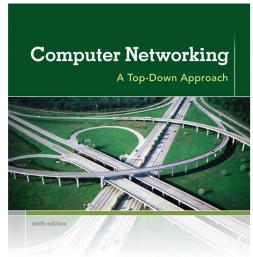
Chapter 5 Link Layer



KUROSE ROSS

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Computer Networking: A Top Down Approach 6th edition Jim Kurose, Keith Ross Addison-Wesley March 2012

Chapter 5: Link layer

our goals:

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

Link layer, LANs: outline

- 5.1 introduction, services
- 5.2 error detection, correction
- 5.3 multiple access protocols
- **5.4** LANs
 - addressing, ARP
 - Ethernet
 - switches
 - VLANS

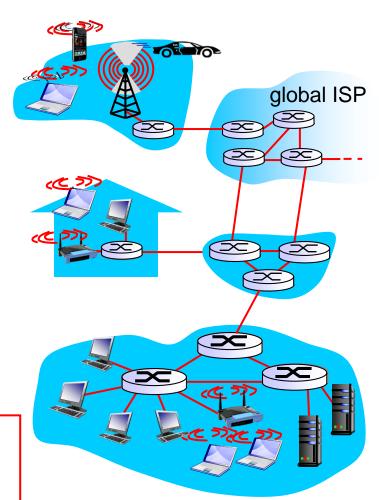
- 5.5 link virtualization: MPLS
- 5.6 data center networking
- 5.7 a day in the life of a web request

Link layer: introduction

terminology:

- hosts and routers: nodes
- communication channels that connect adjacent nodes along communication path: links
 - wired 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: context

- datagram transferred by different link protocols over different links:
 - e.g., Ethernet on first link, frame relay on intermediate links, 802.11 on last link
- each link protocol provides different services
 - e.g., may or may not provide rdt over link

transportation analogy:

- trip from Princeton to Lausanne
 - limo: Princeton to JFK
 - plane: JFK to Geneva
 - train: Geneva to Lausanne
- tourist = datagram
- transport segment = communication link
- transportation mode = link layer protocol
- travel agent = routing algorithm

Link layer services

- framing, link access:
 - encapsulate datagram into frame, adding header, trailer
 - channel access if shared medium
 - "MAC" addresses used in frame headers to identify source, dest
 - different from IP address!
- reliable delivery between adjacent nodes
 - we learned how to do this already (chapter 3)!
 - seldom used on low bit-error link (fiber, some twisted pair)
 - wireless links: high error rates
 - Q: why both link-level and end-end reliability?

Link layer services (more)

flow control:

pacing between adjacent sending and receiving nodes

error detection:

- errors caused by signal attenuation, noise.
- receiver detects presence of errors:
 - signals sender for retransmission or drops frame

error correction:

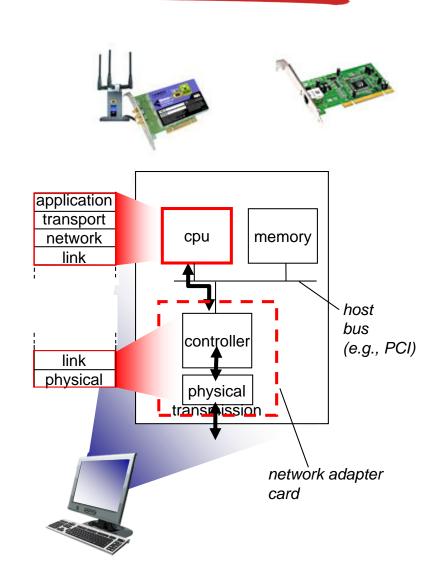
 receiver identifies and corrects bit error(s) without resorting to retransmission

half-duplex and full-duplex

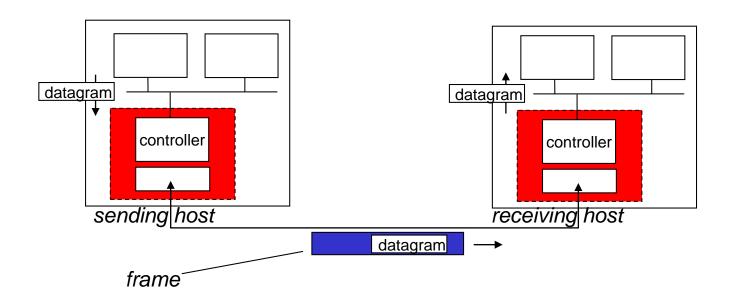
 with half duplex, nodes at both ends of link can transmit, but not at same time

Where is the link layer implemented?

- in each and every host
- link layer implemented in "adaptor" (aka network interface card NIC) or on a chip
 - Ethernet card, 802.11 card; Ethernet chipset
 - implements link, physical layer
- attaches into host's system buses
- combination of hardware, software, firmware



Adaptors communicating



- sending side:
 - encapsulates datagram in frame
 - adds error checking bits, rdt, flow control, etc.

- receiving side
 - looks for errors, rdt, flow control, etc
 - extracts datagram, passes to upper layer at receiving side

Link layer, LANs: outline

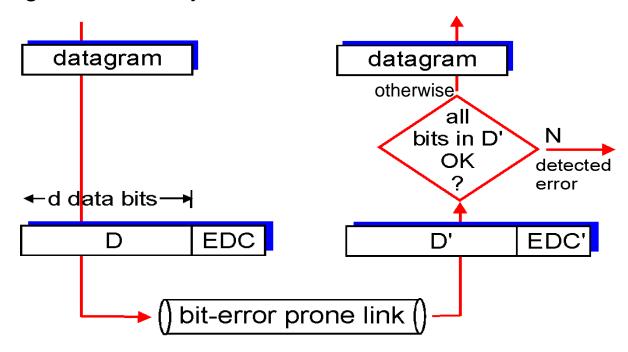
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Error detection

EDC= Error Detection and Correction bits (redundancy)

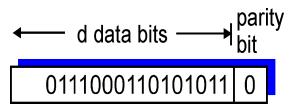
- D = Data protected by error checking, may include header fields
- Error detection not 100% reliable!
 - protocol may miss some errors, but rarely
 - larger EDC field yields better detection and correction



Parity checking

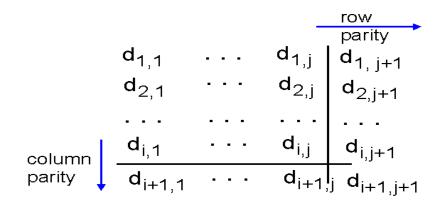
single bit parity:

detect single bit errors



two-dimensional bit parity:

detect and correct single bit errors



Internet checksum (review)

goal: detect "errors" (e.g., flipped bits) in transmitted packet (note: used at transport layer only)

sender:

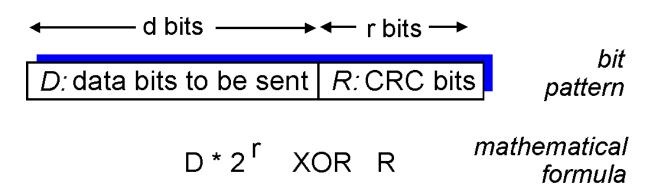
- treat segment contents as sequence of 16-bit integers
- checksum: addition (I's complement sum) of segment contents
- sender puts checksum value into UDP checksum field

receiver:

- compute checksum of received segment
- check if computed checksum equals checksum field value:
 - NO error detected
 - YES no error detected. But maybe errors nonetheless?

