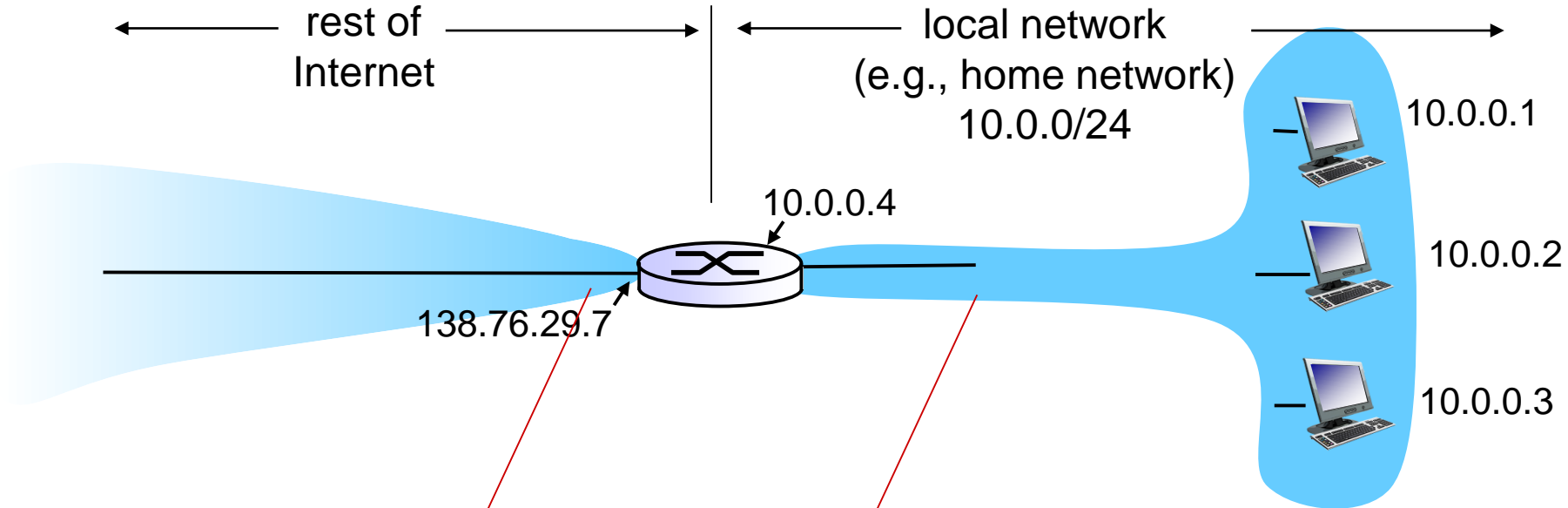
- ❖ connecting laptop needs its IP address, addr of first-hop router, addr of DNS server: use DHCP
- ❖ DHCP request encapsulated in UDP, encapsulated in IP, encapsulated in 802.1 Ethernet
- ❖ Ethernet frame broadcast (dest: FFFFFFFFFFFFFFFF) on LAN, received at router running DHCP server
- ❖ Ethernet demuxed to IP demuxed, UDP demuxed to DHCP

DHCP: example



- DCP server formulates DHCP ACK containing client's IP address, IP address of first-hop router for client, name & IP address of DNS server
- ❖ encapsulation of DHCP server, frame forwarded to client, demuxing up to DHCP at client
- ❖ client now knows its IP address, name and IP address of DSN server, IP address of its first-hop router

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)

NAT: network address translation

motivation: local network uses just one IP address as far as outside world is concerned:

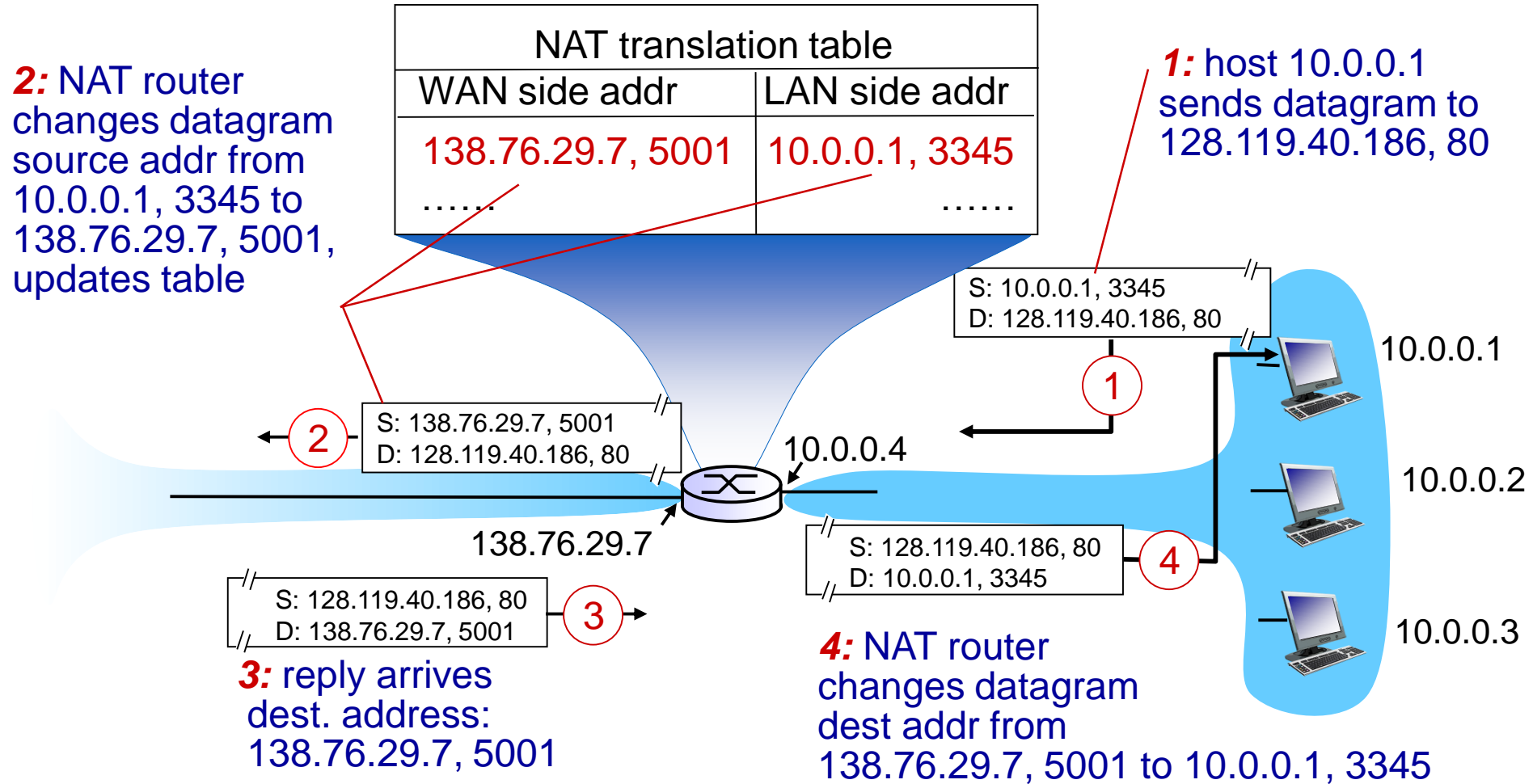
- range of addresses not needed from ISP: just one IP address for all devices
- can change addresses of devices in local network without notifying outside world
- can change ISP without changing addresses of devices in local network
- devices inside local net not explicitly addressable, visible by outside world (a security plus)

NAT: network address translation

implementation: NAT router must:

- *outgoing datagrams: replace* (source IP address, port #) of every outgoing datagram to (NAT IP address, new port #)
... remote clients/servers will respond using (NAT IP address, new port #) as destination addr
- *remember (in NAT translation table)* every (source IP address, port #) to (NAT IP address, new port #) translation pair
- *incoming datagrams: replace* (NAT IP address, new port #) in dest fields of every incoming datagram with corresponding (source IP address, port #) stored in NAT table

NAT: network address translation



NAT: network address translation

- 16-bit port-number field:
 - 60,000 simultaneous connections with a single LAN-side address!
- NAT is controversial:
 - routers should only process up to layer 3
 - violates end-to-end argument
 - NAT possibility must be taken into account by app designers, e.g., P2P applications
 - address shortage should instead be solved by IPv6

ICMP: internet control message protocol

- used by hosts & routers to communicate network-level information

- error reporting:
unreachable host, network, port, protocol
- echo request/reply (used by ping)

- network-layer “above” IP:

- ICMP msgs carried in IP datagrams

- **ICMP message:** type, code plus first 8 bytes of IP datagram causing error

<u>Type</u>	<u>Code</u>	<u>description</u>
0	0	echo reply (ping)
3	0	dest. network unreachable
3	1	dest host unreachable
3	2	dest protocol unreachable
3	3	dest port unreachable
3	6	dest network unknown
3	7	dest host unknown
4	0	source quench (congestion control - not used)
8	0	echo request (ping)
9	0	route advertisement
10	0	router discovery
11	0	TTL expired
12	0	bad IP header

Traceroute and ICMP

- ❖ source sends series of UDP segments to dest

- first set has TTL =1
- second set has TTL=2, etc.
- unlikely port number

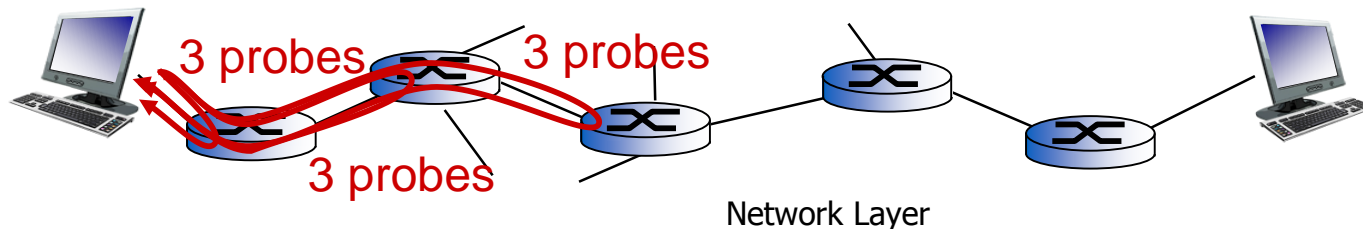
- ❖ when n th set of datagrams arrives to n th router:

- router discards datagrams
- and sends source ICMP messages (type 11, code 0)
- ICMP messages includes name of router & IP address

- ❖ when ICMP messages arrives, source records RTTs

stopping criteria:

- ❖ UDP segment eventually arrives at destination host
- ❖ destination returns ICMP “port unreachable” message (type 3, code 3)
- ❖ source stops



