

## Advanced Networking

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## What do you find on the web site

- Exam Rules
- Exam Details ... should be on ESSE3, but ...
- Generic (useful) information
- Teaching Material: normally posted at least the day before the lesson
- Additional Material and links
- News, Bulletin, How to find and meet me, etc.
- ...

The web site is work in progress and updated frequently, so please drop by frequently and don't blame ME if you didn't read the last news 😊



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## Program

- **Course Perspective**
  - what do we learn and what we do not
  - are there other "networks"
- **Reharsal of basics**
  - Internet and TCP/IP
  - THE network? or YetAnother network
  - IP
  - UDP/TCP



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## Program

- **IP and routing**
  - **OSPF and link-state protocols**
    - Intra AS routing
    - performance driven routing
  - **BGP and policy-based protocols**
    - External routing
    - Cost (economical!) based routing
  - **Global routing and Internet topology**
    - How things look and works end-to-end



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## Program

- **Network congestion**
  - **Network load and stability**
  - **Call Admission Control**
  - **Reactive congestion control**
    - Closed-loop systems
    - Implicit/Explicit
    - Forward
    - Backward
  - **TCP**
    - How it really works
  - **TCP stabilization methods: myth and reality**
    - RED, RIO, ...



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## Program

- **Multicast**
  - **Abstract multicasting**
  - **Multicast groups and addresses**
  - **Internet and multicast: IGMP**
  - **Multicast routing**
  - **Application level multicast**
    - why it's absurd ...
    - ... why it works!!!



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## Program

- **Internet multimedia communications**
  - Voice and Video services on packet-based networks
  - Transport: TRP/RTCP
  - H.323 standard
  - SIP standard
  - Skype and P2P approaches
- **IP TV**
  - VoD/Broadcast/Live
  - Traditional approach
  - P2P systems



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- **Recalling known topics:**

- **Internet**
- **IP**
- **UDP/TCP**

**Acknowledgment:**

The following slides are based on the slides developed by J.Kurose and K.Ross to accompany their book "Computer Networks: A Top Down Approach Featuring the Internet" by Wiley eds.

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## Internet

What we see:

- Services
- Applications we use
- Some "application level" protocols
- Throughput
- Losses
- Delay (sometimes)
- Delay Jitter (if we're really skilled!)

What is it:

- A collection of protocols
- Mainly centered around two centerpieces:
  - **IP** (network layer)
  - **UDP/TCP** (transport layer)
- Does not mandate a physical medium or format
- Does not mandate or limit the services/applications above (integrates services)



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## Virtual circuits

"source-to-dest path behaves much like telephone circuit"

- performance-wise
  - network actions along source-to-dest path
- call setup, teardown for each call *before* data can flow
  - each packet carries VC identifier (not destination host ID)
  - every router on source-dest path maintains "state" for each passing connection
    - transport-layer connection only involved two end systems
  - link, router resources (bandwidth, buffers) may be *allocated* to VC
    - to get circuit-like perf.



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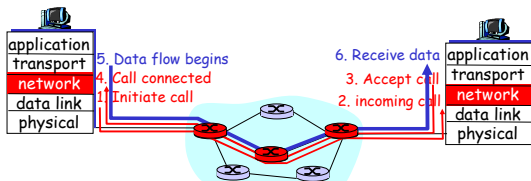
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## Virtual circuits: signaling protocols

- used to setup, maintain, teardown VC
- used in ATM, frame-relay, X.25
- not used in today's Internet



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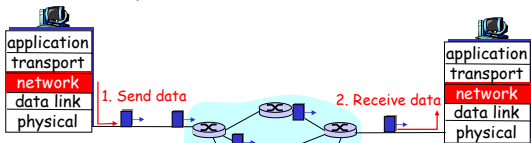
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## Datagram networks: the Internet model

- no call setup at network layer
- routers: no state about end-to-end connections
  - no network-level concept of "connection"
- packets typically routed using destination host ID
  - packets between same source-dest pair may take different paths



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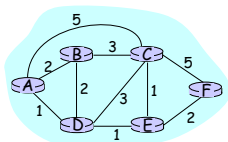
## Routing

### Routing protocol

Goal: determine "good" path (sequence of routers) thru network from source to dest.

