Chapter 3
Transport Layer

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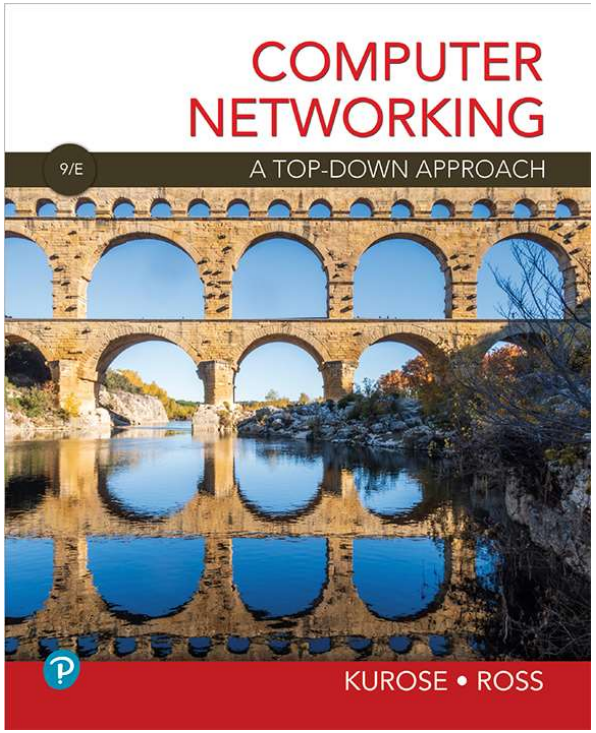


Computer Networking: A Top-Down Approach

9th edition
Jim Kurose, Keith Ross
Pearson, 2025

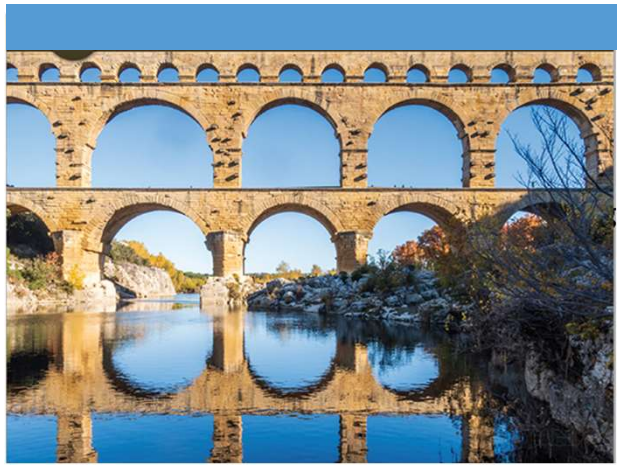
Transport layer: overview

Our goal:

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

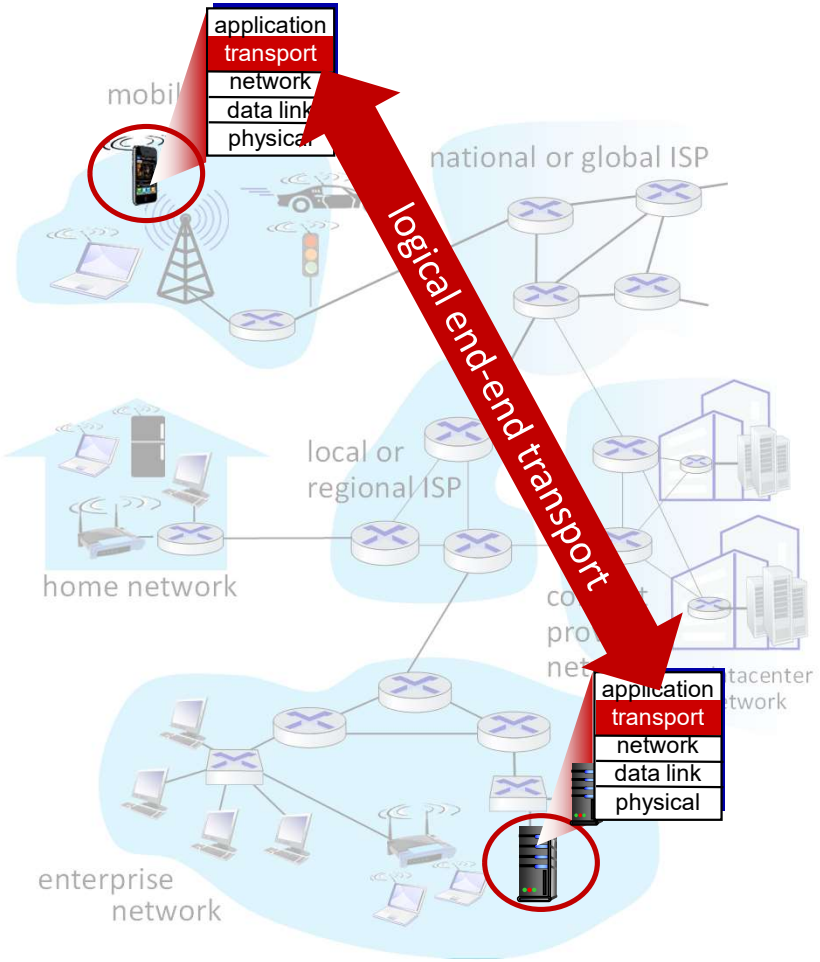
Transport layer: roadmap

- Transport-layer services
- Multiplexing and demultiplexing
- Connectionless transport: UDP
- Principles of reliable data transfer
- Connection-oriented transport: TCP
- Principles of congestion control
- TCP congestion control
- Evolution of transport-layer functionality



Transport services and protocols

- provide *logical communication* between application processes running on different hosts
- transport protocols actions in end systems:
  - sender: breaks application messages into *segments*, passes to network layer
  - receiver: reassembles segments into messages, passes to application layer
- two transport protocols available to Internet applications
  - TCP, UDP



Transport vs. network layer services and protocols

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 vs. network layer services and protocols

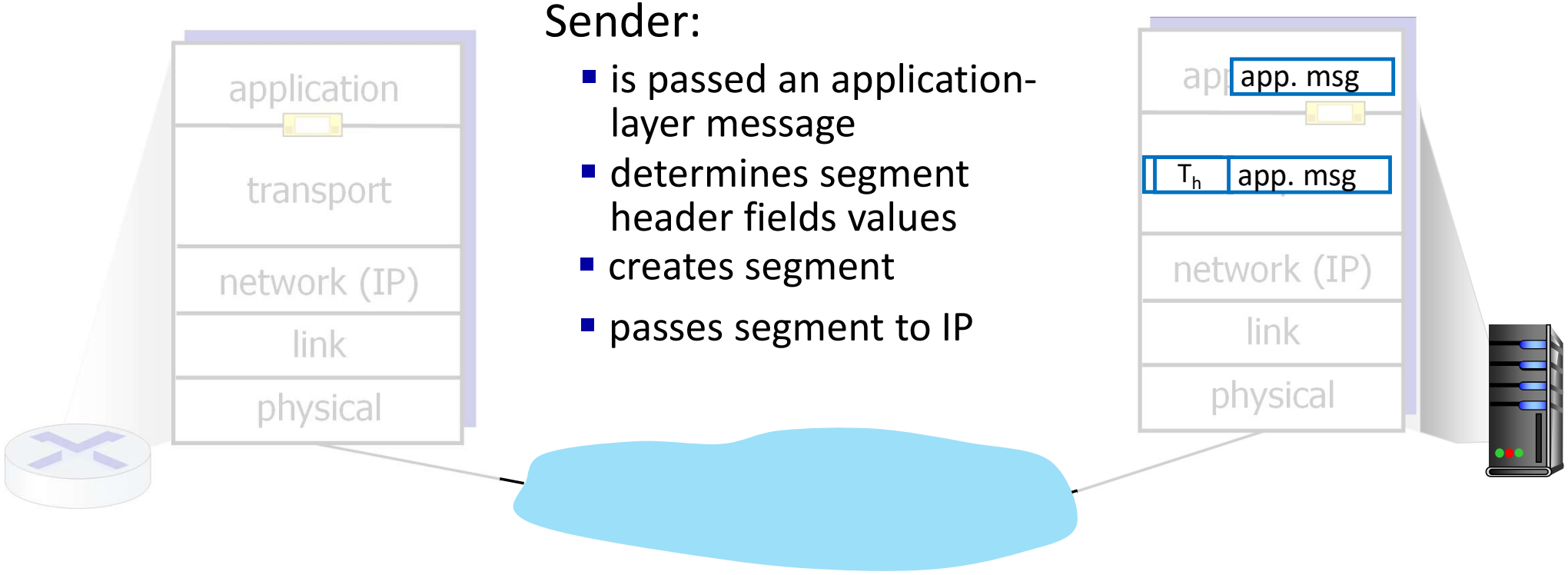
- transport layer: communication between *processes*
  - relies on, enhances, network layer services
- network layer: communication between *hosts*

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

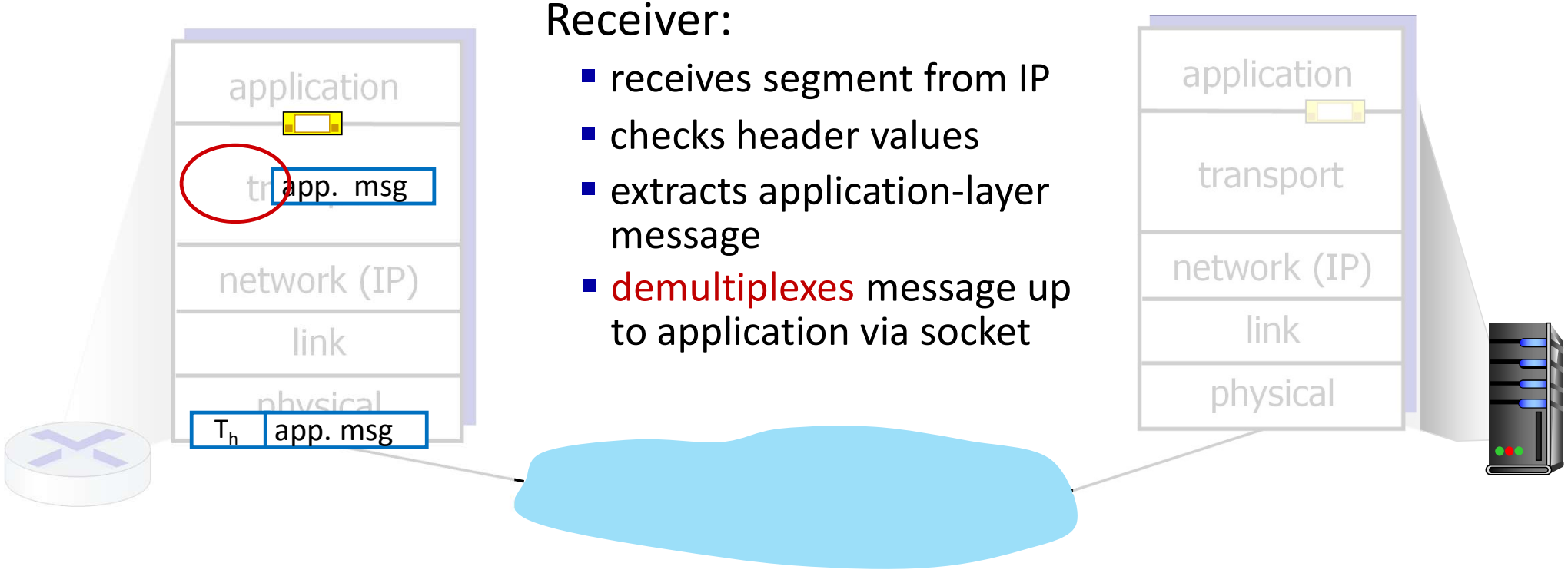
Transport Layer Actions



Sender:

- is passed an application-layer message
- determines segment header fields values
- creates segment
- passes segment to IP

Transport Layer Actions

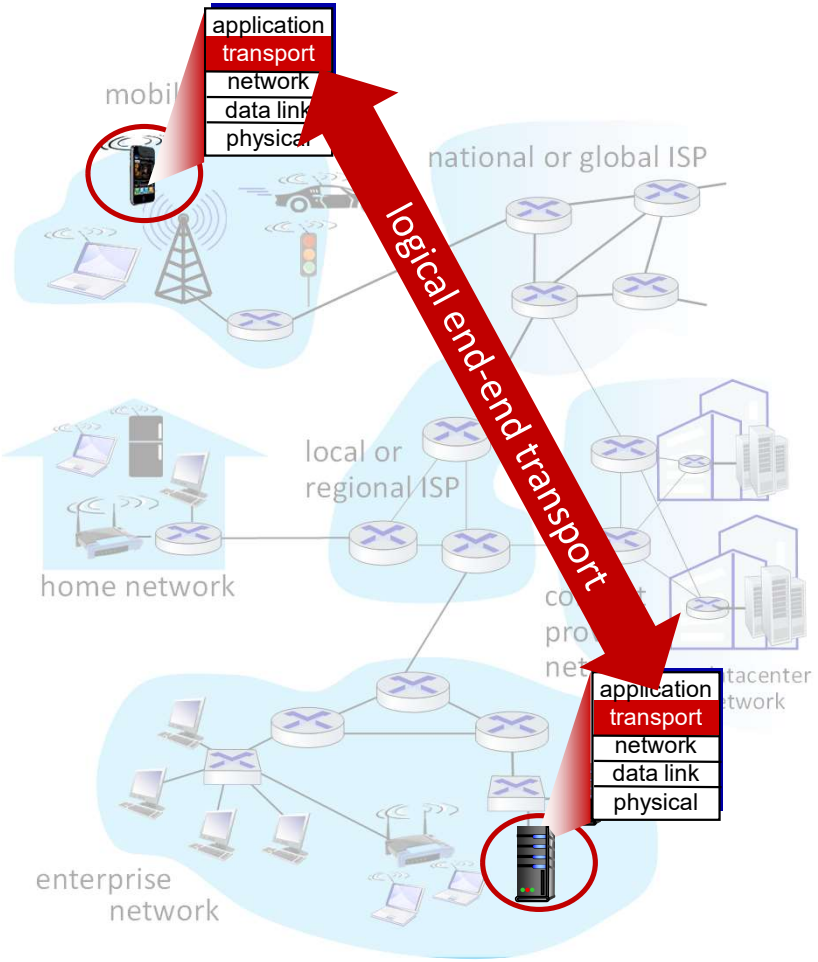


Receiver:

- receives segment from IP
- checks header values
- extracts application-layer message
- demultiplexes message up to application via socket

Two principal Internet transport protocols

- **TCP:** Transmission Control Protocol
  - reliable, in-order delivery
  - congestion control
  - flow control
  - connection setup
- **UDP:** User Datagram Protocol
  - unreliable, unordered delivery
  - no-frills extension of “best-effort” IP
- services *not* available:
  - delay guarantees
  - bandwidth guarantees



Chapter 3: roadmap

- Transport-layer services
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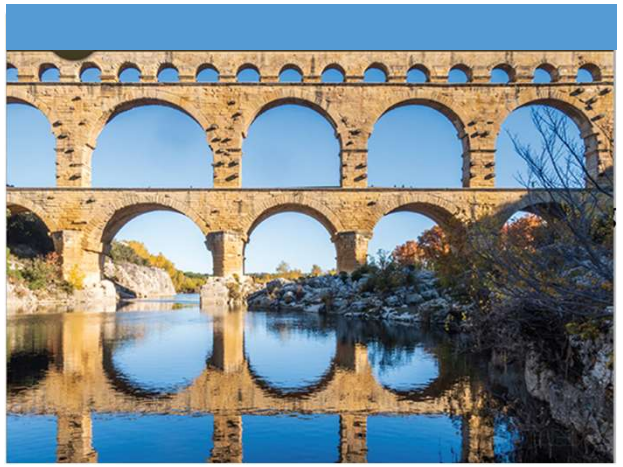


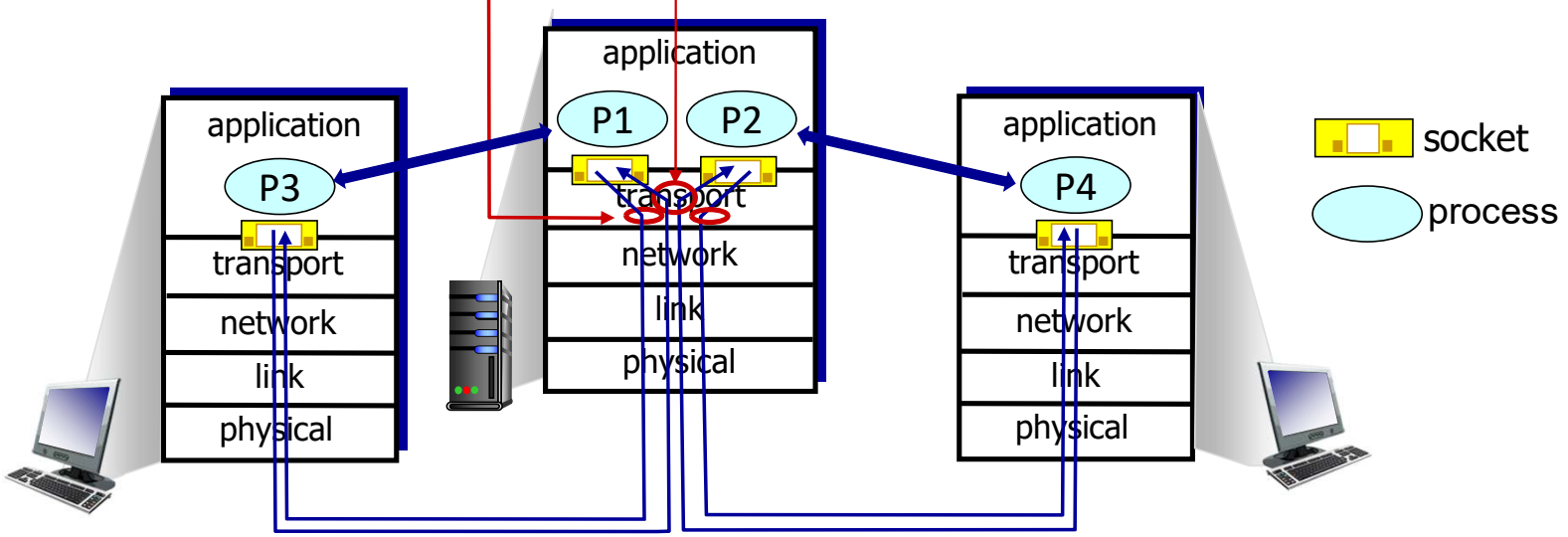
Multiplexing/demultiplexing

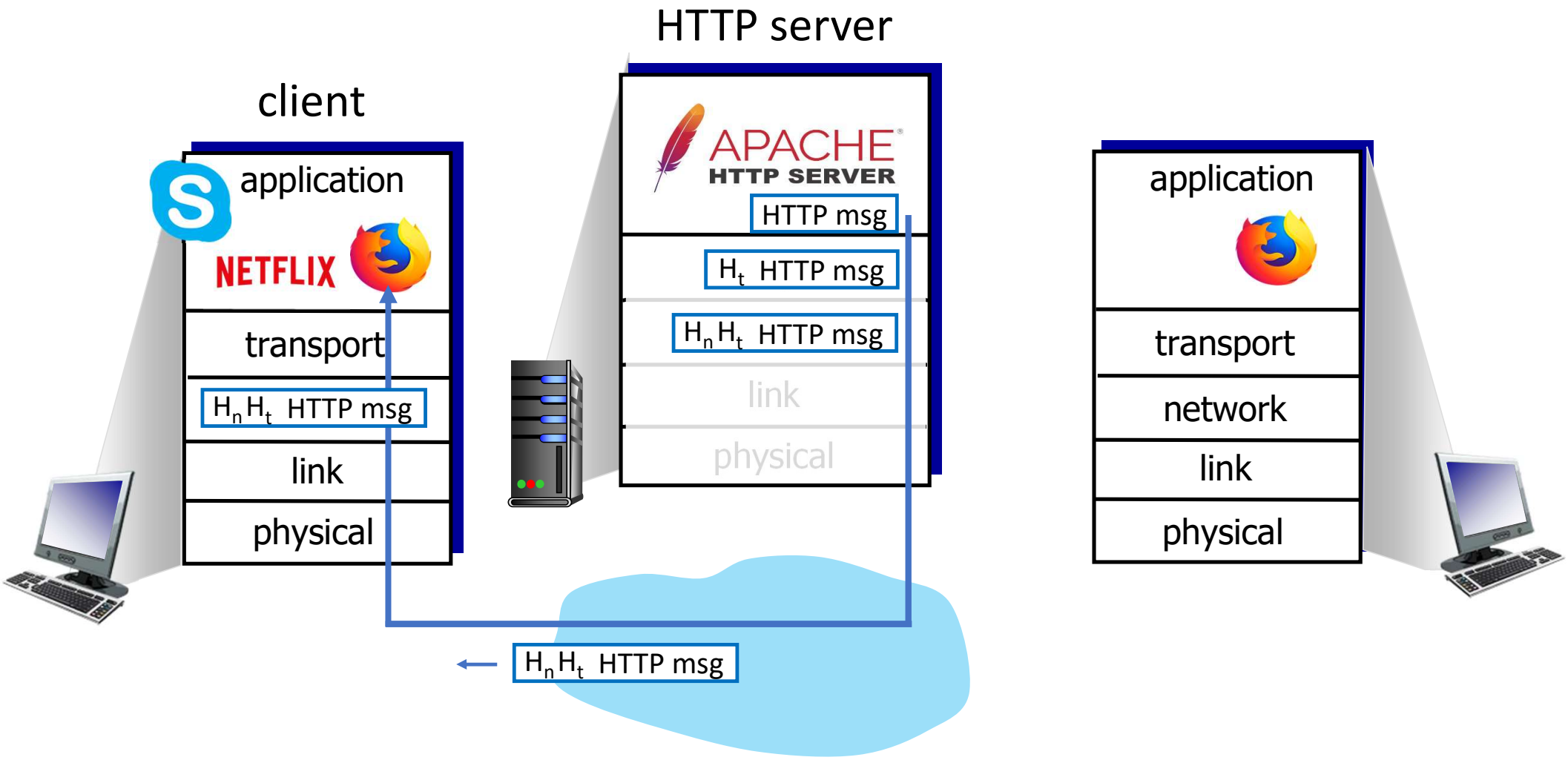
multiplexing as sender:

handle data from multiple sockets, add transport header (later used for demultiplexing)

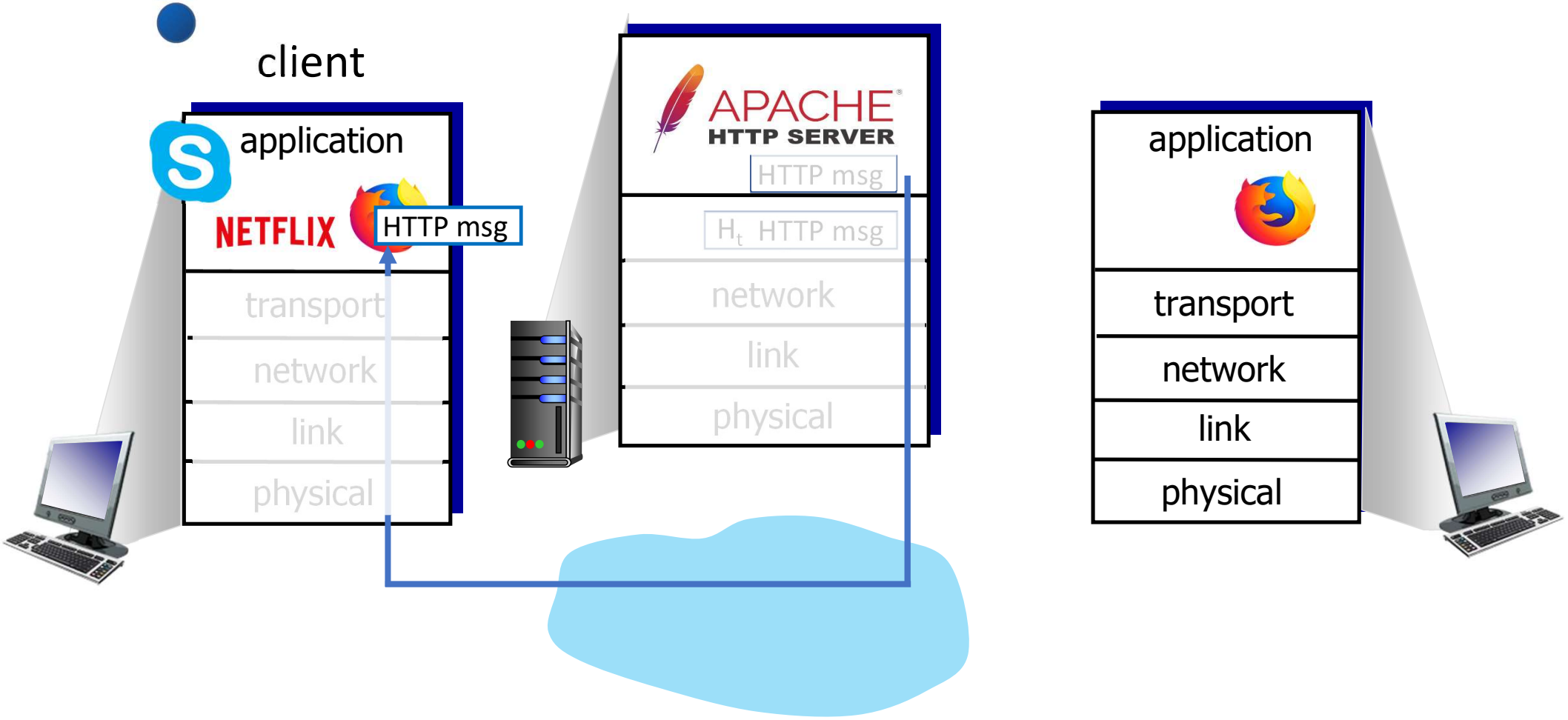
demultiplexing as receiver:

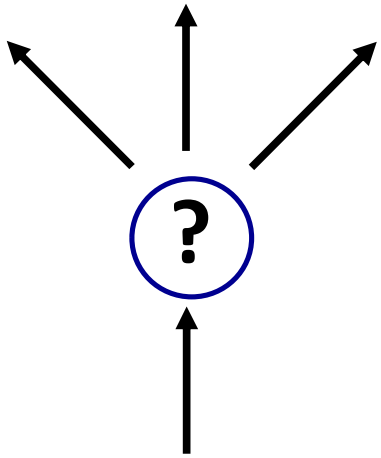
use header info to deliver received segments to correct socket



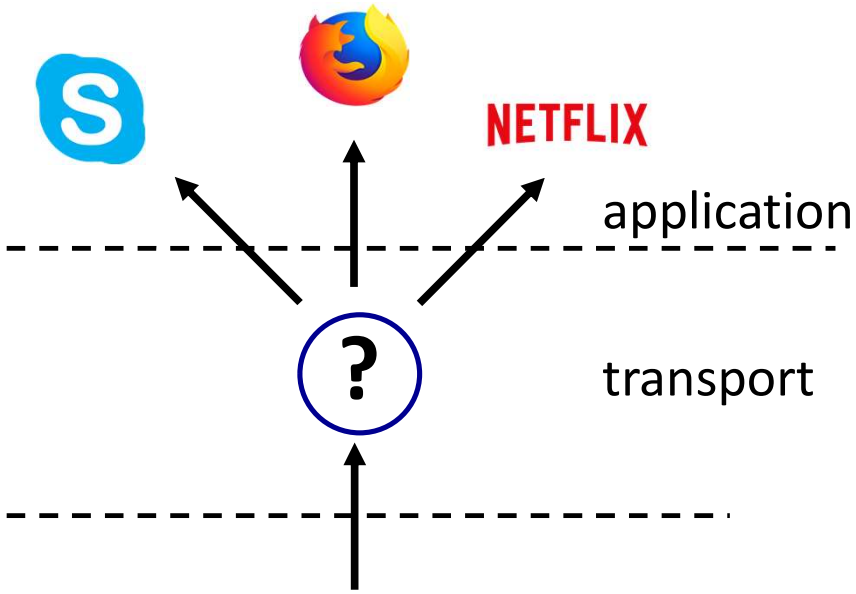

client
application
NETFLIX
transport
$H_n H_t$ HTTP msg
link
physical
HTTP server
APACHE
HTTP SERVER
HTTP msg
H_t HTTP msg
$H_n H_t$ HTTP msg
link
physical
application
transport
network
link
physical
$H_n H_t$ HTTP msg

Q: how did transport layer know to deliver message to Firefox browser process rather then Netflix process or Skype process?



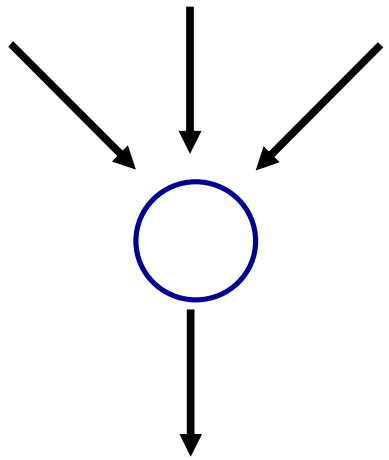


de-multiplexing

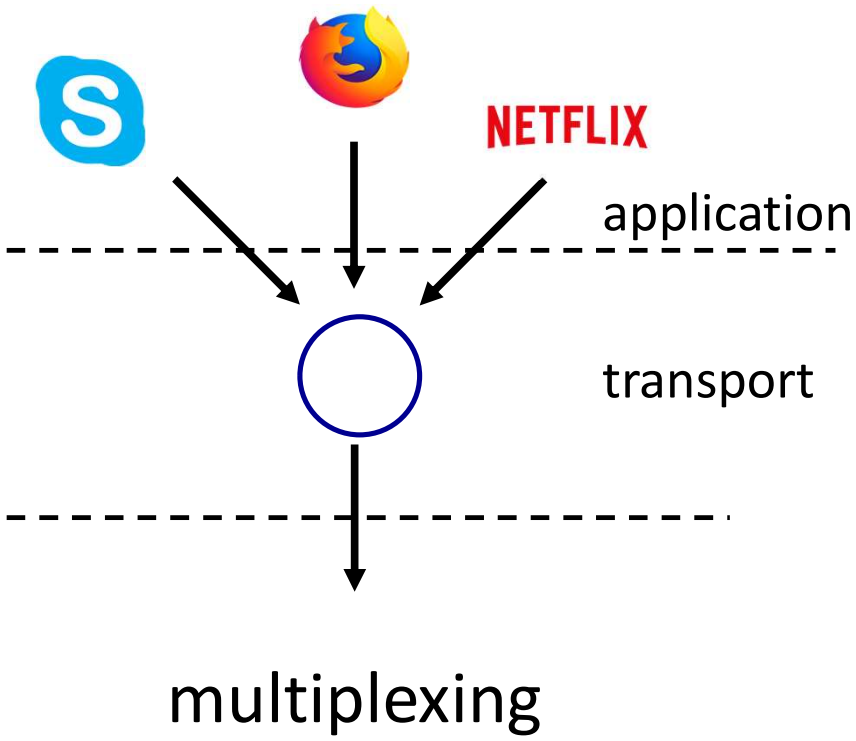


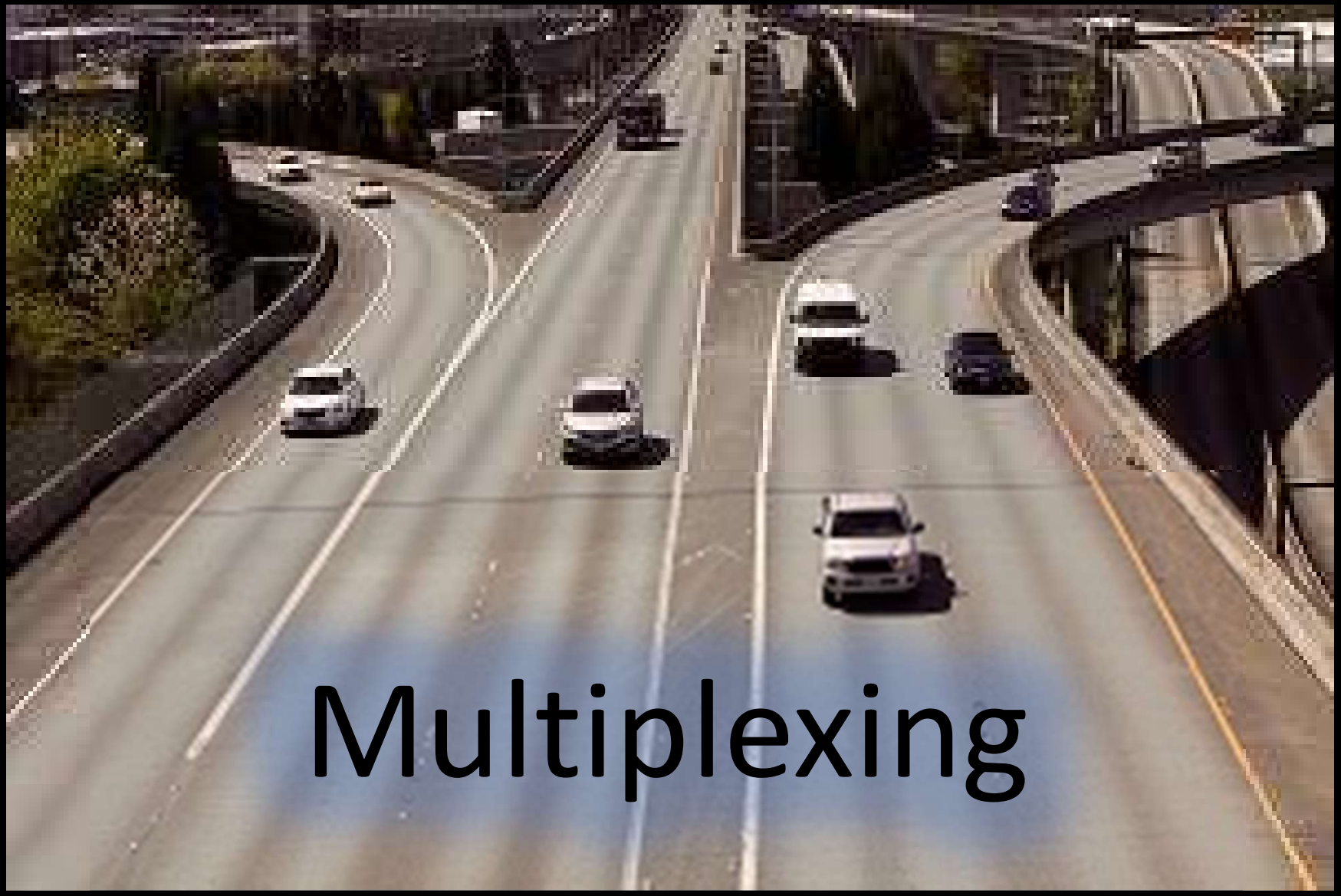
de-multiplexing

Demultiplexing



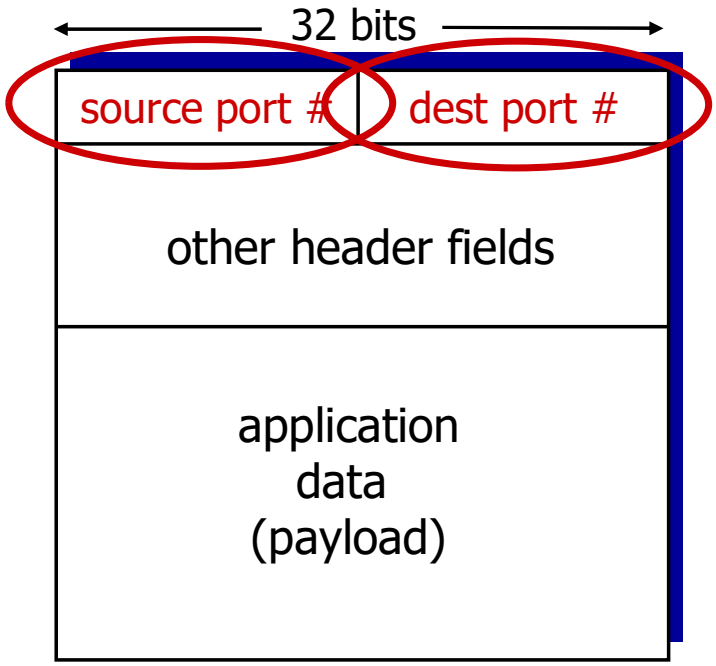
multiplexing


NETFLIX
application
transport
multiplexing


Multiplexing

How demultiplexing works

- host receives IP datagrams
  - each datagram has source IP address, destination IP address
  - each datagram carries one transport-layer segment
  - each segment has source, destination port number
- host uses *IP addresses & port numbers* to direct segment to appropriate socket



TCP/UDP segment format

Connectionless demultiplexing

Recall:

- when creating socket, must specify *host-local* port #:

```
DatagramSocket mySocket1
 = new DatagramSocket(12534);
```

- when creating datagram to send into UDP socket, must specify
  - destination IP address
  - destination port #

when receiving host receives *UDP* segment:

- checks destination port # in segment
- directs UDP segment to socket with that port #

