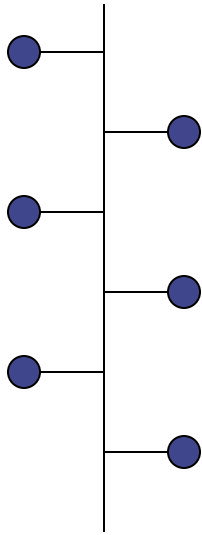


Introduction to Communication Networks and Distributed Systems



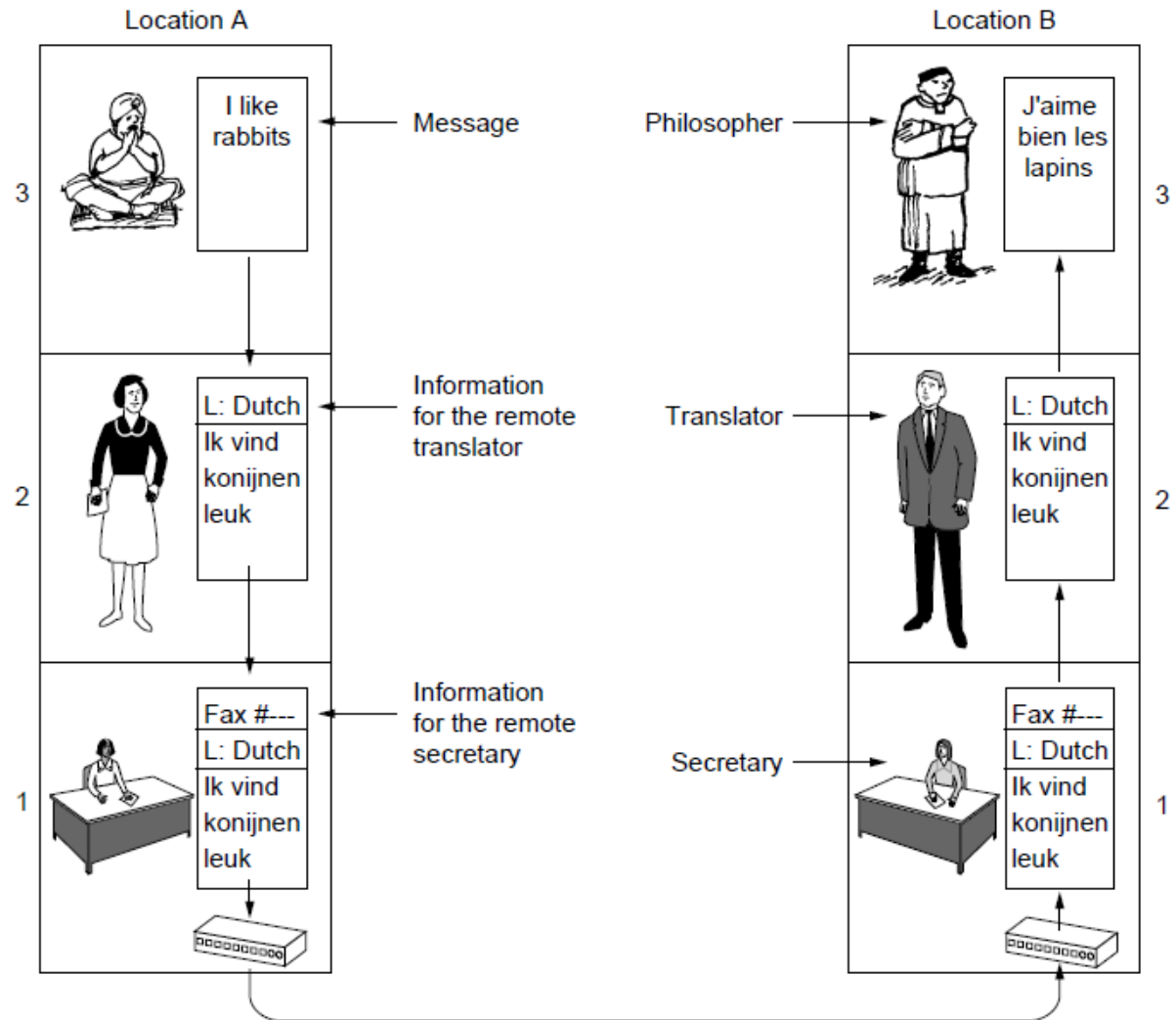
Unit 2: Reference Models and Inter Process Communications

Networking...The reality is even more complex...

Philosophers

Assistants

Office clerks



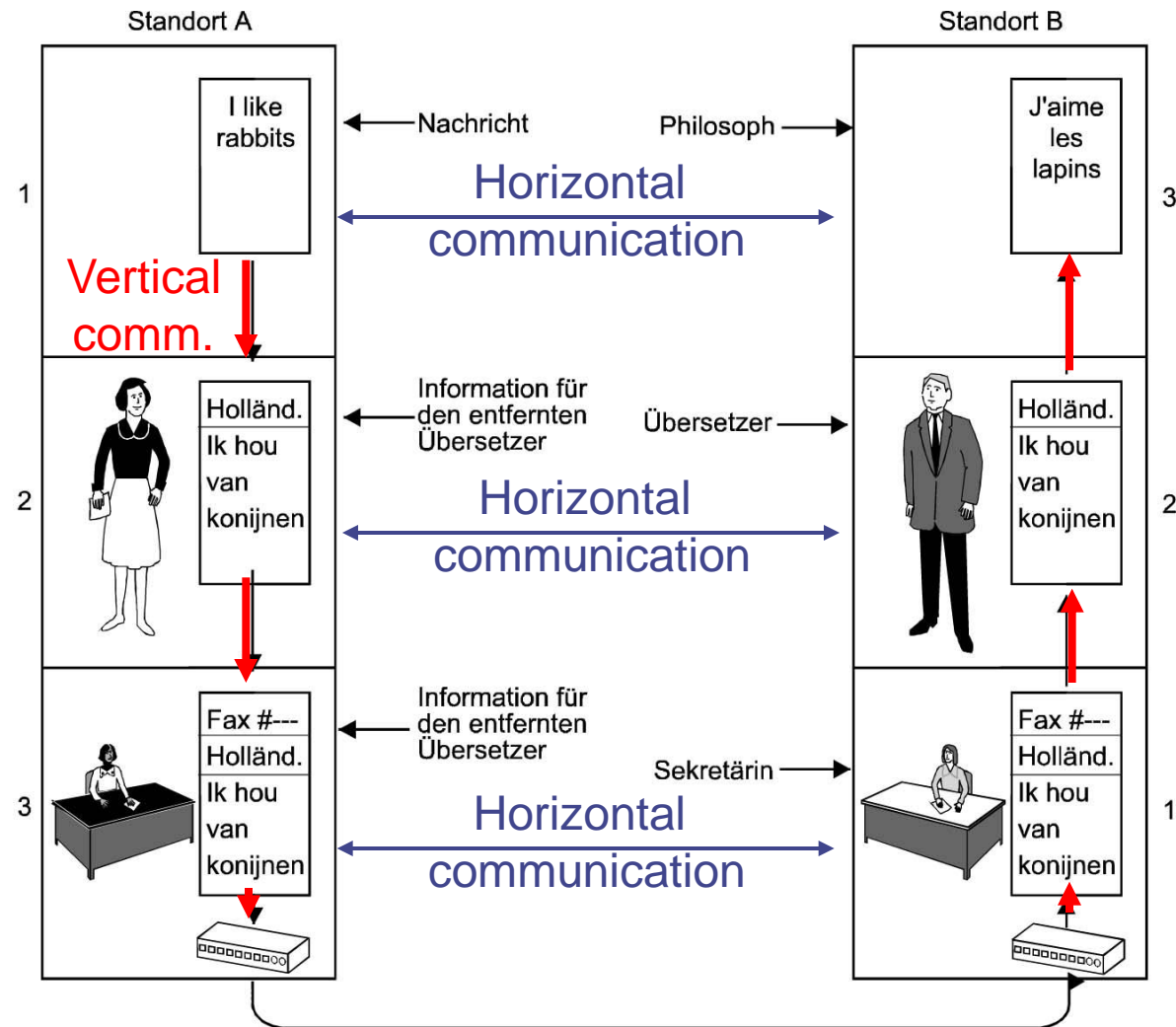
The reference model

- To keep complexity of communication systems tractable:
 - division in subsystems with clearly assigned responsibilities – layering
- Each layer offers a particular service
 - more abstract and more powerful the higher up in the layering hierarchy
- To provide a service, a layer has to be distributed over remote devices
- Remote parts of a layer use a protocol to cooperate
 - Make use of service of the underlying layer to exchange data
 - Protocol is a horizontal relationship, service a vertical relationship
- Layers/protocols are arranged as a (protocol) stack
 - One atop the other, only using services from directly beneath
 - ⇒ Strict layering

Analogy: Nested layers as nested translations

- Vertical vs. horizontal communication

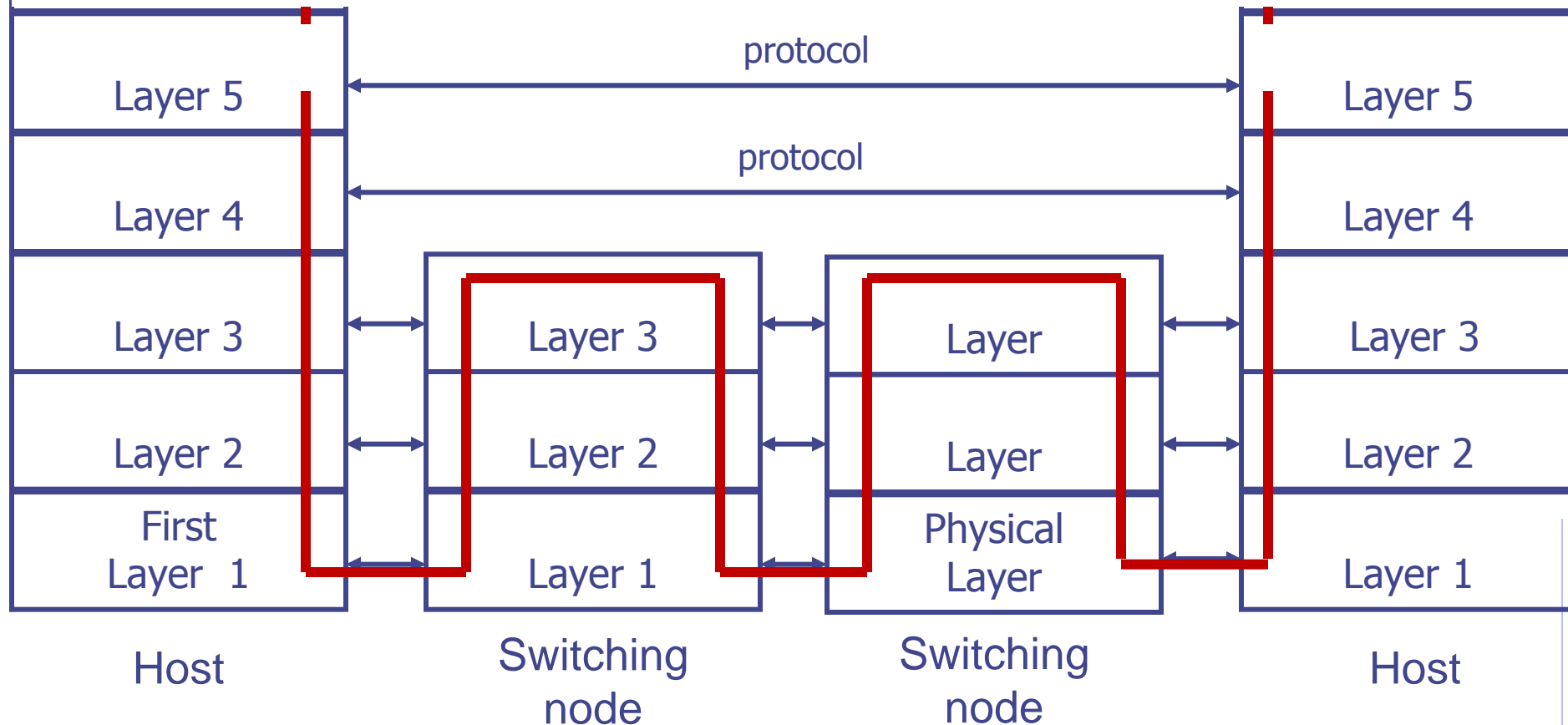
- Vertical: always real
- Horizontal: may be real or virtual



