CS162
Operating Systems and Systems Programming
Lecture 25

Distributed Decision Making, Networking and TCP/IP

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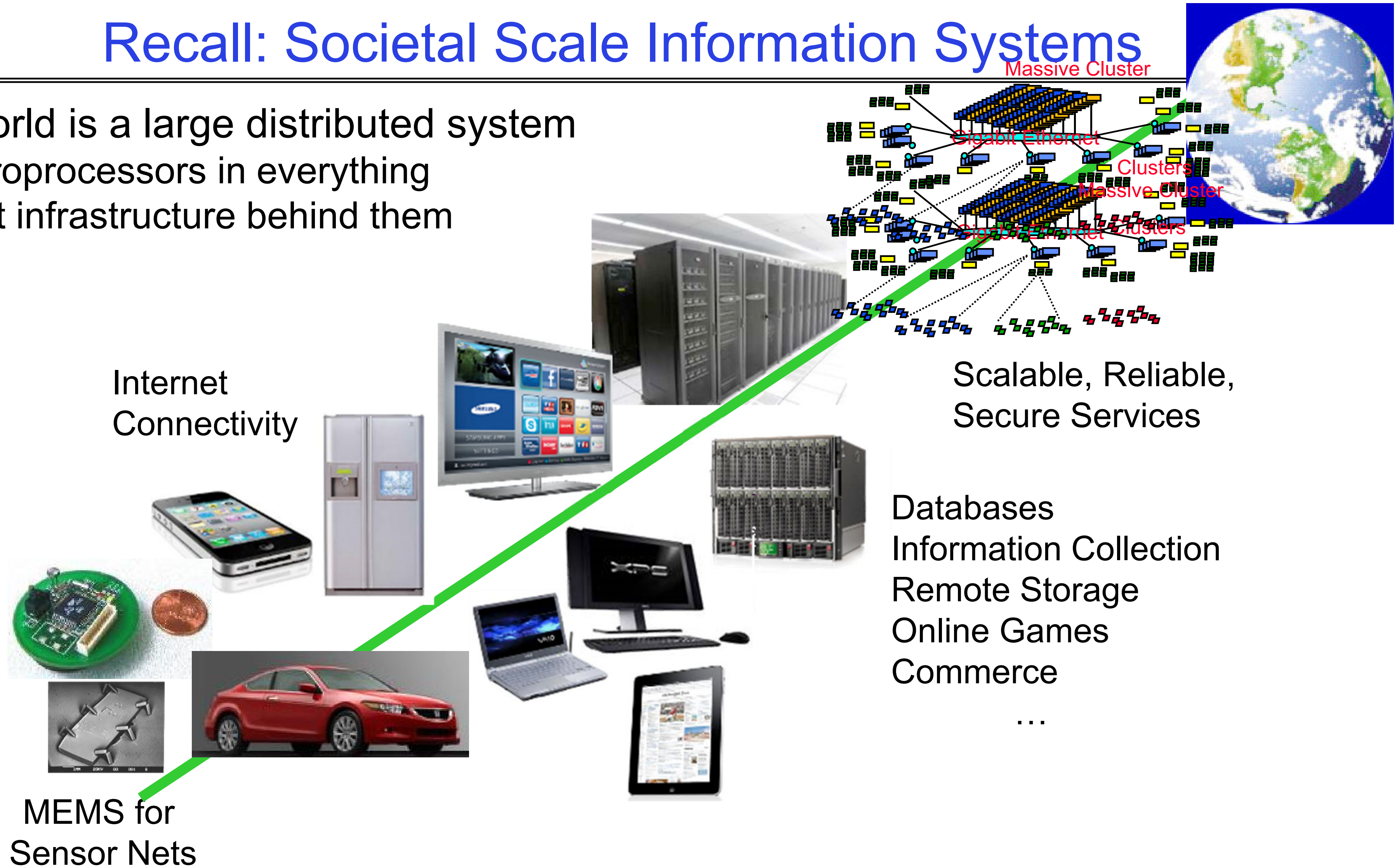
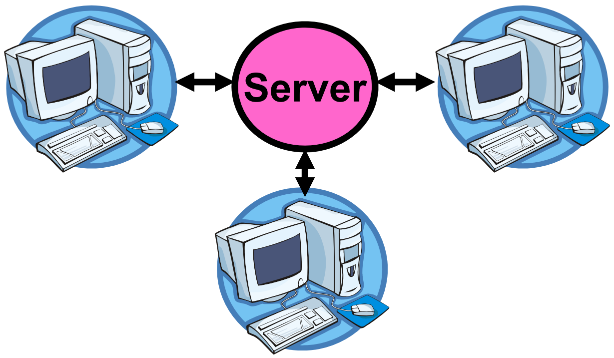
Recall: Societal Scale Information Systems

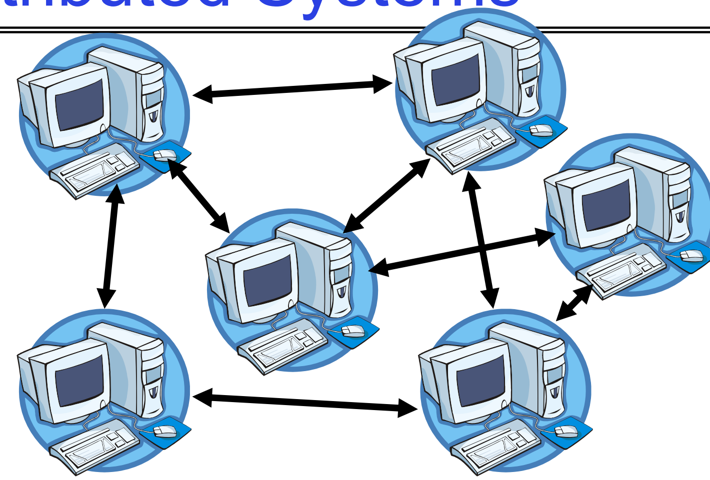
- The world is a large distributed system
  - Microprocessors in everything
  - Vast infrastructure behind them



Centralized vs Distributed Systems



Client/Server Model



Peer-to-Peer Model

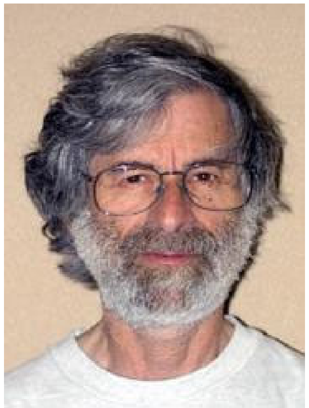
- Centralized System: major functions performed by a single physical computer
  - Originally, everything on single computer
  - Later: client/server model
- Distributed System: physically separate computers working together on task
  - Early model: multiple servers working together
    - » Probably in the same room or building
    - » Often called a "cluster"
  - Later models: peer-to-peer/wide-spread collaboration

Distributed Systems: Motivation/Issues/Promise

- Why do we want distributed systems?
  - Cheaper and easier to build lots of simple computers
  - Easier to add power incrementally
  - Users can have complete control over some components
  - Collaboration: much easier for users to collaborate through network resources (such as network file systems)

- The *promise* of distributed systems:
  - *Higher availability*: one machine goes down, use another
  - *Better durability*: store data in multiple locations
  - *More security*: each piece easier to make secure

Distributed Systems: Reality

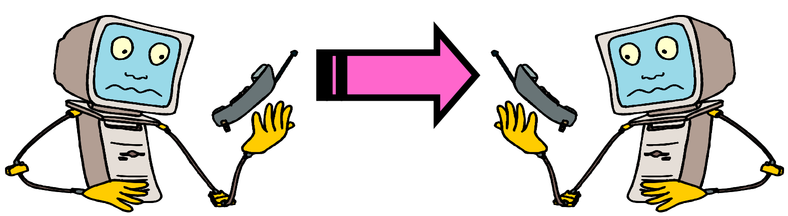


Leslie Lamport

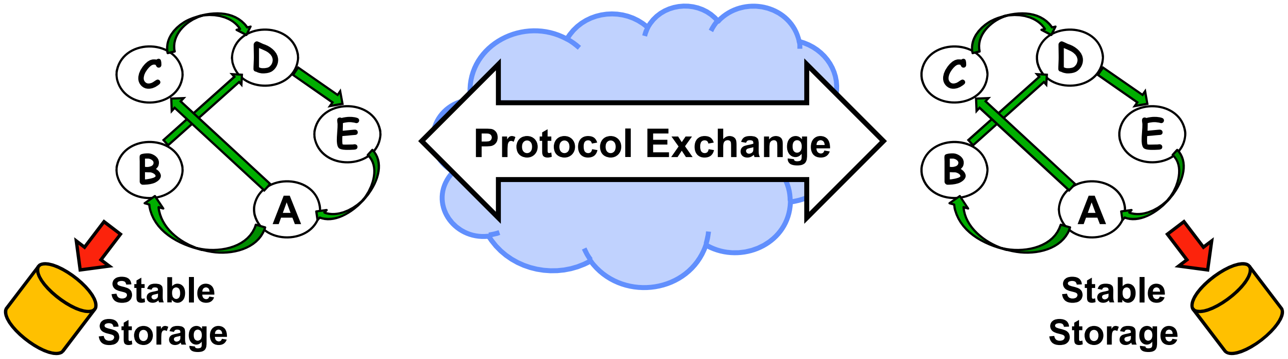
- Reality has been disappointing
  - *Worse availability*: depend on every machine being up
    - » Lamport: "A distributed system is one in which the failure of a computer you didn't even know existed can render your own computer unusable."
  - *Worse reliability*: can lose data if any machine crashes
  - *Worse security*: anyone in world can break into system
- Coordination is more difficult
  - Must coordinate multiple copies of shared state information
  - What would be easy in a centralized system becomes a lot more difficult
- Trust/Security/Privacy/Denial of Service
  - Many new variants of problems arise as a result of distribution
  - Can you trust the other members of a distributed application enough to even perform a protocol correctly?
  - Corollary of Lamport's quote: "A distributed system is one where you can't do work because some computer you didn't even know existed is successfully coordinating an attack on my system!"

Distributed Systems: Goals/Requirements

- Transparency: the ability of the system to mask its complexity behind a simple interface
- Possible transparencies:
  - Location: Can't tell where resources are located
  - Migration: Resources may move without the user knowing
  - Replication: Can't tell how many copies of resource exist
  - Concurrency: Can't tell how many users there are
  - Parallelism: System may speed up large jobs by splitting them into smaller pieces
  - Fault Tolerance: System may hide various things that go wrong
- Transparency and collaboration require some way for different processors to communicate with one another



How do entities communicate? A Protocol!



- A protocol is an agreement on how to communicate, including:
  - Syntax: how a communication is specified & structured
    - » Format, order messages are sent and received
  - Semantics: what a communication means
    - » Actions taken when transmitting, receiving, or when a timer expires
- Described formally by a state machine
  - Often represented as a message transaction diagram
  - Can be a partitioned state machine: two parties synchronizing duplicate sub-state machines between them
  - Stability in the face of failures!

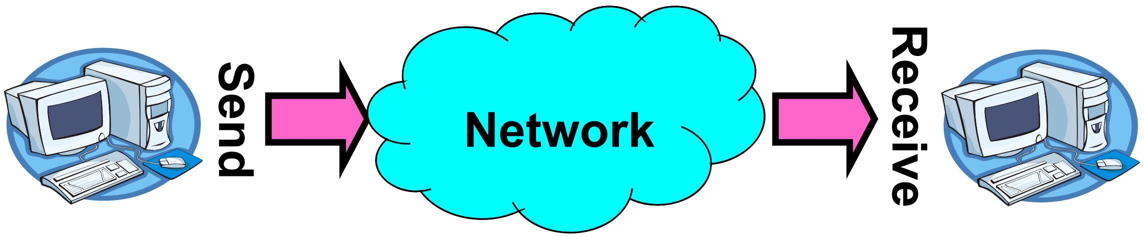
Examples of Protocols in Human Interactions

- Telephone
  1. (Pick up / open up the phone)
  2. Listen for a dial tone / see that you have service
  3. Dial
  4. Should hear ringing …
  5. Callee: “Hello?”
  6. Caller: “Hi, it’s Anthony….”
     Or: “Hi, it’s me” (← what’s *that* about?)
  7. Caller: “Hey, do you think … blah blah blah …” **pause**

  1. Callee: “Yeah, blah blah blah …” **pause**
  2. Caller: Bye
  3. Callee: Bye
  4. Hang up

Distributed Applications

- How do you actually program a distributed application?
  - Need to synchronize multiple threads, running on different machines
    - » No shared memory, so cannot use test&set



  - One Abstraction: send/receive messages
    - » Already atomic: no receiver gets portion of a message and two receivers cannot get same message
- Interface:
  - Mailbox (mbox): temporary holding area for messages
    - » Includes both destination location and queue
  - Send(message,mbox)
    - » Send message to remote mailbox identified by mbox
  - Receive(buffer,mbox)
    - » Wait until mbox has message, copy into buffer, and return
    - » If threads sleeping on this mbox, wake up one of them

Using Messages: Send/Receive behavior

- When should `send(message,mbox)` return?
  - When receiver gets message? (i.e. ack received)
  - When message is safely buffered on destination?
  - Right away, if message is buffered on source node?
- Actually two questions here:
  - When can the sender be sure that receiver actually received the message?
  - When can sender reuse the memory containing message?
- Mailbox provides 1-way communication from T1→T2
  - T1→buffer→T2
  - Very similar to producer/consumer
    - » Send = V, Receive = P
    - » However, can't tell if sender/receiver is local or not!

