計算機網路概論 (Computer Networks)

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Prof. Tsai

課程內容與要求

- 本課程主要在介紹目前的計算機網路,包括有線網路及 無線網路。介紹相關的網路架構,網路通訊協定,網路 介接,網路流量控制,及相關的應用。學生可以藉由此 課程更加了解目前的計算機網路。
- 教科書: Computer Networks: A System Approach, 5th Ed.

– by Larry L. Peterson and Bruce S. Davie

– Morgan Kaufmann Publishers, 2011

講義位置:

課程內容與要求

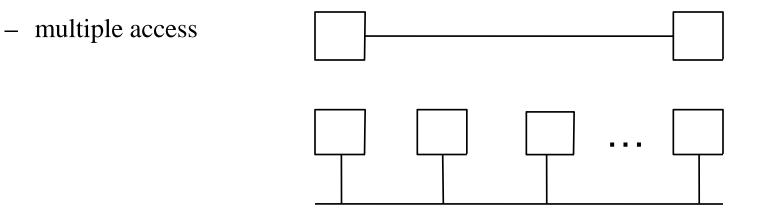
- 參考書目
 - Computer Networks by Andrew S. Tanenbaum, 4th Ed., Prentice-Hall PTR, 2003.
 - An Introduction to Computer Networking by Kenneth C.
 Mansfield Jr. and James L. Antonakos, Prentice-Hall PTR, 2002.
 - Computer Communications and Networking Technologies by Michael A. Gallo and William M. Hancock, Thomson Learning Inc., 2002.

課程內容與要求

- 課程內容
 - Direct-Link Network
 - Packet Switching
 - Internetworking
 - End-to-End Protocols
 - Congestion Control and Resource Allocation
 - End-to-End Data
 - Network Security
 - Applications
- 課程要求
 - Midterm Exam (25 %)
 - Final Exam (30 %)
 - Quiz (15 %)
 - Homework (25 %)
 - Class participation (5%)

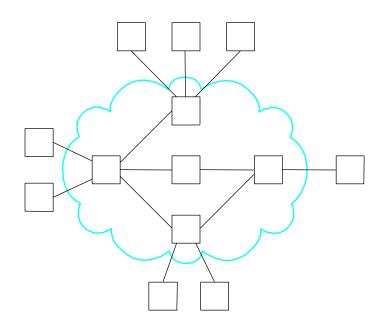
Building Blocks

- Nodes: PC, special-purpose hardware...
 - hosts
 - switches
- Links: coax cable, optical fiber...
 - point-to-point

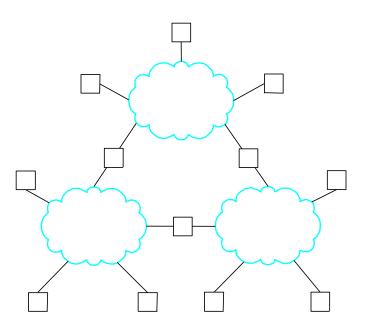


Switched Networks

- A network can be defined recursively as...
 - two or more nodes connected by a link, or



 two or more networks connected by two or more nodes



Strategies

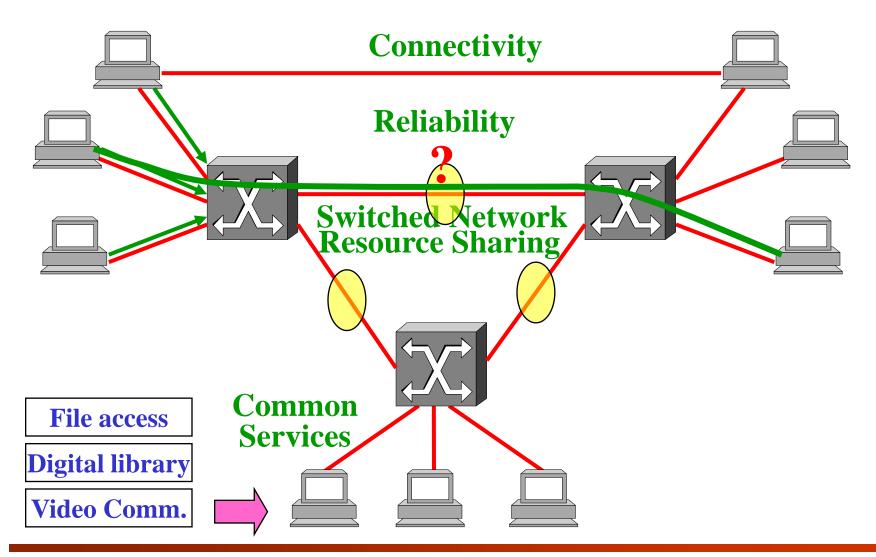
- Circuit switching: carry bit streams
 original telephone network
- Packet switching: store-and-forward messages
 - Internet

Addressing and Routing

- Address: byte-string that identifies a node
 - usually unique
- Routing: process of forwarding messages to the destination node based on its address
- Types of addresses
 - unicast: node-specific
 - broadcast: all nodes on the network
 - multicast: some subset of nodes on the network

Requirements

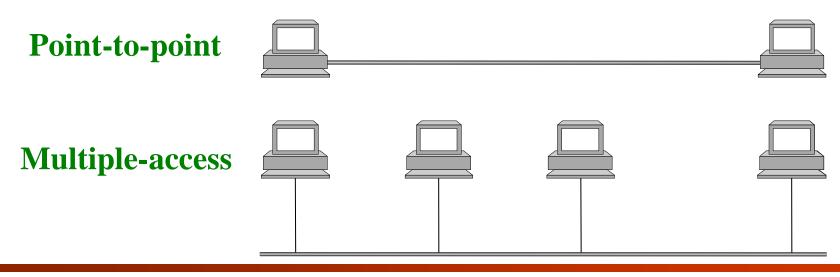
Requirements



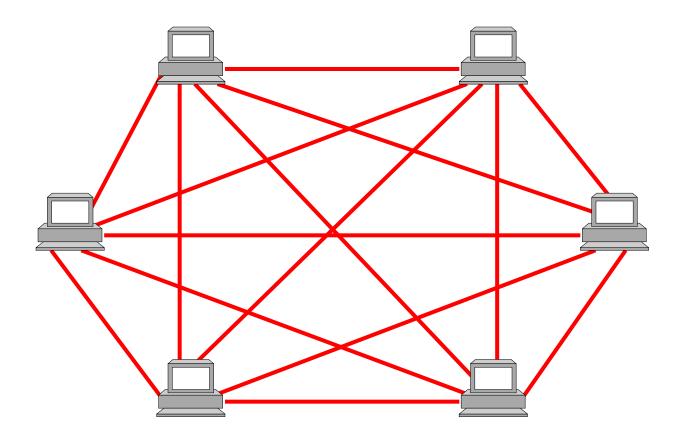
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- A network must provide connectivity among a set of computers.
- Private networks:
 - Limit the set of machines that are connected
 - For reasons of **privacy** and **security**
 - Prevent virus infection and hacker attacks
- **Public networks** (Internet):
 - Allows them the potential to connect all the computers in the world

