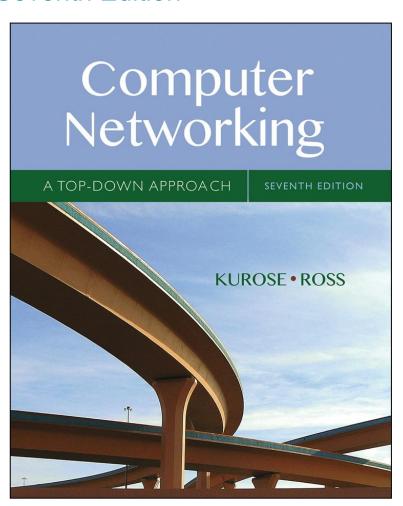
Computer Networking: A Top Down Approach

Seventh Edition



Chapter 6

The Link Layer and LANs



Link Layer and LANs

our goals:

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



Learning Objectives (1 of 9)

- 6.1 introduction, services
- **6.2** error detection, correction
- **6.3** multiple access protocols
- **6.4** LANs
 - addressing, ARP
 - Ethernet
 - switches
 - VLANS
- **6.5** link virtualization: MPLS
- 6.6 data center networking
- 6.7 a day in the life of a web request

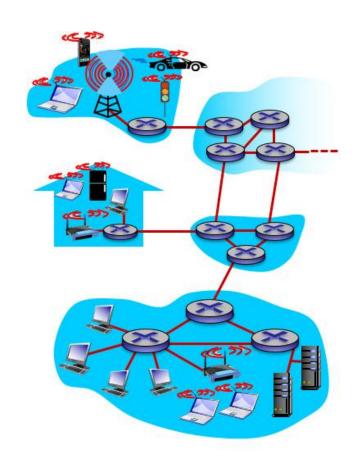


Link Layer: Introduction

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 = communicationlink
- transportation mode = link layer protocol
- travel agent = routing algorithm



Link Layer Services (1 of 2)

framing, link access:

- encapsulate datagram into frame, adding header, trailer
- channel access if shared medium
- "MAC" addresses used in frame headers to identify source, destination
 - 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 (2 of 2)

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

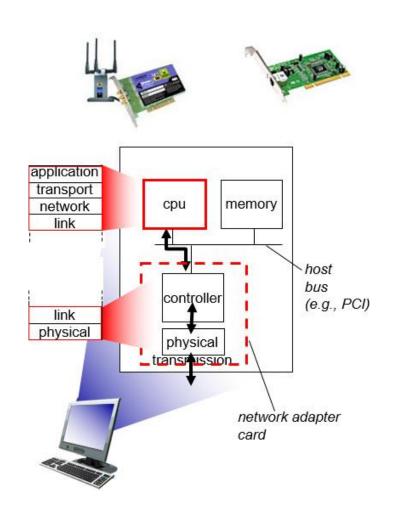
half-duplex and full-duplex

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



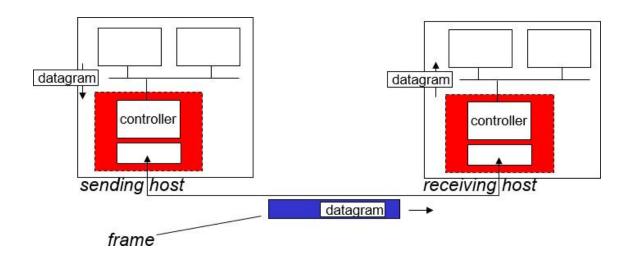
Where is the Link Layer Implemented?

- 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



Learning Objectives (2 of 9)

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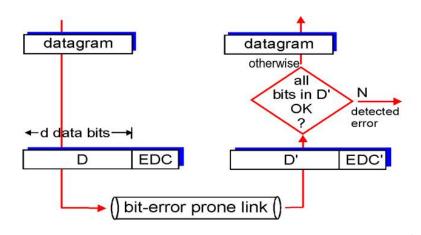


Error Detection

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

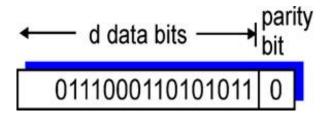




Parity Checking

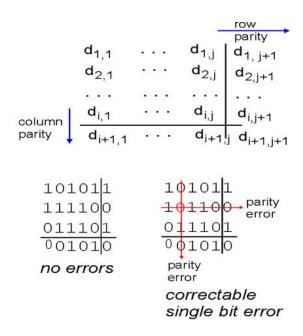
single bit parity:

detect single bit errors



two-dimensional bit parity:

detect and correct single bit errors



^{*} Check out the online interactive exercises for more examples: http://gaia.cs.umass.edu/kurose ross/interactive/



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 (1's complement sum) of segment contents
- sender puts checksum value into UDP checksum field

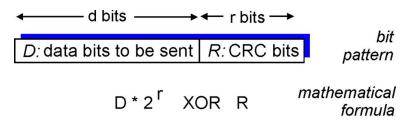
receiver:

- 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

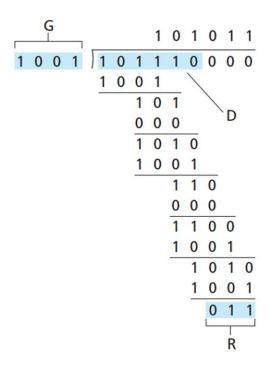
want: D.2^rXOR R = nG

equivalently: D.2^r = nGXOR R

equivalently: if we divide D.2"

by G, want remainder R to satisfy:

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



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



Learning Objectives (3 of 9)

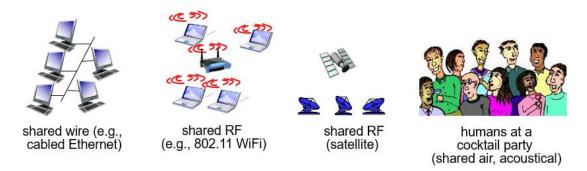
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Multiple Access Links, Protocols