Cyclic redundancy check

- more powerful error-detection coding
- view data bits, D, as a binary number
- choose r+1 bit pattern (generator), G
- goal: choose r CRC bits, R, such that
 - <D,R> exactly divisible by G (modulo 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, ATM)



CRC example

want:

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

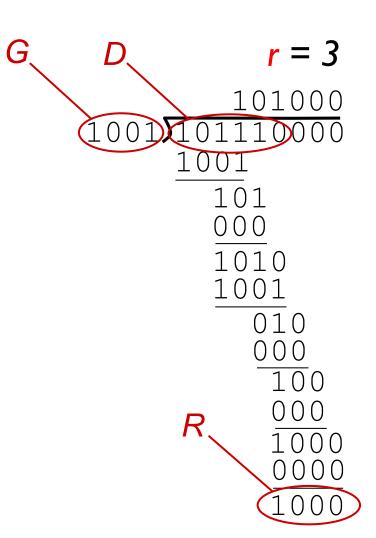
equivalently:

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

equivalently:

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

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



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Multiple access links, protocols

two types of "links":

- point-to-point
 - PPP for dial-up access
 - point-to-point link between Ethernet switch, host
- broadcast (shared wire or medium)
 - old-fashioned Ethernet
 - upstream HFC
 - 802.11 wireless LAN



shared wire (e.g., cabled Ethernet)



shared RF (e.g., 802.11 WiFi)



shared RF (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: broadcast channel of rate R bps desiderata:

- I. when one node wants to transmit, it can send at rate R.
- 2. when M nodes want to transmit, each can send at average rate R/M
- 3. fully decentralized:
 - no special node to coordinate transmissions
 - no synchronization of clocks, slots
- 4. simple

MAC protocols: taxonomy

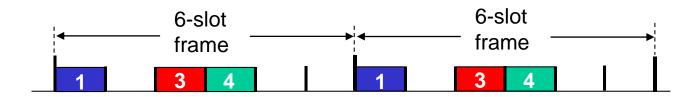
three broad classes:

- channel partitioning
 - divide channel into smaller "pieces" (time slots, frequency, code)
 - allocate piece to node for exclusive use
- random access
 - channel not divided, allow collisions
 - "recover" from collisions
- "taking turns"
 - nodes take turns, but nodes with more to send can take longer turns

Channel partitioning MAC protocols: TDMA

TDMA: time division multiple access

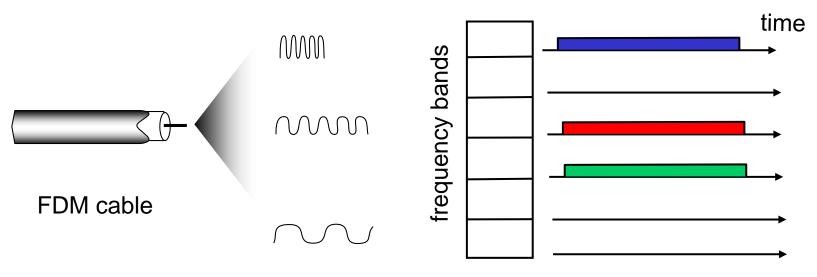
- access to channel in "rounds"
- each station gets fixed length slot (length = pkt trans time) in each round
- unused slots go idle
- example: 6-station LAN, 1,3,4 have pkt, slots 2,5,6 idle



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 pkt, frequency bands 2,5,6 idle



Random access protocols

- when node has packet to send
 - transmit at full channel data rate R.
 - no a priori coordination among nodes
- ❖ two or more transmitting nodes → "collision",
- random access MAC protocol specifies:
 - how to detect collisions
 - how to recover from collisions (e.g., via delayed retransmissions)
- examples of random access MAC protocols:
 - slotted ALOHA
 - ALOHA
 - CSMA, CSMA/CD, CSMA/CA

Slotted ALOHA

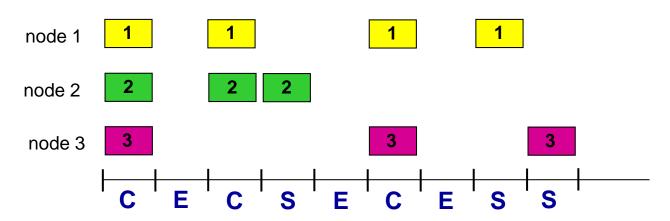
assumptions:

- all frames same size
- time divided into equal size slots (time to transmit I 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

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(I-p)^{N-I}
- for many nodes, take limit of Np*(I-p*)^{N-I} as N goes to infinity, gives:

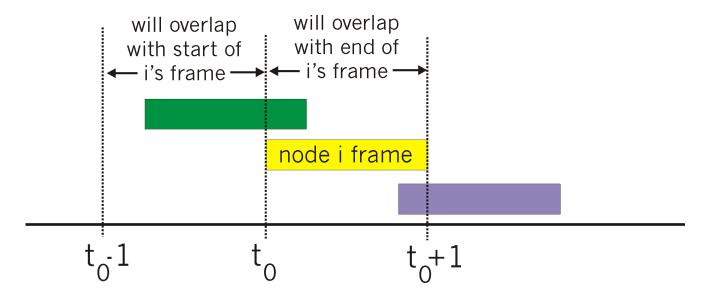
max efficiency = 1/e = .37

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



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 $[t_0-1,t_0+1]$



Pure ALOHA efficiency

P(success by given node) = P(node transmits) ·

P(no other node transmits in $[t_0-I,t_0]$ · P(no other node transmits in $[t_0-I,t_0]$

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

= $p \cdot (I-p)^{2(N-1)}$

... choosing optimum p and then letting n $\rightarrow \infty$ = 1/(2e) = .18

even worse than slotted Aloha!

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!

CSMA collisions

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





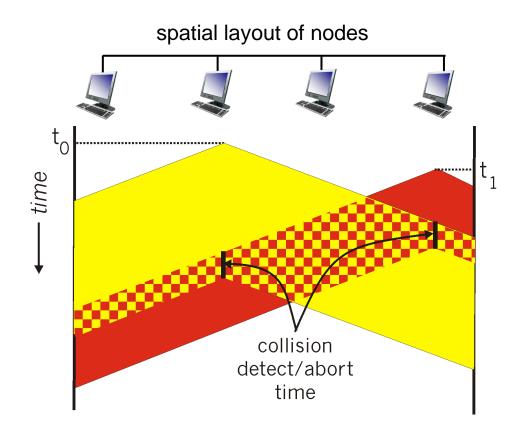
 t_1

CSMA/CD (collision detection)

CSMA/CD: carrier sensing, deferral as in CSMA

- collisions detected within short time
- colliding transmissions aborted, reducing channel wastage
- collision detection:
 - easy in wired LANs: measure signal strengths, compare transmitted, received signals
 - difficult in wireless LANs: received signal strength overwhelmed by local transmission strength
- human analogy: the polite conversationalist

CSMA/CD (collision detection)



Ethernet CSMA/CD algorithm

- I. NIC receives datagram from network layer, creates frame
- 2. If NIC senses channel idle, starts frame transmission. If NIC senses channel busy, waits until channel idle, then transmits.
- 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 enters binary (exponential) backoff:
 - after mth collision, NIC chooses K at random from {0,1,2, ..., 2^m-1}. NIC waits K:512 bit times, returns to Step 2
 - longer backoff interval with more collisions

CSMA/CD efficiency

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

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

- efficiency goes to I
 - as t_{prop} goes to 0
 - as t_{trans} goes to infinity
- better performance than ALOHA: and simple, cheap, decentralized!

"Taking turns" MAC protocols

channel partitioning MAC protocols:

- share channel efficiently and fairly at high load
- inefficient at low load: delay in channel access, I/N bandwidth allocated even if only I active node!

random access MAC protocols

- efficient at low load: single node can fully utilize channel
- high load: collision overhead

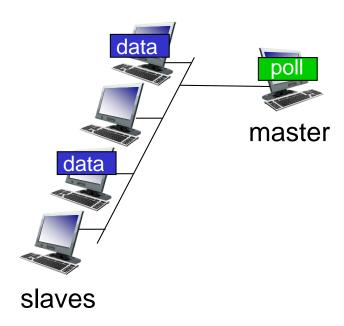
"taking turns" protocols

look for best of both worlds!

