# Link Layer

Slides are adapted from the companion website of the book *Computer Networking: A Top-Down Approach by* Jim Kurose, Keith Ross

## Link layer: roadmap

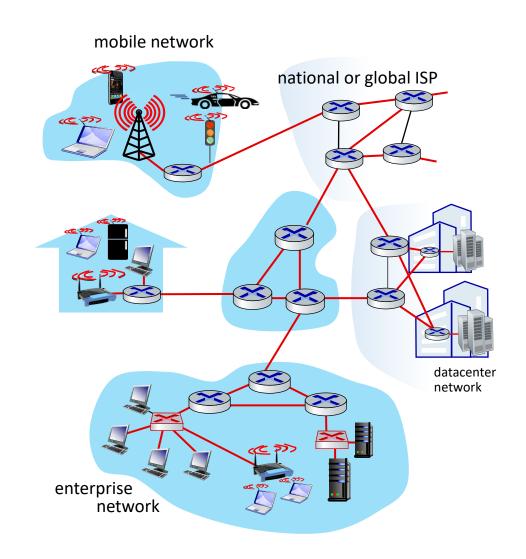
- introduction
- error detection, correction
- multiple access protocols
- LANs
  - addressing, ARP
  - Ethernet
  - switches
- data center networking
- putting it all together

# 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 a physically adjacent node over a link



# Link layer: context

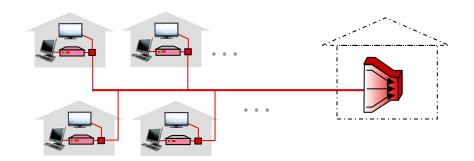
- datagram transferred by different link protocols over different links:
  - e.g., WiFi on first link, Ethernet on next link
- each link protocol provides different services
  - e.g., may or may not provide reliable data transfer over link

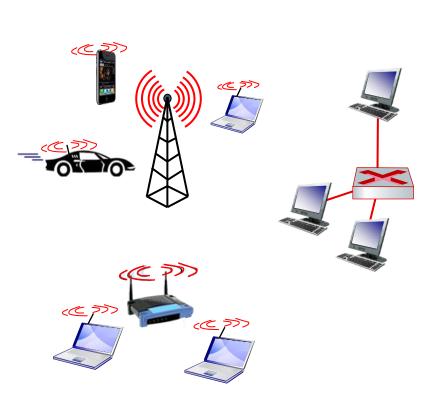
#### transportation analogy:

- trip from Hauz Khas to Saarbrucken
  - cab: Hauz Khas to DEL
  - plane: DEL to FRA
  - train: FRA to Saarbrucken
- 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:

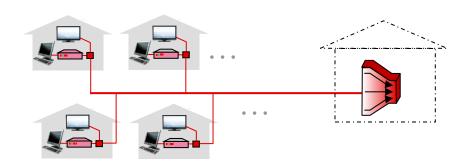
- errors caused by signal attenuation, noise.
- receiver detects errors, signals retransmission, or drops frame

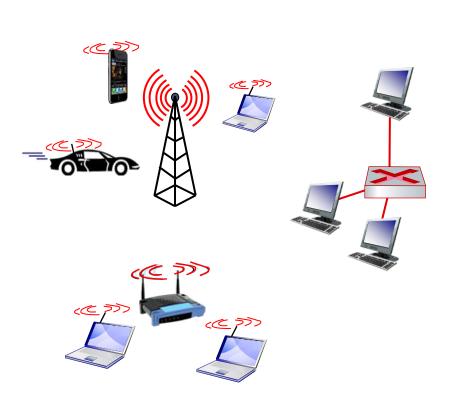
#### error correction:

receiver identifies and corrects bit error(s) without retransmission

### half-duplex and full-duplex:

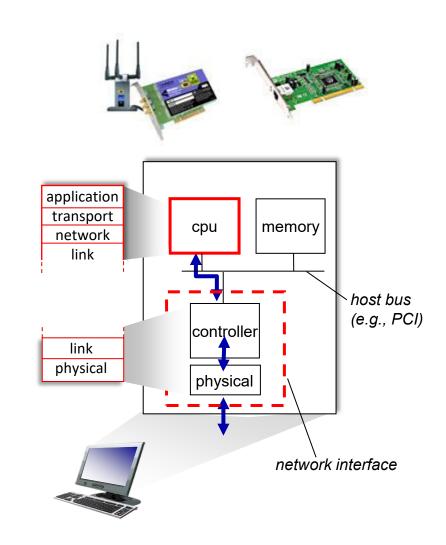
• with half duplex, nodes at both ends of link can transmit, but not at same time



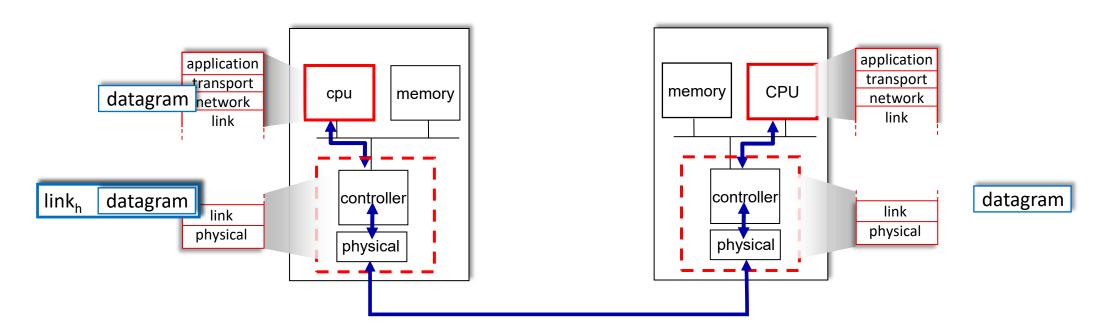


## Where is the link layer implemented?

- 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

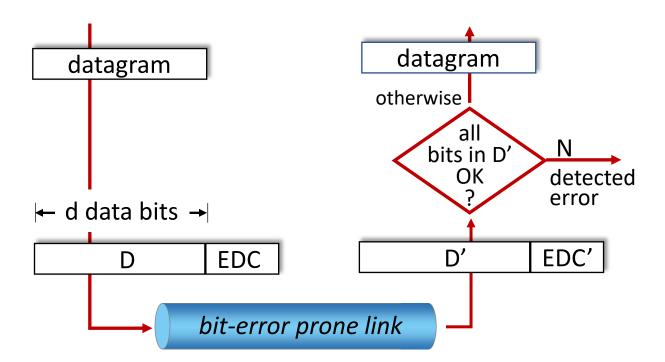
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### **Error detection**

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

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



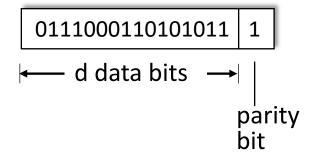
Error detection not 100% reliable!

