

# Chapter 6

## The Link Layer and LANs

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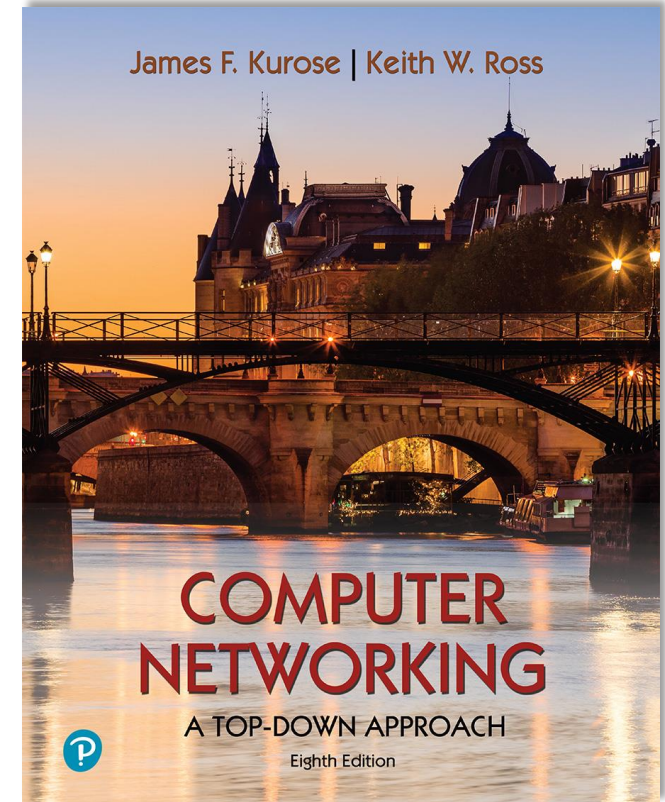
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*Computer Networking: A  
Top-Down Approach*

8<sup>th</sup> 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
- 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



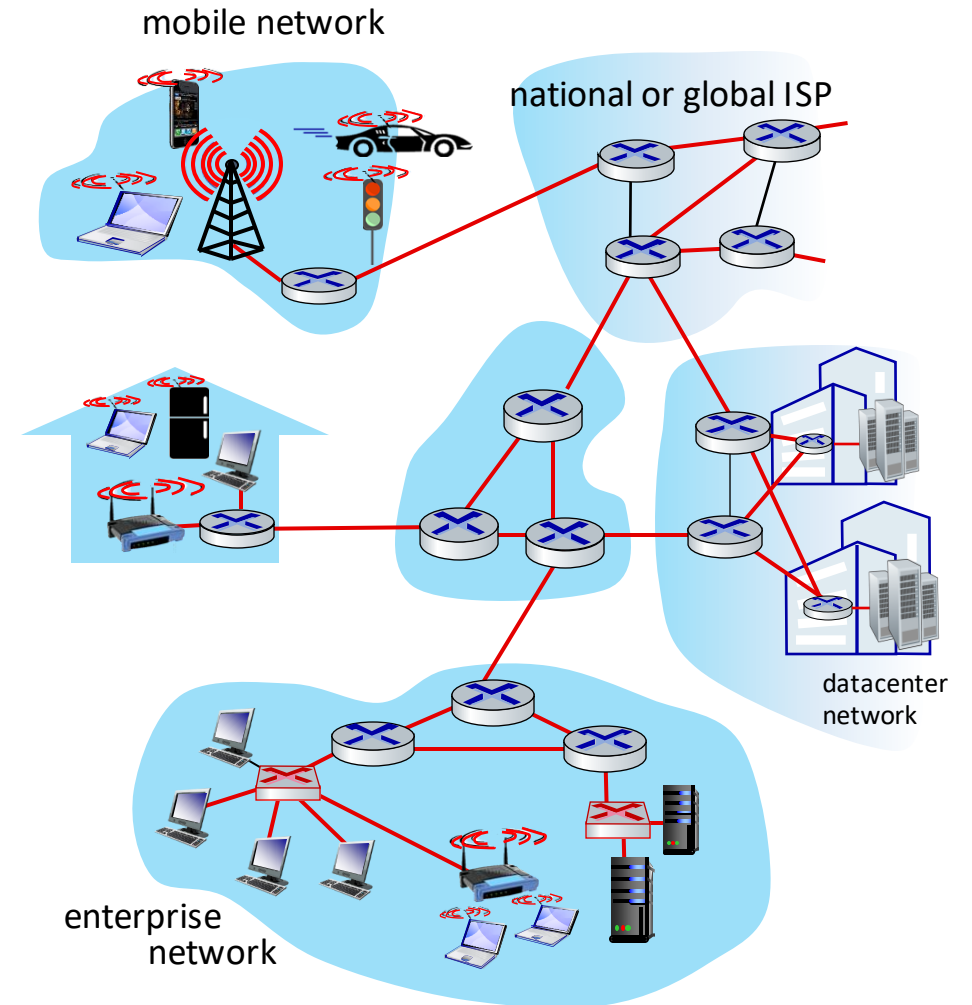
- a day in the life of a web request

# 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

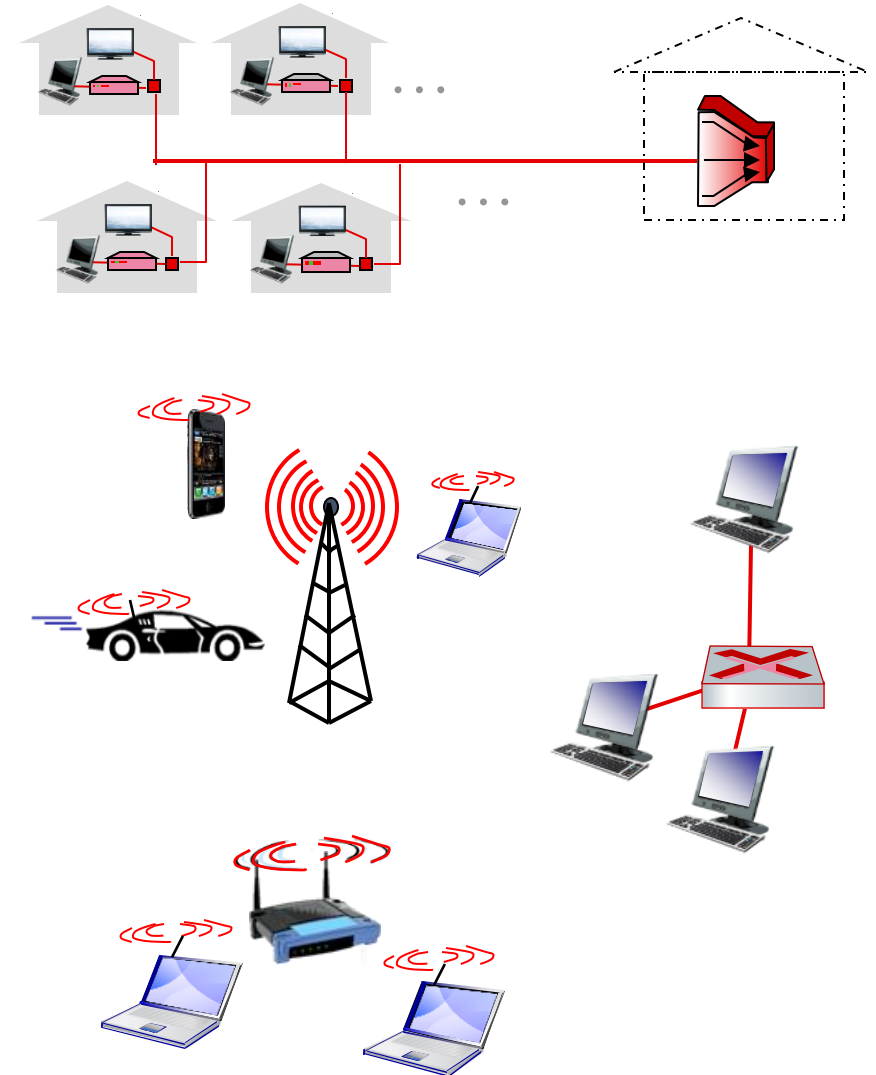
- datagram transferred by different link protocols over different links:
  - e.g., WiFi on first link, Ethernet on next link
- each link protocol provides different services
  - e.g., may or may not provide reliable data transfer over link

## 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**

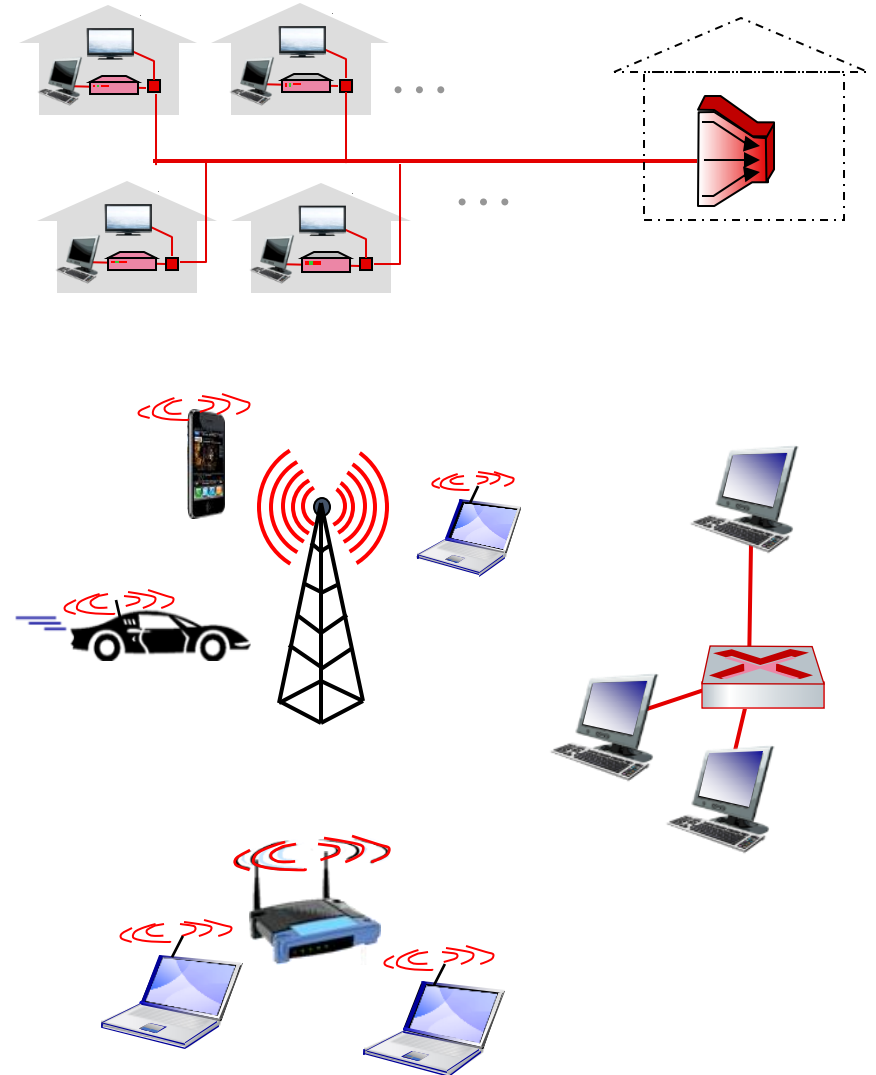
# Link layer: services

- **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)

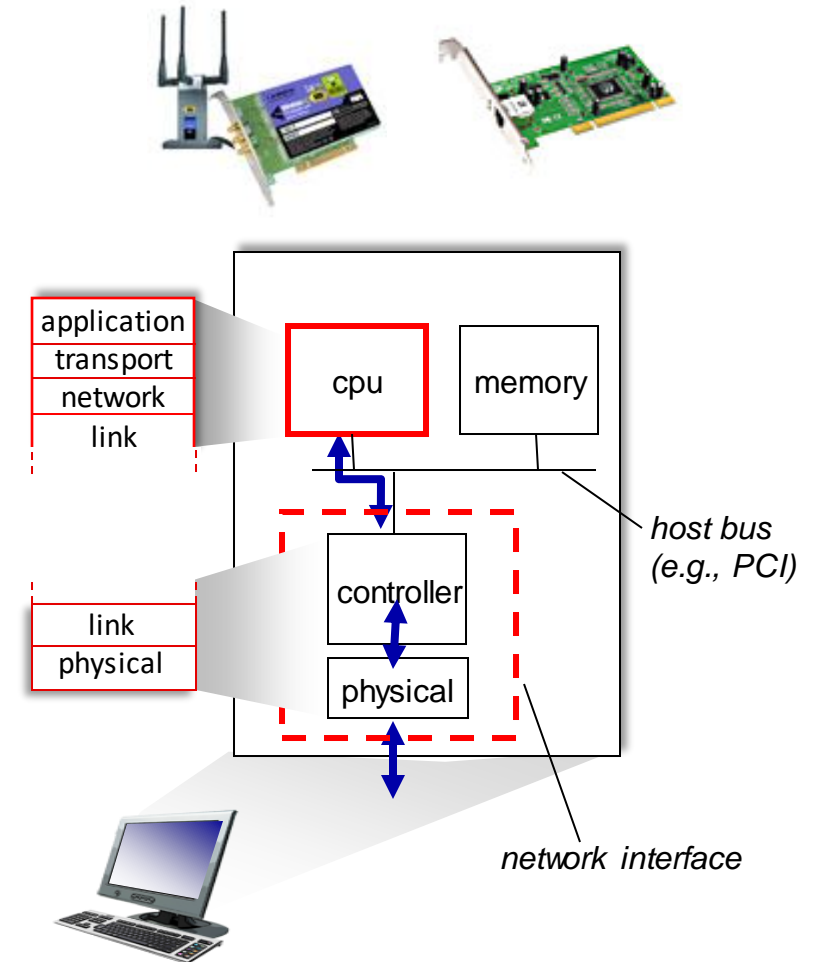
- **flow control:**
  - pacing between adjacent sending and receiving nodes
- **error detection:**
  - errors caused by signal attenuation, noise.
  - receiver detects errors, signals retransmission, or drops frame
- **error correction:**
  - receiver identifies *and corrects* bit error(s) without retransmission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





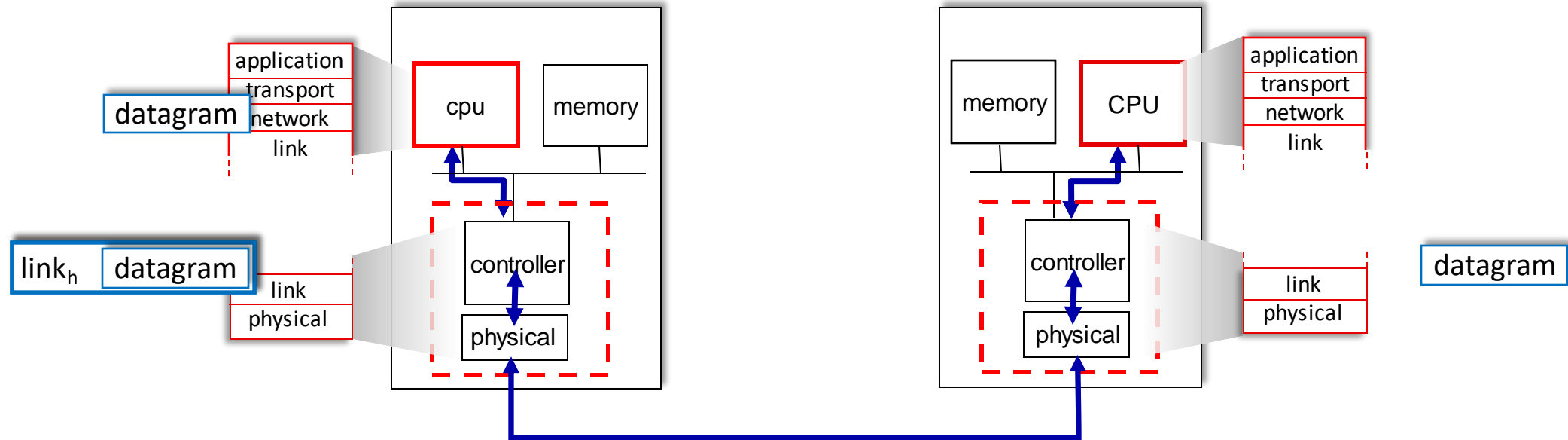
# Where is the link layer implemented?

- 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

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

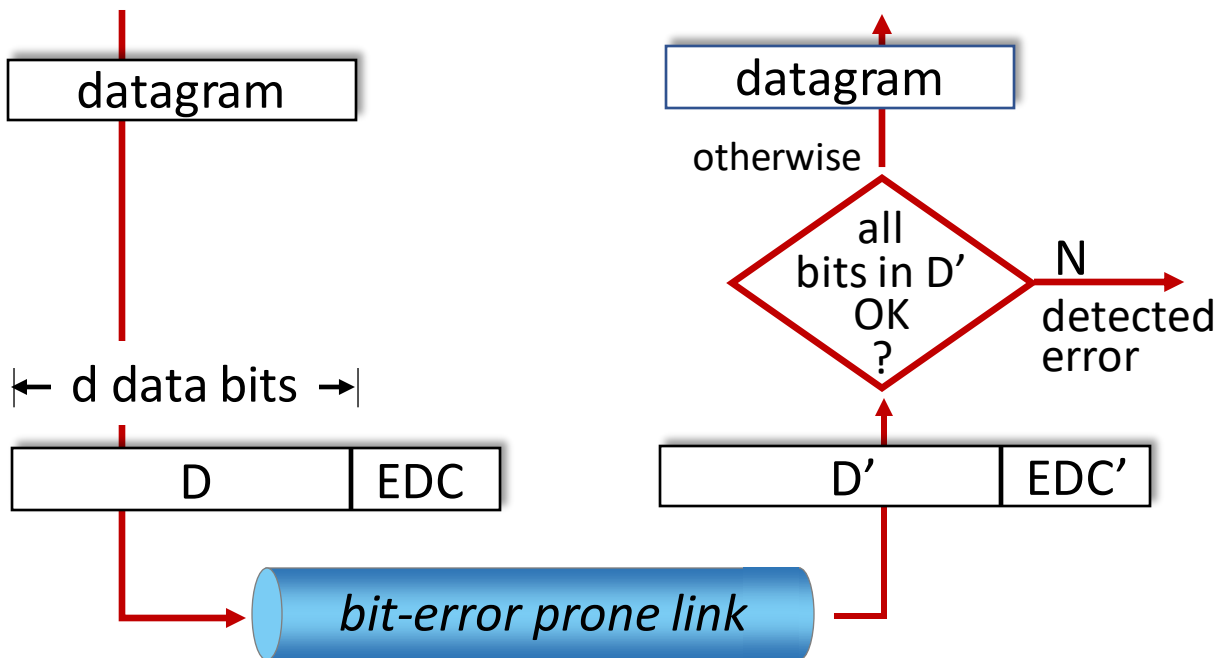


- a day in the life of a web request

# Error detection

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

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



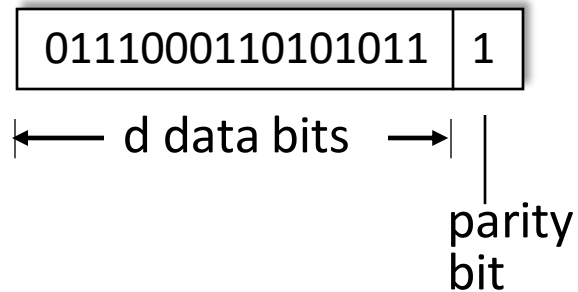
Error detection not 100% reliable!

