

Week 13-Lec 1

Data Link layer Intro

Chapter 5: Link layer

our goals:

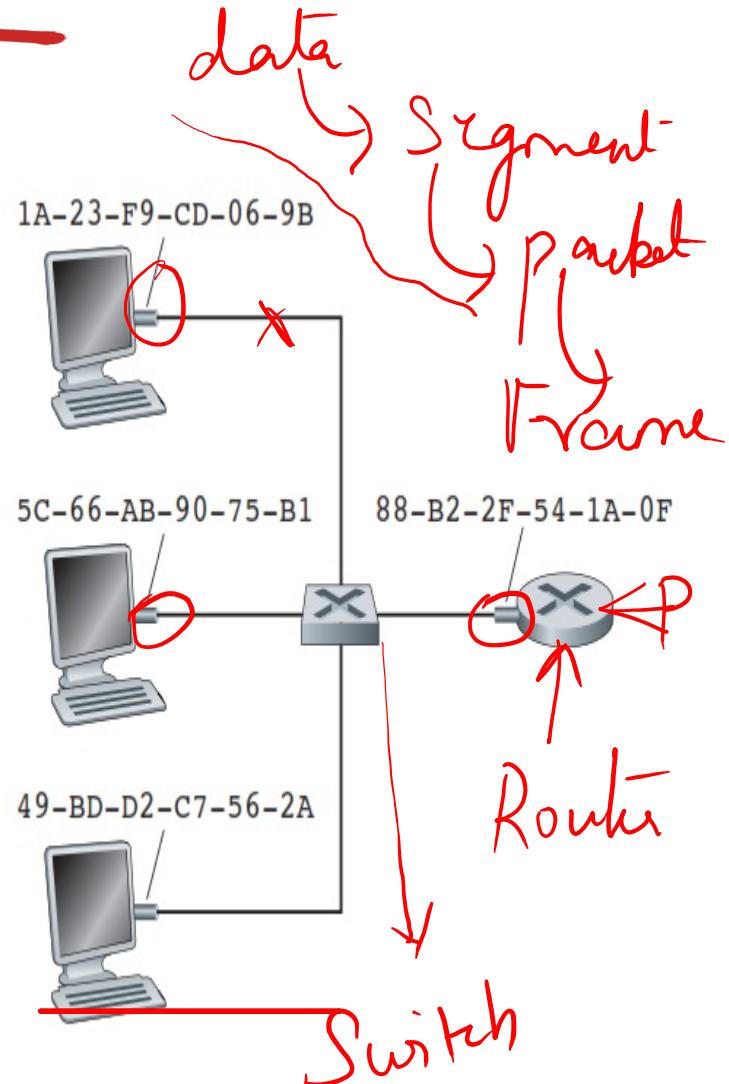
- ❖ understand principles behind link layer services:
- ❖ What happens when a packet gets inside a network/subnet?
 - ❖ Which protocol moves the packet to the final destination machine/host?
 - ❖ How is the final destination/host identified?

Link layer: introduction

terminology:

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

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

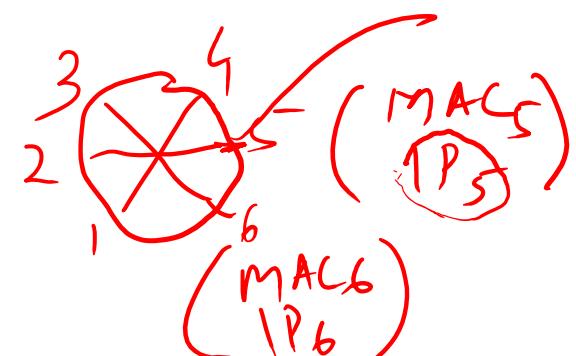


Link layer services

- *reliable delivery between adjacent nodes*
- *framing, link access:*
 - encapsulate datagram into frame, adding header, trailer
 - “MAC” addresses used in frame headers to identify source, dest
 - different from IP address!
 - channel access if shared medium

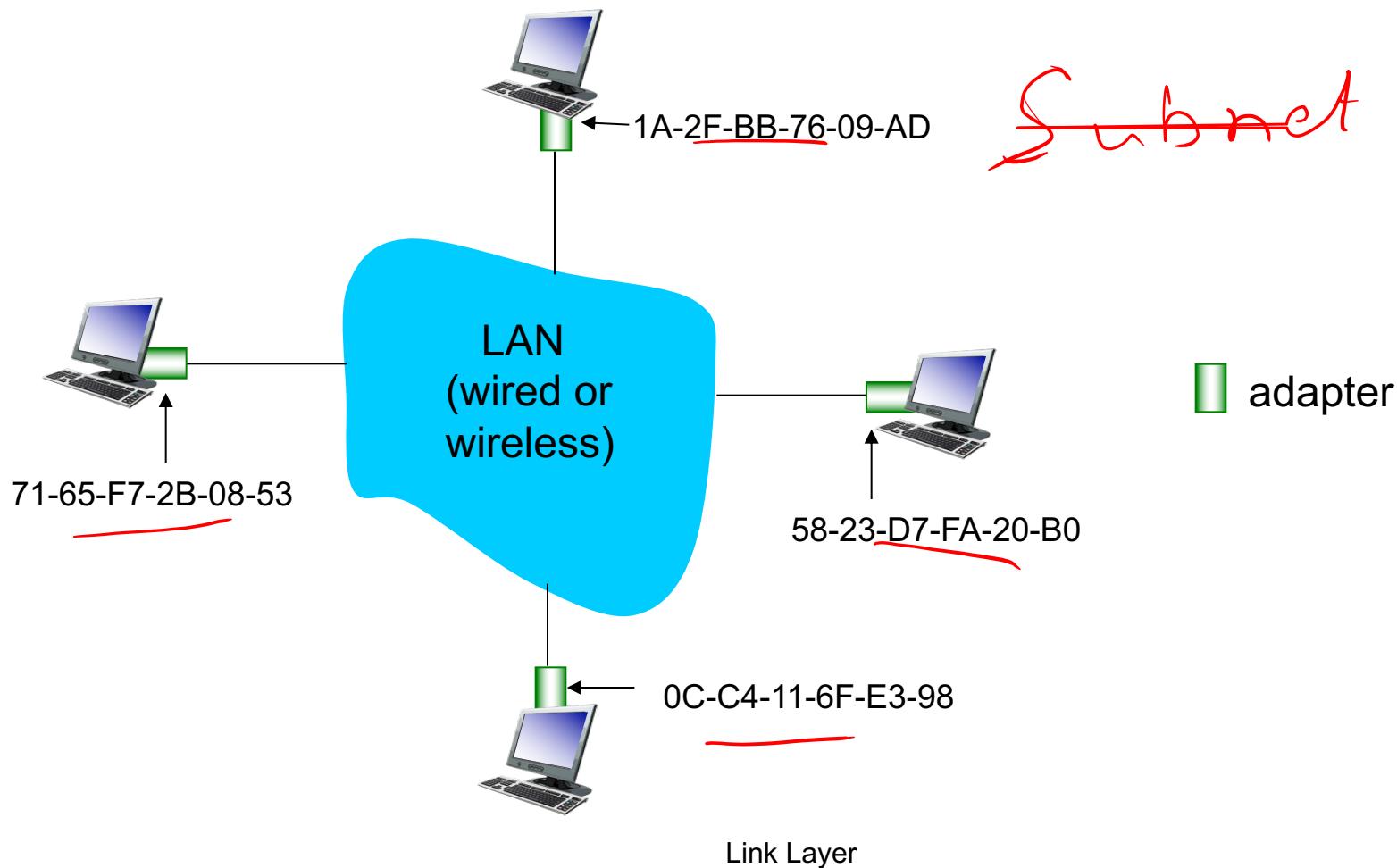
MAC addresses

- 32-bit IP address:
 - *network-layer* address for interface
 - used for layer 3 (network layer) forwarding
- MAC (or LAN or physical or Ethernet) address:
 - function: *used ‘locally’ to get frame from one interface to another physically-connected interface (same network, in IP-addressing sense)*
 - **48 bit MAC address** (for most LANs) burned in NIC ROM, also sometimes software settable
 - e.g.: 1A₇2F-BB-76-09-AD
 - hexadecimal (base 16) notation
(each “number” represents 4 bits)



LAN addresses

each adapter on LAN has unique **LAN** address



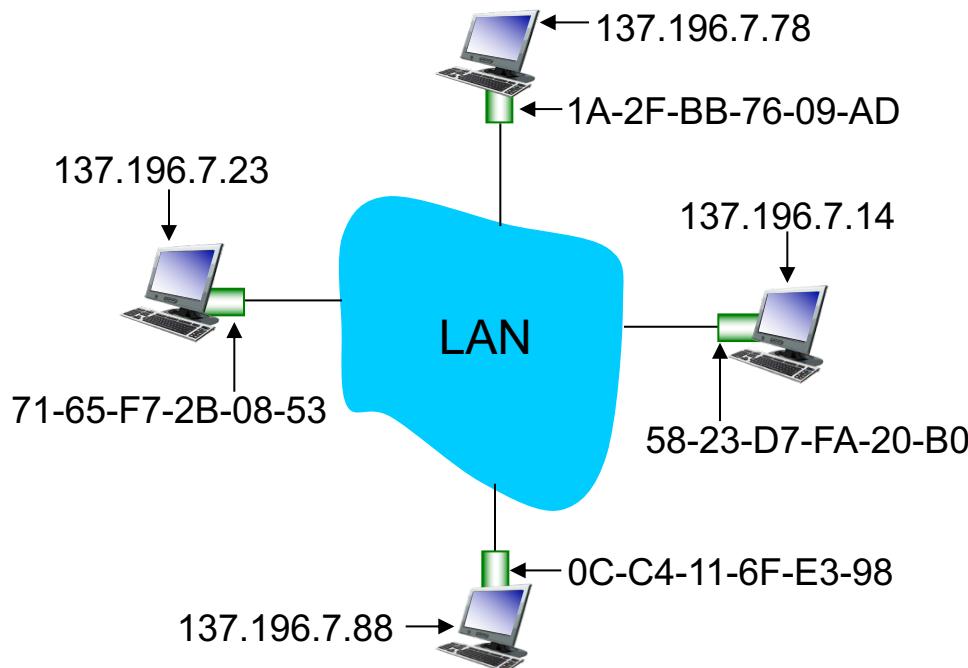
LAN addresses (more)

- ❖ MAC address allocation administered by IEEE
- ❖ manufacturer buys portion of MAC address space (to assure uniqueness)
 - each manufacturer of Ethernet devices is allocated a different prefix that must be prepended to the address on every adaptor they build. For example, Advanced Micro Devices has been assigned the 24-bit prefix x080020 (or 8:0:20). A given manufacturer then makes sure the address suffixes it produces are unique.
- ❖ analogy:
 - MAC address: like Aadhar number
 - IP address: like postal address
- ❖ MAC flat address → portability
 - can move LAN card from one LAN to another
- ❖ IP hierarchical address *not* portable
 - address depends on IP subnet to which node is attached



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

ARP: address resolution protocol



Maps IP → MAC

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: same LAN

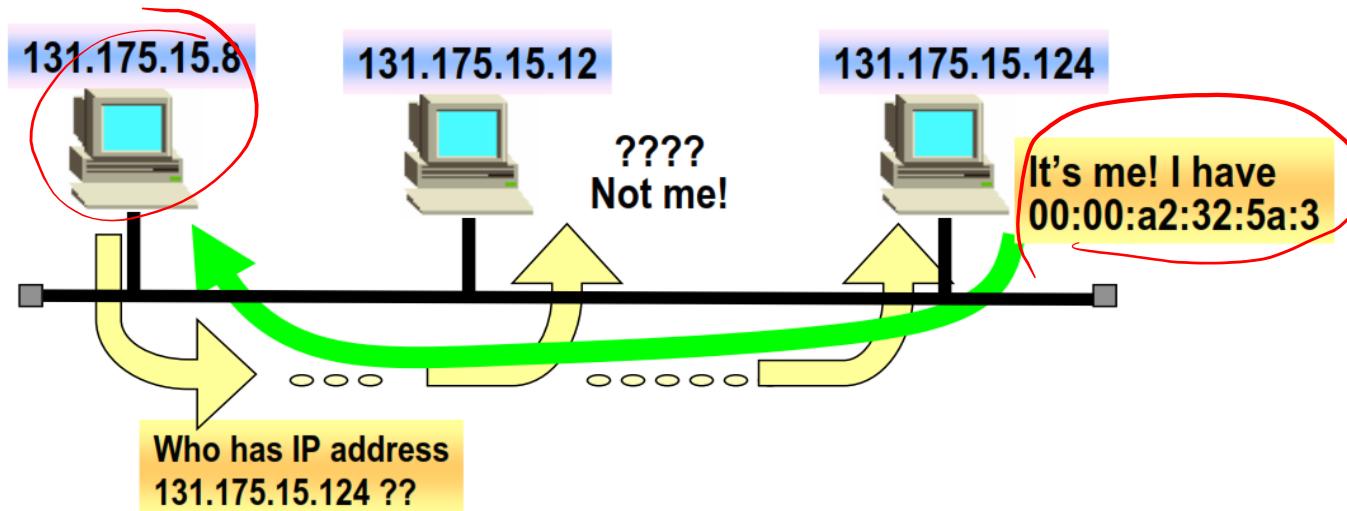
- A wants to send datagram to B
 - B's MAC address not in A's ARP table.
- A **broadcasts** ARP query packet, containing B's IP address
 - dest MAC address = FF-FF-FF-FF-FF-FF
 - all nodes on LAN receive ARP query
- B receives ARP packet, replies to A with its (B's) MAC address
 - frame sent to A's MAC address (unicast)
- A caches (saves) IP-to-MAC address pair in its ARP table until information becomes old (times out)
 - soft state: information that times out (goes away) unless refreshed
- ARP is “plug-and-play”:
 - nodes create their ARP tables *without intervention from net administrator*

Example of ARP table

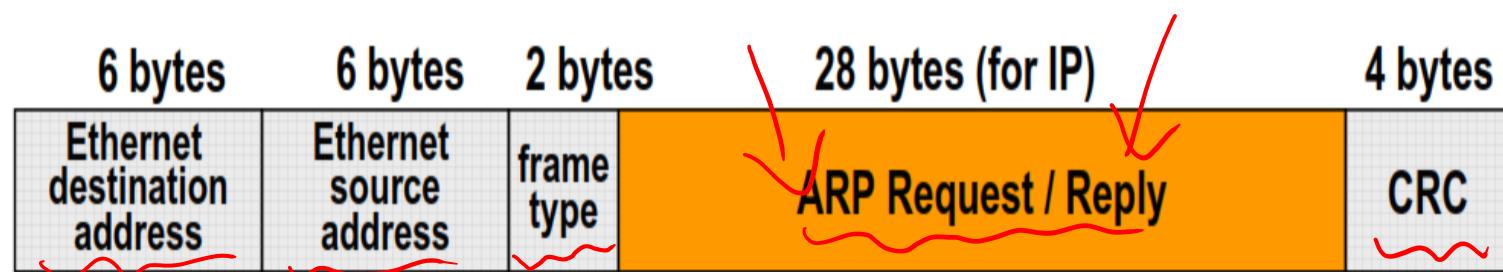
IP address	MAC Address	TTL
137.196.7.78	1A-2F-BB-76-09-AD ?	13:45:00
137.196.7.14	58-23-D7-FA-20-B0)	13:52:00

ARP Idea

ARP provides a dynamic mapping from an IP address to the corresponding hardware address.



ARP packet encapsulation in an Ethernet Frame



ARP request/reply

Encapsulation in Ethernet Frame



→ Ethernet Destination Address

⇒ ff:ff:ff:ff:ff:ff (broadcast) for ARP request

→ Ethernet Source Address

⇒ of ARP requester

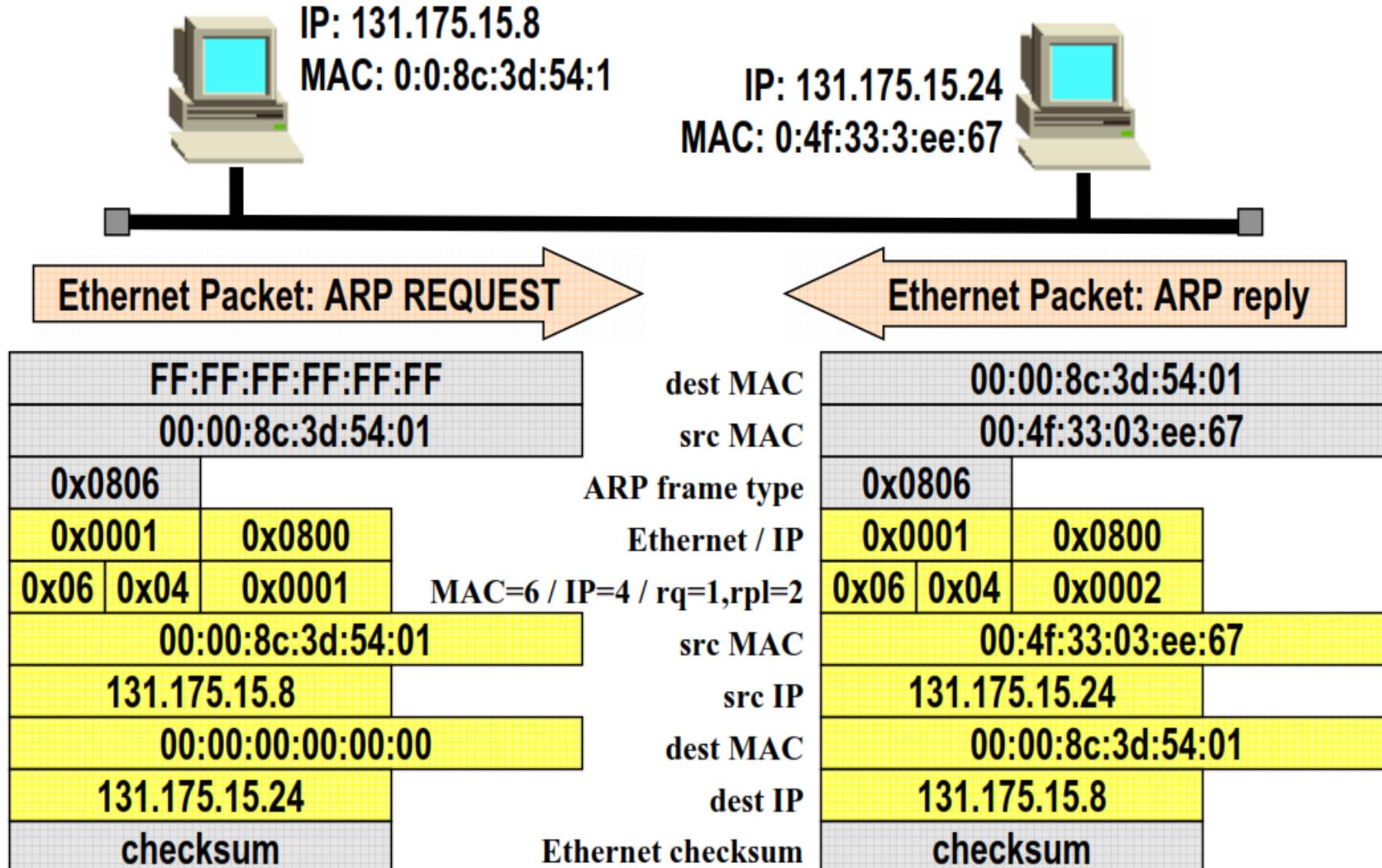
→ Frame Type

⇒ ARP request/reply: 0x0806

⇒ RARP request/reply: 0x8035

⇒ IP datagram: 0x0800

Protocol
demultiplexing
codes!



ARP request is BROADCAST
ARP Response is UNICAST

Wireshark trace for ARP packet

2	0.000340	PirelliB_64:2e:94	Netgear_bd:1e:9a	ARP	192.168.1.1 is at 00:22:33:64:2e:94
3	3.220136	PirelliB_64:2e:94	Broadcast	ARP	Who has 192.168.1.2? Tell 192.168.1.1
4	3.220178	Netgear_bd:1e:9a	PirelliB_64:2e:94	ARP	192.168.1.2 is at 00:1e:2a:bd:1e:9a
5	3.220891	PirelliB_64:2e:94	Broadcast	ARP	Who has 192.168.1.2? Tell 192.168.1.1
6	3.220905	Netgear_bd:1e:9a	PirelliB_64:2e:94	ARP	192.168.1.2 is at 00:1e:2a:bd:1e:9a
7	3.221681	PirelliB_64:2e:94	Broadcast	ARP	Who has 192.168.1.2? Tell 192.168.1.1
8	3.221695	Netgear_bd:1e:9a	PirelliB_64:2e:94	ARP	192.168.1.2 is at 00:1e:2a:bd:1e:9a

Frame 3 (60 bytes on wire, 60 bytes captured)

Ethernet II, Src: PirelliB_64:2e:94 (00:22:33:64:2e:94), Dst: Broadcast (ff:ff:ff:ff:ff:ff)

Destination: Broadcast (ff:ff:ff:ff:ff:ff)

Source: PirelliB_64:2e:94 (00:22:33:64:2e:94)

Type: ARP (0x0806)

Trailer: 00000000000000000000000000000000

Address Resolution Protocol (request)

Hardware type: Ethernet (0x0001) Hardware size: length of MAC-48bit mac -- rep by 6(bytes)

Protocol type: IP (0x0800) protocol - IPv4 - 32bit 4byte

Hardware size: 6

Protocol size: 4

Opcode - request - 1 reply - 2

Opcode: request (0x0001)

Sender MAC address: PirelliB_64:2e:94 (00:22:33:64:2e:94)

Sender IP address: 192.168.1.1 (192.168.1.1)

Target MAC address: 00:00:00_00:00:00 (00:00:00:00:00:00)

Target IP address: 192.168.1.2 (192.168.1.2)

Data Link Layer

Revision

- ARP stands for
 - Address resolution protocol
 - Automatic resolution protocol
 - Automatic request protocol
- ARP is used for
 - Mapping IP – MAC
- ARP works
 - Within a subnet
 - Outside a subnet also
 - Both of them

Week 13-Lec 2

Ethernet

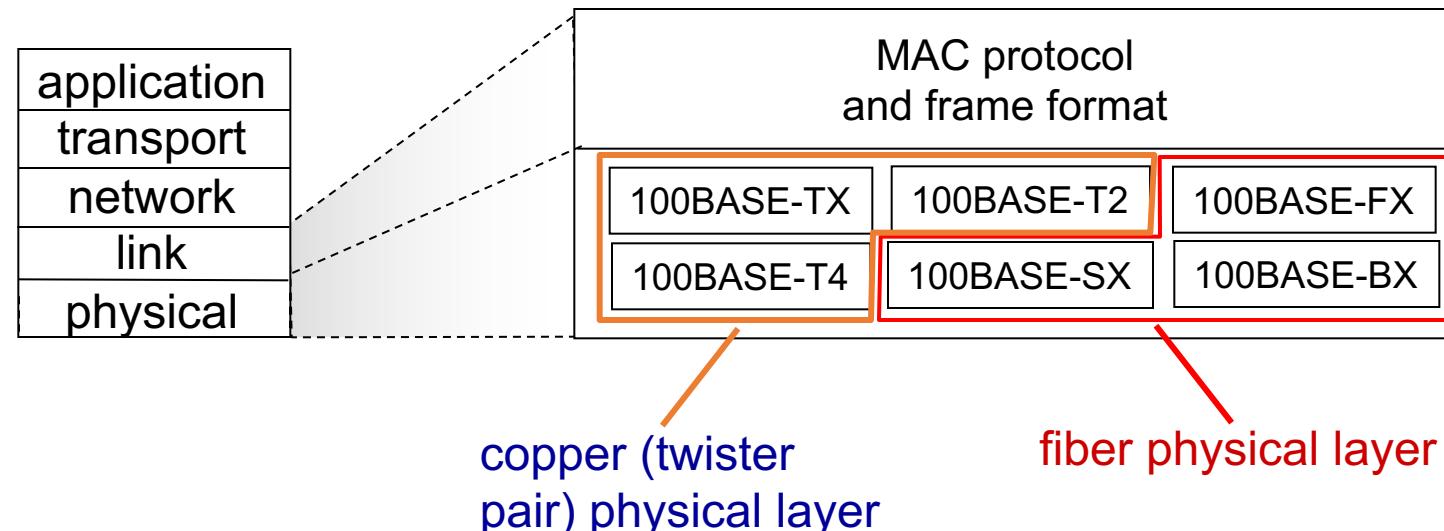
Ethernet

“dominant” wired LAN technology:

- first widely used LAN technology
- kept up with speed race: 10 Mbps – 10 Gbps
- Invented by Metcalfe

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, 1 Gbps, 10 Gbps, 40 Gbps
 - different physical layer media: fiber, cable



Ethernet frame structure

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

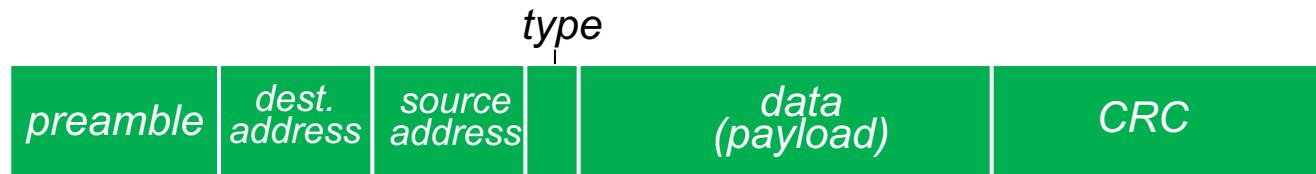


preamble:

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

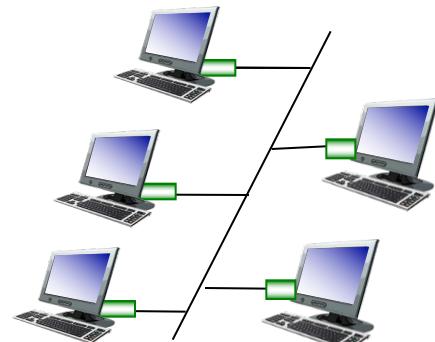
Ethernet frame structure (more)