Messaging for Producer-Consumer Style

- Using send/receive for producer-consumer style:

```
Producer:
    int msg1[1000];
    while(1) {
        prepare message;
        send(msg1,mbox);
    }
Consumer:
    int buffer[1000];
    while(1) {
        receive(buffer,mbox);
        process message;
    }
```

Send Message

Receive Message

- No need for producer/consumer to keep track of space in mailbox: handled by send/receive
  - This is one of the roles of the window in TCP: window is size of buffer on far end
  - Restricts sender to forward only what will fit in buffer

Messaging for Request/Response communication

- What about two-way communication?
  - Request/Response
    - » Read a file stored on a remote machine
    - » Request a web page from a remote web server
  - Also called: client-server
    - » Client ≡ requester, Server ≡ responder
    - » Server provides “service” (file storage) to the client
- Example: File service

```
Client: (requesting the file)
  char response[1000];

  send("read rutabaga", server_mbox);
  receive(response, client_mbox);

Server: (responding with the file)
  char command[1000], answer[1000];

  receive(command, server_mbox);
  decode command;
  read file into answer;
  send(answer, client_mbox);
```

Request File

Get Response

Receive Request

Send Response

Administrivia

- Midterm 3: Next Thursday!
  – No class on day of midterm
  – Three double-sided pages of notes
  – Watch for Ed post about where you should go: we have multiple exam rooms
  – Confict request form due Thursday!
- All material up to next Tuesday's lecture is fair game
- Final deadlines during RRR week:
  – Yes, there will be office hour – watch for specifics

Distributed Consensus Making

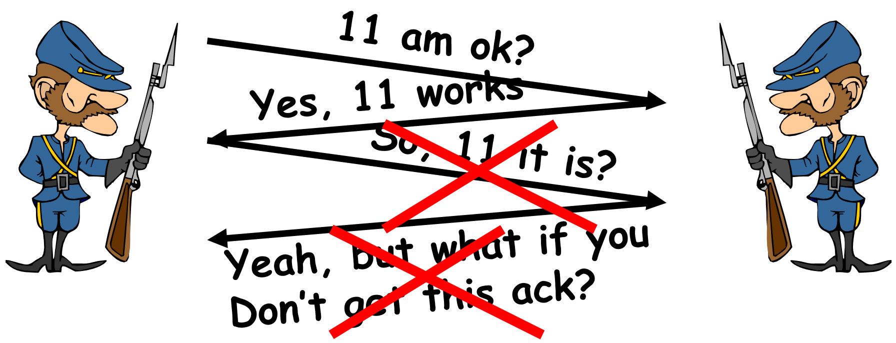
- Consensus problem
  - All nodes propose a value
  - Some nodes might crash and stop responding
  - Eventually, all remaining nodes decide on the same value from set of proposed values
- Distributed Decision Making
  - Choose between "true" and "false"
  - Or Choose between "commit" and "abort"
- Equally important (but often forgotten!): make it durable!
  - How do we make sure that decisions cannot be forgotten?
    - » This is the "D" of "ACID" in a regular database
  - In a global-scale system?
    - » What about erasure coding or massive replication?
    - » Like BlockChain applications!

General’s Paradox

- General’s paradox:
  - Constraints of problem:
    - » Two generals, on separate mountains
    - » Can only communicate via messengers
    - » Messengers can be captured
  - Problem: need to coordinate attack
    - » If they attack at different times, they all die
    - » If they attack at same time, they win
  - Named after Custer, who died at Little Big Horn because he arrived a couple of days too early

General's Paradox (con't)

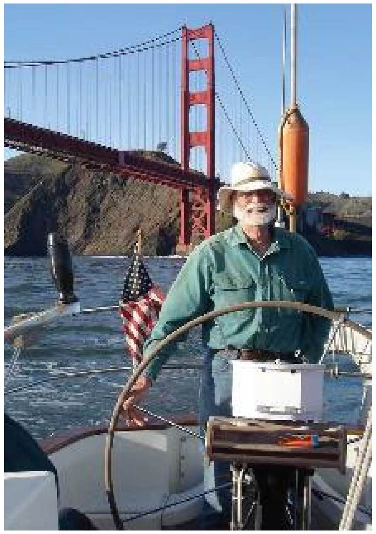
- Can messages over an unreliable network be used to guarantee two entities do something simultaneously?
  – Remarkably, "no", even if all messages get through



  – No way to be sure last message gets through!
  – In real life, use radio for simultaneous (out of band) communication
- So, clearly, we need something other than simultaneity!

Two-Phase Commit

- Since we can't solve the General's Paradox (i.e. simultaneous action), let's solve a related problem
- Distributed transaction: Two or more machines agree to do something, or not do it, atomically
  – No constraints on time, just that it will eventually happen!
- Two-Phase Commit protocol: Developed by Turing award winner Jim Gray
  – (first Berkeley CS PhD, 1969)
  – Many important DataBase breakthroughs also from Jim Gray



Jim Gray

Two-Phase Commit Protocol

- Persistent stable log on each machine: keep track of whether commit has happened
  - If a machine crashes, when it wakes up it first checks its log to recover state of world at time of crash
- Prepare Phase:
  - The global coordinator requests that all participants will promise to commit or rollback the transaction
  - Participants record promise in log, then acknowledge
  - If anyone votes to abort, coordinator writes `"Abort"` in its log and tells everyone to abort; each records `"Abort"` in log
- Commit Phase:
  - After all participants respond that they are prepared, then the coordinator writes `"Commit"` to its log
  - Then asks all nodes to commit; they respond with ACK
  - After receive ACKs, coordinator writes `"Got Commit"` to log
- Log used to guarantee that all machines either commit or don't

2PC Algorithm

- One coordinator
- N workers (replicas)
- High level algorithm description:
  - Coordinator asks all workers if they can commit
  - If all workers reply "VOTE-COMMIT", then coordinator broadcasts "GLOBAL-COMMIT"

    Otherwise coordinator broadcasts "GLOBAL-ABORT"
  - Workers obey the GLOBAL messages
- Use a persistent, stable log on each machine to keep track of what you are doing
  - If a machine crashes, when it wakes up it first checks its log to recover state of world at time of crash

Two-Phase Commit: Setup

- One machine *(coordinator)* initiates the protocol
- It asks *every* machine to **vote** on transaction

- Two possible votes:
  - **Commit**
  - **Abort**

- Commit transaction only if unanimous approval

Two-Phase Commit: Preparing

Worker Agrees to Commit

- Machine has **guaranteed** that it will accept transaction
- Must be **recorded in log** so machine will remember this decision if it fails and restarts

Worker Agrees to Abort

- Machine has **guaranteed** that it will **never accept** this transaction
- Must be **recorded in log** so machine will remember this decision if it fails and restarts

Two-Phase Commit: Finishing

Commit Transaction

- Coordinator learns *all machines have agreed to commit*
- Record decision to commit in local log
- Apply transaction, inform voters

Abort Transaction

- Coordinator learns *at least one machine has voted to abort*
- Record decision to abort in local log
- Do not apply transaction, inform voters

Two-Phase Commit: Finishing

Commit Transaction

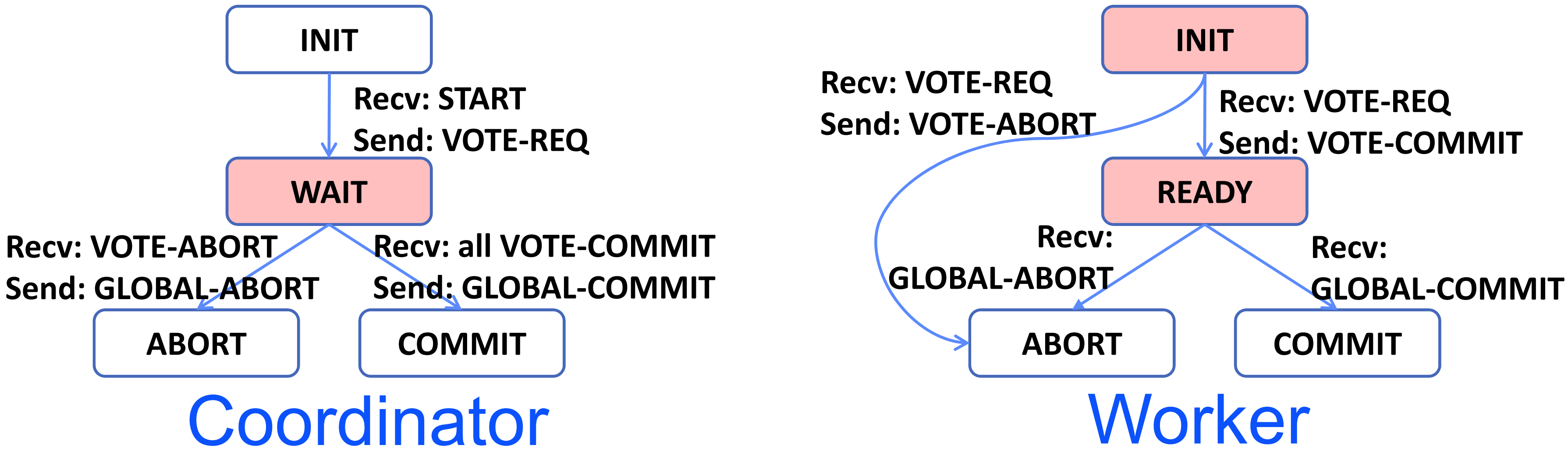
- Coordinator learns *all machines have agreed to commit*
- Record decision to commit in local log
- Apply transaction, inform voters

Abort Transaction

- Coordinator learns *at least one machine has voted to abort*
- Record decision to abort in local log
- Do not apply transaction, inform voters

Because no machine can take back its decision, exactly one of these will happen

State Machine Description of 2PC



- Two Phase Commit (2PC) can be described with interacting state machines
- Coordinator only waits for votes in "WAIT" state
  - In WAIT, if doesn't receive N votes, it times out and sends GLOBAL-ABORT
- Worker waits for VOTE-REQ in INIT
  - Worker can time out and abort (coordinator handles it)
- Worker waits for GLOBAL-* message in READY
  - Coordinator fails ⇒ workers BLOCK waiting for coordinator to recover and send GLOBAL_* message

Detailed Algorithm

Coordinator Algorithm

Coordinator sends **VOTE-REQ** to all workers

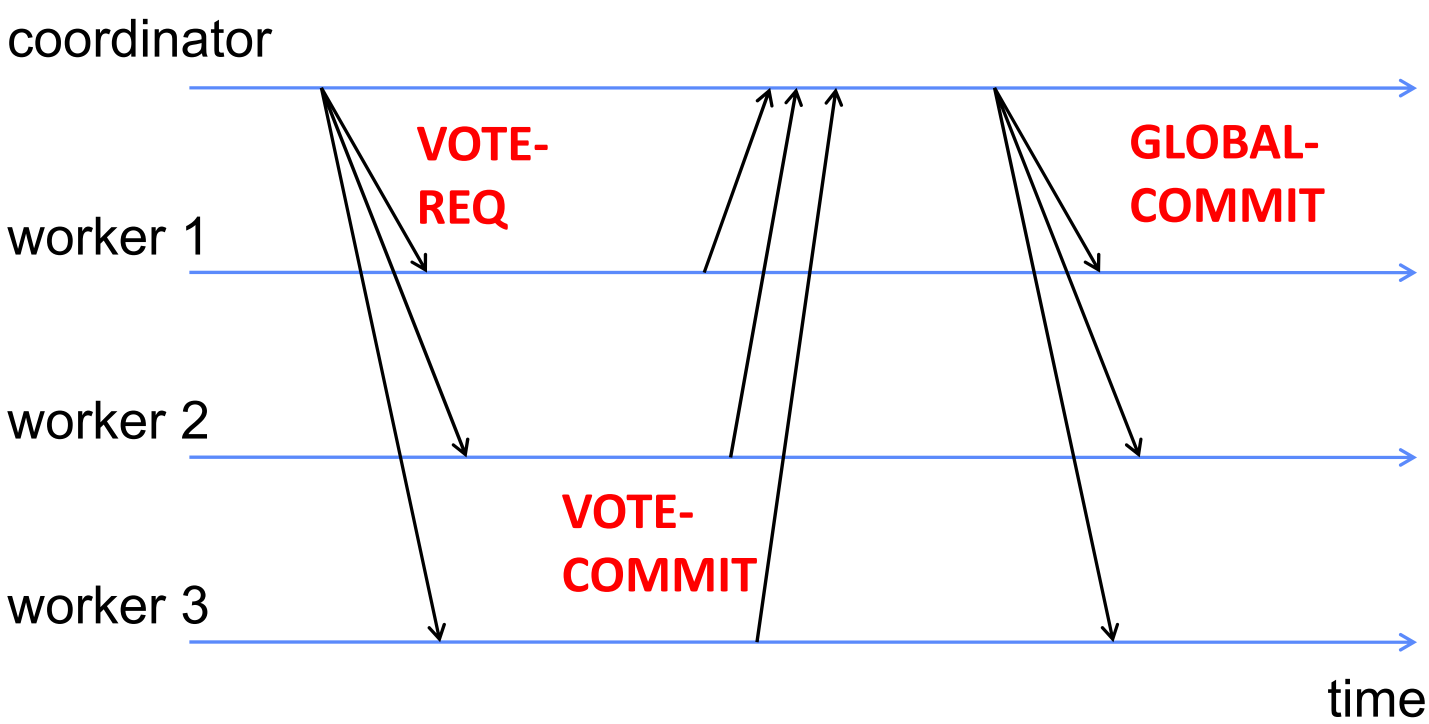
- If receive **VOTE-COMMIT** from all N workers, send **GLOBAL-COMMIT** to all workers
- If don't receive **VOTE-COMMIT** from all N workers, send **GLOBAL-ABORT** to all workers

