COMP 3331/9331: Computer Networks and Applications Week 9 Data link Layer

Reading Guide: Chapter 6, Sections 6.1 - 6.4, 6.7



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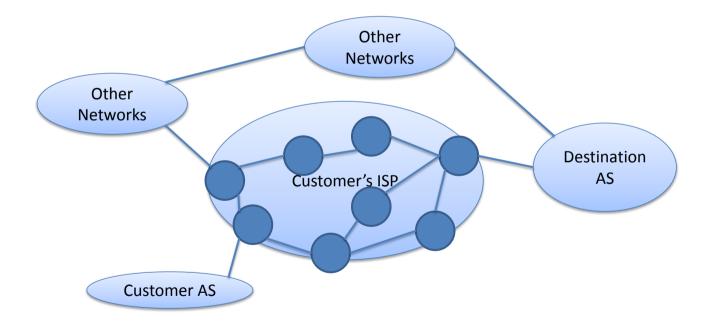
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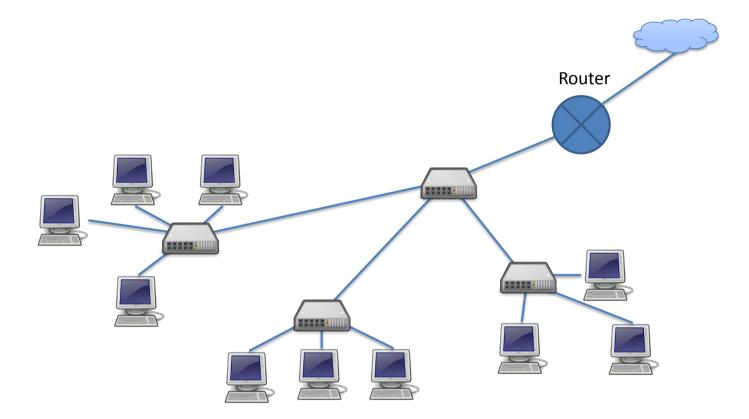


### From Macro- to Micro-

• Previously, we looked at Internet scale...



## Link layer focus: Within a Subnet



## Link layer and LANs: our goals

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

 instantiation, implementation of various link layer technologies

# Link layer, LANs: roadmap

### introduction

- error detection, correction
- multiple access protocols
- LANs
  - addressing, ARP
  - Ethernet
  - switches
  - VLANs (NOT COVERED)
- Iink virtualization: MPLS (NOT COVERED)
- data center networking (NOT COVERED)

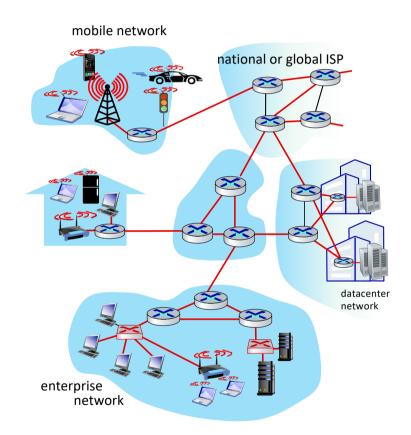
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# Link layer: introduction

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: context

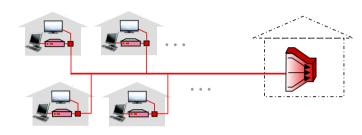
- datagram transferred by different link protocols over different links:
  - e.g., WiFi on first link, Ethernet on next link
- each link protocol provides different services
  - e.g., may or may not provide reliable data transfer over link

#### 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

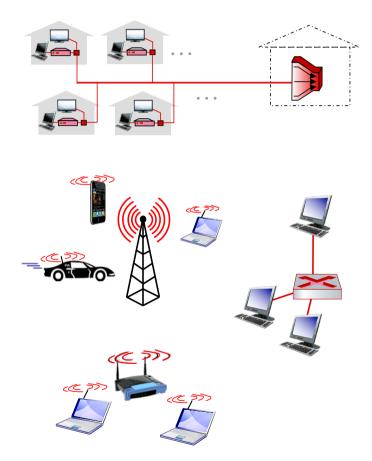
- framing, link access:
  - encapsulate datagram into frame, adding header, trailer
  - channel access if shared medium
  - "MAC" addresses in frame headers identify source, destination (different from IP address!)
- reliable delivery between adjacent nodes
  - we already know how to do this!
  - seldom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





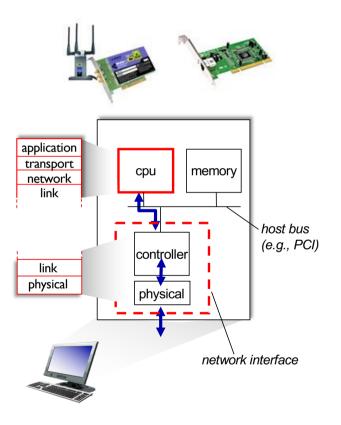
# Link layer: services (more)

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

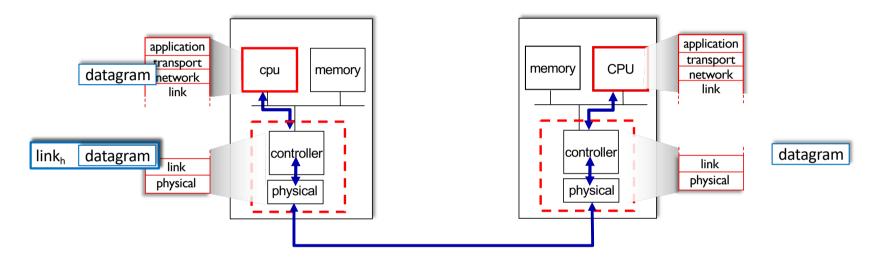


## Where is the link layer implemented?

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



### Interfaces communicating



sending side:

- encapsulates datagram in frame
- adds error checking bits, reliable data transfer, flow control, etc.

receiving side:

- looks for errors, reliable data transfer, flow control, etc.
- extracts datagram, passes to upper layer at receiving side

