CSC358 Week 6

Logistics

- Assignment 2 due Feb 18
- Next week is reading week
  - no lecture, no tutorial, no office hours
- The week after reading week
  - Midterm in class
  - Coverage: everything before the reading week
    - lecture, tutorials, assignments
  - Aid: one double-sided 8.5x11 sheet
  - Bring your T-card
- Past test posted on the course website

Logistics

- Pre-test office hours
  - Michael: Monday, Feb 24, 4:30 – 6 PM
  - Larry: Tuesday, Feb 25, 12:30 – 2 PM

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

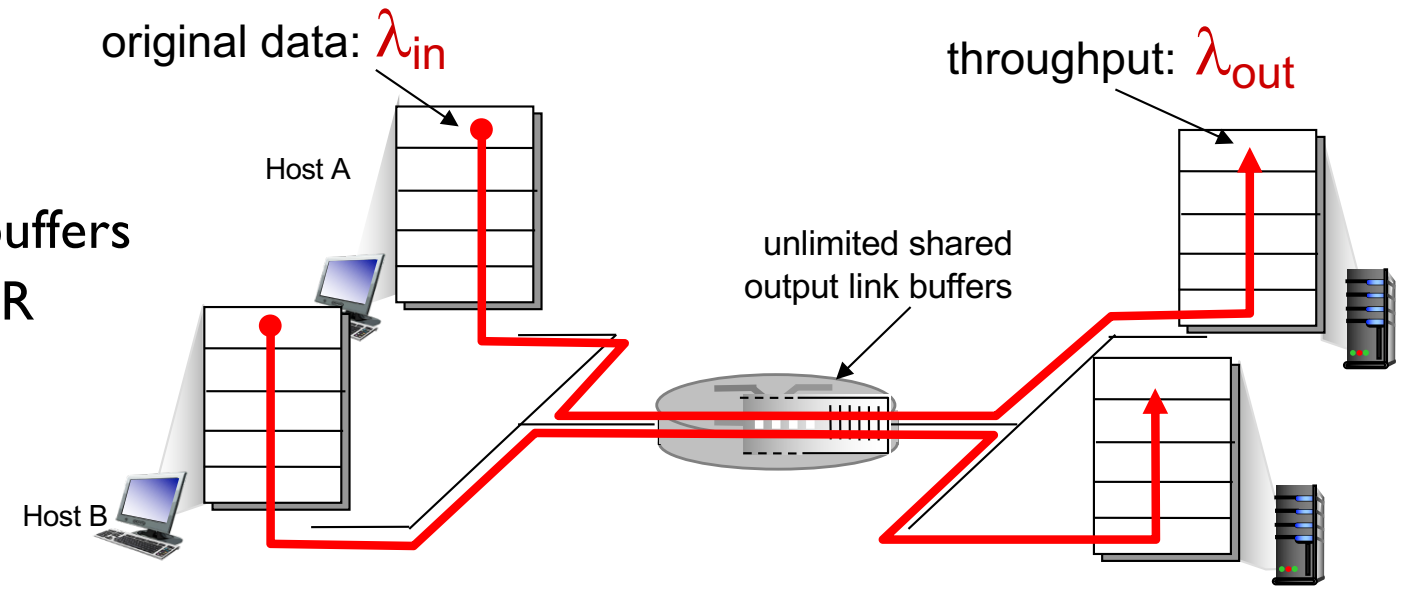
Principles of congestion control

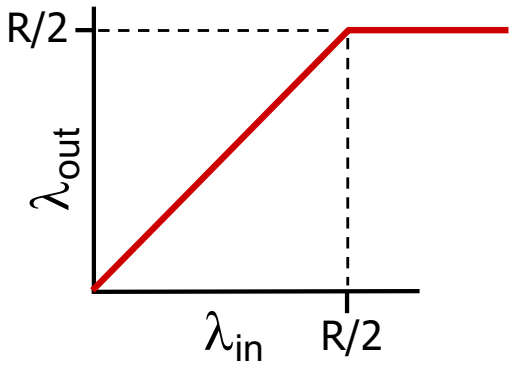
congestion:

- 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!

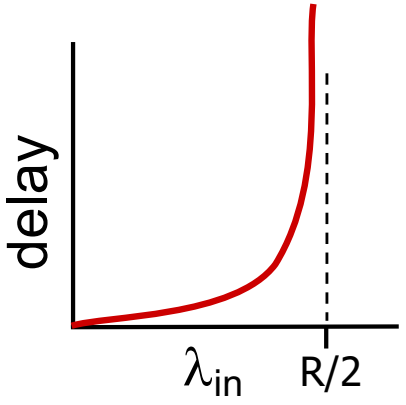
Causes/costs of congestion

- 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

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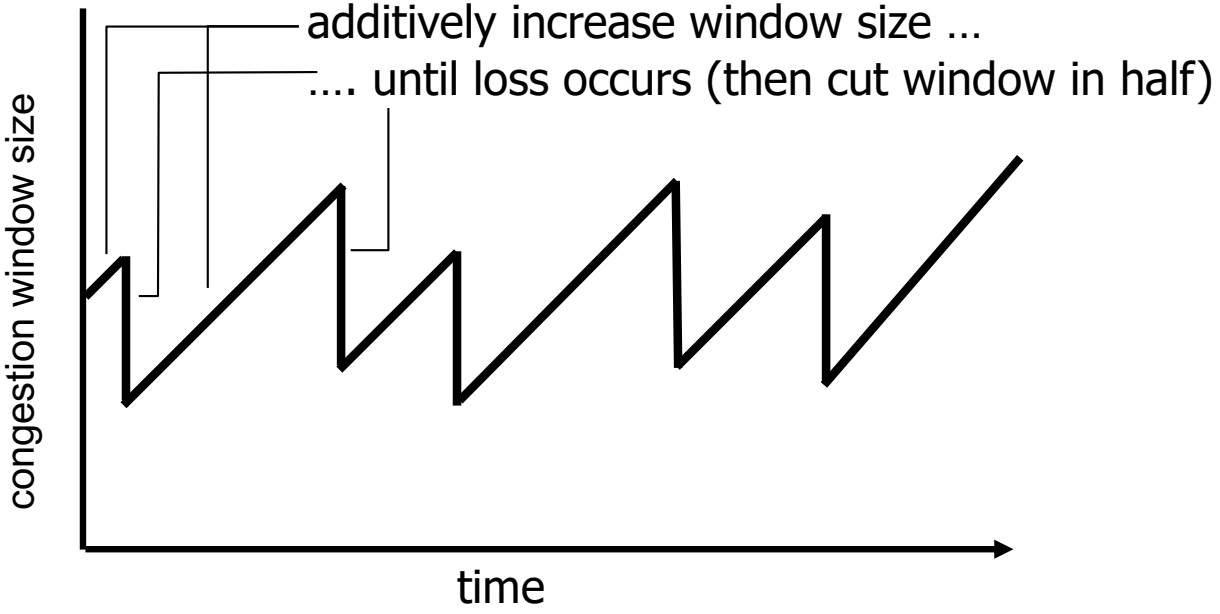
3.7 TCP congestion control

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

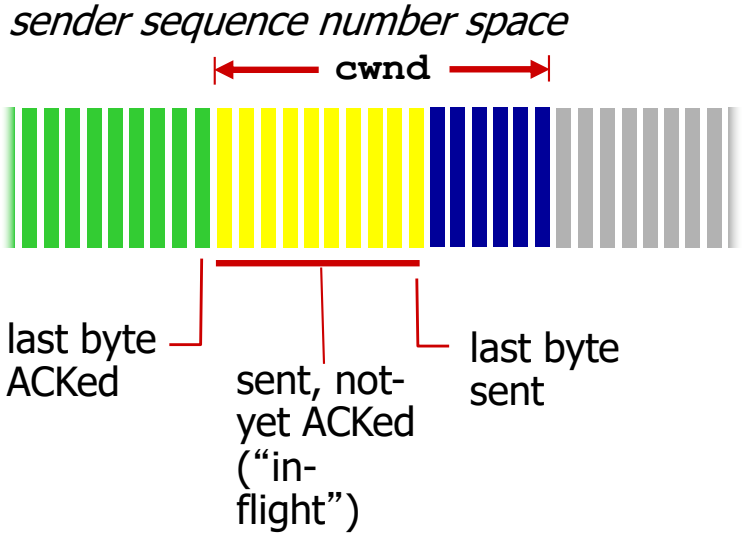
AIMD saw tooth behavior: probing for bandwidth



`cwnd`: congestion window, number of unACKed bytes allowed at sender.

MSS: maximum segment size

TCP Congestion Control: details



- sender limits transmission:

$$\texttt{LastByteSent} - \texttt{LastByteAcked} \leq \min(\texttt{cwnd}, \texttt{rwnd})$$

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

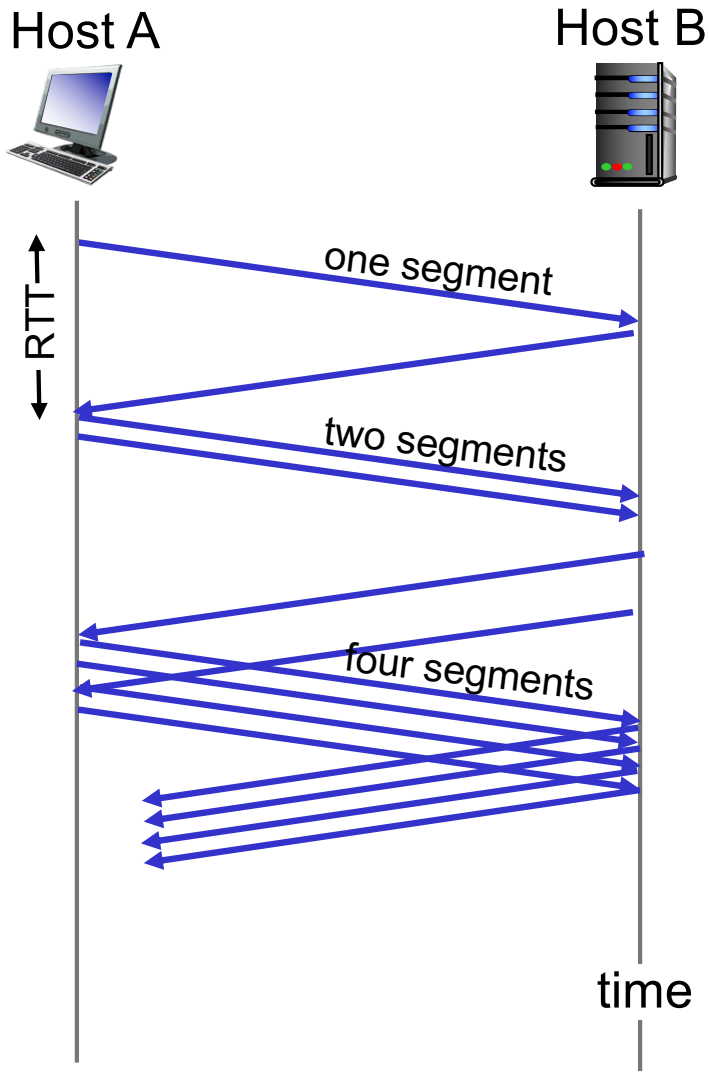
TCP sending rate:

