

# Internet Technology and Applications - EITF25 -

## Summary Lecture

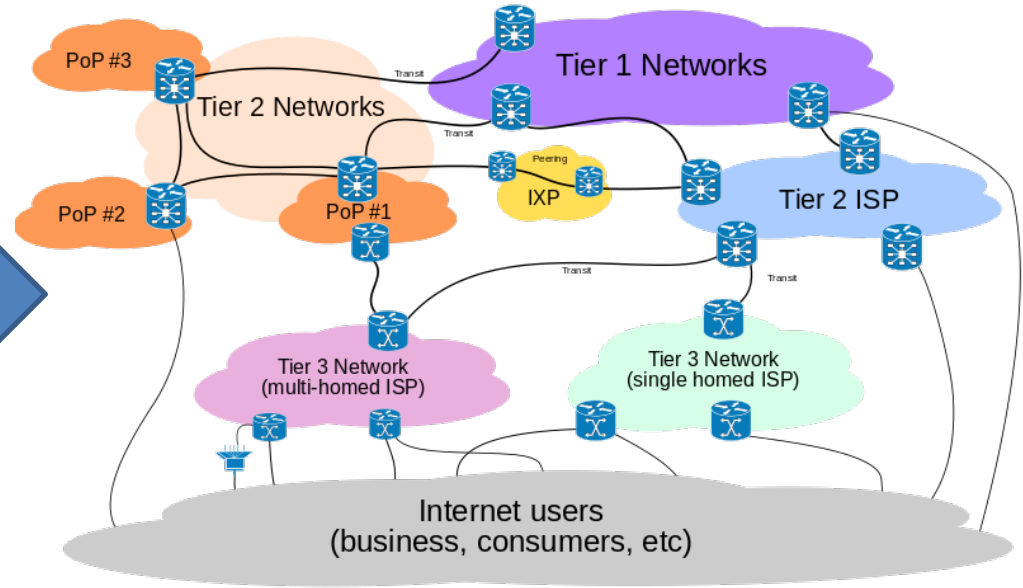
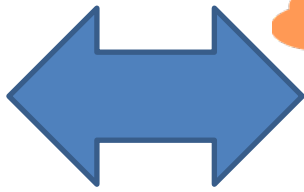
Kaan Bür, 2015

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Room E:3130 (Monday, Friday)

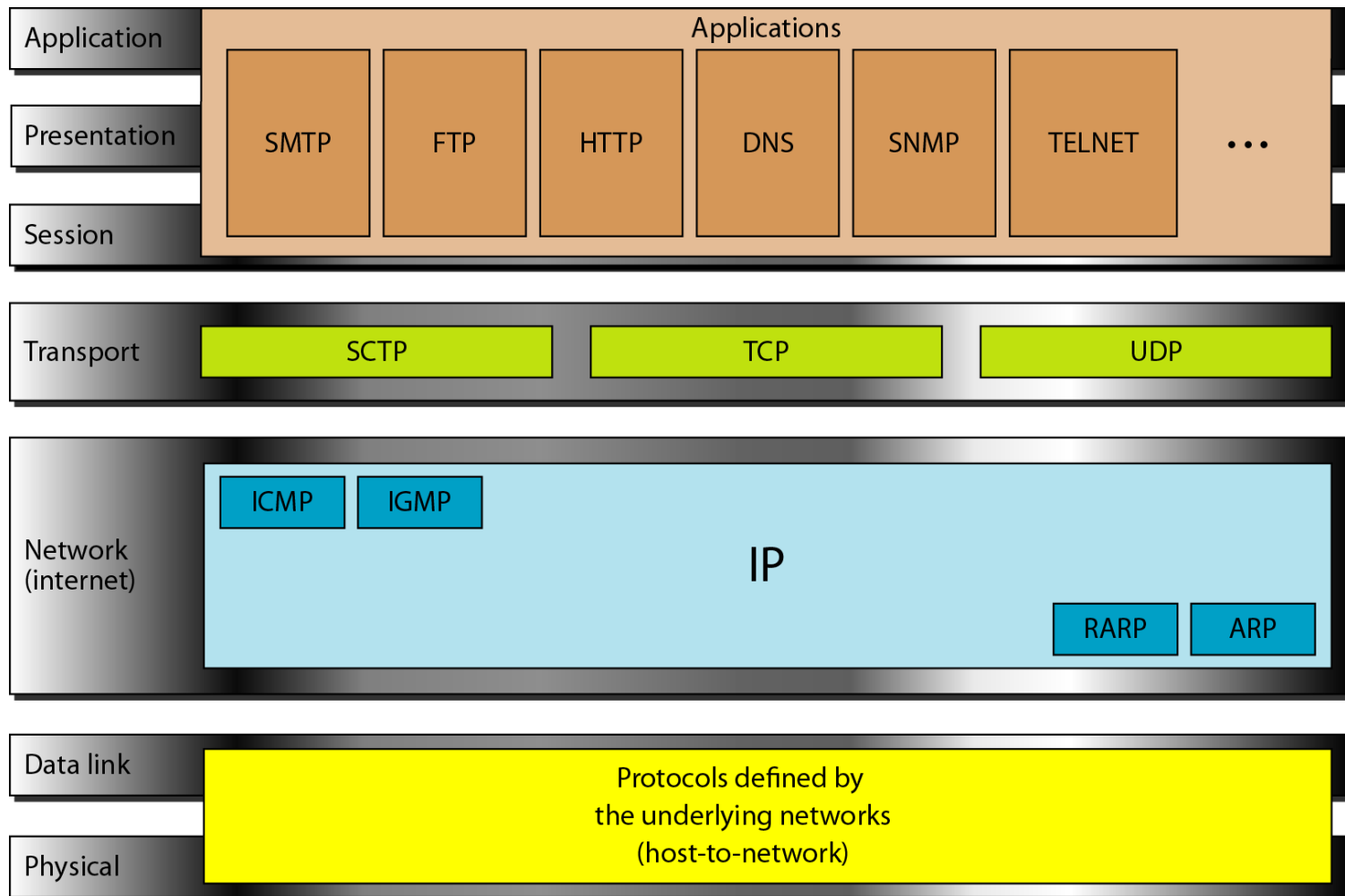


# What is Internet?



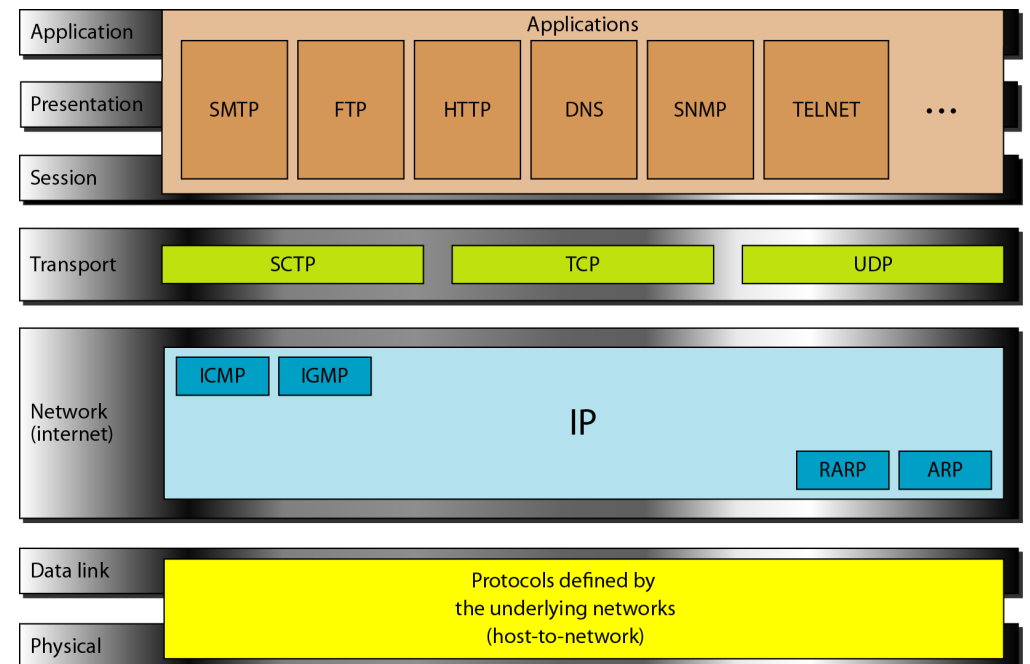
# TCP/IP model

- Developed by DARPA, 1970~



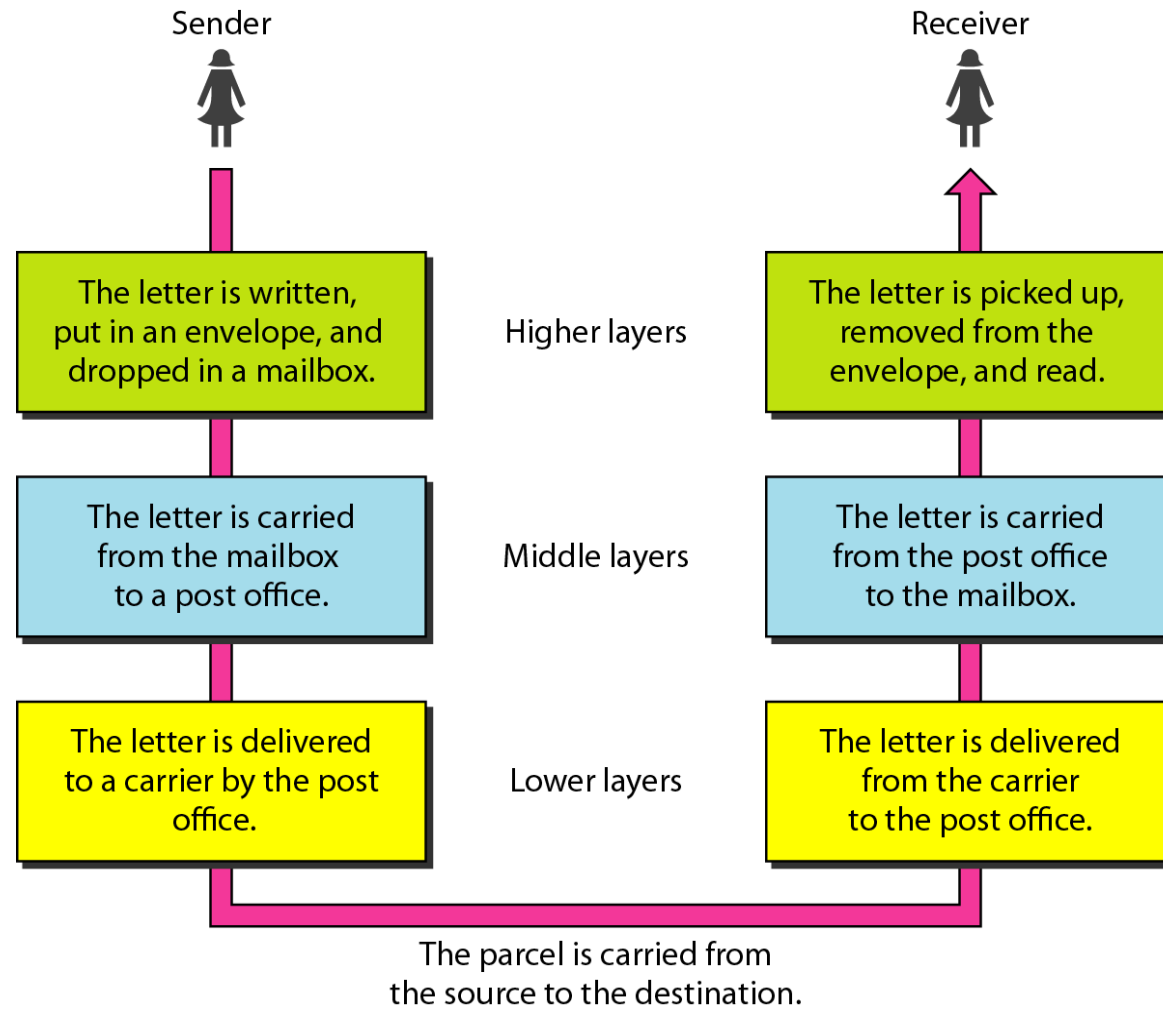
# A bottom-up approach

- Principles of digital communications
  - From electrical signals to bits to packets
- Using the physical infrastructure
  - Network access
- Finding your way
  - Addressing, routing
- Making use of it all
  - Applications





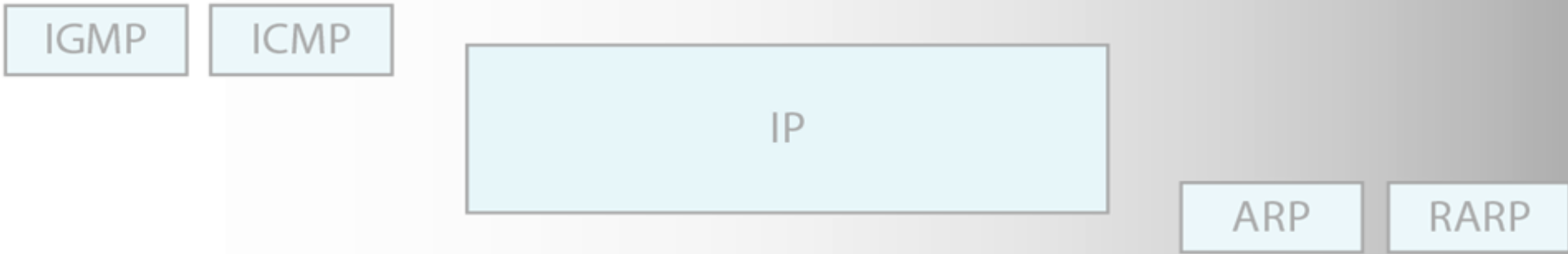
# Layer concept



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## Physical Layer



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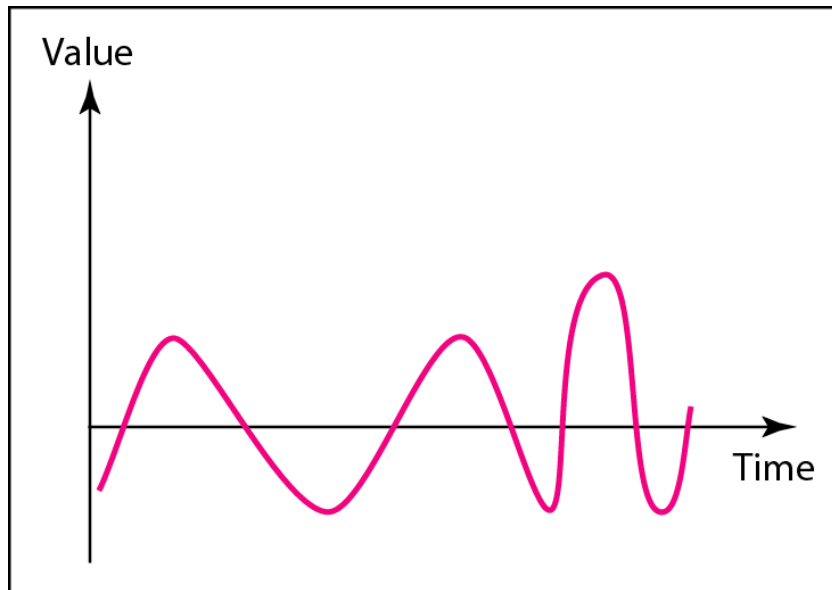
Underlying LAN or WAN technology

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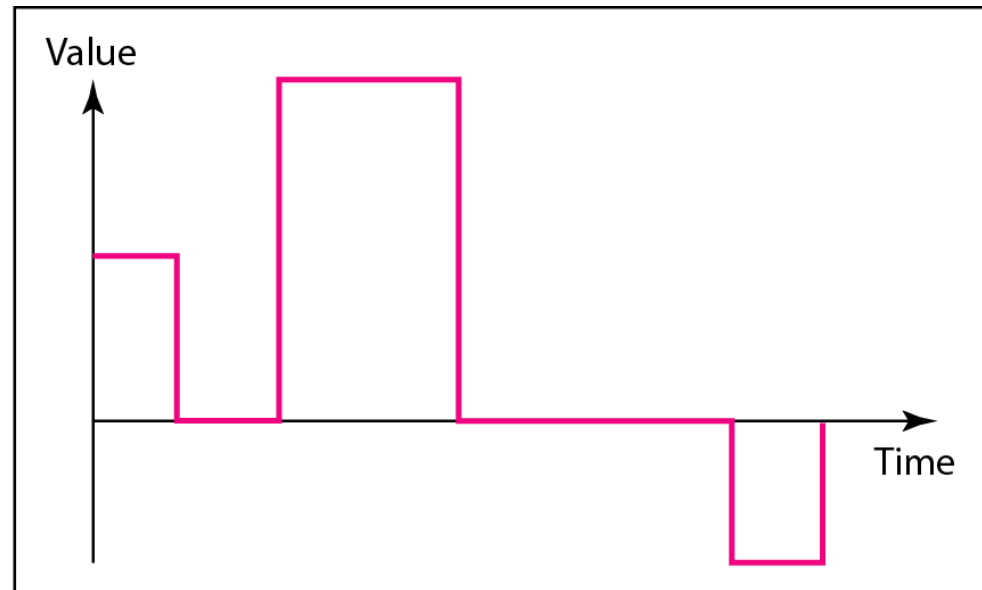


# Analog vs Digital

- Analog → continuous
- Digital → discrete



a. Analog signal



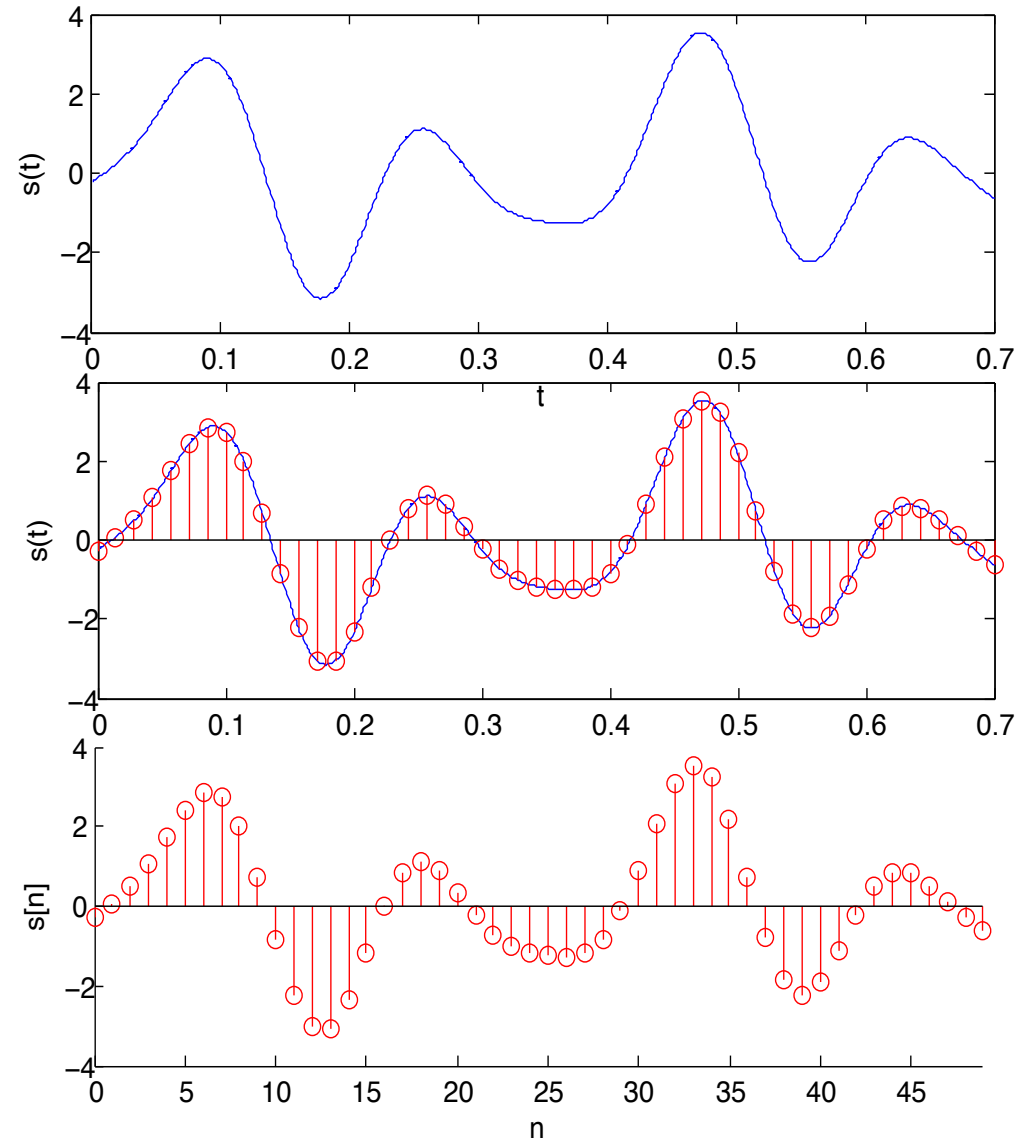
b. Digital signal

# Digitalization of analog signals

- Performed in three steps:
  1. Sampling
    - Discretization in time
  2. Quantization
    - Discretization in amplitude
  3. Encoding
    - Binary representation of amplitude levels

# Sampling

- The process of discretizing the time of a continuous function.



# Nyquist Sampling Theorem

- If  $s(t)$  is a band limited signal with highest frequency component  $F_{max}$ , then  $s(t)$  is uniquely determined by the samples  $s_n = s(nT)$  if and only if

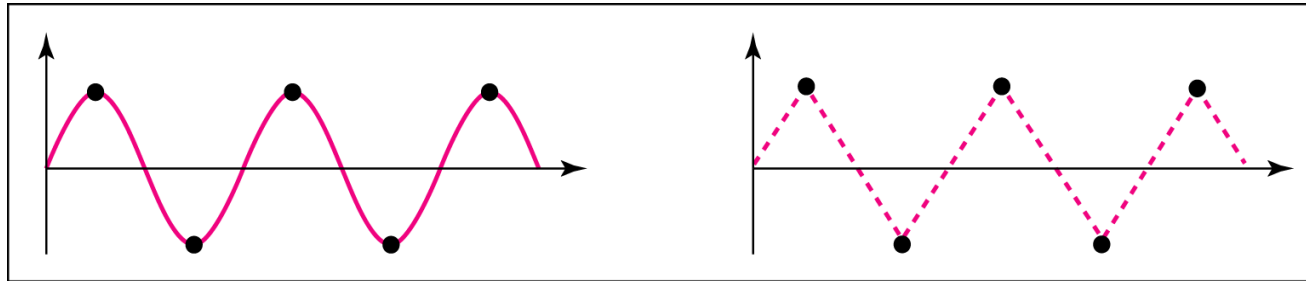
$$F_s = \frac{1}{T} \geq 2F_{max}$$

- The signal can be reconstructed with

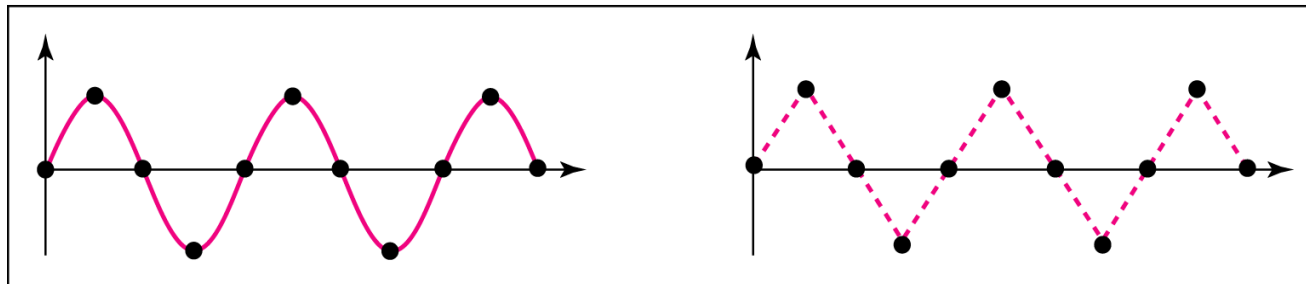
$$s(t) = \sum_n s_n \operatorname{sinc}\left(\frac{t-nT}{T}\right)$$

- $F_{max}$  is the Nyquist frequency and  $F_s$  the Nyquist rate

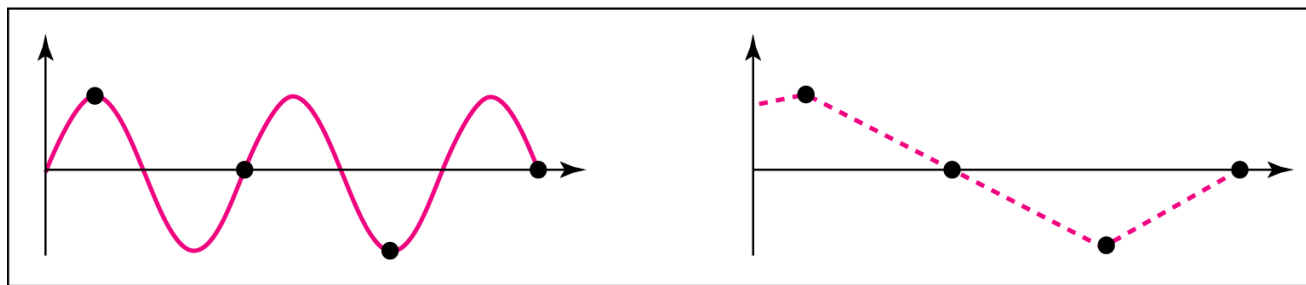
# How sampling rate affects the result



a. Nyquist rate sampling:  $f_s = 2 f$



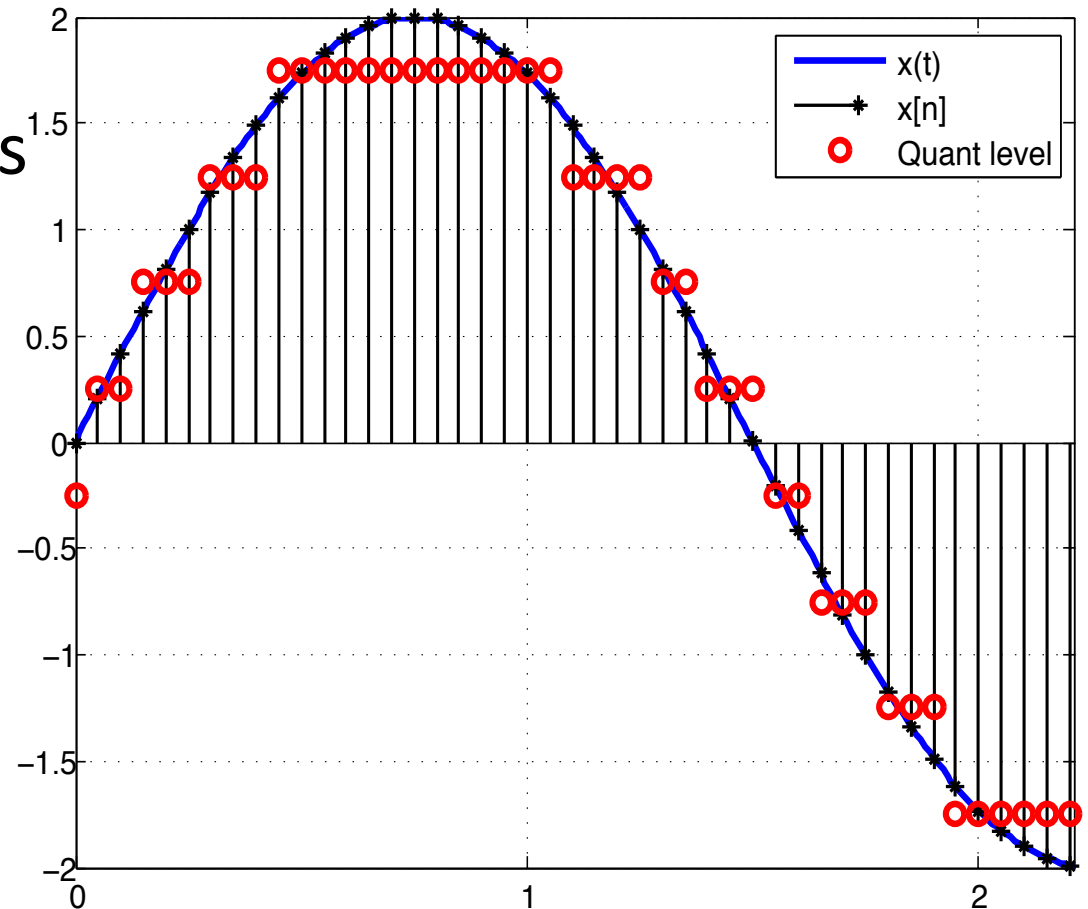
b. Oversampling:  $f_s = 4 f$



c. Undersampling:  $f_s = f$

# Quantization

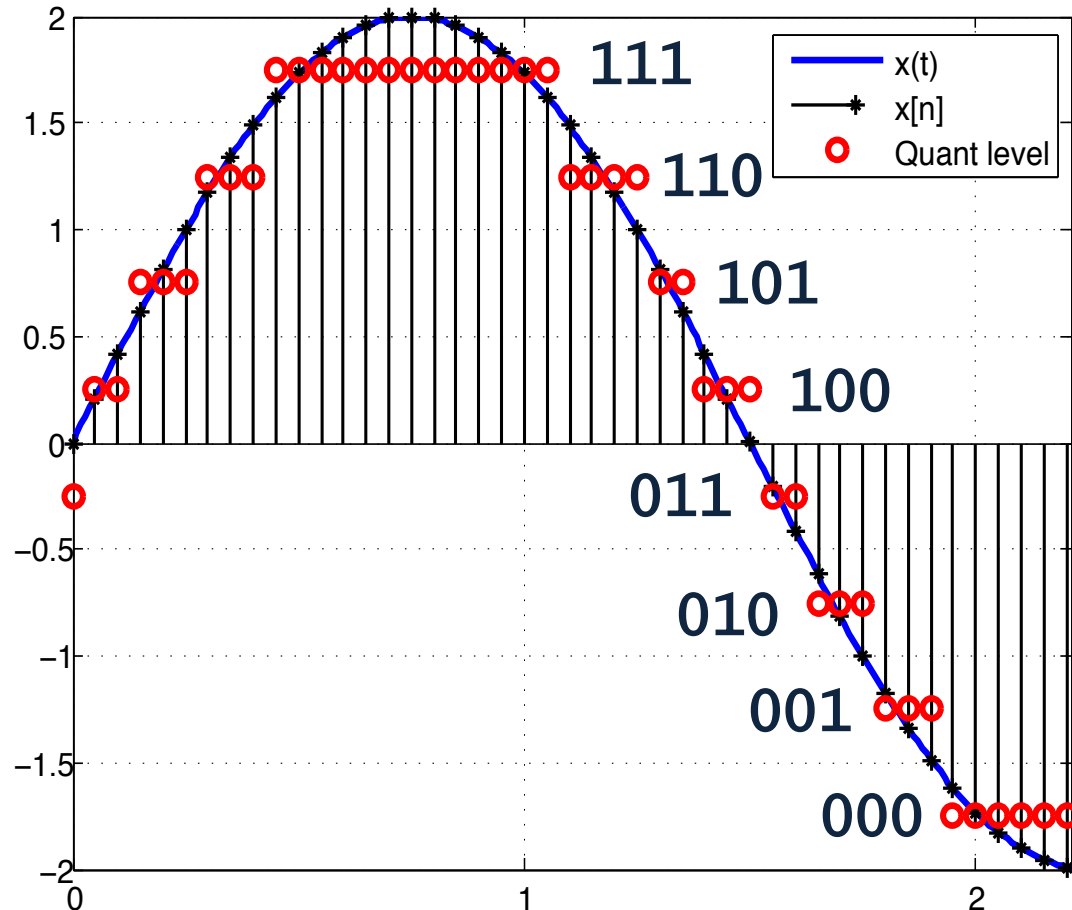
- Linear Quantization
  - $2^N$  equidistant levels
  - Represent sample with N bits
- Telephony
  - $N=8 \rightarrow 256$  levels
- CD
  - $N=16 \rightarrow 65\,536$  levels





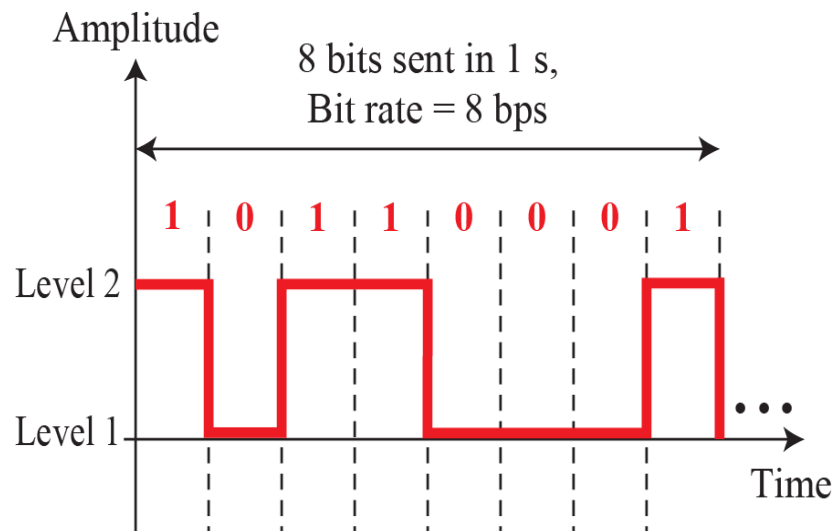
# Encoding

- Representation of quantized samples in bits

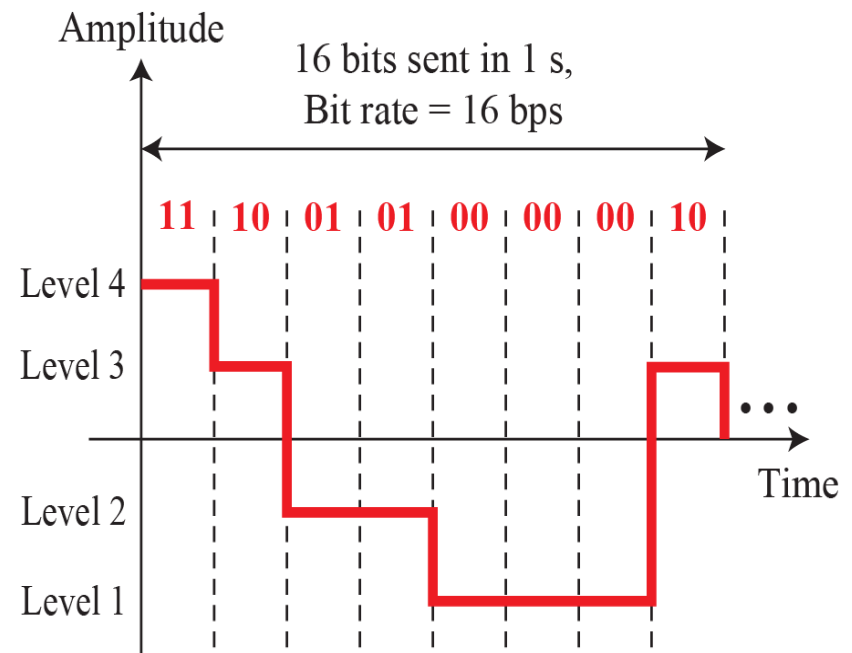


# Digital signal transmission

- Signals coded by changes in voltage amplitude



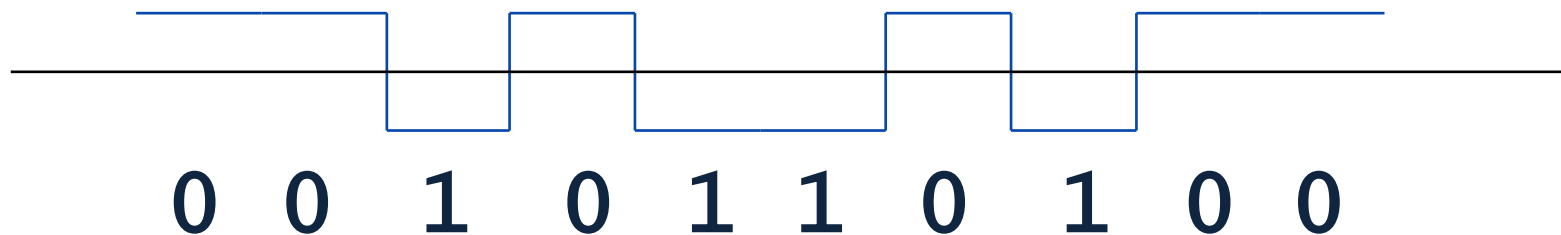
a. A digital signal with two levels



b. A digital signal with four levels

# Non-Return-to-Zero (NRZ-L)

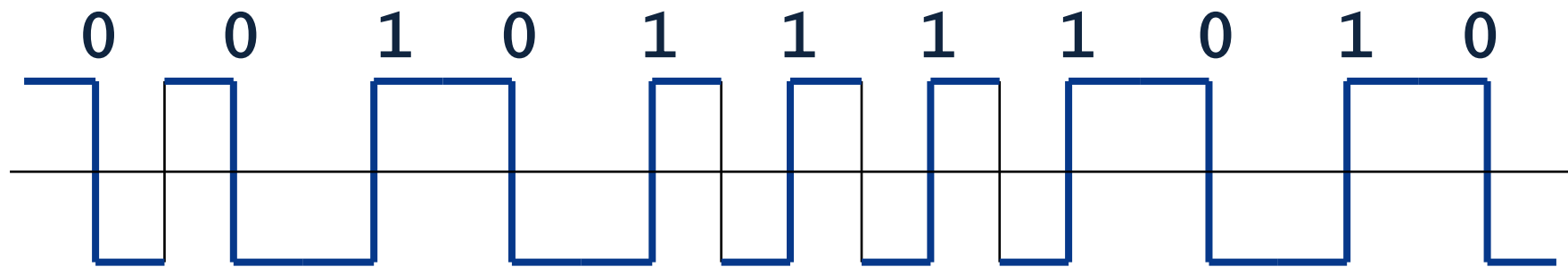
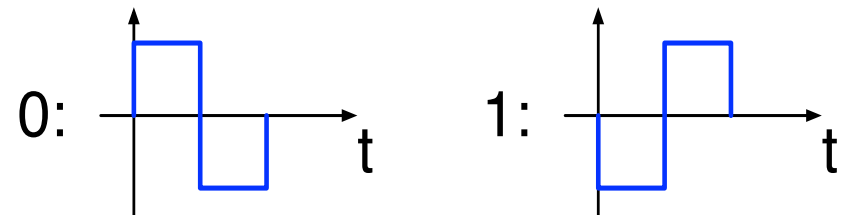
- 0 = high voltage amplitude
- 1 = low voltage amplitude



- Twice as bandwidth-efficient than RZ
- Synchronisation problem

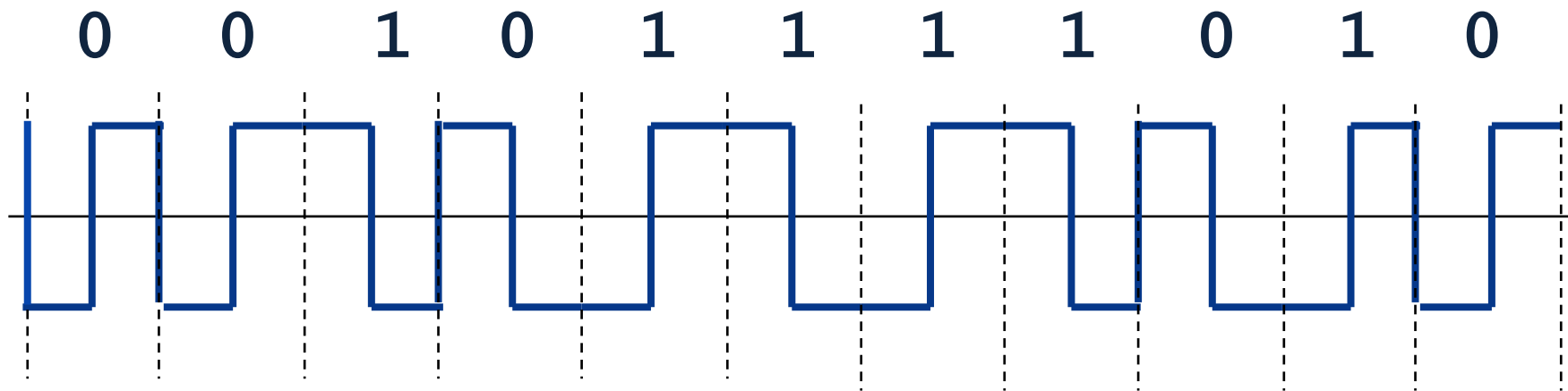
# Manchester Coding

- Combines NRZ with a clock pulse



# Differential Manchester

- 0 = Inversion at the beginning of the bit
- 1 = No inversion at the beginning of the bit



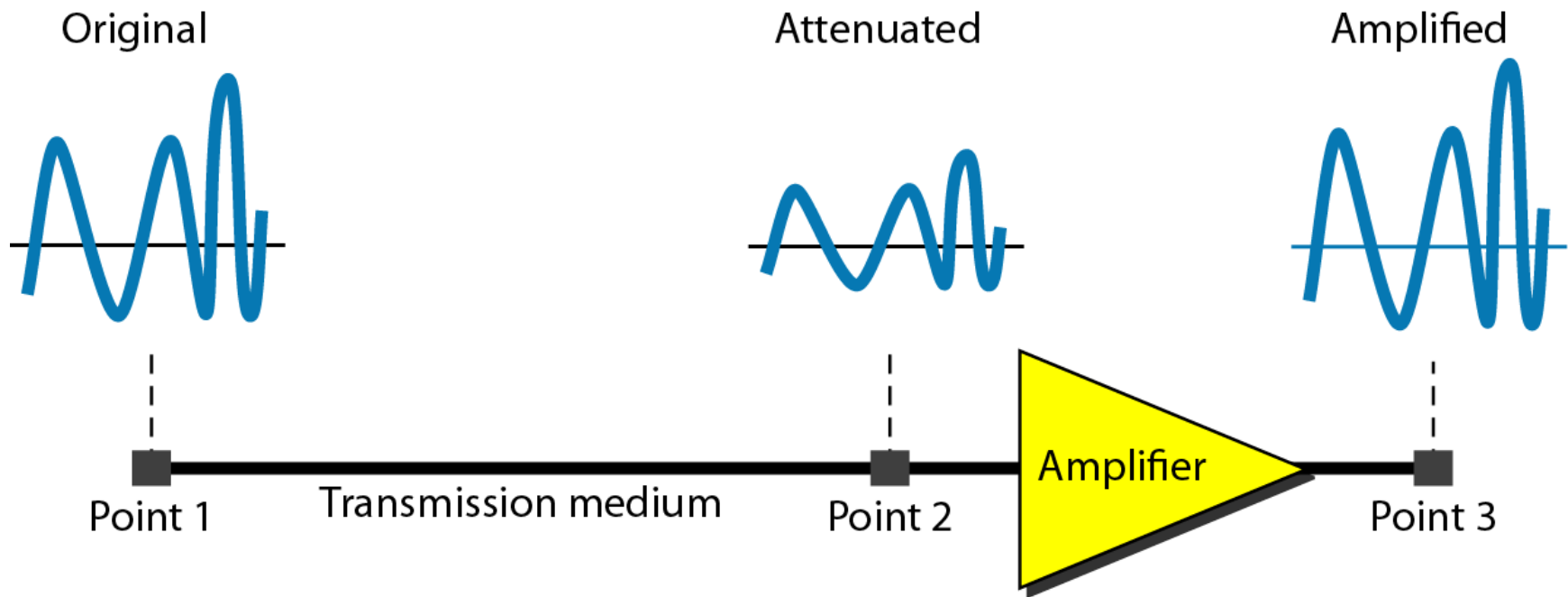
# Transmission impairment

- When a signal travels on a link, it deteriorates due to transmission impairment.
  - Attenuation
  - Distortion
  - Noise
- Digital: repeaters vs. Analog: amplifiers

$$\text{Signal-to-noise ratio (SNR)} = \frac{\text{Average signal power}}{\text{Average noise power}}$$

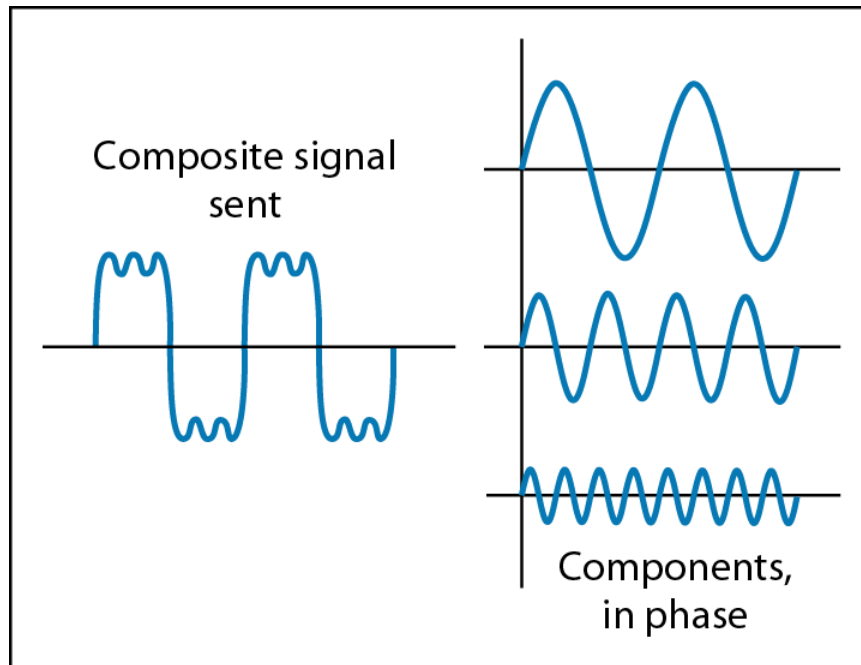
# Attenuation

- Loss of energy

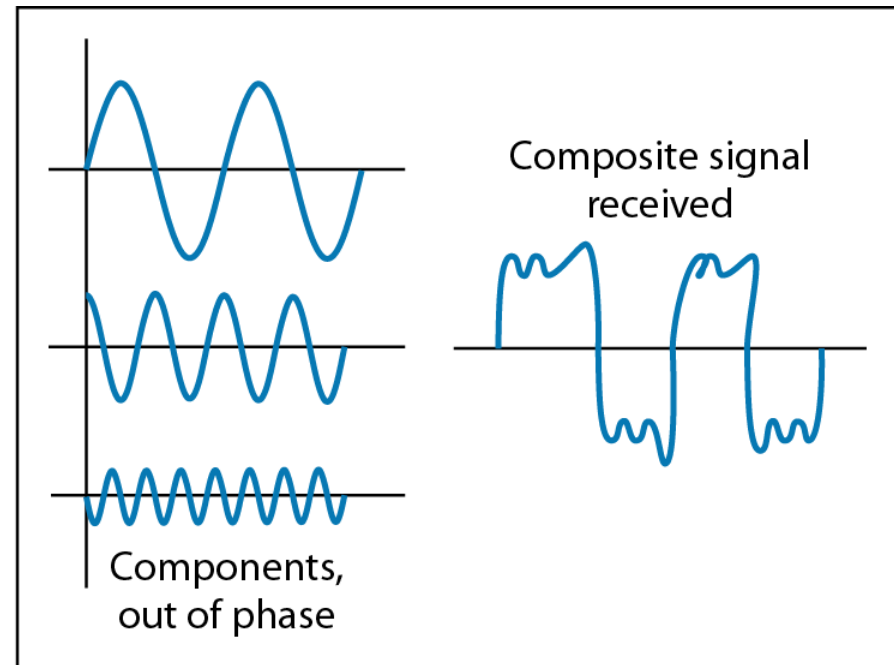


# Distortion

- Change in signal shape due to differences in propagation delay



At the sender

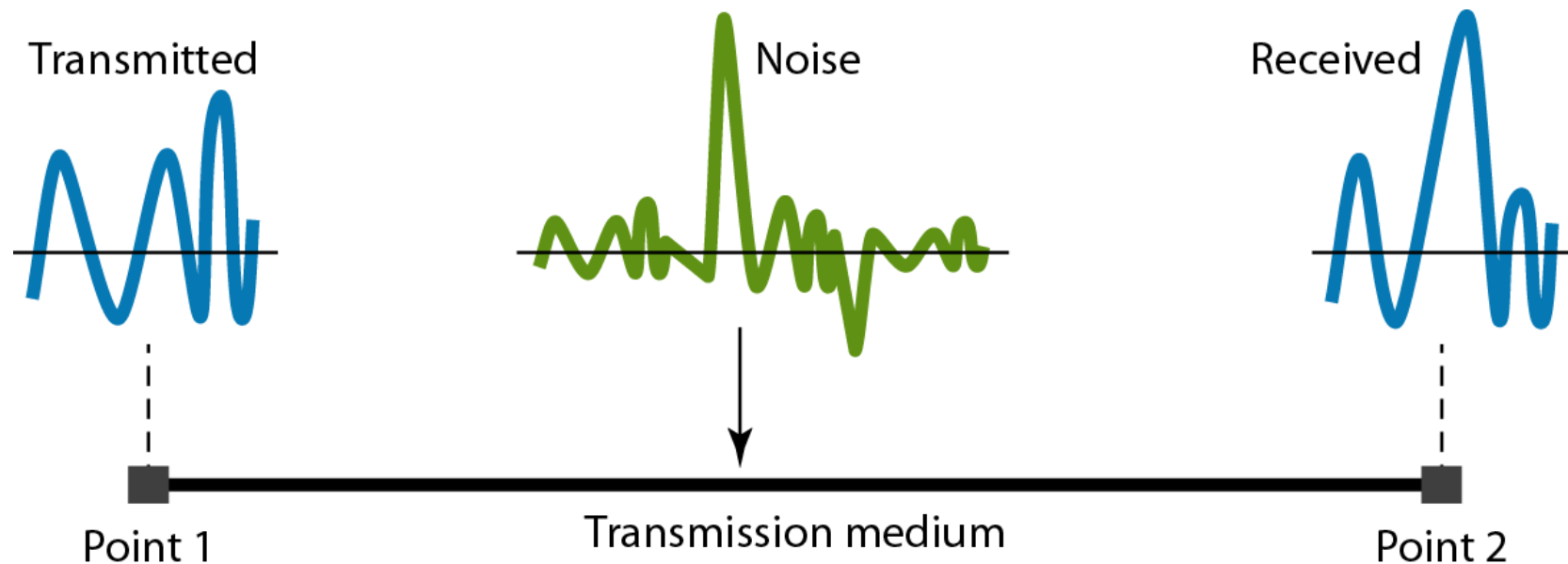


At the receiver



# Noise

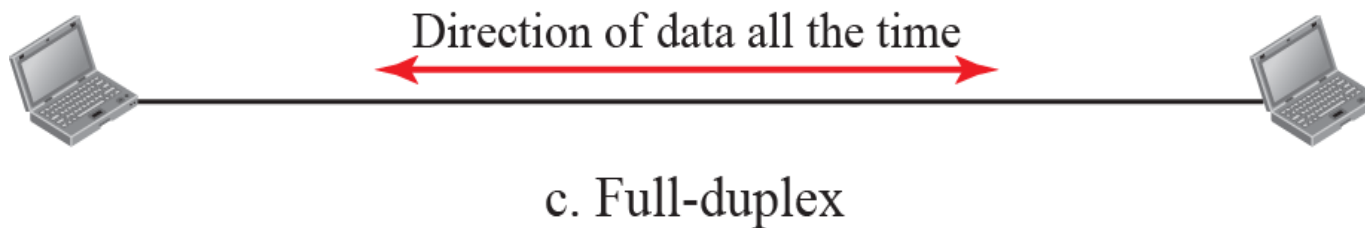
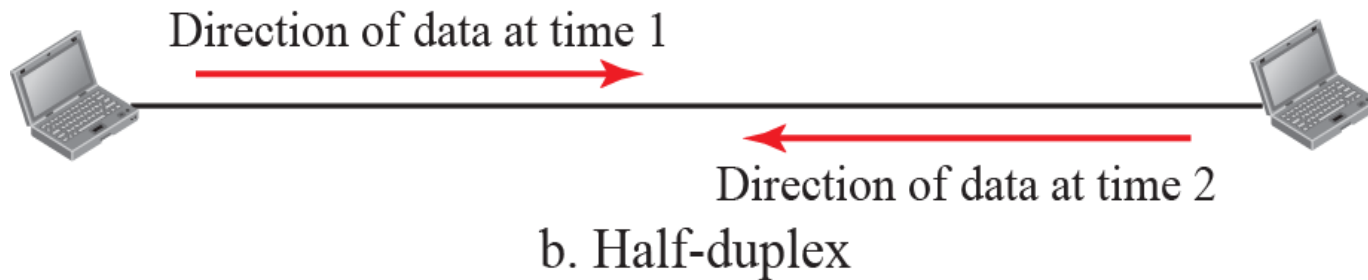
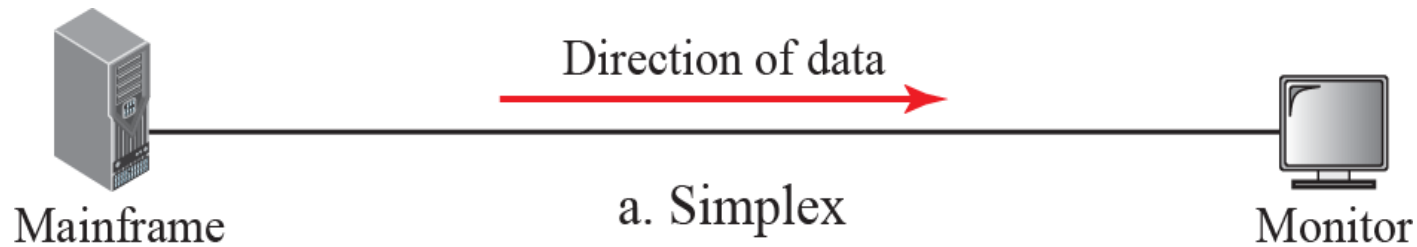
- Corruption due to e.g. thermal noise (a.k.a. white noise) or crosstalk



# Digital transmission

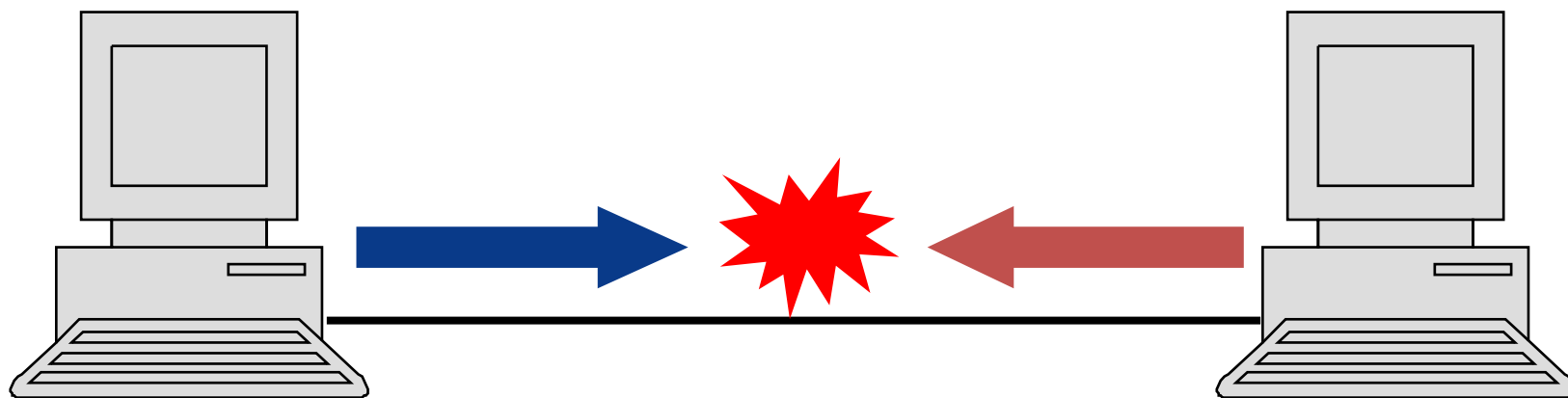
- Preferred method today
  - Data mostly digital
  - Repeaters better than amplifiers
  - Digital multiplexing easier than analog
  - Security implementations easier

# Data flow concepts



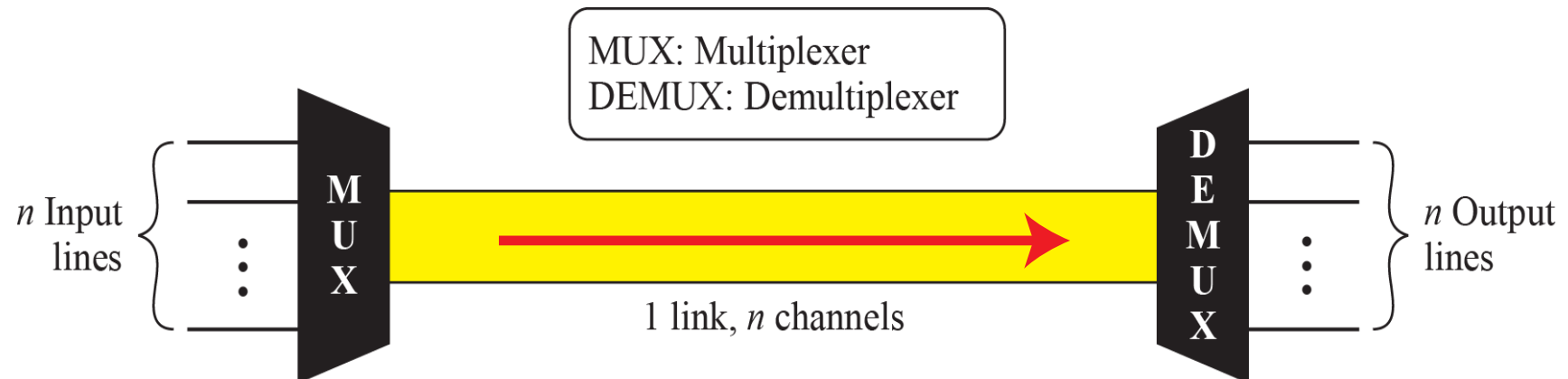
# Multiplexing

- Why?
  - Two computers transmitting data on a link cannot do this simultaneously on the same frequencies with the same coding scheme.