- **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)
- **CRC:** cyclic redundancy check at receiver
 - error detected: frame is dropped

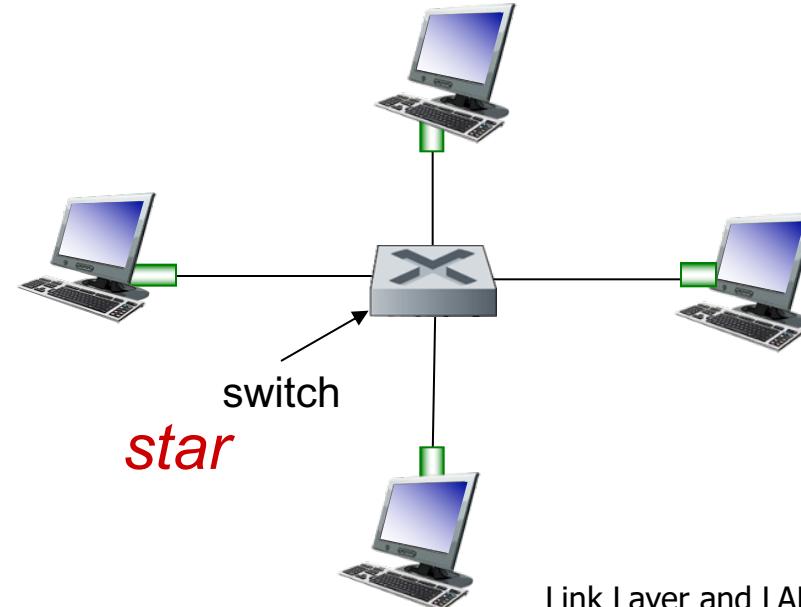


Classic Ethernet: physical topology

- **bus:** popular through mid 90s
 - all nodes in same collision domain (can collide with each other)
- **star:** prevails today
 - active **switch** in center
 - each “spoke” runs a (separate) Ethernet protocol (nodes do not collide with each other)



bus: coaxial cable

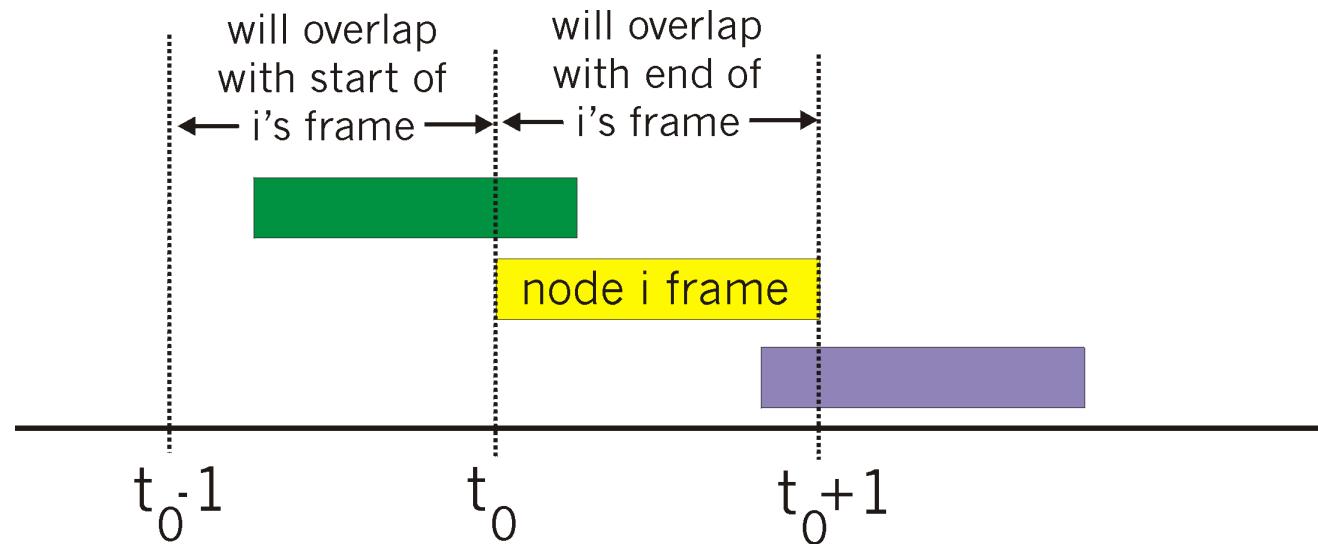


Random access protocols

- 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,

Pure (unslotted) ALOHA

- unslotted Aloha: simpler, no synchronization
- when frame first arrives
 - transmit immediately
- collision probability increases:
 - frame sent at t_0 collides with other frames sent in $[t_0-1, t_0+1]$



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 prob. p until success

Pure ALOHA efficiency

$P(\text{success by given node}) = P(\text{node transmits}) \cdot$

$P(\text{no other node transmits in } [t_0 - l, t_0]) \cdot$

$P(\text{no other node transmits during } [t_0, t_0 + l])$

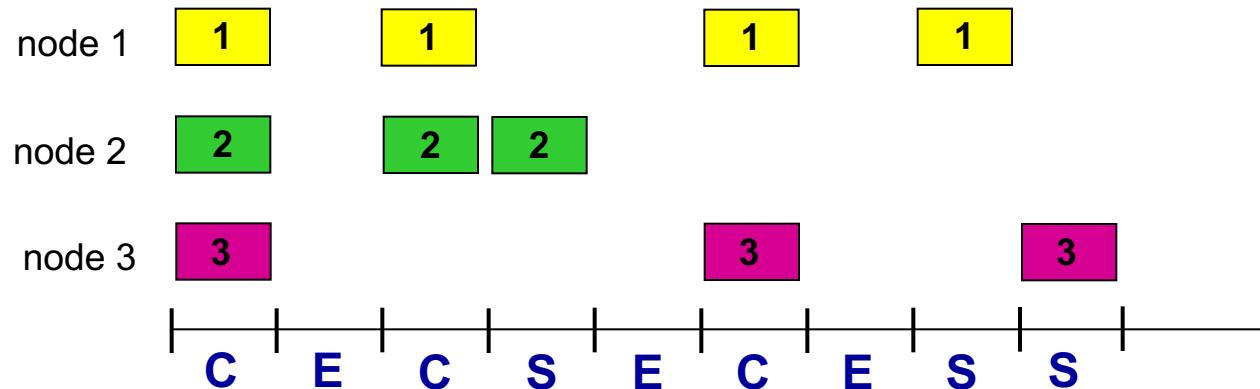
$$= p \cdot (1-p)^{N-l} \cdot (1-p)^{N-l}$$

$$= p \cdot (1-p)^{2(N-l)} \rightarrow \infty$$

... choosing optimum p and then letting n

$$= l/(2e) = .18$$

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:

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

at best: channel used for useful transmissions 37% of time!

!

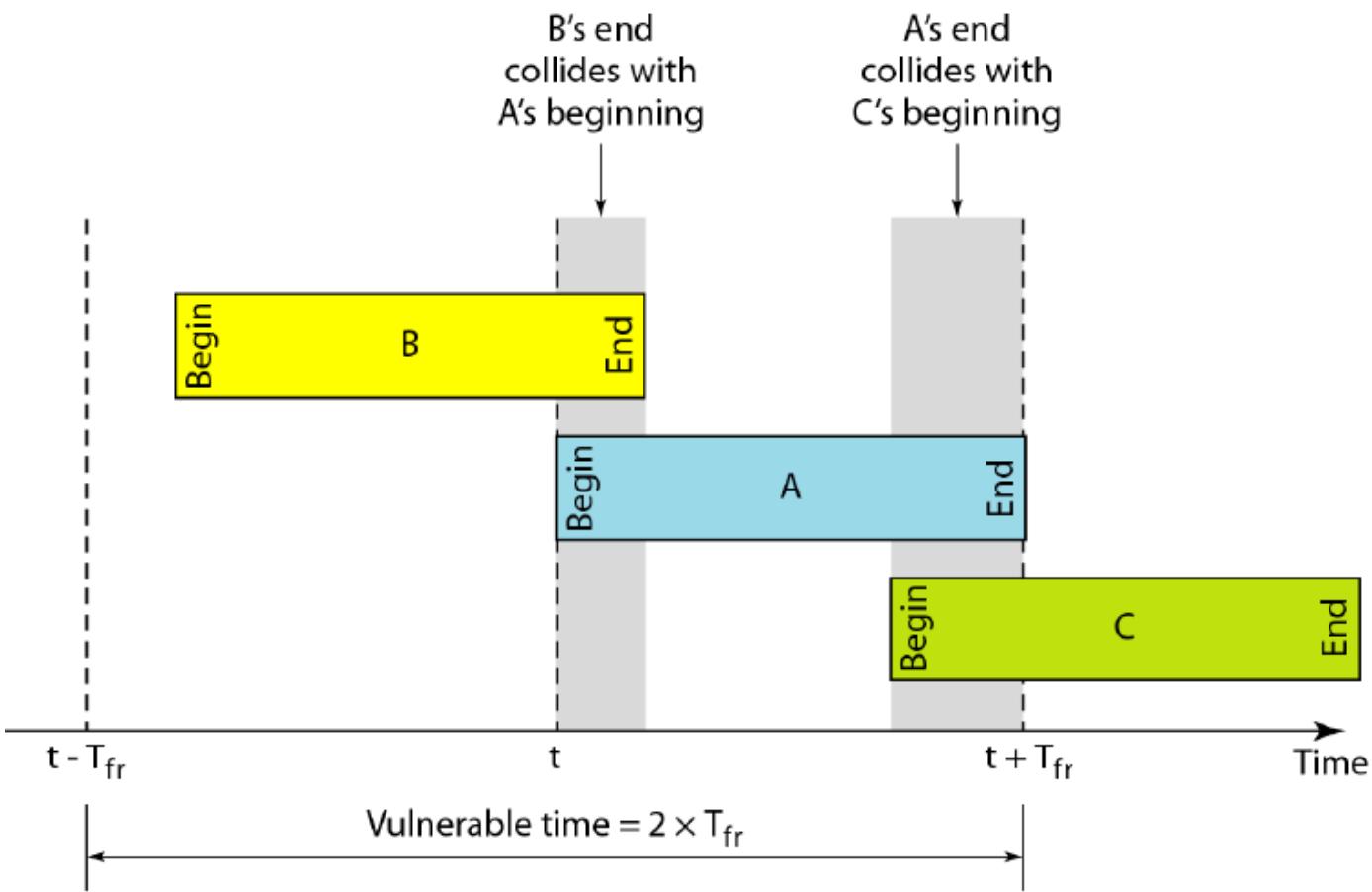
CSMA (carrier sense multiple access)

CSMA: listen before transmit:

if channel sensed idle: transmit entire frame

- if channel sensed busy, defer transmission

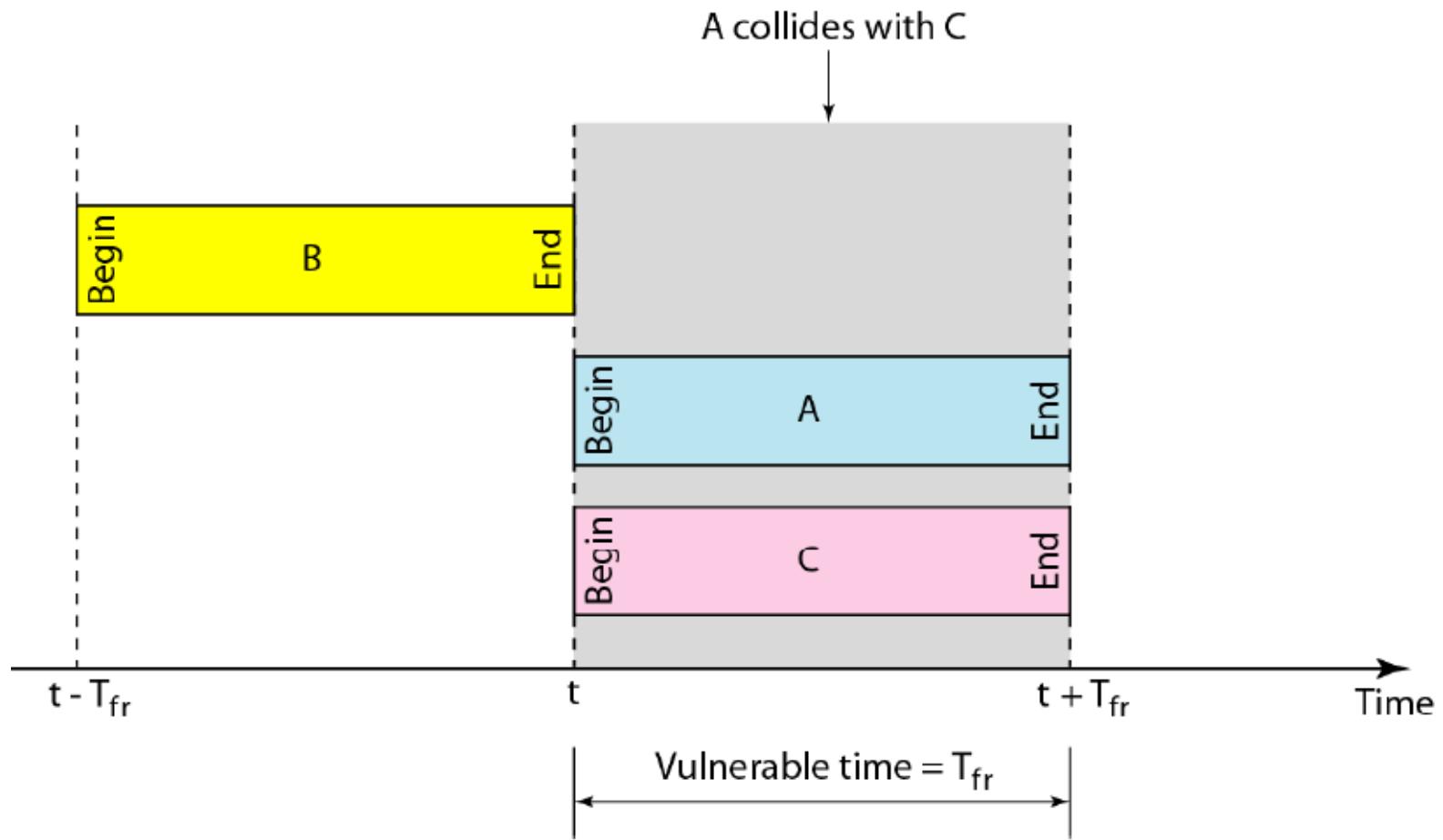
- human analogy: don't interrupt others!



- ❖ A pure ALOHA network transmits 200-bit frames on a shared channel of 200 kbps. What is the requirement to make this frame collision-free?
- ❖ Solution
- ❖ Average frame transmission time
 T_{fr} is $200 \text{ bits}/200 \text{ kbps} = 1 \text{ ms}$.

The vulnerable time is $2 \times 1 \text{ ms} = 2 \text{ ms}$. This means

- ❖ no station should send later than 1 ms before this station starts transmission
- ❖ no station should start sending during the one 1ms period that this station is sending.



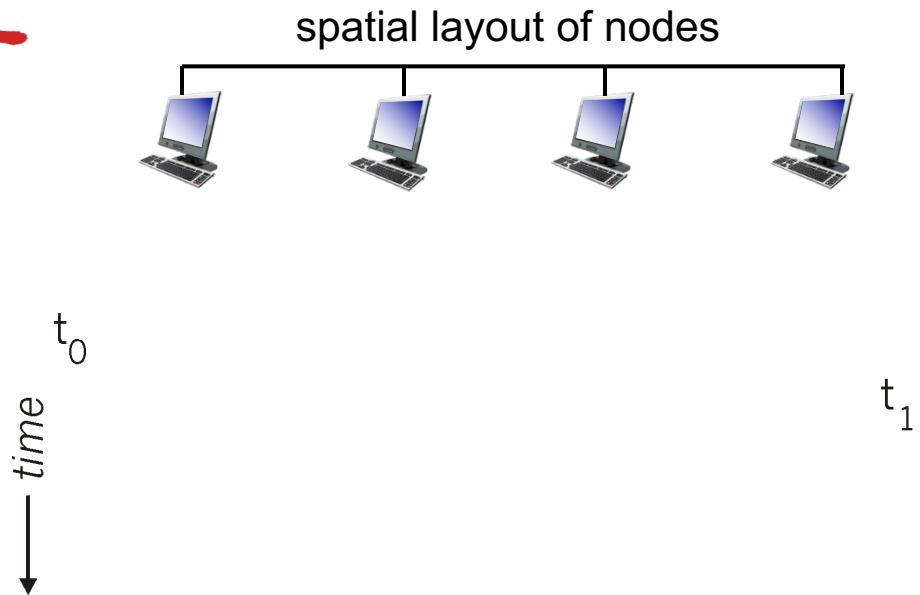
CSMA (carrier sense multiple access)

CSMA: listen before transmit:

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

CSMA collisions

- ❖ **collisions can still occur:** propagation delay means two nodes may not hear each other's transmission
- ❖ **collision:** entire packet transmission time wasted



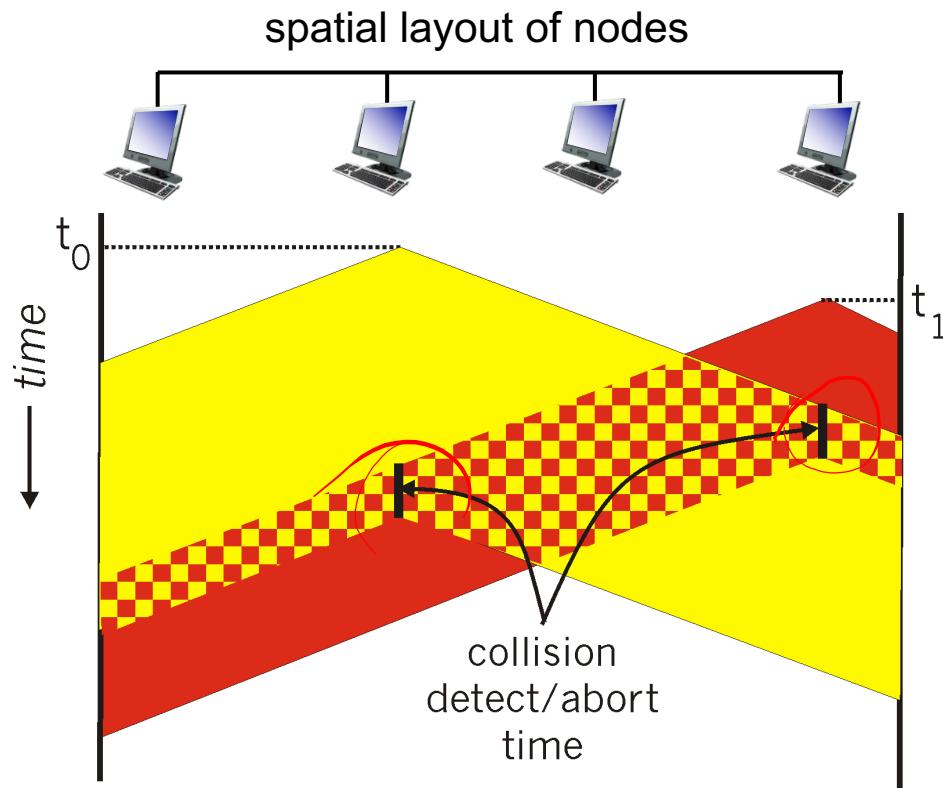
- Collision chance Depends on the number of frames/ bandwidth-delay product
- If #frames in channel less, the chance of a collision happening is small.
- The larger the bandwidth-delay product, more collisions, performance of protocol worse

CSMA/CD (collision detection)

CSMA/CD: carrier sensing,

- collisions detected within short time
 - colliding transmissions aborted, reducing channel wastage
- ❖ collision detection:
- easy in wired LANs: measure signal strengths, compare transmitted, received signals

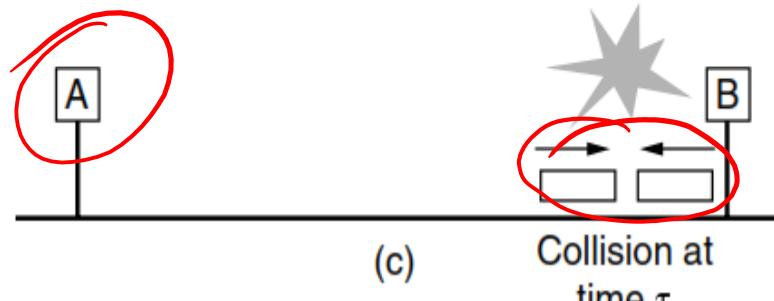
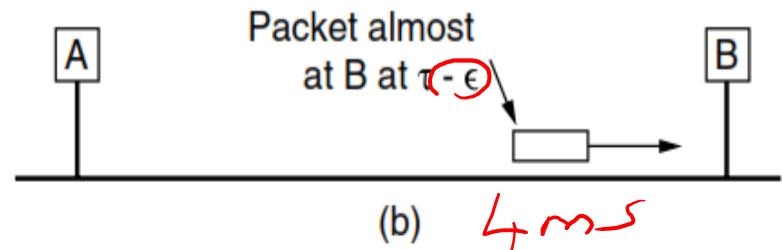
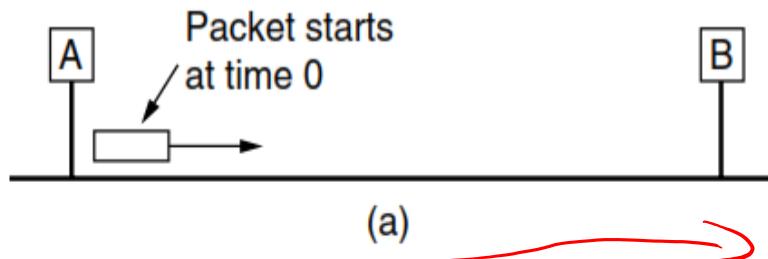
CSMA/CD (collision detection)



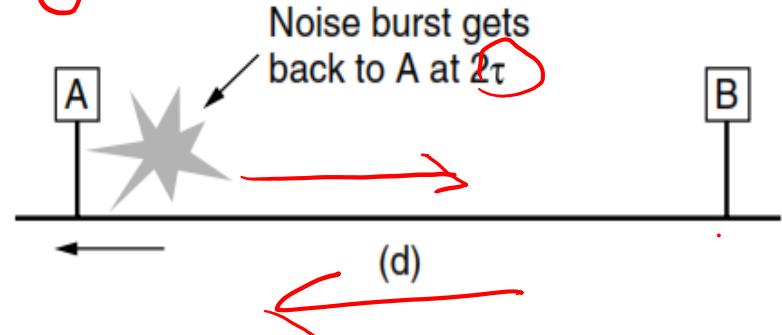
Time for collision detection

$$t = 0$$

$$\tau = 5 \text{ ms}$$



48 jamming



Successful transmission if Tx done for atleast 2τ time units

How is wait/back off time chosen?

Need an interval that is short when the number of colliding nodes is small,

Long when the number of colliding nodes is large.

How is wait/back off time chosen?

- ❖ Suppose that a node attempts to transmit a frame for the first time
- ❖ Detects a collision. i.e., num of collision is 1. so $2^0 = 1$. therefore possible values of K ={0,1}
 - The node then chooses K=0 or K=1 with probability 0.5.
 - If K=0, then it immediately begins sensing the channel.
 - If the node chooses K 1, it waits K. 512 bit times i.e., $(1)* 512$ (e.g., 0.01 microseconds for a 100 Mbps Ethernet) before beginning the sense-and-transmit-when-idle cycle.
- ❖ Similarly, after a second collision, K is chosen with 2^2 equal probability from {0,1,2,3}.
 - After three collisions, K is chosen with equal probability 2^3 from {0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7}.
 - After 10 or more collisions, K is chosen with equal probability from {0,1,2, ..., 1023}.
 - Thus, the size of the sets from which K is chosen grows exponentially with the number of collisions;
 - Hence Binary exponential backoff

Ethernet CSMA/CD algorithm

1. NIC receives datagram from network layer, creates frame
2. If channel idle → starts Tx
If channel busy → Wait
3. If NIC transmits entire frame without detecting another transmission, NIC is done with frame !
4. If NIC detects another transmission while transmitting, aborts and sends jam signal
5. After aborting, NIC needs to wait for a random time
enters *binary (exponential) backoff*:
 - after n collisions, NIC chooses K at random from $\{0, 1, 2, \dots, 2^n - 1\}$.
 - NIC waits $K \cdot 512$ bit times, returns to Step 2
 - longer backoff interval with more collisions

Why 512 bits?

- ❖ 10Mbps Classic Ethernet
- ❖ Min frame size cannot be zero. THINK!
- ❖ Worst case scenario, If distance long, i.e., 2500 m, 10 Mbps,
- ❖ Then 64 bytes (512 bits) of data to be sent
 - 64 bytes = 14 bytes (header) + 46 bytes(payload, could be all zeros) + 4 bytes(CRC)
- ❖ Wait time can also be calculated in terms of time (micro secs) = 512 bits on 10 Mbps = 51.2microsecs
- ❖ 0, 51.2, 102.4, or 153.6 μ s (k=0, 1, 2, 3)...and so on

Recall that with the CSMA/CD protocol, the adapter waits $K \cdot 512$ bit times after a collision, where K is drawn randomly. For $K=100$, how long does the adapter wait until returning to Step 2 for a 1Mbps Ethernet? For a 10 Mbps Ethernet?

Solution: For $k = 100$, the adapter waits for 51200 bit times.