"Taking turns" MAC protocols

polling:

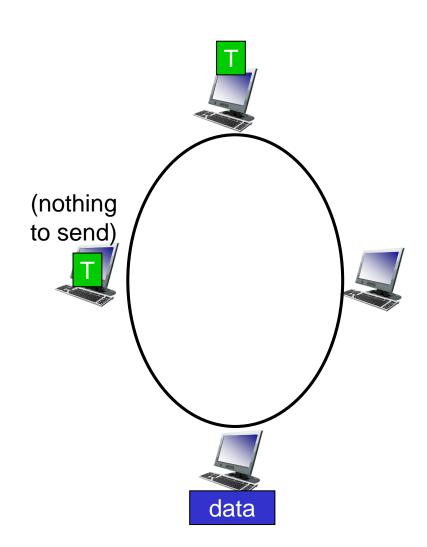
- master node "invites" slave nodes to transmit in turn
- typically used with "dumb" slave devices
- concerns:
 - polling overhead
 - latency
 - single point of failure (master)



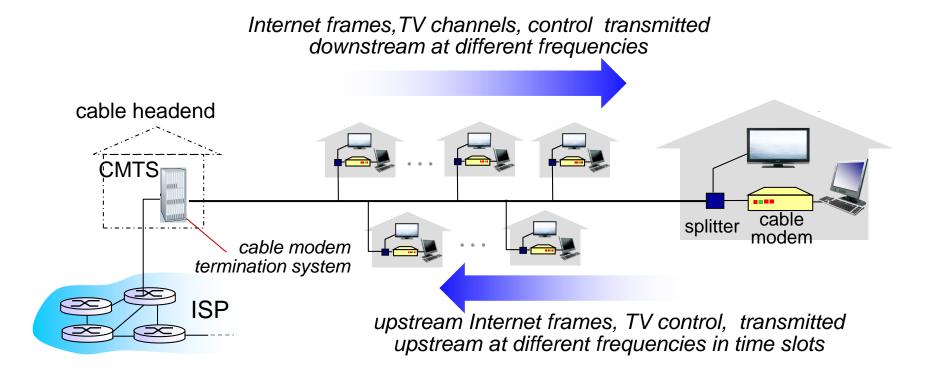
"Taking turns" MAC protocols

token passing:

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

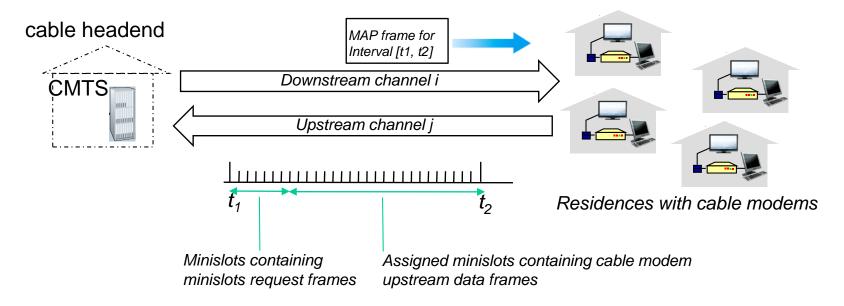


Cable access network



- multiple 40Mbps downstream (broadcast) channels
 - single CMTS transmits into channels
- multiple 30 Mbps upstream channels
 - multiple access: all users contend for certain upstream channel time slots (others assigned)

Cable access network



DOCSIS: data over cable service interface spec

- FDM over upstream, downstream frequency channels
- TDM upstream: some slots assigned, some have contention
 - downstream MAP frame: assigns upstream slots
 - request for upstream slots (and data) transmitted random access (binary backoff) in selected slots

Summary of MAC protocols

- channel partitioning, by time, frequency or code
 - Time Division, Frequency Division
- random access (dynamic),
 - ALOHA, S-ALOHA, CSMA, CSMA/CD
 - carrier sensing: easy in some technologies (wire), hard in others (wireless)
 - CSMA/CD used in Ethernet
 - CSMA/CA used in 802.11
- taking turns
 - polling from central site, token passing
 - bluetooth, FDDI, token ring

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5.4 LANs

- addressing, ARP
- Ethernet
- switches
- VLANS

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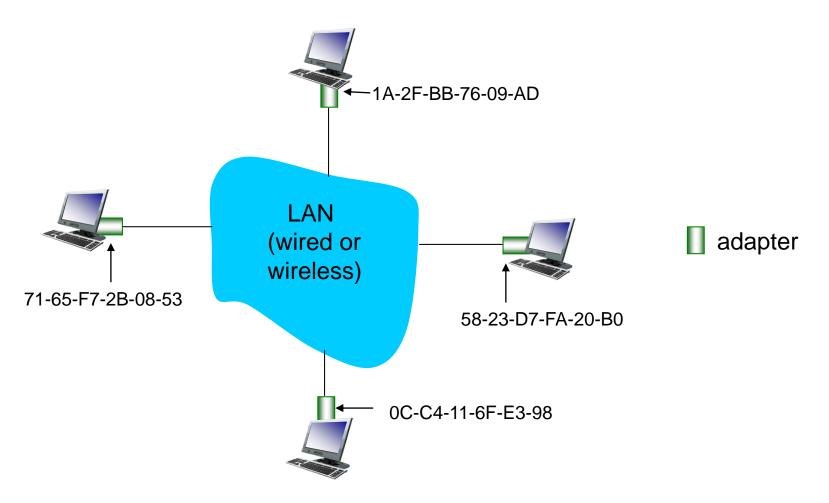
MAC addresses and ARP

- 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 IPaddressing sense)
 - 48 bit MAC address (for most LANs) burned in NIC ROM, also sometimes software settable
 - e.g.: IA-2F-BB-76-09-AD

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

LAN addresses and ARP

each adapter on LAN has unique LAN address

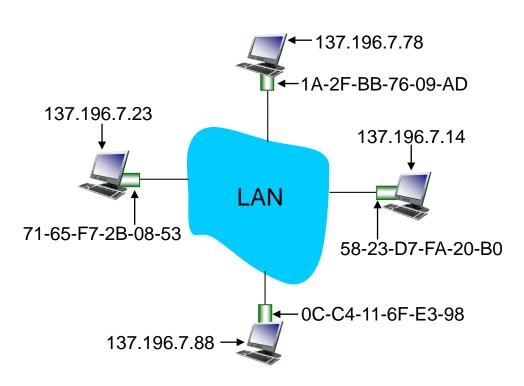


LAN addresses (more)

- MAC address allocation administered by IEEE
- manufacturer buys portion of MAC address space (to assure uniqueness)
- analogy:
 - MAC address: like Social Security 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

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)

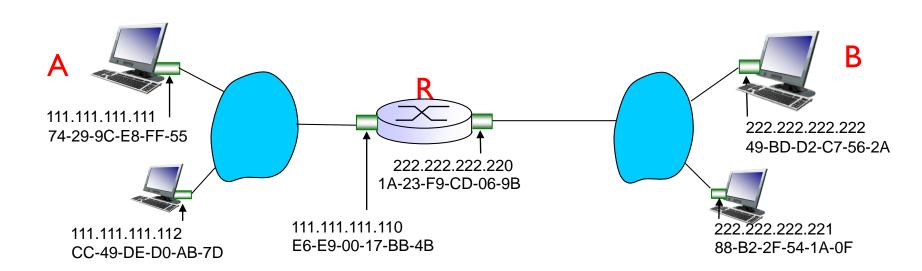
ARP protocol: same LAN

- 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
 - 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)

