

Computer Networks - Lecture 01: Introduction

Course Details

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- **University:** Faculty of Engineering, Alexandria University
- **Textbook:** Computer Networking: A Top-Down Approach, 8th ed., Kurose & Ross
- **Grading:**
 - Attendance & Participation: 5-7%
 - Assignments & Quizzes: 40%
 - Midterm: 15%
 - Final: 40%
- **Join Code:** 142tcab
- **Course Materials & Discussions:** MS Teams
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Lecture Outline

- What is the Internet?
- The Network Edge
- The Network Core
- Delay, Loss, and Throughput in Packet-Switched Networks
- Protocol Layers and Their Service Models

What is the Internet?

- The Internet is a network of networks that interconnects billions of computing devices around the world.
- These devices are called **hosts** or **end systems**.
- The number of devices connected to the Internet is estimated to reach 28.5 billion by 2022.
- End systems are connected by a network of communication links and **packet switches**.
 - **Packet switches** take a packet arriving on one of their incoming links and forward it to one of their outgoing links.
- The two most prominent types of packet switches in the Internet are **routers** and **link-layer switches**.
- The sequence of communication links and packet switches a packet travels through is known as a **route** or **path**.
- End systems access the Internet through **Internet Service Providers (ISPs)**.
 - Each ISP is itself a network of packet switches and communication links.
- End systems, packet switches, and other parts of the Internet run **protocols**.
 - The **Transmission Control Protocol (TCP)** and **Internet Protocol (IP)** are two of the most important protocols in the Internet.
 - **TCP/IP** refers collectively to the Internet's primary protocols.
- **Internet standards** are developed by the **Internet Engineering Task Force (IETF)**.
 - IETF standards documents are called **requests for comments (RFCs)**.
 - There are currently nearly 9000 RFCs.

- Other bodies also specify standards for network components, such as the **IEEE 802 LAN Standards Committee**.

The Network Edge

- The Internet's **end systems** include desktop computers, servers, and mobile devices, as well as increasingly non-traditional "things".
- End systems are also known as **hosts** because they host application programs.
- Hosts can be categorized as **clients** or **servers**.
- Most servers reside in large **data centers**.
 - Google, for example, has 19 data centers on four continents, collectively containing several million servers.

Access Networks

- **Home Access:**
 - **DSL (Digital Subscriber Line):** Uses existing telephone lines to exchange data with a **DSLAM (Digital Subscriber Line Access Multiplexer)** located in the telco's central office (CO).
 - Carries data and traditional telephone signals simultaneously, encoded at different frequencies:
 - High-speed downstream channel: 50 kHz to 1 MHz
 - Medium-speed upstream channel: 4 kHz to 50 kHz
 - Ordinary two-way telephone channel: 0 to 4 kHz
 - A **splitter** separates the data and telephone signals on the customer side.
 - On the telco side, the **DSLAM** separates the data and phone signals and sends the data to the Internet.
 - Supports downstream rates of 24 Mbps and 52 Mbps, and upstream rates of 3.5 Mbps and 16 Mbps.
 - Newest standards offer aggregate upstream + downstream rates of 1 Gbps.
 - Designed for short distances between the home and CO (5 to 10 miles).
 - **Cable Internet:** Uses existing cable television infrastructure.
 - Often referred to as **HFC (Hybrid Fiber Coax)**.
 - Shared broadcast medium.
 - Offers downstream rates of 40 Mbps and 1.2 Gbps, and upstream rates of 30 Mbps and 100 Mbps.
 - **FTTH (Fiber to the Home):** Provides even higher speeds, potentially reaching gigabits per second.
 - **5G Fixed Wireless:** Promises high-speed residential access without the need for cabling.
- **Enterprise/Home Access:**
 - **Ethernet:** Uses twisted-pair copper wire to connect devices to an **Ethernet switch**.
 - Users typically have 100 Mbps to tens of Gbps access.

- Servers may have 1 Gbps to 10 Gbps access.
- **WiFi:** Uses IEEE 802.11 technology.
 - Requires users to be within a few tens of meters of the **access point**.
 - Shared transmission rate of up to 100 Mbps.
 - Common in homes, consisting of:
 - Roaming laptop, appliances, and wired PC.
 - **WiFi Access Point:** Communicates with wireless devices.
 - **Home Router:** Connects the access point and other devices to the Internet.
- **Wide-Area Wireless Access:**
 - **3G/LTE 4G/5G:** Uses the same wireless infrastructure as **cellular telephony** to send/receive packets through a **base station**.
 - Users must be within a few tens of kilometers of the base station.
 - 4G offers download speeds up to 60 Mbps.
 - 5G promises even higher speeds.

