Chapter 3: Transport Layer

our goals:

- understand principles behind transport layer services:
  - multiplexing, demultiplexing
  - reliable data transfer
  - flow control
  - congestion control
- learn about Internet transport layer protocols:
  - UDP: connectionless transport
  - TCP: connection-oriented reliable transport
  - TCP congestion control

Chapter 3 outline

3.1 transport-layer services

3.2 multiplexing and demultiplexing

3.3 connectionless transport: UDP

3.4 principles of reliable data transfer

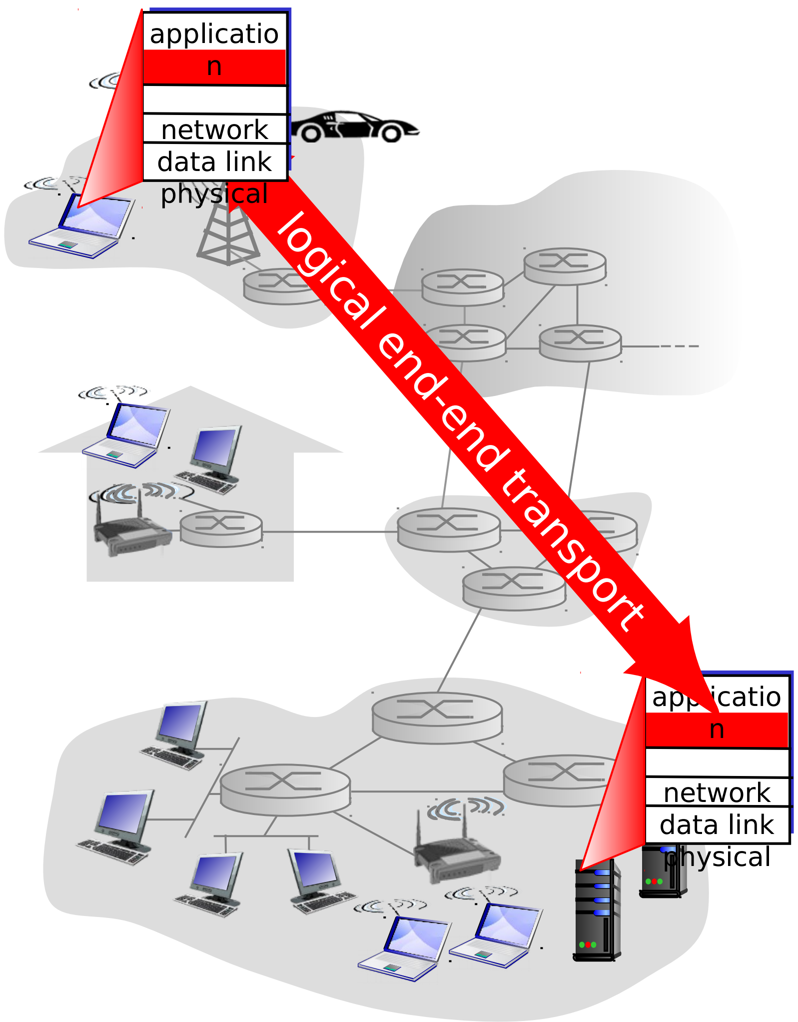
3.5 connection-oriented transport: TCP
- segment structure
- reliable data transfer
- flow control
- connection management

3.6 principles of congestion control

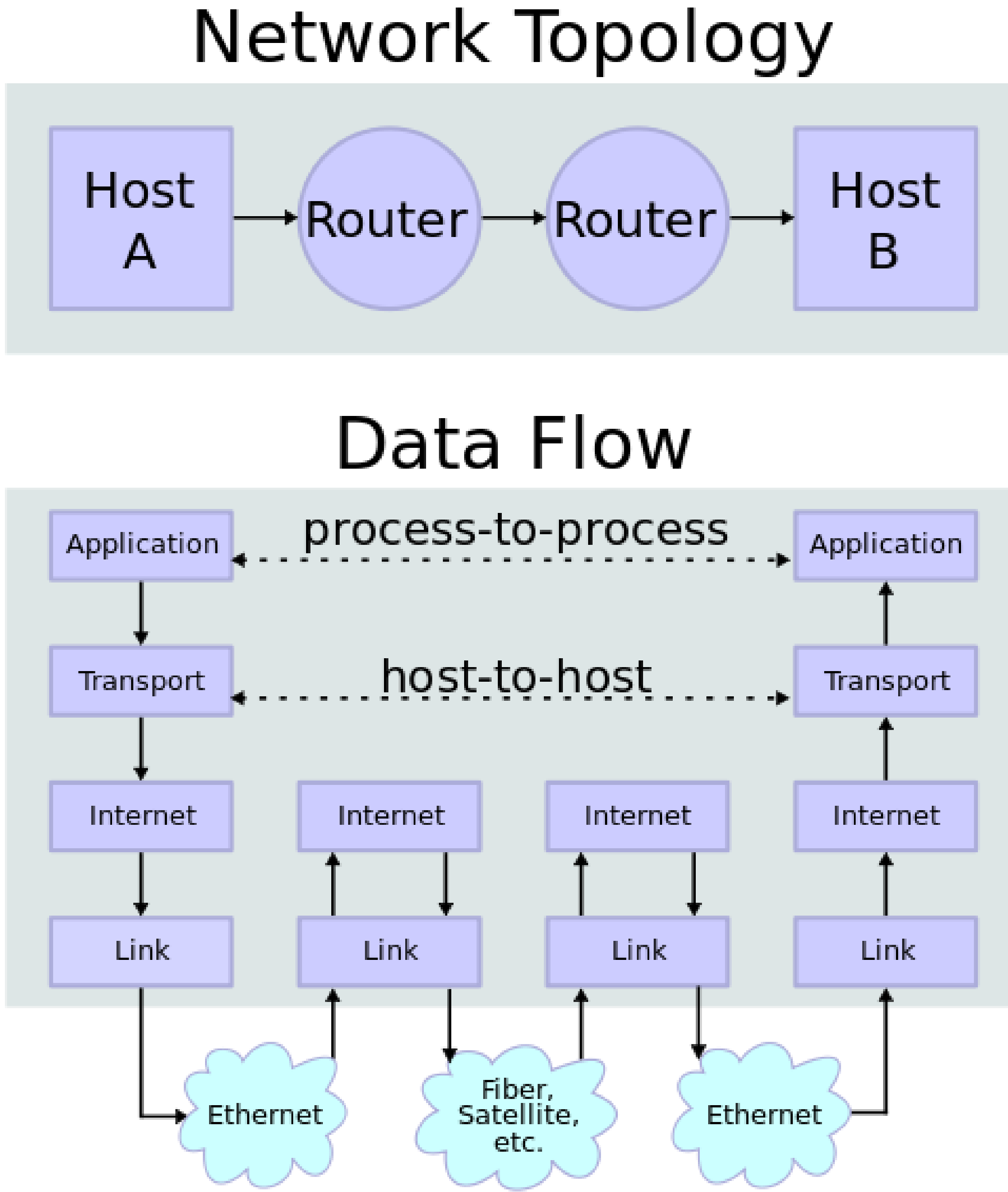
3.7 TCP congestion control

Transport services and protocols

- provide *logical communication* between app processes running on different hosts
- transport protocols run in end systems
  - send side: breaks app messages into *segments*, passes to network layer
  - rcv side: reassembles segments into messages, passes to app layer
- more than one transport protocol available to apps
  - Internet: TCP and UDP



Host to host


Network Topology
Host A
Router
Router
Host B
Data Flow
Application
process-to-process
Application
Transport
host-to-host
Transport
Internet
Internet
Internet
Internet
Link
Link
Link
Link
Ethernet
Fiber, Satellite, etc.
Ethernet

Transport layer protocols

Feature Name	UDP	UDP-Lite	TCP	Multipath TCP	SCTP	DCCP	RUDP
Packet header size	8 bytes	8 bytes	20–60 bytes	50–90 bytes	12 bytes	12 or 16 bytes	6+ bytes
Transport layer packet entity	Datagram	Datagram	Segment	Segment	Datagram	Datagram	Datagram
Connection oriented	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Reliable transport	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
Unreliable transport	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Preserve message boundary	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Ordered delivery	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
Unordered delivery	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Data checksum	Optional	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Optional
Checksum size (bits)	16	16	16	16	32	16	16
Partial checksum	No	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	No
Path MTU	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Unsure
Flow control	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
Congestion control	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Unsure
Explicit Congestion Notification	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Multiple streams	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	No
Multi-homing	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	No
Bundling / Nagle	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Unsure

And more to come in a couple days!

Common applications

Application	Application-Layer Protocol	Underlying Transport Protocol
Electronic mail	SMTP	TCP
Remote terminal access	Telnet	TCP
Web	HTTP	TCP
File transfer	FTP	TCP
Remote file server	NFS	Typically UDP
Streaming multimedia	typically proprietary	UDP or TCP
Internet telephony	typically proprietary	UDP or TCP
Network management	SNMP	Typically UDP
Routing protocol	RIP	Typically UDP
Name translation	DNS	Typically UDP

Transport vs. network layer

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

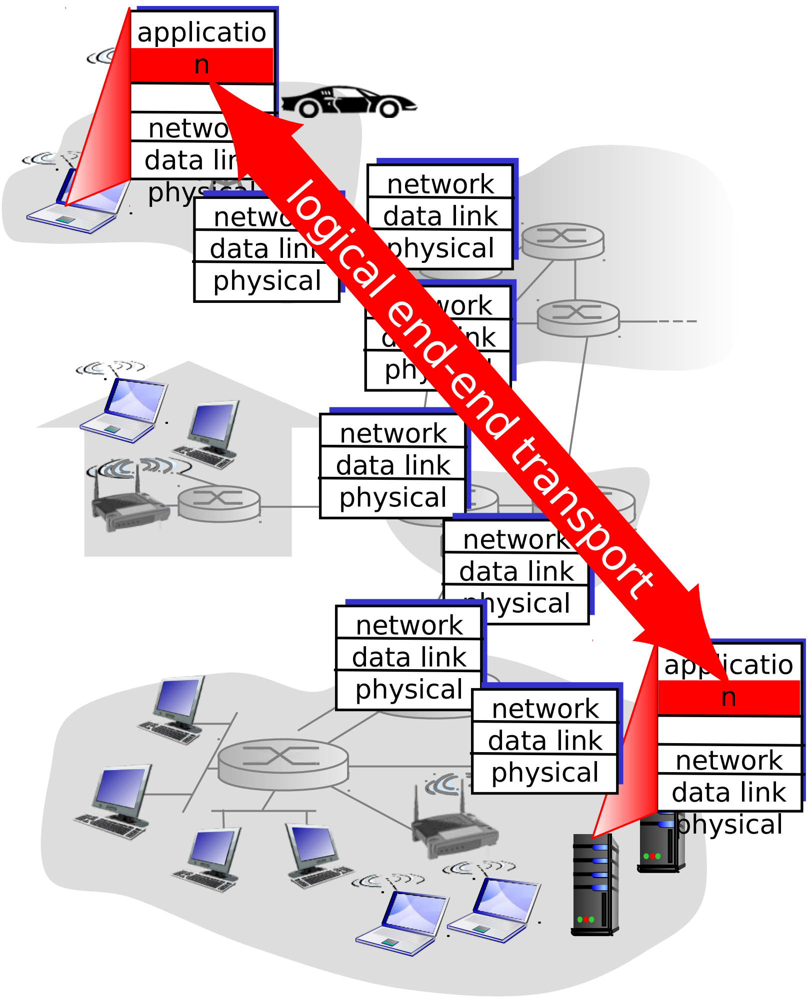
household analogy:

12 kids in Ann's house sending letters to 12 kids in Bill's house:

- hosts = houses
- processes = kids
- app messages = letters in envelopes
- transport protocol = Ann and Bill who demux to in-house siblings
- network-layer protocol = postal service

Internet transport-layer protocols

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



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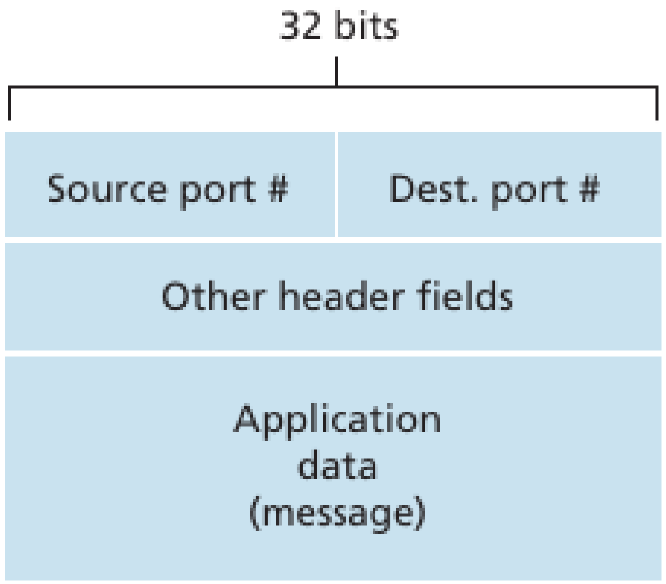
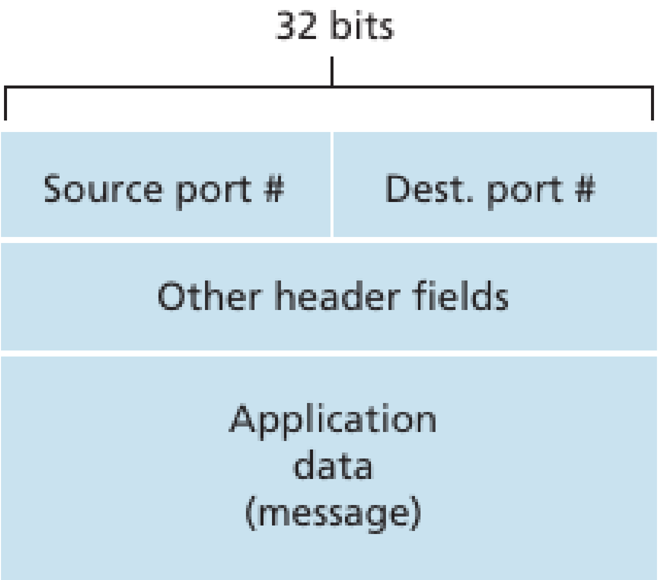
Ports

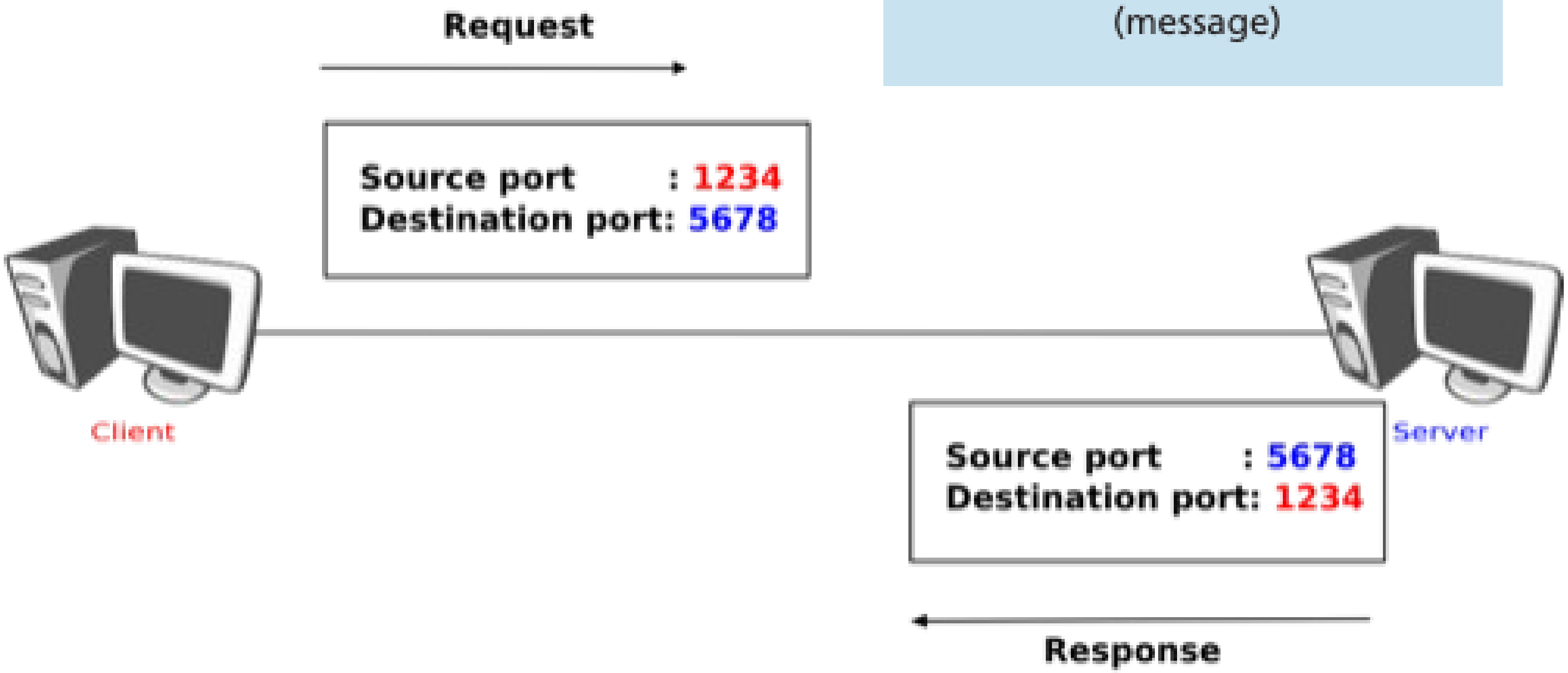
•the privileged port numbers
(1 < port < 1024)
•the ephemeral port numbers
(officially 49152 <= port <= 65535)
•the registered port numbers
(officially 1024 <= port < 49152)



•Each port number is a 16-bit number, ranging from 0 to 65535.
•The port numbers ranging from 0 to 1023 are called well-known port numbers and are restricted, which means that they are reserved for use by well-known application protocols such as HTTP (which uses port number 80) and FTP (which uses port number 21).
•The list of well-known port numbers is given in RFC 1700 and is updated at http://www.iana.org
•Text file on *nix hosts to see standard list, view with:
$ less /etc/services

Port inversion





Scanning ports: nmap

- Determining which applications are listening on which ports is a relatively easy task. Indeed there are a number of public domain programs, called port scanners, that do just that.
- Perhaps the most widely used of these is nmap, freely available at http://nmap.org and included in most Linux distributions.
- For TCP, nmap sequentially scans ports, looking for ports that are accepting TCP connections.
- For UDP, nmap again sequentially scans ports, looking for UDP ports that respond to transmitted UDP segments.
- In both cases, nmap returns a list of open, closed, or unreachable ports.
- A host running nmap can attempt to scan any target host anywhere in the Internet.
- **Try it: $ nmap www.mail.com** (what will be open?)
- Reconnaissance procedures, network enumeration
- **Check shodan.io**

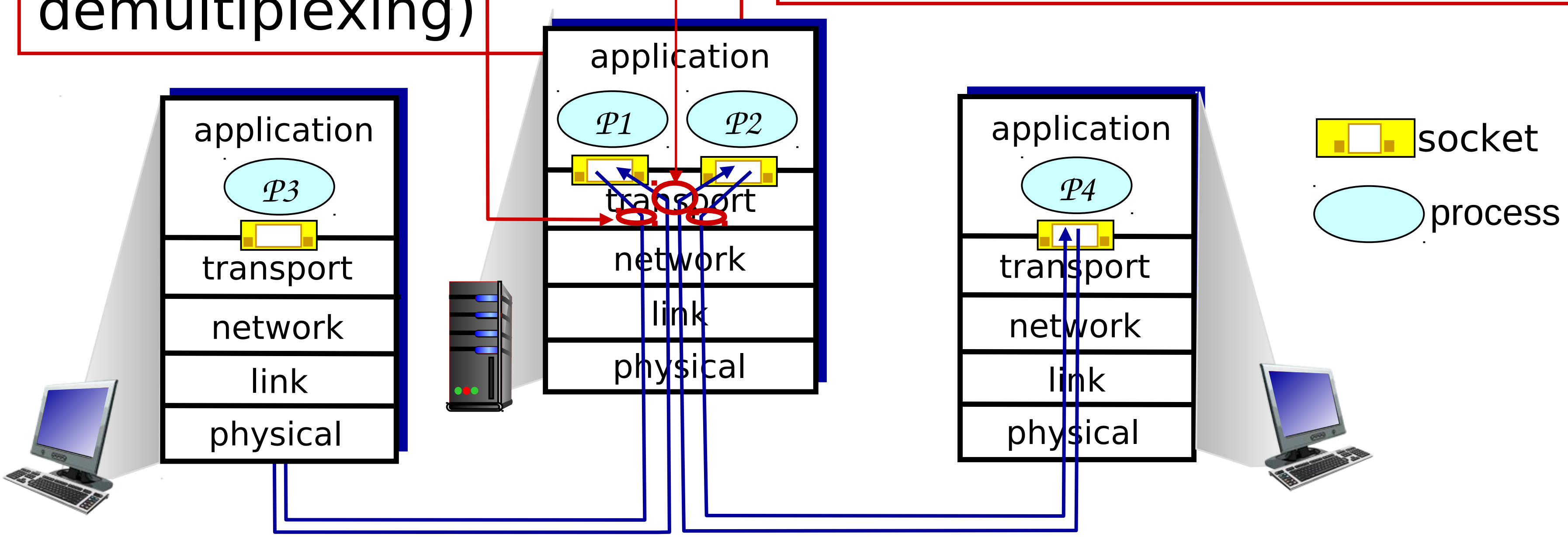
Multiplexing / demultiplexing

multiplexing at sender:

handle data from multiple sockets, add transport header (later used for demultiplexing)

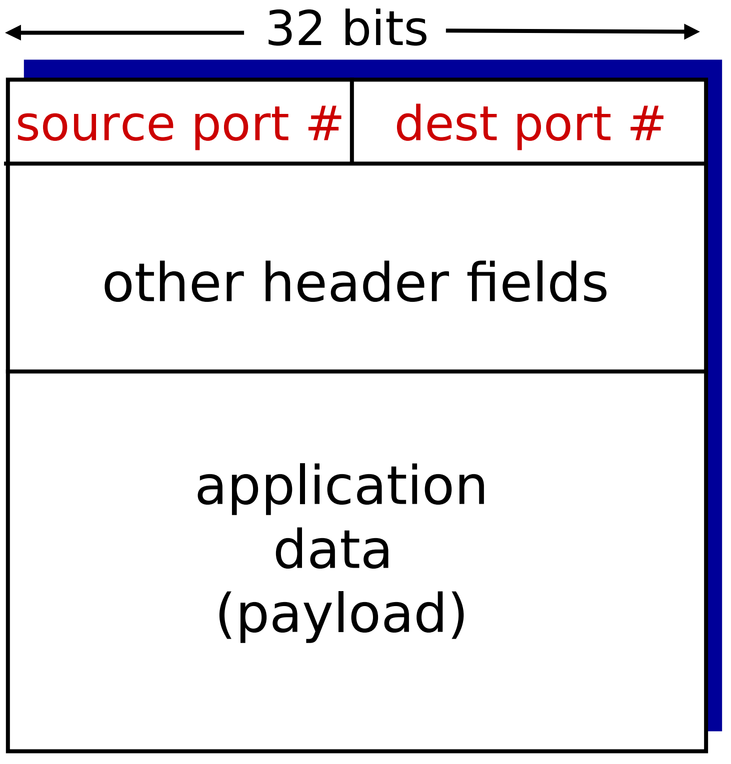
demultiplexing at receiver:

use header info to deliver received segments to correct socket



How demultiplexing works

- host receives IP datagrams
  - each datagram has source IP address, destination IP address
  - each datagram carries one transport-layer segment
  - each segment has source, destination port number
- host uses *IP addresses & port numbers* to direct segment to appropriate socket



TCP/UDP segment format

Connectionless demultiplexing

- *recall:* created socket has host-local port #:

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

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

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

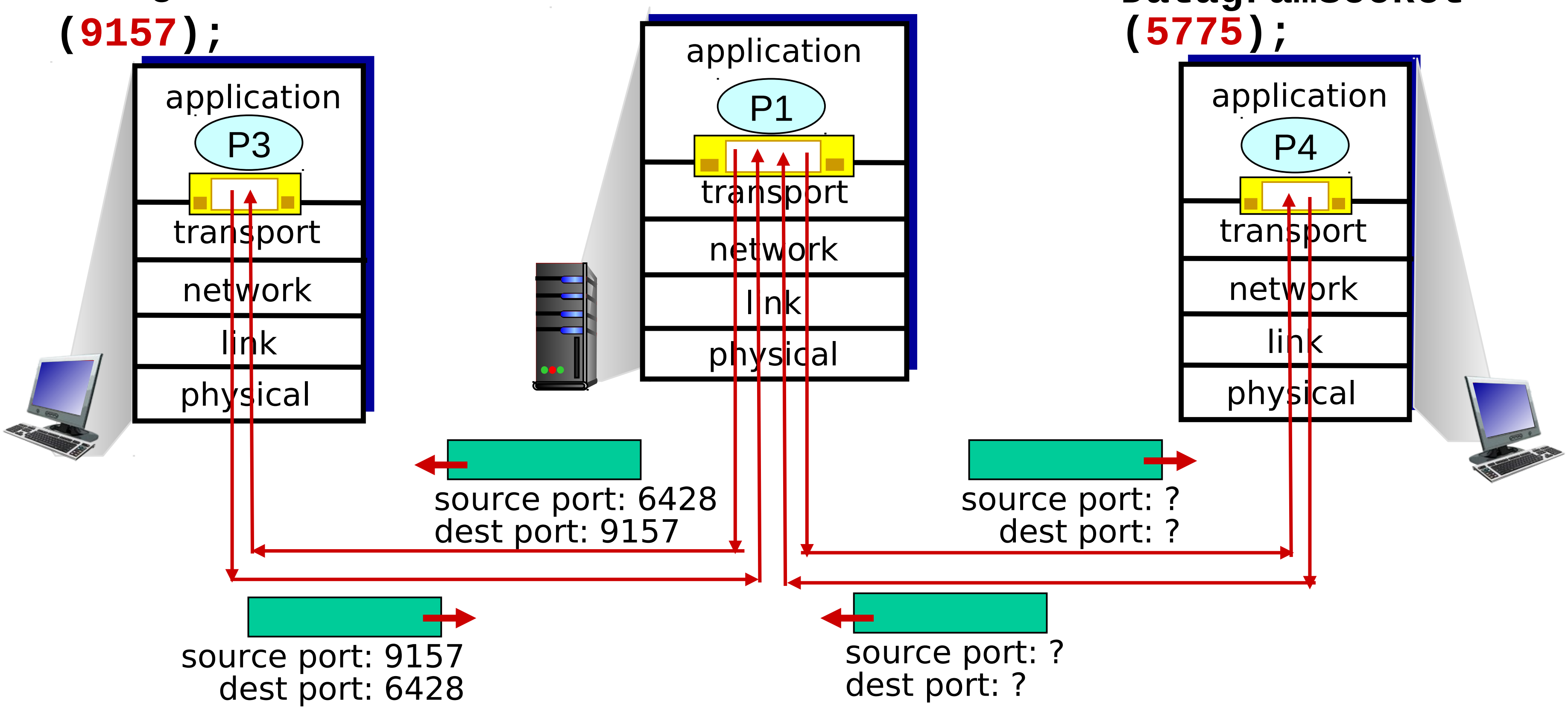
IP datagrams with *same dest. port #,* but different source IP addresses and/or source port numbers will be directed to *same socket* at dest

Connectionless demux: example

```
DatagramSocket serverSocket
 = new DatagramSocket
 (6428);
```

```
DatagramSocket
 mySocket2 = new
 DatagramSocket
 (9157);
```

```
DatagramSocket
 mySocket1 = new
 DatagramSocket
 (5775);
```