# Multiplexing of links

- Physical links need to be shared.
- They are divided into several channels.



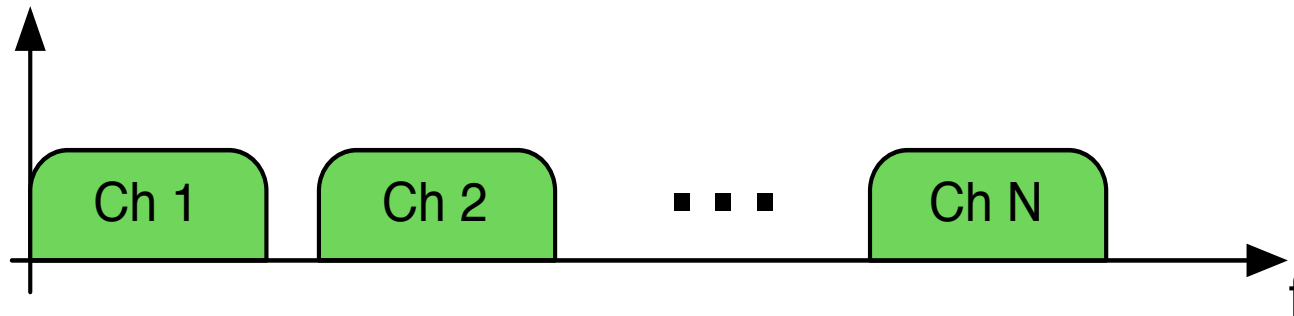
# Space-Division Multiplexing (SDM)

- Used in fibre-optic cables
- Each channel uses one optical fibre.



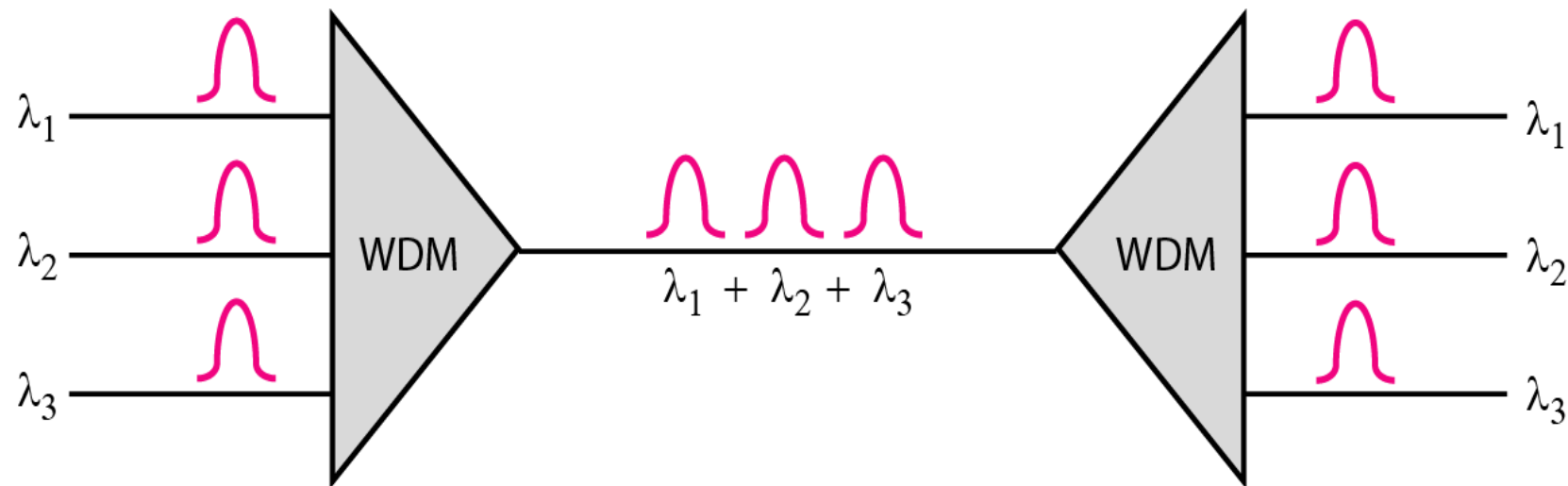
# Frequency-Division Multiplexing (FDM)

- Analog multiplexing technique
- Physical link divided into frequency bands
- Each channel uses a unique carrier frequency.



# Wavelength-Division Multiplexing (WDM)

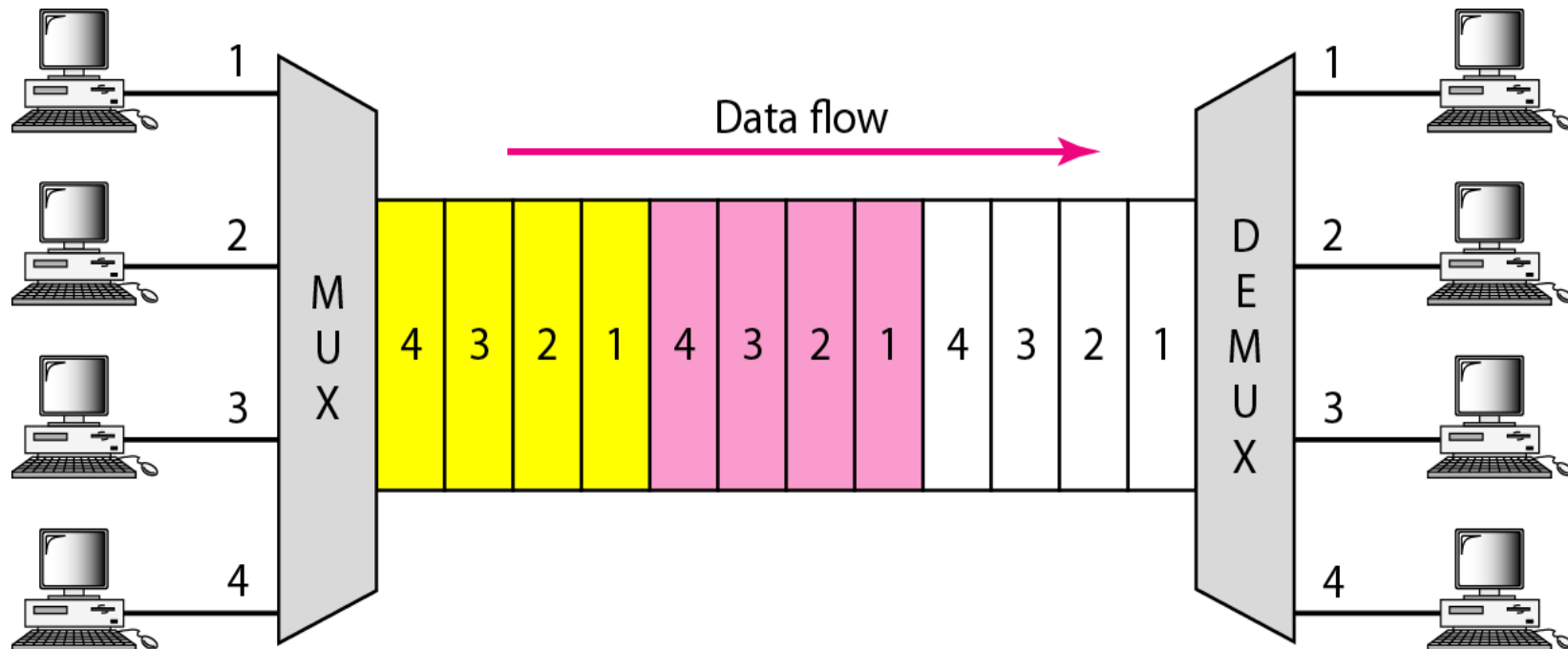
- Analog multiplexing technique
- Combines optical signals





# Time-Division Multiplexing (TDM)

- Digital multiplexing technique
- Each channel occupies a time slot on the link.



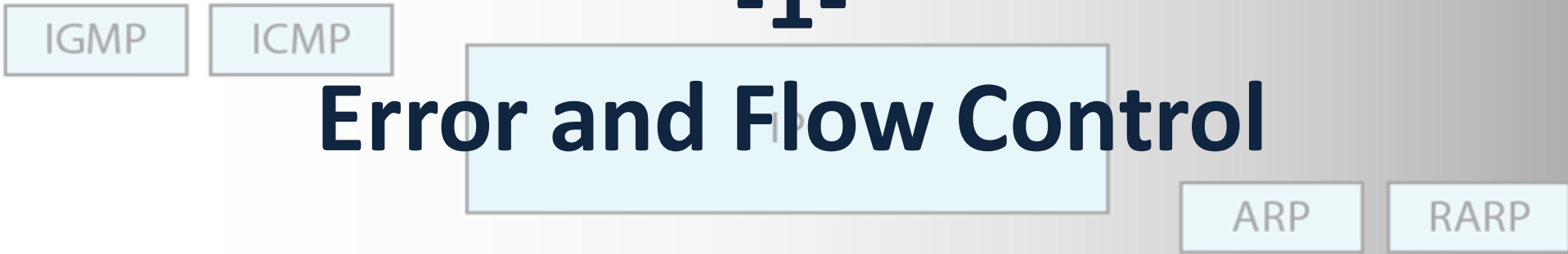
# EITF25 – Internet: Technology and Applications



## Data Link Layer

-1-

## Error and Flow Control



2015, Lecture 02

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2015-12-11

Underlying LAN or WAN technology

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# Data Link Layer

- Medium Access Control
  - Access to network
- Logical Link Control
  - Node-to-node error and flow control

**Link layer protocols**

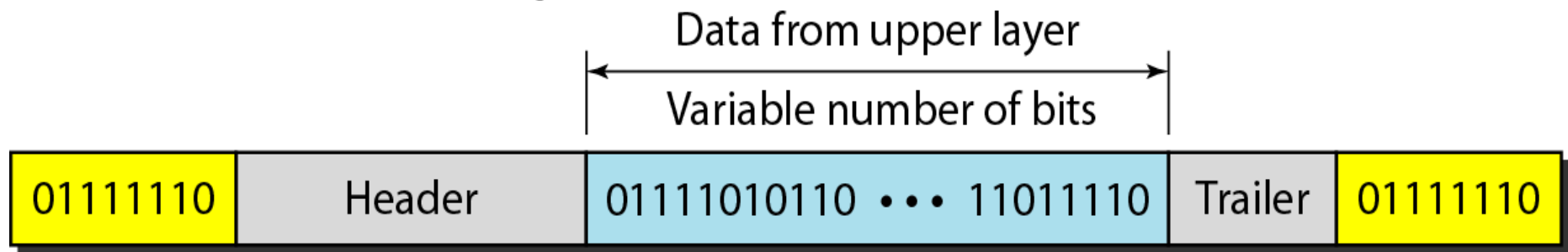


# Link layer protocols

- Error detection
  - All errors must be detected
- Error correction
  - Receiver must get correct data
- Flow control
  - Receiver must not be overloaded

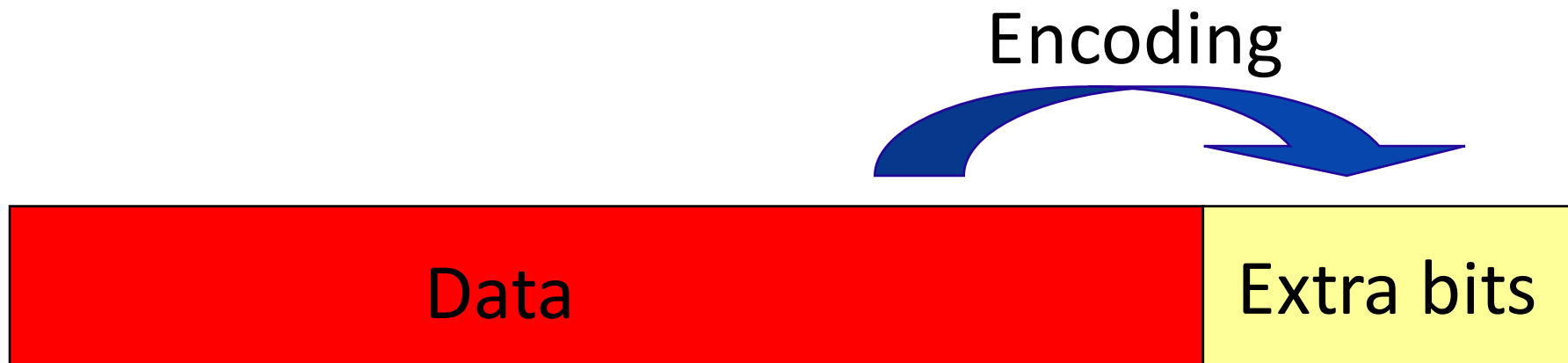
# Framing

- Physical layer → bitstream
- Link layer → frames
- We need logical transmission units
  - Synchronisation points
  - Switching between users
  - Error handling



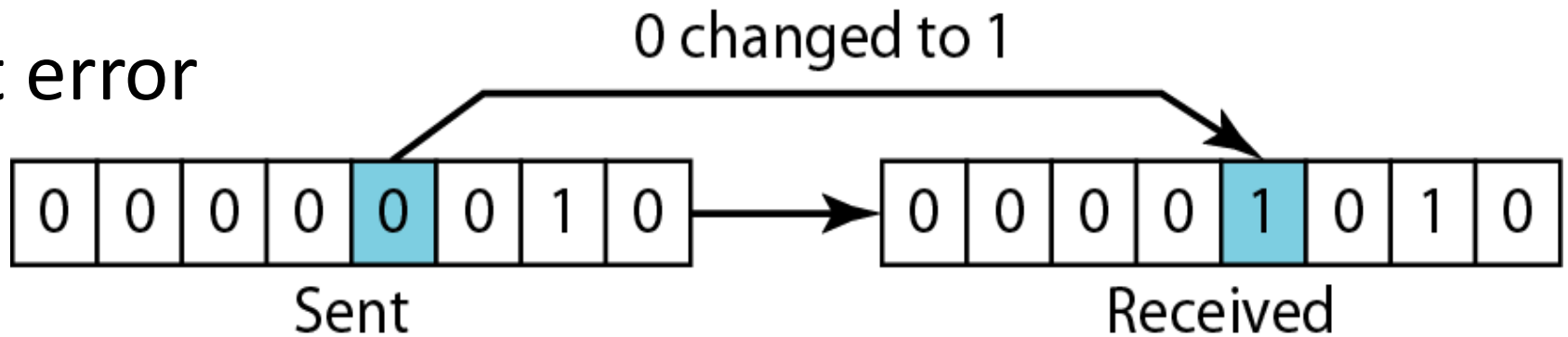
# Error control

- Data assumed error-free by higher layers
  - Errors occur at lower layers (physical)
  - Job for LLC layer
- Extra (redundant) bits added to data
  - Generated by an encoding scheme from data

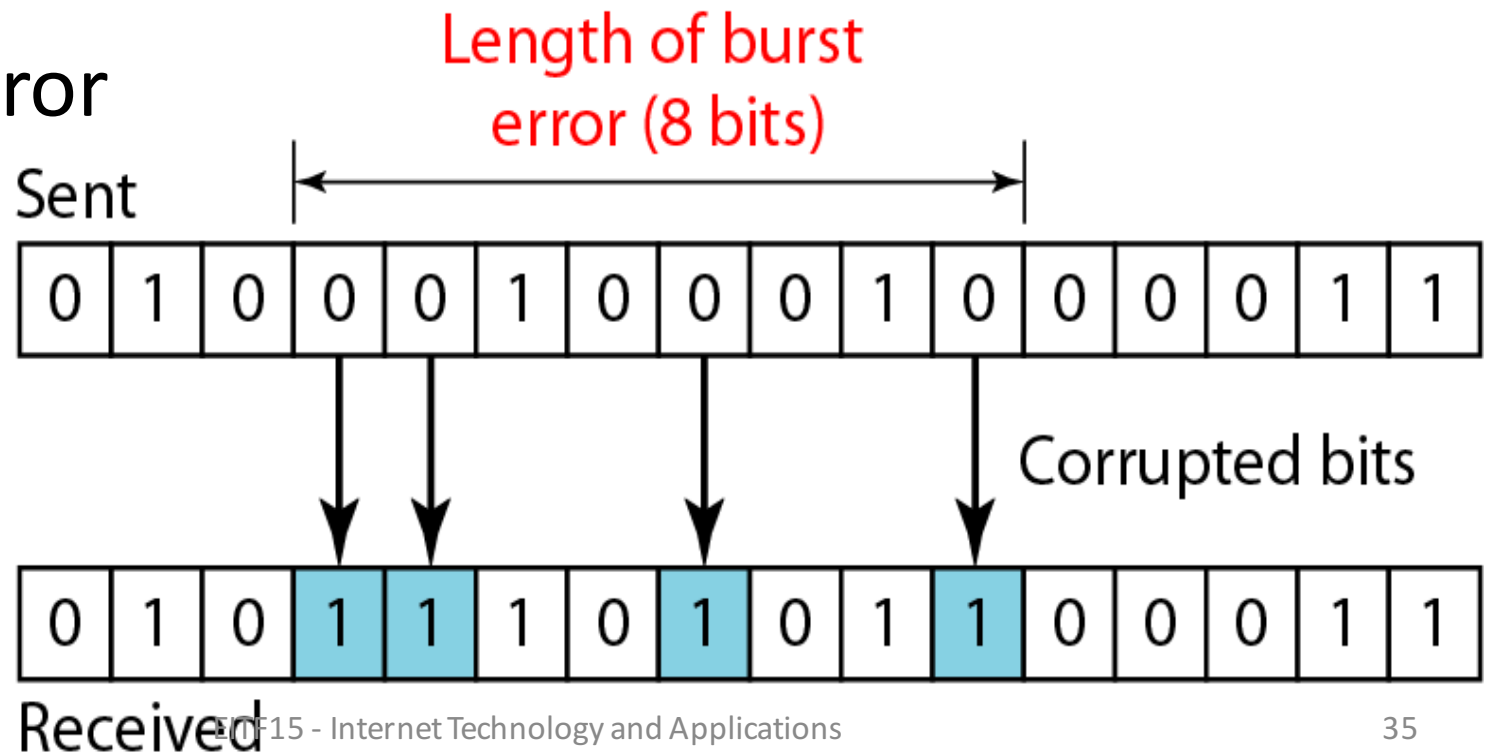


# Error types

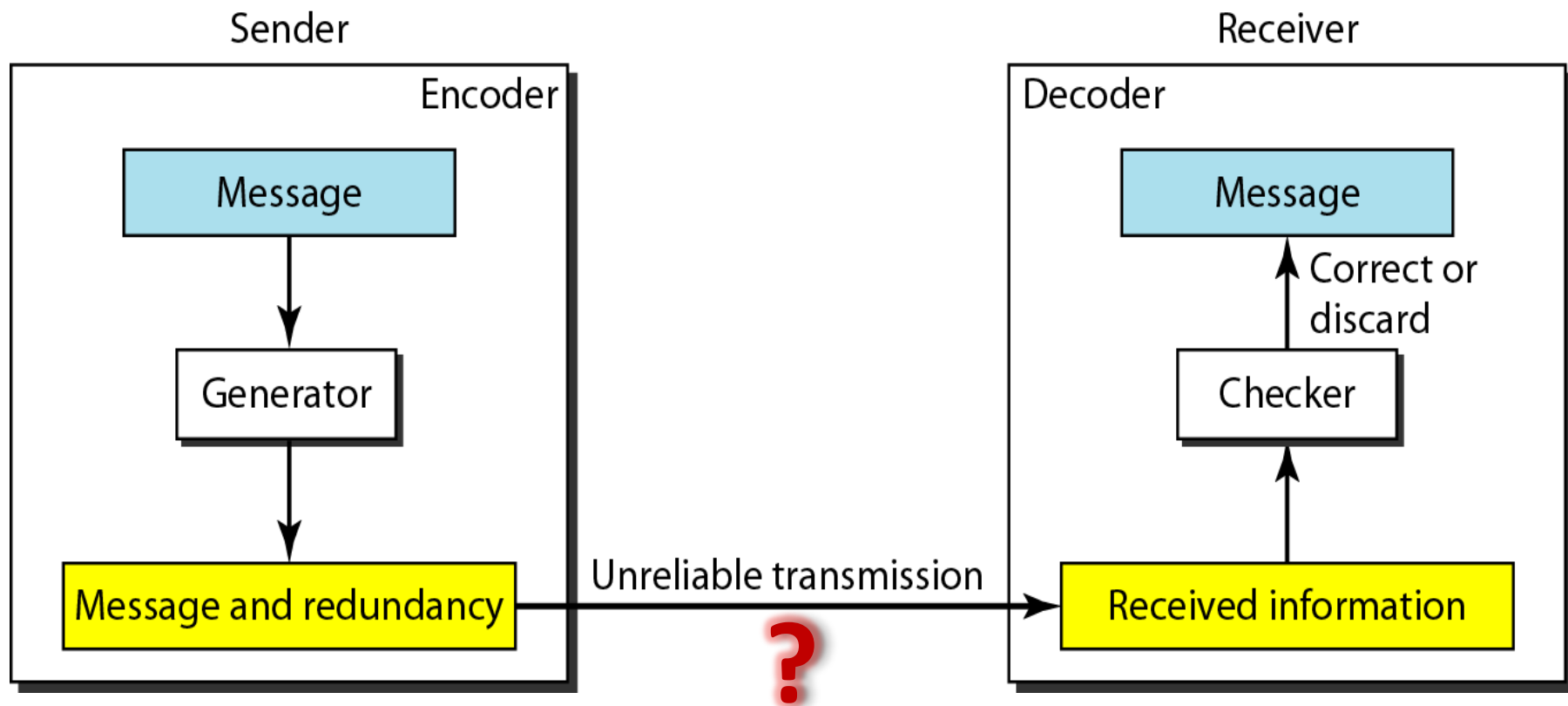
- Bit error



- Burst error



# Error detection process





# Error detection schemes

- Simple parity-check code
- Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC)
- Checksum

# Simple Parity-Check Code

- Extra bit added to make the total number of 1s in the codeword
  - Even  $\rightarrow$  even parity
  - Odd  $\rightarrow$  odd parity

dataword

10011100

+

0

=

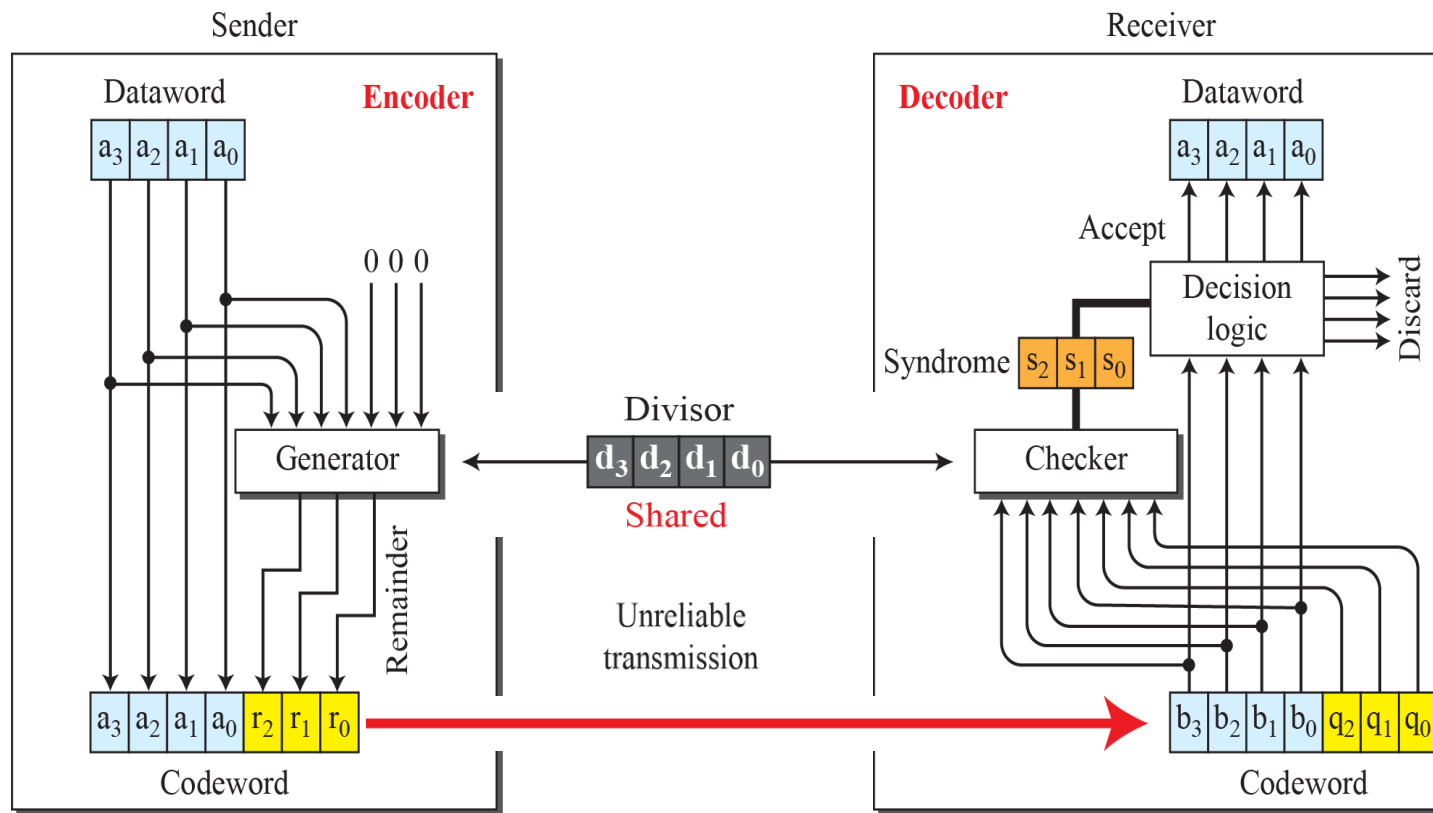
codeword

100111000

- Problem?
  - Can detect an odd number of errors

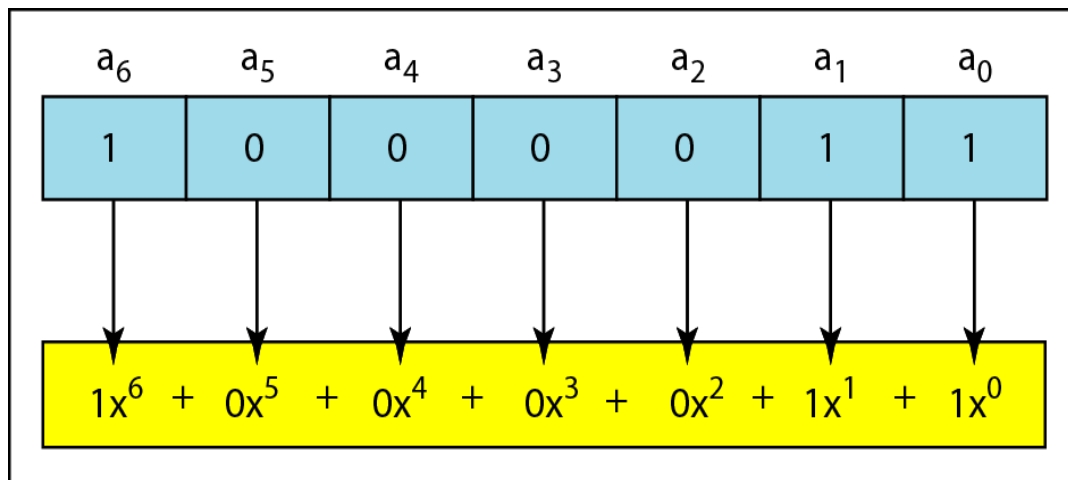
# Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC)

- Predefined shared *divisor* to calculate codeword

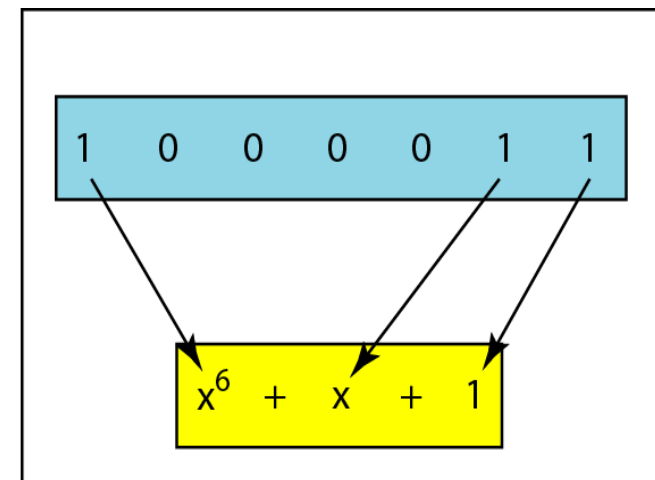


# CRC: Polynomial representation

- The dataword of  $k$  bits is represented by a polynomial,  $d(x)$ .
- The degree of the polynomial is  $k-1$ .



a. Binary pattern and polynomial



b. Short form

# CRC: The principle

- **Objective:** Send a dataword  $d(x)$  of  $k$  bits represented by a polynomial of degree  $k-1$ .
- **Given:** Generator polynomial  $g(x)$  of degree  $m$ .
- **Find:** Remainder polynomial  $r(x)$  such that:  
$$c(x) = d(x) \cdot x^m + r(x)$$
can be divided by  $g(x)$  without remainder.
- Codeword  $c(x)$  will then be sent to the receiver.
- $r(x)$  has degree  $m-1$  or less, and CRC has  $m$  bits.

# CRC: How it works

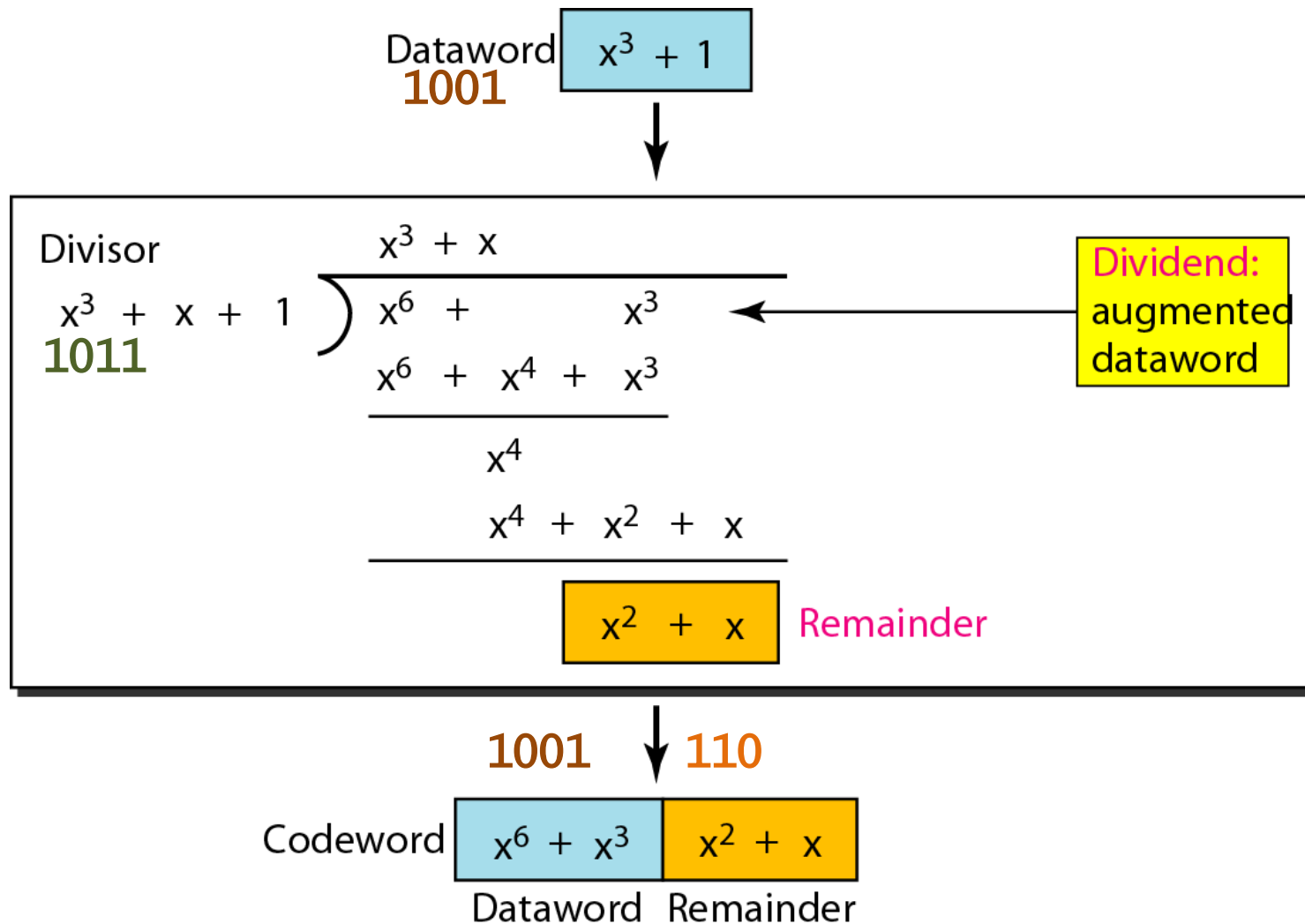
- Sender:
  1. Generate  $b(x) = d(x) \cdot x^m$
  2. Divide  $b(x)$  by  $g(x)$  to find  $r(x)$
  3. Send  $c(x) = b(x) + r(x)$
- Receiver:
  1. Divide  $c'(x) = c(x) + e(x)$  by  $g(x)$
  2. Check remainder  $r'(x) \rightarrow$  if 0 data correct,  $c(x) = c'(x)$
  3. Remove CRC bits from codeword to get dataword

# Example: CRC derivation

- For dataword **1001**, derive CRC using generator **1011**.

- Data polynomial:  $d(x) = x^3 + 1$
- Generator polynomial:  $g(x) = x^3 + x + 1$
- Dividend:  $b(x) = d(x) \cdot x^3 = x^6 + x^3$
- Codeword polynomial:  $c(x) = d(x) \cdot x^3 + r(x)$
- CRC polynomial:  $r(x) = ?$

# Example: CRC derivation

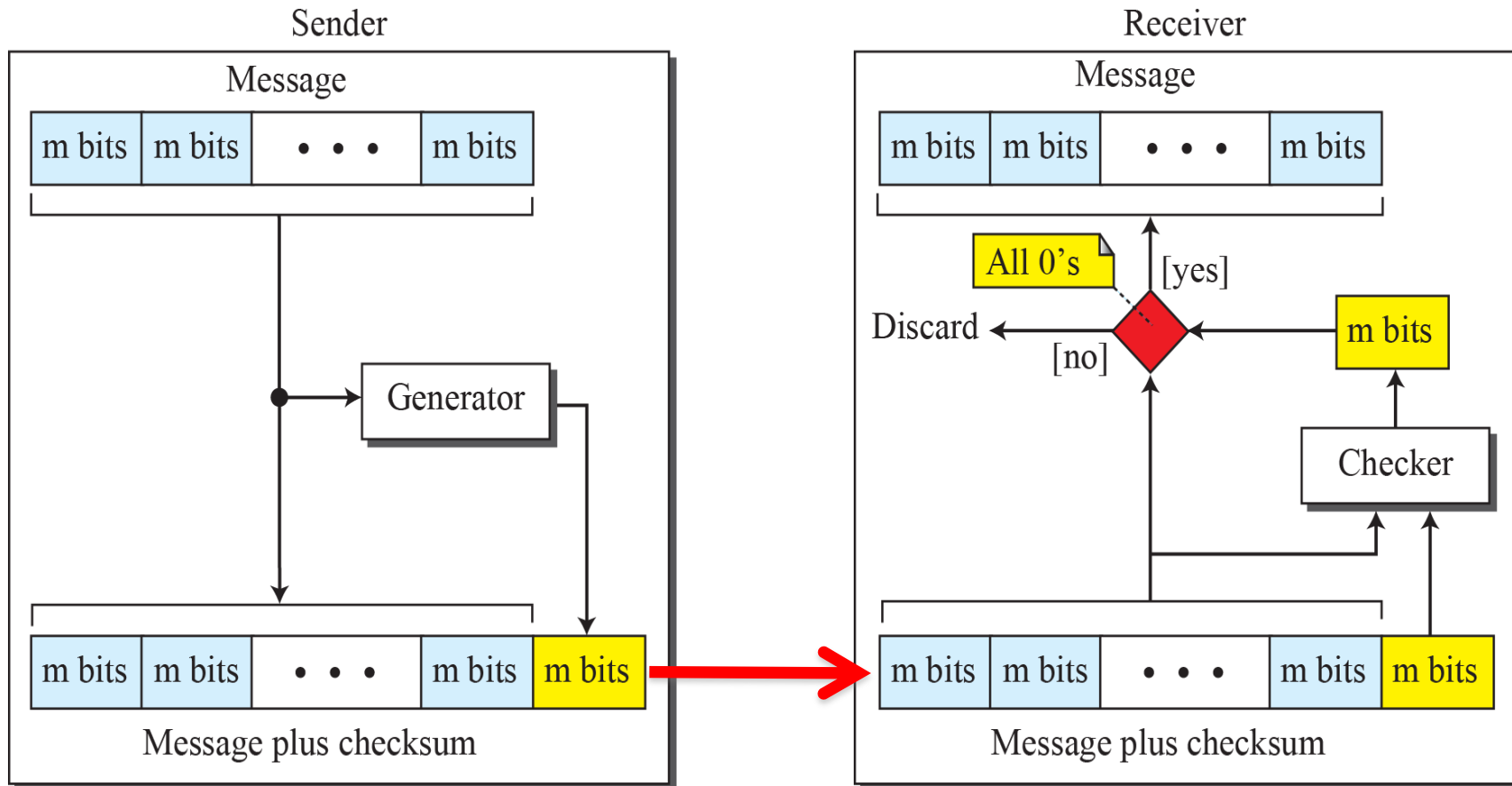




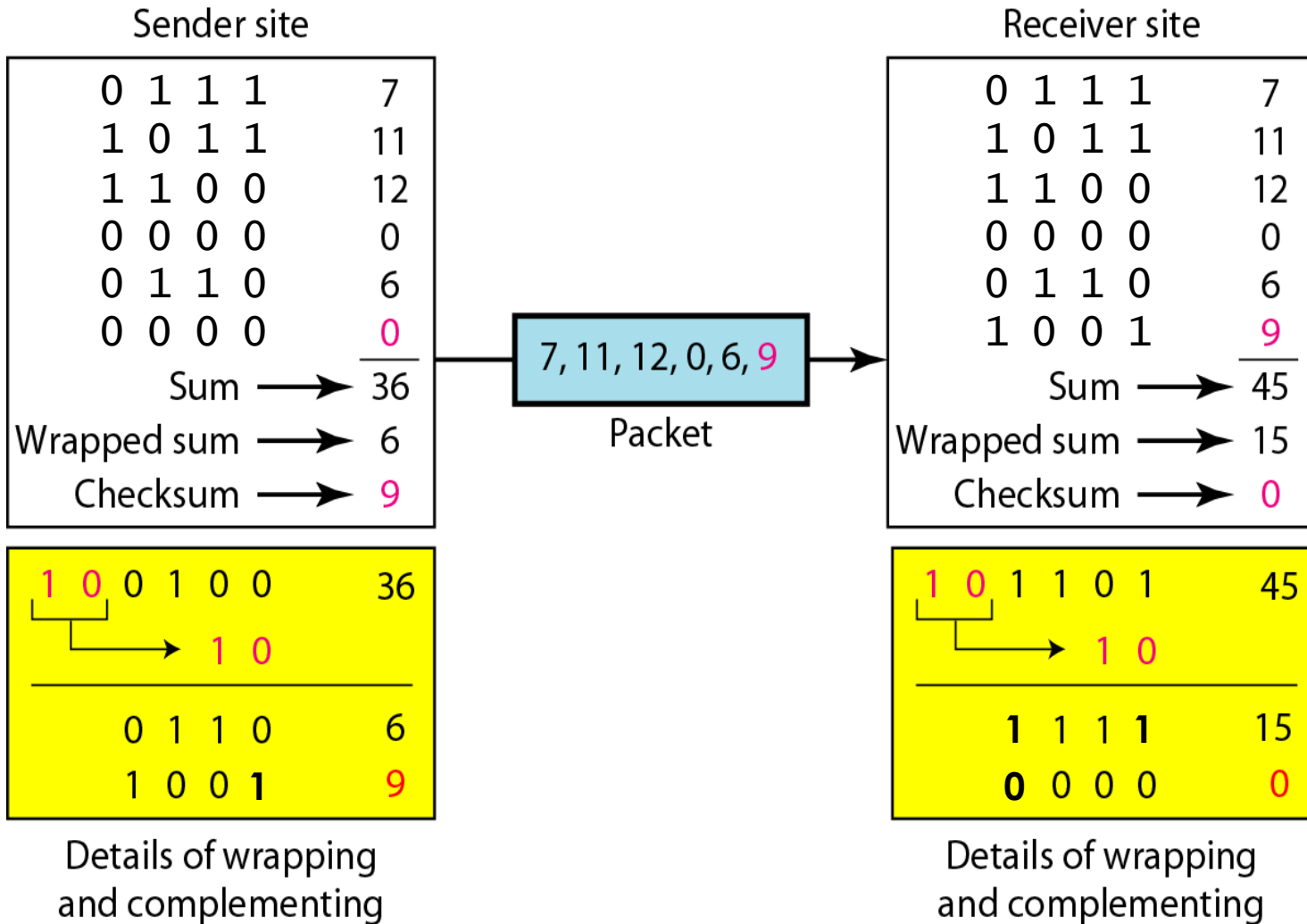
# Checksum

- The checksum is used in the Internet by several protocols although not at the data link layer.
- The main principle is to divide the data into segments of  $n$  bits. Then add the segments and use the sum as redundant bits.

# Checksum process



# Example: Checksum



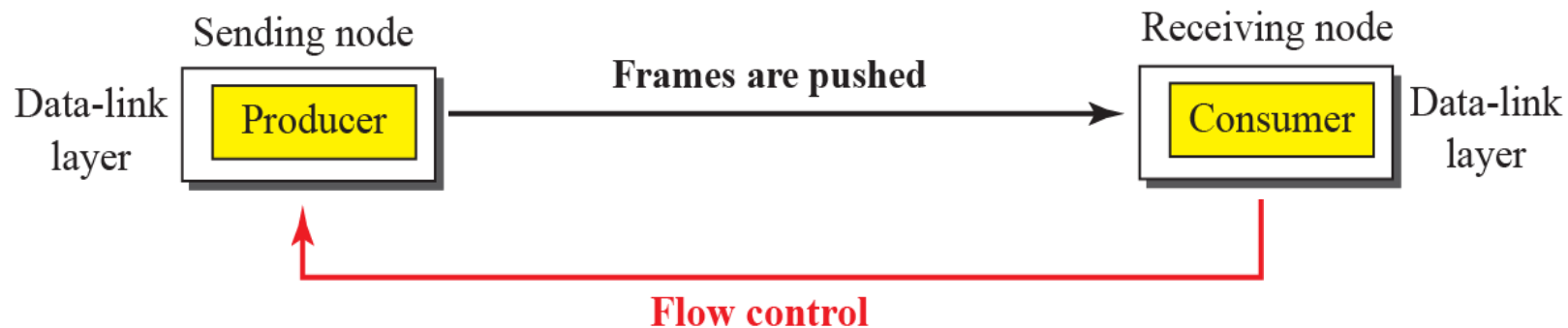
# Error and flow control

- The basic principle in error and flow control is that the receiver **acknowledges** all correctly received packets.



# The need for flow control

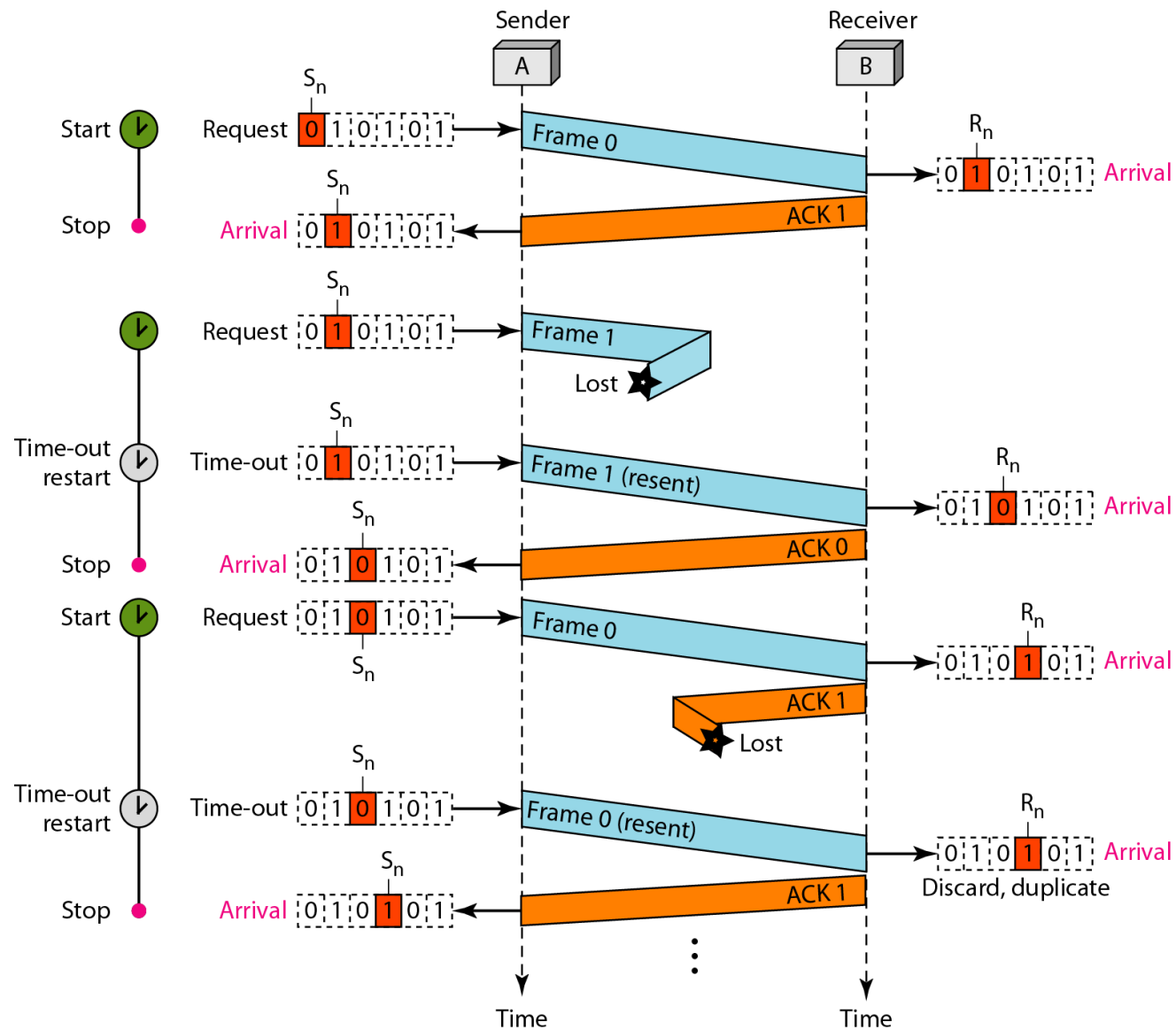
- The receiver must be able to handle all received frames. If the transmission rate is too high, the receiver may become overloaded and drop frames due to full buffers.