Graph abstraction for routing algorithms:

- graph nodes are routers
- graph edges are physical links
  - link cost: delay, \$ cost, or congestion level



- "good" path:
  - typically means minimum cost path
  - other def's possible



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## Routing Algorithm classification

### Global or decentralized information?

#### Global:

- all routers have complete topology, link cost info
- "link state" algorithms

#### Decentralized:

- router knows physically-connected neighbors, link costs to neighbors
- iterative process of computation, exchange of info with neighbors
- "distance vector" algorithms

### Static or dynamic?

#### Static:

- routes change slowly over time

#### Dynamic:

- routes change more quickly
  - periodic update
  - in response to link cost changes



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## A Link-State Routing Algorithm

### Dijkstra's algorithm

- net topology, link costs known to all nodes
  - accomplished via "link state broadcast"
  - all nodes have same info
- computes least cost paths from one node ("source") to all other nodes
  - gives routing table for that node
- iterative: after k iterations, know least cost path to k dest.'s

### Notation:

- $C(i,j)$ : link cost from node i to j. cost infinite if not direct neighbors
- $D(v)$ : current value of cost of path from source to dest. V
- $p(v)$ : predecessor node along path from source to v, that is next v
- $N$ : set of nodes whose least cost path definitively known



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## Distance Vector Routing Algorithm

### iterative:

- continues until no nodes exchange info.
- *self-terminating*: no "signal" to stop

### asynchronous:

- nodes need *not* exchange info/iterate in lock step!

### distributed:

- each node communicates *only* with directly-attached neighbors

### Distance Table data structure

- each node has its own
- row for each possible destination
- column for each directly-attached neighbor to node
- example: in node X, for dest. Y via neighbor Z:

$$D^X(Y,Z) = \text{distance from X to Y, via Z as next hop} \\ = c(X,Z) + \min_w \{D^Z(Y,w)\}$$




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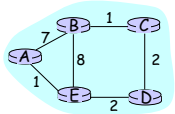
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## Distance Table: example



$$D^E(C,D) = c(E,D) + \min_w \{D^D(C,w)\} \\ = 2+2 = 4$$

$$D^E(A,D) = c(E,D) + \min_w \{D^D(A,w)\} \\ = 2+3 = 5 \text{ loop!}$$

$$D^E(A,B) = c(E,B) + \min_w \{D^B(A,w)\} \\ = 8+6 = 14 \text{ loop!}$$

		cost to destination via		
$D^E()$		A	B	D
destination	A	1	14	5
	B	7	8	5
	C	6	9	4
	D	4	11	2




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## Distance table gives routing table

		cost to destination via		
$D^E()$		A	B	D
destination	A	1	14	5
	B	7	8	5
	C	6	9	4
	D	4	11	2

		Outgoing link to use, cost	
$D^E()$		Outgoing link	cost
destination	A	A	1
	B	D	5
	C	D	4
	D	D	4

Distance table → Routing table




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## Distance Vector Routing: overview

### Iterative, asynchronous:

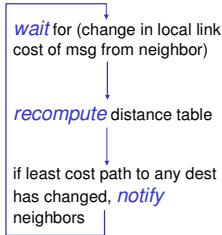
each local iteration caused by:

- local link cost change
- message from neighbor: its least cost path change from neighbor

### Distributed:

- each node notifies neighbors *only* when its least cost path to any destination changes
  - neighbors then notify their neighbors if necessary

### Each node:




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## Distance Vector Algorithm:

At all nodes, X:

- 1 Initialization:
- 2 for all adjacent nodes v:
- 3  $D_X^{X,v} = \text{infty}$  /\* the \* operator means "for all rows" \*/
- 4  $D_X^{v,v} = c(X,v)$
- 5 for all destinations, y
- 6 send  $\min_w D_X^{y,w}$  to each neighbor /\* w over all X's neighbors \*/




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## Distance Vector Algorithm (cont.):

- 8 loop
- 9 wait (until I see a link cost change to neighbor V or until I receive update from neighbor V)
- 10
- 11
- 12 if (c(X,V) changes by d)
- 13 /\* change cost to all dest's via neighbor v by d \*/
- 14 /\* note: d could be positive or negative \*/
- 15 for all destinations y:  $D_X^{y,V} = D_X^{y,V} + d$
- 16
- 17 else if (update received from V wrt destination Y)
- 18 /\* shortest path from V to some Y has changed \*/
- 19 /\* V has sent a new value for its  $\min_w D_V^{Y,w}$  \*/
- 20 /\* call this received new value is "newval" \*/
- 21 for the single destination y:  $D_X^{Y,V} = c(X,V) + \text{newval}$
- 22
- 23 if we have a new  $\min_w D_X^{Y,w}$  for any destination Y
- 24 send new value of  $\min_w D_X^{Y,w}$  to all neighbors
- 25
- 26 forever