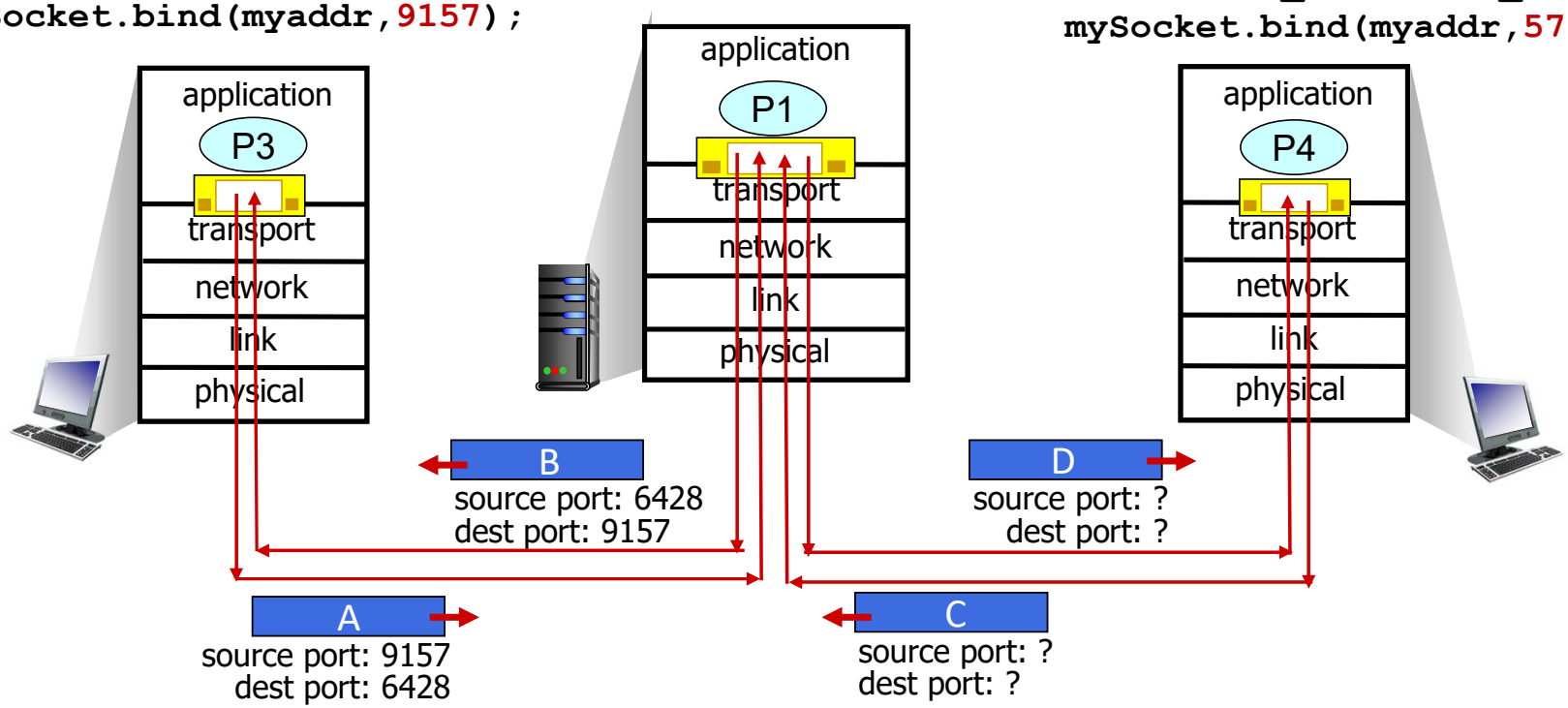
IP/UDP datagrams with *same dest. port #,* but different source IP addresses and/or source port numbers will be directed to *same socket* at receiving host

Connectionless demultiplexing: an example

```
mySocket =
 socket(AF_INET,SOCK_DGRAM)
mySocket.bind(myaddr,6428);
```

```
mySocket =
 socket(AF_INET,SOCK_DGRAM)
mySocket.bind(myaddr,9157);
```

```
mySocket =
 socket(AF_INET,SOCK_DGRAM)
mySocket.bind(myaddr,5775);
```

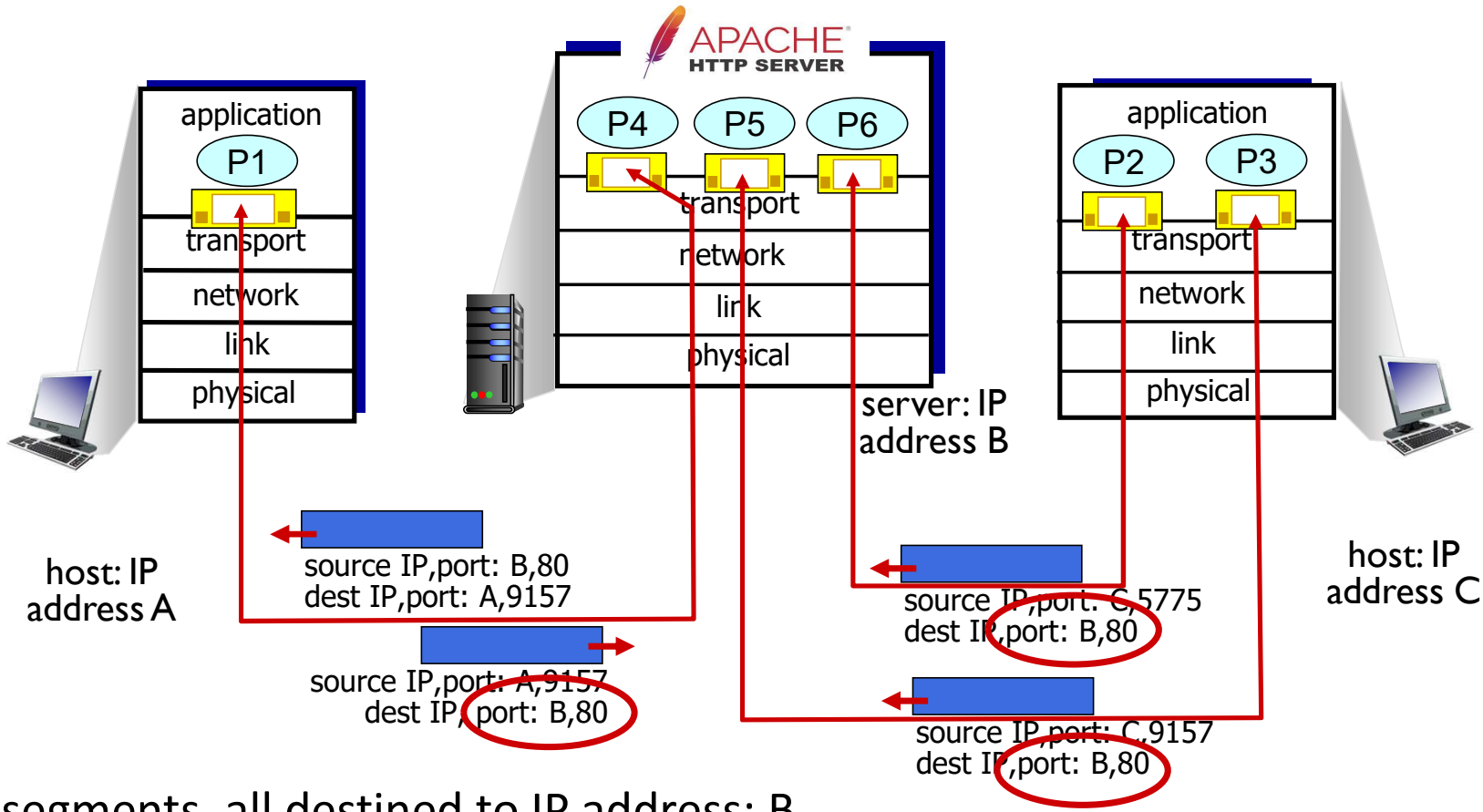


Connection-oriented demultiplexing

- TCP socket identified by 4-tuple:
  - source IP address
  - source port number
  - dest IP address
  - dest port number
- demux: receiver uses *all four values (4-tuple)* to direct segment to appropriate socket

- server may support many simultaneous TCP sockets:
  - each socket identified by its own 4-tuple
  - each socket associated with a different connecting client

Connection-oriented demultiplexing: example



Three segments, all destined to IP address: B,
dest port: 80 are demultiplexed to *different* sockets

Summary

- Multiplexing, demultiplexing: based on segment, datagram header field values
- **UDP:** demultiplexing using destination port number (only)
- **TCP:** demultiplexing using 4-tuple: source and destination IP addresses, and port numbers
- Multiplexing/demultiplexing happen at *all* layers

Chapter 3: roadmap

- Transport-layer services
- Multiplexing and demultiplexing
- Connectionless transport: UDP
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- TCP congestion control
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UDP: User Datagram Protocol

- "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

Why is there a UDP?

- no connection establishment (which can add RTT delay)
- simple: no connection state at sender, receiver
- small header size
- no congestion control
  - UDP can blast away as fast as desired!
  - can function in the face of congestion

UDP: User Datagram Protocol

- UDP use:
  - streaming multimedia apps (loss tolerant, rate sensitive)
  - DNS
  - SNMP
  - HTTP/3
- if reliable transfer needed over UDP (e.g., HTTP/3):
  - add needed reliability at application layer
  - add congestion control at application layer

UDP: User Datagram Protocol [RFC 768]

INTERNET STANDARD

RFC 768

J. Postel
ISI
28 August 1980

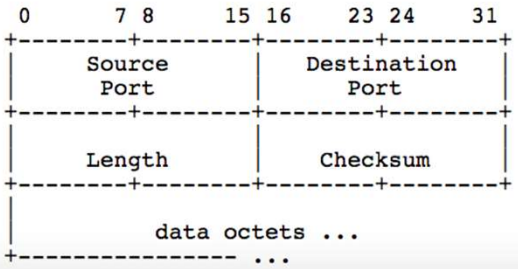
User Datagram Protocol

Introduction

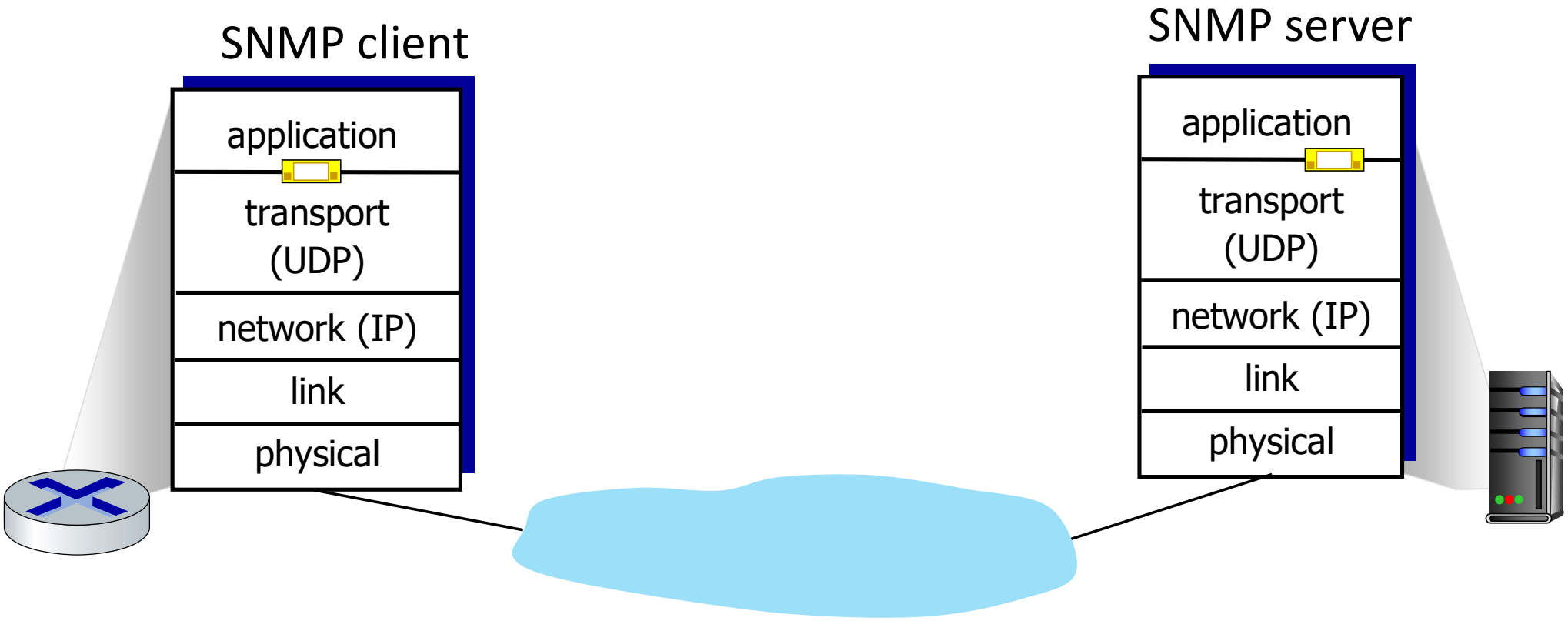
This User Datagram Protocol (UDP) is defined to make available a datagram mode of packet-switched computer communication in the environment of an interconnected set of computer networks. This protocol assumes that the Internet Protocol (IP) [1] is used as the underlying protocol.

This protocol provides a procedure for application programs to send messages to other programs with a minimum of protocol mechanism. The protocol is transaction oriented, and delivery and duplicate protection are not guaranteed. Applications requiring ordered reliable delivery of streams of data should use the Transmission Control Protocol (TCP) [2].

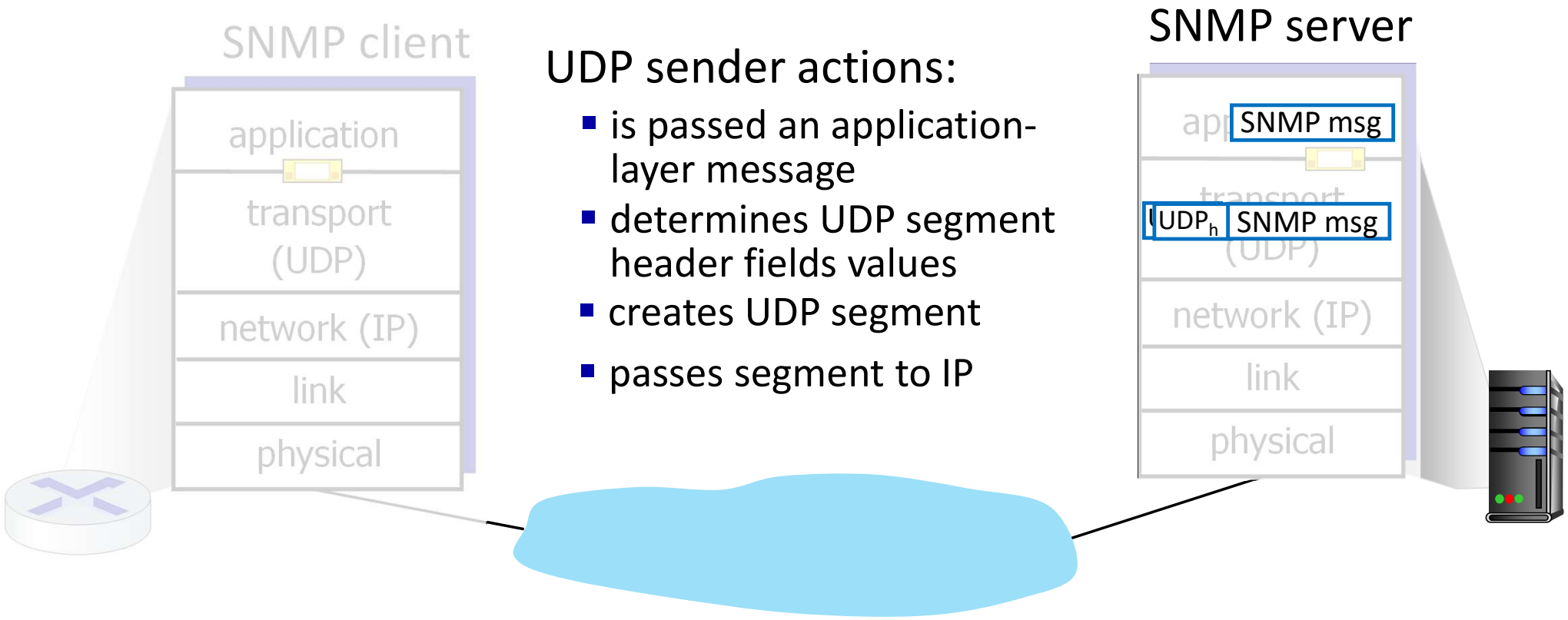
Format



UDP: Transport Layer Actions



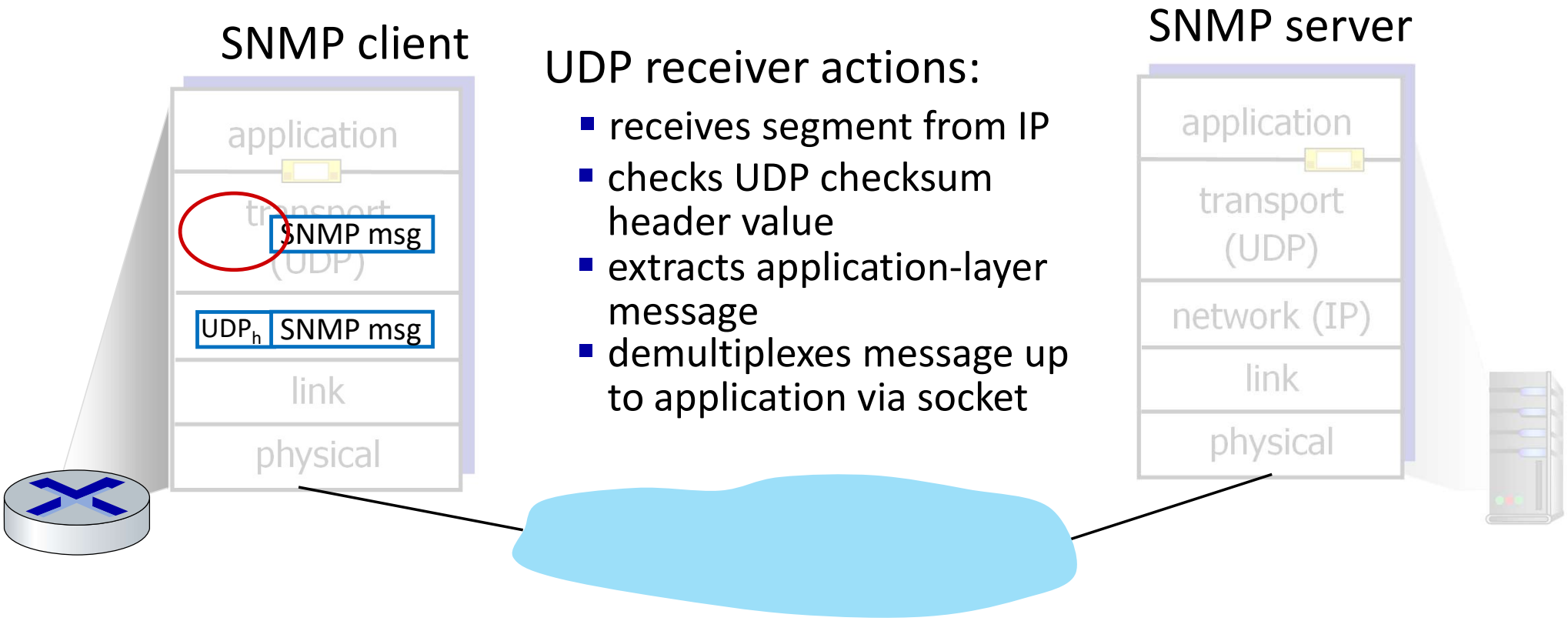
UDP: Transport Layer Actions



UDP sender actions:

- is passed an application-layer message
- determines UDP segment header fields values
- creates UDP segment
- passes segment to IP

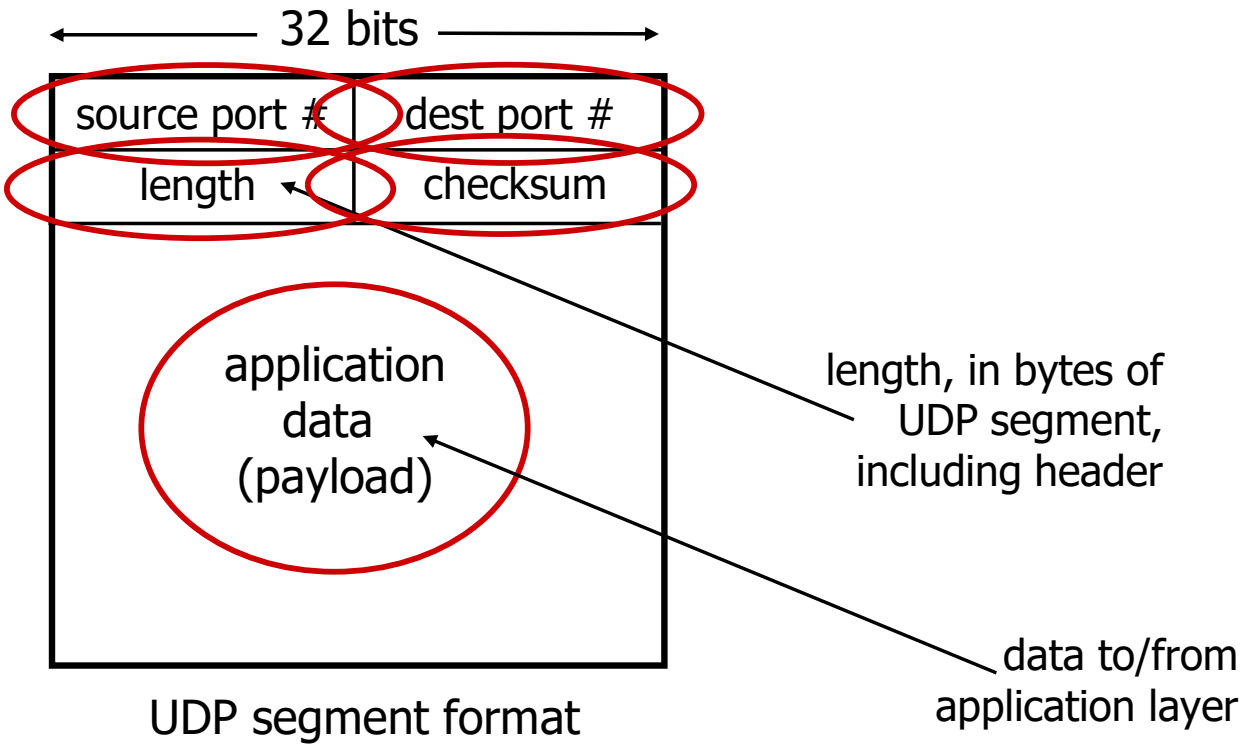
UDP: Transport Layer Actions



UDP receiver actions:

- receives segment from IP
- checks UDP checksum header value
- extracts application-layer message
- demultiplexes message up to application via socket

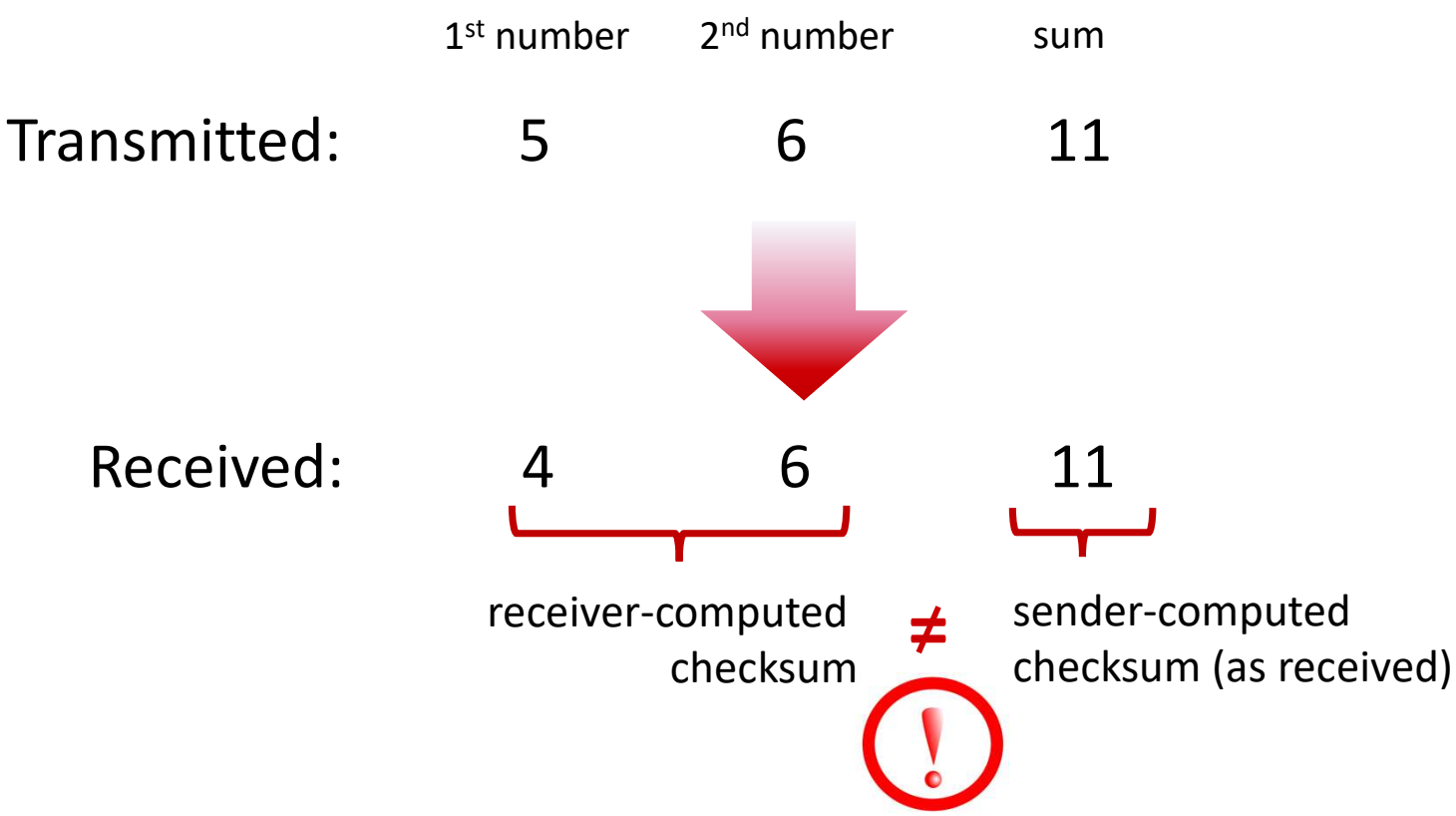
UDP segment header



UDP segment format

UDP checksum

Goal: detect errors (*i.e.,* flipped bits) in transmitted segment



Internet checksum

Goal: detect errors (*i.e.,* flipped bits) in transmitted segment

sender:

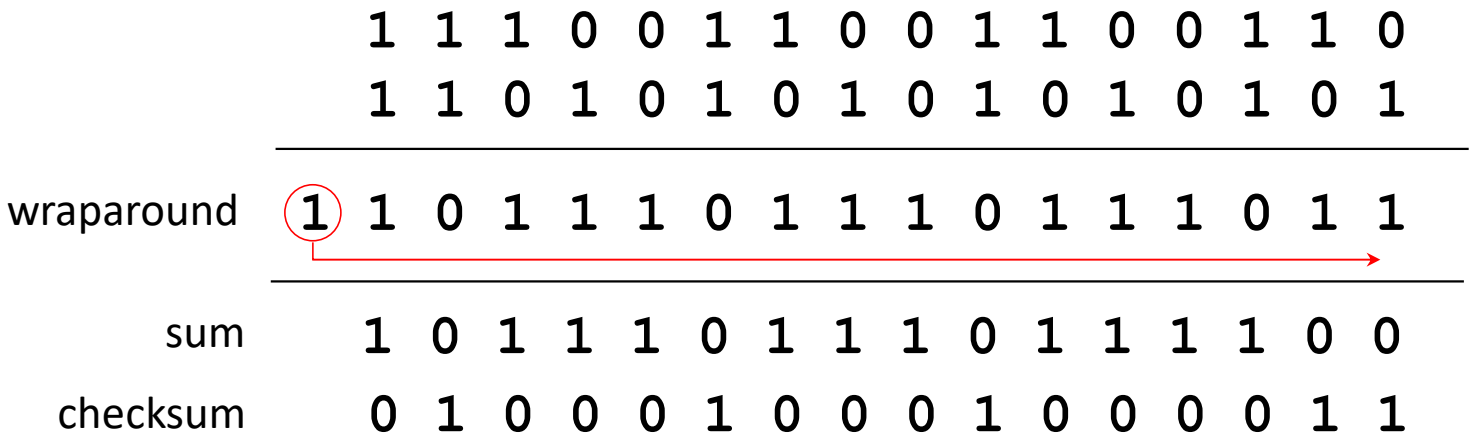
- treat contents of UDP segment (including UDP header fields and IP addresses) as sequence of 16-bit integers
- checksum: addition (one's complement sum) of segment content
- checksum value put into UDP checksum field

receiver:

- compute checksum of received segment
- check if computed checksum equals checksum field value:
  - not equal - error detected
  - equal - no error detected. *But maybe errors nonetheless?* More later ….

Internet checksum: an example

example: add two 16-bit integers

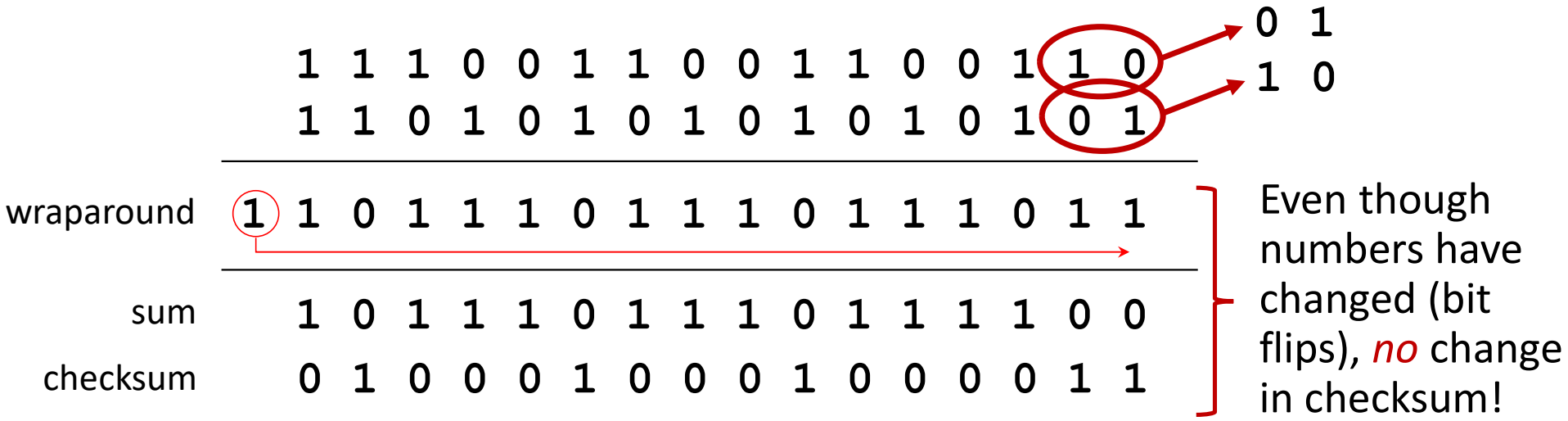


Note: when adding numbers, a carryout from the most significant bit needs to be added to the result

* Check out the online interactive exercises for more examples: http://gaia.cs.umass.edu/kurose_ross/interactive/

Internet checksum: weak protection!

example: add two 16-bit integers



Summary: UDP

- "no frills" protocol:
  - segments may be lost, delivered out of order
  - best effort service: "send and hope for the best"
- UDP has its plusses:
  - no setup/handshaking needed (no RTT incurred)
  - can function when network service is compromised
  - helps with reliability (checksum)
- build additional functionality on top of UDP in application layer (e.g., HTTP/3)

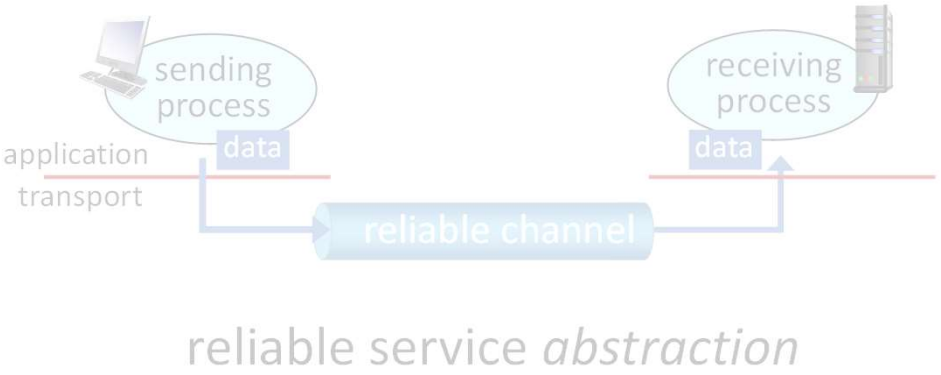
Chapter 3: roadmap

- Transport-layer services
- Multiplexing and demultiplexing
- Connectionless transport: UDP
- **Principles of reliable data transfer**
- Connection-oriented transport: TCP
- Principles of congestion control
- TCP congestion control
- Evolution of transport-layer functionality

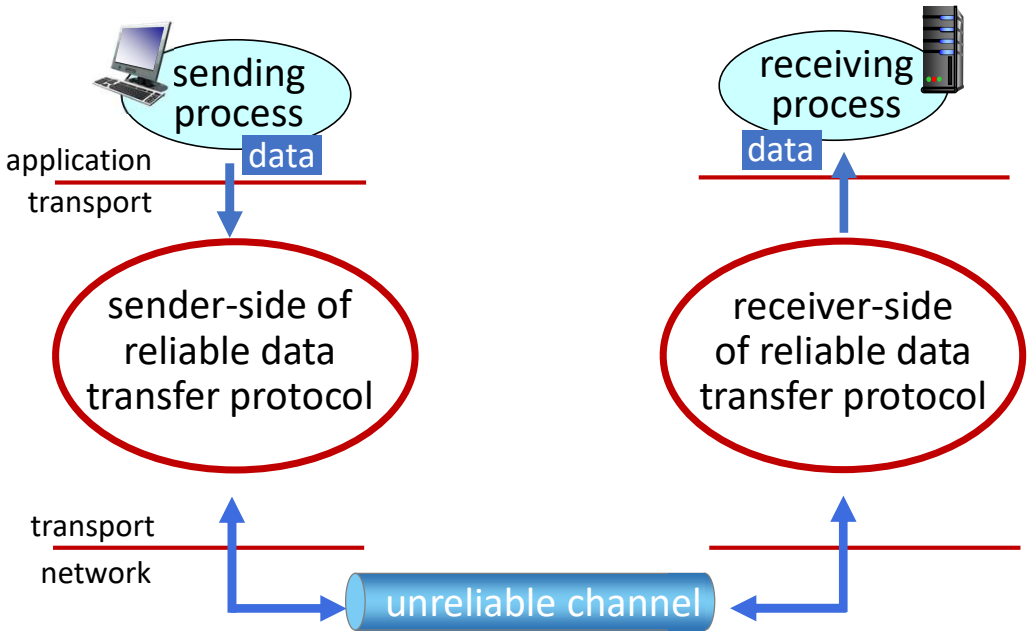
Principles of reliable data transfer

reliable service *abstraction*

Principles of reliable data transfer



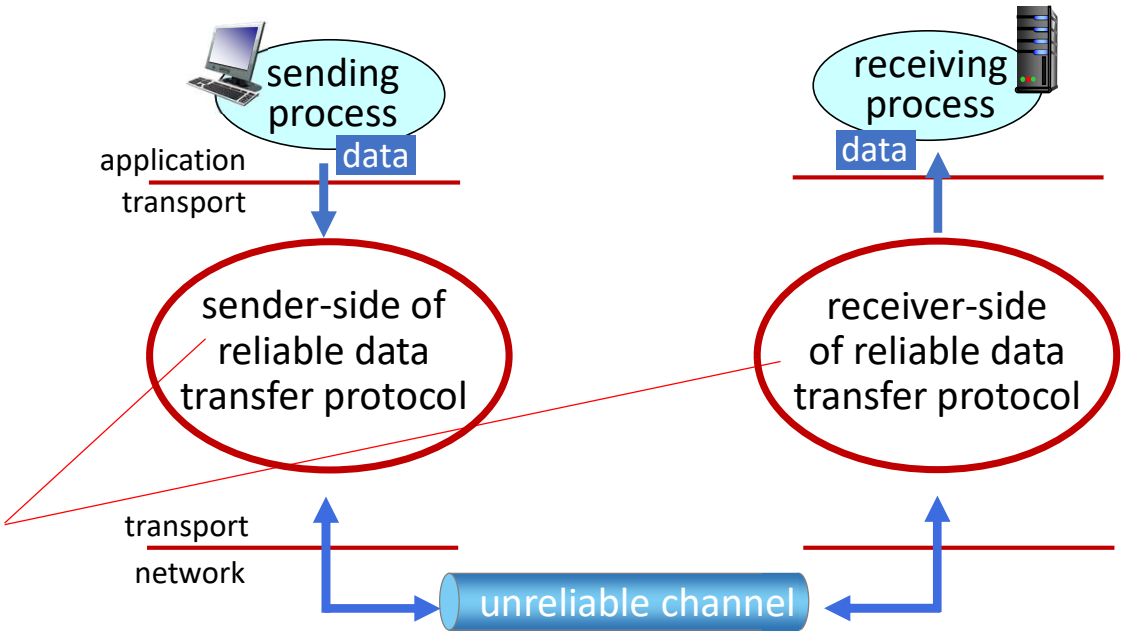
reliable service *abstraction*



reliable service *implementation*

Principles of reliable data transfer

Complexity of reliable data transfer protocol will depend (strongly) on characteristics of unreliable channel (lose, corrupt, reorder data?)