- *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



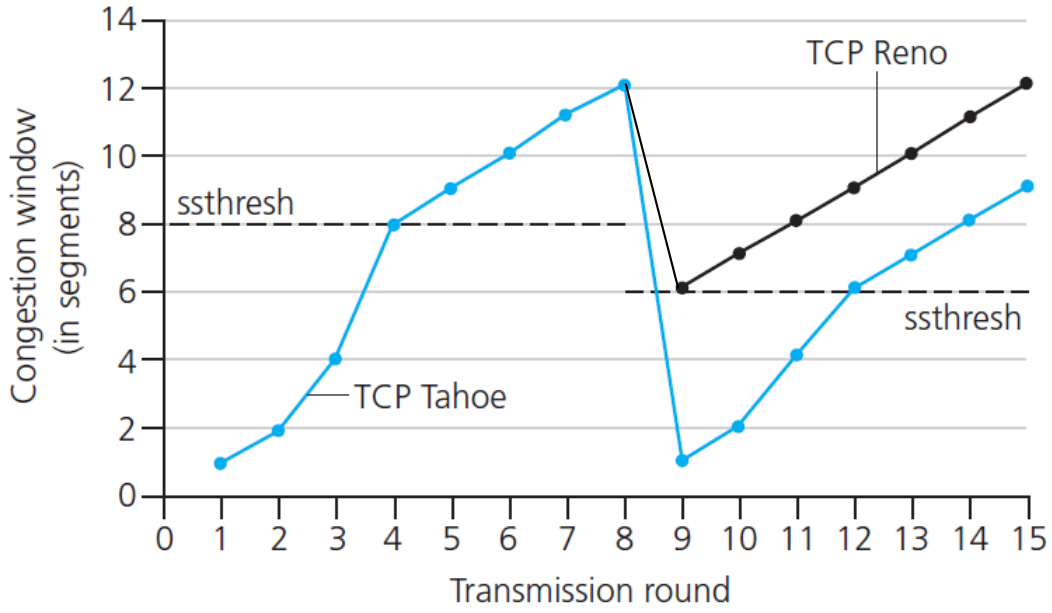
TCP: detecting, reacting to loss

- 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
  - **`cwnd`** is cut in half window then grows linearly
- TCP Tahoe always sets **`cwnd`** to 1 (timeout or 3 duplicate acks)

TCP Congestion Window

Q: when should the exponential increase switch to linear?

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



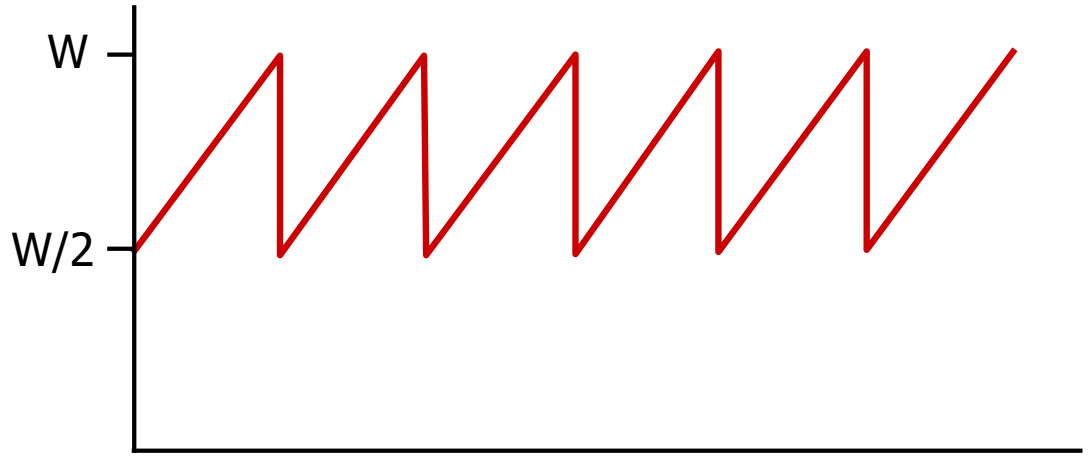
Implementation:

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

TCP throughput

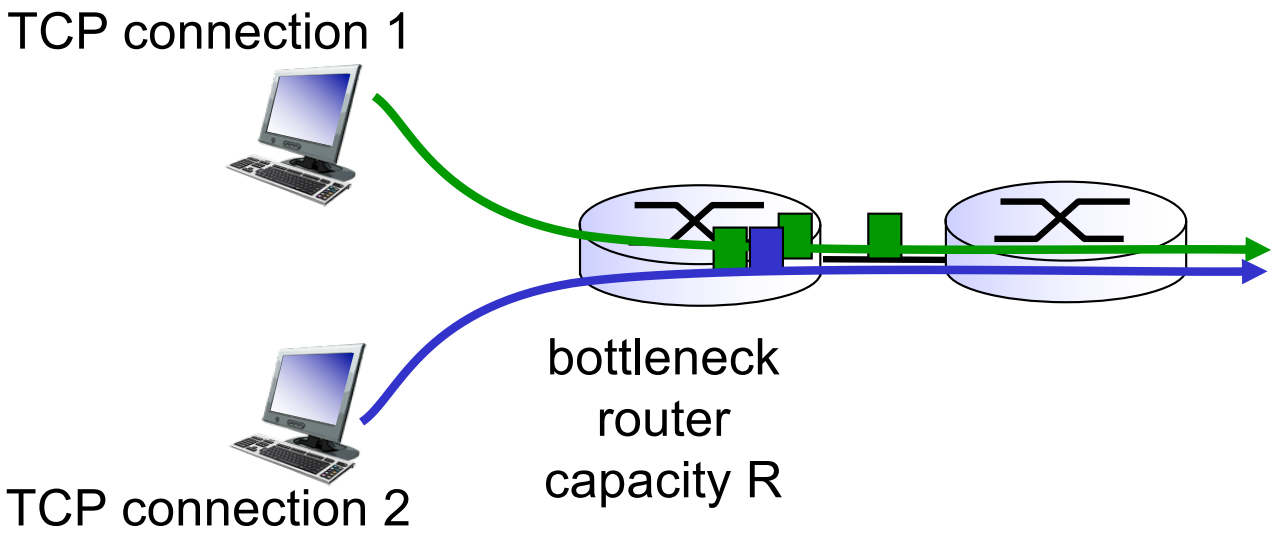
- avg. TCP throughput as function of window size, RTT?
  - ignore slow start, assume always data to send
- W: window size (measured in bytes) where loss occurs
  - avg. window size (# in-flight bytes) is ¾ W
  - avg. throughput is 3/4W per RTT

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



TCP Fairness

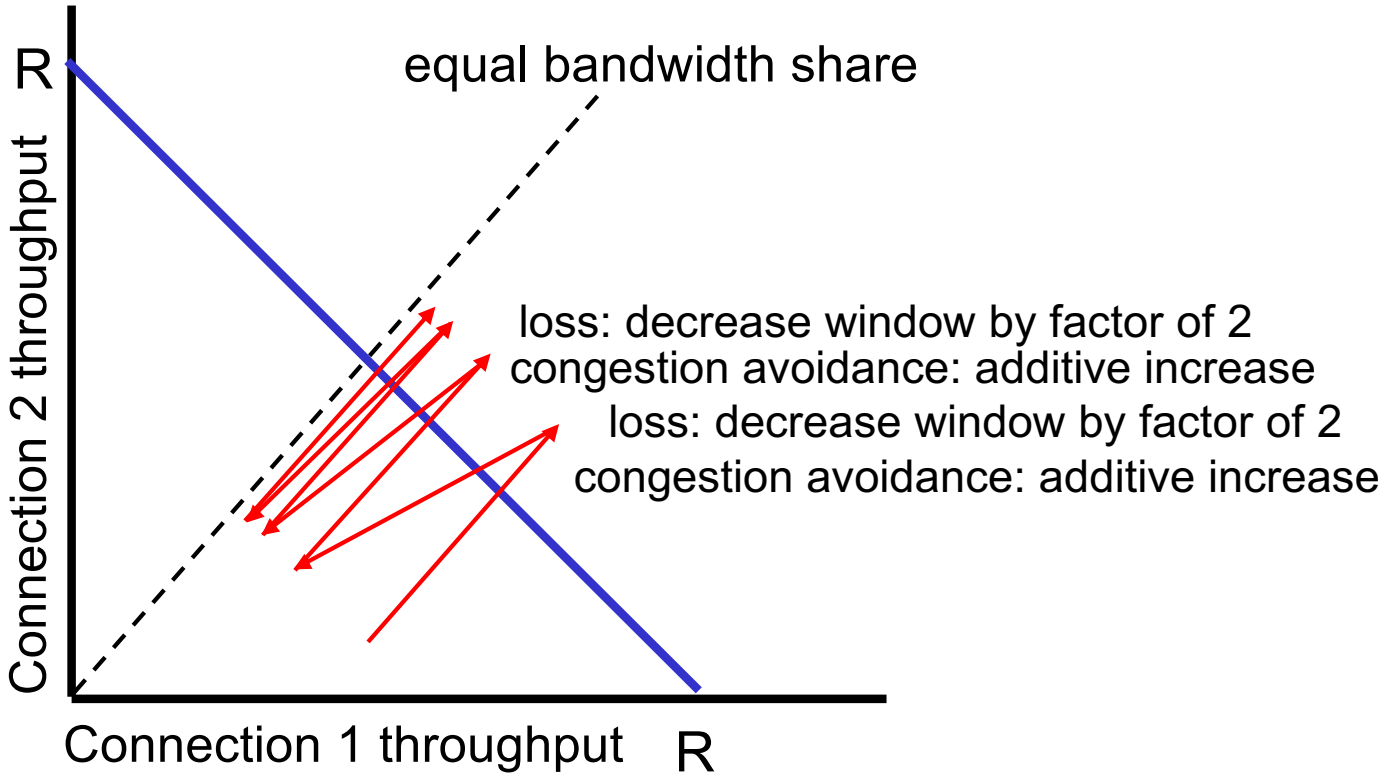
fairness goal: if K TCP sessions share same bottleneck link of bandwidth R, each should have average rate of R/K



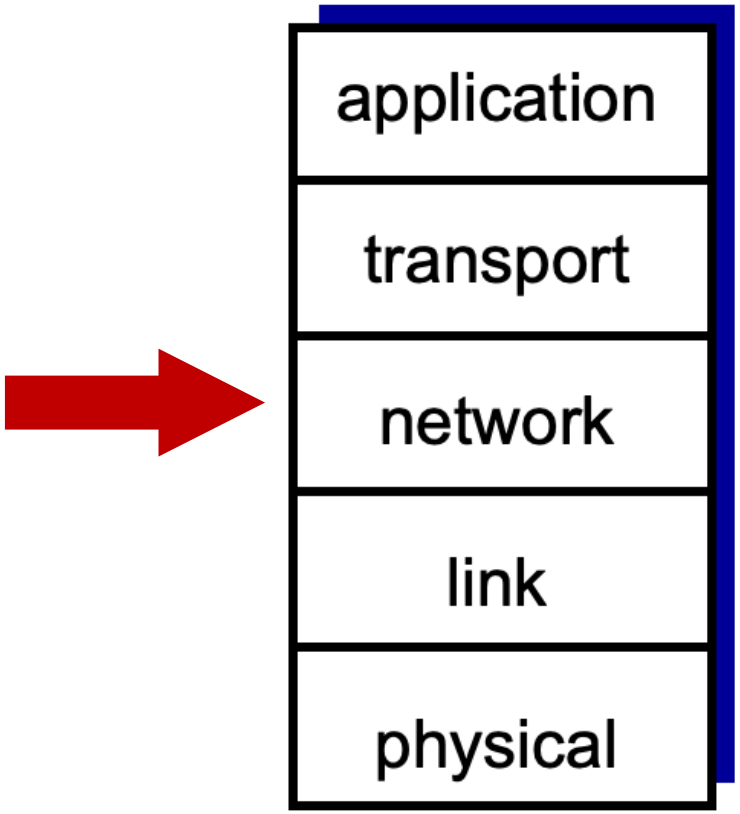
Why is TCP fair?

two competing sessions:

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



Going deeper: Network Layer



The Network Layer

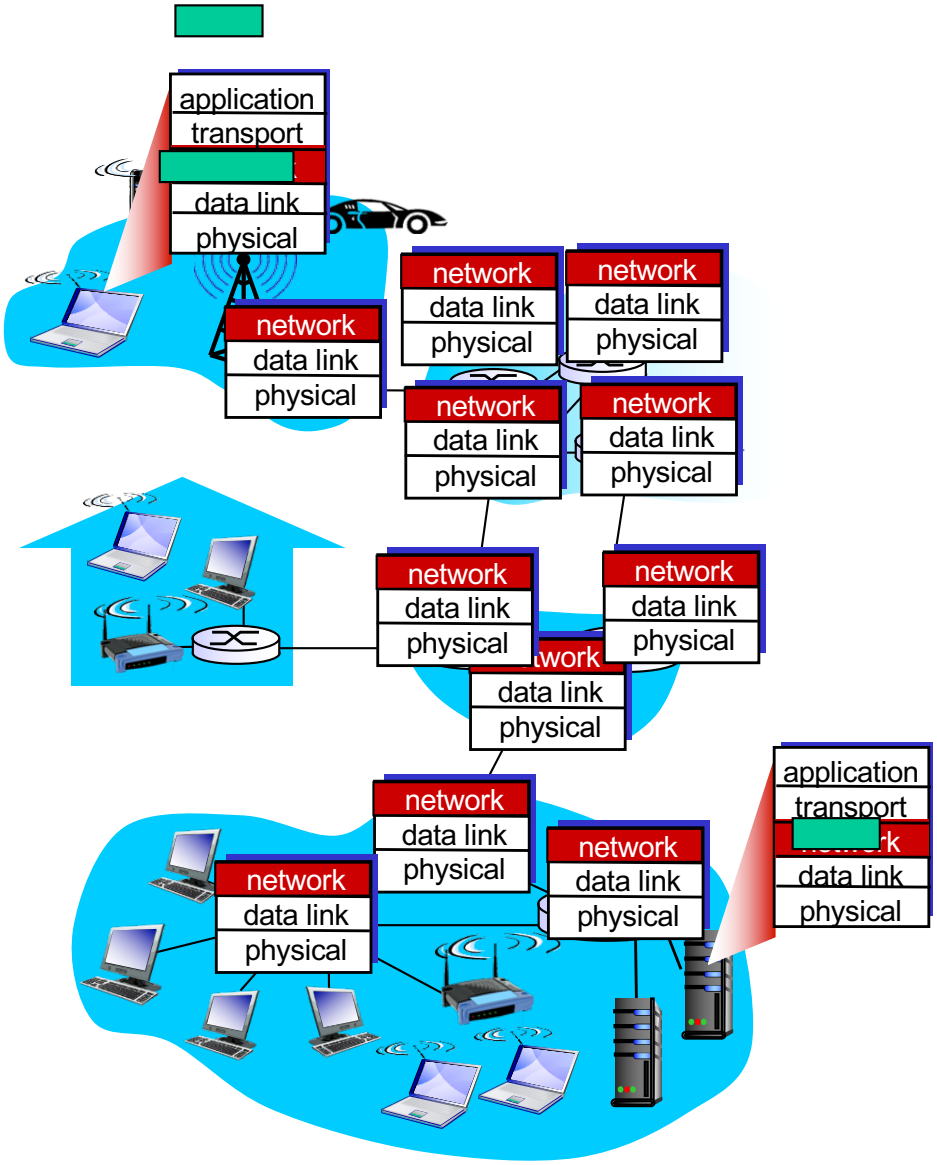
4.1 Overview of Network layer
- data plane
- control plane

4.2 What's inside a router

4.3 IP: Internet Protocol
- datagram format
- fragmentation
- IPv4 addressing
- network address translation
- IPv6

Network layer

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



Two key network-layer functions

network-layer functions:

- *forwarding (data plane):* move packets from router's input to appropriate router output
- *routing (control plane):* determine route taken by packets from source to destination
  - *routing algorithms*

analogy: taking a trip

- *forwarding:* process of getting through single interchange
- *routing:* process of planning trip from source to destination

Network service model

Q: What *service model* for "channel" transporting datagrams from sender to receiver?

example services for individual datagrams:

- guaranteed delivery
- guaranteed delivery with less than 40 msec delay

example services for a flow of datagrams:

- in-order datagram delivery
- guaranteed minimum bandwidth to flow
- restrictions on changes in inter-packet spacing

Network layer service models:

Network Architecture	Service Model	Guarantees ?				Congestion feedback
		Bandwidth	Loss	Order	Timing	
Internet	best effort	none	no	no	no	no (inferred via loss)
ATM	CBR	constant rate	yes	yes	yes	no congestion
ATM	VBR	guaranteed rate	yes	yes	yes	no congestion
ATM	ABR	guaranteed minimum	no	yes	no	yes
ATM	UBR	none	no	yes	no	no

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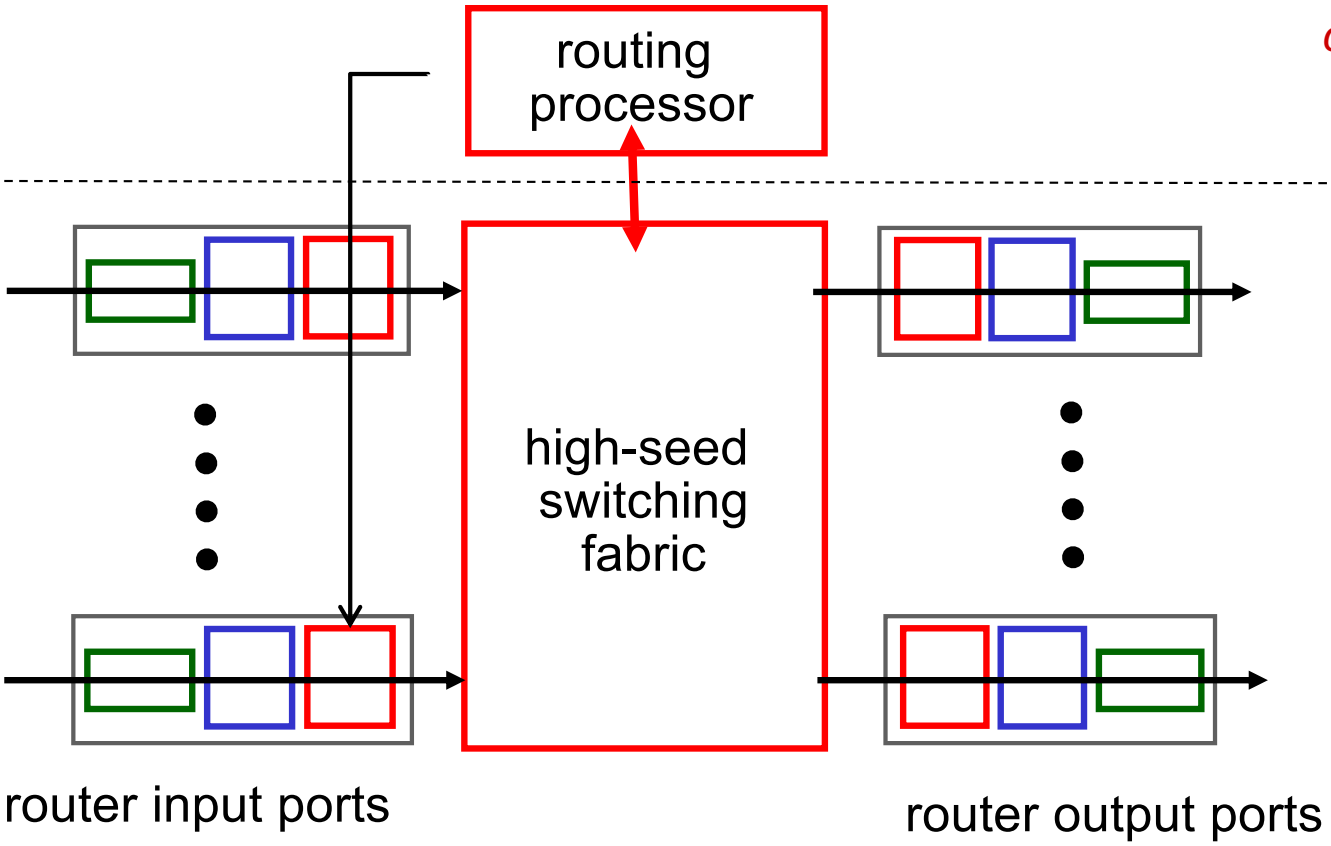
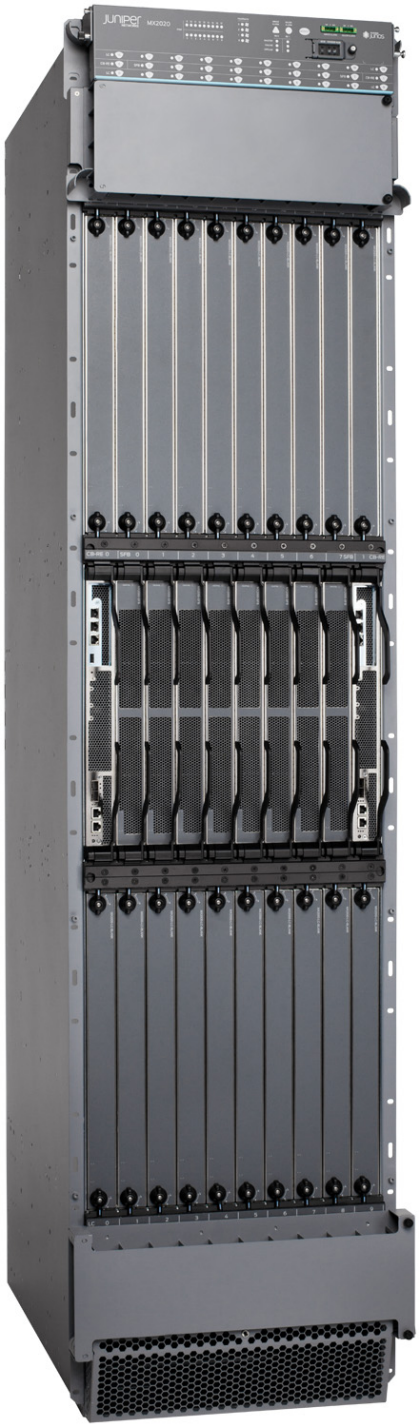
Router architecture overview

- high-level view of generic router architecture:



routing, management control plane (software) operates in millisecond time frame

forwarding data plane (hardware) operates in nanosecond timeframe



Juniper MX2020

Support 1920 10Gbps Ethernet ports

Overall capacity of 32 Tbps

Destination-based forwarding

forwarding table

Destination Address Range	Link Interface
`11001000 00010111 00010000 00000000` through `11001000 00010111 00010111 11111111`	0
`11001000 00010111 00011000 00000000` through `11001000 00010111 00011000 11111111`	1
`11001000 00010111 00011001 00000000` through `11001000 00010111 00011111 11111111`	2
otherwise	3

Q: but what happens if ranges don't divide up so nicely?

Longest prefix matching

longest prefix matching

when looking for forwarding table entry for given destination address, use *longest* address prefix that matches destination address.

Destination Address Range	Link interface
11001000 00010111 00010*** *********	0
11001000 00010111 00011000 *********	1
11001000 00010111 00011*** *********	2
otherwise	3

examples:

DA: 11001000 00010111 00010110 10100001 which interface?

DA: 11001000 00010111 00011000 10101010 which interface?