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

# Parity checking

#### single bit parity:

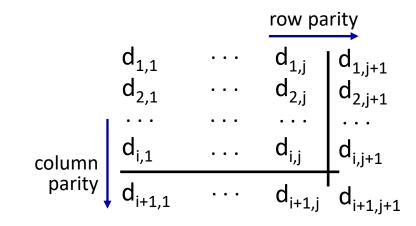
detect single bit errors

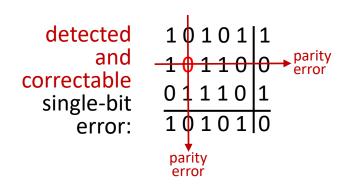


Even parity: set parity bit so there is an even number of 1's

#### two-dimensional bit parity:

detect and correct single bit errors





### Internet checksum

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

#### sender:

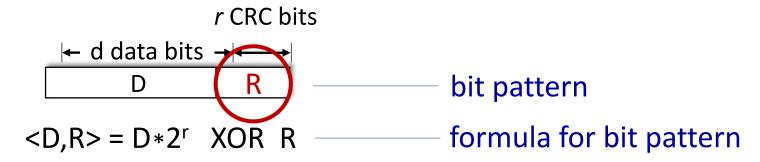
- treat contents of UDP segment (including UDP header fields and IP addresses) as sequence of 16-bit integers
- checksum: addition (one's complement sum) of segment content
- checksum value put into UDP checksum field

#### 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?

# 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)



*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:

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

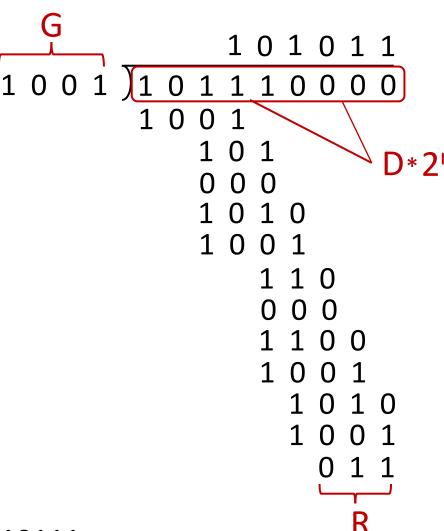
#### or equivalently:

if we divide D.2<sup>r</sup> by G, want remainder R to satisfy:

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

#### How to select G?

Often some standard value is used CRC32 = 100000100110000010011101101111



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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

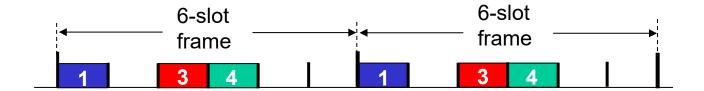
#### three broad classes:

- 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

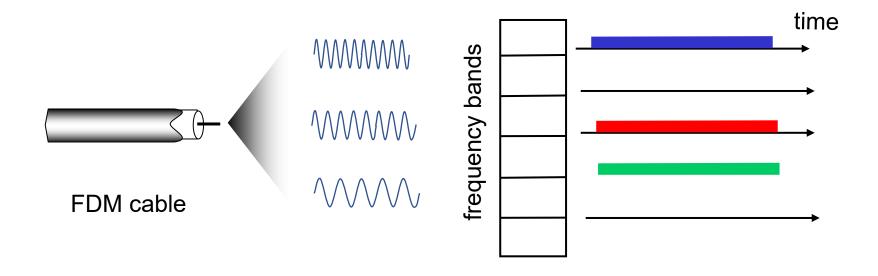
- access to channel in "rounds"
- each station gets fixed length slot (length = packet transmission time) in each round
- unused slots go idle
- example: 6-station LAN, 1,3,4 have packets to send, slots 2,5,6 idle



### 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



# Code Division Multiple Access (CDMA)

- unique "code" assigned to each user; i.e., code set partitioning
  - all users share same frequency, but each user has own "chipping" sequence (i.e., code) to encode data
  - allows multiple users to "coexist" and transmit simultaneously with minimal interference (if codes are "orthogonal")
- encoding: original data XOR chipping sequence
- decoding: encoded data XOR chipping sequence
- Above is a simplified scheme. Actual CDMA used in wireless communication uses spread spectrum techniques.
- Code assignment is complex. See for example https://ieeexplore.ieee.org/stamp/stamp.jsp?tp=&arnumber=1453

### 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:

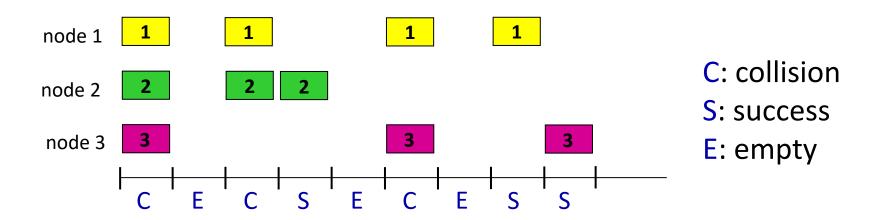
- all frames are of same size
- time divided into equal size slots (time to transmit 1 frame)
- nodes start to transmit only slot beginning
- nodes are synchronized
- if 2 or more nodes transmit in slot, all nodes detect collision

### 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: Throughput

Let T be the frame time, i.e., the time required for 1 frame to be transmitted.

Let G be the number of transmission attempts per frame time.

The probability that k frames are generated during the frame time is given by the Poisson distribution:  $P(k) = G^k e^{-G}/k!$ 

The probability that 0 frames are generated ( k = 0 ) during the frame time is  $e^{-G}$ 

For slotted ALOHA, the vulnerable time period for collision between two frames is the time duration of 1 slot = 1 frame time T.

In T time, average number of transmission attempts is G.

The probability that 0 frames are initiated in the vulnerable time period will be  $P(0) = e^{-G}$ 

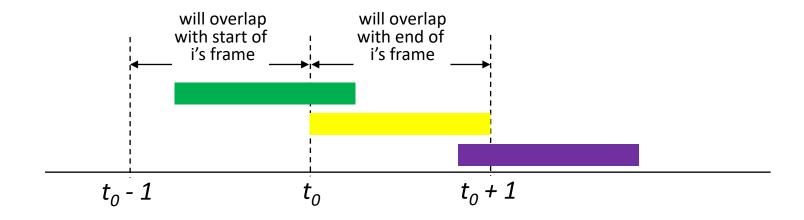
The throughput, S, is calculated as the number of transmission attempts per frame time, G, multiplied by the probability of success, P(0): S = G.P(0) or  $S = Ge^{-G}$ 

Maximum throughput of Slotted ALOHA occurs when G = 1.

The maximum throughput is thus  $S_{max} = 1 \times e^{-1} = 1/e = 0.368$ 

### Pure ALOHA

- unslotted Aloha: simpler, no synchronization
  - when frame first arrives, transmit immediately
- collision probability increases with no synchronization:
  - frame sent at t<sub>0</sub> collides with other frames sent in [t<sub>0</sub>-1,t<sub>0</sub>+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 juststarted transmission
- collision: entire packet transmission time wasted
  - distance & propagation delay play role in in determining collision probability

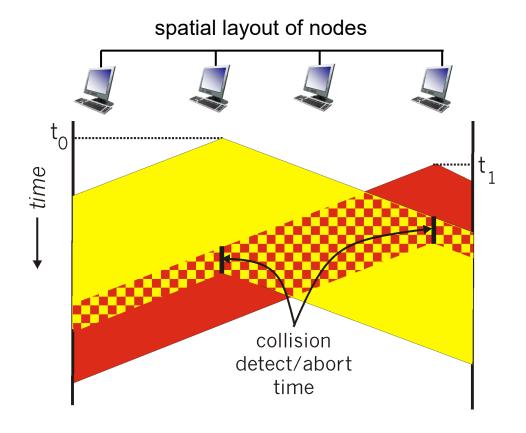




 $\mathsf{t}_1$ 

## CSMA/CD:

- CSMA/CD 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 mth collision, NIC chooses K at random from  $\{0,1,2,...,2^m-1\}$ . NIC waits K:512 bit times, returns to Step 2
  - more collisions: longer backoff interval

## CSMA/CD efficiency

- T<sub>prop</sub> = max prop delay between 2 nodes in LAN
- t<sub>trans</sub> = time to transmit max-size frame

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

- See <a href="https://www.sce.carleton.ca/faculty/lambadaris/courses/462/csma\_cd.pdf">https://www.sce.carleton.ca/faculty/lambadaris/courses/462/csma\_cd.pdf</a>
  for proof
- 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

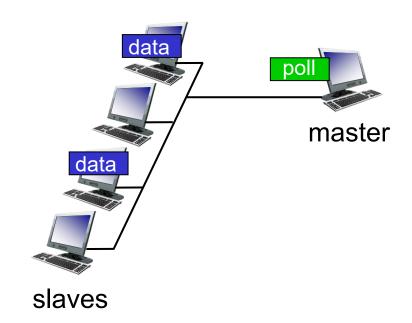
### "taking turns" protocols

look for best of both worlds!