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 I AN





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:

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



MAC Protocols: Taxonomy

three broad classes:

channel partitioning

- divide channel into smaller "pieces" (time slots, frequency, code)
- allocate piece to node for exclusive use

random access

- channel not divided, allow collisions
- "recover" from collisions

"taking turns"

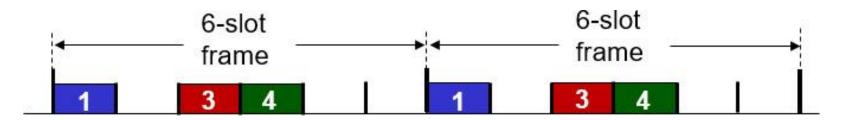
 nodes take turns, but nodes with more to send can take longer turns



Channel Partitioning MAC Protocols: TDMA

TDMA: time division multiple access

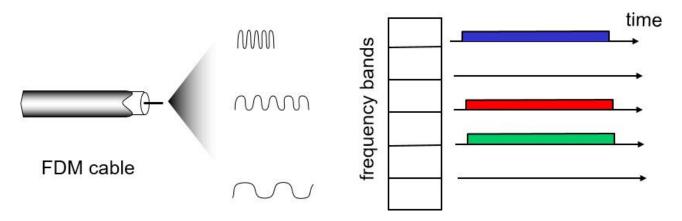
- access to channel in "rounds"
- each station gets fixed length slot (length = packet transmission time) in each round
- unused slots go idle
- example: 6-station LAN, 1,3,4 have packets to send, slots 2,5,6 idle



Channel Partitioning MAC Protocols: FDMA

FDMA: frequency division multiple access

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





Random Access Protocols

- when node has packet to send
 - transmit at full channel data rate R.
 - no a priori coordination among nodes
- two or more transmitting nodes → "collision",
- random access 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 (1 of 2)

assumptions:

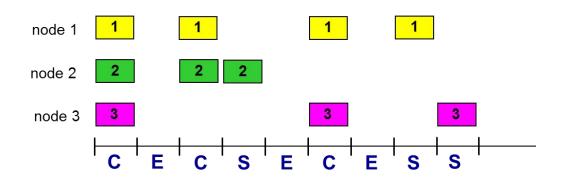
- all frames same size
- time divided into equal size slots (time to transmit 1 frame)
- nodes start to transmit only slot beginning
- nodes are synchronized
- if 2 or more nodes transmit in slot, all nodes detect collision

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



Slotted ALOHA (2 of 2)



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 (1 of 2)

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 = $NP (1 p)^{n-1}$



Slotted ALOHA: Efficiency (2 of 2)

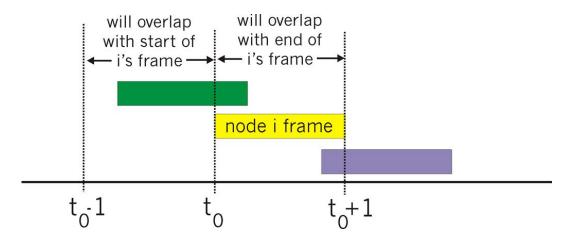
- max efficiency: find p^* that maximizes $NP(1-P)^{N-1}$
- for many nodes, take limit of $NP^* (1-P^*)^{N-1}$
- as N goes to infinity, gives: $=\frac{1}{e}=.37$

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 t₀ collides with other frames sent in [t₀-1,t₀+1]





Pure ALOHA Efficiency

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

P(no other node transmits in $[t_0-1,t_0]$

P(no other node transmits in $[t_0-1,t_0]$

$$= p.(1-p)N-1.(1-p)N-1$$

$$= p.(1-p)2(N-1)$$

... choosing optimum p and then letting $n^{\to\infty}$

$$= 1/(2e) = .18$$

even worse than slotted Aloha!



CSMA (Carrier Sense Multiple Access)

CSMA: listen before transmit:

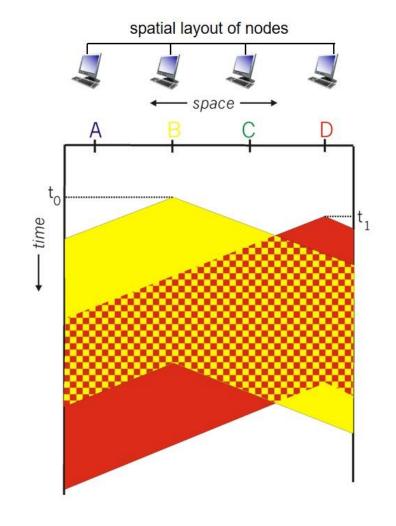
if channel sensed idle: transmit entire frame

- 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





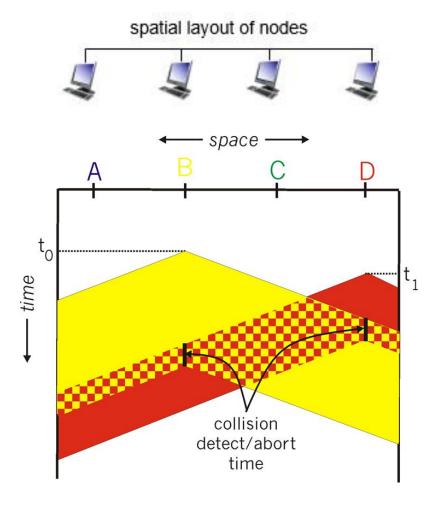
CSMA/CD (Collision Detection) (1 of 2)

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) (2 of 2)





Ethernet CSMA/CD Algorithm

- 1. 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!
- If NIC detects another transmission while transmitting, aborts and sends jam signal
- 5. After aborting, NIC enters binary (exponential) backoff:
 - after *m*th 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

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

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

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



"Taking Turns" MAC Protocols (1 of 3)

channel partitioning MAC protocols:

- share channel efficiently and fairly at high load
- inefficient at low load: delay in channel access, 1/N bandwidth allocated even if only 1 active node!

random access MAC protocols

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

"taking turns" protocols

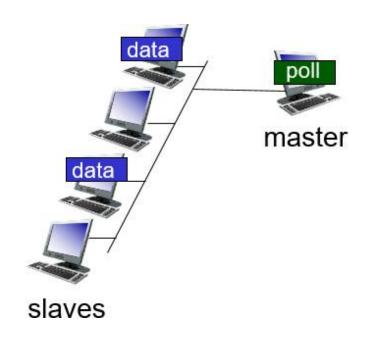
look for best of both worlds!