- Network connectivity occurs at many different levels
- A network can consist of two or more computers directly connected by some **physical medium**
 - Such as a coaxial cable or an optical fiber.
- Link: such a physical medium
- Node: the computers it connects



• If all nodes are **directly connected to each other** over a common physical medium

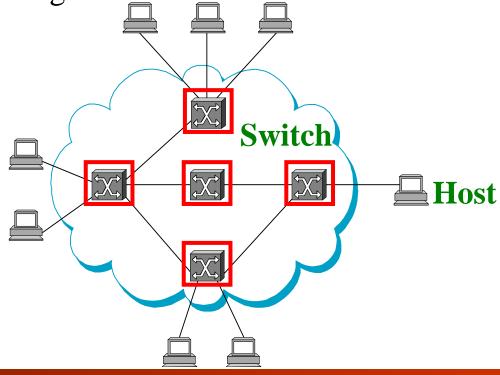


- A directly connected network
 - Networks would be very **limited** in the number of computers they could connect
 - The number of wires of each node would quickly become both unmanageable and very expensive
 - Number of wires: $N \times (N-1)/2$
- **Indirect connectivity** should be achieved among a set of cooperating nodes
 - Switched network

Switched Network

Switched Network

- Each node is attached to **one or more** point-to-point links
- Switch: those nodes that are attached to at least two links
 - Forwards data received on one link out on another
- These forwarding nodes form a **Switched Network**

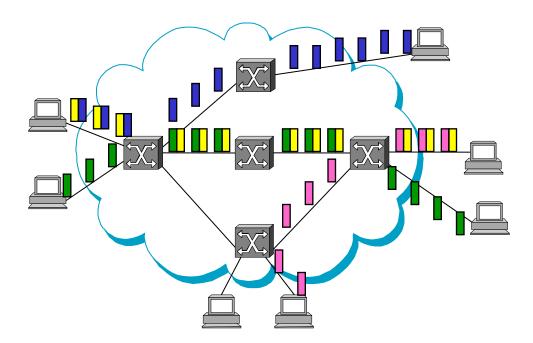


Types of Switched Network

- Two most common types of switched networks:
 - Circuit-switched: most notably employed by the telephony system
 - Packet-switched: used for the overwhelming majority of computer networks
- Packet:
 - A block of data
 - Corresponding to some piece of application data
 - such as a file, a piece of email, or an image
- The major reason for using packet switching
 - Efficiency

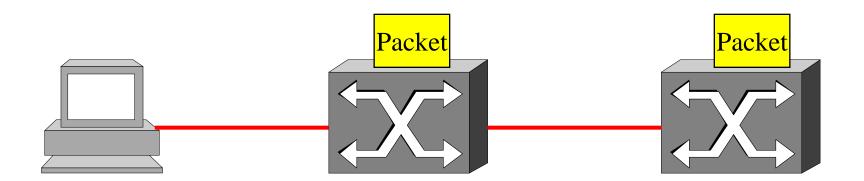
Packet Switched Network

- Packet-switched:
 - Send discrete blocks of data to each other
 - Store-and-forward



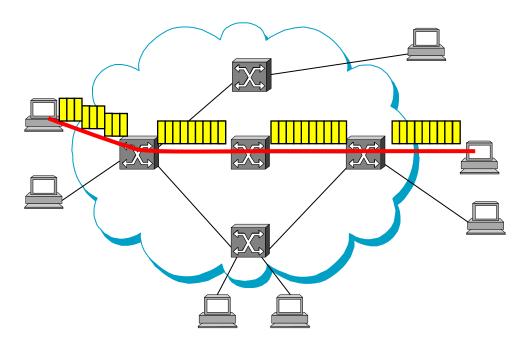
Packet Switched Network

- Packet-switched:
 - Store-and-forward
 - Each node receives a complete packet
 - **Store** the packet in internal memory
 - Forward the complete packet to the next node



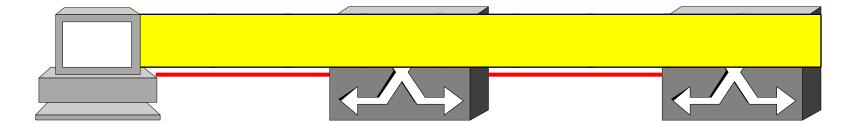
Circuit Switched Network

- Circuit-switched:
 - Establishes a dedicated circuit across a sequence of links
 - Allows the source node to send a stream of bits across this circuit to a destination node.



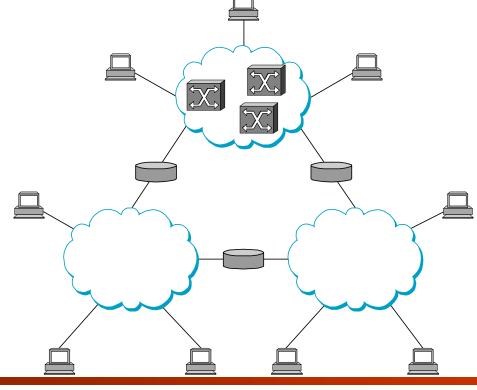
Circuit Switched Network

- Circuit-switched:
 - Continuous transmission
 - A stream of bits across this circuit to a destination node.



Internetwork

- A second way in which a set of computers can be **indirectly connected**
- A set of independent networks (clouds) are interconnected to form an *Internetwork*, or *Internet* for short



Internetwork

- A node that is connected to **two or more networks** is commonly called a *router* or *gateway*
 - Forwards messages from one network to another
- Each node must be able to say **which of the other nodes** on the network it wants to communicate with
 - Assign an *address* to each node
 - An address is a byte string that identifies a node
- If the sending and receiving nodes are **not directly connected**
 - The switches and routers of the network use this address to decide how to forward the message toward the destination
 - The process is called *routing*

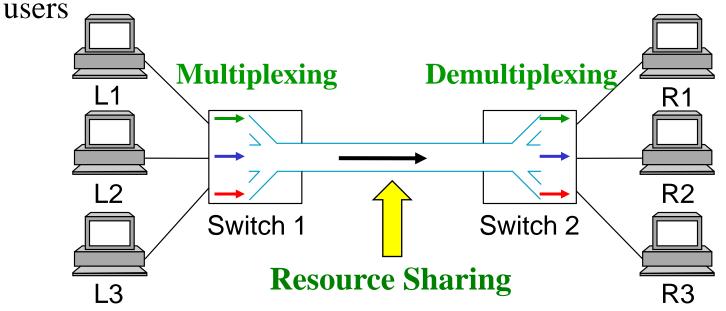
Switched Network

- Unicast: The source node wants to send a message to a single destination node
- **Broadcast:** The source node might want to broadcast a message to **all the nodes** on the network
- Multicast: The source node might want to send a message to some subset of the other nodes, but not all of them
- Thus, in addition to node-specific addresses, another requirement of a network is
 - Supporting multicast and broadcast addresses