## "Taking turns" MAC protocols

### polling:

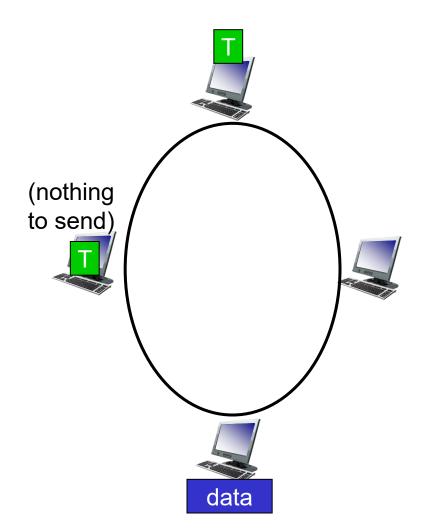
- master node "invites" other nodes to transmit in turn
- transmits if there is data to send
- concerns:
  - polling overhead
  - latency
  - single point of failure (master)



## "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)



### Wireless link characteristics

### *important* differences from wired link ....

- decreased signal strength: radio signal attenuates as it propagates through matter (path loss)
- interference from other sources: wireless network frequencies (e.g., 2.4 GHz) shared by many devices (e.g., WiFi, cellular, motors): interference
- multipath propagation: radio signal reflects off objects ground, arriving at destination at slightly different times

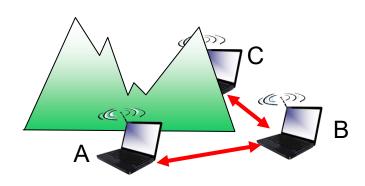




.... make communication across (even a point to point) wireless link much more "difficult"

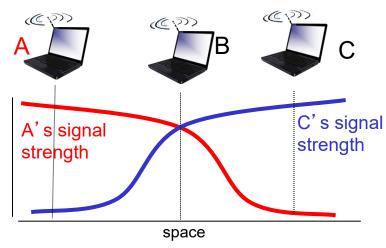
### Wireless link characteristics

Multiple wireless senders, receivers create additional problems (beyond multiple access):



#### Hidden terminal problem

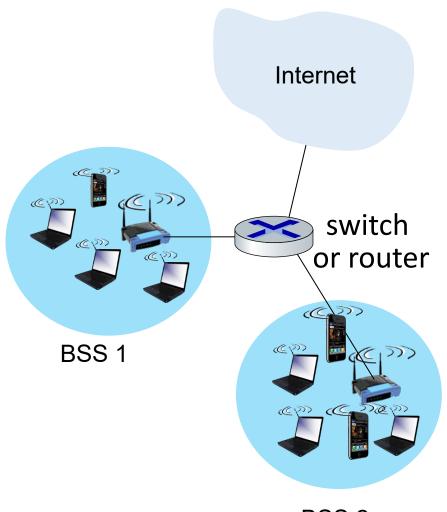
- B, A hear each other
- B, C hear each other
- A, C can not hear each other means A,
   C unaware of their interference at B



#### Signal attenuation:

- B, A hear each other
- B, C hear each other
- A, C can not hear each other interfering at B

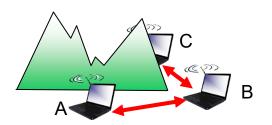
### 802.11 LAN/ WiFi architecture

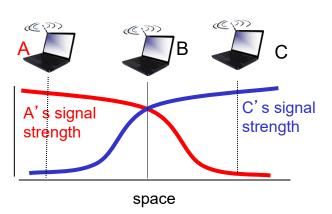


- wireless host communicates with base station
  - base station = access point (AP)
- Basic Service Set (BSS) (aka "cell") in infrastructure mode contains:
  - wireless hosts
  - access point (AP): base station
  - ad hoc mode: hosts only

### IEEE 802.11: multiple access

- avoid collisions: 2+ nodes transmitting at same time
- 802.11: CSMA sense before transmitting
  - don't collide with detected ongoing transmission by another node
- 802.11: no collision detection!
  - difficult to sense collisions: high transmitting signal, weak received signal due to fading
  - · can't sense all collisions in any case: hidden terminal, fading
  - goal: avoid collisions: CSMA/CollisionAvoidance





### IEEE 802.11 MAC Protocol: CSMA/CA

#### 802.11 sender

1 if sense channel idle for time WT1 (called DIFS) then transmit entire frame (no CD)

### 2 if sense channel busy then

start random backoff time

timer counts down while channel idle

transmit when timer expires

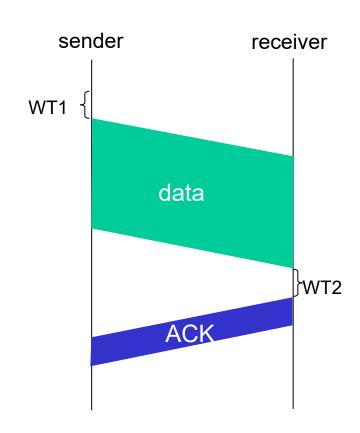
if no ACK, increase random backoff interval, repeat 2

#### 802.11 receiver

#### if frame received OK

return ACK after WT2 (called SIFS)

(ACK needed due to hidden terminal problem)

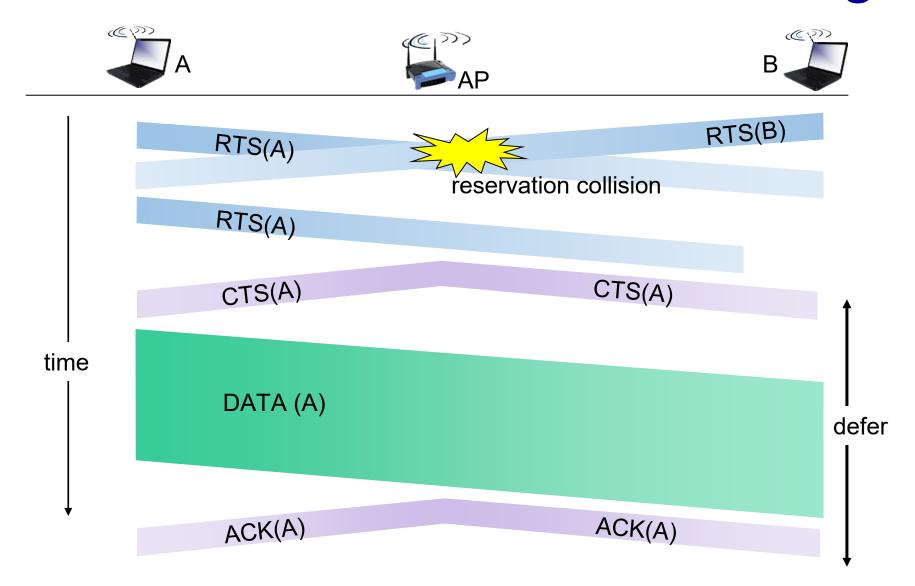


### **Avoiding collisions**

idea: sender "reserves" channel use for data frames using small reservation packets

- sender first transmits small request-to-send (RTS) packet to BS using CSMA
  - RTSs may still collide with each other (but they're short)
- BS broadcasts clear-to-send CTS in response to RTS
- CTS heard by all nodes
  - sender transmits data frame
  - other stations defer transmissions