Horizontal (real!) communication

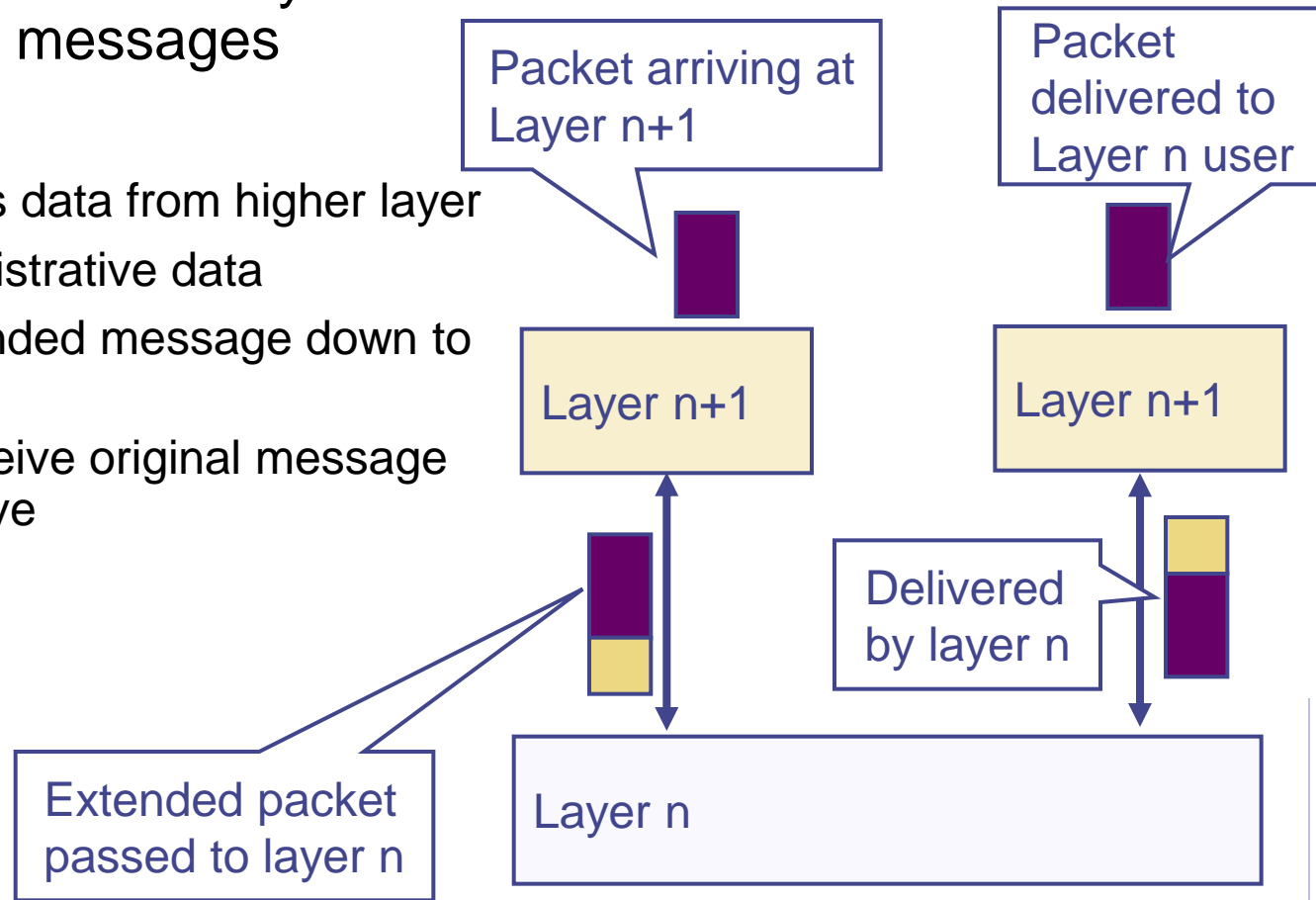
Multi-layer Architecture

- Number of Layers, and
{ services, naming and addressing conventions } / Layer
- Functions to be executed in each layer
- Protocols: (host-to-host, node-to-node, host-to-node)



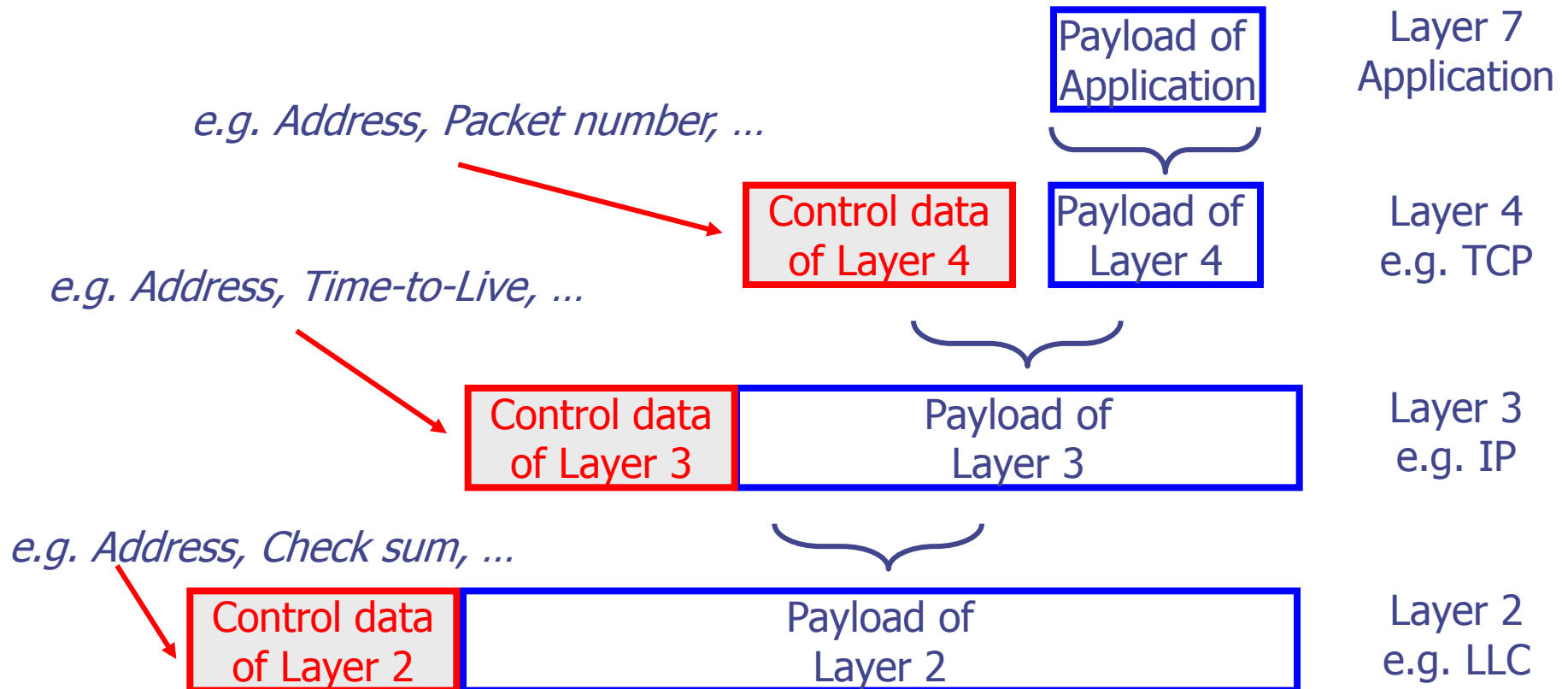
Protocols and messages

- When using lower-layer services to communicate with the remote peer, administrative data is usually included in those messages
- Typical example
 - Protocol receives data from higher layer
 - Adds own administrative data
 - Passes the extended message down to the lower layer
 - Receiver will receive original message plus administrative data
- Encapsulating
 - Header or trailer



Embedding messages

- Messages from upper layers are used as payload for messages in lower layers



How to structure functions/layers?

- Many functions have to be realized
- Not each function is necessary in each Layer..
- How to actually assign them into layers to obtain a real, working communication system?
 - This is the role of a specific reference model
- Two main reference models exist
 - ISO/OSI reference model (International Standards Organization Open Systems Interconnection)
 - TCP/IP reference model (by IETF – Internet Engineering Taskforce)

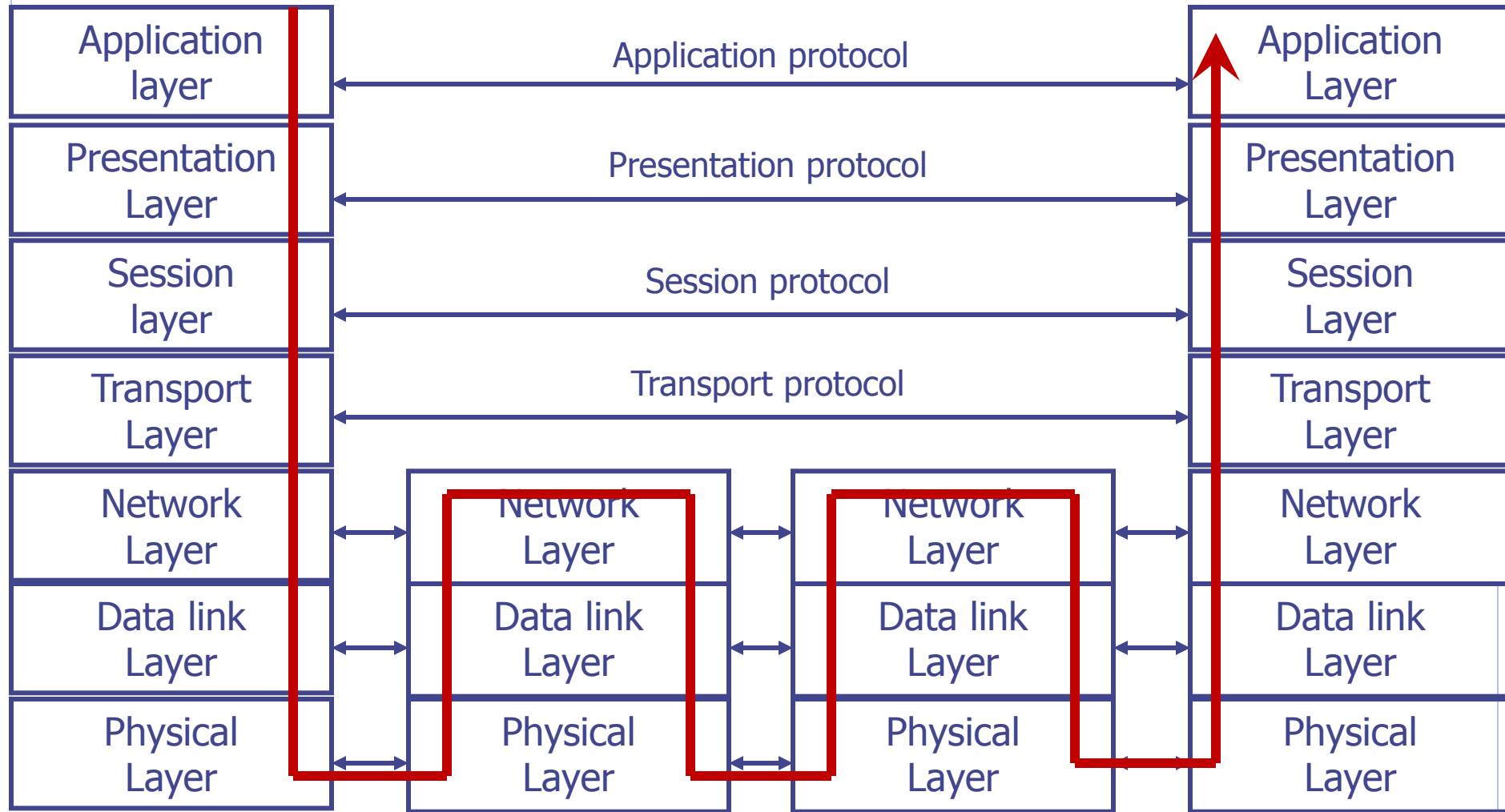
Standardization

- To build large networks, standardization is necessary
- Traditional organization
 - **ISO**- Int. Standardization Organization , **ITU** - (Int. Telecomm. Union)
 - world-wide, group national bodies, relatively slow “time to market”
- Internet
 - Mostly centered around the **Internet Engineering Task Force (IETF)** with associated bodies (Internet Architectural Board, Internet Research Task Force, Internet Engineering Steering Group)
 - Consensus oriented, focus on working implementations
 - Hope is quick time to market, but has slowed down considerably in recent years
- **IEEE Committee 802** – driving the Link Layer!
- **Manufacturer bodies** – defining de-facto standards and profiles for the IEEE/INTERNET/ ...

ISO/OSI reference model

- Basic design principles
 - One layer per abstraction of the “set of duties”
 - Choose layer boundaries such that information flow across the boundary is minimized (minimize inter-layer interaction)
 - Enough layers to keep separate things separate, few enough to keep architecture manageable
- Result: 7-layer model
 - Not strictly speaking an architecture, because
 - Precise interfaces are not specified (nor protocol details !)
 - Only general duties of each layer are defined