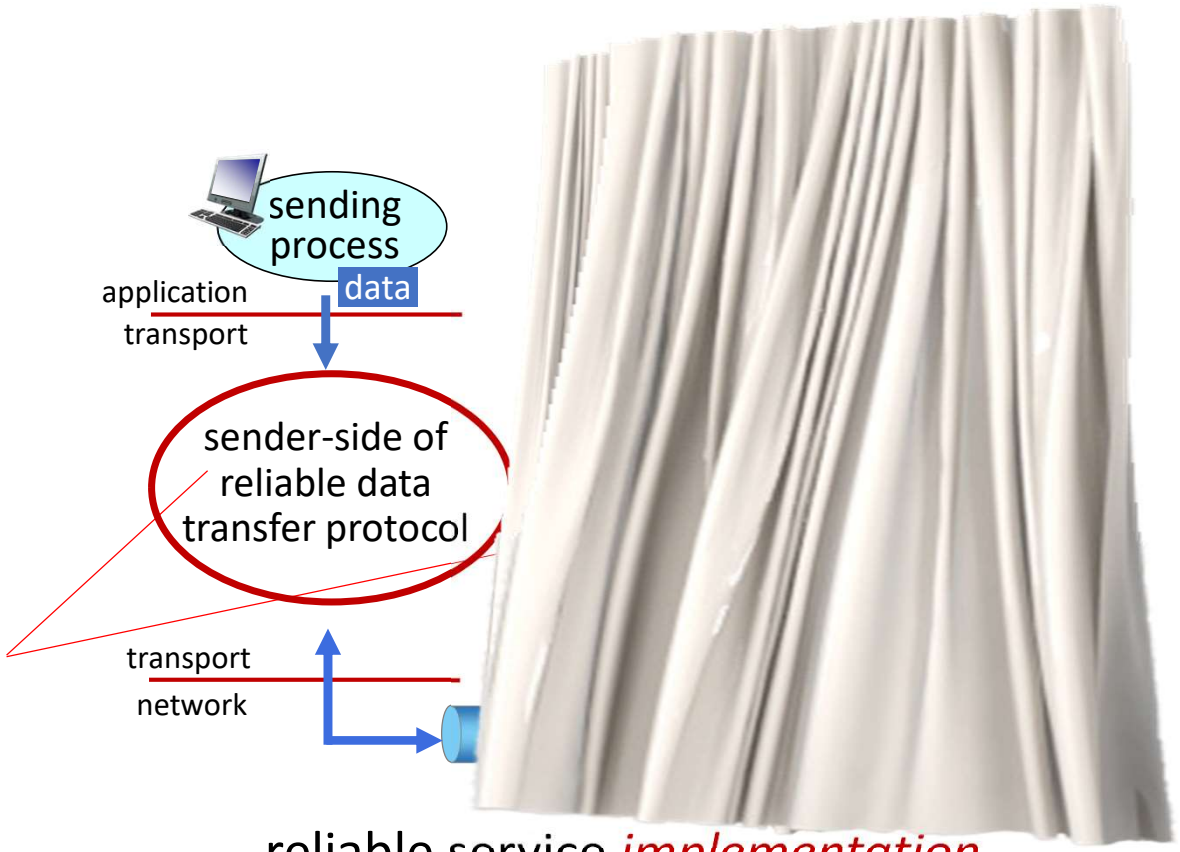


reliable service *implementation*

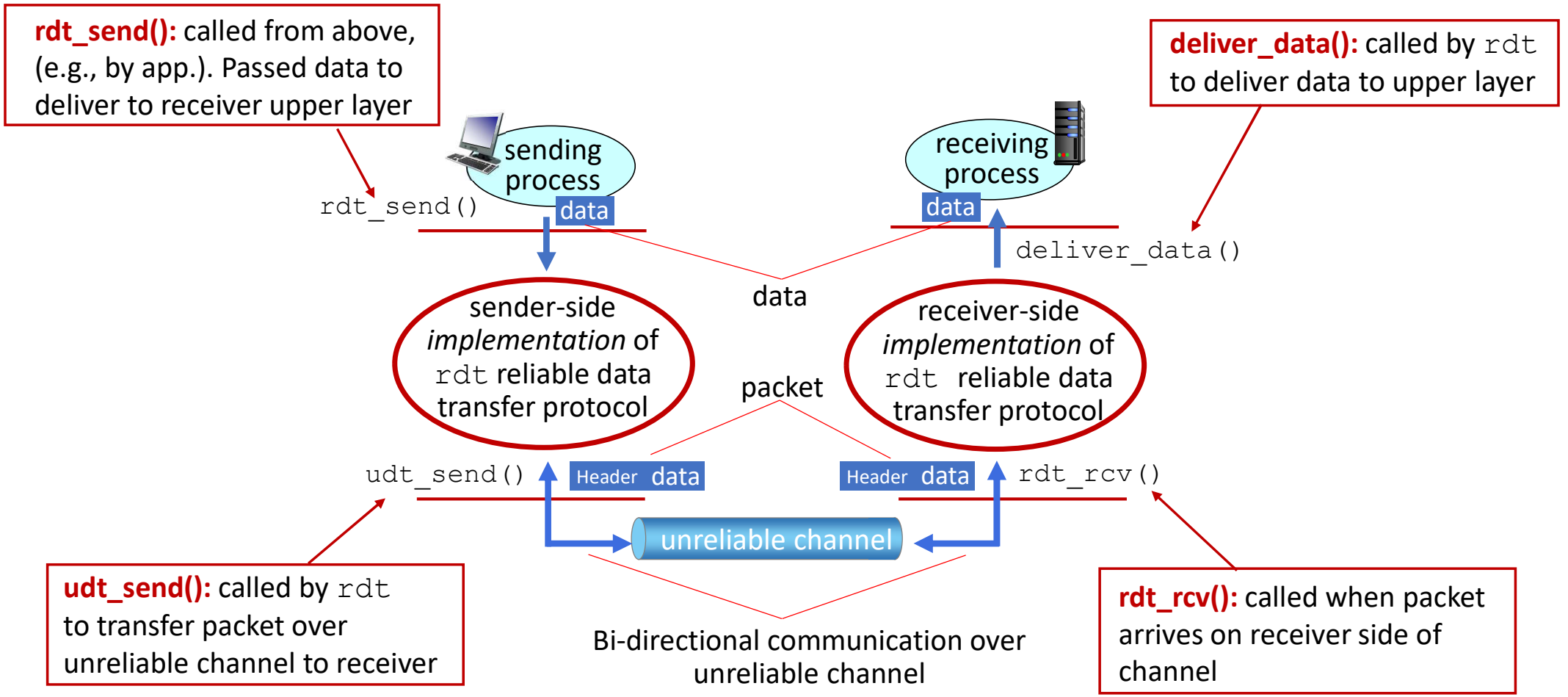
Principles of reliable data transfer

Sender, receiver do *not* know the "state" of each other, e.g., was a message received?

- unless communicated via a message



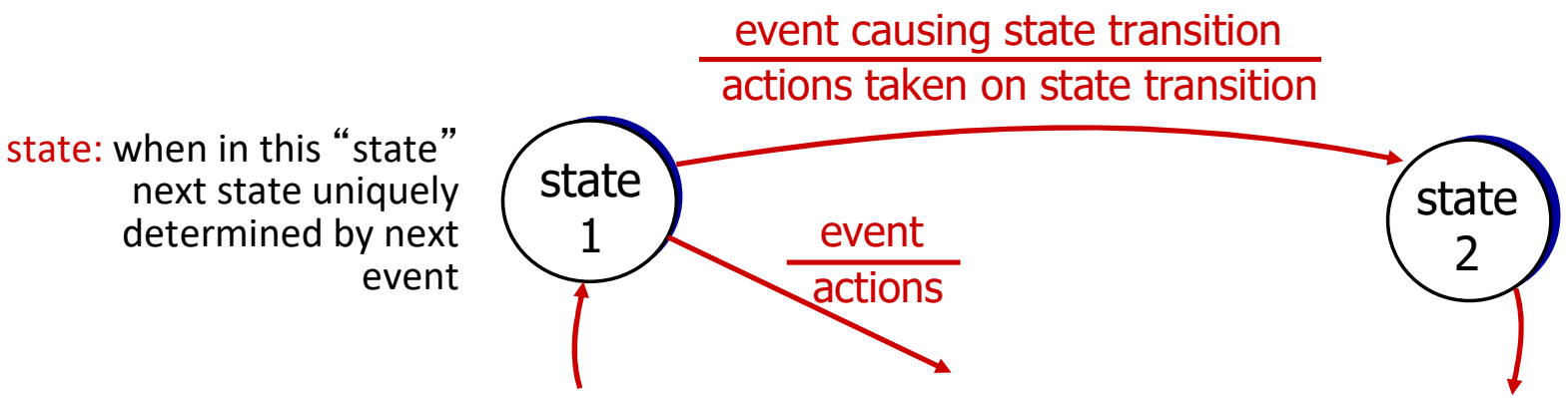
Reliable data transfer protocol (rdt): interfaces



Reliable data transfer: getting started

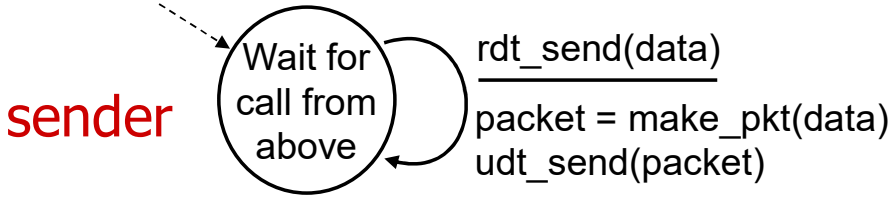
We will:

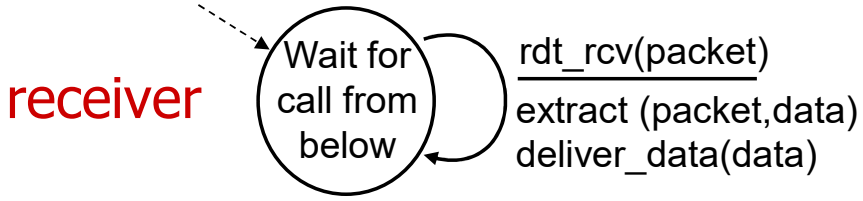
- incrementally develop sender, receiver sides of reliable data transfer protocol (`rdt`)
- consider only unidirectional data transfer
  - but control info will flow in both directions!
- use finite state machines (FSM) to specify sender, receiver



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 reads data from underlying channel





rdt2.0: channel with bit errors

- underlying channel may flip bits in packet
  - checksum (e.g., Internet checksum) to detect bit errors
- *the* question: how to recover from errors?

How do humans recover from "errors" during conversation?

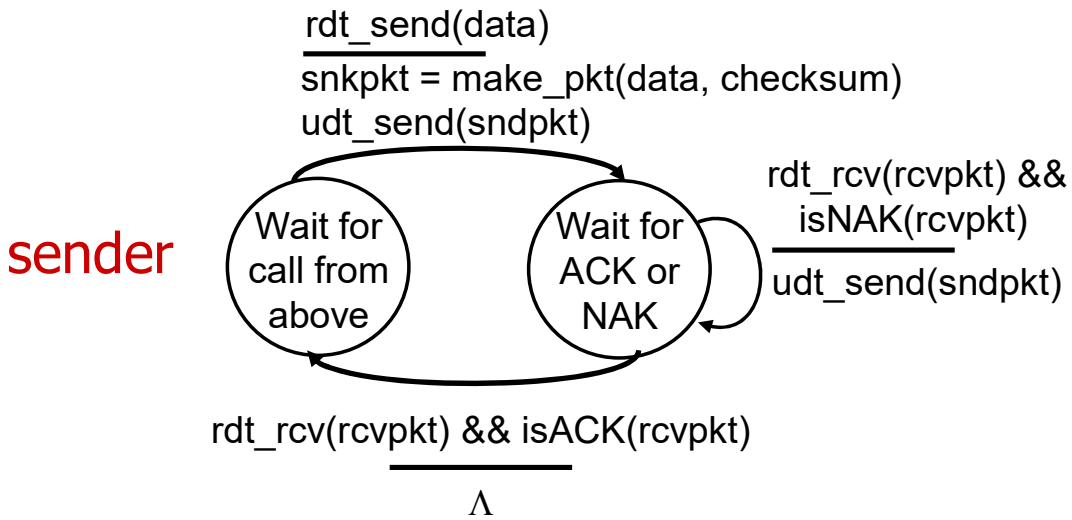
rdt2.0: channel with bit errors

- 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 pkt received OK
  - *negative acknowledgements (NAKs):* receiver explicitly tells sender that pkt had errors
  - sender *retransmits* pkt on receipt of NAK

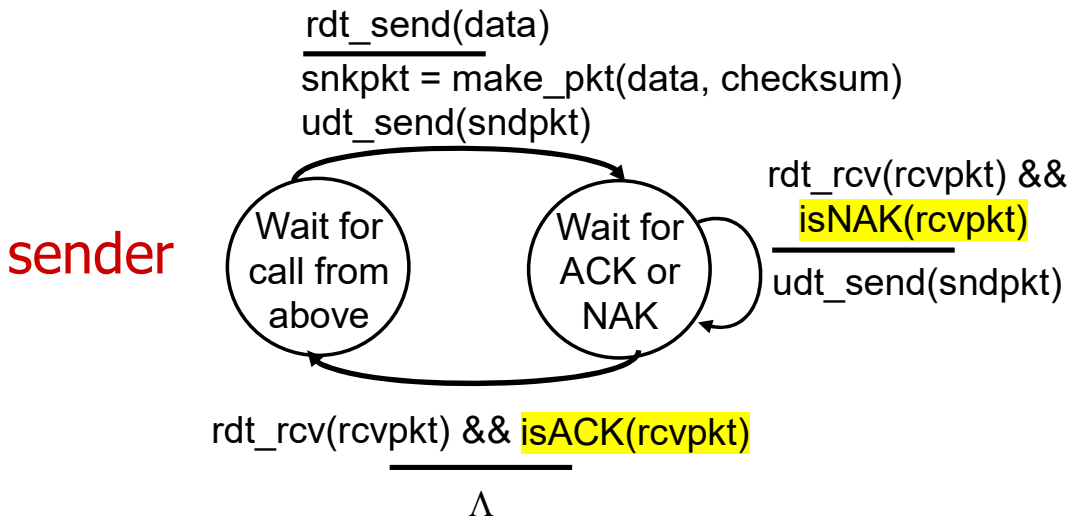
stop and wait

sender sends one packet, then waits for receiver response

rdt2.0: FSM specifications



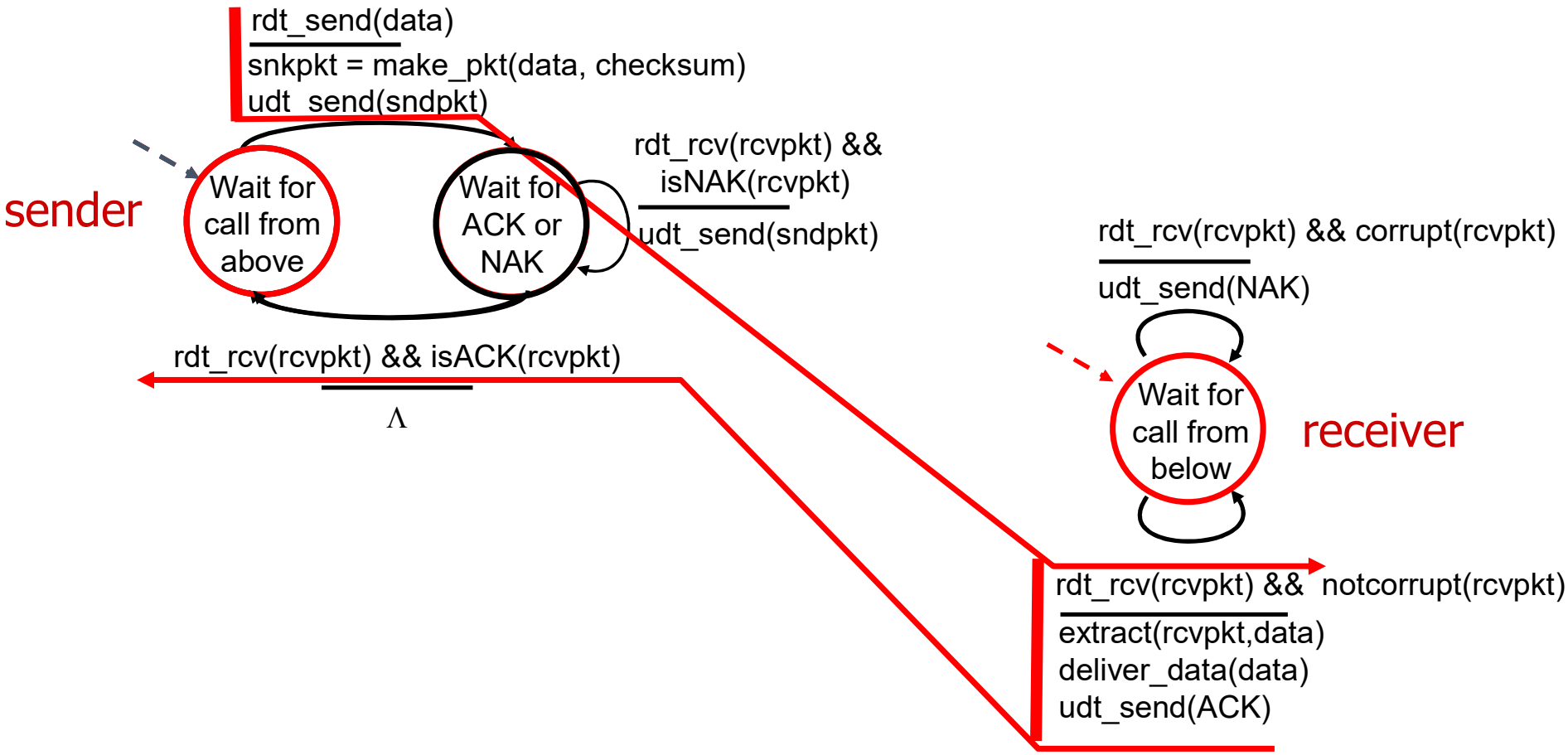
rdt2.0: FSM specification



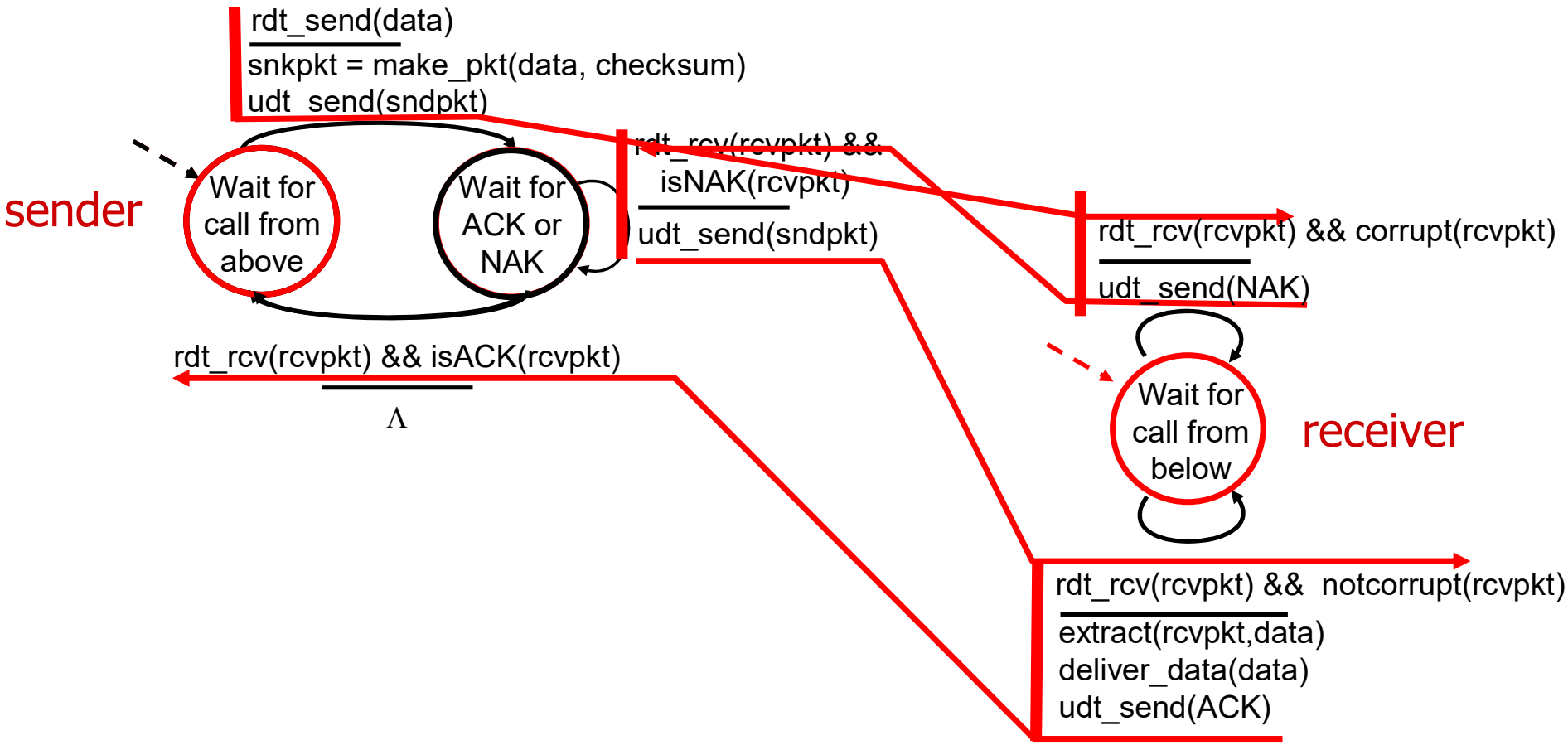
Note: "state" of receiver (did the receiver get my message correctly?) isn't known to sender unless somehow communicated from receiver to sender

- that's why we need a protocol!

rdt2.0: operation with no errors



rdt2.0: corrupted packet scenario



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

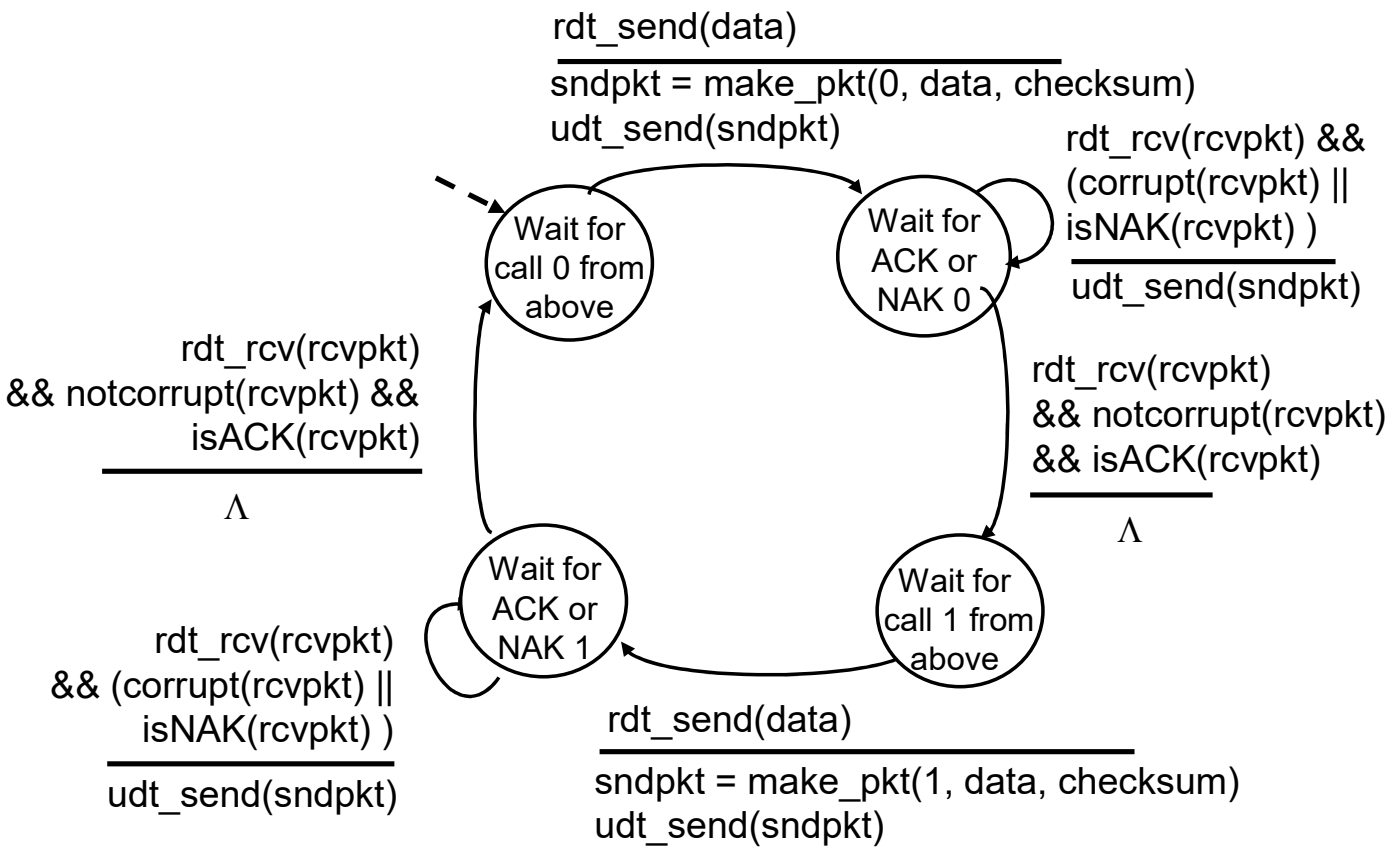
handling duplicates:

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

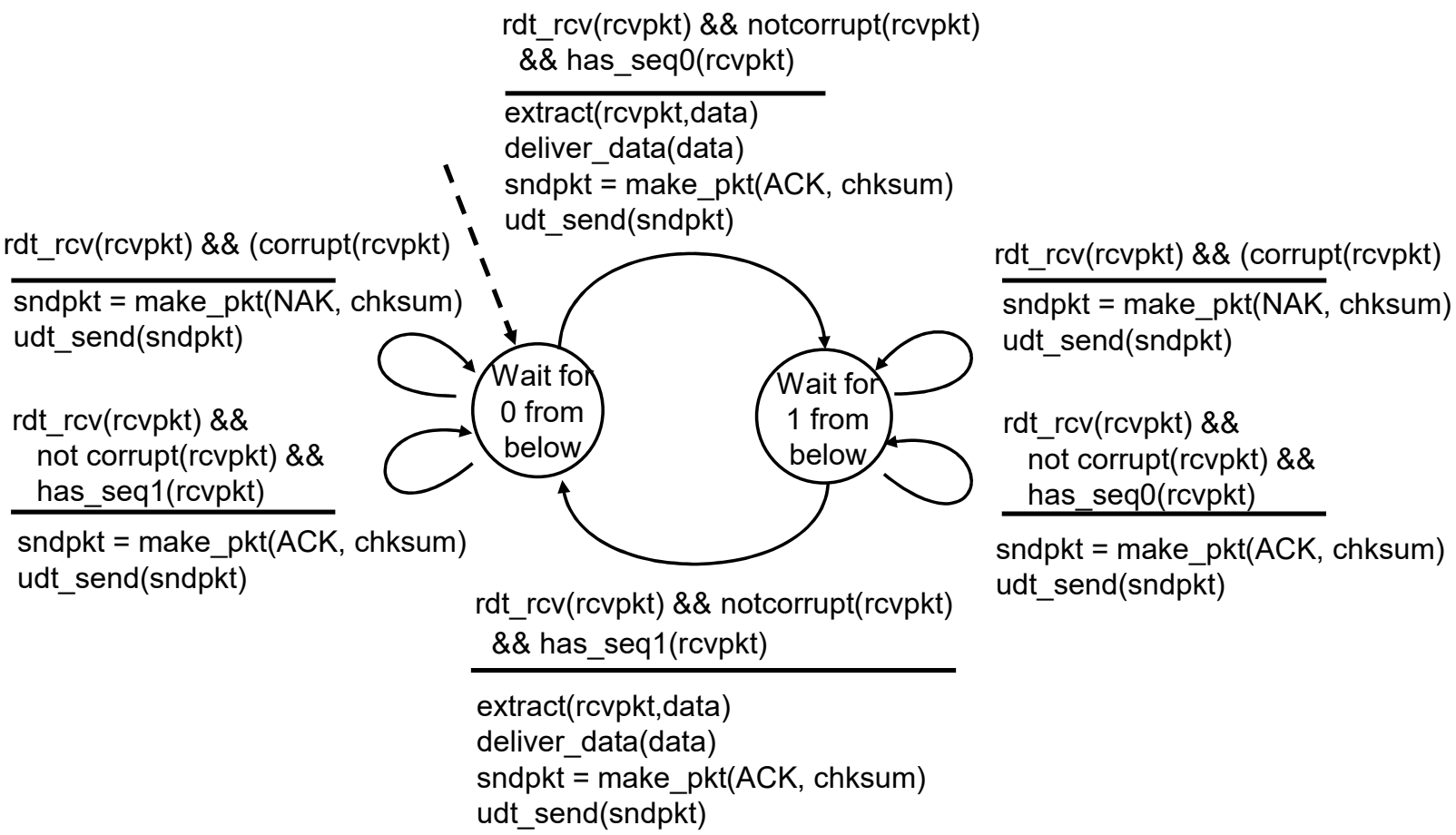
stop and wait

sender sends one packet, then waits for receiver response

rdt2.1: sender, handling garbled ACK/NAKs



rdt2.1: receiver, handling garbled ACK/NAKs



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 "expected" pkt should have seq # of 0 or 1

receiver:

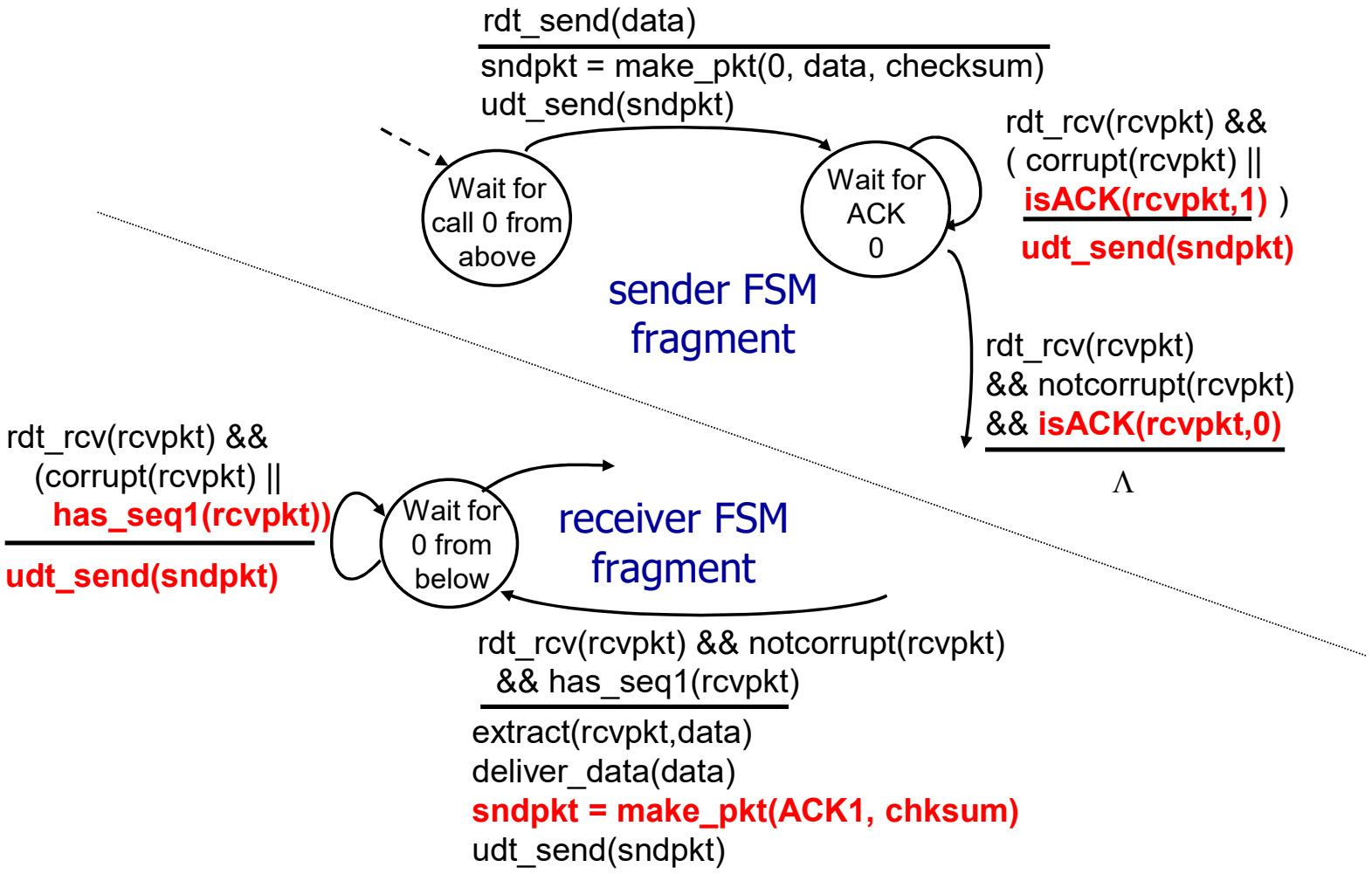
- must check if received packet is duplicate
  - state indicates whether 0 or 1 is expected pkt seq #
- note: receiver can *not* know if its last ACK/NAK received OK at sender

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*

As we will see, TCP uses this approach to be NAK-free

rdt2.2: sender, receiver fragments



rdt3.0: channels with errors *and* loss

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

- checksum, sequence #s, ACKs, retransmissions will be of help … but not quite enough

Q: How do *humans* handle lost sender-to-receiver words in conversation?

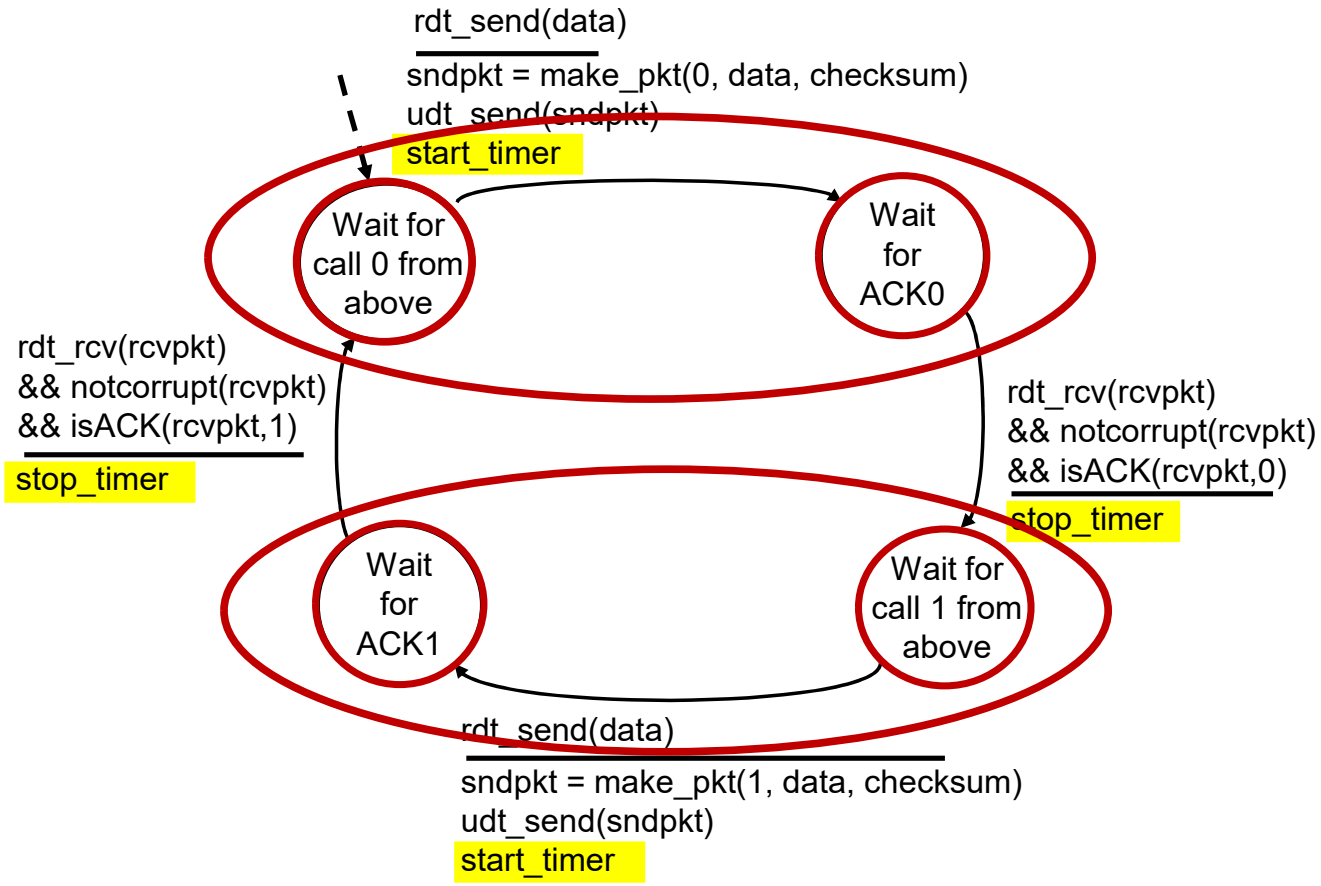
rdt3.0: channels with errors *and* loss

Approach: sender waits "reasonable" amount of time for ACK

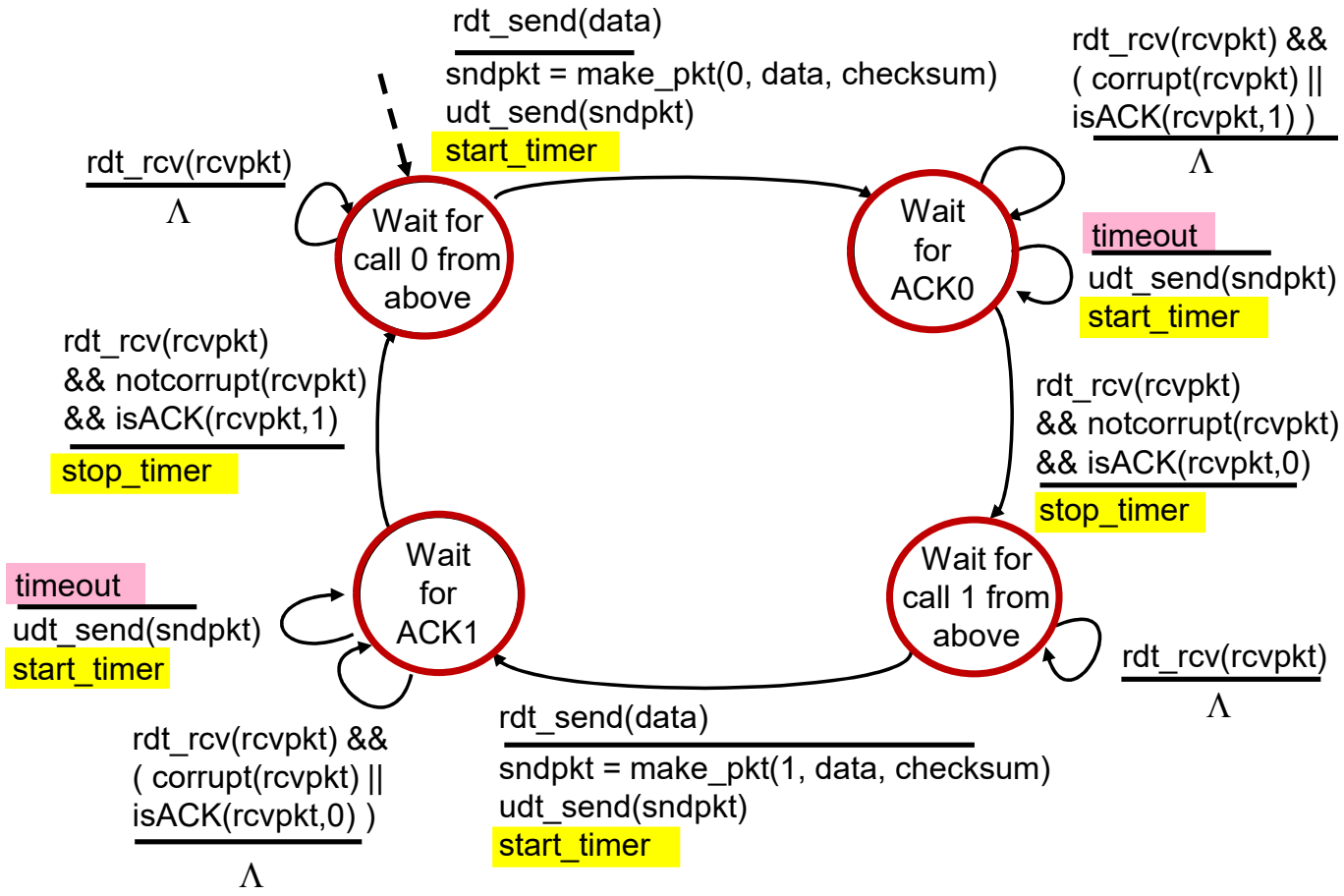
- retransmits if no ACK received in this time
- if pkt (or ACK) just delayed (not lost):
  - retransmission will be duplicate, but seq #s already handles this!
  - receiver must specify seq # of packet being ACKed
- use countdown timer to interrupt after "reasonable" amount of time

