

Chapter 6

The Link Layer and LANs

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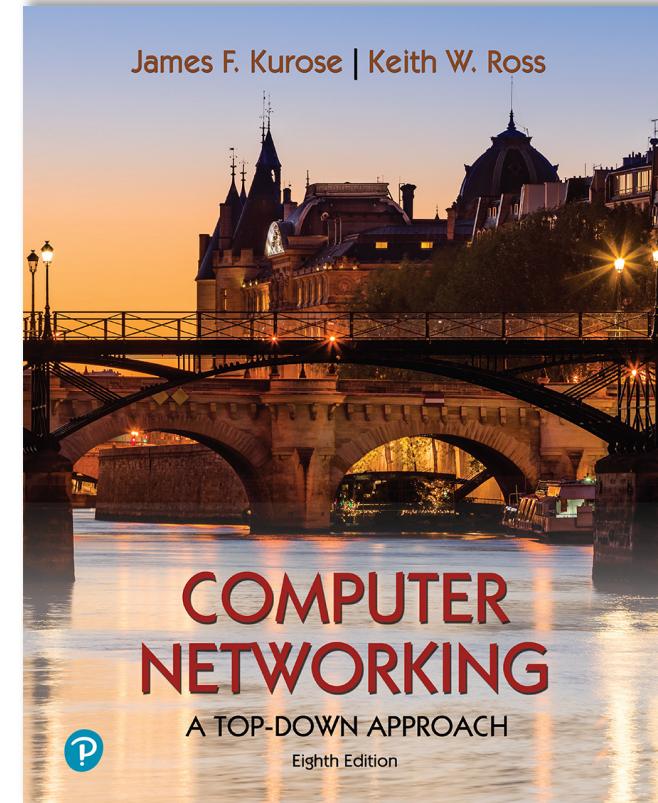
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Thanks and enjoy! JFK/KWR

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

Link layer and LANs: our goals

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



Link layer, LANs: roadmap

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



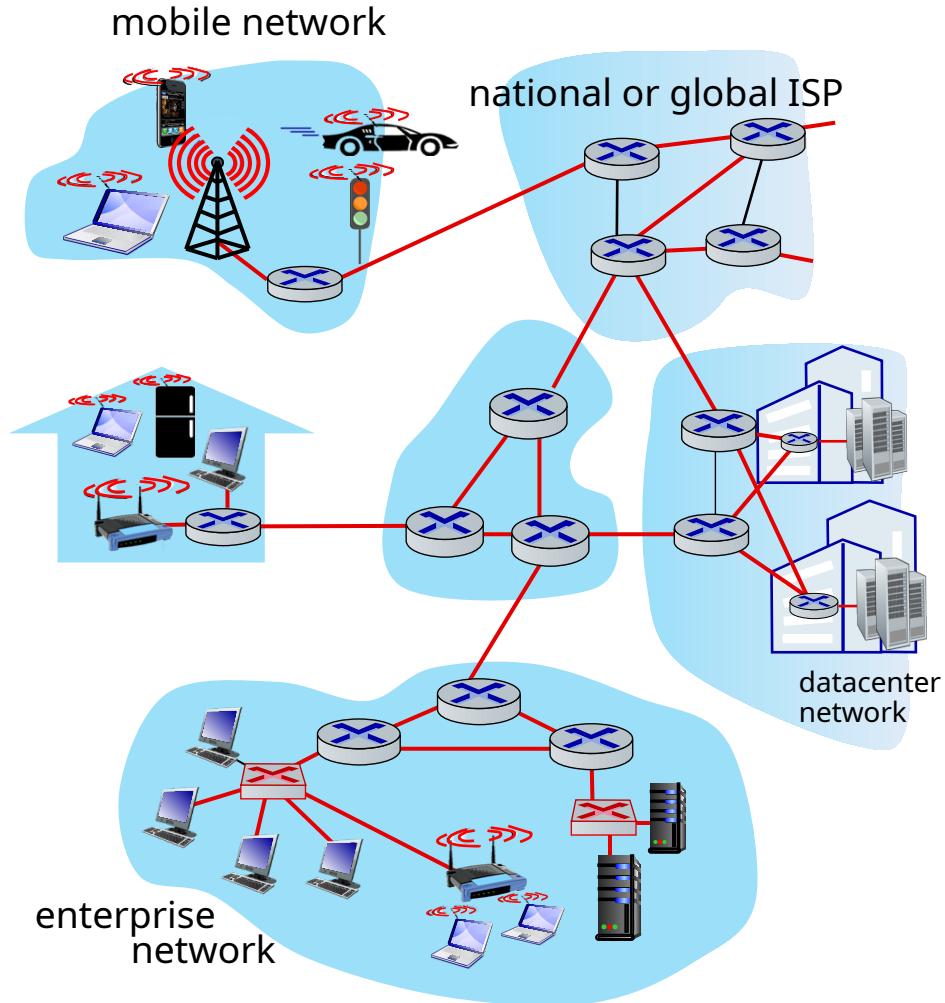
- a day in the life of a web request

Link layer: introduction

terminology:

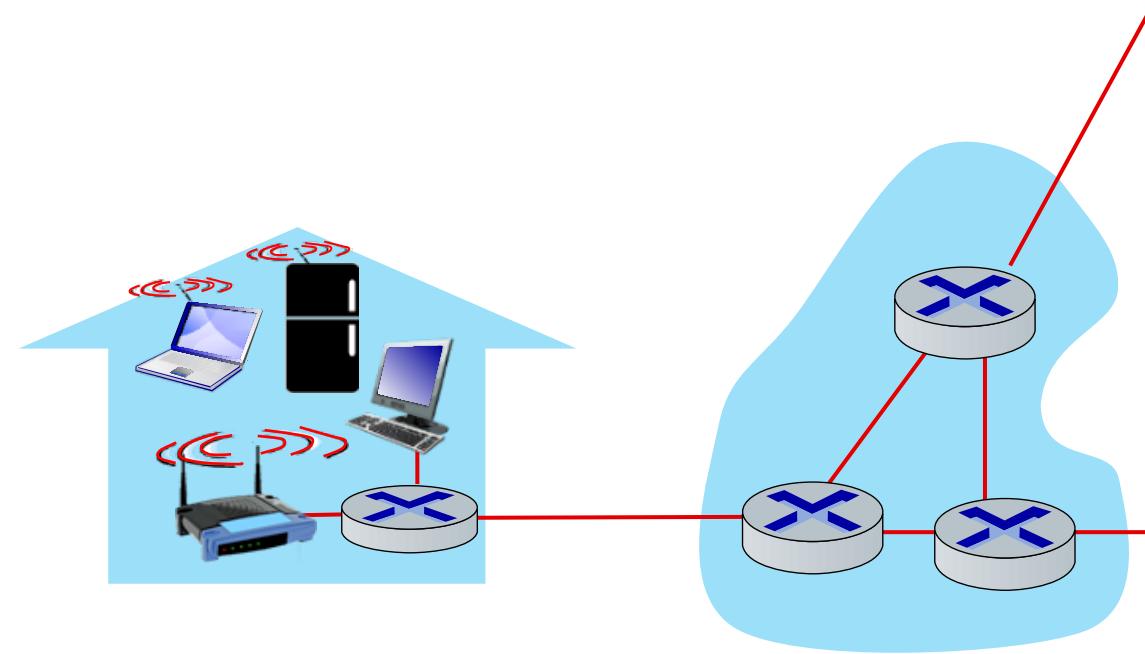
- hosts, routers: **nodes**
- communication channels that connect **adjacent** nodes along communication path: **links**
 - wired , wireless
 - LANs
- layer-2 packet: *frame*, encapsulates datagram

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

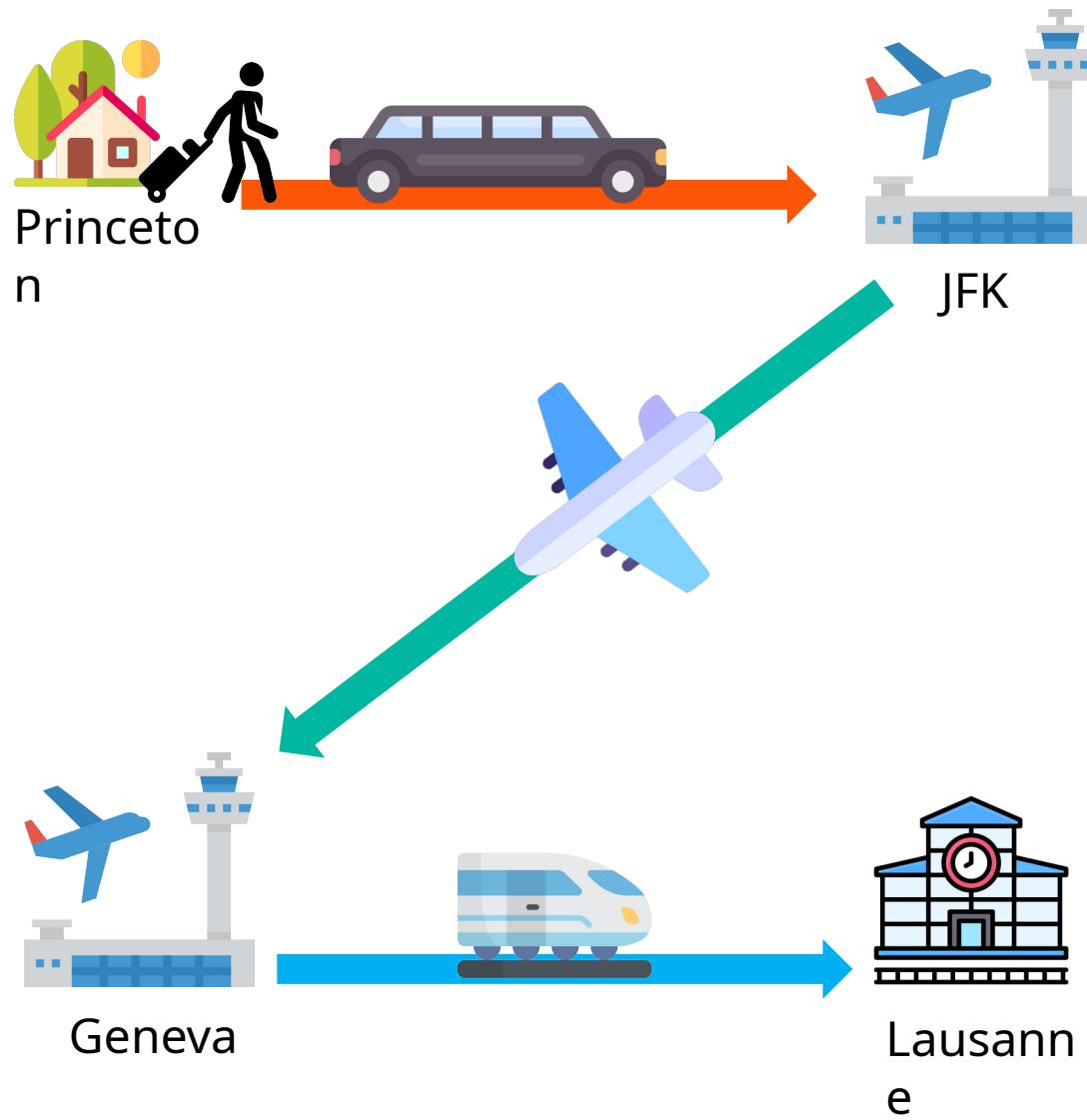


Link layer: context

- 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

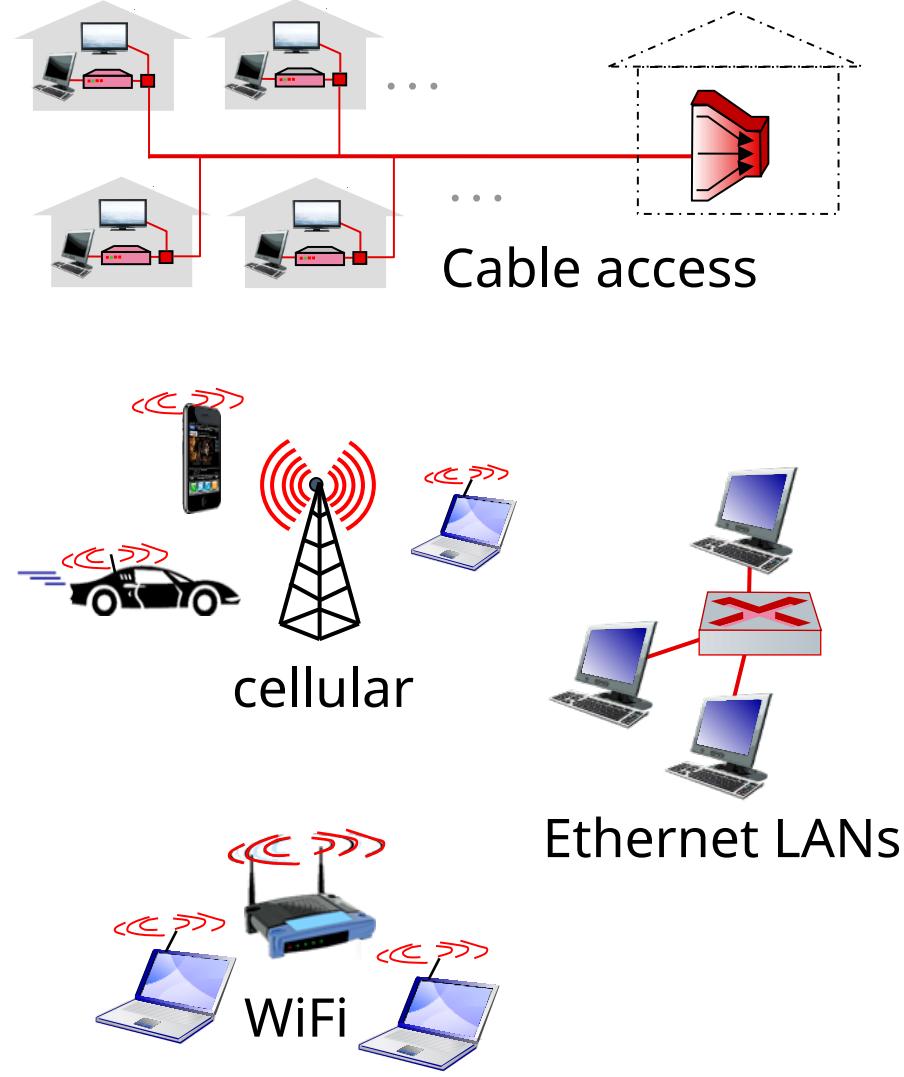


transportation analogy:

- 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

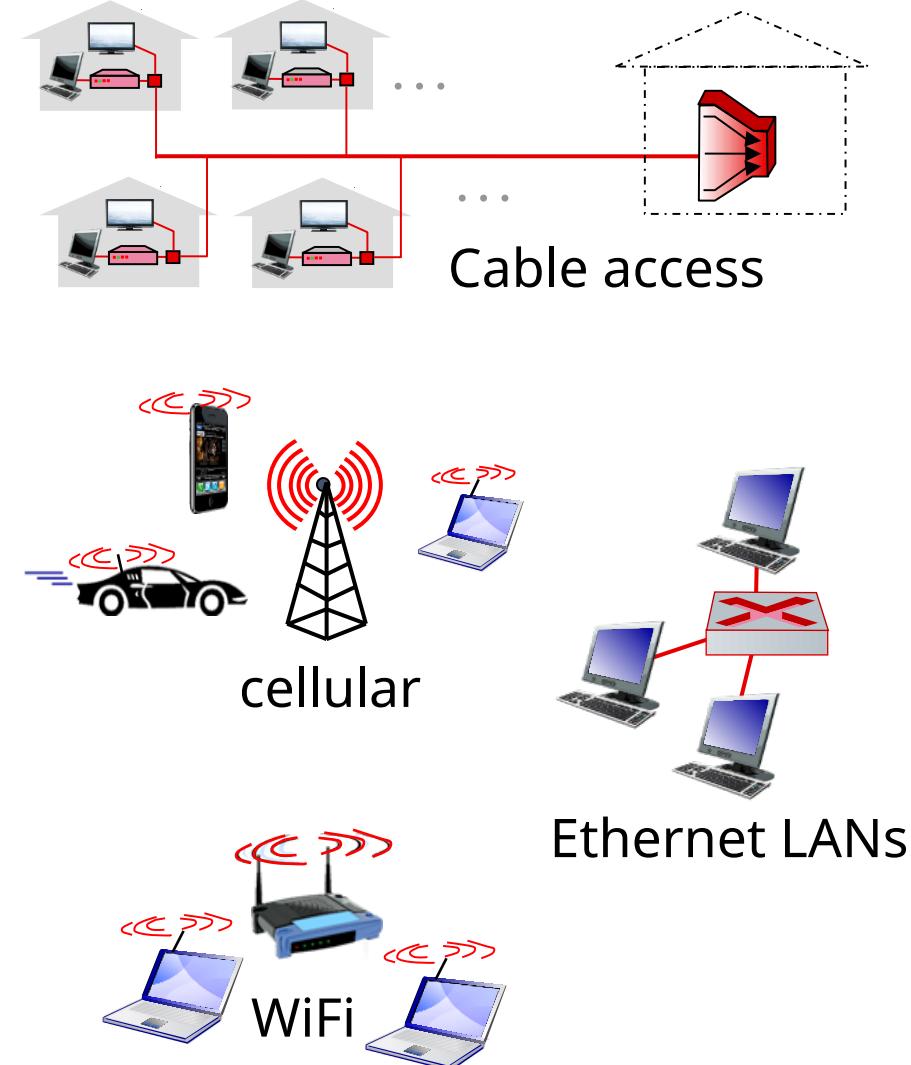
Link layer: services

- **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?**



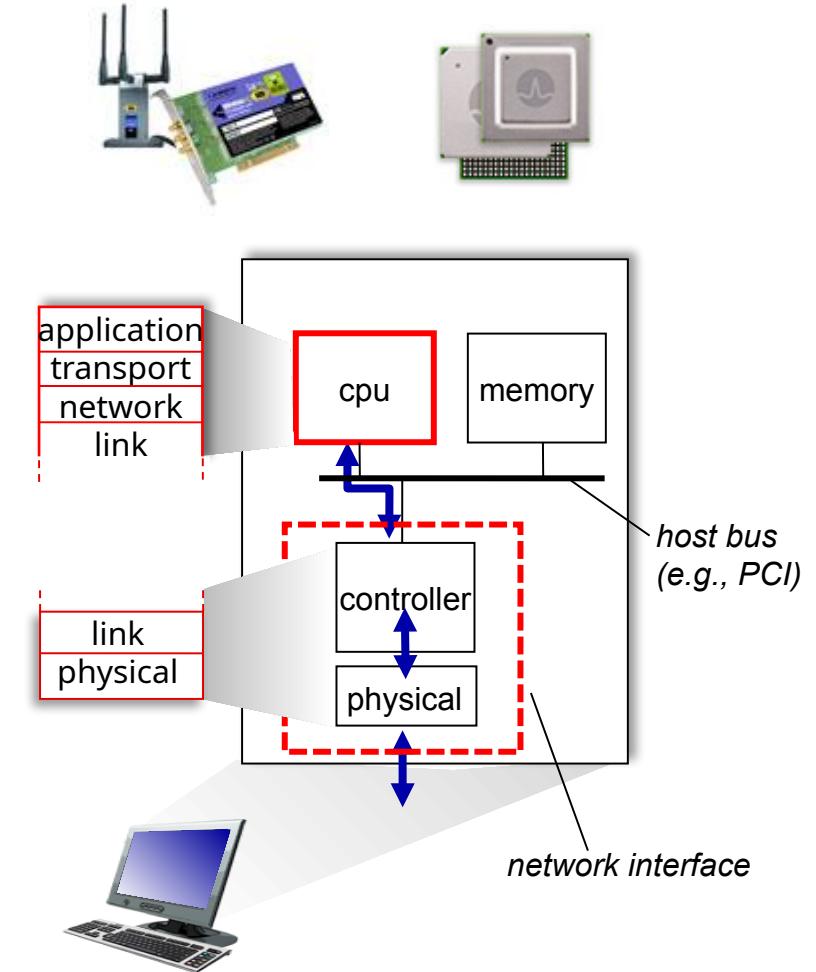
Link layer: services (more)

- **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

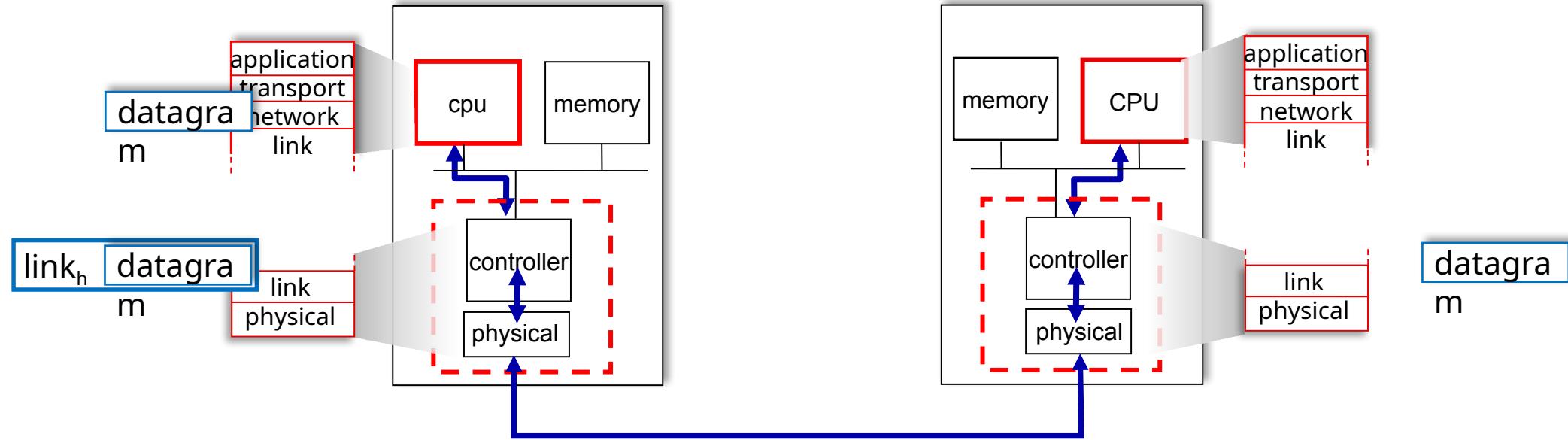


Host link-layer implementation

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



Interfaces communicating



sending side:

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

receiving side:

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

Link layer, LANs: roadmap

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

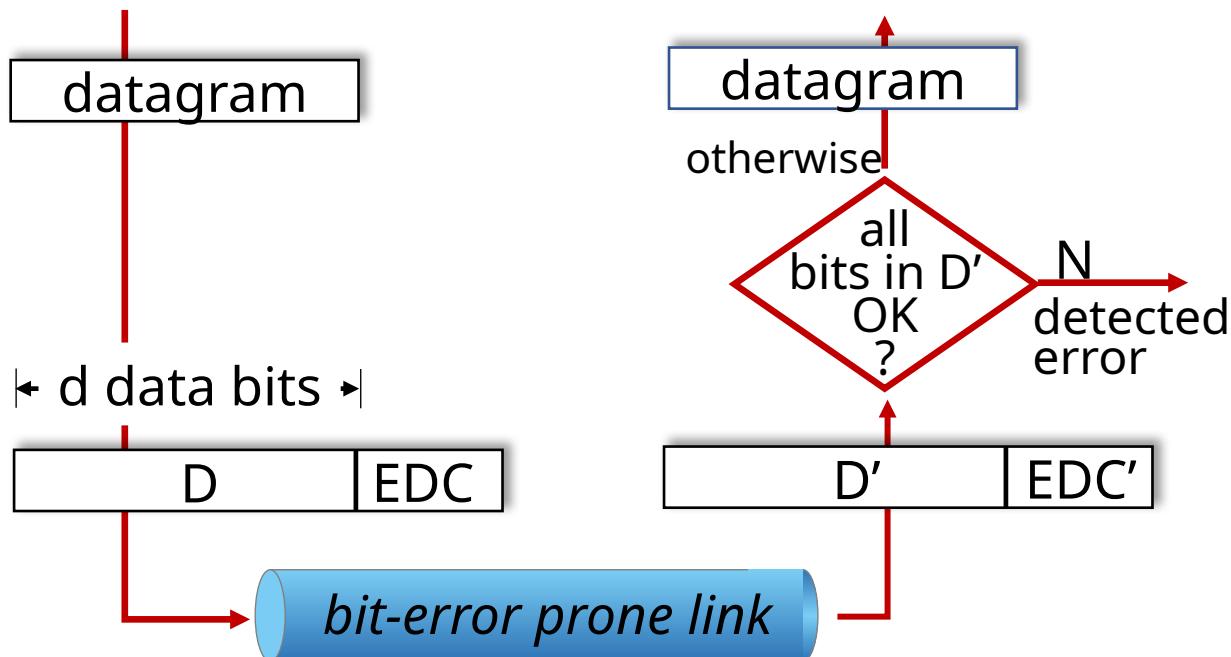


- a day in the life of a web request

Error detection

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

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



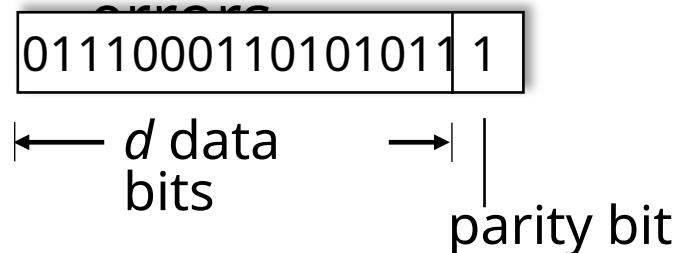
Error detection not 100% reliable!

- 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/odd parity: set parity bit so there is an even/odd number of 1's

At receiver:

- compute parity of d received bits
- compare with received parity bit – if different than error detected



Can detect *and* correct errors (without retransmission!)

