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Chapter 6

The Link Layer and LANs

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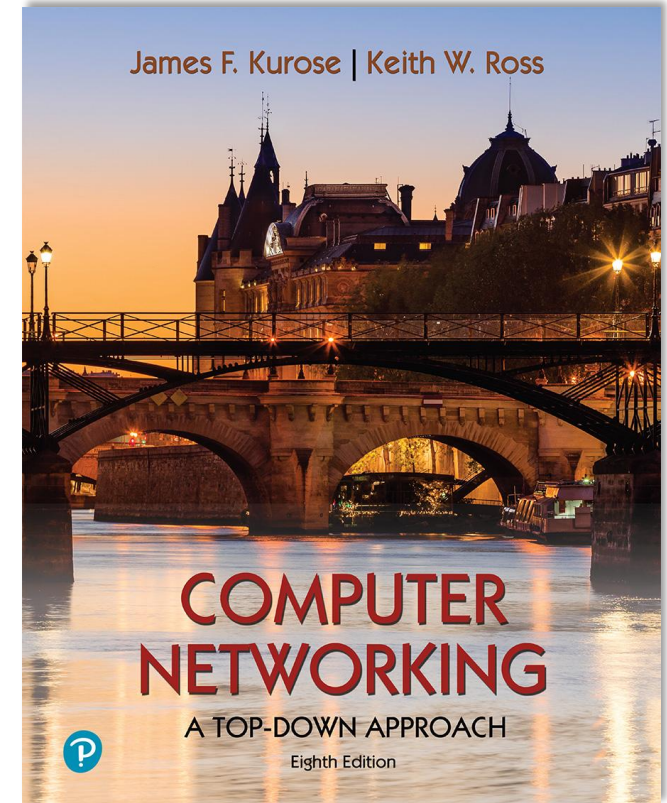
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*Computer Networking: A
Top-Down Approach*

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

- introduction
- error detection, correction
- multiple access protocols
- LANs
 - addressing, ARP
 - Ethernet
 - switches
 - VLANs
- link virtualization: MPLS
- data center networking



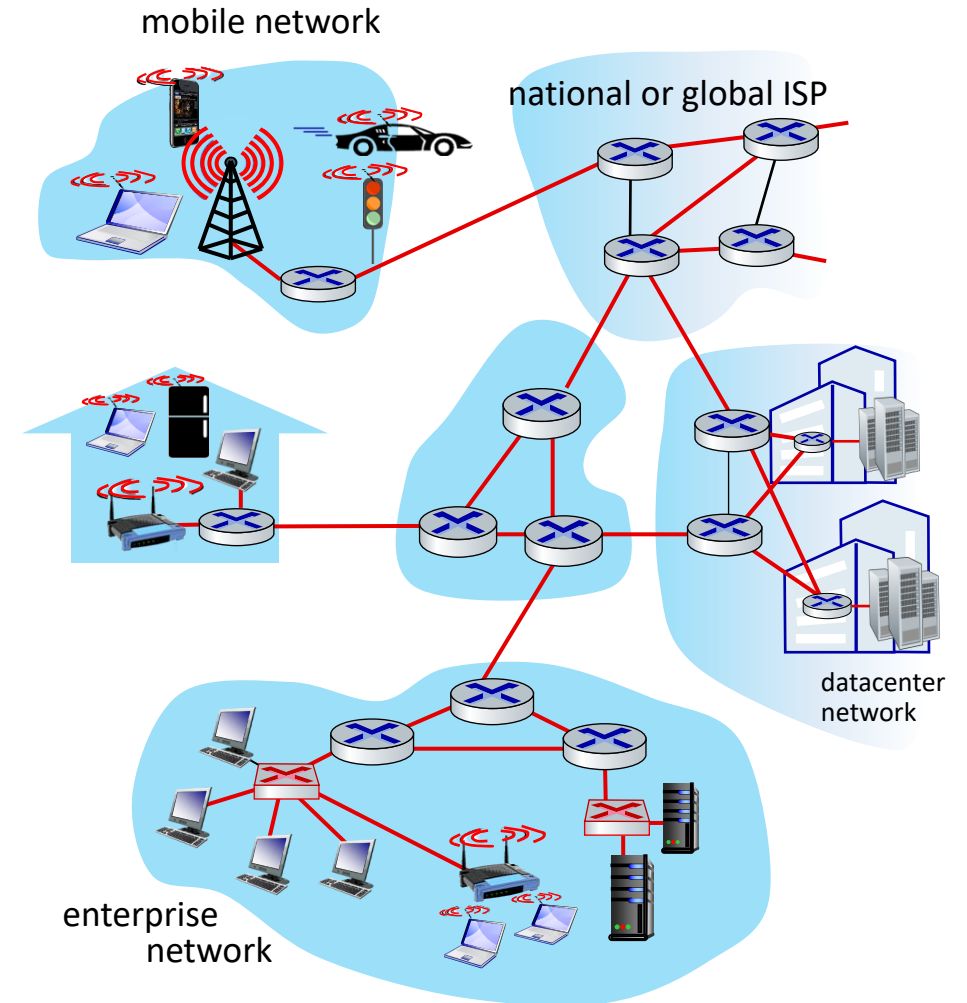
- a day in the life of a web request

Link layer: introduction

terminology:

- hosts, 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*



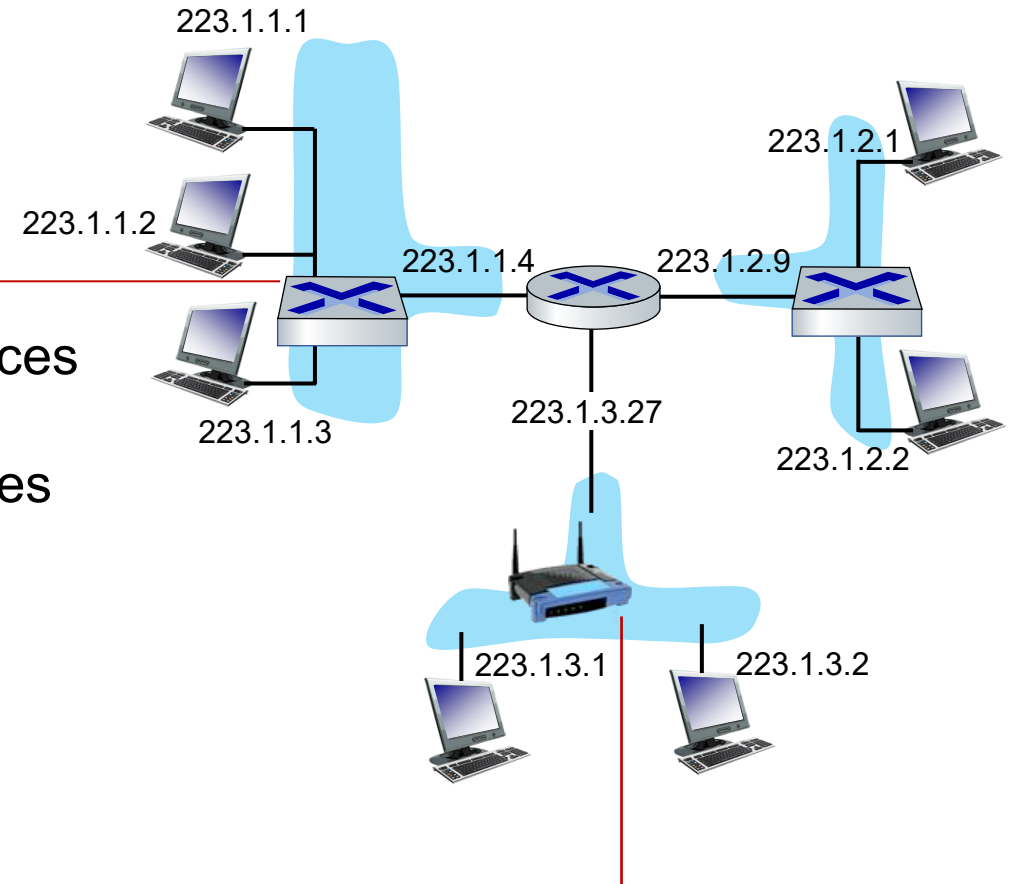
IP addressing: introduction

Q: how are interfaces actually connected?

A: we'll learn about that in chapters 6, 7

For now: don't need to worry about how one interface is connected to another (with no intervening router)

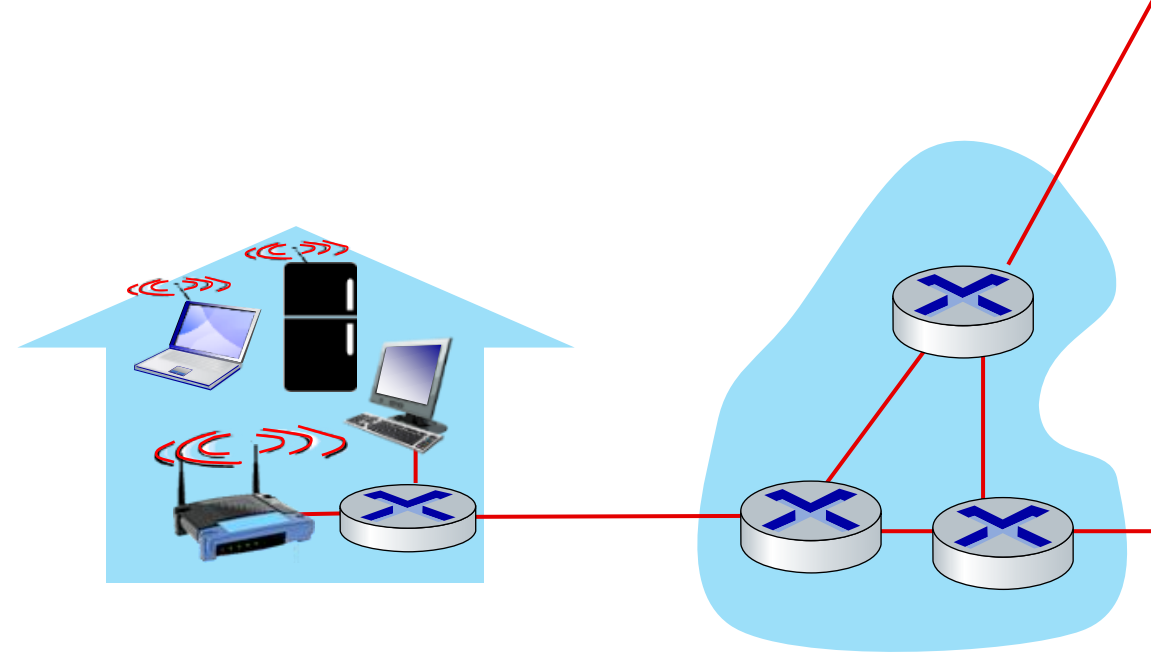
A: wired Ethernet interfaces connected by Ethernet switches



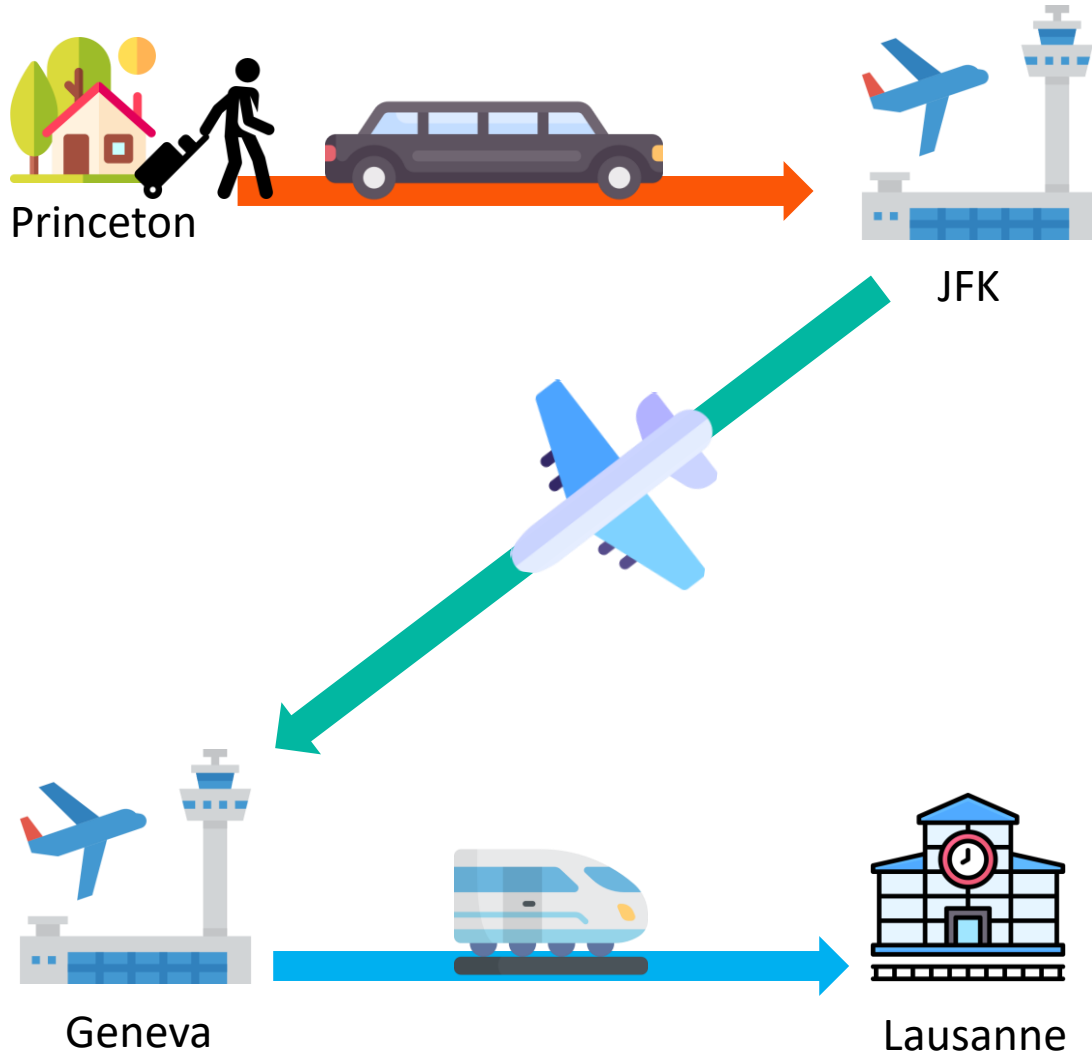
A: wireless WiFi interfaces connected by WiFi base station