# Stop-and-wait ARQ

- Send and wait
  - Keep time
  - Wait for ACK
  - Retransmit
- Automatic repeat request
  - Frames (SEQ++)
  - Acknowledgements (SEQ+1)
  - Mismatch = problem!

# Stop-and-wait ARQ flow diagram



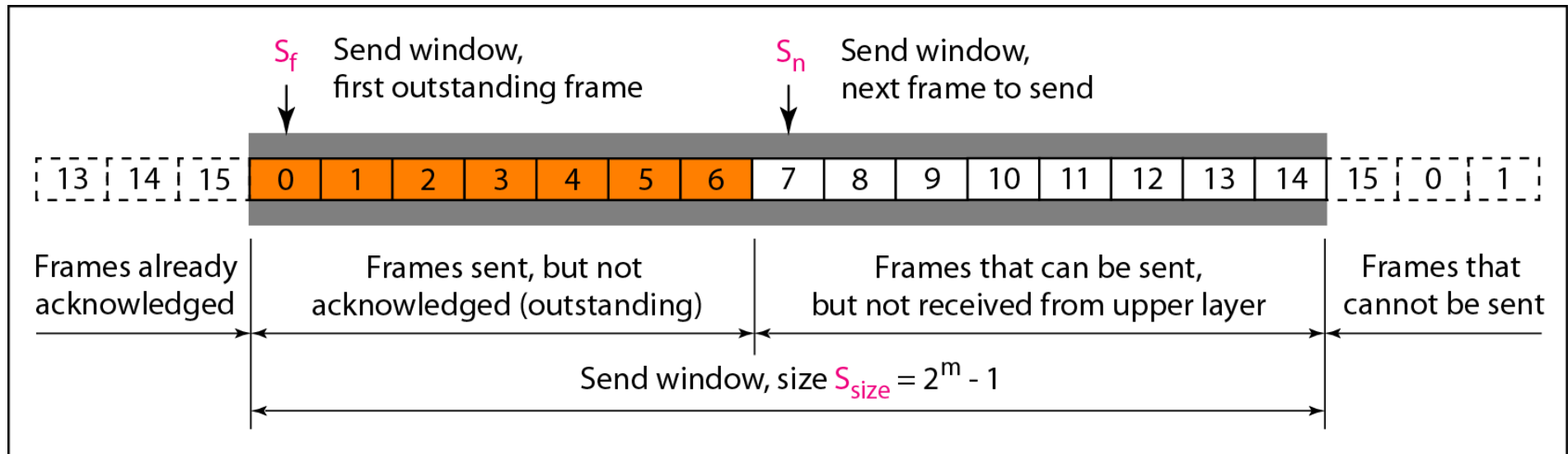
# Stop-and-wait ARQ inefficiency

- Too much waiting
- Solution
  - Keep the pipe full
  - But not too full
- Sliding window
  - Size matters
  - Window size  $< 2^m$

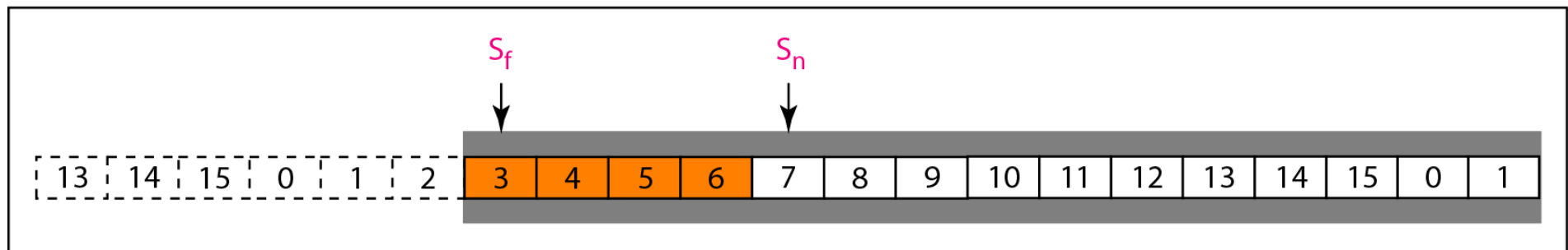




# Sliding window

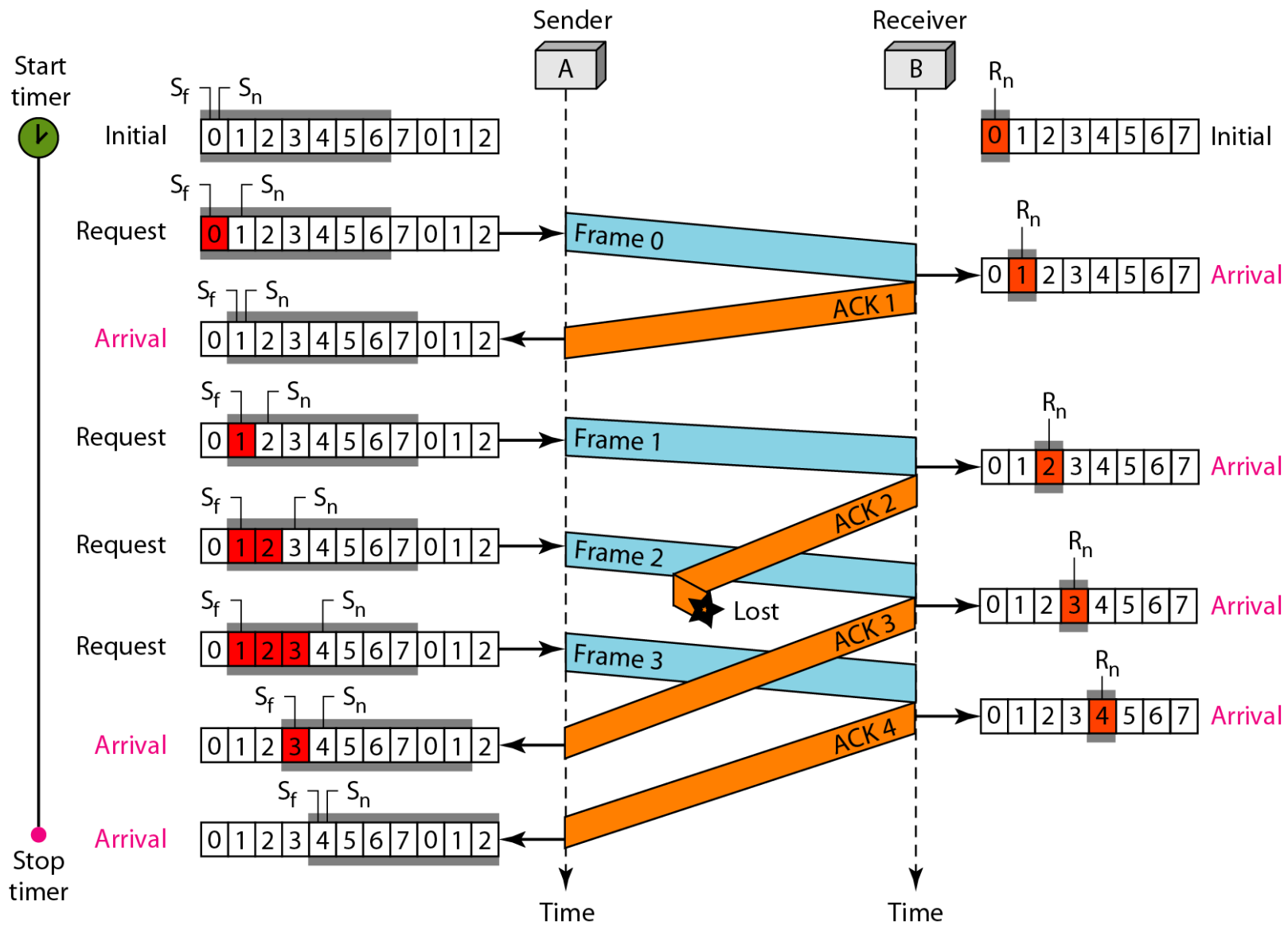


a. Send window before sliding

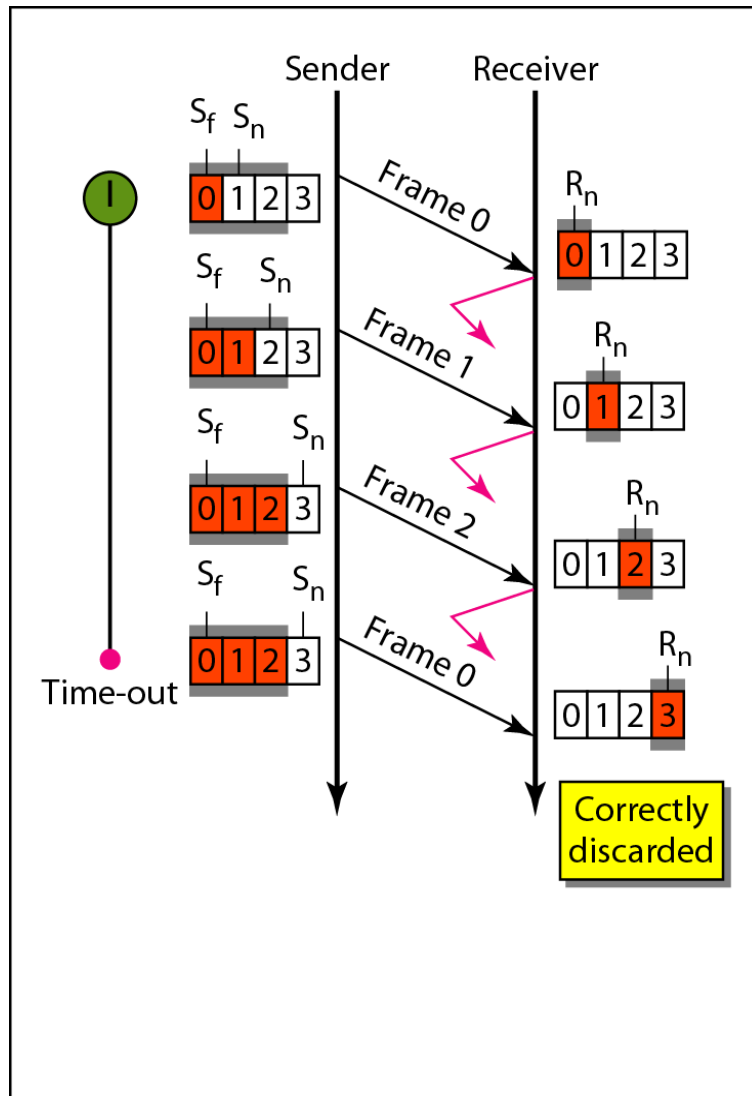


b. Send window after sliding

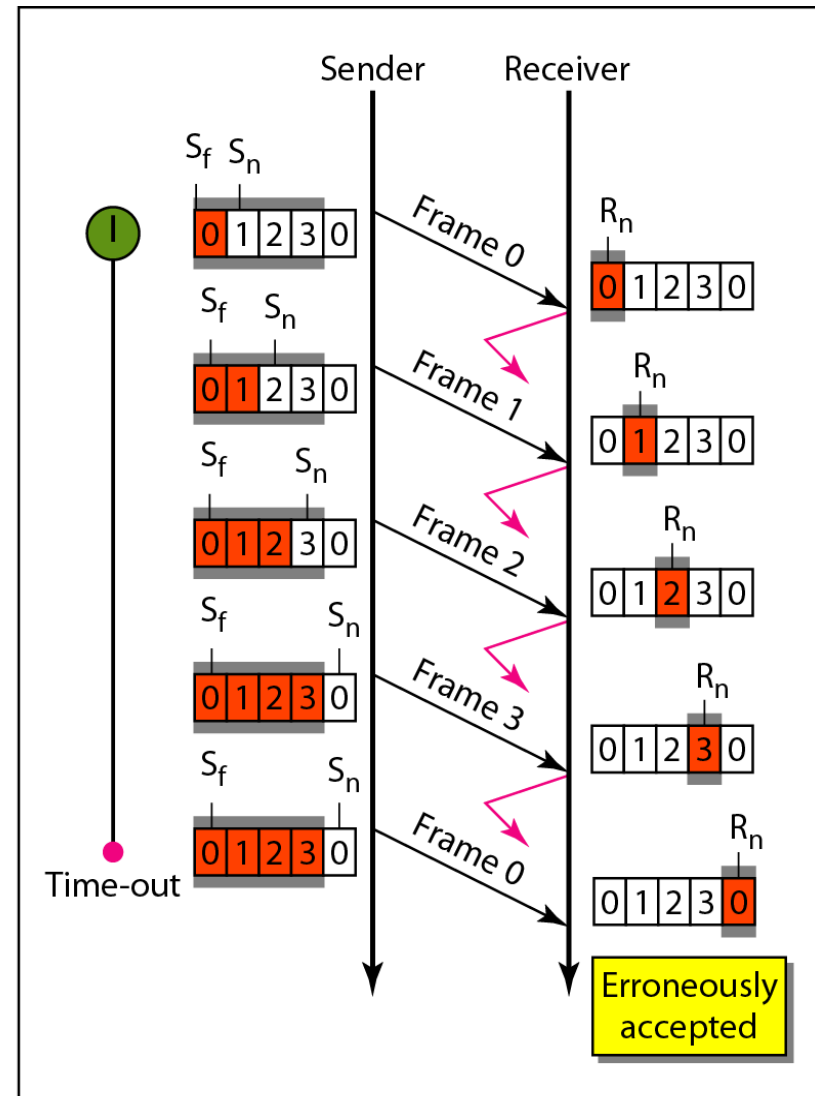
# Go-back-N ARQ flow diagram



# Go-back-N ARQ window size



a. Window size  $< 2^m$



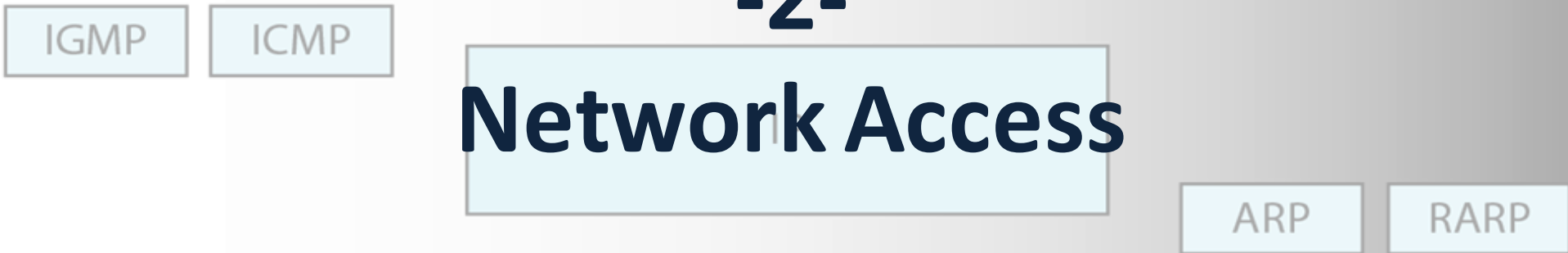
b. Window size  $= 2^m$

# EITF25 – Internet: Technology and Applications



## Data Link Layer

-2-



## Network Access

2015, Lecture 03

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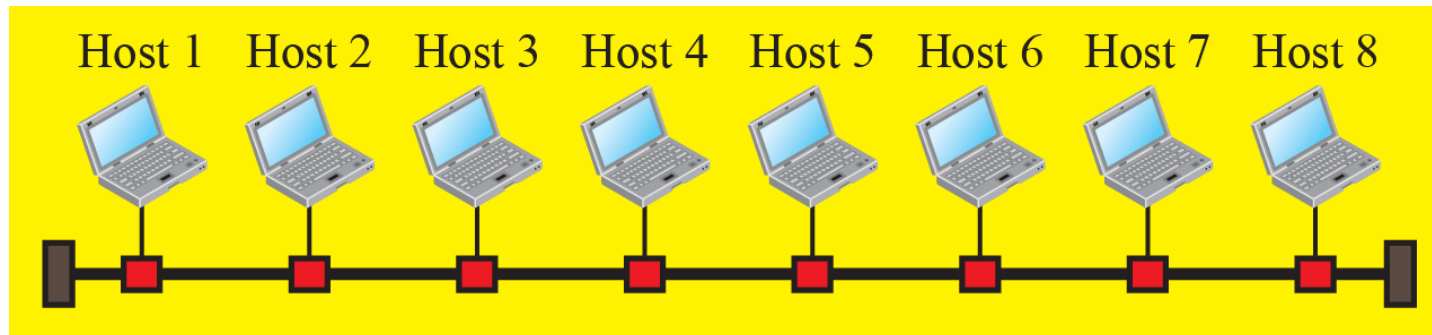
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Underlying LAN or WAN technology

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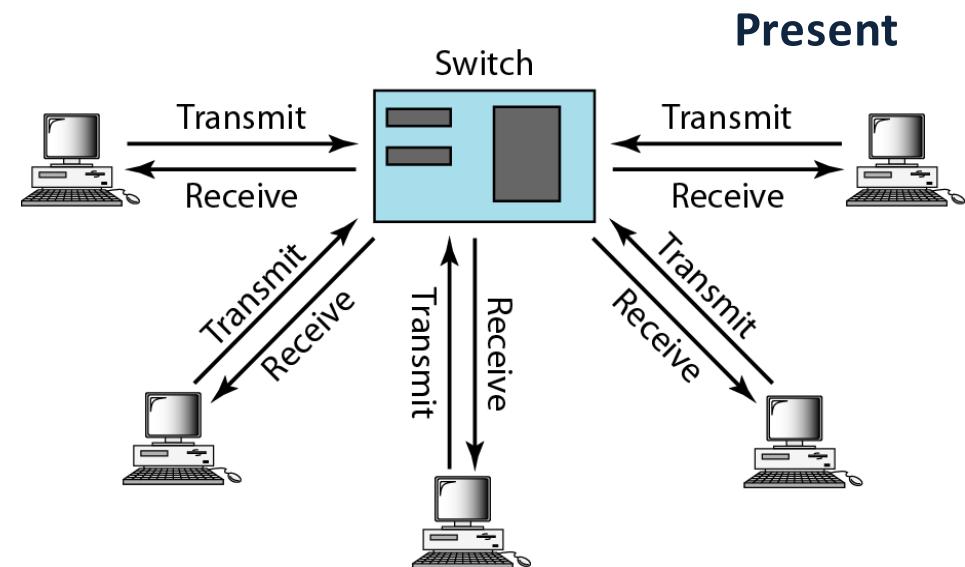


# Concept of shared medium

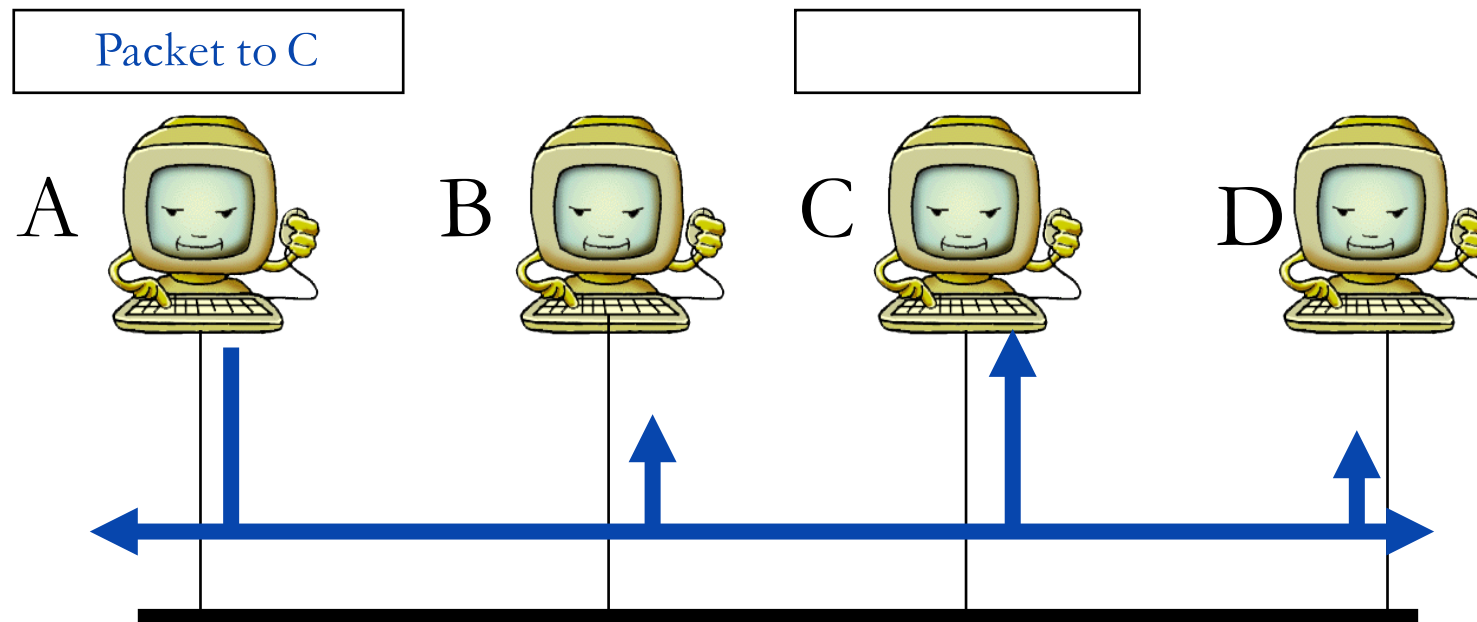


Past

- Not for wired media any longer
- Wireless LAN (WLAN) share wireless medium.



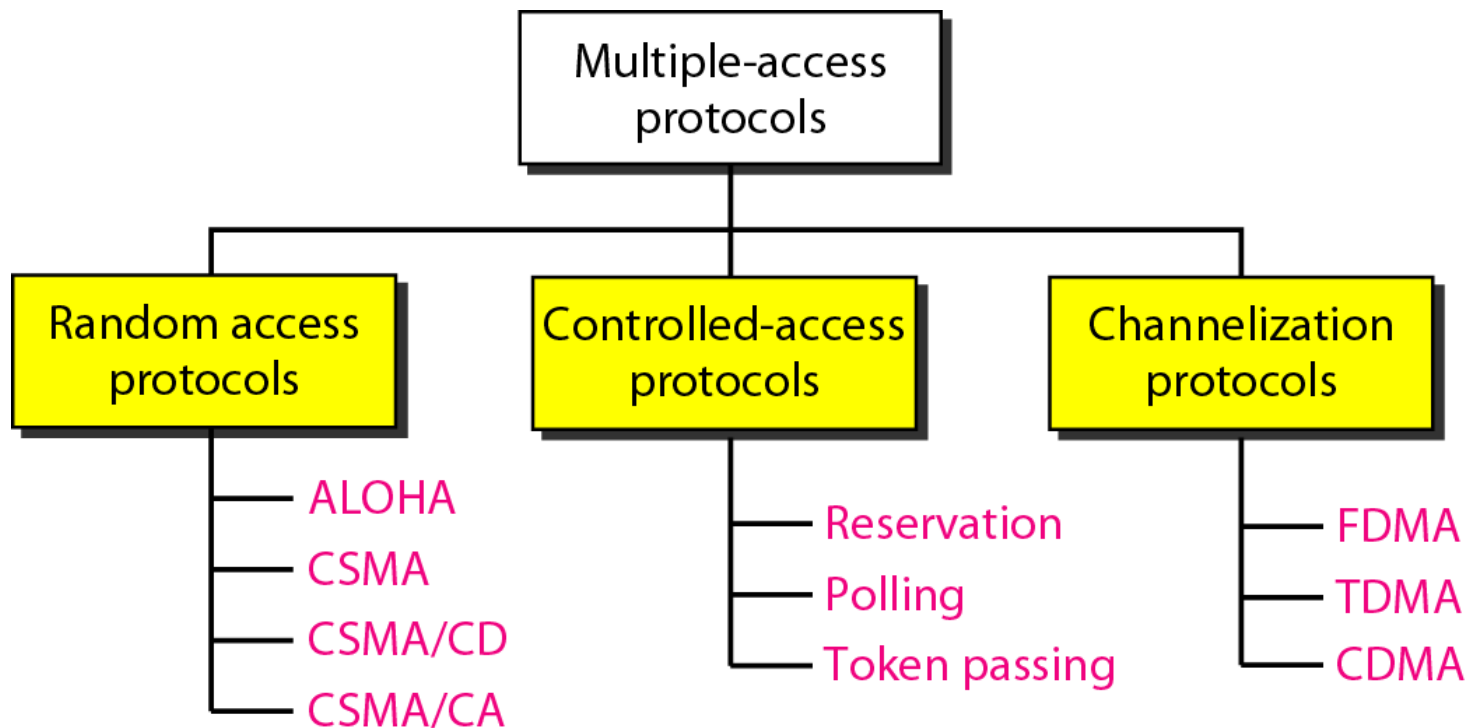
# Data transfer on a shared medium



The computer with the right destination address copies the packet and delivers it to the application.

# Medium Access Control (MAC)

- Set of rules for sending (and receiving) data in a multiple access network



# Controlled access protocols

- Stations consult one another to find which station has the right to send.
- A station cannot send unless it has been authorized by other stations.
- Used in different parts of the mobile networks.

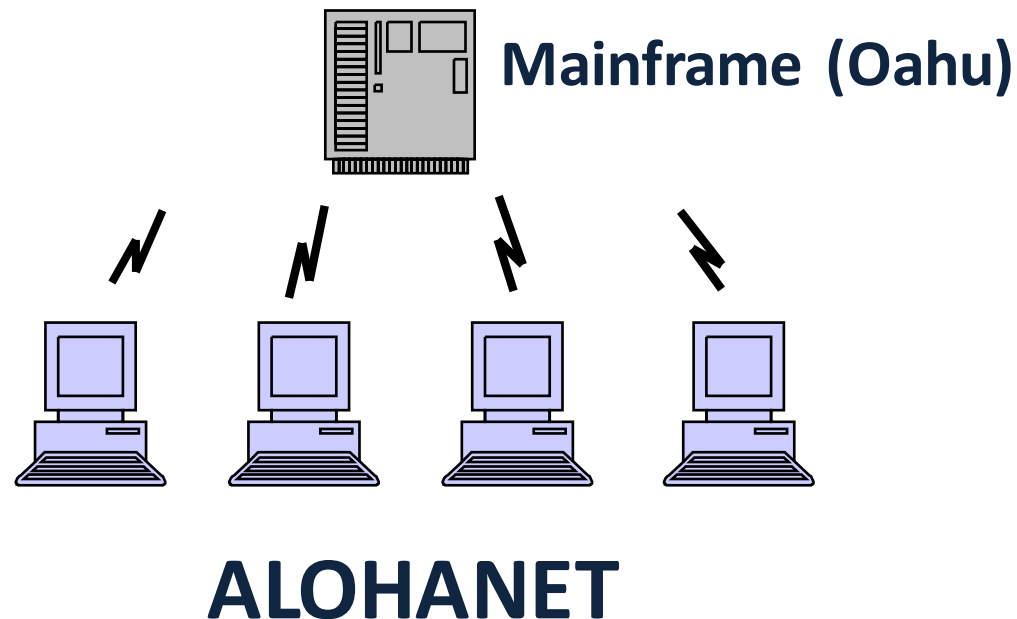


# Random access protocols

- No station superior to another
- No station in control of another
- A station with data to send uses a procedure to decide whether or not to send

# Random access: ALOHA

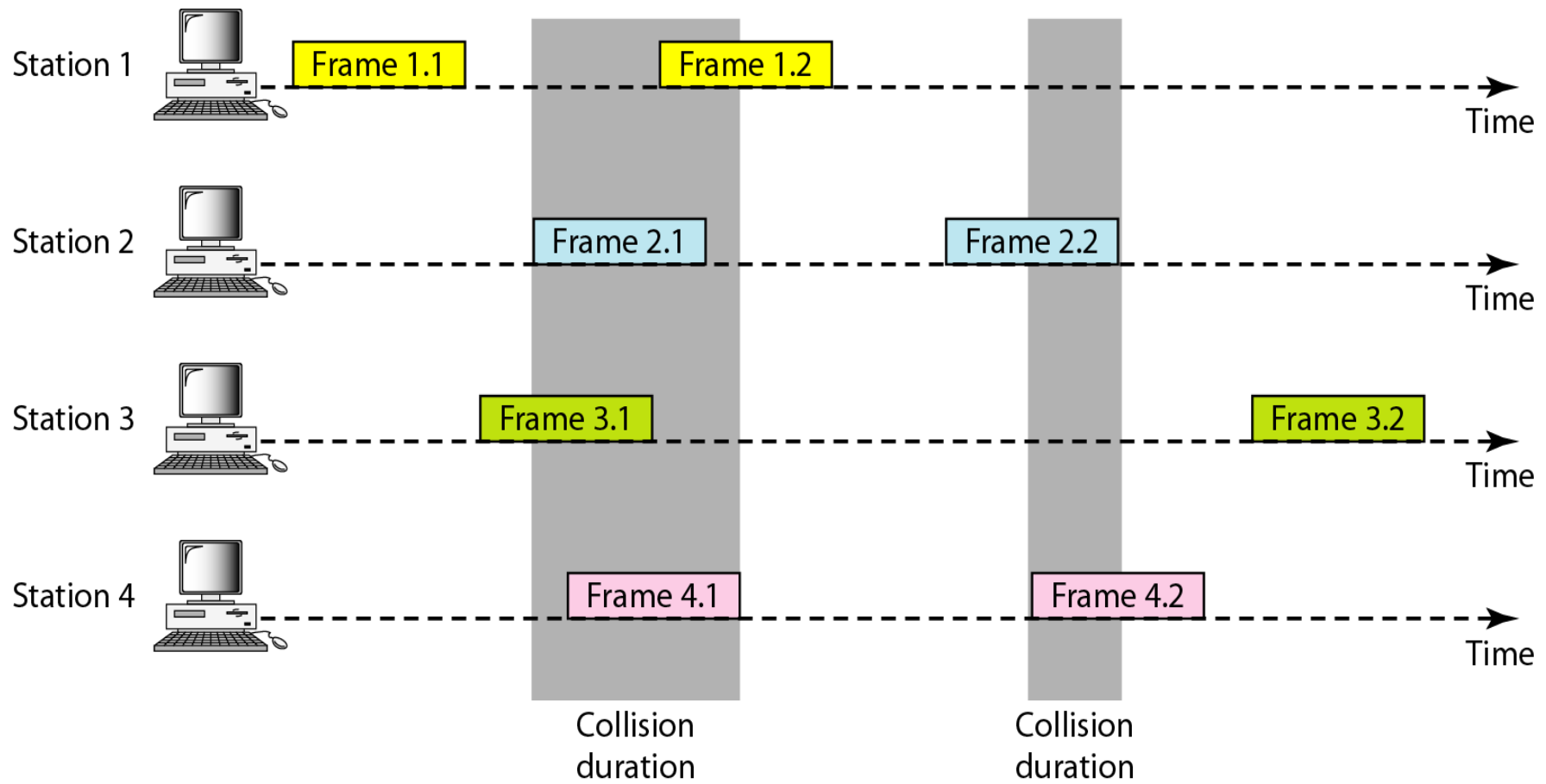
- Multiple-access method of ALOHANET
  - One of the first WLAN in the world
  - Developed by the University of Hawaii (1970)



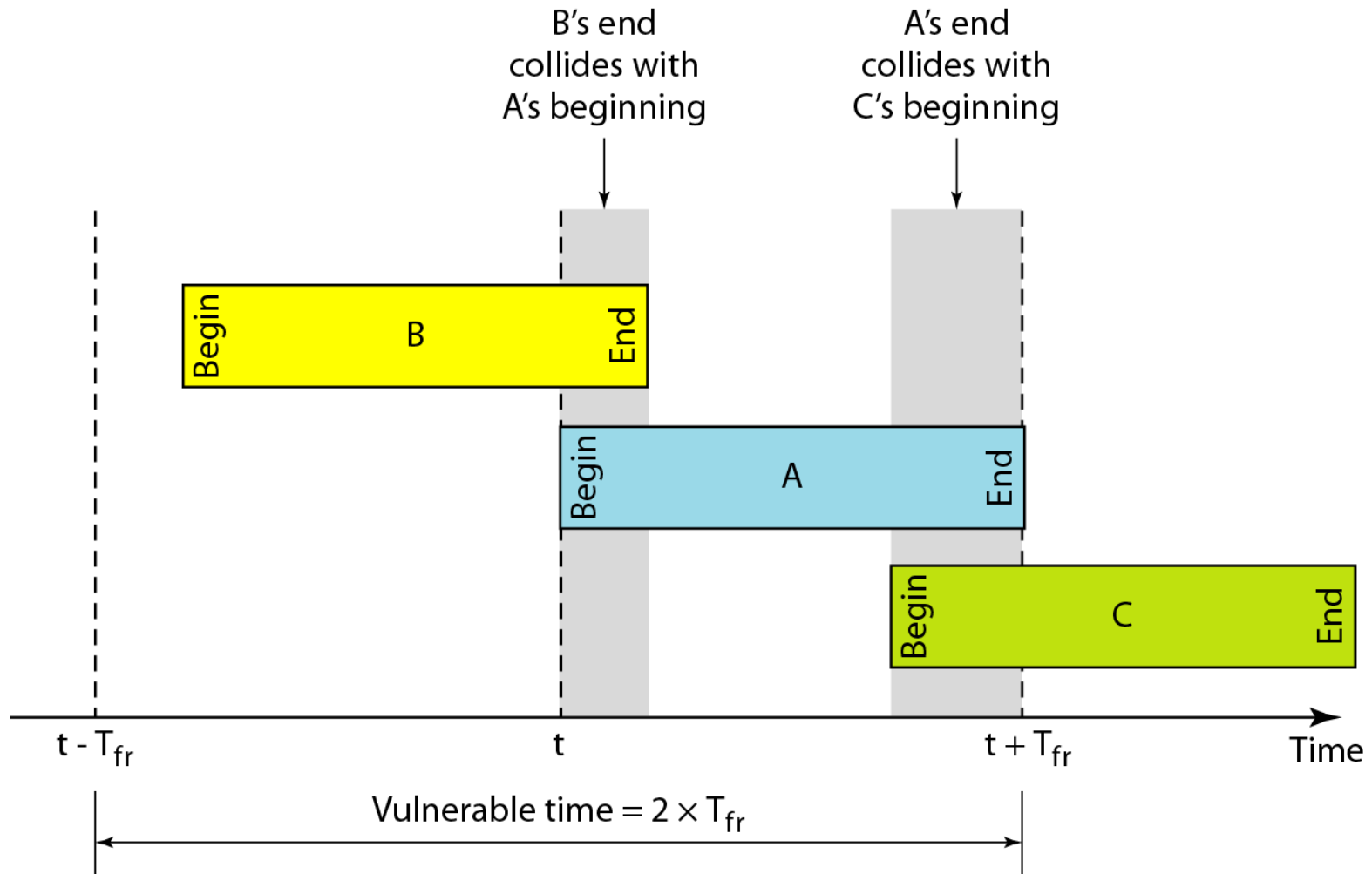
# Pure ALOHA

- Stations share one frequency band
- Mainframe sends data on another frequency (broadcast channel)
- A station sends a frame whenever it has a frame to send.
- If the station receives an ACK from the mainframe on the broadcast channel, the transmission is successful.
- If not, the frame needs to be retransmitted.

# Pure ALOHA: Frames



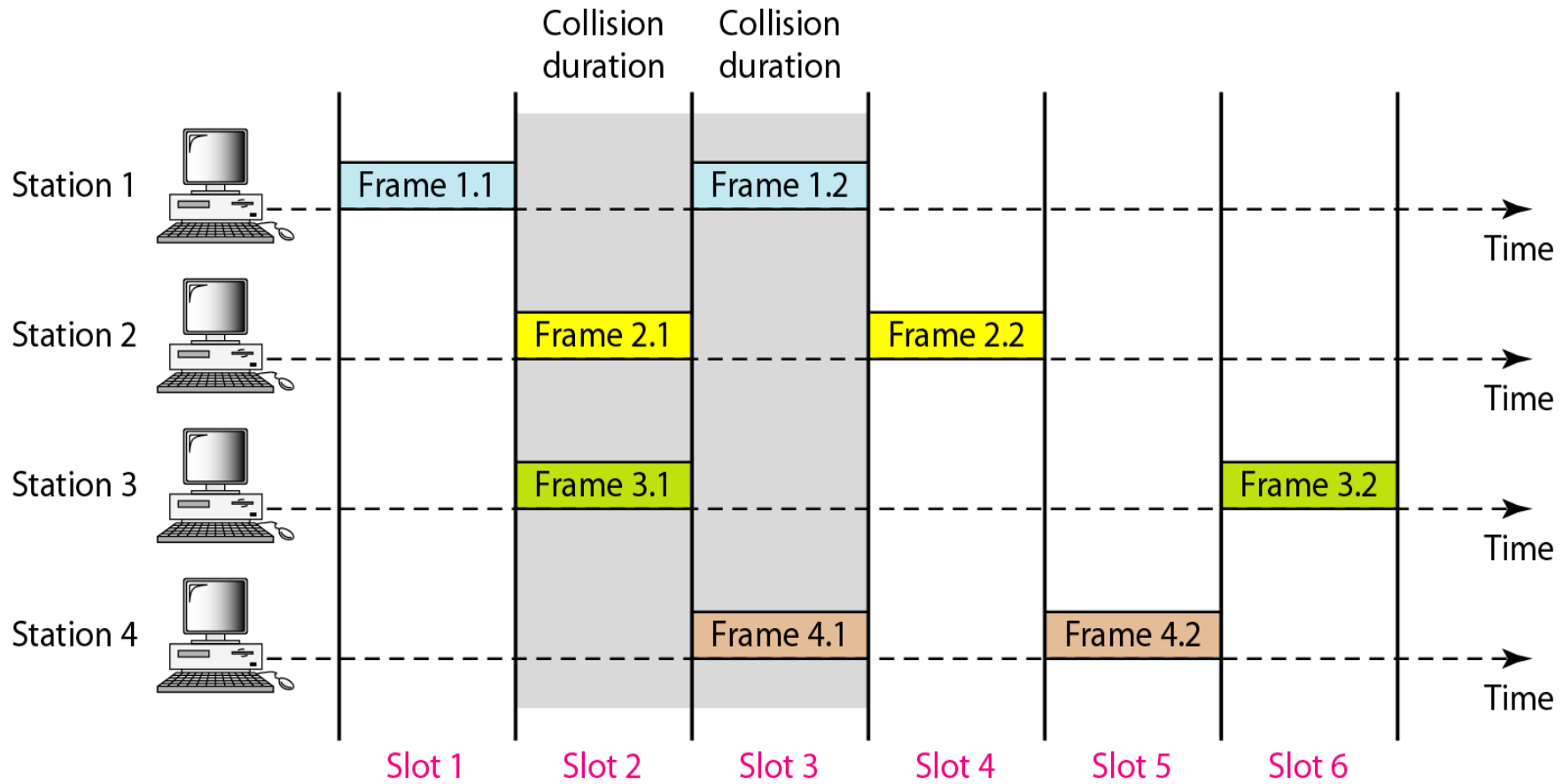
# Pure ALOHA: Collisions



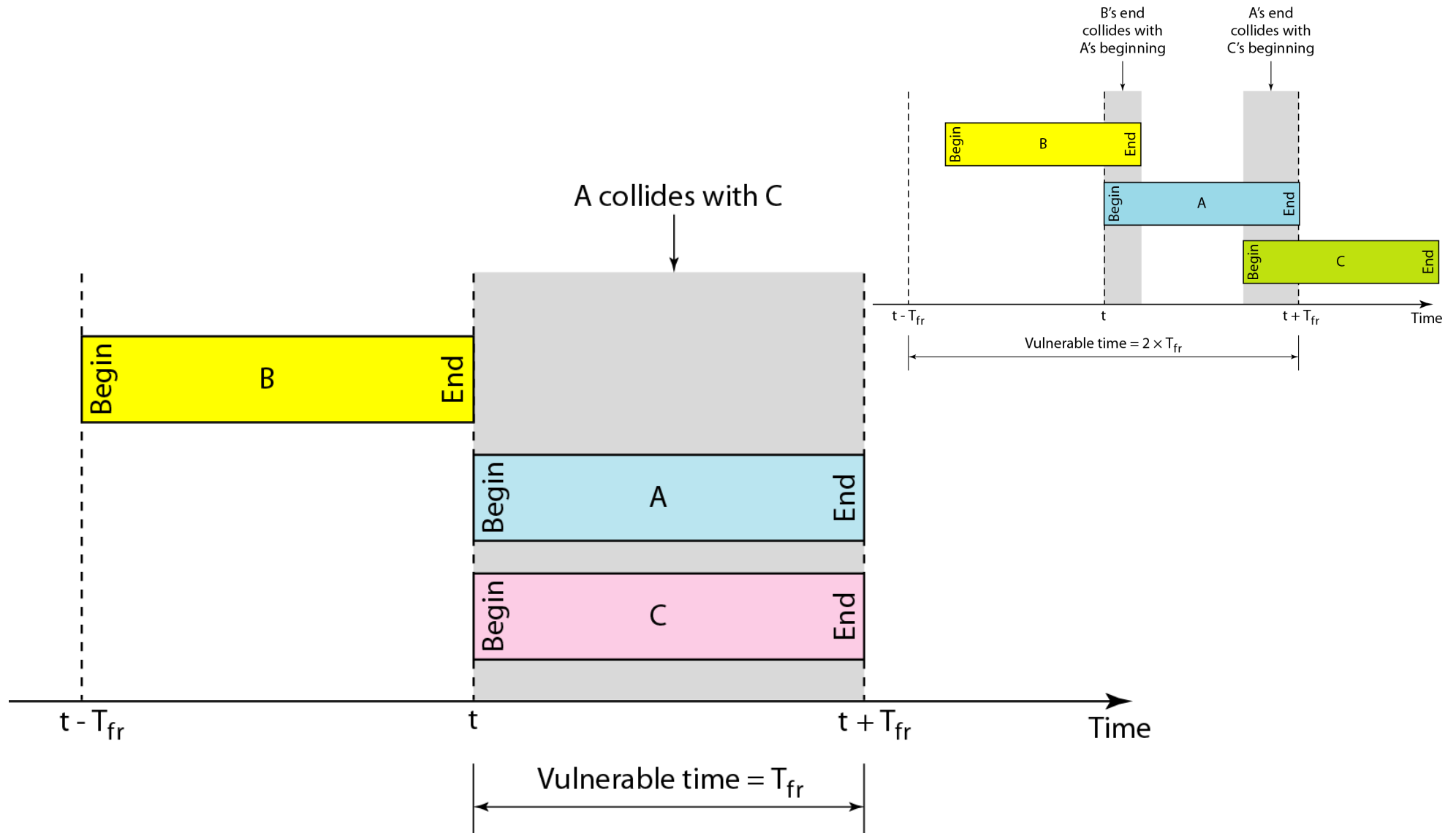
# Slotted ALOHA

- Time divided into slots
- Each slot contains one frame in time
- A station can only send at the beginning of a slot.

# Slotted ALOHA: Frames



# Slotted ALOHA: Collisions

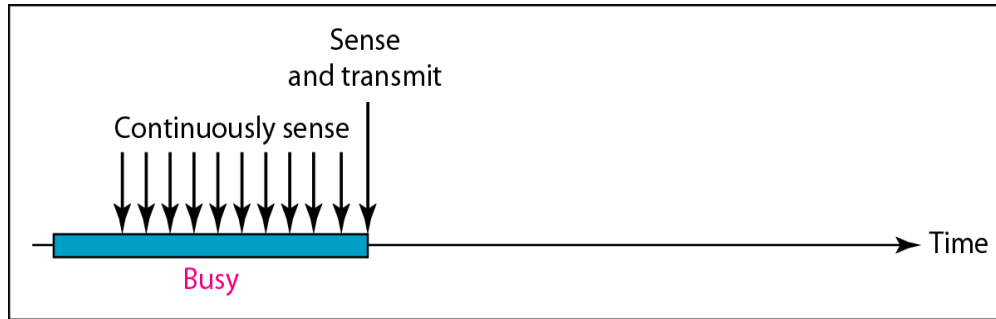




# Carrier Sense Multiple Access (CSMA)

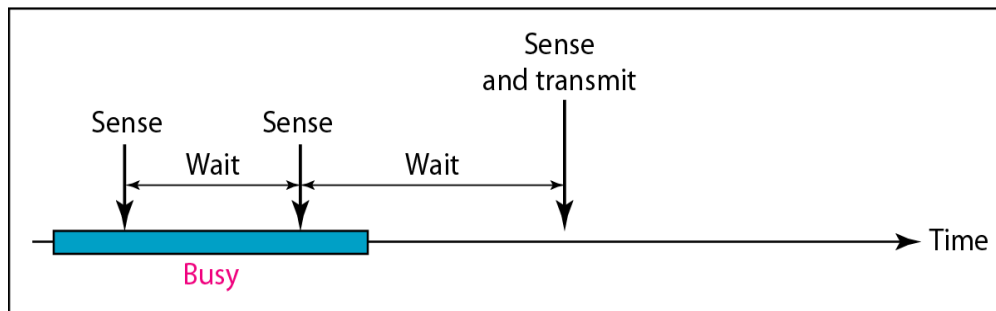
- Listen to (sense) medium before sending
- If medium occupied (busy), wait
  - 1-persistent
  - Non-persistent
  - P-persistent

# Persistence methods



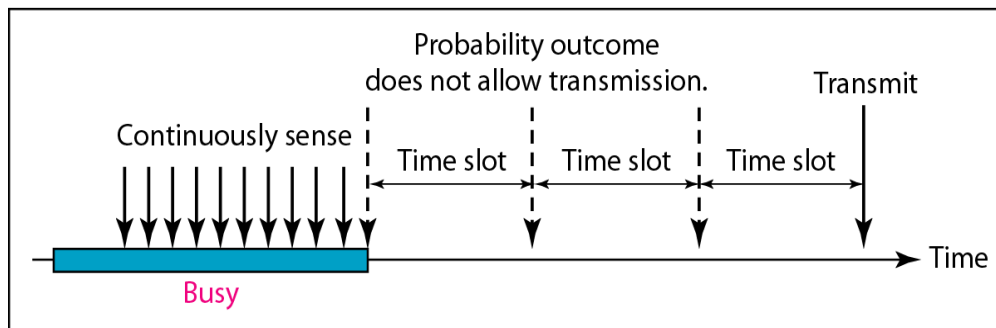
a. 1-persistent

Keep sensing and send as soon as channel idle



b. Nonpersistent

Wait random, sense again, send if idle

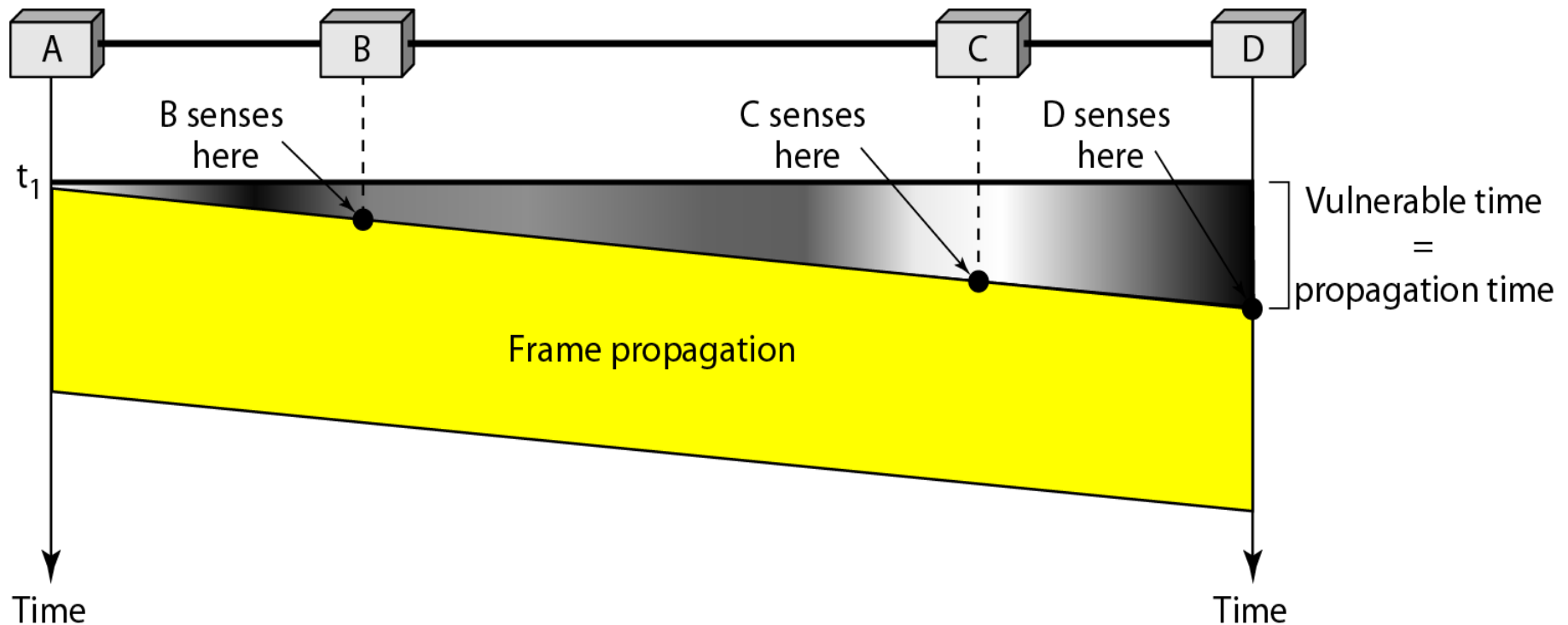


c. p-persistent

Transmit with probability  $p$ , sense with  $1-p$ , wait if busy

# CSMA: Vulnerable time

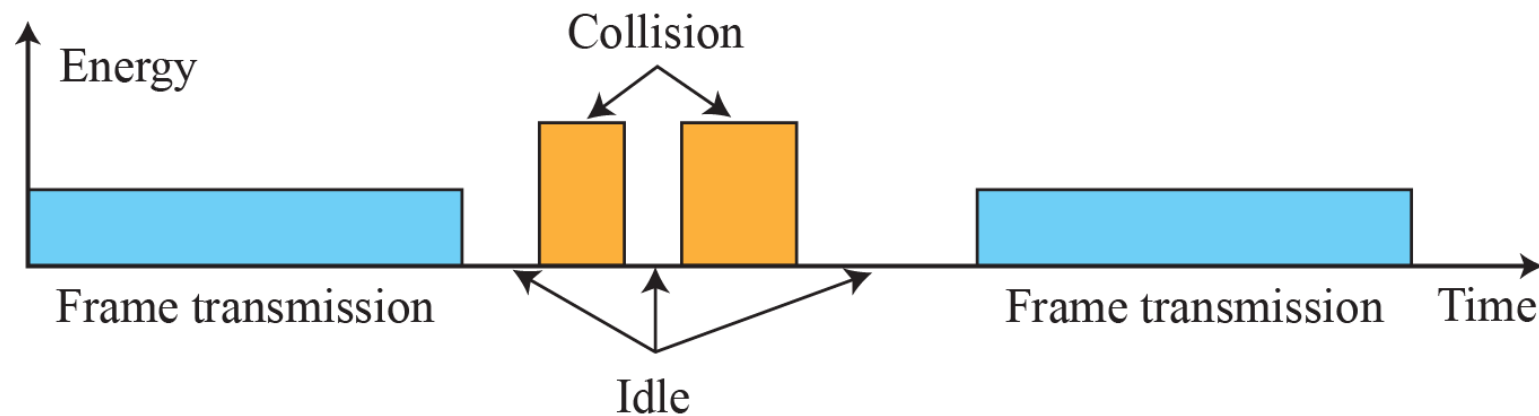
- Propagation time



- Collisions?