- two-dimensional parity:
detect *and correct* single bit errors

$d_{1,1}$...	$d_{1,j}$	$d_{1,j+1}$
$d_{2,1}$...	$d_{2,j}$	$d_{2,j+1}$
...
$d_{i,1}$...	$d_{i,j}$	$d_{i,j+1}$
<hr/>			
$d_{i+1,1}$...	$d_{i+1,j}$	$d_{i+1,j+1}$

column parity

row parity

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 → parity error
0 1 1 1 0 | 1
1 0 1 0 1 | 0
↓ parity error

Internet checksum (review, see section 3.3)

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

sender:

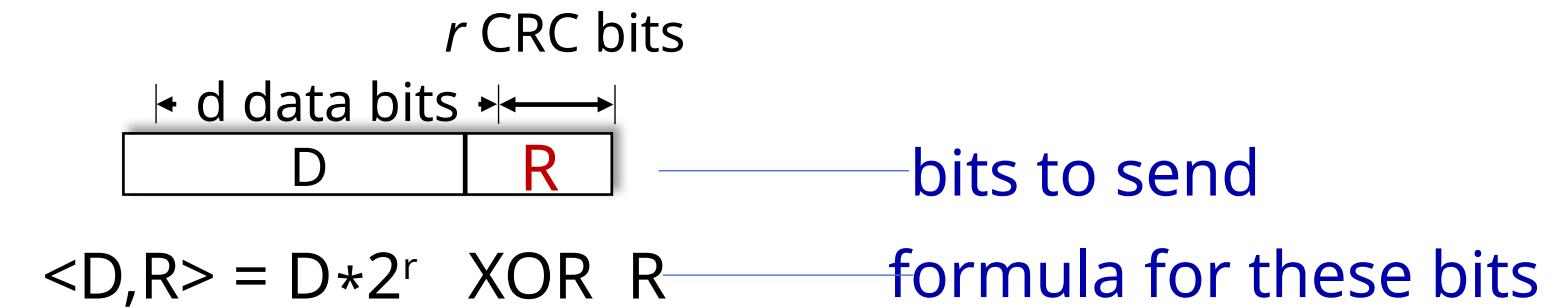
- treat contents of UDP segment (including UDP header fields and IP addresses) as sequence of 16-bit integers
- **checksum:** addition (one's complement sum) of segment content
- checksum value put into UDP checksum field

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, specified in CRC standard)



sender: compute 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)

Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC): example

Sender wants to compute R such that:

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

... or equivalently (XOR R both sides):

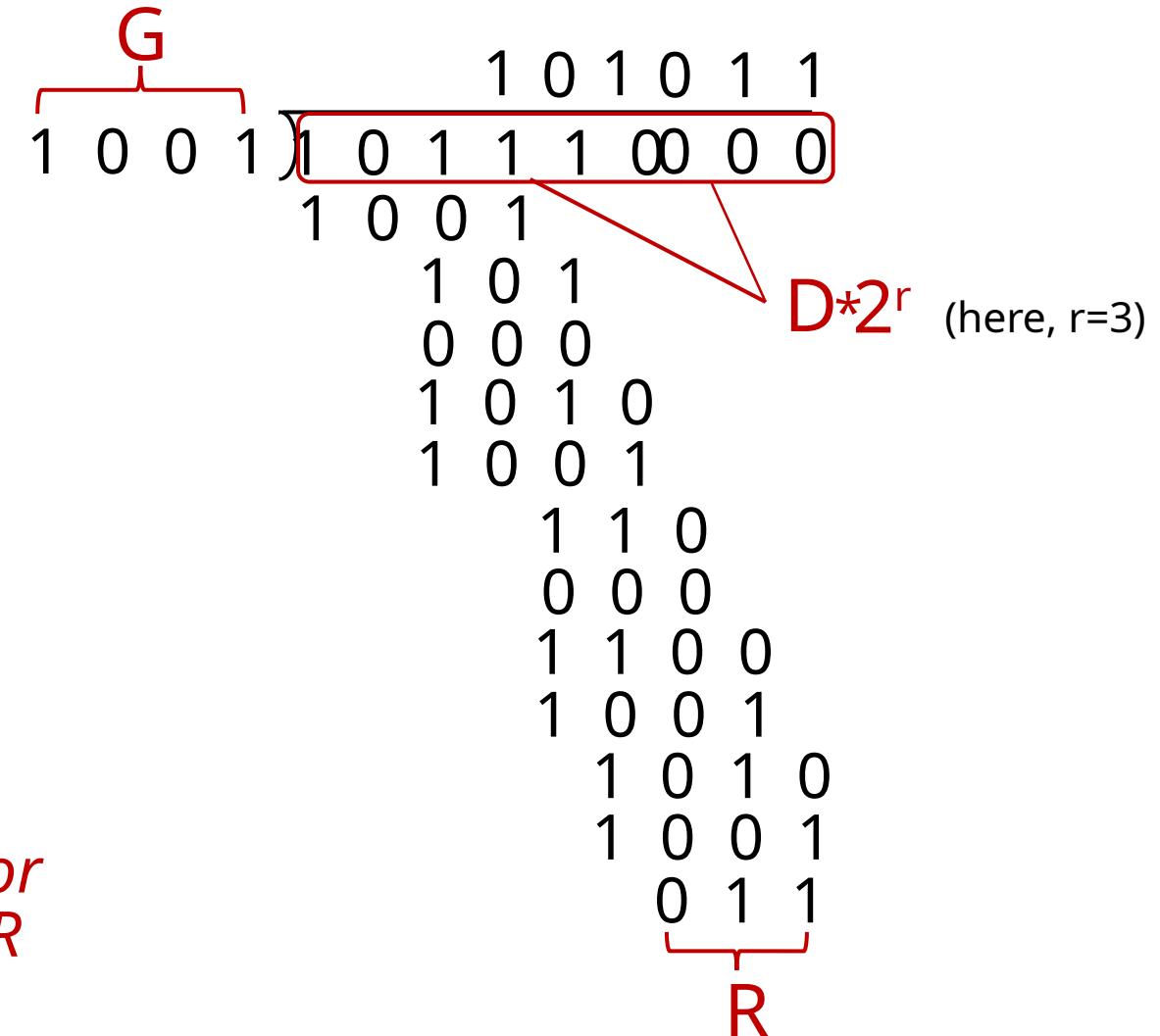
$$D \cdot 2^r = nG \text{ XOR } R$$

... which says:

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

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

algorithm for computing R



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

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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-school Ethernet
 - upstream HFC in cable-based access network
 - 802.11 wireless LAN, 4G/4G, satellite



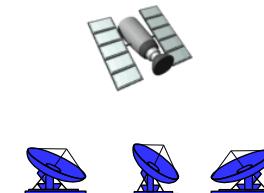
shared wire (e.g.,
cabled Ethernet)



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
- 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

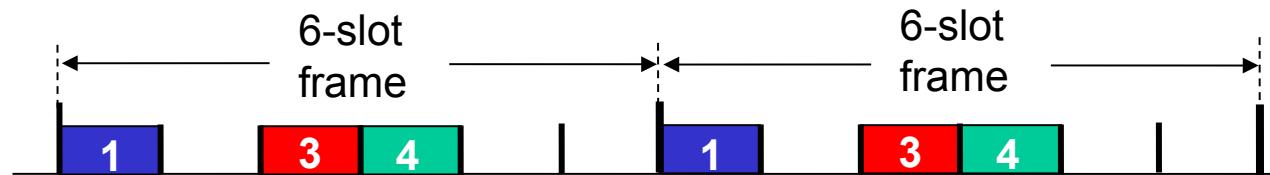
- **“taking turns”**

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

Channel partitioning MAC protocols: TDMA

TDMA: time division multiple access

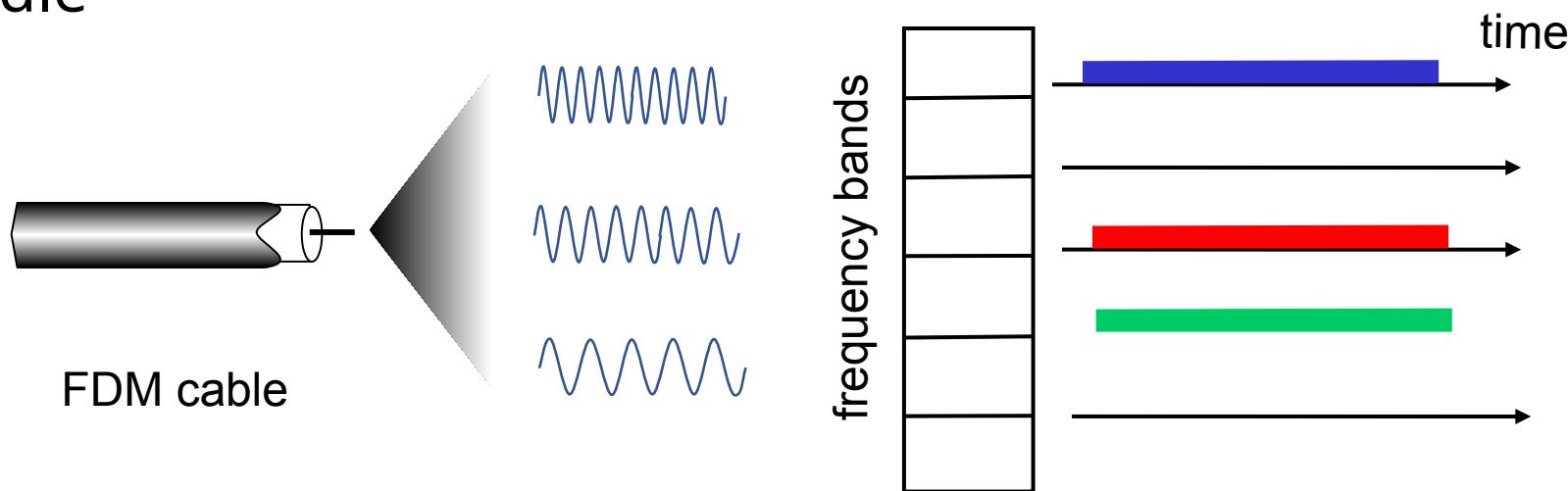
- access to channel in “rounds”
- each station gets fixed length slot (length = packet transmission time) in each round
- unused slots go idle
- example: 6-station LAN, 1,3,4 have packets to send, slots 2,5,6 idle



Channel partitioning MAC protocols: FDMA

FDMA: frequency division multiple access

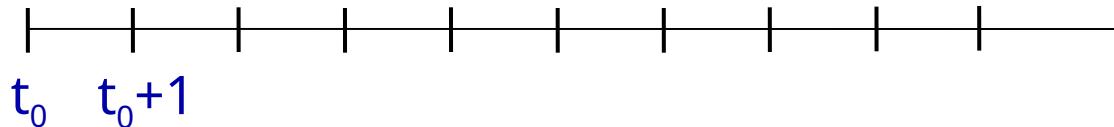
- channel spectrum divided into frequency bands
- each station assigned fixed frequency band
- unused transmission time in frequency bands go idle
- example: 6-station LAN, 1,3,4 have packet to send, frequency bands 2,5,6 idle



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 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:

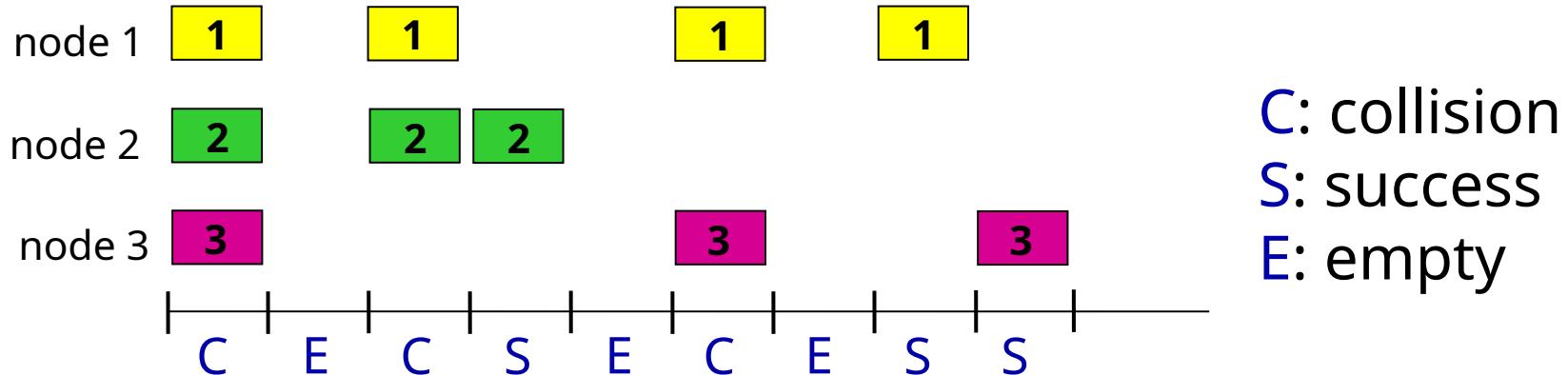
- all frames same size
- time divided into equal size slots (time to transmit 1 frame)
- nodes start to transmit only slot beginning
- nodes are synchronized
- if 2 or more nodes transmit in slot, all nodes detect collision

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!



