Network Programming: Part I

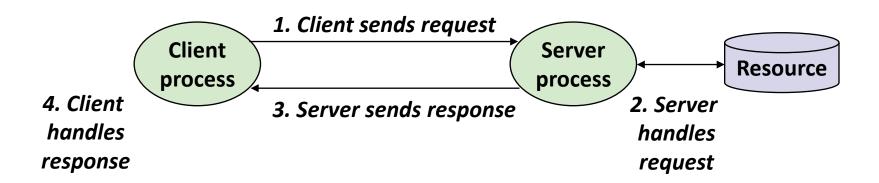
15-213: Introduction to Computer Systems 21st Lecture, Apr. 6, 2017

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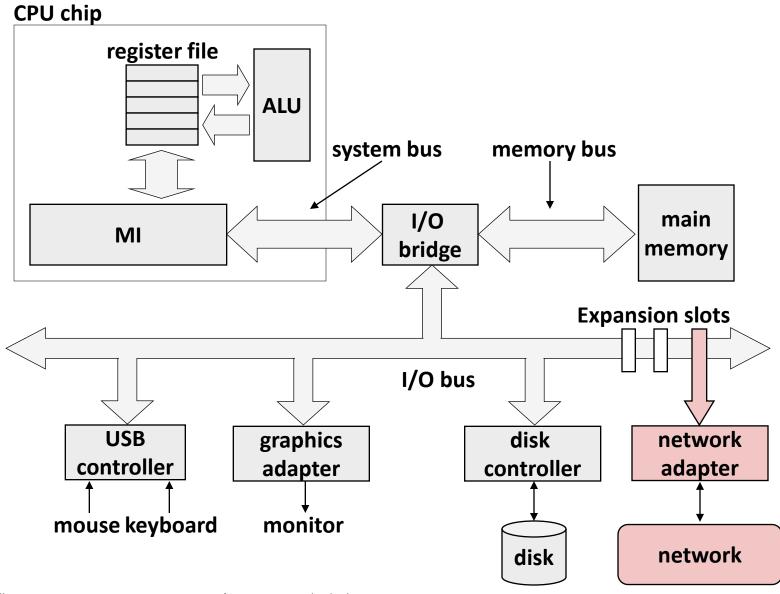
A Client-Server Transaction

- Most network applications are based on the client-server model:
 - A server process and one or more client processes
 - Server manages some resource
 - Server provides service by manipulating resource for clients
 - Server activated by request from client (vending machine analogy)



Note: clients and servers are processes running on hosts (can be the same or different hosts)

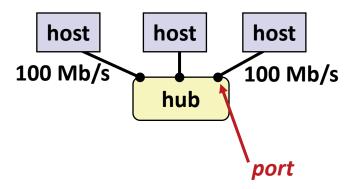
Hardware Organization of a Network Host



Computer Networks

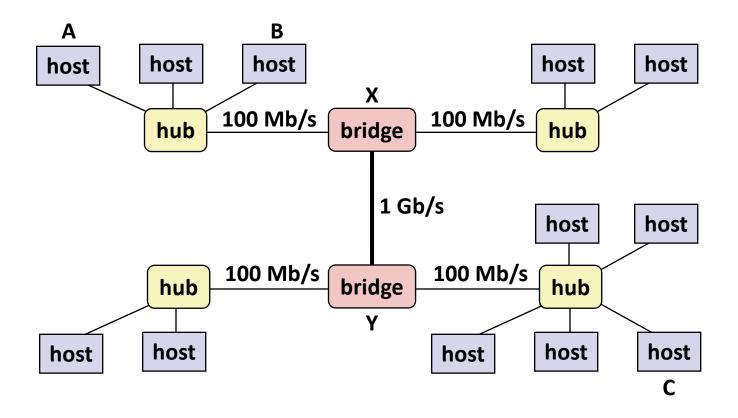
- A network is a hierarchical system of boxes and wires organized by geographical proximity
 - SAN (System Area Network) spans cluster or machine room
 - Switched Ethernet, Quadrics QSW, ...
 - LAN (Local Area Network) spans a building or campus
 - Ethernet is most prominent example
 - WAN (Wide Area Network) spans country or world
 - Typically high-speed point-to-point phone lines
- An internetwork (internet) is an interconnected set of networks
 - The Global IP Internet (uppercase "I") is the most famous example of an internet (lowercase "i")
- Let's see how an internet is built from the ground up

Lowest Level: Ethernet Segment



- Ethernet segment consists of a collection of hosts connected by wires (twisted pairs) to a hub
- Spans room or floor in a building
- Operation
 - Each Ethernet adapter has a unique 48-bit address (MAC address)
 - E.g., 00:16:ea:e3:54:e6
 - Hosts send bits to any other host in chunks called frames
 - Hub slavishly copies each bit from each port to every other port
 - Every host sees every bit
 - Note: Hubs are obsolete. Bridges (switches, routers) became cheap enough to replace them