For 1 Mbps, this wait is $51200 \text{ bits} / 10^6 \text{ bps} = 51.2 \text{ msec}$

For 10 Mbps, the adapter waits for 5.12m sec

Summary of MAC protocols

- ❖ *channel partitioning*, by time, frequency or code
 - Time Division, Frequency Division
- ❖ *random access* (dynamic),
 - 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 X
- ❖ *taking turns*
 - polling from central site, token passing
 - bluetooth, FDDI, token ring



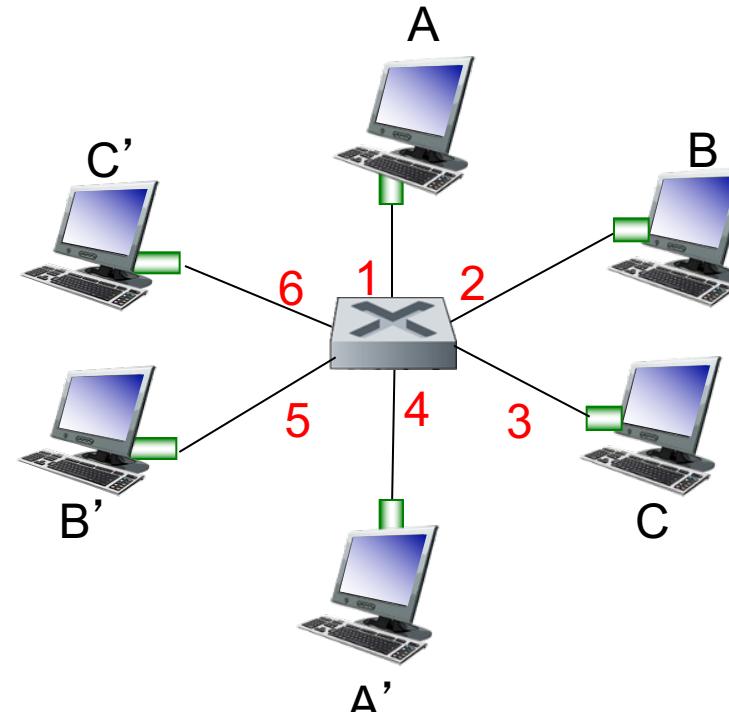
Week14-lec2

Ethernet switch

- 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 are 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, but no collisions; full duplex
 - each link is its own collision domain
- **switching:** A-to-A' and B-to-B' can transmit simultaneously, without collisions

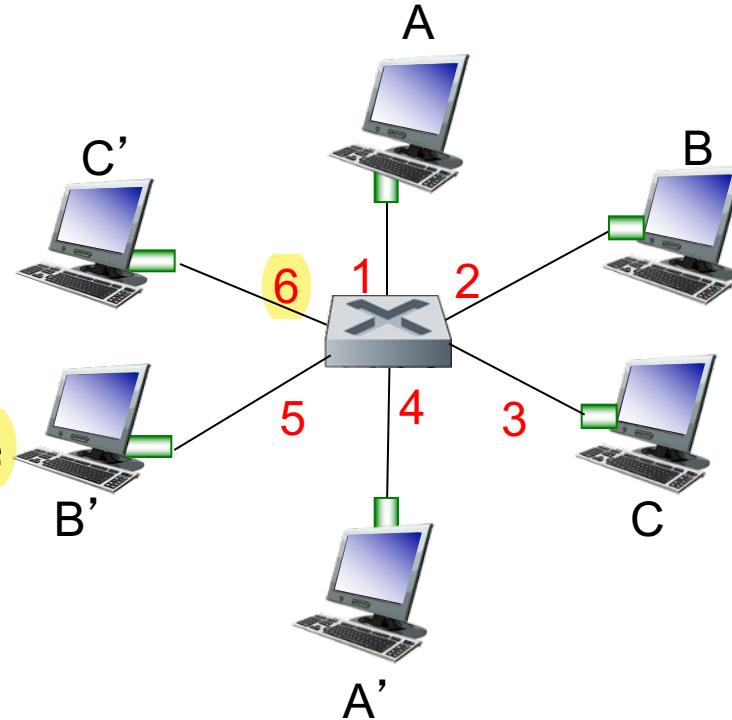


*switch with six interfaces
(1,2,3,4,5,6)*

Switch 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!



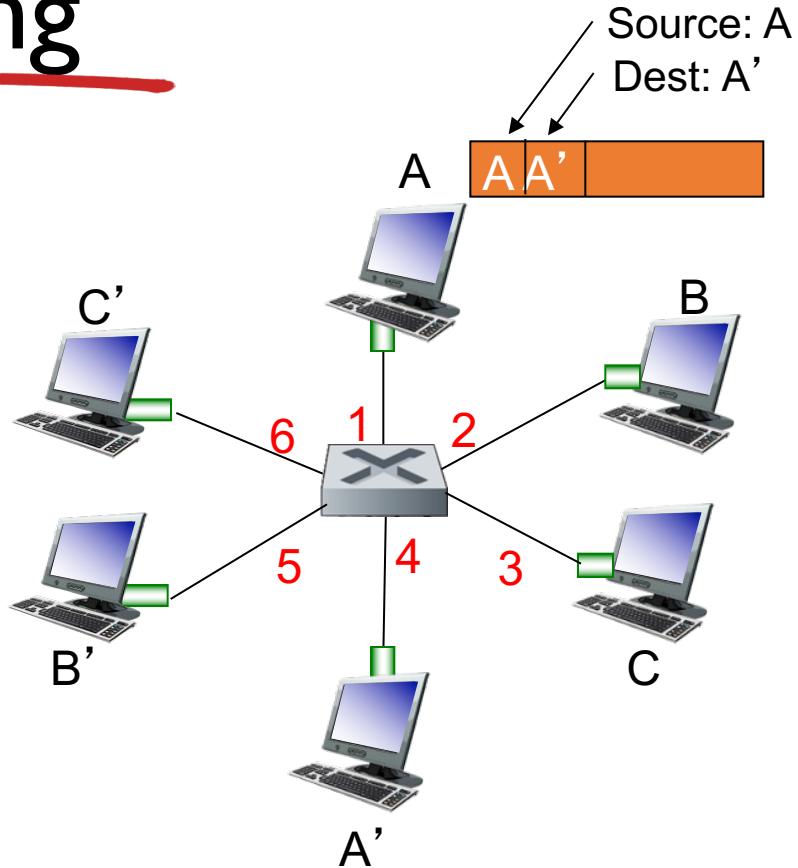
*switch with six interfaces
(1,2,3,4,5,6)*

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)*

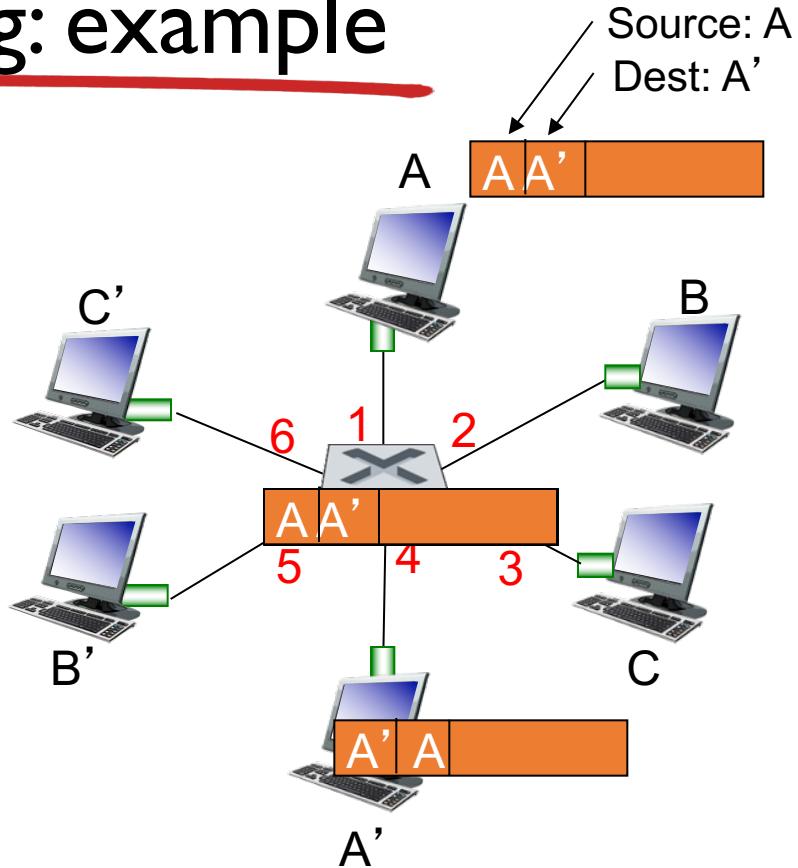
Switch: frame filtering/forwarding

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**

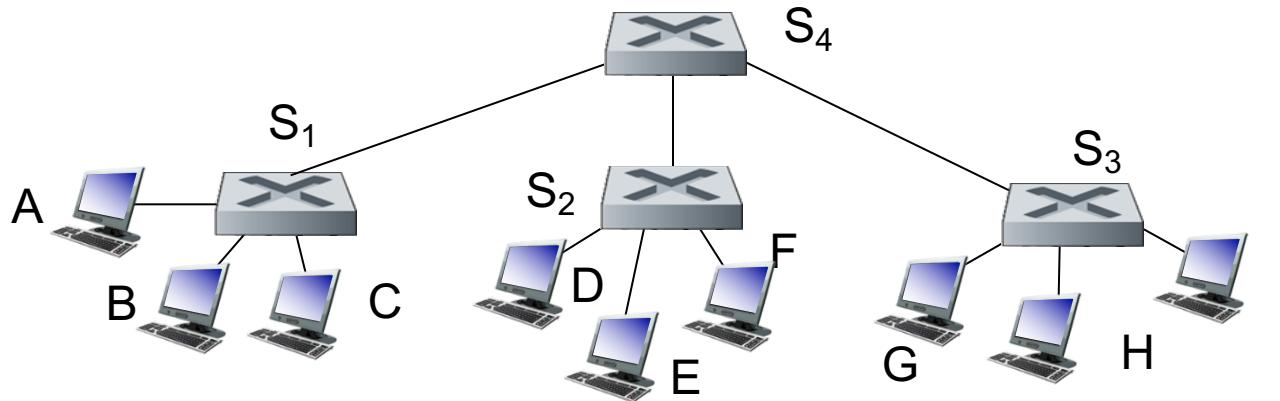


MAC addr	interface	TTL
A	1	60
A'	4	60

*switch table
(initially empty)*

Interconnecting switches

self-learning switches can be connected together:

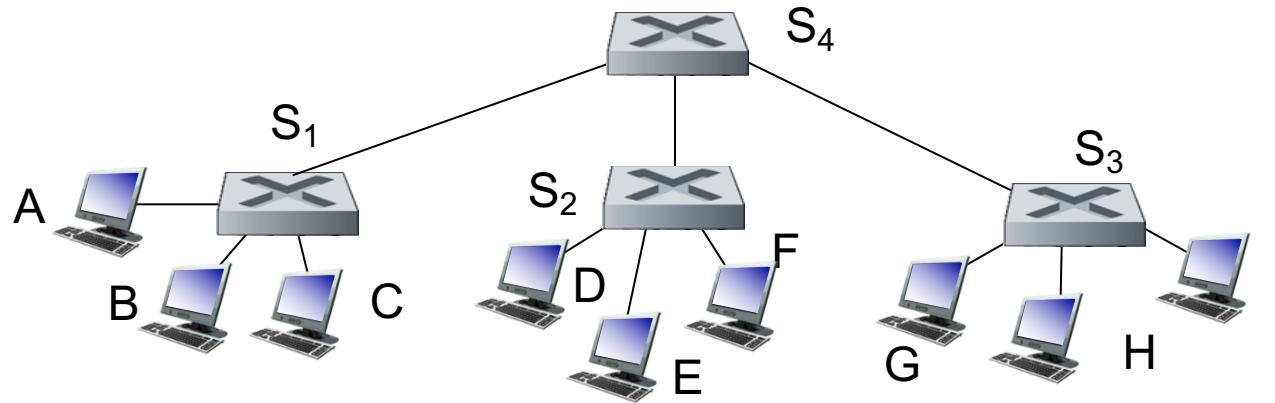


Q: sending from A to G - how does S₁ know to forward frame destined to G via S₄ and S₃?

- **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

Week 16-Lec 1

DNS and NAT

DNS: domain name system

people: many identifiers:

- SSN, name, passport #

Internet hosts, routers:

- IP address (32 bit) - used for addressing datagrams
- “name”, e.g., www.yahoo.com - used by humans

Q: how to map between IP address and name, and vice versa ?

Domain Name System:

- *distributed database* implemented in hierarchy of many *name servers*
- *application-layer protocol:* hosts, name servers communicate to *resolve names* (address/name translation)
 - note: core Internet function, implemented as application-layer protocol
 - complexity at network’s “edge”

DNS: services, structure

DNS services

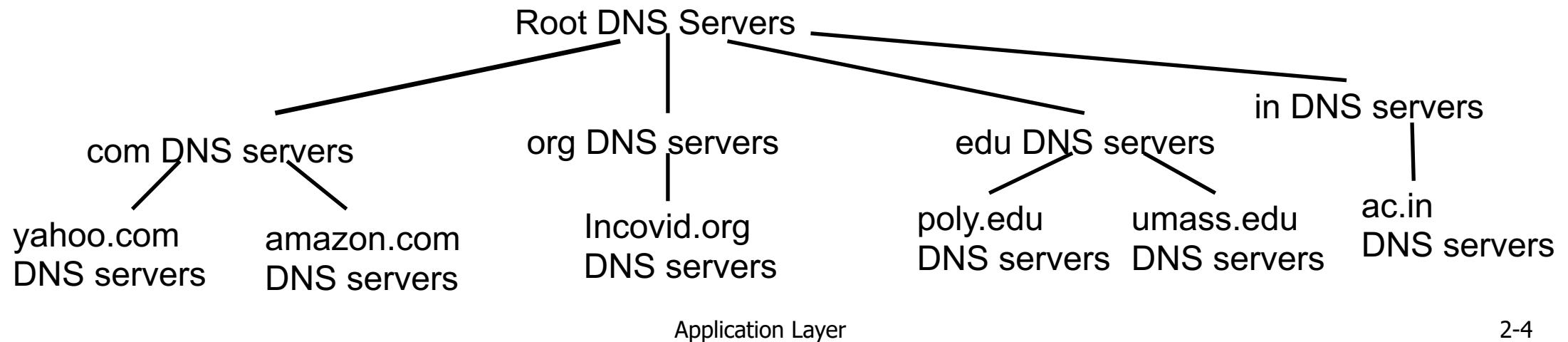
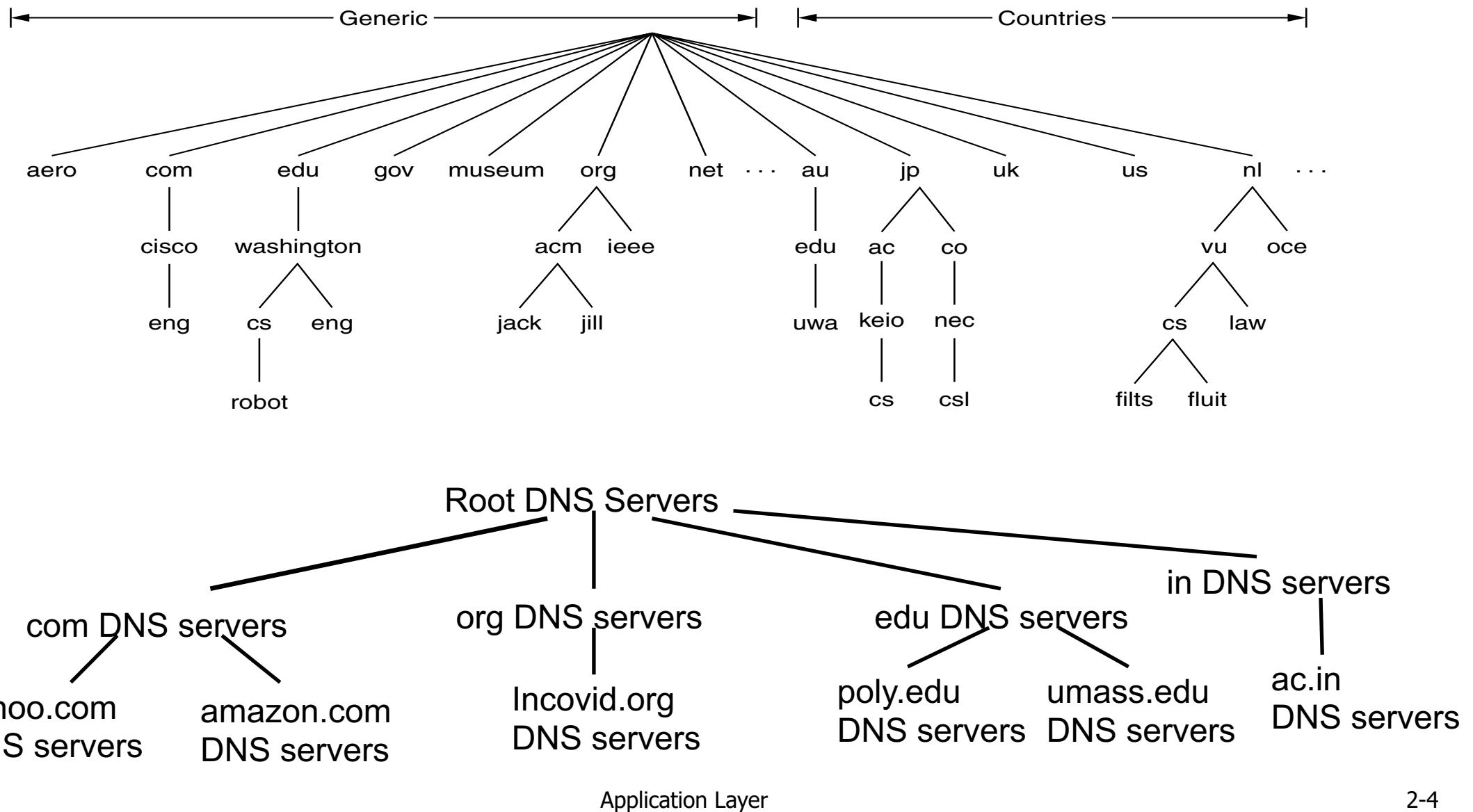
- hostname to IP address translation
- host aliasing
 - canonical, alias names
- mail server aliasing
- load distribution
 - replicated Web servers:
many IP addresses correspond to one name

why not centralize DNS?

- single point of failure
- traffic volume
- distant centralized database
- maintenance

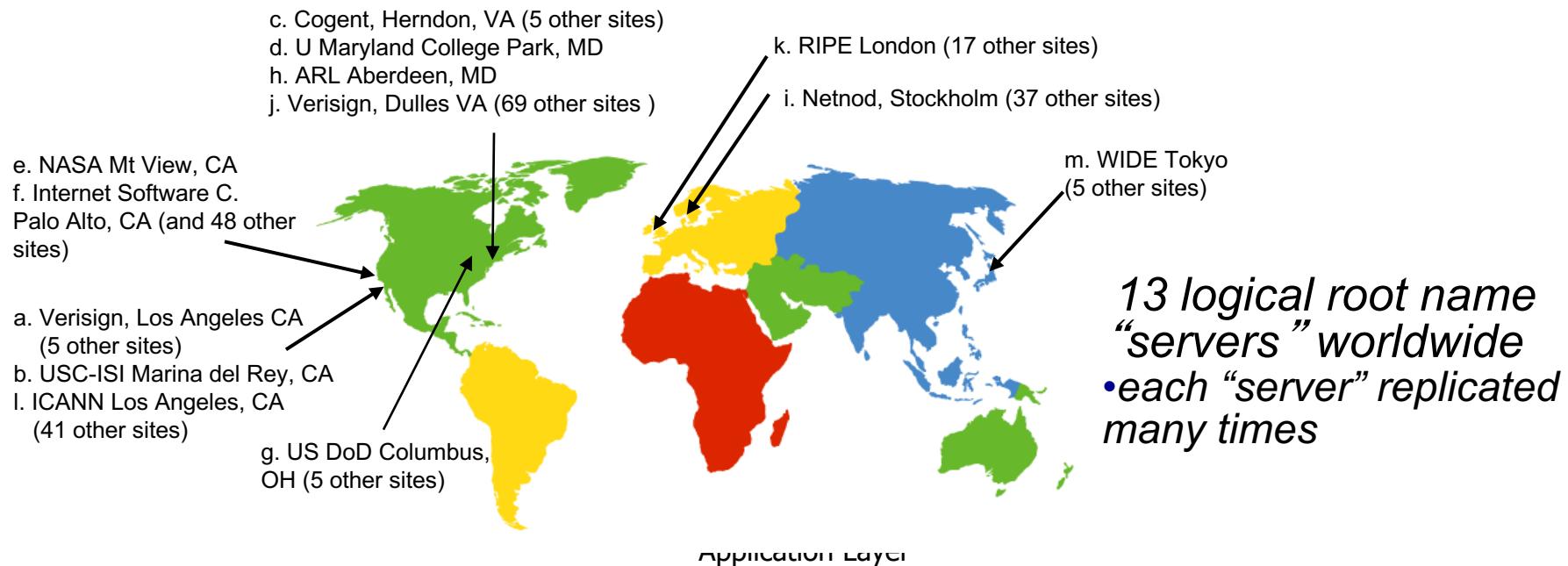
A: *doesn't scale!*

DNS: a distributed, hierarchical database



DNS: root name servers

- contacted by local name server that can not resolve name
- root name server:
 - contacts authoritative name server if name mapping not known
 - gets mapping
 - returns mapping to local name server



TLD, authoritative servers

top-level domain (TLD) servers:

- responsible for com, org, net, edu, aero, jobs, museums, and all top-level country domains, e.g.: uk, fr, ca, jp
- Network Solutions maintains servers for .com TLD
- Educause for .edu TLD

authoritative DNS servers:

- organization's own DNS server(s), providing authoritative hostname to IP mappings for organization's named hosts
- can be maintained by organization or service provider

Local DNS name server

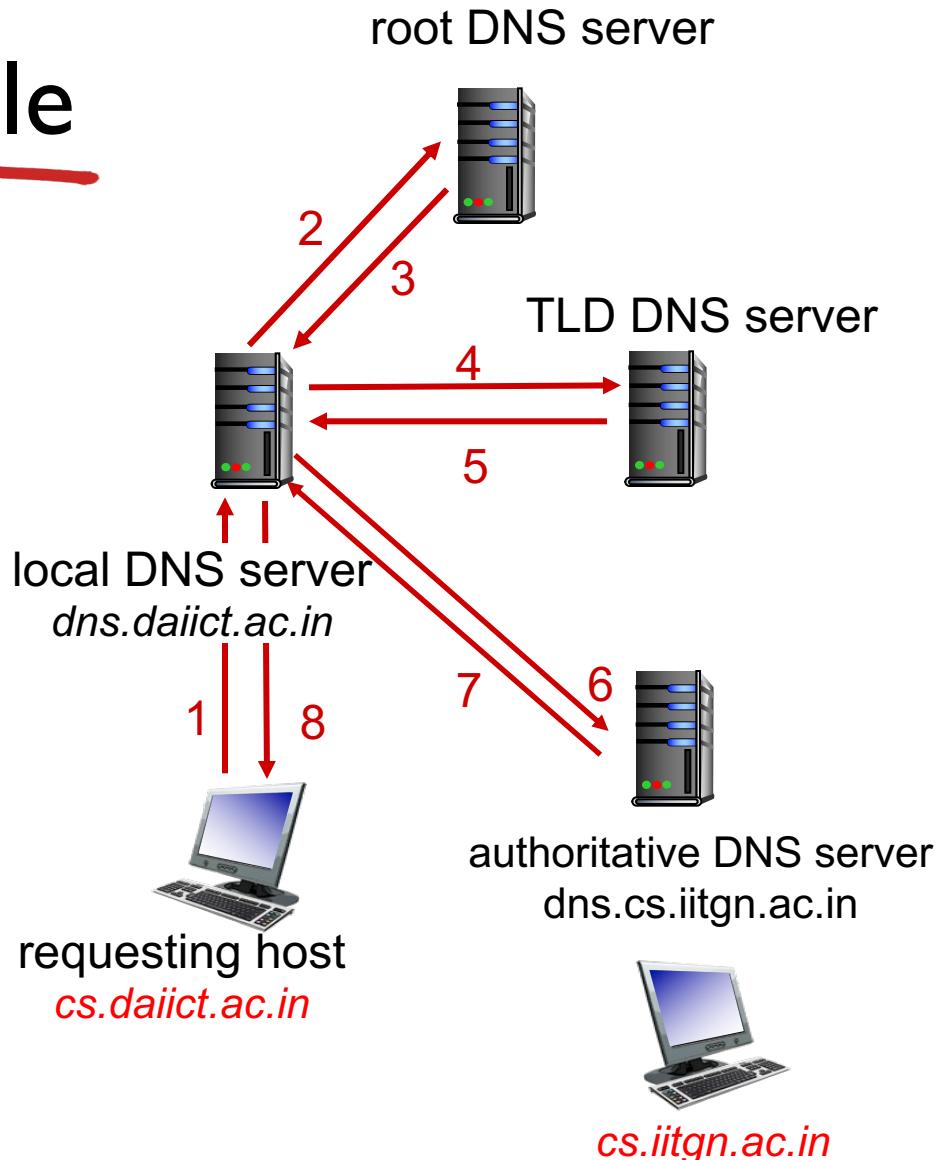
- does not strictly belong to hierarchy
- each ISP (residential ISP, company, university) has one
 - also called “default name server”
- when host makes DNS query, query is sent to its local DNS server
 - has local cache of recent name-to-address translation pairs (but may be out of date!)
 - acts as proxy, forwards query into hierarchy

DNS name resolution example

- host at *cs.daiict.ac.in* wants IP address for *cs.iitgn.ac.in*

iterated query:

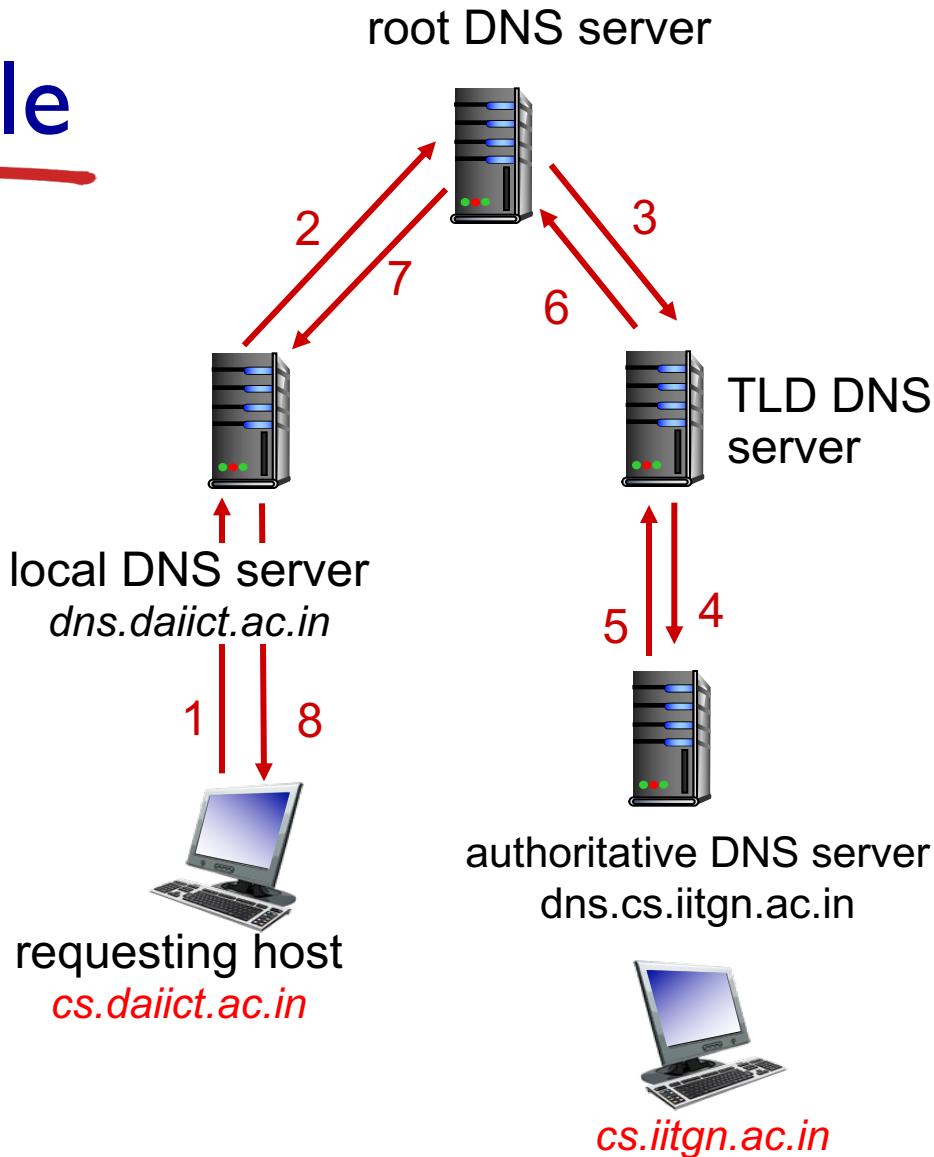
- contacted server replies with name of server to contact
- “I don’t know this name, but ask this server”



DNS name resolution example

recursive query:

- puts burden of name resolution on contacted name server
- heavy load at upper levels of hierarchy?



