Networks (2IRR20)

Link Layer (06)

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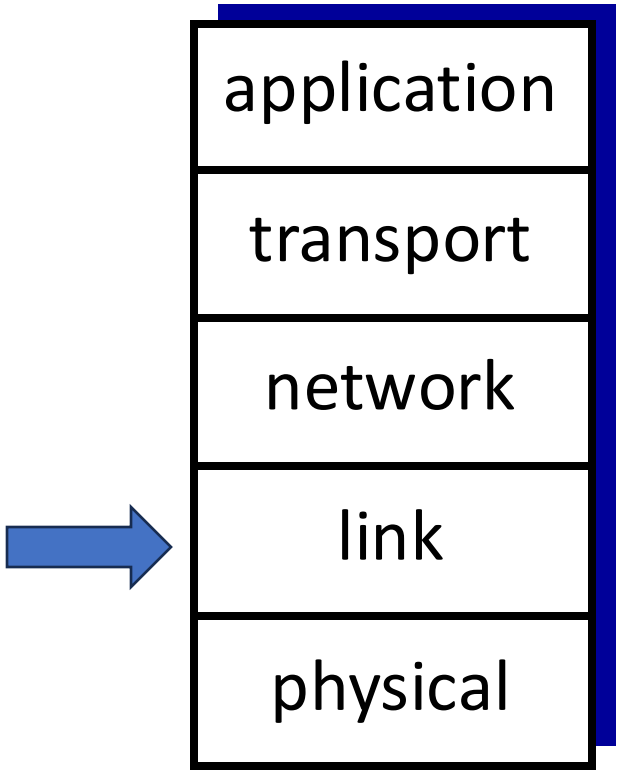
Interconnected Resource-aware Intelligent Systems (IRIS)

Slides adapted from the textbook:
Computer Networking: A Top-Down Approach
8th edition, Global Edition by Jim Kurose, Keith Ross

This slide set

- Link layer services
- Error detection, correction
- Multiple access protocols
- LANs
  - addressing, ARP
  - Ethernet
  - switches
- Link virtualization: MPLS
- Bringing it together:
  a day in the life of a web request



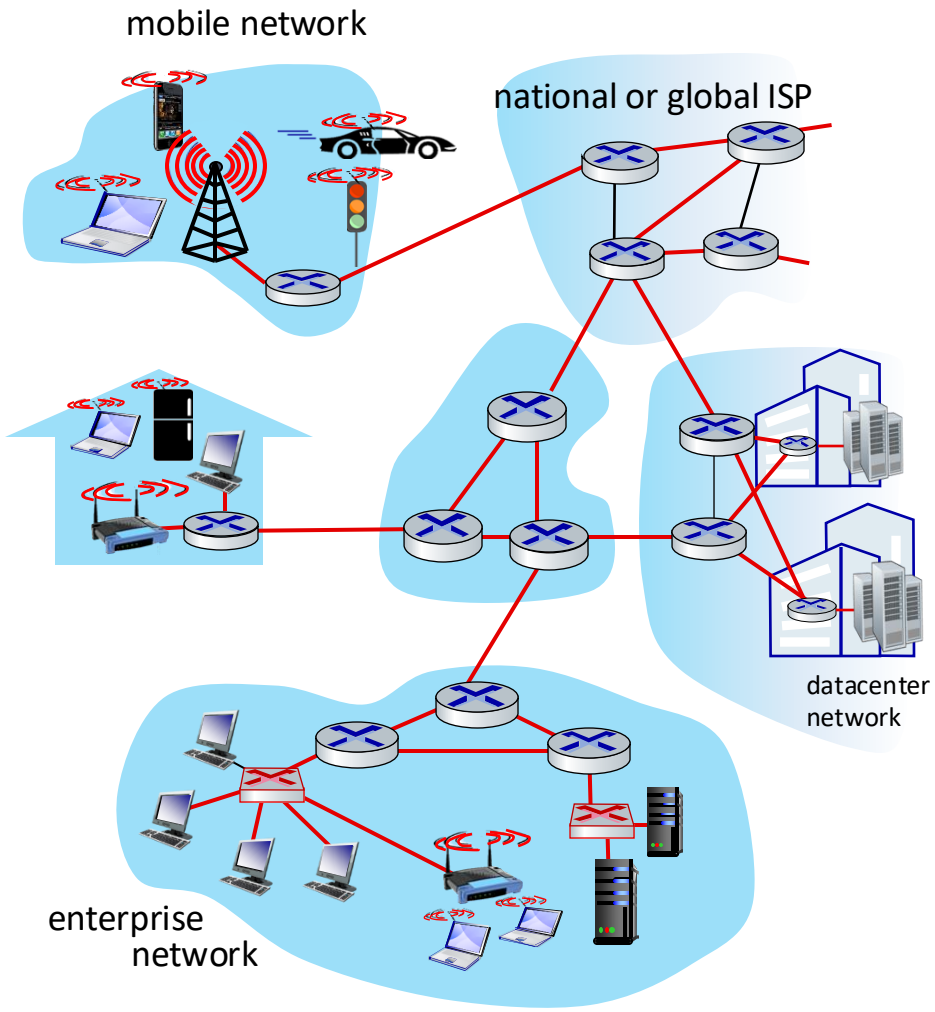
Link layer services

Link layer: introduction

Terminology:

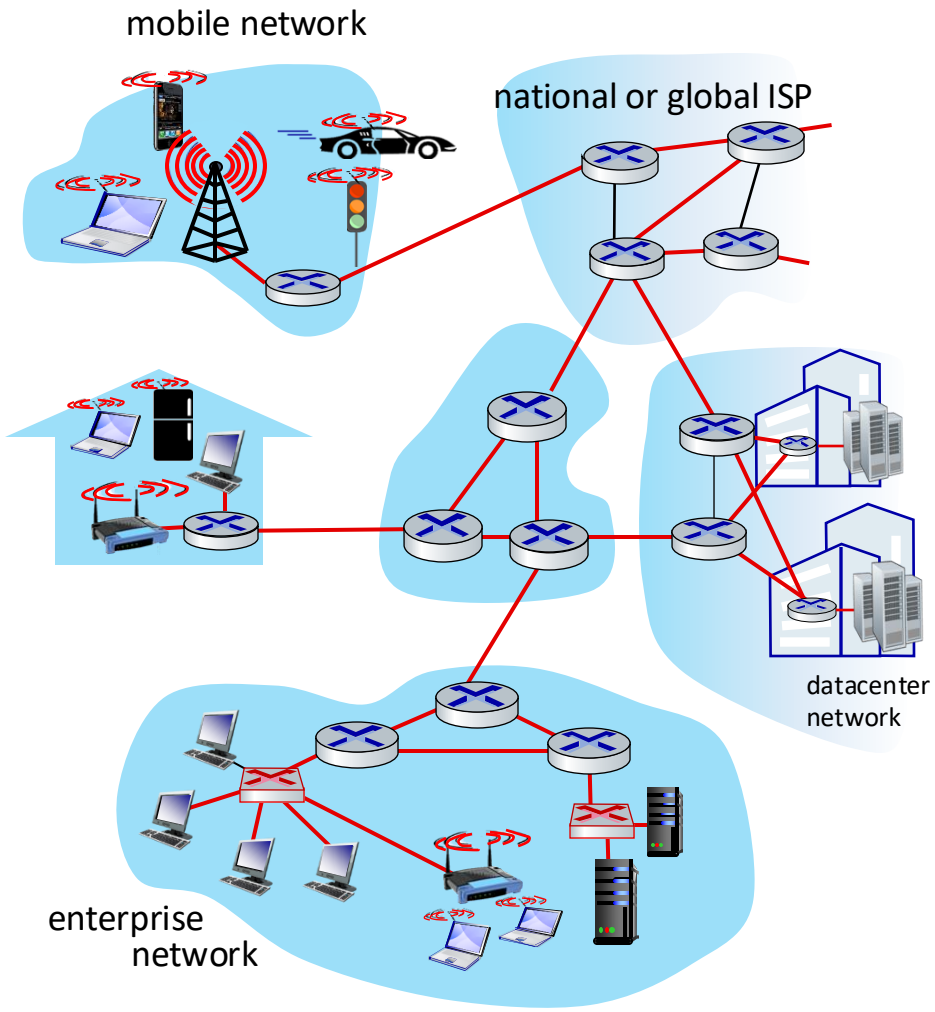
- Link: communication channel connecting adjacent nodes
  - wired
  - wireless
  - LANs
- Frame: Layer-2 packet, encapsulates datagram

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



Link layer: context

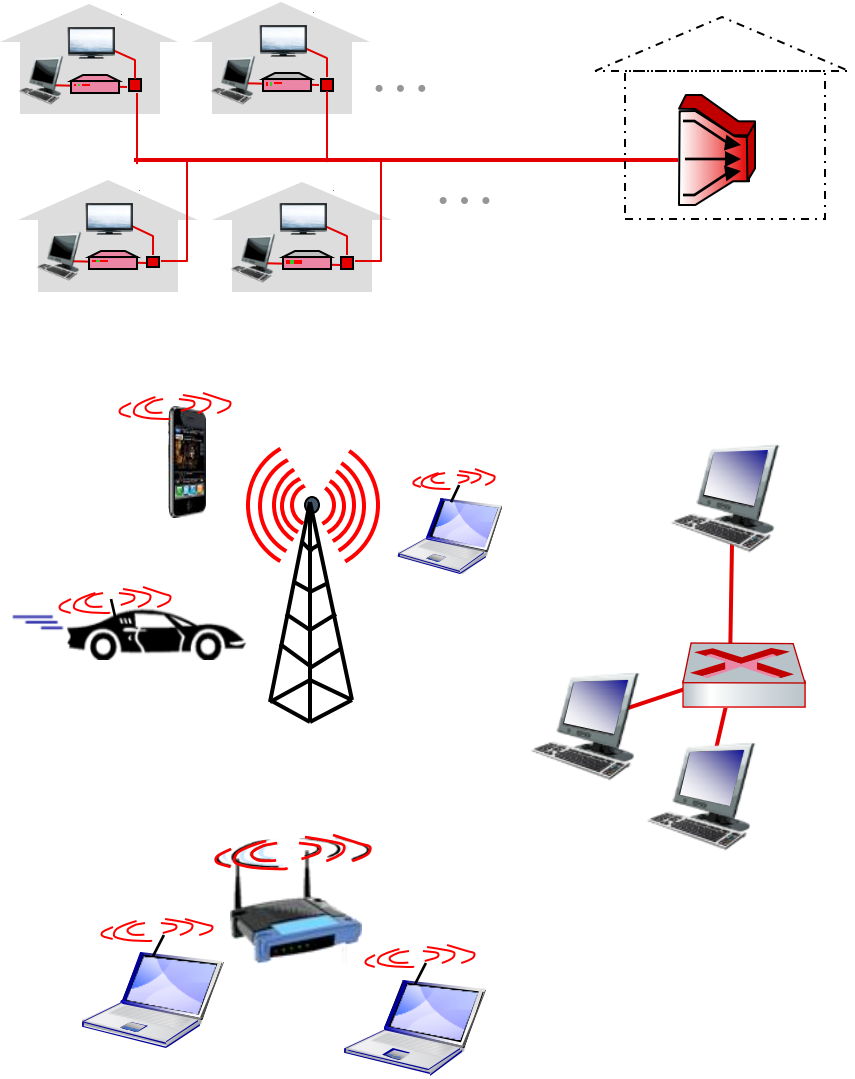
- Datagram transferred by different link protocols over different links.
  - e.g., WiFi on first link, Ethernet on next link
- Each link protocol provides different services.
  - e.g., may or may not provide reliable data transfer over link



Link layer: (possible) services

- framing, link access:
  - encapsulate datagram into frame, adding header, trailer
  - channel access if shared medium
  - "MAC" addresses identify source, destination (different from IP address!)

- reliable delivery between adjacent nodes
  - used mainly in wireless links: high error rates
    - *Q:* why both link-level and end-end reliability?



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Link layer: (possible) services

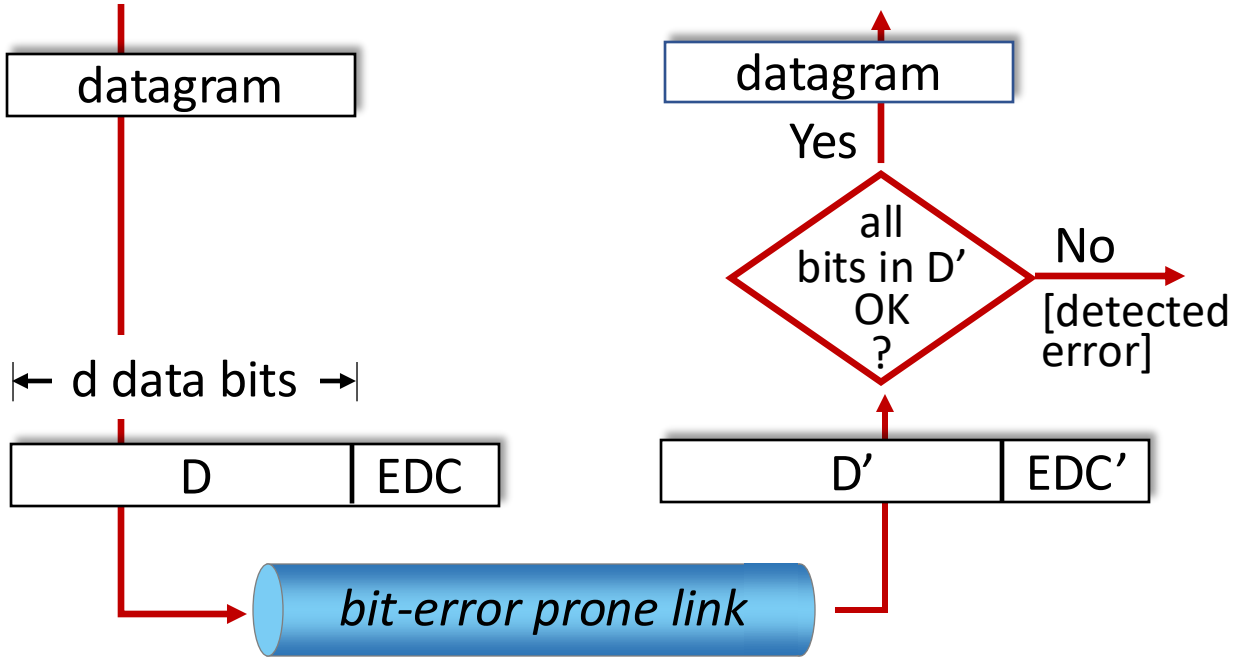
- flow control:
  - pacing between adjacent sending and receiving nodes
- error detection:
  - errors caused by signal attenuation, noise.
  - receiver detects errors, signals retransmission, or drops frame
- error correction:
  - receiver identifies *and corrects* bit error(s) without retransmission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

Error detection, error correction

Error detection

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

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



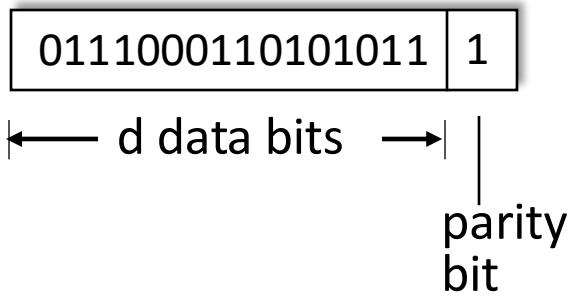
Error detection not 100% reliable!

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

Parity checking

single bit parity:

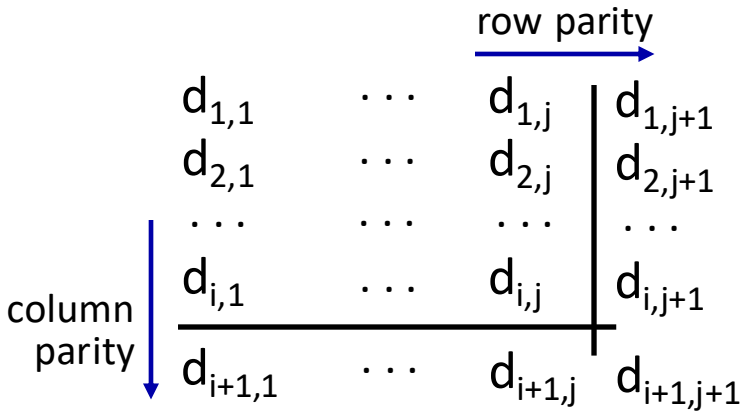
- detect single bit errors



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:

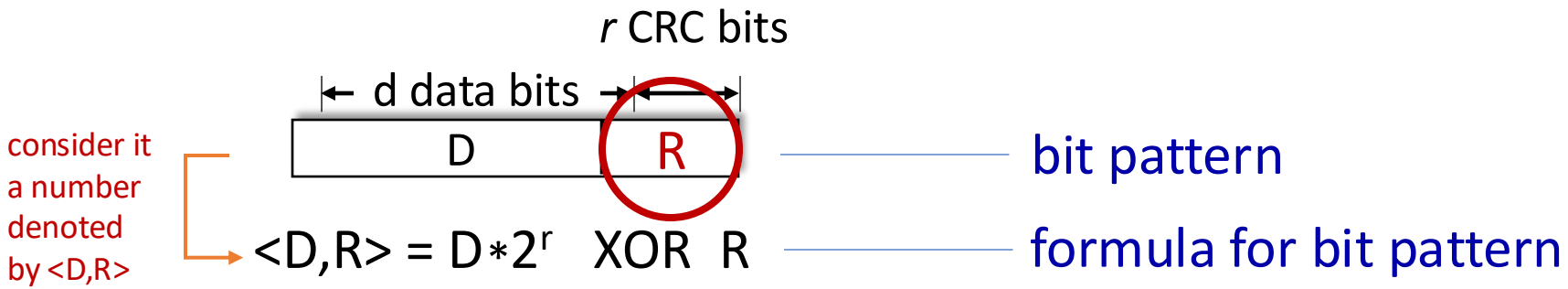
- treat contents of UDP segment (including UDP header fields and IP addresses) as sequence of 16-bit integers
- checksum: addition (one's complement sum) of segment content

receiver:

- compute checksum of received segment
- check if computed checksum equals checksum field value:
  - not equal - error detected
  - equal - no error detected. [There could still be errors nonetheless.]

Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC)

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



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

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

Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC): example

We want:

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

XOR vs binary sum / subtraction

1 XOR 0 = 0 XOR 1 = 1

0 XOR 0 = 1 XOR 1 = 0

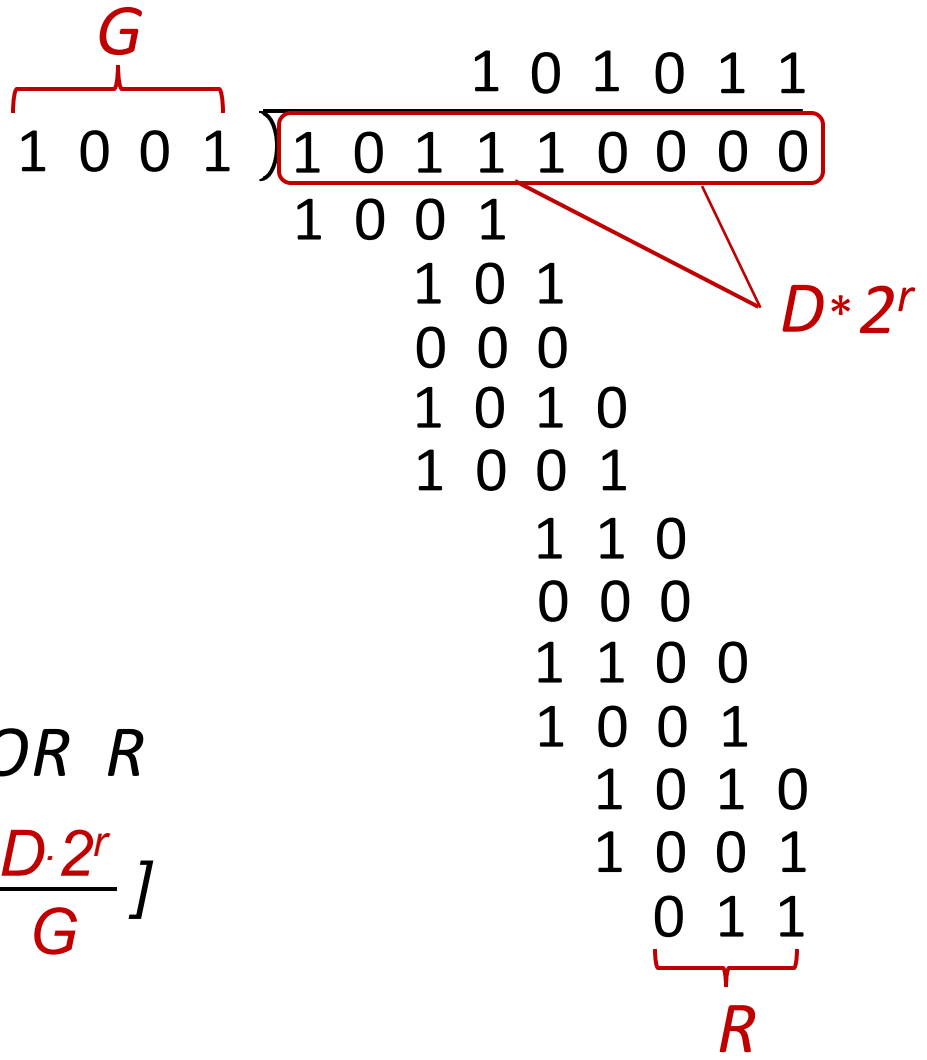
1 + 0 = 0 + 1 = 1

1 – 0 = 0 – 1 = 1

0 + 0 = 1 + 1 = 0

0 – 0 = 1 – 1 = 0

Binary sum and subtraction are the same.



XOR both sides with R: $D \cdot 2^r = nG \ XOR \ R$

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

Multiple access protocols

Multiple access links, protocols

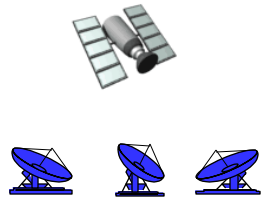
two types of “links”:

- point-to-point
  - point-to-point link between Ethernet switch, host
  - PPP for dial-up access
- broadcast (shared 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, ideally:

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

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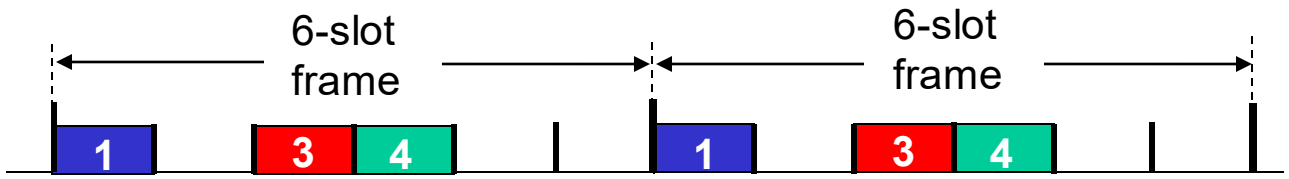
Channel partitioning MAC protocols: TDMA

TDMA: time division multiple access

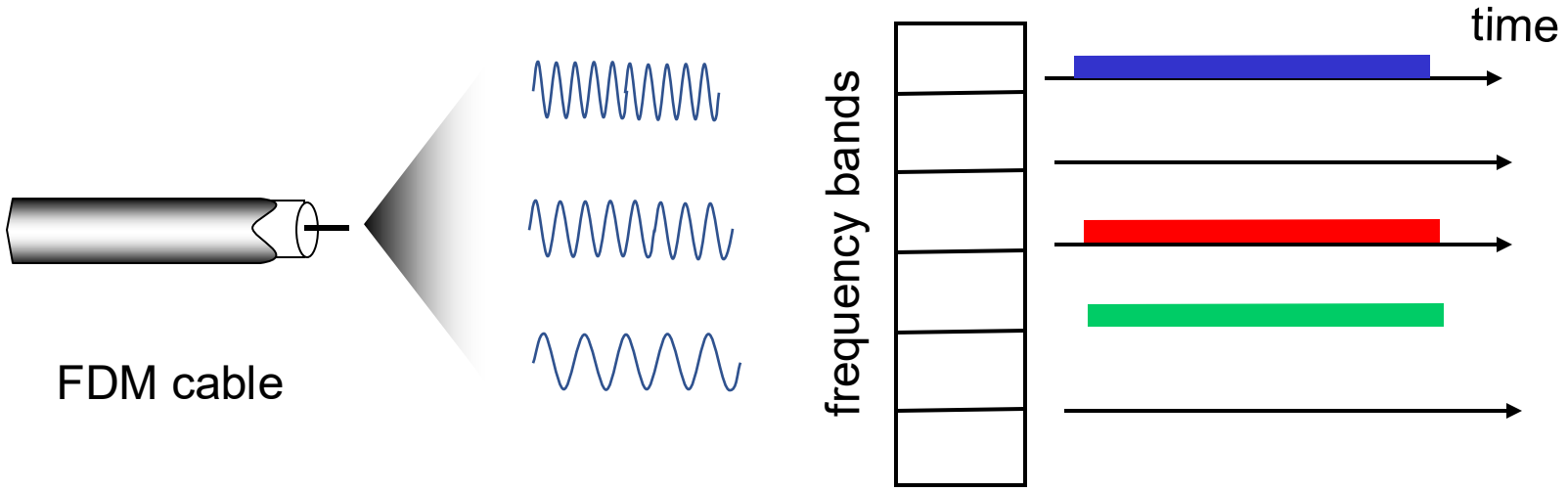
- access to channel in “rounds”
- each station gets fixed length slot (length = packet transmission time) in each round
- unused slots go idle
- example: 6-station LAN, 1,3,4 have packets to send, slots 2,5,6 idle



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



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Random access protocols

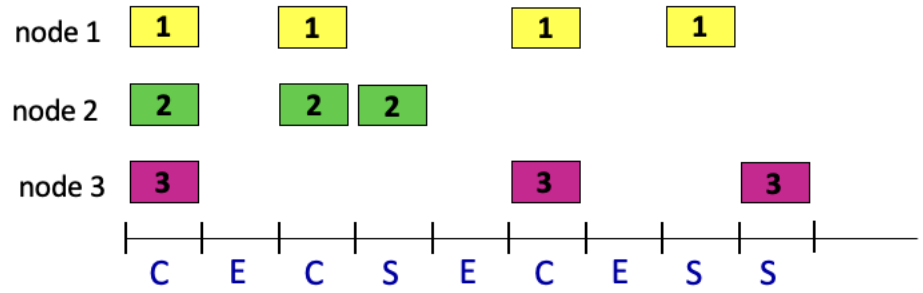
- when node has packet to send
  - transmit at full channel data rate R.
  - no *a priori* coordination among nodes

- 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:

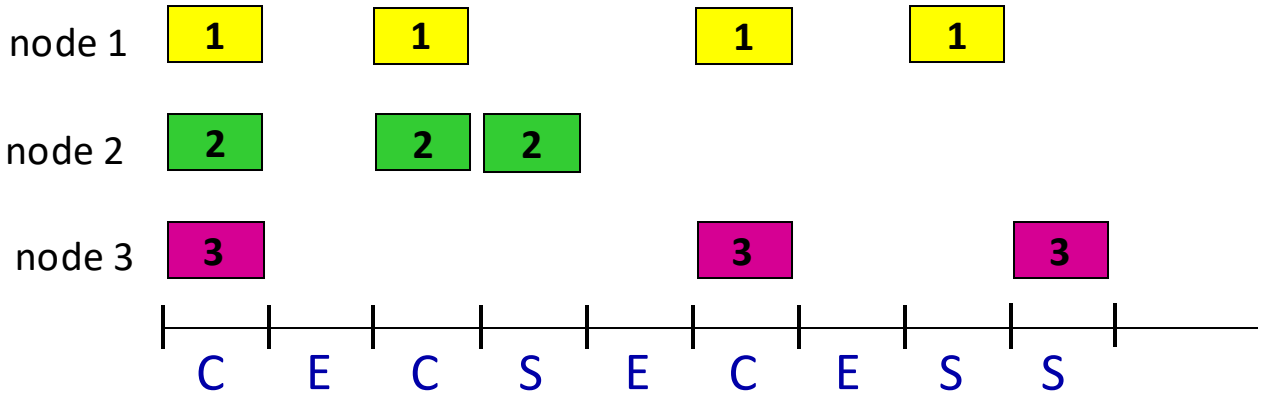
- all frames same size
- time divided into equal size slots (time to transmit 1 frame)
- nodes start to transmit only at slot beginning
- nodes are synchronized
- if 2 or more nodes transmit in slot, all nodes detect collision

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

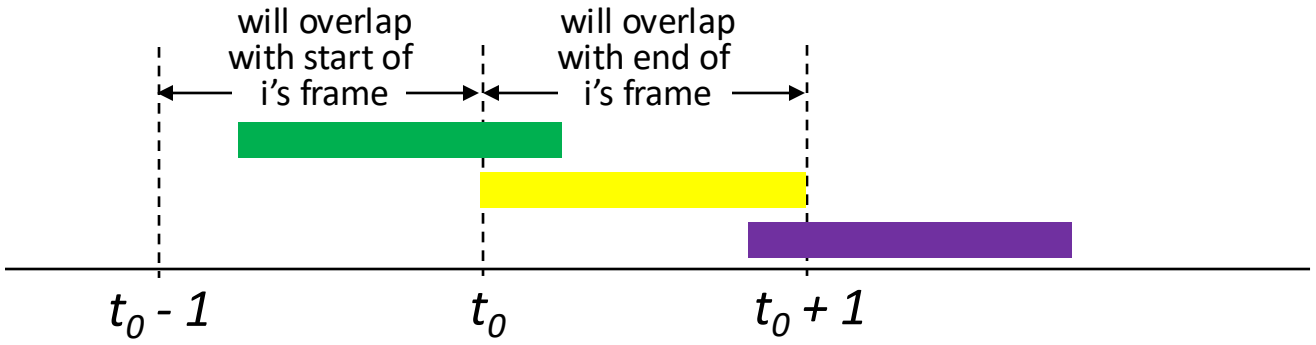
Cons:

- collisions, wasting slots
- idle slots
- clock synchronization

Pure ALOHA

- unslotted ALOHA: simpler, no synchronization
  - when frame first arrives: transmit immediately

- collision probability increases since there is no synchronization:
  - frame sent at t_0 collides with other frames sent in $[t_0-1,t_0+1]$



CSMA (carrier sense multiple access)

simple CSMA: listen before transmit:

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

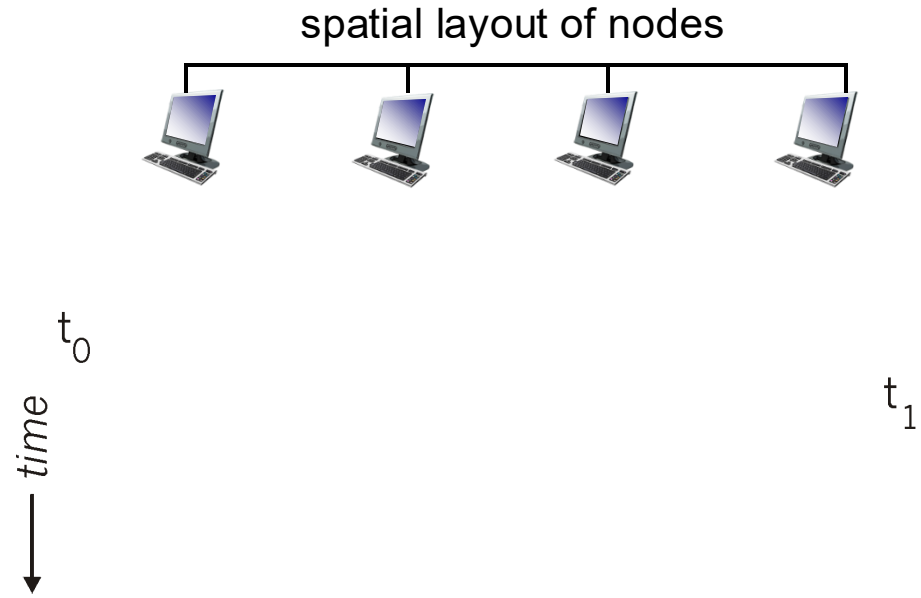
CSMA/CD: CSMA with *collision detection*

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

CSMA: collisions

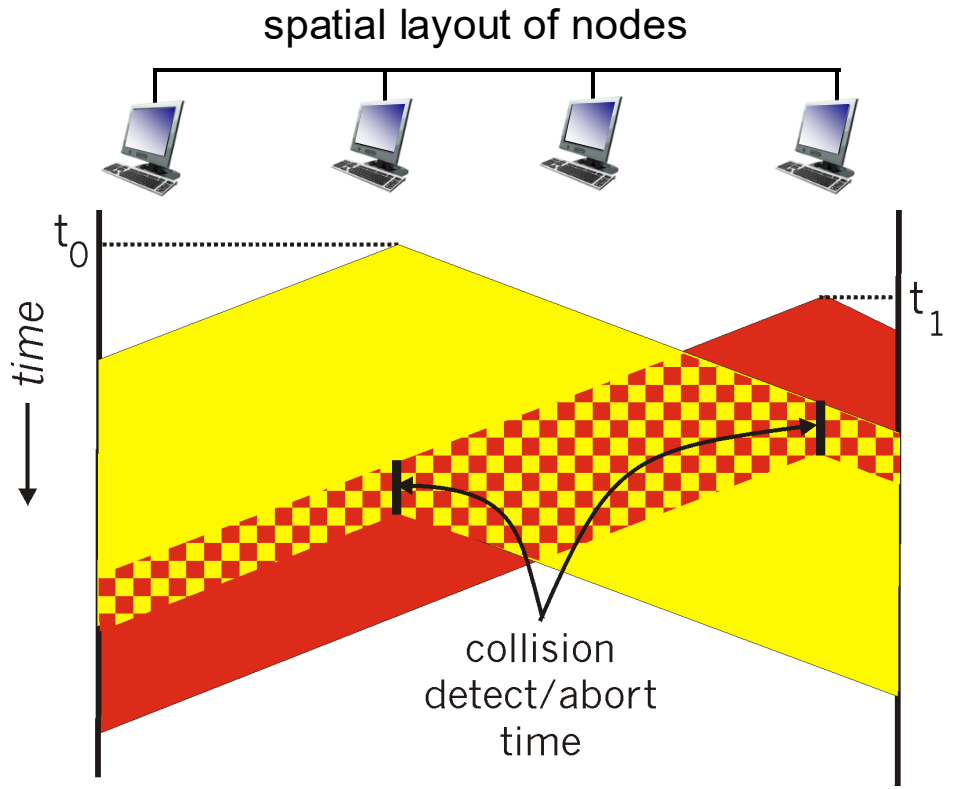
- collisions *can* still occur with carrier sensing:
  - propagation delay means two nodes may not hear each other's just-started transmission