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### Distance Vector Algorithm: example

D <sup>X</sup>		cost via	
	Y	Z	
d	2	∞	
e	2	∞	
s	∞	7	
t	∞	7	

D <sup>Y</sup>		cost via	
	X	Z	
d	∞	∞	
e	2	8	
s	∞	1	
t	∞	1	

D <sup>Z</sup>		cost via	
	X	Y	
d	∞	∞	
e	7	∞	
s	∞	1	
t	∞	1	

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### Distance Vector Algorithm: example

D <sup>X</sup>		cost via	
	Y	Z	
d	2	∞	
e	2	∞	
s	∞	7	
t	∞	7	

D <sup>Y</sup>		cost via	
	X	Z	
d	∞	∞	
e	2	8	
s	∞	1	
t	∞	1	

D <sup>Z</sup>		cost via	
	X	Y	
d	∞	∞	
e	7	∞	
s	∞	1	
t	∞	1	

$$D^X(Y,Z) = c(X,Z) + \min_W \{D^Z(Y,W)\}$$

$$= 7 + 1 = 8$$

$$D^X(Z,Y) = c(X,Y) + \min_W \{D^Y(Z,W)\}$$

$$= 2 + 1 = 3$$

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### Distance Vector: link cost changes

**Link cost changes:**

- node detects local link cost change
- updates distance table (line 15)
- if cost change in least cost path, notify neighbors (lines 23,24)

"good news travels fast"

D <sup>Y</sup>		via	
	X	Z	
x	4	6	
x	1	6	

D <sup>Z</sup>		via	
	X	Y	
x	50	5	
x	50	5	

D <sup>X</sup>		via	
	Y	Z	
x	1	6	
x	1	3	

D <sup>X</sup>		via	
	Y	Z	
x	1	3	
x	1	3	

time  $t_0$   $t_1$   $t_2$

c(X,Y) change

algorithm terminates

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## The Internet Network layer

Host, router network layer functions:

Transport layer: TCP, UDP

Network layer

Link layer

physical layer

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## Why different Intra- and Inter-AS routing ?

- **Policy:** Inter is concerned with policies (which provider we must select/avoid, etc). Intra is contained in a single organization, so, no policy decisions necessary
- **Scale:** Inter provides an extra level of routing table size and routing update traffic reduction above the Intra layer
- **Performance:** Intra is focused on performance metrics; needs to keep costs low. In Inter it is difficult to propagate performance metrics efficiently (latency, privacy etc). Besides, policy related information is more meaningful.

We need **BOTH!**

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## IP Addressing

- **IP address:** 32-bit identifier for host, router *interface*
- **interface:** connection between host, router and physical link
  - router's typically have multiple interfaces
  - host may have multiple interfaces
  - IP addresses associated with interface, not host, router

223.1.1.1 = 11011111 00000001 00000001 00000001

223      1      1      1

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## Address Management

- As Internet grows, we run out of addresses
- Solution (a): **subnetting**. Eg, Class B Host field (16bits) is subdivided into <subnet;host> fields
- Solution (b): **CIDR** (Classless Inter Domain Routing): assign block of contiguous Class C addresses to the same organization; these addresses all share a common prefix
- repeated "aggregation" within same provider leads to shorter and shorter prefixes
- CIDR helps also routing table size and processing: Border Gwys keep only prefixes and find "longest prefix" match




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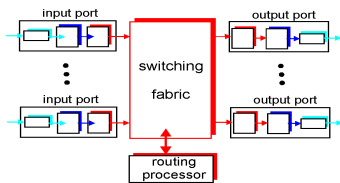
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## Router Architecture Overview

- Router main functions: *routing* algorithms and protocols processing, *switching* datagrams from an incoming link to an outgoing link



### Router Components




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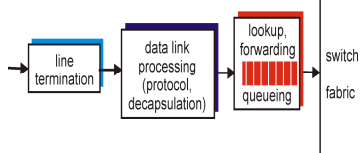
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## Input Ports



- **Decentralized switching**: perform routing table lookup using a copy of the node routing table stored in the port memory
- Goal is to complete input port processing at 'line speed', ie processing time  $\ll$  frame reception time (eg, with 2.5 Gbps line, 256 bytes long frame, router must perform about 1 million routing table lookups in a second)
- Queuing occurs if datagrams arrive at rate higher than can be forwarded on switching fabric




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## Speeding Up Routing Table Lookup

- Table is stored in a tree structure to facilitate binary search
- Content Addressable Memory (associative memory), eg Cisco 8500 series routers
- Caching of recently looked-up addresses
- Compression of routing tables




