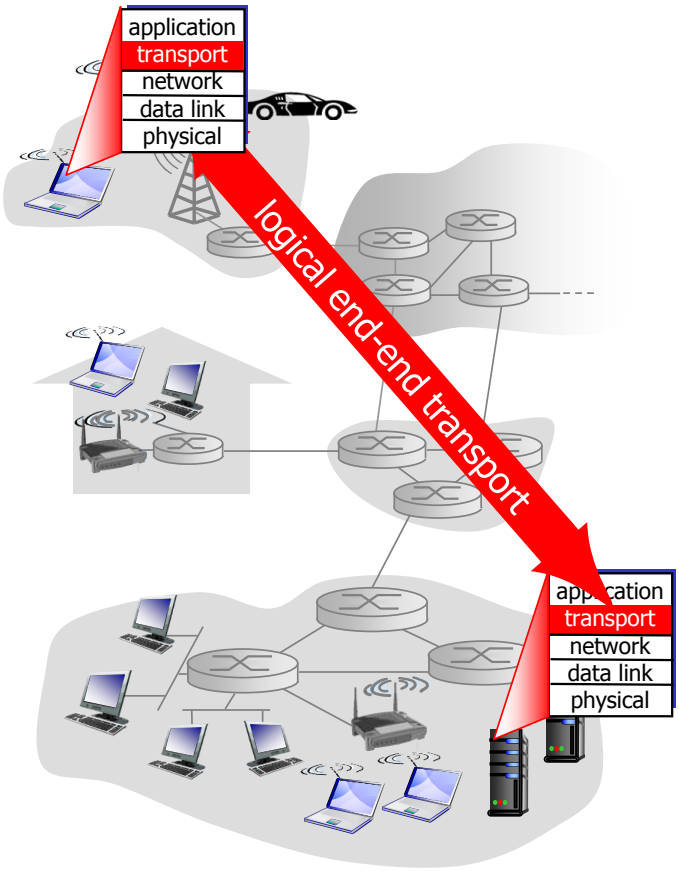
Transport services and protocols

- 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



Transport vs. network layer

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

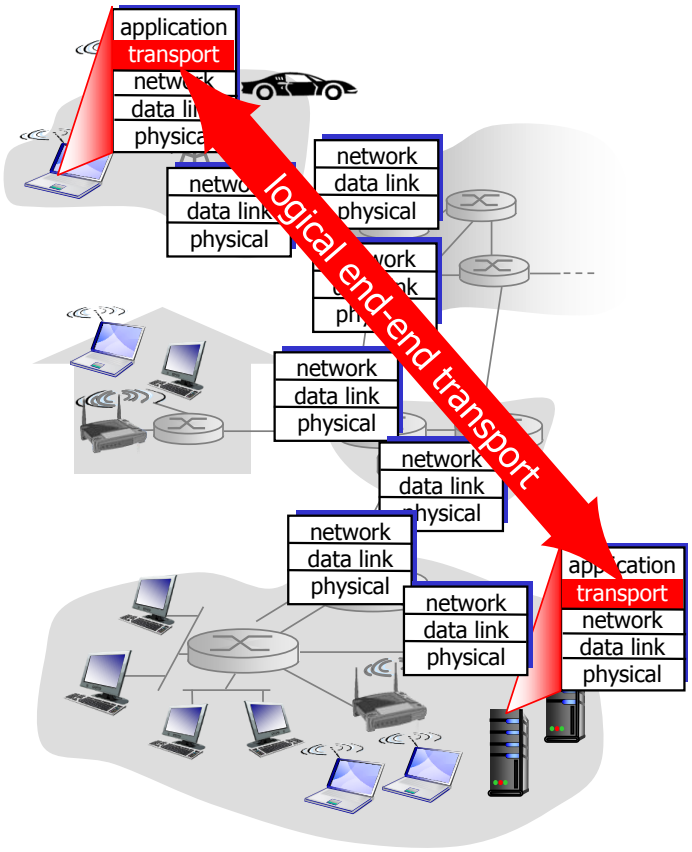
household analogy:

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

Internet transport-layer protocols

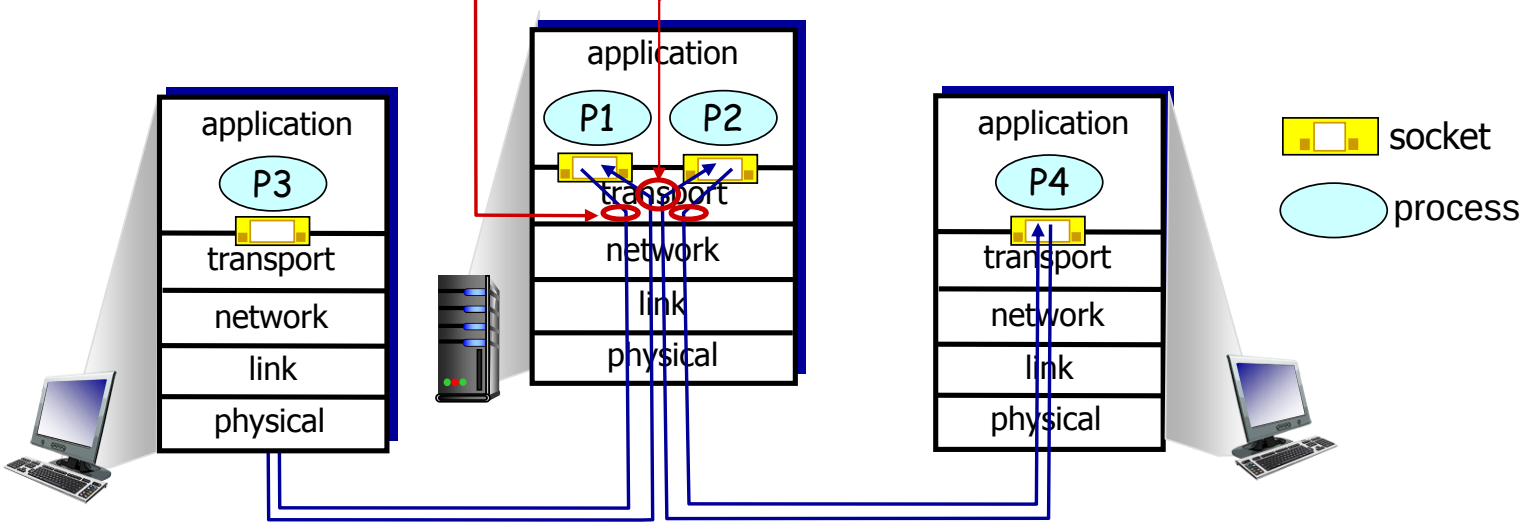
- reliable, in-order delivery (TCP)
  - congestion control
  - flow control
  - connection setup
- unreliable, unordered delivery: UDP
  - no-frills extension of "best-effort" IP
- services not available:
  - delay guarantees
  - bandwidth guarantees



Multiplexing/demultiplexing

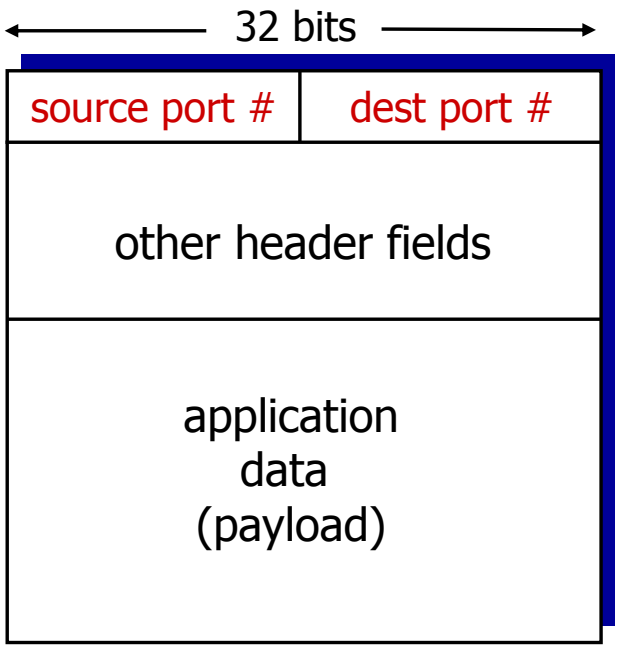
multiplexing at sender:
handle data from multiple sockets, add transport header (later used for demultiplexing)

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



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:* created socket has host-local port #:

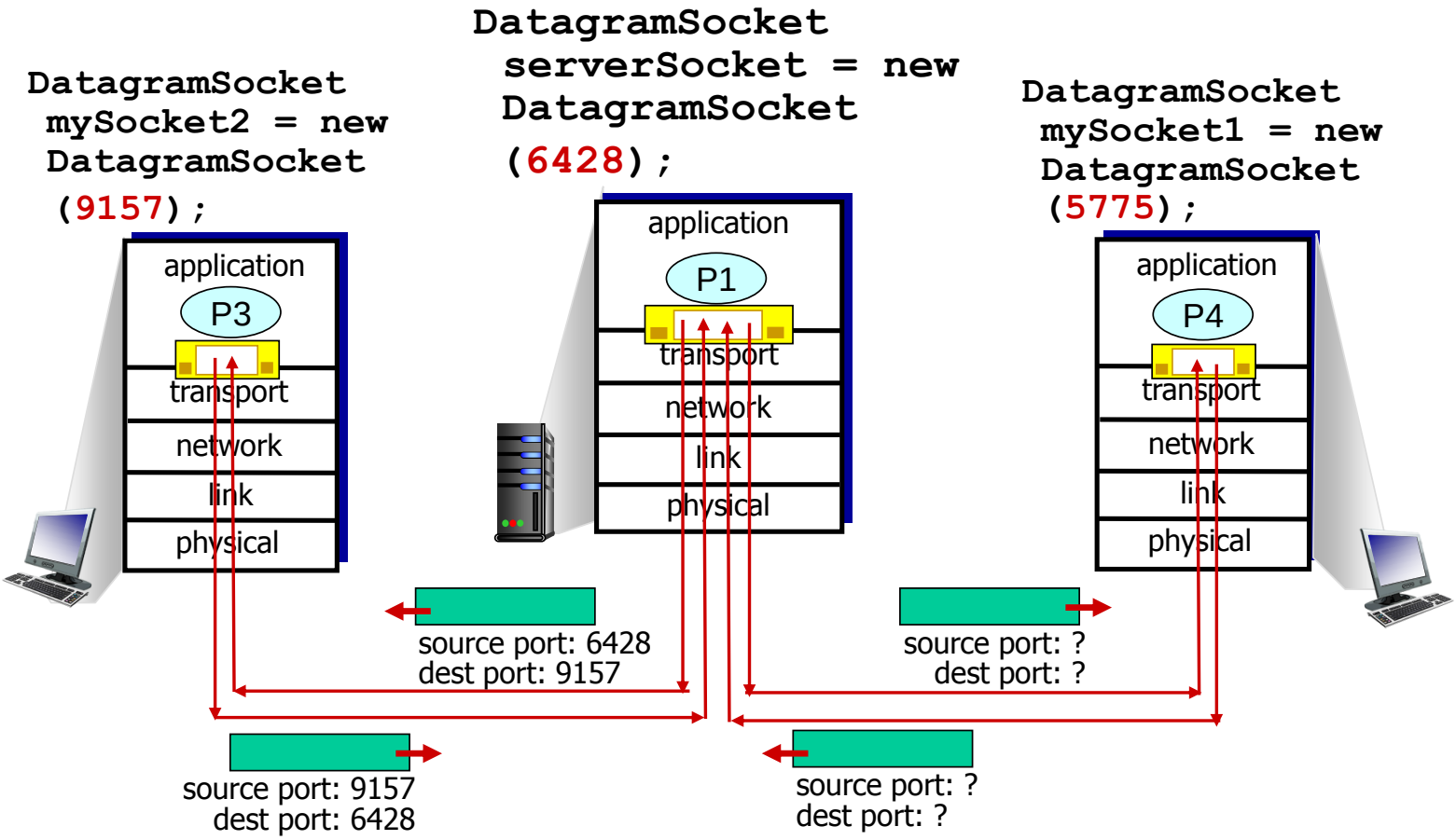
```
DatagramSocket mySocket1
= new DatagramSocket(12534);
```

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

- when host receives UDP segment:
  - checks destination port # in segment
  - directs UDP segment to socket with that port #

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

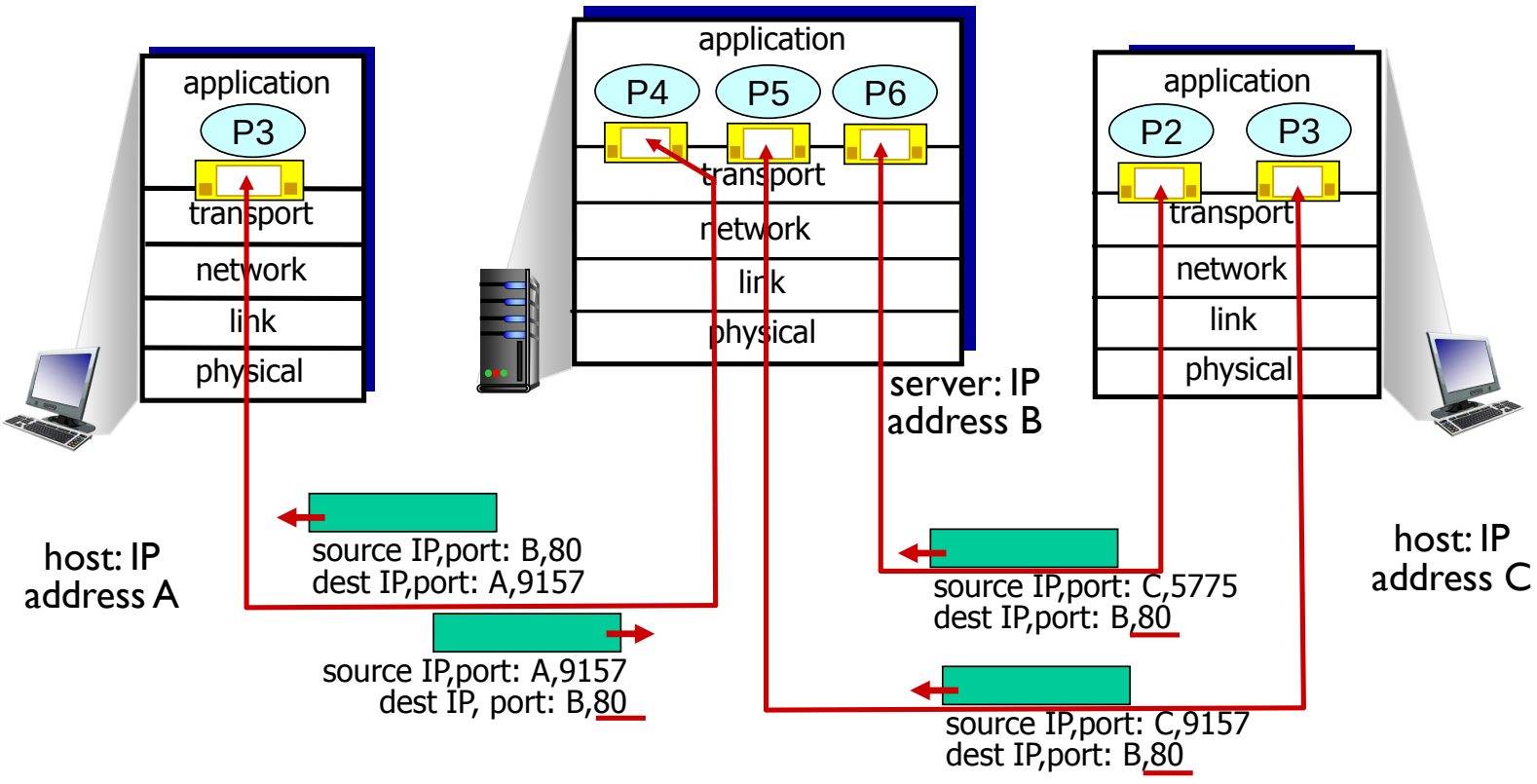
Connectionless demux: example



Connection-oriented demux

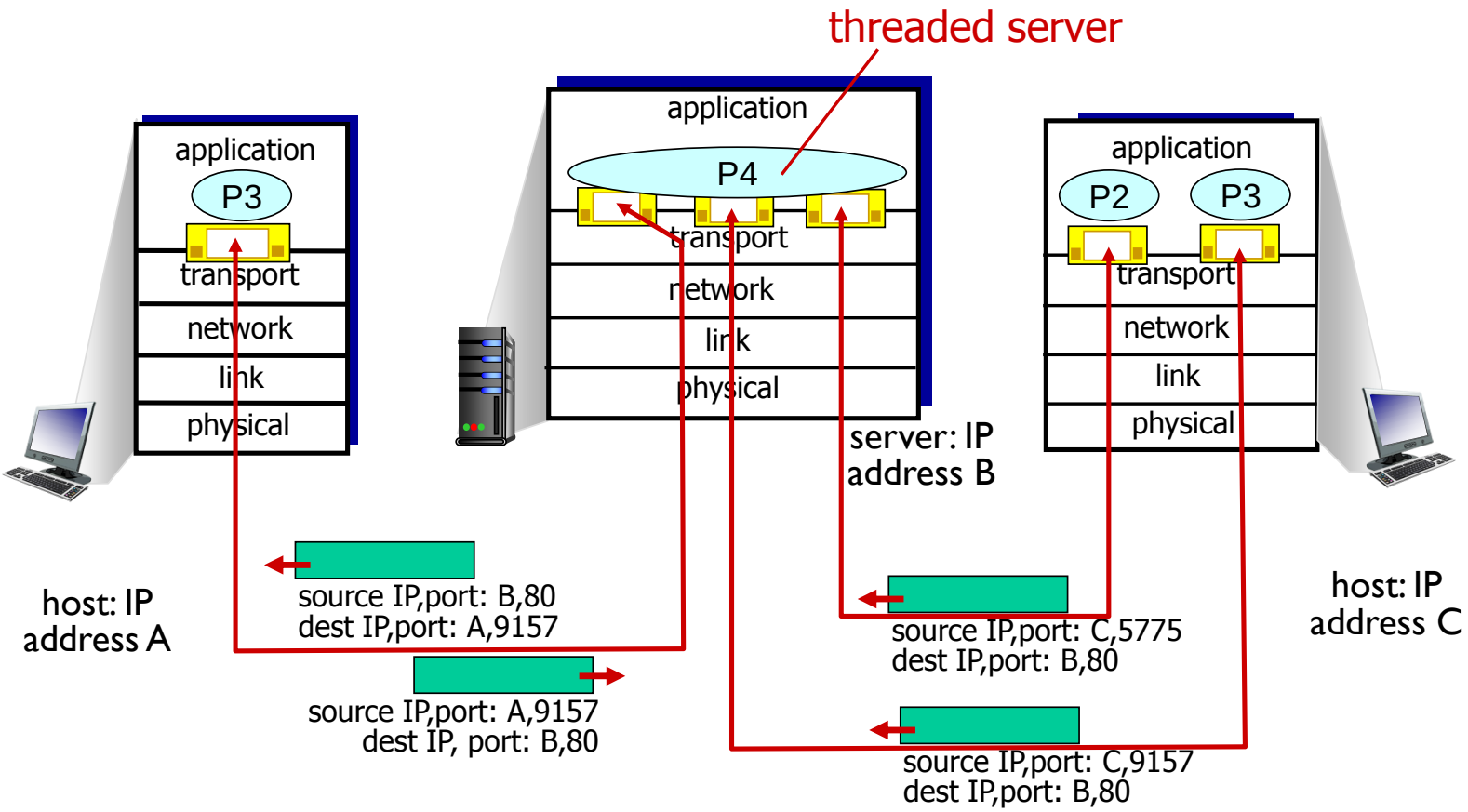
- TCP socket identified by 4-tuple:
  - source IP address
  - source port number
  - dest IP address
  - dest port number
- demux: receiver uses all four values to direct segment to appropriate socket
- server host may support many simultaneous TCP sockets:
  - each socket identified by its own 4-tuple
- web servers have different sockets for each connecting client
  - non-persistent HTTP will have different socket for each request

Connection-oriented demux: example



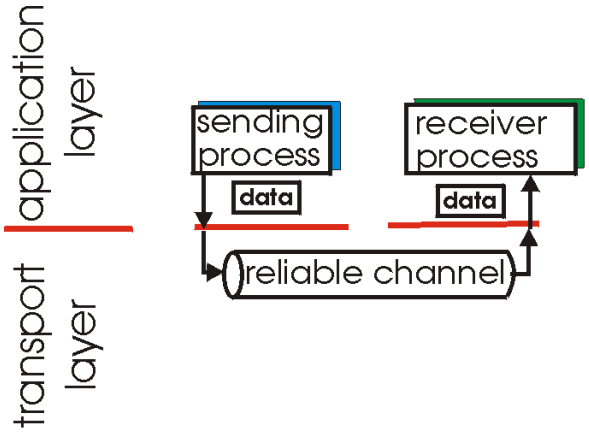
three segments, all destined to IP address: B, dest port: 80 are demultiplexed to *different* sockets

Connection-oriented demux: example



Principles of reliable data transfer

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

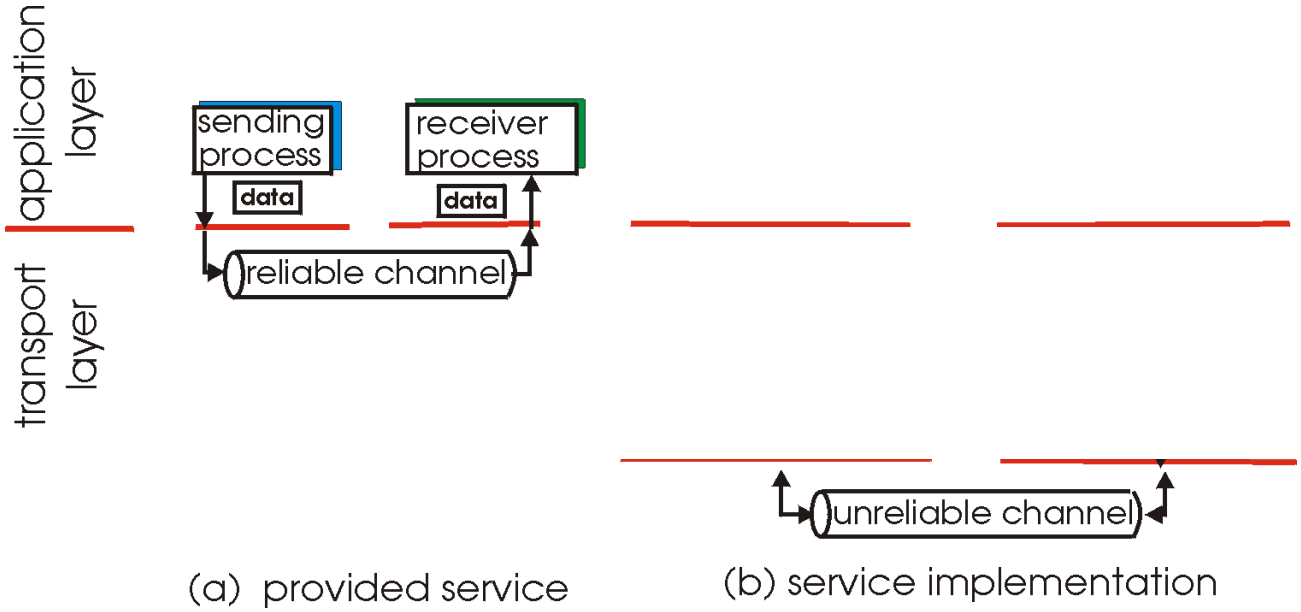


(a) provided service

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

Principles of reliable data transfer

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



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

Principles of reliable data transfer

- important in application, transport, link layers
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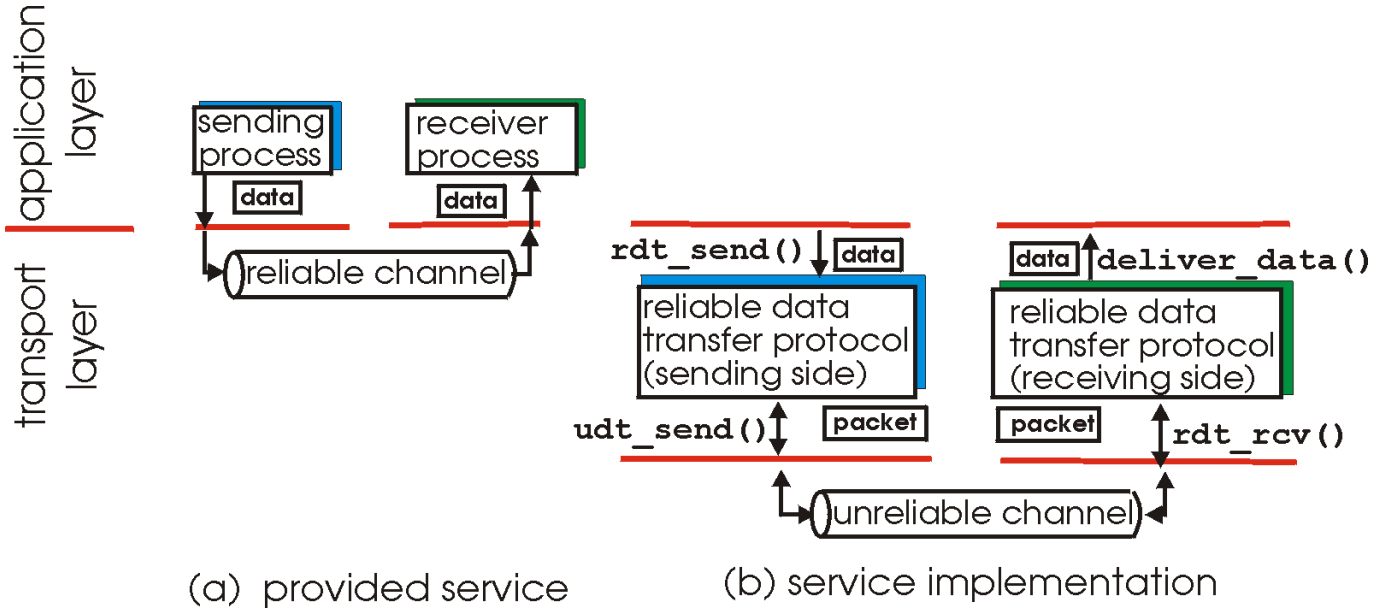
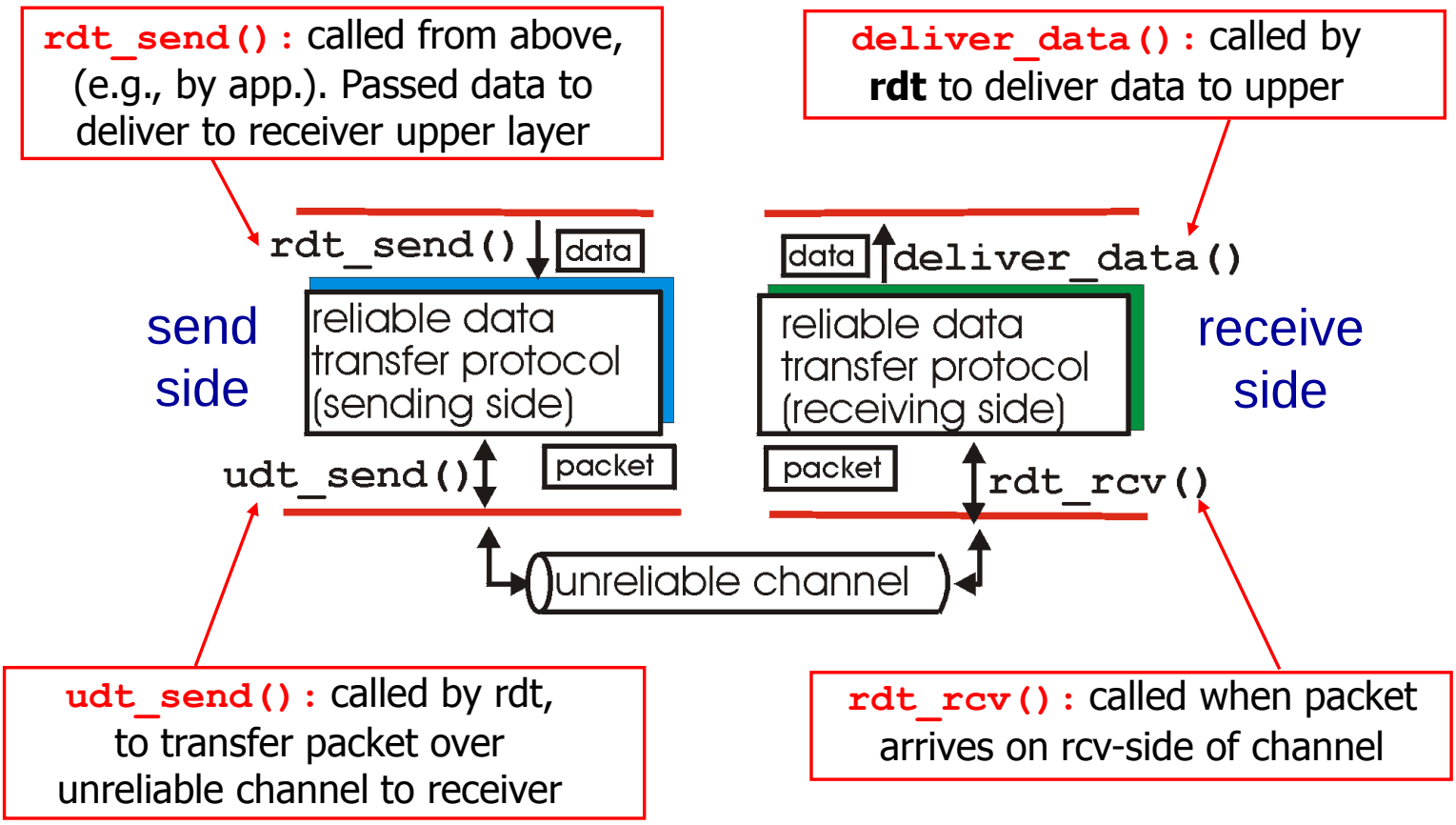