CSMA (carrier sense multiple access)

simple **CSMA**: listen before transmit:

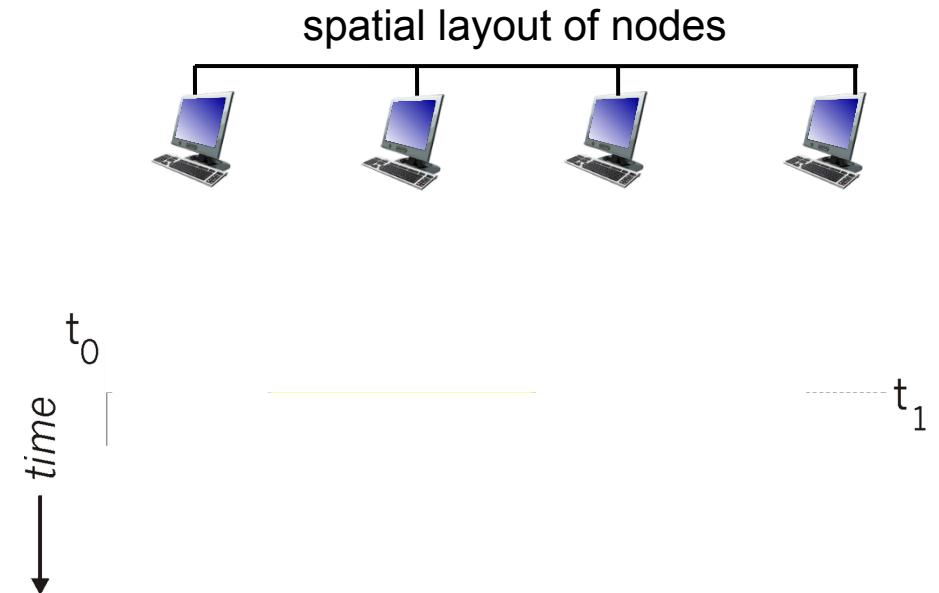
- if channel sensed idle: transmit entire frame
- if channel sensed busy: defer transmission
- human analogy: don't interrupt others!

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

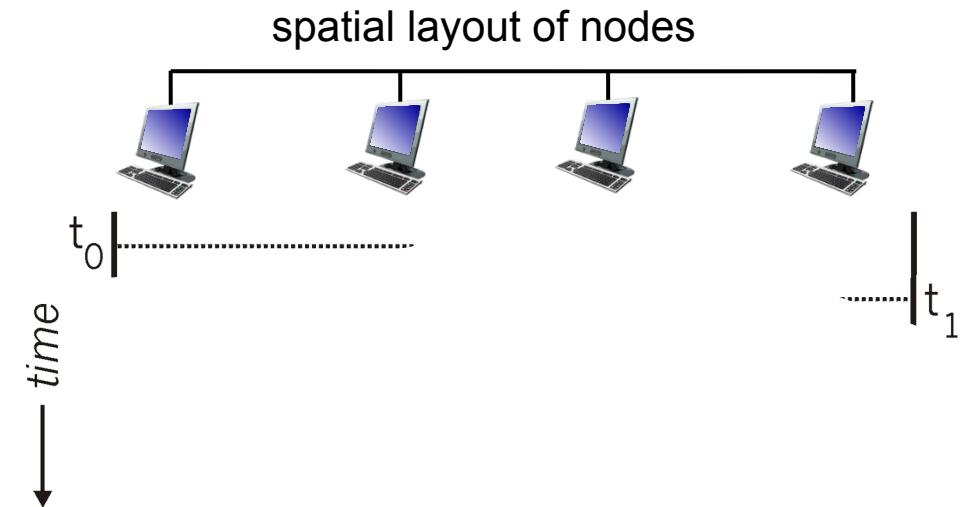
CSMA: collisions

- 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



Ethernet CSMA/CD algorithm

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

“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

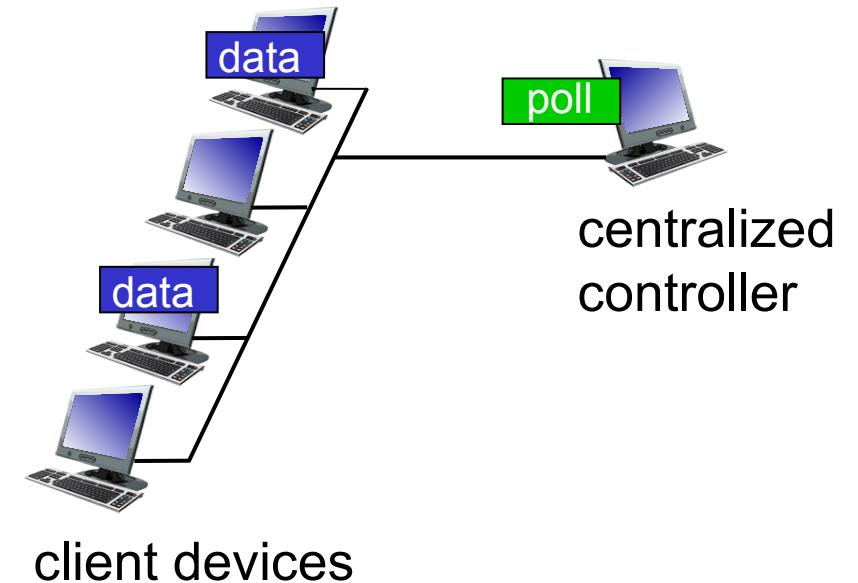
“taking turns” protocols

- look for best of both worlds!

“Taking turns” MAC protocols

polling:

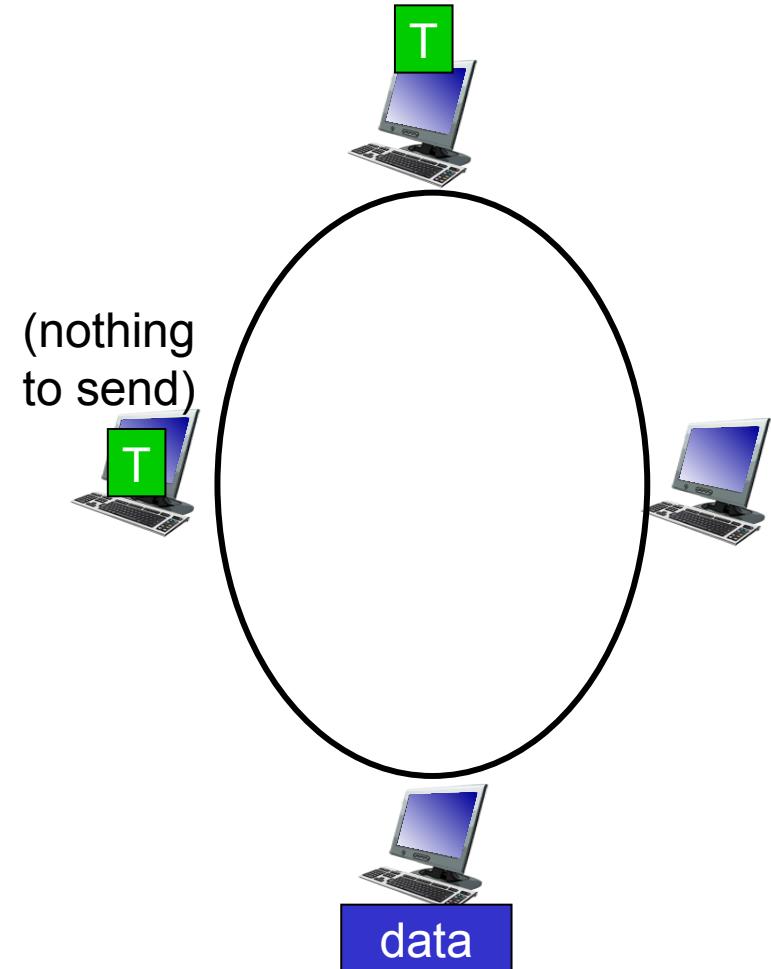
- centralized controller “invites” other nodes to transmit in turn
- typically used with “dumb” devices
- concerns:
 - polling overhead
 - latency
 - single point of failure (master)
 - Bluetooth uses polling



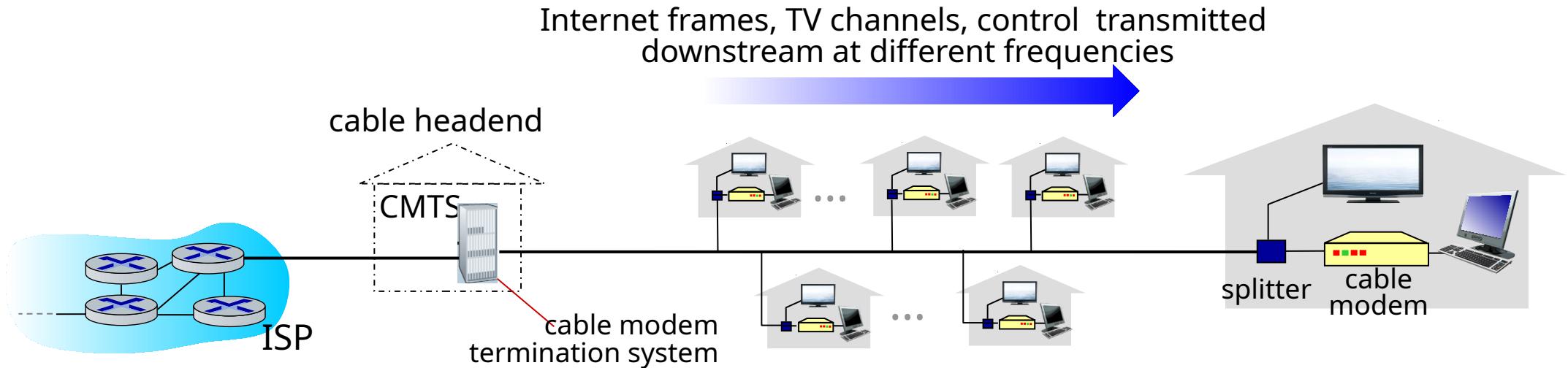
“Taking turns” MAC protocols

token passing:

- control *token* message explicitly passed from one node to next, sequentially
 - transmit while holding token
- concerns:
 - token overhead
 - latency
 - single point of failure (token)

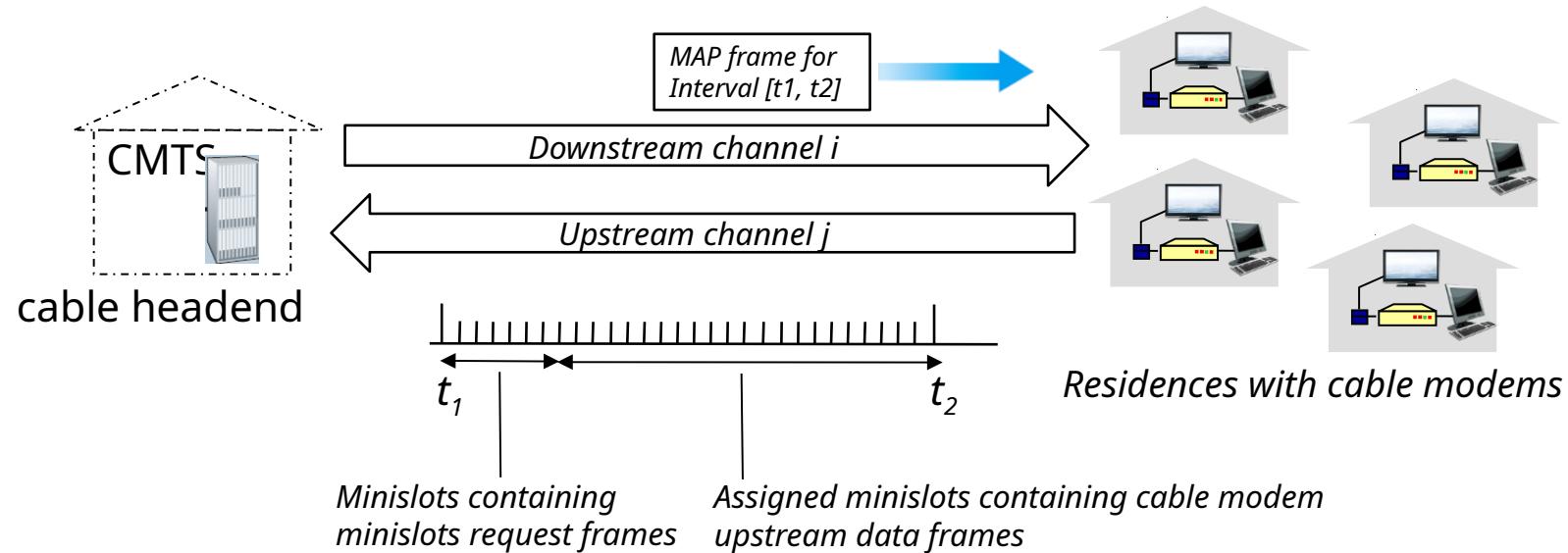


Cable access network: FDM, TDM and random access!