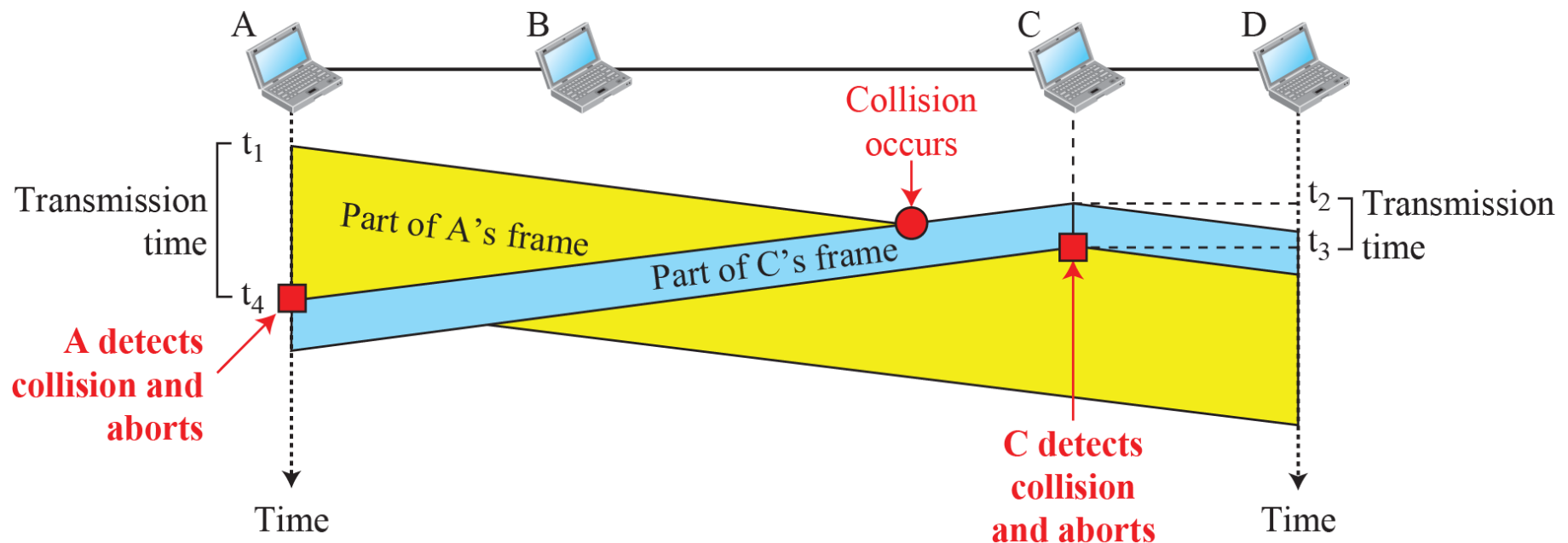
# CSMA with Collision Detection (CSMA/CD)

- CSMA has no collision procedure
- CSMA/CD developed to handle collisions



# CSMA/CD: Collision detection

- Monitors medium after sending a frame
- Abort transmission and send a jamming signal if collision detected



# CSMA/CD: Minimum frame size

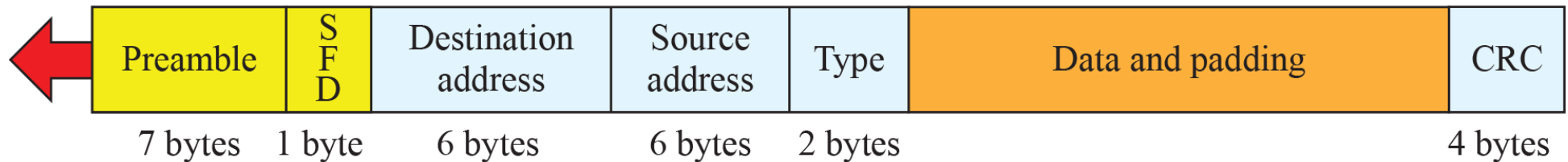
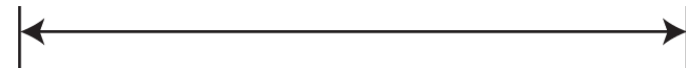
- Sending station must be able to detect a collision *before* transmitting the frame's last bit
- Frame transmission time must be at least two times maximum propagation time
- Colliding signal can propagate to sending station before the last bit is transmitted.

# Ethernet frame structure

**Preamble:** 56 bits of alternating 1s and 0s

**SFD:** Start frame delimiter, flag (10101011)

Minimum payload length: 46 bytes  
Maximum payload length: 1500 bytes



Physical-layer header

Minimum frame length: 512 bits or 64 bytes  
Maximum frame length: 12,144 bits or 1518 bytes

# Ethernet MAC address

06 : 01 : 02 : 01 : 2C : 4B



6 bytes = 12 hex digits = 48 bits

- `ipconfig /all`



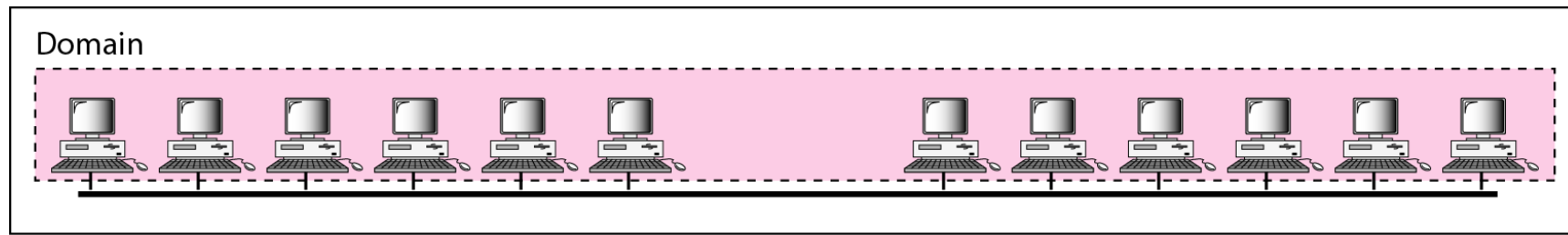
# Network addresses

- In a network, all stations need an address so that the data can reach the right destination.
- All computers connected to a standard LAN have a unique physical address.

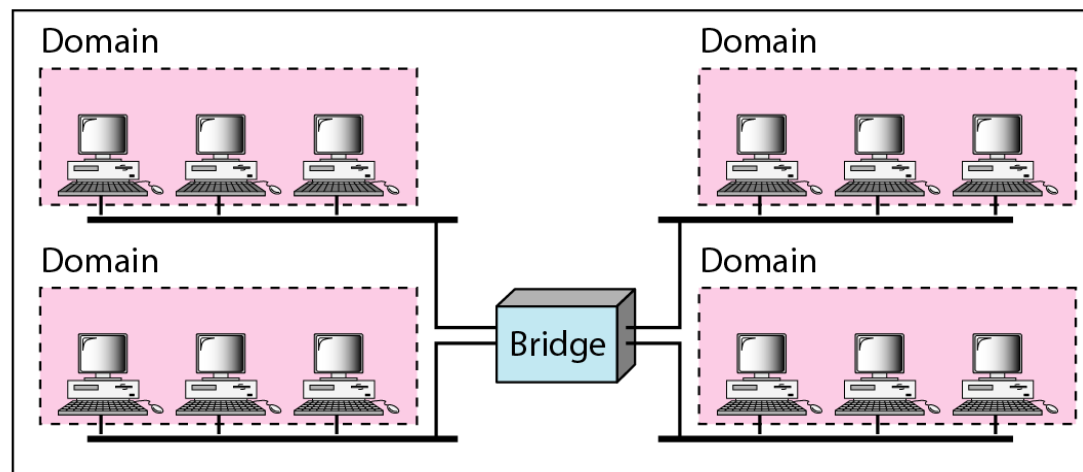
# Evolution of Ethernet

**CSMA/CD**

- Collision domains



a. Without bridging



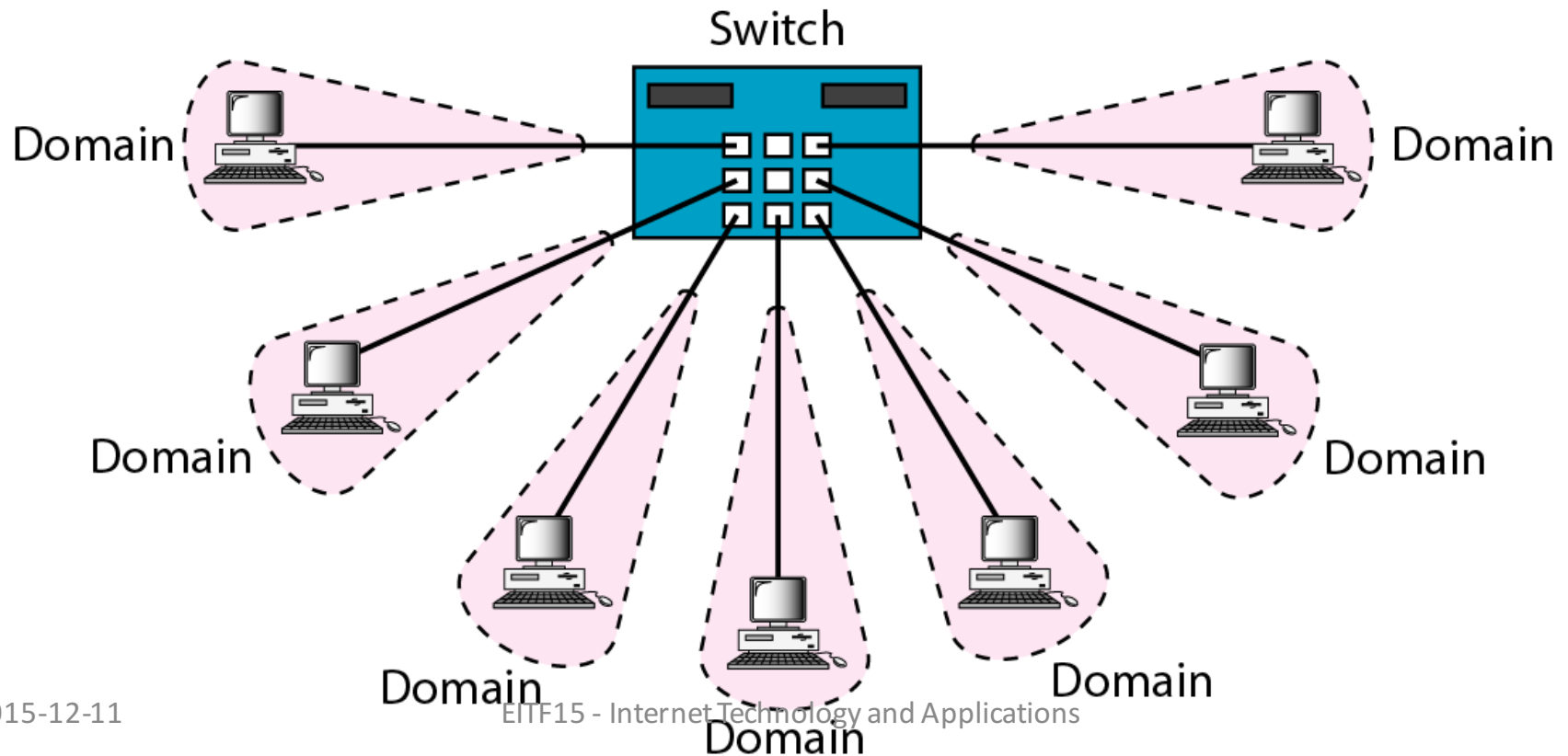
b. With bridging

# Switched Ethernet

Switching table

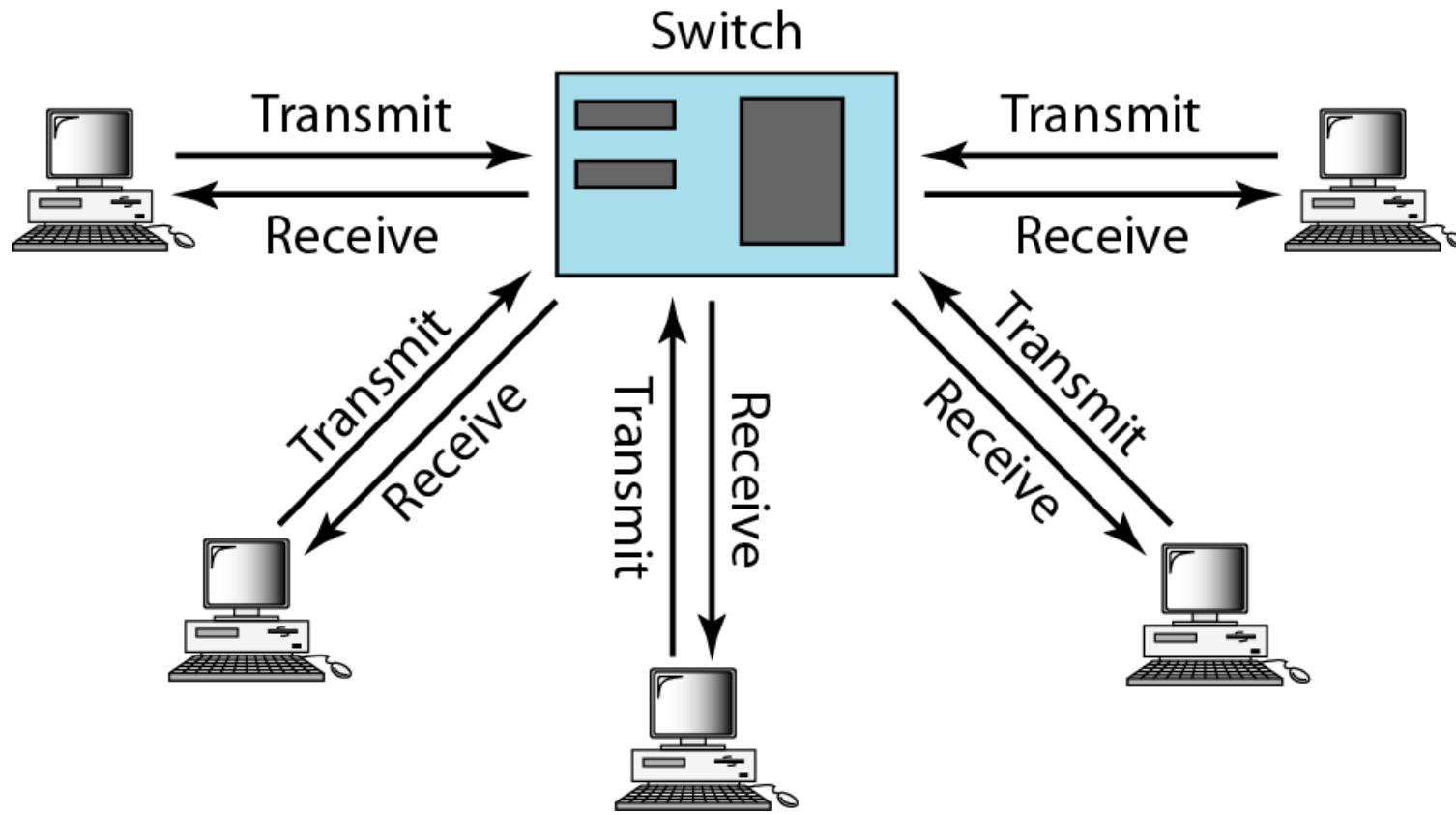
Address	Port
71:2B:13:45:61:41	1
71:2B:13:45:61:42	2
64:2B:13:45:61:12	3
64:2B:13:45:61:13	4

**CSMA/CD**



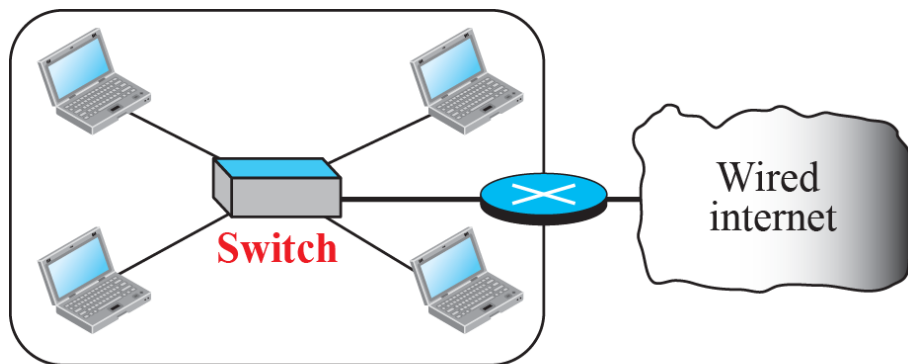
# Full-duplex switched Ethernet

**CSMA/CD**

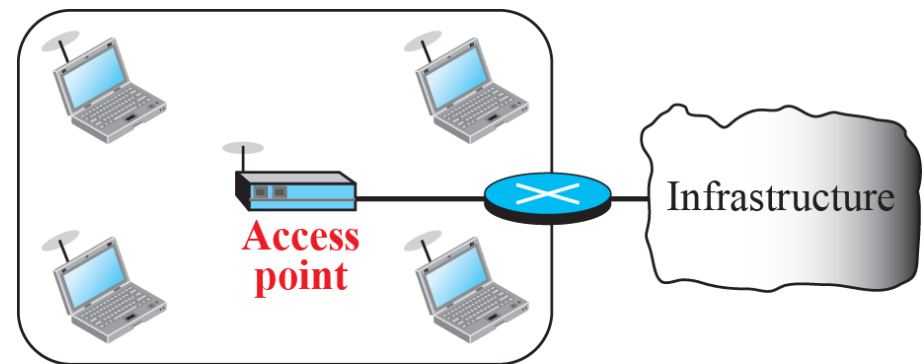


# Wireless LAN

- Popularity of Internet ↑
- Popularity of mobility ↑



Wired LAN

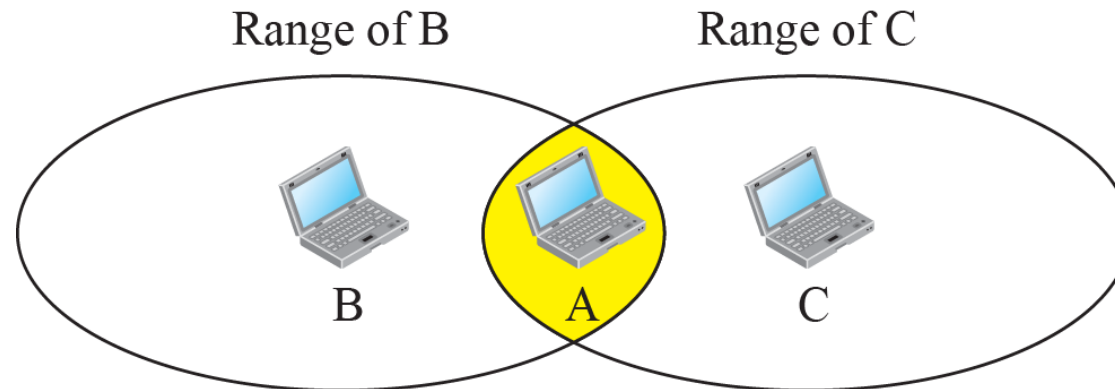


Infrastructure network

- **Basically: A change in medium**
- **Media access technology becomes important**

# Hidden terminal problem

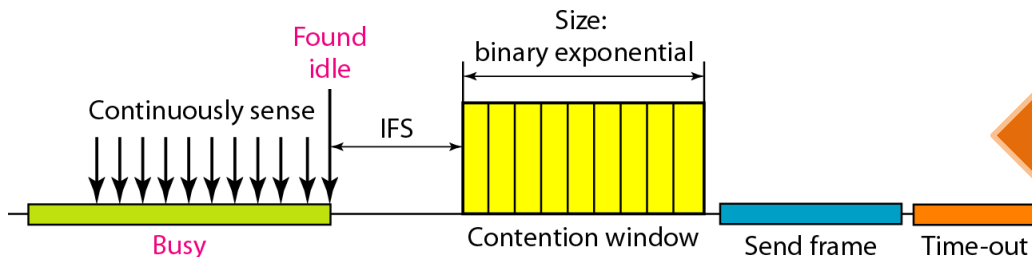
- Infamous in wireless networks
- Prevents collision detection



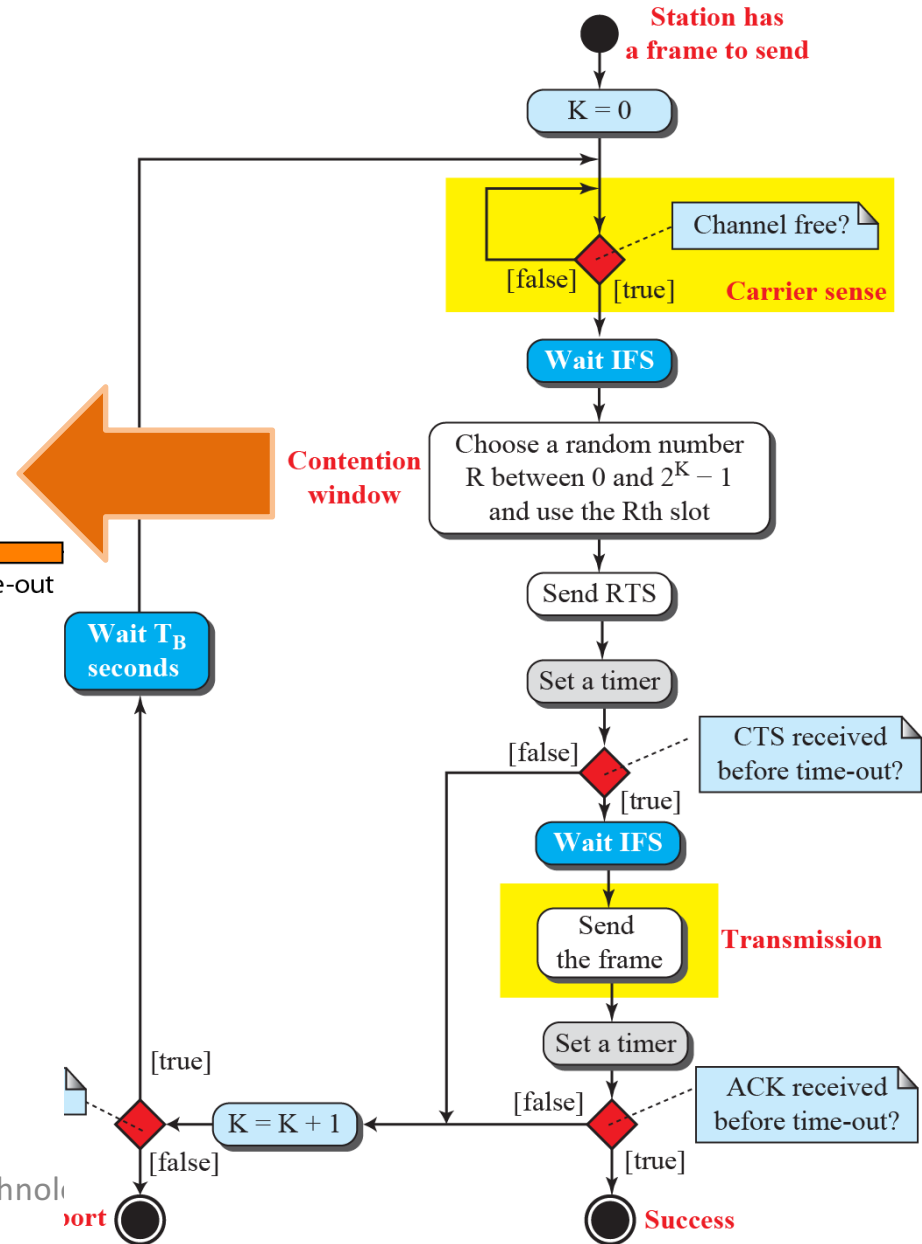
a. Stations B and C are not in each other's range.

# CSMA with Collision Avoidance (CSMA/CA)

- Invented for wireless

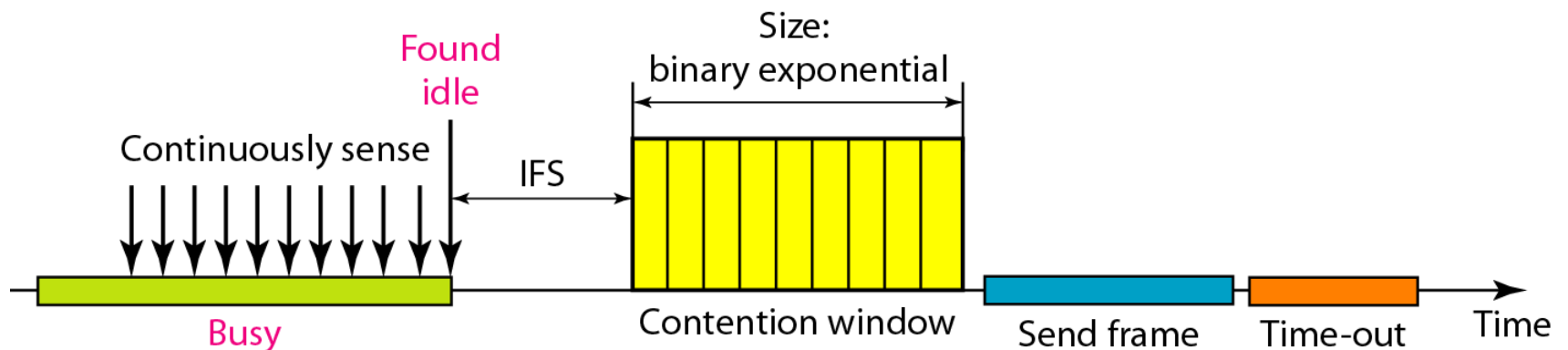


- Interframe space
- Contention window
- RTS/CTS/ACK



# Interframe space

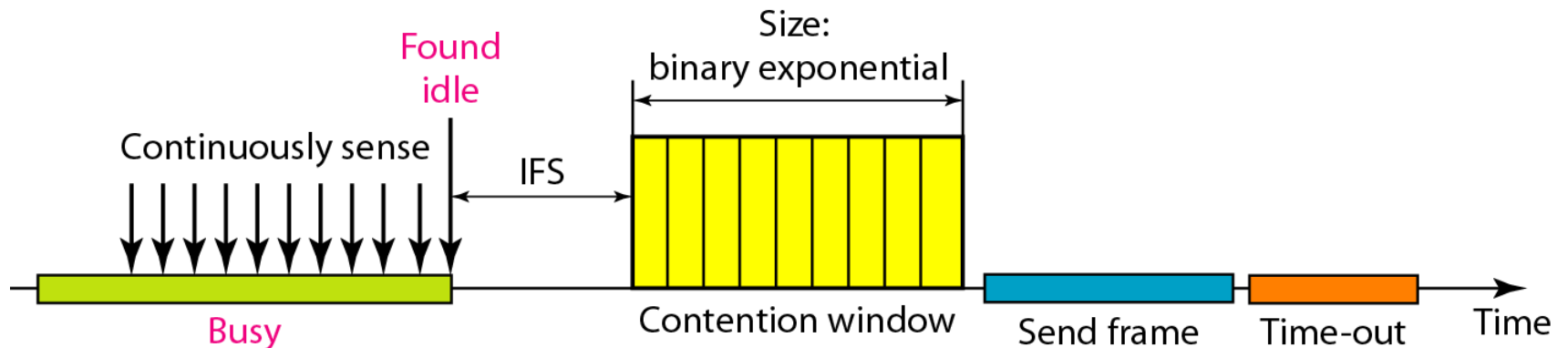
- Do not send immediately when medium idle
- Wait a period of time (interframe space, IFS)
  - A distant station may have already started transmitting
- If, after IFS time, channel still idle, send





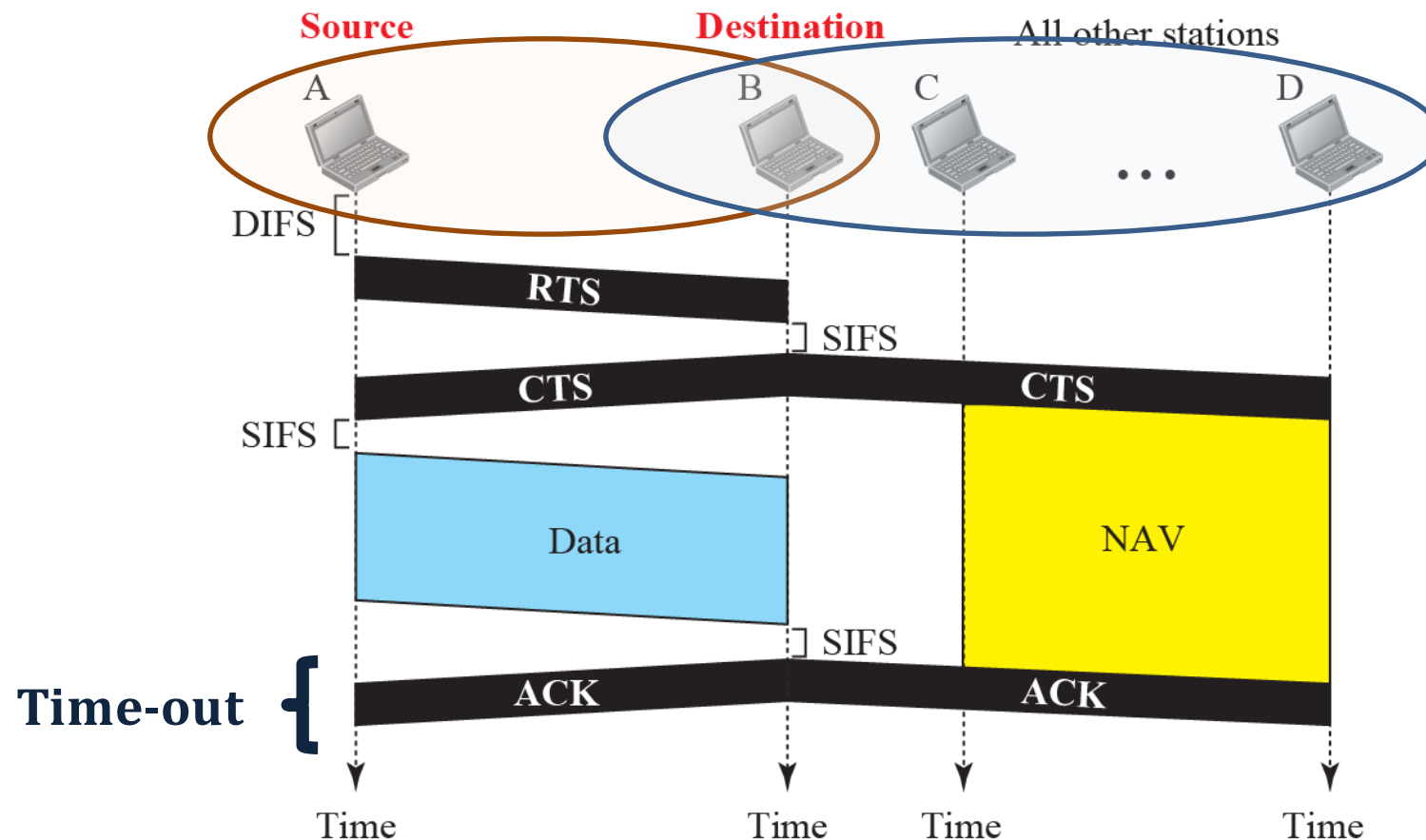
# Contention window

- Amount of time divided into slots
- Pick a random number of slots as waiting time
- During waiting time, if channel becomes busy, defer transmission and restart timer when channel idle again



# RTS/CTS/ACK

- Solution to hidden terminal problem



See you in 15' :)

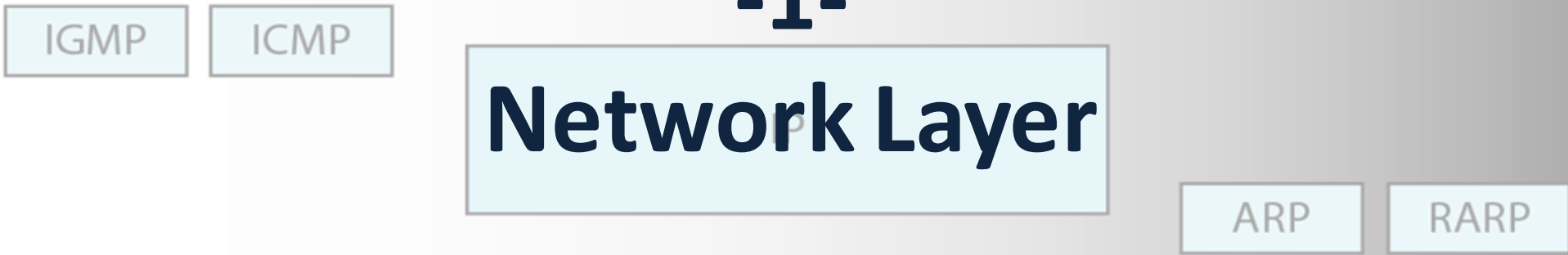


# EITF25 – Internet: Technology and Applications



## Internet Protocols

-1-



2015, Lecture 04

Kaan Bür

2015-12-11

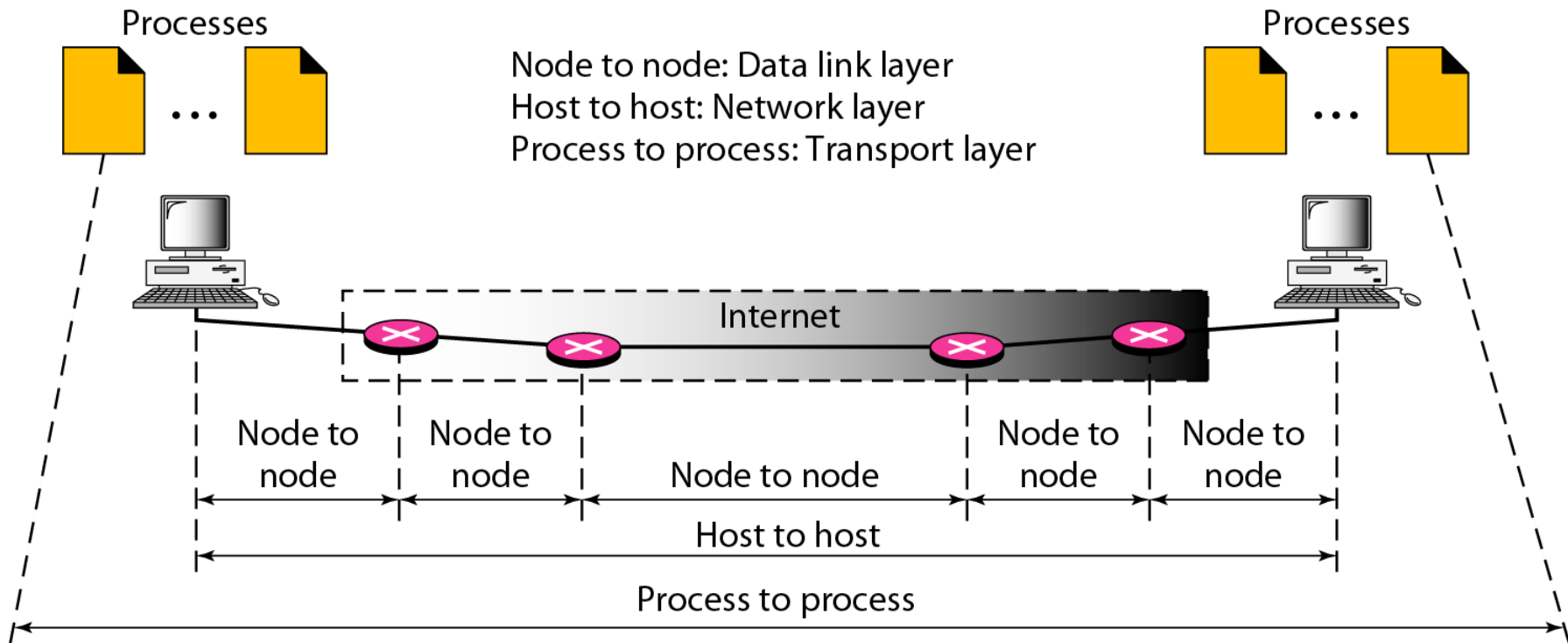
Underlying LAN or WAN technology

EITF15 - Internet Technology and Applications



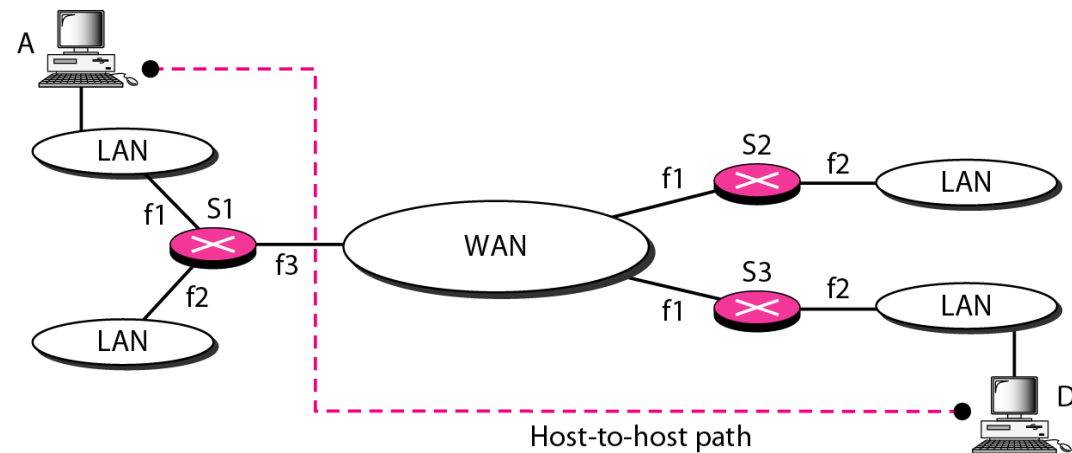
# Host-to-host delivery

- Multiple applications even on the same host



# Network layer

- L3  
– end-to-end

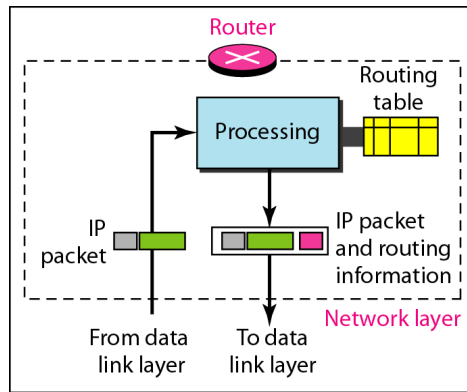


- L2  
– hop-by-hop

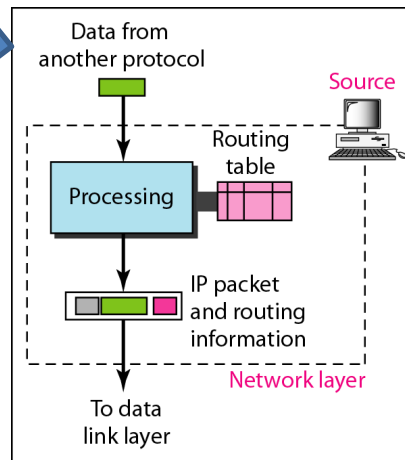
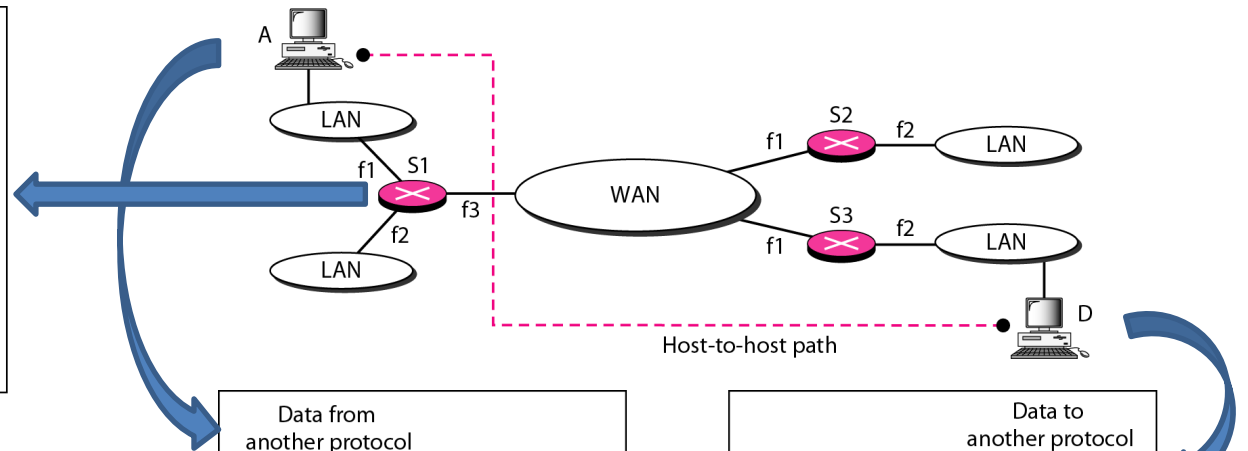


# Network layer: Routing

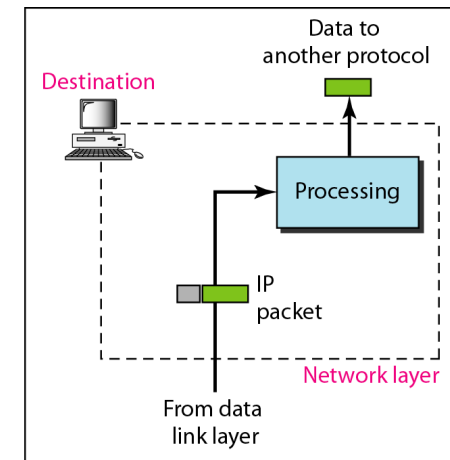
- L3 is end-to-end



c. Network layer at a router



a. Network layer at source



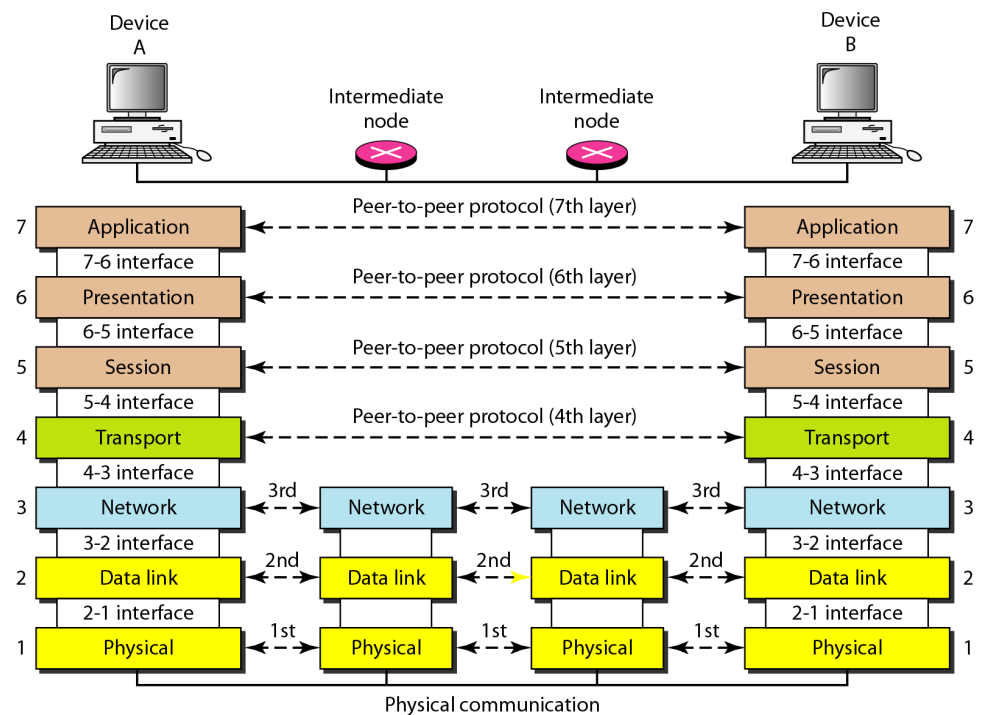
b. Network layer at destination

Two functions:

- 1 Addressing
- 2 Feedback

# Routing

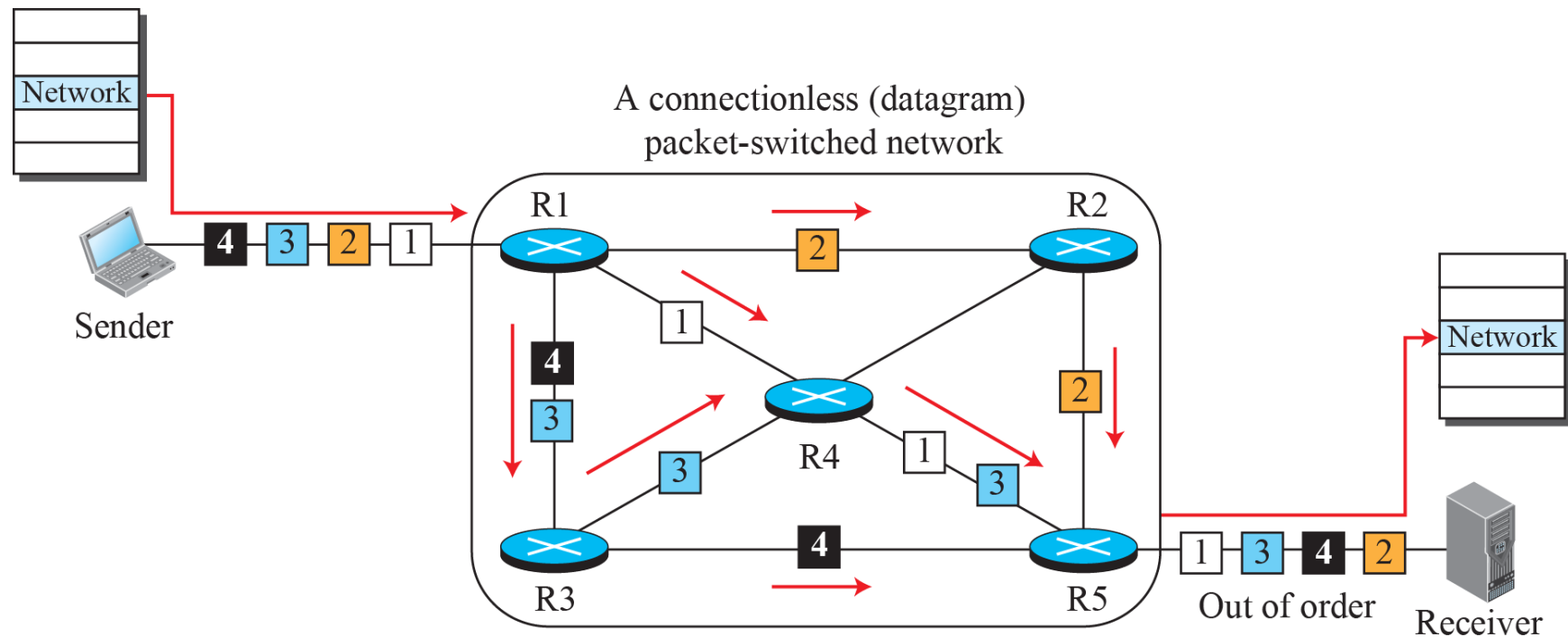
- Choosing the optimal path
  - Using a cost metric
- Sharing information
  - Central
  - Distributed
- Algorithms
  - Rules and procedures
  - Updates





# Packet-switched routing

- Choosing the optimal path
  - Using a cost metric

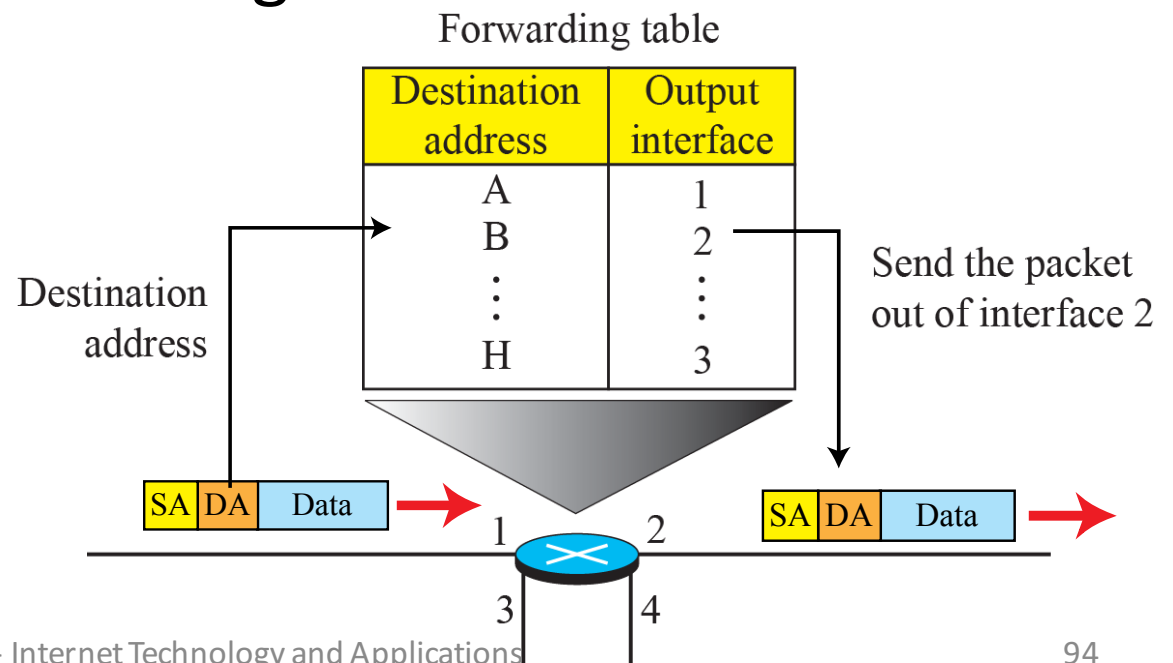


# Router

- Internetworking device
  - Passes data packets between networks
  - Checks **Network Layer** addresses
  - Uses Routing/forwarding tables

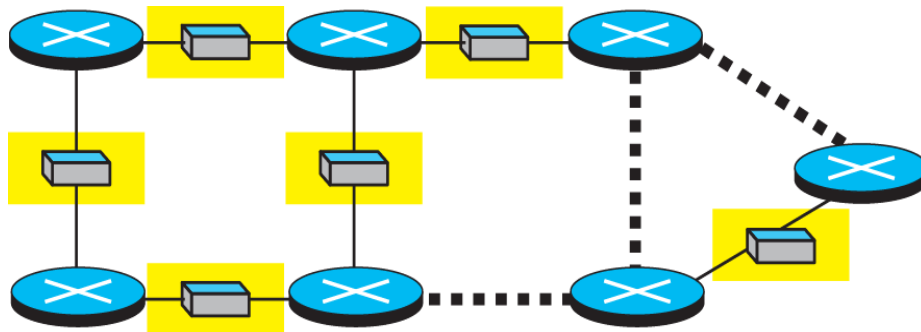
Two functions:

- 1 Routing
- 2 Forwarding

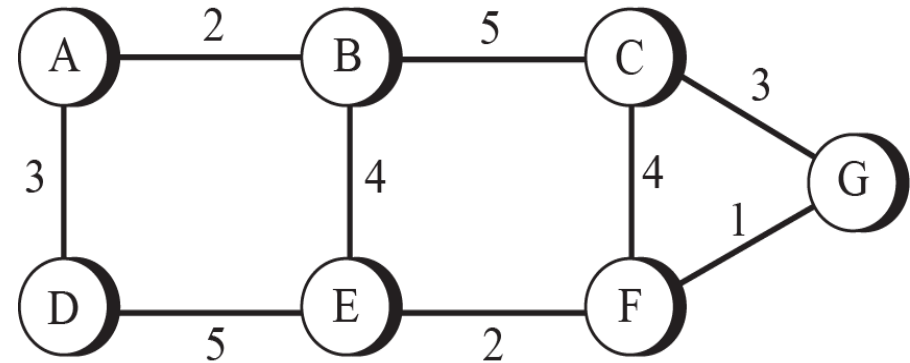


# Routing algorithm

- Find route with least cost between source and destination.
- Update routing tables



a. An internet



b. The weighted graph

## Legend



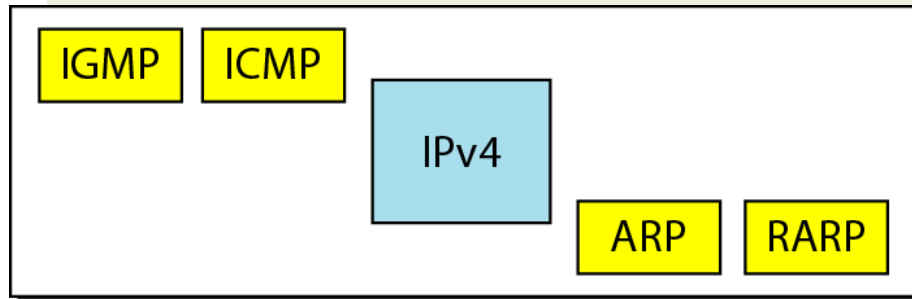
# Network layer protocols

- We need a universal address system. This is called the *network address*.
- We need rules for data forwarding. This is called *routing*.
- We need entities connecting several networks together and forwarding data between them. These are called *routers*.