Next Level: Bridged Ethernet Segment



- Spans building or campus
- Bridges cleverly learn which hosts are reachable from which ports and then selectively copy frames from port to port

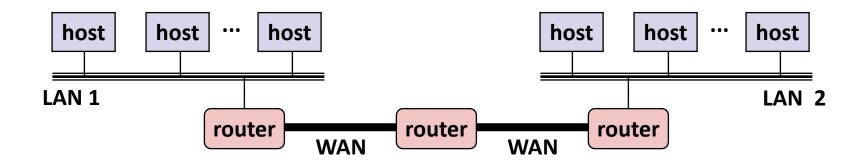
Conceptual View of LANs

For simplicity, hubs, bridges, and wires are often shown as a collection of hosts attached to a single wire:



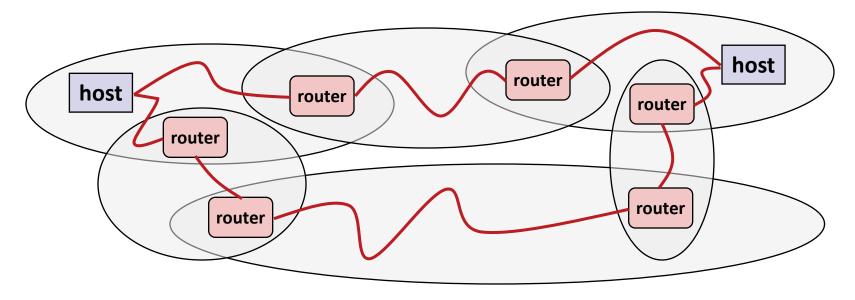
Next Level: internets

- Multiple incompatible LANs can be physically connected by specialized computers called *routers*
- The connected networks are called an internet (lower case)



LAN 1 and LAN 2 might be completely different, totally incompatible (e.g., Ethernet, Fibre Channel, 802.11*, T1-links, DSL, ...)

Logical Structure of an internet



- Ad hoc interconnection of networks
 - No particular topology
 - Vastly different router & link capacities
- Send packets from source to destination by hopping through networks
 - Router forms bridge from one network to another
 - Different packets may take different routes

The Notion of an internet Protocol

- How is it possible to send bits across incompatible LANs and WANs?
- Solution: protocol software running on each host and router
 - Protocol is a set of rules that governs how hosts and routers should cooperate when they transfer data from network to network.
 - Smooths out the differences between the different networks

What Does an internet Protocol Do?

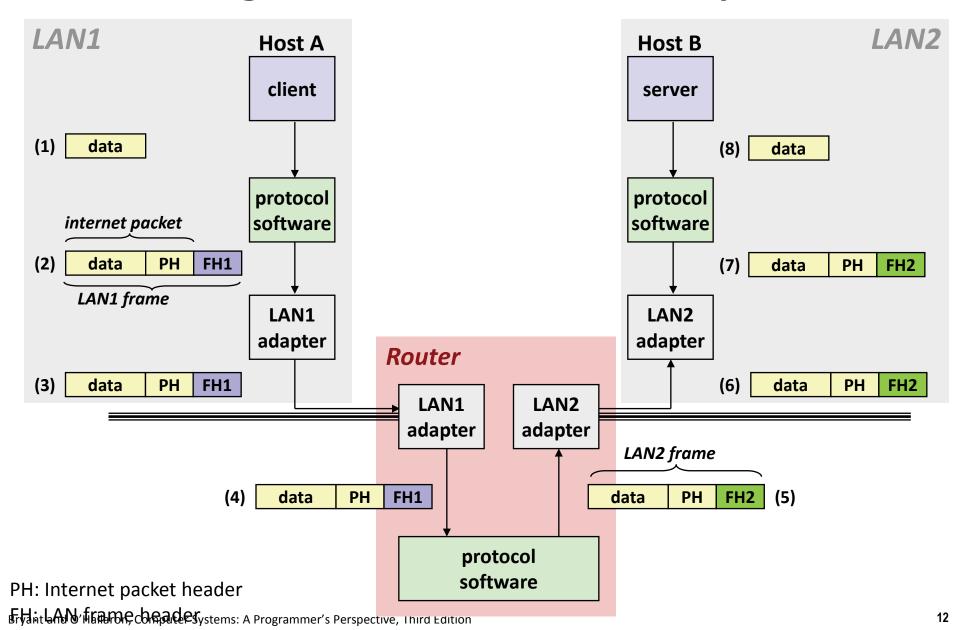
Provides a naming scheme

- An internet protocol defines a uniform format for host addresses
- Each host (and router) is assigned at least one of these internet addresses that uniquely identifies it

Provides a delivery mechanism

- An internet protocol defines a standard transfer unit (packet)
- Packet consists of header and payload
 - Header: contains info such as packet size, source and destination addresses
 - Payload: contains data bits sent from source host