Resource Sharing

Cost-Effective Resource Sharing

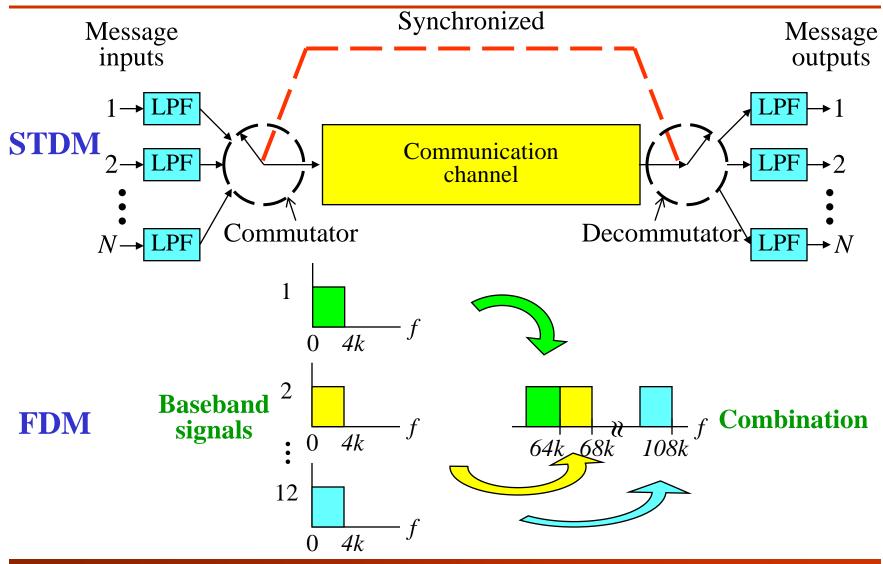
- A collection of nodes indirectly connected by a nesting of networks
 - Provide all pairs of hosts with the ability to exchange messages
- Multiplexing: a system resource is shared among multiple



Multiplexing

- There are several different methods for multiplexing multiple flows onto one physical link
 - Synchronous time-division multiplexing (STDM)
 - Frequency-division multiplexing (FDM)
- STDM:
 - Divide **time** into equal-sized quanta and
 - In a round-robin fashion, give each flow a chance to send its data over the physical link
- FDM:
 - Transmit each flow over the physical link at a different frequency band

STDM & FDM



Multiplexing

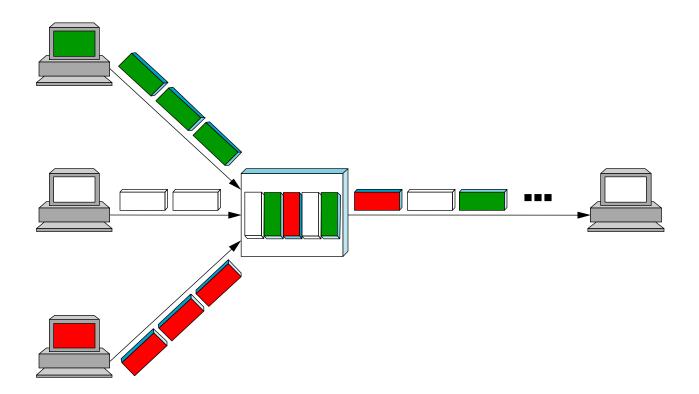
- Both STDM and FDM are limited in two ways:
 - Efficiency: If one of the flows (host pairs) does not have any data to send, its share of the physical link—that is, its time quantum or its frequency—remains idle
 - For computer communication, the amount of time that a link is idle can be **very large**
 - Feasibility: The maximum number of flows is fixed and known ahead of time
 - It is not practical to resize the quantum or to add additional quanta in the case of STDM or to add new frequencies in the case of FDM

Statistical Multiplexing

- **Statistical multiplexing:** with two key ideas
 - The physical link is shared over time like STDM. However, data is transmitted from each flow on demand rather than during a predetermined time slot
 - The avoidance of idle time \Rightarrow more efficient
 - Defines an **upper bound** on **the size of the block of data** that each flow is permitted to transmit at a given time
 - This limited-size block of data is referred to as a **packet**
 - Ensure that all the flows eventually get their turn to transmit over the physical link ⇒ **fairness**
- The source may need to **fragment** the message into packets
- The receiver **reassembles** the packets back into the message

Statistical Multiplexing

Each flow sends a sequence of packets over the physical link
 With a decision made on a packet-by-packet basis



Statistical Multiplexing

- There are number of different ways to decide which packet to be sent next on a shared link:
 - To service packets on a first-in-first-out (FIFO) basis
 - To service the different flows in a round-robin manner, just as in STDM
- One of the issues that faces a network designer is how to make this decision **in a fair manner**
- A network that allows flows to request some treatment is said to support **quality of service (QoS)**
 - To ensure that certain flows receive a particular share of the link's bandwidth
 - To ensure that they never have their packets delayed in the switch for more than a certain length of time

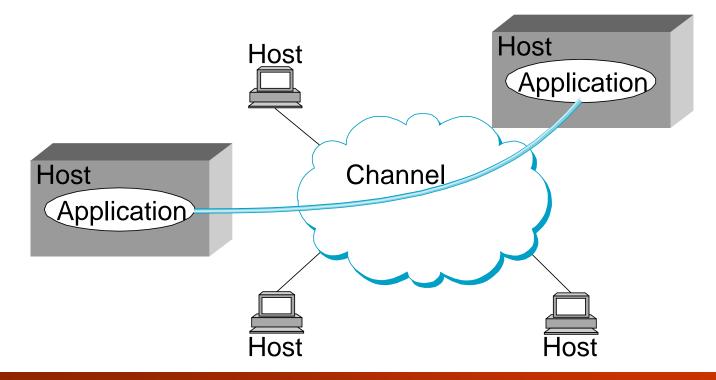
Common Services

Support for Common Services

- When two application programs need to communicate with each other
 - Simply sending a message from one host to another \Rightarrow A lot of **complicated things** need to happen
- Since many applications need common services
 - Implement those common services once
 - Let the application designer build the application using those services
- Intuitively, we view the network as providing **logical channels** over which application-level processes can communicate with each other

Support for Common Services

- Each channel provides the set of services required by that application
- A network provides a variety of **different types of channels**
 - Each application selecting the type that **best meets its needs**

