Chapter 6
The Link Layer and LANs

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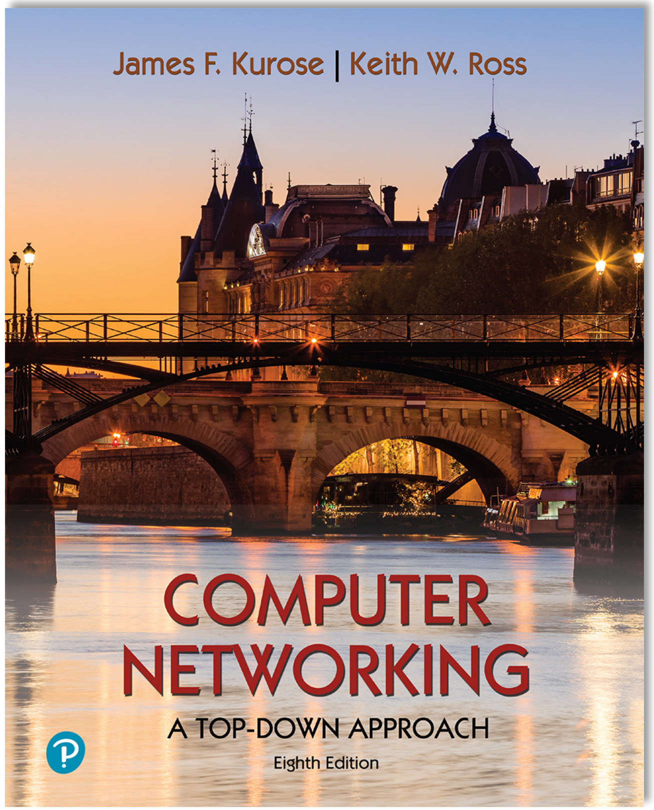


Computer Networking: A Top-Down Approach
8th edition
Jim Kurose, Keith Ross
Pearson, 2020

Link layer and LANs: our goals

- understand principles behind link layer services:
  - error detection, correction
  - sharing a broadcast channel: multiple access
  - link layer addressing
  - local area networks: Ethernet, VLANs
- datacenter networks

- instantiation, implementation of various link layer technologies

Link layer, LANs: roadmap

- introduction
- error detection, correction
- multiple access protocols
- LANs
  - addressing, ARP
  - Ethernet
  - switches
  - VLANs
- link virtualization: MPLS
- data center networking

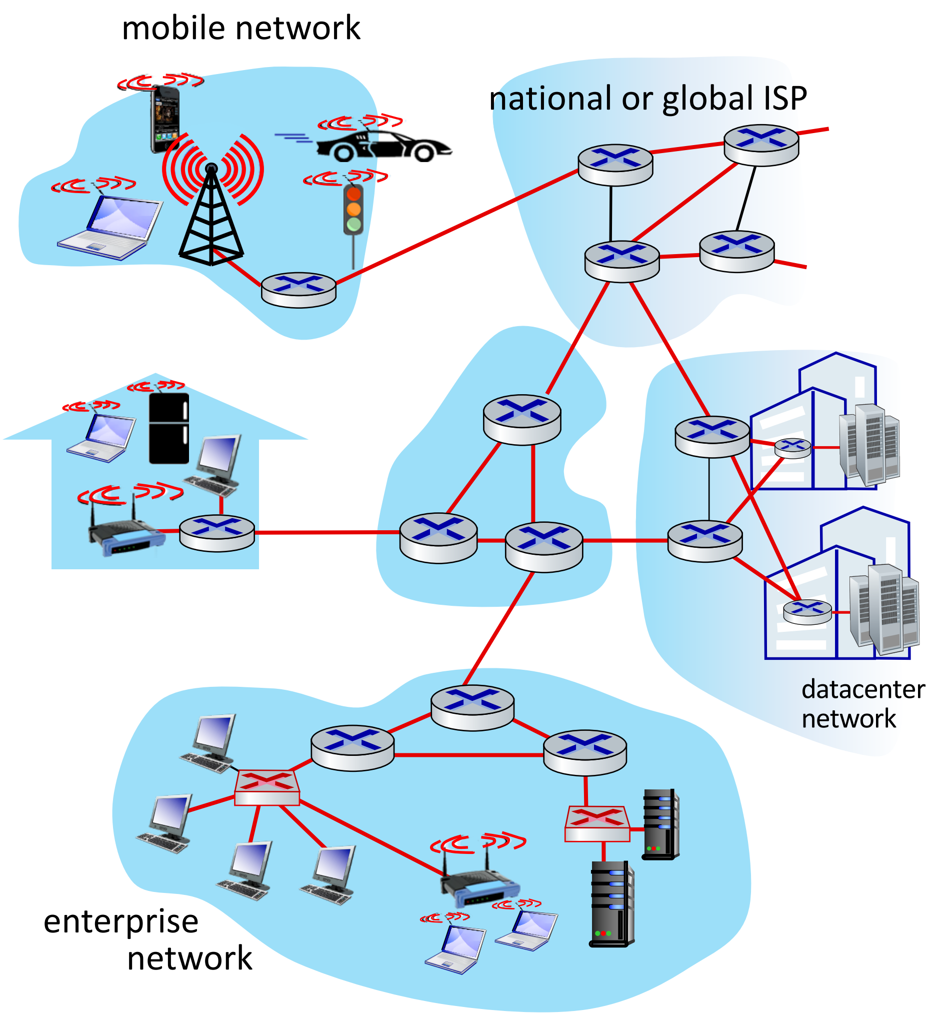
- a day in the life of a web request

Link layer: introduction

terminology:

- hosts and routers: nodes
- communication channels that connect adjacent nodes along communication path: links
  - wired
  - wireless
  - LANs
- layer-2 packet: *frame*, encapsulates datagram

link layer has responsibility of transferring datagram from one node to physically adjacent node over a link



Link layer: context

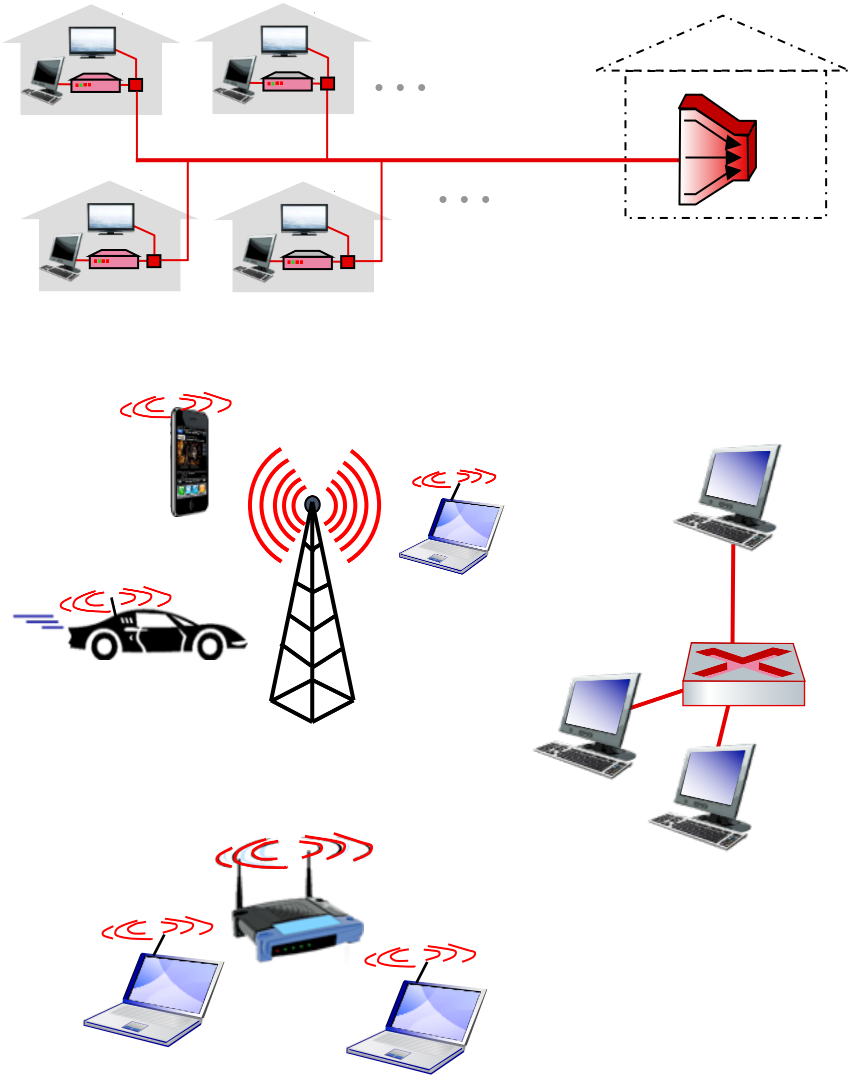
- datagram transferred by different link protocols over different links:
  - e.g., WiFi on first link, Ethernet on next link
- each link protocol provides different services
  - e.g., may or may not provide reliable data transfer over link

transportation analogy:

- trip from Princeton to Lausanne
  - limo: Princeton to JFK
  - plane: JFK to Geneva
  - train: Geneva to Lausanne
- tourist = datagram
- transport segment = communication link
- transportation mode = link-layer protocol
- travel agent = routing algorithm

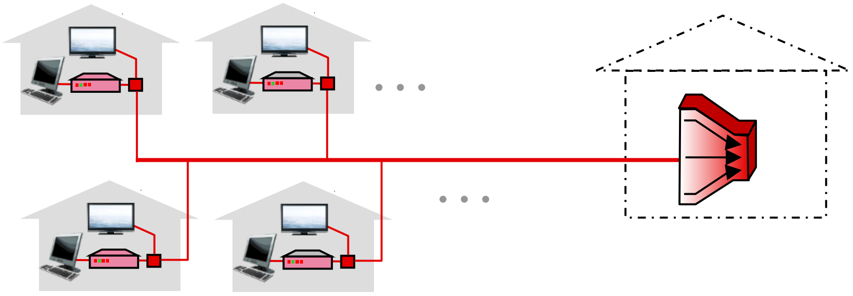
Link layer: services

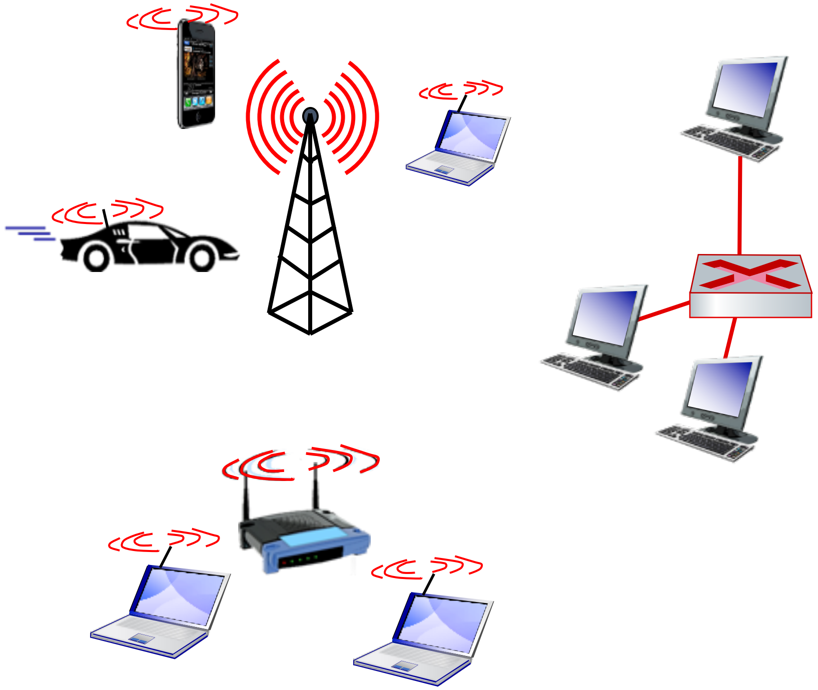
- framing, link access:
  - encapsulate datagram into frame, adding header, trailer
  - channel access if shared medium
  - "MAC" addresses in frame headers identify source, destination (different from IP address!)
- reliable delivery between adjacent nodes
  - we already know how to do this!
  - seldom used on low bit-error links
  - wireless links: high error rates
    - *Q:* why both link-level and end-end reliability?



Link layer: services (more)

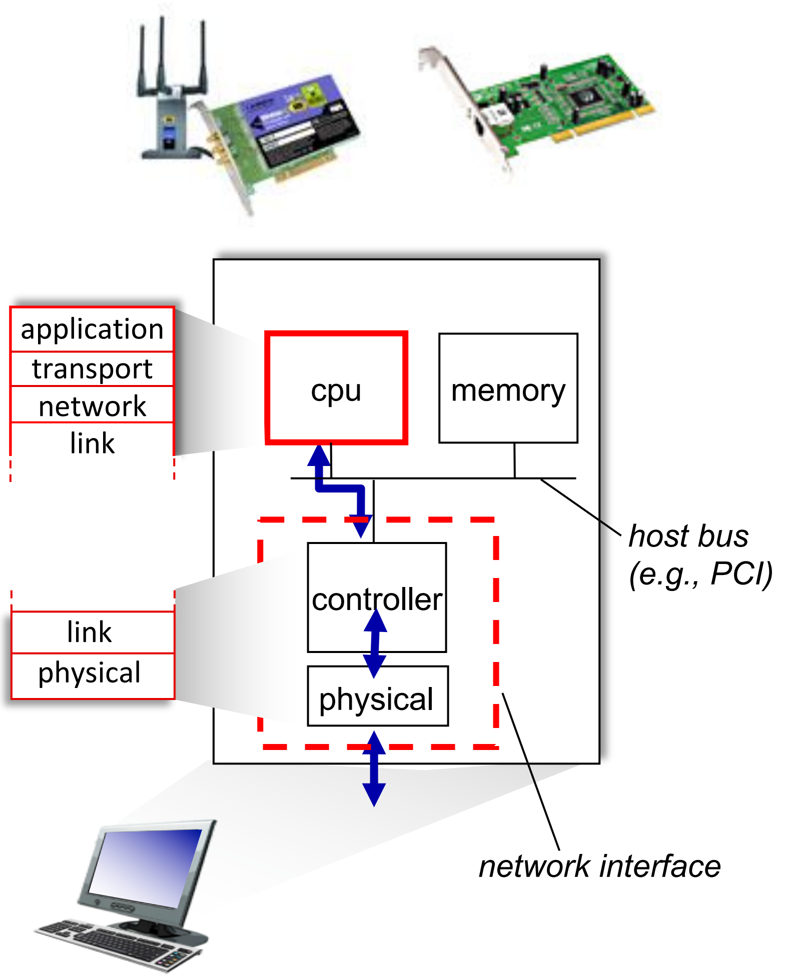
- flow control:
  - pacing between adjacent sending and receiving nodes
- error detection:
  - errors caused by signal attenuation, noise.
  - receiver detects errors, signals retransmission, or drops frame
- error correction:
  - receiver identifies *and corrects* bit error(s) without retransmission
- half-duplex and full-duplex:
  - with half duplex, nodes at both ends of link can transmit, but not at same time



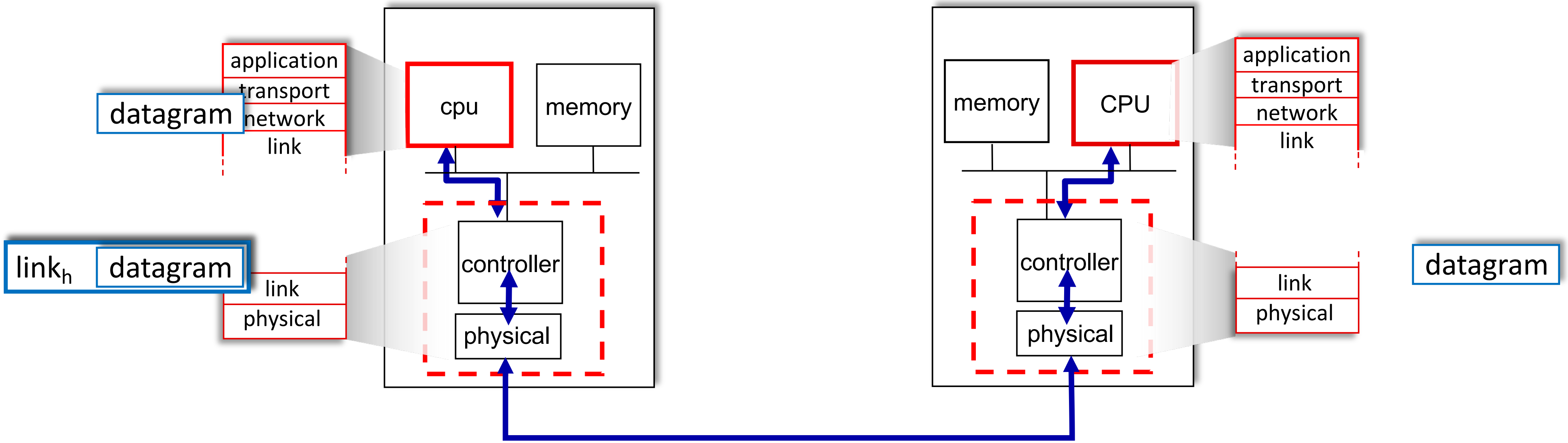


Where is the link layer implemented?

- in each-and-every host
- link layer implemented in *network interface card* (NIC) or on a chip
  - Ethernet, WiFi card or chip
  - implements link, physical layer
- attaches into host's system buses
- combination of hardware, software, firmware



Interfaces communicating



sending side:

- encapsulates datagram in frame
- adds error checking bits, reliable data transfer, flow control, etc.

receiving side:

- looks for errors, reliable data transfer, flow control, etc.
- extracts datagram, passes to upper layer at receiving side

Link layer, LANs: roadmap

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- multiple access protocols
- LANs
  - addressing, ARP
  - Ethernet
  - switches
  - VLANs
- link virtualization: MPLS
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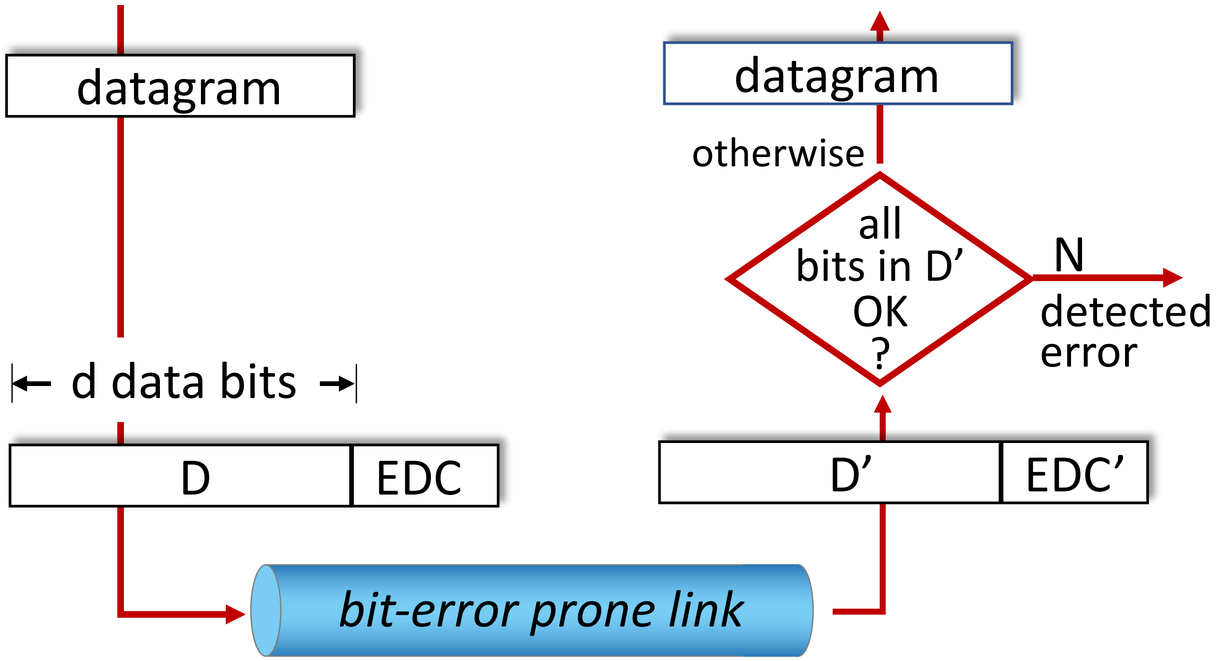
Error detection

EDC: error detection and correction bits (e.g., redundancy)

D: data protected by error checking, may include header fields



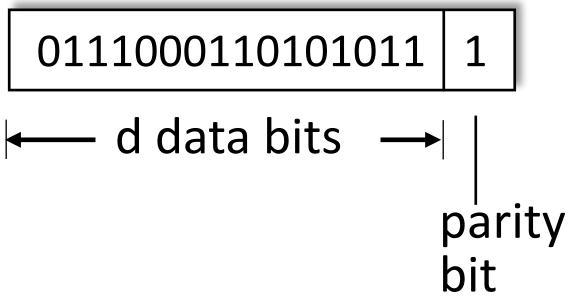
Error detection not 100% reliable!

- protocol may miss some errors, but rarely
- larger EDC field yields better detection and correction

Parity checking

single bit parity:

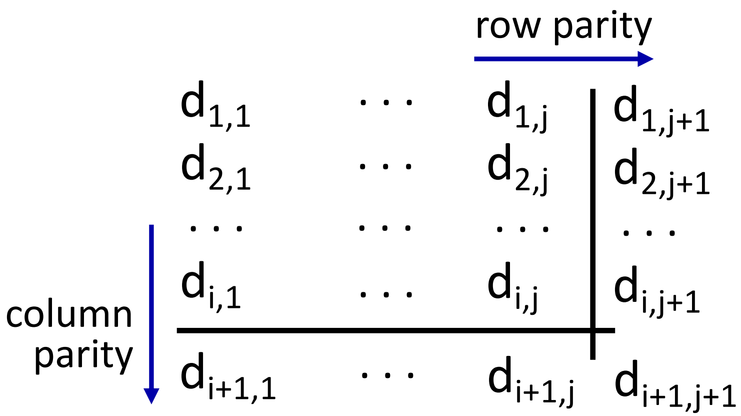
- detect single bit errors



Even parity: set parity bit so there is an even number of 1's

two-dimensional bit parity:

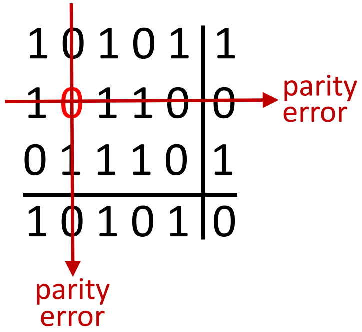
- detect *and correct* single bit errors



no errors:

1	0	1	0	1	1
1	1	1	1	0	0
0	1	1	1	0	1
1	0	1	0	1	0

detected and correctable single-bit error:



* Check out the online interactive exercises for more examples: http://gaia.cs.umass.edu/kurose_ross/interactive/

Internet checksum (review)

Goal: detect errors (*i.e.,* flipped bits) in transmitted segment

sender:

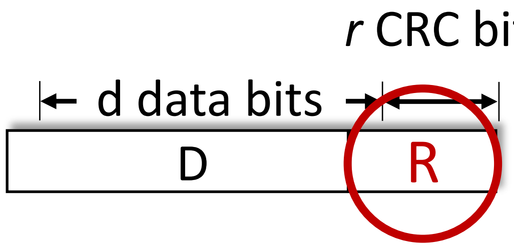
- treat contents of UDP segment (including UDP header fields and IP addresses) as sequence of 16-bit integers
- checksum: addition (one's complement sum) of segment content
- checksum value put into UDP checksum field

receiver:

- compute checksum of received segment
- check if computed checksum equals checksum field value:
  - not equal - error detected
  - equal - no error detected. *But maybe errors nonetheless?* More later ....

Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC)

- more powerful error-detection coding
- D: data bits (given, think of these as a binary number)
- G: bit pattern (generator), of *r+1* bits (given)



bit pattern

<D,R> = $D * 2^r$ XOR R — formula for bit pattern

goal: choose *r* CRC bits, R, such that <D,R> exactly divisible by G (mod 2)

- receiver knows G, divides <D,R> by G. If non-zero remainder: error detected!
- can detect all burst errors less than r+1 bits
- widely used in practice (Ethernet, 802.11 WiFi)

Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC): example

We want:

$D \cdot 2^r \ XOR \ R = nG$

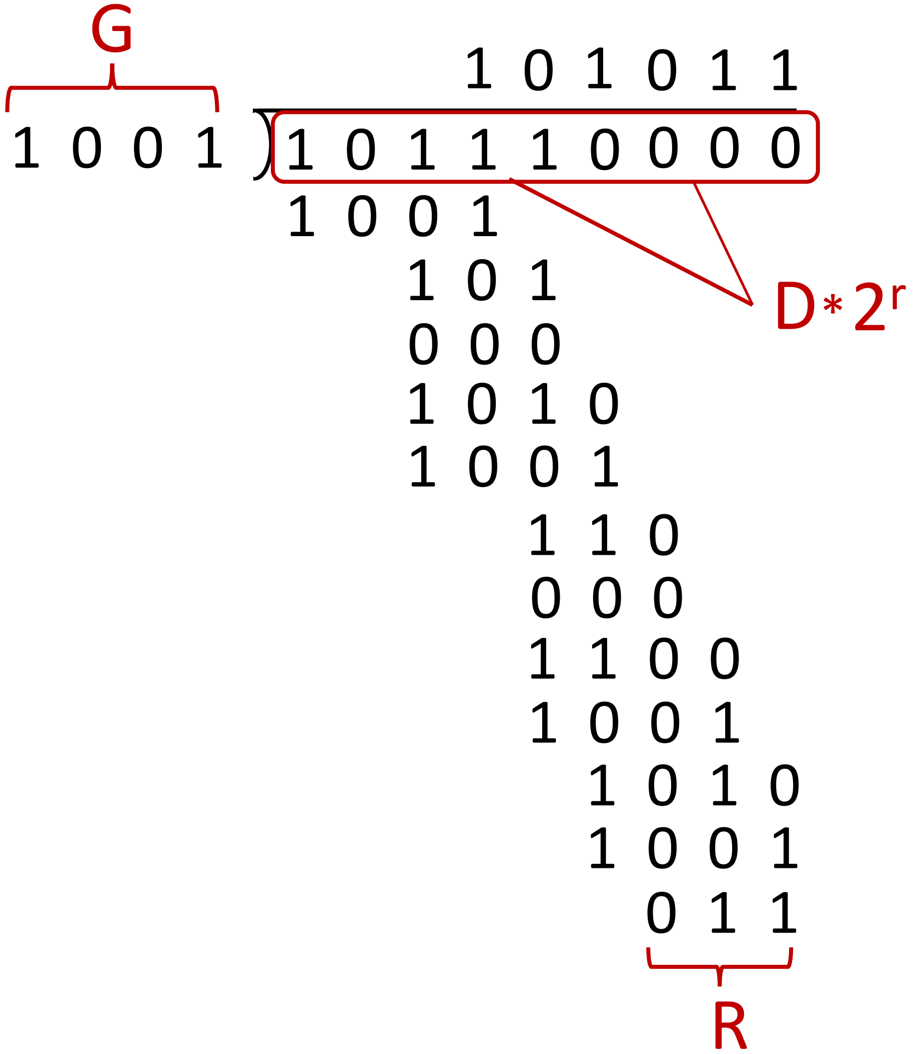
or equivalently:

$D \cdot 2^r = nG \ XOR \ R$

or equivalently:

if we divide $D \cdot 2^r$ by G, want remainder R to satisfy:

$$R = remainder \left[\frac{D \cdot 2^r}{G} \right]$$



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Link layer, LANs: roadmap

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- error detection, correction
- **multiple access protocols**
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Multiple access links, protocols

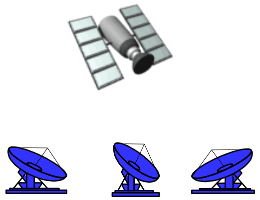
two types of "links":

- point-to-point
  - point-to-point link between Ethernet switch, host
  - PPP for dial-up access
- broadcast (shared wire or medium)
  - old-fashioned Ethernet
  - upstream HFC in cable-based access network
  - 802.11 wireless LAN, 4G/4G. satellite

shared wire (e.g., cabled Ethernet)

shared radio: 4G/5G

shared radio: WiFi



shared radio: satellite

humans at a cocktail party (shared air, acoustical)

Multiple access protocols

- single shared broadcast channel
- two or more simultaneous transmissions by nodes: interference
  - *collision* if node receives two or more signals at the same time

multiple access protocol

- distributed algorithm that determines how nodes share channel, i.e., determine when node can transmit
- communication about channel sharing must use channel itself!
  - no out-of-band channel for coordination

An ideal multiple access protocol

given: multiple access channel (MAC) of rate *R* bps

desiderata:

1. when one node wants to transmit, it can send at rate *R*.
2. when M nodes want to transmit, each can send at average rate *R/M*
3. fully decentralized:
   - no special node to coordinate transmissions
   - no synchronization of clocks, slots
4. simple

MAC protocols: taxonomy

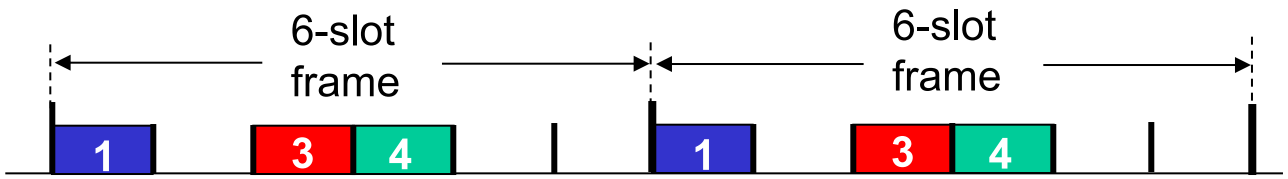
three broad classes:

- channel partitioning
  - divide channel into smaller “pieces” (time slots, frequency, code)
  - allocate piece to node for exclusive use
- *random access*
  - channel not divided, allow collisions
  - “recover” from collisions
- “taking turns”
  - nodes take turns, but nodes with more to send can take longer turns

Channel partitioning MAC protocols: TDMA

TDMA: time division multiple access

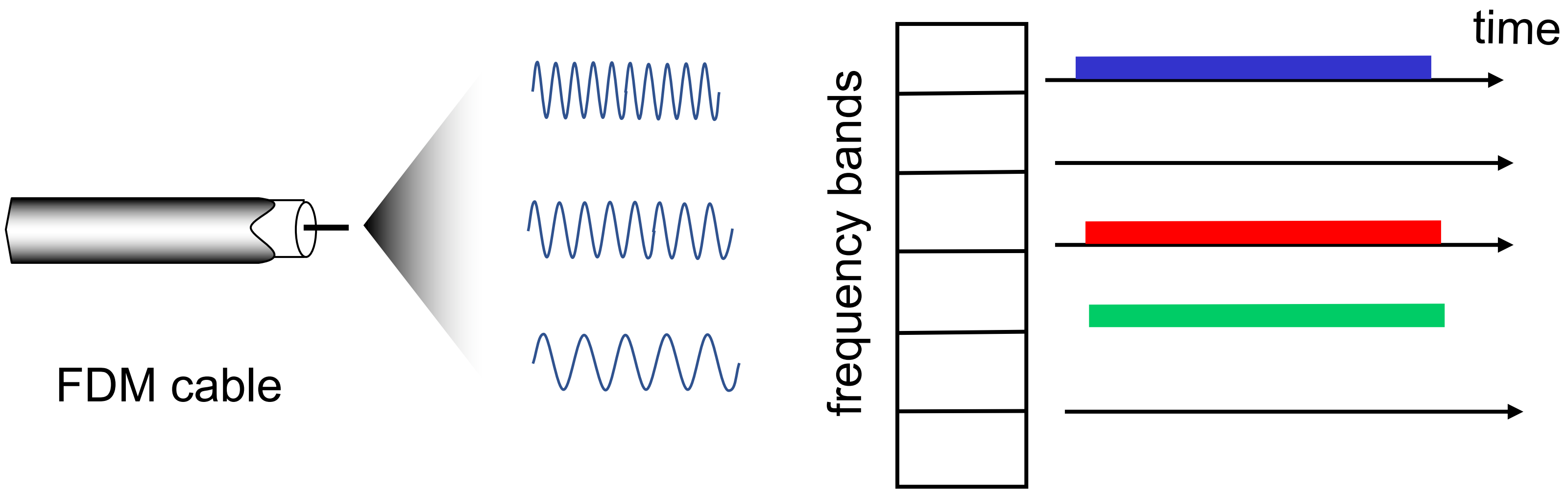
- access to channel in "rounds"
- each station gets fixed length slot (length = packet transmission time) in each round
- unused slots go idle
- example: 6-station LAN, 1,3,4 have packets to send, slots 2,5,6 idle



Channel partitioning MAC protocols: FDMA

FDMA: frequency division multiple access

- channel spectrum divided into frequency bands
- each station assigned fixed frequency band
- unused transmission time in frequency bands go idle
- example: 6-station LAN, 1,3,4 have packet to send, frequency bands 2,5,6 idle



Random access protocols

- when node has packet to send
  - transmit at full channel data rate R.
  - no *a priori* coordination among nodes
- two or more transmitting nodes: "collision"
- random access MAC protocol specifies:
  - how to detect collisions
  - how to recover from collisions (e.g., via delayed retransmissions)
- examples of random access MAC protocols:
  - ALOHA, slotted ALOHA
  - CSMA, CSMA/CD, CSMA/CA

Slotted ALOHA

assumptions:

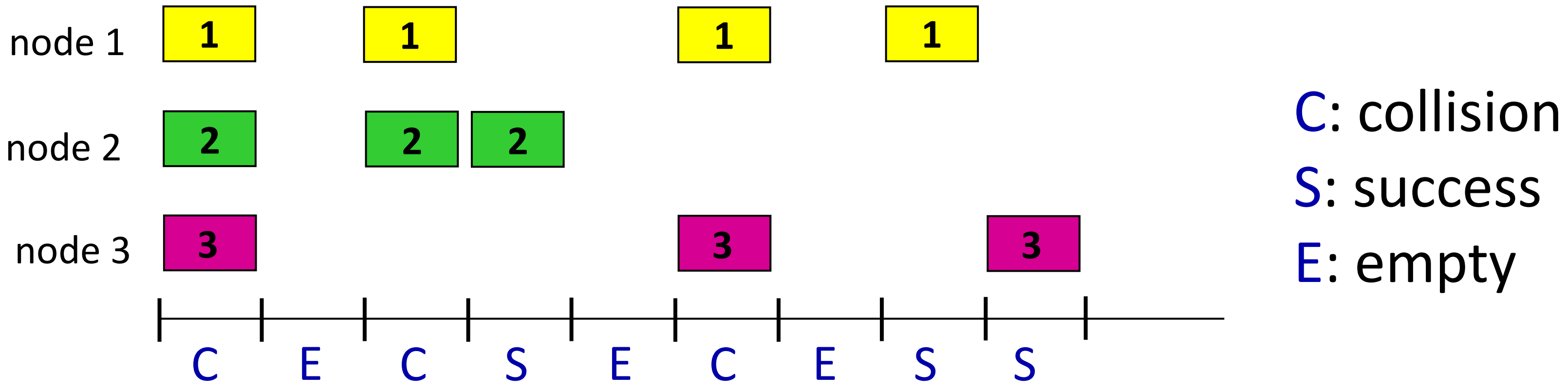
- all frames same size
- time divided into equal size slots (time to transmit 1 frame)
- nodes start to transmit only slot beginning
- nodes are synchronized
- if 2 or more nodes transmit in slot, all nodes detect collision

operation:

- when node obtains fresh frame, transmits in next slot
  - *if no collision:* node can send new frame in next slot
  - *if collision:* node retransmits frame in each subsequent slot with probability *p* until success

randomization – *why*?

Slotted ALOHA



Pros:

- single active node can continuously transmit at full rate of channel
- highly decentralized: only slots in nodes need to be in sync
- simple

Cons:

- collisions, wasting slots
- idle slots
- nodes may be able to detect collision in less than time to transmit packet
- clock synchronization

Slotted ALOHA: efficiency

efficiency: long-run fraction of successful slots (many nodes, all with many frames to send)

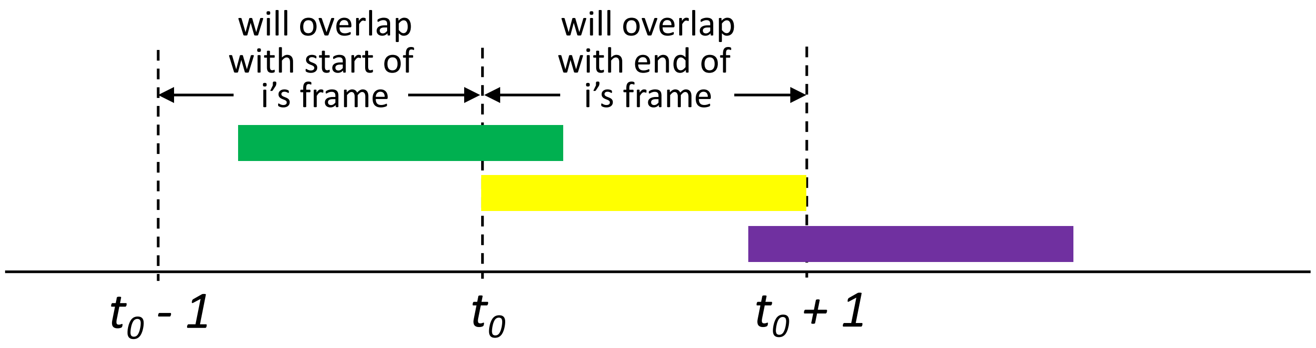
- *suppose: N* nodes with many frames to send, each transmits in slot with probability *p*
  - prob that given node has success in a slot = $p(1-p)^{N-1}$
  - prob that *any* node has a success = $Np(1-p)^{N-1}$
  - max efficiency: find p^* that maximizes $Np(1-p)^{N-1}$
  - for many nodes, take limit of $Np^*(1-p^*)^{N-1}$ as N goes to infinity, gives:

  max efficiency = 1/e = .37

- *at best:* channel used for useful transmissions 37% of time!

Pure ALOHA

- unslotted Aloha: simpler, no synchronization
  - when frame first arrives: transmit immediately
- collision probability increases with no synchronization:
  - frame sent at t_0 collides with other frames sent in $[t_0-1, t_0+1]$



- pure Aloha efficiency: 18% !

CSMA (carrier sense multiple access)

simple CSMA: listen before transmit:

- if channel sensed idle: transmit entire frame
- if channel sensed busy: defer transmission

- human analogy: don't interrupt others!

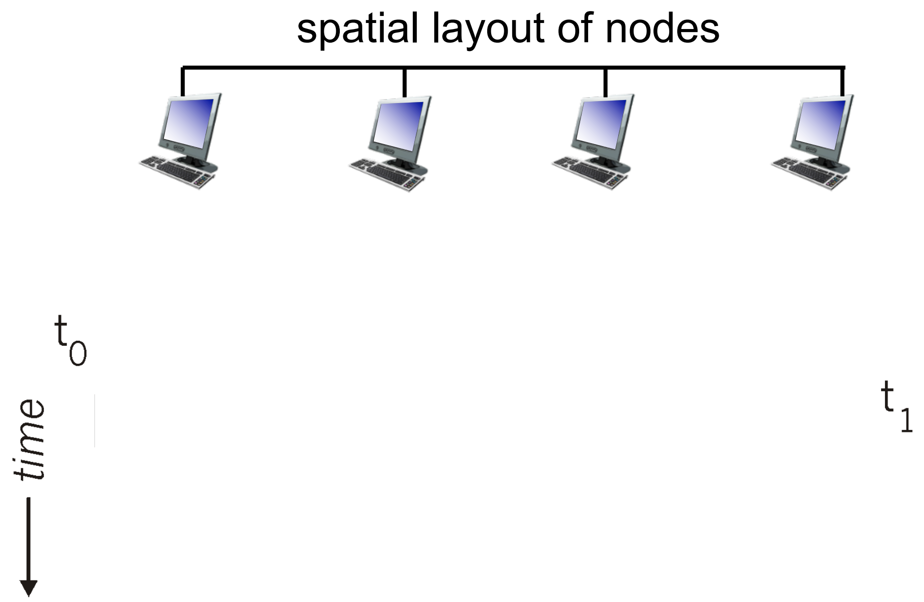
CSMA/CD: CSMA with *collision detection*

- collisions *detected* within short time
- colliding transmissions aborted, reducing channel wastage
- collision detection easy in wired, difficult with wireless

- human analogy: the polite conversationalist

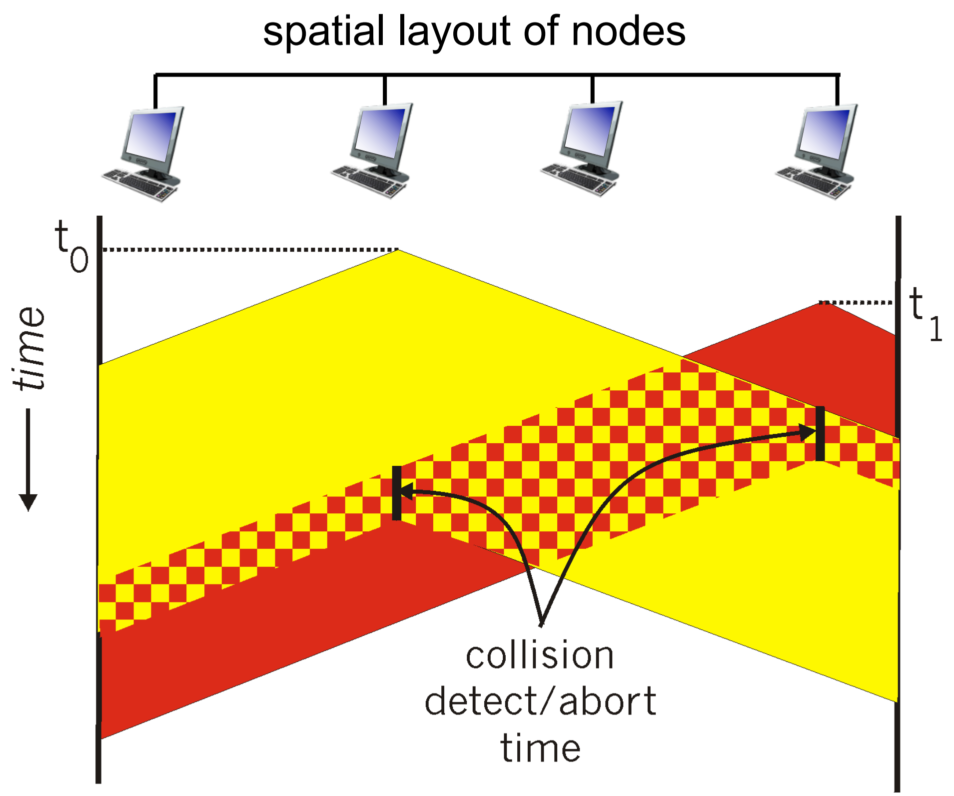
CSMA: collisions

- collisions *can* still occur with carrier sensing:
  - propagation delay means two nodes may not hear each other's just-started transmission
- collision: entire packet transmission time wasted
  - distance & propagation delay play role in in determining collision probability



CSMA/CD:

- CSMA/CS reduces the amount of time wasted in collisions
  - transmission aborted on collision detection



Ethernet CSMA/CD algorithm

1. NIC receives datagram from network layer, creates frame
2. If NIC senses channel:
   if idle: start frame transmission.
   if busy: wait until channel idle, then transmit
3. If NIC transmits entire frame without collision, NIC is done with frame !
4. If NIC detects another transmission while sending: abort, send jam signal
5. After aborting, NIC enters *binary (exponential) backoff:*
   - after *m*th collision, NIC chooses *K* at random from $\{0,1,2, \ldots, 2^m-1\}$. NIC waits $K \cdot 512$ bit times, returns to Step 2
   - more collisions: longer backoff interval

CSMA/CD efficiency

- T_{prop} = max prop delay between 2 nodes in LAN
- t_{trans} = time to transmit max-size frame

$$efficiency = \frac{1}{1 + 5t_{prop}/t_{trans}}$$

- efficiency goes to 1
  - as t_{prop} goes to 0
  - as t_{trans} goes to infinity
- better performance than ALOHA: and simple, cheap, decentralized!

"Taking turns" MAC protocols

channel partitioning MAC protocols:

- share channel *efficiently* and *fairly* at high load
- inefficient at low load: delay in channel access, 1/N bandwidth allocated even if only 1 active node!

random access MAC protocols

- efficient at low load: single node can fully utilize channel
- high load: collision overhead

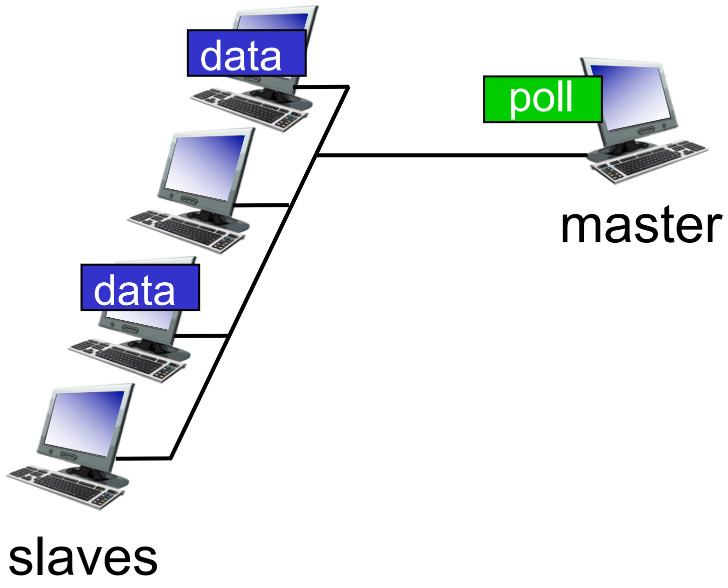
"taking turns" protocols

- look for best of both worlds!

