Network Programming: Part I

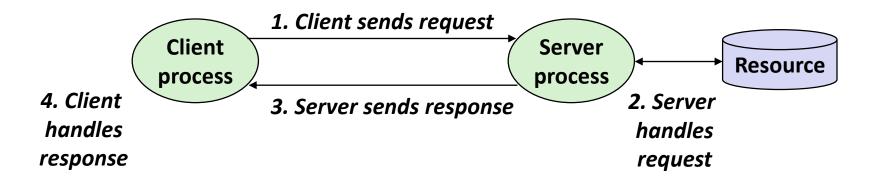
15-213: Introduction to Computer Systems 21st Lecture, July 12, 2016

Instructor:

Brian Railing

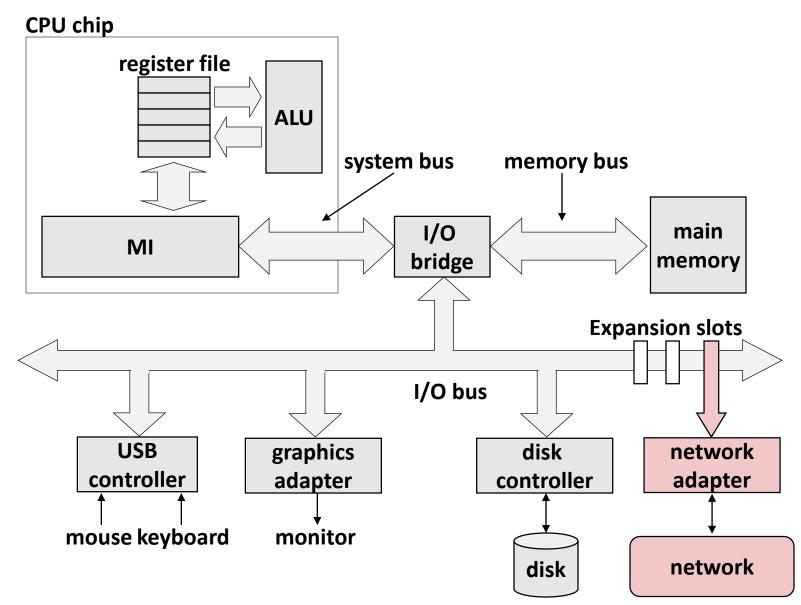
A Client-Server Transaction

- 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 (vending machine analogy)

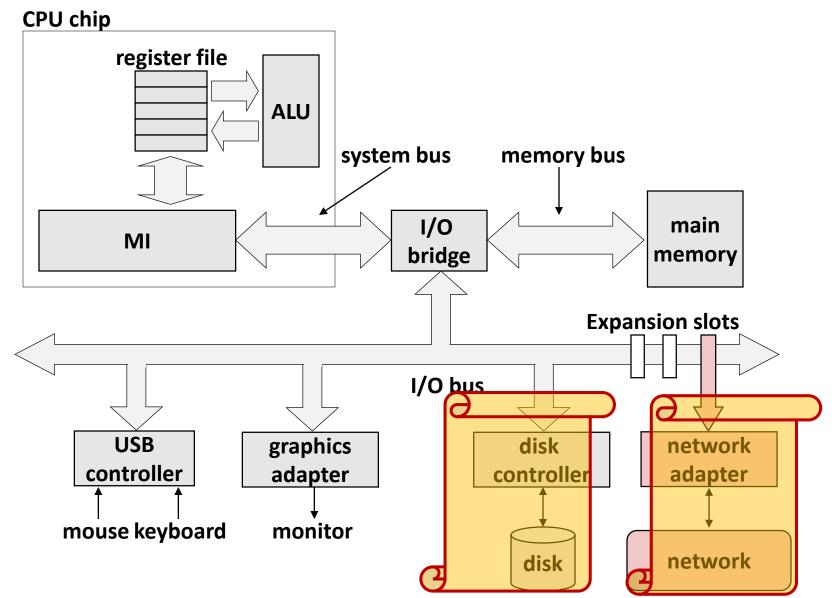


Note: clients and servers are processes running on hosts (can be the same or different hosts)

Hardware Organization of a Network Host



Hardware Organization of a Network Host



Computer Networks

A network is a hierarchical system of boxes and wires organized by geographical proximity

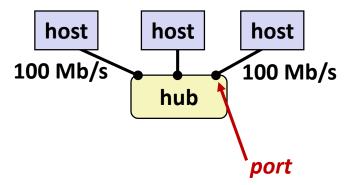
- SAN (System Area Network) spans cluster or machine room
 - Switched Ethernet, Quadrics QSW, ...
- LAN (Local Area Network) spans a building or campus
 - Ethernet is most prominent example
- WAN (Wide Area Network) spans country or world
 - Typically high-speed point-to-point phone lines

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

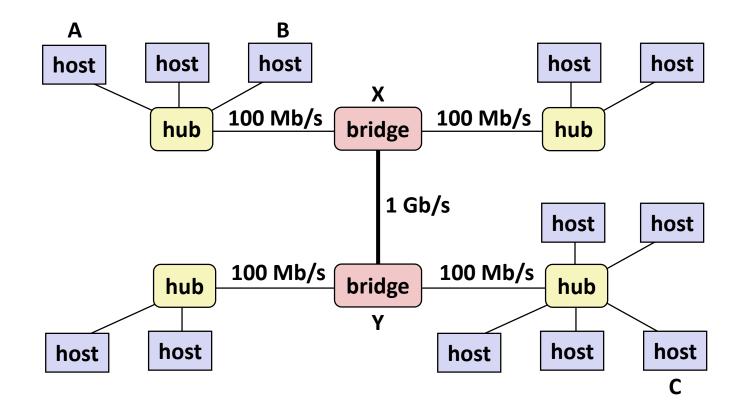


- Ethernet segment consists of a collection of *hosts* connected by wires (twisted pairs) to a *hub*
- Spans room or floor in a building

