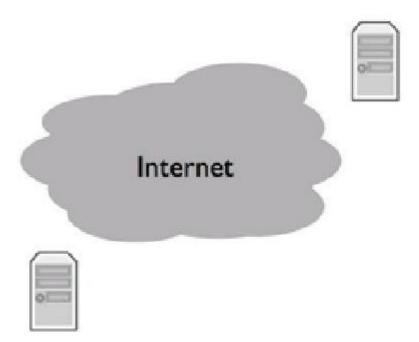
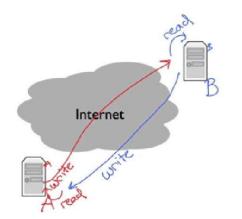
ACN Lecture 2 **Critical network** infrastructure services: **1.** A day in the life of an application 2. The four layer Internet model **3.** The IP service model

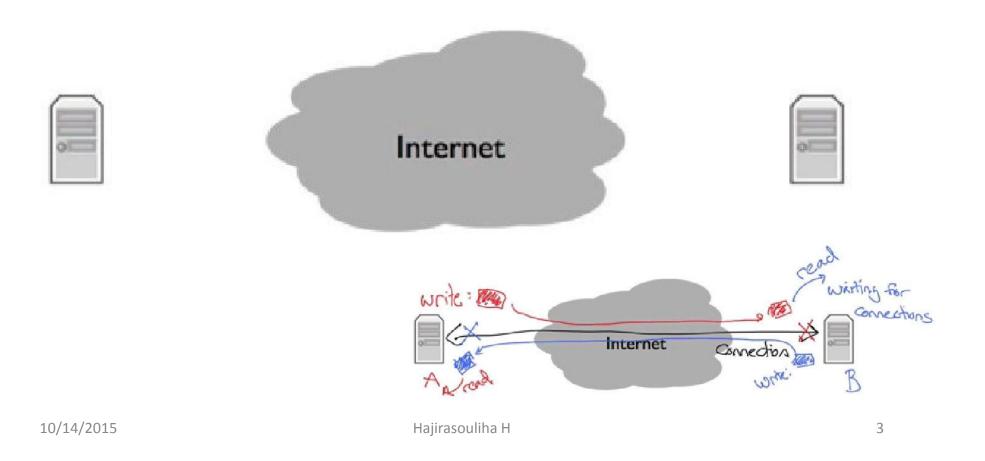
A day in the life of an application Networked Applications Network Applications



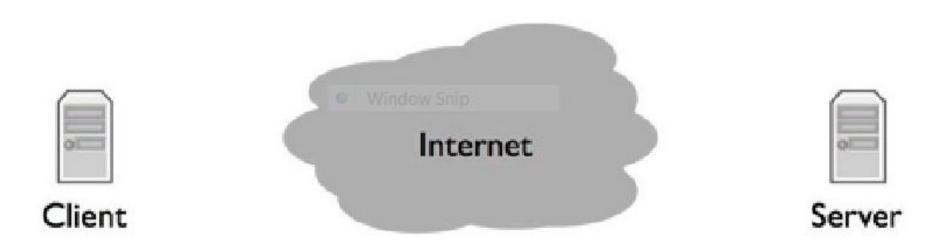
- Read and write data over network
- Dominant model: bidirectional, reliable byte stream connection
 - One side reads what the other writes
 - Operates in both directions
 - Reliable (unless connection breaks)



A day in the life of an application Byte Stream Model

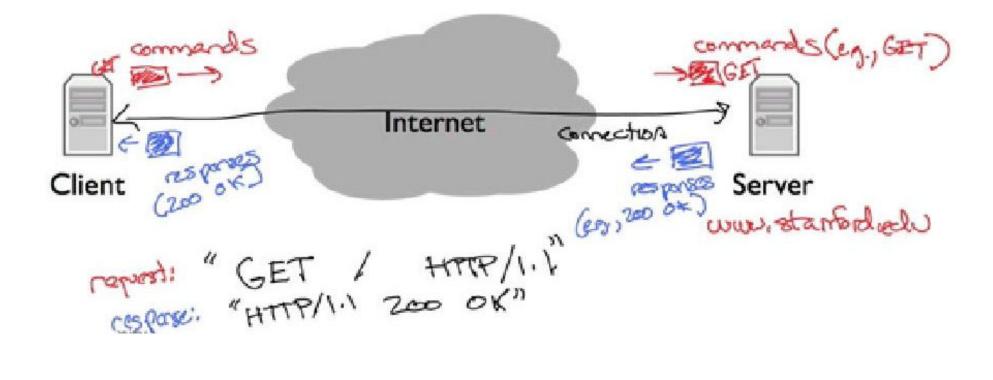


A day in the life of an application World Wide Web (HTTP)



A day in the life of an application

http:// COSVIS HITTP



Two: Types of HTTP connections

1. non-persistent HTTP

- at most <u>one object sent over TCP connection and</u> Then <u>connection is closed</u>.
- downloading multiple objects requires <u>multiple</u> <u>connections.</u>

2. persistent HTTP

* multiple objects <u>can be sent over single TCP</u> connection between client, and server.

1. Non-persistent HTTP

suppose user enters URL:

www.someSchool.edu/someDepartment/home.index

Assume: it contains text, and references to 10 jpeg images.

Ia. HTTP client initiates TCP

connection to HTTP server (process) at: www.someSchool.edu on port 80

2. HTTP client sends HTTP request message (containing URL) into TCP connection socket. Message indicates that client wants object : someDepartment/home.index

time

Ib. HTTP server at host:

www.someSchool.edu waiting for TCP connection at port 80. "accepts" connection, notifying client

3. HTTP server receives

request message, forms response message containing requested <u>object</u>, and sends message into its socket.

Application Layer 2-7

A HTTP server closes TCP connection. 5. HTTP client receives response message containing html file, displays html. Parsing html file, finds 10 referenced jpeg_objects

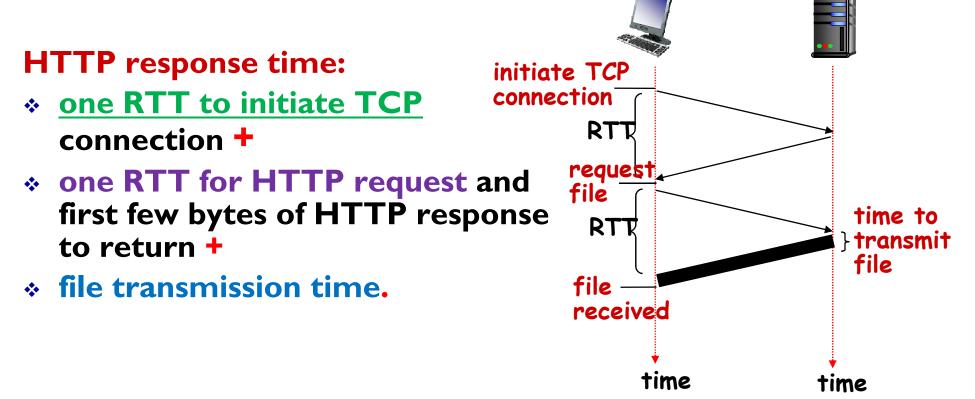
6. <u>Steps I-5</u> repeated for <u>each of 10</u> jpeg objects.

time

Application Layer 2-8

Non-persistent HTTP: response time

RTT (definition): <u>time for a small</u> <u>packet</u> to travel from client to server and back.



Non-persistent HTTP response time = 2RTT + file transmission time

Non-persistent HTTP issues:

*requires 2 RTTs per object.

*** OS overhead** <u>for each TCP</u> <u>connection.</u>

* browsers often open parallel TCP <u>connections</u> to fetch referenced objects.

Application Layer 2-10

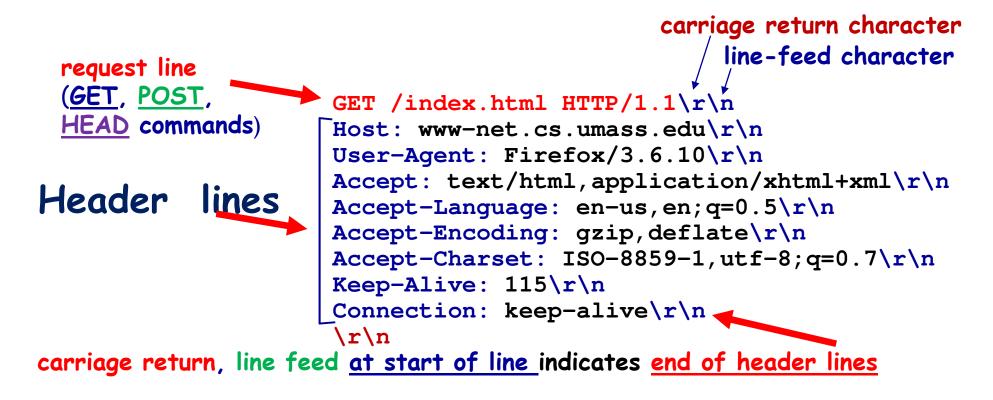
Persistent HTTP

persistent HTTP:

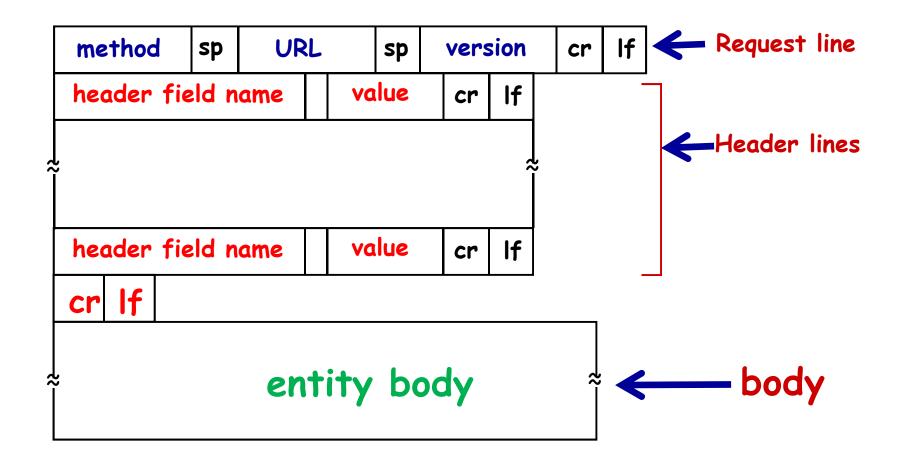
- * server leaves connection open after sending a response.
- * subsequent HTTP messages between same client/server sent over open connection
- * client sends requests <u>as soon as it</u> <u>encounters</u> a referenced object.
- * As little as <u>one RTT</u> for all the referenced objects.