timeout

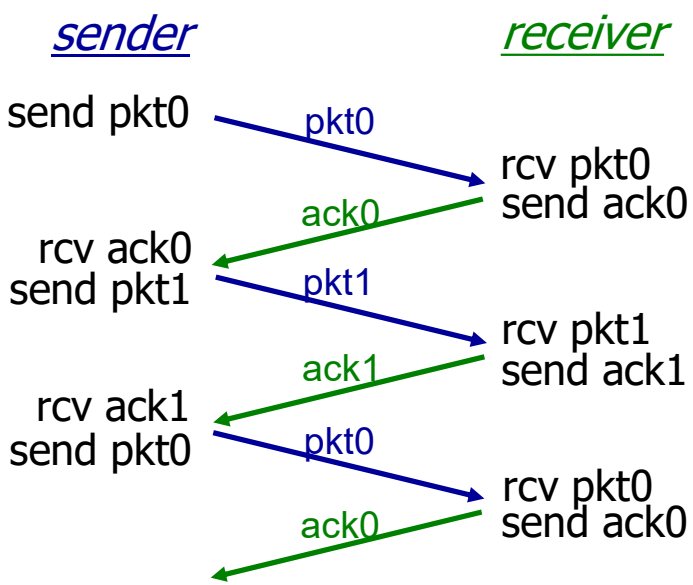
rdt3.0 sender



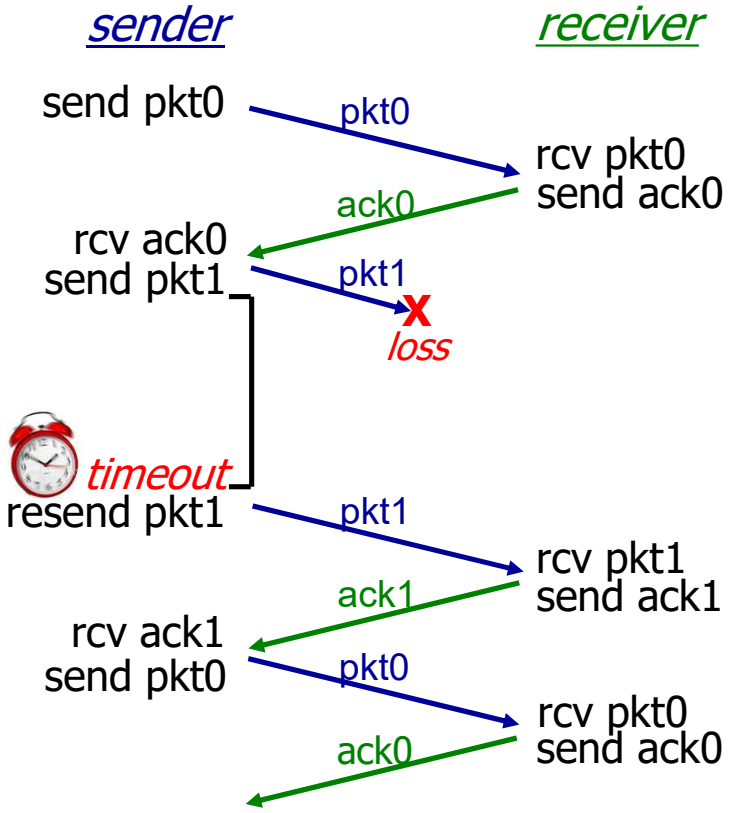
rdt3.0 sender



rdt3.0 in action

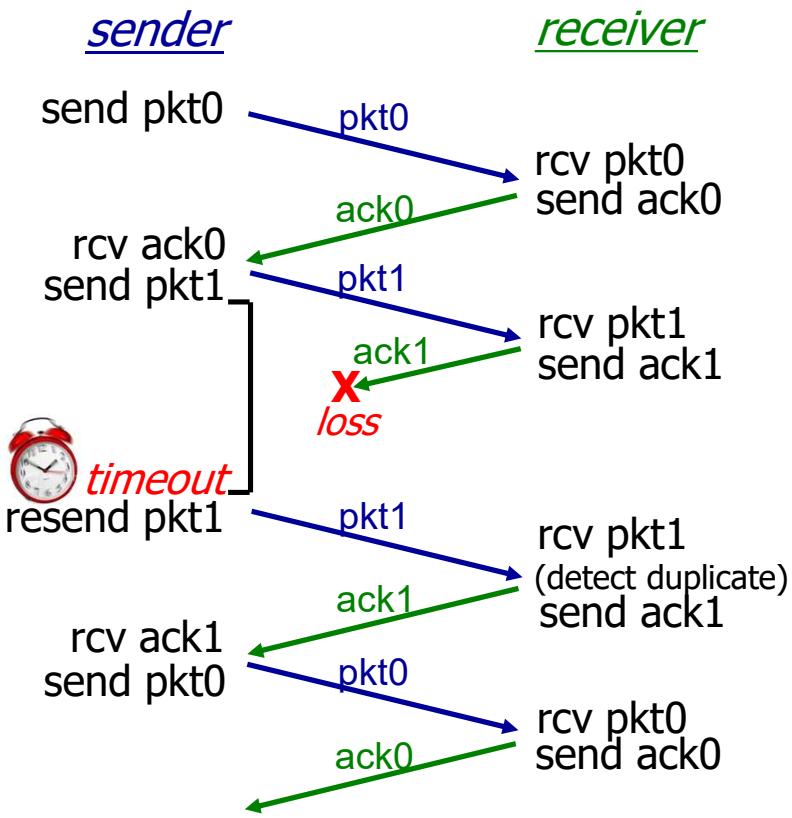


(a) no loss

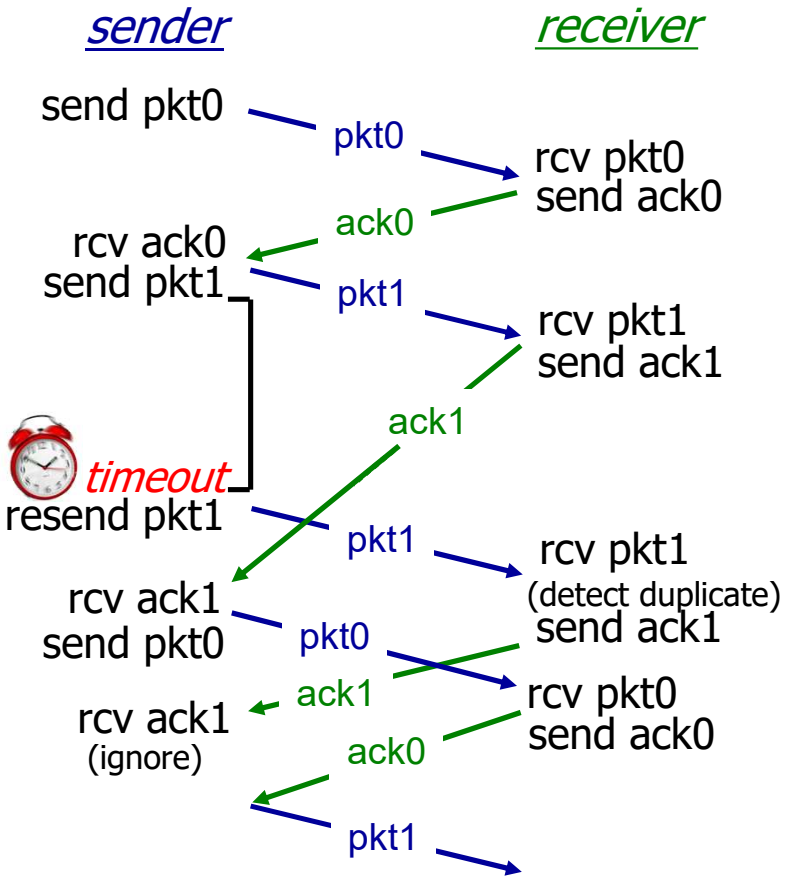


(b) packet loss

rdt3.0 in action



(c) ACK loss



(d) premature timeout/ delayed ACK

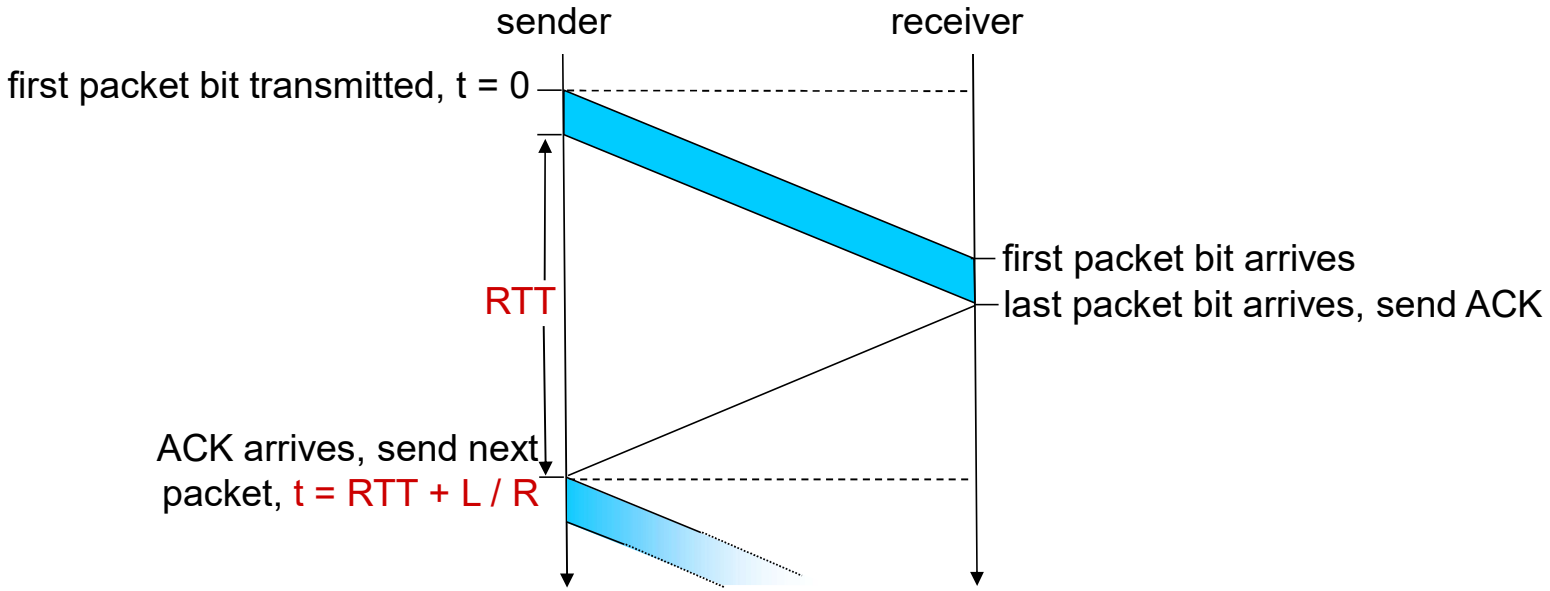
Performance of rdt3.0 (stop-and-wait)

- U_{sender}: *utilization* – fraction of time sender busy sending

- example: 1 Gbps link, 15 ms prop. delay, 8000 bit packet
  - time to transmit packet into channel:

$$D_{trans} = \frac{L}{R} = \frac{8000 \text{ bits}}{10^9 \text{ bits/sec}} = 8 \text{ microsecs}$$

rdt3.0: stop-and-wait operation

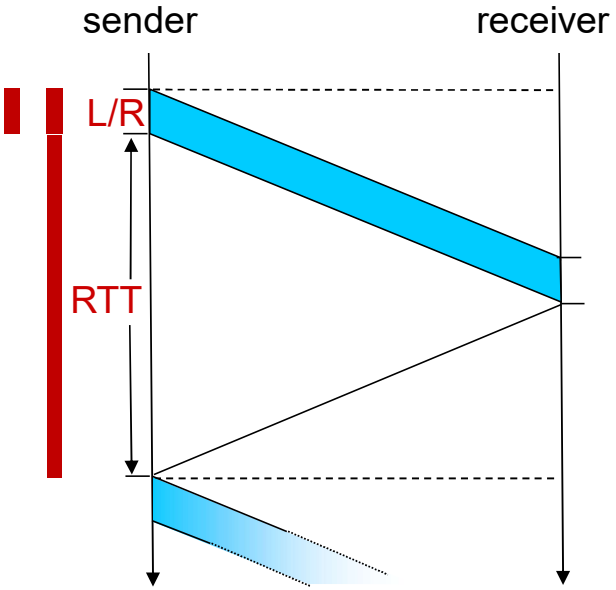


rdt3.0: stop-and-wait operation

$$U_{sender} = \frac{L / R}{RTT + L / R}$$

$$= \frac{.008}{30.008}$$

$$= 0.00027$$

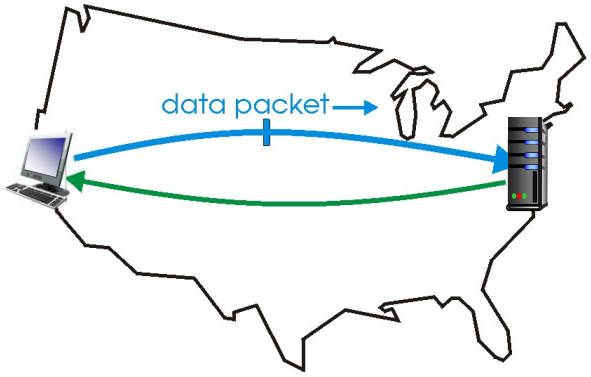


- rdt 3.0 protocol performance stinks!
- Protocol limits performance of underlying infrastructure (channel)

rdt3.0: pipelined protocols operation

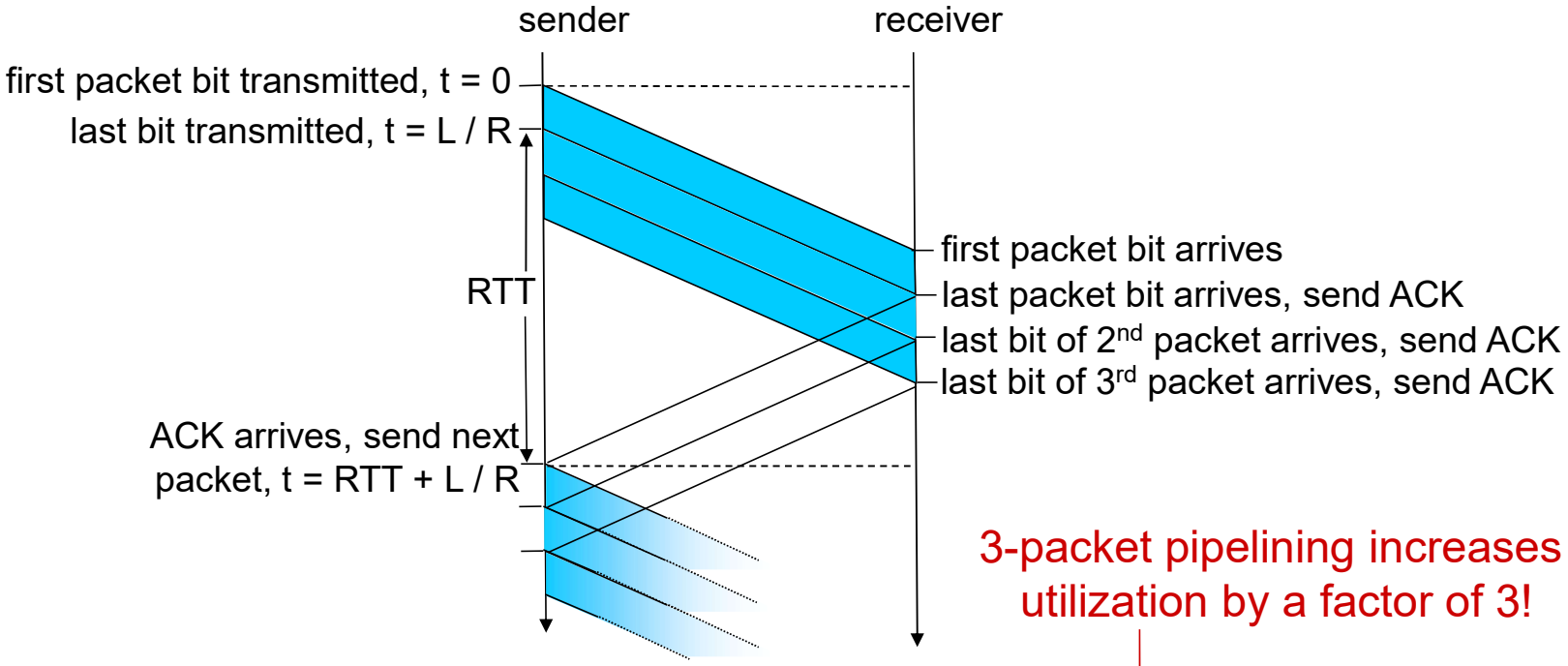
pipelining: sender allows multiple, “in-flight”, yet-to-be-acknowledged packets

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



(a) a stop-and-wait protocol in operation

Pipelining: increased utilization

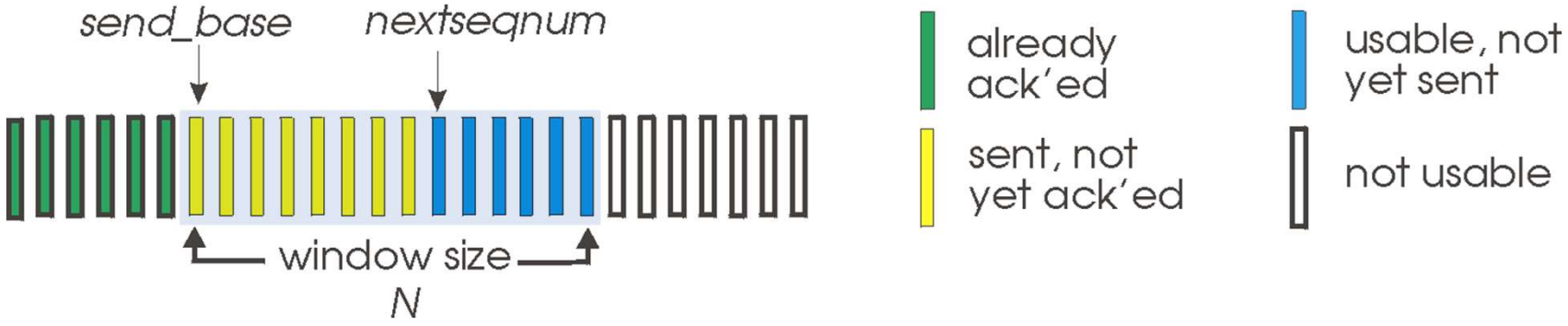


3-packet pipelining increases utilization by a factor of 3!

$$U_{sender} = \frac{3L / R}{RTT + L / R} = \frac{.0024}{30.008} = 0.00081$$

Go-Back-N: sender

- sender: "window" of up to N, consecutive transmitted but unACKed pkts
  - k-bit seq # in pkt header

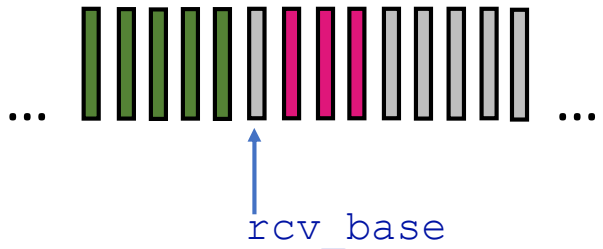


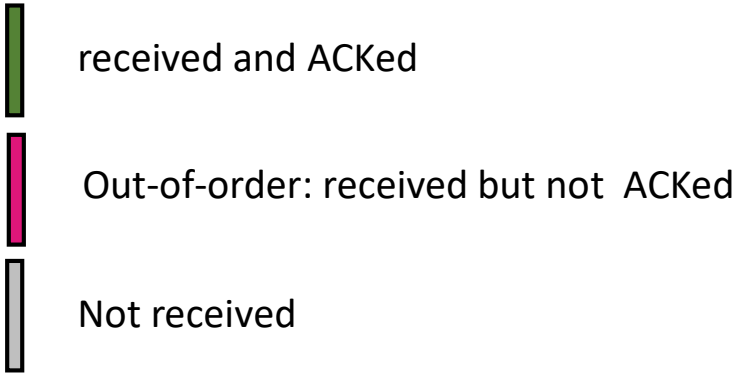
- *cumulative ACK:* ACK(*n*): ACKs all packets up to, including seq # *n*
  - on receiving ACK(*n*): move window forward to begin at *n+1*
- timer for oldest in-flight packet
- *timeout(n):* retransmit packet n and all higher seq # packets in window

Go-Back-N: receiver

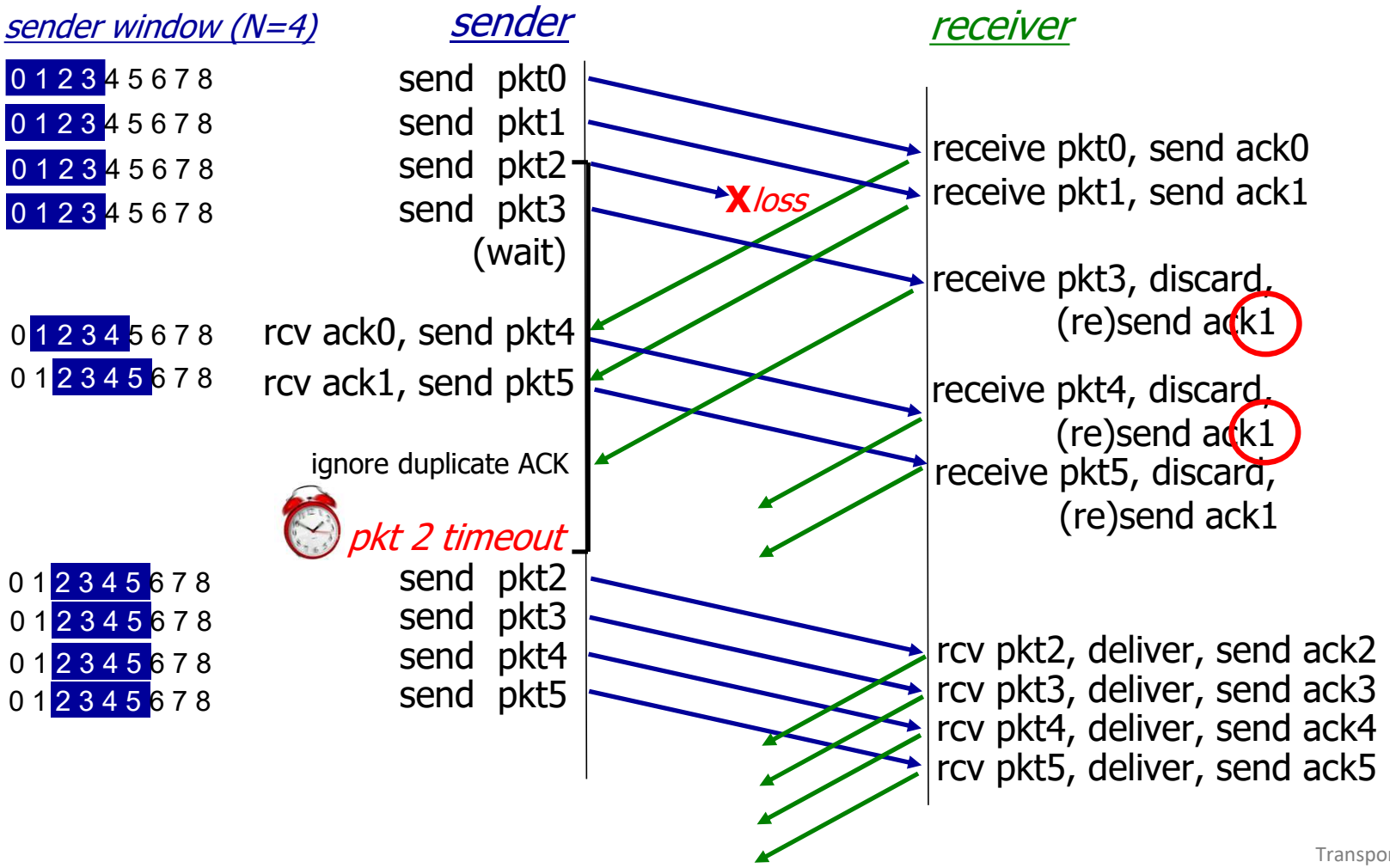
- ACK-only: always send ACK for correctly-received packet so far, with highest *in-order* seq #
  - may generate duplicate ACKs
  - need only remember `rcv_base`
- on receipt of out-of-order packet:
  - can discard (don't buffer) or buffer: an implementation decision
  - re-ACK pkt with highest in-order seq #

Receiver view of sequence number space:





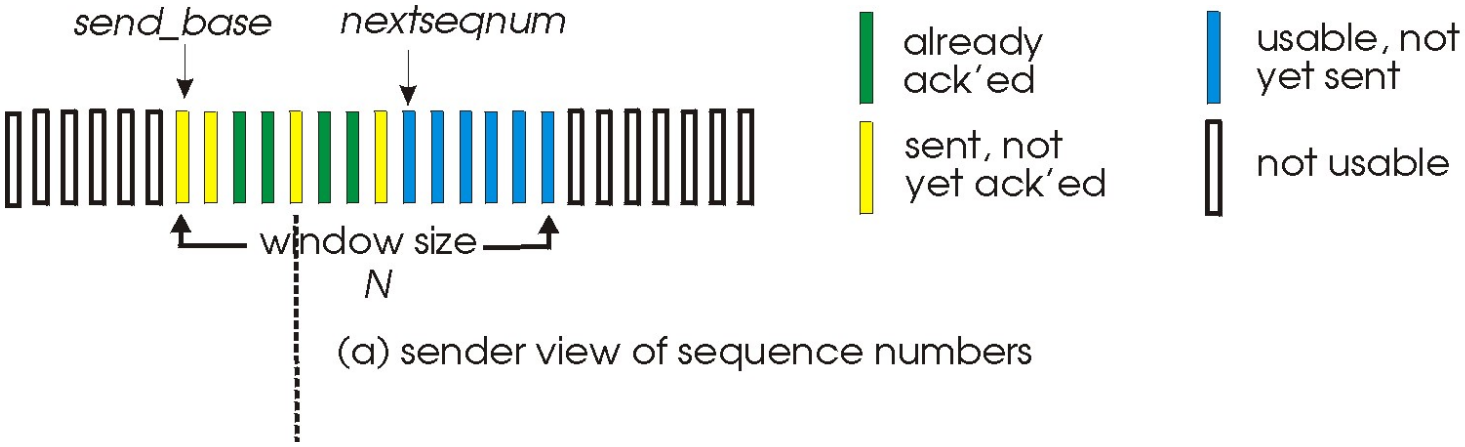
Go-Back-N in action



Selective repeat: the approach

- *pipelining*: *multiple* packets in flight
- *receiver individually ACKs* all correctly received packets
  - buffers packets, as needed, for in-order delivery to upper layer
- sender:
  - maintains (conceptually) a timer for each unACKed pkt
    - timeout: retransmits single unACKed packet associated with timeout
  - maintains (conceptually) "window" over *N* consecutive seq #s
    - limits pipelined, "in flight" packets to be within this window

Selective repeat: sender, receiver windows



Selective repeat: sender and receiver

sender

data from above:

- if next available seq # in window, send packet

timeout(*n*):

- resend packet *n*, restart timer

ACK(*n*) in [sendbase,sendbase+N-1]:

- mark packet *n* as received
- if n smallest unACKed packet, advance window base to next unACKed seq #

receiver

packet *n* in [rcvbase, rcvbase+N-1]

- send ACK(*n*)
- out-of-order: buffer
- in-order: deliver (also deliver buffered, in-order packets), advance window to next not-yet-received packet

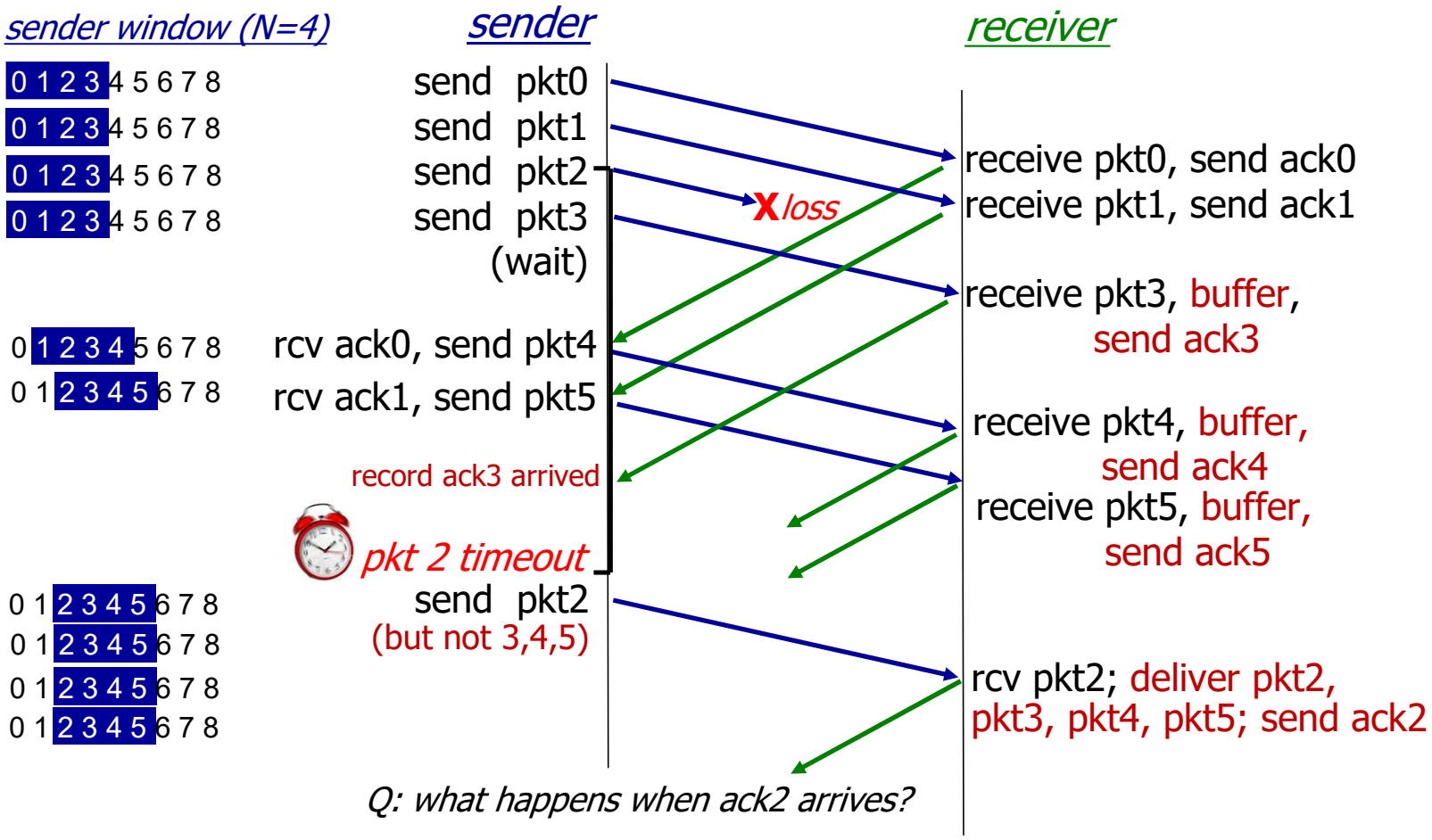
packet *n* in [rcvbase-N,rcvbase-1]

- ACK(*n*)

otherwise:

- ignore

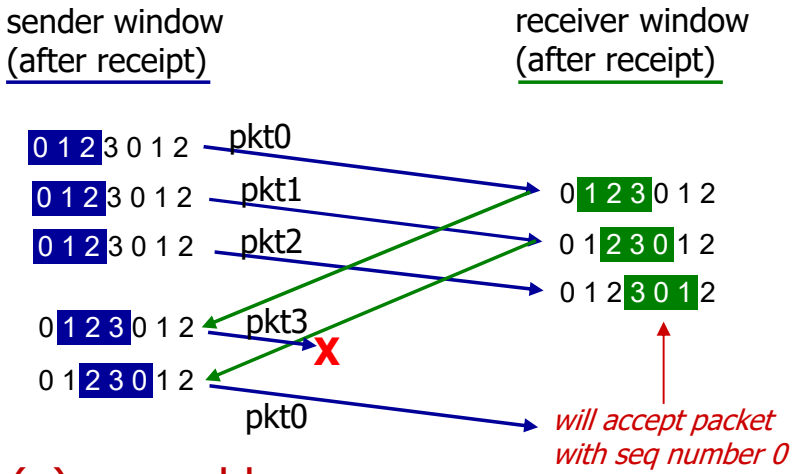
Selective Repeat in action



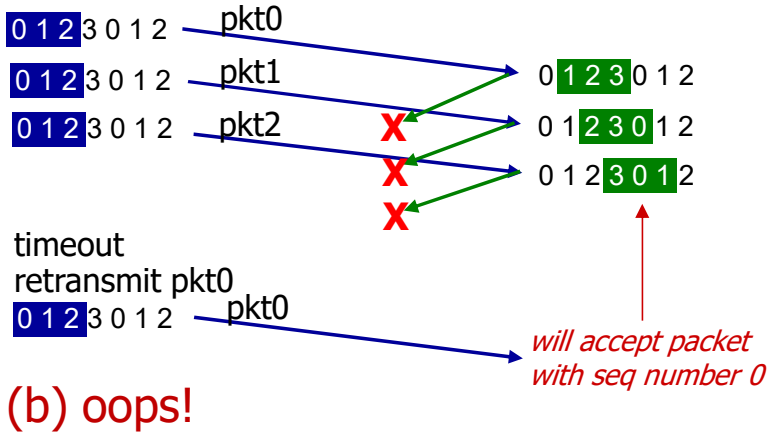
Selective repeat: a dilemma!

example:

- seq #s: 0, 1, 2, 3 (base 4 counting)
- window size=3



(a) no problem

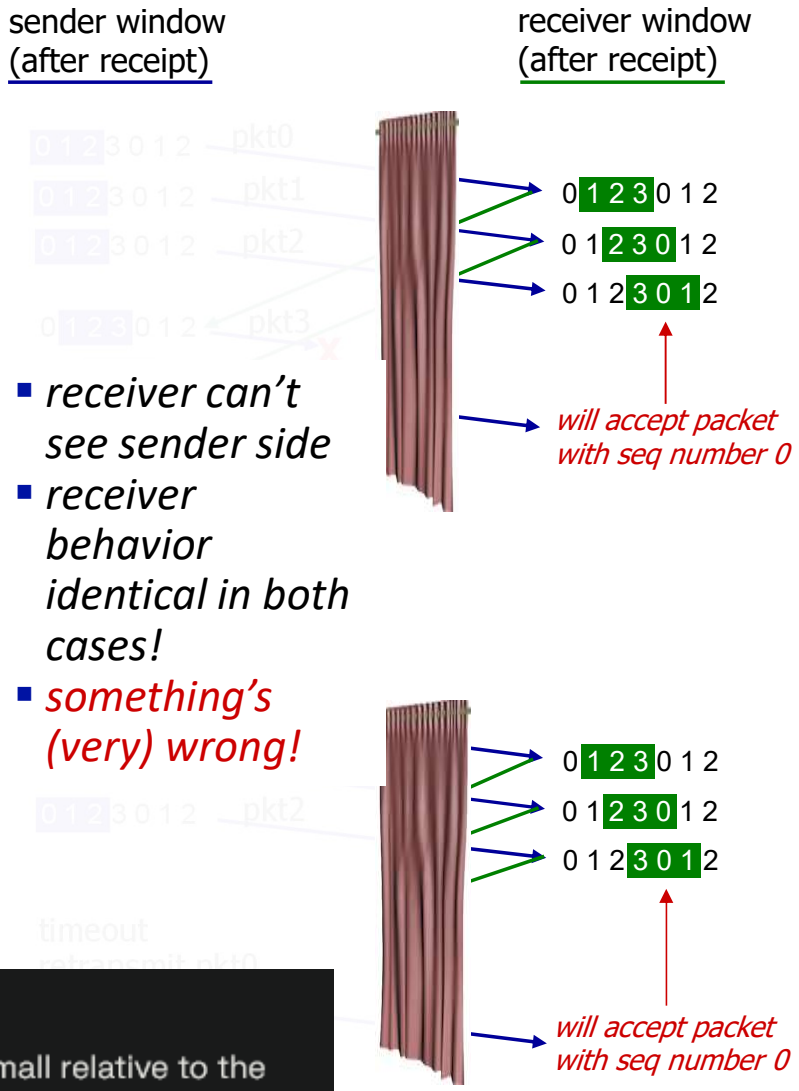


(b) oops!

Selective repeat: a dilemma!

example:

- seq #s: 0, 1, 2, 3 (base 4 counting)
- window size=3



Q: what relationship is needed between sequence # size and window size to avoid problem in scenario (b)?

Selective Repeat Dilemma [Slide 3-78]

- **Sequence Number Ambiguity:** If the sequence number space is too small relative to the window size, receivers might accept duplicate packets erroneously.
- **Solution:** To prevent ambiguity, the window size must be at most half of the sequence number space, ensuring unique identification of outstanding packets within a continuous sliding window.

