Lecture 23: Networking

CS 105

April 17, 2019

Unix I/O Overview

- All I/O devices are represented as files:
  - **`/dev/sda2`** (**`/usr`** disk partition)
  - **`/dev/tty2`** (terminal)

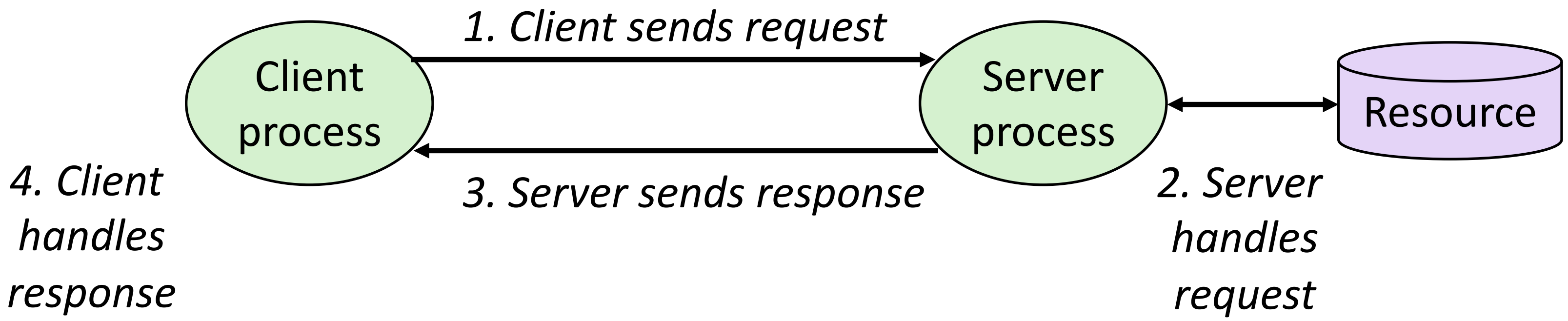
- A Linux *file* is a sequence of *m* bytes:
  - $B_0, B_1, \ldots, B_k, \ldots, B_{m-1}$

- Elegant mapping of files to devices allows kernel to export simple interface called *Unix I/O:*
  - Opening a file
    - **`open()`** and **`close()`**
  - Reading and writing a file
    - **`read()`** and **`write()`**
  - Changing the ***current file position*** **`lseek()`**

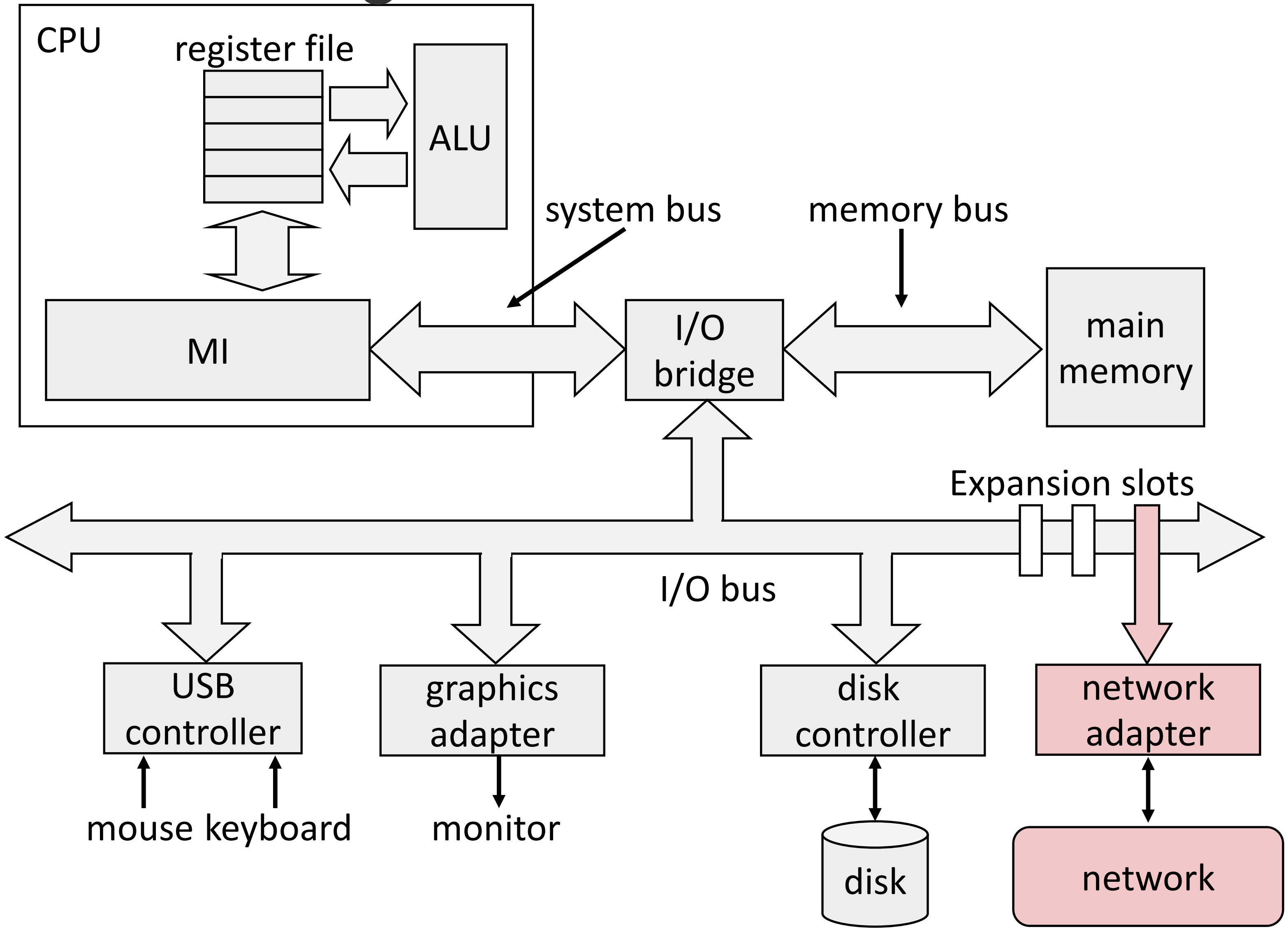
What is the Internet?

A Client-Server Transaction

- Most network applications are based on the client-server model:
  - A ***server*** process and one or more ***client*** processes
  - Server manages some ***resource***
  - Server provides ***service*** by manipulating resource for clients
  - Server activated by request from client



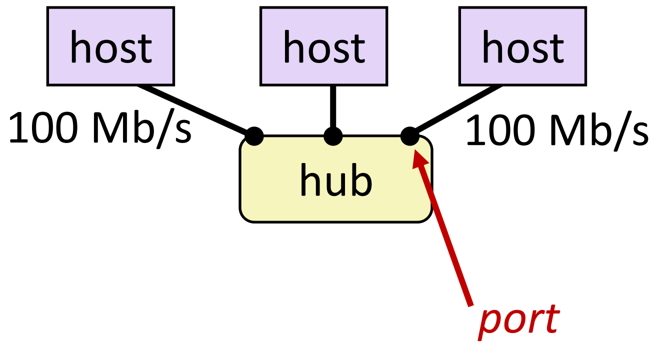
Hardware Organization of a Network Host



Computer Networks

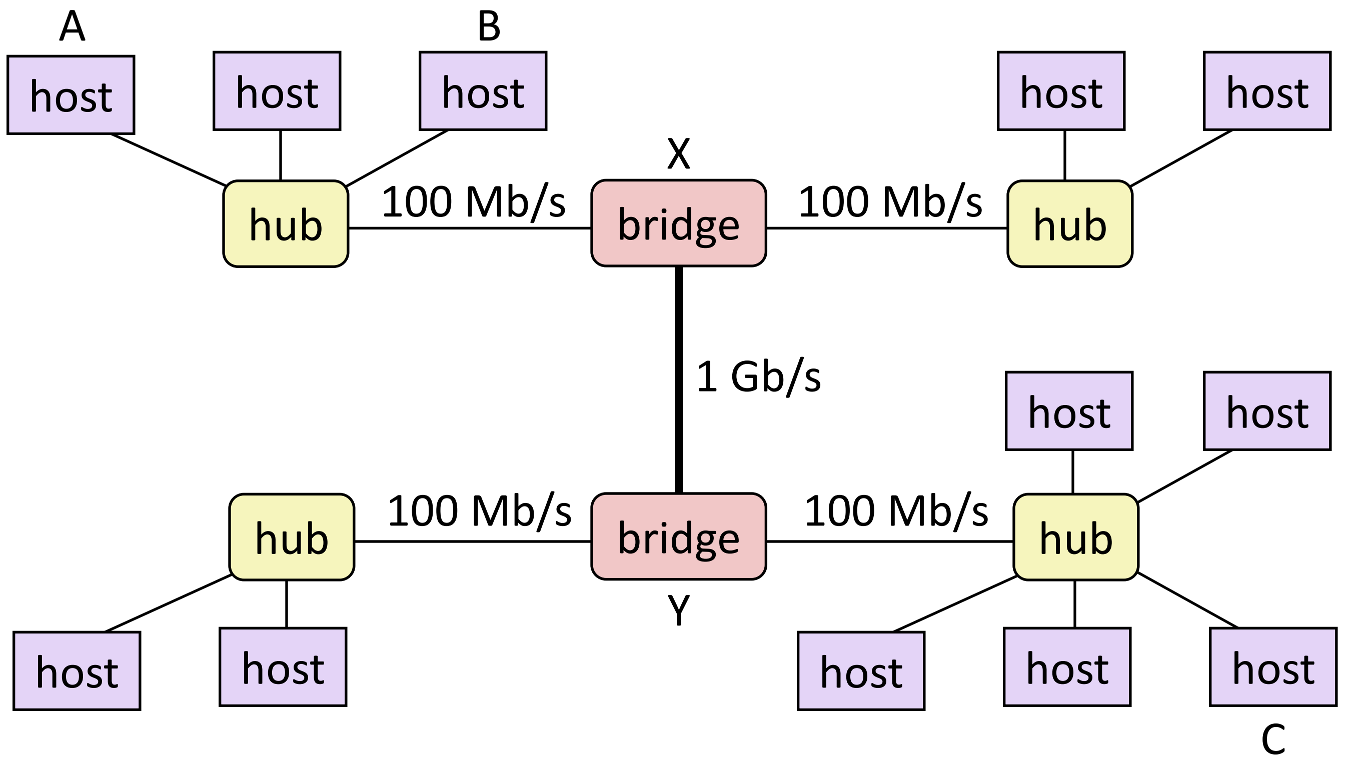
- A *network* is a hierarchical system of boxes and wires organized by geographical proximity
  - LAN (Local Area Network) spans a building or campus
    - Ethernet is most prominent example
  - WAN (Wide Area Network) spans country or world
    - Typically high-speed point-to-point phone lines
- An *internetwork (internet)* is an interconnected set of networks
  - The Global IP Internet (uppercase "I") is the most famous example of an internet (lowercase "i")
- Let's see how an internet is built from the ground up