DNS: caching, updating records

- once (any) name server learns mapping, it *caches* mapping
 - cache entries timeout (disappear) after some time (TTL)
 - TLD servers typically cached in local name servers
 - thus root name servers not often visited
- cached entries may be *out-of-date* (best effort name-to-address translation!)
 - if name host changes IP address, may not be known Internet-wide until all TTLs expire
- update/notify mechanisms proposed IETF standard
 - RFC 2136

DNS records

DNS: distributed database storing resource records (**RR**)

RR format: `(name, value, type, ttl)`

type=A

- **name** is hostname
- **value** is IP address

type=NS

- **name** is domain (e.g.,
foo.com)
- **value** is hostname of
authoritative name
server for this domain

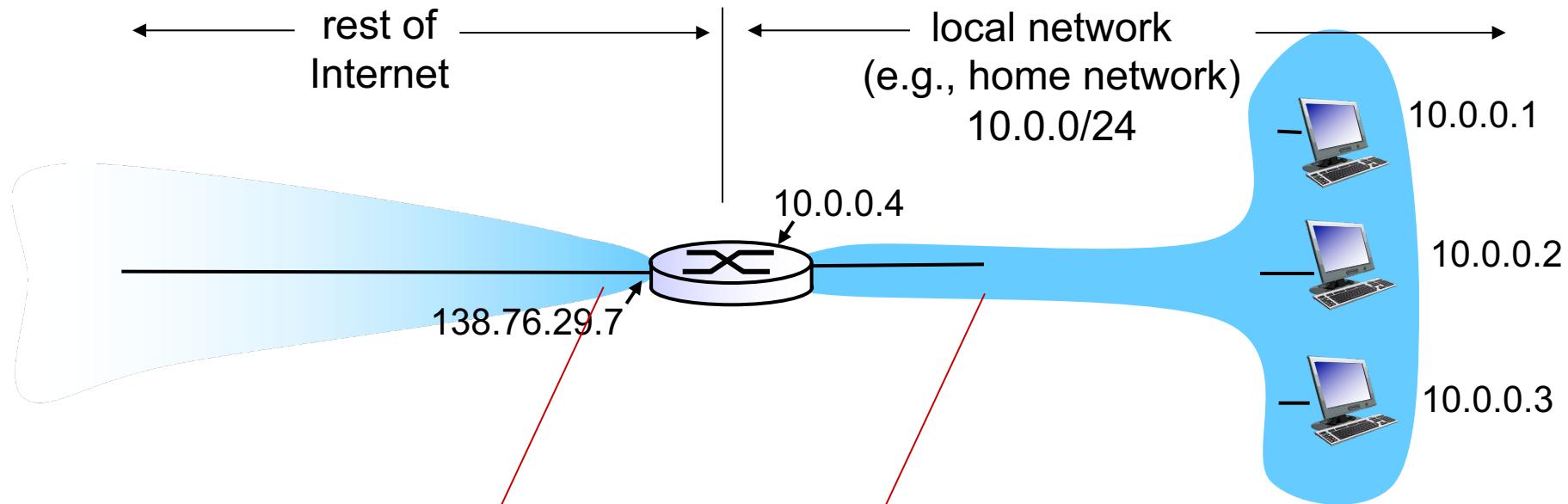
type=CNAME

- **name** is alias name for some
“canonical” (the real) name
- `www.ibm.com` is really
`servereast.backup2.ibm.com`
- **value** is canonical name

type=MX

- **value** is name of mailserver
associated with **name**

NAT: network address translation



all datagrams *leaving* local network have *same* single source NAT IP address:
138.76.29.7, different source port numbers

datagrams with source or destination in this network have 10.0.0/24 address for source, destination (as usual)

NAT: network address translation

motivation: local network uses just one IP address as far as outside world is concerned:

- range of addresses not needed from ISP: just one IP address for all devices
- can change addresses of devices in local network without notifying outside world
- can change ISP without changing addresses of devices in local network
- devices inside local net not explicitly addressable, visible by outside world (a security plus)

NAT: network address translation

implementation: NAT router must:

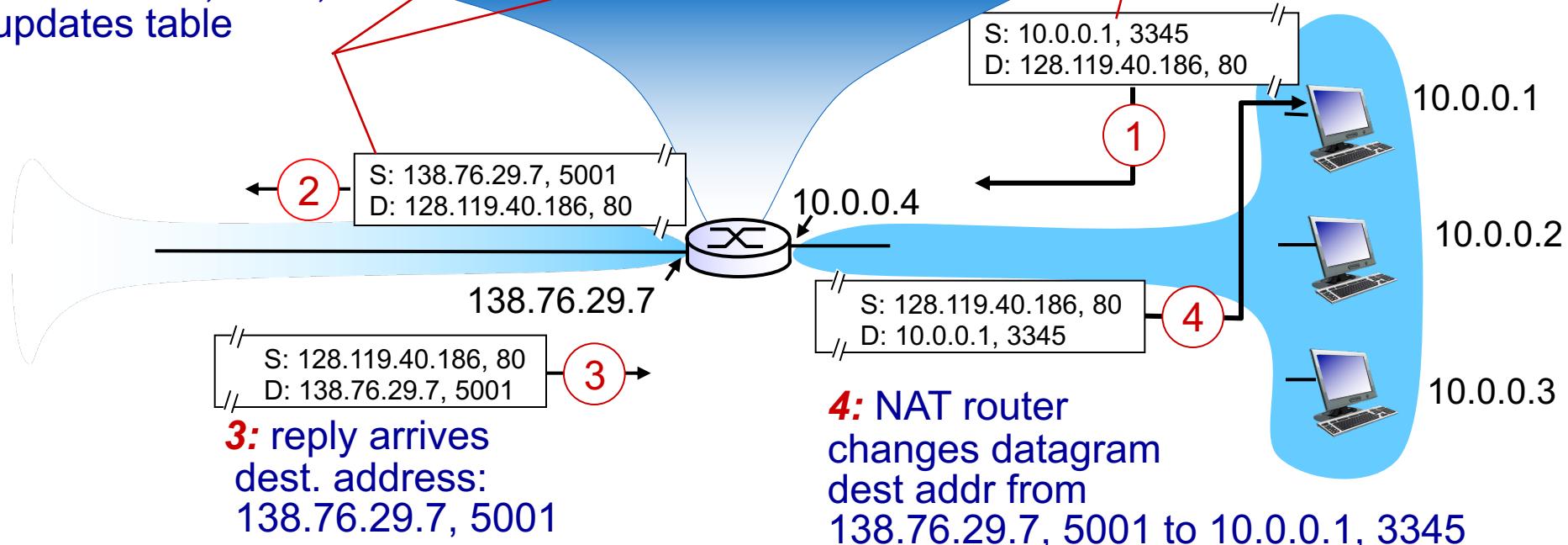
- *outgoing datagrams: replace* (source IP address, port #) of every outgoing datagram to (NAT IP address, new port #)
... remote clients/servers will respond using (NAT IP address, new port #) as destination addr
- *remember (in NAT translation table)* every (source IP address, port #) to (NAT IP address, new port #) translation pair
- *incoming datagrams: replace* (NAT IP address, new port #) in dest fields of every incoming datagram with corresponding (source IP address, port #) stored in NAT table

NAT: network address translation

2: NAT router changes datagram source addr from 10.0.0.1, 3345 to 138.76.29.7, 5001, updates table

NAT translation table	
WAN side addr	LAN side addr
138.76.29.7, 5001	10.0.0.1, 3345
.....

1: host 10.0.0.1 sends datagram to 128.119.40.186, 80



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

NAT: network address translation

- 16-bit port-number field:
 - **60,000 simultaneous connections with a single LAN-side address!**
- NAT is controversial:
 - **routers should only process up to layer 3**
 - address shortage should be solved by IPv6
 - violates end-to-end argument
 - NAT possibility must be taken into account by app designers, e.g., P2P applications
 - **NAT traversal: what if client wants to connect to server behind NAT?**

Week 15-Lec 2

CDN, P2P

Video Streaming and CDNs: context

- video traffic: major consumer of Internet bandwidth
 - Netflix, YouTube: 37%, 16% of downstream residential ISP traffic
 - ~1B YouTube users, ~75M Netflix users
- challenge: scale - how to reach ~1B users?
 - single mega-video server won't work (why?)
- challenge: heterogeneity
 - different users have different capabilities (e.g., wired versus mobile; bandwidth rich versus bandwidth poor)
- **solution:** distributed, application-level infrastructure



Multimedia networking: 3 application types

- *streaming, stored* audio, video
 - *streaming*: can begin playout before downloading entire file
 - *stored (at server)*: can transmit faster than audio/video will be rendered (implies storing/buffering at client)
 - e.g., YouTube, Netflix, Hulu
- *conversational* voice/video over IP
 - interactive nature of human-to-human conversation limits delay tolerance
 - e.g., Skype
- *streaming live* audio, video
 - e.g., live sporting event

Multimedia: video

- video: sequence of images displayed at constant rate
 - e.g., 24 images/sec
- digital image: array of pixels
 - each pixel represented by bits
- coding: use redundancy *within* and *between* images to decrease # bits used to encode image
 - spatial (within image)
 - temporal (from one image to next)

	Bit rate	Bytes transferred in 67 min
Facebook Frank	160 kbps	80 Mbytes
Martha Music	128 kbps	64 Mbytes
Victor Video	2 Mbps	1 Gbyte

Multimedia: video

- **CBR: (constant bit rate):** video encoding rate fixed
- **VBR: (variable bit rate):** video encoding rate changes as amount of spatial, temporal coding changes
- **examples:**
 - MPEG I (CD-ROM) 1.5 Mbps
 - MPEG2 (DVD) 3-6 Mbps
 - MPEG4 (often used in Internet, < 1 Mbps)



frame *i*

spatial coding example: instead of sending N values of same color (all purple), send only two values: color value (purple) and number of repeated values (N)

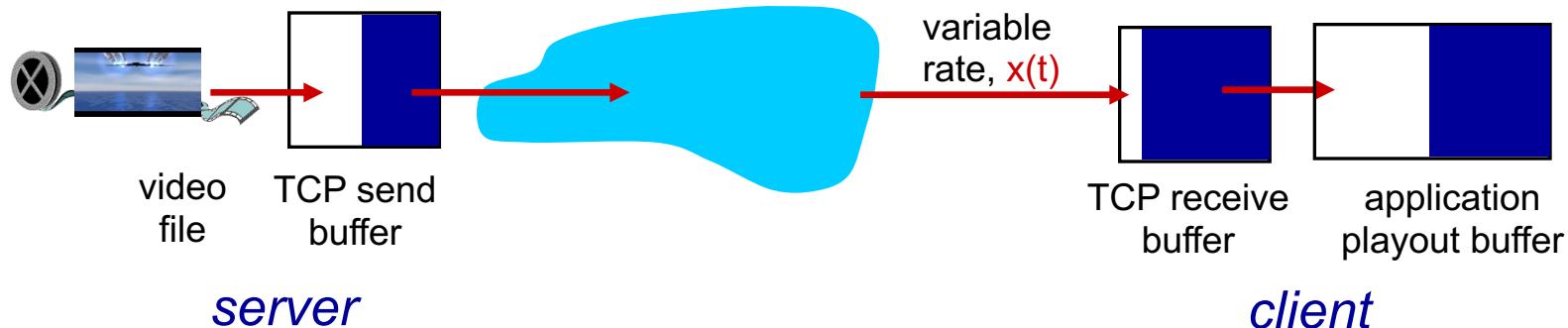


frame *i+1*

temporal coding example: instead of sending complete frame at $i+1$, send only differences from frame *i*

Streaming multimedia: HTTP

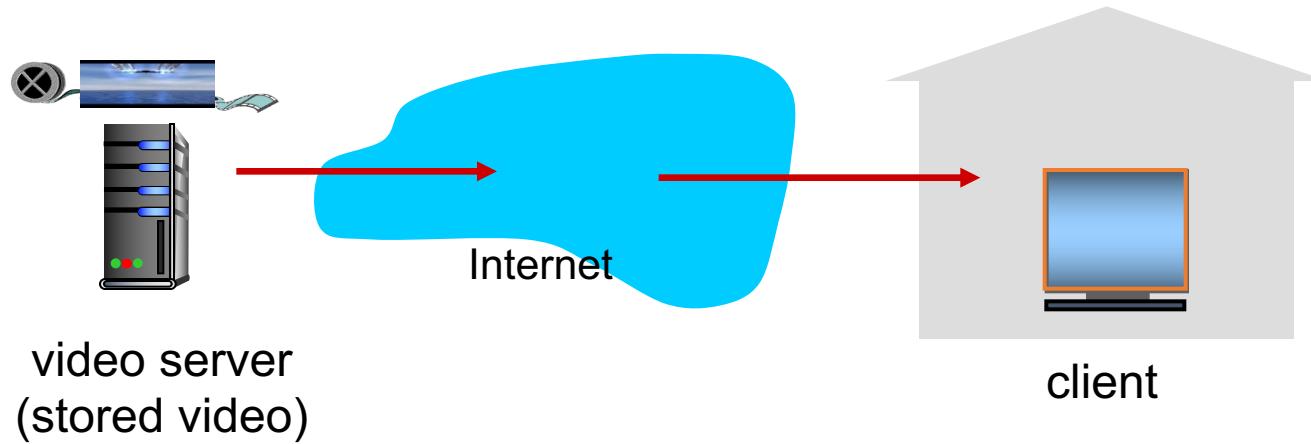
- multimedia file retrieved via HTTP GET
- send at maximum possible rate under TCP



- fill rate fluctuates due to TCP congestion control, retransmissions (in-order delivery)
- larger playout delay: smooth TCP delivery rate
- HTTP/TCP passes more easily through firewalls

Streaming stored video:

simple scenario:



Streaming multimedia: DASH

- *DASH: Dynamic, Adaptive Streaming over HTTP*
- *server:*
 - divides video file into multiple chunks
 - each chunk stored, encoded at different rates
 - *manifest file:* provides URLs for different chunks
- *client:*
 - periodically measures server-to-client bandwidth
 - consulting manifest, requests one chunk at a time

Content distribution networks

- *challenge:* how to stream content (selected from millions of videos) to hundreds of thousands of *simultaneous* users?
- *option 1:* single, large “mega-server”
 - single point of failure
 - point of network congestion
 - long path to distant clients
 - multiple copies of video sent over outgoing link

....quite simply: this solution *doesn't scale*

Content distribution networks

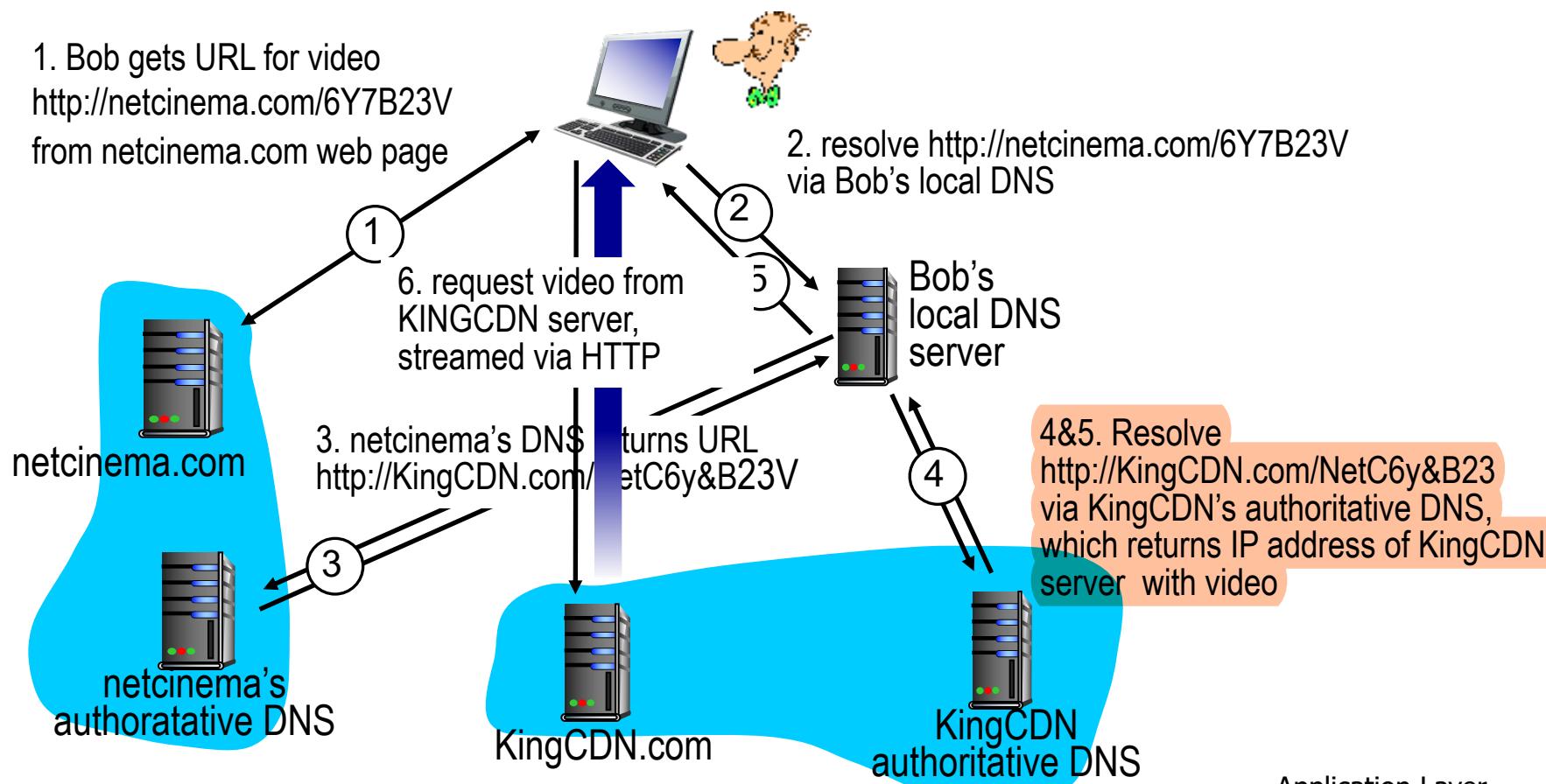
- *challenge*: how to stream content (selected from millions of videos) to hundreds of thousands of simultaneous users?
- *option 2*: store/serve multiple copies of videos at multiple geographically distributed sites (*CDN*)
 - *enter deep*: push CDN servers deep into many access networks
 - close to users
 - used by Akamai, 1700 locations

A content delivery network (CDN) is a group of geographically distributed servers that speed up the delivery of web content by bringing it closer to where users

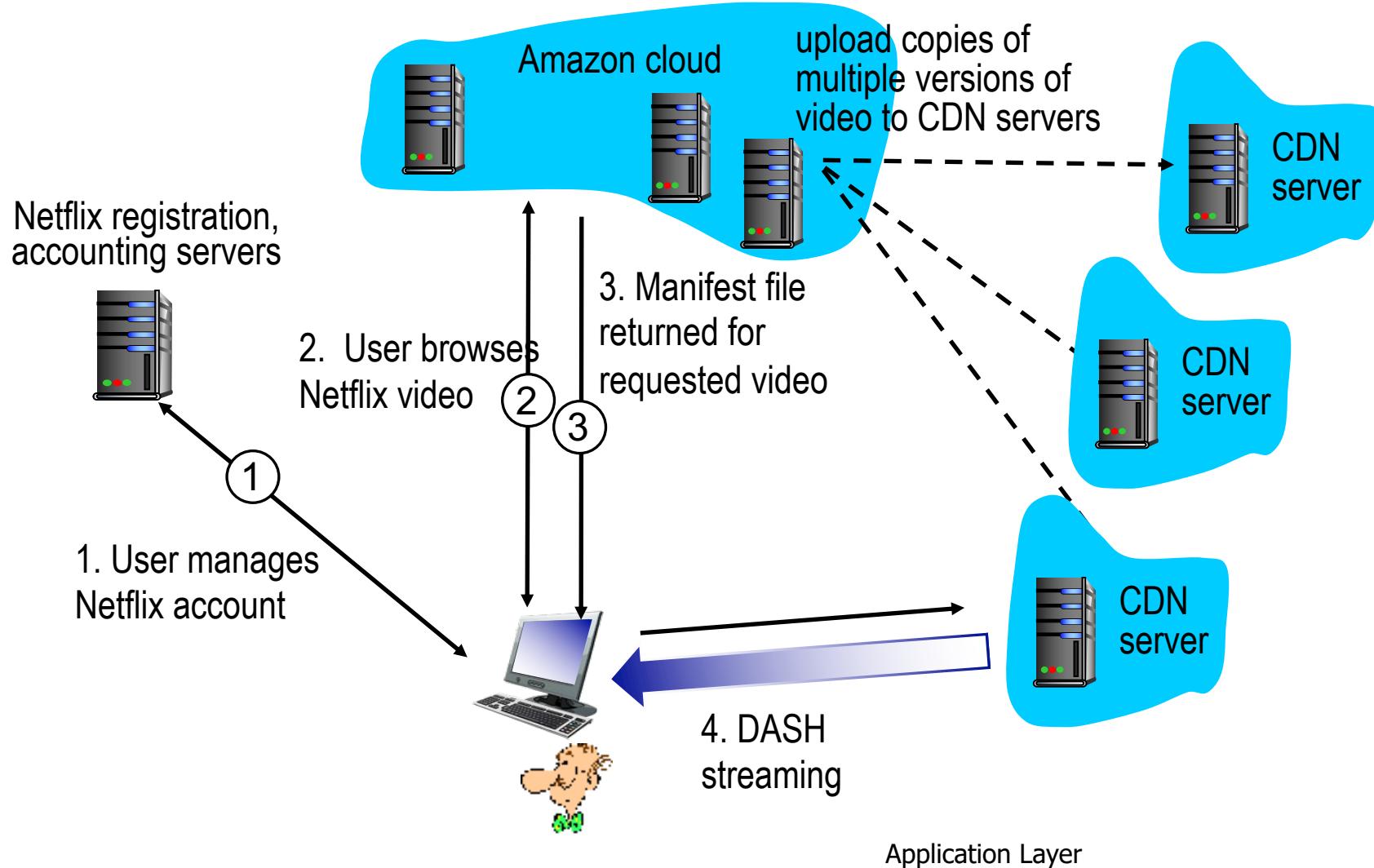
CDN content access: a closer look

Bob (client) requests video <http://netcinema.com/6Y7B23V>

- video stored in CDN at <http://KingCDN.com/NetC6y&B23V>



Case study: Netflix



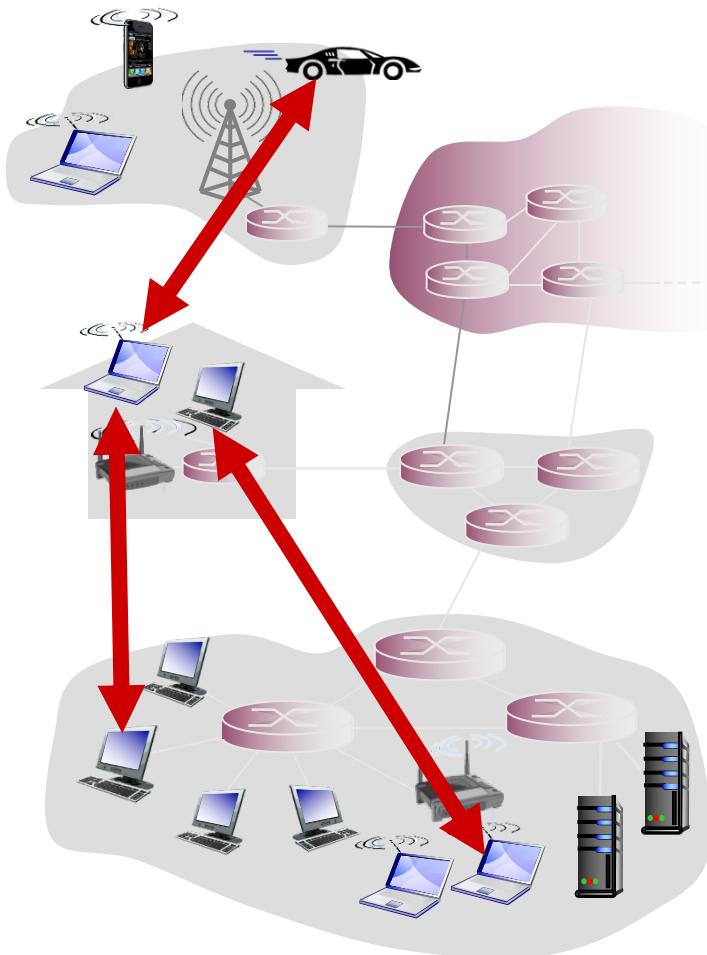
- Content Ingestion
- Content Processing
- Uploading versions to CDN