"Taking Turns" MAC Protocols (2 of 3)

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)np

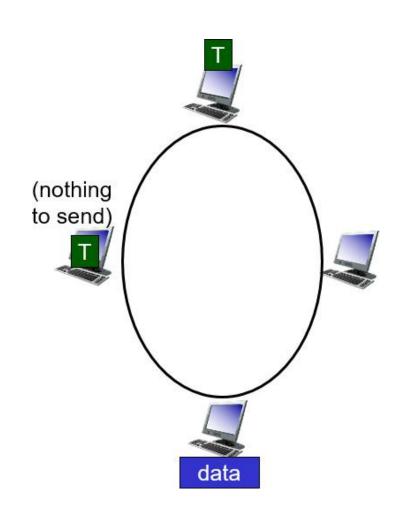




"Taking Turns" MAC Protocols (3 of 3)

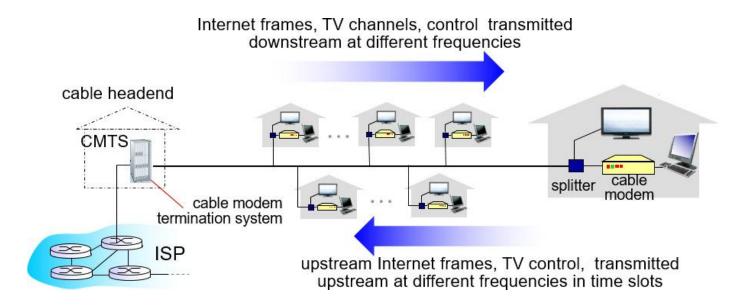
token passing:

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





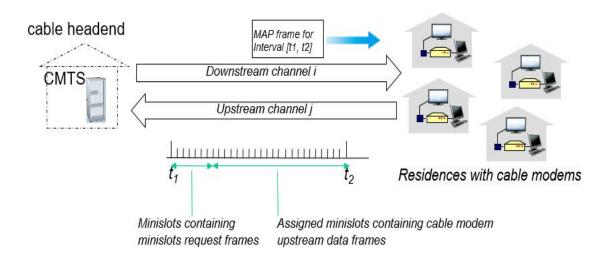
Cable Access Network (1 of 2)



- multiple 40 Mbps 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 (2 of 2)



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



Learning Objectives (4 of 9)

- **6.1** introduction, services
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 - addressing, ARP
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MAC Addresses and ARP

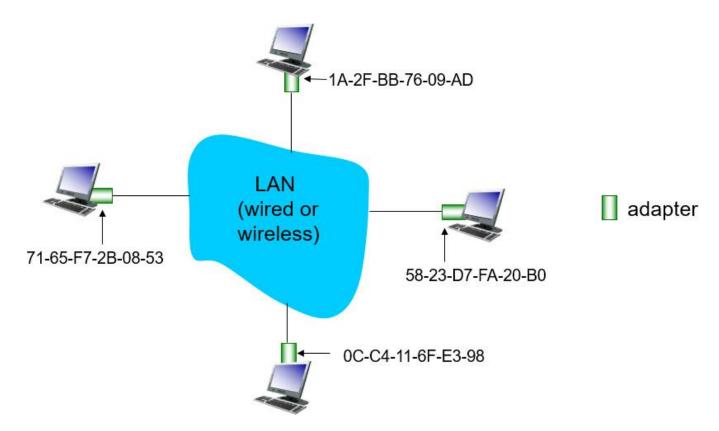
- 32-bit IP address:
 - network-layer address for interface
 - used for layer 3 (network layer) forwarding
- MAC (or LAN or physical or Ethernet) address:
 - function: used 'locally" to get frame from one interface to another physically-connected interface (same network, in I P-addressing sense)
 - 48 bit MAC address (for most LANs) burned in NIC ROM, also sometimes software settable
 - e.g.: 1 A-2 F-BB-76-09-AD

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



LAN Addresses and ARP

each adapter on LAN has unique LAN address





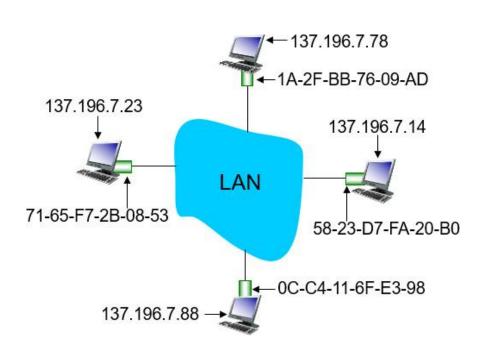
LAN Addresses

- MAC address allocation administered by IEEE
- manufacturer buys portion of MAC address space (to assure uniqueness)
- analogy:
 - MAC address: like Social Security Number
 - IP address: like postal address
- MAC flat address → portability
 - can move 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 (1 of 2)

- 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
 - destination 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)



ARP Protocol: Same LAN (2 of 2)