Longest prefix matching

- It needs to be done fast, in hardware.
- Longest prefix matching: often performed using ternary content addressable memories (TCAMs)
  - *content addressable:* present address to TCAM: retrieve address in one clock cycle, regardless of table size
  - Cisco Catalyst: can up ~1M routing table entries in TCAM

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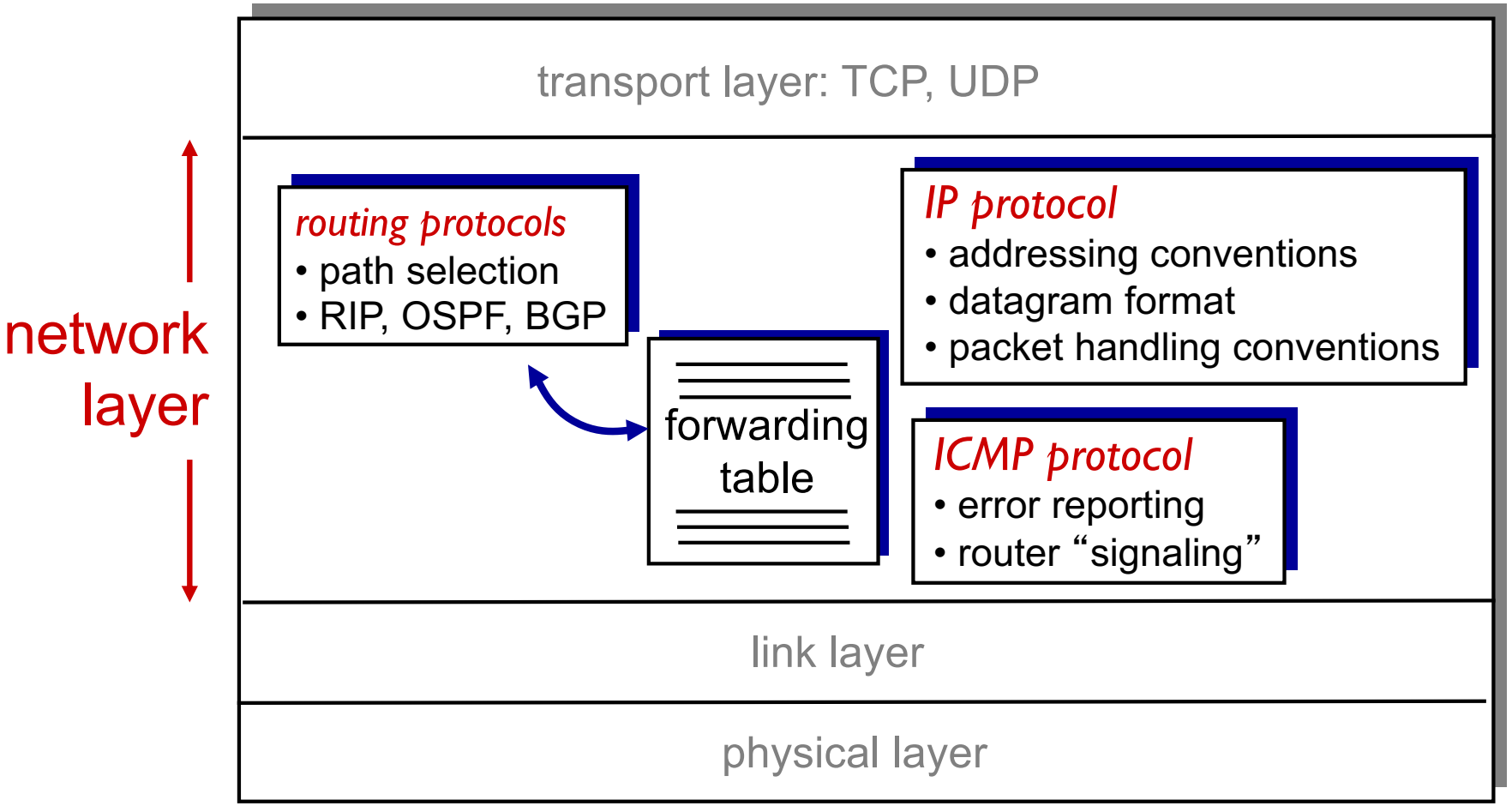
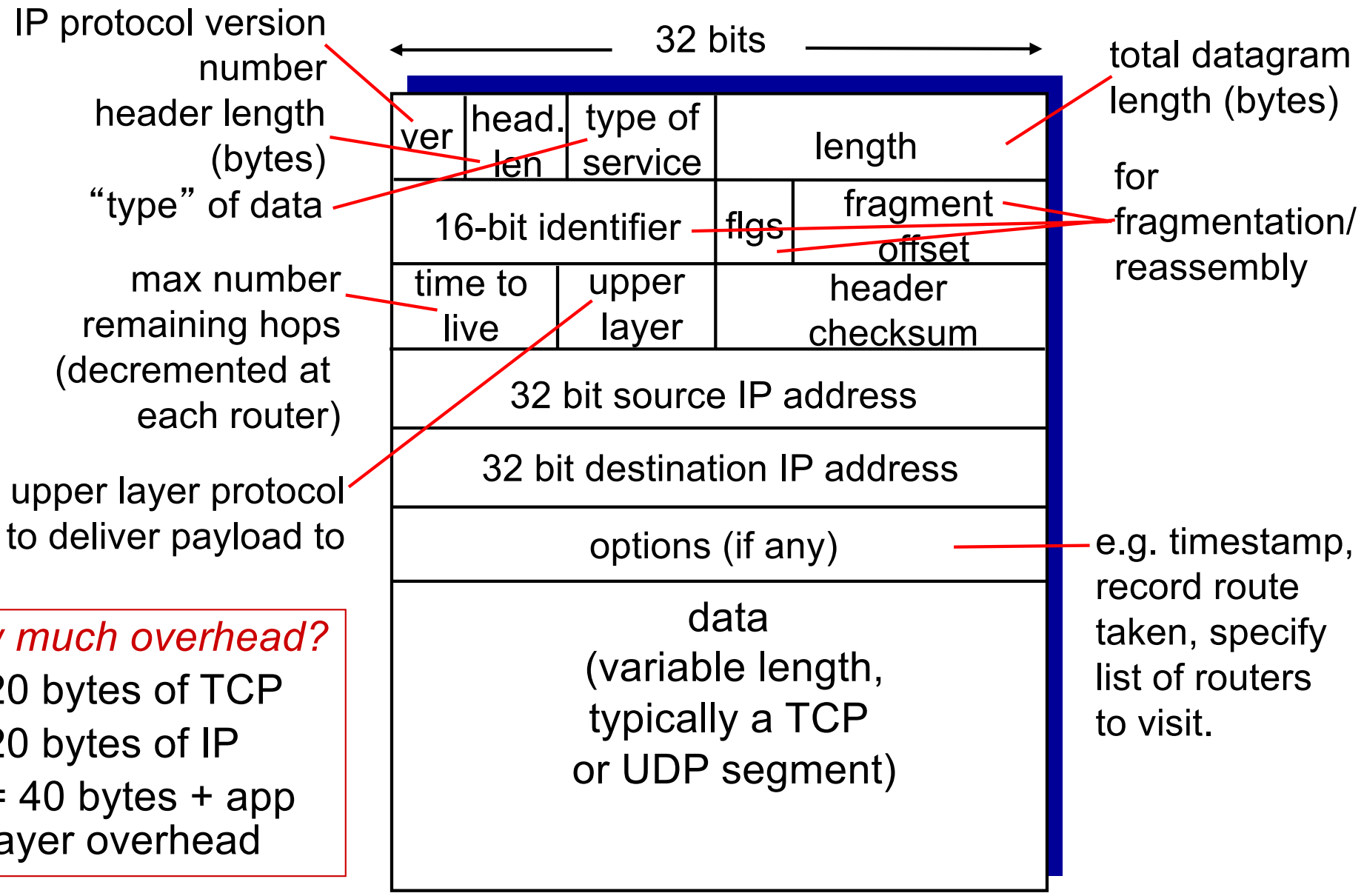
4.3 IP: Internet Protocol
- **datagram format**
- **fragmentation**
- **IPv4 addressing**
- **network address translation**
- **IPv6**

The Internet network layer

host, router network layer functions:



IPv4 datagram format



how much overhead?

- 20 bytes of TCP
- 20 bytes of IP
- = 40 bytes + app layer overhead

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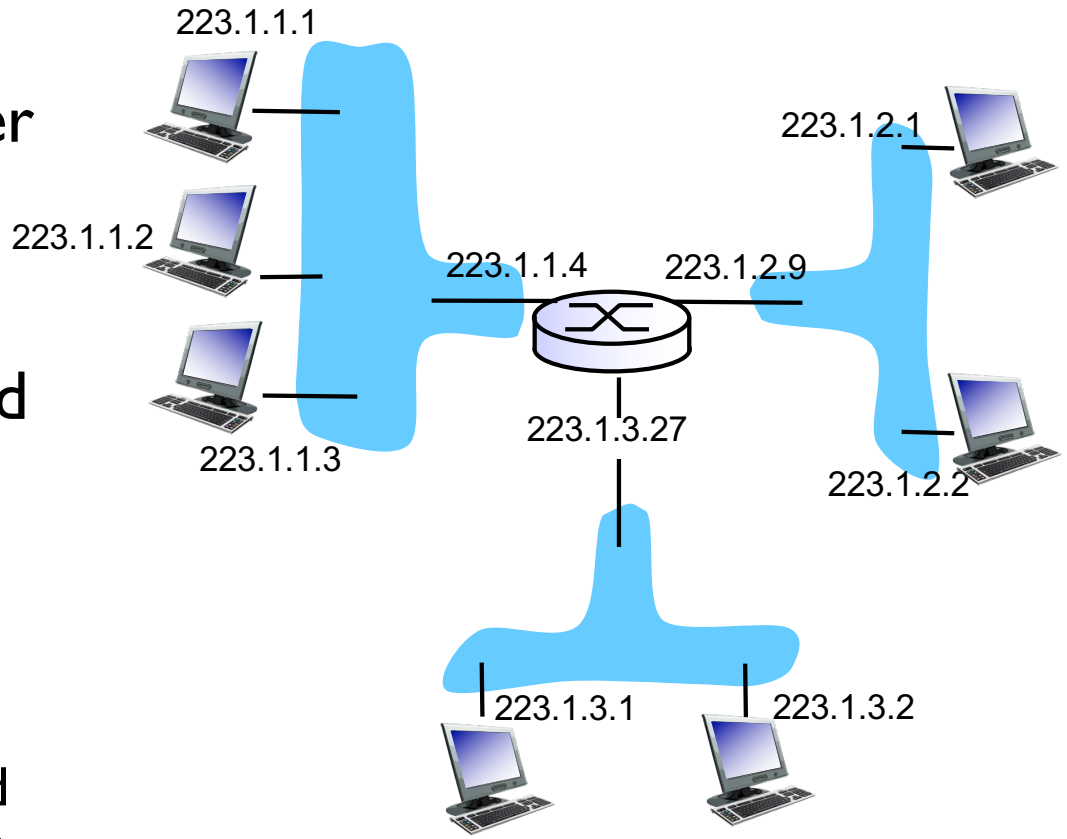
- **IPv4 addressing**
- network address translation
- IPv6

IP addressing: introduction

- *IP address:* 32-bit identifier for host, router *interface*
- *interface:* connection between host/router and physical link
  - router's typically have multiple interfaces
  - host typically has one or two interfaces (e.g., wired Ethernet, wireless 802.11)
- *IP addresses associated with each interface*