Worker Algorithm

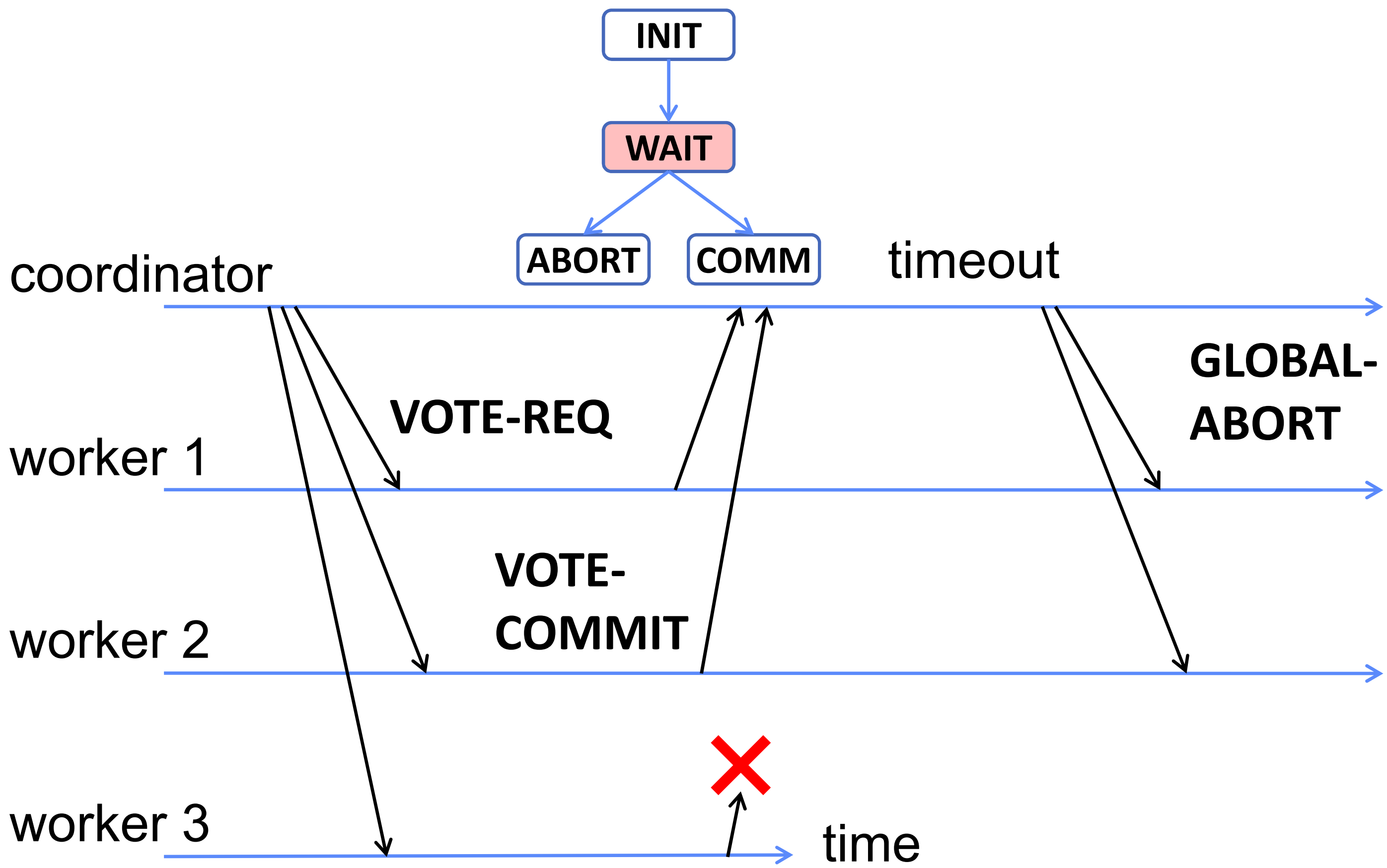
- Wait for **VOTE-REQ** from coordinator
- If ready, send **VOTE-COMMIT** to coordinator
- If not ready, send **VOTE-ABORT** to coordinator
  - And immediately abort

- If receive **GLOBAL-COMMIT** then commit
- If receive **GLOBAL-ABORT** then abort

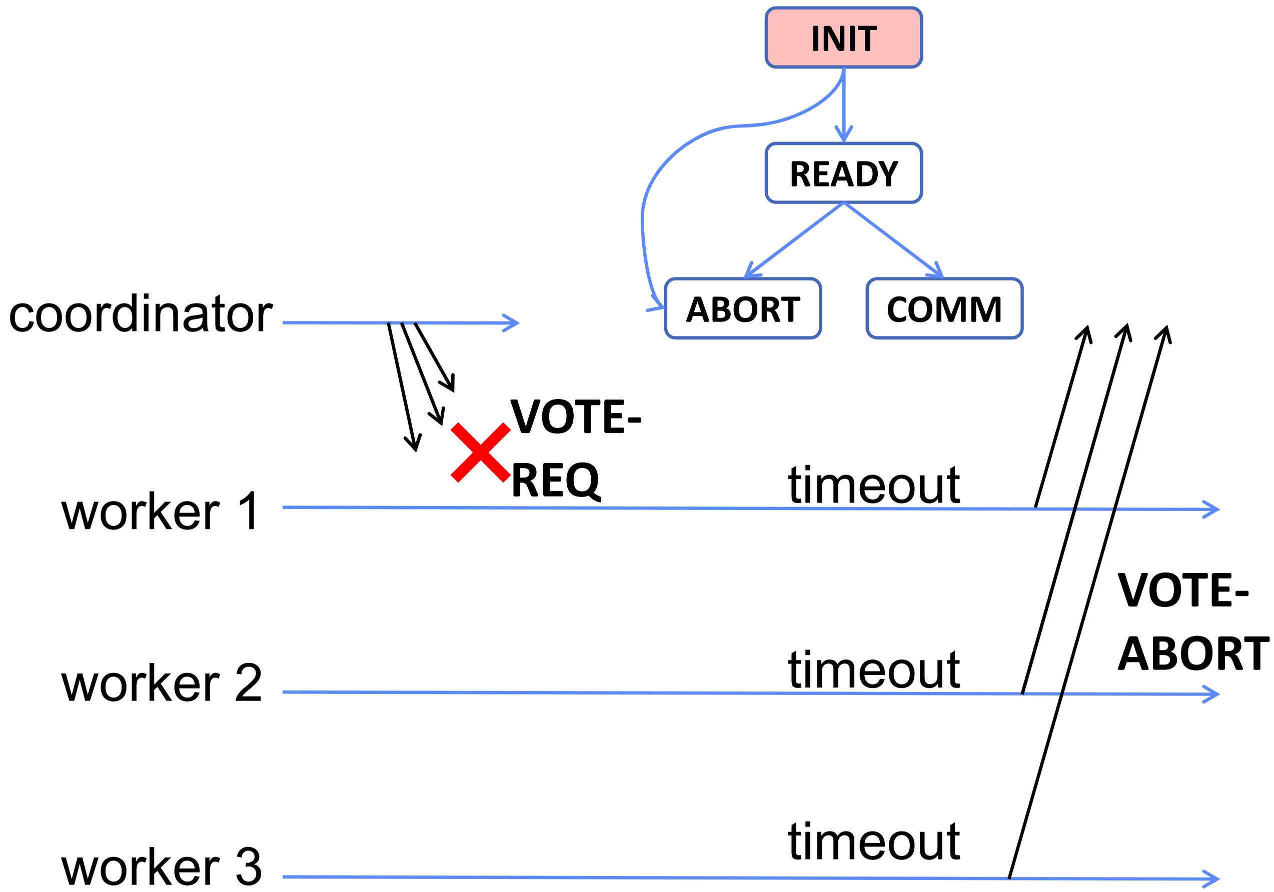
Failure Free Example Execution



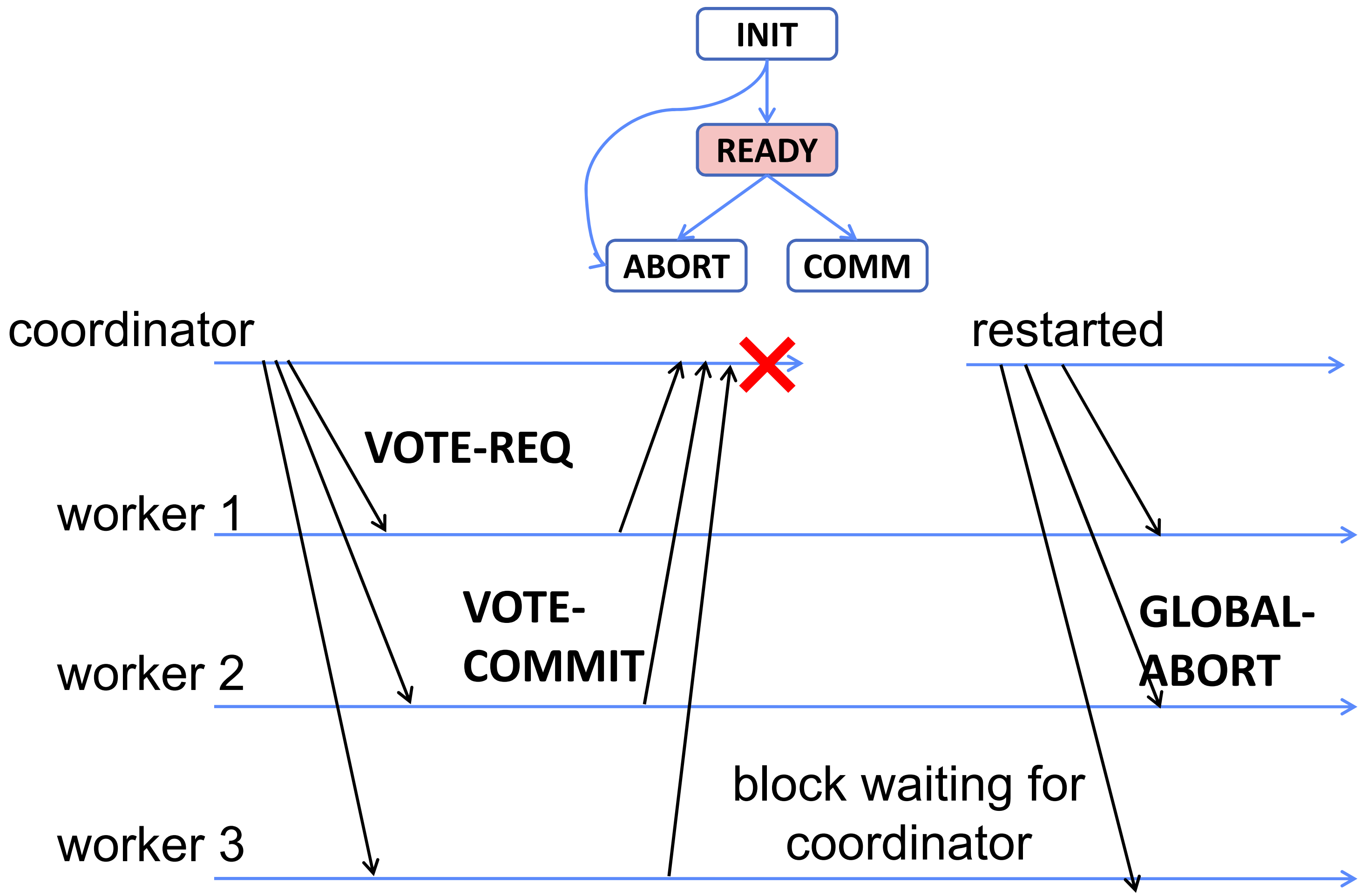
Example of Worker Failure



Example of Coordinator Failure #1



Example of Coordinator Failure #2



Durability

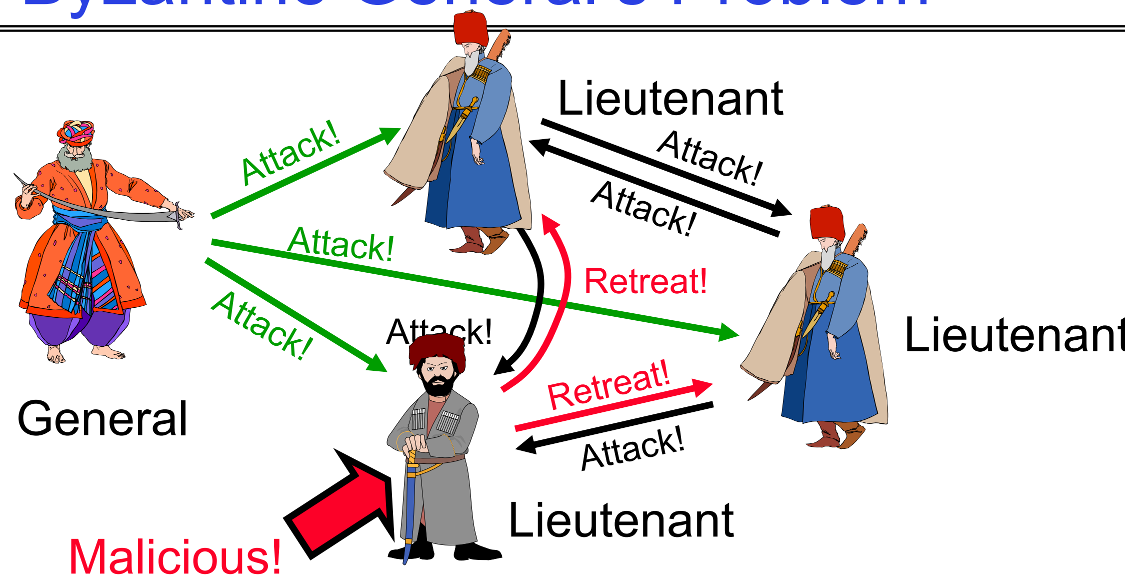
- All nodes use stable storage to store current state
  - stable storage is non-volatile storage (e.g. backed by disk) that guarantees atomic writes.
  - E.g.: SSD, NVRAM
- Upon recovery, nodes can restore state and resume:
  - Coordinator aborts in INIT, WAIT, or ABORT
  - Coordinator commits in COMMIT
  - Worker aborts in INIT, ABORT
  - Worker commits in COMMIT
  - Worker “asks” Coordinator in READY