Transferring internet Data Via Encapsulation



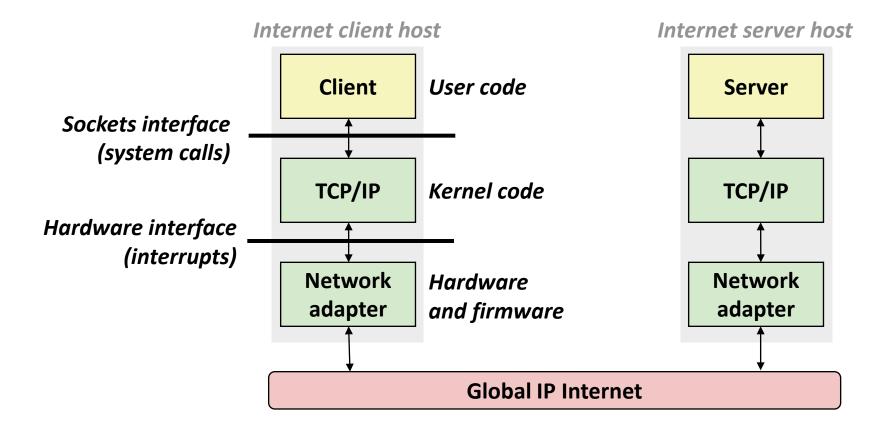
Other Issues

- We are glossing over a number of important questions:
 - What if different networks have different maximum frame sizes? (segmentation)
 - How do routers know where to forward frames?
 - How are routers informed when the network topology changes?
 - What if packets get lost?
- These (and other) questions are addressed by the area of systems known as computer networking

Global IP Internet (upper case)

- Most famous example of an internet
- Based on the TCP/IP protocol family
 - IP (Internet Protocol) :
 - Provides basic naming scheme and unreliable delivery capability of packets (datagrams) from host-to-host
 - UDP (Unreliable Datagram Protocol)
 - Uses IP to provide unreliable datagram delivery from process-to-process
 - TCP (Transmission Control Protocol)
 - Uses IP to provide reliable byte streams from process-to-process over connections
- Accessed via a mix of Unix file I/O and functions from the sockets interface

Hardware and Software Organization of an Internet Application



A Programmer's View of the Internet

- 1. Hosts are mapped to a set of 32-bit IP addresses
 - 128.2.203.179
- 2. The set of IP addresses is mapped to a set of identifiers called Internet *domain names*
 - 128.2.217.3 is mapped to www.cs.cmu.edu
- 3. A process on one Internet host can communicate with a process on another Internet host over a *connection*

Aside: IPv4 and IPv6

- The original Internet Protocol, with its 32-bit addresses, is known as Internet Protocol Version 4 (IPv4)
- 1996: Internet Engineering Task Force (IETF) introduced Internet Protocol Version 6 (IPv6) with 128-bit addresses
 - Intended as the successor to IPv4
- Majority of Internet traffic still carried by IPv4
 - But IPv6 is finally taking hold
 - % of users access Google services using IPv6:
 - Nov. 2014: 4%
 - Nov. 2015: 7%
 - Nov. 2016: 14%
- We will focus on IPv4, but will show you how to write networking code that is protocol-independent.

(1) IP Addresses

■ 32-bit IP addresses are stored in an IP address struct

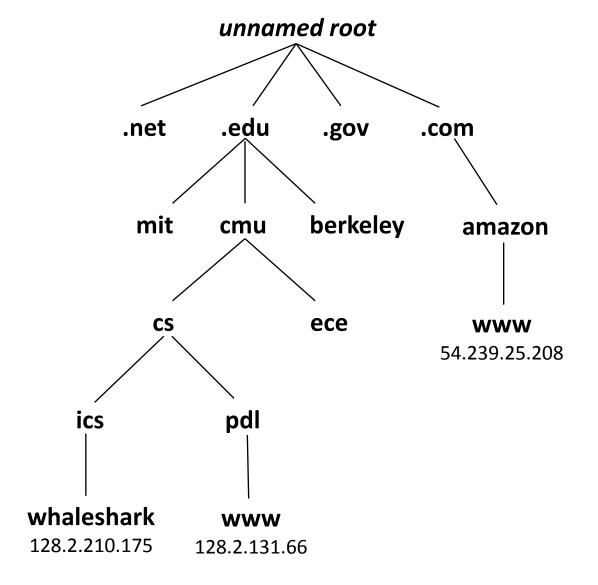
- IP addresses are always stored in memory in network byte order (big-endian byte order)
- True in general for any integer transferred in a packet header from one machine to another.
 - E.g., the port number used to identify an Internet connection.

```
/* Internet address structure */
struct in_addr {
    uint32_t s_addr; /* network byte order (big-endian) */
};
```

Dotted Decimal Notation

- By convention, each byte in a 32-bit IP address is represented by its decimal value and separated by a period
 - IP address: 0x8002C2F2 = 128.2.194.242
- Use getaddrinfo and getnameinfo functions (described later) to convert between IP addresses and dotted decimal format.