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 slavishly 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

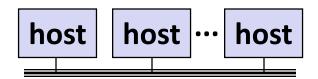
Next Level: Bridged Ethernet Segment



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

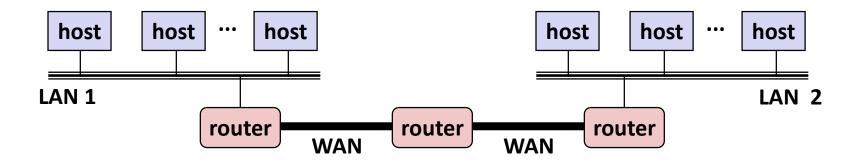
Conceptual View of LANs

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



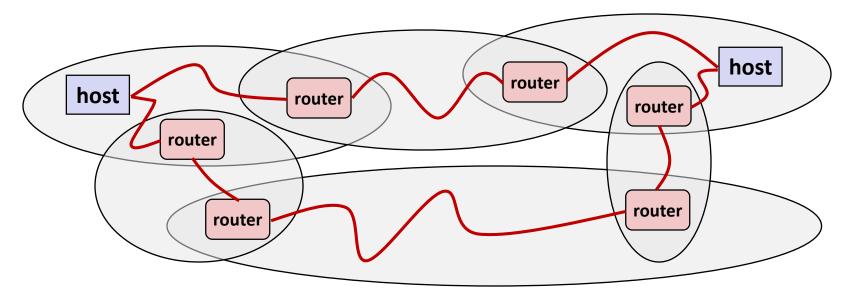
Next Level: internets

- 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

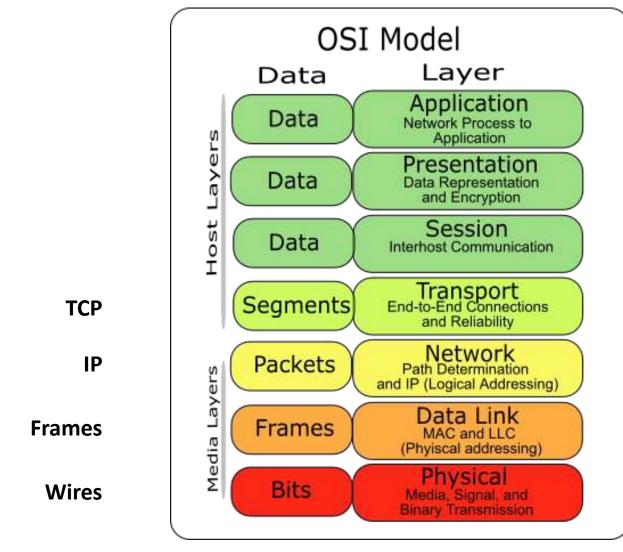
Send packets from source to destination by hopping through networks

- 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

OSI Model



What Does an internet Protocol Do?

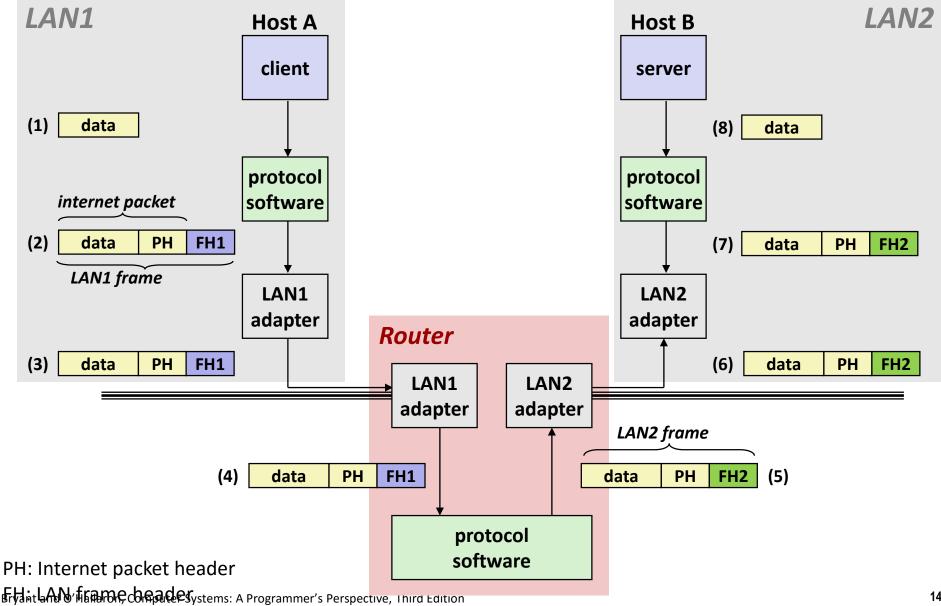
Provides a naming scheme

- 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



Other Issues

- We are glossing over a number of important questions:
 - What if different networks have different maximum frame sizes? (segmentation)
 - How do routers know where to forward frames?
 - How are routers informed when the network topology changes?
 - What if packets get lost?