- **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

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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

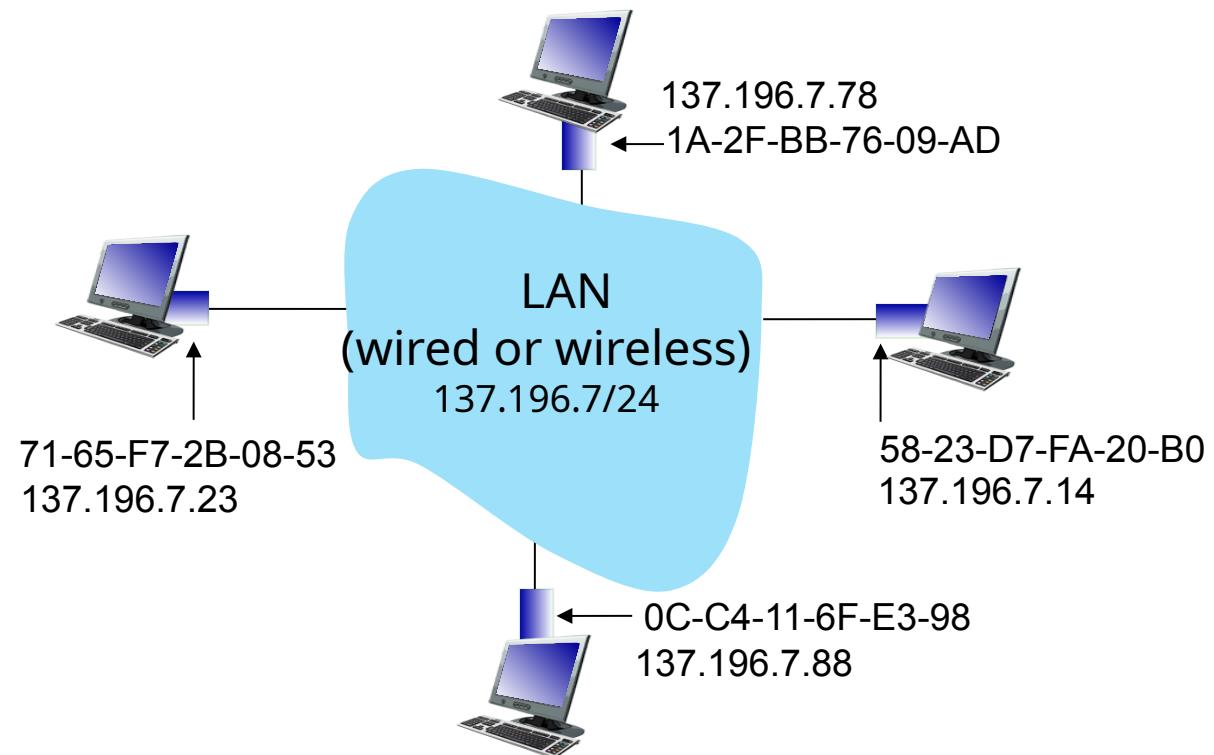
MAC addresses

- 32-bit IP address:
 - *network-layer* address for interface
 - used for layer 3 (network layer) forwarding
 - e.g.: 128.119.40.136
- MAC (or LAN or physical or Ethernet) address:
 - function: used “locally” to get frame from one interface to another physically-connected interface (same subnet, in IP-addressing sense)
 - 48-bit MAC address (for most LANs) burned in NIC ROM, also sometimes software settable
 - e.g.: 1A-2F-BB-76-09-AD
 - hexadecimal (base 16) notation
(each “numeral” represents 4 bits)*

MAC addresses

each interface on LAN

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

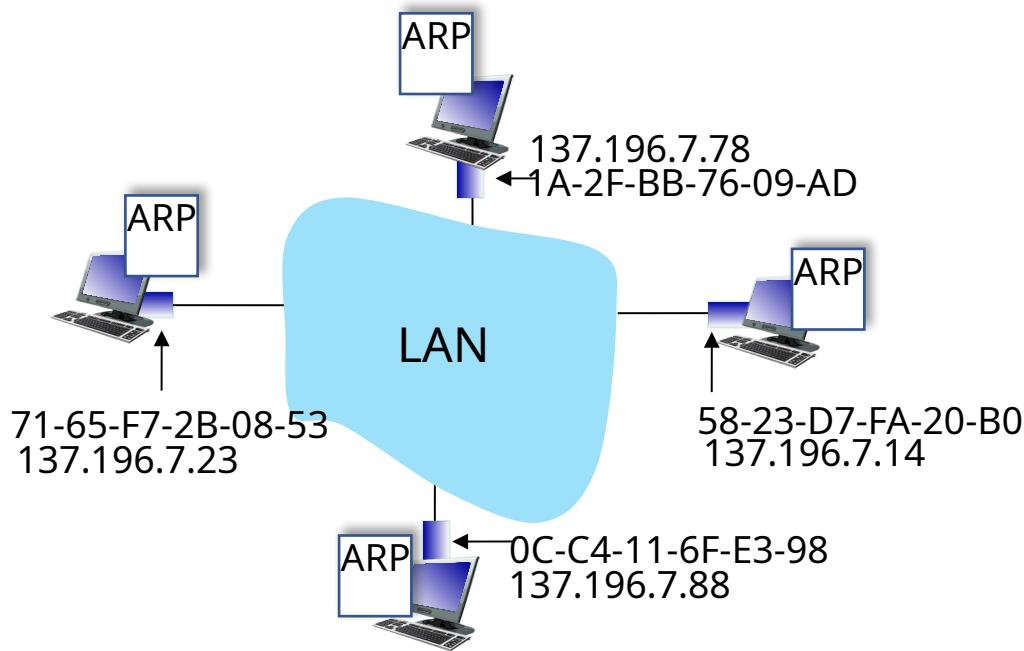


MAC addresses

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

ARP: address resolution protocol

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



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

- IP/MAC address mappings for some LAN nodes:
<IP address; MAC address; TTL>
- TTL (Time To Live): time after which address mapping will be forgotten (typically 20 min)

ARP protocol in action

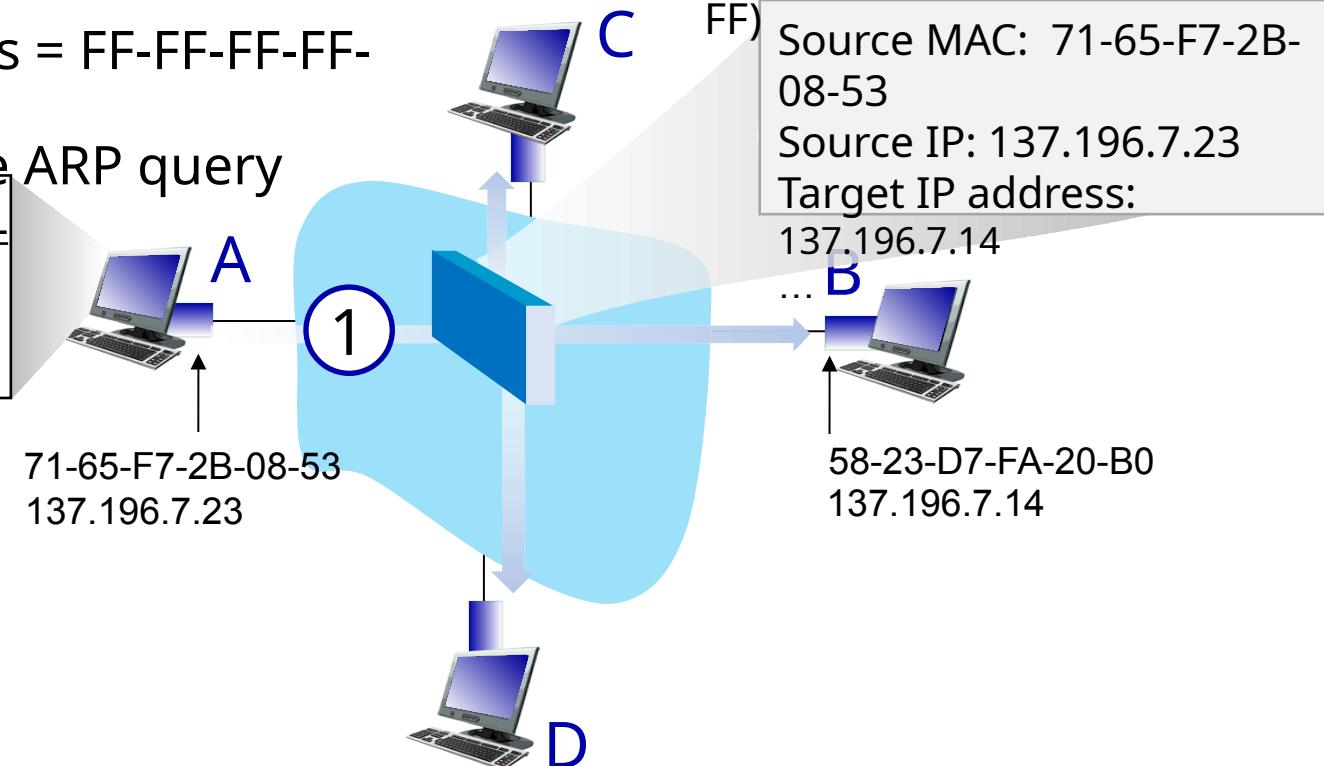
example: A wants to send datagram to B

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

1 A broadcasts ARP query, containing B's IP
addr

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

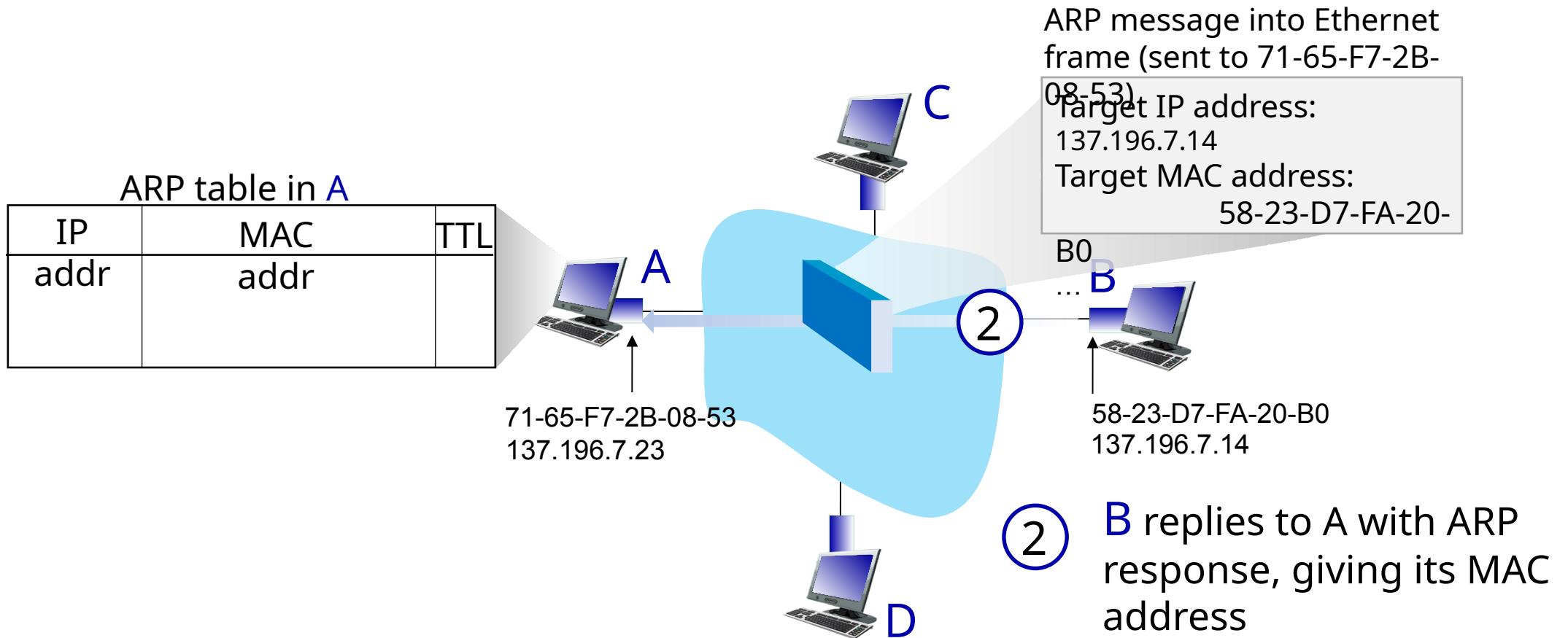
IP	MAC addr	TTL
addr		



ARP protocol in action

example: A wants to send datagram to B

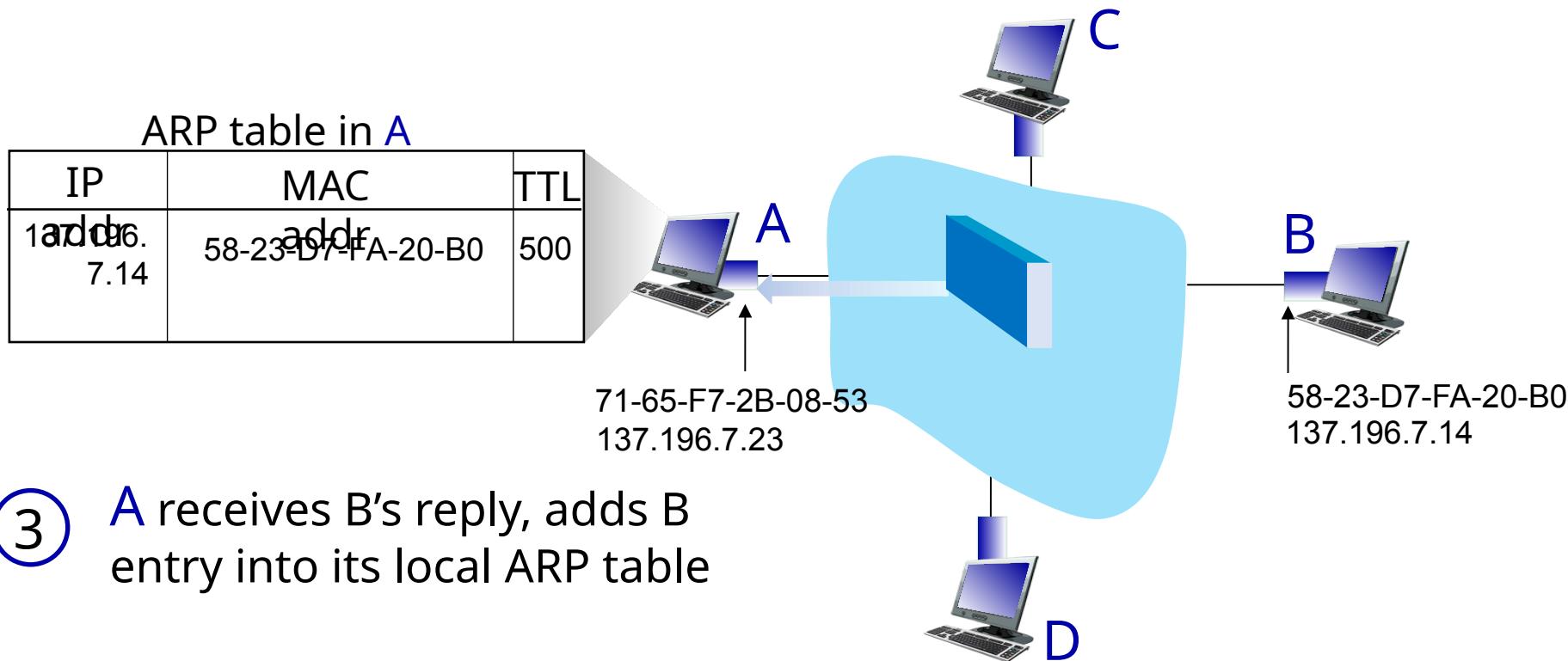
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ARP protocol in action