# Collision Avoidance: RTS-CTS exchange



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### MAC addresses

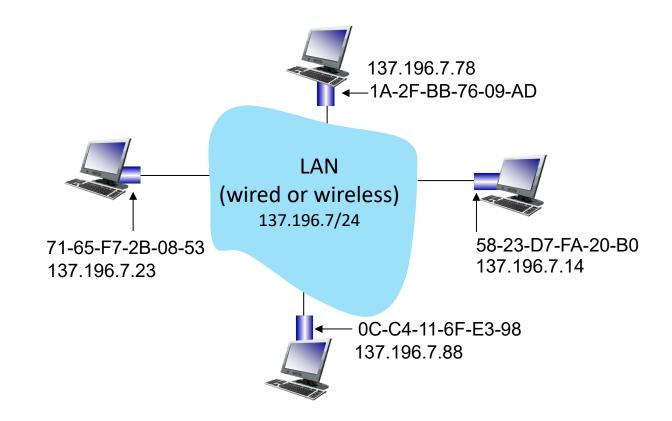
- 32-bit IP address:
  - network-layer address for interface
  - used for layer 3 (network layer) forwarding
  - e.g.: 128.119.40.136
- MAC (or LAN or physical or Ethernet) address:
  - function: used "locally" to get frame from one interface to another physically-connected interface (same subnet, in 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 a unique 48-bit MAC address
- has a locally unique 32-bit IP address (as we've seen)

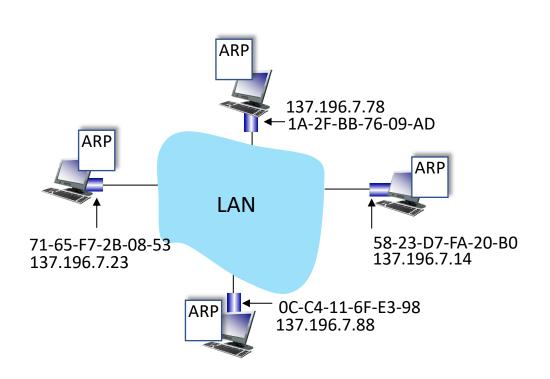


### MAC addresses

- MAC address allocation administered by IEEE
- manufacturer buys portion of MAC address space (to assure uniqueness)
- analogy:
  - MAC address: like Social Security Number/Aadhar
  - IP address: like postal address
- MAC flat address: portability
  - can move interface from one LAN to another
  - IP address not portable: depends on IP subnet to which node is attached
- Random Mac address
  - See <a href="https://www.mathyvanhoef.com/2016/03/how-mac-address-randomization-works-on.html">https://www.mathyvanhoef.com/2016/03/how-mac-address-randomization-works-on.html</a> for details

## 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:

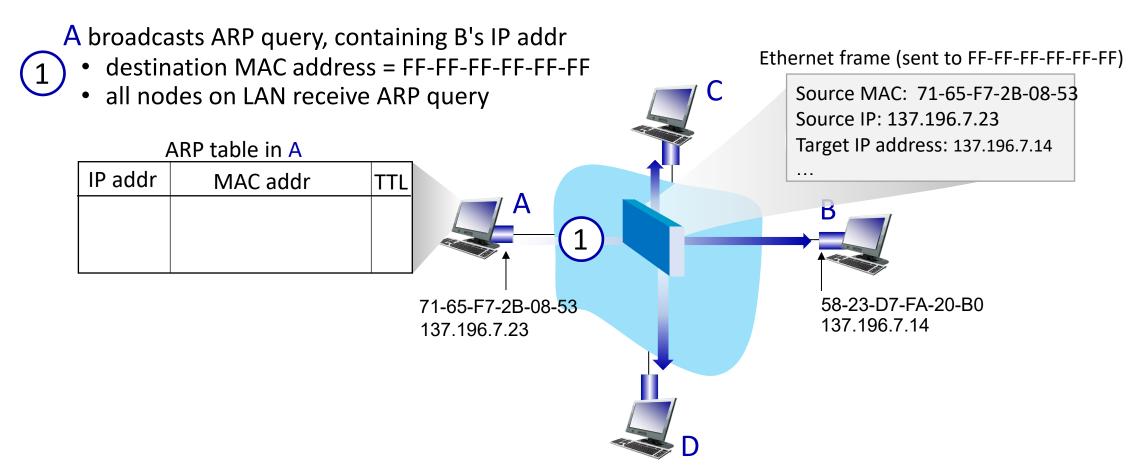
< IP address; MAC address; TTL>

 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

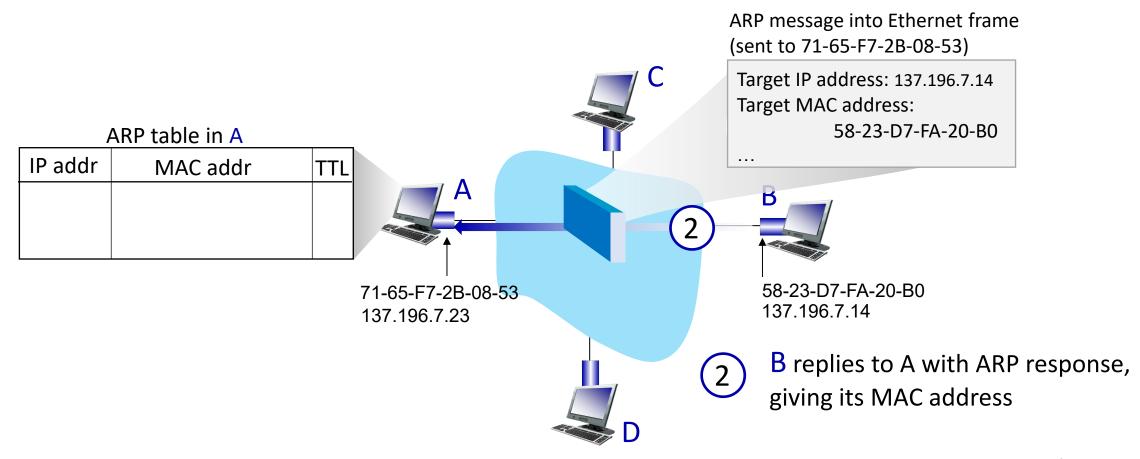
• B's MAC address not in A's ARP table, so A uses ARP to find B's MAC address



### ARP protocol in action

### example: A wants to send datagram to B

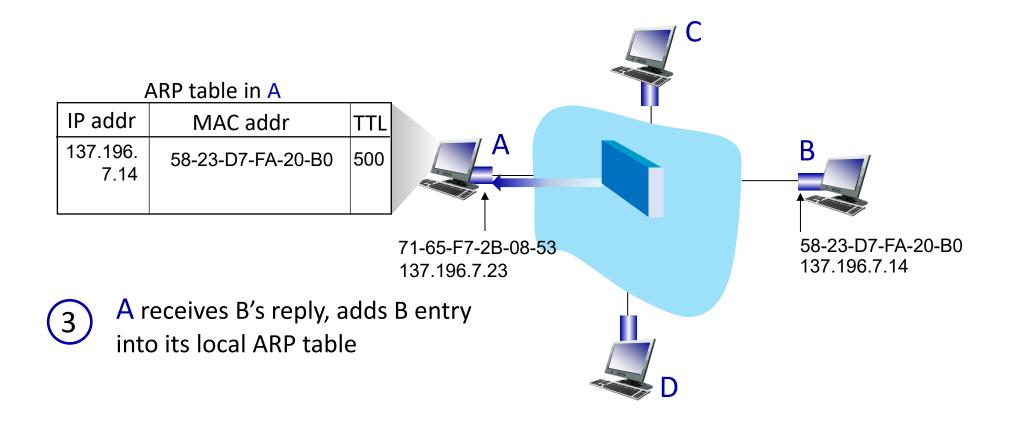
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### ARP protocol in action