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

# Parity checking

## single bit parity:

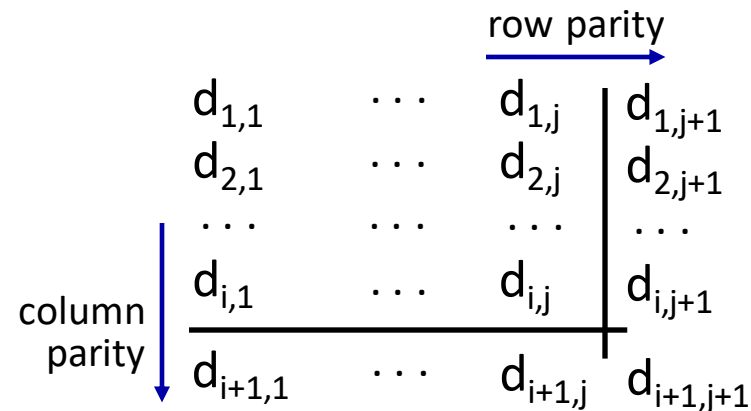
- detect single bit errors



**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:**

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

A red circle highlights the error at row 2, column 2. A red arrow points from the text 'parity error' to the error. Another red arrow points from the text 'parity error' to the error in the row parity column (the 0 in the second row).

\* Check out the online interactive exercises for more examples: [http://gaia.cs.umass.edu/kurose\\_ross/interactive/](http://gaia.cs.umass.edu/kurose_ross/interactive/)

# Internet checksum (review)

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

## sender:

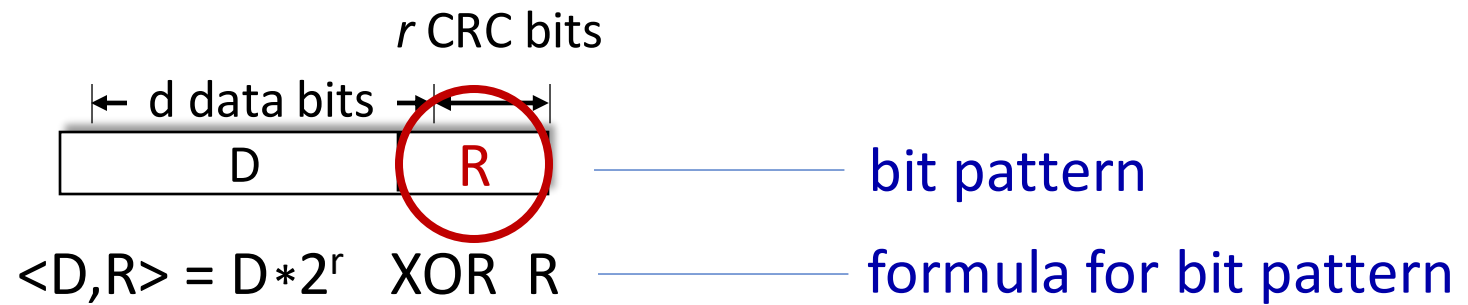
- treat contents of UDP segment (including UDP header fields and IP addresses) as sequence of 16-bit integers
- **checksum:** addition (one's complement sum) of segment content
- checksum value put into UDP checksum field

## 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)



goal: choose  $r$  CRC bits, **R**, such that  $\langle D, R \rangle$  exactly divisible by  $G \pmod{2}$

- receiver knows  $G$ , divides  $\langle D, R \rangle$  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:

$$D \cdot 2^r \text{ XOR } R = nG$$

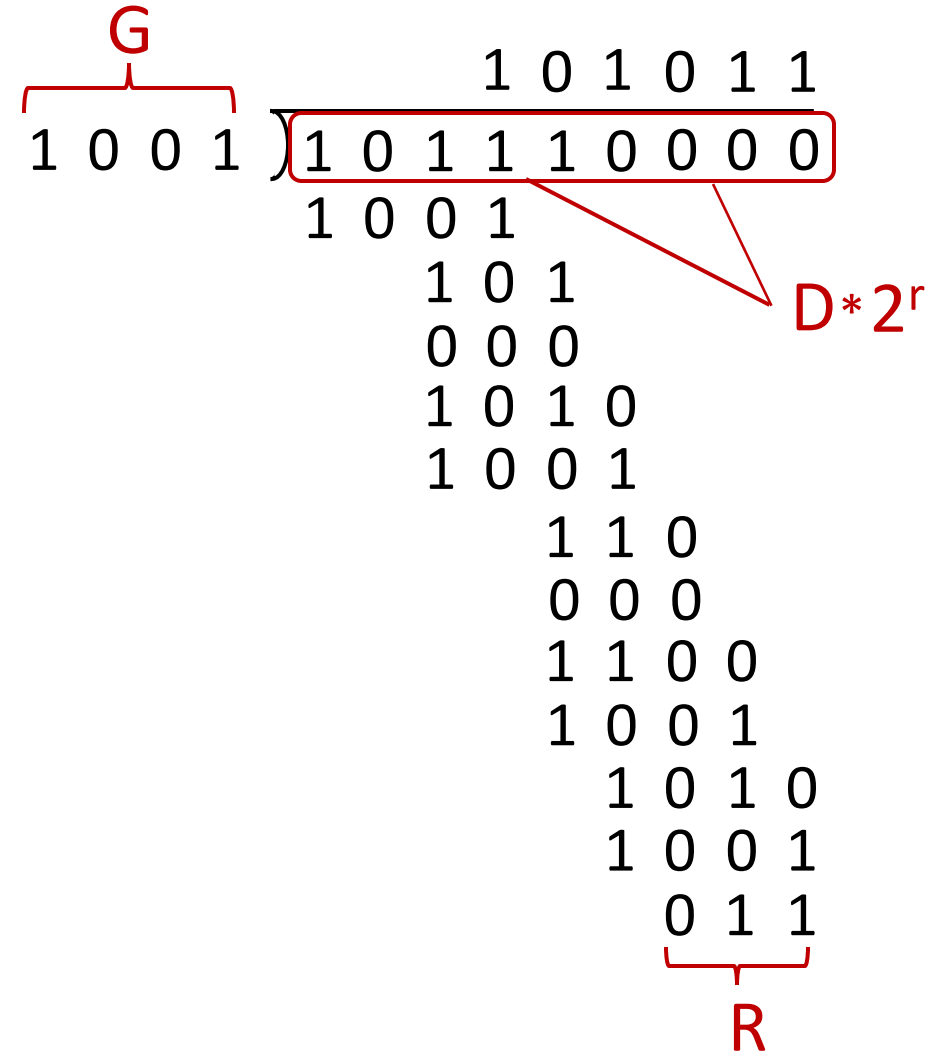
or equivalently:

$$D \cdot 2^r = nG \text{ XOR } R$$

or equivalently:

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

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



\* Check out the online interactive exercises for more examples: [http://gaia.cs.umass.edu/kurose\\_ross/interactive/](http://gaia.cs.umass.edu/kurose_ross/interactive/)



# Link layer, LANs: roadmap

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



- a day in the life of a web request

# 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



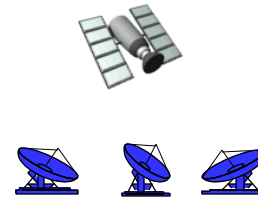
shared wire (e.g.,  
cabled Ethernet)



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

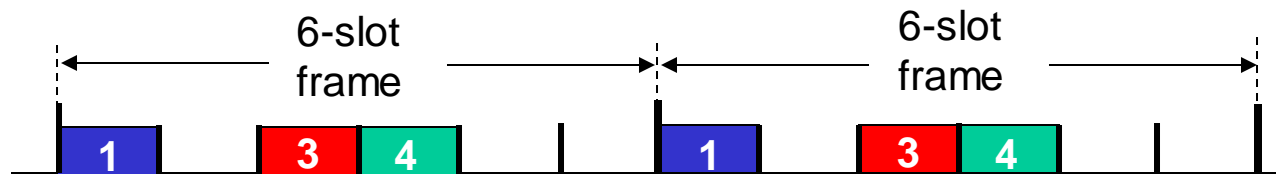
- **“taking turns”**

- nodes take turns, but nodes with more to send can take longer turns

# Channel partitioning MAC protocols: TDMA

## TDMA: time division multiple access

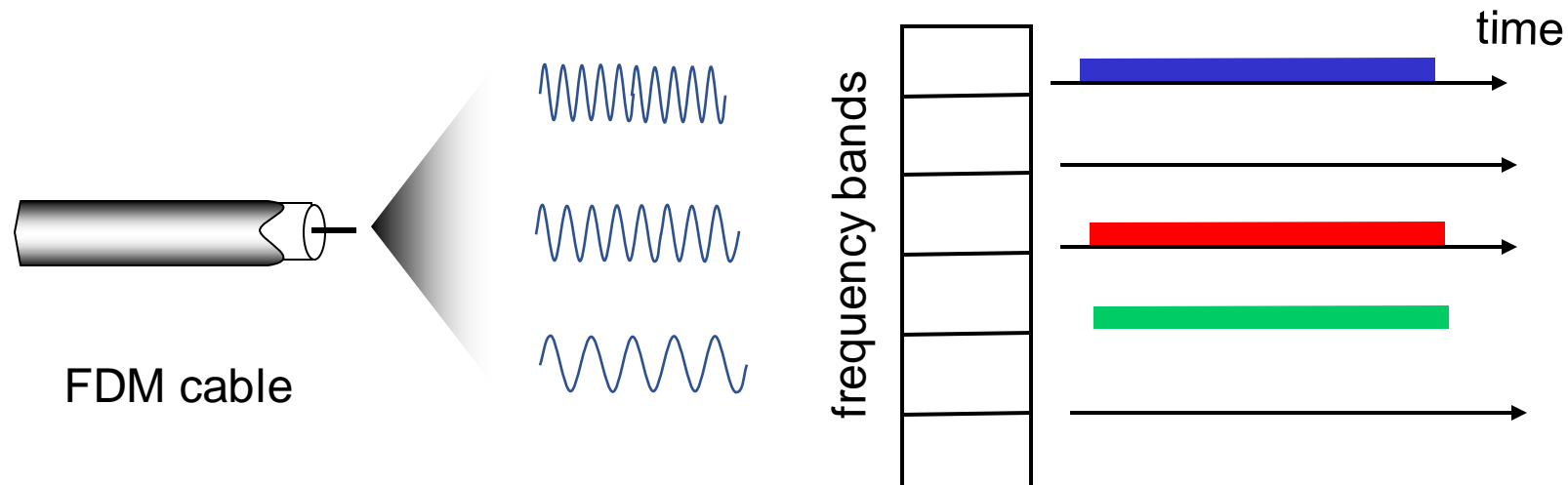
- access to channel in “rounds”
- each station gets fixed length slot (length = packet transmission time) in each round
- unused slots go idle
- example: 6-station LAN, 1,3,4 have packets to send, slots 2,5,6 idle



# 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:

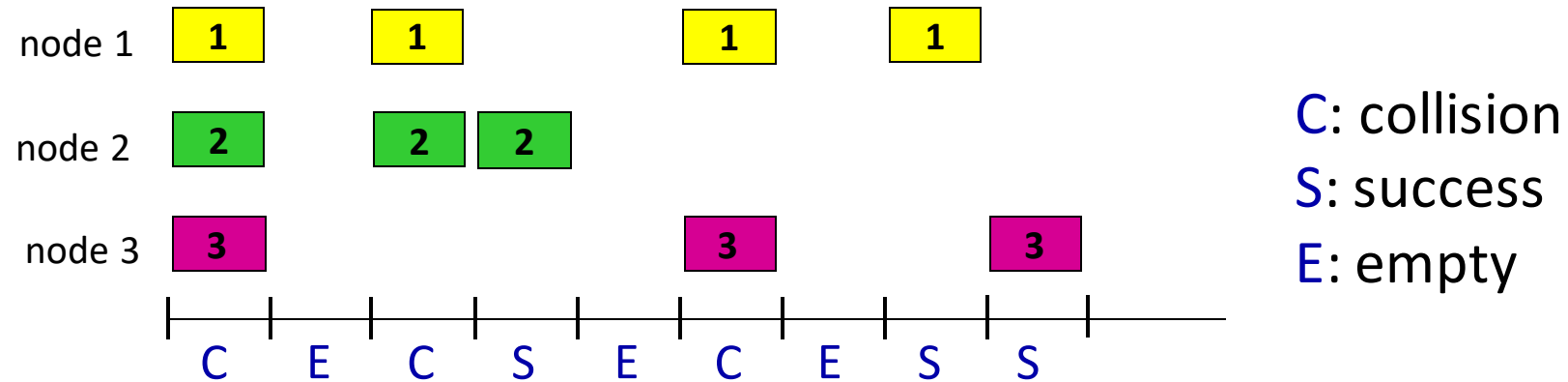
- all frames same size
- time divided into equal size slots (time to transmit 1 frame)
- nodes start to transmit only slot beginning
- nodes are synchronized
- if 2 or more nodes transmit in slot, all nodes detect collision

## 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)

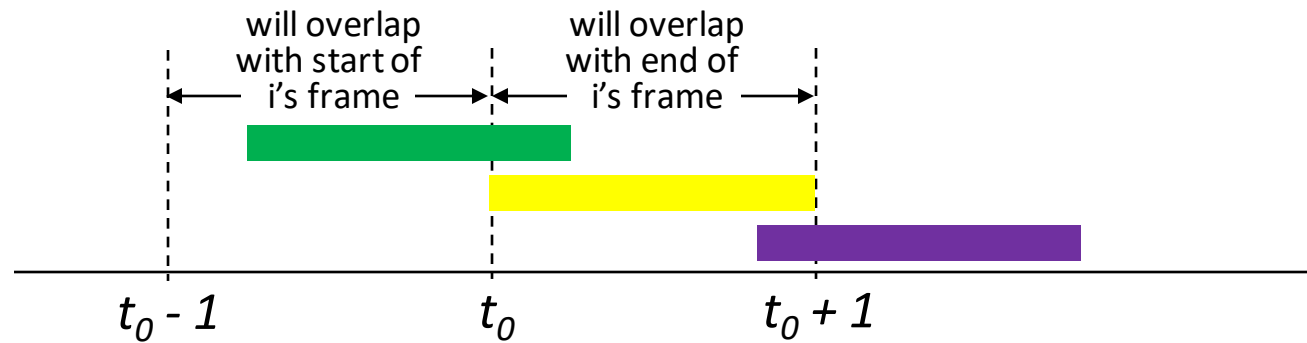
- *suppose:*  $N$  nodes with many frames to send, each transmits in slot with probability  $p$ 
  - prob that given node has success in a slot  $= p(1-p)^{N-1}$
  - prob that *any* node has a success  $= Np(1-p)^{N-1}$
  - max efficiency: find  $p^*$  that maximizes  $Np(1-p)^{N-1}$
  - for many nodes,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

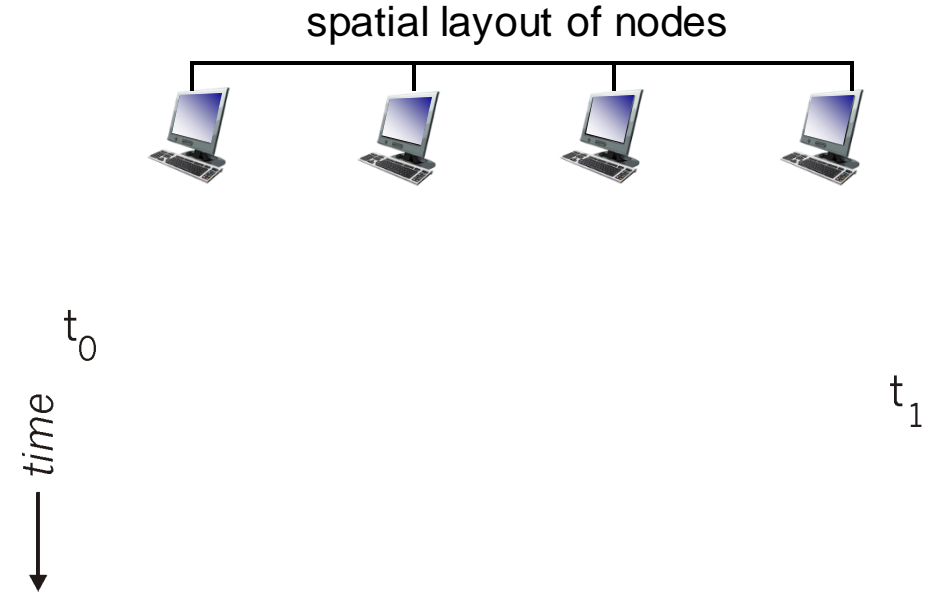
- if channel sensed idle: transmit entire frame
  - if channel sensed busy: defer transmission
- human analogy: don't interrupt others!

**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

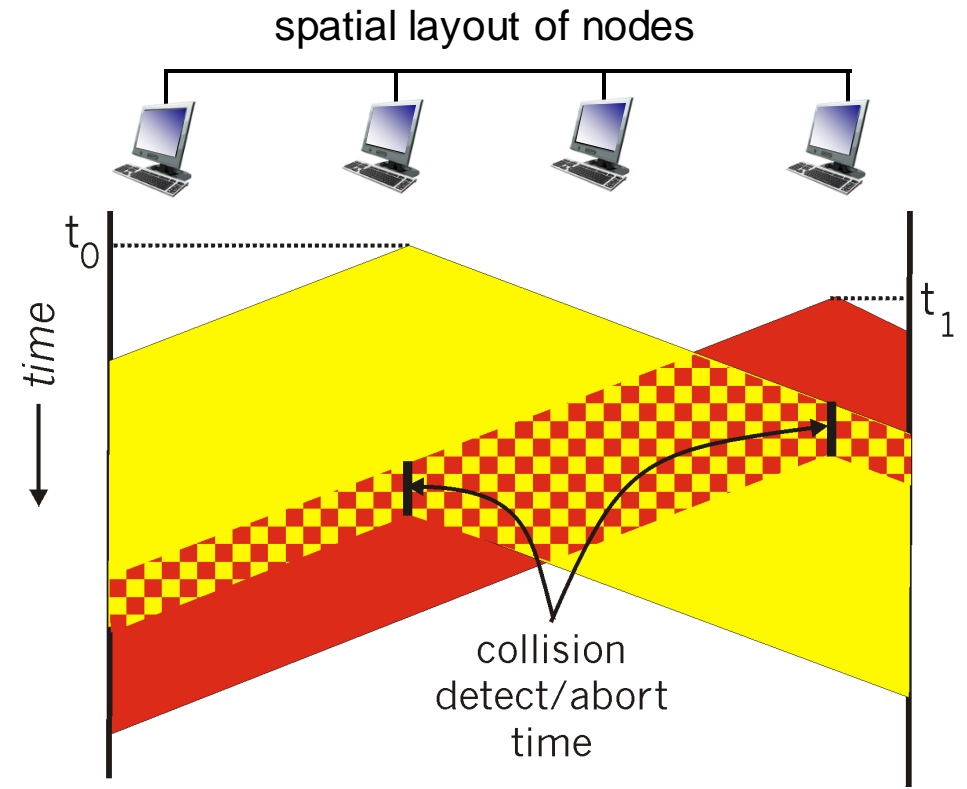
- collisions *can* still occur with carrier sensing:
  - propagation delay means two nodes may not hear each other's just-started transmission
- **collision**: entire packet transmission time wasted
  - distance & propagation delay play role in determining collision probability





# 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  $\{0, 1, 2, \dots, 2^m - 1\}$ . NIC waits  $K \cdot 512$  bit times, returns to Step 2
  - more collisions: longer backoff interval

# CSMA/CD efficiency

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

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

- efficiency goes to 1
  - as  $t_{\text{prop}}$  goes to 0
  - as  $t_{\text{trans}}$  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

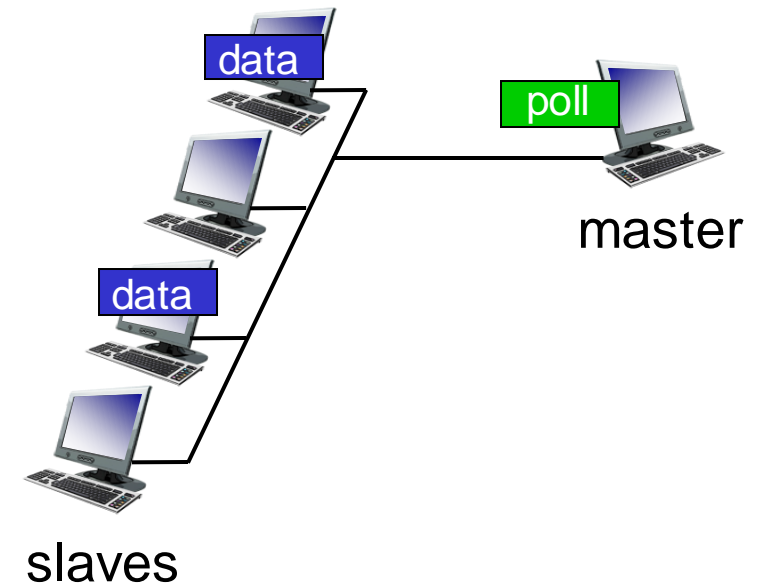
## “taking turns” protocols

- look for best of both worlds!

