Chapter 6 The Link Layer and LANs







Chapter 6: 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

Link layer, LANs: outline

- 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

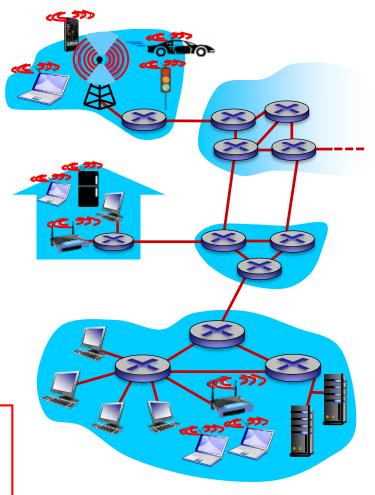
- 6.6 data center networking
- 6.7 a day in the life of a web request

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

Link layer services

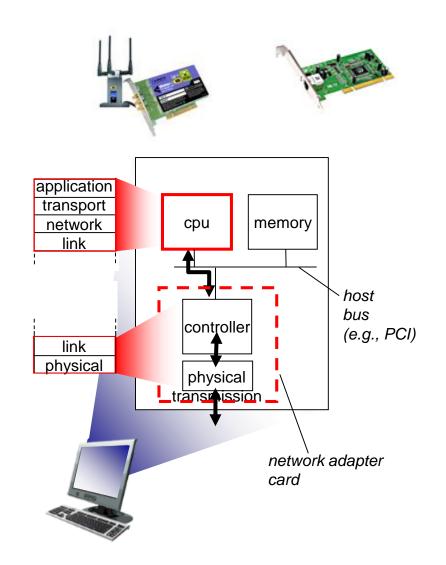
- framing, link access:
 - encapsulate datagram into frame, adding header, trailer
 - channel access if shared medium
 - "MAC" addresses used in frame headers to identify source, destination
 - different from IP address!
- reliable delivery between adjacent nodes
 - we learned how to do this already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

Link layer services (more)

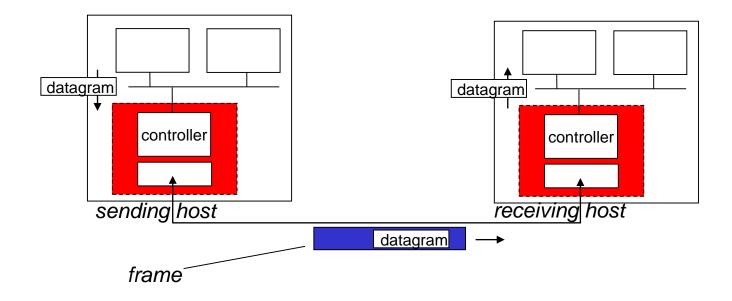
- flow control:
 - pacing between adjacent sending and receiving nodes
- error detection:
 - errors caused by signal attenuation, noise.
 - receiver detects presence of errors:
 - signals sender for retransmission or drops frame
- error correction:
 - receiver identifies and corrects bit error(s) without 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

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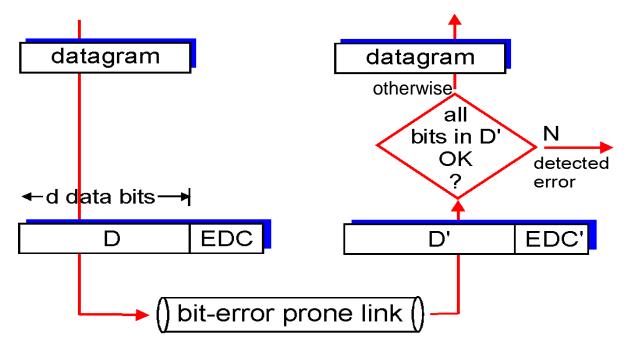
Error detection

EDC= Error Detection and Correction bits (redundancy)

D = Data protected by error checking

Error detection not 100% reliable!

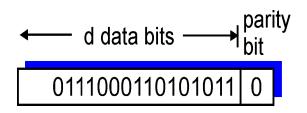
- protocol may miss some errors, but rarely
- larger EDC field yields better detection and correction



Parity checking

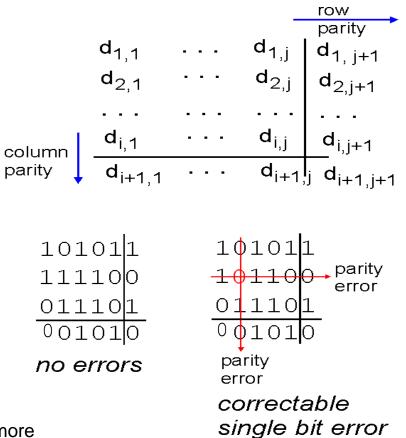
single bit parity:

 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/

Link Layer and LANs 6-12

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+l 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)

$$\longleftarrow d \text{ bits} \longrightarrow \longleftarrow r \text{ bits} \longrightarrow bit$$

$$D: \text{ data bits to be sent } R: CRC \text{ bits} pattern$$

$$r \qquad mathematical$$

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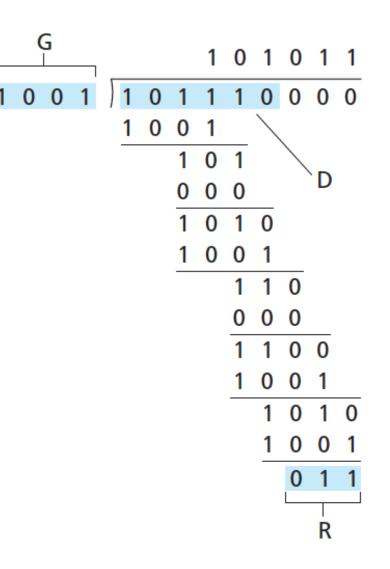
CRC example

want: $D \cdot 2^r XOR R = nG$ equivalently: $D \cdot 2^r = nG XOR R$ equivalently: if we divide $D \cdot 2^r$ 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

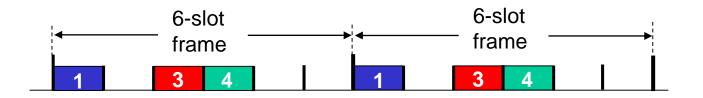
"taking turns"