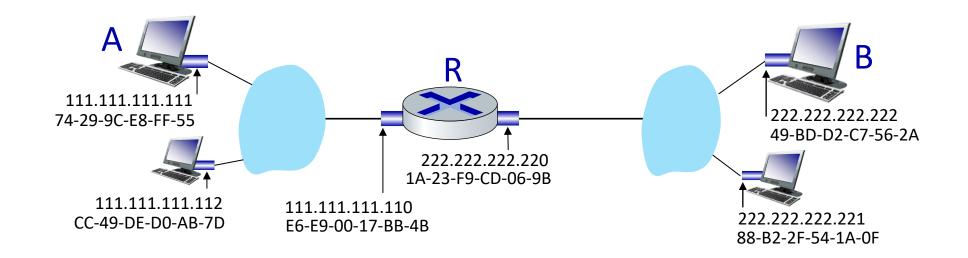
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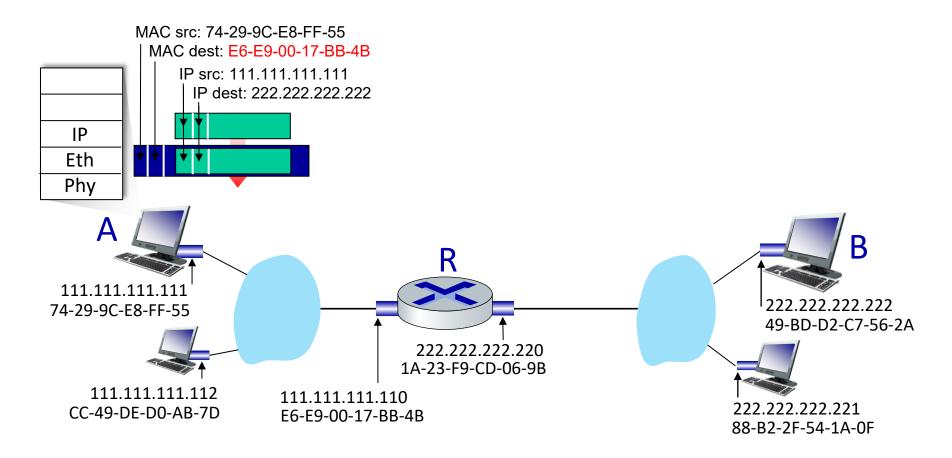


### walkthrough: sending a datagram from A to B via R

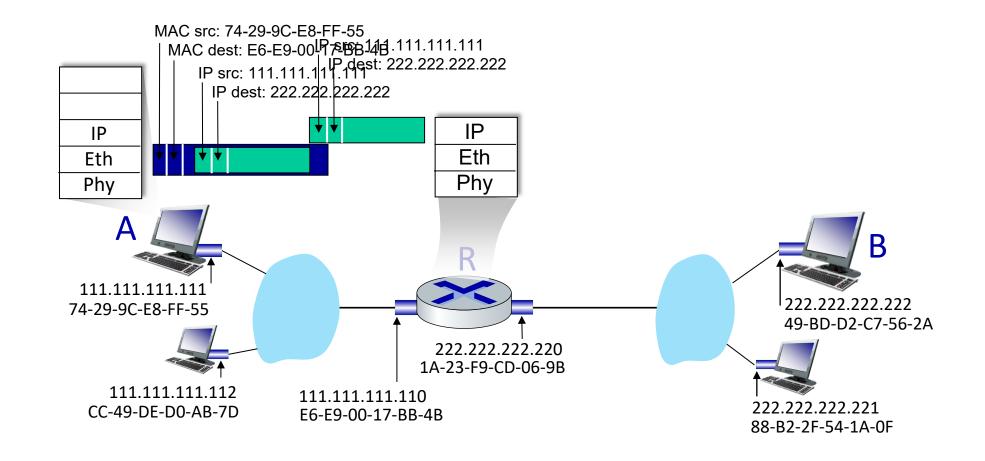
- focus on addressing at IP (datagram) and MAC layer (frame) levels
- assume that:
  - A knows B's IP address
  - A knows IP address of first hop router, R (how?)
  - A knows R's MAC address (how?)



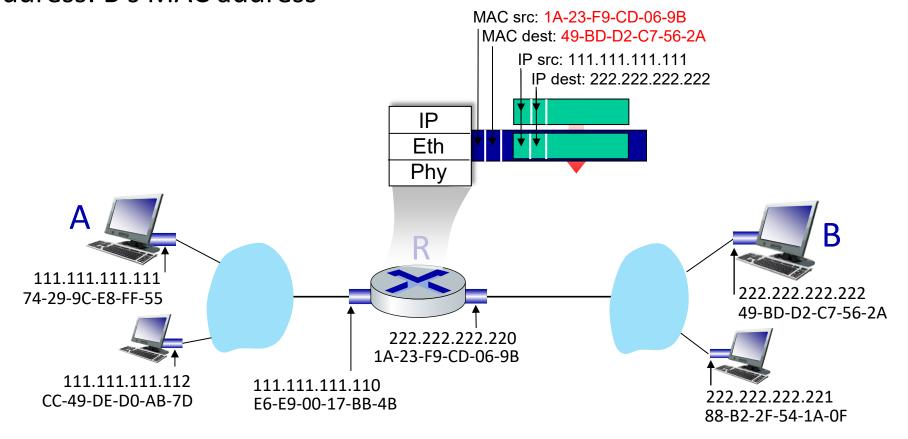
- A creates IP datagram with IP source A, destination B
- A creates link-layer frame containing A-to-B IP datagram
  - R's MAC address is frame's destination



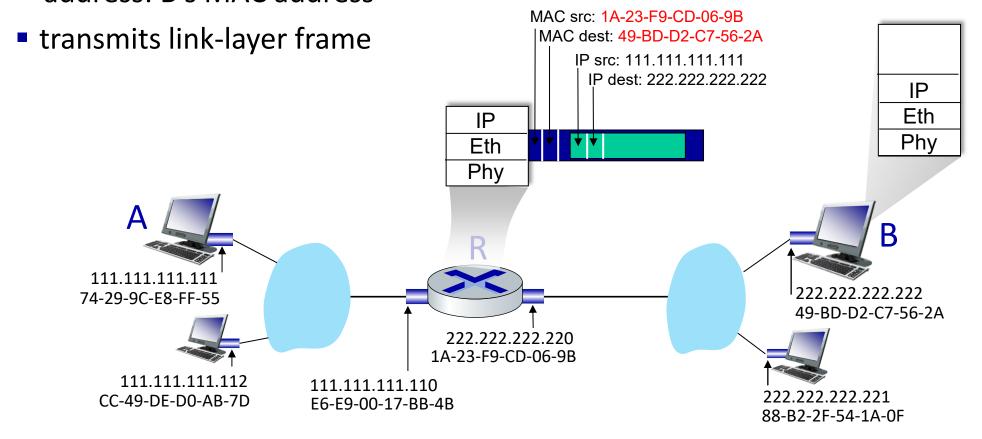
- frame sent from A to R
- frame received at R, datagram removed, passed up to IP



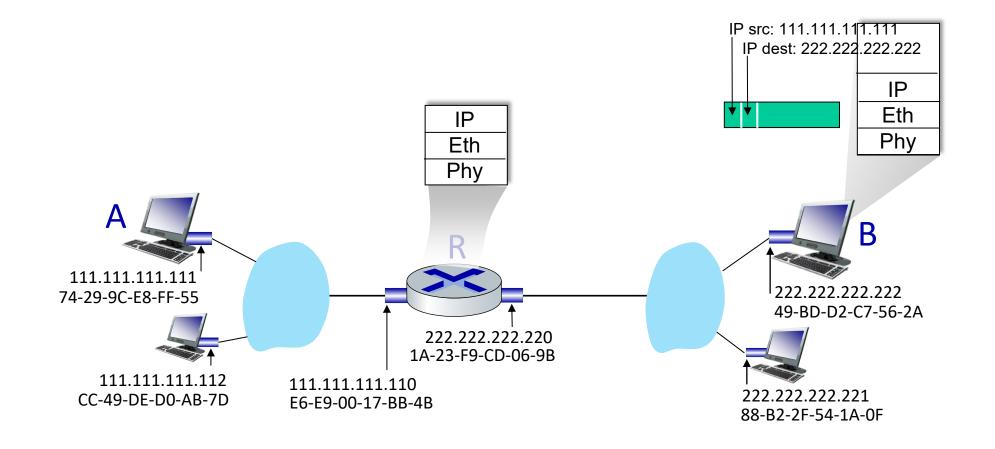
- R determines outgoing interface, passes datagram with IP source A, destination B to link layer
- R creates link-layer frame containing A-to-B IP datagram. Frame destination address: B's MAC address