Pure P2P architecture

- *no always-on server*
- arbitrary end systems directly communicate
- peers are intermittently connected and change IP addresses

examples:

- file distribution (BitTorrent)
- Streaming (KanKan)
- VoIP (Skype)

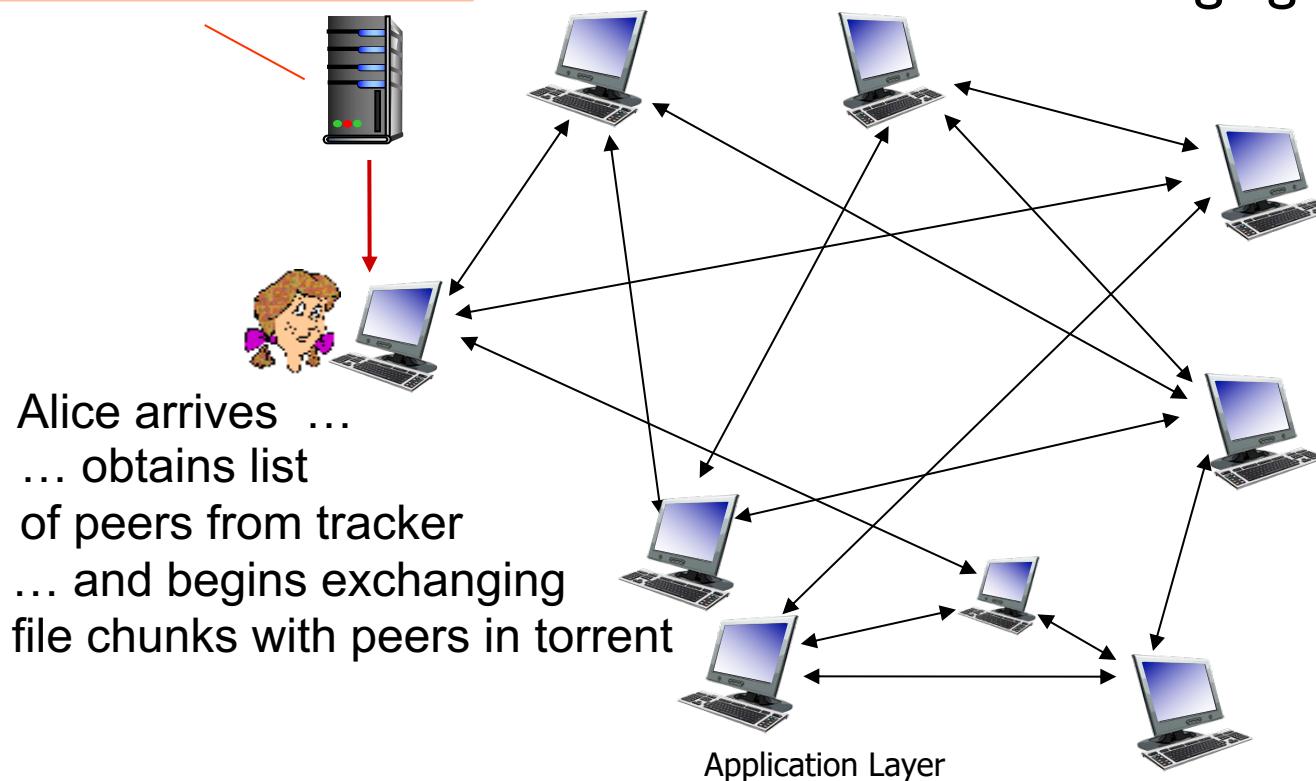


P2P file distribution: BitTorrent

- file divided into 256Kb chunks
- peers in torrent send/receive file chunks

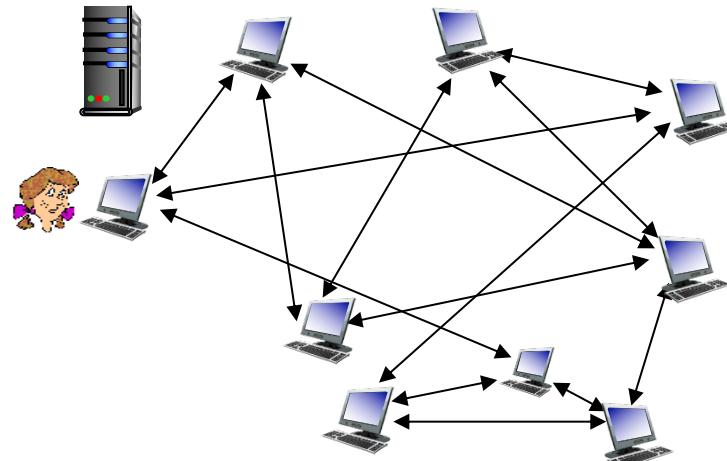
tracker: tracks peers
participating in torrent

torrent: group of peers
exchanging chunks of a file



P2P file distribution: BitTorrent

- peer joining torrent:
 - has no chunks, but will accumulate them over time from other peers
 - registers with tracker to get list of peers, connects to subset of peers (“neighbors”)
- while downloading, peer uploads chunks to other peers
- peer may change peers with whom it exchanges chunks
- *churn*: peers may come and go
- once peer has entire file, it may (selfishly) leave or (altruistically) remain in torrent



BitTorrent: requesting, sending file chunks

requesting chunks:

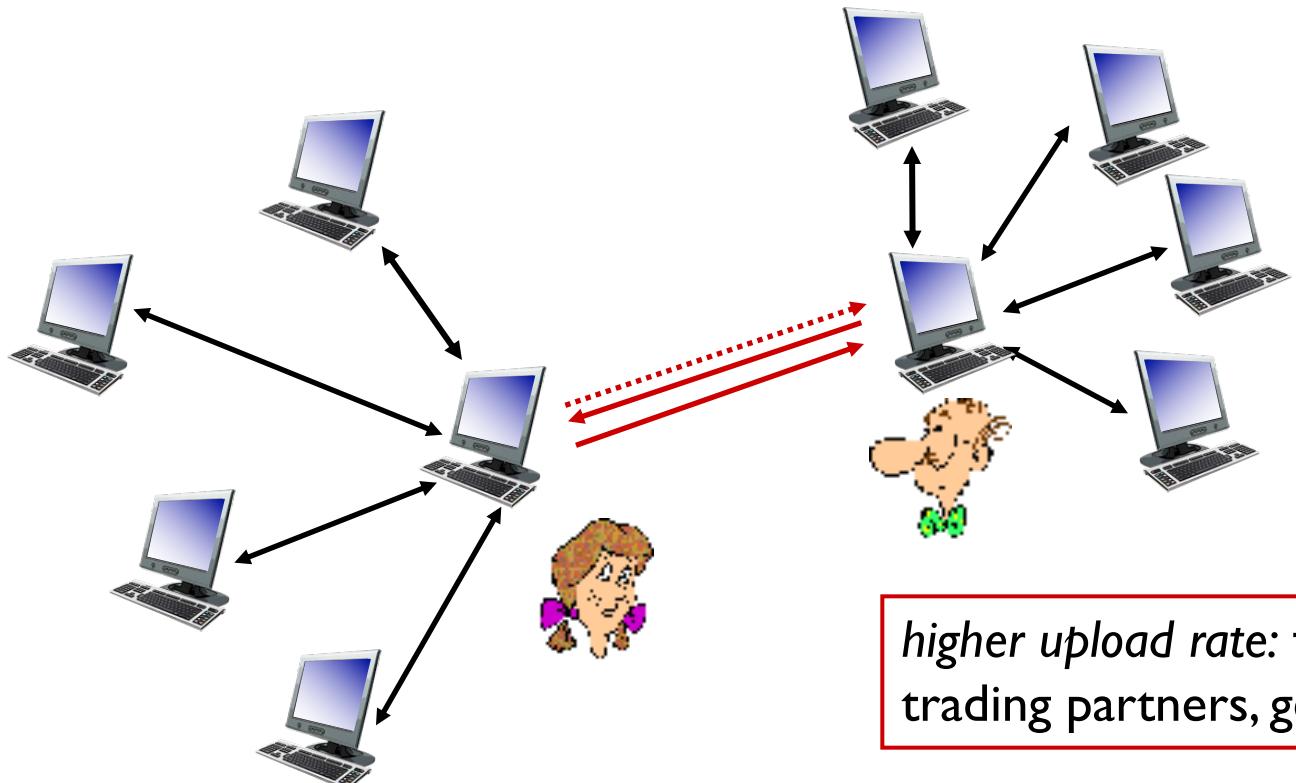
- at any given time, different peers have different subsets of file chunks
- periodically, Alice asks each peer for list of chunks that they have
- Alice requests missing chunks from peers, rarest first

sending chunks: *tit-for-tat*

- Alice sends chunks to those four peers currently sending her chunks *at highest rate*
 - other peers are choked by Alice (do not receive chunks from her)
 - re-evaluate top 4 every 10 secs
- every 30 secs: randomly select another peer, starts sending chunks
 - “optimistically unchoke” this peer
 - newly chosen peer may join top 4

BitTorrent: tit-for-tat

- (1) Alice “optimistically unchoke” Bob
- (2) Alice becomes one of Bob’s top-four providers; Bob reciprocates
- (3) Bob becomes one of Alice’s top-four providers

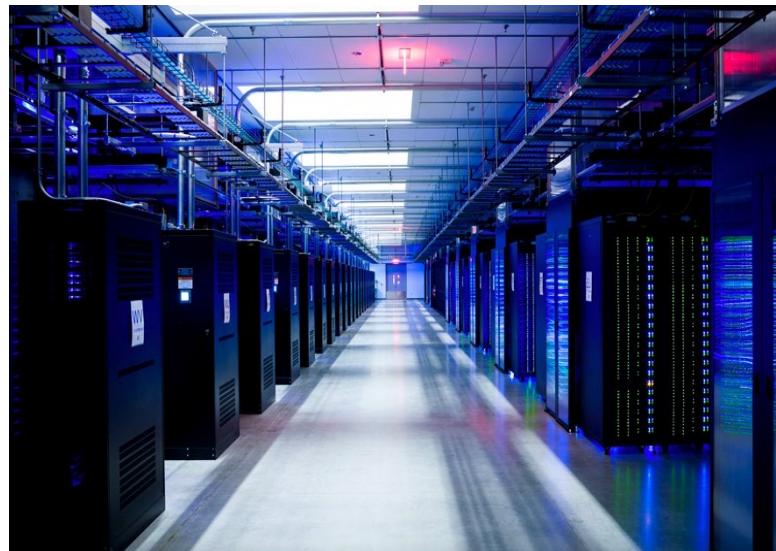


higher upload rate: find better trading partners, get file faster !

Data center networks

- 10's to 100's of thousands of hosts, often closely coupled, in close proximity:
 - e-business (e.g. Amazon)
 - content-servers (e.g., YouTube, Akamai, Apple, Microsoft)
 - search engines, data mining (e.g., Google)

- challenges:
 - multiple applications, each serving massive numbers of clients
 - managing/balancing load, avoiding processing, networking, data bottlenecks



Inside Facebook's datacenter



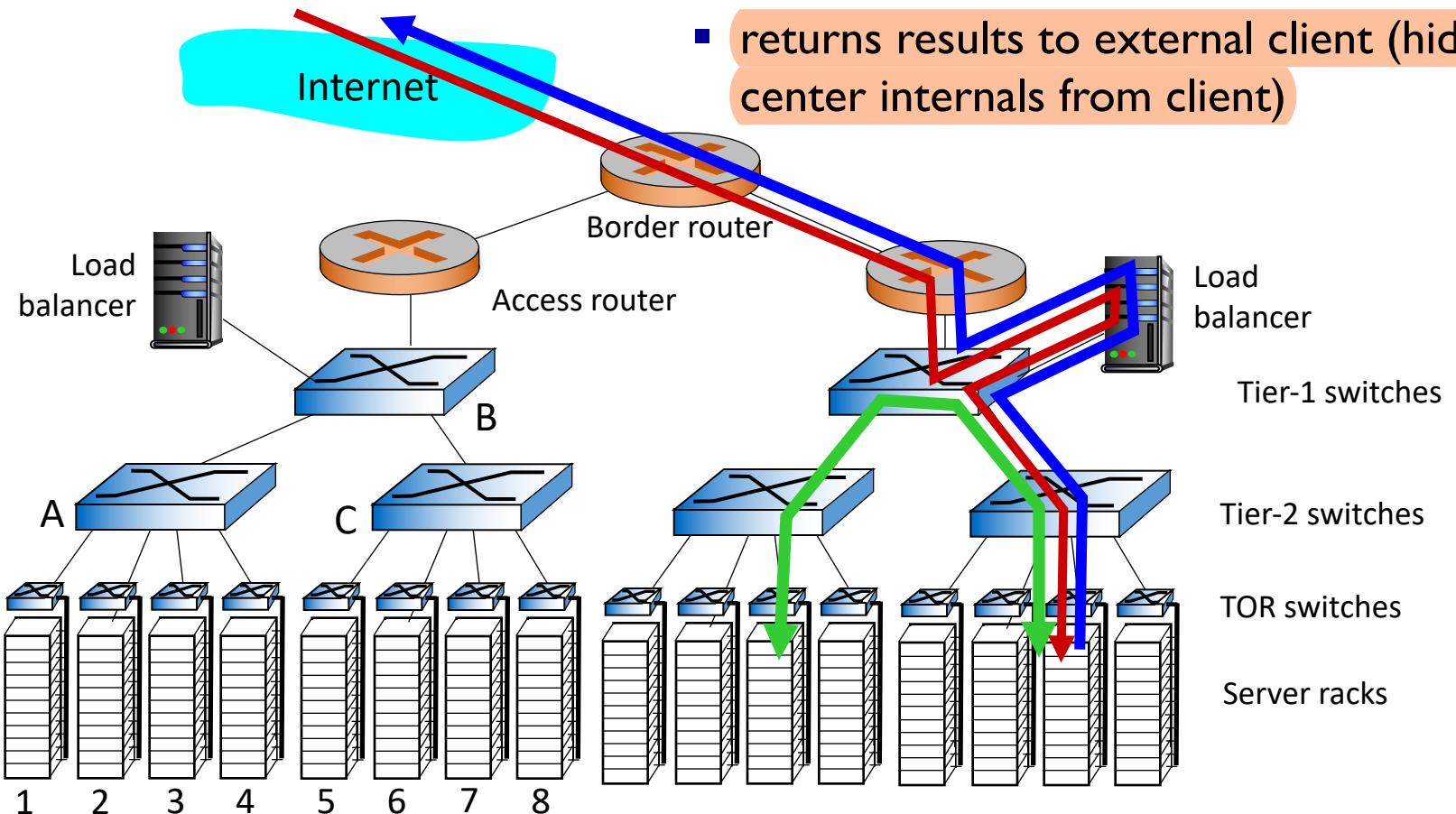
Inside a 40-ft Microsoft container, Chicago data center



Data center networks

load balancer: application-layer routing

- receives external client requests
- directs workload within data center
- returns results to external client (hiding data center internals from client)



Connectivity

- The hosts (**blades**)
 - Include CPU, memory, and disk storage.
 - Stacked in racks, with each rack typically having 20 to 40 blades.
 - At the top of each rack there is a switch, **Top of Rack (TOR) switch**
 - **interconnects** the hosts in the rack with each other and with other switches in the data center
 - Each host has a NIC card that connects to its TOR switch,
 - Each TOR switch has additional ports that can be connected to other switches.
- hosts below each access router form a single subnet.
- In order to localize ARP broadcast traffic,
 - each of these subnets is further partitioned into smaller VLAN subnets
 - each comprising a few hundred hosts

Traffic types

- traffic flowing between external clients and internal hosts
 - One or more Border routers – Data center to public Internet
- Traffic flowing between internal hosts
- External requests directed to load balancer
 - Distribute jobs/requests to servers
 - Destination port num and IP address

How are datacenter networks different from networks we've seen before?

- **Scale:** very few local networks have so many machines in one place: 10's of thousands of servers — and they all work together like one computer!
- **Control:** entirely administered by one organization — unlike the Internet, datacenter owners control every switch in the network **and** the software on every host
- **Performance:** datacenter latencies are 10s of us, with 10, 40, even 100Gbit links.

How do these factors change how we *design* datacenter networks?

Desirable Properties

- **Low Latency:** Very few “hops” between destinations
- **Resilience:** Able to recover from link failures
- **Good Throughput:** Lots of endpoints can communicate, all at the same time.
- **Cost-Effective:** Does not rely too much on expensive equipment like very high bandwidth, high port-count switches.
- **Easy to Manage:** Won’t confuse network administrators who have to wire so many cables together!

Border Gateway routing protocol

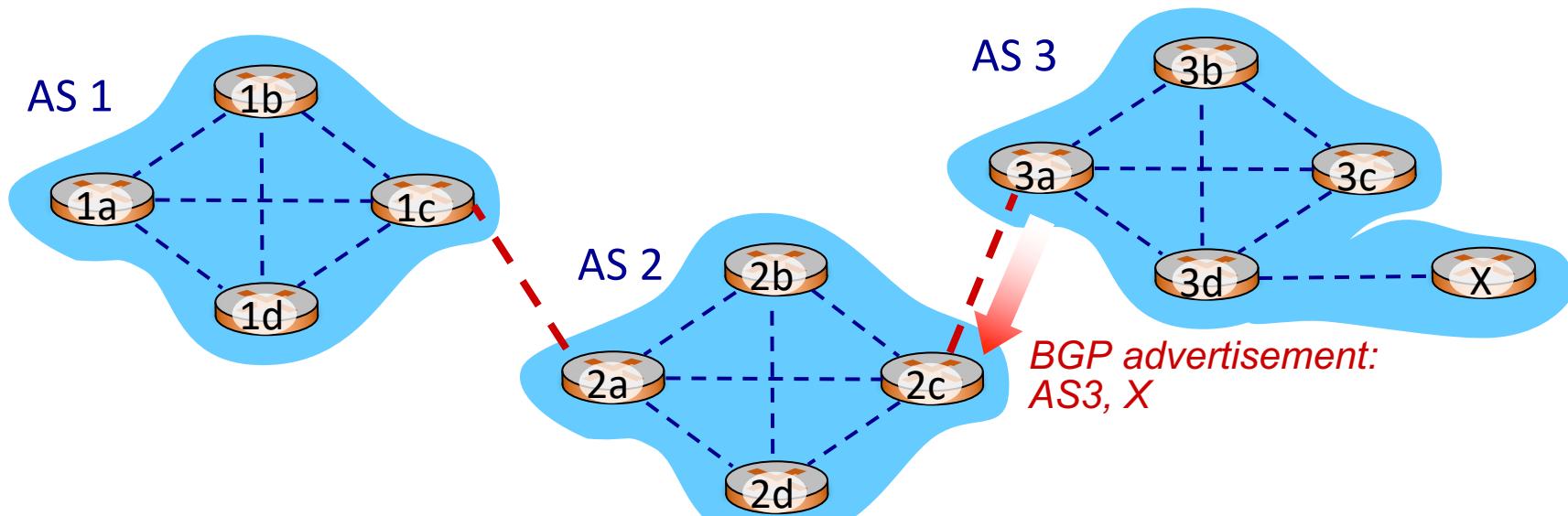
Internet inter-AS routing: BGP

- **BGP (Border Gateway Protocol):** the de facto inter-domain routing protocol
 - “glue that holds the Internet together”
- BGP provides each AS a means to:
 - **eBGP:** obtain subnet reachability information from neighboring ASes
 - **iBGP:** propagate reachability information to all AS-internal routers.
 - determine “good” routes to other networks based on reachability information and *policy*
- allows subnet to advertise its existence to rest of Internet: “*I am here*”

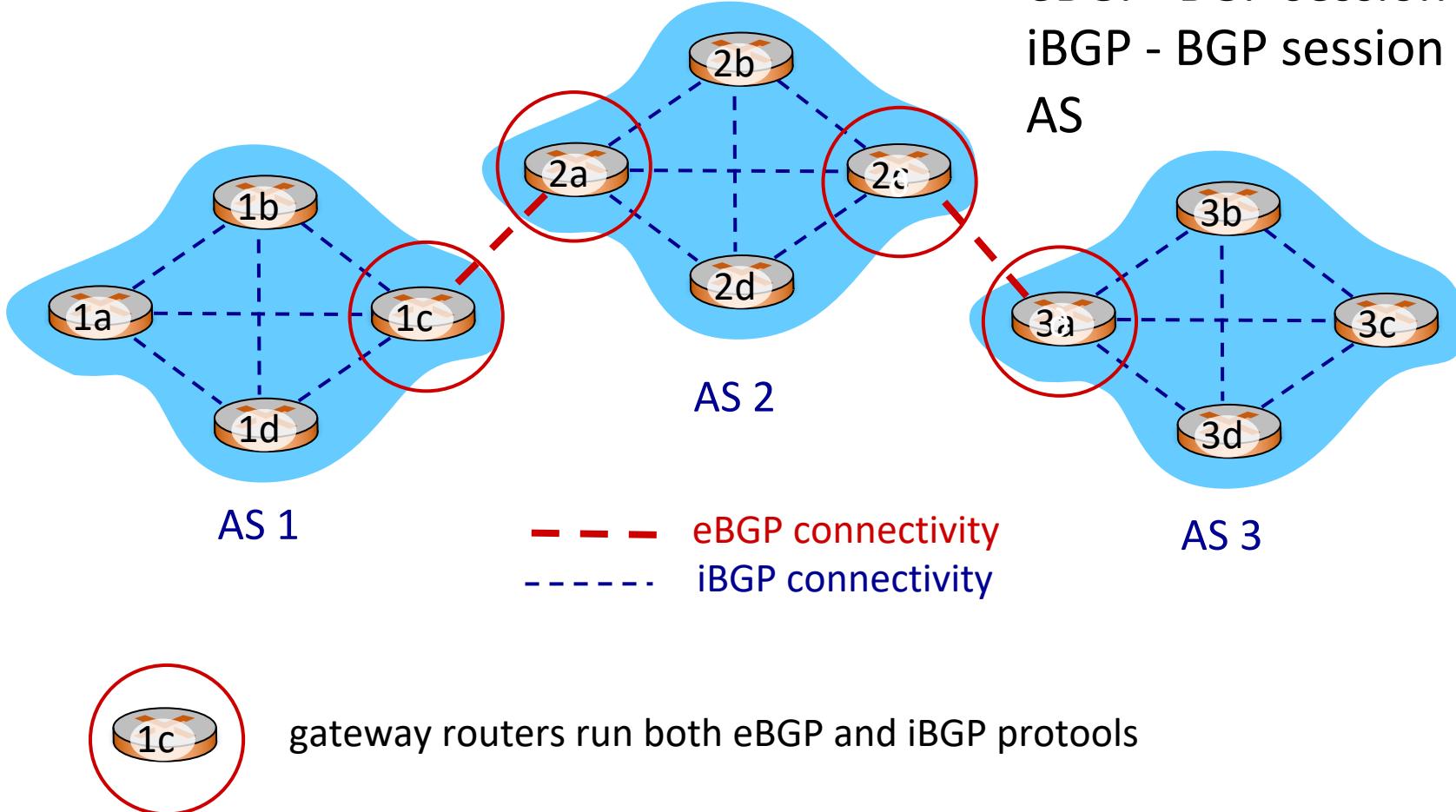
Autonomous System

BGP basics

- **BGP session:** two BGP routers (“peers”) exchange BGP messages over semi-permanent TCP connection, port 179:
 - advertising *paths* to different destination network prefixes (BGP is a “path vector” protocol)
 - when AS3 gateway router 3a advertises path **AS3,X** to AS2 gateway router 2c:
 - AS3 *promises* to AS2 it will forward datagrams towards X



eBGP, iBGP connections



eBGP- BGP session that spans two Ass
iBGP - BGP session between routers within an AS

each prefix representing a subnet or a collection of subnets. Thus, for example, suppose there are four subnets attached to AS2:

**138.16.64/24, 138.16.65/24,
138.16.66/24, and 138.16.67/24.**

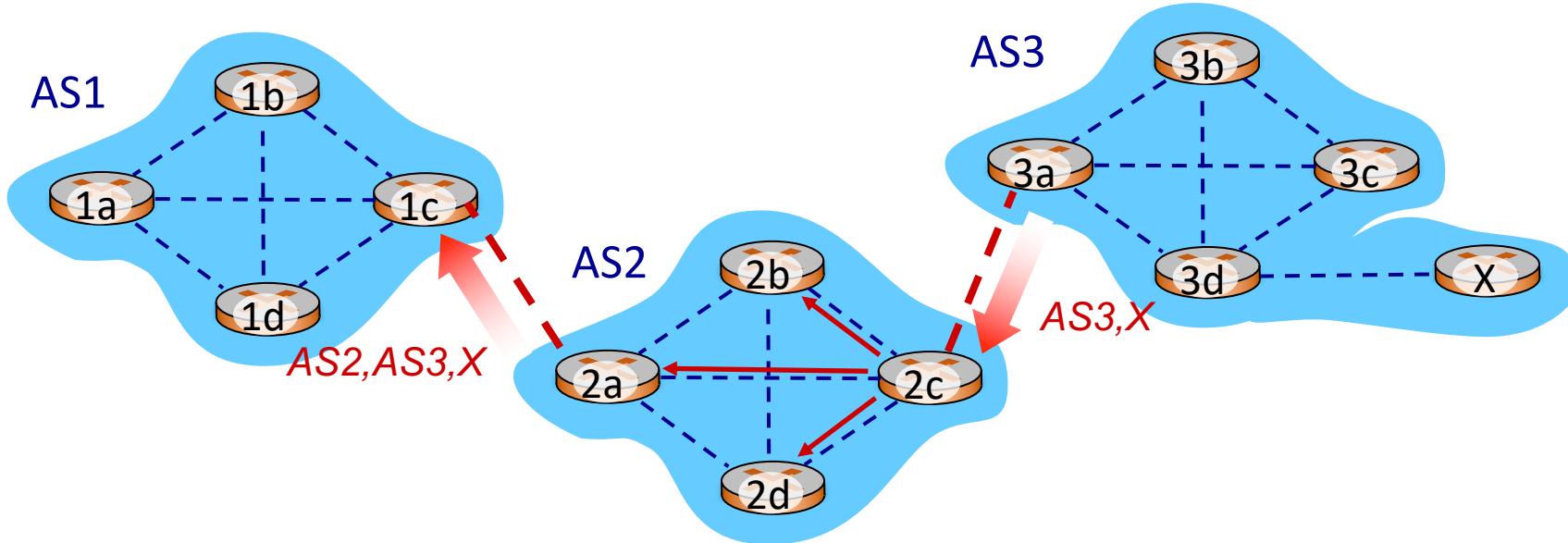
Then AS2 could aggregate the prefixes for these four subnets and use BGP to advertise the single prefix to **138.16.64/22** to AS1.