# “Taking turns” MAC protocols

## polling:

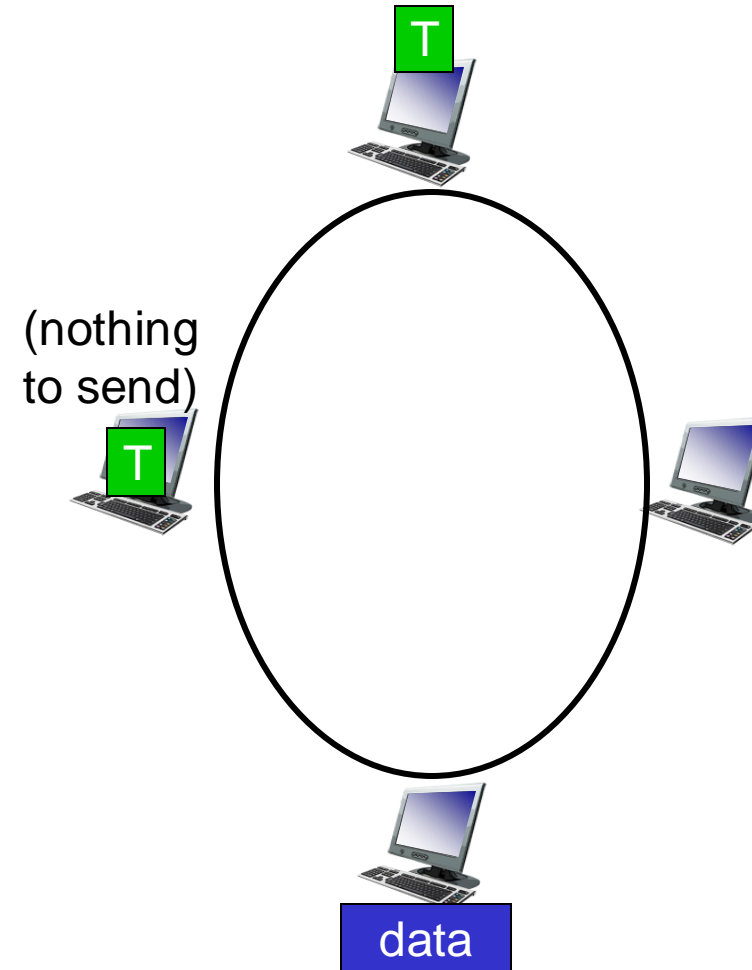
- master node “invites” other nodes to transmit in turn
- typically used with “dumb” devices
- concerns:
  - polling overhead
  - latency
  - single point of failure (master)



# “Taking turns” MAC protocols

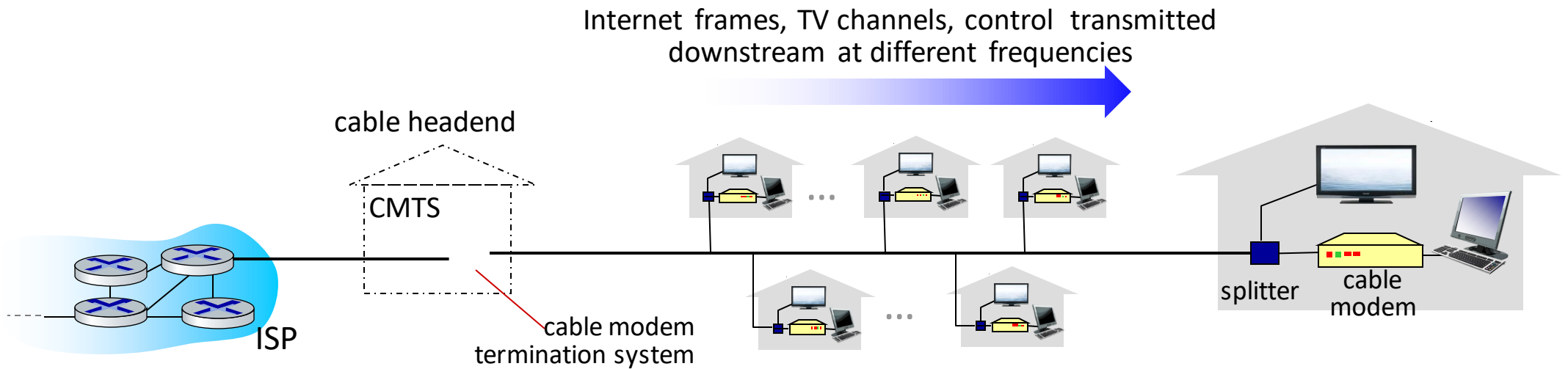
## token passing:

- 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!

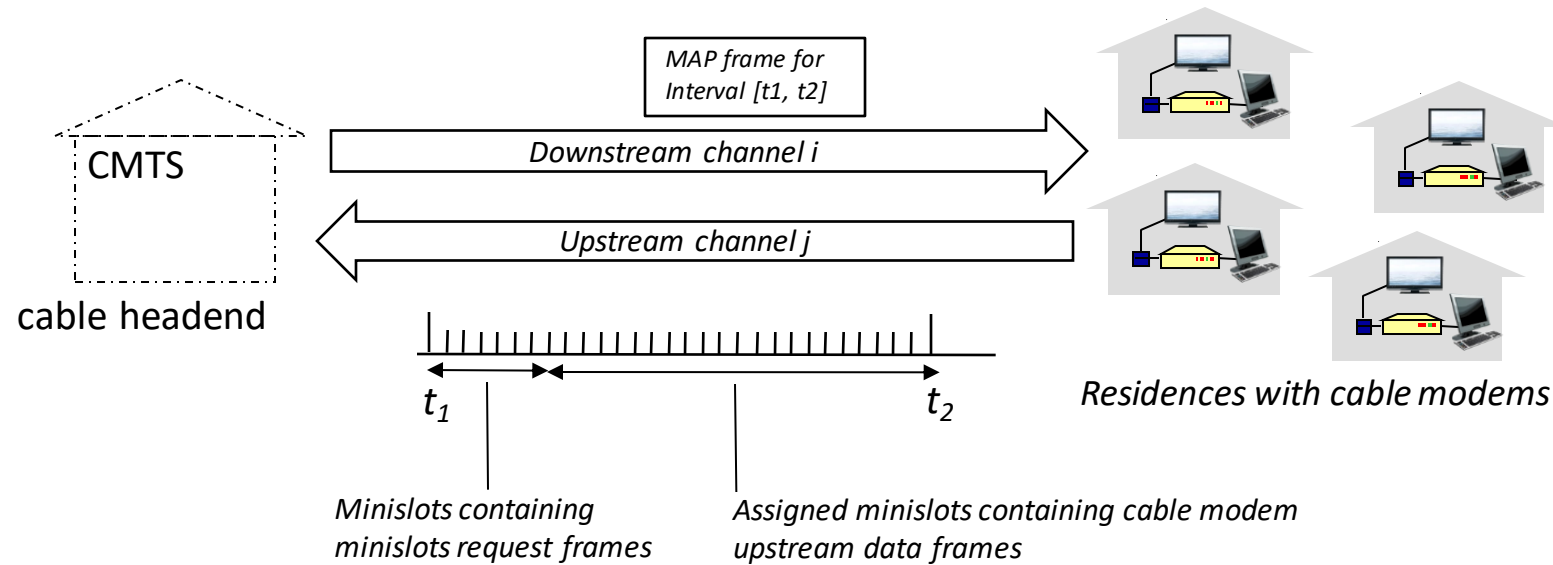


- **multiple** downstream (broadcast) FDM channels: up to 1.6 Gbps/channel
  - single CMTS transmits into channels
- **multiple** upstream channels (up to 1 Gbps/channel)
  - **multiple access**: all users contend (random access) for certain upstream channel time slots; others assigned TDM





# Cable access network:



## DOCSIS: data over cable service interface specification

- 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

# 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

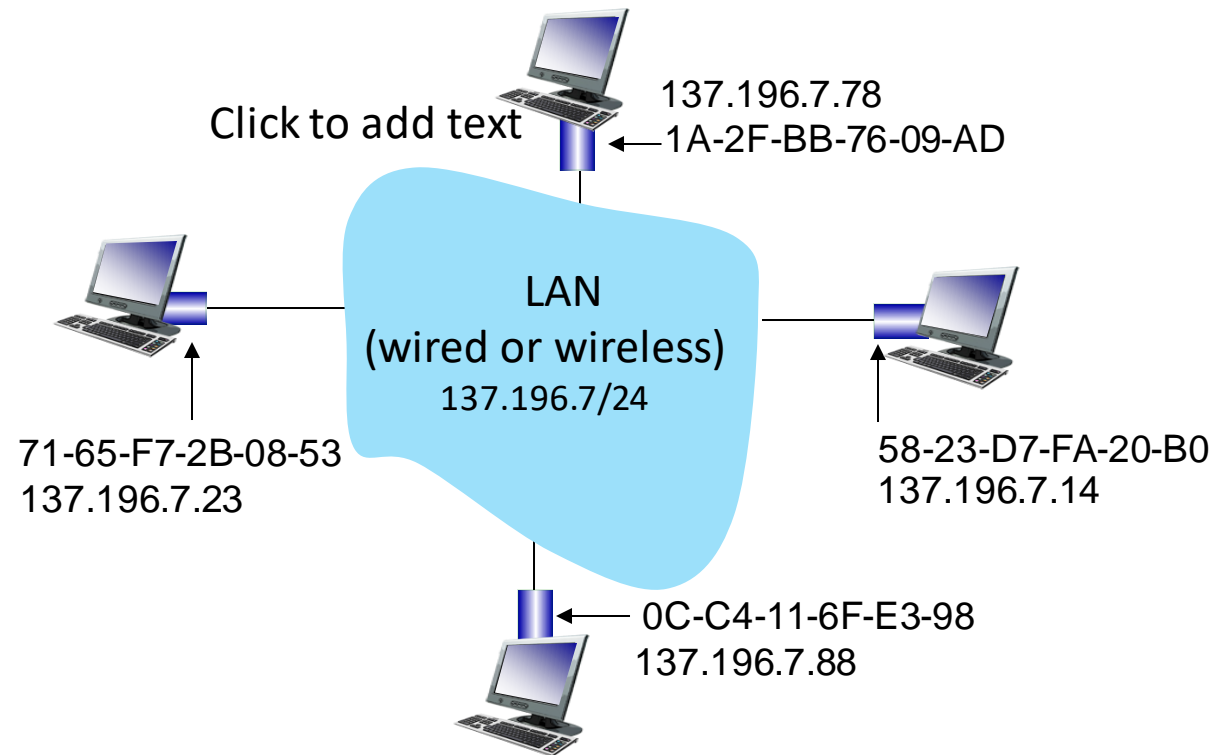
# MAC addresses

- 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)

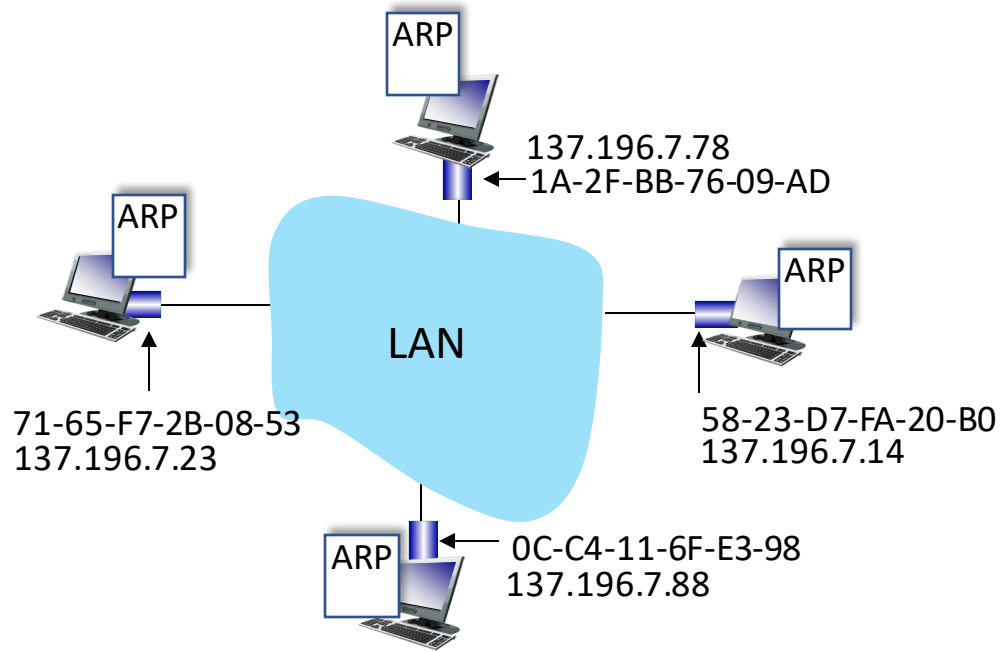


# MAC addresses

- 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

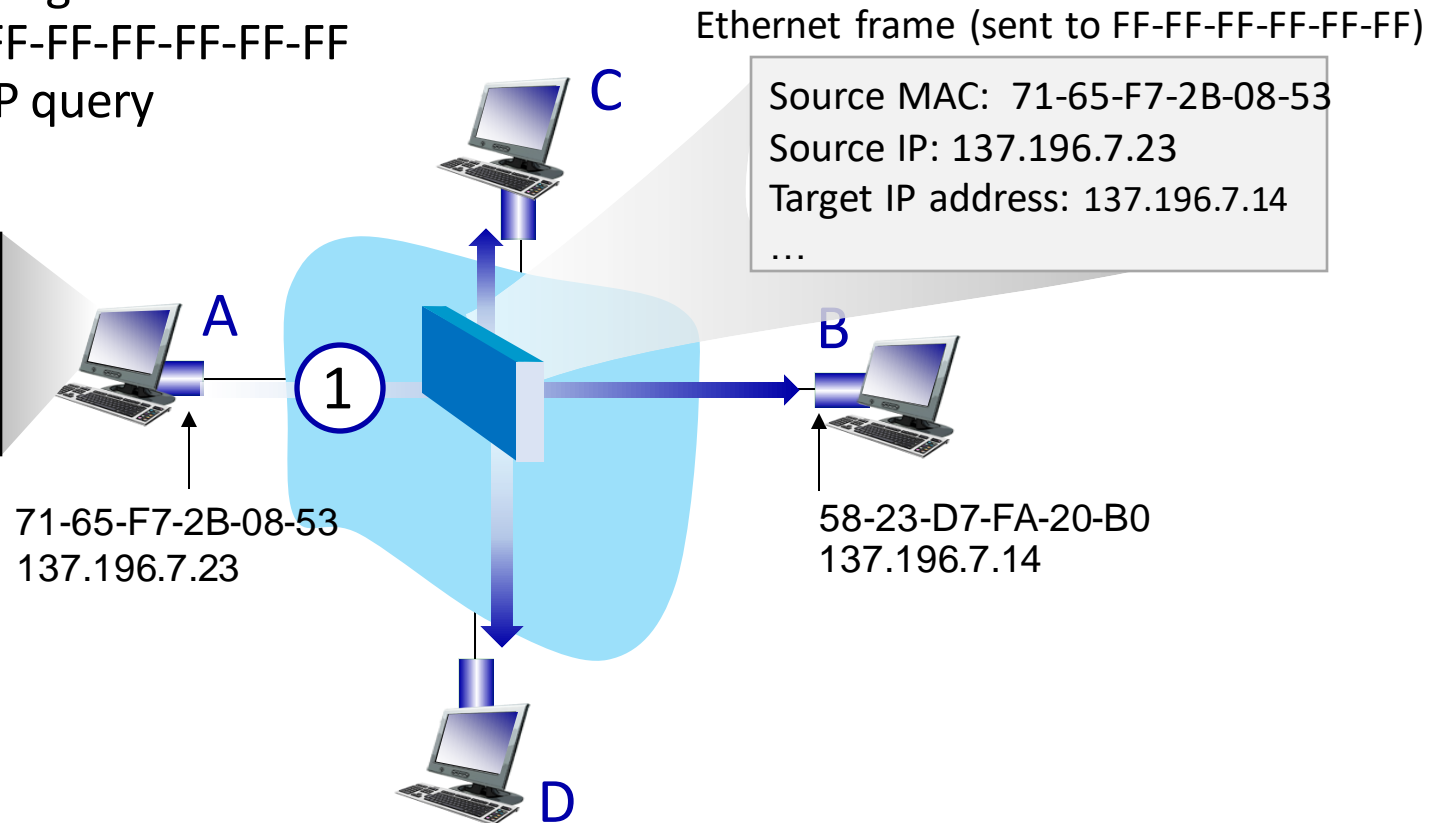
- B's MAC address not in A's ARP table, so A uses ARP to find B's MAC address