Alternatives to 2PC

- Three-Phase Commit: One more phase, allows nodes to fail or block and still make progress.
- PAXOS: An alternative used by Google and others that does not have 2PC blocking problem
  - Develop by Leslie Lamport (Turing Award Winner)
  - No fixed leader, can choose new leader on fly, deal with failure
  - Some think this is extremely complex!
- RAFT: PAXOS alternative from John Osterhout (Stanford)
  - Simpler to describe complete protocol

- What happens if one or more of the nodes is malicious?
  - Malicious: attempting to compromise the decision making
  - Use a more hardened decision making process: Byzantine Agreement and Block Chains

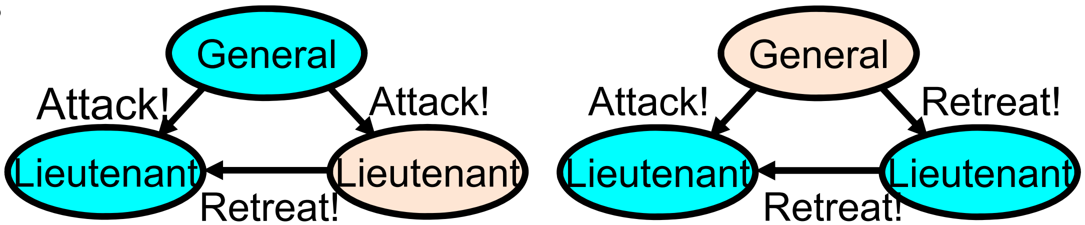
Byzantine General's Problem



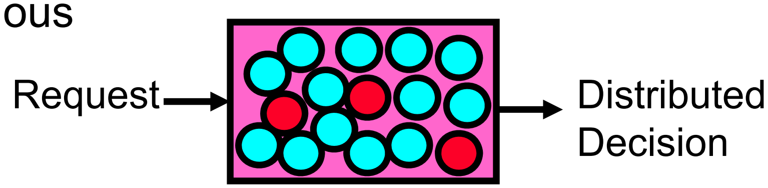
- Byazantine General's Problem (n players):
  - One General and n-1 Lieutenants
  - Some number of these (f) can be insane or malicious
- The commanding general must send an order to his n-1 lieutenants such that the following Integrity Constraints apply:
  - IC1: All loyal lieutenants obey the same order
  - IC2: If the commanding general is loyal, then all loyal lieutenants obey the order he sends

Byzantine General's Problem (con't)

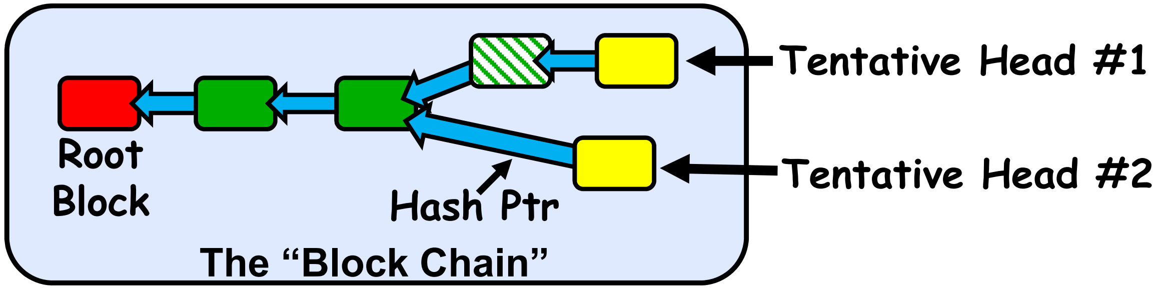
- Impossibility Results:
  - Cannot solve Byzantine General's Problem with n=3 because one malicious player can mess up things



  - With f faults, need $n > 3f$ to solve problem
- Various algorithms exist to solve problem
  - Original algorithm has #messages exponential in n
  - Newer algorithms have message complexity $O(n^2)$
    - » One from MIT, for instance (Castro and Liskov, 1999)
- Use of BFT (Byzantine Fault Tolerance) algorithm
  - Allow multiple machines to make a coordinated decision even if some subset of them (< n/3) are malicious

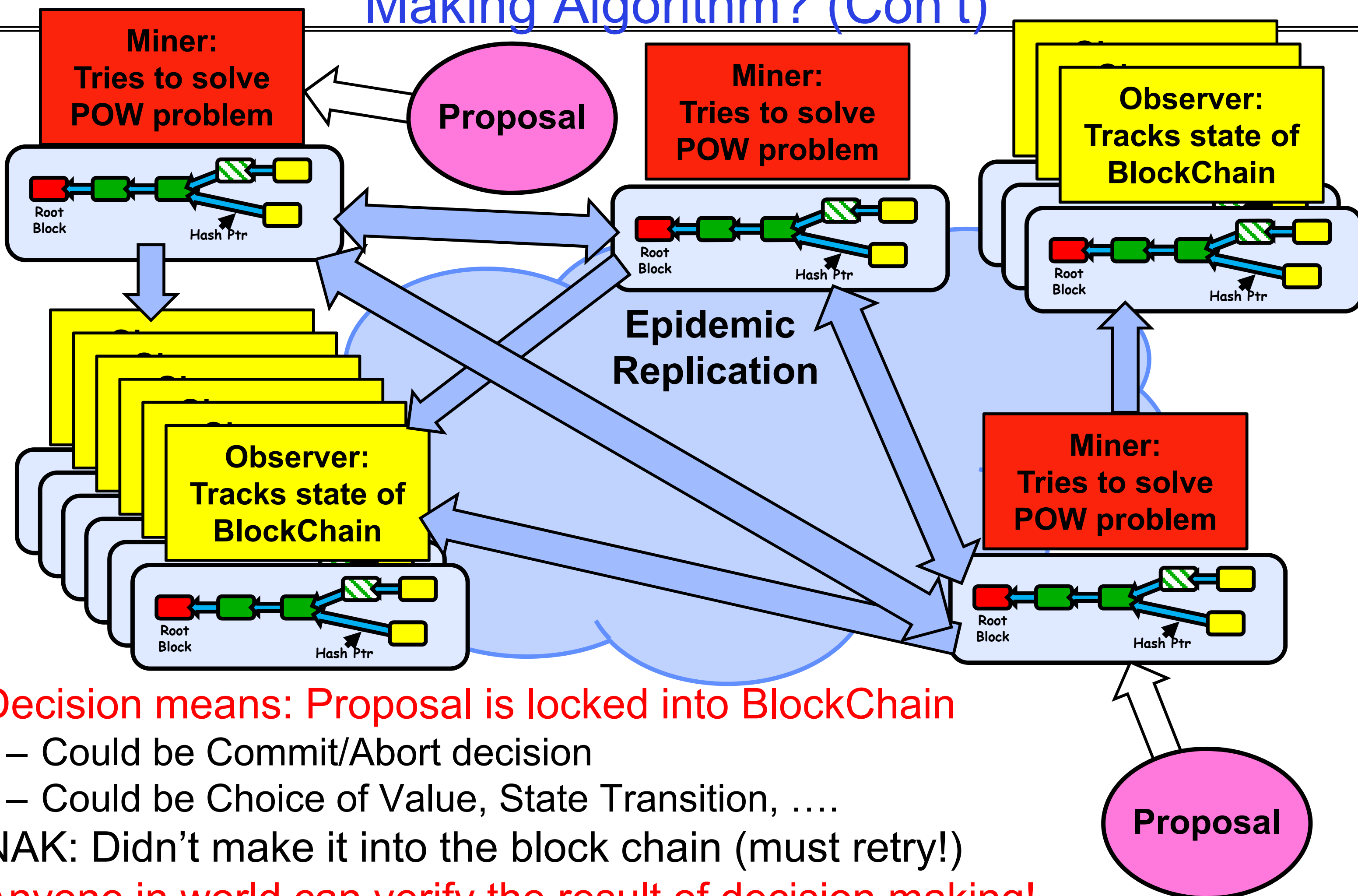


Is a BlockChain a Distributed Decision Making Algorithm?



- BlockChain: a chain of blocks connected by hashes to root block
  - The Hash Pointers are unforgeable (assumption)
  - The Chain has no branches except perhaps for heads
  - Blocks are considered "authentic" part of chain when they have authenticity info in them
- How is the head chosen?
  - Some consensus algorithm
  - In many BlockChain algorithms (e.g. BitCoin, Ethereum), the head is chosen by solving hard problem
    - » This is the job of "miners" who try to find "nonce" info that makes hash over block have specified number of zero bits in it
    - » The result is a "Proof of Work" (POW)
    - » Selected blocks above (green) have POW in them and can be included in chains
  - Longest chain wins

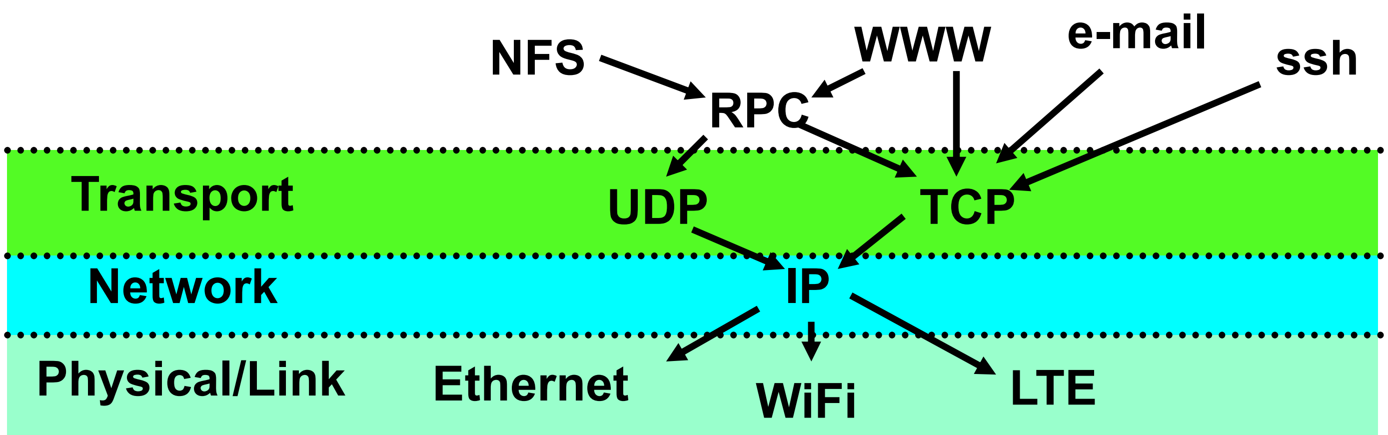
Is a Blockchain a Distributed Decision Making Algorithm? (Con't)



- Decision means: Proposal is locked into BlockChain
  - Could be Commit/Abort decision
  - Could be Choice of Value, State Transition, ….
- NAK: Didn't make it into the block chain (must retry!)
- Anyone in world can verify the result of decision making!