HTTP request message

2 types of HTTP messages: <u>request</u>, <u>response</u> * HTTP request message: ASCII (<u>human-readable format</u>)



HTTP request message: general format



Uploading form input

POST method:

- * web pages often includes form inputs.
- * input is <u>uploaded to server</u> in entity body

URL method:

* uses <u>GET</u> method

* input is uploaded in URL field of request line: e.g.:

www.somesite.com/animalsearch?monkeys&banana

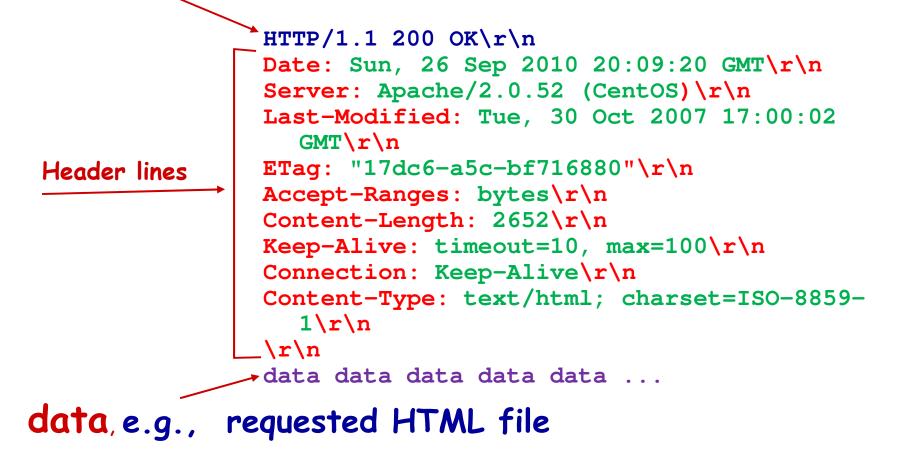
Method types:

HTTP/I.0:

- * **GET**
- * POST
- * HEAD
 - asks server to leave requested object out of response
- HTTP/I.I:
- * GET, POST, HEAD
- * PUT
 - uploads file in entity body to path specified in URL field
- * DELETE
 - deletes file specified in the URL field

HTTP response message:

status line (protocol status code status phrase)



HTTP response status codes

- * status code appears <u>in 1st line</u> in serverto-client <u>response message</u>.
- * some sample codes are:

200 OK

- request succeeded, requested object later in this msg
- 301 Moved Permanently
 - requested object moved, <u>new location specified later</u> in this msg (<u>Location</u>:)
- 400 Bad Request
 - request msg not understood by <u>server</u>
- 404 Not Found
 - requested document <u>not found on this server</u>
- 505 HTTP Version Not Supported

Trying out HTTP (client side) for yourself

I. Telnet to your favorite Web server: e.g.:

telnet cis.poly.edu 80

opens TCP connection to port 80 (default HTTP server port) at cis.poly.edu. anything typed is <u>sent to port 80</u> at cis.poly.edu

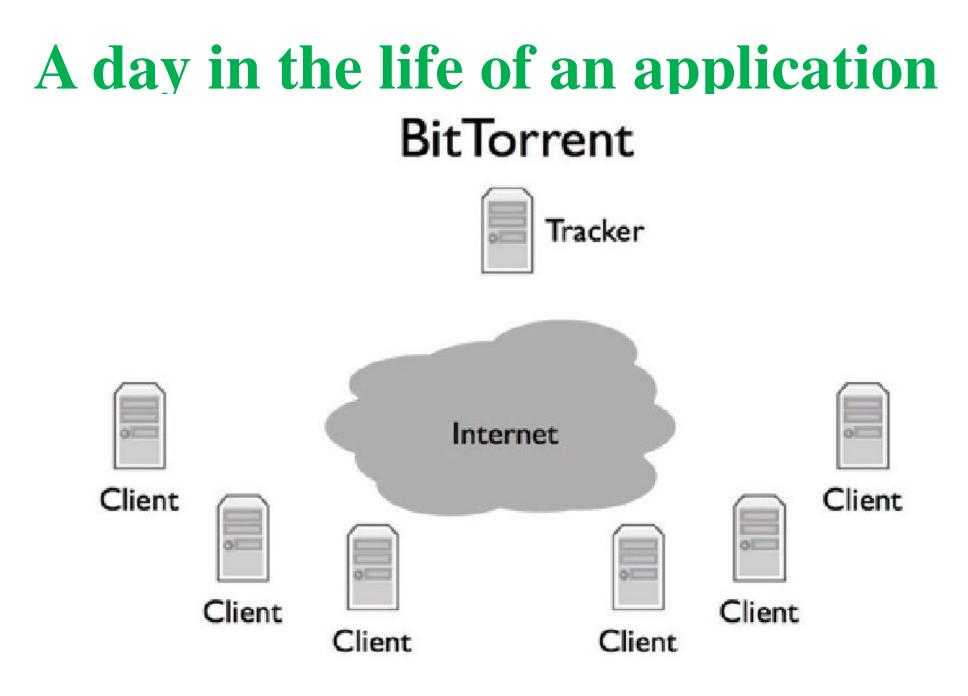
2. type in a GET HTTP request:

GET /~ross/ HTTP/1.1 Host: cis.poly.edu By typing this in (hit carriage return twice), you send this minimal (but complete) GET request to HTTP server

3. look at response message sent by HTTP server!

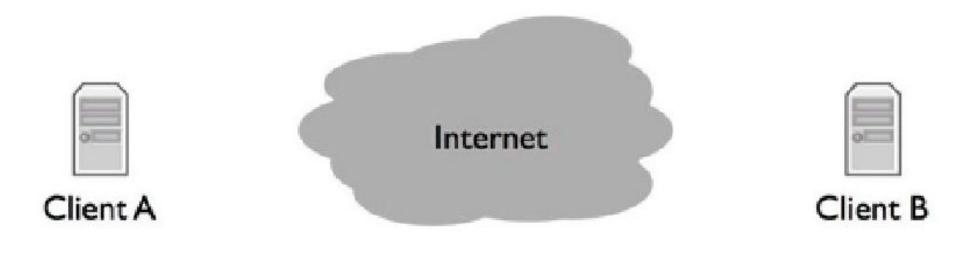
(or use Wireshark to look at captured HTTP request/response)

Application Layer 2-18

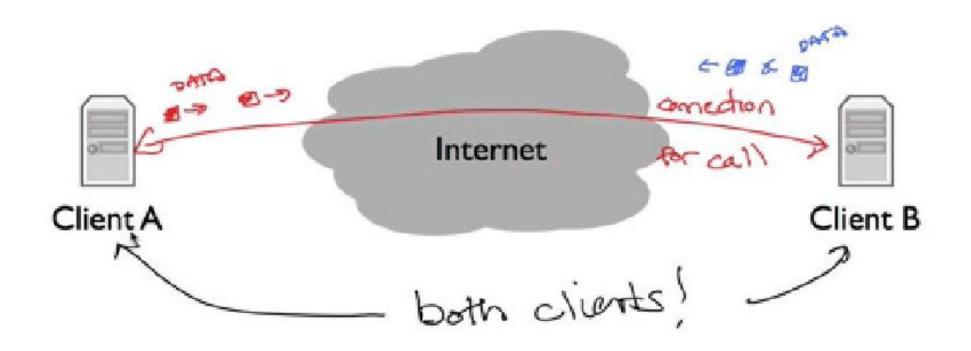


A day in the life of an application BitTorrent treaks files into "picces" clients join and leave "swarms" Get list subrats Tracker of cients Px Internet Client Client Client Client Client Client

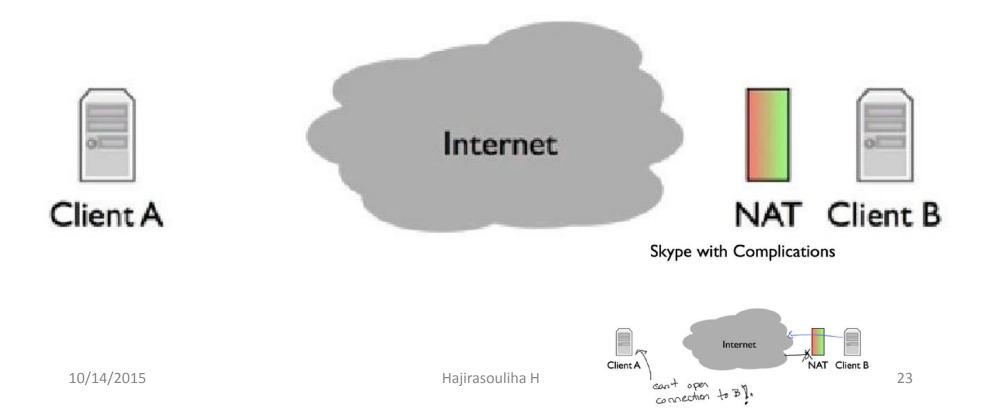
A day in the life of an application Skype