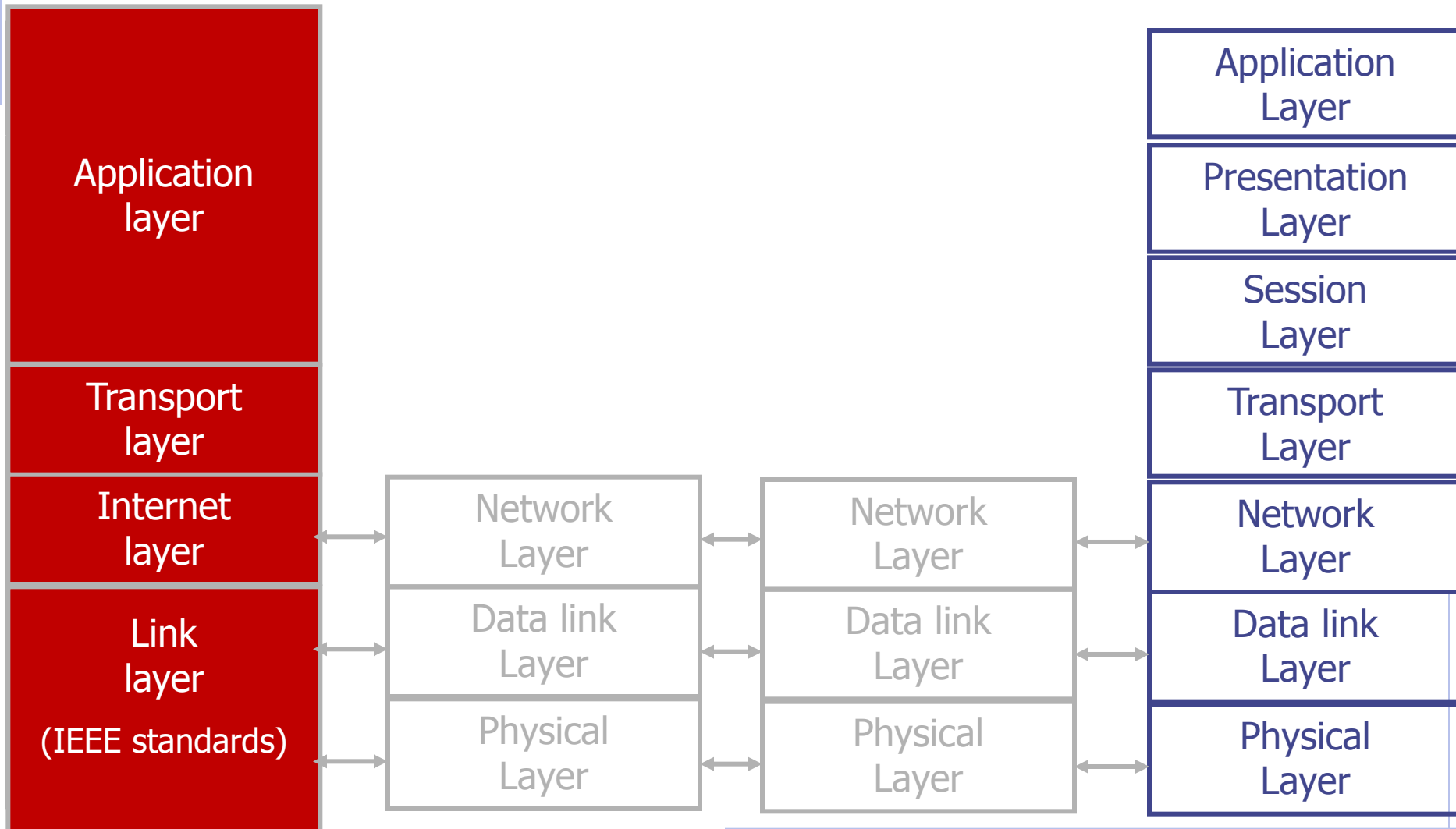
ISO/OSI model



7 layers in brief

- Physical layer: Transmit raw bits over a physical medium
- Data Link layer: Provide a (more or less) error-free transmission service for data frames - also over a shared medium!
- Network layer: Solve the forwarding and routing problem for a network- bring data to a **desired host**
- **Transport layer**: Provide (possibly reliable, in order) end-to-end communication, overload protection, fragmentation to **processes**
“Bringing data from process A to B with sufficient quality”
- Session layer: Group communication into sessions which can be synchronized, checkpointed, ...
- Presentation layer: Ensure that syntax and semantic of data is uniform between all types of terminals
- Application layer: Actual application, e.g., protocols to transport Web pages

Internet Model model (in red) vs. ISO/ OSI



Some example protocols

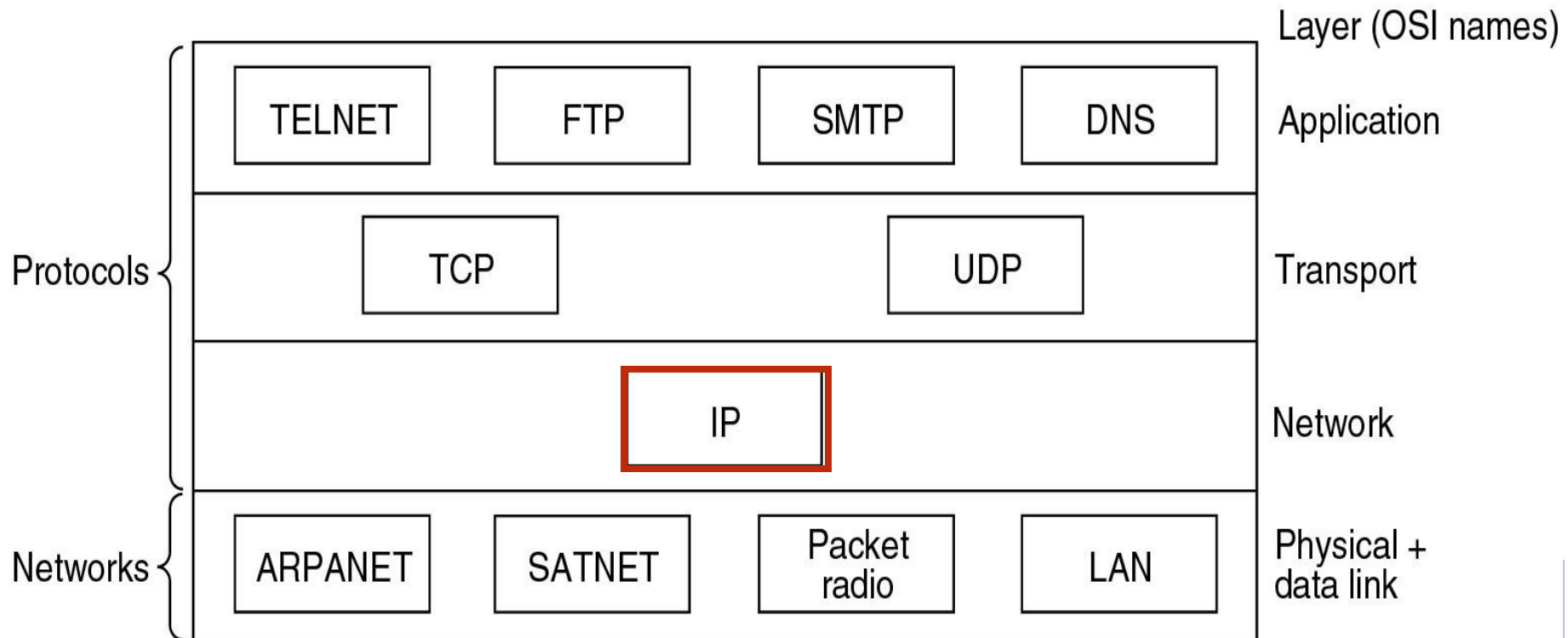
- A communication architectures needs standard protocols in addition to a layering structure
- And: some generic rules & principles which are not really a protocol but needed nonetheless
 - Example principle: end-to-end
 - Example rule: Naming & addressing scheme
- Popular protocols of the 5-layer reference model
 - Data link layer: Ethernet & CSMA/CD
 - Network layer: Internet Protocol (IP)
 - Transport layer: Transmission Control Protocol (TCP)

Internet reference model

- Historically based on ARPANET, evolving to the Internet
 - Started out as little university networks, which had to be interconnected
- Some generic rules & principles
 - Internet connects **networks**
 - Minimum functionality assumed (just unreliable packet delivery!)
 - Internet layer (IP): packet switching, addressing, routing & forwarding
 - ➔ ***Internet over everything***
 - End-to-end
 - Any functionality should be pushed to the instance needing it!
 - Fate sharing
- In effect only two layers really defined... Internet and Transport Layer - Lower and higher layers not really defined
 - ➔ *Anything over internet*
- New Applications do NOT need any changes in the NETWORK!
 - Compare with the telephone network!!!

The Internet Suite of Protocols

- Over time, suite of protocols evolved around core TCP/IP protocols
→ *Internet Protocol Suite is also refereed to as TCP/IP Protocol Suite*



So-called “**hourglass model**”: Thin waist of the protocol stack at IP, above the technological layers

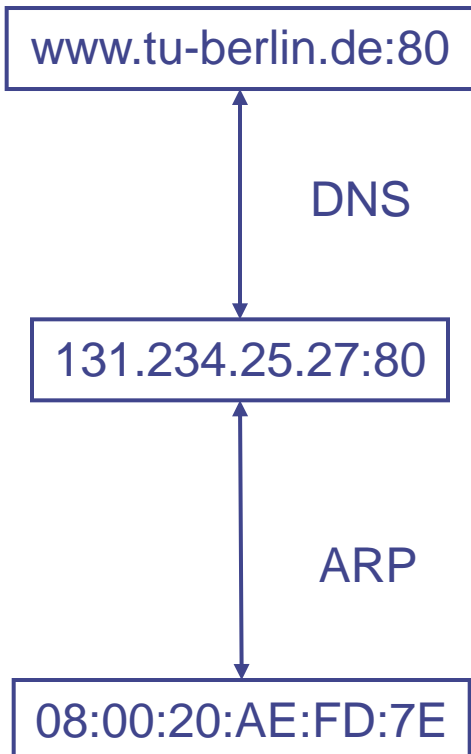
Naming & addressing in the Internet Stack

- Names: Data to identify an entity exist on different levels
 - Alphanumerical names for machines: www.tu-berlin.de
- Address: Data how/where to find an entity
 - Address of a network device in an IP network: An IP address
 - IPv4: 32 bits, structured into 4x8 bits
 - Example: 131.234.20.99 (dotted decimal notation)
 - Address of a network: Some of the initial bits of an IP address
- Address of a networked device in the LOCAL AREA (IEEE 802 standardized) network...
 - 48 bits, hexadecimal notation, example: 08:00:20:ae:fd:7e

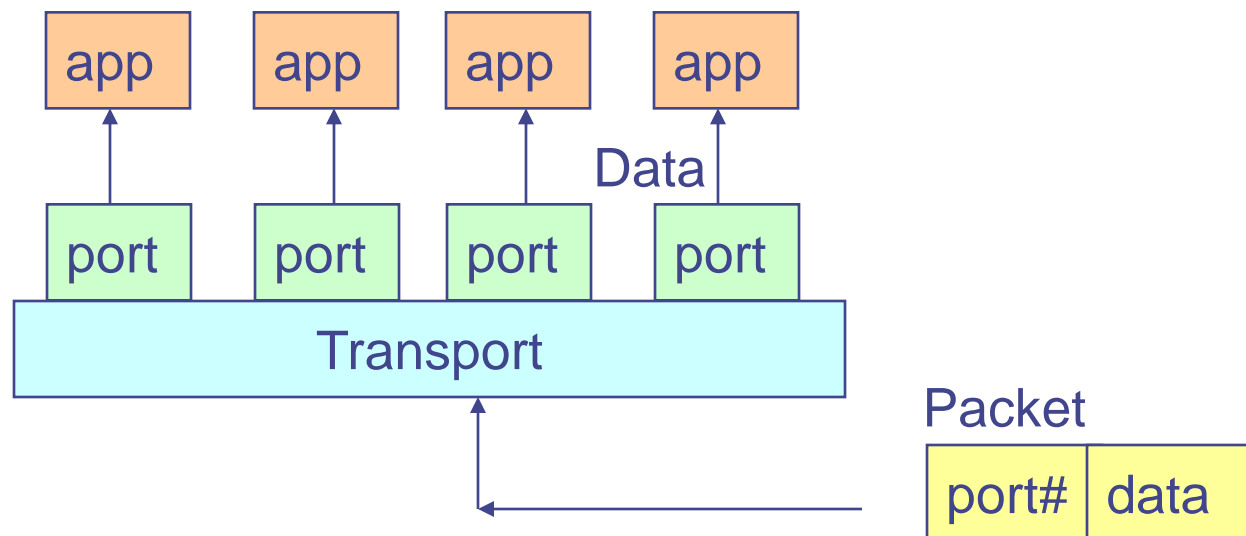
Mapping

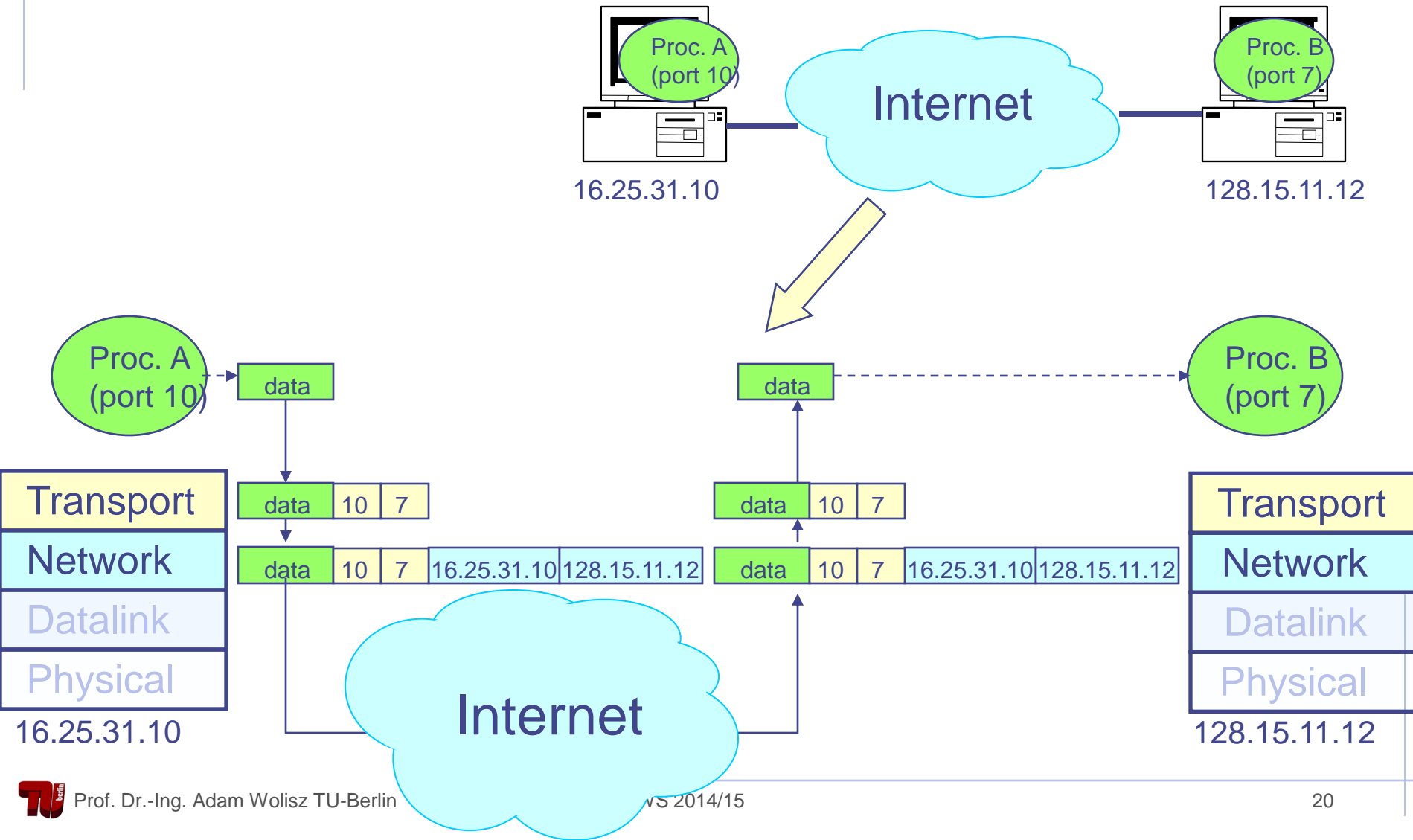
- Needed: Mapping from name to address
 - ➔ Realized by separate protocols
- From alphanumerical name to IP address: Domain Name System (DNS)
- Often also useful: Mapping from IP address to MAC name/address: Address Resolution Protocol (ARP)