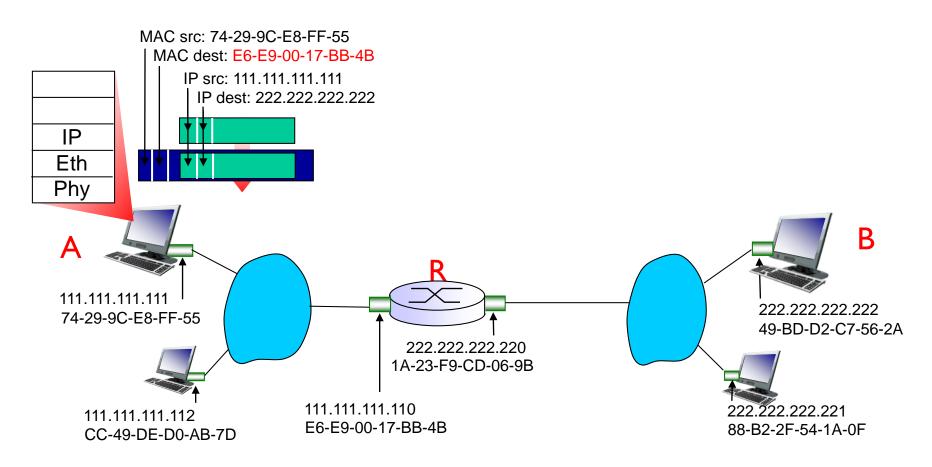
- A caches (saves) IP-to-MAC address pair in its ARP table until information becomes old (times out)
 - soft state: information that times out (goes away) unless refreshed
- ARP is "plug-and-play":
 - nodes create their ARP tables without intervention from net administrator

walkthrough: send datagram from A to B via R

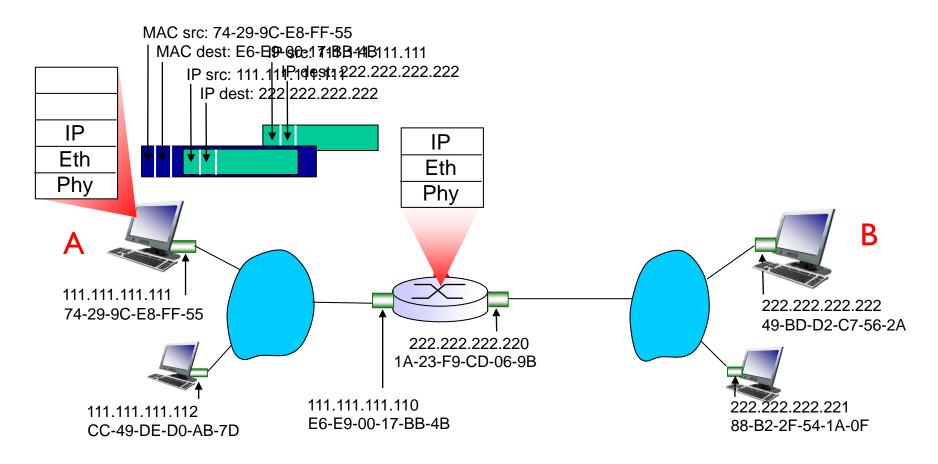
- focus on addressing at IP (datagram) and MAC layer (frame)
- assume A knows B's IP address
- assume A knows IP address of first hop router, R (how?)
- assume A knows R's MAC address (how?)



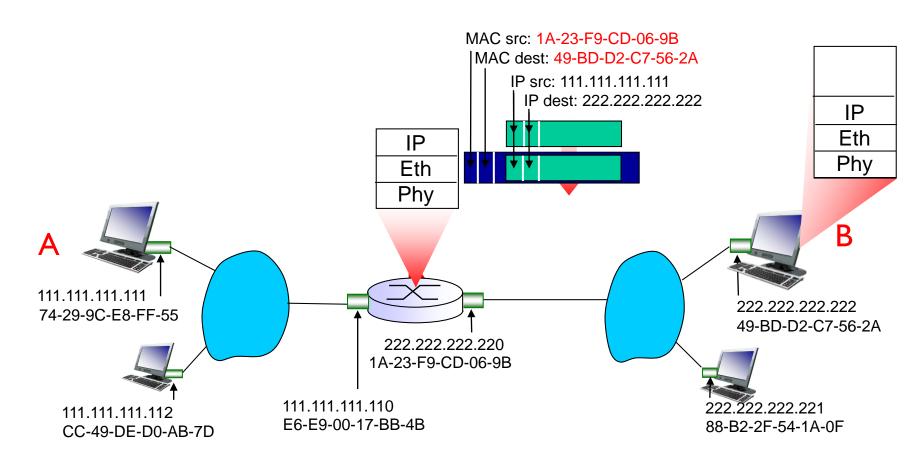
- A creates IP datagram with IP source A, destination B
- A creates link-layer frame with R's MAC address as dest, frame contains A-to-B IP datagram



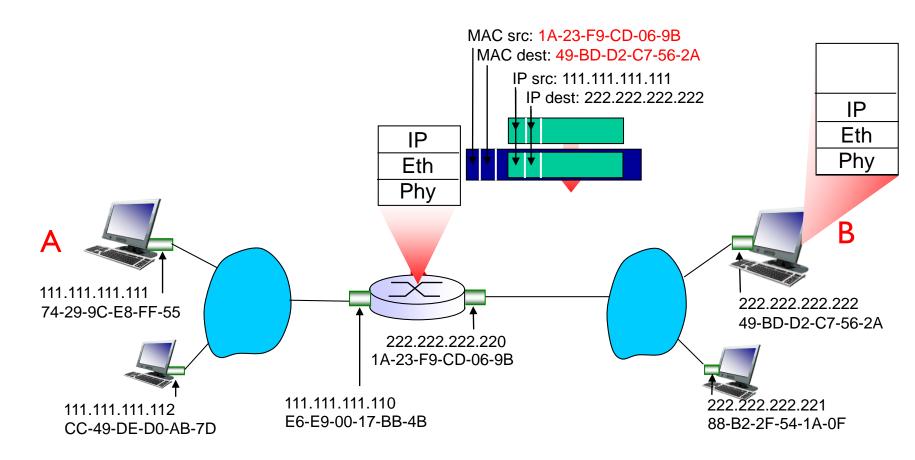
- frame sent from A to R
- frame received at R, datagram removed, passed up to IP



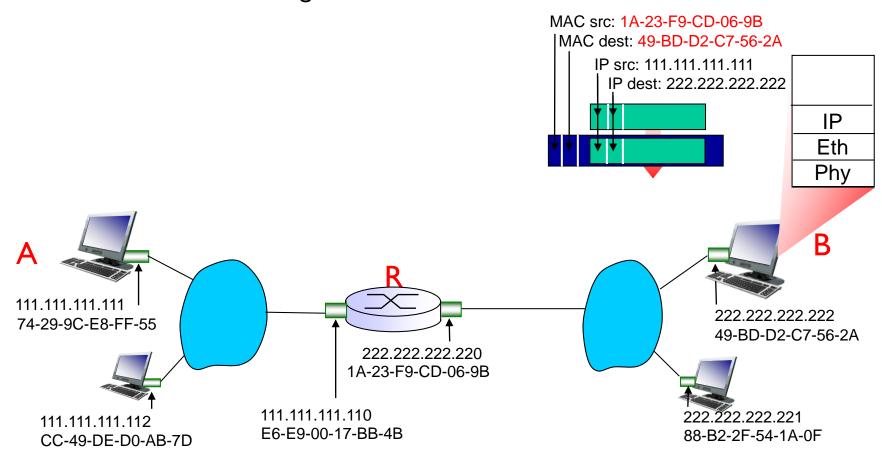
- R forwards datagram with IP source A, destination B
- R creates link-layer frame with B's MAC address as dest, frame contains A-to-B IP datagram



- R forwards datagram with IP source A, destination B
- R creates link-layer frame with B's MAC address as dest, frame contains A-to-B IP datagram



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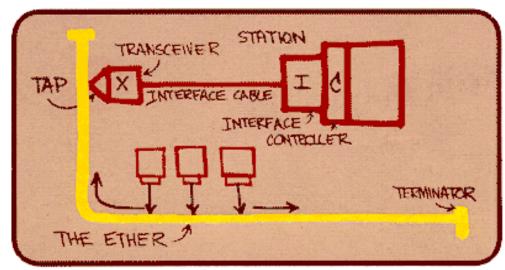
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Ethernet

