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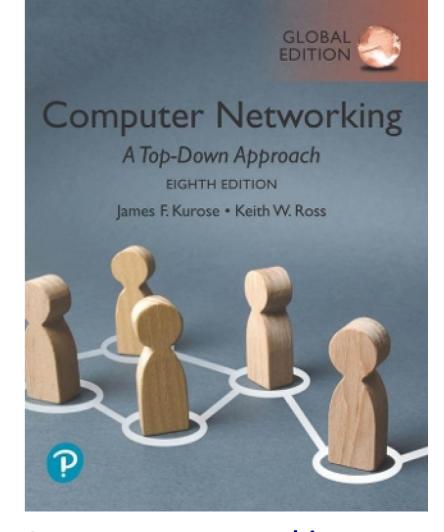
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Computer Networking: A Top-Down Approach

8th edition Jim Kurose, Keith Ross Pearson, 2020

Link layer and LANs: our goals

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

 instantiation, implementation of various link layer technologies

Link layer, LANs: roadmap

6.1 Introduction

- 6.2 Error detection and correction
- 6.3 Multiple access protocols
- 6.4 LANs

Addressing, ARP

Ethernet

Switches

VLANs

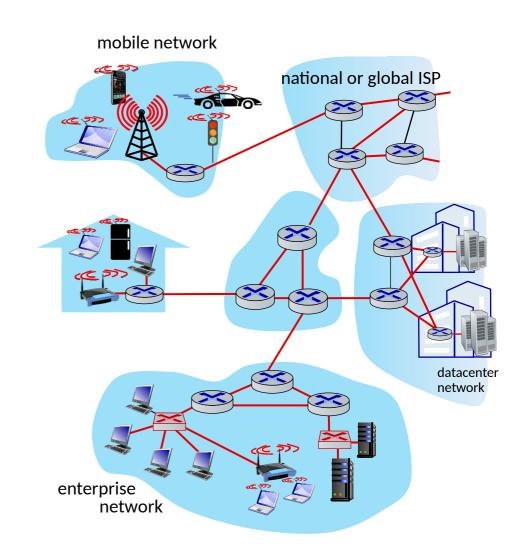
- 6.6 Data center networking
- 6.7 A day in the life of a web request

Link layer: introduction

terminology:

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

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



Link layer: services

framing:

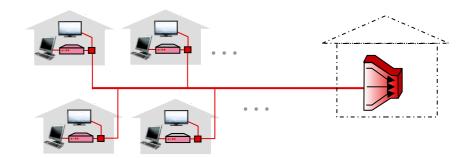
 encapsulate datagram into frame, adding header, trailer

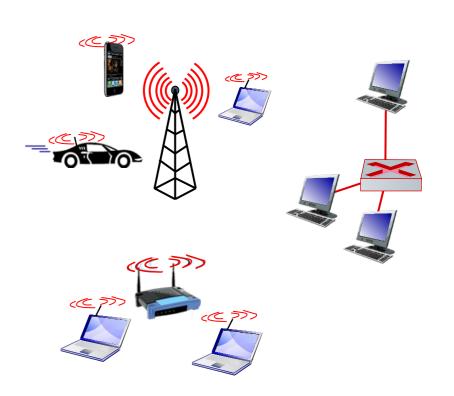
link access

- Medium access control (MAC) protocol for transmitting frames on a shared medium
- MAC addresses in frame headers identify source, destination (different from IP address!)

reliable delivery between adjacent nodes

- we already know how to do this!
- seldom used on low bit-error links
- wireless links: high error rates
 - Q: why both link-level and end-end reliability?





Link layer: services (more)

• flow control:

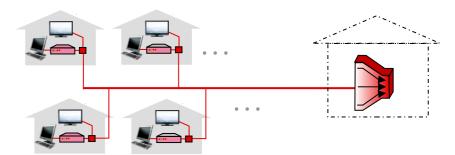
 pacing between adjacent sending and receiving nodes

error detection:

- errors caused by signal attenuation, noise.
- receiver detects errors, signals retransmission, or drops frame

error correction:

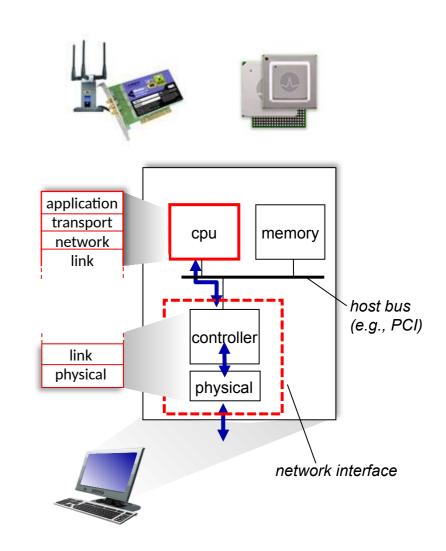
receiver identifies and corrects bit error(s) without retransmission





Host link-layer implementation

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



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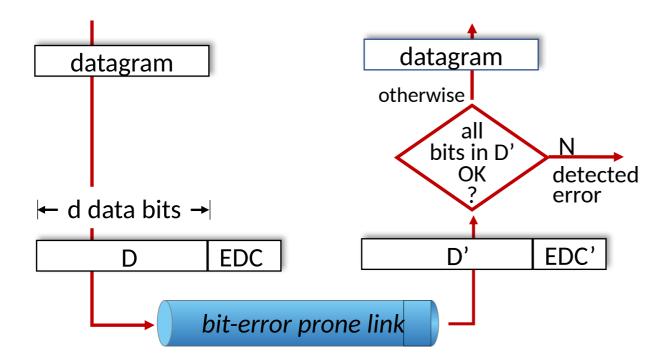
Error detection principles

- Checksum
 - UDP checksum 16 bits (chapter 3.3.2)
 - TCP checksum 16 bits (chapter 3.5.2)
 - IP header checksum 16 bits (chapter 4.3.1)
 - ICMP checksum 16 bits (chapter 5.6)
 - and other protocols
- Parity checking
- Cyclic redundancy check
 - Ethernet

Error detection

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

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



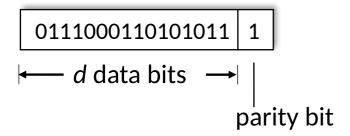
Error detection not 100% reliable!