IPv6: motivation

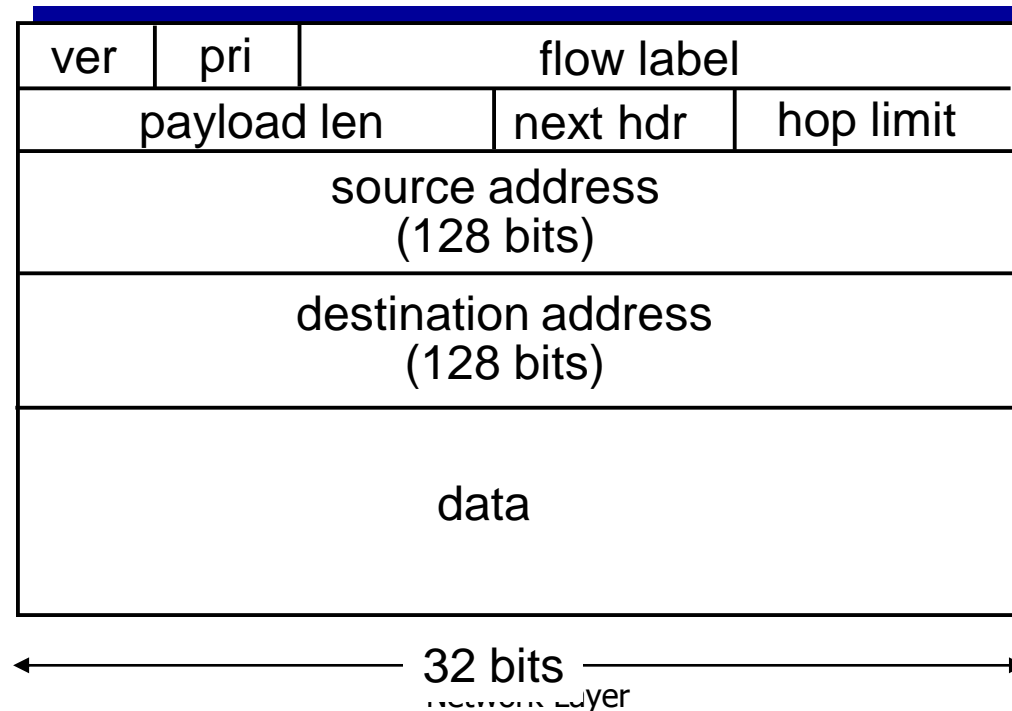
- *initial motivation*: 32-bit address space soon to be completely allocated.
- additional motivation:
 - header format helps speed processing/forwarding
 - header changes to facilitate QoS

IPv6 datagram format:

- fixed-length 40 byte header
- no fragmentation allowed

IPv6 datagram format

- priority*: identify priority among datagrams in flow
- flow Label*: identify datagrams in same “flow.”
(concept of “flow” not well defined).
- next header*: identify upper layer protocol for data



Other changes from IPv4

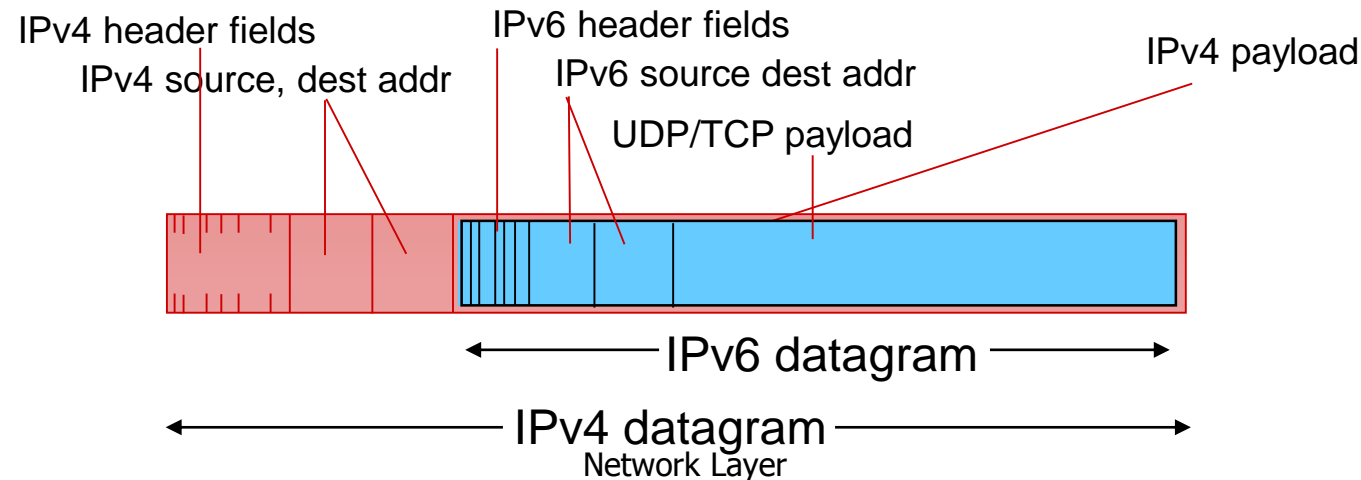
- *checksum*: removed entirely to reduce processing time at each hop
- *options*: allowed, but outside of header, indicated by “Next Header” field
- *ICMPv6*: new version of ICMP
 - additional message types, e.g. “Packet Too Big”
 - multicast group management functions

Other changes from IPv4

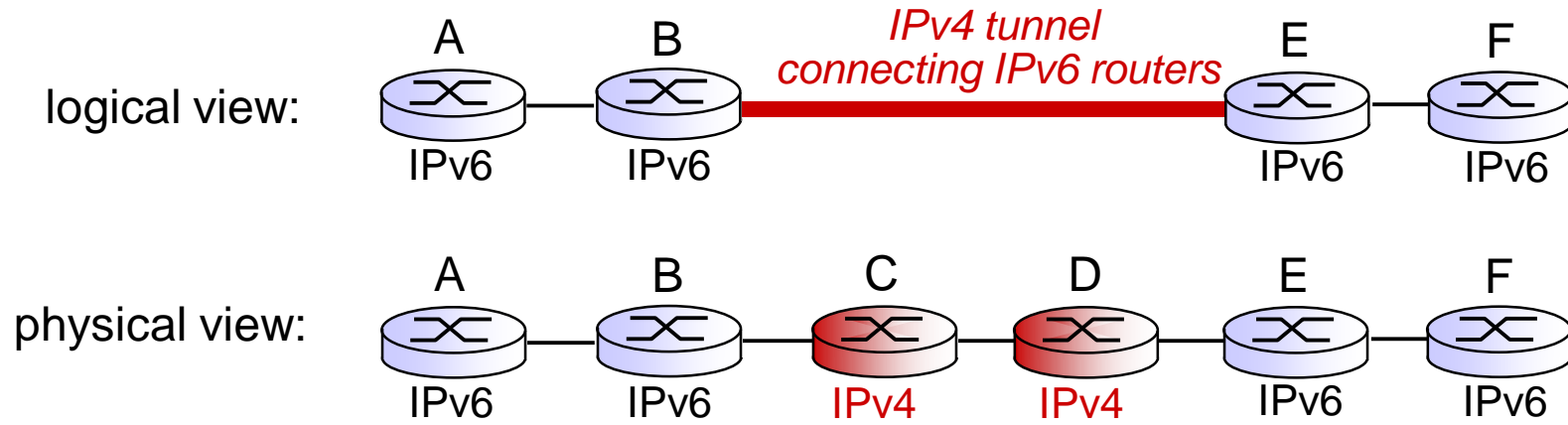
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Transition from IPv4 to IPv6

- 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



Tunneling



IPv6: adoption – mid 2018 data

- Between 19% and 23% users that access Google over IPv6
- IPv6 adoption
- Belgium – 46%, USA – 40%; India – 37%; Greece – 32%; Germany – 25%; Finland – 21%, Brazil – 20%, UK – 13%; Bulgaria – 1%
- <https://www.akamai.com/uk/en/about/our-thinking/state-of-the-internet-report/state-of-the-internet-ipv6-adoption-visualization.jsp>
- *Long (long!) time for deployment, use*
 - 20 years and counting!
 - think of application-level changes in last 20 years: WWW, Facebook, ...
 - *Why?*

Hierarchical routing

our routing study thus far - idealization

- ❖ all routers identical

- ❖ network “flat”

... *not* true in practice

scale: with 600 million destinations:

- can't store all dest's in routing tables!
- routing table exchange would swamp links!

administrative autonomy

- ❖ internet = network of networks
- ❖ each network admin may want to control routing in its own network

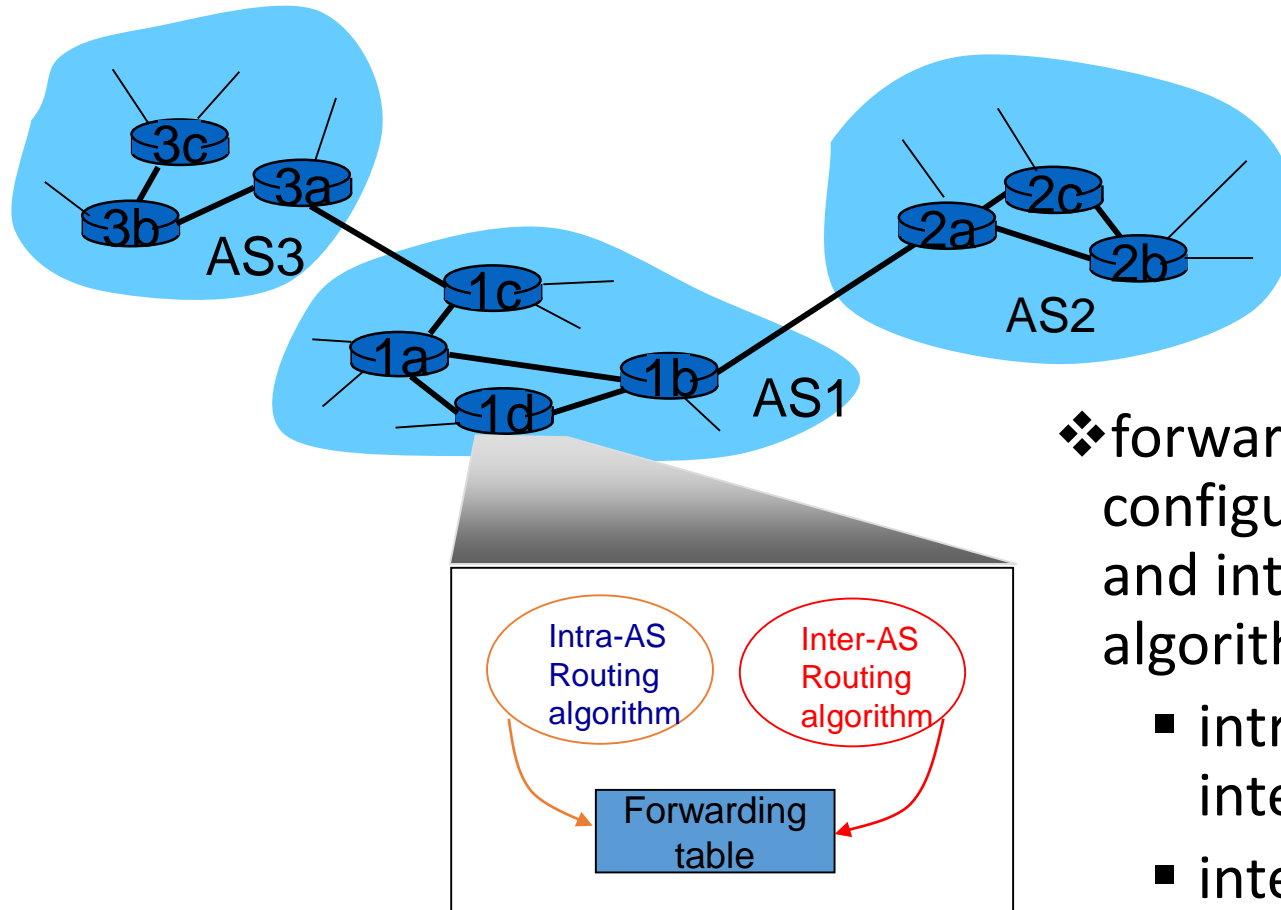
Hierarchical routing

- aggregate routers into regions, “**autonomous systems**” (AS)
- routers in same AS run same routing protocol
 - “**intra-AS**” routing protocol
 - routers in different AS can run different intra-AS routing protocol

gateway router:

- at “edge” of its own AS
- has link to router in another AS

Interconnected ASes



- ❖ forwarding table configured by both intra- and inter-AS routing algorithm
 - intra-AS sets entries for internal dests
 - inter-AS & intra-AS sets entries for external dests

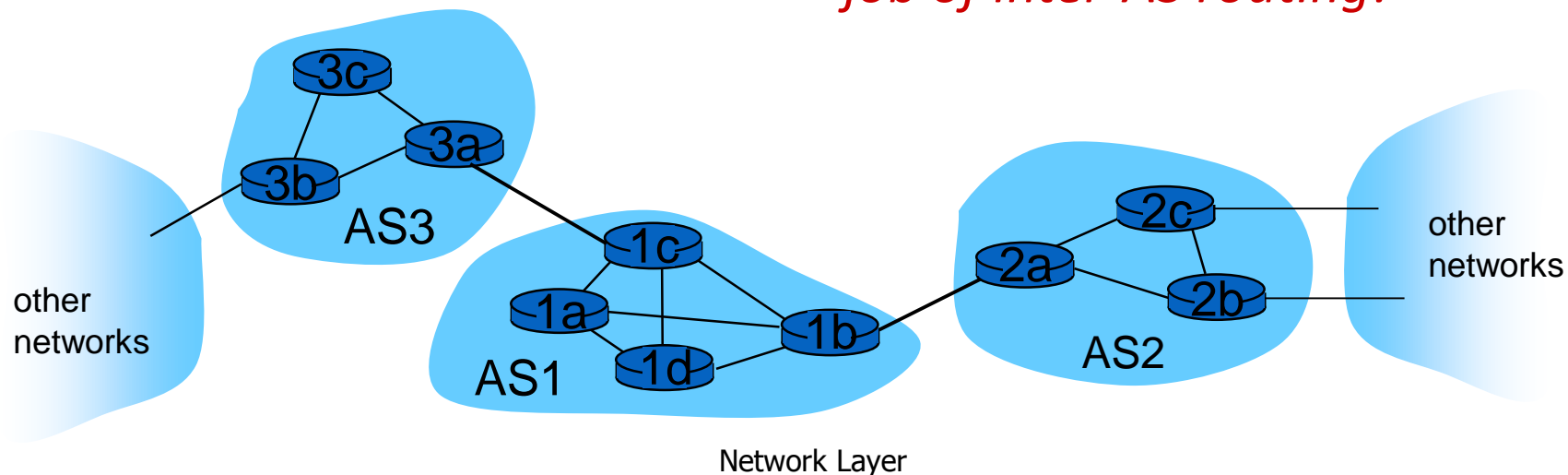
Inter-AS tasks

- ❖ suppose router in AS1 receives datagram destined outside of AS1:
 - router should forward packet to gateway router, but which one?

AS1 must:

1. learn which destds are reachable through AS2, which through AS3
2. propagate this reachability info to all routers in AS1

job of inter-AS routing!



Intra-AS Routing

- ❖ also known as *interior gateway protocols (IGP)*
- ❖ most common intra-AS routing protocols:
 - RIP: Routing Information Protocol
 - OSPF: Open Shortest Path First
 - IGRP: Interior Gateway Routing Protocol (Cisco proprietary)

Internet inter-AS routing: BGP

- **BGP (Border Gateway Protocol):** *the* de facto inter-domain routing protocol
 - “glue that holds the Internet together”
- BGP provides each AS a means to:
 - **eBGP:** obtain subnet reachability information from neighboring ASs.
 - **iBGP:** propagate reachability information to all AS-internal routers.
 - determine “good” routes to other networks based on reachability information and policy.
- allows subnet to advertise its existence to rest of Internet: *“I am here”*

Why different Intra-, Inter-AS routing ?

policy:

- inter-AS: admin wants control over how its traffic routed, who routes through its net.
- intra-AS: single admin, so no policy decisions needed

scale:

- hierarchical routing saves table size, reduced update traffic

performance:

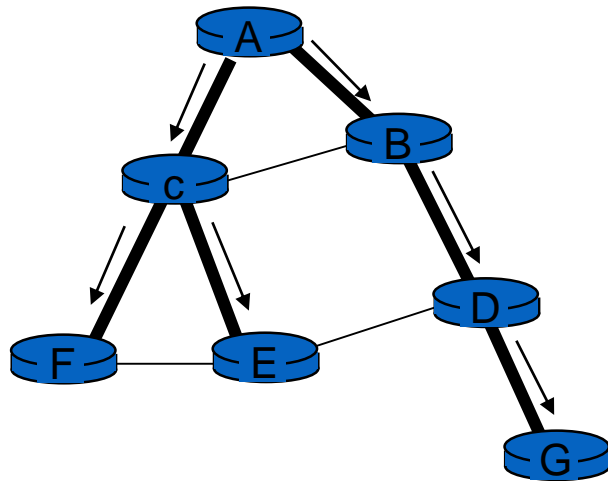
- intra-AS: can focus on performance
- inter-AS: policy may dominate over performance

In-network duplication

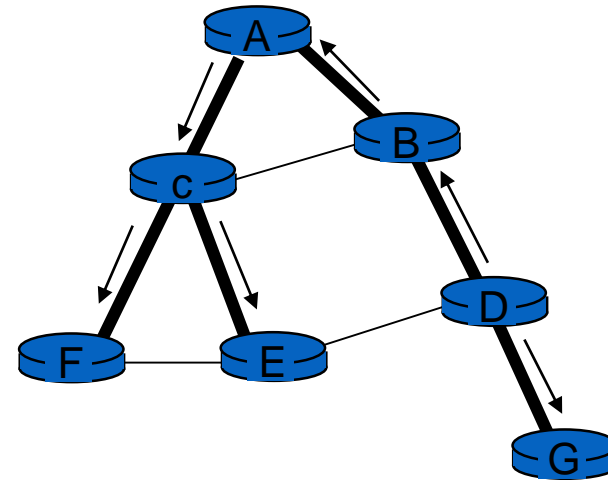
- *flooding*: when node receives broadcast packet, sends copy to all neighbors
 - problems: cycles & broadcast storm
- *controlled flooding*: node only broadcasts pkt if it hasn't broadcast same packet before
 - node keeps track of packet ids already broadcasted
 - or reverse path forwarding (RPF): only forward packet if it arrived on shortest path between node and source
- *spanning tree*:
 - no redundant packets received by any node

Spanning tree

- ❖ first construct a spanning tree
- ❖ nodes then forward/make copies only along spanning tree



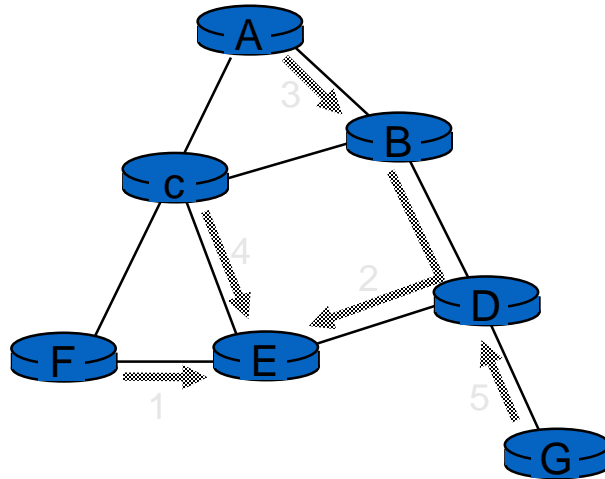
(a) broadcast initiated at A



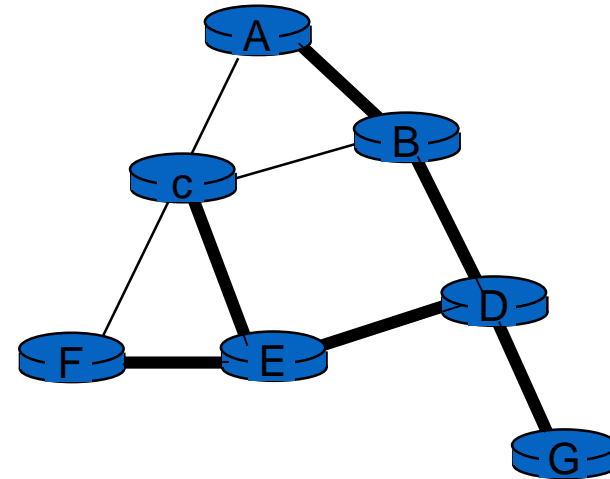
(b) broadcast initiated at D

Spanning tree: creation

- ❖ center node
- ❖ each node sends unicast join message to center node
 - message forwarded until it arrives at a node already belonging to spanning tree