- characteristics of unreliable channel will determine complexity of reliable data transfer protocol (rdt)

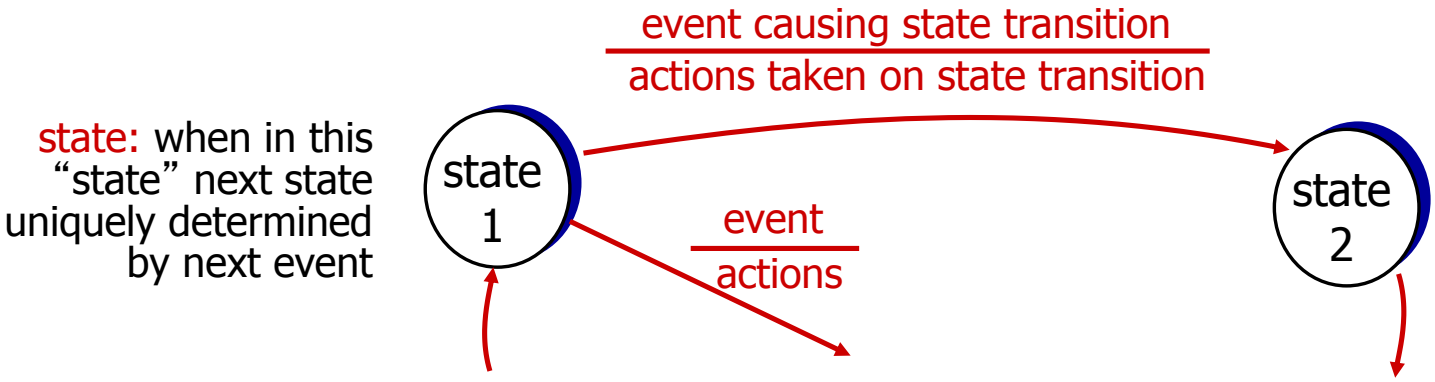
Reliable data transfer: getting started



Reliable data transfer: getting started

we'll:

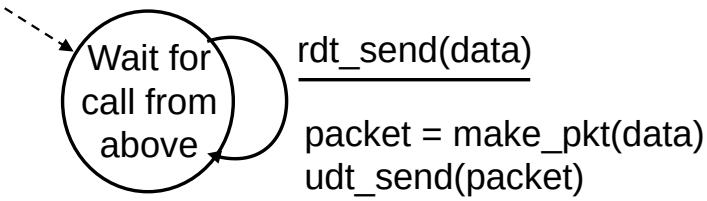
- incrementally develop sender, receiver sides of reliable data transfer protocol (rdt)
- consider only unidirectional data transfer
  - but control info will flow on both directions!
- use finite state machines (FSM) to specify sender, receiver



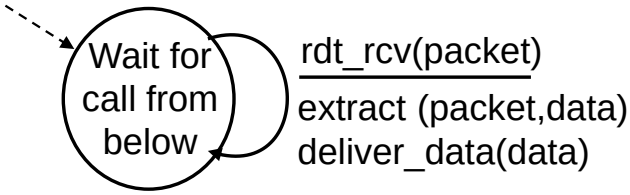
We store the state in a circle and we connect it with a line that describes the event trigger and action taken to get to the next state.

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



sender



receiver

We want to assume that we have no errors or loss packets (this is totally not true, esspecially in a5). Then you just have to build a packet and call send. When receiving we just have to accept and depackage.

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:

How do humans recover from "errors" during conversation?

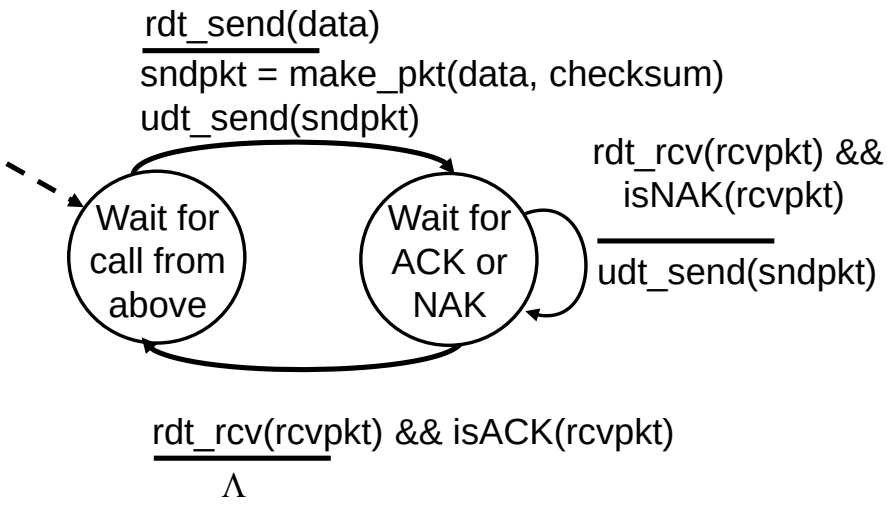
What if we had errors? We need to assume that the receiver detects errors (don't try to correct errors, just notice them).

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
- new mechanisms in `rdt2.0` (beyond `rdt1.0`):
  - error detection
  - feedback: control msgs (ACK,NAK) from receiver to sender

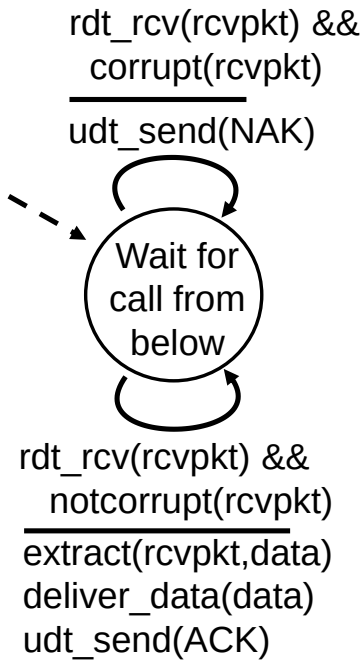
Positive feedback is as acknowledgment sent as an ACK, basically responding that shit went through ok. A negative feedback, NACK, should trigger a resend.

rdt2.0: FSM specification



sender

receiver



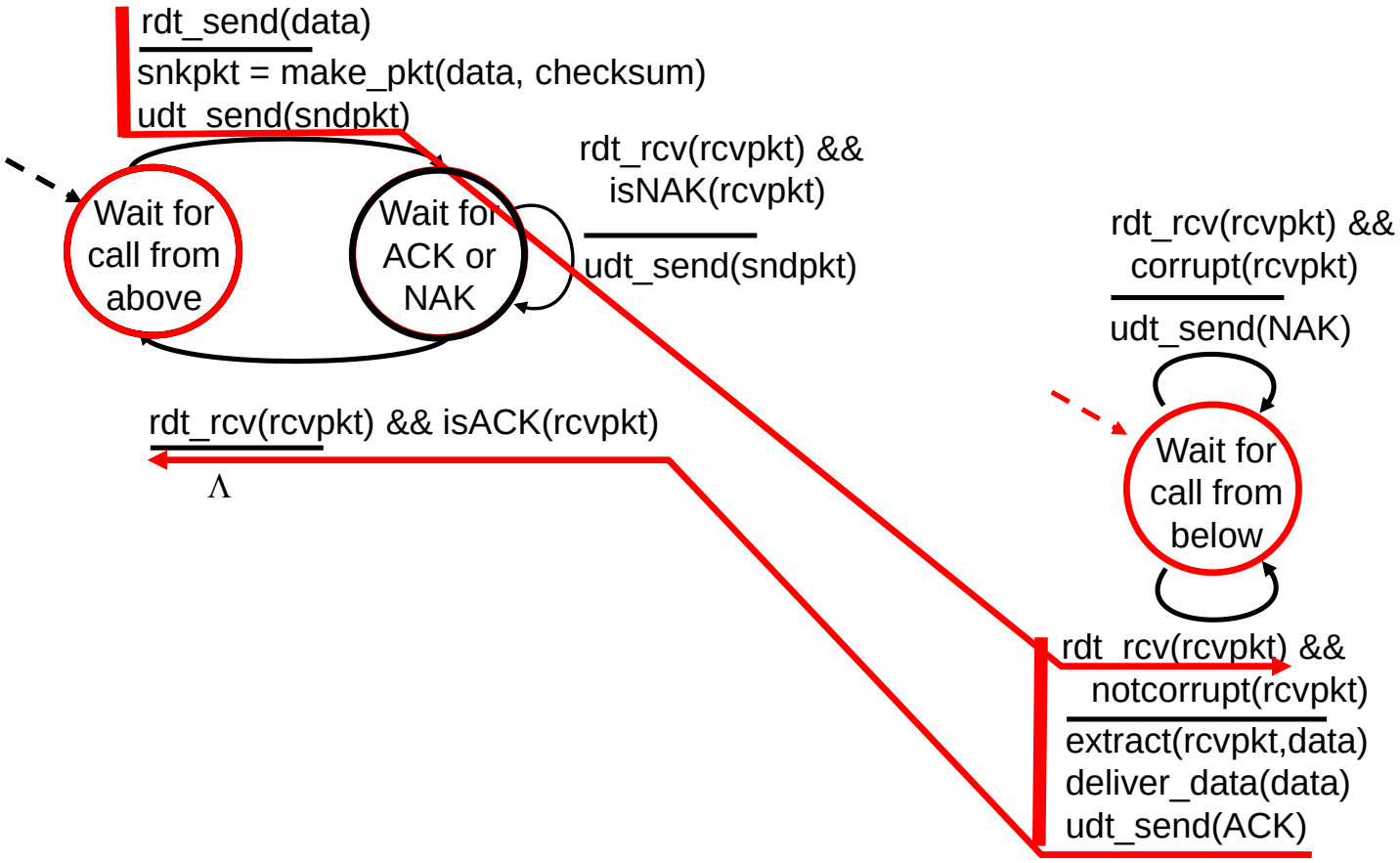
rdt_send = Make a packet, send using unreliable send, wait on rdt_receive, check for negative ACK, is so resend, else got back to first state.

Important to note that the send is blocked until a receive happens

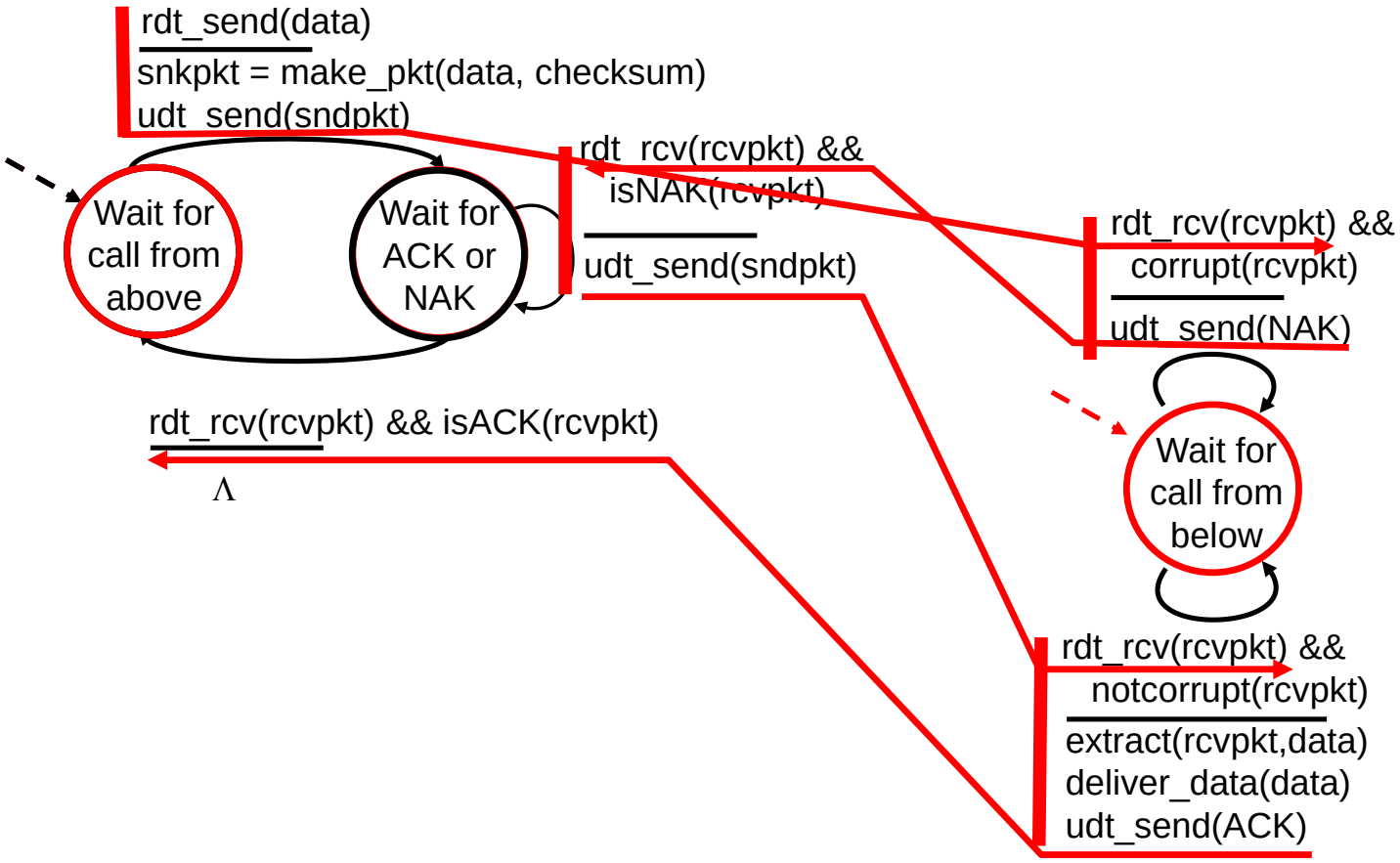
rdt_receive = accept packet, check for errors (checksum), if so send NACK, else extract it and send ACK.

This procedure seems simple but there is a problem, what happens if sending an ACK fails?

rdt2.0: operation with no errors



rdt2.0: error 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:

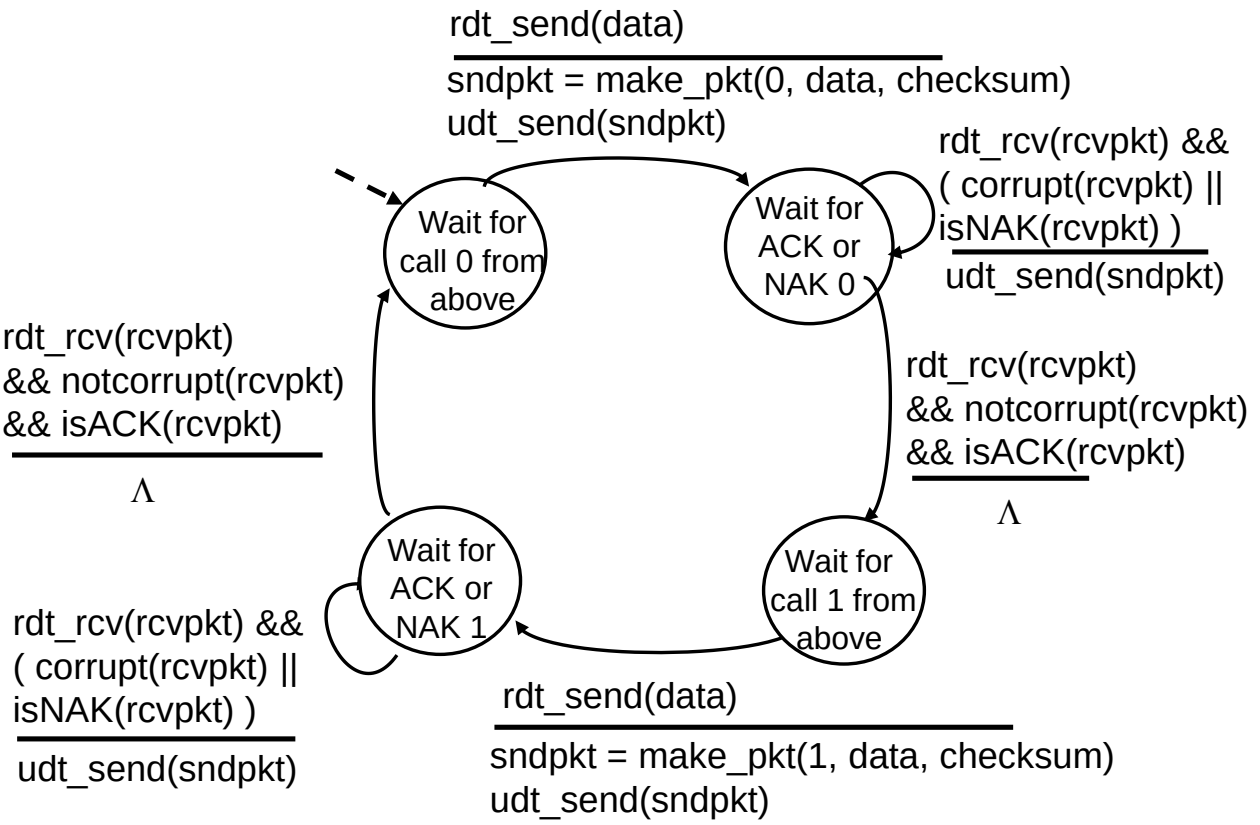
- sender retransmits current pkt if ACK/NAK corrupted
- sender adds *sequence number* to each pkt
- receiver discards (doesn't deliver up) duplicate pkt

stop and wait

sender sends one packet, then waits for receiver response

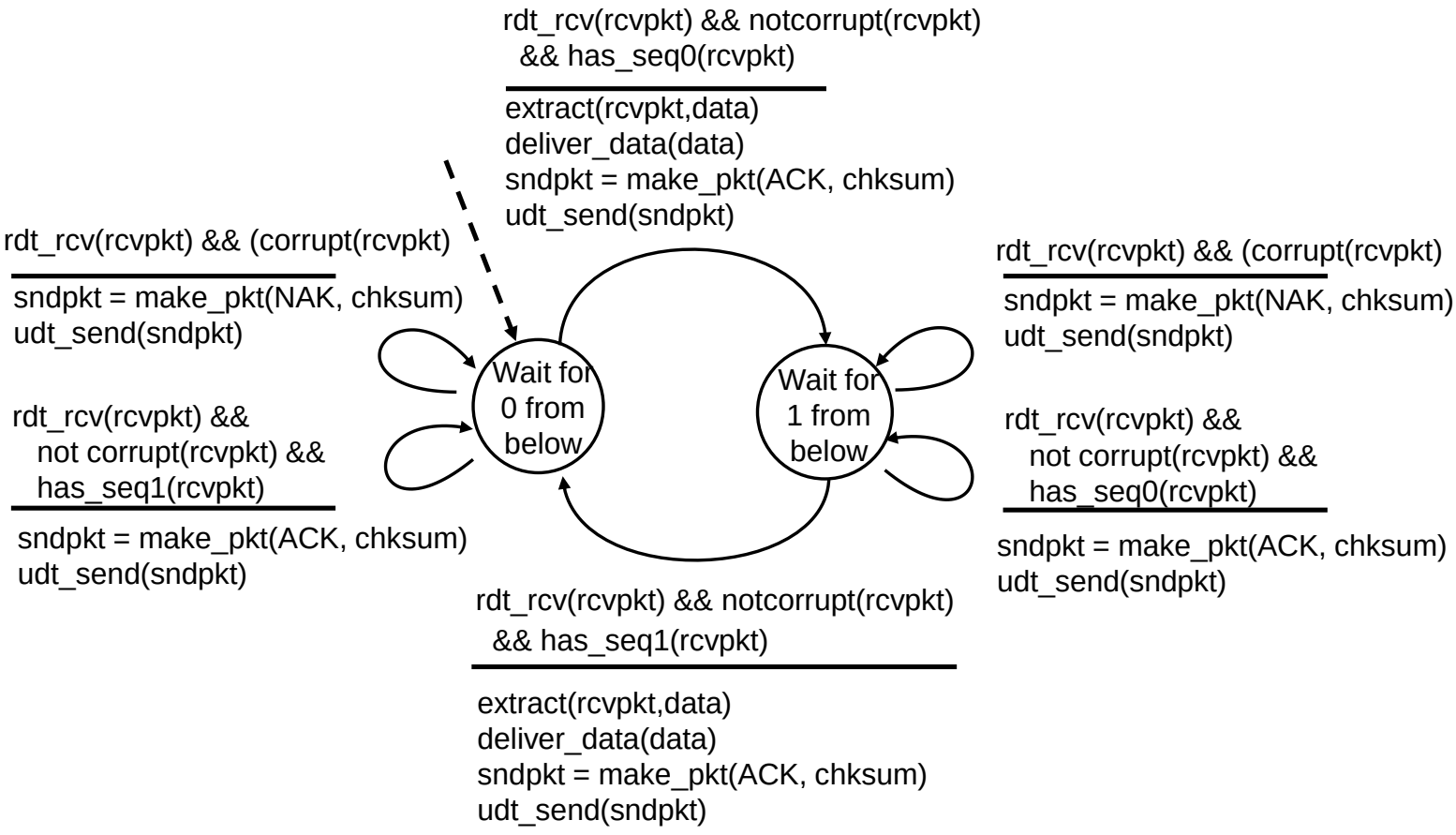
We know that we've received a ACK or NACK, but that it is corrupted. We can't just ask the application to resend because we might be sending duplicate data which is unacceptable. So we incorporate sequence number. We resend the packet including this sequence number. The client now has a whole bunch of protocols around handling that number. The simplest one is called stop and wait. The sender sends a packet and waits until a good acknowledgement comes through.

rdt2.1: sender, handles garbled ACK/NAKs



Create a packet with the sequence 0, wait for ACK. If we receive a corrupted one or a NACK we resend the packet with the same sequence, else we increment our sequence and continue forward.

rdt2.1: receiver, handles garbled ACK/NAKs



When we receive a packet we need to check both the checksum and the sequence number before extracting it. Then we increment our sequence number. If we receive a perfectly good packet with the wrong sequence number then we have to assume that the other side received a packet that we didn't send which implies a packet loss which we are assuming didn't happen.