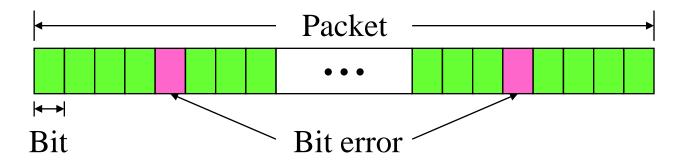


Examples

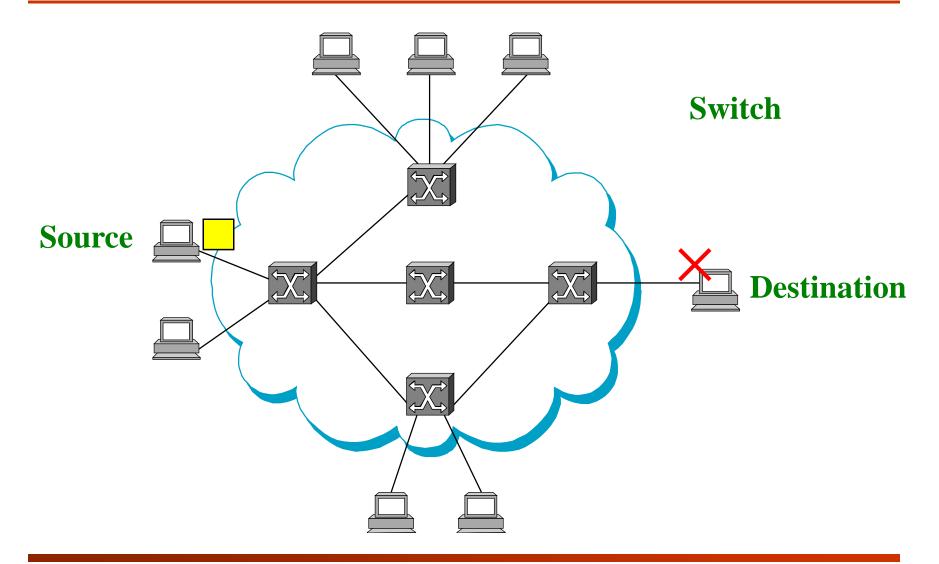
- Use **file access**, a **digital library**, and the **video applications** (videoconferencing and video-on-demand) as a sample
- Assume that two types of logical channels are provided:
 - Request/reply channels & Message stream channels
- The request/reply channel would be used by the **file transfer** and **digital library applications**
 - Every message sent by one side is received by the other side
 - **Only one copy** of each message is delivered
- The message stream channel could be used by both the videoon-demand and videoconferencing applications
 - Does not need to guarantee that all messages are delivered
 - Need to ensure that those messages that are delivered arrive in the same order in which they were sent

- **Reliable message delivery** is one of the most important functions that a network can provide
- Computer networks do not exist in a perfect world:
 - A network should mask (hide) certain kinds of failures
 - Make the network **appear more reliable** than it really is
- There are three general classes of failure:
 - First, bit errors may be introduced into the data
 - The second class of failure is that a complete packet is lost by the network
 - The third class of failure is that a physical link is cut, or that the connected computer has crashed

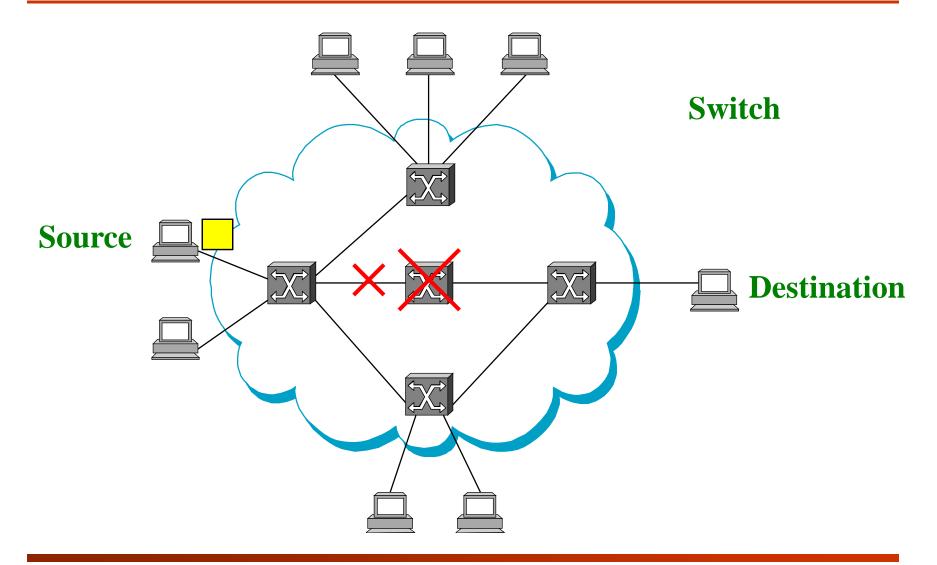
- First, bit errors may be introduced into the data
 - Bit errors typically occur because outside forces (noise)
 - Such bit errors are **fairly rare**:
 - A typical copper-based cable: BER $10^{-6} \sim 10^{-7}$
 - A typical optical fiber: BER $10^{-12} \sim 10^{-14}$
 - There are techniques that **detect** these bit errors
 - It is sometimes possible to **correct** for such errors



- The second class of failure is that a complete packet is lost by the network
 - One reason is that the packet contains an uncorrectable
 bit error and therefore has to be discarded
 - A more likely reason is that one of the nodes is forced to drop the packet (out of capacity)
 - Less commonly, the software running on one of the nodes that handles the packet makes a mistake
 - For example, it might **incorrectly forward** a packet out on the wrong link
 - The sender may be expected to **retransmit** the packet
 - The main difficulty: to distinguish that a packet is indeed lost or is merely late in arriving at the destination



- The third class of failure is that a physical link is cut, or that the connected computer has crashed
 - Caused by software that crashes, a power failure, ...
 - Such failures can have a dramatic effect on the network for an extended period of time
 - They need not totally disable the network: it is sometimes possible to route around a failed node or link
 - It is difficult to distinguish between a failed computer and one that is merely slow
 - It is difficult to distinguish between a link has been cut and one that is with a high number of bit errors



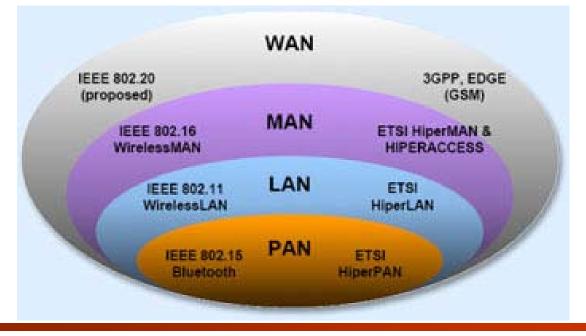
Network Architecture

SANs, LANs, MANs, and WANs

- One way to characterize networks is according to their size:
 - LANs (local area networks): extend less than 1 km
 - MANs (metropolitan area networks): span tens of kilometers
 - WANs (wide area networks): can be worldwide
 - SANs (system area networks): are usually confined to a single room and connect the various components of a large computing system
 - HiPPI (High Performance Parallel Interface) and Fiber Channel are two common SAN technologies