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



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**

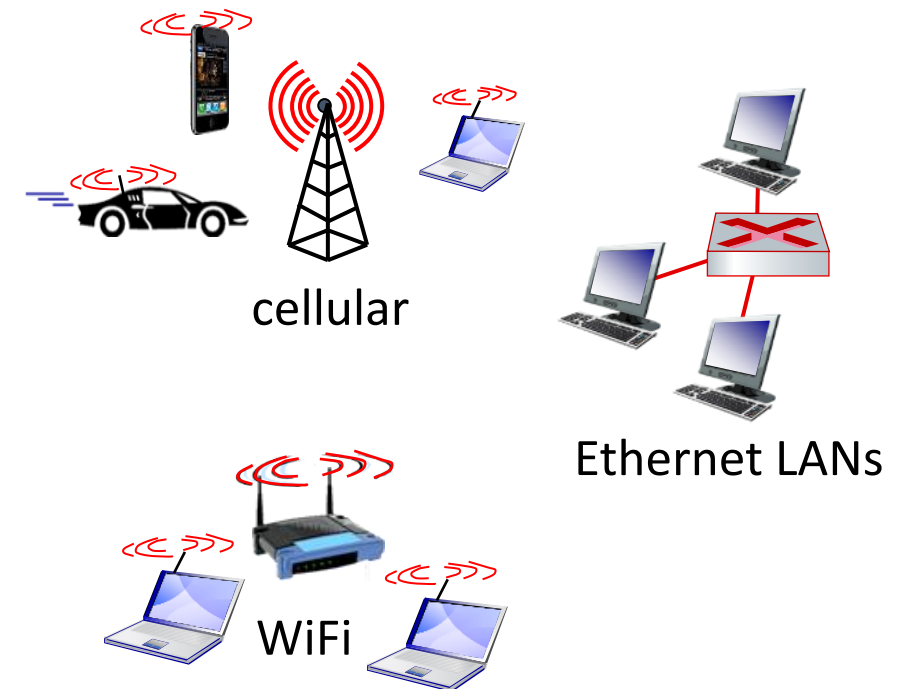
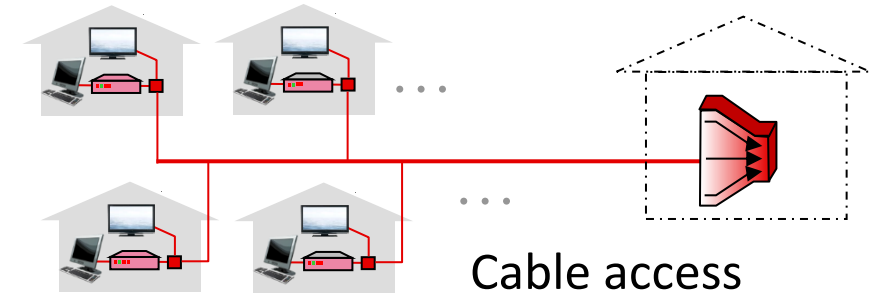
Link layer: services

■ framing, link access:

- encapsulate datagram into frame, adding header
- channel access if shared medium
- “MAC” addresses in frame headers identify source, destination (different from IP address!)

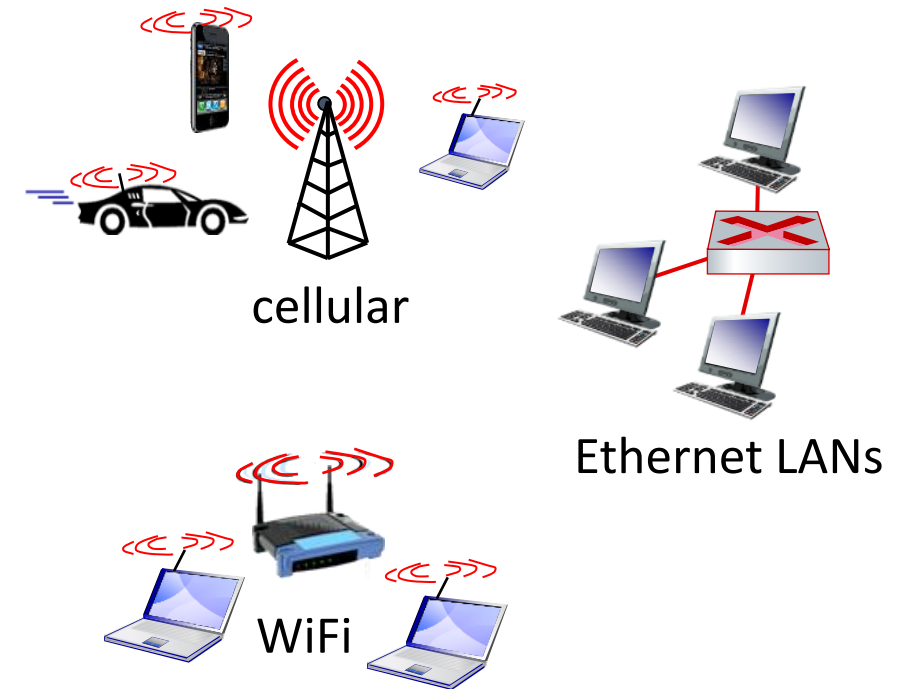
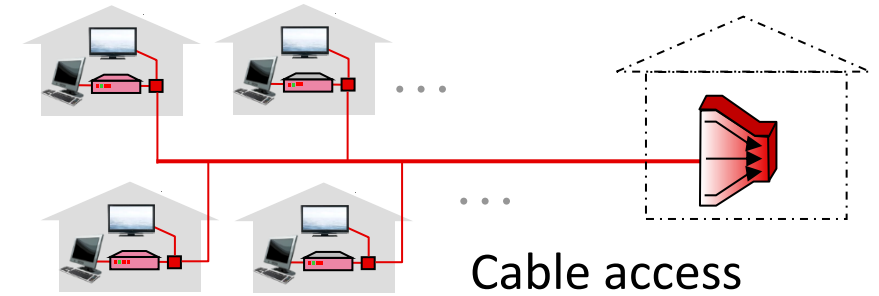
■ reliable delivery between adjacent nodes

- we already know how to do this!
- seldom used on low bit-error links
- wireless links: high error rates



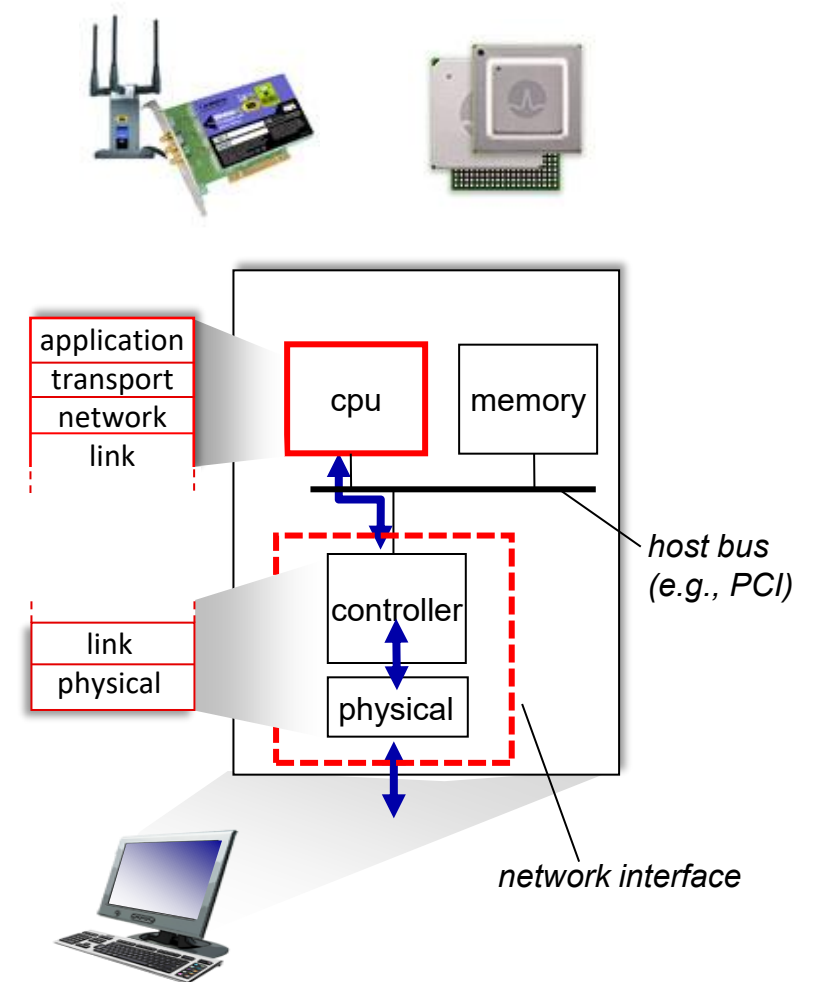
Link layer: services (more)

- **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

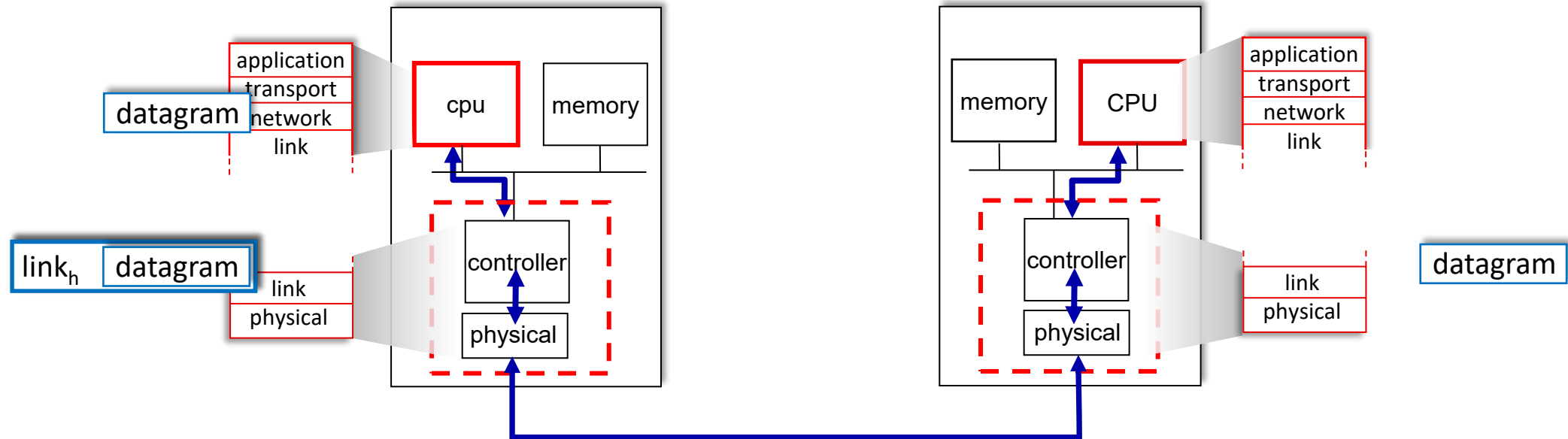


Host link-layer implementation

- 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



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

Link layer, LANs: roadmap

- introduction
- **error detection, correction**
- multiple access protocols
- LANs
 - addressing, ARP
 - Ethernet
 - switches
 - VLANs
- link virtualization: MPLS
- data center networking

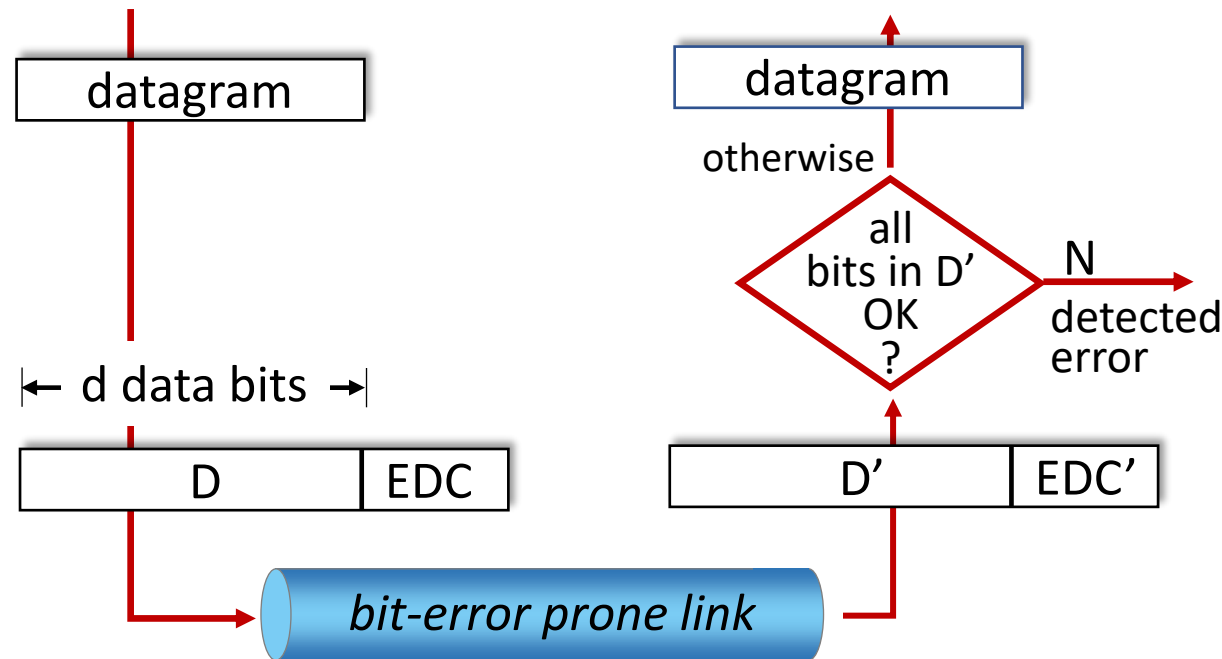


- a day in the life of a web request

Error detection

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

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



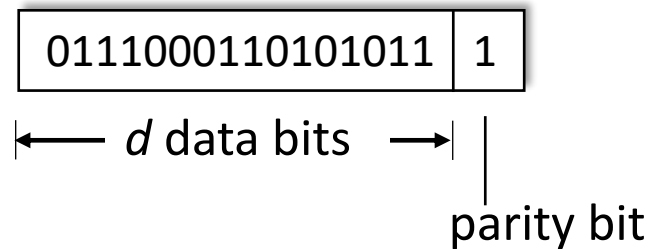
Error detection not 100% reliable!