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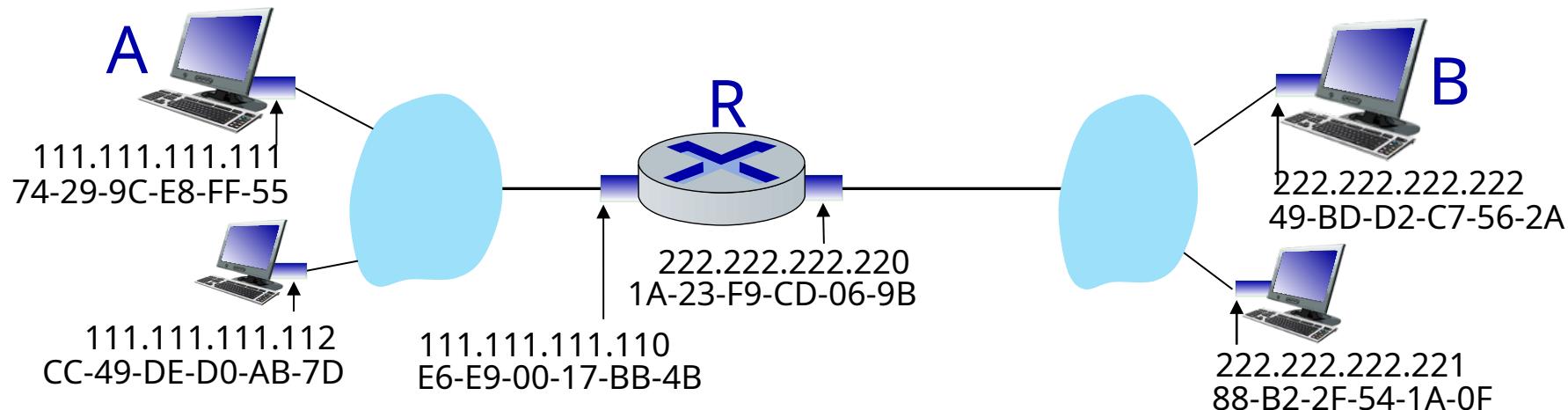
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Routing to another subnet: addressing

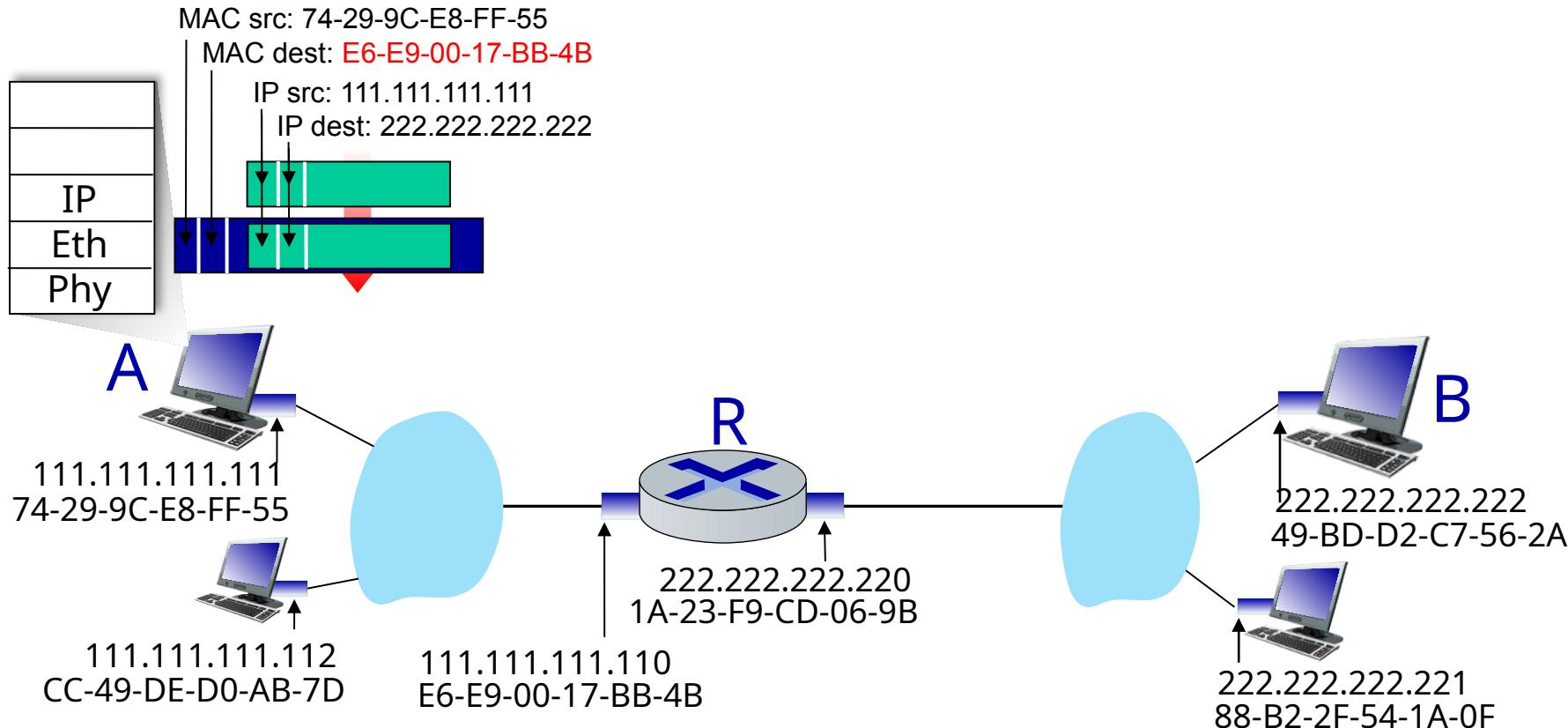
walkthrough: sending a datagram from *A* to *B* via *R*

- 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?)



