

COMP 3331/9331: Computer Networks and Applications

Week 9
Data Link Layer

Reading Guide: Chapter 6, Sections 6.1 – 6.4, 6.7



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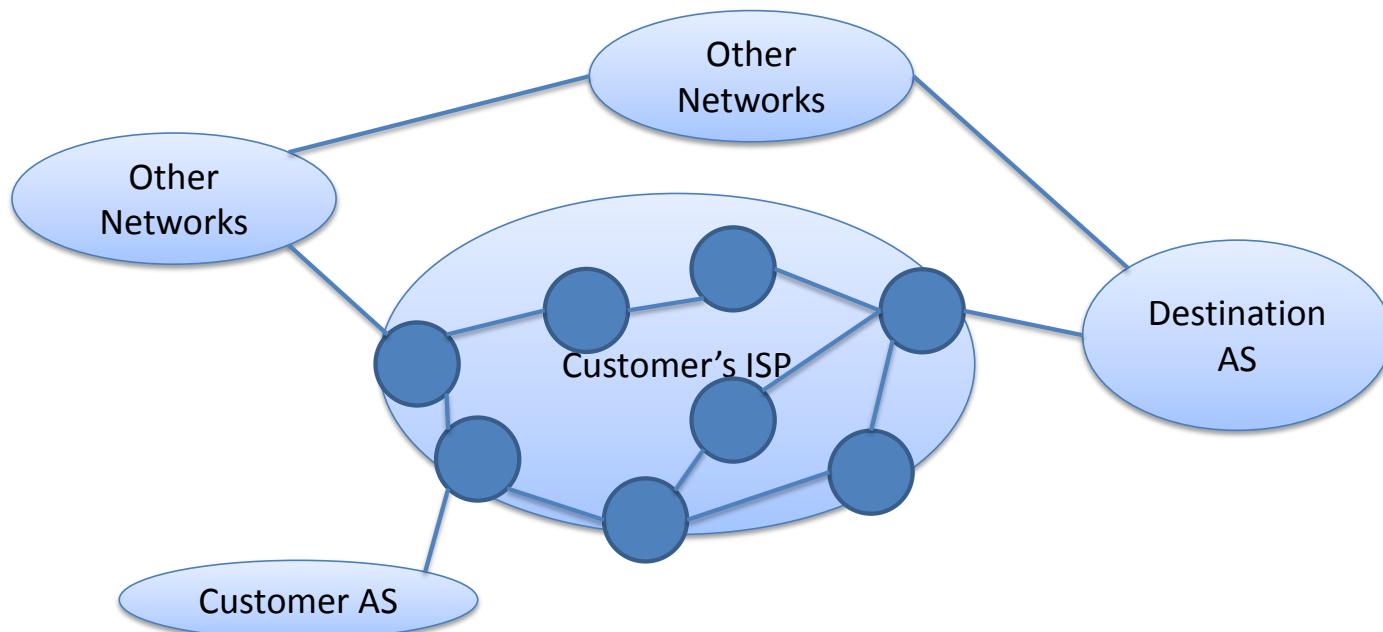
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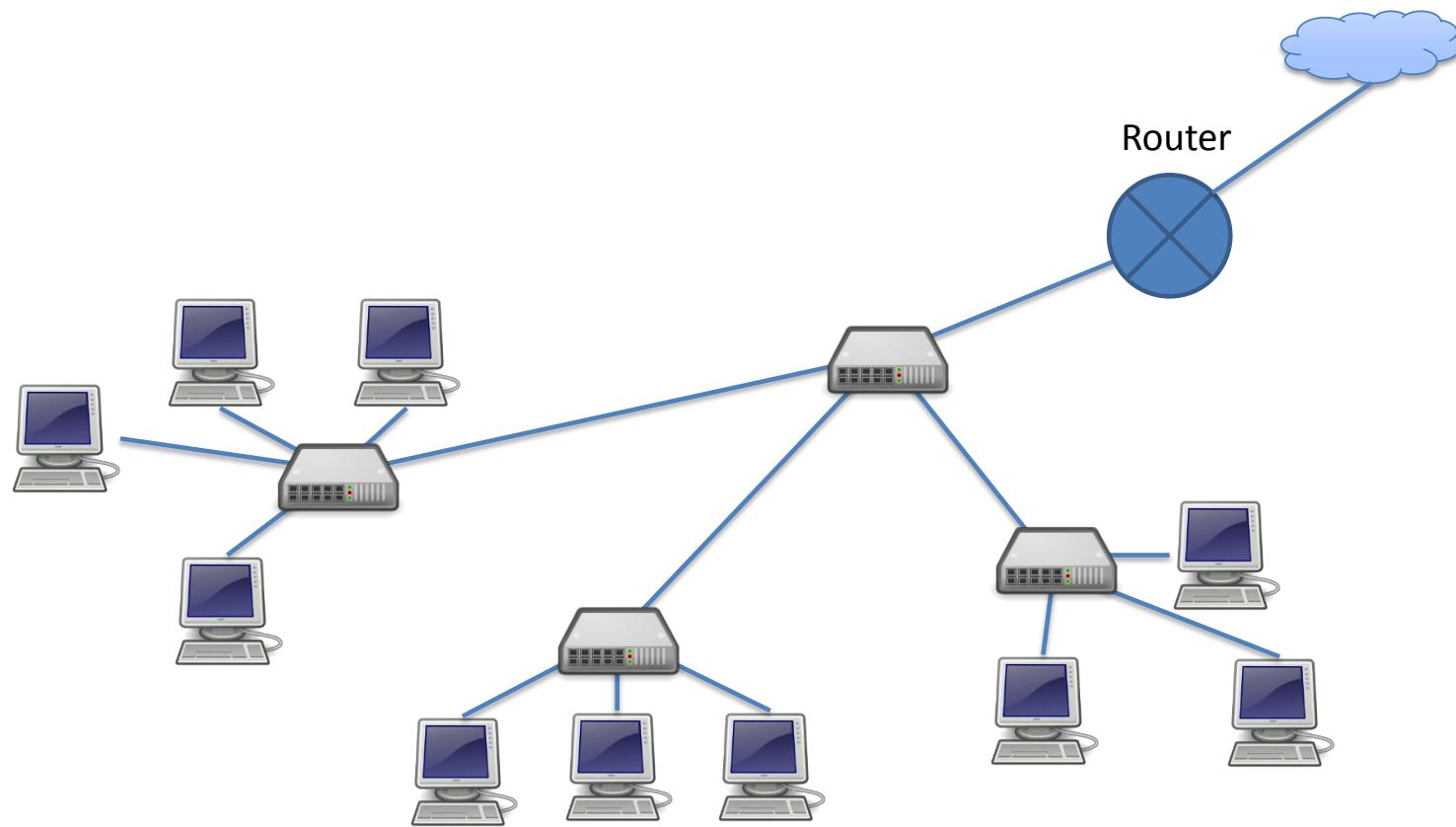
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From Macro- to Micro-

- Previously, we looked at Internet scale...



Link layer focus: Within a Subnet



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

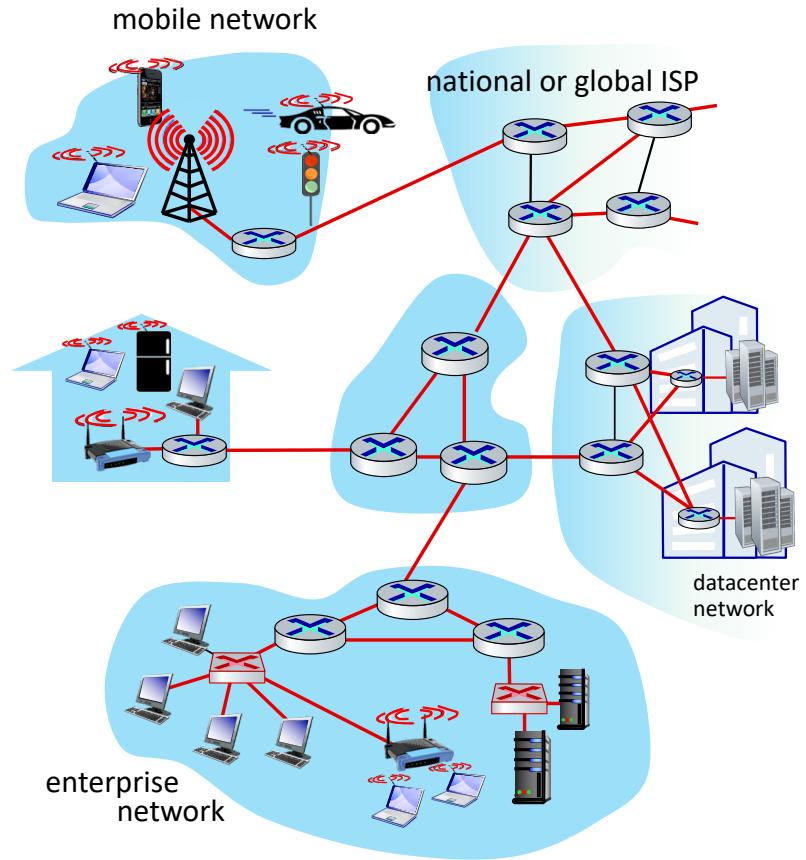
- *introduction*
- *error detection, correction*
- *multiple access protocols*
- *LANs*
 - *addressing, ARP*
 - *Ethernet*
 - *switches*
 - *VLANs (NOT COVERED)*
- *link virtualization: MPLS (NOT COVERED)*
- *data center networking (NOT COVERED)*
- *a day in the life of a web request*

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*

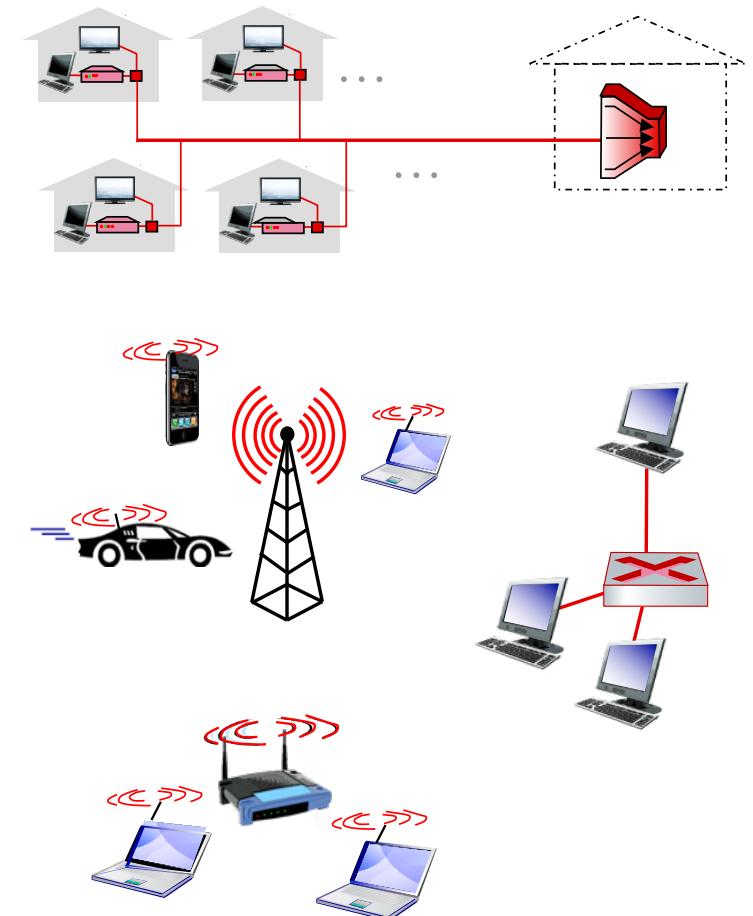
Link layer: services

- **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!)

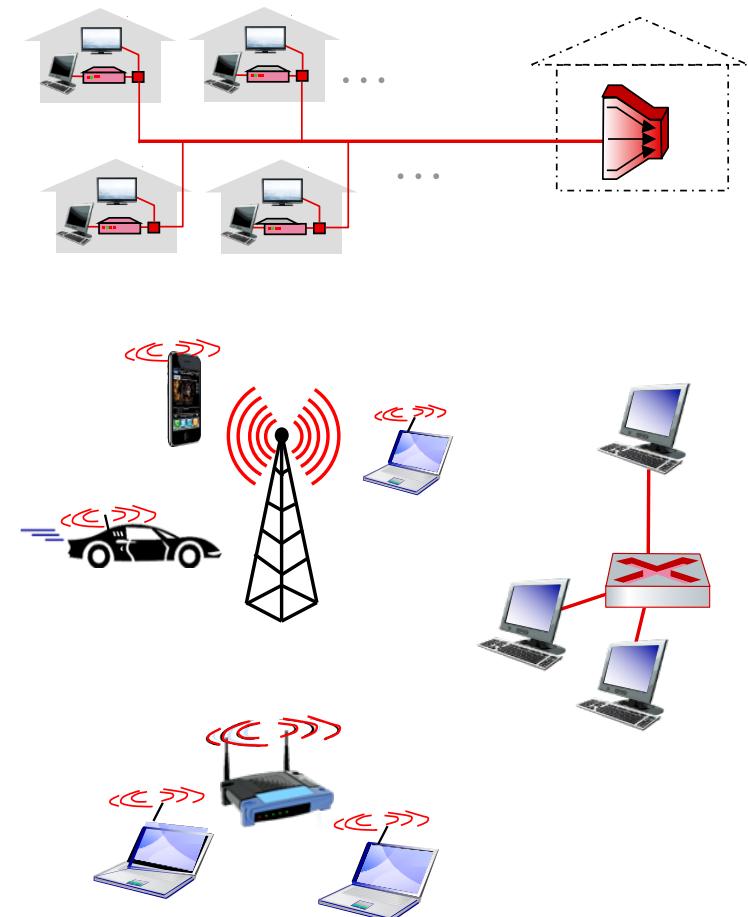
- **reliable delivery between adjacent nodes**

- 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?