- 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

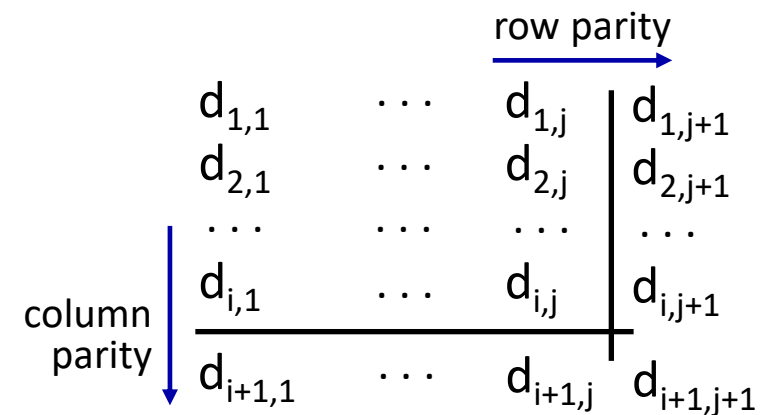
At receiver:

- compute parity of d received bits
- compare with received parity bit
– if different than error detected



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

- two-dimensional parity: detect *and correct* single bit errors



no errors:

1	0	1	0	1	1
1	1	1	1	0	0
0	1	1	1	0	1
0	0	1	0	1	0

detected and correctable single-bit error:

1	0	1	0	1	1
1	0	1	1	0	0
0	1	1	1	0	1
0	0	1	0	1	0

parity error $\rightarrow$

$\downarrow$
parity error

Internet checksum (review, see section 3.3)

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?*

Internet checksum

Sender side

1 Data words (16 bits each)

- Word 1: 0000000000000101
- Word 2: 0000000000000011

2 Add them using 16-bit one's complement addition

Add:

```
text

0000000000000101
+ 0000000000000011
-----
0000000000001000
```

3 Invert all bits (one's complement) → this is the checksum

Invert:

```
text

0000000000001000
= 1111111111110111 (checksum)
```

Receiver side

1 Add data words

```
text

0000000000000101
+ 0000000000000011
-----
0000000000001000
```

2 Add the checksum word

```
text

0000000000001000
+ 1111111111110111
-----
1111111111111111
```

For UDP one's complement checksum:

- If the final sum (over *all* words, including checksum) is **all 1s** (1111111111111111),
→ the packet is considered **correct**.
- If it's **anything else**, the packet is considered **corrupted**.

Link layer, LANs: roadmap

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- **multiple access protocols**
- LANs
 - addressing, ARP
 - Ethernet
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 - VLANs
- link virtualization: MPLS
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- a day in the life of a web request

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-school Ethernet
 - upstream HFC in cable-based access network
 - 802.11 wireless LAN, 4G/4G. satellite



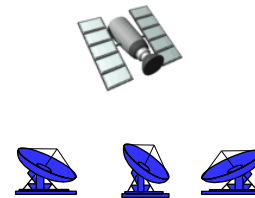
shared wire (e.g.,
cabled Ethernet)



shared radio: 4G/5G



shared radio: WiFi



shared radio: 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: multiple access channel (MAC) of rate R bps

desiderata:

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

MAC protocols: taxonomy

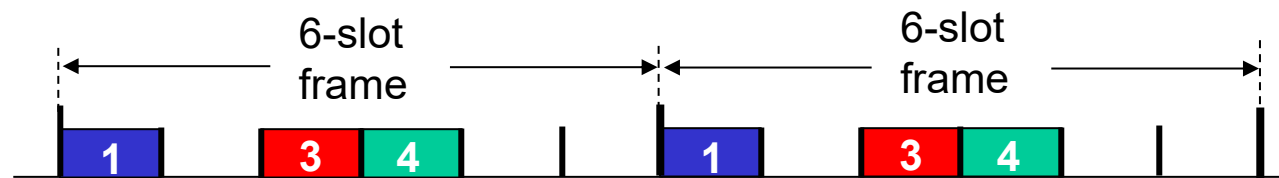
three broad classes:

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

Channel partitioning MAC protocols: TDMA

TDMA: time division multiple access

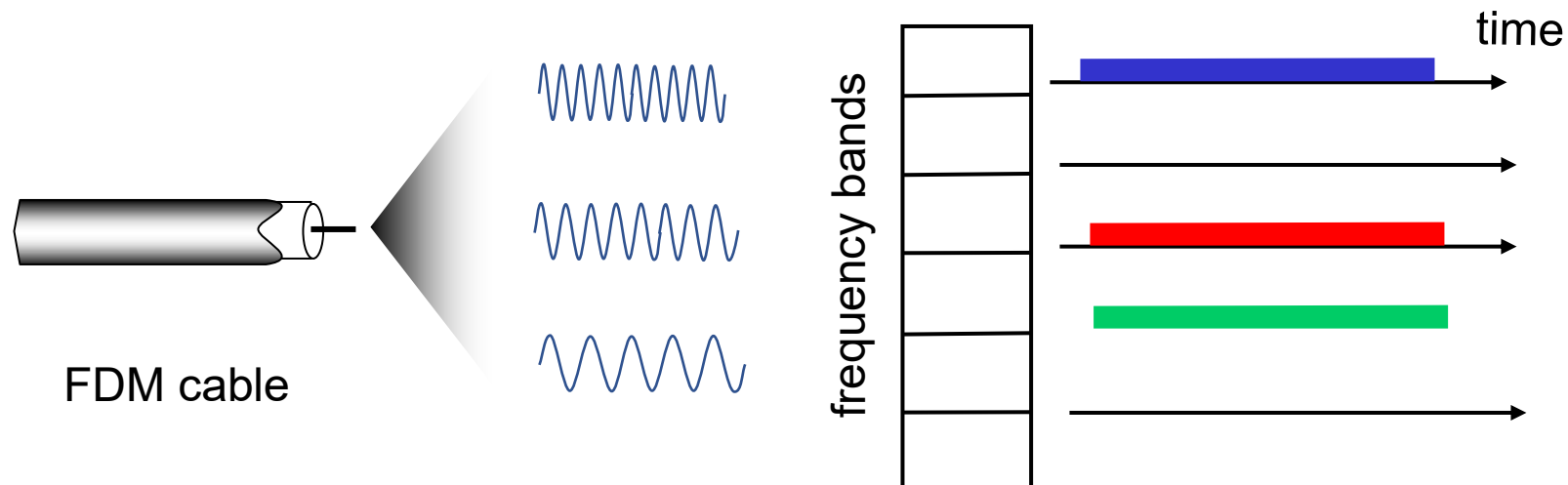
- access to channel in “rounds”
- each station gets fixed length slot (length = packet transmission time) in each round
- unused slots go idle
- example: 6-station LAN, 1,3,4 have packets to send, slots 2,5,6 idle



Channel partitioning MAC protocols: FDMA

FDMA: frequency division multiple access

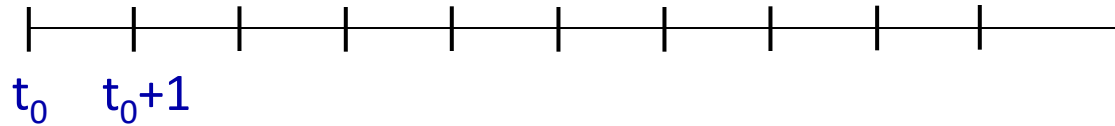
- channel spectrum divided into frequency bands
- each station assigned fixed frequency band
- unused transmission time in frequency bands go idle
- example: 6-station LAN, 1,3,4 have packet to send, frequency bands 2,5,6 idle



Random access protocols

- when node has packet to send
 - transmit at full channel data rate R
 - no *a priori* coordination among nodes
- two or more transmitting nodes:
“collision”
- **random access 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

Slotted ALOHA



assumptions:

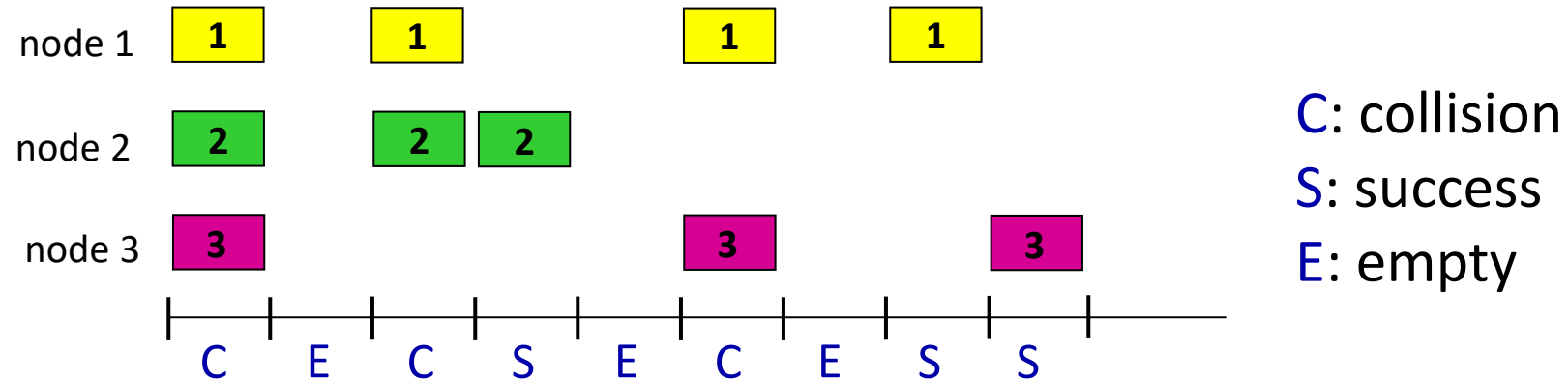
- all frames same size
- time divided into equal size slots (time to transmit 1 frame)
- nodes start to transmit only at slot beginning
- nodes are synchronized
- if 2 or more nodes transmit in slot, all nodes detect collision

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, wasting 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:

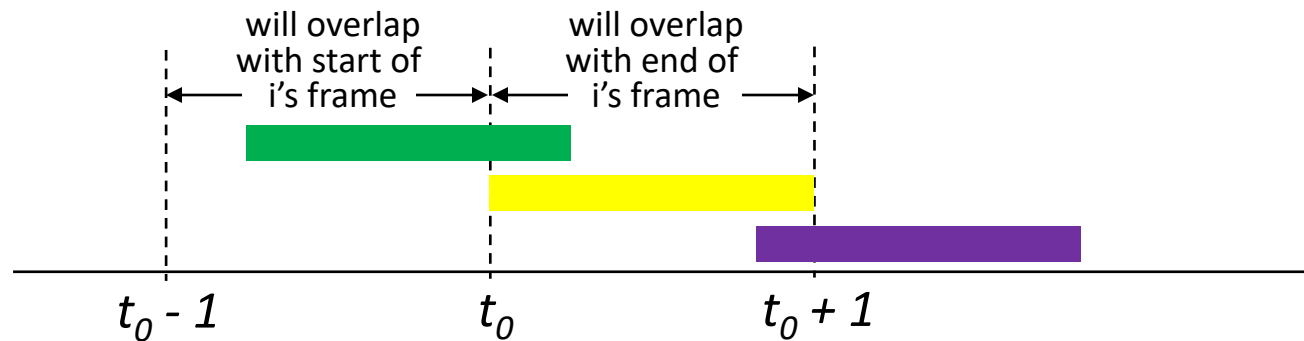
max efficiency = $1/e = .37$

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



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% !

Pure ALOHA efficiency

$$\begin{aligned} P(\text{success by given node}) &= P(\text{node transmits}) * \\ &\quad P(\text{no other node transmits in } [t_0-1, t_0]) * \\ &\quad P(\text{no other node transmits in } [t_0, t_0+1]) \\ &= p \cdot (1-p)^{N-1} \cdot (1-p)^{N-1} \\ &= p \cdot (1-p)^{2(N-1)} \end{aligned}$$

... choosing optimum p and then letting n

$$= 1/(2e) = .18 \rightarrow \infty$$

even worse than slotted Aloha!

CSMA (carrier sense multiple access)

simple **CSMA**: listen before transmit:

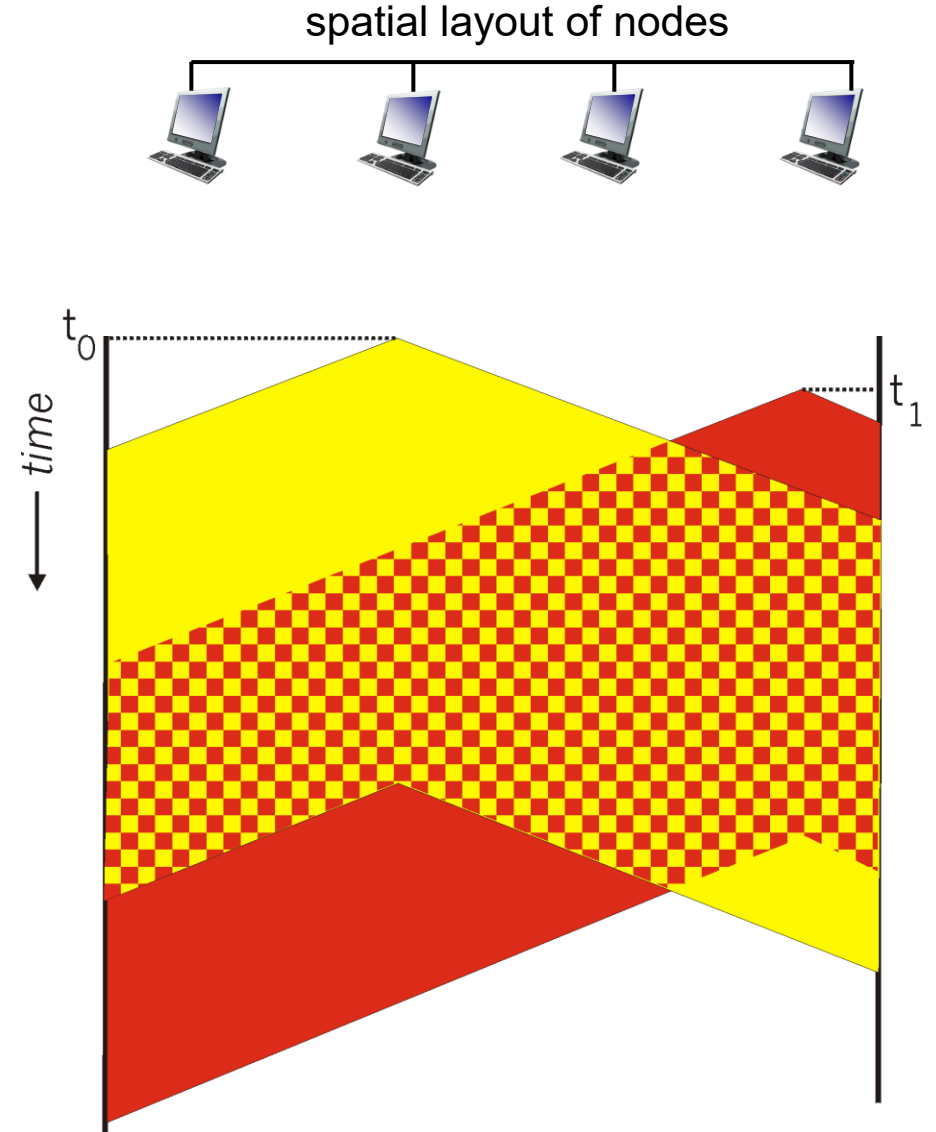
- if channel sensed **idle**: transmit entire frame
- if channel sensed **busy**: defer transmission
- human analogy: don't interrupt others!

