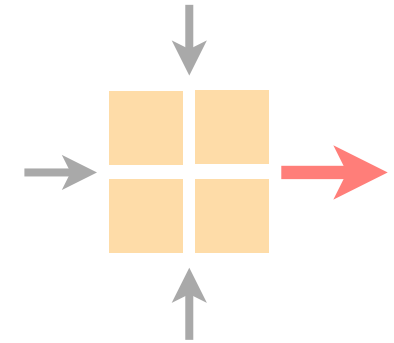


Communication Networks

Spring 2019



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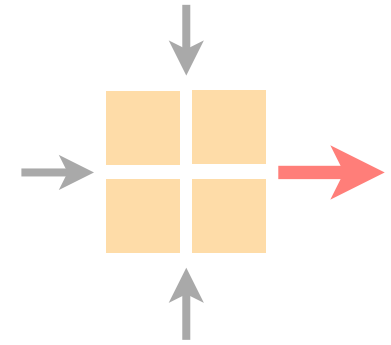
March 4 2019

Materials inspired from Scott Shenker & Jennifer Rexford

Last week on
Communication Networks

Communication Networks

Part 1: General overview



What is a network made of?

How is it shared?

How is it organized?

#4

How does communication happen?

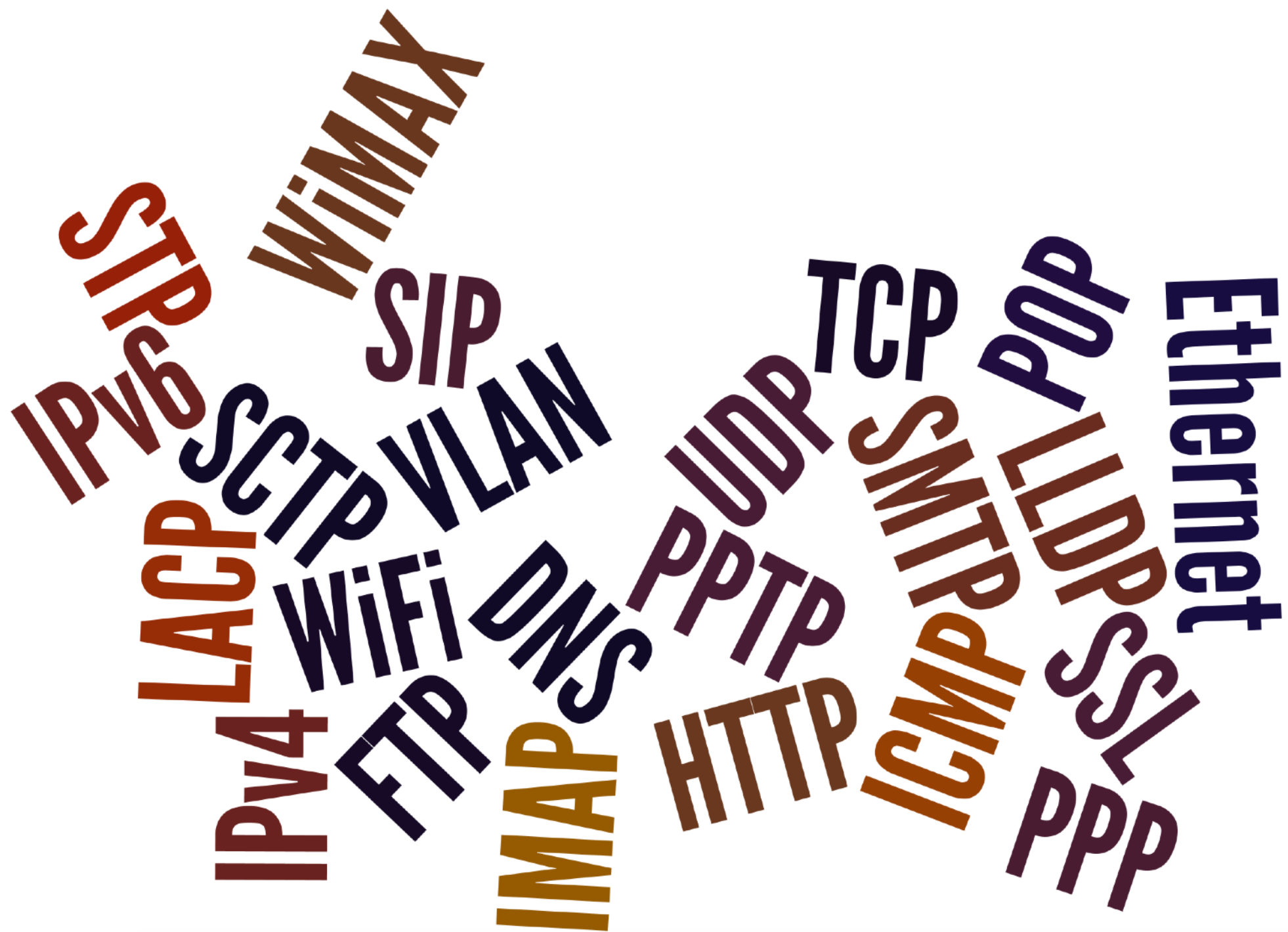
How do we characterize it?

The Internet should allow

processes on different hosts
to exchange data

everything else is just commentary...

In practice, there exists **a lot** of network protocols.
How does the Internet organize **this**?



Each layer provides a service to the layer above
by using the services of the layer directly below it

Applications

...built on...

Reliable (or unreliable) transport

...built on...

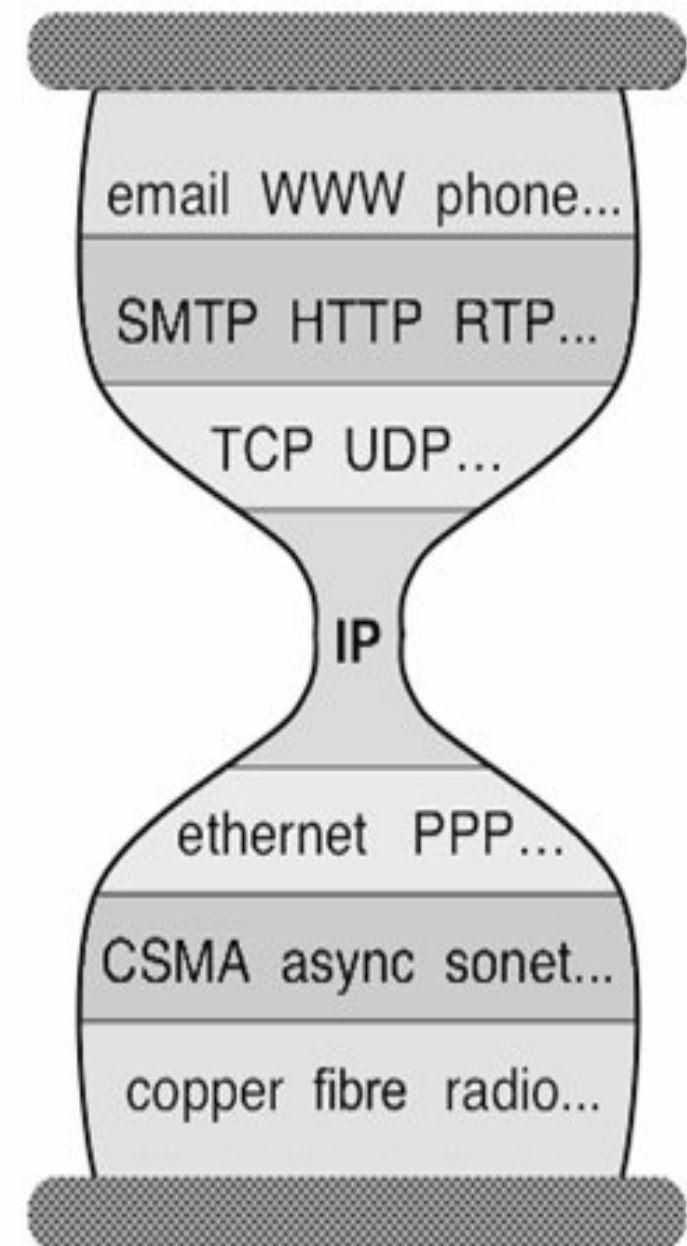
Best-effort global packet delivery

...built on...

Best-effort local packet delivery

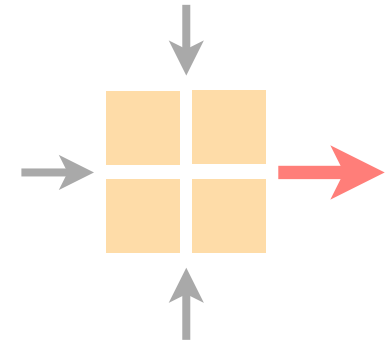
...built on...

Physical transfer of bits



Communication Networks

Part 1: General overview



What is a network made of?

How is it shared?

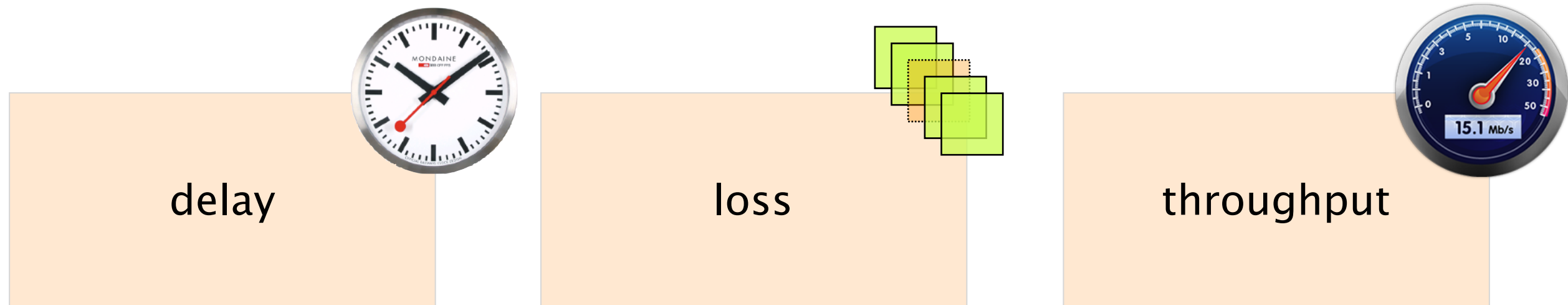
How is it organized?

How does communication happen?

#5

How do we characterize it?

A network *connection* is characterized by its delay, loss rate and throughput



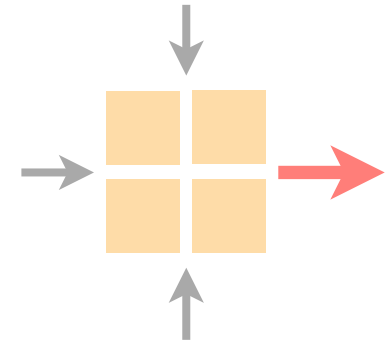
How long does it take for a packet to reach the destination

What fraction of packets sent to a destination are dropped?

At what rate is the destination receiving data from the source?

Communication Networks

Part 2: Concepts



routing

How do you guide IP packets
from a source to destination?

reliable
delivery

How do you ensure reliable transport
on top of best-effort delivery?

Last week

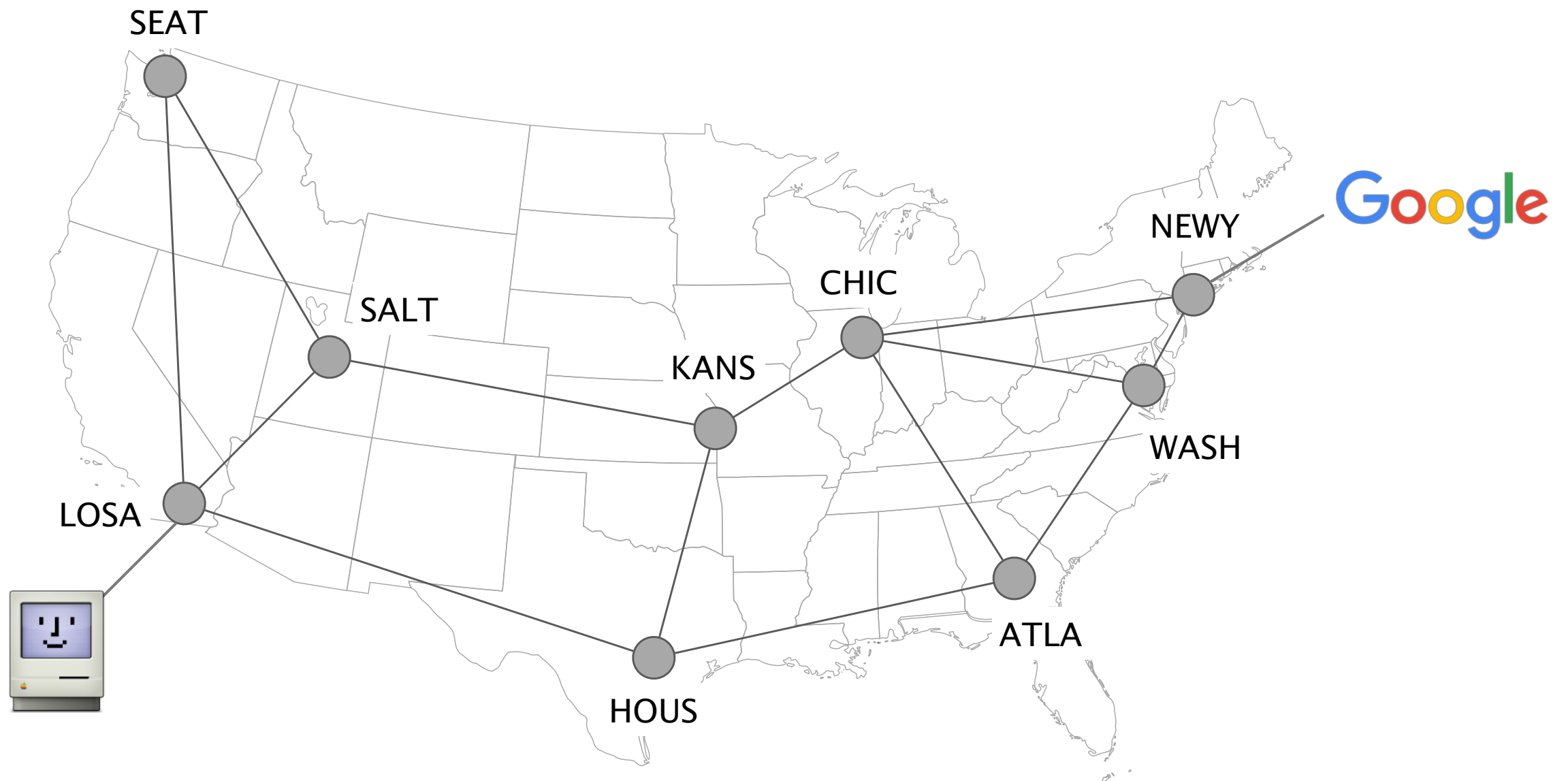
routing

This week

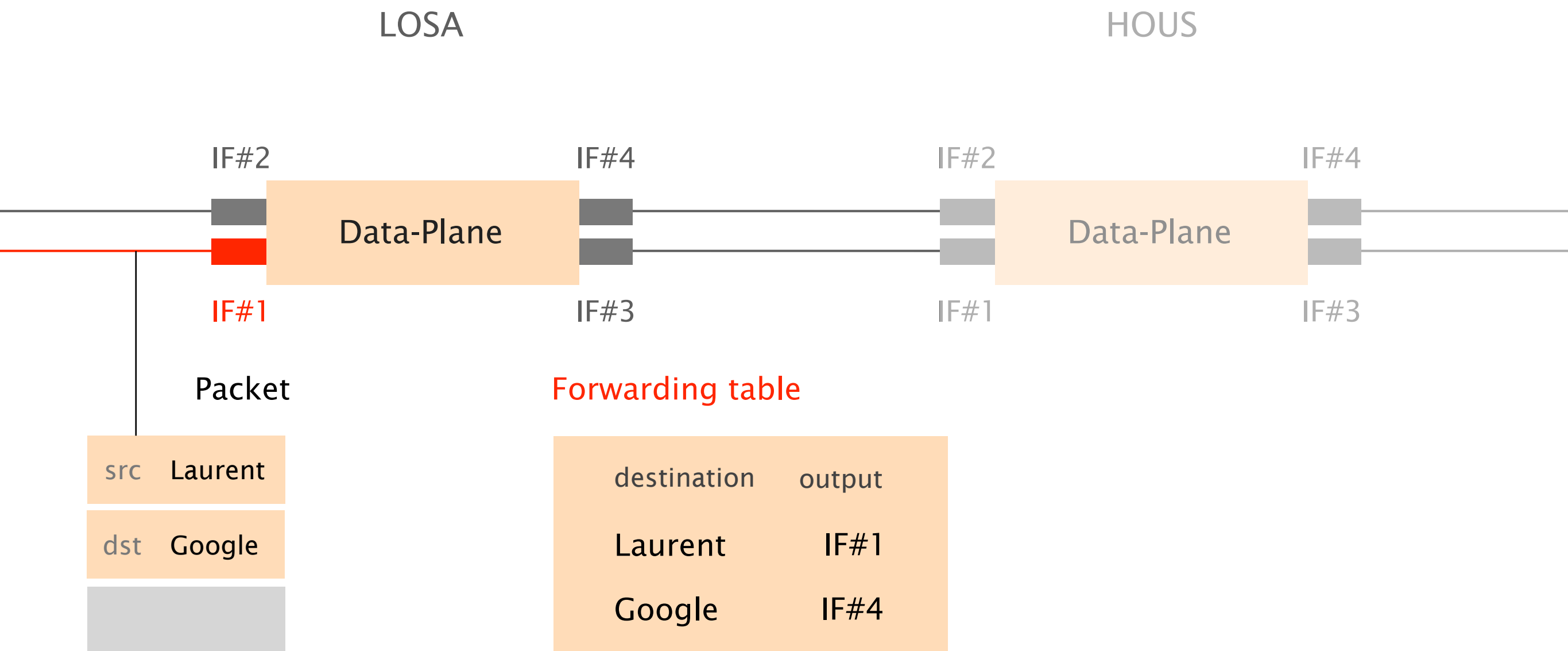
reliable
delivery

How do you guide **IP packets**
from a source to destination?

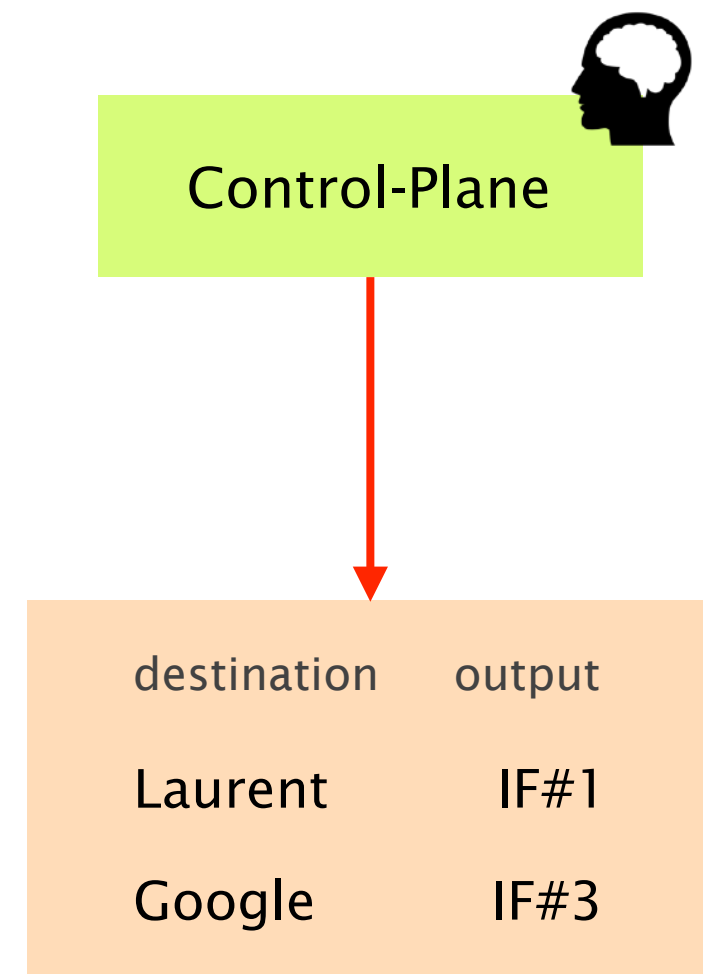
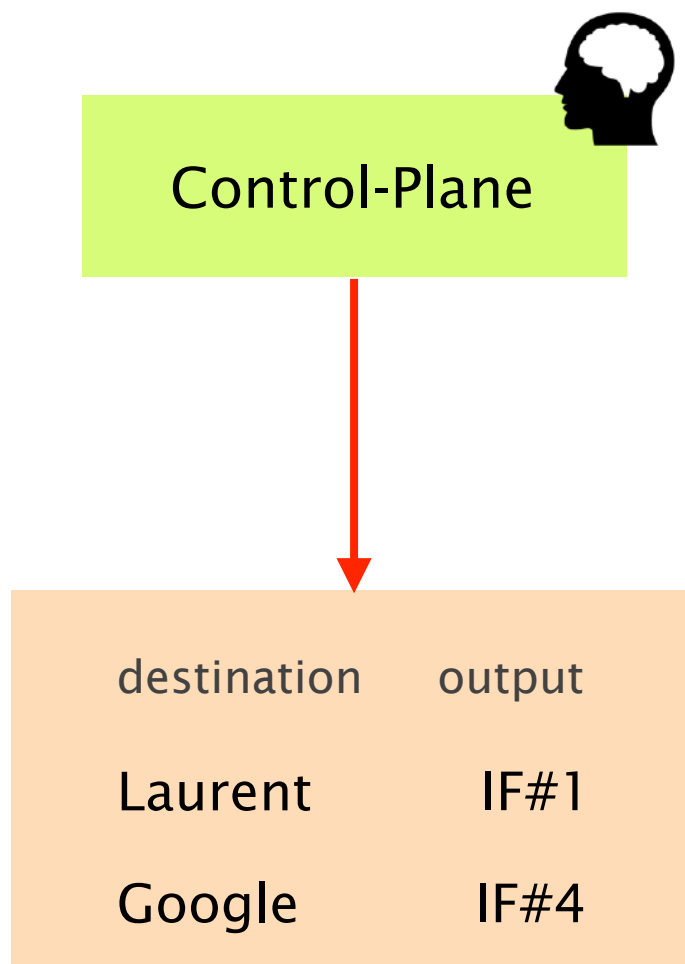
Routers forward IP packets hop-by-hop towards their destination



Upon packet reception, routers **locally** look up their forwarding table to know where to send it next



Routing is the control-plane process that **computes** and **populates** the forwarding tables



Forwarding vs Routing

summary

forwarding

routing

goal

directing packet to
an outgoing link

computing the paths
packets will follow

scope

local

network-wide

implem.

hardware
usually

software
always

timescale

nanoseconds

10s of ms
hopefully

The goal of routing is to compute
valid global forwarding state

Definition a global forwarding state is valid if

it **always** delivers packets
to the correct destination

sufficient and necessary condition

Theorem

a global forwarding state is valid if and only if

- there are no dead ends
no outgoing port defined in the table
- there are no loops
packets going around the same set of nodes

question 1 How do we verify that a forwarding state is valid?

question 2 How do we compute valid forwarding state?

question 1

How do we verify that a forwarding state is valid?

How do we compute valid forwarding state?

Verifying that a routing state is valid is easy

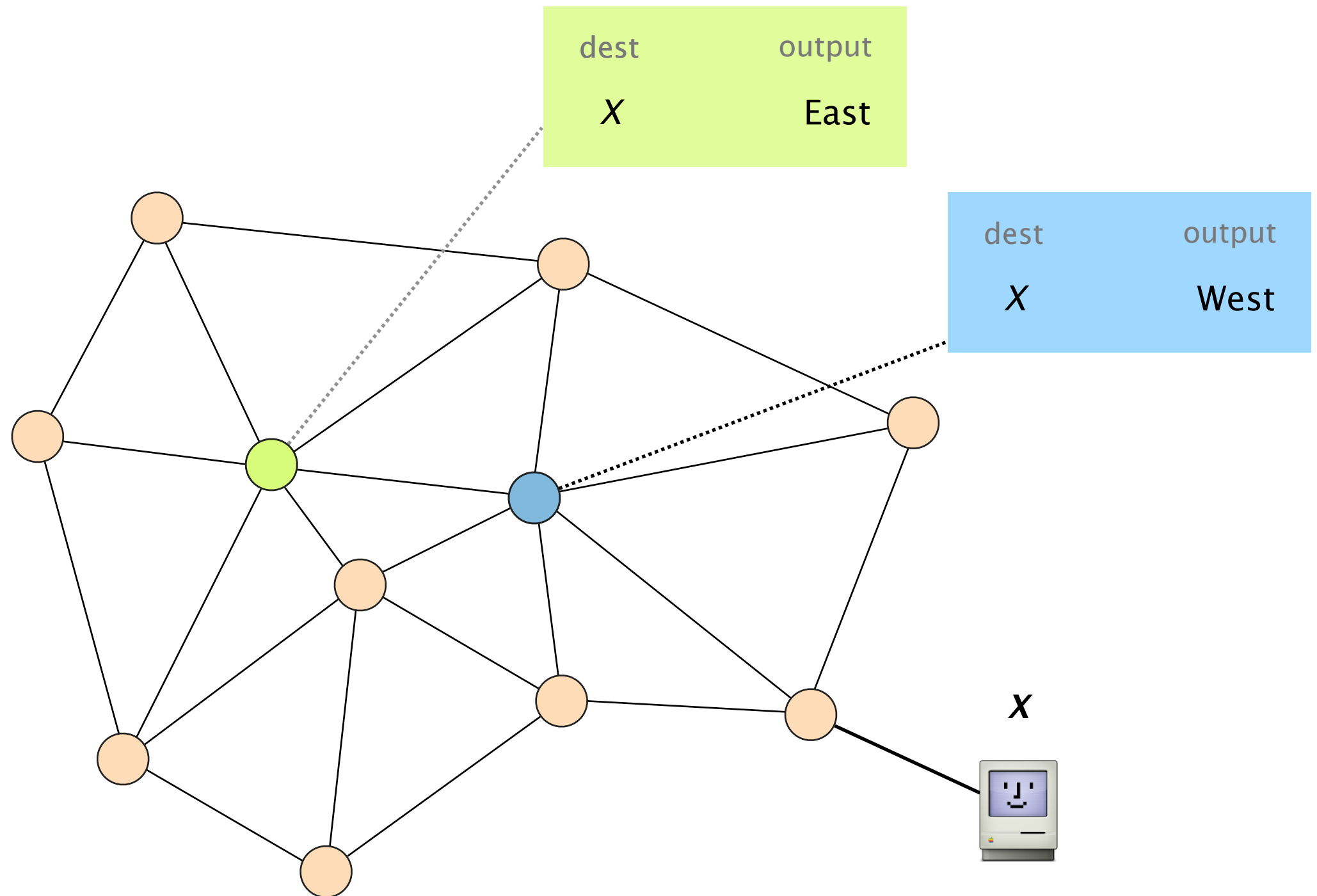
simple algorithm
for one destination

Mark all outgoing ports with an arrow

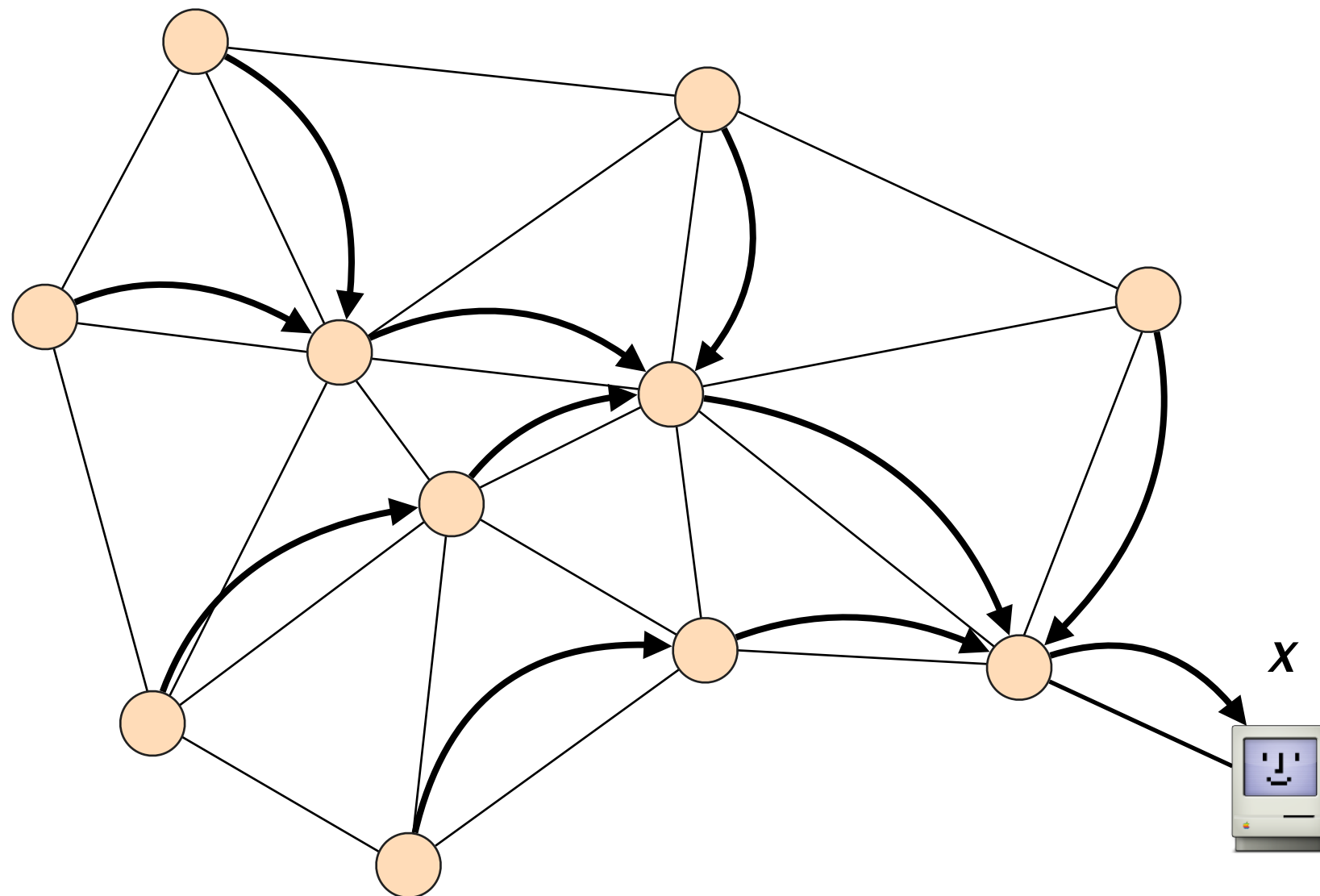
Eliminate all links with no arrow

State is valid *iff* the remaining graph
is a spanning-tree

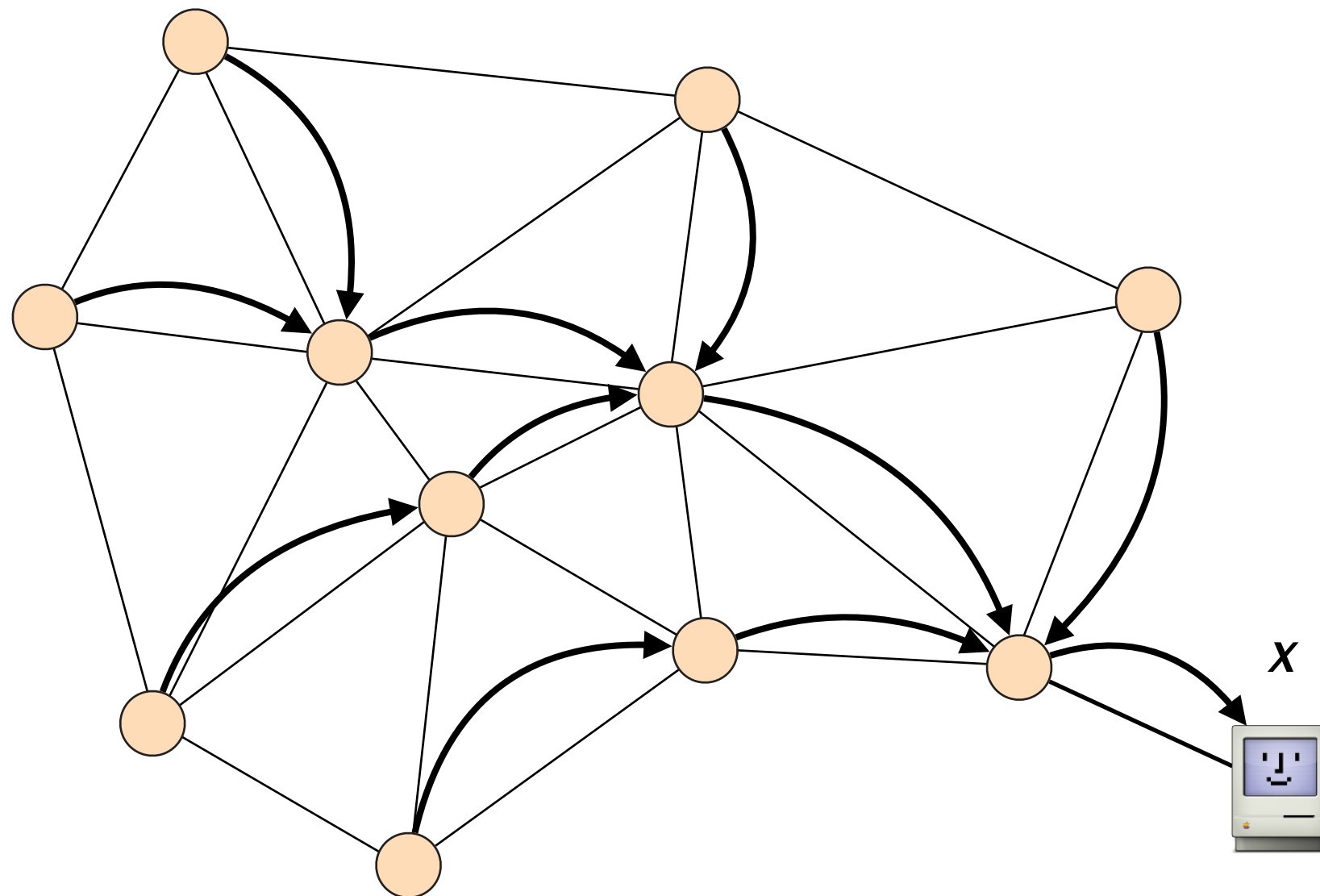
Given a graph with the corresponding forwarding state