Lowest Level: Ethernet Segment



- Ethernet segment consists of a collection of *hosts* connected by wires (twisted pairs) to a *hub*
- Spans room or floor in a building
- Operation
  - Each Ethernet adapter has a unique 48-bit address (MAC address)
    - E.g., 00:16:ea:e3:54:e6
  - Hosts send bits to any other host in chunks called ***frames***
  - Hub copies each bit from each port to every other port
    - Every host sees every bit
    - Note: Hubs are on their way out. Bridges (switches, routers) became cheap enough to replace them

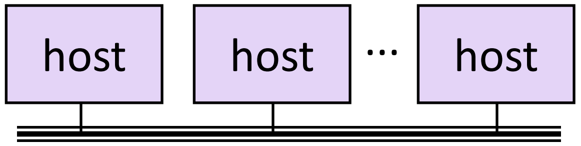
Next Level: Bridged Ethernet Segment



- Spans building or campus
- Bridges cleverly learn which hosts are reachable from which ports and then selectively copy frames from port to port

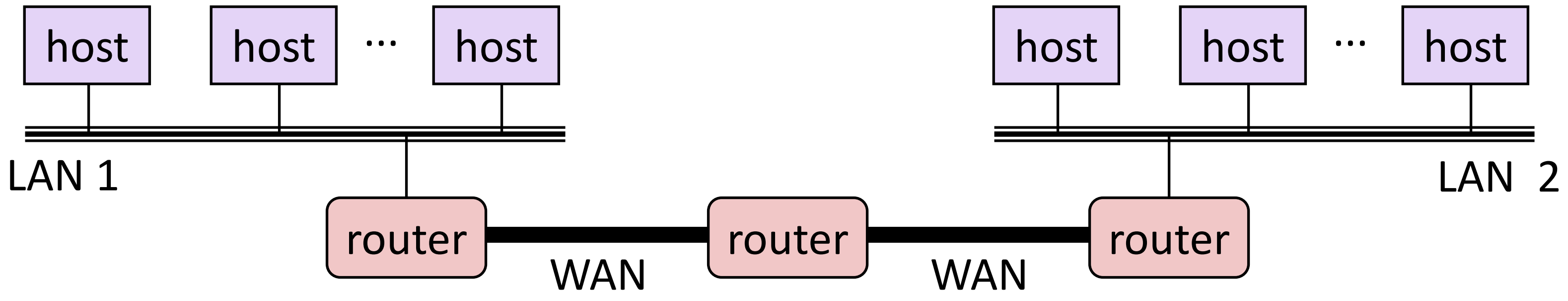
Conceptual View of LANs

- For simplicity, hubs, bridges, and wires are often shown as a collection of hosts attached to a single wire:



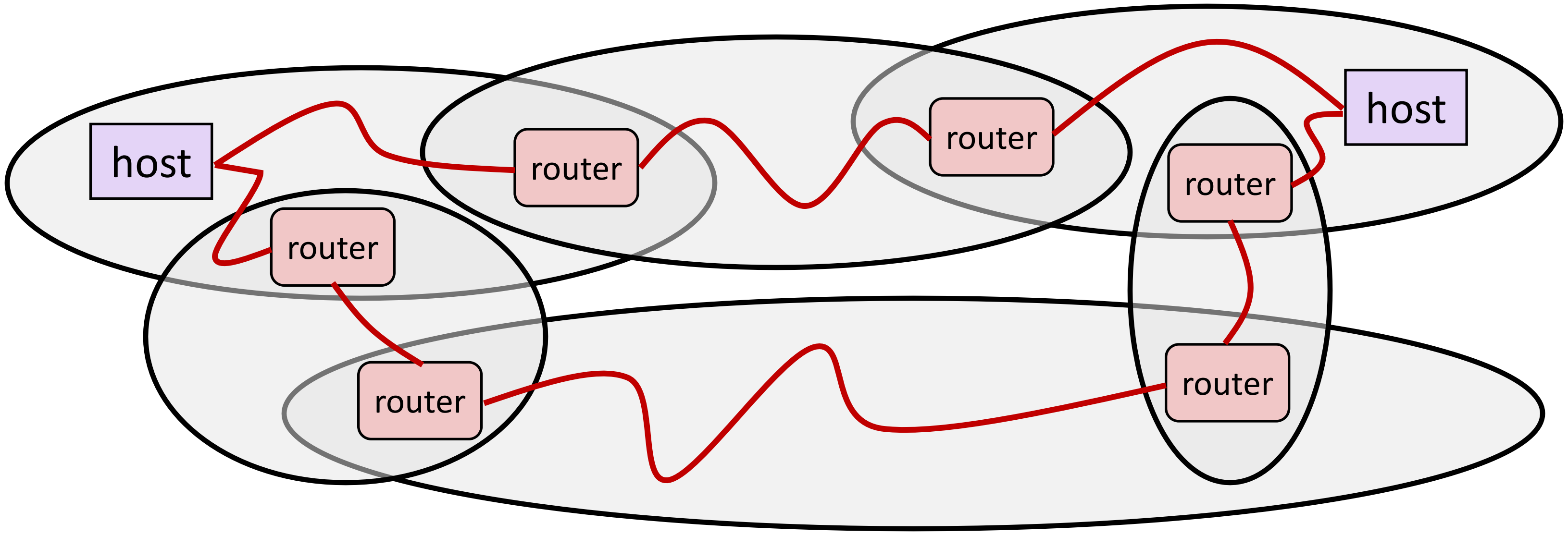
Next Level: internets

- Multiple incompatible LANs can be physically connected by specialized computers called *routers*
- The connected networks are called an *internet* (lower case)



LAN 1 and LAN 2 might be completely different, totally incompatible (e.g., Ethernet, Fibre Channel, 802.11, T1-links, DSL, …)*

Logical Structure of an internet



- Ad hoc interconnection of networks
  - No particular topology
  - Vastly different router & link capacities
- Send packets from source to destination by hopping through networks
  - Router forms bridge from one network to another
  - Different packets may take different routes

The Notion of an internet Protocol

- How is it possible to send bits across incompatible LANs and WANs?

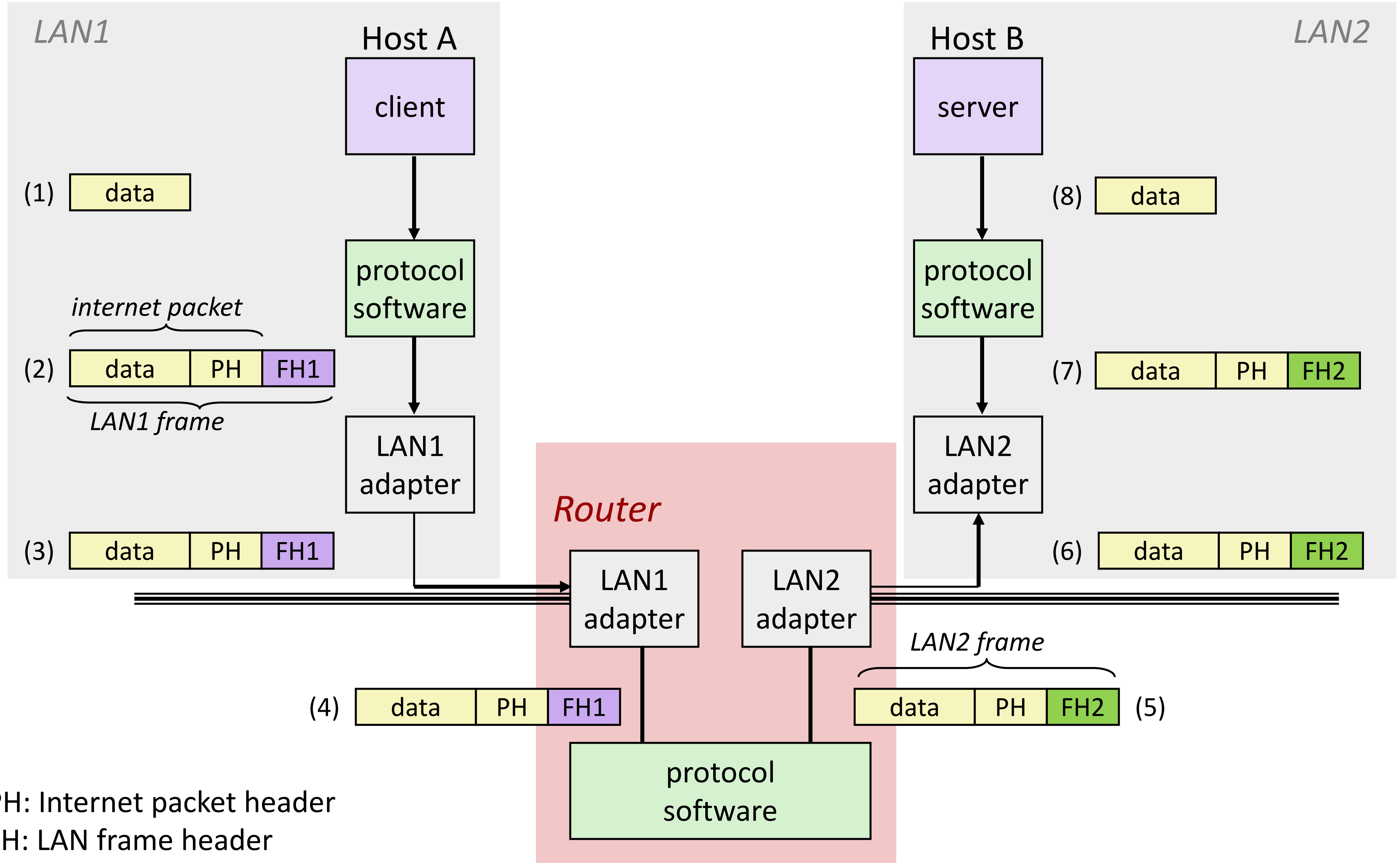
- Solution: *protocol* software running on each host and router
  - Protocol is a set of rules that governs how hosts and routers should cooperate when they transfer data from network to network.
  - Smooths out the differences between the different networks

What Does an internet Protocol Do?