These (and other) questions are addressed by the area of systems known as *computer networking*

Global IP Internet (upper case)

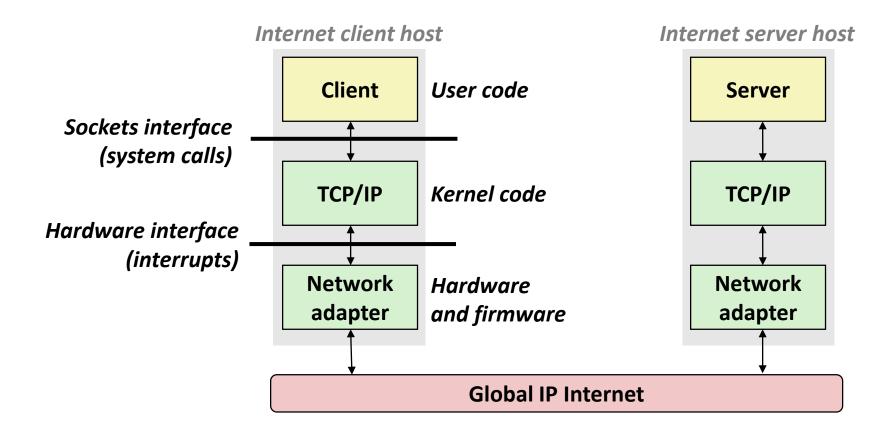
Most famous example of an internet

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 Organization of an Internet Application



A Programmer's View of the Internet

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

128.2.203.179

2. The set of IP addresses is mapped to a set of identifiers called Internet *domain names*

128.2.203.179 is mapped to www.cs.cmu.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 2015, vast majority of Internet traffic still carried by IPv4
 - Only 4% 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

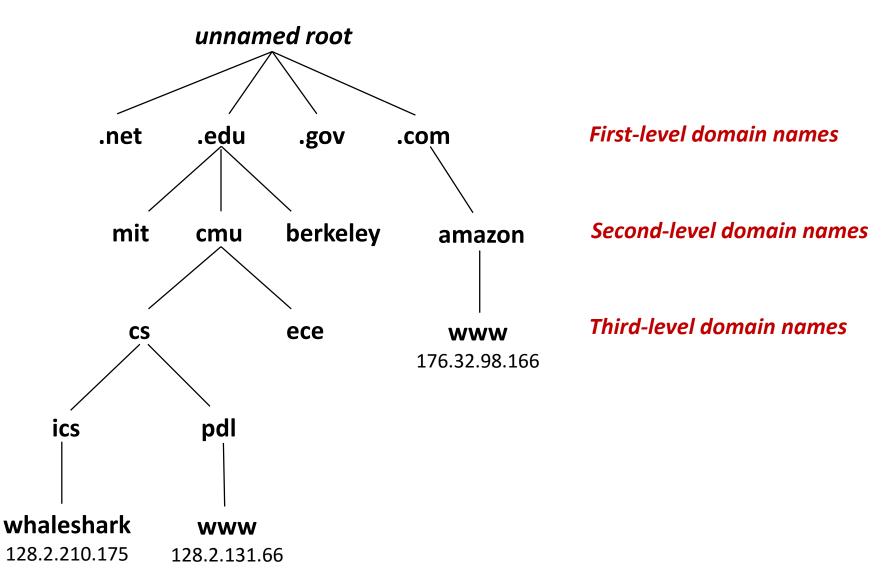
- IP addresses are always stored in memory in *network byte order* (big-endian byte order)
- True in general for any integer transferred in a packet header from one machine to another.
 - E.g., the port number used to identify an Internet connection.

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

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 (described later) to convert between IP addresses and dotted decimal format.

(2) Internet 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
whaleshark.ics.cs.cmu.edu

Properties of DNS Mappings (cont)

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

linux> nslookup whaleshark.ics.cs.cmu.edu
Address: 128.2.210.175

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 ics.cs.cmu.edu
*** Can't find ics.cs.cmu.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.

• 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:

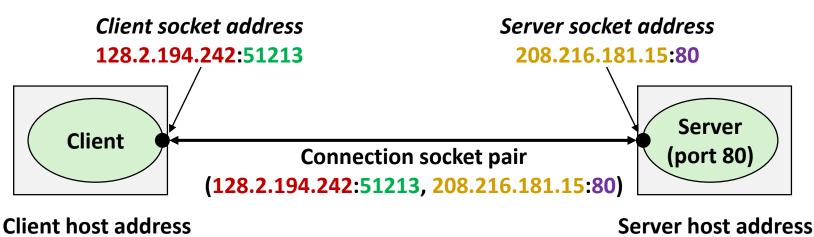
- Ephemeral port: Assigned automatically by client kernel when client makes a connection request.
- Well-known port: Associated with some service provided by a server (e.g., port 80 is associated with Web servers)

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)

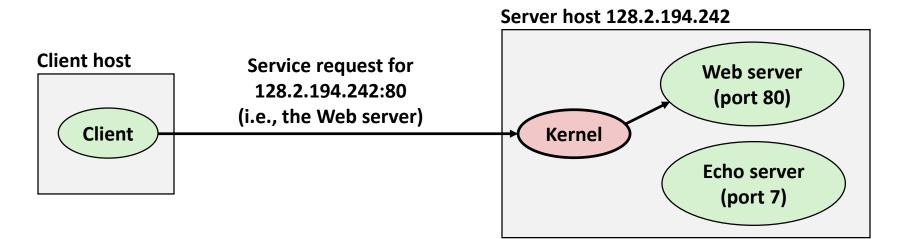


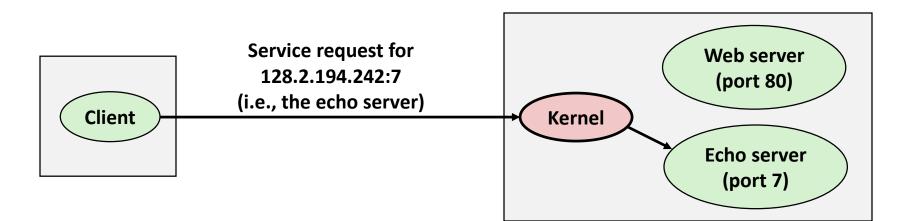
128.2.194.242

208.216.181.15

51213 is an ephemeral port allocated by the kernel

Using Ports to Identify Services





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

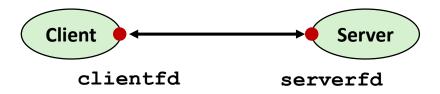
Unix variants, Windows, OS X, IOS, Android, ARM