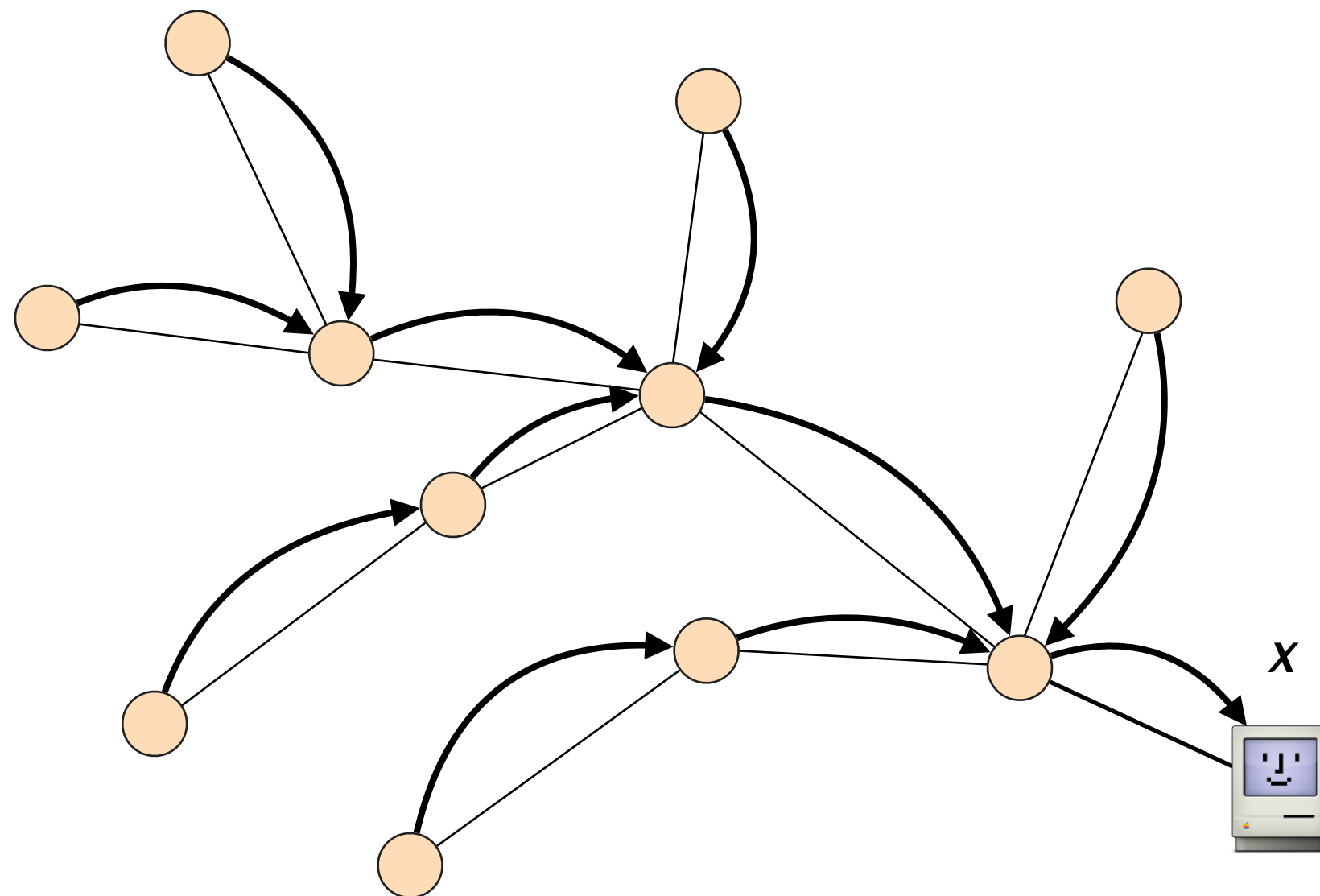


Mark all outgoing ports with an arrow



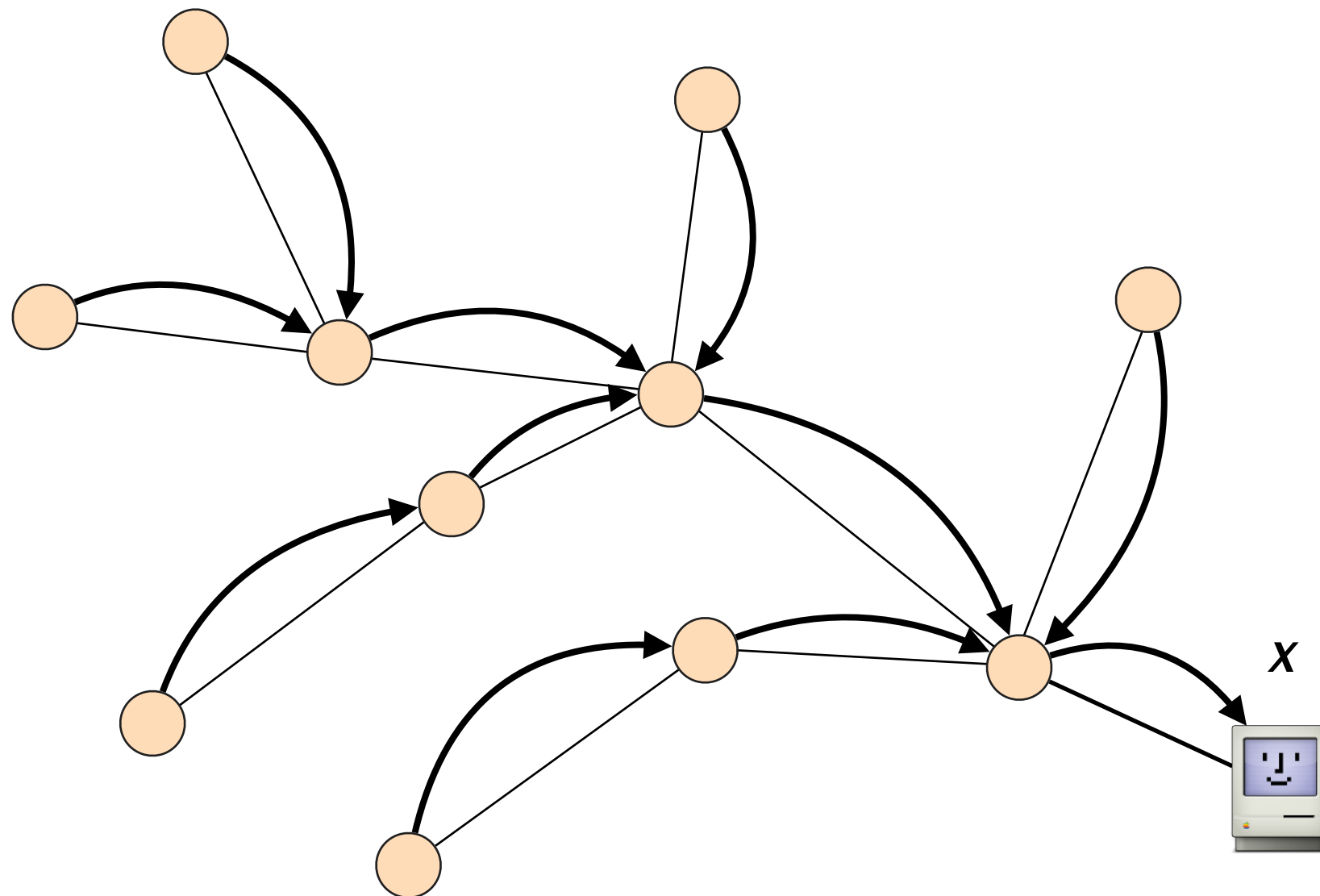
Eliminate all links with no arrow



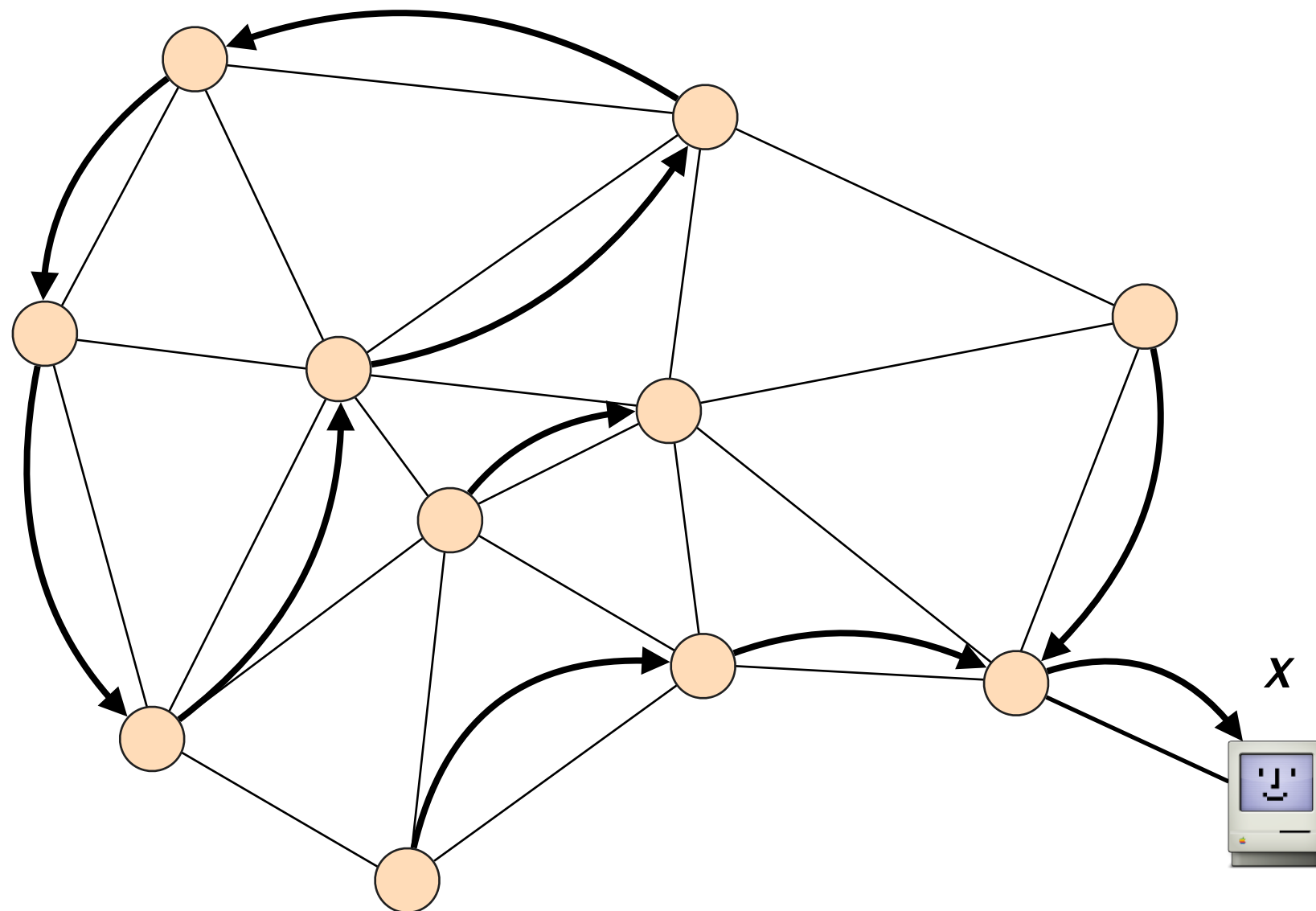


The **result** is a spanning tree.

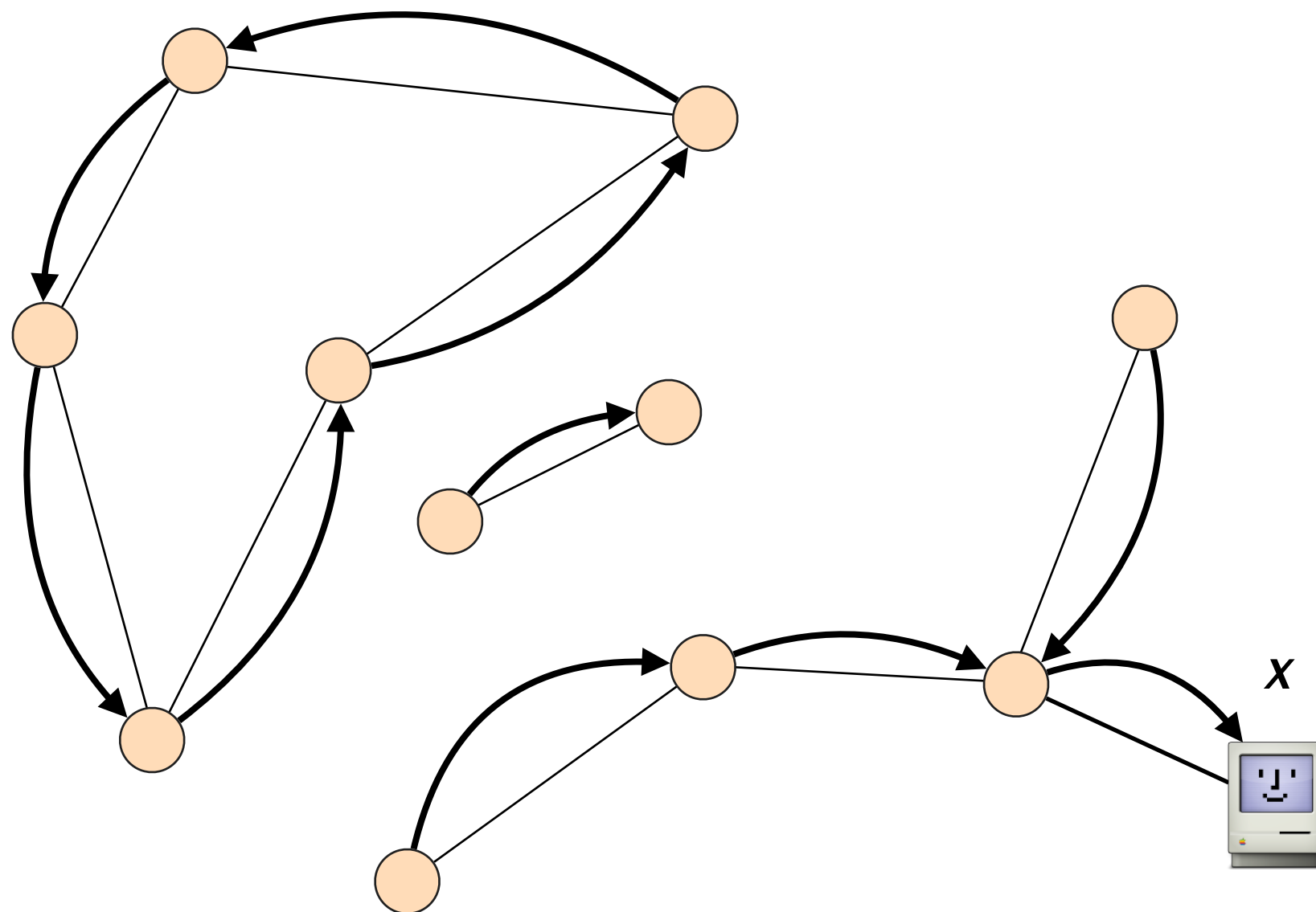
This is a **valid** routing state



Mark all outgoing ports with an arrow

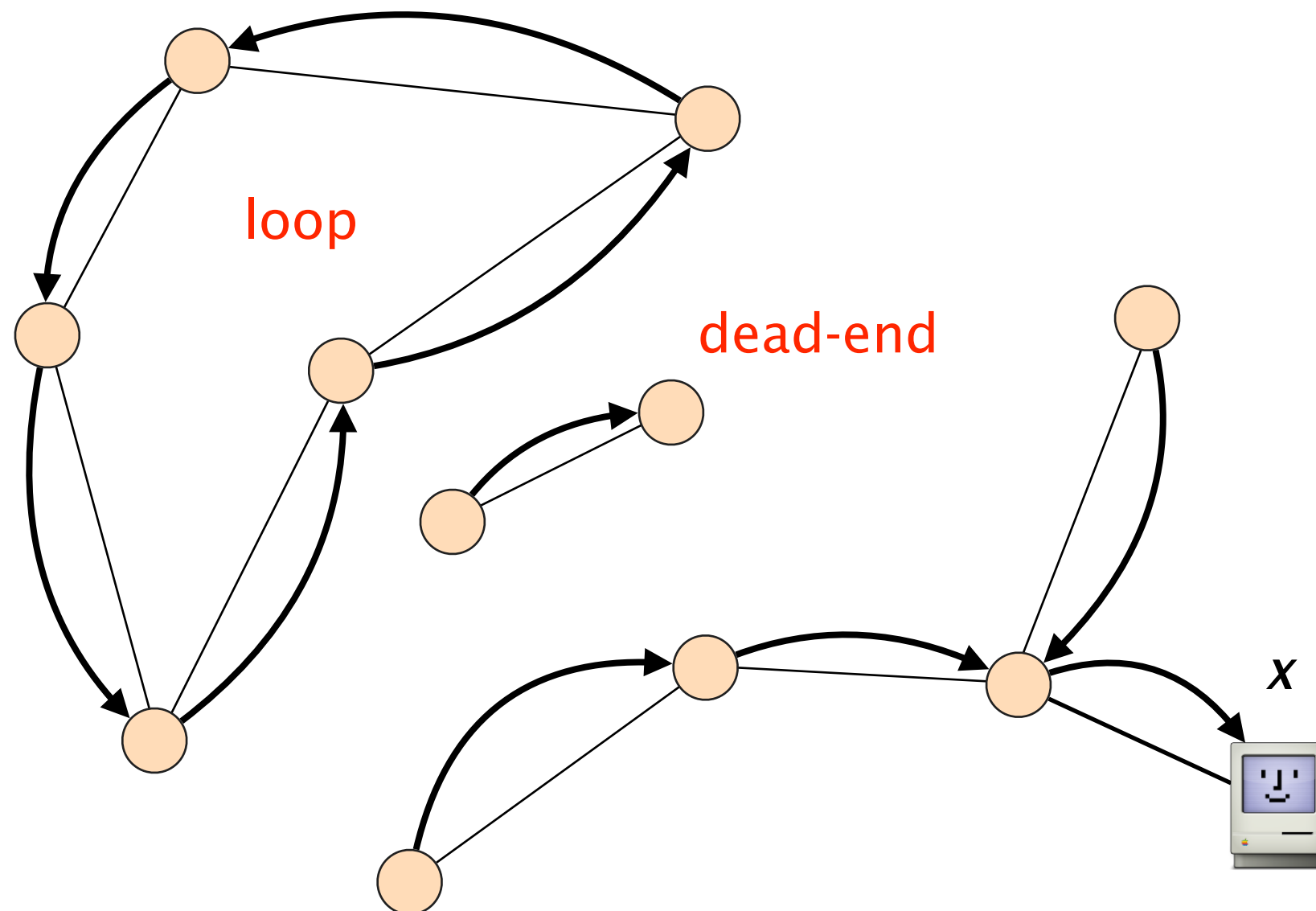


Eliminate all links with no arrow



The result is **not a spanning-tree**.

The routing state is **not valid**



How do we verify that a forwarding state is valid?

question 2

How do we compute valid forwarding state?

Producing valid routing state is harder

prevent dead ends

easy

prevent loops

hard

Producing valid routing state is harder
but doable

prevent dead ends
easy

prevent loops
hard

This is the question
you should focus on

Existing routing protocols differ in
how they avoid loops

prevent loops

hard

Essentially,
there are three ways to compute valid routing state

Intuition

Example

#1

Use tree-like topologies

Spanning-tree

#2

Rely on a global network view

Link-State
SDN

#3

Rely on distributed computation

Distance-Vector
BGP

Essentially,
there are three ways to compute valid routing state

#1

Use tree-like topologies

Spanning-tree

Rely on a global network view

Link-State

SDN

Rely on distributed computation

Distance-Vector

BGP

The easiest way to avoid loops is to route traffic over a loop-free topology

simple algorithm

Take an arbitrary topology

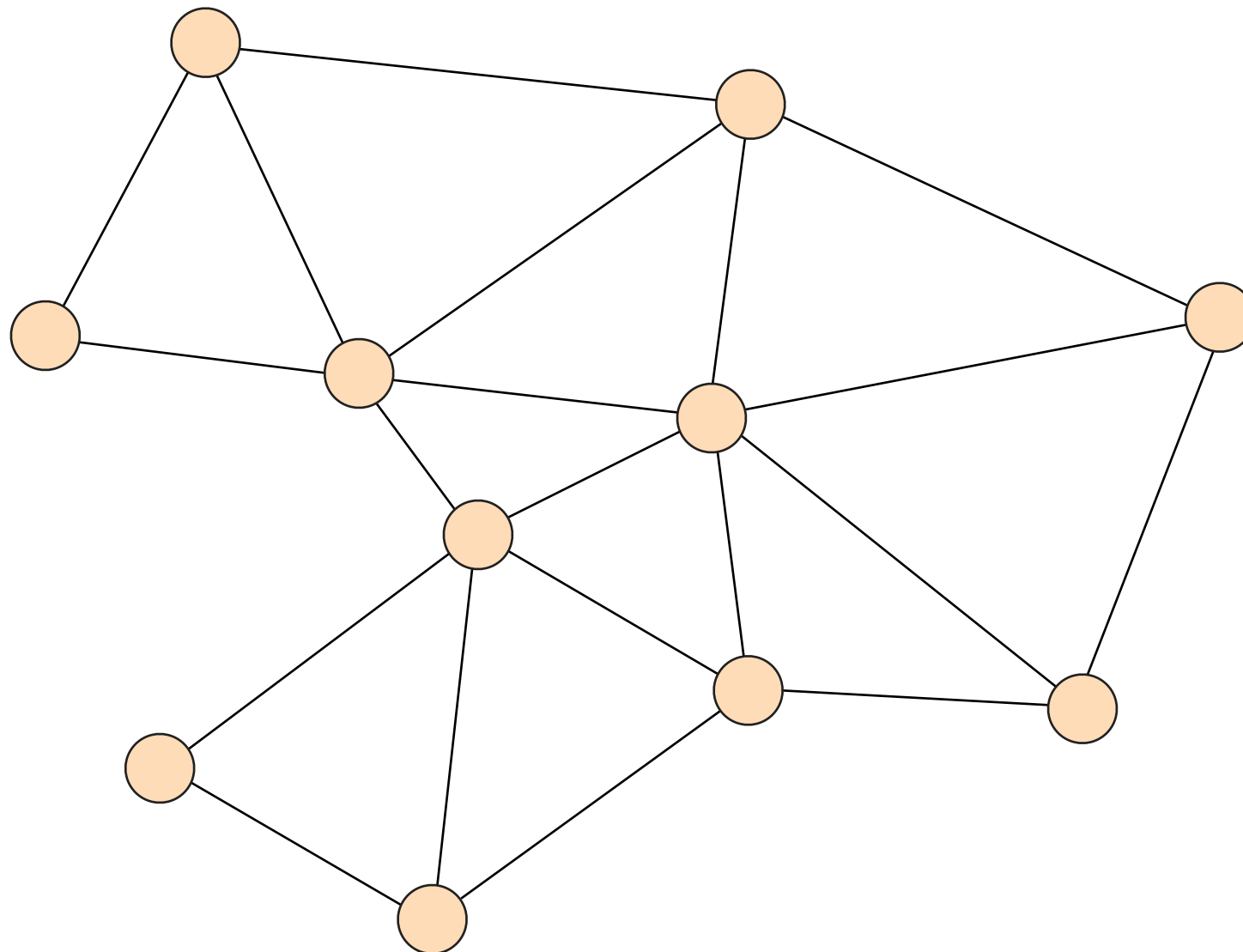
Build a spanning tree and
ignore all other links

Done!

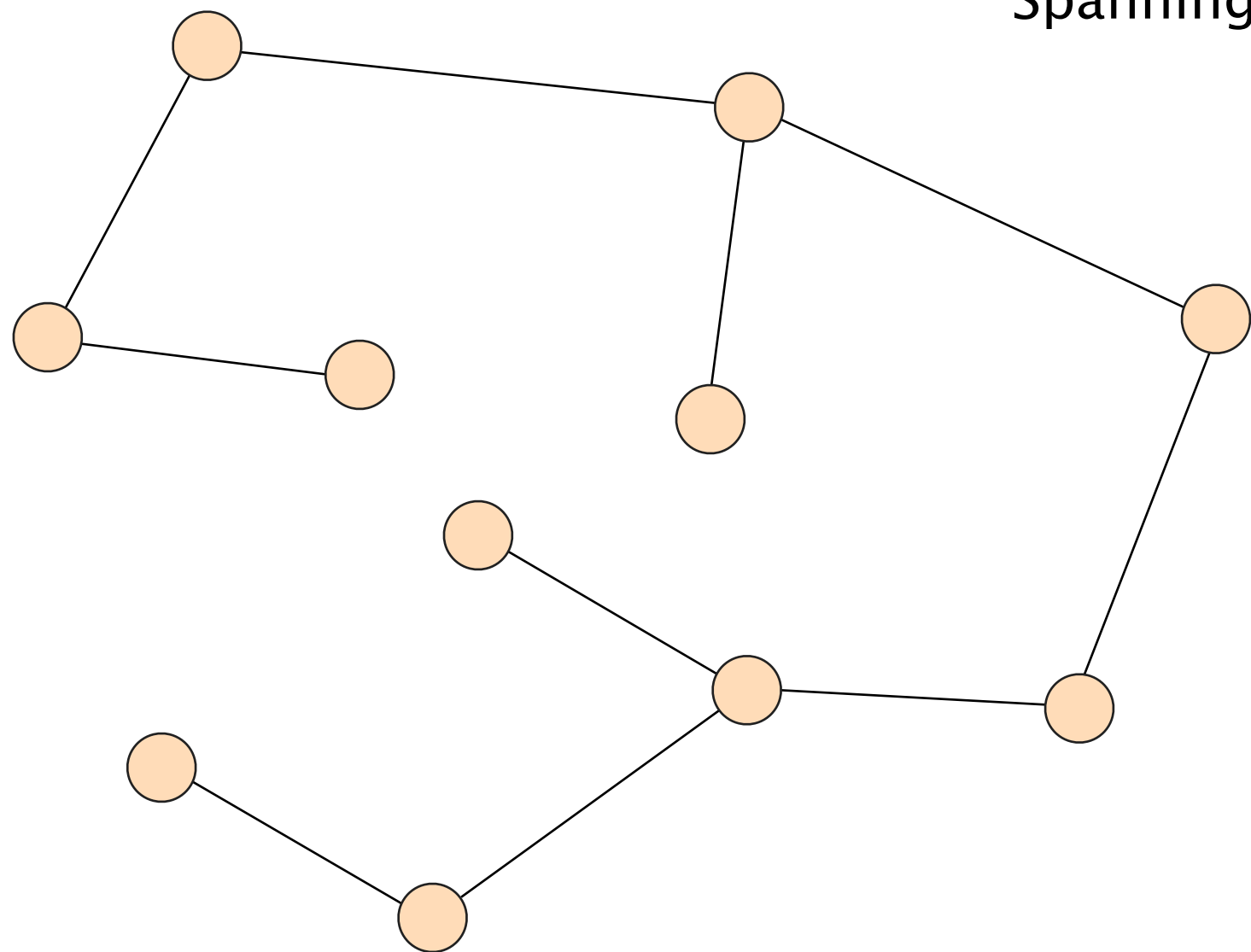
Why does it work?