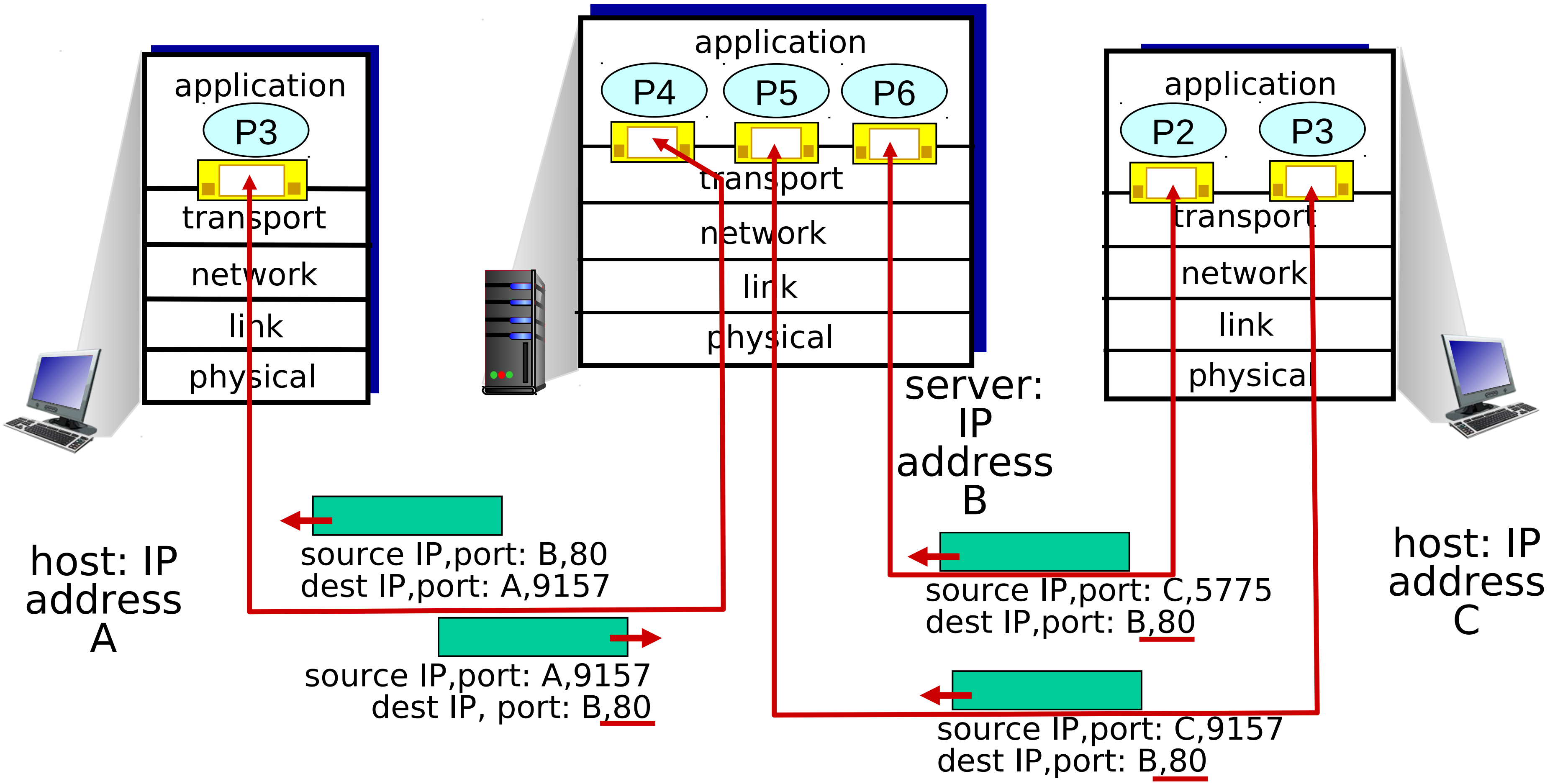


Connection-oriented demux

- TCP socket identified by 4-tuple:
  - source IP address
  - source port number
  - dest IP address
  - dest port number
- demux: receiver uses all four values to direct segment to appropriate socket

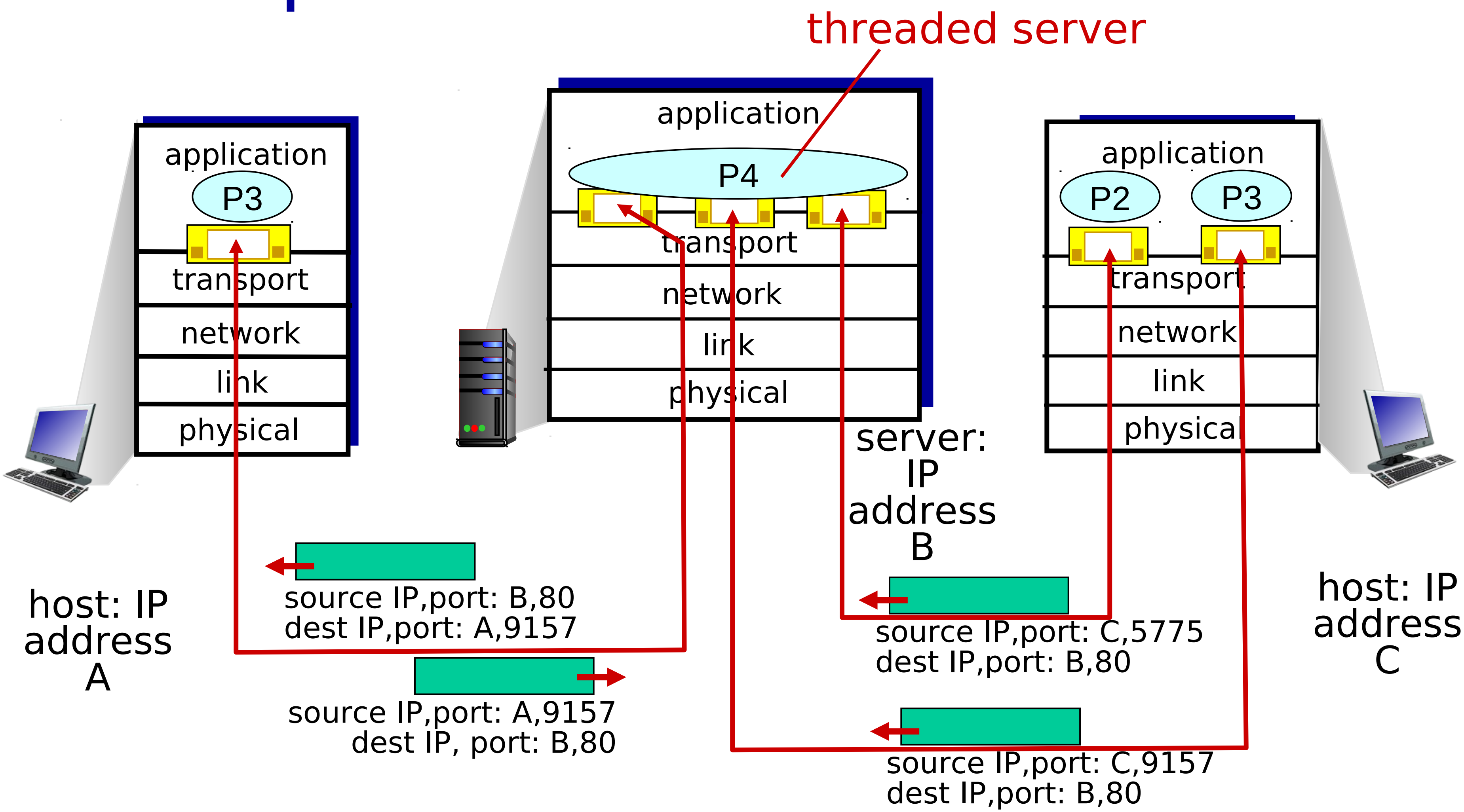
- server host may support many simultaneous TCP sockets:
  - each socket identified by its own 4-tuple
- web servers have different sockets for each connecting client
  - non-persistent HTTP will have different socket for each request

Connection-oriented demux: example



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

Connection-oriented demux: example



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If I send you a UDP joke, you might not get it...

UDP: User Datagram Protocol [RFC 768]

- "no frills," "bare bones" Internet transport protocol
- "best effort" service, UDP segments may be:
  - lost
  - delivered out-of-order to app
- *connectionless:*
  - no handshaking between UDP sender, receiver
  - each UDP segment handled independently of others

- UDP use:
  - streaming multimedia apps (loss tolerant, rate sensitive)
  - DNS
  - SNMP
- reliable transfer over UDP:
  - add reliability at application layer
  - application-specific error recovery!

UDP: User Datagram Protocol [RFC 768]

- Uses a simple connectionless communication model with a minimum of protocol mechanism.
- Provides checksums for data integrity, and port numbers for addressing different functions at the source and destination of the datagram.
- It has no handshaking dialogues, and thus exposes the user's program to any unreliability of the underlying network;
- There is no guarantee of delivery, ordering, or duplicate protection.
- If error-correction facilities are needed at the network interface level, an application layer protocol may be used.

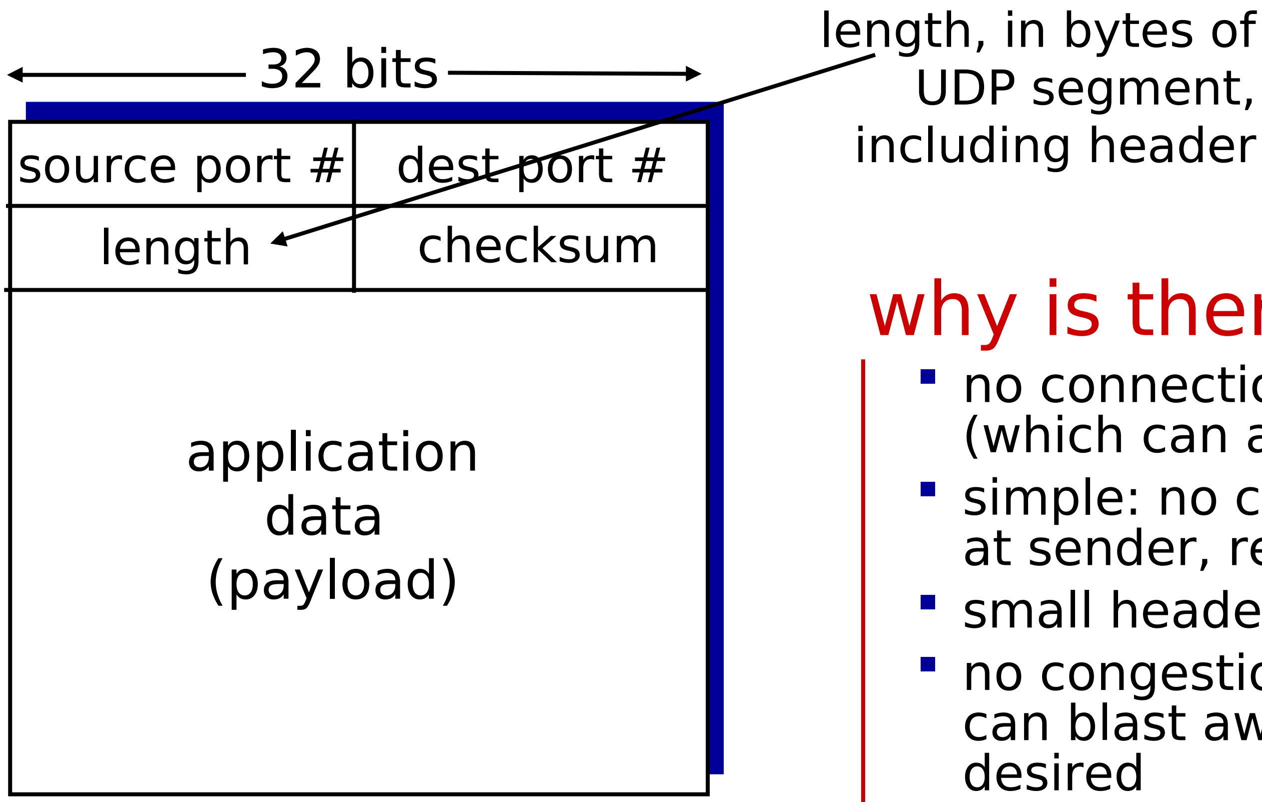
UDP: User Datagram Protocol [RFC 768]

- **Unreliable**: When a UDP message is sent, it cannot be known if it will reach its destination. No of acknowledgment, retransmission, or timeout.
- **Not ordered**: If two messages are sent to the same recipient, the order in which they arrive cannot be predicted.
- **Lightweight**: No ordering of messages, no tracking connections, etc.
- **Datagrams**: Packets are sent individually and are checked for integrity only if they arrive. Packets have definite boundaries which are honored upon receipt, meaning a read operation at the receiver socket will yield an entire message as it was originally sent.
- **No congestion control**: UDP itself does not avoid
- **Broadcasts**: being connectionless, UDP can broadcast; packets can be addressed to be receivable by all devices on a subnet.

UDP: User Datagram Protocol [RFC 768]

- the UDP service cannot deliver data segments larger than 65507 bytes (65KB; 0.065MB)
- the UDP service does not guarantee the delivery of segments (losses and desquencing can occur)
- the UDP service will not (generally) deliver a corrupted segment to the destination

UDP: segment header



UDP segment format

why is there a UDP?

- no connection establishment (which can add delay)
- simple: no connection state at sender, receiver
- small header size
- no congestion control: UDP can blast away as fast as desired
- New protocol design at application layer without kernel re-write

UDP header

UDP Header

<table>
<tr><th>Offsets</th><th>Octet</th><th colspan="8">0</th><th colspan="8">1</th><th colspan="8">2</th><th colspan="8">3</th></tr>
<tr><th>Octet</th><th>Bit</th><th>0</th><th>1</th><th>2</th><th>3</th><th>4</th><th>5</th><th>6</th><th>7</th><th>8</th><th>9</th><th>10</th><th>11</th><th>12</th><th>13</th><th>14</th><th>15</th><th>16</th><th>17</th><th>18</th><th>19</th><th>20</th><th>21</th><th>22</th><th>23</th><th>24</th><th>25</th><th>26</th><th>27</th><th>28</th><th>29</th><th>30</th><th>31</th></tr>
<tr><th>0</th><th>0</th><td colspan="16">Source port</td><td colspan="16">Destination port</td></tr>
<tr><th>4</th><th>32</th><td colspan="16">Length</td><td colspan="16">Checksum</td></tr>
</table>

- **Source port number**: sender's port; should be assumed to be the port to reply to if needed. If the source host is the client, the port number is likely to be an ephemeral port number. If the source host is the server, the port number is likely to be a well-known port number.
- **Destination port number**: receiver's port is required.
- **Length**: specifies the length in bytes of the UDP header and UDP data. The minimum length is 8 bytes because that is the length of the header. Data length, which is imposed by the underlying IPv4 protocol, is 65,507 bytes (65,535 - 8 byte UDP header - 20 byte IP header).
- **Checksum**: may be used for error-checking of the header and data. This field is optional in IPv4, and mandatory in IPv6. The field carries all-zeros if unused.

UDP checksum

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

sender:

- treat segment contents, including header fields, as sequence of 16-bit integers
- checksum: addition (one'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?* More later ….

Internet checksum: example

example: add two 16-bit integers

		1 1 1 0 0 1 1 0 0 1 1 0 0 1 1 0
		1 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1
wraparound	1	1 0 1 1 1 0 1 1 1 0 1 1 1 0 1 1
sum		1 0 1 1 1 0 1 1 1 0 1 1 1 1 0 0
checksum		0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 1 1

Note: when adding numbers, a carryout from the most significant bit needs to be added to the result

* Check out the online interactive exercises for more examples: http://gaia.cs.umass.edu/kurose_ross/interactive/

UDP checksum - IP4

<table>
<caption>IPv4 Pseudo Header Format</caption>
<tr><th>Offsets</th><th>Octet</th><th colspan="8">0</th><th colspan="8">1</th><th colspan="8">2</th><th colspan="8">3</th></tr>
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<tr><th>0</th><th>0</th><td colspan="32">Source IPv4 Address</td></tr>
<tr><th>4</th><th>32</th><td colspan="32">Destination IPv4 Address</td></tr>
<tr><th>8</th><th>64</th><td colspan="8">Zeroes</td><td colspan="8">Protocol</td><td colspan="16">UDP Length</td></tr>
<tr><th>12</th><th>96</th><td colspan="16">Source Port</td><td colspan="16">Destination Port</td></tr>
<tr><th>16</th><th>128</th><td colspan="16">Length</td><td colspan="16">Checksum</td></tr>
<tr><th>20</th><th>160+</th><td colspan="32">Data</td></tr>
</table>

Pseudo header includes IP addresses (which are normally in network layer), why?

1st complement of the sum of all the 16-bit words in the segment, such that adding back the checksum to the same input will produce 111111111…

This pseudo-header allows the receiver to detect errors affecting the IP source or destination addresses placed in the IP layer below. This is a violation of the layering principle that dates from the time when UDP and IP were elements of a single protocol.

UDP checksum - IP6

- When UDP runs over IPv6, the checksum is mandatory. The method used to compute it is changed as documented in RFC 2460:
- Any transport or other upper-layer protocol that includes the addresses from the IP header in its checksum computation must be modified for use over IPv6 to include the 128-bit IPv6 addresses.
- When computing the checksum, again a pseudo header is used that mimics the real IPv6 header:

IPv6 Pseudo Header Format

<table>
<tr><th>Offsets</th><th>Octet</th><th colspan="8">0</th><th colspan="8">1</th><th colspan="8">2</th><th colspan="8">3</th></tr>
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<tr><td>0</td><td>0</td><td colspan="32" rowspan="4">Source IPv6 Address</td></tr>
<tr><td>4</td><td>32</td></tr>
<tr><td>8</td><td>64</td></tr>
<tr><td>12</td><td>96</td></tr>
<tr><td>16</td><td>128</td><td colspan="32" rowspan="4">Destination IPv6 Address</td></tr>
<tr><td>20</td><td>160</td></tr>
<tr><td>24</td><td>192</td></tr>
<tr><td>28</td><td>224</td></tr>
<tr><td>32</td><td>256</td><td colspan="32">UDP Length</td></tr>
<tr><td>36</td><td>288</td><td colspan="24">Zeroes</td><td colspan="8">Next Header</td></tr>
<tr><td>40</td><td>320</td><td colspan="16">Source Port</td><td colspan="16">Destination Port</td></tr>
<tr><td>44</td><td>352</td><td colspan="16">Length</td><td colspan="16">Checksum</td></tr>
<tr><td>48</td><td>384+</td><td colspan="32">Data</td></tr>
</table>

The source address is the one in the IPv6 header. The destination address is the final destination; if the IPv6 packet does not contain a Routing header, that will be the destination address in the IPv6 header; otherwise, at the originating node, it will be the address in the last element of the Routing header, and, at the receiving node, it will be the destination address in the IPv6 header. The value of the Next Header field is the protocol value for UDP: 17. The UDP length field is the length of the UDP header and data.

UDP is well suited for certain applications

- It is transaction-oriented, suitable for simple query-response protocols such as the Domain Name System or the Network Time Protocol.
- It provides datagrams, suitable for modeling other protocols such as IP tunneling or Remote Procedure Call and the Network File System.
- It is simple, suitable for bootstrapping or other purposes without a full protocol stack, such as the DHCP and Trivial File Transfer Protocol.
- It is stateless, suitable for very large numbers of clients, such as in streaming media applications such as IPTV.
- The lack of retransmission delays makes it suitable for real-time applications such as Voice over IP, online games, and many protocols built on top of the Real Time Streaming Protocol.
- It works well in unidirectional communication and is suitable for broadcast information such as in many kinds of service discovery and shared information such as broadcast time or Routing Information Protocol.

Datagram Transport Layer Security (DTLS)

- The DTLS protocol is based on the stream-oriented Transport Layer Security (TLS) protocol and is intended to provide similar security guarantees.
- The DTLS protocol datagram preserves the semantics of the underlying transport the application does not suffer from the delays associated with stream protocols, but has to deal with packet reordering, loss of datagram and data larger than the size of a datagram network packet.

Check out some UDP packets in Wireshark

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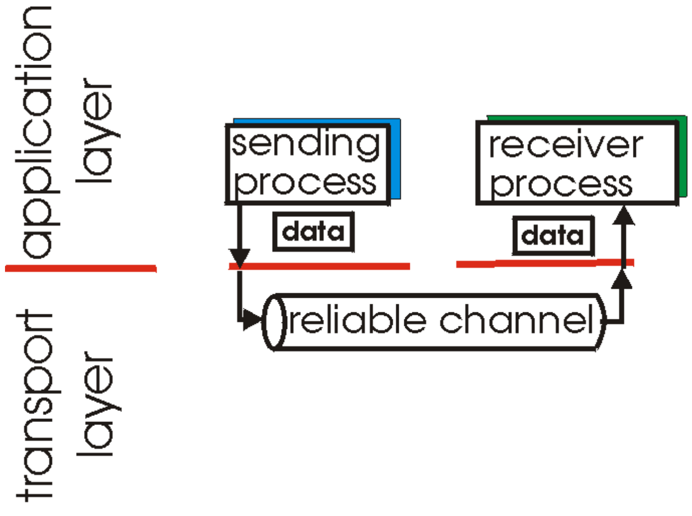
Reliable data transfer

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



(a) provided service

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

Reliable data transfer

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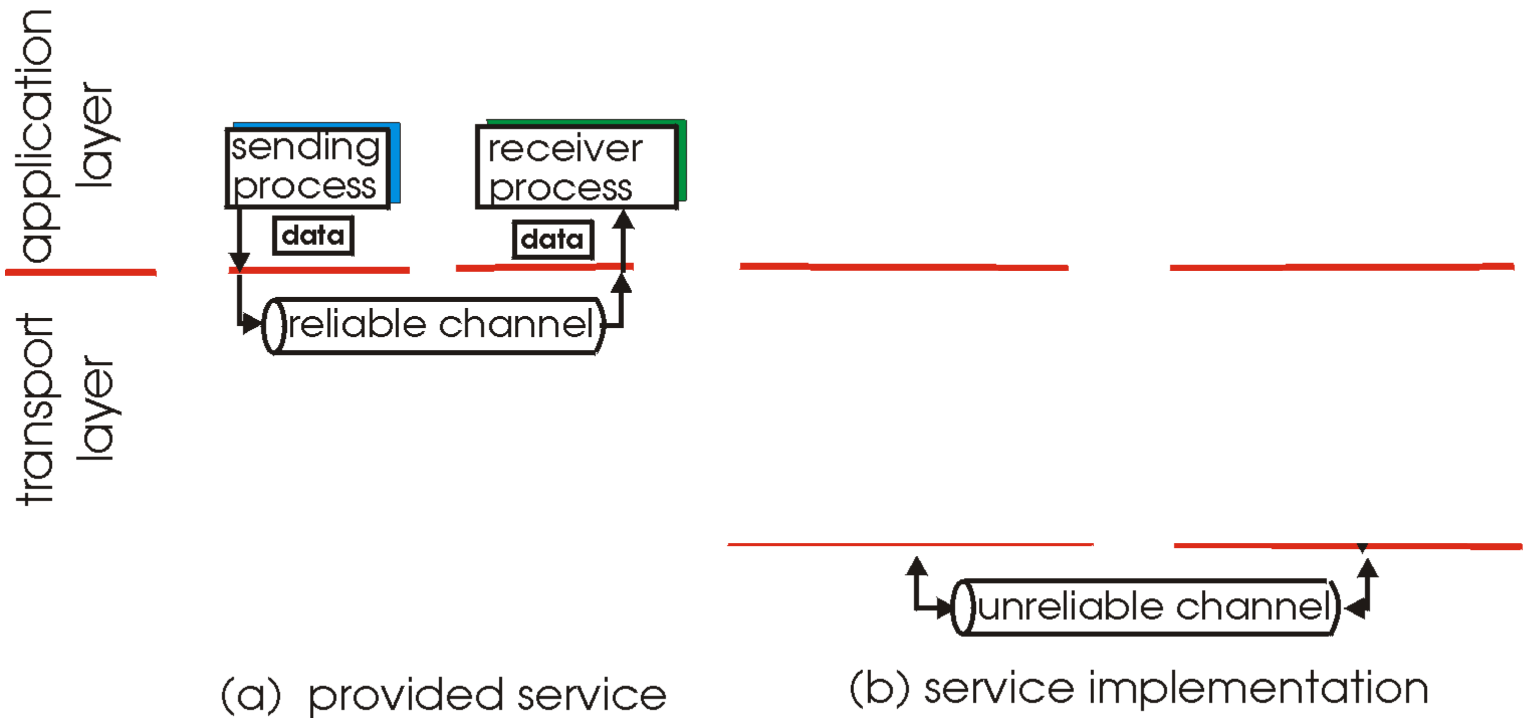

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Reliable data transfer

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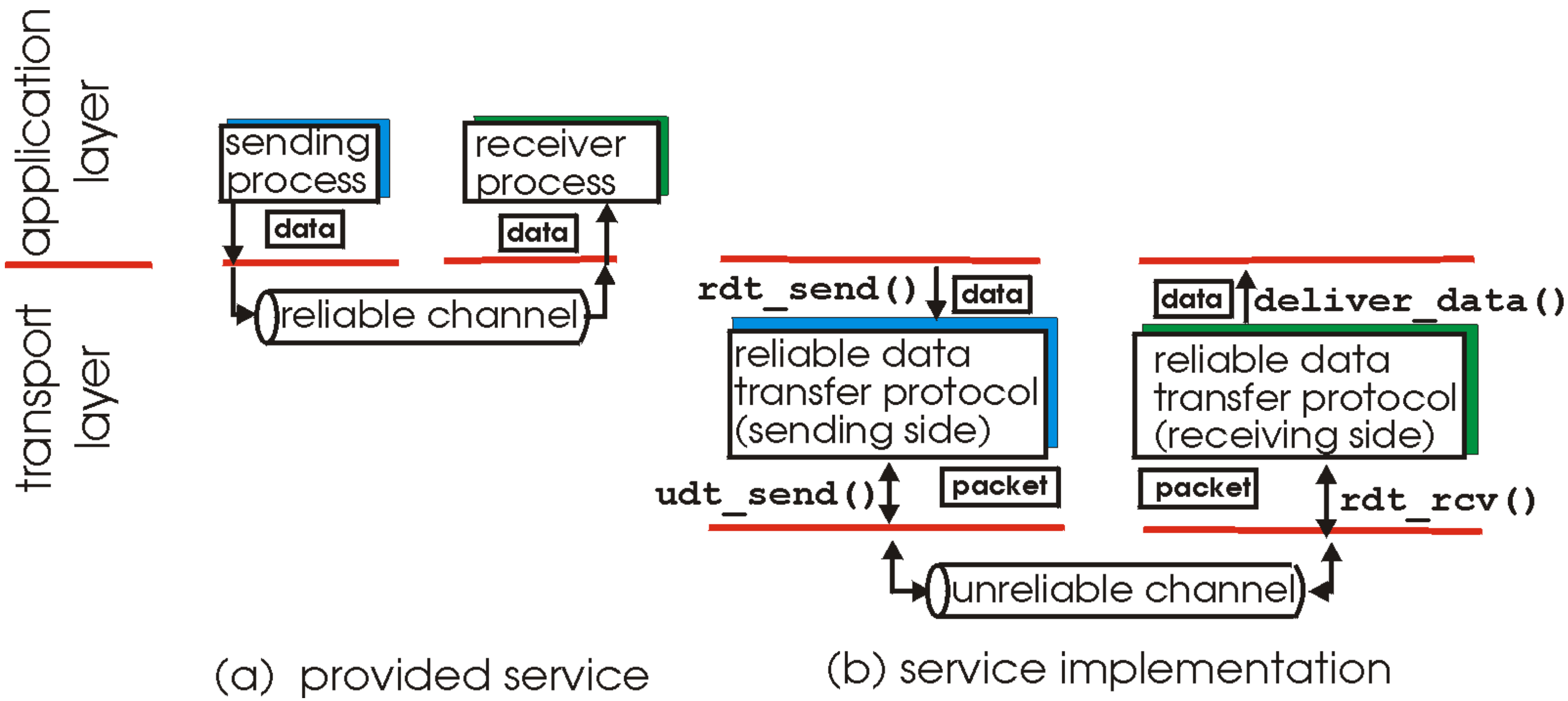
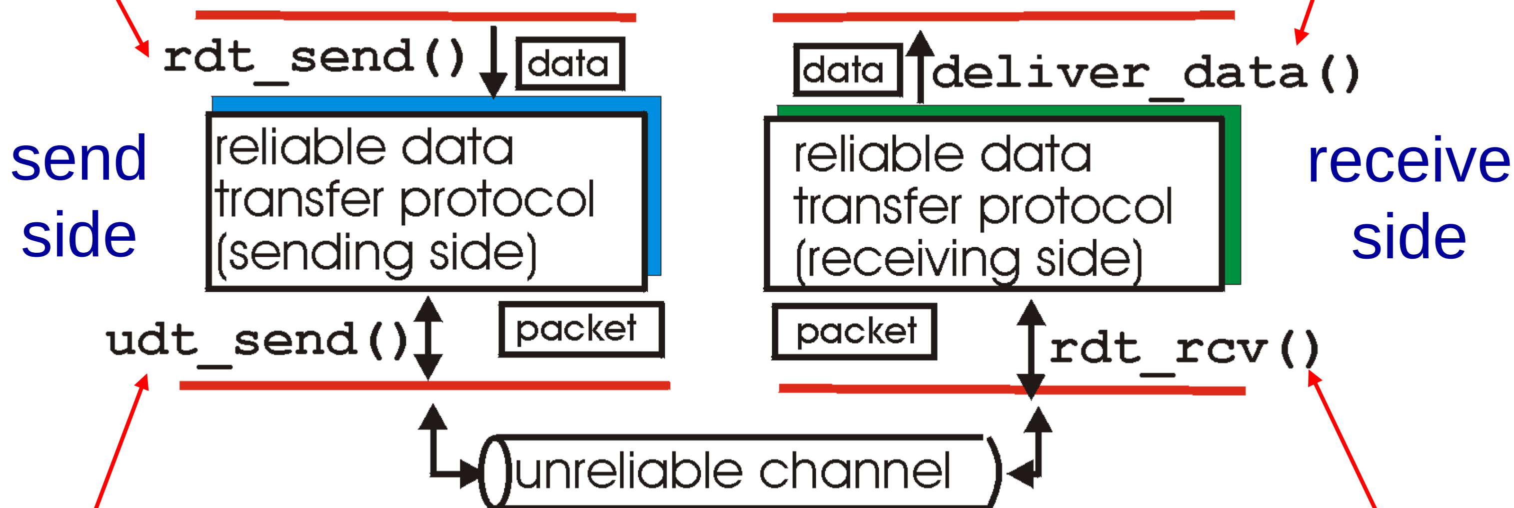


- characteristics of unreliable channel will determine complexity of reliable data transfer protocol (rdt)