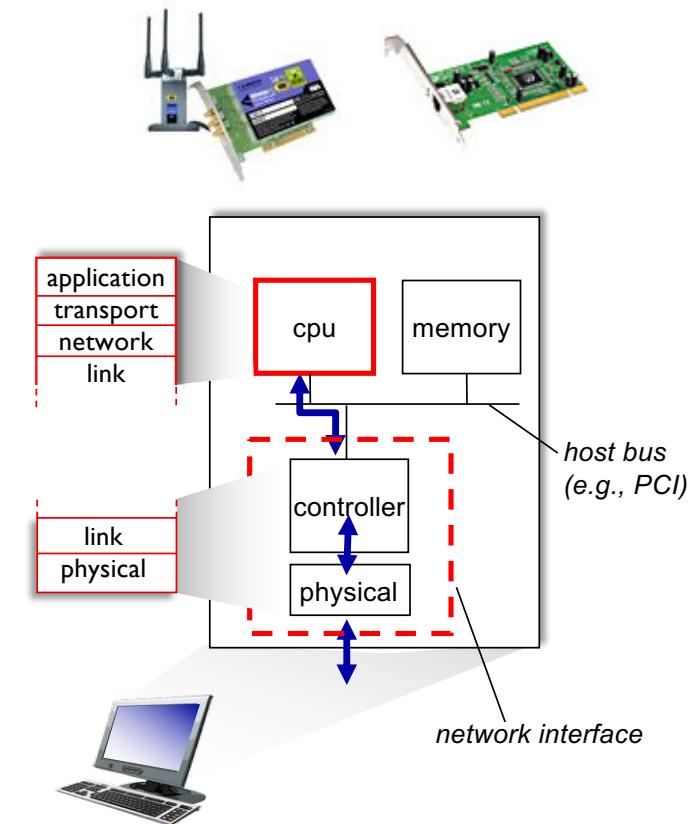
Link layer: services (more)

- **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*

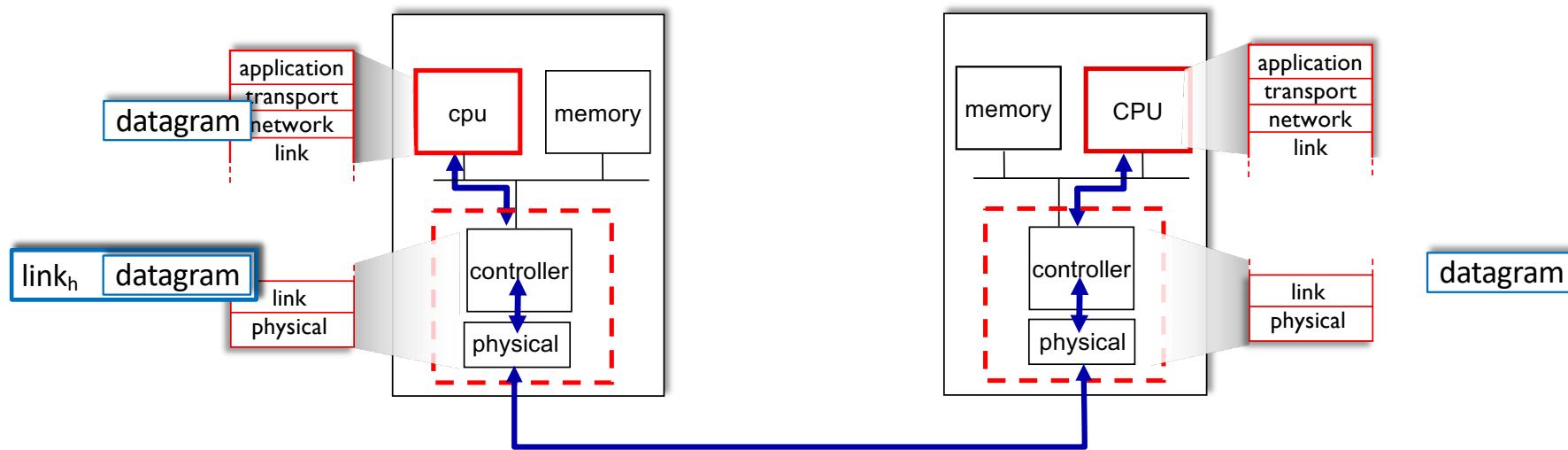


Where is the link layer implemented?

- *in each-and-every host*
- *link layer implemented in network interface card (NIC) or on a chip*
 - Ethernet, WiFi card or chip
 - Often referred as *network adapter*
 - 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*

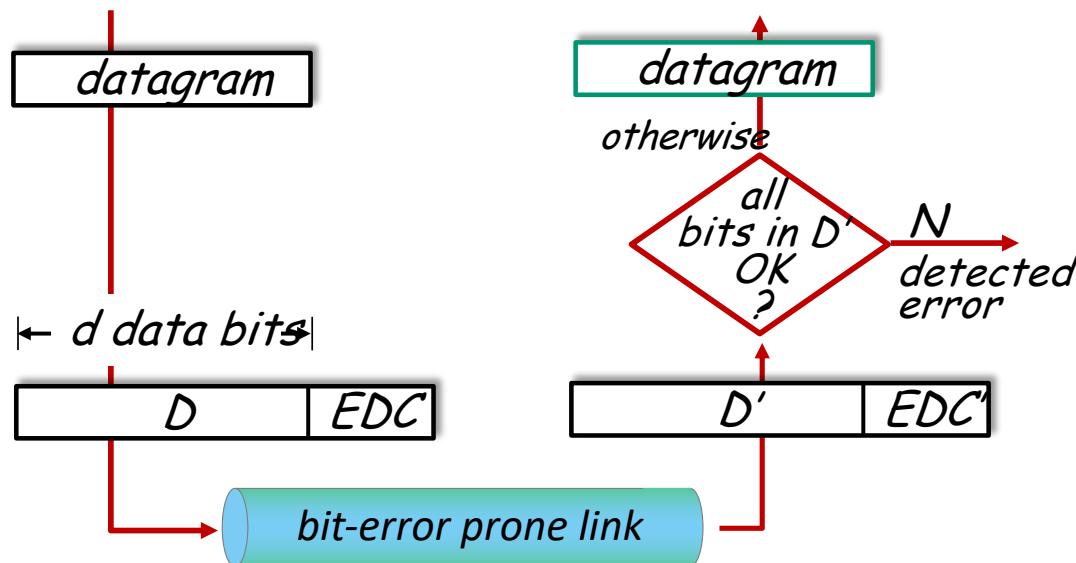
Link layer, LANs: roadmap

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- ***error detection, correction***
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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



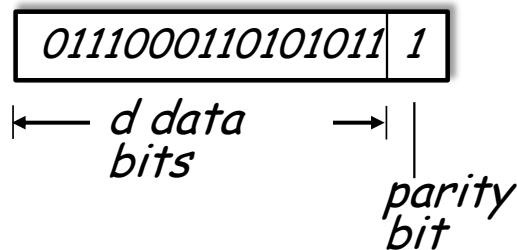
Error detection not 100% reliable!

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

Parity checking

single bit parity:

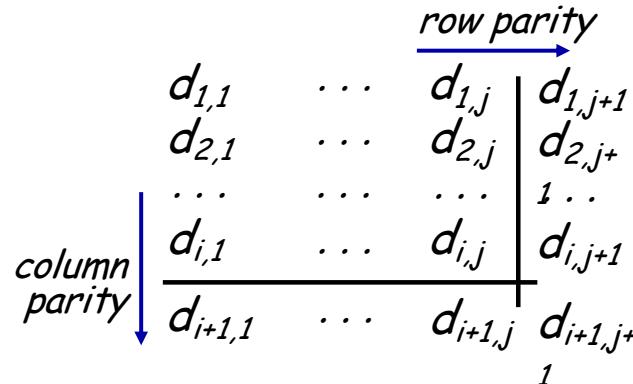
- detect single bit errors



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
	0	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
0	0	1	0	1	0

parity error
↓
parity error

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:

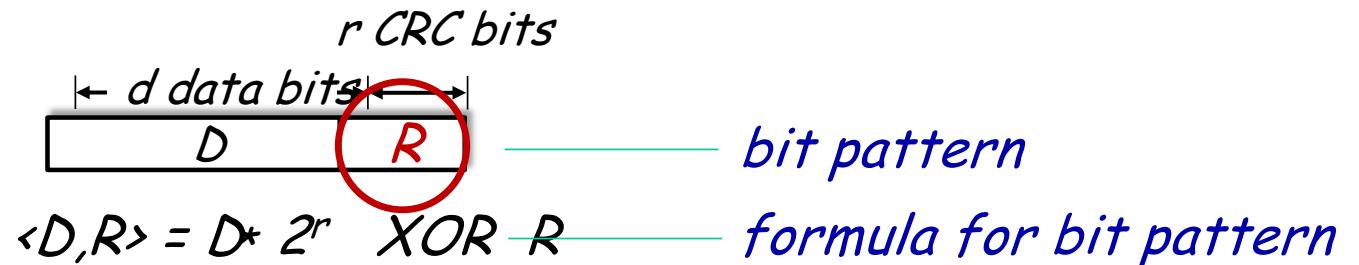
- compute checksum of received segment
- check if computed checksum equals checksum field value:
 - not equal - error detected
 - equal - no error detected. *But maybe errors nonetheless? More later ...*

In practice

- Bit errors occur in bursts.
- We're willing to trade computational complexity for space efficiency.
 - Make the detection routine more complex, to detect error bursts, without tons of extra data
- Insight: We need hardware to interface with the network, do the computation there!

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)



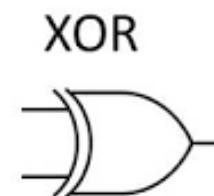
goal: choose r CRC bits, R , such that $\langle D, R \rangle$ exactly divisible by G ($\text{mod } 2$)

- 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)
 - For example, CRC-32 which uses the following generator

$$G_{\text{CRC-32}} = 100000100110000010001110110110111$$

A Note on Modulo-2 Arithmetic

- All calculations are modulo-2 arithmetic
- No carries or borrows in subtraction
- Addition and subtraction are identical and both are equivalent to XOR
 - $1011 \text{ XOR } 0101 = 1110$
 - $1011 - 0101 = 1110$
 - $1011 + 0101 = 1110$
- Multiplication by 2^k is essentially a left shift by k bits
 - $1011 \times 2^2 = 101100$



A	B	Output
0	0	0
1	0	1
0	1	1
1	1	0

CRC example

want:

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

equivalently:

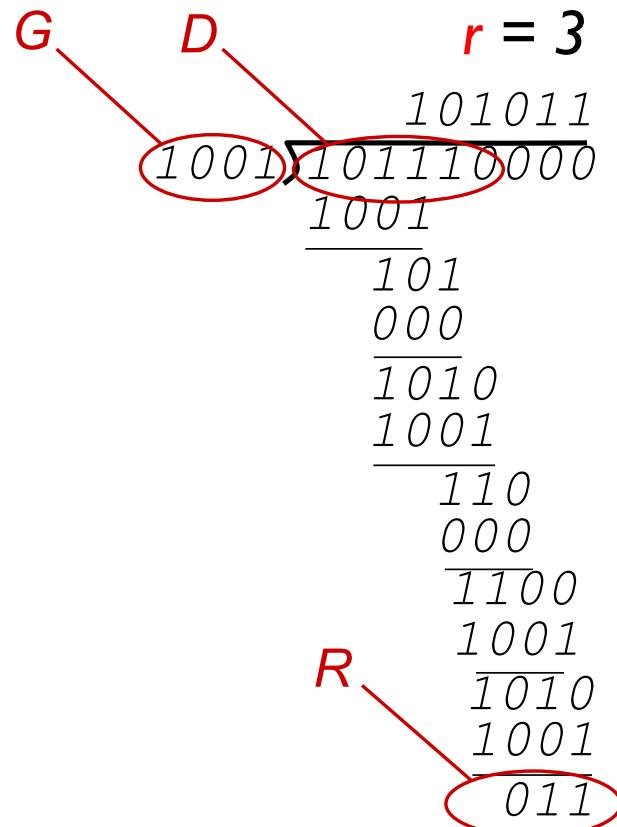
$$D \cdot 2^r = nG \text{ XOR } R$$

equivalently:

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

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

At the sender



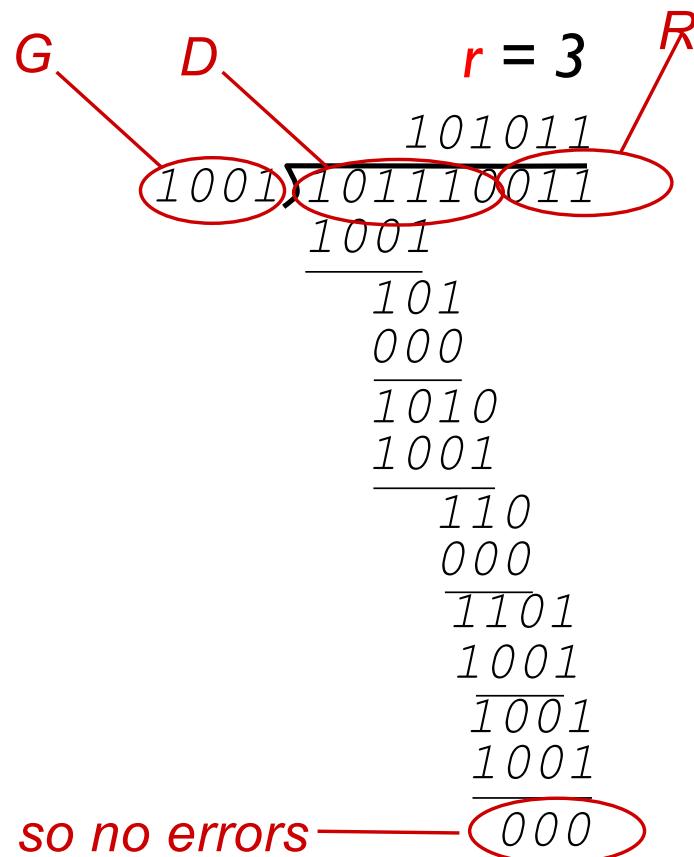
Sender sends $\langle D, R \rangle$ into the channel

CRC example (contd)

Receiver divides the received frame and divides by G and checks if the remainder is zero.

In this example, there are no errors, so the receiver receives $\langle D, R \rangle$ (from previous slide)

At the receiver



Remainder is zero, so no errors



Quiz: Error Detection/Correction

- ❖ Can these schemes respectively correct any bit errors: Internet checksums, two-dimensional parity, cyclic redundancy check (CRC)
 - a) Yes, No, No
 - b) No, Yes, Yes
 - c) No, Yes, No
 - d) No, No, Yes
 - e) No, No, No

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Answer: C



Link layer, LANs: roadmap

- *introduction*
- *error detection, correction*
- ***multiple access protocols***
- *LANs*
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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



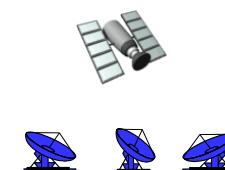
shared wire (e.g., cabled Ethernet)



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

desired properties:

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

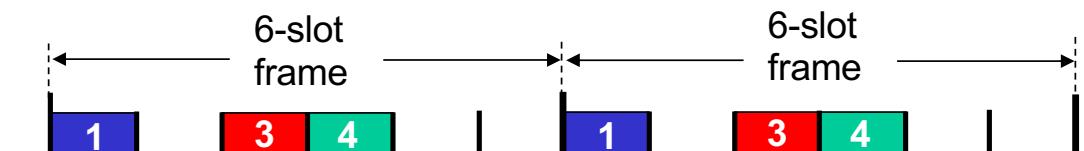
three broad classes:

- **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

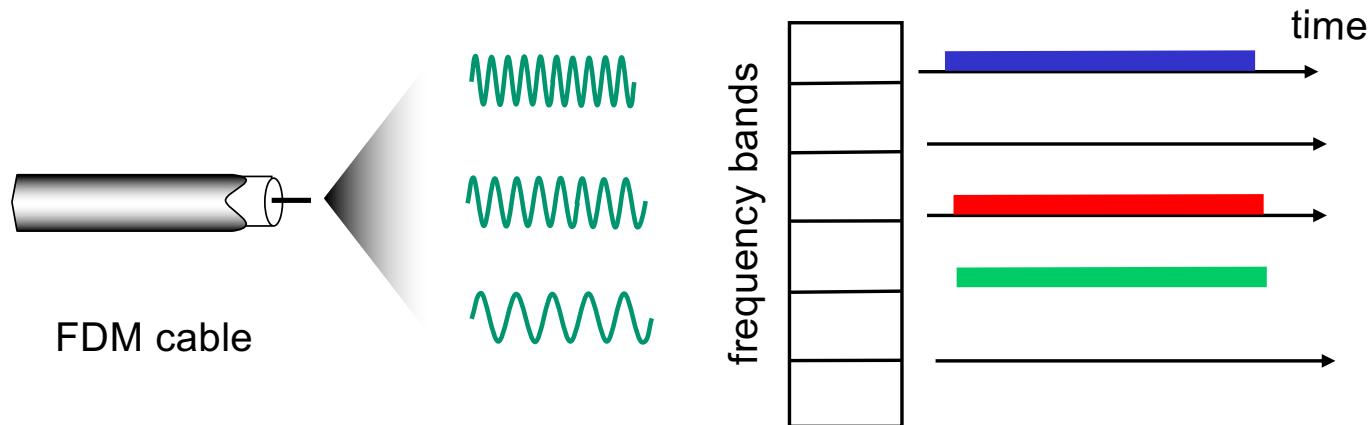
- access to channel in “rounds”
- each node gets fixed length slot (*length = packet transmission time*) in each round
- unused slots go idle
- example: 6-node LAN, 1,3,4 have packets to send, slots 2,5,6 idle



Channel partitioning MAC protocols: FDMA

FDMA: frequency division multiple access

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



Quiz: Does channel partitioning satisfy ideal properties ?