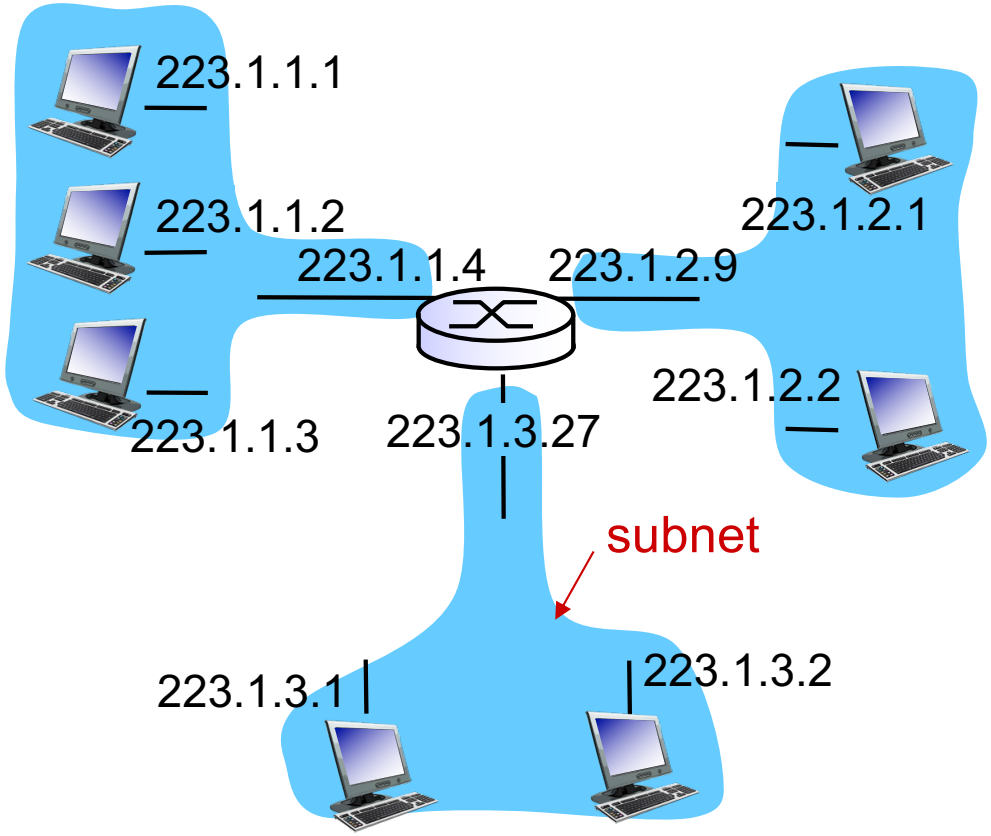


223.1.1.1 = 11011111 00000001 00000001 00000001

223 1 1 1

Subnets

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

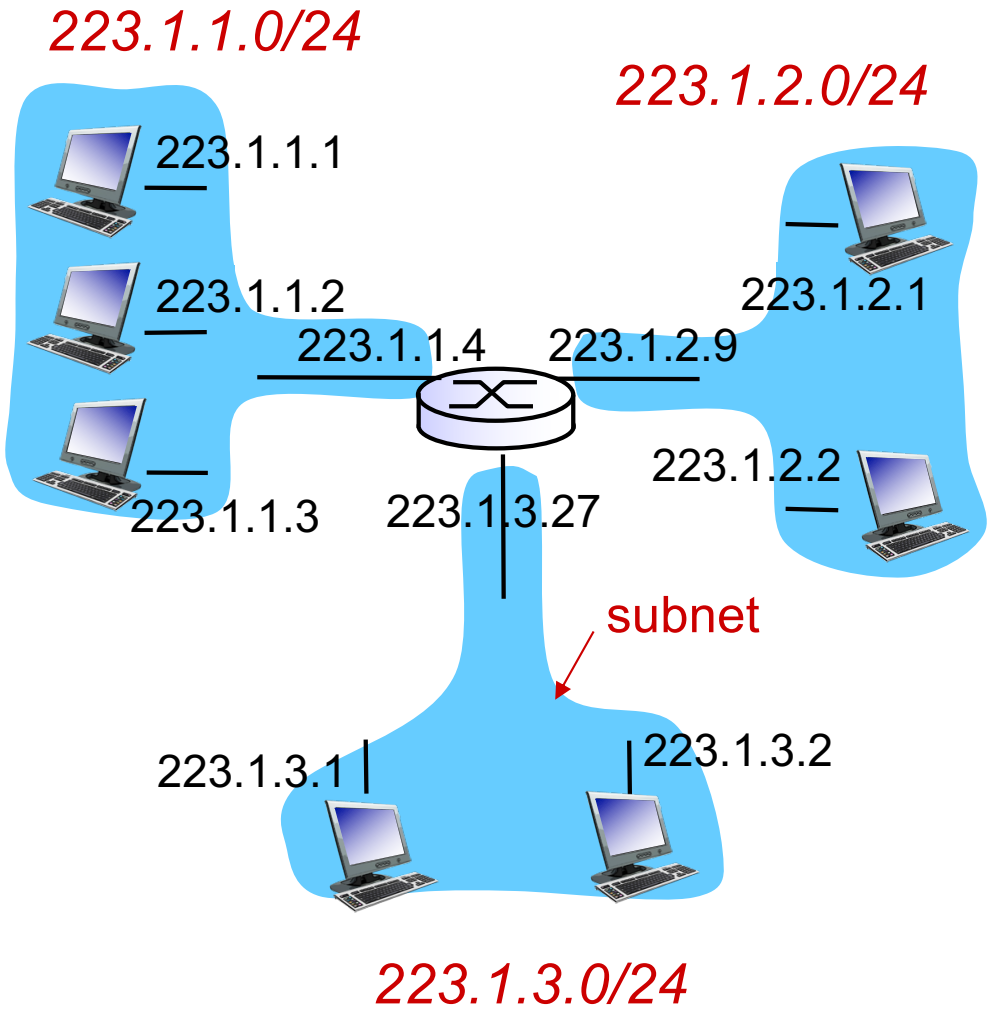


network consisting of 3 subnets

Subnets

recipe

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

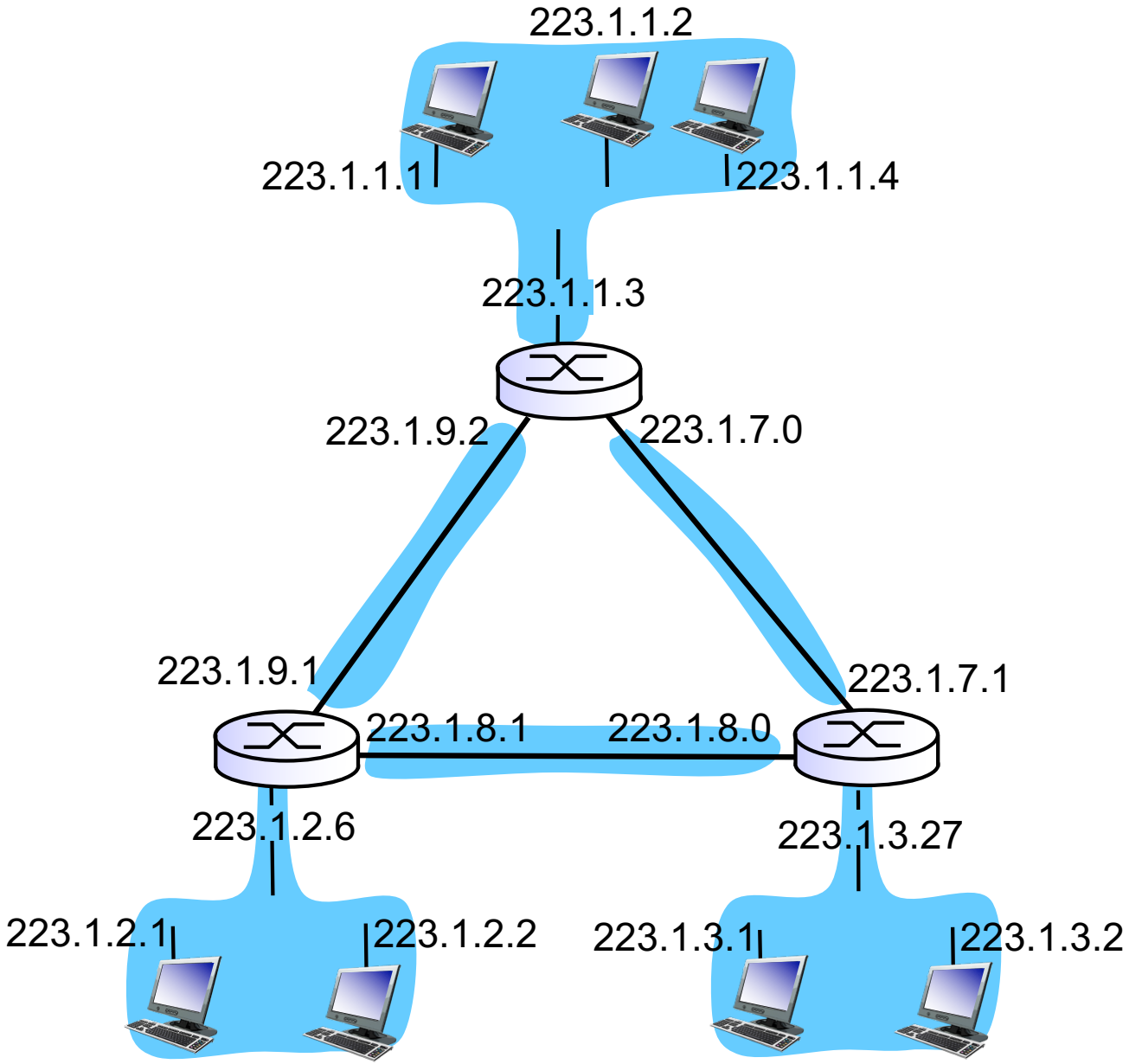


subnet mask: /24

Subnets

how many?

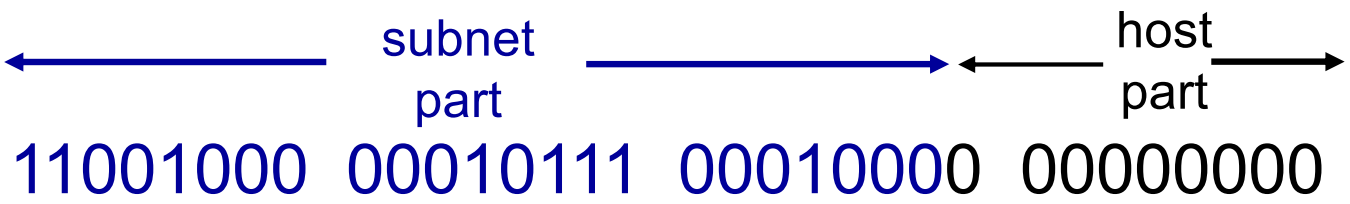
6



IP addressing: CIDR

CIDR: Classless InterDomain Routing

- subnet portion of address of arbitrary length
- address format: a.b.c.d/x, where x is # bits in subnet portion of address



200.23.16.0/23

IP addresses: how to get one?