A broadcasts ARP query, containing B's IP addr

- ①
- 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

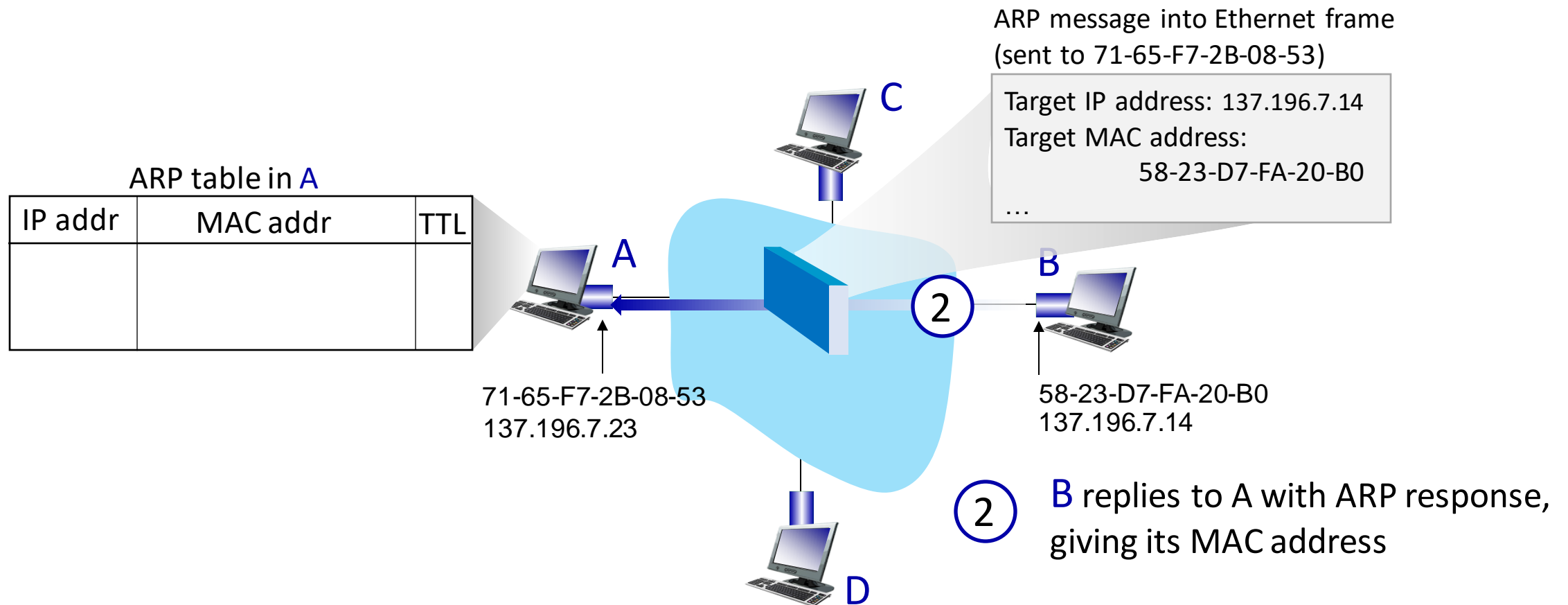




# ARP protocol in action

example: A wants to send datagram to B

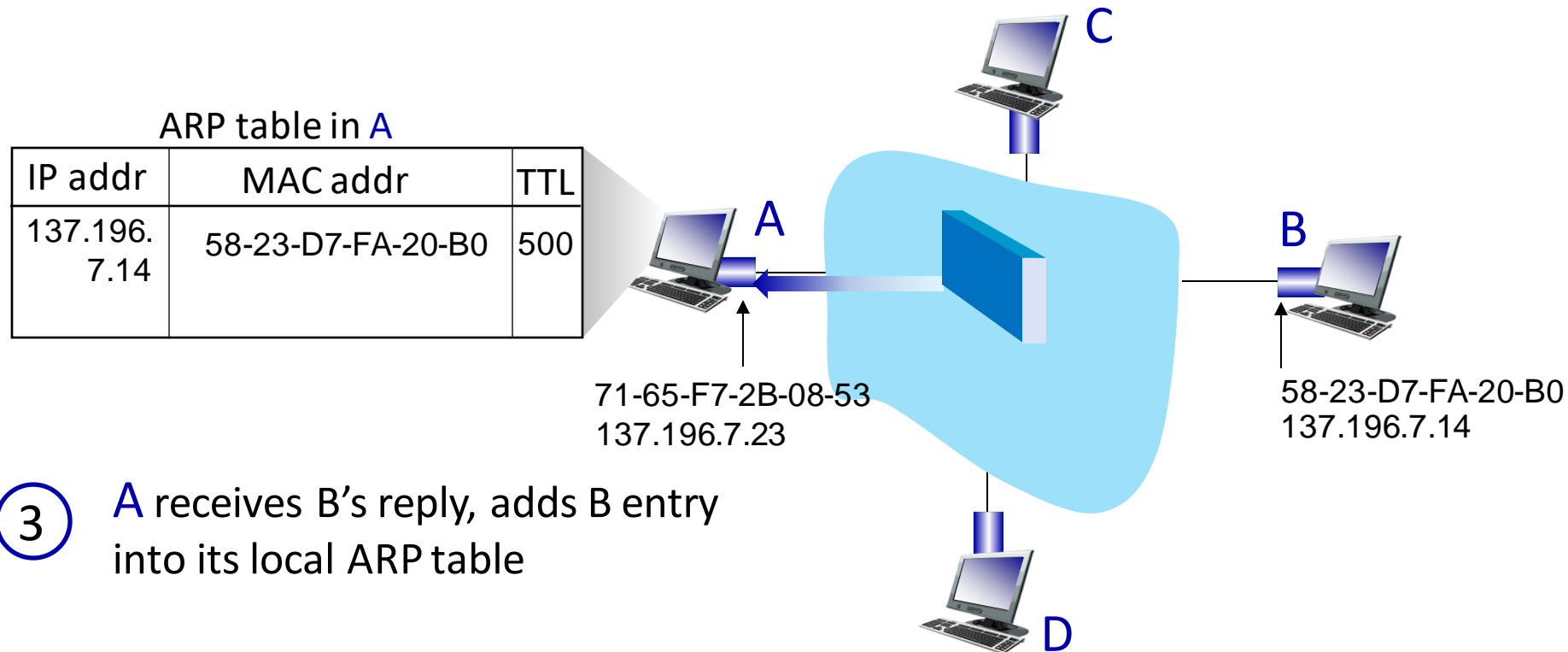
- B's MAC address not in A's ARP table, so A uses ARP to find B's MAC address



# ARP protocol in action

example: A wants to send datagram to B

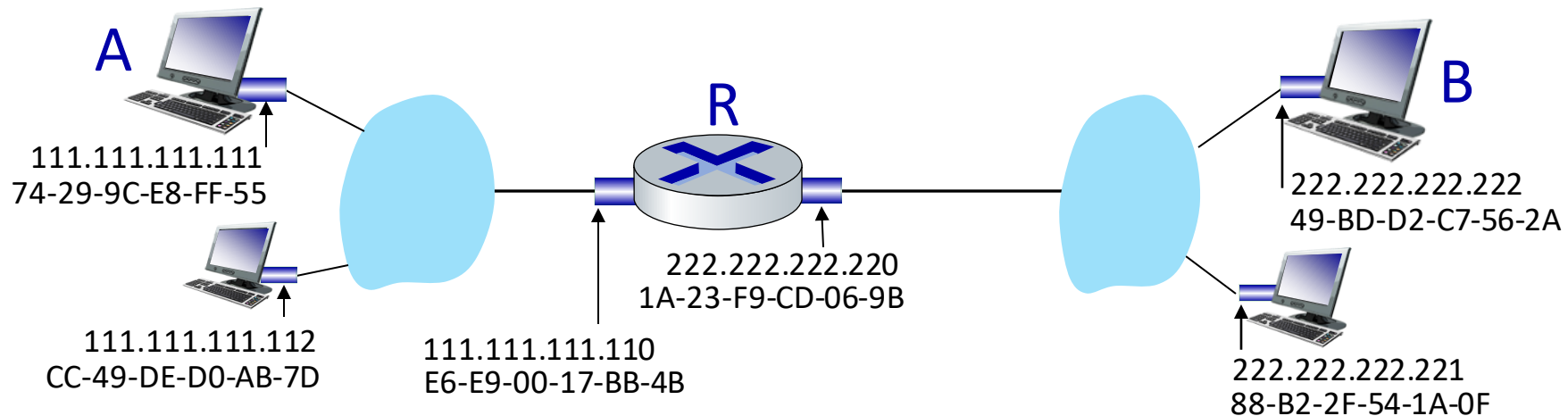
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# Routing to another subnet: addressing

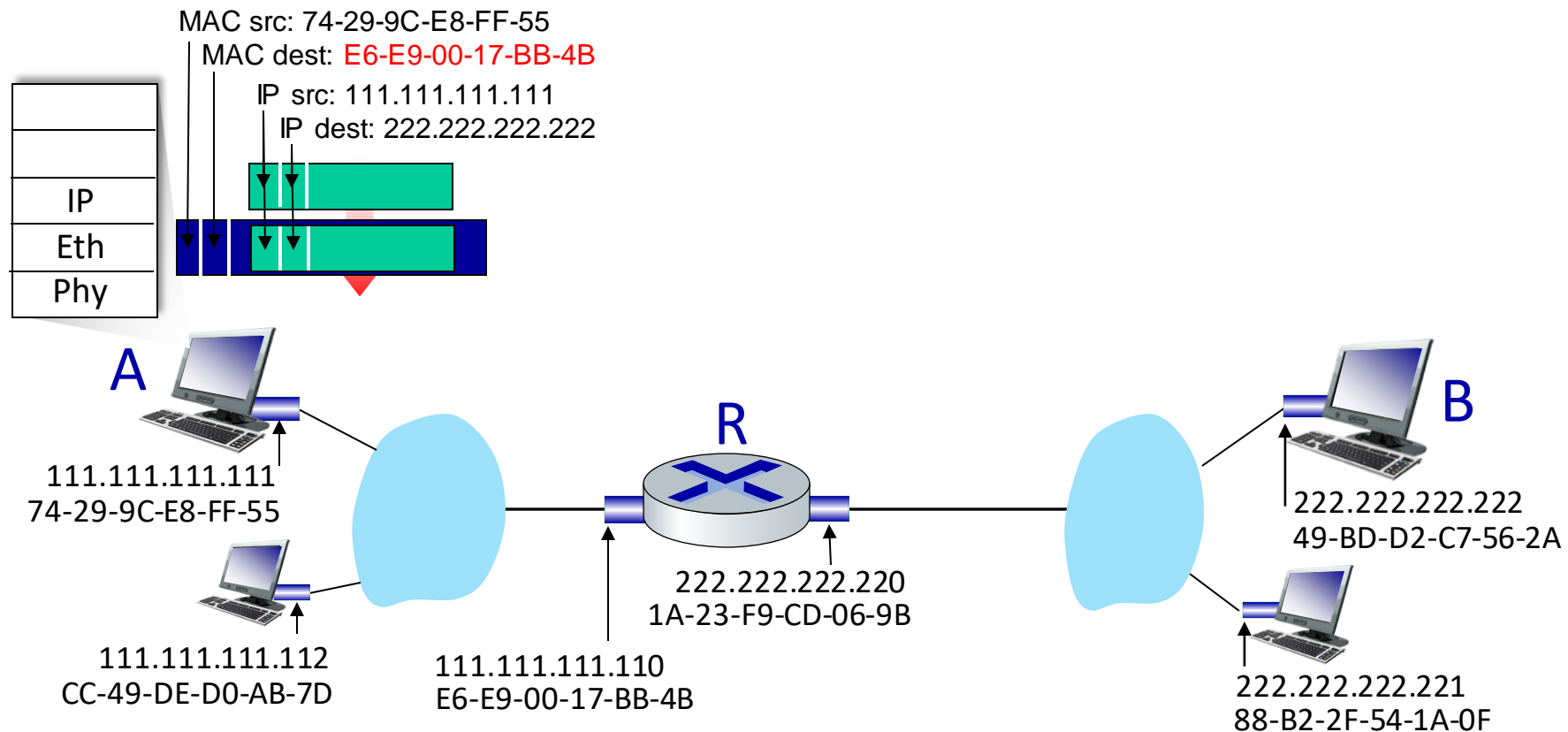
walkthrough: sending a datagram from *A* to *B* via *R*

- 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?)