# Internet Protocol

## IPv4

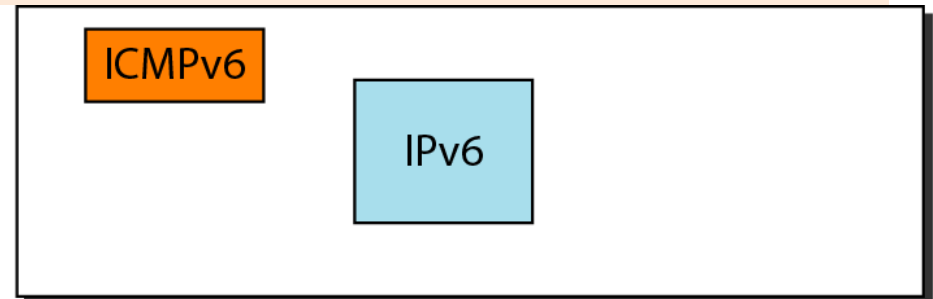
- Addressing scheme
  - Hierarchy
  - Configuration
  - Lookup
- Datagram format



Network layer in version 4

## IPv6

- Larger address space
- Better header format
  - Extendible
  - More secure
- Support for QoS

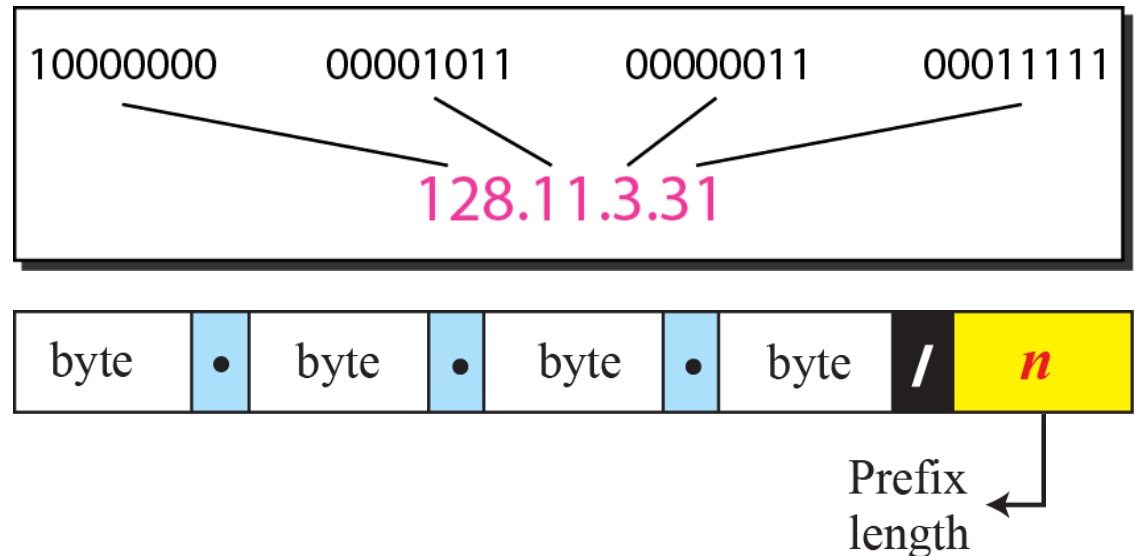


Network layer in version 6

# IPv4 addresses

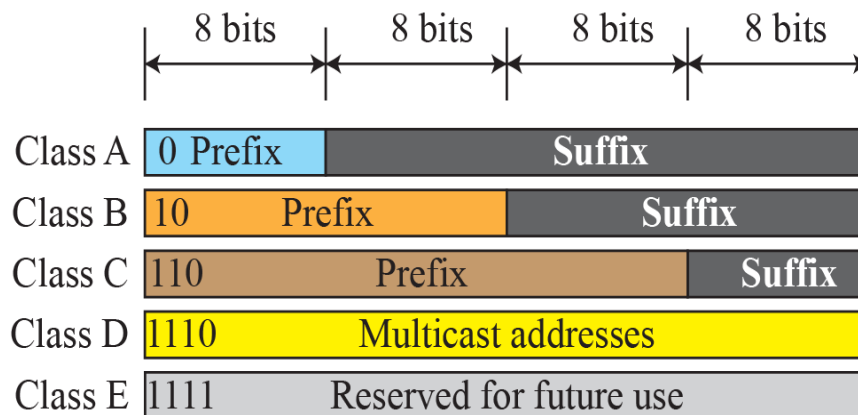
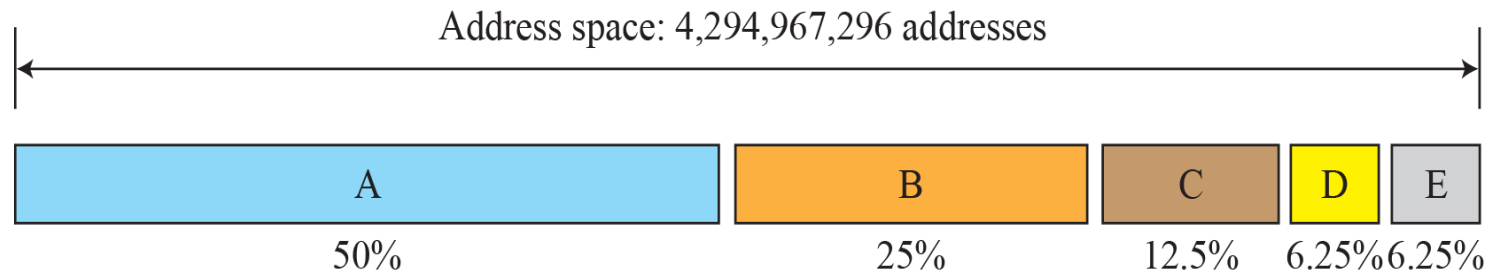
- 32 bits = 4 bytes
- $2^{32} = (2^8)^4 = 256^4 = 4\,294\,967\,296$
- Classful vs. classless hierarchy

- Notations
  - Dotted decimal
  - Slash (CIDR)



# Classful addressing

- Five address classes defined: A, B, C, (D and E)



Class	Prefixes	First byte
A	$n = 8$ bits	0 to 127
B	$n = 16$ bits	128 to 191
C	$n = 24$ bits	192 to 223
D	Not applicable	224 to 239
E	Not applicable	240 to 255

# Classful addressing

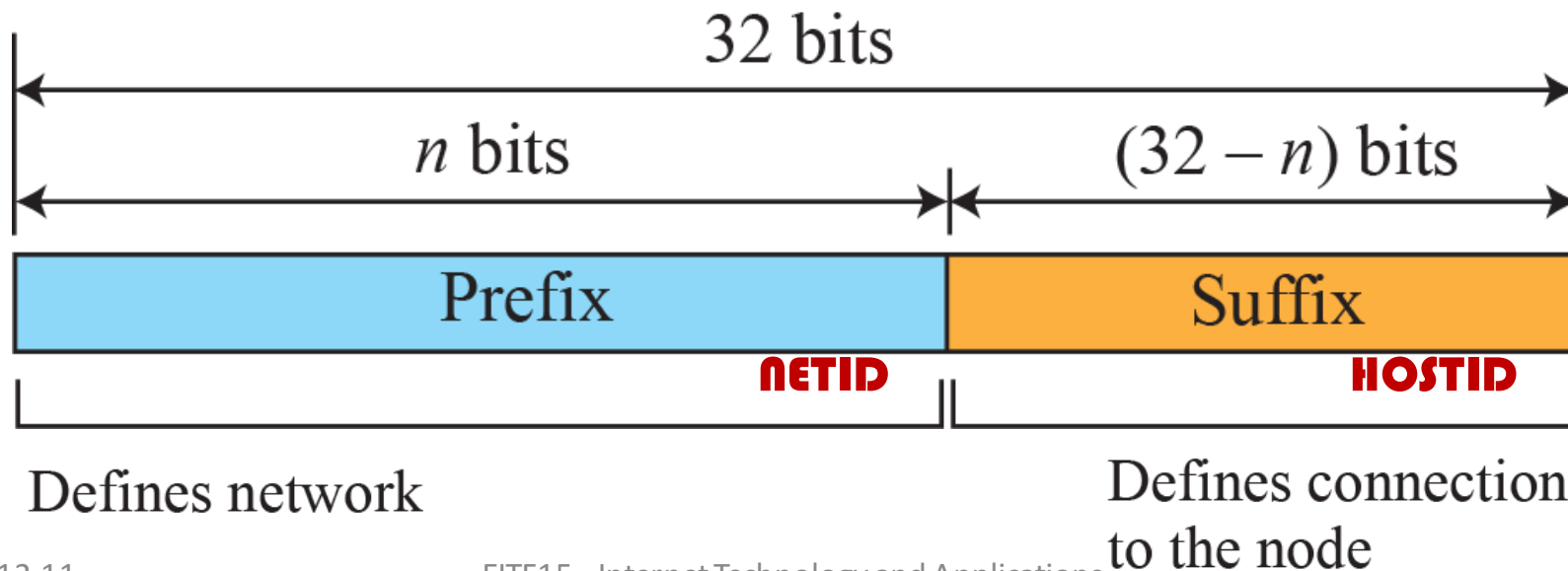
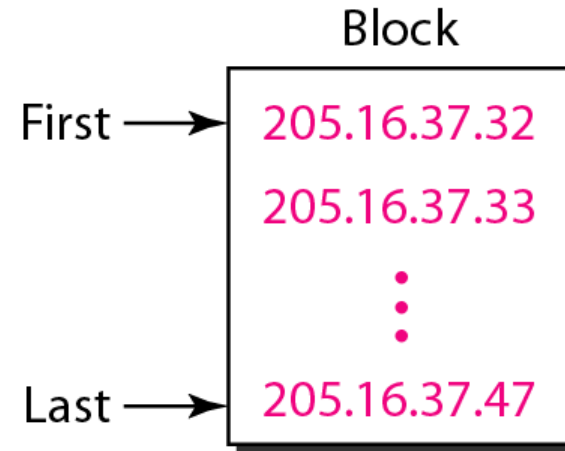
- Organizations can only get addresses in one of the predefined blocks.

<i>Class</i>	<i>Number of Blocks</i>	<i>Block Size</i>	<i>Application</i>
A	128	16,777,216	Unicast
B	16,384	65,536	Unicast
C	2,097,152	256	Unicast



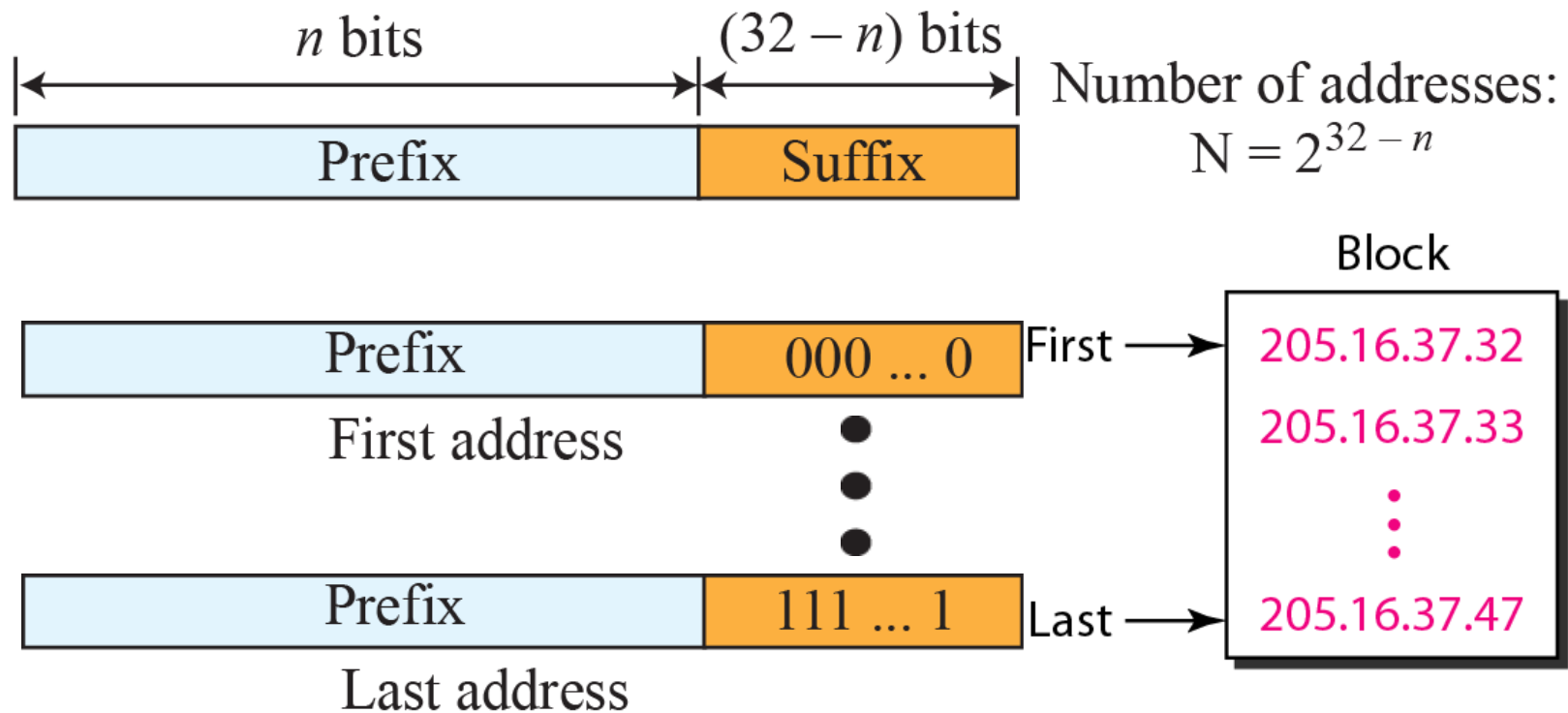
# Classless addressing

- Addresses in blocks
  - Block size power of 2
  - $N = 2^{32-n}$
  - First address divisible by  $N$



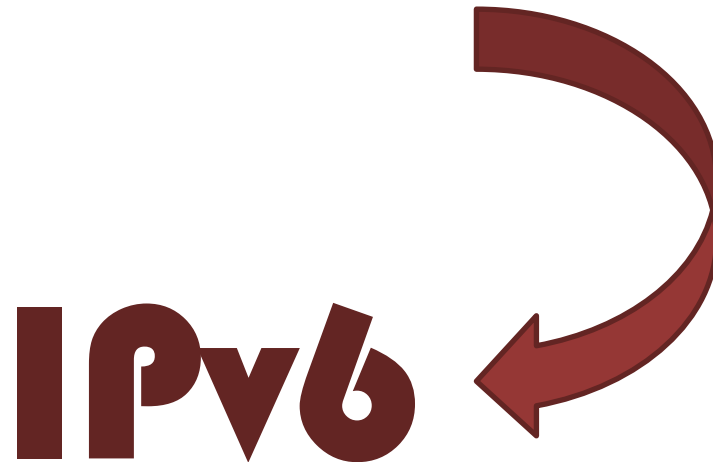
# Exercise: Classless addressing

- CIDR = slash notation with mask  $/n$
- 205.16.37.39/28



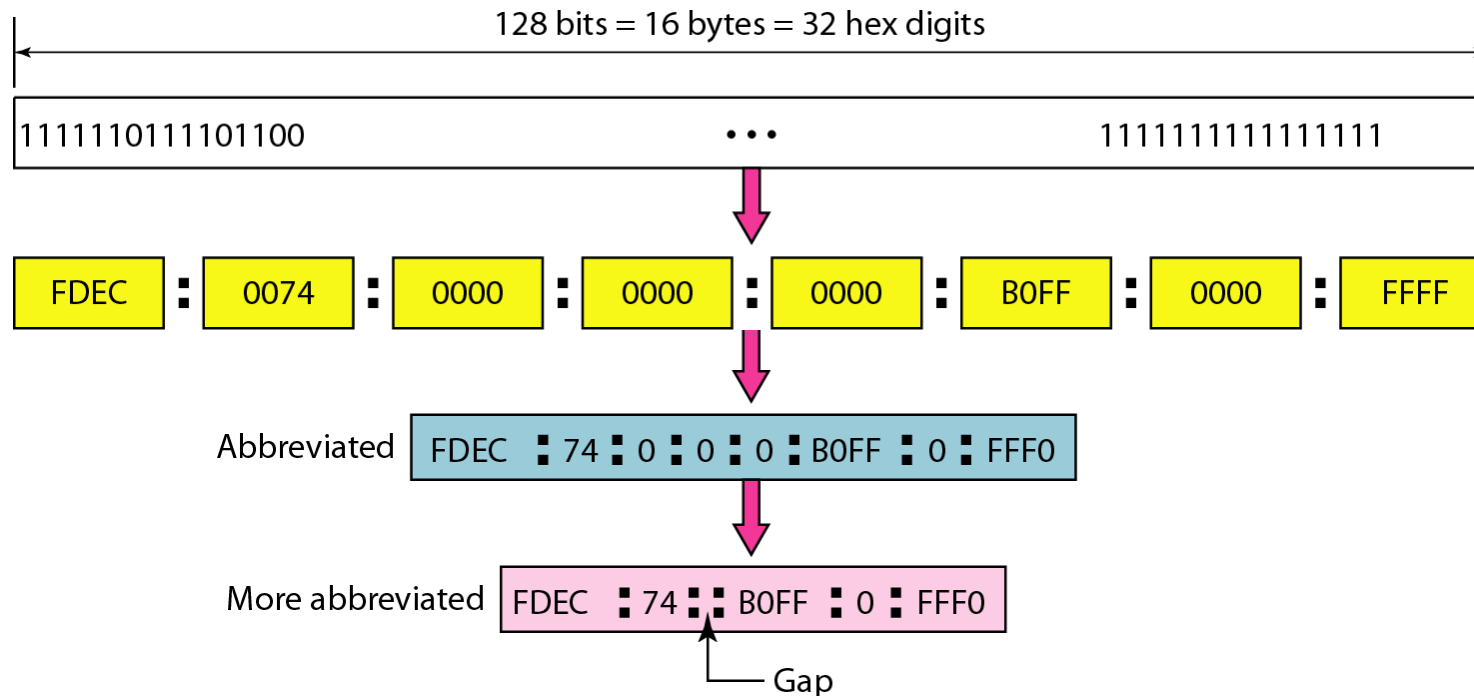
# Problems with IPv4

- Address space too small
- Not designed for real-time applications
- No support for encryption and authentication



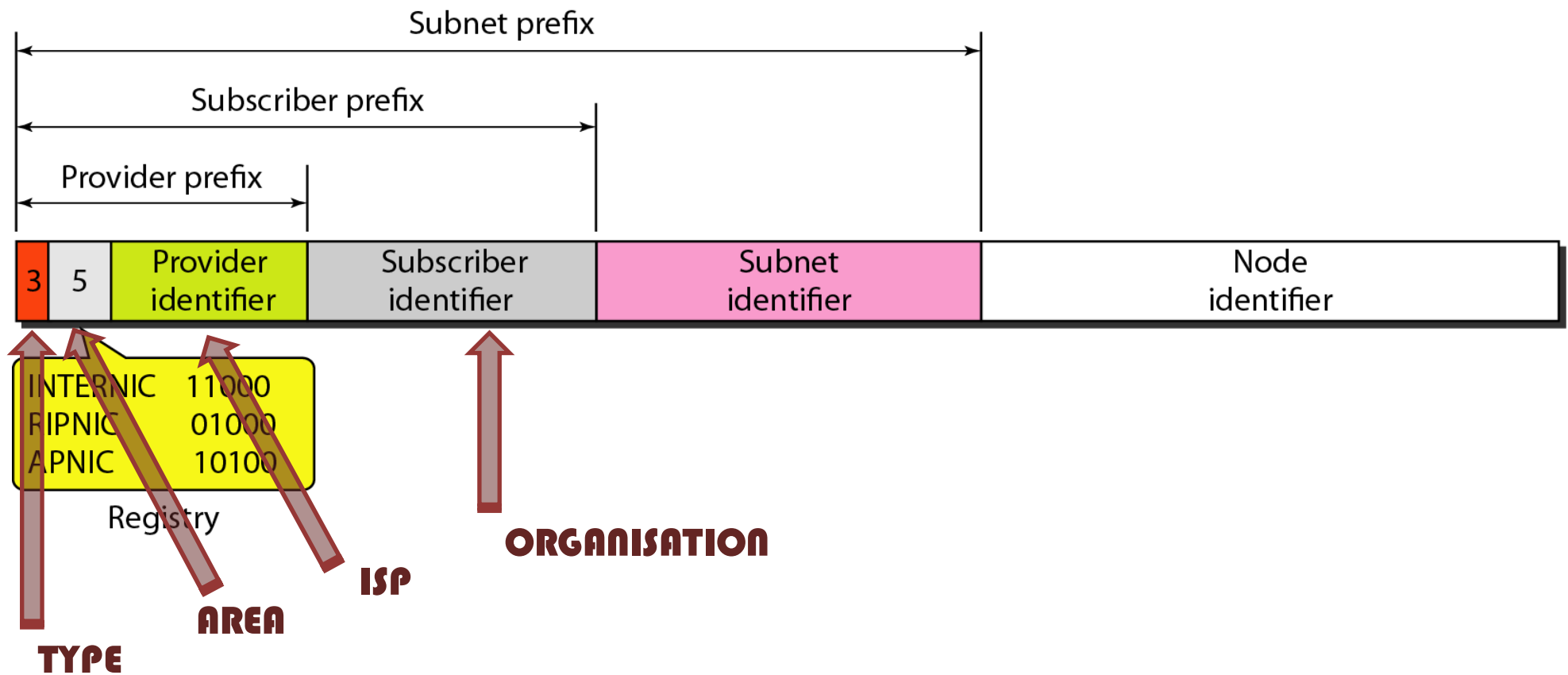
# IPv6 addresses

- 128 bits = 16 bytes
- $2^{128} = 2^{32} \cdot 2^{96} > 3 \cdot 10^{35}$
- Notations



# Global unicast addresses

- Identify individual computers



# IPv6 and QoS

## *Flow label*

- Identification of a stream
  - TCP sessions
  - Virtual connections
- Processing
  - Flow label table
  - Forwarding table
- Routing
  - Algorithms still necessary
  - But not run for every packet!

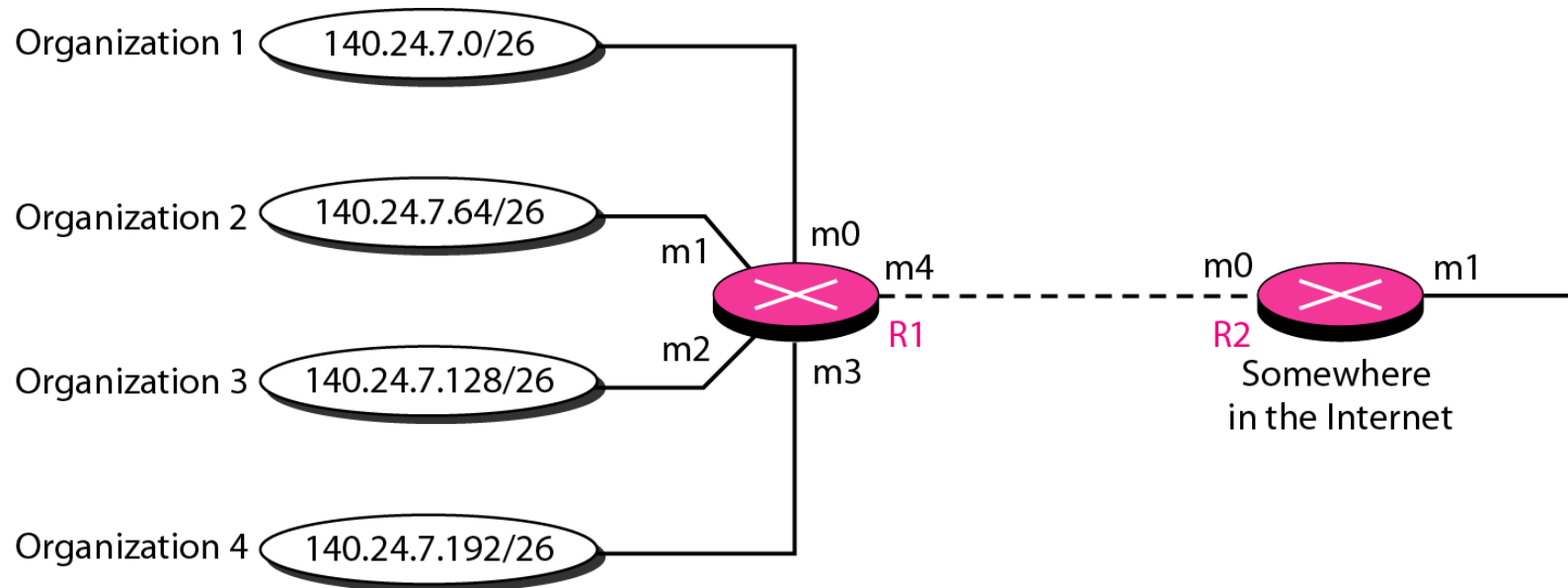


**CROSS-LAYER?**

## *Traffic class*

- Classification of packets
  - Queueing schemes
  - Relation to delay
- TCP vs. UDP
  - Congestion-controlled
  - Non-congestion-controlled
- Other protocols
  - RTP
  - RSVP

# Forwarding: Address aggregation



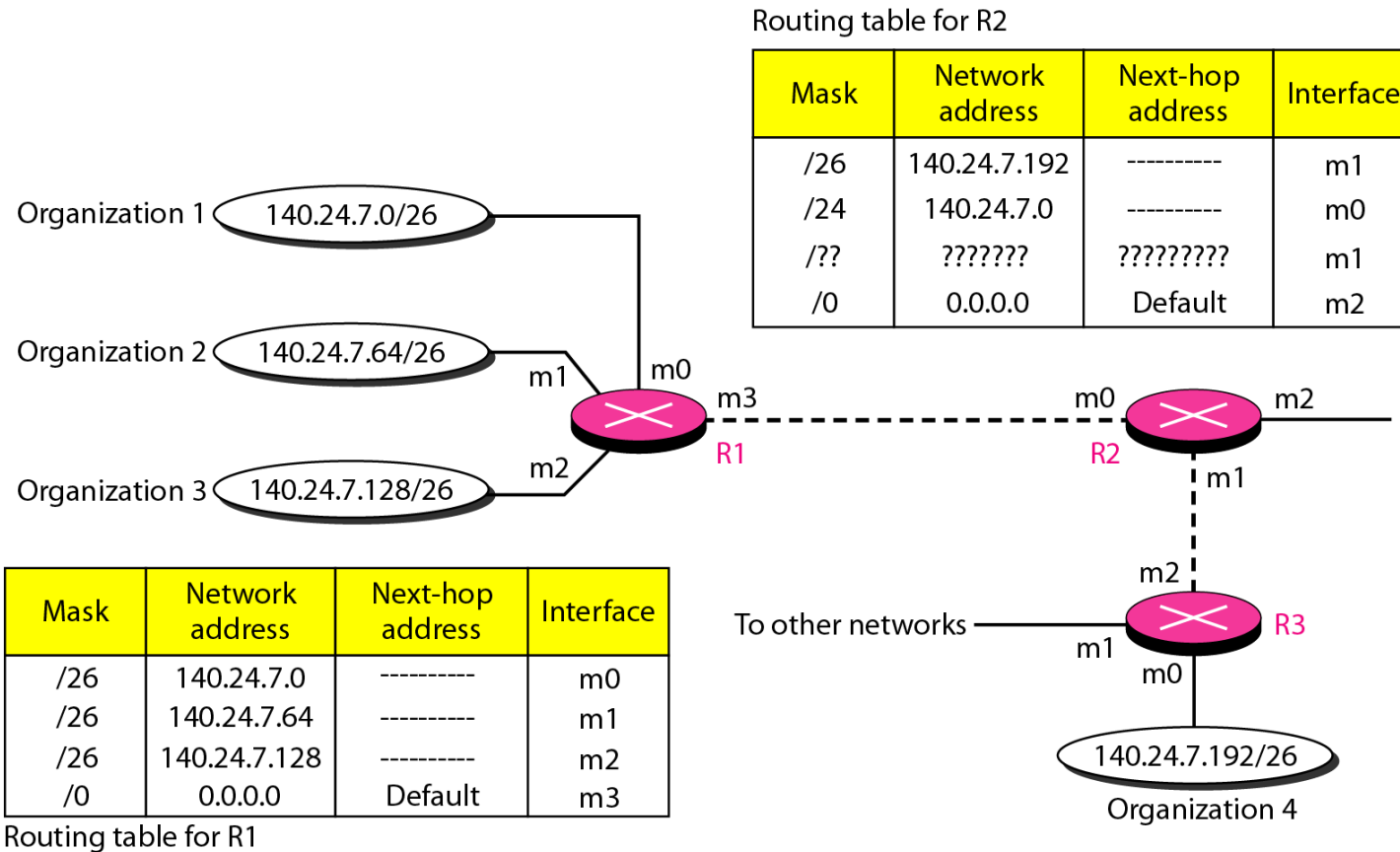
Mask	Network address	Next-hop address	Interface
/26	140.24.7.0	-----	m0
/26	140.24.7.64	-----	m1
/26	140.24.7.128	-----	m2
/26	140.24.7.192	-----	m3
/0	0.0.0.0	Default	m4

Routing table for R1

Mask	Network address	Next-hop address	Interface
/24	140.24.7.0	-----	m0
/0	0.0.0.0	Default	m1

Routing table for R2

# Forwarding: Longest mask matching

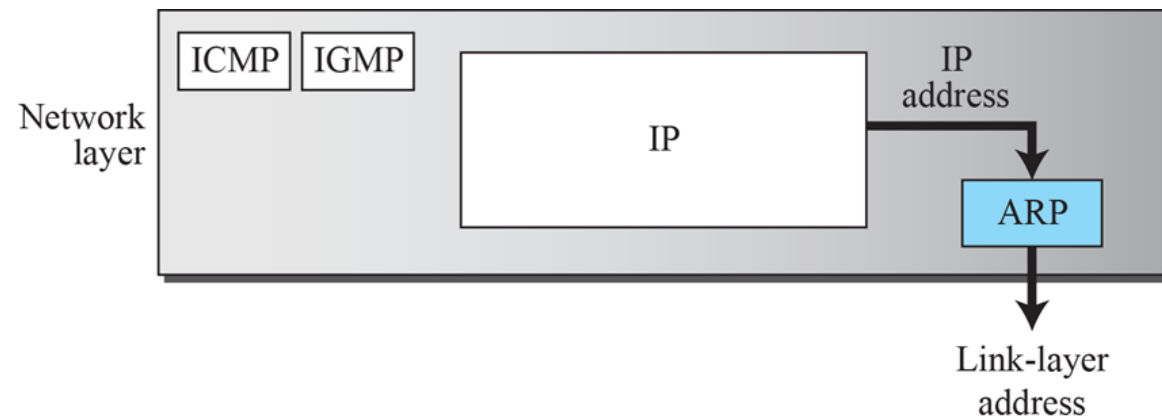


Routing table for R3

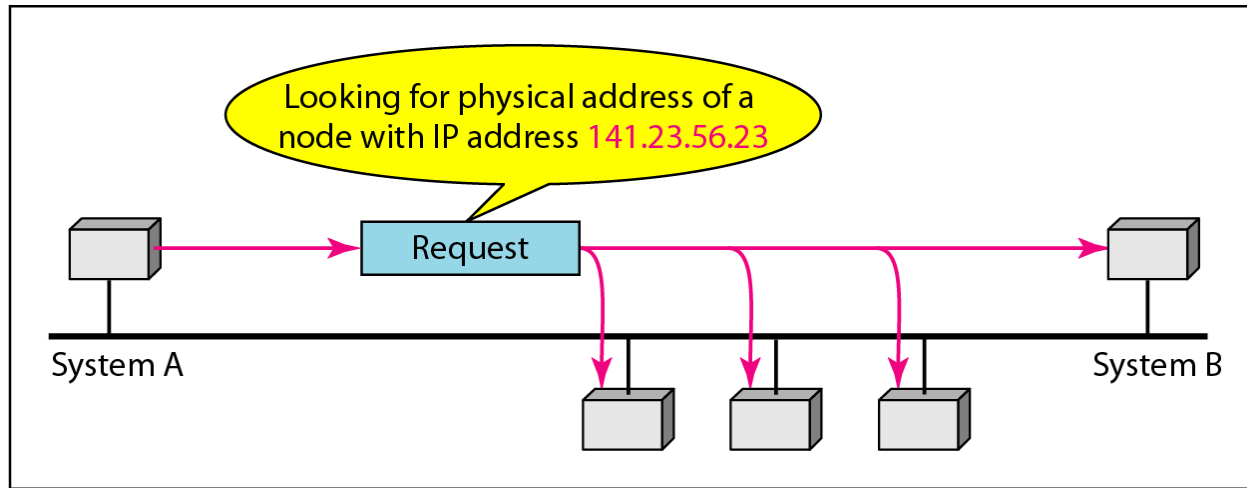


# Address Resolution Protocol (ARP)

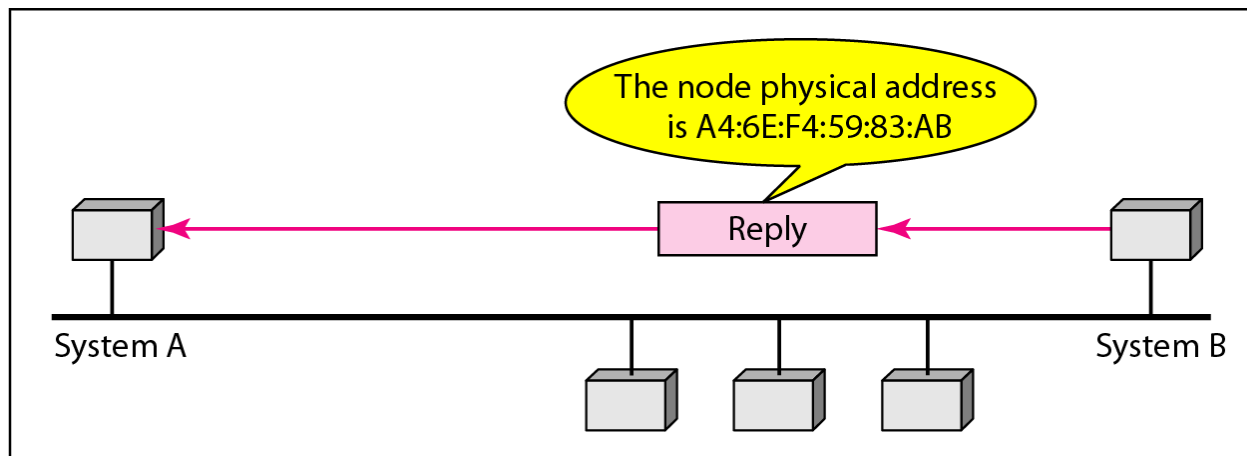
- Mapping of IP addresses to MAC addresses
- Internet
  - Network of networks connected by routers
- Routers/hosts need information
  - Logical (IP) → physical (MAC)



# ARP request and reply

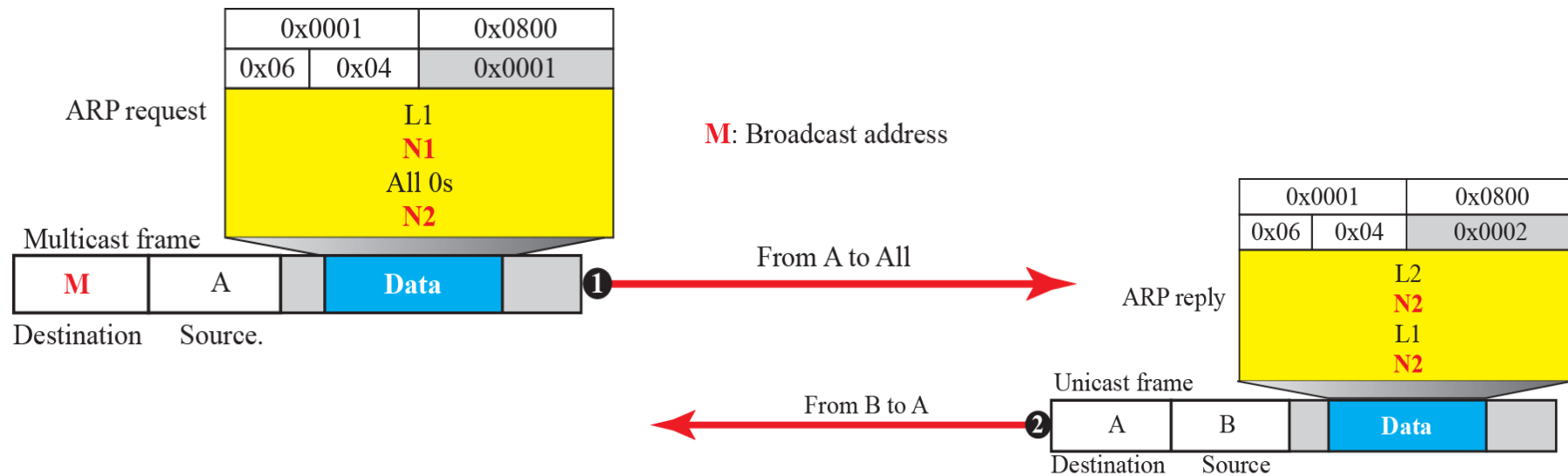
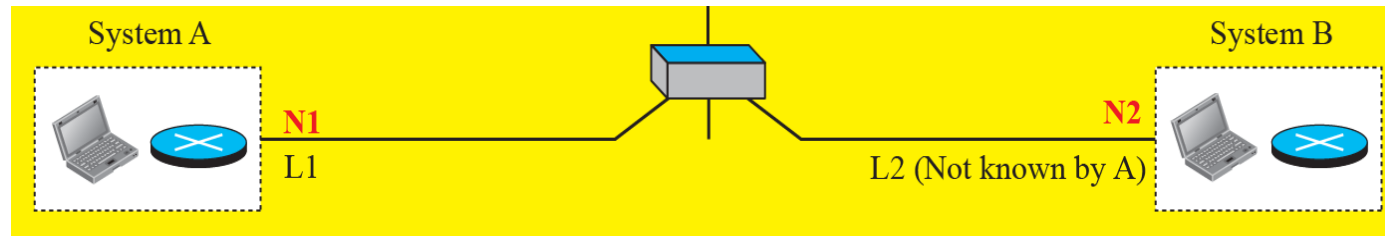


a. ARP request is broadcast

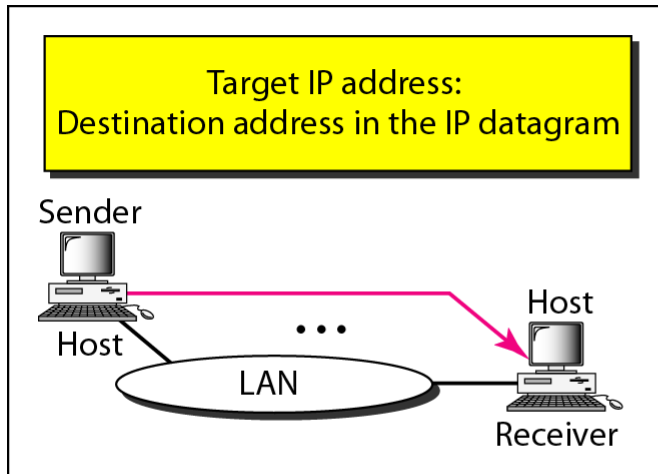


b. ARP reply is unicast

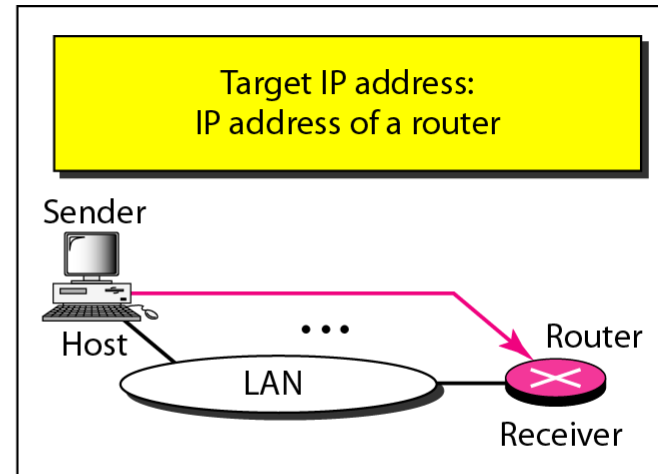
# ARP example



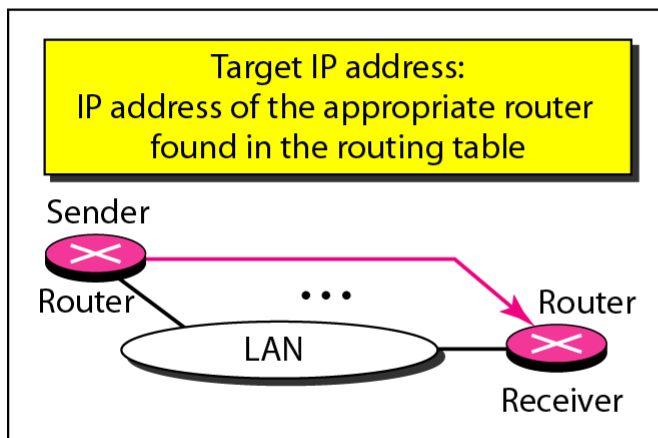
# Four use cases for ARP



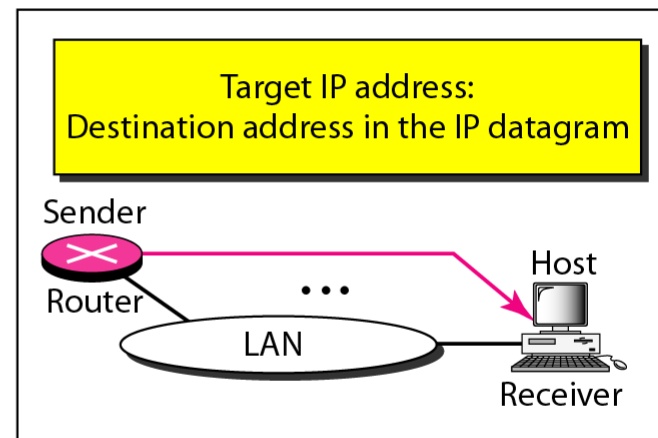
Case 1. A host has a packet to send to another host on the same network.



Case 2. A host wants to send a packet to another host on another network. It must first be delivered to a router.



Case 3. A router receives a packet to be sent to a host on another network. It must first be delivered to the appropriate router.



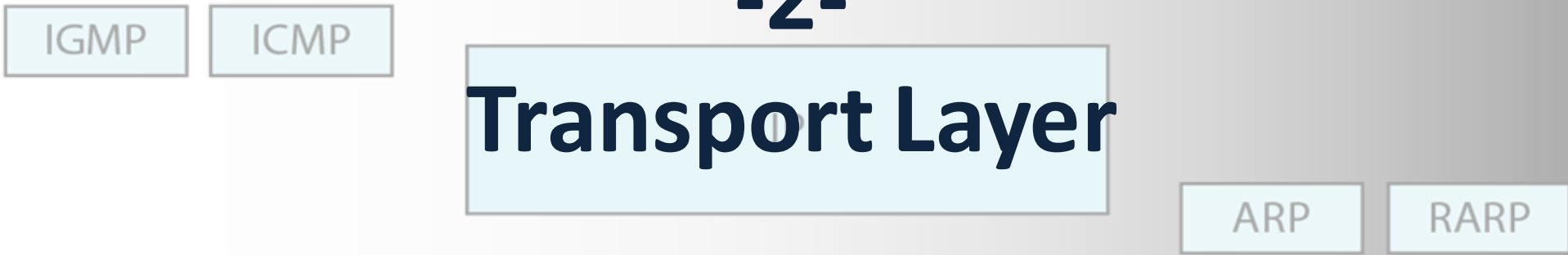
Case 4. A router receives a packet to be sent to a host on the same network.

# EITF25 – Internet: Technology and Applications



## Internet Protocols

-2-



## Transport Layer

2015, Lecture 06

Kaan Bür

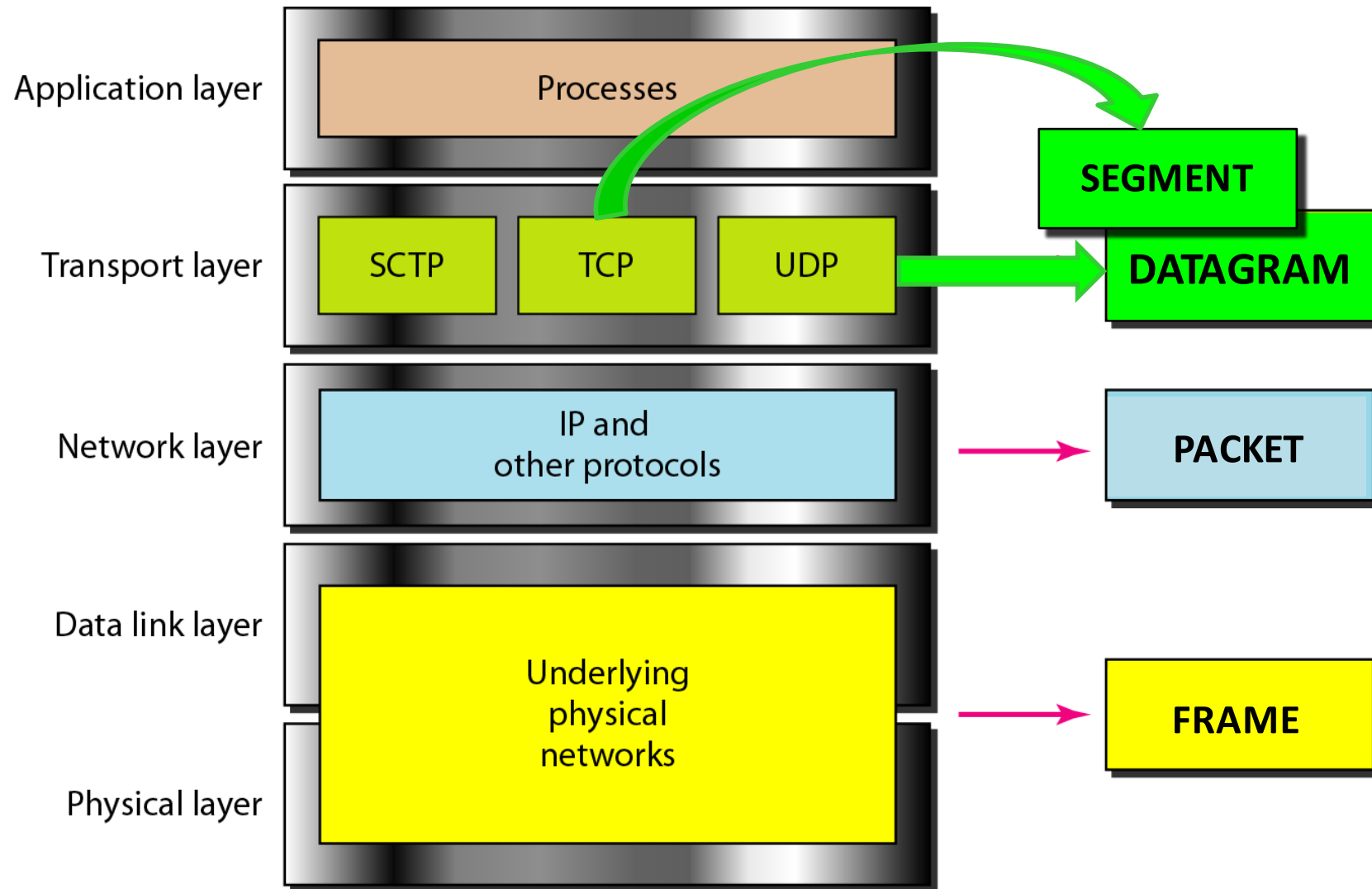
2015-12-11

Underlying LAN or WAN technology

EITF15 - Internet Technology and Applications

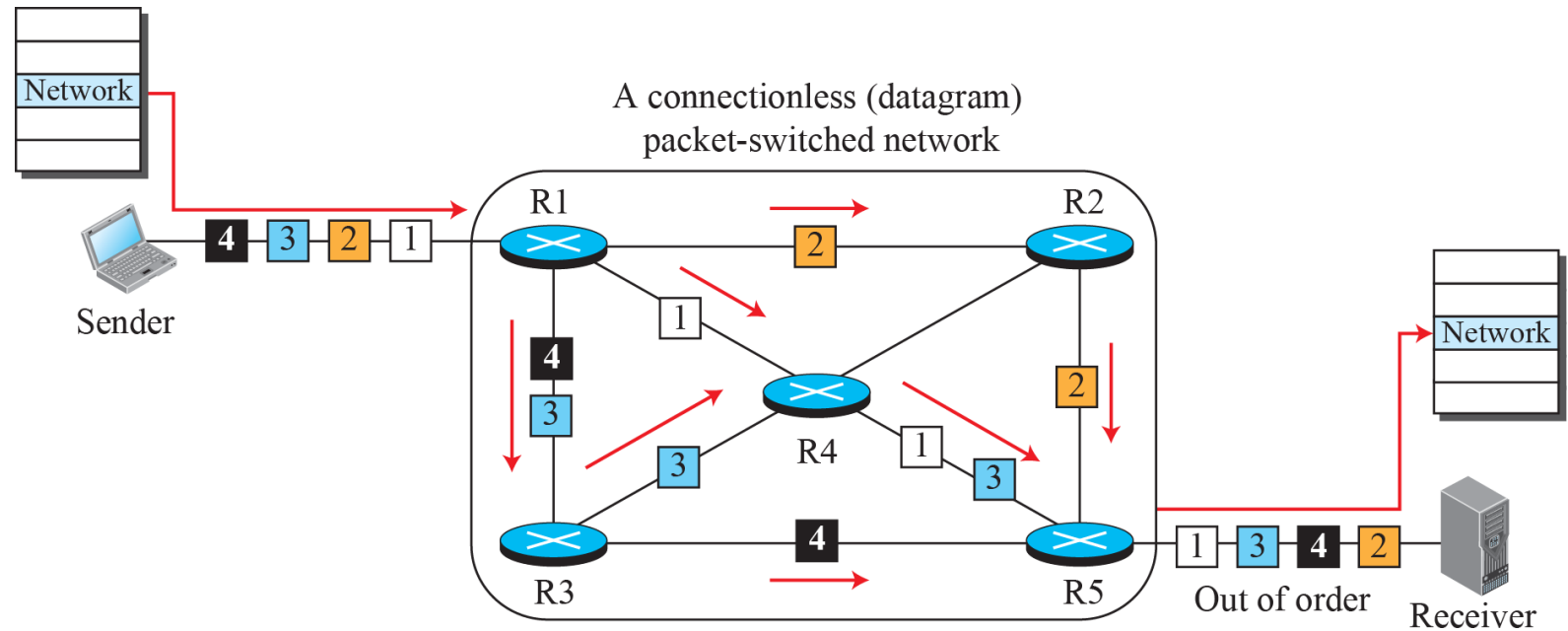


# TCP/IP model and data units <sup>CORRECTION</sup>

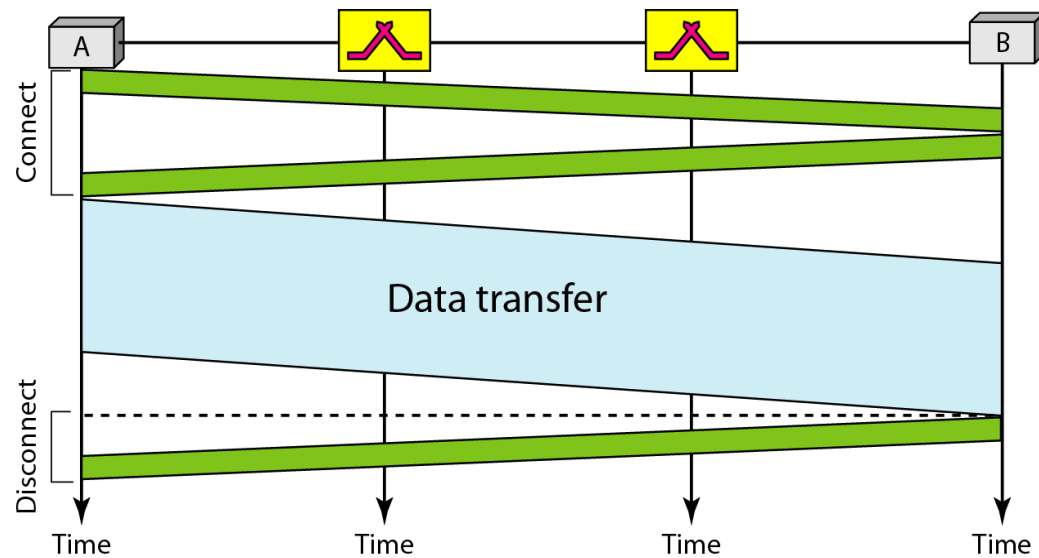


# Network vs. Transport Layer

- L3



- L4?