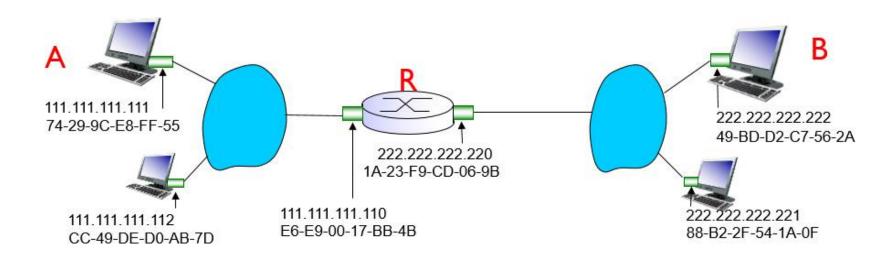
- A caches (saves) IP-to-MAC address pair in its ARP table until information becomes old (times out)
 - soft state: information that times out (goes away) unless refreshed
- ARP is "plug-and-play":
 - nodes create their ARP tables without intervention from net administrator



Addressing: Routing to Another LAN (1 of 5)

walkthrough: send datagram from A to B via R

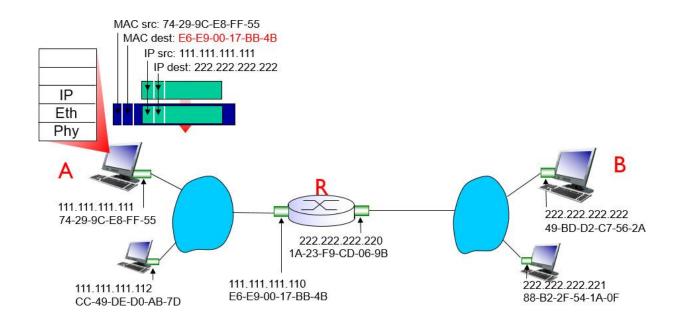
- focus on addressing at IP (datagram) and MAC layer (frame)
- assume A knows B's IP address
- assume A knows IP address of first hop router, R (how?)
- assume A knows R's MAC address (how?)





Addressing: Routing to Another LAN (2 of 5)

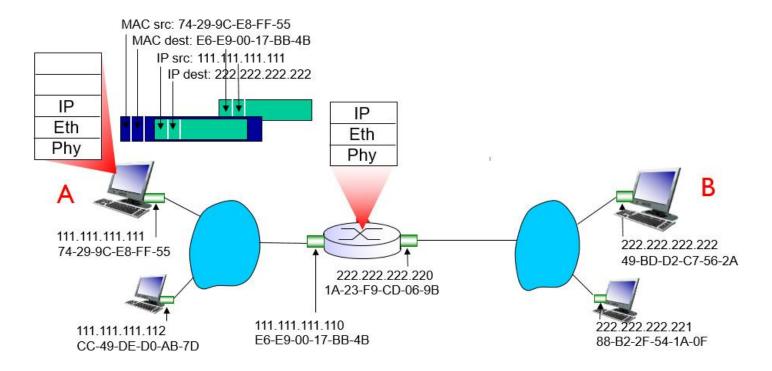
- A creates IP datagram with IP source A, destination B
- A creates link-layer frame with R's MAC address as destination address, frame contains A-to-B IP datagram





Addressing: Routing to Another LAN (3 of 5)

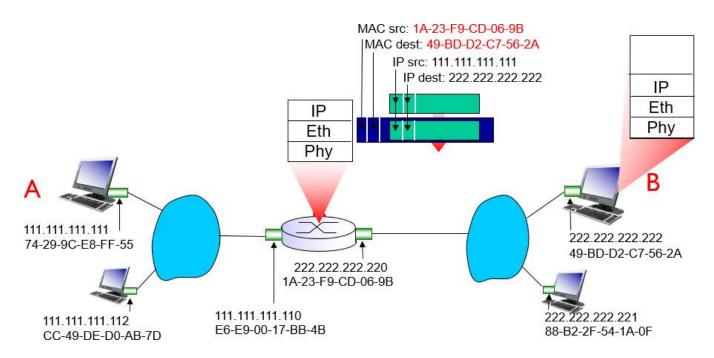
- frame sent from A to R
- frame received at R, datagram removed, passed up to IP





Addressing: Routing to Another LAN (4 of 5)

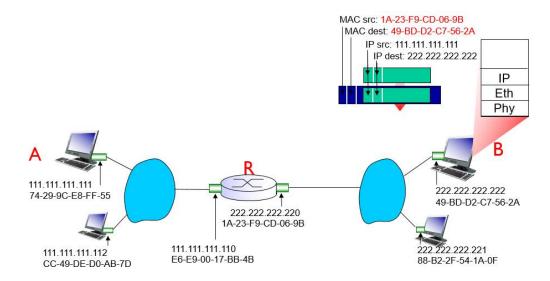
- R forwards datagram with IP source A, destination B
- R creates link-layer frame with B's MAC address as destination address, frame contains A-to-B IP datagram





Addressing: Routing to Another LAN (5 of 5)

- 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



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



Learning Objectives (5 of 9)

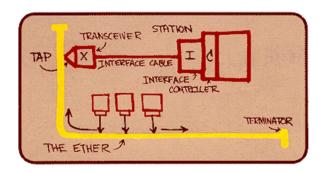
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Ethernet

"dominant" wired LAN technology:

- single chip, multiple speeds (e.g., Broadcom BCM5761)
- first widely used LAN technology
- simpler, cheap
- kept up with speed race: 10 Mbps 10 Gbps



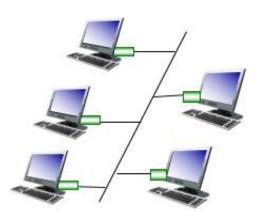
Metcalfe's Ethernet sketch

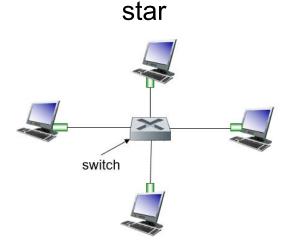


Ethernet: Physical Topology

- 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)

bus: coaxial cable

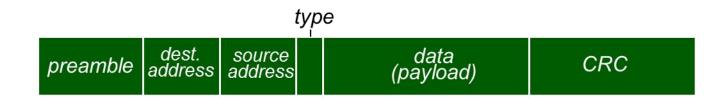






Ethernet Frame Structure (1 of 2)