SANs, LANs, MANs, and WANs

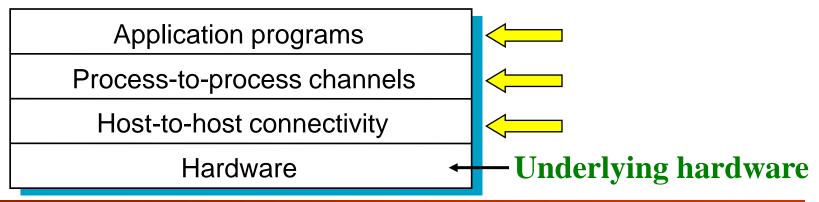
- A new class of network classification:
 - PANs (Personal area networks): networks that are meant for one person
 - extend to about 10 meters
 - UWB (Ultra Wide Band), Bluetooth



Layering and Protocols

Layering

- Layering: Start with the services offered by the underlying hardware, and then add a sequence of layers
 - The services provided at the high layers are implemented in terms of the services provided by the low layers
- Layering provides two nice features
 - First, it decomposes the problem of building a network into more manageable components (hide complexity)
 - Second, it provides a more **modular design**



Layering

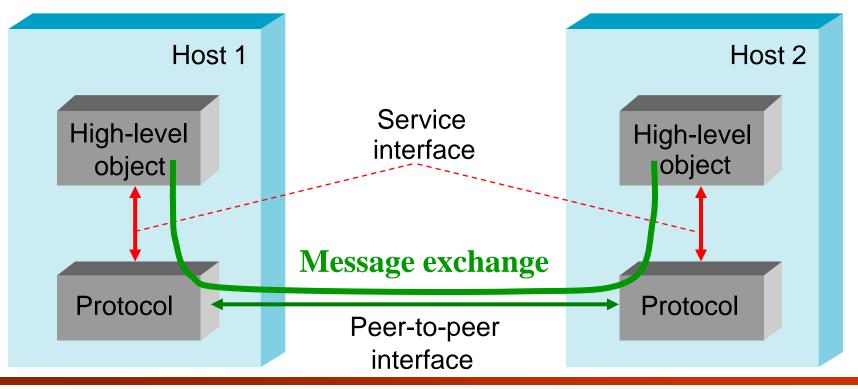
- To add some new service
 - To modify the functionality at one layer, reusing the functions provided at all the other layers
- Multiple abstractions may be provided at any given level
 - Each providing a **different service** to the higher layers

These two channels might be alternative offerings at some level of a multilevel networking system

Application 1 Application programs Application 2	
Request/reply channel	Message stream channel
Host-to-host connectivity	
Hardware	

Protocols

- **Protocols:** the abstract objects that make up the layers of a network system
 - A protocol provides a communication service that higherlevel objects use to exchange messages



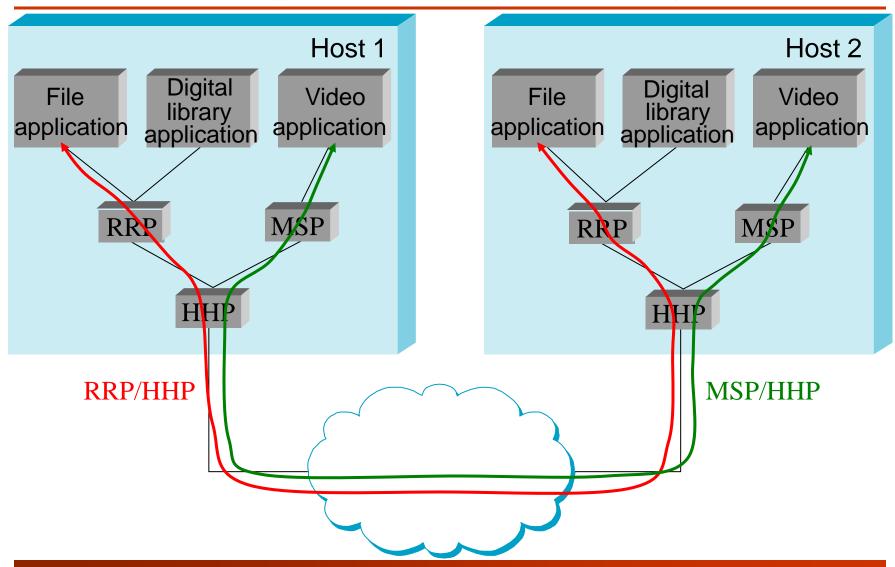
Protocols

- Each protocol defines two different interfaces
 - First, it defines a service interface to the other objects (program) on the same computer that want to use its communication services
 - This service interface defines the operations that local objects can perform on the protocol
 - Second, a protocol defines a peer interface to its counterpart (peer) on another machine
 - This second interface defines the form and meaning of messages exchanged between protocol peers

Multiple Protocols in a Layer

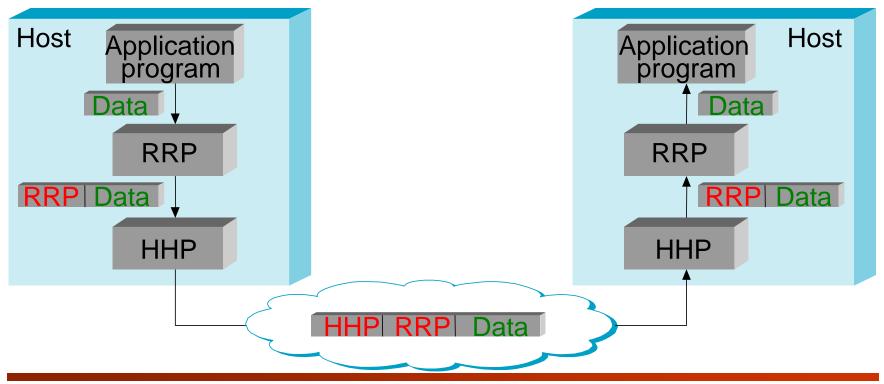
- Except the hardware level (lowest level), peer-to-peer communication is indirect
 - Each protocol communicates with its peer by passing messages to some lower-level protocol
- In addition, there are potentially multiple protocols at any given level, each providing a different communication service
- Two different types of process-to-process channels, depending on HHP (Host-to-Host Protocol):
 - RRP (Request/Reply Protocol)
 - MSP (Message Stream Protocol)
- The application employs the services of the protocol stack **RRP/HHP** or **MSP/HHP**

Multiple Protocols in a Layer



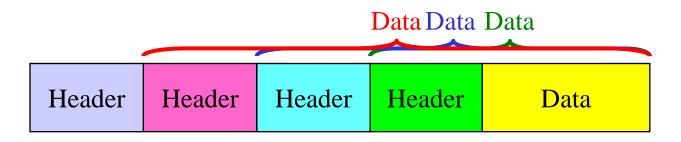
Encapsulating

- RRP must communicate control information to its peer
 - By attaching a **header** to the message
- The rest of the message is called **message body** or **payload**
 - The application data is **encapsulated** in the RRP message