“Taking turns” MAC protocols

polling:

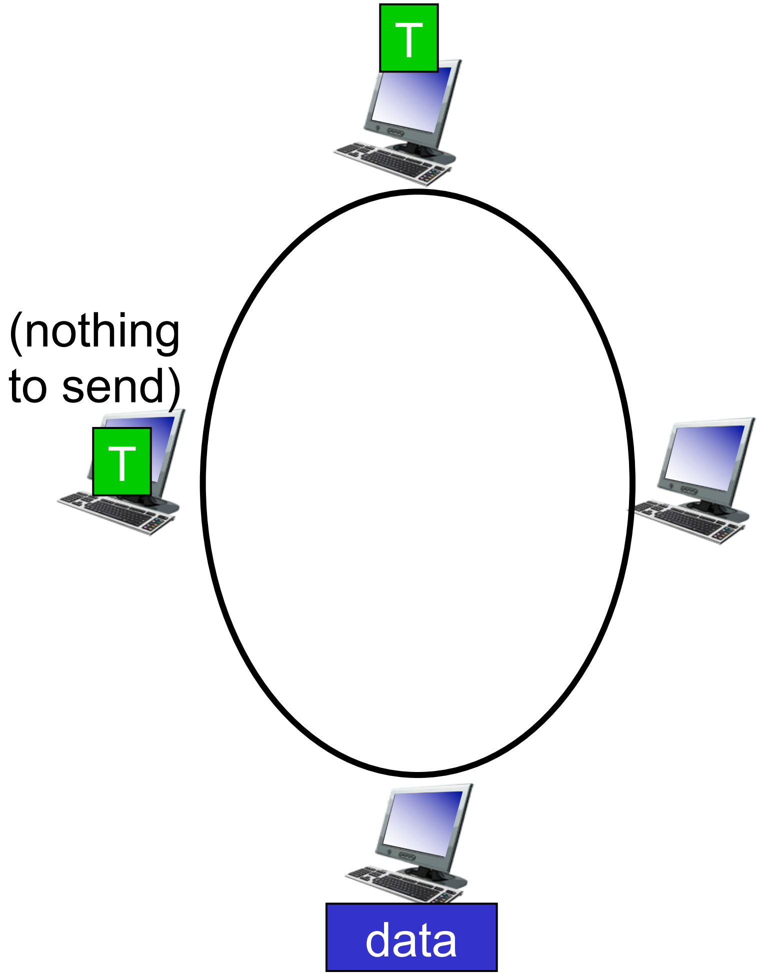
- master node “invites” other nodes to transmit in turn
- typically used with “dumb” devices
- concerns:
  - polling overhead
  - latency
  - single point of failure (master)



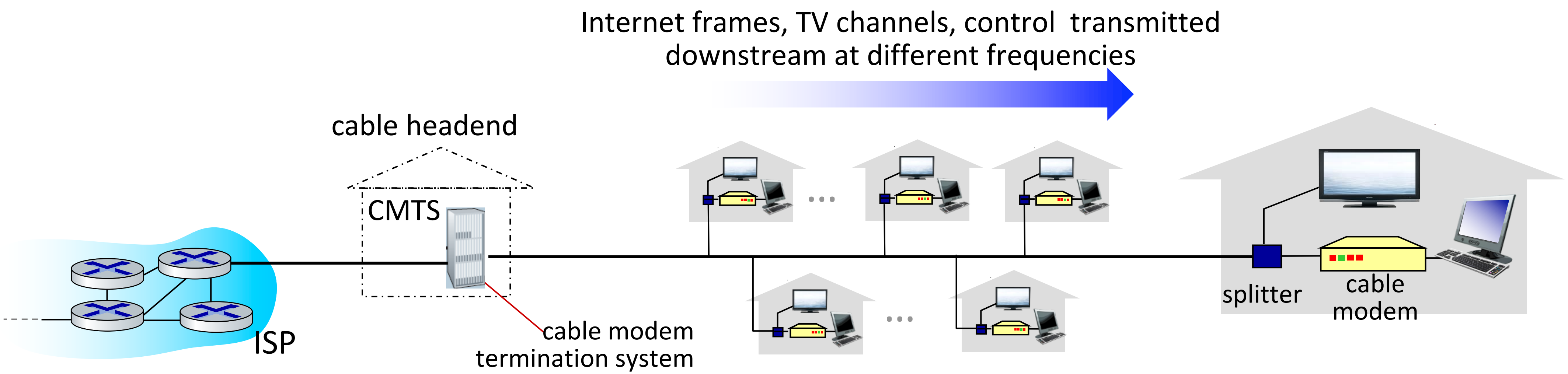
"Taking turns" MAC protocols

token passing:

- control *token* passed from one node to next sequentially.
- token message
- concerns:
  - token overhead
  - latency
  - single point of failure (token)

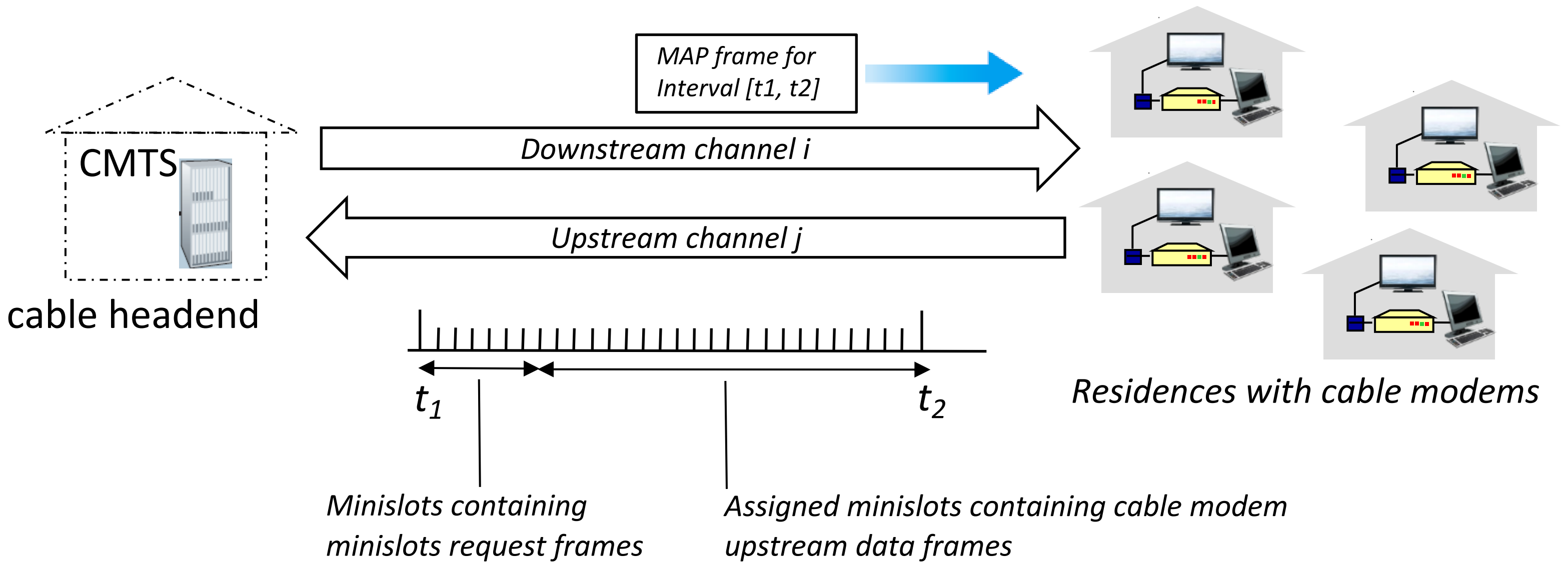


Cable access network: FDM, TDM *and* random access!



- multiple downstream (broadcast) FDM channels: up to 1.6 Gbps/channel
  - single CMTS transmits into channels
- multiple upstream channels (up to 1 Gbps/channel)
  - multiple access: all users contend (random access) for certain upstream channel time slots; others assigned TDM

Cable access network:



DOCSIS: data over cable service interface specificaiton

- FDM over upstream, downstream frequency channels
- TDM upstream: some slots assigned, some have contention
  - downstream MAP frame: assigns upstream slots
  - request for upstream slots (and data) transmitted random access (binary backoff) in selected slots

Summary of MAC protocols

- channel partitioning, by time, frequency or code
  - Time Division, Frequency Division
- random access (dynamic),
  - ALOHA, S-ALOHA, CSMA, CSMA/CD
  - carrier sensing: easy in some technologies (wire), hard in others (wireless)
  - CSMA/CD used in Ethernet
  - CSMA/CA used in 802.11
- taking turns
  - polling from central site, token passing
  - Bluetooth, FDDI, token ring

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  - switches
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MAC addresses

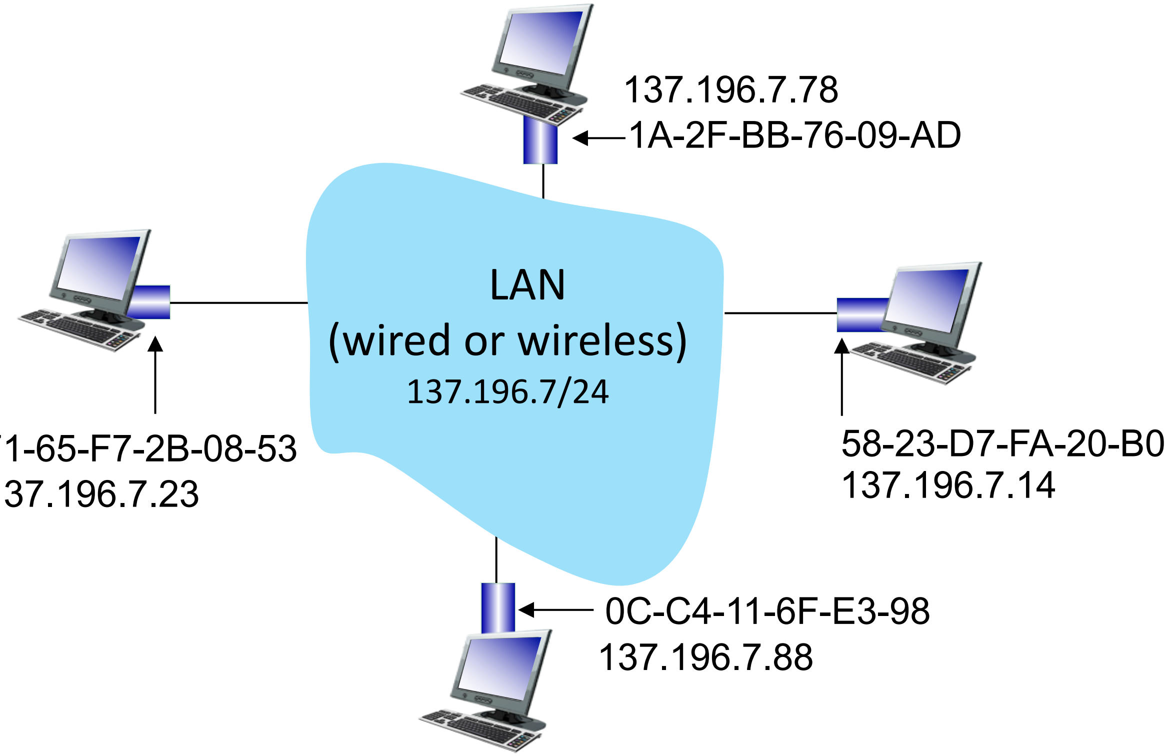
- 32-bit IP address:
  - *network-layer* address for interface
  - used for layer 3 (network layer) forwarding
  - e.g.: 128.119.40.136
- MAC (or LAN or physical or Ethernet) address:
  - function: used "locally" to get frame from one interface to another physically-connected interface (same subnet, in IP-addressing sense)
  - 48-bit MAC address (for most LANs) burned in NIC ROM, also sometimes software settable
  - e.g.: 1A-2F-BB-76-09-AD

hexadecimal (base 16) notation (each "numeral" represents 4 bits)

MAC addresses

each interface on LAN

- has unique 48-bit MAC address
- has a locally unique 32-bit IP address (as we've seen)

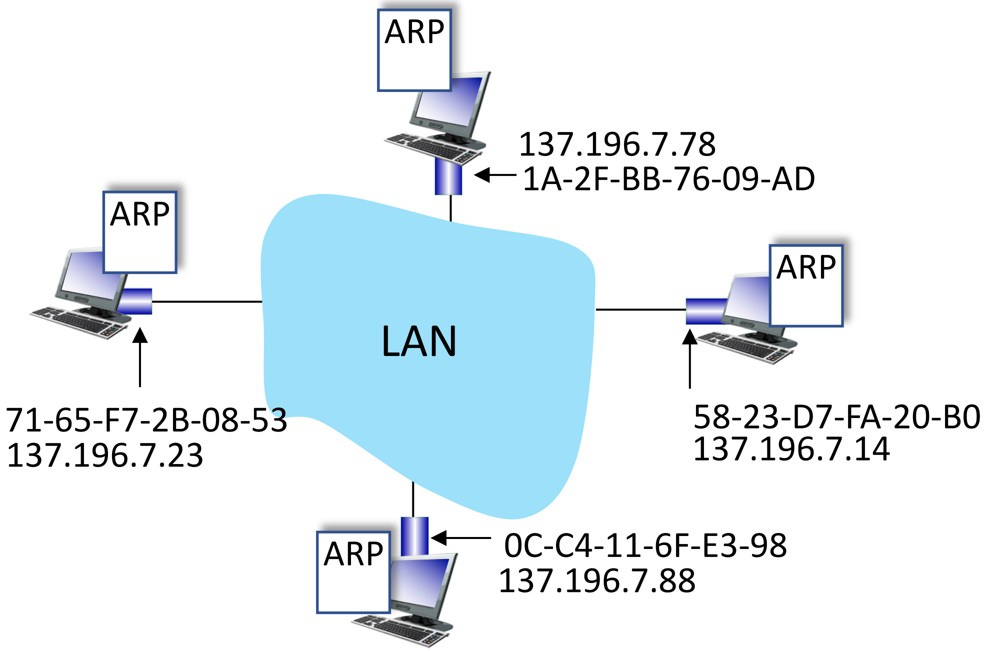


MAC addresses

- MAC address allocation administered by IEEE
- manufacturer buys portion of MAC address space (to assure uniqueness)
- analogy:
  - MAC address: like Social Security Number
  - IP address: like postal address
- MAC flat address: portability
  - can move interface from one LAN to another
  - recall IP address *not* portable: depends on IP subnet to which node is attached

ARP: address resolution protocol

Question: how to determine interface's MAC address, knowing its IP address?



ARP table: each IP node (host, router) on LAN has table

- IP/MAC address mappings for some LAN nodes:

  < IP address; MAC address; TTL>

- TTL (Time To Live): time after which address mapping will be forgotten (typically 20 min)

ARP protocol in action

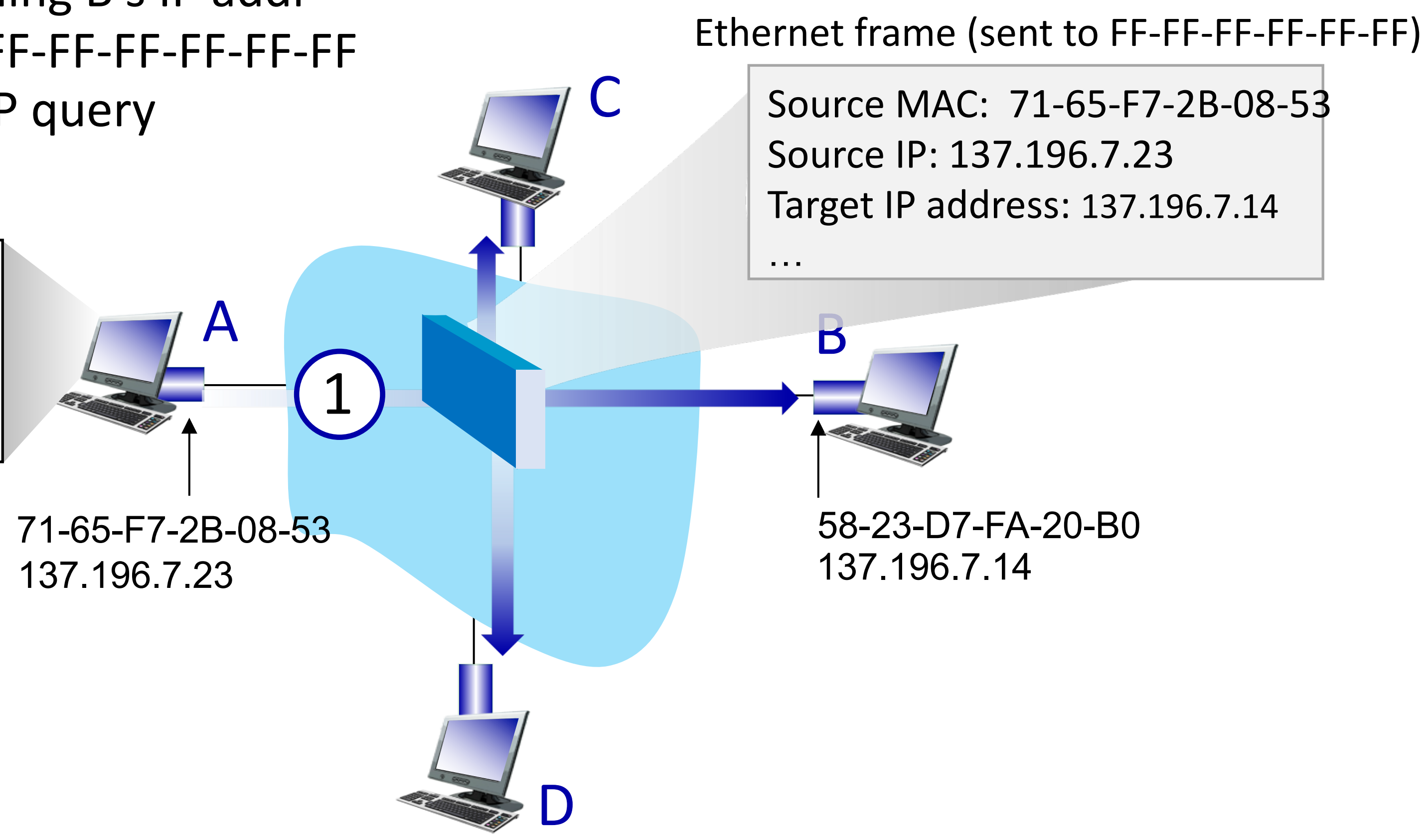
example: A wants to send datagram to B

- B's MAC address not in A's ARP table, so A uses ARP to find B's MAC address

1 A broadcasts ARP query, containing B's IP addr
- destination MAC address = FF-FF-FF-FF-FF-FF
- all nodes on LAN receive ARP query

ARP table in A

IP addr	MAC addr	TTL



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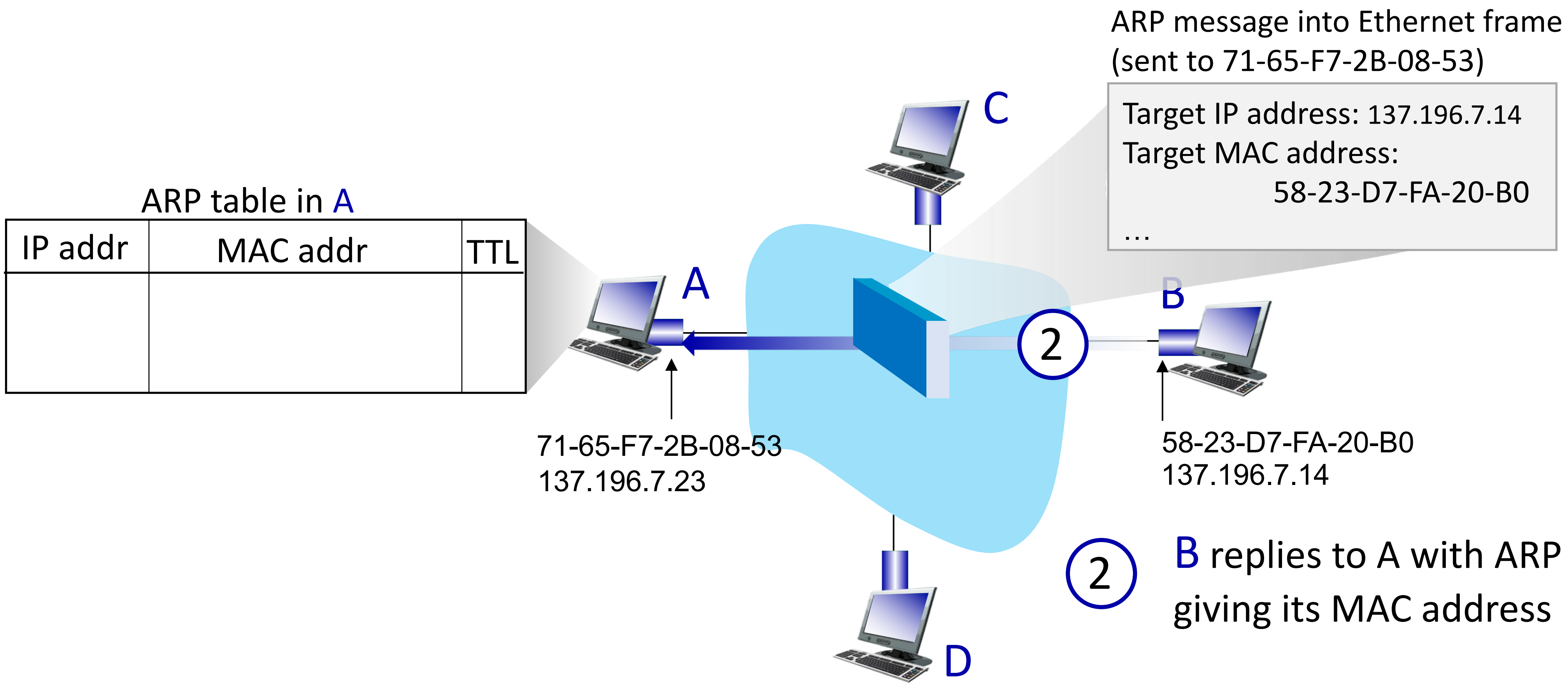