Web server process'
service access point

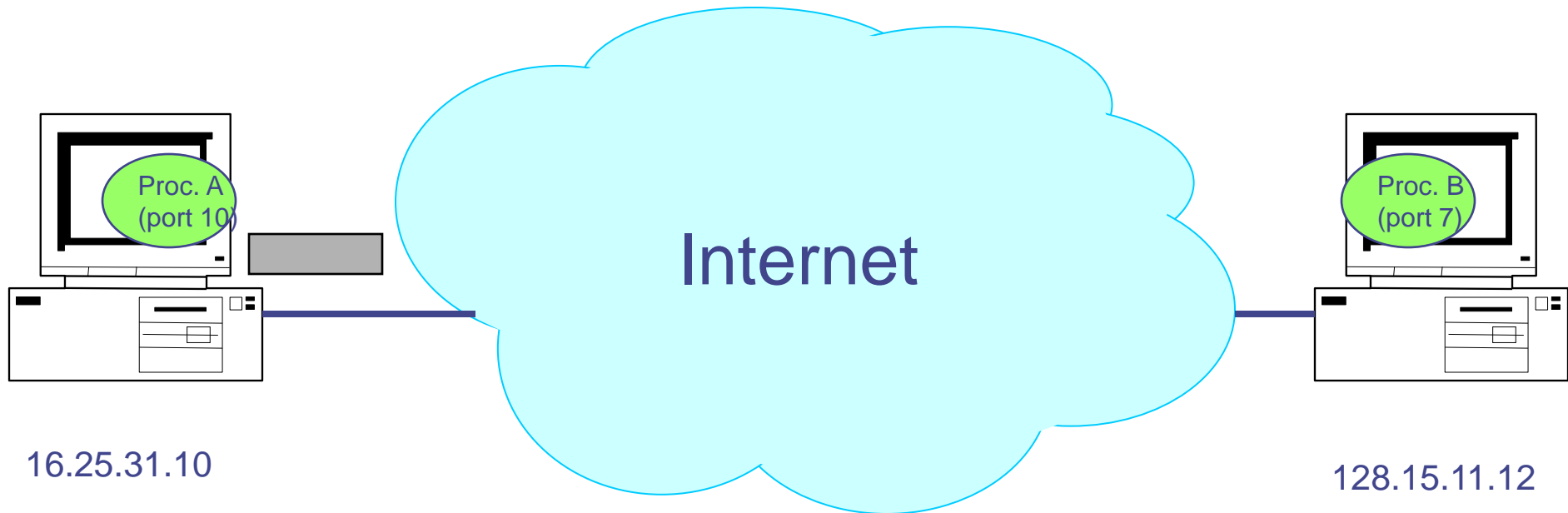


- Port is represented by a positive (16-bit) integer value
- Some ports have been reserved to support common/well known services: http 80/tcp; ftp 21/tcp; telnet 23/tcp; smtp 25/tcp;
- User level process/services generally use port number value ≥ 1024



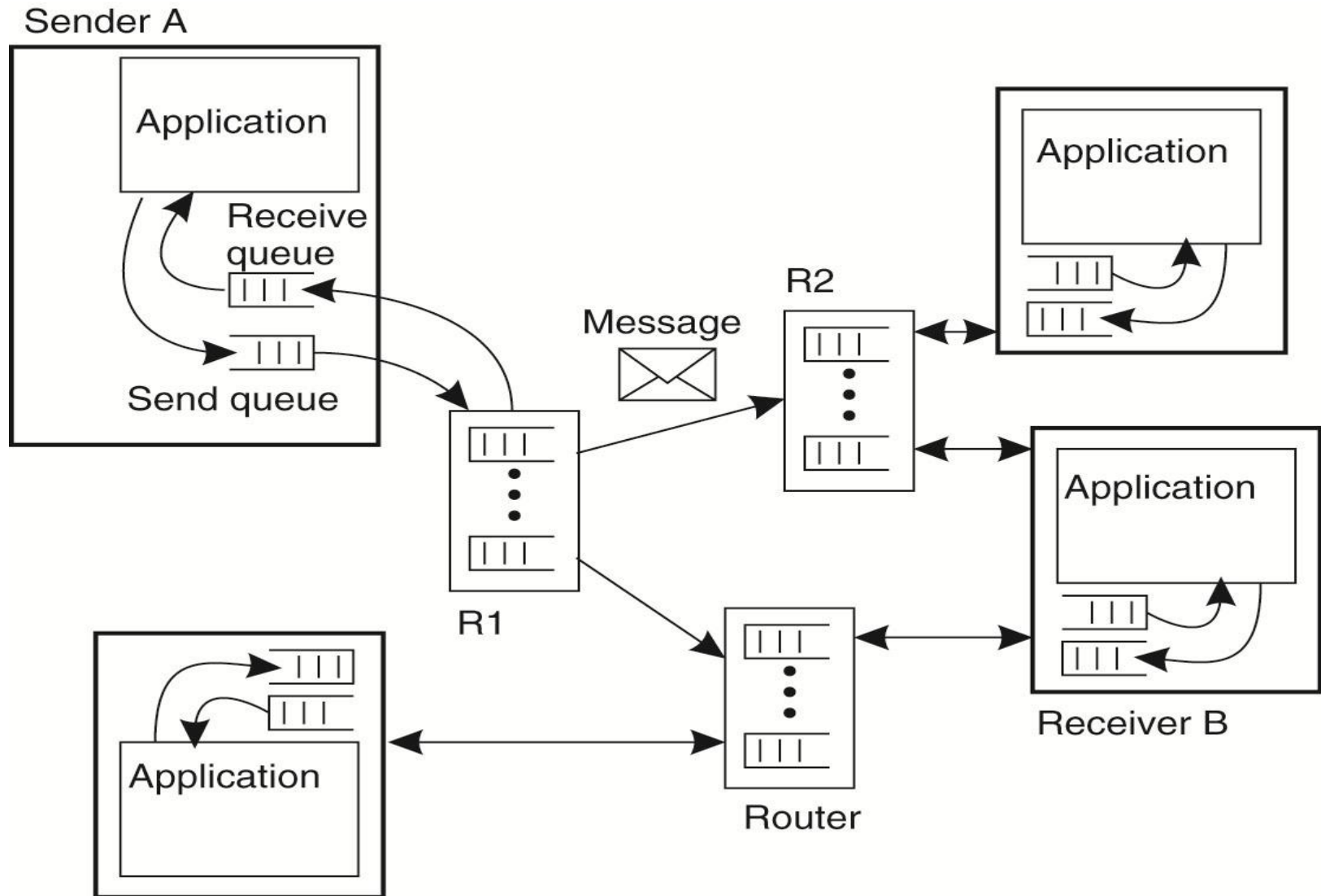


- Process A sends a packet to process B



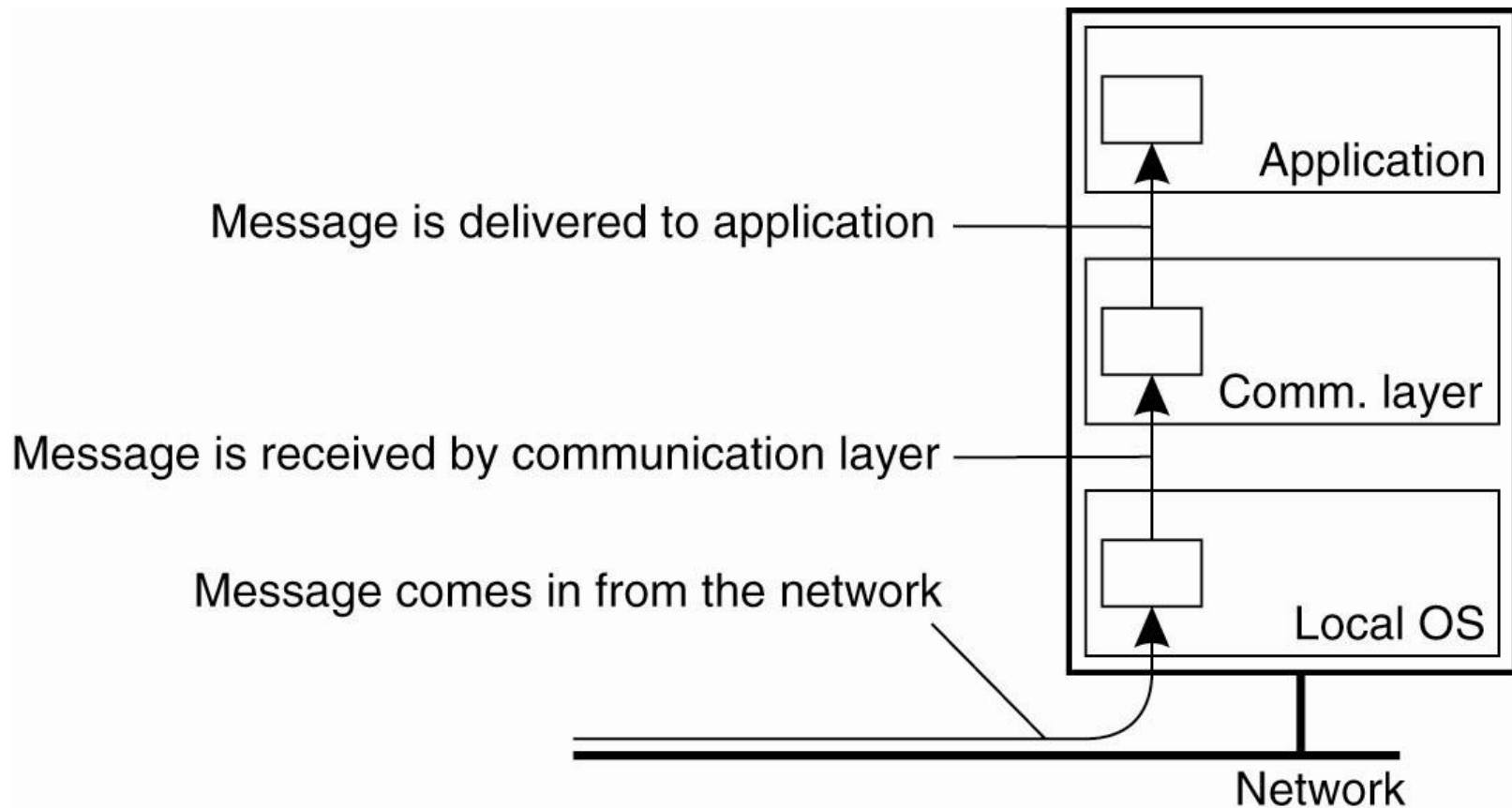
IP Address:

A four-part “number” used by *Network Layer* to route a packet from one computer to another



Message Receipt vs. Message Delivery [Tanenbaum]

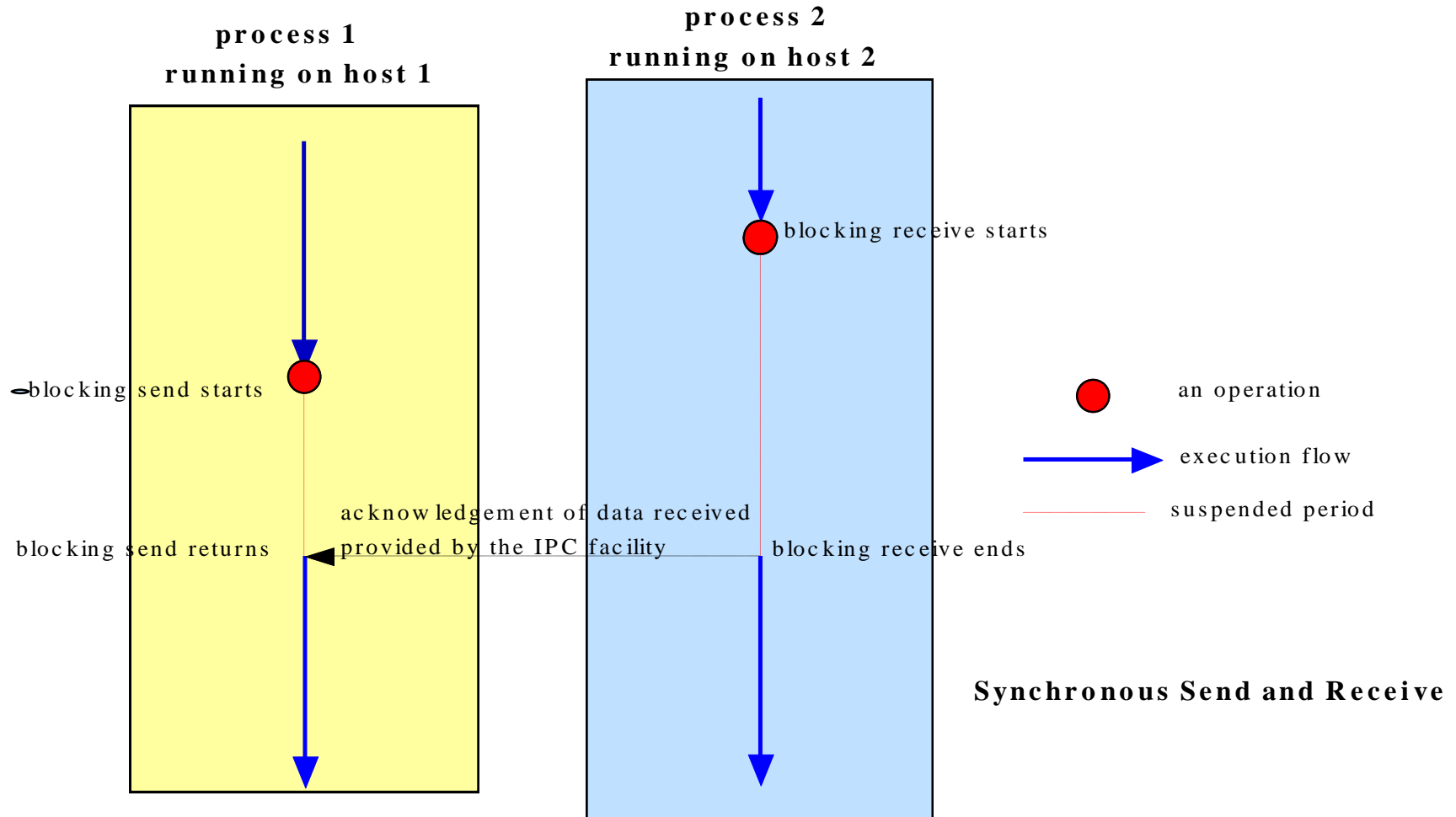
- Figure 8-12. The logical organization of a distributed system to distinguish between message receipt and message delivery.