Route summarization

172.16.168.0/24 =	10101100 . 00010000 .10101	000 . 00000000
172.16.169.0/24 =	172 . 16 . .10101	001 . 0
172.16.170.0/24 =	172 . 16 . .10101	010 . 0
172.16.171.0/24 =	172 . 16 . .10101	011 . 0
172.16.172.0/24 =	172 . 16 . .10101	100 . 0
172.16.173.0/24 =	172 . 16 . .10101	101 . 0

Number of Common Bits = 21
Summary: 172.16.168.0/21 Noncommon Bits = 11

BGP path advertisement

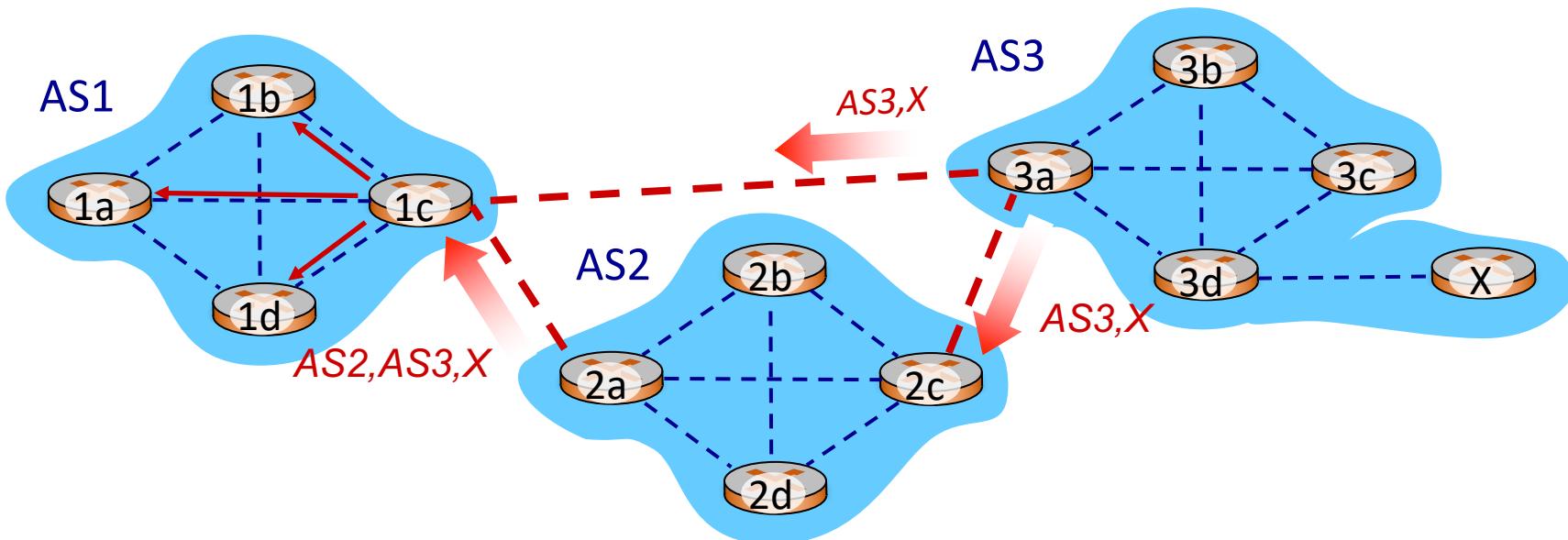


- AS2 router 2c receives path advertisement **AS3,X** (via eBGP) from AS3 router 3a
- Based on AS2 policy, AS2 router 2c accepts path AS3,X, propagates (via iBGP) to all AS2 routers
- Based on AS2 policy, AS2 router 2a advertises (via eBGP) path **AS2, AS3, X** to AS1 router 1c

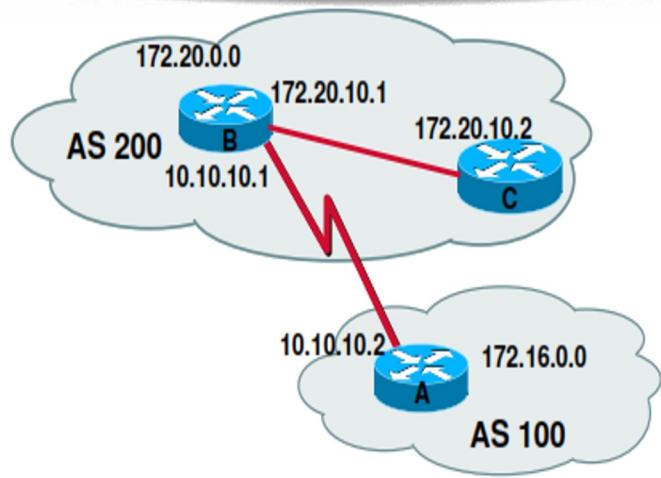
Path attributes and BGP routes

- advertised prefix includes BGP attributes
 - prefix + attributes = “route”
- two important attributes:
 - **AS-PATH**: list of ASes through which prefix advertisement has passed
 - **NEXT-HOP**: indicates specific internal-AS router to next-hop AS
- ***Policy-based routing***:
 - gateway receiving route advertisement uses ***import policy*** to accept/decline path (e.g., never route through AS Y).
 - AS policy also determines whether to ***advertise*** path to other other neighboring ASes

BGP Next Hop



- Next Hop to another AS is a router not in the same AS
- However, the subnet that contains this IP address directly attaches to AS1:
 - **Ic and 2a (Next Hop) are connected., they share a separate subnet address**
 - **Similarly, Ic and 3a(Next Hop) are connected**



Next-Hop to reach a network

- Router A will advertise network 172.16.0.0 to Router B in EBGP, with a next hop of 10.10.10.2
- Router B advertises 172.16.0.0 in IBGP to Router C keeping 10.10.10.2 as the next hop address

For eBGP, the next hop is the IP address of the neighbor specified who sent the update.

Router A will advertise 172.16.0.0 to Router B, with a next hop of 10.10.10.2

For iBGP, the protocol states that *the next hop advertised by EBGP should be carried into iBGP. Because of that rule, Router B will advertise 172.16.0.0 to its iBGP peer Router C, with a next hop of 10.10.10.2 (Router A's address).*

Therefore Router C knows the next hop to reach 172.16.0.0 is **10.10.10.2**, not **172.20.10.1**

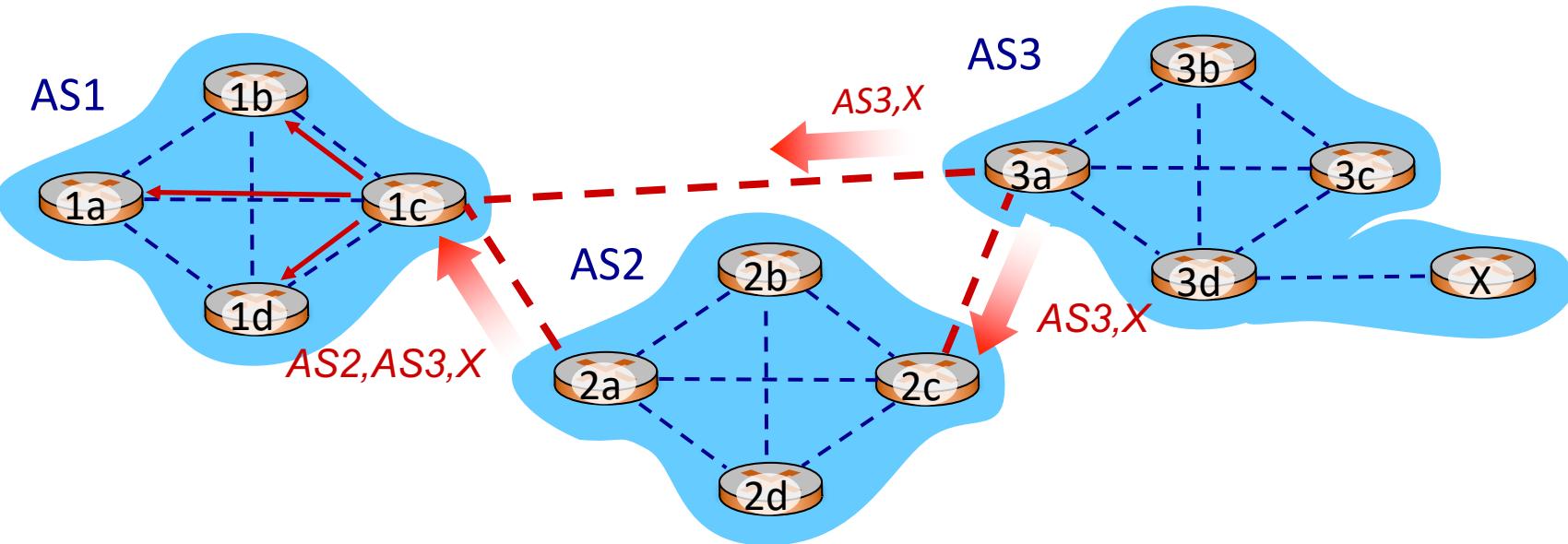
But how does Router C find out how to reach 10.10.10.2?

OSPF or RIP

BGP route selection

- router may learn about more than one route to destination AS, selects route based on:
 1. local preference value attribute: policy decision
 2. shortest AS-PATH
 3. closest NEXT-HOP router: hot potato routing
 4. additional criteria

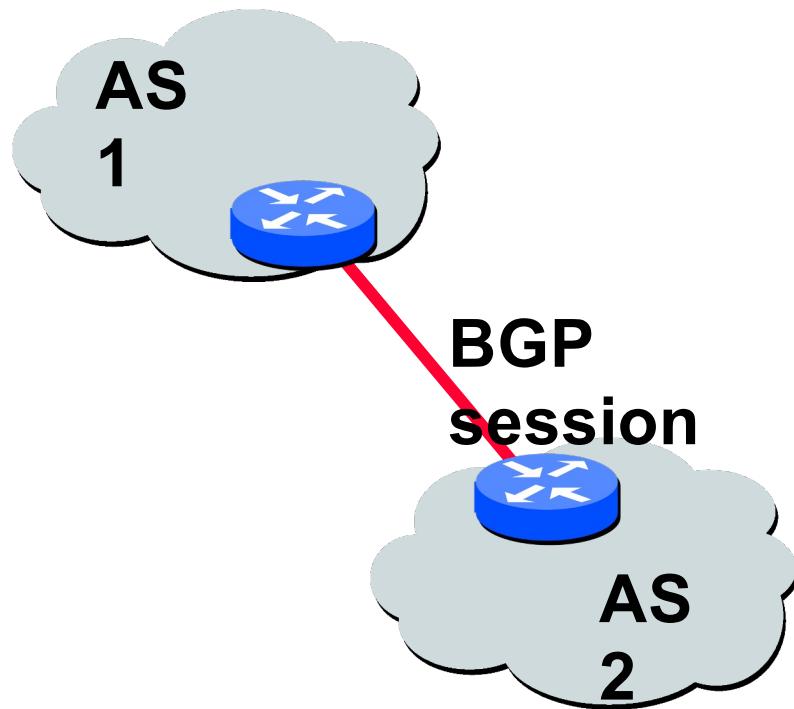
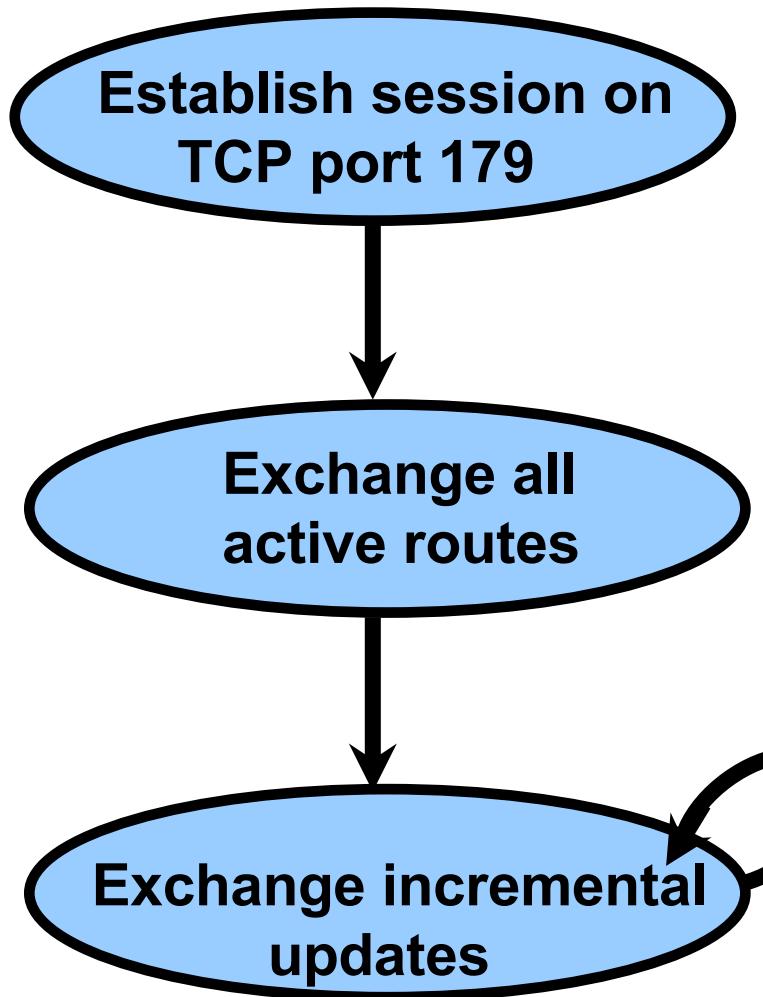
BGP path advertisement



gateway router may learn about **multiple** paths to destination:

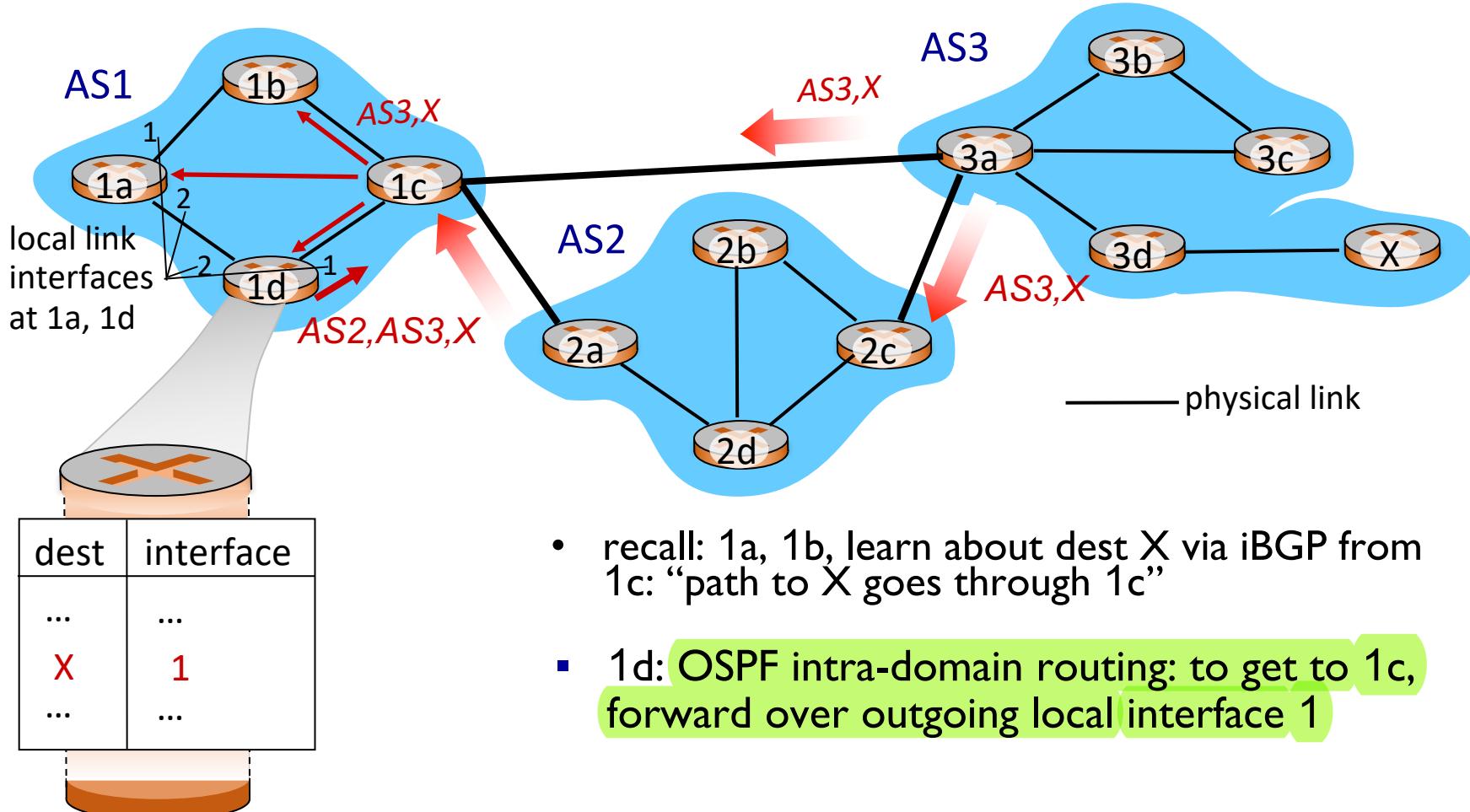
- AS1 gateway router 1c learns path **AS2,AS3,X** from 2a
- AS1 gateway router 1c learns path **AS3,X** from 3a
- Based on policy, AS1 gateway router 1c chooses path **AS3,X, and advertises path within AS1 via iBGP**

BGP Operations



BGP, OSPF, forwarding table entries

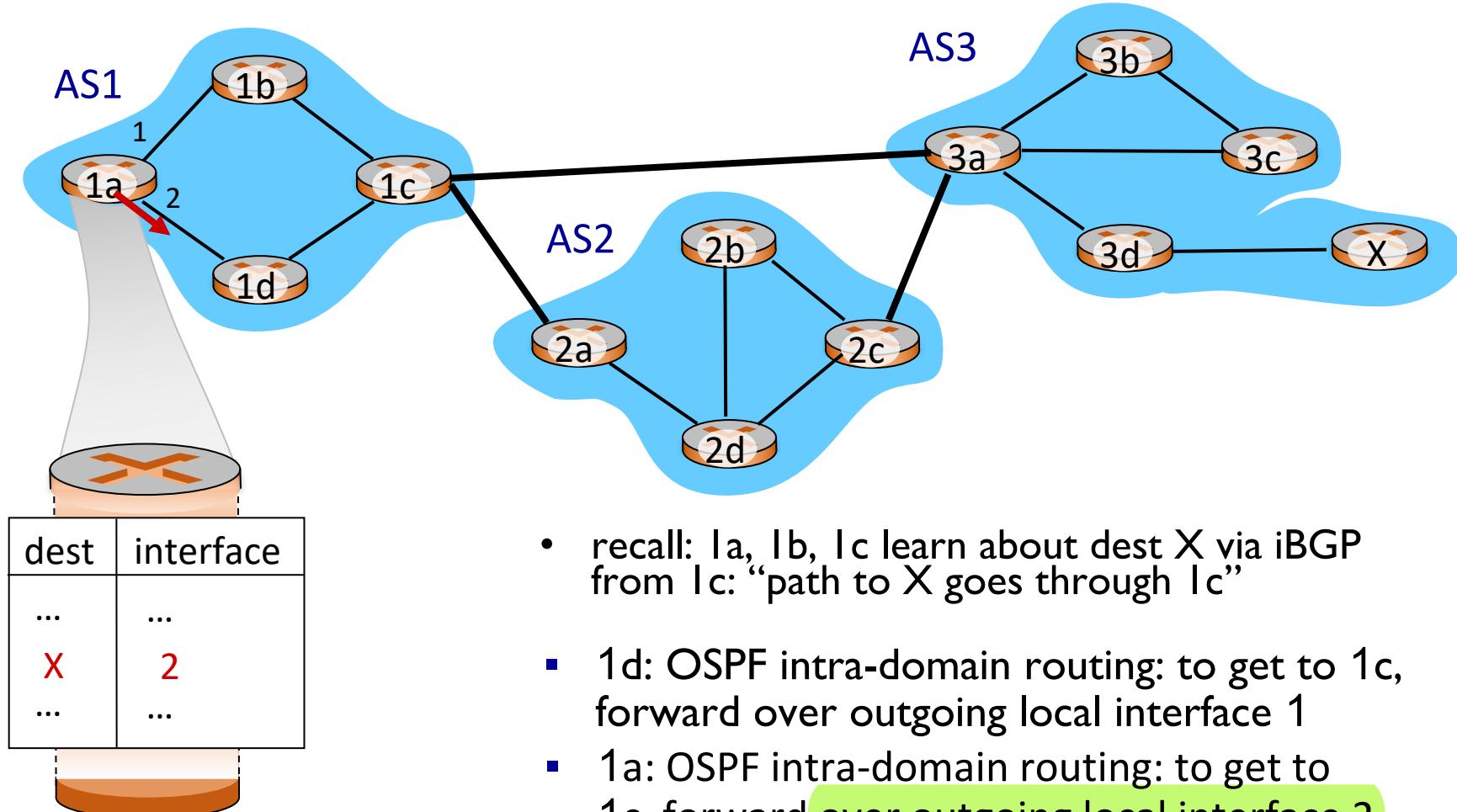
Q: how does router set forwarding table entry to distant prefix?