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

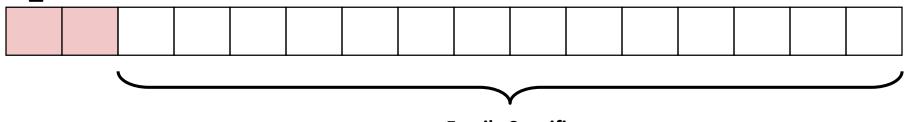
Socket Address Structures

- 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
 - For casting convenience, we adopt the Stevens convention:

typedef struct sockaddr SA;

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

sa_family

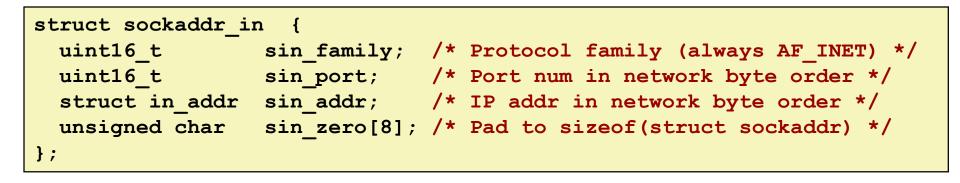


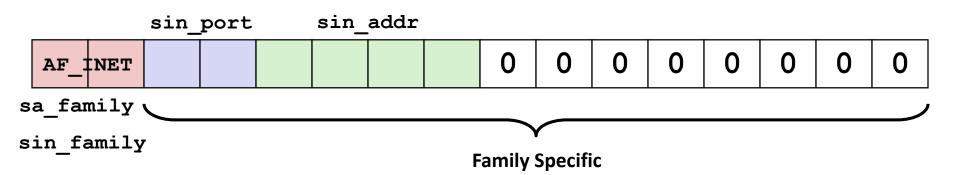
Family Specific

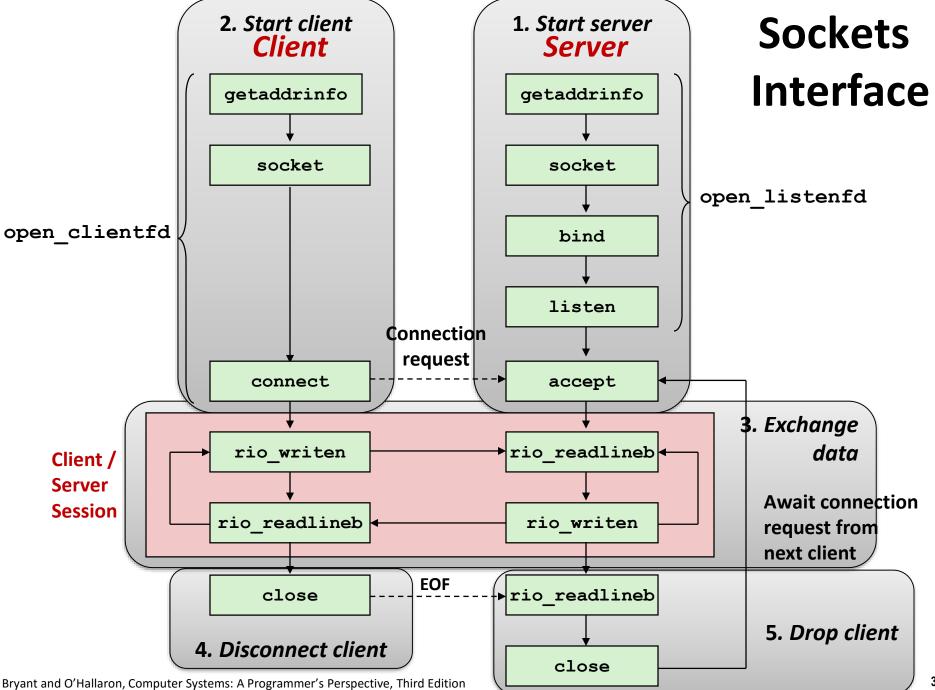
Socket Address Structures

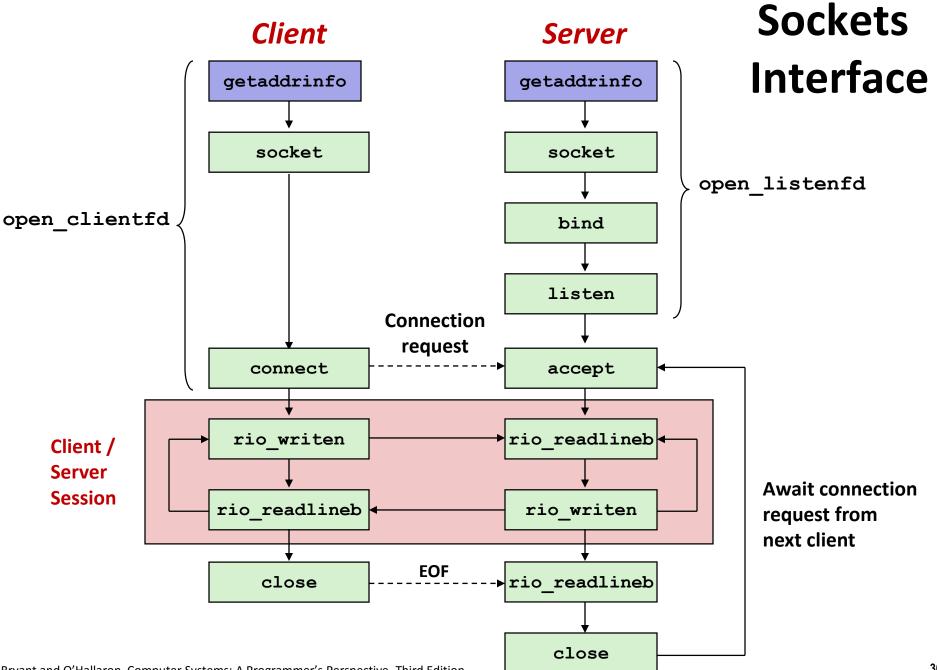
Internet-specific socket address:

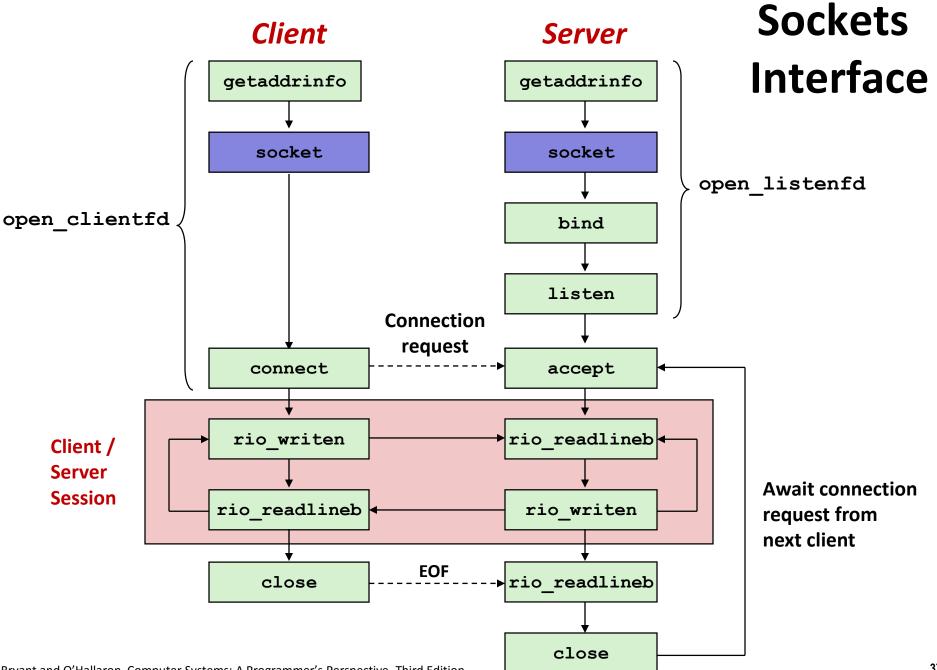
Must cast (struct sockaddr_in *) to (struct sockaddr *) for functions that take socket address arguments.











Sockets Interface: socket

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

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

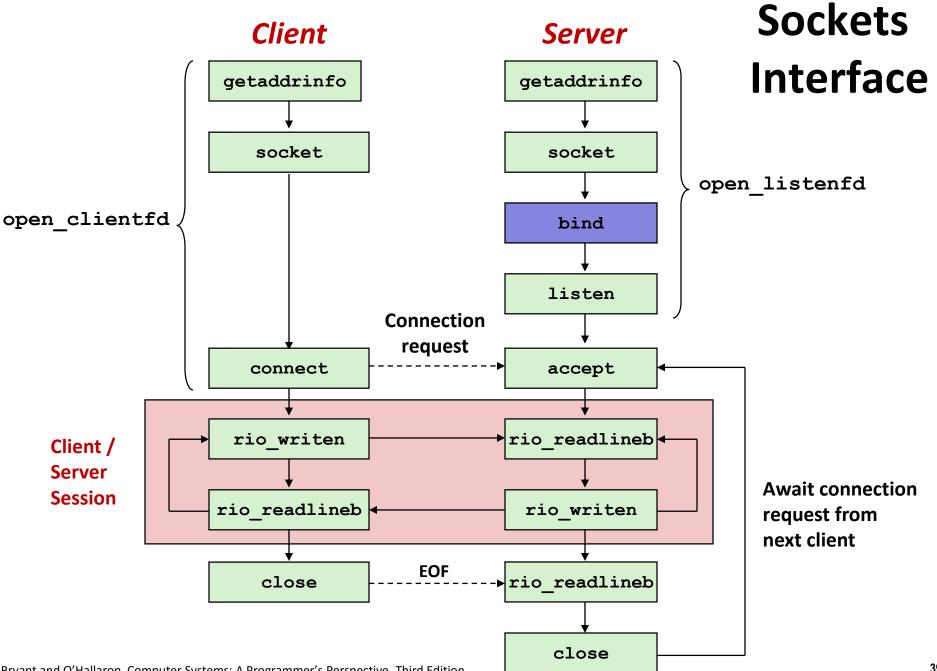
Example:

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.



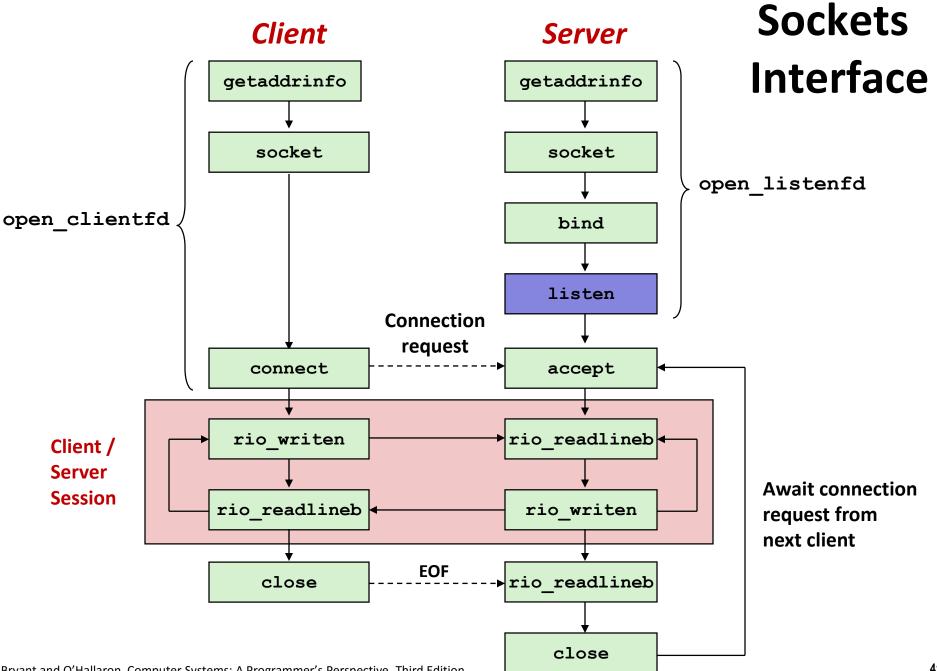
Sockets Interface: bind

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.