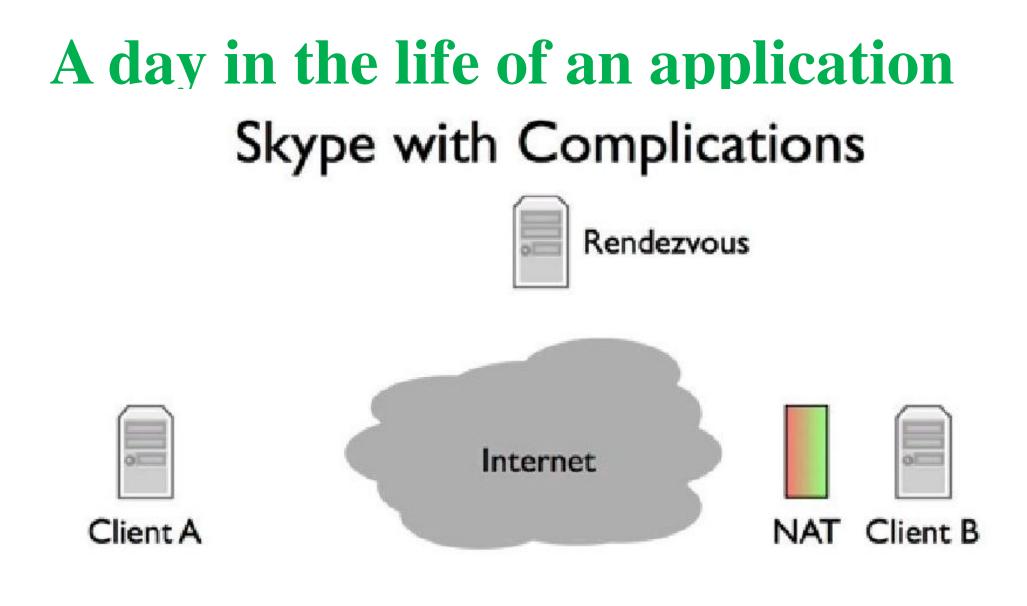


A day in the life of an application Skype



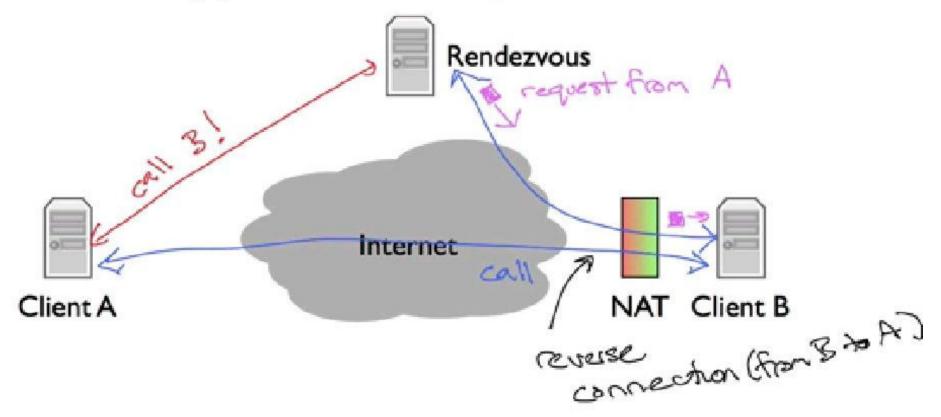
A day in the life of an application Skype with Complications



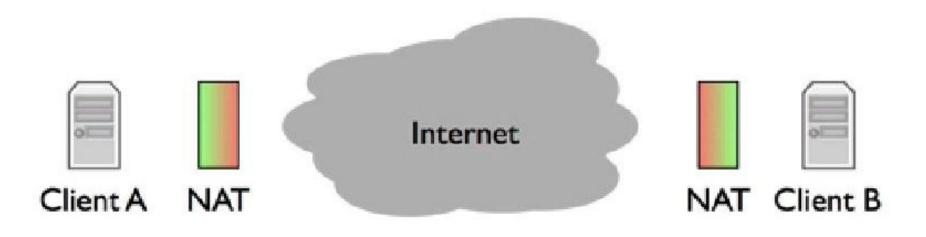


A day in the life of an application

Skype with Complications

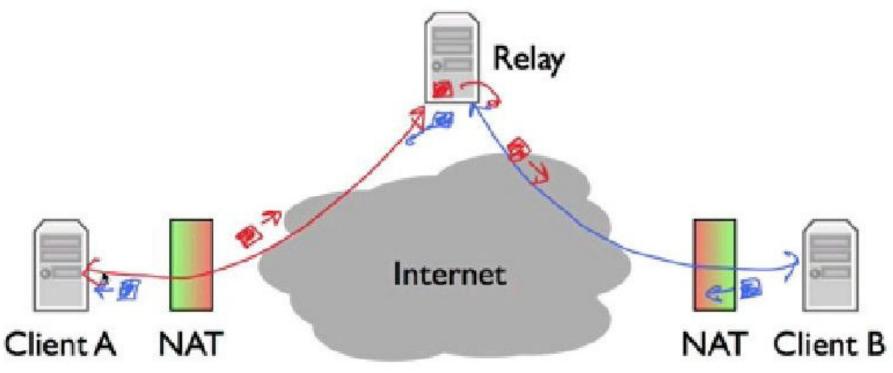


A day in the life of an application Skype with More Complications



A day in the life of an application Skype with More Complications Relay Internet Client A NAT NAT Client B

A day in the life of an application Skype with More Complications



A day in the life of an application Summary:

Application Communication

· Bidirectional, reliable byte stream

- Building block of most applications today
- Other models exist and are used, we'll cover them later in the class
- · Abstracts away entire network -- just a pipe between two programs
- Application level controls communication pattern and payloads
 - World Wide Web (HTTP)
 - Skype
 - BitTorrent