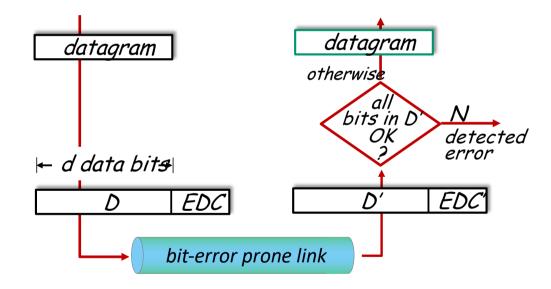
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### Error detection

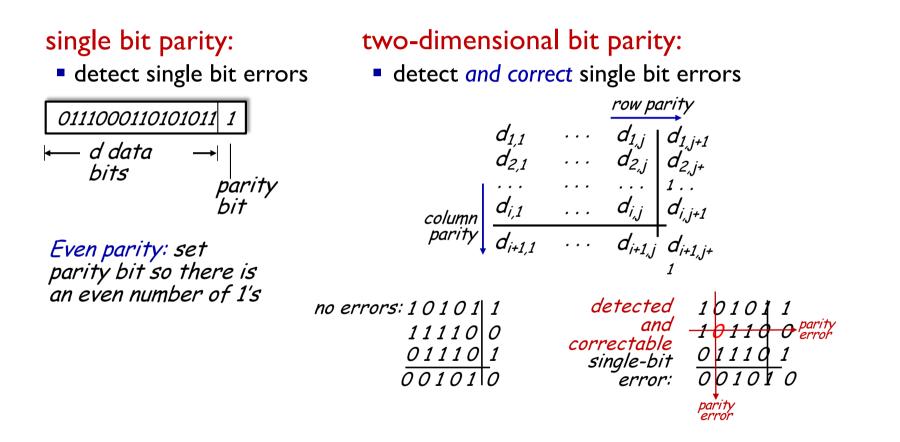
EDC: error detection and correction bits (e.g., redundancy) D: data protected by error checking, may include header fields



Error detection not 100% reliable!

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

## Parity checking



### Internet checksum (review)

Goal: detect errors (i.e., flipped bits) in transmitted segment

#### sender:

- treat contents of UDP segment (including UDP header fields and IP addresses) as sequence of 16-bit integers
- checksum: addition (one's complement sum) of segment content
- checksum value put into UDP checksum field

#### receiver:

- compute checksum of received segment
- check if computed checksum equals checksum field value:
  - not equal error detected
  - equal no error detected. *But maybe errors nonetheless?* More later ....

### In practice

- Bit errors occur in bursts.
- We're willing to trade computational complexity for space efficiency.
  - Make the detection routine more complex, to detect error bursts, without tons of extra data
- Insight: We need hardware to interface with the network, do the computation there!

# 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)

$$r CRC bits$$

$$+ d data bits$$

$$D R - bit pattern$$

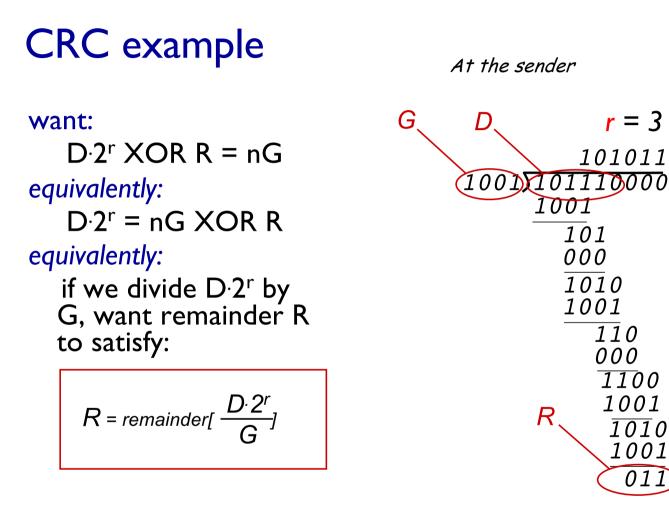
$$< D, R > = D + 2^{r} XOR - R - formula for bit pattern$$

<u>goal</u>: choose r CRC bits, R, such that  $\langle D, R \rangle$  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)

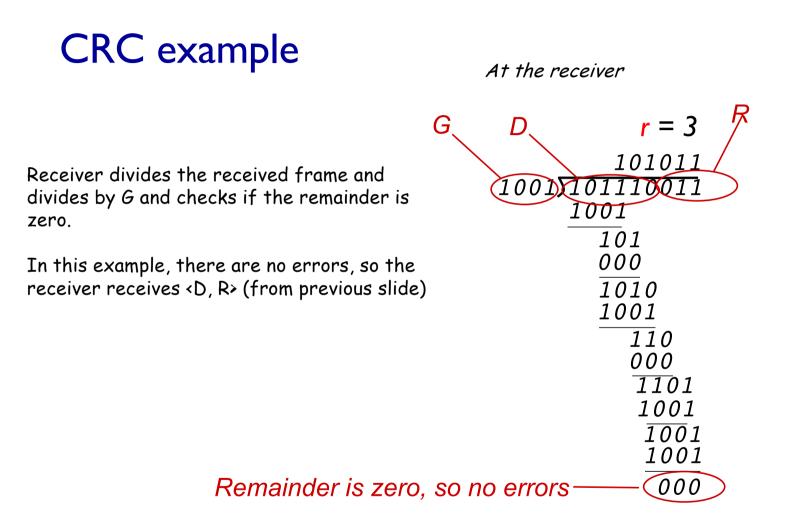
## A Note on Modulo-2 Arithmetic

- All calculations are modulo-2 arithmetic
- No carries or borrows in subtraction
- Addition and subtraction are identical and both are equivalent to XOR
  - 1011 XOR 0101 = 1110
  - |0|| 0|0| = |||0
  - |0|| + 0|0| = |||0
- Multiplication by  $2^k$  is essentially a left shift by k bits
  - $|0|| \times 2^2 = |0||00$



Sender sends <D, R> into the channel

r = 3





#### **Quiz: Error Detection/Correction**

 Can these schemes respectively correct any bit errors: Internet checksums, two-dimensional parity, cyclic redundancy check (CRC)

a) Yes, No, No

- b) No, Yes, Yes
- c) No, Yes, No
- d) No, No, Yes
- e) No, No, No

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Answer: C

# Link layer, LANs: roadmap

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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/4G. satellite





shared wire (e.g., cabled Ethernet)

shared radio: 4G/5G



shared radio: WiFi







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 protoc<del>ol</del>

- 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: multiple access channel (MAC) 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