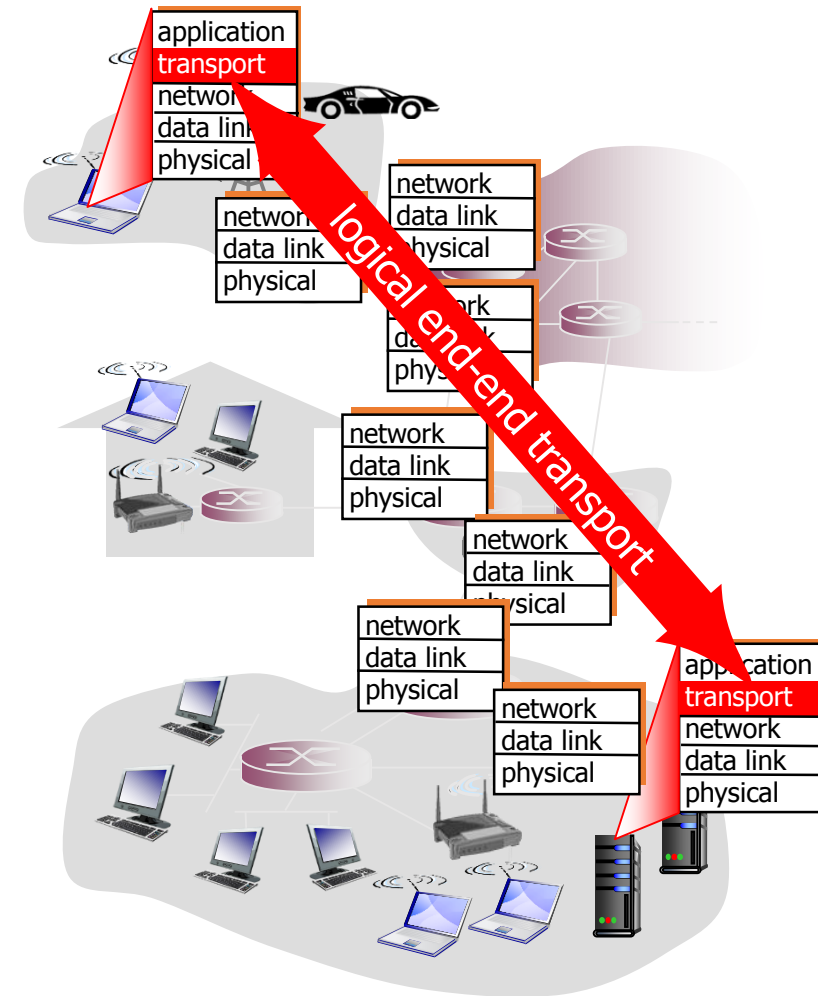
(a) stepwise construction of spanning tree (center: E)



(b) constructed spanning tree

Internet transport-layer protocols

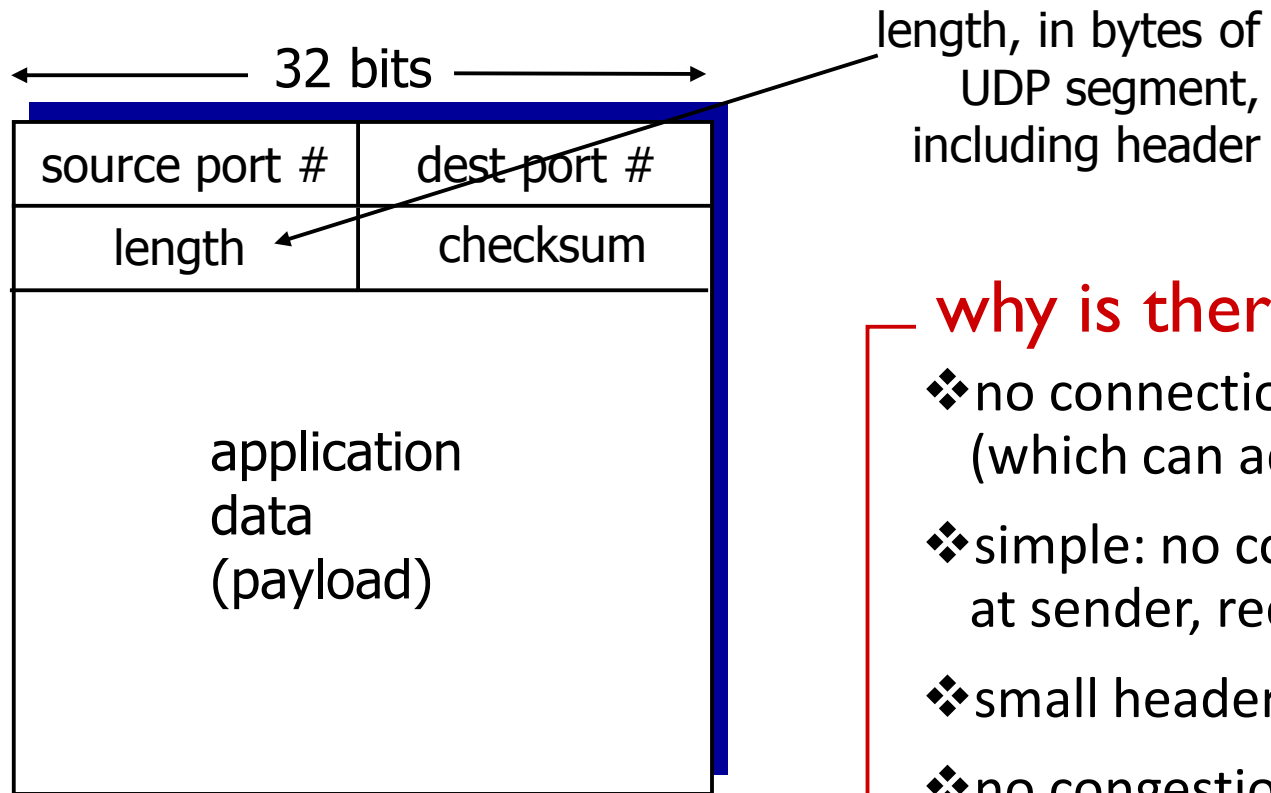
- reliable, in-order delivery (TCP)
 - congestion control
 - flow control
 - connection setup
- unreliable, unordered delivery: UDP
 - no-frills extension of “best-effort” IP
- services not available:
 - delay guarantees
 - bandwidth guarantees



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!

UDP: segment header



UDP segment format

why is there a UDP?

- ❖ no connection establishment (which can add delay)
- ❖ simple: no connection state at sender, receiver
- ❖ small header size
- ❖ no congestion control: UDP can blast away as fast as desired

UDP checksum

Goal: detect “errors” (e.g., flipped bits) in transmitted segment

sender:

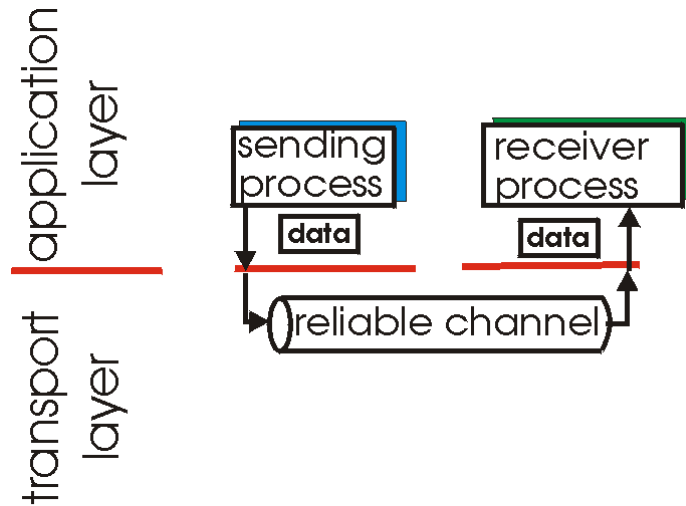
- treat segment contents, including header fields, as sequence of 16-bit integers
- checksum: addition (one's complement sum) of segment contents
- sender puts checksum value into UDP checksum field

receiver:

- compute checksum of received segment
- check if computed checksum equals checksum field value:
 - NO - error detected
 - YES - no error detected. *But maybe errors nonetheless?*
More later

Principles of reliable data transfer

- ❖ important in application, transport, link layers
 - top-10 list of important networking topics!