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

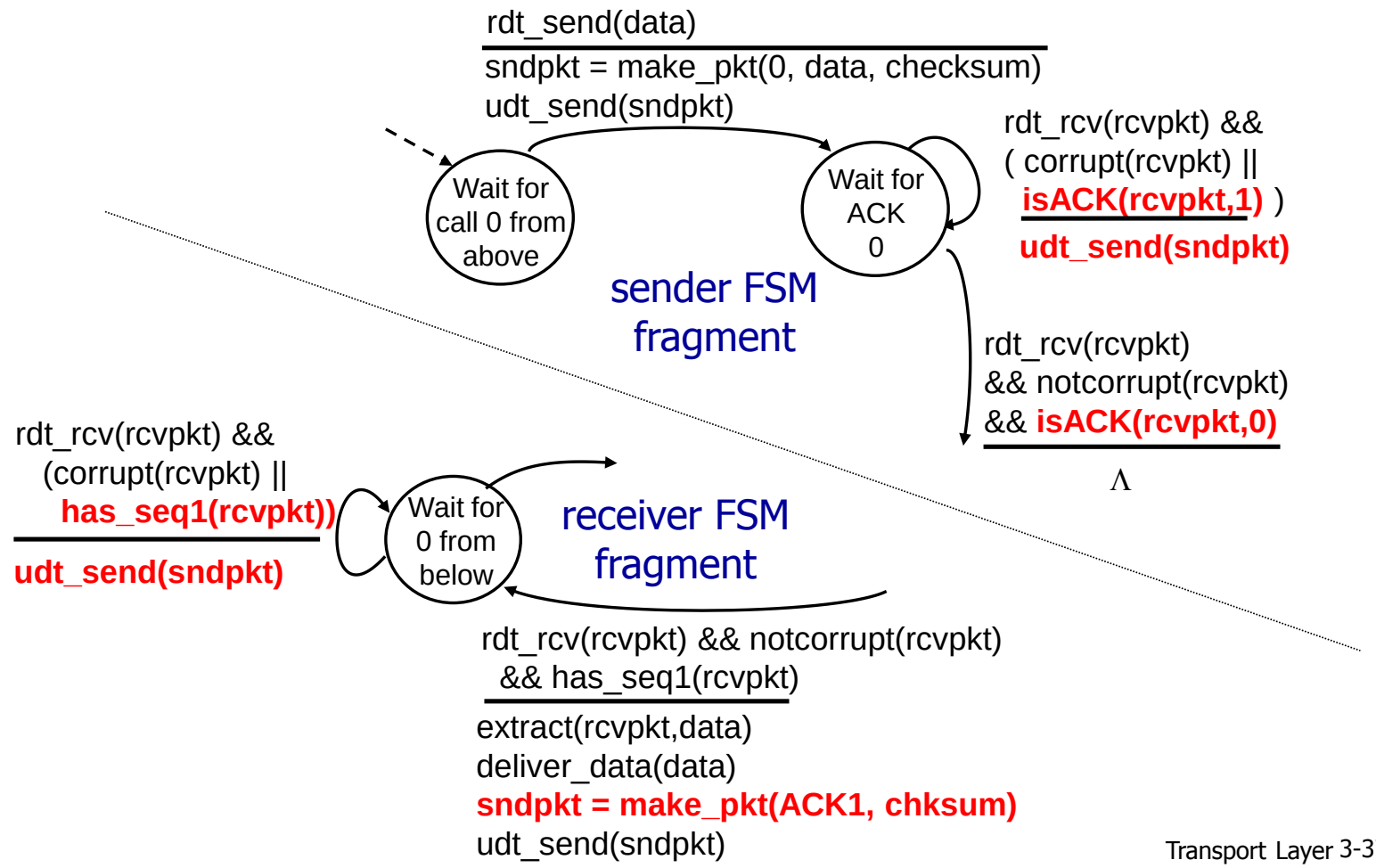
You can get infinite loops if the channel keeps corrupting your data. TCP has a hack around this, but its hackey. Its teardown process is fairly complicated.

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*

We can make do with only one time of acknowledgement by making the sequence number in the ACK wrong.

rdt2.2: sender, receiver fragments



Sending ACKs with wrong number can get a little finicky due to duplicate data being sent all over the place (for now we pretend that everything is blocking so you don't get concurency issues). The ways that TCP handles the sequence number is different from what these slides use. TCP has the sequence number say what number we expect to receive next and these slides say which number we just got.

rdt3.0: channels with errors *and* loss

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

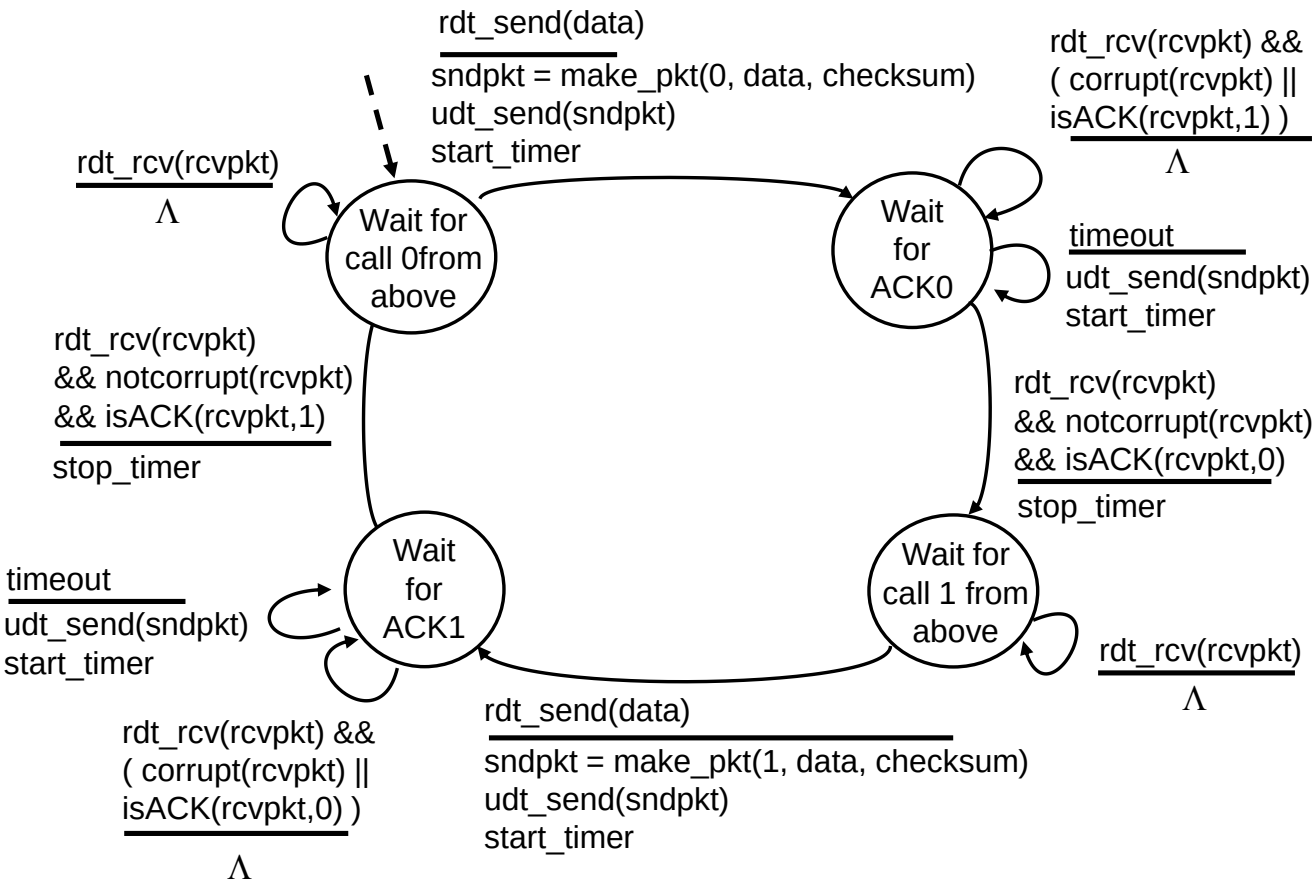
- checksum, seq. #, ACKs, retransmissions will be of help … but not enough

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 pkt being ACKed
- requires countdown timer

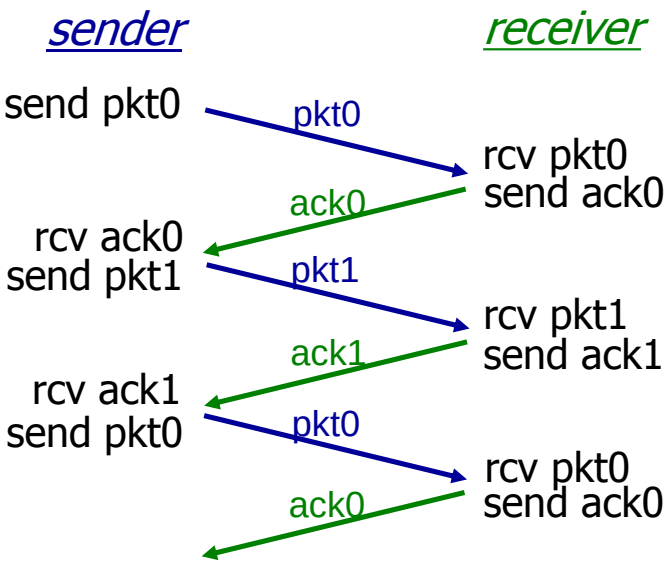
Now we incorperate loss into our system. This is where timeouts are included.

rdt3.0 sender

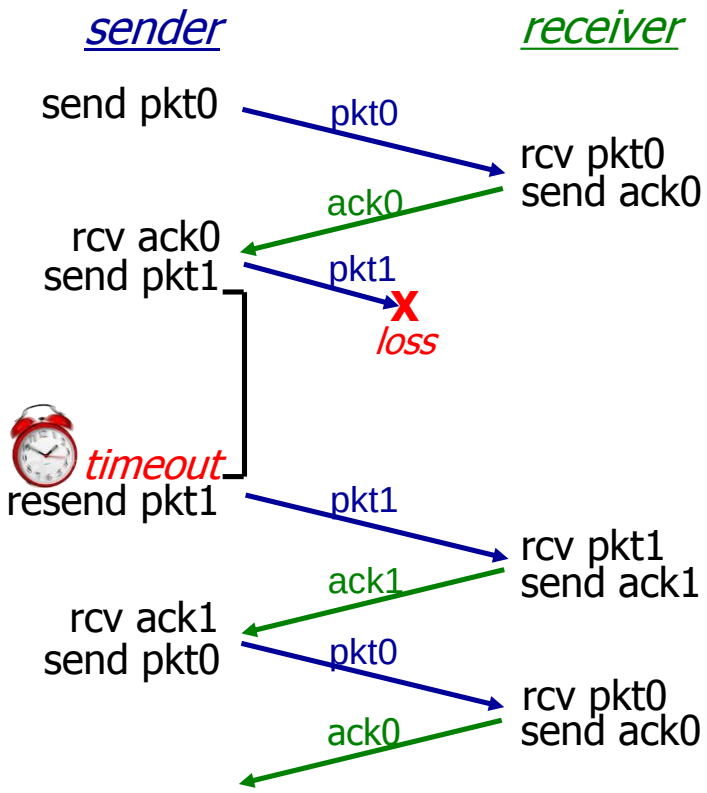


The state for waiting for the ACK now has a timeout value that it checks against and will just resend if the timeout is reached. There might be duplicate packets, but we will have sequence numbers to handle it.

rdt3.0 in action

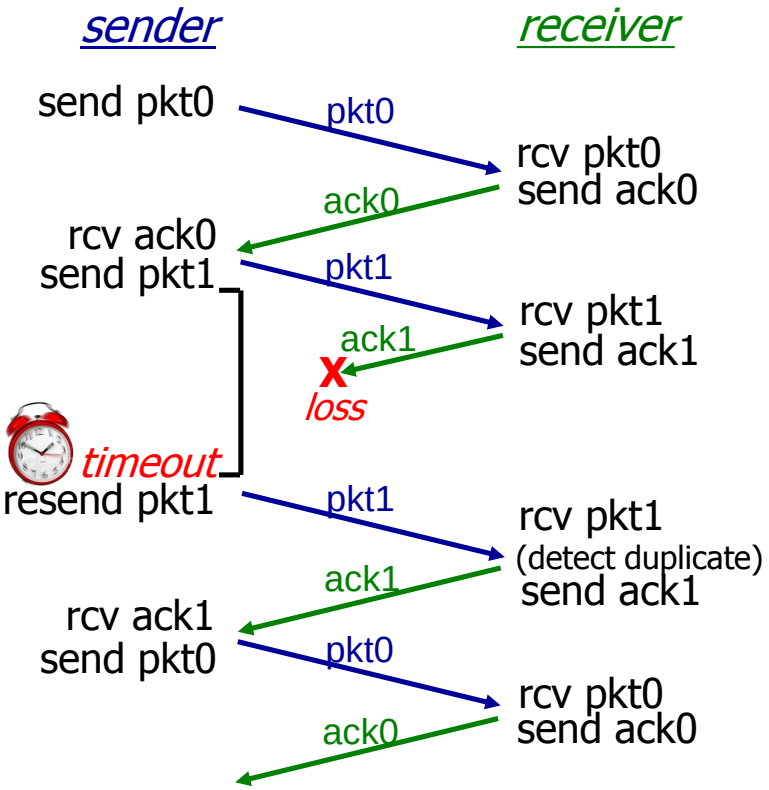


(a) no loss

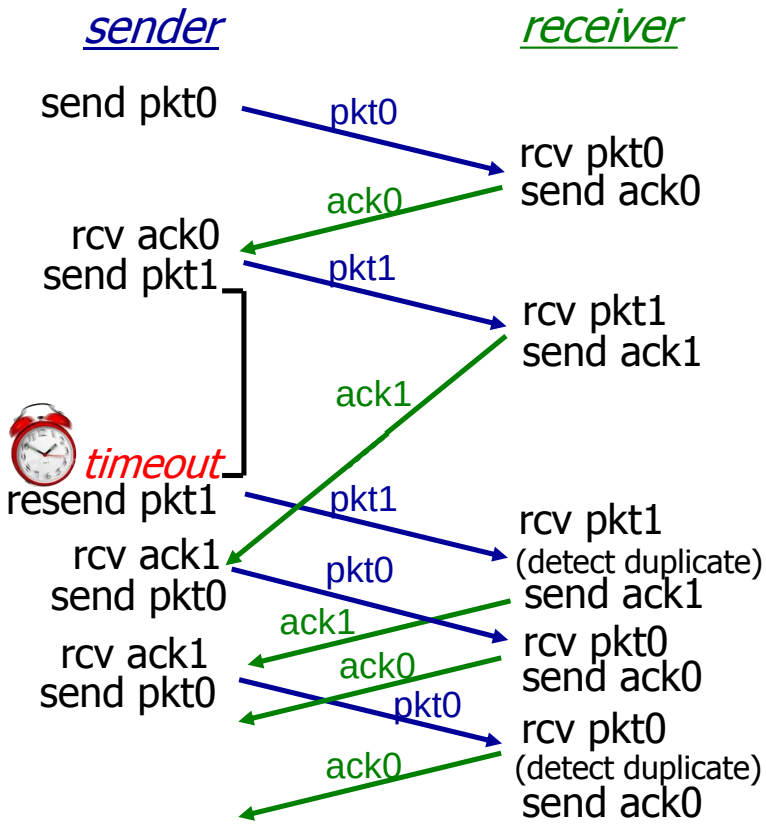


(b) packet loss

rdt3.0 in action



(c) ACK loss

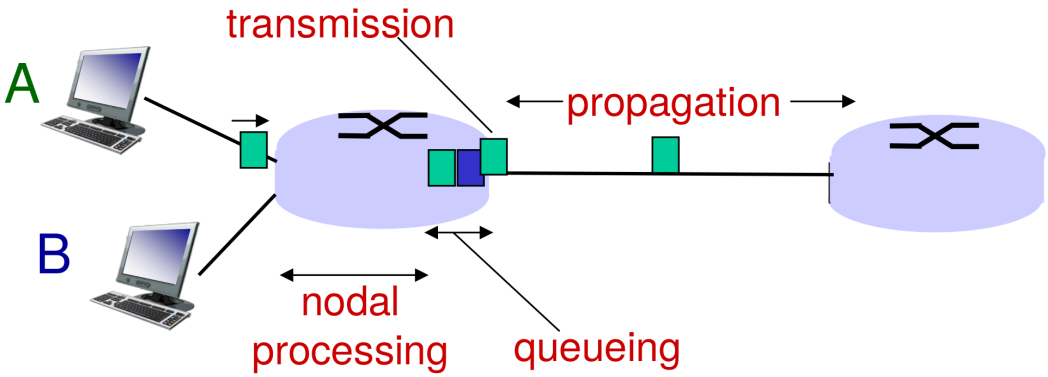


(d) premature timeout/ delayed ACK

Fuck I missed this.

THERE WILL BE A QUESTION ON THE ASSINGMENT ABOUT THE BUG IN THESE SLIDES BASED ON THE STATEMACHINE

Four sources of packet delay



$$d = d_{proc} + d_{queue} + d_{trans} + d_{prop}$$

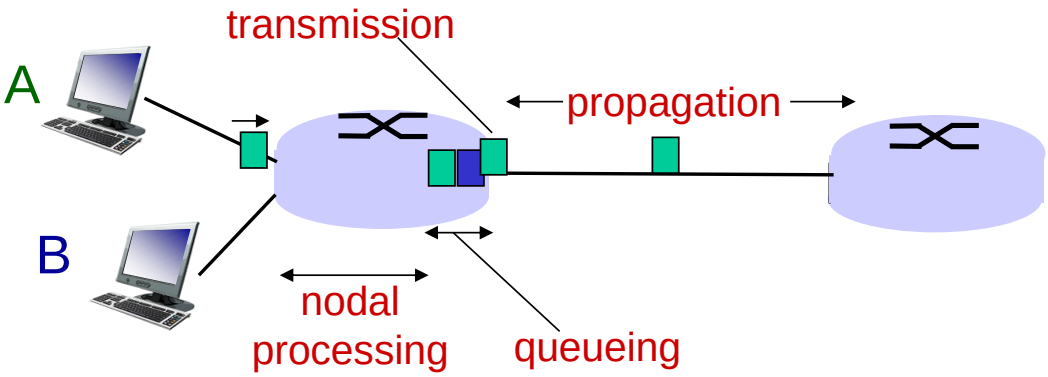
d_{proc}: nodal processing

- check bit errors
- determine output link
- typically < msec

d_{queue}: queueing delay

- time waiting at output link for transmission
- depends on congestion level of router

Four sources of packet delay



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

d_{trans}: transmission delay:

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

d_{prop}: propagation delay:

- d: length of physical link
- s: propagation speed in medium (~2×10^8 m/sec)
- $d_{prop} = d/s$

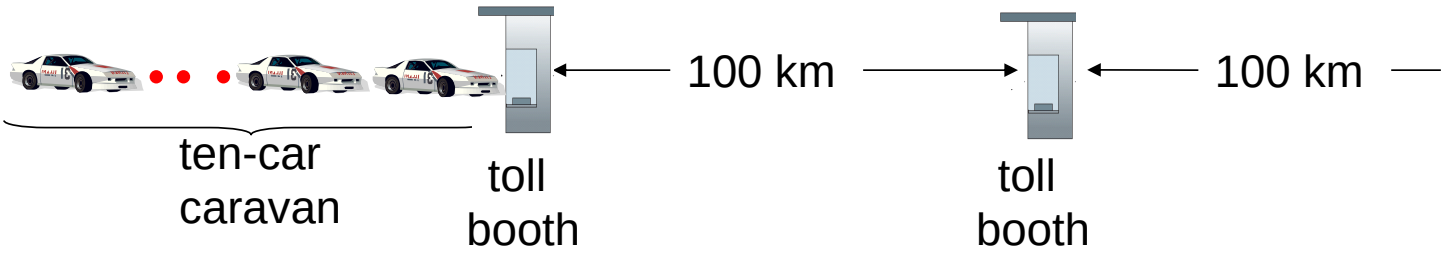
d_{trans} and d_{prop} *very* different

* Check out the Java applet for an interactive animation on trans vs. prop delay

The processing delay is how much you get bogged down processing stuff. An example of this is looking shit up in the routing table. Really got devices use a TCAM to speed up this look up by expanding the prefix and store in in a CAM (content addressable memory). CAM works by letting you present content and use that too look up something else instead of requiring you to know the address of the thing you're looking for. This memory is super expensive so lots of the cost of a network box goes into getting more TCAM. You can overflow your TCAM if you have large prefixes.

Propogation delay is delay introduced by the physical distance you are covering. We want to assume that shit is moving at the speed of light (it most definitly is not, but we assume so).

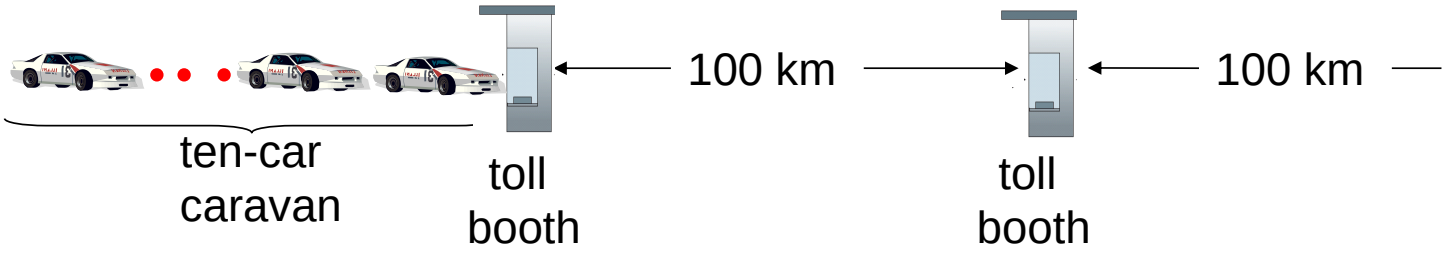
Caravan analogy



- cars "propagate" at 100 km/hr
- toll booth takes 12 sec to service car (bit transmission time)
- car~bit; caravan ~ packet
- *Q:* How long until caravan is lined up before 2nd toll booth?

- time to "push" entire caravan through toll booth onto highway = 12*10 = 120 sec
- time for last car to propagate from 1st to 2nd toll both: 100km/(100km/hr)= 1 hr
- *A:* 62 minutes

Caravan analogy (more)

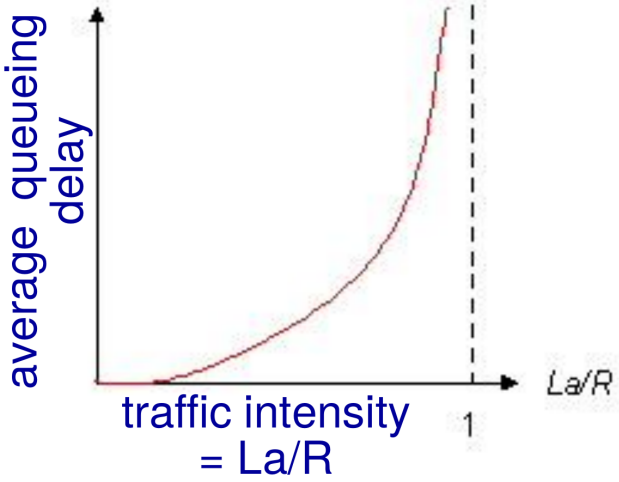


- suppose cars now "propagate" at 1000 km/hr
- and suppose toll booth now takes one min to service a car
- *Q:* Will cars arrive to 2nd booth before all cars serviced at first booth?
  - *A: Yes!* after 7 min, 1st car arrives at second booth; three cars still at 1st booth.

In this analogy we pretend that the processing delay is the toll booth and the speed of the car is the propogation delay. We want to know how long it takes all of the cars to reuinte at the toll booth. Basically the point of this is to show that the propagation delay is dominant.

Queueing delay

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



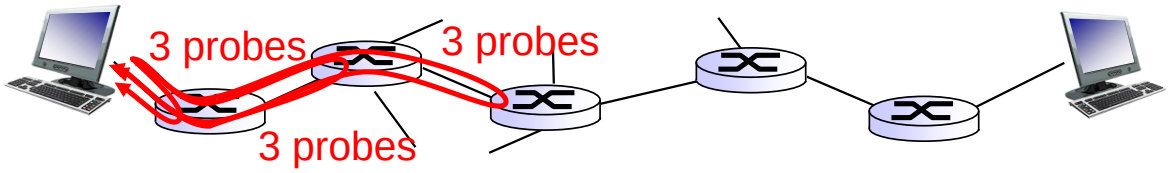
- *La/R* ~ 0: avg. queueing delay small
- *La/R* -> 1: avg. queueing delay large
- *La/R* > 1: more "work" arriving than can be serviced, average delay infinite!