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



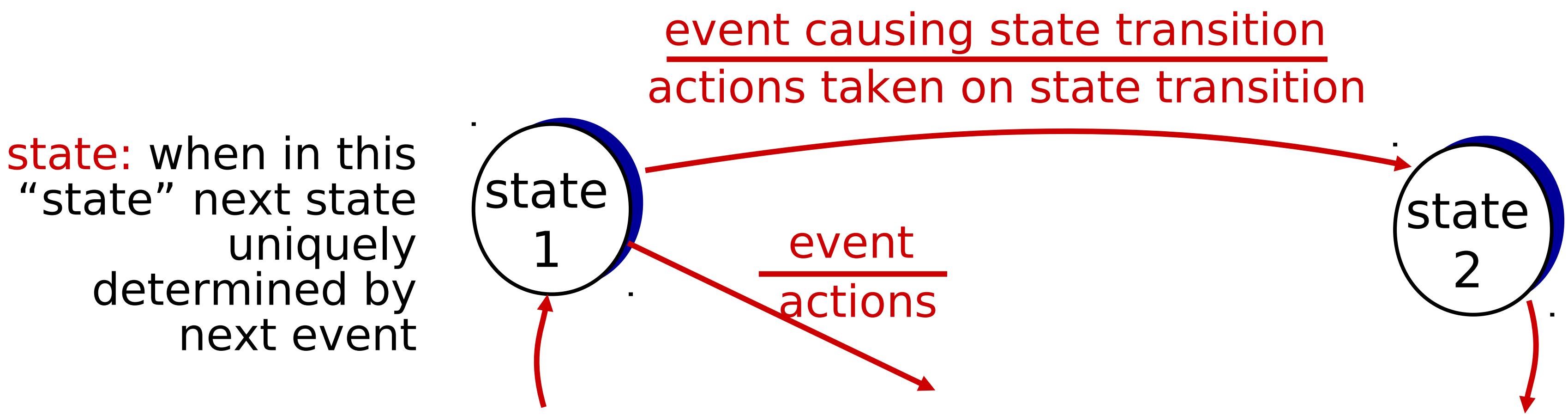
udt_send(): called by rdt, to transfer packet over unreliable channel to receiver

rdt_rcv(): called when packet arrives on rcv-side of channel

Reliable data transfer: getting started

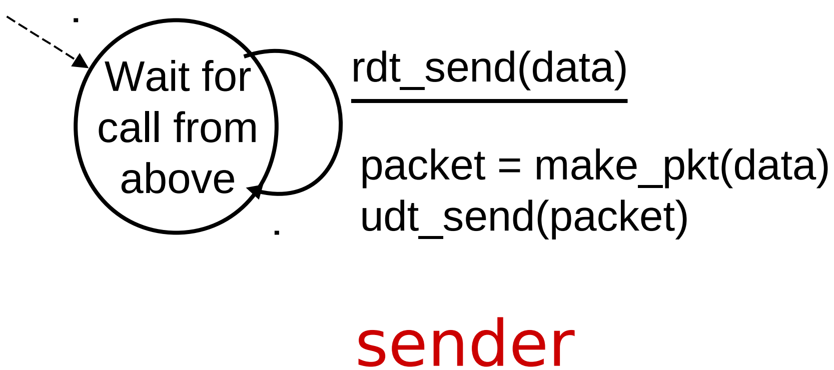
we'll:

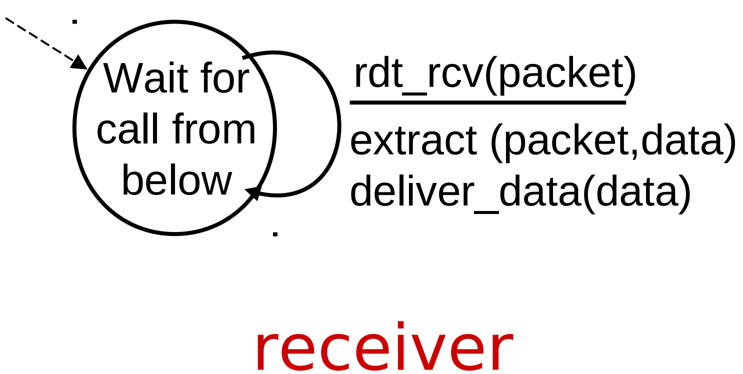
- incrementally develop sender, receiver sides of <u>r</u>eliable <u>d</u>ata <u>t</u>ransfer protocol (rdt)
- consider only unidirectional data transfer
  - but control info will flow on both directions!
- use finite state machines (FSM) to specify sender, receiver



rdt1.0: reliable transfer over a reliable channel

- underlying channel perfectly reliable
  - no bit errors
  - no loss of packets
- separate FSMs for sender, receiver:
  - sender sends data into underlying channel
  - receiver reads data from underlying channel





rdt2.0: channel with bit errors

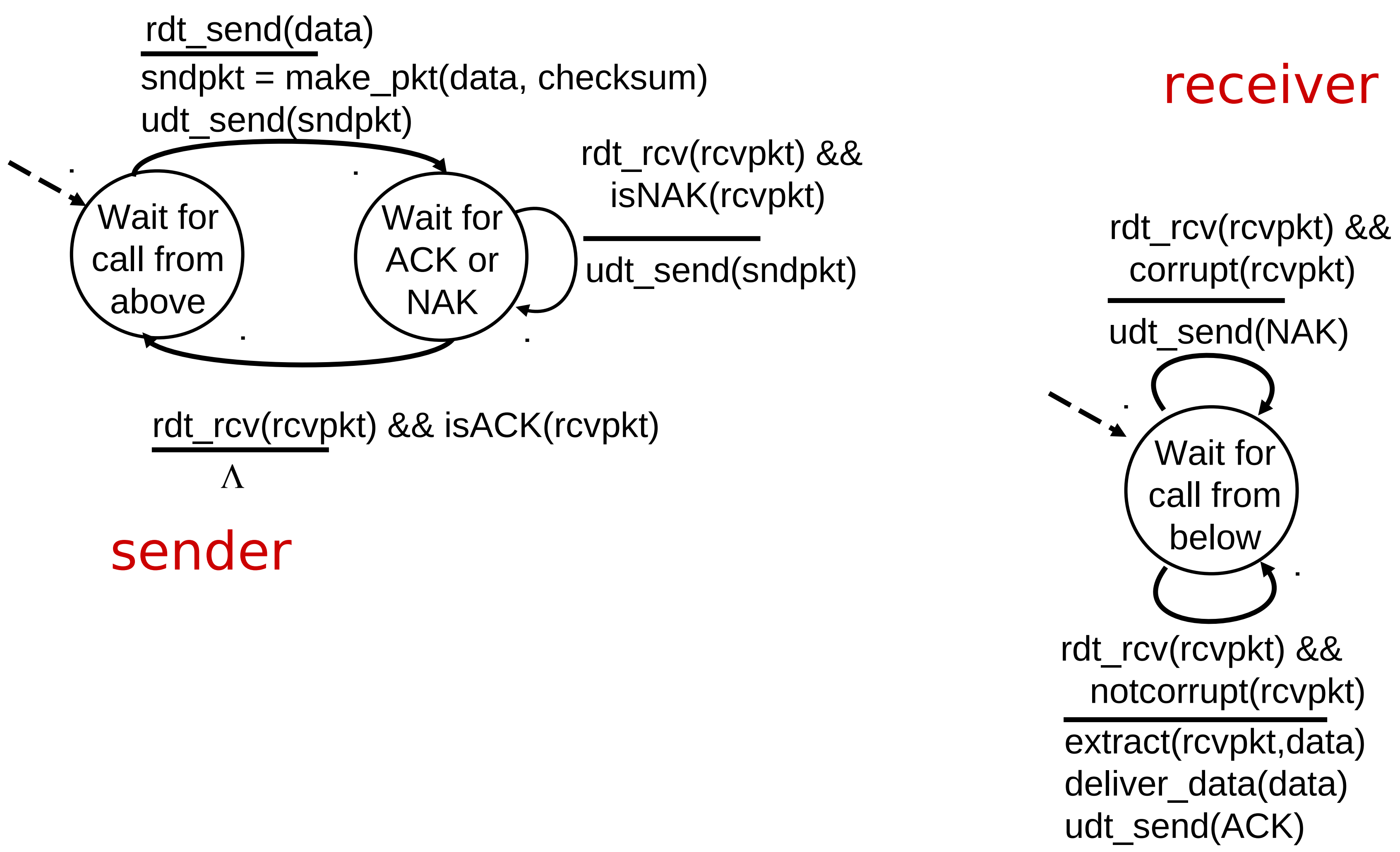
- underlying channel may flip bits in packet
  - checksum to detect bit errors
- *the* question: how to recover from errors:

How do humans recover from "errors" during conversation?

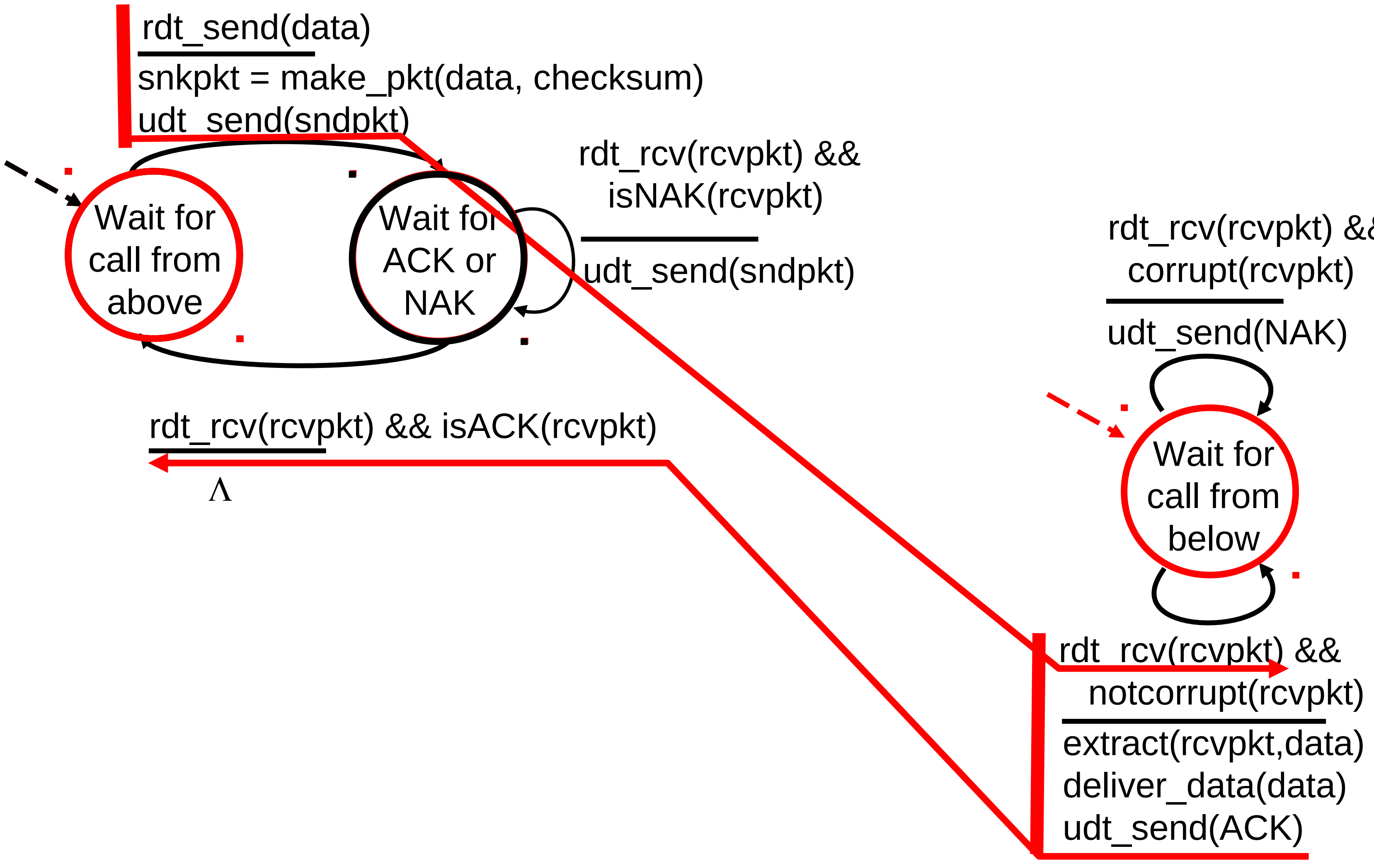
rdt2.0: channel with bit errors

- underlying channel may flip bits in packet
  - checksum to detect bit errors
- *the* question: how to recover from errors:
  - *acknowledgements (ACKs):* receiver explicitly tells sender that pkt received OK
  - *negative acknowledgements (NAKs):* receiver explicitly tells sender that pkt had errors
  - sender retransmits pkt on receipt of NAK
- new mechanisms in **`rdt2.0`** (beyond **`rdt1.0`**):
  - error detection
  - feedback: control msgs (ACK, NAK) from receiver to sender

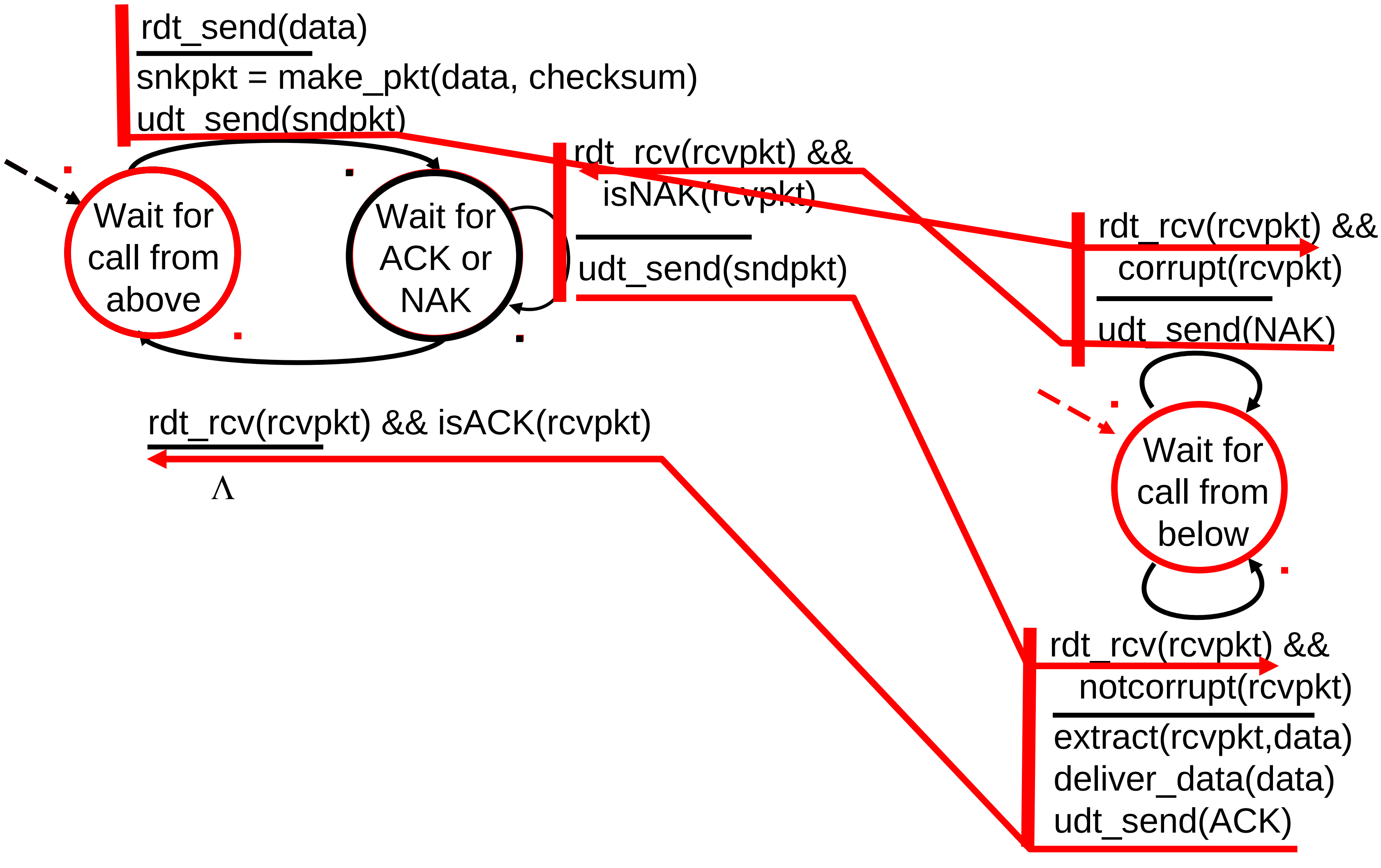
rdt2.0: FSM specification



rdt2.0: operation with no errors



rdt2.0: error scenario



rdt2.0 has a fatal flaw!

what happens if ACK/NAK corrupted?

- sender doesn't know what happened at receiver!
- can't just retransmit: possible duplicate

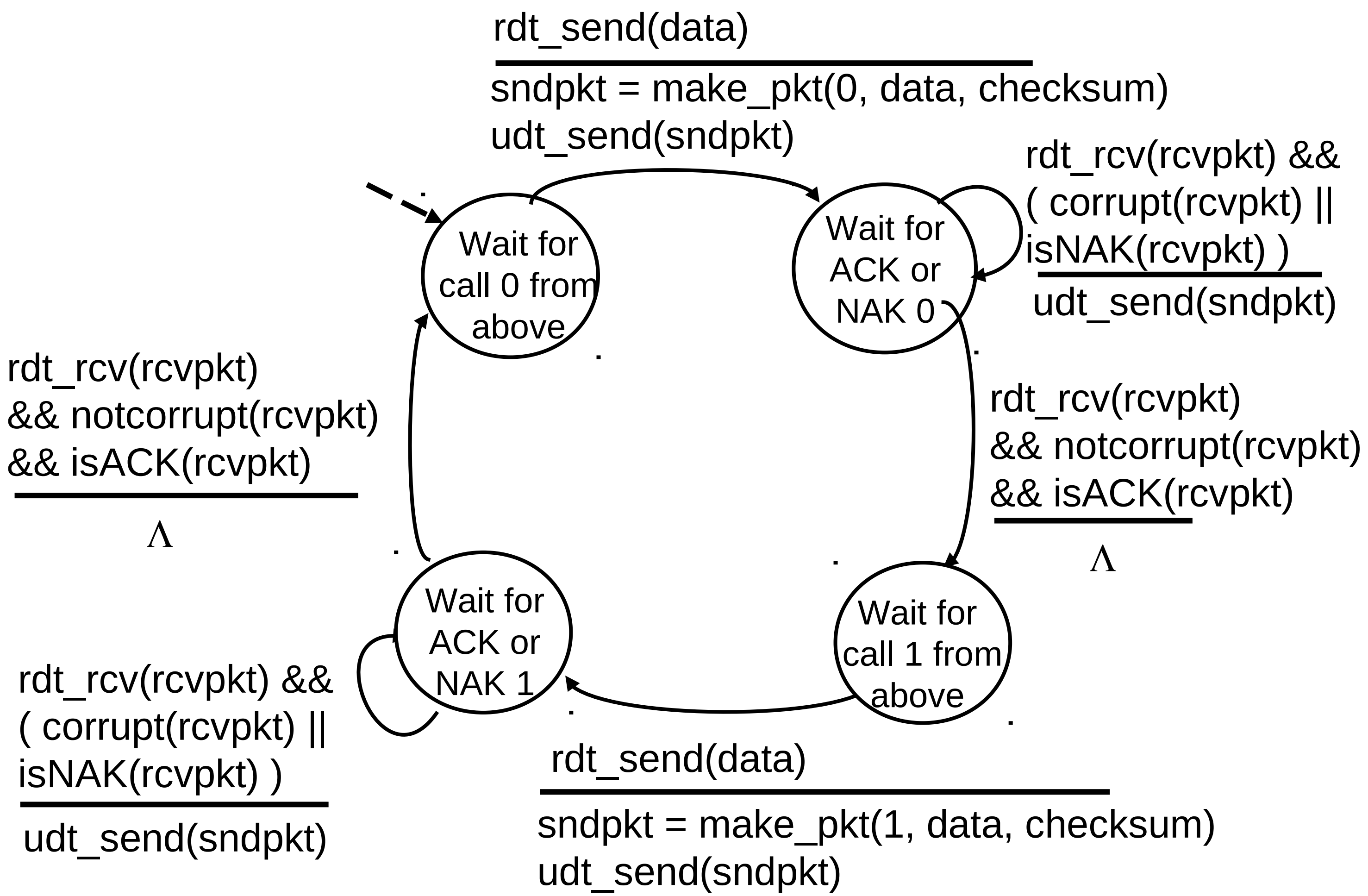
handling duplicates:

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

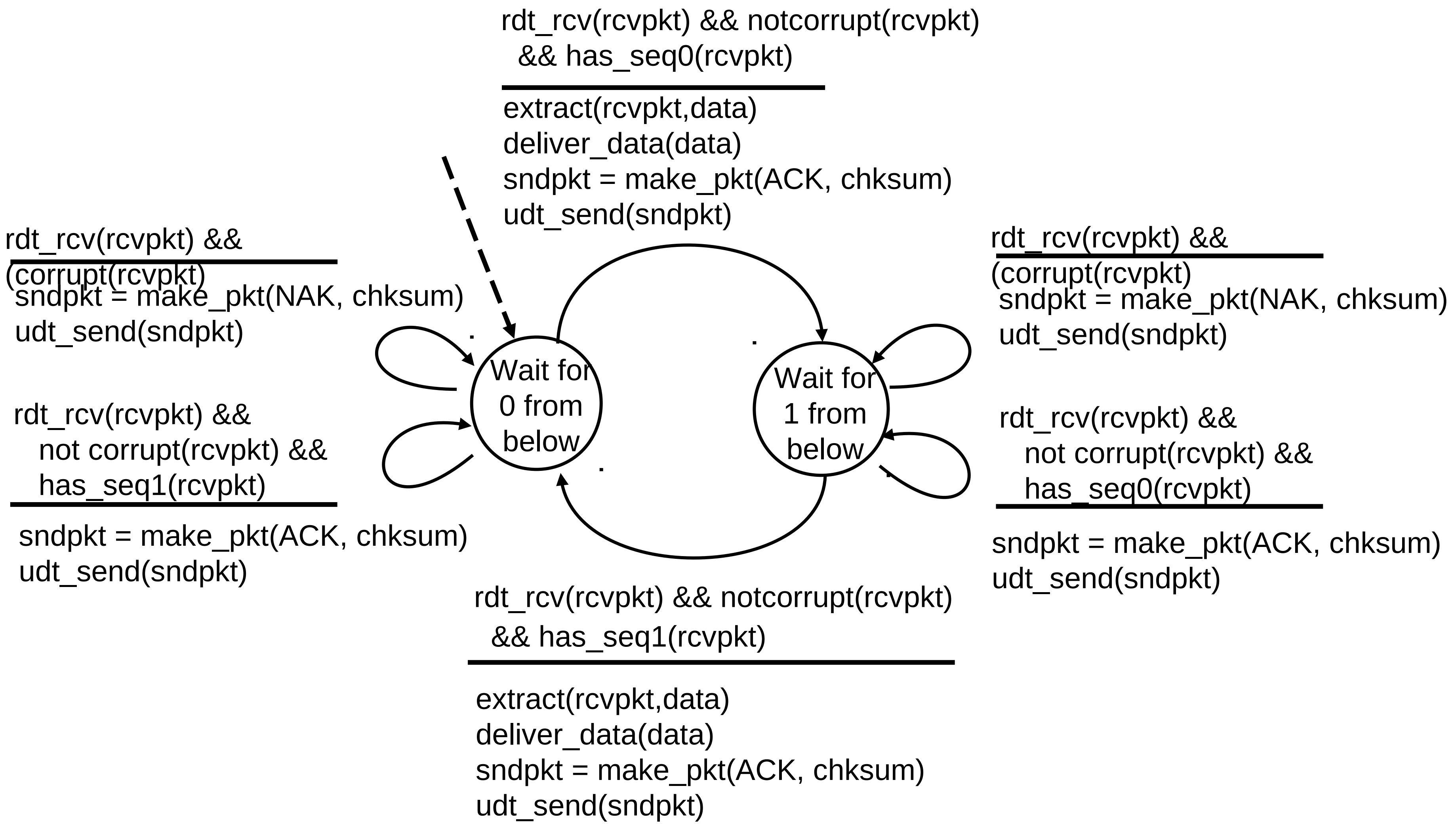
stop and wait

sender sends one packet, then waits for receiver response

rdt2.1: sender, handles garbled ACK/NAKs



rdt2.1: receiver, handles garbled ACK/NAKs



rdt2.1: discussion

<u>sender:</u>

- seq # added to pkt
- two seq. #'s (0,1) will suffice. Why?
- must check if received ACK/NAK corrupted
- twice as many states
  - state must "remember" whether "expected" pkt should have seq # of 0 or 1

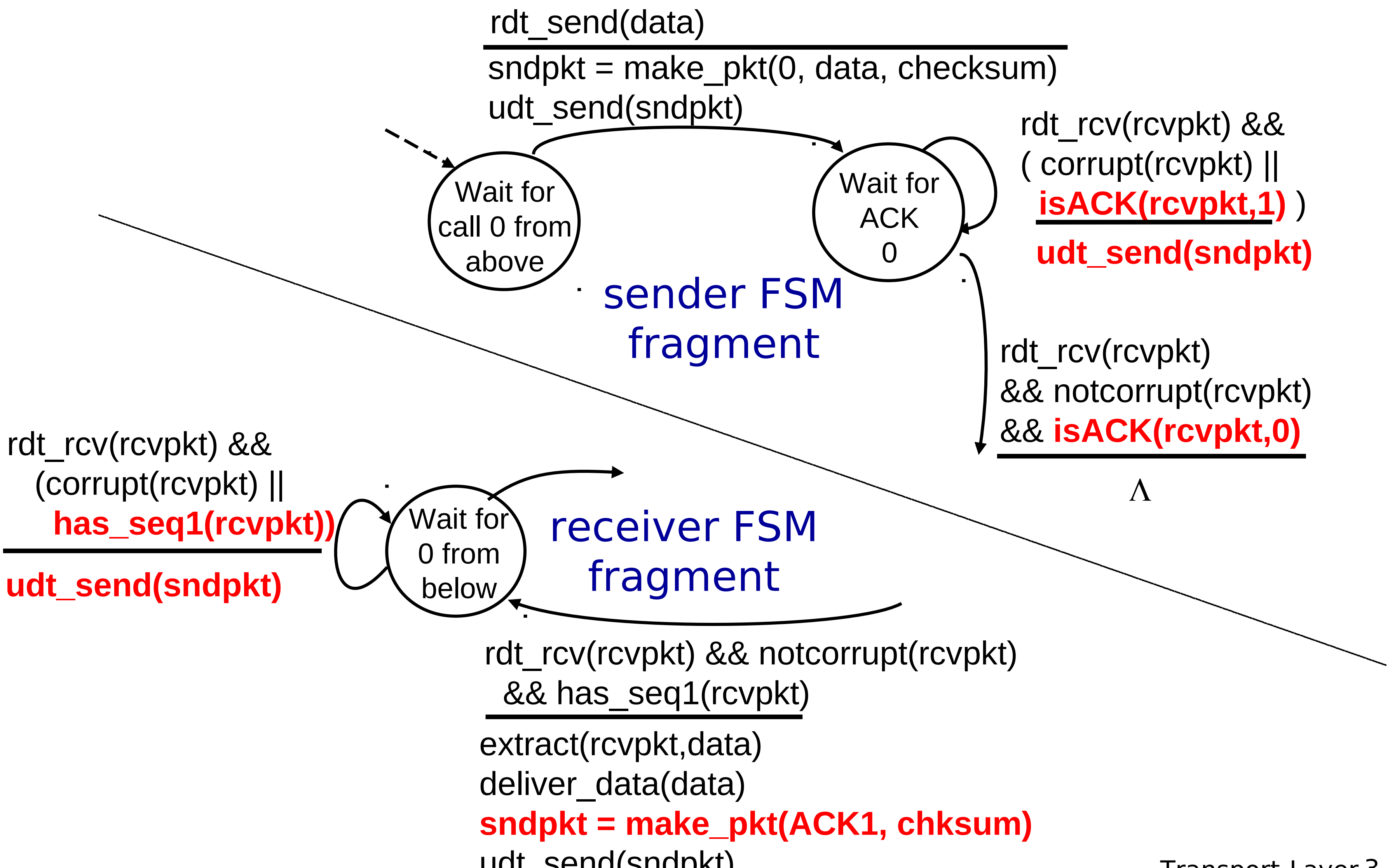
<u>receiver:</u>

- must check if received packet is duplicate
  - state indicates whether 0 or 1 is expected pkt seq #
- note: receiver can *not* know if its last ACK/NAK received OK at sender

rdt2.2: a NAK-free protocol

- same functionality as rdt2.1, using ACKs only
- instead of NAK, receiver sends ACK for last pkt received OK
  - receiver must *explicitly* include seq # of pkt being ACKed
- duplicate ACK at sender results in same action as NAK: *retransmit current pkt*

rdt2.2: sender, receiver fragments



rdt3.0: channels with errors *and* loss

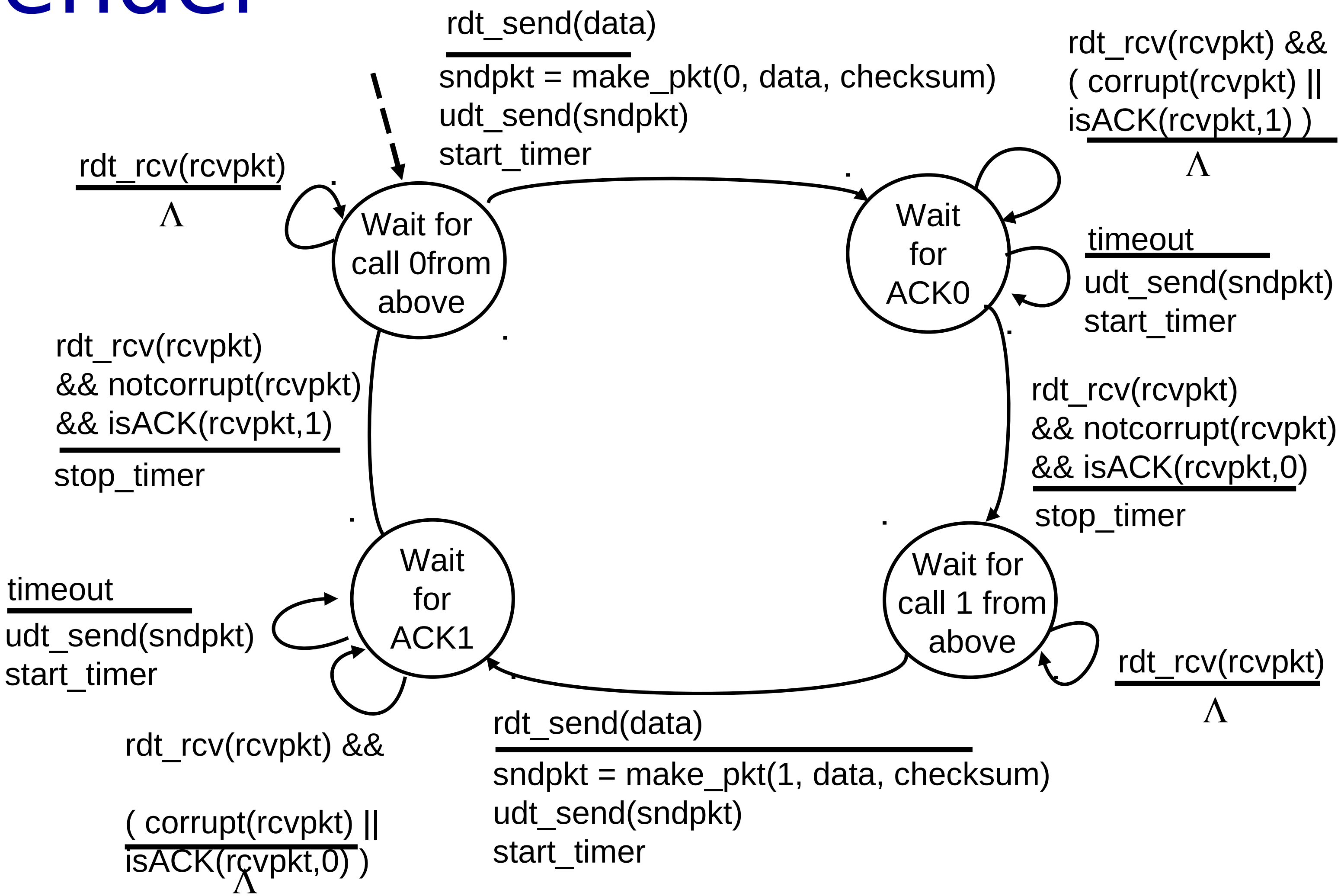
new assumption: underlying channel can also lose packets (data, ACKs)