- 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



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



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- data center networking
- putting it all together

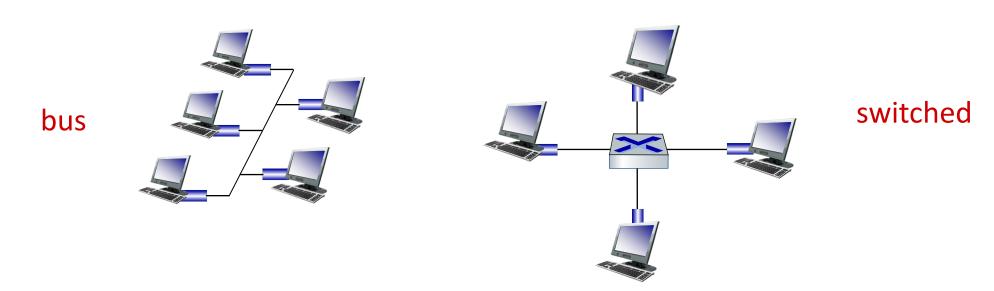
### **Ethernet**

"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)

### 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)



### Ethernet frame structure

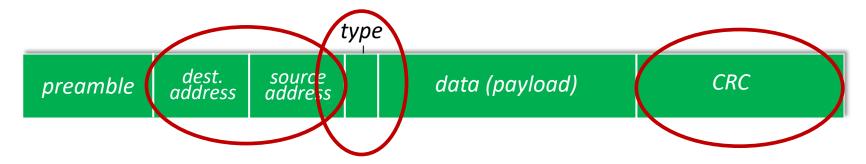
sending interface encapsulates IP datagram (or other network layer protocol packet) in Ethernet frame



#### preamble:

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

### Ethernet frame structure (more)



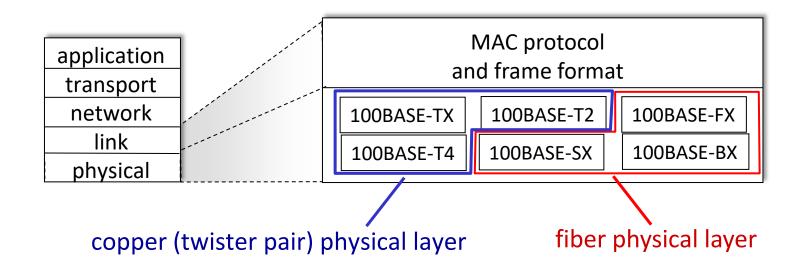
- addresses: 6 byte source, destination MAC addresses
  - if adapter receives frame with matching destination address, or with broadcast address (e.g., ARP packet), it passes data in frame to network layer protocol
  - otherwise, adapter discards frame
- type: indicates higher layer protocol
  - mostly 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



# Link layer, LANs: roadmap

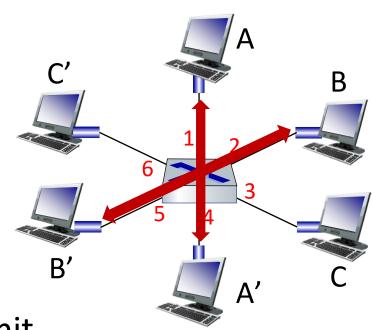
- introduction
- error detection, correction
- multiple access protocols
- LANs
  - addressing, ARP
  - Ethernet
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### Ethernet switch

- 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

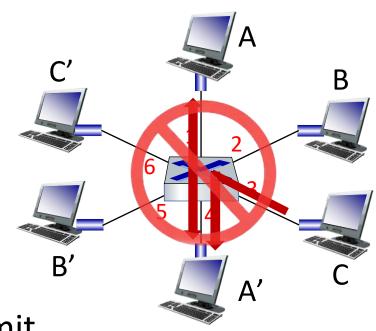
- hosts have dedicated, direct connection to switch
- switches buffer packets
- Ethernet protocol used on each incoming link, so:
  - no collisions; full duplex
  - each link is its own collision domain
- switching: A-to-A' and B-to-B' can transmit simultaneously, without collisions



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

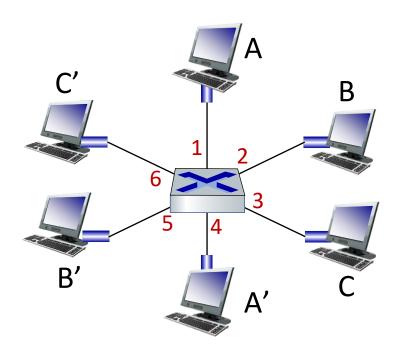
Q: how does switch know A' reachable via interface 4, B' reachable via interface 5?

<u>A:</u> each switch has a switch table, each entry:

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

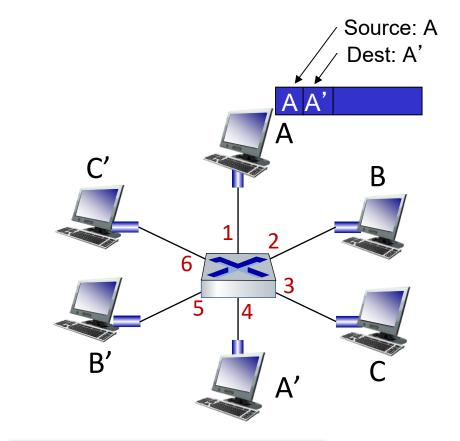
Q: how are entries created, maintained in switch table?

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
Α	1	60

Switch table (initially empty)