2 B replies to A with ARP response, giving its MAC address

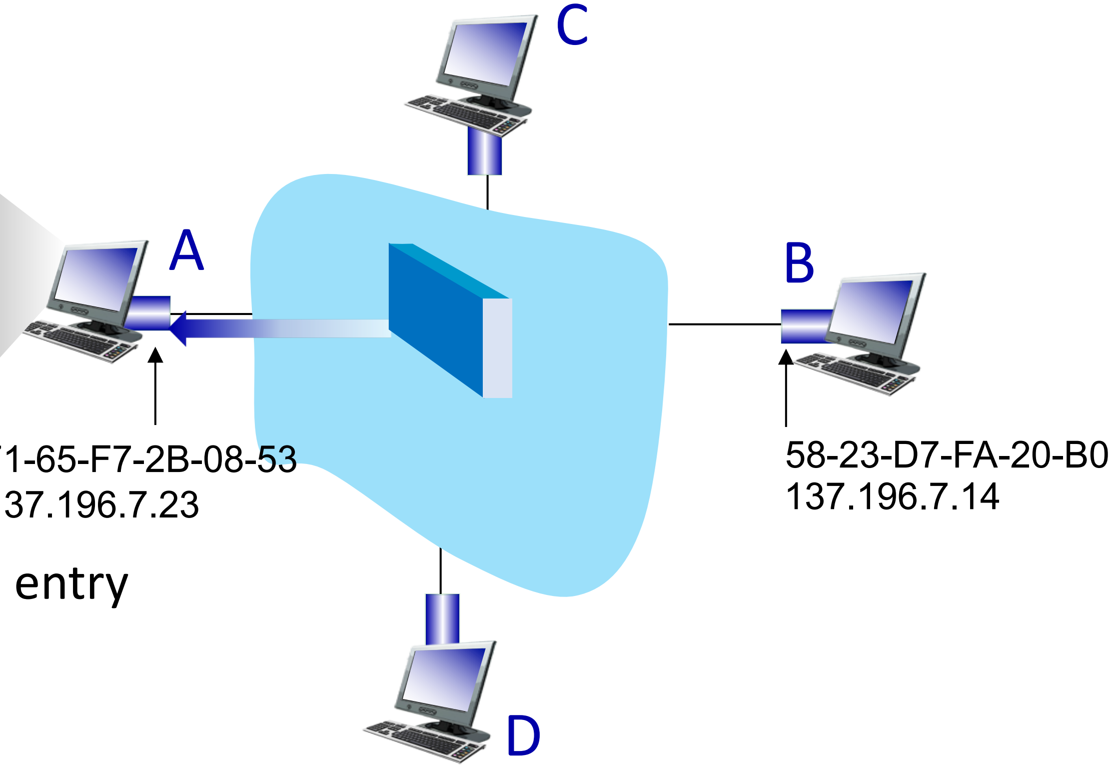
ARP protocol in action

example: A wants to send datagram to B

- B's MAC address not in A's ARP table, so A uses ARP to find B's MAC address

ARP table in A

IP addr	MAC addr	TTL
137.196.7.14	58-23-D7-FA-20-B0	500

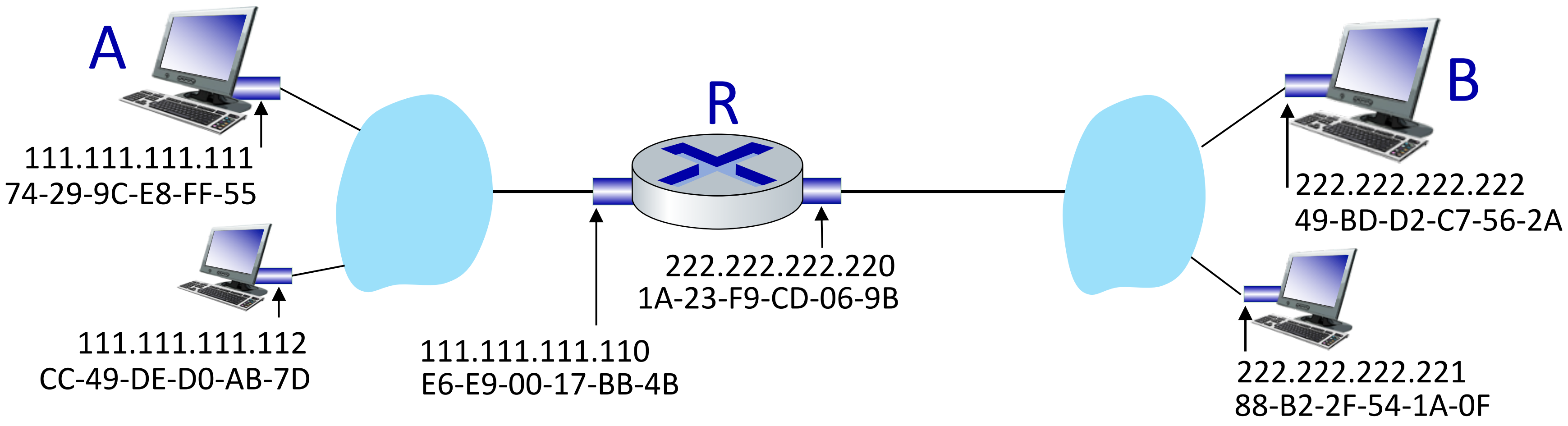


3. A receives B's reply, adds B entry into its local ARP table

Routing to another subnet: addressing

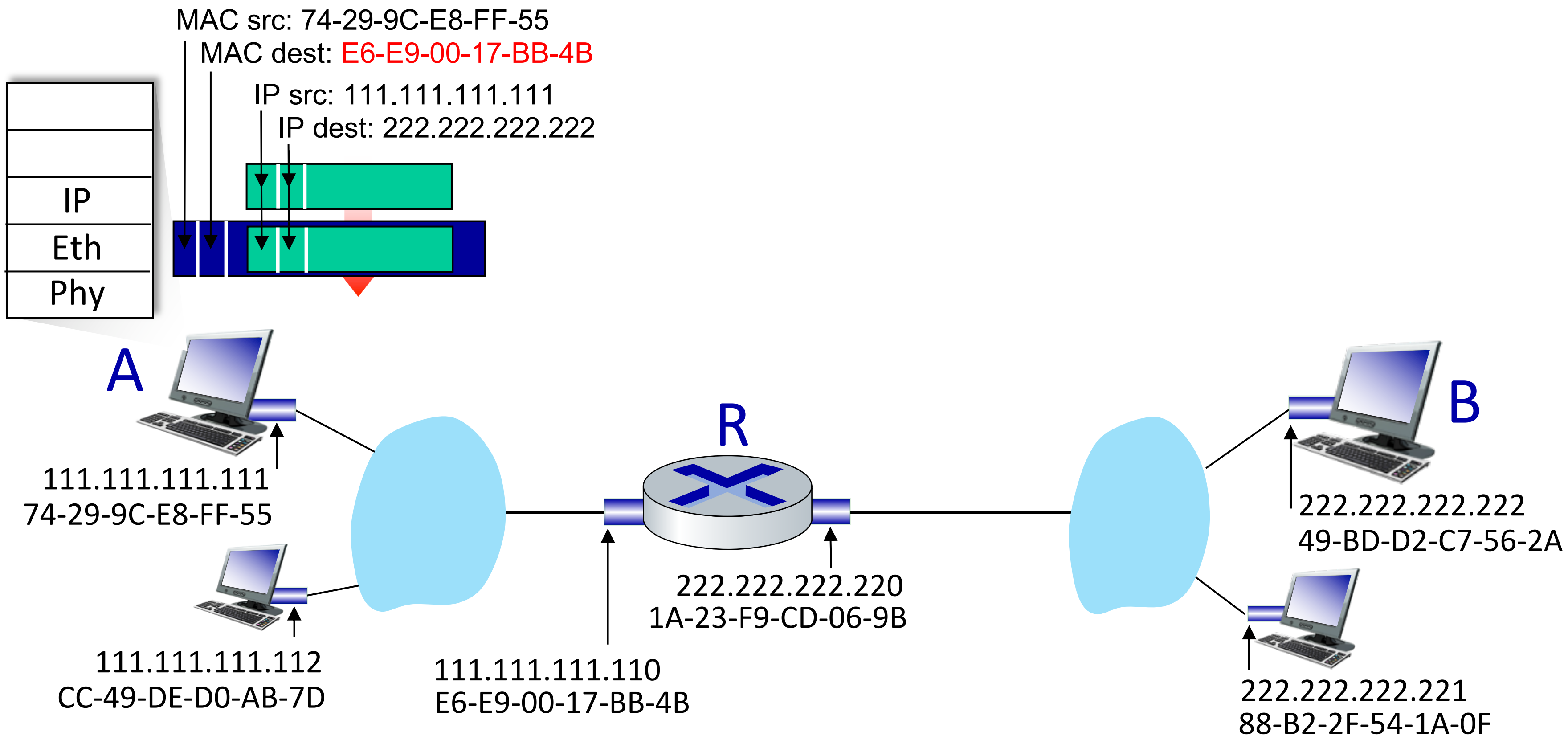
walkthrough: sending a datagram from *A* to *B* via *R*

- focus on addressing – at IP (datagram) and MAC layer (frame) levels
- assume that:
  - A knows B's IP address
  - A knows IP address of first hop router, R (how?)
  - A knows R's MAC address (how?)



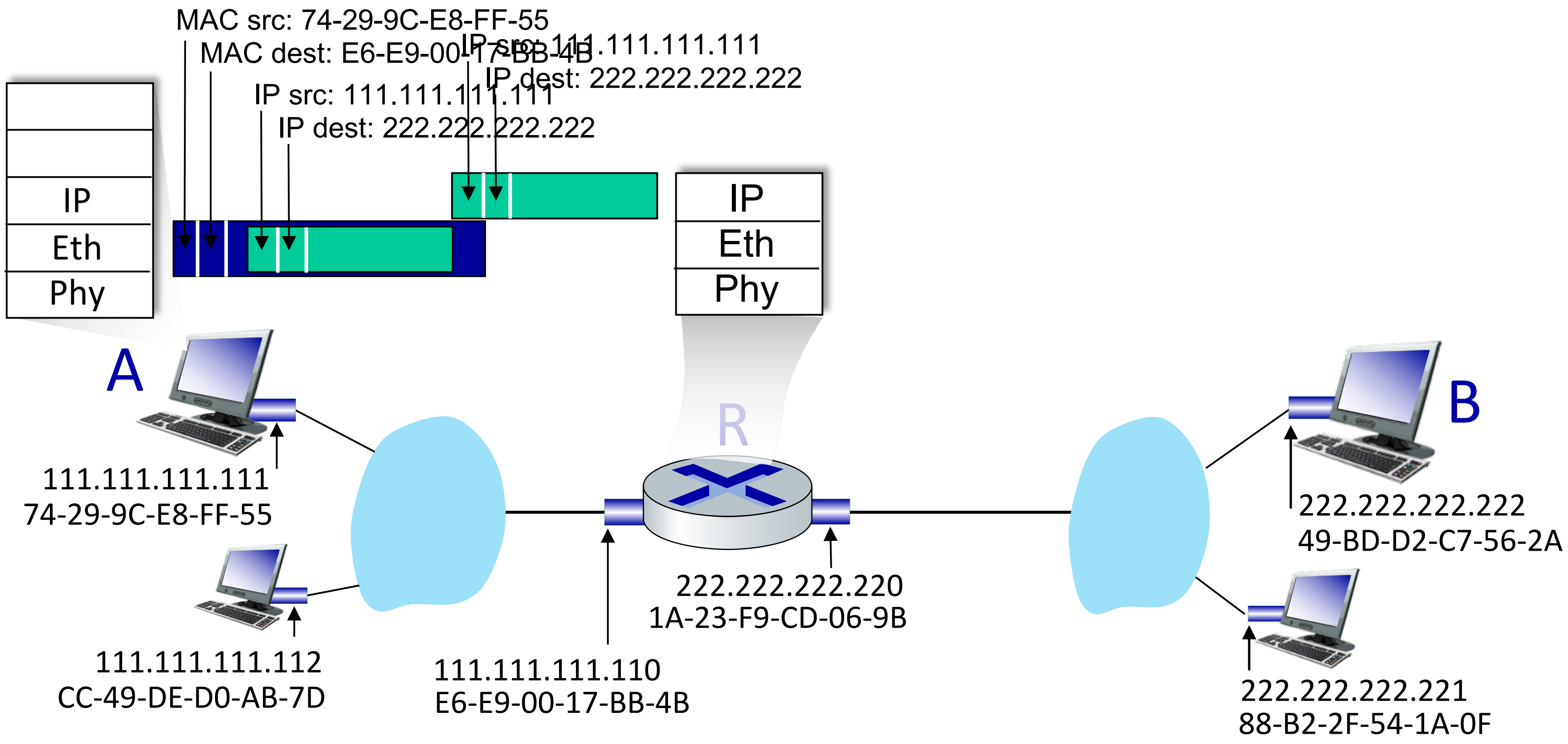
Routing to another subnet: addressing

- A creates IP datagram with IP source A, destination B
- A creates link-layer frame containing A-to-B IP datagram
  - R's MAC address is frame's destination



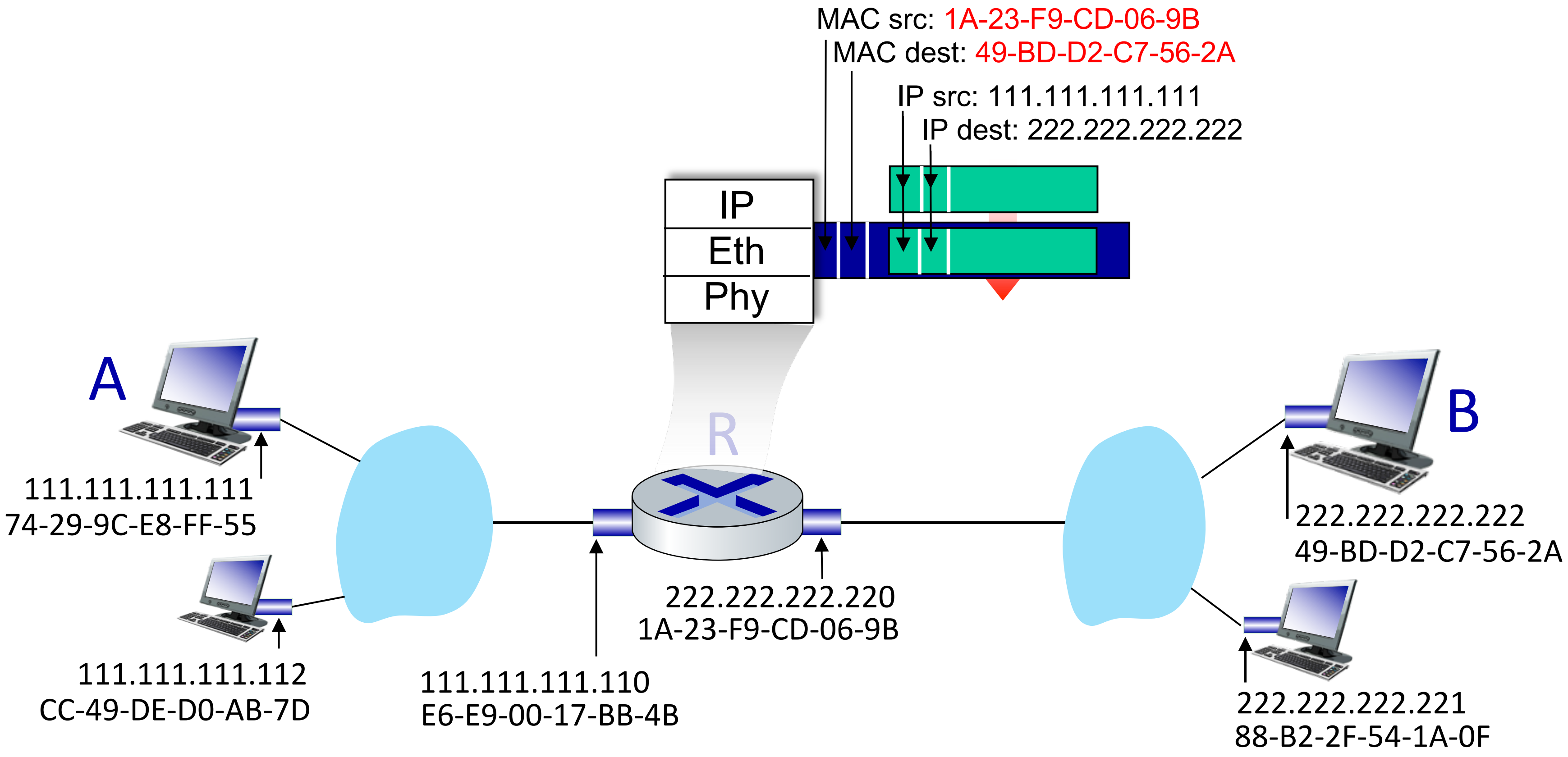
Routing to another subnet: addressing

- frame sent from A to R
- frame received at R, datagram removed, passed up to IP



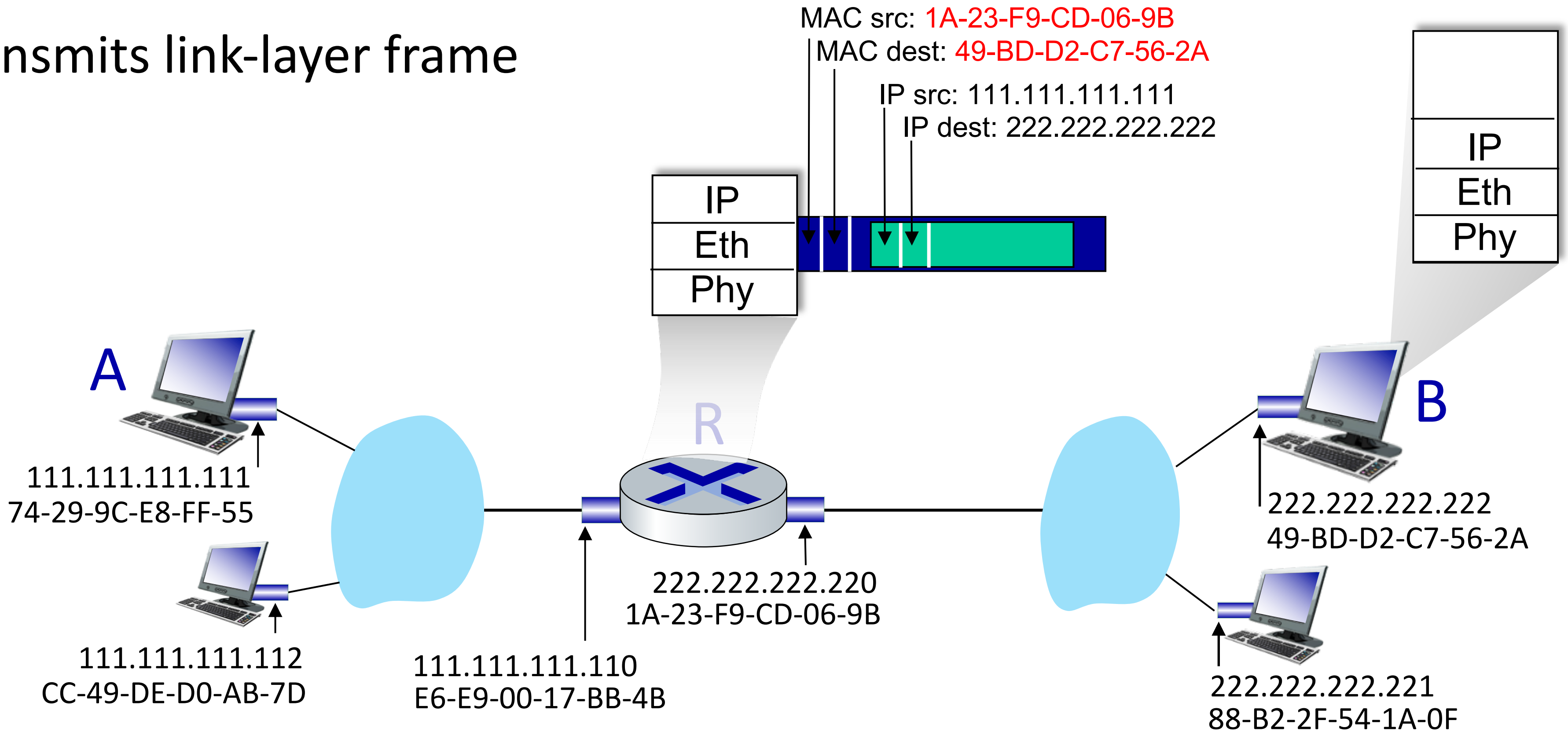
Routing to another subnet: addressing

- R determines outgoing interface, passes datagram with IP source A, destination B to link layer
- R creates link-layer frame containing A-to-B IP datagram. Frame destination address: B's MAC address



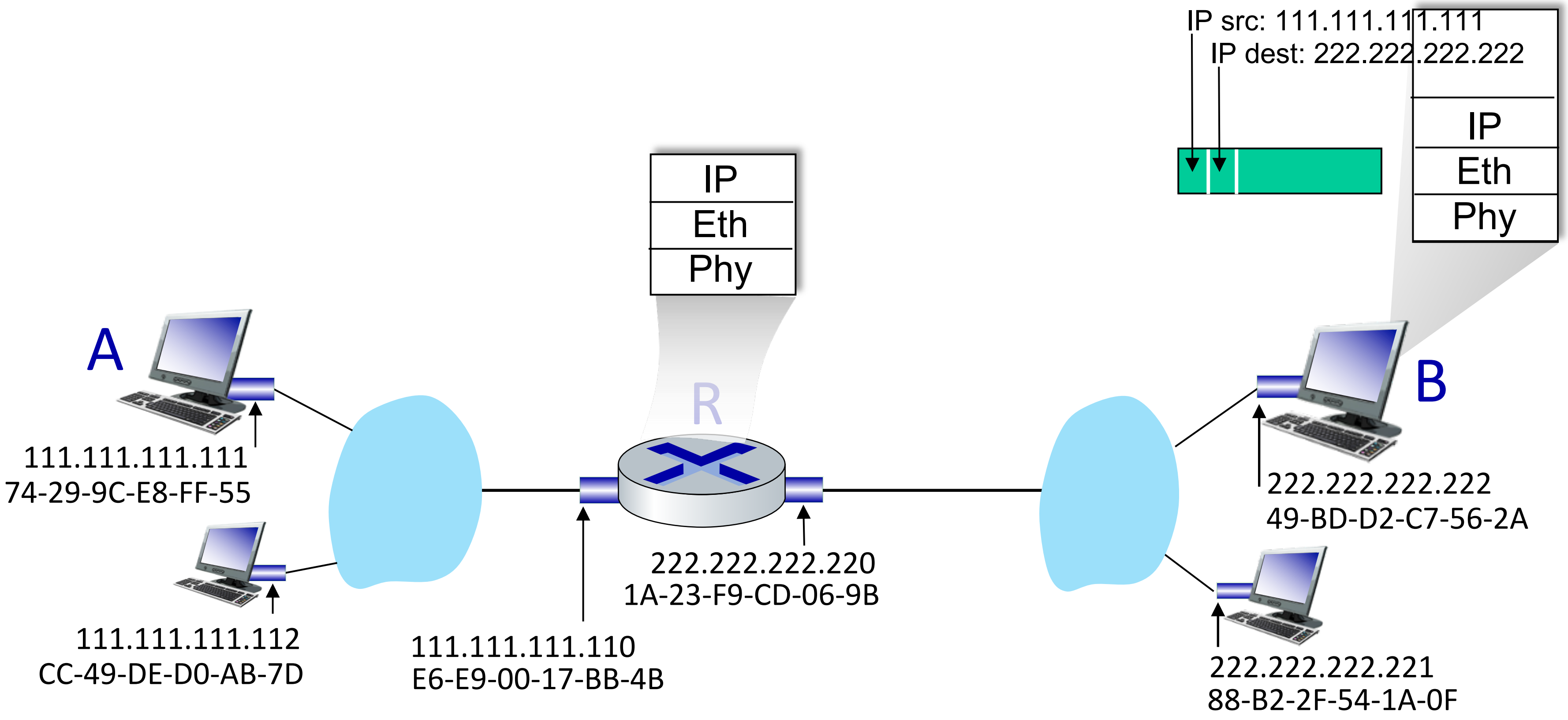
Routing to another subnet: addressing

- R determines outgoing interface, passes datagram with IP source A, destination B to link layer
- R creates link-layer frame containing A-to-B IP datagram. Frame destination address: B's MAC address
- transmits link-layer frame



Routing to another subnet: addressing

- B receives frame, extracts IP datagram destination B
- B passes datagram up protocol stack to IP



Link layer, LANs: roadmap

- introduction
- error detection, correction
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  - Ethernet
  - switches
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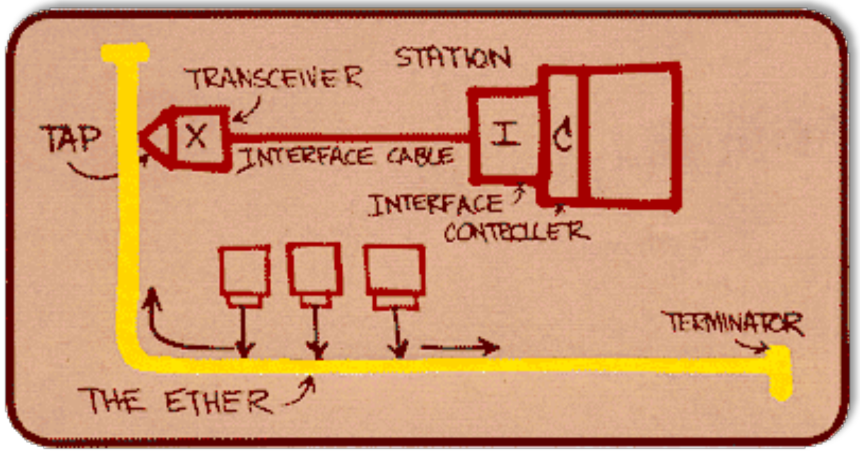
Ethernet

"dominant" wired LAN technology:

- first widely used LAN technology
- simpler, cheap
- kept up with speed race: 10 Mbps – 400 Gbps
- single chip, multiple speeds (e.g., Broadcom BCM5761)



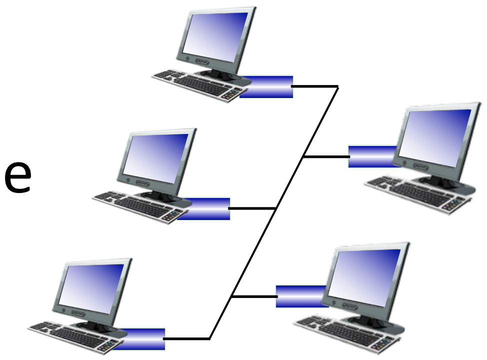
Metcalfe's Ethernet sketch

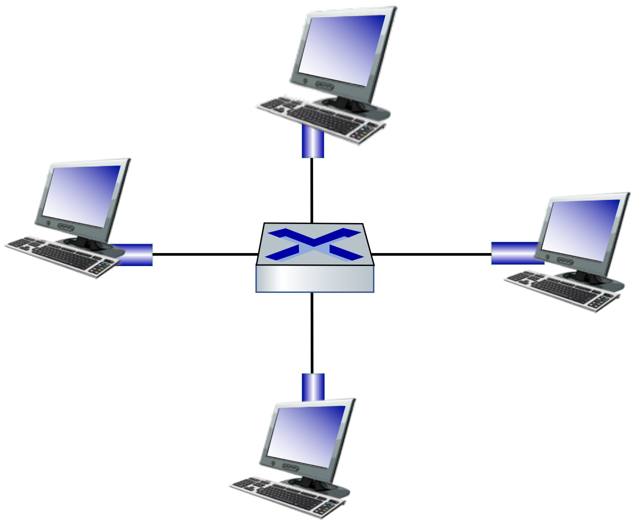
https://www.uspto.gov/learning-and-resources/journeys-innovation/audio-stories/defying-doubters