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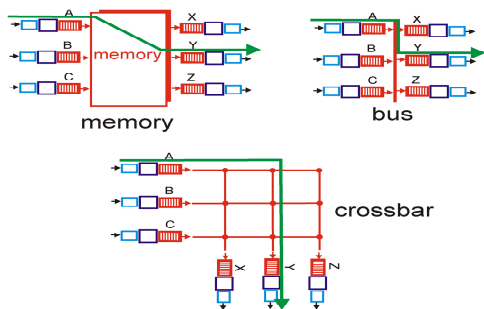
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## Switching Fabric




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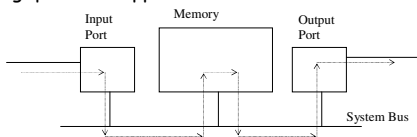
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## Switching Via Memory

- *First generation routers*: packet is copied under system's (single) CPU control; speed limited by Memory bandwidth. For Memory speed of B packet/sec or pps, throughput is B/2 pps



- *Modern routers*: input ports with CPUs that implement output port lookup, and store packets in appropriate locations (= switch) in a shared Memory; eg Cisco Catalyst 8500 switches




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## Switching Via Bus

- Input port processors transfer a datagram from input port memory to output port memory via a shared bus
- Main resource contention is over the bus; switching is limited by bus speed
- Sufficient speed for access and enterprise routers (not regional or backbone routers) is provided by a Gbps bus; eg Cisco 1900 which has a 1 Gbps bus



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## Switching Via An Interconnection Network

- Used to overcome bus bandwidth limitations
- Banyan networks and other interconnection networks were initially developed to connect processors in a multiprocessor computer system; used in Cisco 12000 switches provide up to 60 Gbps through the interconnection network
- Advanced design incorporates fragmenting a datagram into fixed length cells and switch the cells through the fabric; + better sharing of the switching fabric resulting in higher switching speed



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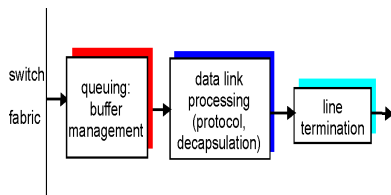
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## Output Ports



Buffering is required to hold datagrams whenever they arrive from the switching fabric at a rate faster than the transmission rate



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## UDP checksum

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

**Sender:**

- treat segment contents as sequence of 16-bit integers
- checksum: addition (1's complement sum) of segment contents
- sender puts checksum value into UDP checksum field

**Receiver:**

- compute checksum of received segment
- check if computed checksum equals checksum field value:
  - NO - error detected
  - YES - no error detected. *But maybe errors nonetheless?*




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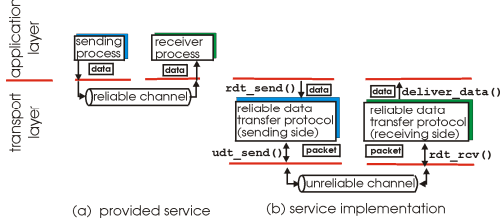
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## Principles of Reliable data transfer

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



(a) provided service

(b) service implementation

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




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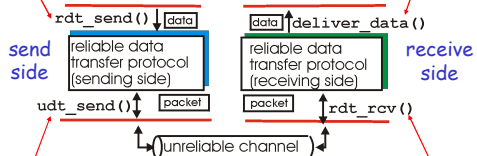
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## Reliable data transfer: getting started