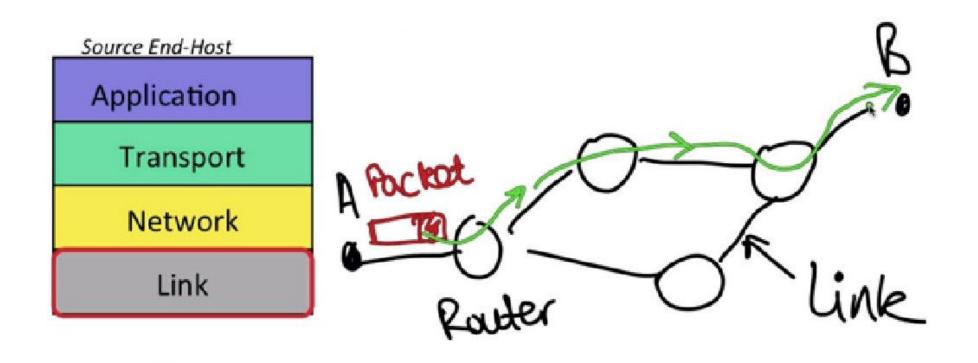
Source End-Host

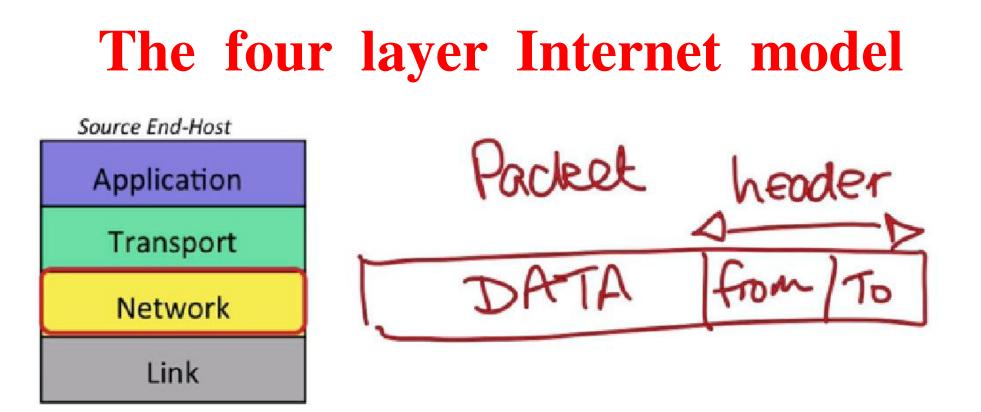
Application

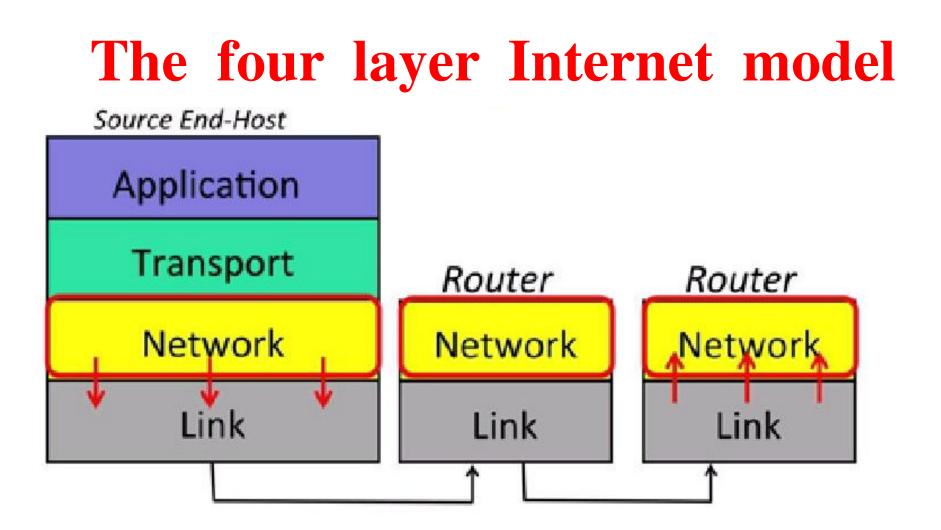
Transport

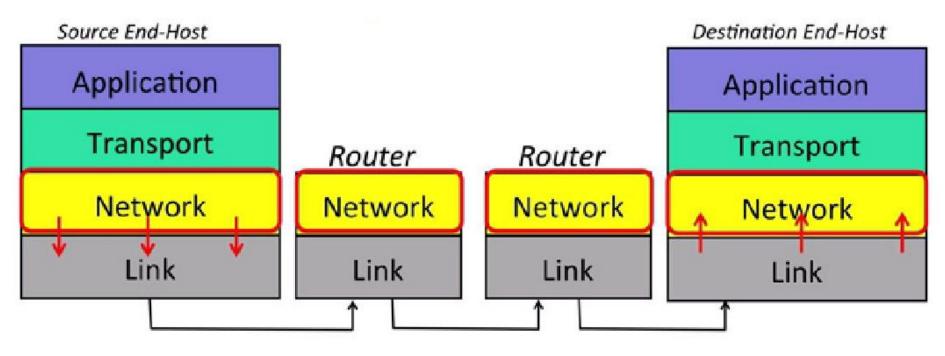
Network

Link





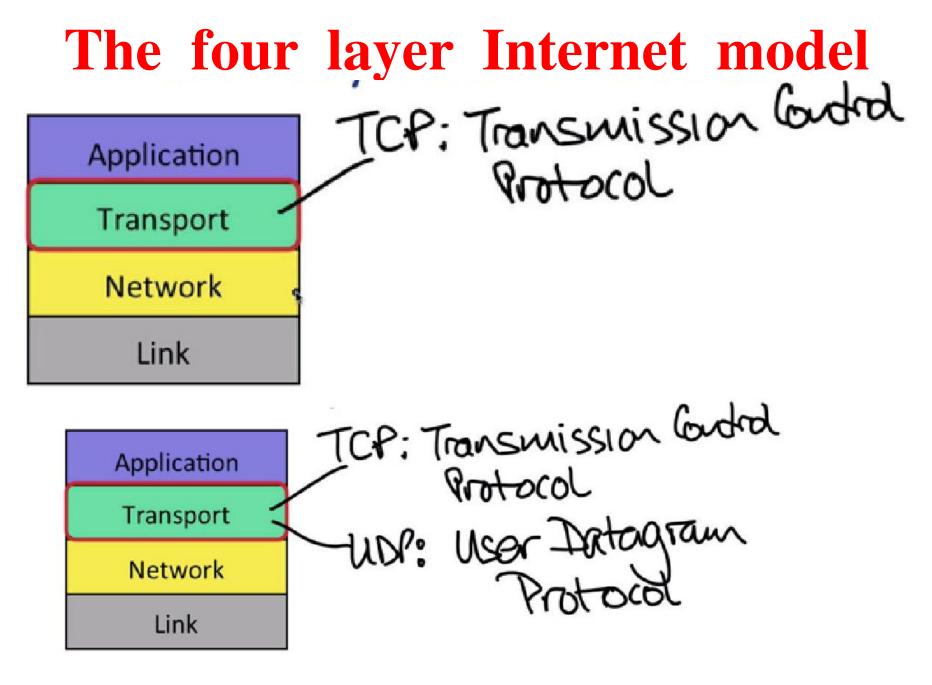




The network layer is "special"

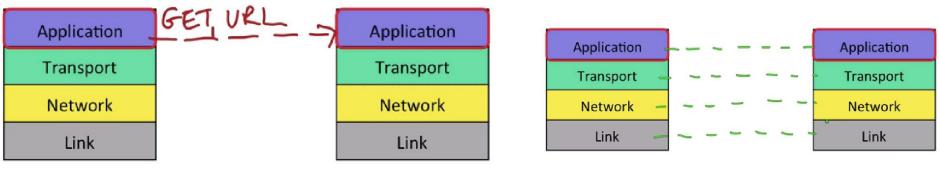
We must use the Internet Protocol (IP)

- IP makes a best-effort attempt to deliver our datagrams to the other end. But it makes no promises.
- IP datagrams can get lost, can be delivered out of order, and can be corrupted. There are no guarantees.



The four layer Internet model

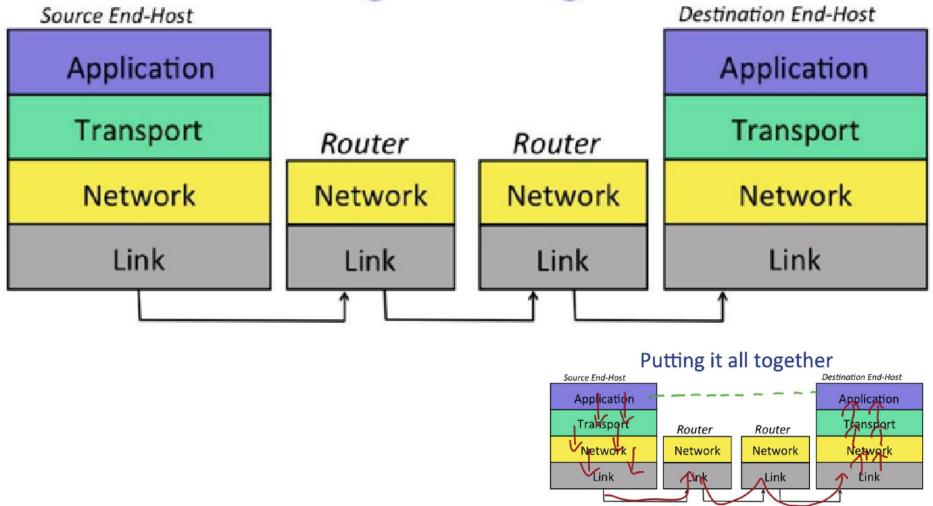




10/14/2015

The four layer Internet model

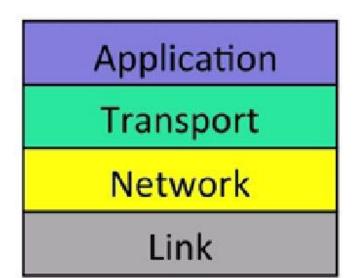
Putting it all together



The four layer Internet model Summary of 4 Layer Model

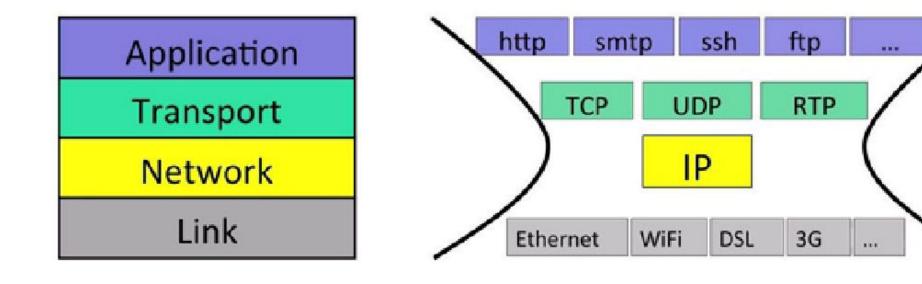
Application	Bi-directional reliable byte stream between two applications, using application-specific semantics (e.g. http, bit-torrent).
Transport	Guarantees correct, in-order delivery of data end-to-end. Controls congestion.
Network	Delivers datagrams end-to-end. Best-effort delivery – no guarantees. Must use the Internet Protocol (IP).
Link	Delivers data over a single link between an end host and router, or between routers

The four layer Internet model Two extra things you need to know... IP is the "thin waist"



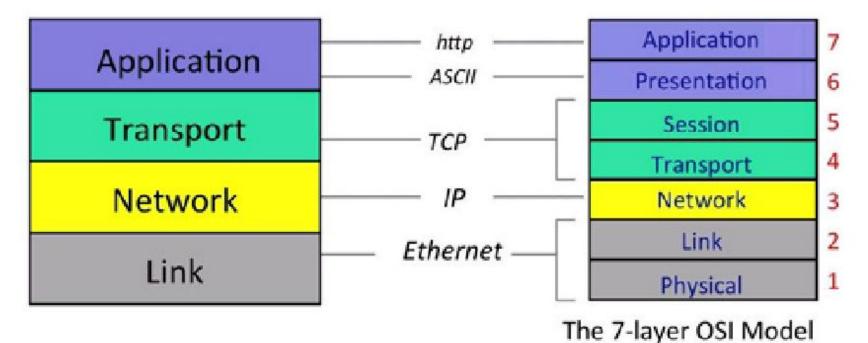
The four layer Internet model

IP is the "thin waist"



The four layer Internet model

The 7-layer OSI Model



Link layer Services: next

our goals:

understand principles behind link layer services:

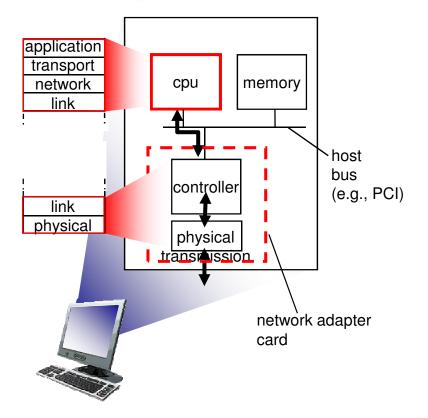
Framing

- error detection, correction
- sharing a broadcast channel: multiple access
- link layer addressing
- Iocal area networks: Ethernet, VLANs

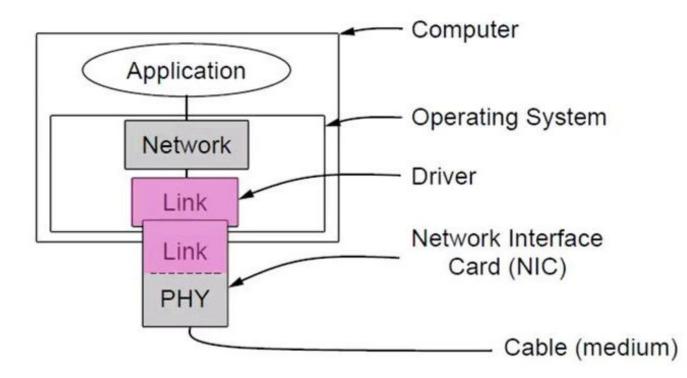
Where is the link layer implemented?