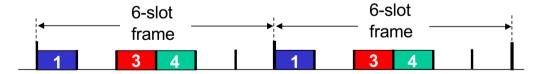
#### random access

- 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

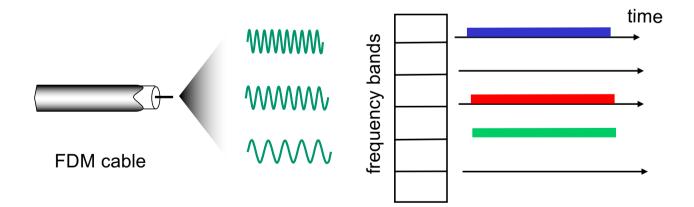
- access to channel in "rounds"
- each station gets fixed length slot (length = packet transmission time) in each round
- unused slots go idle
- example: 6-station LAN, 1,3,4 have packets to send, slots 2,5,6 idle



# 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





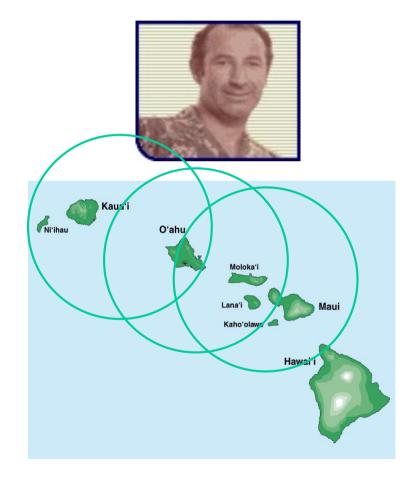
#### Quiz: Does channel partitioning satisfy ideal properties ?

•	node wants to transmit, it can send at rate R.
<ol> <li>when M nodes want to transmit, each can send at average rate R/M (fairness)</li> <li>fully decentralized:</li> </ol>	
<ul> <li>no speci</li> </ul>	al node to coordinate transmissions
4. simple	
A. 0	www.pollev.com/salil
B. 1	•
C. 2	
D. 3	ANSWER: B
E. 4	Only 4 is satisfied
	Note that 2 is satisfied if M=N (no of nodes on the network)
(Which ones?)	However, more generally for M < N, 2 is not satisfied

## Random access protocols

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

## Where it all Started: AlohaNet



- Norm Abramson left Stanford in 1970 (*so he could surf!*)
- Set up first data communication system for Hawaiian islands
- Central hub at U. Hawaii, Oahu

# Slotted ALOHA

#### assumptions:

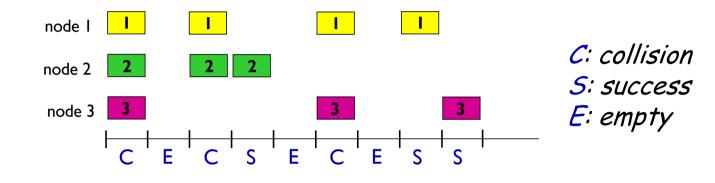
- all frames same size
- time divided into equal size slots (time to transmit 1 frame)
- nodes start to transmit only slot beginning
- nodes are synchronized
- if 2 or more nodes transmit in slot, all nodes detect collision

#### 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

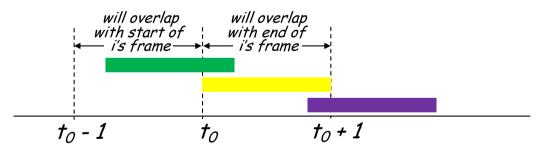
## Slotted ALOHA: efficiency

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  $Np^*(I-p^*)^{N-I}$  as N goes to infinity, gives: max efficiency = I/e = .37
- \* at best: channel used for useful transmissions 37% of time!

# Pure ALOHA

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



• pure Aloha efficiency: 18% !

# CSMA (carrier sense multiple access)

simple CSMA: listen before transmit:

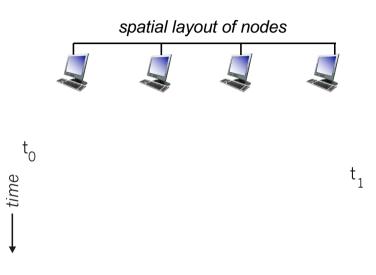
- if channel sensed idle: transmit entire frame
- if channel sensed busy: defer transmission
- human analogy: don 't interrupt others!

#### 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

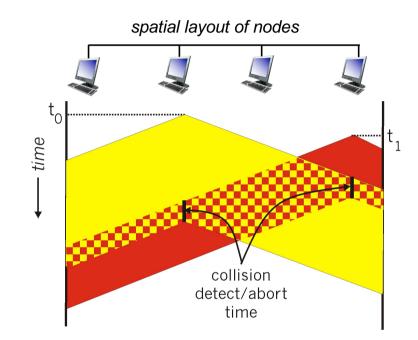
- collisions can still occur with carrier sensing:
  - propagation delay means two nodes may not hear each other's just-started transmission
- collision: entire packet transmission time wasted
  - distance & propagation delay play role in in determining collision probability



Т

# CSMA/CD:

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



http://media.pearsoncmg.com/aw/aw\_kurose\_network\_2/applets/csmacd/csmacd.html

# Ethernet CSMA/CD algorithm

- I. 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<sup>m</sup>-1}. NIC waits K<sup>·</sup>512 bit times, returns to Step 2
  - more collisions: longer backoff interval

# CSMA/CD efficiency

- $T_{prop}$  = max prop delay between 2 nodes in LAN
- t<sub>trans</sub> = 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<sub>trans</sub> goes to infinity
- better performance than ALOHA: and simple, cheap, decentralized!