**rdt\_send()** : called from above, (e.g., by app.). Passed data to deliver to receiver upper layer

**deliver\_data()** : called by rdt to deliver data to upper



**udt\_send()** : called by rdt, to transfer packet over unreliable channel to receiver

**rdt\_rcv()** : called when packet arrives on rcv-side of channel




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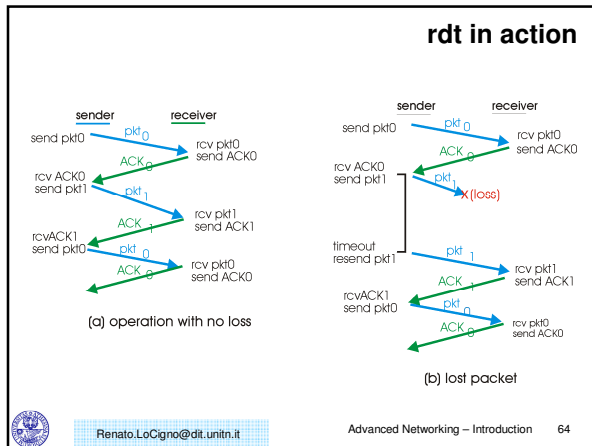
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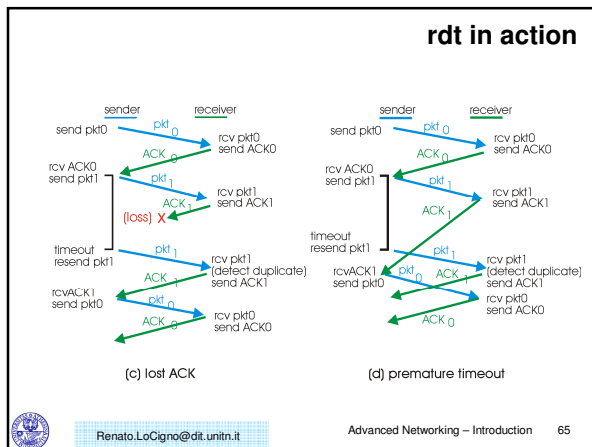
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### Performance of rdt

- rdt3.0 works, but performance stinks
- example: 1 Gbps link, 15 ms e-e prop. delay, 1KB packet:

$$T_{\text{transmit}} = \frac{8\text{kb}/\text{pkt}}{10^9 \text{ b/sec}} = 8 \text{ microsec}$$

$$\text{Utilization} = U = \frac{\text{fraction of time sender busy sending}}{30.016 \text{ msec}} = \frac{8 \text{ microsec}}{30.016 \text{ msec}} = 0.00015$$

- 1KB pkt every 30 msec -> 33kB/sec thrupt over 1 Gbps link
- network protocol limits use of physical resources!

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## Pipelined Protocols

- Channel utilization under a Stop&Wait protocol is not high when the propagation time is long relative to the transmission time
- Solution: pipelined protocols, where more than one packet can be sent without waiting for feedback, thus filling the 'pipeline'
- Two major versions (and lots of variations on the theme):
  - Go-Back-N
  - Selective Repeat
- New requirements:
  - Buffering more than one packet at sender, and possibly at receiver too
  - Larger sequence numbers for identifying packets in transit




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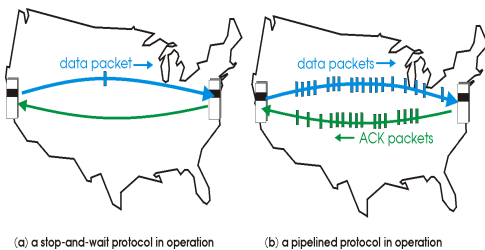
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## Filling the Pipeline




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## Stop&Wait Efficiency

$$U = \frac{T_{datatrans}}{T_{datatrans} + 2 * T_{prop} + T_{proc} + T_{acktrans}}$$

For relatively small  $T_{proc}$  and  $T_{acktrans}$

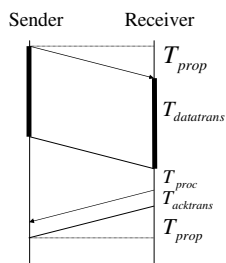
$$U \approx \frac{T_{datatrans}}{T_{datatrans} + 2 * T_{prop}}, \text{ or}$$

$$U \approx \frac{1}{1 + 2 * a}, \text{ where } a = \frac{T_{prop}}{T_{datatrans}}$$

$T_{datatrans} = \frac{L}{C}$ , where L is the Packet length and C is the Transmission Speed.

For one bit of data,  $T_{datatrans} = 1/C$ ;

in this case  $a = CT_{prop}$ , which is called the "Bandwidth - Delay" product




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## Go-Back-N Performance

- *Bandwidth-Delay Product* (ie "pipeline size") is defined as the product of the channel transmission speed and the propagation delay
- As transmission speed or propagation delay increases, more packets can be transmitted to "fill the pipeline"
- For channels with high Bandwidth-Delay product, Go-Back-N performance may deteriorate: the number of outstanding packets may be large and all these packets will be unnecessarily retransmitted when an error occurs




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## Selective Repeat

- Selective Repeat addresses the performance limitation of Go-back-N mentioned above
- Receiver indicates to sender which packet needs to be retransmitted; sender retransmits only that packet
- Receiver accepts and buffers packets received out of order within a limit imposed by a *receiver window*
- Groups of packets with consecutive sequence numbers (or completed sequences) are delivered to the higher layer at the sender
- A timer must be associated with each packet (but we can use one hardware timer to implement multiple logical timers)