Spanning-trees have only one path
between any two nodes

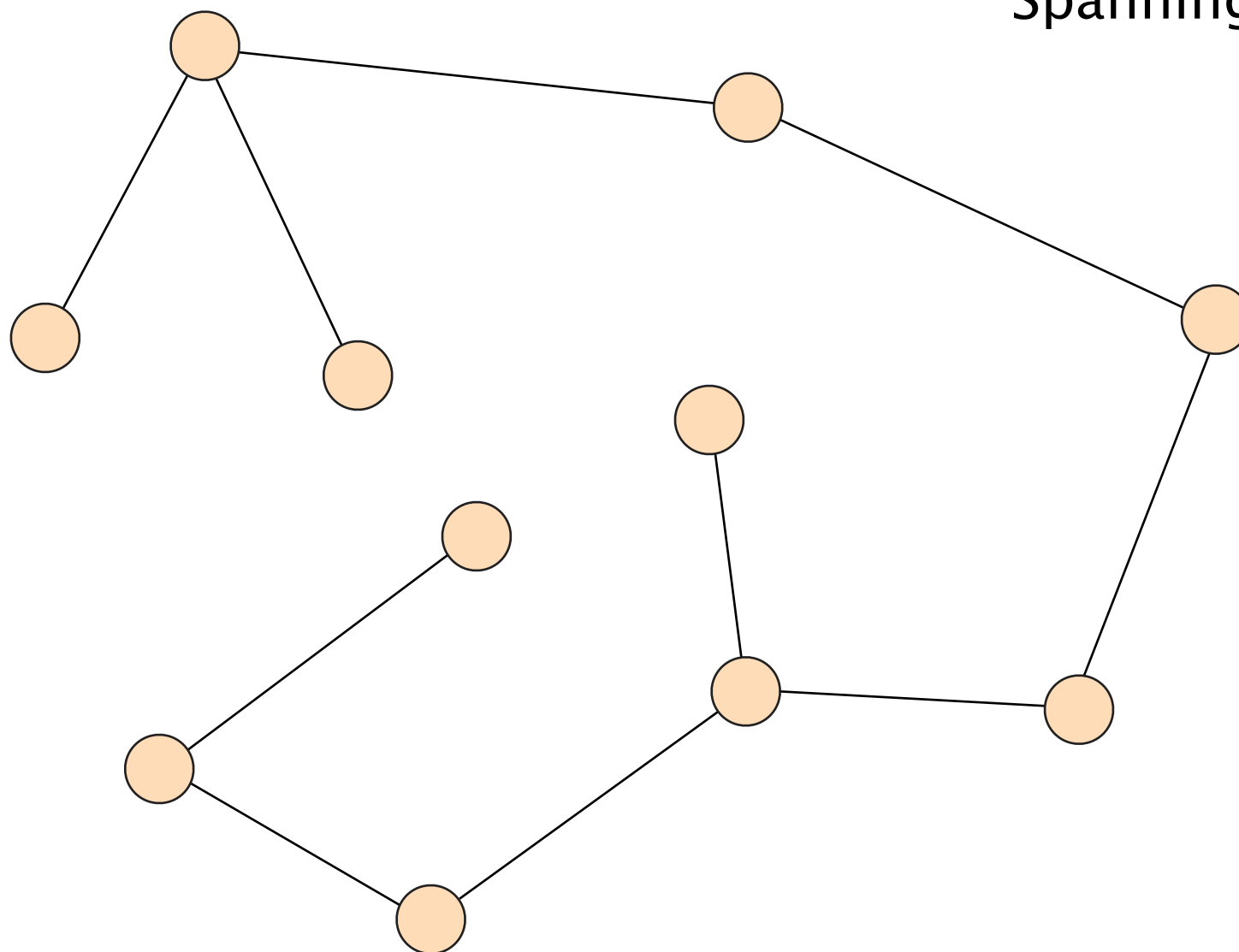
In practice,
there can be *many* spanning-trees for a given topology



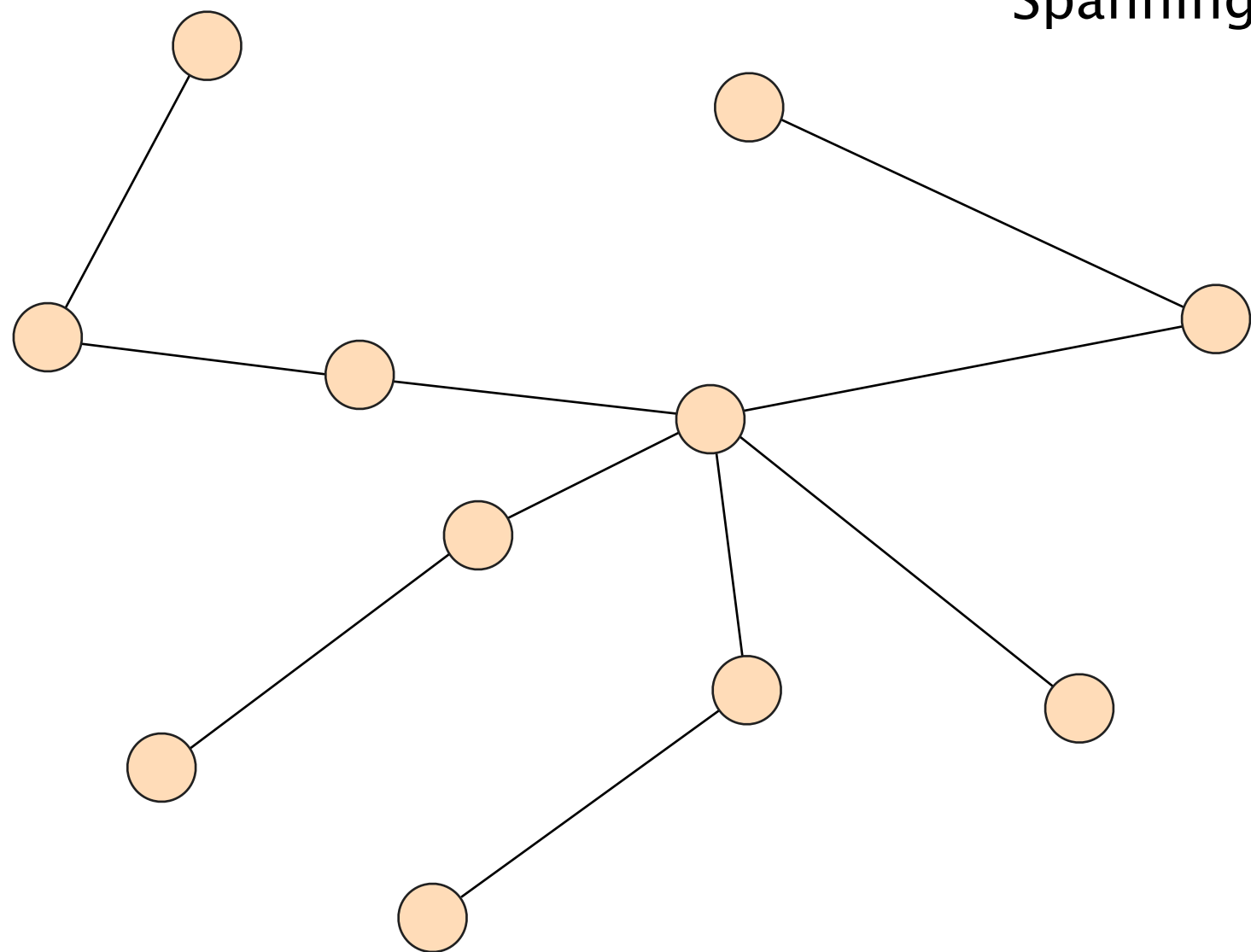
Spanning-Tree #1



Spanning-Tree #2



Spanning-Tree #3

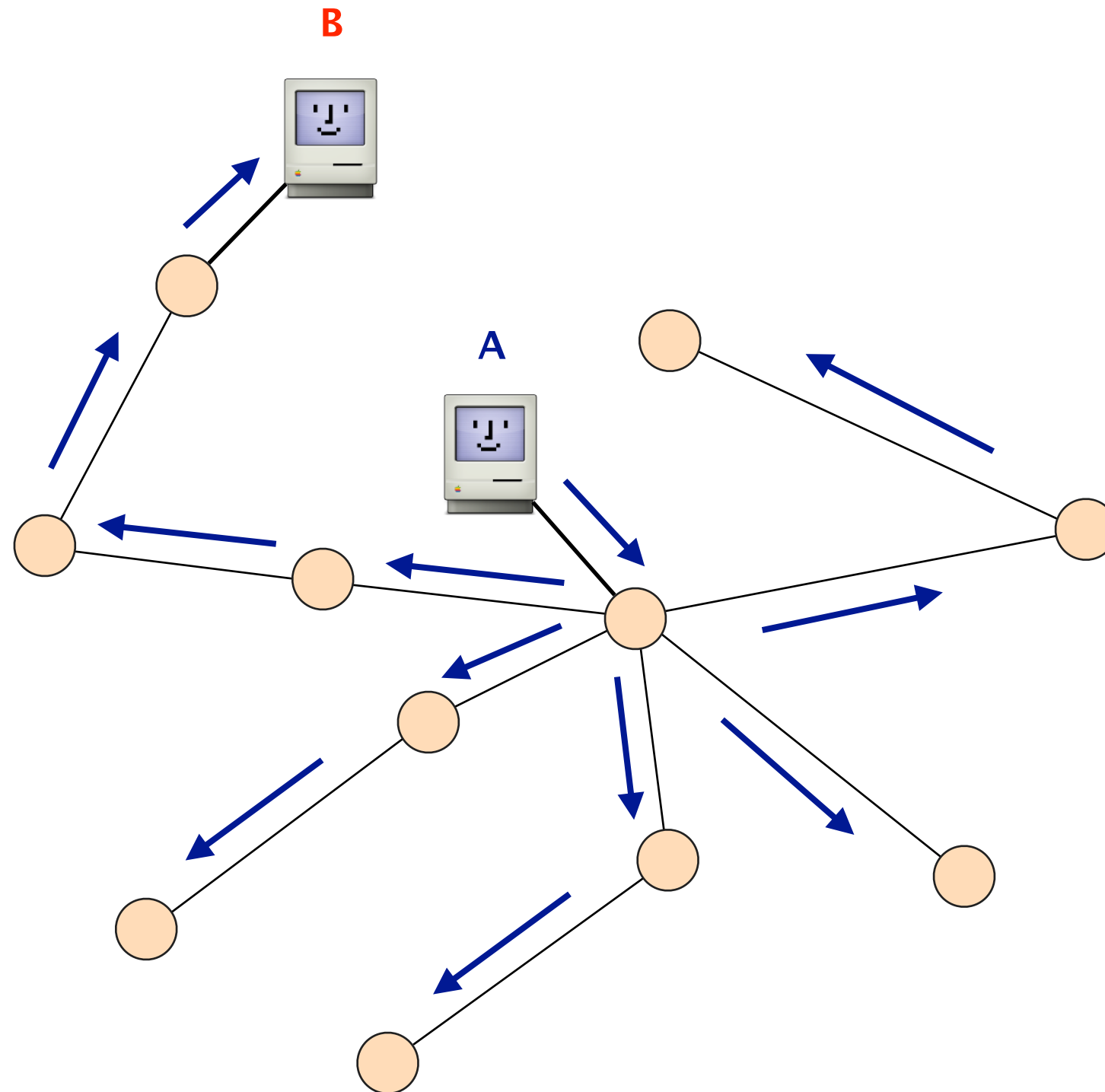


We'll see how to compute spanning-trees in 2 weeks.
For now, assume it is possible

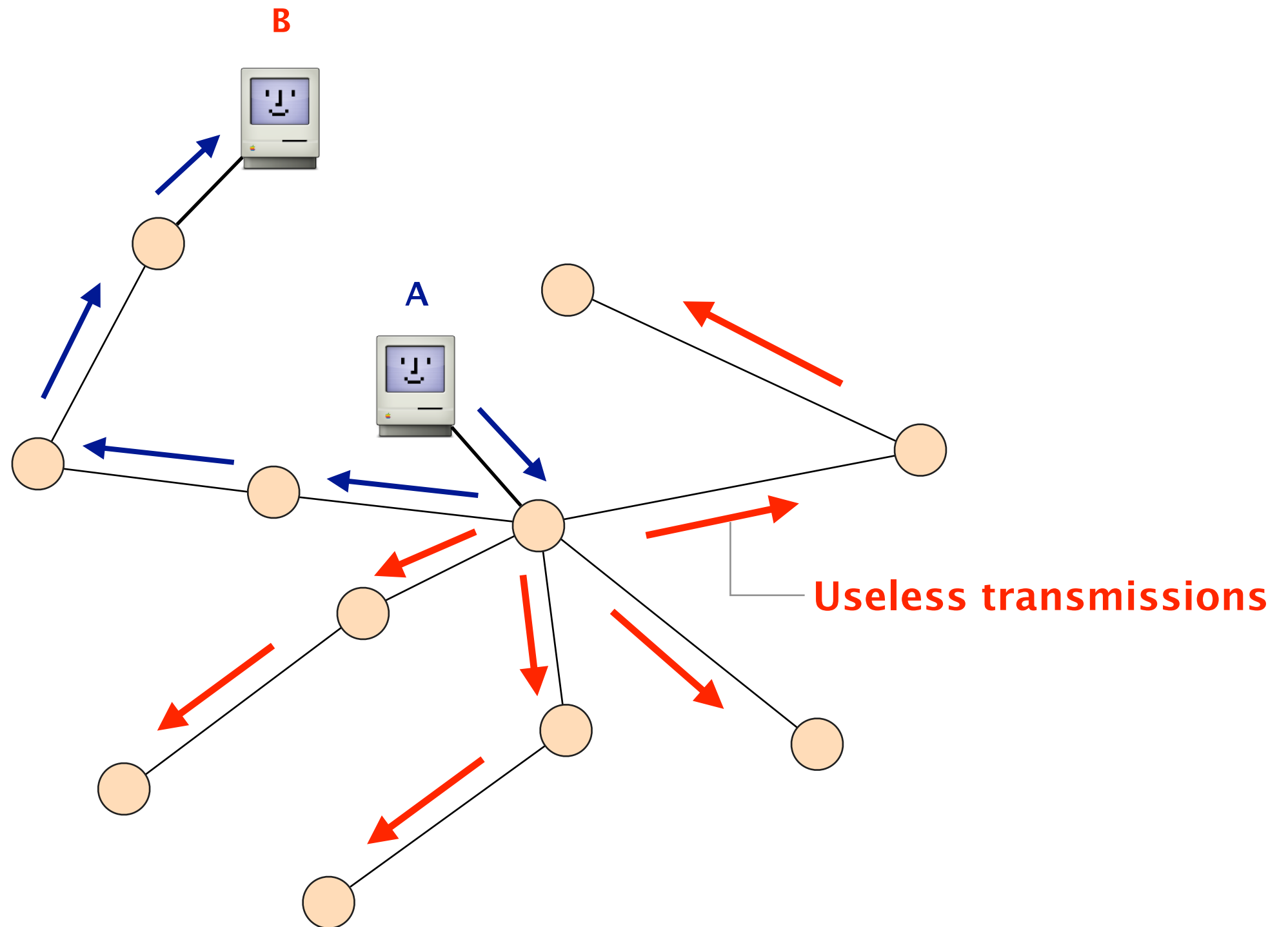
Once we have a spanning tree,
forwarding on it is **easy**

literally just flood
the packets everywhere

When a packet arrives, simply send it on all ports



While flooding works,
it is quite **wasteful**



The issue is that nodes do not know their
respective locations

Nodes can **learn** how to reach nodes
by remembering where packets came from

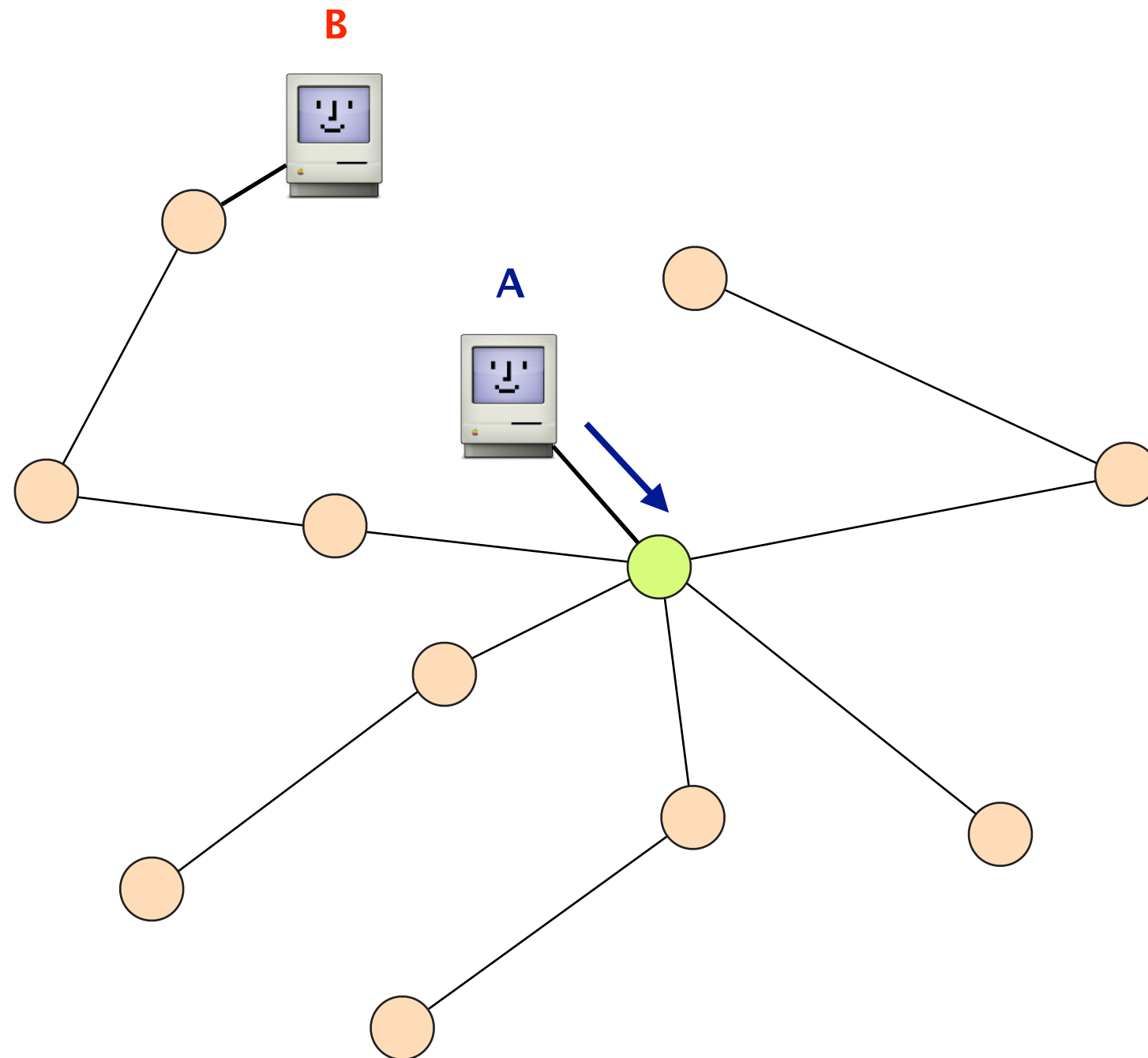
intuition

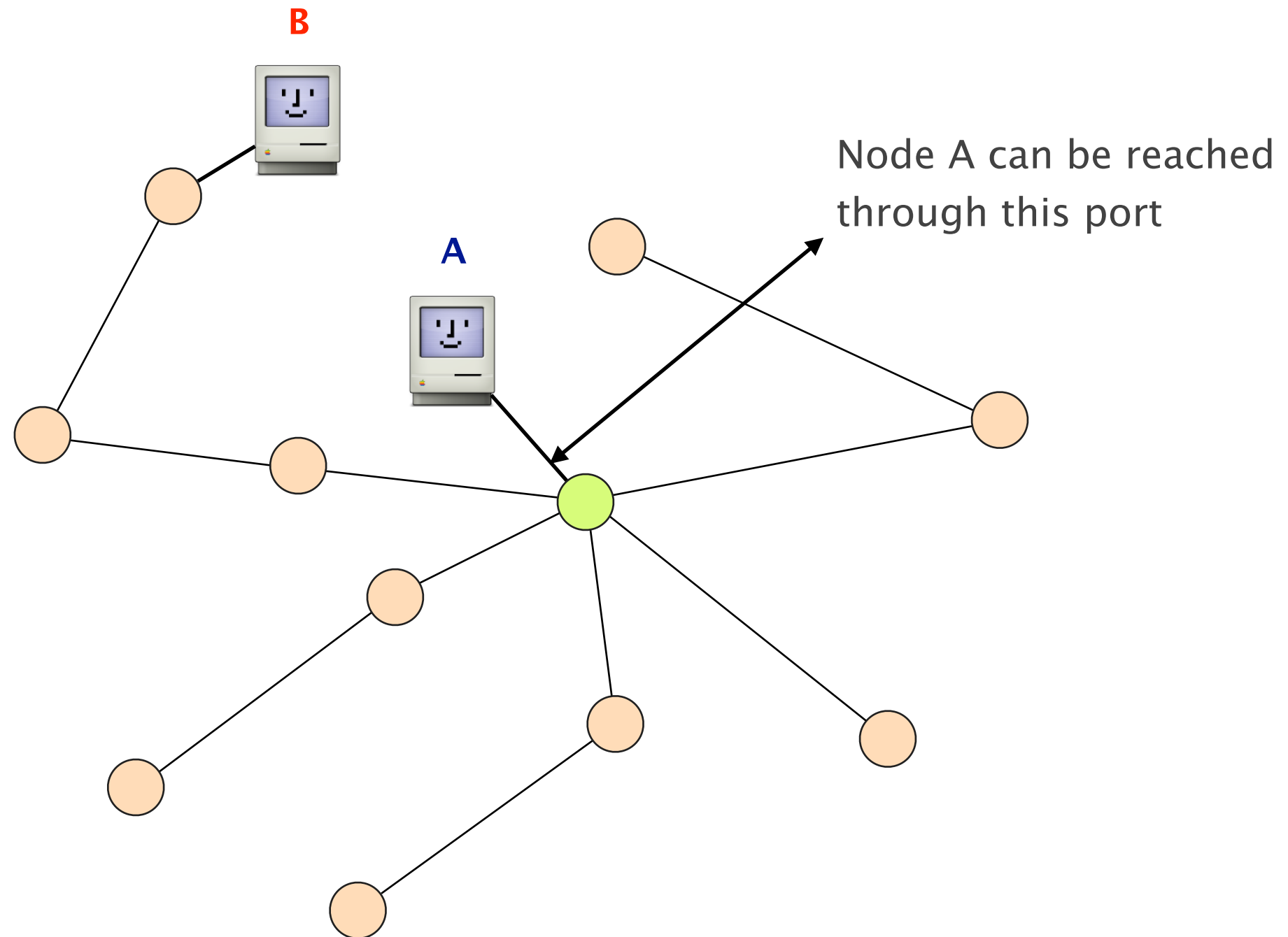
if

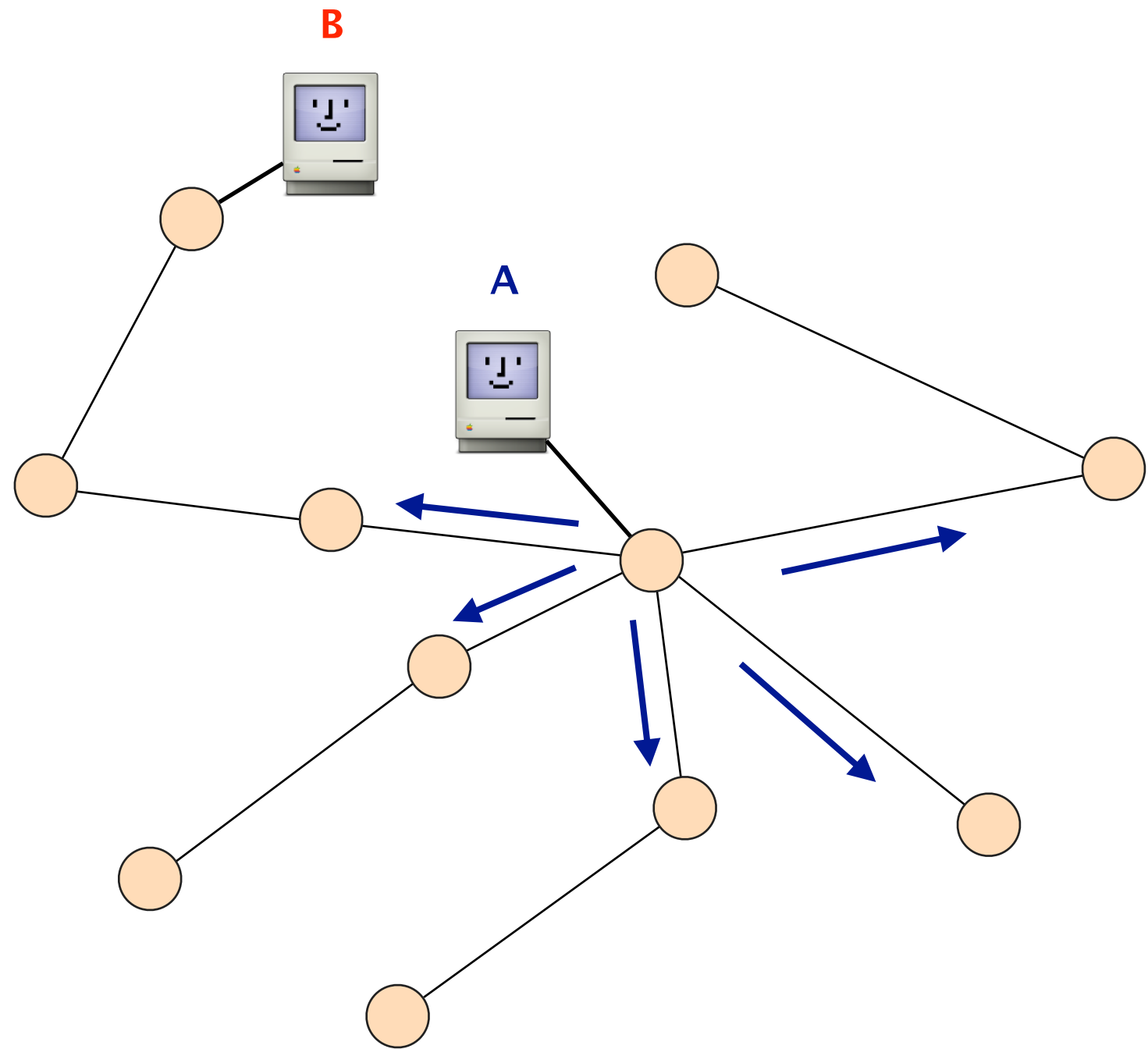
flood packet from node *A*
entered switch *X* on port 4

then

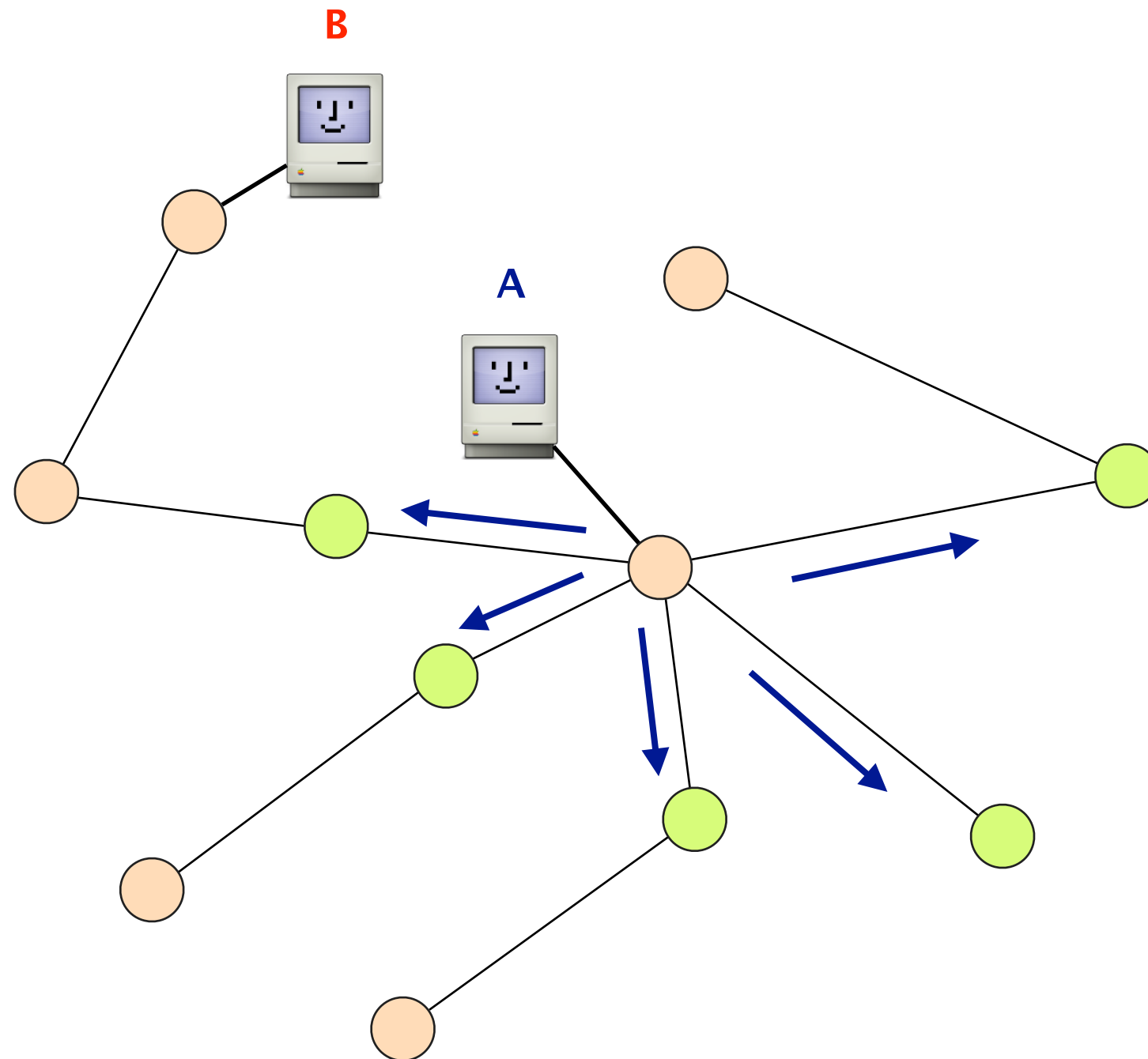
switch *X* can use port 4
to reach node *A*