1. if only 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 (fairness)
3. fully decentralized:
 - no synchronization of clocks, slots
 - no special node to coordinate transmissions
4. simple



- A. 0
B. 1
C. 2
D. 3
E. 4
(Which ones?)

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ANSWER: B

Only 4 is satisfied

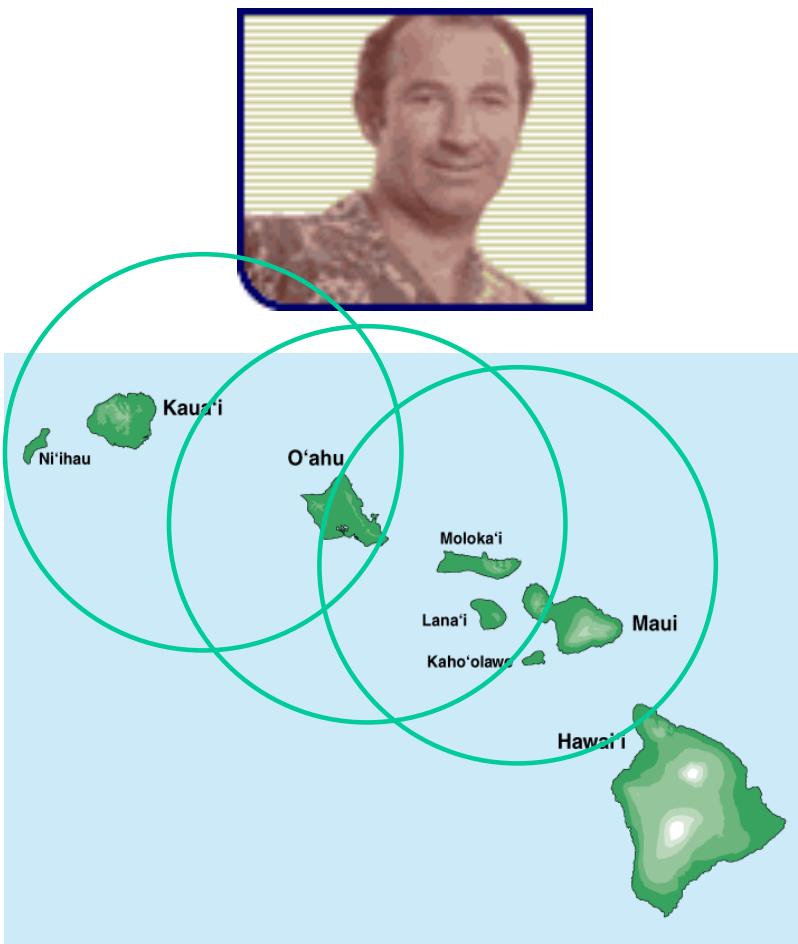
Note that 2 is satisfied if $M=N$ (no of nodes on the network)

However, more generally for $M < N$, 2 is not satisfied

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*

Where it all Started: AlohaNet



- ❖ Norm Abramson left Stanford in 1970 (***so he could surf!***)
 - ❖ Set up first data communication system for Hawaiian islands
 - ❖ Central hub at U. Hawaii, Oahu

Slotted ALOHA

assumptions:

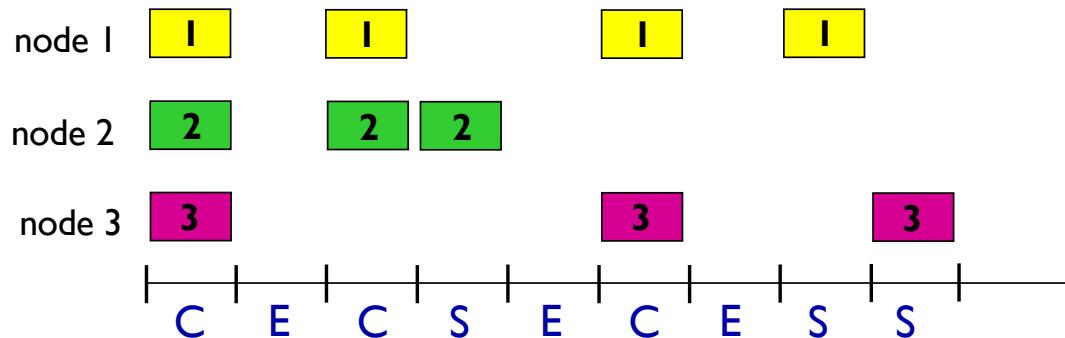
- all frames same size
- time divided into equal size slots
(time to transmit 1 frame)
- nodes start to transmit only slot beginning
- nodes are synchronized
- if 2 or more nodes transmit in slot, all nodes detect collision

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



*C: collision
S: success
E: empty*

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

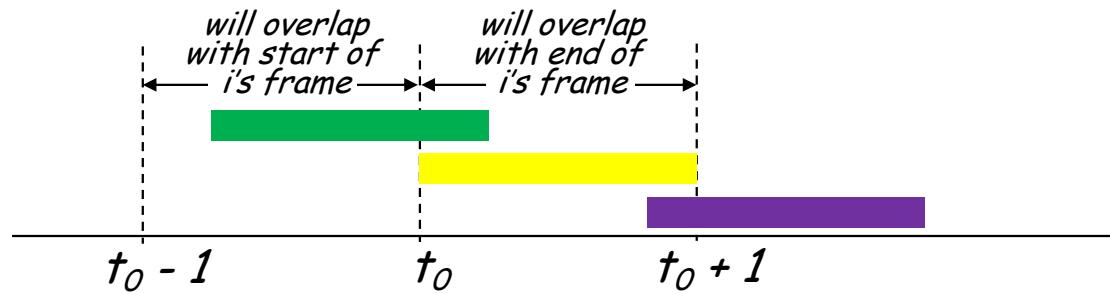
- prob that given node has success in a slot = $p(1-p)^{N-1}$
- prob that *any* node has a success = $Np(1-p)^{N-1}$
- max efficiency: find p^* that maximizes $Np(1-p)^{N-1}$
- for many nodes, take limit of $Np^*(1-p^*)^{N-1}$ as N goes to infinity, gives:

$$\text{max efficiency} = 1/e = .37$$

❖ *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 $[t_0 - l, t_0 + l]$



- pure Aloha efficiency: 18% !

CSMA (carrier sense multiple access)

simple CSMA: listen before transmit:

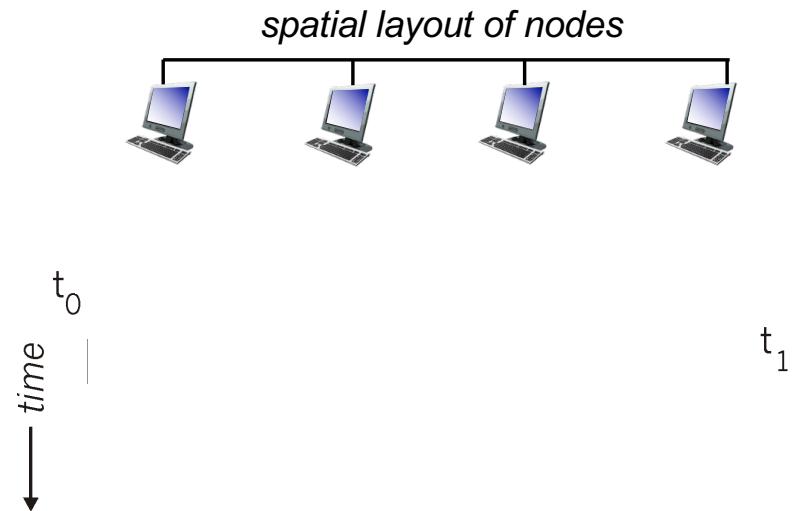
- *if channel sensed idle: transmit entire frame*
- *if channel sensed busy: defer transmission*
- *human analogy: don't interrupt others!*

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*

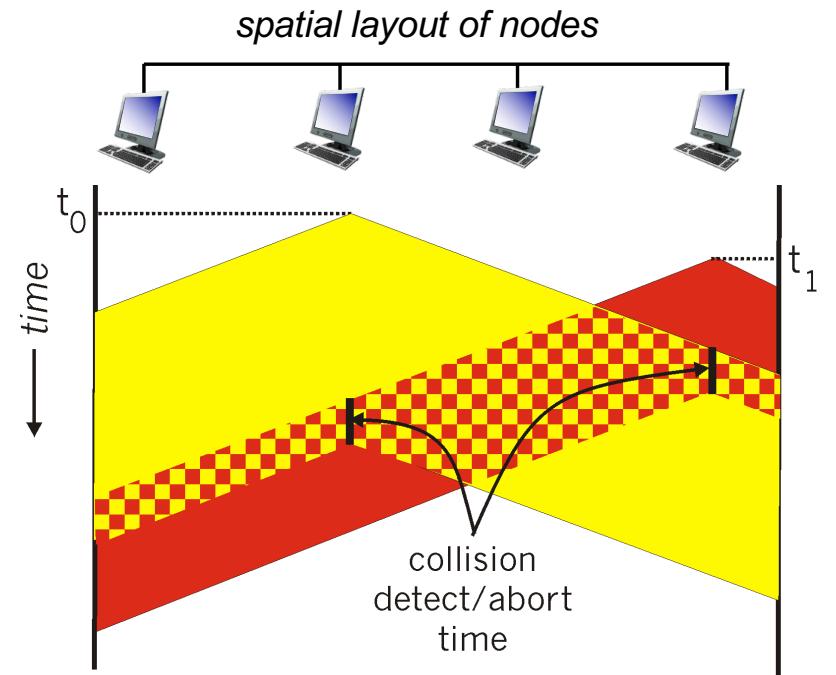
CSMA: collisions

- *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/CD reduces the amount of time wasted in collisions
 - transmission aborted on collision detection



http://media.pearsoncmg.com/aw/aw_kurose_network_2/applets/csmacd/csmacd.html

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 $K \cdot 5/12$ bit times, returns to Step 2
 - more collisions: longer backoff interval

NIC = Network Interface Card

CSMA/CD efficiency

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

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

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



Quiz: Does CSMA/CD satisfy ideal properties ?

1. if only 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 (fairness)
3. fully decentralized:
 - no synchronization of clocks, slots
 - no special node to coordinate transmissions
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- A. 0
- B. 1
- C. 2
- D. 3
- E. 4

(Which ones?)

Answer: D

1, 3 and 4 are satisfied
2 is not satisfied as bandwidth is wasted due to
collisions when multiple nodes are transmitting
(neglect the overheads for channel sensing)

“Taking turns” MAC protocols

channel partitioning MAC protocols:

- share channel efficiently and fairly at high load
- inefficient at low load: delay in channel access, I/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

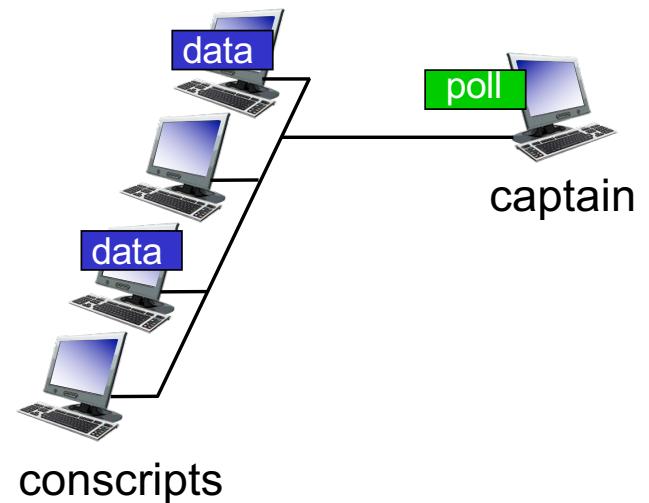
“taking turns” protocols

- look for best of both worlds!

“Taking turns” MAC protocols

polling:

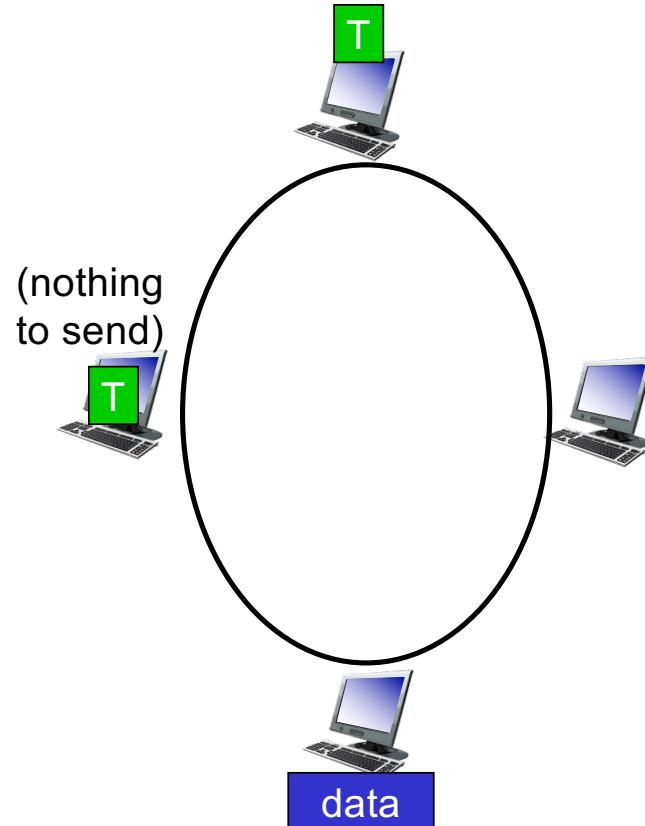
- captain node “invites” other nodes to transmit in turn
- typically used with “dumb” devices
- concerns:
 - *polling overhead*
 - *latency*
 - *single point of failure (captain)*



“Taking turns” MAC protocols

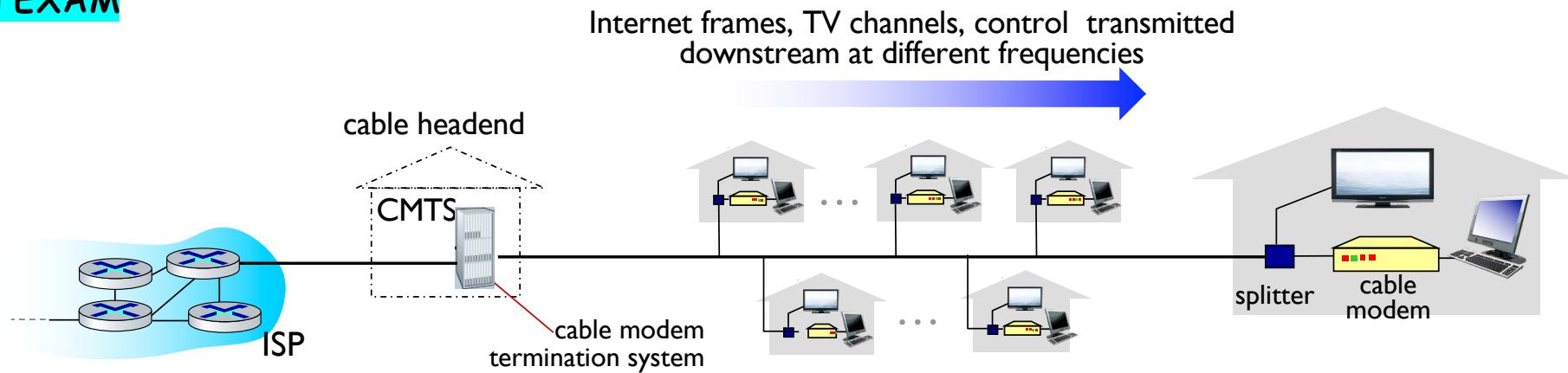
token passing:

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



Cable access network: FDMA, TDMA and random access!