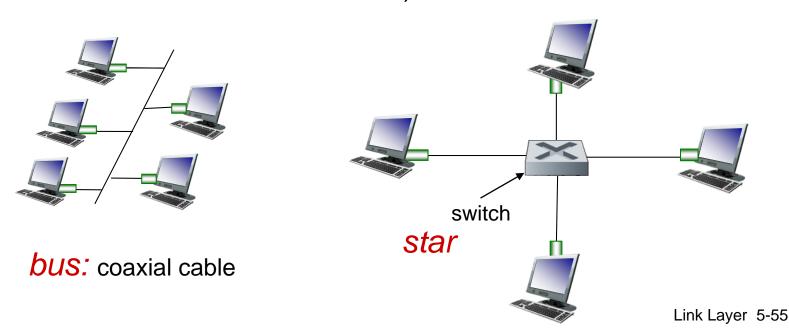
- "dominant" wired LAN technology:
- cheap \$20 for NIC
- first widely used LAN technology
- simpler, cheaper than token LANs and ATM
- kept up with speed race: 10 Mbps 10 Gbps



Metcalfe's Ethernet sketch

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)



Ethernet frame structure

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

| preamble | dest. address | source address | · | data (payload) | CRC |
|----------|------------------|-------------------|---|-------------------|-----|
|----------|------------------|-------------------|---|-------------------|-----|

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

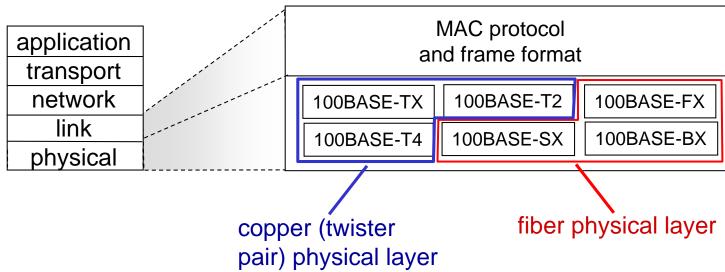


Ethernet: unreliable, connectionless

- connectionless: no handshaking between sending and receiving NICs
- unreliable: receiving NIC doesnt send acks or nacks 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 wth 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, 10G bps
 - different physical layer media: fiber, cable



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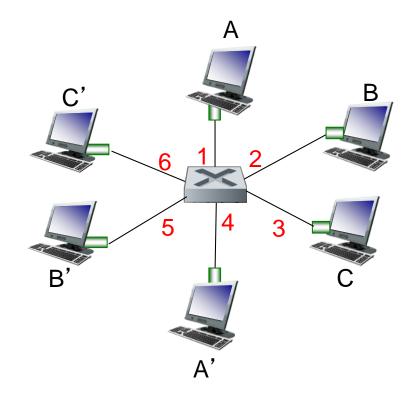
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Ethernet switch

- 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)

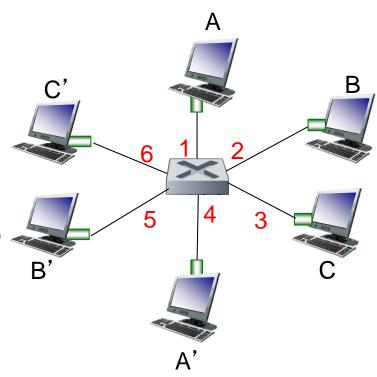
Switch forwarding table

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!

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

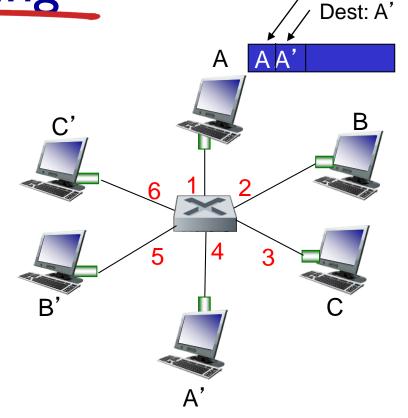
something like a routing protocol?



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

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 |
|----------|-----------|-----|
| Α | 1 | 60 |
| | | |
| | | |

Switch table (initially empty)

Source: A

Switch: frame filtering/forwarding

when frame received at switch:

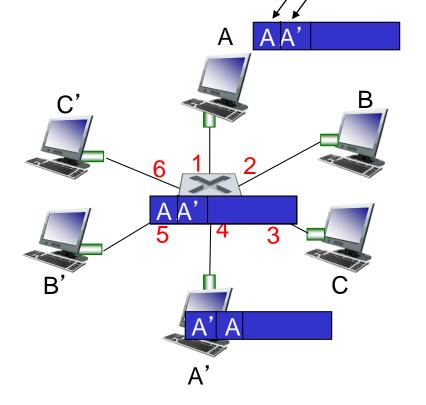
- I. record incoming link, MAC address of sending host
- 2. index switch table using MAC destination address

```
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

Source: A Dest: A'

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

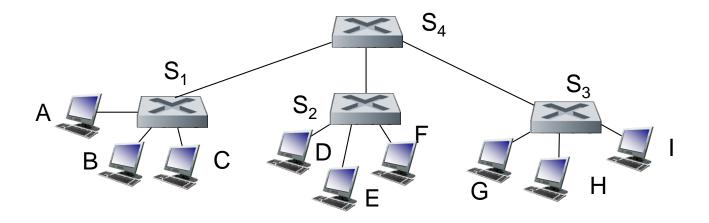


| MAC addr | interface | TTL |
|----------|-----------|-----|
| Α | 1 | 60 |
| A' | 4 | 60 |
| | | |

switch table (initially empty)

Interconnecting switches

switches can be connected together

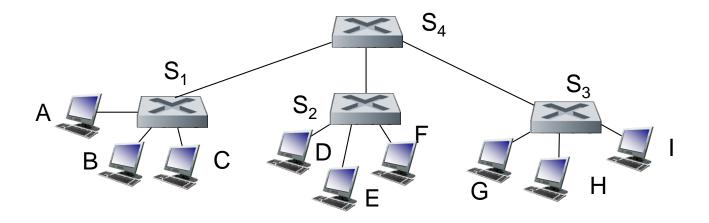


Q: sending from A to G - how does S_1 know to forward frame destined to F via S_4 and S_3 ?

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

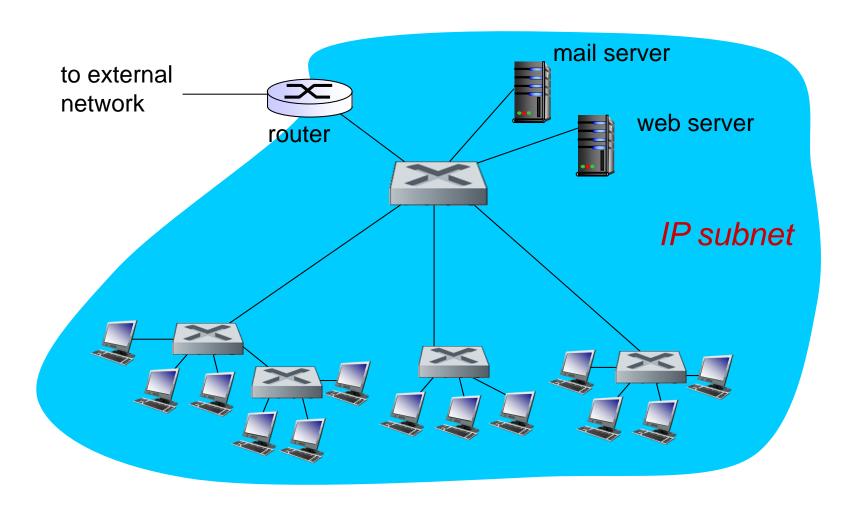
Self-learning multi-switch example

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

Institutional network



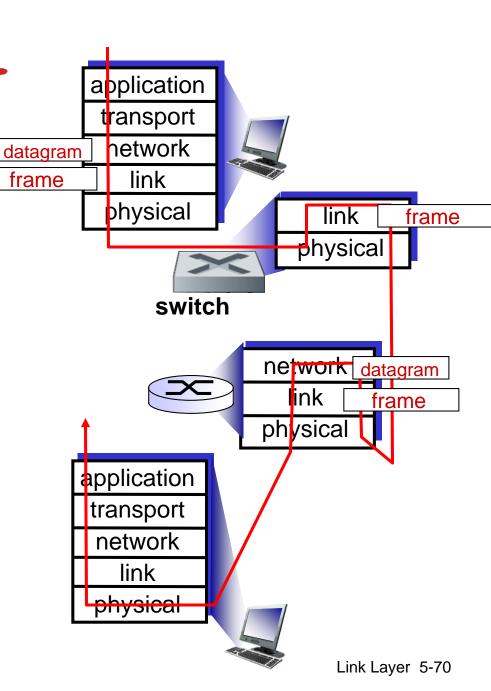
Switches vs. routers

both are store-and-forward:

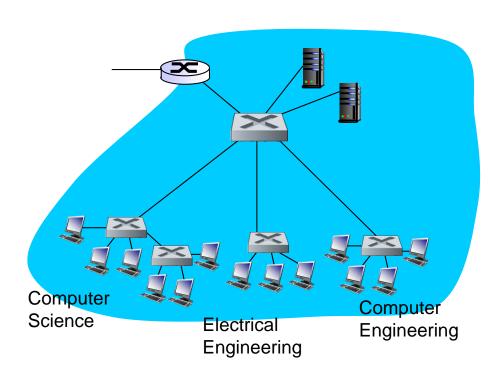
- routers: network-layer devices (examine networklayer headers)
- switches: link-layer devices (examine link-layer headers)

both have forwarding tables:

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



VLANs: motivation



consider:

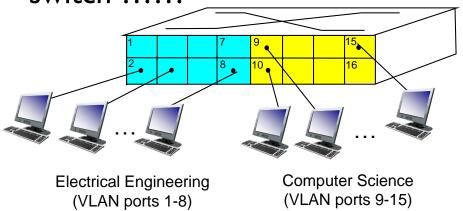
- CS user moves office to EE, but wants connect to CS switch?
- single broadcast domain:
 - all layer-2 broadcast traffic (ARP, DHCP, unknown location of destination MAC address) must cross entire LAN
 - security/privacy, efficiency issues

VLANs

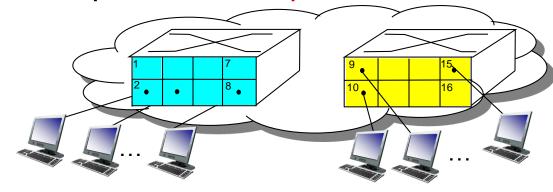
Virtual Local Area Network

switch(es) supporting VLAN capabilities can be configured to define multiple *virtual* LANS over single physical LAN infrastructure.

port-based VLAN: switch ports grouped (by switch management software) so that single physical switch



... operates as multiple virtual switches

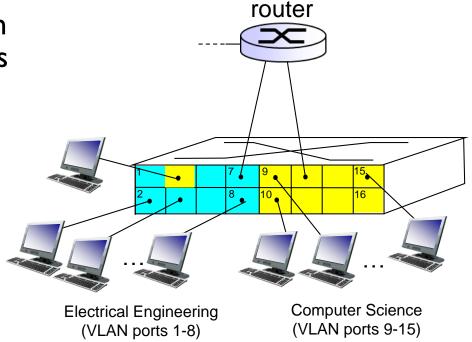


Electrical Engineering (VLAN ports 1-8)

Computer Science (VLAN ports 9-16)

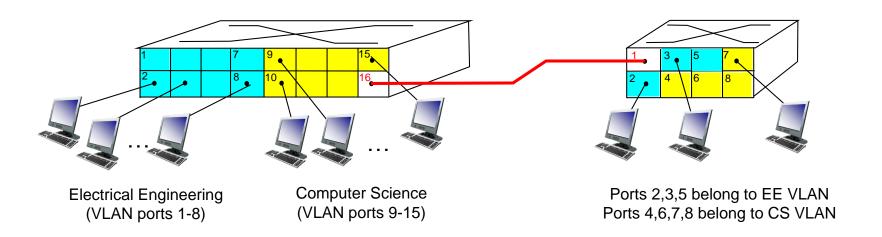
Port-based VLAN

- traffic isolation: frames to/from ports I-8 can only reach ports
 I-8
 - can also define VLAN based on MAC addresses of endpoints, rather than switch port
- dynamic membership: ports can be dynamically assigned among VLANs



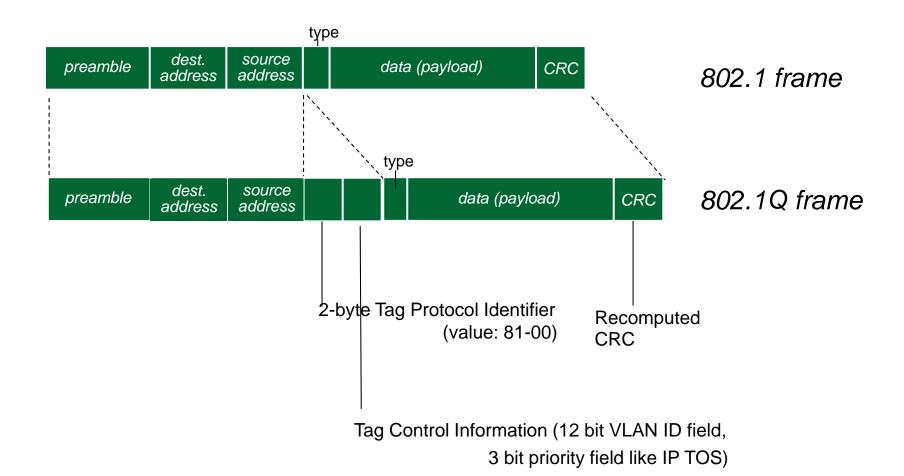
- forwarding between VLANS: done via routing (just as with separate switches)