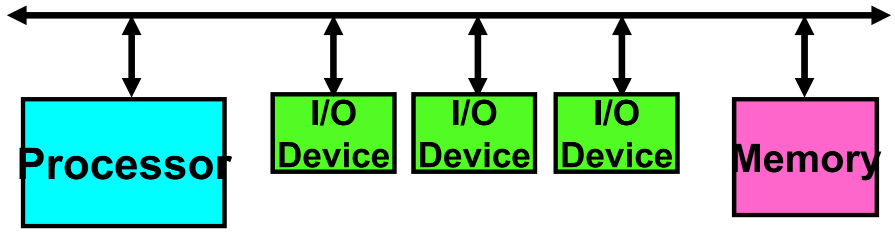
Network Protocols

- Networking protocols: many levels
  - Physical level: mechanical and electrical network (e.g., how are 0 and 1 represented)
  - Link level: packet formats/error control (for instance, the CSMA/CD protocol)
  - Network level: network routing, addressing
  - Transport Level: reliable message delivery
- Protocols on today's Internet:

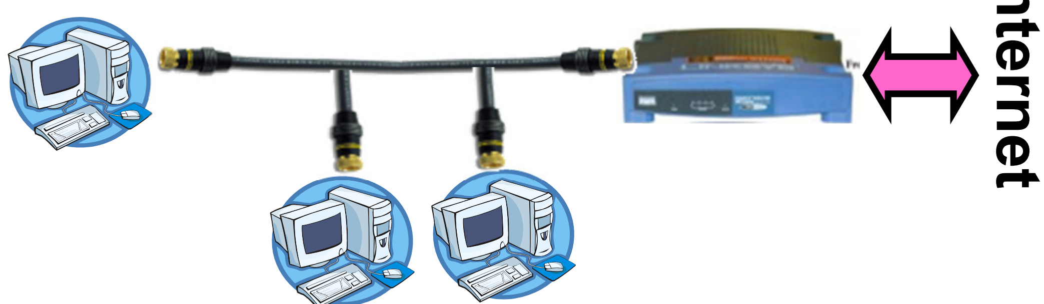


Broadcast Networks

- Broadcast Network: Shared Communication Medium

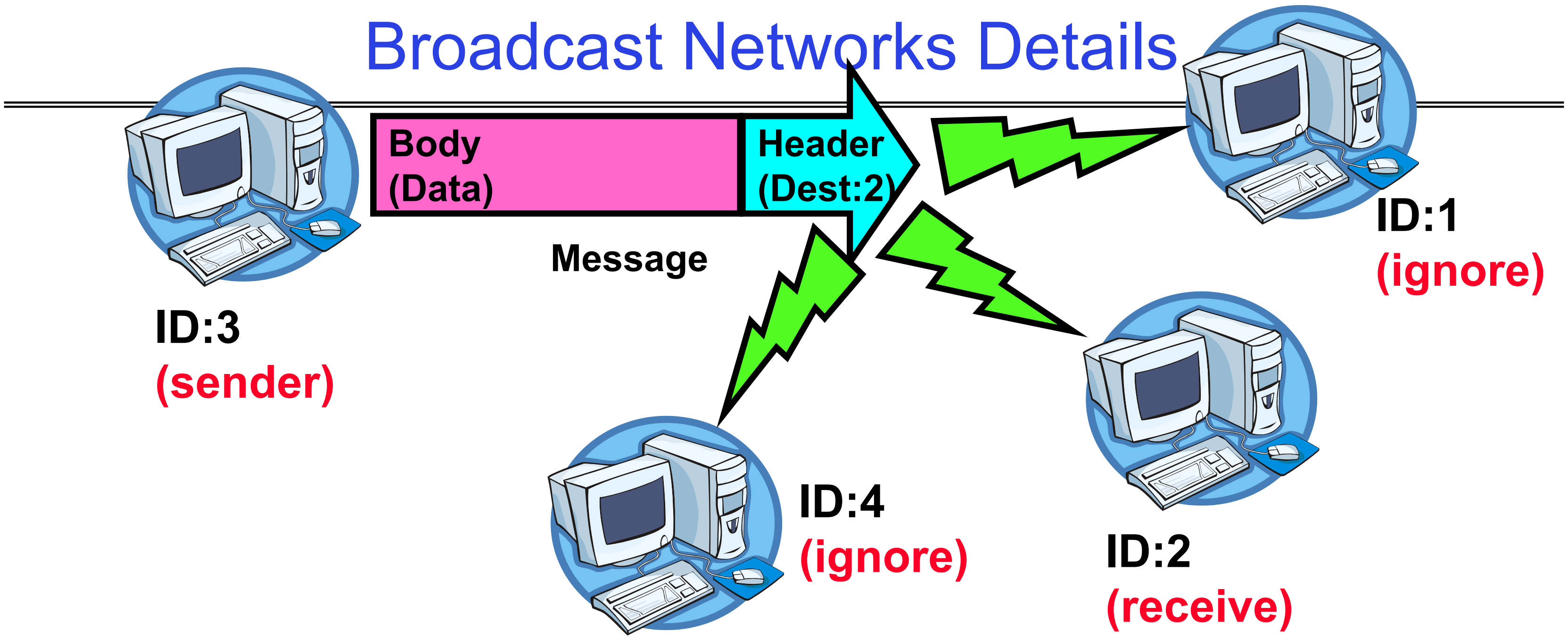


  – Shared Medium can be a set of wires
    » Inside a computer, this is called a bus
    » All devices simultaneously connected to devices



  – Originally, Ethernet was a broadcast network
    » All computers on local subnet connected to one another
  – More examples (wireless: medium is air): cellular phones (GSM, CDMA, and LTE), WiFi

Broadcast Networks Details

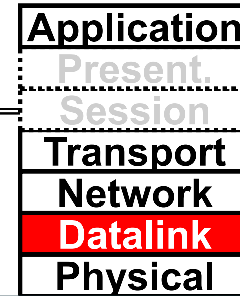


- Media Access Control (MAC) Address:
  - 48-bit physical address for hardware interface
  - Every device (in the world!?) has a unique address
- Delivery: When you broadcast a packet, how does a receiver know who it is for? (packet goes to everyone!)
  - Put header on front of packet: [Destination MAC Addr | Packet]
  - Everyone gets packet, discards if not the target
  - In Ethernet, this check is done in hardware
    - » No OS interrupt if not for particular destination

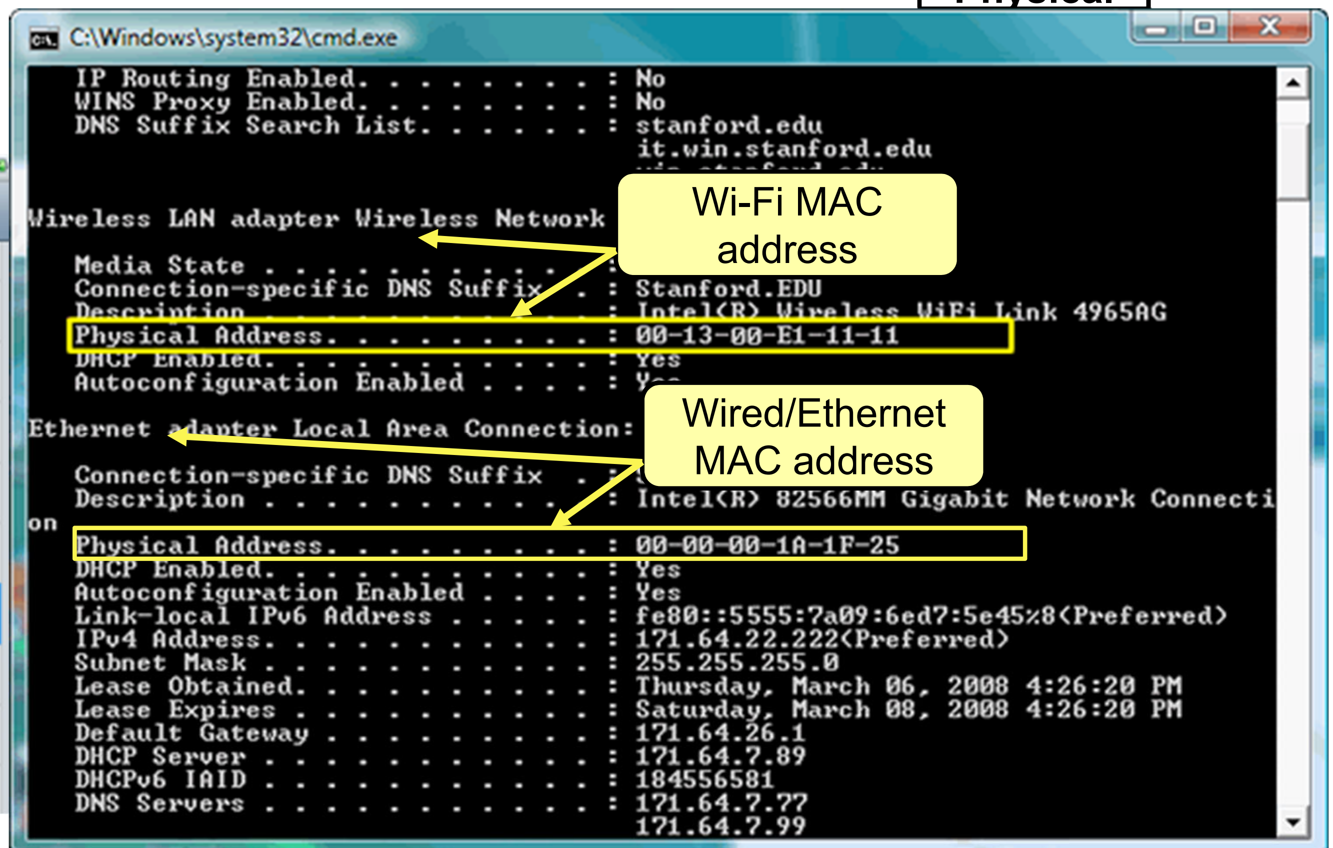
Carrier Sense, Multiple Access/Collision Detection

- Ethernet (early 80's): first practical local area network
  - It is the most common LAN for UNIX, PC, and Mac
  - Use wire instead of radio, but still broadcast medium
- Key advance was in arbitration called CSMA/CD: Carrier sense, multiple access/collision detection
  - Carrier Sense: don't send unless idle
    - » Don't mess up communications already in process
  - Collision Detect: sender checks if packet trampled.
    - » If so, abort, wait, and retry.
  - Backoff Scheme: Choose wait time before trying again
- How long to wait after trying to send and failing?
  - What if everyone waits the same length of time? Then, they all collide again at some time!
  - Must find way to break up shared behavior with nothing more than shared communication channel
- Adaptive randomized waiting strategy:
  - Adaptive and Random: First time, pick random wait time with some initial mean. If collide again, pick random value from bigger mean wait time. Etc.
  - Randomness is important to decouple colliding senders
  - Scheme figures out how many people are trying to send!

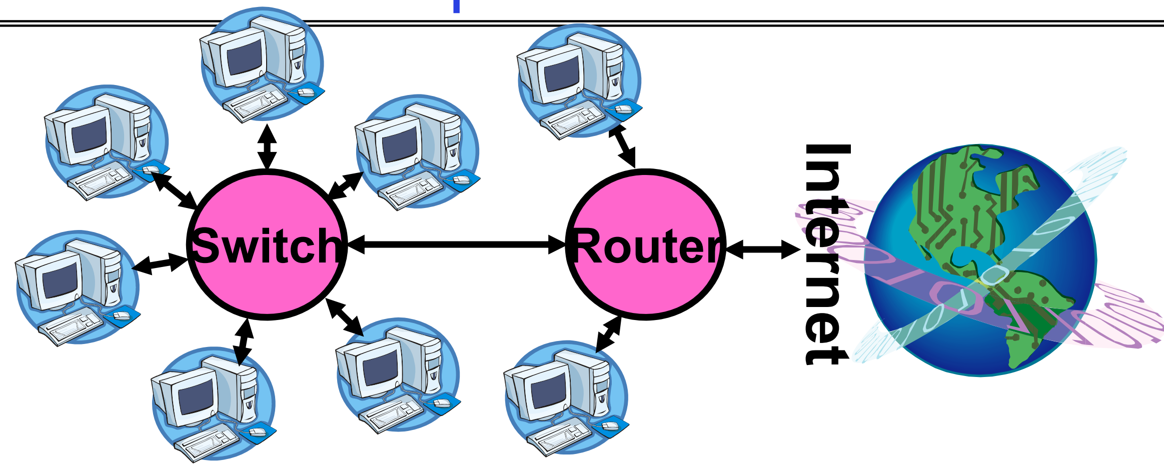
MAC Address: Unique Physical Address of Interface



- Can easily find MAC addr. on your machine/device:
  - E.g., ifconfig (Linux, Mac OS X), ipconfig (Windows)

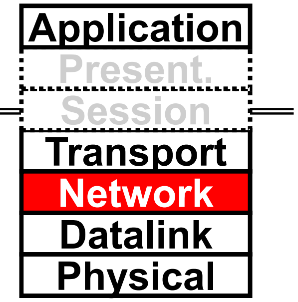


Point-to-point networks

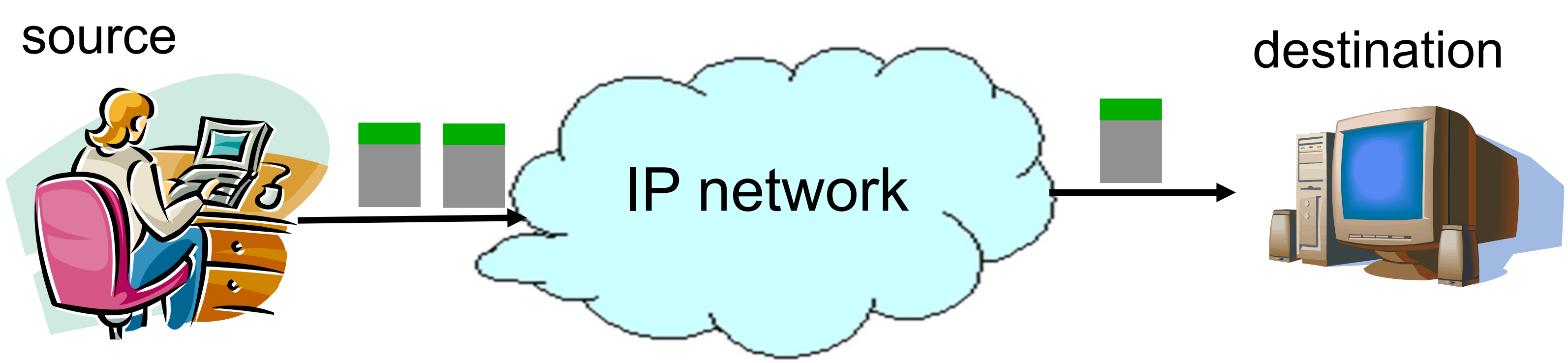


- Why have a shared bus at all? Why not simplify and only have point-to-point links + routers/switches?
  - Originally wasn't cost-effective, now hardware is cheap!
- Point-to-point network: a network in which every physical wire is connected to only two computers
- Switch: a bridge that transforms a shared-bus (broadcast) configuration into a point-to-point network
  - Adaptively figures out which ports have which MAC addresses
- Router: a device that acts as a junction between physical networks to transfer data packets among them
  - Routes between switching domains using (for instance) IP addresses

The Internet Protocol (IP)