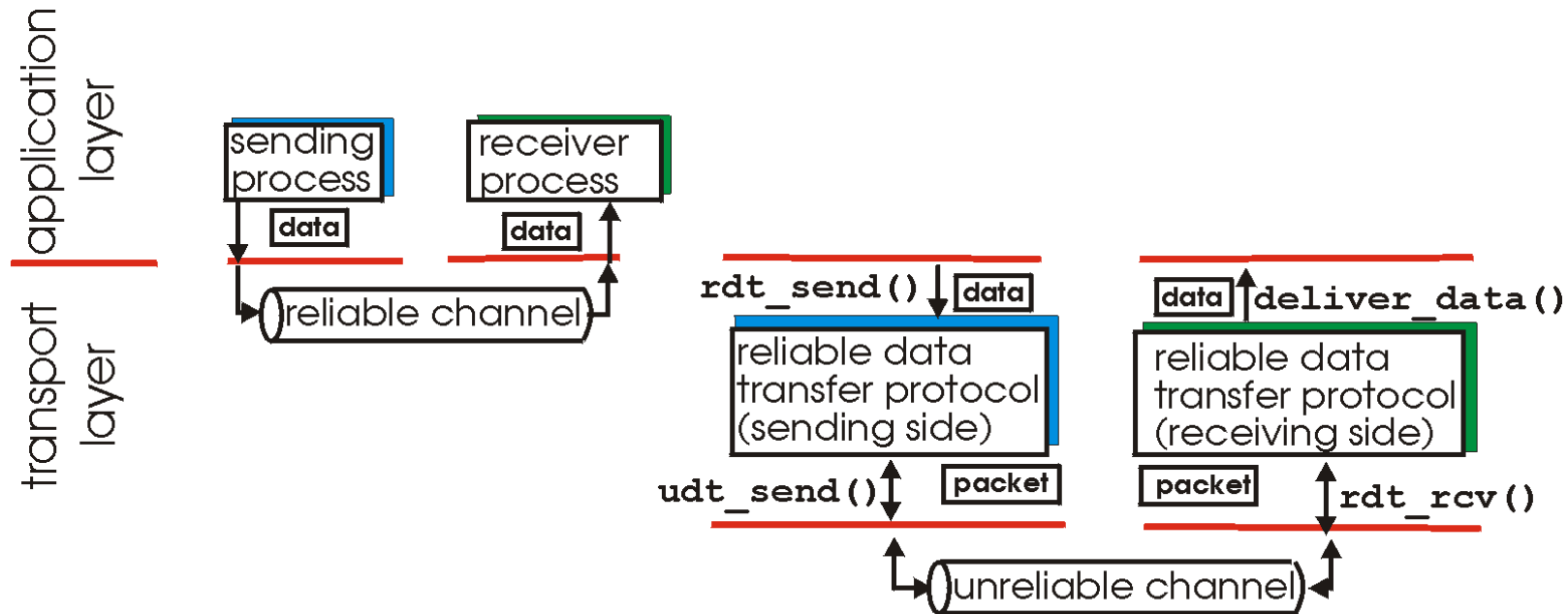


(a) provided service

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

Principles of reliable data transfer

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(a) provided service

(b) service implementation

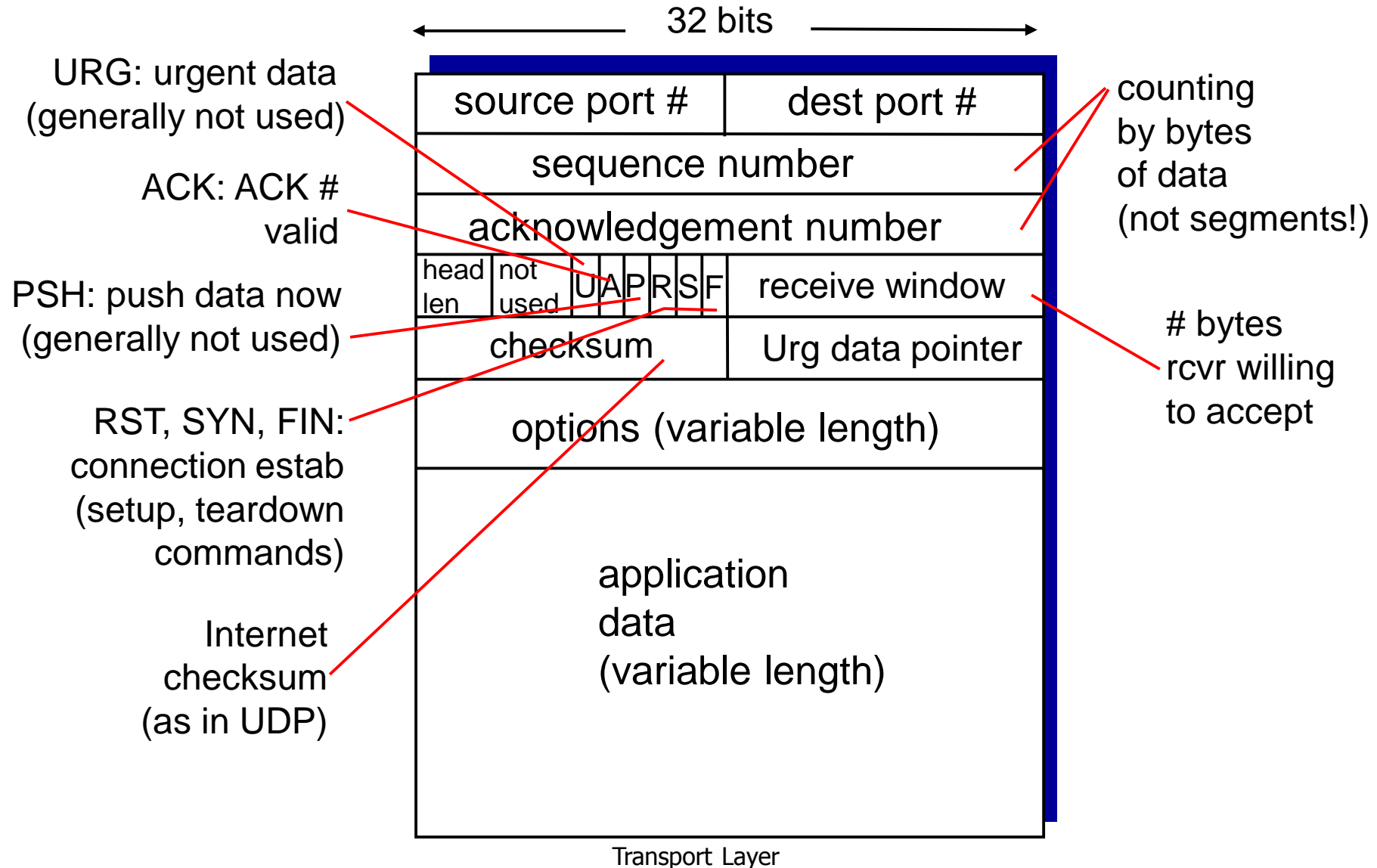
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TCP: Overview

RFCs: 793,1122,1323, 2018, 2581

- **point-to-point:**
 - one sender, one receiver
- **reliable, in-order *byte stream*:**
 - no “message boundaries”
- **pipelined:**
 - TCP congestion and flow control set window size
- ❖ **full duplex data:**
 - bi-directional data flow in same connection
 - MSS: maximum segment size
- ❖ **connection-oriented:**
 - handshaking (exchange of control msgs) initializes sender, receiver state before data exchange
- ❖ **flow controlled:**
 - sender will not overwhelm receiver

TCP segment structure



TCP seq. numbers, ACKs

sequence numbers:

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

acknowledgements:

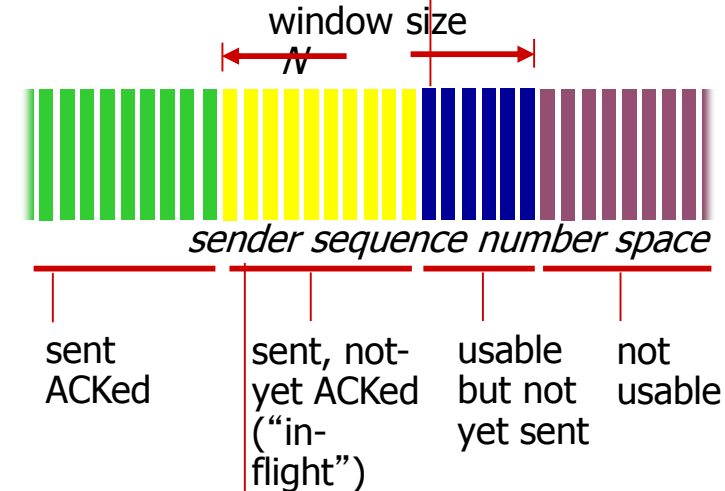
- seq # of next byte expected from other side
- cumulative ACK

Q: how receiver handles out-of-order segments

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

outgoing segment from sender

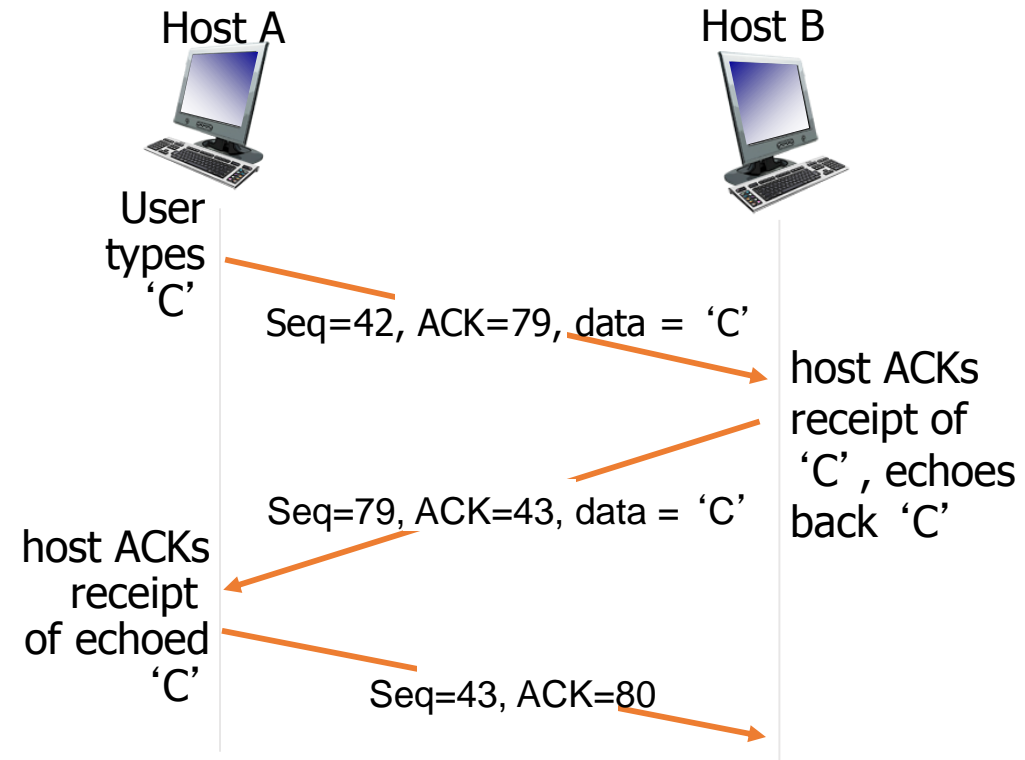
source port #	dest port #
sequence number	
acknowledgement number	
	rwnd
checksum	urg pointer



incoming segment to sender

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

TCP seq. numbers, ACKs



simple telnet scenario

TCP round trip time, timeout

Q: how to set TCP timeout value?

- ❖ longer than RTT
 - but RTT varies
- ❖ *too short*: premature timeout, unnecessary retransmissions
- ❖ *too long*: slow reaction to segment loss

Q: how to estimate RTT?

- **SampleRTT**: measured time from segment transmission until ACK receipt
 - ignore retransmissions
- **SampleRTT** will vary, want estimated RTT “smoother”
 - average several *recent* measurements, not just current **SampleRTT**

TCP round trip time, timeout

- **timeout interval:** **EstimatedRTT** plus “safety margin”
 - large variation in **EstimatedRTT** -> larger safety margin
- estimate SampleRTT deviation from EstimatedRTT:

$$\text{DevRTT} = (1-\beta) * \text{DevRTT} + \beta * |\text{SampleRTT} - \text{EstimatedRTT}|$$

(typically, $\beta = 0.25$)

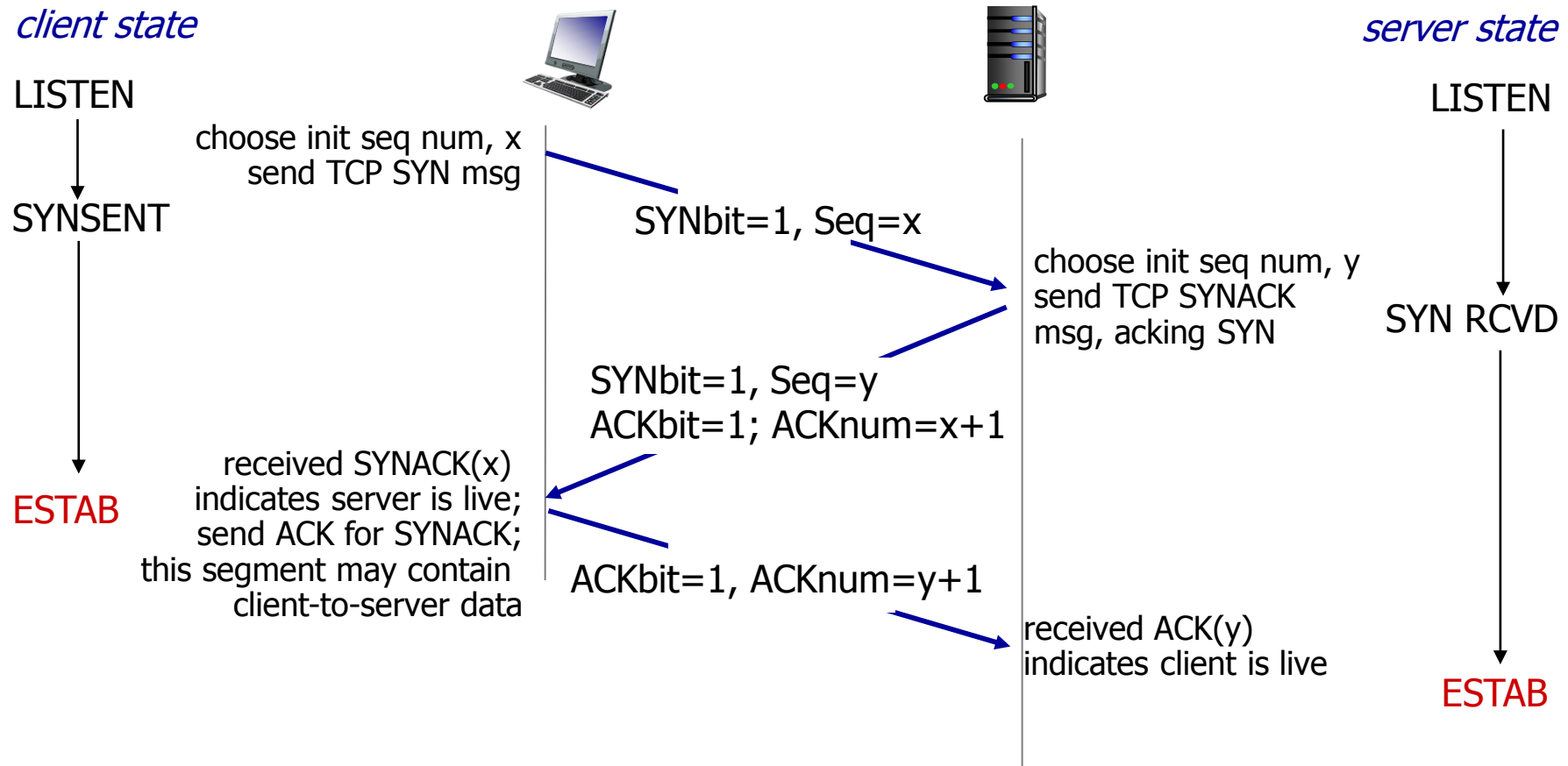
$$\text{TimeoutInterval} = \text{EstimatedRTT} + 4 * \text{DevRTT}$$