(2) Internet Domain Names



First-level domain names

Second-level domain names

Third-level domain names

Domain Naming System (DNS)

- The Internet maintains a mapping between IP addresses and domain names in a huge worldwide distributed database called DNS
- Conceptually, programmers can view the DNS database as a collection of millions of host entries.
 - Each host entry defines the mapping between a set of domain names and IP addresses.
 - In a mathematical sense, a host entry is an equivalence class of domain names and IP addresses.

Properties of DNS Mappings

- Can explore properties of DNS mappings using nslookup
 - Output edited for brevity

■ Each host has a locally defined domain name localhost which always maps to the *loopback address* 127.0.0.1

```
linux> nslookup localhost
Address: 127.0.0.1
```

Use hostname to determine real domain name of local host:

```
linux> hostname
whaleshark.ics.cs.cmu.edu
```

Properties of DNS Mappings (cont)

Simple case: one-to-one mapping between domain name and IP address:

```
linux> nslookup whaleshark.ics.cs.cmu.edu
Address: 128.2.210.175
```

Multiple domain names mapped to the same IP address:

```
linux> nslookup cs.mit.edu
Address: 18.62.1.6
linux> nslookup eecs.mit.edu
Address: 18.62.1.6
```

Properties of DNS Mappings (cont)

Multiple domain names mapped to multiple IP addresses:

```
linux> nslookup www.twitter.com
Address: 104.244.42.65
Address: 104.244.42.129
Address: 104.244.42.193
Address: 104.244.42.1
linux> nslookup www.twitter.com
Address: 104.244.42.129
Address: 104.244.42.129
Address: 104.244.42.193
Address: 104.244.42.193
Address: 104.244.42.1
```

Some valid domain names don't map to any IP address:

```
linux> nslookup ics.cs.cmu.edu
*** Can't find ics.cs.cmu.edu: No answer
```

(3) Internet Connections

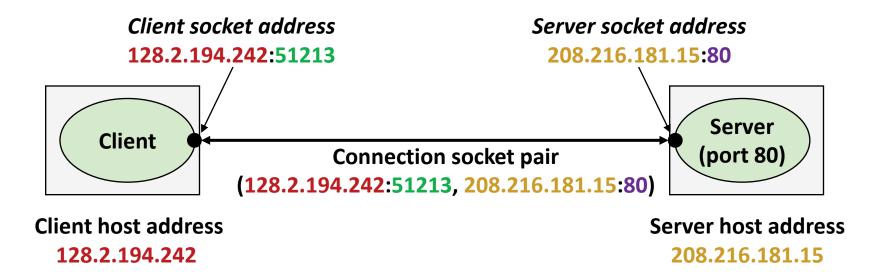
- Clients and servers communicate by sending streams of bytes over connections. Each connection is:
 - Point-to-point: connects a pair of processes.
 - Full-duplex: data can flow in both directions at the same time,
 - Reliable: stream of bytes sent by the source is eventually received by the destination in the same order it was sent.
- A socket is an endpoint of a connection
 - Socket address is an IPaddress:port pair
- A *port* is a 16-bit integer that identifies a process:
 - Ephemeral port: Assigned automatically by client kernel when client makes a connection request.
 - Well-known port: Associated with some service provided by a server (e.g., port 80 is associated with Web servers)

Well-known Ports and Service Names

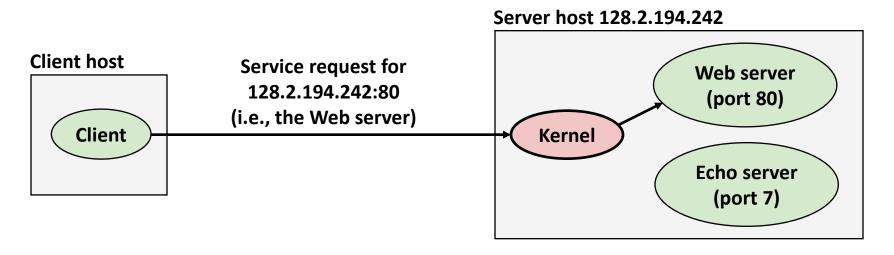
- Popular services have permanently assigned well-known ports and corresponding well-known service names:
 - echo server: 7/echo
 - ssh servers: 22/ssh
 - email server: 25/smtp
 - Web servers: 80/http
- Mappings between well-known ports and service names is contained in the file /etc/services on each Linux machine.