- Internet Protocol: Internet's network layer
- Service it provides: "Best-Effort" Packet Delivery
  - Tries it's "best" to deliver packet to its destination
  - Packets may be lost
  - Packets may be corrupted
  - Packets may be delivered out of order
- IP Is a Datagram service!
  - Routes across many physical switching domains (subnets)



IPv4 Address Space

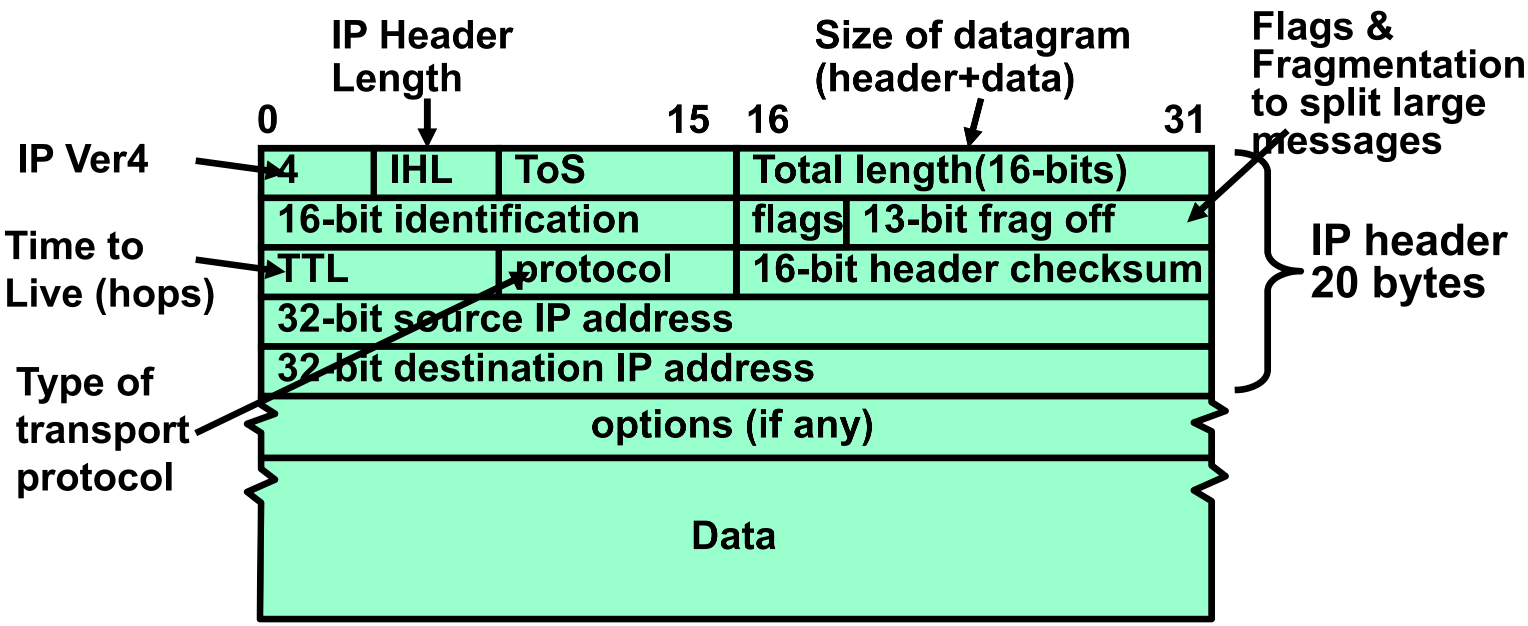
- IP Address: a 32-bit integer used as destination of IP packet
  - Often written as four dot-separated integers, with each integer from 0—255 (thus representing 8x4=32 bits)
  - Example CS file server is: 169.229.60.83 ≡ 0xA9E53C53
- Internet Host: a computer connected to the Internet
  - Host has one or more IP addresses used for routing
    - » Some of these may be private and unavailable for routing
  - Not every computer has a unique IP address
    - » Groups of machines may share a single IP address
    - » In this case, machines have private addresses behind a "Network Address Translation" (NAT) gateway
- Subnet: network connecting hosts with related IP addresses
  - A subnet is identified by 32-bit value, with the bits which differ set to zero, followed by a slash and a mask
    - » Example: 128.32.131.0/24 designates a subnet in which all the addresses look like 128.32.131.XX
    - » Same subnet: 128.32.131.0/255.255.255.0
  - Mask: The number of matching prefix bits
    - » Expressed as a single value (e.g., 24) or a set of ones in a 32-bit value (e.g., 255.255.255.0)
  - Often routing *within* subnet is by MAC address (smart switches)

Address Ranges in IPv4

- IP address space divided into prefix-delimited ranges:
  - Class A: NN.0.0.0/8
    - » NN is 1–126 (126 of these networks)
    - » 16,777,214 IP addresses per network
    - » 10.xx.yy.zz is private
    - » 127.xx.yy.zz is loopback
  - Class B: NN.MM.0.0/16
    - » NN is 128–191, MM is 0-255 (16,384 of these networks)
    - » 65,534 IP addresses per network
    - » 172.[16-31].xx.yy are private
  - Class C: NN.MM.LL.0/24
    - » NN is 192–223, MM and LL 0-255 (2,097,151 of these networks)
    - » 254 IP addresses per networks
    - » 192.168.xx.yy are private
- Address ranges are often owned by organizations
  - Can be further divided into subnets

IPv4 Packet Format

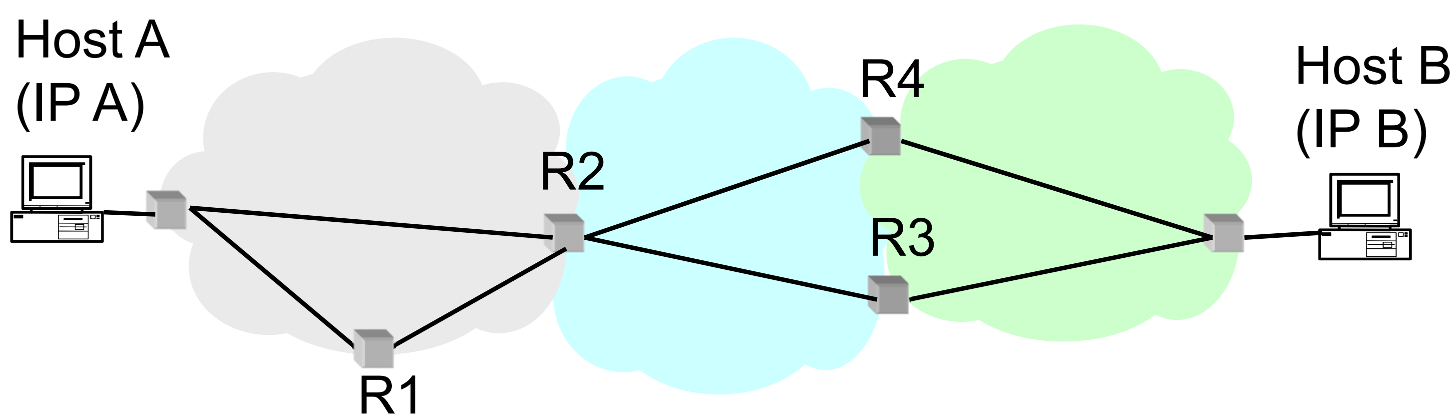
- IP Packet Format:



- IP Datagram: an unreliable, unordered, packet sent from source to destination
  - Function of network – deliver datagrams!

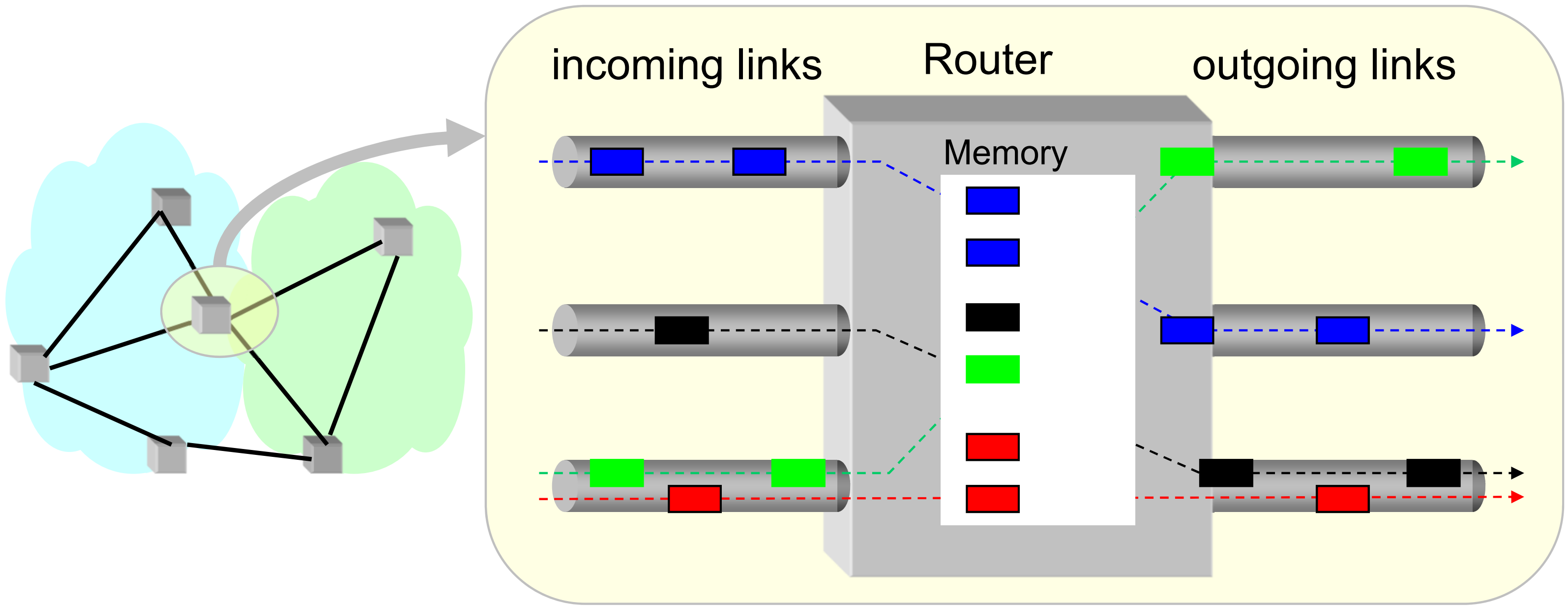
Wide Area Network

- **Wide Area Network** (WAN): network that covers a broad area (e.g., city, state, country, entire world)
  – E.g., Internet is a WAN
- WAN connects multiple physical (datalink) layer networks (LANs)
- Datalink layer networks are connected by **routers**
  – Different LANs can use different communication technology (e.g., wireless, cellular, optics, wired)



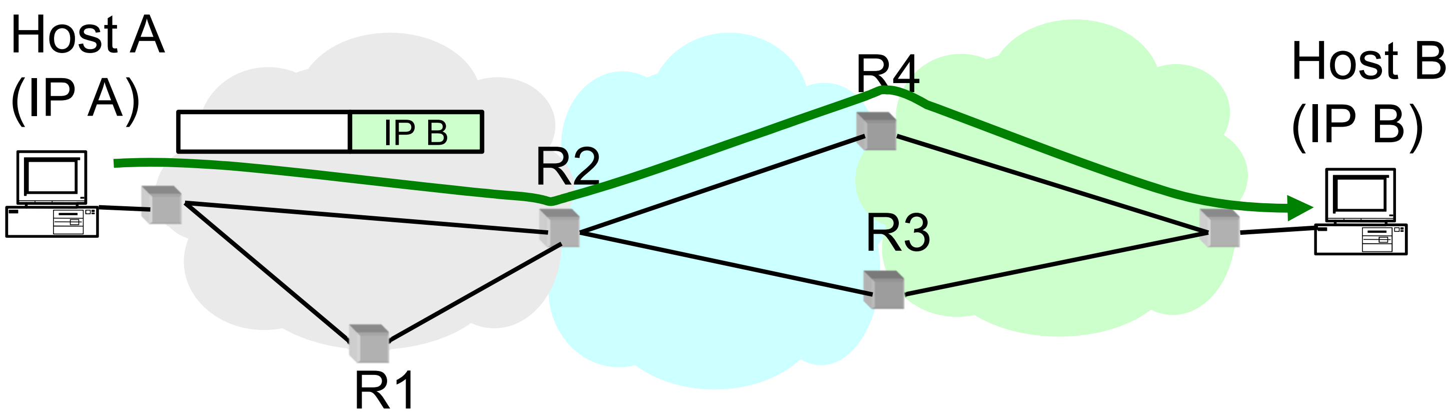
Routers

- **Forward** each packet received on an **incoming link** to an **outgoing link** based on packet's destination IP address (towards its destination)
- **Store & forward**: packets are buffered before being forwarded
- **Forwarding table**: mapping between IP address and the output link



Packet Forwarding

- Upon receiving a packet, a router
  - read the IP destination address of the packet
  - consults its forwarding table → output port
  - forwards packet to corresponding output port
- Default route (for subnets without explicit entries)
  - Forward to more authoritative router



IP Addresses vs. MAC Addresses

- Why not use MAC addresses for routing?
  – Doesn't scale
- Analogy
  – MAC address → SSN
  – IP address → (unreadable) home address
- MAC address: uniquely associated with device for the entire lifetime of the device
- IP address: changes as the device location changes
  – Your notebook IP address at school is different from home

IP Addresses vs. MAC Addresses

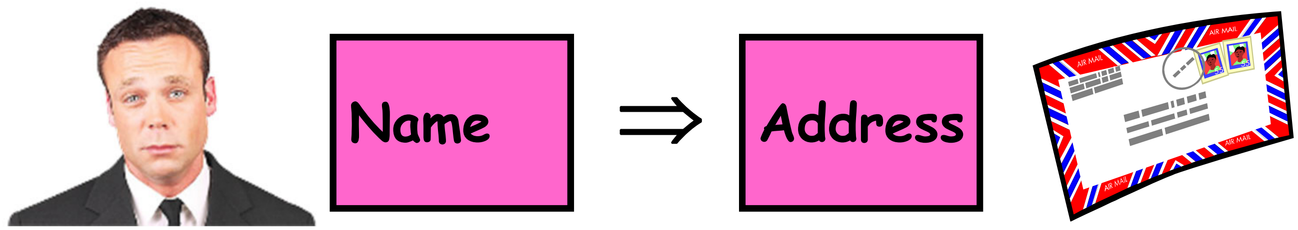
- Why does packet forwarding using IP addr. scale?
- Because IP addresses can be aggregated
  - E.g., all IP addresses at UC Berkeley start with **0xA9E5**, i.e., any address of form 0xA9E5**** belongs to Berkeley
  - Thus, a router in NY needs to keep a **single** entry for **all** hosts at Berkeley
  - If we were using MAC addresses the NY router would need to maintain **an entry for every** Berkeley host!!