Synchronous Interaction

- Blocking send
 - Blocks until message is transmitted
 - Blocks until message acknowledged
- Blocking receive
 - Waits for message to be received
- Known upper/lower bounds on execution speeds, message transmission delays and clock drift rates

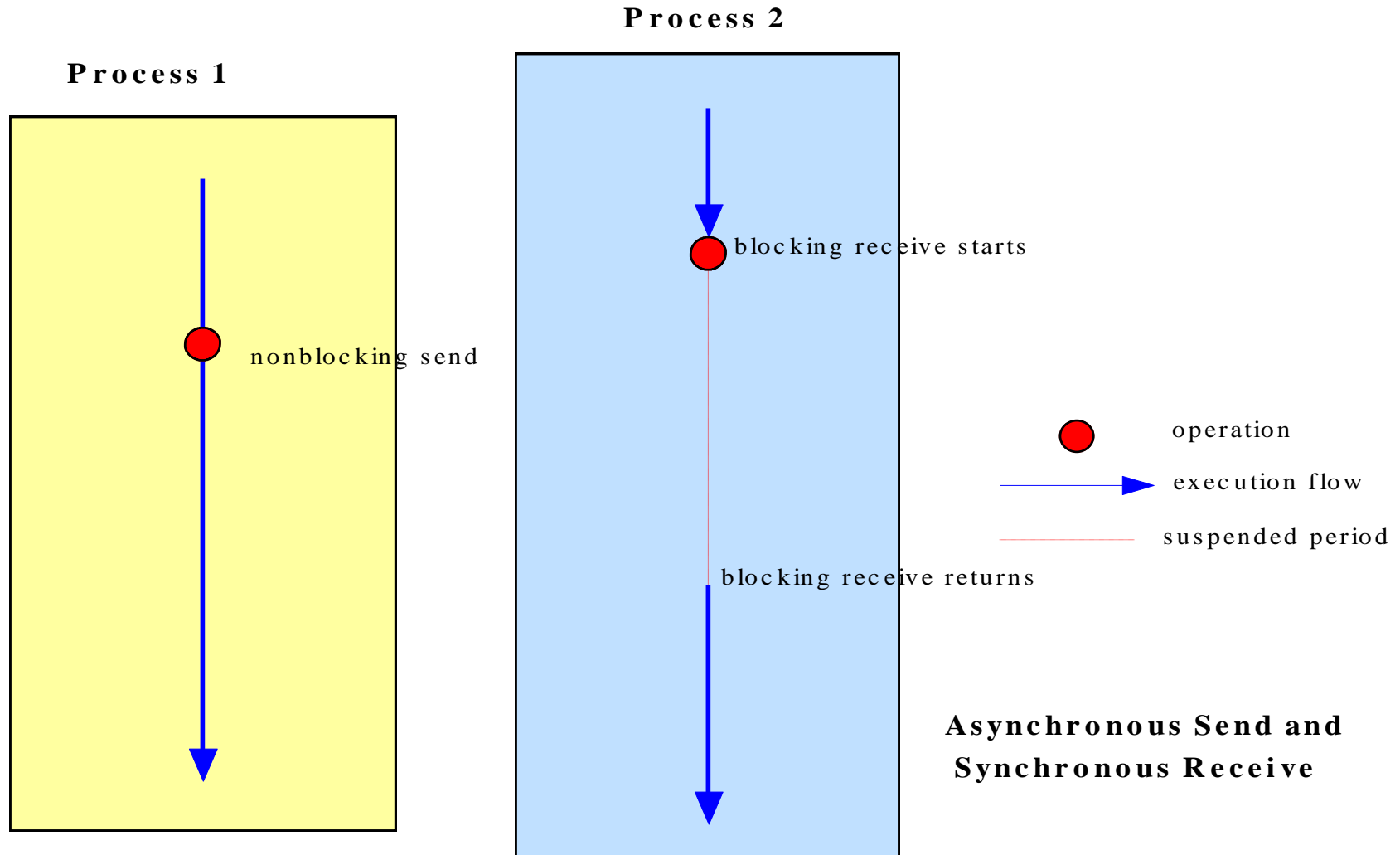
Synchronous send and receive



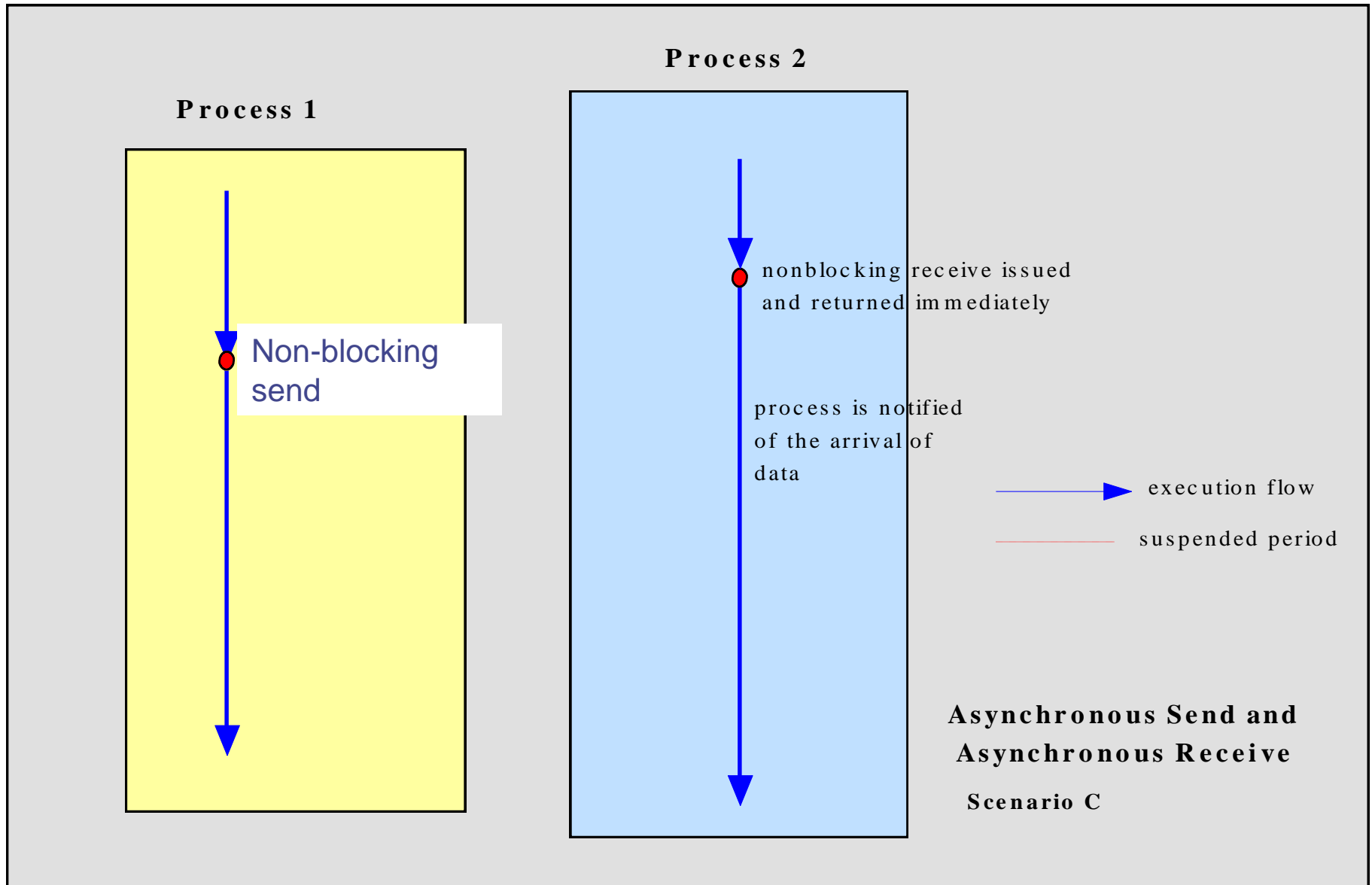
Asynchronous Interaction

- Non-blocking send: sending process continues as soon message is queued.
- Blocking or non-blocking receive:
 - Blocking:
 - Timeout.
 - Threads.
 - Non-blocking: proceeds while waiting for message.
 - Message is queued upon arrival.
 - Process needs to poll or be interrupted.
- Arbitrary processes execution speeds, message transmission delays and clock drift rates
- Some problems impossible to solve (e.g. agreement)

Asynchronous send and synchronous receive

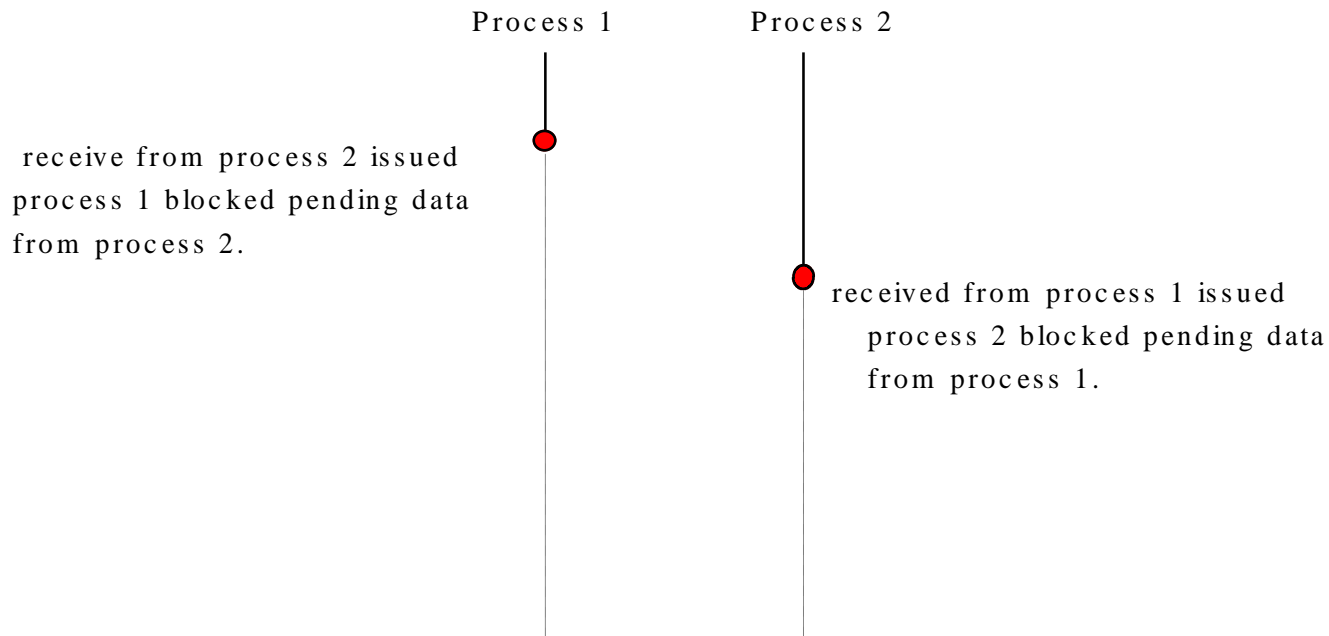


Asynchronous send and Asynchronous receive



Blocking, deadlock, and timeouts

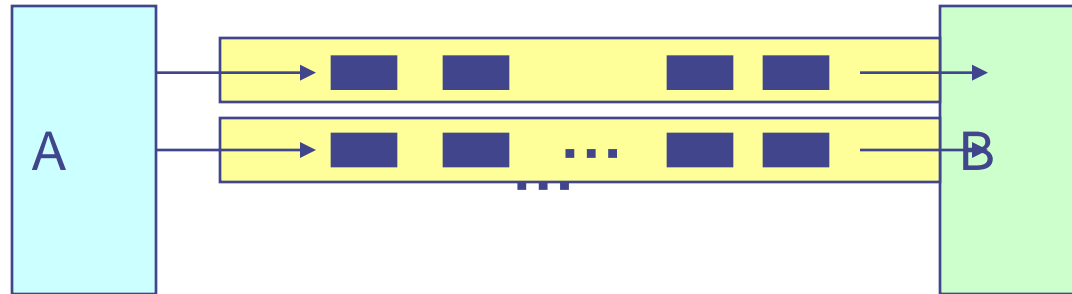
- Blocking operations issued in the wrong sequence can cause deadlocks.
- Deadlocks should be avoided. Alternatively, timeout can be used to detect deadlocks.