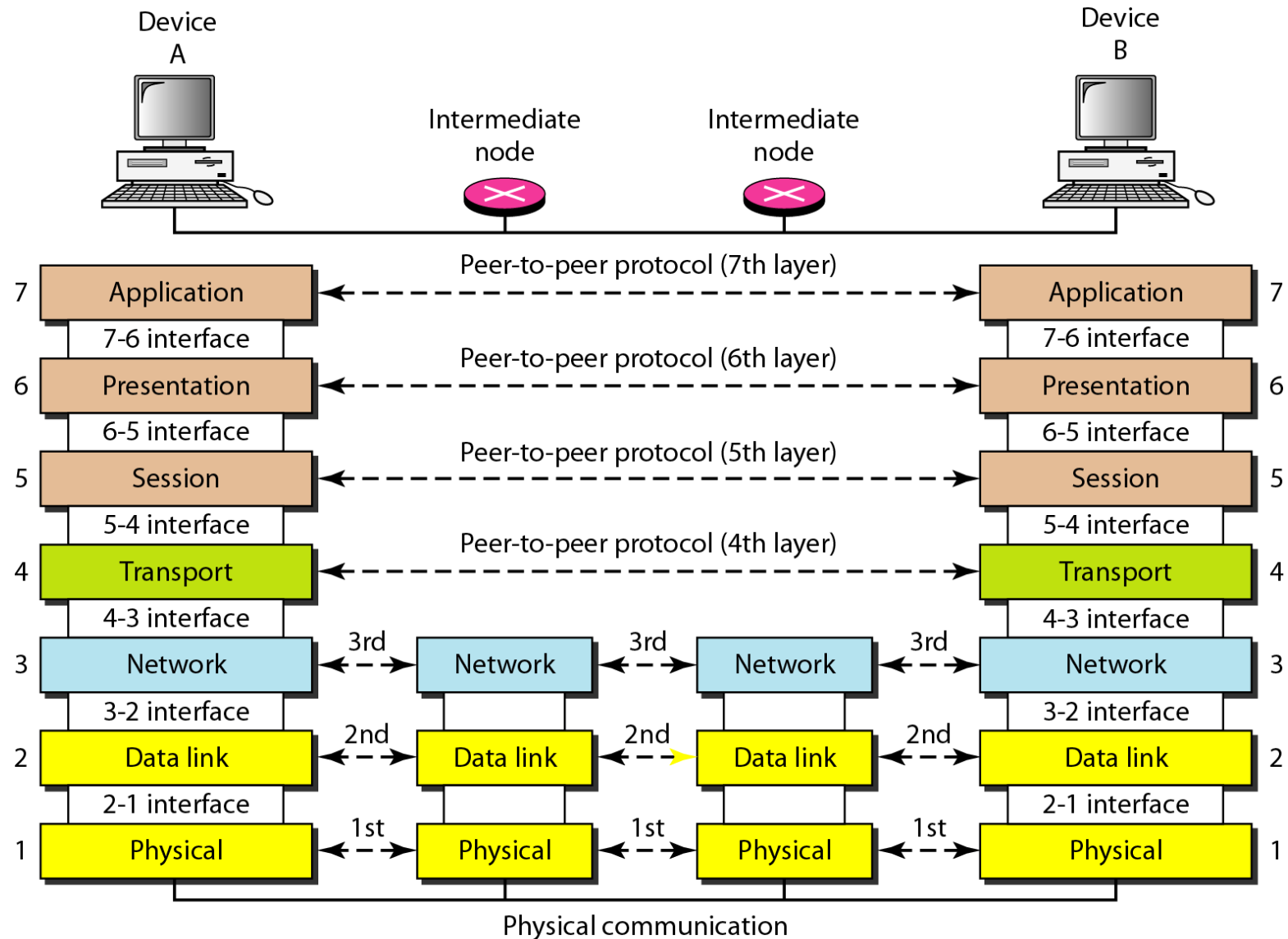


# Transport Layer

- Communication between applications
- Process-to-process delivery
- Client/server concept
  - Local host
  - Remote host
- Transport Protocol
  - Even more end-to-end

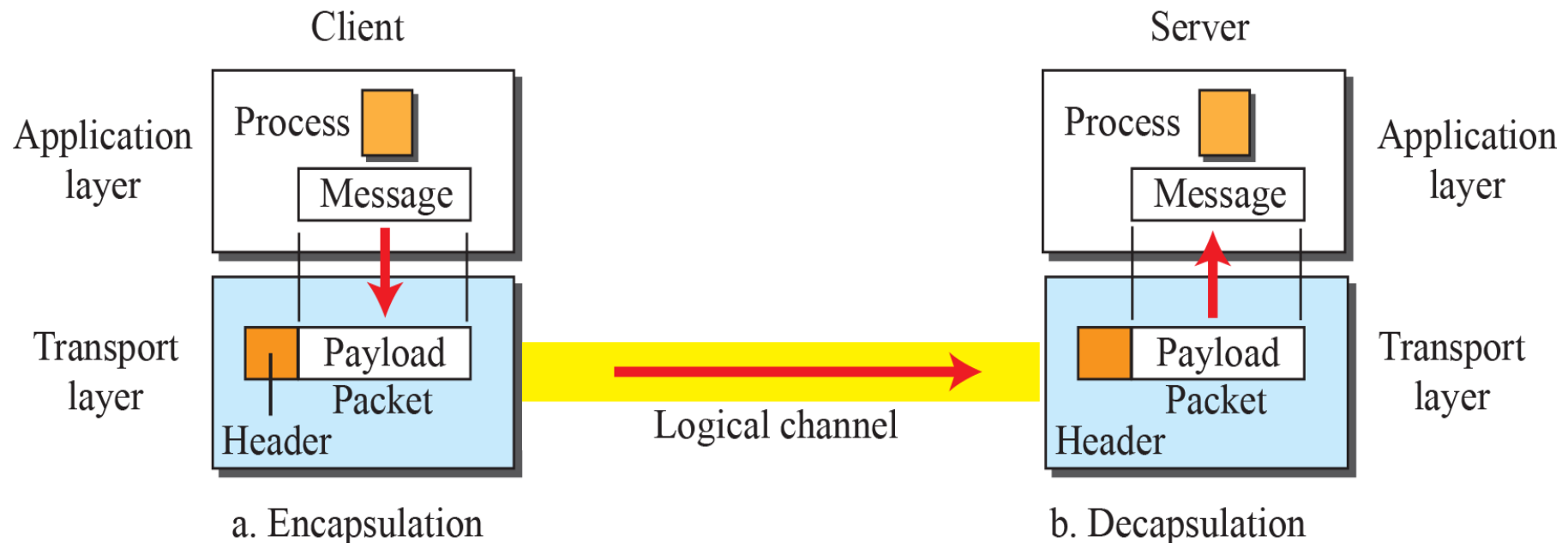


# Transport Layer



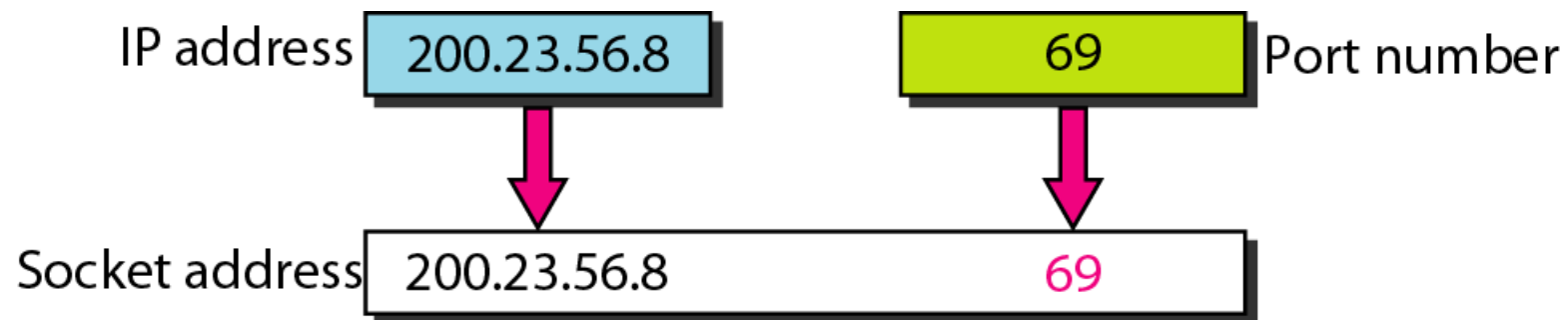
# Transport protocol

- Encapsulates application data and ensures that it is sent to the correct receiving application to be decapsulated and used

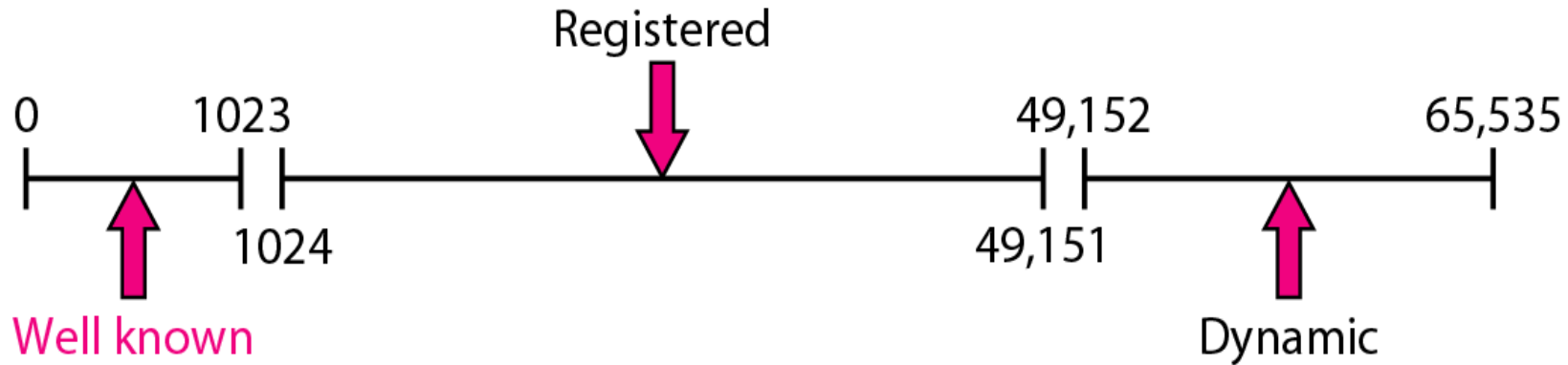


# Socket addresses

- Combination of IP address & port number
  - Unique for each process on the host



# Port number ranges



**TCP**

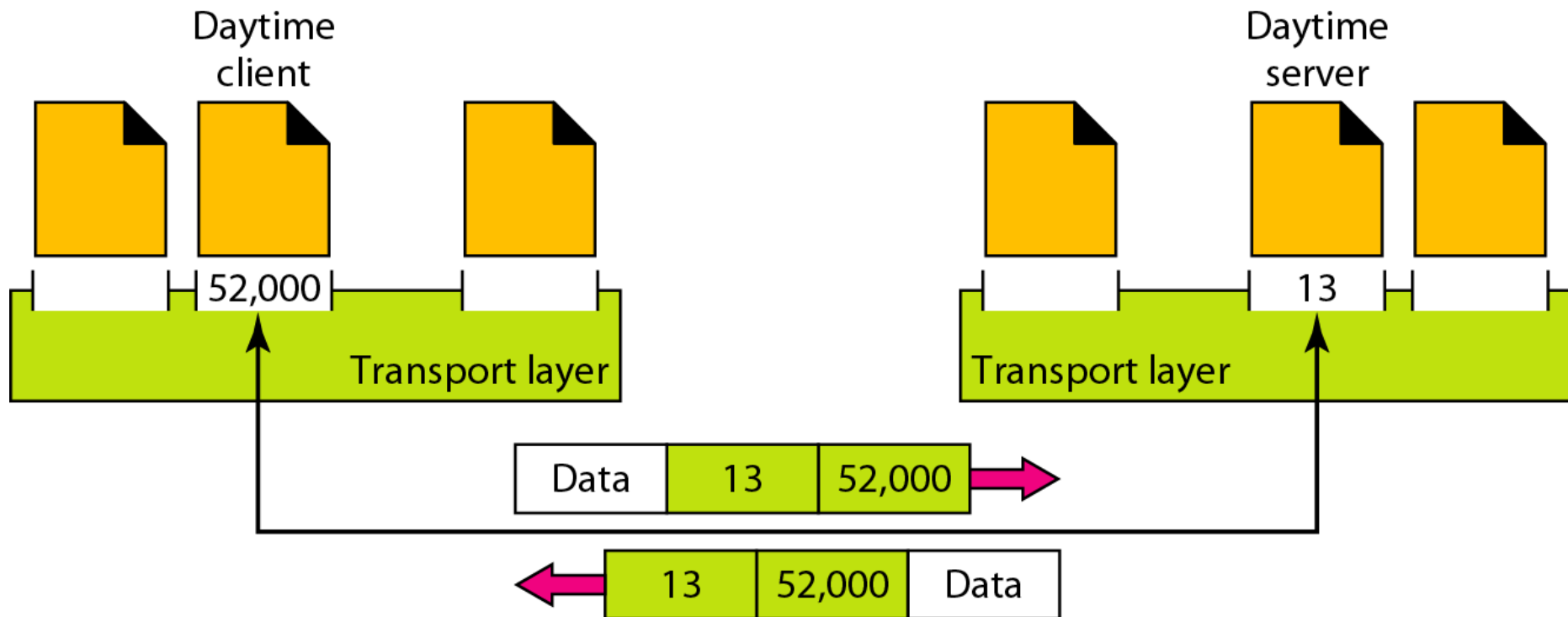
**UDP**

Port	Protocol	Description
7	Echo	Echoes a received datagram back to the sender
9	Discard	Discards any datagram that is received
11	Users	Active users
13	Daytime	Returns the date and the time
17	Quote	Returns a quote of the day
19	Chargen	Returns a string of characters
20	FTP, Data	File Transfer Protocol (data connection)
21	FTP, Control	File Transfer Protocol (control connection)
23	TELNET	Terminal Network
25	SMTP	Simple Mail Transfer Protocol
53	DNS	Domain Name Server
67	BOOTP	Bootstrap Protocol
79	Finger	Finger
80	HTTP	Hypertext Transfer Protocol
111	RPC	Remote Procedure Call

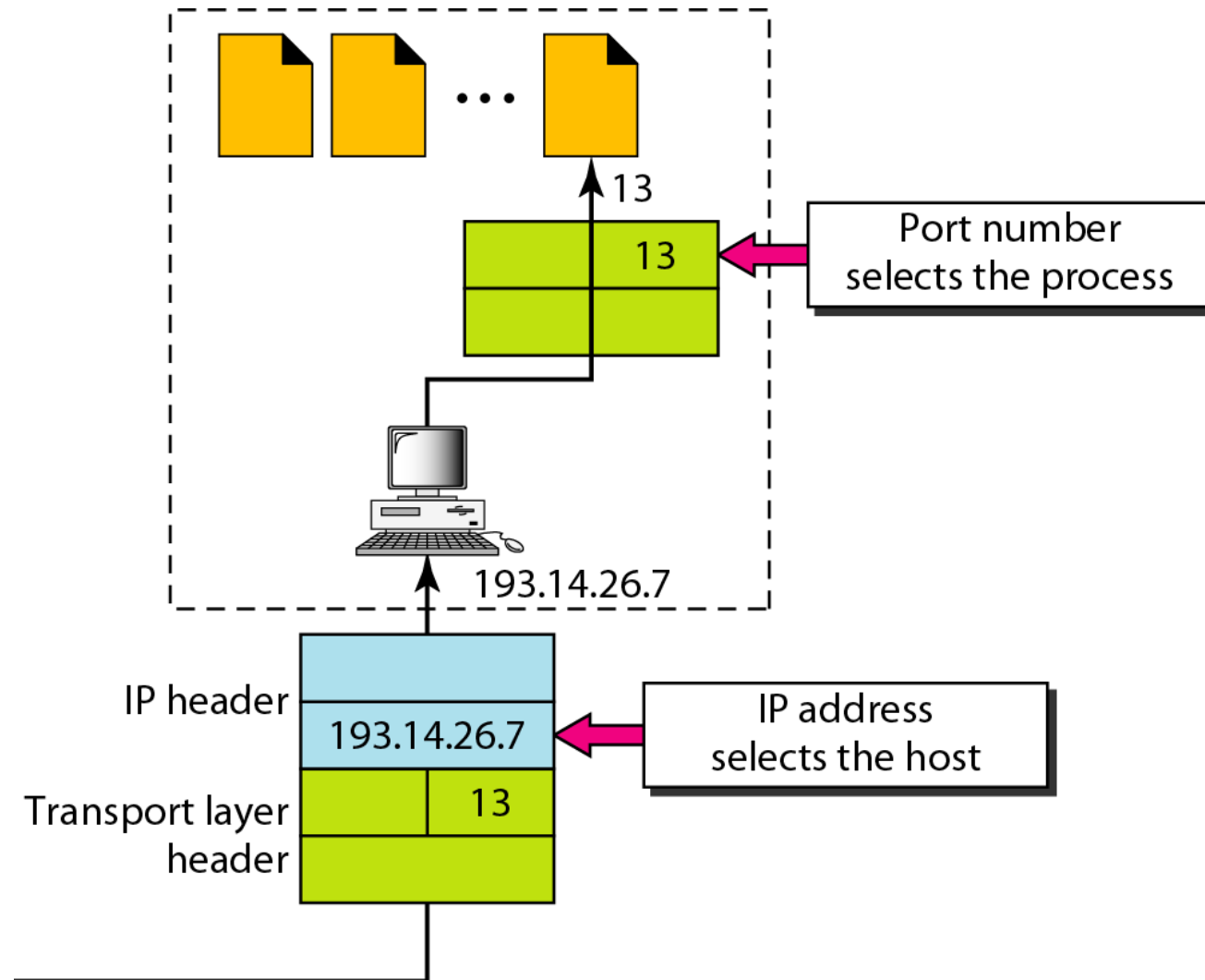
Port	Protocol	Description
7	Echo	Echoes a received datagram back to the sender
9	Discard	Discards any datagram that is received
11	Users	Active users
13	Daytime	Returns the date and the time
17	Quote	Returns a quote of the day
19	Chargen	Returns a string of characters
53	Nameserver	Domain Name Service
67	BOOTPs	Server port to download bootstrap information
68	BOOTPc	Client port to download bootstrap information
69	TFTP	Trivial File Transfer Protocol
111	RPC	Remote Procedure Call
123	NTP	Network Time Protocol
161	SNMP	Simple Network Management Protocol
162	SNMP	Simple Network Management Protocol (trap)

# Addressing the processes

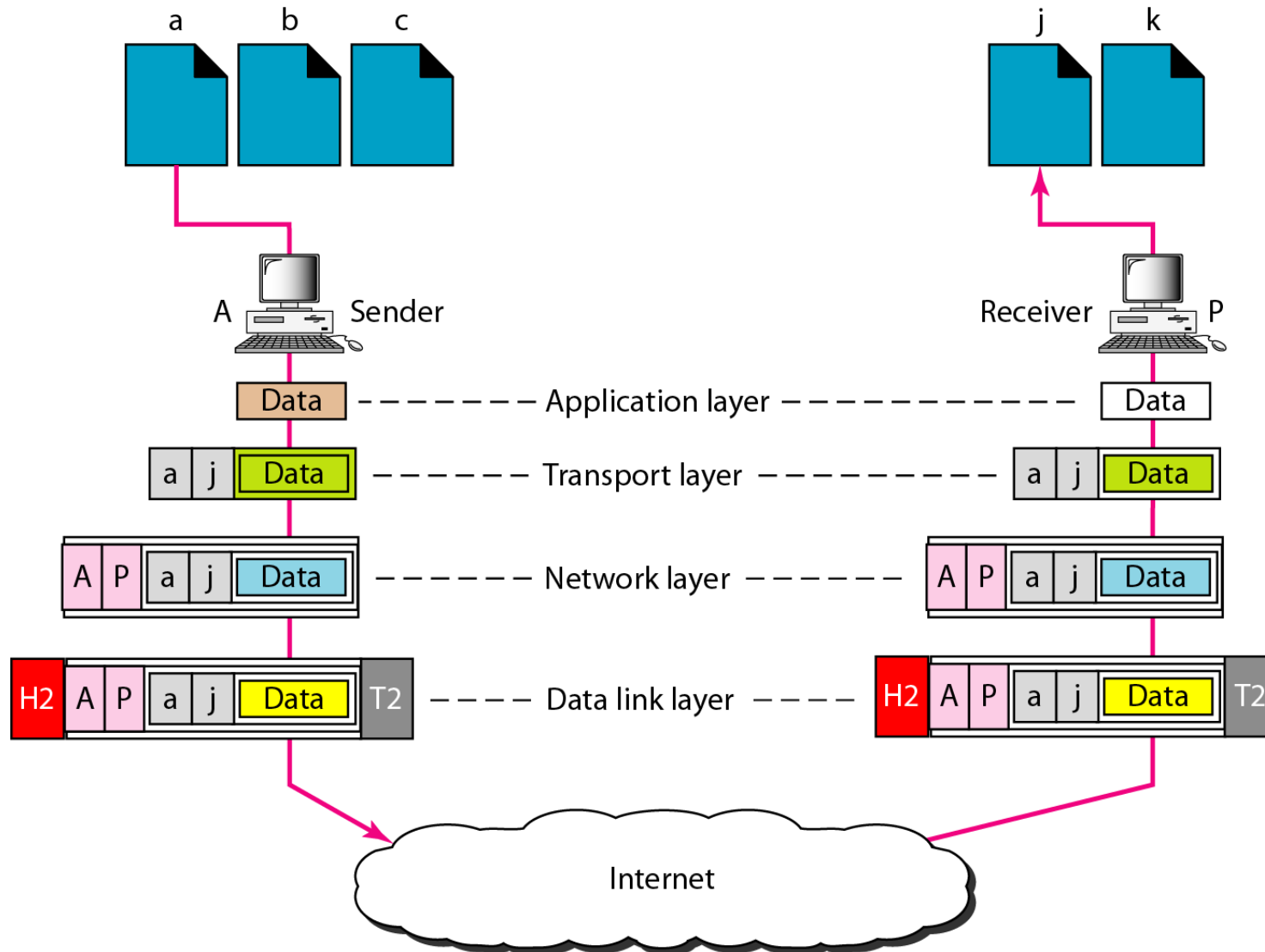
- Port numbers
  - Organised by IANA



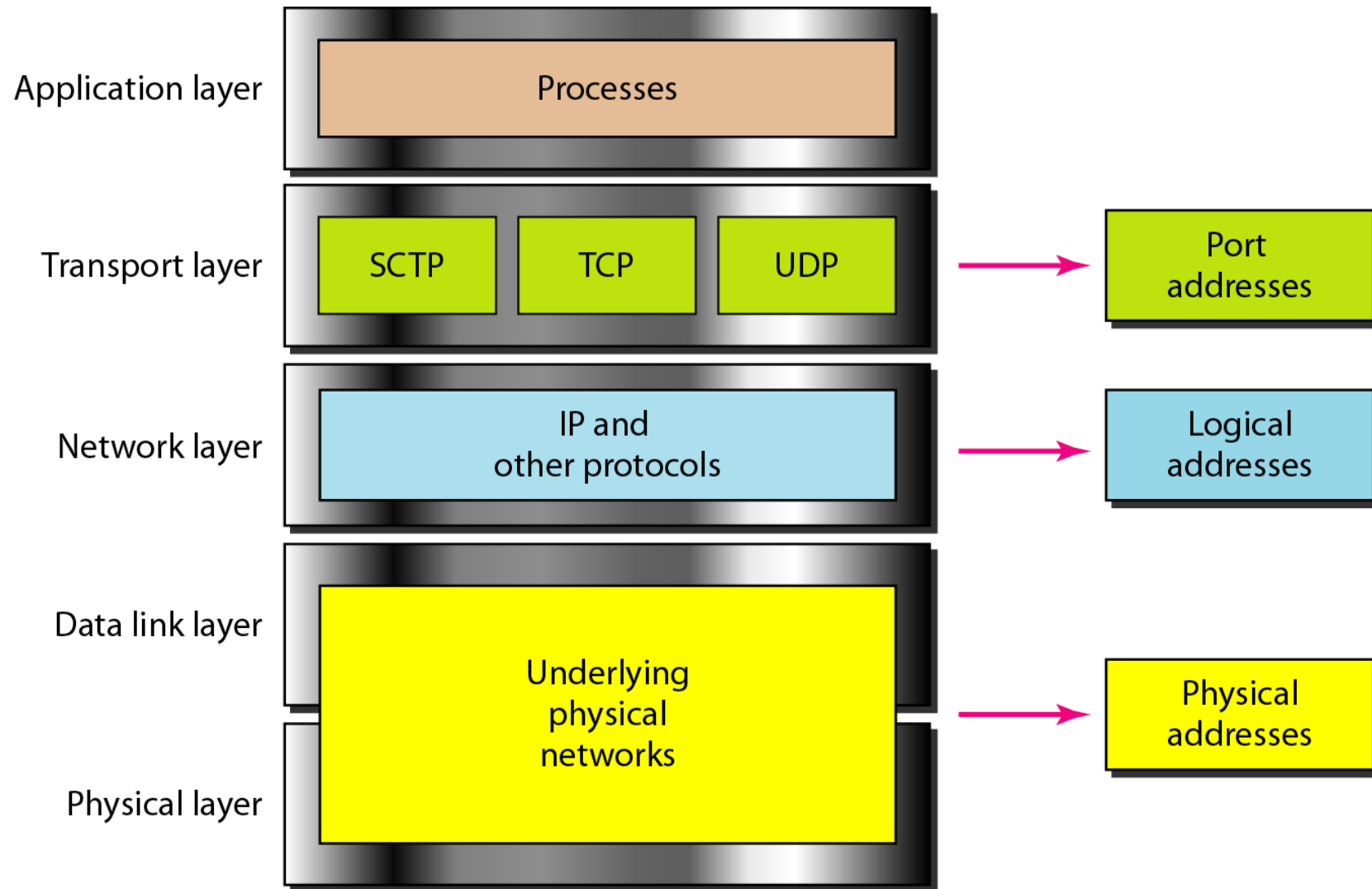
# IP addresses and port numbers



# Logical and port addresses



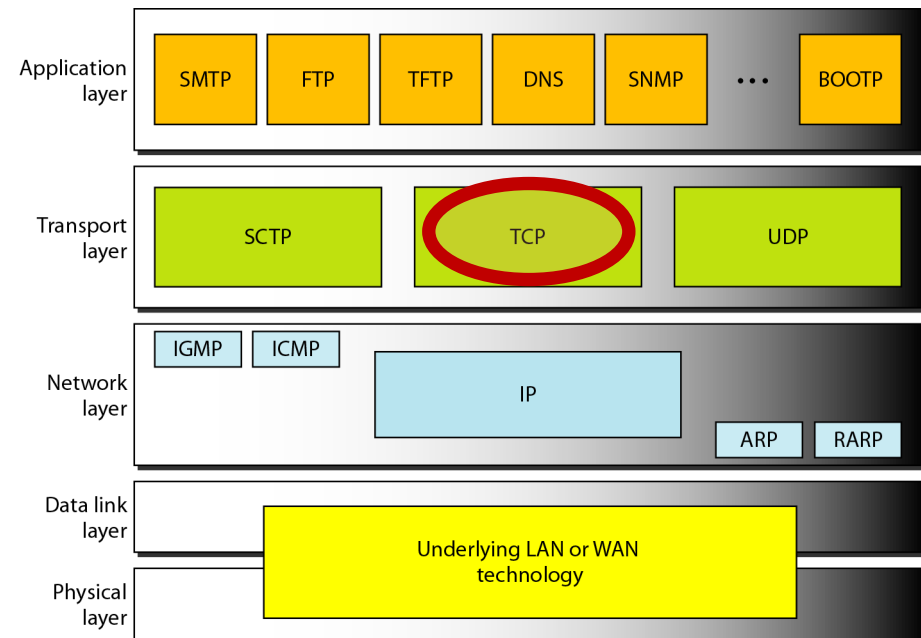
# Addressing in TCP/IP



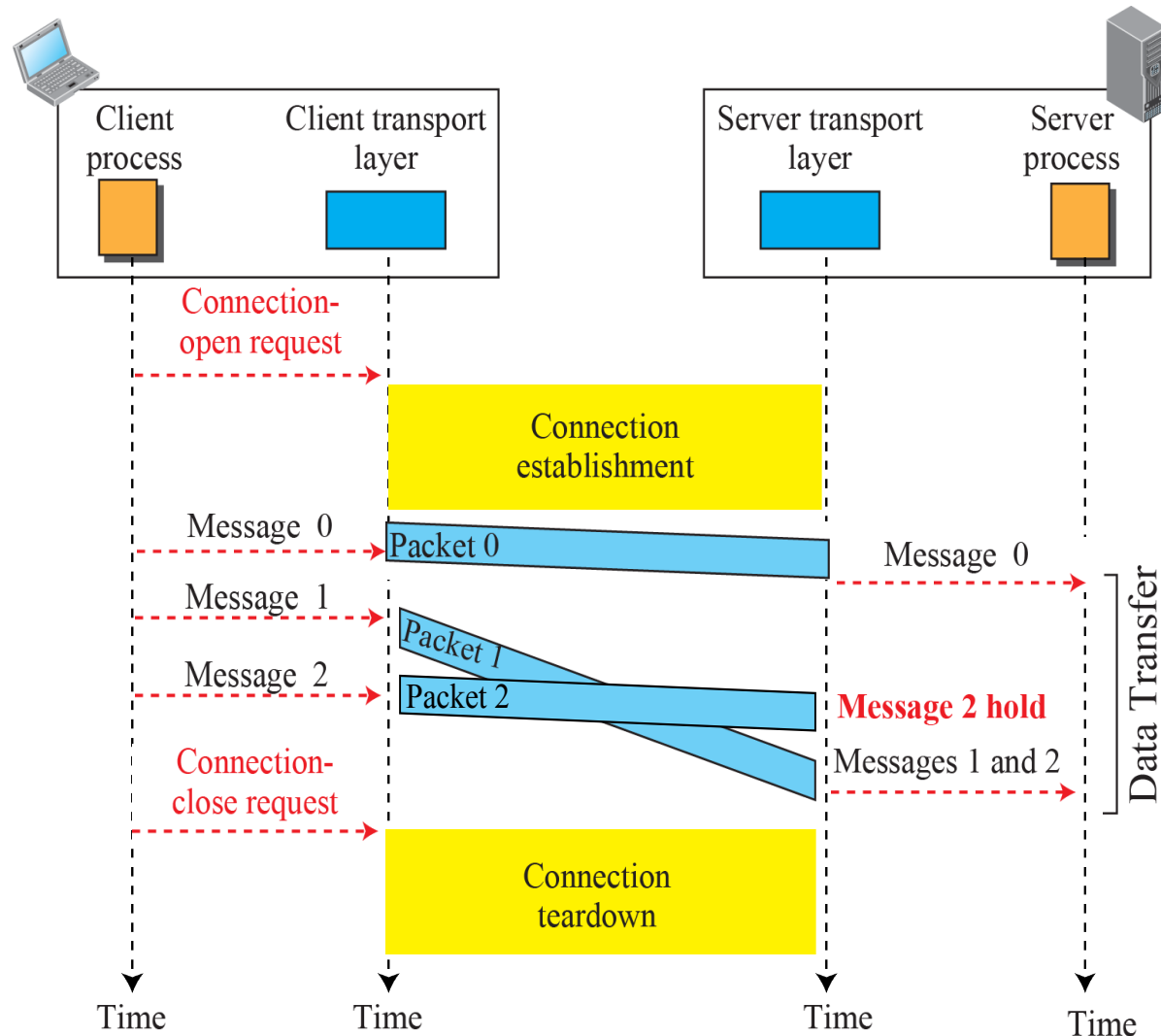


# Transmission Control Protocol (TCP)

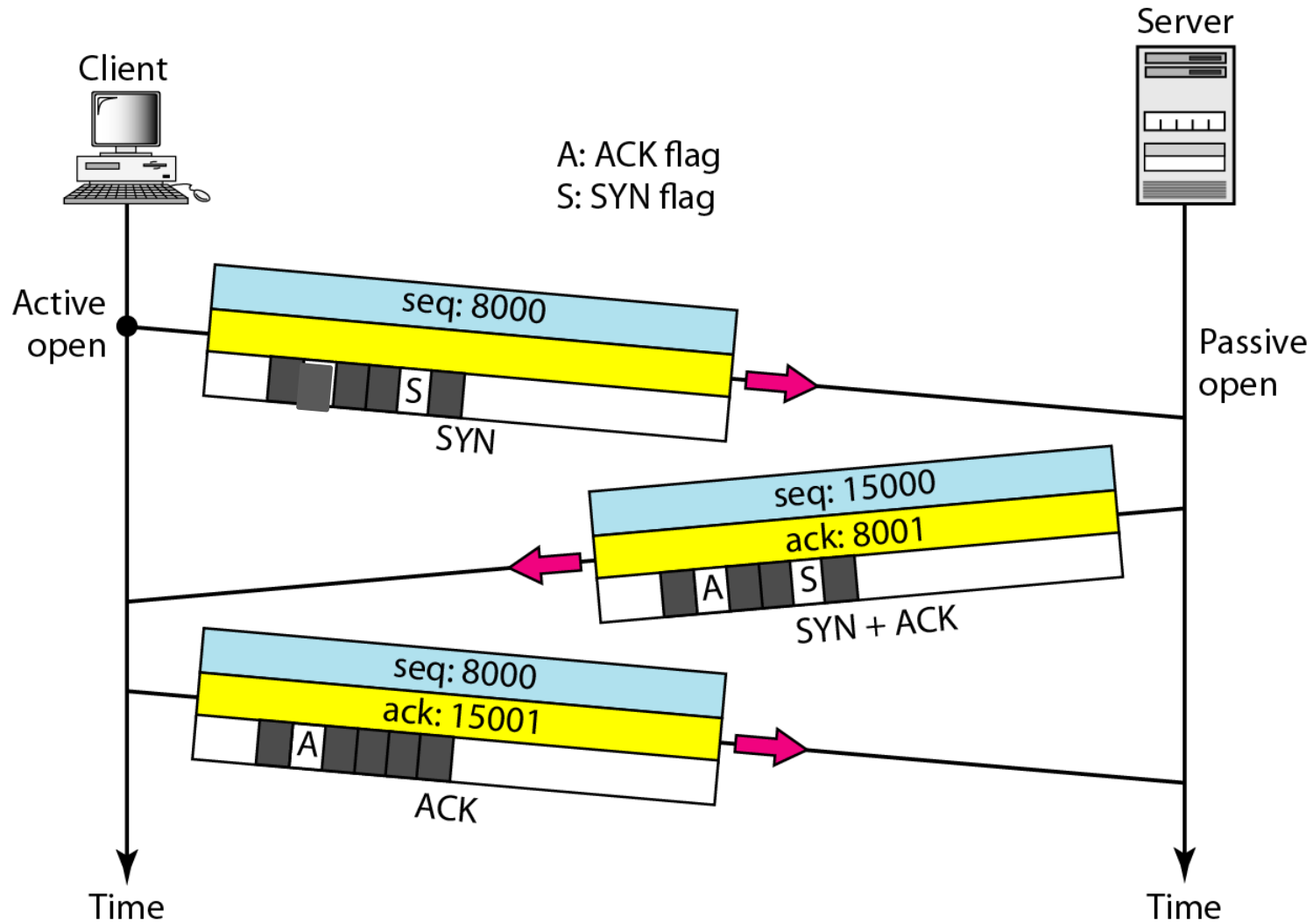
- Connection-oriented
  - Sessions
  - Byte stream service
    - Sequence numbers
- Reliable
  - Flow control
  - Error control
    - Retransmissions
  - Congestion control



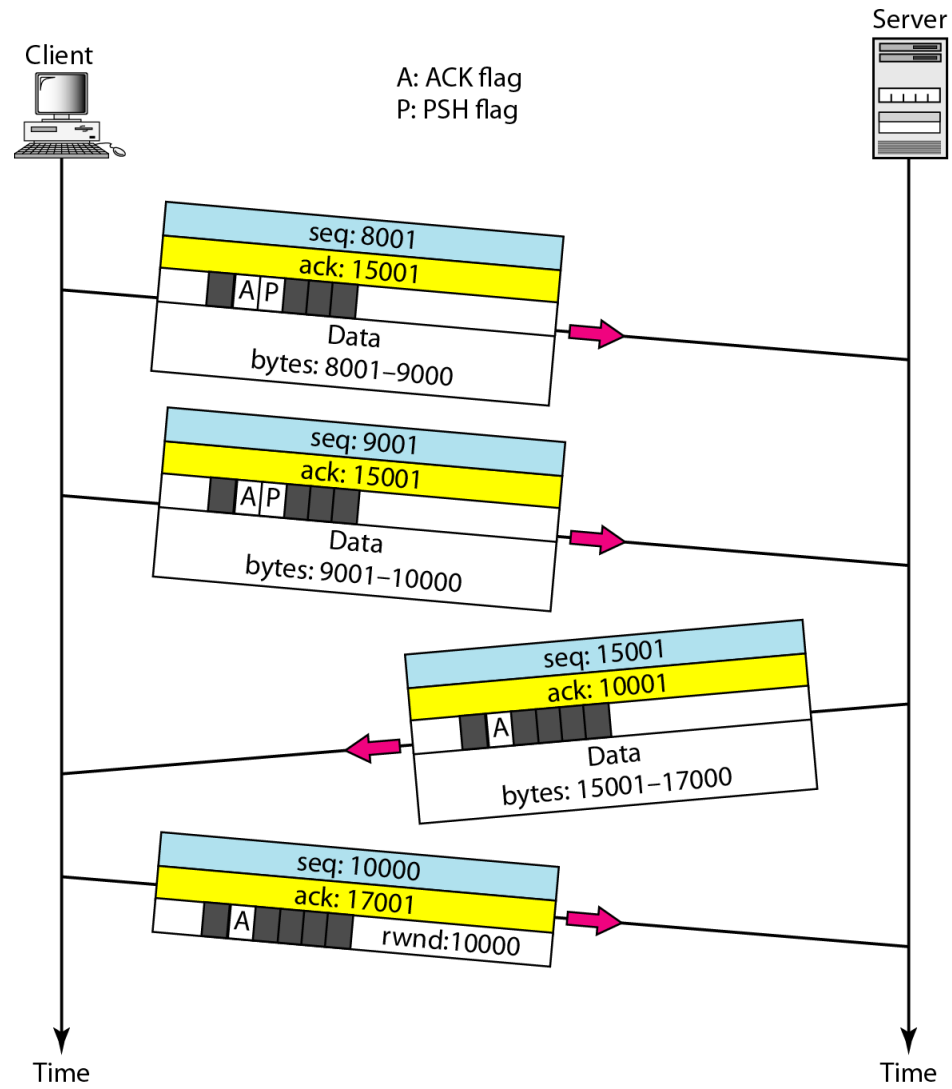
# Connection-oriented service



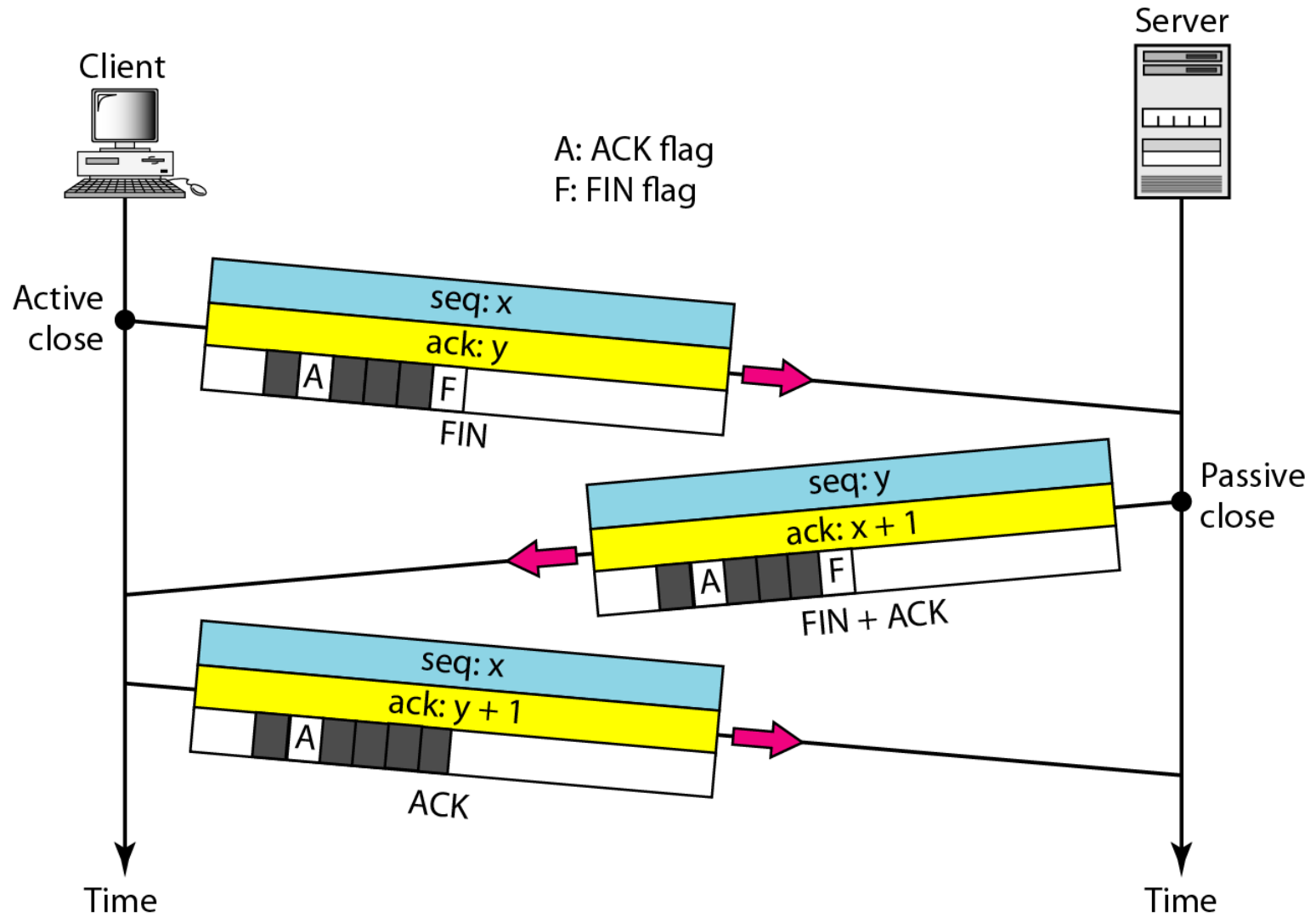
# Connection establishment



# Data transfer



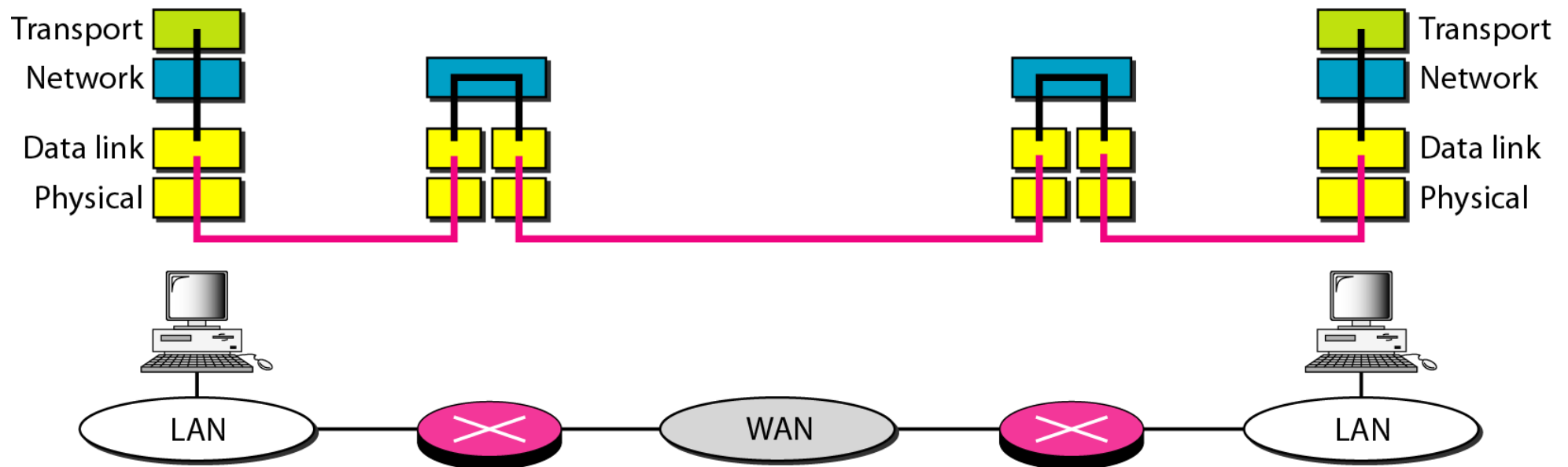
# Connection termination



# Error control

- Reliable transport layer service: TCP
- Unreliable network layer service: IP

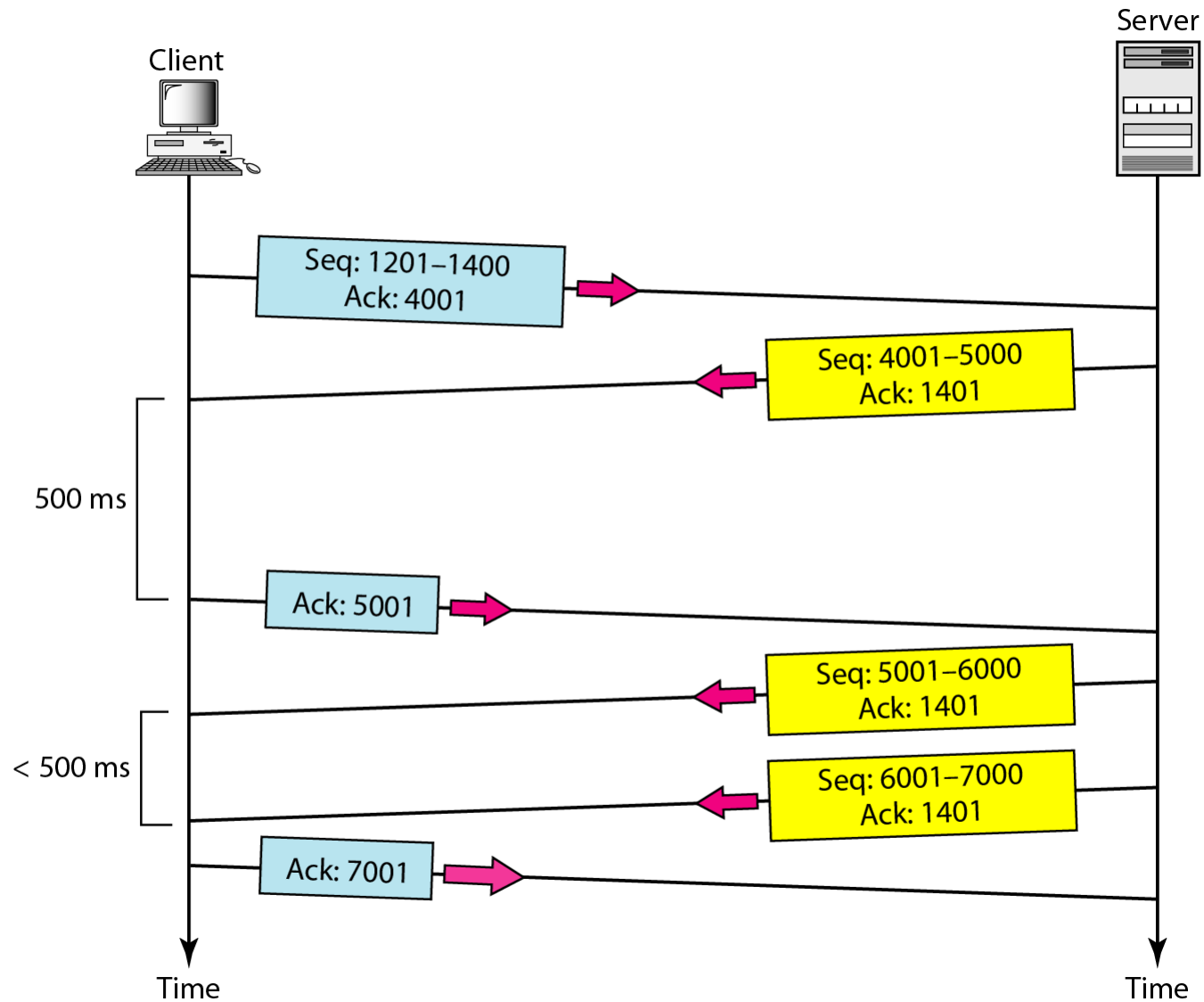
— Error is checked in these paths by the data link layer  
— Error is not checked in these paths by the data link layer



# Error control in TCP

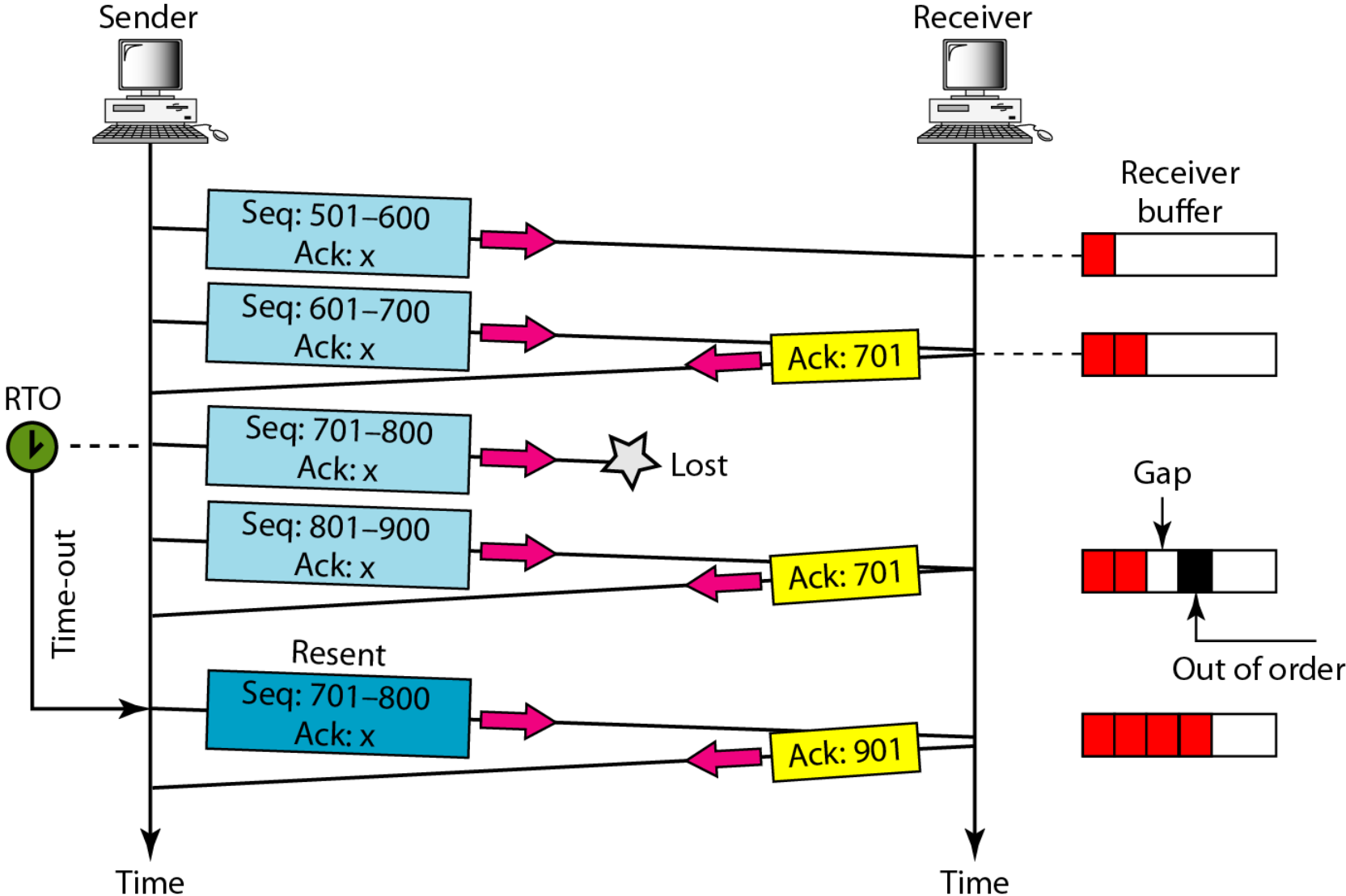
- Checksum
- Acknowledgement
  - ACK received data
- Retransmission
  - After time-out
  - After 3 duplicate ACK

# Normal operation

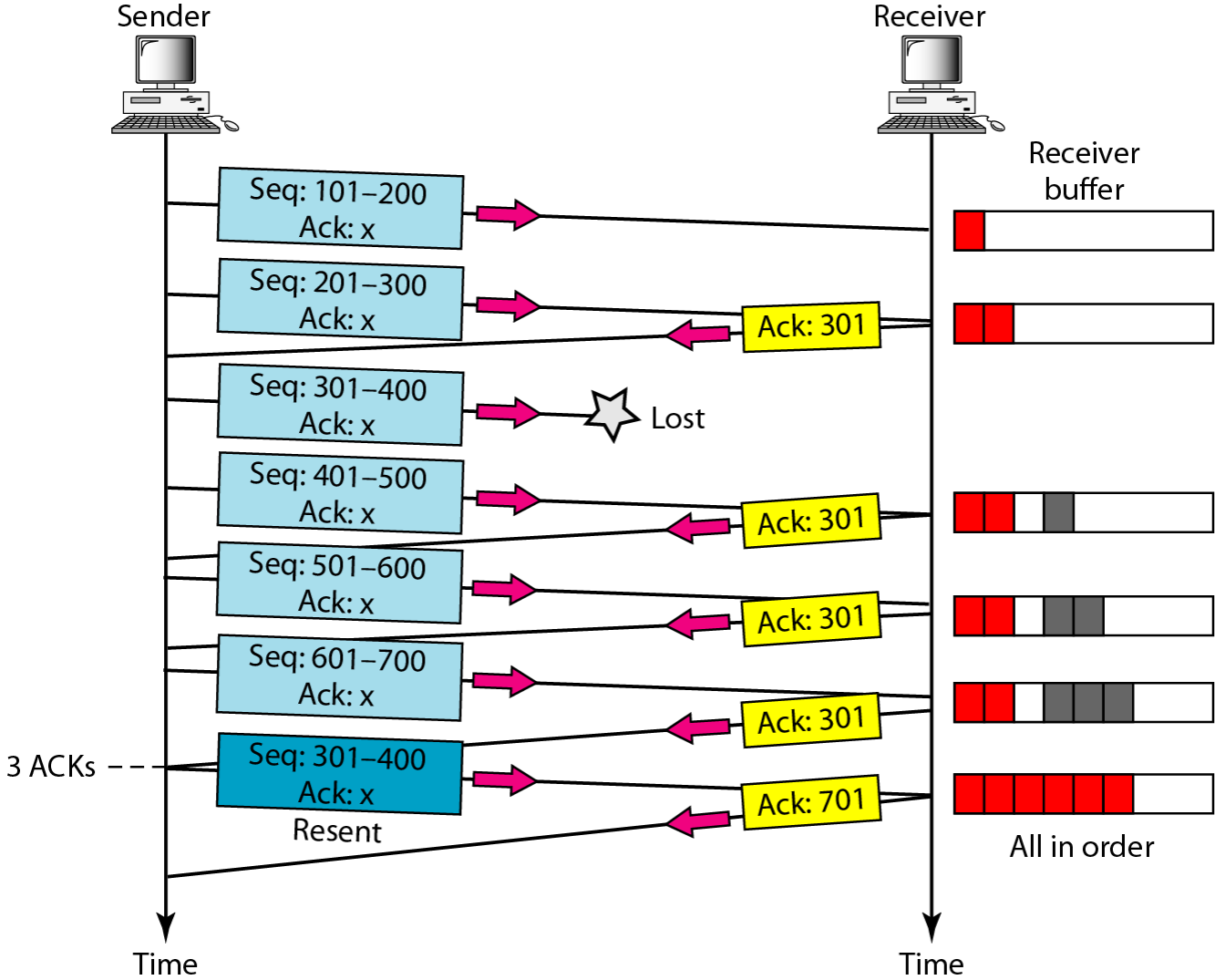




# Lost segment



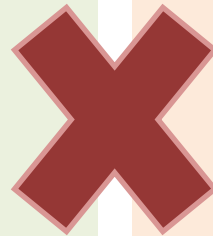
# Fast retransmission



# Summary and comparison: QoS

## *Multimedia Performance Requirements*

- Sensitive to:
  - Delay
  - Jitter
- Not so sensitive to:
  - Packet loss
  - Corrupted packets



*vs.*

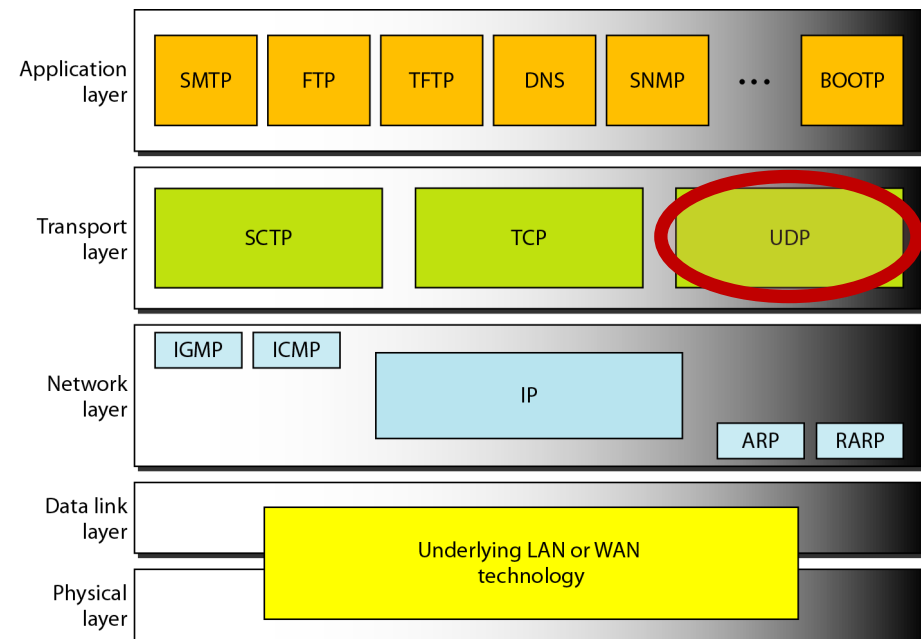
## *Characteristics of TCP*

- Sensitive to:
  - Lost or corrupted packets
- Not so sensitive to:
  - Delay
- No multicasting!