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

Parity checking

single bit parity:

detect single bit errors



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

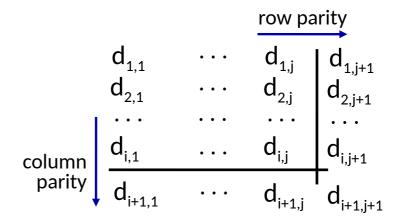
At receiver:

- compute parity of d received bits
- compare with received parity bitif different than error detected

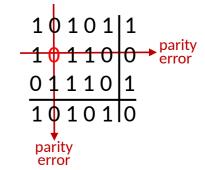


Can detect *and* correct errors (without retransmission!)

two-dimensional parity: detect and correct single bit errors



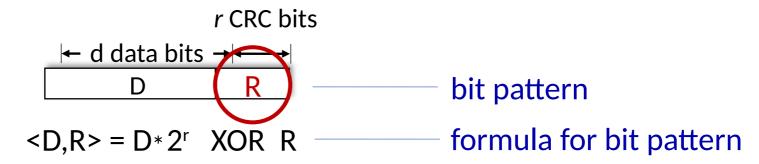
no errors: 10101 1 11110 0 01110 1 10101 0 detected and correctable single-bit error:



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

Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC)

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



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

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

Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC): example

Sender wants to compute R such that:

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

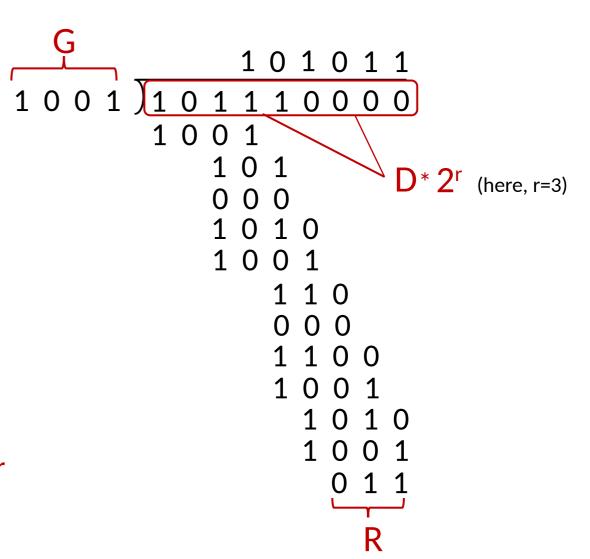
... or equivalently (XOR R both sides):

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

... which says:

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

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



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Multiple access links, protocols

two types of "links":

- point-to-point
 - point-to-point link between Ethernet switch, host
 - PPP for dial-up access
- broadcast (shared wire or medium)
 - old-fashioned Ethernet
 - upstream HFC in cable-based access network
 - 802.11 wireless LAN, 4G/5G. satellite



shared wire (e.g., cabled Ethernet)



shared radio: 4G/5G



shared radio: WiFi



shared radio: satellite



humans at a cocktail party (shared air, acoustical)

Multiple access channel 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

MAC protocols: taxonomy

three broad classes:

1. Channel partitioning protocols

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

2. Random access protocols

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

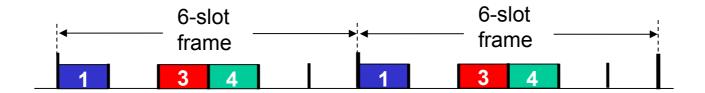
3. "Taking turns" protocols

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

Channel partitioning MAC protocols: TDMA

TDMA: time division multiple access

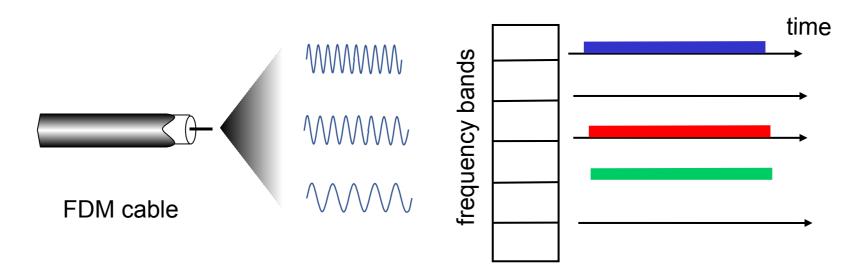
- access to channel in "rounds"
- each station gets fixed length slot (length = packet transmission time) in each round
- unused slots go idle
- example: 6-station LAN, 1,3,4 have packets to send, slots 2,5,6 idle



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



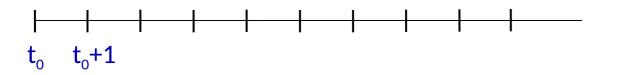
MAC protocols: taxonomy

- 1. Channel partitioning protocols
- 2. Random access protocols
- 3. "Taking turns" protocols

Random access protocols

- When node has packet to send
 - transmit at full channel data rate
 - no *a priori* coordination among nodes
- Two or more transmitting nodes: "collision"
- Random access MAC protocol specifies:
 - how to recover from collisions (e.g., via delayed retransmissions)
- Examples of random-access MAC protocols:
 - Slotted ALOHA
 - Carrier sense multiple access

Slotted ALOHA



assumptions:

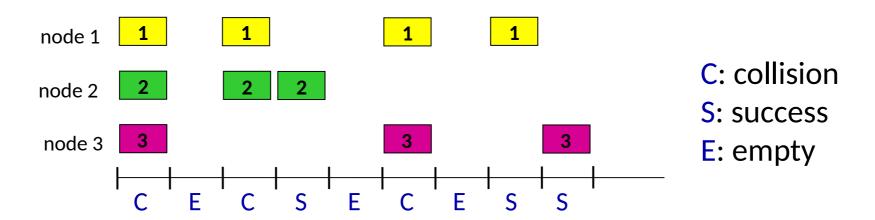
- all frames same size
- time divided into equal size slots (time to transmit 1 frame)
- nodes start to transmit only slot beginning
- nodes are synchronized
- if 2 or more nodes transmit in slot, all nodes detect collision

operation:

- when node obtains fresh frame, transmits in next slot
 - if no collision: node can send new frame in next slot
 - *if collision*: node retransmits frame in each subsequent slot with probability *p* until success

randomization - why?

Slotted ALOHA



Pros:

- single active node can continuously transmit at full rate of channel
- highly decentralized: only slots in nodes need to be in sync
- simple

Cons:

- collisions, wasting slots
- idle slots
- nodes may be able to detect collision in less than time to transmit packet
- clock synchronization

Slotted ALOHA: efficiency

efficiency: long-run fraction of successful slots (many nodes, all with many frames to send)

- suppose: N nodes with many frames to send, each transmits in slot with probability p
 - prob that given node has success in a slot = $p(1-p)^{N-1}$
 - prob that any node has a success = $Np(1-p)^{N-1}$
 - max efficiency: find p^* that maximizes $Np(1-p)^{N-1}$
 - for many nodes, take limit of $Np^*(1-p^*)^{N-1}$ as N goes to infinity, gives:

$$max efficiency = 1/e = .37$$

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

CSMA (carrier sense multiple access)

simple CSMA: listen before transmit:

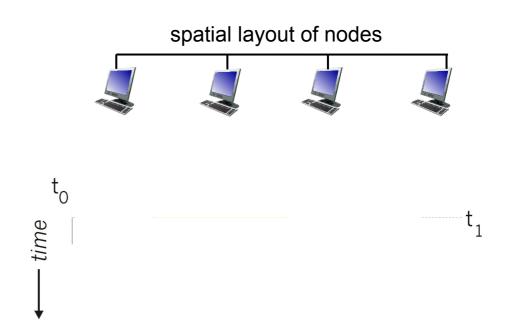
- if channel sensed idle: transmit entire frame
- if channel sensed busy: defer transmission
- human analogy: don't interrupt others!