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



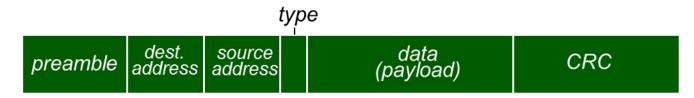
preamble:

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



Ethernet Frame Structure (2 of 2)

- 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





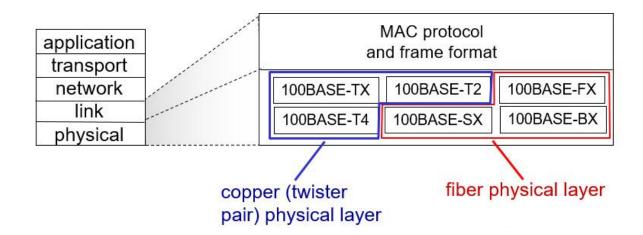
Ethernet: Unreliable, Connectionless

- connectionless: no handshaking between sending and receiving NICs
- unreliable: receiving NIC doesn't 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 with binary backoff



802.3 Ethernet Standards: Link & Physical Layers

- many different Ethernet standards
 - common MAC protocol and frame format
 - different speeds: 2 Mbps, 10 Mbps, 100 Mbps, 1Gbps,
 10 Gbps, 40 Gbps
 - different physical layer media: fiber, cable





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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

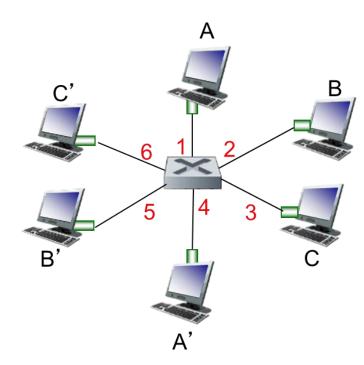
transparent

- 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)



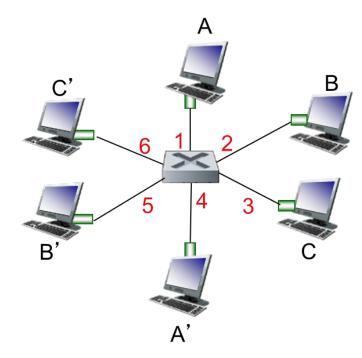
Switch Forwarding Table

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?

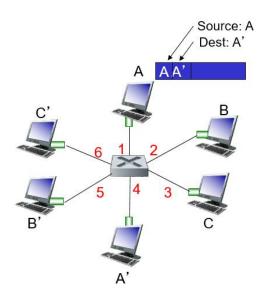


switch with six interfaces (1,2,3,4,5,6)



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
А	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

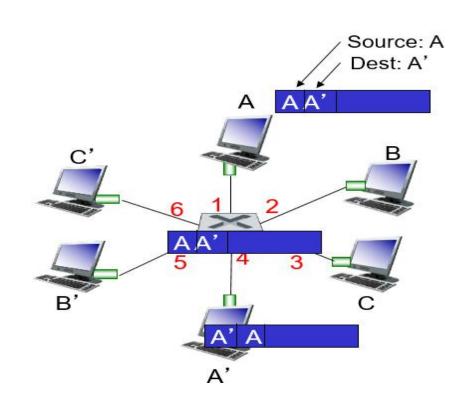
```
then {
  if destination on segment from which frame arrived
     then drop frame
     else forward frame on interface indicated by entry
  }
  else flood /* forward on all interfaces except arriving
     interface */
```



Self-Learning, Forwarding: Example

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

MAC addr	interface	TTL
Α	1	60
A'	4	60

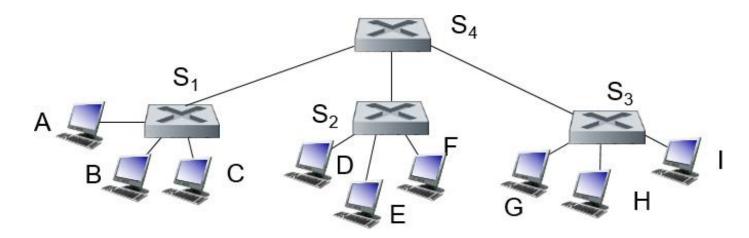


switch table (initially empty)



Interconnecting Switches

self-learning switches can be connected together:



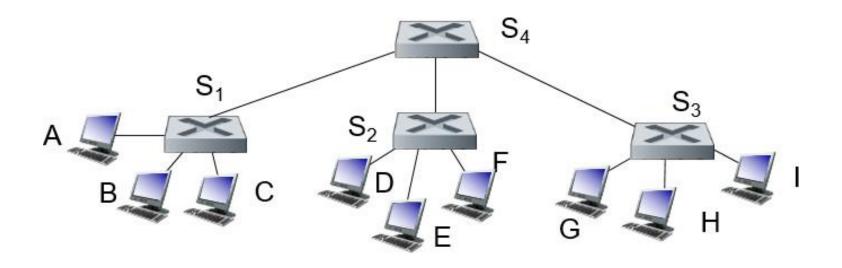
Q: sending from A to G - how does S_1 know to forward frame destined to G via S_4 and S_3 ?

 A: self learning! (works exactly the same as in singleswitch case!)