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

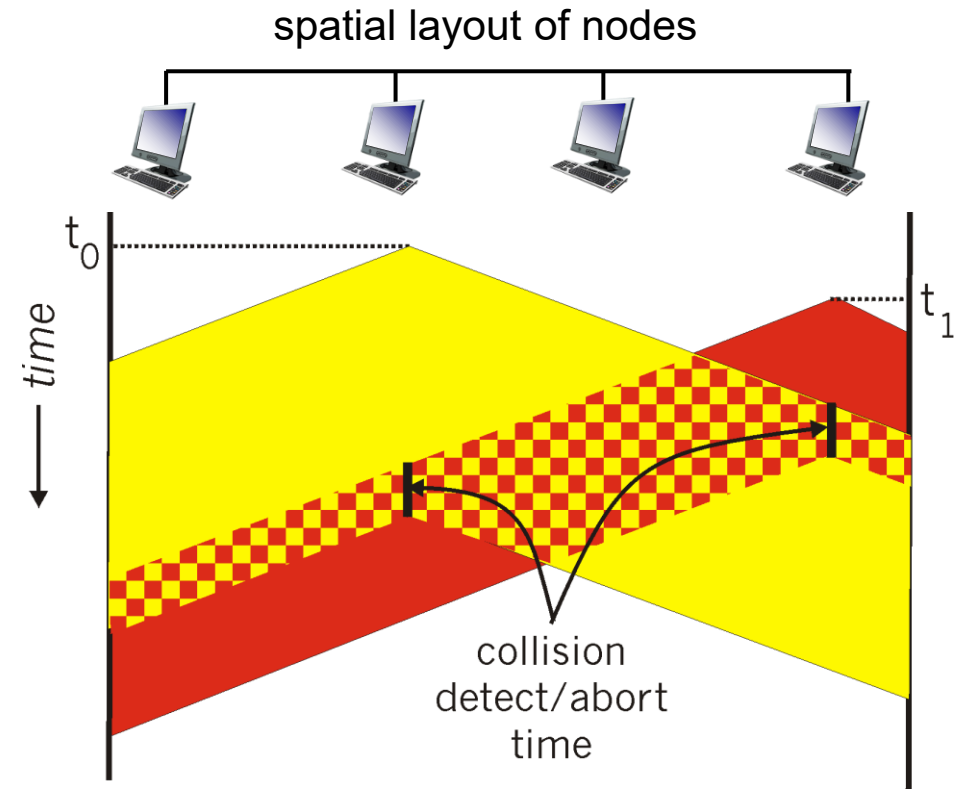
CSMA: collisions

- 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 determining collision probability



CSMA/CD:

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



CSMA/CD efficiency

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

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

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

Ethernet CSMA/CD algorithm

1. Ethernet receives datagram from network layer, creates frame
2. If Ethernet senses channel:
 - if **idle**: start frame transmission.
 - if **busy**: wait until channel idle, then transmit
3. If entire frame transmitted without collision - done!
4. If another transmission detected while sending: abort, send jam signal
5. After aborting, enter *binary (exponential) backoff*:
 - after m th collision, chooses K at random from $\{0, 1, 2, \dots, 2^m - 1\}$. Ethernet waits $K \cdot 512$ bit times, returns to Step 2
 - more collisions: longer backoff interval

“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

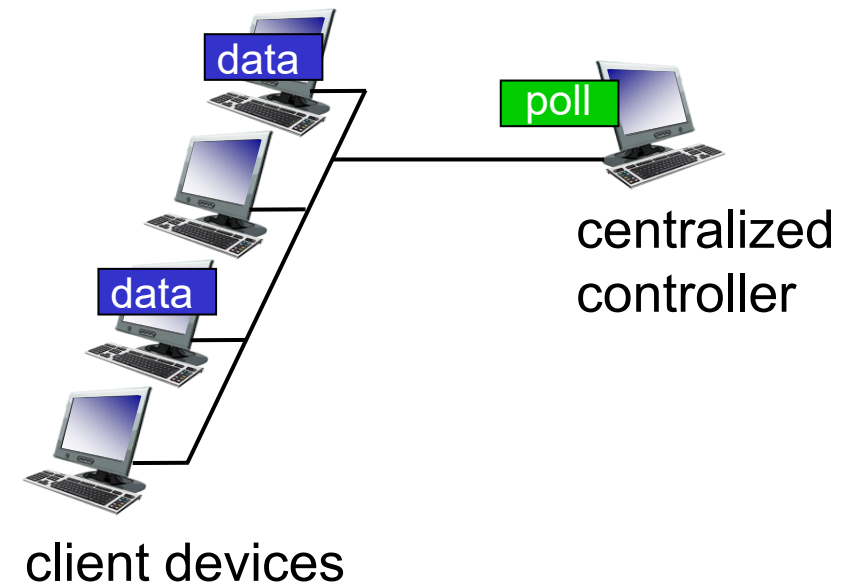
“taking turns” protocols

- look for best of both worlds!
- channel allocated explicitly (no collisions)
- nodes won't hold channel for long if nothing to send

“Taking turns” MAC protocols

polling:

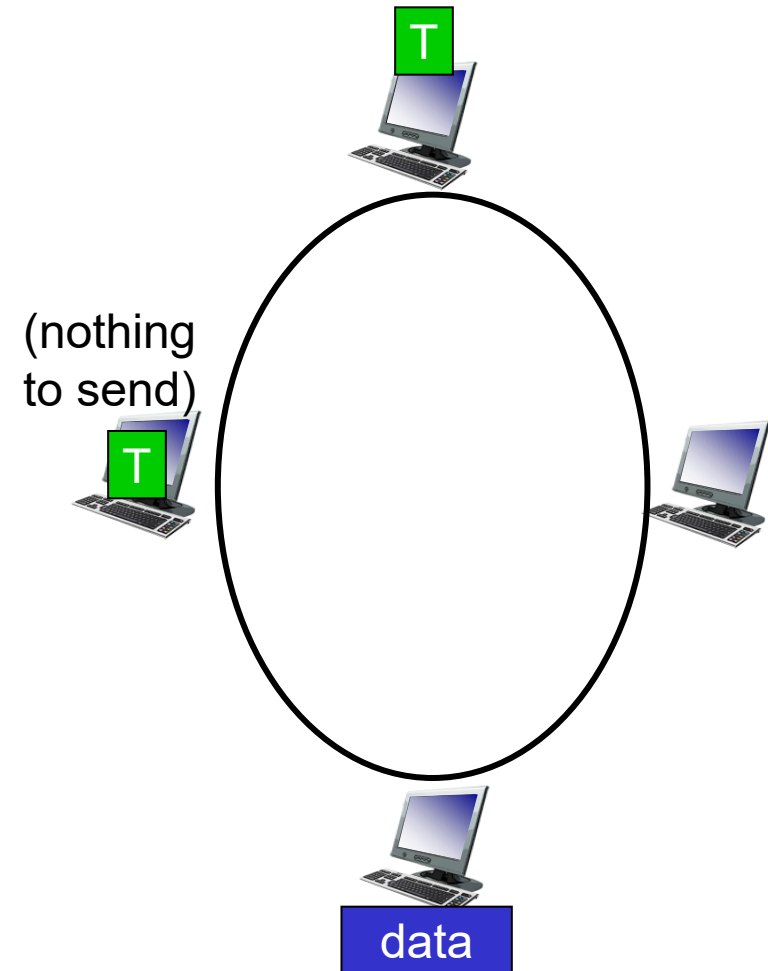
- centralized controller “invites” other nodes to transmit in turn
- protocol needed for clients to join/leave network
- concerns:
 - polling overhead
 - latency
 - single point of failure (master)
- Bluetooth uses polling



“Taking turns” MAC protocols

token passing:

- control *token* message explicitly passed from one node to next, sequentially
 - transmit while holding token
- 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, token ring

Link layer, LANs: roadmap

- introduction
- error detection, correction
- multiple access protocols
- **LANs**
 - **addressing, ARP**
 - Ethernet
 - switches
 - VLANs
- link virtualization: MPLS
- data center networking



- a day in the life of a web request

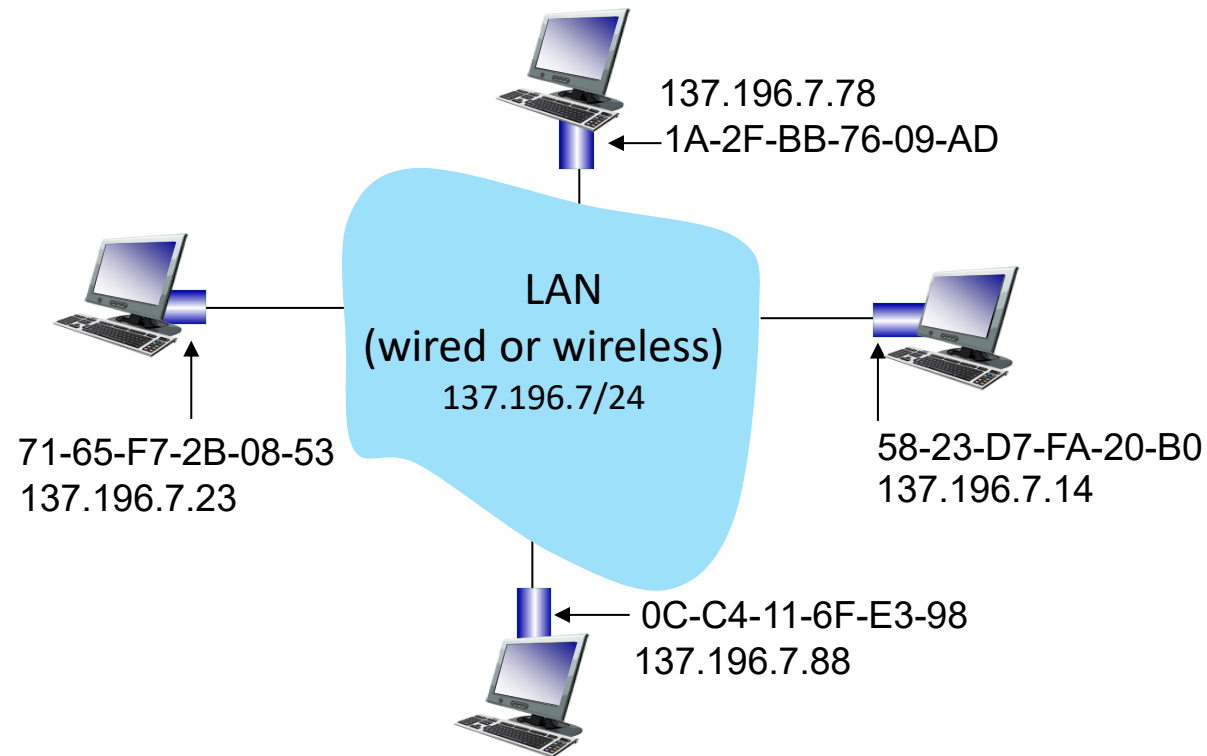
MAC addresses

- 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)

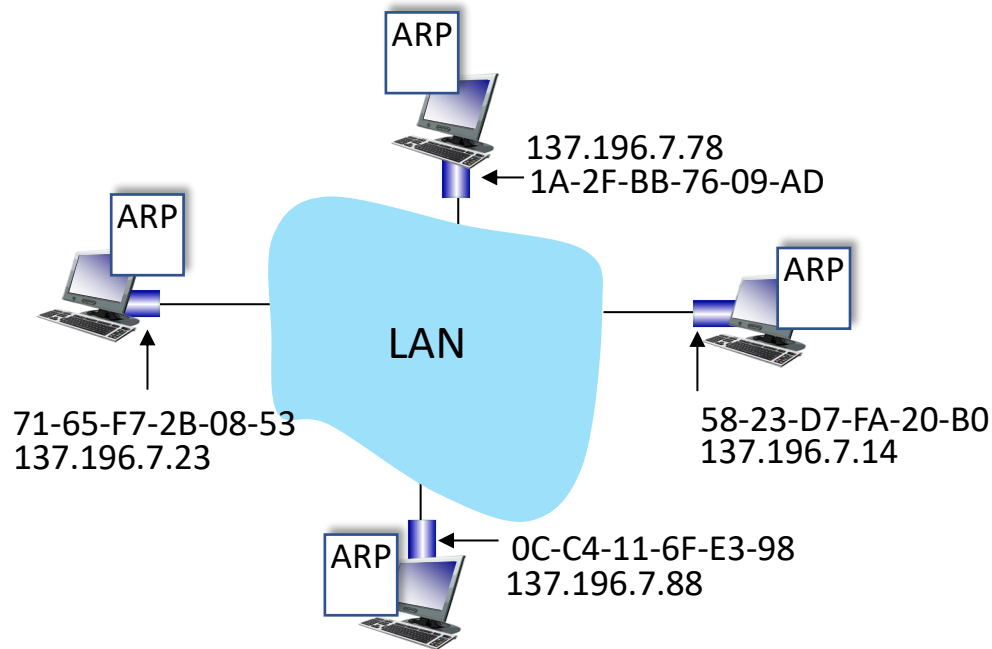


MAC addresses

- MAC address allocation administered by IEEE
- manufacturer buys portion of MAC address space (to assure uniqueness)
- analogy:
 - MAC address: like Social Security Number
 - IP address: like postal address
- MAC flat address: portability
 - can move interface from one LAN to another
 - recall IP address *not* portable: 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 in action