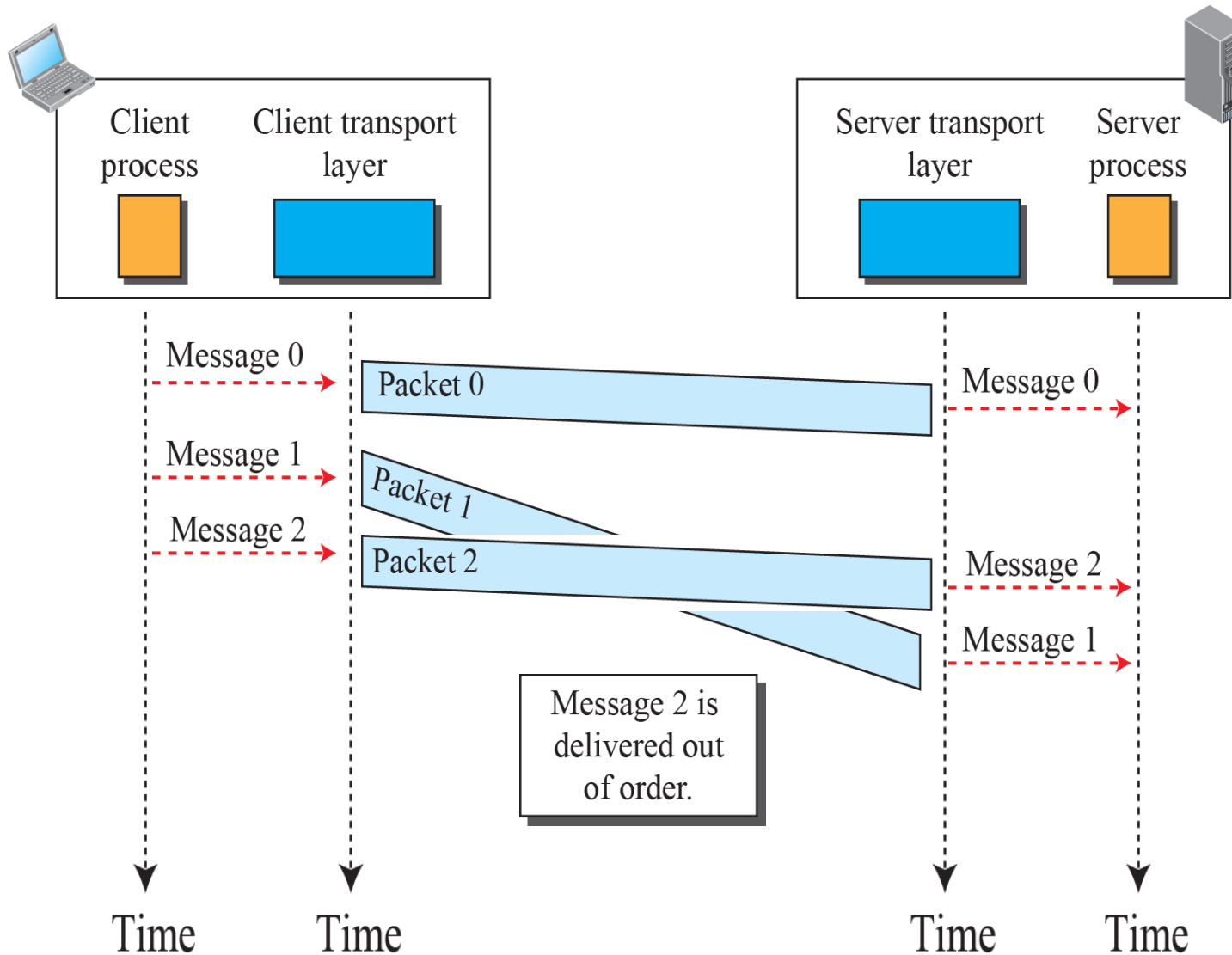
*So, what about UDP?*

# User Datagram Protocol (UDP)

- Connectionless
  - Independent datagrams
  - No sessions
- Unreliable
  - No error control
  - No flow control
- Process-to-process



# Connectionless service

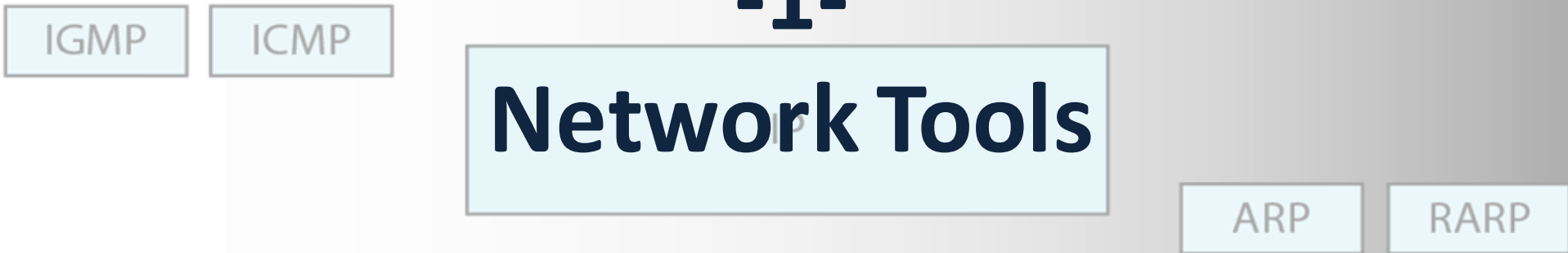


# EITF25 – Internet: Technology and Applications



## Application Layer

-1-



## Network Tools

2015, Lecture 08

Kaan Bür

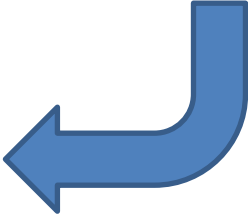
2015-12-11

Underlying LAN or WAN technology

EITF15 - Internet Technology and Applications

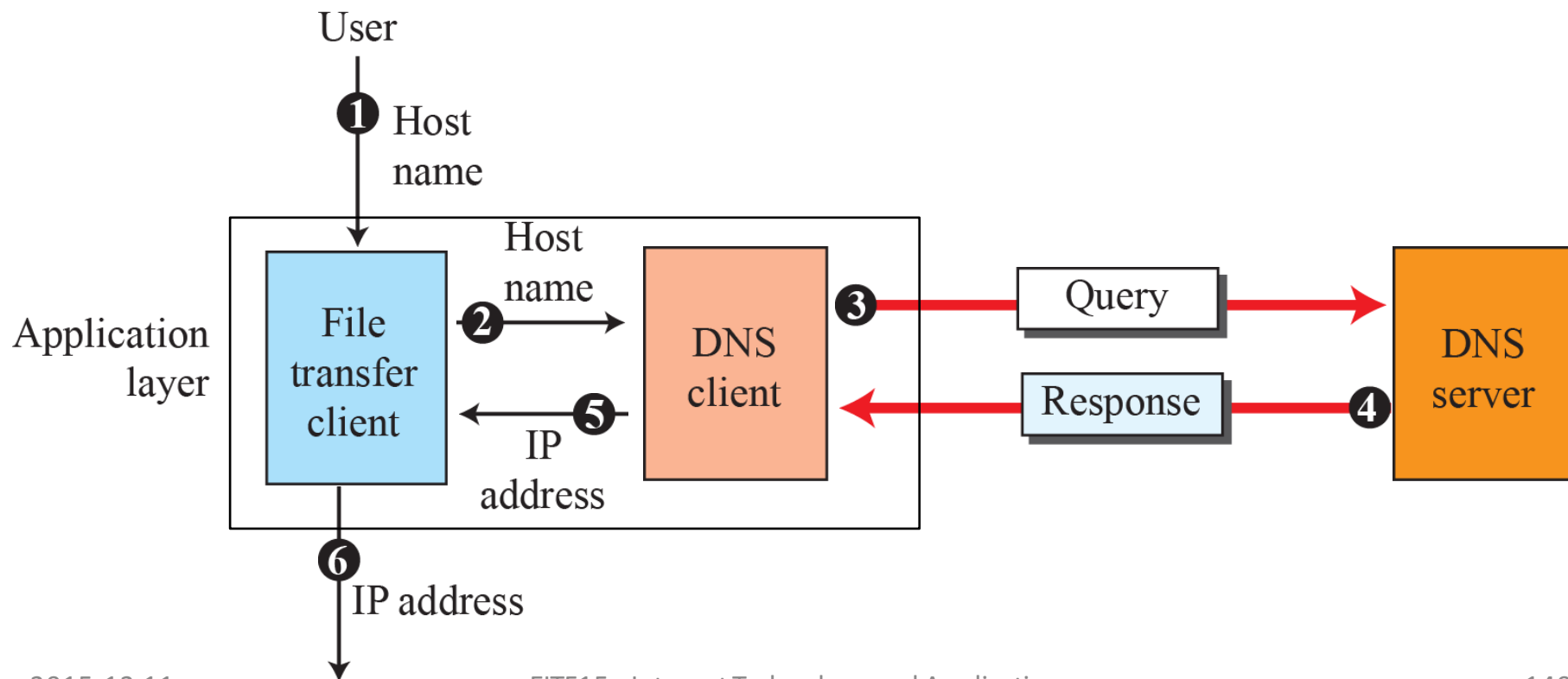


# Mapping host name to IP address

- Application protocols use host names
- TCP/IP protocol suite uses IP addresses
- Mapping from host name to IP addresses
- Domain Name System (DNS) 
  - Domain name space
  - Domain name resolution
- [www.lth.se](http://www.lth.se)  $\equiv$  130.235.209.220

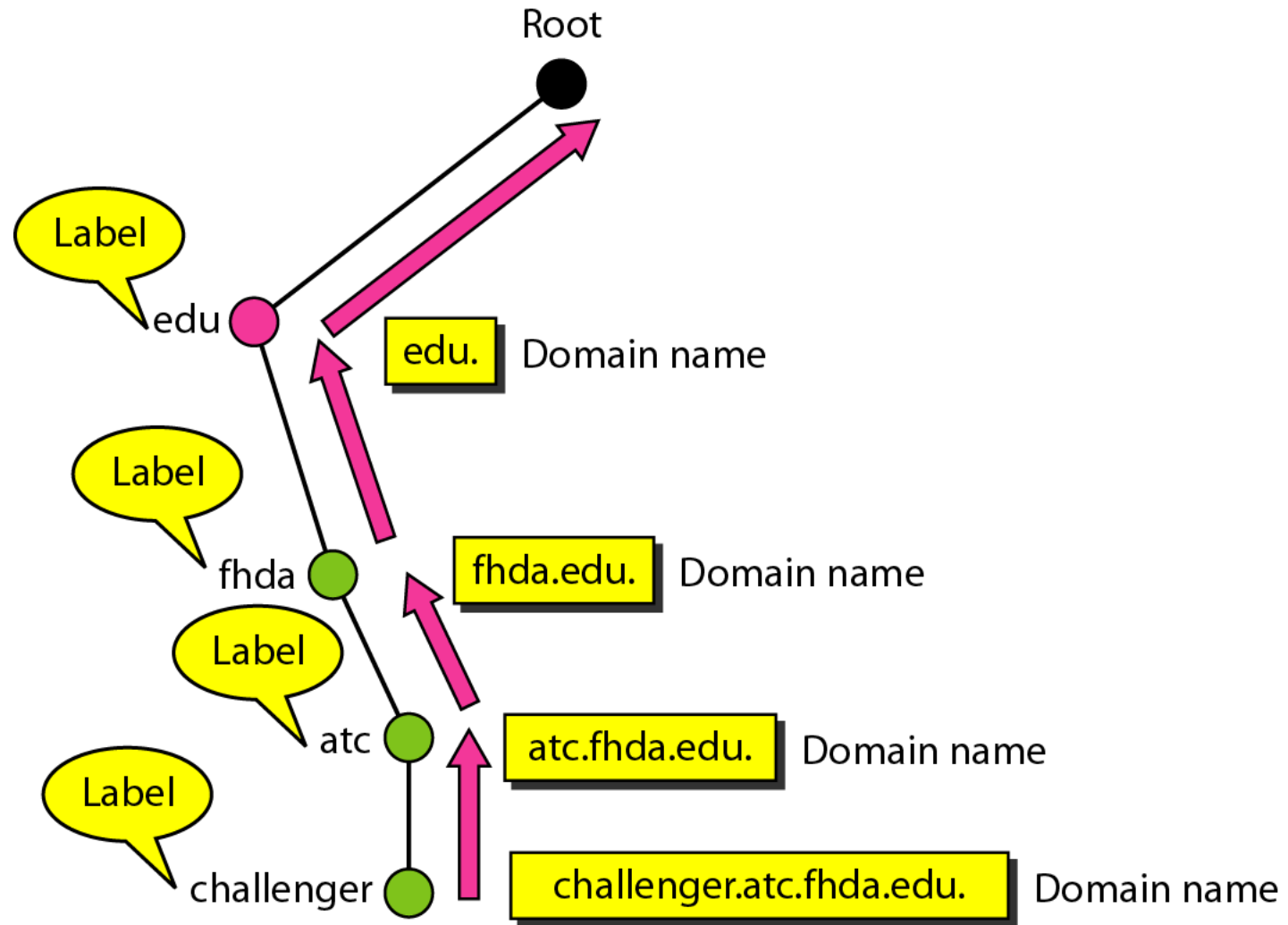
# Domain Name System (DNS)

- Internet's telephone book: Address  $\leftrightarrow$  name
  - One of the most important systems on the Internet

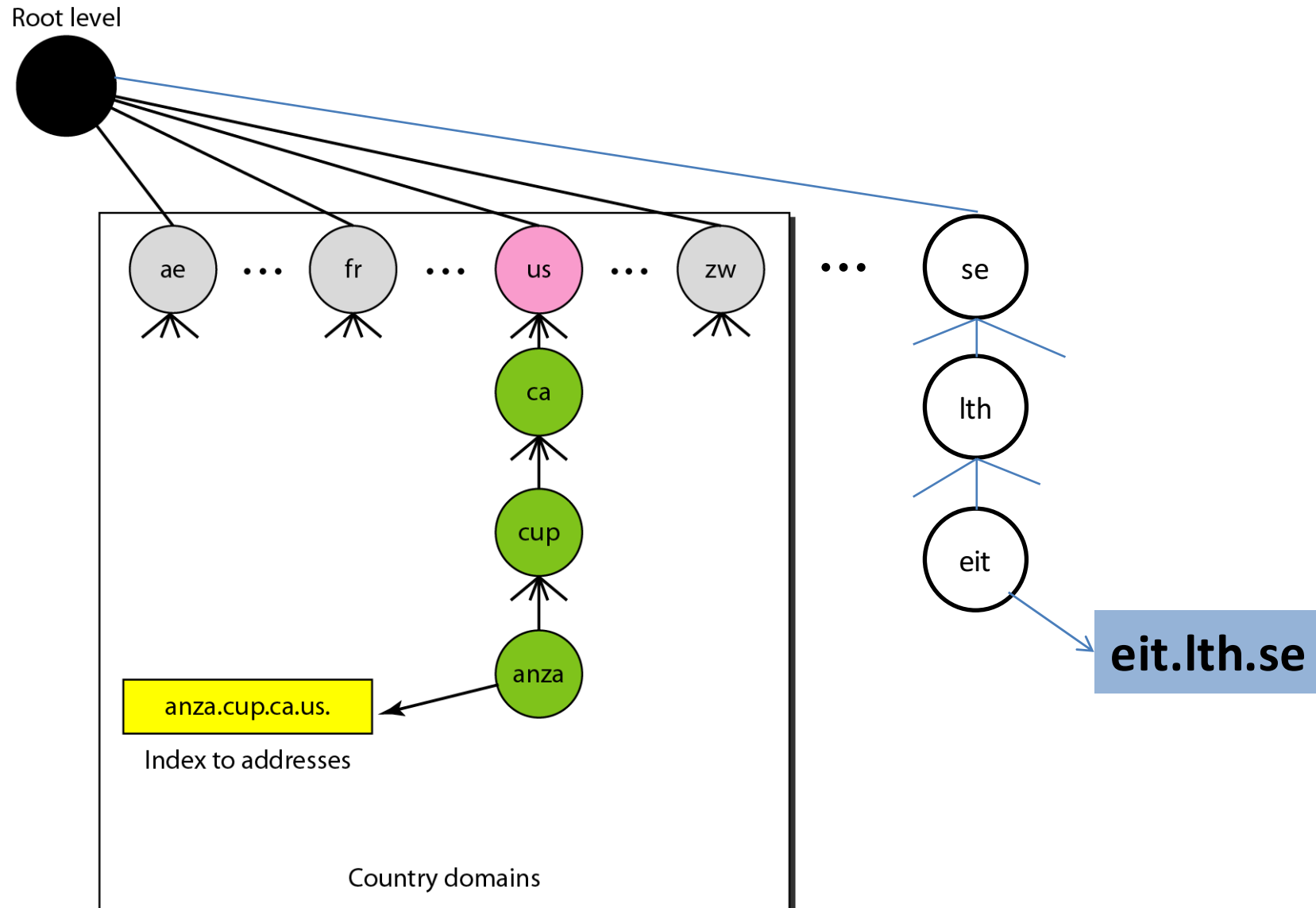




# Domain names and labels

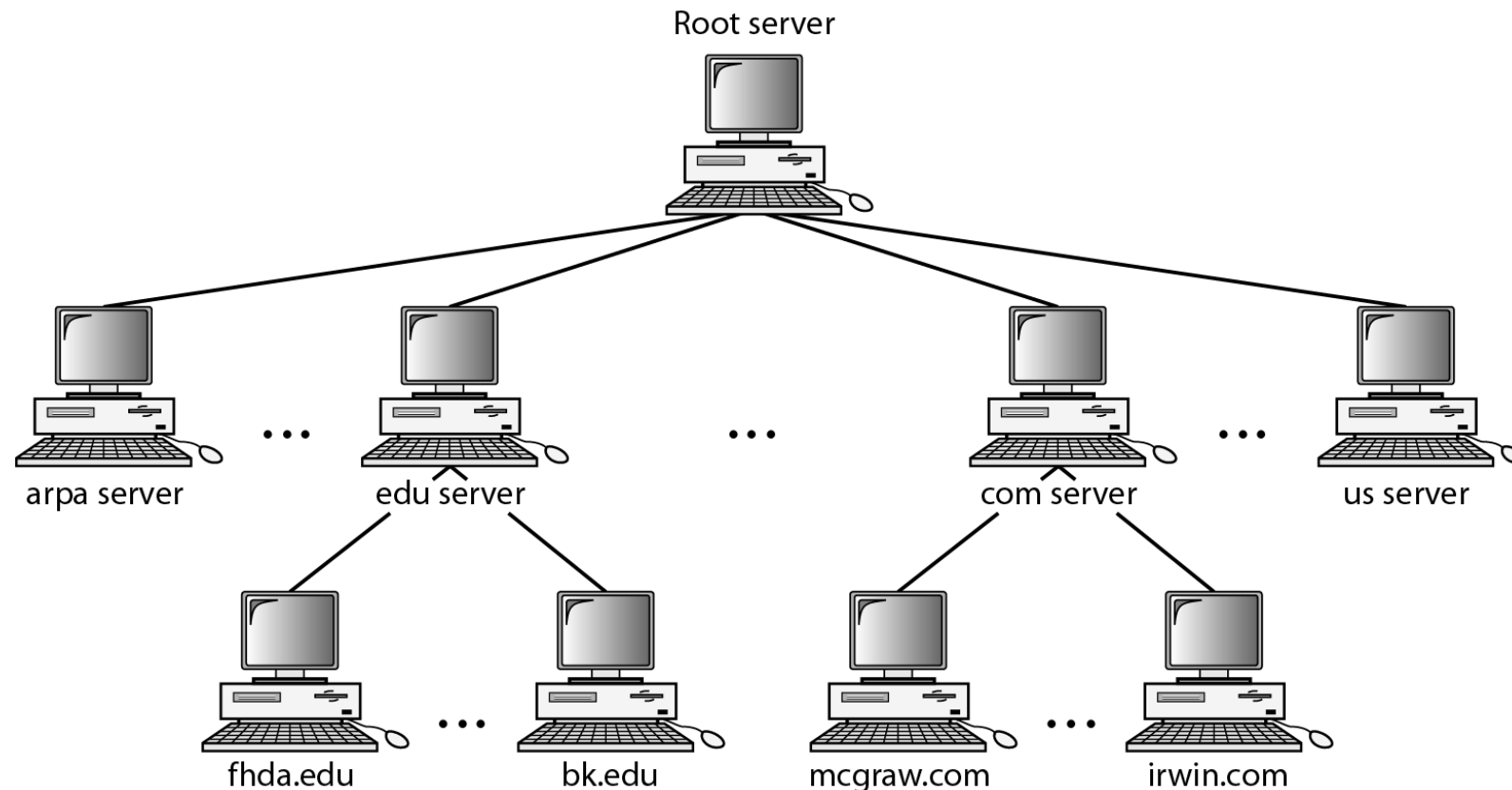


# Country domains



# Hierarchy of domain name servers

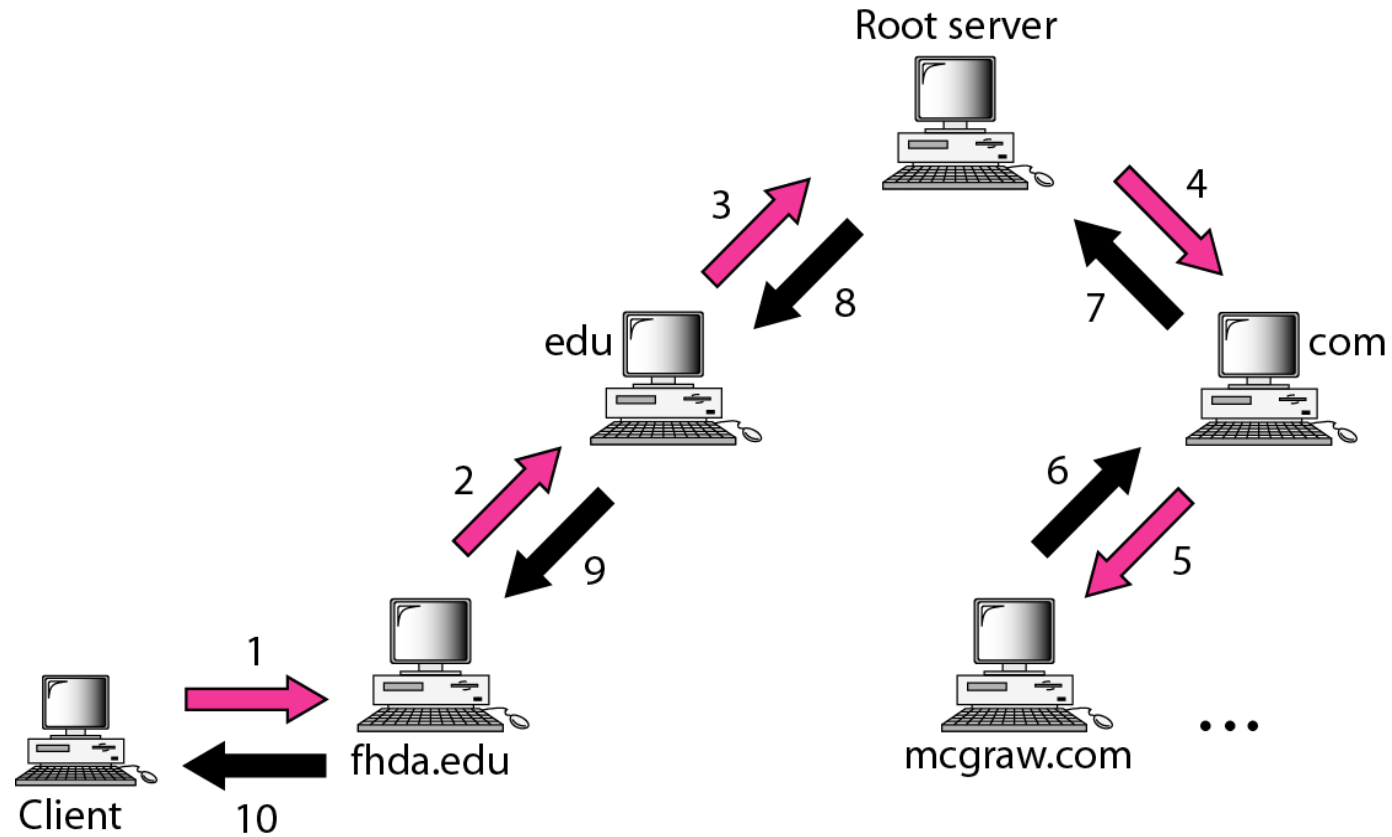
- 13 logical root name servers
  - implemented by 376 physical servers



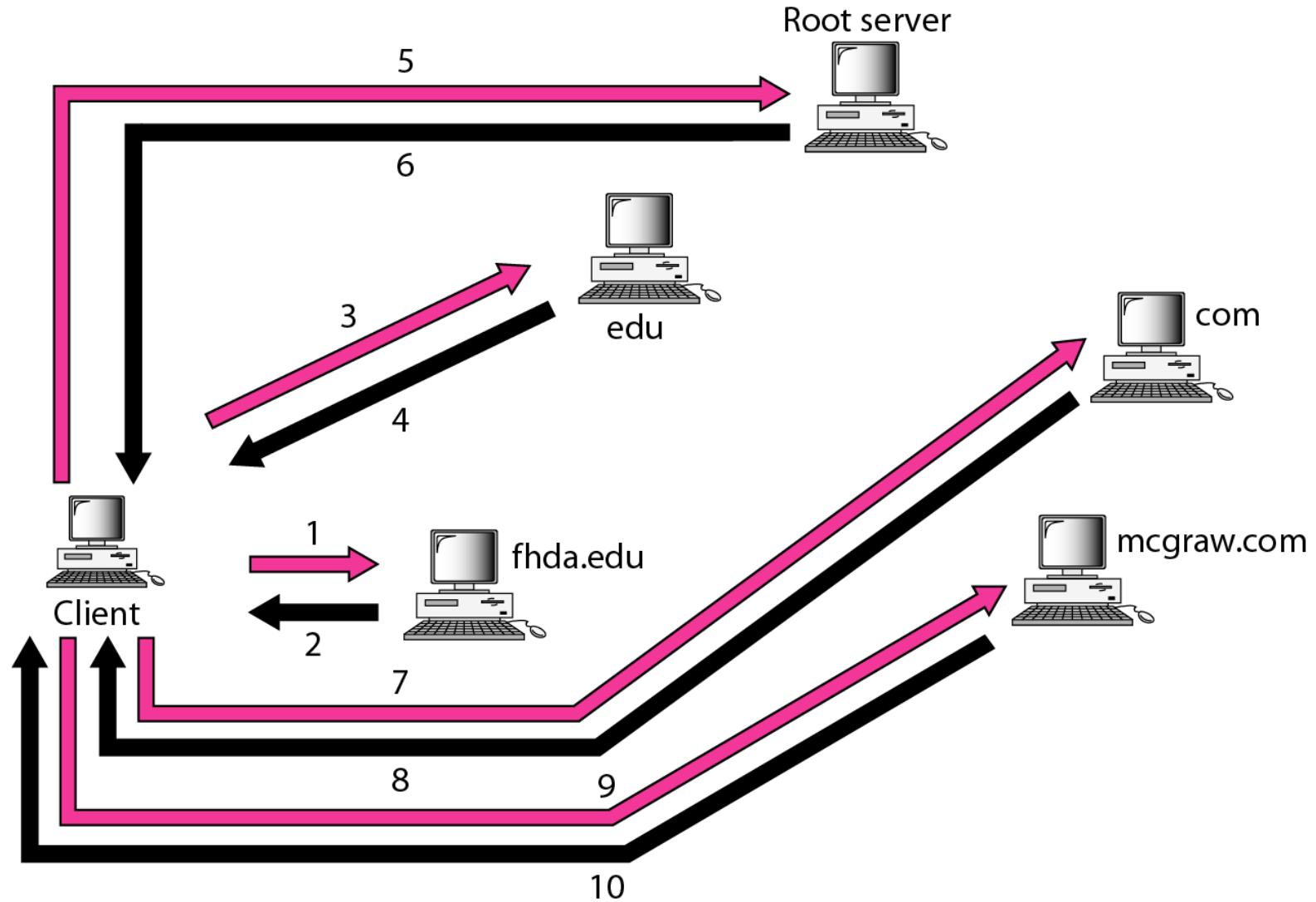
# Domain name resolution

- Action of address mapping
  - Client = resolver
  - Server = DNS
- One server cannot have all the answers!
  - How to ask others?
  - What to do with the answer?
- Caching
  - Remember what you've learned!

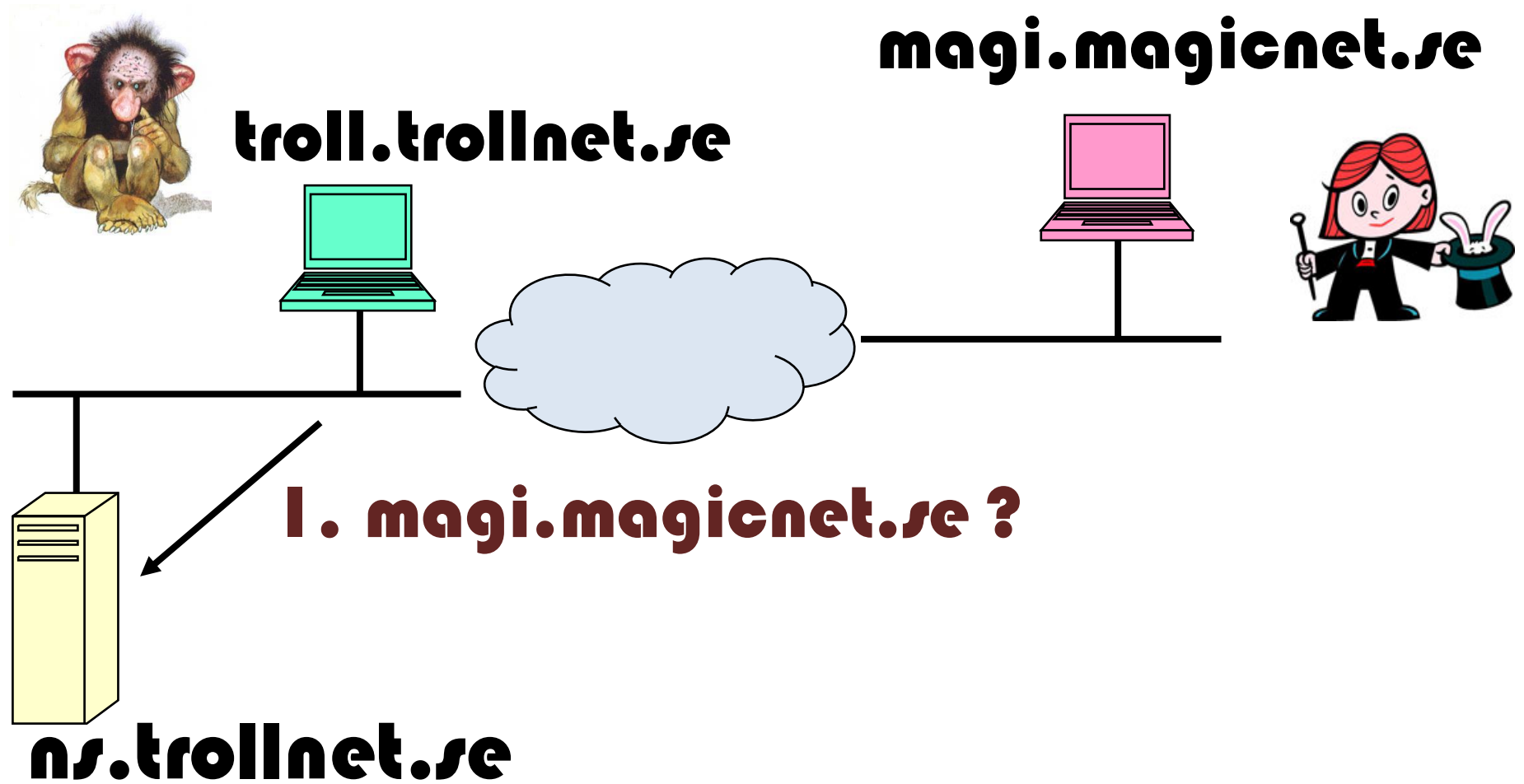
# Recursive resolution



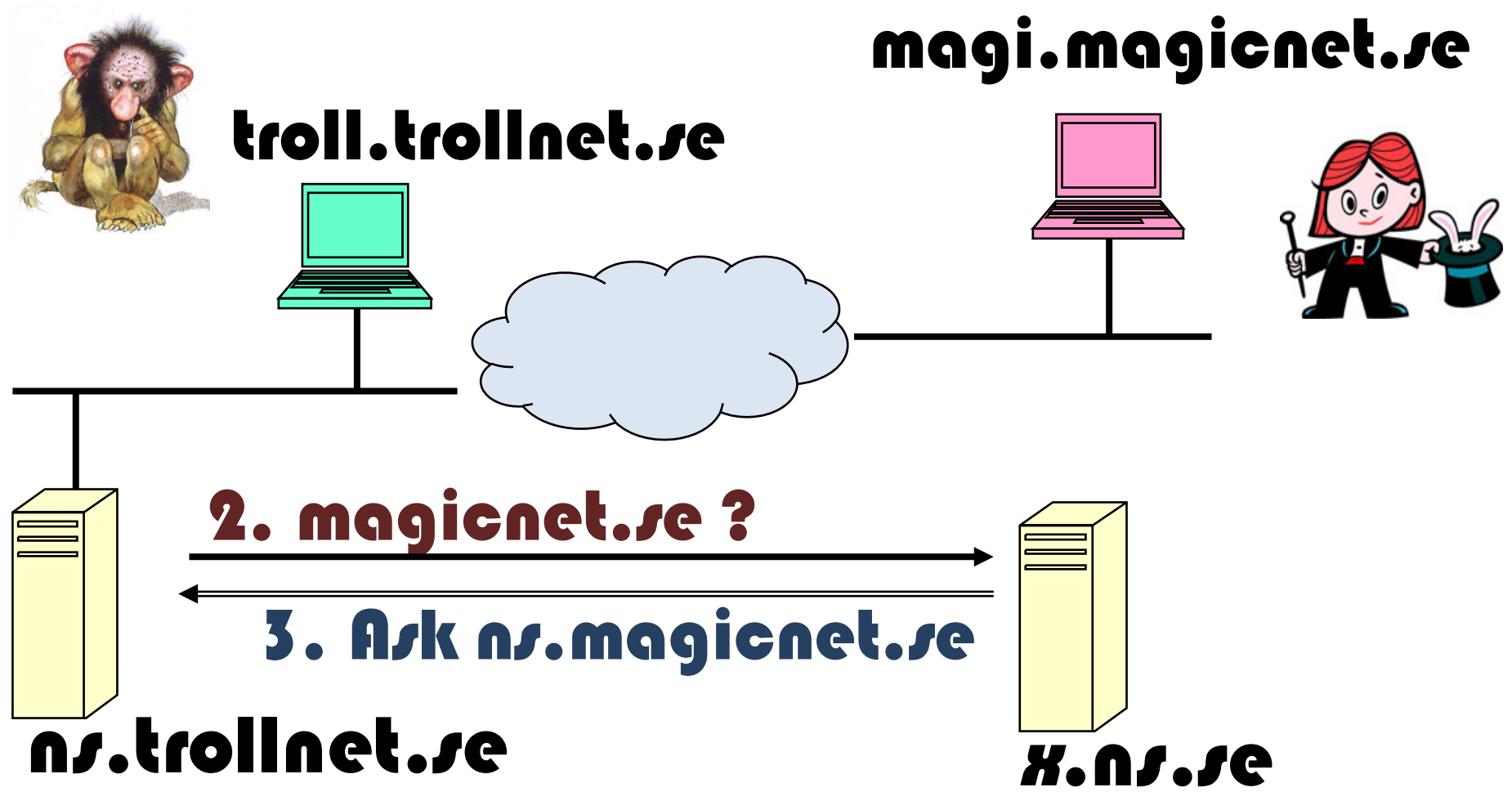
# Iterative resolution



# Domain name to IP address (1)

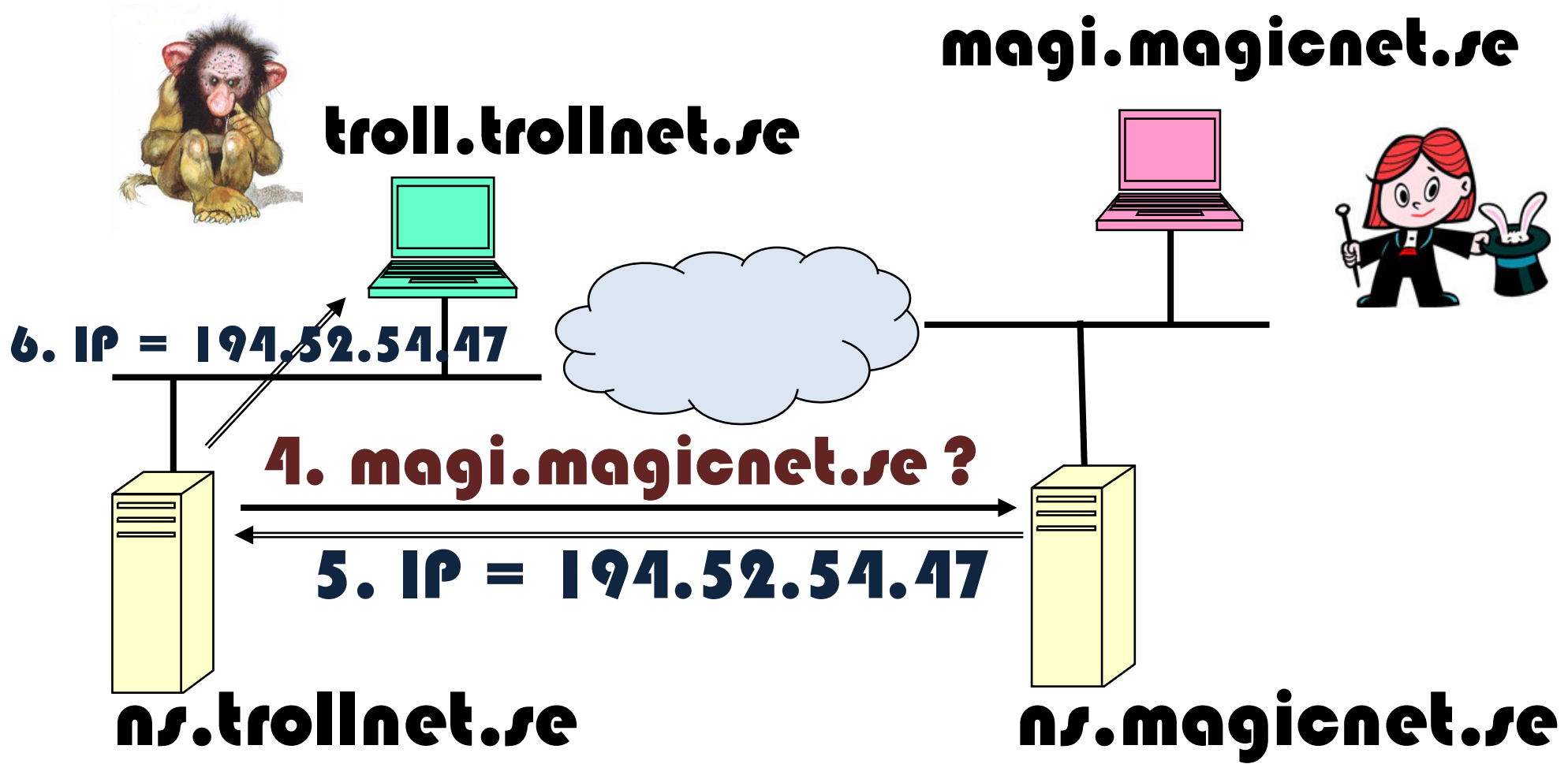


# Domain name to IP address (2)

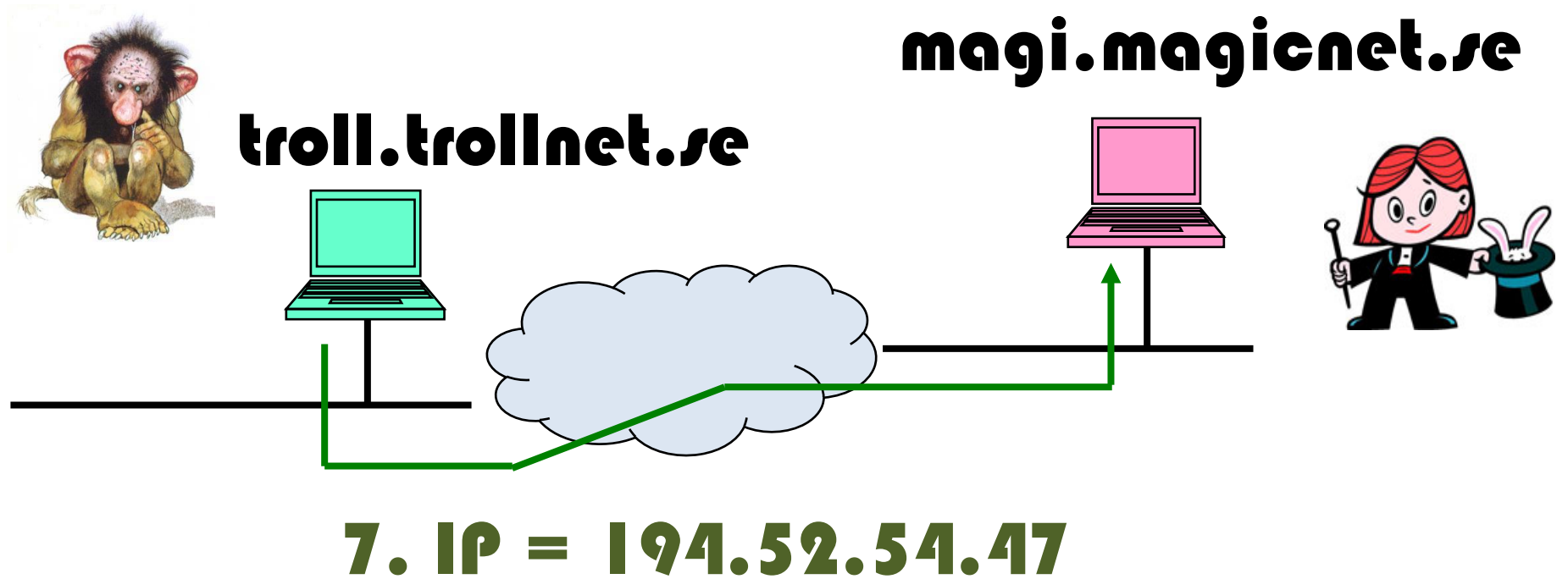




# Domain name to IP address (3)



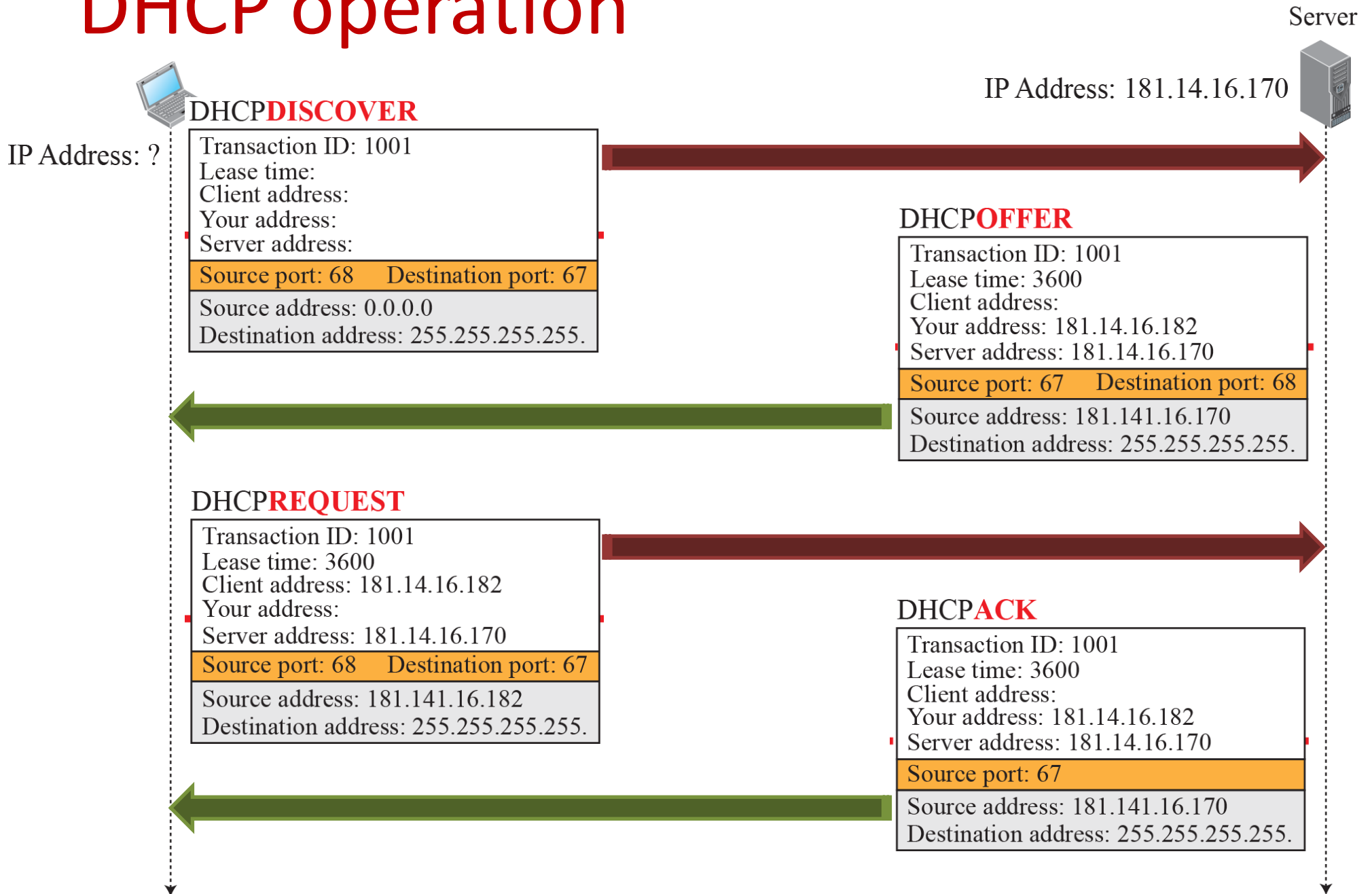
# Domain name to IP address (4)