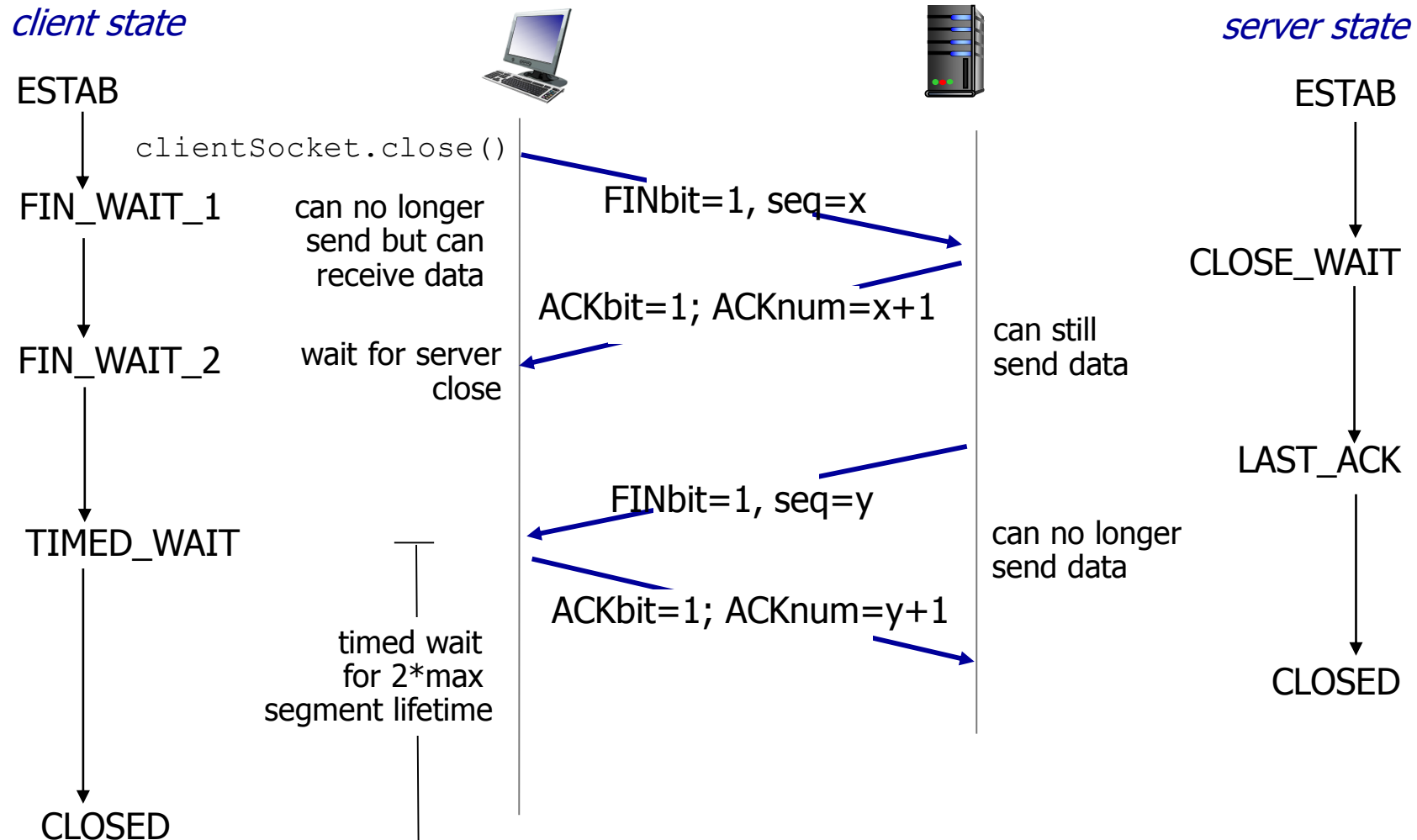
↑
estimated RTT

↑
“safety margin”

TCP 3-way handshake



TCP: closing a connection



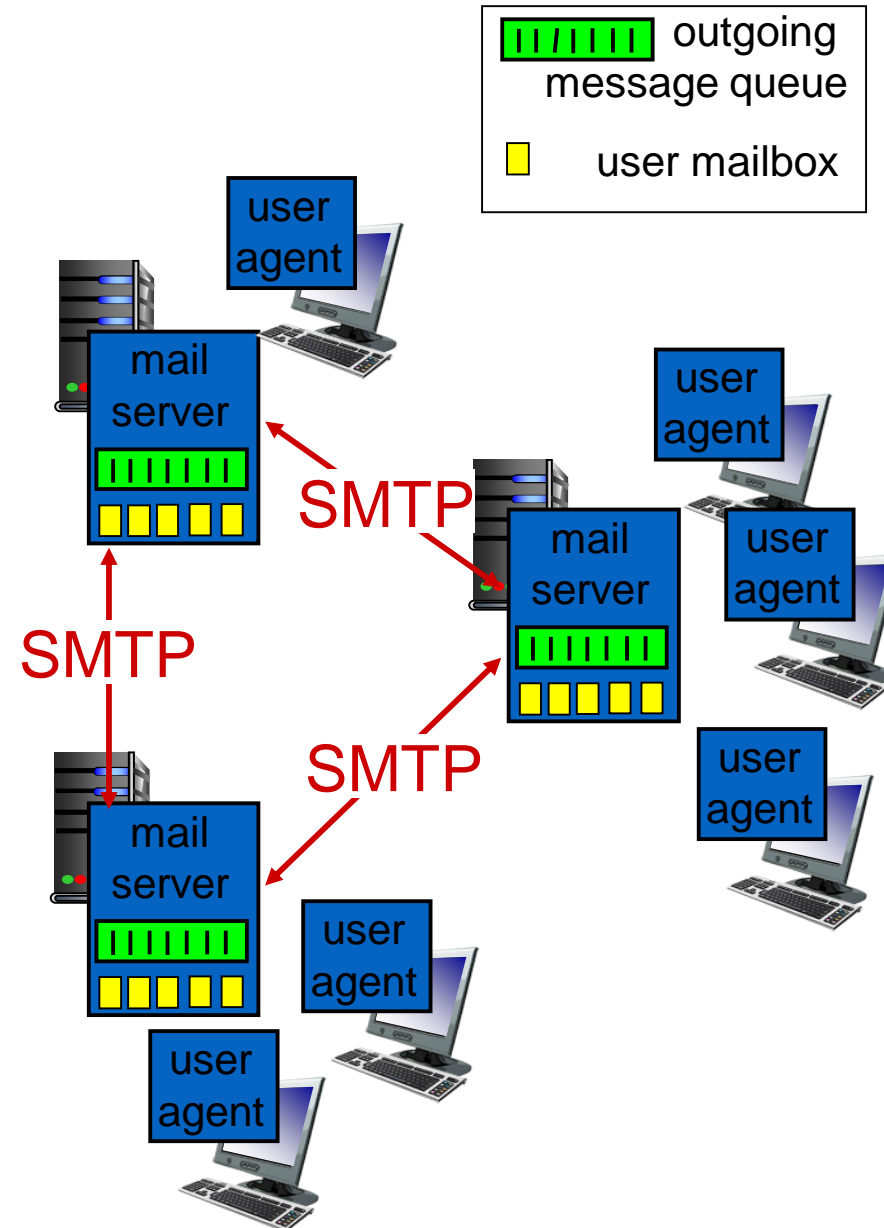
Electronic mail

Three major components:

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

User Agent

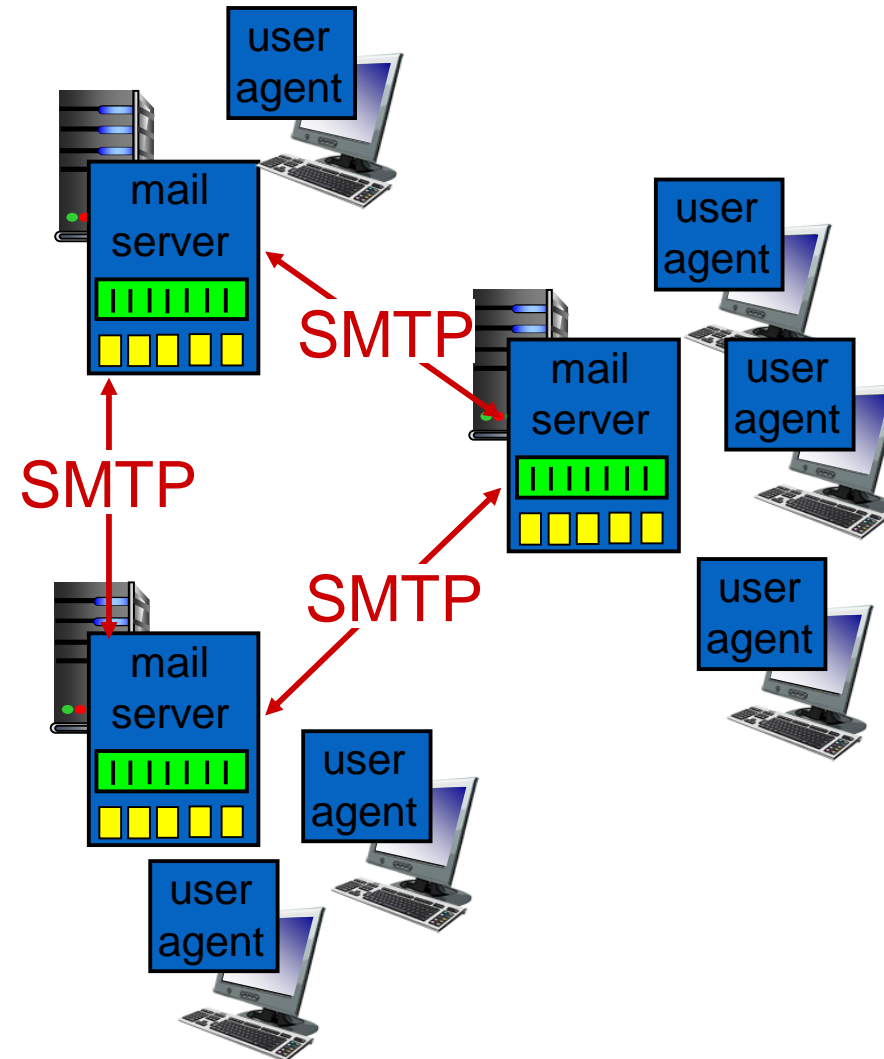
- a.k.a. “mail reader”
- composing, editing, reading mail messages
- e.g., Outlook, Thunderbird, iPhone mail client
- outgoing, incoming messages stored on server