- Analogy:
  - Give this letter to person with SSN: 123-45-6789 vs.
  - Give this letter to "John Smith, 123 First Street, LA, US"

Setting up Routing Tables

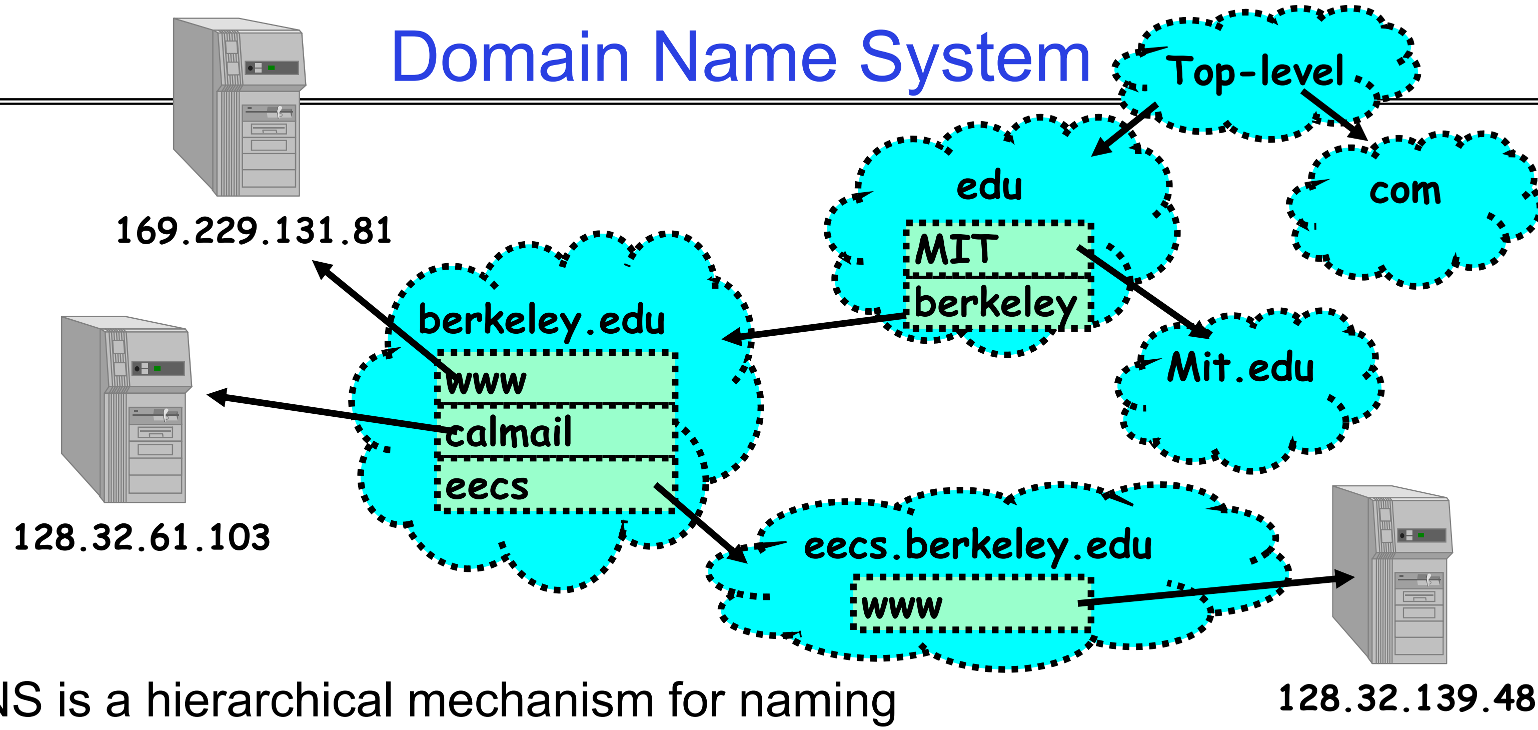
- How do you set up routing tables?
  - Internet has no centralized state!
    - » No single machine knows entire topology
    - » Topology constantly changing (faults, reconfiguration, etc.)
  - Need dynamic algorithm that acquires routing tables
    - » Ideally, have one entry per subnet or portion of address
    - » Could have “default” routes that send packets for unknown subnets to a different router that has more information
- Possible algorithm for acquiring routing table
  - Routing table has “cost” for each entry
    - » Includes number of hops to destination, congestion, etc.
    - » Entries for unknown subnets have infinite cost
  - Neighbors periodically exchange routing tables
    - » If neighbor knows cheaper route to a subnet, replace your entry with neighbors entry (+1 for hop to neighbor)
- In reality:
  - Internet has networks of many different scales
  - Different algorithms run at different scales

Naming in the Internet



- How to map human-readable names to IP addresses?
  - E.g. www.berkeley.edu ⇒ 128.32.139.48
  - E.g. www.google.com ⇒ different addresses depending on location, and load
- Why is this necessary?
  - IP addresses are hard to remember
  - IP addresses change:
    - » Say, Server 1 crashes gets replaced by Server 2
    - » Or – google.com handled by different servers
- Mechanism: Domain Naming System (DNS)

Domain Name System



- DNS is a hierarchical mechanism for naming
  - Name divided in domains, right to left: www.eecs.berkeley.edu
- Each domain owned by a particular organization
  - Top level handled by ICANN (Internet Corporation for Assigned Numbers and Names)
  - Subsequent levels owned by organizations
- Resolution: series of queries to successive servers
- Caching: queries take time, so results cached for period of time

How Important is Correct Resolution?

- If attacker manages to give incorrect mapping:
  - Can get someone to route to server, thinking that they are routing to a different server
    - » Get them to log into "bank" – give up username and password
- Is DNS Secure?
  - Definitely a weak link
    - » What if "response" returned from different server than original query?
    - » Get person to use incorrect IP address!
  - Attempt to avoid substitution attacks:
    - » Query includes random number which must be returned
- In July 2008, hole in DNS security located!
  - Dan Kaminsky (security researcher) discovered an attack that broke DNS globally
    - » One person in an ISP convinced to load particular web page, then all users of that ISP end up pointing at wrong address
  - High profile, highly advertised need for patching DNS
    - » Big press release, lots of mystery
    - » Security researchers told no speculation until patches applied

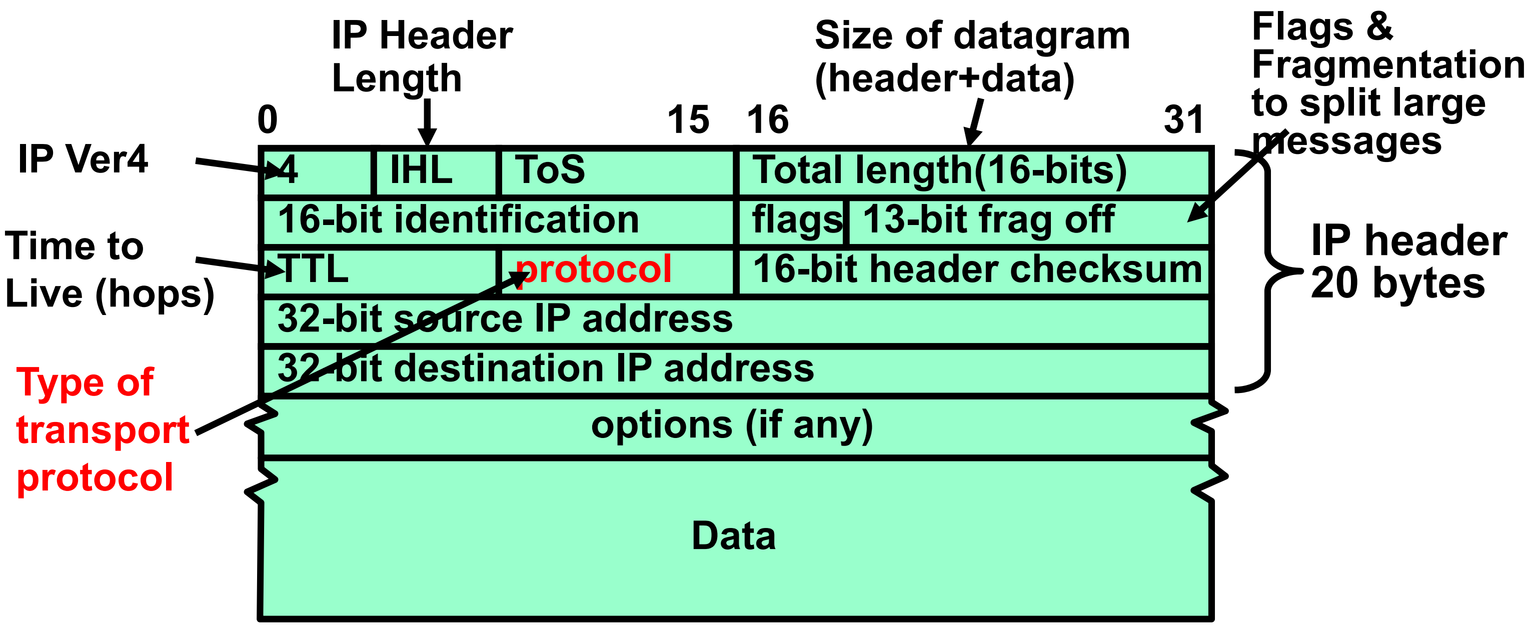
Network Layering

- Layering: building complex services from simpler ones
  - Each layer provides services needed by higher layers by utilizing services provided by lower layers
- The physical/link layer is pretty limited
  - Packets are of limited size (called the "Maximum Transfer Unit or MTU: often 200-1500 bytes in size)
  - Routing is limited to within a physical link (wire) or perhaps through a switch
- Our goal in the following is to show how to construct a secure, ordered, message service routed to anywhere:

Physical Reality: Packets	Abstraction: Messages
Limited Size (MTU)	Arbitrary Size
Unordered (sometimes)	Ordered
Unreliable	Reliable
Machine-to-machine	Process-to-process
Only on local area net	Routed anywhere
Asynchronous	Synchronous
Insecure	Secure

Recall: IPv4 Packet Format

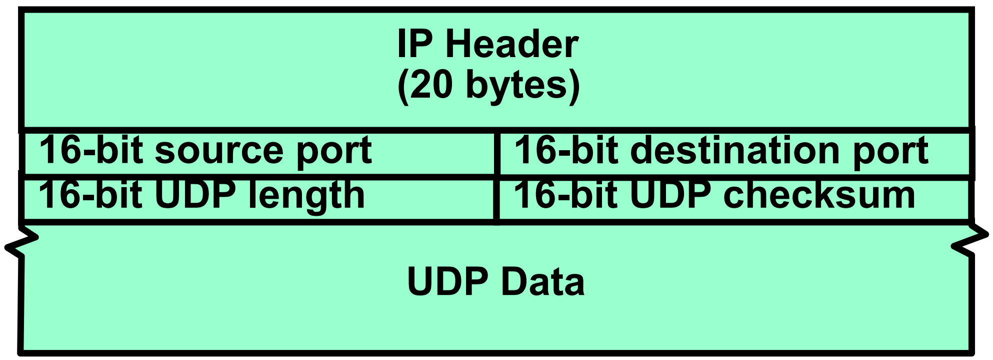
- IP Packet Format:



- IP Datagram: an unreliable, unordered, packet sent from source to destination
  – Function of network – deliver datagrams!