- recall: 1a, 1b, learn about dest X via iBGP from 1c: “path to X goes through 1c”
- 1d: OSPF intra-domain routing: to get to 1c, forward over outgoing local interface 1

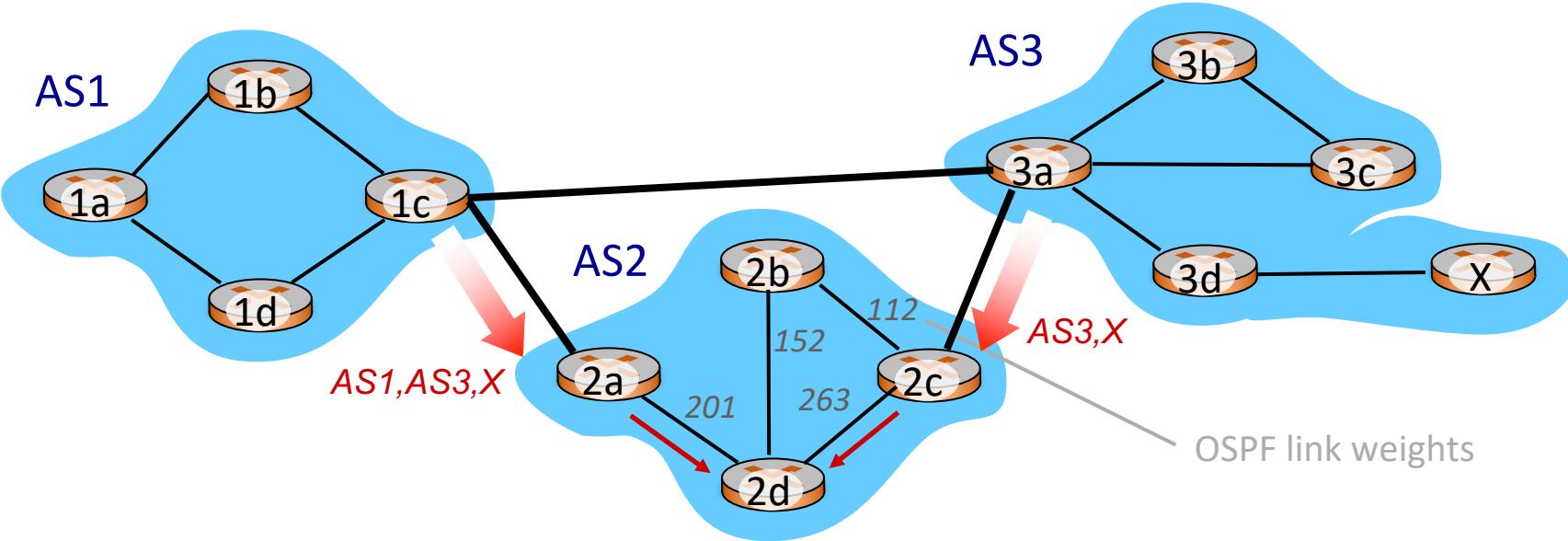
BGP, OSPF, forwarding table entries

Q: how does router set forwarding table entry to distant prefix?



- recall: 1a, 1b, 1c learn about dest X via iBGP from 1c: “path to X goes through 1c”
- 1d: OSPF intra-domain routing: to get to 1c, forward over outgoing local interface 1
- 1a: OSPF intra-domain routing: to get to 1c, forward over outgoing local interface 2

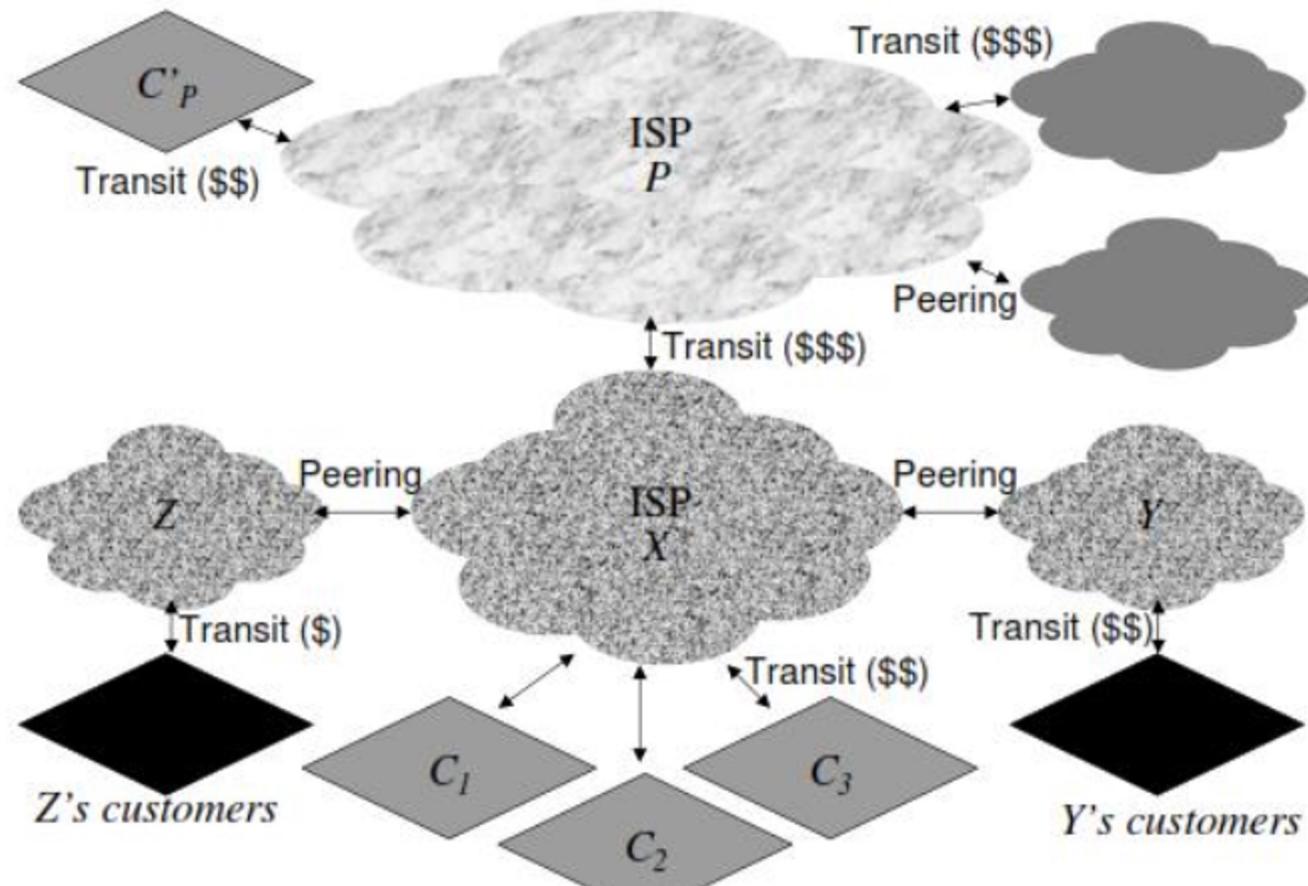
Hot Potato Routing



- 2d learns (via iBGP) it can route to X via 2a or 2c
- *hot potato routing*: choose local gateway that has least intra-domain cost (e.g., 2d chooses 2a, even though more AS hops to X): don't worry about inter-domain cost!

BGP relationships & policy

- Transit
- Peering



Why different Intra-, Inter-AS routing ?

policy:

- inter-AS: admin wants control over how its traffic routed, who routes through its net.
- intra-AS: single admin, so **no policy decisions** needed

scale:

- **hierarchical routing saves table size, reduced update traffic**

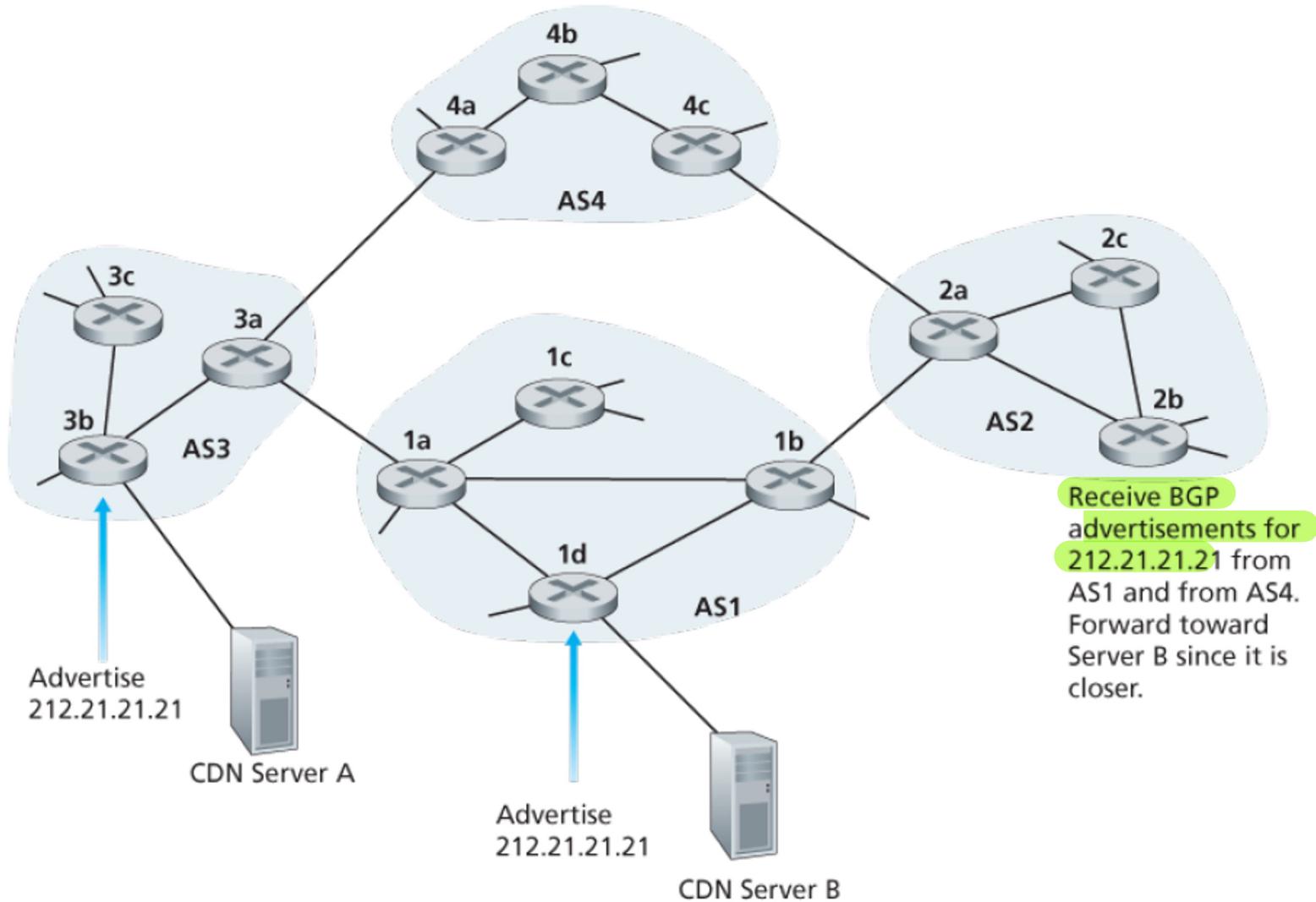
performance:

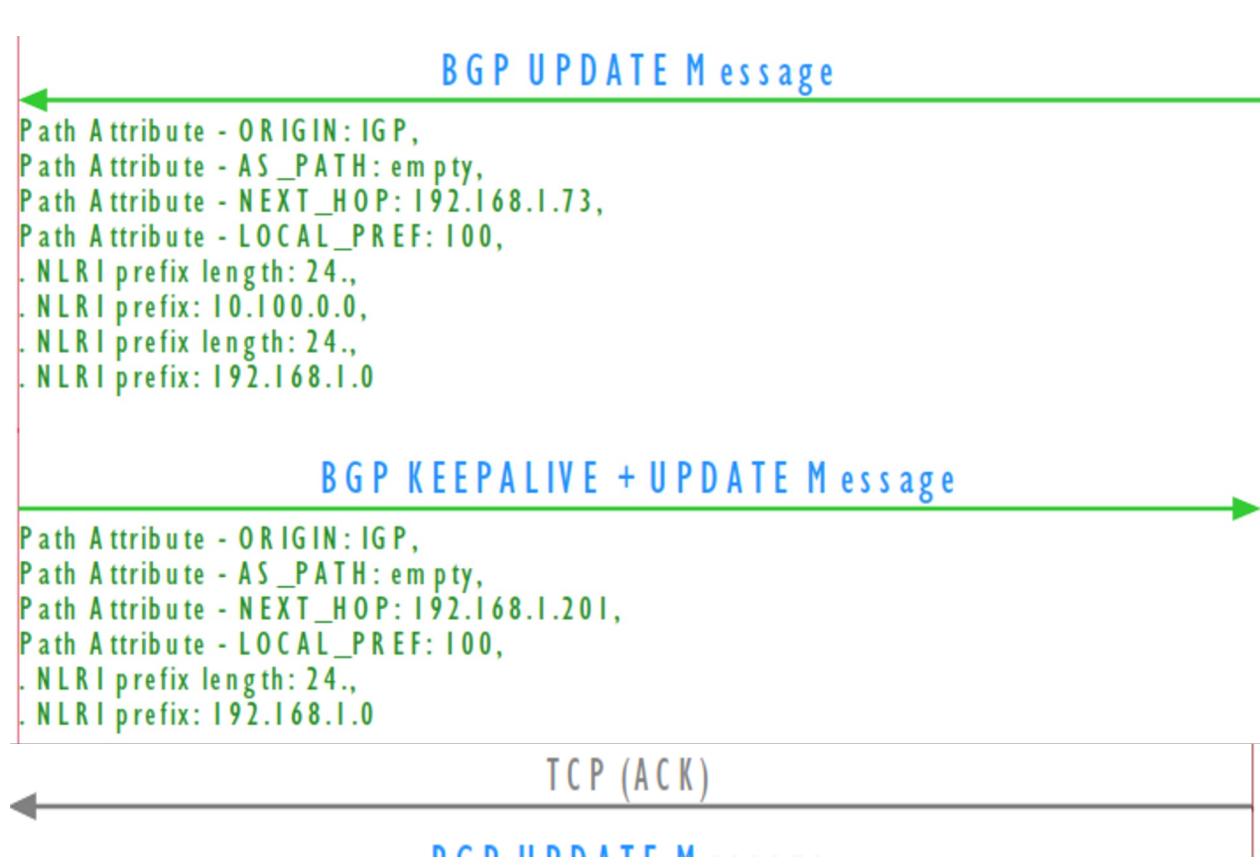
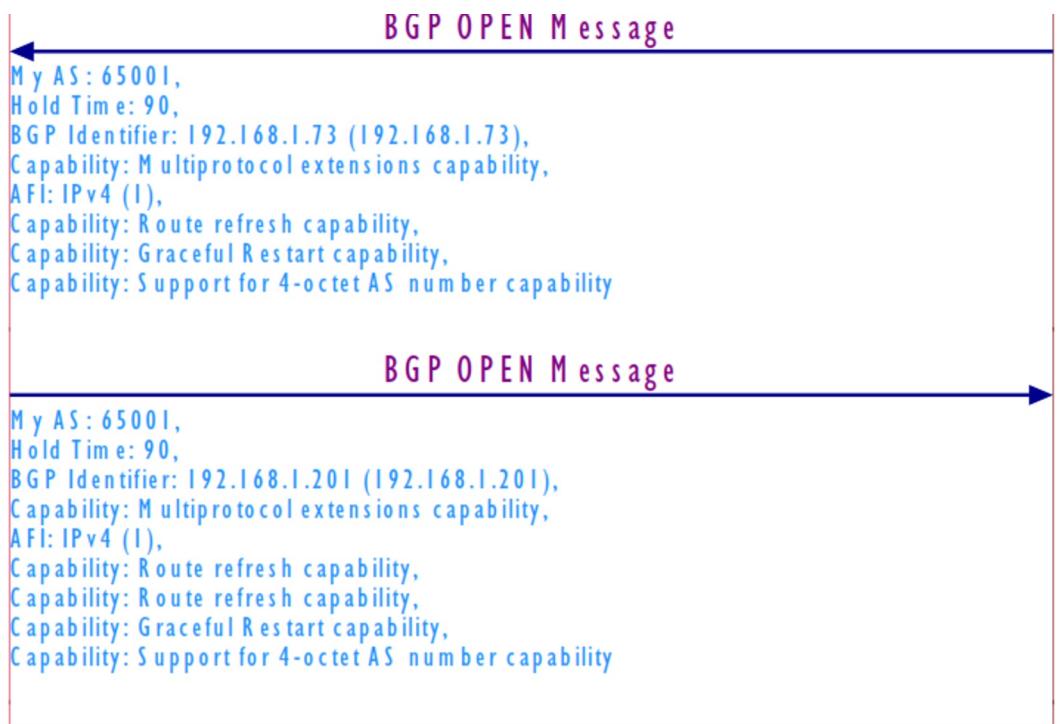
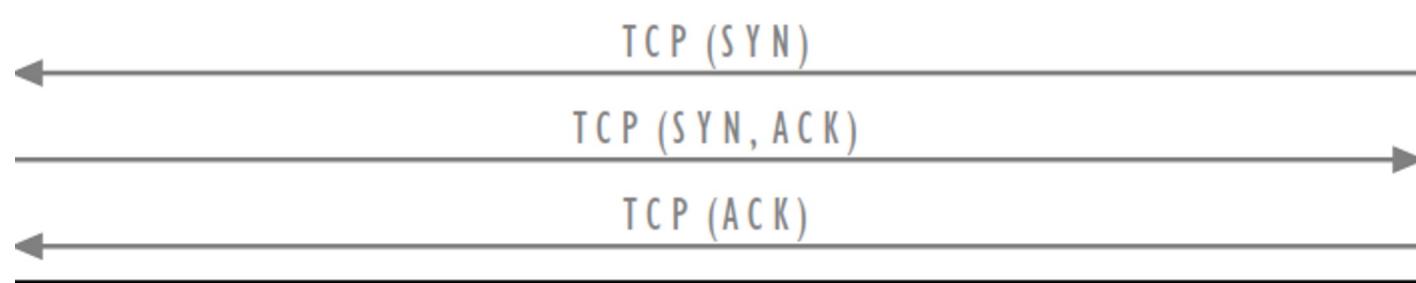
- intra-AS: can focus on performance
- **inter-AS: policy may dominate over performance**

BGP messages

- BGP messages exchanged between peers over TCP connection
- BGP messages:
 - **OPEN**: opens TCP connection to remote BGP peer and authenticates sending BGP peer
 - **UPDATE**: advertises new path (or withdraws old)
 - **KEEPALIVE**: keeps connection alive in absence of UPDATES; also ACKs OPEN request
 - **NOTIFICATION**: reports errors in previous msg; also used to close connection

IP AnyCas⁺





Week 14-Lec 3

VLANs

VLANs: motivation

- No traffic isolation
 - all layer-2 broadcast traffic (ARP, DHCP, unknown location of destination MAC address) must cross entire LAN
- Inefficient use of switches
 - Multiple departments with less users
 - each one switch (96 port)
 - Wastage of resources
- Managing users
 - CS user moves office to EE, but wants connect to CS switch?

Virtual Local Area Network

Description:

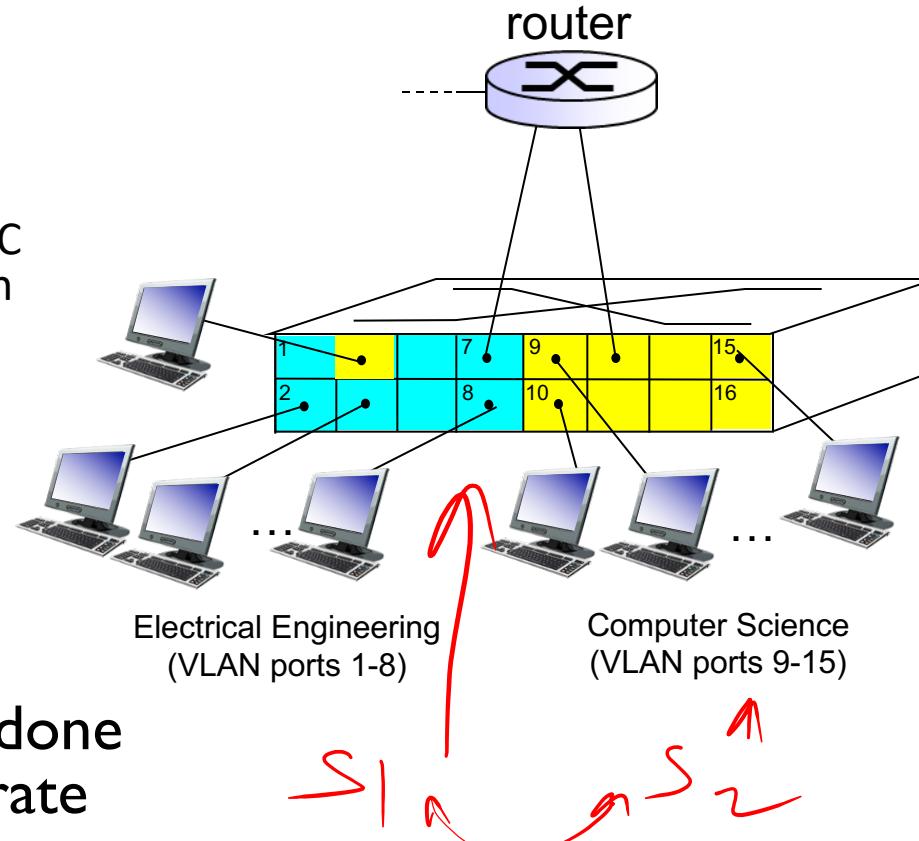
Group of devices on one or more physical LANs that are configured **as if they are logically attached** to the same wire

- LAN's based on **Logical** instead of **Physical**
- Used to separate users into logical groups of workers rather than actual physical location [ref]

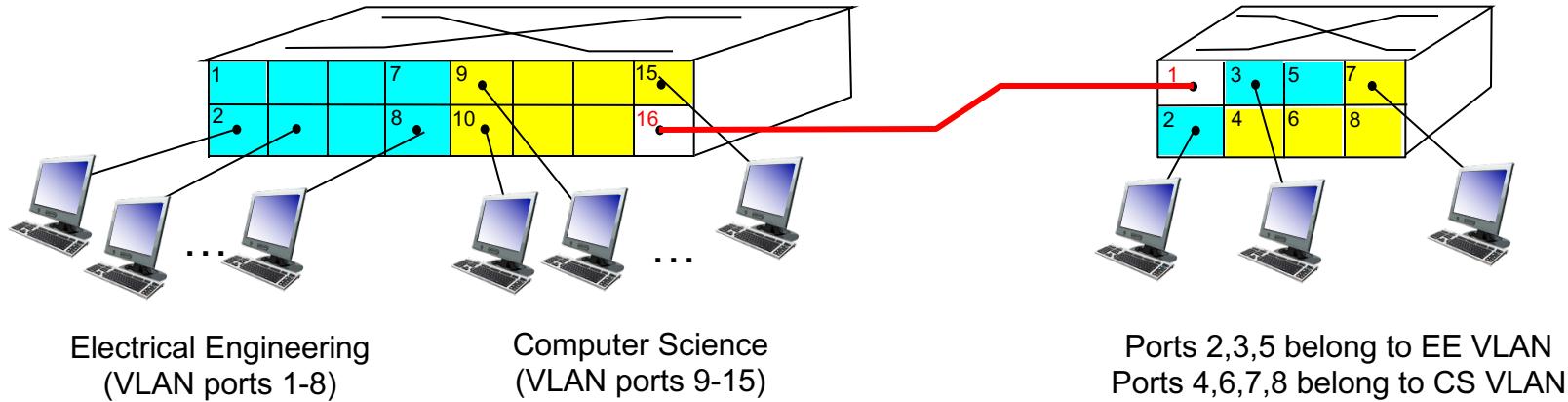
A switch that allows multiple Local area networks to be defined over a single physical local area network infrastructure giving an appearance of multiple VLANs on single switch

Port-based VLAN

- ❖ *traffic isolation:* frames to/from ports 1-8 can *only* reach ports 1-8
 - can also define VLAN based on MAC addresses of endpoints, rather than switch port
- ❖ **dynamic membership:** ports can be dynamically assigned among VLANs
- ❖ **forwarding between VLANs:** done via routing (just as with separate switches)
 - in practice vendors sell combined switches plus routers

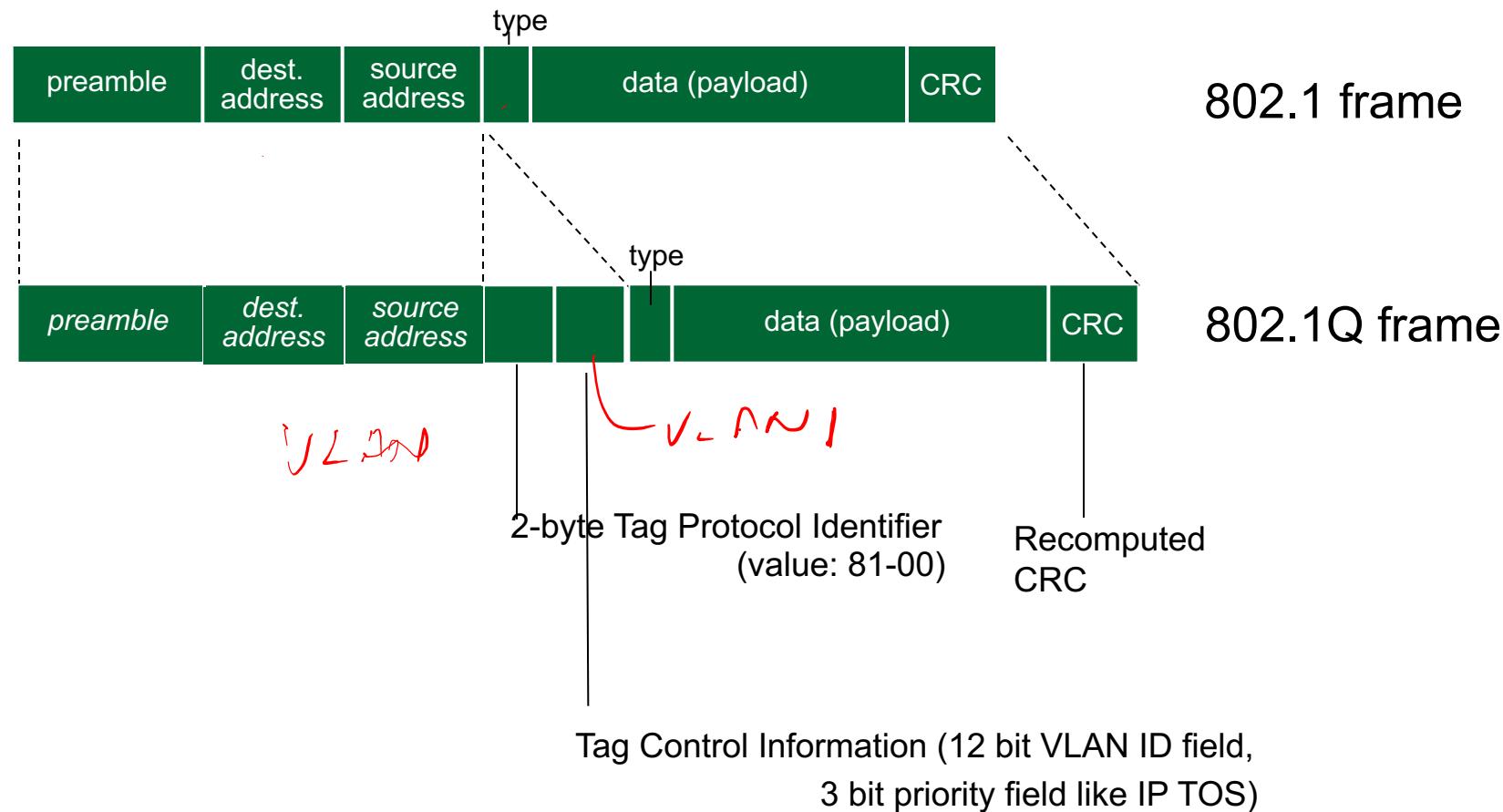


VLANs spanning multiple switches



- ***trunk port:*** carries frames between VLANs defined over multiple physical switches
 - frames forwarded within VLAN between switches can't be vanilla 802.1 frames (must carry VLAN ID info)
 - 802.1q protocol adds/removed additional header fields for frames forwarded between trunk ports