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

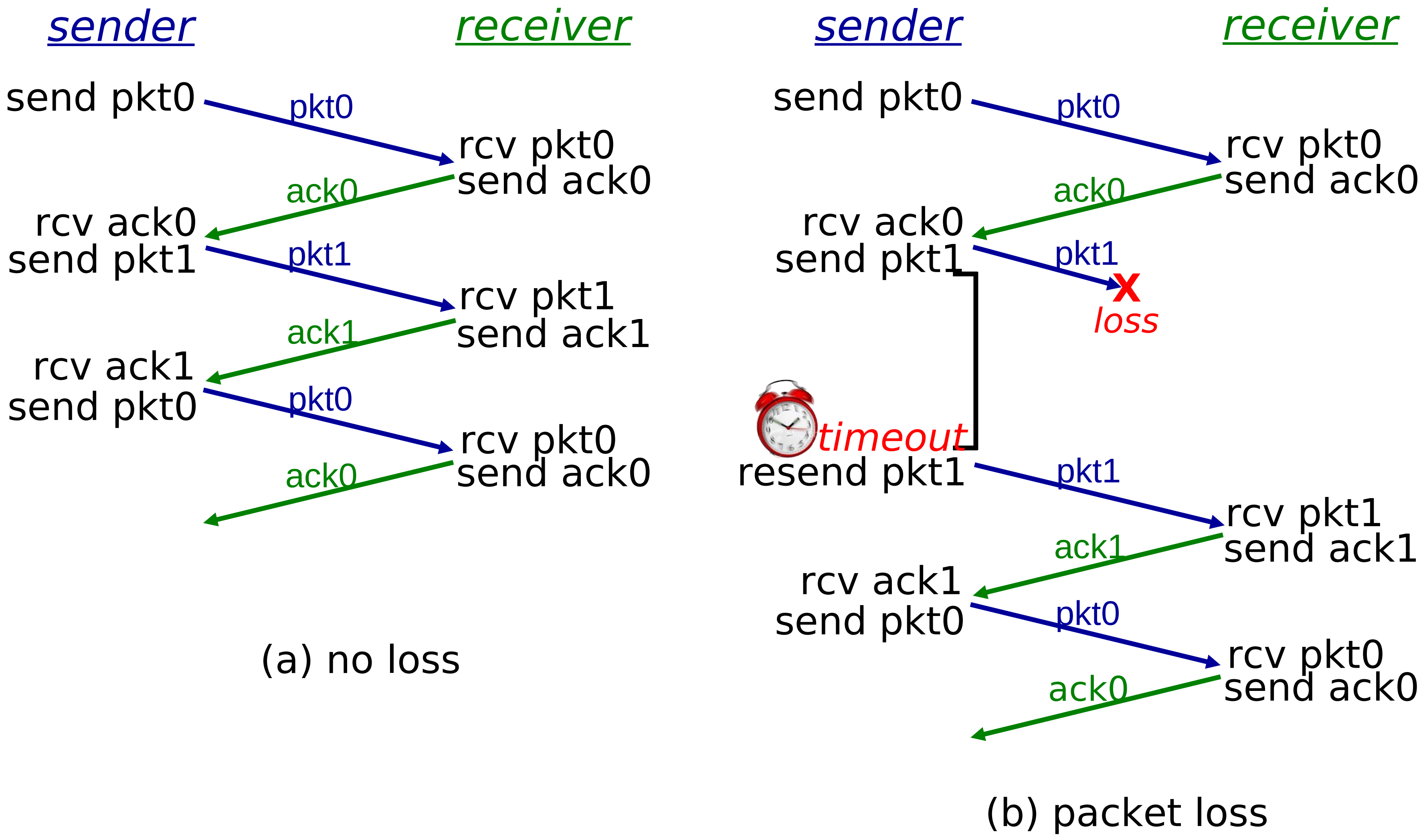
approach: sender waits "reasonable" amount of time for ACK

- retransmits if no ACK received in this time
- if pkt (or ACK) just delayed (not lost):
  - retransmission will be duplicate, but seq. #'s already handles this
  - receiver must specify seq # of pkt being ACKed
- requires countdown timer

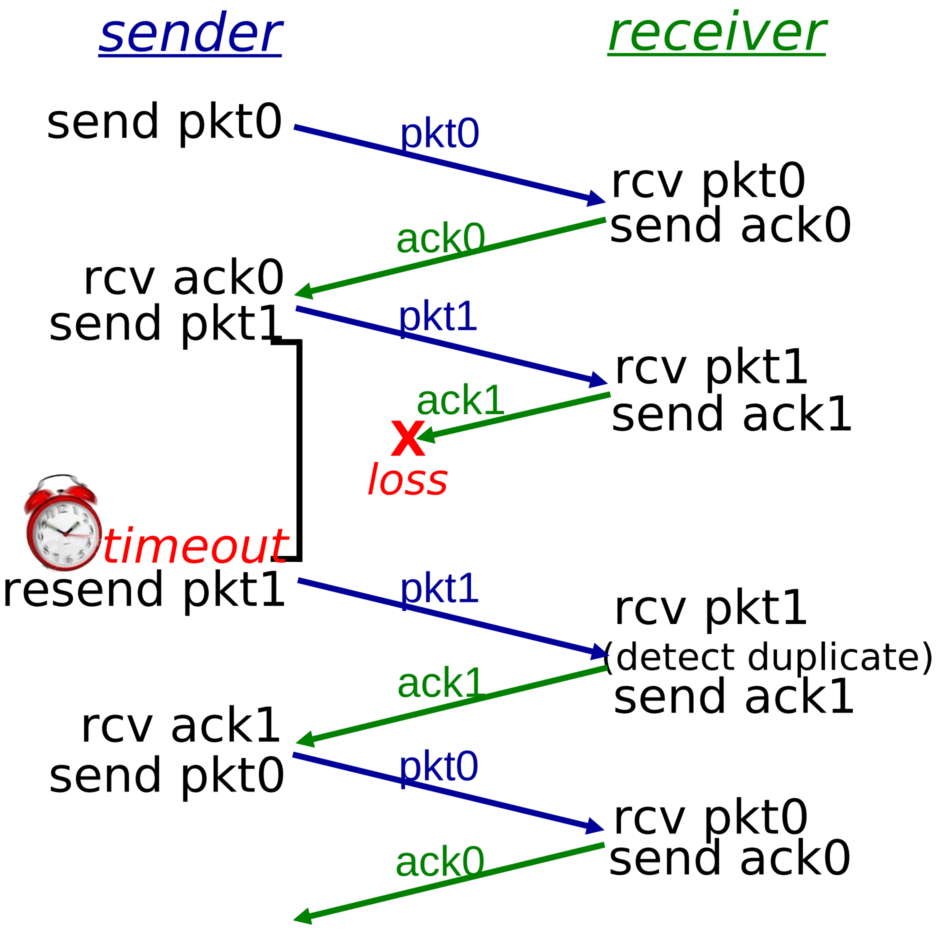
rdt3.0 sender



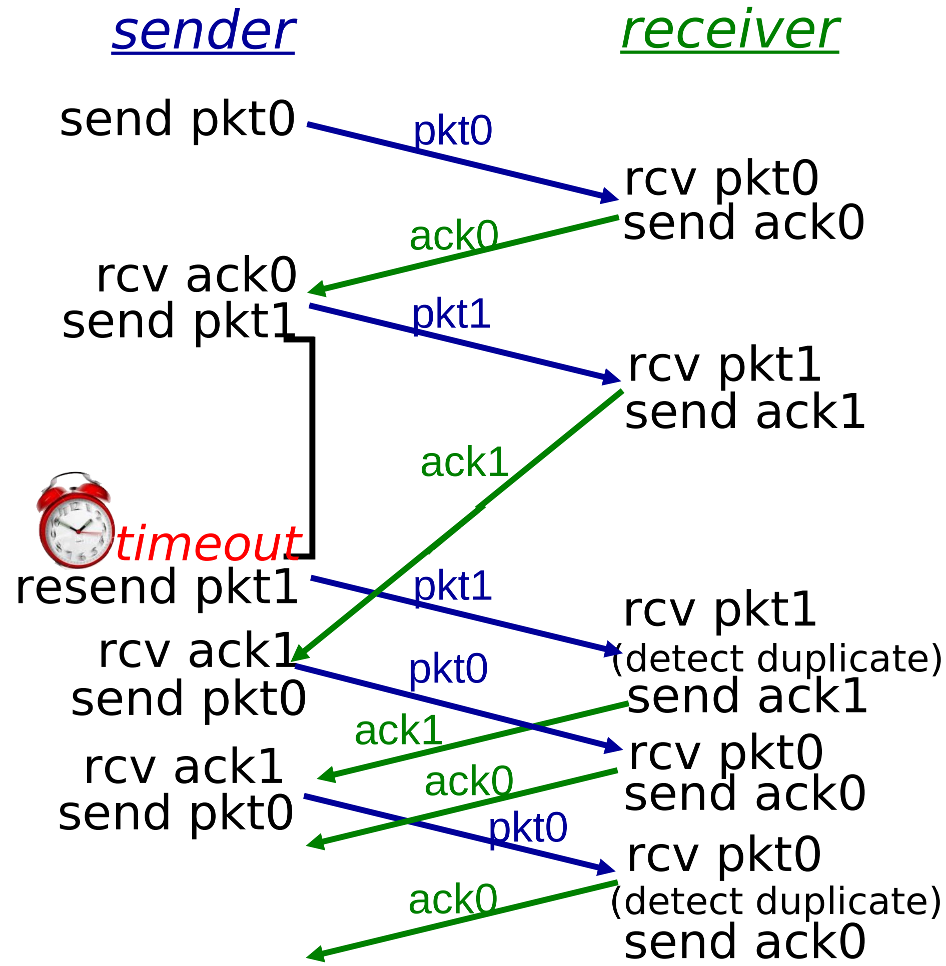
rdt3.0 in action



rdt3.0 in action



(c) ACK loss



(d) premature timeout/ delayed ACK

Performance of rdt3.0

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

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

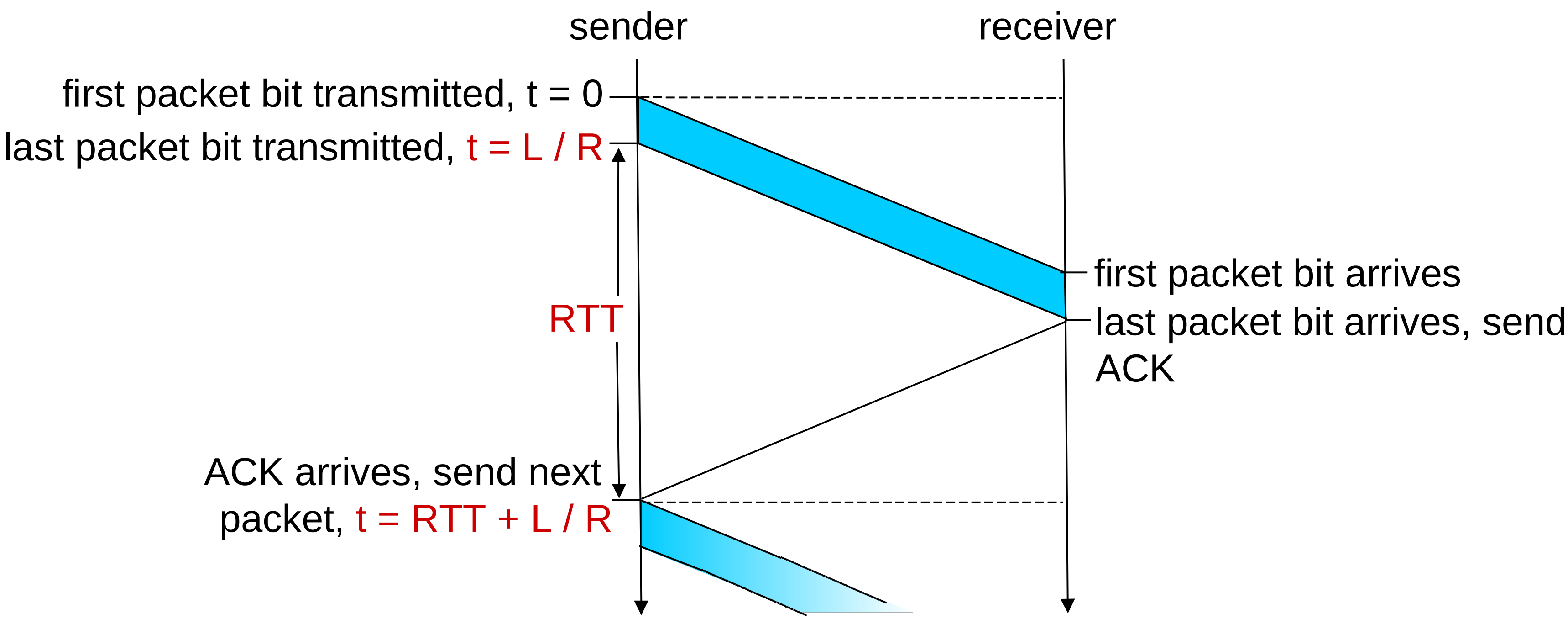
- U_{sender}: *utilization* – fraction of time sender busy sending

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

- if RTT=30 msec, 1KB pkt every 30 msec: 33kB/sec thruput over 1 Gbps link

- network protocol limits use of physical resources!

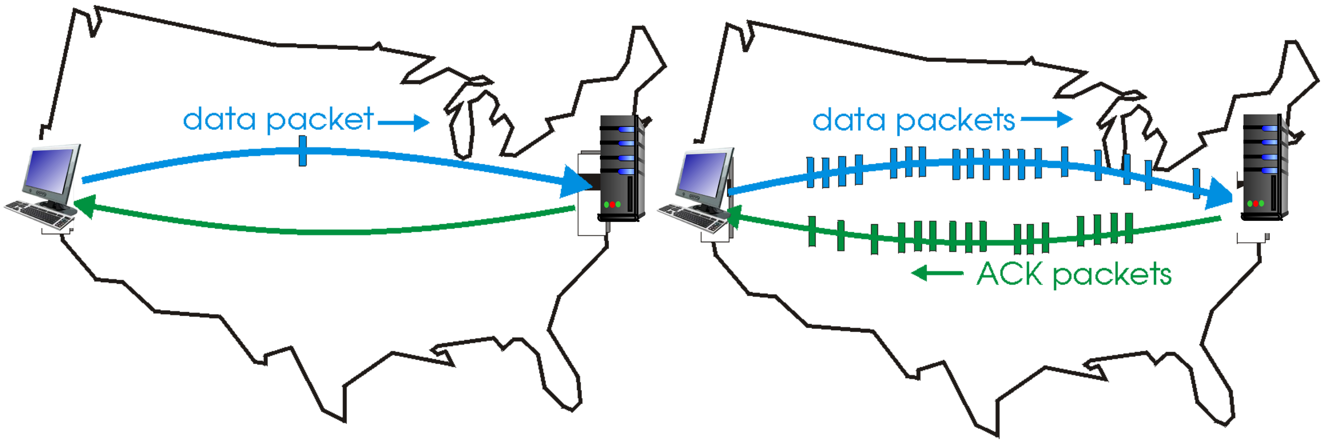
rdt3.0: stop-and-wait operation



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

Pipelined protocols

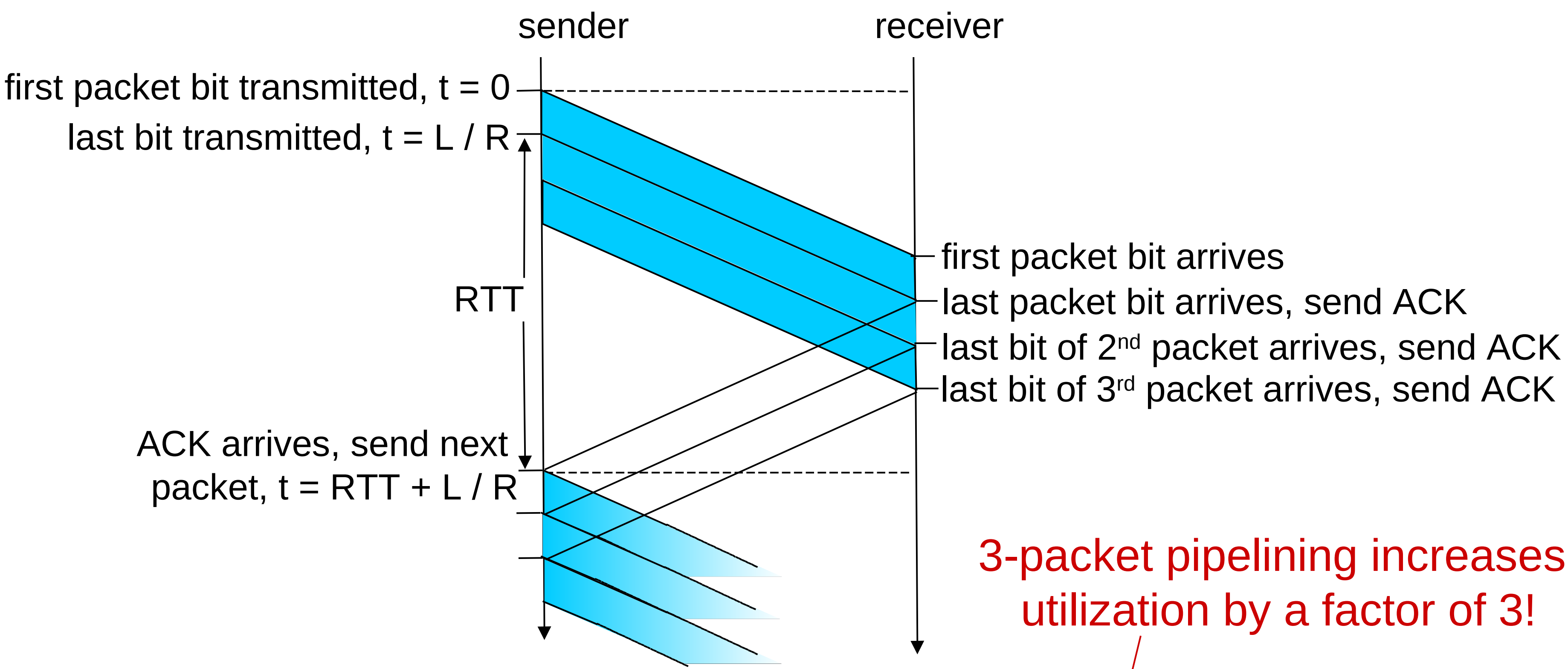
pipelining: sender allows multiple, "in-flight", yet-to-be-acknowledged pkts
- range of sequence numbers must be increased
- buffering at sender and/or receiver



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

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

Pipelining: increased utilization



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

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

Pipelined protocols: overview

Go-back-N:

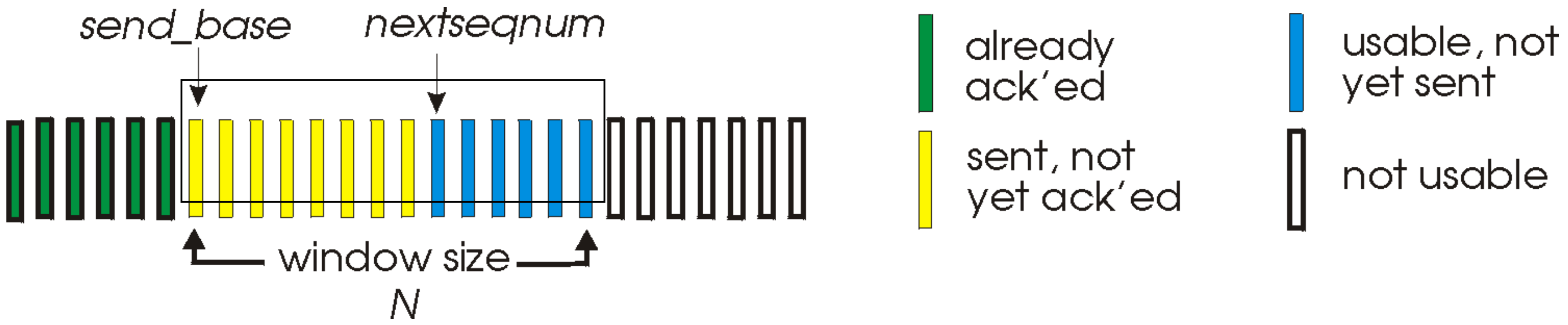
- sender can have up to N unacked packets in pipeline
- receiver only sends *cumulative ack*
  - doesn't ack packet if there's a gap
- sender has timer for oldest unacked packet
  - when timer expires, retransmit *all* unacked packets

Selective Repeat:

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

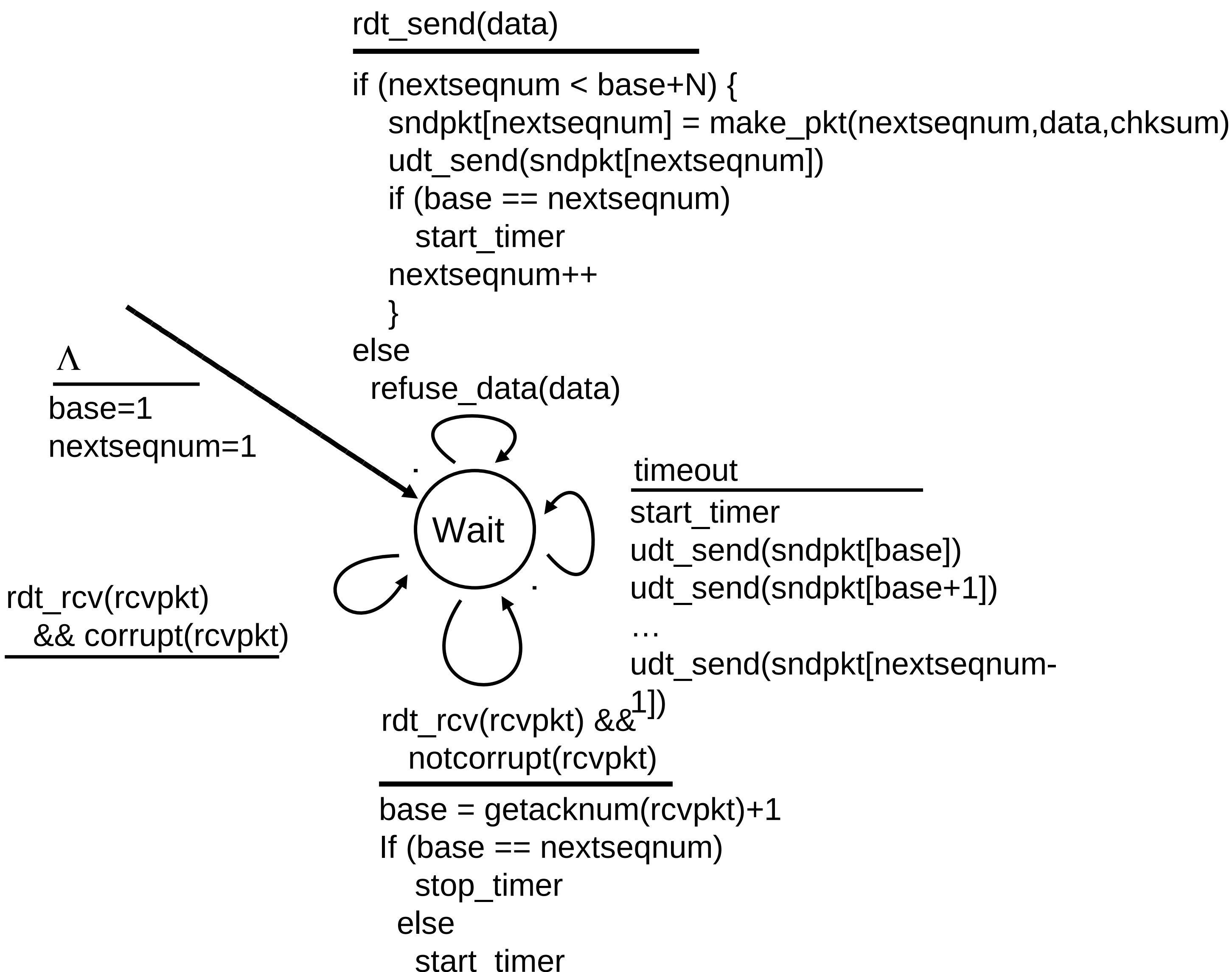
Go-Back-N: sender

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

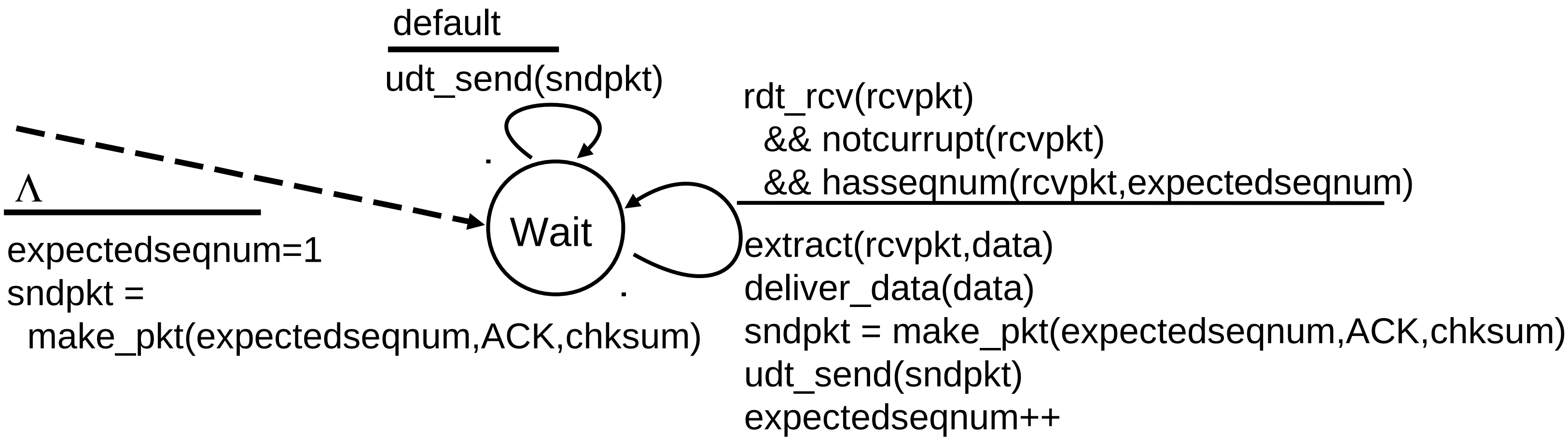


- ACK(n): ACKs all pkts up to, including seq # n - *"cumulative ACK"*
  - may receive duplicate ACKs (see receiver)
- timer for oldest in-flight pkt
- *timeout(n):* retransmit packet n and all higher seq # pkts in window