example: A wants to send datagram to B

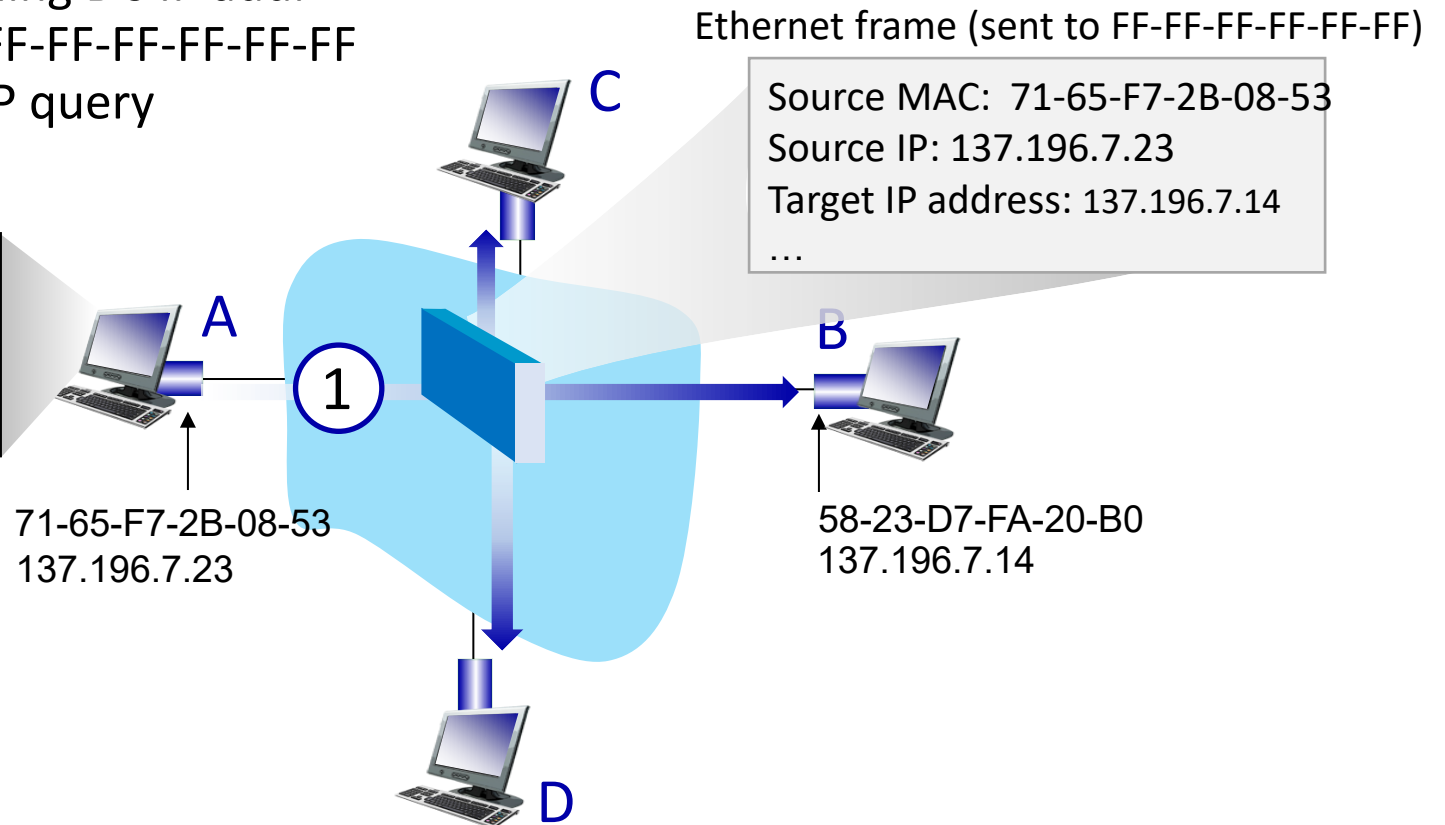
- B's MAC address not in A's ARP table, so A uses ARP to find B's MAC address

A broadcasts ARP query, containing B's IP addr

- ①
- destination MAC address = FF-FF-FF-FF-FF-FF
 - all nodes on LAN receive ARP query

ARP table in A

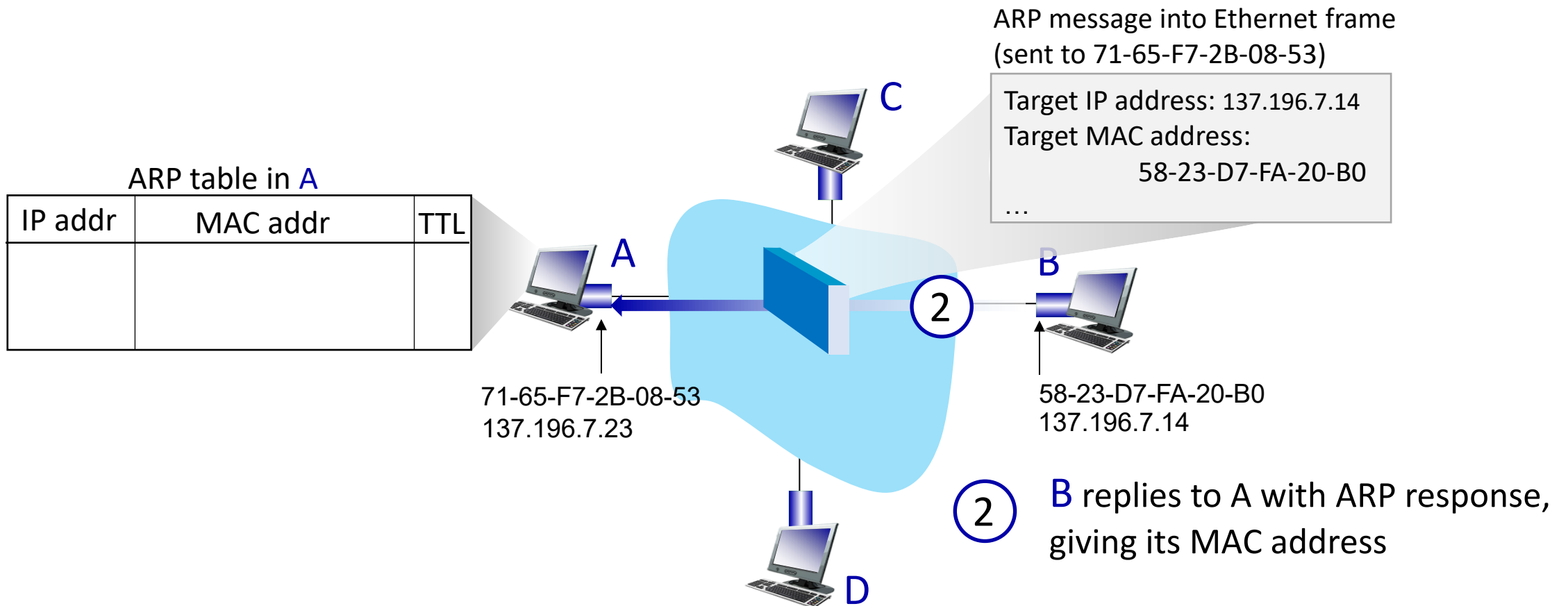
IP addr	MAC addr	TTL



ARP protocol in action

example: A wants to send datagram to B

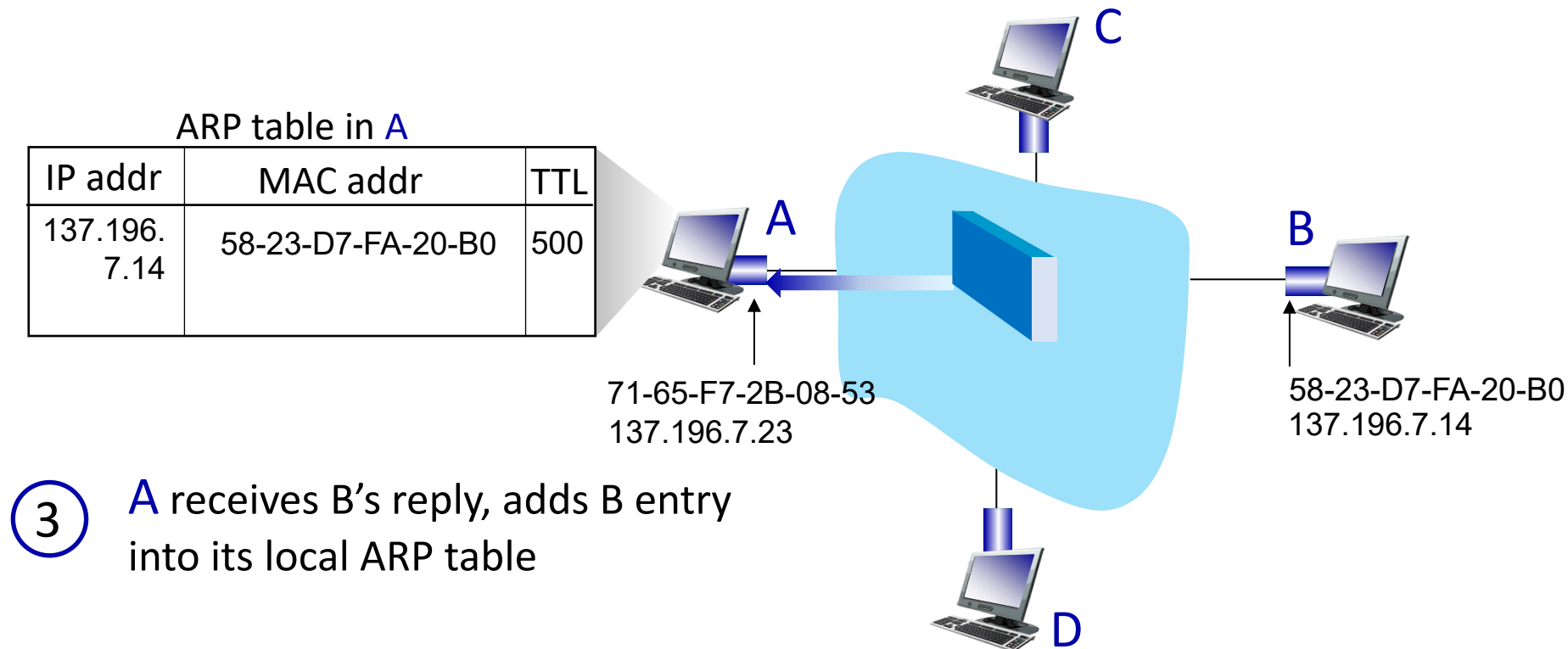
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ARP protocol in action

example: A wants to send datagram to B

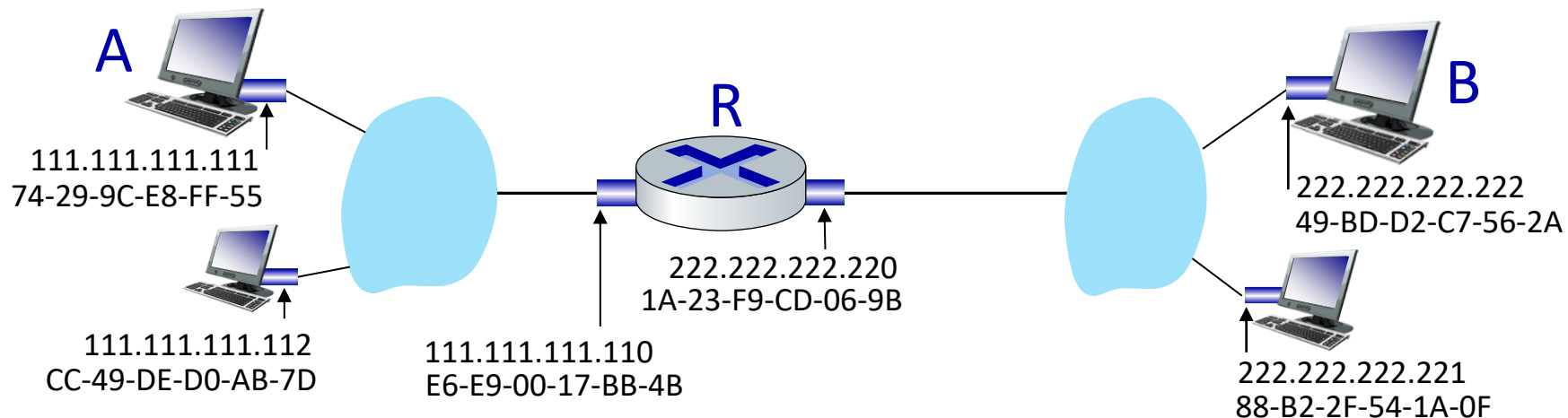
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Routing to another subnet: addressing

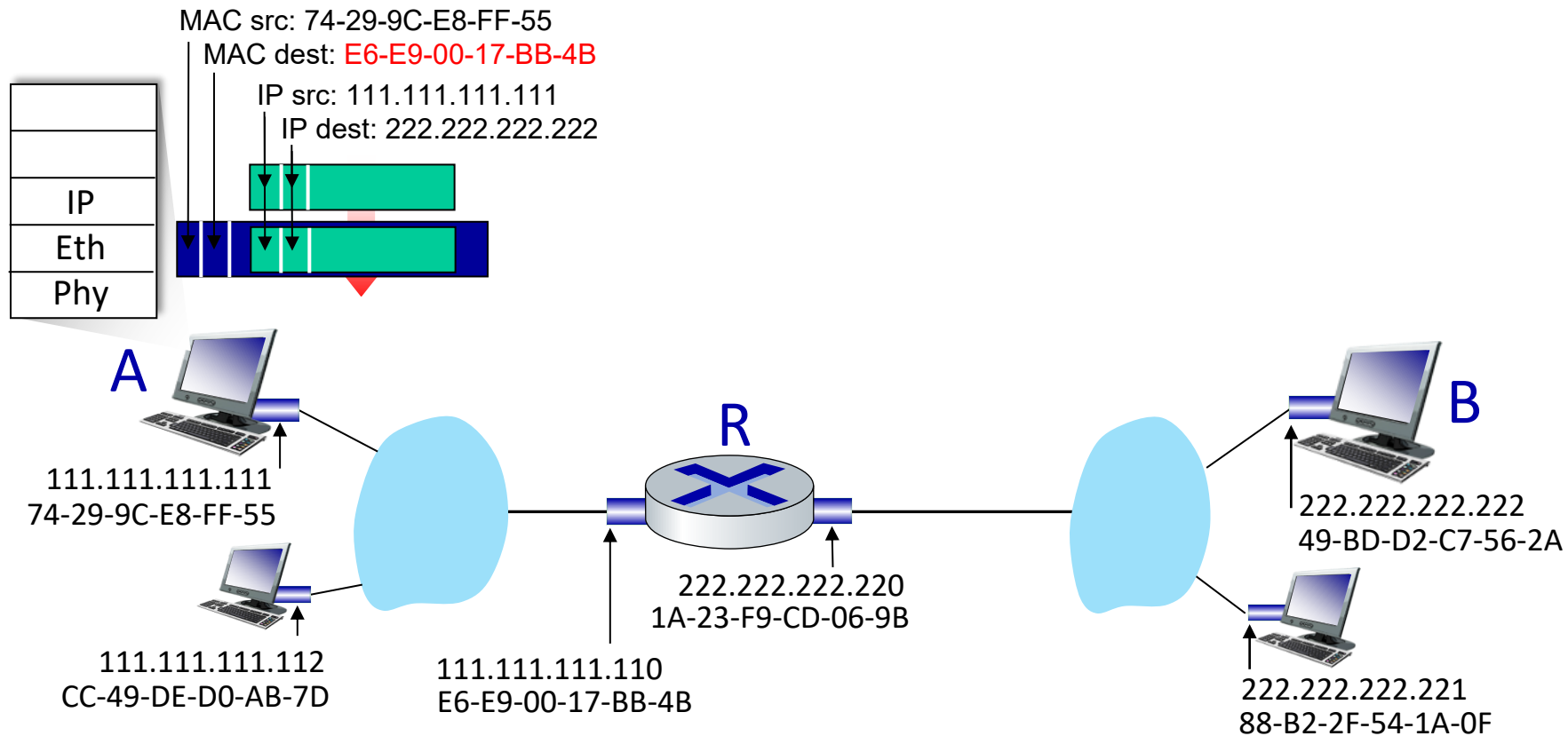
walkthrough: sending a datagram from *A* to *B* via *R*

- 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?)