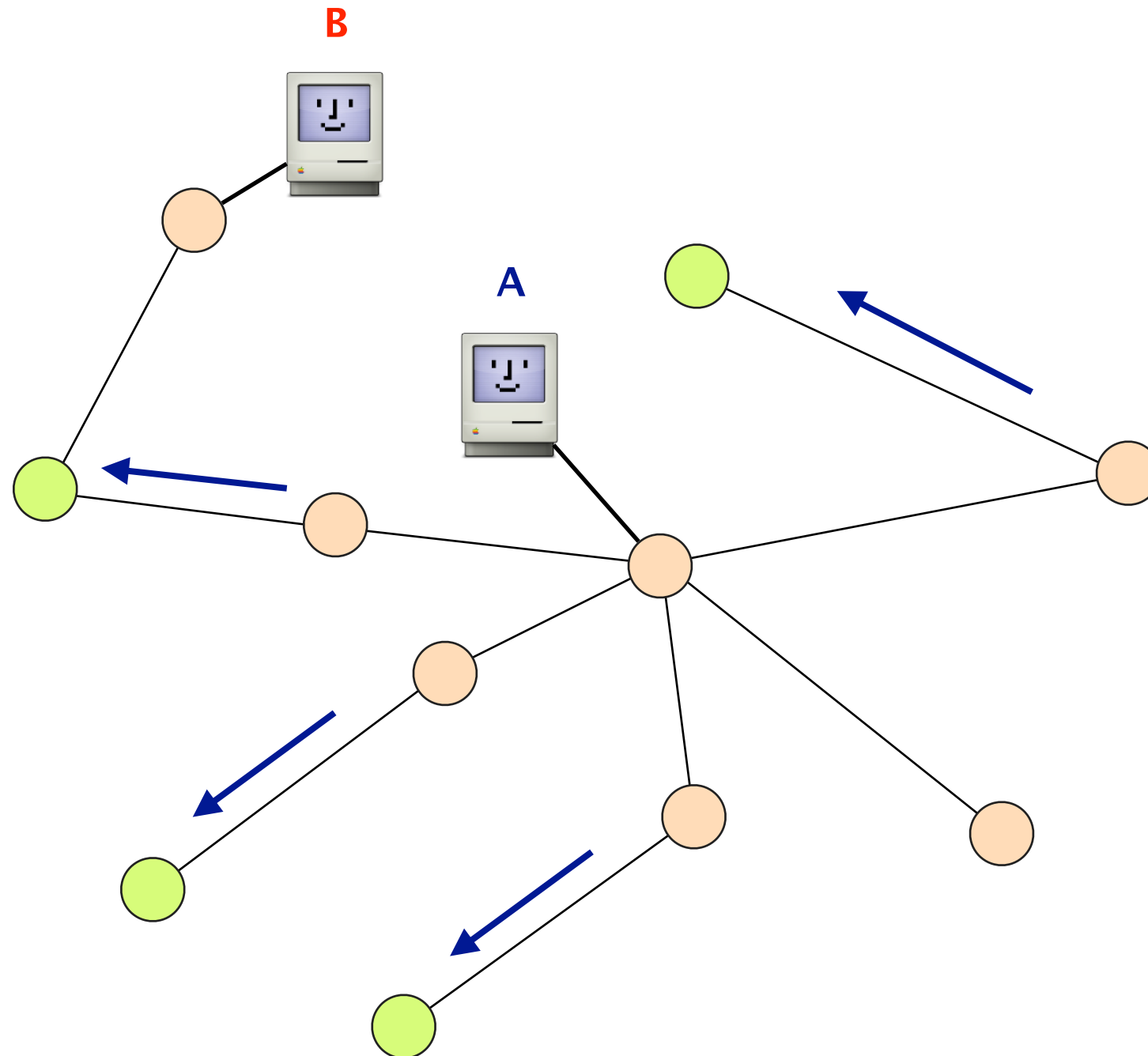




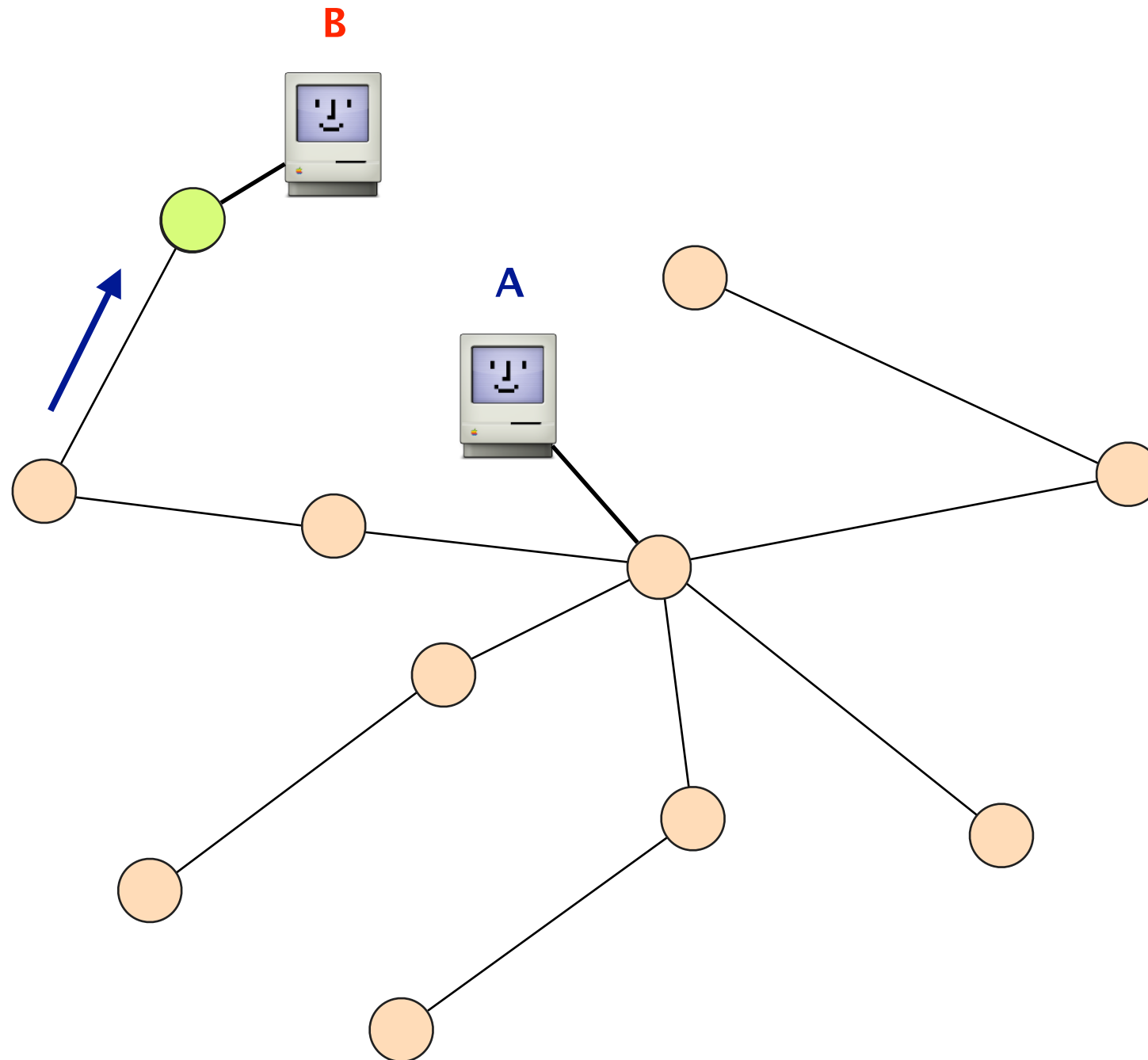
All the green nodes learn how to reach A



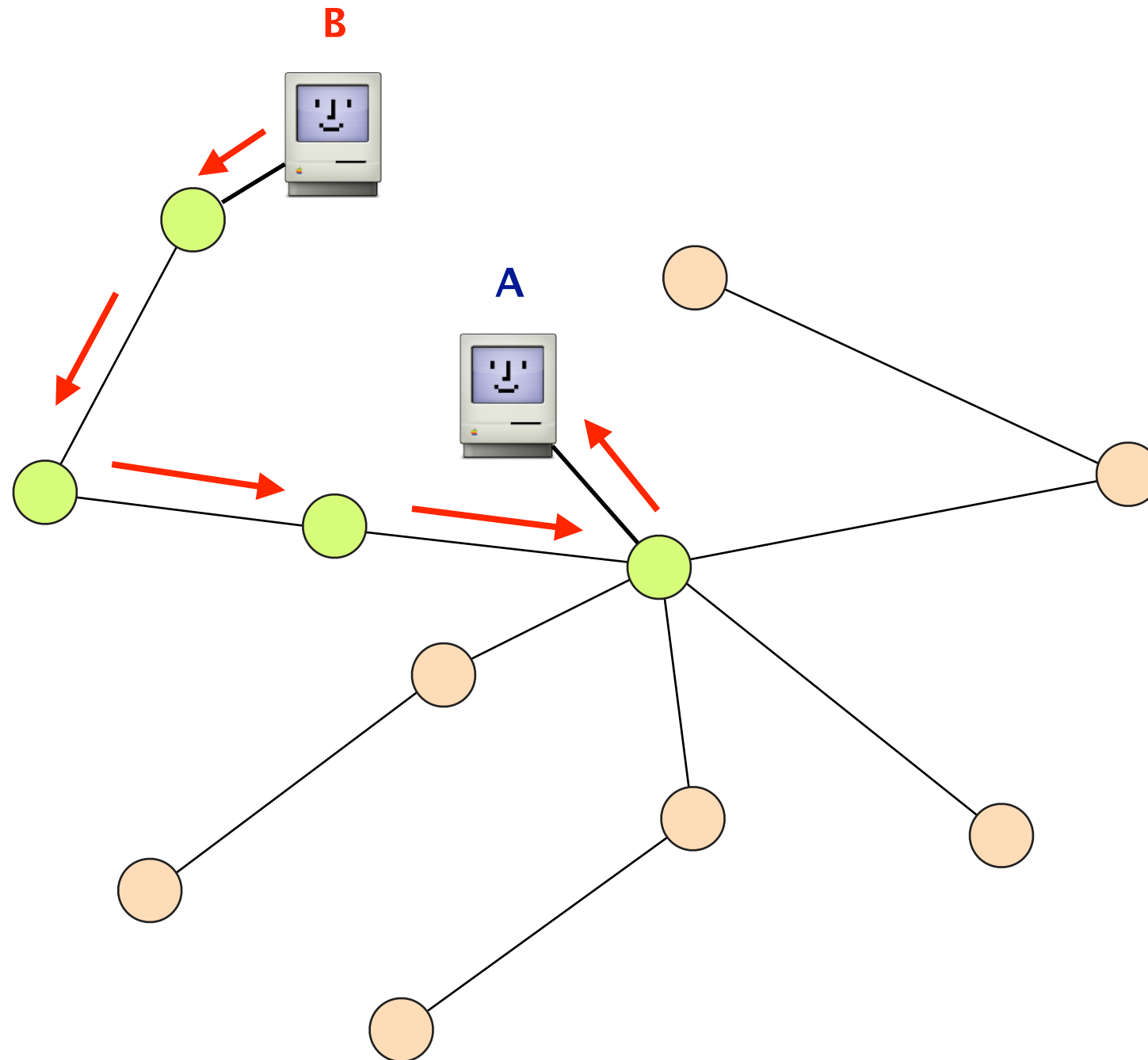
All the green nodes learn how to reach A



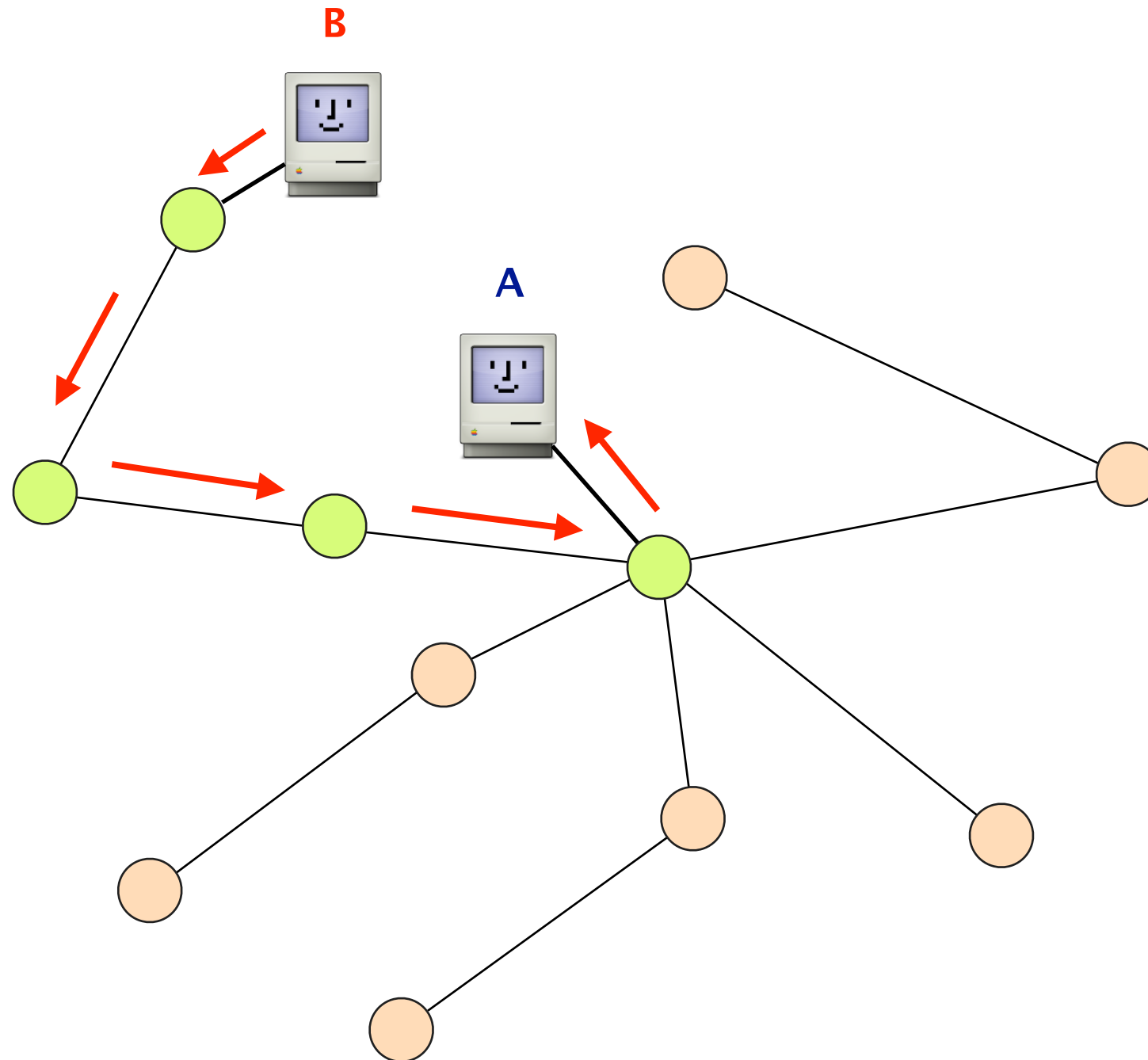
All the nodes know on which port
A can be reached



B answers back to A
enabling the green nodes to also learn where B is

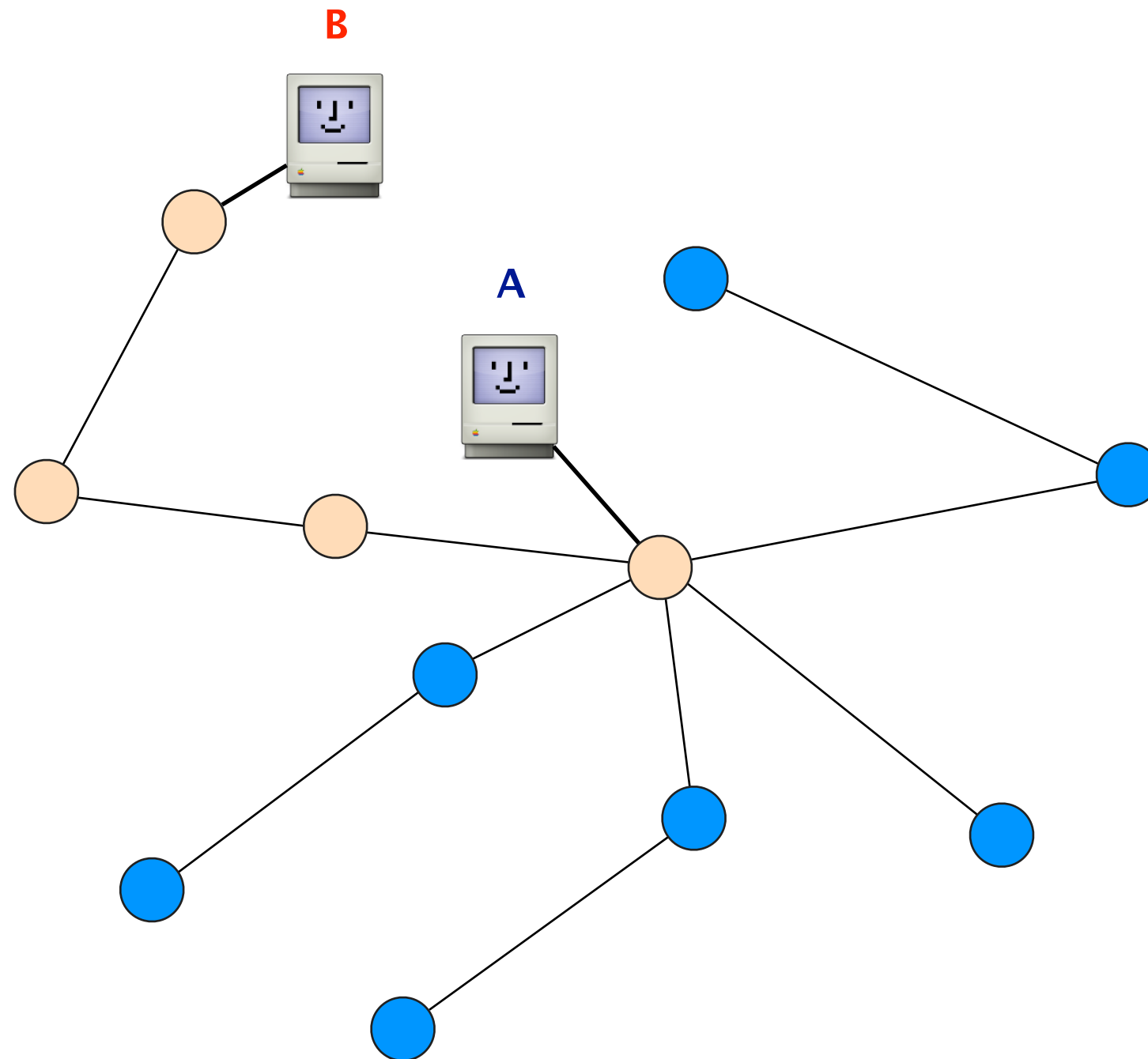


There is no need for flooding here
as the position of A is already known by everybody



Learning is topology-dependent

The blue nodes only know how to reach A (not B)



Routing by flooding on a spanning-tree in a nutshell

Flood first packet to node you're trying to reach
all switches learn where you are

When destination answers, some switches learn where it is
some because packet to you is not flooded anymore

The decision to flood or not is done on each switch
depending on who has communicated before

Spanning-Tree in practice

used in Ethernet

advantages

plug-and-play

configuration-free

automatically adapts
to moving host

disadvantages

mandate a spanning-tree

eliminate many links from the topology

slow to react to failures

host movement

Essentially,
there are three ways to compute valid routing state

Use tree-like topologies

Spanning-tree

#2

Rely on a global network view

Link-State
SDN

Rely on distributed computation

Distance-Vector
BGP

If each router knows the entire graph,
it can locally compute paths to all other nodes

Once a node u knows the entire topology,
it can compute shortest-paths using Dijkstra's algorithm

Initialization

$S = \{u\}$

for all nodes v :

if (v is adjacent to u):

$$D(v) = c(u, v)$$

else:

$$D(v) = \infty$$

Loop

while *not* all nodes in S :

add w with the smallest $D(w)$ to S

update $D(v)$ for all adjacent v not in S :

$$D(v) = \min\{D(v), D(w) + c(w, v)\}$$

u is the node running the algorithm

$S = \{u\}$

for all nodes v :

if (v is adjacent to u):

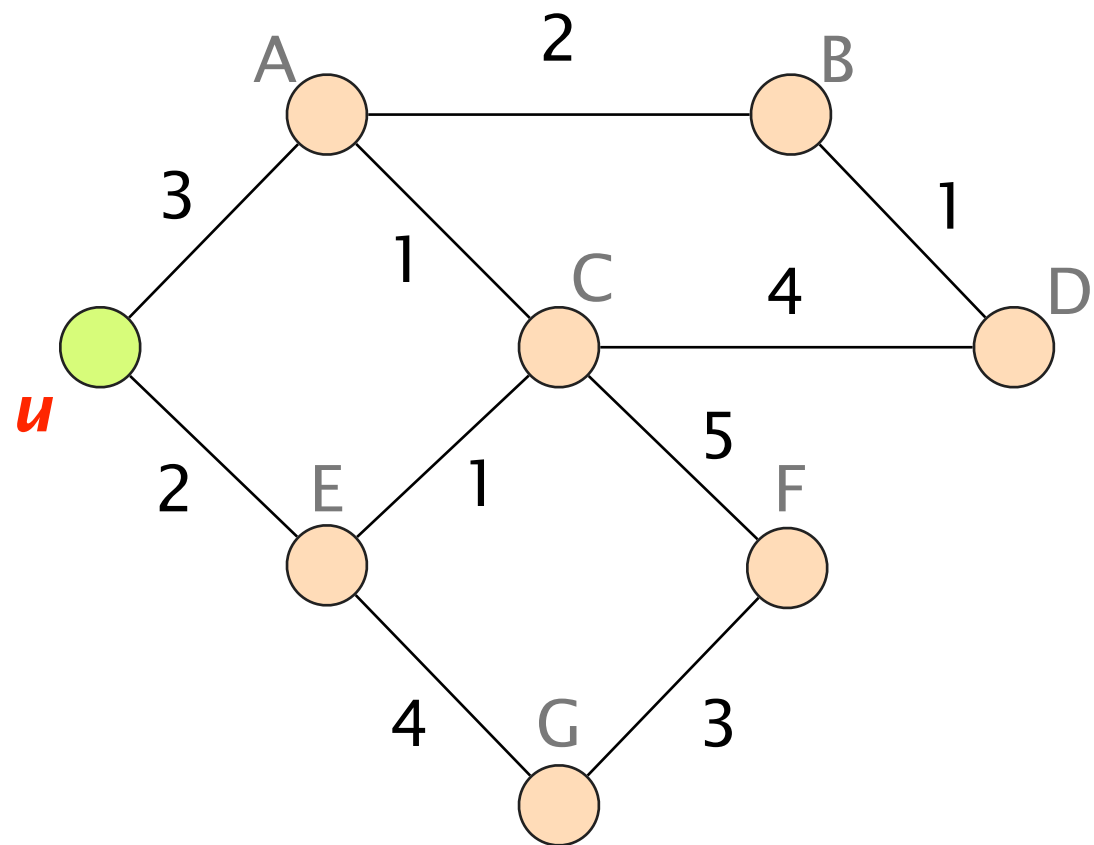
$D(v) = c(u, v)$ ——— $c(u, v)$ is the weight of the link
connecting u and v

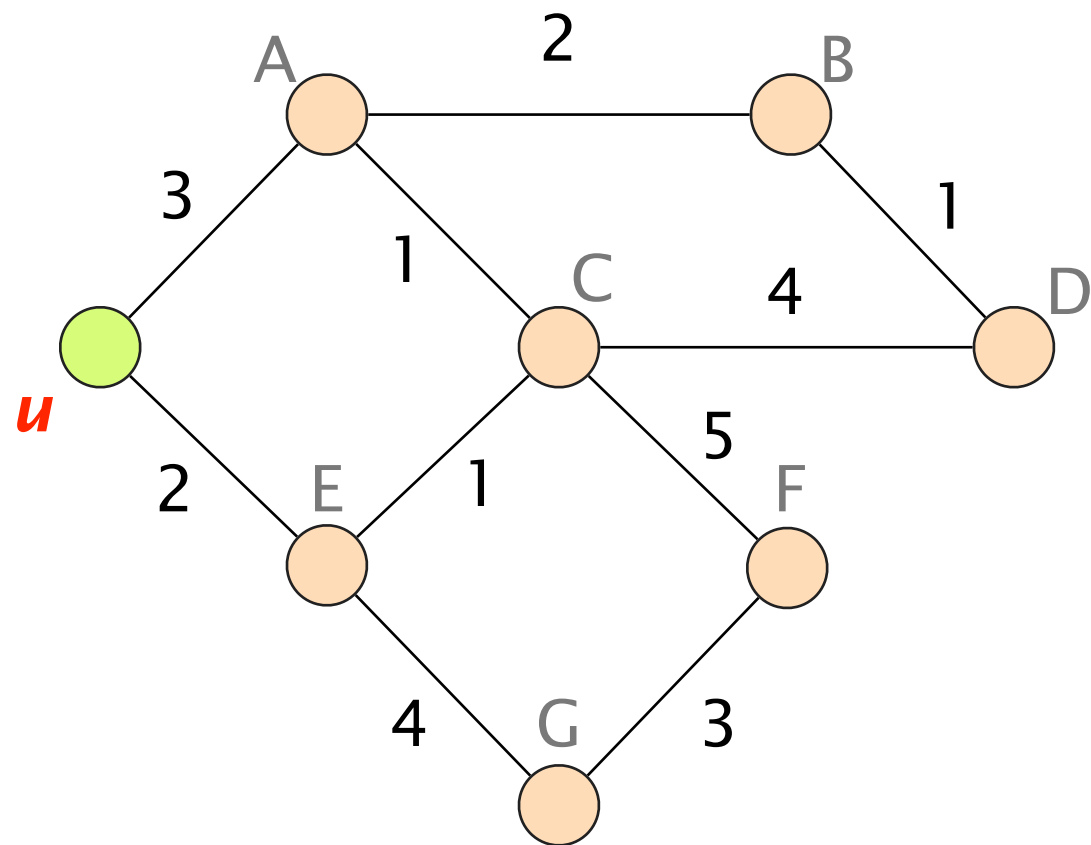
else:

$D(v) = \infty$

$D(v)$ is the smallest distance
currently known by u to reach v

Let's compute the shortest-paths
from u





Initialization

$S = \{u\}$

for all nodes v :

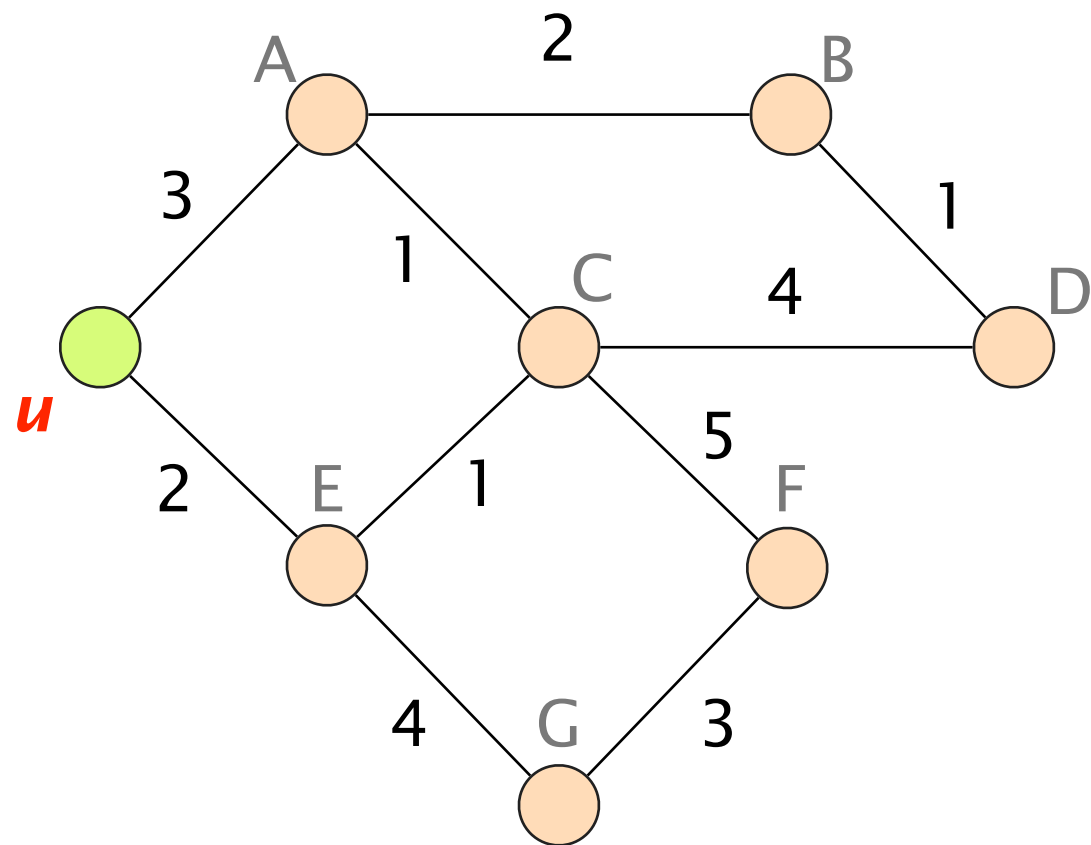
if (v is adjacent to u):

$$D(v) = c(u, v)$$

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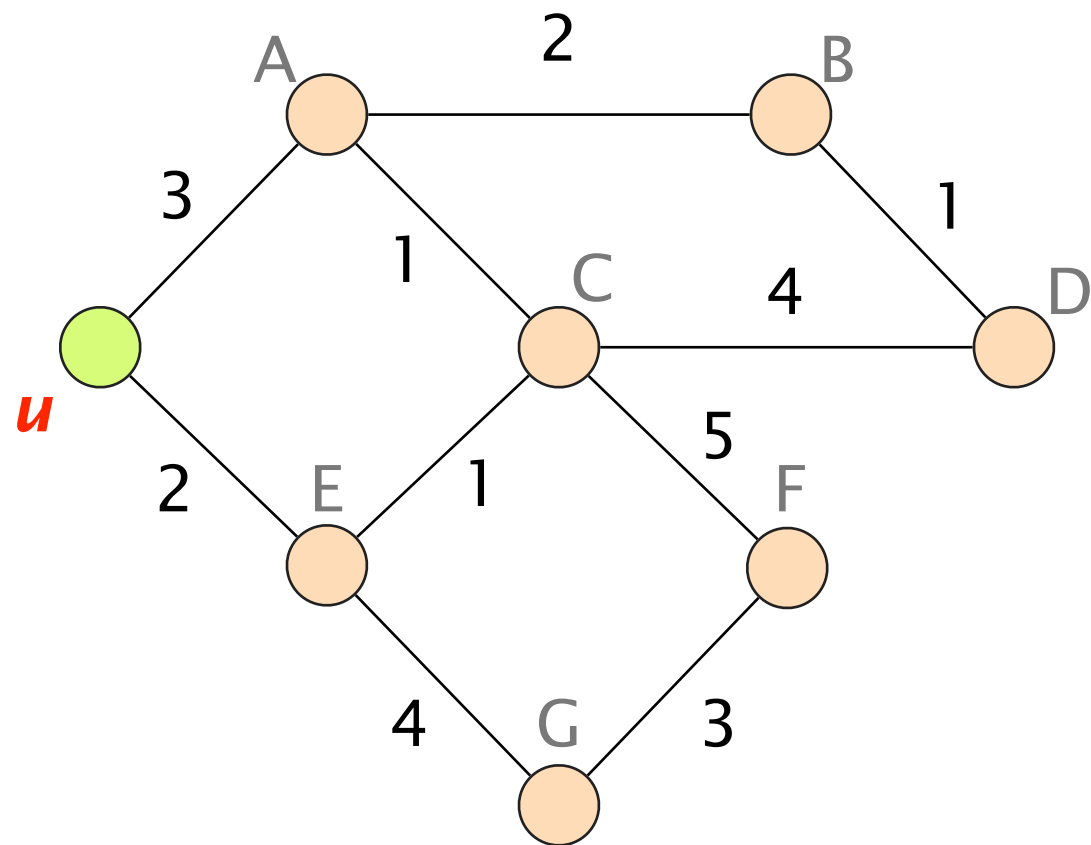
D is initialized based on u's weight,
and S only contains u itself