La/R ~ 0

La/R -> 1

"Real" Internet delays and routes

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



"Real" Internet delays, routes

traceroute: gaia.cs.umass.edu to www.eurecom.fr

3 delay measurements from gaia.cs.umass.edu to cs-gw.cs.umass.edu

```
1  cs-gw (128.119.240.254)  1 ms  1 ms  2 ms
2  border1-rt-fa5-1-0.gw.umass.edu (128.119.3.145)  1 ms  1 ms  2 ms
3  cht-vbns.gw.umass.edu (128.119.3.130)  6 ms 5 ms 5 ms
4  jn1-at1-0-0-19.wor.vbns.net (204.147.132.129)  16 ms 11 ms 13 ms
5  jn1-so7-0-0-0.wae.vbns.net (204.147.136.136)  21 ms 18 ms 18 ms
6  abilene-vbns.abilene.ucaid.edu (198.32.11.9)  22 ms  18 ms  22 ms
7  nycm-wash.abilene.ucaid.edu (198.32.8.46)  22 ms  22 ms  22 ms
8  62.40.103.253 (62.40.103.253)  104 ms 109 ms 106 ms
9  de2-1.de1.de.geant.net (62.40.96.129)  109 ms 102 ms 104 ms
10  de.fr1.fr.geant.net (62.40.96.50)  113 ms 121 ms 114 ms
11  renater-gw.fr1.fr.geant.net (62.40.103.54)  112 ms  114 ms  112 ms
12  nio-n2.cssi.renater.fr (193.51.206.13)  111 ms  114 ms  116 ms
13  nice.cssi.renater.fr (195.220.98.102)  123 ms  125 ms  124 ms
14  r3t2-nice.cssi.renater.fr (195.220.98.110)  126 ms  126 ms  124 ms
15  eurecom-valbonne.r3t2.ft.net (193.48.50.54)  135 ms  128 ms  133 ms
16  194.214.211.25 (194.214.211.25)  126 ms  128 ms  126 ms
17  * * *
18  * * *
19  fantasia.eurecom.fr (193.55.113.142)  132 ms  128 ms  136 ms
```

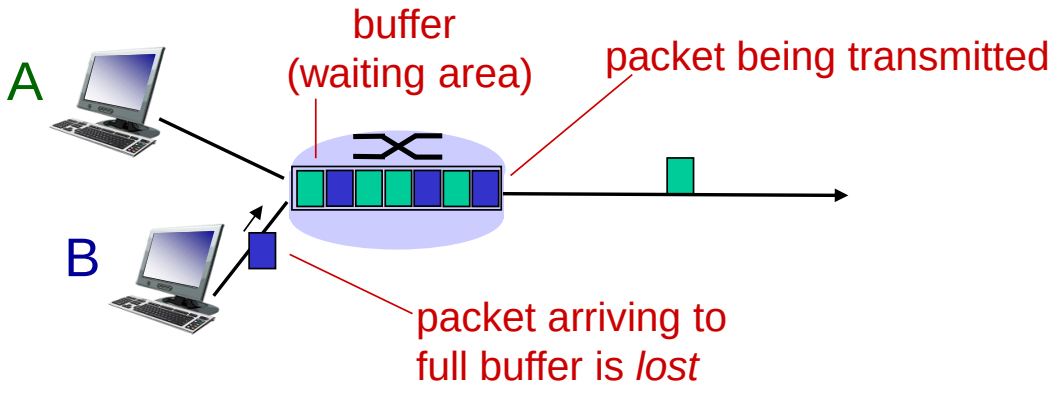
trans-oceanic link

* means no response (probe lost, router not replying)

* Do some traceroutes from exotic countries at www.traceroute.org

Packet loss

- queue (aka buffer) preceding link in buffer has finite capacity
- packet arriving to full queue dropped (aka lost)
- lost packet may be retransmitted by previous node, by source end system, or not at all

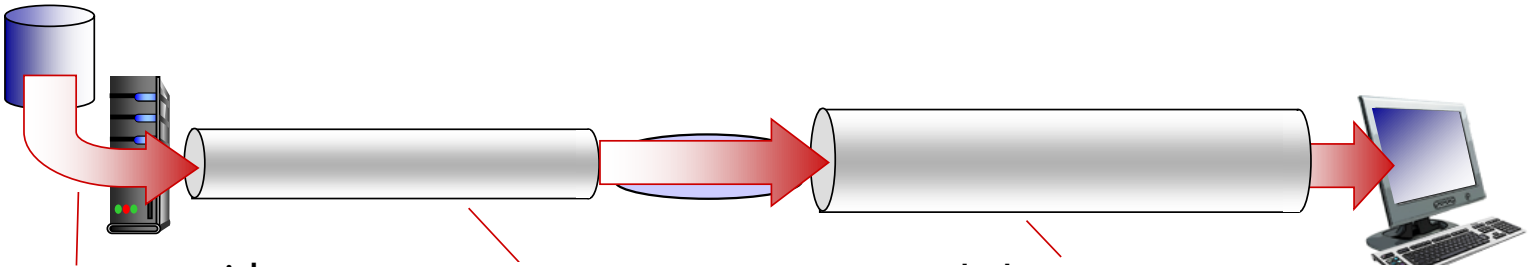


* Check out the Java applet for an interactive animation on queuing and loss

Packets that arrive to a full queue are dropped (although you can define any strategy for this).

Throughput

- *throughput:* rate (bits/time unit) at which bits transferred between sender/receiver
  - *instantaneous:* rate at given point in time
  - *average:* rate over longer period of time



server sends bits (fluid) into pipe

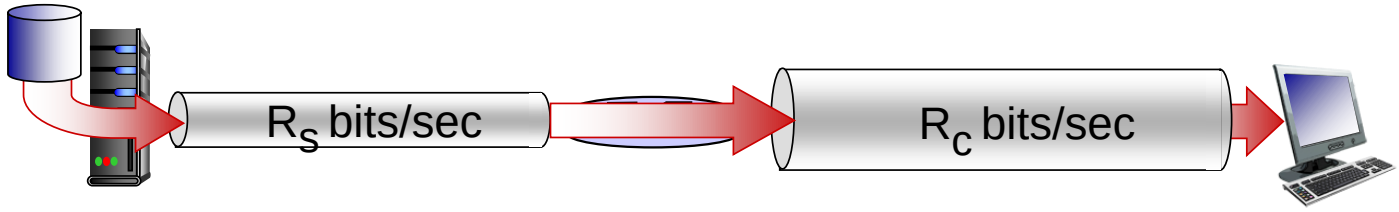
pipe that can carry fluid at rate R_s bits/sec)

pipe that can carry fluid at rate R_c bits/sec)

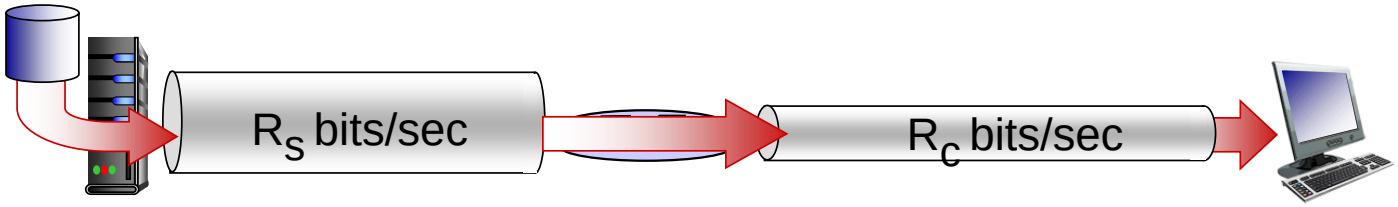
Throughput is the number of bits per unit of time.

Throughput (more)

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



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

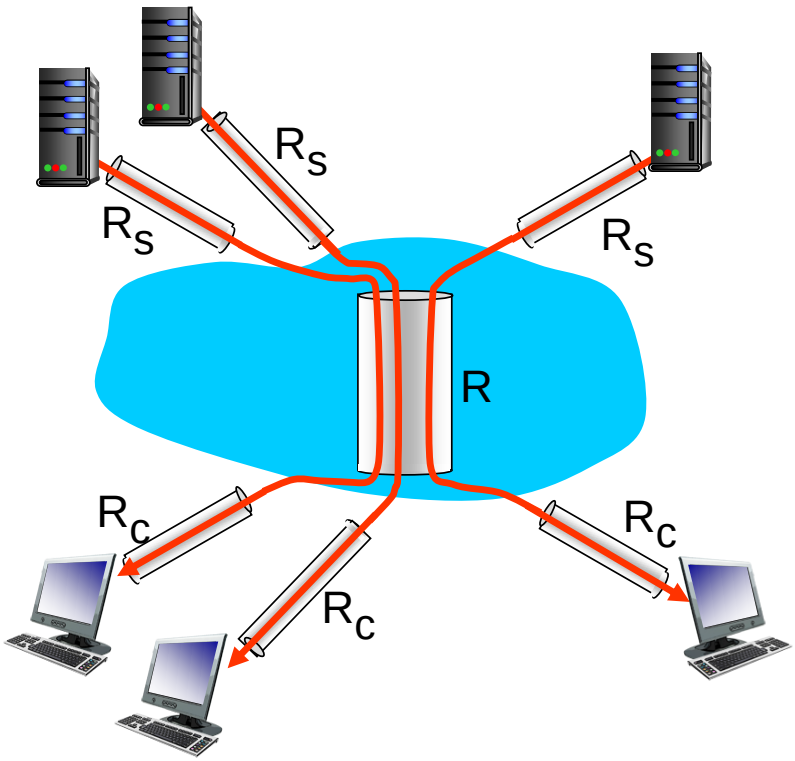


bottleneck link

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

Throughput: Internet scenario

- per-connection end-end throughput: $\min(R_c, R_s, R/10)$
- in practice: R_c or R_s is often bottleneck



10 connections (fairly) share backbone bottleneck link R bits/sec

Performance of rdt3.0

- rdt3.0 is correct, but performance stinks
- e.g.: 1 Gbps link, 15 ms prop. delay, 8000 bit packet:

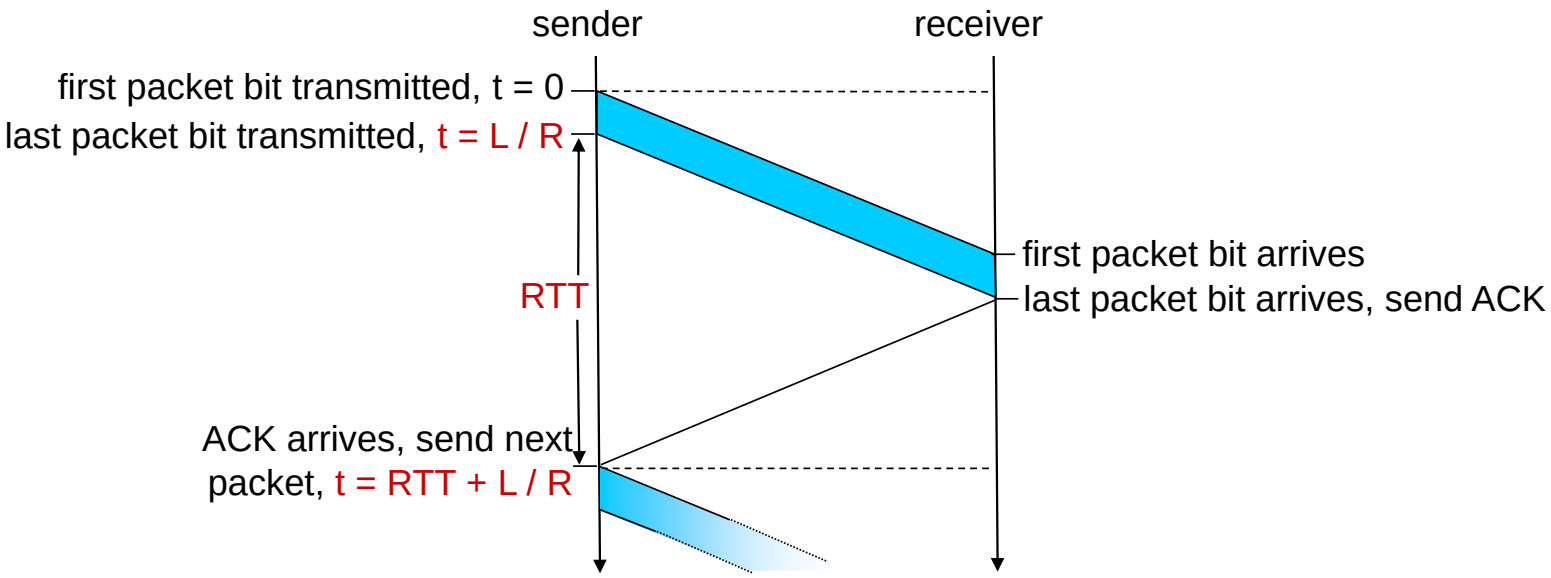
$$D_{trans} = \frac{L}{R} = \frac{8000 \text{ bits}}{10^9 \text{ bits/sec}} = 8 \text{ microsecs}$$

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

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

  - if RTT=30 msec, 1KB pkt every 30 msec: 33kB/sec thruput over 1 Gbps link
- network protocol limits use of physical resources!

rdt3.0: stop-and-wait operation



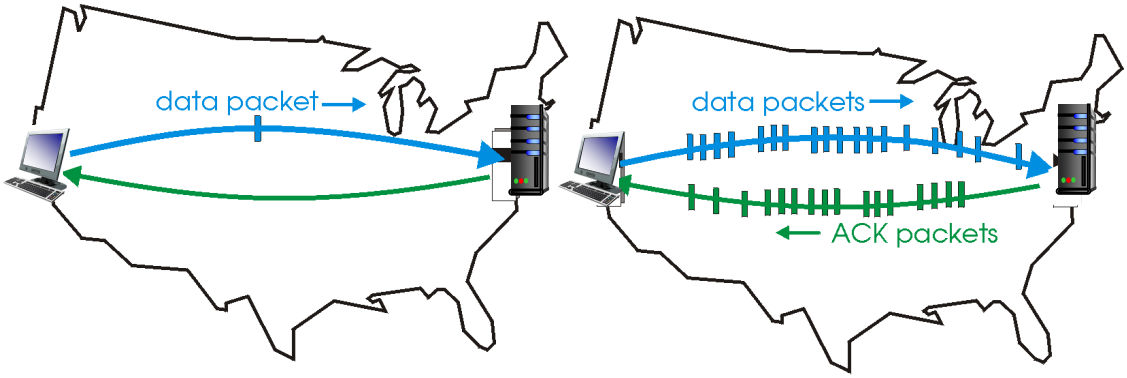
$$U_{sender} = \frac{L / R}{RTT + L / R} = \frac{.008}{30.008} = 0.00027$$

We can make the utilization values very high by having the sender send indiscriminatly and only acknowledge one at a time. This will have super low throughput though.

Pipelined protocols

pipelining: sender allows multiple, "in-flight", yet-to-be-acknowledged pkts

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

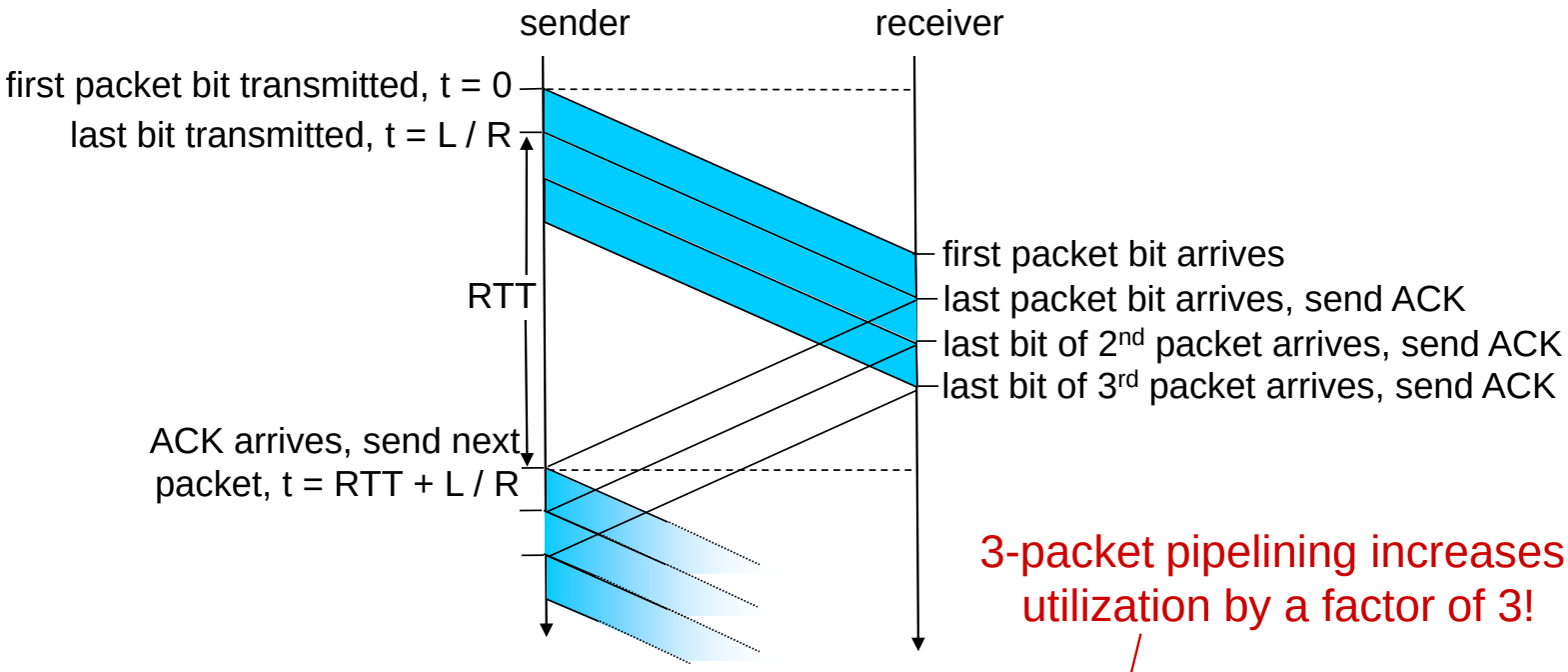


(a) a stop-and-wait protocol in operation (b) a pipelined protocol in operation

- two generic forms of pipelined protocols: *go-Back-N, selective repeat*

Pipelining allows multiple packets being handled at the same time. So we have a sending window and receiving window that limit how many packets can be on the system at once. We then have to have a new sequence number for each packet (previously we had used only one bit).

Pipelining: increased utilization



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

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

The sender blindly sends three packets and waits.

Pipelined protocols: overview

Go-back-N:

- sender can have up to N unacked packets in pipeline
- receiver only sends *cumulative ack*
  - doesn't ack packet if there's a gap
- sender has timer for oldest unacked packet
  - when timer expires, retransmit *all* unacked packets

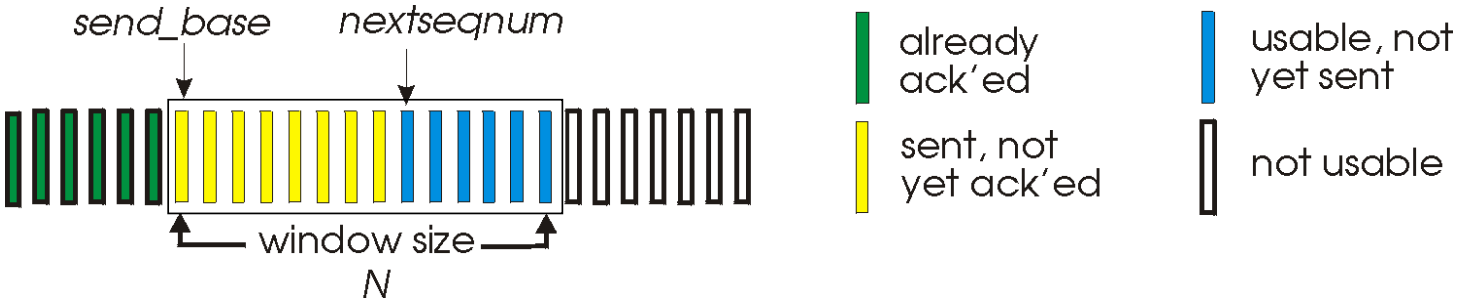
Selective Repeat:

- sender can have up to N unack'ed packets in pipeline
- rcvr sends *individual ack* for each packet
- sender maintains timer for each unacked packet
  - when timer expires, retransmit only that unacked packet

The receiver sends a cumulative acknowledge, so only one ACK per N packets (waits until it has received all of them). So if it received 1, 2, and 4 it will only ACK 2 because there is a gap. We only have a timer for the oldest unacked packet.

Go-Back-N: sender

- k-bit seq # in pkt header
- "window" of up to N, consecutive unack'ed pkts allowed

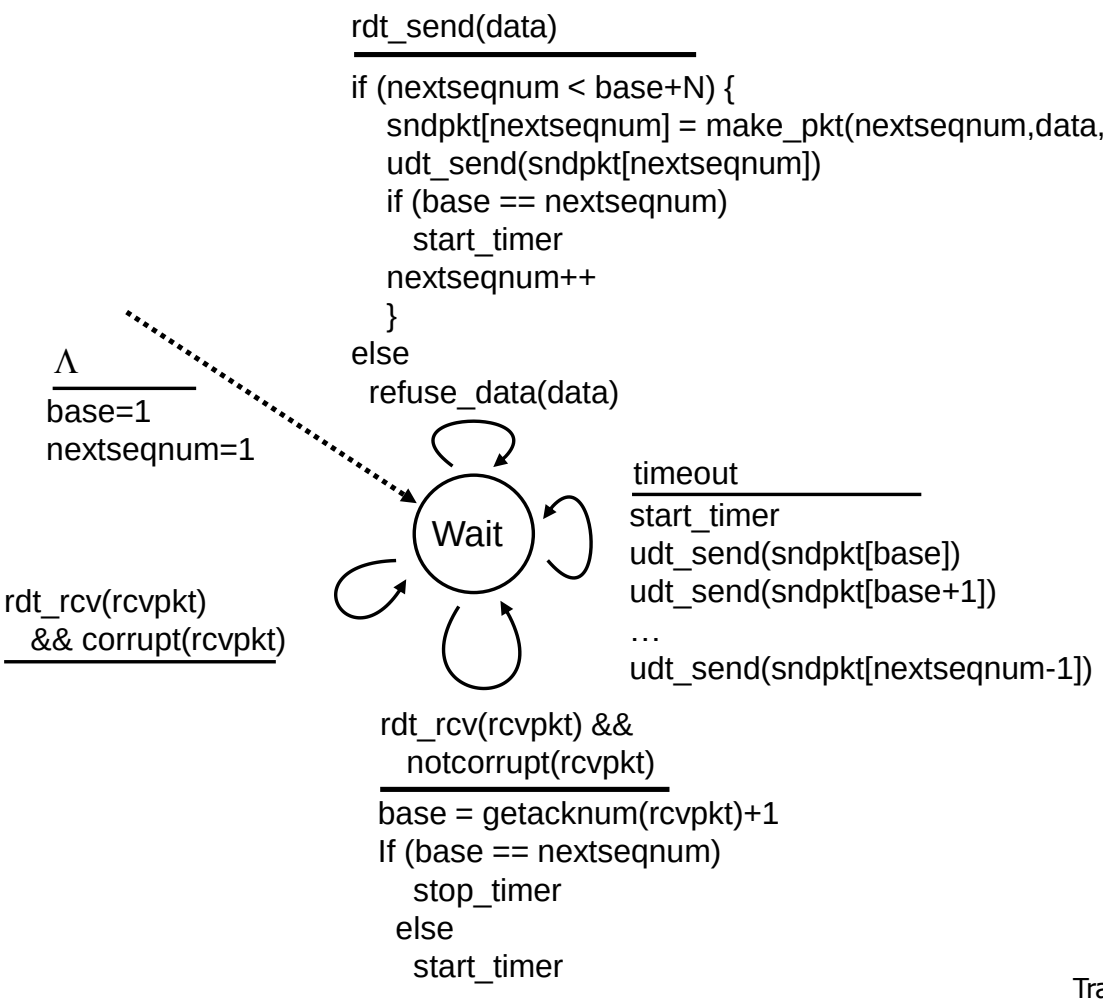


- ACK(n): ACKs all pkts up to, including seq # n - *"cumulative ACK"*
  - may receive duplicate ACKs (see receiver)
- timer for oldest in-flight pkt
- *timeout(n):* retransmit packet n and all higher seq # pkts in window

There are two pointers, one at the oldest unacked packet and one at the next packet to be sent. This slide shows a set of sequence numbers. If you send to a node currently blocked on waiting for an ACK then it just returns an error because it cannot buffer any more.

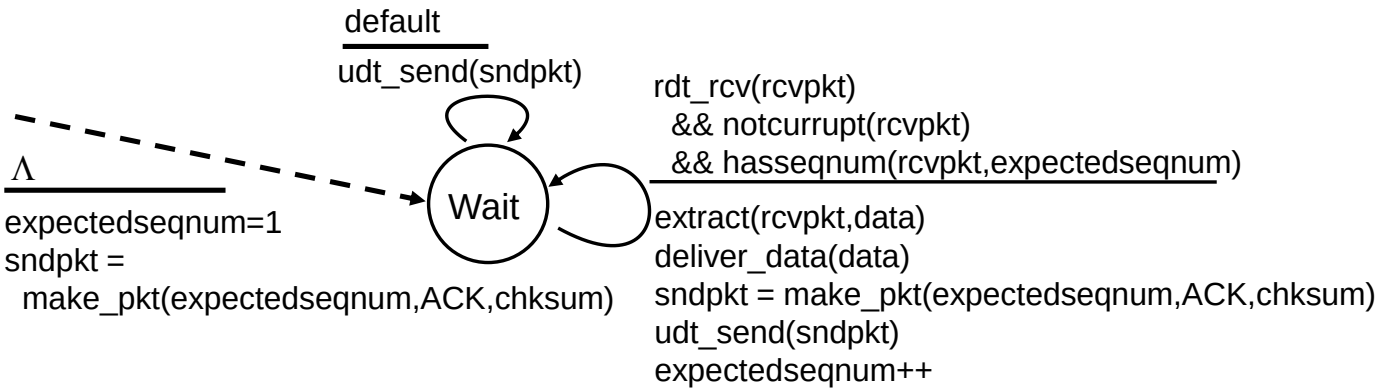
In the sample code you have there is a reasonably high probability to "do evil" (drop packets).

GBN: sender extended FSM



So the base pointer to 1 and the next sequence number to 1, if the next sequence number is out of range we throw an error. If not we send properly and start a timer. If a timeout occurs start resending all unacked packets. If we get a valid packet back we move the acked pointer and adjust timers accordingly (ie change the timer to the next oldest one if this was the oldest packet). If we receive an invalid ack then we just do nothing.