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

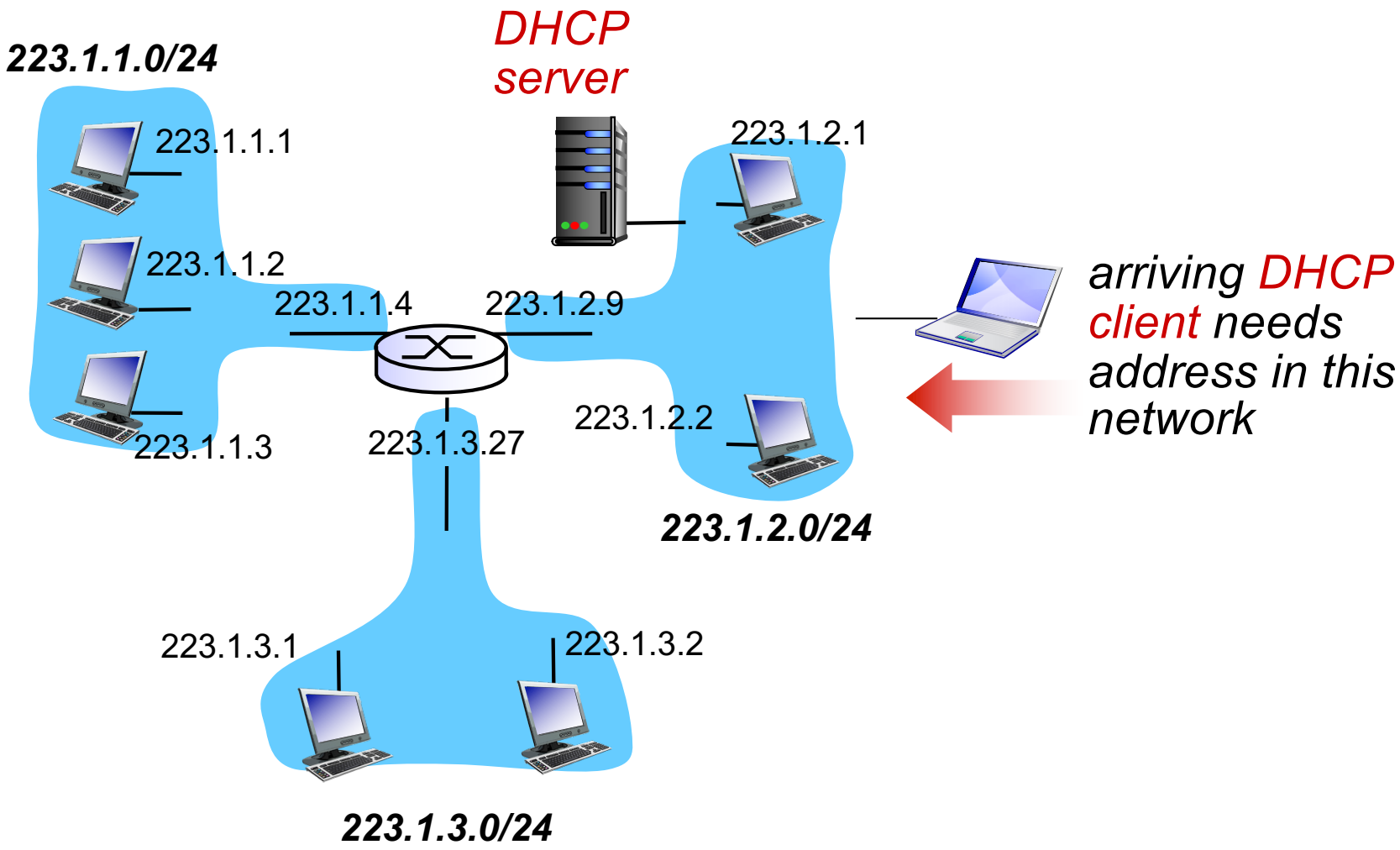
- hard-coded by system admin in a file
  - Windows: control-panel->network->configuration->tcp/ip->properties
  - UNIX: /etc/rc.config
- DHCP: Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol: dynamically get address from as server
  - "plug-and-play"

DHCP: Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol

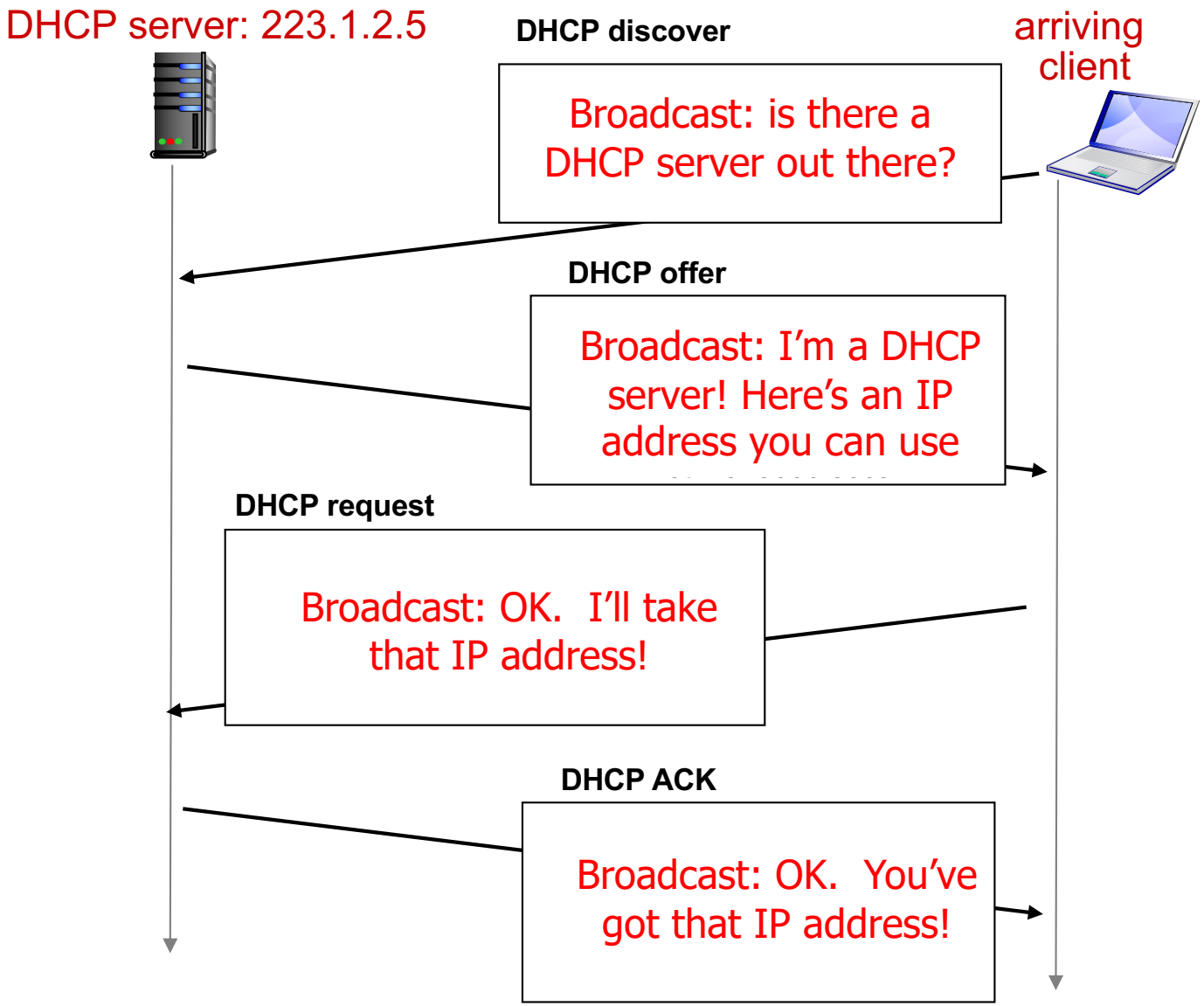
goal: allow host to *dynamically* obtain its IP address from network server when it joins network