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

Channel partitioning MAC protocols: TDMA

TDMA: time division multiple access

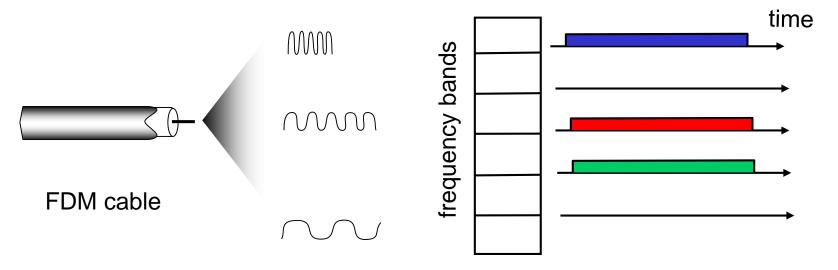
- access to channel in "rounds"
- each station gets fixed length slot (length = packet transmission time) in each round
- unused slots go idle
- example: 6-station LAN, 1,3,4 have packets to send, slots 2,5,6 idle



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 \rightarrow "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

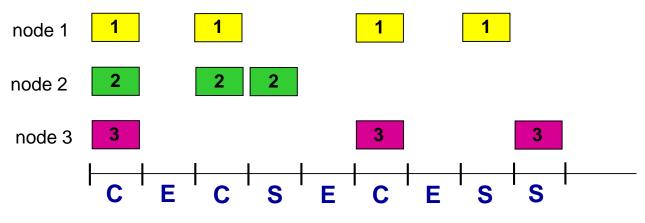
assumptions:

- 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:

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

- collisions, wasting slots
- idle slots
- 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(1p)^{N-1}
- prob that any node has a success = Np(1-p)^{N-1}

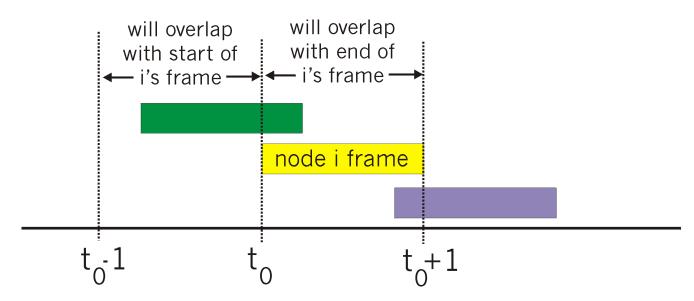
- max efficiency: find p* that maximizes Np(1-p)^{N-1}
- for many nodes, take limit of Np*(1-p*)^{N-1} as N goes to infinity, gives:

max efficiency = 1/e = .37

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

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

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

... choosing optimum p and then letting $n \longrightarrow \infty$

= 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!

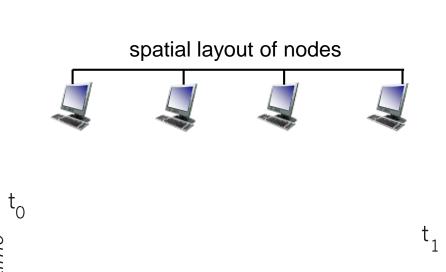
CSMA collisions

 collisions can still occur: propagation delay means two nodes may not hear each other's transmission

time

П

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

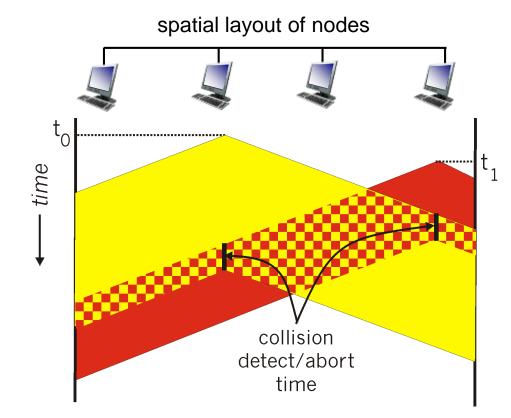


CSMA/CD (collision detection)

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 *m*th collision, NIC chooses *K* at random from {0, 1, 2, ..., 2^m-1}. NIC waits K⁵12 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 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

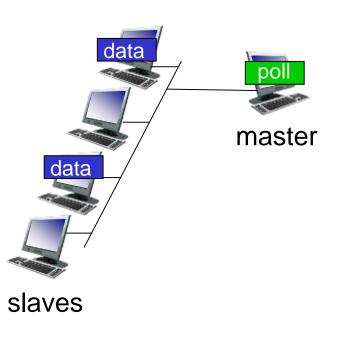
- efficient at low load: single node can fully utilize channel
- high load: collision overhead

"taking turns" protocols look for best of both worlds!

"Taking turns" MAC protocols

polling:

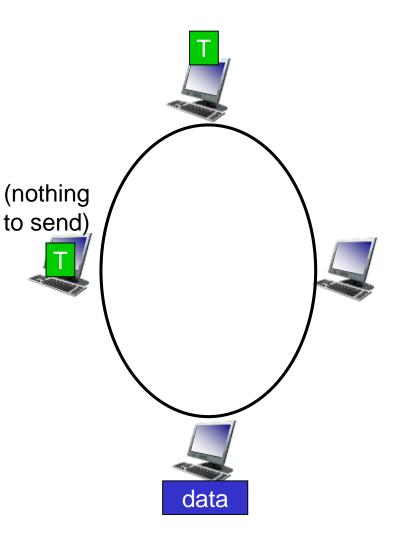
- master node "invites" slave nodes to transmit in turn
- typically used with "dumb" slave devices
- concerns:
 - polling overhead
 - latency
 - single point of failure (master)



"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)



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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MAC addresses and ARP