802.1Q VLAN frame format

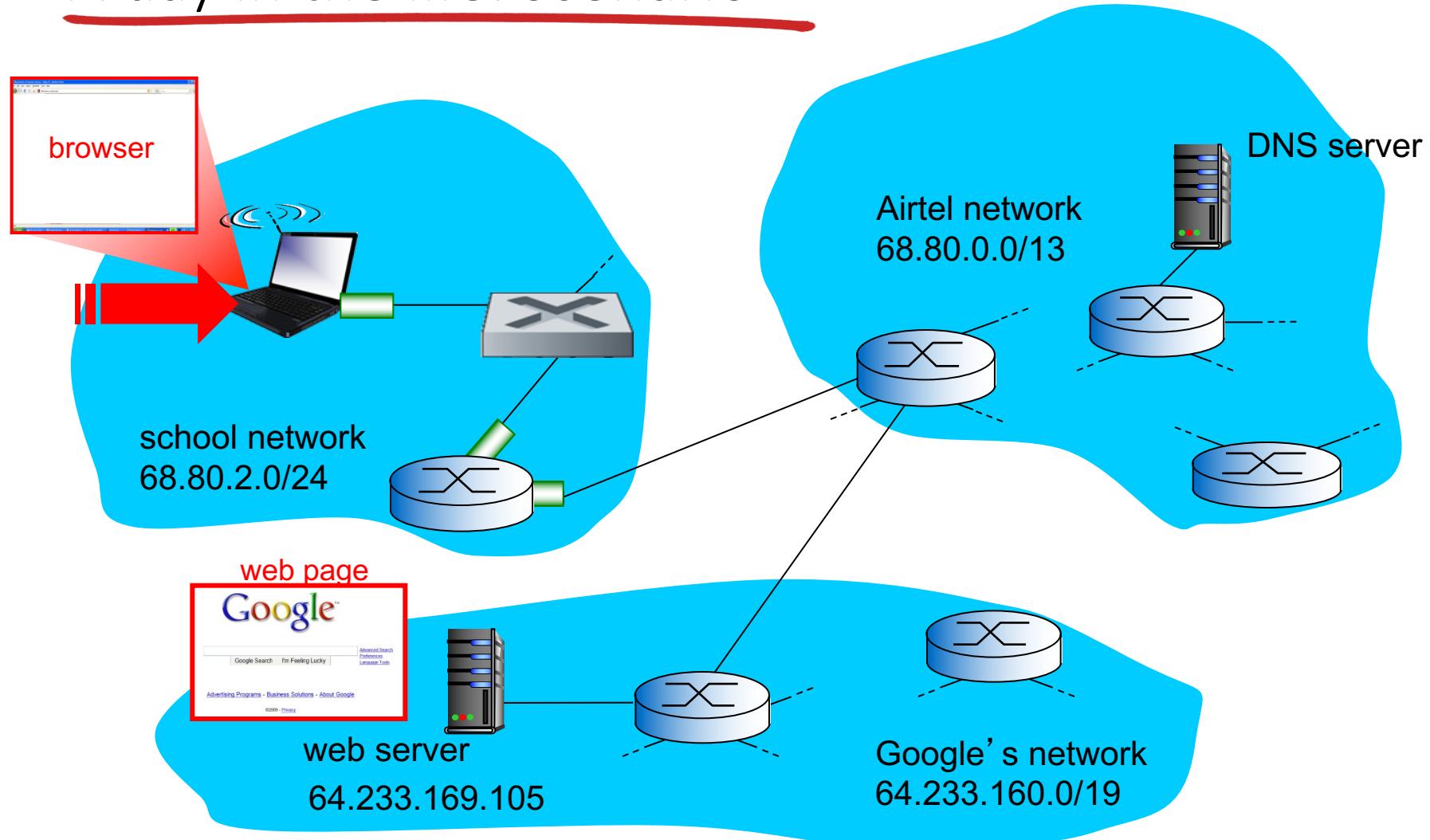


Data link layer Wrap Up

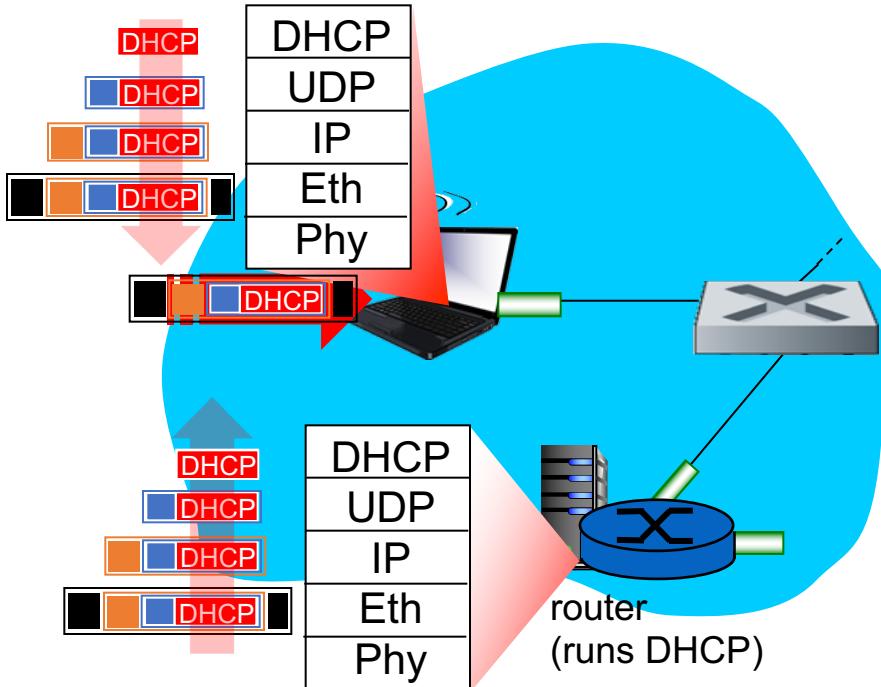
Synthesis: a day in the life of a web request

- ❖ journey down protocol stack 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

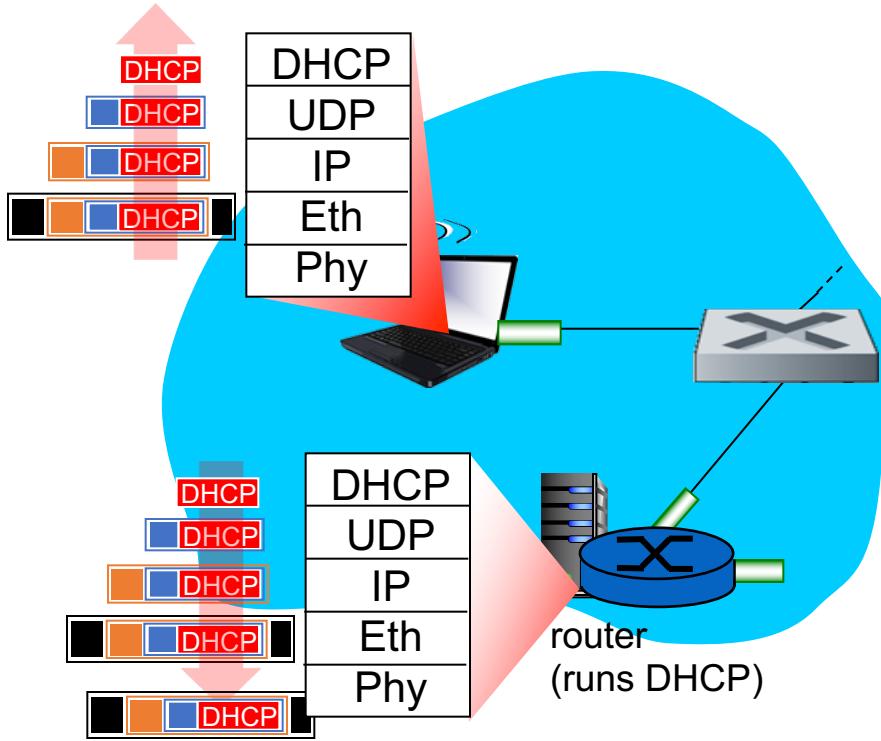


A day in the life... connecting to the Internet



- ❖ 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**

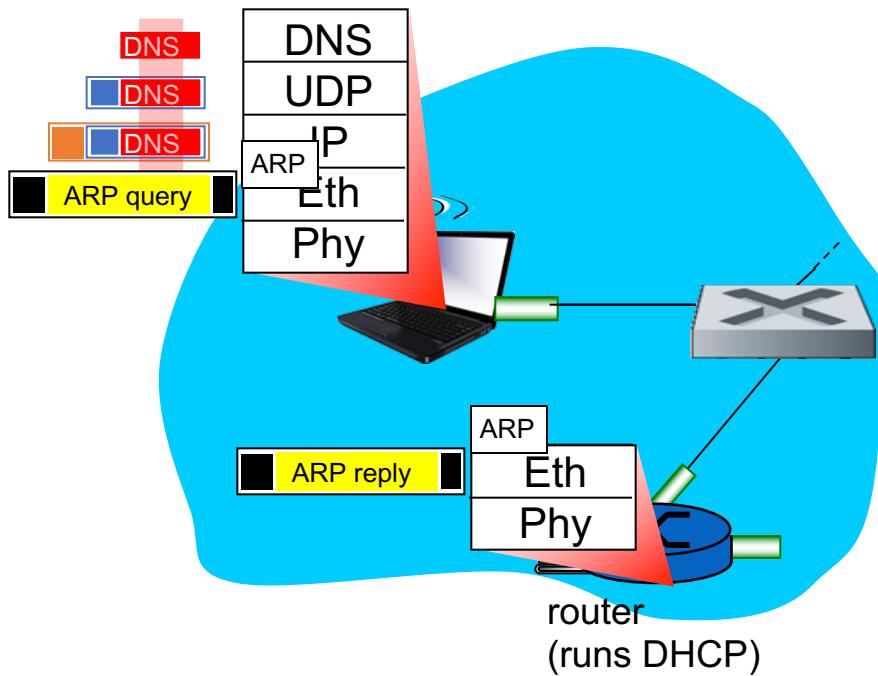
A day in the life... connecting to the Internet



- 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

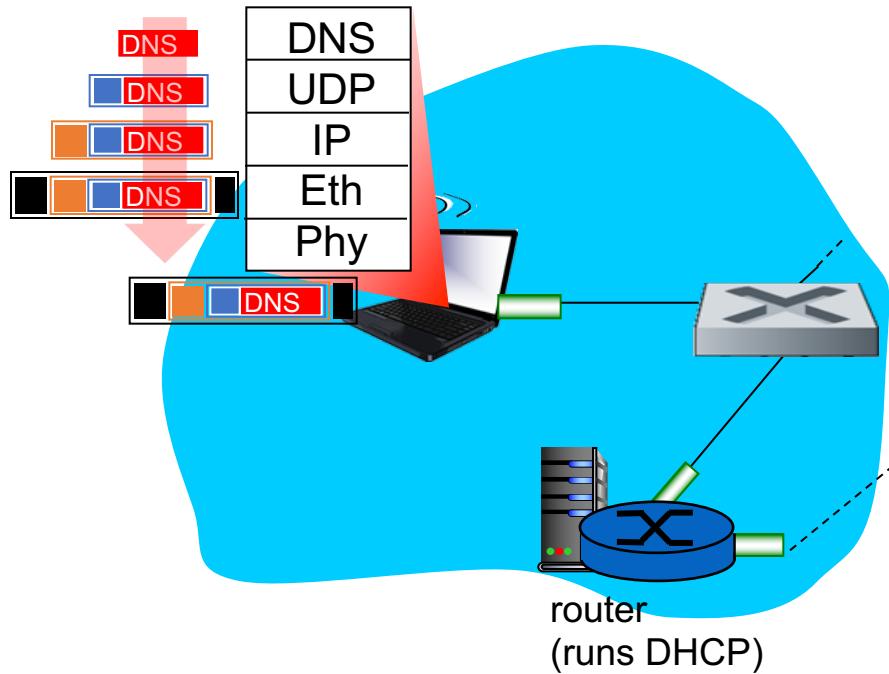
Client now has IP address, knows name & addr of DNS server, IP address of its first-hop router

A day in the life... ARP (before DNS, before HTTP)

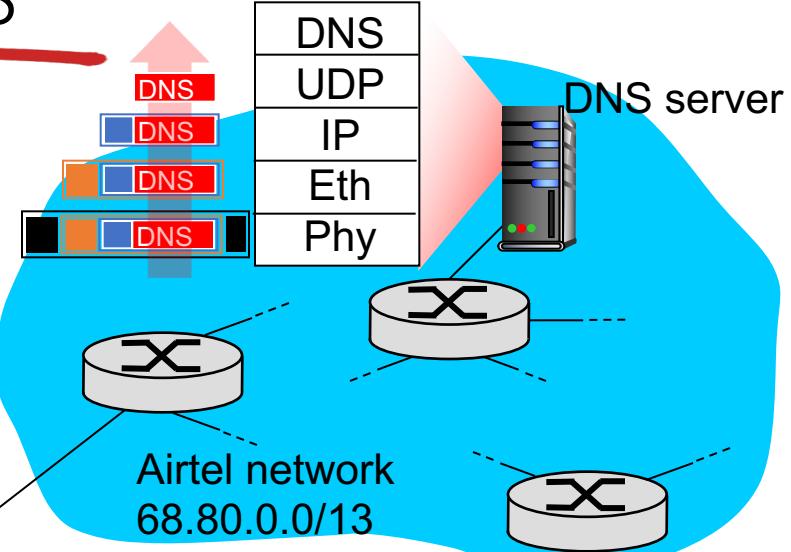


- ❖ before sending **HTTP** request, need IP address of www.google.com: **DNS**
- ❖ DNS query created, encapsulated in UDP, encapsulated in IP, encapsulated in Eth. To send frame to router, need MAC address of router interface: **ARP**
- ❖ **ARP query** broadcast, received by router, which replies with **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

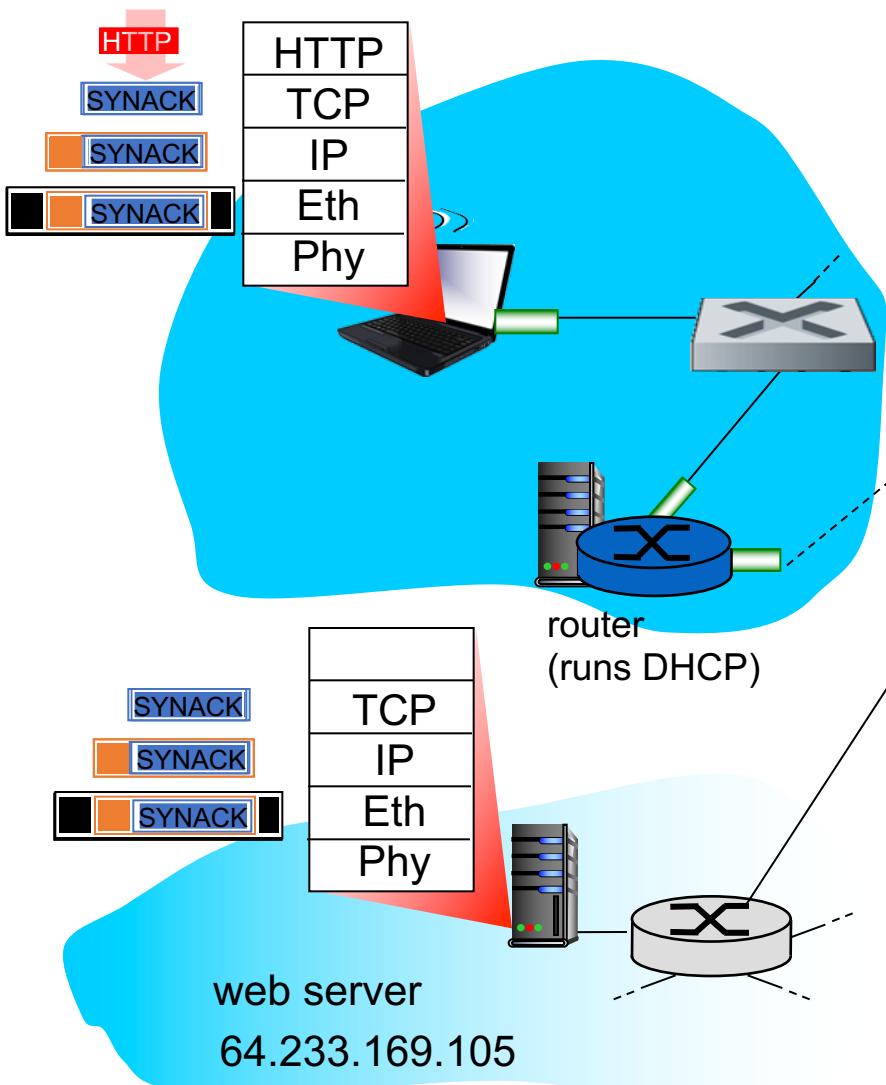


- ❖ IP datagram containing DNS query forwarded via LAN switch from client to 1st hop router



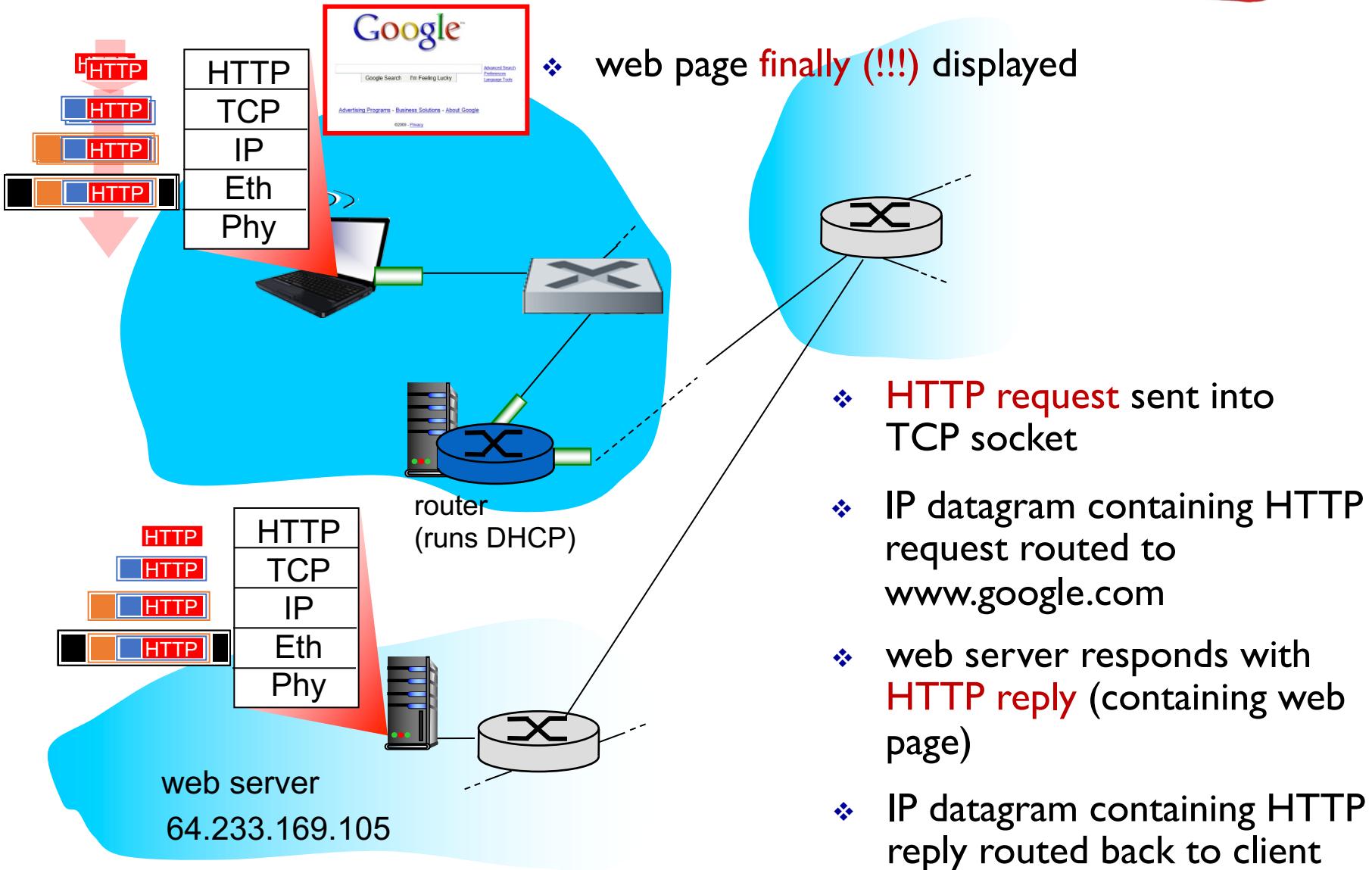
- ❖ IP datagram forwarded from campus network into Airtel network, routed (tables created by **RIP, OSPF, IS-IS** and/or **BGP** routing protocols) to DNS server
- ❖ demux' ed to DNS server
- ❖ DNS server replies to client with IP address of www.google.com

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 3-way handshake) inter-domain routed to web server
- ❖ web server responds with **TCP SYNACK** (step 2 in 3-way handshake)
- ❖ TCP **connection established!**

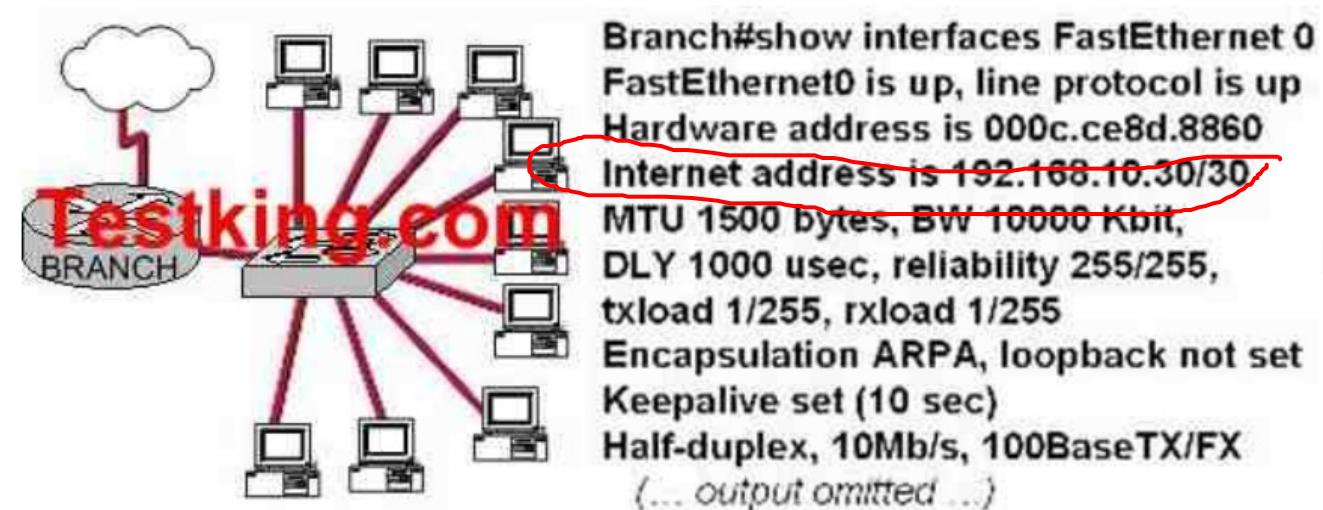
A day in the life... HTTP request/reply



- A router has been configured to provide the nine users on the branch office LAN with Internet access, as shown in the diagram
- It is found that some of the users on the LAN cannot reach the Internet. Other users are not having any problems. Based on the topology and router output shown, what can done to correct the issue?

The following example configures VLAN 20 with the IP address 209.165.201.2 and the subnet mask 255.255.255.0.

```
nfvis(config)# switch
nfvis(config-switch)# interface vlan 20
nfvis(config-switch-if)# ip address 209.165.201.2 255.255.255.0
nfvis(config-switch-if)# commit
nfvis(config-switch-if)# end
```



Branch(config-if)# ip address 192.168.10.30 255.255.255.240

- You are experiencing intermittent issues relating to congestion with your network. What are the possible causes of congestion on a LAN? (Choose all that apply)
 - A. A broadcast domain with too many hosts.
 - B. Full duplex operation.
 - C. Broadcast storms.
 - D. Multicasting.
 - E. Network Segmentation.
 - F. Low bandwidth.

- Sales dept connected through a **HUB**
- Production dept connected through a **SWITCH**
- Router segments these two depts
- How many collision and broadcast domains?