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

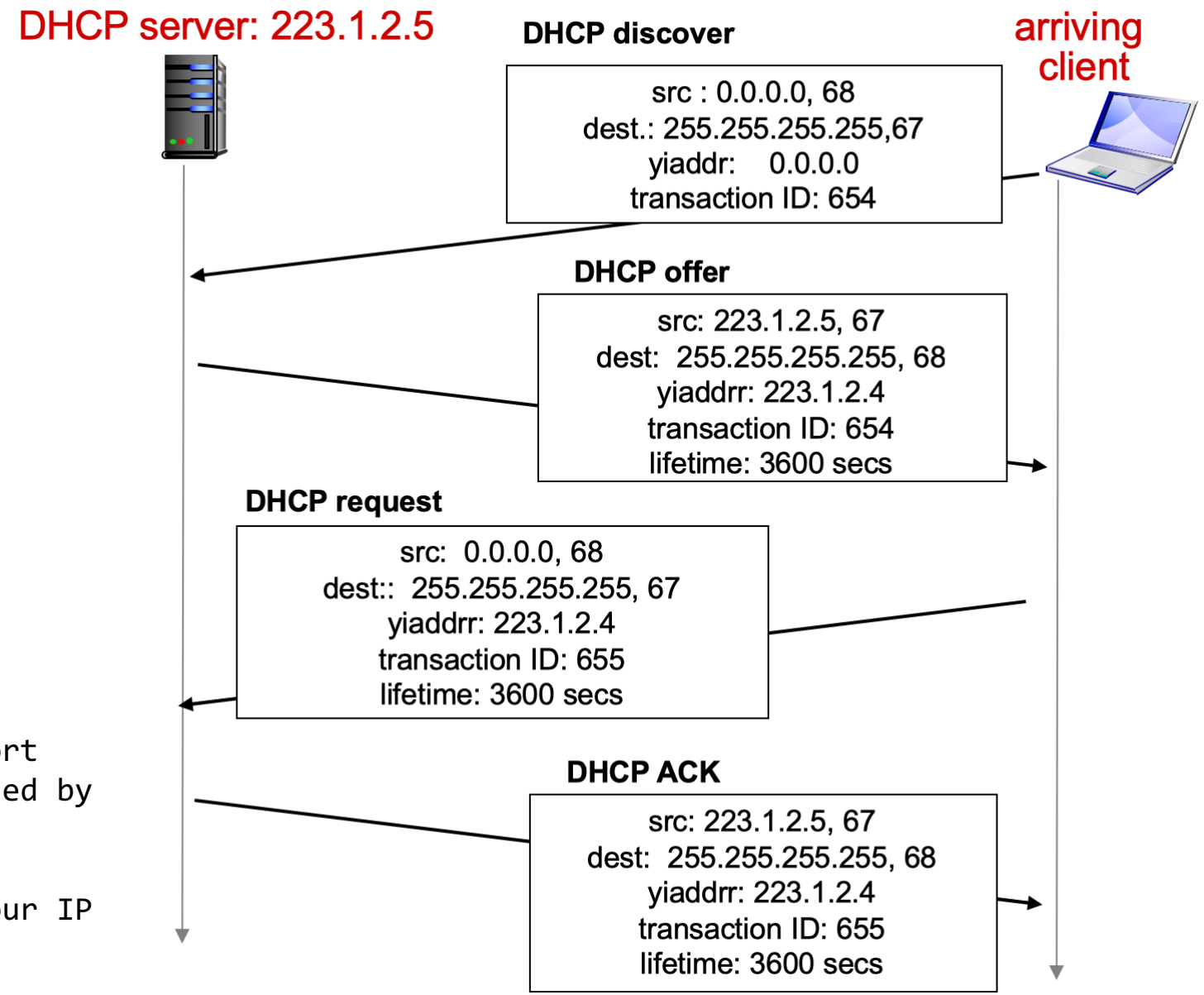
DHCP client-server scenario



DHCP client-server scenario



DHCP client-server scenario



67, 68: port numbers used by DHCP

yiaddr: your IP address

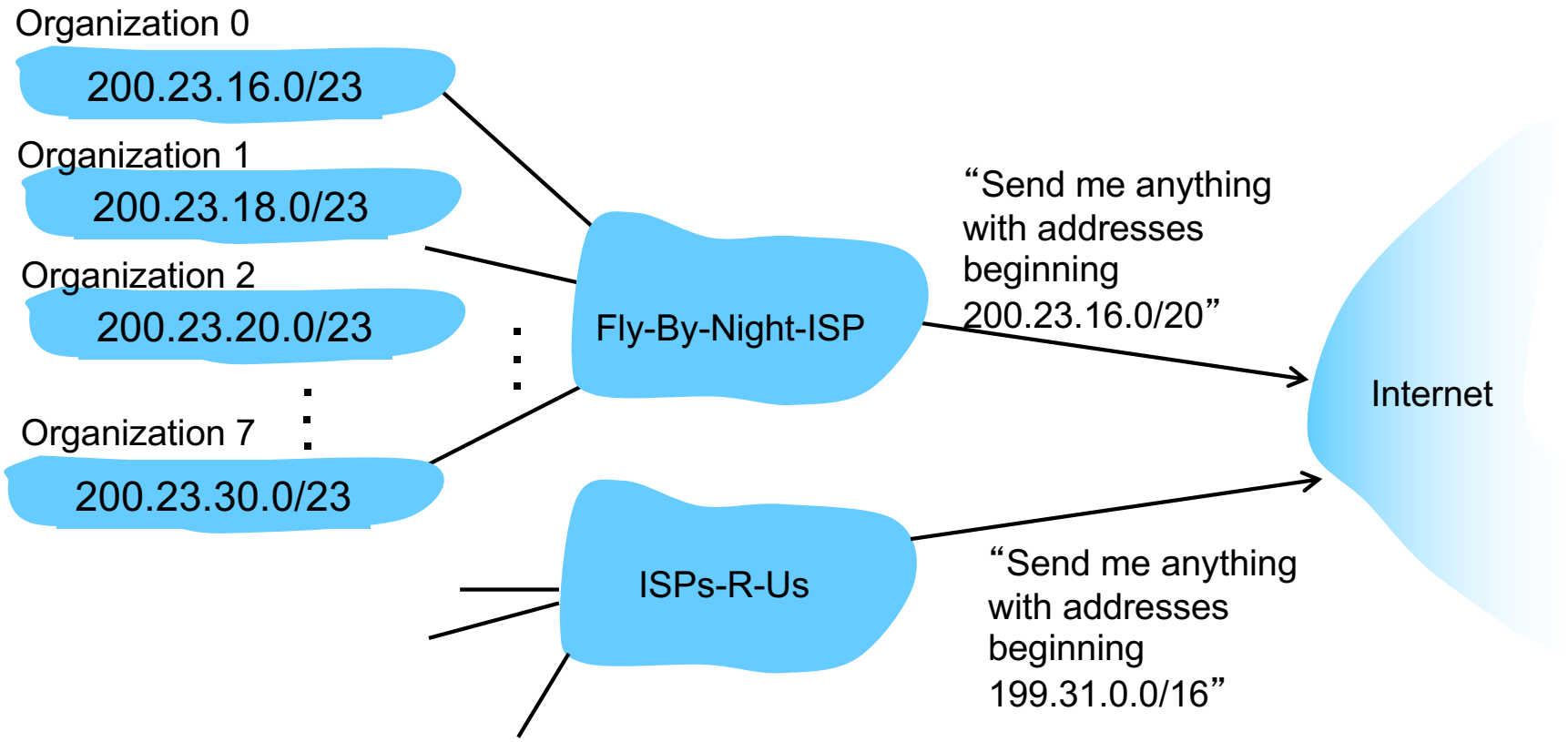
DHCP: more than IP addresses

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

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

Hierarchical addressing: route aggregation

hierarchical addressing allows efficient advertisement of routing information:



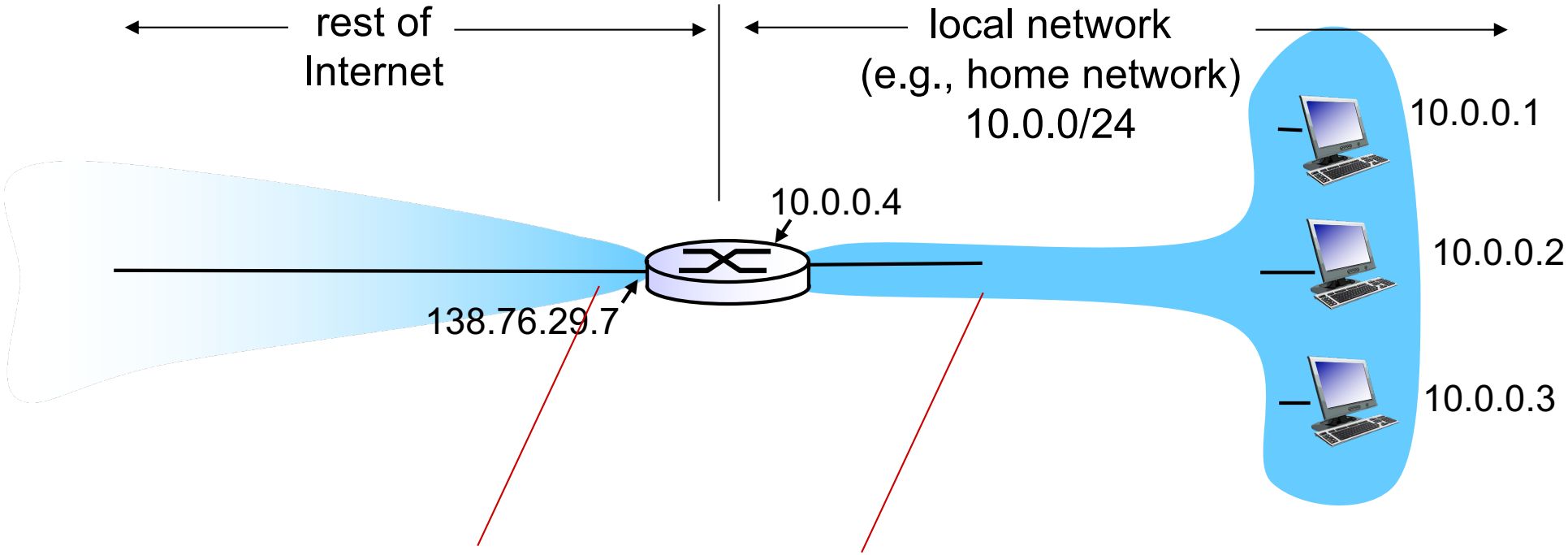
IP addressing: the last word...

Q: how does an ISP get block of addresses?

A: ICANN: Internet Corporation for Assigned Names and Numbers http://www.icann.org/

- allocates addresses
- manages DNS
- assigns domain names, resolves disputes

NAT: network address translation



all datagrams *leaving* local network have *same* single source NAT IP address: 138.76.29.7,different source port numbers

datagrams with source or destination in this network have 10.0.0/24 address for source, destination (as usual)

NAT: network address translation

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

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

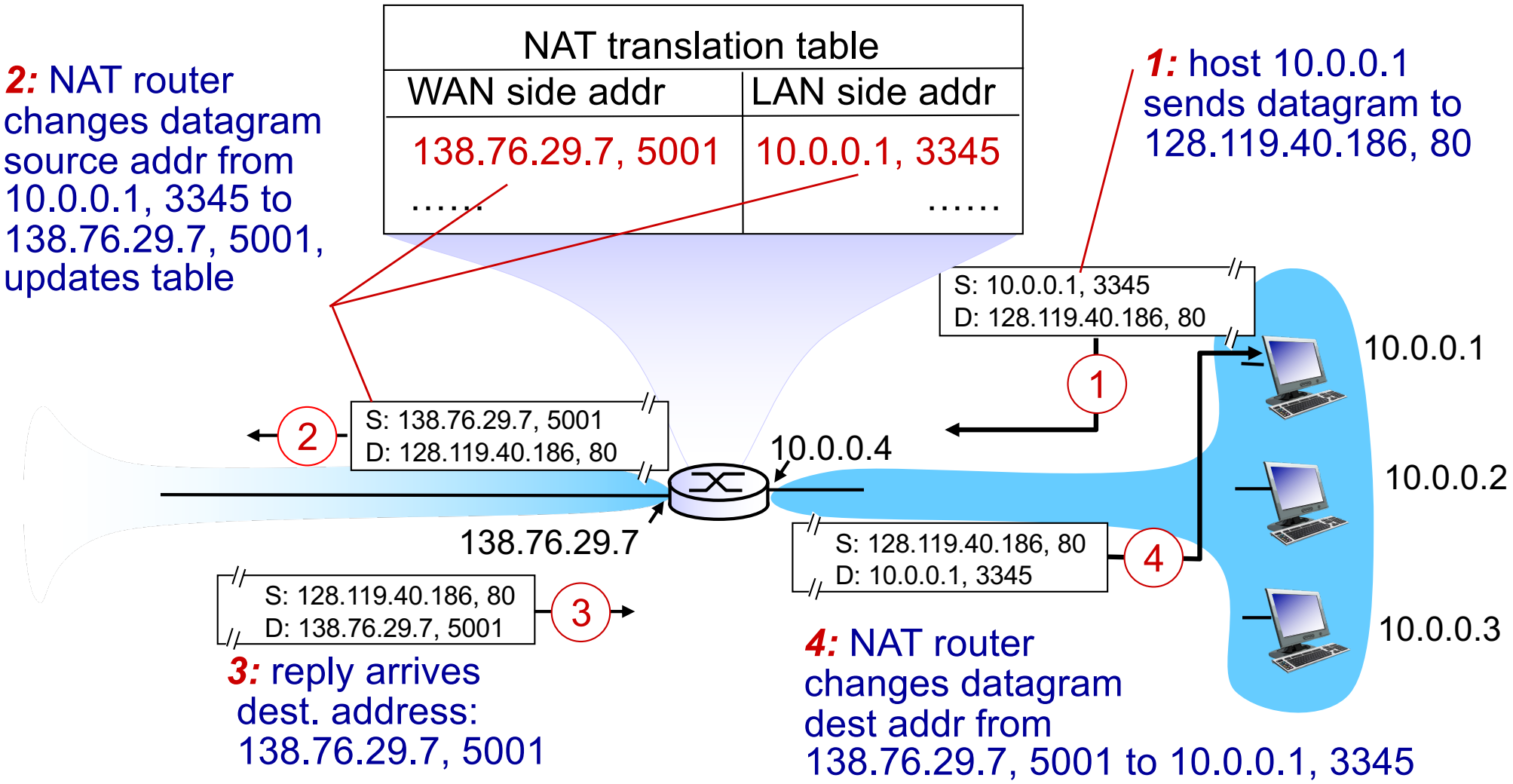
NAT: network address translation

implementation: NAT router must:

- *outgoing datagrams: replace* (source IP address, port #) of every outgoing datagram to (NAT IP address, new port #)

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

NAT: network address translation



NAT: network address translation

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

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- datagram format
- fragmentation
- IPv4 addressing
- network address translation
- **IPv6**

IPv6: motivation

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

IPv6 datagram format:

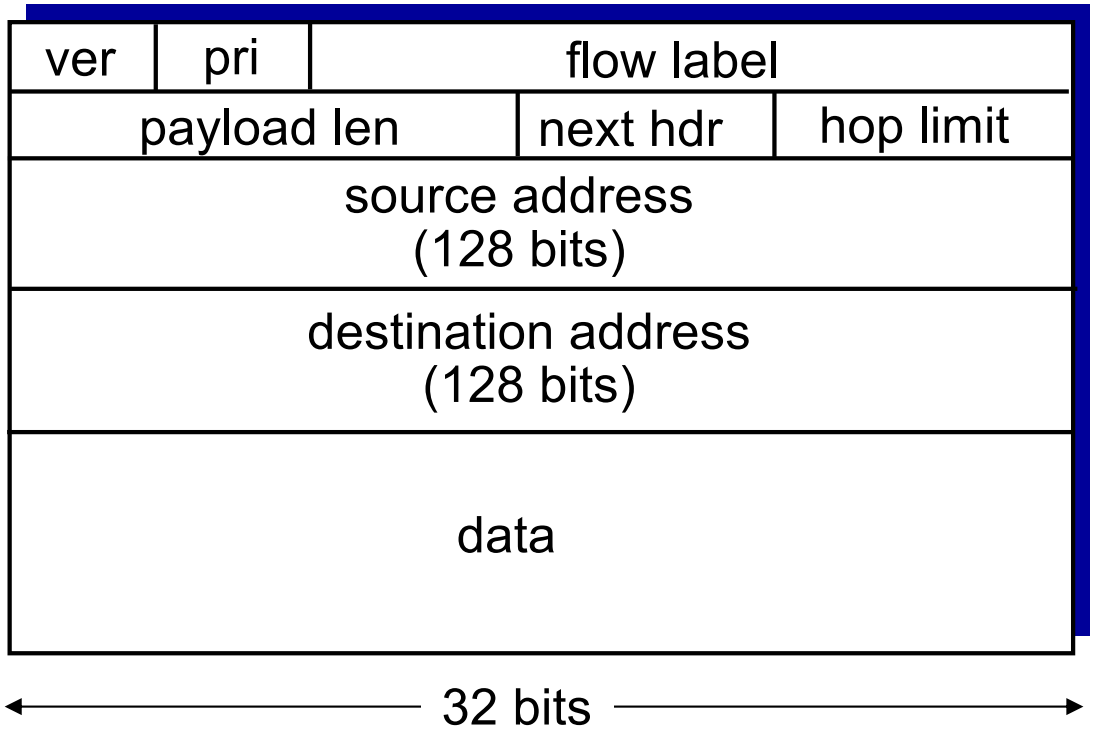
- fixed-length 40 byte header
- no fragmentation allowed