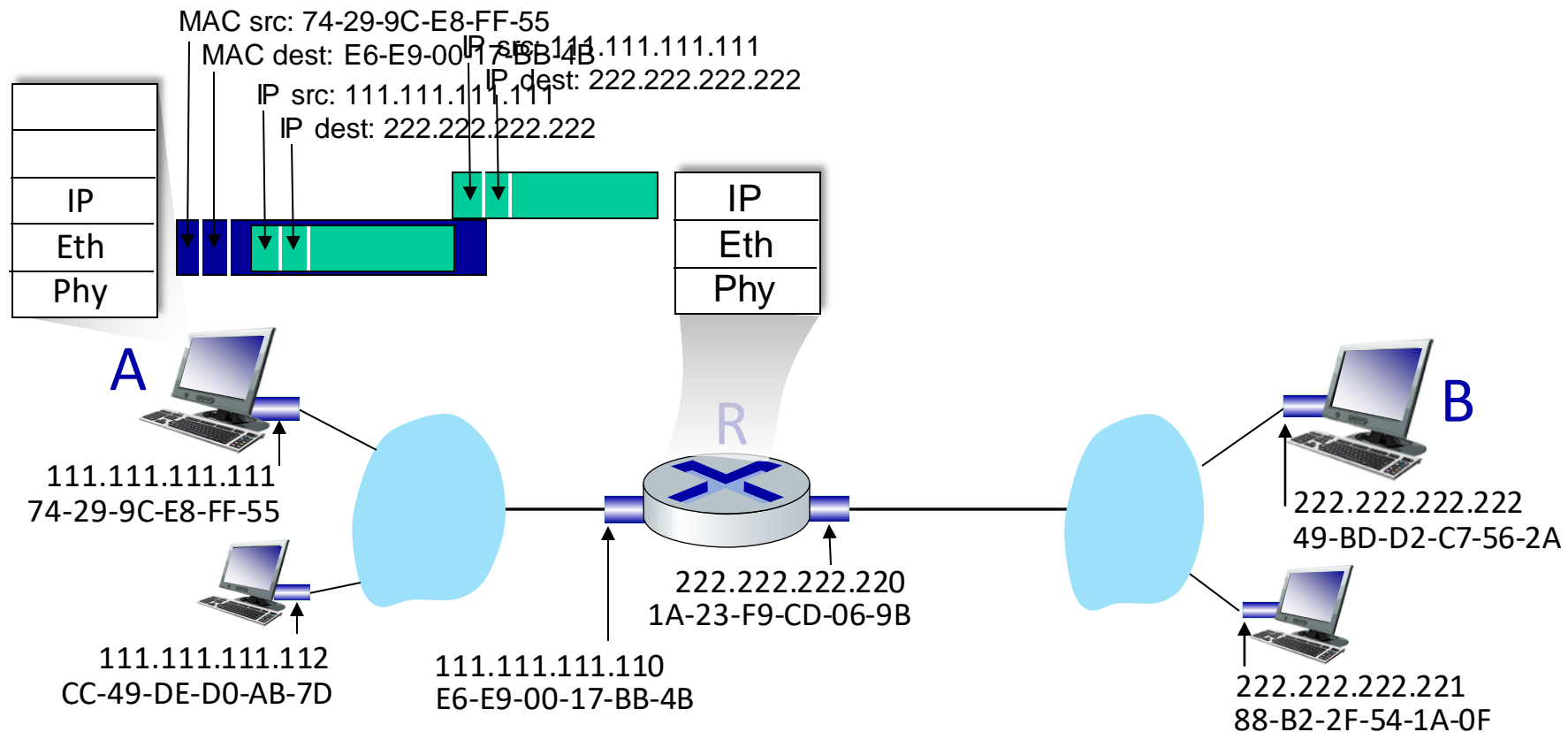
# Routing to another subnet: addressing

- 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



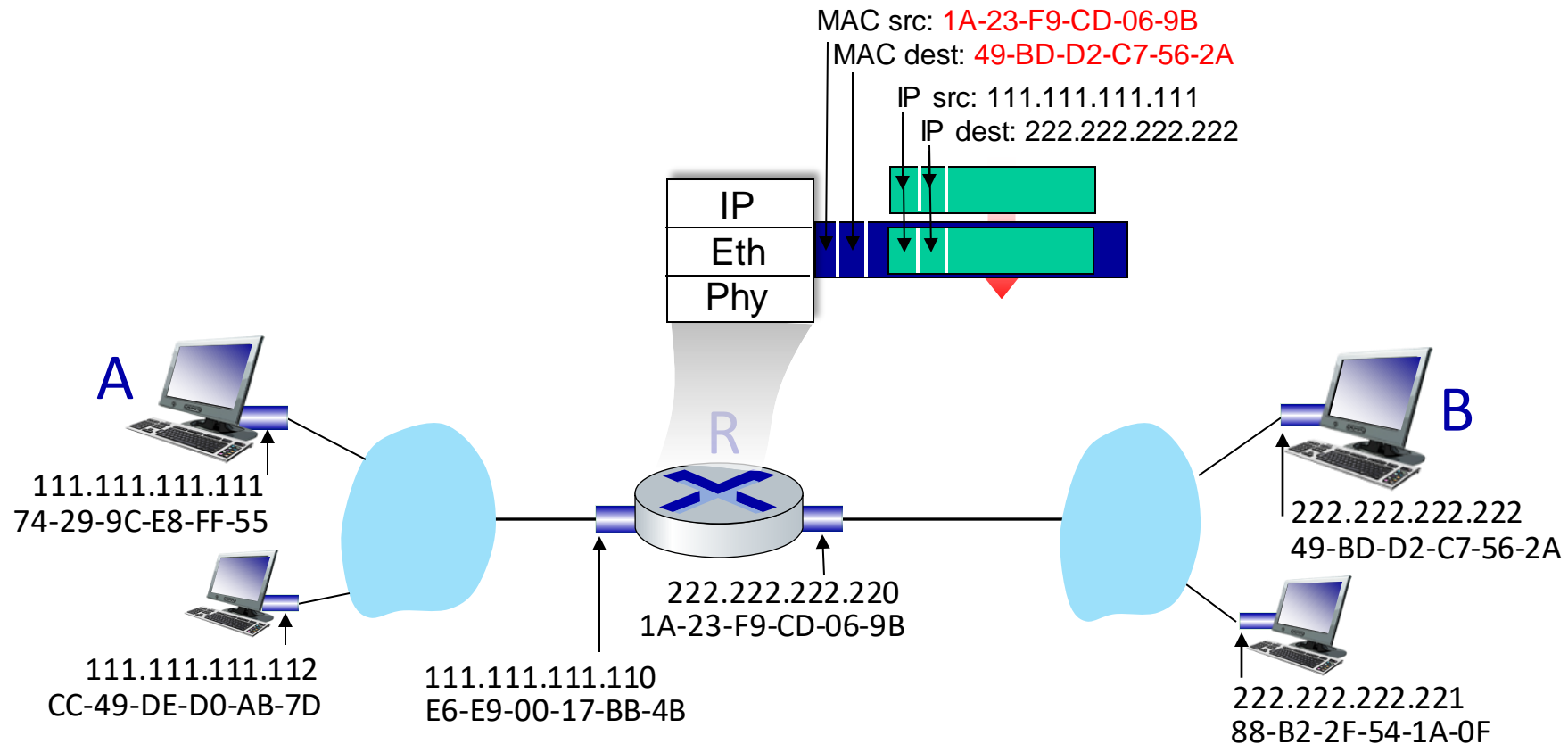
# Routing to another subnet: addressing

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



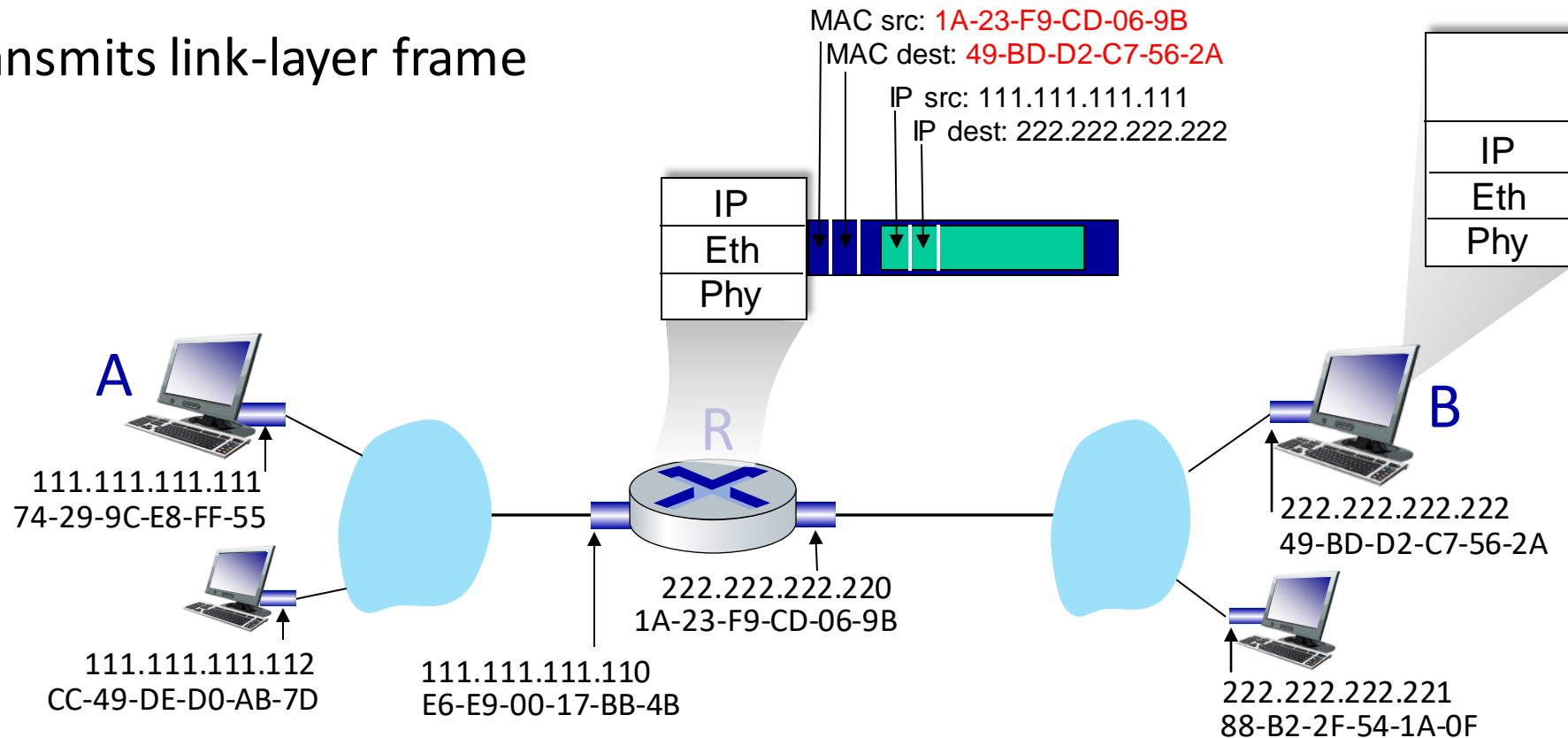
# Routing to another subnet: addressing

- 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



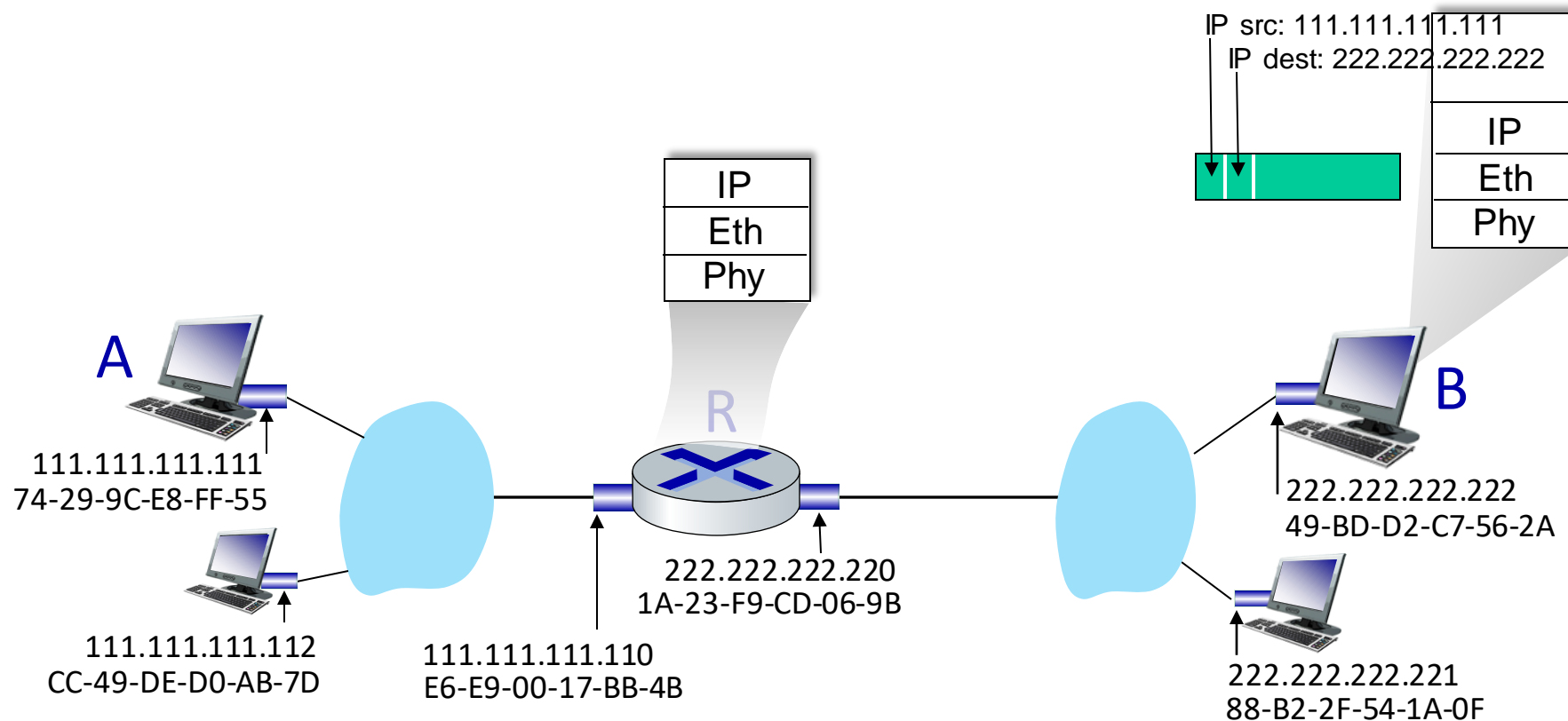
# Routing to another subnet: addressing

- 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
- multiple access protocols
- **LANs**
  - addressing, ARP
  - **Ethernet**
  - switches
  - VLANs
- link virtualization: MPLS
- data center networking

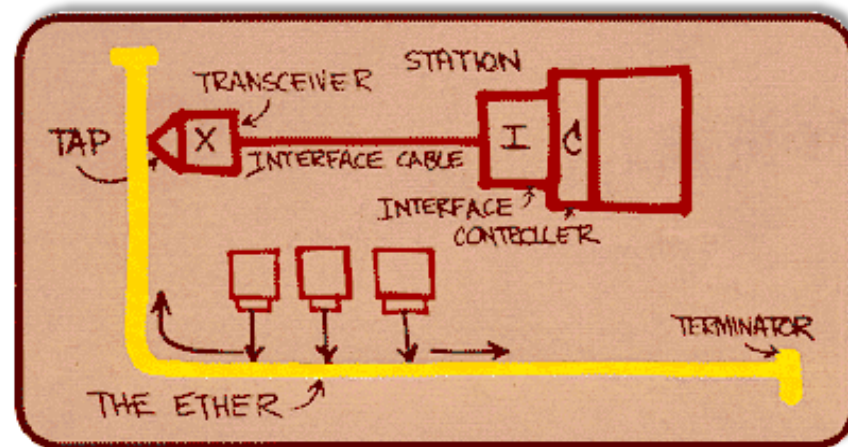


- a day in the life of a web request

# 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)

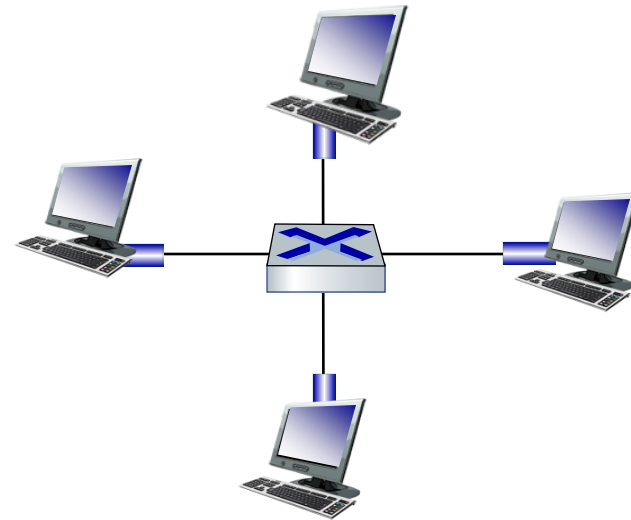
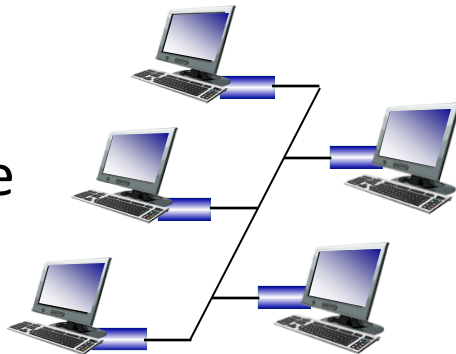


*Metcalfe's Ethernet sketch*

# 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

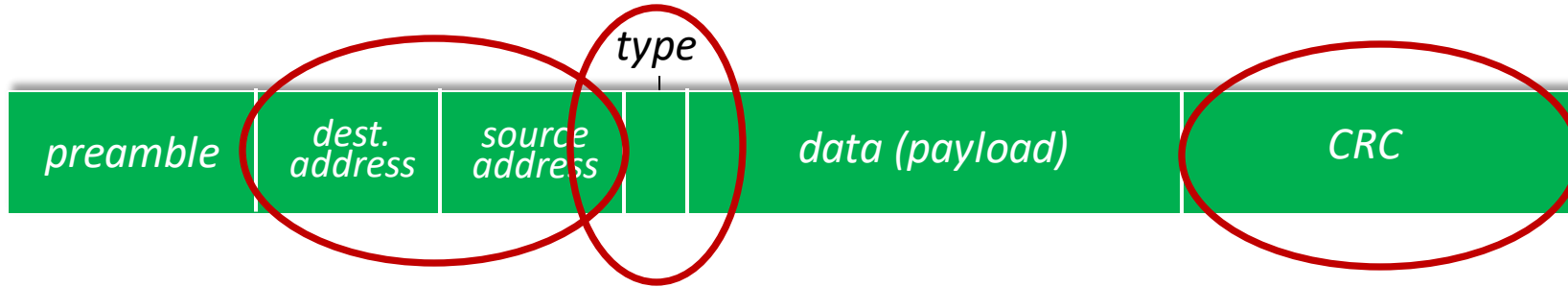
sending interface encapsulates IP datagram (or other network layer protocol packet) in **Ethernet frame**



## *preamble:*

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

# Ethernet frame structure (more)



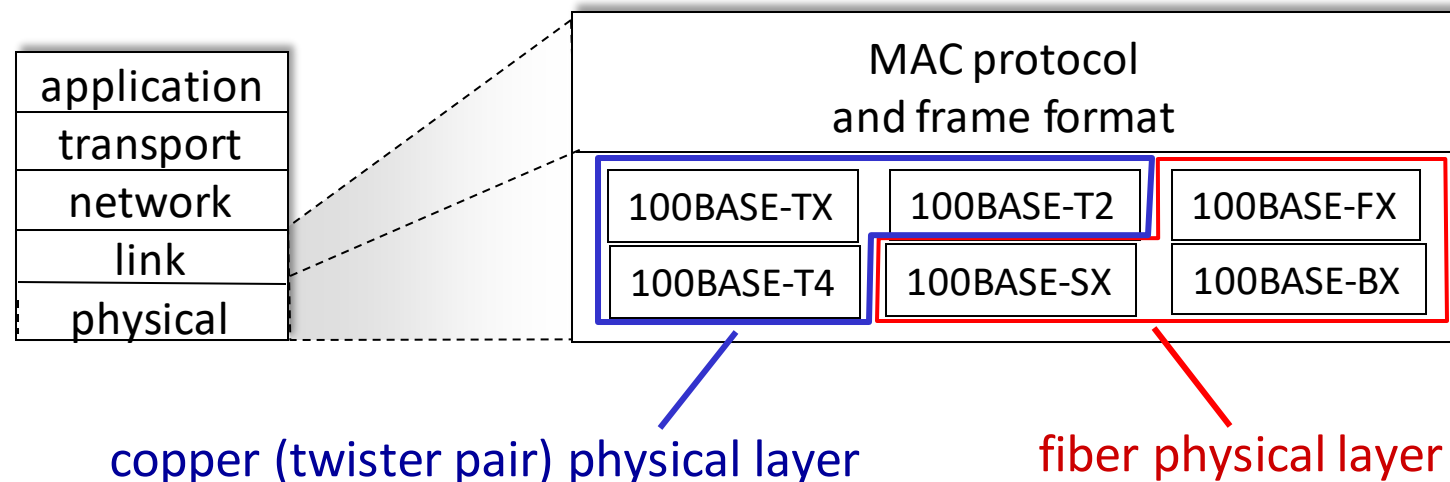
- **addresses:** 6 byte source, destination MAC addresses
  - if adapter receives frame with matching destination address, or with broadcast address (e.g., ARP packet), it passes data in frame to network layer protocol
  - otherwise, adapter discards frame
- **type:** indicates higher layer protocol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



# Link layer, LANs: roadmap

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  - addressing, ARP
  - Ethernet
  - **switches**
  - VLANs
- link virtualization: MPLS
- data center networking



- a day in the life of a web request

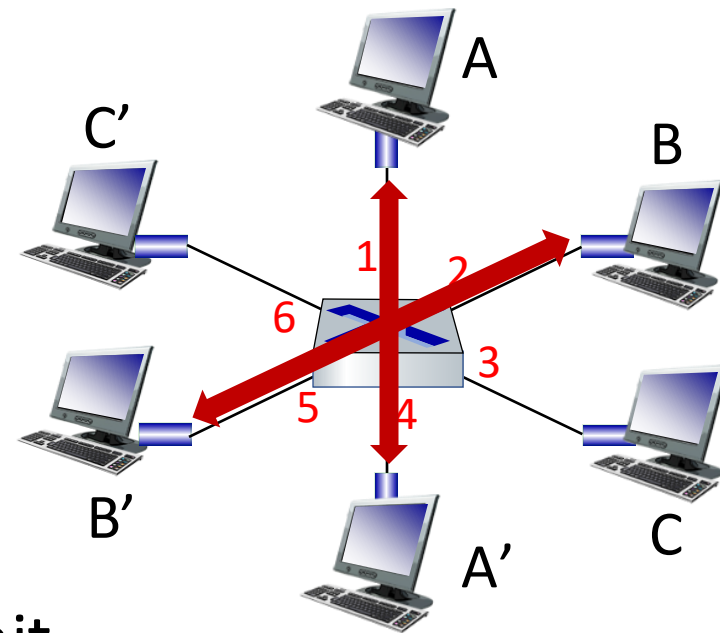


# Ethernet switch

- 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

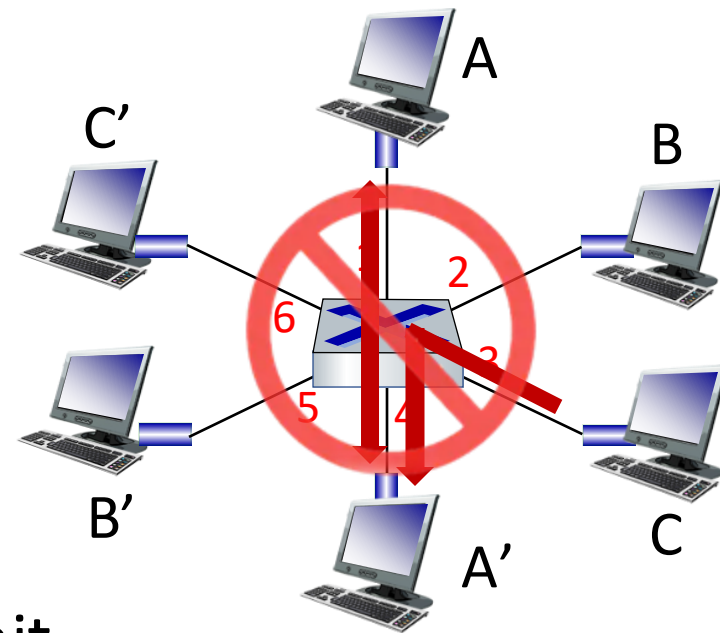
- hosts have dedicated, direct connection to switch
- switches buffer packets
- Ethernet protocol used on *each* incoming link, so:
  - no collisions; full duplex
  - each link is its own collision domain
- **switching**: A-to-A' and B-to-B' can transmit simultaneously, without collisions



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

# Switch: multiple simultaneous transmissions

- hosts have dedicated, direct connection to switch
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  - 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

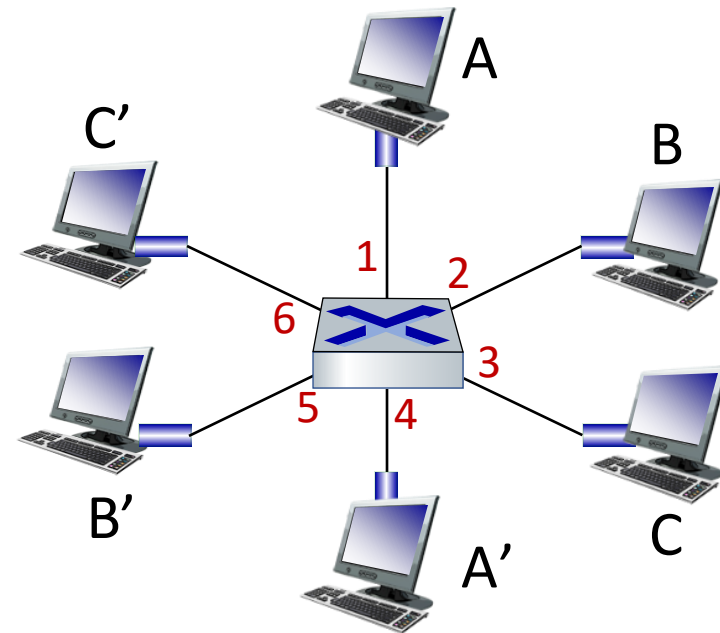
Q: how does switch know A' reachable via interface 4, B' reachable via interface 5?