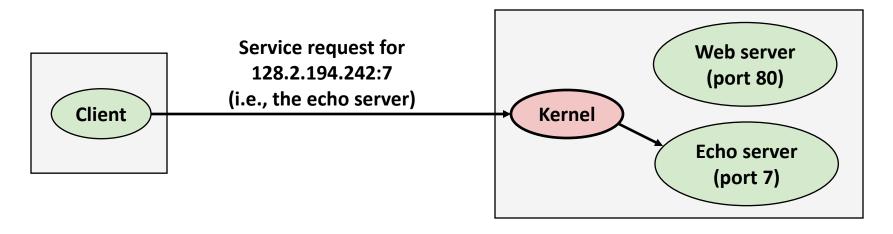
Anatomy of a Connection

- A connection is uniquely identified by the socket addresses of its endpoints (socket pair)
 - (cliaddr:cliport, servaddr:servport)



Using Ports to Identify Services



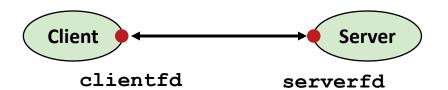


Sockets Interface

- Set of system-level functions used in conjunction with Unix I/O to build network applications.
- Created in the early 80's as part of the original Berkeley distribution of Unix that contained an early version of the Internet protocols.
- Available on all modern systems
 - Unix variants, Windows, OS X, IOS, Android, ARM

Sockets

- What is a socket?
 - To the kernel, a socket is an endpoint of communication
 - To an application, a socket is a file descriptor that lets the application read/write from/to the network
 - Remember: All Unix I/O devices, including networks, are modeled as files
- Clients and servers communicate with each other by reading from and writing to socket descriptors



The main distinction between regular file I/O and socket
 I/O is how the application "opens" the socket descriptors

Socket Programming Example

- Echo server and client
- Server
 - Accepts connection request
 - Repeats back lines as they are typed

Client

- Requests connection to server
- Repeatedly:
 - Read line from terminal
 - Send to server
 - Read reply from server
 - Print line to terminal

Echo Server/Client Session Example

Client

```
bambooshark: ./echoclient whaleshark.ics.cs.cmu.edu 6616

This line is being echoed

This one is, too

This one is, too

D

bambooshark: ./echoclient whaleshark.ics.cs.cmu.edu 6616

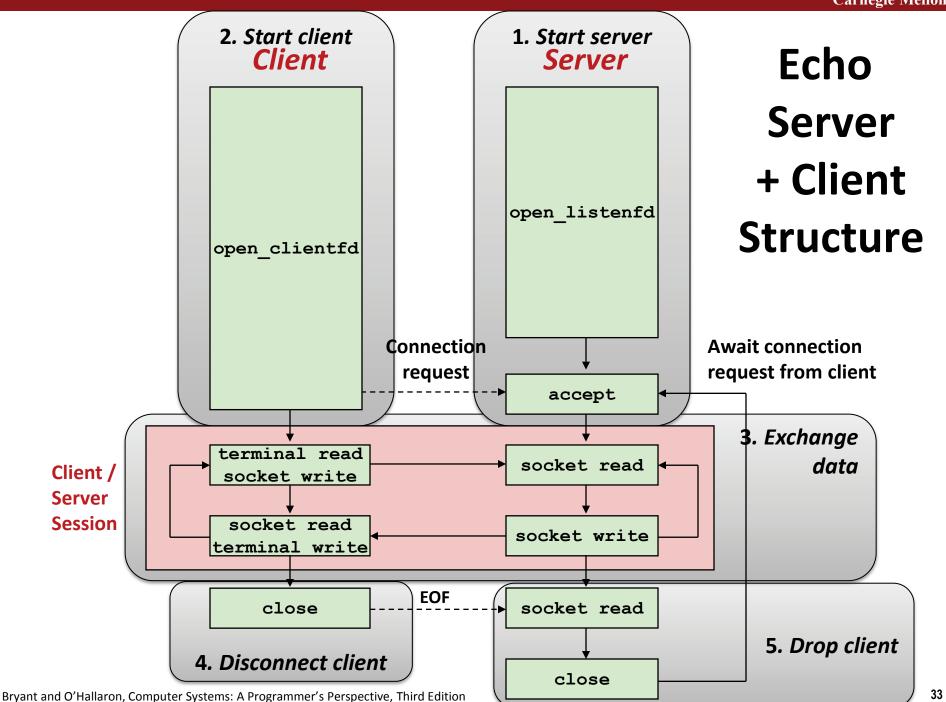
This one is a new connection

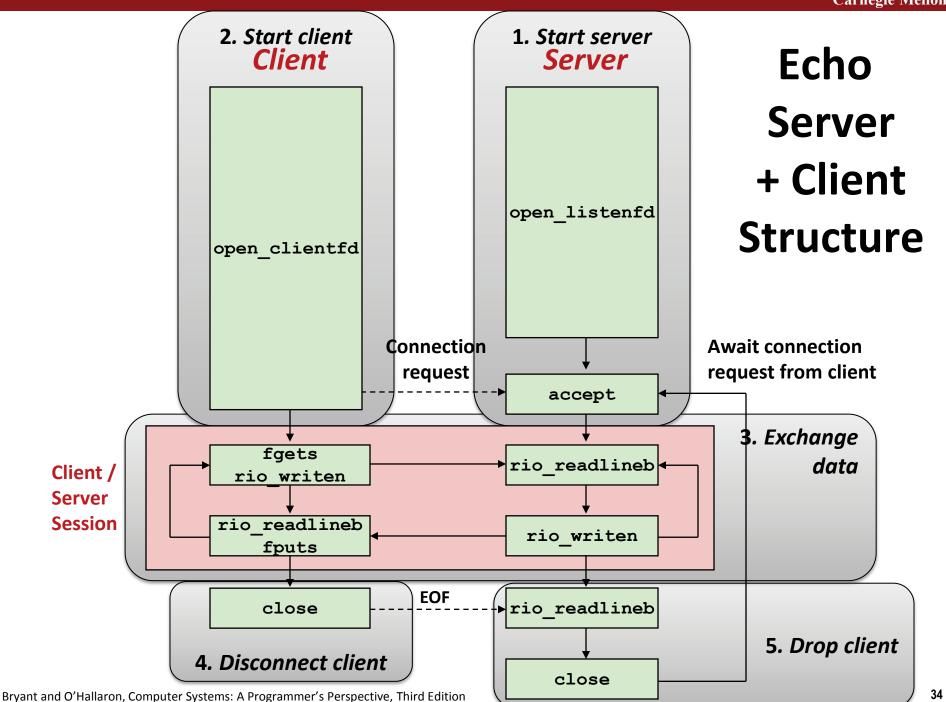
This one is a new connection

D
```