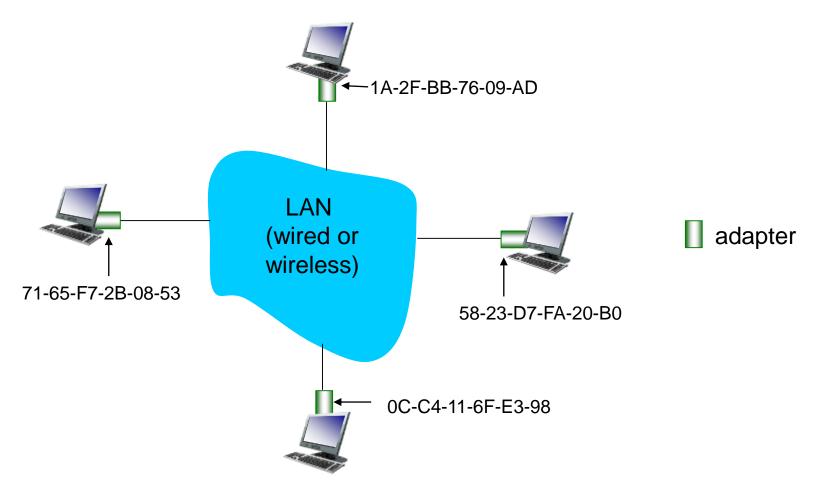
32-bit IP address:

- *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 IP-addressing sense)
 - 48 bit MAC address (for most LANs) burned in NIC ROM, also sometimes software settable

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

LAN addresses and ARP

each adapter on LAN has unique LAN address



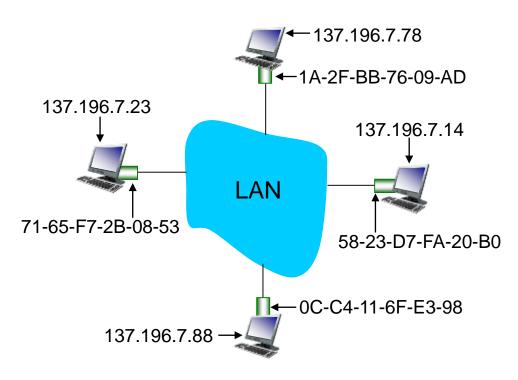
Link Layer and LANs 6-41

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)

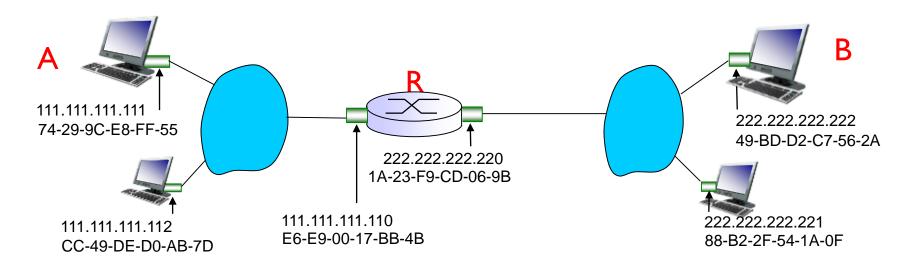
ARP protocol: same LAN

- 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
 - destination MAC address = FF-FF-FF-FF-FF-FF
 - all nodes on LAN receive ARP query
- B receives ARP packet, replies to A with its (B's) MAC address
 - frame sent to A's MAC address (unicast)

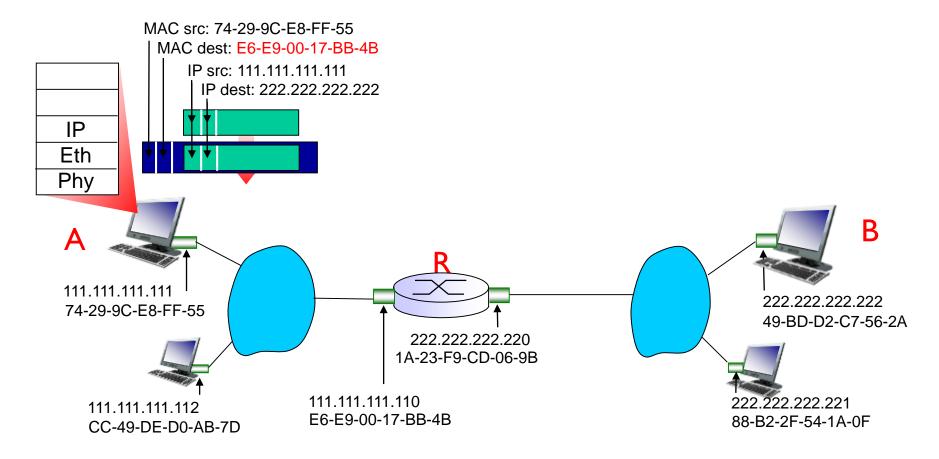
- A caches (saves) IP-to-MAC address pair in its ARP table until information becomes old (times out)
 - soft state: information that times out (goes away) unless refreshed
- ARP is "plug-and-play":
 - nodes create their ARP tables without intervention from net administrator

walkthrough: send datagram from A to B via R

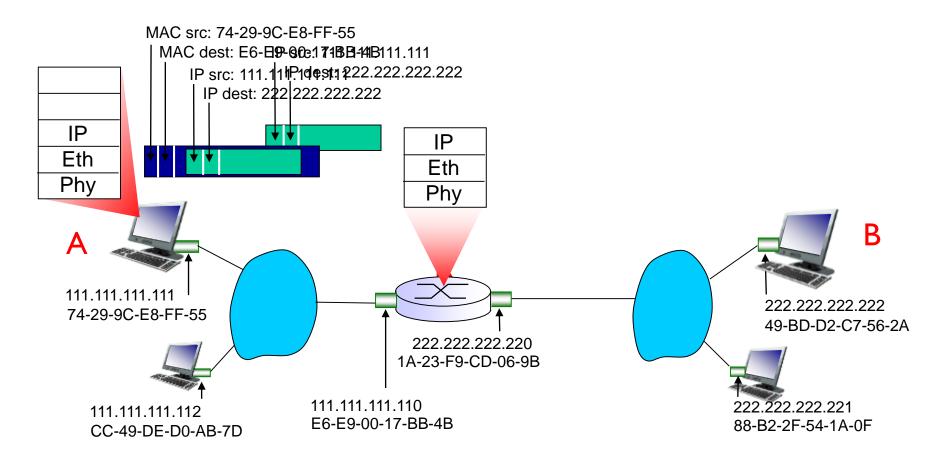
- focus on addressing at IP (datagram) and MAC layer (frame)
- assume A knows B's IP address
- assume A knows IP address of first hop router, R (how?)
- assume A knows R's MAC address (how?)