$D(.) =$

$S = \{u\}$

A	3
B	∞
C	∞
D	∞
E	2
F	∞
G	∞



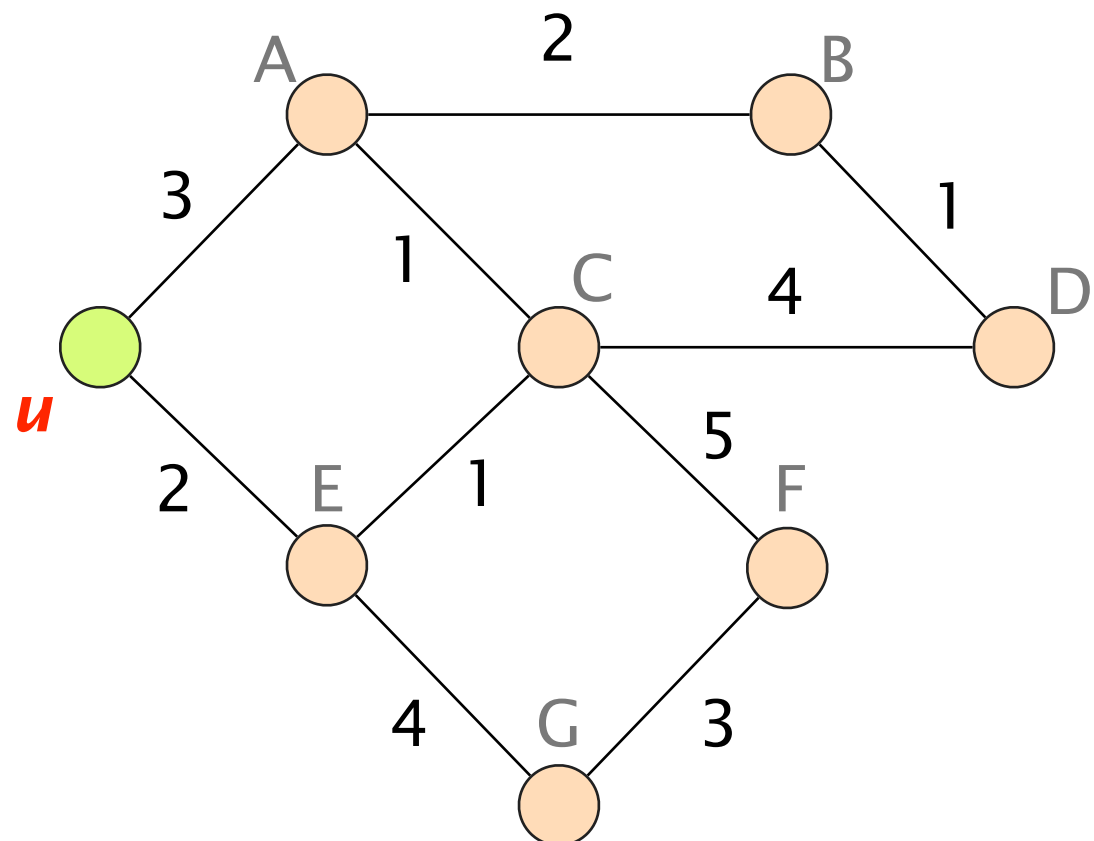
Loop

while *not* all nodes in S:

add w with the smallest $D(w)$ to S

update $D(v)$ for all adjacent v not in S:

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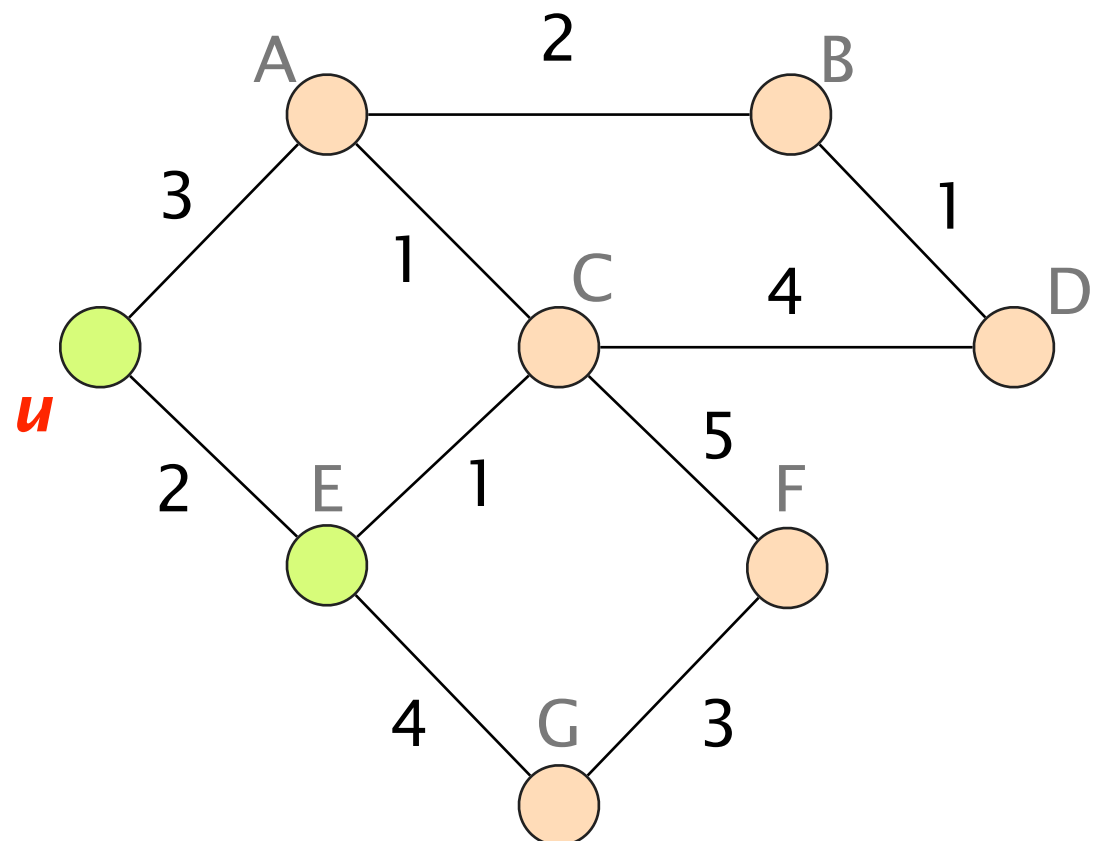


$D(.) =$

$S = \{u\}$

A	3
B	∞
C	∞
D	∞
E	2
F	∞
G	∞

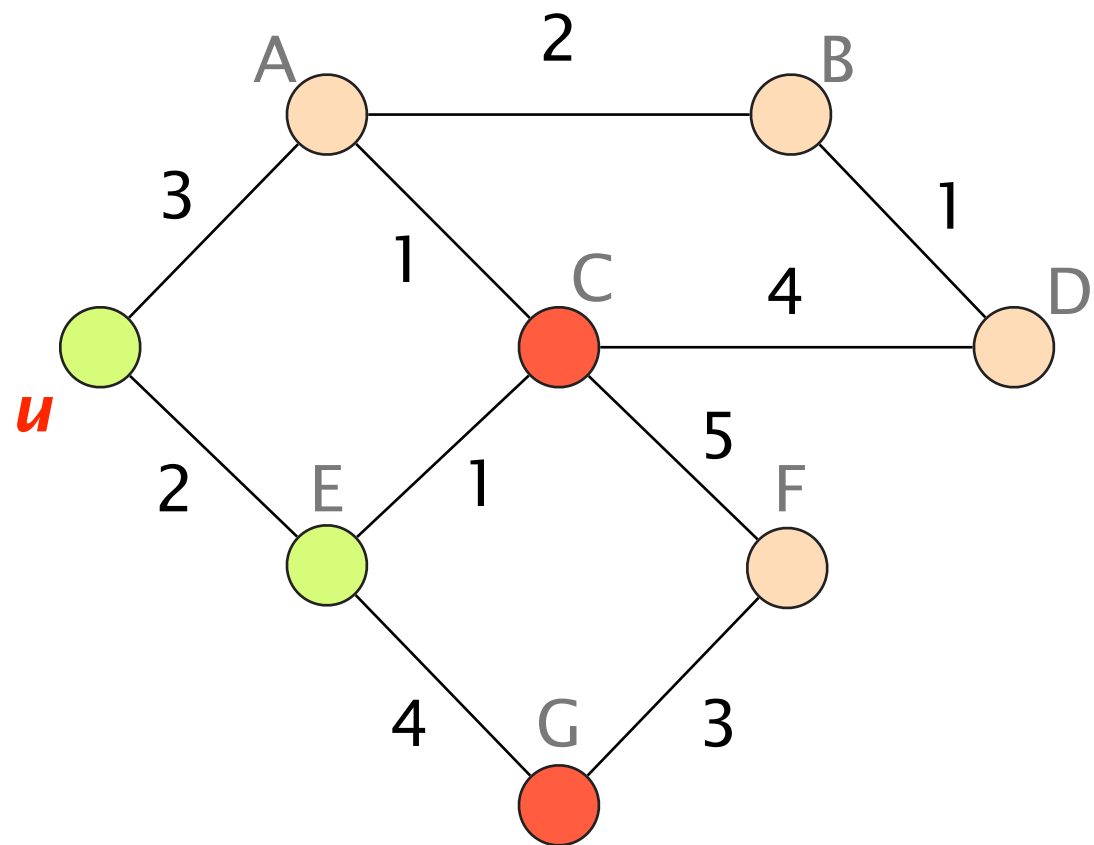
— smallest $D(w)$



$D(.) =$

A	3
B	∞
C	∞
D	∞
E	2
F	∞
G	∞

add E to S
 $S = \{u, E\}$



$D(.) =$

$S = \{u, E\}$

A 3

B ∞

C 3 — $D(v) = \min\{\infty, 2 + 1\}$

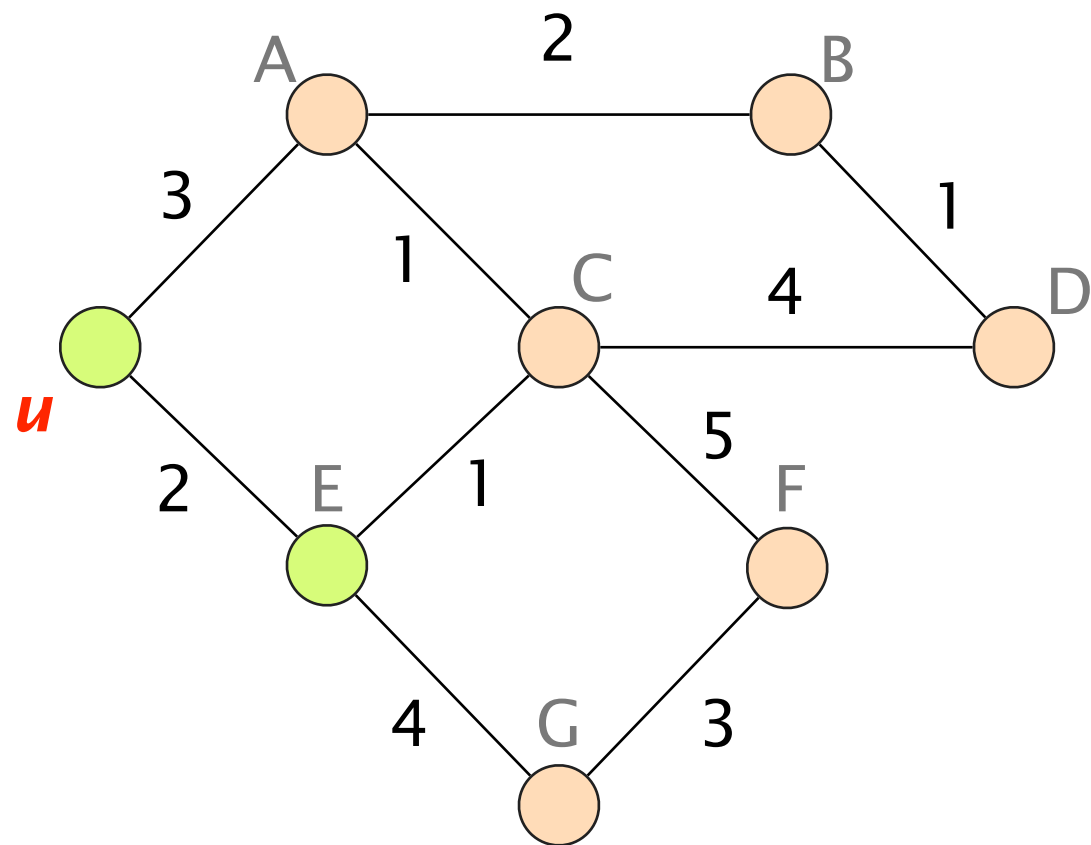
D ∞

E 2

F ∞

G 6 — $D(v) = \min\{\infty, 2 + 4\}$

Now, do it by yourself

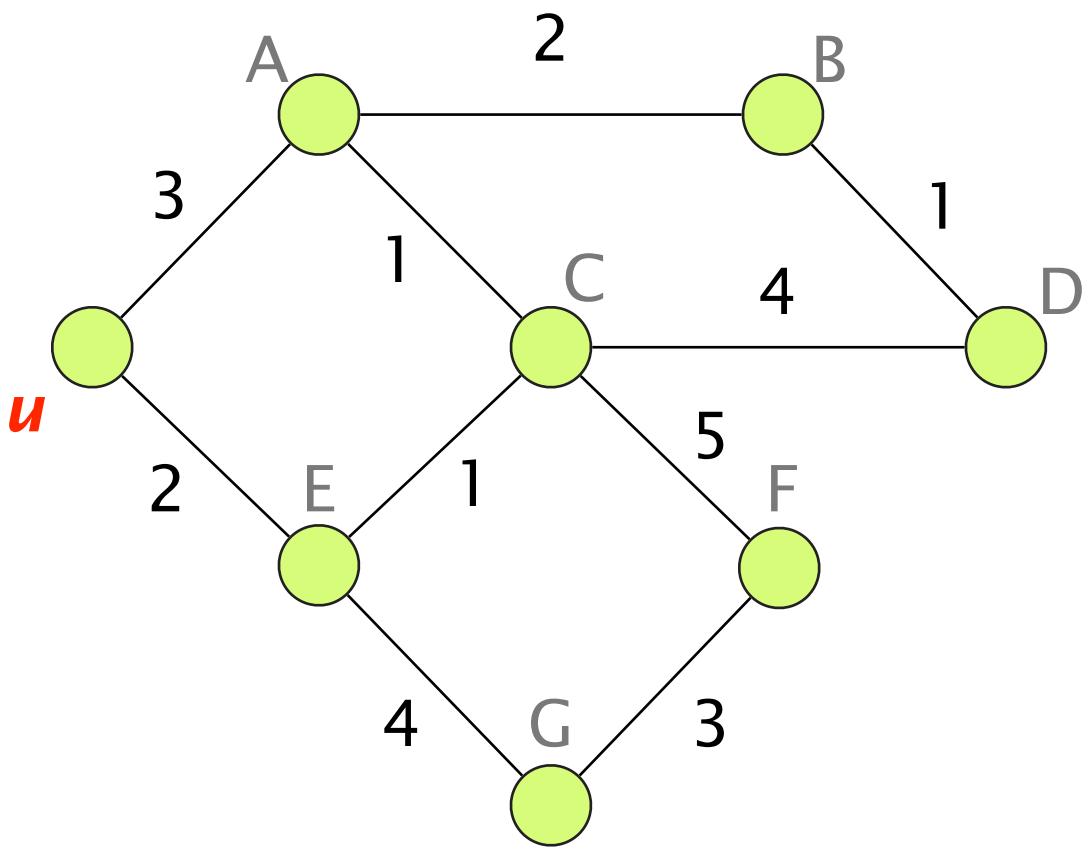


$D(.) =$

$S = \{u, E\}$

A	3
B	∞
C	3
D	∞
E	2
F	∞
G	6

Here is the final state



$D(.) =$

A	3
B	5
C	3
D	6
E	2
F	8
G	6

$S = \{u, A,$
B, C, D, E,
F, G}

This algorithm has a $O(n^2)$ complexity
where n is the number of nodes in the graph

iteration #1 search for minimum through n nodes

iteration #2 search for minimum through $n-1$ nodes

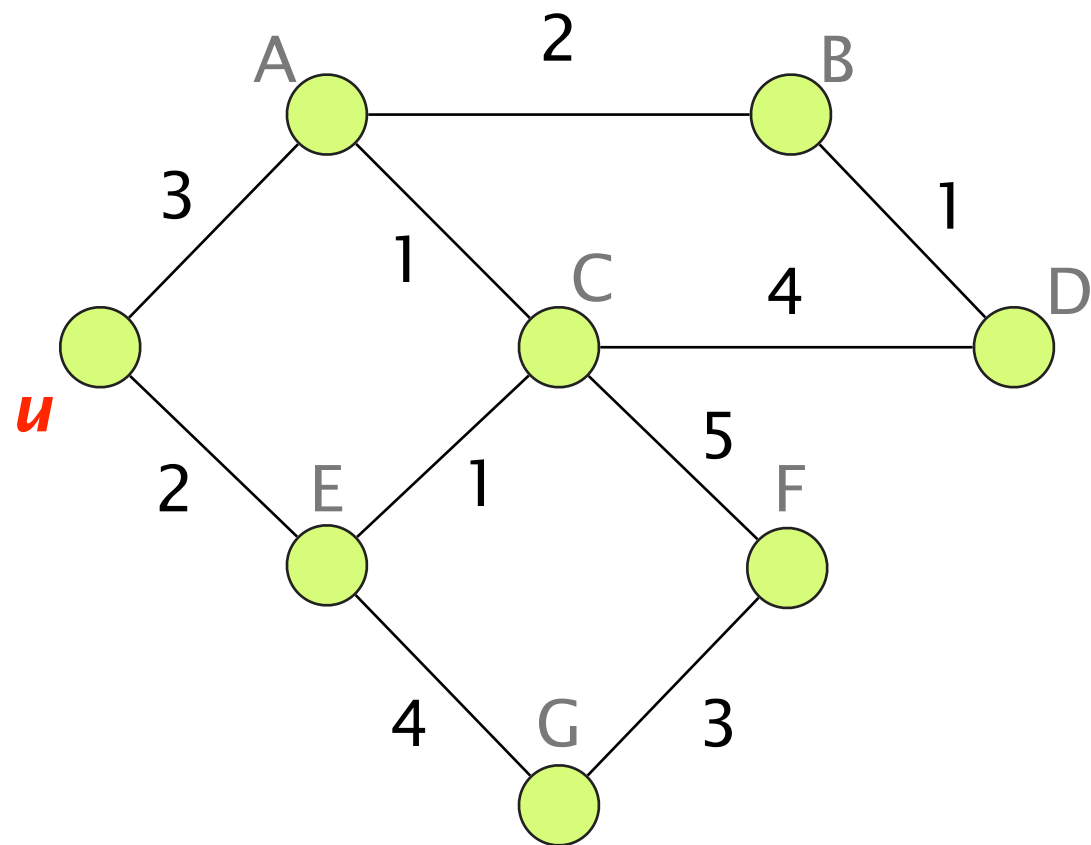
iteration n search for minimum through 1 node

$$\frac{n(n+1)}{2} \text{ operations } \Rightarrow O(n^2)$$

This algorithm has a $O(n^2)$ complexity
where n is the number of nodes in the graph

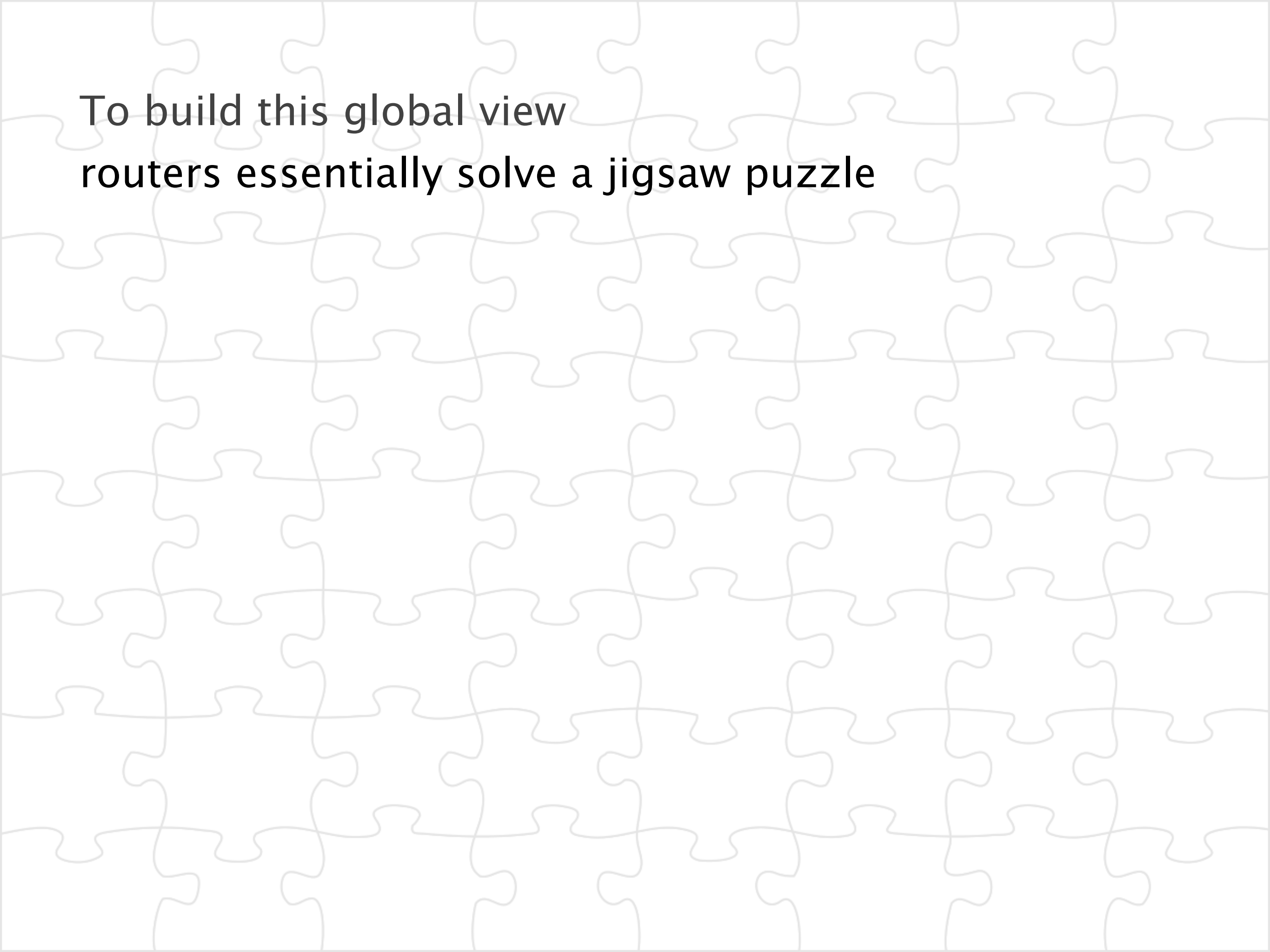
Better implementations rely on a heap
to find the next node to expand,
bringing down the complexity to $O(n \log n)$

From the shortest-paths,
 u can directly compute its forwarding table



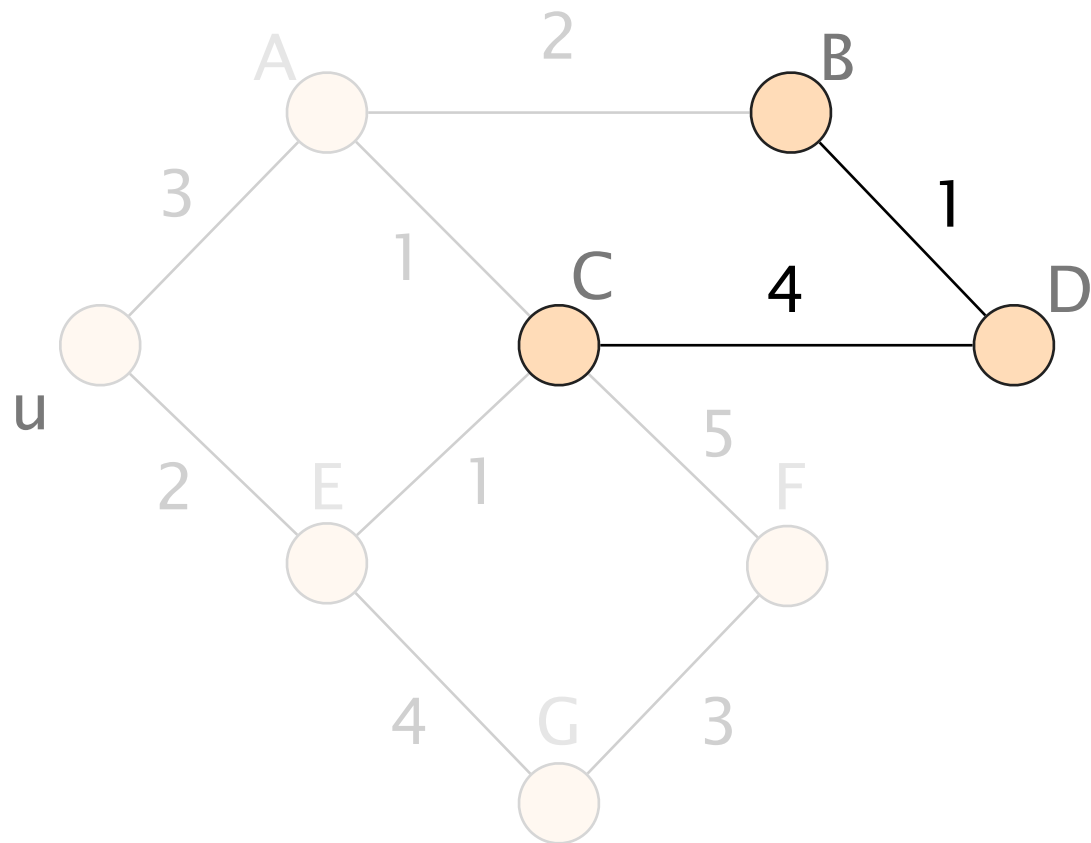
Forwarding table

<i>destination</i>	<i>next-hop</i>
A	A
B	A
C	E
D	A
E	E
F	E
G	E

The background of the slide is a repeating pattern of interlocking puzzle pieces. Each piece is a light gray color with a thin, darker gray outline. The pieces are arranged in a grid-like fashion, with some pieces having tabs and others having slots, creating a continuous jigsaw puzzle effect across the entire slide.