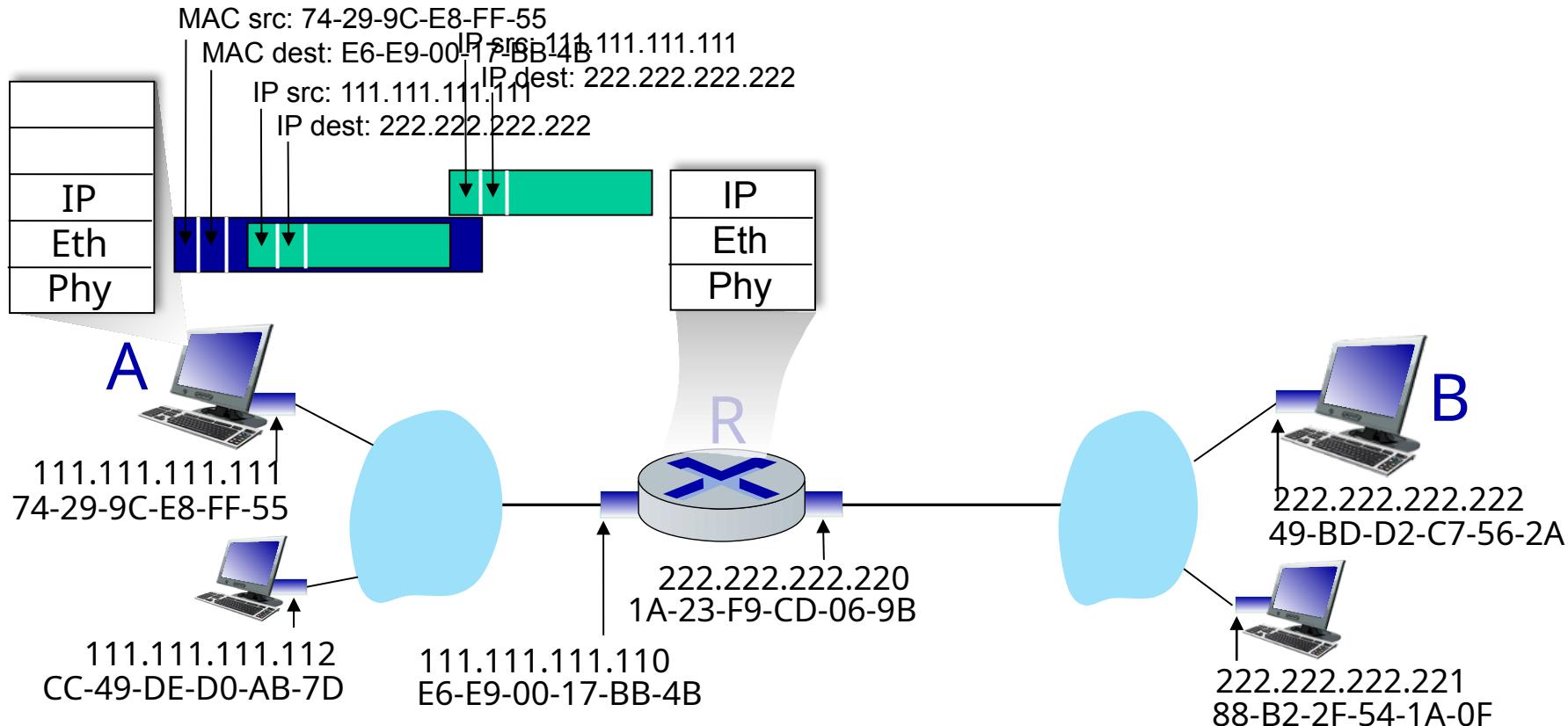
Routing to another subnet: addressing

- 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



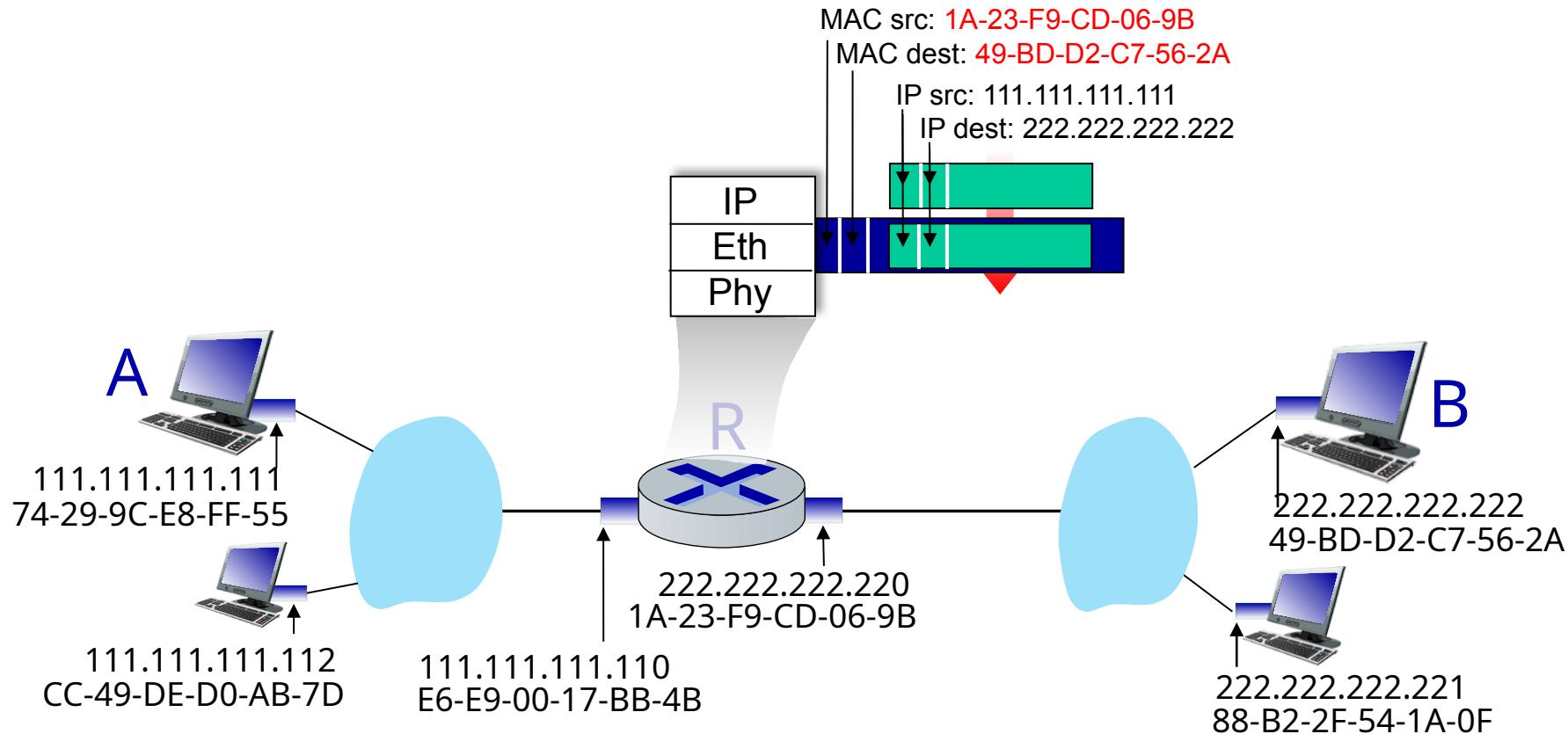
Routing to another subnet: addressing

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



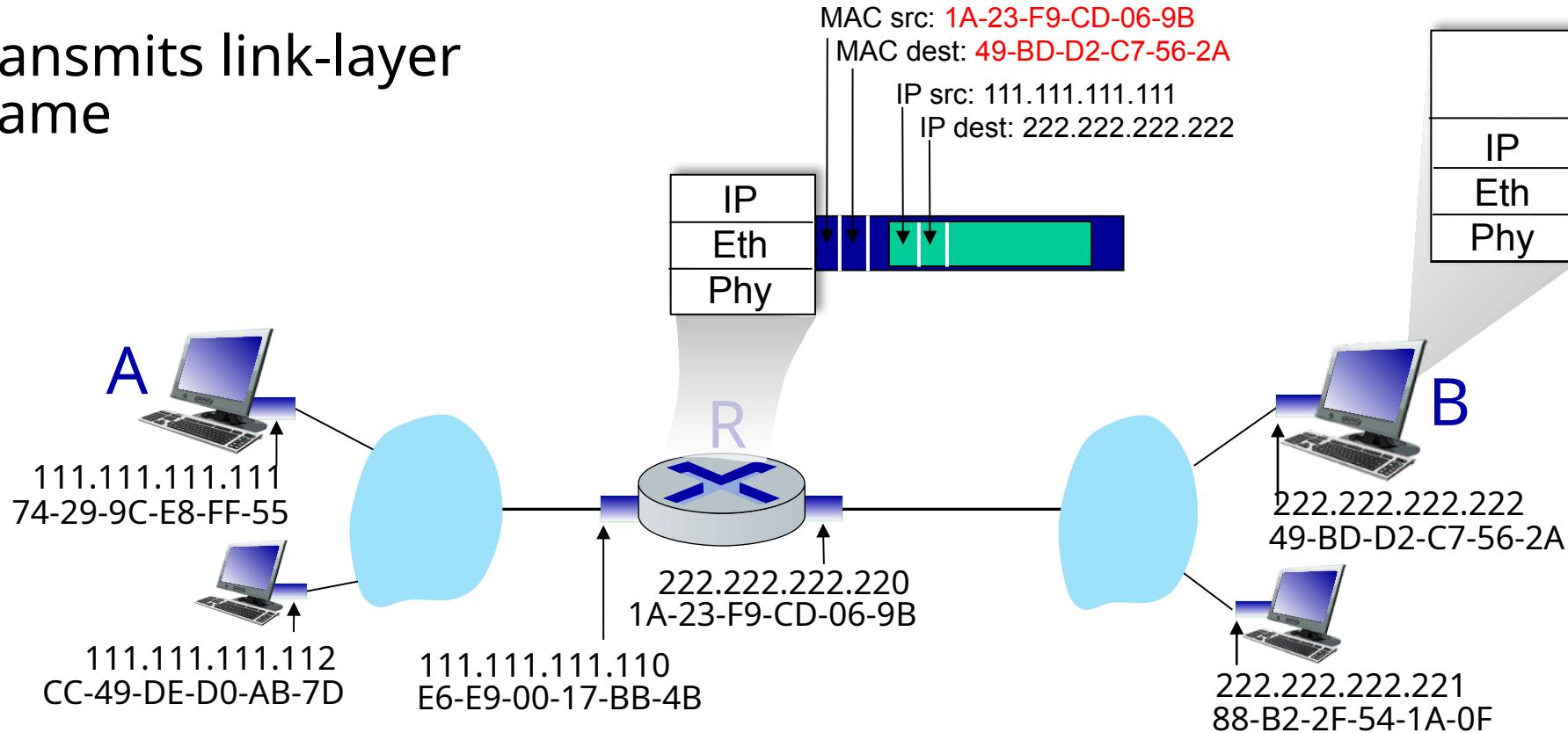
Routing to another subnet: addressing

- 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



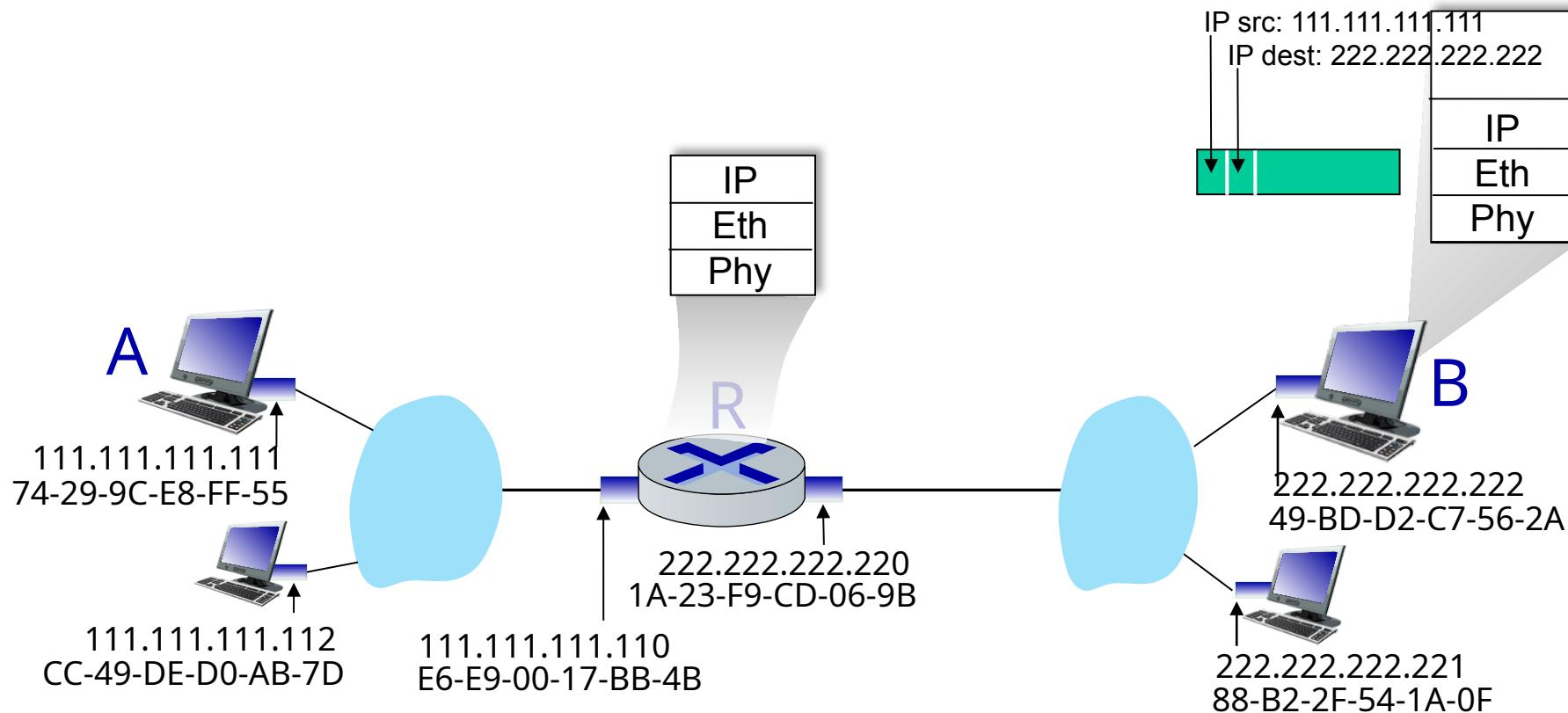
Routing to another subnet: addressing

- 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 passes datagram up protocol stack to IP



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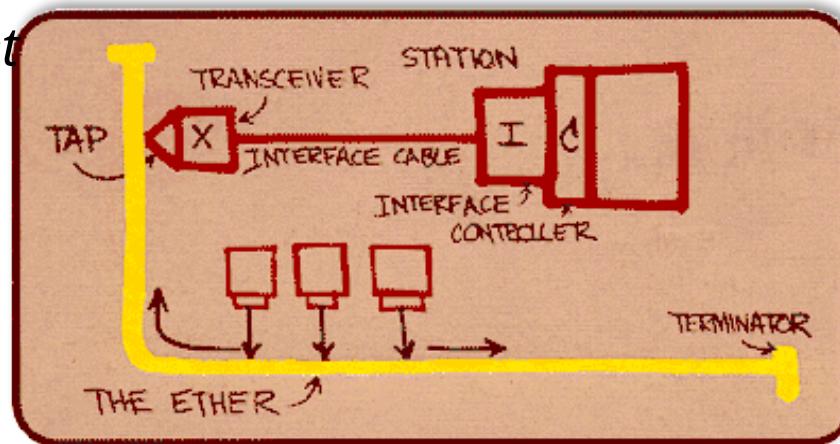
- a day in the life of a web request

Ethernet

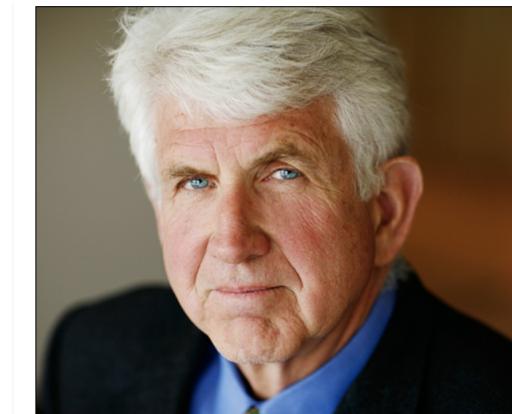
“dominant” wired LAN technology:

- 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

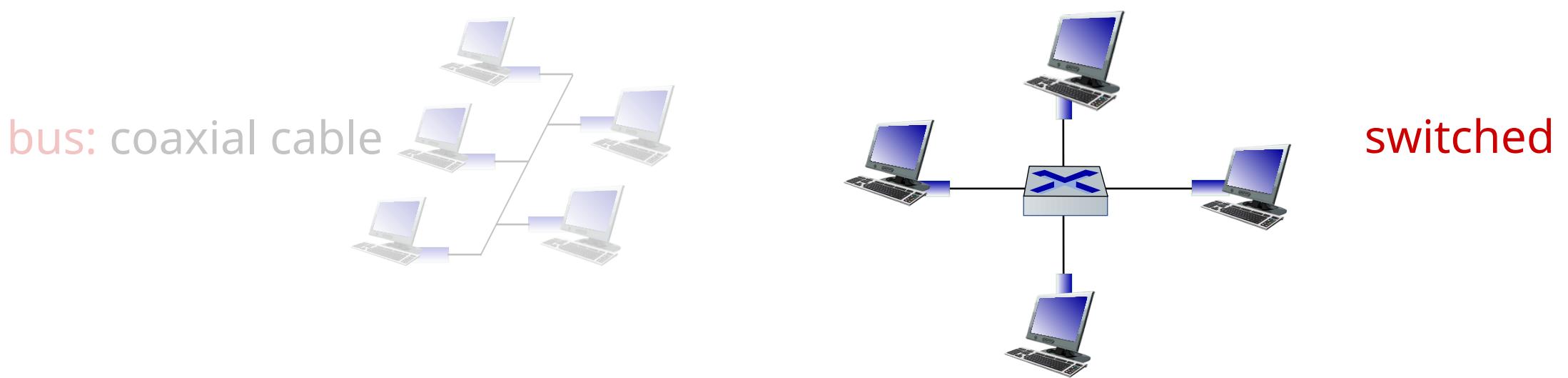


Bob Metcalfe: Ethernet co-inventor,
2022 ACM Turing Award recipient



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

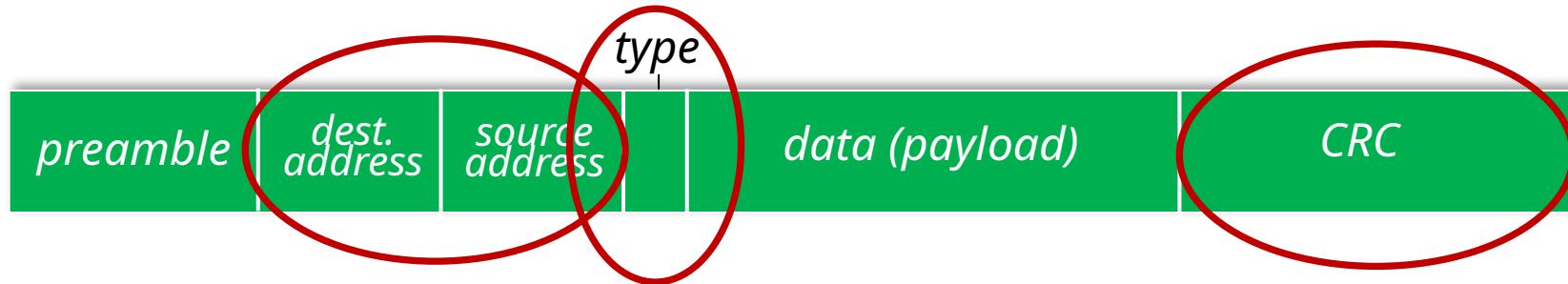
sending interface encapsulates IP datagram (or other network layer protocol packet) in **Ethernet frame**