CSMA/CD: CSMA with collision detection

- collisions detected within short time
- colliding transmissions aborted, reducing channel wastage
- collision detection easy in wired, difficult with wireless
- human analogy: the polite conversationalist

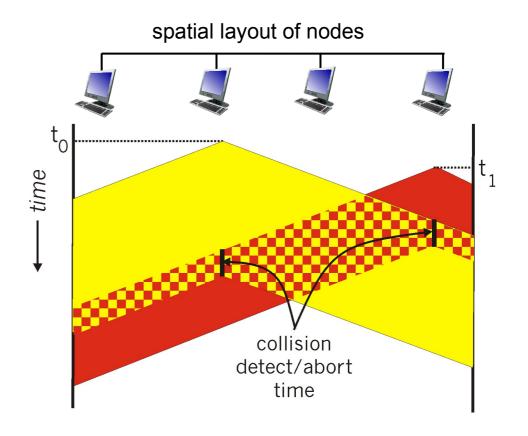
CSMA: collisions

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



CSMA/CD:

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



Ethernet CSMA/CD algorithm

- 1. NIC receives datagram from network layer, creates frame
- 2. If NIC senses channel:

if idle: start frame transmission.

if busy: wait until channel idle, then transmit

- 3. If NIC transmits entire frame without collision, NIC is done with frame!
- 4. If NIC detects another transmission while sending: abort, send jam signal
- 5. After aborting, NIC enters binary (exponential) backoff:
 - after mth collision, NIC chooses K at random from $\{0,1,2,...,2^{m}-1\}$. NIC waits $K \cdot 512$ bit times, returns to Step 2
 - more collisions: longer backoff interval

Ethernet CSMA/CD was used in now-obsolete shared media Ethernet variants

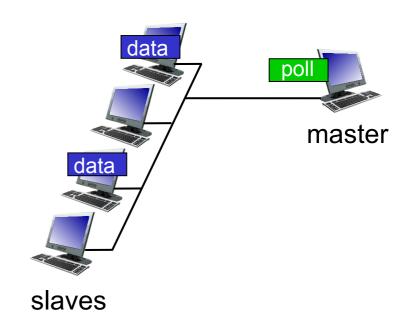
MAC protocols: taxonomy

- 1. Channel partitioning protocols
- 2. Random access protocols
- 3. "Taking turns" protocols

"Taking turns" MAC protocols

polling:

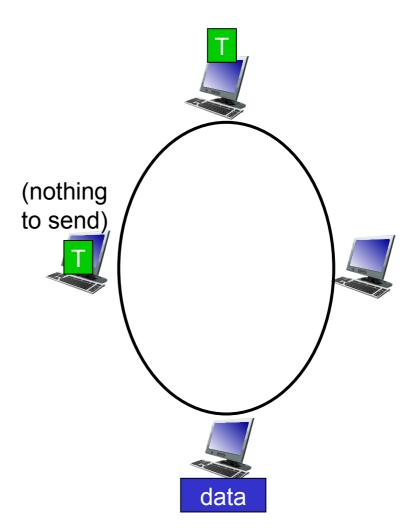
- master node "invites" other nodes to transmit in turn
- typically used with "dumb" devices
- concerns:
 - polling overhead
 - latency
 - single point of failure (master)



"Taking turns" MAC protocols

token ring:

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



"Taking turns" MAC protocols

channel partitioning MAC protocols:

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

random access MAC protocols

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

"taking turns" protocols

look for best of both worlds!

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 obsolete Ethernet-variant
 - CSMA/CA used in 802.11
- Taking turns
 - polling from central site, token passing
 - Bluetooth, token ring

Link layer, LANs: roadmap

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6.4 LANs

- 6.4.1 Addressing, ARP
- 6.4.2 Ethernet
- 6.4.3 Switches
- 6.4.4 VLANS
- 6.6 Data center networking
- 6.7 A day in the life of a web request

MAC addresses

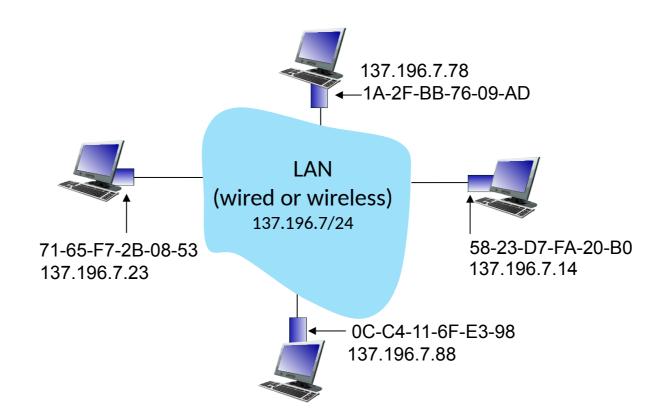
- 32-bit IP address:
 - network-layer address for interface
 - used for layer 3 (network layer) forwarding
 - e.g.: 128.119.40.136
- MAC (or LAN or physical or Ethernet) address:
 - function: used "locally" to get frame from one interface to another physically-connected interface (same subnet, in IP-addressing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

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

MAC addresses

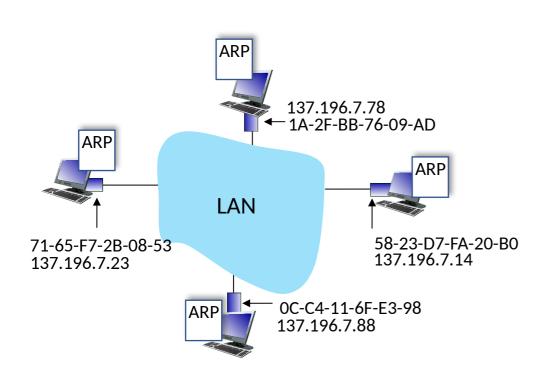
each interface on LAN

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



ARP: address resolution protocol

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



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

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

ARP protocol in action

example: A wants to send datagram to B

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

A broadcasts ARP query, containing B's IP addr destination MAC address = FF-FF-FF-FF-FF all nodes on LAN receive ARP query ARP table in A IP addr MAC addr TTL 71-65-F7-2B-08-53 137,196,7,23 137.196.7.14

ARP message into Ethernet frame (broadcast to FF-FF-FF-FF)