- collision: entire packet transmission time wasted
  - distance & propagation delay play role in in determining collision probability



CSMA/CD:

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



Ethernet CSMA/CD algorithm

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

MAC protocols: taxonomy

three broad classes:

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- *random access*
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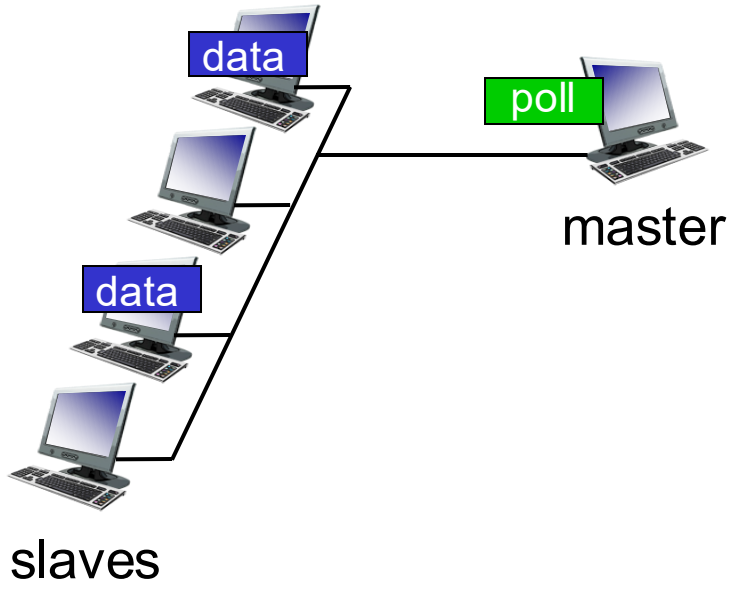
“Taking turns” MAC protocols

polling:

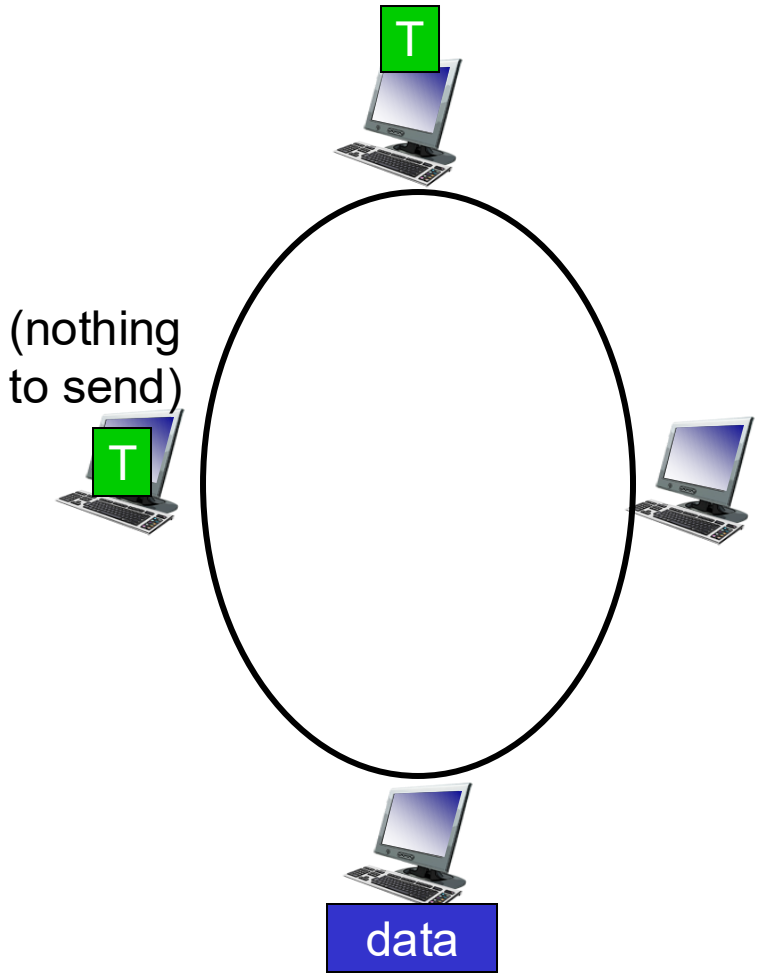
- master node “invites” other nodes to transmit in turn
- typically used with “dumb” devices
- concerns:
  - polling overhead
  - latency
  - single point of failure (master)



“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)



Summary of MAC protocols

- channel partitioning, by time, frequency or code

- 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 wireless 802.11 → will cover this next week.

- taking turns
  - polling from central site, token passing

Local Area Network (LAN)

MAC addresses

- 32-bit IP address:
  - *network-layer* address for interface
  - used for layer 3 (network layer) forwarding
  - e.g.: 128.119.40.136

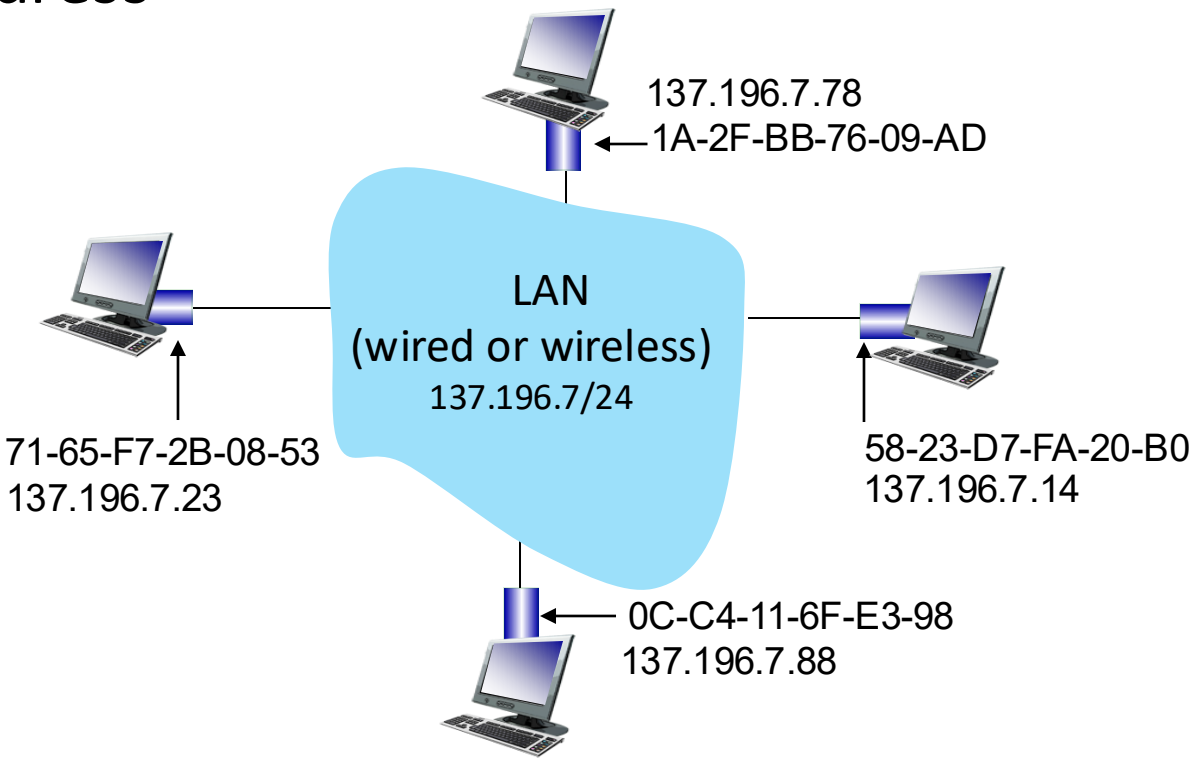
- MAC (or LAN or physical or Ethernet) address:
  - function: used "locally" to get frame from one interface to another physically-connected interface (same subnet, in IP-addressing sense)
  - 48-bit MAC address (for most LANs) burned in NIC ROM, also sometimes software settable
  - e.g.: 1A-2F-BB-76-09-AD

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

MAC addresses

each interface on LAN

- has unique 48-bit MAC address
- has an IP address

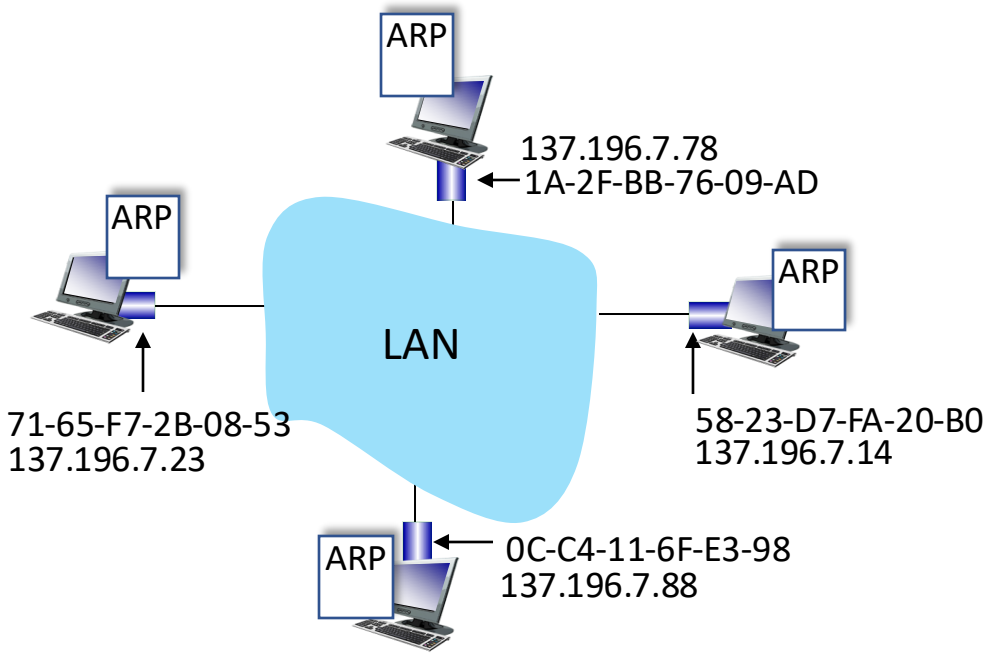


MAC addresses

- 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

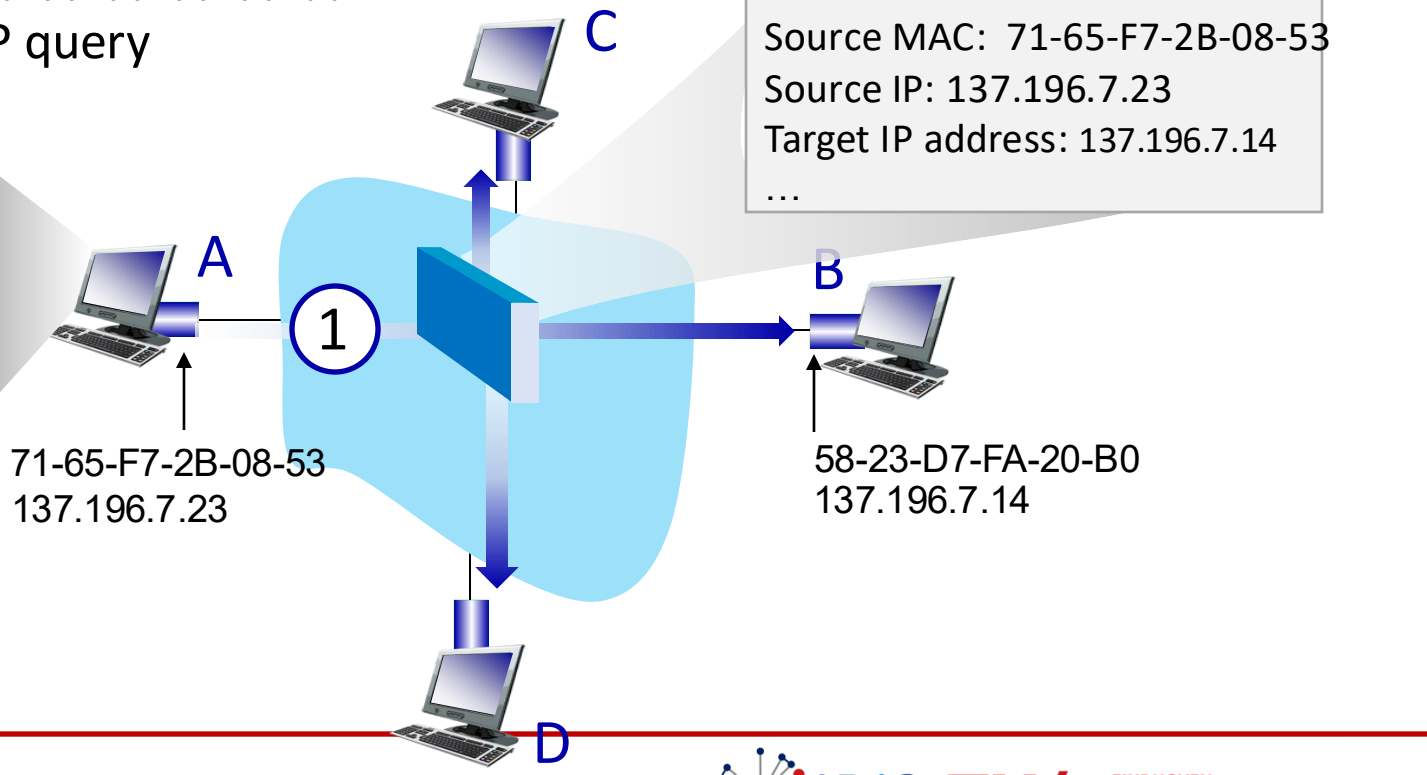
- B's MAC address not in A's ARP table, so A uses ARP to find B's MAC address

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



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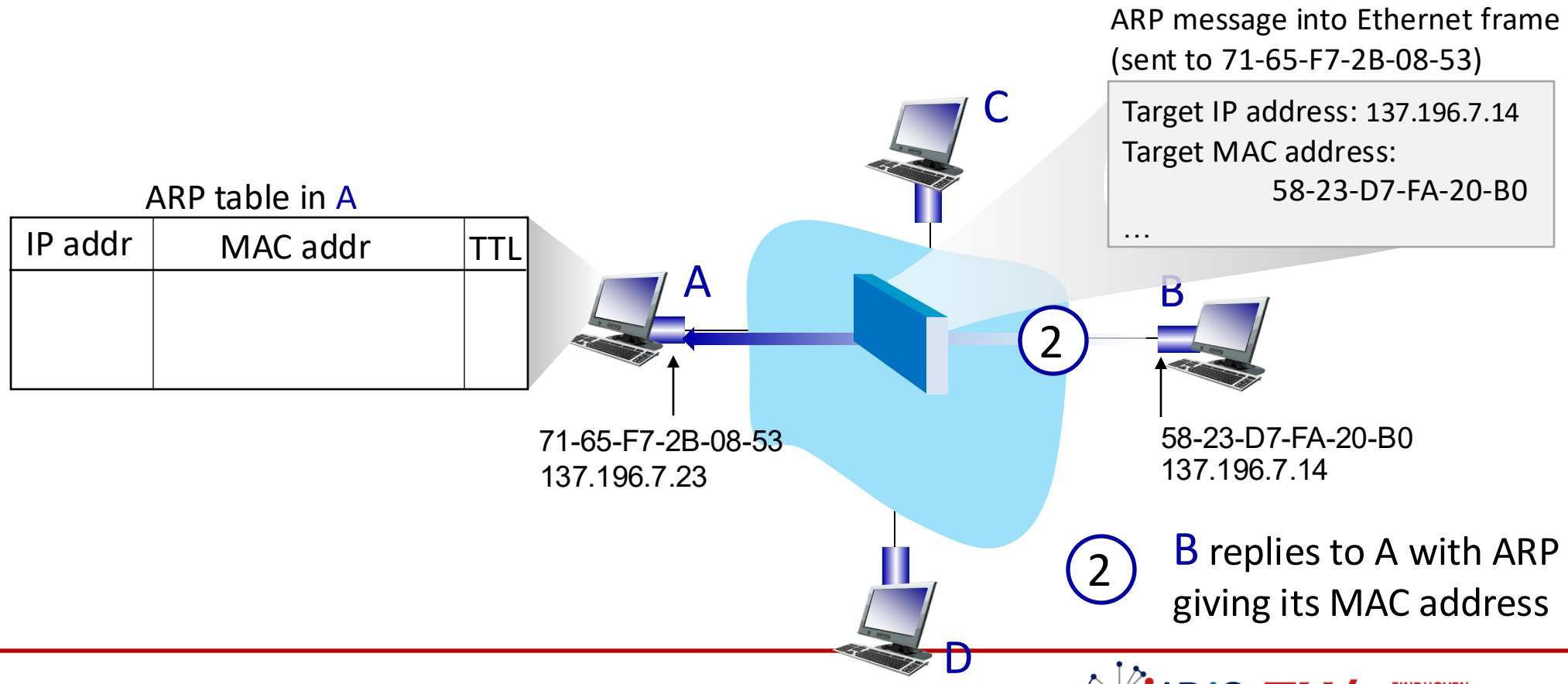