Physical Media

- A bit travels from source to destination through transmitter-receiver pairs by propagating electromagnetic waves or optical pulses across a **physical medium**.
- **Physical media** fall into two categories:
 - **Guided Media:** Waves are guided along a solid medium, such as fiber-optic cable, twisted-pair copper wire, or coaxial cable.
 - **Unguided Media:** Waves propagate in the atmosphere or outer space, such as in wireless LANs or digital satellite channels.

The Network Core

- The **Network Core** consists of the packet switches and communication links that connect the ISPs.
- **Packet Switching:**
 - End systems exchange **messages** with each other.
 - Messages are broken into smaller chunks called **packets**.
 - Packets travel through communication links and **packet switches**, including routers and link-layer switches.
 - Most packet switches use **store-and-forward transmission**, where the entire packet is received before any part is transmitted.
 - Each packet consists of **L bits**.
 - Transmission rate is **R bits/sec**.
 - **End-to-End Delay** for sending one packet over **N links** is NL/R (ignoring propagation delay).
 - Each packet switch has an **output buffer/queue** to store packets before sending them to the next link.
 - Packet switches also experience **queuing delays** depending on network congestion.
 - Due to finite buffer space, **packet loss** occurs when a packet arrives and the buffer is full.

- Routers use **forwarding tables** to determine which link to forward a packet to.
 - Each end system has an **IP address** with a hierarchical structure.
 - The **destination's IP address** is included in the packet header.
 - **Routing protocols** are used to automatically set forwarding tables.
- **Circuit Switching:**
 - Traditional telephone networks use circuit switching.
 - Resources along a path (buffers, transmission rate) are **reserved** for the duration of a communication session.
 - A dedicated **end-to-end connection** is established between two hosts.
 - The sender can transfer data at a **guaranteed** constant rate.
 - The Internet uses a **best-effort** approach, not providing guarantees.
 - **Multiplexing** in circuit-switched networks can be implemented with:
 - **FDM (Frequency-Division Multiplexing):** Each circuit gets a continuous portion of the bandwidth.
 - **TDM (Time-Division Multiplexing):** Each circuit gets all the bandwidth periodically during brief intervals.
 - Circuit switching is wasteful because dedicated circuits are idle during silent periods.
 - Establishing end-to-end circuits is complex and requires **signaling software**.

A Network of Networks

- The Internet's complex structure has evolved due to economics and national policy.
- **Naïve Approach:** Each access ISP directly connects to every other access ISP.
- **Network Structure 1:** Interconnects all access ISPs with a single **global transit ISP**.
- **Network Structure 2 (Two-Tier Hierarchy):** Hundreds of thousands of access ISPs and multiple global transit ISPs, competing based on pricing and services.
- **Network Structure 3 (Multi-Tier Hierarchy):**
 - Regional ISPs connect access ISPs within a region.
 - Regional ISPs connect to **tier-1 ISPs** with a broader presence.
 - Access ISPs pay regional ISPs, who pay tier-1 ISPs.
 - Larger regional ISPs can connect smaller regional ISPs.
- **Network Structure 4:**
 - Includes **points of presence (PoPs):** Groups of routers where customer ISPs can connect to the provider ISP.
 - Allows for **multi-homing:** Connecting to multiple provider ISPs.
 - Enables **peering:** Nearby ISPs at the same level of hierarchy connect directly.
 - Utilizes **Internet exchange points (IXPs):** Third-party companies create meeting points for peering.
- **Network Structure 5:**
 - Builds on top of Structure 4 by adding **content-provider networks**.
 - Example: Google data centers are interconnected via a private TCP/IP network spanning the globe, separate from the public Internet.

Delay, Loss, and Throughput

- **Delay:**

- The physical laws introduce **delay** and **loss** and constrain **throughput**.
- **Throughput** is the amount of data transferred per second.
- Packets experience several types of delay at each node:
 - **Processing Delay:** Microseconds or less.
 - **Queuing Delay:** Microseconds to milliseconds, depending on the number of packets in the queue.
 - **Transmission Delay:** L/R (packet length L bits, transmission rate R bps).
 - **Propagation Delay:** d/s (distance between routers, propagation speed).
- **Nodal Delay** is the sum of these components: $d_{\text{nodal}} = d_{\text{proc}} + d_{\text{queue}} + d_{\text{trans}} + d_{\text{prop}}$.
- The contribution of each delay component can vary significantly.
 - Example: Propagation delay is negligible in LANs but significant in satellite networks.
 - Processing delay is often negligible but influences a router's maximum throughput.