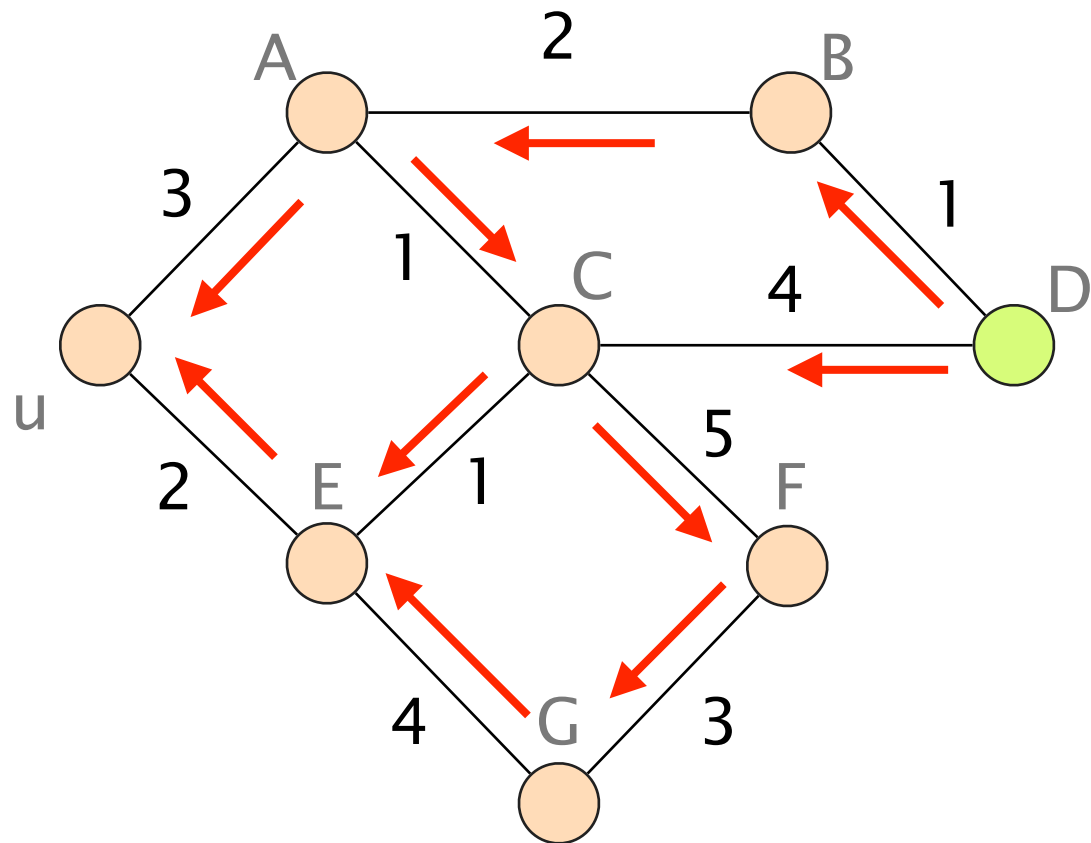
To build this global view
routers essentially solve a jigsaw puzzle

Initially,
routers only know their ID and their neighbors



D only knows,
it is connected to B and C
along with the weights to reach them
(by configuration)

Each routers builds a message (known as Link-State) and **floods it** (reliably) in the entire network



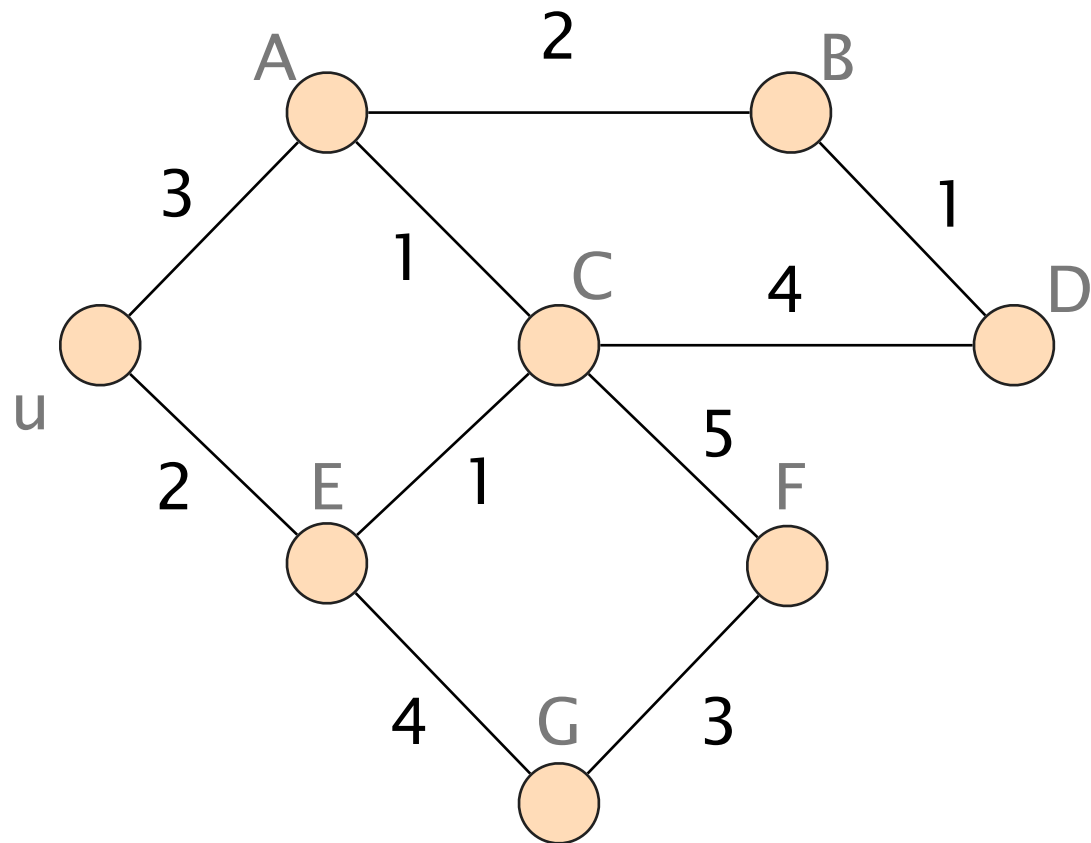
D's Advertisement

edge (D,B); cost: 1

edge (D,C); cost: 4

At the end of the flooding process,
everybody share the **exact same view of the network**

required for correctness
see exercise



Dijkstra will always converge to a unique stable state
when run on *static* weights

cf. exercise session
for the dynamic case

Essentially,
there are three ways to compute valid routing state

Use tree-like topologies

Spanning-tree

Rely on a global network view

Link-State

SDN

#3

Rely on distributed computation

Distance-Vector

BGP

Instead of locally compute paths based on the graph,
paths can be computed in a distributed fashion

Let $d_x(y)$ be the cost of the least-cost path
known by x to reach y

Let $d_x(y)$ be the cost of the least-cost path
known by x to reach y

Each node bundles these distances
into one message (called a vector)
that it **repeatedly** sends to all its neighbors

until convergence

Let $d_x(y)$ be the cost of the least-cost path known by x to reach y

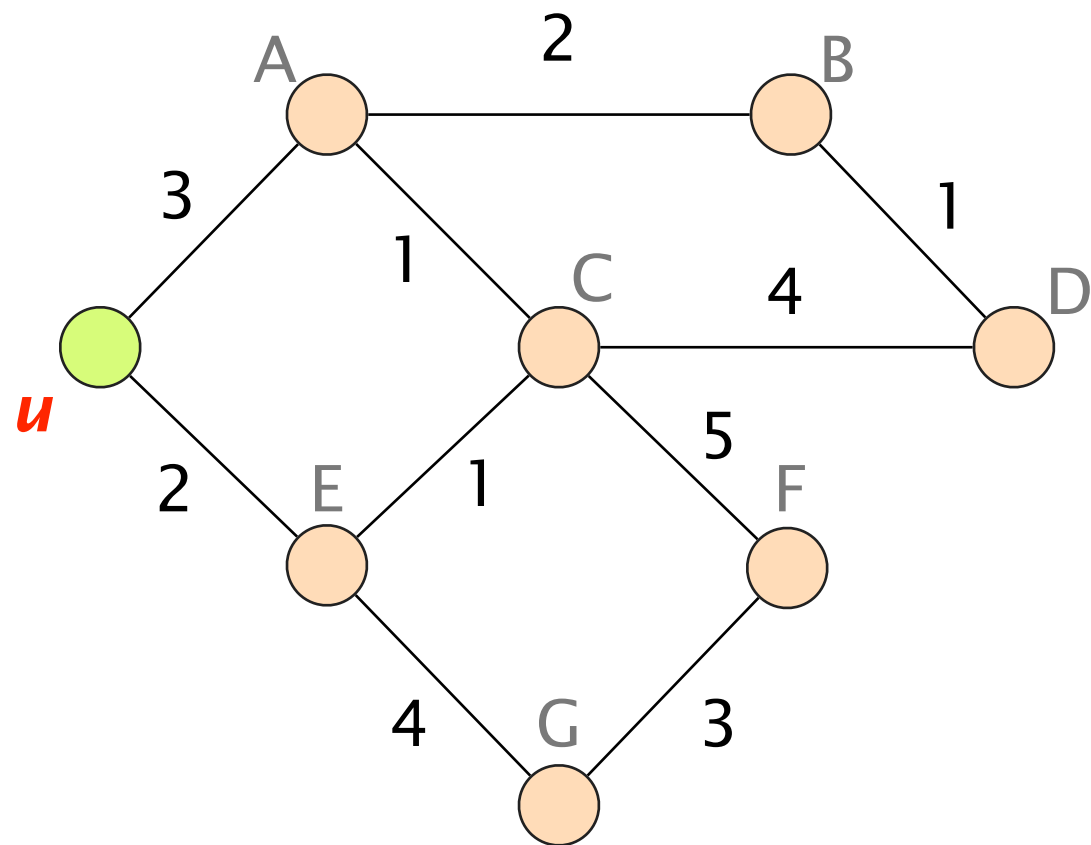
Each node bundles these distances into one message (called a vector) that it repeatedly sends to all its neighbors

until convergence

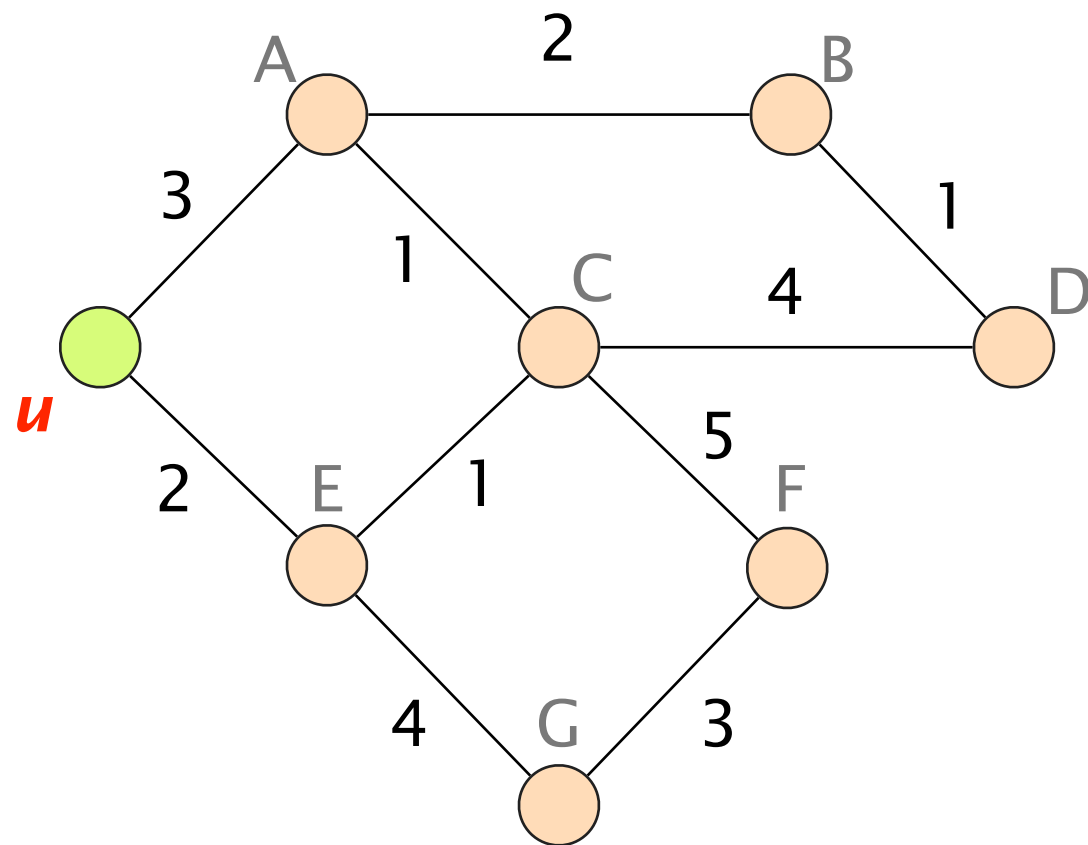
Each node updates its distances based on neighbors' vectors:

$$d_x(y) = \min\{ c(x,v) + d_v(y) \} \quad \text{over all neighbors } v$$

Let's compute the shortest-path
from u to D



The values computed by a node u depends on what it learns from its neighbors (A and E)



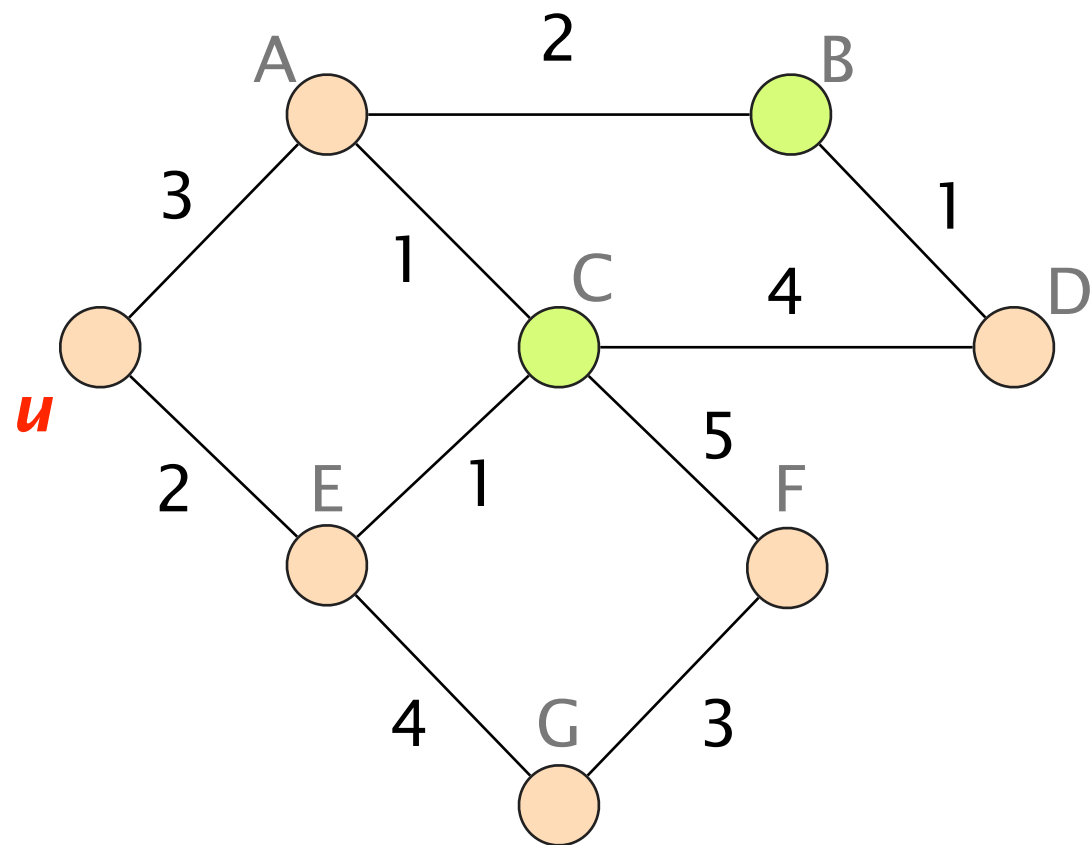
$$d_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{y}) = \min\{ c(x,v) + d_{\mathbf{v}}(\mathbf{y}) \}$$

over all neighbors v



$$d_{\mathbf{u}}(\mathbf{D}) = \min\{ c(u,A) + d_{\mathbf{A}}(\mathbf{D}), \\ c(u,E) + d_{\mathbf{E}}(\mathbf{D}) \}$$

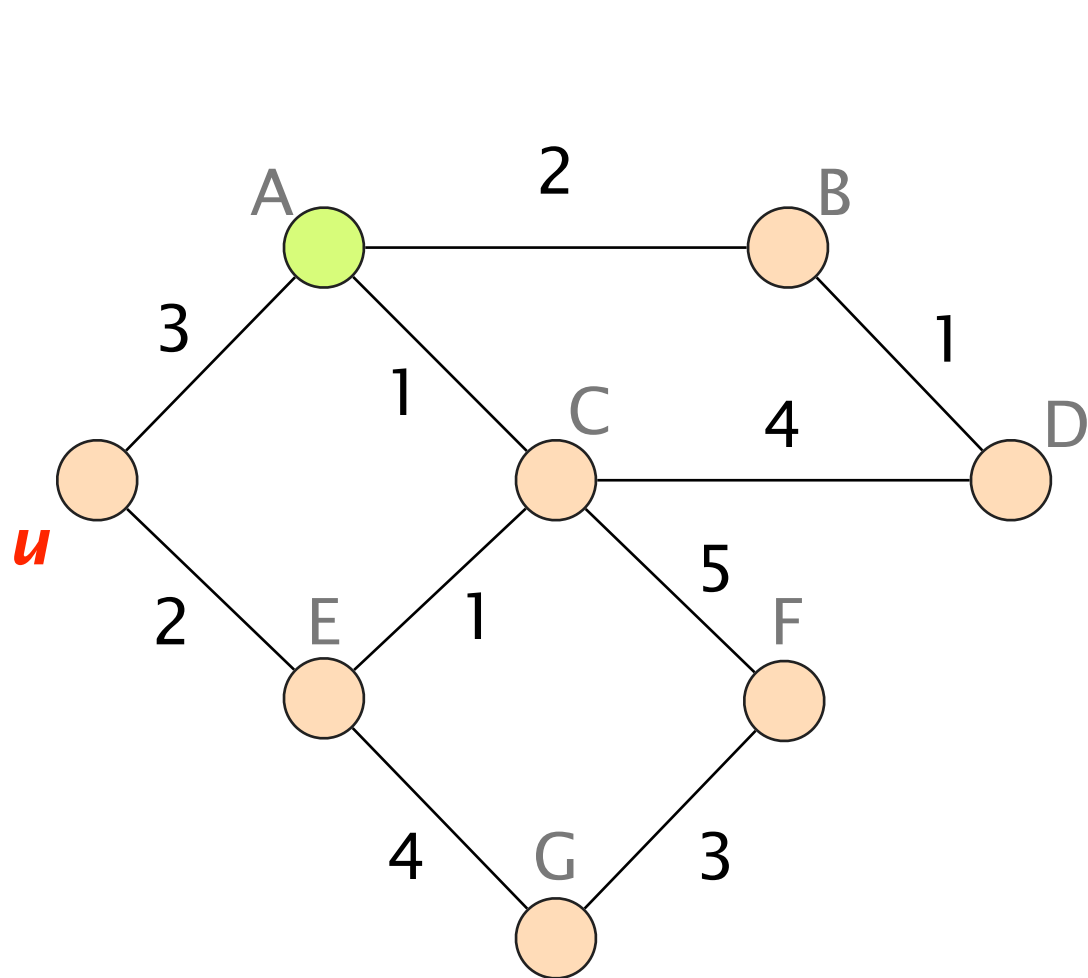
To unfold the recursion,
let's start with the direct neighbor of D



$$d_{\textcolor{red}{B}}(\textcolor{red}{D}) = 1$$

$$d_{\textcolor{red}{C}}(\textcolor{red}{D}) = 4$$

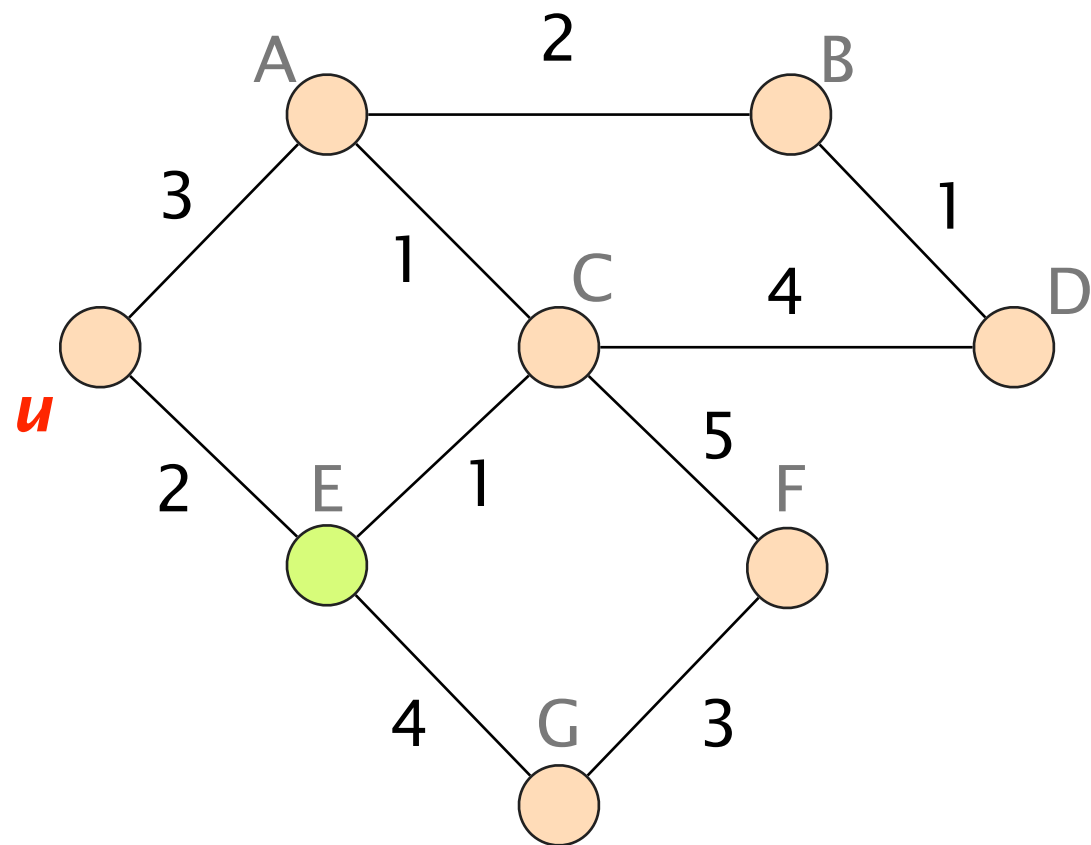
B and C announce their vector to their neighbors,
enabling A to compute its shortest-path



$$d_A(D) = \min \{ 2 + d_B(D), 1 + d_C(D) \}$$

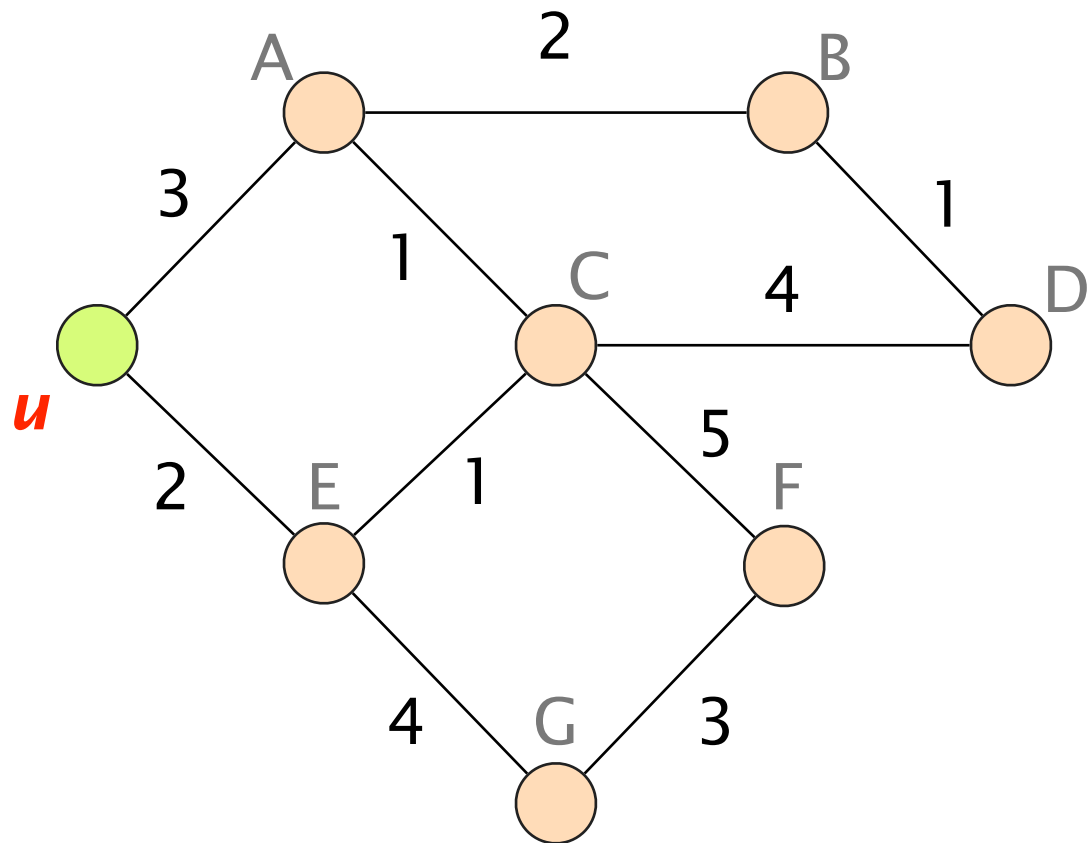
$$= 3$$

As soon as a distance vector changes,
each node propagates it to its neighbor



$$d_{\textcolor{red}{E}}(\textcolor{red}{D}) = \min \{ 1 + d_{\textcolor{red}{C}}(\textcolor{red}{D}), \\ 4 + d_{\textcolor{red}{G}}(\textcolor{red}{D}), \\ 2 + d_{\textcolor{red}{u}}(\textcolor{red}{D}) \} \\ = 5$$

Eventually, the process converges
to the shortest-path distance to each destination



$$d_u(D) = \min \{ 3 + d_A(D), \\ 2 + d_E(D) \}$$

$$= 6$$

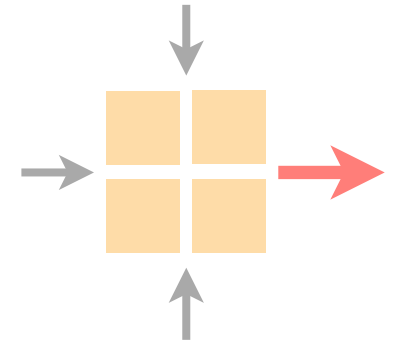
As before, u can directly infer its forwarding table by directing the traffic to the **best neighbor**

the one which advertised the smallest cost

Evaluating the complexity of DV is harder,
we'll get back to that in a couple of weeks

Communication Networks

Part 2: Concepts

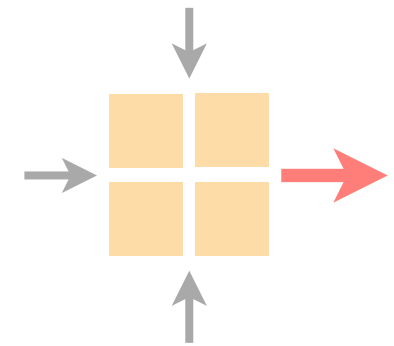


routing

reliable
delivery

Communication Networks

Part 2: Concepts



routing

reliable
delivery

How do you ensure reliable transport
on top of best-effort delivery?

In the Internet, reliability is ensured by the end hosts, **not** by the network

The Internet puts reliability in L4, just above the Network layer

goals

Keep the network simple, dumb

make it relatively “easy” to build and operate a network

Keep applications as network “unaware” as possible

a developer should focus on its app, not on the network

design

Implement reliability in-between, in the networking stack

relieve the burden from both the app and the network

The Internet puts **reliability in L4**,
just above the Network layer

layer

Application

L4 Transport **reliable** end-to-end delivery

L3 Network global best-effort delivery

Link

Physical

Recall that the Network provides a **best-effort** service,
with quite poor guarantees

layer

Application

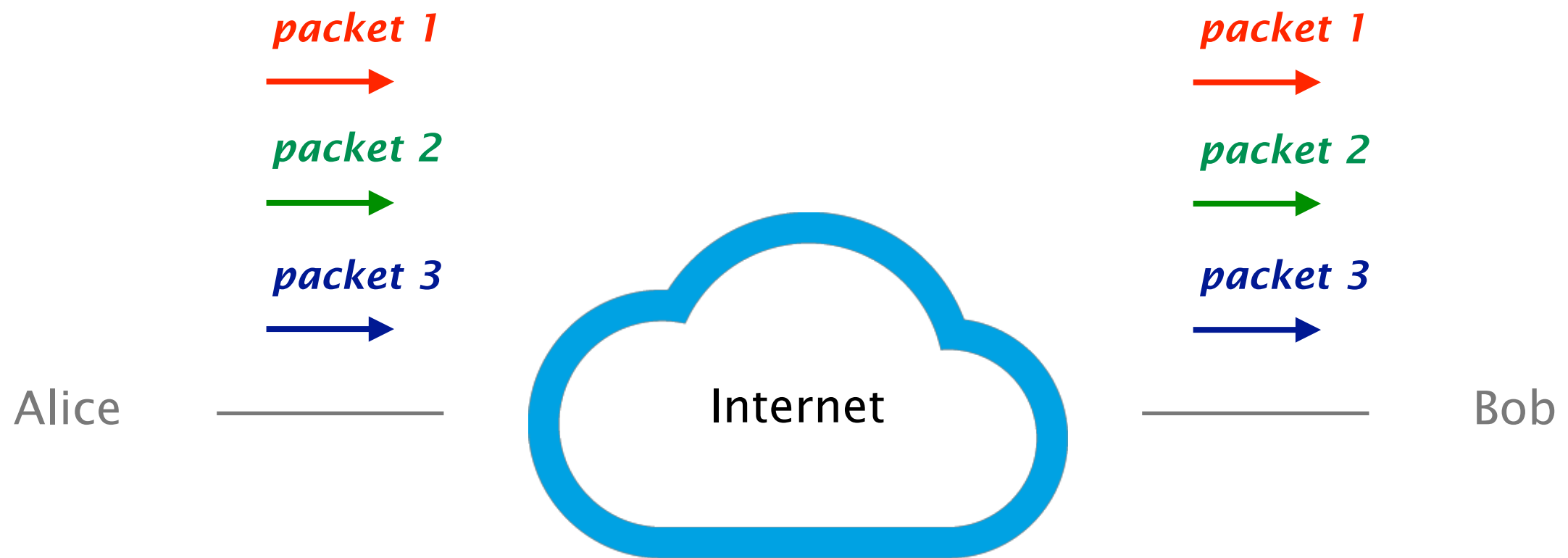
L4 Transport reliable end-to-end delivery