### Quiz: Does CSMA/CD satisfy ideal properties ?

1. if only one node wa	ants to transmit, it can send at rate R.			
<ol> <li>when M nodes war R/M (fairness)</li> </ol>	nt to transmit, each can send at average rate			
<ol><li>fully decentralized:</li></ol>				
<ul> <li>no synchronization</li> </ul>	on of clocks, slots			
<ul> <li>no special node</li> </ul>	to coordinate transmissions			
4. simple	www.pollev.com/salil			
A. 0				
B. 1				
C. 2	Answer: D			
D. 3	1, 3 and 4 are satisfied			
E. 4	2 is not satisfied as bandwidth is wasted due to			
(Which ones?)	collisions when multiple nodes are transmitting (neglect the overheads for channel sensing)			

# "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!

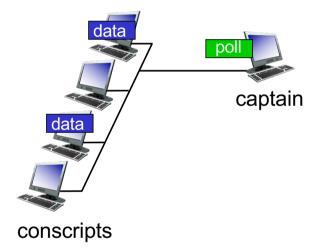
#### random access MAC protocols

- efficient at low load: single node can fully utilize channel
- high load: collision overhead
- "taking turns" protocols
  - Iook for best of both worlds!

# "Taking turns" MAC protocols

#### polling:

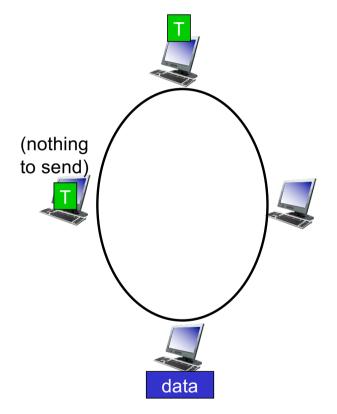
- captain node "invites" other nodes to transmit in turn
- typically used with "dumb" devices
- concerns:
  - polling overhead
  - latency
  - single point of failure (captain)



# "Taking turns" MAC protocols

### token passing:

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

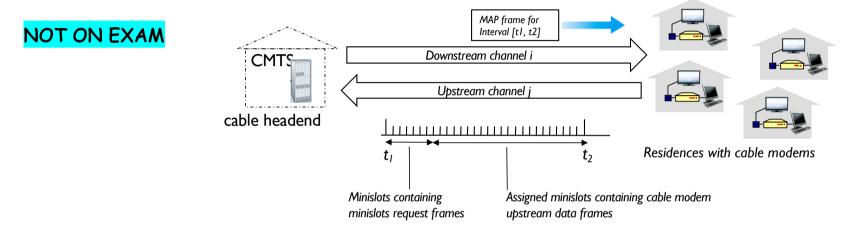


## Cable access network: FDM, TDM and random access!

# NOT ON EXAM Internet frames, TV channels, control transmitted downstream at different frequencies

- multiple downstream (broadcast) FDM channels: up to 1.6 Gbps/channel
  - single CMTS transmits into channels
- multiple upstream channels (up to 1 Gbps/channel)
  - multiple access: all users contend (random access) for certain upstream channel time slots; others assigned TDM

# Cable access network:



#### **DOCSIS:** data over cable service interface specificaiton

- 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

### Quiz: Does taking turns satisfy ideal properties ?



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A. 0	
B. 1	
C. 2	
D. 3	www.pollev.com/salil
E. 4	·
(Which ones?)	Answer: D 1, 2 and 4 are satisfied

(neglect the overheads for polling and token passing)

# 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

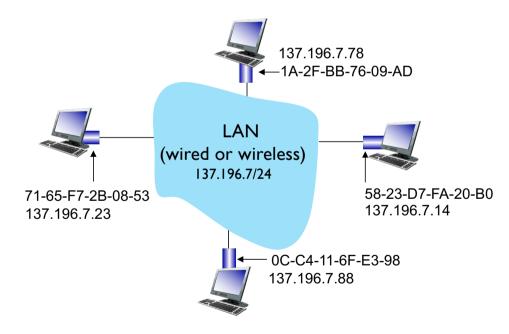
- 32-bit IP address:
  - network-layer address for interface
  - used for layer 3 (network layer) forwarding
  - e.g.: 128.119.40.136
- MAC (or LAN or physical or Ethernet) address:
  - function: used "locally" to get frame from one interface to another physically-connected interface (same subnet, in 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)



# MAC addresses

- MAC address allocation administered by IEEE
- manufacturer buys portion of MAC address space (to assure uniqueness)
- analogy:
  - MAC address: like TFN (SSN)
  - IP address: like postal address
- MAC flat address: portability
  - can move interface from one LAN to another
  - recall IP address not portable: depends on IP subnet to which node is attached

# MAC Address vs. IP Address

- MAC addresses (used in link-layer)
  - Hard-coded in read-only memory when adapter is built
  - Flat name space of 48 bits (e.g., 00-0E-9B-6E-49-76)
  - Portable, and can stay the same as the host moves
  - Used to get packet between interfaces on same network

#### ✤ IP addresses

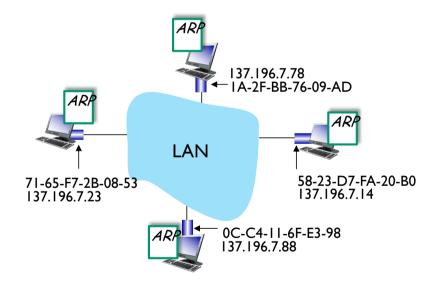
- learned dynamically
- Hierarchical name space of 32 bits (e.g., 12.178.66.9)
- Not portable, and depends on where the host is attached
- Used to get a packet to destination IP subnet

# Taking Stock: Naming

Layer	Examples	Structure	Configuration	Resolution Service
App. Layer	www.cse.unsw.edu.au	organizational hierarchy	~ manual	DNS
Network Layer	129.94.242.51	topological hierarchy	DHCP	↓
Link layer	45-CC-4E-12-F0-97	vendor (flat)	hard-coded	