Building a messaging service on IP

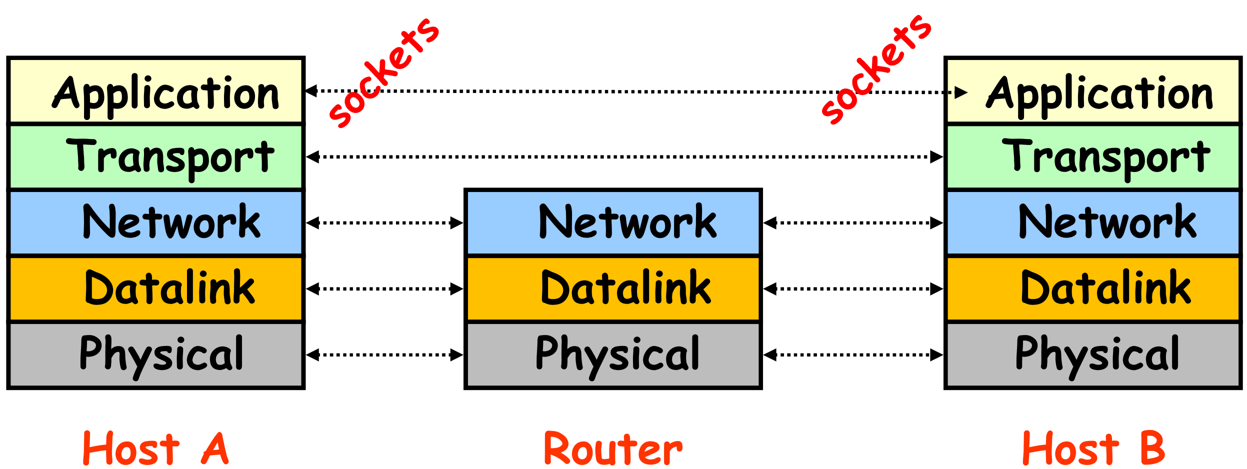
- Process to process communication
  - Basic routing gets packets from machine→machine
  - What we really want is routing from process→process
    - » Add "ports", which are 16-bit identifiers
    - » A communication channel (connection) defined by 5 items: [source addr, source port, dest addr, dest port, protocol]
- For example: The Unreliable Datagram Protocol (UDP)
  - Layered on top of basic IP (IP Protocol 17)
    - » Datagram: an unreliable, unordered, packet sent from source user → dest user (Call it UDP/IP)



  - Important aspect: low overhead!
    - » Often used for high-bandwidth video streams
    - » Many uses of UDP considered "anti-social" – none of the "well-behaved" aspects of (say) TCP/IP

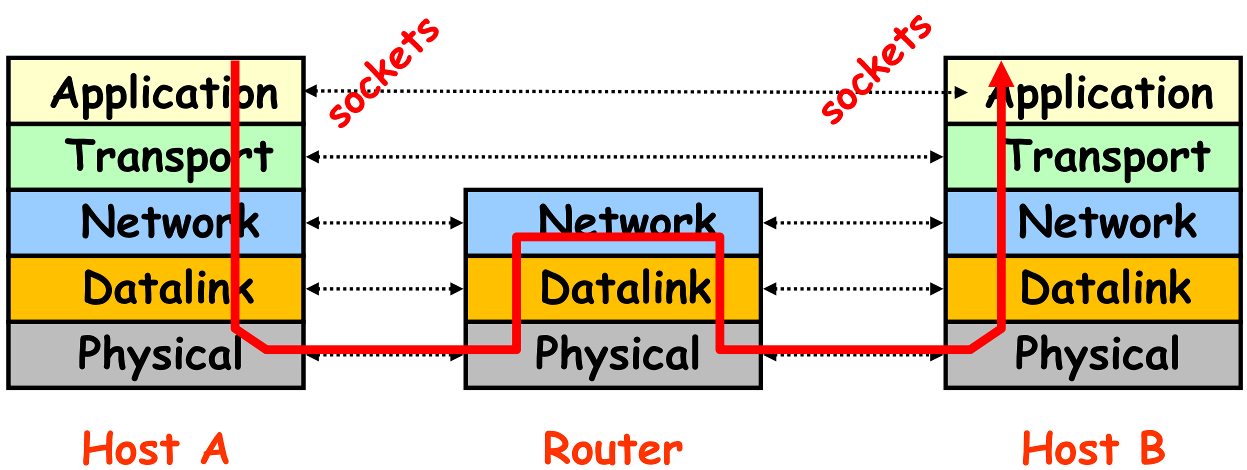
Internet Architecture: Five Layers

- Lower three layers implemented everywhere
- Top two layers implemented only at hosts

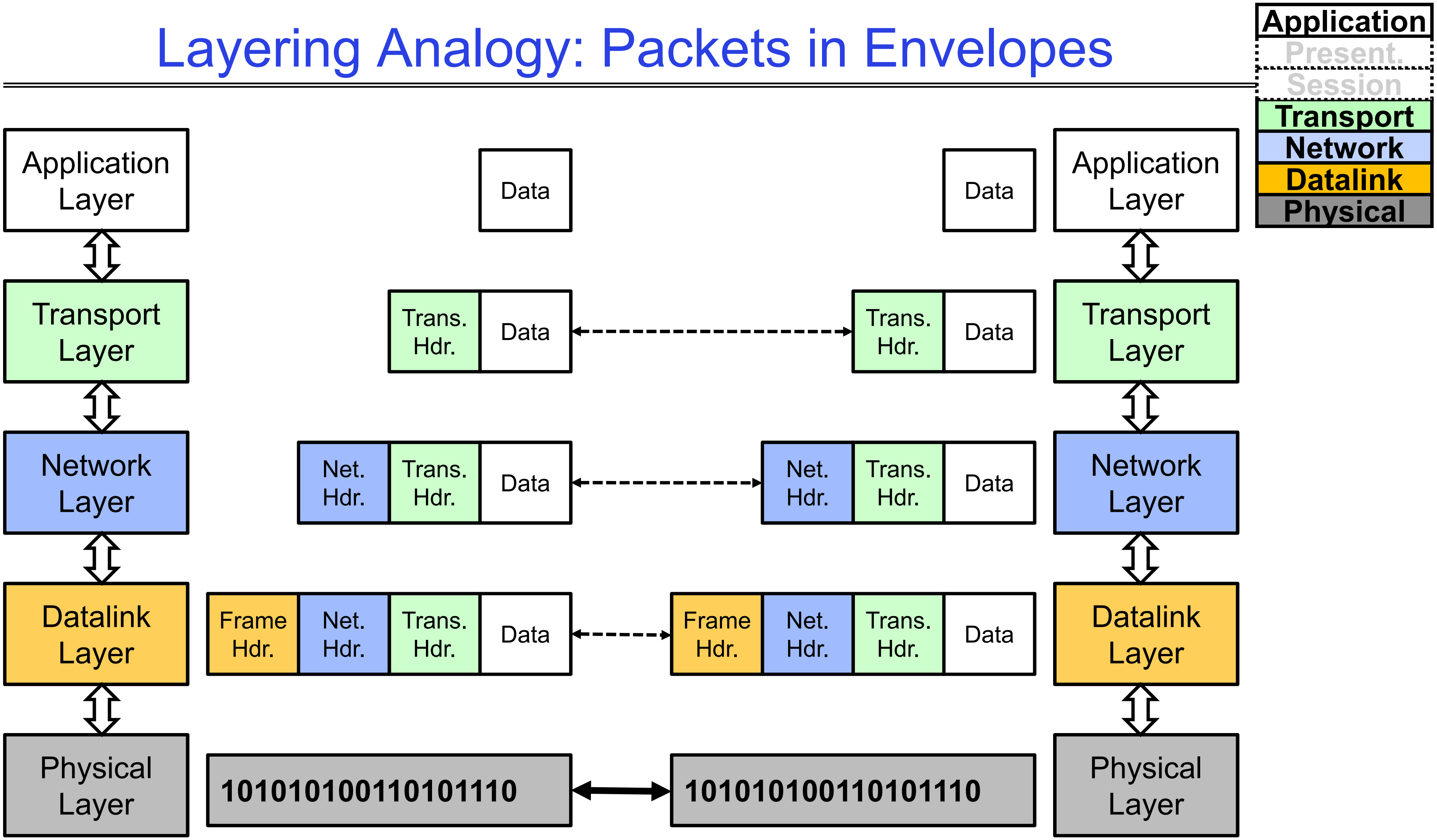


Internet Architecture: Five Layers

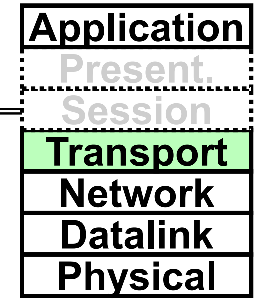
- Communication goes down to physical network
- Then from network peer to peer
- Then up to relevant layer



Layering Analogy: Packets in Envelopes

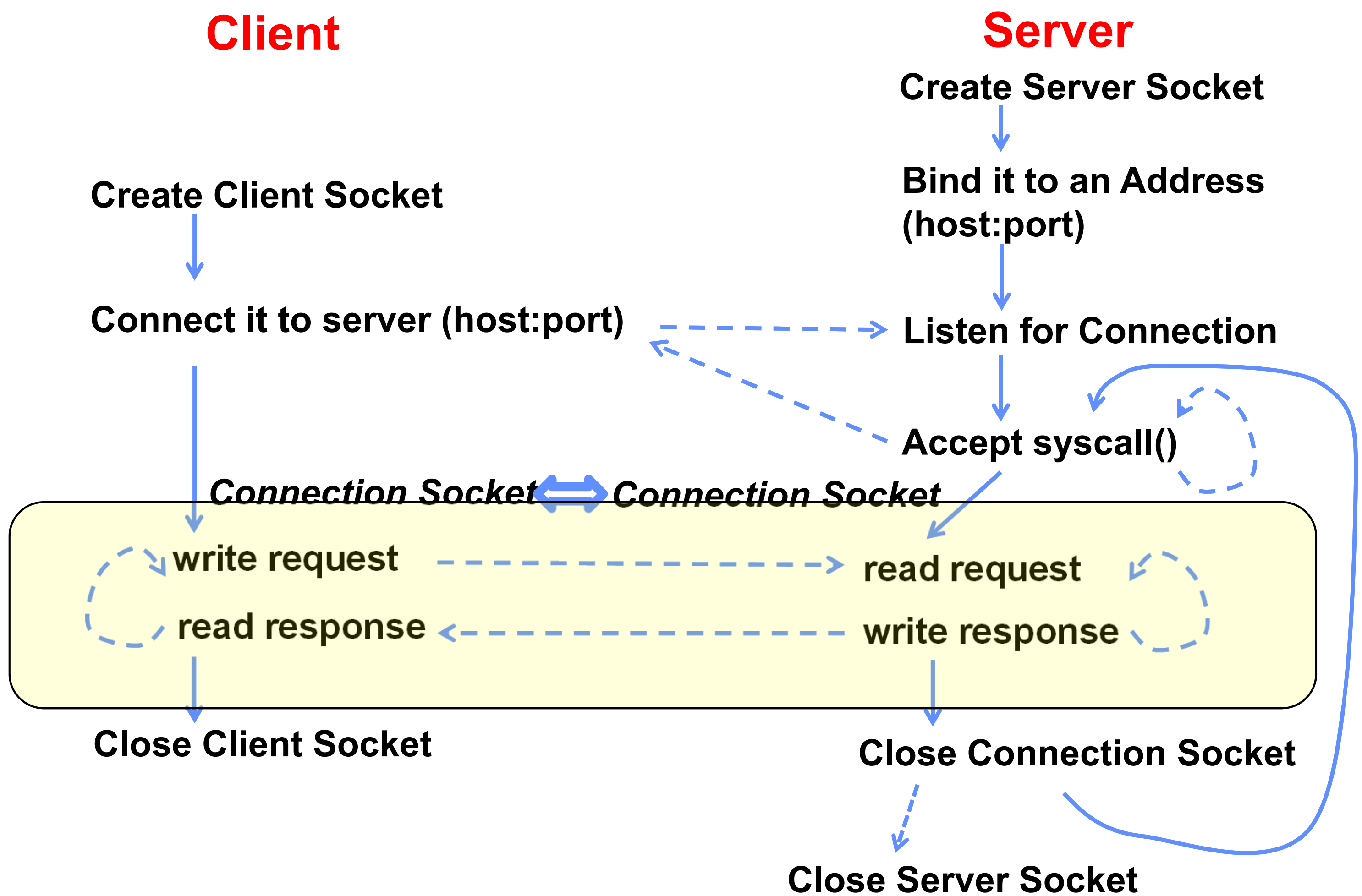


Internet Transport Protocols



- Datagram service (**UDP**): IP Protocol 17
  – No-frills extension of "best-effort" IP
  – Multiplexing/Demultiplexing among processes
- Reliable, in-order delivery (**TCP**): IP Protocol6
  – Connection set-up & tear-down
  – Discarding corrupted packets (segments)
  – Retransmission of lost packets (segments)
  – Flow control
  – Congestion control
- Other examples:
  – DCCP (33), Datagram Congestion Control Protocol
  – RDP (26), Reliable Data Protocol
  – SCTP (132), Stream Control Transmission Protocol

Recall: Sockets in concept



Summary (1/3)

- A protocol is an agreement on how to communicate, including:
  - Syntax: how a communication is specified & structured
    - » Format, order messages are sent and received
  - Semantics: what a communication means
    - » Actions taken when transmitting, receiving, or when a timer expires
- Consensus problem
  - All nodes propose a value
  - Some nodes might crash and stop responding
  - Eventually, all remaining nodes decide on the same value from set of proposed values
- Two-phase commit: a form of distributed decision making
  - First, make sure everyone guarantees they will commit if asked (prepare)
  - Next, ask everyone to commit

Summary (2/3)

- Byzantine General's Problem: distributed decision making with malicious failures
  - One general, n-1 lieutenants: some number of them may be malicious (often "f" of them)
  - All non-malicious lieutenants must come to same decision
  - If general not malicious, lieutenants must follow general
  - Only solvable if $n \geq 3f+1$
- BlockChain protocols
  - Cryptographically-driven ordering protocol
  - Could be used for distributed decision making

Summary (3/3)

- Internet Protocol (IP): Datagram packet delivery
  - Used to route messages through routes across globe
  - 32-bit addresses, 16-bit ports
- DNS: System for mapping from names⇒IP addresses
  - Hierarchical mapping from authoritative domains
  - Recent flaws discovered
- Next time: TCP: Reliable byte stream between two processes on different machines over Internet (read, write, flush)
  - Uses window-based acknowledgement protocol
  - Congestion-avoidance dynamically adapts sender window to account for congestion in network