- Provides a *naming scheme*
  - An internet protocol defines a uniform format for ***host addresses***
  - Each host (and router) is assigned at least one of these internet addresses that uniquely identifies it

- Provides a *delivery mechanism*
  - An internet protocol defines a standard transfer unit (***packet***)
  - Packet consists of ***header*** and ***payload***
    - Header: contains info such as packet size, source and destination addresses
    - Payload: contains data bits sent from source host

Transferring internet Data Via Encapsulation



PH: Internet packet header
FH: LAN frame header

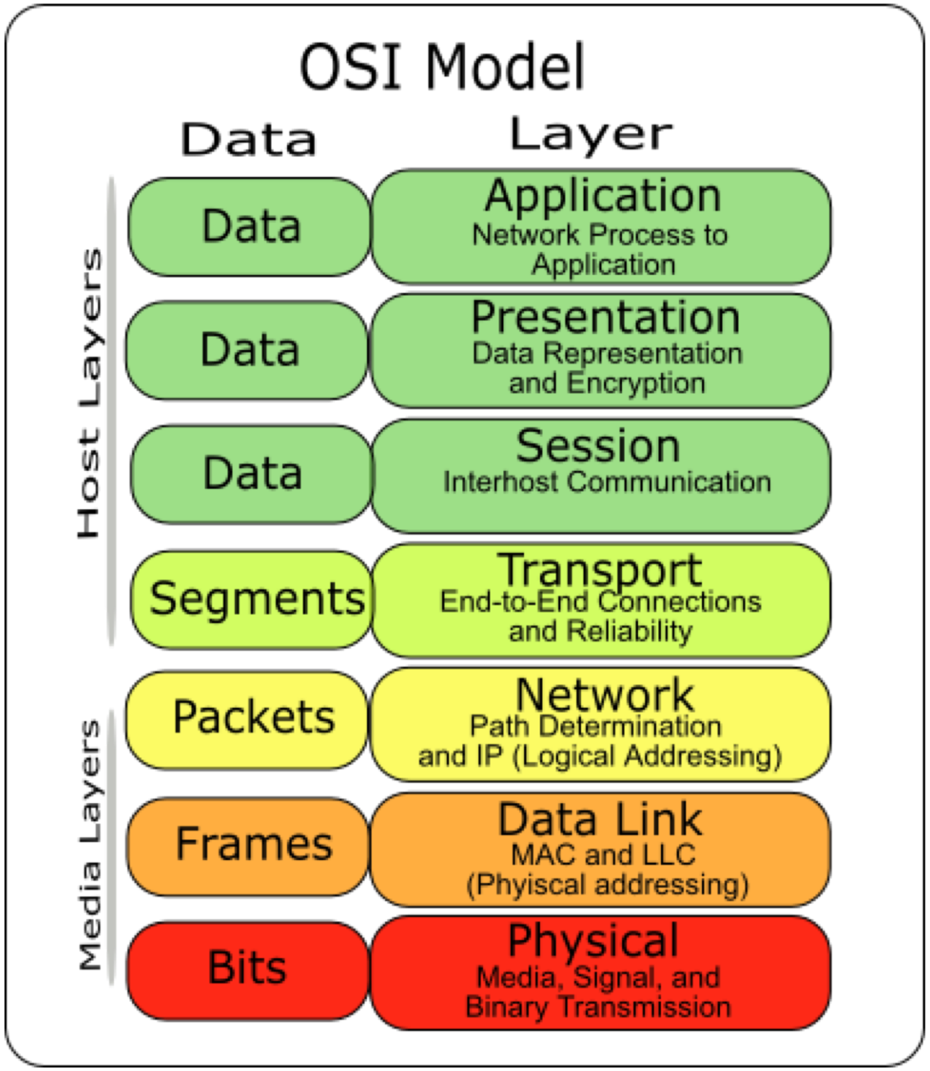
OSI Model

TCP

IP

Frames

Wires


OSI Model
Data
Layer
Host Layers
Media Layers
Data
Application
Network Process to Application
Data
Presentation
Data Representation and Encryption
Data
Session
Interhost Communication
Segments
Transport
End-to-End Connections and Reliability
Packets
Network
Path Determination and IP (Logical Addressing)
Frames
Data Link
MAC and LLC (Phyiscal addressing)
Bits
Physical
Media, Signal, and Binary Transmission

Global IP Internet (upper case)

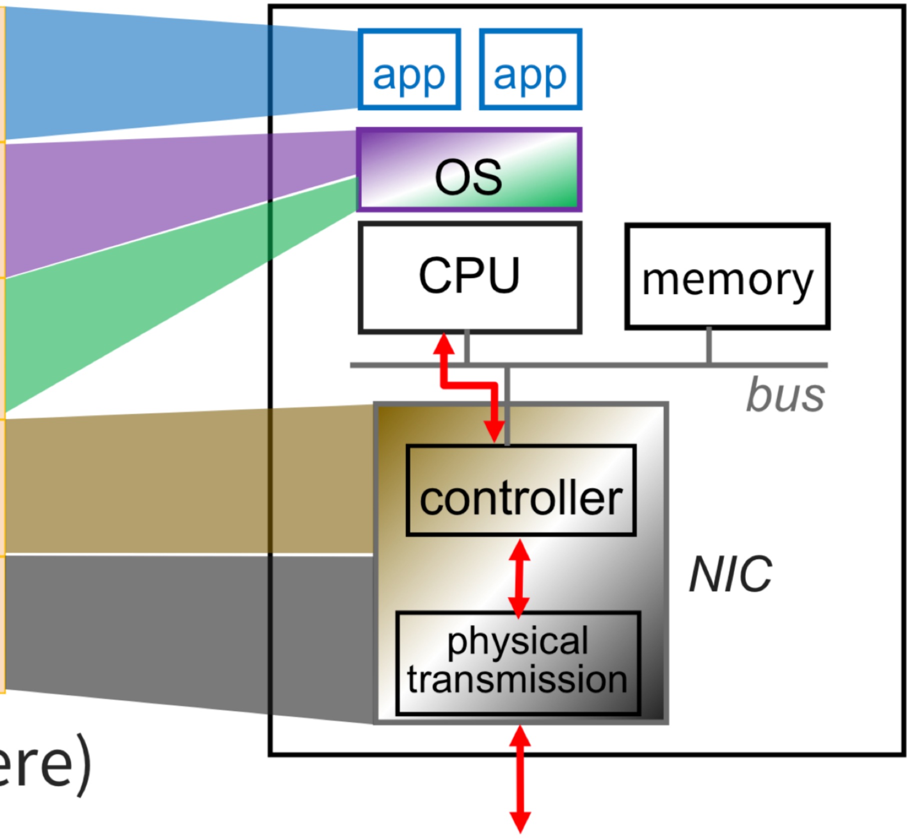
- Most famous example of an internet

- Based on the TCP/IP protocol family
  - IP (Internet Protocol) :
    - Provides *basic naming scheme* and unreliable *delivery capability* of packets (datagrams) from *host-to-host*
  - UDP (Unreliable Datagram Protocol)
    - Uses IP to provide *unreliable* datagram delivery from *process-to-process*
  - TCP (Transmission Control Protocol)
    - Uses IP to provide *reliable* byte streams from *process-to-process* over *connections*

- Accessed via a mix of Unix file I/O and functions from the *sockets interface*

Hardware and Software Interfaces

Application	HTTP, FTP, DNS (*these*^ are usually in libraries)
Transport	TCP, UDP
Network	IP, ICMP (ping)
Link	Ethernet, WiFi
Physical	wires, signal encoding



(Hard to draw firm lines here)

A Programmer’s View of the Internet

1. Hosts are mapped to a set of 32-bit *IP addresses*
   - 134.173.66.214

2. The set of IP addresses is mapped to a set of identifiers called Internet *domain names*
   - 134.173.66.214 is mapped to www.cs.pomona.edu

3. A process on one Internet host can communicate with a process on another Internet host over a *connection*

Aside: IPv4 and IPv6

- The original Internet Protocol, with its 32-bit addresses, is known as *Internet Protocol Version 4* (IPv4)

- 1996: Internet Engineering Task Force (IETF) introduced *Internet Protocol Version 6* (IPv6) with 128-bit addresses
  - Intended as the successor to IPv4

- As of April 2019, majority of Internet traffic still carried by IPv4
  - 22-27% of users access Google services using IPv6.

- We will focus on IPv4, but will show you how to write networking code that is protocol-independent.