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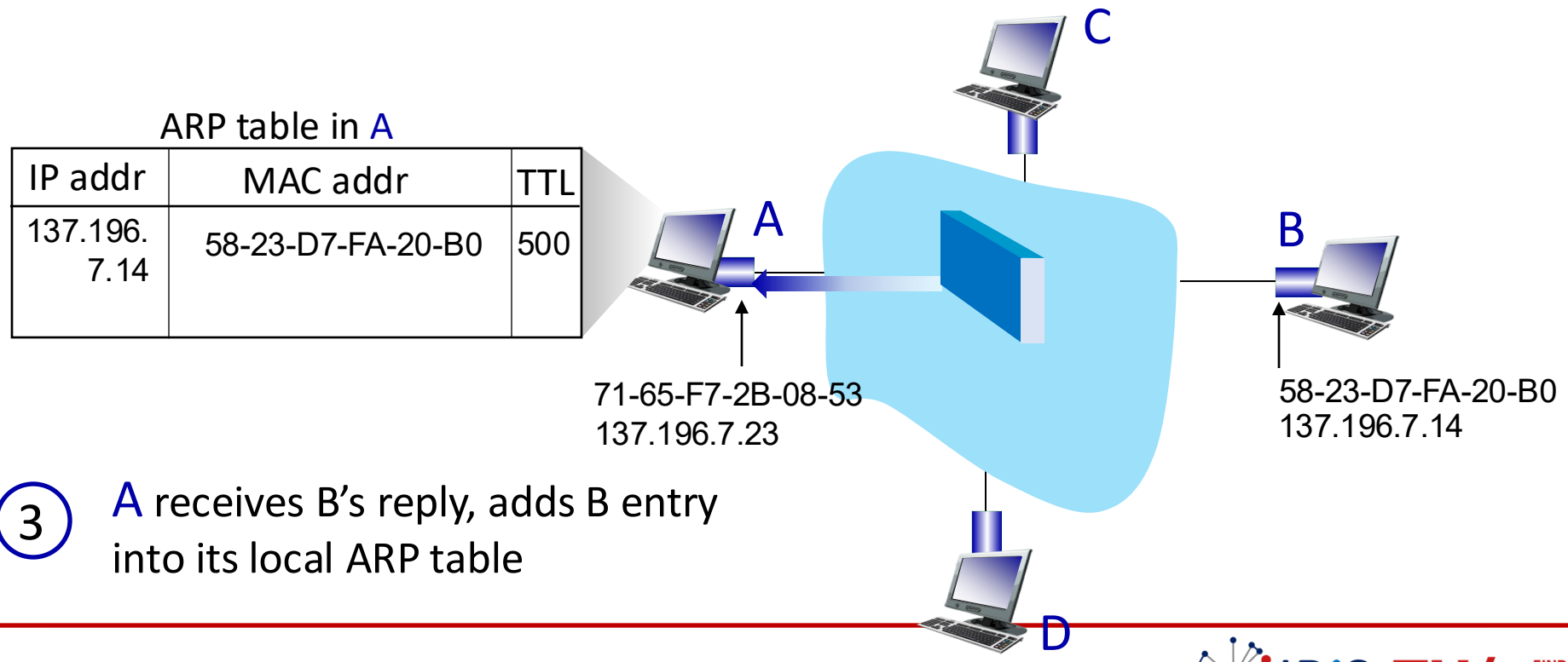
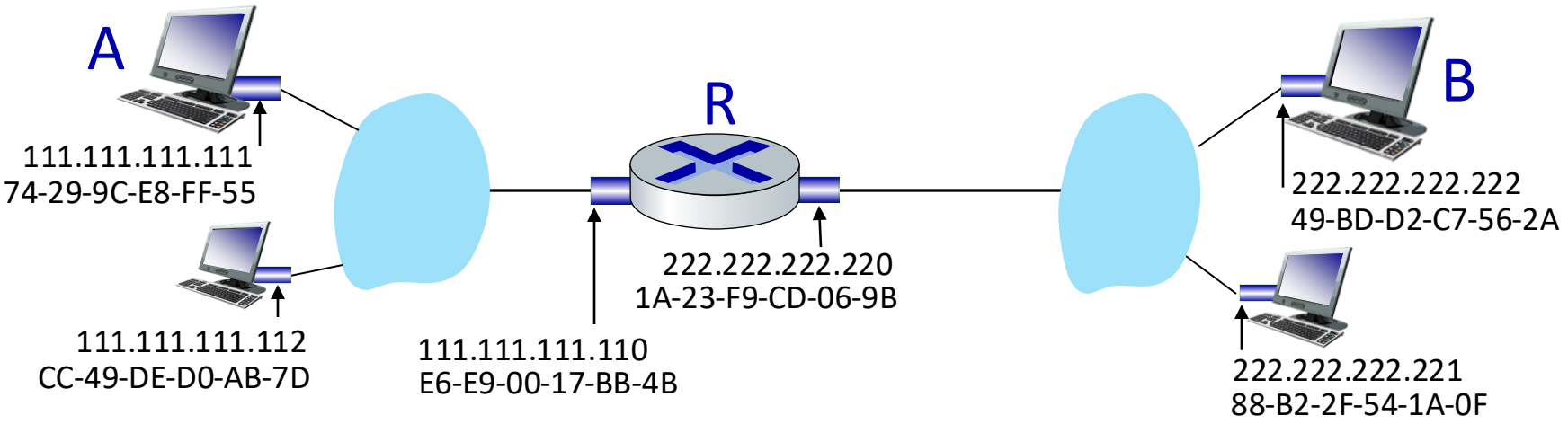


3 A receives B's reply, adds B entry into its local ARP table

Routing to another subnet: addressing

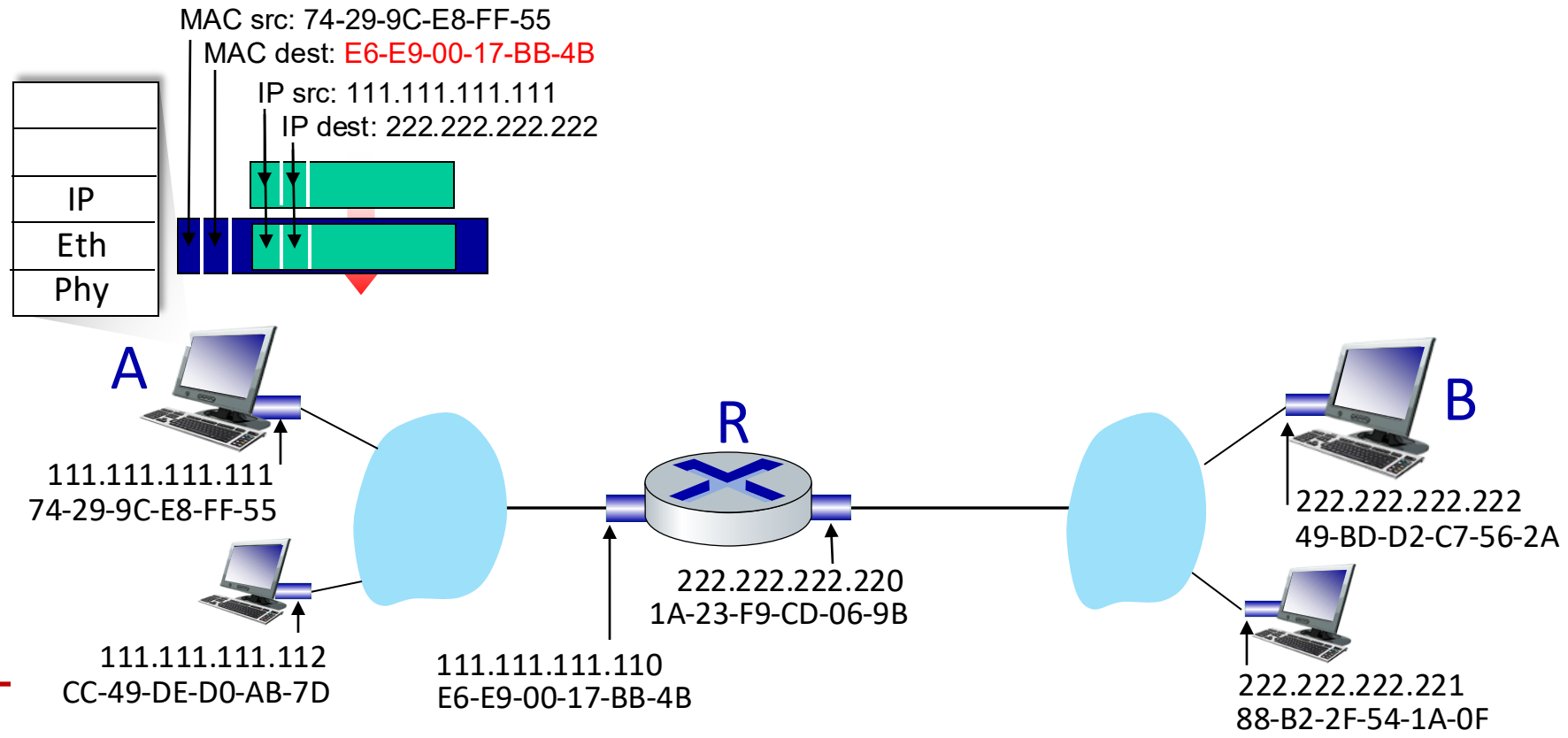
walkthrough: sending a datagram from *A* to *B* via *R*