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

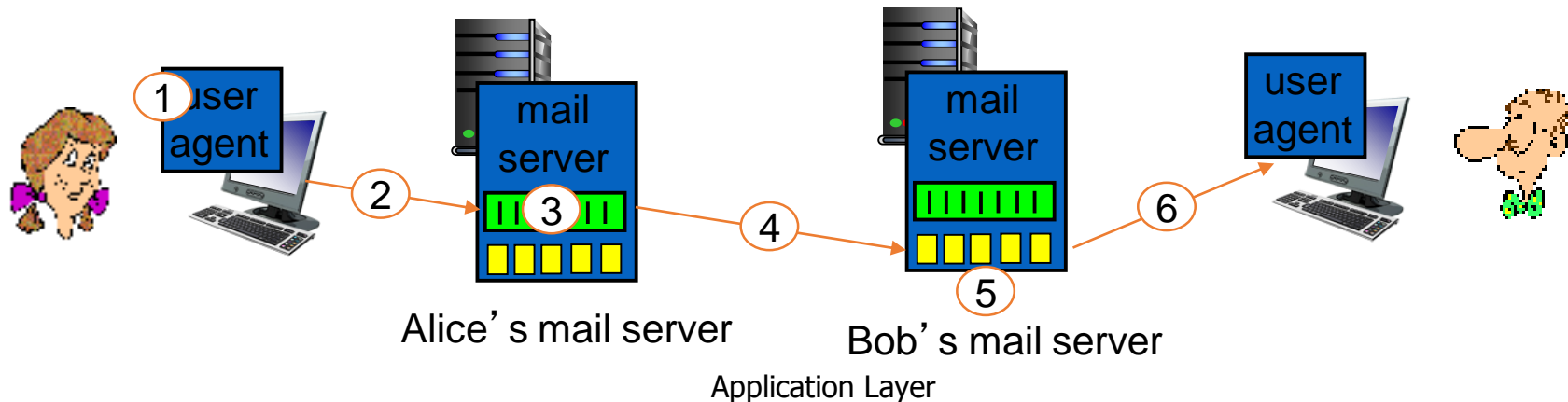


Electronic Mail: SMTP [RFC 2821]

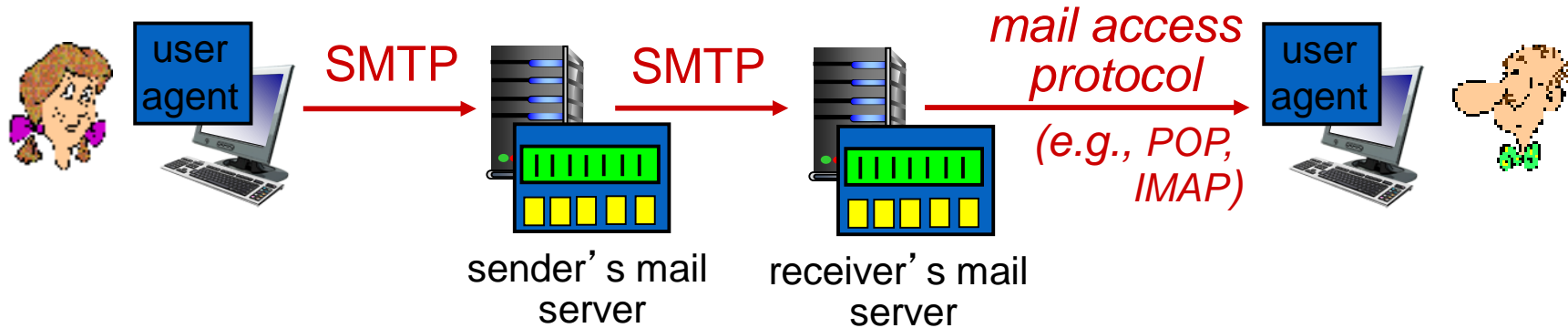
- uses TCP to reliably transfer email message from client to server, port 25
- direct transfer: sending server to receiving server
- three phases of transfer
 - handshaking (greeting)
 - transfer of messages
 - closure
- command/response interaction (like HTTP, FTP)
 - **commands**: ASCII text
 - **response**: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

Scenario: Alice sends message to Bob

- 1) Alice uses UA to compose message "to" `bob@some school.edu`
- 2) Alice's UA sends message to her mail server; message placed in message queue
- 3) client side of SMTP opens TCP connection with Bob's mail server
- 4) SMTP client sends Alice's message over the TCP connection
- 5) Bob's mail server places the message in Bob's mailbox
- 6) Bob invokes his user agent to read message



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 msgs on server
 - **HTTP**: gmail, Hotmail, Yahoo! Mail, etc.

POP3 (more) and IMAP

more about POP3

- previous example uses POP3 “download and delete” mode
 - Bob cannot re-read e-mail if he changes client
- POP3 “download-and-keep”: copies of messages on different clients
- POP3 is stateless across sessions

IMAP

- keeps all messages in one place: at server
- allows user to organize messages in folders
- keeps user state across sessions:
 - names of folders and mappings between message IDs and folder name

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

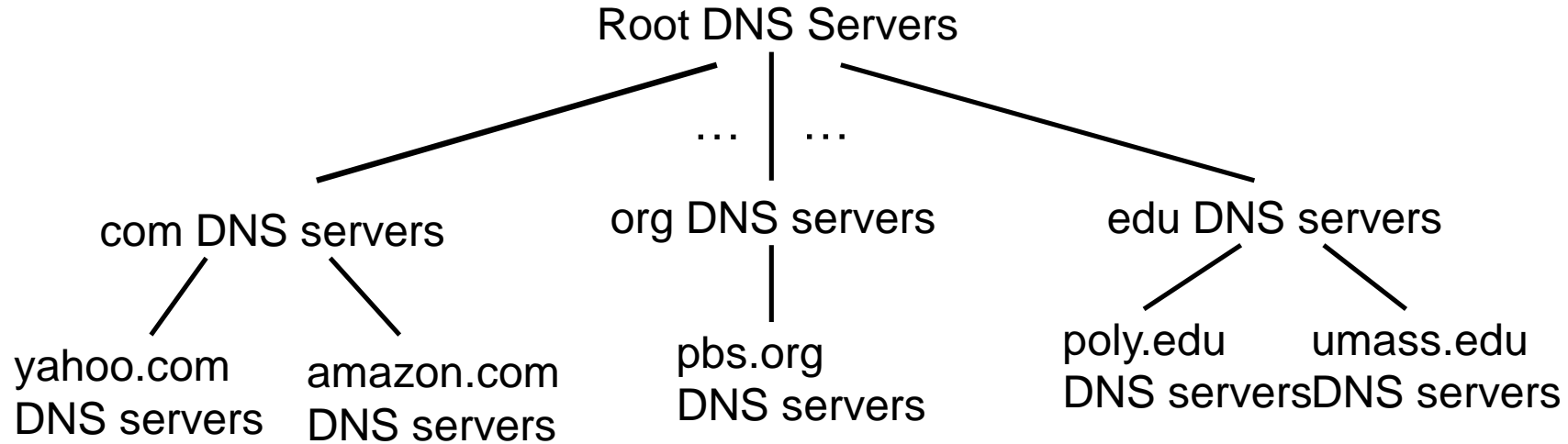
- hostname to IP address translation
- host aliasing
 - canonical, alias names
- mail server aliasing
- load distribution
 - replicated Web servers: many IP addresses correspond to one name

why not centralize DNS?

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

A: doesn't scale!

DNS: a distributed, hierarchical database

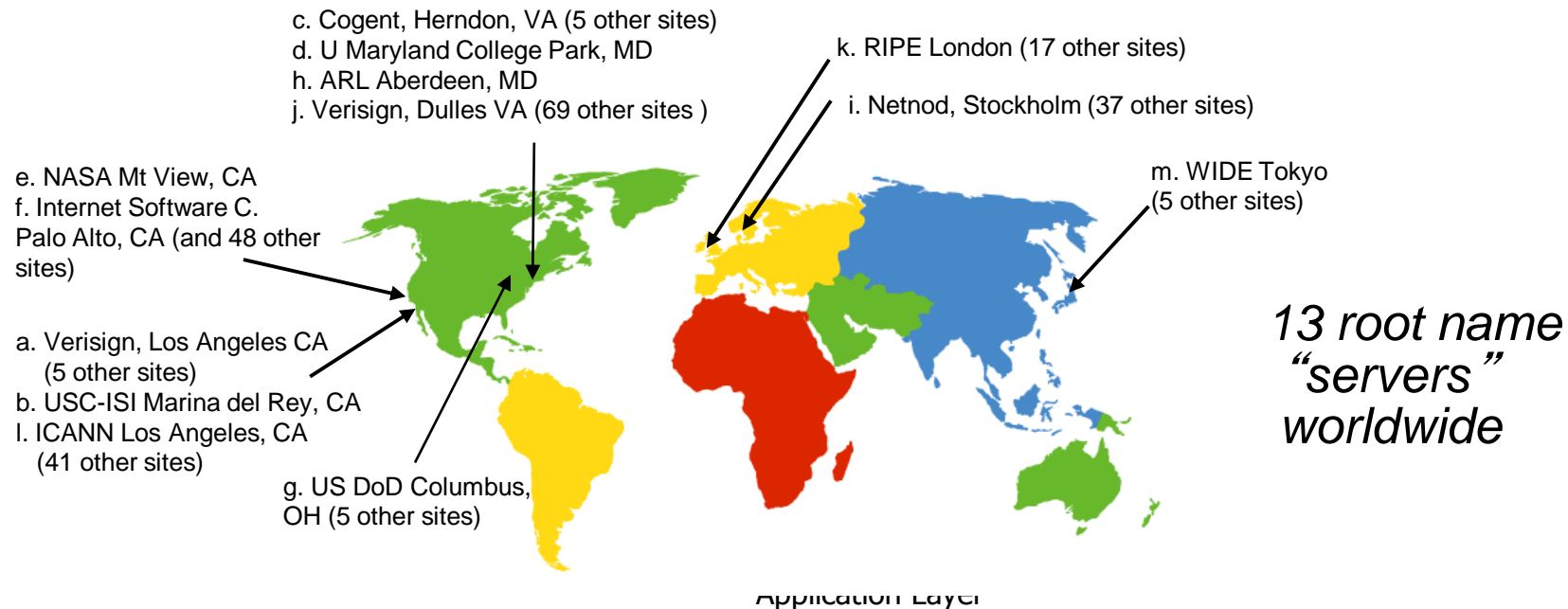


client wants IP for www.amazon.com; 1st approx:

- 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

DNS: root name servers

- contacted by local name server that can not resolve name
- root name server:
 - contacts authoritative name server if name mapping not known
 - gets mapping
 - returns mapping to local name server



TLD, authoritative servers

top-level domain (TLD) servers:

- responsible for com, org, net, edu, aero, jobs, museums, and all top-level country domains, e.g.: uk, fr, ca, jp
- Network Solutions maintains servers for .com TLD
- Educause for .edu TLD

authoritative DNS servers:

- organization's own DNS server(s), providing authoritative hostname to IP mappings for organization's named hosts
- can be maintained by organization or service provider

Local DNS name server

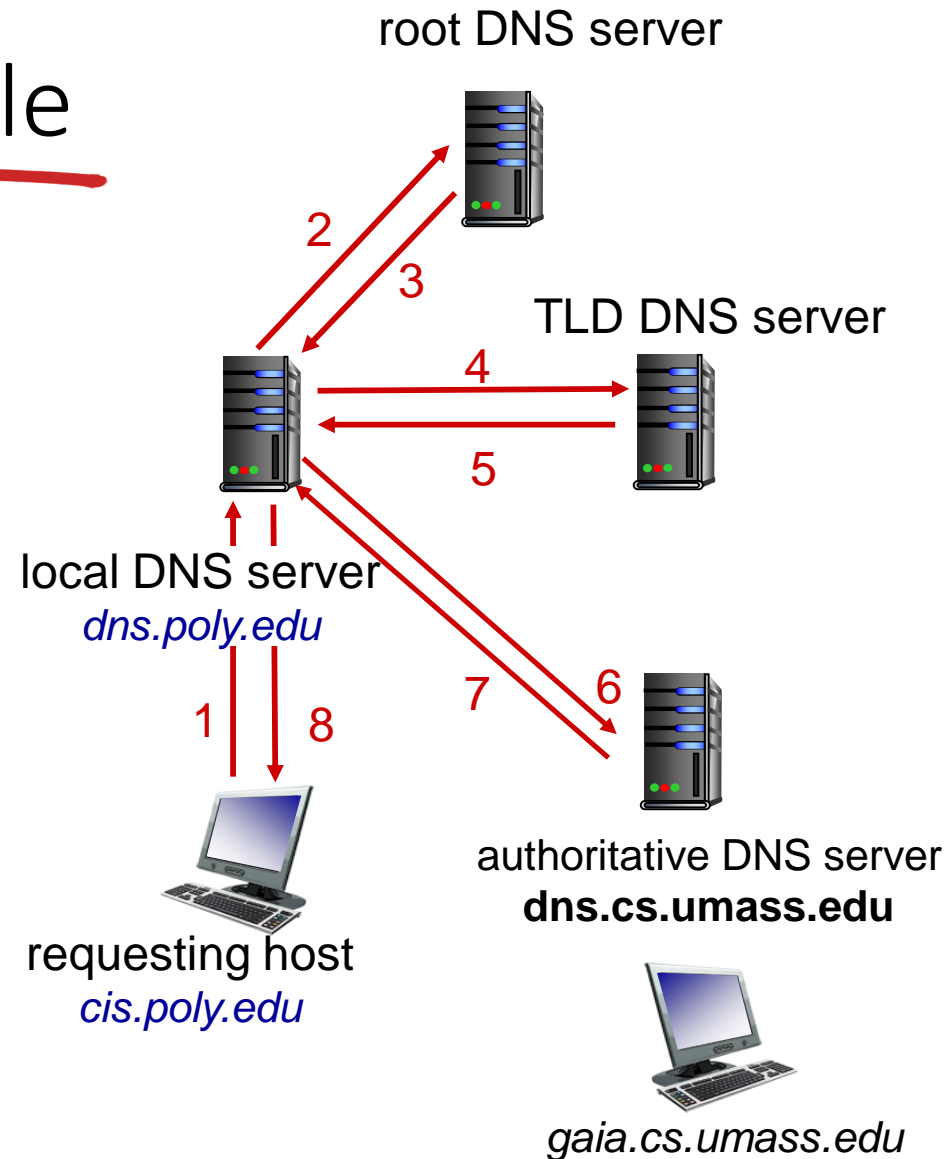
- does not strictly belong to hierarchy
- each ISP (residential ISP, company, university) has one
 - also called “default name server”
- when host makes DNS query, query is sent to its local DNS server
 - has local cache of recent name-to-address translation pairs (but may be out of date!)
 - acts as proxy, forwards query into hierarchy

DNS name resolution example

- host at cis.poly.edu wants IP address for gaia.cs.umass.edu

iterated query:

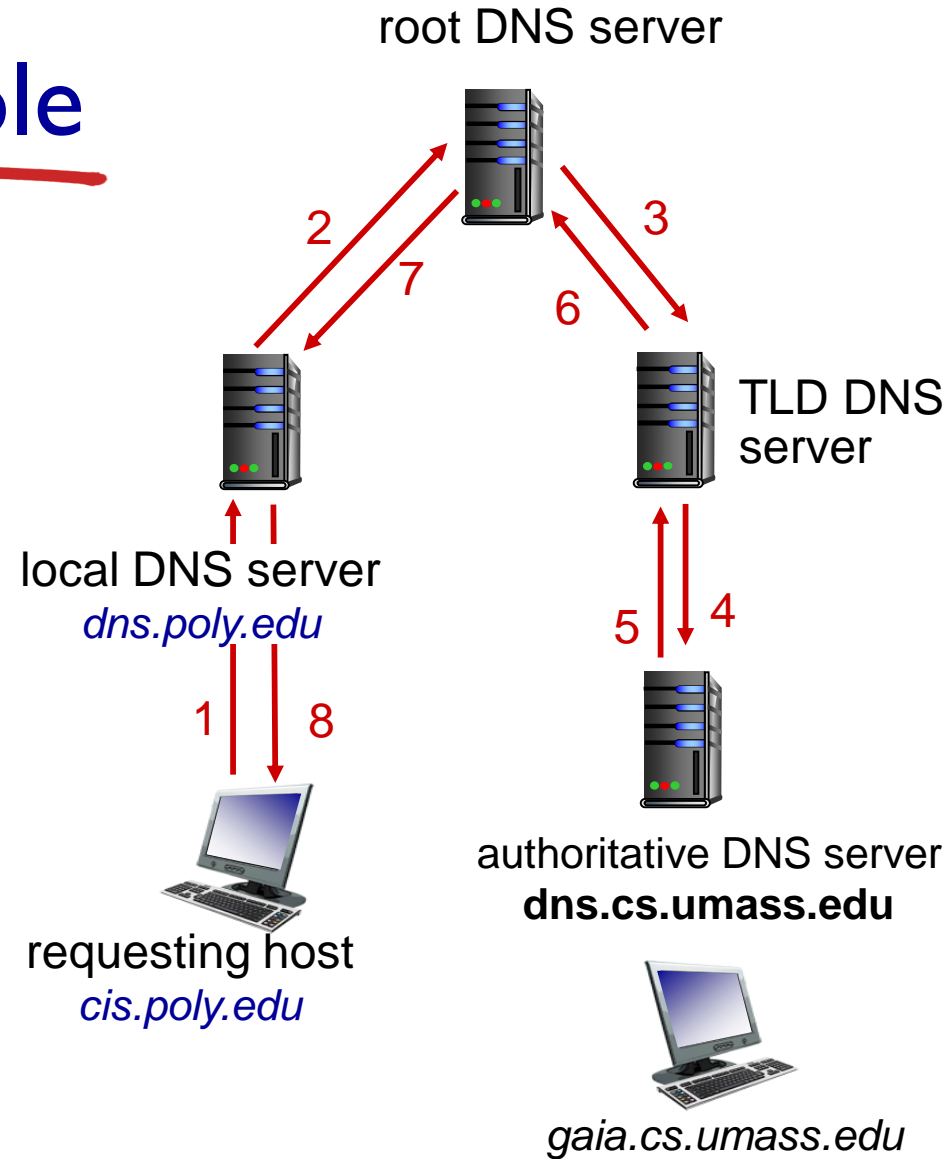
- ❖ contacted server replies with name of server to contact
- ❖ “I don’t know this name, but ask this server”



DNS name resolution example

recursive query:

- ❖ puts burden of name resolution on contacted name server
- ❖ heavy load at upper levels of hierarchy?



DNS: caching, updating records

- once (any) name server learns mapping, it *caches* mapping
 - cache entries timeout (disappear) after some time (TTL)
 - TLD servers typically cached in local name servers
 - thus root name servers not often visited
- cached entries may be *out-of-date* (best effort name-to-address translation!)
 - if name host changes IP address, may not be known Internet-wide until all TTLs expire
- update/notify mechanisms proposed IETF standard
 - RFC 2136

DNS records

DNS: distributed db storing resource records (RR)

RR format: (name, value, type, ttl)

type=A

- **name** is hostname
- **value** is IP address

type=NS

- **name** is domain (e.g., foo.com)
- **value** is hostname of authoritative name server for this domain

type=CNAME

- **name** is alias name for some “canonical” (the real) name
- **www.ibm.com** is really **servereast.backup2.ibm.com**
- **value** is canonical name

type=MX

- **value** is name of mailserver associated with **name**

Inserting records into DNS

- example: new startup “Network Utopia”
- register name networkutopia.com at *DNS registrar* (e.g., Network Solutions)
 - provide names, IP addresses of authoritative name server (primary and secondary)
 - registrar inserts two RRs into .com TLD server:
(networkutopia.com, dns1.networkutopia.com, NS)
(dns1.networkutopia.com, 212.212.212.1, A)
- create authoritative server type A record for www.networkutopia.com; type MX record for networkutopia.com

Attacking DNS

DDoS attacks

- Bombard root servers with traffic
 - Not successful to date
 - Traffic Filtering
 - Local DNS servers cache IPs of TLD servers, allowing root server bypass
- Bombard TLD servers
 - Potentially more dangerous

Redirect attacks

- Man-in-middle
 - Intercept queries
- DNS poisoning
 - Send bogus replies to DNS server, which caches

Exploit DNS for DDoS

- Send queries with spoofed source address: target IP
- Requires amplification

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