(1) IP Addresses

- 32-bit IP addresses are stored in an *IP address struct*
  - IP addresses are always stored in memory in *network byte order* (big-endian byte order)
  - True in general for any integer transferred in a packet header from one machine to another.
    - E.g., the port number used to identify an Internet connection.

```
/* Internet address structure */
struct in_addr {
    uint32_t  s_addr; /* network byte order (big-endian) */
};
```

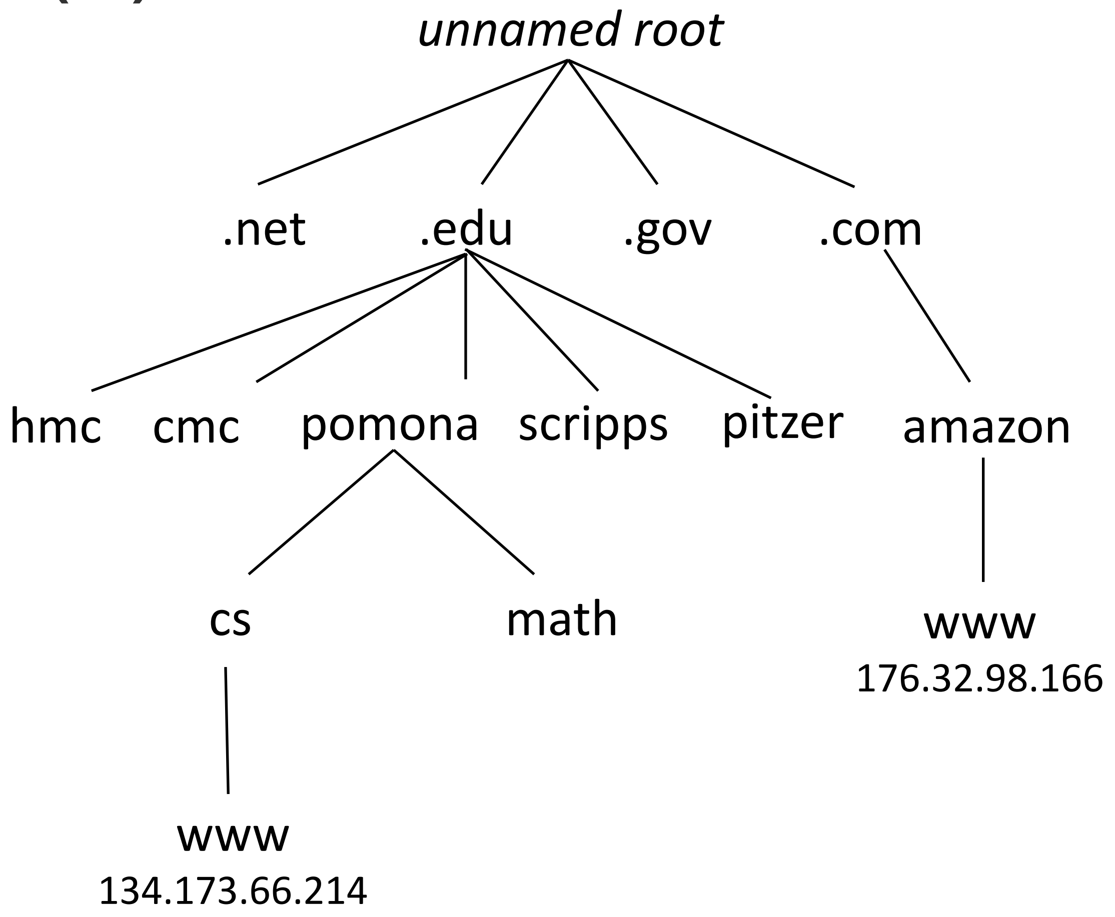
Warning! TCP/IP uses big-endian byte order for any integer data item
use ntohl and htonl to convert between network byte order and host byte order

Dotted Decimal Notation

- By convention, each byte in a 32-bit IP address is represented by its decimal value and separated by a period
    - IP address: `0x8002C2F2 = 128.2.194.242`

- Use `getaddrinfo` and `getnameinfo` functions to convert between IP addresses and dotted decimal format.

(2) Internet Domain Names



First-level domain names

Second-level domain names

Third-level domain names

Domain Naming System (DNS)

- The Internet maintains a mapping between IP addresses and domain names in a huge worldwide distributed database called *DNS*

- Conceptually, programmers can view the DNS database as a collection of millions of *host entries.*
  - Each host entry defines the mapping between a set of domain names and IP addresses.
  - In a mathematical sense, a host entry is an equivalence class of domain names and IP addresses.

Properties of DNS Mappings

- Can explore properties of DNS mappings using `nslookup`
  - Output edited for brevity

- Each host has a locally defined domain name `localhost` which always maps to the *loopback address* `127.0.0.1`

```
linux> nslookup localhost
Address: 127.0.0.1
```

- Use `hostname` to determine real domain name of local host:

```
linux> hostname
little.cs.pomona.edu
```

Properties of DNS Mappings (cont)

- Simple case: one-to-one mapping between domain name and IP address:

```
linux> nslookup little.cs.pomona.edu
Address: 134.173.66.223
```

- Multiple domain names mapped to the same IP address:

```
linux> nslookup cs.mit.edu
Address: 18.62.1.6
linux> nslookup eecs.mit.edu
Address: 18.62.1.6
```

Properties of DNS Mappings (cont)

- Multiple domain names mapped to multiple IP addresses:

```
linux> nslookup www.twitter.com
Address: 199.16.156.6
Address: 199.16.156.70
Address: 199.16.156.102
Address: 199.16.156.230

linux> nslookup twitter.com
Address: 199.16.156.102
Address: 199.16.156.230
Address: 199.16.156.6
Address: 199.16.156.70
```

- Some valid domain names don’t map to any IP address:

```
linux> nslookup cs.pomona.edu
*** Can't find cs.pomona.edu: No answer
```

(3) Internet Connections

- Clients and servers communicate by sending streams of bytes over *connections*. Each connection is:
  - *Point-to-point*: connects a pair of processes.
  - *Full-duplex*: data can flow in both directions at the same time,
  - *Reliable*: stream of bytes sent by the source is eventually received by the destination in the same order it was sent (assuming TCP).

- *A socket* is an endpoint of a connection
  - *Socket address* is an **`IPaddress:port`** pair

- A *port* is a 16-bit integer that identifies a process:
  - ***Ephemeral port*:** Assigned automatically by client kernel when client makes a connection request.
  - ***Well-known port:*** Associated with some *service* provided by a server (e.g., port 80 is associated with Web servers)

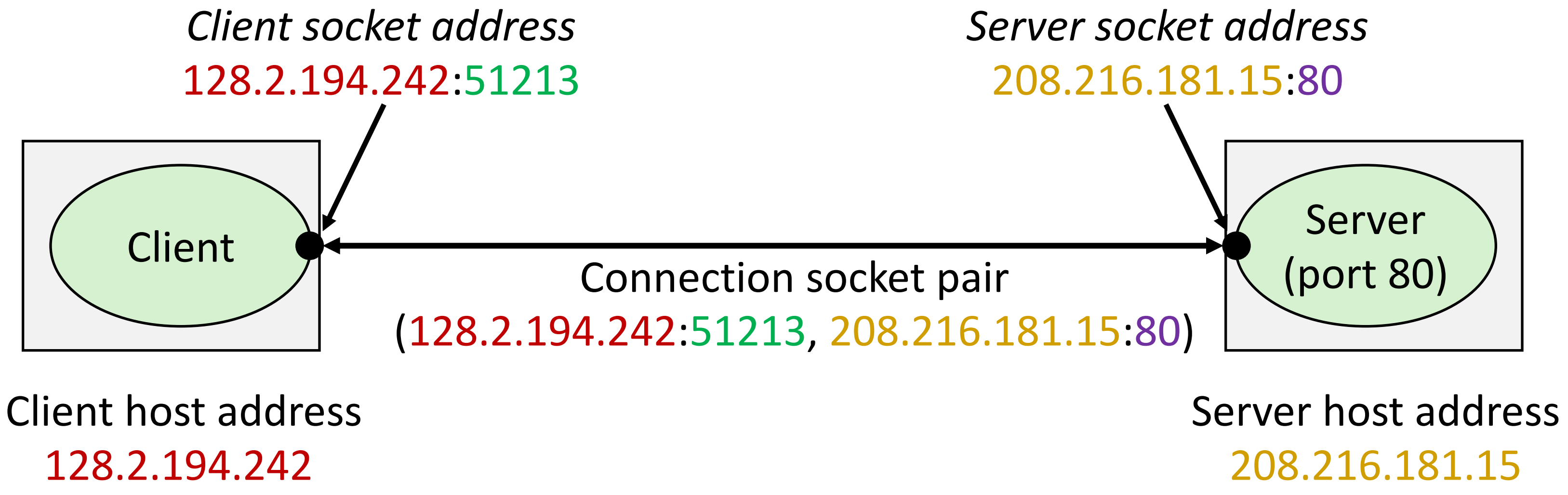
Well-known Ports and Service Names

- Popular services have permanently assigned *well-known ports and* corresponding *well-known service names*:
  - echo server: 7/echo
  - ssh servers: 22/ssh
  - email server: 25/smtp
  - Web servers: 80/http

- Mappings between well-known ports and service names is contained in the file `/etc/services` on each Linux machine.

Anatomy of a Connection

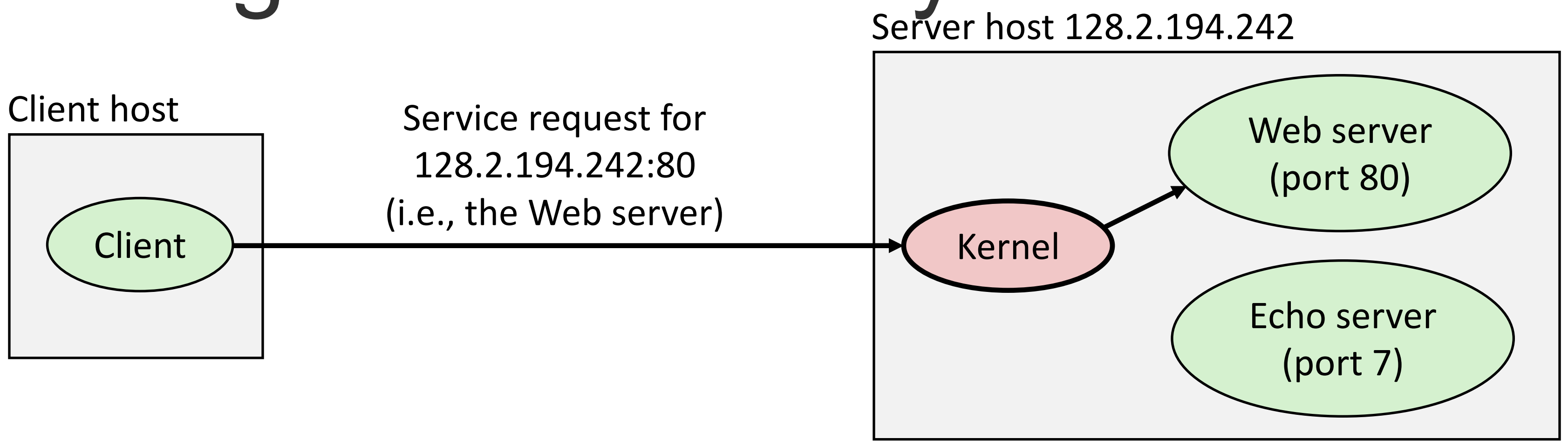
- A connection is uniquely identified by the socket addresses of its endpoints (*socket pair*)
  - `(cliaddr:cliport, servaddr:servport)`