L3 Network global **best-effort** delivery

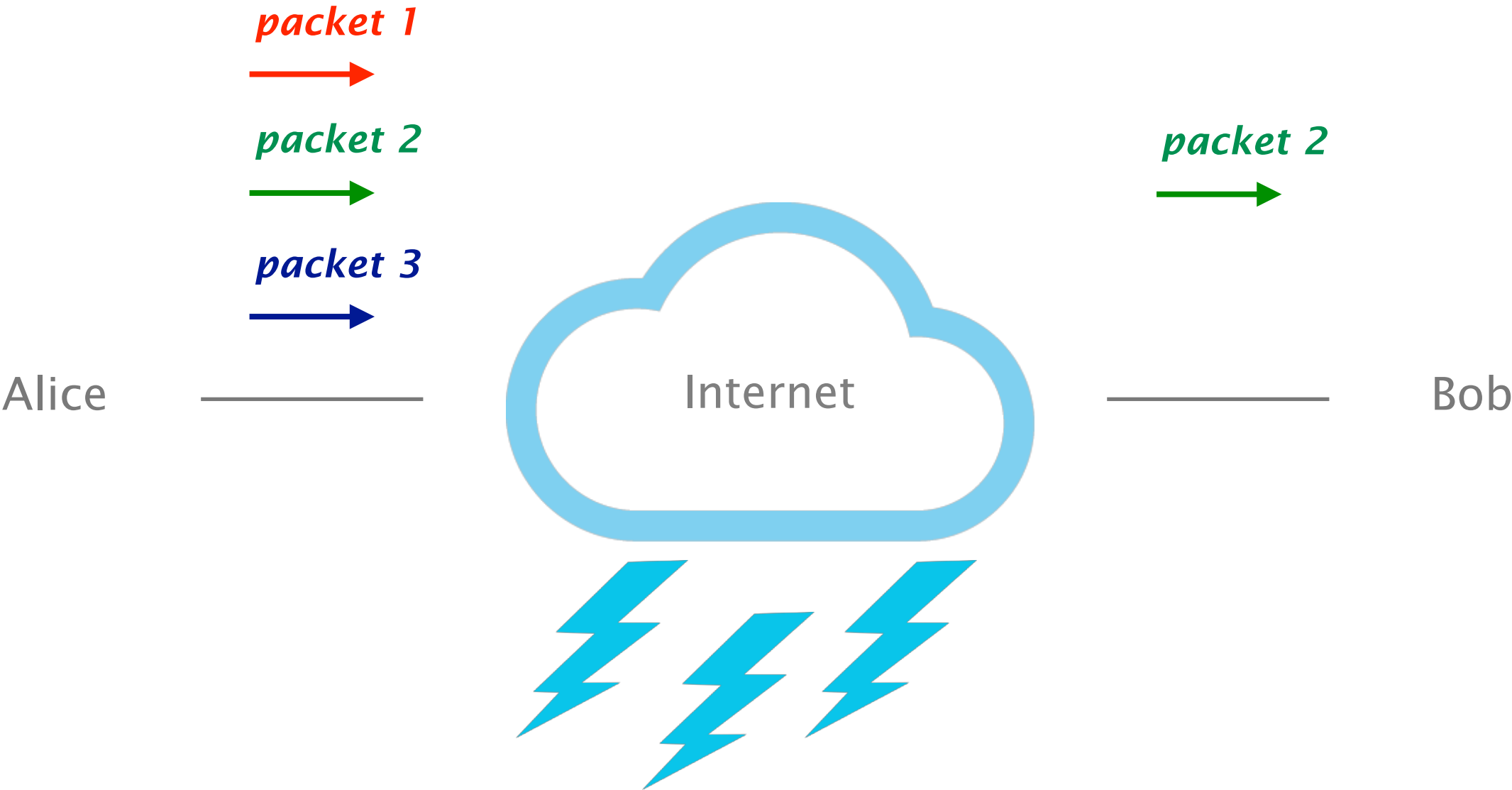
Link

Physical

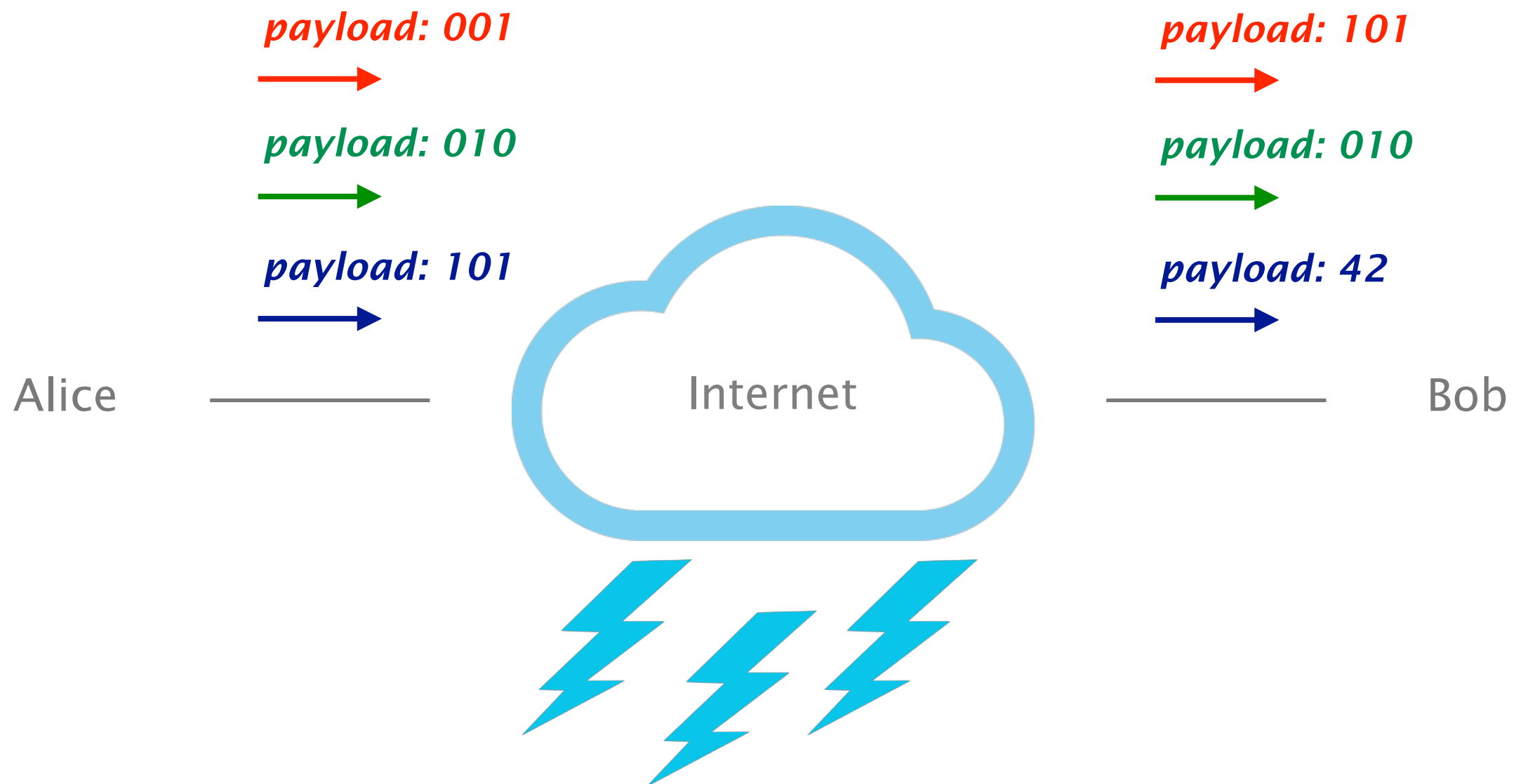
Let's consider a simple communication between two end-points, Alice and Bob



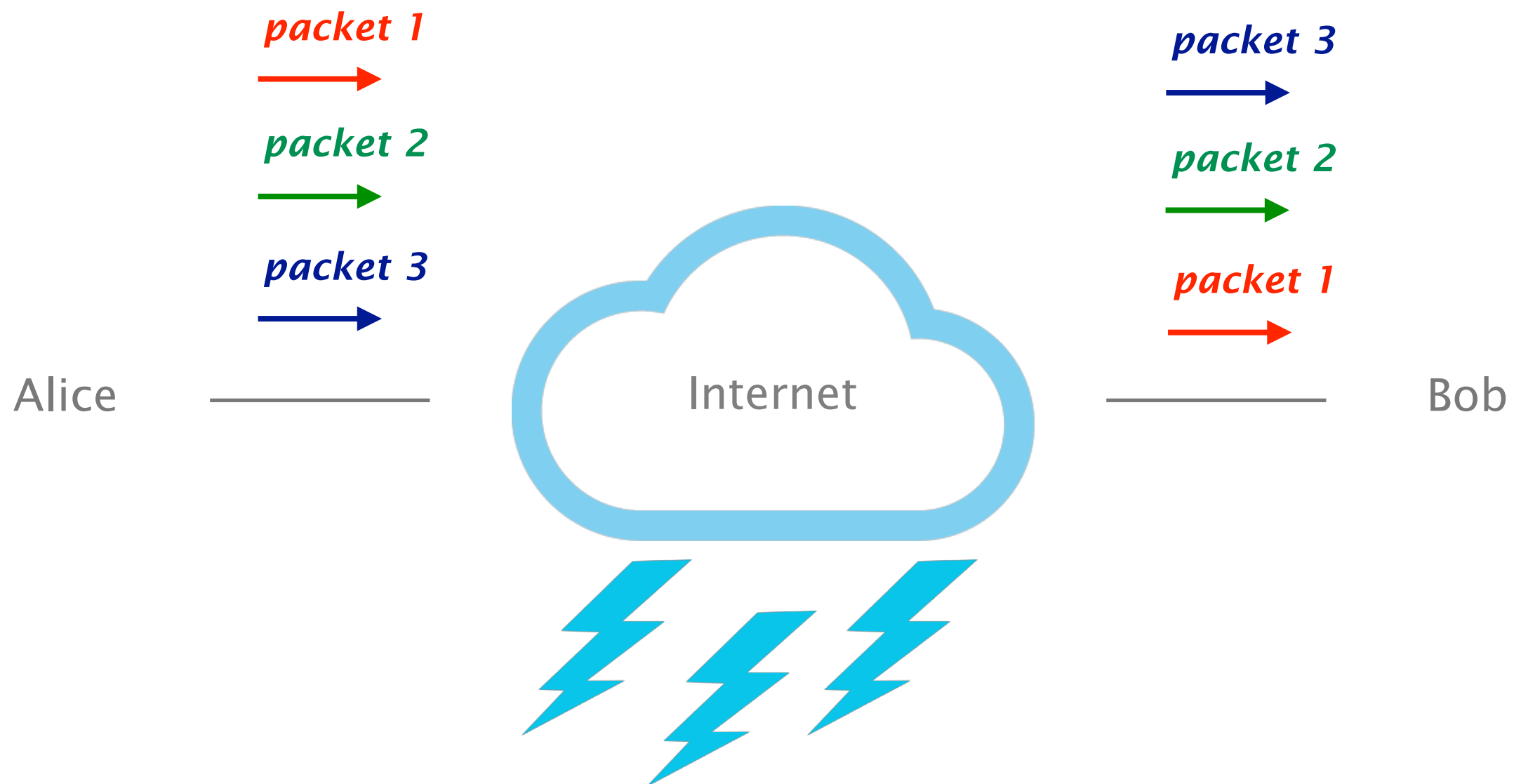
IP packets can get lost or delayed



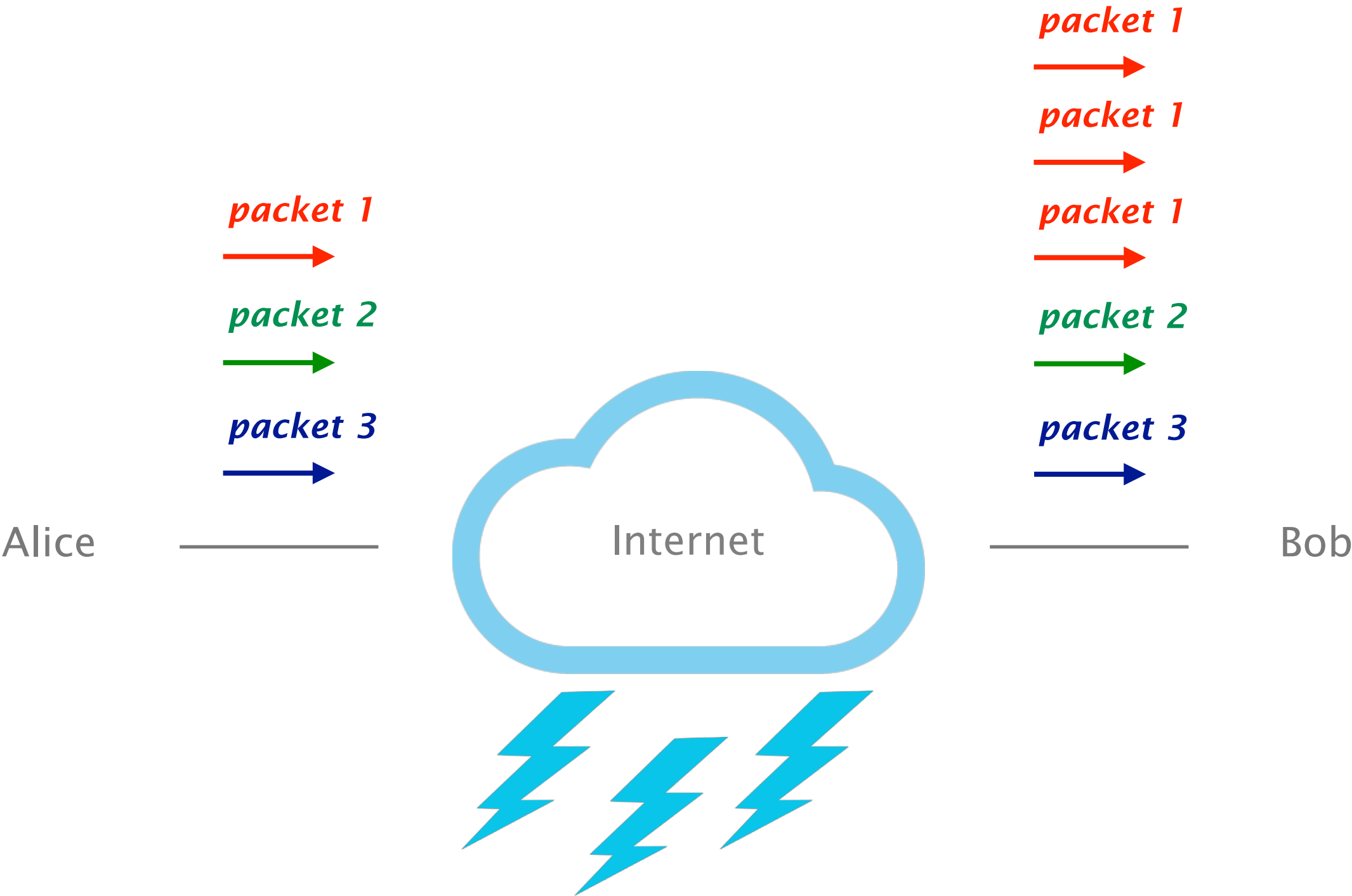
IP packets can get corrupted



IP packets can get reordered



IP packets can get duplicated



Reliable Transport



- 1 **Correctness condition**
if-and-only if again
- 2 **Design space**
timeliness vs efficiency vs ...
- 3 **Examples**
Go-Back-N & Selective Repeat

Reliable Transport



- 1 **Correctness condition**
if-and-only if again

Design space

timeliness vs efficiency vs ...

Examples

Go-Back-N & Selective Repeat

The four goals of reliable transfer

goals

correctness ensure data is delivered, in order, and untouched

timeliness minimize time until data is transferred

efficiency optimal use of bandwidth

fairness play well with concurrent communications

goals

correctness

ensure data is delivered, in order, and untouched

Routing had a clean sufficient and necessary correctness condition

sufficient and necessary condition

Theorem

a global forwarding state is valid if and only if

- there are no dead ends
no outgoing port defined in the table
- there are no loops
packets going around the same set of nodes

We need the same kind of “if and only if” condition
for a “correct” reliable transport design

A reliable transport design is correct if...

attempt #1

packets are delivered to the receiver

Wrong

Consider that the network is partitioned

We cannot say a transport design is *incorrect*
if it doesn't work in a partitioned network...

A reliable transport design is correct if...

attempt #2

packets are delivered to receiver if and only if
it was possible to deliver them

Wrong

If the network is only available one instant in time,
only an oracle would know when to send

We cannot say a transport design is *incorrect*
if it doesn't know the unknowable

A reliable transport design is correct if...

attempt #3

It resends a packet if and only if
the previous packet was lost or corrupted

Wrong

Consider two cases

- packet **made it** to the receiver and
all packets from receiver were dropped
- packet **is dropped** on the way and
all packets from receiver were dropped

A reliable transport design is correct if...

attempt #3

It resends a packet if and only if
the previous packet was lost or corrupted

Wrong

In both case, the sender has no feedback at all

Does it resend or not?

A reliable transport design is correct if...

attempt #3

It resends a packet if and only if
the previous packet was lost or corrupted

Wrong

but better as it refers to what the design does (which it can control),
not whether it always succeeds (which it can't)

A reliable transport design is correct if...

attempt #4

A packet is **always resent** if
the previous packet was lost or corrupted

A packet **may be resent** at other times

Correct!

A transport mechanism is correct
if and only if it resends all dropped or corrupted packets

Sufficient
“if”

algorithm will always keep trying
to deliver undelivered packets

Necessary
“only if”

if it ever let a packet go undelivered
without resending it, it isn't reliable

Note

it is ok to give up after a while but
must announce it to the application

Reliable Transport



Correctness condition
if-and-only if again

2

Design space

timeliness vs efficiency vs ...

Examples

Go-Back-N & Selective Repeat

Now, that we have a correctness condition
how do we achieve it and with what tradeoffs?

Design a *correct, timely, efficient* and *fair* transport mechanism
knowing that

packets can get **lost**
corrupted
reordered
delayed
duplicated

let's focus on these aspects first

Alice

```
for word in list:
    send_packet(word);
    set_timer();

    upon timer going off:
        if no ACK received:
            send_packet(word);
            reset_timer();

        upon ACK:
            pass;
```

Bob

```
receive_packet(p);
if check(p.payload) == p.checksum:
    send_ack();

    if word not delivered:
        deliver_word(word);
else:
    pass;
```

There is a clear tradeoff between timeliness and efficiency in the selection of the timeout value

```
for word in list:
    send_packet(word);
    set_timer();

    upon timer going off:
        if no ACK received:
            send_packet(word);
            reset_timer();

    upon ACK:
        pass
```

```
receive_packet(p);
if check(p.payload) == p.checksum:
    send_ack();

    if word not delivered:
        deliver_word(word);
else:
    pass;
```

Timeliness argues for small timers, efficiency for large ones

timeliness

small
timers

risk

unnecessary retransmissions

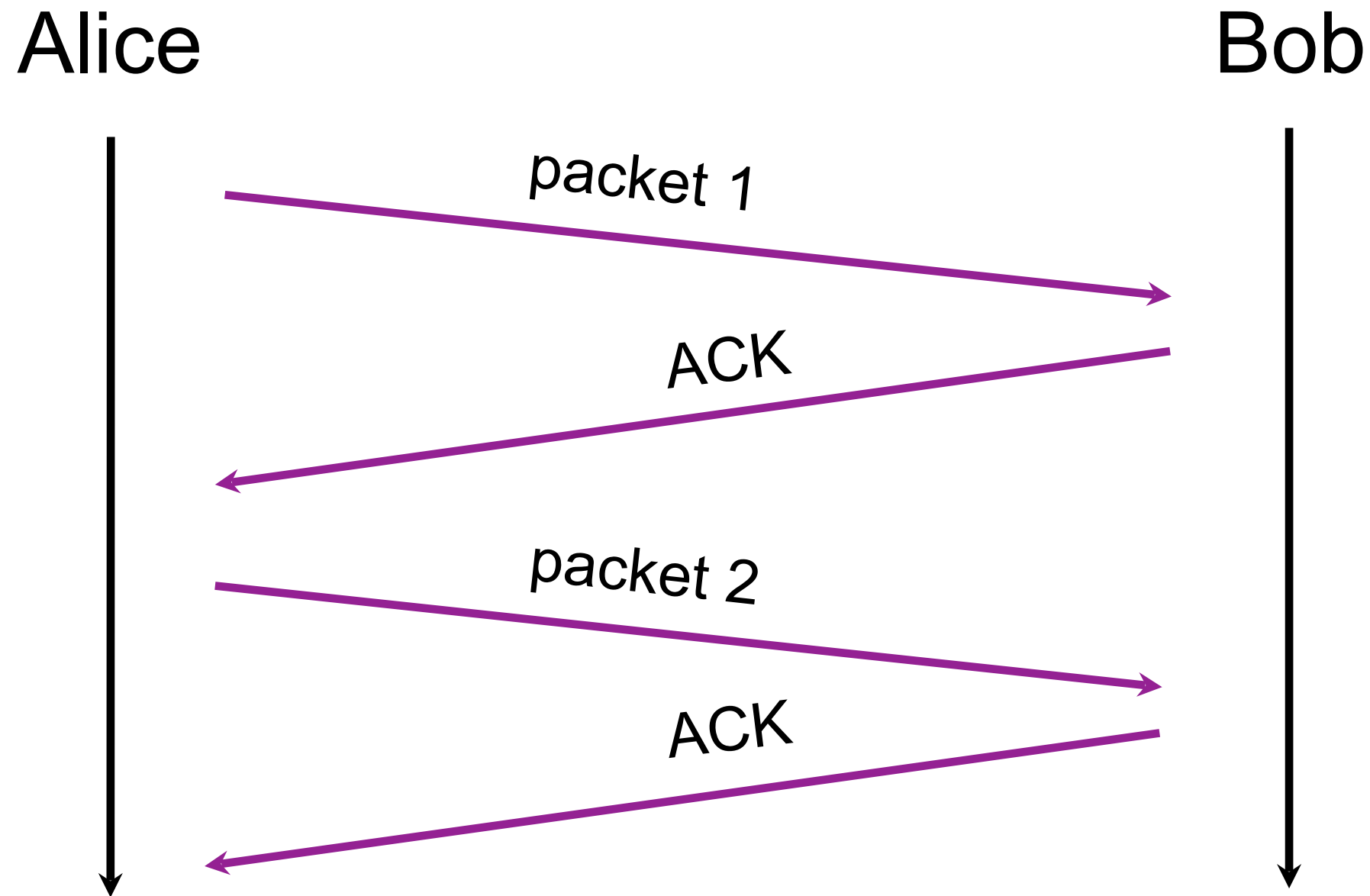
efficiency

large
timers

risk

slow transmission

Even with short timers, the timeliness of our protocol is extremely poor: one packet per Round-Trip Time (RTT)



An obvious solution to improve timeliness is to send multiple packets at the same time

approach

add sequence number inside each packet

add buffers to the sender and receiver

sender

store packets sent & not acknowledged

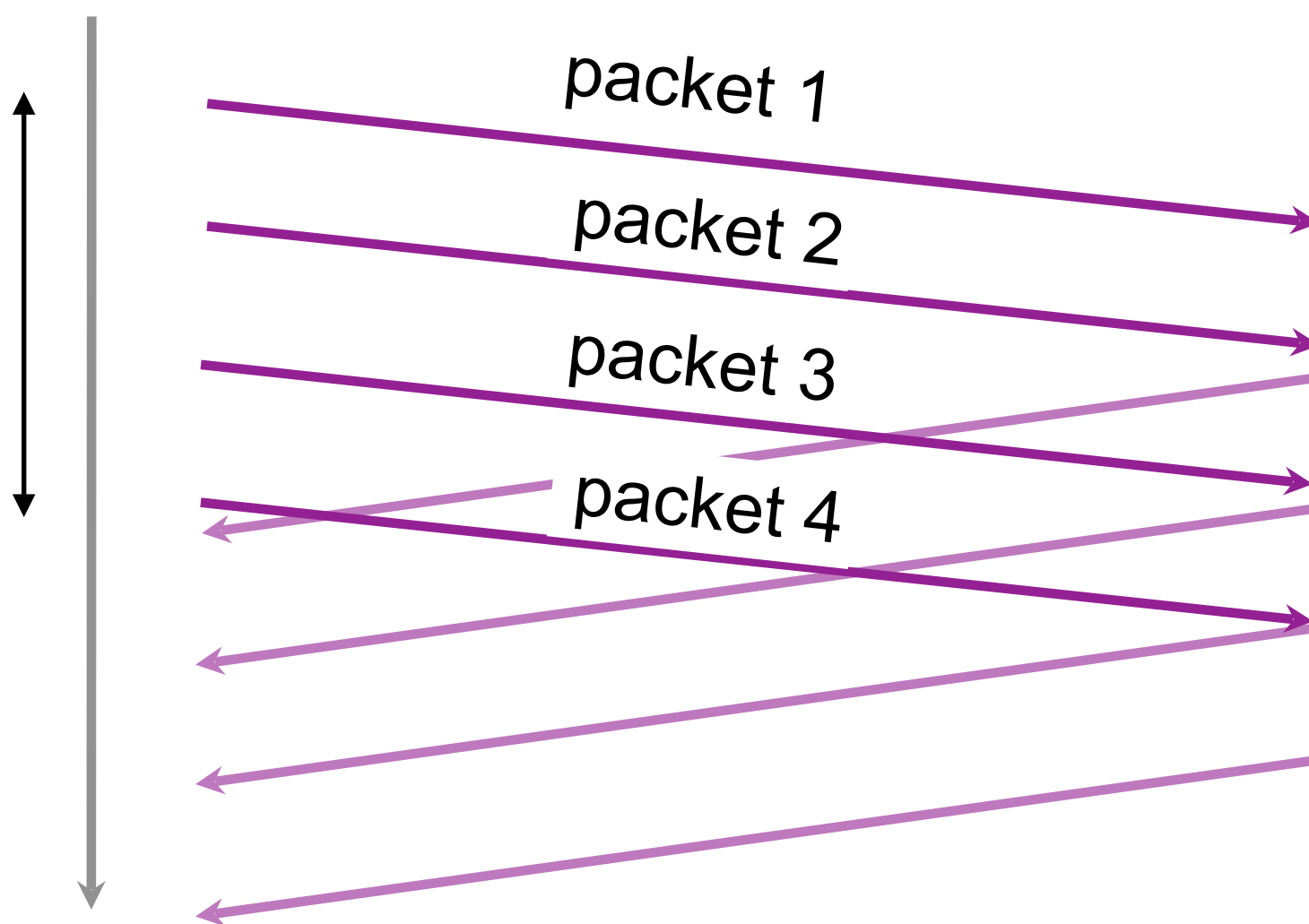
receiver

store out-of-sequence packets received

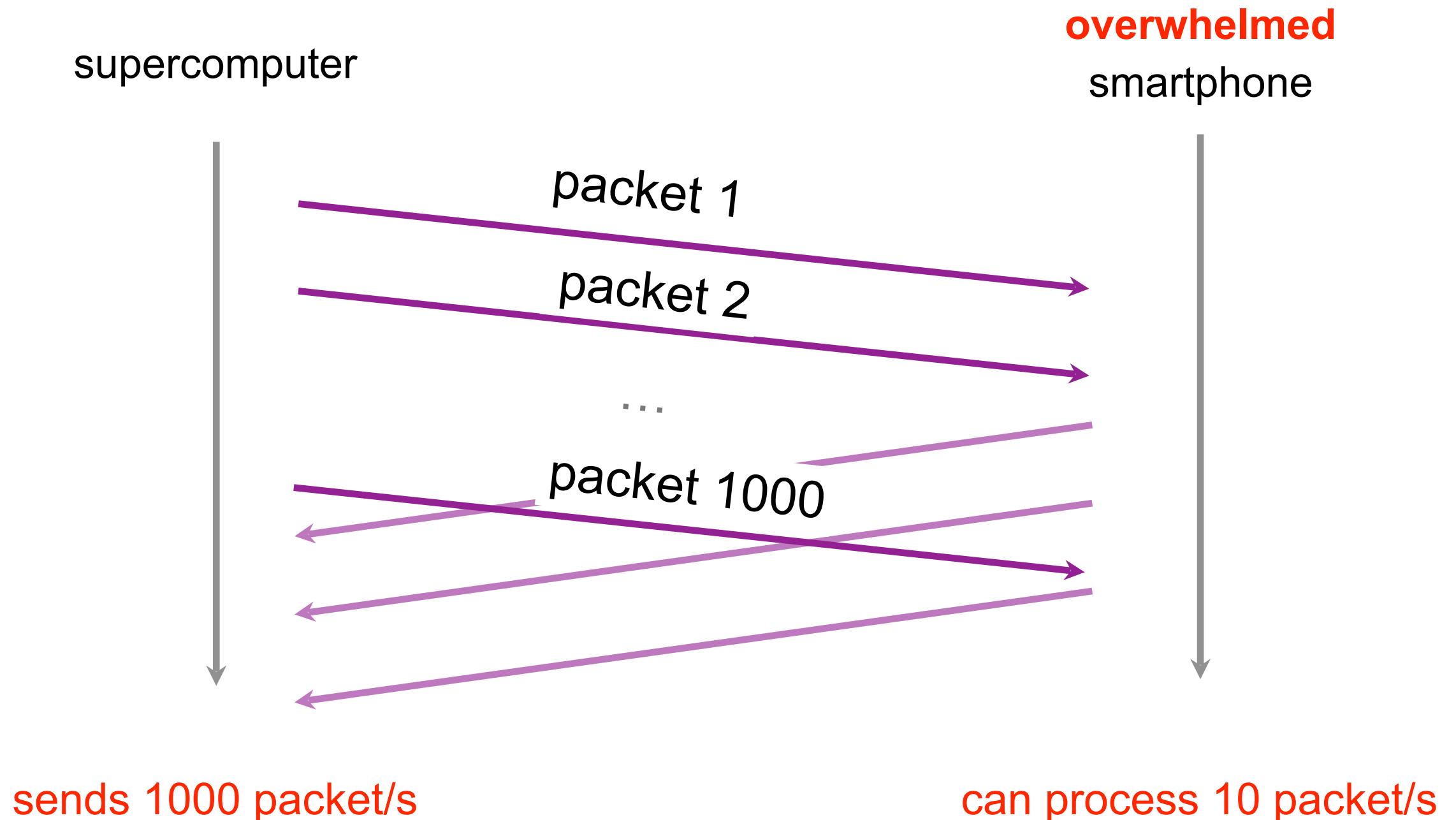
Alice

Bob

4 packets
sent w/o
ACKs



Sending multiple packets improves timeliness,
but it can also overwhelm the receiver



To solve this issue,
we need a mechanism for **flow control**

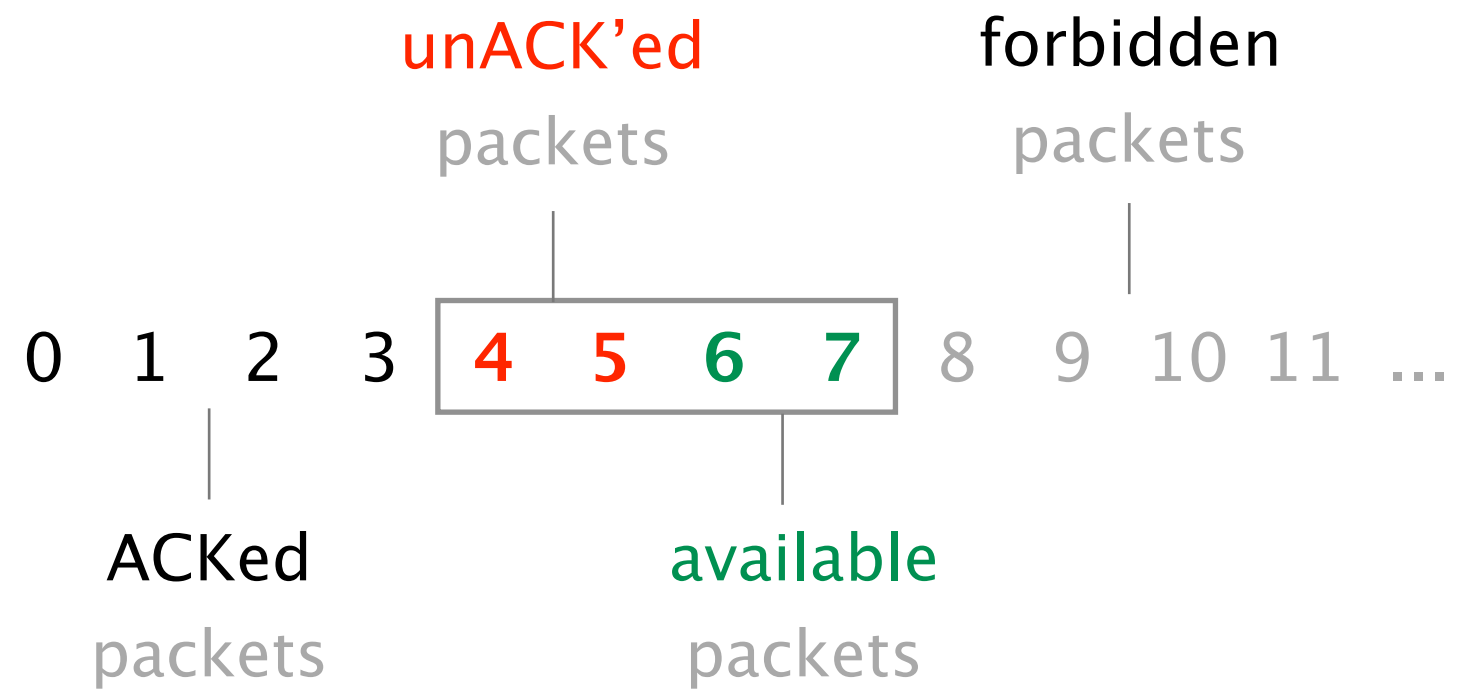
Using a sliding window is one way to do that

Sender keeps a list of the sequence # it can send
known as the *sending window*

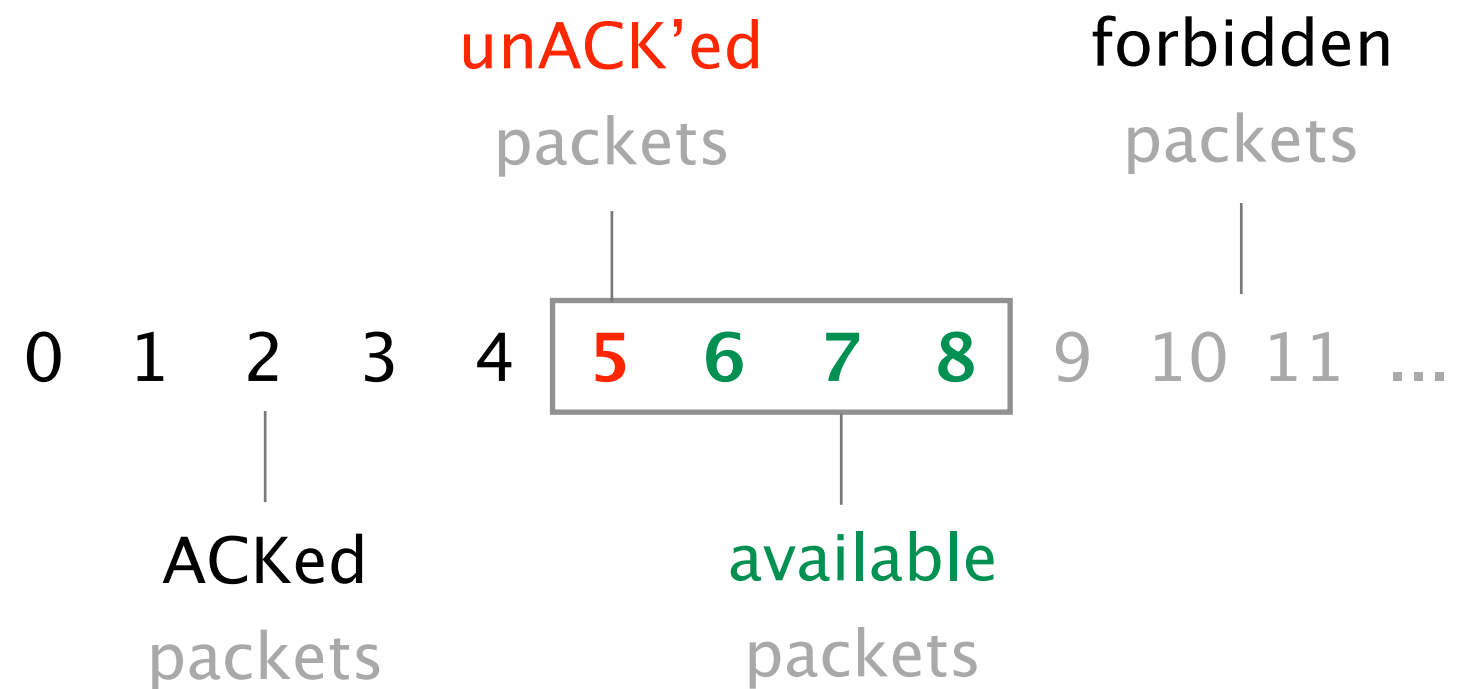
Receiver also keeps a list of the acceptable sequence #
known as the *receiving window*

Sender and receiver negotiate the window size
 $\textit{sending window} \leq \textit{receiving window}$

Example with a window composed of 4 packets



Window after sender receives **ACK 4**



Timeliness of the window protocol depends on
the size of the sending window

Assuming infinite buffers,
how big should the window be to maximize timeliness?