Server

whaleshark: ./echoserveri 6616	
Connected to (BAMBOOSHARK.ICS.CS.CMU.EDU, 33707)	(A)
server received 26 bytes	(B)
server received 17 bytes	(C)
Connected to (BAMBOOSHARK.ICS.CS.CMU.EDU, 33708)	(D)
server received 29 bytes	(E)





Echo Client: Main Routine

```
#include "csapp.h"
int main(int argc, char **argv)
    int clientfd;
    char *host, *port, buf[MAXLINE];
    rio t rio;
   host = arqv[1];
   port = argv[2];
    clientfd = Open clientfd(host, port);
   Rio readinitb(&rio, clientfd);
    while (Fgets(buf, MAXLINE, stdin) != NULL) {
       Rio writen(clientfd, buf, strlen(buf));
       Rio readlineb(&rio, buf, MAXLINE);
       Fputs(buf, stdout);
   Close (clientfd);
    exit(0);
                                                  echoclient.c
```

Iterative Echo Server: Main Routine

```
#include "csapp.h"
void echo(int connfd);
int main(int argc, char **argv)
    int listenfd, connfd;
    socklen t clientlen;
    struct sockaddr storage clientaddr; /* Enough room for any addr */
    char client hostname[MAXLINE], client port[MAXLINE];
    listenfd = Open listenfd(argv[1]);
    while (1) {
       clientlen = sizeof(struct sockaddr storage); /* Important! */
       connfd = Accept(listenfd, (SA *)&clientaddr, &clientlen);
       Getnameinfo((SA *) &clientaddr, clientlen,
                    client hostname, MAXLINE, client port, MAXLINE, 0);
       printf("Connected to (%s, %s)\n", client hostname, client port);
       echo(connfd);
       Close (connfd);
    exit(0);
                                                               echoserveri.c
```

Echo Server: echo function

- The server uses RIO to read and echo text lines until EOF (end-of-file) condition is encountered.
 - EOF condition caused by client calling close (clientfd)

```
void echo(int connfd)
{
    size_t n;
    char buf[MAXLINE];
    rio_t rio;

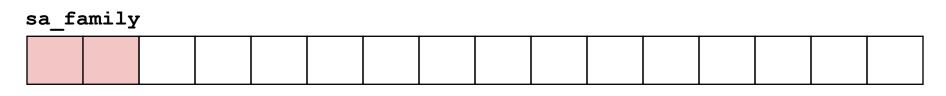
    Rio_readinitb(&rio, connfd);
    while((n = Rio_readlineb(&rio, buf, MAXLINE)) != 0) {
        printf("server received %d bytes\n", (int)n);
        Rio_writen(connfd, buf, n);
    }
}
```

Socket Address Structures

Generic socket address:

- For address arguments to connect, bind, and accept
- Necessary only because C did not have generic (void *) pointers when the sockets interface was designed
- For casting convenience, we adopt the Stevens convention:
 typedef struct sockaddr SA;