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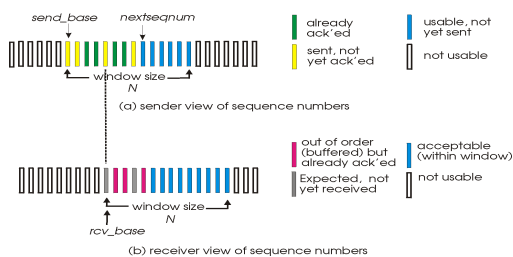
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## Selective Repeat Windows




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## Selective Repeat Sender Event-Driven Algorithms

- Higher layer calls to transmit data:  
if there are unused sequence numbers  
  then packetize and transmit;  
  else reject the data;
- Timeout occurs:  
transmit the (single) packet which timed out;
- Ack is received:  
mark packet acked;  
if base can be moved  
  then move it to the unacked packet with the lowest sequence number;




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## Selective Repeat Receiver Event-Driven Algorithms

- Packet received, not corrupted, within current receive window:  
Ack the received packet;  
if not previously received  
  then buffer the packet;  
deliver consecutively sequenced received packets to higher layer;  
move window forward;
- Packet received, not corrupt, sequence number below window base:  
Ack the received packet; /\* packet previously acked and already delivered to higher layer\*/
- Packet received, corrupt, or sequence number beyond window:  
Ignore the packet




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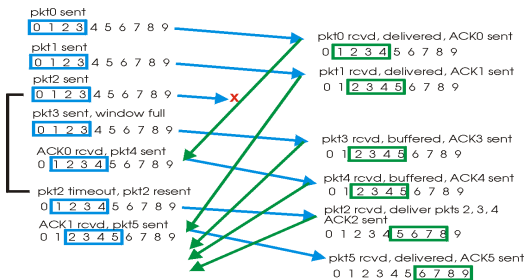
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## Selective Repeat Example




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## Setting The Window Size

- The window size  $N$  is an important parameter
- $N$  should be large enough to allow filling the pipeline, thus making better utilization of the channel
- On the other hand,  $N$  is limited by the protocols (ensure receiver correctly identifies packets)
- It was found that  $N$  cannot be larger than half the sequence space length




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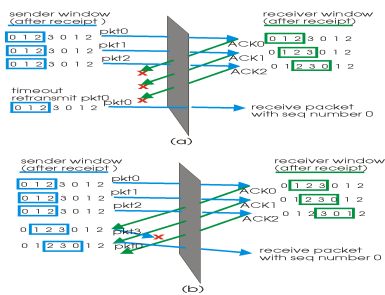
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## Misidentification Example




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## Reliable Transport Layer: TCP

- Full-duplex
- End-to-end protocol, transparent to network and lower layers in routers
- Connection-oriented, connection established through "three way handshake" protocol
- Byte Stream transfer, stream is divided into segments with a *maximum segment size* (MSS)
- Reliability through an ARQ type protocol
- Flow Control: receiver controls the amount of bytes a sender is allowed to send
- Point-to-point connection, no multicasting with TCP




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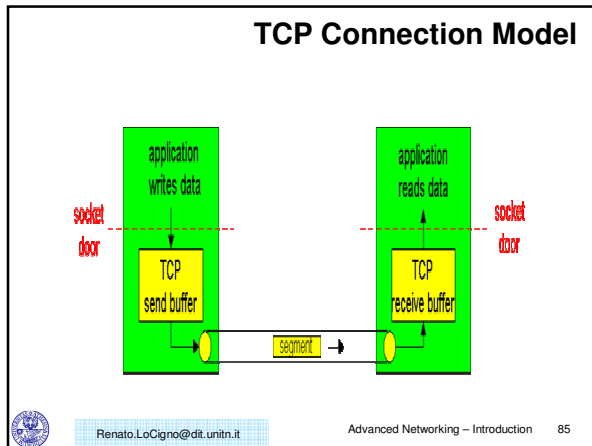
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- ### Segment Format
- Header contains:
    - Source and Destination Ports
    - Segment Sequence Number: that of the first byte in the segment (Byte Stream model)
    - Acknowledgment Number: sequence number of byte expected from the other side next
    - Header length: header as a fixed part of 20 bytes + optional fields
    - Receiver Window Size: the maximum number of bytes that the other side is allowed to send next
    - Header checksum: to ensure correctness of header field
    - Flags
    - 4 unused bits!
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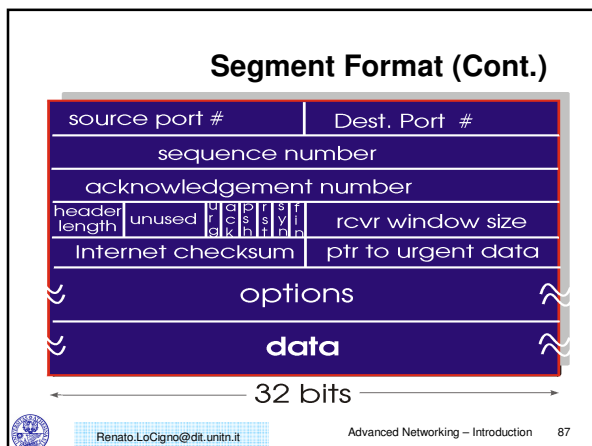
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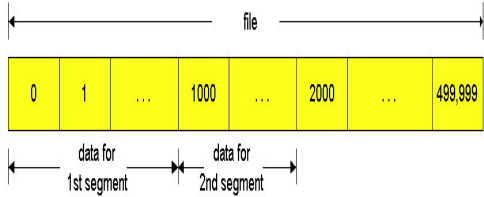
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## Segmented Byte Stream