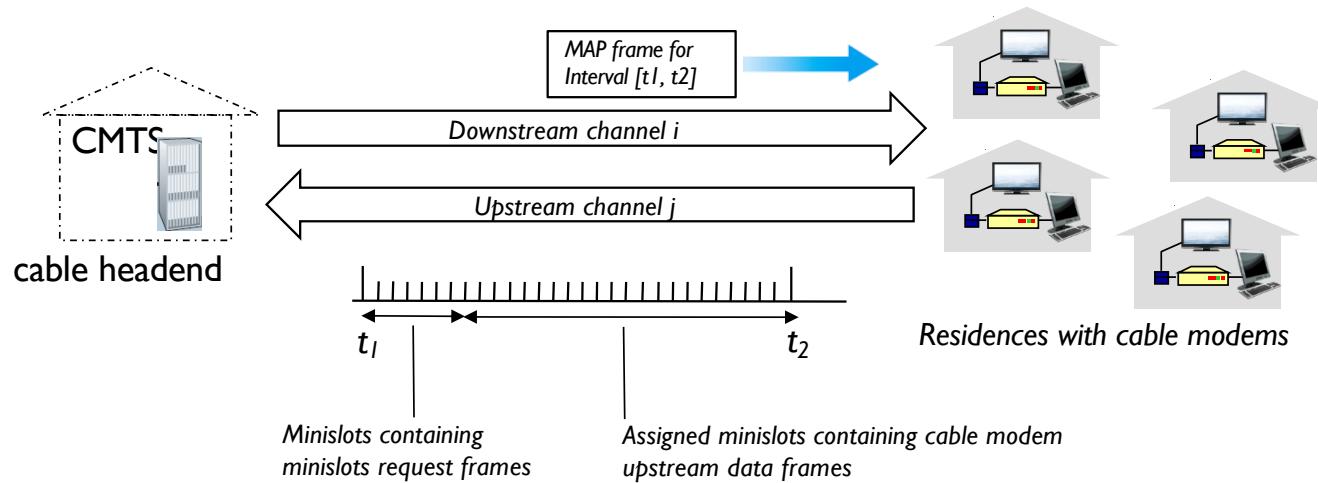
NOT ON EXAM



- ***multiple*** downstream (broadcast) *FDMA 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 using TDMA

Cable access network:

NOT ON EXAM



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

Quiz: Does taking turns satisfy ideal properties ?



1. if only one node wants to transmit, it can send at rate R.
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- A. 0
- B. 1
- C. 2
- D. 3
- E. 4

(Which ones?)

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Answer: D

1, 2 and 4 are satisfied

(neglect the overheads for polling and token passing)

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*
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- *link virtualization: MPLS (NOT COVERED)*
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MAC addresses

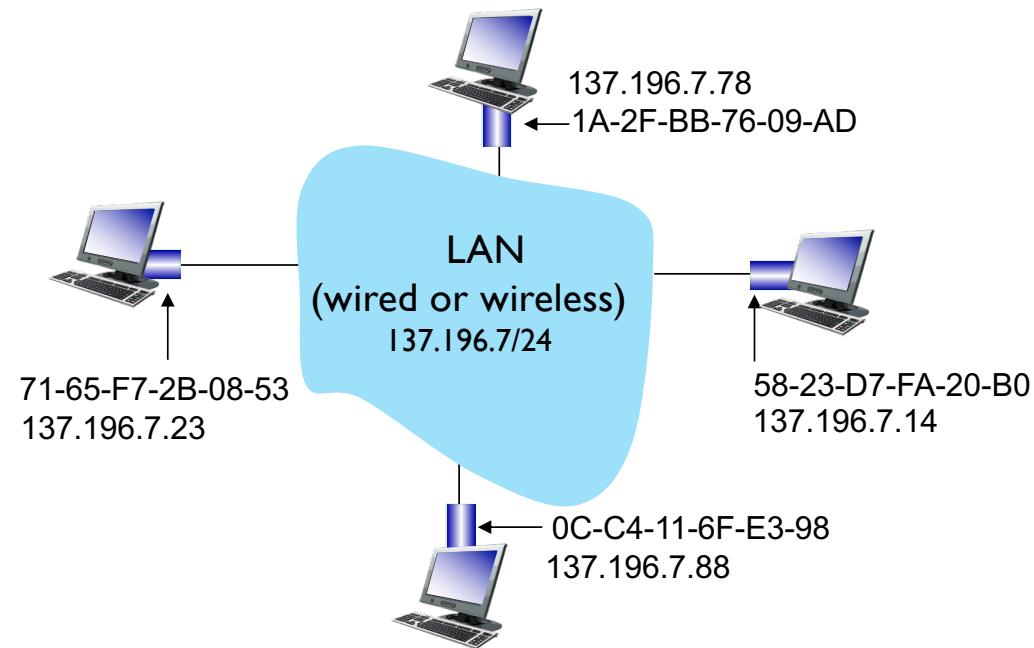
- 32-bit IP address:
 - network-layer address for interface
 - used for layer 3 (network layer) forwarding
 - e.g.: 128.119.40.136
- MAC (or LAN or physical or Ethernet) address:
 - function: used “locally” to get frame from one interface to another physically-connected interface (same subnet, in IP-addressing 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 TFN (SSN)
 - 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

MAC Address vs. IP Address

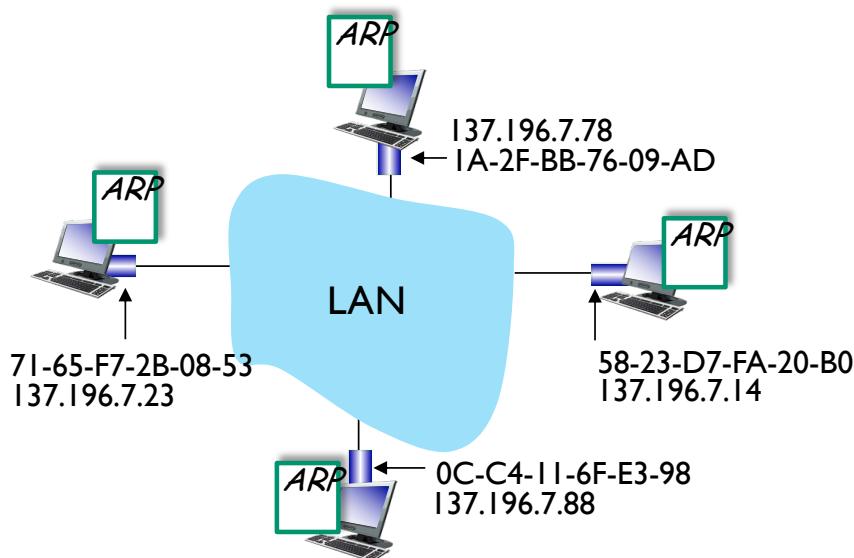
- ❖ MAC addresses (used in link-layer)
 - Hard-coded in read-only memory when adapter is built
 - Flat name space of 48 bits (e.g., 00-0E-9B-6E-49-76)
 - Portable, and can stay the same as the host moves
 - Used to get packet between interfaces on same network
- ❖ IP addresses
 - learned dynamically
 - Hierarchical name space of 32 bits (e.g., 12.178.66.9)
 - Not portable, and depends on where the host is attached
 - Used to get a packet to destination IP subnet

Taking Stock: Naming

Layer	Examples	Structure	Configuration	Resolution Service
App. Layer	www.cse.unsw.edu.au	organizational hierarchy	~ manual	
Network Layer	129.94.242.51	topological hierarchy	DHCP	
Link layer	45-CC-4E-12-F0-97	vendor (flat)	hard-coded	

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:
 $< \text{IP address}; \text{MAC address}; \text{TTL} >$
- 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

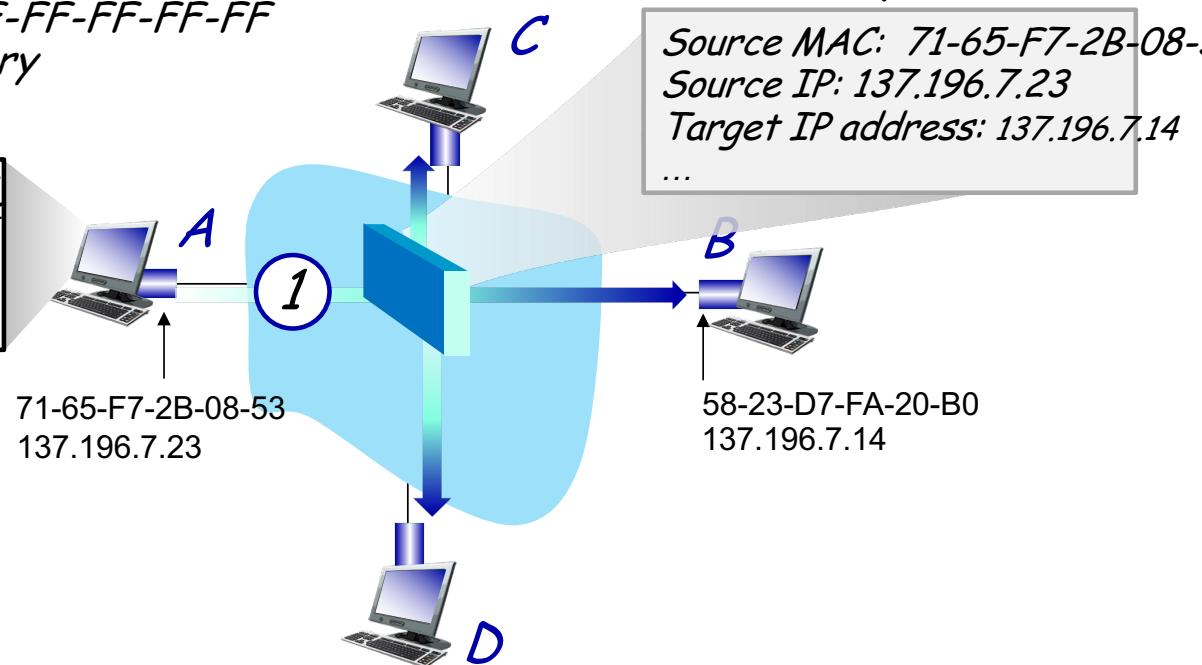
- B's MAC address not in A's ARP table, so A uses ARP to find B's MAC address

A broadcasts ARP query, containing B's IP addr

- destination MAC address = FF-FF-FF-FF-FF-FF
- all nodes on LAN receive ARP query

1

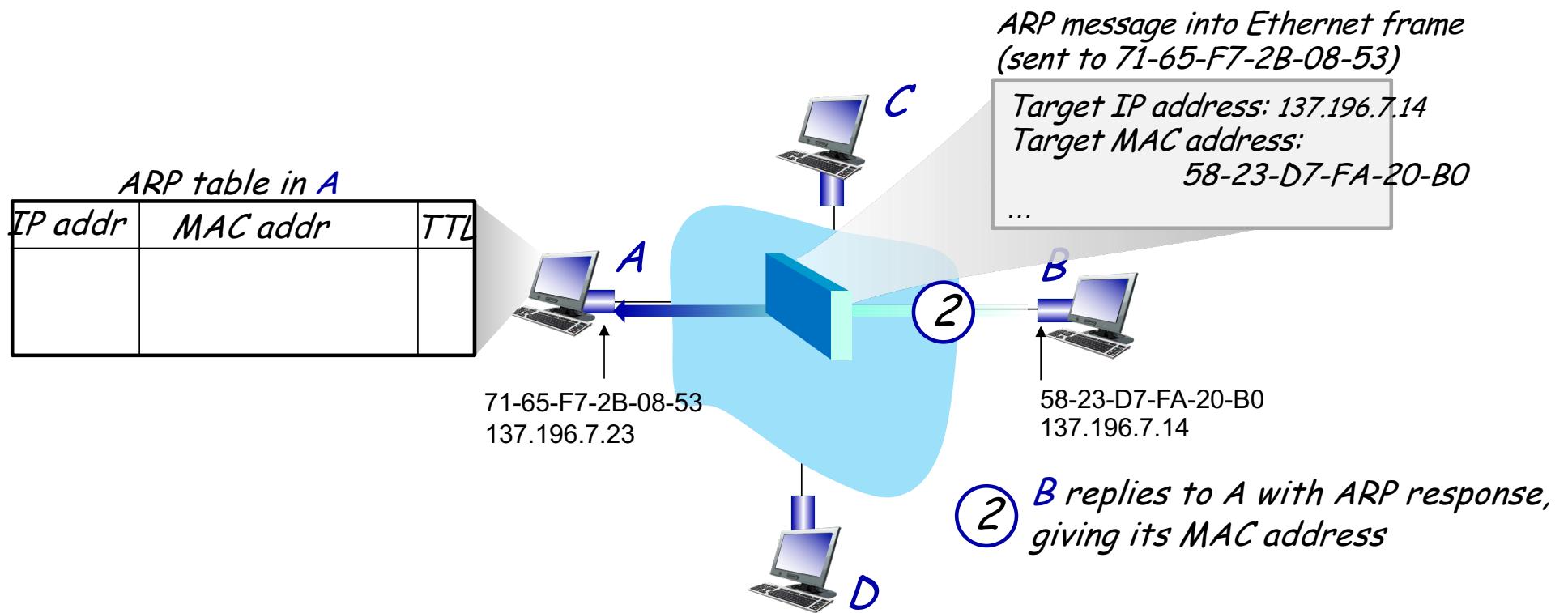
IP addr	MAC addr	TTL



ARP protocol in action

example: A wants to send datagram to B

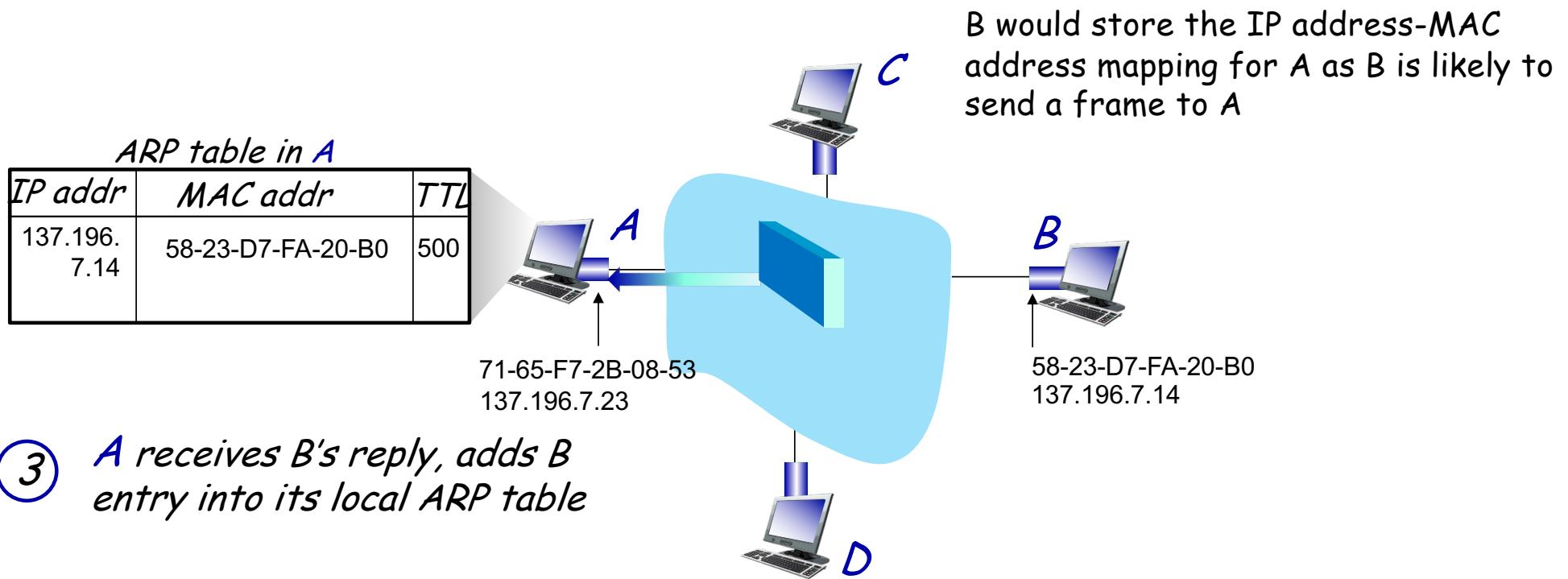
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ARP protocol in action