GBN: receiver extended FSM



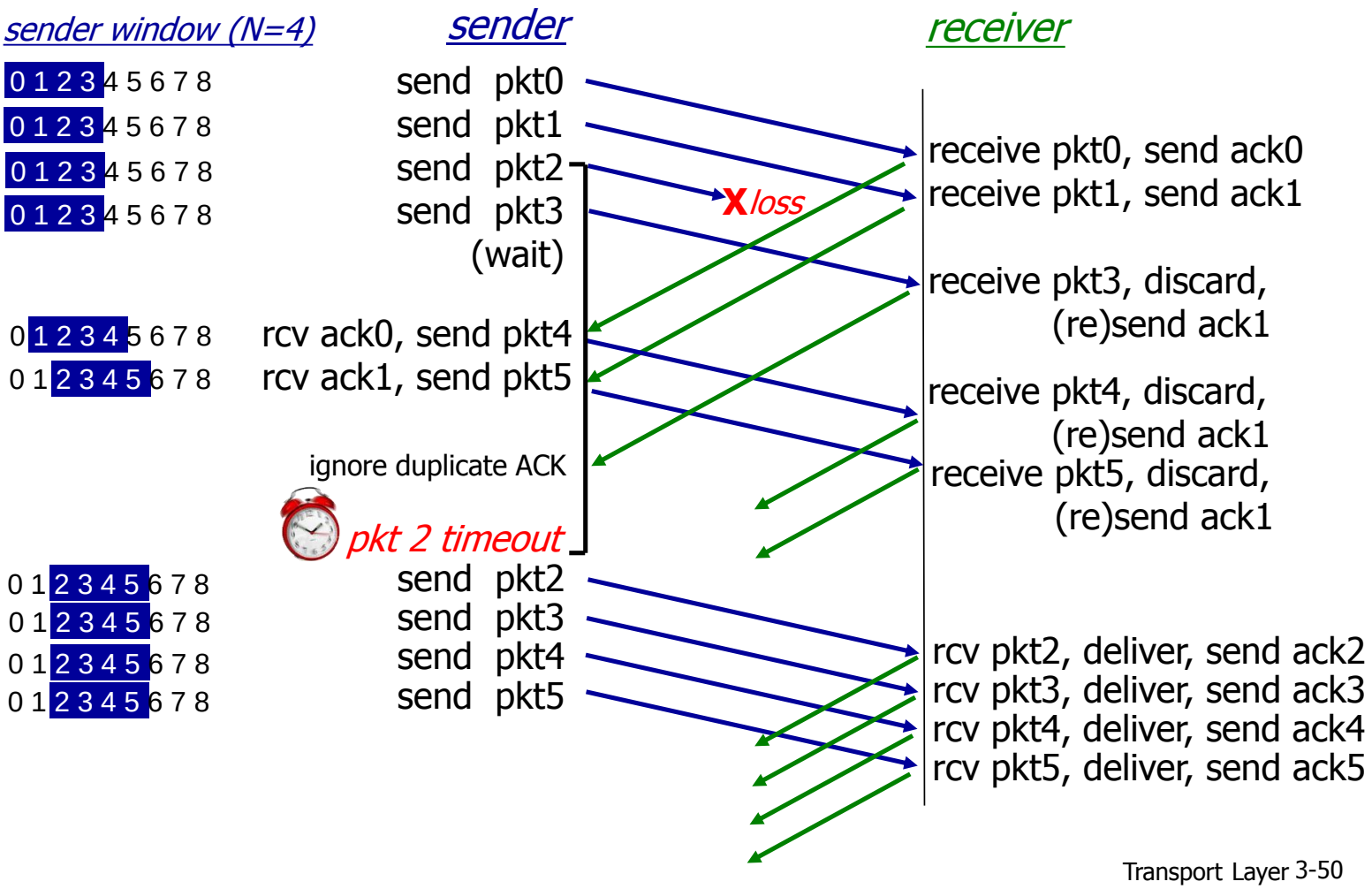
ACK-only: always send ACK for correctly-received pkt with highest *in-order* seq #

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

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

There is a special exception on this. At the start of time you instantiate variables. If the first thing you receive is a corrupted packet you will acknowledge it. TCP doesn't do this since its number scheme is off by one, but here there is an error.

GBN in action



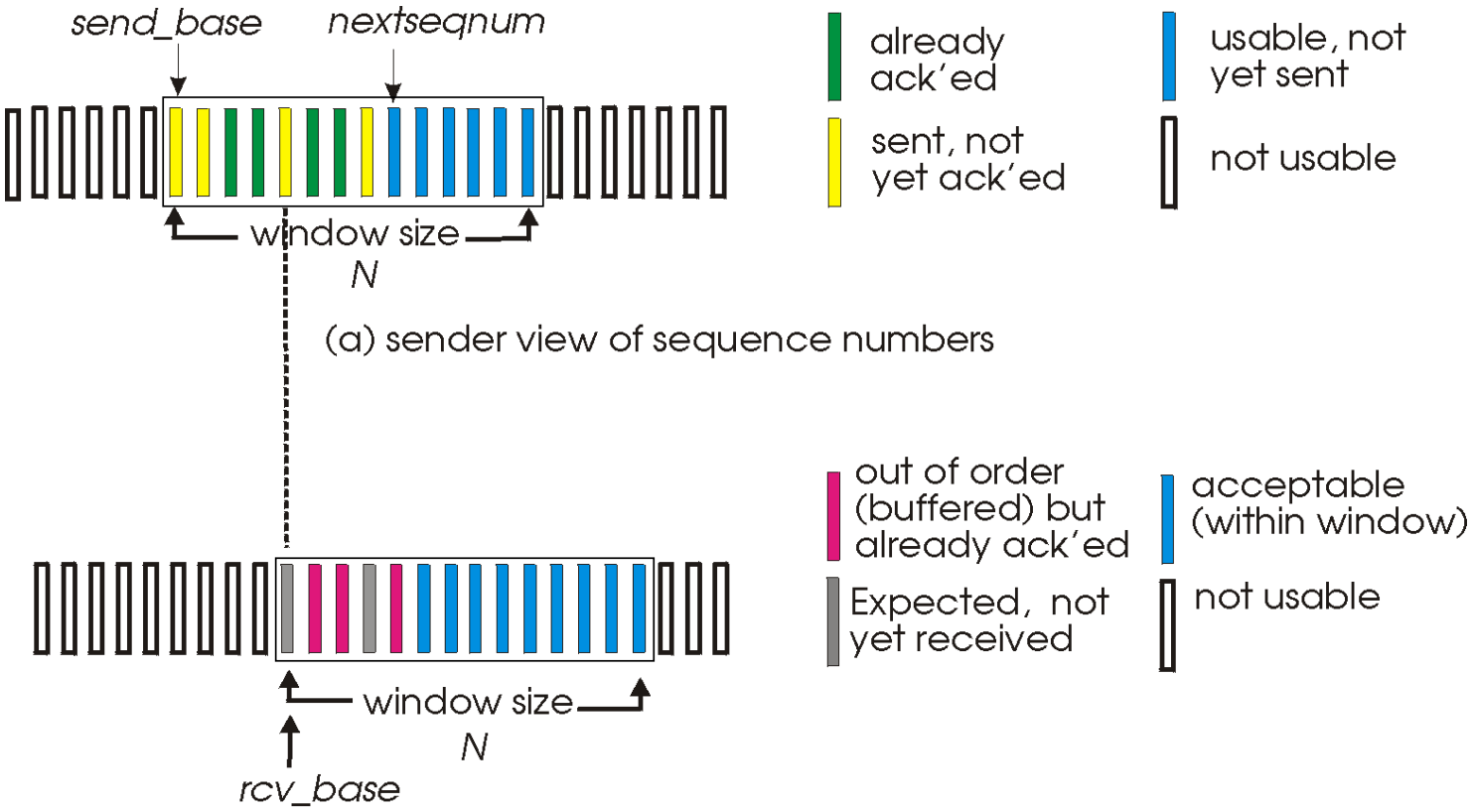
When the sender receives ACK0 it shifts its base pointer and sends the next packet it can. We see in this example things ignoring duplicate acks, but in the psuedo code on slide we see it resets its based to that ack number plus 1. This is fine because it will just be set to the same number so its the same as doing nothing (it does however reset the timer which is an error). Every time we move the base we have to restart the timer. It becomes associated with the oldest unacknowledged packet.

Selective repeat

- receiver *individually* acknowledges all correctly received pkts
  - buffers pkts, as needed, for eventual in-order delivery to upper layer
- sender only resends pkts for which ACK not received
  - sender timer for each unACKed pkt
- sender window
  - *N* consecutive seq #' s
  - limits seq #s of sent, unACKed pkts

Shit gets complicated here because the receiver acks individual packets so we need multiple windows.

Selective repeat: sender, receiver windows



Selective repeat

sender

data from above:

- if next available seq # in window, send pkt

timeout(n):

- resend pkt n, restart timer

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

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

receiver

pkt n in [rcvbase, rcvbase+N-1]

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

pkt n in [rcvbase-N,rcvbase-1]

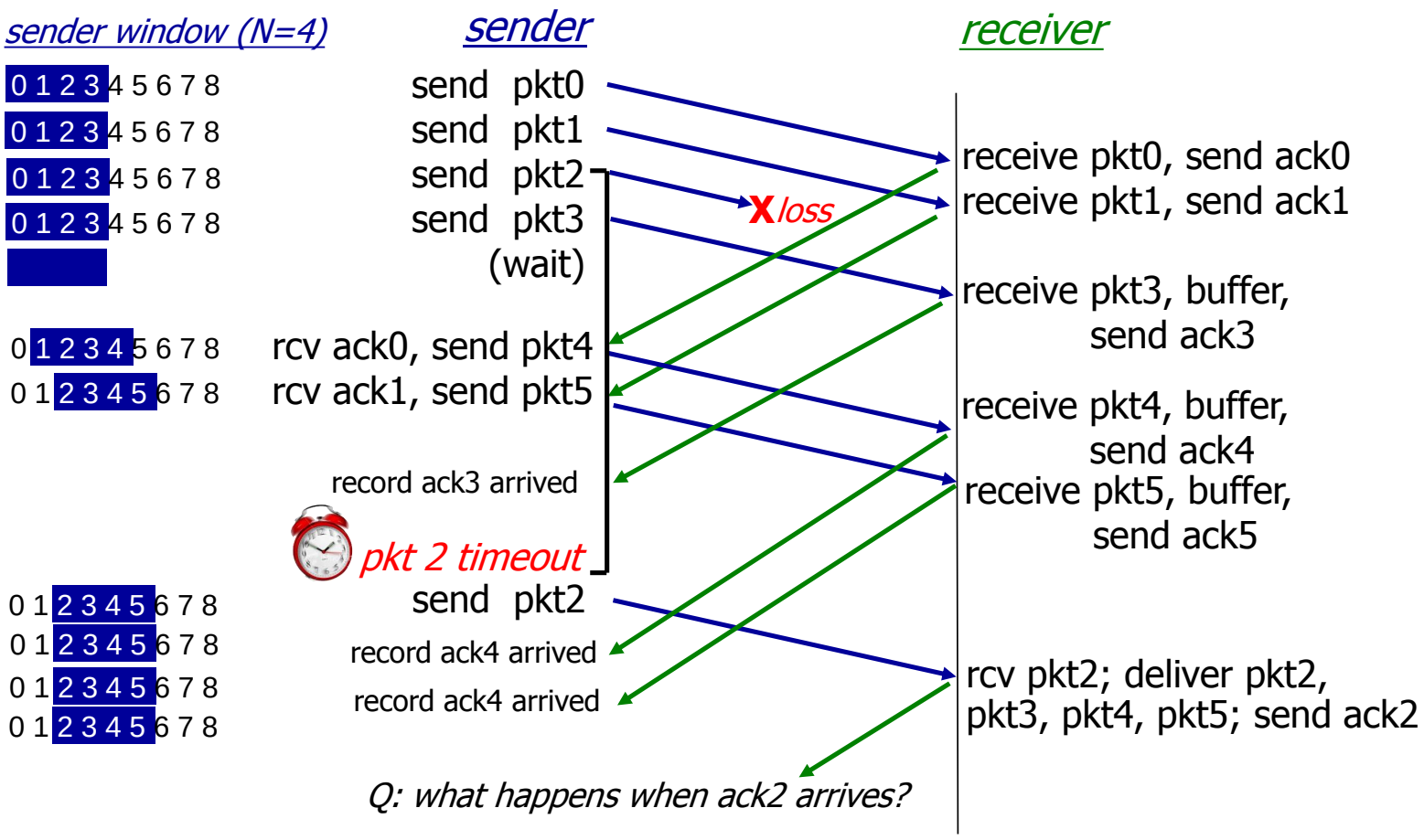
- ACK(n)

otherwise:

- ignore

We have a timeout per packet. When we receive an ACK we check that it is in out window (another error here, don't check the full window up to N, just up to the next sequence). When we move the base pointer we jump it to the next unacked packet (it jumps over all the previously acked packets that are consecutive).

Selective repeat in action



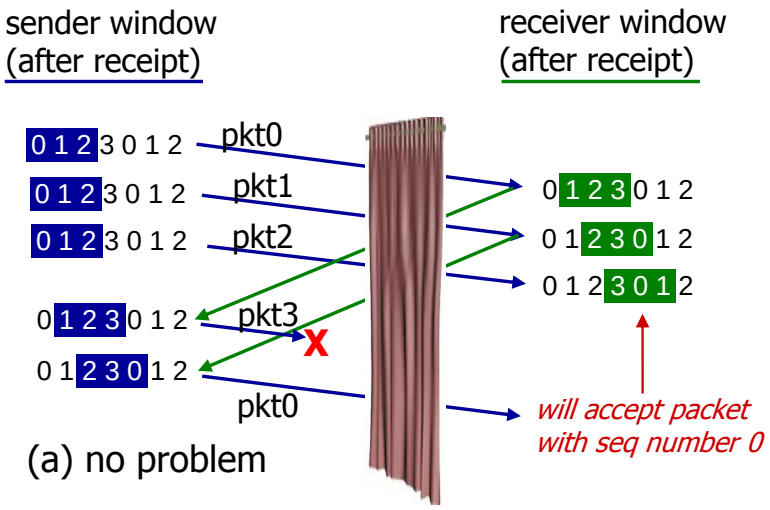
When ACK2 arrives we advance the base all the way to 6.

Selective repeat: dilemma

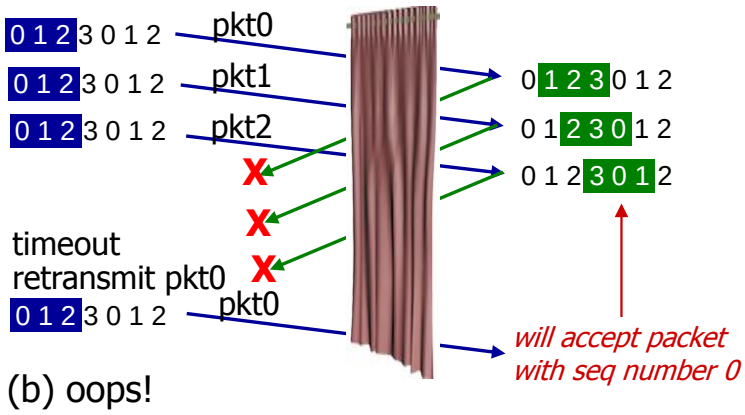
example:

- seq #'s: 0, 1, 2, 3
- window size=3
- receiver sees no difference in two scenarios!
- duplicate data accepted as new in (b)

Q: what relationship between seq # size and window size to avoid problem in (b)?



receiver can't see sender side.
receiver behavior identical in both cases!
something's (very) wrong!



From the receiver side it cannot distinguish between the two scenarios. The problem is that in the first scenario the second packet 0 is new content, but in the second scenario it is repeated data so its still old data, The receiver treats the second packet 0 as new content in both cases. This is wrong.

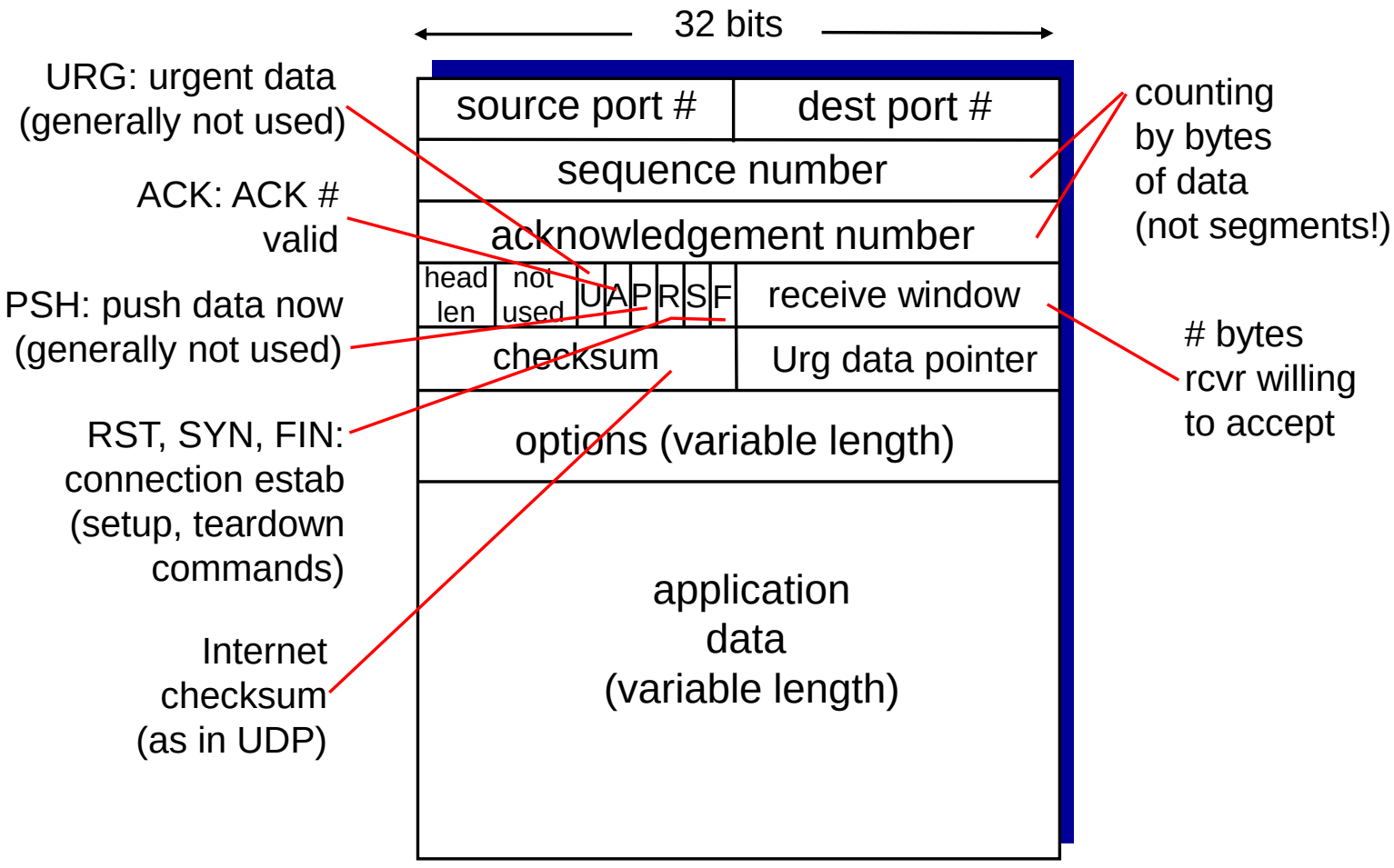
TCP: Overview RFCs: 793,1122,1323, 2018, 2581

- point-to-point:
  - one sender, one receiver
- reliable, in-order *byte steam:*
  - 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) inits sender, receiver state before data exchange
- flow controlled:
  - sender will not overwhelm receiver

There are no message boundaries. So when an application opens a TCP connection we don't need to know how much data we want to send. We can leave the connection open forever and send different sized chunks of data, It incorperates elements of selective repeat but its window is dynamic using congesting controls (will cover later).

The application thinks that things are just byte streams, but TCP is actually packing them into segments and sending them.

TCP segment structure



The idea for the urgent flag is to say that this data is out of order, don't try to process it into your queue and such and just punt it to the application immediately. The ACK flag just says if you should pay attention to the ACK field (basically it might be garbage). The push flag works fairly similar to the urgent flag, but it doesn't do stuff if its out of order. The receive window is how big the receiver buffer is to prevent it from being overflown.

TCP seq. numbers, ACKs

sequence numbers:

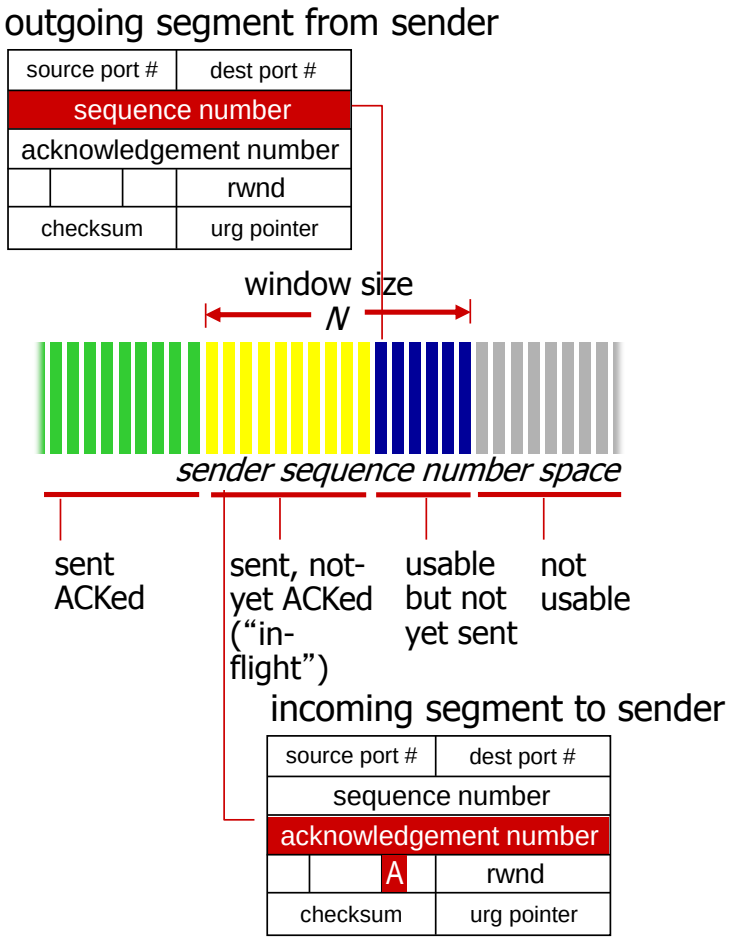
- byte stream "number" of first byte in segment's data

acknowledgements:

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

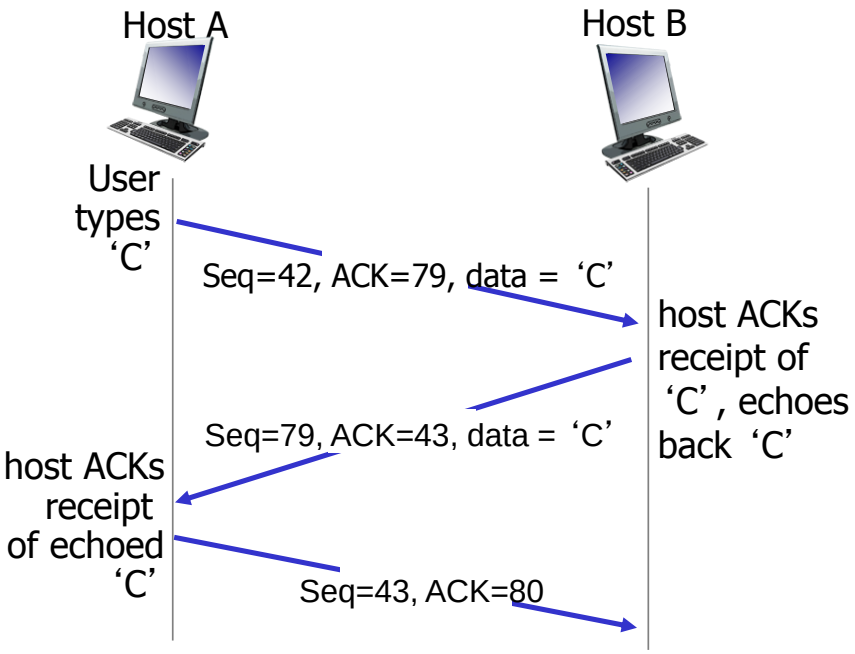
Q: how receiver handles out-of-order segments

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



The sequence number is actually the sequence number of the first byte of data and the acknowledgement is the ack of the next sequence number to be sent. So if we send a segment of size 50 it will have sequence numbers of 100-149 and its ack will be 150. There is very little standardization for how we handle out of order packets. Some places use selective ack.

TCP seq. numbers, ACKs



simple telnet scenario

Say we have a super boring echo server (just echos shit back to you).

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?

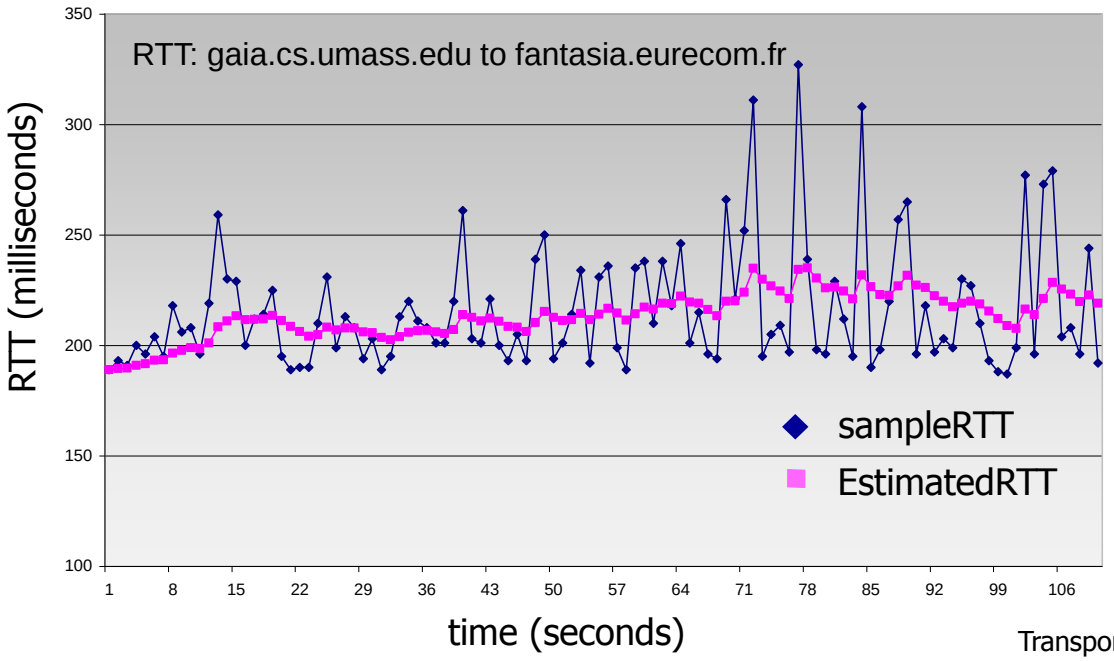
- **`SampleRTT`**: measured time from segment transmission until ACK receipt
  - ignore retransmissions
- **`SampleRTT`** will vary, want estimated RTT "smoother"
  - average several *recent* measurements, not just current **`SampleRTT`**

Since TCP is a bit like go back n we need to handle timeout values. We want the timeout value to be something close to the round trip time so that we aren't waiting any longer than we have to but things still have enough time to get back. So TCP samples the roundtrip time and keeps updating its timeout values. The RTT is basically just sending a packet and timing how long it takes to get back (usually just a segment that was going to be sent anyway). This packet cannot be a retransmission because you might get the ack of the previously sent segment much faster than you should.