# 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:

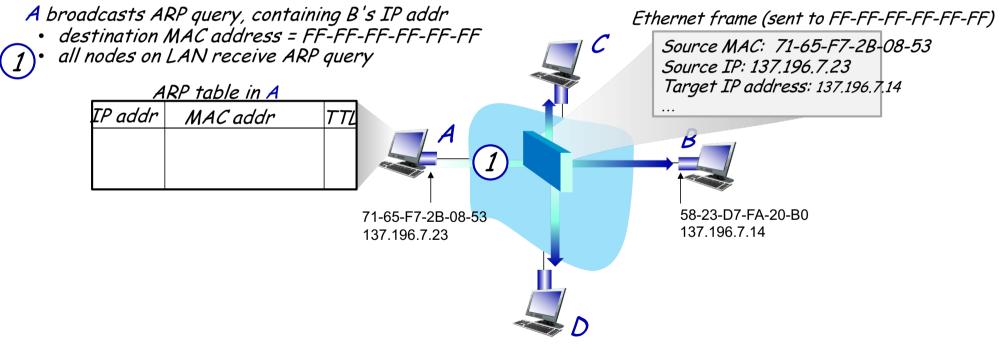
< IP address; MAC address; TTL>

• 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

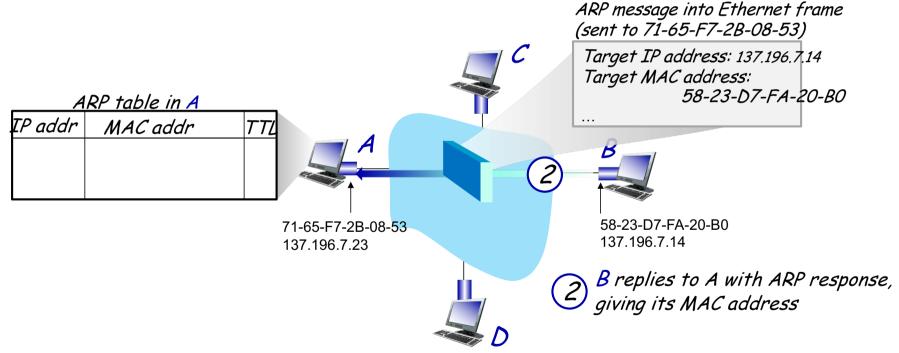
• B's MAC address not in A's ARP table, so A uses ARP to find B's MAC address



# ARP protocol in action

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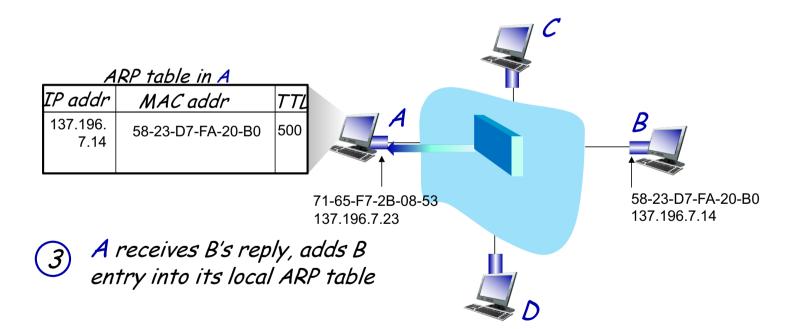
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# ARP protocol in action

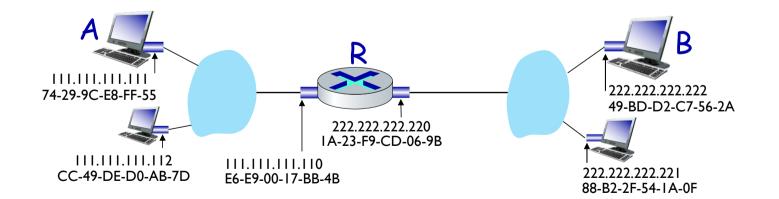
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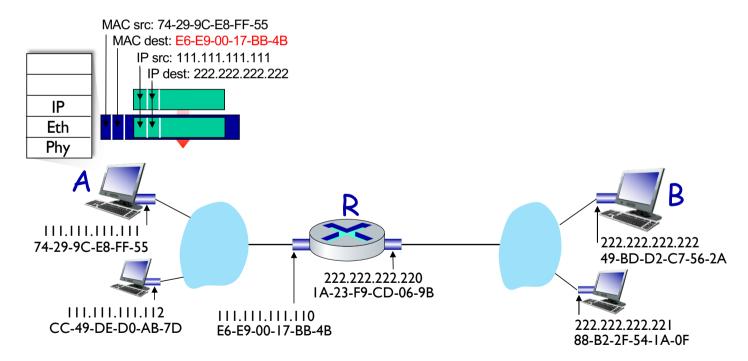


walkthrough: sending a datagram from A to B via R

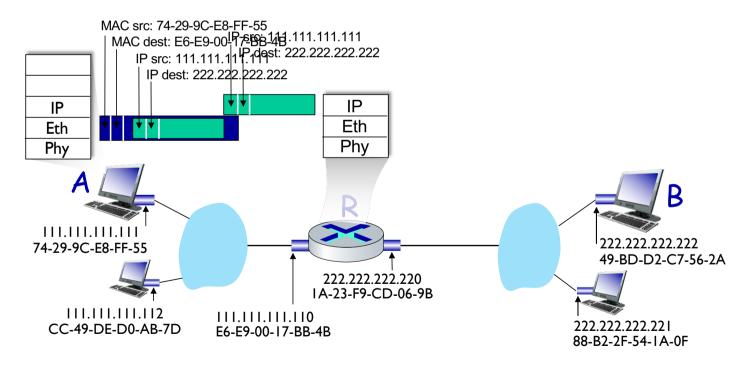
- focus on addressing at IP (datagram) and MAC layer (frame) levels
- assume that:
  - A knows B's IP address (how does A know that the next-hop is Router R?)
  - A knows IP address of first hop router, R (how?)
  - A knows R's MAC address (how?)