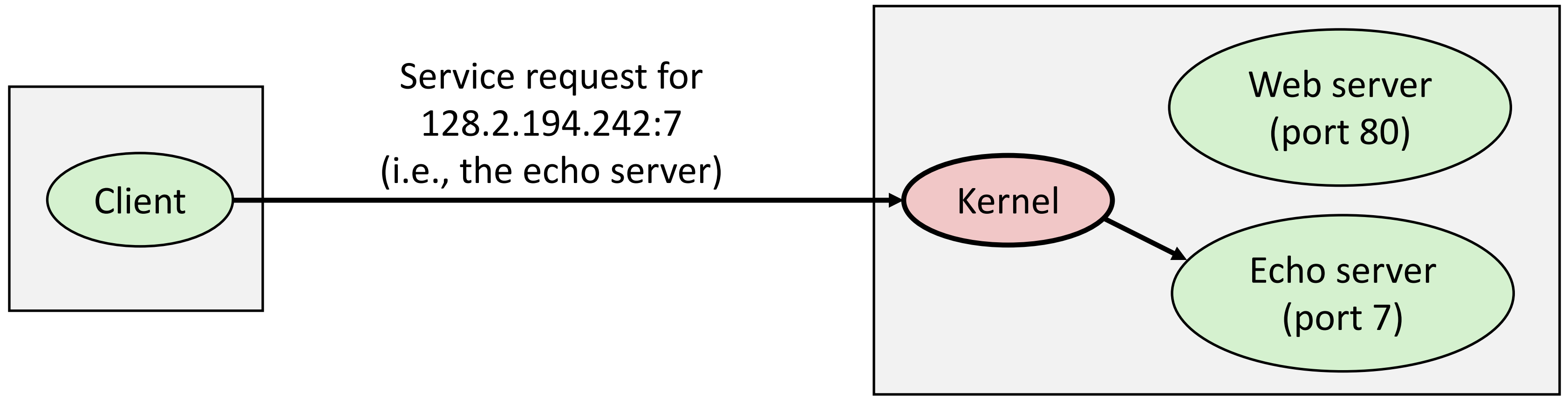


51213 is an ephemeral port allocated by the kernel

80 is a well-known port associated with Web servers

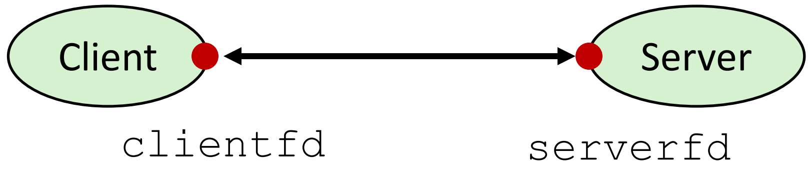
Using Ports to Identify Services





Sockets

- What is a socket?
  - To the kernel, a socket is an endpoint of communication
  - To an application, a socket is a file descriptor that lets the application read/write from/to the network
    - ***Remember:*** All Unix I/O devices, including networks, are modeled as files
- Clients and servers communicate with each other by reading from and writing to socket descriptors



- The main distinction between regular file I/O and socket I/O is how the application "opens" the socket descriptors

Sockets Interface

- Set of system-level functions used in conjunction with Unix I/O to build network applications.

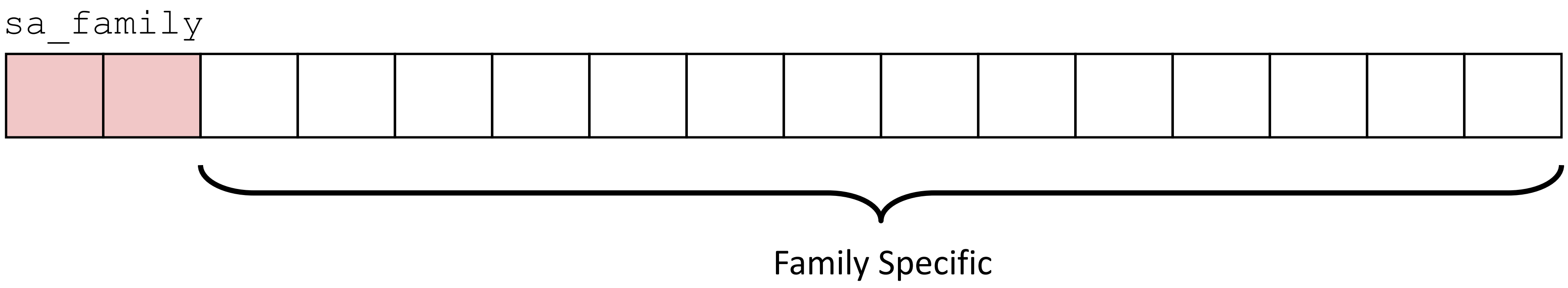
- Created in the early 80’s as part of the original Berkeley distribution of Unix that contained an early version of the Internet protocols.

- Available on all modern systems
  - Unix variants, Windows, OS X, IOS, Android, ARM

Socket Address Structures

- Generic socket address:
  - For address arguments to **`connect`**, **`bind`**, and **`accept`**
  - Necessary only because C did not have generic (**`void *`**) pointers when the sockets interface was designed

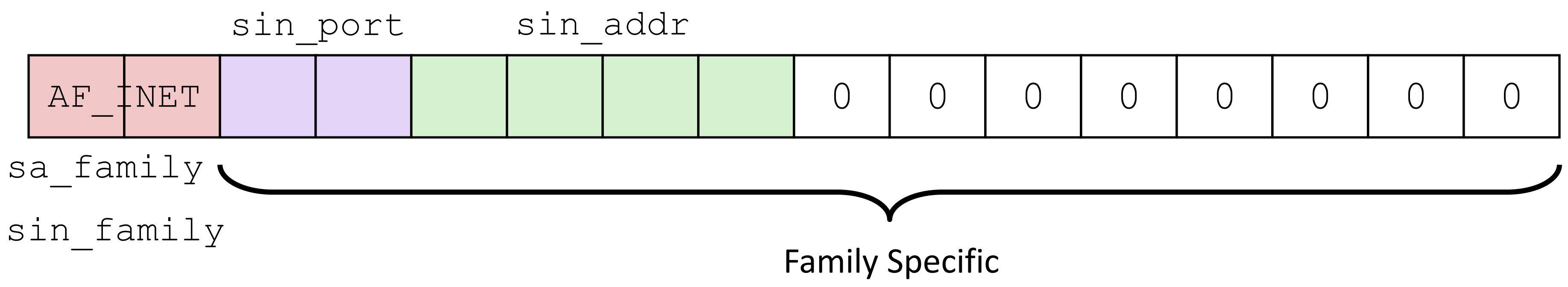
```
struct sockaddr {
  uint16_t  sa_family;    /* Protocol family */
  char      sa_data[14];  /* Address data.   */
};
```



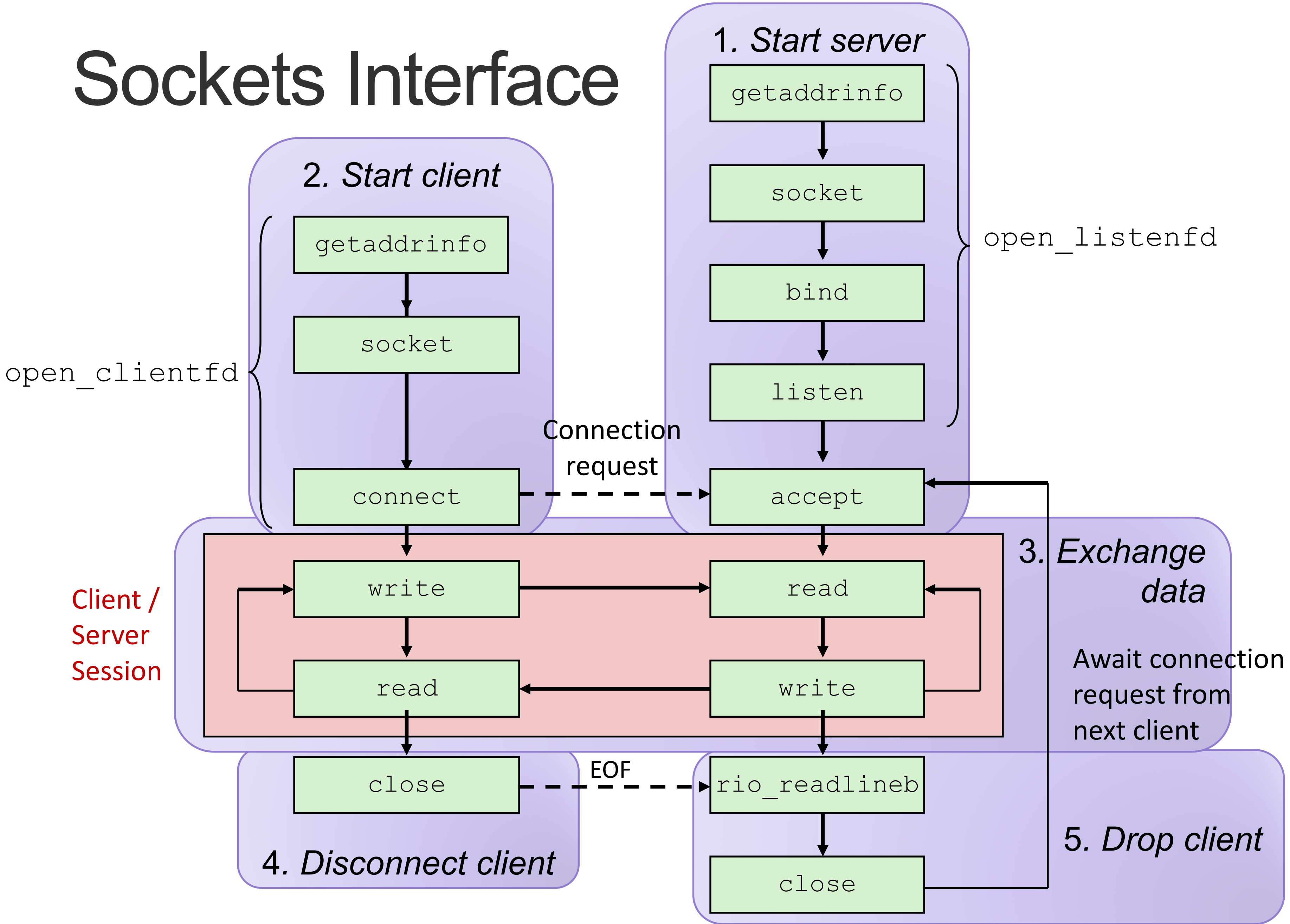
Socket Address Structures

- Internet-specific socket address:
  - Must cast (`struct sockaddr_in *`) to (`struct sockaddr *`) for functions that take socket address arguments.