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

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

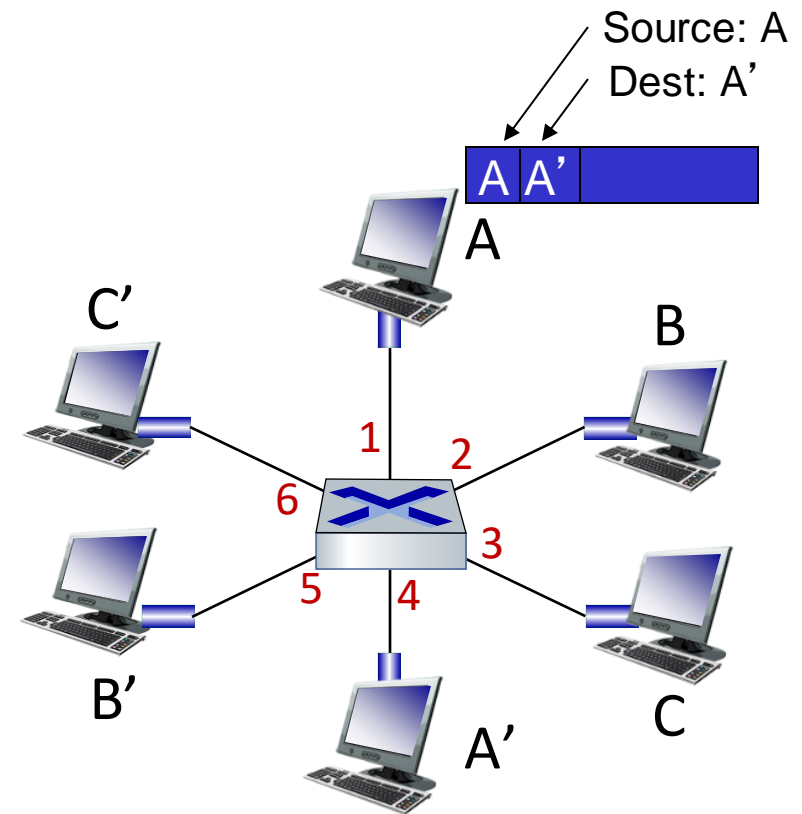
Q: how are entries created, maintained in switch table?

- 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)*

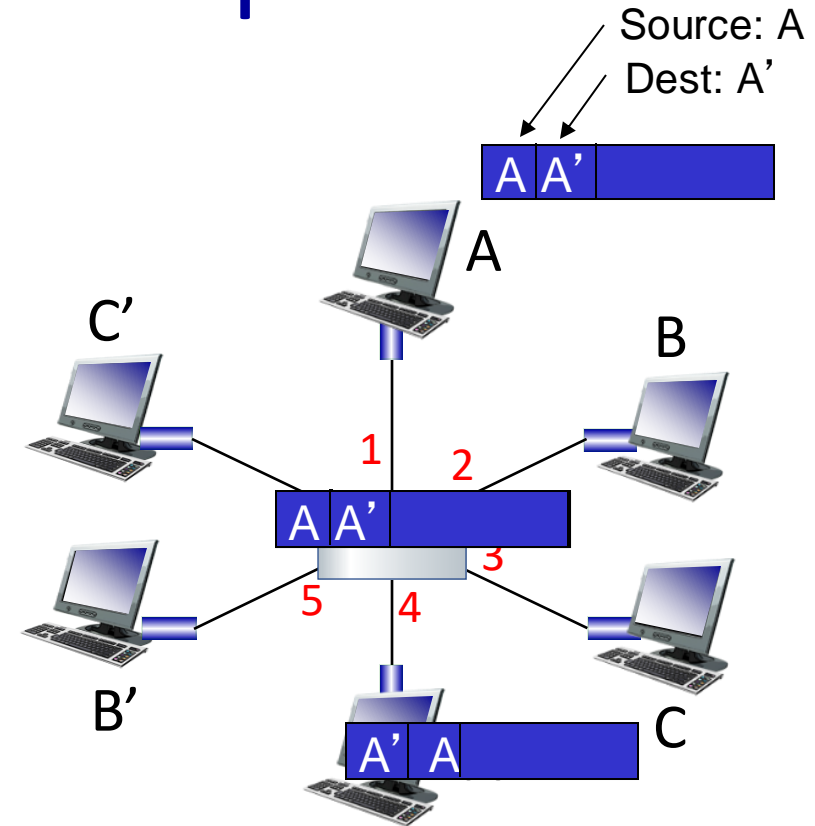
# Switch: frame filtering/forwarding

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**

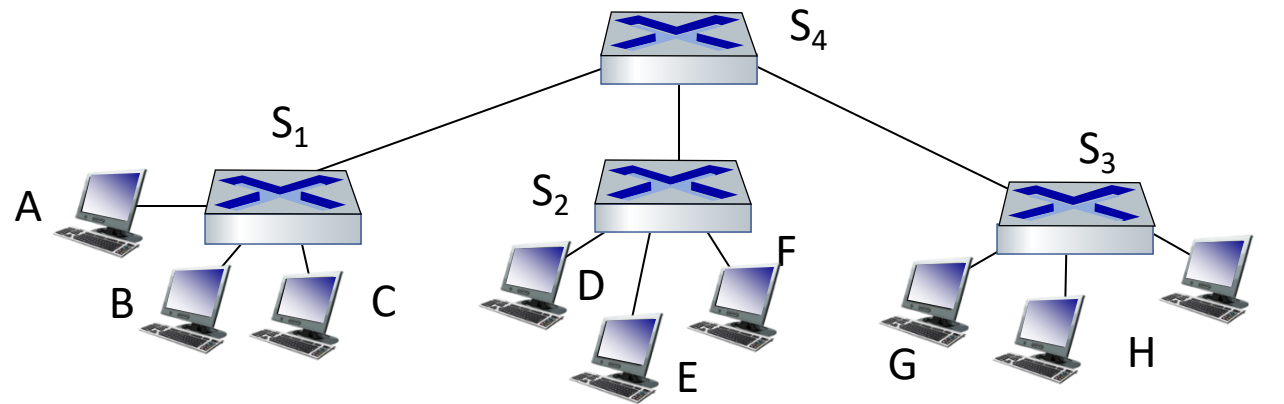


MAC addr	interface	TTL
A	1	60
A'	4	60

*switch table  
(initially empty)*

# Interconnecting switches

self-learning switches can be connected together:



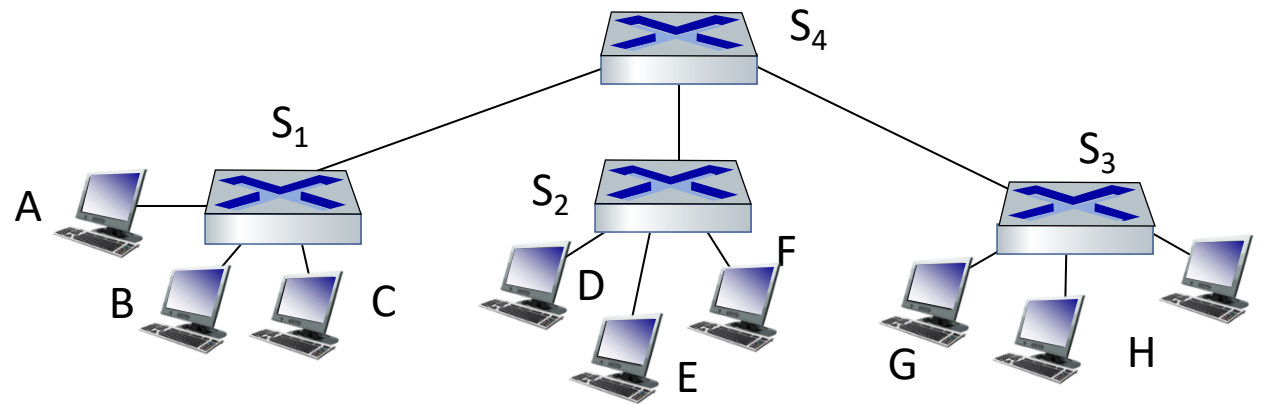
Q: sending from A to G - how does S<sub>1</sub> know to forward frame destined to G via S<sub>4</sub> and S<sub>3</sub>?

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



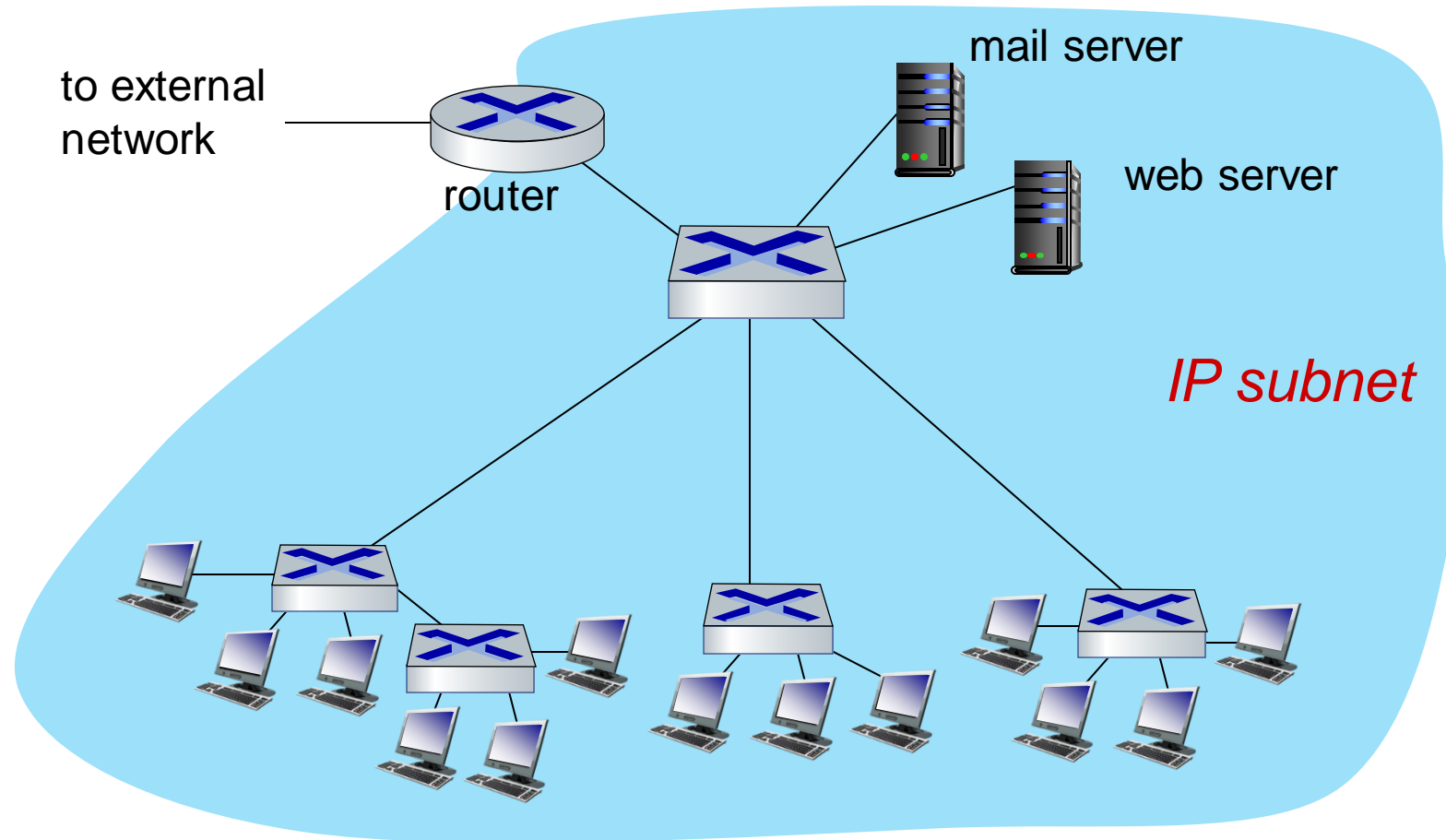
# Self-learning multi-switch example

Suppose C sends frame to I, I responds to C



Q: show switch tables and packet forwarding in S<sub>1</sub>, S<sub>2</sub>, S<sub>3</sub>, S<sub>4</sub>

# Small institutional network



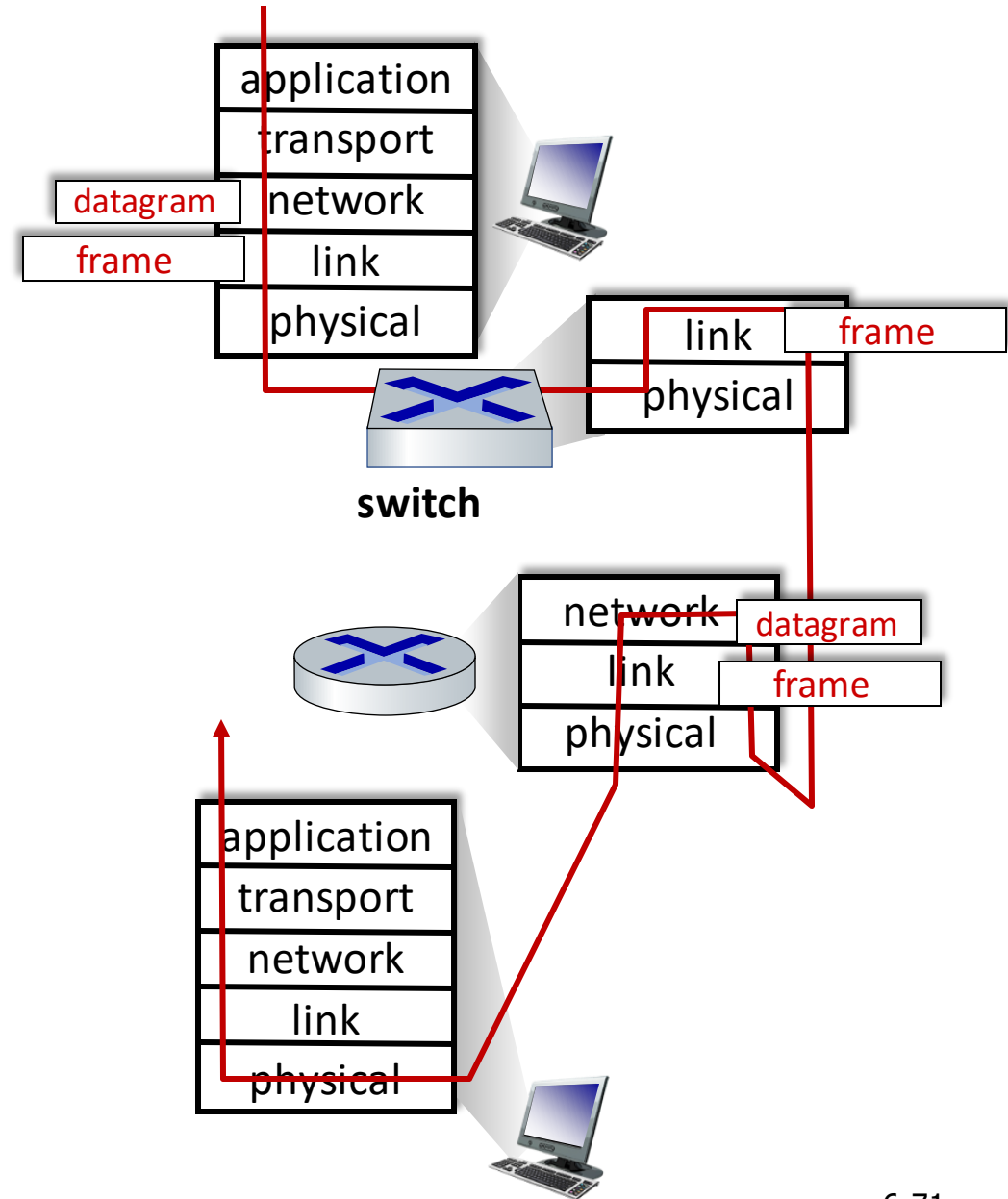
# Switches vs. routers

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

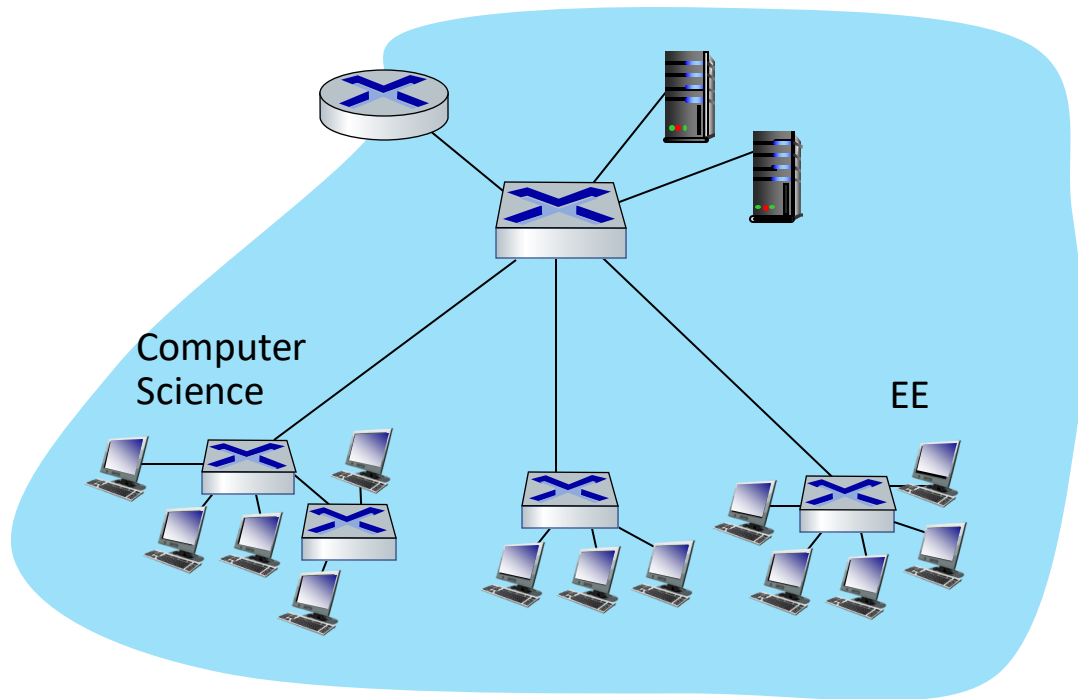
- introduction
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  - **VLANs**
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- a day in the life of a web request