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## Telnet: A TCP ACK example

- Telnet: appl. level protocol for remote login
- Interactive mode; typed characters are "echoed back" by remote Host (each character traverses the network twice)
- Full duplex stream of characters provides opportunity for ACK piggybacking
- In simplex (one way) data transfer, explicit ACKs are required




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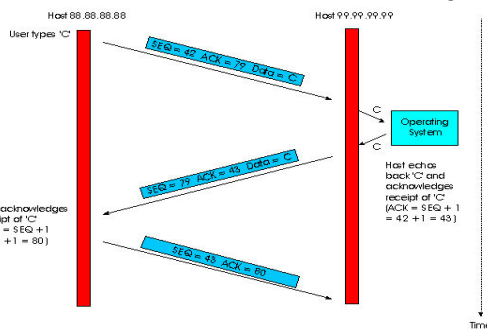
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## Telnet: ACK Example




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## TCP Reliable Data Transfer

- IP layer is often unreliable: packet drop (due to buffer overflow); data corruption (eg, noise, collisions).
- TCP approach: data is retransmitted following error detection (bad checksum) or packet loss detection (timeout or out of sequence reception)
- TCP uses pipelining to improve efficiency over paths with many hops and large end to end delays
- TCP error recovery mechanism similar to Go-Back-N
- TCP RFCs do not require receivers to drop out-of-order packets; some implementation keep such packets to save channel bandwidth



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## Three Key Events In Reliable TCP

- Event 1: TCP releases data segment to IP layer; segment retx timer started
- Event 2: segment timeout expires: segment is retransmitted
- Event 3: sender receives an ACK:
  - (a) First Time ACK, ie the ACK is for data not acked before ( $\text{nextseqnum} > \text{ACK \#} > \text{sendbase}$ ); the sender updates TCP state variables (sendbase, timer etc)
  - (b) Duplicate ACK ( $\text{ACK \#} < \text{or} = \text{sendbase}$ ); it re-ACKs old segments.



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## Sender Reaction To Duplicate ACKs

- Duplicate ACK (last ACK #) returned by receiver if:
  - (a) segment received out of order (seq num larger than expected)
  - (b) old segment received
- Sender ignores first two duplicate ACKs (timers still in force)
- Upon receiving THIRD duplicate ACK, the sender infers that the segment was indeed lost (as opposed to delayed); sender retransmits segment without waiting for timeout.



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## TCP Receiver ACK Generation

**EVENT:**

Arrival of in-order segment with expected sequence number. All data up to expected sequence number already acknowledged. No gaps in the received data.

**ACTION:**

Delayed ACK. Wait up to 500 ms for arrival of another in-order segment. If next in-order segment does not arrive in this interval, send an ACK

**EVENT:**

Arrival of in-order segment with expected sequence number. One other in-order segment waiting for ACK transmission. No gaps in the received data.

**ACTION:**

Immediately send single cumulative ACK, ACKing both in-order segments



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## TCP Receiver ACK Generation (Cont.)

**EVENT:**

Arrival of out-of-order segment with higher-than expected sequence number. Gap detected.

**ACTION:**

Immediately send duplicate ACK, indicating sequence number of next expected byte

**EVENT:**

Arrival of segment that partially or completely fills in gap in received data

**ACTION:**

Immediately send ACK, provided that segment starts at the lower end of gap.