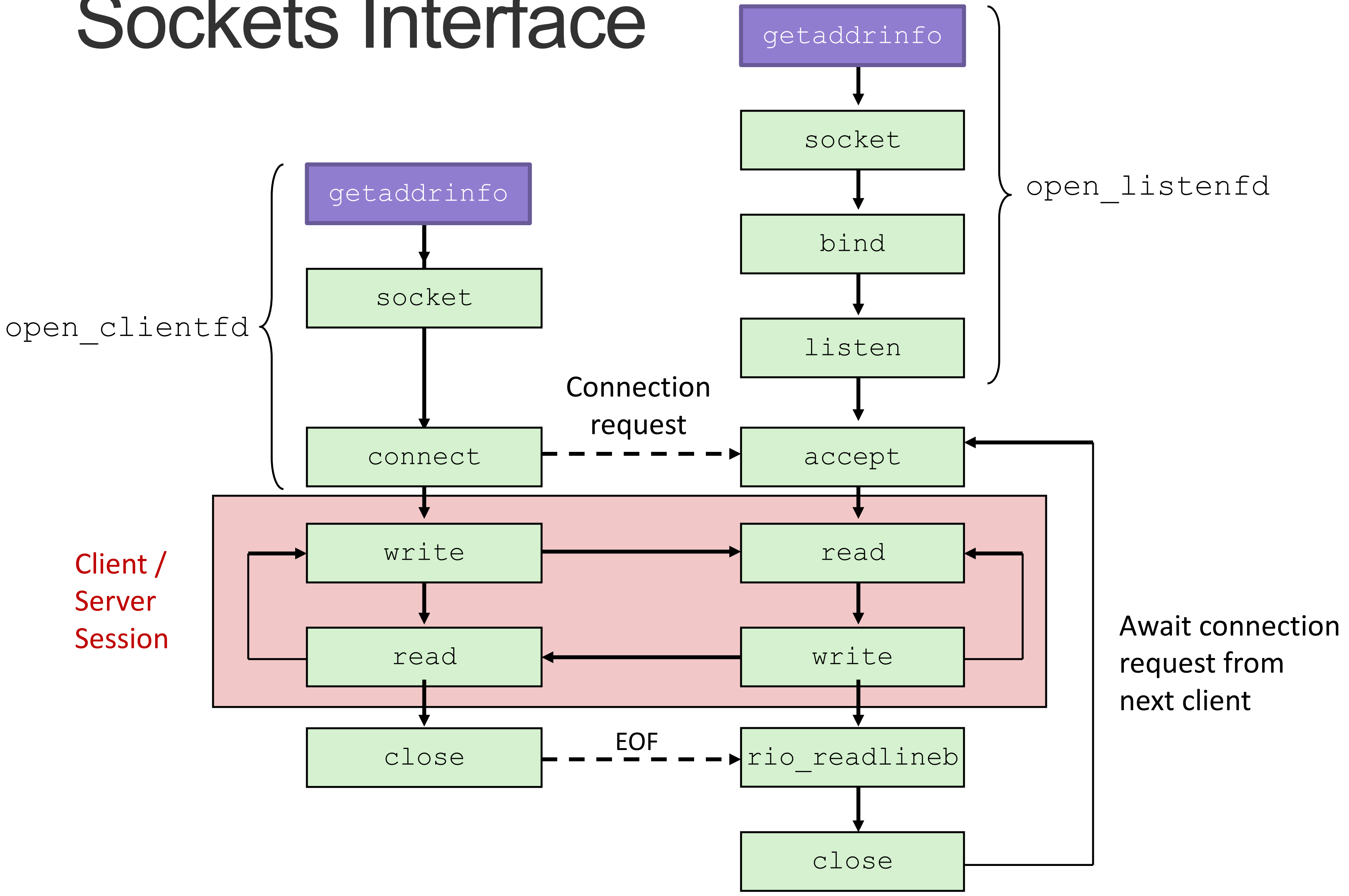
```
struct sockaddr_in  {
  uint16_t        sin_family;  /* Protocol family (always AF_INET) */
  uint16_t        sin_port;    /* Port num in network byte order */
  struct in_addr  sin_addr;    /* IP addr in network byte order */
  unsigned char   sin_zero[8]; /* Pad to sizeof(struct sockaddr) */
};
```



Sockets Interface



Sockets Interface



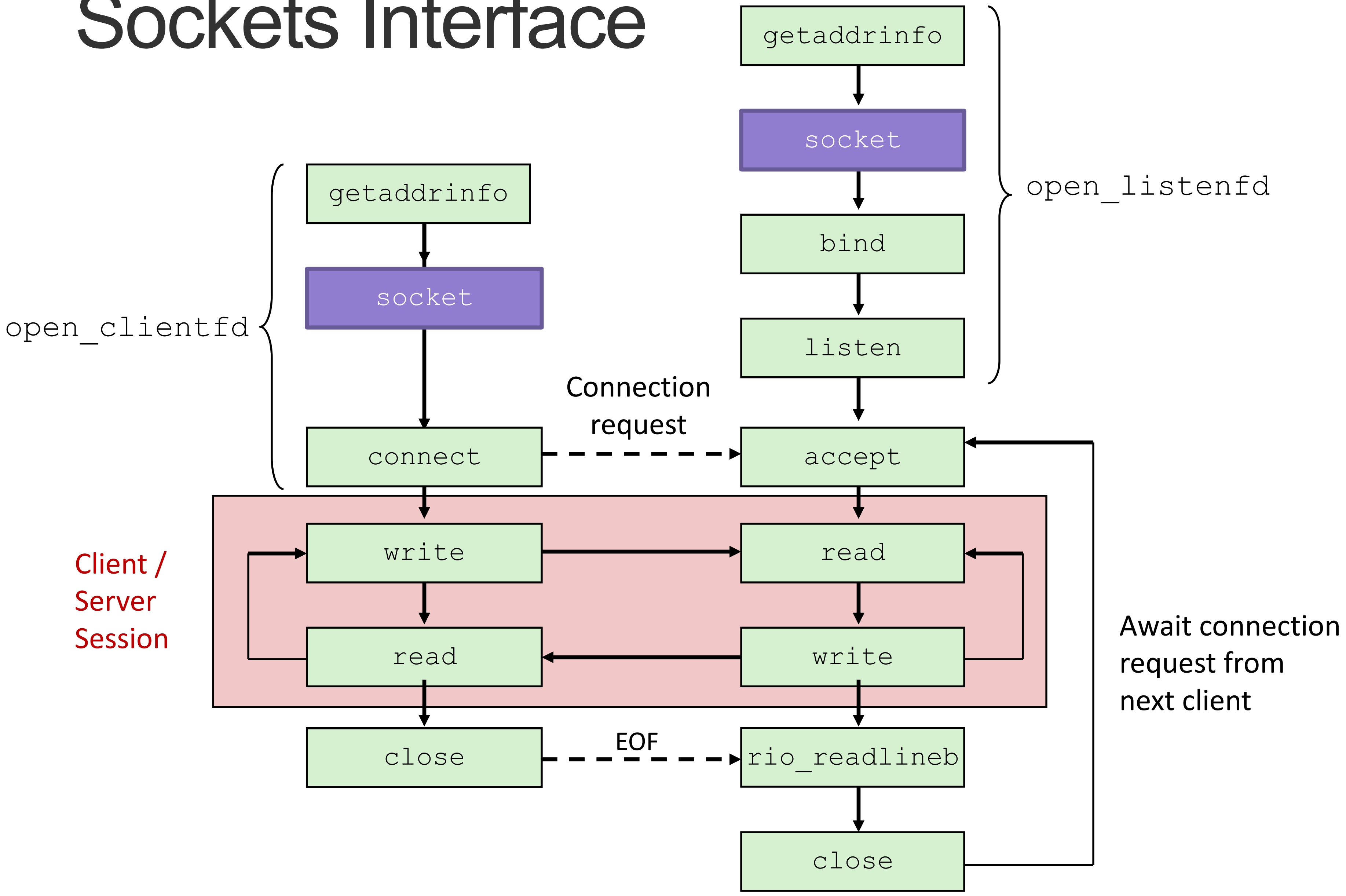
Host and Service Conversion: `getaddrinfo`

- `getaddrinfo` is the modern way to convert string representations of hostnames, host addresses, ports, and service names to socket address structures.
  - Replaces obsolete `gethostbyname` and `getservbyname` funcs.

- Advantages:
  - Reentrant (can be safely used by threaded programs).
  - Allows us to write portable protocol-independent code
    - Works with both IPv4 and IPv6

- Disadvantages
  - Somewhat complex
  - Fortunately, a small number of usage patterns suffice in most cases.