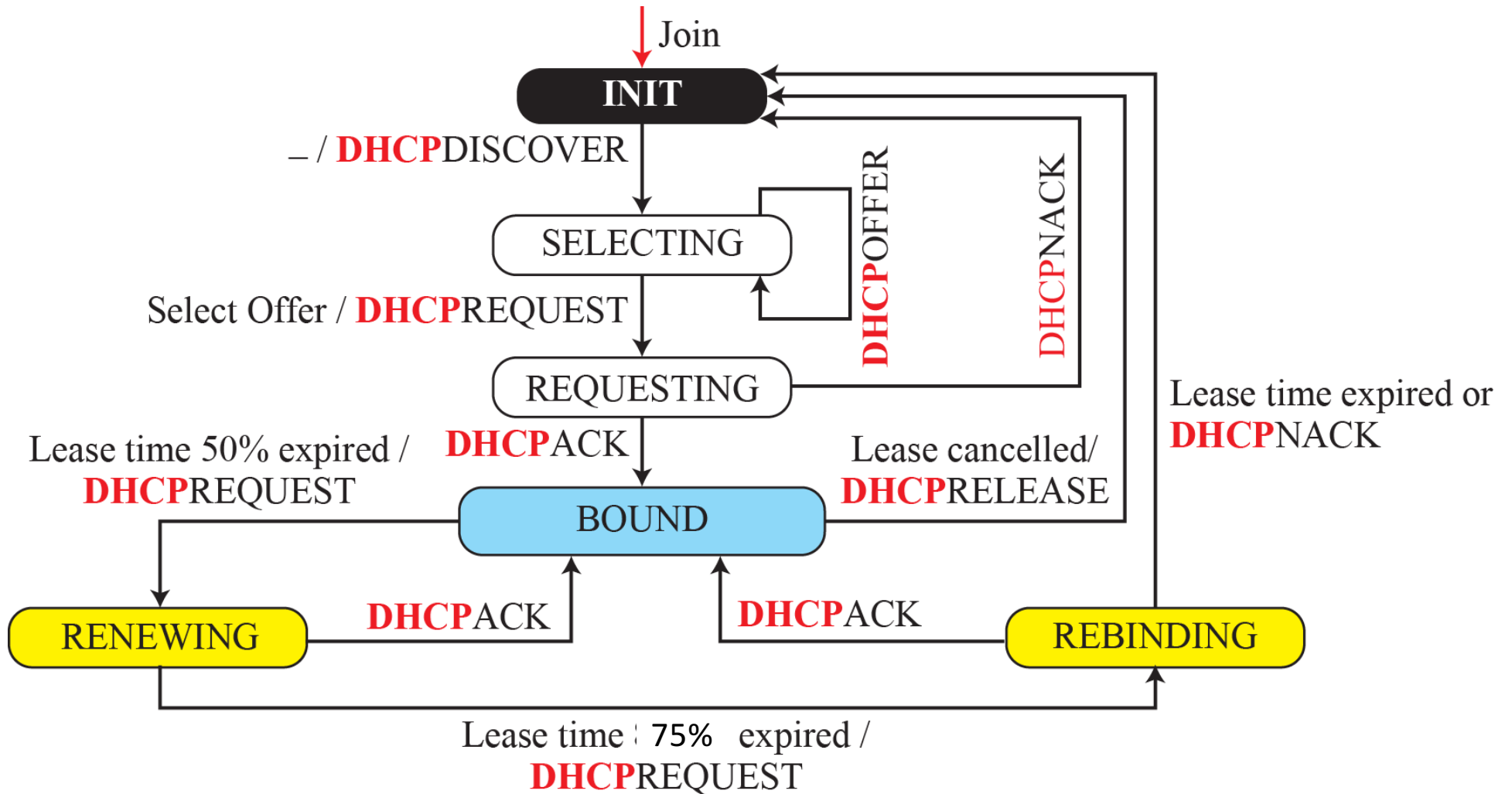
# Obtaining an IP address

- Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol
  - Application layer
- DHCP
  - IP address
    - Allocation from pool or static
  - Network mask
  - Default gateway
  - DNS server(s)

# DHCP operation



# DHCP states

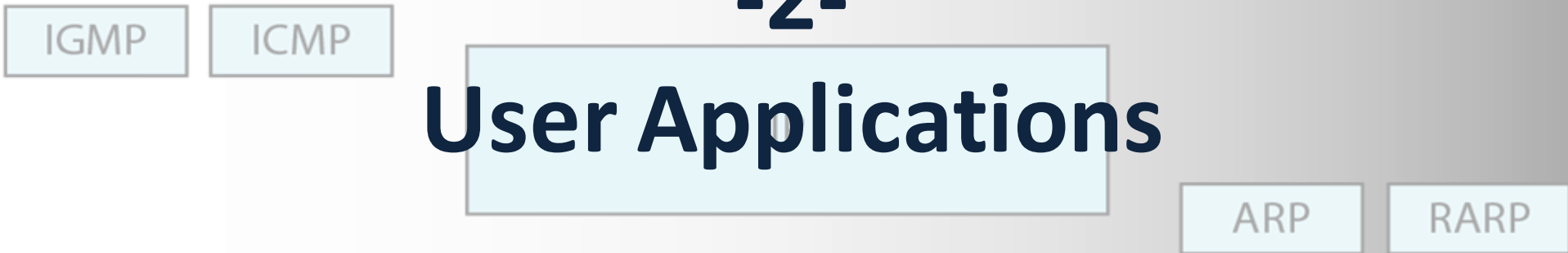


# EITF25 – Internet: Technology and Applications



## Application Layer

-2-



## User Applications

2015, Lecture 10

Kaan Bür

2015-12-11

Underlying LAN or WAN technology

EITF15 - Internet Technology and Applications

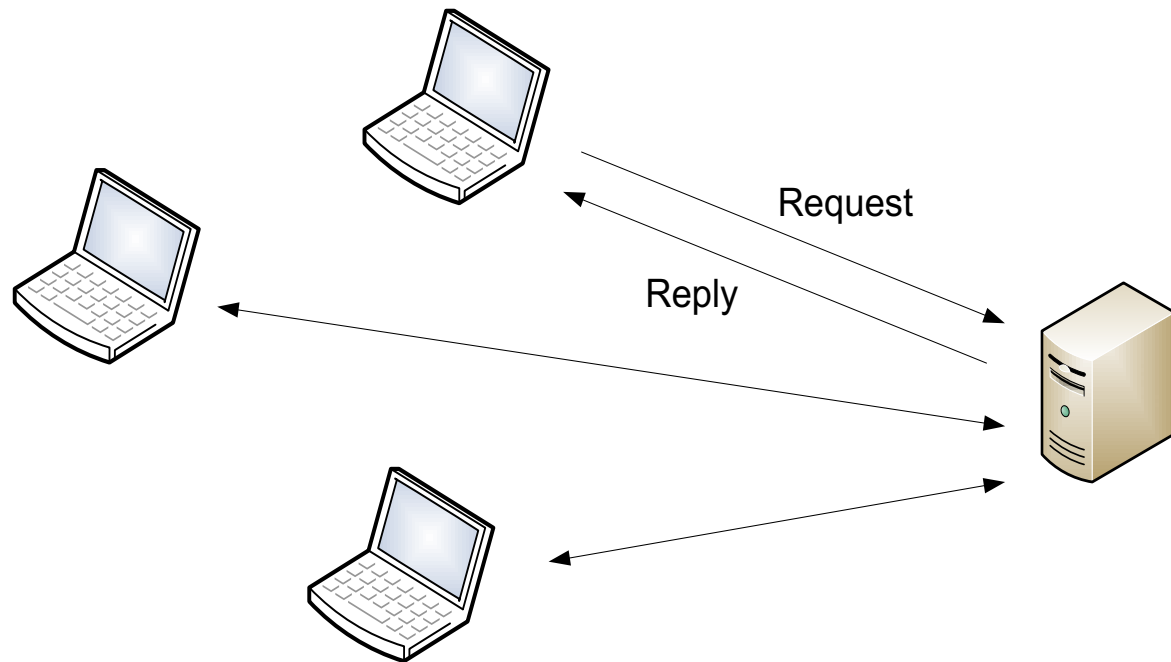


# Application layer paradigms

- Client-server paradigm
  - WWW, Online games, Web TV, Facebook
- Peer-to-peer paradigm
  - BitTorrent, Voddler, Skype
- Some applications use both paradigms
  - Spotify

# Client/server paradigm

- Most early applications were based on it
  - http
  - ftp
  - e-mail



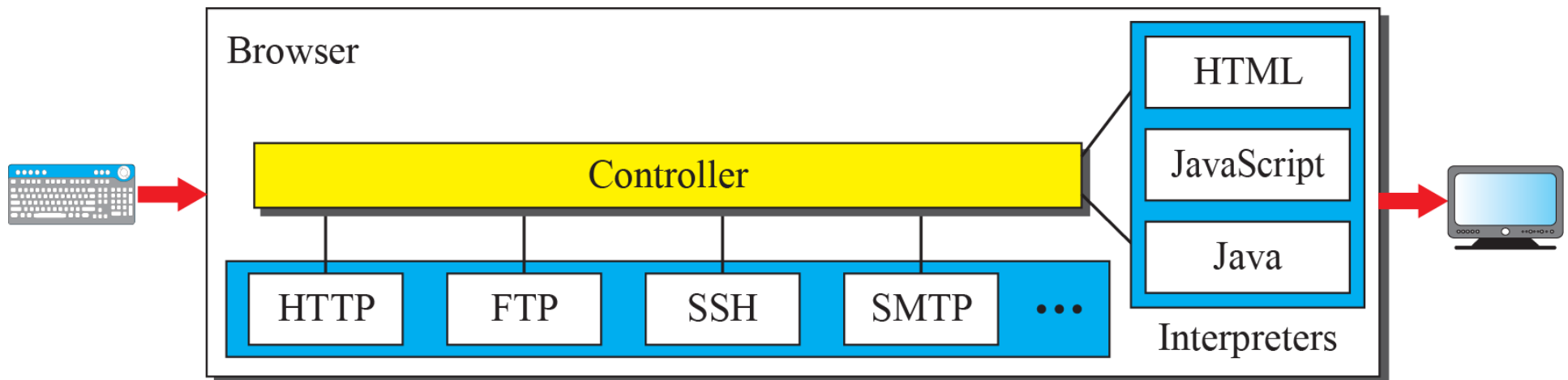


# World Wide Web (WWW)

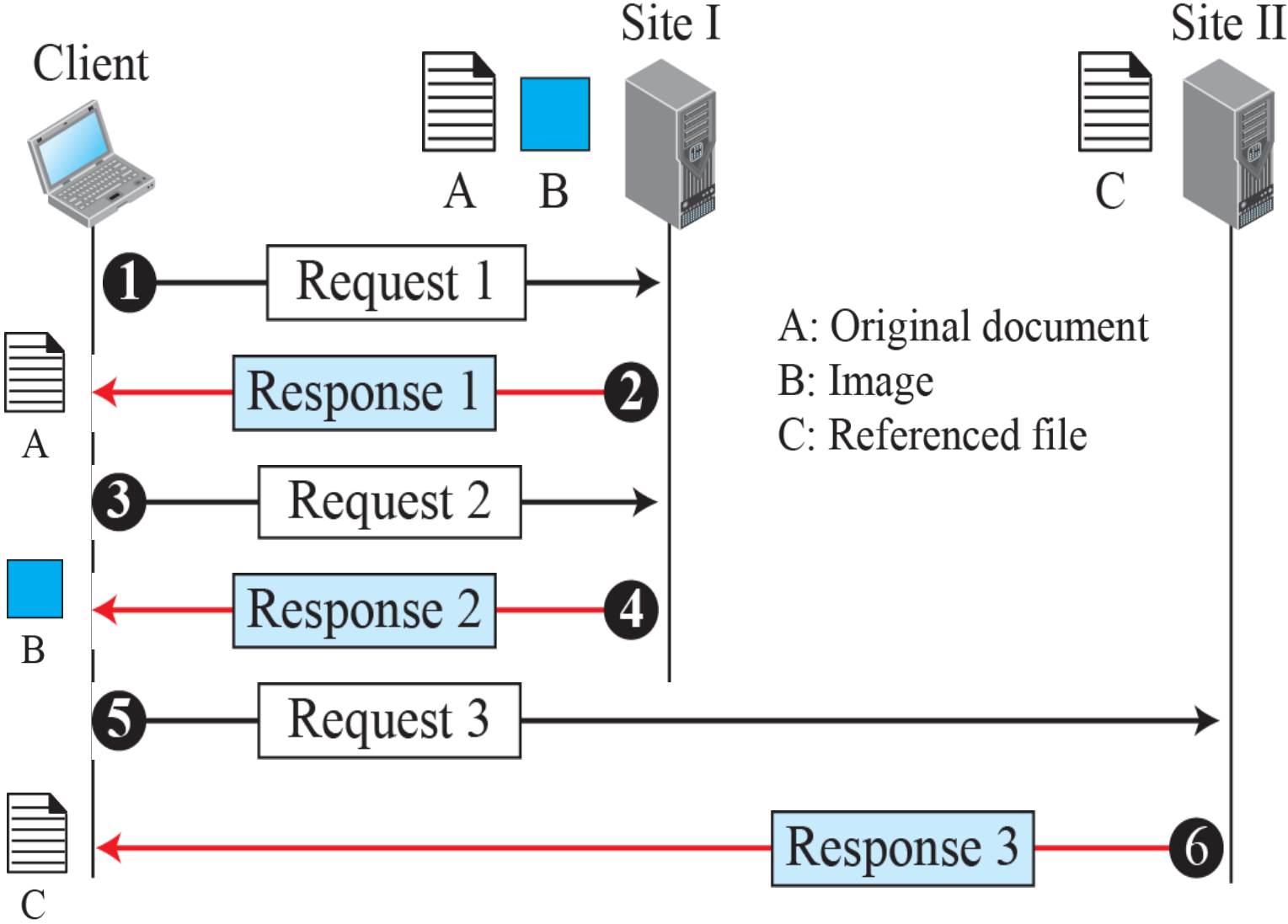
- Web documents (pages)
  - HyperTextMarkup Language (HTML) for static pages
  - Script languages (PHP, ASP, JSP, CGI etc.) for dynamic
- Universal Resource Locator (URL)
  - Standard way to identify location of web documents
  - [protocol://host:port/path](#)
- HyperText Transfer Protocol (HTTP)
  - Protocol to retrieve documents from a web server

# Hypertext Transfer Protocol (HTTP)

- Text-based protocol
- Two basic types of messages
  - Requests and Responses
- Sets up and uses a TCP connection



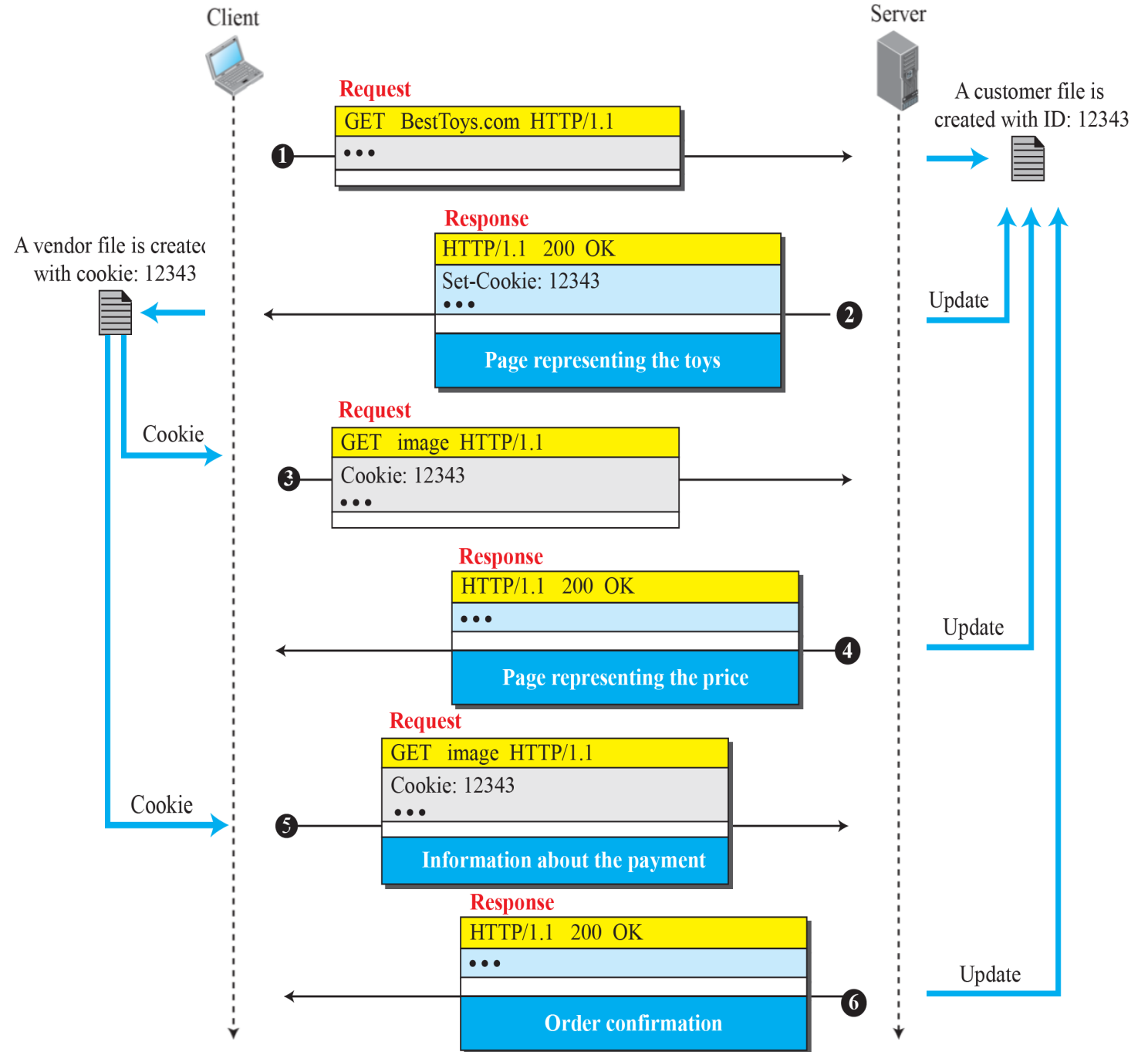
# Document retrieval



# Cookies

- Original WWW was stateless
  - Each request/response treated separately
  - No history of previous messages
- Cookies
  - store information about client
  - introduce concept of a user session
- Implementation (creation and storage) of cookies can be different, but same concept

# Cookies



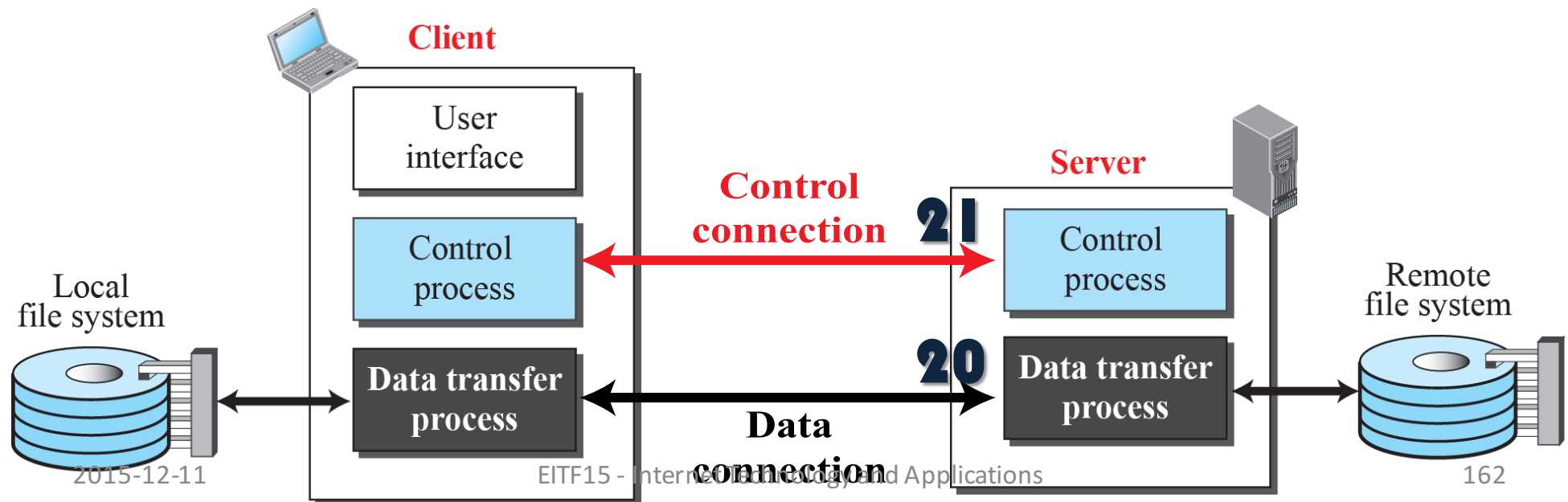
# File Transfer Protocol (FTP) - 1971

## Control connection

- Open for entire session
- Commands & responses
  - ASCII

## Data connection

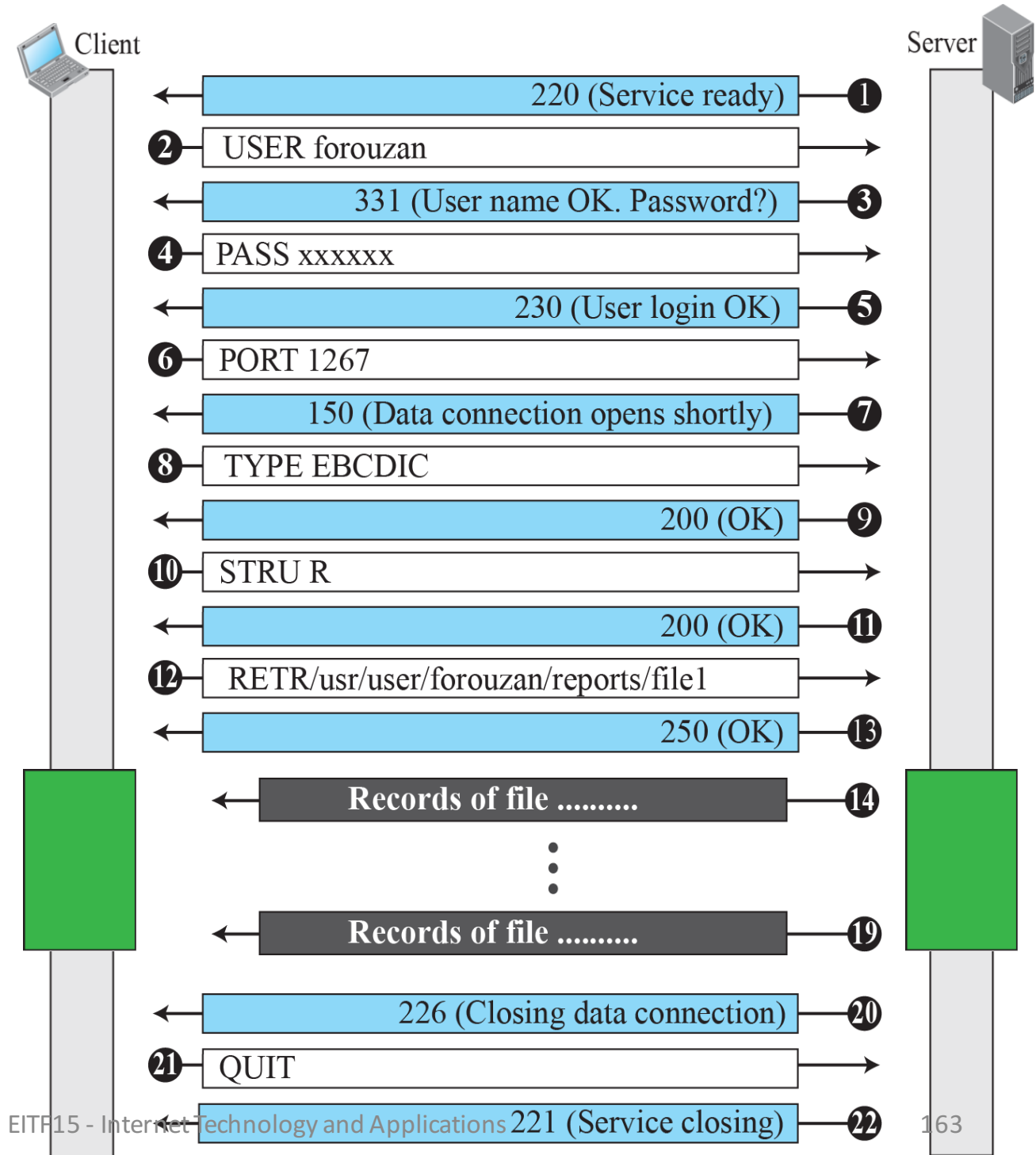
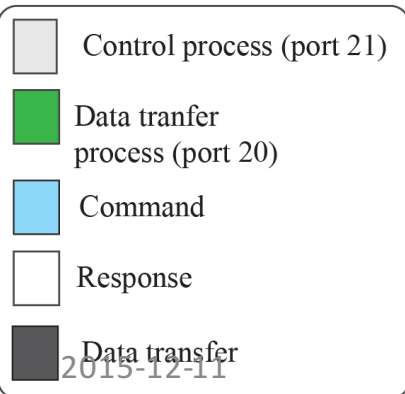
- New one for each file



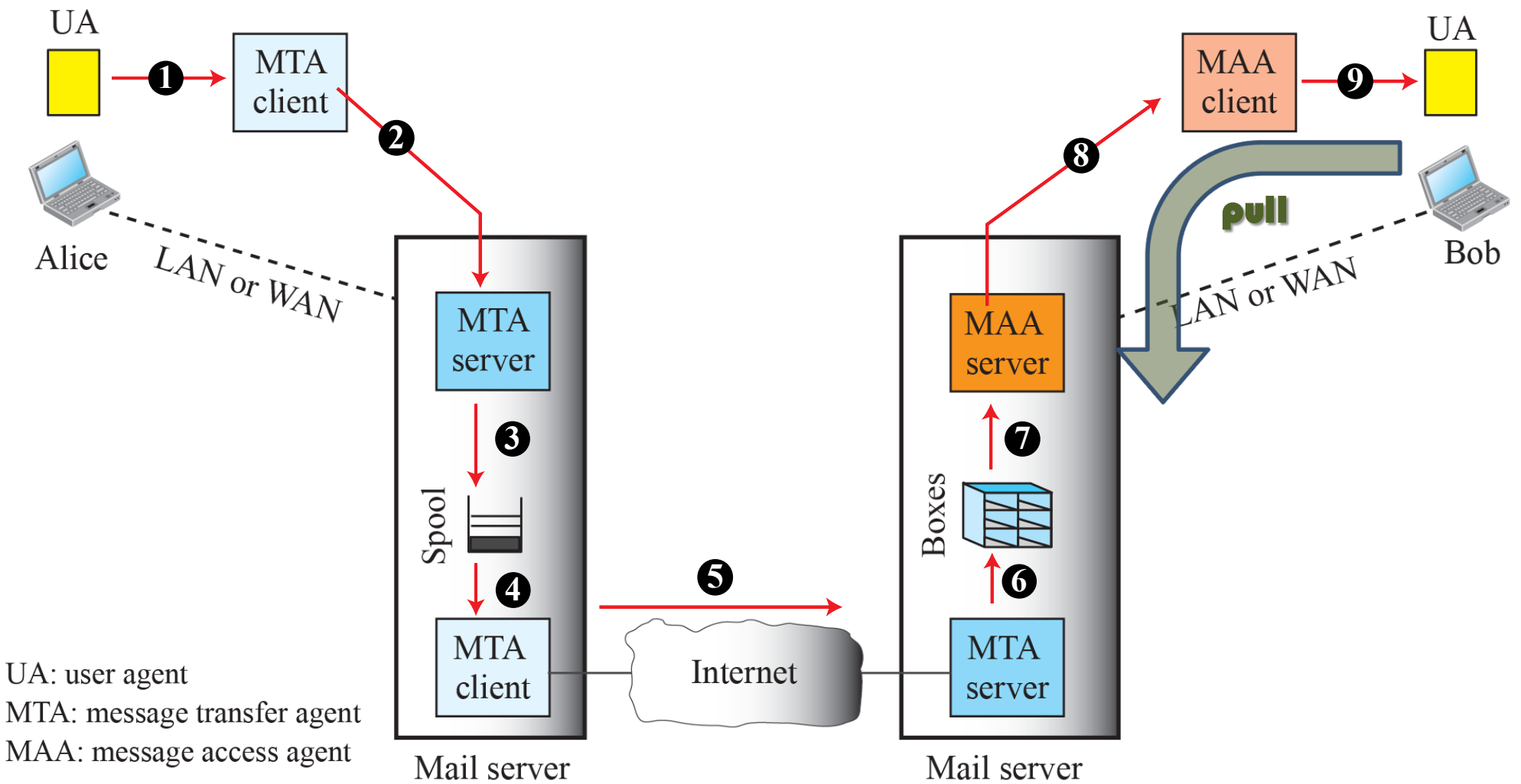
# FTP

- TCP session

## Legend



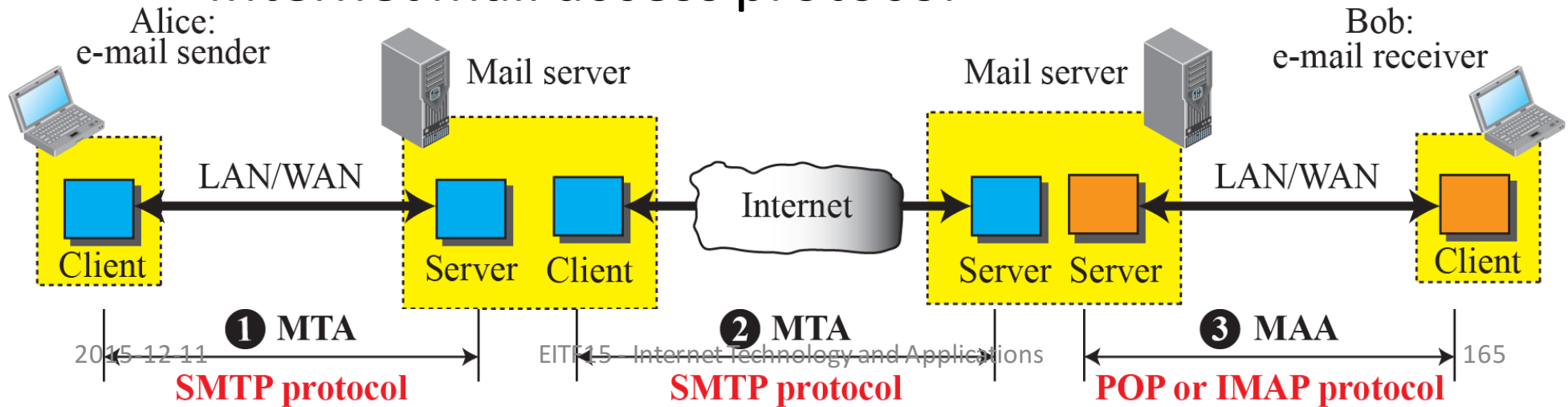
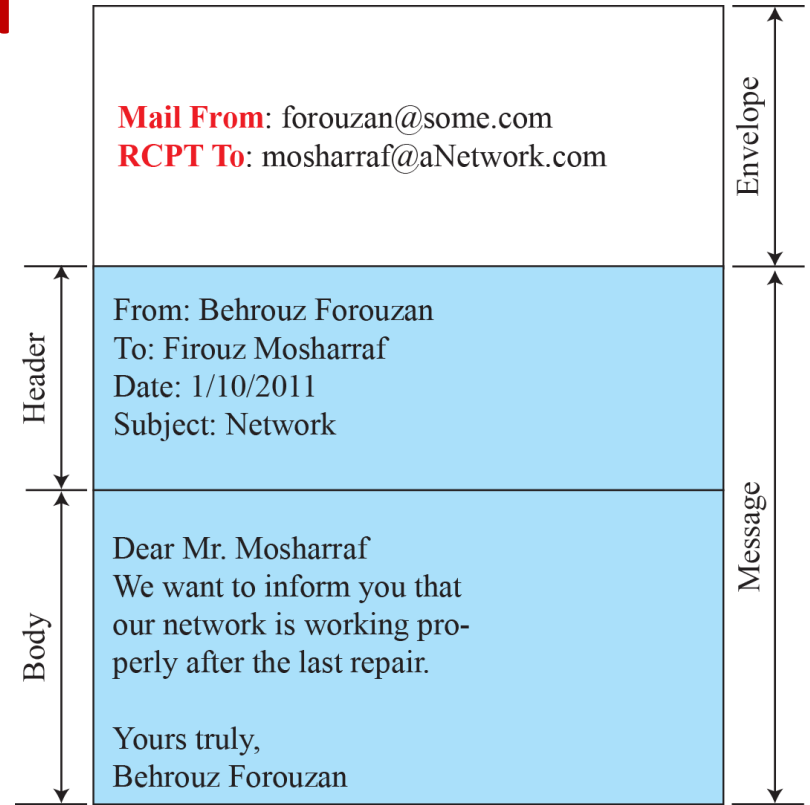
# Electronic mail (e-mail) - 1971





# E-mail: protocols used

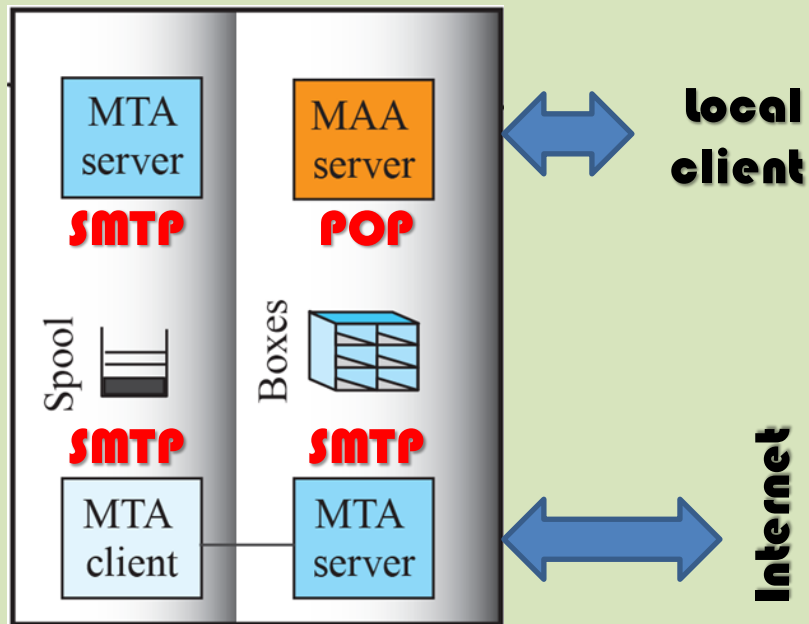
- SMTP
  - Simple mail transfer protocol
- POP
  - Post office protocol
- IMAP
  - Internet mail access protocol



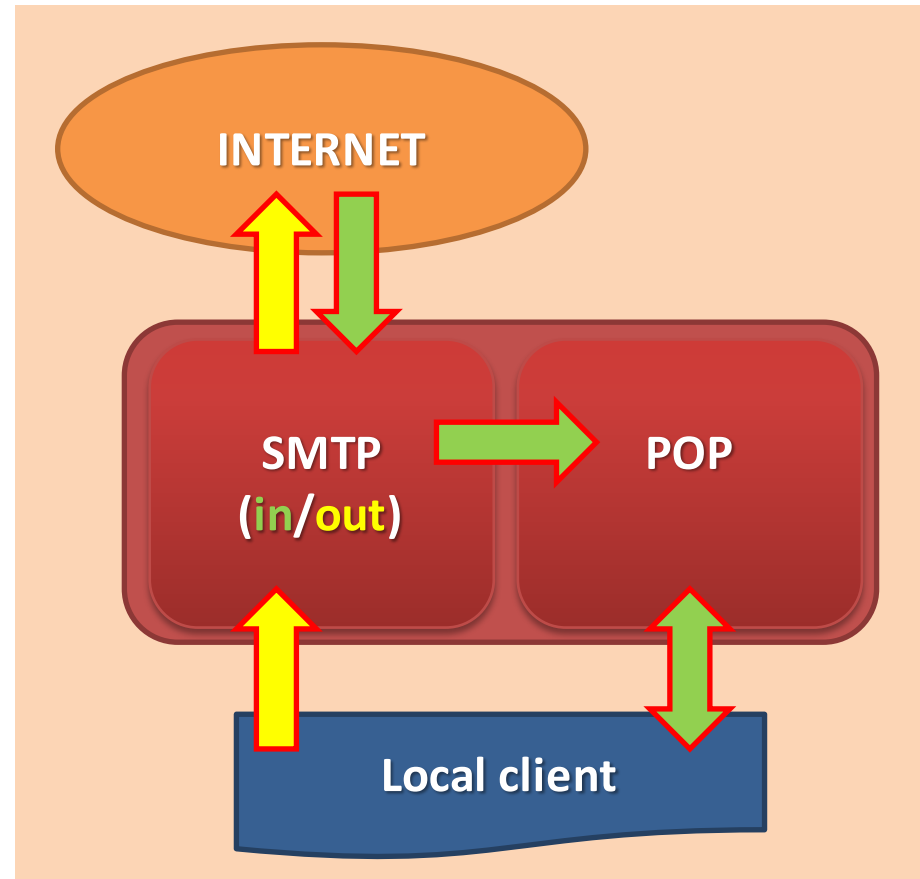
# E-mail: server architecture

## Sender & receiver in one

- Not a very good representation!



## A holistic view



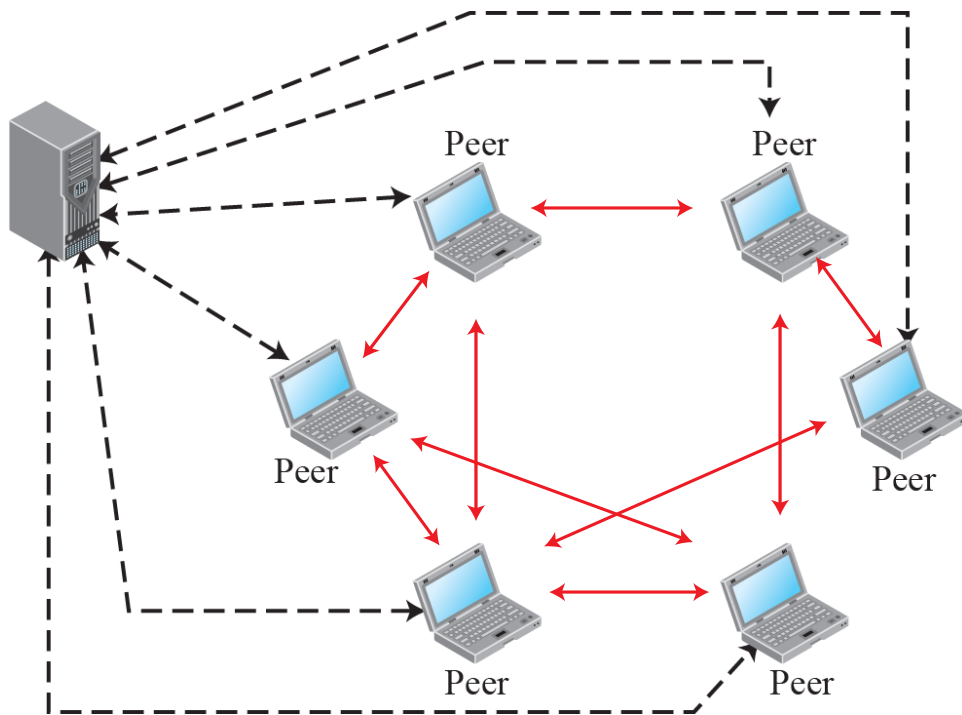
# Performance challenges

- Client/server architectures
  - Standardized protocols like HTTP
  - Heavy traffic load on network infrastructure
  - Unicast transmission
  - Delays due to overloaded access networks
  - Single point of failure

# Peer-to-peer (P2P) paradigm

## Centralised

- Directory server



## Decentralised

- Overlay network
  - Logical on top of physical
- A) unstructured
  - Nodes linked randomly
  - Queries flood network
- B) structured
  - Nodes linked with rules (DHT)
  - More efficient query resolving
- Initial list of nodes provided

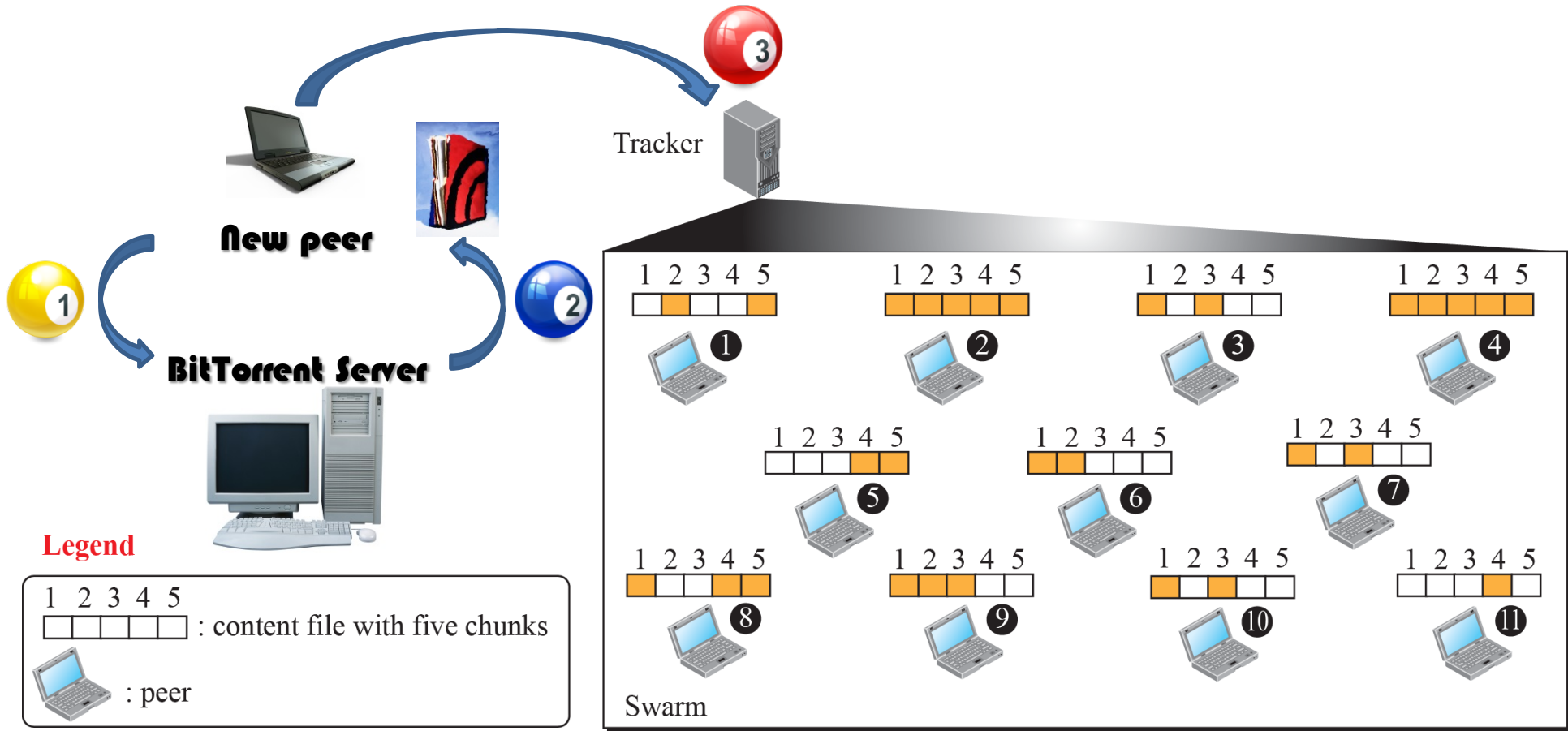


# P2P example: BitTorrent

- Group of peers work together to give all peers a copy of shared file.
  - **Torrent** (metadata about file and tracker)
  - **Tracker** (server with info on swarm)
  - **Swarm** (file-sharing group with seeds and leechers)
  - **Seed** (down- and uploader within swarm)
  - **Leecher** (downloader within swarm)
- No downloading whole file from one peer

# Tracker

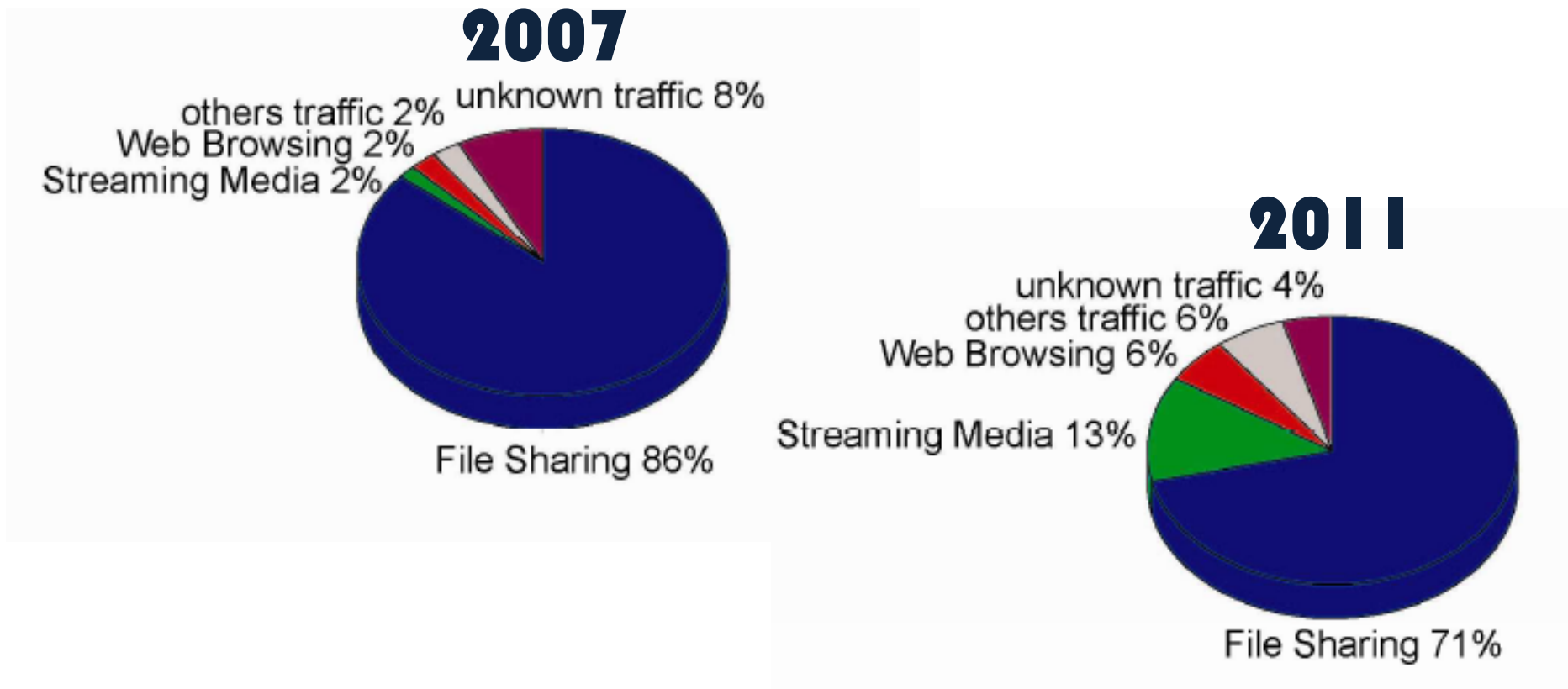
- Provides list of peers for given torrent



**Note:** Peers 2 and 4 are seeds; others are leeches.

# Evolution of Internet usage

- Traffic volumes generated by users

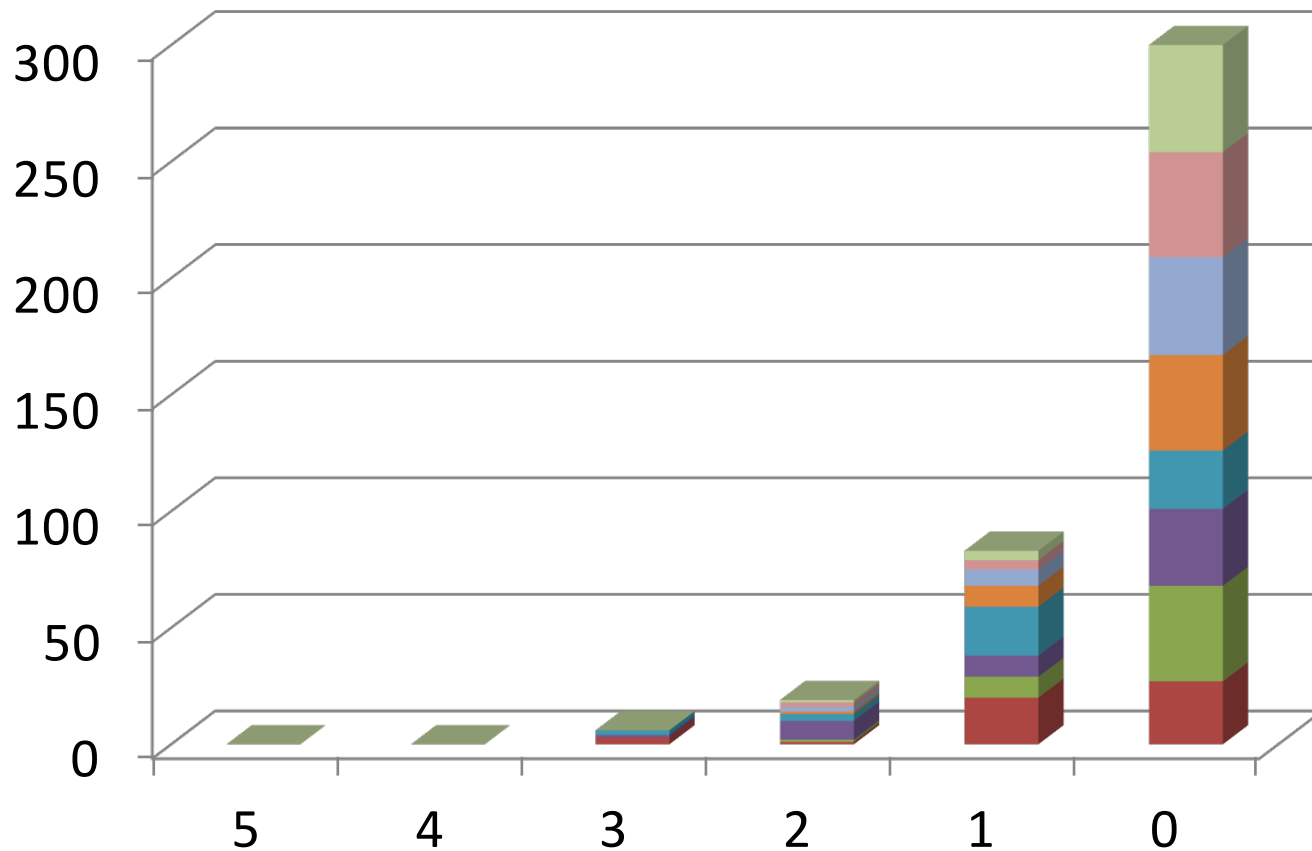


J. Li, A. Aurelius, V. Nordell, M. Du, Å. Arvidsson, M. Kihl:

**A five year perspective of traffic pattern evolution in a residential broadband access network**

2015-12-11  
2015-12-11  
ETTF-15 - Internet Technology and Applications  
Future Network & Mobile Summit 2012

# This concludes our lectures. Thank you for your attendance.



## *Subject Familiarity Survey*

- Routing algorithms, protocols
- Address resolution
- Frames, packets, IP addresses
- Error detection, flow control
- Bridges, switches, routers
- Internet protocols
- Medium access control
- Modulation, coding

**2015-11-02**

(5 = full familiarity; 0 = no familiarity at all)