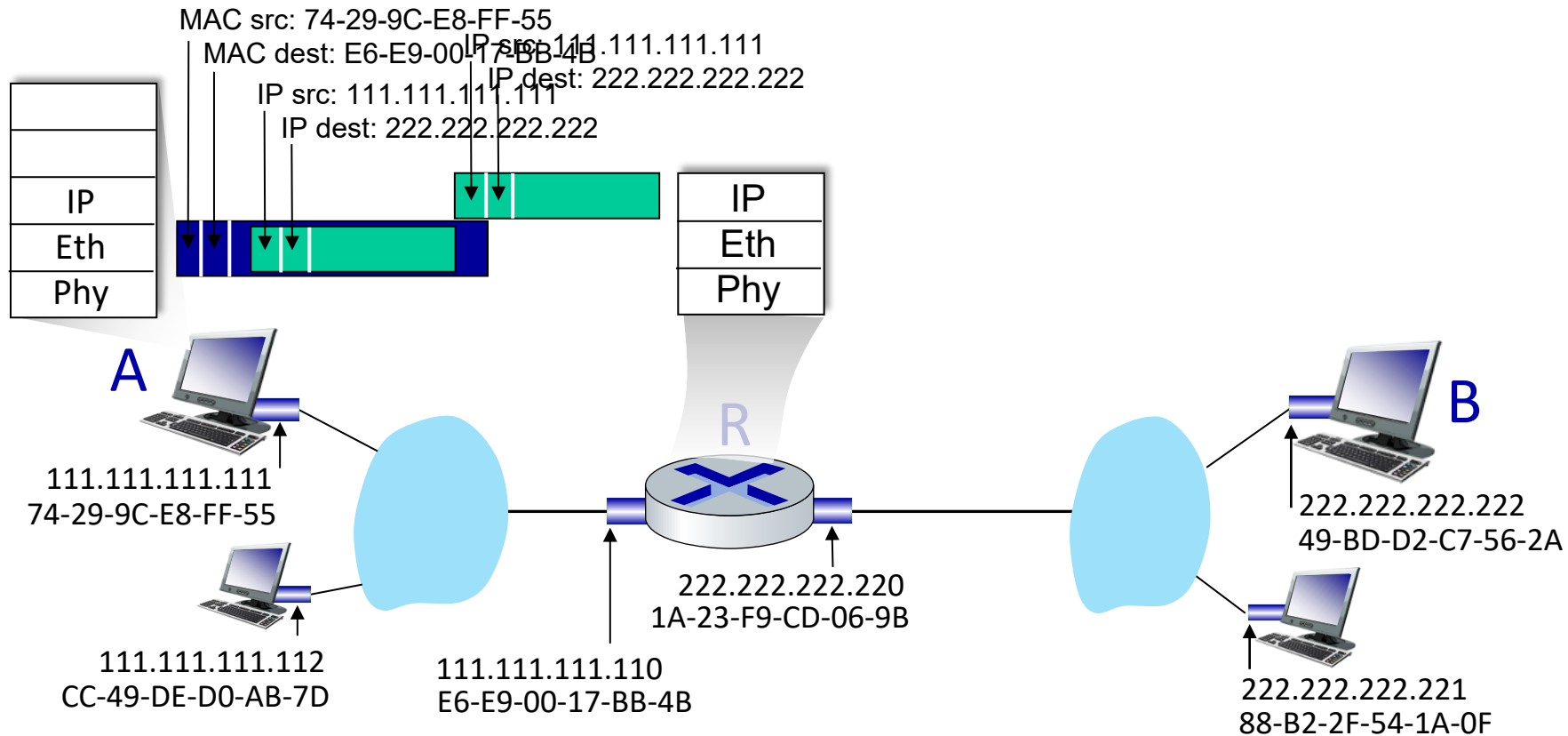
Routing to another subnet: addressing

- 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



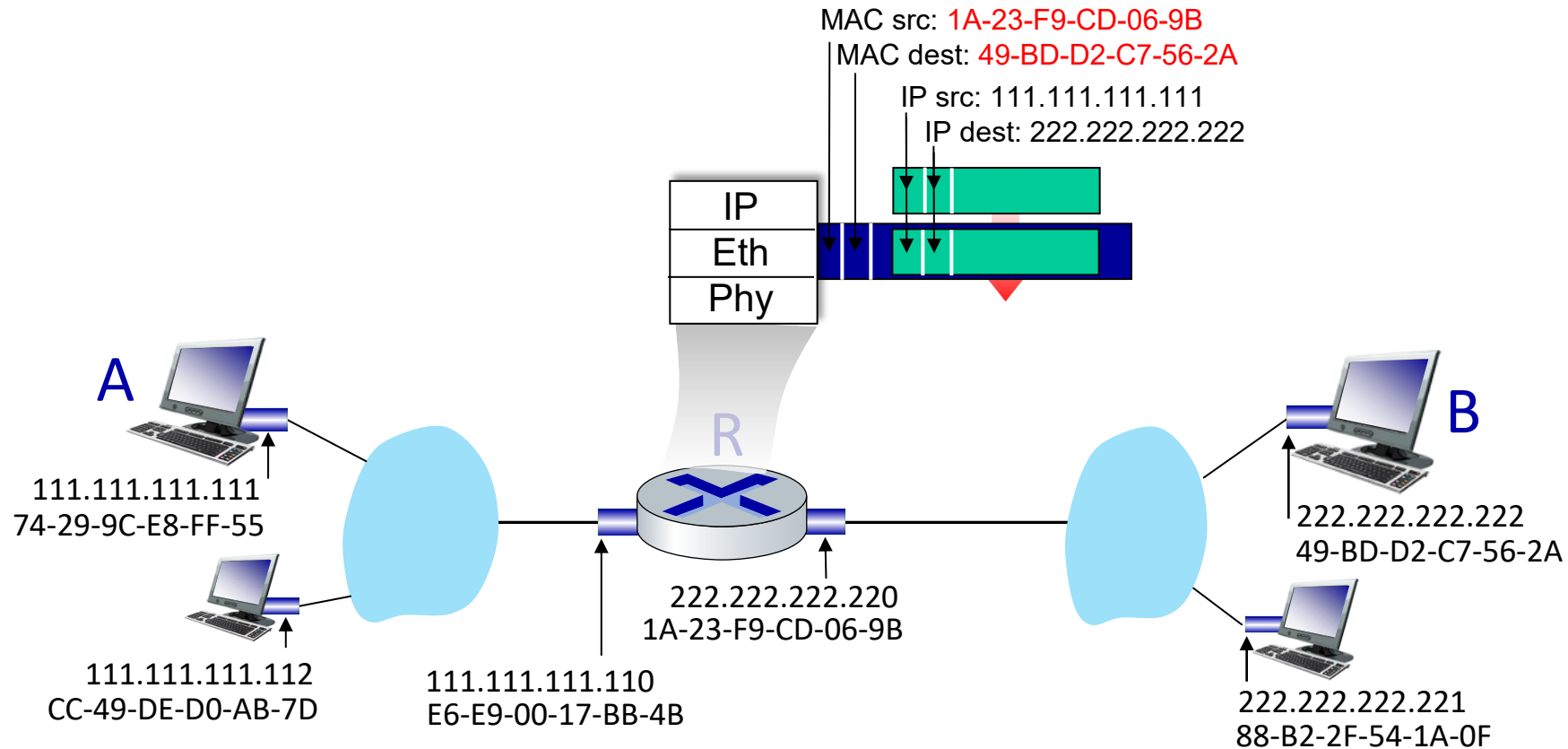
Routing to another subnet: addressing

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



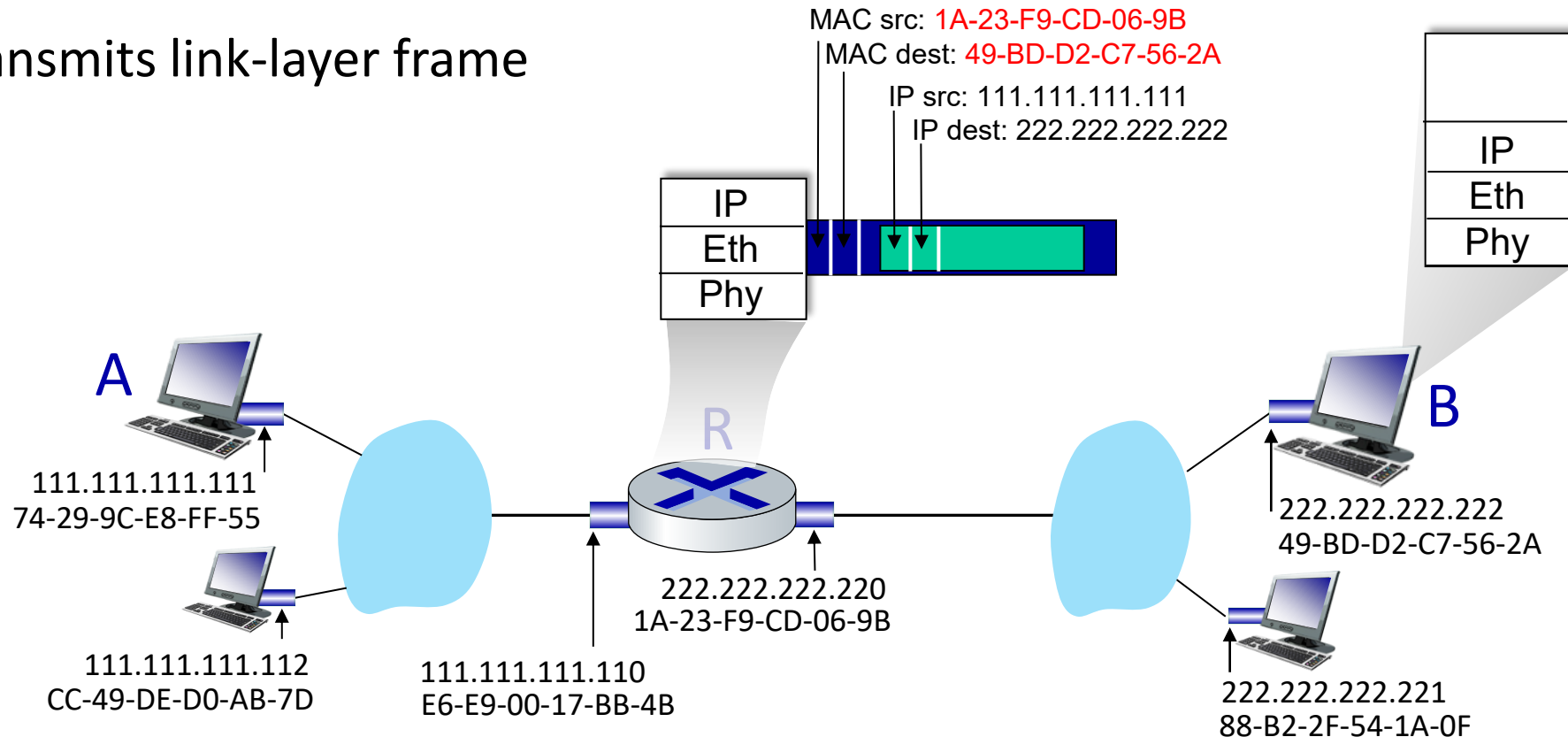
Routing to another subnet: addressing

- 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



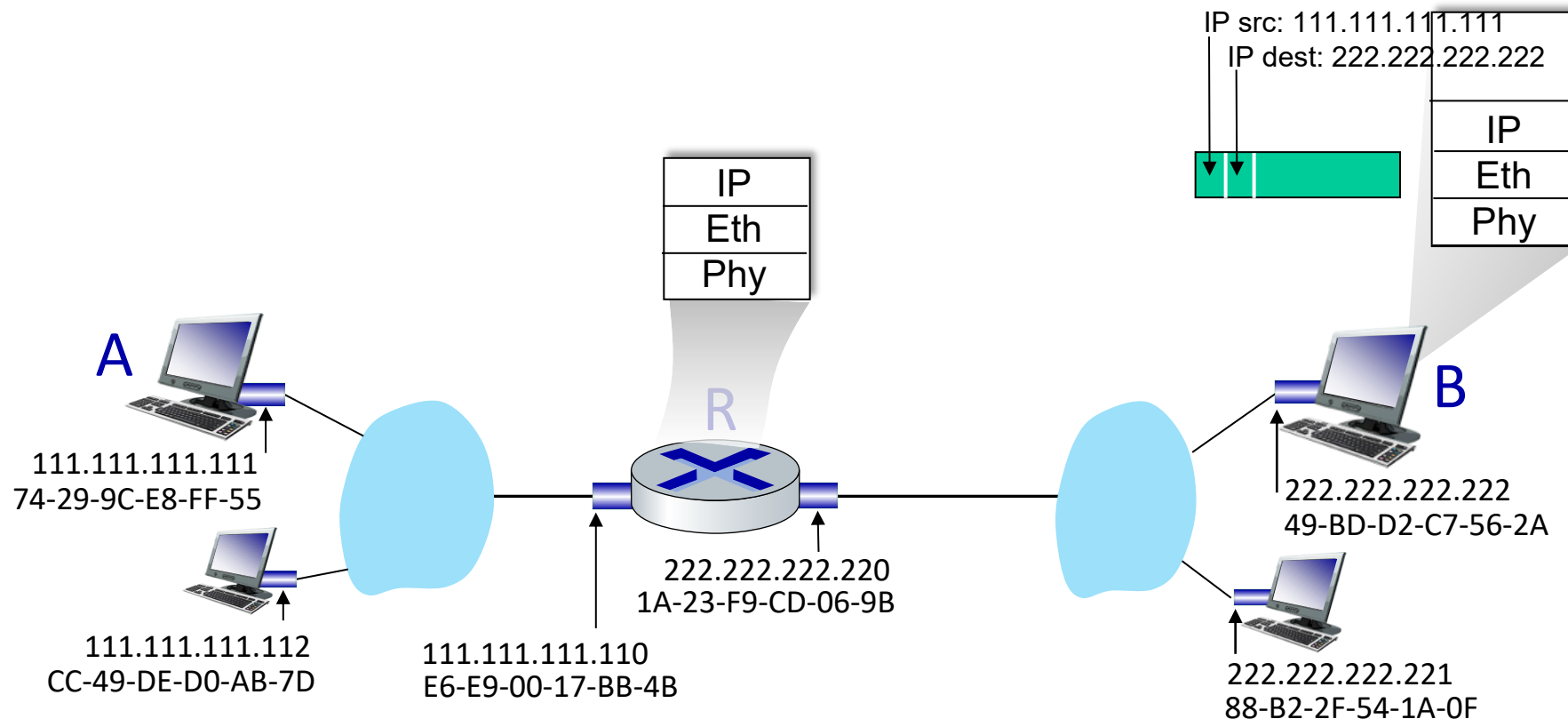
Routing to another subnet: addressing

- 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
- transmits link-layer frame