IPv6 datagram format

priority: identify priority among datagrams in flow

flow Label: identify datagrams in same "flow." (concept of"flow" not well defined).

next header: identify upper layer protocol for data

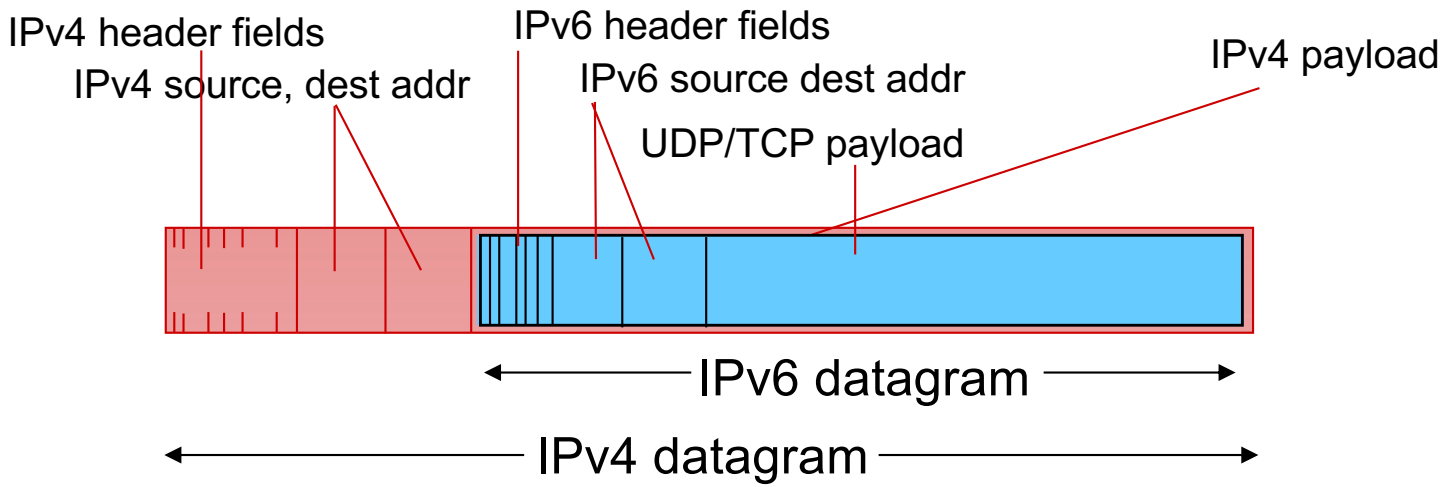


Other changes from IPv4

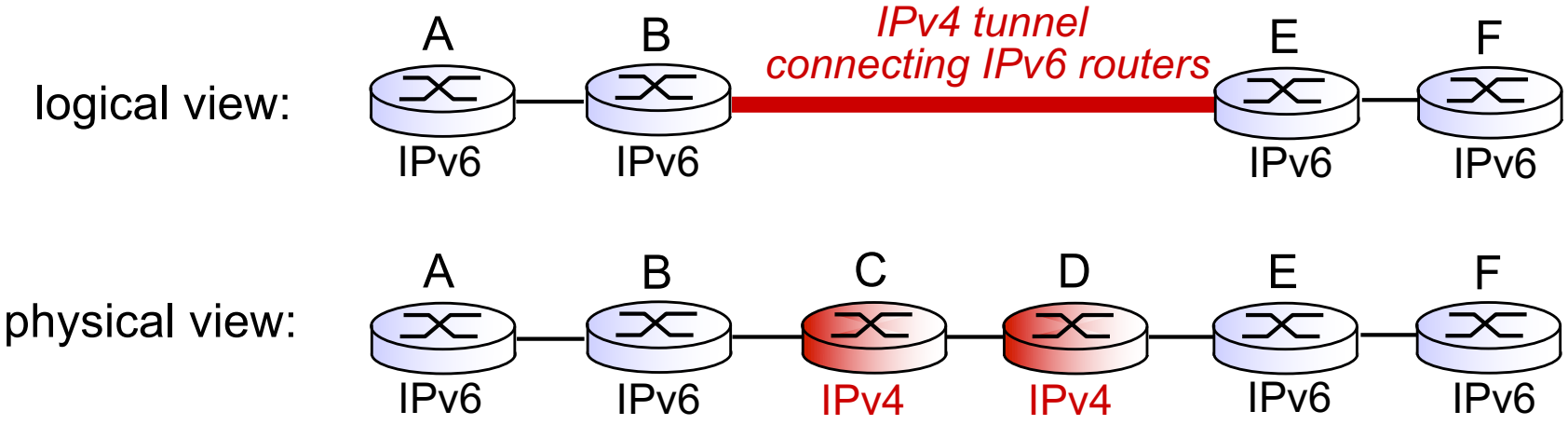
- *checksum:* removed entirely to reduce processing time at each hop
- *options:* allowed, but outside of header, indicated by "Next Header" field
- *ICMPv6:* new version of ICMP
  - additional message types, e.g. "Packet Too Big"
  - No fragmentation in the intermediate routers. Sender receives "Packet Too Big " and resend smaller datagrams.

Transition from IPv4 to IPv6

- not all routers can be upgraded simultaneously
  - no "flag days"
  - how will network operate with mixed IPv4 and IPv6 routers?
- *tunneling:* IPv6 datagram carried as *payload* in IPv4 datagram among IPv4 routers



Tunneling


logical view:
A
B
IPv4 tunnel
connecting IPv6 routers
E
F
IPv6
IPv6
IPv6
IPv6
physical view:
A
B
C
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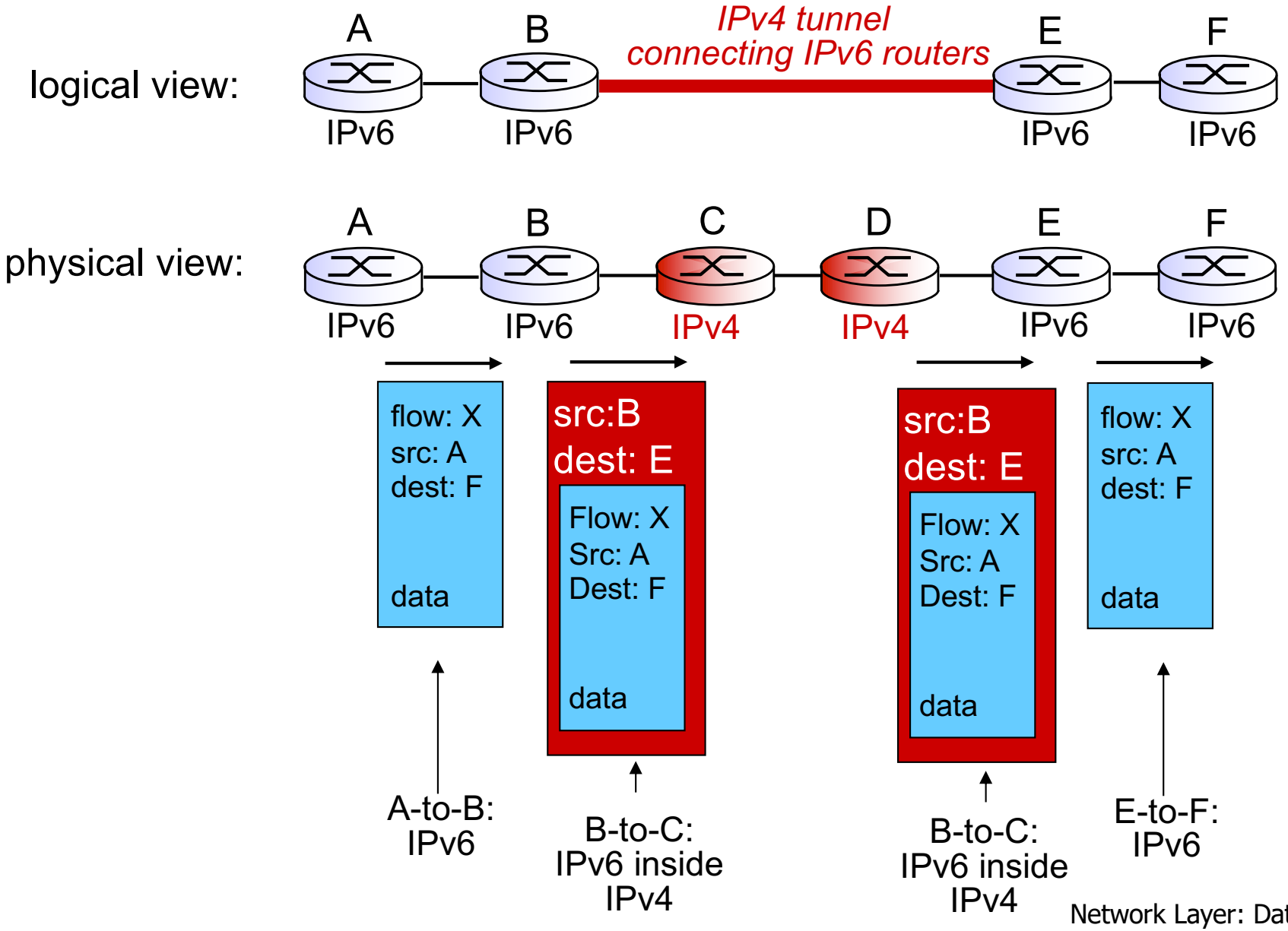
Tunneling


logical view:
A
B
IPv4 tunnel
connecting IPv6 routers
E
F
IPv6
IPv6
IPv6
IPv6
physical view:
A
B
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IPv6
IPv6
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IPv4
IPv6
IPv6
flow: X
src: A
dest: F
data
src:B
dest: E
Flow: X
Src: A
Dest: F
data
src:B
dest: E
Flow: X
Src: A
Dest: F
data
flow: X
src: A
dest: F
data
A-to-B:
IPv6
B-to-C:
IPv6 inside
IPv4
B-to-C:
IPv6 inside
IPv4
E-to-F:
IPv6

IPv6: adoption

- Google: 8% of clients access services via IPv6
- NIST: 1/3 of all US government domains are IPv6 capable

- *Long (long!) time for deployment, use*
  - 20 years and counting!
  - think of application-level changes in last 20 years: WWW, Facebook, streaming media, Skype, …

Summary: Network Layer Data Plane

4.1 Overview of Network layer: data plane and control plane

4.2 What's inside a router

4.3 IP: Internet Protocol

- datagram format
- fragmentation
- IPv4 addressing
- NAT
- IPv6

Question: how do forwarding tables (destination-based forwarding) or flow tables (generalized forwarding) computed?

Answer: by the control plane (next chapter)