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



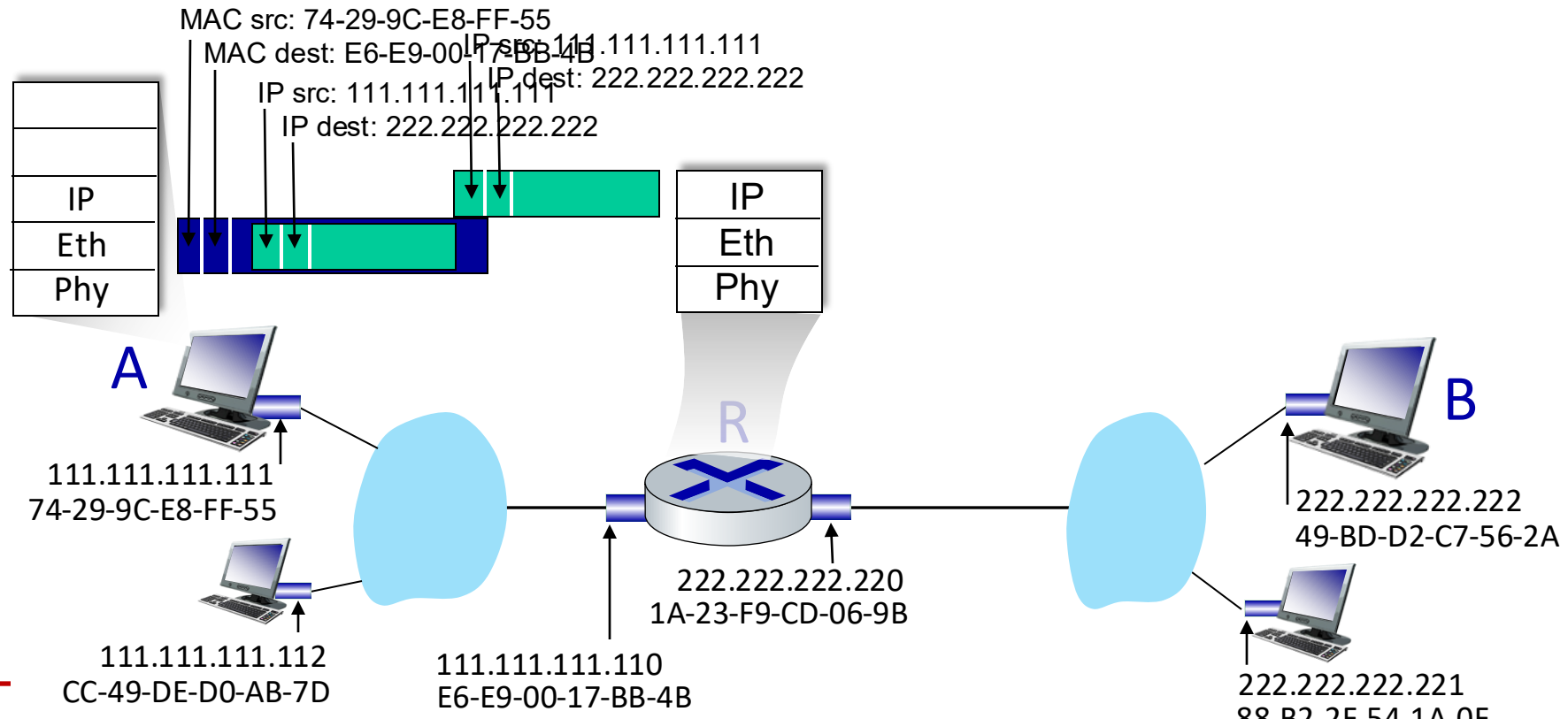
Routing to another subnet: addressing

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



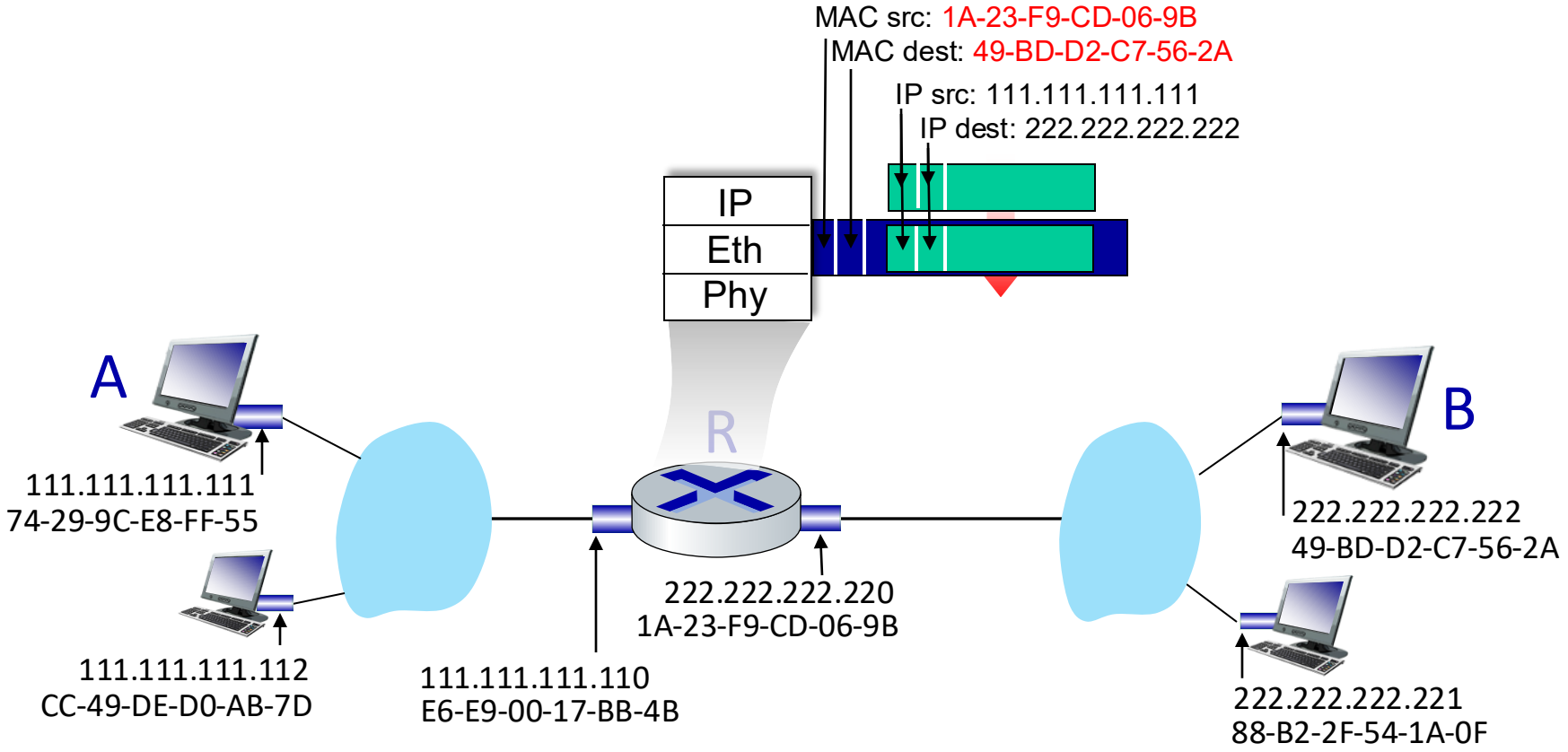
Routing to another subnet: addressing

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



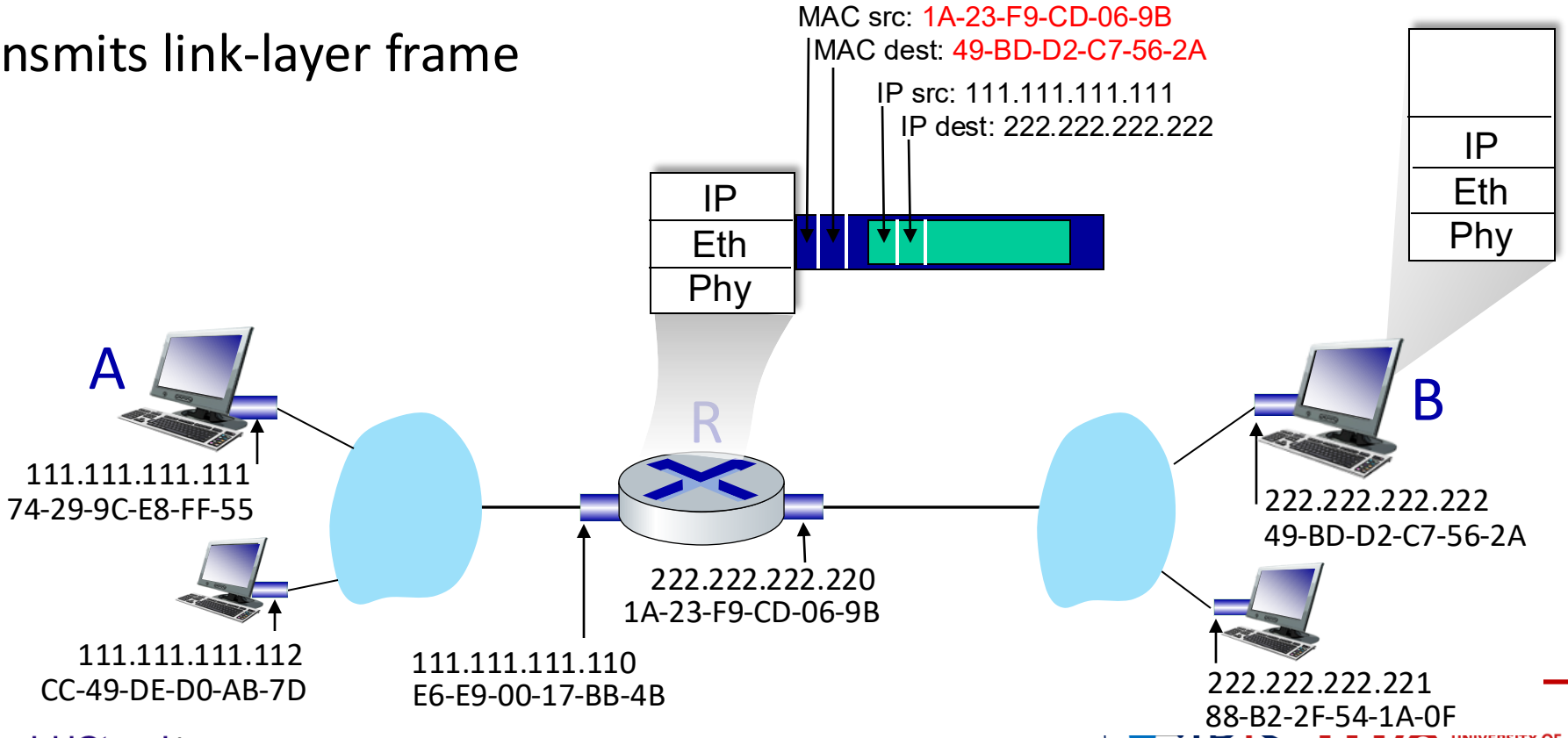
Routing to another subnet: addressing

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



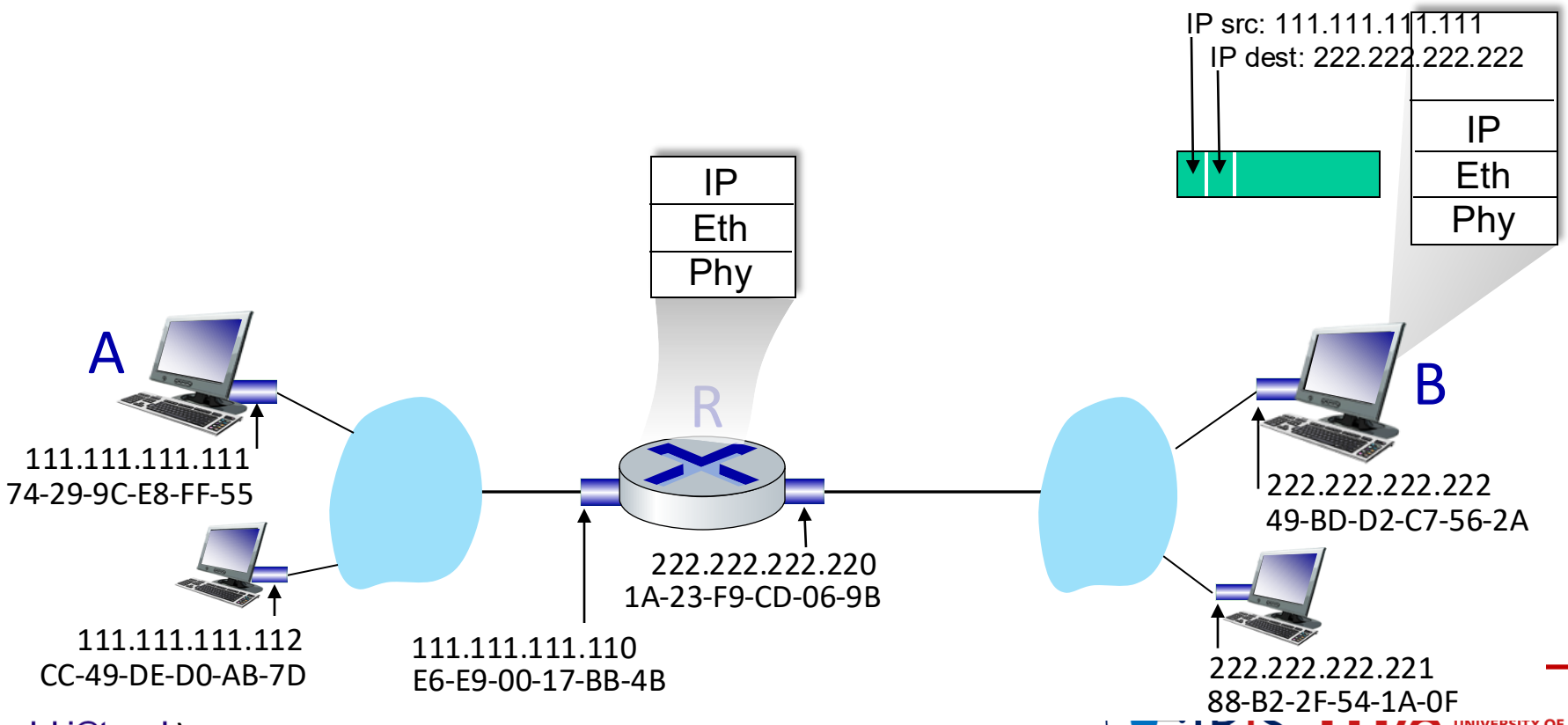
Routing to another subnet: addressing

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



Routing to another subnet: addressing

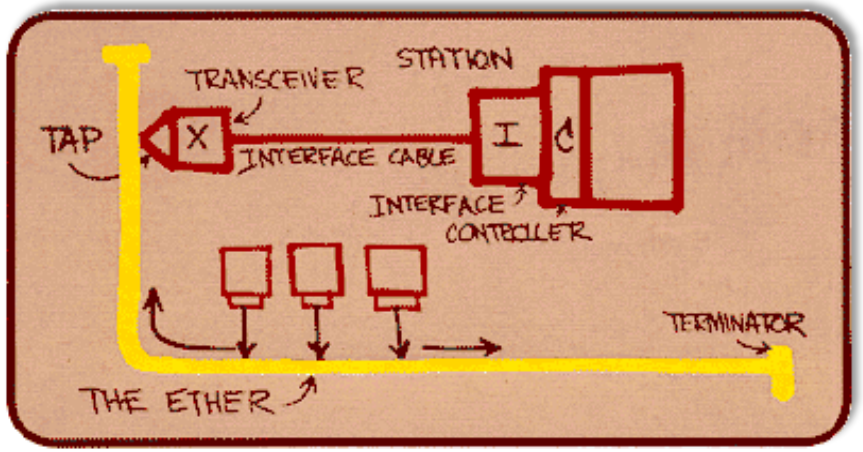
- B receives frame, extracts IP datagram destination B
- B passes datagram up protocol stack to IP



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)

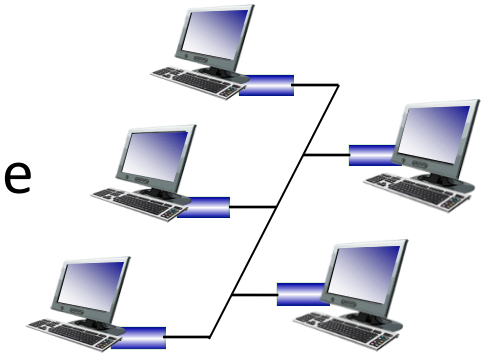


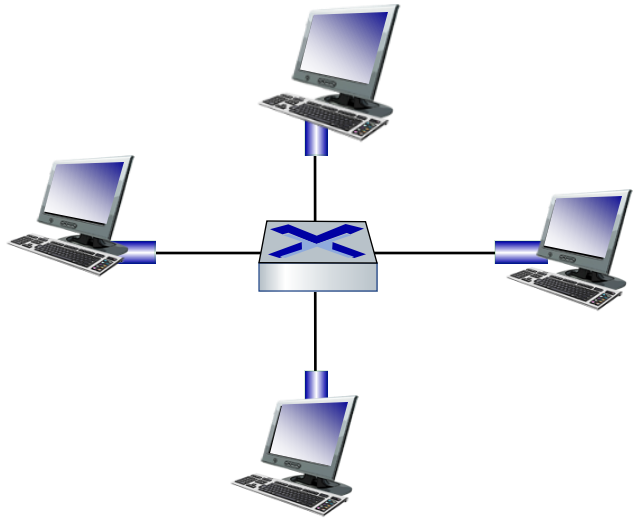
Metcalfe's Ethernet sketch

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 *switch* in center
  - each link runs a (separate) Ethernet protocol
    - (nodes do not collide with each other)

bus: coaxial cable





switched

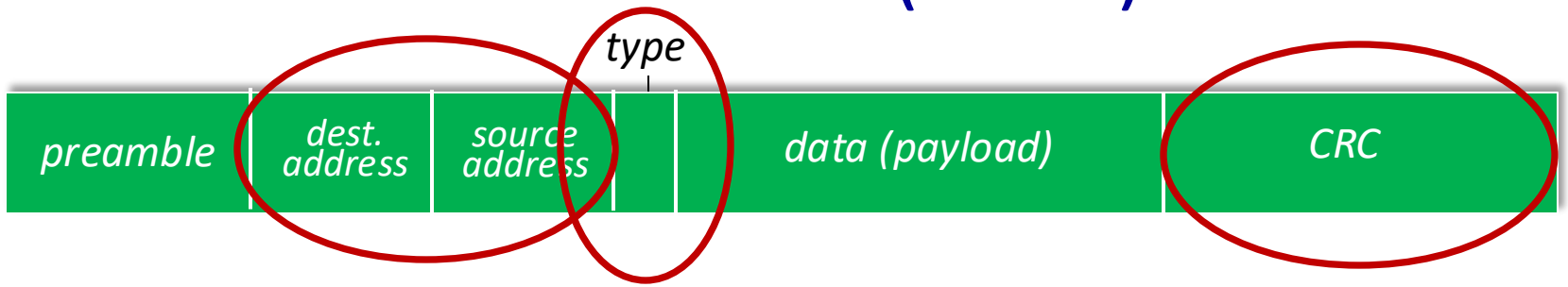
Ethernet frame structure

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)



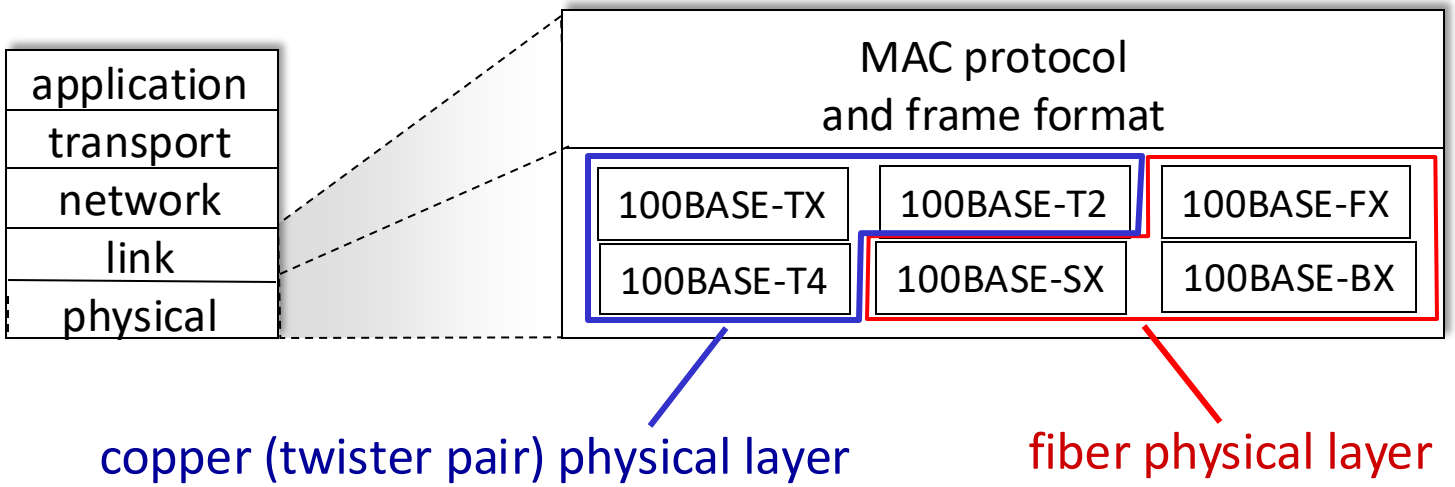
- addresses: 6 byte source, destination MAC addresses
  - if adapter receives frame with matching destination address, or with broadcast address (e.g., ARP packet), it passes data in frame to network layer protocol
  - otherwise, adapter discards frame
- type: indicates higher layer protocol
  - mostly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

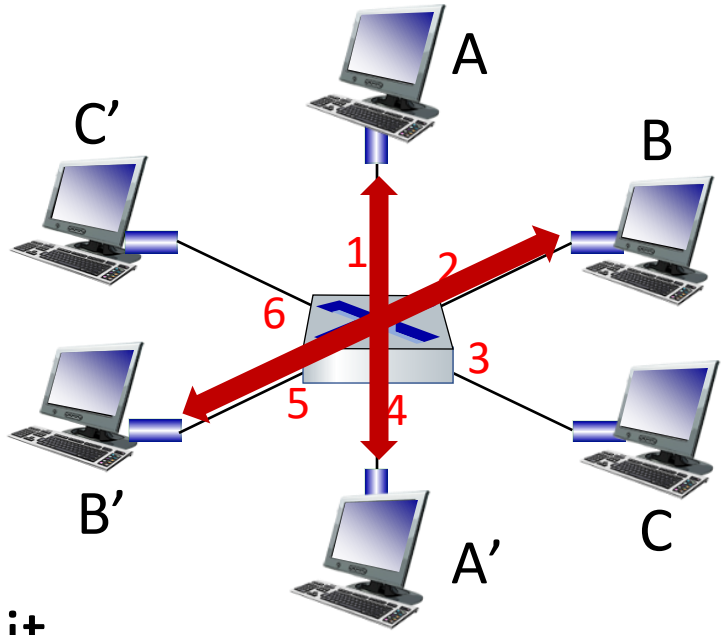


Ethernet switch

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

Switch: multiple simultaneous transmissions

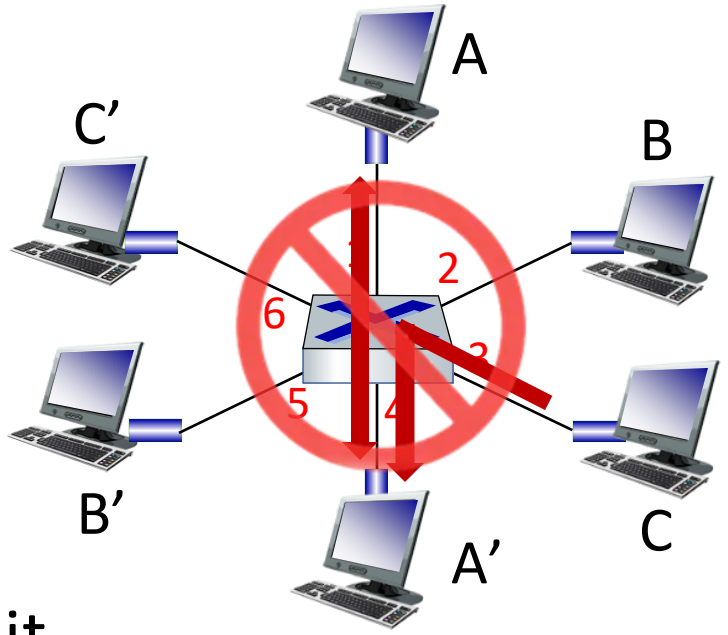
- hosts have dedicated, direct connection to switch
- switches buffer packets
- Ethernet protocol used on *each* incoming link, so:
  - no collisions; full duplex
  - each link is its own collision domain
- switching: A-to-A' and B-to-B' can transmit simultaneously, without collisions