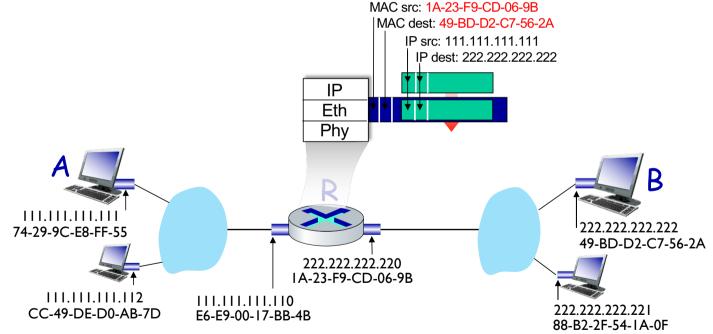
- A creates IP datagram with IP source A, destination B
- A creates link-layer frame containing A-to-B IP datagram
  - *R's* MAC address is frame's destination



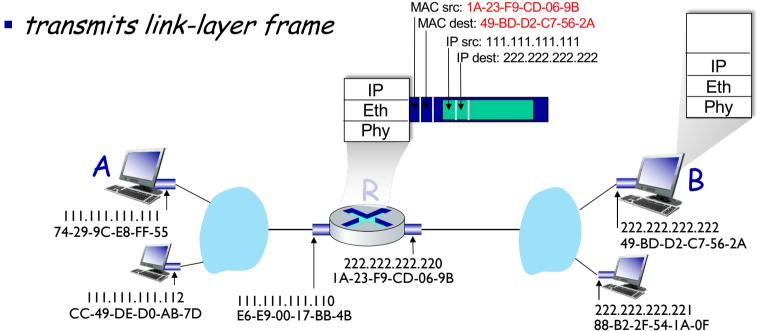
- frame sent from A to R
- frame received at R, datagram removed, passed up to IP



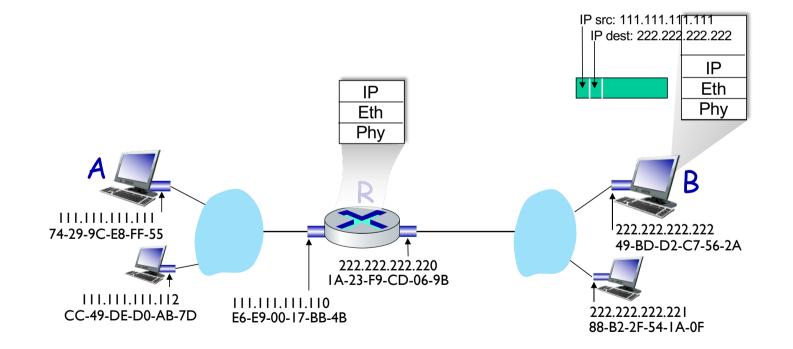
- R determines outgoing interface, passes datagram with IP source A, destination B to link layer
- R creates link-layer frame containing A-to-B IP datagram. Frame destination address: B's MAC address



- 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



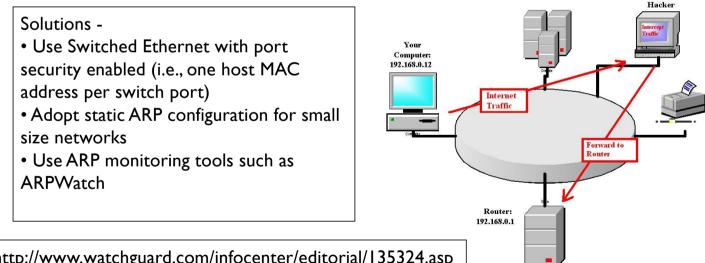
- B receives frame, extracts IP datagram destination
- B passes datagram up protocol stack to IP



# Security Issues: ARP Cache Poisoning



- Denial of Service Hacker replies back to an ARP query for a router NIC with a fake \* MAC address
- Man-in-the-middle attack Hacker can insert his/her machine along the path between ••• victim machine and gateway router
- Such attacks are generally hard to launch as hacker needs physical access to the network \*



http://www.watchguard.com/infocenter/editorial/135324.asp

# Link layer, LANs: roadmap

#### introduction

- error detection, correction
- multiple access protocols
- LANs
  - addressing, ARP
  - Ethernet
  - switches
  - VLANs (NOT COVERED)
- Ink virtualization: MPLS (NOT COVERED)
- data center networking (NOT COVERED)

a day in the life of a web request

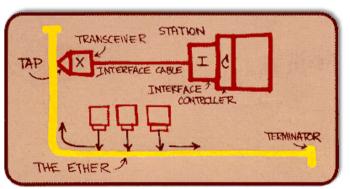
# Ethernet

"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., Broadcom BCM5761)

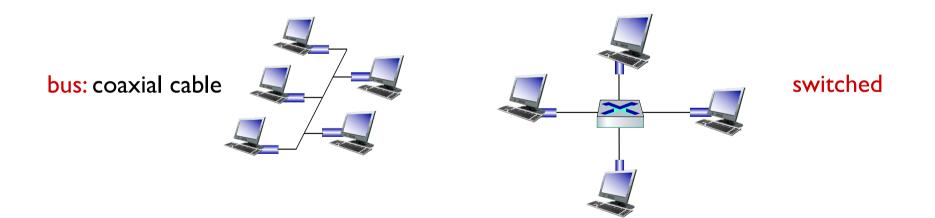


Metcalfe's Ethernet sketch

https://www.uspto.gov/learning-and-resources/journeys-innovation/audio-stories/defying-doubters

# 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

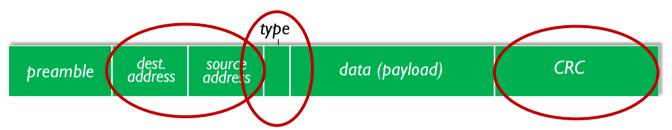
sending interface encapsulates IP datagram (or other network layer protocol packet) in Ethernet frame



#### preamble:

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

### Ethernet frame structure (more)



- addresses: 6 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
  - used to demultiplex up at receiver
- CRC: cyclic redundancy check at receiver
  - error detected: frame is dropped

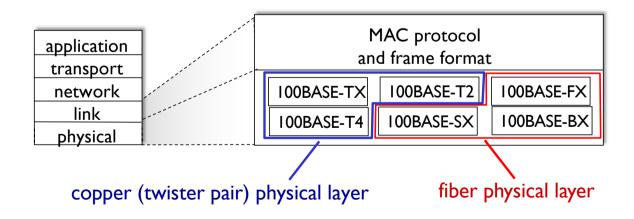
#### Ethernet: unreliable, connectionless

- connectionless: no handshaking between sending and receiving NICs
- unreliable: receiving NIC doesn't send ACKs or NAKs 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