- in each and every host
- link layer implemented in:
 "adaptor" (aka network interface card NIC) or on a chip
 - Ethernet card, 802.11 card;
 Ethernet chipset implements:
 - both link and physical layers
- attaches into host's system buses
- combination of hardware, software, firmware





Typical Implementation of Layers (2)



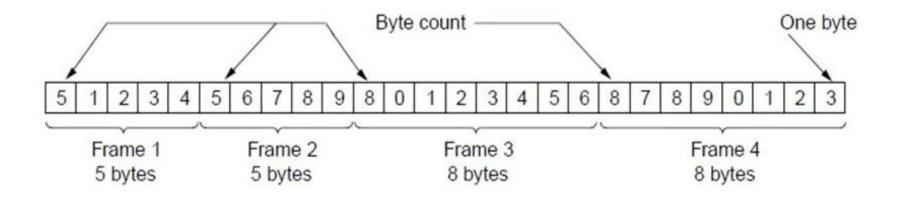
Framing Methods

- We'll look at:
 - Byte count (motivation)»
 - Byte stuffing »
 - Bit stuffing »
- In practice, the physical layer often helps to identify frame boundaries
 - E.g., Ethernet, 802.11

Byte Count

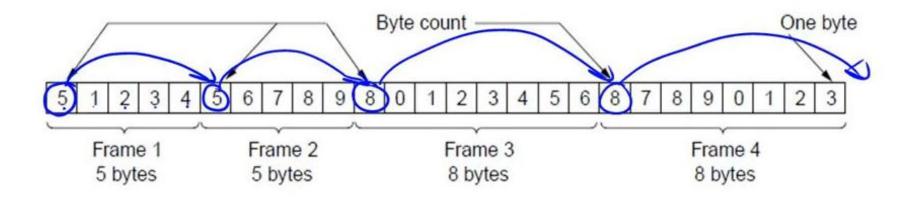
- First try:
 - Let's start each frame with a length field!
 - It's simple, and hopefully good enough ...

Byte Count (2)



How well do you think it works?

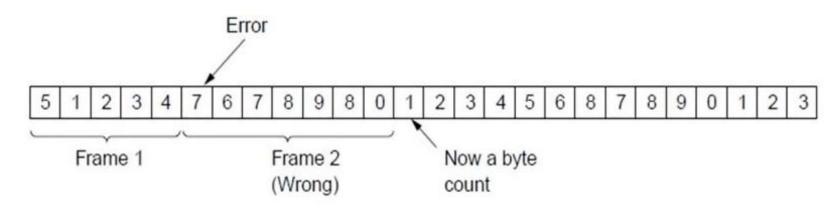
Byte Count (2)



• How well do you think it works?

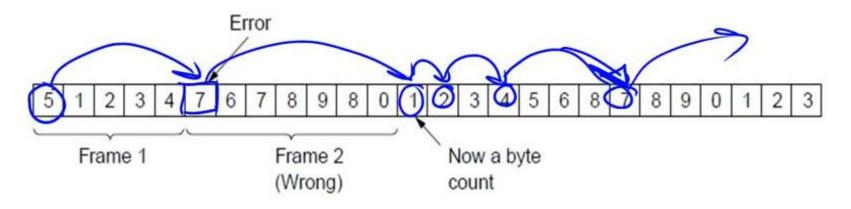
Byte Count (3)

- Difficult to re-synchronize after framing error
 - Want a way to scan for a start of frame



Byte Count (3)

- Difficult to re-synchronize after framing error
 - Want a way to scan for a start of frame



Byte Stuffing

Better idea:

- Have a special flag byte value that means start/end of frame
- Replace ("stuff") the flag inside the frame with an escape code
- Complication: have to escape the escape code too!

FLAG Header	Payload field	Trailer FL
-------------	---------------	------------

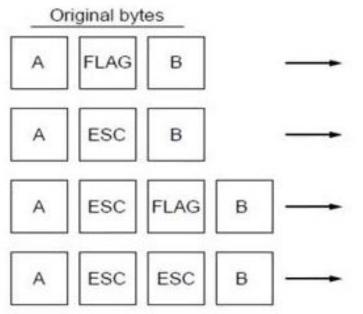
Byte Stuffing

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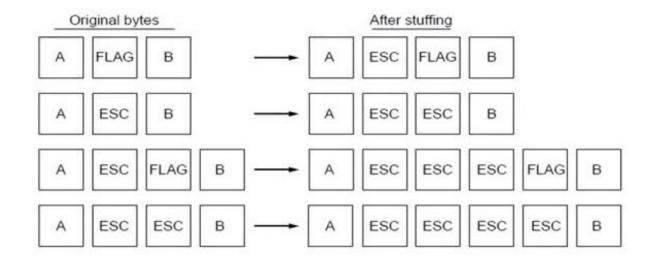
Byte Stuffing (2)

- Rules:
 - Replace each FLAG in data with ESC FLAG
 - Replace each ESC in data with ESC ESC



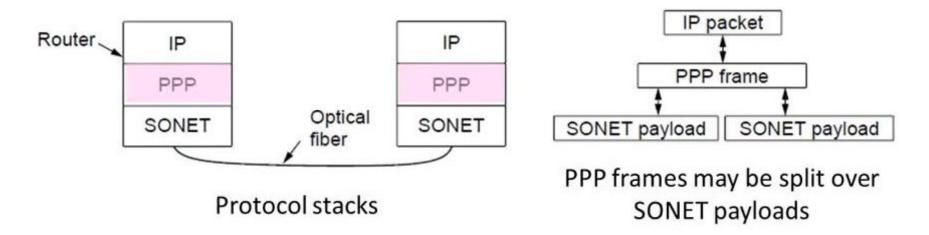
Byte Stuffing (3)

Now any unescaped FLAG is the start/end of a frame



Link Example: PPP over SONET (2)

 Think of SONET as a bit stream, and PPP as the framing that carries an IP packet over the link



Link Example: PPP over SONET (3)

Framing uses byte stuffing

FLAG is 0x7E and ESC is 0x7D

Bytes	1	1	1	1 or 2	Variable	2 or 4	1
	Flag 01111110	Address 11111111	Control 00000011	Protocol	Payload	Checksum	Flag 01111110

Link Example: PPP over SONET (4)

- Byte stuffing method:
 - To stuff (unstuff) a byte, add (remove) ESC (0x7D), and XOR byte with 0x20
 - Removes FLAG from the contents of the frame

Link Example: PPP over SONET (4)

- Byte stuffing method:
 - To stuff (unstuff) a byte, add (remove) ESC (0x7D), and XOR byte with 0x20 ~ type 5 byte
 - Removes FLAG from the contents of the frame $O_{AFE} \rightarrow O_{x}775E$ $O_{x}70 \rightarrow O_{x}775E$ $O_{x}70 \rightarrow O_{x}705D$

Bit Stuffing

Can stuff at the bit level too

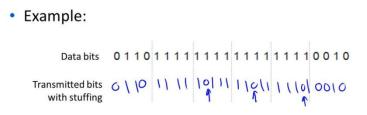
 Call a flag six consecutive 1s
 On transmit, after five 1s in the data, insert a 0
 On receive, a 0 after five 1s is deleted

Bit Stuffing (2)

• Example:

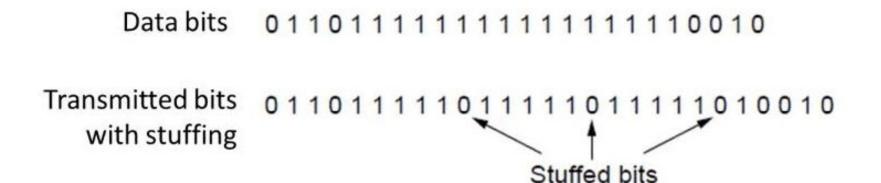
Data bits	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1 1	1	1	1 0	0	1 0)
Transmitted bits with stuffing																						





Bit Stuffing (3)

So how does it compare with byte stuffing?



Link Example: PPP over SONET

- PPP is Point-to-Point Protocol
- Widely used for link framing
 - E.g., it is used to frame IP packets that are sent over SONET optical links

Link layer Services: next

our goals:

- understand principles behind link layer services:
 - Framing

■ error detection, correction

- sharing a broadcast channel: multiple access
- link layer addressing
- Iocal area networks: Ethernet, VLANs

Approach – Add Redundancy

- Error detection codes
 - Add <u>check bits</u> to the message bits to let some errors be detected
- Error correction codes
 - Add more <u>check bits</u> to let some errors be corrected
- Key issue is now to structure the code to detect many errors with few check bits and modest computation

Motivating Example

- A simple code to handle errors:
 - Send two copies! Error if different.

- How good is this code?
 - How many errors can it detect/correct?
 - How many errors will make it fail?

Motivating Example

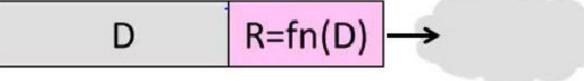
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A simple code to handle errors: Send two copies! Error if different. 010018 How good is this code? How many errors can it detect/correct? How many errors will make it fail?