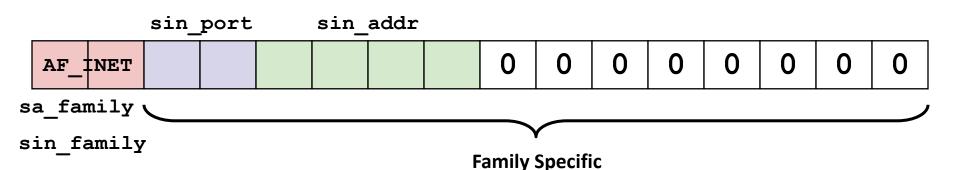
```
struct sockaddr {
  uint16_t sa_family;    /* Protocol family */
  char sa_data[14];    /* Address data. */
};
```



Family Specific

Socket Address Structures

- Internet (IPv4) specific socket address:
 - Must cast (struct sockaddr_in *) to (struct sockaddr *) for functions that take socket address arguments.



Host and Service Conversion: getaddrinfo

- getaddrinfo is the modern way to convert string representations of hostnames, host addresses, ports, and service names to socket address structures.
 - Replaces obsolete gethostbyname and getservbyname funcs.

Advantages:

- Reentrant (can be safely used by threaded programs).
- Allows us to write portable protocol-independent code
 - Works with both IPv4 and IPv6

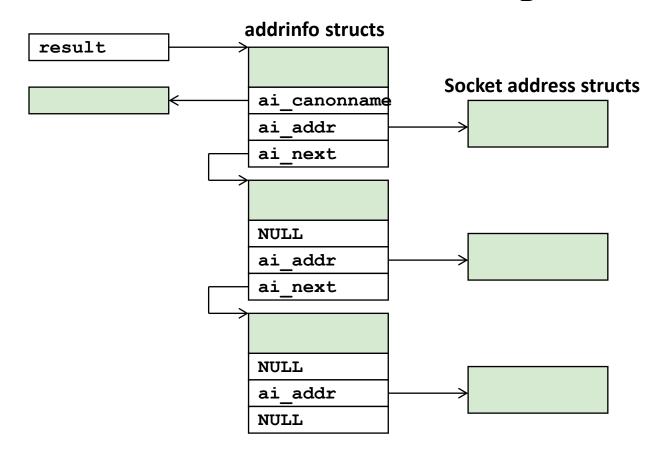
Disadvantages

- Somewhat complex
- Fortunately, a small number of usage patterns suffice in most cases.

Host and Service Conversion: getaddrinfo

- Given host and service, getaddrinfo returns result that points to a linked list of addrinfo structs, each of which points to a corresponding socket address struct, and which contains arguments for the sockets interface functions.
- Helper functions:
 - freeadderinfo frees the entire linked list.
 - gai strerror converts error code to an error message.

Linked List Returned by getaddrinfo



- Clients: walk this list, trying each socket address in turn, until the calls to socket and connect succeed.
- Servers: walk the list until calls to socket and bind succeed.

addrinfo Struct

- Each addrinfo struct returned by getaddrinfo contains arguments that can be passed directly to socket function.
- Also points to a socket address struct that can be passed directly to connect and bind functions.

Host and Service Conversion: getnameinfo

- getnameinfo is the inverse of getaddrinfo, converting a socket address to the corresponding host and service.
 - Replaces obsolete gethostbyaddr and getservbyport funcs.
 - Reentrant and protocol independent.

Conversion Example

```
#include "csapp.h"
int main(int argc, char **argv)
    struct addrinfo *p, *listp, hints;
    char buf[MAXLINE];
    int rc, flags;
    /* Get a list of addrinfo records */
   memset(&hints, 0, sizeof(struct addrinfo));
   hints.ai family = AF INET; /* IPv4 only */
   hints.ai socktype = SOCK STREAM; /* Connections only */
    if ((rc = getaddrinfo(argv[1], NULL, &hints, &listp)) != 0) {
        fprintf(stderr, "getaddrinfo error: %s\n", gai strerror(rc));
       exit(1);
                                                              hostinfo.d
```

Conversion Example (cont)

Running hostinfo

```
whaleshark> ./hostinfo localhost
127.0.0.1

whaleshark> ./hostinfo whaleshark.ics.cs.cmu.edu
128.2.210.175

whaleshark> ./hostinfo twitter.com
199.16.156.230
199.16.156.38
199.16.156.102
199.16.156.102
```

Next time

- Using getaddrinfo for host and service conversion
- Writing clients and servers
- Writing Web servers!