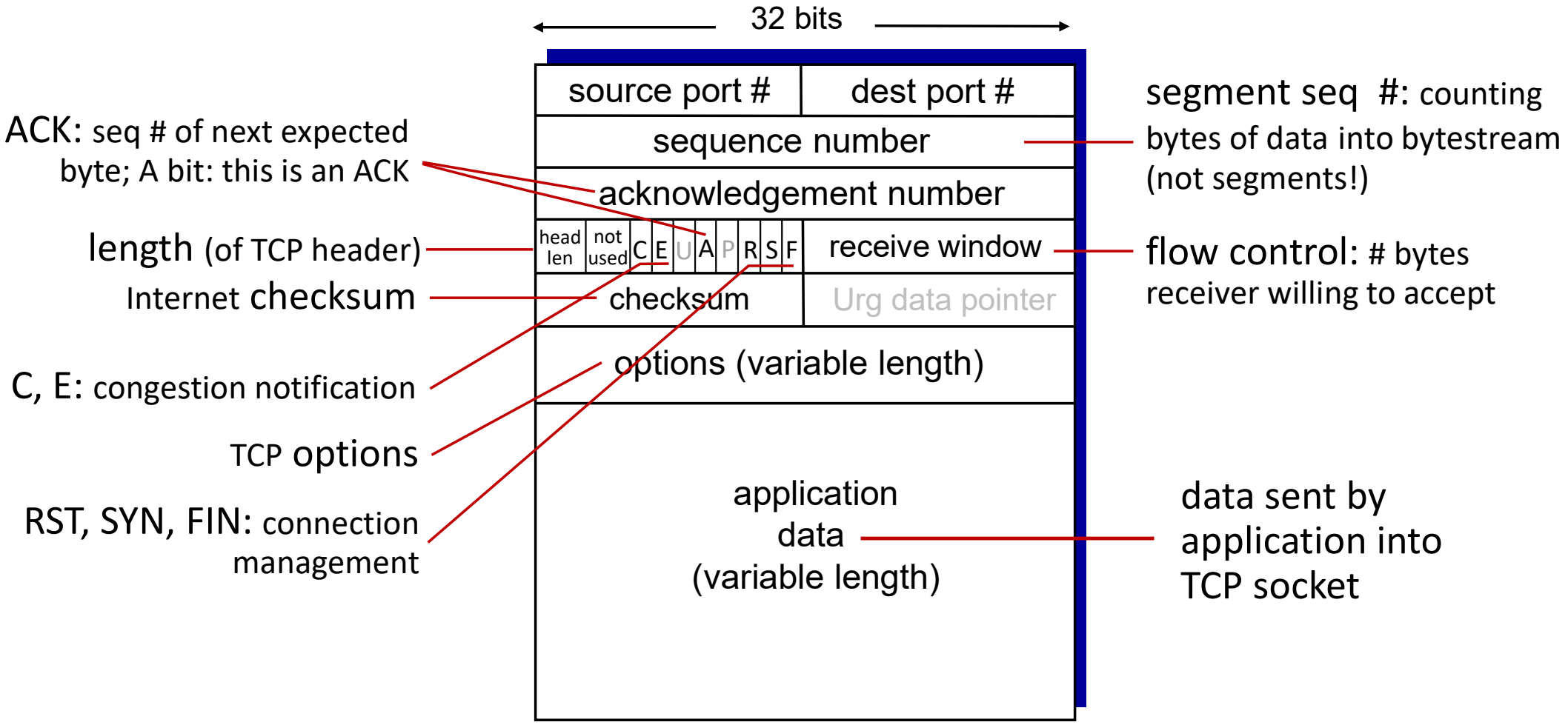
Chapter 3: roadmap

- Transport-layer services
- Multiplexing and demultiplexing
- Connectionless transport: UDP
- Principles of reliable data transfer
- Connection-oriented transport: TCP
  - segment structure
  - reliable data transfer
  - flow control
  - connection management
- Principles of congestion control
- TCP congestion control

TCP: overview RFCs: 793,1122, 2018, 5681, 7323

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

TCP segment structure



TCP sequence numbers, ACKs

Sequence numbers:

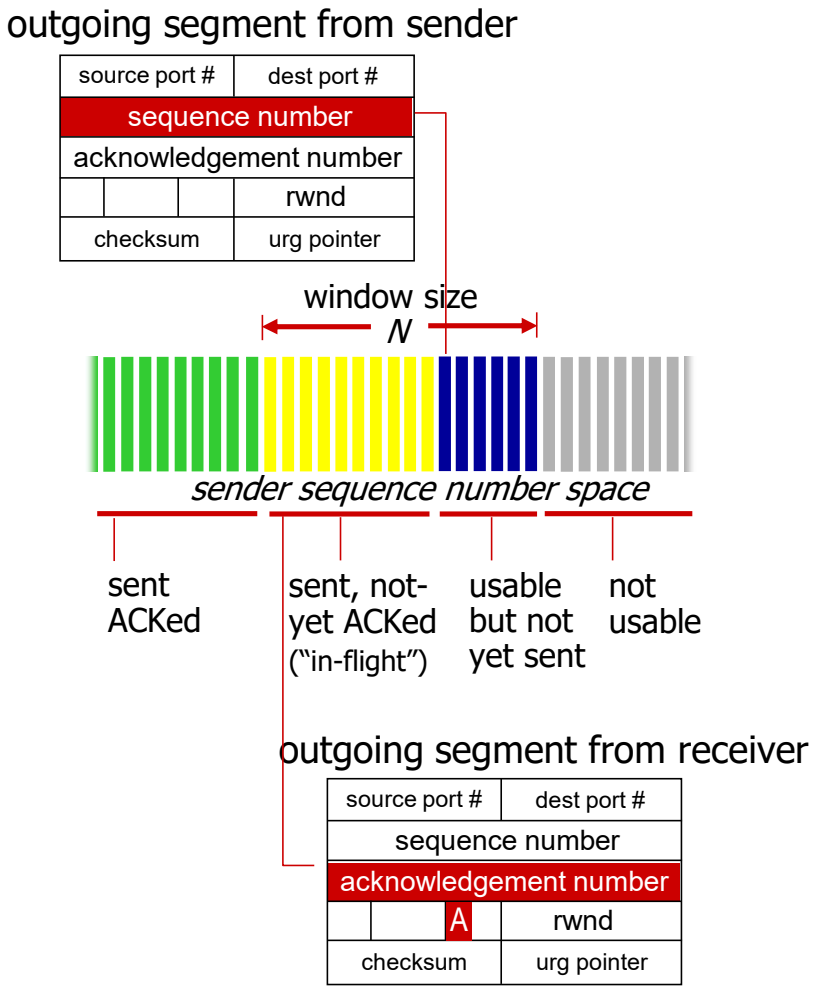
- byte stream "number" of first byte in segment's data

Acknowledgements:

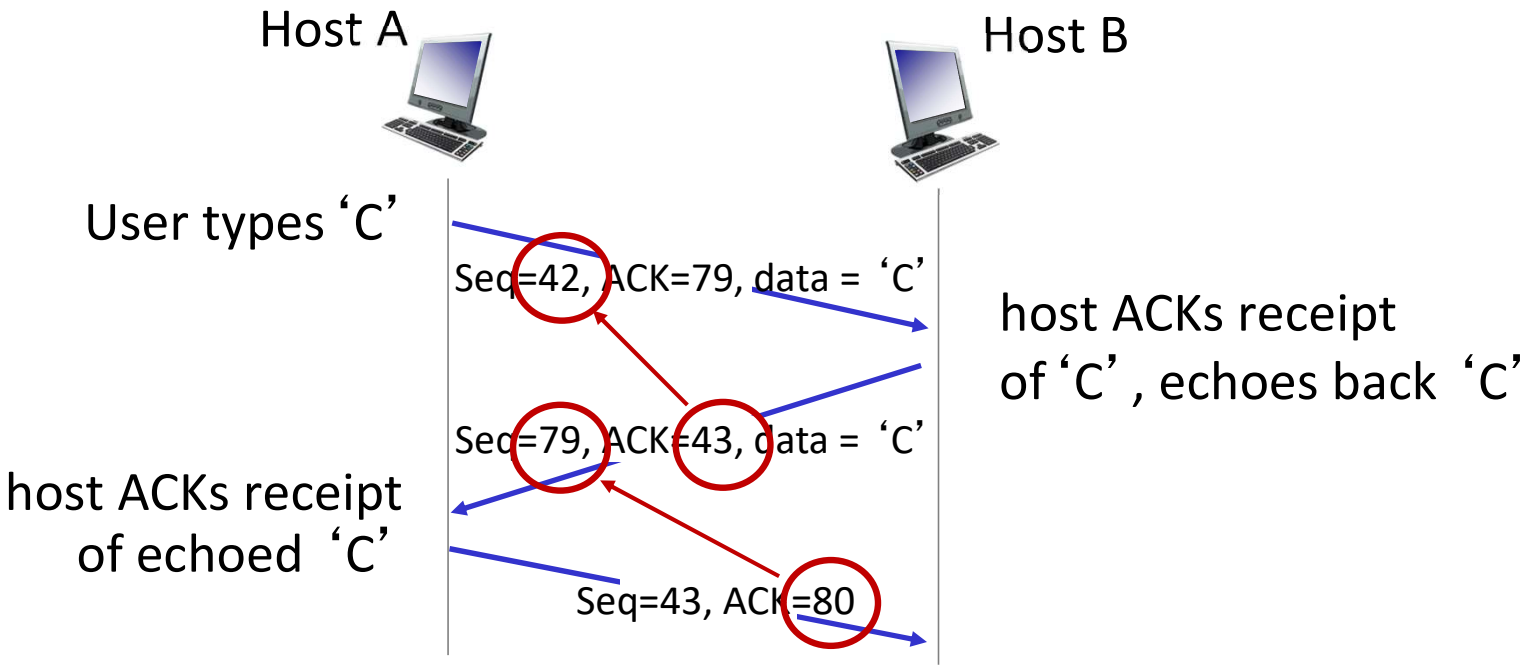
- seq # of next byte expected from other side
- cumulative ACK

Q: how receiver handles out-of-order segments

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



TCP sequence 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

TCP Timeout and RTT Estimation (Slides 3-84 to 3-86)

- **Why timers?** Packets and ACKs can be lost; TCP needs to know when to retransmit.
- **RTT Variation:** Internet RTTs change over time.
- **SampleRTT:** Measured from when a segment is sent to when its ACK arrives. Ignore retransmitted segments.
- **EstimatedRTT (EWMA):** A smoothed average to prevent wild swings in timeout settings.

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

  - ($\alpha \approx 0.125$)
- **TimeoutInterval:**

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

  - Where DevRTT estimates how much RTT varies.

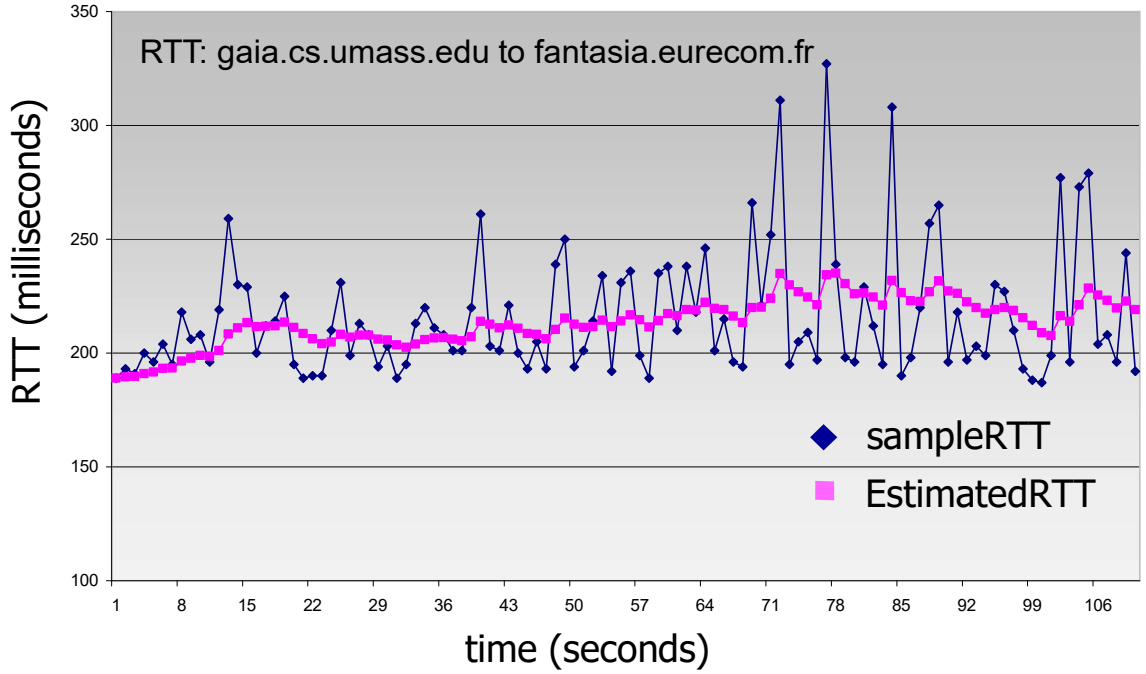
Q: how to estimate RTT?

- `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

EstimatedRTT = (1- α)*EstimatedRTT + α*SampleRTT

- exponential weighted moving average (EWMA)
- influence of past sample decreases exponentially fast
- typical value: α = 0.125



TCP round trip time, timeout

- timeout interval: **EstimatedRTT** plus "safety margin"
  - large variation in **EstimatedRTT**: want a larger safety margin

```
TimeoutInterval = EstimatedRTT + 4*DevRTT
```

estimated RTT

"safety margin"

- **DevRTT**: EWMA of **SampleRTT** deviation from **EstimatedRTT**:

```
DevRTT = (1-β)*DevRTT + β*|SampleRTT-EstimatedRTT|
```

(typically, β = 0.25)

* Check out the online interactive exercises for more examples: http://gaia.cs.umass.edu/kurose_ross/interactive/

TCP Sender (simplified)

event: data received from application

- create segment with seq #
- seq # is byte-stream number of first data byte in segment
- start timer if not already running
  - think of timer as for oldest unACKed segment
  - expiration interval: **`TimeOutInterval`**

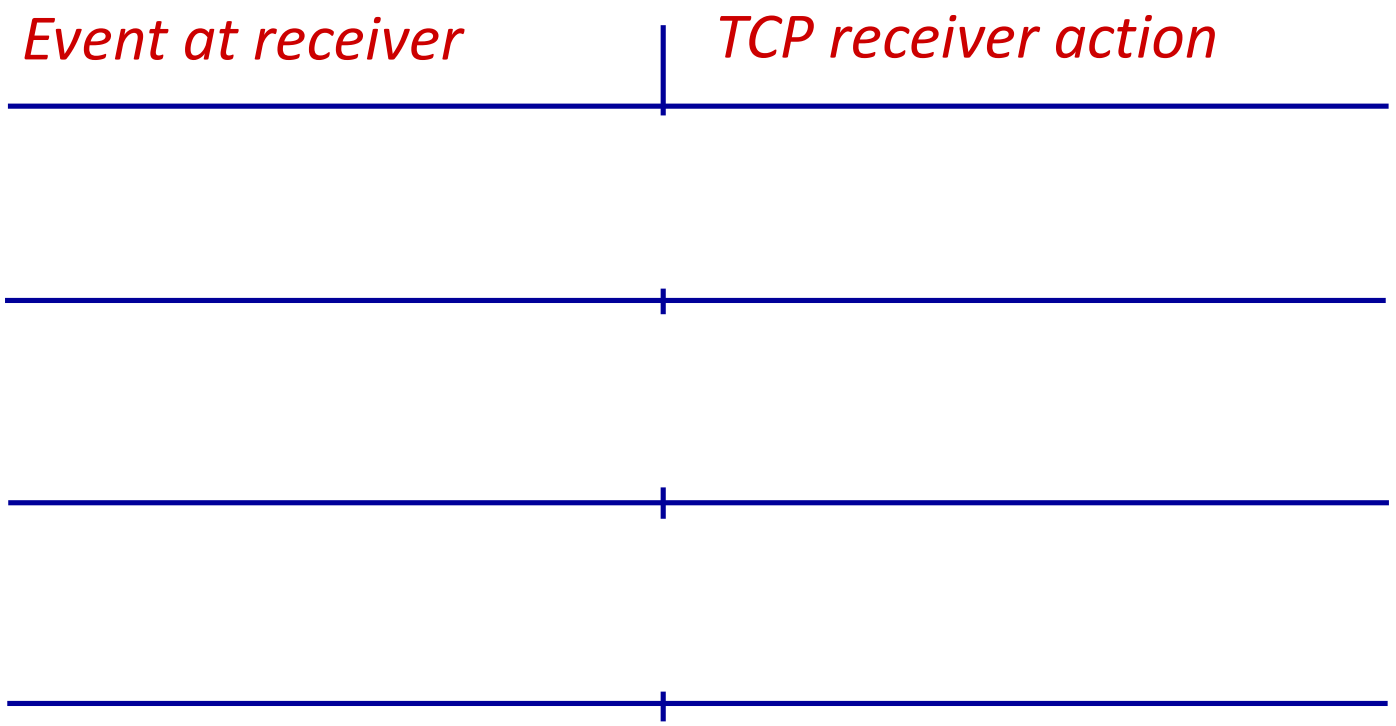
event: timeout

- retransmit segment that caused timeout
- restart timer

event: ACK received

- if ACK acknowledges previously unACKed segments
  - update what is known to be ACKed
  - start timer if there are still unACKed segments

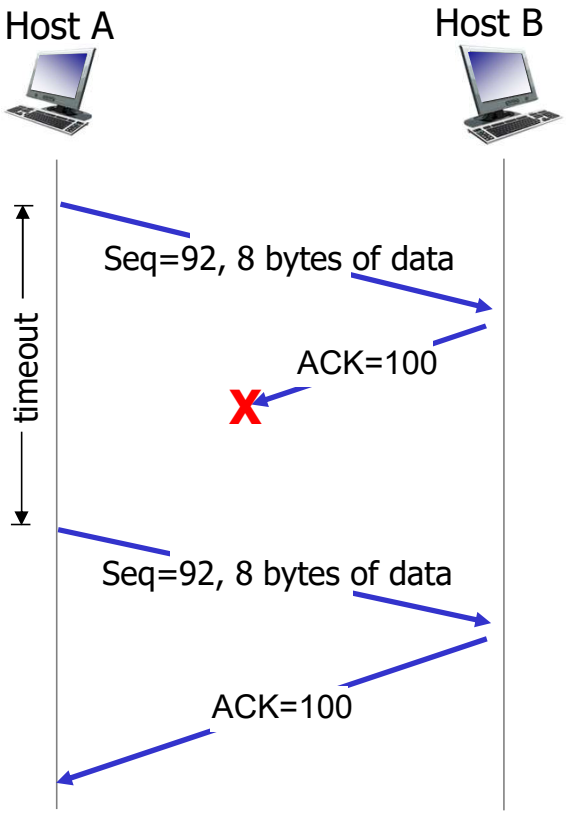
TCP Receiver: ACK generation [RFC 5681]



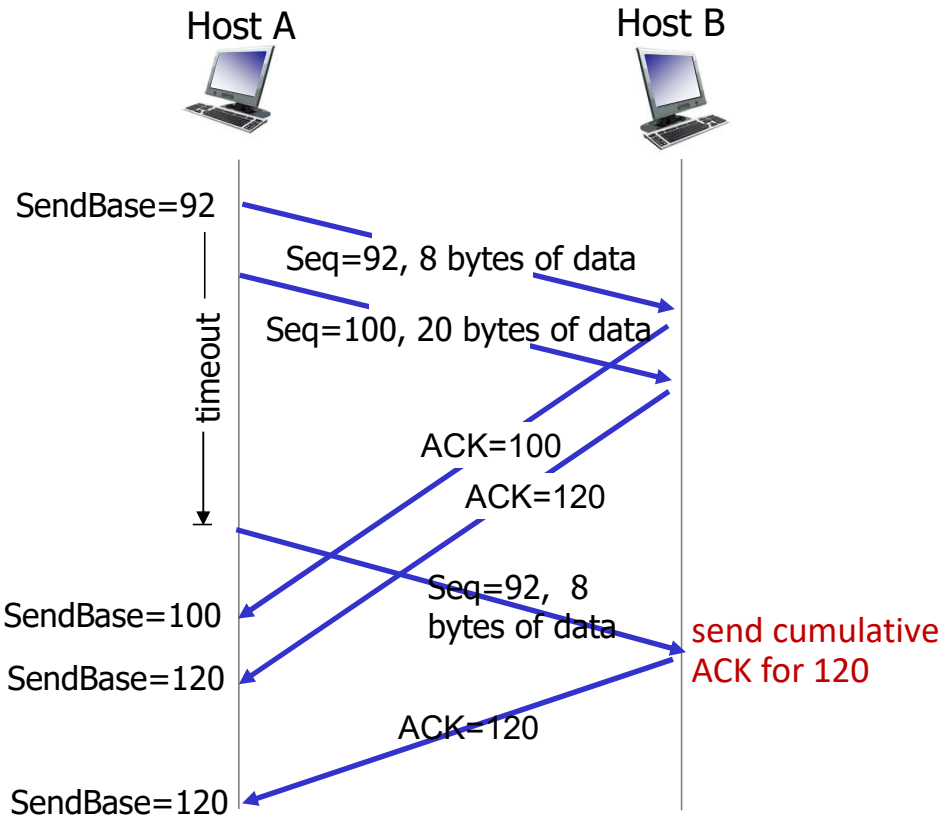
Lost ACK:

- Sender times out and retransmits a segment. If receiver receives a duplicate segment, it discards the duplicate but still ACKs the expected sequence.

TCP: retransmission scenarios



lost ACK scenario



premature timeout

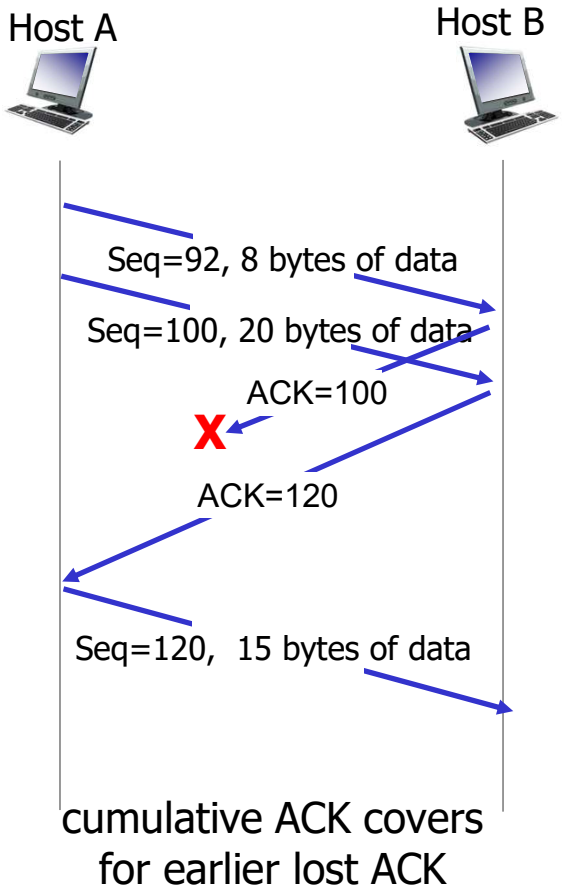
Premature Timeout:

- Sender may retransmit even though segment already arrived; receiver discards duplicate and (again) ACKs the next expected byte.

Cumulative ACK:

- A later ACK can cover earlier lost ACKs because it signifies receipt of all previous bytes.

TCP: retransmission scenarios



TCP Fast Retransmit (Slide 3-91)

- **Problem:** Timers may be too slow. What if a segment is missing but others are arriving?
- **Solution (Fast Retransmit):** If sender gets 3 duplicate ACKs (i.e., receiver keeps requesting the same sequence number), it's highly likely a segment is lost. TCP retransmits the "missing" segment right away, before the timer fires.
- **Benefit:** Much quicker recovery from single-packet loss, which greatly improves application performance.

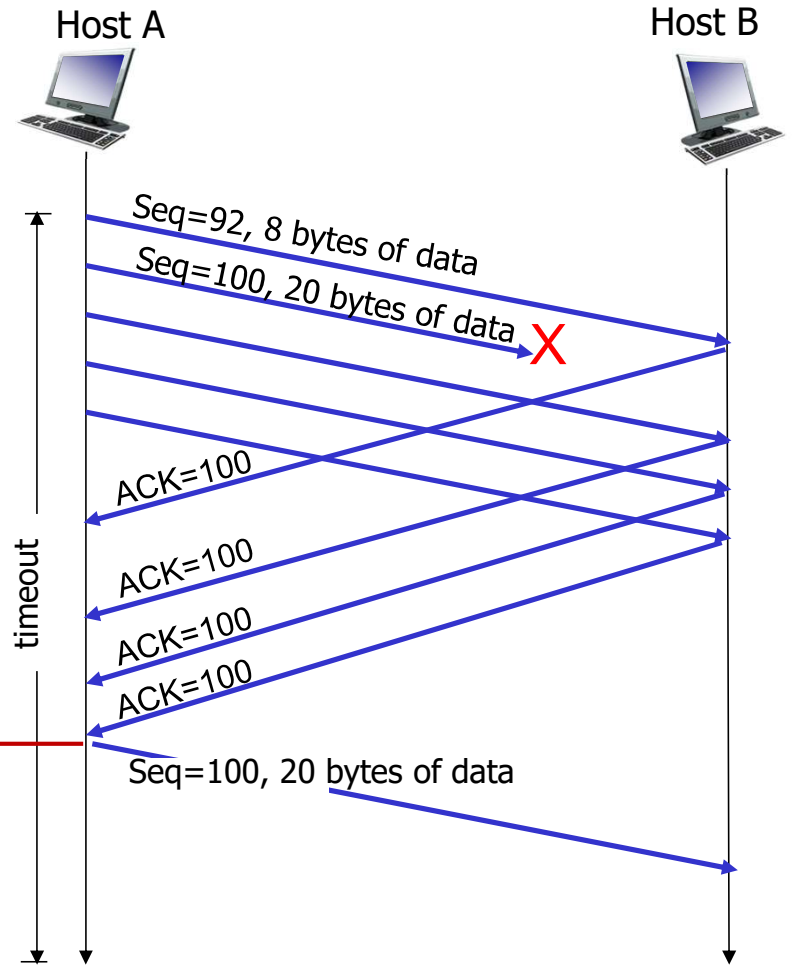
TCP fast retransmit

TCP fast retransmit

if sender receives 3 additional ACKs for same data ("triple duplicate ACKs"), resend unACKed segment with smallest seq #

- likely that unACKed segment lost, so don't wait for timeout

Receipt of three duplicate ACKs indicates 3 segments received after a missing segment – lost segment is likely. So retransmit!

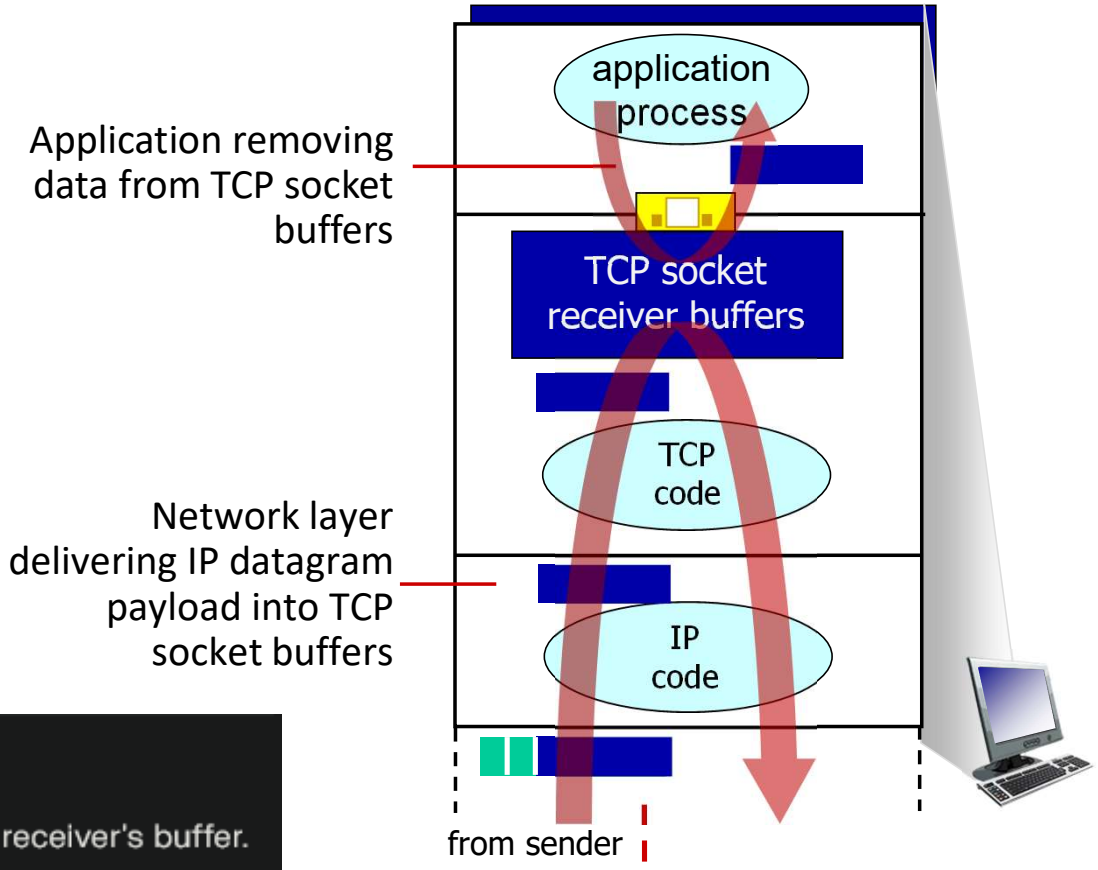


Chapter 3: roadmap

- Transport-layer services
- Multiplexing and demultiplexing
- Connectionless transport: UDP
- Principles of reliable data transfer
- **Connection-oriented transport: TCP**
  - segment structure
  - reliable data transfer
  - **flow control**
  - **connection management**
- Principles of congestion control
- TCP congestion control

TCP flow control

Q: What happens if network layer delivers data faster than application layer removes data from socket buffers?

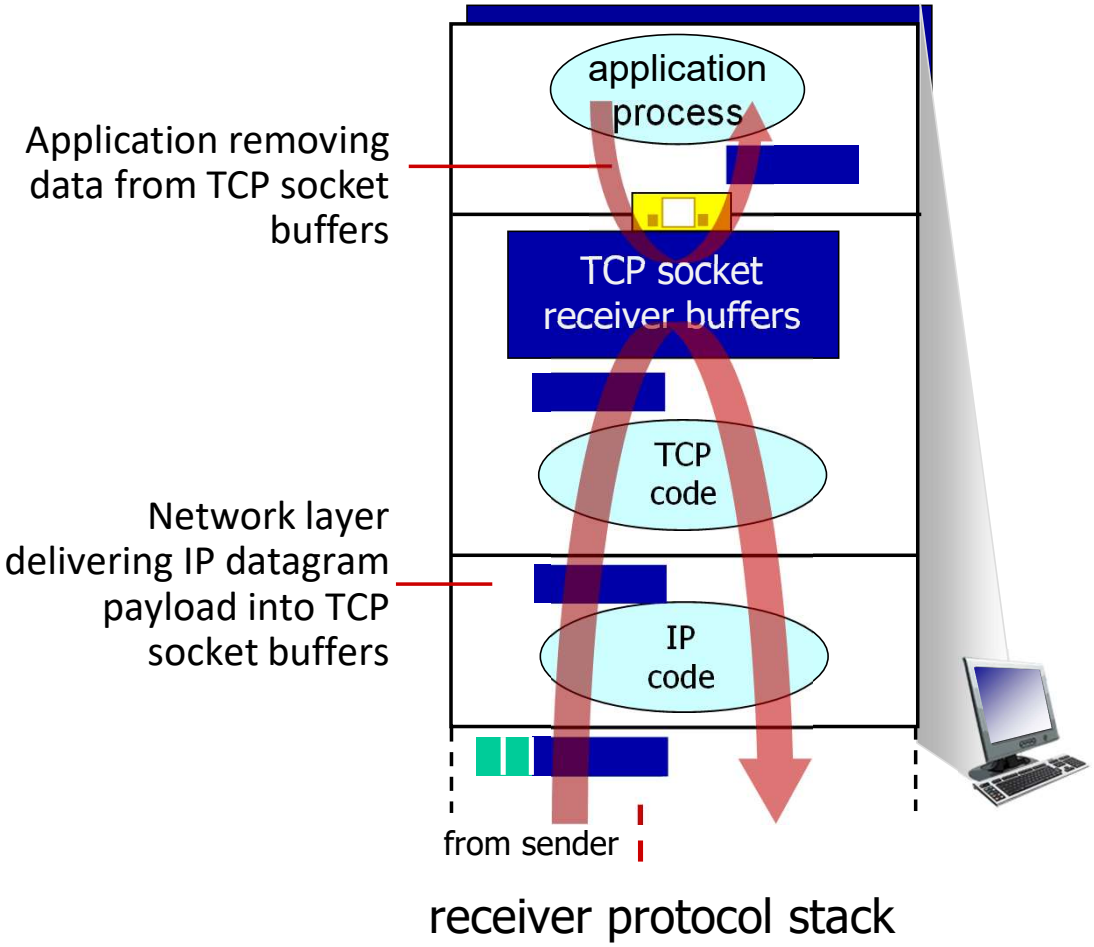


TCP Flow Control (Slides 3-93 to 3-98)

- **Why needed?** To avoid the sender overwhelming the receiver's buffer.
- The receiver advertises its available buffer space using the **rwnd** (receive window) field in TCP headers.
- The sender tracks unACKed data and slows/stops transmission if it would overflow the receiver buffer.
- Guarantees buffer will not overflow at receiver.

TCP flow control

Q: What happens if network layer delivers data faster than application layer removes data from socket buffers?



TCP flow control

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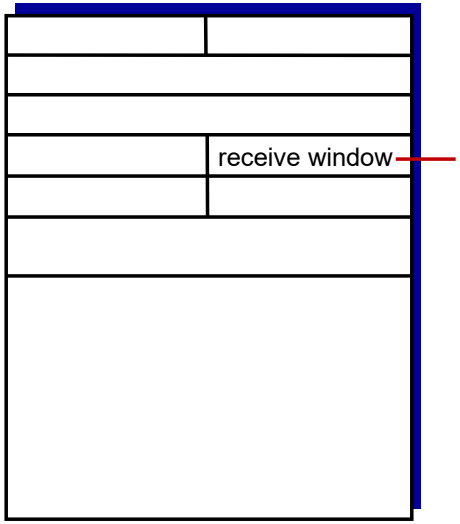
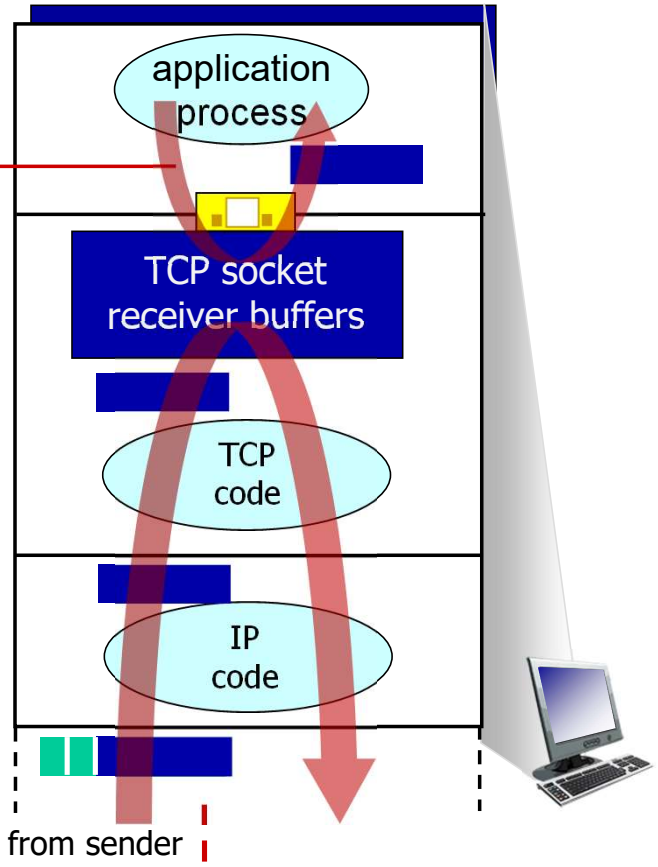


flow control: # bytes receiver willing to accept

Application removing data from TCP socket buffers



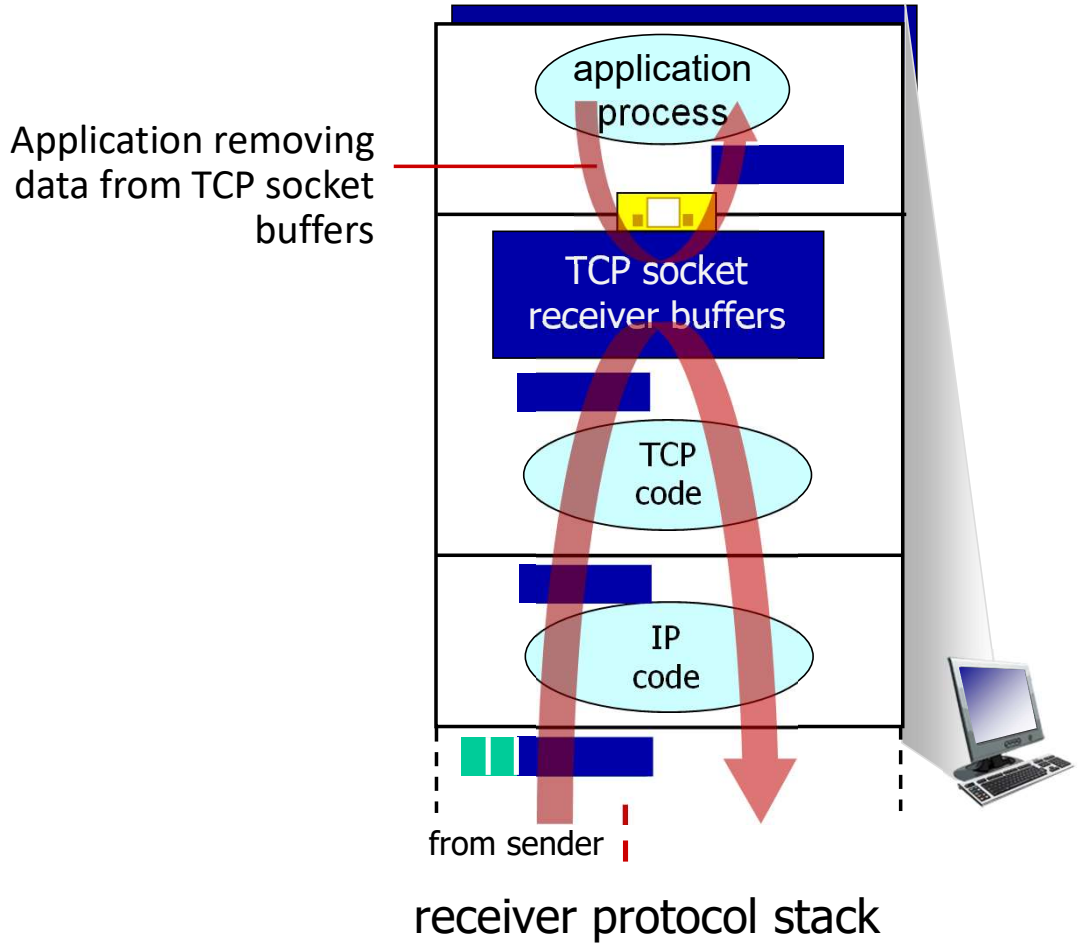
receiver protocol stack

TCP flow control

Q: What happens if network layer delivers data faster than application layer removes data from socket buffers?

flow control

receiver controls sender, so sender won't overflow receiver's buffer by transmitting too much, too fast

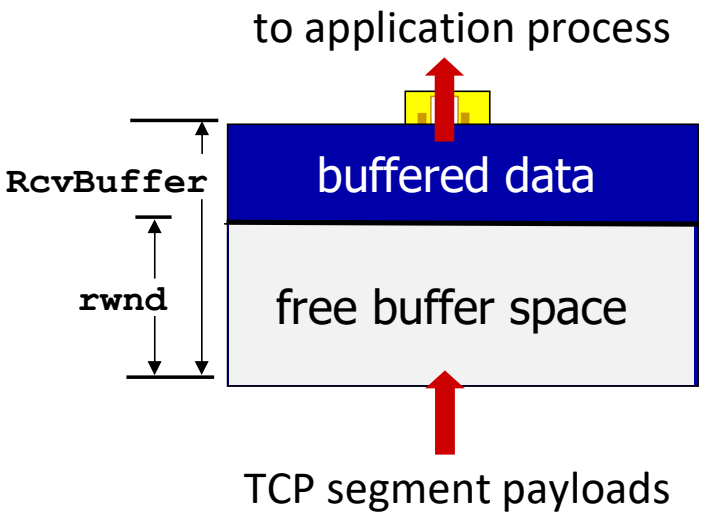


TCP flow control

Working Mechanism:

1. The receiver keeps track of how full its buffer is.
2. It reports available space (rwnd) in **ACK packets** back to the sender.
3. The sender **limits** how much unacknowledged data ("in-flight" data) it sends to the receiver based on this rwnd.
4. If the buffer is almost full, **rwnd becomes small (even 0)** → sender stops sending new data.
5. When the application reads some data, buffer space frees up → receiver advertises a larger rwnd again.