# Virtual LANs (VLANs): motivation

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

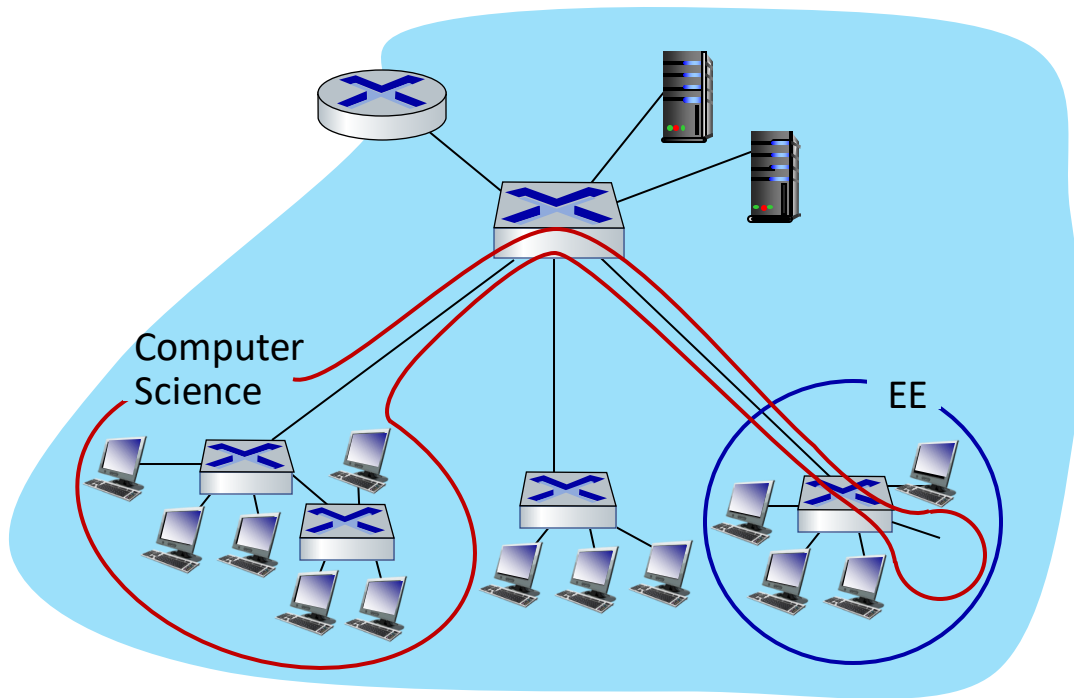


single broadcast domain:

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

# Virtual LANs (VLANs): motivation

*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, efficiency issues

administrative issues:

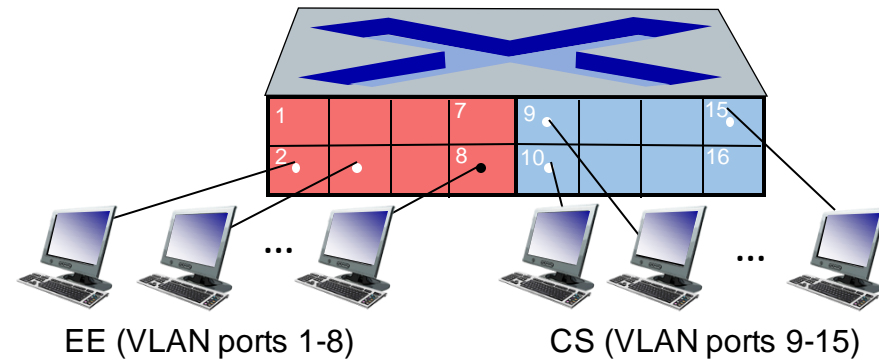
- CS user moves office to EE - *physically* attached to EE switch, but wants to remain *logically* attached to CS switch

# Port-based VLANs

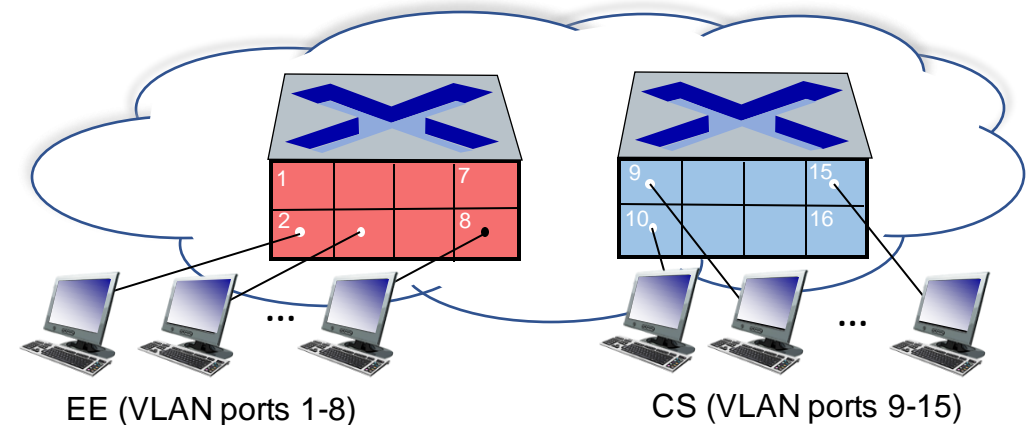
## Virtual Local Area Network (VLAN)

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 .....

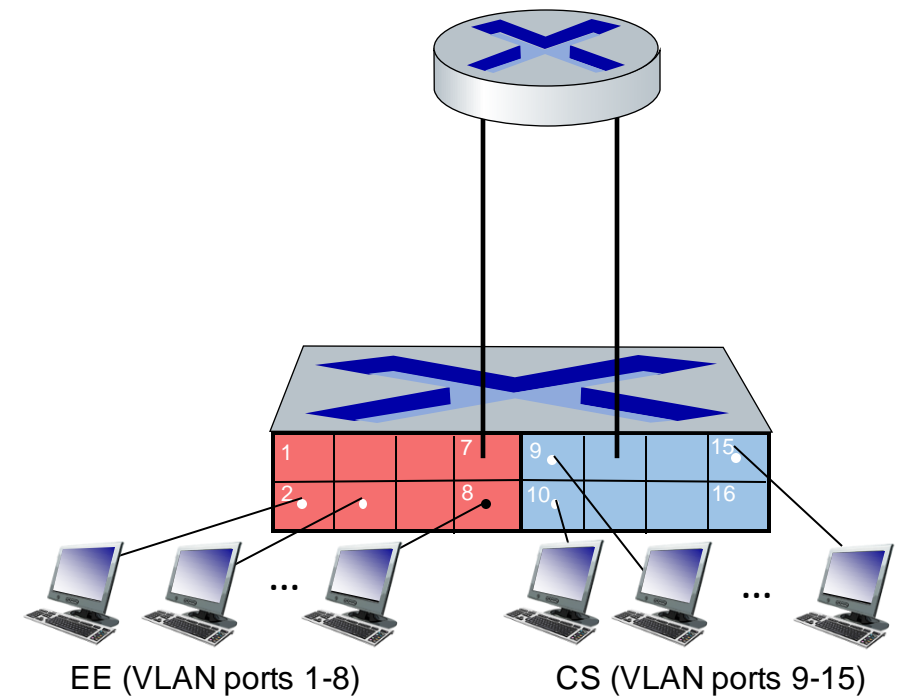


... operates as **multiple** virtual switches



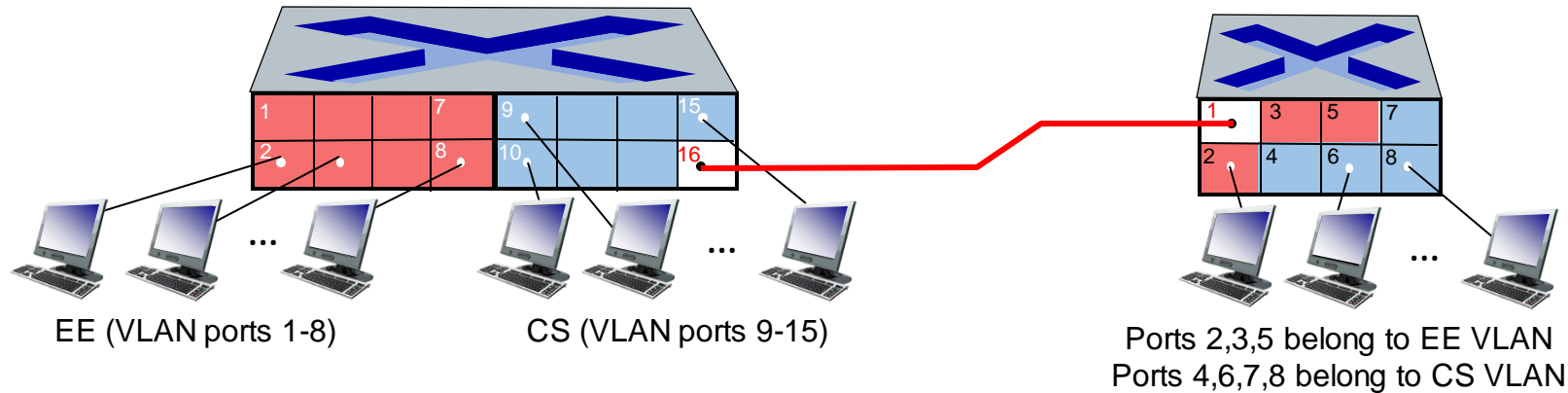
# Port-based VLANs

- **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





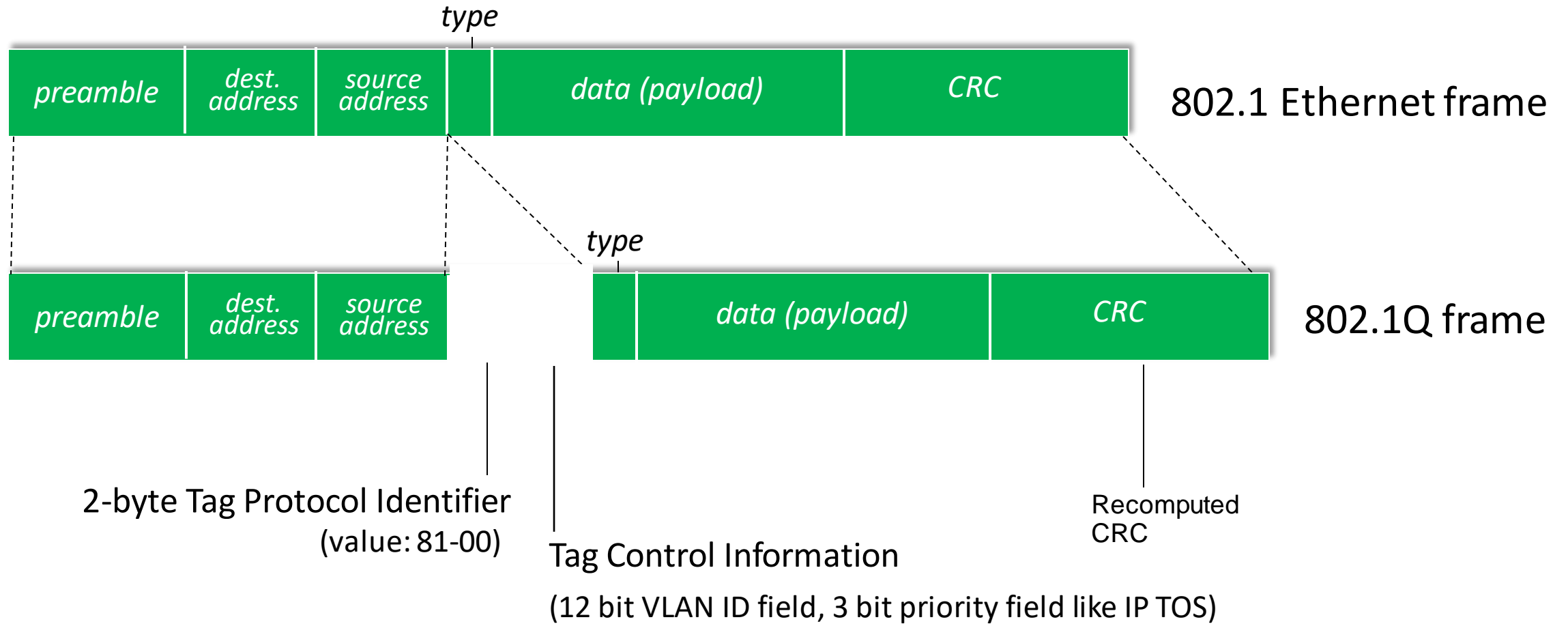
# VLANs spanning multiple switches



**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



# Link layer, LANs: roadmap

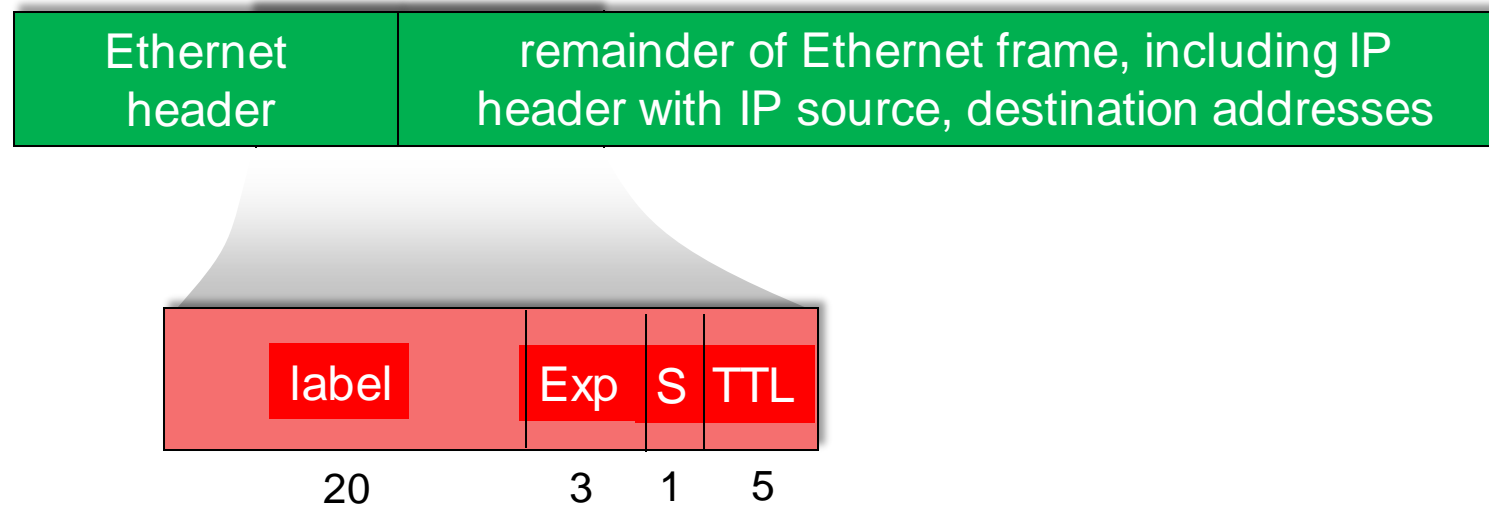
- introduction
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  - addressing, ARP
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- **link virtualization: MPLS**
- data center networking



- a day in the life of a web request

# Multiprotocol label switching (MPLS)

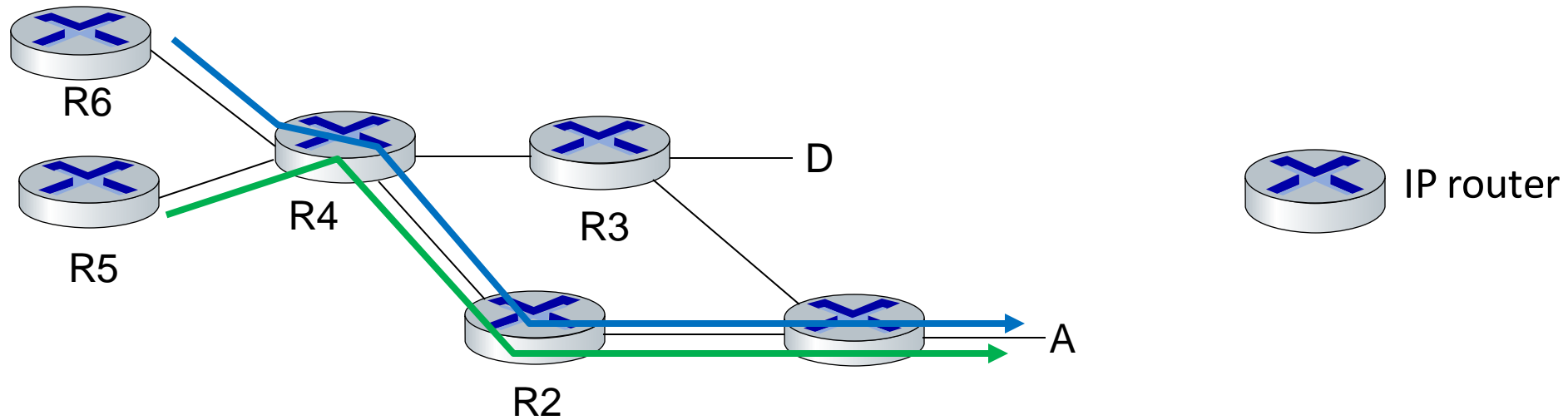
- **goal:** high-speed IP forwarding among network of MPLS-capable routers, using fixed length label (instead of shortest prefix matching)
  - faster lookup using fixed length identifier
  - borrowing ideas from Virtual Circuit (VC) approach
  - but IP datagram still keeps IP address!



# MPLS capable routers

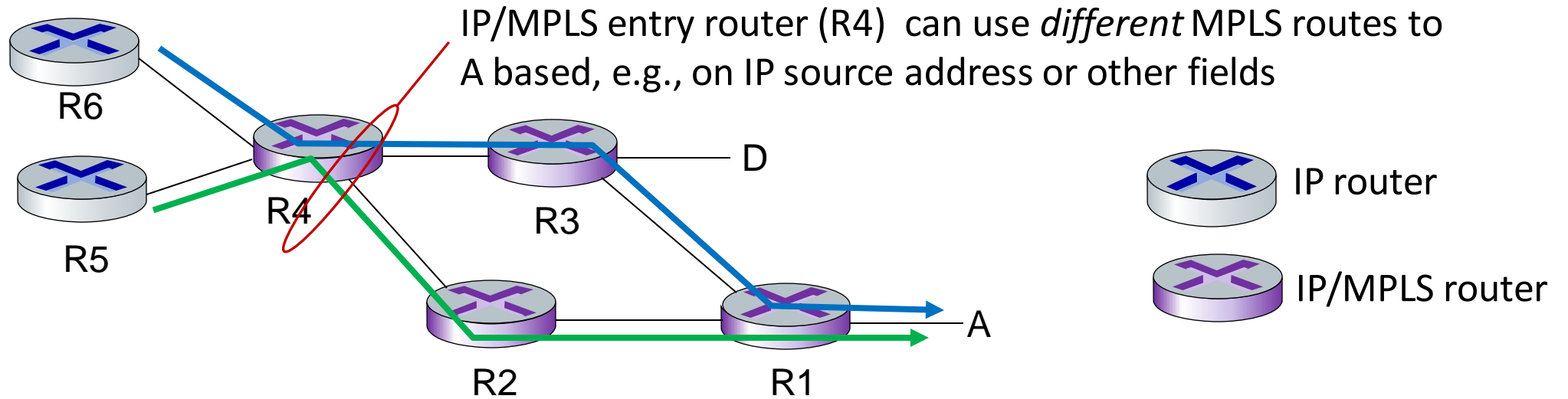
- a.k.a. label-switched router
- forward packets to outgoing interface based only on label value (*don't inspect IP address*)
  - MPLS forwarding table distinct from IP forwarding tables
- *flexibility*: MPLS forwarding decisions can *differ* from those of IP
  - use destination *and* source addresses 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