#### NOT ON EXAM

- 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



# Link layer, LANs: roadmap

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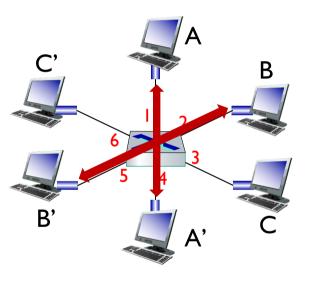
a day in the life of a web request

## Ethernet switch

- Switch is a link-layer device: it 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 unaware of presence of switches
- plug-and-play, self-learning
  - switches do not need to be configured

# Switch: multiple simultaneous transmissions

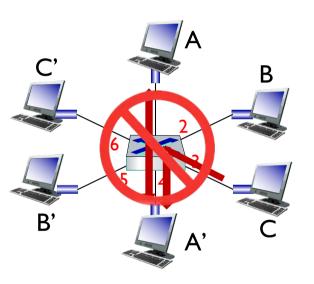
- hosts have dedicated, direct connection to switch
- switches buffer packets
- Ethernet protocol used on each incoming link, so:
  - no collisions; full duplex
  - each link is its own collision domain
- switching: A-to-A' and B-to-B' can transmit simultaneously, without collisions



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

# Switch: 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
  - but A-to-A' and C to A' can not happen simultaneously



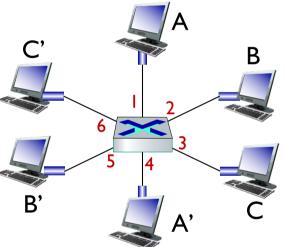
switch with six interfaces (1,2,3,4,5,6)

## Switch forwarding table

Q: how does switch know A' reachable via interface 4, B' reachable via interface 5?

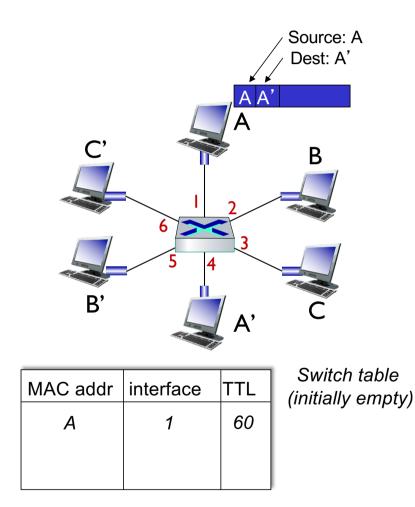
<u>A</u>: each switch has a switch table, each entry:

- (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: 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



# Switch: frame filtering/forwarding

when frame received at switch:

I. record incoming link, MAC address of sending host

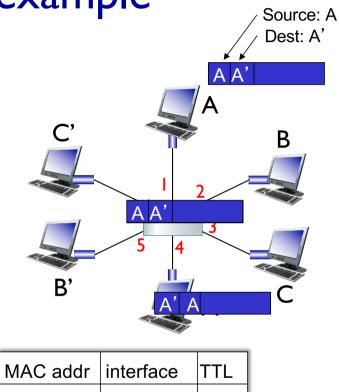
- 2. index switch table using MAC destination address
- 3. if entry found for destination then {
  - if destination on segment from which frame arrived then drop frame

else forward frame on interface indicated by entry

else flood /\* forward on all interfaces except arriving interface \*/

#### Self-learning, forwarding: example

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



60

60

1

4

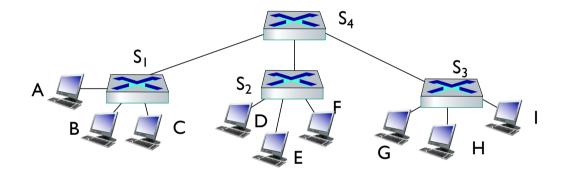
Α

A'

switch table (initially empty)

#### Interconnecting switches

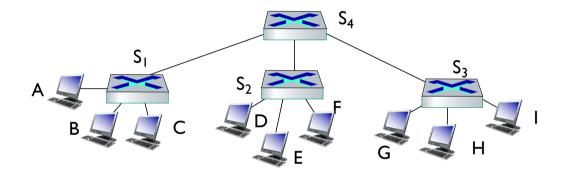
self-learning switches can be connected together:



- <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!)

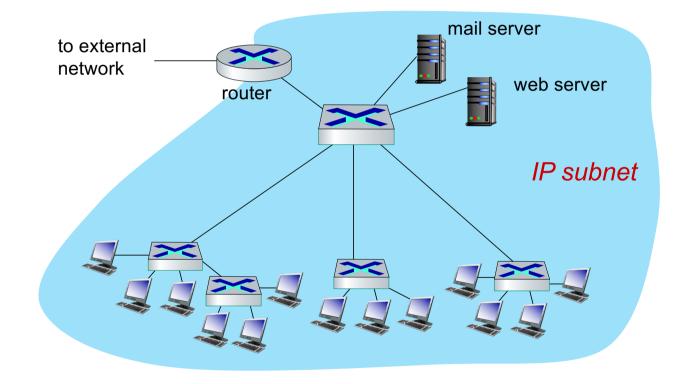
#### Self-learning multi-switch example

Suppose C sends frame to I, I responds to C



 $\underline{Q}$ : show switch tables and packet forwarding in  $S_1,\,S_2,\,S_3,\,S_4$ 

#### Small institutional network



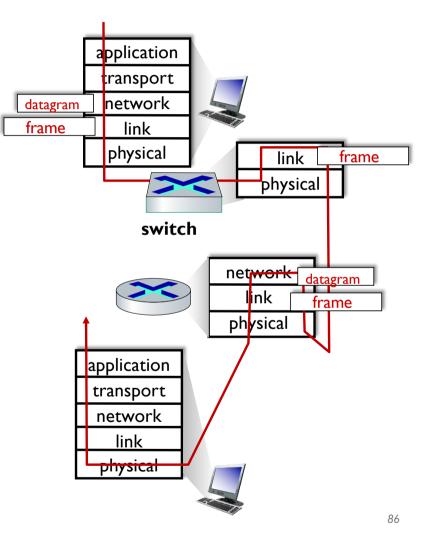
# Switches vs. routers

#### both are store-and-forward:

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

#### both have forwarding tables:

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



## Security Issues

- In a switched LAN once the switch table entries are established frames are not broadcast
  - Sniffing frames is harder than pure broadcast LANs
  - Note: attacker can still sniff broadcast frames and frames for which there are no entries (as they are broadcast)
- Switch Poisoning: Attacker fills up switch table with bogus entries by sending large # of frames with bogus source MAC addresses
- Since switch table is full, genuine packets frequently need to be broadcast as previous entries have been wiped out