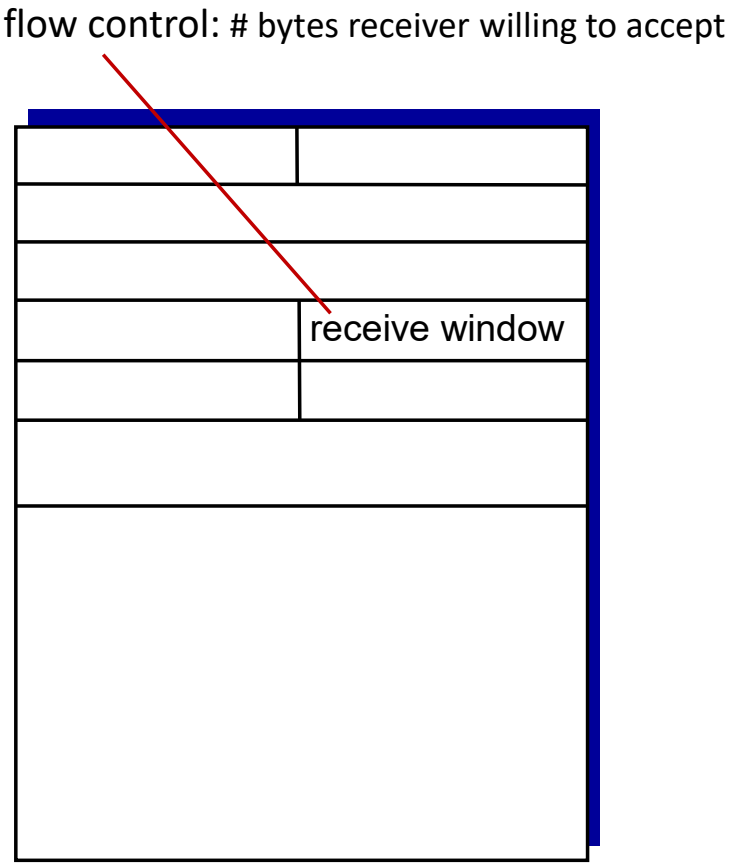
- TCP receiver "advertises" free buffer space in **`rwnd`** field in TCP header
  - **`RcvBuffer`** size set via socket options (typical default is 4096 bytes)
  - many operating systems auto-adjust **`RcvBuffer`**
- sender limits amount of unACKed ("in-flight") data to received **`rwnd`**
- guarantees receive buffer will not overflow



TCP receiver-side buffering

TCP flow control

- TCP receiver "advertises" free buffer space in **`rwnd`** field in TCP header
  - **`RcvBuffer`** size set via socket options (typical default is 4096 bytes)
  - many operating systems auto-adjust **`RcvBuffer`**
- sender limits amount of unACKed ("in-flight") data to received **`rwnd`**
- guarantees receive buffer will not overflow

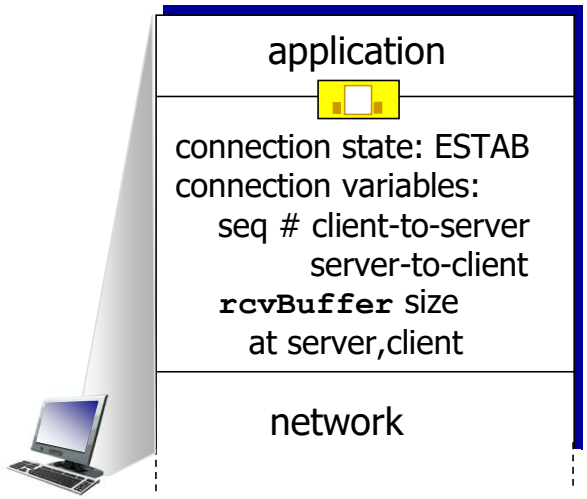


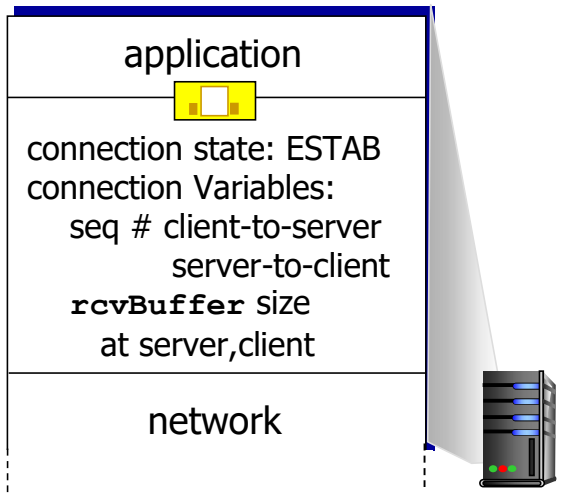
TCP segment format

TCP connection management

before exchanging data, sender/receiver “handshake”:

- agree to establish connection (each knowing the other willing to establish connection)
- agree on connection parameters (e.g., starting seq #s)



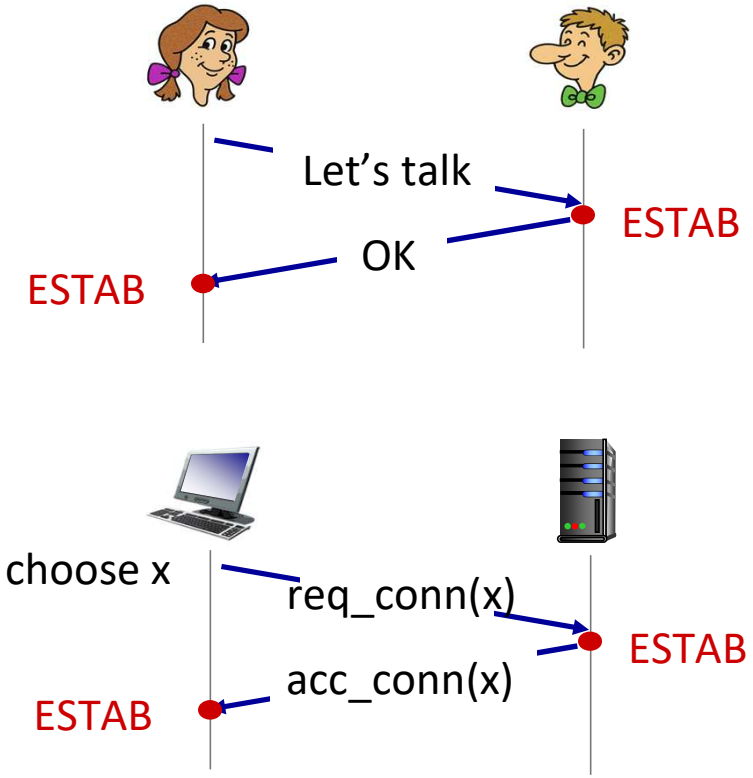



```
Socket clientSocket =
  newSocket("hostname","port number");
```

```
Socket connectionSocket =
  welcomeSocket.accept();
```

Agreeing to establish a connection

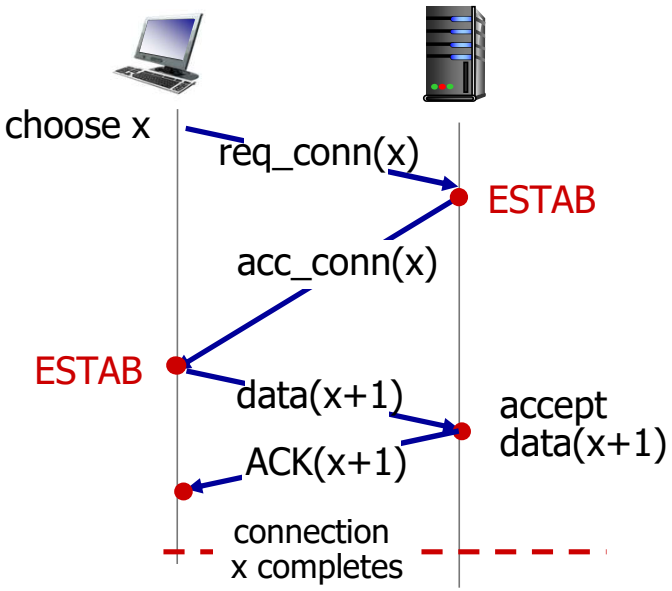
2-way handshake:



Q: will 2-way handshake always work in network?

- variable delays
- retransmitted messages (e.g. req_conn(x)) due to message loss
- message reordering
- can't "see" other side

2-way handshake scenarios



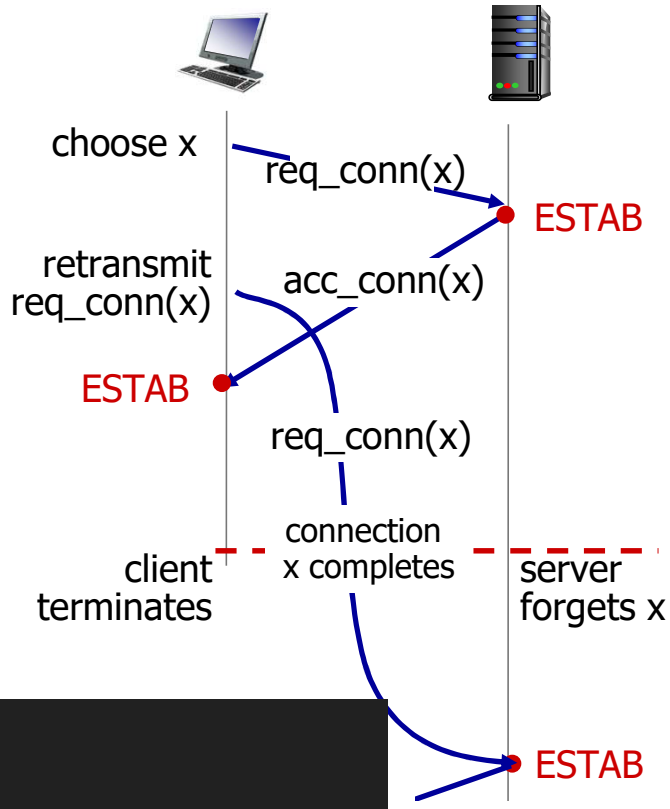
No problem!

Problem with 2-Way Handshake

In real networks, this 2-step method **fails** due to:

- **Variable delays** – packets can arrive late.
- **Retransmissions** – lost messages may be resent, confusing the other side.
- **Message reordering** – packets can arrive out of order.
- **Unawareness** – one side may think connection is alive when the other doesn't ("can't see" the other).

2-way handshake scenarios



❌ **Case 2: Problem – Half-Open Connection**

If packets are **delayed or retransmitted**, problems can occur:

- Client sends connection request, but after timeout assumes failure → **terminates.**
- Server **receives old retransmitted request** later and establishes a connection with no client present.

This creates a **"half-open" connection** — server thinks it's connected, but client is gone.

Hence, **2-way handshake is unreliable.**

alf open
! (no client)

2-way handshake scenarios

✅ 4. The TCP 3-Way Handshake (Reliable Solution)

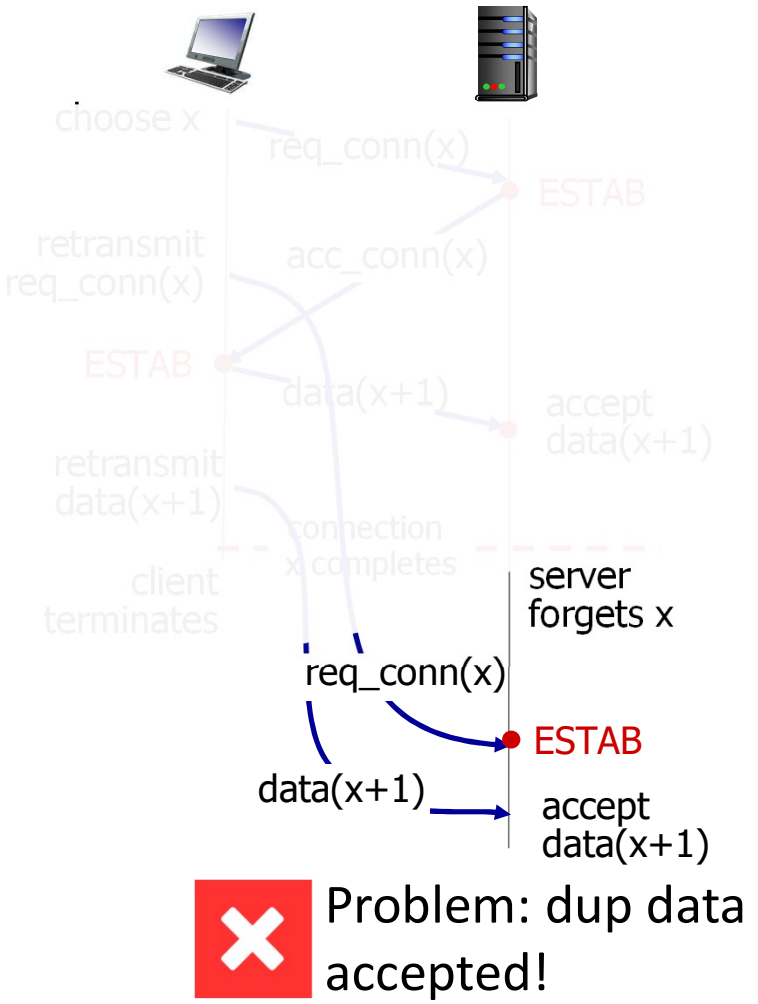
TCP uses a **three-step process** to ensure both sides agree and are synchronized.

🔄 Steps:

1. **SYN:**
   Client sends a **SYN (synchronize)** message with its initial sequence number (Seq = x).
   → Client enters **SYN-SENT** state.
2. **SYN-ACK:**
   Server replies with **SYN + ACK**, acknowledging client's SYN (`ACKnum = x + 1`)
   and sends its own sequence number (Seq = y).
   → Server enters **SYN-RECEIVED** state.
3. **ACK:**
   Client sends **ACK** back, acknowledging server's SYN (`ACKnum = y + 1`).
   → Both sides enter **ESTABLISHED** state.

Now both have confirmed:

- Each side is alive.
- Both agree on sequence numbers for reliable data transfer.



Problem: dup data accepted!

TCP 3-way handshake

Client state

```
clientSocket = socket(AF_INET, SOCK_STREAM)
```

LISTEN

```
clientSocket.connect((serverName,serverPort))
```

choose init seq num, x
send TCP SYN msg

SYNSENT

SYNbit=1, Seq=x

choose init seq num, y
send TCP SYNACK
msg, acking SYN

SYNbit=1, Seq=y
ACKbit=1; ACKnum=x+1

received SYNACK(x)
indicates server is live;
send ACK for SYNACK;
this segment may contain
client-to-server data

ESTAB

ACKbit=1, ACKnum=y+1

received ACK(y)
indicates client is live

Server state

```
serverSocket = socket(AF_INET,SOCK_STREAM)
serverSocket.bind(('',serverPort))
serverSocket.listen(1)
connectionSocket, addr = serverSocket.accept()
```

LISTEN

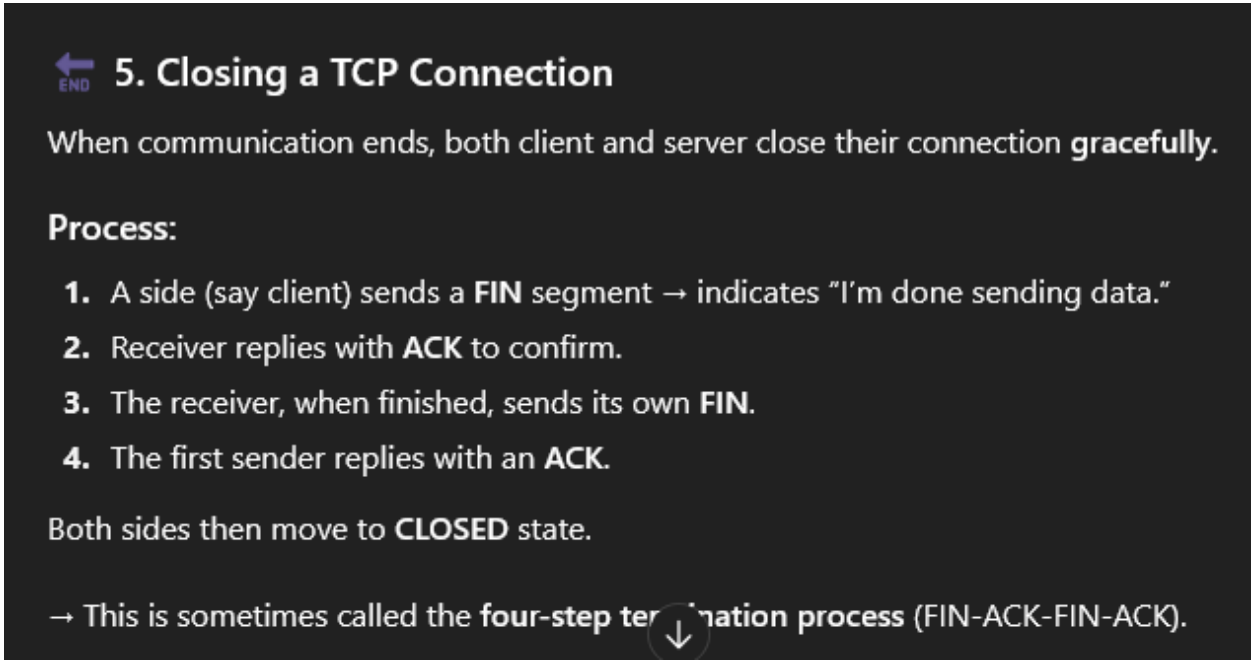
SYN RCVD

ESTAB

A human 3-way handshake protocol

Closing a TCP connection

- client, server each close their side of connection
  - send TCP segment with FIN bit = 1
- respond to received FIN with ACK
  - on receiving FIN, ACK can be combined with own FIN
- simultaneous FIN exchanges can be handled



Chapter 3: roadmap

- Transport-layer services
- Multiplexing and demultiplexing
- Connectionless transport: UDP
- Principles of reliable data transfer
- Connection-oriented transport: TCP
- **Principles of congestion control**
- TCP congestion control
- Evolution of transport-layer functionality

Principles of congestion control

Congestion:

- informally: “too many sources sending too much data too fast for *network* to handle”
- manifestations:
  - long delays (queueing in router buffers)
  - packet loss (buffer overflow at routers)
- different from flow control!
- a top-10 problem!

congestion control:
too many senders,
sending too fast

flow control: one sender
too fast for one receiver

Scenario 1: Single Router, Infinite Buffers (Slide 3-109)

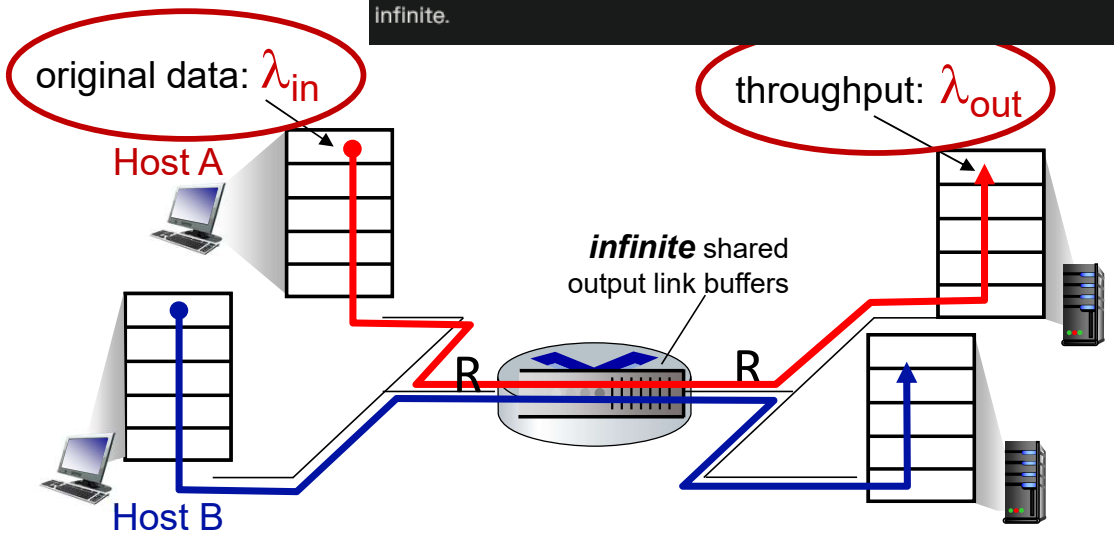
- There is one router with **link capacity R** and **infinite buffering**.
- Two hosts send data, but there are no retransmissions.
- As the **input rate approaches R/2 per flow**, packet waiting time increases sharply due to queue buildup.
- Although throughput remains at R/2 for each sender, **network delays increase significantly** because of packet accumulation in the router queue.

This scenario shows that congestion causes **delay**, not necessarily loss, when buffering is infinite.

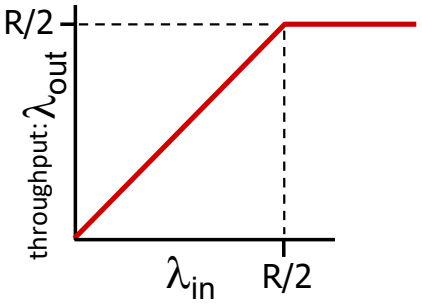
Causes/costs of congesti

Simplest scenario:

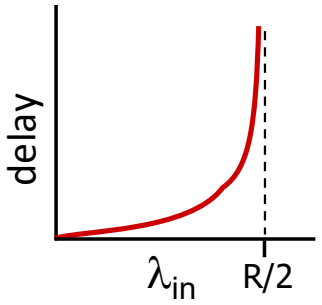
- one router, infinite buffers
- input, output link capacity: R
- two flows
- no retransmissions needed



Q: What happens as arrival rate λ_{in} approaches R/2?



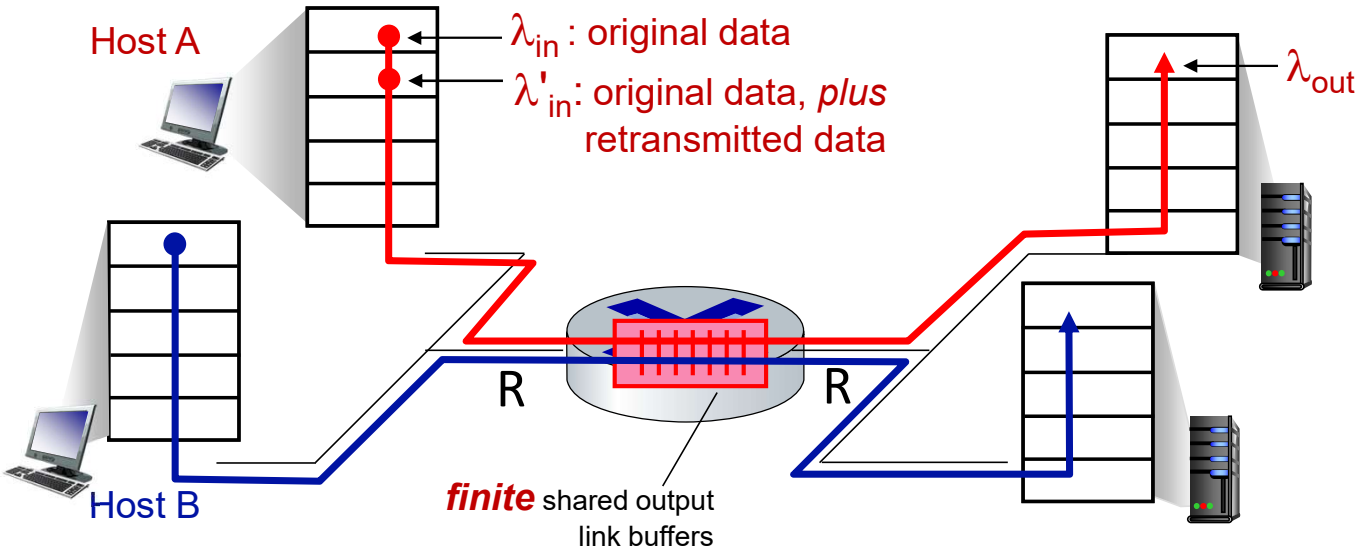
maximum per-connection throughput: R/2



large delays as arrival rate $\lambda\iota\nu\varepsilon$ approaches capacity

Causes/costs of congestion: scenario 2

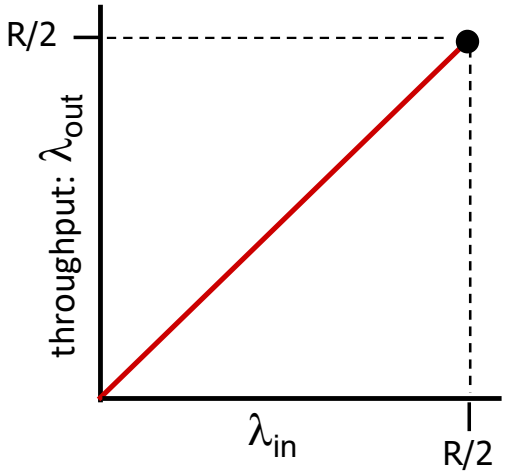
- one router, *finite* buffers
- sender retransmits lost, timed-out packet
  - application-layer input = application-layer output: $\lambda_{in} = \lambda_{out}$
  - transport-layer input includes *retransmissions* : $\lambda'_{in} \geq \lambda_{in}$

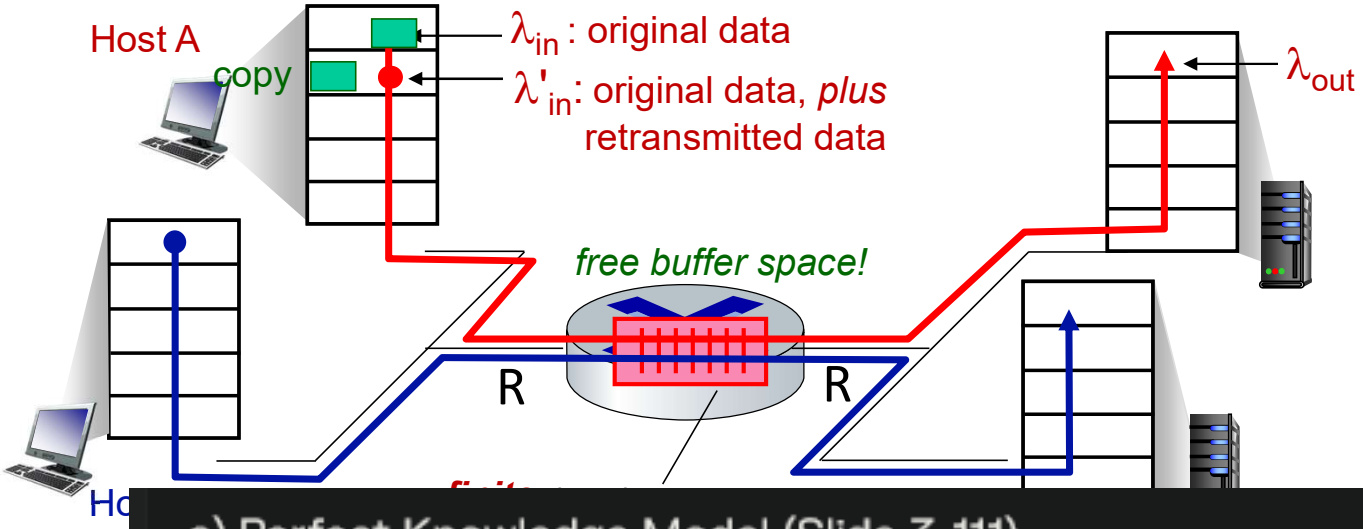


Causes/costs of congestion: scenario 2

Idealization: perfect knowledge

- sender sends only when router buffers available





a) Perfect Knowledge Model (Slide 3-111)

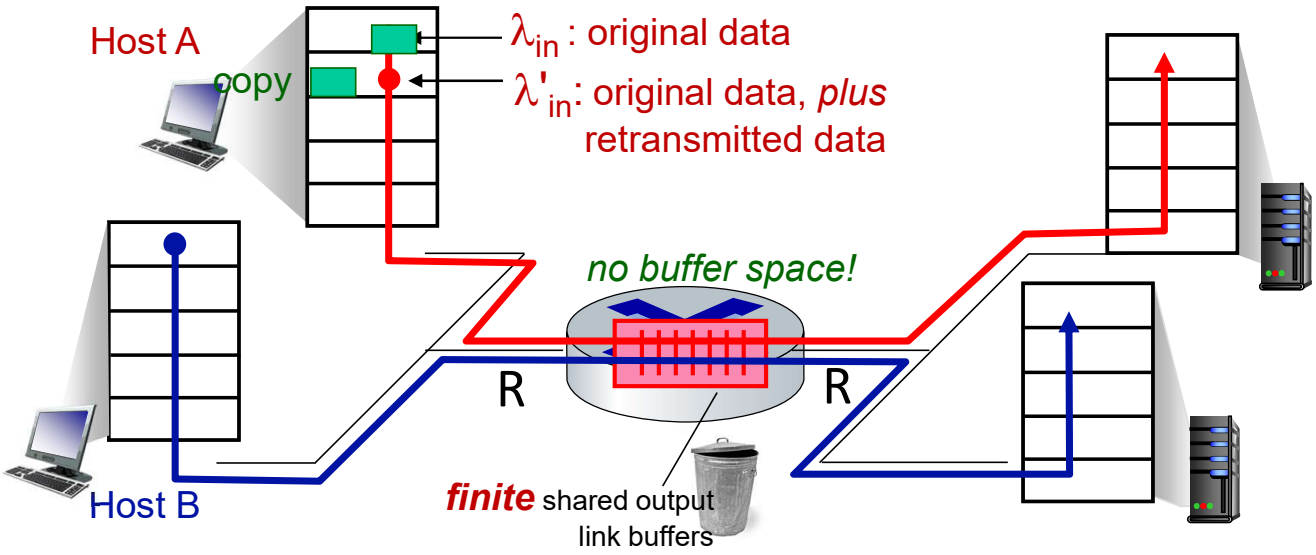
If the sender knows exactly when a buffer is full, it only transmits when capacity frees up.

Throughput equals the link rate R, but this is **unrealistic**—no real sender has such knowledge.

Causes/costs of congestion: scenario 2

Idealization: *some* perfect knowledge

- packets can be lost (dropped at router) due to full buffers
- sender knows when packet has been dropped: only resends if packet *known* to be lost



Causes/costs of congestion: scenario 2

Idealization: *some* perfect knowledge

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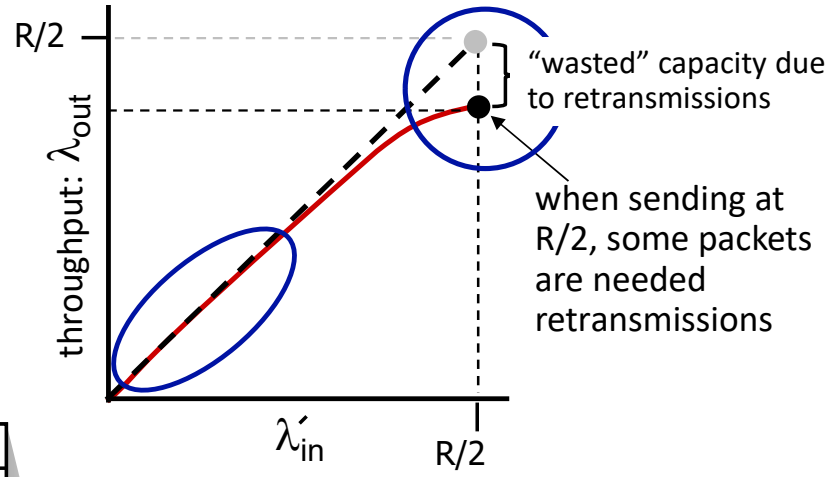
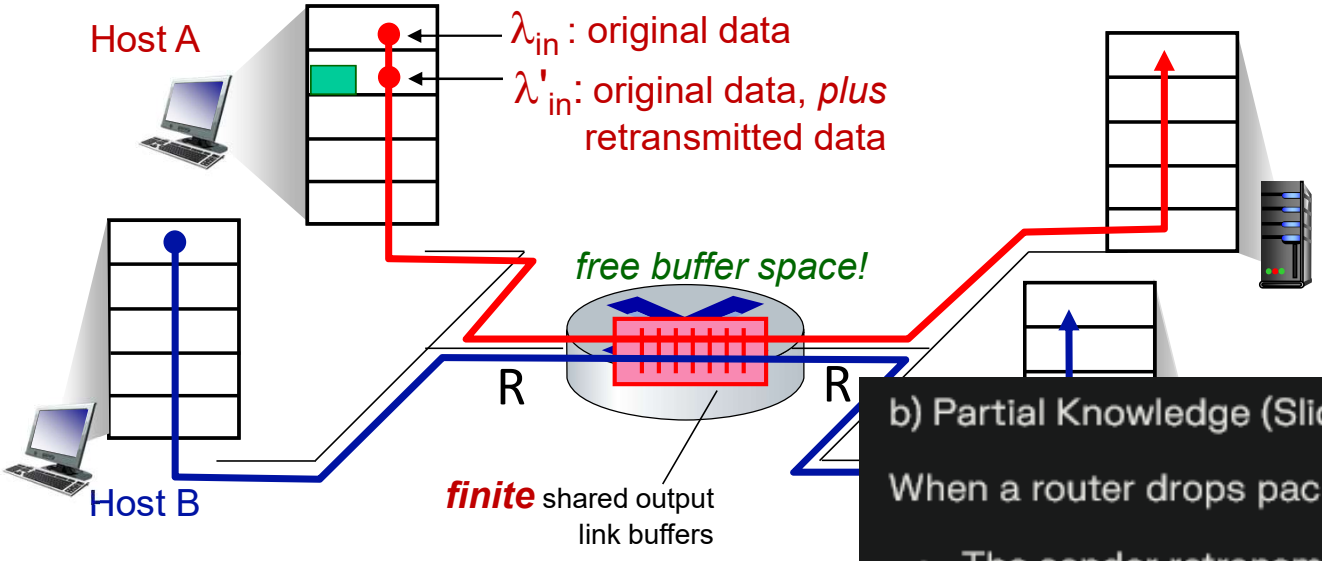




b) Partial Knowledge (Slides 3-112–3-113)

When a router drops packets because buffers overflow:

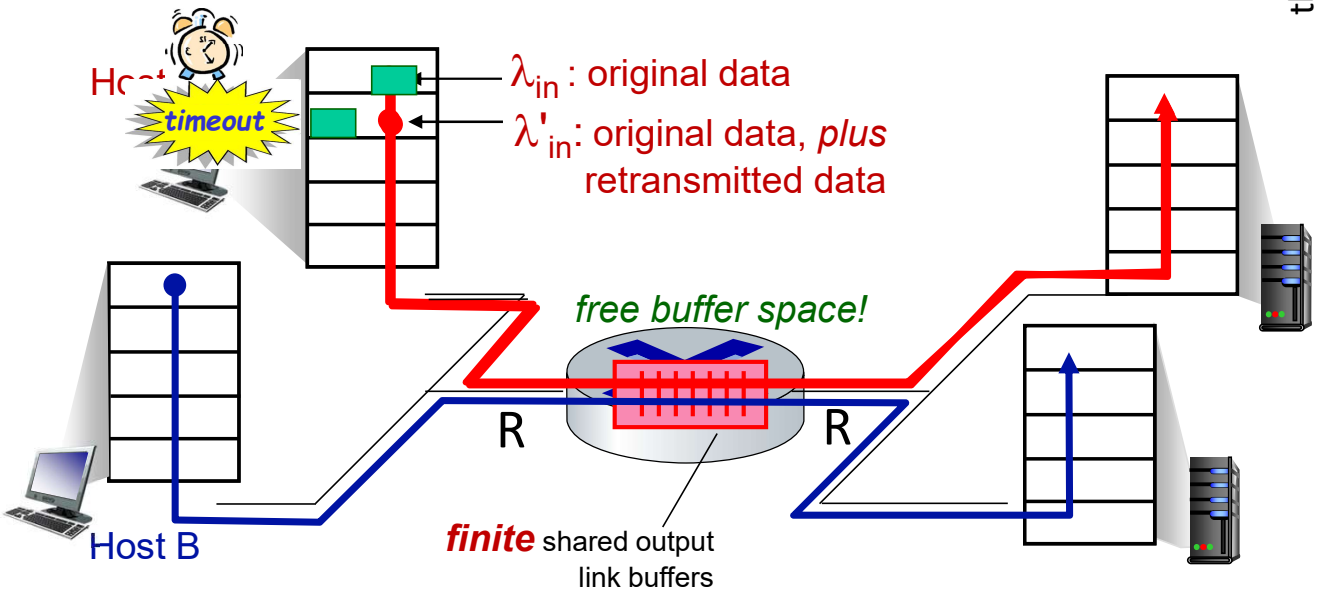
- The sender retransmits only when losses are detected.
- Effective throughput decreases due to **wasted retransmissions**.

