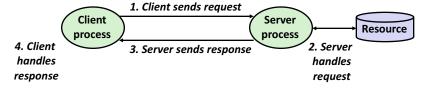
Introduction to Networks and Network Programming

CS 475

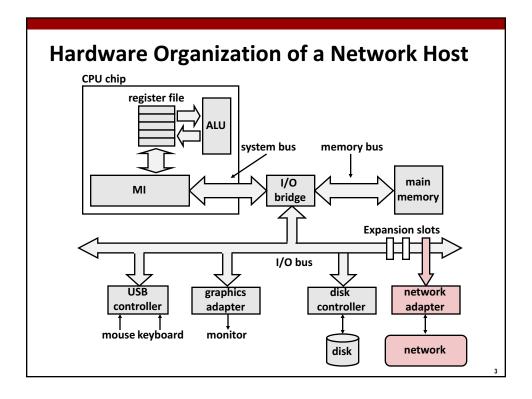
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A Client-Server Transaction

- 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)



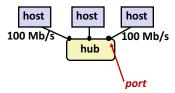
Note: clients and servers are processes running on hosts (can be the same or different hosts)



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

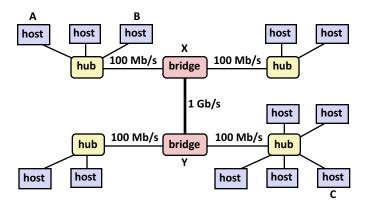
Lowest Level: Ethernet Segment



- 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 on their way out. Bridges (switches, routers) became cheap enough to replace them

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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

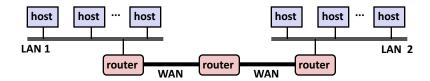
■ For simplicity, hubs, bridges, and wires are often shown as a collection of hosts attached to a single wire:



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Next Level: internets

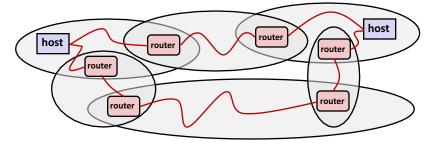
- Multiple incompatible LANs can be physically connected by specialized computers called *routers*
- The connected networks are called an *internet* (lower case)



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

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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

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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

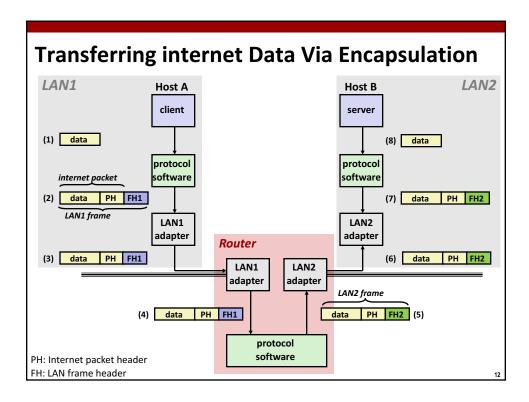
What Does an internet Protocol Do?

■ 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



Other Issues

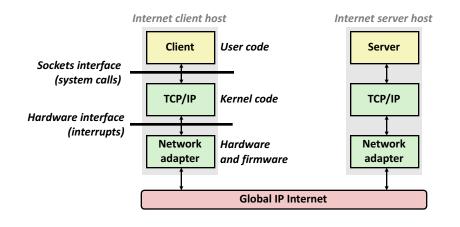
- We are glossing over a number of important questions:
 - What if different networks have different maximum frame sizes? (segmentation)
 - How do routers know where to forward frames?
 - How are routers informed when the network topology changes?
 - What if packets get lost?
- These (and other) questions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

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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



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A Programmer's View of the Internet

- 1. Hosts are mapped to a set of 32-bit IP addresses
 - **129.174.121.120**
- 2. The set of IP addresses is mapped to a set of identifiers called Internet *domain names*
 - 129.174.125.153 is mapped to www.cs.gmu.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
- As of 2015, vast majority of Internet traffic still carried by IPv4
 - Only 4% of users access Google services using IPv6.
- We will focus on IPv4, but will show you how to write networking code that is protocol-independent.

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(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.

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(2) Internet Domain Names unnamed root .edu First-level domain names .net .gov .com Second-level domain names mit berkeley amazon cmu Third-level domain names ece www 176.32.98.166 ics pdl whaleshark www 128.2.210.175 128.2.131.66

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.

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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
zeus.vse.gmu.edu

Properties of DNS Mappings (cont)

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

```
linux> nslookup www.cs.gmu.edu
Address: 129.174.125.153
```

■ 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
```

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Properties of DNS Mappings (cont)

■ Multiple domain names mapped to multiple IP addresses:

```
linux> nslookup www.twitter.com
Address: 199.16.156.6
Address: 199.16.156.70
Address: 199.16.156.102
Address: 199.16.156.230

linux> nslookup twitter.com
Address: 199.16.156.102
Address: 199.16.156.230
Address: 199.16.156.6
Address: 199.16.156.70
```

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)

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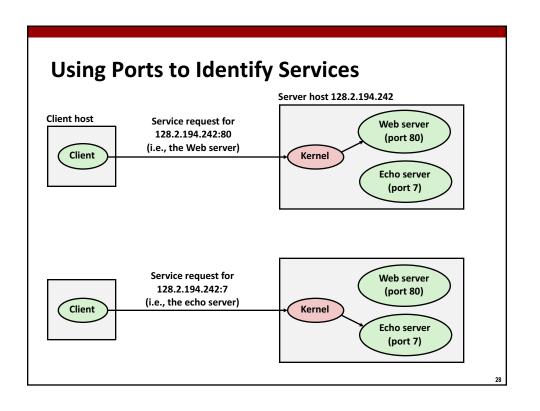
Well-known Ports and Service Names

■ 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) Client socket address Server socket address 128.2.194.242:51213 208.216.181.15:80 Server Client (port 80) Connection socket pair (128.2.194.242:51213, 208.216.181.15:80) Client host address Server host address 128.2.194.242 208.216.181.15 51213 is an ephemeral port 80 is a well-known port allocated by the kernel associated with Web servers



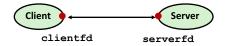
Sockets Interface

- 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

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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



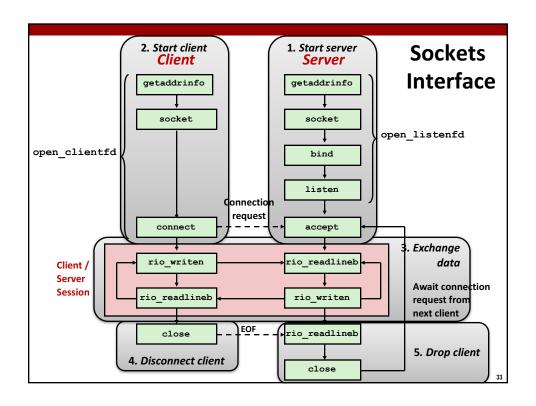
The main distinction between regular file I/O and socket I/O is how the application "opens" the socket descriptors

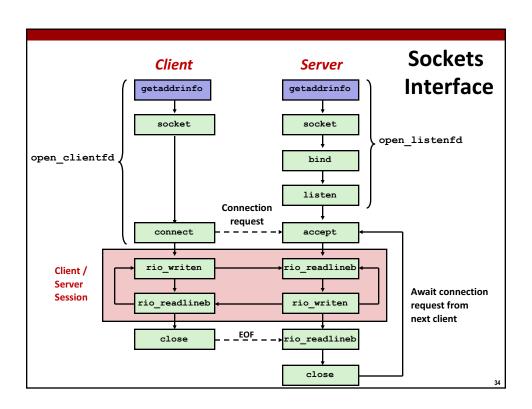
Socket Address Structures Generic socket address: For address arguments to connect, bind, and accept Necessary only because C did not have generic (void *) pointers when the sockets interface was designed For casting convenience, we adopt the Stevens convention: typedef struct sockaddr SA; Struct sockaddr { uint16_t sa_family; /* Protocol family */ char sa_data[14]; /* Address data. */ }; sa_family Family Specific

Socket Address Structures

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

```
struct sockaddr_in {
               sin_family; /* Protocol family (always AF_INET) */
   uint16_t
   uint16_t sin_port; /* Port num in network byte order */
struct in_addr sin_addr; /* IP addr in network byte order */
                      sin zero[8]; /* Pad to sizeof(struct sockaddr) */
   unsigned char
                           sin addr
           sin port
  AF INET
                                           0
                                                0
                                                     0
                                                          0
                                                                0
                                                                     0
                                                                          0
                                                                               0
sa family
sin_family
                                         Family Specific
```





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

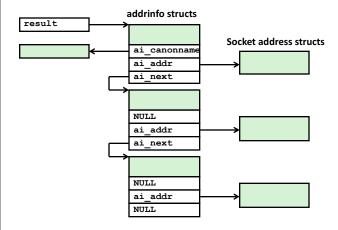
- Somewhat complex
- Fortunately, a small number of usage patterns suffice in most cases.

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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.

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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.

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Conversion Example

Conversion Example (cont)

Running hostinfo

```
whaleshark> ./hostinfo localhost
127.0.0.1

whaleshark> ./hostinfo www.cs.gmu.edu
129.174.125.153

whaleshark> ./hostinfo twitter.com
199.16.156.230
199.16.156.38
199.16.156.102
199.16.156.198
```

Next time

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

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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)

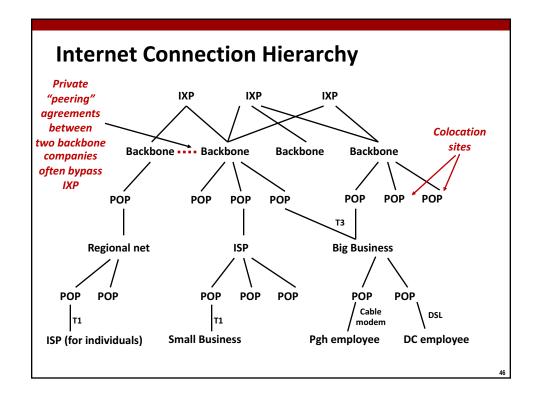
■ Point of presence (POP):

machine that is connected to the Internet

Internet Service Providers (ISPs):

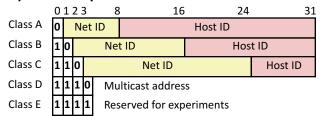
provide dial-up or direct access to POPs

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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

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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

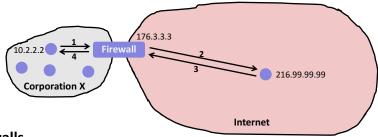
- Most hosts don't need to have known address
 - Only those functioning as servers
- DHCP (Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol)
 - Local ISP assigns address for temporary use

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

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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