Encapsulating

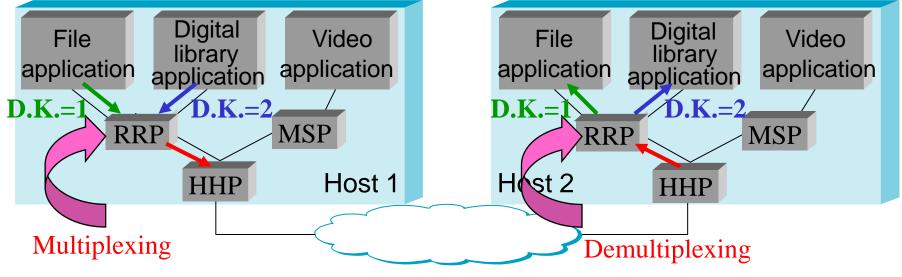
- This process of encapsulation is repeated at **each level** of the protocol graph
- When the message arrives at the destination host, it is processed in the **opposite order**
 - Strips its header off the front of the message
 - Interprets the header (i.e., takes whatever action is appropriate given the contents of the header
 - Passes the body of the message up to RRP



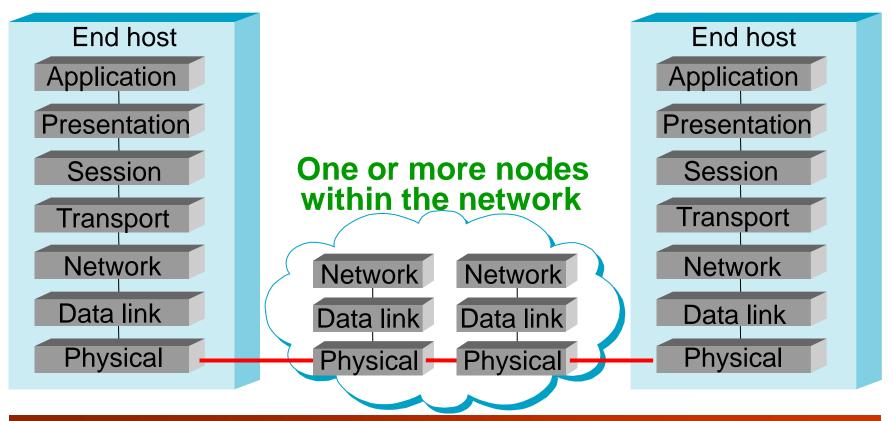
Multiplexing and Demultiplexing

- RRP can be thought as a **logical** communication channel
 - Two different applications multiplexed and demultiplexed over this channel
- The RRP header contains an identifier that records the application to which the message belongs

– RRP's demultiplexing key



- ISO (International Organization for Standardization): one of the first organizations to formally define a common way to connect
 - Open Systems Interconnection (OSI) architecture



- **Physical** layer: handles the transmission of raw bits over a link
- **Data link** layer: collects a stream of bits into a larger aggregate called a **frame**
 - Network adaptors, along with device drivers running in the node's OS, typically implement the data link level
 - Frames, not raw bits, are actually delivered to hosts
- **Network** layer: handles **routing** among nodes within a packetswitched network
 - The unit of data exchanged among nodes is called a **packet**
- The lower three layers are implemented on **all network nodes**
 - Including switches within the network and end hosts

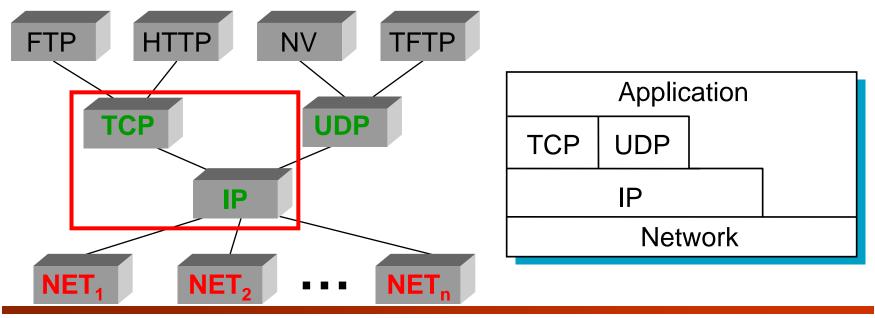
- Other higher layers typically run **only on the end hosts** and not on the intermediate switches or routers
- **Transport** layer: implements a **process-to-process channel**
 - The unit of data exchanged is commonly called a **message**
- There is **less agreement** about the definition of the top three layers
- Application layer: user interference, e.g. the File Transfer Protocol (FTP), which defines a protocol by which file transfer applications can inter-operate
- **Presentation** layer: concerns with the **data format** exchanged between peers
 - For example: whether an integer is 16, 32, or 64 bits long

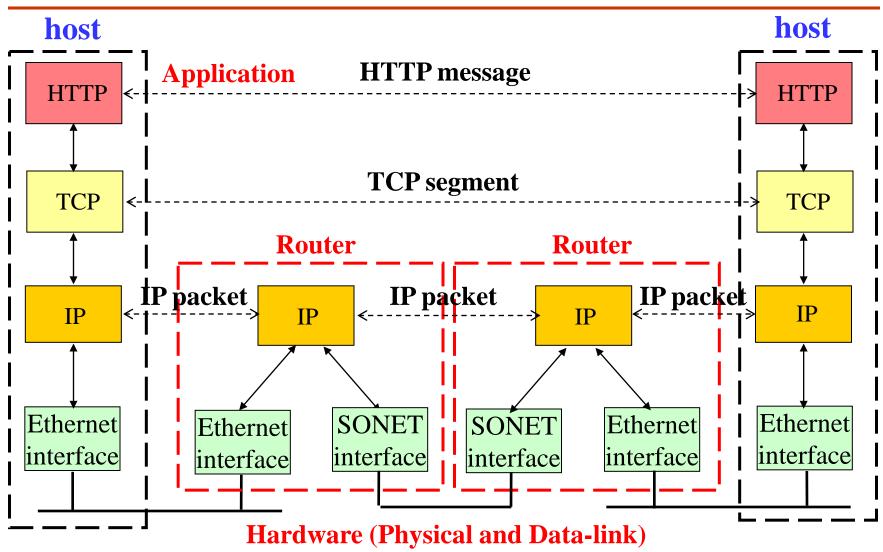
- Whether the most significant bit is transmitted first or last
- How a video stream is formatted
- Session layer: provides a name space that is used to tie together the potentially different transport streams that are part of a single application
 - It might manage an audio stream and a video stream that are being combined in a teleconferencing application

. . .