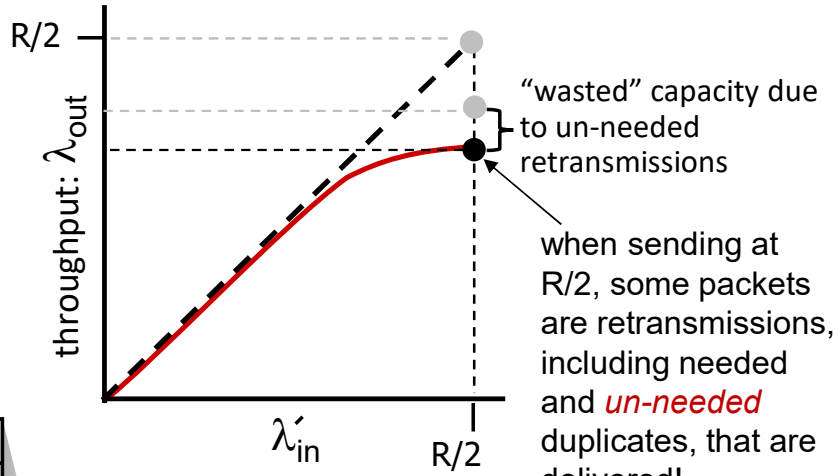
Some link capacity goes to re-sending already lost packets.

Causes/costs of congestion: scenario 2

Realistic scenario: *un-needed duplicates*

- packets can be lost, dropped at router due to full buffers – requiring retransmissions
- but sender times can time out prematurely, sending *two* copies, *both* of which are delivered

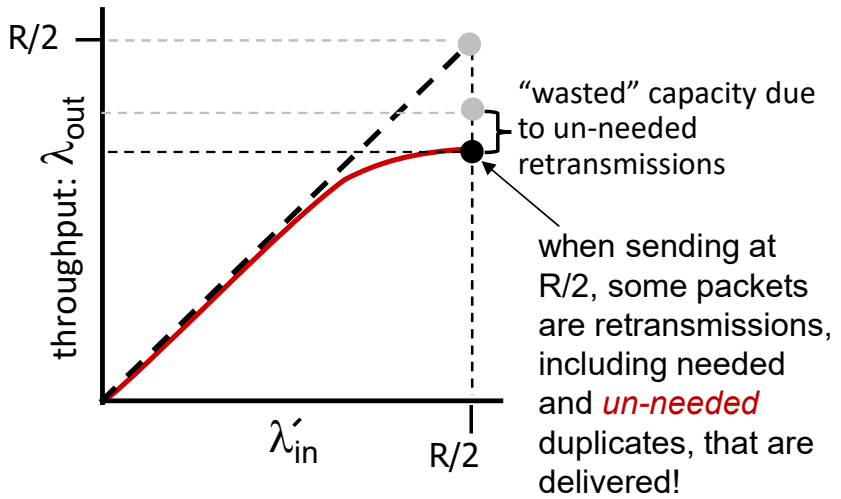




Causes/costs of congestion: scenario 2

Realistic scenario: *un-needed duplicates*

- packets can be lost, dropped at router due to full buffers – requiring retransmissions
- but sender times can time out prematurely, sending *two* copies, *both* of which are delivered



"costs" of congestion:

- more work (retransmission) for given receiver throughput
- unneeded retransmissions: link carries multiple copies of a packet
  - decreasing maximum achievable throughput

c) Realistic Scenario (Slides 3-114–3-115)

In real networks:

- Senders may resend **too early**, leading to **duplicate packets**, even if originals were only delayed.
- Both original and duplicate packets may reach the destination.
- This results in **wasted link capacity** and lowers **usable throughput**.

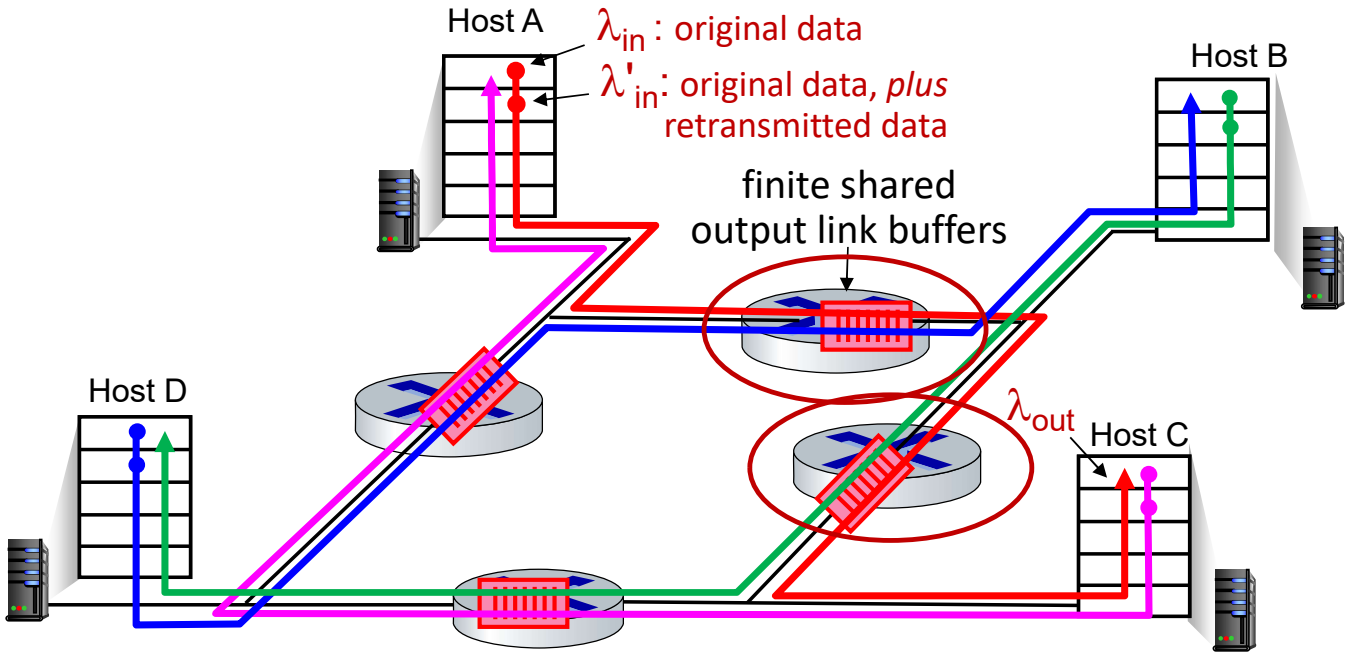
Hence, congestion leads to **waste of transmission resources** and **inefficiency**.

Causes/costs of congestion: scenario 3

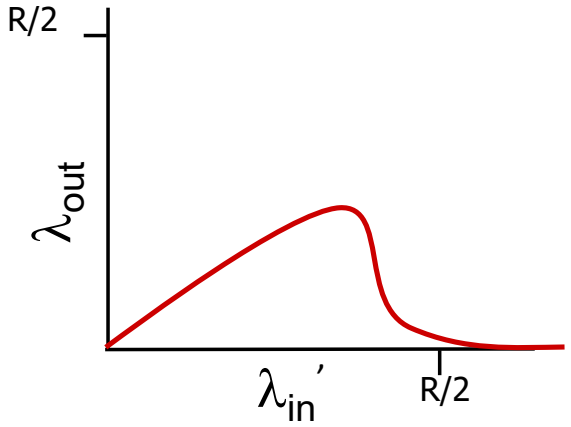
- *four* senders
- *multi-hop* paths
- timeout/retransmit

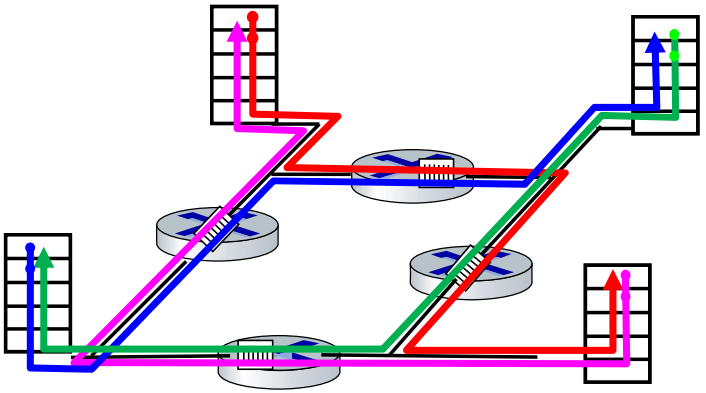
Q: what happens as λ_{in} and λ_{in}' increase ?

A: as red λ_{in}' increases, all arriving blue pkts at upper queue are dropped, blue throughput → 0



Causes/costs of congestion: scenario 3





another “cost” of congestion:

- when packet dropped, any upstream transmission capacity and buffering used for that packet was wasted!

Scenario 3: Multi-Hop Path and Multiple Senders (Slides 3-116–3-117)

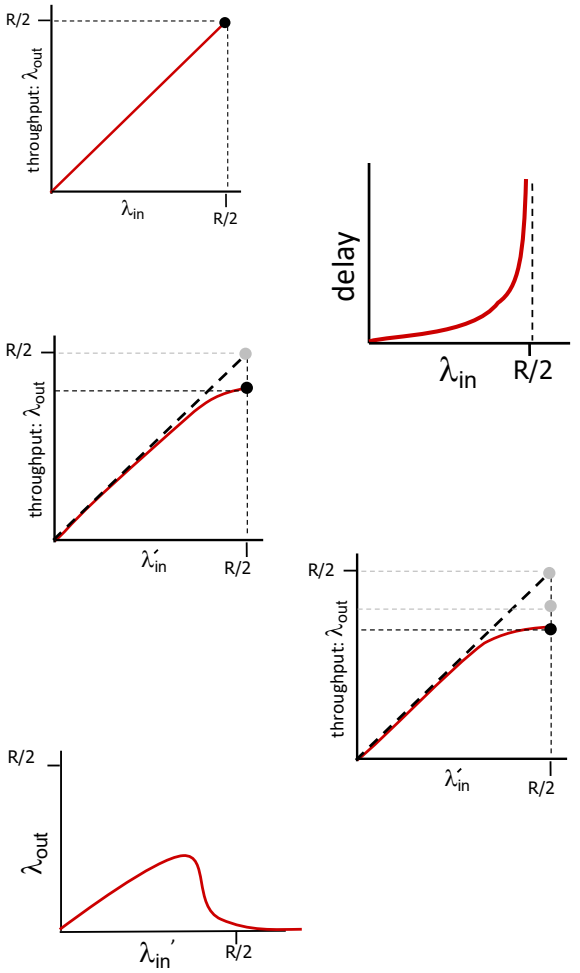
When multiple senders use multi-hop routes:

- As the offered load (total input rate) grows, **packet loss in upstream queues increases.**
- Dropping at downstream routers wastes **upstream transmission effort and buffer space,** since packets that will be dropped later already consumed resources earlier.

Key insight: **Lost packets waste resources across multiple hops**, not only where they are dropped.

Causes/costs of congestion: insights

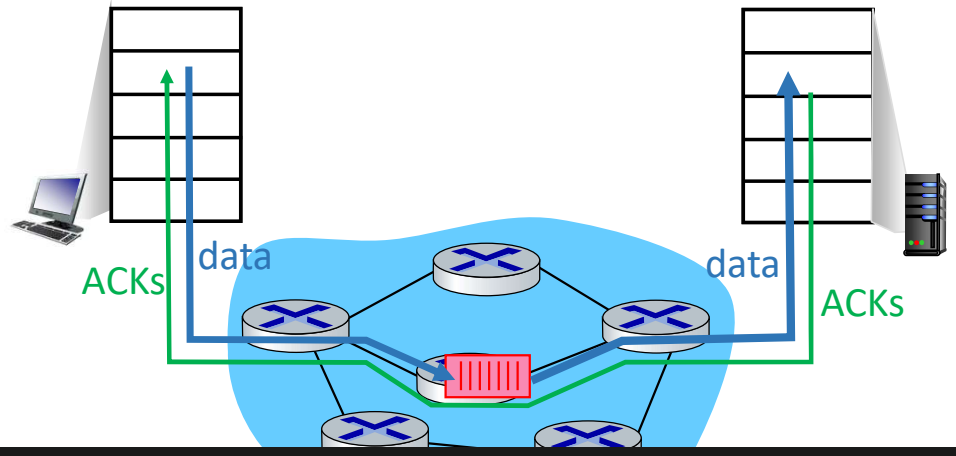
- throughput can never exceed capacity
- delay increases as capacity approached
- loss/retransmission decreases effective throughput
- un-needed duplicates further decreases effective throughput
- upstream transmission capacity / buffering wasted for packets lost downstream



Approaches towards congestion control

End-end congestion control:

- no explicit feedback from network
- congestion *inferred* from observed loss, delay
- approach taken by TCP



1. End-to-End Congestion Control (Slide 3-119)

- The **network provides no explicit feedback** to the sender.
- End systems (like TCP) **infer congestion indirectly**, by monitoring:
  - **Packet loss** (timeouts or duplicate ACKs)
  - **Increased delays** (rising RTT estimates)
- The sender then adjusts its sending rate accordingly.
  Example: **TCP's AIMD algorithm** (Additive Increase Multiplicative Decrease).

This is the **Internet's default approach**, emphasizing simplicity and scalability.

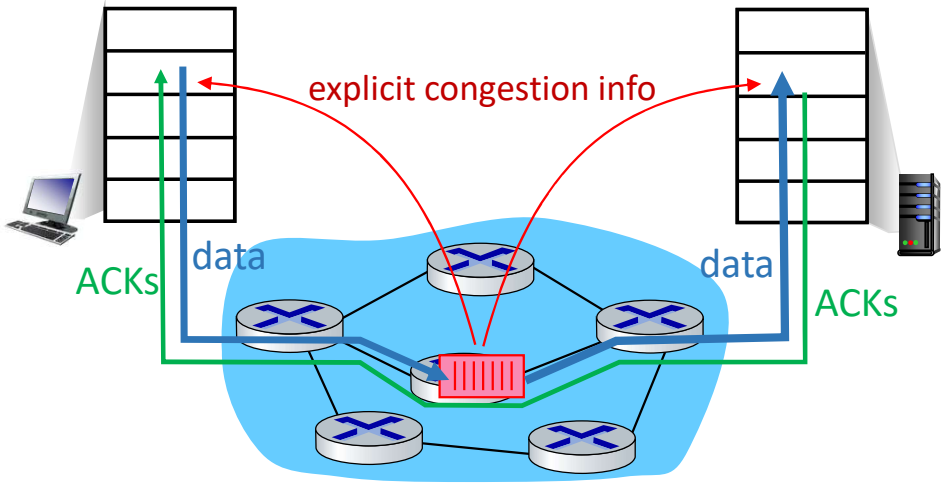
2. Network-Assisted Congestion Control (Slide 3-120)

- Routers **actively assist** by signaling congestion to end hosts.
- Feedback types:
  - **Explicit Congestion Notification (ECN)** – routers mark packets instead of dropping them.
  - **Rate-based feedback** – routers indicate an explicit maximum transmit rate (used in some ATM or DECbit systems).
- Such systems require router support, enabling **faster and more efficient adaptation** to congestion.

Approaches toward

Network-assisted congestion control:

- routers provide *direct* feedback to sending/receiving hosts with flows passing through congested router
- may indicate congestion level or explicitly set sending rate
- TCP ECN, ATM, DECbit protocols



Chapter 3: roadmap

- Transport-layer services
- Multiplexing and demultiplexing
- Connectionless transport: UDP
- Principles of reliable data transfer
- Connection-oriented transport: TCP
- Principles of congestion control
- TCP congestion control
- Evolution of transport-layer functionality

TCP congestion control: AIMD

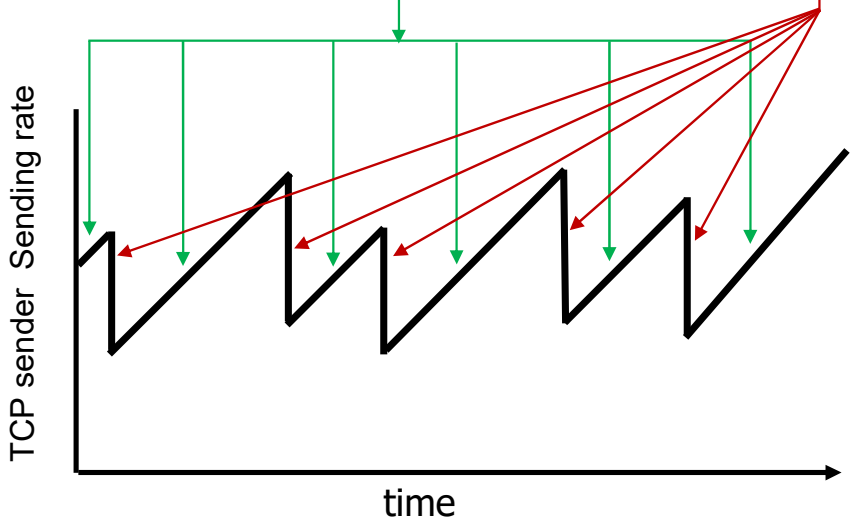
- *approach:* senders can increase sending rate until packet loss (congestion) occurs, then decrease sending rate on loss event

Additive Increase

increase sending rate by 1 maximum segment size every RTT until loss detected

Multiplicative Decrease

cut sending rate in half at each loss event



AIMD sawtooth behavior: *probing* for bandwidth

TCP AIMD: more

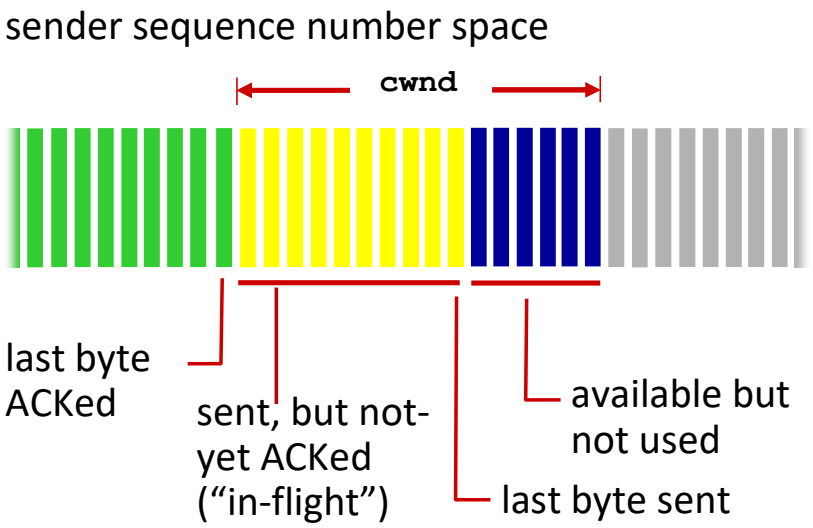
Multiplicative decrease detail: sending rate is

- Cut in half on loss detected by triple duplicate ACK (TCP Reno)
- Cut to 1 MSS (maximum segment size) when loss detected by timeout (TCP Tahoe)

Why AIMD?

- AIMD – a distributed, asynchronous algorithm – has been shown to:
  - optimize congested flow rates network wide [Kelly]!
  - have desirable stability properties

TCP congestion control: details



TCP sending behavior:

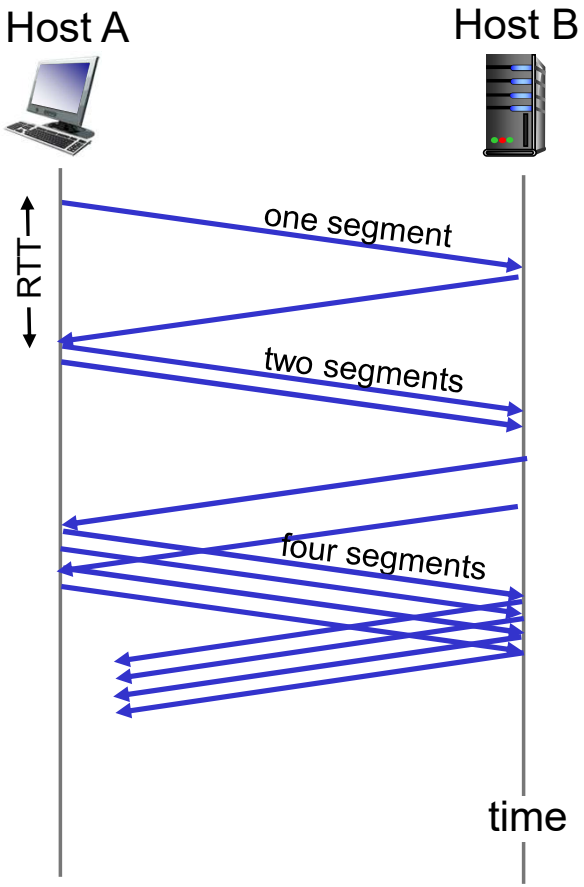
- *roughly:* send `cwnd` bytes, wait RTT for ACKS, then send more bytes

$$\text{TCP rate} \approx \frac{\texttt{cwnd}}{\text{RTT}} \text{ bytes/sec}$$

- TCP sender limits transmission: **`LastByteSent- LastByteAcked ≤ cwnd`**
- `cwnd` is dynamically adjusted in response to observed network congestion (implementing TCP congestion control)

TCP slow start

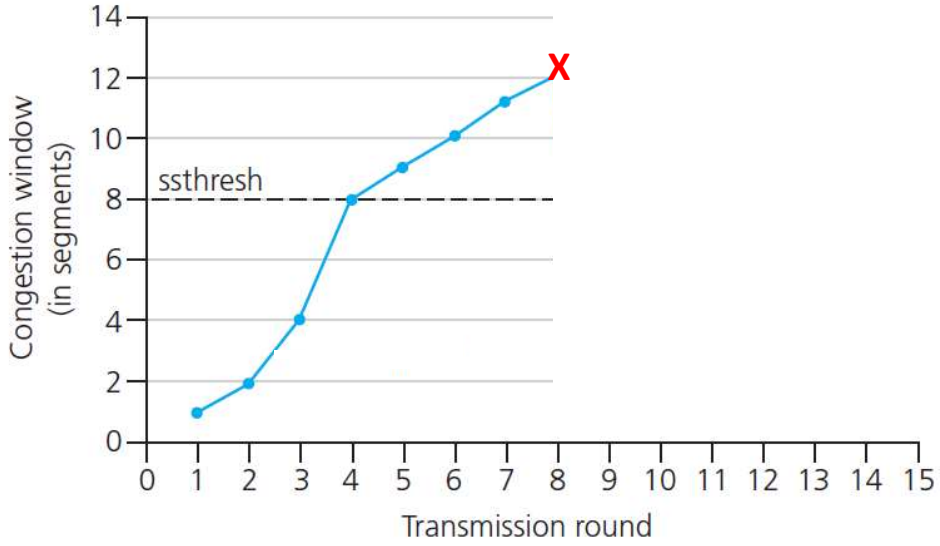
- when connection begins, increase rate exponentially until first loss event:
  - initially **`cwnd`** = 1 MSS
  - double **`cwnd`** every RTT
  - done by incrementing **`cwnd`** for every ACK received
- *summary:* initial rate is slow, but ramps up exponentially fast



TCP: from slow start to congestion avoidance

Q: when should the exponential increase switch to linear?

A: when **`cwnd`** gets to 1/2 of its value before timeout.



Implementation:

Question: When should TCP stop exponential growth and switch to linear growth?

Answer:

When `cwnd` reaches a threshold value called `ssthresh` (slow start threshold).

Implementation:

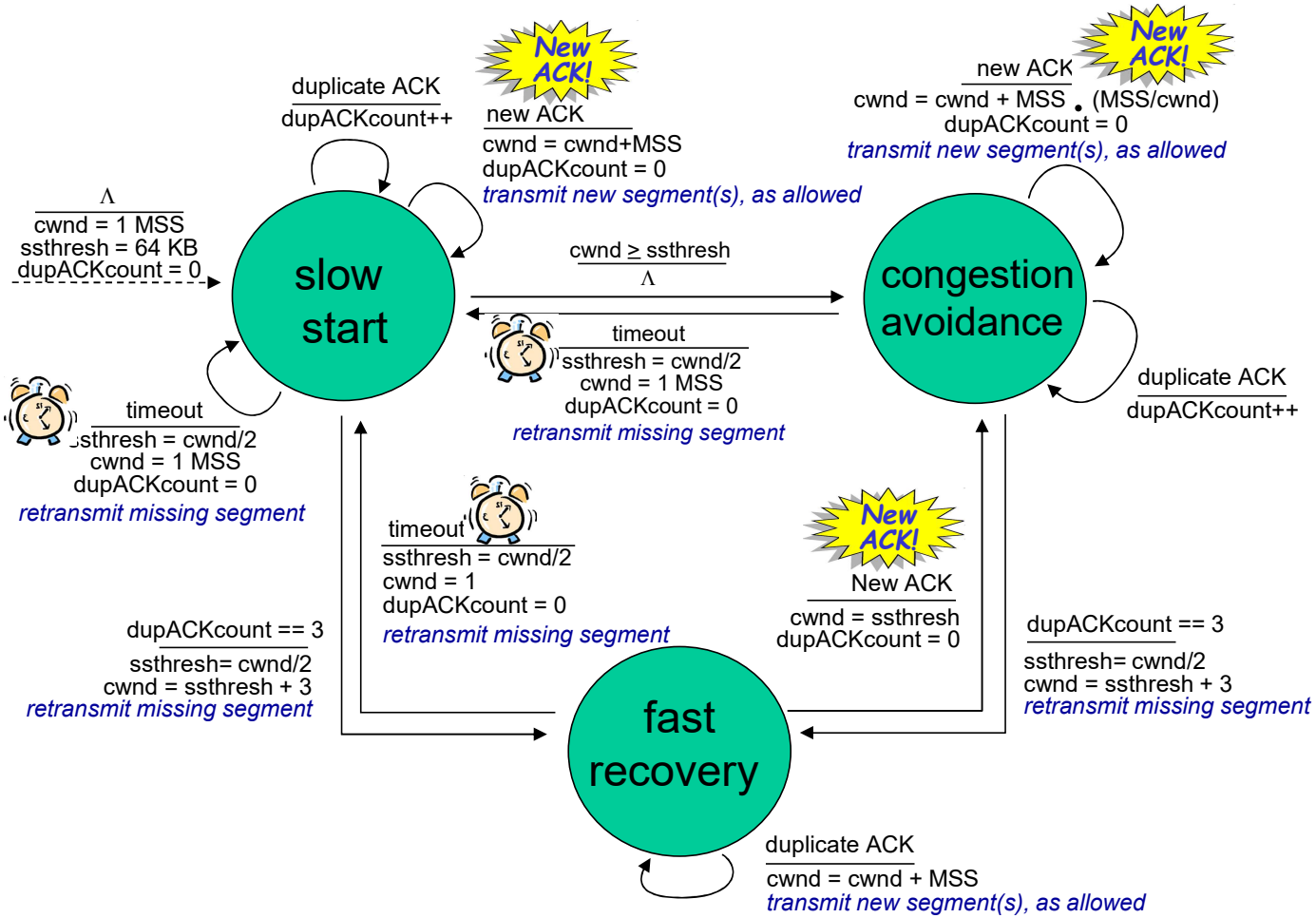
- `ssthresh` is set to **½ of cwnd** just before loss event.
- After cwnd ≥ ssthresh → TCP switches to **Additive Increase** (linear growth).

Formula:

```ini
ssthresh = cwnd / 2  (after loss)
```

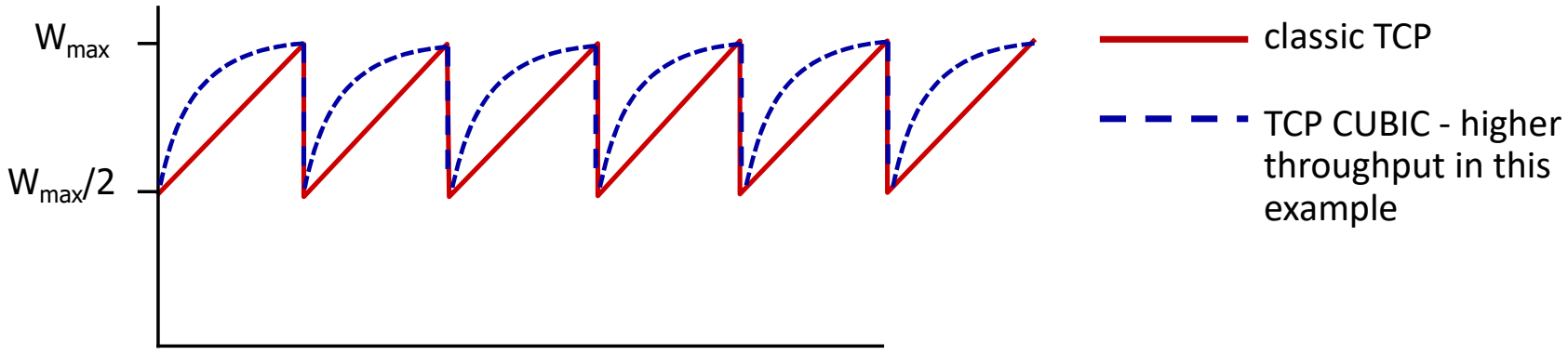
ples: http://gaia.cs.umass.edu/kurose_ross/interactive/

Summary: TCP congestion control



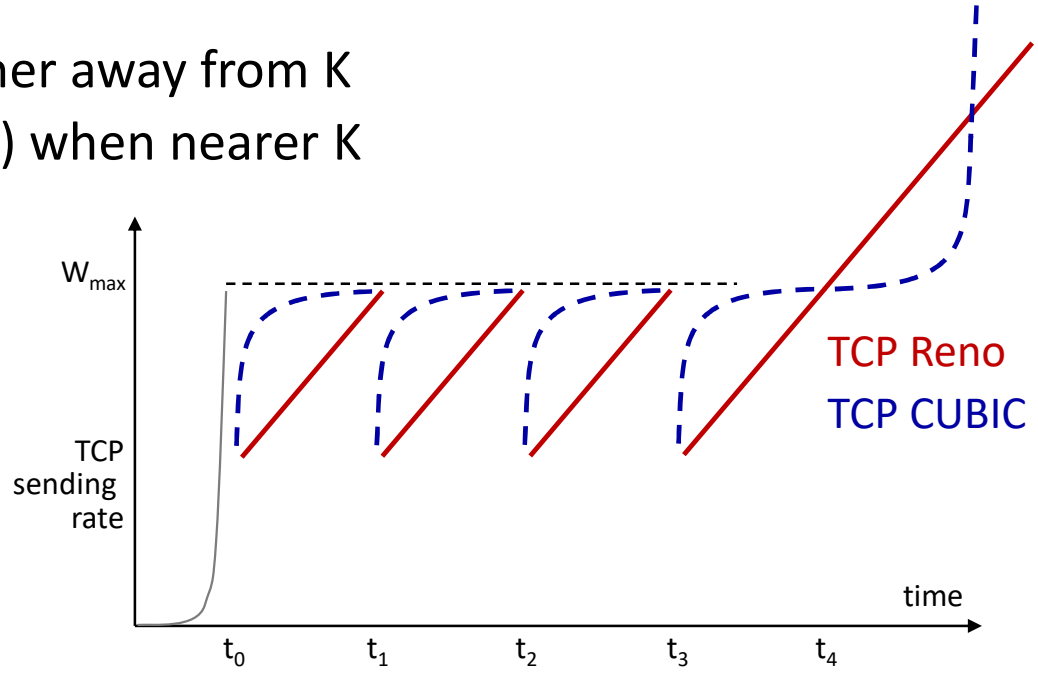
TCP CUBIC

- Is there a better way than AIMD to "probe" for usable bandwidth?
- Insight/intuition:
  - W_{max}: sending rate at which congestion loss was detected
  - congestion state of bottleneck link probably (?) hasn't changed much
  - after cutting rate/window in half on loss, initially ramp to to W_{max} *faster*, but then approach W_{max} more *slowly*



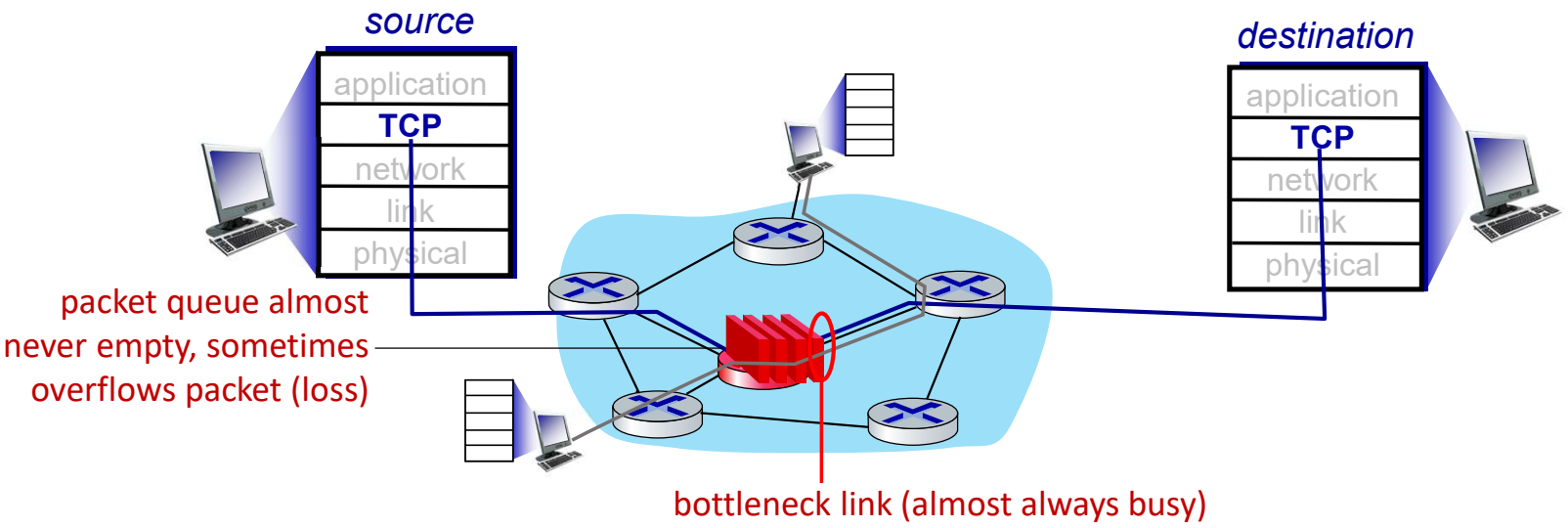
TCP CUBIC

- K: point in time when TCP window size will reach W_{max}
  - K itself is tunable
- increase W as a function of the *cube* of the distance between current time and K
  - larger increases when further away from K
  - smaller increases (cautious) when nearer K
- TCP CUBIC default in Linux, most popular TCP for popular Web servers (until ~2024)



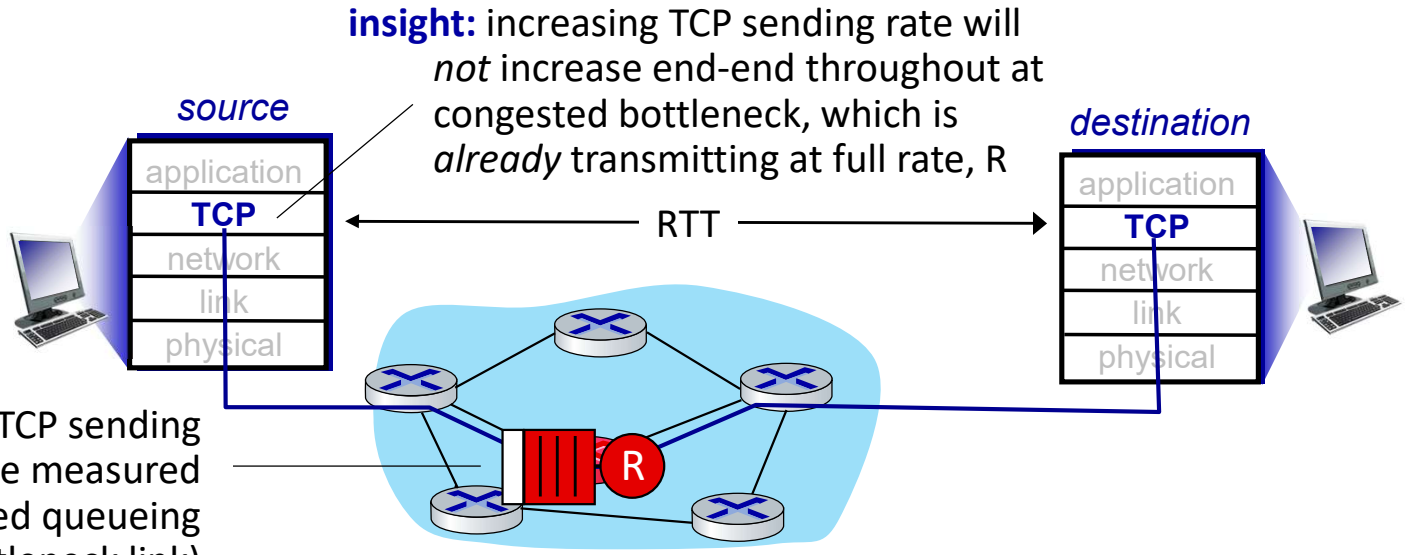
TCP and the congested "bottleneck link"

- TCP (classic, CUBIC) increase TCP's sending rate until packet loss occurs at some router's output: the *bottleneck link*



TCP and the congested "bottleneck link"

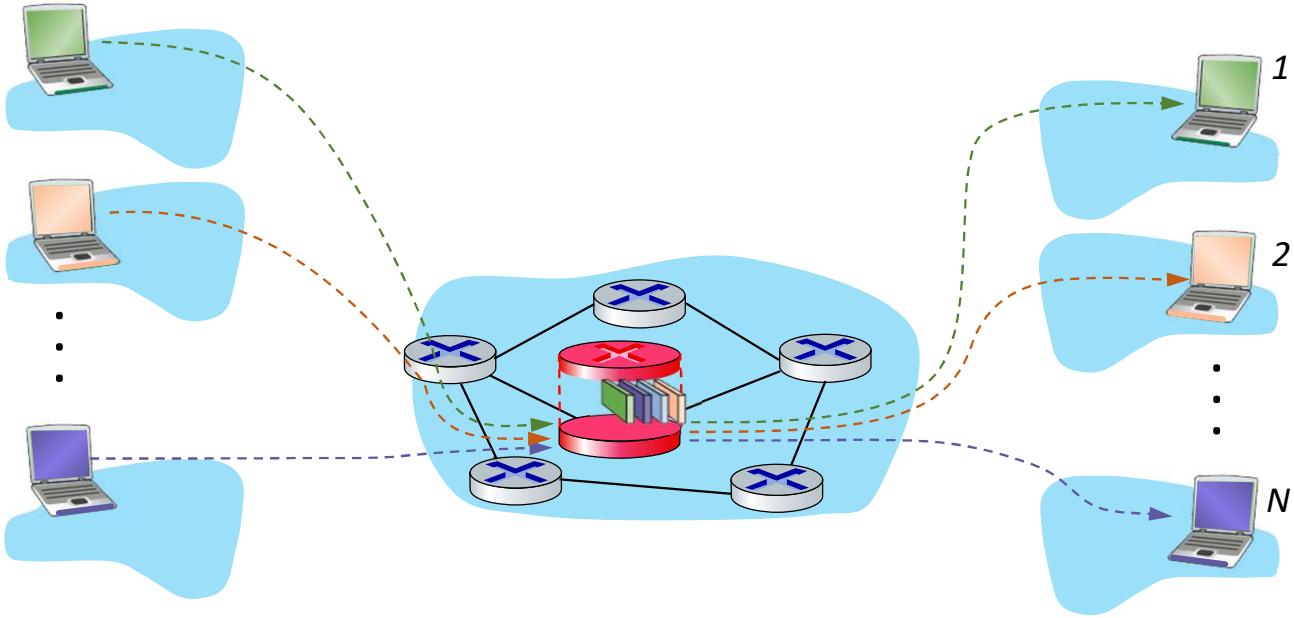
- TCP (classic, CUBIC) increase TCP's sending rate until packet loss occurs at some router's output: the *bottleneck link*
- understanding congestion: useful to focus on congested bottleneck link