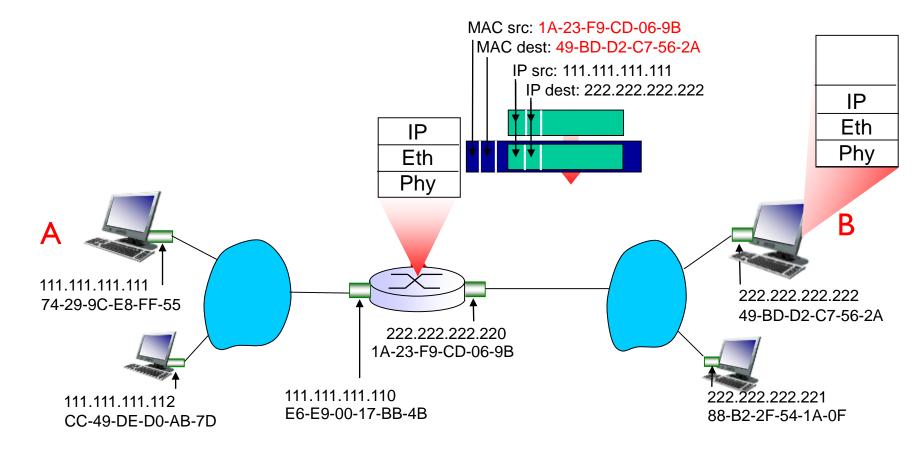
- A creates IP datagram with IP source A, destination B
- A creates link-layer frame with R's MAC address as destination address, frame contains A-to-B IP datagram



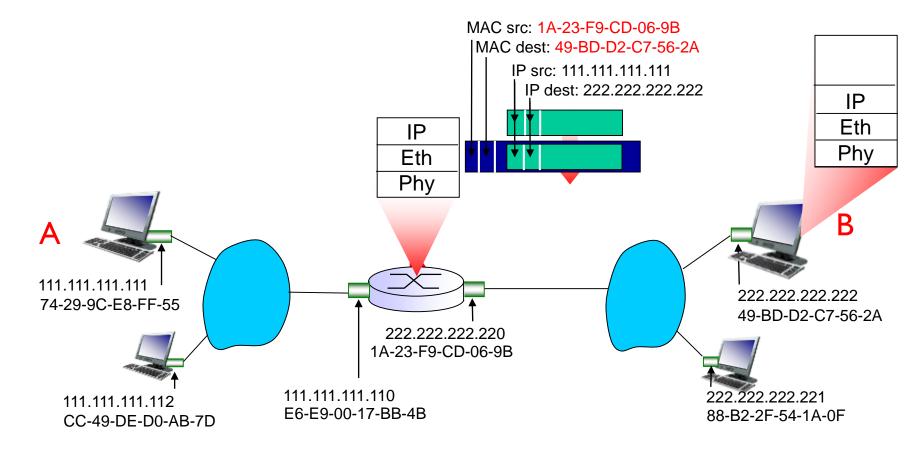
- frame sent from A to R
- frame received at R, datagram removed, passed up to IP



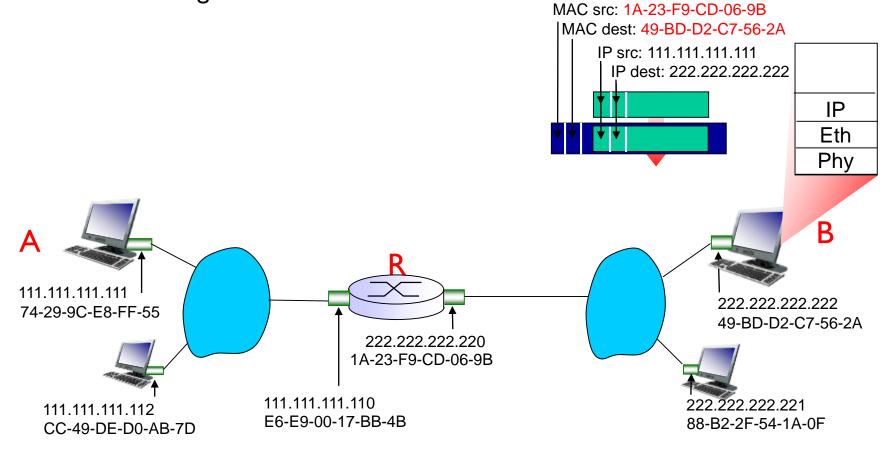
- R forwards datagram with IP source A, destination B
- R creates link-layer frame with B's MAC address as destination address, frame contains A-to-B IP datagram



- R forwards datagram with IP source A, destination B
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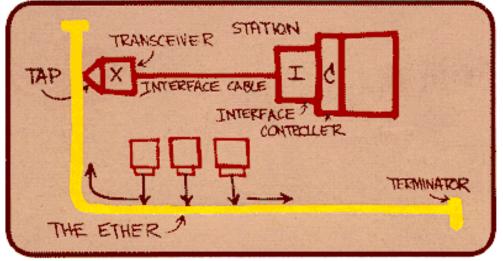
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Ethernet

"dominant" wired LAN technology:

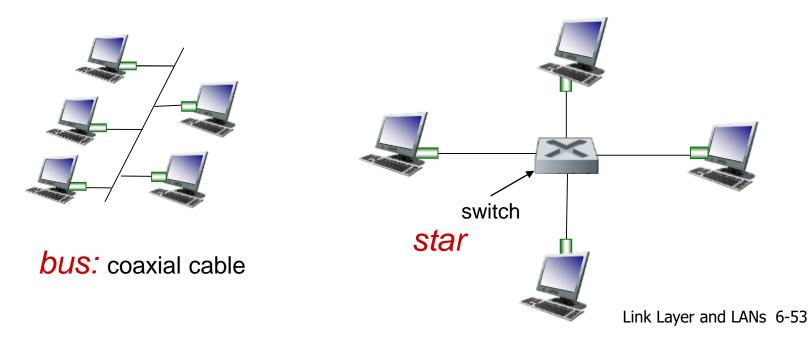
- single chip, multiple speeds (e.g., Broadcom BCM5761)
- first widely used LAN technology
- simpler, cheap
- kept up with speed race: 10 Mbps 10 Gbps



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)



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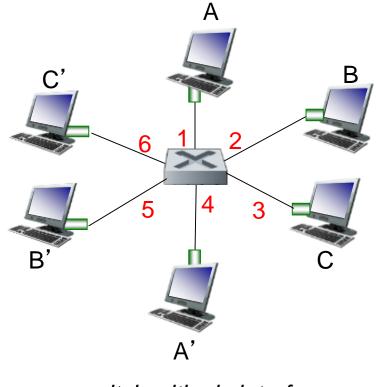
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Ethernet switch

- Iink-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?