Self-Learning Multi-Switch Example

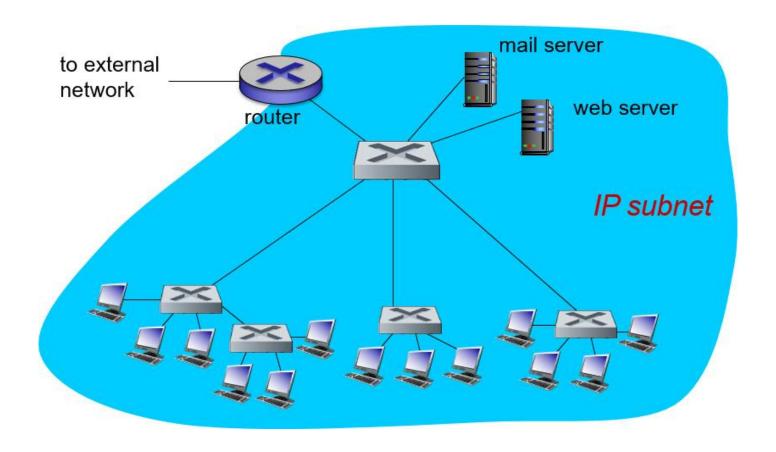
Suppose C sends frame to I, I responds to C



Q: show switch tables and packet forwarding in S₁, S₂, S₃,
 S₄



Institutional Network





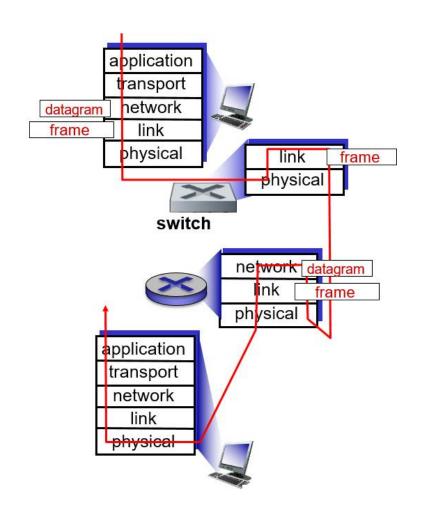
Switches vs. Routers

both are store-and-forward:

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

both have forwarding tables:

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

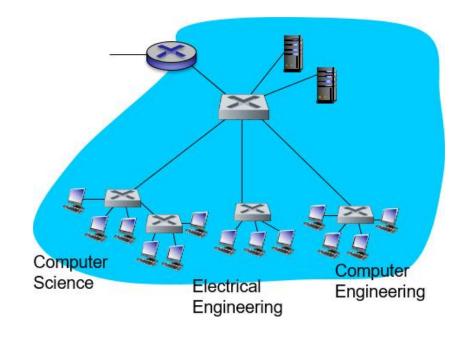




VLANs: Motivation

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



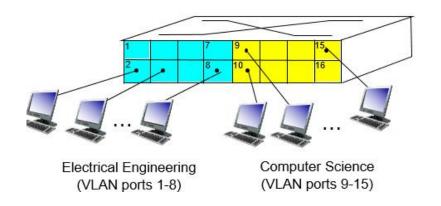


VLANs

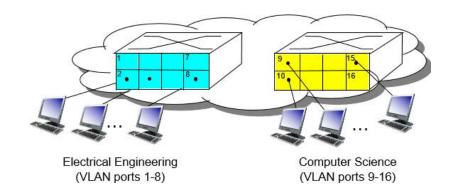
Virtual Local Area Network

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



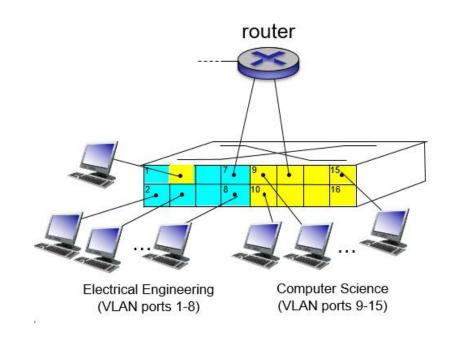
... operates as **multiple** virtual switches





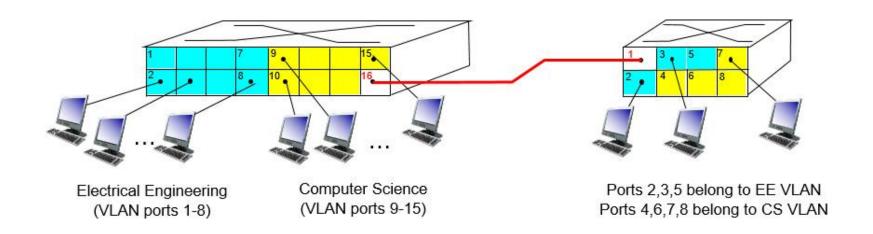
Port-Based VLAN

- 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





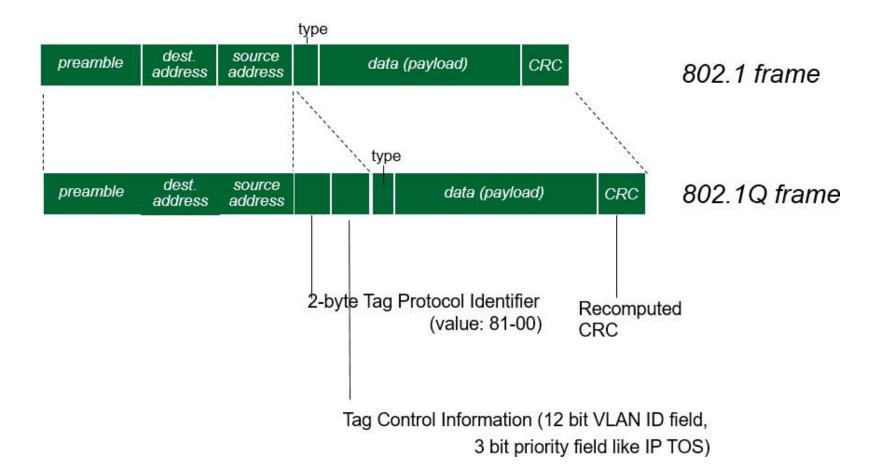
VLANS Spanning Multiple Switches



- 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





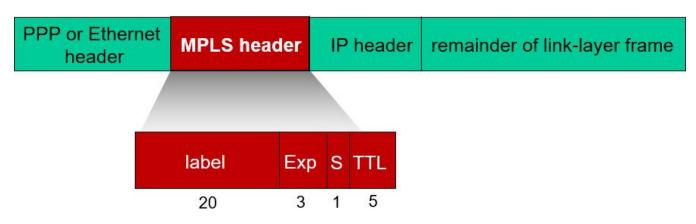
Learning Objectives (7 of 9)