# Switch: frame filtering/forwarding

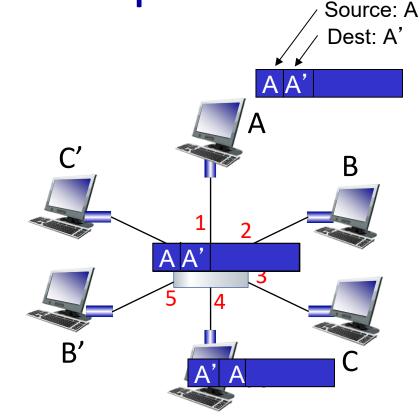
when frame received at switch:

```
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

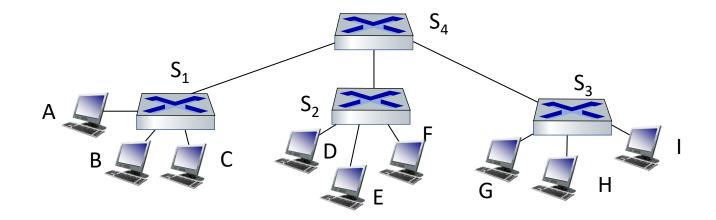


MAC addr	interface	TTL
Α	1	60
A'	4	60

switch table (initially empty)

### Interconnecting switches

self-learning switches can be connected together:

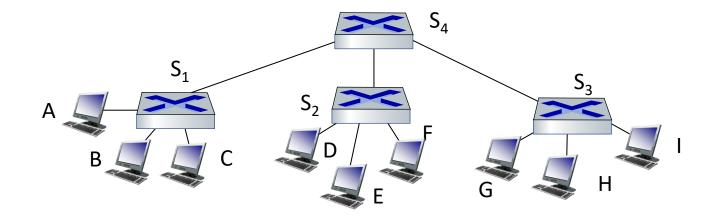


Q: sending from A to G - how does S<sub>1</sub> know to forward frame destined to G via S<sub>4</sub> and S<sub>3</sub>?

<u>A:</u> self learning! (works exactly the same as in single-switch case!)

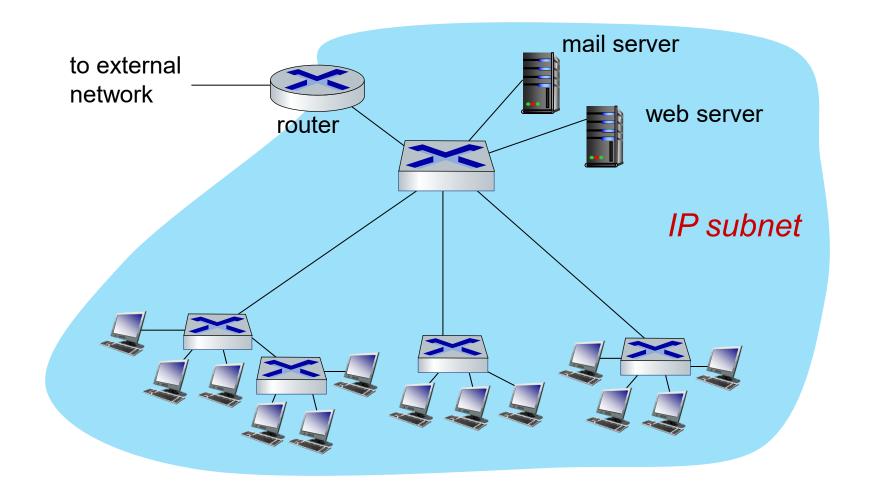
# Self-learning multi-switch example

Suppose C sends frame to I, I responds to C



 $\underline{Q}$ : show switch tables and packet forwarding in  $S_1$ ,  $S_2$ ,  $S_3$ ,  $S_4$ 

## Small institutional network



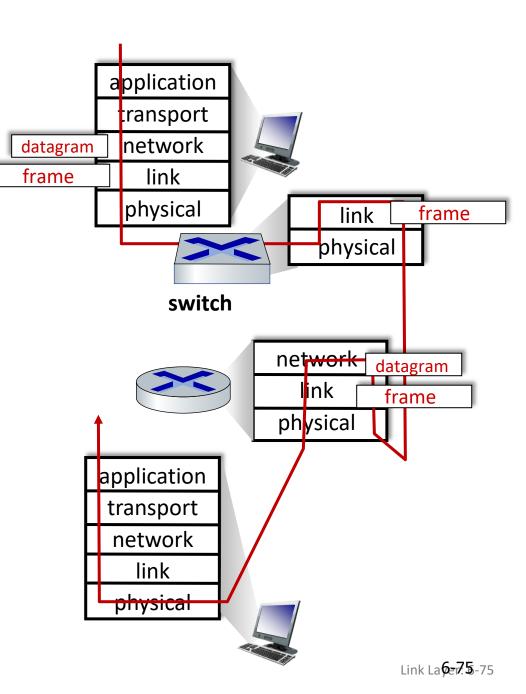
## Switches vs. routers

#### 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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## 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)

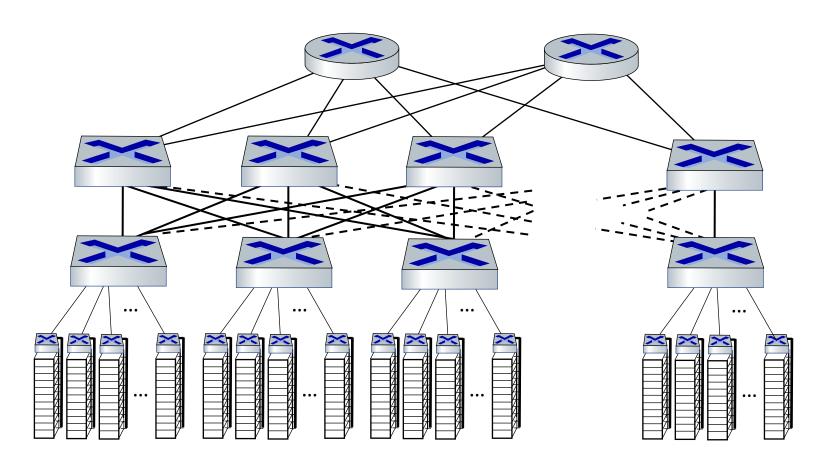
### challenges:

- 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

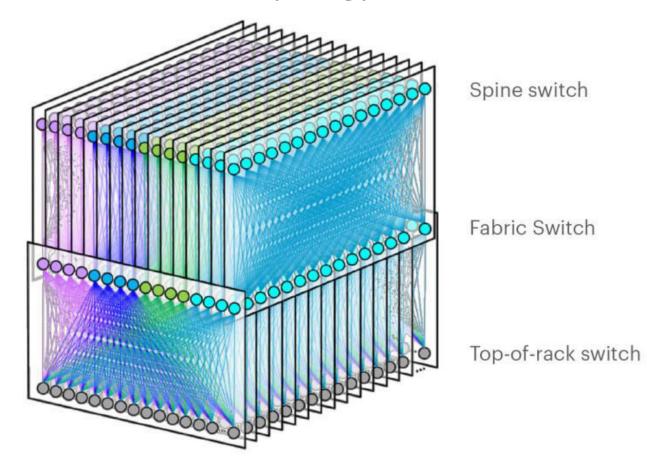
- one per rack
- 40-100Gbps Ethernet to blades

#### Server racks

20- 40 server blades: hosts

## Datacenter networks: network elements

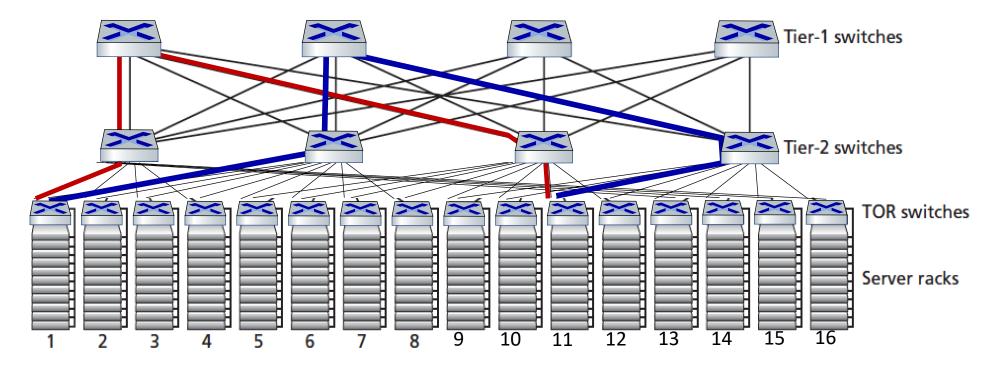
Facebook F16 data center network topology:



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