example: A wants to send datagram to B

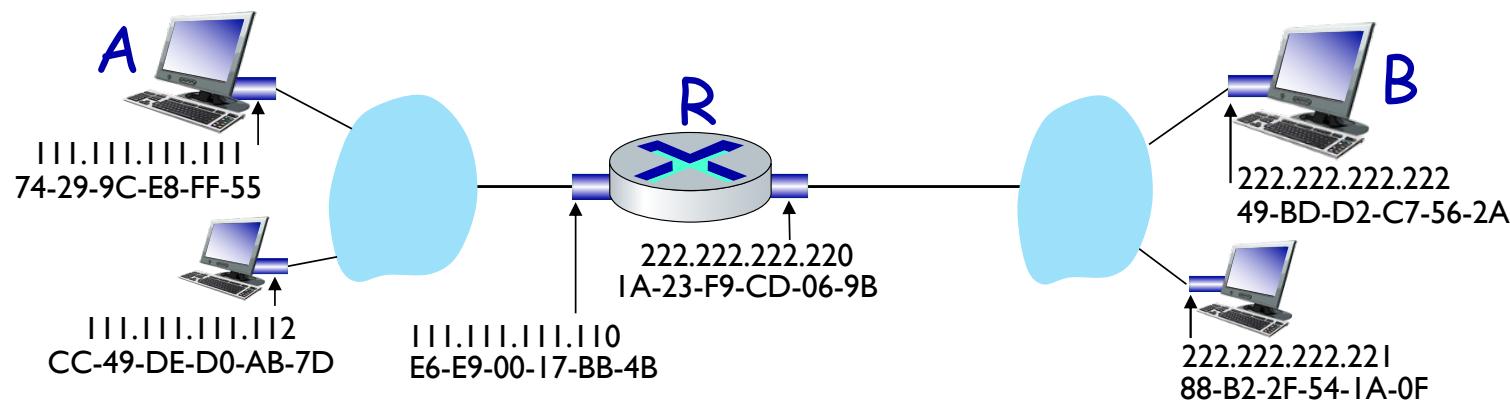
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Routing to another subnet: addressing

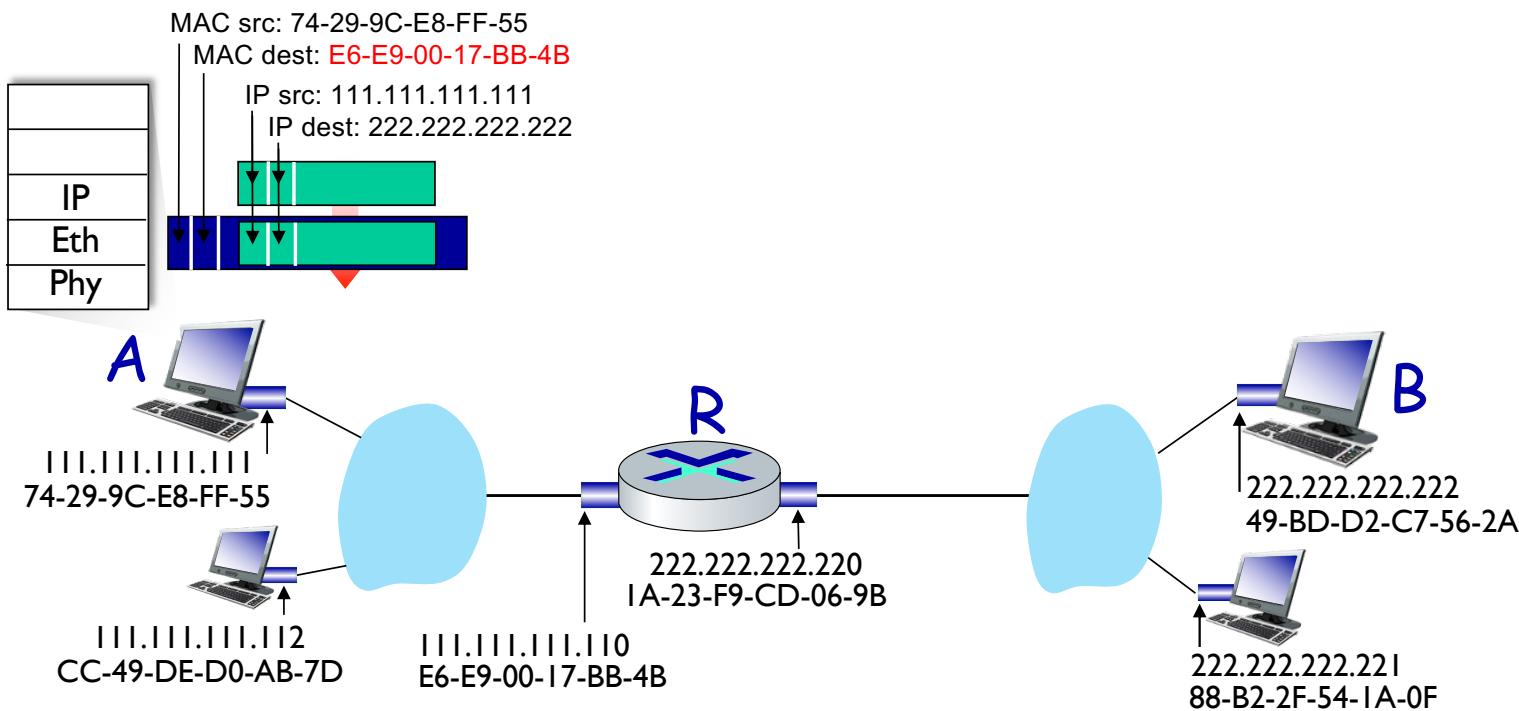
walkthrough: sending a datagram from A to B via R