Alice

Bob

100 Mbps, 5 ms (one-way)

What should be the value of W ?

(in bytes)

Timeliness matters,
but what about **efficiency**?

The efficiency of our protocol
essentially depends on two factors

receiver
feedback

How much information
does the sender get?

behavior
upon losses

How does the sender
detect and react to losses?

The efficiency of our protocol
essentially depends on two factors

receiver
feedback

behavior
upon losses

How much information
does the sender get?

ACKing individual packets provides detailed feedback,
but triggers unnecessary retransmission upon losses

advantages

know fate of each packet

simple window algorithm

W single-packet algorithms

not sensitive to reordering

disadvantages

loss of an ACK packet
requires a retransmission

causes unnecessary retransmission

Cumulative ACKs enables to recover from lost ACKs,
but provides coarse-grained information to the sender

approach

ACK the highest sequence number for which
all the previous packets have been received

advantages

recover from lost ACKs

disadvantages

confused by reordering

incomplete information about which packets have arrived

causes unnecessary retransmission

Full Information Feedback prevents unnecessary retransmission, but can induce a sizable overhead

approach	List all packets that have been received highest cumulative ACK, plus any additional packets
advantages	complete information resilient form of individual ACKs
disadvantages	overhead (hence lowering efficiency) <i>e.g.</i> , when large gaps between received packets

We see that Internet design is
all about balancing tradeoffs (again)

The efficiency of our protocol
essentially depends on two factors

receiver
feedback

behavior
upon losses

How does the sender
detect and react to losses?

As of now, we detect loss by using timers.
That's only one way though

Losses can also be detected by relying on ACKs

With individual ACKs,
missing packets (gaps) are implicit

Assume packet 5 is lost
but no other

ACK stream

1

2

3

4

6

7

...

sender can infer that 5 is missing
and resend 5 after k subsequent packets

With full information,
missing packets (gaps) are explicit

Assume packet 5 is lost
but no other

ACK stream

up to 1

up to 2

up to 3

up to 4

up to 4, plus 6

up to 4, plus 6—7

...

sender learns that 5 is missing
retransmits after k packets

With cumulative ACKs,
missing packets are harder to know

Assume packet 5 is lost
but no other

ACK stream

1

2

3

4

4 sent when 6 arrives

4 sent when 7 arrives

...

Duplicated ACKs are a sign of isolated losses.
Dealing with them is trickier though.

situation

Lack of ACK progress means that 5 hasn't made it

Stream of ACKs means that (some) packets are delivered

Sender could trigger **resend**
upon receiving k duplicates ACKs

but *what* do you resend?

only 5 or 5 and everything after?

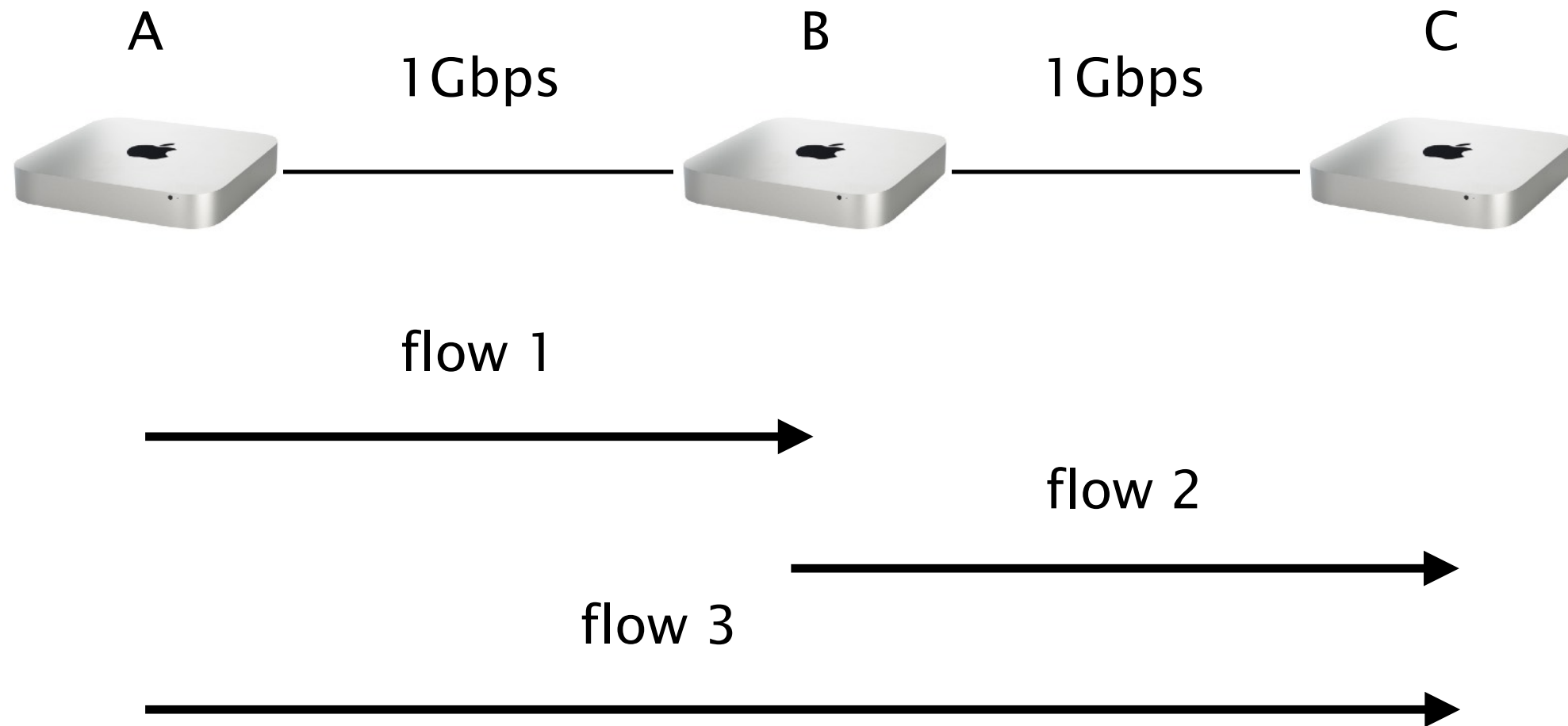
What about fairness?

Design a *correct, timely, efficient* and *fair* transport mechanism
knowing that

packets can get lost
 corrupted
 reordered
 delayed
 duplicated

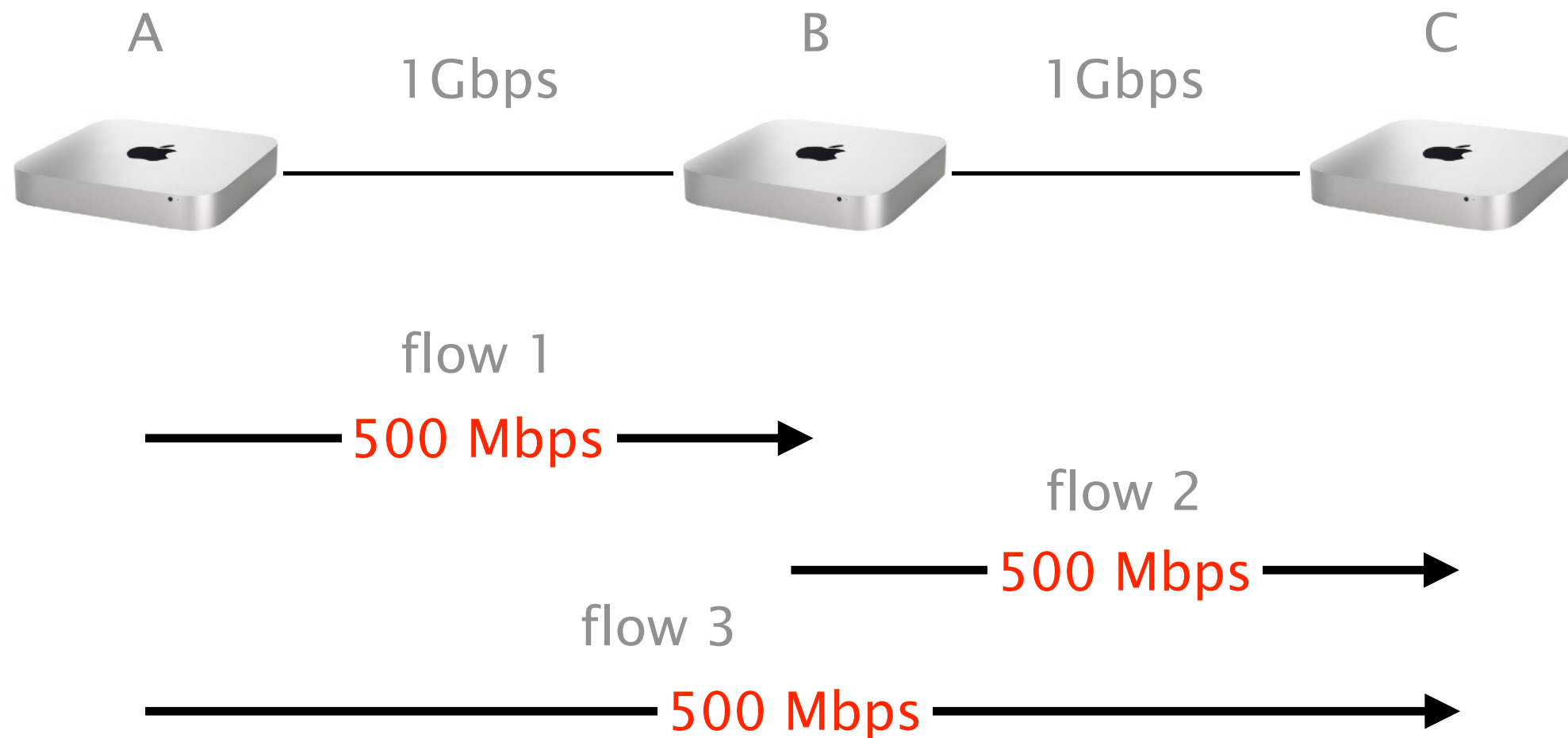
When n entities are using our transport mechanism,
we want a fair allocation of the available bandwidth

Consider this simple network
in which three hosts are sharing two links



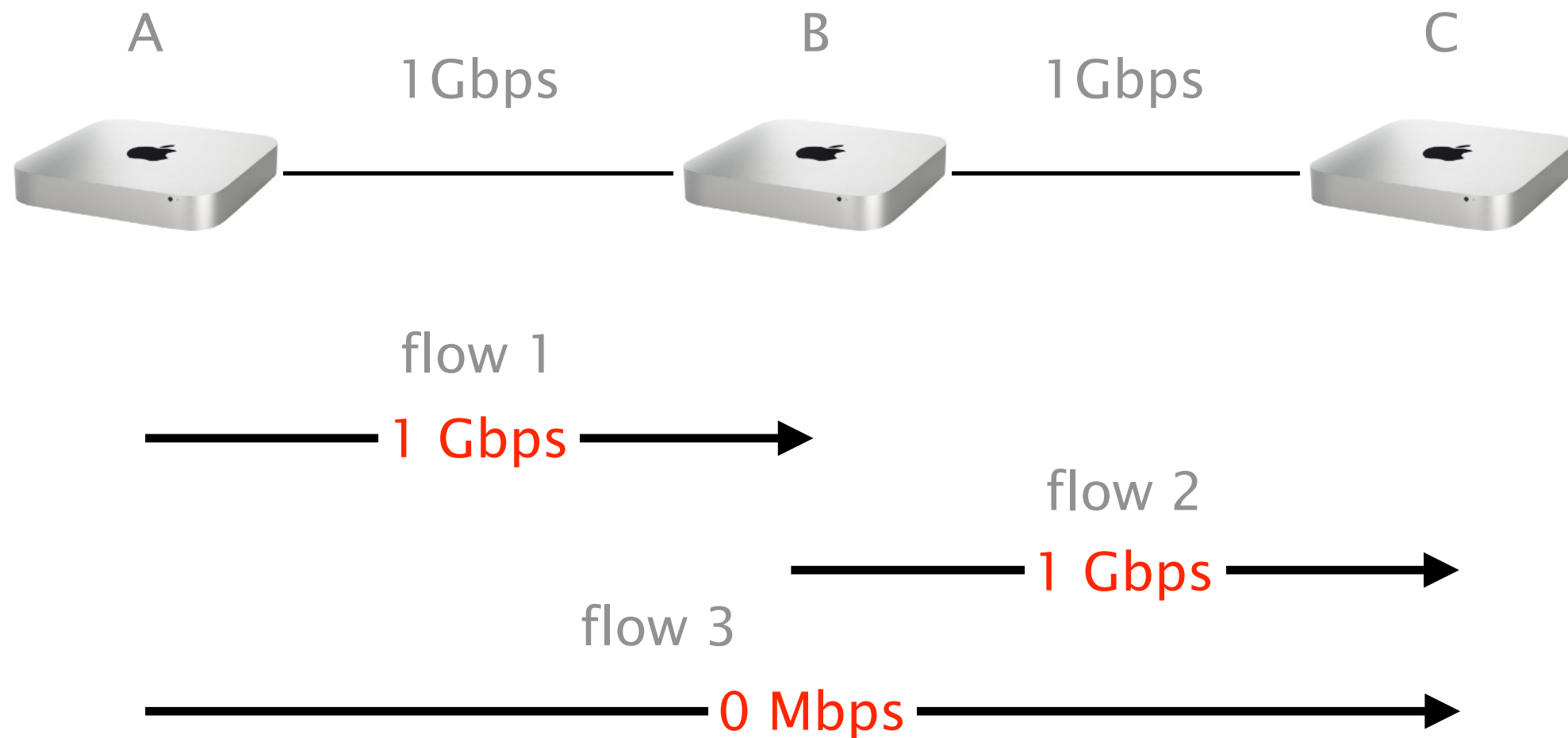
What is a fair allocation for the 3 flows?

An equal allocation is certainly “fair”,
but what about the efficiency of the network?



Total traffic is 1.5 Gbps

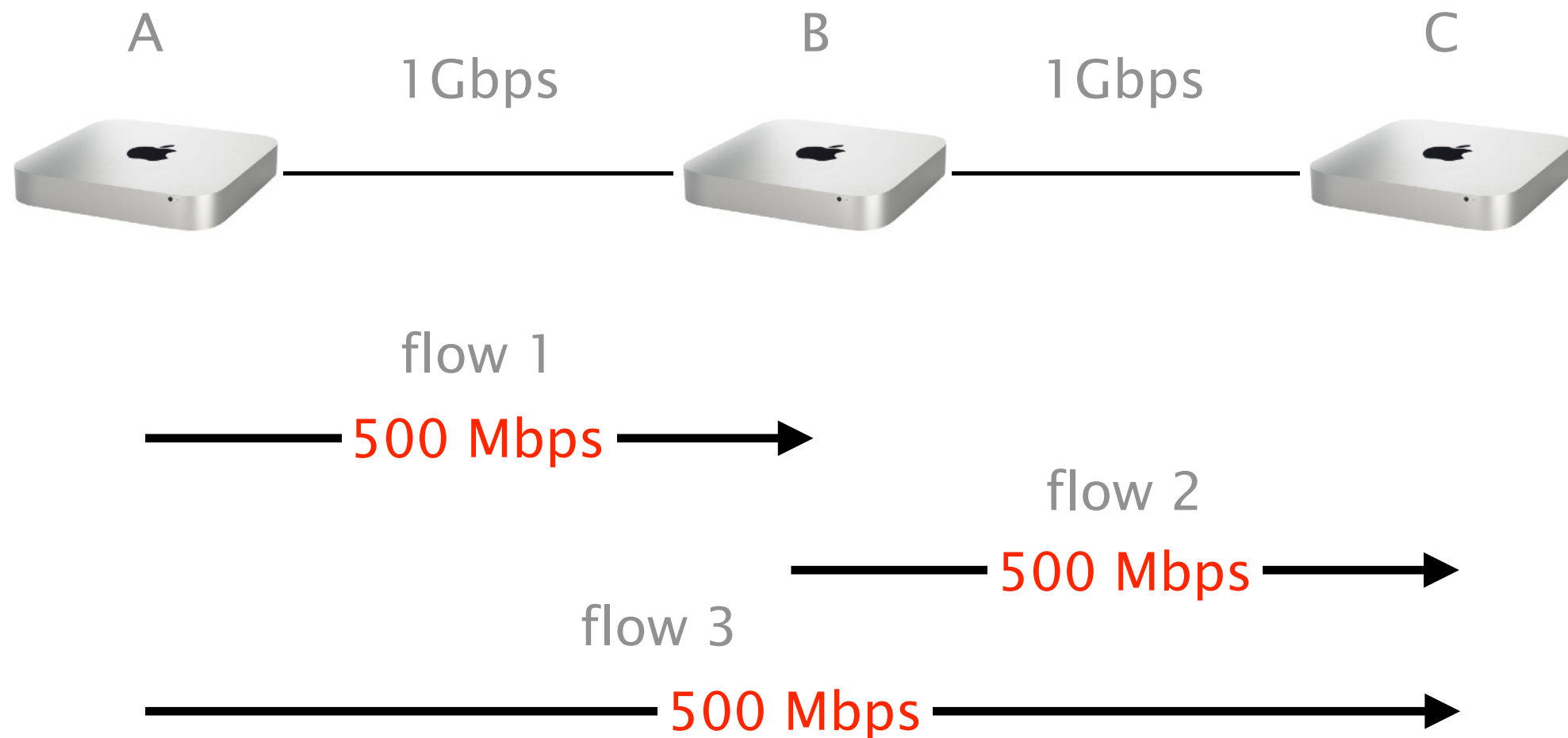
Fairness and efficiency don't always play along,
here an unfair allocation ends up *more efficient*



Total traffic is 2 Gbps!

What is fair anyway?

Equal-per-flow isn't really fair as (A,C) crosses two links:
it uses more resources



Total traffic is 1.5 Gbps

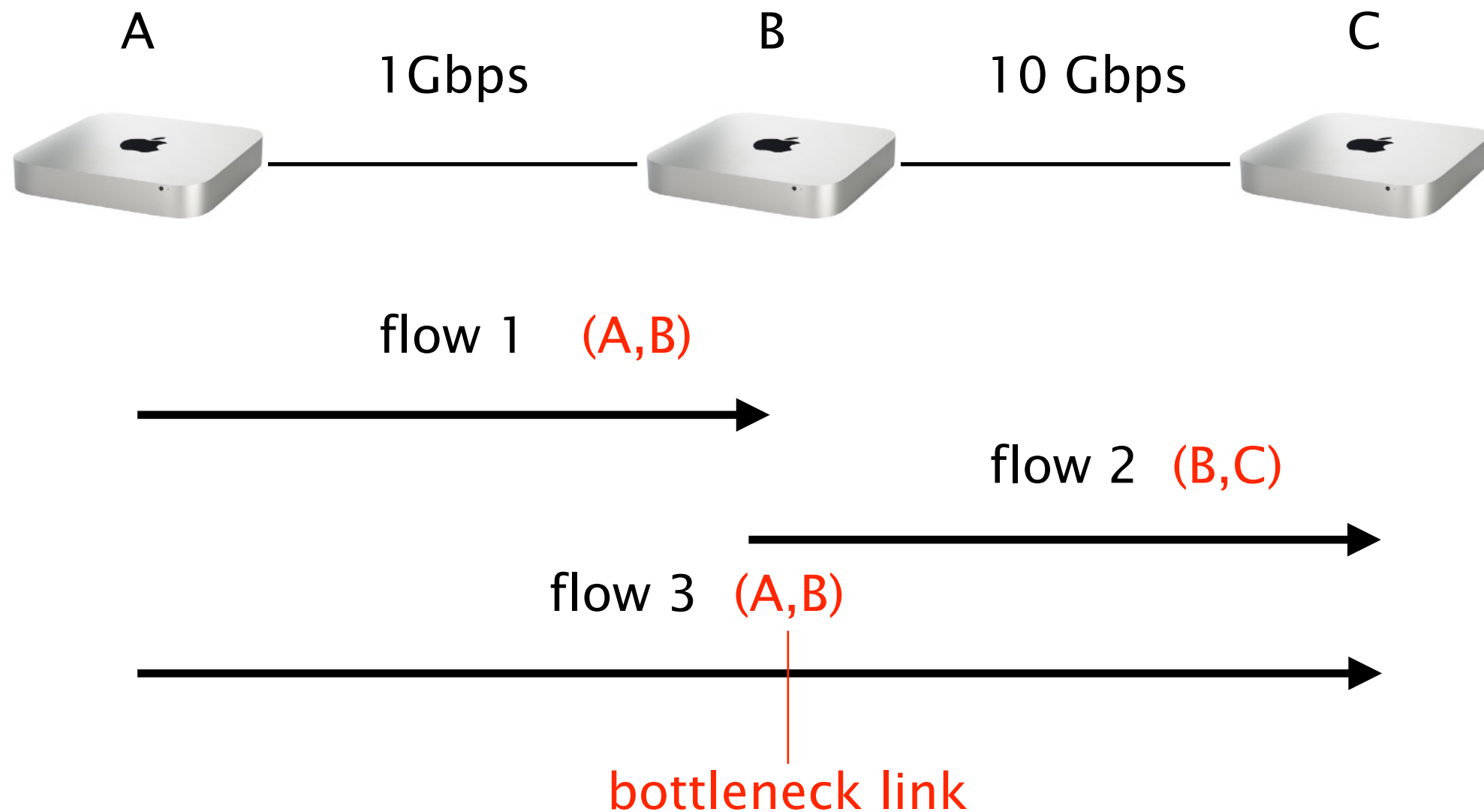
With equal-per-flow, A ends up with 1 Gbps because it sends 2 flows, while B ends up with 500 Mbps

Is it fair?

Seeking an exact notion of fairness is not productive.
What matters is to avoid starvation.

equal-per-flow is good enough for this

Simply dividing the available bandwidth doesn't work in practice since flows can see different bottleneck



Intuitively, we want to give users with "small" demands what they want, and evenly distribute the rest

Max-min fair allocation is such that

the lowest demand is maximized

after the lowest demand has been satisfied,
the second lowest demand is maximized

after the second lowest demand has been satisfied,
the third lowest demand is maximized

and so on...

Max-min fair allocation can easily be computed

- step 1 Start with all flows at rate 0
- step 2 Increase the flows until there is a new bottleneck in the network
- step 3 Hold the fixed rate of the flows that are bottlenecked
- step 4 Go to step 2 for the remaining flows

Done!

Max-min fair allocation can be approximated
by slowly increasing W until a loss is detected

Intuition

Progressively increase
the sending window size

max=receiving window

Whenever a loss is detected,
decrease the window size

signal of congestion

Repeat

Design a *correct*, *timely*, *efficient* and *fair* transport mechanism
knowing that

packets can get lost

corrupted
reordered
delayed
duplicated

Dealing with **corruption** is easy:

Rely on a checksum, treat corrupted packets as lost

The effect of **reordering** depends on the type of ACKing mechanism used

individual ACKs

no problem

full feedback

no problem

cumm. ACKs

create duplicate ACKs

why is it a problem?

Long **delays** can create useless timeouts,
for all designs

Packets **duplicates** can lead to duplicate ACKs whose effects will depend on the ACKing mechanism used

individual ACKs

no problem

full feedback

no problem

cumm. ACKs

problematic

Design a *correct*, *timely*, *efficient* and *fair* transport mechanism knowing that

packets can get lost
 corrupted
 reordered
 delayed
 duplicated

Here is one correct, timely, efficient and fair transport mechanism

ACKing

full information ACK

retransmission

after timeout

after k subsequent ACKs

window management

additive increase upon successful delivery

multiple decrease when timeouts

We'll come back to this when we see TCP

Reliable Transport



Correctness condition

if-and-only if again

Design space

timeliness vs efficiency vs ...

3

Examples

Go-Back-N & Selective Repeat

Let's see how it works in practice
visually



Reliable Transport



Correctness condition

if-and-only if again

Design space

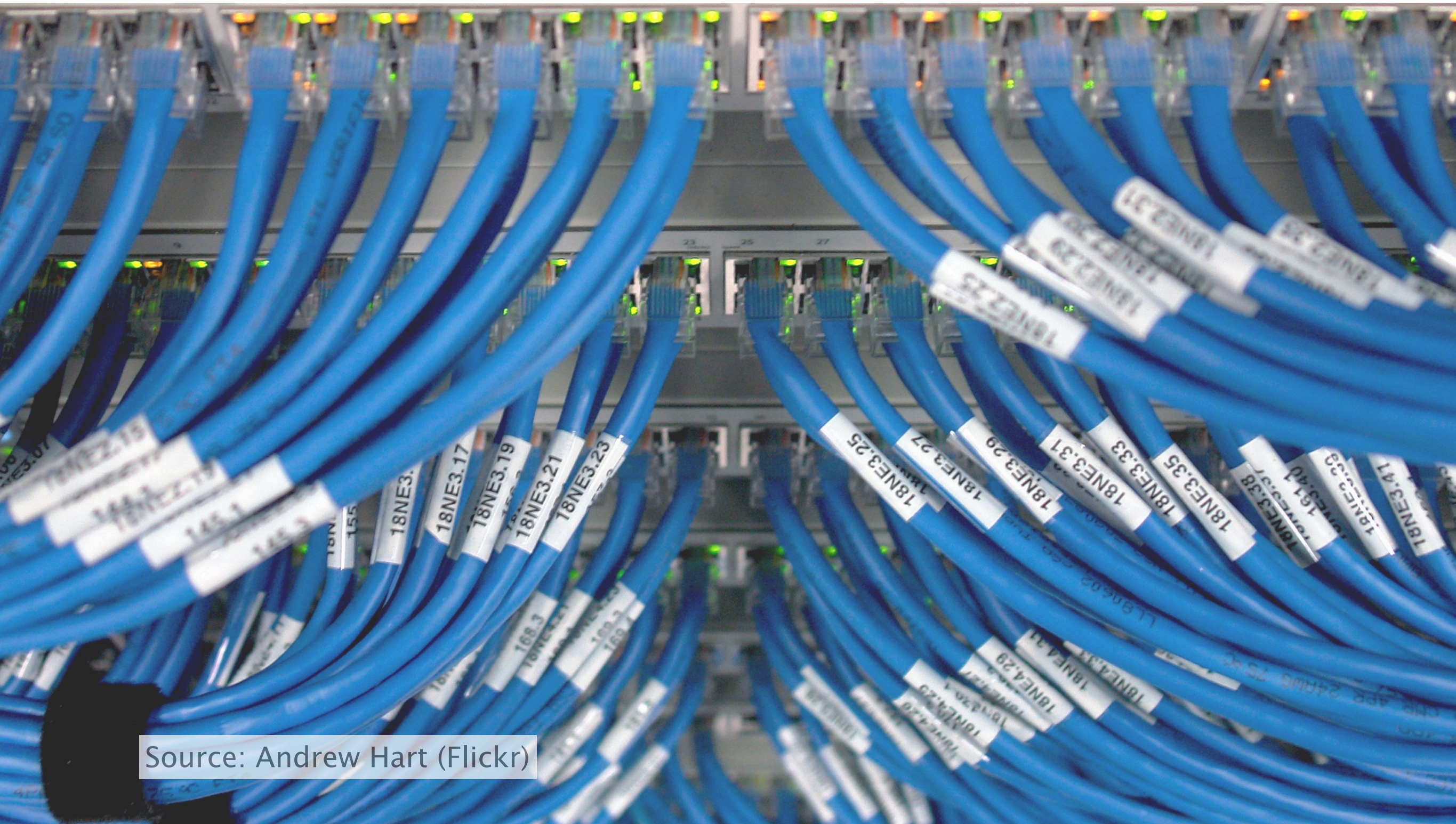
timeliness vs efficiency vs ...

Examples

Go-Back-N & Selective Repeat

Next week on Communication Networks

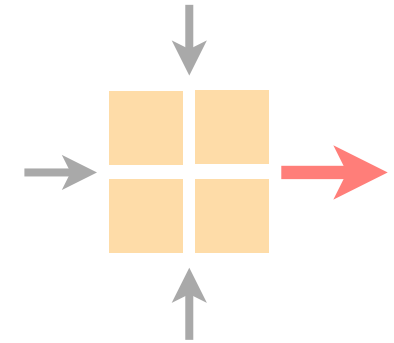
Ethernet and Switching



Source: Andrew Hart (Flickr)

Communication Networks

Spring 2019



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ETH Zürich (D-ITET)

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