TCP round trip time, timeout

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

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



We can apply an estimating formula to the sampled data you get back.

TCP round trip time, timeout

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

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

(typically, β = 0.25)
```

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

estimated RTT

"safety margin"

We want to include a safety margin when calculating the estimated RTT. This safety margin wants to consider the previous variations so it looks at the historical deviation when calculating. This is so that what we sent our timeout too isn't so small is ignores all outliers. The 4 is basically a magic number.

TCP reliable data transfer

- TCP creates rdt service on top of IP's unreliable service
  - pipelined segments
  - cumulative acks
  - single retransmission timer
- retransmissions triggered by:
  - timeout events
  - duplicate acks

let's initially consider simplified TCP sender:

- ignore duplicate acks
- ignore flow control, congestion control

The reliability of TCP is basically due to its incorperation of go back n. When TCP receives duplicate acks it infers some stuff before resending which is how it incorperates elements of selective repeat.

TCP sender events:

data rcvd from app:

- 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`

timeout:

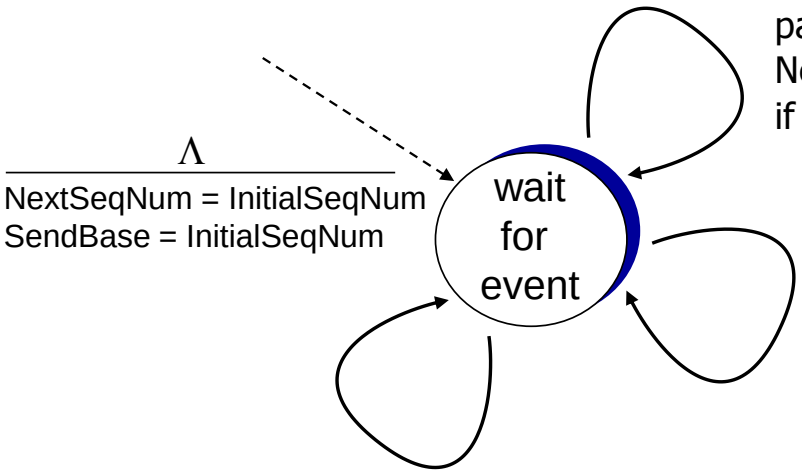
- retransmit segment that caused timeout
- restart timer

ack rcvd:

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

The only part that is different from go back n is when a duplicate ack is received. We deal with checking for stale data.

TCP sender (simplified)



Λ

NextSeqNum = InitialSeqNum
SendBase = InitialSeqNum

data received from application above

create segment, seq. #: NextSeqNum
pass segment to IP (i.e., "send")
NextSeqNum = NextSeqNum + length(data)
if (timer currently not running)
    start timer

timeout

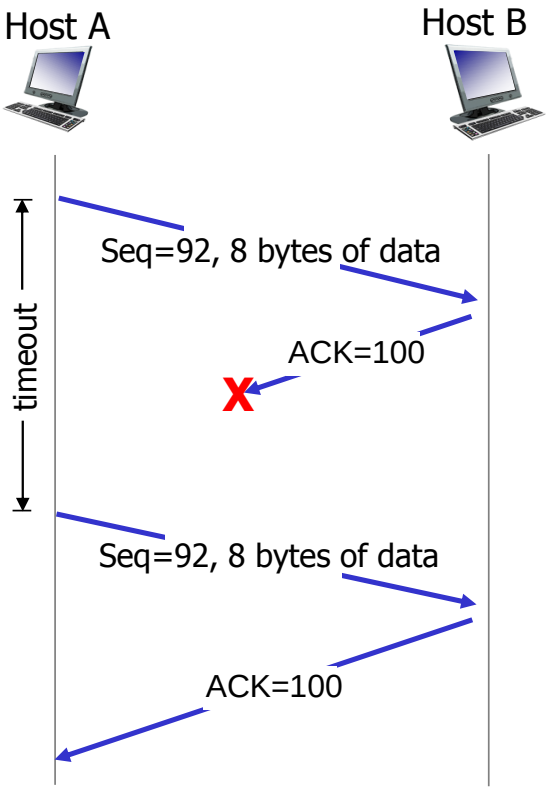
retransmit not-yet-acked segment
        with smallest seq. #
start timer

ACK received, with ACK field value y

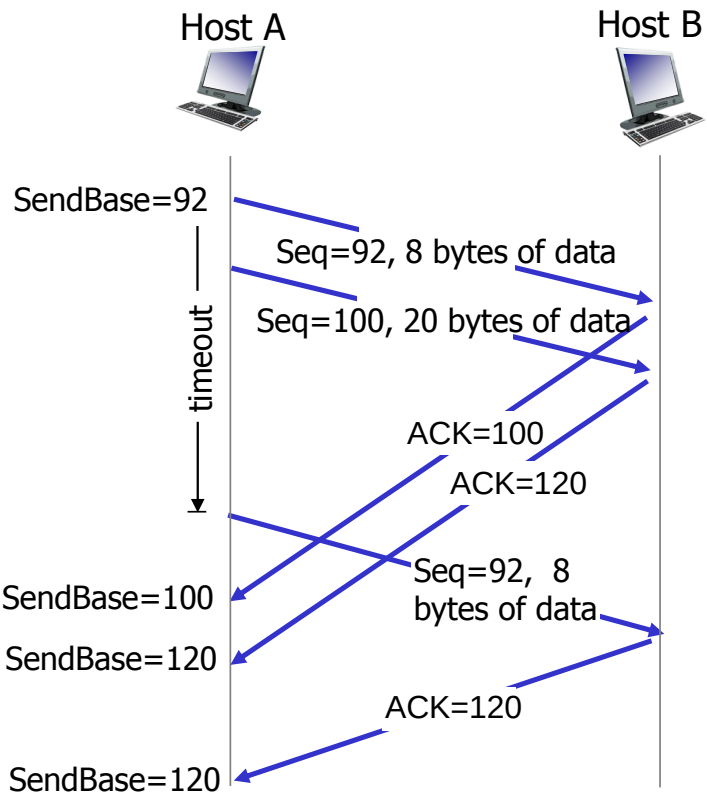
```
if (y > SendBase) {
   SendBase = y
   /* SendBase–1: last cumulatively ACKed byte */
   if (there are currently not-yet-acked segments)
       start timer
     else stop timer
    }
```

TCP is fairly high level so it can make some optimization assumptions. The ack is cummulative so were don't have to check for gaps. This should look surprisingly like go back n.

TCP: retransmission scenarios



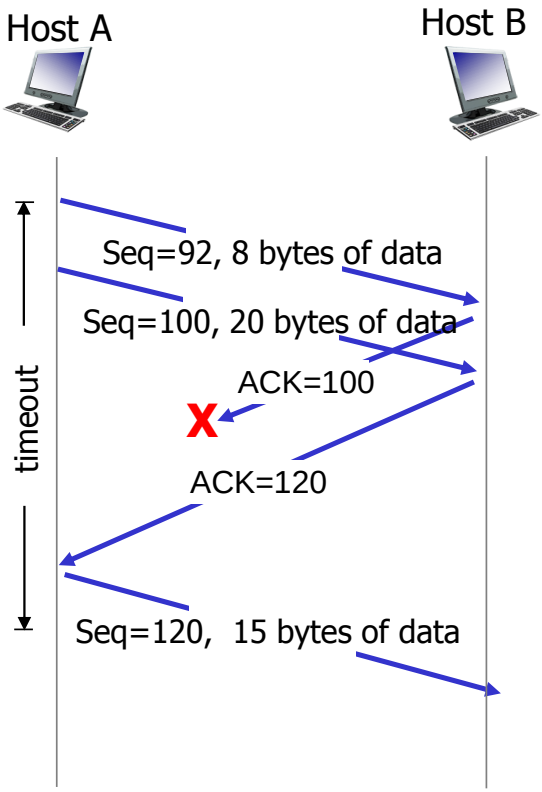
lost ACK scenario



premature timeout

If the sender sends two segments that timeout before either gets back we only resend the first one optimistically (we hope that only the first one was lost). We can change this protocol to resend all of them, but we dont watn to do that.

TCP: retransmission scenarios



cumulative ACK

The receiver also does some hoping when it receives so it delays a little bit hoping for more packets before it acks so that its ack can cover more.

TCP ACK generation [RFC 1122, RFC 2581]

event at receiver	*TCP receiver action*
arrival of in-order segment with expected seq #. All data up to expected seq # already ACKed	delayed ACK. Wait up to 500ms for next segment. If no next segment, send ACK
arrival of in-order segment with expected seq #. One other segment has ACK pending	immediately send single cumulative ACK, ACKing both in-order segments
arrival of out-of-order segment higher-than-expect seq. # . Gap detected	immediately send *duplicate ACK*, indicating seq. # of next expected byte
arrival of segment that partially or completely fills gap	immediate send ACK, provided that segment starts at lower end of gap

TCP fast retransmit

- time-out period often relatively long:
  - long delay before resending lost packet
- detect lost segments via duplicate ACKs.
  - sender often sends many segments back-to-back
  - if segment is lost, there will likely be many duplicate ACKs.

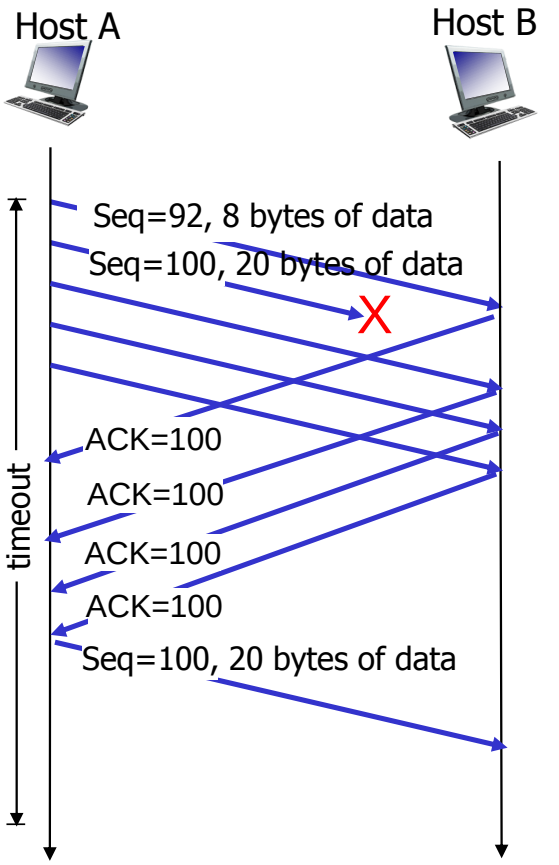
TCP fast retransmit

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

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

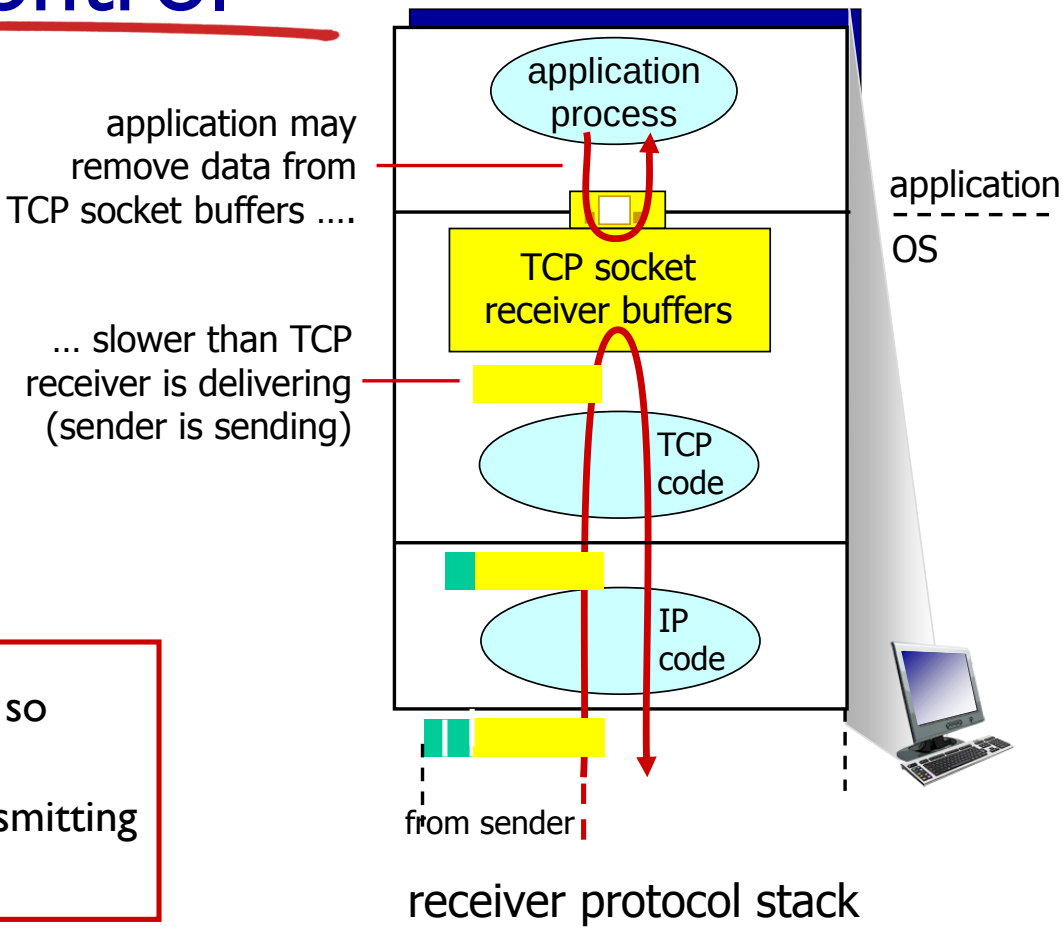
If the sender receives duplicate acks for the same data, then it does a retransmit without a timer.

TCP fast retransmit



fast retransmit after sender receipt of triple duplicate ACK

TCP flow control



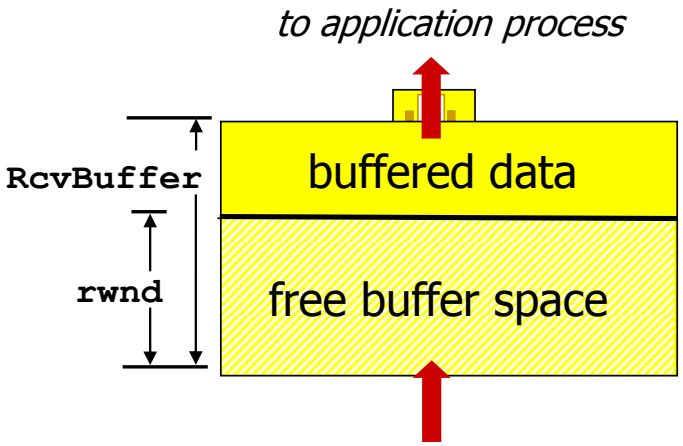
flow control

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

Devices on our network have different "power" levels.

TCP flow control

- receiver "advertises" free buffer space by including **`rwnd`** value in TCP header of receiver-to-sender segments
  - **`RcvBuffer`** size set via socket options (typical default is 4096 bytes)
  - many operating systems autoadjust **`RcvBuffer`**
- sender limits amount of unacked ("in-flight") data to receiver's **`rwnd`** value
- guarantees receive buffer will not overflow



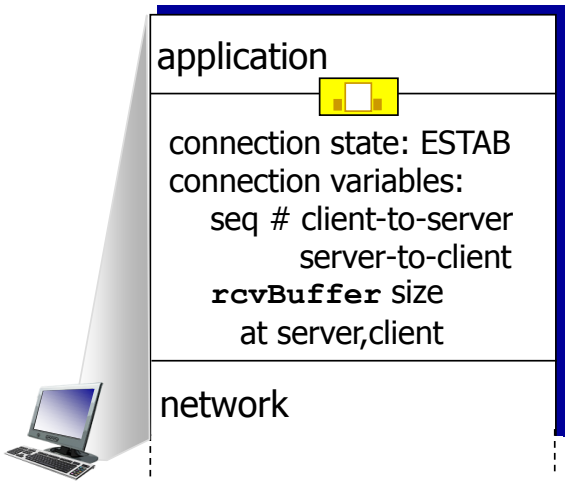
receiver-side buffering

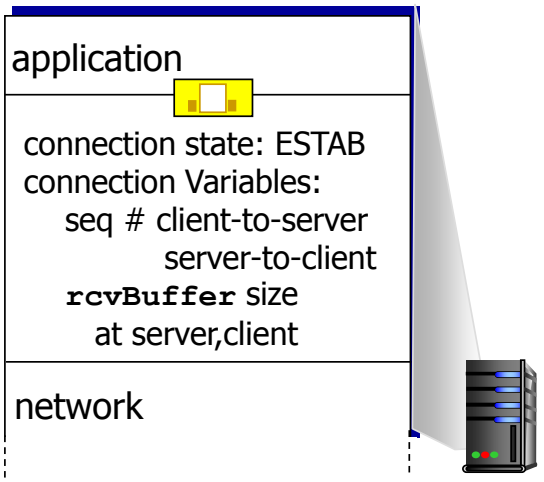
You want to buffer these packets to mitigate loss from one of your devices being much smaller than the other. We can use the network pipeline as a buffer and just at that to your receive window value.

Connection Management

before exchanging data, sender/receiver "handshake":

- agree to establish connection (each knowing the other willing to establish connection)
- agree on connection parameters



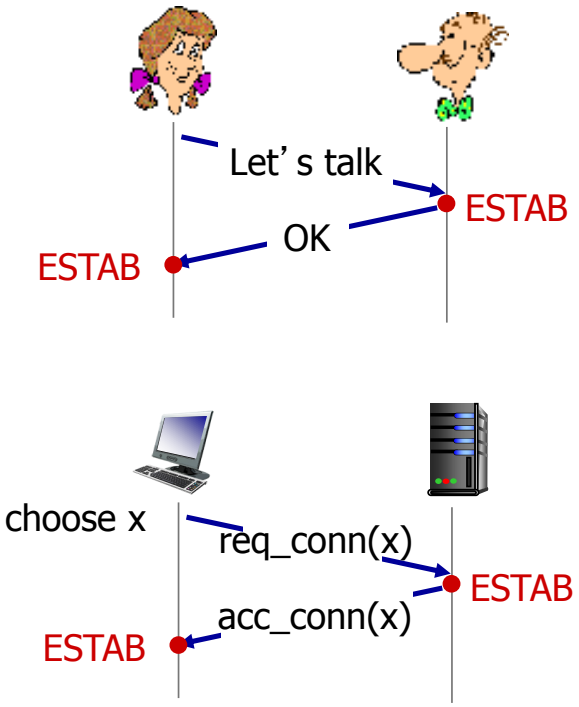