Sender MAC addr: 71-65-F7-2B-08-53

Sender IP addr: 137.196.7.23

Target MAC addr: FF-FF-FF-FF-FF

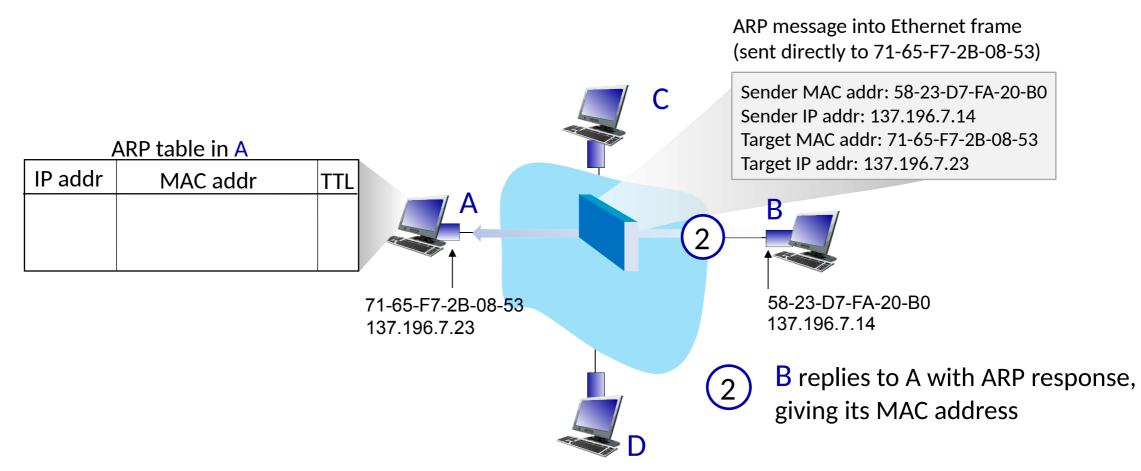
Target IP addr: 137.196.7.14

58-23-D7-FA-20-B0

ARP protocol in action

example: A wants to send datagram to B

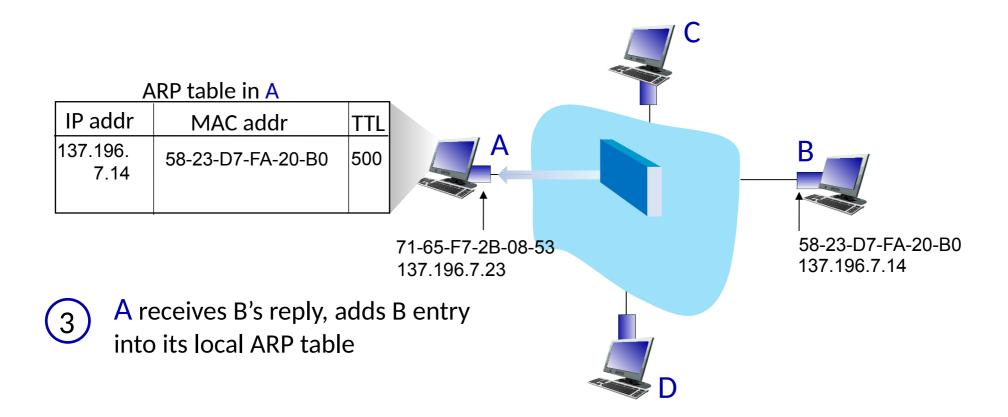
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ARP protocol in action

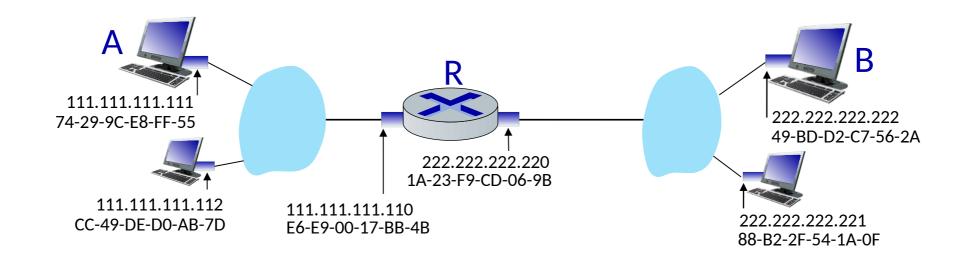
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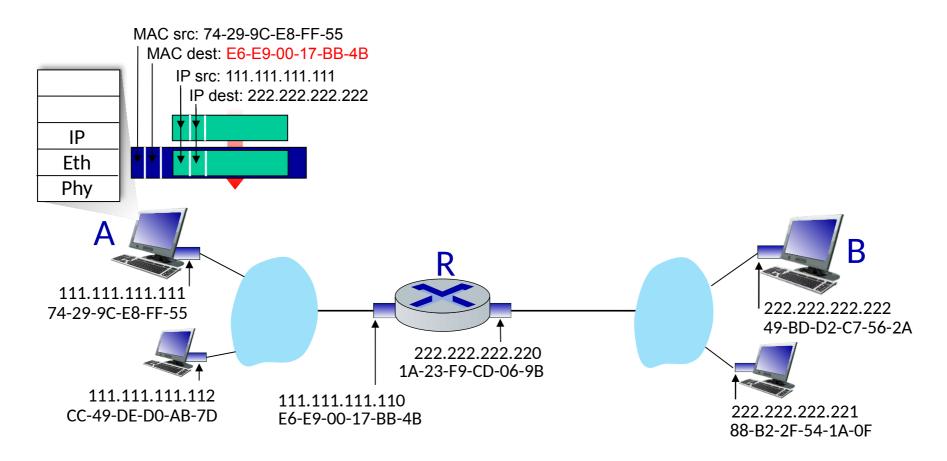


walkthrough: sending a datagram from A to B via R

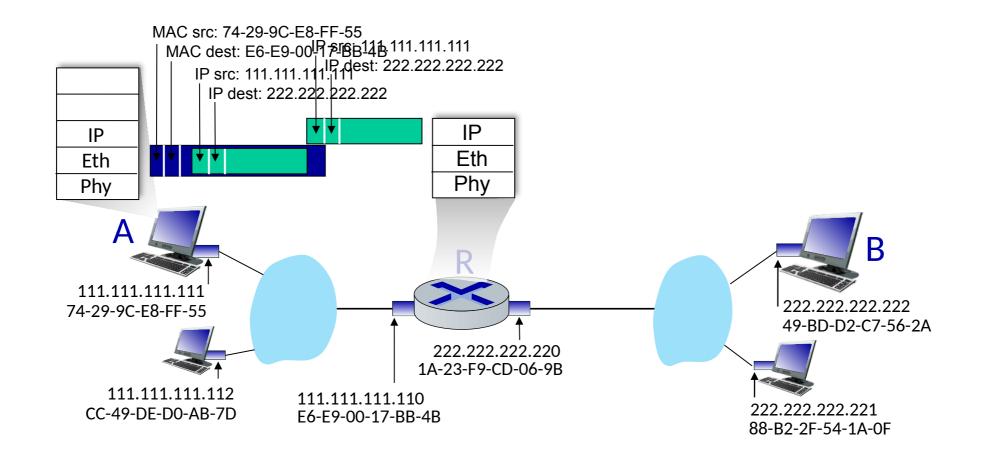
- focus on addressing at IP (datagram) and MAC layer (frame) levels
- assume that:
 - A knows B's IP address
 - A knows IP address of first hop router, R (how?)
 - A knows R's MAC address (how?)



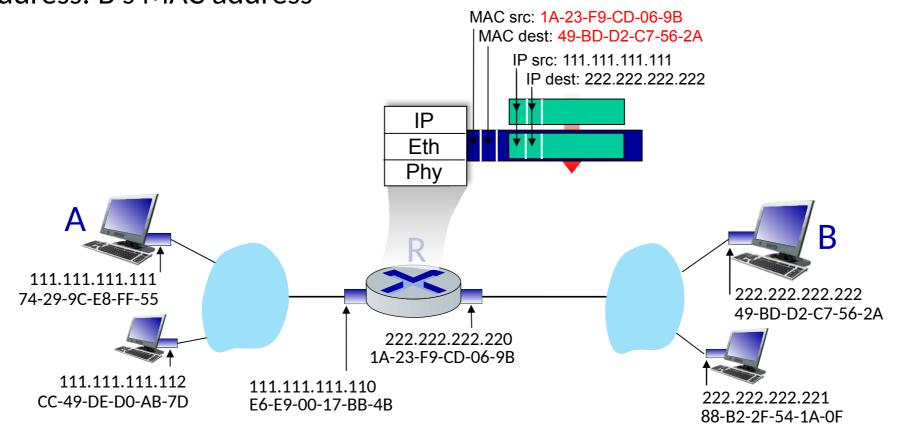
- A creates IP datagram with IP source A, destination B
- A creates link-layer frame containing A-to-B IP datagram
 - R's MAC address is frame's destination