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**

Link layer, LANs: roadmap

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



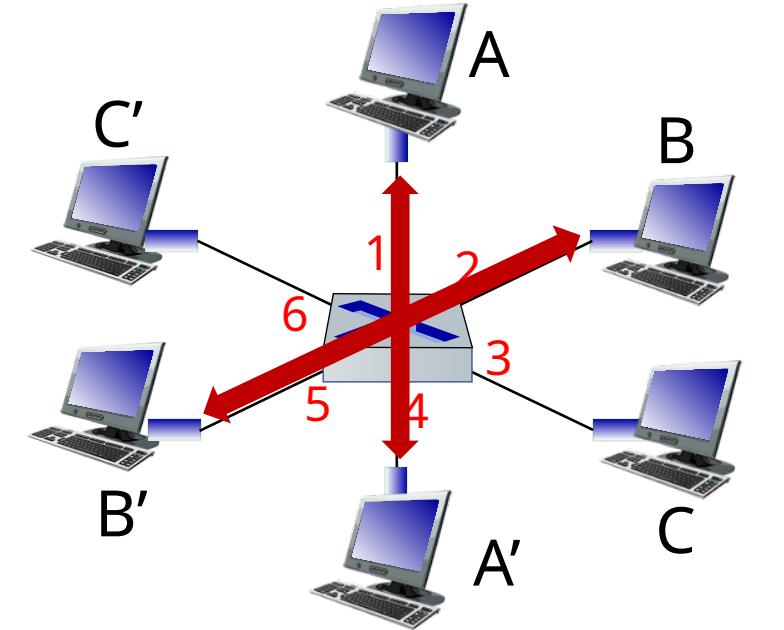
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Ethernet switch

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

Switch: multiple simultaneous transmissions

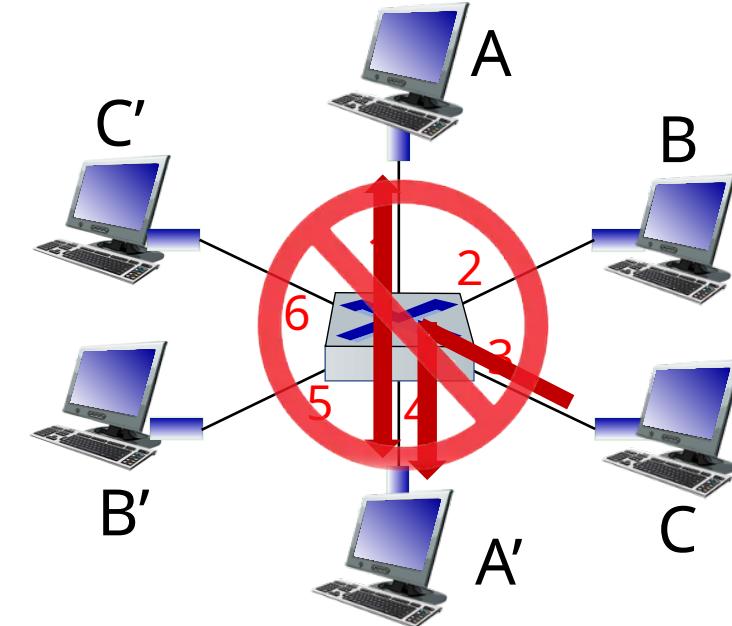
- hosts have dedicated, direct connection to switch
- switches buffer packets
- Ethernet protocol used on *each* incoming link, so:
 - no collisions; full duplex
 - each link is its own collision domain
- switching:** A-to-A' and B-to-B' can transmit simultaneously, without collisions



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

Switch: multiple simultaneous transmissions

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



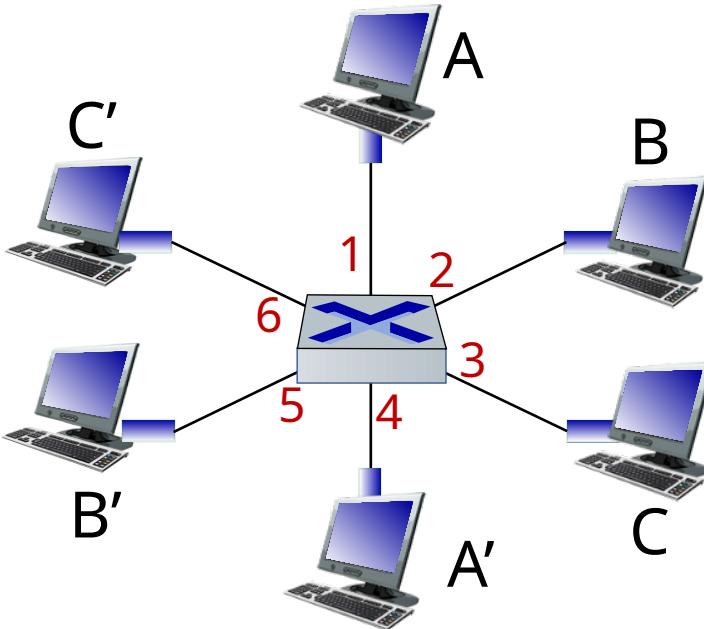
switch with six
interfaces
(1,2,3,4,5,6)

Switch forwarding table

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

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

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

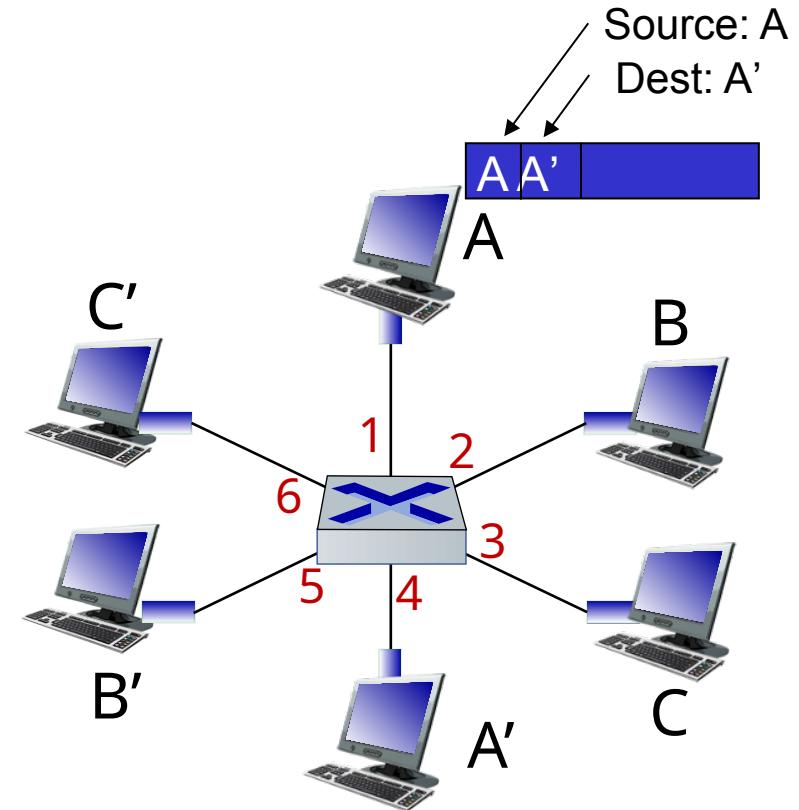


Q: how are entries created, maintained in switch table?

- something like a routing protocol?

Switch: self-learning

- switch *learns* which hosts can be reached through which ~~interfaces~~ 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)*

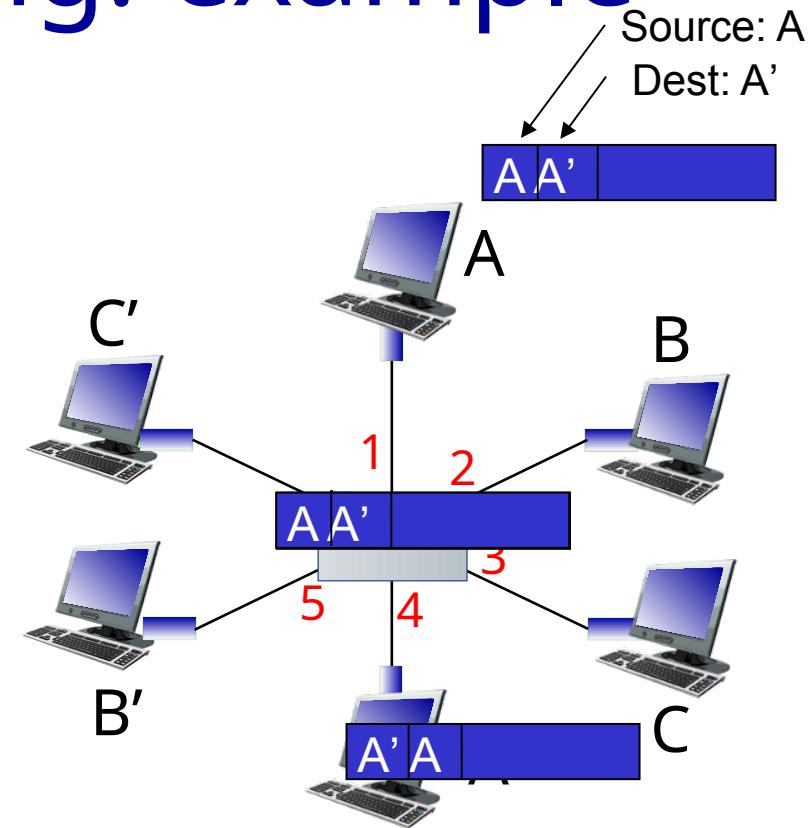
Switch: frame filtering/forwarding

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 **selectively** send on just one link

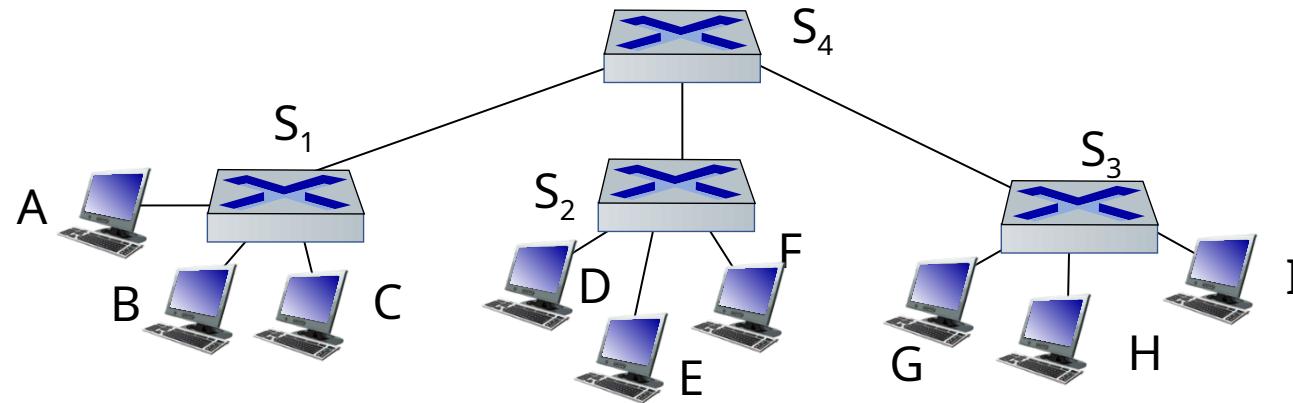


MAC addr	interface	TTL
A	1	60
A'	4	60

*switch table
(initially empty)*

Interconnecting switches

self-learning switches can be connected together:

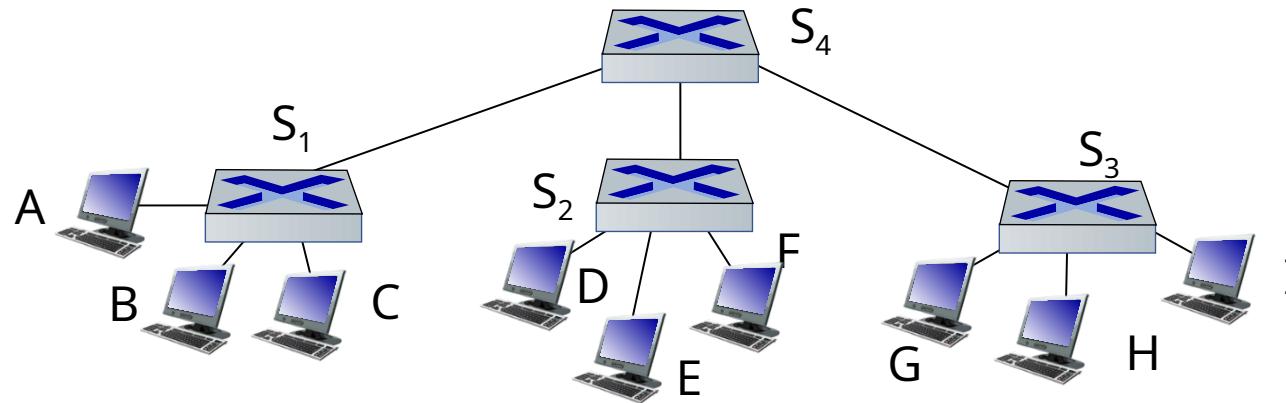


Q: sending from A to G - how does S_1 know to forward frame destined to G via S_4 and S_3 ?

- 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

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