 - in practice vendors sell combined switches plus routers

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. I frames (must carry VLAN ID info)
 - 802. I q protocol adds/removed additional header fields for frames forwarded between trunk ports

802. I Q VLAN frame format



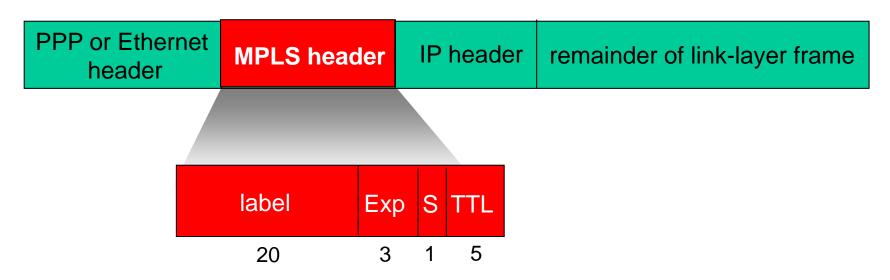
Link layer, LANs: outline

- 5. I introduction, services
- 5.2 error detection, correction
- 5.3 multiple access protocols
- **5.4** LANs
 - addressing, ARP
 - Ethernet
 - switches
 - VLANS

- 5.5 link virtualization: MPLS
- 5.6 data center networking
- 5.7 a day in the life of a web request

Multiprotocol label switching (MPLS)

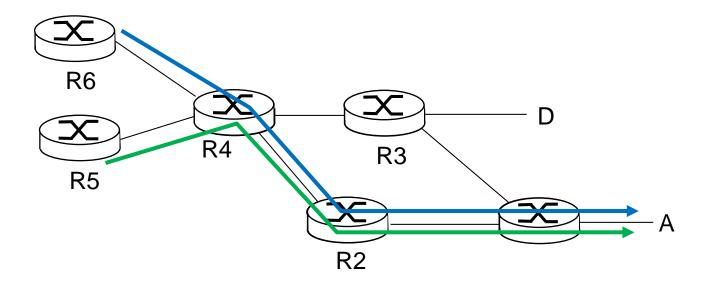
- initial goal: high-speed IP forwarding using fixed length label (instead of IP address)
 - fast lookup using fixed length identifier (rather than shortest prefix matching)
 - borrowing ideas from Virtual Circuit (VC) approach
 - but IP datagram still keeps IP address!



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 (useful for VoIP)

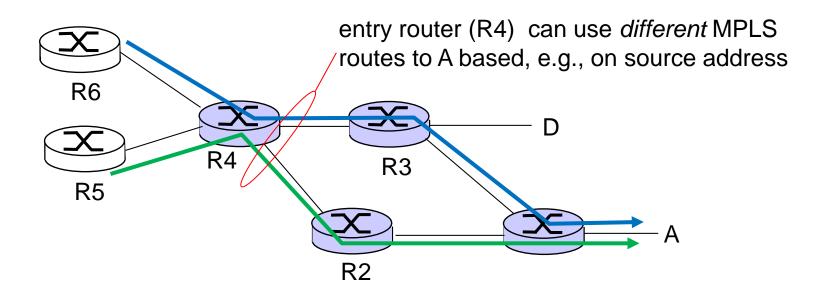
MPLS versus IP paths



IP routing: path to destination determined by destination address alone



MPLS versus IP paths



IP routing: path to destination determined by destination address alone



IP-only router

MPLS routing: path to destination can be based on source and dest. address

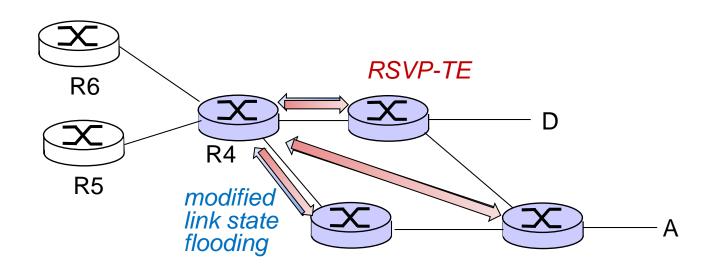


MPLS and IP router

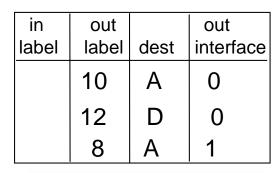
 fast reroute: precompute backup routes in case of link failure

MPLS signaling

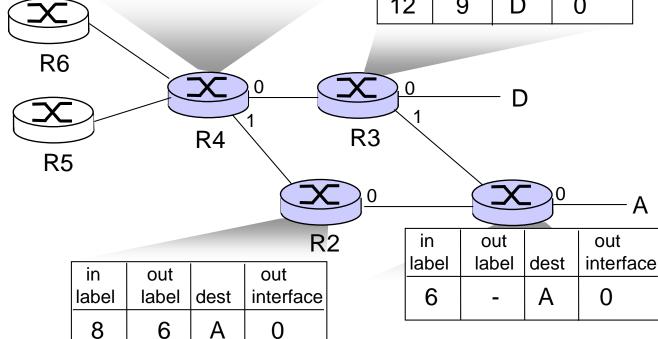
- modify OSPF, IS-IS link-state flooding protocols to carry info used by MPLS routing,
 - e.g., link bandwidth, amount of "reserved" link bandwidth
- entry MPLS router uses RSVP-TE signaling protocol to set up MPLS forwarding at downstream routers



MPLS forwarding tables



| in label | out label | dest | out interface |
|-------------|--------------|------|------------------|
| 10 | 6 | Α | 1 |
| 12 | 9 | D | 0 |



Link layer, LANs: outline

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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)

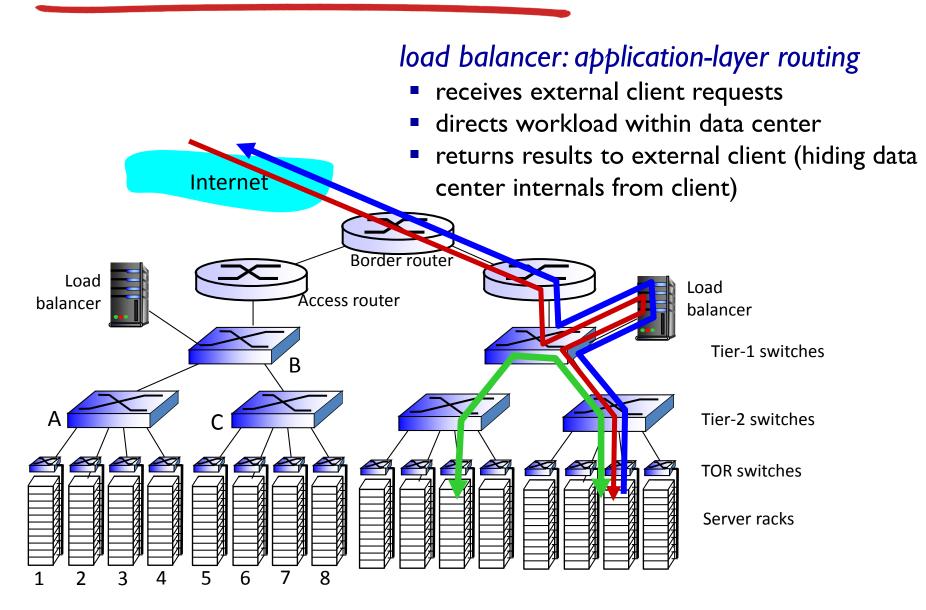
challenges:

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



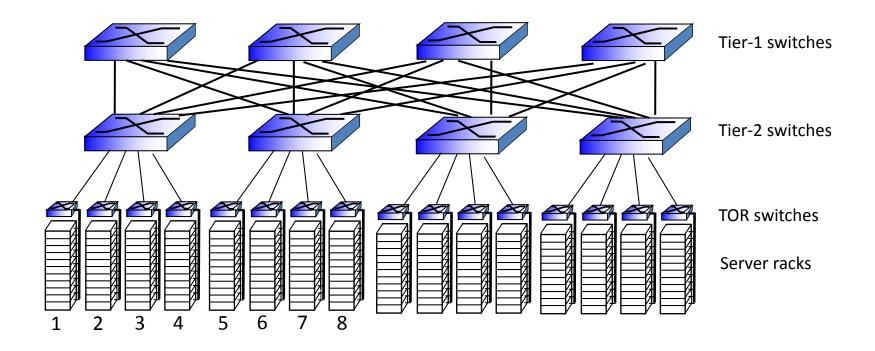
Inside a 40-ft Microsoft container, Chicago data center