Using Error Codes

 Codeword consists of D data plus R check bits (=systematic block code)

Data bits Check bits

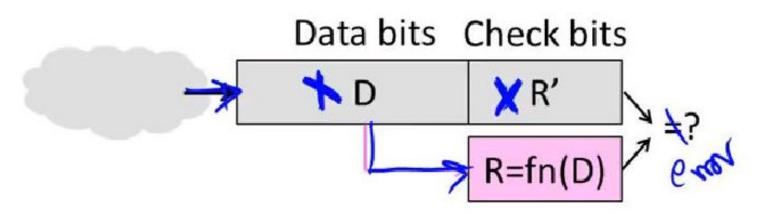


- Sender:
 - Compute R check bits based on the D data bits; send the codeword of D+R bits

Using Error Codes (2)

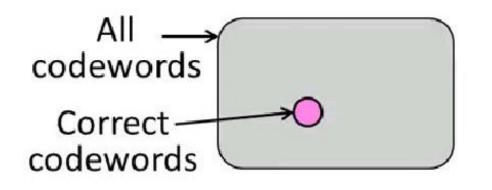
Receiver:

- Receive D+R bits with unknown errors
- Recompute R check bits based on the D data bits; error if R doesn't match R'

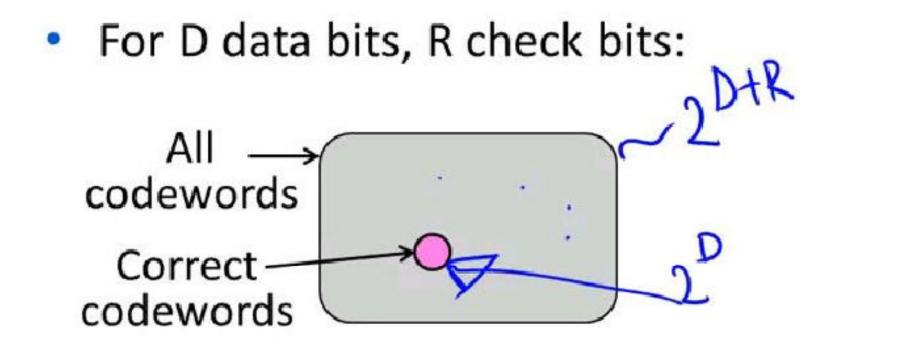


Intuition for Error Codes

For D data bits, R check bits:



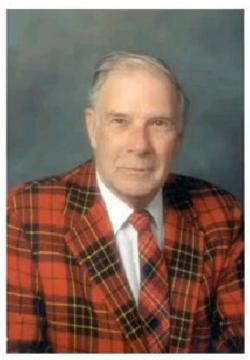
 Randomly chosen codeword is unlikely to be correct; overhead is low



 Randomly chosen codeword is unlikely to be correct; overhead is low

R.W. Hamming (1915-1998)

- Much early work on codes:
 - "Error Detecting and Error Correcting Codes", BSTJ, 1950
- See also:
 - "You and Your Research", 1986



Source: IEEE GHN, © 2009 IEEE

Hamming Distance

 Distance is the number of bit flips needed to change D₁ to D₂

 <u>Hamming distance</u> of a code is the minimum distance between any pair of codewords

Hamming Distance

- Distance is the number of bit flips needed to change $D_1^{(1)}$ to $D_2^{(2)}$ $| \rightarrow |(1, 0, -) \infty$ $J_1^{(1)}$ $J_2^{(2)}$
- <u>Hamming distance</u> of a code is the minimum distance between any pair of codewords

Hamming Distance (2)

- Error detection:
 - For a code of distance d+1, up to d errors will always be detected

Hamming Distance (3)

- Error correction:
 - For a code of distance 2d+1, up to d errors can always be corrected by mapping to the closest codeword

Hamming Distance (3)

- Error correction:

Error Detection 2:

1.Parity Codes2.Checksum Codes3.CRC Codes

Simple Error Detection – Parity Bit

1001100

- Take D data bits, add 1 check bit that is the sum of the D bits
 - Sum is modulo 2 or XOR

Parity Bit (2)

• How well does parity work?

– What is the distance of the code?

How many errors will it detect/correct?

• What about larger errors?

Parity Bit (2)

- How well does parity work?
 - What is the distance of the code?
 2
 - How many errors will it detect/correct?
- What about larger errors?

Checksums

- Idea: sum up data in N-bit words
 - Widely used in, e.g., TCP/IP/UDP

1500 bytes	16 bits

Stronger protection than parity

Internet Checksum

 Sum is defined in 1s complement arithmetic (must add back carries)

And it's the negative sum

• {"The checksum field is the 16 bit one's complement of the one's complement sum of all 16 bit words ..." – RFC 791



Internet Checksum (2)

Sending:	0001
	£203
 Arrange data in 16-bit words 	f4f5
e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e	f6f7
Put zero in checksum position, add	

3. Add any carryover back to get 16 bits

4. Negate (complement) to get sum

Internet Checksum (3)

Sending:	0001 £203
 Arrange data in 16-bit words 	f4f5 f6f7
2. Put zero in checksum position, add	+ (0000)
3. Add any carryover back to get 16 bits	2ddf0 ddf0 + 2
 Negate (complement) to get sum 	ddf2

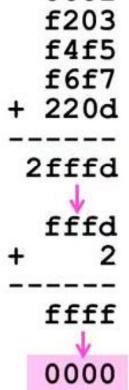
Internet Checksum (4)

Receiving:	0001
Receiving.	£203
1. Arrange data in 16-bit words	£4£5
1. Allange uata ili 10-bit wolus	£6£7
2. Checksum will be non-zero, add	+ 220d
Z. Checksulli will be non zero, aud	

3. Add any carryover back to get 16 bits

4. Negate the result and check it is 0

Internet Checksur	n (5)
Receiving: 1. Arrange data in 16-bit words 2. Checksum will be non-zero, add	0001 f203 f4f5 f6f7 + 220d
3. Add any carryover back to get 16 bits	2fffd fffd + 2
4. Negate the result and check it is 0	ffff 0000



Internet Checksum (6)

- How well does the checksum work?
 - What is the distance of the code?
 - How many errors will it detect/correct?
- What about larger errors?

Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC)

- Even stronger protection
 - Given n data bits, generate k check
 bits such that the n+k bits are evenly
 divisible by a generator C
- Example with numbers:

– n = 302, k = one digit, C = 3

Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC)

- Even stronger protection
 - Given n data bits, generate k check bits such that the n+k bits are evenly divisible by a generator C
- Example with numbers:

- n = 302, k = one digit, C = 3

$$302 \pm 3020 \times 3$$

= 2

CRCs (2)

- The catch:
 - It's based on mathematics of finite fields, in which "numbers" represent polynomials
 - e.g, 10011010 is x⁷ + x⁴ + x³ + x¹
- What this means:

 We work with binary values and operate using modulo 2 arithmetic

CRCs (3)

- Send Procedure:
- 1. Extend the n data bits with k zeros
- 2. Divide by the generator value C
- 3. Keep remainder, ignore quotient
- 4. Adjust k check bits by remainder
- Receive Procedure:
- 1. Divide and check for zero remainder

CRCs (4)

```
Data bits: 10011 1 101011111

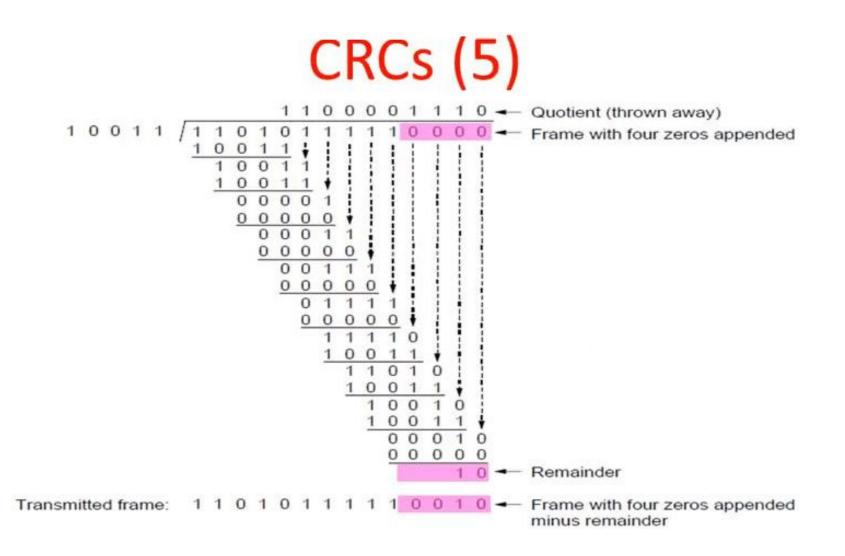
1101011111

Check bits:

C(x)=x^4+x^1+1

C = 10011

k = 4
```





- Protection depend on generator
 - Standard CRC-32 is 10000010
 01100000 10001110 110110111
- Properties:
 - HD=4, detects up to triple bit errors
 - Also odd number of errors
 - And bursts of up to k bits in error
 - Not vulnerable to systematic errors like checksums

Error Detection in Practice

- CRCs are widely used on links
 - Ethernet, 802.11, ADSL, Cable ...
- Checksum used in Internet
 - IP, TCP, UDP ... but it is weak
- Parity
 - Is little used

Error Correction Topic

- Some bits may be received in error due to noise. How do we fix them?
 - Hamming code »
 - Other codes »
- And why should we use detection when we can use correction?

Why Error Correction is Hard

- If we had reliable check bits we could use them to narrow down the position of the error
 - Then correction would be easy
- But error could be in the check bits as well as the data bits!
 - Data might even be correct

Intuition for Error Correcting Code

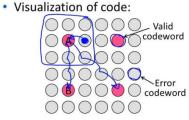
- Suppose we construct a code with a Hamming distance of at least 3
 - Need ≥3 bit errors to change one valid codeword into another
 - Single bit errors will be closest to a unique valid codeword
- If we assume errors are only 1 bit, we can correct them by mapping an error to the closest valid codeword

- Works for d errors if $HD \ge 2d + 1$

Intuition (2)

Visualization of code: Valid codeword Error codeword

Intuition (2)



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10/14/2015

Intuition (3)

Visualization of code: Valid Single codeword bit error from A Three bit Error errors to codeword get to B

Hamming Code

 Gives a method for constructing a code with a distance of 3

→ Uses n = 2^k – k – 1, e.g., n=4, k=3

- Put check bits in positions p that are powers of 2, starting with position 1
- Check bit in position p is parity of positions with a p term in their values
- Plus an easy way to correct [soon]

Hamming Code (2)

- Example: data=0101, 3 check bits
 - 7 bit code, check bit positions 1, 2, 4
 - Check 1 covers positions 1, 3, 5, 7
 - Check 2 covers positions 2, 3, 6, 7
 - Check 4 covers positions 4, 5, 6, 7

Hamming Code (3)

- Example: data=0101, 3 check bits
 - 7 bit code, check bit positions 1, 2, 4
 - Check 1 covers positions 1, 3, 5, 7
 - Check 2 covers positions 2, 3, 6, 7
 - Check 4 covers positions 4, 5, 6, 7