Sockets Interface



Sockets Interface: `socket`

- Clients and servers use the `socket` function to create a *socket descriptor*:

```
int socket(int domain, int type, int protocol)
```

- Example:

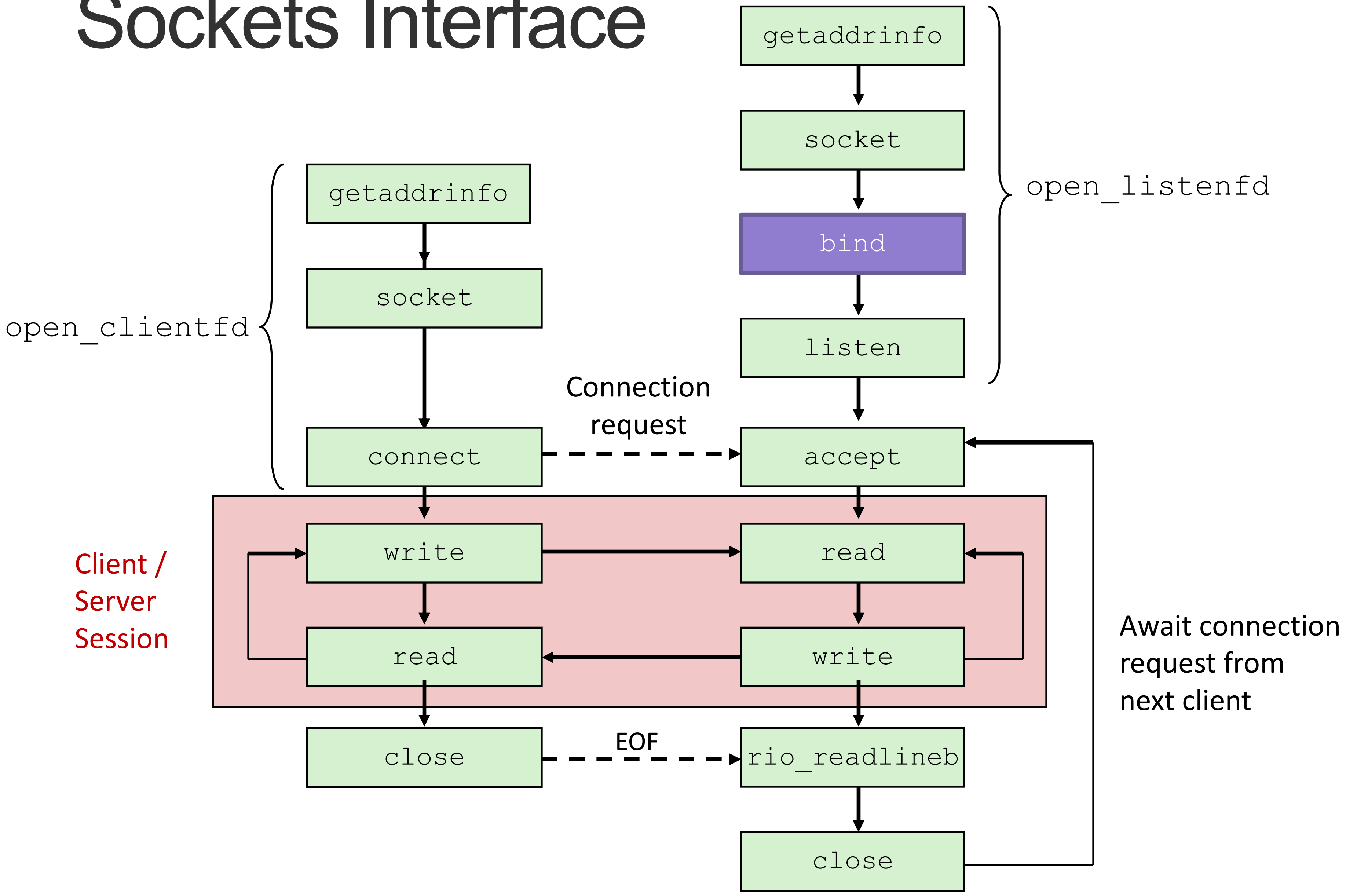
```
int clientfd = Socket(AF_INET, SOCK_STREAM, 0);
```

Indicates that we are using 32-bit IPV4 addresses

Indicates that the socket will be the end point of a connection

Protocol specific! Best practice is to use `getaddrinfo` to generate the parameters automatically, so that code is protocol independent.

Sockets Interface



Sockets Interface: `bind`

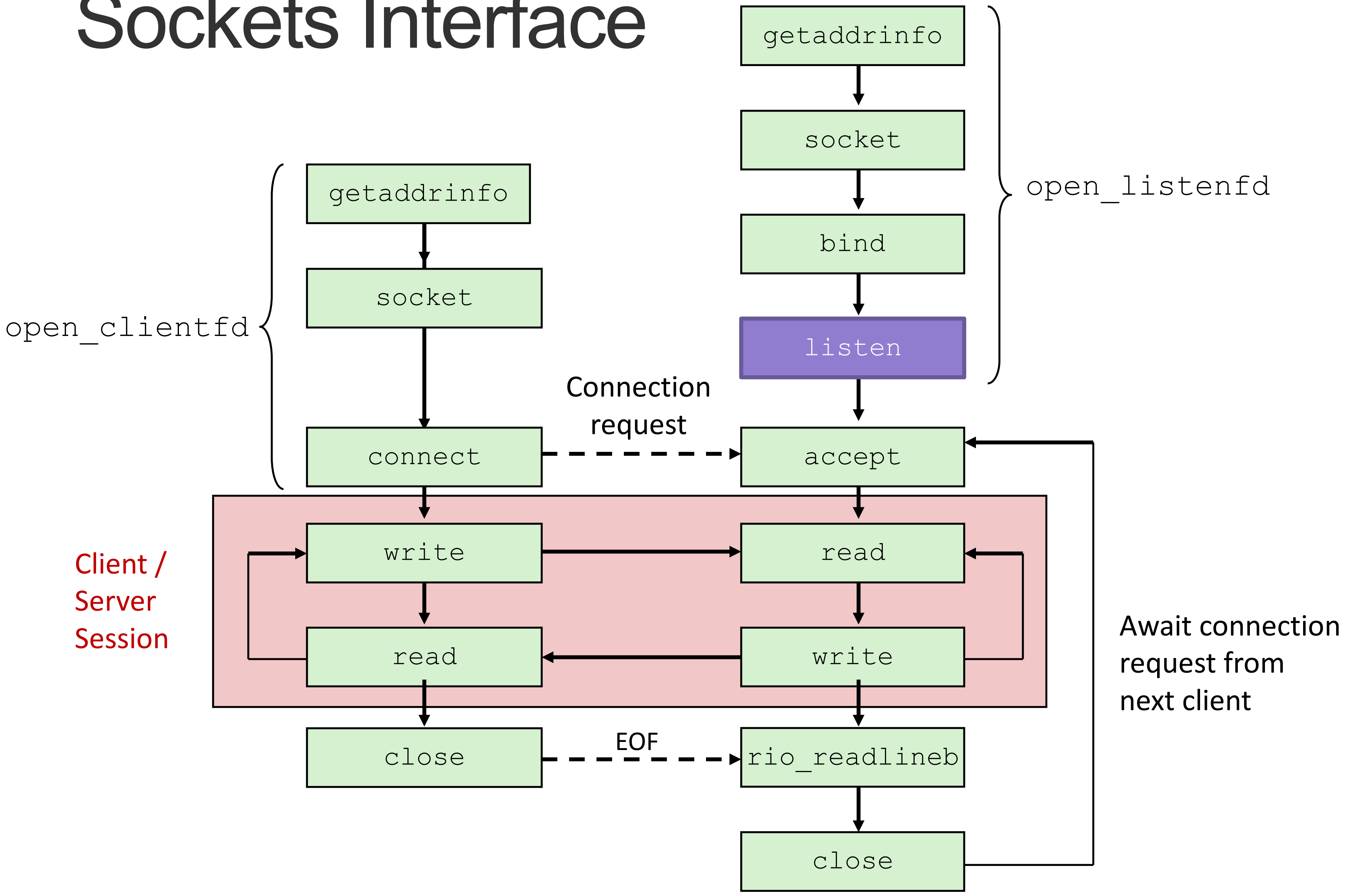
- A server uses `bind` to ask the kernel to associate the server's socket address with a socket descriptor:

```
int bind(int sockfd, SA *addr, socklen_t addrlen);
```

- The process can read bytes that arrive on the connection whose endpoint is `addr` by reading from descriptor `sockfd`.
- Similarly, writes to `sockfd` are transferred along connection whose endpoint is `addr`.

Best practice is to use `getaddrinfo` to supply the arguments `addr` and `addrlen`.