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

Switch: multiple simultaneous transmissions

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



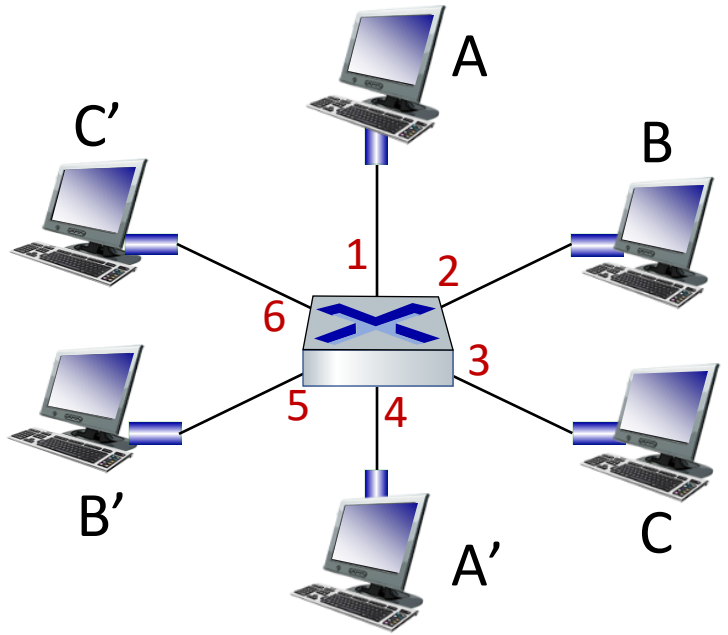
switch with six interfaces (1,2,3,4,5,6)

Switch forwarding table

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

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

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

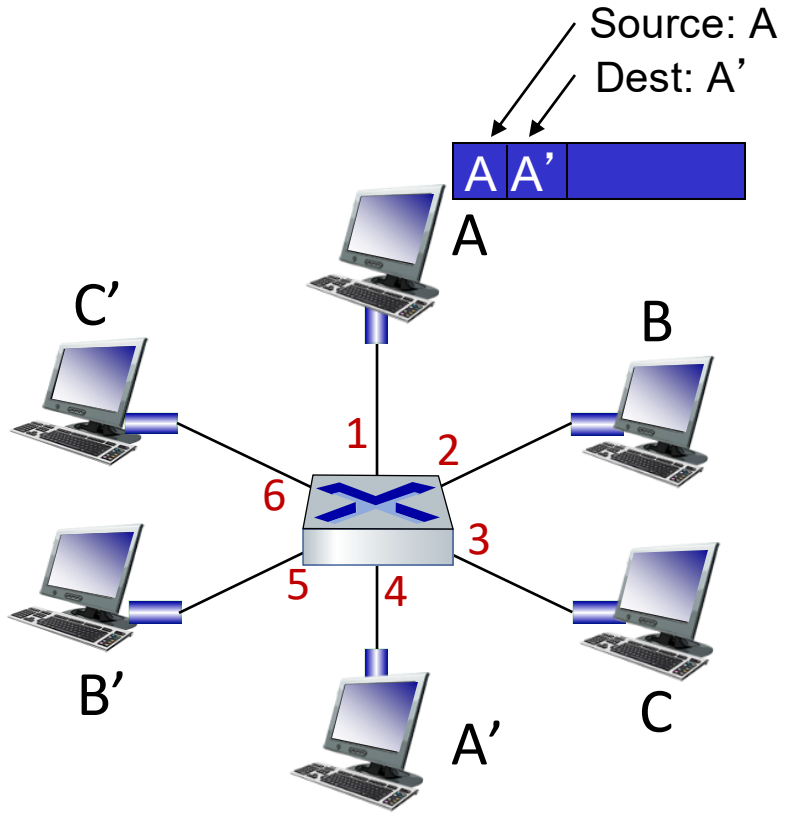


Q: how are entries created, maintained in switch table?

- something like a routing protocol?

Switch: self-learning

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



MAC addr	interface	TTL
A	*1*	*60*

Switch table (initially empty)

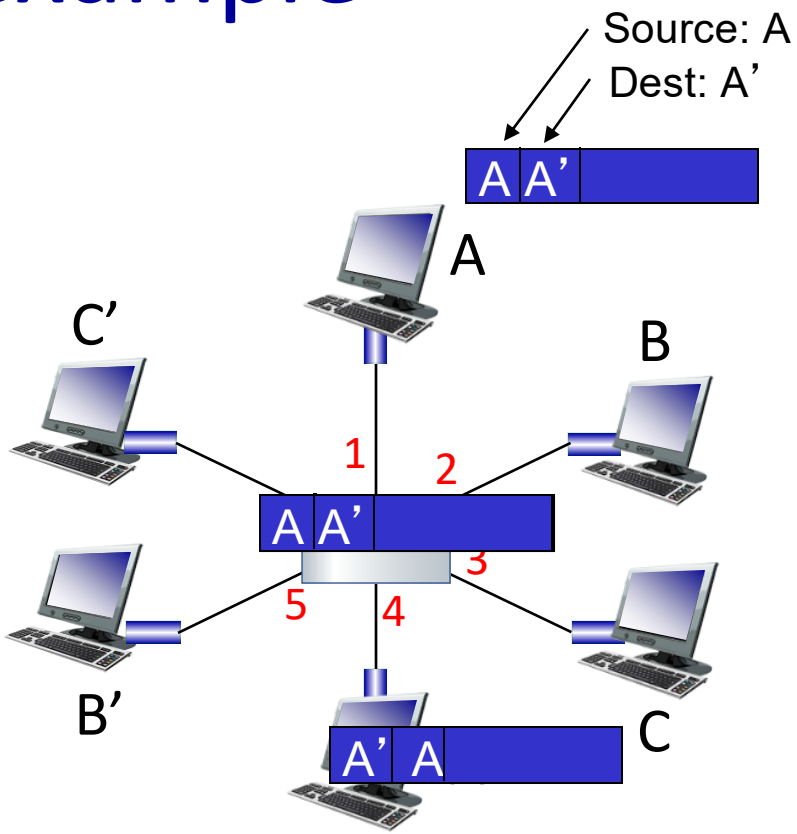
Switch: frame filtering/forwarding

when frame received at switch:

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

Self-learning, forwarding: example

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

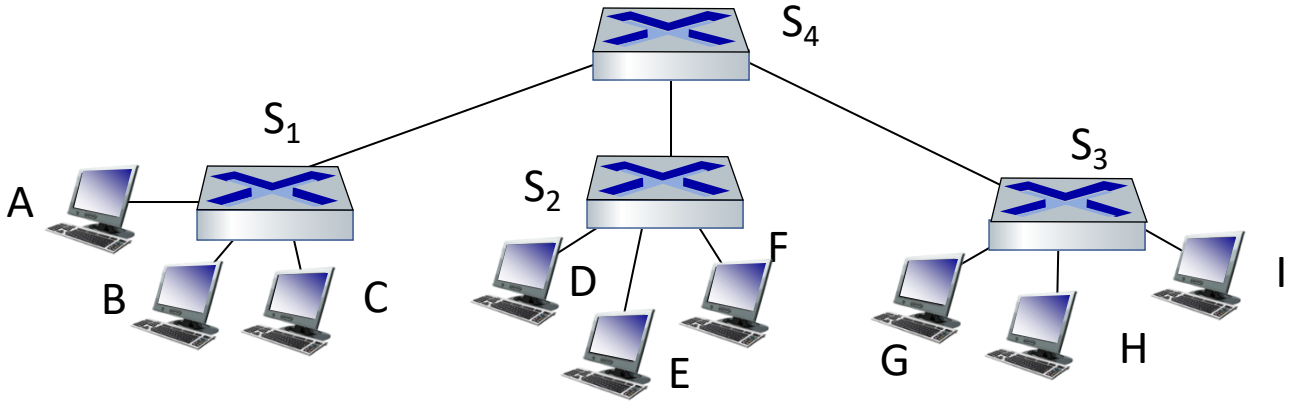


MAC addr	interface	TTL
A	*1*	*60*
A'	*4*	*60*

switch table (initially empty)

Interconnecting switches

self-learning switches can be connected together:

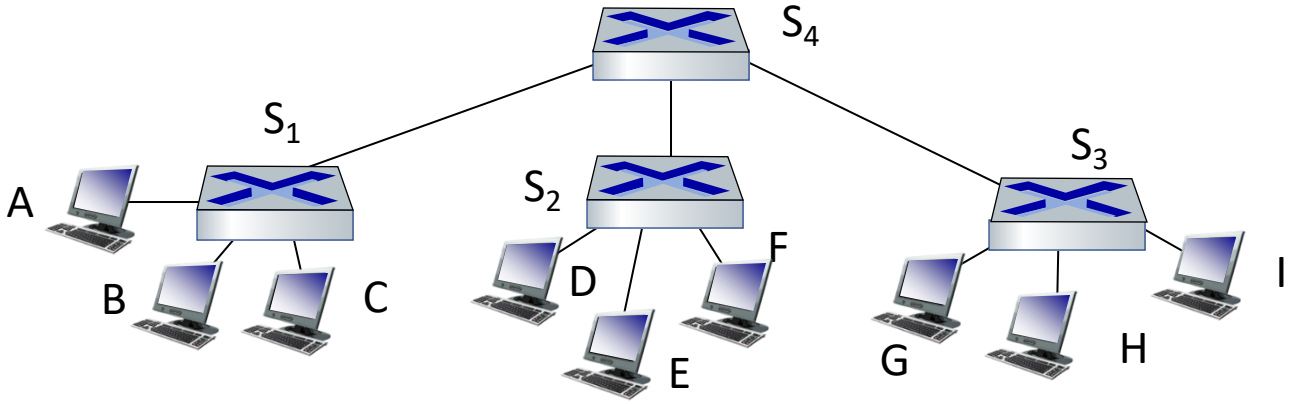


Q: sending from A to G - how does S_1 know to forward frame destined to G via S_4 and S_3?

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

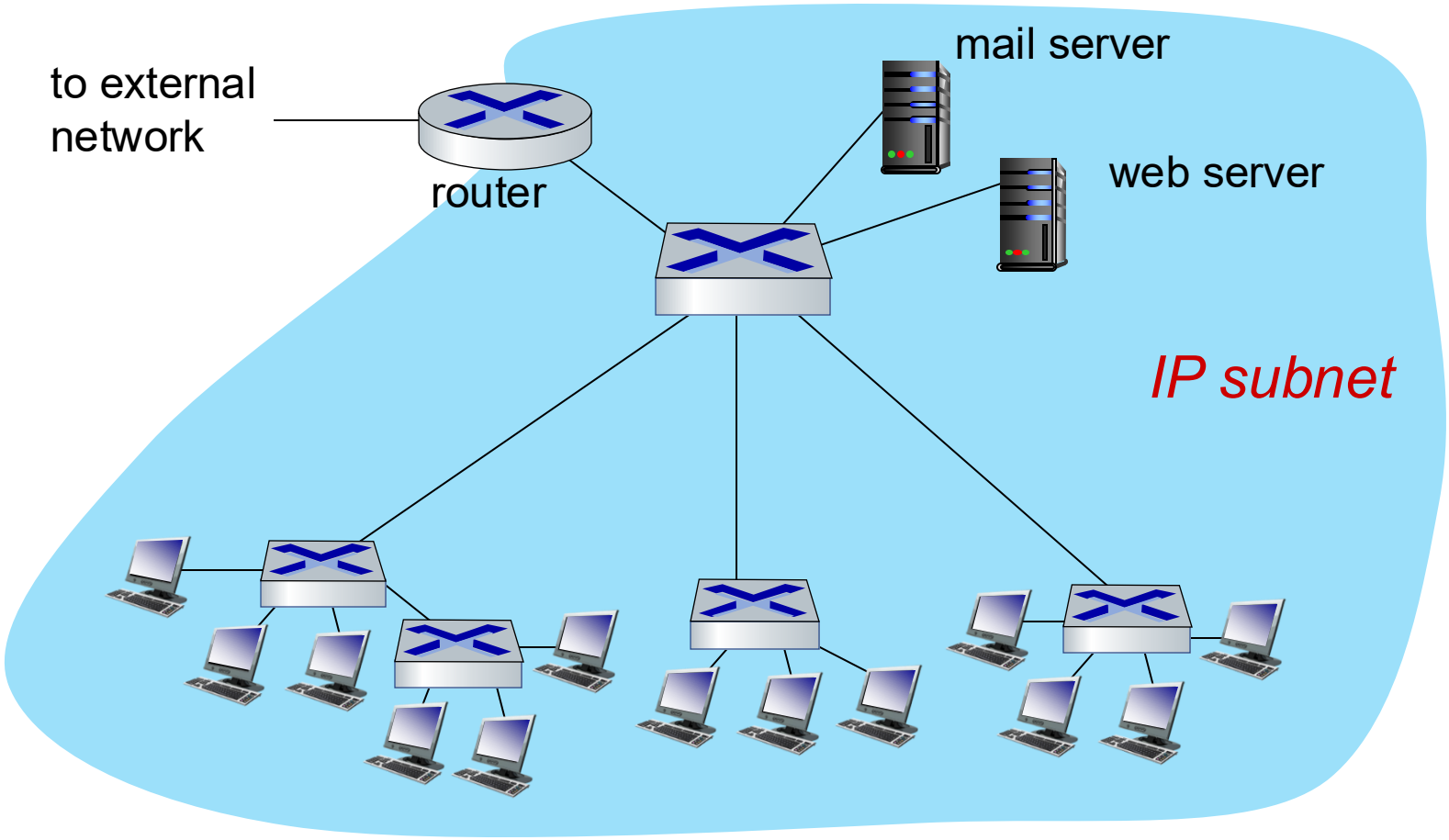
Self-learning multi-switch example

Suppose C sends frame to I, I responds to C



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

Small institutional network



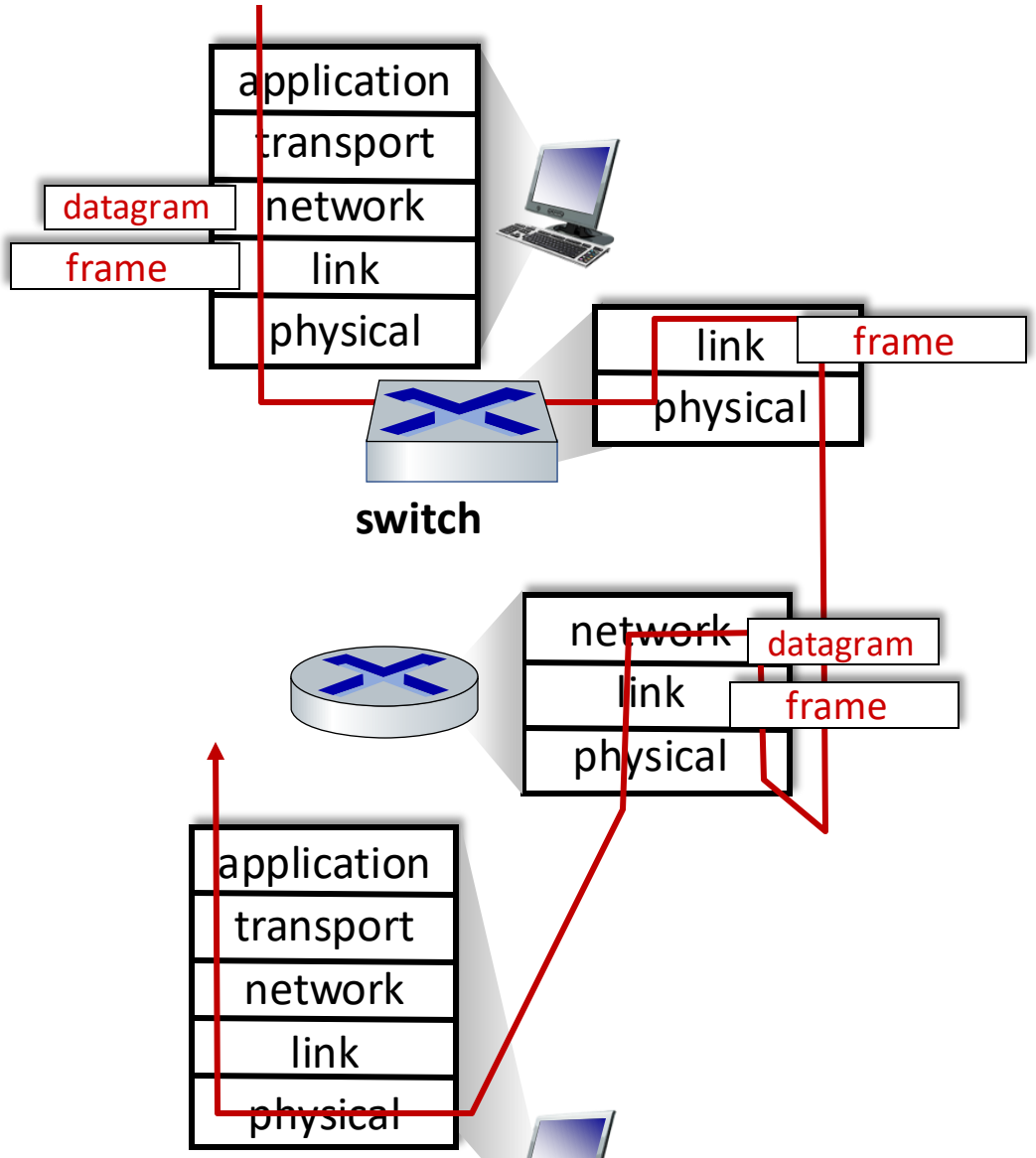
Switches vs. routers

both are store-and-forward:

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

both have forwarding tables:

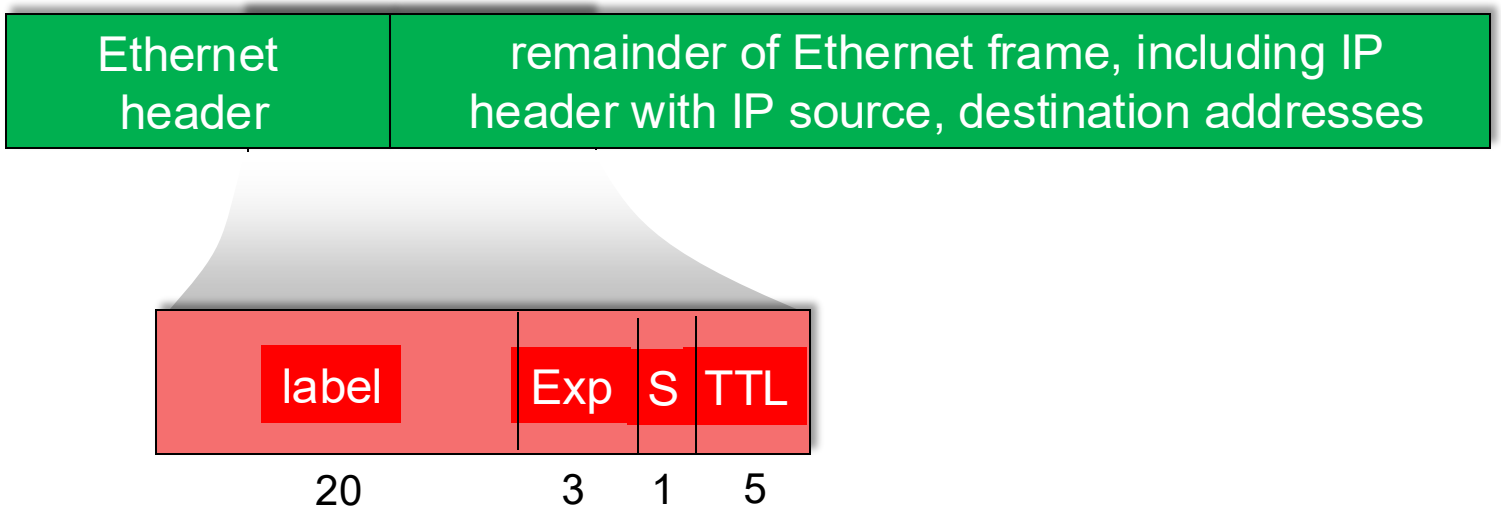
- *routers:* compute tables using routing algorithms, IP addresses
- *switches:* learn forwarding table using flooding, learning, MAC addresses



Link virtualization: MPLS

Multiprotocol label switching (MPLS)

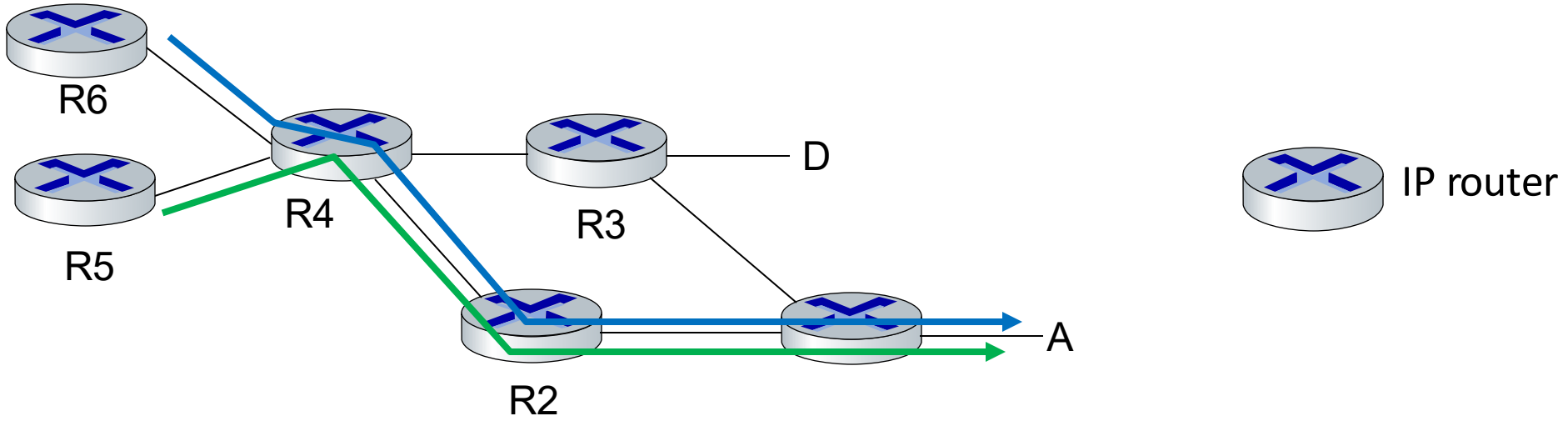
- goal: high-speed IP forwarding among network of MPLS-capable routers, using fixed length label (instead of shortest prefix matching)
  - faster lookup using fixed length identifier
  - borrowing ideas from Virtual Circuit (VC) approach
  - but IP datagram still keeps IP address!



MPLS capable routers

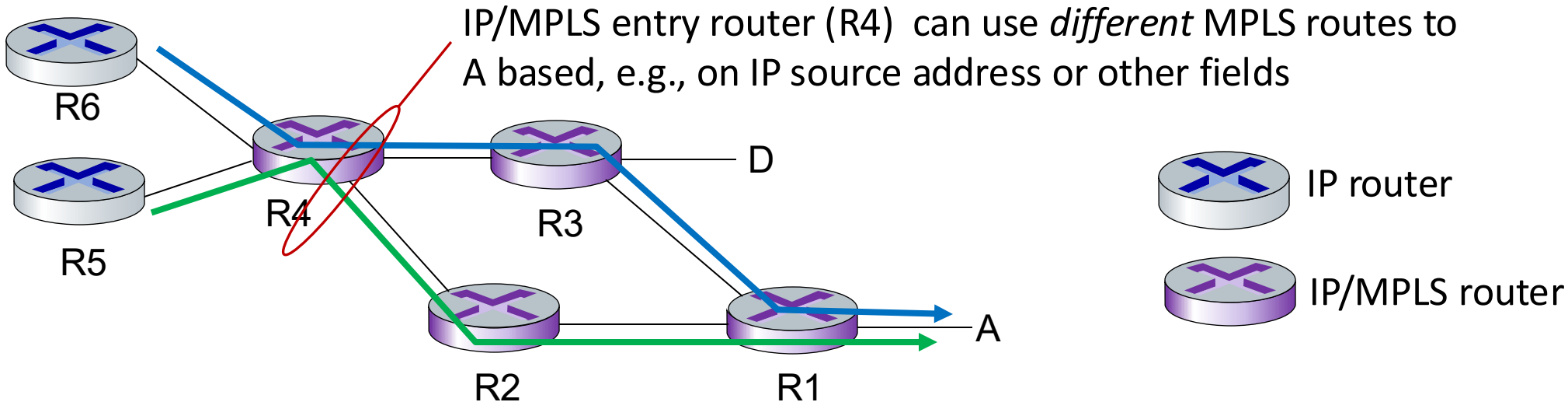
- a.k.a. label-switched router
- forward packets to outgoing interface based only on label value (*don't inspect IP address*)
  - MPLS forwarding table distinct from IP forwarding tables
- *flexibility:* MPLS forwarding decisions can *differ* from those of IP
  - use destination *and* source addresses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

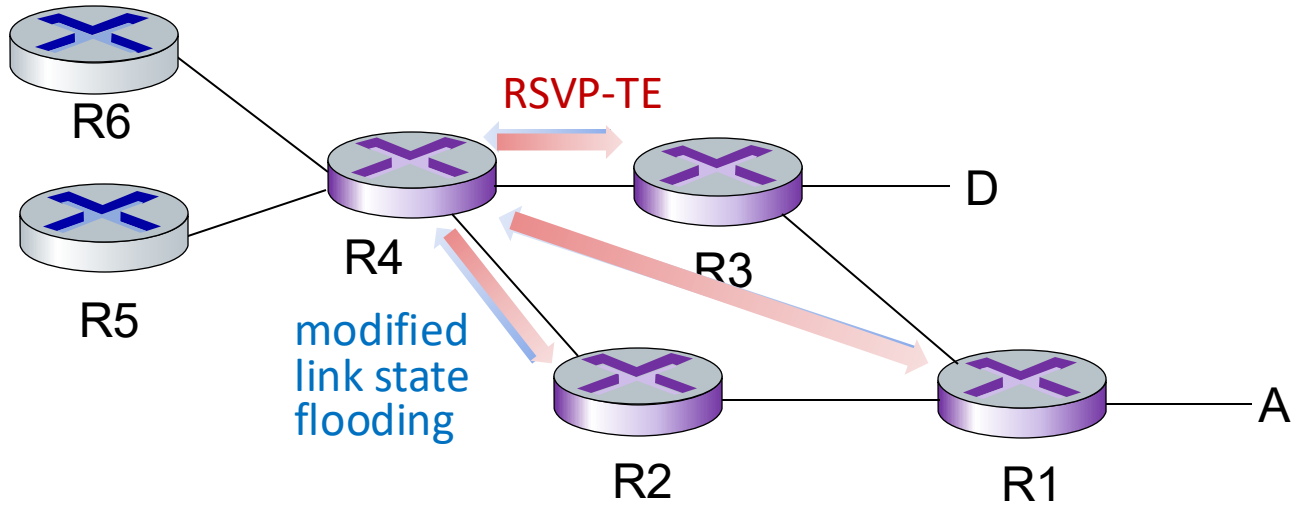
MPLS versus IP paths



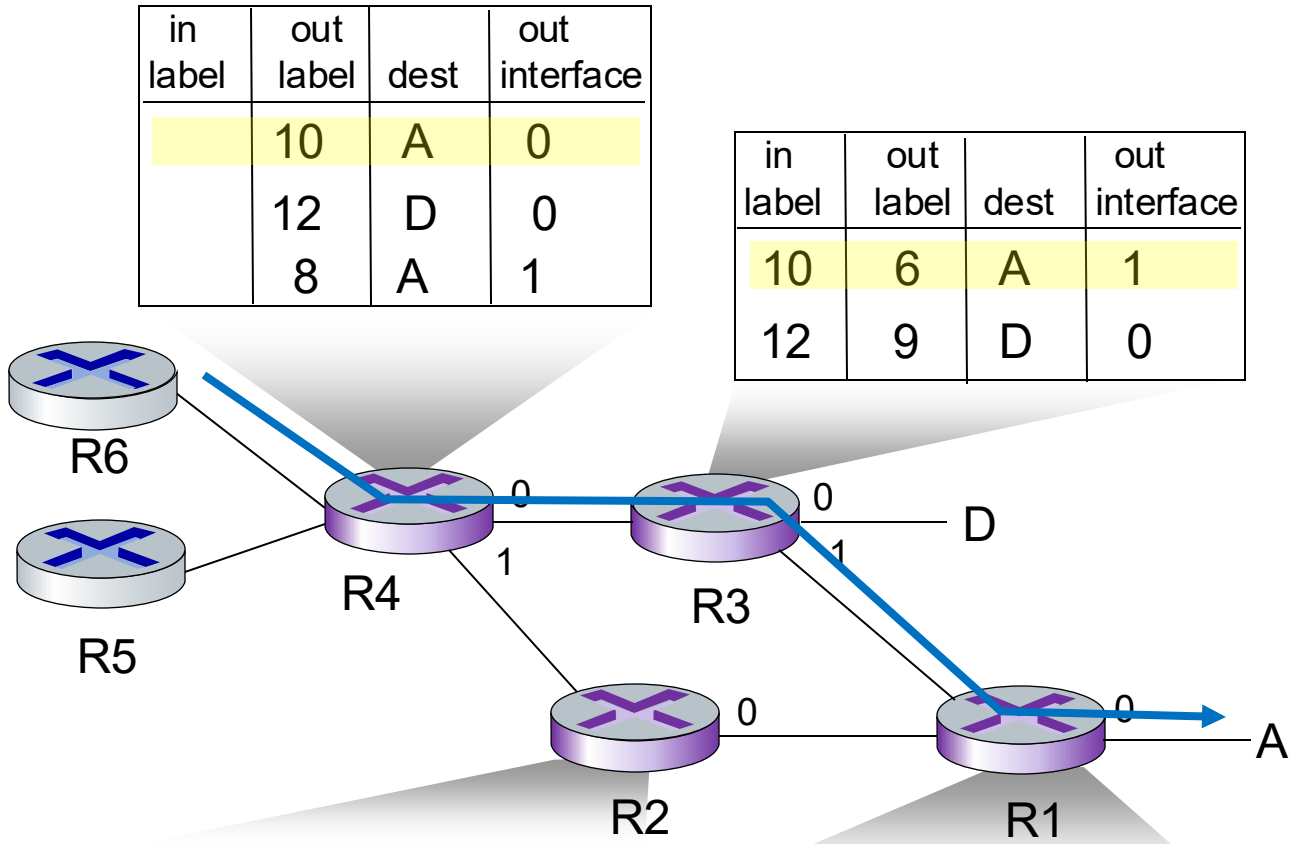
- IP routing: path to destination determined by destination address alone
- MPLS routing: path to destination can be based on source *and* destination address
  - flavor of generalized forwarding (MPLS 10 years earlier)
  - *fast reroute:* precompute backup routes in case of link failure

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



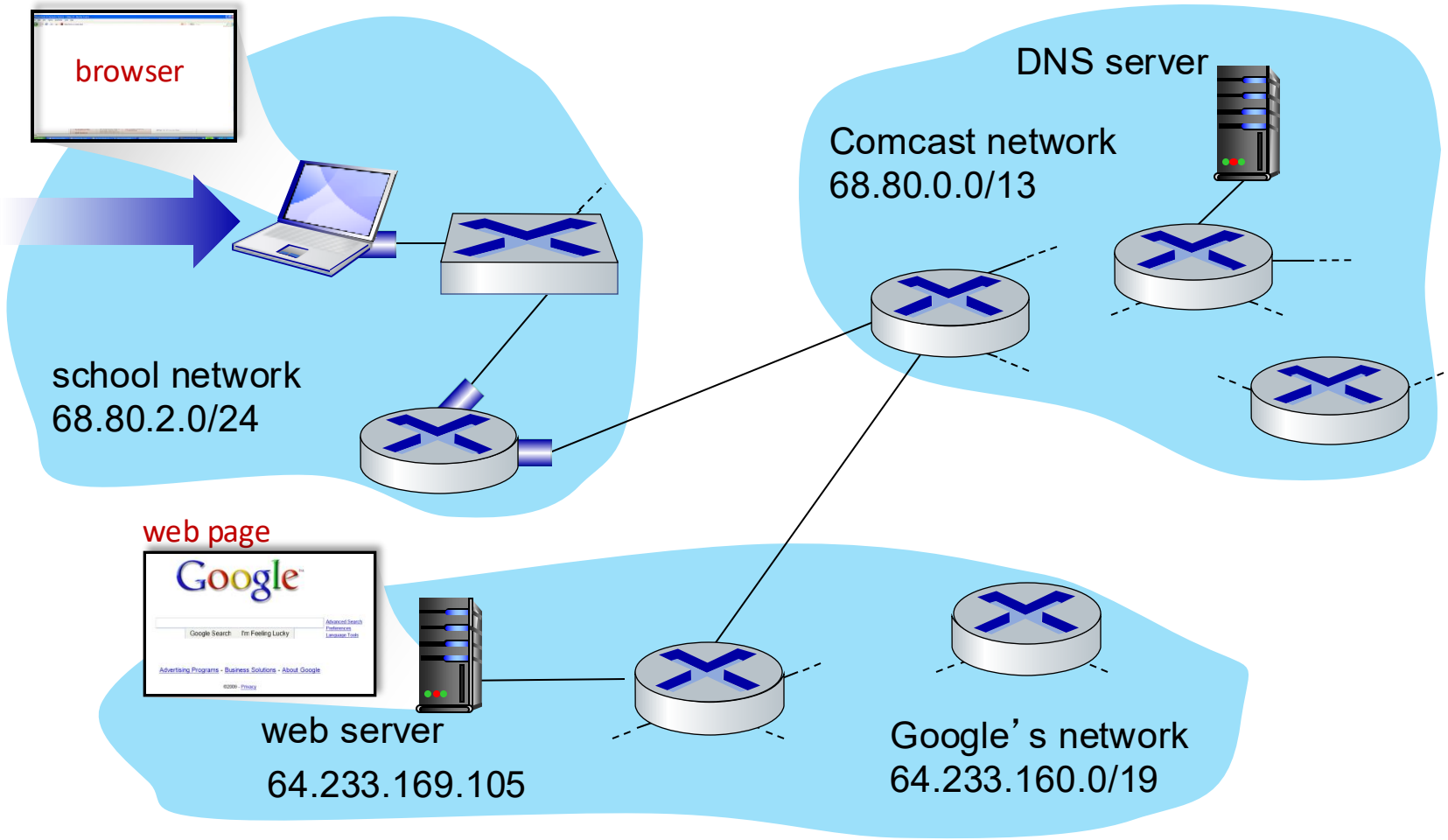
Bringing it together:
a day in the life of a web request