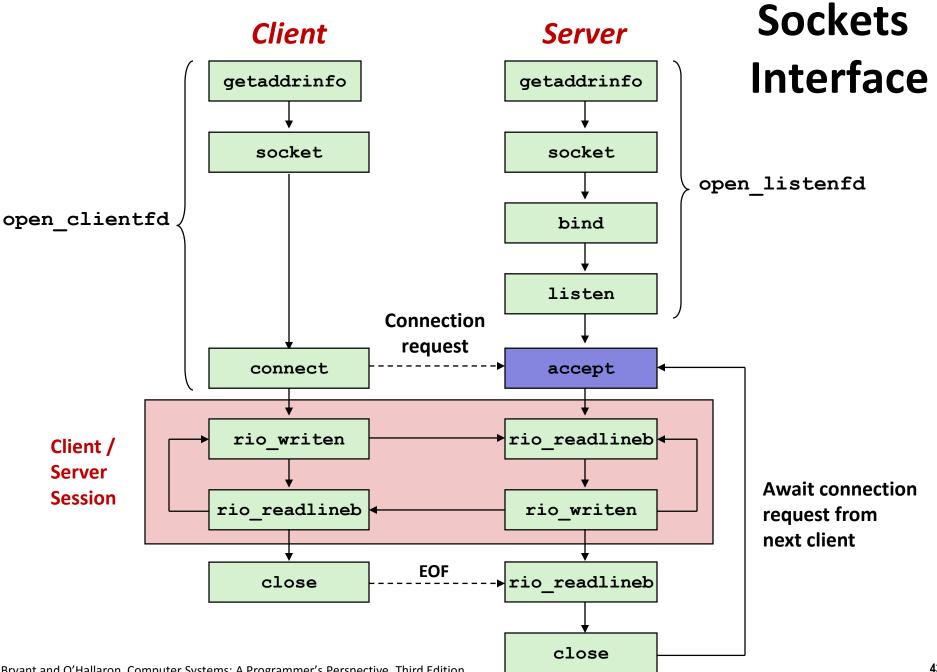


Sockets Interface: listen

- 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.

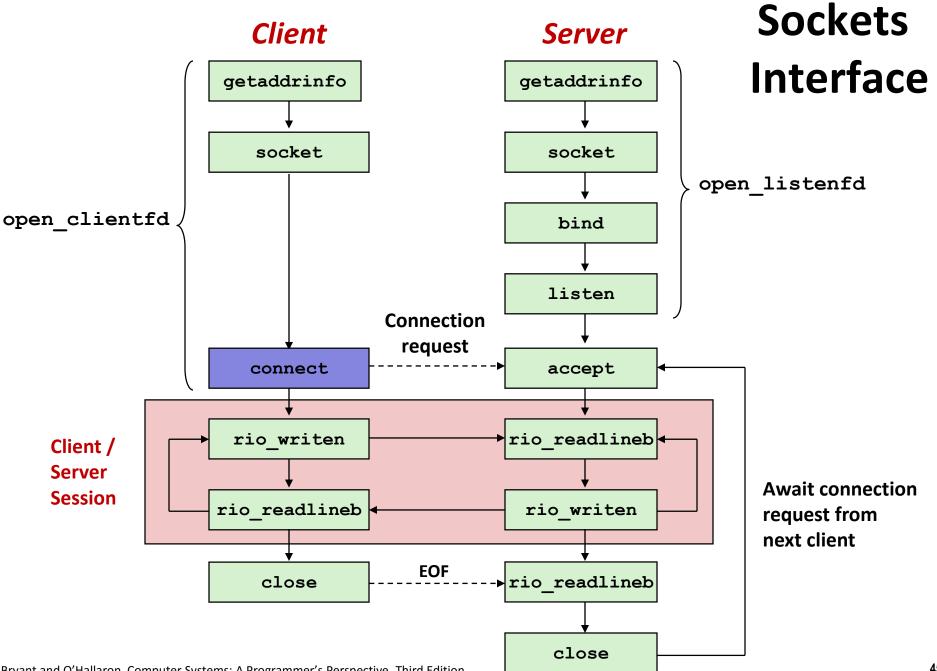


Sockets Interface: accept

 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.



Bryant and O'Hallaron, Computer Systems: A Programmer's Perspective, Third Edition

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

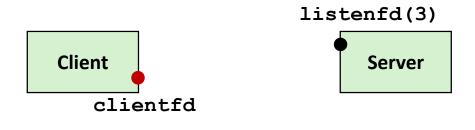
(x:y, addr.sin addr:addr.sin port)

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

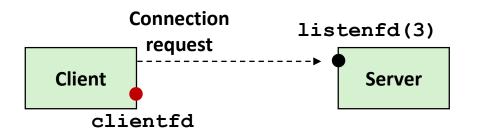
Best practice is to use getaddrinfo to supply the arguments addr and addrlen.