- <u>A</u>: each switch has a switch table, each entry:
 - (MAC address of host, interface to reach host, time stamp)
 - Iooks like a routing table!

<u>Q</u>: how are entries created, maintained in switch table?

something like a routing protocol?

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

5

Α

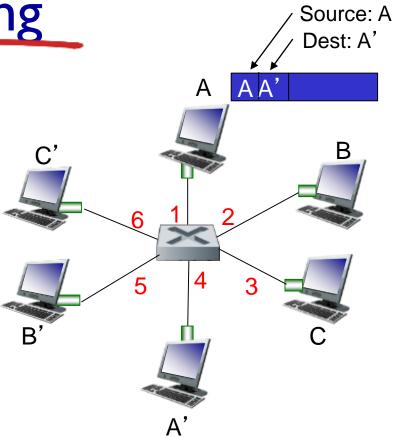
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B

Switch: self-learning

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



MAC addr	interface	TTL
A	1	60

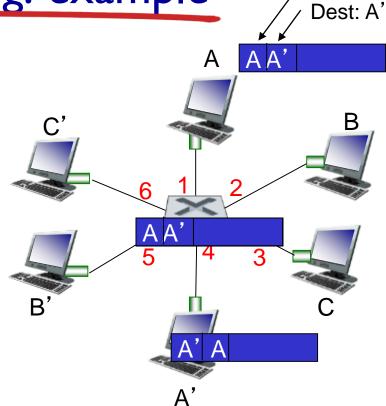
Switch table (initially empty)

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

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



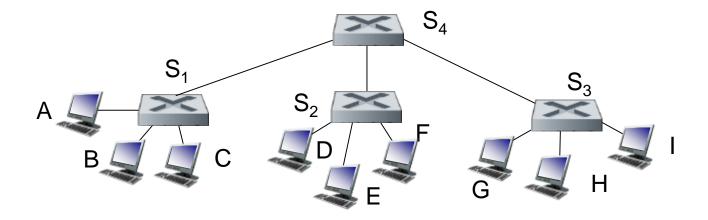
MAC addr	interface	TTL
A A'	1 4	60 60

switch table (initially empty)

Source: A

Interconnecting switches

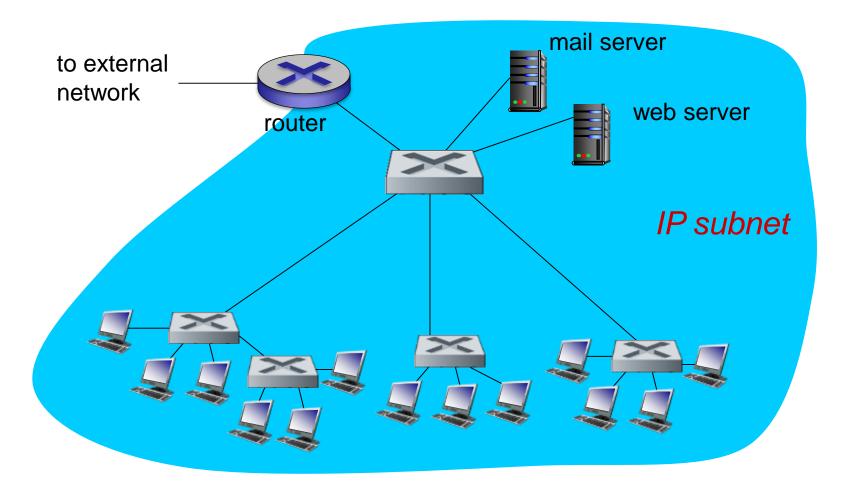
self-learning switches can be connected together:



<u>Q</u>: 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!)

Institutional network



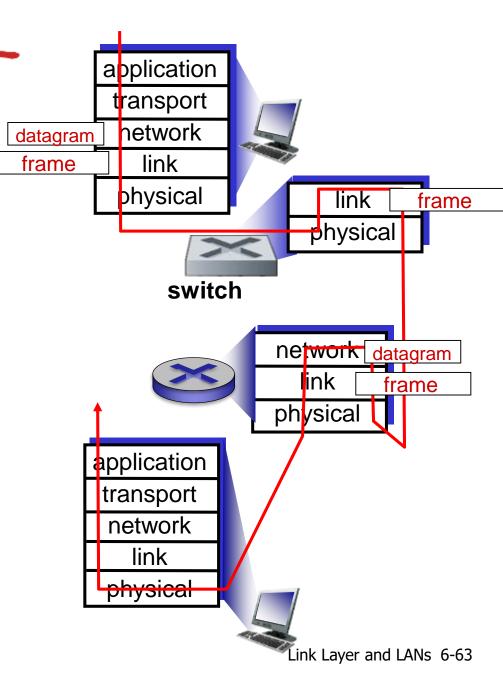
Switches vs. routers

both are store-and-forward:

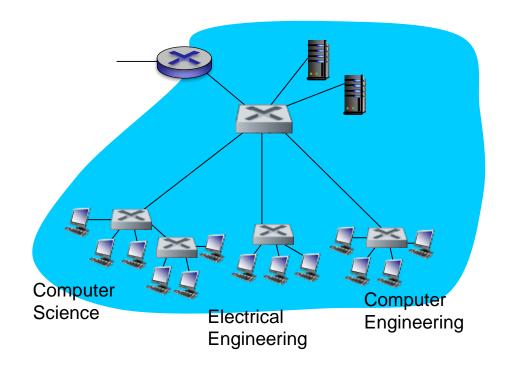
- routers: network-layer devices (examine networklayer headers)
- switches: link-layer devices (examine link-layer headers)

both have forwarding tables:

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



VLANs: motivation



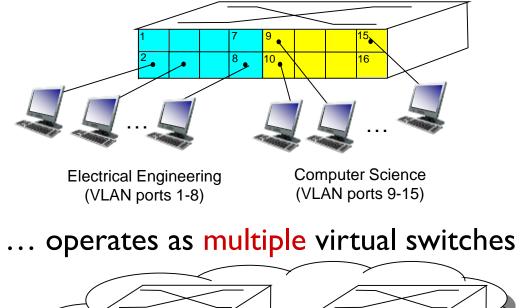
consider:

- 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



Virtual Local Area Network

switch(es) supporting VLAN capabilities can be configured to define multiple <u>virtual</u> LANS over single physical LAN infrastructure. port-based VLAN: switch ports grouped (by switch management software) so that single physical switch



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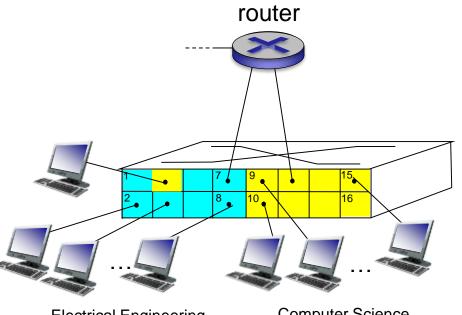
Electrical Engineering (VLAN ports 1-8) Computer Science (VLAN ports 9-16)

16

Link Layer and LANs 6-65

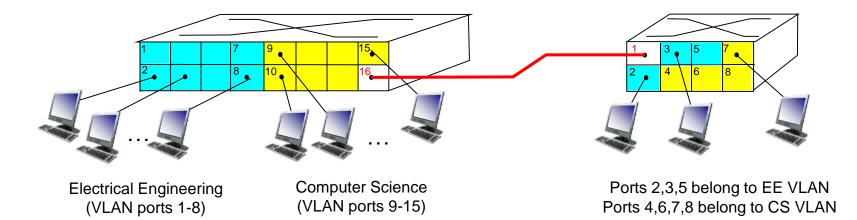
Port-based VLAN

- 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



Electrical Engineering (VLAN ports 1-8) Computer Science (VLAN ports 9-15)

VLANS spanning multiple switches



trunk port: carries frames between VLANS defined over multiple physical switches

Link layer, LANs: outline

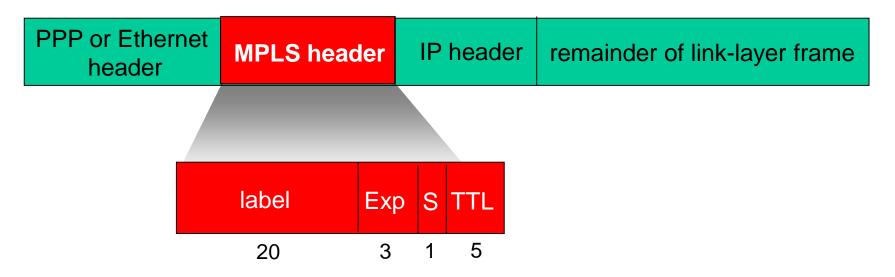
- 6.1 introduction, services
- 6.2 error detection, correction
- 6.3 multiple access protocols
- 6.4 LANs
 - addressing, ARP
 - Ethernet
 - switches
 - VLANS

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)

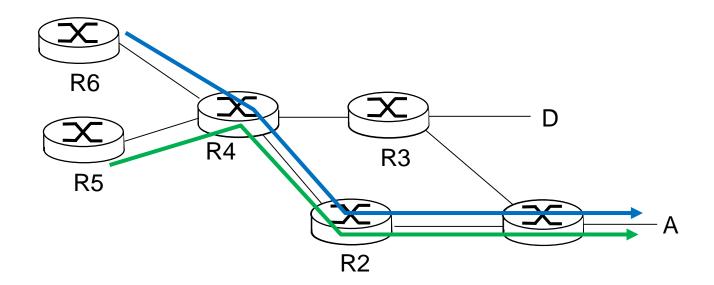
- initial goal: high-speed IP forwarding using fixed length label (instead of IP address)
 - fast lookup using fixed length identifier (rather than shortest prefix matching)
 - borrowing ideas from Virtual Circuit (VC) approach
 - but IP datagram still keeps IP address!



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

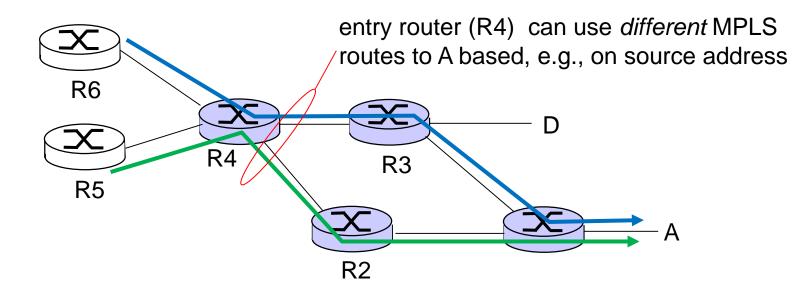


IP routing: path to destination determined by destination address alone



IP router

MPLS versus IP paths



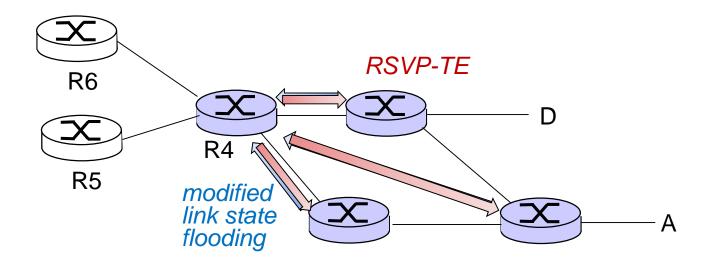
- IP routing: path to destination determined by destination address alone
- MPLS routing: path to destination can be based on source and destination address
 - *fast reroute:* precompute backup routes in case of link failure