GBN: sender extended FSM



GBN: receiver extended FSM

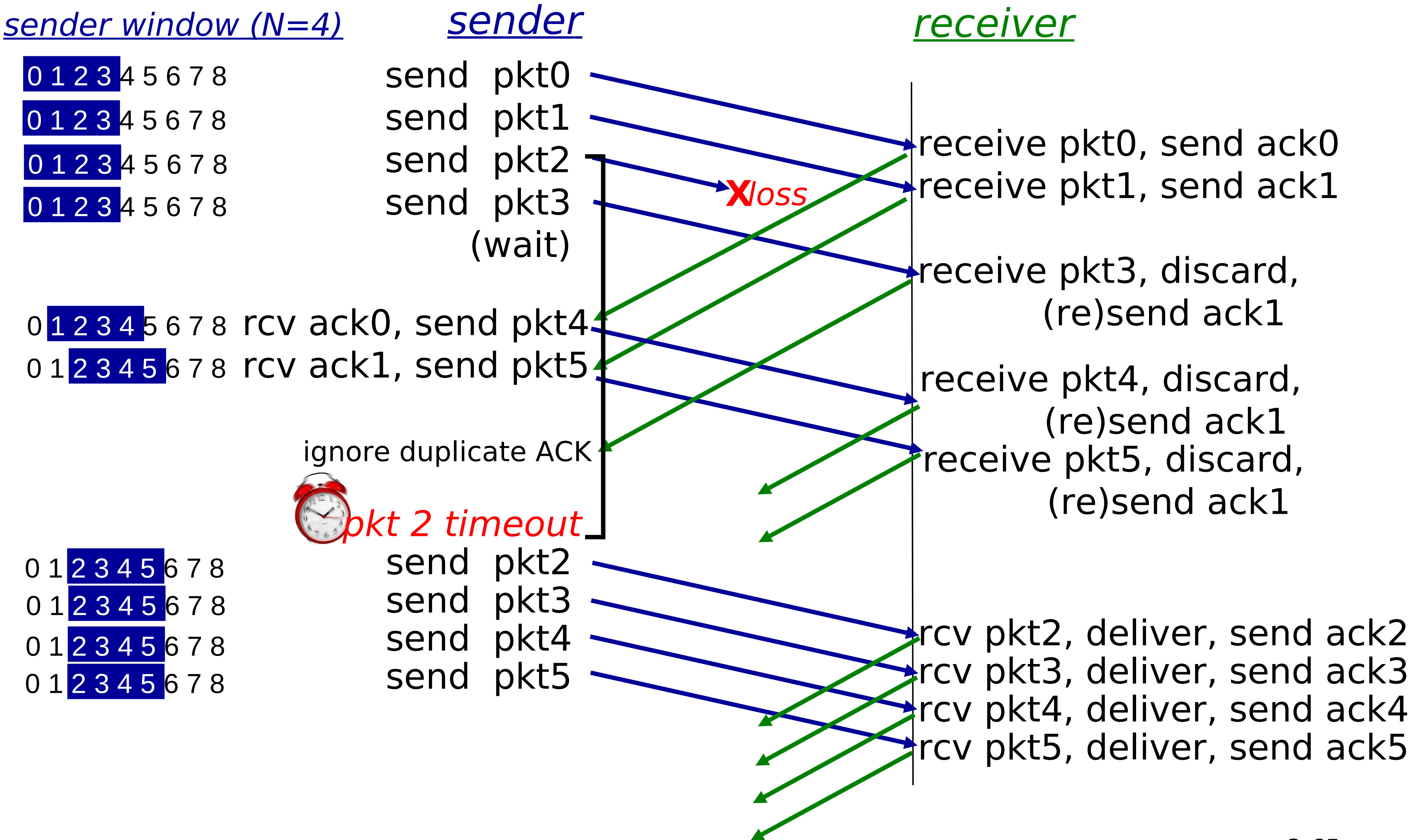


ACK-only: always send ACK for correctly-received pkt with highest *in-order* seq #

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

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

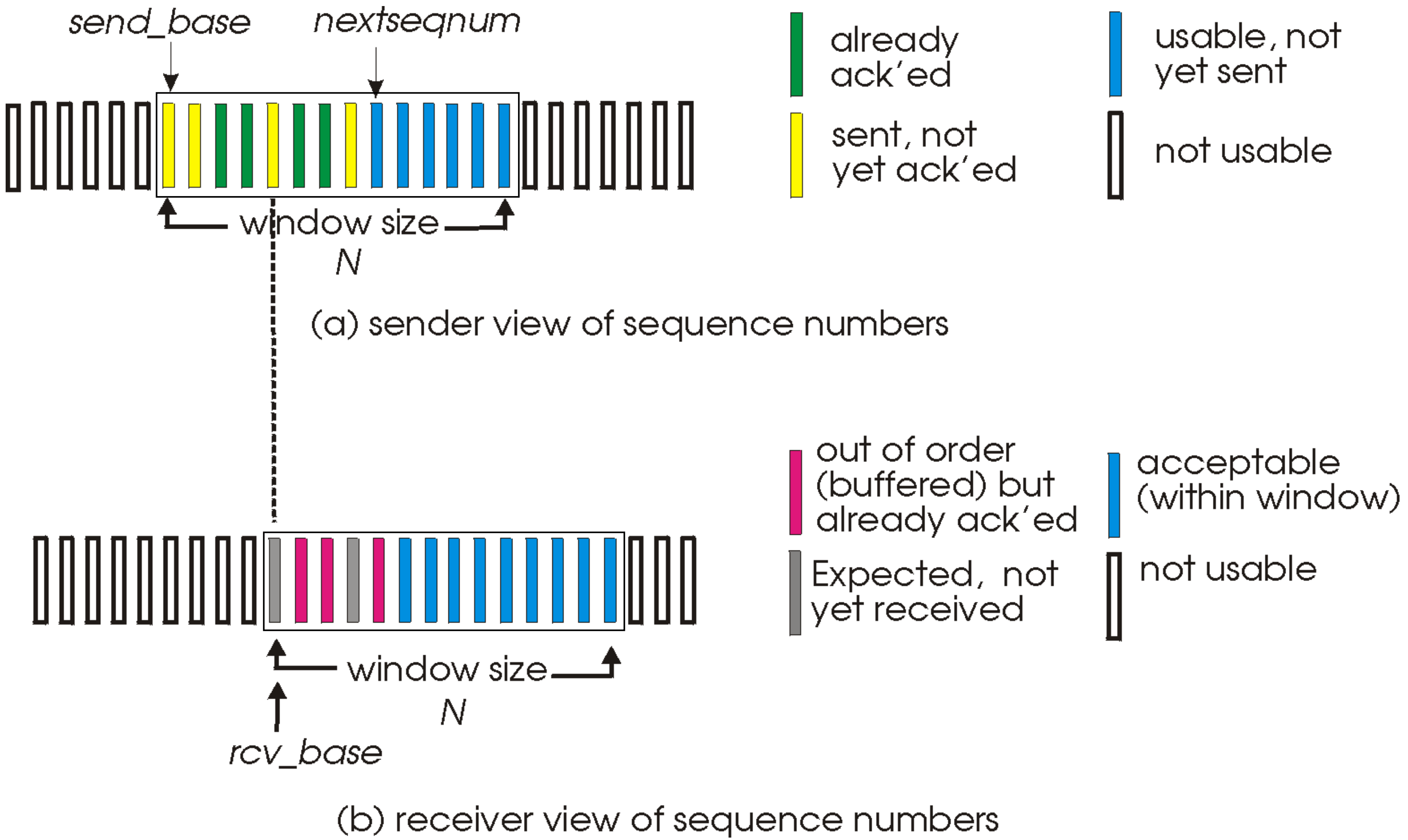
GBN in action



Selective repeat

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

Selective repeat: sender, receiver windows



Selective repeat

sender

data from above:

- if next available seq # in window, send pkt

timeout(n):

- resend pkt n, restart timer

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

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

receiver

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

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

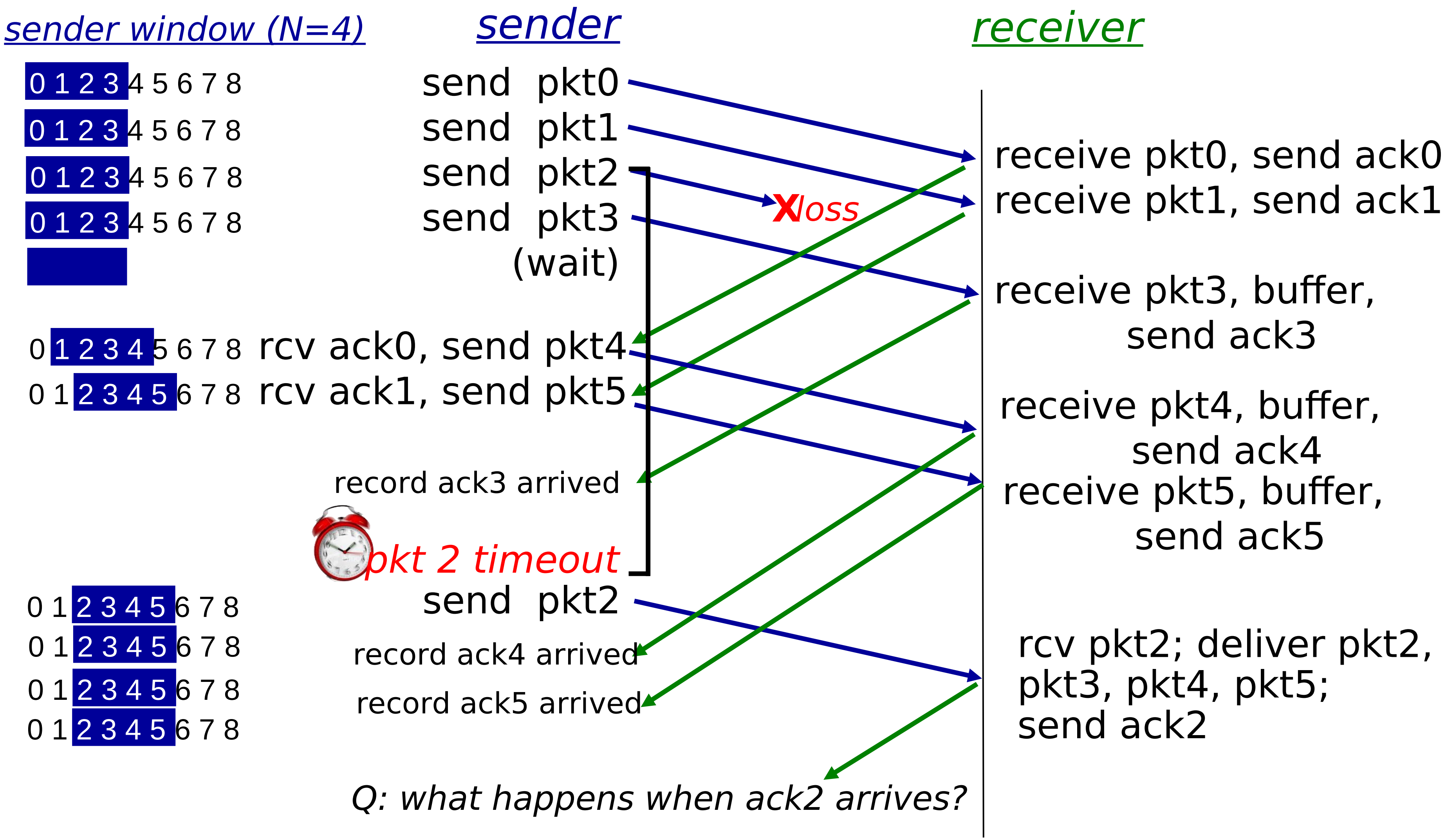
pkt n in [rcvbase-N,rcvbase-1]

- ACK(n)

otherwise:

- ignore

Selective repeat in action

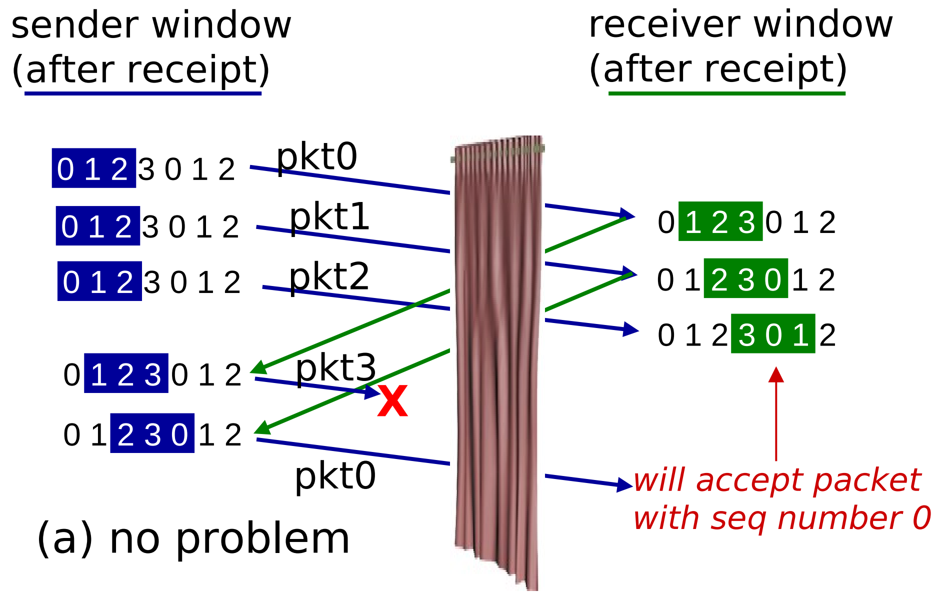


Selective repeat: dilemma

example:

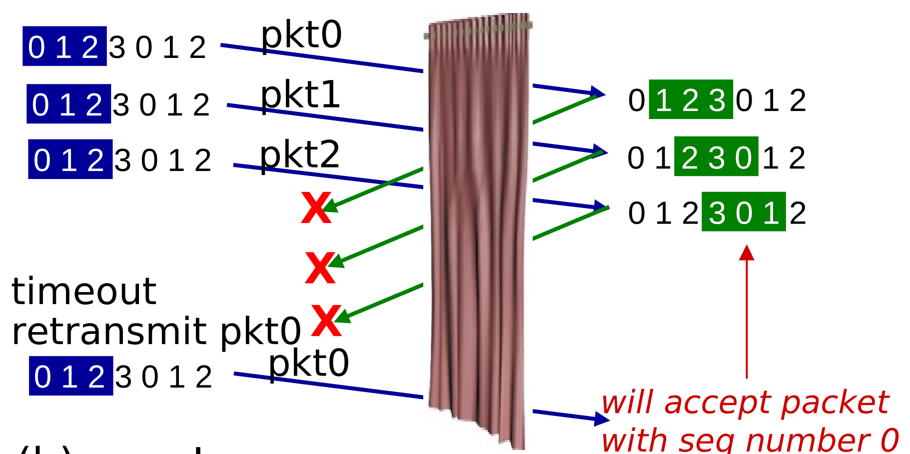
- seq #'s: 0, 1, 2, 3
- window size=3
- receiver sees no difference in two scenarios!
- duplicate data accepted as new in (b)

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



(a) no problem

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



(b) oops!

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3.7 TCP congestion control

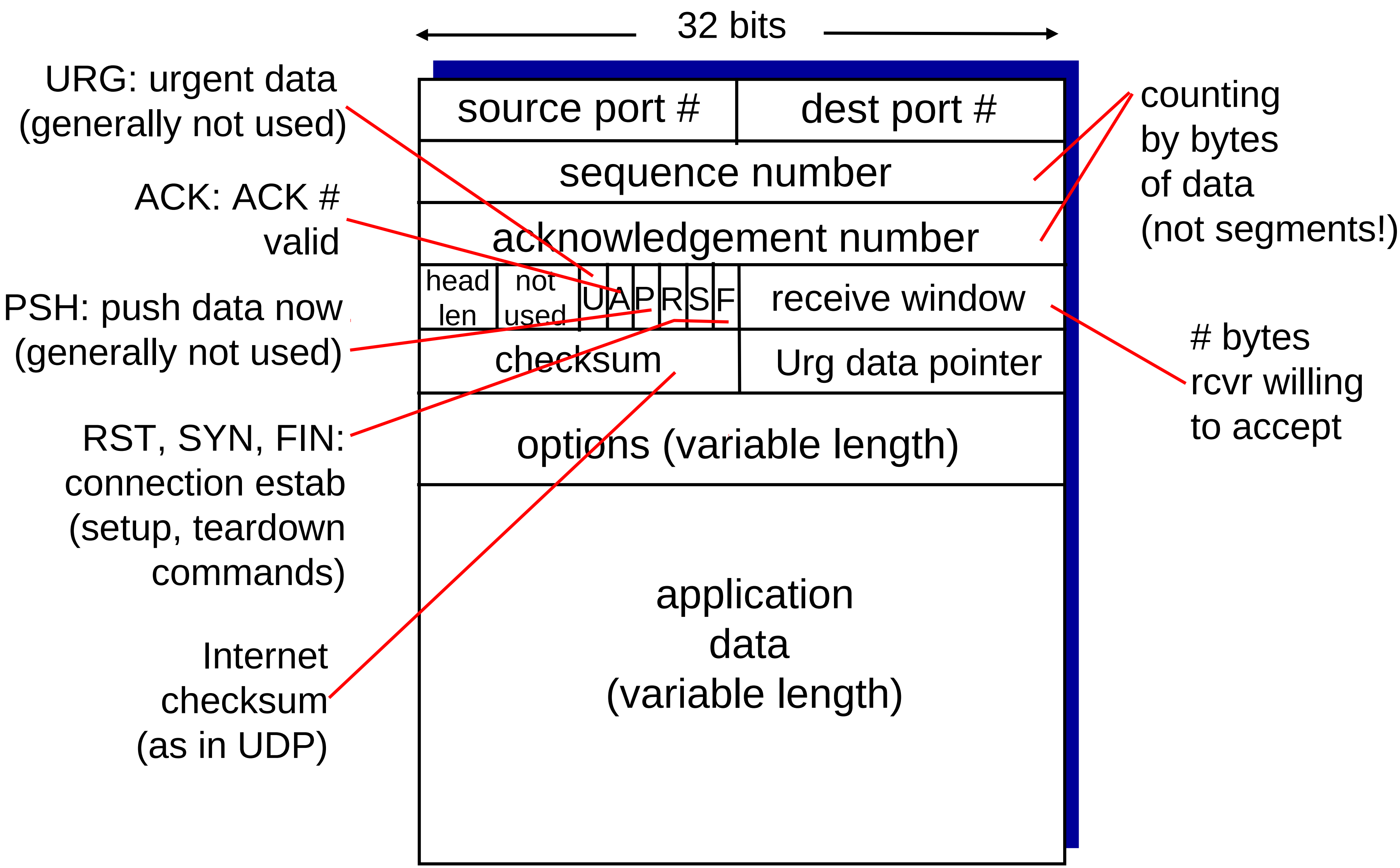
Mechanism	Use, Comments
Checksum	Used to detect bit errors in a transmitted packet.
Timer	Used to timeout/retransmit a packet, possibly because the packet (or its ACK) was lost within the channel. Because timeouts can occur when a packet is delayed but not lost (premature timeout), or when a packet has been received by the receiver but the receiver-to-sender ACK has been lost, duplicate copies of a packet may be received by a receiver.
Sequence number	Used for sequential numbering of packets of data flowing from sender to receiver. Gaps in the sequence numbers of received packets allow the receiver to detect a lost packet. Packets with duplicate sequence numbers allow the receiver to detect duplicate copies of a packet.
Acknowledgment	Used by the receiver to tell the sender that a packet or set of packets has been received correctly. Acknowledgments will typically carry the sequence number of the packet or packets being acknowledged. Acknowledgments may be individual or cumulative, depending on the protocol.
Negative acknowledgment	Used by the receiver to tell the sender that a packet has not been received correctly. Negative acknowledgments will typically carry the sequence number of the packet that was not received correctly.
Window, pipelining	The sender may be restricted to sending only packets with sequence numbers that fall within a given range. By allowing multiple packets to be transmitted but not yet acknowledged, sender utilization can be increased over a stop-and-wait mode of operation. We'll see shortly that the window size may be set on the basis of the receiver's ability to receive and buffer messages, or the level of congestion in the network, or both.

TCP: Overview

RFCs: 793,1122,1323, 2018, 2581

- point-to-point:
  - one sender, one receiver
- reliable, in-order *byte steam:*
  - no “message boundaries”
- pipelined:
  - TCP congestion and flow control set window size
- full duplex data:
  - bi-directional data flow in same connection
  - MSS: maximum segment size
- connection-oriented:
  - handshaking (exchange of control msgs) inits sender, receiver state before data exchange
- flow controlled:
  - sender will not overwhelm receiver

TCP segment structure



TCP seq. numbers, ACKs

<u>sequence numbers:</u>

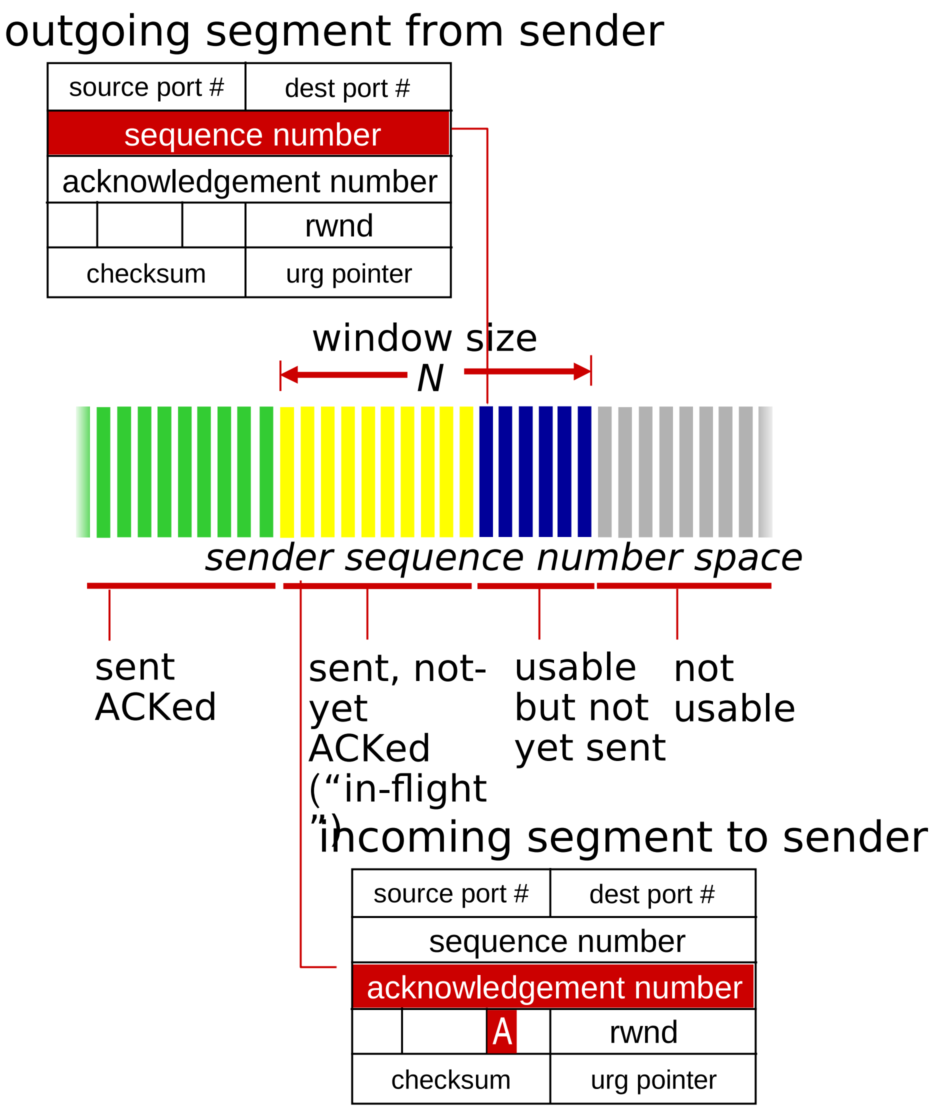
- byte stream "number" of first byte in segment's data

<u>acknowledgements:</u>

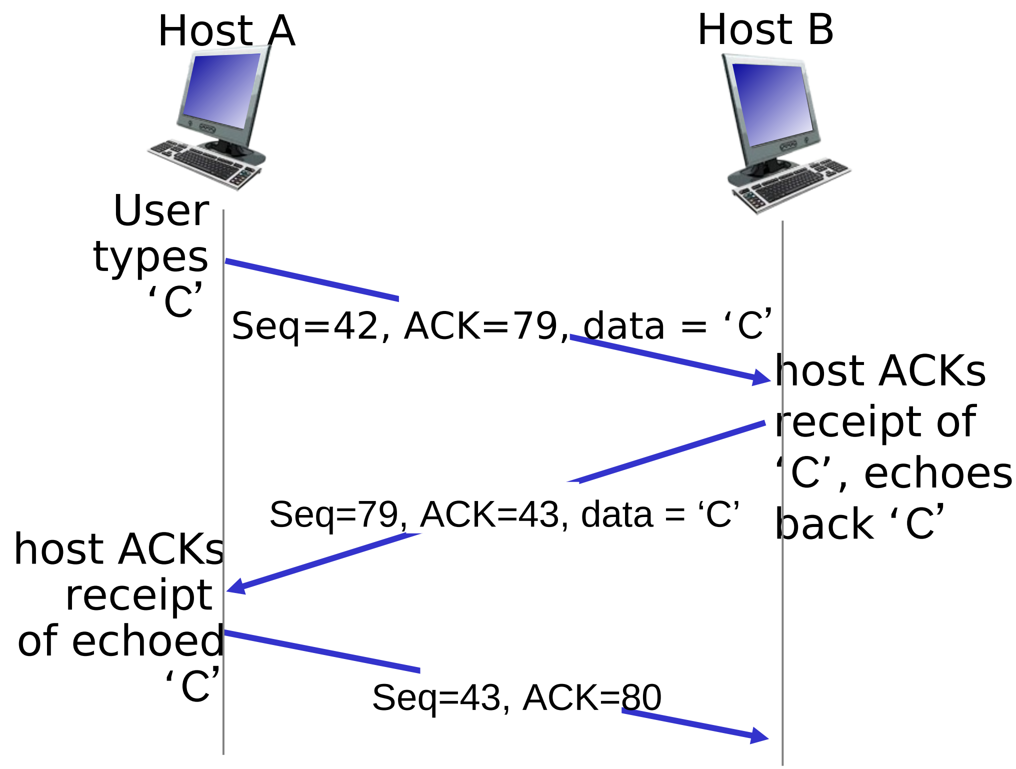
- seq # of next byte expected from other side
- cumulative ACK

Q: how receiver handles out-of-order segments

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



TCP seq. numbers, ACKs



simple telnet scenario

TCP round trip time, timeout

Q: how to set TCP timeout value?

- longer than RTT
  - but RTT varies
- *too short:* premature timeout, unnecessary retransmissions
- *too long:* slow reaction to segment loss

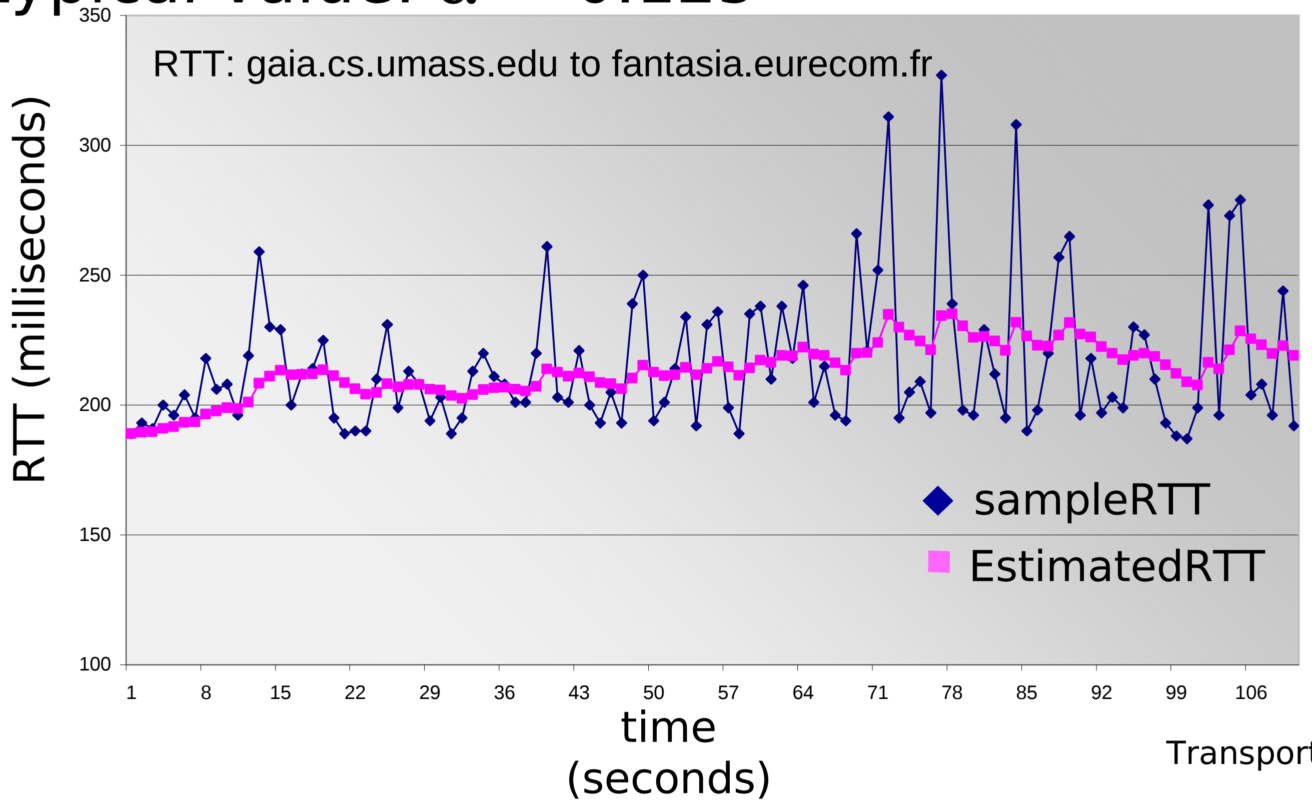
Q: how to estimate RTT?