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



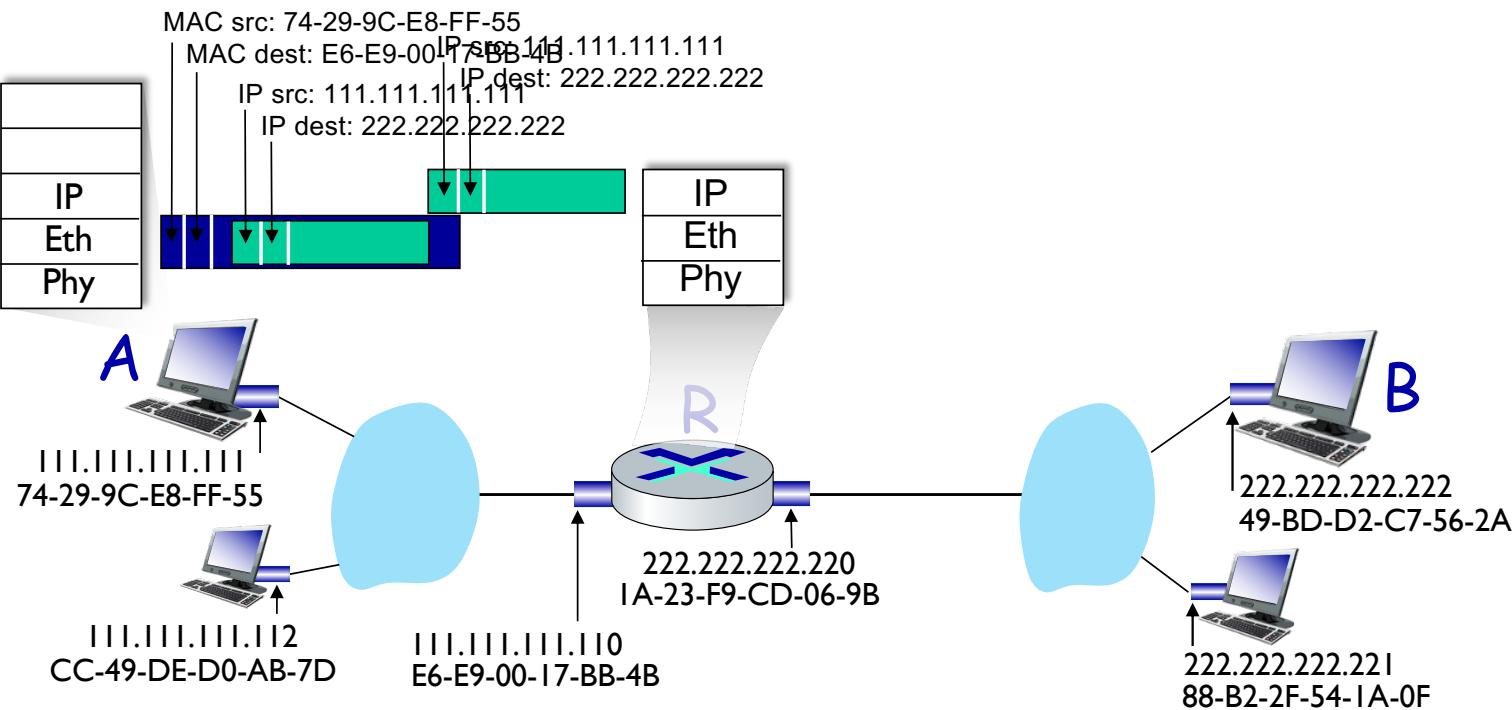
Routing to another subnet: addressing

- 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



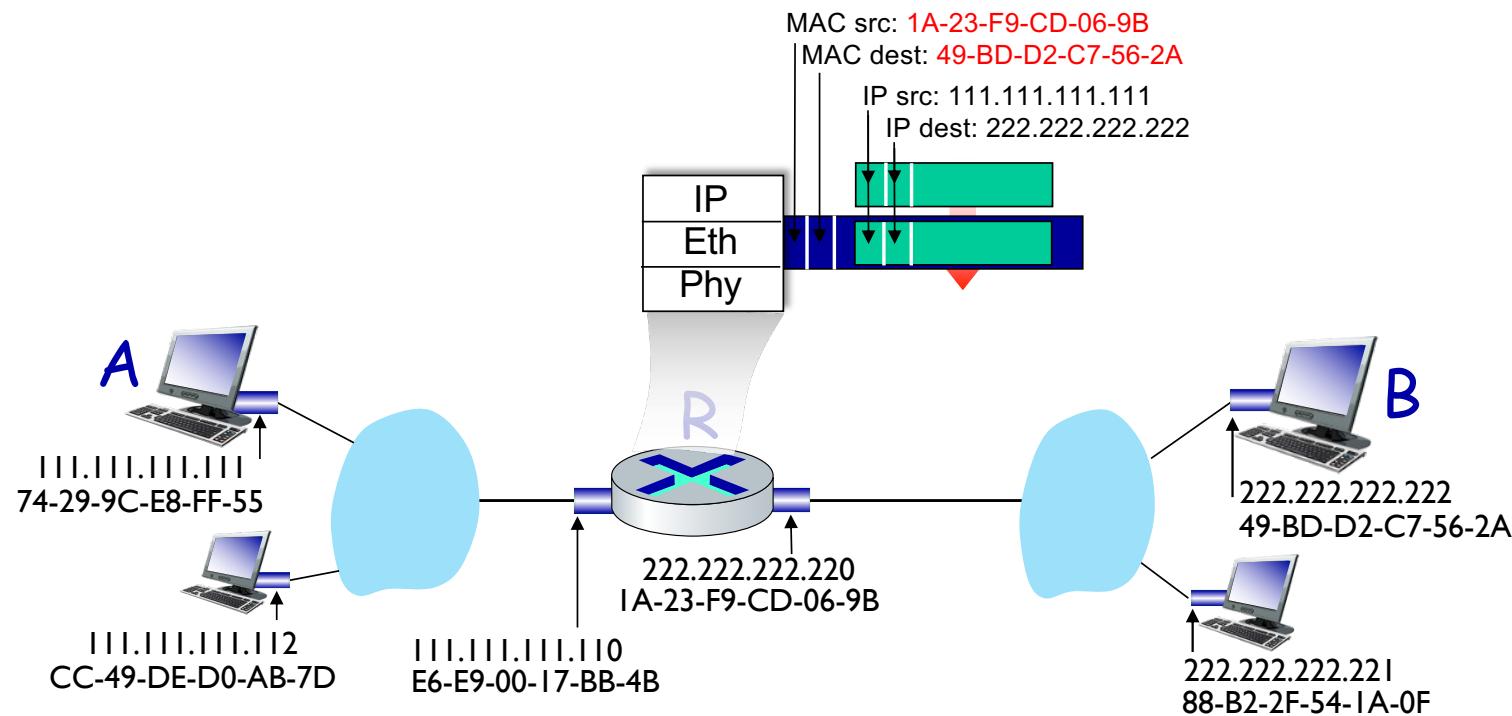
Routing to another subnet: addressing

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



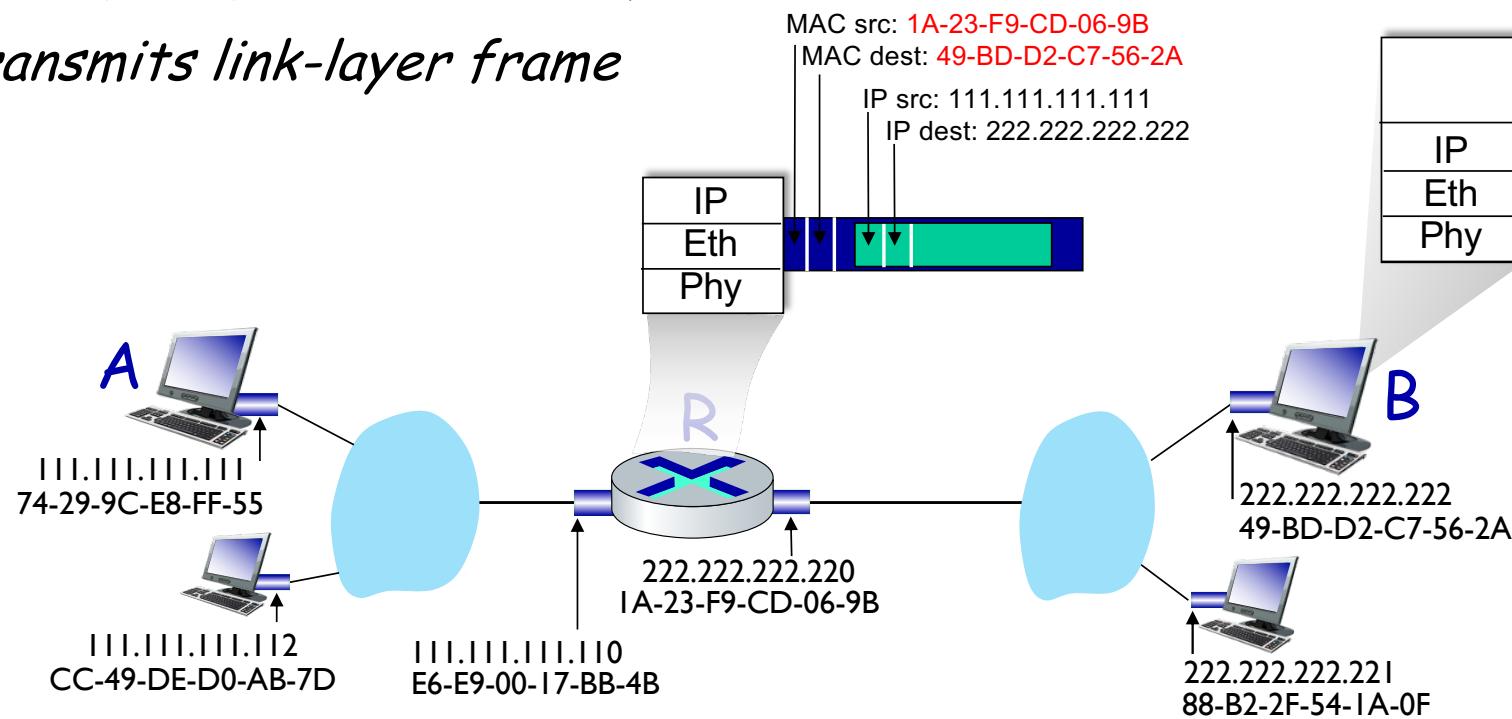
Routing to another subnet: addressing

- 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



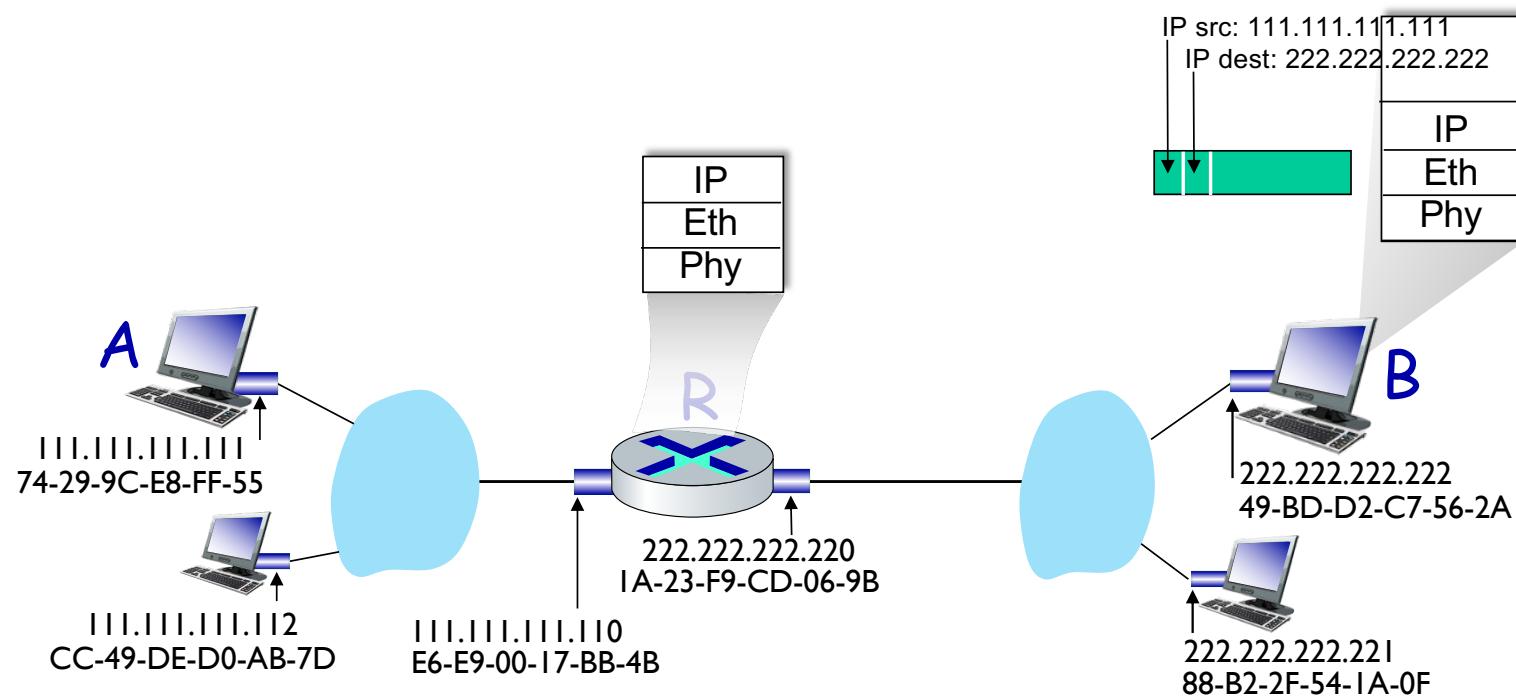
Routing to another subnet: addressing

- 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 passes datagram up protocol stack to IP



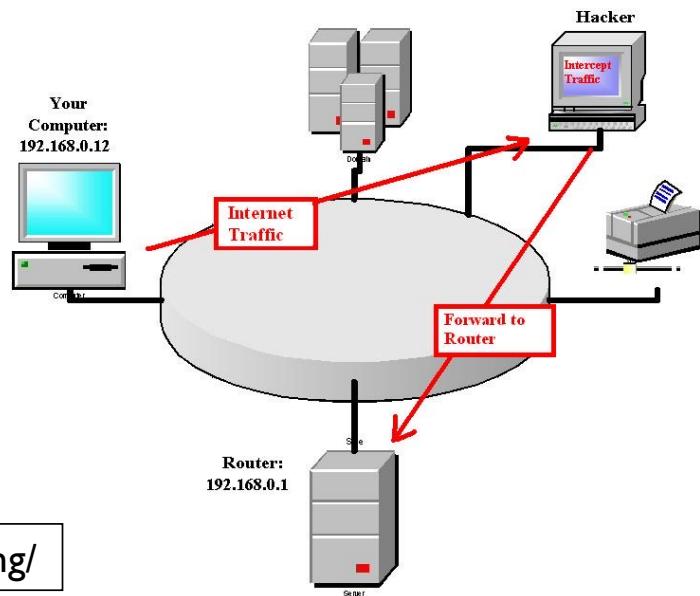


Security Issues: ARP Cache Poisoning

- ❖ Denial of Service - Hacker replies back to an ARP query for the router interface with a fake MAC address
- ❖ Man-in-the-middle attack - Hacker can insert his/her machine along the path between victim machine and gateway router
- ❖ Such attacks are generally hard to launch as hacker needs physical access to the network

Solutions -

- Use Switched Ethernet with port security enabled (i.e., one host MAC address per switch port)
- Adopt static ARP configuration for small size networks
- Use ARP monitoring tools such as ARPWatch



<https://www.okta.com/au/identity-101/arp-poisoning/>

Link layer, LANs: roadmap

- *introduction*
- *error detection, correction*
- *multiple access protocols*
- *LANs*
 - *addressing, ARP*
 - **Ethernet**
 - *switches*
 - *VLANs (NOT COVERED)*
- *link virtualization: MPLS (NOT COVERED)*
- *data center networking (NOT COVERED)*
- *a day in the life of a web request*

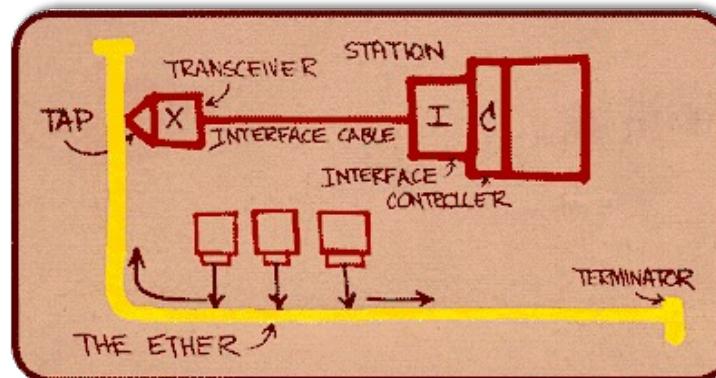
Ethernet

Awarded ACM Turing Award in 2023 !!



“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)



Ethernet frame structure

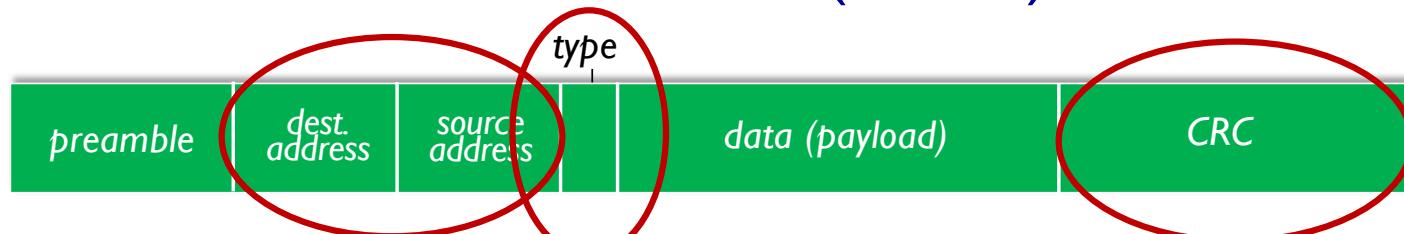
*sending interface encapsulates IP datagram (or other network layer protocol packet) in **Ethernet frame***



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
- **Data:** typically IP datagram. 46 to 1500 bytes, smaller datagrams will need padding

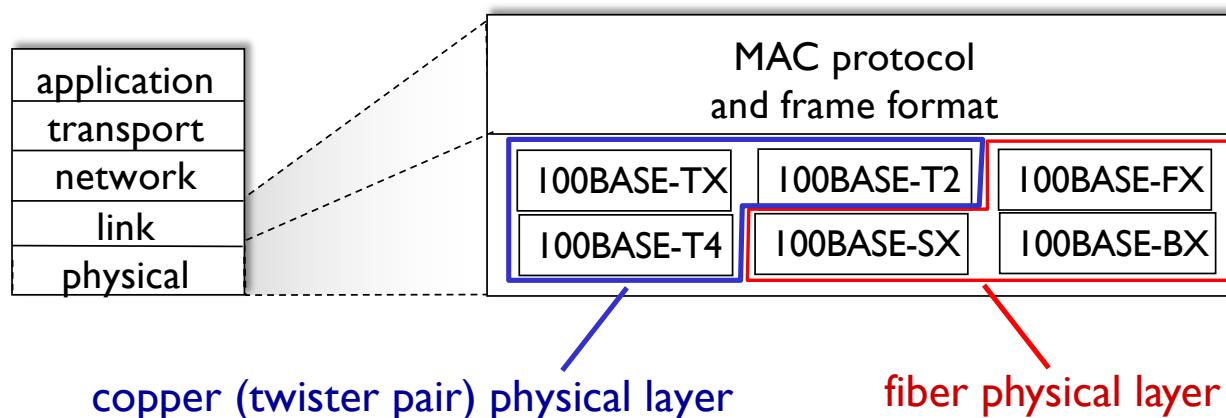
Ethernet: unreliable, connectionless

- **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

NOT ON EXAM

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



Link layer, LANs: roadmap

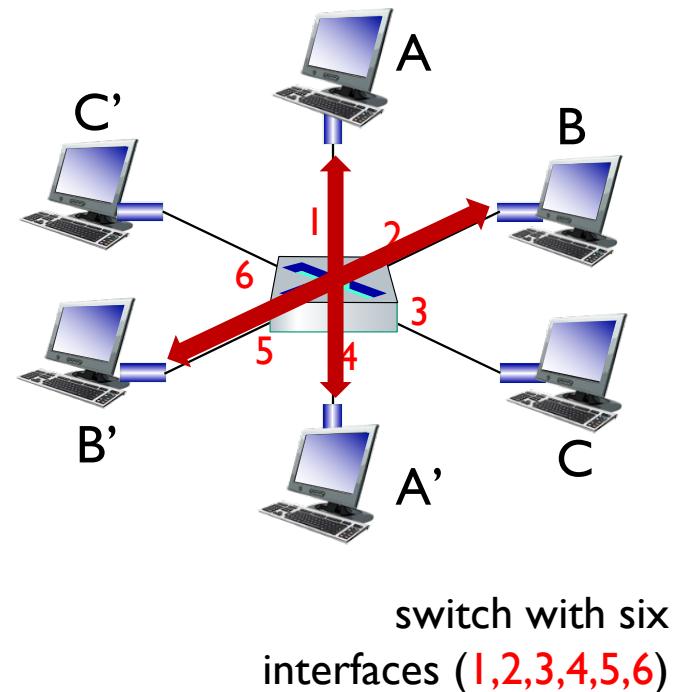
- *introduction*
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 - *Ethernet*
 - ***switches***
 - *VLANs (NOT COVERED)*
- *link virtualization: MPLS (NOT COVERED)*
- *data center networking (NOT COVERED)*
- *a day in the life of a web request*

Ethernet switch

- Switch is a *link-layer* device: it 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, may use CSMA/CD to access segment
- transparent: hosts unaware of presence of switches
- plug-and-play, self-learning
 - switches do not need to be configured

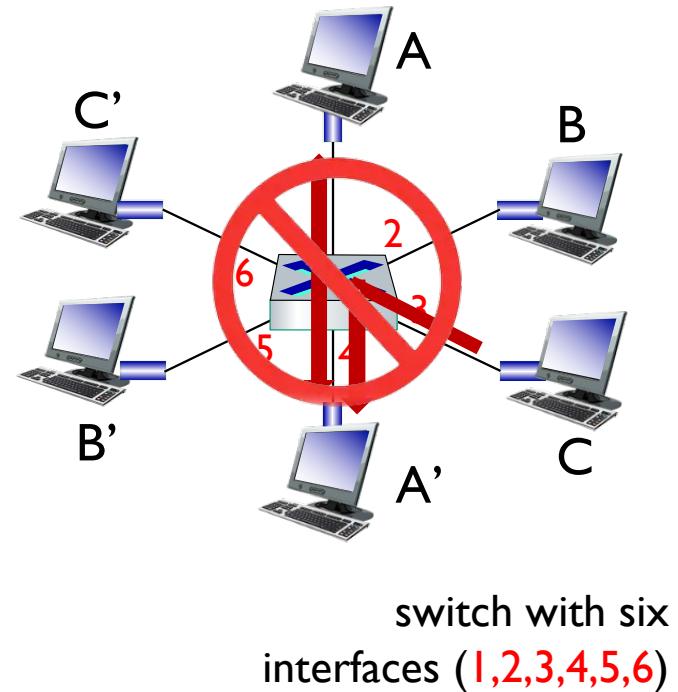
Switch: multiple simultaneous transmissions

- 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: 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

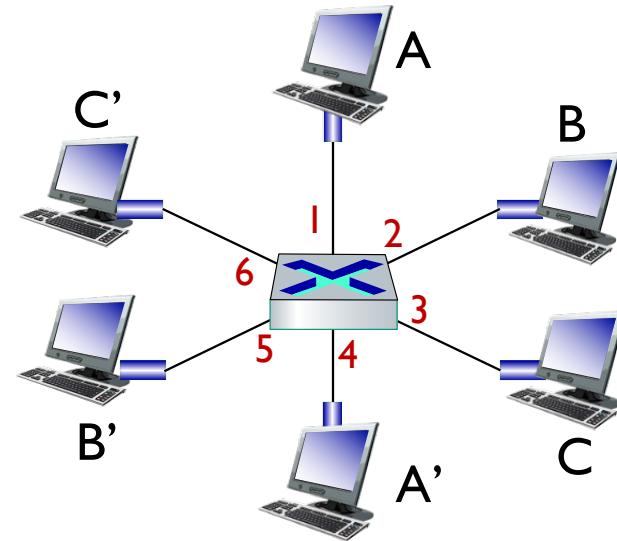


Switch forwarding table

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!