Goal: *"keep the end-end pipe just full, but not fuller"*

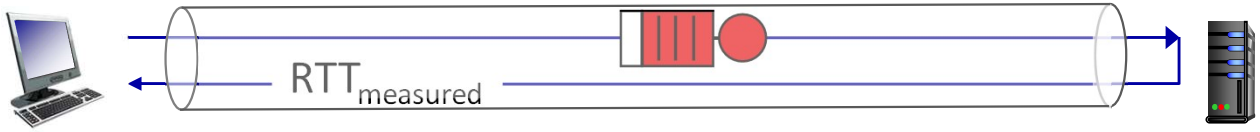
TCP and the congested "bottleneck link"

- multiple flows collectively congest bottleneck link:
  - each their executing own TCP congestion control
  - each of *N* flows should ideally receive throughput of *R/N*



Keeping the pipe just full enough

Keeping pipe "just full enough, but no fuller": keep bottleneck link busy transmitting, but avoid high delays/buffering

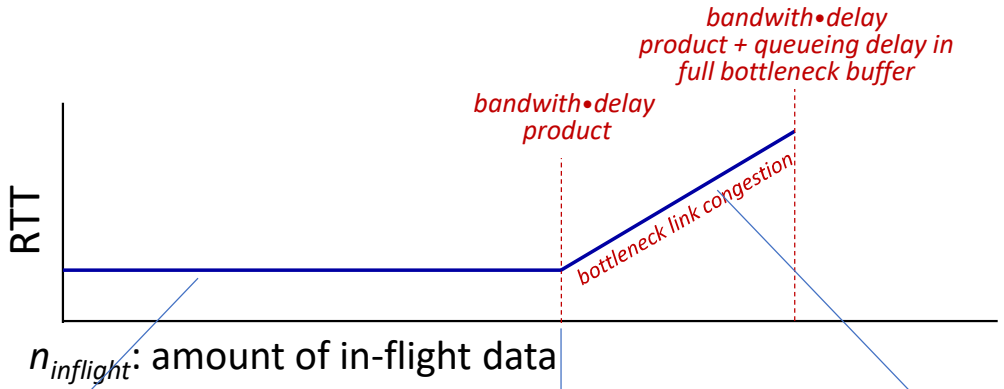


$$\text{measured throughput} = \frac{\text{\# bytes sent (inflight) in RTT interval}}{\text{RTT}}$$

Intuition:

$$\underbrace{\text{ideal amount of inflight data for a connection}}_{n_{inflight}} = \underbrace{\textit{connection's share of bottleneck\_bandwidth} \bullet \textit{min\_RTT}}_{\text{connection's ``}\textit{bandwidth-delay product}\text{''}}$$

Keeping the pipe just full, but no fuller



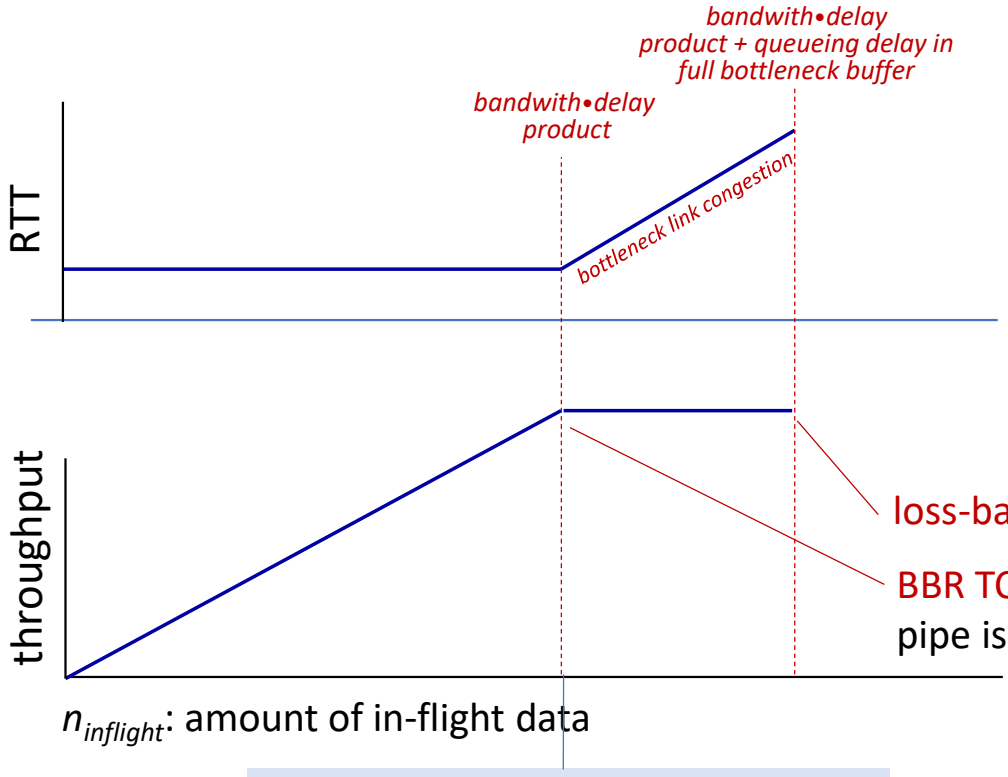
increasing $n_{inflight}$ in this region will not increase RTT, since arrival rate of packet data to queue is less that transmission rate

Here, arrival rate of packet data to bottleneck link is equals link transmission rate

Increasing $n_{inflight}$ in this region increases RTT since arrival rate of packet data to bottleneck link exceeds link transmission rate

- **Below BDP**: pipe isn't full ⇒ increasing in-flight raises throughput without increasing RTT.
- **At BDP:** pipe is *just* full ⇒ best point (max throughput, low delay).
- **Above BDP**: extra packets **sit in the bottleneck queue ⇒ RTT rises** (bufferbloat), and loss happens if the queue overflows.

Keeping the pipe just full, but no fuller



- **RTT vs in-flight:** flat until BDP, then climbs as queuing delay appears.
- **Throughput vs in-flight:** rises linearly until BDP, then **no gain** (you're limited by R), while RTT worsens.

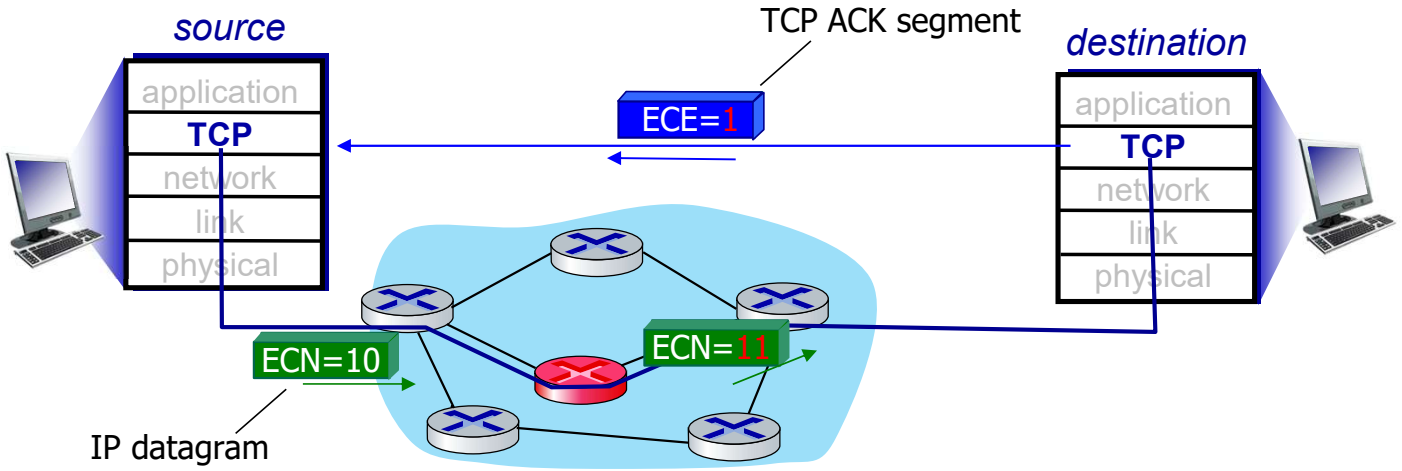
BBR (Bottleneck Bandwidth and RTT)

- regulates $n_{inflight}$
- at longer time intervals:
  - reduces $n_{inflight}$ to drain pipe, measure new *min_RTT*
- at shorter time intervals:
  - *acceleration:* increases sending rate, $n_{inflight}$, until reaches throughput plateau, (saturating available per-flow link capacity)
  - *cruising:* sends at the rate that network is delivering data, as evidenced through received ACKs.
  - *deceleration:* purposefully reduces $n_{inflight}$, decreasing queue pressure, looking for lower *min_RTT*

Explicit congestion notification (ECN)

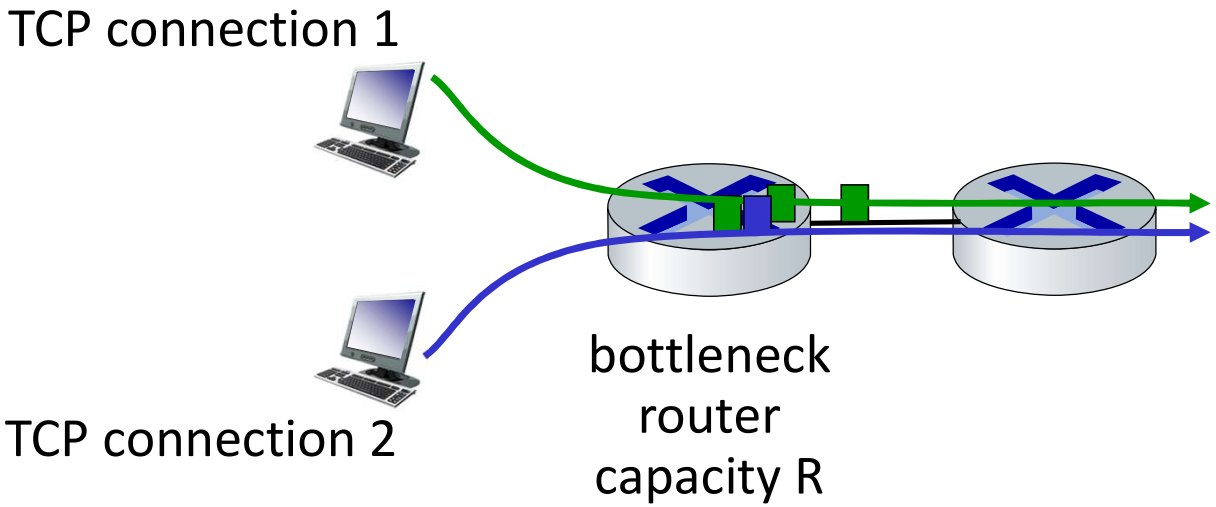
TCP deployments often implement *network-assisted* congestion control:

- two bits in IP header (ToS field) marked *by network router* to indicate congestion
  - *policy* to determine marking chosen by network operator
- congestion indication carried to destination
- destination sets ECE bit on ACK segment to notify sender of congestion
- involves both IP (IP header ECN bit marking) and TCP (TCP header C,E bit marking)



TCP fairness

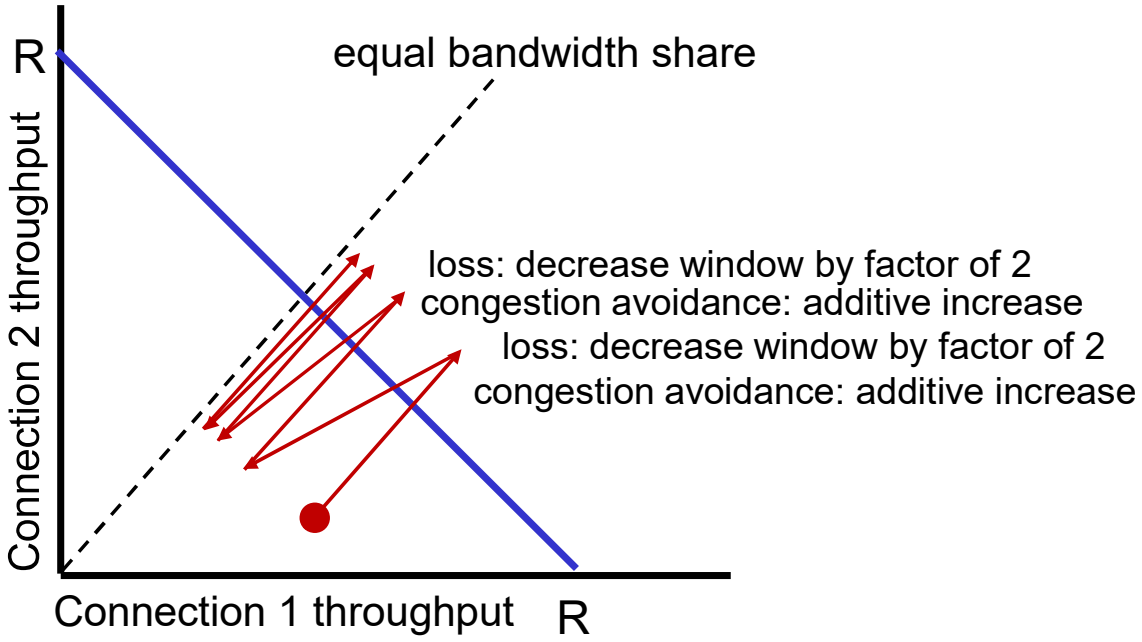
Fairness goal: if *K* TCP sessions share same bottleneck link of bandwidth *R*, each should have average rate of *R/K*



Q: is TCP Fair?

Example: two competing TCP sessions:

- additive increase gives slope of 1, as throughout increases
- multiplicative decrease decreases throughput proportionally



Is TCP fair?

A: Yes, under idealized assumptions:

- same RTT
- fixed number of sessions only in congestion avoidance

Fairness: must all network apps be “fair”?

Fairness and UDP

- multimedia apps often do not use TCP
  - do not want rate throttled by congestion control
- instead use UDP:
  - send audio/video at constant rate, tolerate packet loss
- there is no “Internet police” policing use of congestion control

Fairness, parallel TCP connections

- application can open *multiple* parallel connections between two hosts
- web browsers do this , e.g., link of rate R with 9 existing connections:
  - new app asks for 1 TCP, gets rate R/10
  - new app asks for 11 TCPs, gets R/2

Transport layer: roadmap

- Transport-layer services
- Multiplexing and demultiplexing
- Connectionless transport: UDP
- Principles of reliable data transfer
- Connection-oriented transport: TCP
- Principles of congestion control
- TCP congestion control
- Evolution of transport-layer functionality

Evolving transport-layer functionality

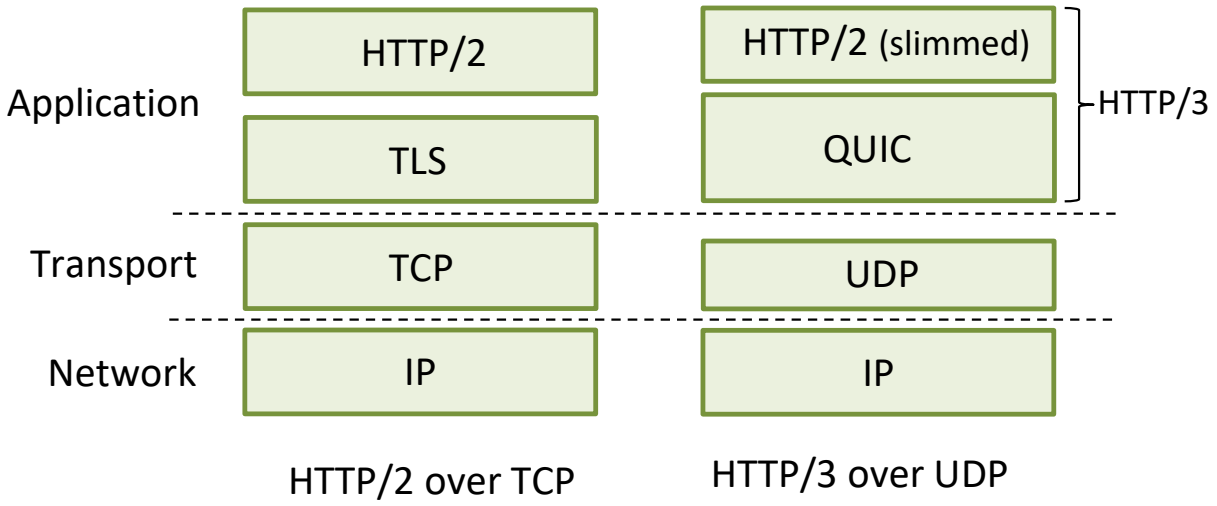
- TCP, UDP: principal transport protocols for 40 years
- different "flavors" of TCP developed, for specific scenarios:

Scenario	Challenges
Long, fat pipes (large data transfers)	Many packets "in flight"; loss shuts down pipeline
Wireless networks	Loss due to noisy wireless links, mobility; TCP treat this as congestion loss
Long-delay links	Extremely long RTTs
Data center networks	Latency sensitive
Background traffic flows	Low priority, "background" TCP flows

- moving transport–layer functions to application layer, on top of UDP
  - HTTP/3: QUIC

QUIC: Quick UDP Internet Connections

- application-layer protocol, on top of UDP
  - increase performance of HTTP
  - deployed on many Google servers, apps (Chrome, mobile YouTube app)



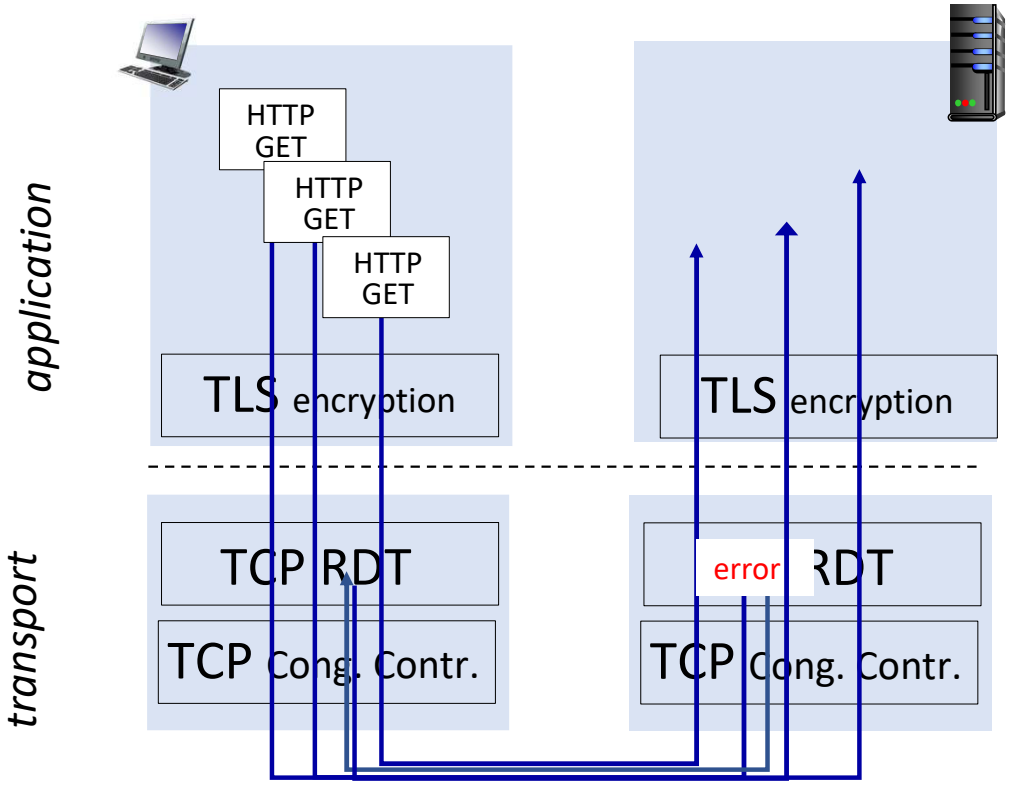
QUIC: Quick UDP Internet Connections

adopts approaches we've studied in this chapter for connection establishment, error control, congestion control

- **error and congestion control:** "Readers familiar with TCP's loss detection and congestion control will find algorithms here that parallel well-known TCP ones." [from QUIC specification]
- **connection establishment:** reliability, congestion control, authentication, encryption, state established in one (or even zero) RTT (recall HTTP3 discussion in Chapter 2)

- multiple application-level "streams" multiplexed over single QUIC connection
  - separate reliable data transfer, security
  - common congestion control

QUIC: streams: parallelism, no HOL blocking



(a) HTTP 1.1

Chapter 3: summary

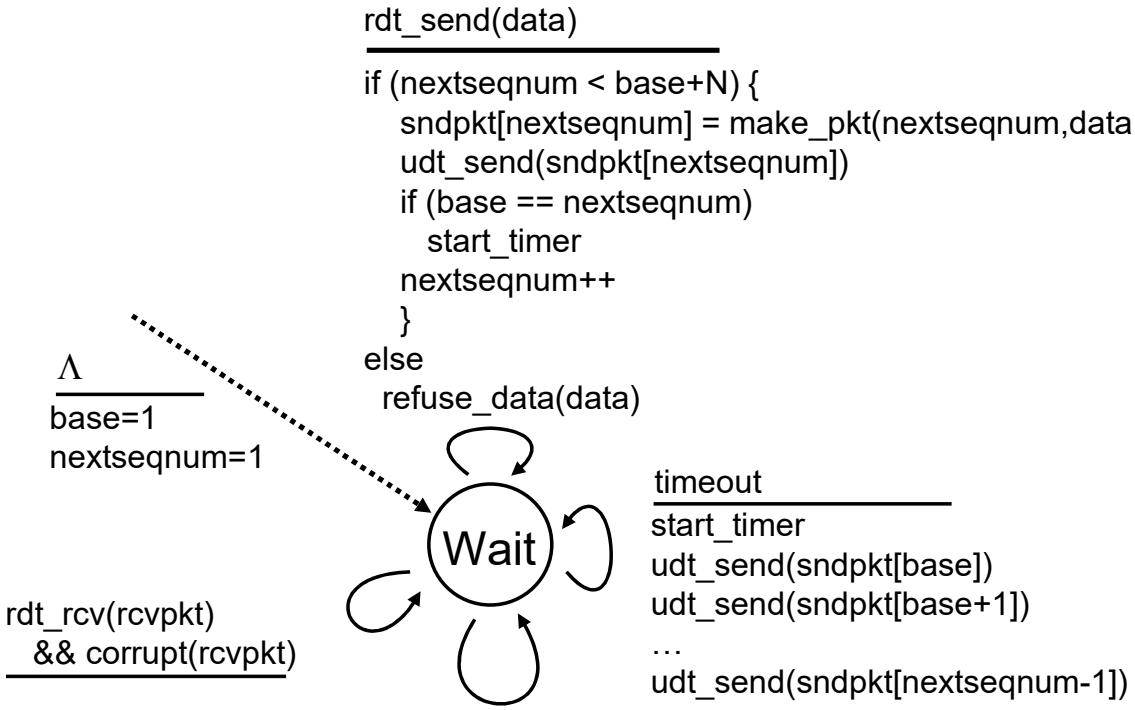
- principles behind transport layer services:
  - multiplexing, demultiplexing
  - reliable data transfer
  - flow control
  - congestion control
- instantiation, implementation in the Internet
  - UDP
  - TCP

Up next:

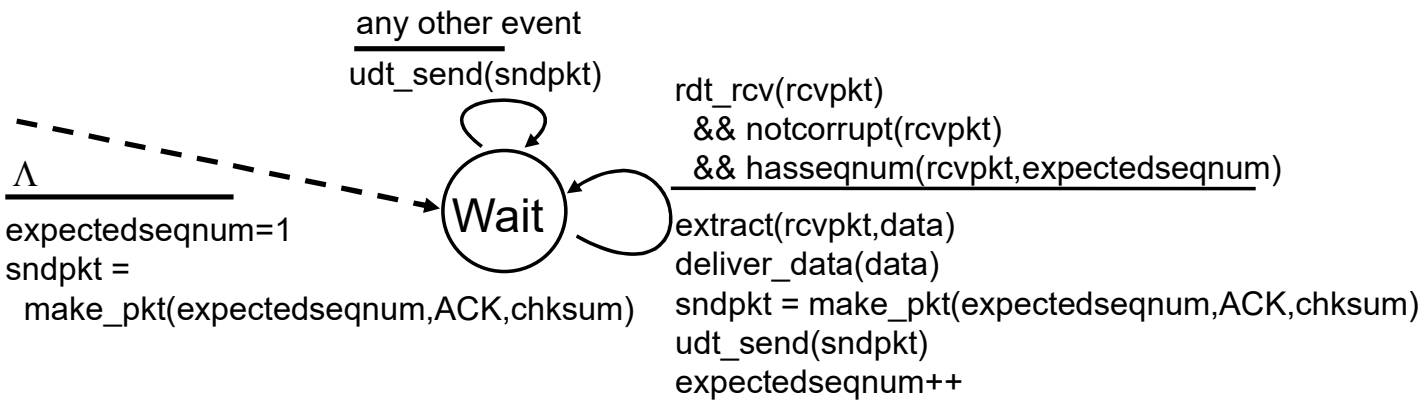
- leaving the network "edge" (application, transport layers)
- into the network "core"
- two network-layer chapters:
  - data plane
  - control plane

Additional Chapter 3 slides

Go-Back-N: sender extended FSM



Go-Back-N: receiver extended FSM

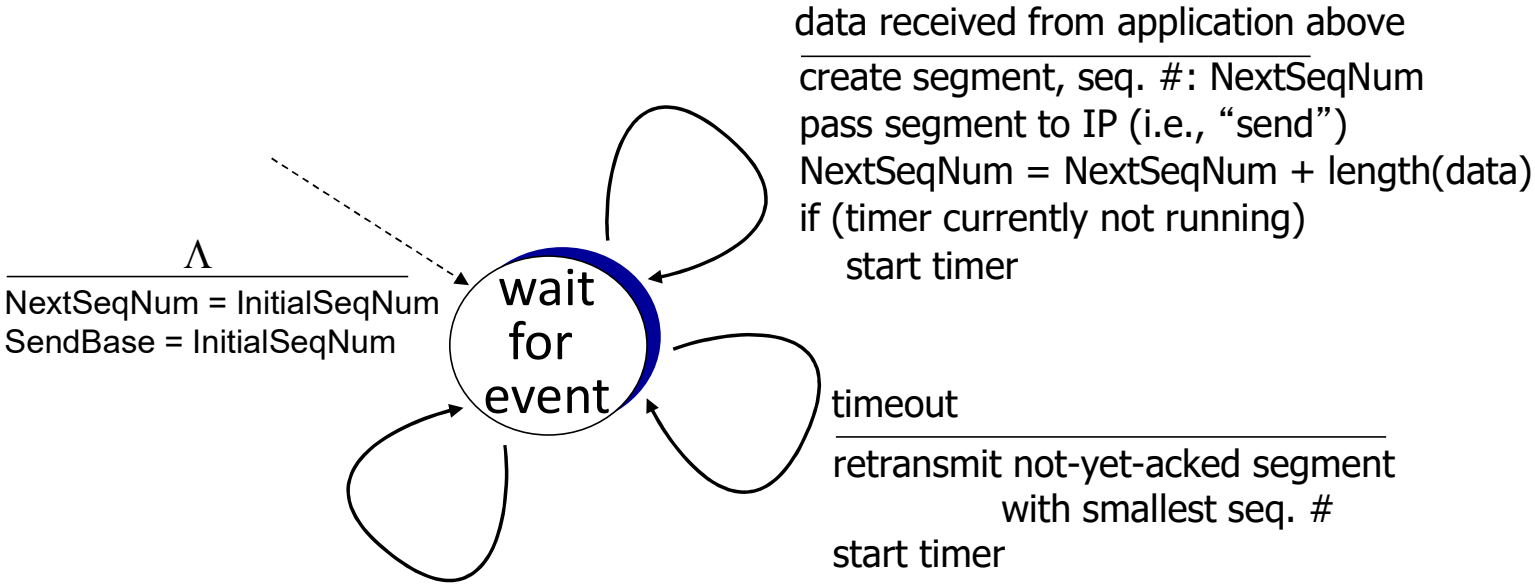


ACK-only: always send ACK for correctly-received packet with highest *in-order* seq #

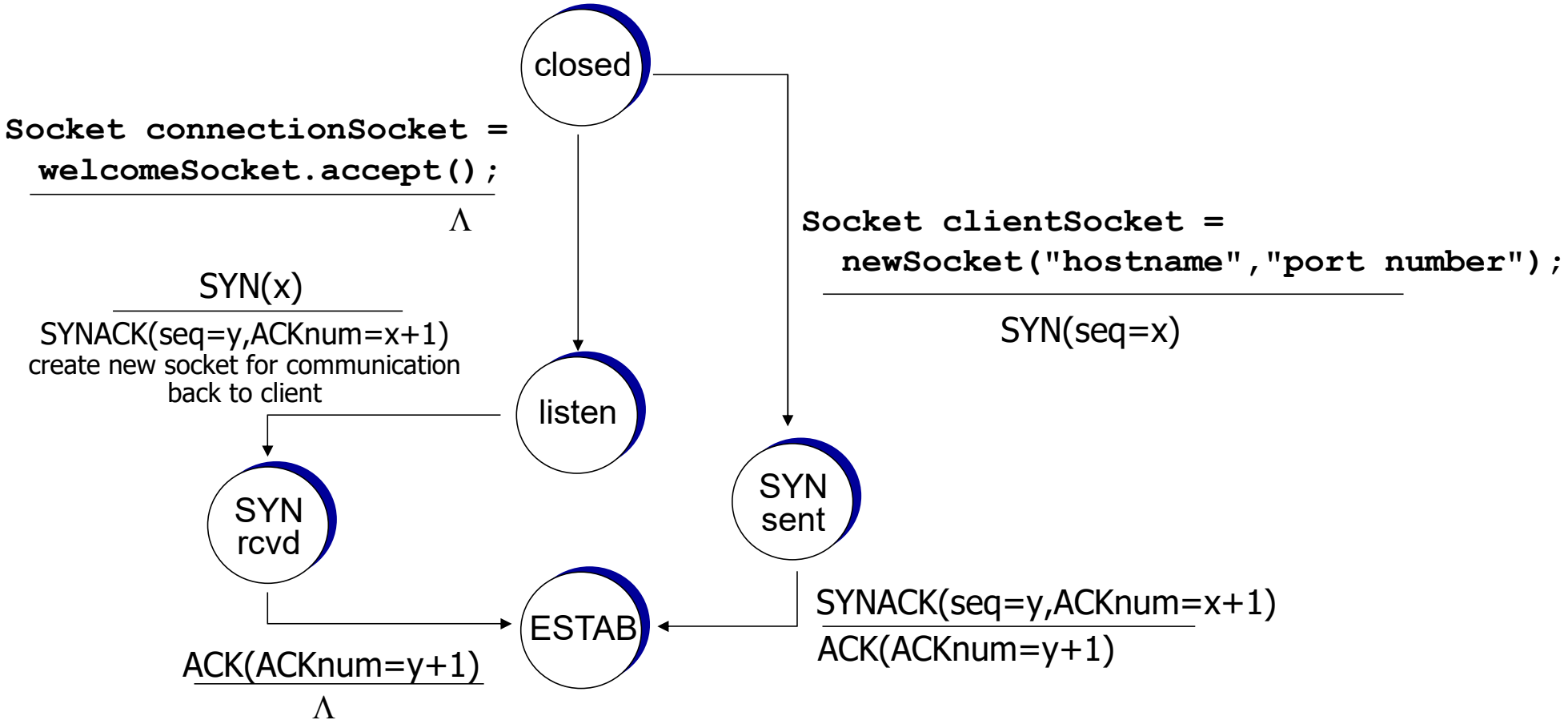
- may generate duplicate ACKs
- need only remember **`expectedseqnum`**

- out-of-order packet:
  - discard (don't buffer): *no receiver buffering!*
  - re-ACK pkt with highest in-order seq #

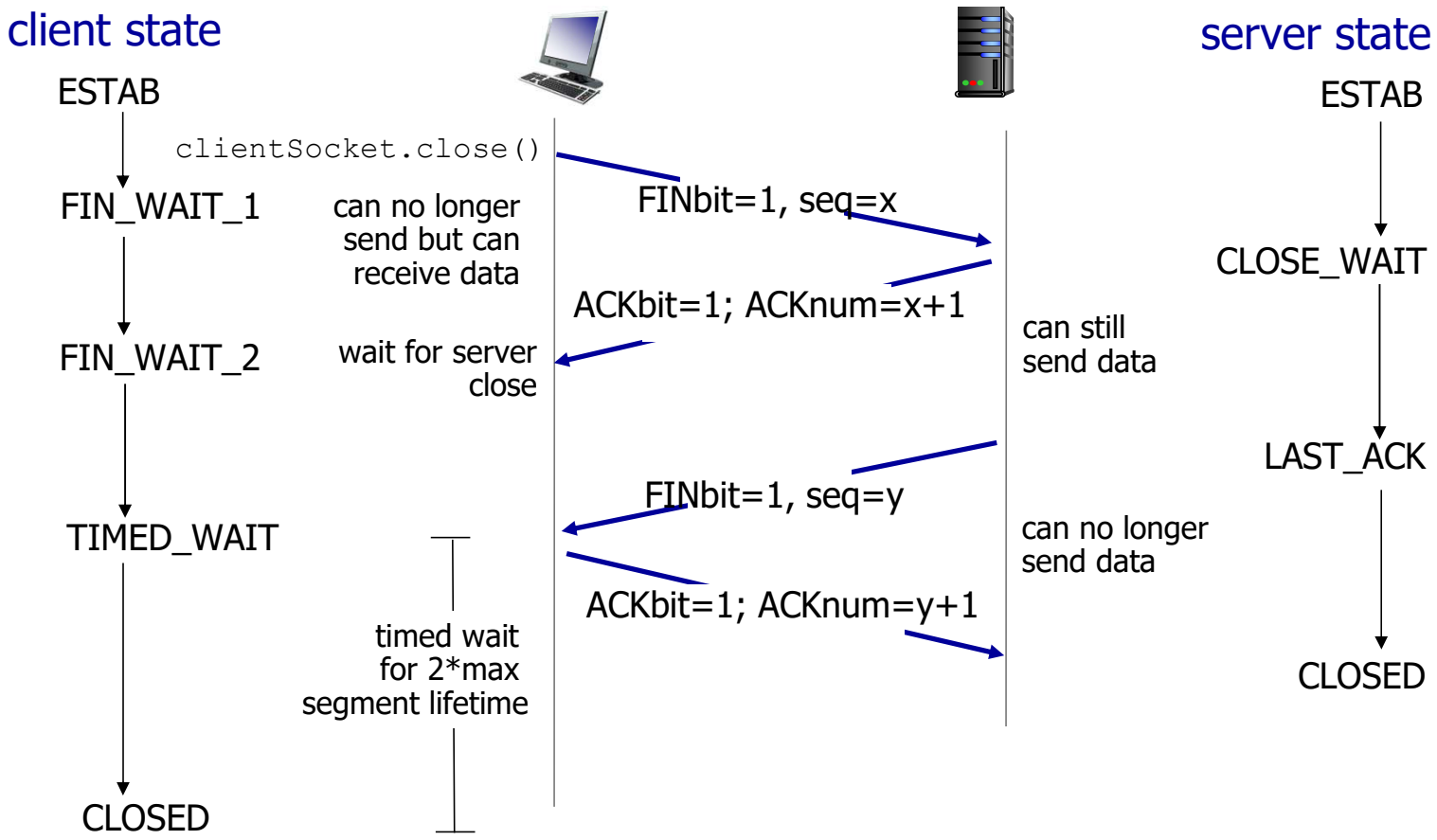
TCP sender (simplified)



TCP 3-way handshake FSM



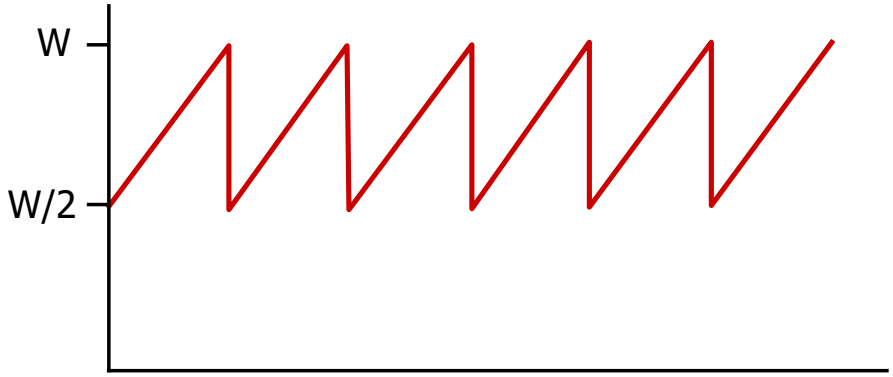
Closing a TCP connection



TCP throughput

- avg. TCP thruput as function of window size, RTT?
  - ignore slow start, assume there is always data to send
- W: window size (measured in bytes) where loss occurs
  - avg. window size (# in-flight bytes) is ¾ W
  - avg. thruput is 3/4W per RTT

$$\text{avg TCP thruput} = \frac{3}{4}\frac{W}{RTT} \text{ bytes/sec}$$



TCP over "long, fat pipes"

- example: 1500 byte segments, 100ms RTT, want 10 Gbps throughput
- requires W = 83,333 in-flight segments
- throughput in terms of segment loss probability, L [Mathis 1997]:

$$\text{TCP throughput} = \frac{1.22 \cdot \text{MSS}}{\text{RTT}\sqrt{L}}$$

➜ to achieve 10 Gbps throughput, need a loss rate of $L = 2 \cdot 10^{-10}$ – *a very small loss rate!*

- versions of TCP for long, high-speed scenarios