Ethernet: physical topology

- bus: popular through mid 90s
  - all nodes in same collision domain (can collide with each other)
- switched: prevails today
  - active link-layer 2 *switch* in center
  - each "spoke" runs a (separate) Ethernet protocol (nodes do not collide with each other)

bus: coaxial cable





switched

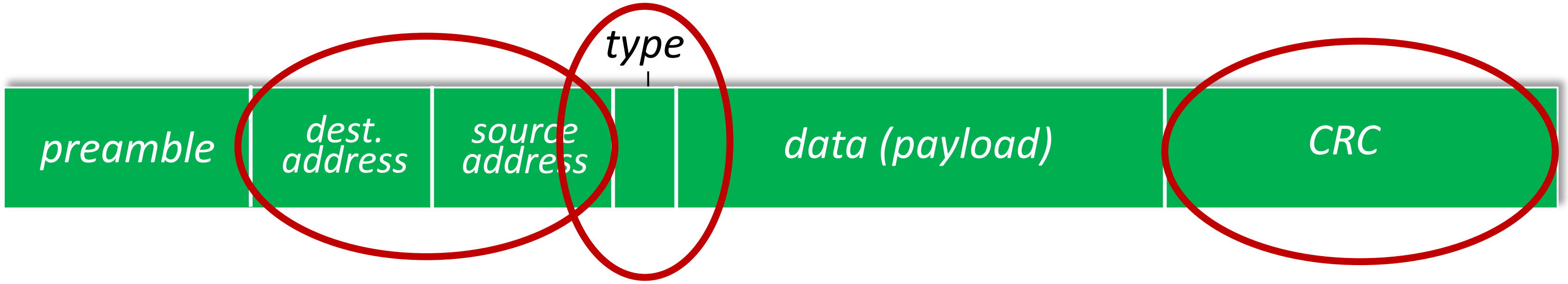
Ethernet frame structure

sending interface encapsulates IP datagram (or other network layer protocol packet) in Ethernet frame

preamble:

- used to synchronize receiver, sender clock rates
- 7 bytes of 10101010 followed by one byte of 10101011

Ethernet frame structure (more)



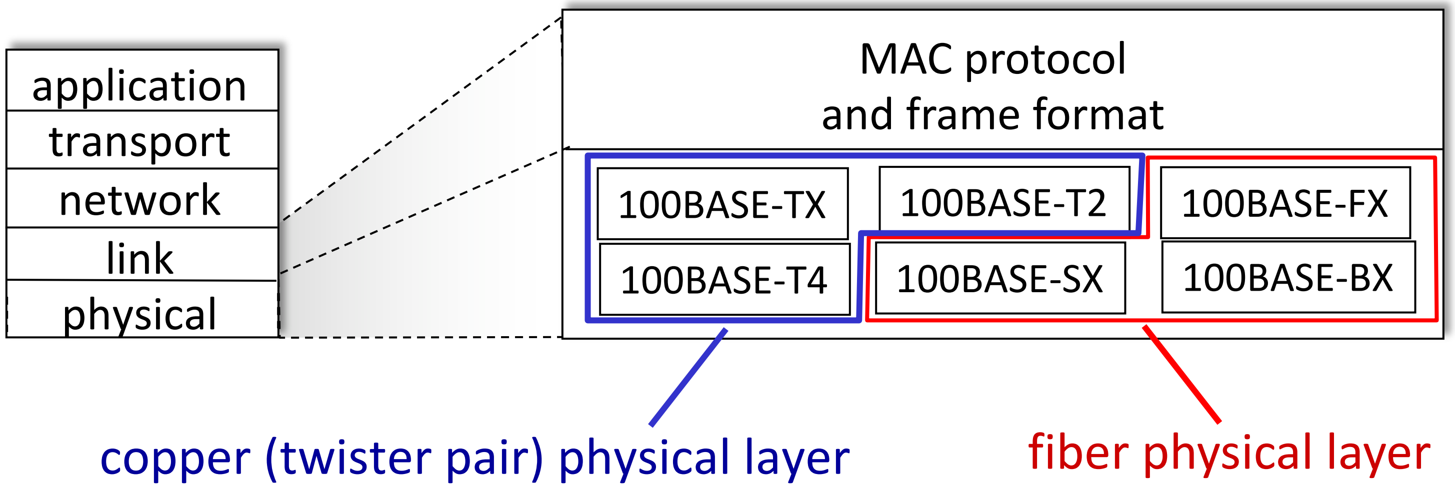
- addresses: 6 byte source, destination MAC addresses
  - if adapter receives frame with matching destination address, or with broadcast address (e.g., ARP packet), it passes data in frame to network layer protocol
  - otherwise, adapter discards frame
- type: indicates higher layer protocol
  - mostly IP but others possible, e.g., Novell IPX, AppleTalk
  - used to demultiplex up at receiver
- CRC: cyclic redundancy check at receiver
  - error detected: frame is dropped

Ethernet: unreliable, connectionless

- connectionless: no handshaking between sending and receiving NICs
- unreliable: receiving NIC doesn't send ACKs or NAKs to sending NIC
  - data in dropped frames recovered only if initial sender uses higher layer rdt (e.g., TCP), otherwise dropped data lost
- Ethernet's MAC protocol: unslotted CSMA/CD with binary backoff

802.3 Ethernet standards: link & physical layers

- *many* different Ethernet standards
  - common MAC protocol and frame format
  - different speeds: 2 Mbps, 10 Mbps, 100 Mbps, 1Gbps, 10 Gbps, 40 Gbps
  - different physical layer media: fiber, cable



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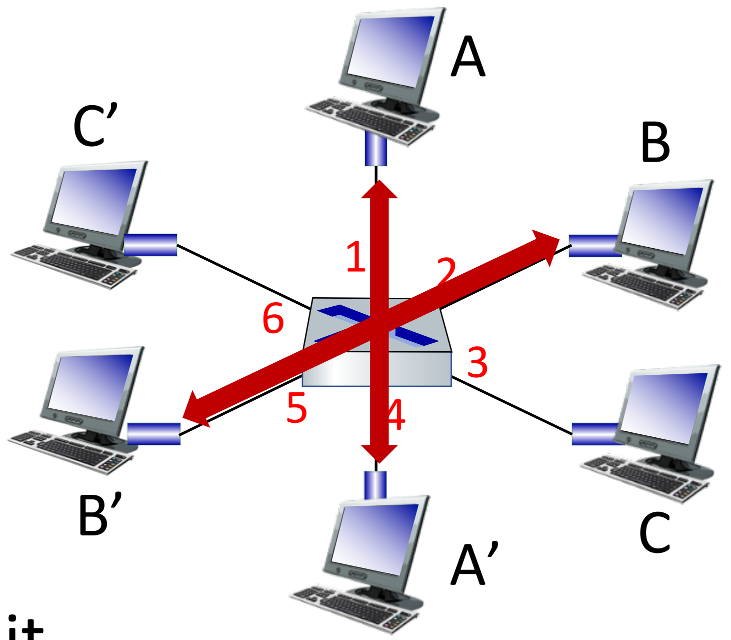
Ethernet switch

- Switch is a link-layer device: takes an *active* role
  - store, forward Ethernet frames
  - examine incoming frame's MAC address, *selectively* forward frame to one-or-more outgoing links when frame is to be forwarded on segment, uses CSMA/CD to access segment
- transparent: hosts *unaware* of presence of switches
- plug-and-play, self-learning
  - switches do not need to be configured

Switch: multiple simultaneous transmissions

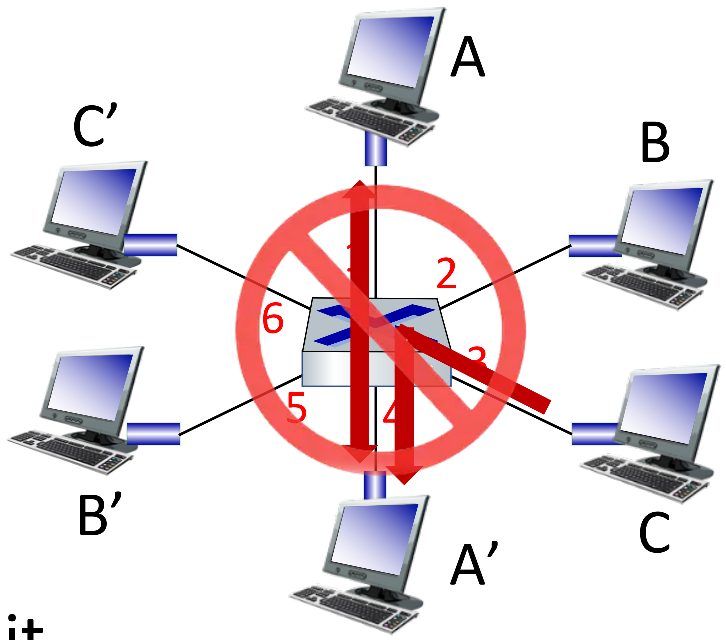
- hosts have dedicated, direct connection to switch
- switches buffer packets
- Ethernet protocol used on *each* incoming link, so:
  - no collisions; full duplex
  - each link is its own collision domain
- switching: A-to-A' and B-to-B' can transmit simultaneously, without collisions



switch with six interfaces (1,2,3,4,5,6)

Switch: multiple simultaneous transmissions

- hosts have dedicated, direct connection to switch
- switches buffer packets
- Ethernet protocol used on *each* incoming link, so:
  - no collisions; full duplex
  - each link is its own collision domain
- switching: A-to-A’ and B-to-B’ can transmit simultaneously, without collisions
  - but A-to-A’ and C to A’ can *not* happen simultaneously



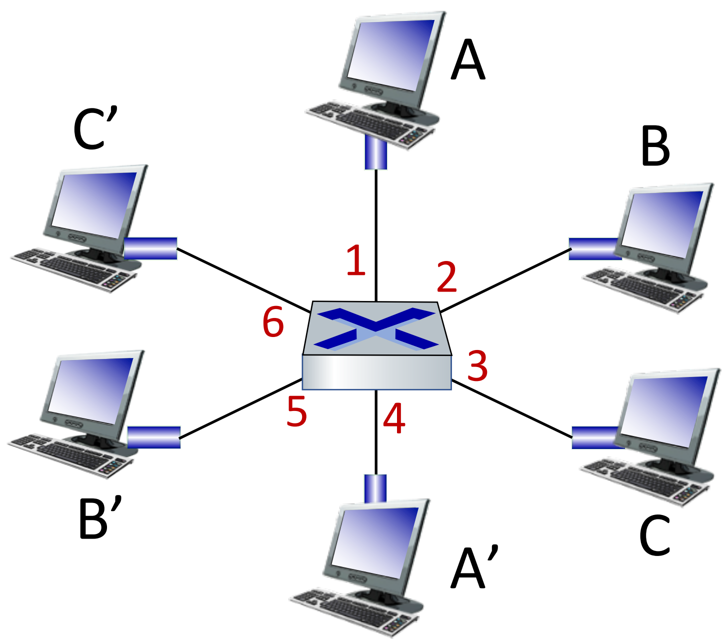
switch with six interfaces (1,2,3,4,5,6)

Switch forwarding table

Q: how does switch know A’ reachable via interface 4, B’ reachable via interface 5?

A: each switch has a switch table, each entry:

- (MAC address of host, interface to reach host, time stamp)
- looks like a routing table!

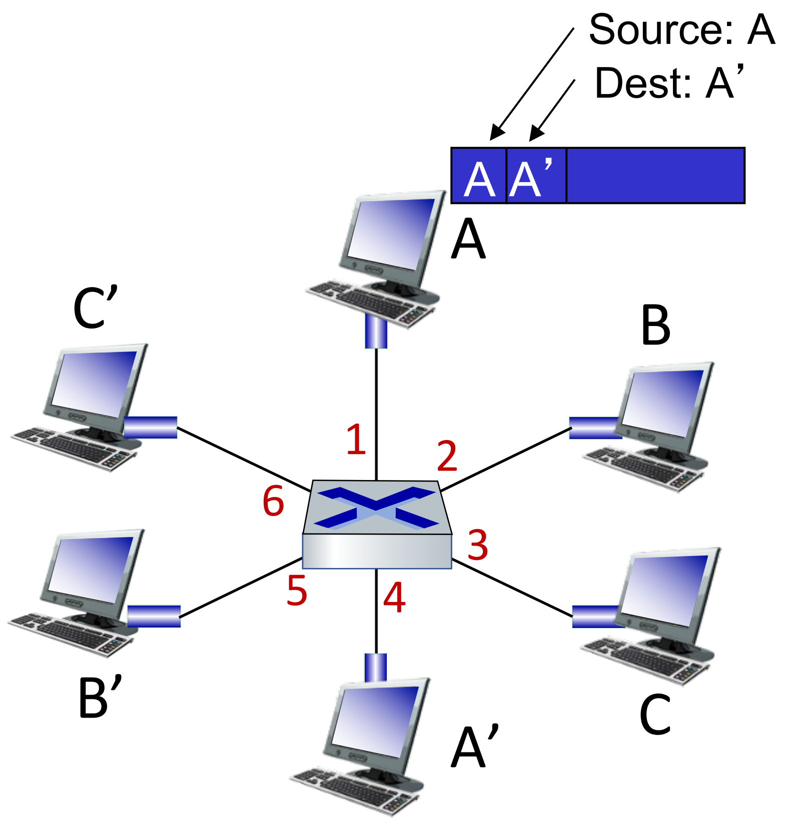


Q: how are entries created, maintained in switch table?

- something like a routing protocol?

Switch: self-learning

- switch *learns* which hosts can be reached through which interfaces
  - when frame received, switch "learns" location of sender: incoming LAN segment
  - records sender/location pair in switch table



MAC addr	interface	TTL
A	*1*	*60*

Switch table (initially empty)

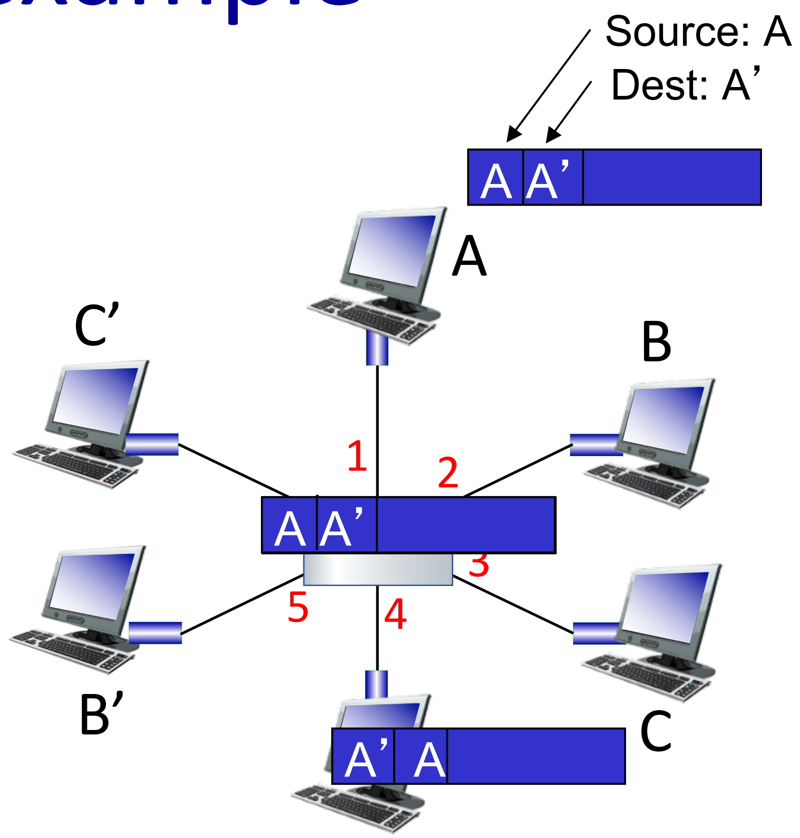
Switch: frame filtering/forwarding

when frame received at switch:

1. record incoming link, MAC address of sending host
2. index switch table using MAC destination address
3. if entry found for destination
   then {
   if destination on segment from which frame arrived
      then drop frame
      else forward frame on interface indicated by entry
   }
   else flood /* forward on all interfaces except arriving interface */

Self-learning, forwarding: example

- frame destination, A’, location unknown: flood
- destination A location known: selectively send on just one link

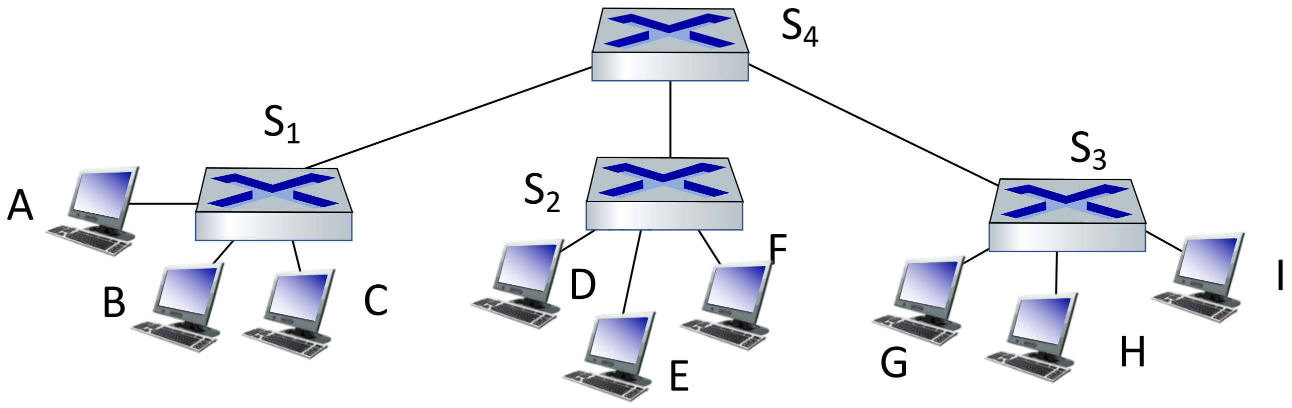


MAC addr	interface	TTL
A	*1*	*60*
A’	*4*	*60*

switch table (initially empty)

Interconnecting switches

self-learning switches can be connected together:

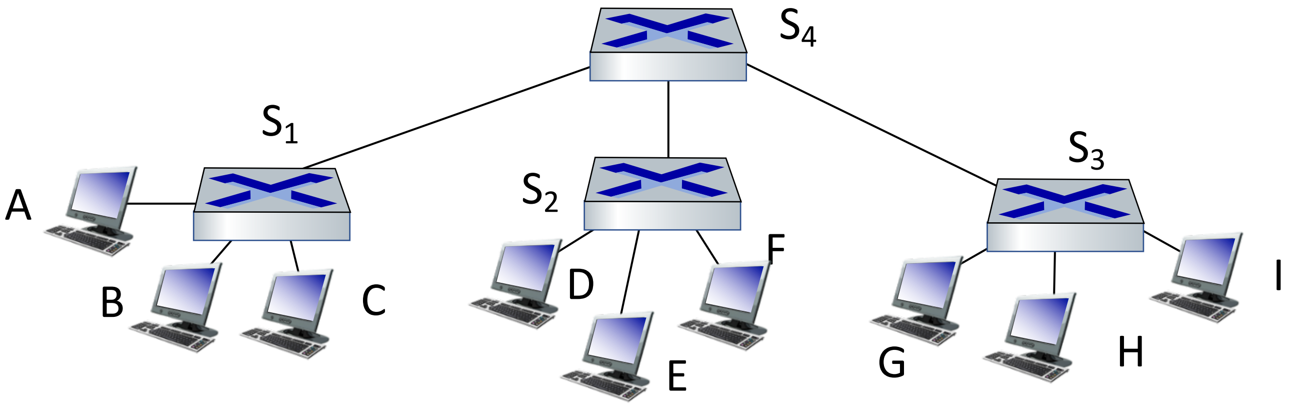


Q: sending from A to G - how does S_1 know to forward frame destined to G via S_4 and S_3?

- *A:* self learning! (works exactly the same as in single-switch case!)