MPLS and IP router

MPLS signaling

- modify OSPF, IS-IS link-state flooding protocols to carry 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 Iabel	out label	dest	out interface	•						
		10	Α	0	-	in	out			out	
		12	D	0		label	labe	de	st ir	terface	
		8	A	1		10	6	A		1	
						12	9	D)	0	
X	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$										
	· · ·		R2		2			out abel	dest	out interface	
	in Iabel	out label	dest	out interface			6	-	A	0	
	8	6	A	0		Ĺ					

Link layer, LANs: outline

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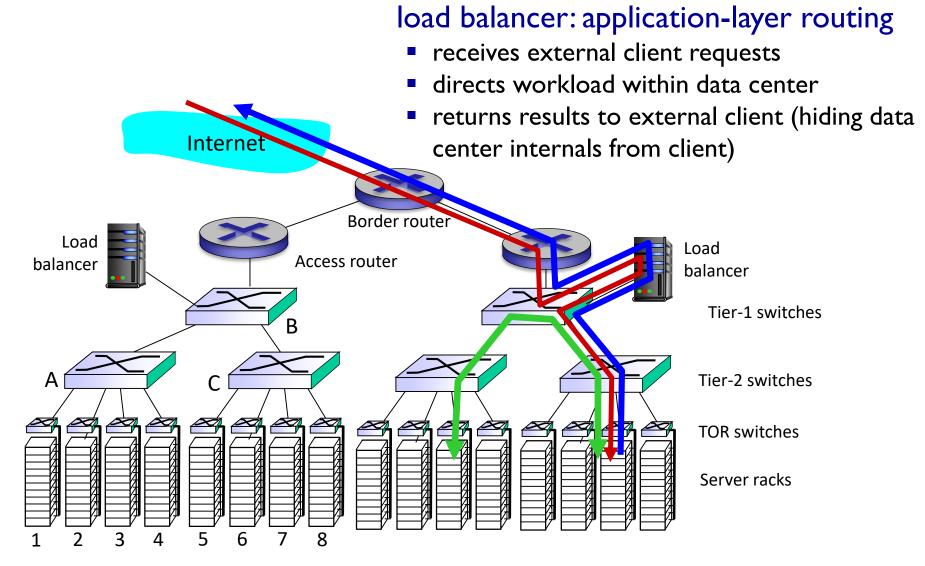
Data center networks

- I0'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



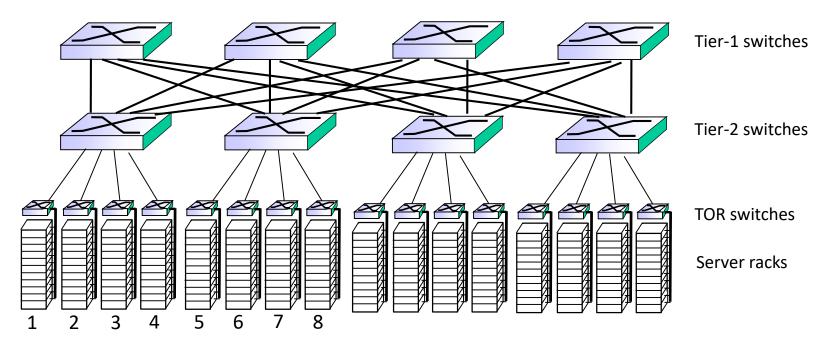
Inside a 40-ft Microsoft container, Chicago data center

Data center networks



Data center networks

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



Link layer, LANs: outline

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

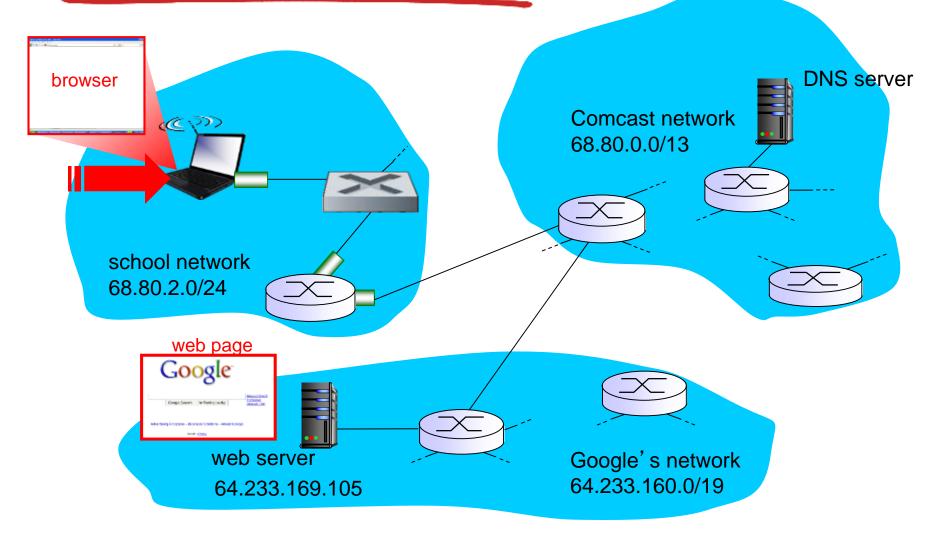
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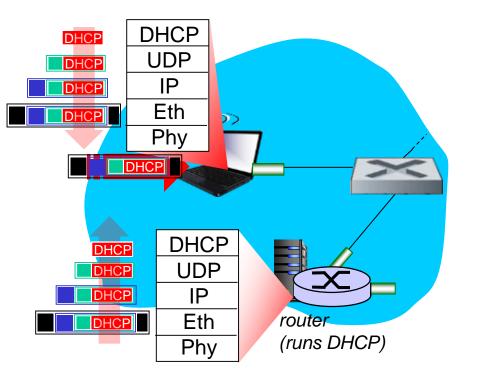
Synthesis: a day in the life of a web request