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

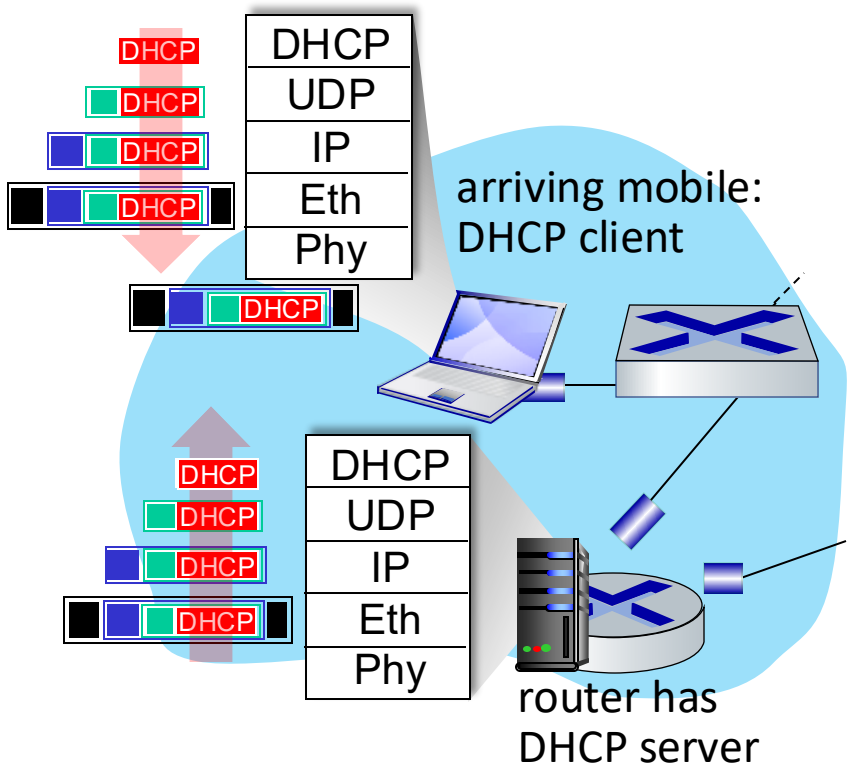


scenario:

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

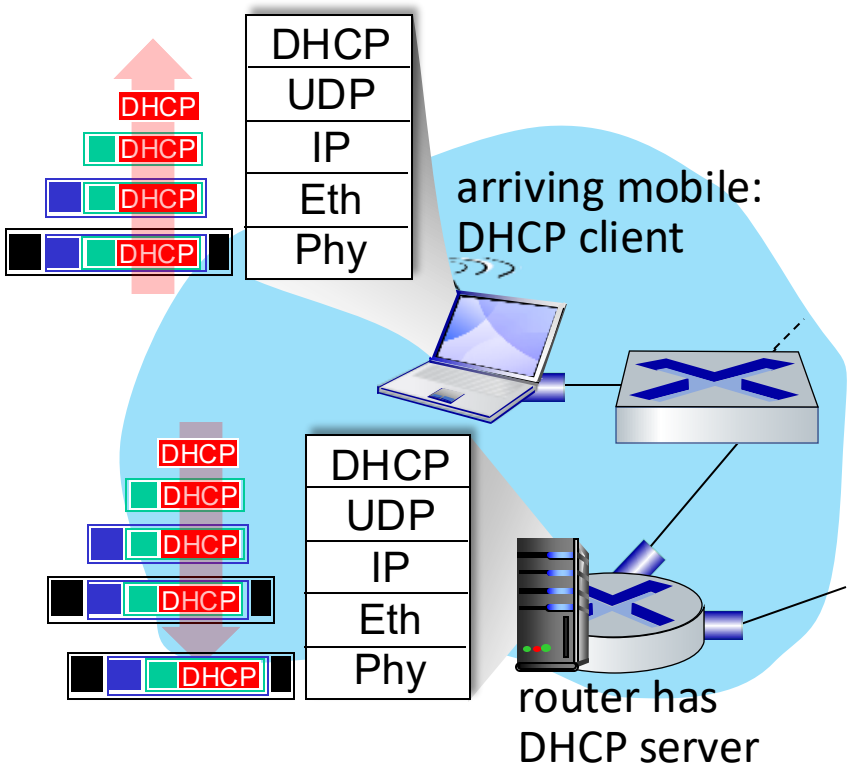
Sounds simple!

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

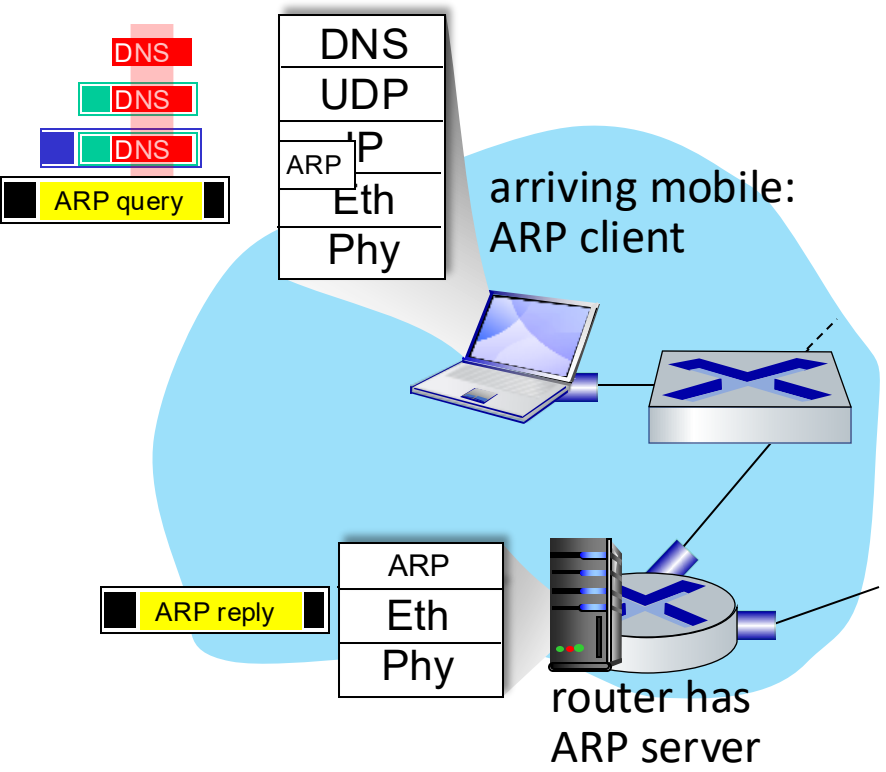
A day in the life: connecting to the Internet



- 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

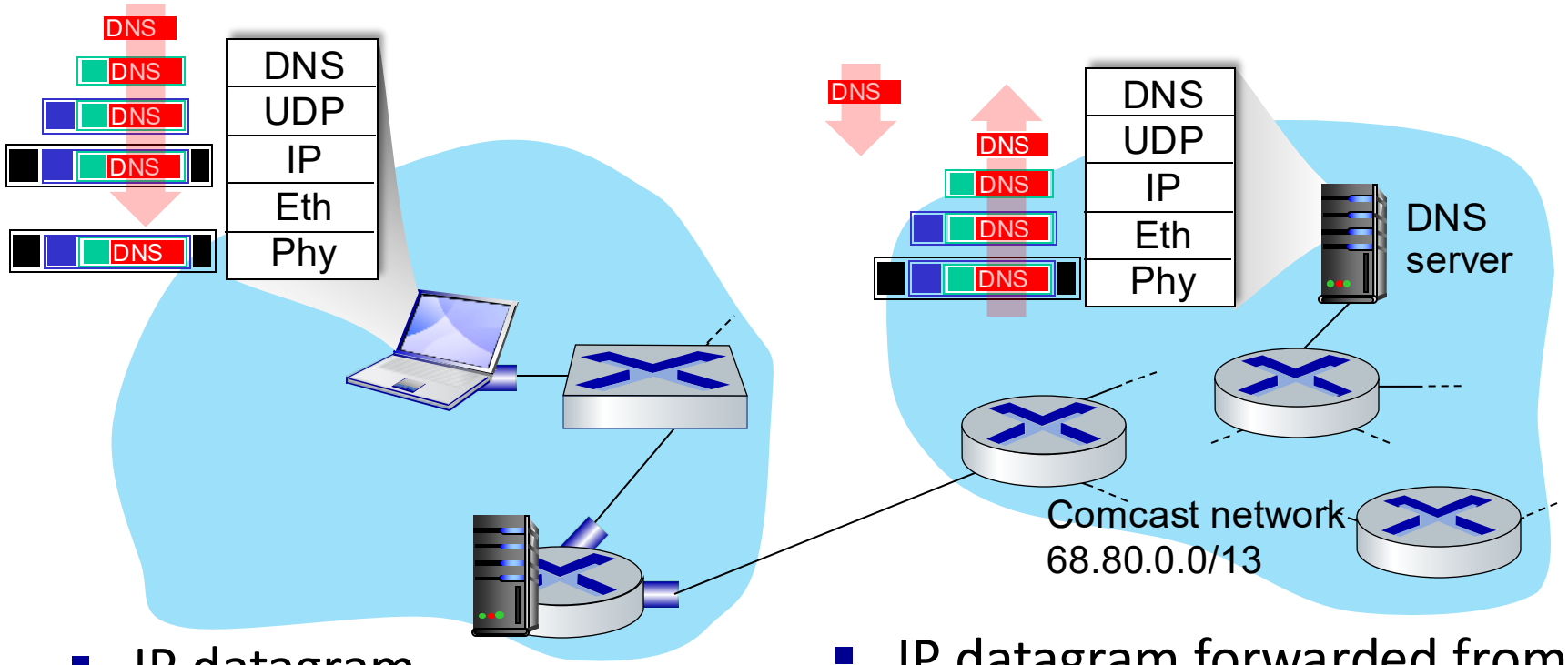
Client now has IP address, knows name & addr of DNS server, IP address of its first-hop router

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

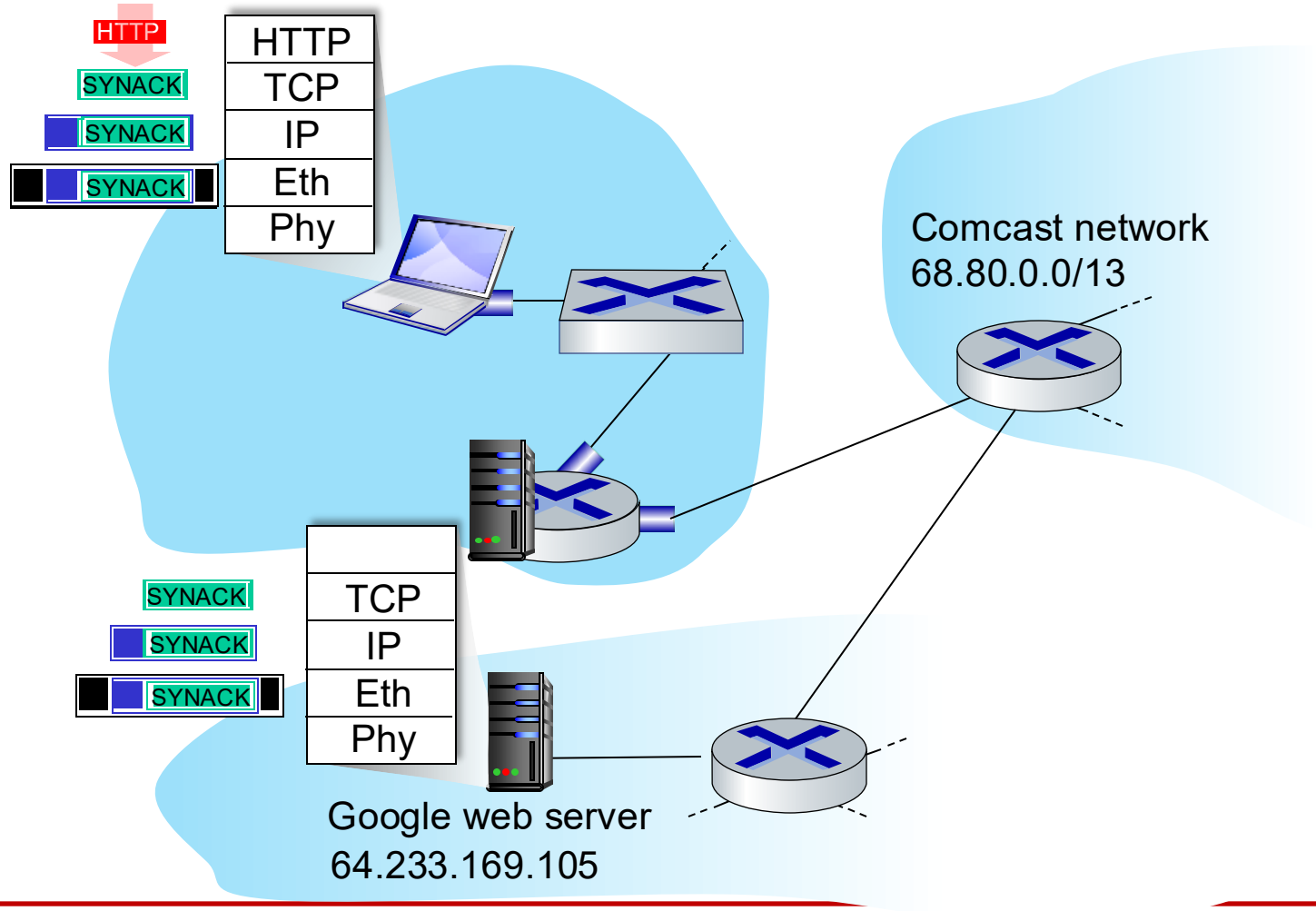


- demuxed to DNS
- DNS replies to client with IP address of www.google.com

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

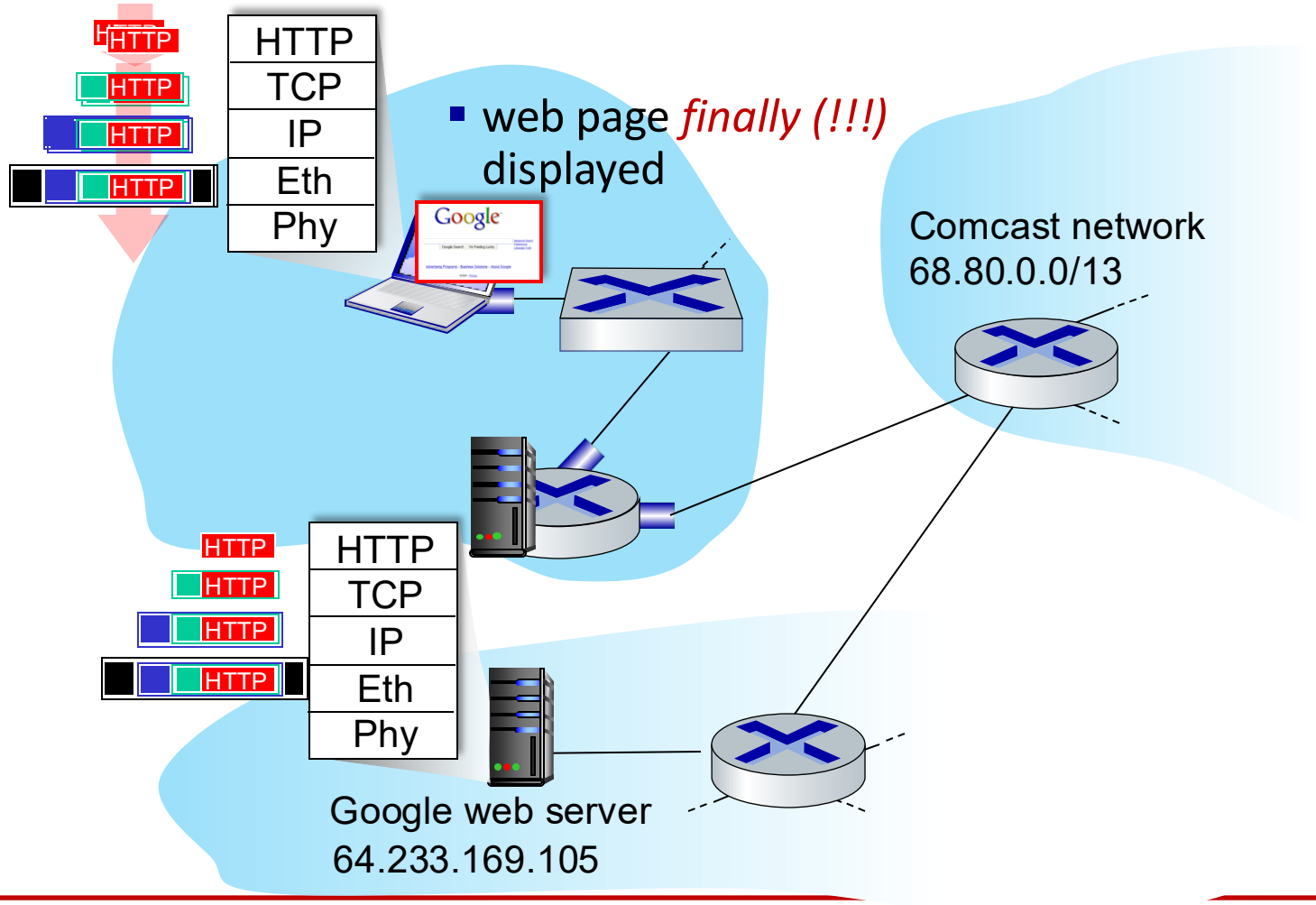
- IP datagram forwarded from campus network into Comcast network, routed (tables created by RIP, OSPF, IS-IS and/or BGP routing protocols) to DNS server

A day in the life…TCP connection carrying HTTP



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

A day in the life… HTTP request/reply



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