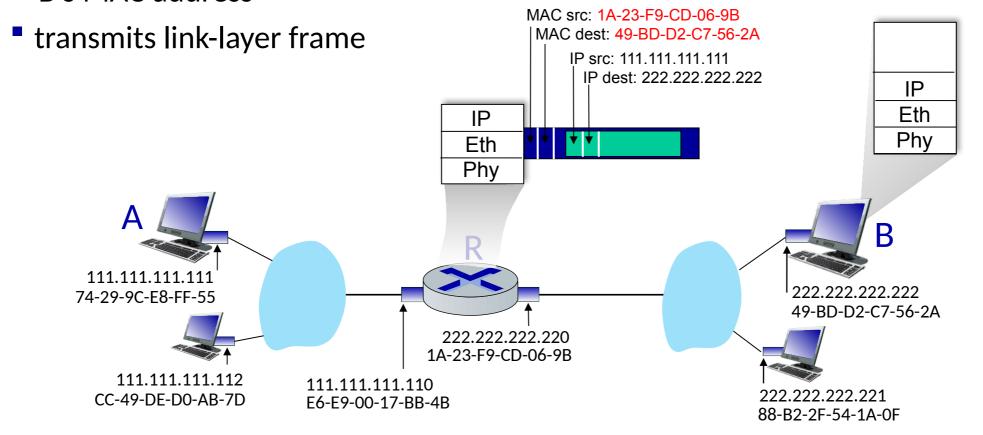
- frame sent from A to R
- frame received at R, datagram removed, passed up to IP



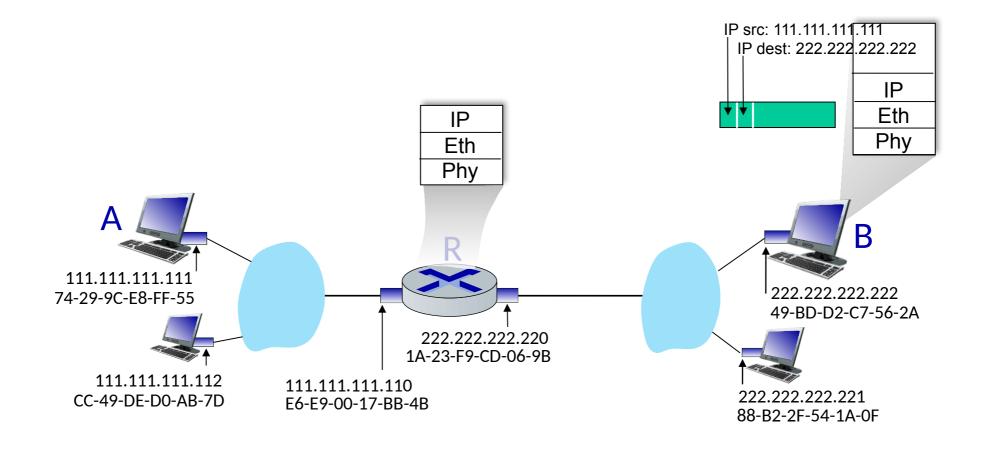
- Router determines outgoing interface, passes datagram with IP source A, destination B to link layer
- Router creates link-layer frame containing A-to-B IP datagram. Frame destination address: B's MAC address



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



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



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- 6.4.2 Ethernet
- 6.4.3 switches
- 6.4.4 VLANS
- 6.6 Data center networking
- 6.7 A day in the life of a web request

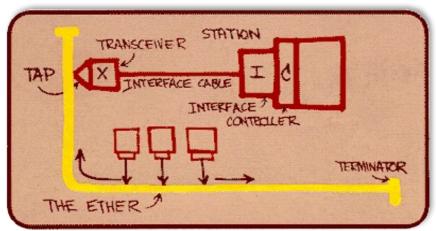
Ethernet

"dominant" wired LAN technology:

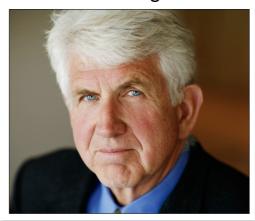
- first widely used LAN technology
- simpler, cheap
- kept up with speed race: 10 Mbps 400 Gbps

single chip, multiple speeds (e.g., Broad

Metcalfe's Ethernet sketch

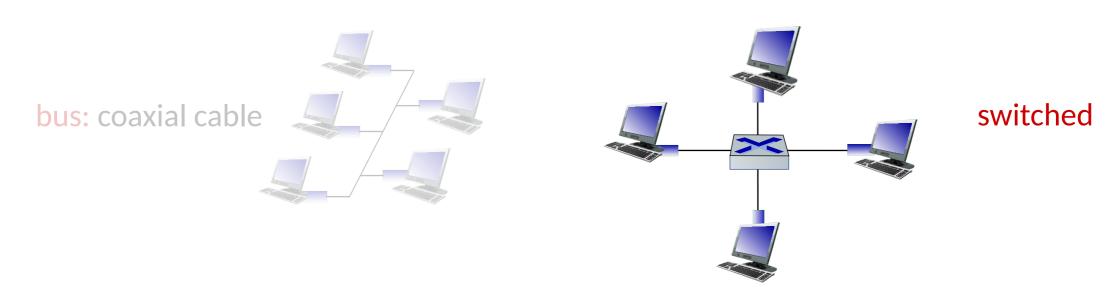


Bob Metcalfe: Ethernet co-inventor, 2022 ACM Turing Award recipient



Ethernet: physical topology

- bus: popular through mid 90s
 - all nodes in same collision domain (can collide with each other)
- switched: prevails today
 - active link-layer 2 switch in center
 - each "spoke" runs a (separate) Ethernet protocol (nodes do not collide with each other)



Ethernet frame structure

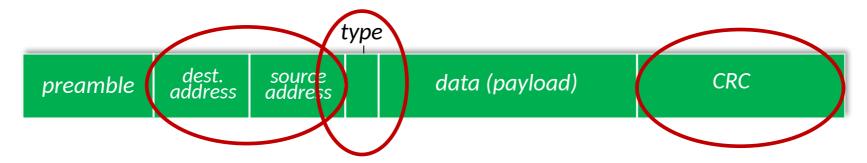
sending interface encapsulates IP datagram (or other network layer protocol packet) in Ethernet frame



preamble:

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

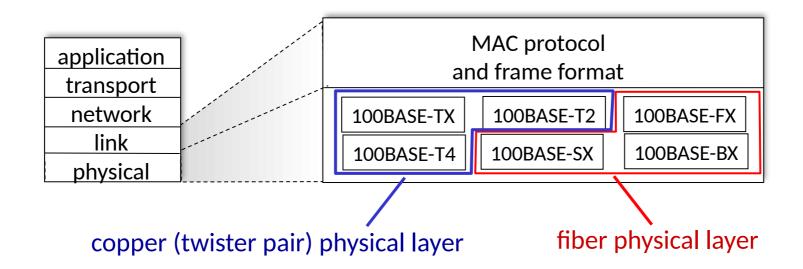
Ethernet frame structure (more)