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

TCP round trip time, timeout

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

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



TCP round trip time, timeout

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

$$\texttt{DevRTT} = (1-\beta)*\texttt{DevRTT} + \beta*|\texttt{SampleRTT}-\texttt{EstimatedRTT}|$$

(typically, β = 0.25)

`TimeoutInterval = EstimatedRTT + 4*DevRTT`

estimated RTT "safety margin"

* Check out the online interactive exercises for more examples: http://gaia.cs.umass.edu/kurose_ross/interactive/

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TCP reliable data transfer

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

let's initially consider simplified TCP sender:
- ignore duplicate acks
- ignore flow control, congestion control

TCP sender events:

data rcvd from app:

- create segment with seq #
- seq # is byte-stream number of first data byte in segment
- start timer if not already running
  - think of timer as for oldest unacked segment
  - expiration interval: **`TimeOutInterval`**

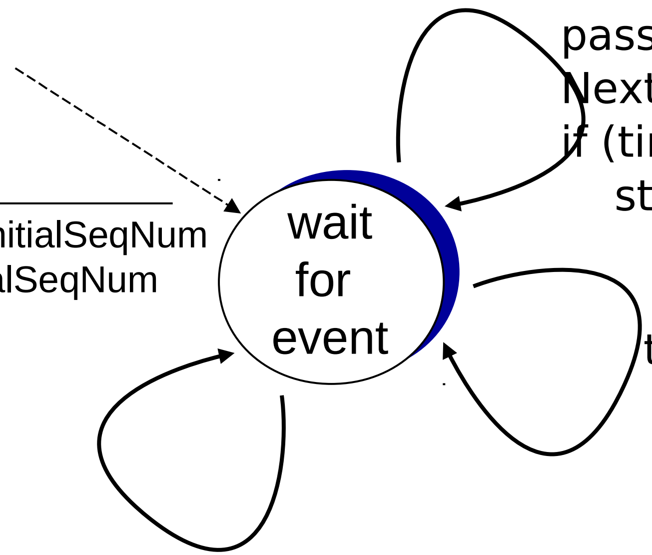
timeout:

- retransmit segment that caused timeout
- restart timer

ack rcvd:

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

TCP sender (simplified)



Λ

NextSeqNum = InitialSeqNum
SendBase = InitialSeqNum

data received from application above

---

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

timeout

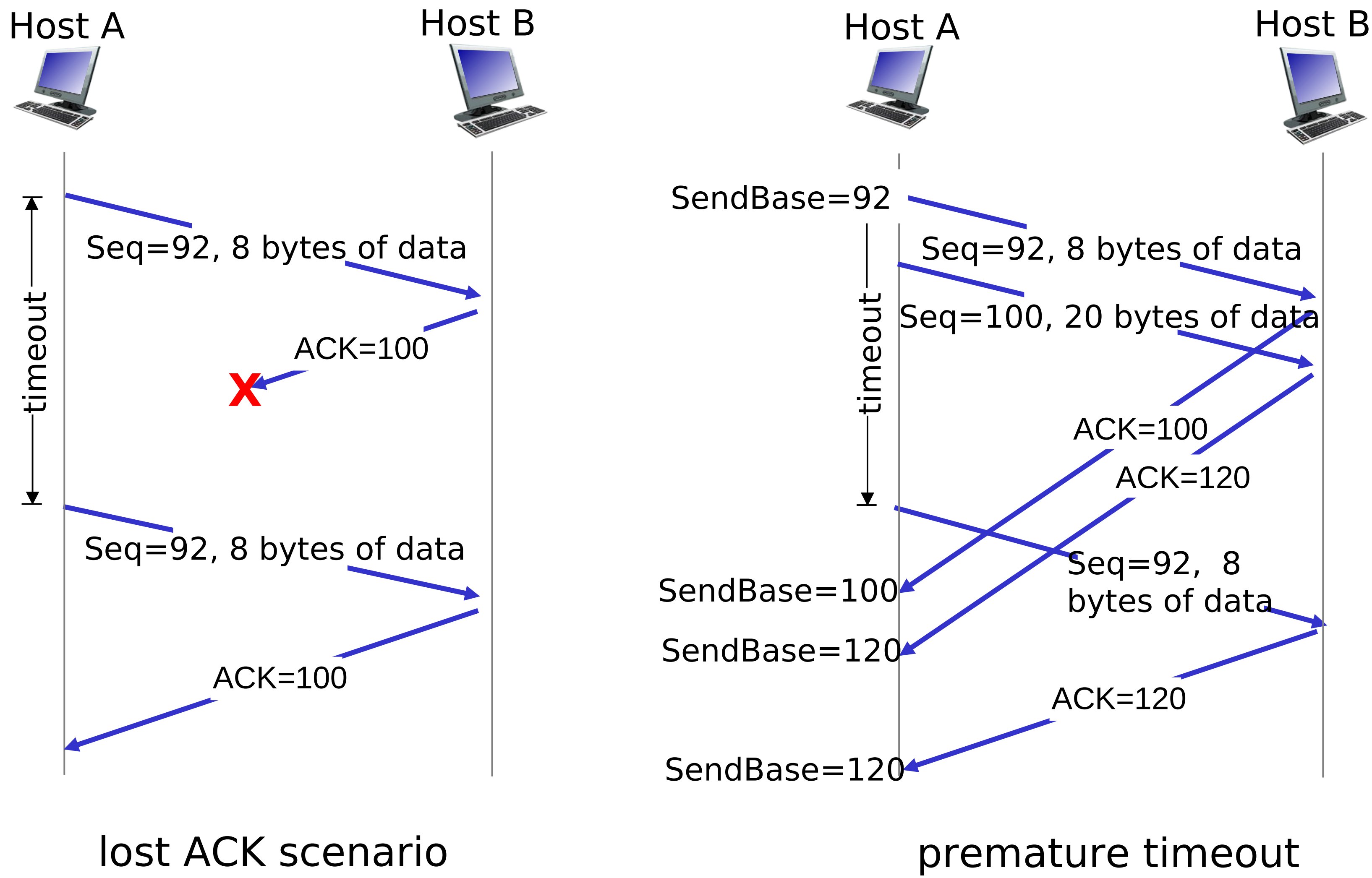
---

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

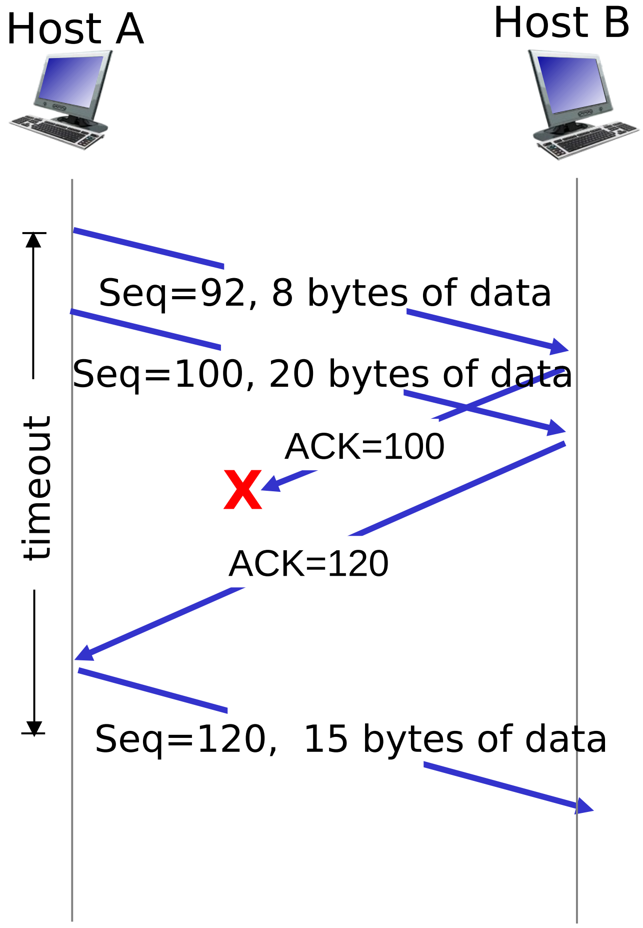
ACK received, with ACK field value y

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

TCP: retransmission scenarios



TCP: retransmission scenarios



cumulative ACK

TCP ACK generation [RFC 1122, RFC 2581]

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

TCP fast retransmit

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

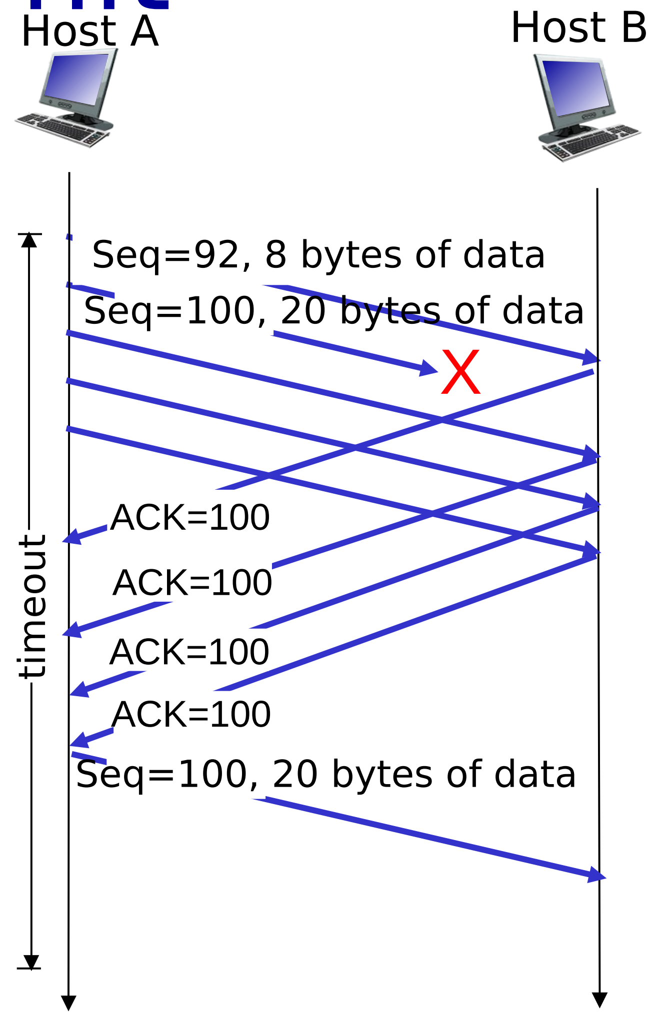
TCP fast retransmit

if sender receives 3 ACKs for same data

("triple duplicate ACKs"), resend unacked segment with smallest seq #

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

TCP fast retransmit



fast retransmit after sender receipt of triple duplicate ACK

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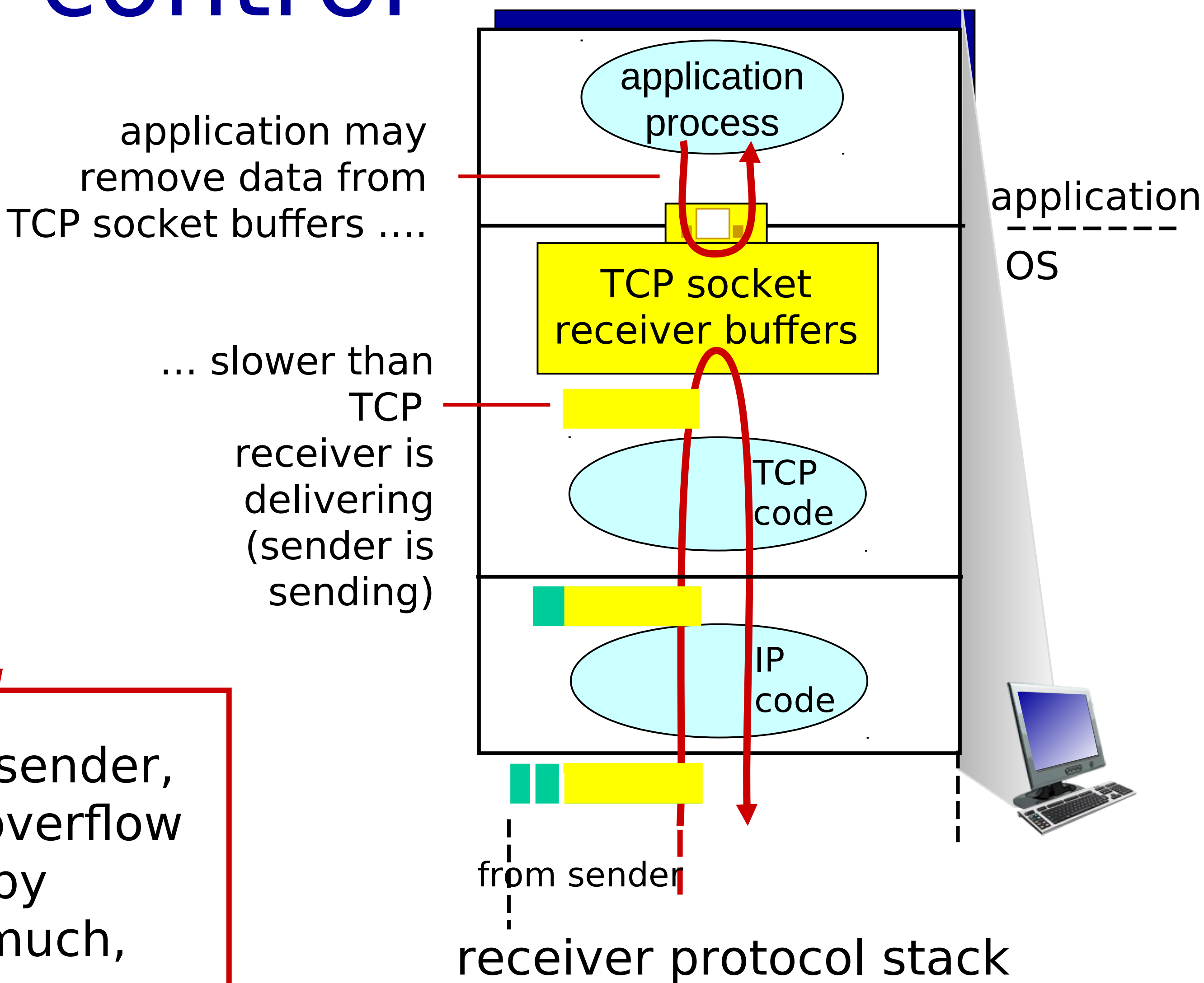
TCP flow control

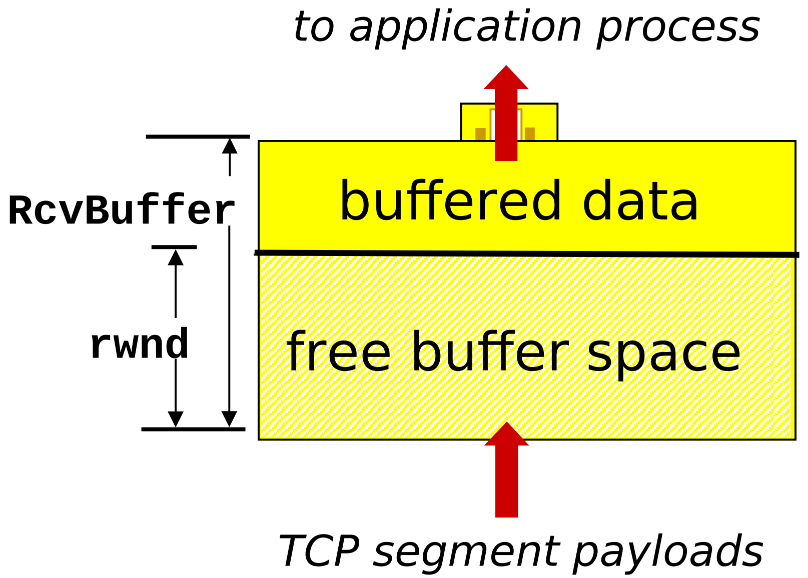


flow control

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

TCP flow control

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



receiver-side buffering

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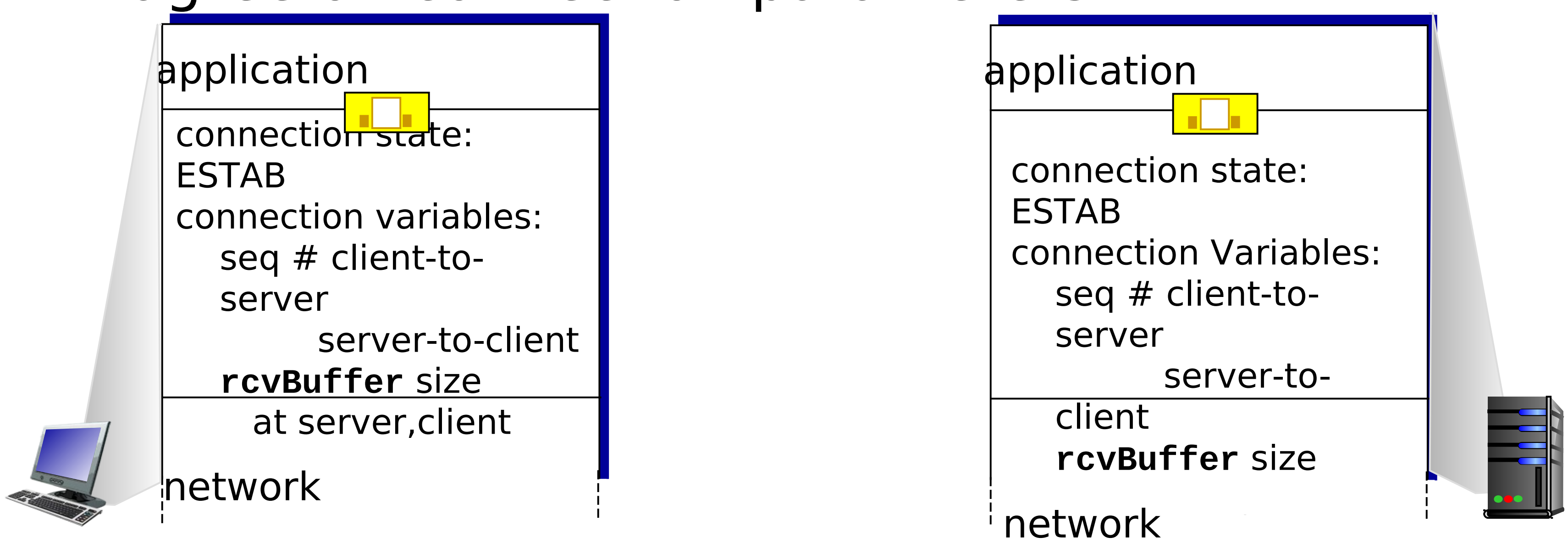
Connection Management

before exchanging data, sender/receiver "handshake":

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

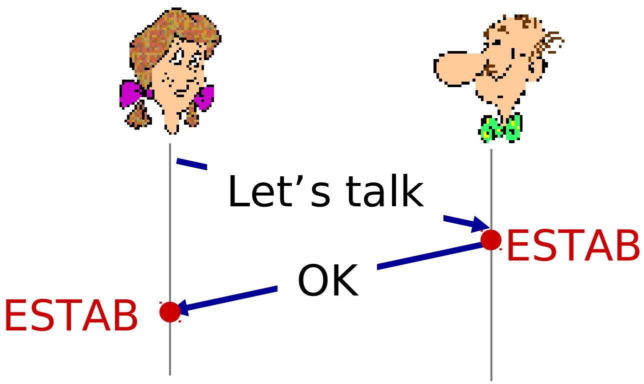


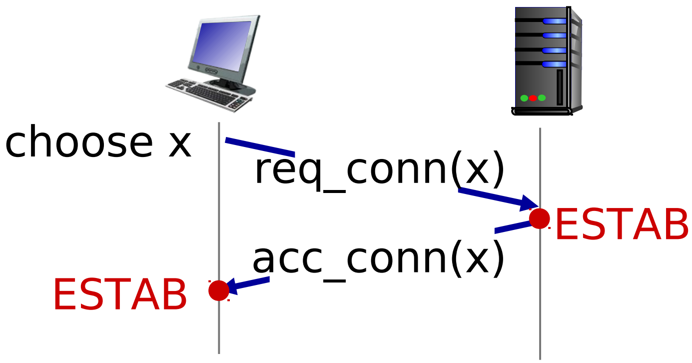

```
Socket clientSocket =
  newSocket("hostname","port
   number");
```

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

Agreeing to establish a connection

2-way handshake:



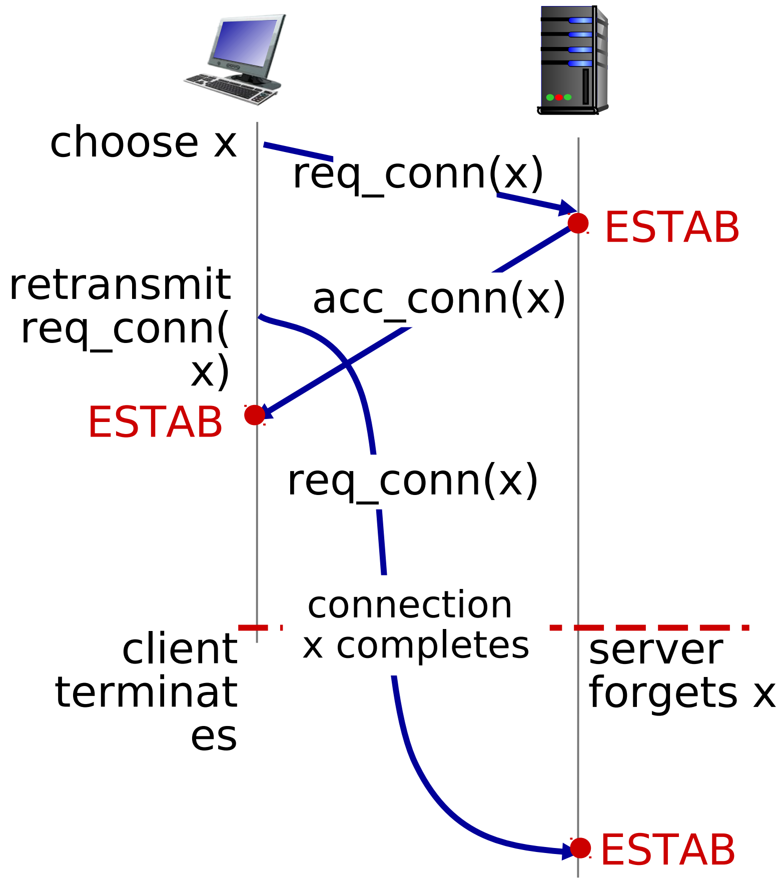


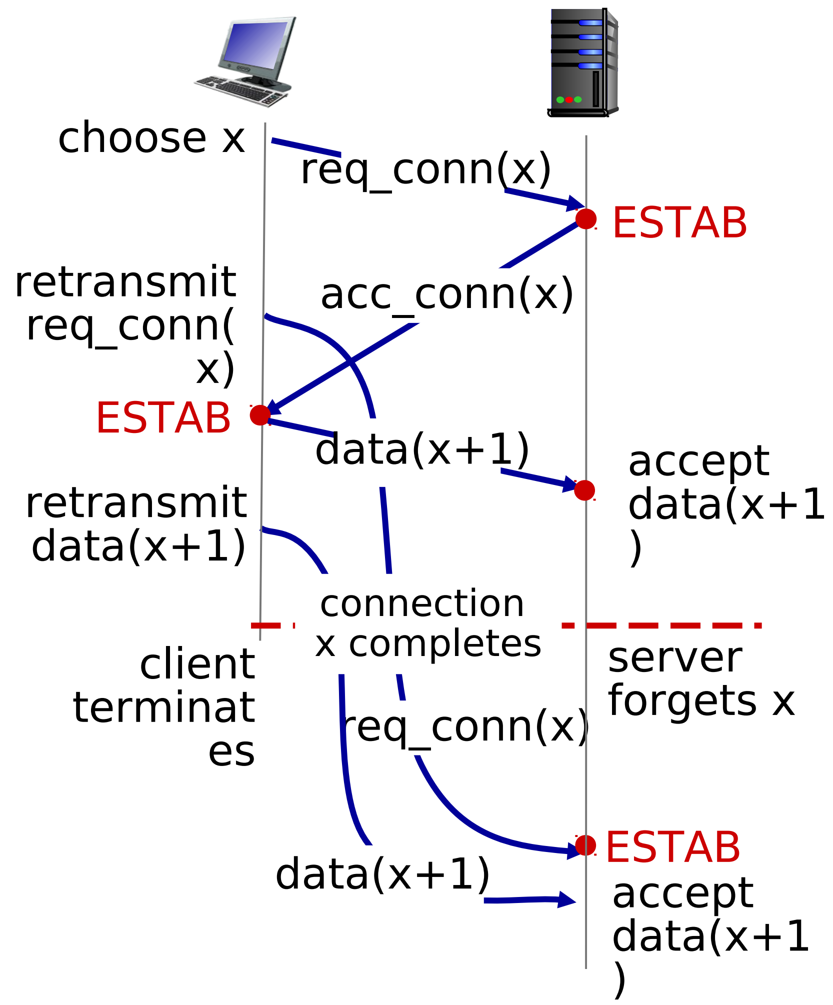
Q: will 2-way handshake always work in network?

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

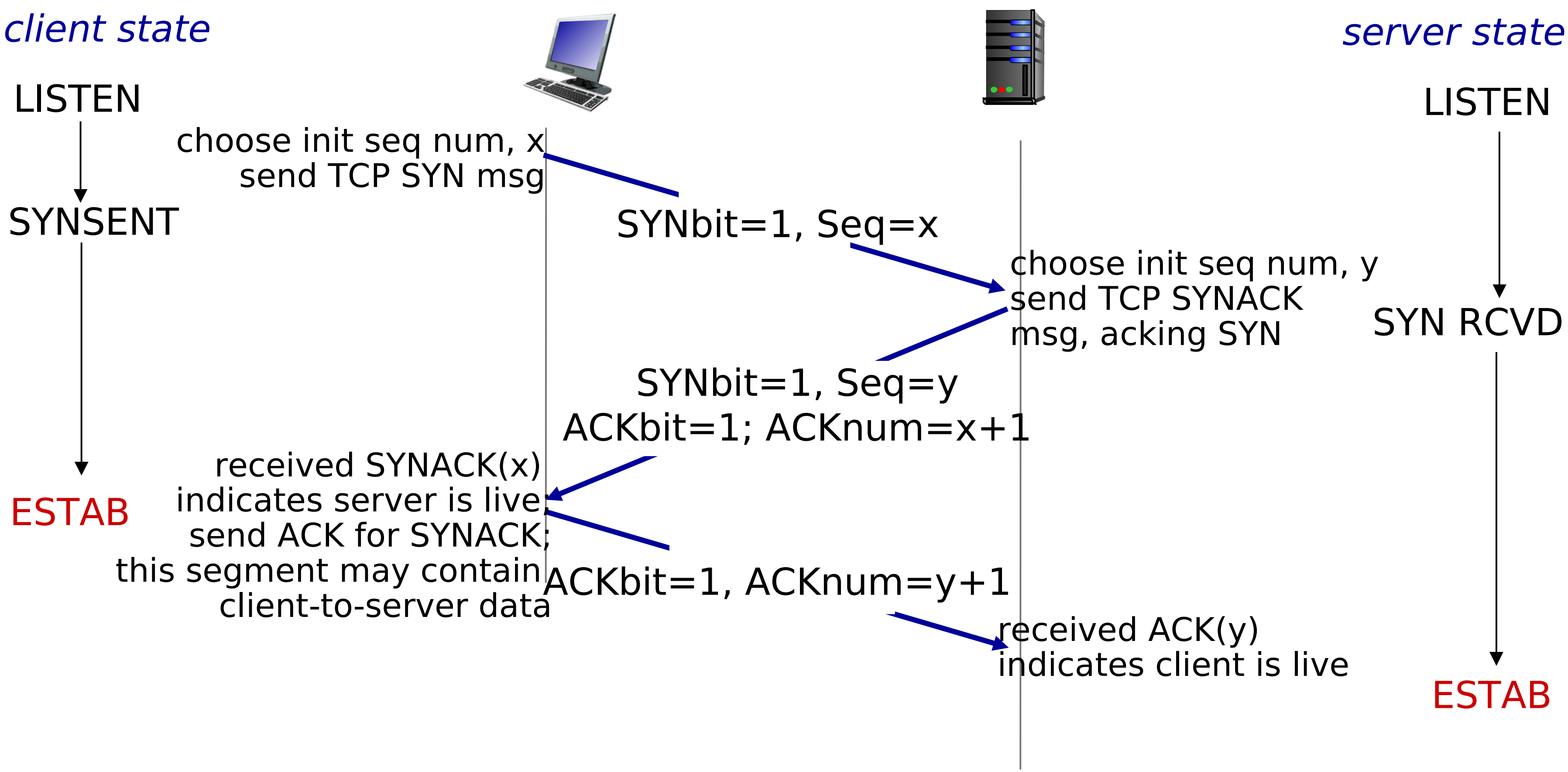
Agreeing to establish a connection

2-way handshake failure scenarios:

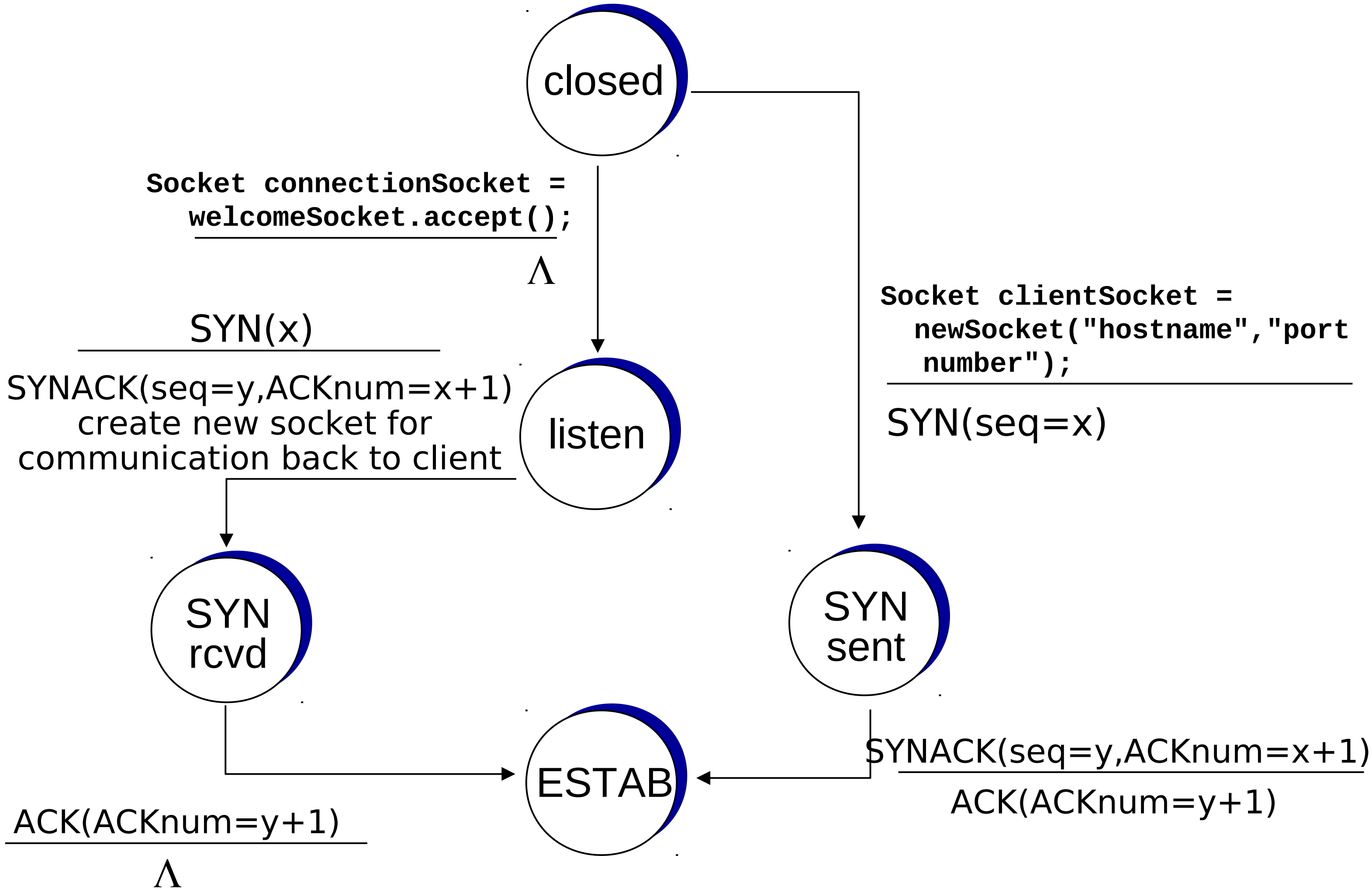




TCP 3-way handshake



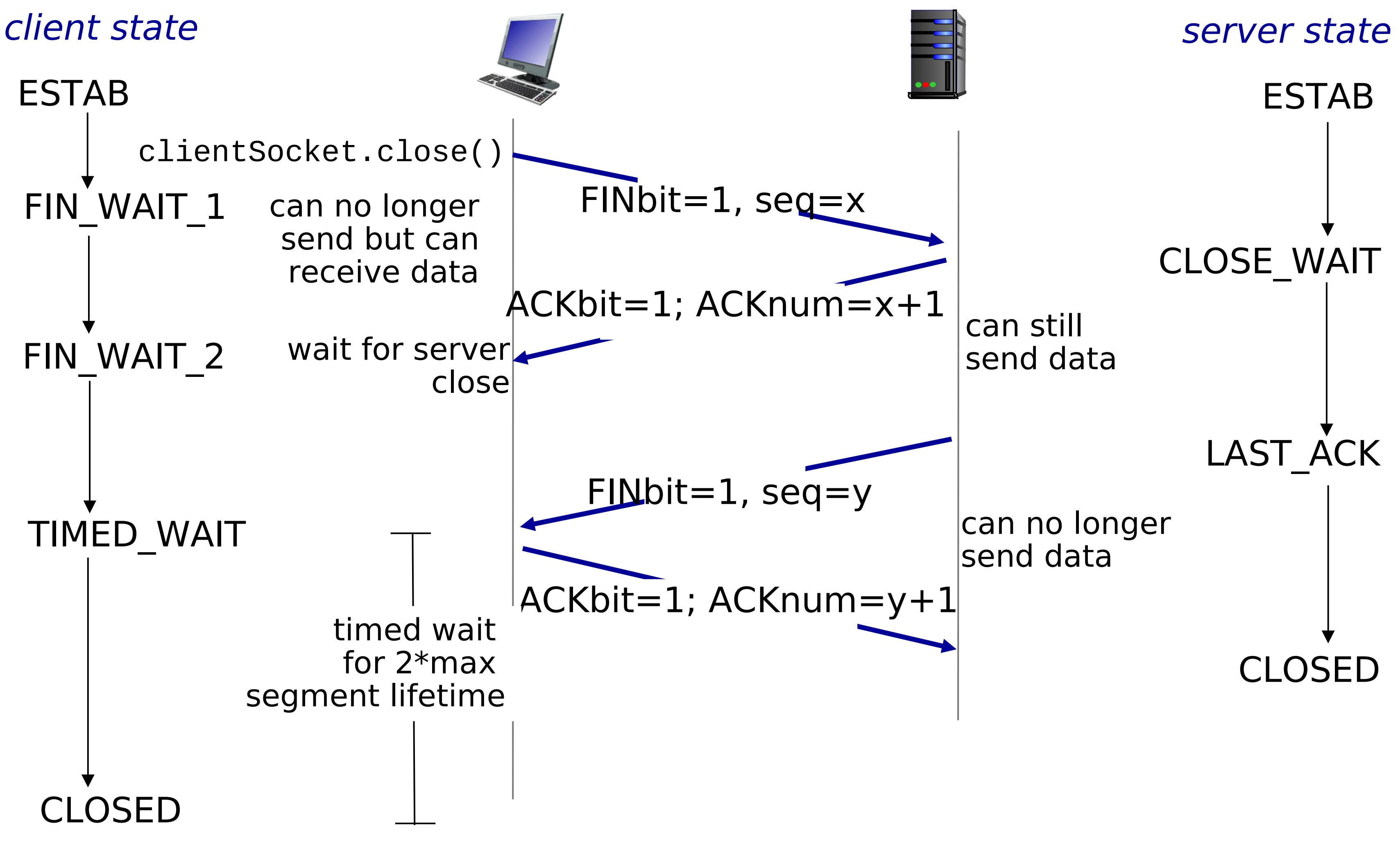
TCP 3-way handshake: FSM



TCP: closing a connection

- client, server each close their side of connection
  - send TCP segment with FIN bit = 1
- respond to received FIN with ACK
  - on receiving FIN, ACK can be combined with own FIN
- simultaneous FIN exchanges can be handled

TCP: closing a connection



Chapter 3 outline

3.1 transport-layer services

3.2 multiplexing and demultiplexing

3.3 connectionless transport: UDP

3.4 principles of reliable data transfer

3.5 connection-oriented transport: TCP
- segment structure
- reliable data transfer
- flow control
- connection management

3.6 principles of congestion control

3.7 TCP congestion control

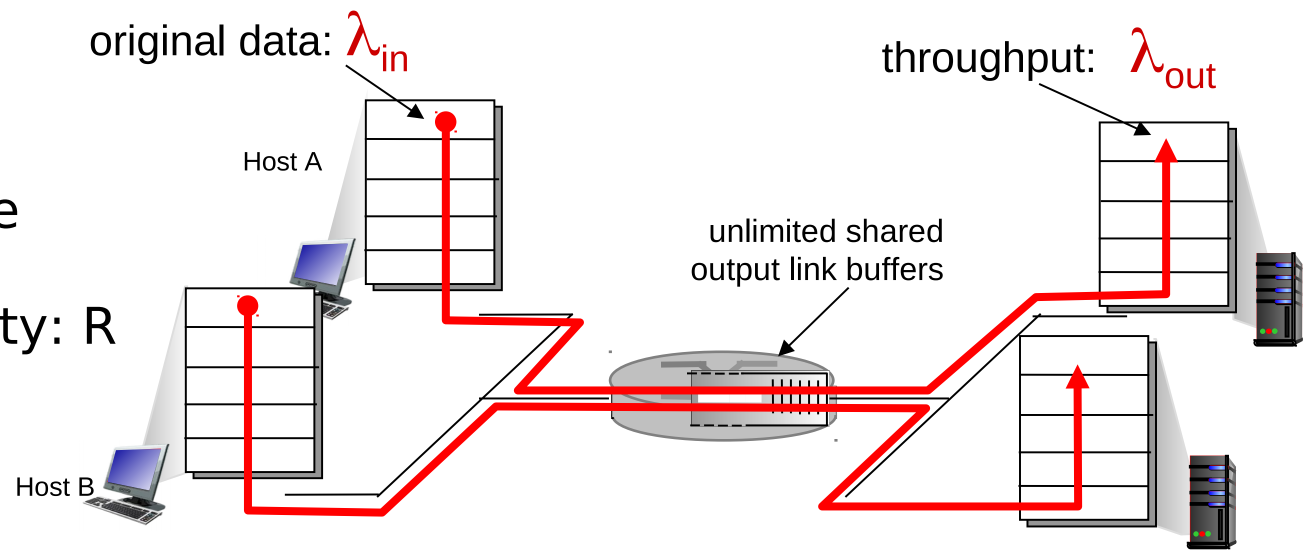
Principles of congestion control

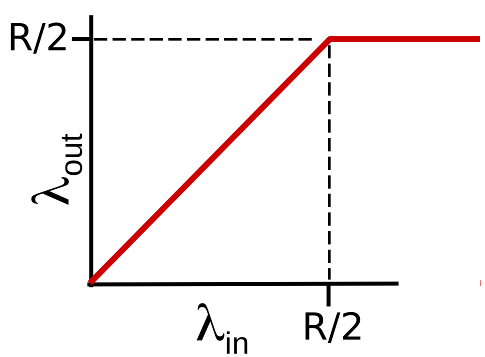
congestion:

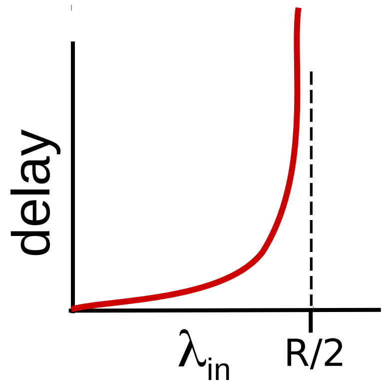
- informally: "too many sources sending too much data too fast for *network* to handle"
- different from flow control!
- manifestations:
  - lost packets (buffer overflow at routers)
  - long delays (queueing in router buffers)
- a top-10 problem!

Causes/costs of congestion: scenario 1

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



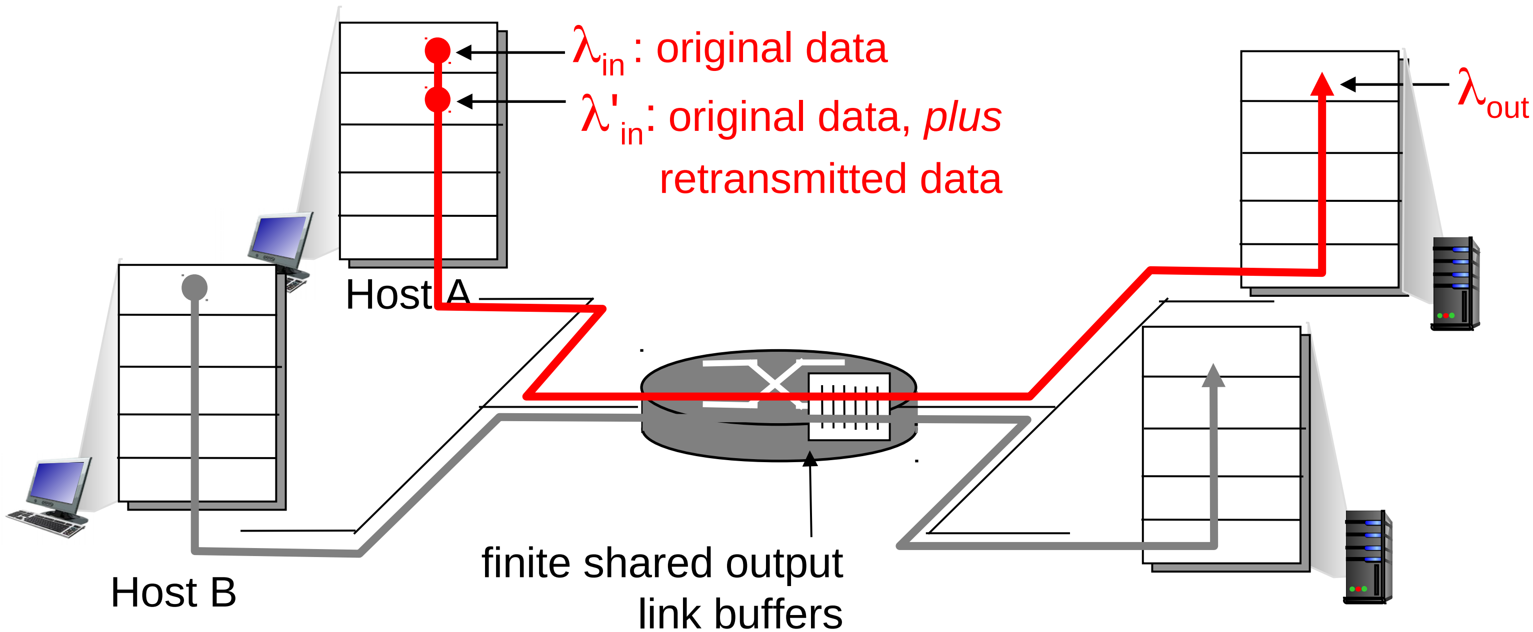




- maximum per-connection throughput: R/2
- large delays as arrival rate, λ_{in}, approaches capacity

Causes/costs of congestion: scenario 2

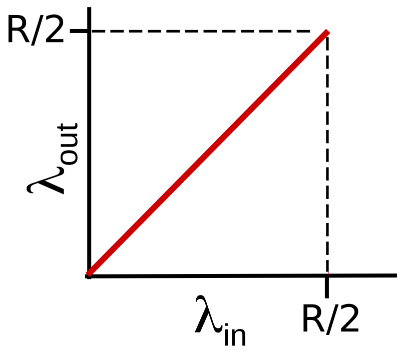
- one router, *finite* buffers
- sender retransmission of timed-out packet
  - application-layer input = application-layer output: $\lambda_{in} = \lambda_{out}$
  - transport-layer input includes *retransmissions* : $\lambda'_{in} \geq \lambda_{in}$

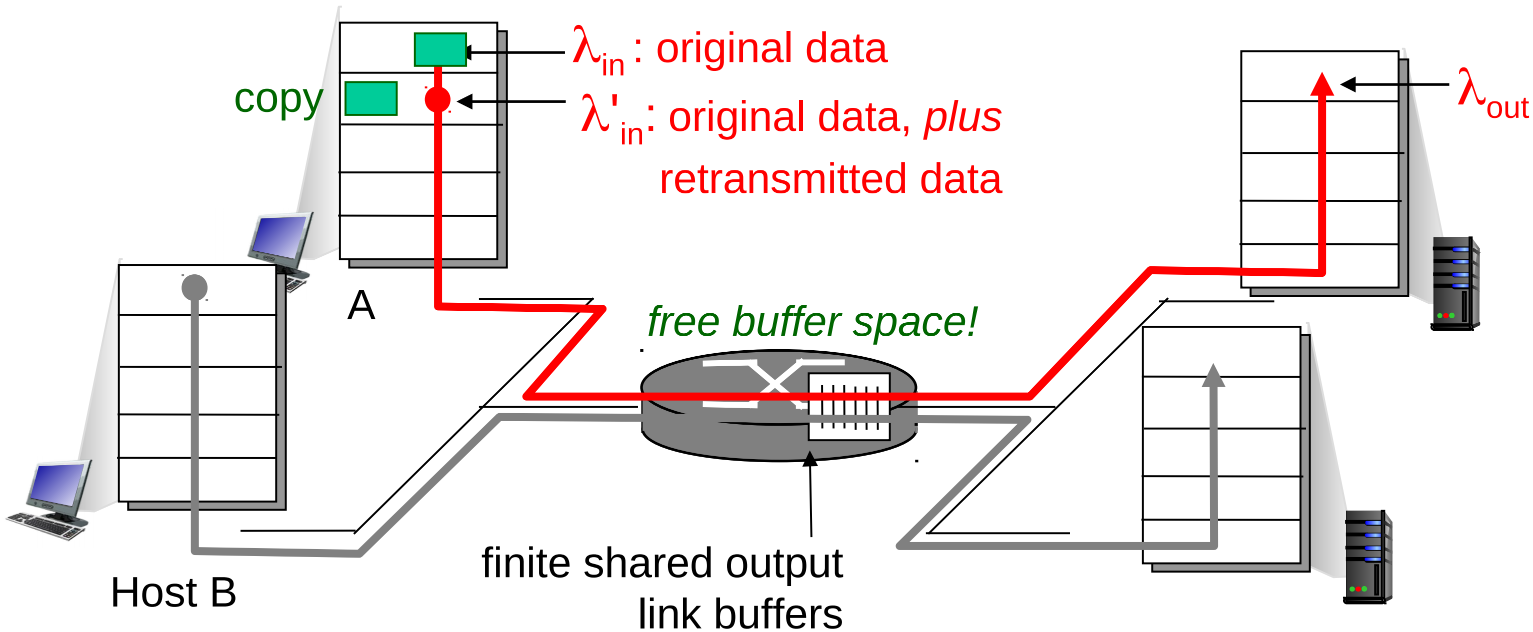


Causes/costs of congestion: scenario 2

idealization: perfect knowledge

- sender sends only when router buffers available

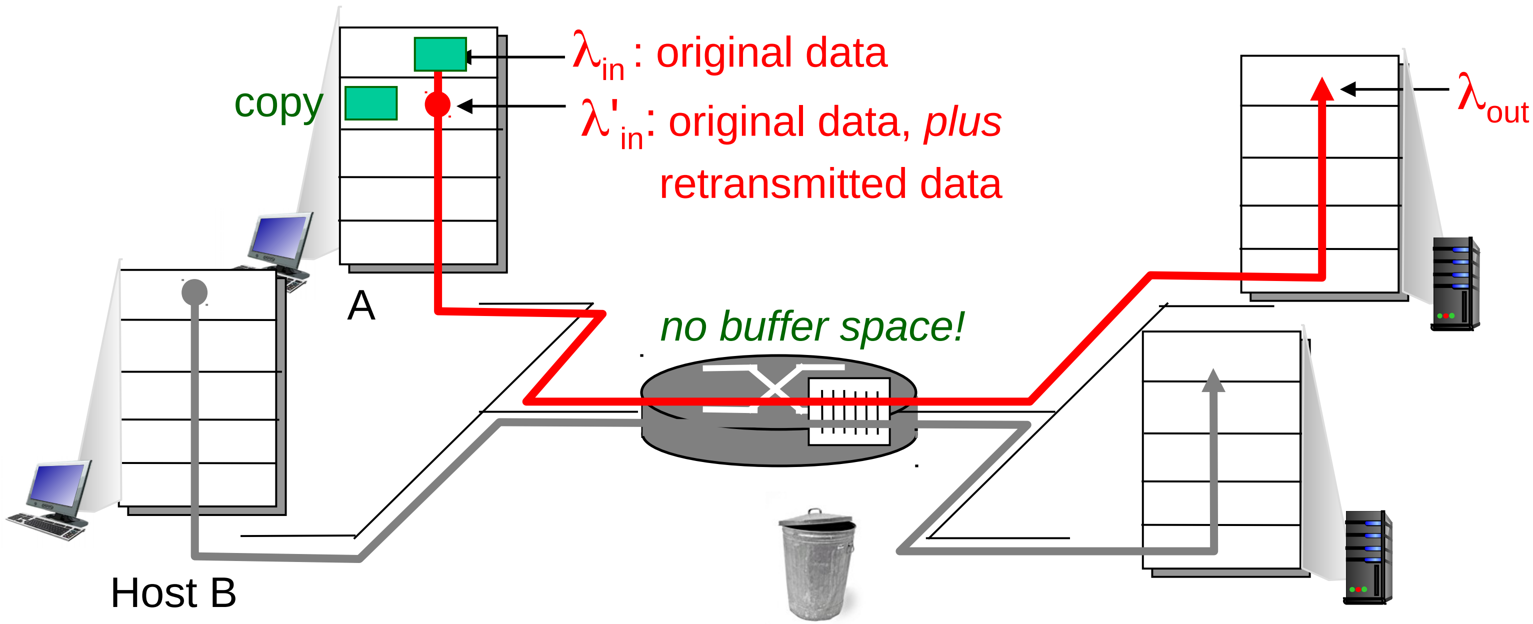




Causes/costs of congestion: scenario 2

Idealization: known loss packets can be lost, dropped at router due to full buffers

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



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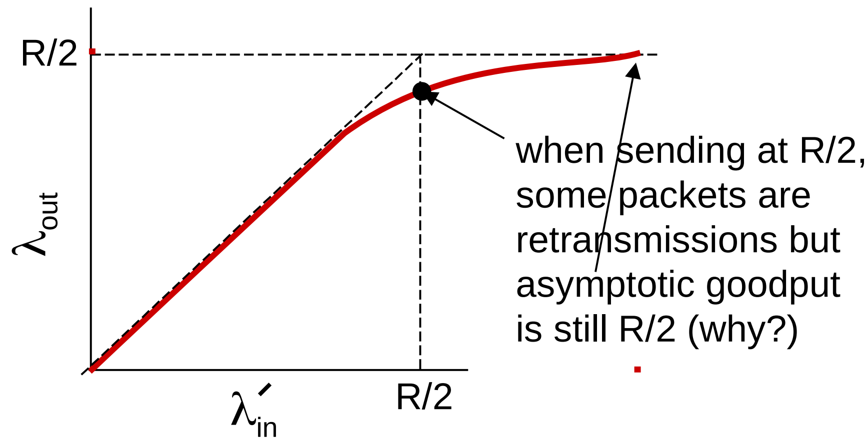
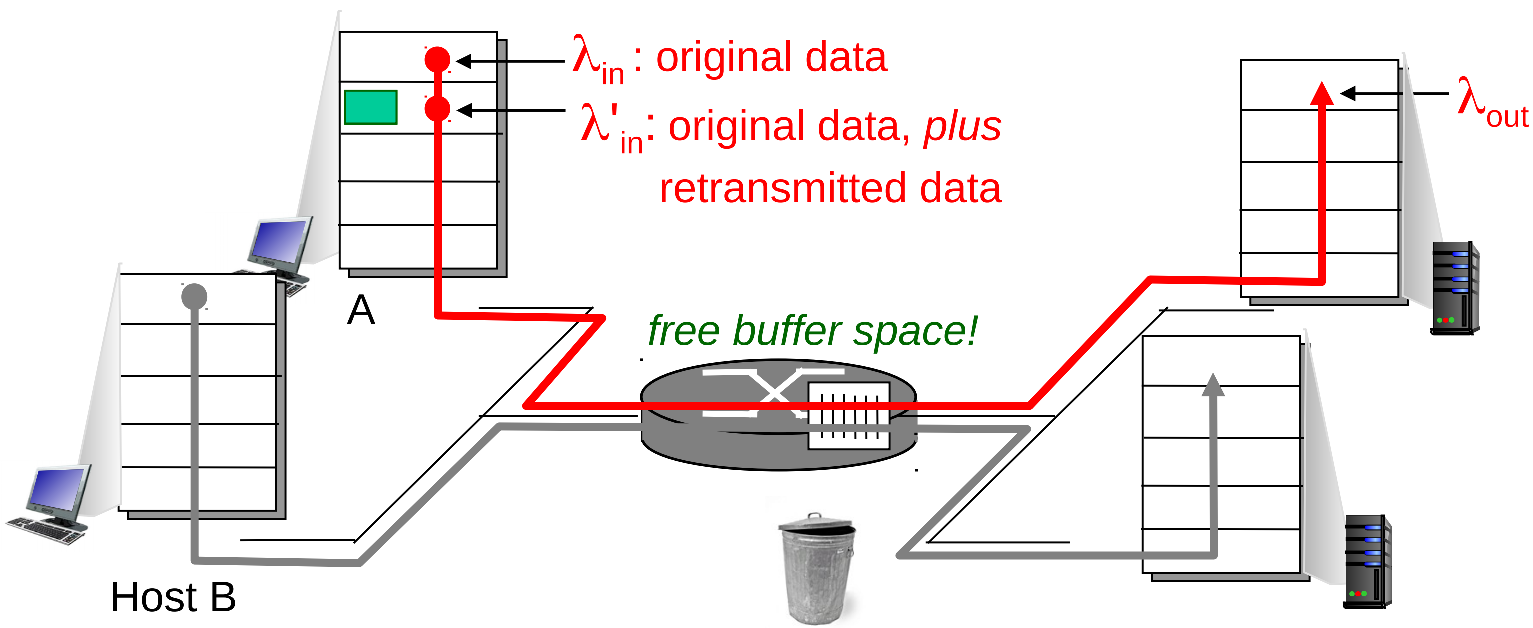
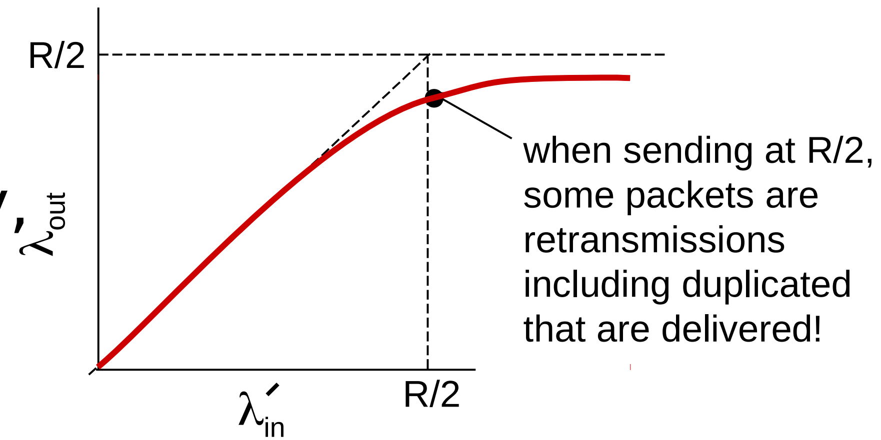


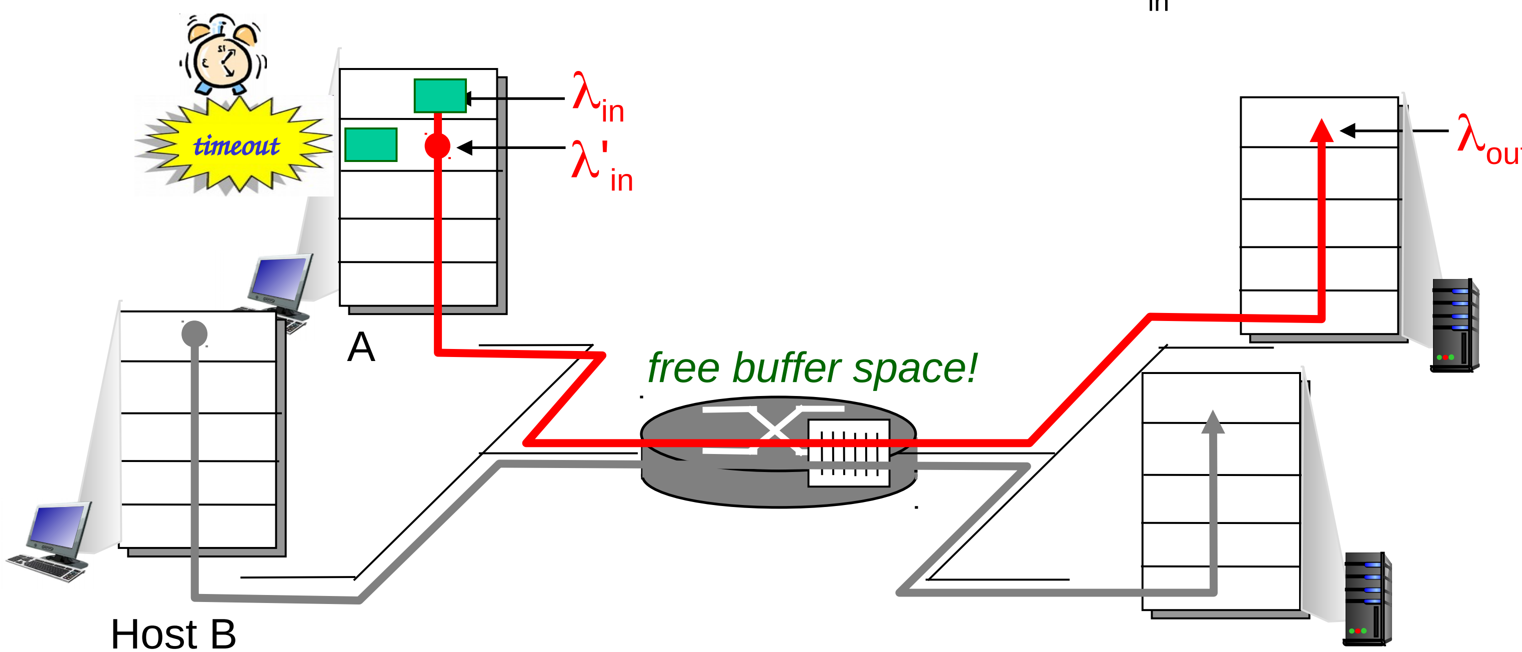


Causes/costs : scenario 2

Realistic: duplicates

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





Causes/costs of congestion: scenario 2

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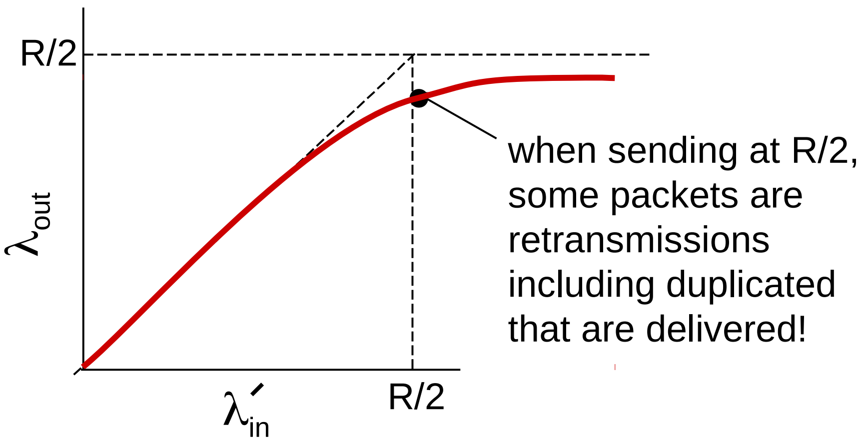