Bryant and O'Hallaron, Computer Systems: A Programmer's Perspective, Third Edition

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

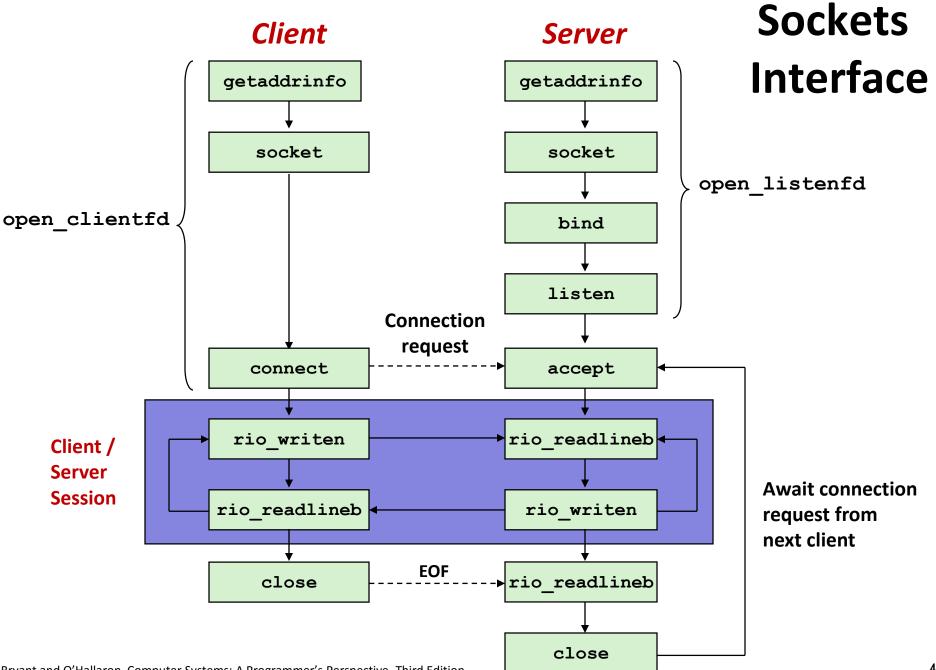
- End point for client connection requests
- Created once and exists for lifetime of the server

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



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

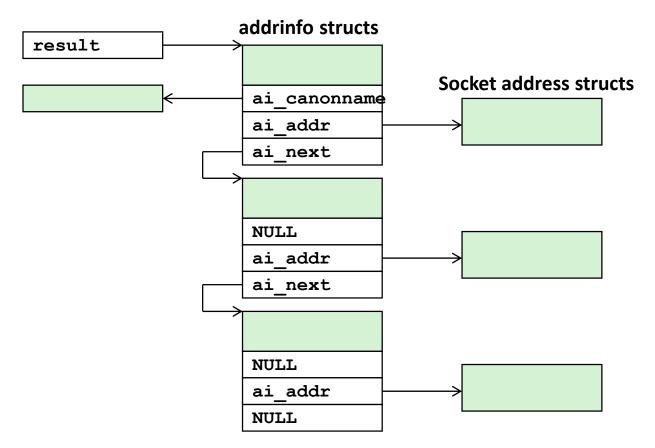
- Somewhat complex
- Fortunately, a small number of usage patterns suffice in most cases.

Host and Service Conversion: getaddrinfo

ce name
ers */
list */
ist */
nsg */

- Given host and service, getaddrinfo returns result that points to a linked list of addrinfo structs, each of which points to a corresponding socket address struct, and which contains arguments for the sockets interface functions.
- Helper functions:
 - freeadderinfo frees the entire linked list.
 - gai_strerror converts error code to an error message.

Linked List Returned by getaddrinfo



 Clients: walk this list, trying each socket address in turn, until the calls to socket and connect succeed.

Servers: walk the list until calls to socket and bind succeed.

Bryant and O'Hallaron, Computer Systems: A Programmer's Perspective, Third Edition

addrinfo Struct

<pre>struct addrinfo {</pre>		
int	ai_flags;	/* Hints argument flags */
int	<pre>ai_family;</pre>	<pre>/* First arg to socket function */</pre>
int	<pre>ai_socktype;</pre>	<pre>/* Second arg to socket function */</pre>
int	<pre>ai_protocol;</pre>	<pre>/* Third arg to socket function */</pre>
char	<pre>*ai_canonname;</pre>	/* Canonical host name */
size_t	<pre>ai_addrlen;</pre>	<pre>/* Size of ai_addr struct */</pre>
struct sockaddr	<pre>*ai_addr;</pre>	/* Ptr to socket address structure */
struct addrinfo	<pre>*ai_next;</pre>	<pre>/* Ptr to next item in linked list */</pre>
};		

- Each addrinfo struct returned by getaddrinfo contains arguments that can be passed directly to socket function.
- Also points to a socket address struct that can be passed directly to connect and bind functions.

Host and Service Conversion: getnameinfo

- getnameinfo is the inverse of getaddrinfo, converting a socket address to the corresponding host and service.
 - Replaces obsolete gethostbyaddr and getservbyport funcs.
 - Reentrant and protocol independent.

<pre>int getnameinfo(const SA *sa, socklen_t salen,</pre>	<pre>/* In: socket addr */</pre>
char *host, size_t hostlen,	/* Out: host */
char *serv, size_t servlen,	<pre>/* Out: service */</pre>
<pre>int flags);</pre>	<pre>/* optional flags */</pre>

Conversion Example

```
#include "csapp.h"
int main(int argc, char **argv)
Ł
    struct addrinfo *p, *listp, hints;
    char buf[MAXLINE];
    int rc, flags;
    /* Get a list of addrinfo records */
   memset(&hints, 0, sizeof(struct addrinfo));
   hints.ai family = AF INET; /* IPv4 only */
   hints.ai socktype = SOCK STREAM; /* Connections only */
    if ((rc = getaddrinfo(argv[1], NULL, &hints, &listp)) != 0) {
        fprintf(stderr, "getaddrinfo error: %s\n", gai strerror(rc));
       exit(1);
    }
                                                               hostinfo.c
```

Conversion Example (cont)

Running hostinfo

whaleshark> ./hostinfo localhost
127.0.0.1

whaleshark> ./hostinfo whaleshark.ics.cs.cmu.edu 128.2.210.175

whaleshark> ./hostinfo twitter.com
199.16.156.230
199.16.156.38
199.16.156.102
199.16.156.198

Next time

- Using getaddrinfo for host and service conversion
- Writing clients and servers
- Writing Web servers!