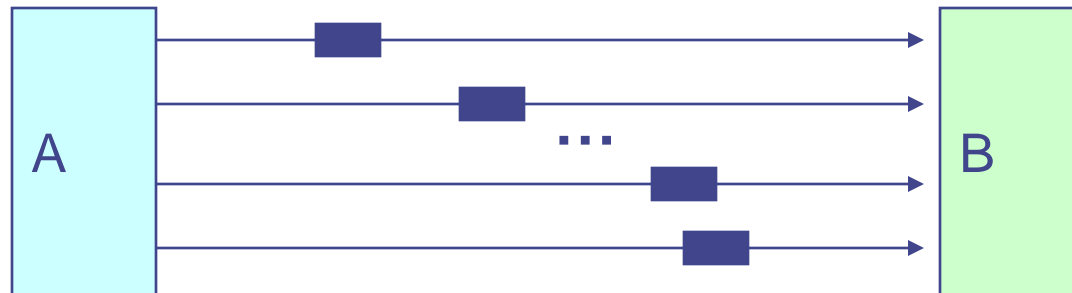
Primitive	Meaning
MPI_bsend	Append outgoing message to a local send buffer
MPI_send	Send a message and wait until copied to local or remote buffer
MPI_ssend	Send a message and wait until receipt starts
MPI_sendrecv	Send a message and wait for reply
MPI_isend	Pass reference to outgoing message, and continue
MPI_issend	Pass reference to outgoing message, and wait until receipt starts
MPI_recv	Receive a message; block if there is none
MPI_irecv	Check if there is an incoming message, but do not block

Connection-oriented vs. connection-less service

- Recall telephony vs. postal service
 - Service can require a preliminary setup phase
 - ➔ **connection-oriented service**
 - Three phases: connect, data exchange, release connection
 - During connect: attention of the partner assured, resources reserved....
 - Alternative: Invocation of a service primitive at any time, with all necessary information included in the invocation
 - ➔ **connection-less service**
 - **Note:** *Both are possible on top of either circuit or packet switching!*
- Connection-oriented services - primitives to handle connection
 - CONNECT – setup a connection to the communication partner
 - LISTEN – wait for incoming connection requests
 - INCOMING_CONN – indicate an incoming connection request
 - ACCEPT – accept a connection
 - DISCONNECT – terminate a connection



■ Connection-Oriented Communication



■ Connectionless Communication

Typical examples of services

- ***Datagram service (Connection –less)***

- Unit of data are messages (limited length)
- Correct, but not necessarily complete or in order –
- Usually insecure/not dependable, not confirmed

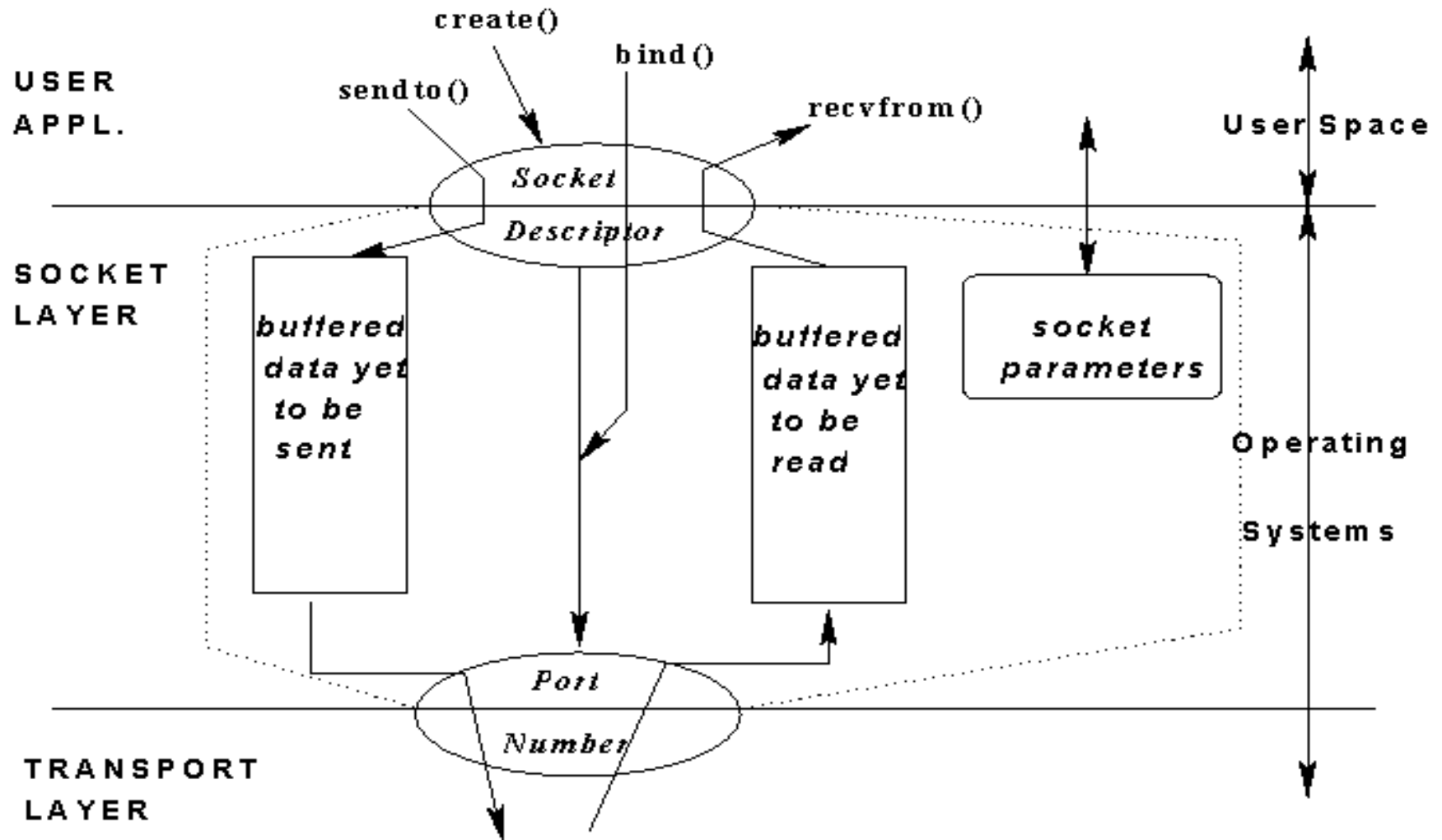
Application must provide its own reliability“

- ***Reliable byte stream (connection oriented)***

- Byte stream
- Correct, complete, in order, confirmed - Processes have a guarantee that messages will be delivered (sender can check that!)
 - Possible to build reliability atop unreliable service .
- Sometimes, but not always secure/dependable

Sockets: the Transport Layer API

- Sockets provide an API (Application Programming Interface) for programming networks at the transport layer.
- A socket is an endpoint of a two-way communication link between two processes located on the same machine - or located on different machines connected by a network.
- Network communication using Sockets is similar to file I/O
 - Socket handle is treated like file handle.
 - The streams used in file I/O operation are also applicable to socket-based I/O
- Socket-based communication principles are programming language independent!
- The success of this API is based on its abstraction of all possible used network protocols/underlying network topology.
 - A socket is bound to a port number so that the transport protocol can identify the application that data destined to be sent.



Caution: Sockets support multiple domains!!!

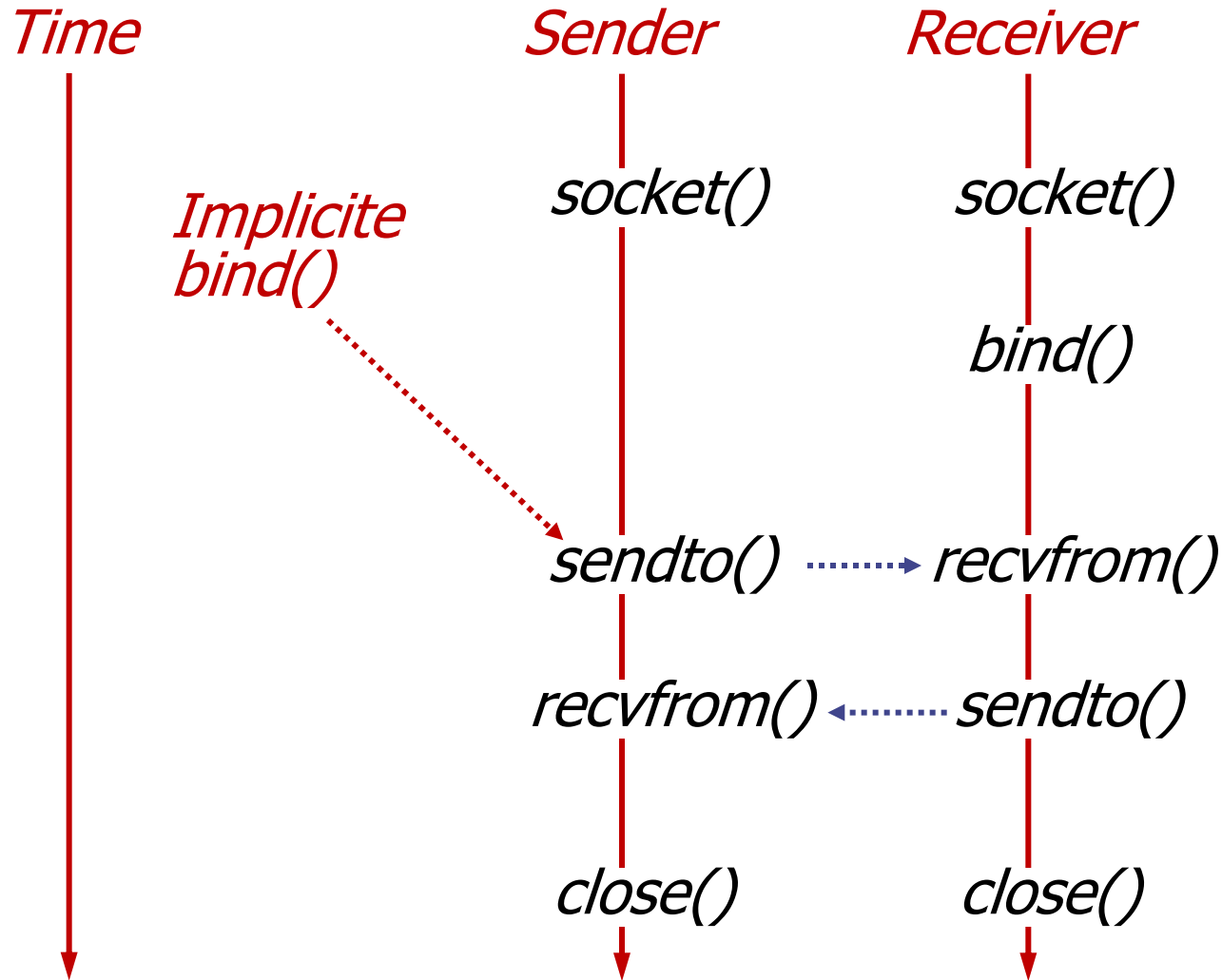
- Domain defined while socket is created!
 - `int socket(int domain, int type, int protocol)`
- *domain* is `AF_UNIX`, `AF_INET`, `AF_OSI`, etc.
 - `AF_INET` is for communication on the internet to IP addresses.
- *type* is either `SOCK_STREAM` (connection oriented, reliable), `SOCK_DGRAM` or `SOCK_RAW`
 - Originally more types have been envisioned
- *protocol* specifies the protocol used. It is usually 0 to say we want to use the default protocol for the chosen domain and type (note IP 4 vs. IP 6)
- While nowadays INET Domain/protocols prevail, the approach is more General.

Berkeley Sockets

Primitive	Meaning
Socket	Create a new communication end point
Bind	Attach a local address to a socket
Listen	Announce willingness to accept connections
Accept	Block caller until a connection request arrives
Connect	Actively attempt to establish a connection
Send	Send some data over the connection
Receive	Receive some data over the connection
Close	Release the connection

A VERY GOOD source of information about sockets is the Beej's Guide
<http://beej.us/guide/bgnet/> (legally free download!)