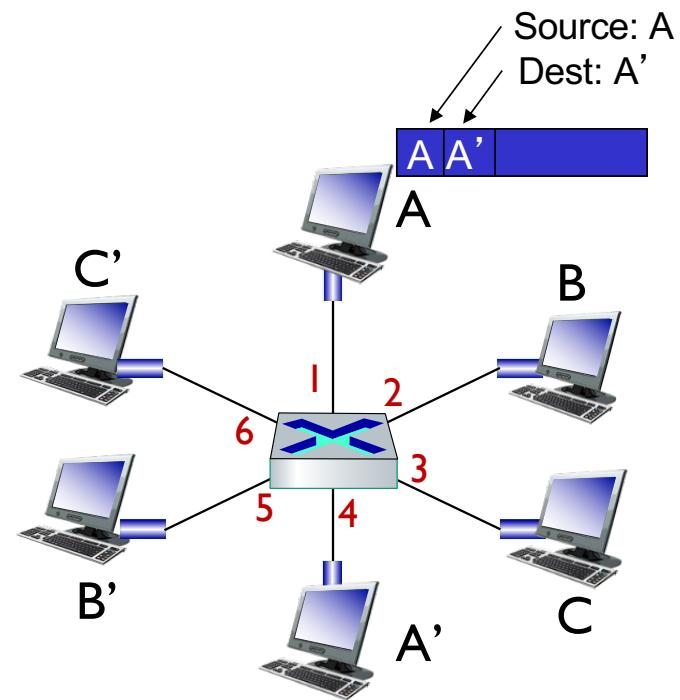


Q: how are entries created, maintained in switch table?

- 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)

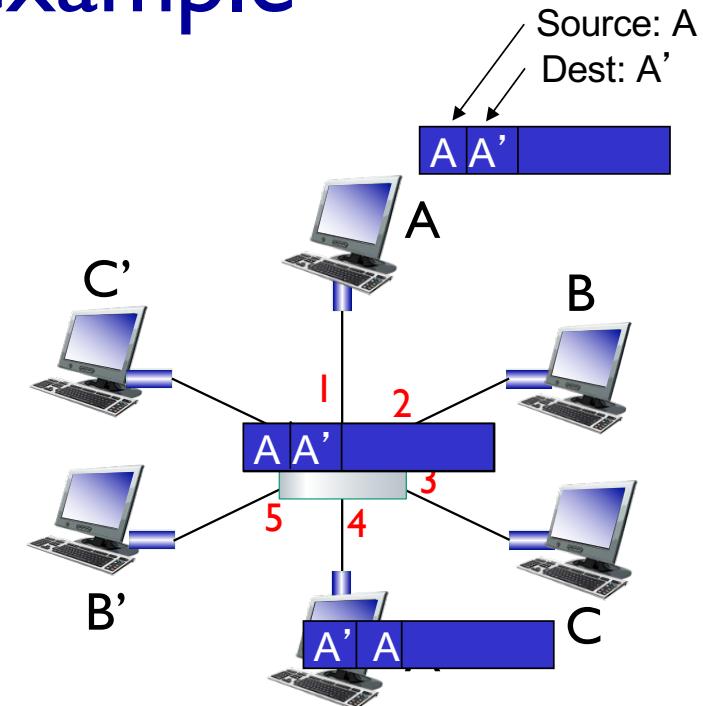
Switch: frame filtering/forwarding

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*

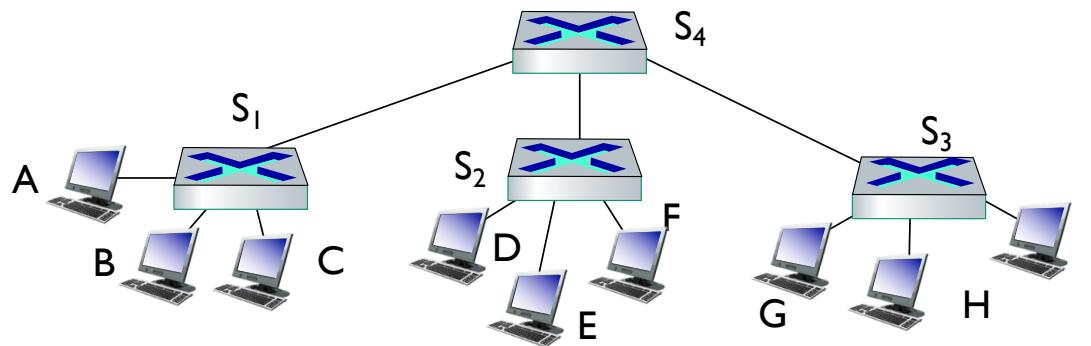


MAC addr	interface	TTL
A	1	60
A'	4	60

*switch table
(initially empty)*

Interconnecting switches

self-learning switches can be connected together:

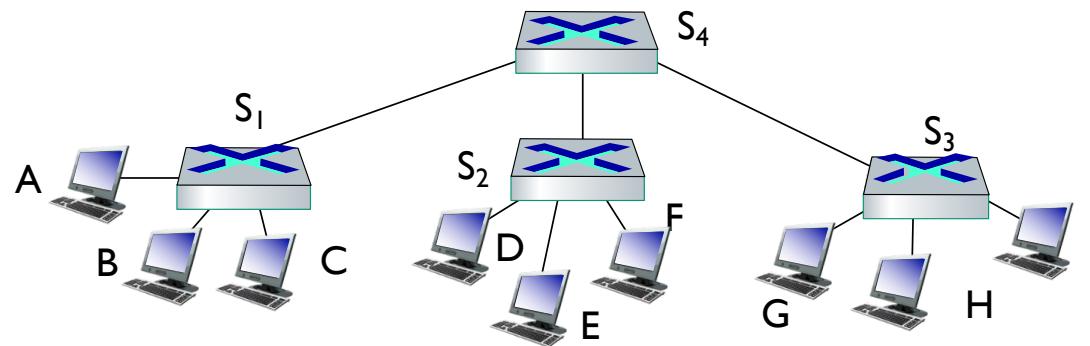


Q: sending from A to G - how does S_1 know to forward frame destined to G via S_4 and S_3 ?

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

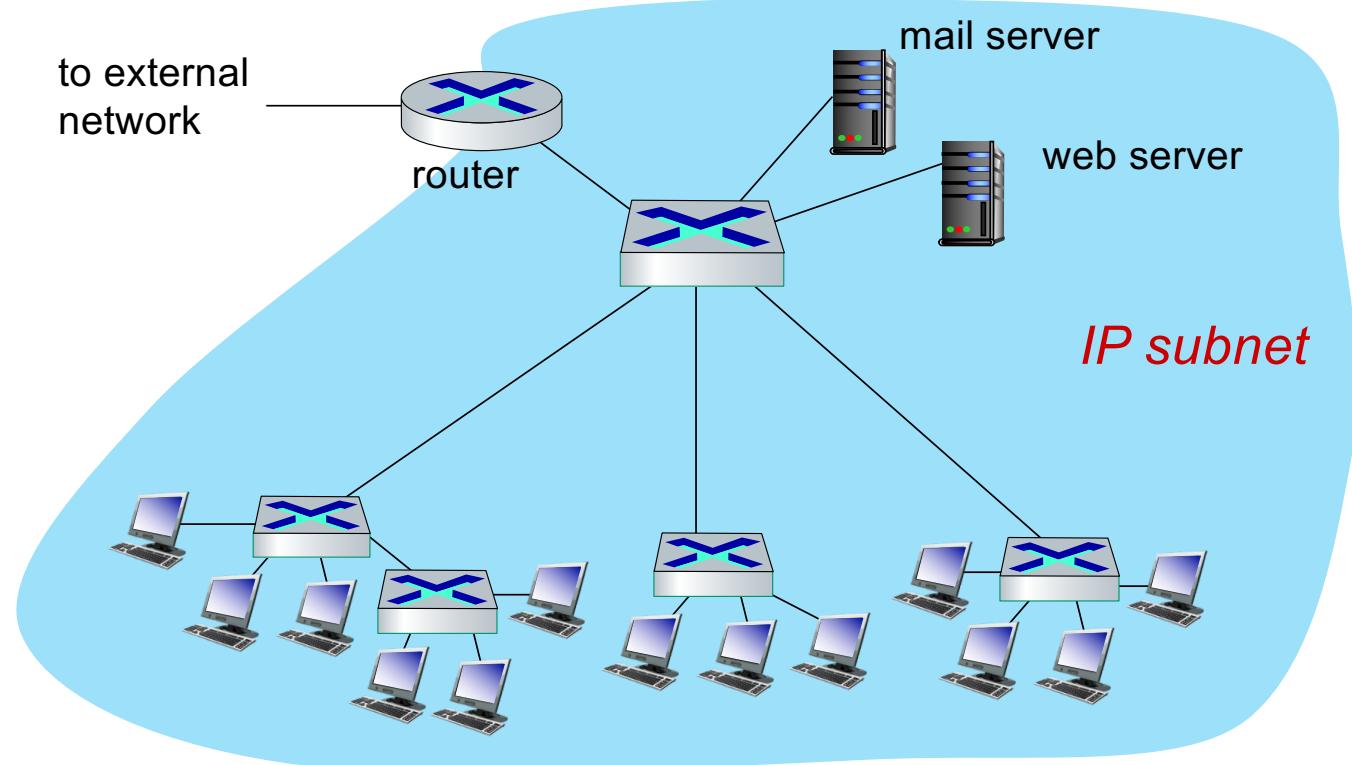
Self-learning multi-switch example

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



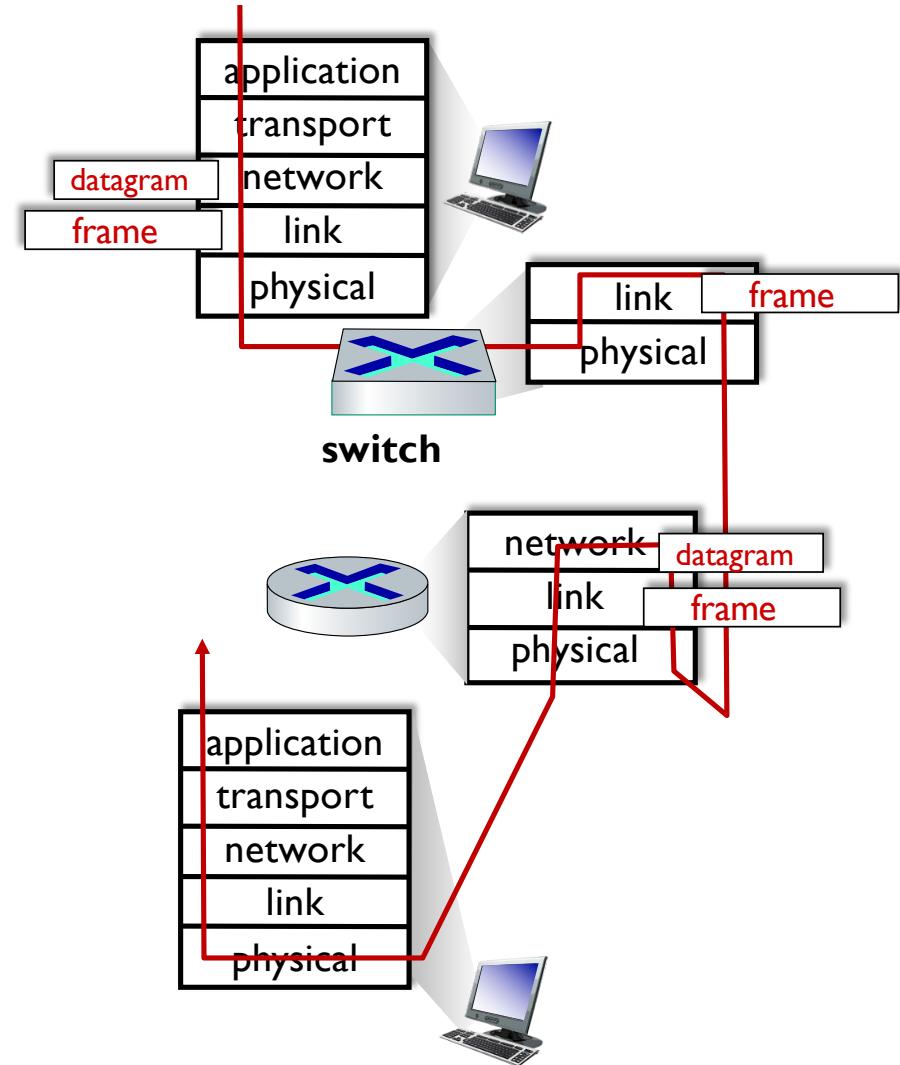
Switches vs. routers

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



Security Issues

- ❖ In a switched LAN once the switch table entries are established frames are not broadcast
 - Sniffing frames is harder than pure broadcast LANs
 - Note: attacker can still sniff broadcast frames and frames for which there are no entries (as they are broadcast)
- ❖ Switch Poisoning: Attacker fills up switch table with bogus entries by sending large # of frames with bogus source MAC addresses
- ❖ Since switch table is full, genuine packets frequently need to be broadcast as previous entries have been wiped out

Quiz

- ❖ A switch can
 - A. Filter a frame
 - B. Forward a frame
 - C. Extend a LAN
 - D. All of the above



www.pollev.com/salil

Answer: D



Quiz



❖ The _____ will typically change from link to link,
but the _____ will typically remain the same

- A. Source MAC address, destination MAC address
- B. Source IP address, destination IP address
- C. Source & destination IP addresses, source & destination
MAC addresses
- D. Source & destination MAC addresses, source & destination
IP addresses

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ANSWER: D
(Slides 62-66)