- **Queuing Delay and Packet Loss:**

- Queuing delay depends on:
 - The rate at which traffic arrives (a packets/sec).
 - The transmission rate of the link (R bps).
 - The nature of the arriving traffic (periodic or bursty).
- **Traffic Intensity:** $\lambda a/R$.
 - If $\lambda a/R > 1$, the queue will increase unboundedly, and queuing delay approaches infinity.
 - If $\lambda a/R < 1$, the nature of arriving traffic impacts queuing delay.
 - Periodic traffic results in no queuing delay.
 - Bursty traffic can cause significant queuing delays.
- Small percentage increases in traffic intensity can lead to large percentage increases in delay.
- Network performance is measured in terms of delay and the probability of packet loss.

- **End-to-End Delay:**

- Assuming $N-1$ routers and no queuing delay, the end-to-end delay is $d_{\text{end-to-end}} = N(d_{\text{proc}} + d_{\text{trans}} + d_{\text{prop}})$.
- **Traceroute** is a program that helps determine the route and delays between a source and destination.
 - It sends special packets to the destination and receives messages back from each router, reconstructing the route and round-trip delays.

- **Throughput:**

- The **throughput** of a file transfer with F bits and T seconds is F/T bits/sec.
- Bits can be thought of as fluid, and links as pipes.

- The **bottleneck link** determines the throughput.
- In a simple two-link network, throughput is $\min\{R_c, R_s\}$.
- In a multi-link network with N links, throughput is $\min\{R_1, R_2, \dots, R_N\}$.
- When there is no other traffic, throughput is approximated as the minimum transmission rate along the path.
- Links in the core of the network have very high transmission rates.
- **Access networks** often constrain throughput.

Protocol Layers

- Network designers organize protocols into **layers**.
- Each layer can be implemented in software, hardware, or a combination.
 - Application-layer and transport-layer protocols are usually software-based.
 - Physical layer and data link layer protocols are typically hardware-based.
 - Network layer is often a combination of both.
- **Drawbacks of Layering:**
 - One layer might duplicate functionality from another layer.
 - One layer might require information present only in another layer.

Protocol Layering Model

- **Application Layer:** Handles network applications and their protocols.
 - Allows applications in different end systems to exchange messages.
 - Examples: HTTP, SMTP, FTP, DNS.
- **Transport Layer:** Transports application-layer messages between application endpoints.
 - Packets are called **segments** at this layer.
 - **UDP (User Datagram Protocol):** Provides a connectionless service.
 - **TCP (Transmission Control Protocol):** Provides a connection-oriented service, guaranteeing delivery, flow control, and congestion control.
- **Network Layer (IP Layer):** Moves network-layer packets called **datagrams** between hosts.
 - IP defines the datagram format and how routers handle it.
 - Includes **routing protocols** for determining datagram routes.
- **Link Layer:** Delivers datagrams to the next node along the route.
 - Handles communication over a specific link, typically implemented in a network interface card.
 - Datagrams might be handled by different link-layer protocols along the way.
 - Packets at this layer are called **frames**.
 - Examples: Ethernet, WiFi.
- **Physical Layer:** Moves individual bits within a frame from one node to the next.
 - Depends on the transmission medium used.
 - Examples: Different protocols for twisted-pair copper wire, coaxial cable, fiber, etc.

Encapsulation

- The transport layer encapsulates the application-layer message, adding transport-layer information.
- The network layer encapsulates the transport-layer segment, adding network-layer header information (source and destination addresses).
- The link layer encapsulates the network-layer datagram, adding link-layer header information.
- Each layer adds its own information, resulting in a layered packet structure.

Summary

- The Internet is a complex network of interconnected networks.
- Access networks provide connections to the Internet for end systems.
- Packet switching is the primary method used in the Internet, offering efficiency and flexibility.
- Protocol layers organize network protocols, simplifying development and maintenance.
- Encapsulation allows layers to build upon each other, creating a layered packet structure.