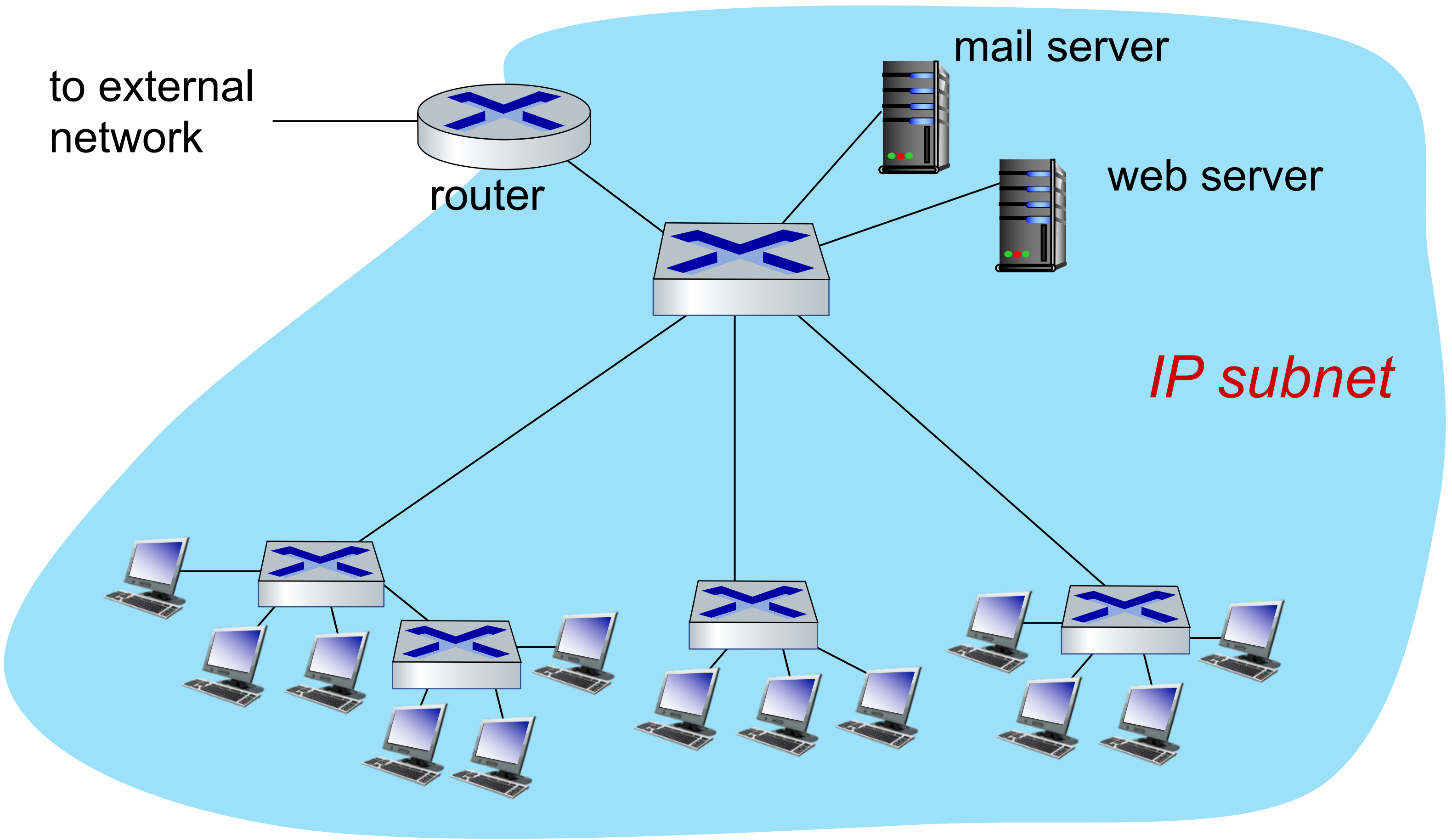
Self-learning multi-switch example

Suppose C sends frame to I, I responds to C



Q: show switch tables and packet forwarding in S_1, S_2, S_3, S_4

Small institutional network



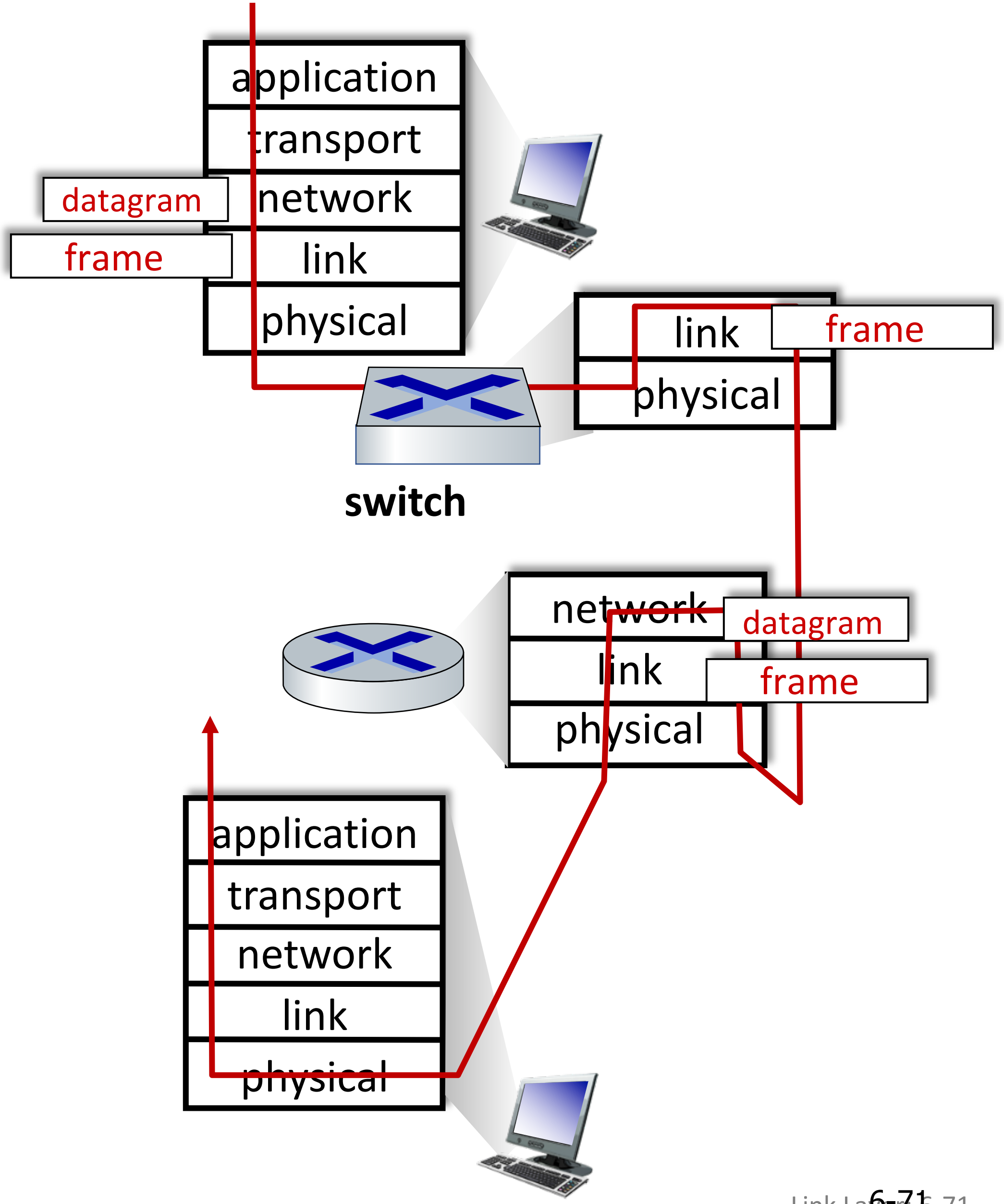
Switches vs. routers

both are store-and-forward:

- *routers*: network-layer devices (examine network-layer headers)
- *switches:* link-layer devices (examine link-layer headers)

both have forwarding tables:

- *routers:* compute tables using routing algorithms, IP addresses
- *switches:* learn forwarding table using flooding, learning, MAC addresses



Link layer, LANs: roadmap

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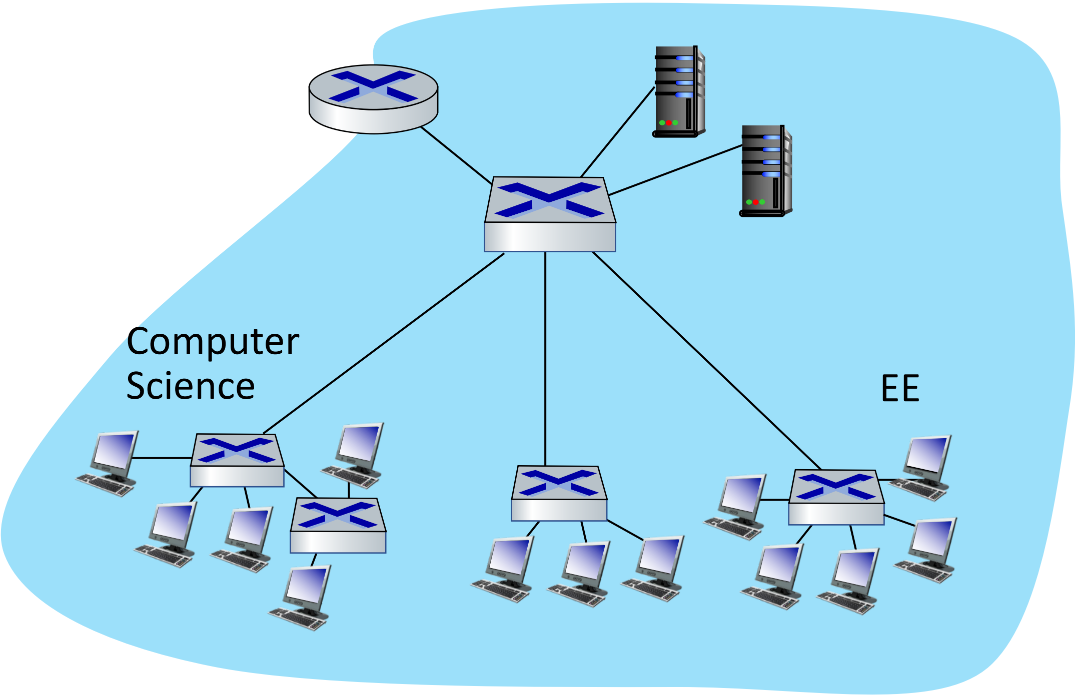
Virtual LANs (VLANs): motivation

Q: what happens as LAN sizes scale, users change point of attachment?



single broadcast domain:

- *scaling:* all layer-2 broadcast traffic (ARP, DHCP, unknown MAC) must cross entire LAN
- efficiency, security, privacy issues

Virtual LANs (VLANs): motivation

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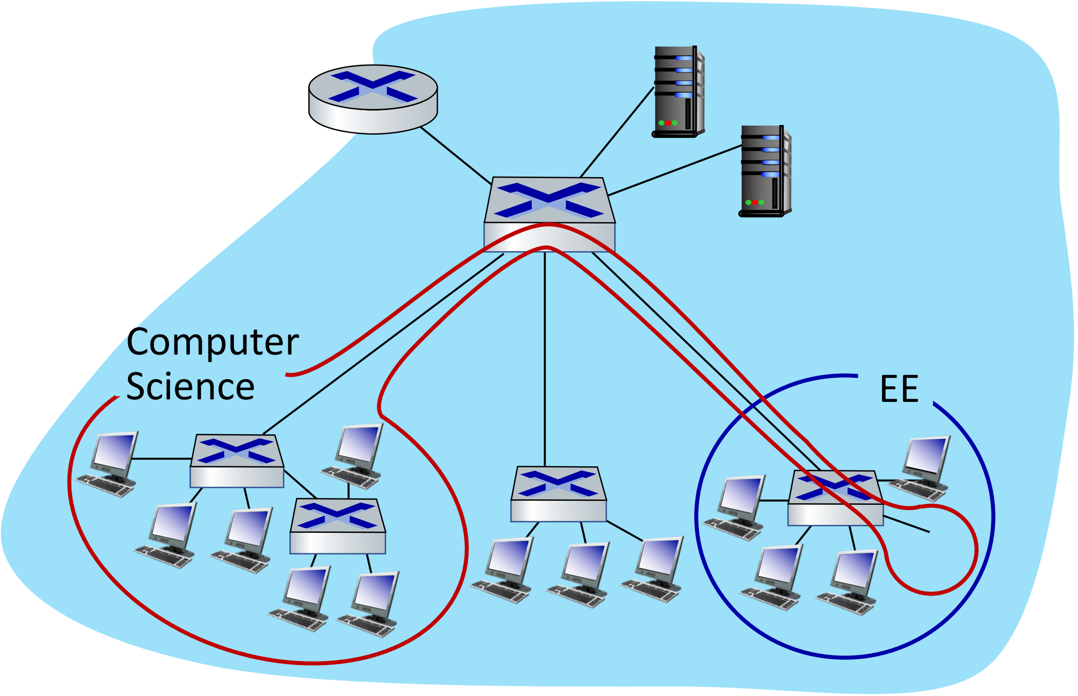


single broadcast domain:

- *scaling:* all layer-2 broadcast traffic (ARP, DHCP, unknown MAC) must cross entire LAN
- efficiency, security, privacy, efficiency issues

administrative issues:

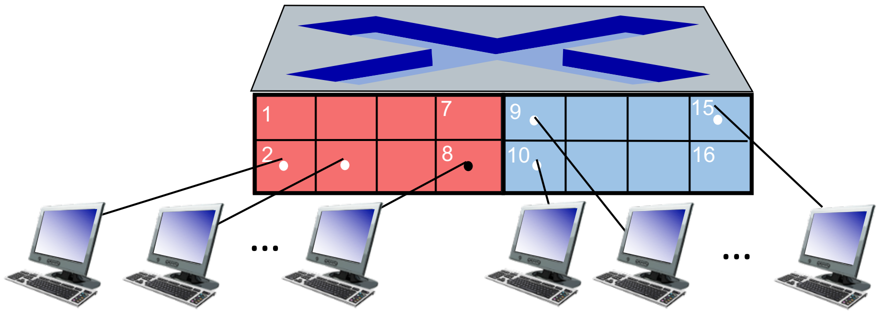
- CS user moves office to EE - *physically* attached to EE switch, but wants to remain *logically* attached to CS switch

Port-based VLANs

Virtual Local Area Network (VLAN)

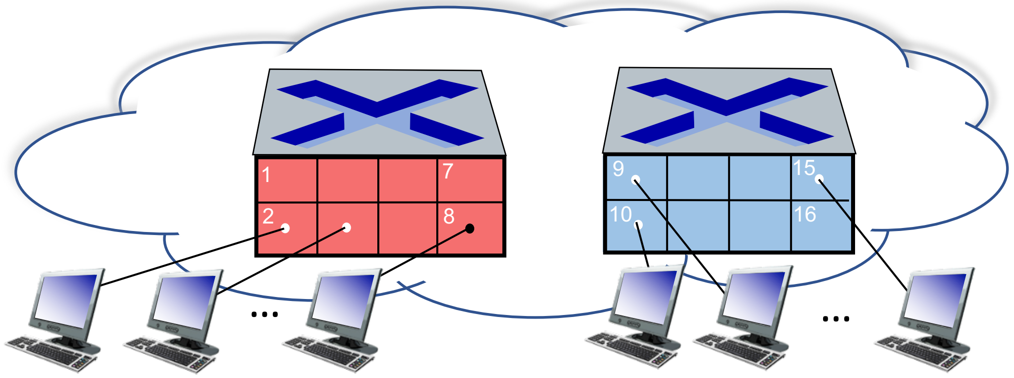
switch(es) supporting VLAN capabilities can be configured to define multiple *virtual* LANS over single physical LAN infrastructure.

port-based VLAN: switch ports grouped (by switch management software) so that *single* physical switch ……



EE (VLAN ports 1-8) CS (VLAN ports 9-15)

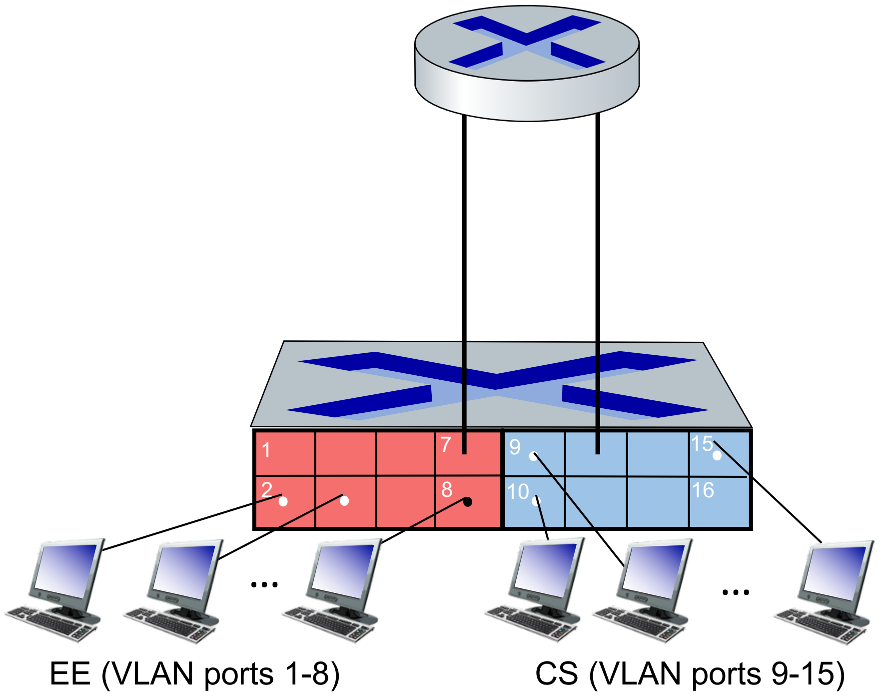
… operates as multiple virtual switches



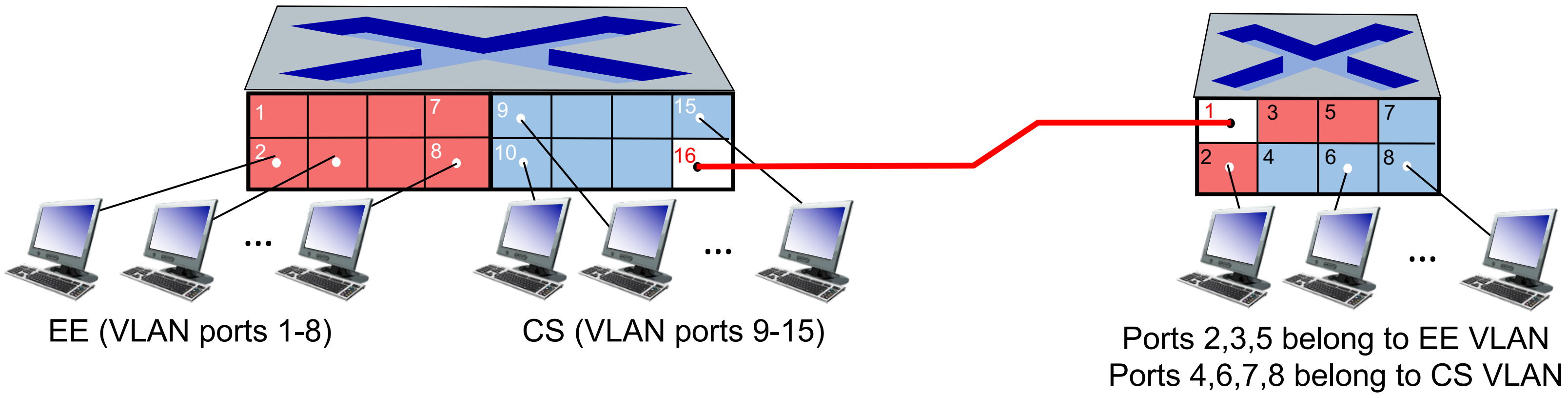
EE (VLAN ports 1-8) CS (VLAN ports 9-15)

Port-based VLANs

- traffic isolation: frames to/from ports 1-8 can *only* reach ports 1-8
  - can also define VLAN based on MAC addresses of endpoints, rather than switch port
- dynamic membership: ports can be dynamically assigned among VLANs
- forwarding between VLANS: done via routing (just as with separate switches)
  - in practice vendors sell combined switches plus routers



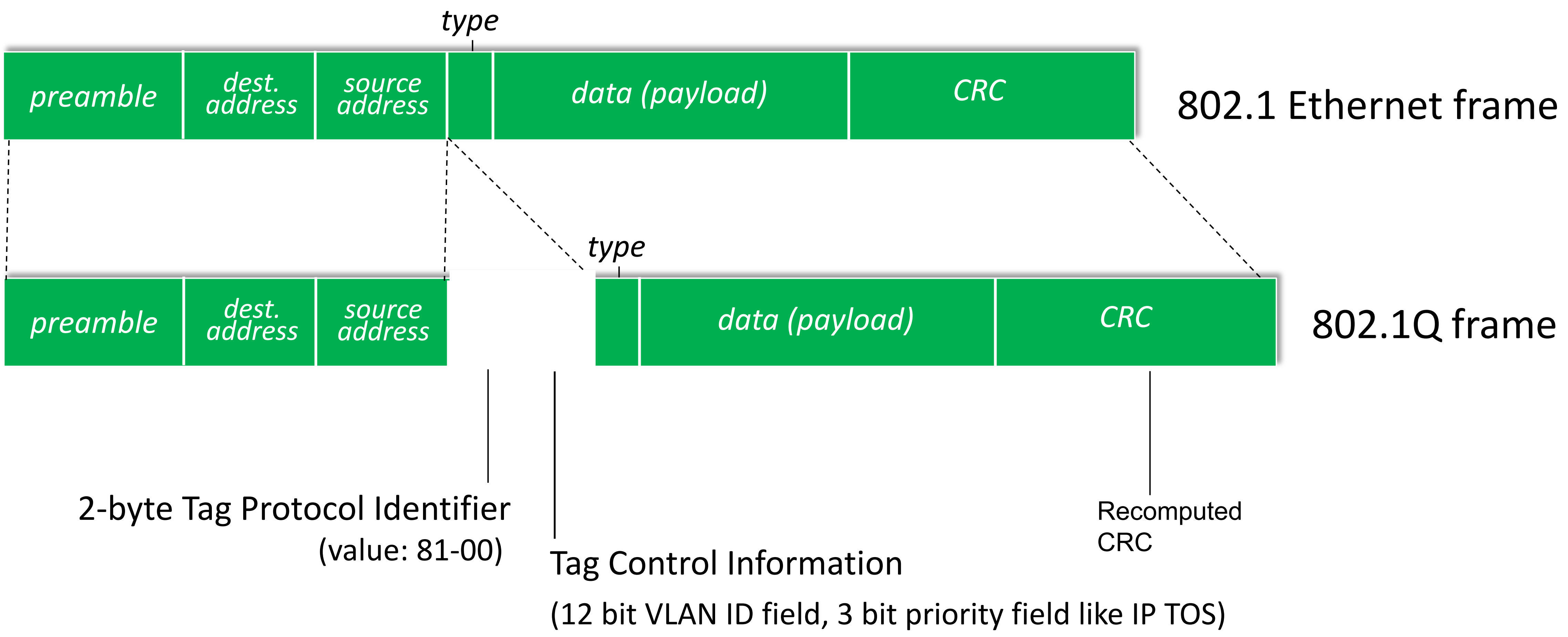
VLANS spanning multiple switches



trunk port: carries frames between VLANS defined over multiple physical switches

- frames forwarded within VLAN between switches can't be vanilla 802.1 frames (must carry VLAN ID info)
- 802.1q protocol adds/removed additional header fields for frames forwarded between trunk ports

802.1Q VLAN frame format



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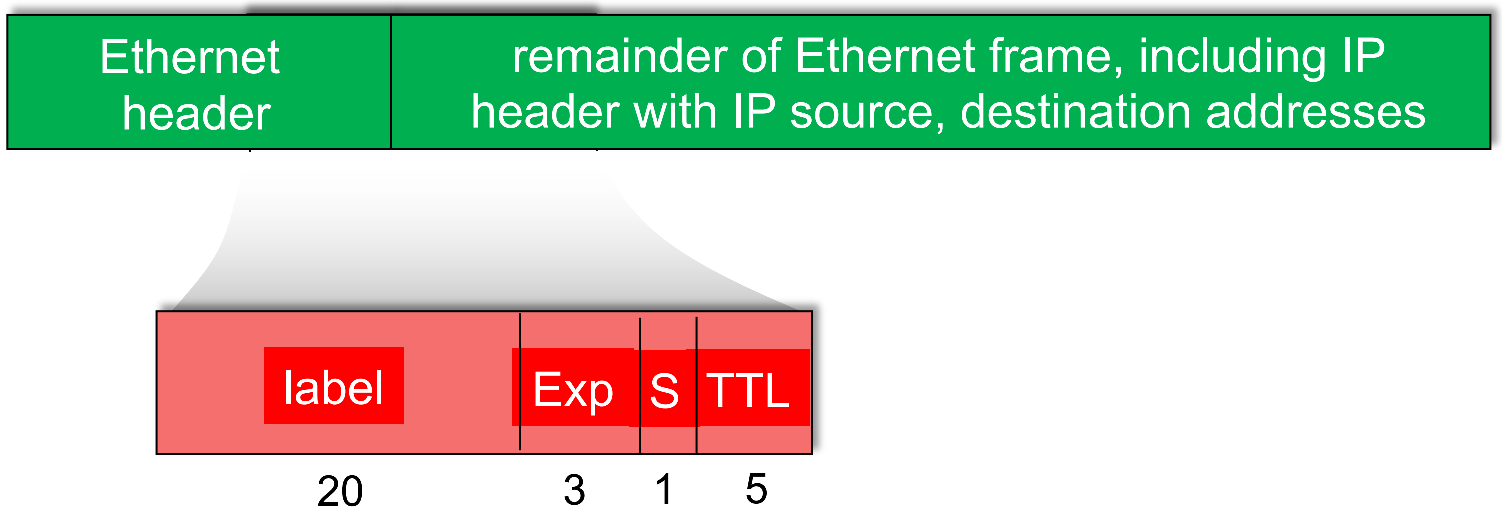
Multiprotocol label switching (MPLS)

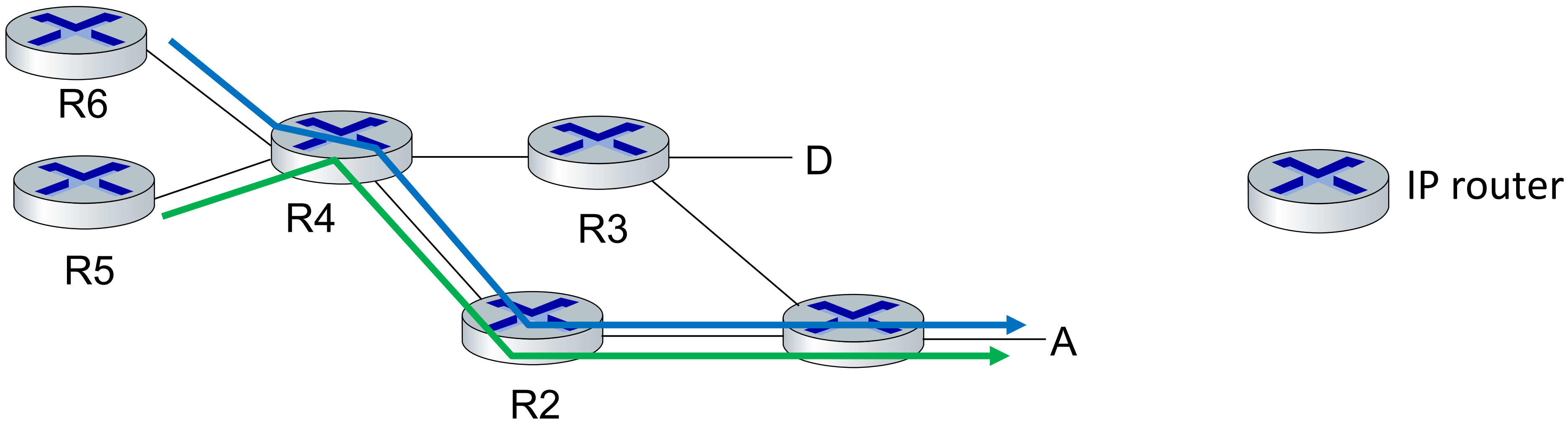
- goal: high-speed IP forwarding among network of MPLS-capable routers, using fixed length label (instead of shortest prefix matching)
  - faster lookup using fixed length identifier
  - borrowing ideas from Virtual Circuit (VC) approach
  - but IP datagram still keeps IP address!