 $p_1 = 0 + 1 + 1 = 0$, $p_2 = 0 + 0 + 1 = 1$, $p_4 = 1 + 0 + 1 = 0$

Hamming Code (4)

- To decode:
 - Recompute check bits (with parity sum including the check bit)
 - Arrange as a binary number
 - Value (syndrome) tells error position
 - Value of zero means no error
 - Otherwise, flip bit to correct

Hamming Code (5)

Example, continued

 $\xrightarrow{\mathbf{0}} \underbrace{1}_{1} \underbrace{1}_{2} \underbrace{0}_{3} \underbrace{0}_{4} \underbrace{1}_{5} \underbrace{0}_{6} \underbrace{1}_{7} \\ \mathbf{p}_{1} = \mathbf{p}_{2} = \mathbf{p}_{4} =$

Syndrome = Data =

Hamming Code (6)

Example, continued

 $\xrightarrow{\longrightarrow} \underbrace{0}_{1} \underbrace{1}_{2} \underbrace{0}_{3} \underbrace{0}_{4} \underbrace{1}_{5} \underbrace{0}_{6} \underbrace{1}_{7} \\ p_{1} = 0 + 0 + 1 + 1 = 0, p_{2} = 1 + 0 + 0 + 1 = 0, \\ p_{4} = 0 + 1 + 0 + 1 = 0$

Syndrome = 000, no error Data = 0 1 0 1

Hamming Code (7)

Example, continued

 $\rightarrow \underbrace{0}_{1} \underbrace{1}_{2} \underbrace{0}_{3} \underbrace{0}_{4} \underbrace{1}_{5} \underbrace{1}_{6} \underbrace{1}_{7} \\ p_{1} = p_{2} = p_{4} =$

Data =

Hamming Code (8)

Example, continued

$$p_1 = 0+0+1+1 = 0, p_2 = 1+0+1+1 = 1, p_4 = 0+1+1+1 = 1$$

Syndrome = 1 1 0, flip position 6 Data = 0 1 0 1 (correct after flip!)

Detection vs. Correction (4)

- Error correction:
 - Needed when errors are expected
 - Or when no time for retransmission
- Error detection:
 - More efficient when errors are not expected
 - And when errors are large when they do occur

Error Correction in Practice

- Heavily used in physical layer
 - LDPC is the future, used for demanding links like 802.11, DVB, WiMAX, LTE, power-line, ...
 - Convolutional codes widely used in practice
- Error detection (w/ retransmission) is used in the link layer and above for residual errors
- Correction also used in the application layer
 - Called Forward Error Correction (FEC)
 - Normally with an erasure error model
 - E.g., Reed-Solomon (CDs, DVDs, etc.)

Main topics for Lecture 1:

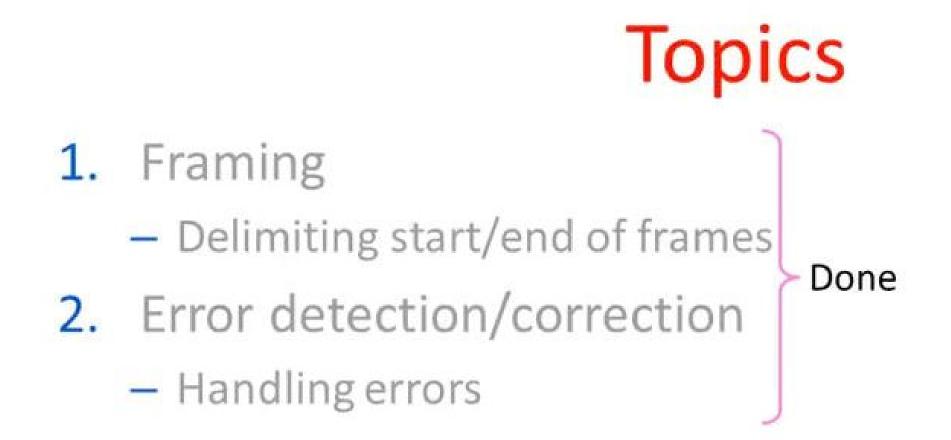
Topics

- 1. Framing
- Delimiting start/end of frames
 2. Error detection and correction
 - Handling errors
- Retransmissions 3.
 - Handling loss
- 4. Multiple Access
 - 802.11, classic Ethernet Later
- 5. Switching
 - Modern Ethernet

Where we are in the Course

- Finishing off the Link Layer!
 - Builds on the physical layer to transfer frames over connected links

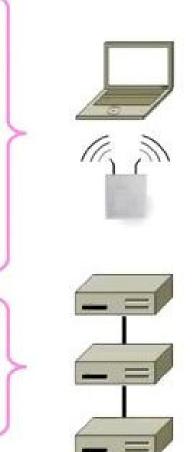
Application
Transport
Network
Link
Physical





Topics (2)

- 3. Retransmissions
 - Handling loss
- 4. Multiple Access
 - Classic Ethernet, 802.11
- 5. Switching
 - Modern Ethernet





- Two strategies to handle errors:
- Detect errors and retransmit frame (Automatic Repeat reQuest, ARQ)
- 2. Correct errors with an error correcting code

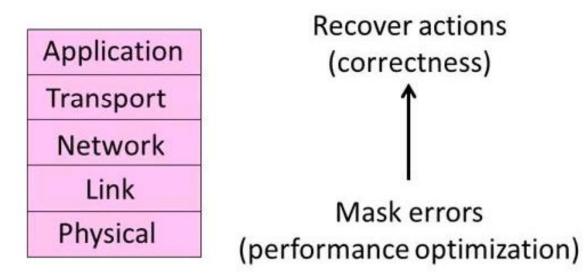
Context on Reliability

 Where in the stack should we place reliability functions?

Applicatio	n
Transport	ļ
Network	
Link	
Physical	

Context on Reliability (2)

- Everywhere! It is a key issue
 - Different layers contribute differently

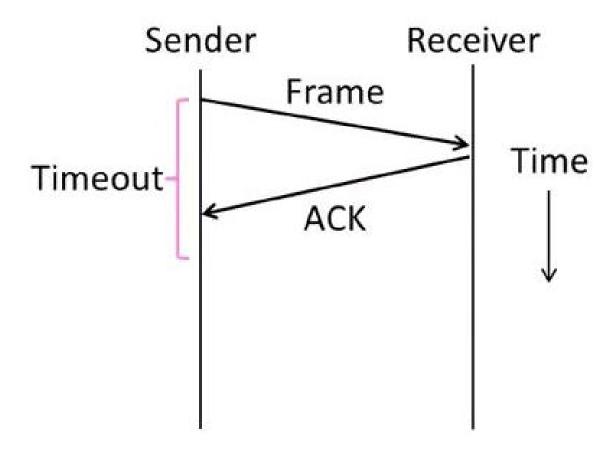




- ARQ often used when errors are common or must be corrected
 E.g., WiFi, and TCP (later)
- Rules at sender and receiver:
 - Receiver automatically acknowledges correct frames with an ACK
 - Sender automatically resends after a timeout, until an ACK is received

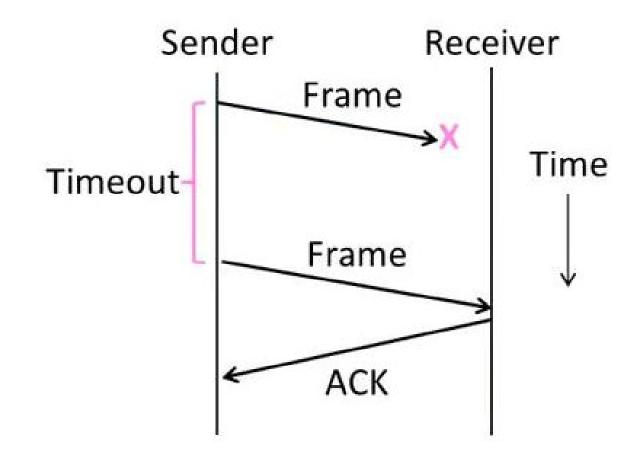
ARQ (2)

Normal operation (no loss)





Loss and retransmission



So What's Tricky About ARQ?

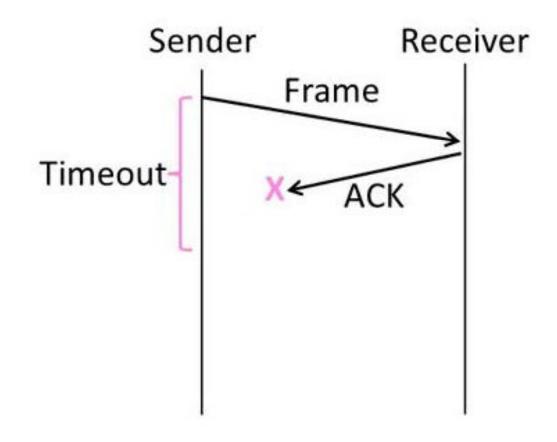
- Two non-trivial issues:
 - How long to set the timeout? »
 - How to avoid accepting duplicate frames as new frames »
- Want performance in the common case and correctness always

Timeouts

- Timeout should be:
 - Not too big (link goes idle)
 - Not too small (spurious resend)
- Fairly easy on a LAN
 - Clear worst case, little variation
- Fairly difficult over the Internet
 - Much variation, no obvious bound
 - We'll revisit this with TCP (later)

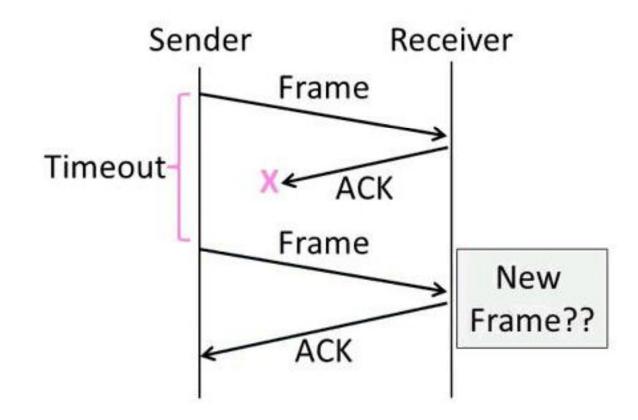
Duplicates

What happens if an ACK is lost?