```
Socket clientSocket =
  newSocket("hostname","port
   number");
```

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

Agreeing to establish a connection

2-way handshake:

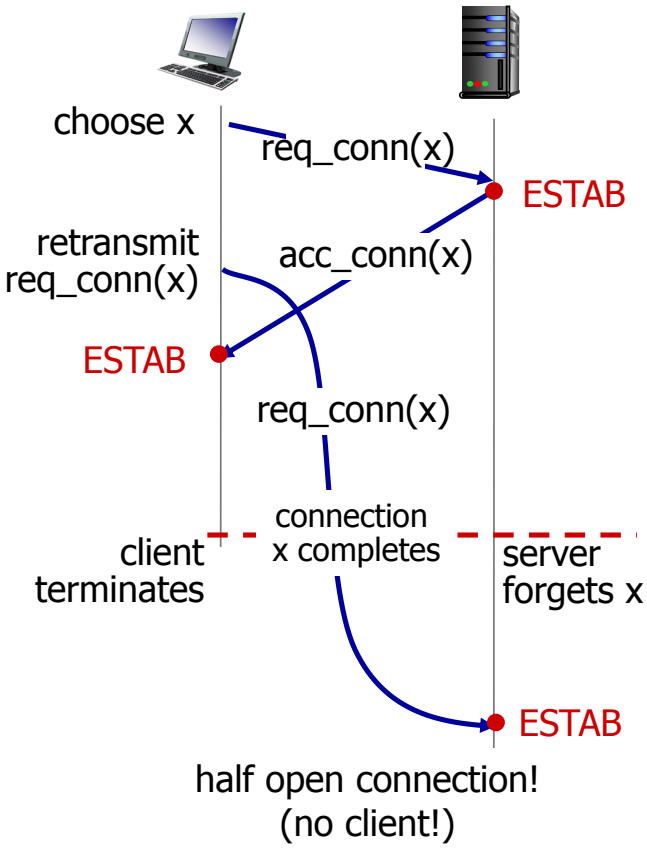


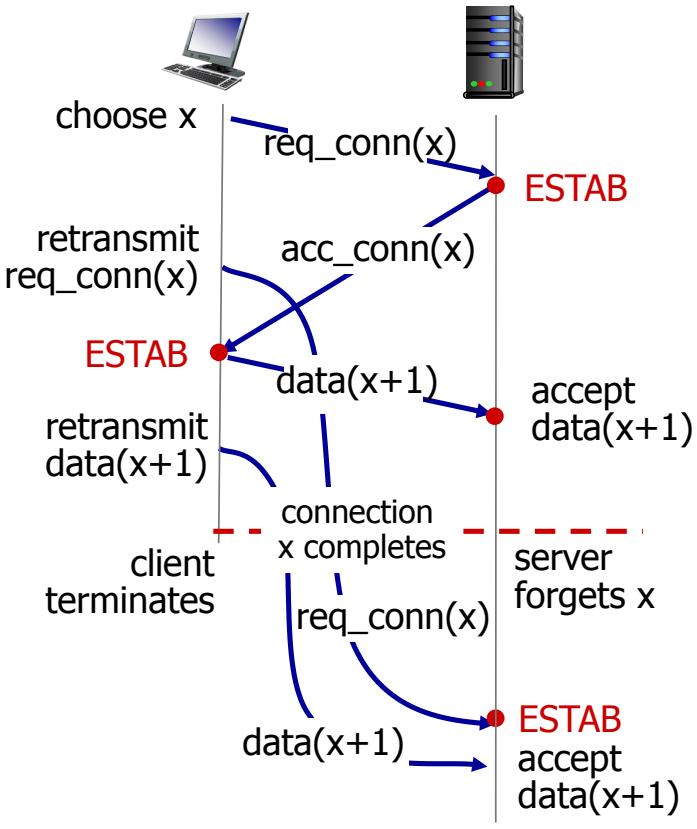
Q: will 2-way handshake always work in network?

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

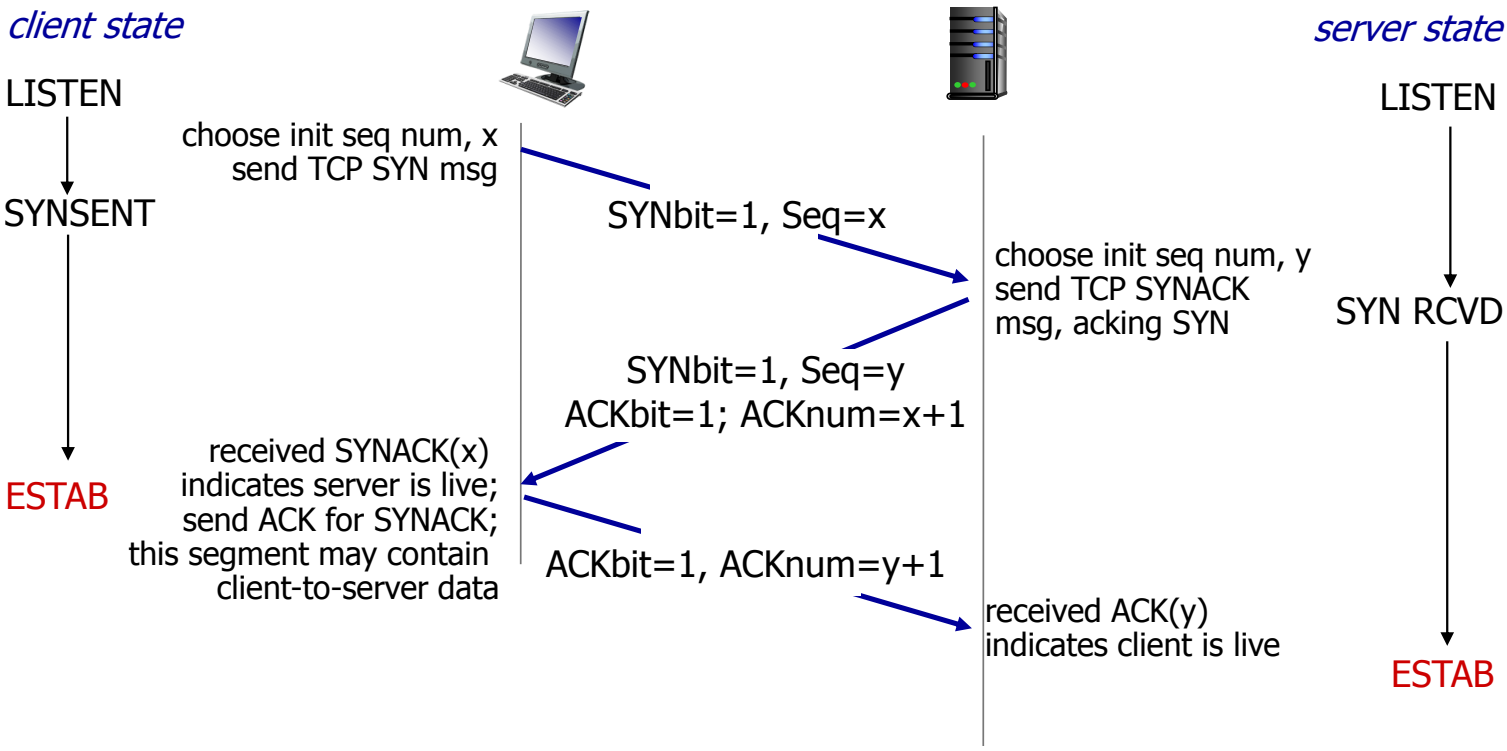
Agreeing to establish a connection

2-way handshake failure scenarios:



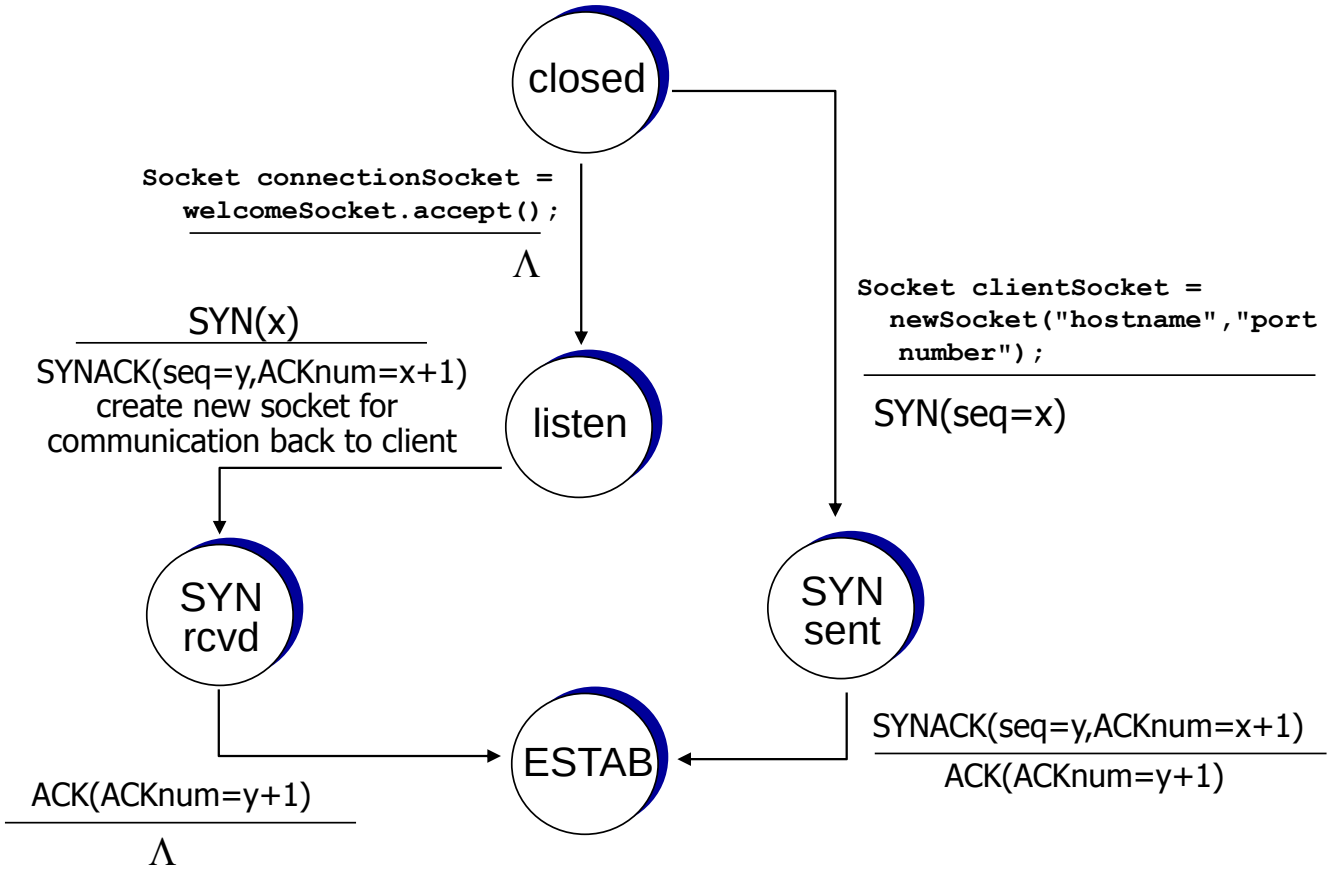


TCP 3-way handshake



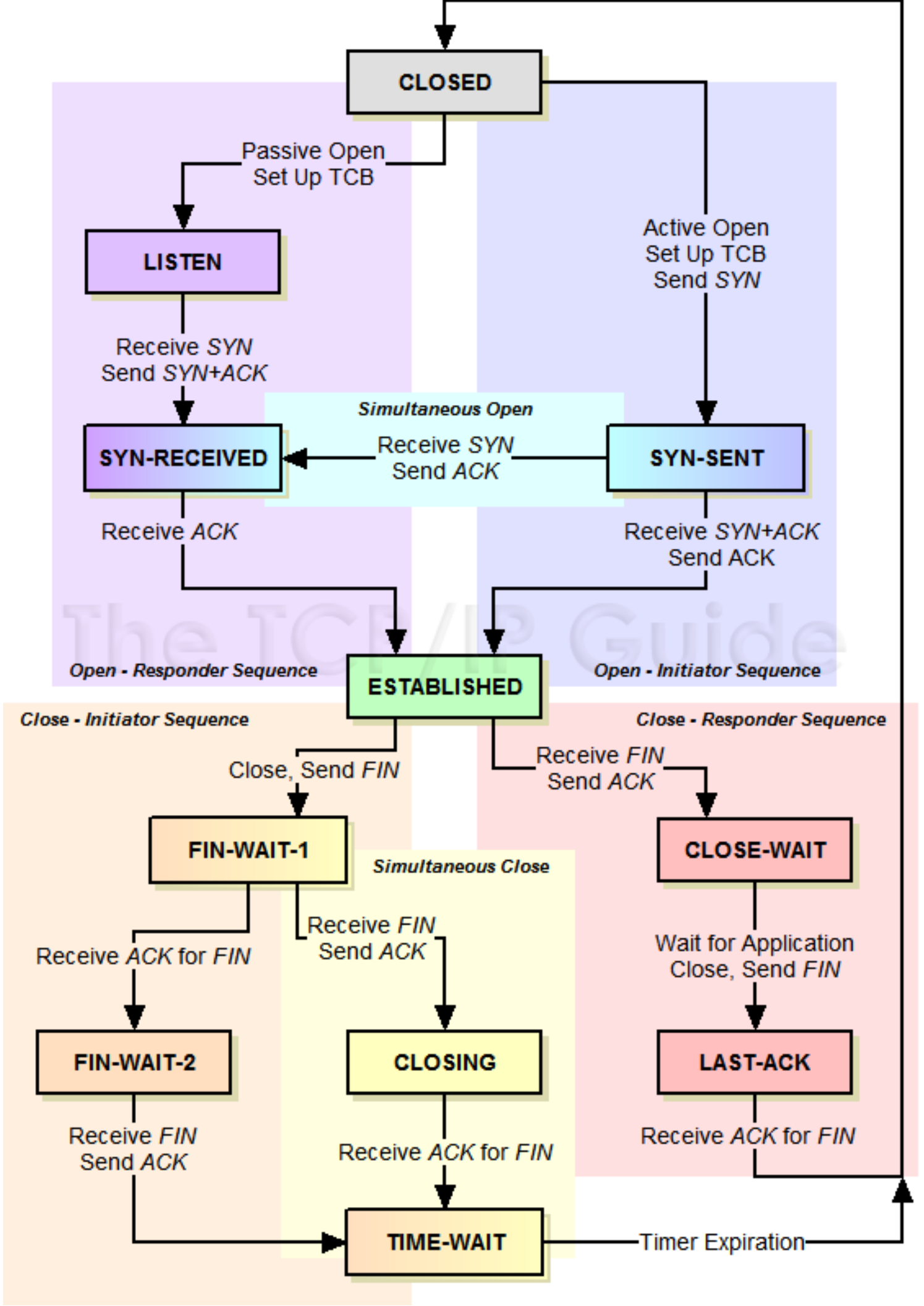
when the receiver receives a syn they can respond with an ack and a syn of their own. This way the handshake is symmetric and gets around issues.

TCP 3-way handshake: FSM

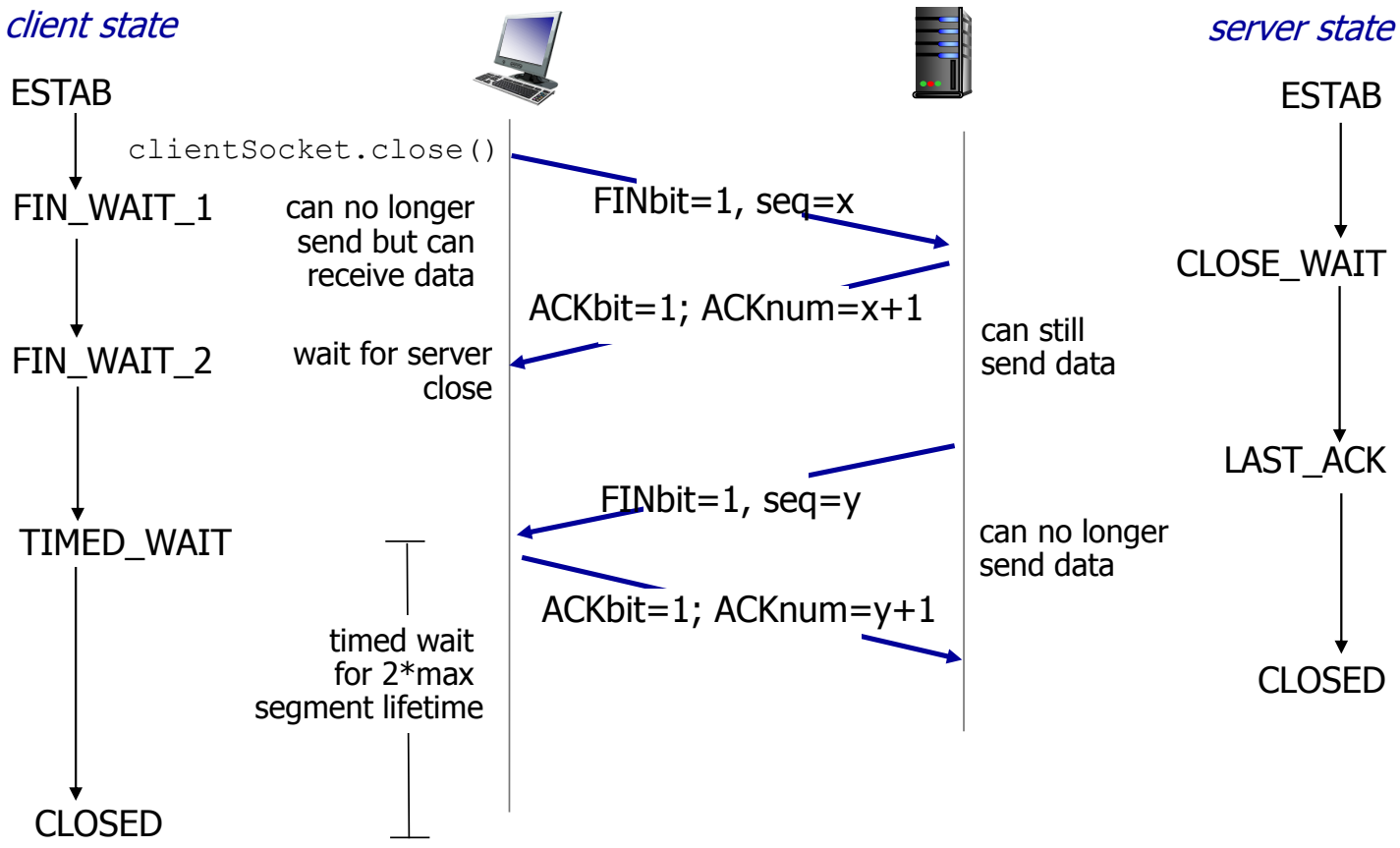


TCP: closing a connection

- 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


CLOSED
Passive Open
Set Up TCB
Active Open
Set Up TCB
Send SYN
LISTEN
Receive SYN
Send SYN+ACK
Simultaneous Open
SYN-RECEIVED
Receive SYN
Send ACK
SYN-SENT
Receive ACK
Receive SYN+ACK
Send ACK
Open - Responder Sequence
ESTABLISHED
Open - Initiator Sequence
Close - Initiator Sequence
Close - Responder Sequence
Close, Send FIN
Receive FIN
Send ACK
FIN-WAIT-1
CLOSE-WAIT
Simultaneous Close
Receive ACK for FIN
Receive FIN
Send ACK
Wait for Application
Close, Send FIN
FIN-WAIT-2
CLOSING
LAST-ACK
Receive FIN
Send ACK
Receive ACK for FIN
Receive ACK for FIN
TIME-WAIT
Timer Expiration

TCP: closing a connection



Closing in a 4 way handshake. We send a fin packet and wait for a response. When the other side is ready (finished sending its shit). And so on.

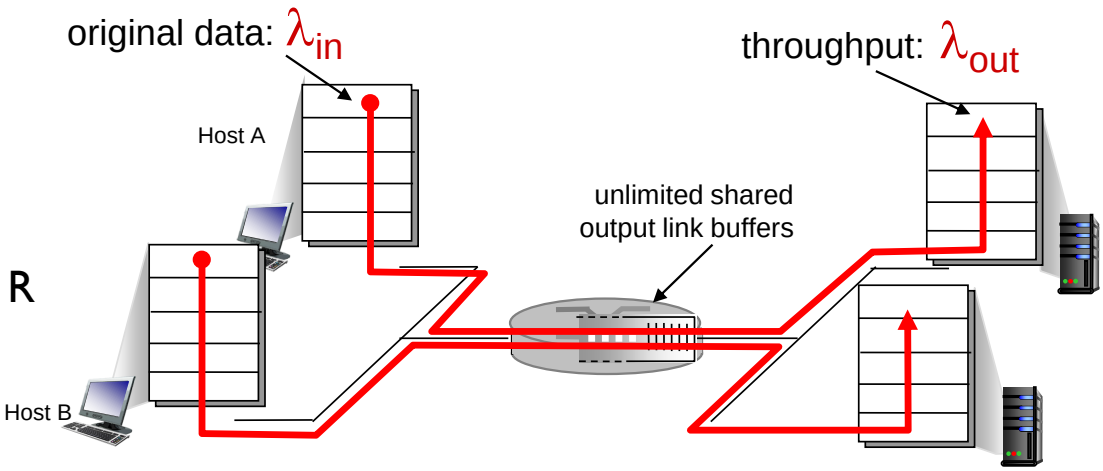
Principles of congestion control

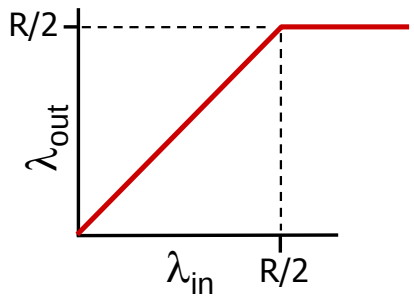
congestion:

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

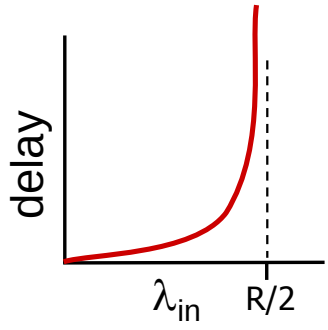
Causes/costs of congestion: scenario 1

- two senders, two receivers
- one router, infinite buffers
- output link capacity: R
- no retransmission





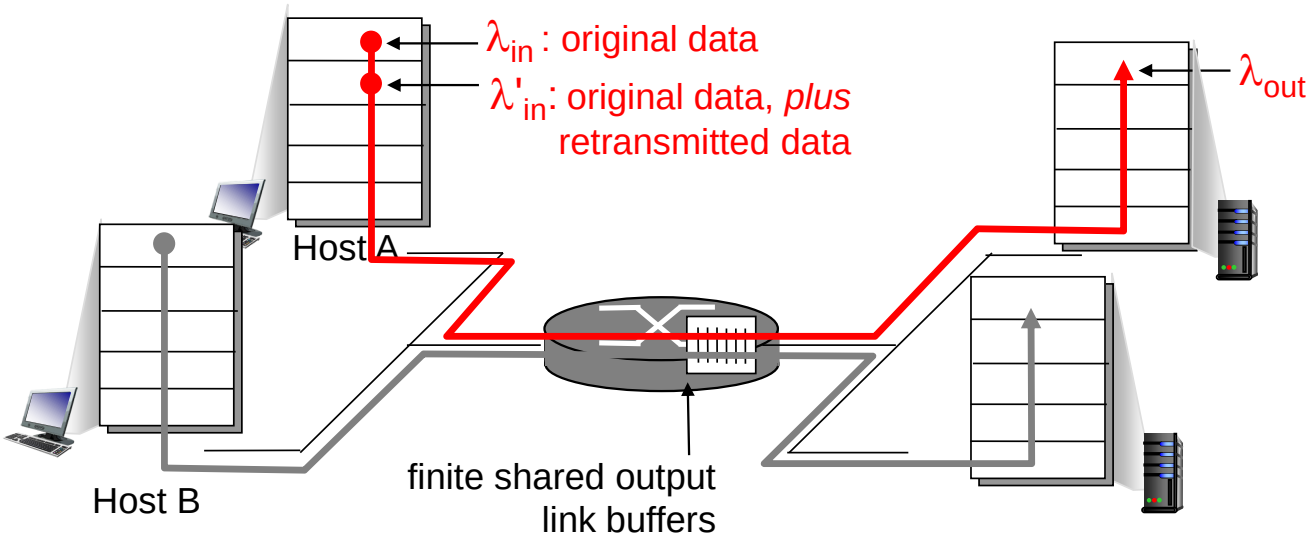
- maximum per-connection throughput: R/2



- large delays as arrival rate, λ_{in}, approaches capacity

Causes/costs of congestion: scenario 2

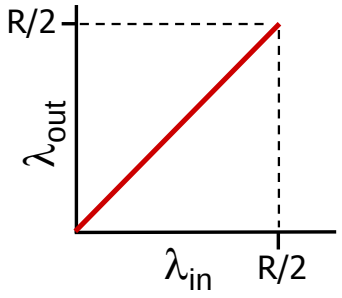
- one router, *finite* buffers
- sender retransmission of timed-out packet
  - application-layer input = application-layer output: $\lambda_{in} = \lambda_{out}$
  - transport-layer input includes *retransmissions* : $\lambda'_{in} \geq \lambda_{in}$

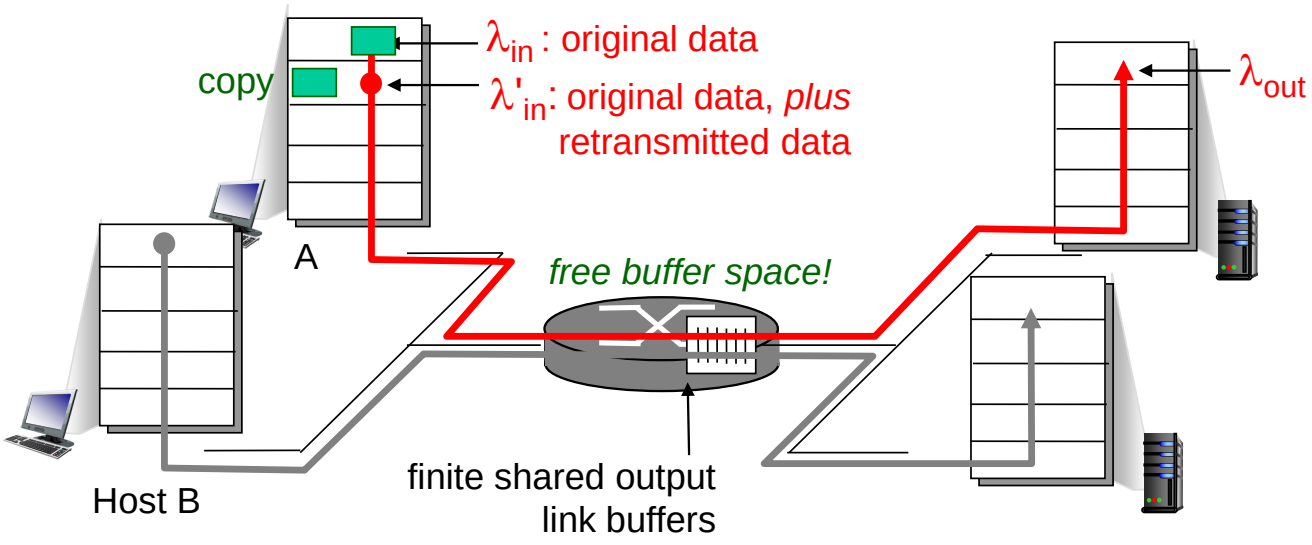


Causes/costs of congestion: scenario 2

idealization: perfect knowledge

- sender sends only when router buffers available



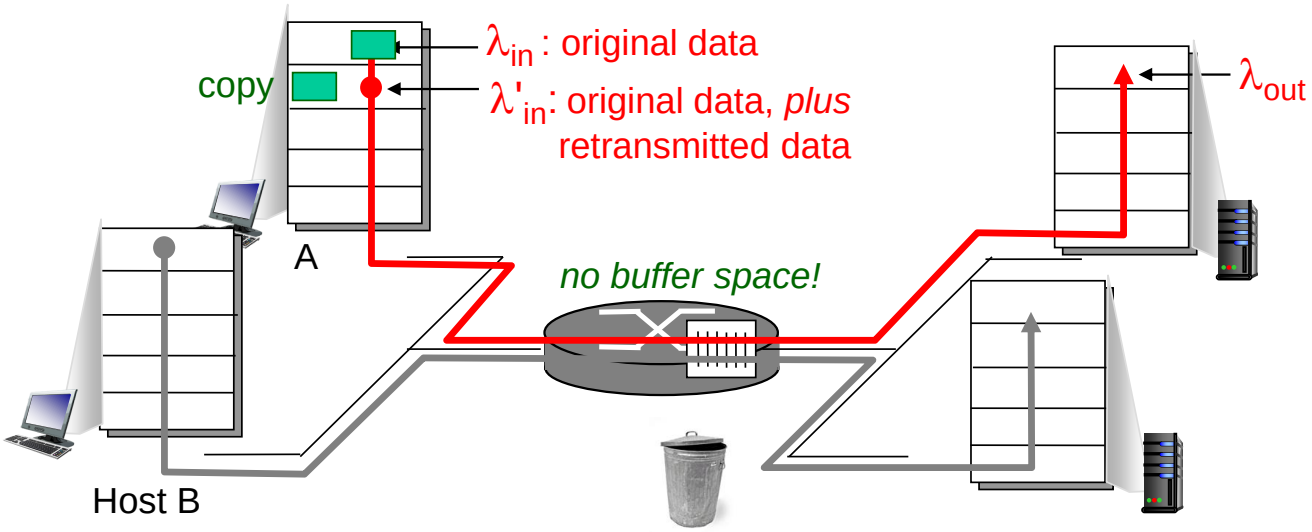


Causes/costs of congestion: scenario 2

Idealization: known loss

packets can be lost, dropped at router due to full buffers

- sender only resends if packet *known* to be lost



Causes/costs of congestion: scenario 2

Idealization: known loss

packets can be lost, dropped at router due to full buffers

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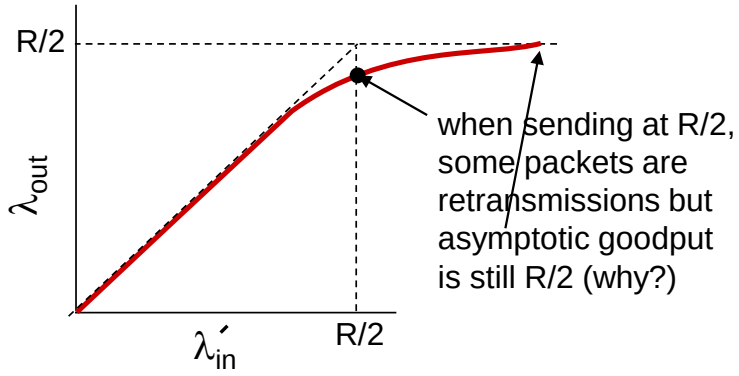
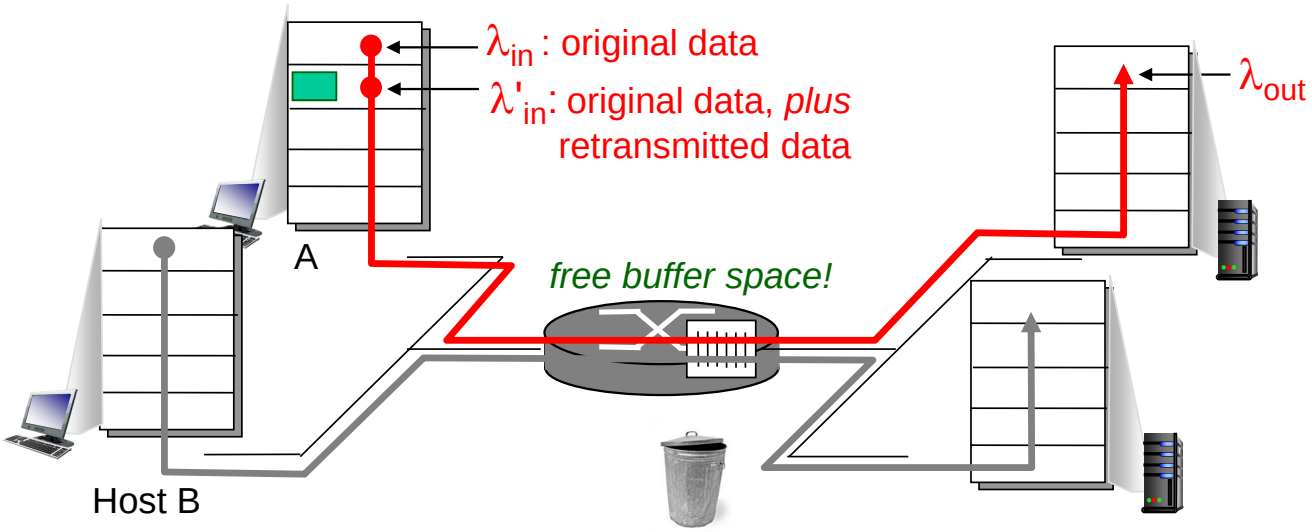
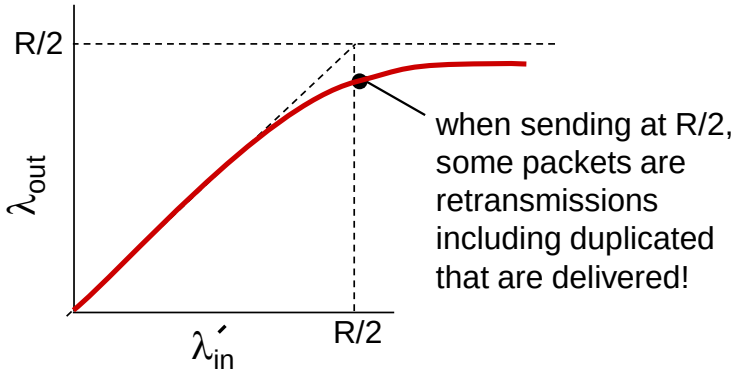


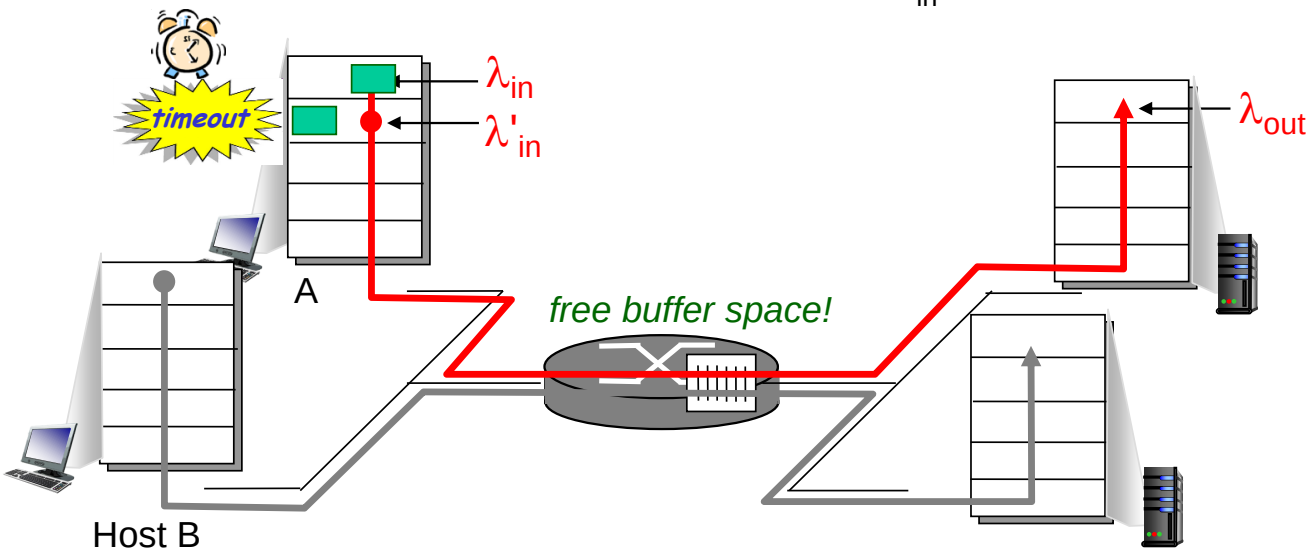


Causes/costs of congestion: scenario 2

Realistic: duplicates

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





Causes/costs of congestion: scenario 2

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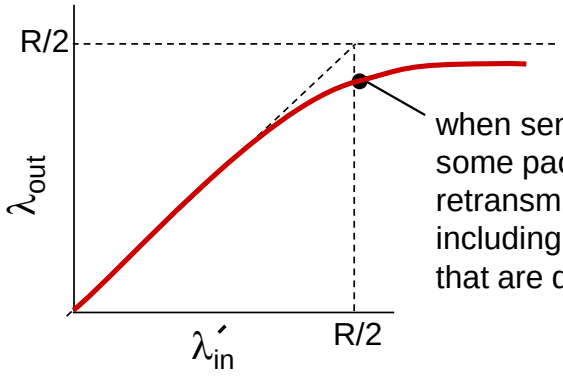


"costs" of congestion:

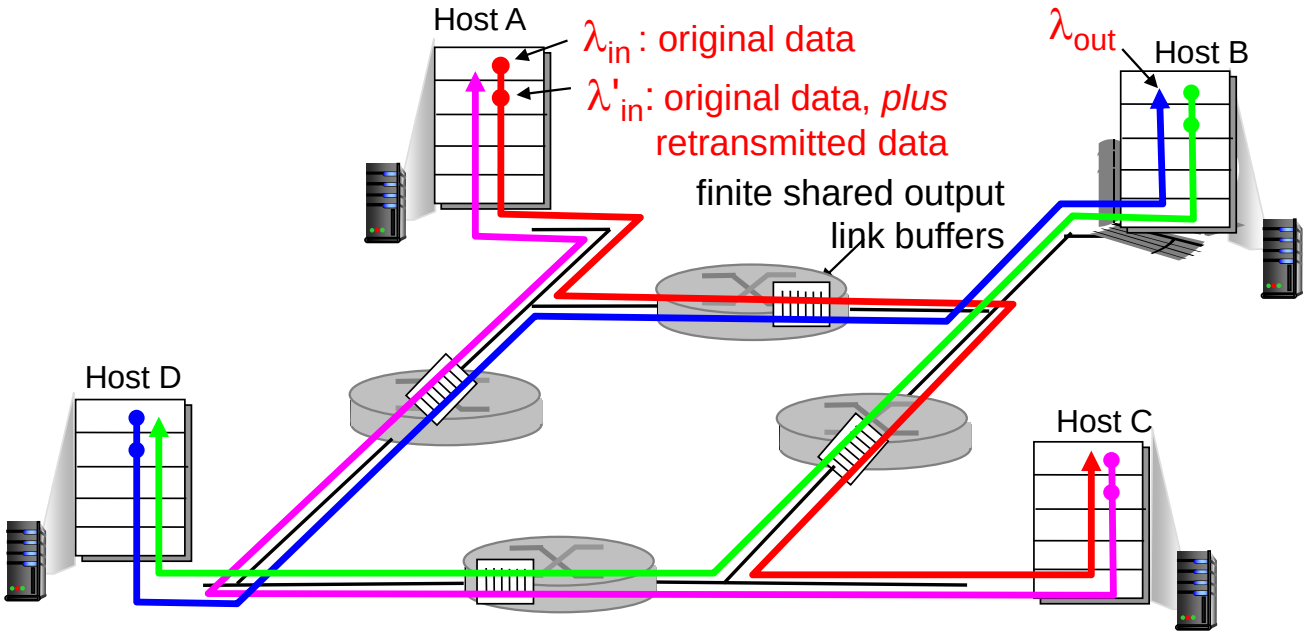
- more work (retrans) for given "goodput"
- unneeded retransmissions: link carries multiple copies of pkt
  - decreasing goodput

Causes/costs of congestion: scenario 3

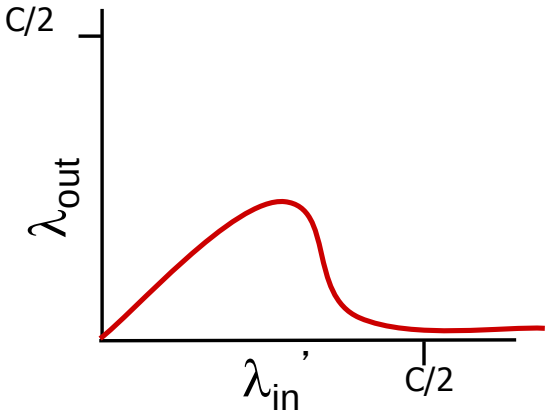
- four senders
- multihop paths
- timeout/retransmit

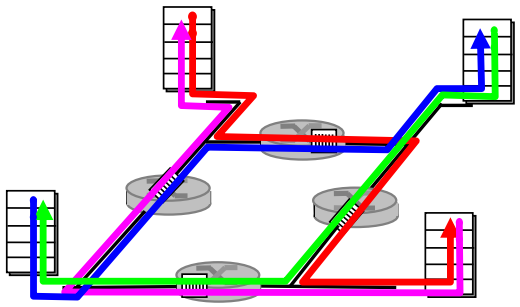
Q: what happens as λ_{in} and λ_{in}' increase ?

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 used for that packet was wasted!

Approaches towards congestion control

two broad approaches towards congestion control:

end-end congestion control:

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

network-assisted congestion control:

- routers provide feedback to end systems
  - single bit indicating congestion (SNA, DECbit, TCP/IP ECN, ATM)
  - explicit rate for sender to send at

Case study: ATM ABR congestion control

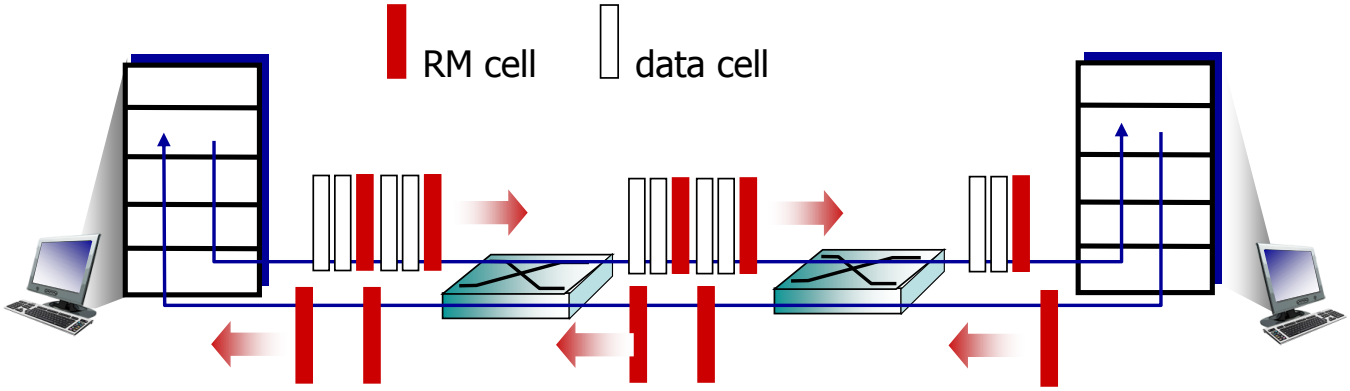
ABR: available bit rate:

- "elastic service"
- if sender's path "underloaded":
  - sender should use available bandwidth
- if sender's path congested:
  - sender throttled to minimum guaranteed rate

RM (resource management) cells:

- sent by sender, interspersed with data cells
- bits in RM cell set by switches ("*network-assisted*")
  - *NI bit:* no increase in rate (mild congestion)
  - *CI bit:* congestion indication
- RM cells returned to sender by receiver, with bits intact

Case study: ATM ABR congestion control



- two-byte ER (explicit rate) field in RM cell
  - congested switch may lower ER value in cell
  - senders' send rate thus max supportable rate on path
- EFCI bit in data cells: set to 1 in congested switch
  - if data cell preceding RM cell has EFCI set, receiver sets CI bit in returned RM cell

Chapter 3 outline

3.1 transport-layer services

3.2 multiplexing and demultiplexing

~~3.3 connectionless transport: UDP~~

3.4 principles of reliable data transfer

3.5 connection-oriented transport: TCP

- segment structure
- reliable data transfer
- flow control
- connection management

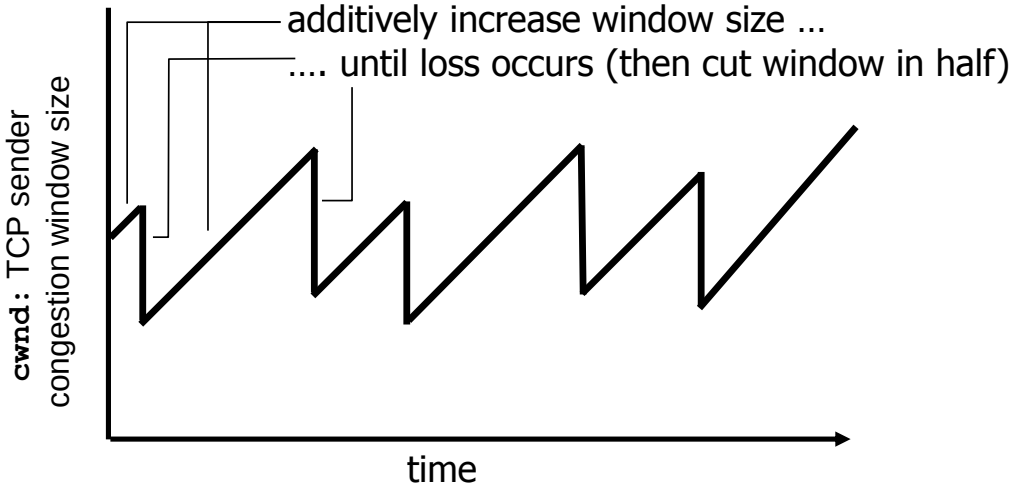
3.6 principles of congestion control

3.7 TCP congestion control

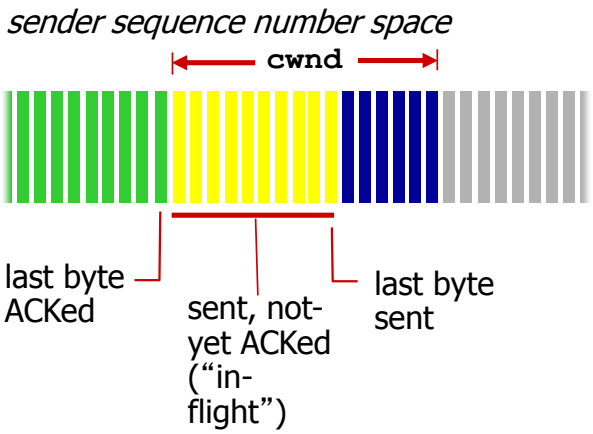
TCP congestion control: additive increase multiplicative decrease

- *approach:* sender increases transmission rate (window size), probing for usable bandwidth, until loss occurs
  - *additive increase:* increase **`cwnd`** by 1 MSS every RTT until loss detected
  - *multiplicative decrease:* cut **`cwnd`** in half after loss

AIMD saw tooth behavior: probing for bandwidth



TCP Congestion Control: details



- sender limits transmission:

$$\texttt{LastByteSent} - \texttt{LastByteAcked} \leq \texttt{cwnd}$$

- **cwnd** is dynamic, function of perceived network congestion

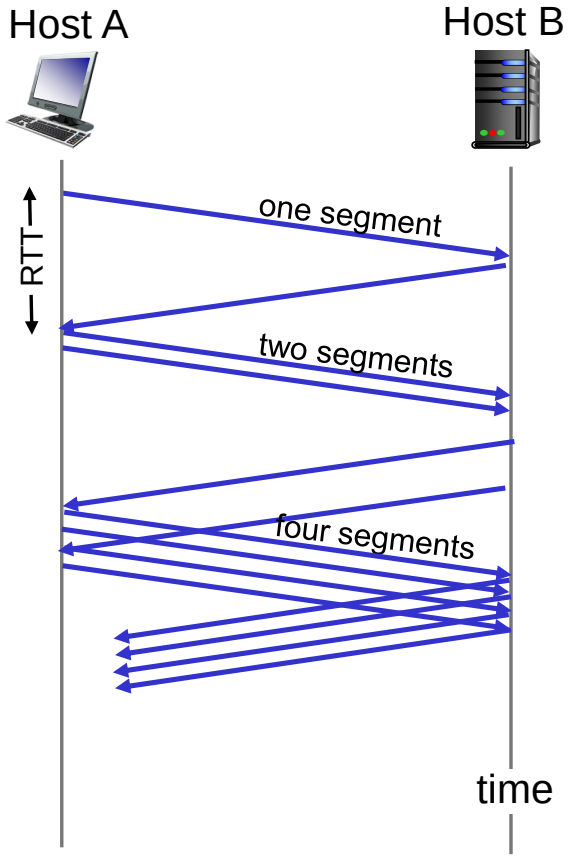
TCP sending rate:

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

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

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



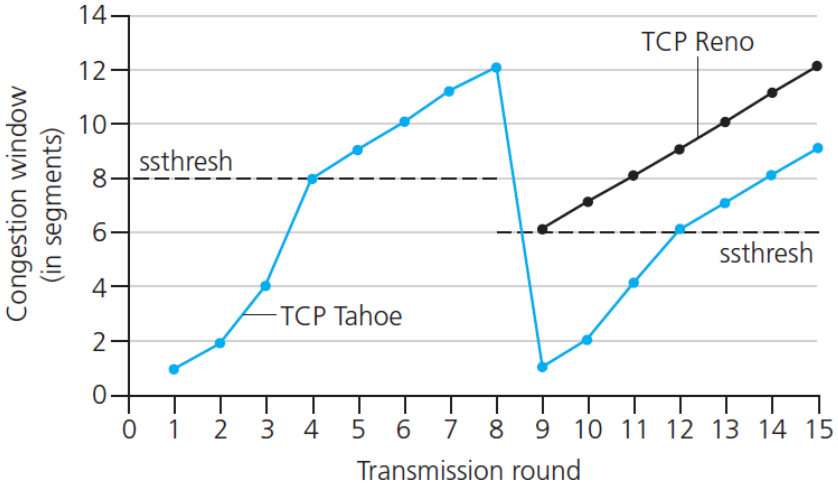
TCP: detecting, reacting to loss

- loss indicated by timeout:
  - **cwnd** set to 1 MSS;
  - window then grows exponentially (as in slow start) to threshold, then grows linearly
- loss indicated by 3 duplicate ACKs: TCP RENO
  - dup ACKs indicate network capable of delivering some segments
  - **cwnd** is cut in half window then grows linearly
- TCP Tahoe always sets **cwnd** to 1 (timeout or 3 duplicate acks)

TCP: switching from slow start to CA

Q: when should the exponential increase switch to linear?

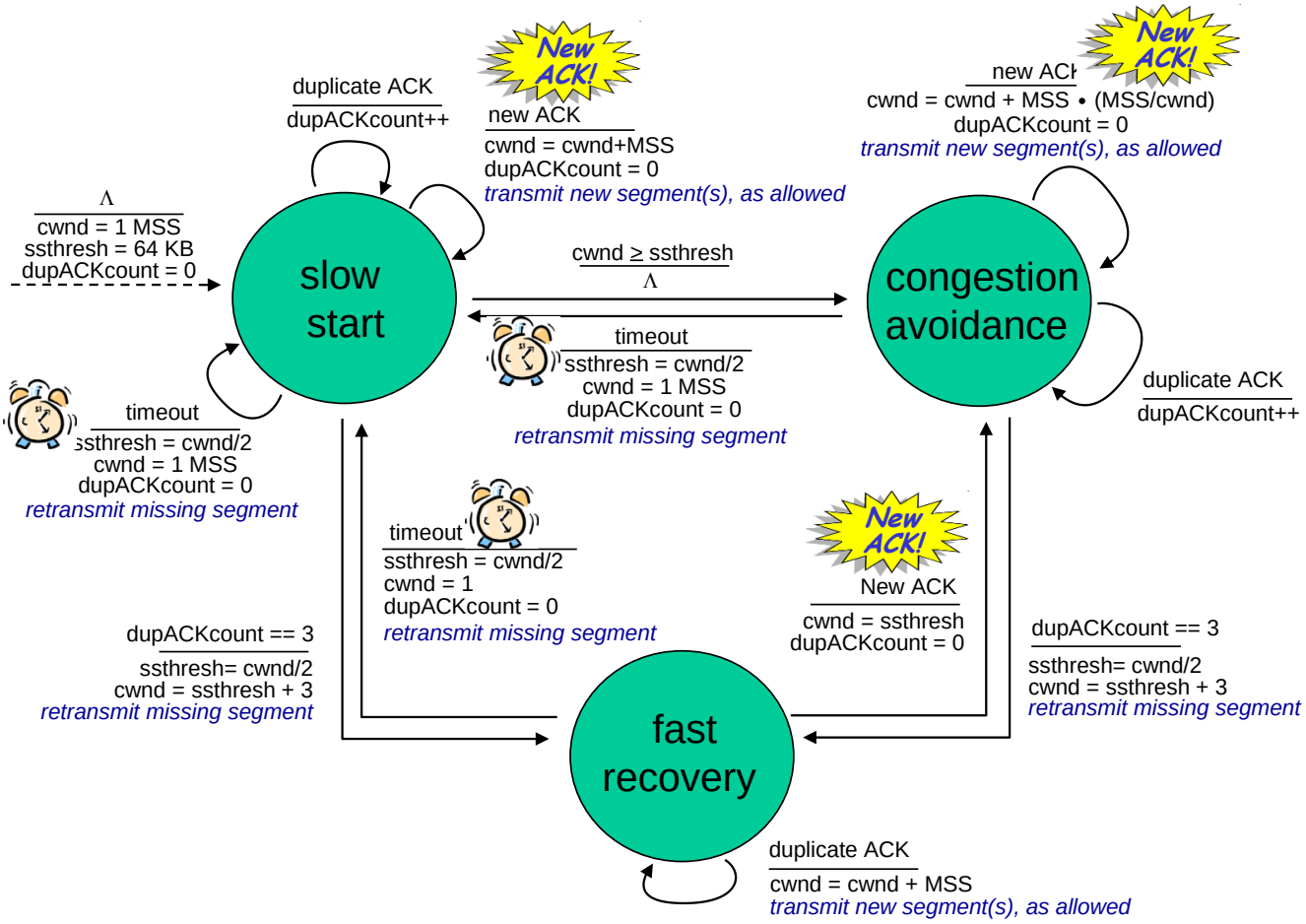
A: when **cwnd** gets to 1/2 of its value before timeout.



Implementation:

- variable **ssthresh**
- on loss event, **ssthresh** is set to 1/2 of **cwnd** just before loss event

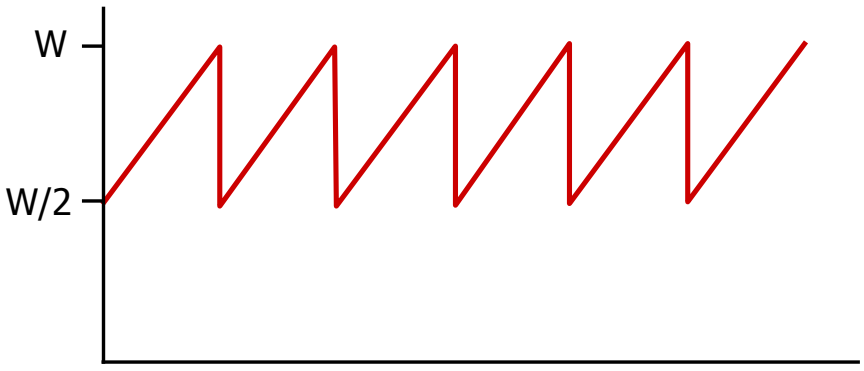
Summary: TCP Congestion Control



TCP throughput

- avg. TCP thruput as function of window size, RTT?
  - ignore slow start, assume 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 Futures: 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]:

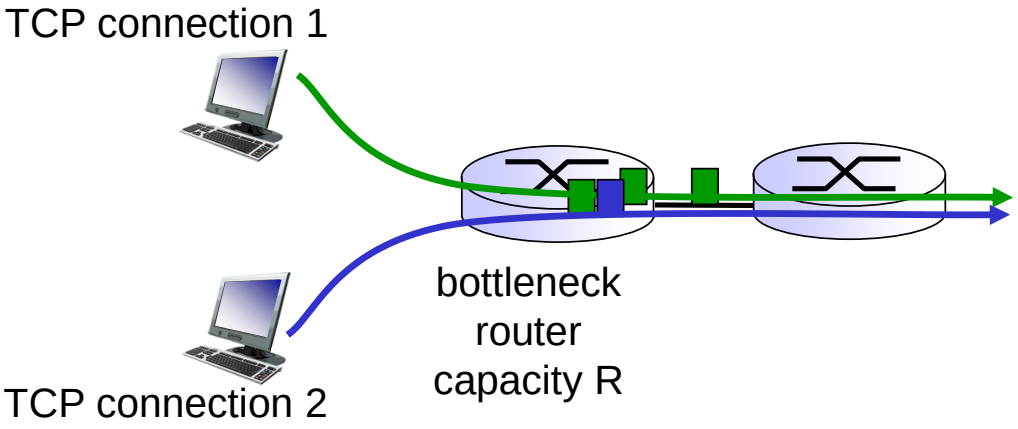
$$\text{TCP throughput} = \frac{1.22 \cdot \text{MSS}}{\text{RTT}\sqrt{L}}$$

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

- new versions of TCP for high-speed

TCP Fairness

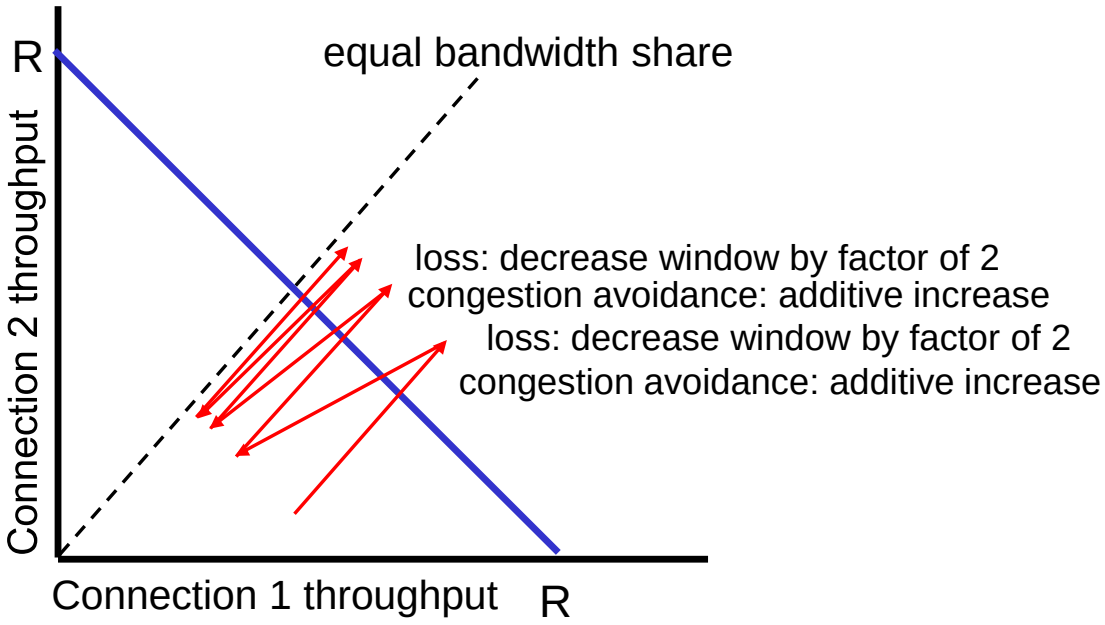
fairness goal: if K TCP sessions share same bottleneck link of bandwidth R, each should have average rate of R/K



Why is TCP fair?

two competing sessions:

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



Fairness (more)

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

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