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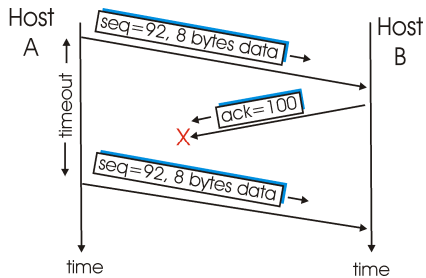
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## Example: TCP ACK loss



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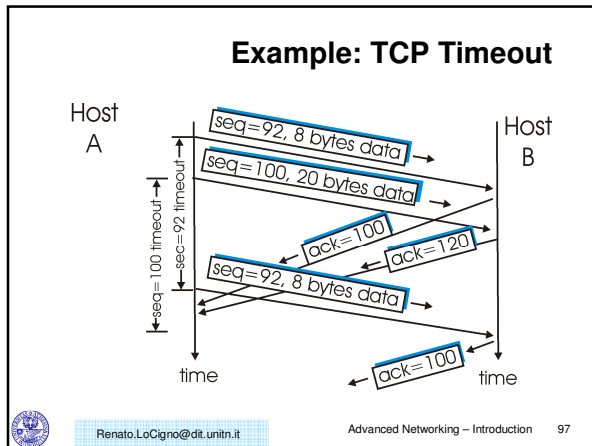
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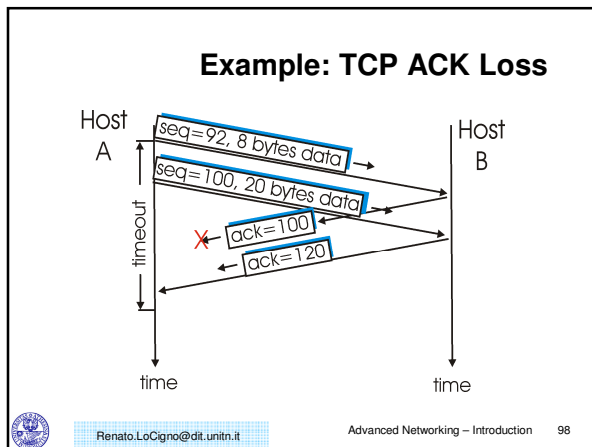
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- ### Flow/Congestion Control
- Flow Control (strict definition): regulate TCP flow so as to prevent receive buffer overflow at destination
  - Flow Control (more general definition): regulate TCP flow so as to prevent buffer overflow anywhere along the path
  - Congestion Control: regulate TCP flow(s) so as to avoid congestion in the entire network and to achieve efficient, fair sharing of resources.
  - Key TCP flow/congestion mechanism: adjustable sender window
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## TCP Connection Management

- TCP connection is set up using the *three way handshake* protocol
- Special segments (SYN segment, SYNACK segment) exchange initial client and server sequence numbers and allocate buffers
- Three Way Handshake protocol allows to detect and eliminate "old" connection requests (more robust than two separate handshakes)
- Another Three Way Handshake (with FIN flag turned on) is used to close the connection, releasing all resources



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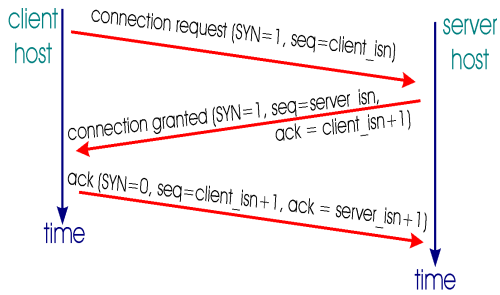
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## Three Way Handshake



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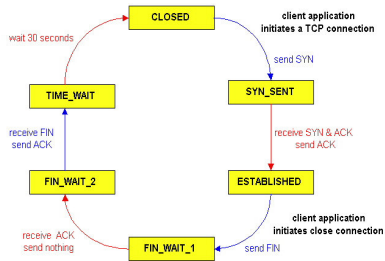
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## TCP Connection States (Client)



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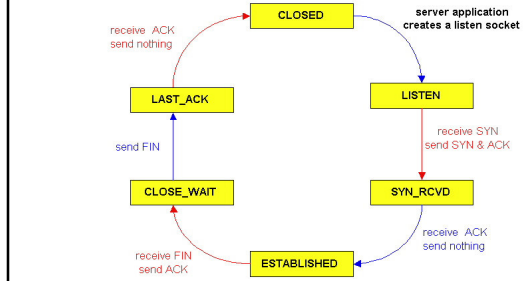
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## TCP Connection States (Server)



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