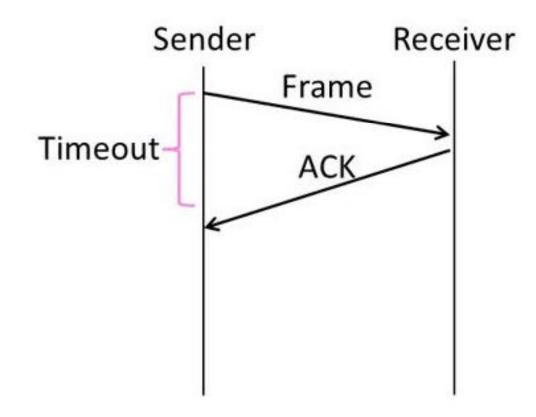
Duplicates (2)

What happens if an ACK is lost?



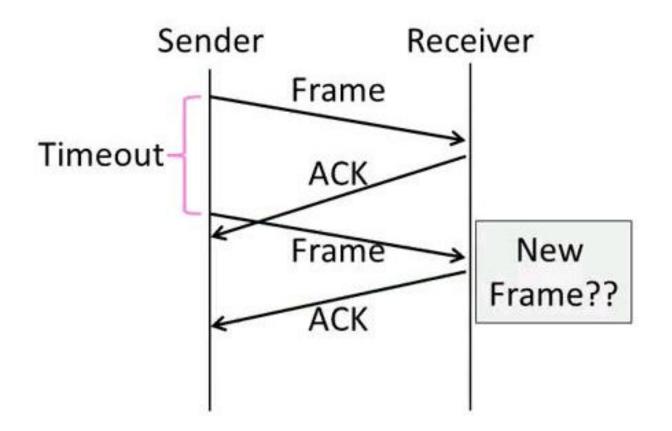
Duplicates (3)

Or the timeout is early?



Duplicates (4)

Or the timeout is early?



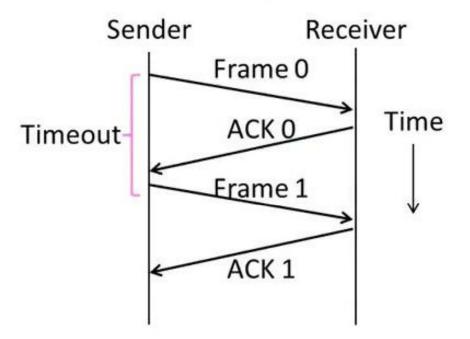
Sequence Numbers

- Frames and ACKs must both carry sequence numbers for correctness
- To distinguish the current frame from the next one, a single bit (two numbers) is sufficient

Called <u>Stop-and-Wait</u>

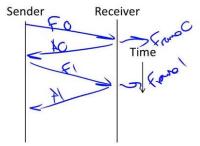
Stop-and-Wait (2)

In the normal case:



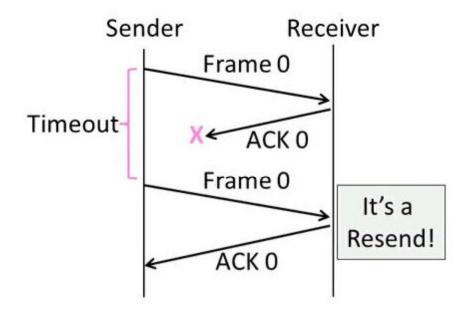
p-and-Wait

In the normal case:



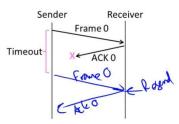
Stop-and-Wait (4)

With ACK loss:



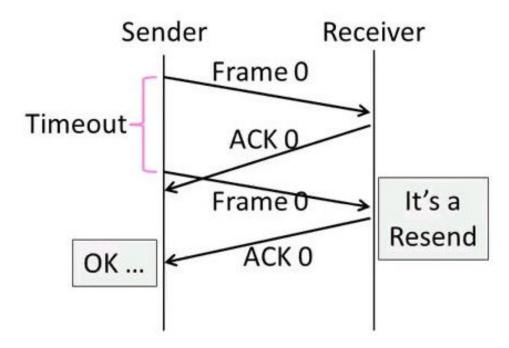
Stop-and-Wait (3)

• With ACK loss:



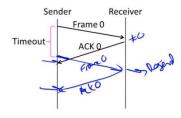
Stop-and-Wait (6)

With early timeout:



Stop-and-Wait (5)

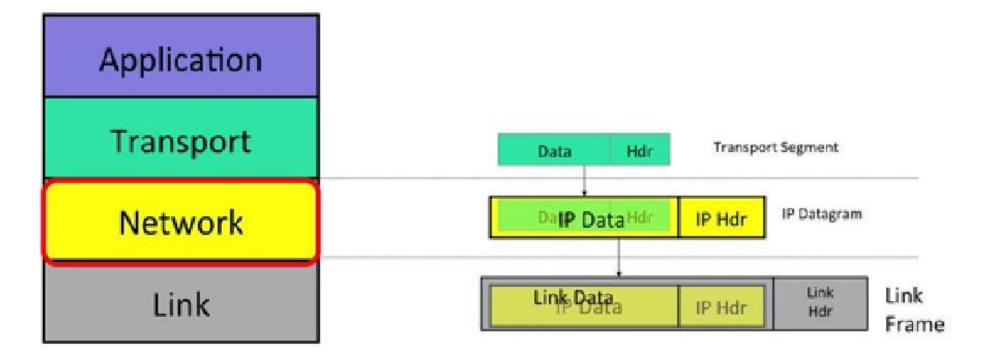
• With early timeout:



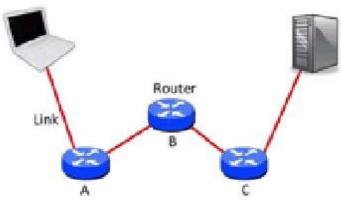
The Internet Protocol (IP)



The Internet Protocol (IP)



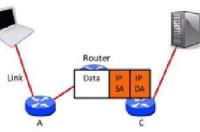
Property	Behavior			
Datagram	Individually routed packets. Hop-by-hop routing.			
Unreliable	Packets might be dropped.			
Best effort	but only if necessary.			
Connectionless	No per-flow state. Packets might be mis-sequenced.			



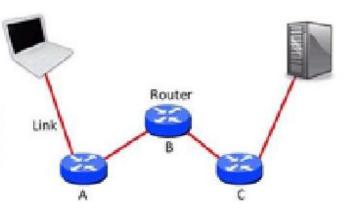
The IP Service Model

Property	Behavior	Data IP IP
Datagram	Individually routed packets.	SA DA Router
Unreliable	Packets might be dropped.	Link
Best effort	but only if necessary.] 🐳 🙀
Connectionless	No per-flow state. Packets might be mis-sequenced.	

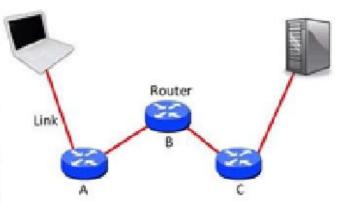
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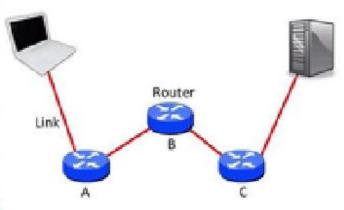
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Datagram	Individually routed packets. Hop-by-hop routing.		
Unreliable	Packets might be dropped.		
Best effort	but only if necessary.		
Connectionless	No per-flow state. Packets might be mis-sequenced.		



Why is the IP service so simple?

- Simple, dumb, minimal: Faster, more streamlined and lower cost to build and maintain.
- The end-to-end principle: Where possible, implement features in the end hosts.
- Allows a variety of reliable (or unreliable) services to be built on top.
- Works over any link layer: IP makes very few assumptions about the link layer below.

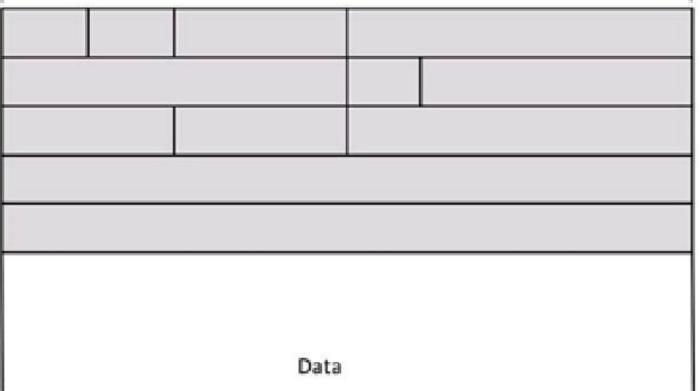
The IP Service Model (Details)

- 1. Tries to prevent packets looping forever.
- 2. Will fragment packets if they are too long.
- Uses a header checksum to reduce chances of delivering datagram to wrong destination.
- 4. Allows for new versions of IP
 - Currently IPv4 with 32 bit addresses
 - And IPv6 with 128 bit addresses
- 5. Allows for new options to be added to header.

IPv4 Datagram



Bit 31



The IP service model IPv4 Datagram

-	6.5		-
	i t	10	\cap
D			v
-	27	1	-

Bit 31

Version	Header Length	Type of Service	Total Packet Length		
	Pack	et ID	Flags	Fragment Of	ffset
	to Live TL″	Protocol ID	Checksum		
		Source If	P Addre	ess	
		Destination	IP Add	dress	
(OPTIONS)			(PAD)		
		Data	0.00 0.00 7		

Summary

We use IP every time we send and receive datagrams.

IP provides a deliberately simple service:

- Datagram
- Unreliable
- Best-effort
- Connectionless

End of

Lecture 2

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