Sockets Interface



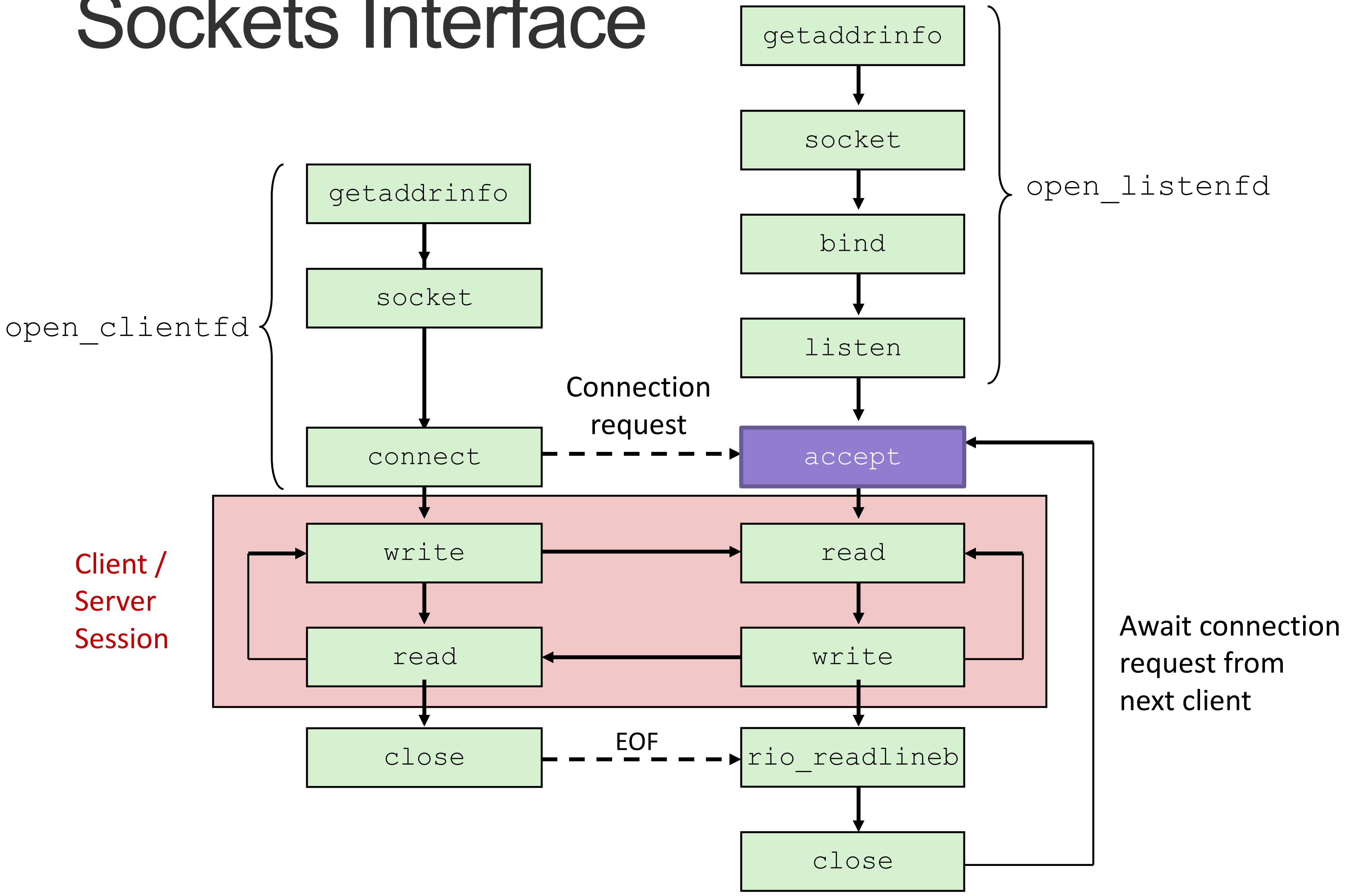
Sockets Interface: `listen`

- By default, kernel assumes that descriptor from socket function is an *active socket* that will be on the client end of a connection.
- A server calls the listen function to tell the kernel that a descriptor will be used by a server rather than a client:

```
int listen(int sockfd, int backlog);
```

- Converts `sockfd` from an active socket to a *listening socket* that can accept connection requests from clients.
- `backlog` is a hint about the number of outstanding connection requests that the kernel should queue up before starting to refuse requests.

Sockets Interface



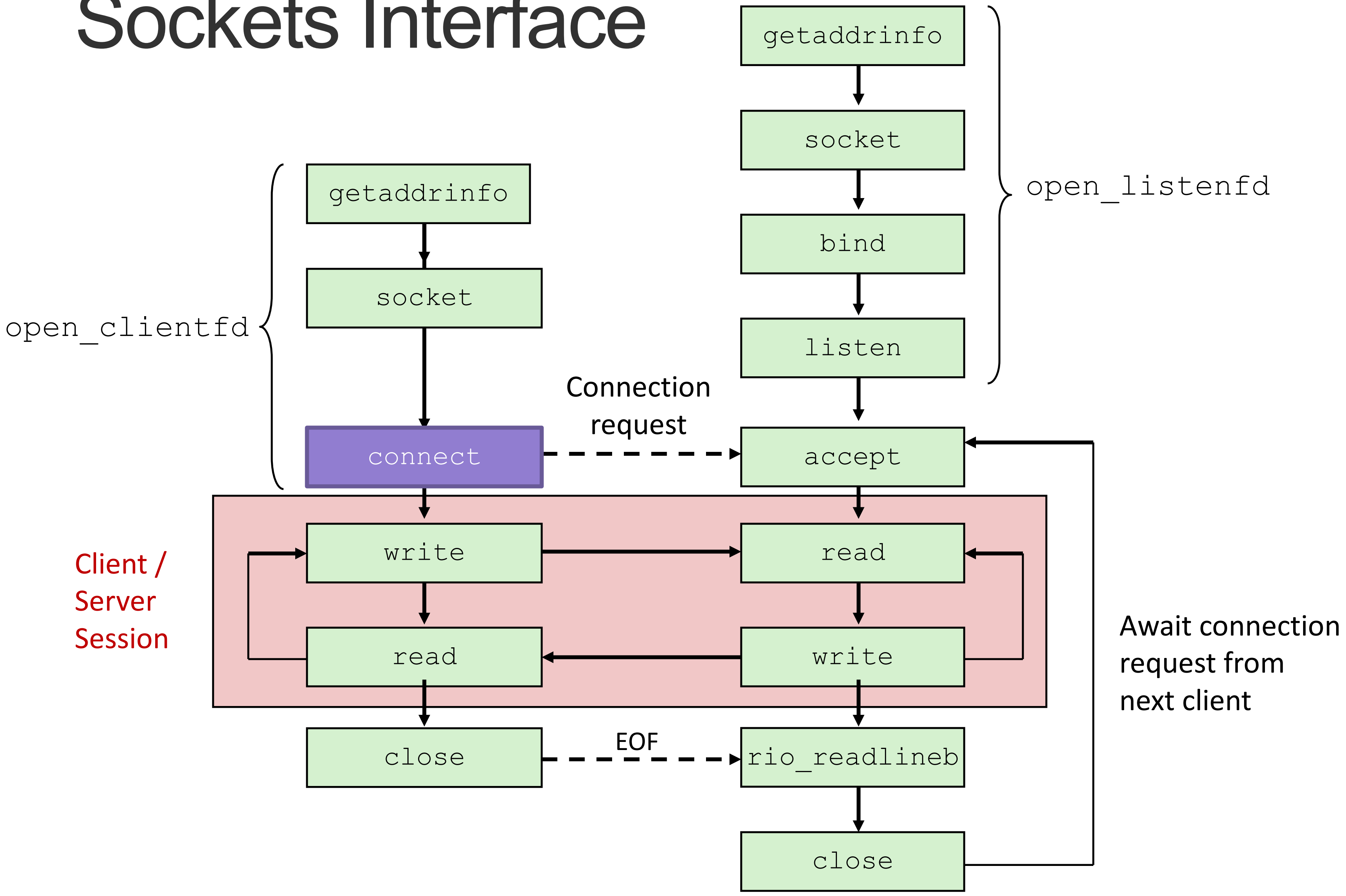
Sockets Interface: `accept`

- Servers wait for connection requests from clients by calling `accept`:

```
int accept(int listenfd, SA *addr, int *addrlen);
```

- Waits for connection request to arrive on the connection bound to `listenfd`, then fills in client's socket address in `addr` and size of the socket address in `addrlen`.
- Returns a *connected descriptor* that can be used to communicate with the client via Unix I/O routines.

Sockets Interface



Sockets Interface: `connect`

- A client establishes a connection with a server by calling connect:

```
int connect(int clientfd, SA *addr, socklen_t addrlen);
```

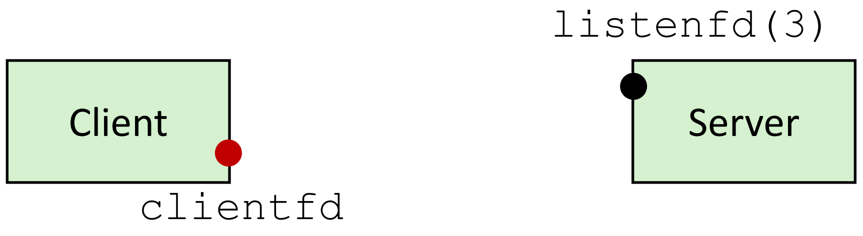
- Attempts to establish a connection with server at socket address `addr`
  - If successful, then `clientfd` is now ready for reading and writing.
  - Resulting connection is characterized by socket pair

    `(x:y, addr.sin_addr:addr.sin_port)`

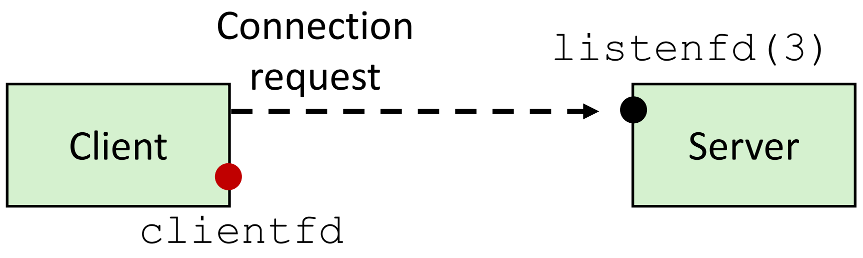
    - `x` is client address
    - `y` is ephemeral port that uniquely identifies client process on client host

Best practice is to use `getaddrinfo` to supply the arguments `addr` and `addrlen`.

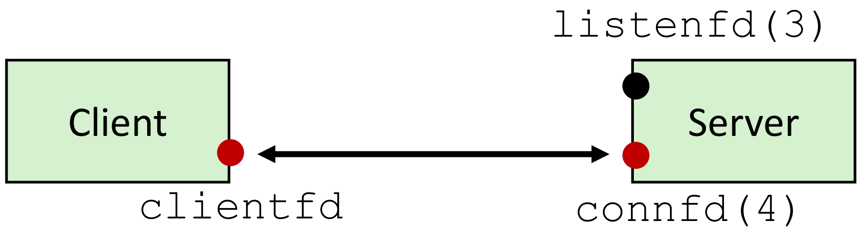
`accept` Illustrated



1. Server blocks in `accept`, waiting for connection request on listening descriptor `listenfd`



2. Client makes connection request by calling and blocking in `connect`



3. Server returns `connfd` from `accept`. Client returns from `connect`. Connection is now established between `clientfd` and `connfd`

Connected vs. Listening Descriptors

- Listening descriptor
  - End point for client connection requests
  - Created once and exists for lifetime of the server

- Connected descriptor
  - End point of the connection between client and server
  - A new descriptor is created each time the server accepts a connection request from a client
  - Exists only as long as it takes to service client

- Why the distinction?
  - Allows for concurrent servers that can communicate over many client connections simultaneously
    - E.g., Each time we receive a new request, we fork a child to handle the request

Exercise: Concurrent Connections

```
int main(int argc, char **argv){
   int listenfd, connfd;
   socklen_t clientlen;
   struct sockaddr_storage clientaddr;
   char client_hostname[MAXLINE], client_port[MAXLINE];

   listenfd = Open_listenfd(argv[1]);
   while (1) {
      clientlen = sizeof(struct sockaddr_storage);
      connfd = Accept(listenfd, clientaddr, &clientlen);
      Getnameinfo(&clientaddr, clientlen, client_hostname, MAXLINE,
                  client_port, MAXLINE, 0);
      printf("Connected to (%s, %s)\n", client_hostname, client_port);

      echo(connfd);
      Close(connfd);
    }
    return 0;
}
```