- 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 www.google.com

A day in the life: scenario

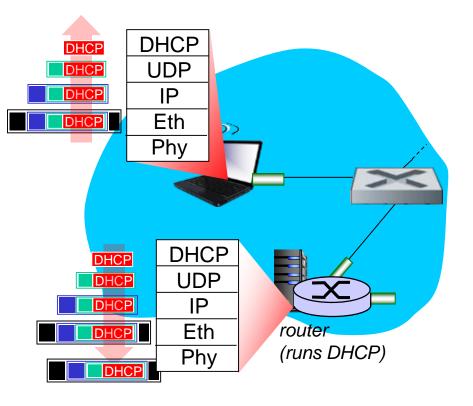


A day in the life... connecting to the Internet



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

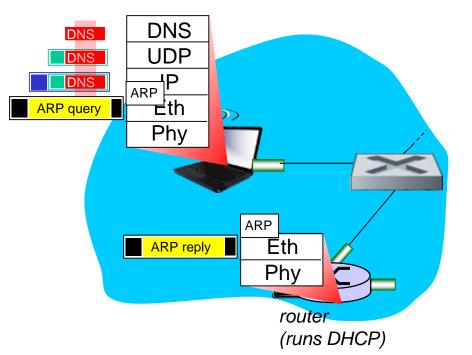
A day in the life... connecting to the Internet



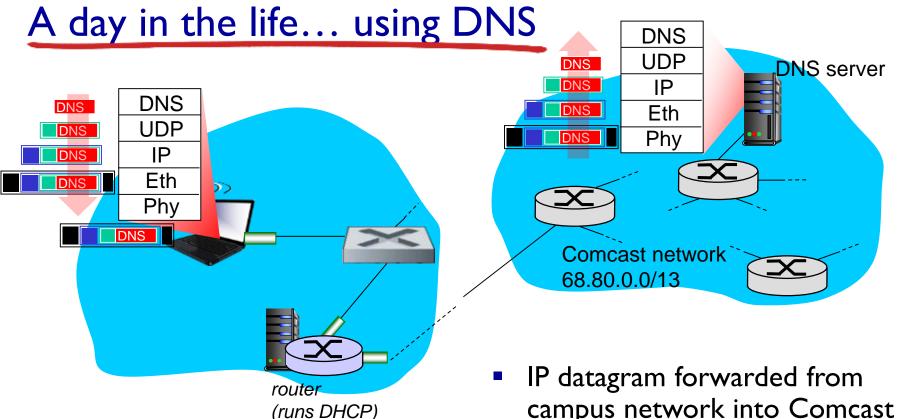
- DHCP server formulates DHCP ACK containing client's IP address, IP address of first-hop router for client, name & IP address of DNS server
- encapsulation at DHCP server, frame forwarded (switch learning) through LAN, demultiplexing at client
- DHCP client receives DHCP ACK reply

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

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

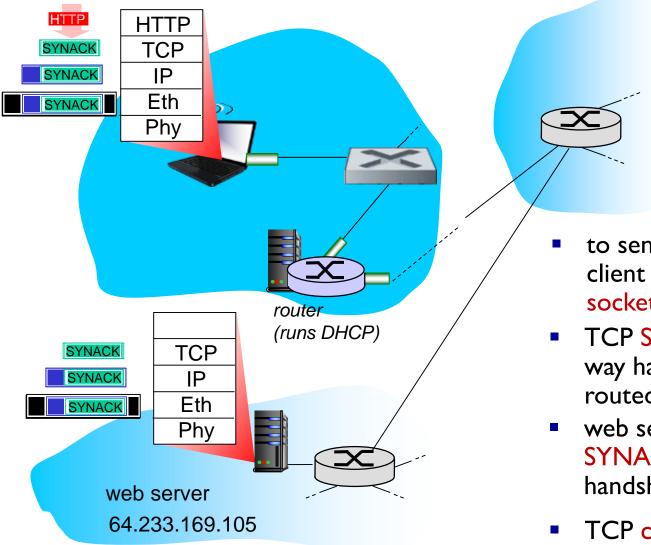


- before sending HTTP request, need IP address of www.google.com: DNS
- DNS query created, encapsulated in UDP, encapsulated in IP, encapsulated in Eth. To send frame to router, need MAC address of router interface: ARP
- ARP query broadcast, received by router, which replies with ARP reply giving MAC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



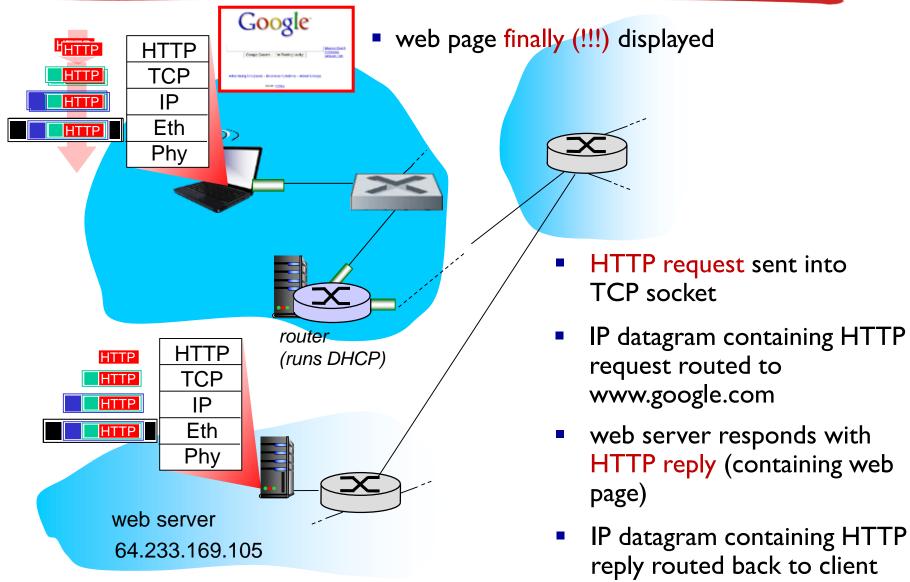
- IP datagram containing DNS query forwarded via LAN switch from client to 1st hop router
- IP datagram forwarded from campus network into Comcast network, routed (tables created by RIP, OSPF, IS-IS and/or BGP routing protocols) to DNS server
- demuxed to DNS server
- DNS server replies to client with IP address of www.google.com Link Layer and LANs 6-85

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 3way 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



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