- addresses: 6 bytes source, destination MAC addresses
 - if adapter receives frame with matching destination address, or with broadcast address (e.g., ARP packet), it passes data in frame to network layer protocol
 - otherwise, adapter discards frame
- type: indicates higher layer protocol
 - mostly IP but others possible, e.g., Novell IPX, AppleTalk
 - used to demultiplex up at receiver
- CRC: cyclic redundancy check at receiver
 - error detected: frame is dropped

802.3 Ethernet standards: link & physical layers

- many different Ethernet standards
 - common MAC protocol and frame format
 - different speeds: 2 Mbps, ... 100 Mbps, 1Gbps, 10 Gbps, 40 Gbps, 80 Gbps
 - different physical layer media: fiber, cable



Link layer, LANs: roadmap

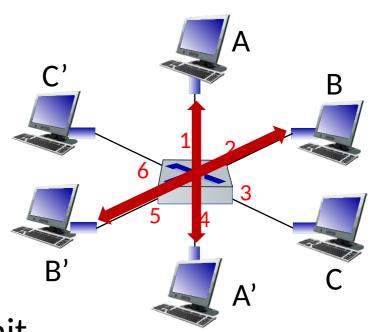
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Switch: multiple simultaneous transmissions

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



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

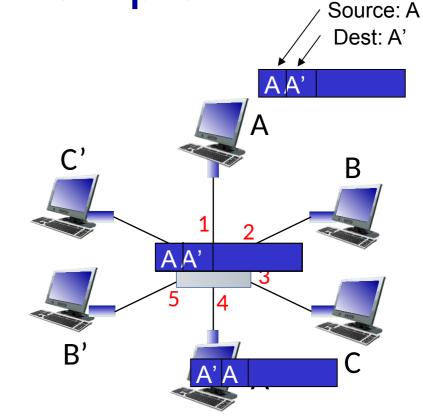
Switch: frame filtering/forwarding

when frame received at switch:

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

Self-learning, forwarding: example

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

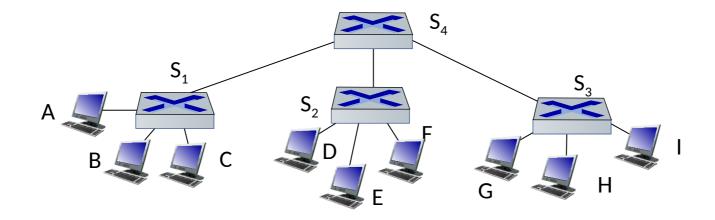


MAC addr	interface	TTL
A	1	60
A	4	60

switch table (initially empty)

Interconnecting switches

self-learning switches can be connected together:



- Q: sending from A to G how does S_1 know to forward frame destined to G via S_4 and S_3 ?
 - A: self learning! (works exactly the same as in single-switch case!)

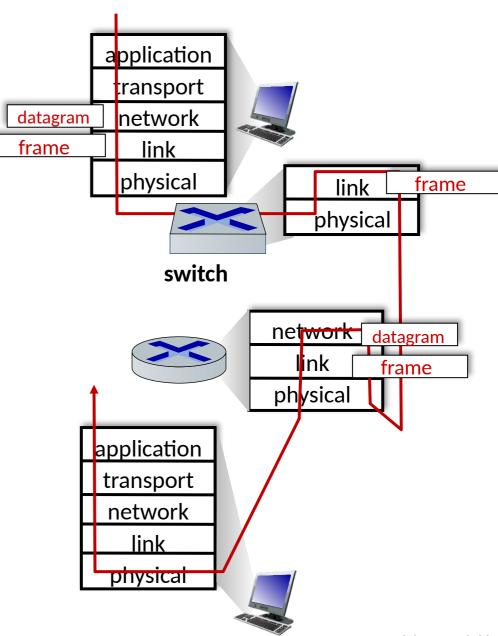
Switches vs. routers

both are store-and-forward:

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

both have forwarding tables:

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



Link layer, LANs: roadmap

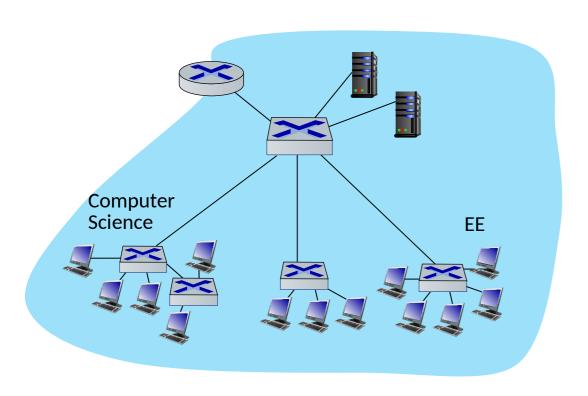
- 6.1 Introduction
- 6.2 Error detection and correction
- 6.3 Multiple access protocols

6.4 LANs

- 6.4.1 Addressing, ARP
- 6.4.2 Ethernet
- 6.4.3 Switches
- **6.4.4 VLANs**
- 6.6 Data center networking
- 6.7 A day in the life of a web request

Virtual LANs (VLANs): motivation

Q: what happens as LAN sizes scale, users change point of attachment?

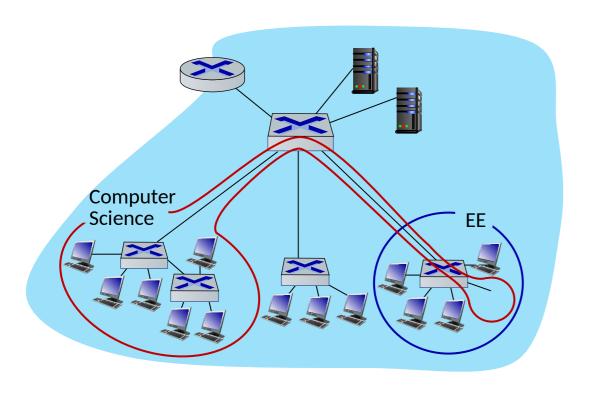


single broadcast domain:

- scaling: all layer-2 broadcast traffic (ARP, DHCP, unknown MAC) must cross entire LAN
- efficiency, security, privacy issues

Virtual LANs (VLANs): motivation

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single broadcast domain:

- scaling: all layer-2 broadcast traffic (ARP, DHCP, unknown MAC) must cross entire LAN
- efficiency, security, privacy, efficiency issues

administrative issues:

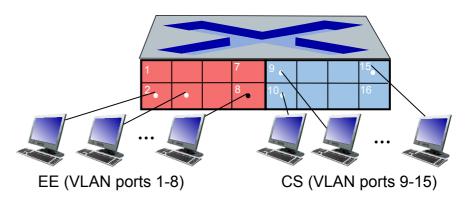
CS user moves office to EE - physically attached to EE switch, but wants to remain logically attached to CS switch

Port-based VLANs

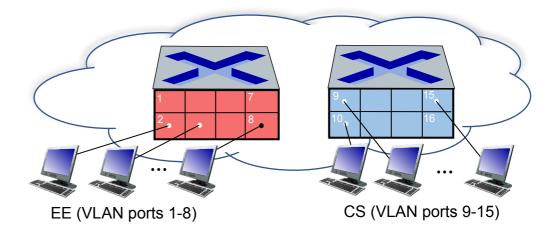
Virtual Local Area Network (VLAN)