"costs" of congestion:

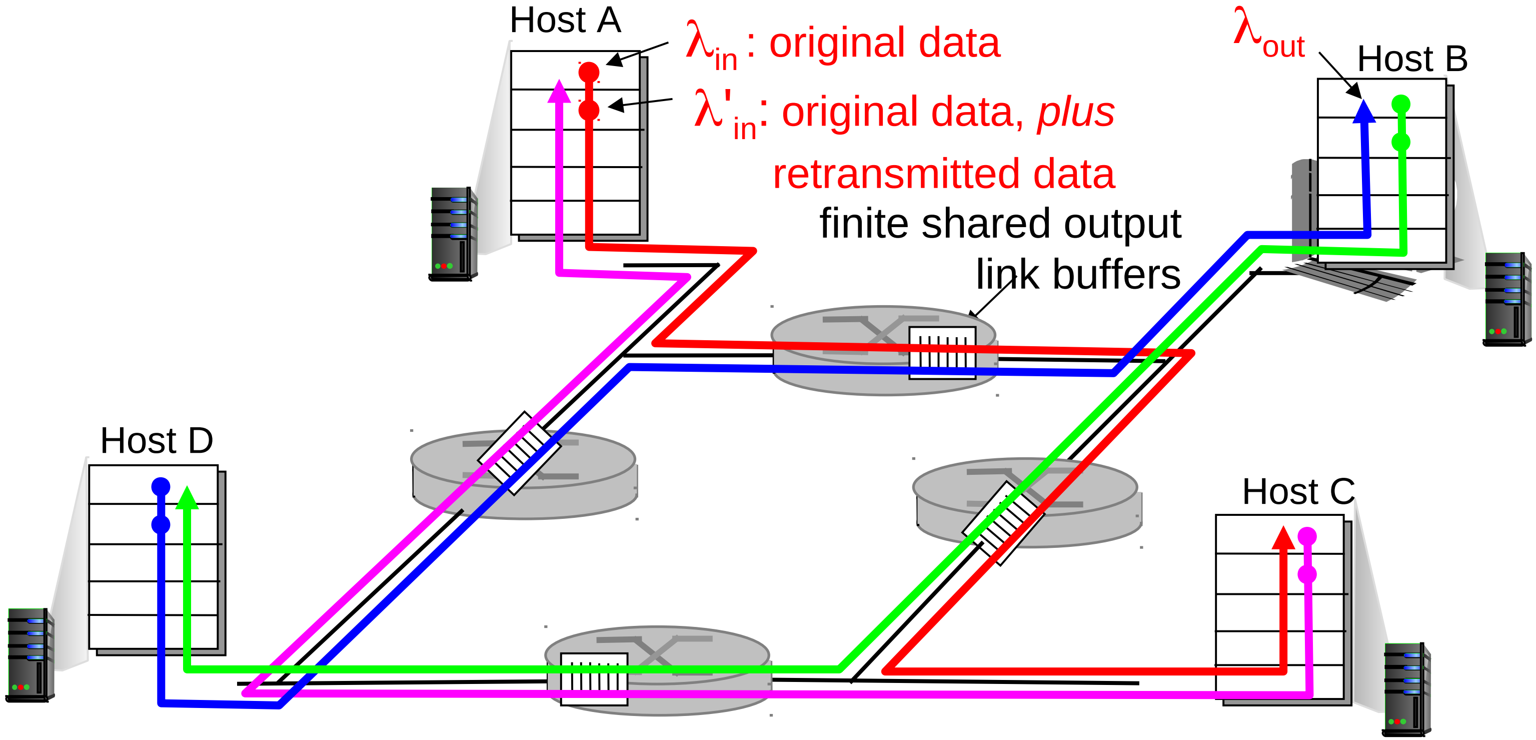
- more work (retrans) for given "goodput"
- unneeded retransmissions: link carries multiple copies of pkt
  - decreasing goodput

Causes/costs of congestion: scenario 3

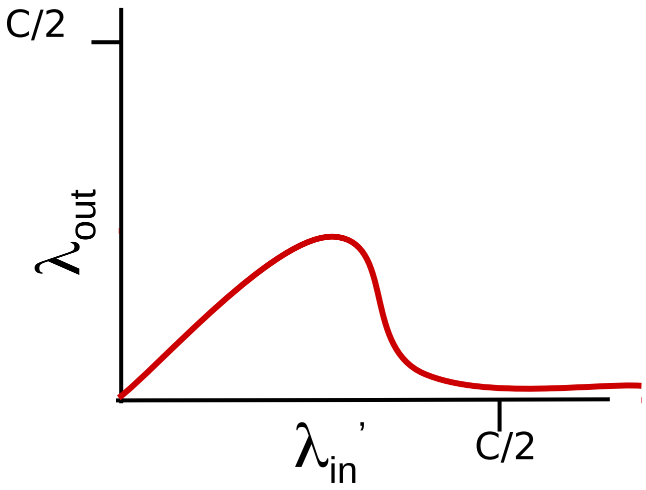
- four senders
- multihop paths
- timeout/retransmit

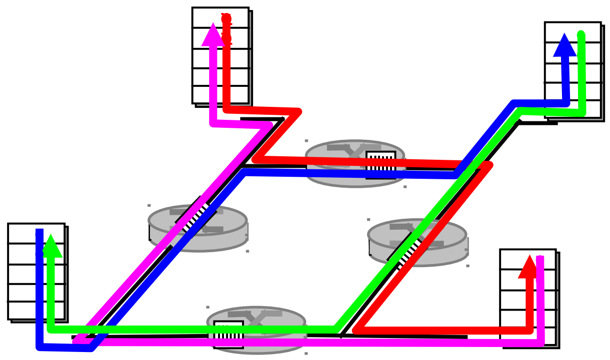
Q: what happens as λ_{in} and λ_{in}' increase ?

A: as red λ_{in}' increases, all arriving blue pkts at upper queue are dropped, blue throughput 0



Causes/costs of congestion: scenario 3





another "cost" of congestion:

- when packet dropped, any "upstream transmission capacity used for that packet was wasted!

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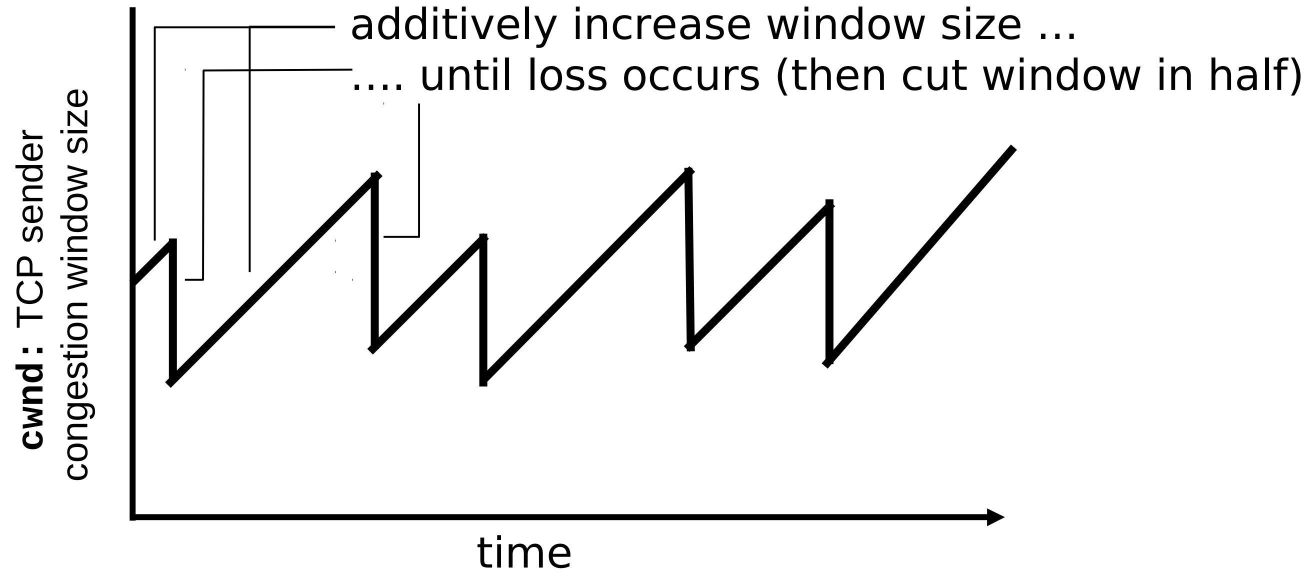
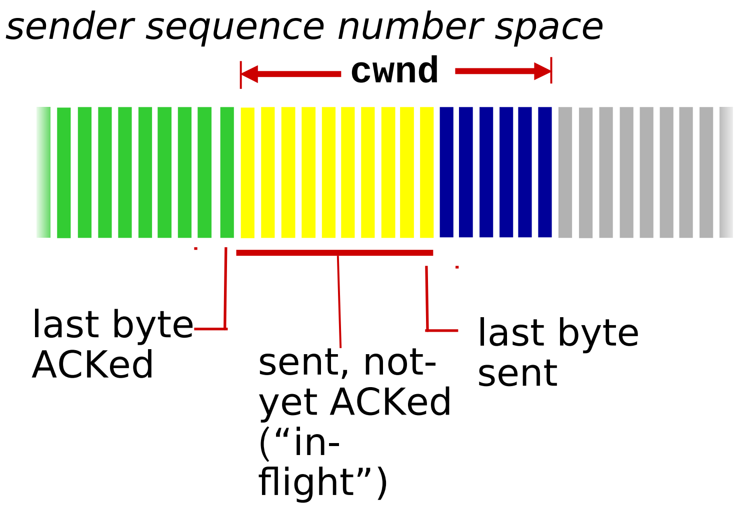
TCP congestion control: additive increase multiplicative decrease

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

AIMD saw tooth behavior: probing for bandwidth



TCP Congestion Control: details



- sender limits transmission:

$$\boxed{\texttt{LastByteSent-}\ \texttt{LastByteAcked} \le \texttt{cwnd}}$$

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

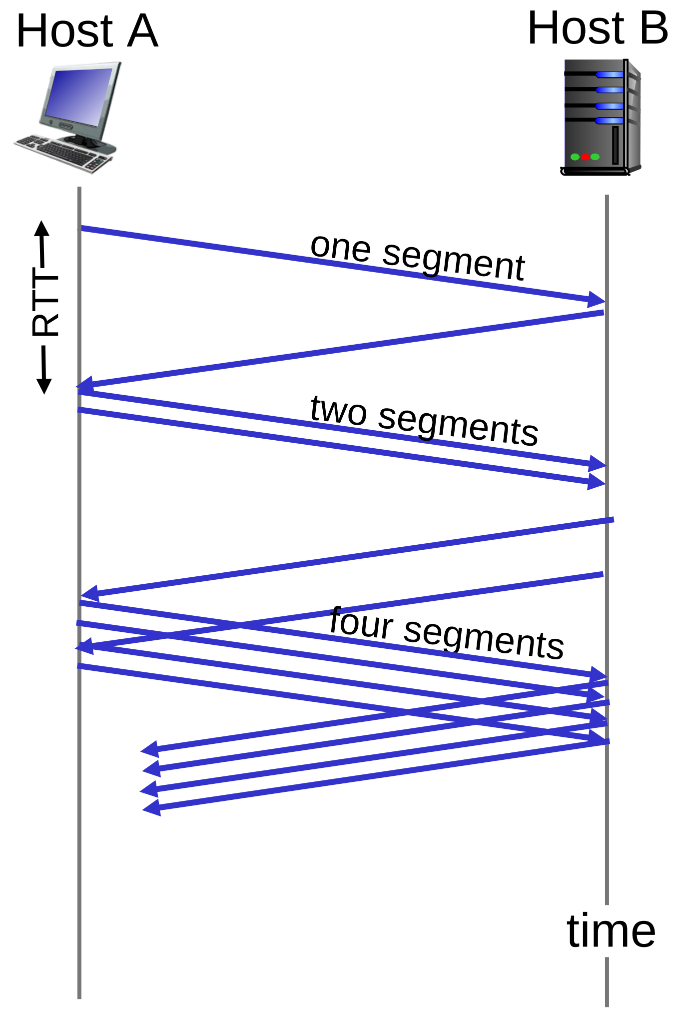
TCP sending rate:

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

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

TCP Slow Start

- when connection begins, increase rate exponentially until first loss event:
  - initially **cwnd** = 1 MSS
  - double **cwnd** every RTT
  - done by incrementing **cwnd** for every ACK received
- *summary:* initial rate is slow but ramps up exponentially fast



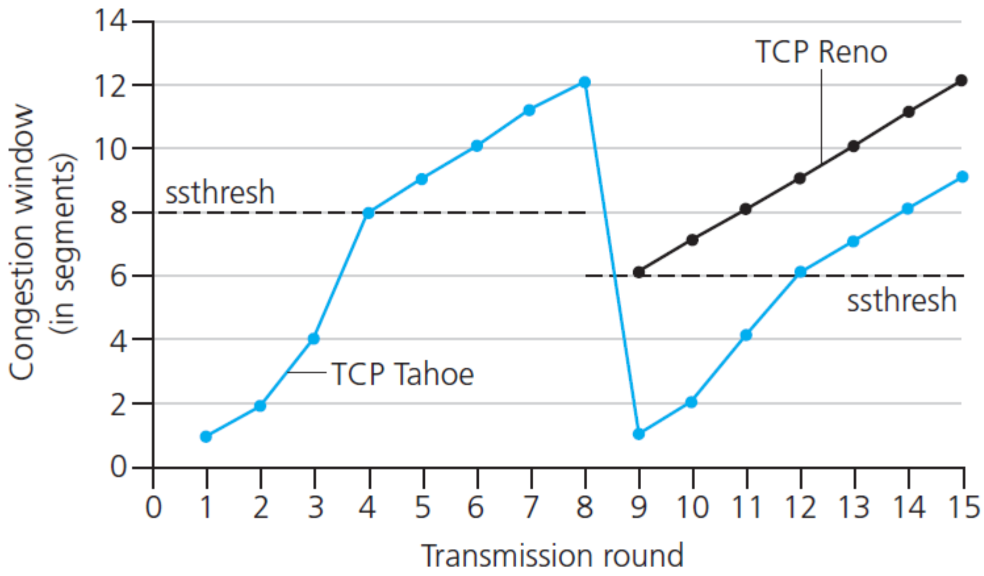
TCP: detecting, reacting to loss

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

TCP: switching from slow start to CA

Q: when should the exponential increase switch to linear?

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

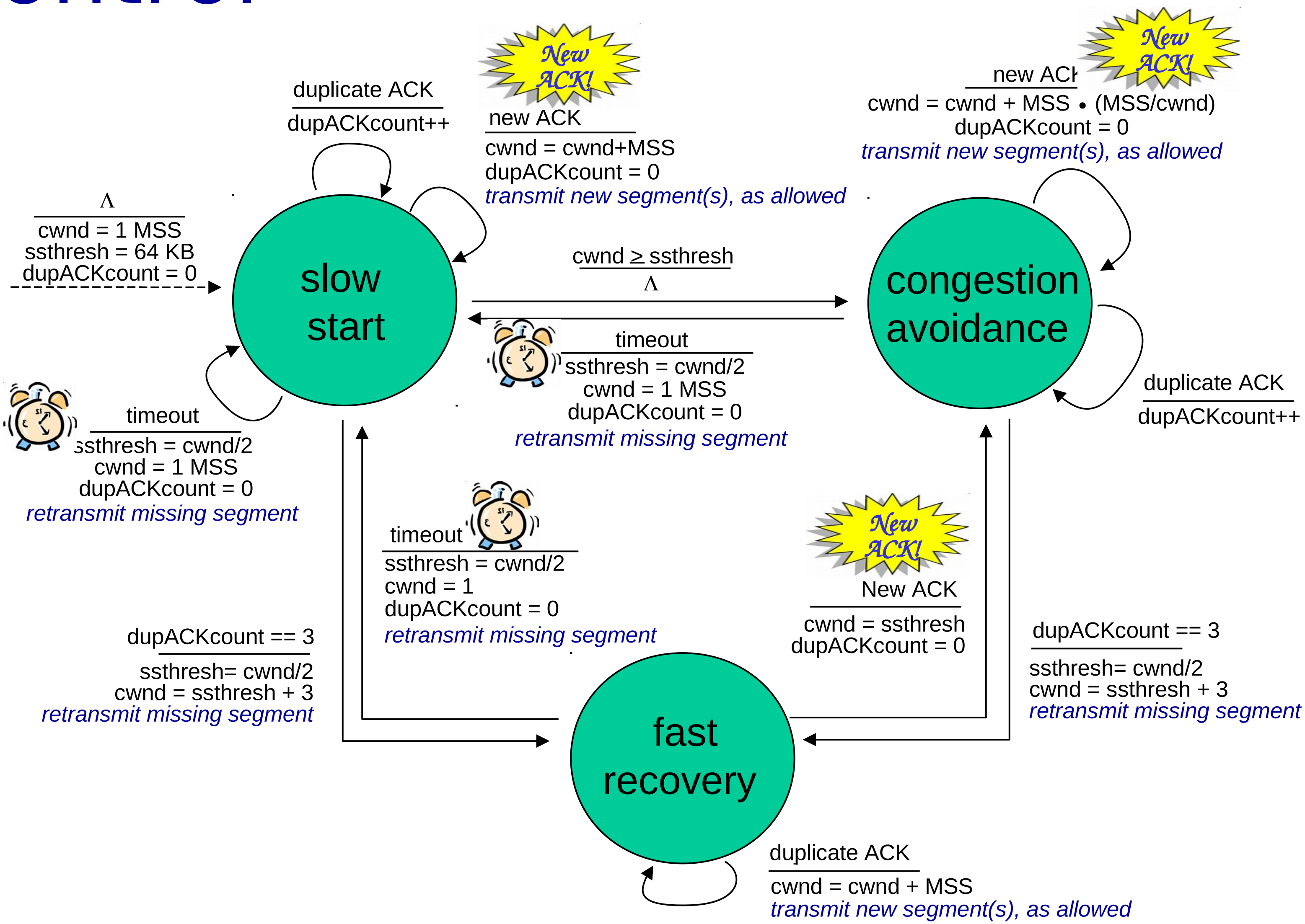


Implementation:

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

* Check out the online interactive exercises for more examples: http://gaia.cs.umass.edu/kurose_ross/interactive/

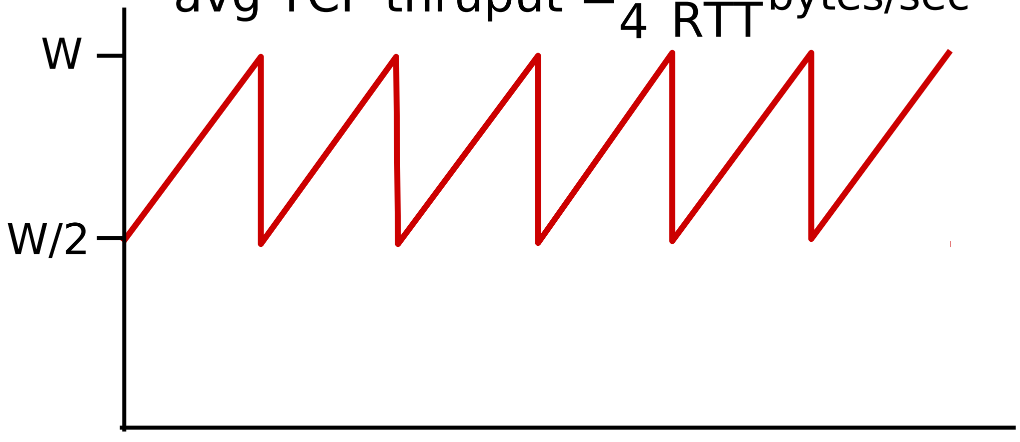
Summary: TCP Congestion Control



TCP throughput

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

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



TCP Futures: TCP over “long, fat pipes”

- example: 1500 byte segments, 100ms RTT, want 10 Gbps throughput
- requires W = 83,333 in-flight segments
- throughput in terms of segment loss probability, L [Mathis 1997]:

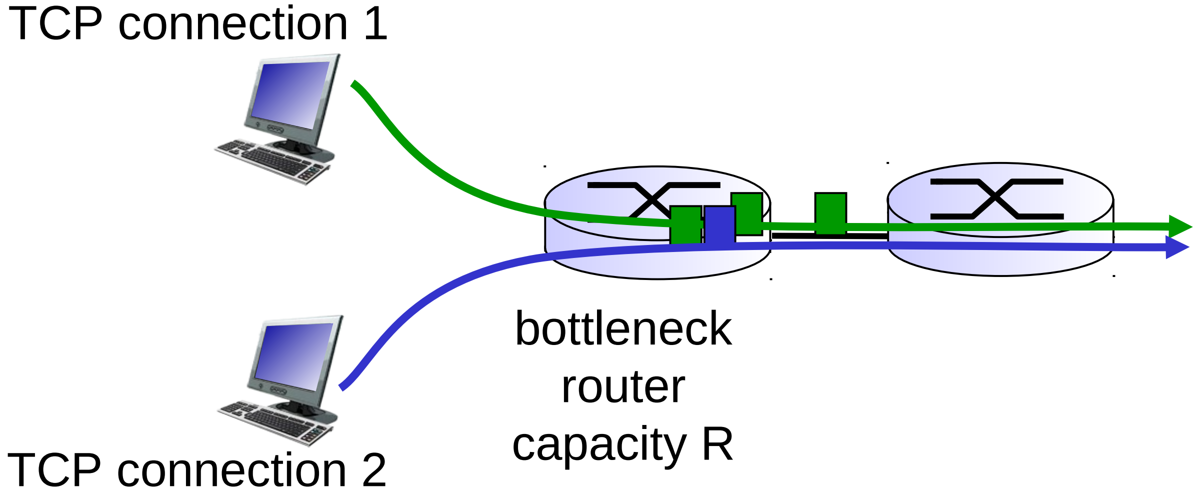
$$\text{TCP throughput} = \frac{1.22 \cdot MSS}{RTT\sqrt{L}}$$

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

- new versions of TCP for high-speed

TCP Fairness

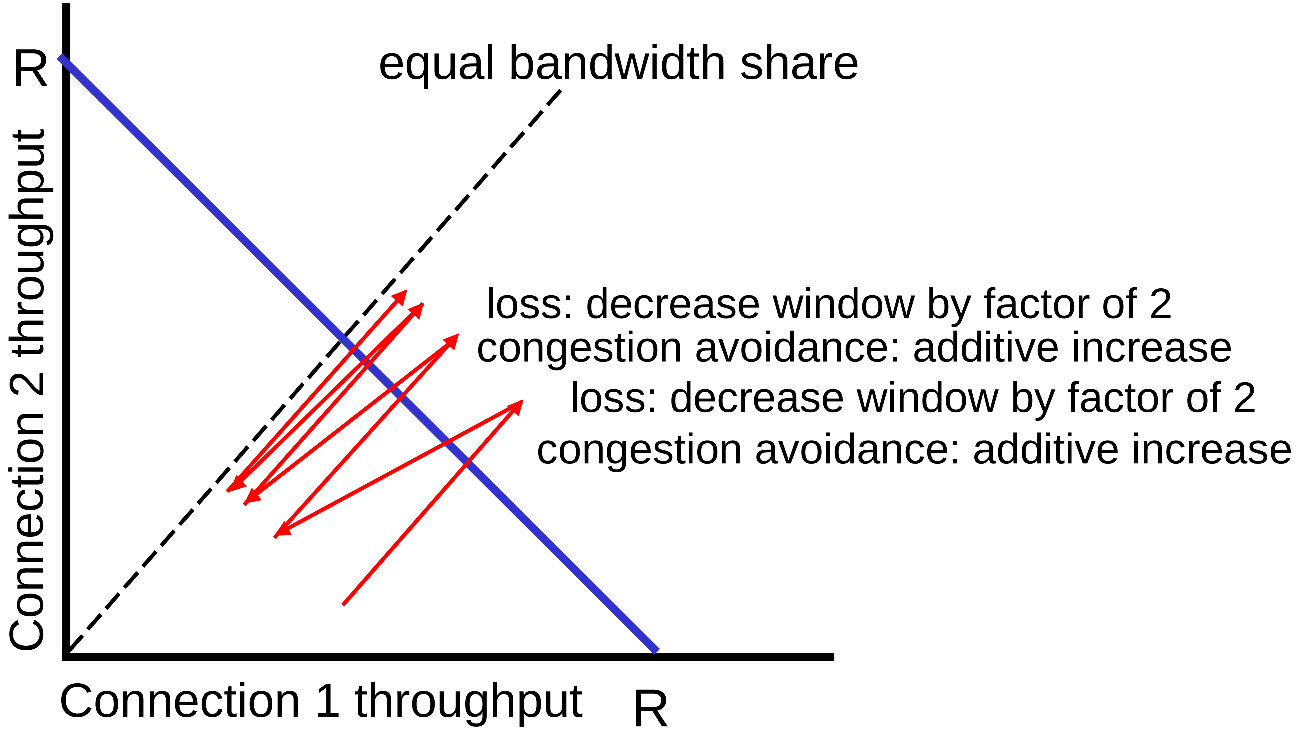
fairness goal: if K TCP sessions share same bottleneck link of bandwidth R, each should have average rate of R/K



Why is TCP fair?

two competing sessions:

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



Fairness (more)

Fairness and UDP

- multimedia apps often do not use TCP
  - do not want rate throttled by congestion control
- instead use UDP:
  - send audio/video at constant rate, tolerate packet loss

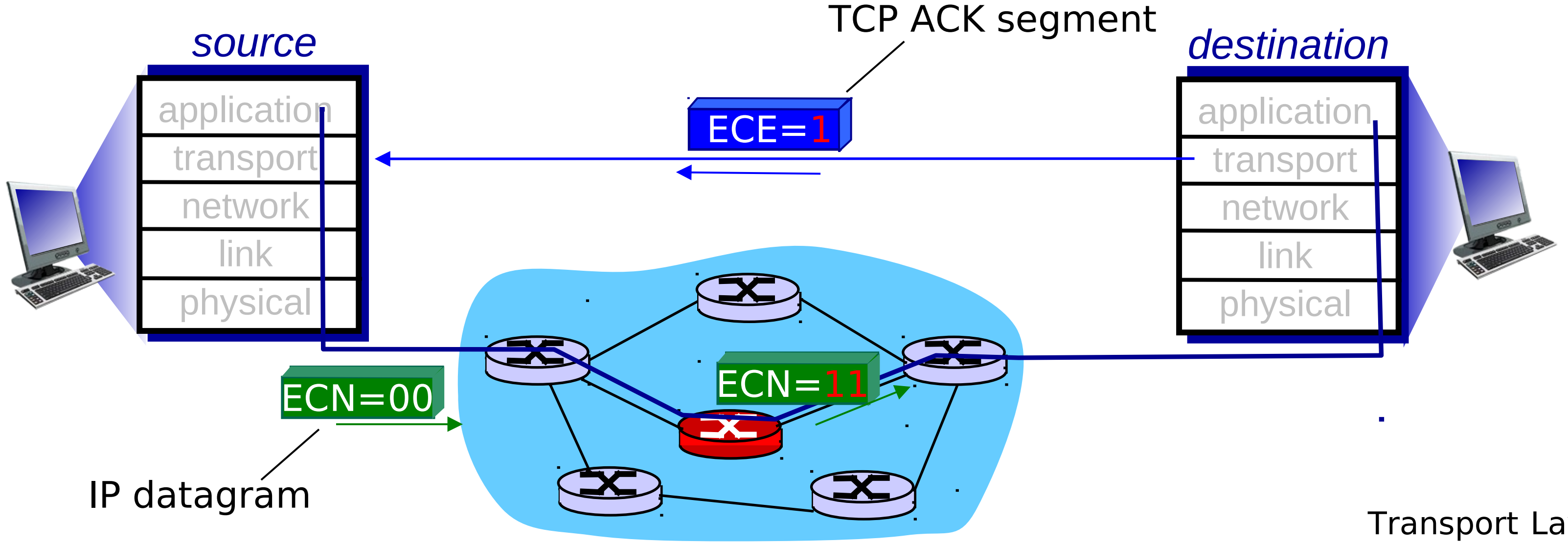
Fairness, parallel TCP connections

- application can open multiple parallel connections between two hosts
- web browsers do this
- e.g., link of rate R with 9 existing connections:
  - new app asks for 1 TCP, gets rate R/10
  - new app asks for 11 TCPs, gets R/2

Explicit Congestion Notification (ECN)

network-assisted congestion control:

- two bits in IP header (ToS field) marked *by network router* to indicate congestion
- congestion indication carried to receiving host
- receiver (seeing congestion indication in IP datagram)) sets ECE bit on receiver-to-sender ACK segment to notify sender of congestion



Chapter 3: summary

- principles behind transport layer services:
  - multiplexing, demultiplexing
  - reliable data transfer
  - flow control
  - congestion control
- instantiation, implementation in the Internet
  - UDP
  - TCP

next:

- leaving the network "edge" (application, transport layers)
- into the network "core"
- two network layer chapters:
  - data plane
  - control plane