- The Internet architecture is also sometimes called the **TCP/IP** architecture
- At the lowest layer are a wide variety of network protocols

 Implemented by a combination of hardware (e.g., a network adaptor) and software (e.g., a network device driver)

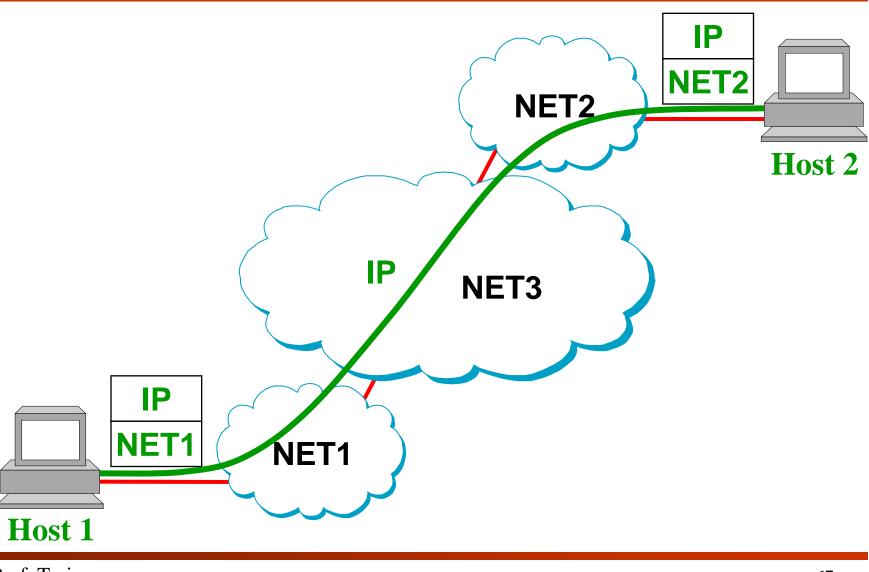




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- The second layer consists of a single protocol—the Internet Protocol (IP)
 - Supports the interconnection of multiple networking technologies into a single, logical internetwork
- The third layer contains two main protocols
 - Transmission Control Protocol (TCP): provides a reliable byte-stream channel
 - User Datagram Protocol (UDP): provides an unreliable datagram delivery channel
 - TCP and UDP are sometimes called end-to-end protocols
- Above the transport layer are a range of **application protocols**
 - FTP, TFTP (Trivial File Transport Protocol), Telnet (remote login), and SMTP (Simple Mail Transfer Protocol)

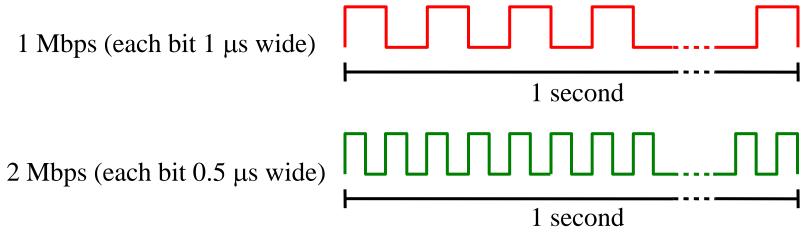
- Applications vs application layer protocols
 - Applications: WWW browsers (Netscape, Explorer) are all based on the same application layer protocol: HTTP
- The Internet architecture does not imply strict layering
 - The application may bypass the transport layers and directly use IP or one of the underlying networks
- IP defines a common method for **exchanging packets** among a wide collection of networks
 - Delivering messages from host to host is completely separated from the process-to-process level
 - Below IP, different network technologies are allowed



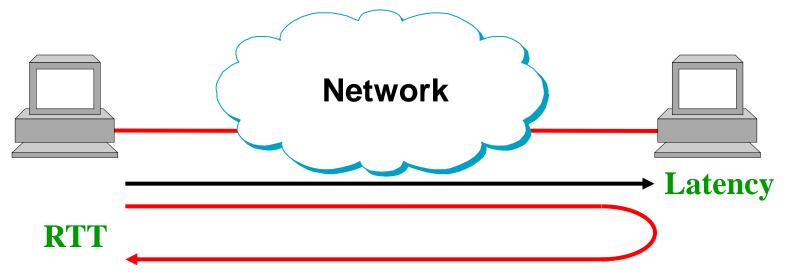
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Performance

- Network performance is measured in two fundamental ways:
 - Bandwidth (also called throughput)
 - Latency (also called delay)
- The bandwidth of a network: the number of bits that can be transmitted over the network in a certain period of time
- It is sometimes useful to think of bandwidth in terms of **how long it takes to transmit each bit of data**

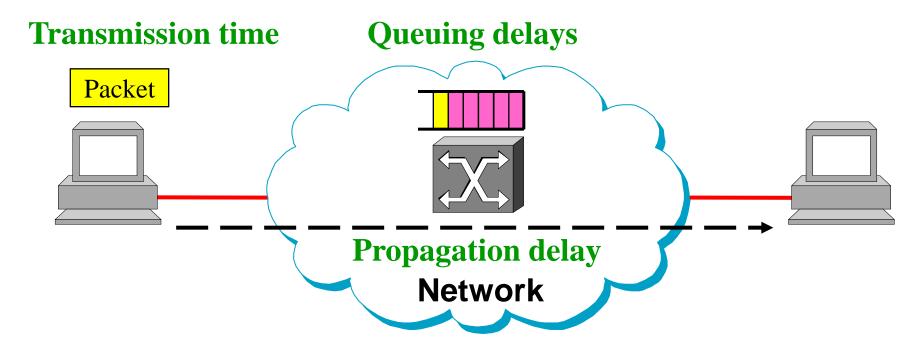


- Latency: corresponds to how long it takes a message to travel from one end of a network to the other
 - Measured strictly in terms of time
- **Round-trip time (RTT):** how long it takes to send a message from one end of a network **to the other and back**
- RTT may be approximated as 2×Latency



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- Latency consists of three components:
 - The speed-of-light propagation delay
 - 3.0×10^8 m/s in a vacuum, 2.3×10^8 m/s in a cable, and 2.0×10^8 m/s in a fiber
 - The amount of time it takes to transmit a unit of data
 - A function of the **network bandwidth** and the **size of the packet**
 - **Queuing delays** inside the network
 - Packet switches generally need to store packets for some time before forwarding them on an outbound link



RTT: Queuing delays (Source → Destination) + Propagation delay + Queuing delays (Destination → Source) + Propagation delay Transmission time is generally not included in RTT

• The total latency is defined as

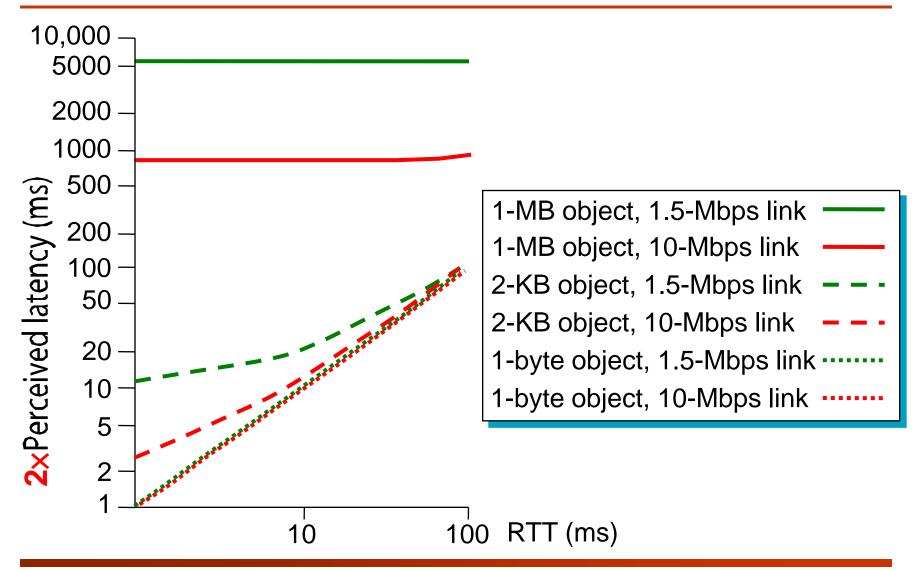
Latency = Propagation + Transmit + Queue Propagation = Distance/SpeedOfLight Transmit = Size/Bandwidth