Data center networks



Data center networks

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



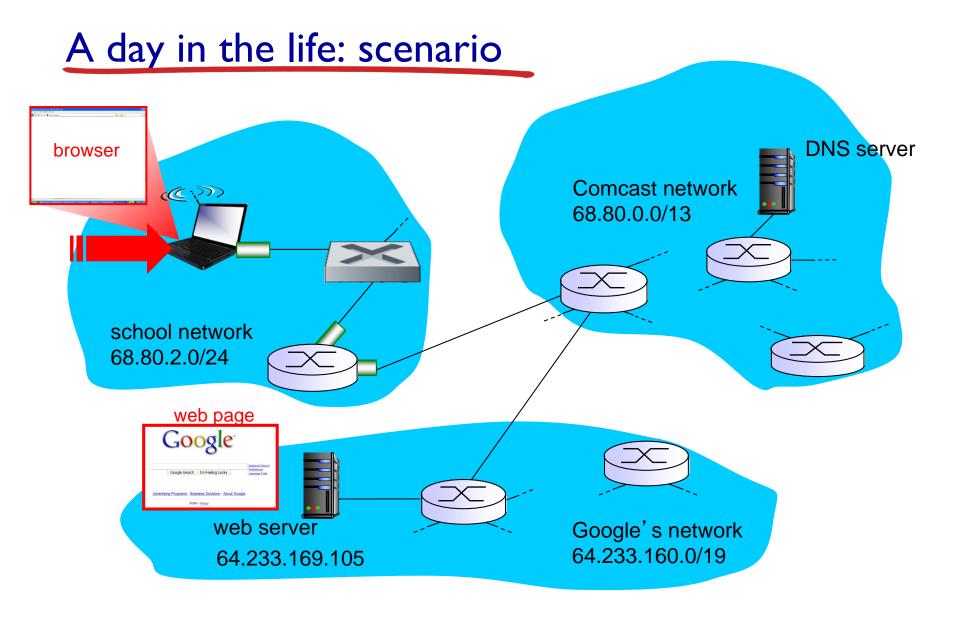
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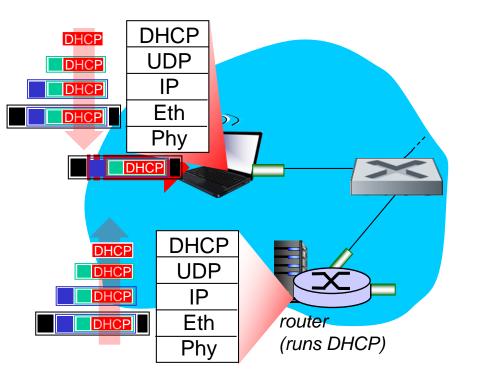
- 5.5 link virtualization: MPLS
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Synthesis: a day in the life of a web request

- 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

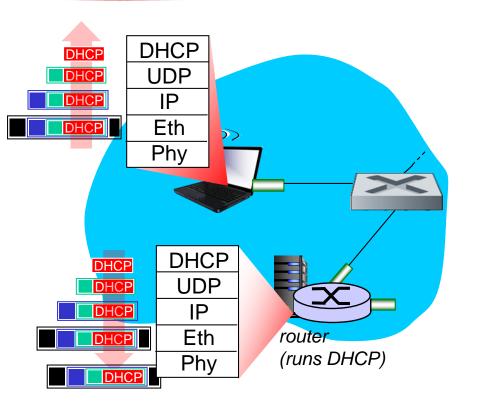


A day in the life... connecting to the Internet



- 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 demuxed to IP demuxed, UDP demuxed to DHCP

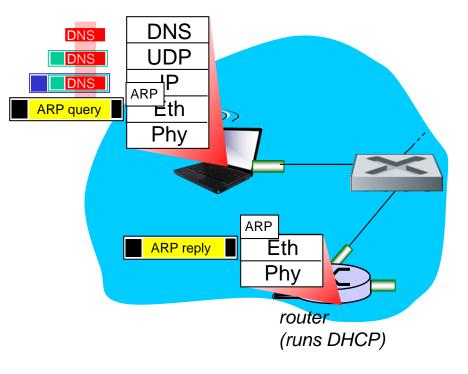
A day in the life... connecting to the Internet



- 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

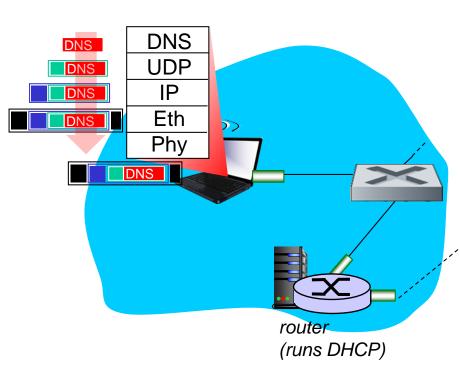
Client now has IP address, knows name & addr of DNS server, IP address of its first-hop router

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

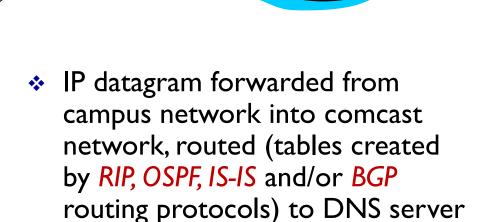


- before sending HTTP request, need IP address of www.google.com:
 DNS
- DNS query created, encapsulated in UDP, encapsulated in IP, encapsulated in Eth. To send frame to router, need MAC address of router interface: ARP
- ARP query broadcast, received by router, which replies with ARP reply giving MAC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



demux'ed to DNS server

<u>DNS</u> UDP

IP

Eth

Phy

Comcast network

68.80.0.0/13

DNS

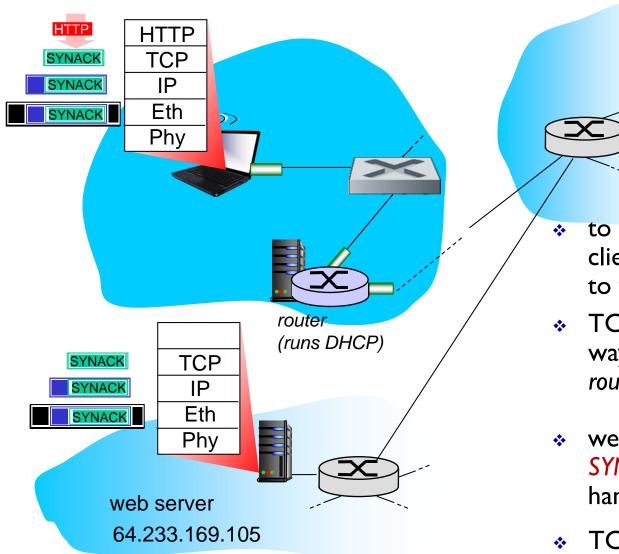
DNS

DNS

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

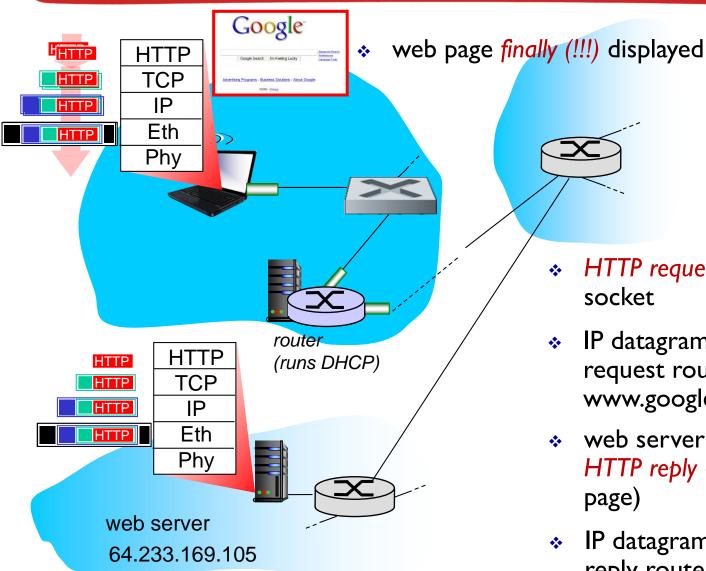
DNS server

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 I 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



- 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

Chapter 5: Summary

- principles behind data link layer services:
 - error detection, correction
 - sharing a broadcast channel: multiple access
 - link layer addressing
- instantiation and implementation of various link layer technologies
 - Ethernet
 - switched LANS, VLANs
 - virtualized networks as a link layer: MPLS
- synthesis: a day in the life of a web request

Chapter 5: let's take a breath

- journey down protocol stack complete (except PHY)
- solid understanding of networking principles, practice
- could stop here but lots of interesting topics!
 - wireless
 - multimedia
 - security
 - network management