Additional slides

Basic Internet Components

Internet backbone:

 collection of routers (nationwide or worldwide) connected by high-speed point-to-point networks

Internet Exchange Points (IXP):

- router that connects multiple backbones (often referred to as peers)
- Also called Network Access Points (NAP)

Regional networks:

 smaller backbones that cover smaller geographical areas (e.g., cities or states)

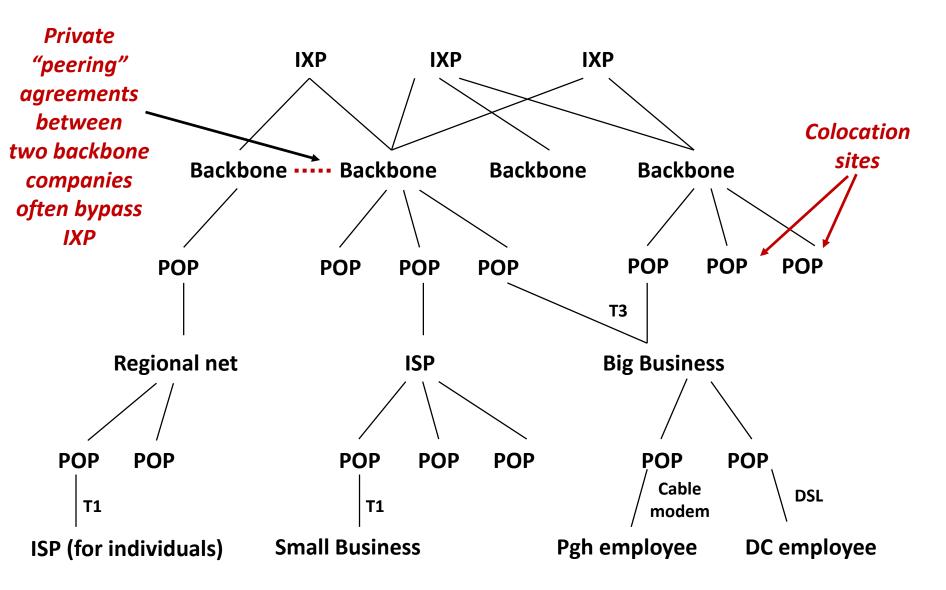
Point of presence (POP):

machine that is connected to the Internet

Internet Service Providers (ISPs):

provide dial-up or direct access to POPs

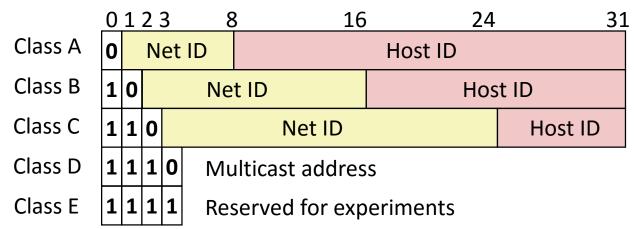
Internet Connection Hierarchy



Bryant and O'Hallaron, Computer Systems: A Programmer's Perspective, Third Edition

IP Address Structure

IP (V4) Address space divided into classes:



Network ID Written in form w.x.y.z/n

- n = number of bits in host address
- E.g., CMU written as 128.2.0.0/16
 - Class B address

Unrouted (private) IP addresses:

10.0.0/8 172.16.0.0/12 192.168.0.0/16

Evolution of Internet

Original Idea

- Every node on Internet would have unique IP address
 - Everyone would be able to talk directly to everyone
- No secrecy or authentication
 - Messages visible to routers and hosts on same LAN
 - Possible to forge source field in packet header

Shortcomings

- There aren't enough IP addresses available
- Don't want everyone to have access or knowledge of all other hosts
- Security issues mandate secrecy & authentication

Evolution of Internet: Naming

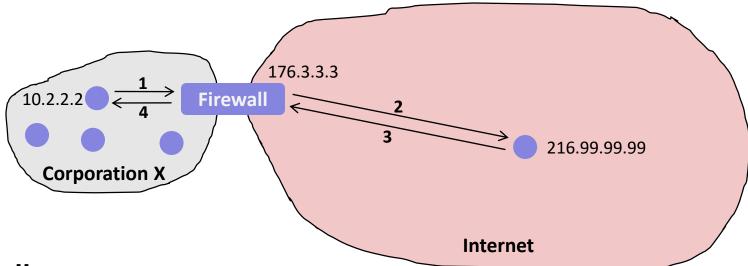
Dynamic address assignment

- Most hosts don't need to have known address
 - Only those functioning as servers
- DHCP (Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol)
 - Local ISP assigns address for temporary use

Example:

- Laptop at CMU (wired connection)
 - IP address 128.2.213.29 (bryant-tp4.cs.cmu.edu)
 - Assigned statically
- Laptop at home
 - IP address 192.168.1.5
 - Only valid within home network

Evolution of Internet: Firewalls



Firewalls

- Hides organizations nodes from rest of Internet
- Use local IP addresses within organization
- For external service, provides proxy service
 - 1. Client request: src=10.2.2.2, dest=216.99.99.99
 - 2. Firewall forwards: src=176.3.3.3, dest=216.99.99.99
 - 3. Server responds: src=216.99.99.99, dest=176.3.3.3
 - 4. Firewall forwards response: src=216.99.99.99, dest=10.2.2.2