# ?

# Quiz

- A switch can
  - A. Filter a frame
  - B. Forward a frame
  - C. Extend a LAN

Answer: D

D. All of the above

www.pollev.com/salil

# Quiz



The \_\_\_\_\_ will typically change from link to link, but the \_\_\_\_\_ will typically remain the same

A. Source MAC address, destination MAC address

Answer: D

- B. Source IP address, destination IP address
- C. Source & destination IP addresses, source & destination MAC addresses
- D. Source & destination MAC addresses, source & destination IP addresses

www.pollev.com/salil

# Link layer, LANs: roadmap

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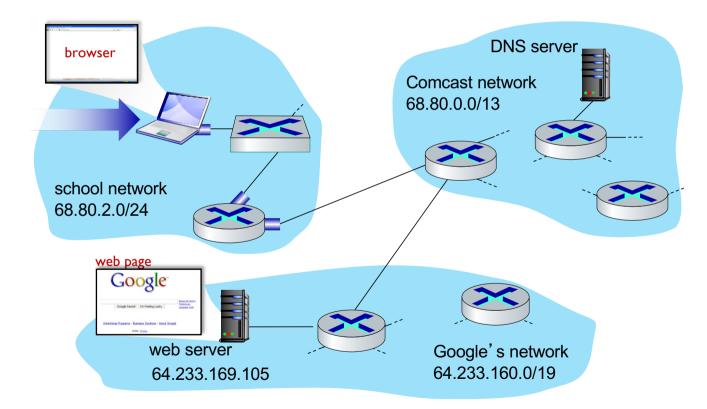
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a day in the life of a web request

# 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

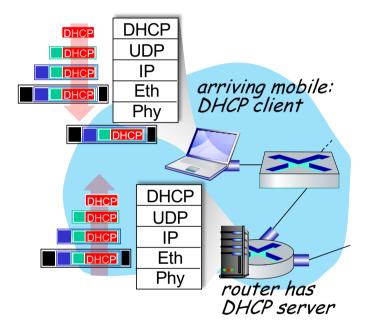


#### scenario:

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

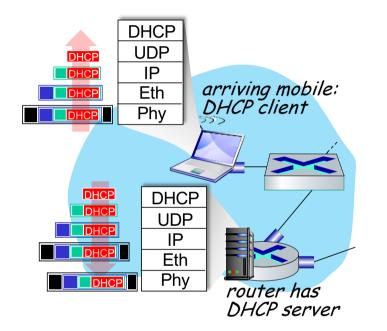


# A day in the life: connecting to the Internet



- 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

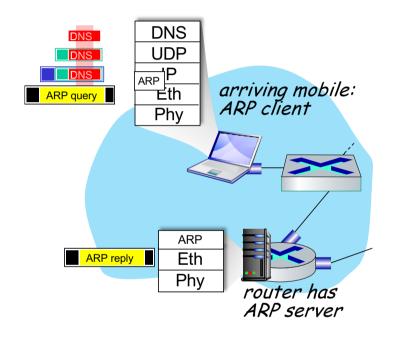
## A day in the life: connecting to the Internet



- 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

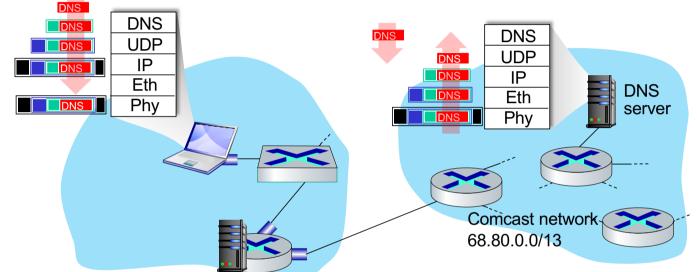
Client now has IP address, knows name & addr of DNS server, IP address of its first-hop router

## 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

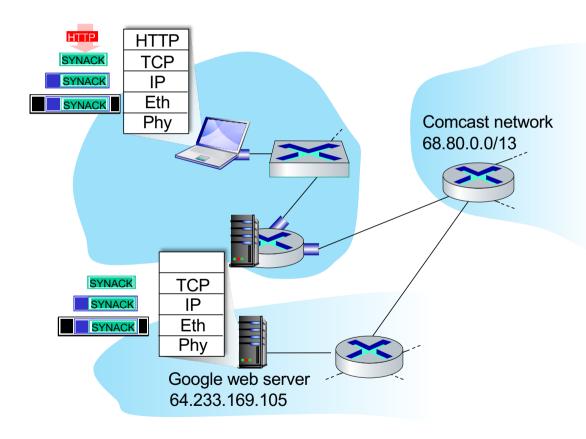


- demuxed to DNS
- DNS replies to client with IP address of www.google.com

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

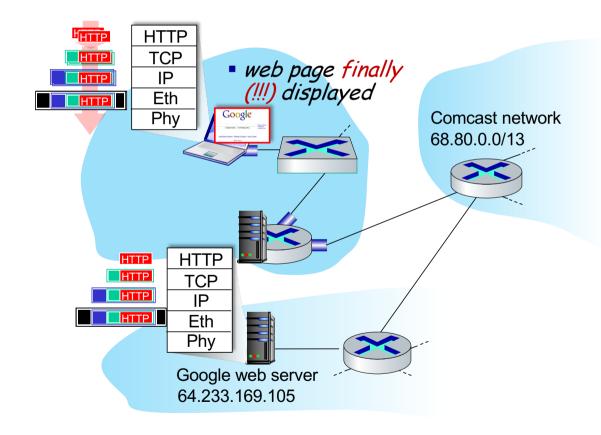
 IP datagram forwarded from campus network into Comcast network, routed (tables created by RIP, OSPF, IS-IS and/or BGP routing protocols) to DNS server

# 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) interdomain routed to web server
- web server responds with TCP SYNACK (step 2 in TCP 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

# Link Layer: 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,

synthesis: a day in the life of a web request