Datagram sockets



- Simplest possible service: unreliable datagrams

Sender

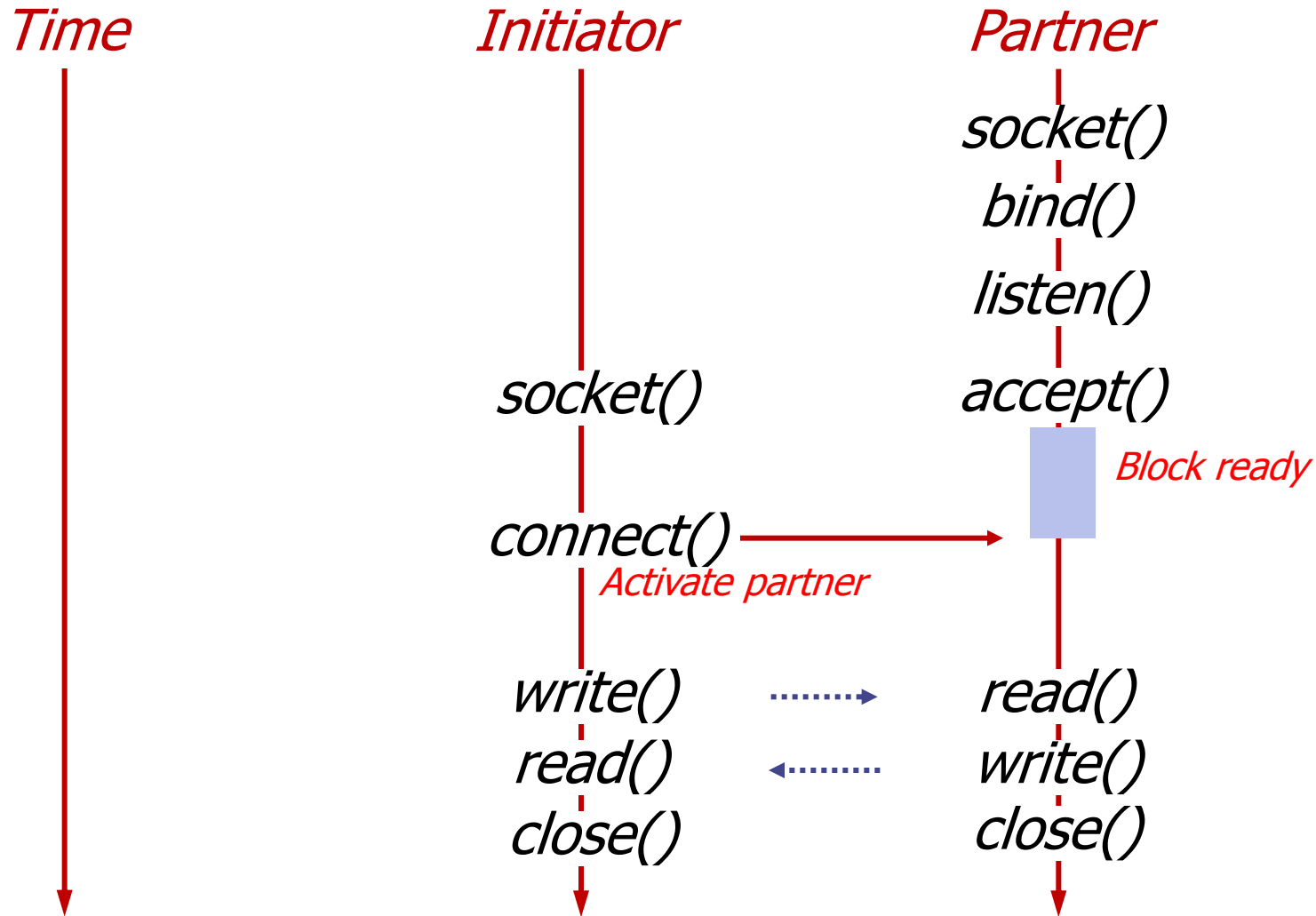
- `int s = socket (...);`
- `sendto (s,
buffer,
datasize,
0,
to_addr,
addr_length);`
- `to_addr` and `addr_length` specify the destination

Receiver

- `int s = socket (...);`
- `bind (s, local_addr,
...);`
- `recv (s,
buffer,
max_buff_length,
0);`
- Will wait until data is available on socket `s` and put the data into `buffer`

- Class *DatagramSocket*
 - *socket constructor* (returns free port if no arg)
 - *send DatagramPacket* (non-blocking)
 - *receive DatagramPacket* (blocking)
 - *setSoTimeout*
(receive blocks for time T and throws *InterruptedException*)
 - *Connect*
(throws *SocketException* if port unknown or in use)
 - *close DatagramSocket*

Stream sockets



- For reliable byte streams, sockets have to be connected first
- Receiver has to accept connection

Initiator (*client*)

- `int s = socket (...);`
- `connect (s,
destination_addr,
addr_length);`
- `send (s,buffer,
datasize, 0);`
- Arbitrary `recv()/send()`
- `close (s);`
- Connected sockets use a `send` without address information

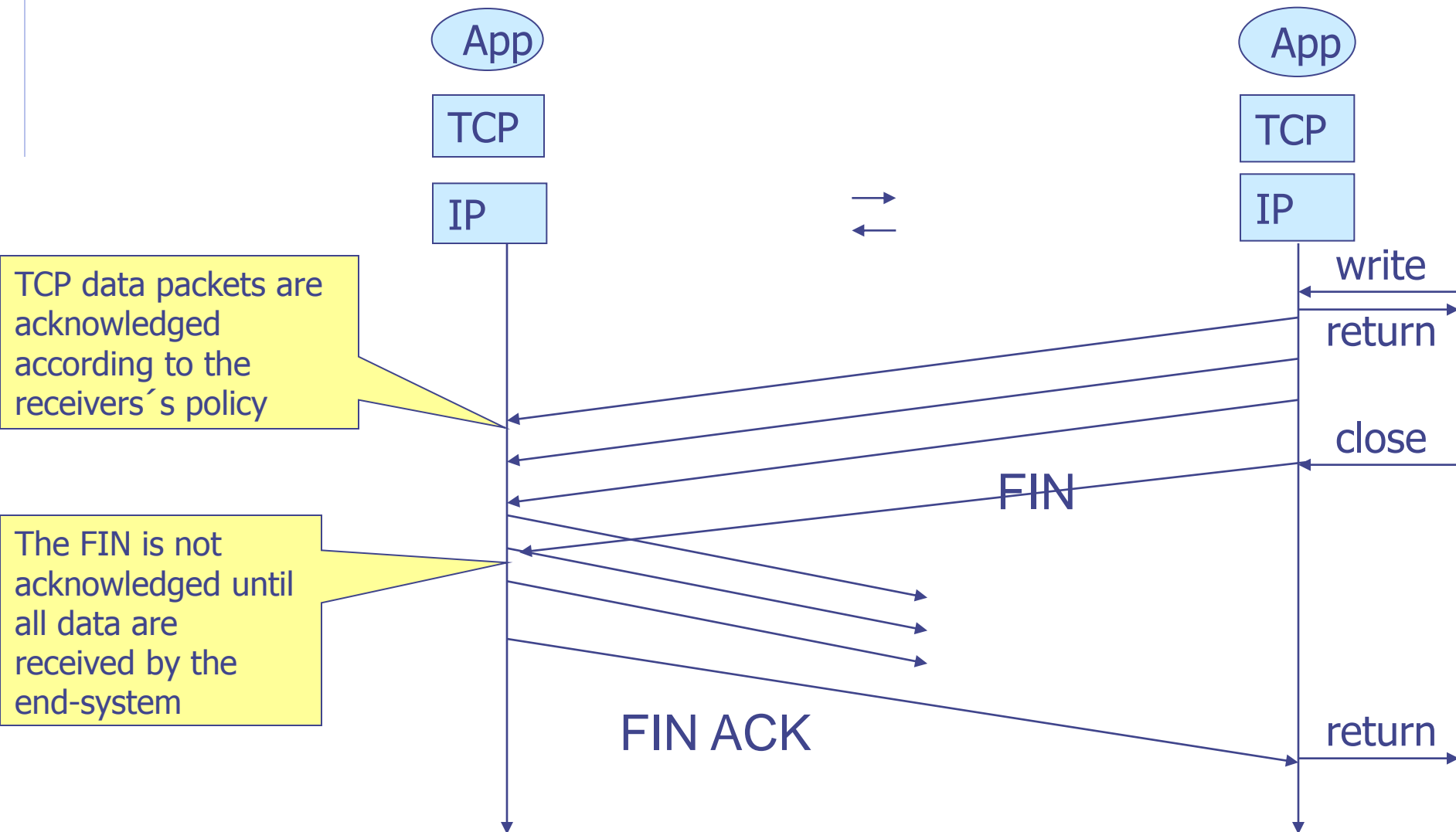
Partner (*server*)

- `int s = socket (...);`
- `bind (s, local_addr, ...);`
- `listen (s, ...);`
- `int newsock = accept (s,
*remote_addr, ...);`
- `recv (newsock, buffer,
max_buff_length, 0);`
- Arbitrary `recv()/send()`
- `close (newsock);`

Java API for Data Stream Communications

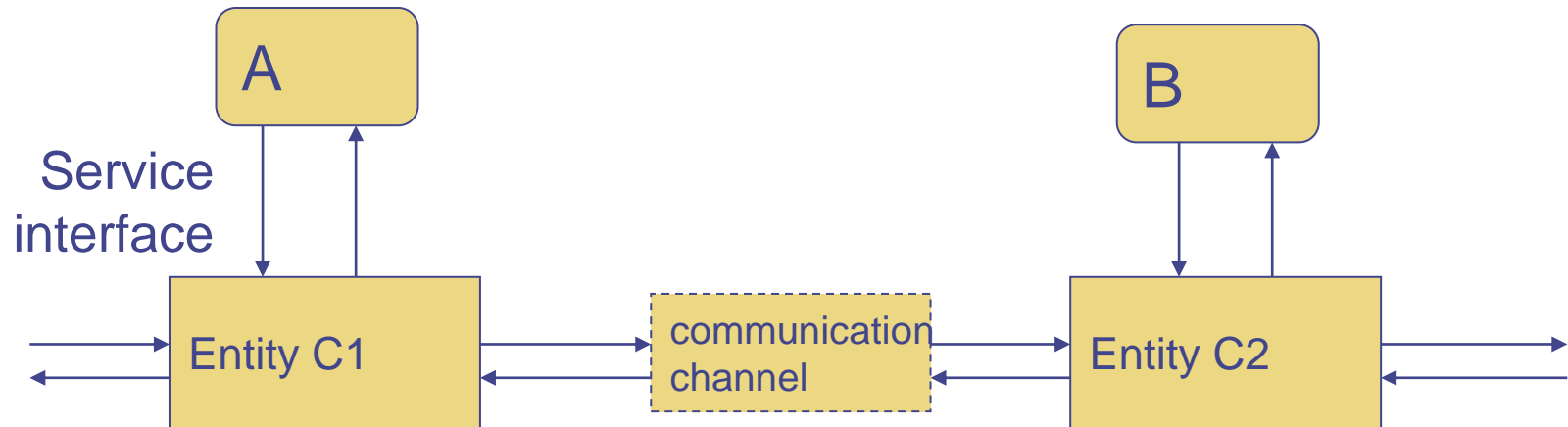
- Class *ServerSocket*
 - *socket constructor* (for listening at a server port)
 - *getInputStream, getOutputStream*
 - *DataInputStream, DataOutputStream*
(automatic marshaling/unmarshaling)
 - *close* to close a socket
(raises *UnknownHost, IOException*, etc)

Reliability of sockets



Communication: a service offered to the users...

- A, B use a **communication service** provided by a pair of Communicating Entities (short: **entities**)



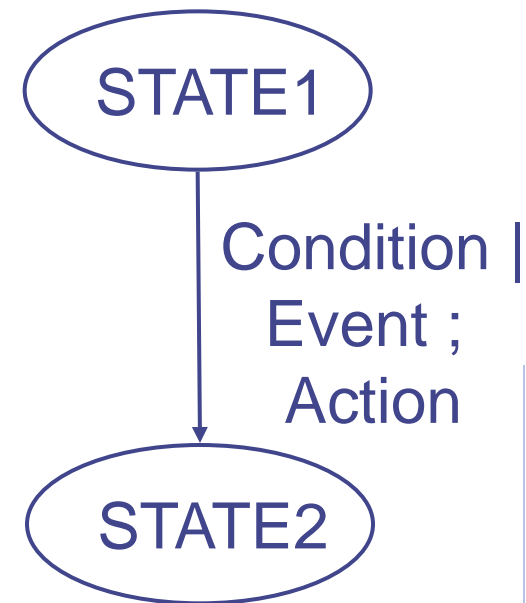
- Entities exchange messages
 - A message contains “**an envelope**” (a.k.a HEADER – an organization part)
 - **and –mostly - “the payload” (a.k.a user’s data!)**

Protocols

- Cooperation between the entities needs rules
 - How can we ensure that each participant is able to communicate with each other participant?
 - Standardized, overarching protocols after a general discussion open for everyone
 - Manufacturers must implement the protocol for their device, operating system, application, ...
- Transmission protocols = Rules for communication in network
- Analogy: Hand shake

Protocol Specification

- Formal behavior
 - Rules which constitute the protocol have to be precisely specified
- One popular method: (Extended) Finite State Machine (FSM)
 - Protocol instance/protocol engine at each entity with several states
 - Connected – waiting...
 - Events/transitions between states
 - Message arrivals
 - Real time / timer events
 - Transition can have conditions
- Actions during transition are
 - Send new message
 - Set timer, delete timer, ...