Additional slides

Basic Internet Components

Internet backbone:

 collection of routers (nationwide or worldwide) connected by high-speed point-to-point networks

Internet Exchange Points (IXP):

- router that connects multiple backbones (often referred to as peers)
- Also called Network Access Points (NAP)

Regional networks:

 smaller backbones that cover smaller geographical areas (e.g., cities or states)

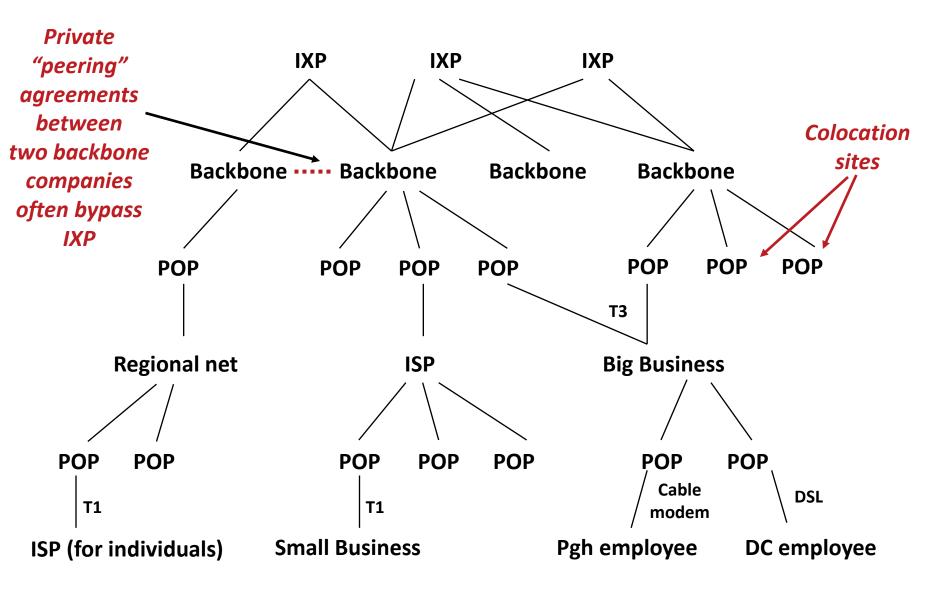
Point of presence (POP):

machine that is connected to the Internet

Internet Service Providers (ISPs):

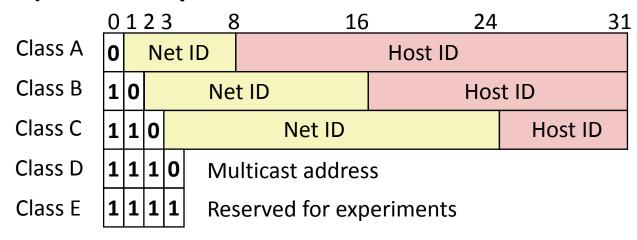
provide dial-up or direct access to POPs

Internet Connection Hierarchy



IP Address Structure

■ IP (V4) Address space divided into classes:



Network ID Written in form w.x.y.z/n

- n = number of bits in host address
- E.g., CMU written as 128.2.0.0/16
 - Class B address

Unrouted (private) IP addresses:

10.0.0.0/8 172.16.0.0/12 192.168.0.0/16

Evolution of Internet

Original Idea

- Every node on Internet would have unique IP address
 - Everyone would be able to talk directly to everyone
- No secrecy or authentication
 - Messages visible to routers and hosts on same LAN
 - Possible to forge source field in packet header

Shortcomings

- There aren't enough IP addresses available
- Don't want everyone to have access or knowledge of all other hosts
- Security issues mandate secrecy & authentication

Evolution of Internet: Naming

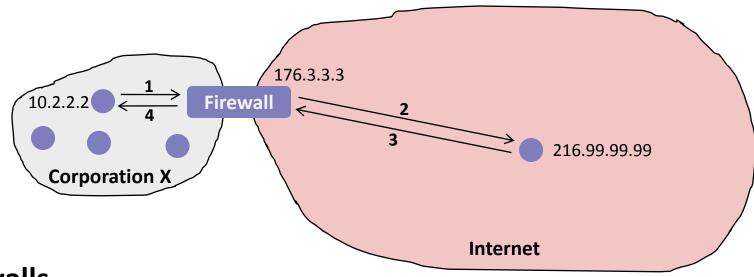
Dynamic address assignment

- Most hosts don't need to have known address
 - Only those functioning as servers
- DHCP (Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol)
 - Local ISP assigns address for temporary use

Example:

- Laptop at CMU (wired connection)
 - IP address 128.2.213.29 (bryant-tp4.cs.cmu.edu)
 - Assigned statically
- Laptop at home
 - IP address 192.168.1.5
 - Only valid within home network

Evolution of Internet: Firewalls



Firewalls

- Hides organizations nodes from rest of Internet
- Use local IP addresses within organization
- For external service, provides proxy service
 - 1. Client request: src=10.2.2.2, dest=216.99.99.99
 - 2. Firewall forwards: src=176.3.3.3, dest=216.99.99.99
 - 3. Server responds: src=216.99.99.99, dest=176.3.3.3
 - 4. Firewall forwards response: src=216.99.99.99, dest=10.2.2.2