- **6.1** introduction, services
- **6.2** error detection, correction
- **6.3** multiple access protocols
- **6.4** LANs
 - addressing, ARP
 - Ethernet
 - switches
 - VLANS
- 6.5 link virtualization: MPLS
- 6.6 data center networking
- 6.7 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!



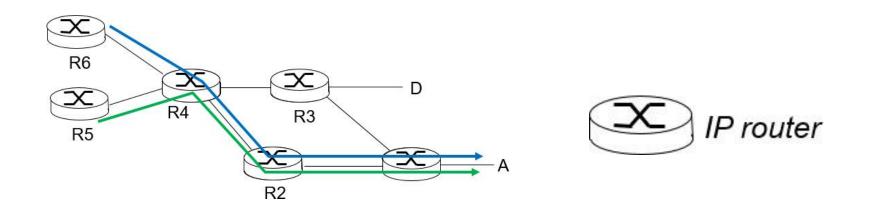


MPLS Capable Routers

- 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)



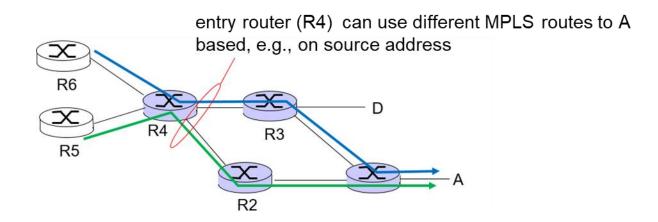
MPLS Versus IP Paths (1 of 2)



 IP routing: path to destination determined by destination address alone



MPLS Versus IP Paths (2 of 2)

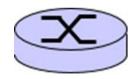


 IP routing: path to destination determined by destination address alone



IP-only router

- MPLS routing: path to destination can be based on source and destination address
 - fast reroute: precompute backup routes in case of link failure

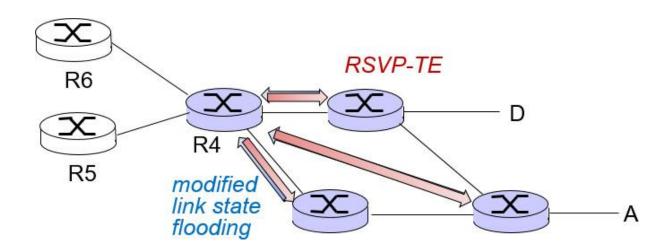


MPLS and IP router



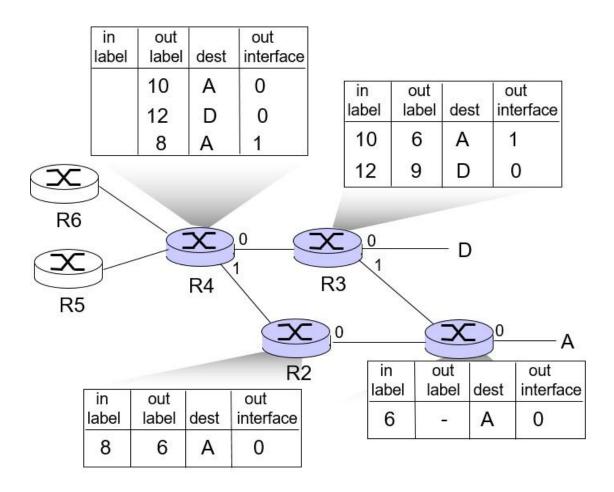
MPLS Signaling

- modify OSPF, IS-IS link-state flooding protocols to carry infoused 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





Learning Objectives (8 of 9)

- **6.1** introduction, services
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Data Center Networks (1 of 3)

- 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

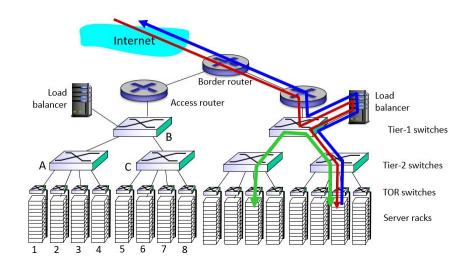


Inside a 40-f t Microsoft container, Chicago data center



Data Center Networks (2 of 3)

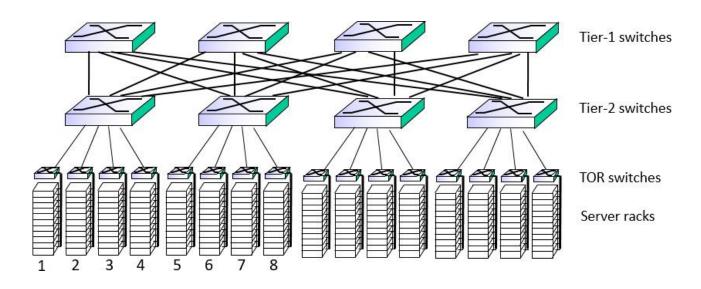
- load balancer: application-layer routing
 - receives external client requests
 - directs workload within data center
 - returns results to external client (hiding data center internals from client)





Data Center Networks (3 of 3)

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





Learning Objectives (9 of 9)