Routing to another subnet: addressing

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



Link layer, LANs: roadmap

- introduction
- error detection, correction
- multiple access protocols
- **LANs**
 - addressing, ARP
 - **Ethernet**
 - switches
 - VLANs
- link virtualization: MPLS
- data center networking



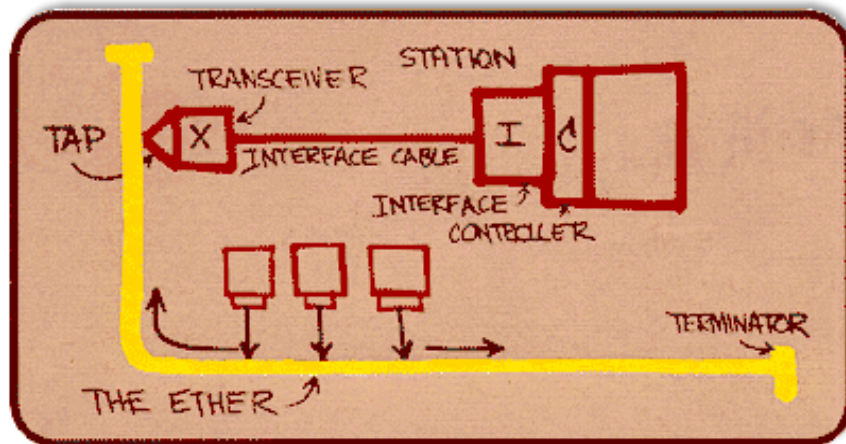
- a day in the life of a web request

Ethernet

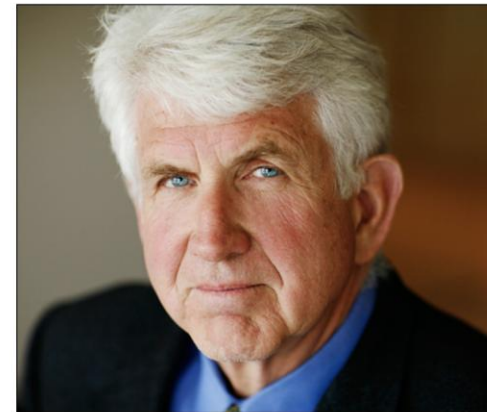
“dominant” wired LAN technology:

- 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



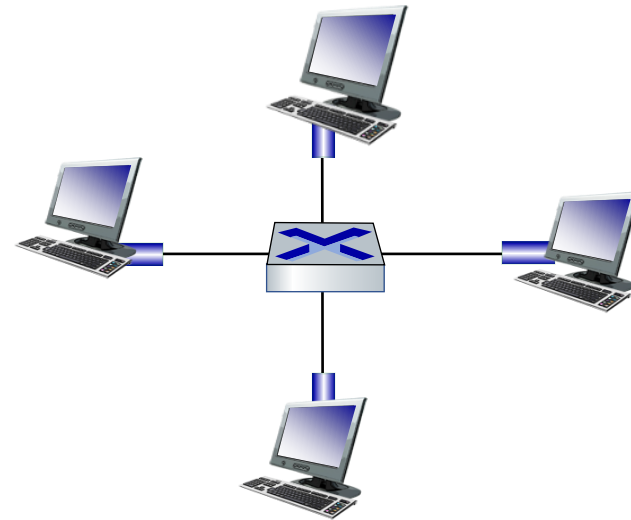
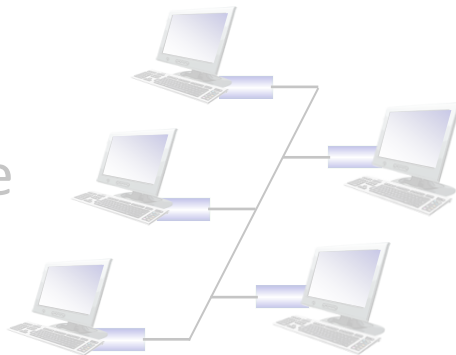
Bob Metcalfe: Ethernet co-inventor,
2022 ACM Turing Award recipient



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)

bus: coaxial cable



switched

Ethernet frame structure

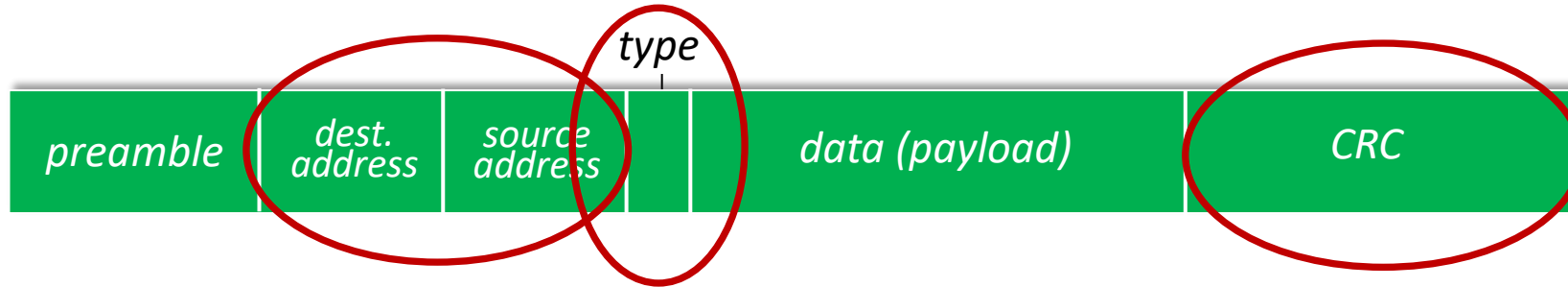
sending interface encapsulates IP datagram (or other network layer protocol packet) in **Ethernet frame**



preamble:

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

Ethernet frame structure (more)



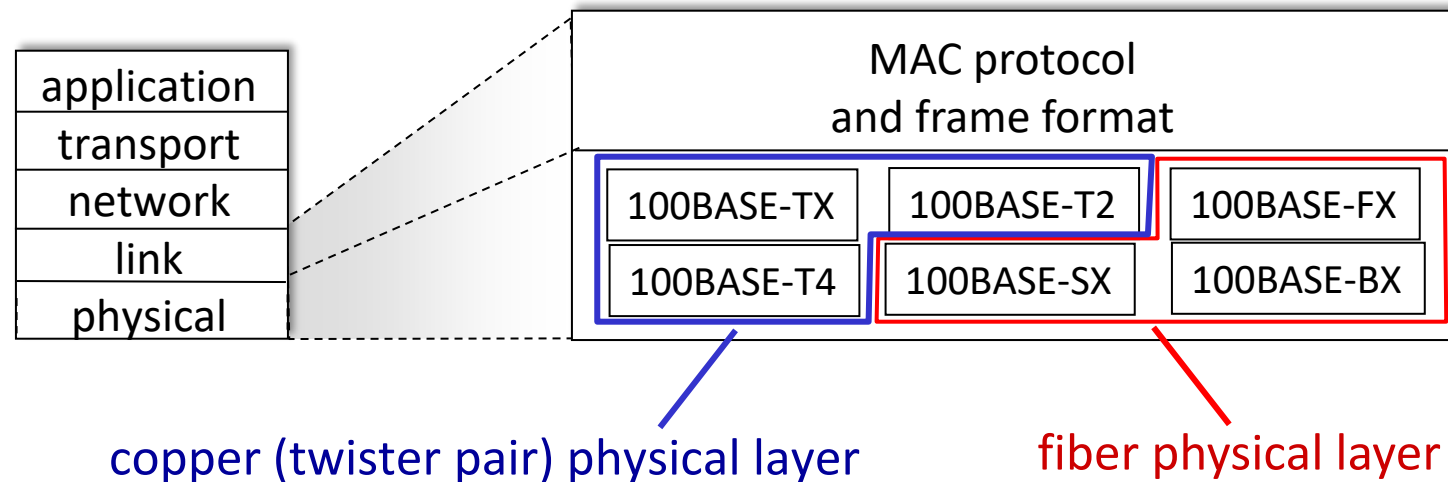
- **addresses:** 6 byte source, destination MAC addresses
 - if adapter receives frame with matching destination address, or with broadcast address (e.g., ARP packet), it passes data in frame to network layer protocol
 - otherwise, adapter discards frame
- **type:** indicates higher layer protocol
 - 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

- *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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- data center networking



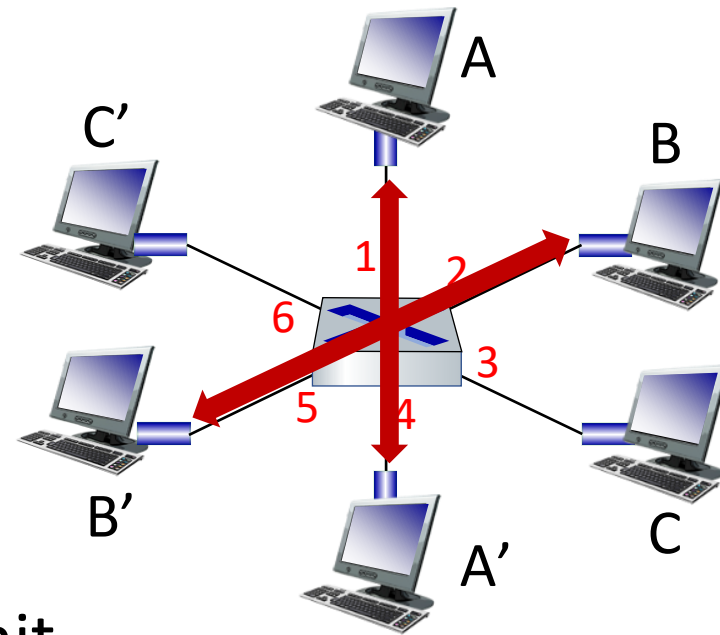
- a day in the life of a web request

Ethernet switch

- Switch is a **link-layer** device: takes an *active* role
 - store, forward Ethernet (or other type of) frames
 - examine incoming frame's MAC address, *selectively* forward frame to one-or-more outgoing links when frame is to be forwarded on segment
- **transparent:** hosts *unaware* of presence of switches
- **plug-and-play, self-learning**
 - switches do not need to be configured

Switch: multiple simultaneous transmissions

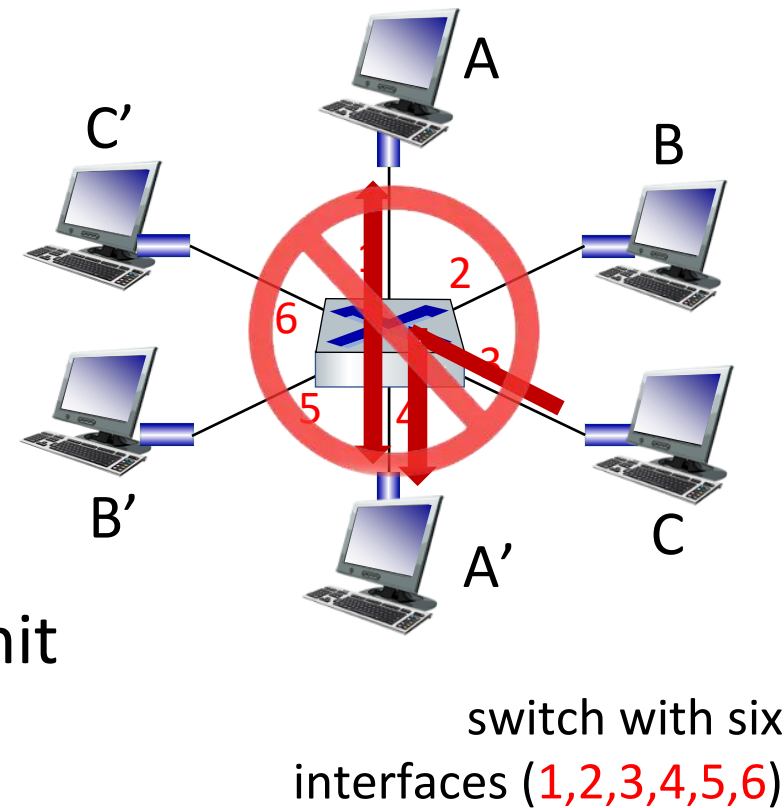
- hosts have dedicated, direct connection to switch
- switches buffer packets
- Ethernet protocol used on *each* incoming link, so:
 - no collisions; full duplex
 - each link is its own collision domain
- **switching**: A-to-A' and B-to-B' can transmit simultaneously, without collisions



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 forwarding table

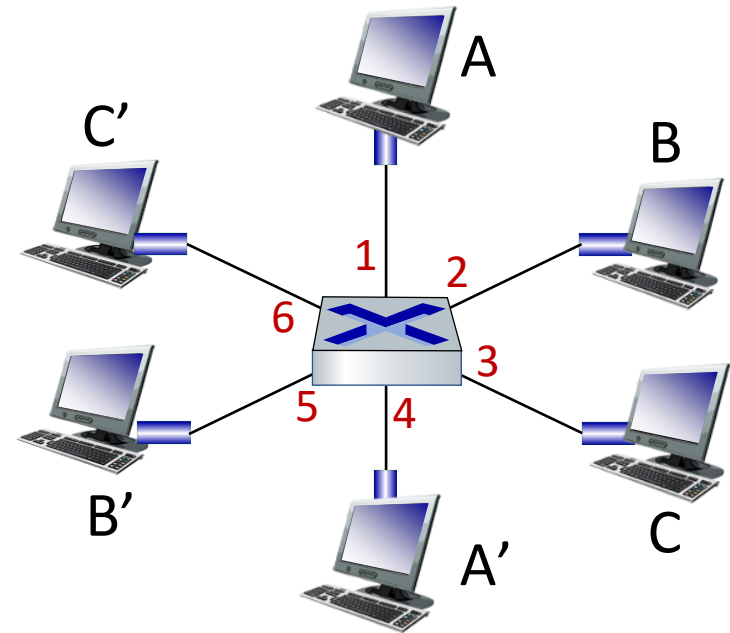
Q: how does switch know A' reachable via interface 4, B' reachable via interface 5?