MPLS capable routers

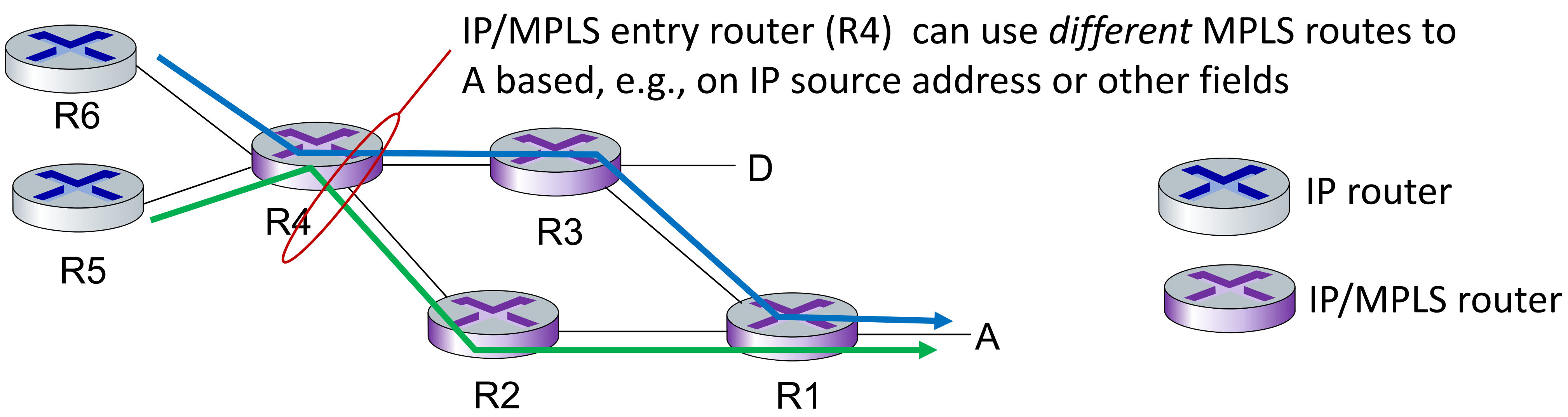
- a.k.a. label-switched router
- forward packets to outgoing interface based only on label value (*don't inspect IP address*)
  - MPLS forwarding table distinct from IP forwarding tables
- *flexibility:* MPLS forwarding decisions can *differ* from those of IP
  - use destination *and* source addresses to route flows to same destination differently (traffic engineering)
  - re-route flows quickly if link fails: pre-computed backup paths

MPLS versus IP paths



- IP routing: path to destination determined by destination address alone

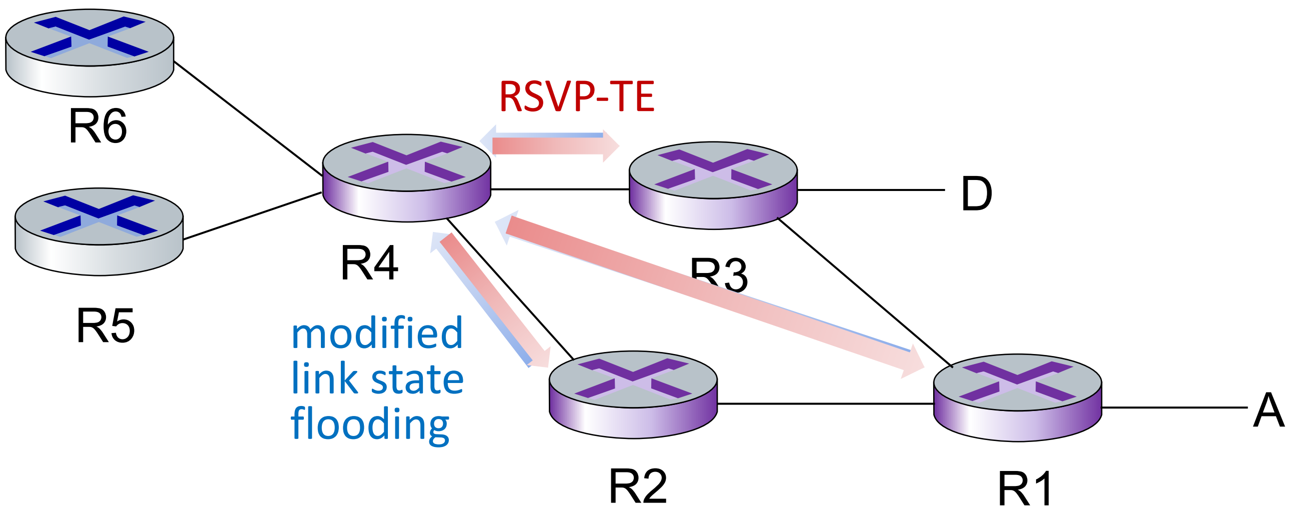
MPLS versus IP paths



- IP routing: path to destination determined by destination address alone
- MPLS routing: path to destination can be based on source *and* destination address
  - flavor of generalized forwarding (MPLS 10 years earlier)
  - *fast reroute:* precompute backup routes in case of link failure

MPLS signaling

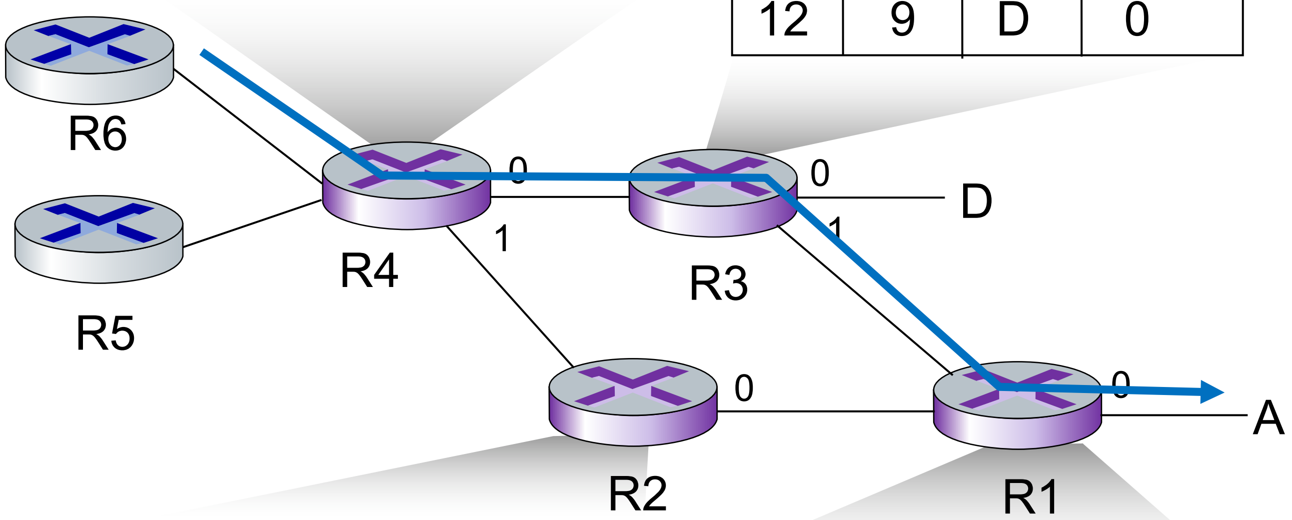
- modify OSPF, IS-IS link-state flooding protocols to carry info used by MPLS routing:
  - e.g., link bandwidth, amount of “reserved” link bandwidth
- entry MPLS router uses RSVP-TE signaling protocol to set up MPLS forwarding at downstream routers



MPLS forwarding tables

in label	out label	dest	out interface
	10	A	0
	12	D	0
	8	A	1

in label	out label	dest	out interface
10	6	A	1
12	9	D	0



in label	out label	dest	out interface
8	6	A	0

in label	out label	dest	out interface
6	-	A	0

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Datacenter networks

10's to 100's of thousands of hosts, often closely coupled, in close proximity:

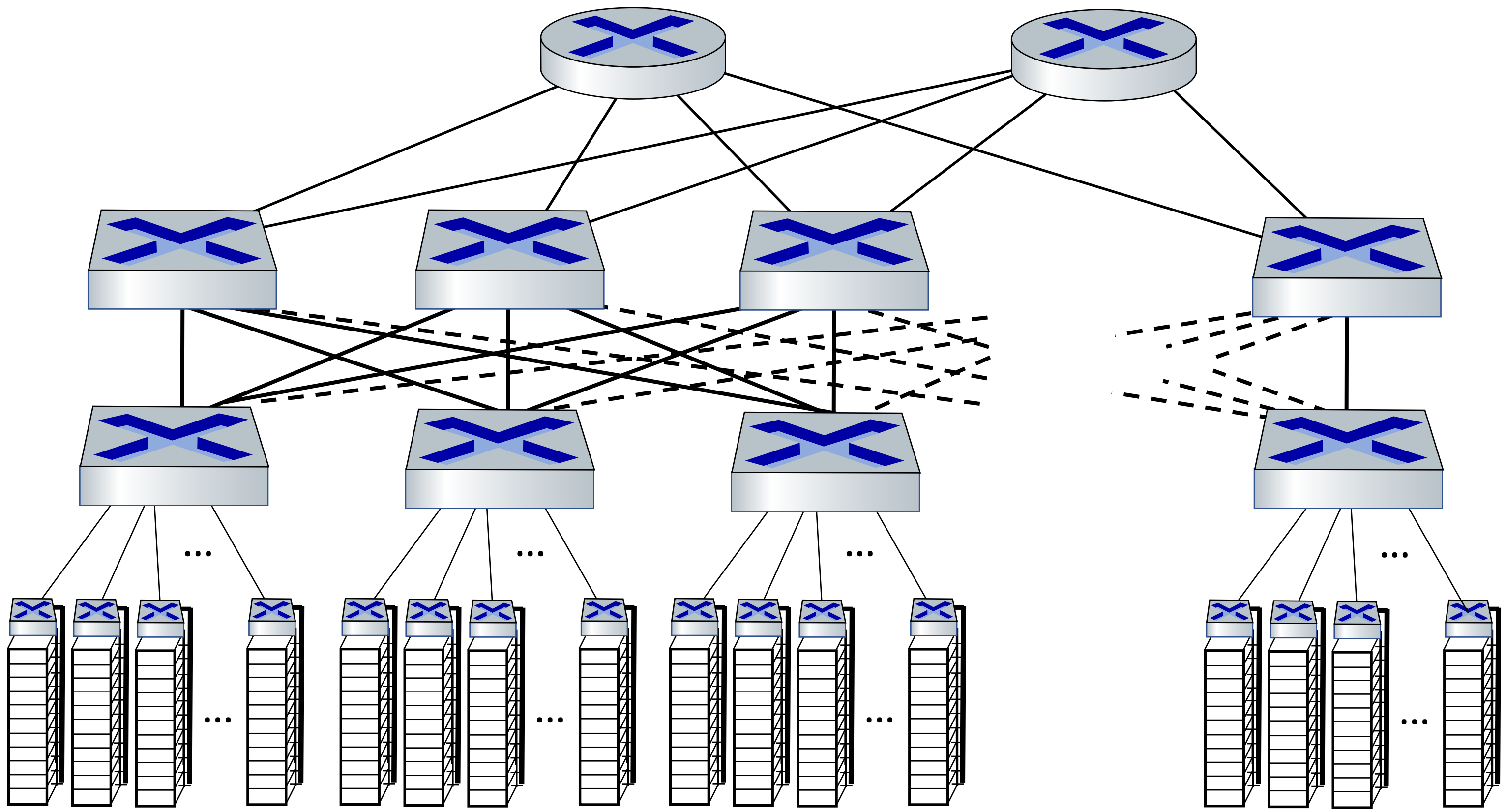
- e-business (e.g. Amazon)
- content-servers (e.g., YouTube, Akamai, Apple, Microsoft)
- search engines, data mining (e.g., Google)

challenges:

- multiple applications, each serving massive numbers of clients
- reliability
- managing/balancing load, avoiding processing, networking, data bottlenecks

Inside a 40-ft Microsoft container, Chicago data center

Datacenter networks: network elements



Border routers
- connections outside datacenter

Tier-1 switches
- connecting to ~16 T-2s below

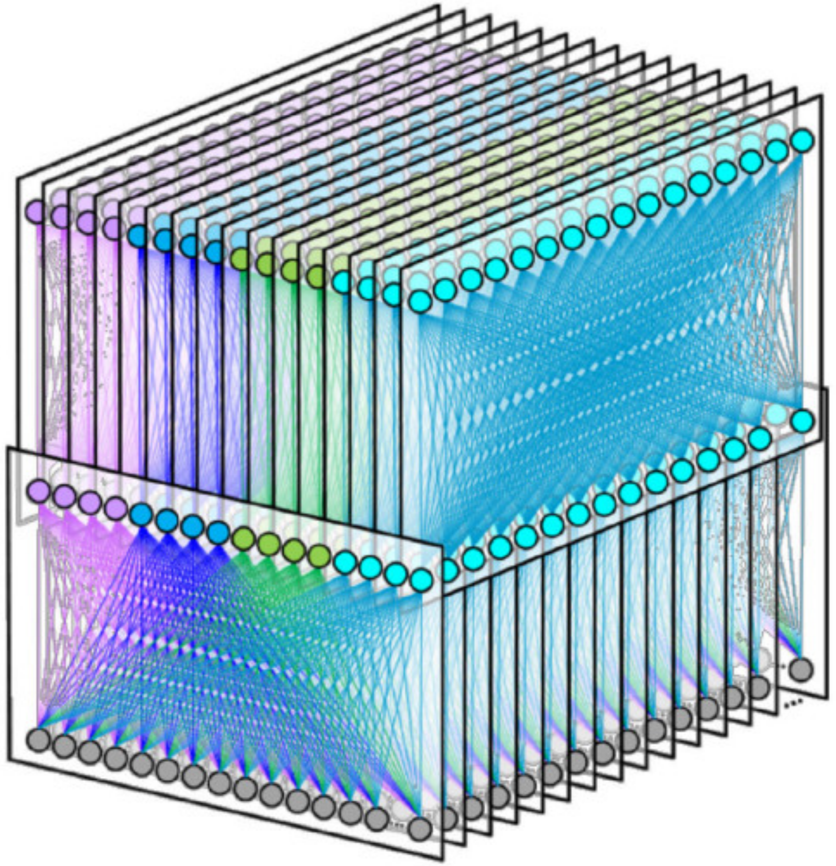
Tier-2 switches
- connecting to ~16 TORs below

Top of Rack (TOR) switch
- one per rack
- 40-100Gbps Ethernet to blades

Server racks
- 20- 40 server blades: hosts

Datacenter networks: network elements

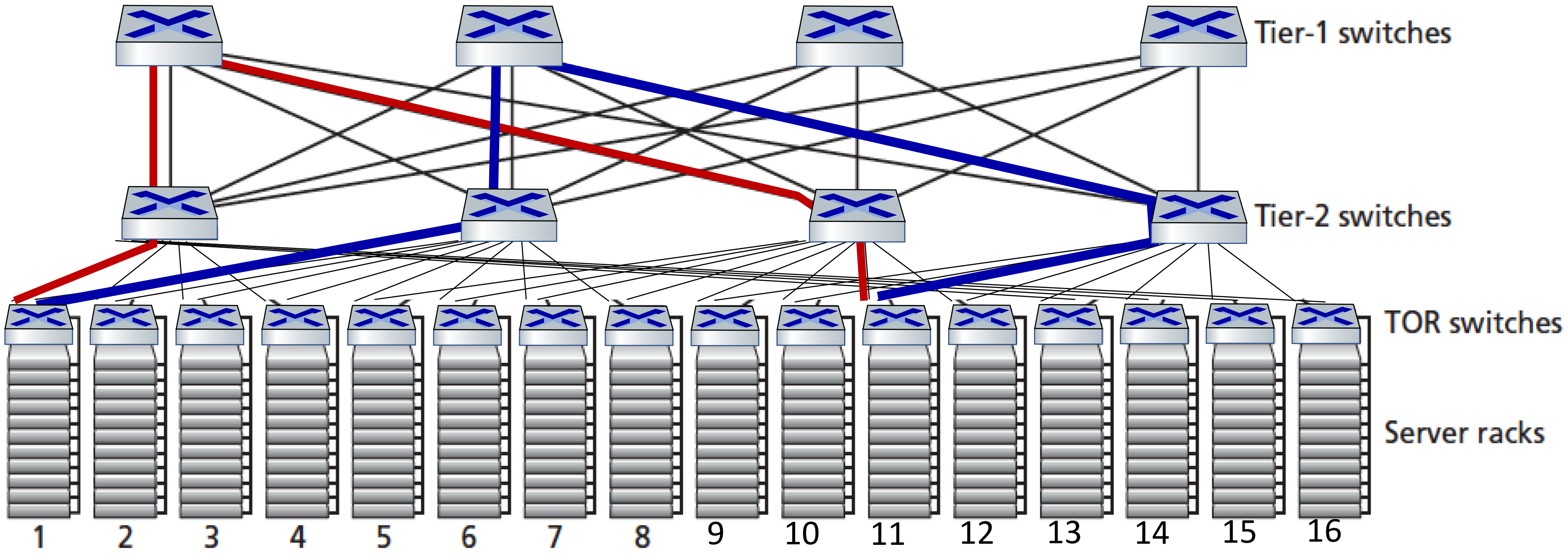
Facebook F16 data center network topology:



https://engineering.fb.com/data-center-engineering/f16-minipack/ (posted 3/2019)

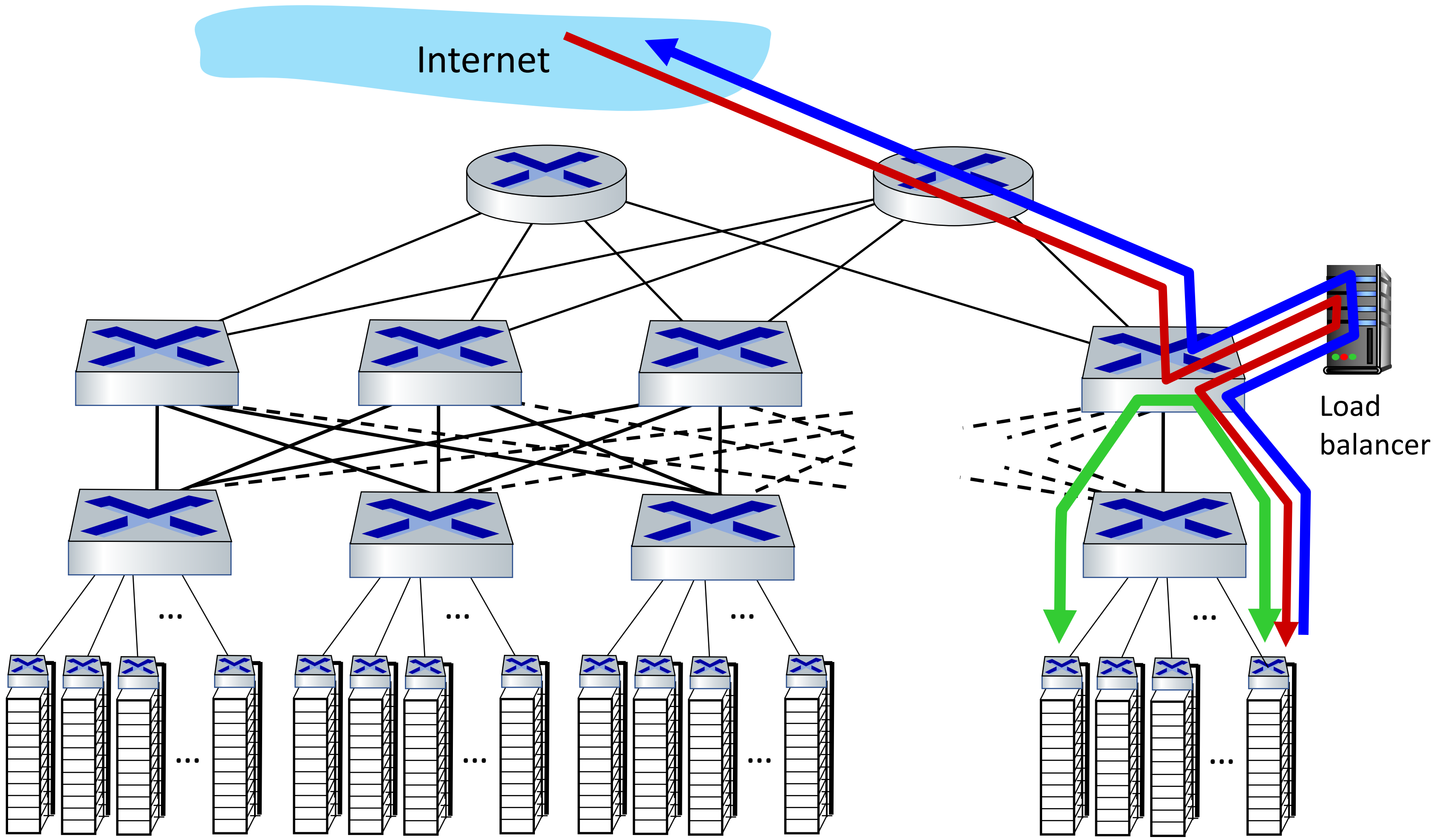
Datacenter networks: multipath

- rich interconnection among switches, racks:
  - increased throughput between racks (multiple routing paths possible)
  - increased reliability via redundancy



two disjoint paths highlighted between racks 1 and 11

Datacenter networks: application-layer routing



load balancer: application-layer routing

- receives external client requests
- directs workload within data center
- returns results to external client (hiding data center internals from client)

Datacenter networks: protocol innovations

- link layer:
  - RoCE: remote DMA (RDMA) over Converged Ethernet
- transport layer:
  - ECN (explicit congestion notification) used in transport-layer congestion control (DCTCP, DCQCN)
  - experimentation with hop-by-hop (backpressure) congestion control
- routing, management:
  - SDN widely used within/among organizations' datacenters
  - place related services, data as close as possible (e.g., in same rack or nearby rack) to minimize tier-2, tier-1 communication