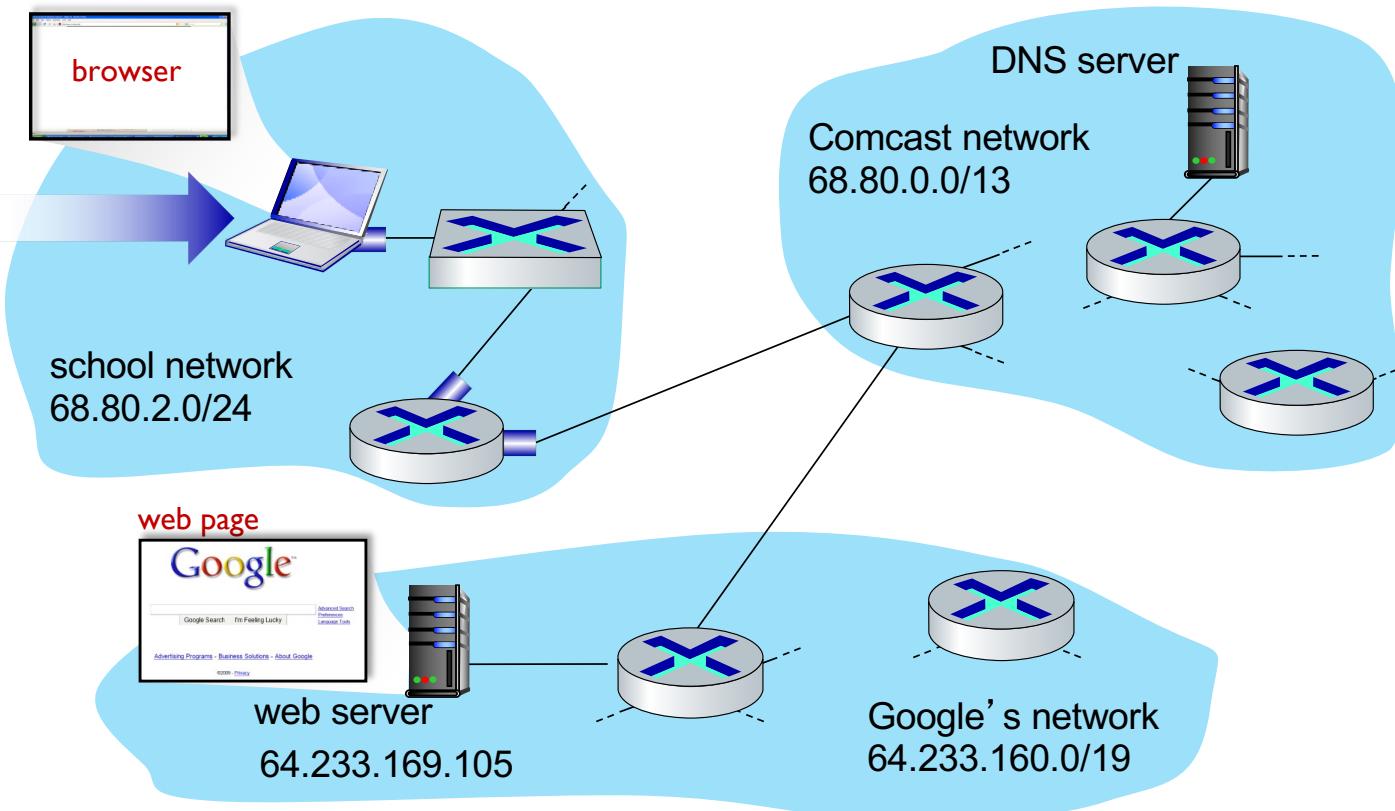
Link layer, LANs: roadmap

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

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

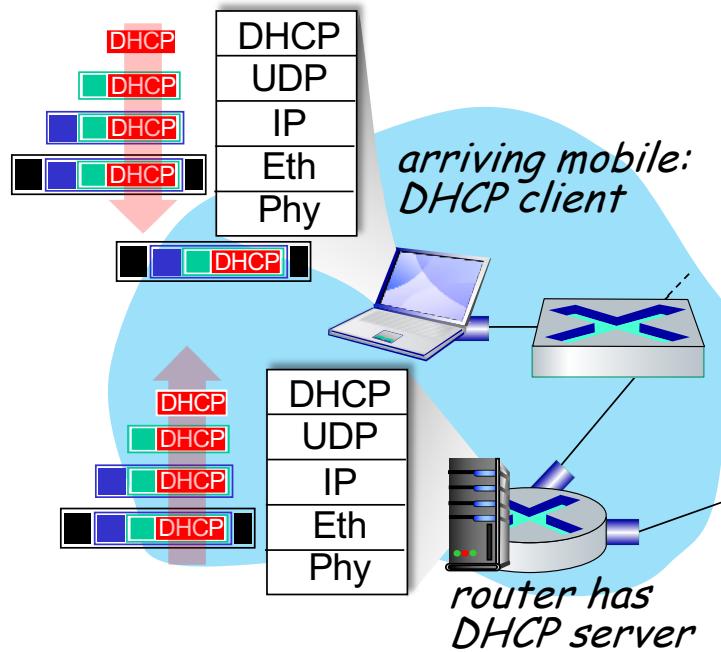


scenario:

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

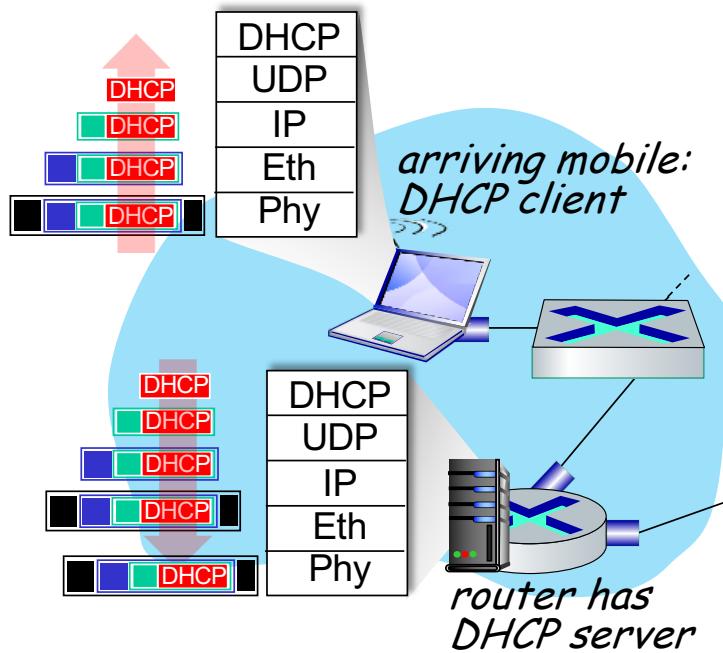
Sounds simple! 

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***

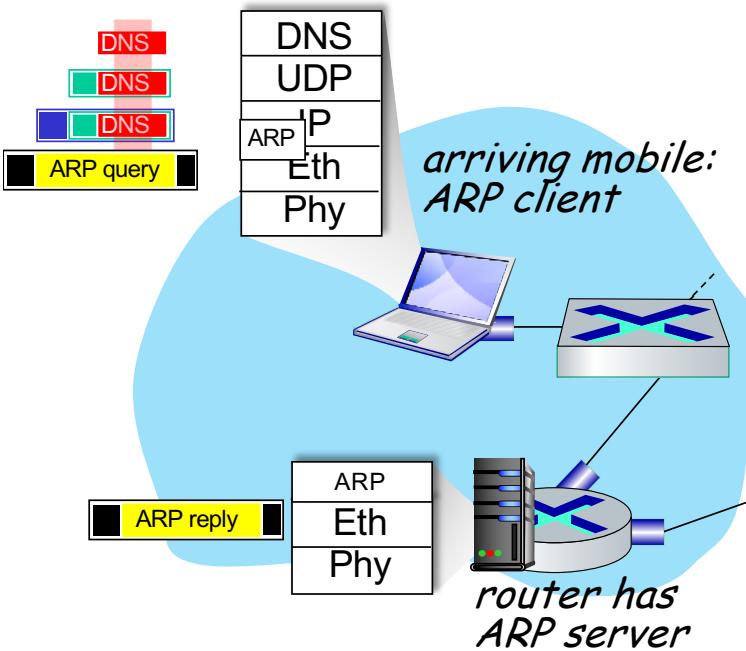
A day in the life: connecting to the Internet



- 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

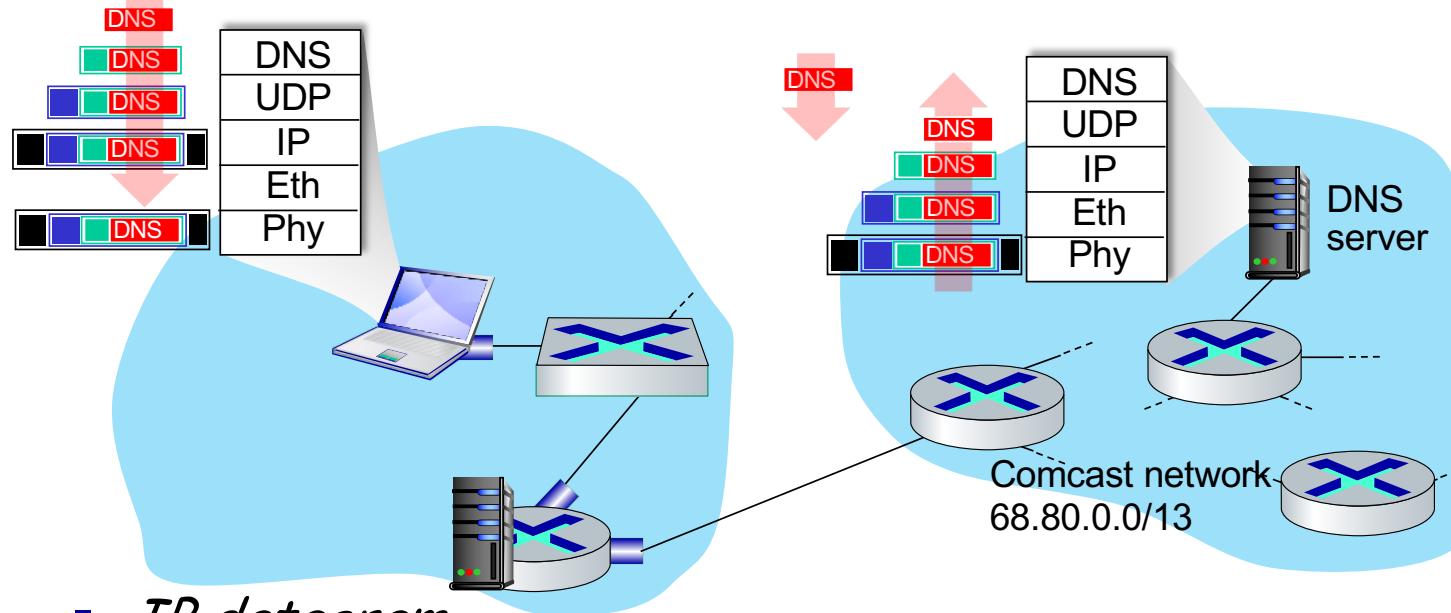
Client now has IP address, knows name & addr of DNS server, IP address of its first-hop router

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***

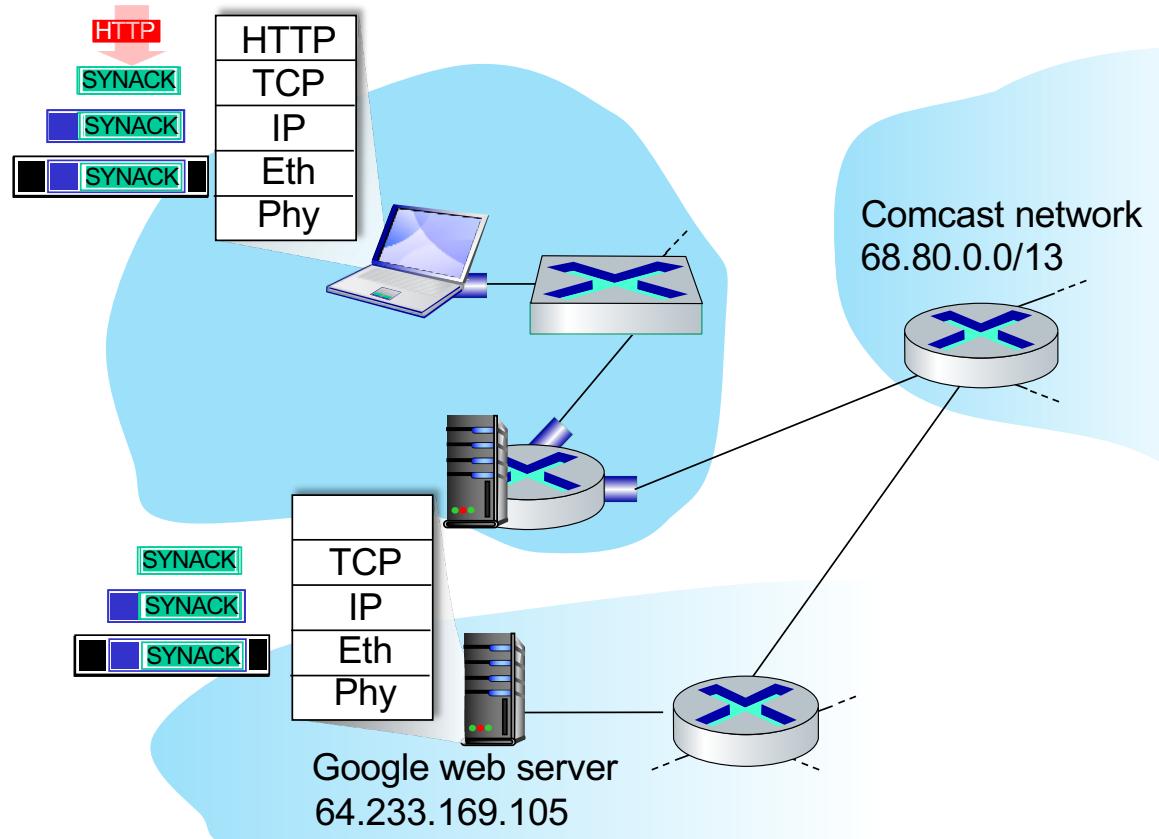
A day in the life... using DNS



- *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*

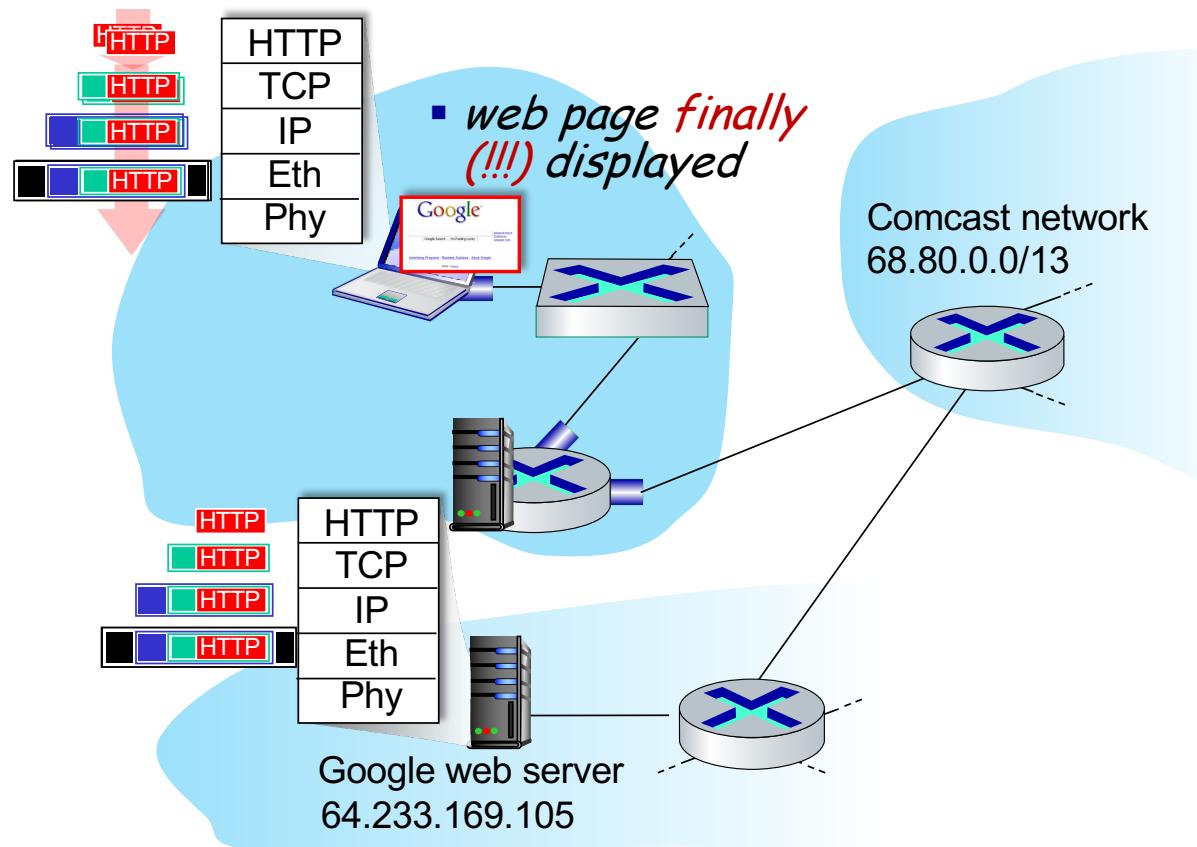
- *demuxed to DNS*
- *DNS replies to client with IP address of www.google.com*

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*

Link Layer: 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,
- *synthesis: a day in the life of a web request*