Protocol Specifications - FSMs

- Finite State Machines (FSM)
 - $\Sigma = (S, E, D, S_0)$
 - $S = \{s^j\}$: countable state space
 - $E = \{e^j\}$: countable set of events
 - D : transition function
 - $D: S \times E \rightarrow [S, A]$
 - ϕ : undefined transition (zero element)
 - $A = \{a^j\}$: countable set of actions
 - S_0 : initial state
 - $E^f(s)$: feasible event set for state S

**Just for
those who
like it a bit
more
formal!**

Send_and_Wait Specification

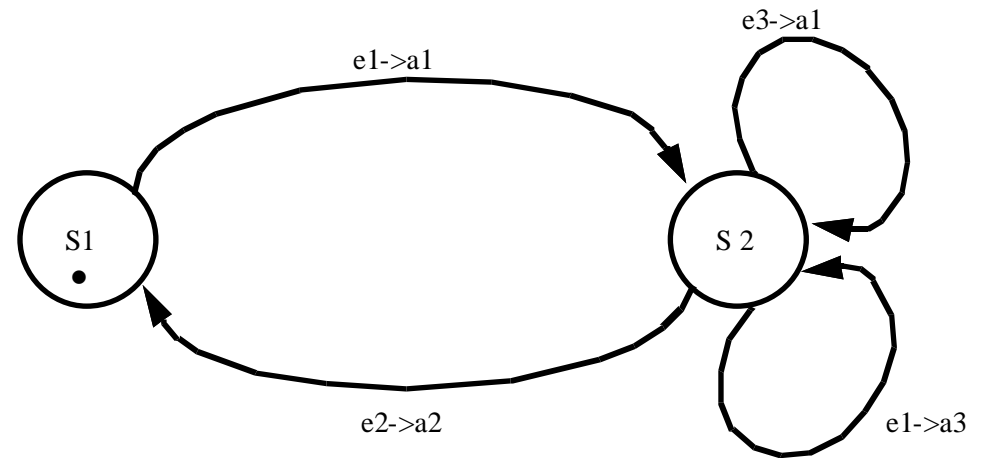
- Example - Send and Wait

- s^1 - idle e^1 - data to send (**+Transmission Request**)
- s^2 - waiting e^2 - get acknowledge
- $s^0 = s^1$ e^3 - timer expired
- $a^1 = \langle \text{send data, set timer} \rangle$
- $a^2 = \langle \text{acknowledge transfer, clear timer} \rangle$ (**Conf**)
- $a^3 = \langle \text{response: busy} \rangle$ (**+Transmission Confirmation**)

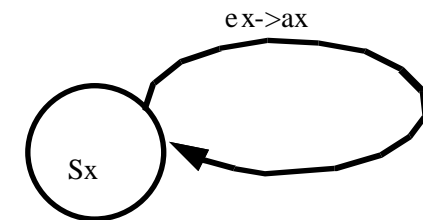
- Transition function

Event	State	
	s^1	s^2
e^1	a^1, s^2	a^3, s^2
e^2	0	a^2, s^1
e^3	0	a^1, s^2

Protocol Specification: Graph usage



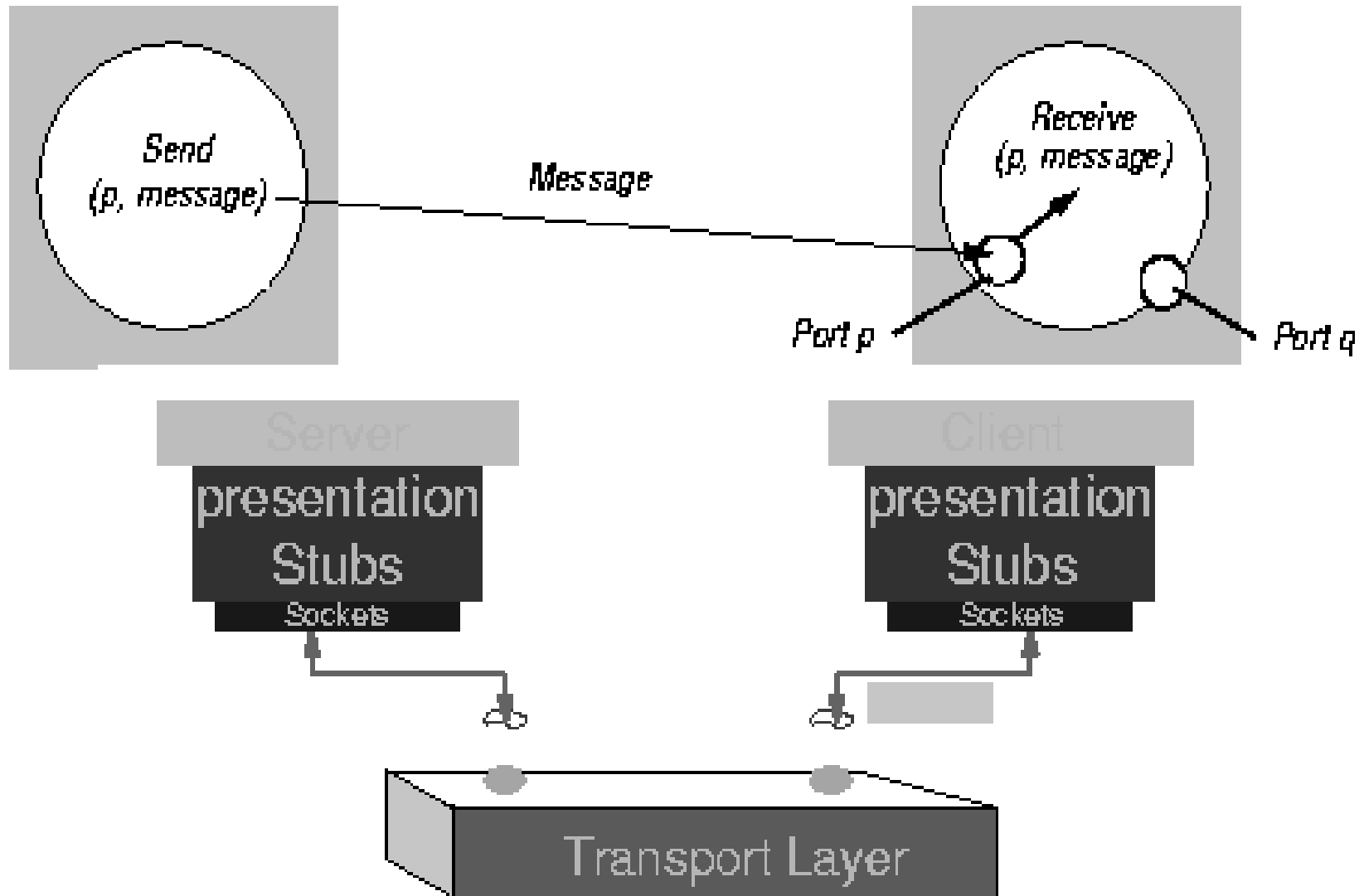
Receiver



Receiver side specification

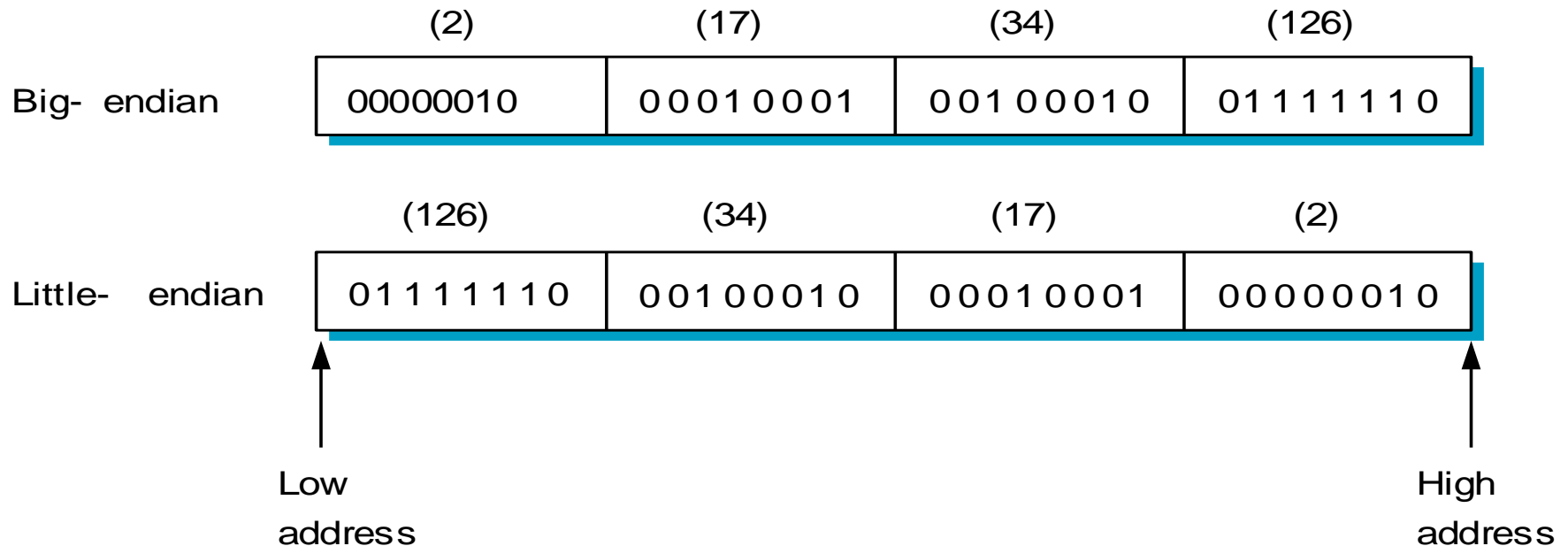
- S^x - idle
- e^x - data arrived
- a^x - acknowledge (**+Transmission Indication**)
- Note:
 - Timers count is irrelevant
 - Infinite loop if permanent transmission errors!
 - Duplication if acknowledge gets lost

Streams of Bits/bytes can be transmitted: so what?
How do we know what is the INFORMATION inside?



Simple example

- Representation of base types
 - floating point: IEEE 754 versus non-standard
 - integer: big-endian versus little-endian (e.g., 34,677,374)

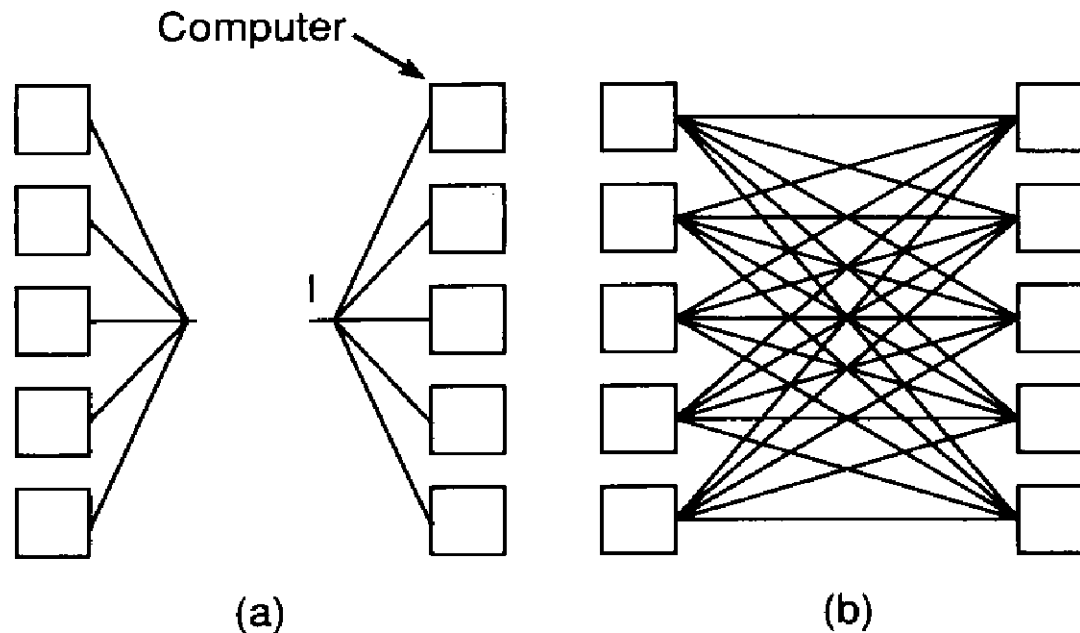


- on a 680x0 CPU, the 32 bit integer number 255 is stored as:
00000000 00000000 00000000 11111111
but an Intel 80x86-CPU stores this as:
11111111 00000000 00000000 00000000

Taxonomy

- Data types

- base types (e.g., ints, floats); must convert
- flat types (e.g., structures, arrays); must pack
- complex types (e.g., pointers); must linearize



- Conversion Strategy

- canonical intermediate form
- receiver-makes-right (an $N \times N$ solution)

Data Conversion

- Two different types of rules are needed:
 - Abstract syntax: a station must define what datatypes are to be transmitted
 - Transfer syntax: it must be defined how these datatypes are transmitted, i.e. which representation has to be used.

Tagged versus untagged data

type = INT	len = 4		value =	417892	
---------------	---------	--	---------	--------	--

Abstract Syntax Notation.1 - ASN.1

- Each transmitted data value belongs to an associated data type.
- For the lower layers of the OSI-RM, only a fixed set of data types is needed (frame formats), for applications with their complex data types ASN.1 provides rules for the definition and usage of data types.
- ASN.1 distinguishes between a data type (as the set of all possible values of this type) and values of this type (e.g. '1' is a value of data type Integer).
- Basic ideas of ASN.1:
 - Every data type has a globally unique name (type identifier)
 - Every data type is stored in a library with its name and a description of its structure (written in ASN.1)
 - A value is transmitted with its type identifier and some additional information (e.g. length of a string).

Definition of Datatypes using ASN.1 (1)

- A data type definition is called „abstract syntax“; it uses a Pascal-like syntax.
- Lexical rules:
 - Lowercase letters and uppercase letters are different
 - A type identifier must start with an uppercase letter
 - Keywords are written in uppercase letters
- ASN.1 offers some predefined simple types:
 - BOOLEAN (Values: True, False)
 - INTEGER (natural numbers without upper bound)
 - ENUMERATED (association between identifier and Integer value)
 - REAL (floating point values without upper or lower bound)
 - BIT STRING (unbounded sequence of bits)
 - OCTET STRING (unbounded sequence of bytes/ octets)
 - NULL (special value denoting absence of a value)
 - OBJECT IDENTIFIER (denoting type names or other ASN.1-objects)

Definition of Datatypes using ASN.1 (2)

- Examples:
 - MonthsPerYear ::= INTEGER
MonthsPerYear ::= INTEGER (1..12)
Answer ::= ENUMERATED (correct(0), wrong(1),noAnswer(3))
- With the following type constructors new types can be built from existing ones:
 - SET: the order of transmission of the elements of a set is not specified. The number of elements is unbounded, their types can differ
 - SET OF: like SET, but all elements are of the same type.
 - SEQUENCE: the elements of a sequence are transmitted in the defined order. They can be of different types. The number of elements is unbounded.
 - SEQUENCE OF: like SEQUENCE, but all elements are of the same type
 - CHOICE: the type of a given value is chosen from a list of types (like a Pascal variant record)
 - ANY: unspecified type

ASN.1 Transfer Syntax (1)

- Some coding rules (the „transfer syntax“) specifies how a value of a given type is transmitted. A value to be transmitted is coded in four parts:
 - identification (type field or tags)
 - length of data field in bytes
 - data field
 - termination flag, if length is unknown.
- The coding of data depends on their type:
 - integer numbers are transmitted in High-Endian Two's complement representation, using the minimal number of bytes: numbers smaller 128 are encoded in one byte, numbers smaller than 32767 are encoded in two bytes, ...
 - Booleans: 0 is false, every value not equal 0 is true.
 - for a sequence type first a type identification of the sequence itself is transmitted, followed by each member of the sequence.
 - Similar rules apply to the transfer of set types