- **Distance:** the length of the wire
- SpeedOfLight: the effective speed of light
- **Size:** the size of the packet
- **Bandwidth and latency** combine to define the **performance** characteristics of a given link or channel
- Their relative importance **depends on the application**

Link Performance

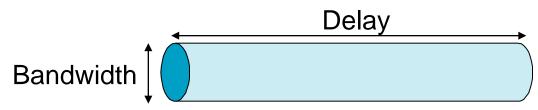
- Various message sizes: 1 byte, 2 KB, 1 MB
- RTTs: range from 1 to 100 ms (not including **Transmit time**)
- Link speeds: 1.5 or 10 Mbps
- For a 1-byte object (say, **a keystroke**):
 - 2×Latency remains almost exactly equal to the RTT
 - Cannot distinguish between 1.5-Mbps and 10-Mbps links
- For a 2-KB object (say, **an email message**):
 - Makes quite a difference on a 1-ms-RTT network
 - A negligible difference on a 100-ms-RTT network
- For a 1-MB object (say, a digital image):
 - The RTT makes no difference
 - It is the link speed that dominates performance

Link Performance



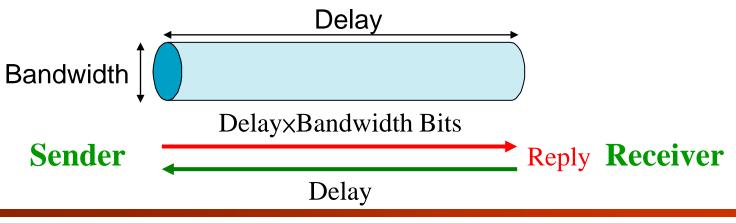
Delay × Bandwidth Product

- We think of a channel between a pair of processes as a pipe
 - The latency corresponds to the **length** of the pipe
 - The bandwidth gives the **diameter**
- The delay × bandwidth product: the volume of the pipe
 The number of bits it holds
- For example, a channel with a one-way latency of 50 ms and a bandwidth of 45 Mbps is able to hold
 - -50×10^{-3} seconds $\times 45 \times 10^{6}$ bits/second $= 2.25 \times 10^{6}$ bits
 - Approximately 280 KB of data



Delay × Bandwidth Product

- The delay × bandwidth product is important for constructing high performance networks
 - How many bits the sender must transmit before the first bit arrives at the receiver
- If the sender is expecting the receiver to signal that bits are starting to arrive
 - The sender can send up to 2xdelayxbandwidth worth of data before hearing from the receiver that all is well



Delay × Bandwidth Product

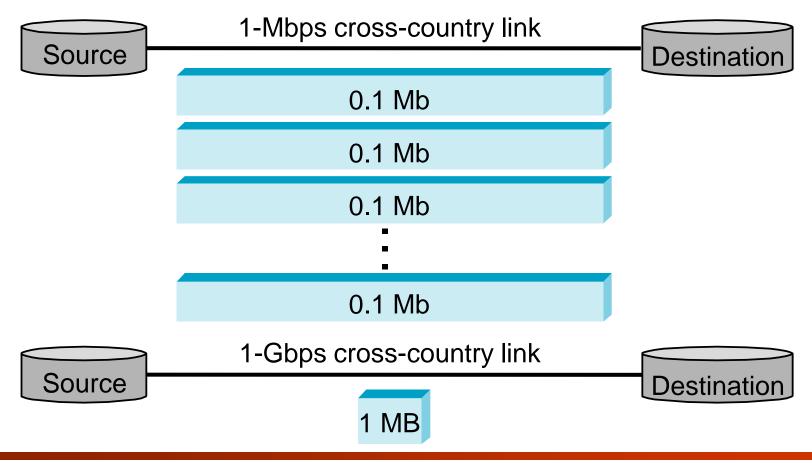
- The bits in the pipe are said to be "in flight"
- If the receiver tells the sender to stop transmitting
 - It might receive up to a delay x bandwidth's worth of data before the sender manages to respond
- On the other hand, if the sender does not fill the pipe, the sender will **not fully utilize the network**

High-Speed Networks

- The bandwidths available on today's networks are **increasing** at a dramatic rate
- "High speed" does not mean that latency improves at the same rate as bandwidth
 - The RTT of a 1-Gbps link is the same as that of a 1-Mbps link
- Consider what is required to transmit a 1-MB file over a 1-Mbps network versus over a 1-Gbps network; RTT = 100 ms
 - 1-Mbps network: it takes 80 round-trip times to transmit the file; 1.25% of the file is sent in 1 RTT
 - 1-Gbps network: it takes 1/12.5 round-trip times to transmit the file; delay × bandwidth product = 12.5 MB

High-Speed Networks

- It looks like a stream of data transmitted across a 1-Mbps link
- It looks like a single packet on a 1-Gbps network



High-Speed Networks

- The effective end-to-end throughput that can be achieved is Throughput = TransferSize/TransferTime TransferTime = RTT + 1/Bandwidth × TransferSize
 - RTT: accounts for a request message being sent across the network and the data being sent back
- Transmit a 1-MB file across a 1-Gbps network with a roundtrip time of 100 ms
 - The TransferTime = 100-ms RTT+ 8 ms = 108 ms
 - The effective throughput will be 1 MB/108 ms = 74.1
 Mbps
 - Transfer a larger amount of data will help improve the effective throughput (fill the pipe)

Application Performance Needs

- Some applications are able to state an **upper limit** on how much bandwidth they need
- Just knowing the **average bandwidth** needs of an application will not always suffice
 - It is possible to put an upper bound on how big of a burst an application likely to transmit
- If this peak rate is higher than the available channel capacity
 The excess data will have to be buffered somewhere
- In the case of **delay**, it sometimes **doesn't matter** whether the one-way latency of the network is 100 ms or 500 ms
 - It does matter the variation in latency
 - The latency varies from packet to packet

Application Performance Needs

- **Interpacket gap:** the spacing between when packets arrive at the destination
- Such variation is generally not introduced in a single physical link, but it happen for a multihop packet-switched network (queuing delay)
- Suppose that the packets contain video frames
 - If a frame arrives early, it can simply be saved by the receiver until it is time to display it
 - If a frame arrives late, the video quality will suffer; it will not be smooth
 Interpacket gap