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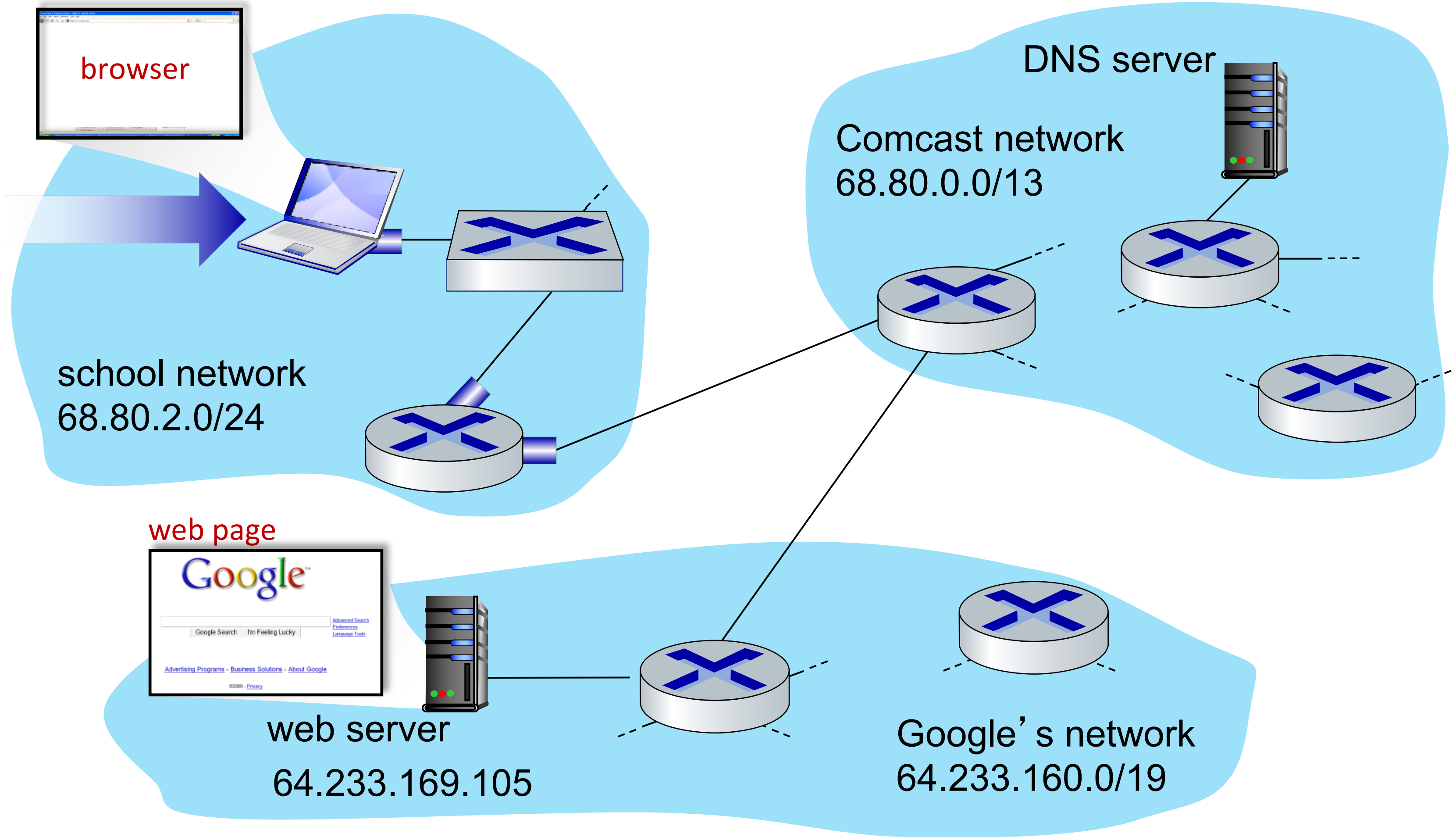
Synthesis: a day in the life of a web request

- our journey down the protocol stack is now complete!
  - application, transport, network, link
- putting-it-all-together: synthesis!
  - *goal:* identify, review, understand protocols (at all layers) involved in seemingly simple scenario: requesting www page
  - *scenario:* student attaches laptop to campus network, requests/receives www.google.com

A day in the life: scenario

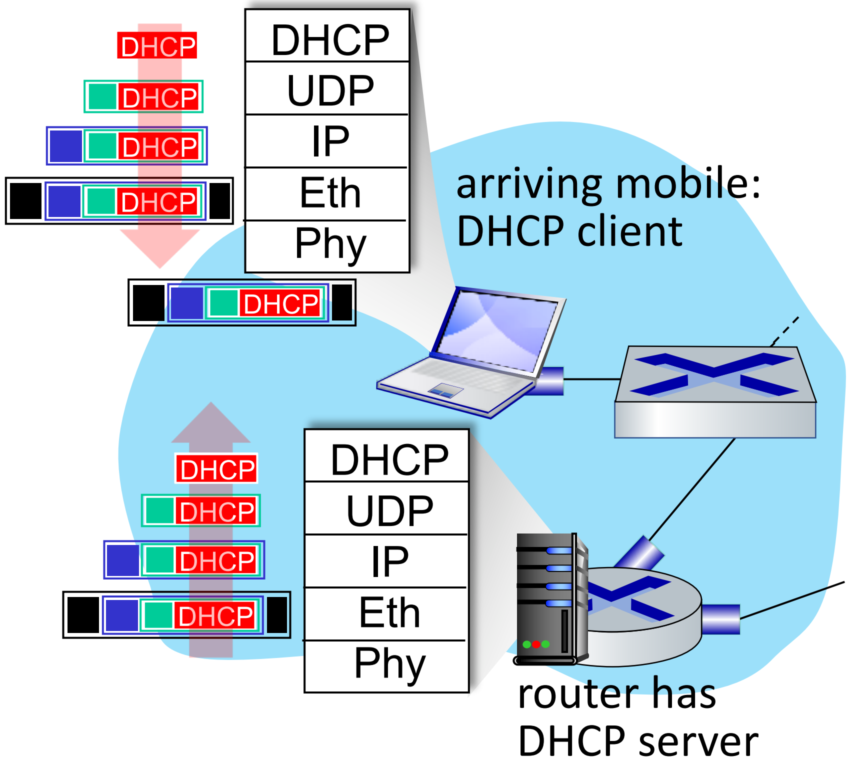


scenario:

- arriving mobile client attaches to network …
- requests web page: www.google.com

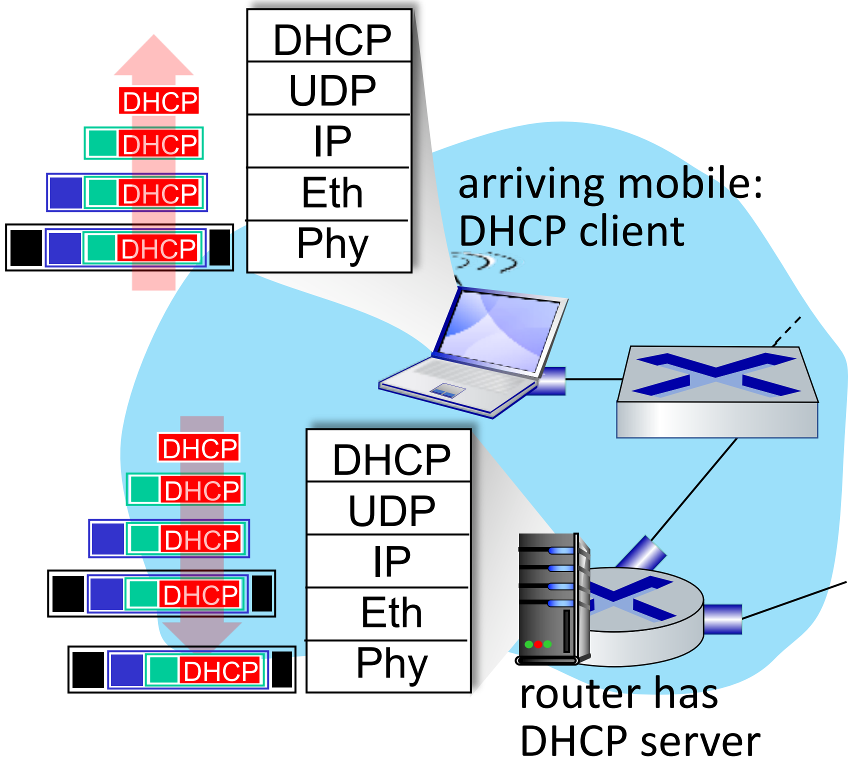
Sounds simple!

A day in the life: connecting to the Internet



- connecting laptop needs to get its own IP address, addr of first-hop router, addr of DNS server: use DHCP
- DHCP request encapsulated in UDP, encapsulated in IP, encapsulated in 802.3 Ethernet
- Ethernet frame broadcast (dest: FFFFFFFFFFFF) on LAN, received at router running DHCP server
- Ethernet demuxed to IP demuxed, UDP demuxed to DHCP

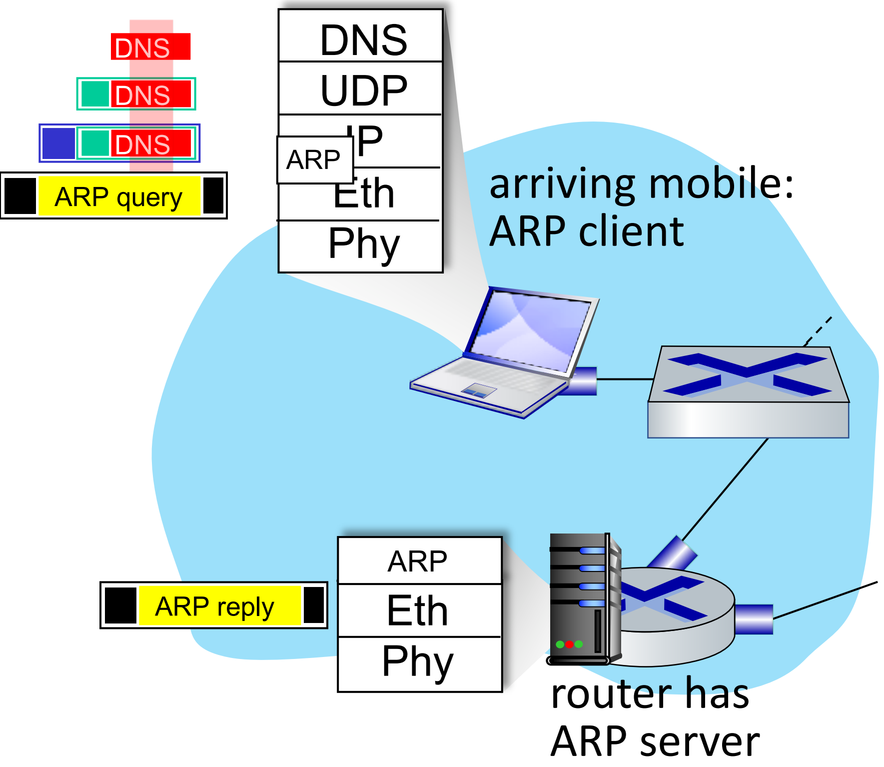
A day in the life: connecting to the Internet



- DHCP server formulates DHCP ACK containing client's IP address, IP address of first-hop router for client, name & IP address of DNS server
- encapsulation at DHCP server, frame forwarded (switch learning) through LAN, demultiplexing at client
- DHCP client receives DHCP ACK reply

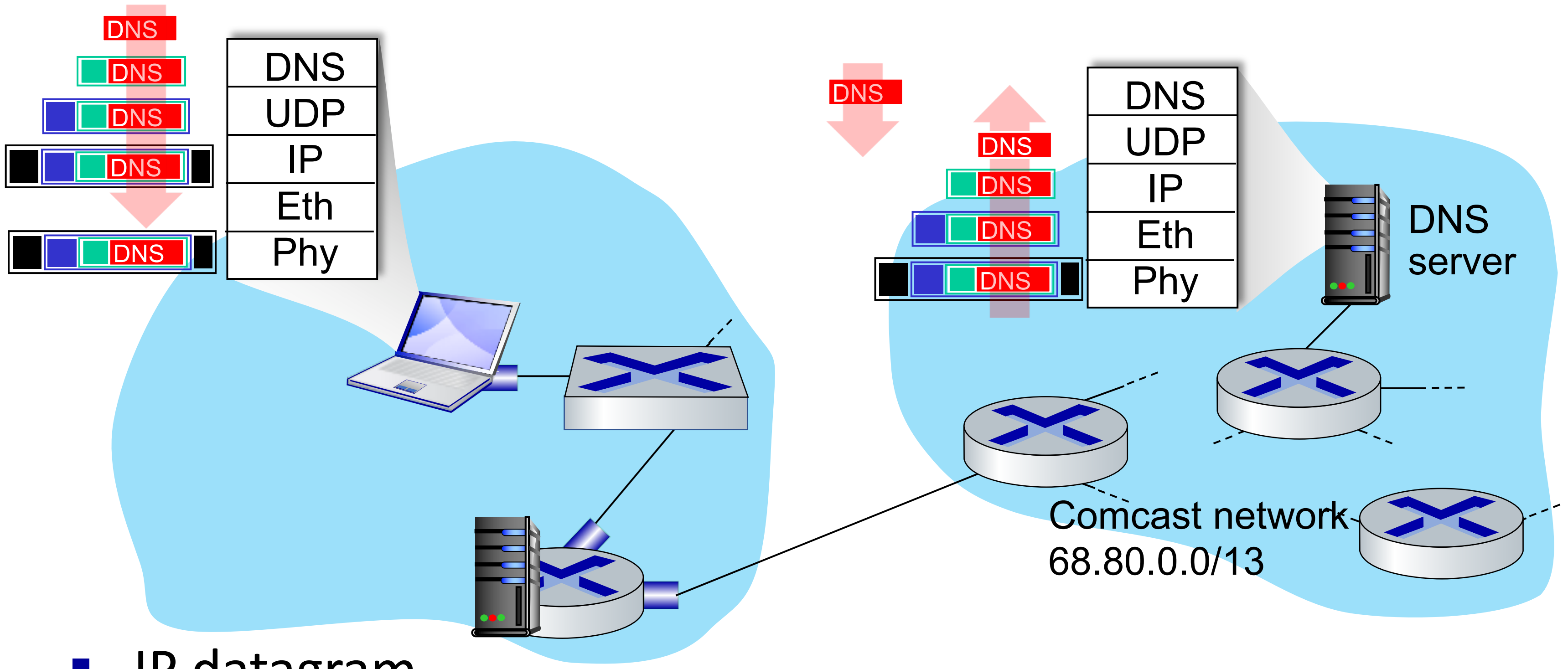
Client now has IP address, knows name & addr of DNS server, IP address of its first-hop router

A day in the life... ARP (before DNS, before HTTP)



- before sending HTTP request, need IP address of www.google.com: DNS
- DNS query created, encapsulated in UDP, encapsulated in IP, encapsulated in Eth. To send frame to router, need MAC address of router interface: ARP
- ARP query broadcast, received by router, which replies with ARP reply giving MAC address of router interface
- client now knows MAC address of first hop router, so can now send frame containing DNS query

A day in the life… using DNS

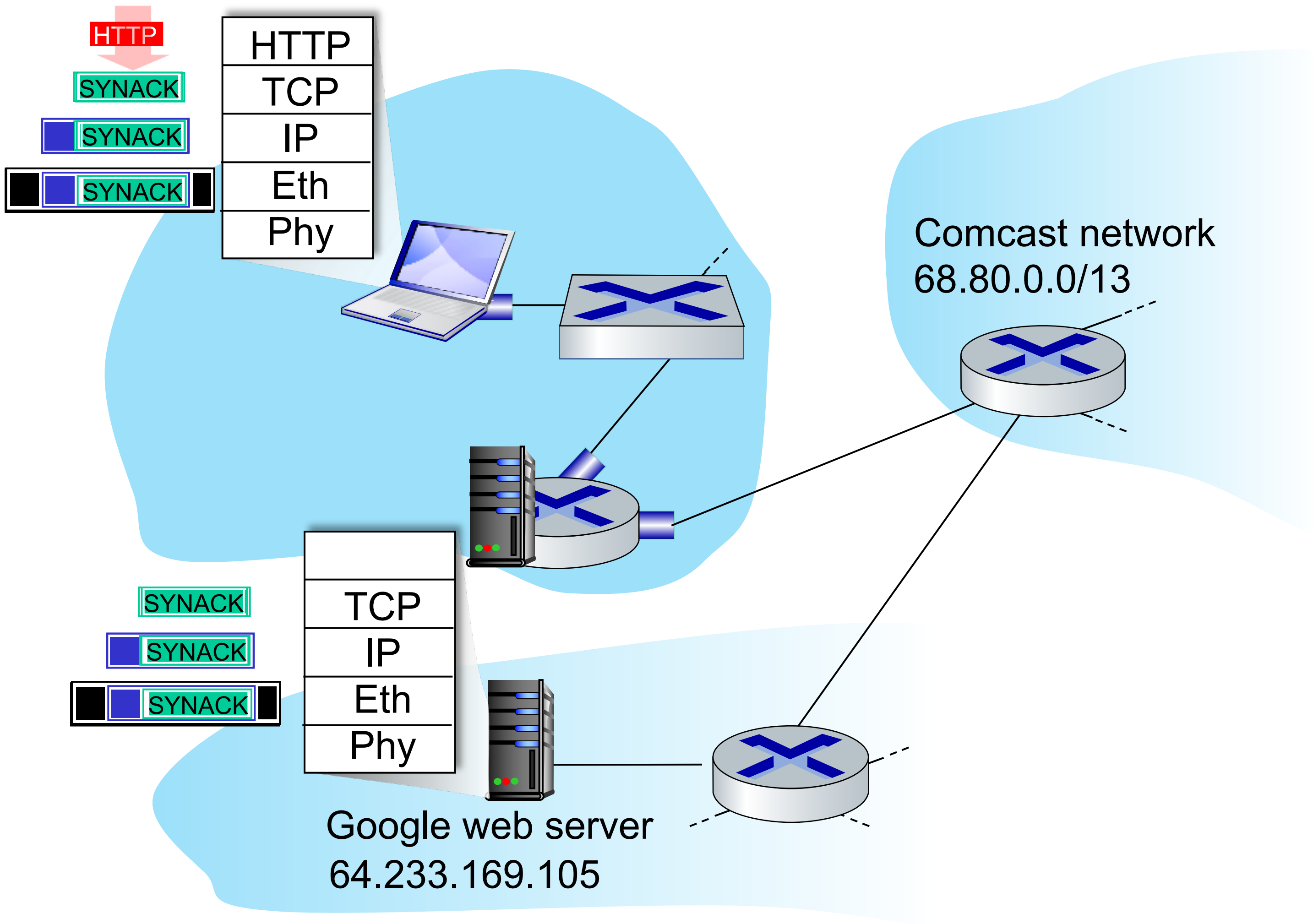


- demuxed to DNS
- DNS replies to client with IP address of www.google.com

- IP datagram containing DNS query forwarded via LAN switch from client to 1st hop router

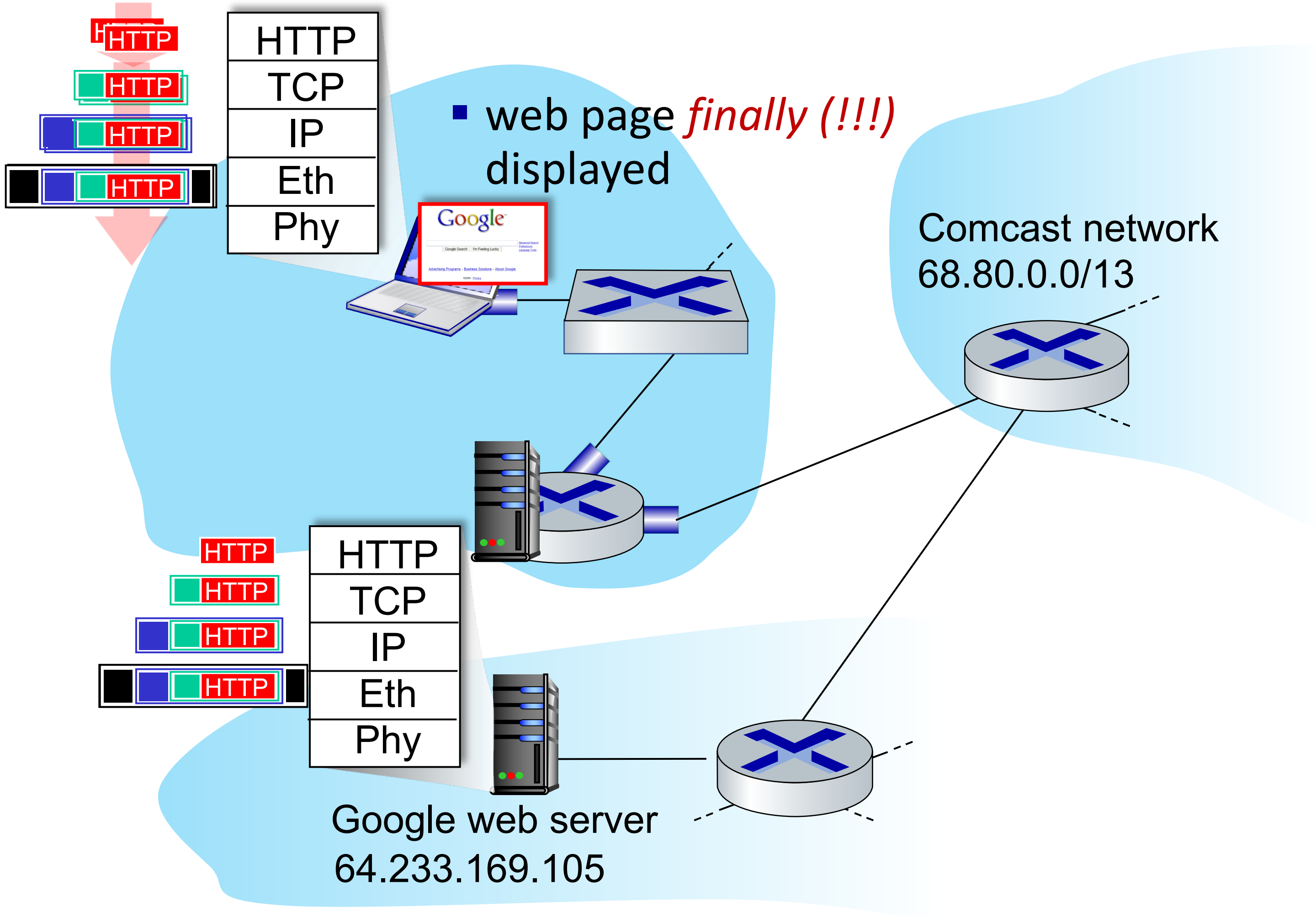
- IP datagram forwarded from campus network into Comcast network, routed (tables created by RIP, OSPF, IS-IS and/or BGP routing protocols) to DNS server

A day in the life…TCP connection carrying HTTP



- to send HTTP request, client first opens TCP socket to web server
- TCP SYN segment (step 1 in TCP 3-way handshake) inter-domain routed to web server
- web server responds with TCP SYNACK (step 2 in TCP 3-way handshake)
- TCP connection established!

A day in the life... HTTP request/reply



- HTTP request sent into TCP socket
- IP datagram containing HTTP request routed to www.google.com
- web server responds with HTTP reply (containing web page)
- IP datagram containing HTTP reply routed back to client

Chapter 6: Summary

- principles behind data link layer services:
  - error detection, correction
  - sharing a broadcast channel: multiple access
  - link layer addressing
- instantiation, implementation of various link layer technologies
  - Ethernet
  - switched LANS, VLANs
  - virtualized networks as a link layer: MPLS
- synthesis: a day in the life of a web request

Chapter 6: let's take a breath

- journey down protocol stack *complete* (except PHY)
- solid understanding of networking principles, practice!
- ….. could stop here …. but *more* interesting topics!
  - wireless
  - security

Additional Chapter 6 slides

Pure ALOHA efficiency

P(success by given node) = P(node transmits) *

P(no other node transmits in $[t_0\text{-}1, t_0]$ * *

P(no other node transmits in $[t_0\text{-}1, t_0]$

$= p \cdot (1-p)^{N-1} \cdot (1-p)^{N-1}$

$= p \cdot (1-p)^{2(N-1)}$

… choosing optimum p and then letting $n \rightarrow \infty$

$= 1/(2e) = .18$

even worse than slotted Aloha!