- **6.1** introduction, services
- **6.2** error detection, correction
- **6.3** multiple access protocols
- **6.4** LANs
 - addressing, ARP
 - Ethernet
 - switches
 - VLANS
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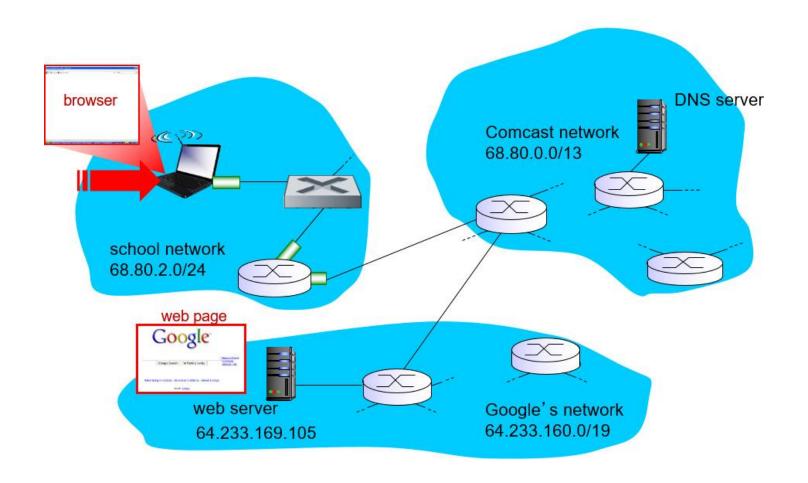


Synthesis: A Day in the Life of a Web Request

- 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 <u>www.google.com</u>



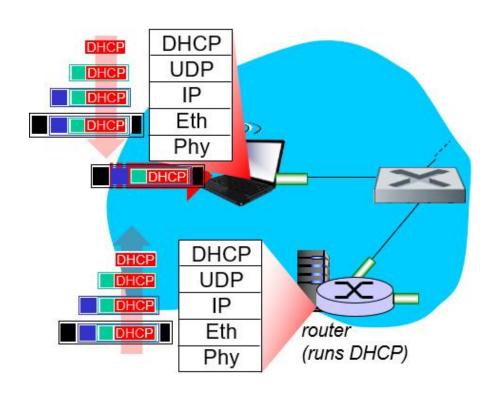
A Day in the Life: Scenario





A Day in the Life... Connecting to the Internet (1 of 3)

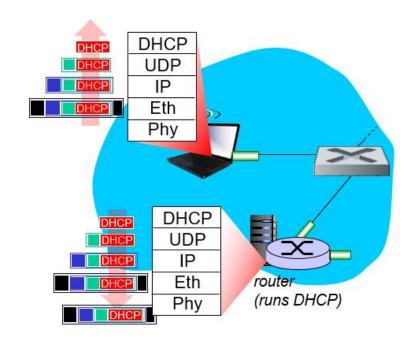
- connecting laptop needs to get its own IP address, addr of first-hop router, addr of DNS server: use **DHCP**
- DHCP request encapsulated in UDP, encapsulated in IP, encapsulated in 802.3 Ethernet
- Ethernet frame broadcast (dest: FFFFFFFFFFFF) on LAN, received at router running DHCP server
- Ethernet demuxed to IP demuxed, UDP demuxed to D HCP





A Day in the Life... Connecting to the Internet (2 of 3)

- DHCP server formulates DHCP A
 CK 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

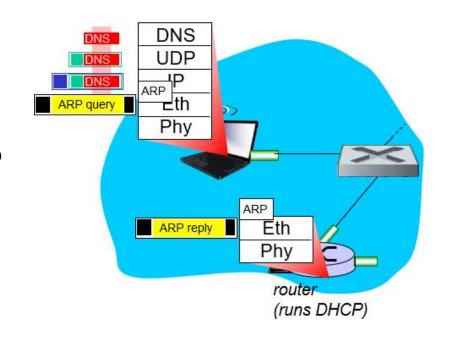


Client now has IP address, knows name & addr of DNS server, IP address of its first-hop router



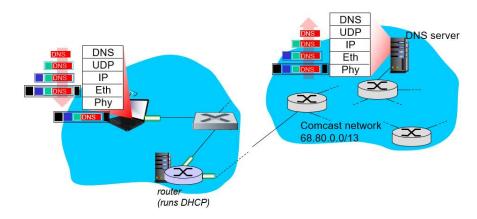
A Day in the Life... Connecting to the Internet (3 of 3)

- 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

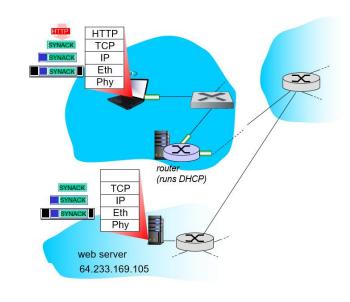


- IP datagram forwarded from campus network into Comcast network, routed (tables created by RIP, OSPF, IS–IS and/or BGP routing protocols) to DNS server
- demuxed to DNS server
- DNS server replies to client with IP address of <u>www.google.com</u>
- IP datagram containing DNS query forwarded via LAN switch from client to 1st hop router



A Day in the Life...TCP Connection Carrying HTTP

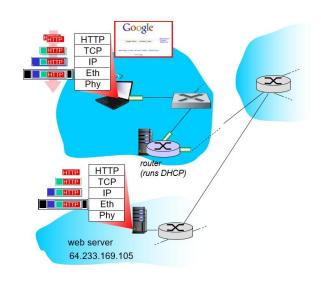
- to send HTTP request, client first opens TCP socket to web server
- TCP SYN segment (step 1 in 3-way handshake) inter-domain routed to web server
- web server responds with TCP SYNACK (step 2 in 3-way handshake)
- TCP connection established!





A Day in the Life... HTTP Request/Reply

- 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
- web page finally (!!!) displayed





Chapter 6: 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 6: 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



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