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

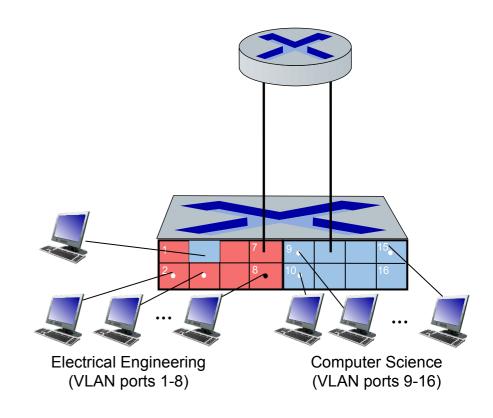


... operates as multiple virtual switches



Port-based VLANs

- traffic isolation: frames to/from ports1-8 can only reach ports
 - 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



Link layer, LANs: roadmap

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- 6.4 LANS

Addressing, ARP

Ethernet

Switches

VLANs

6.6 Data center networking

6.7 A day in the life of a web request

Datacenter 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)

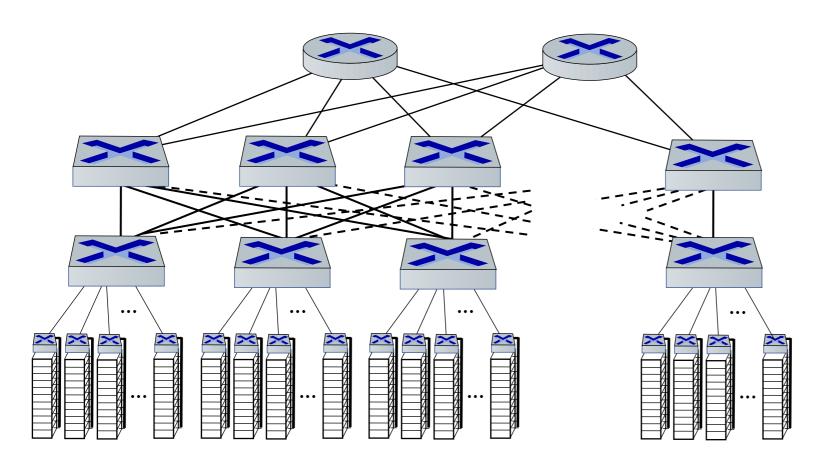
challenges:

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



Inside a 40-ft Microsoft container, Chicago data center

Datacenter networks: network elements



Border routers

connections outside datacenter

Tier-1 switches

connecting to ~16 Tier-2s below

Tier-2 switches

connecting to ~16 TORs below

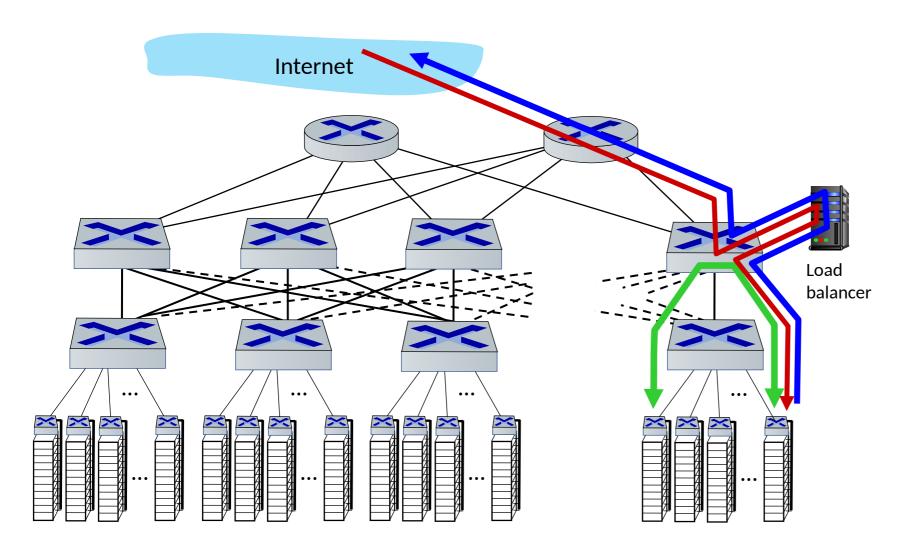
Top of Rack (TOR) switch

- one per rack
- 40-100Gbps Ethernet to blades

Server racks

20- 40 server blades: hosts

Datacenter networks: application-layer routing



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)

Link layer, LANs: roadmap

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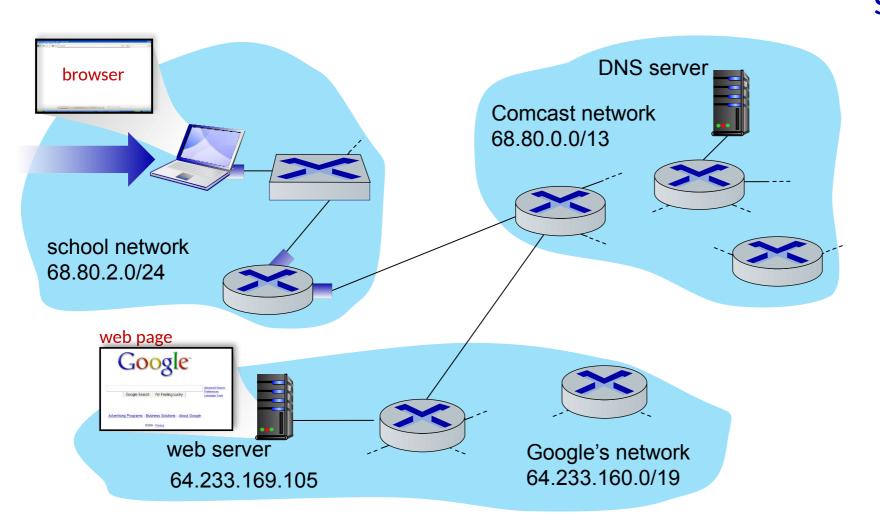
VLANs

- 6.6 Data center networking
- 6.7 A day in the life of a web request

Synthesis: a day in the life of a web request

- our journey down the protocol stack is now complete!
 - application, transport, network, link
- putting-it-all-together: synthesis!
 - goal: identify, review, understand protocols (at all layers) involved in seemingly simple scenario: requesting www page
 - *scenario*: student attaches laptop to campus network, requests/receives www.google.com

A day in the life: scenario

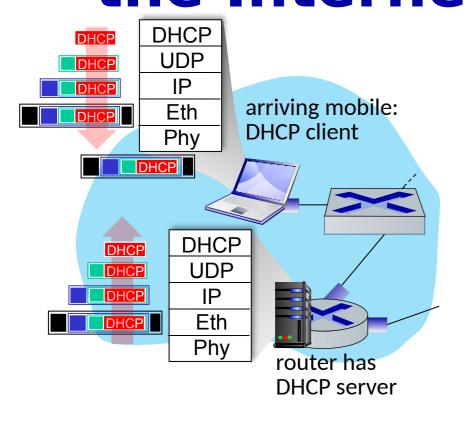


scenario:

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

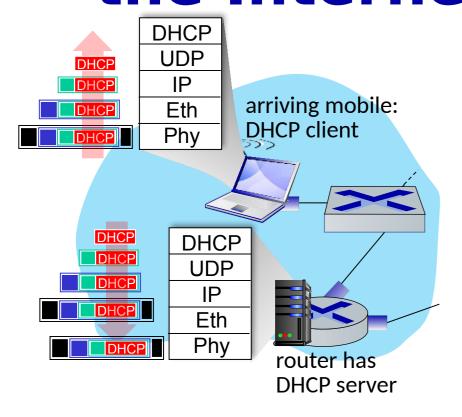


A day in the life: connecting to the Internet



- 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

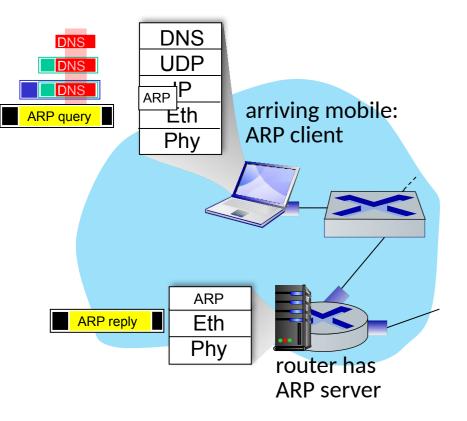
A day in the life: connecting to the Internet



- 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

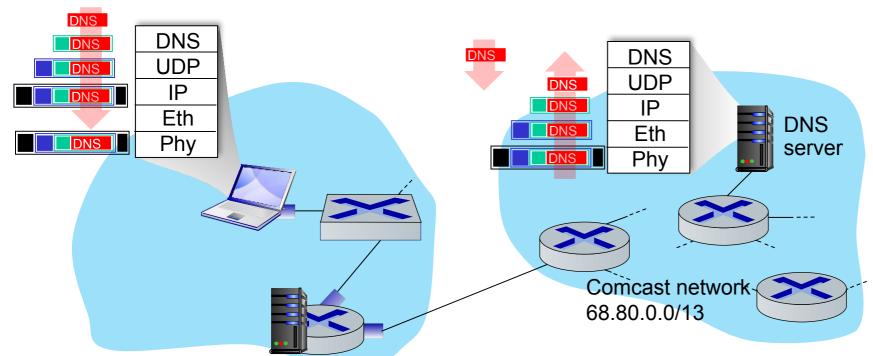
Client now has IP address, knows name & addr of DNS server, IP address of its first-hop router

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

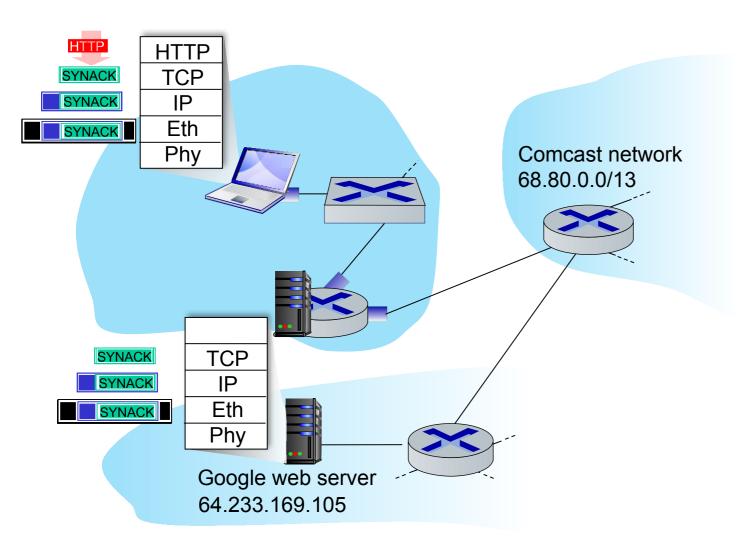


- demuxed to DNS
- DNS replies to client with IP address of www.google.com

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

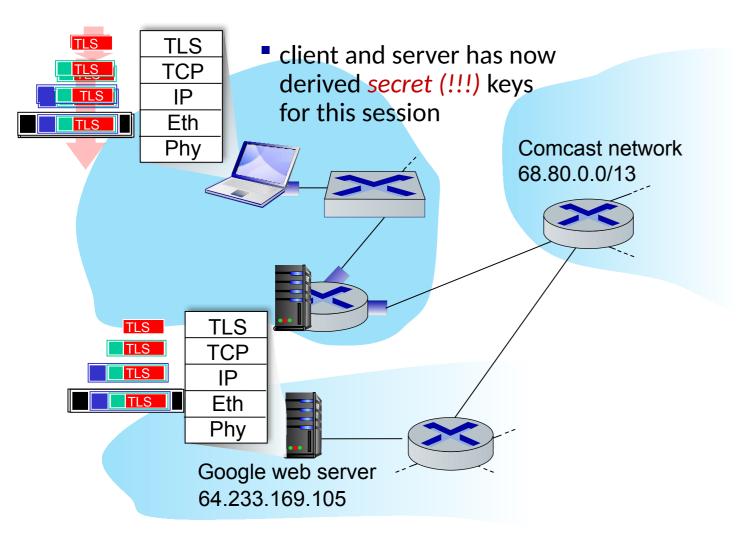
• IP datagram forwarded from campus network into Comcast network, routed (tables created by RIP, OSPF and/or BGP routing protocols) to DNS server

A day in the life...TCP connection carrying HTTP



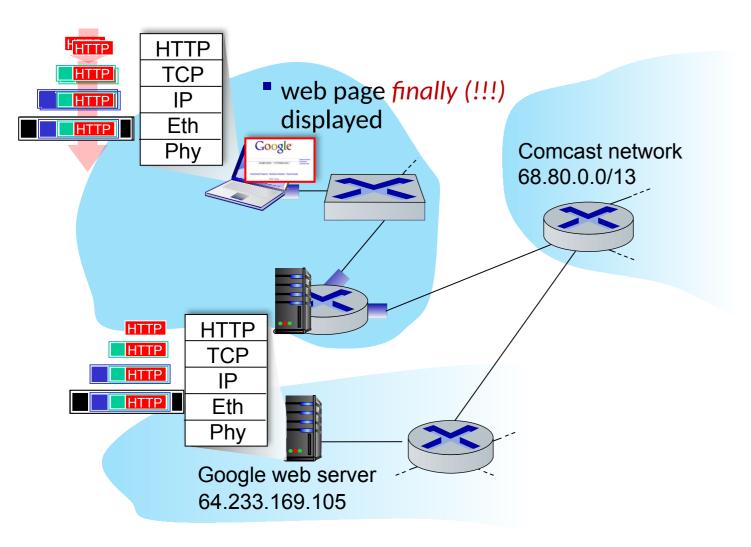
- to send HTTP request, client first opens TCP socket to web server
- TCP SYN segment (step 1 in TCP 3-way handshake) inter-domain routed to web server
- web server responds with TCP SYNACK (step 2 in TCP 3way handshake)
- TCP connection established!

A day in the life... TLS securing TCP connections



- TLS Client Hello, other records (cipher suite, nonce, DH params, public point) sent into TCP socket
- IP datagram containing TLS records routed to www.google.com
- web server responds with TLS Server Hello, other records (certificate, cipher suite, nonce, DH params, public key, finished)
- IP datagram containing
 TLS records) routed back
 to client

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



- HTTP request sent into SSL socket
- IP datagram containing TLS
 Finished record and
 encrypted HTTP request
 routed to www.google.com
- web server responds with HTTP reply (containing web page)
- IP datagram containing encrypted HTTP reply in TCP segment routed back to client

Chapter 6: Summary

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