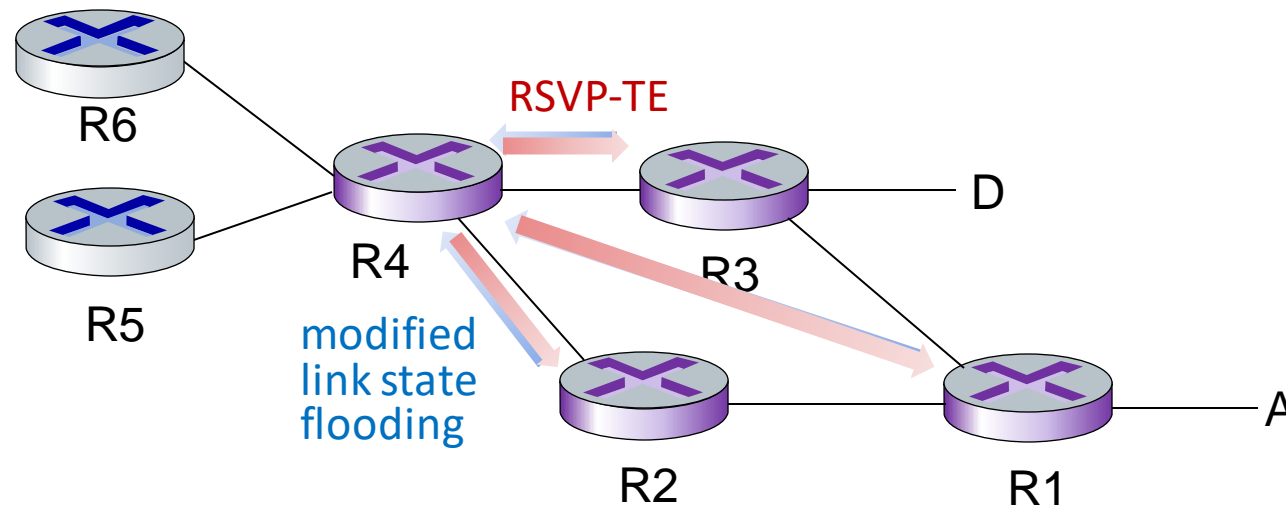
# MPLS versus IP paths



- **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

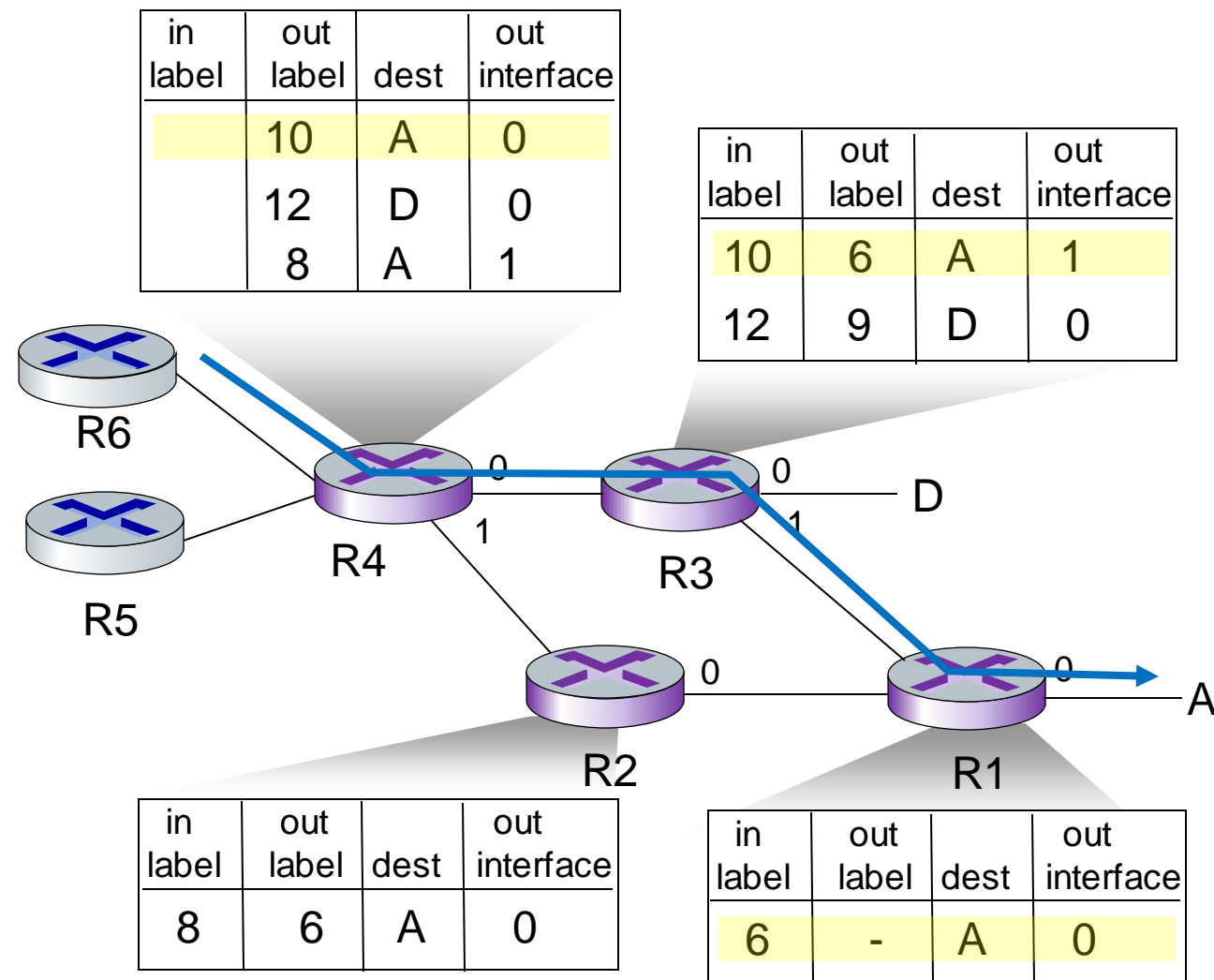
# MPLS signaling

- 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



# 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)

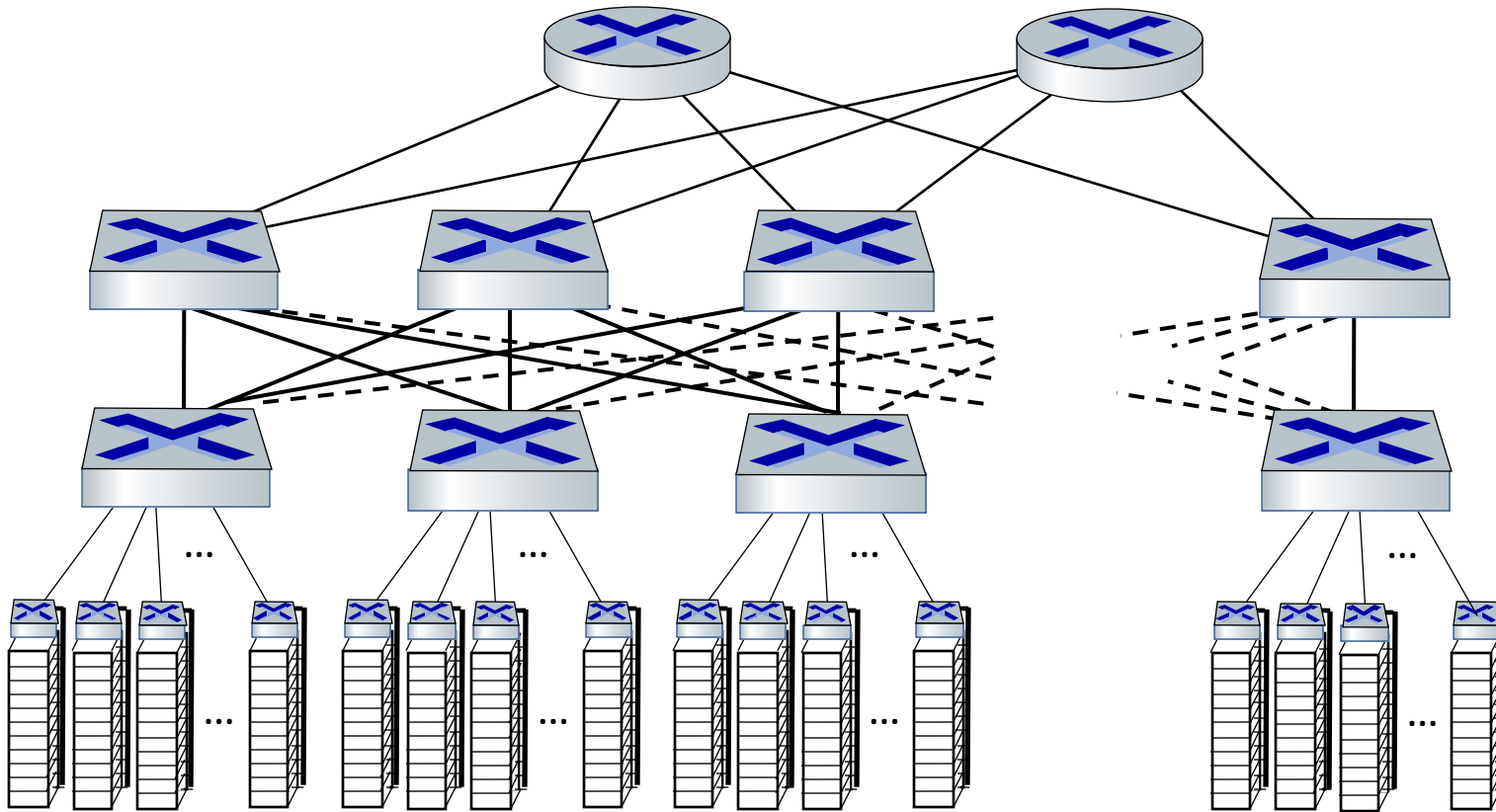
challenges:

- 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

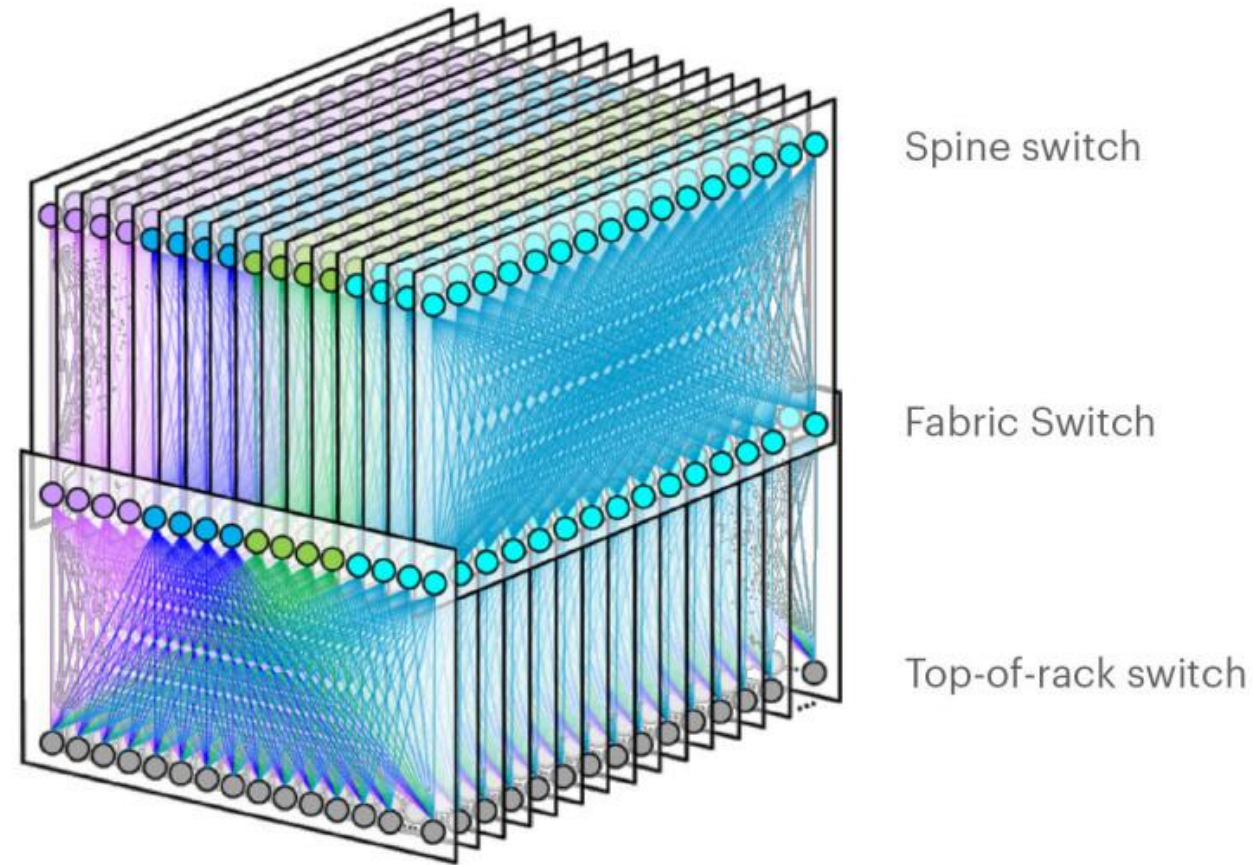
- one per rack
- 40-100Gbps Ethernet to blades

## Server racks

- 20- 40 server blades: hosts

# Datacenter networks: network elements

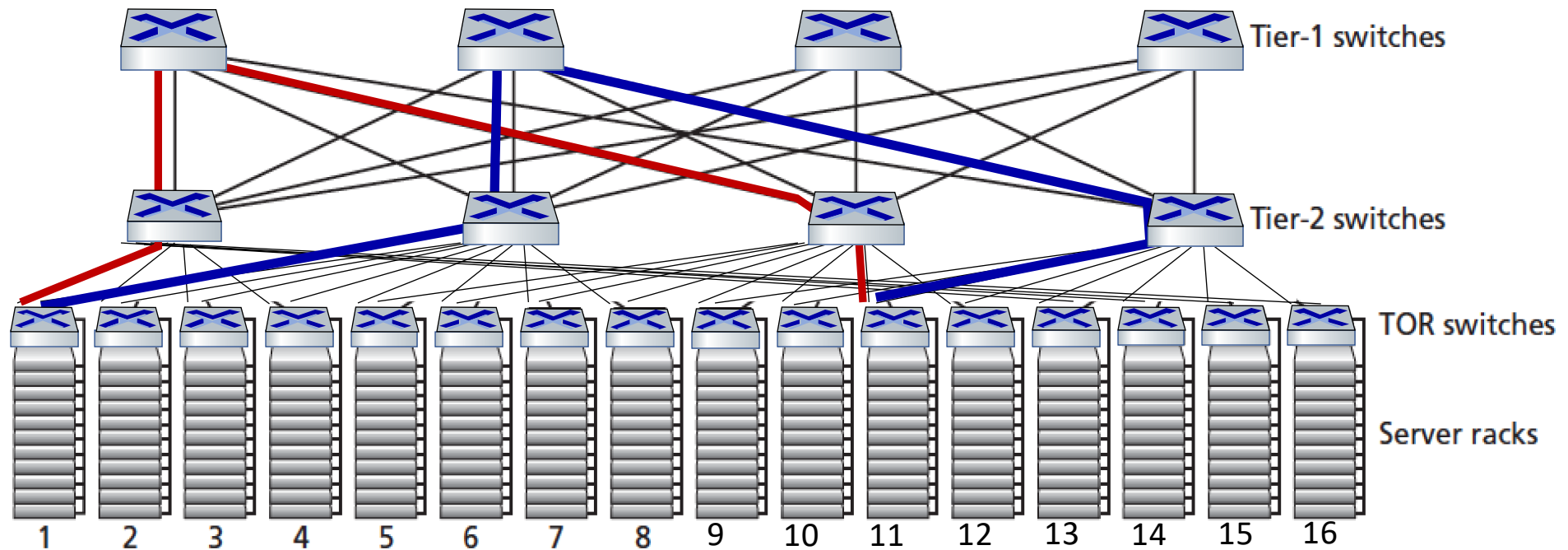
Facebook F16 data center network topology:



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

# Datacenter networks: multipath

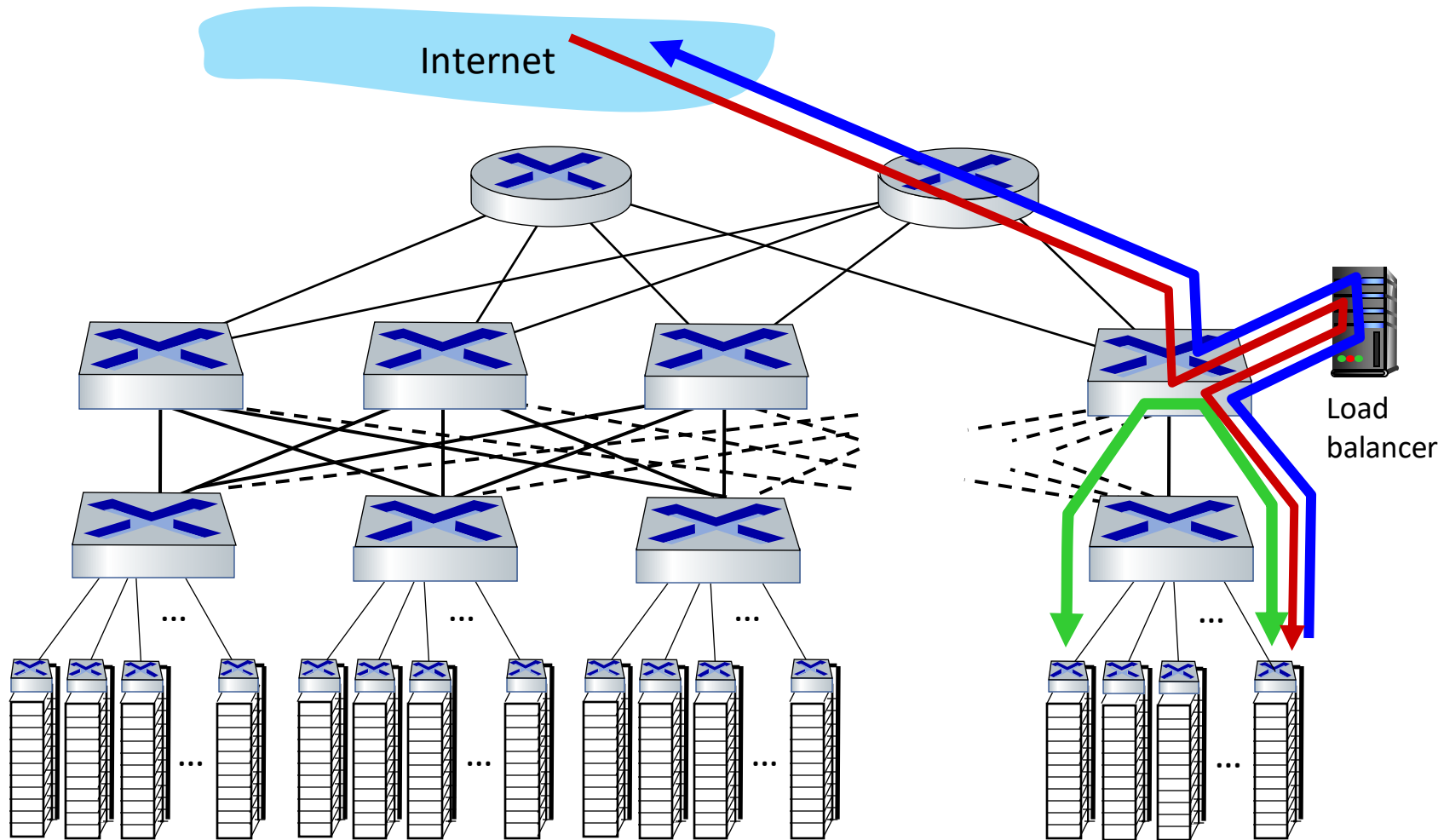
- rich interconnection among switches, racks:
  - increased throughput between racks (multiple routing paths possible)
  - increased reliability via redundancy



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)

# 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