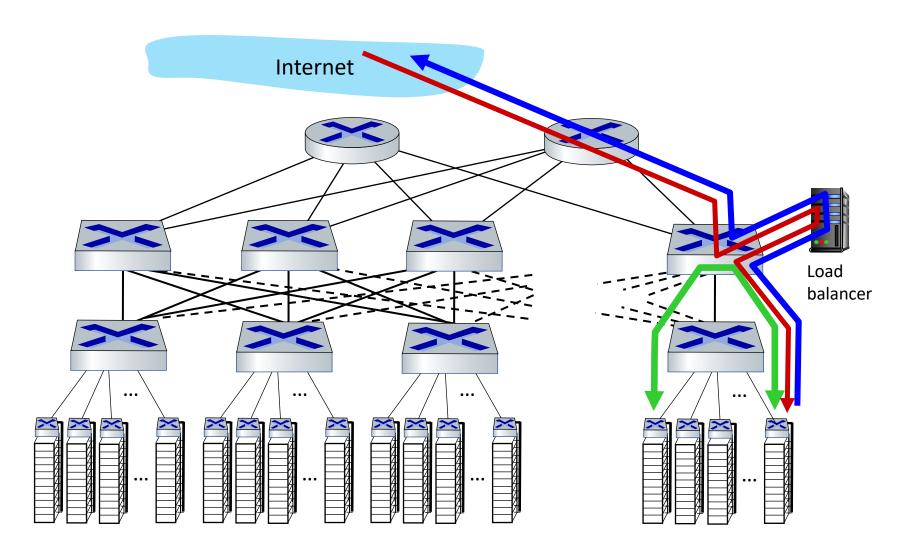
# Datacenter networks: multipath

- 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)

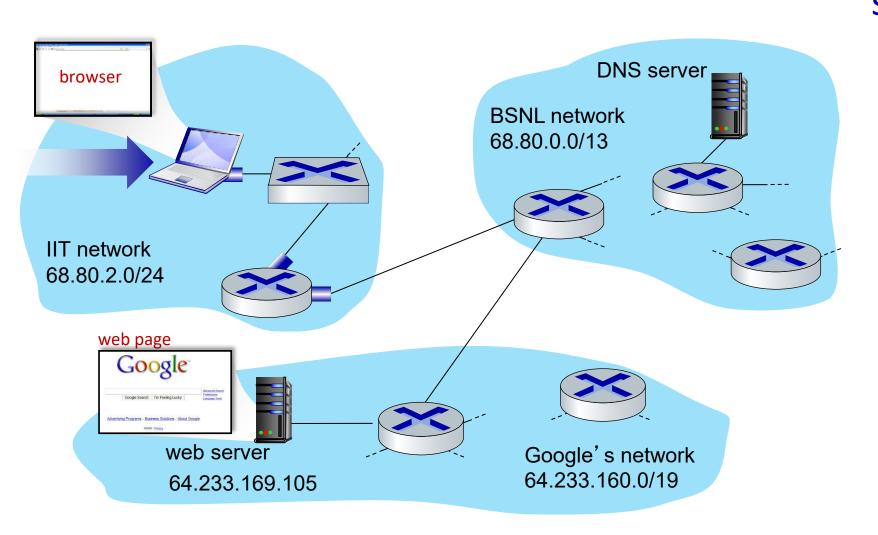
# Link layer, LANs: roadmap

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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

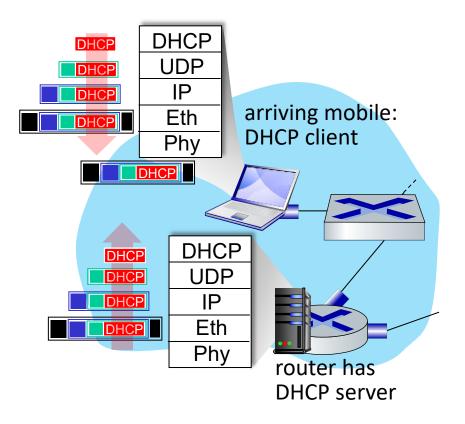


#### scenario:

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

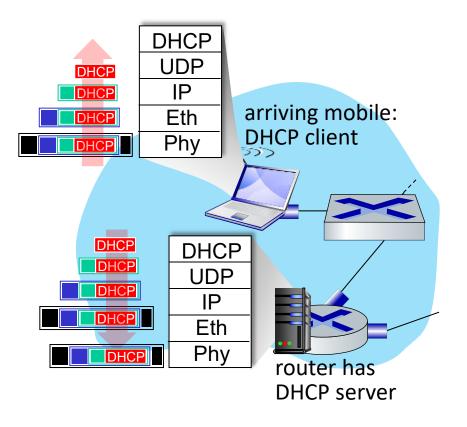


# A day in the life: connecting to the Internet



- 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 demuxed to IP demuxed, UDP demuxed to DHCP

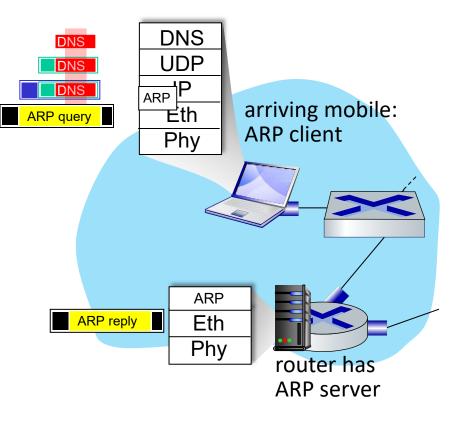
# A day in the life: connecting to the Internet



- 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

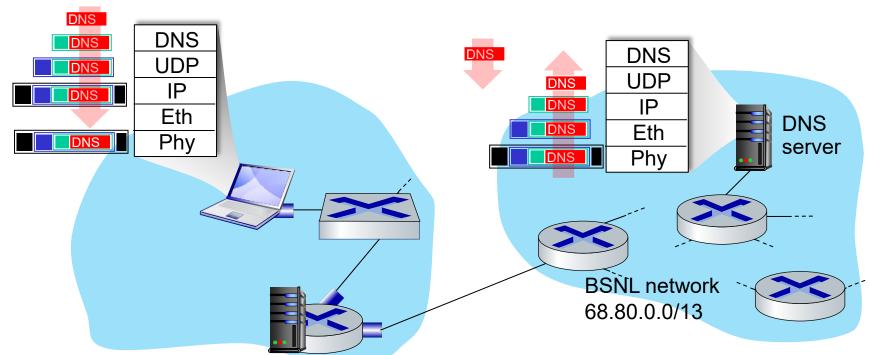
Client now has IP address, knows name & addr of DNS server, IP address of its first-hop router

# 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

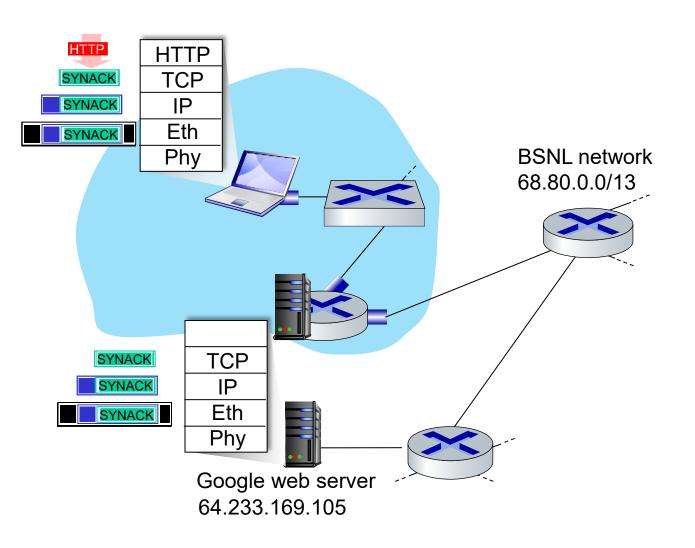


- demuxed to DNS
- DNS replies to client with IP address of www.google.com

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

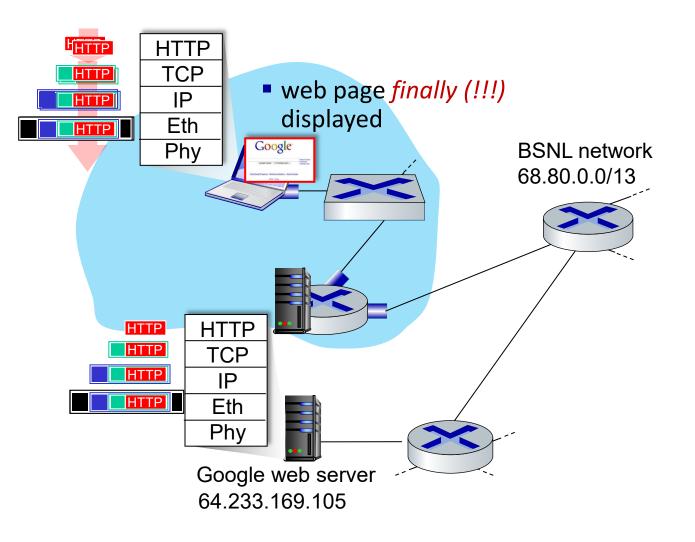
 IP datagram forwarded from campus network into BSNL network, routed (tables created by RIP, OSPF, IS-IS and/or BGP routing protocols) to DNS server

# 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) interdomain routed to web server
- web server responds with TCP SYNACK (step 2 in TCP 3way 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