A: each switch has a **switch table**, each entry:

- (MAC address of host, interface to reach host, time stamp)
- looks like a routing table!

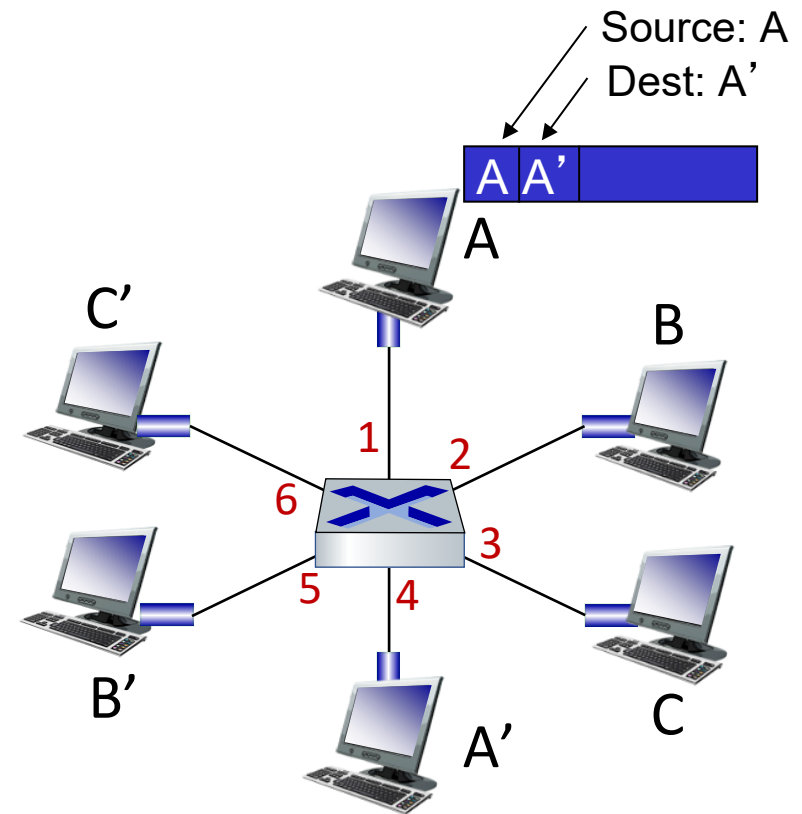
Q: how are entries created, maintained in switch table?

- something like a routing protocol?



Switch: 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)*

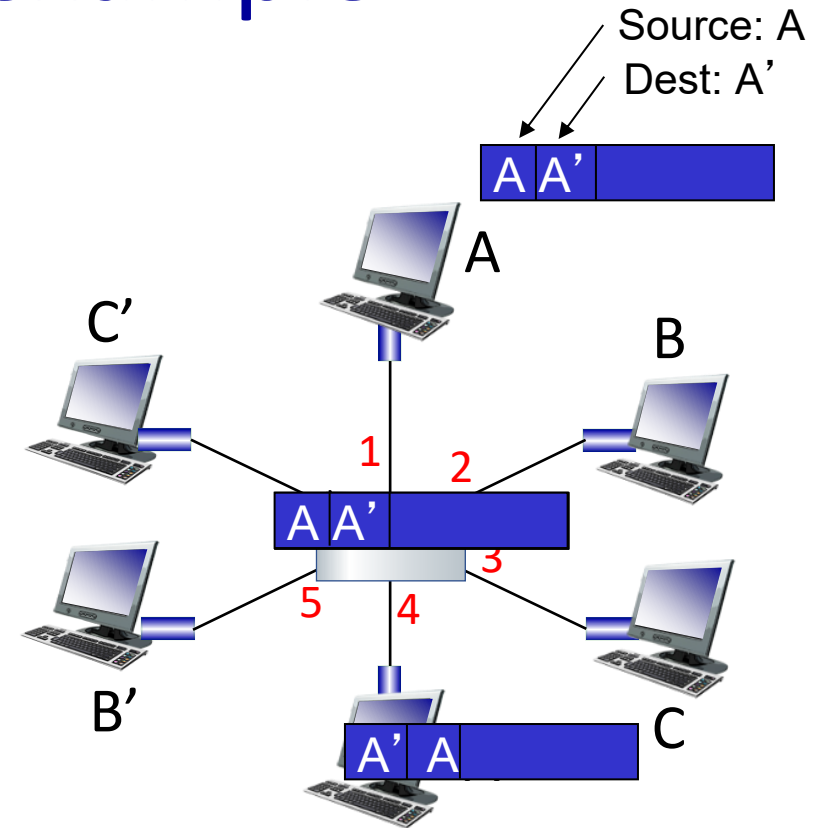
Switch: frame filtering/forwarding

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

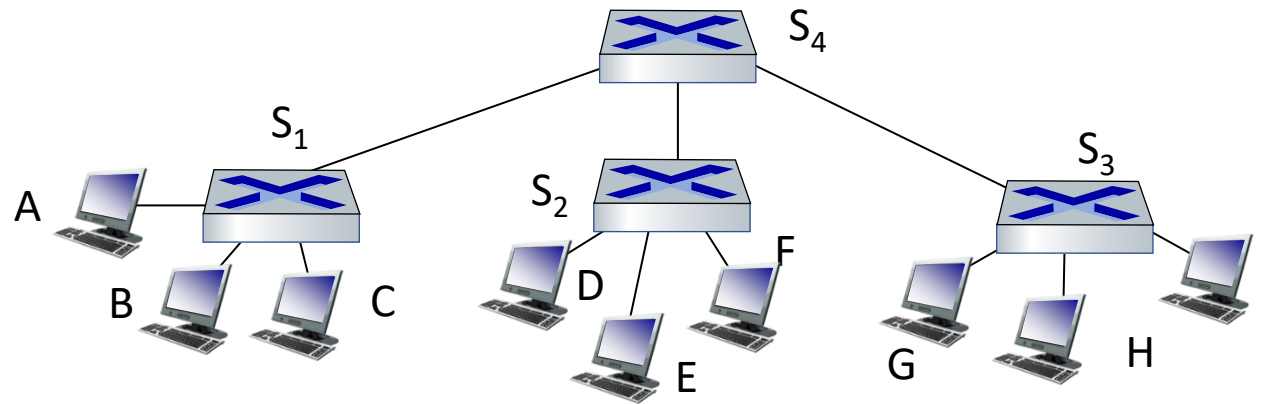


MAC addr	interface	TTL
A	1	60
A'	4	60

*switch table
(initially empty)*

Interconnecting switches

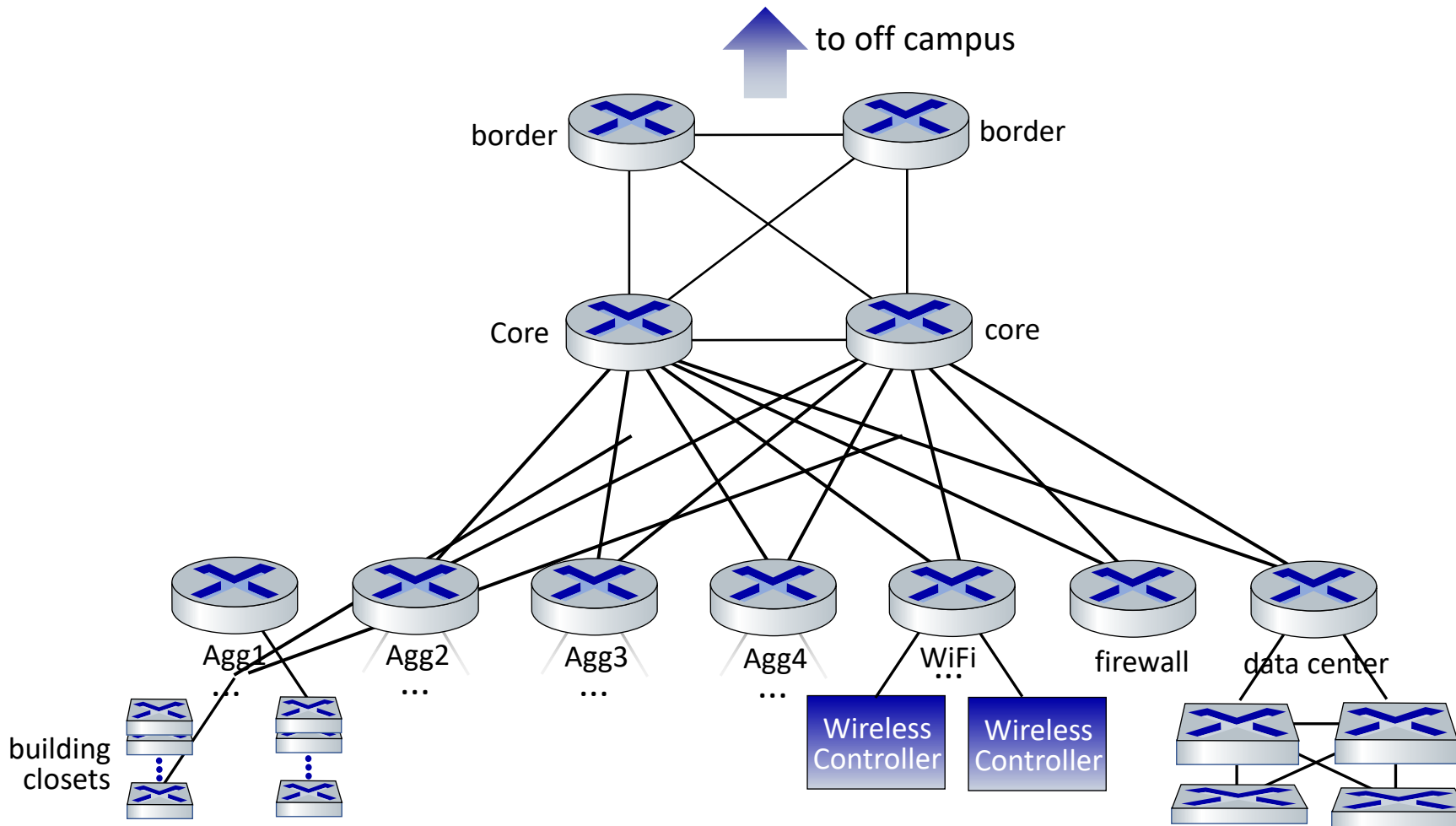
self-learning switches can be connected together:



Q: sending from A to G - how does S₁ know to forward frame destined to G via S₄ and S₃?

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

UMass Campus Network - Detail

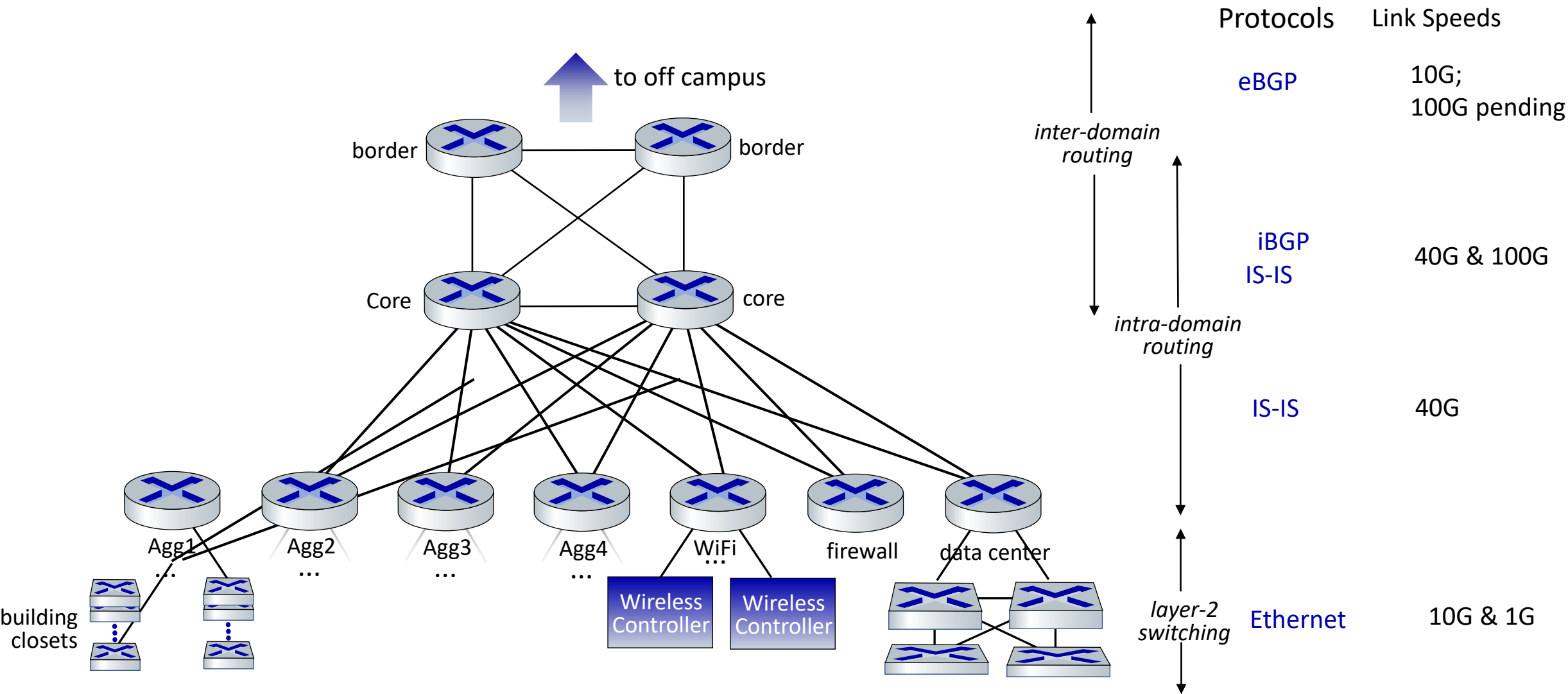


UMass network:

- 4 firewalls
- 10 routers
- 2000+ network switches
- 6000 wireless access points
- 30000 active wired network jacks
- 55000 active end-user wireless devices

... all built,
operated,
maintained by ~15
people

UMass Campus Network - Detail



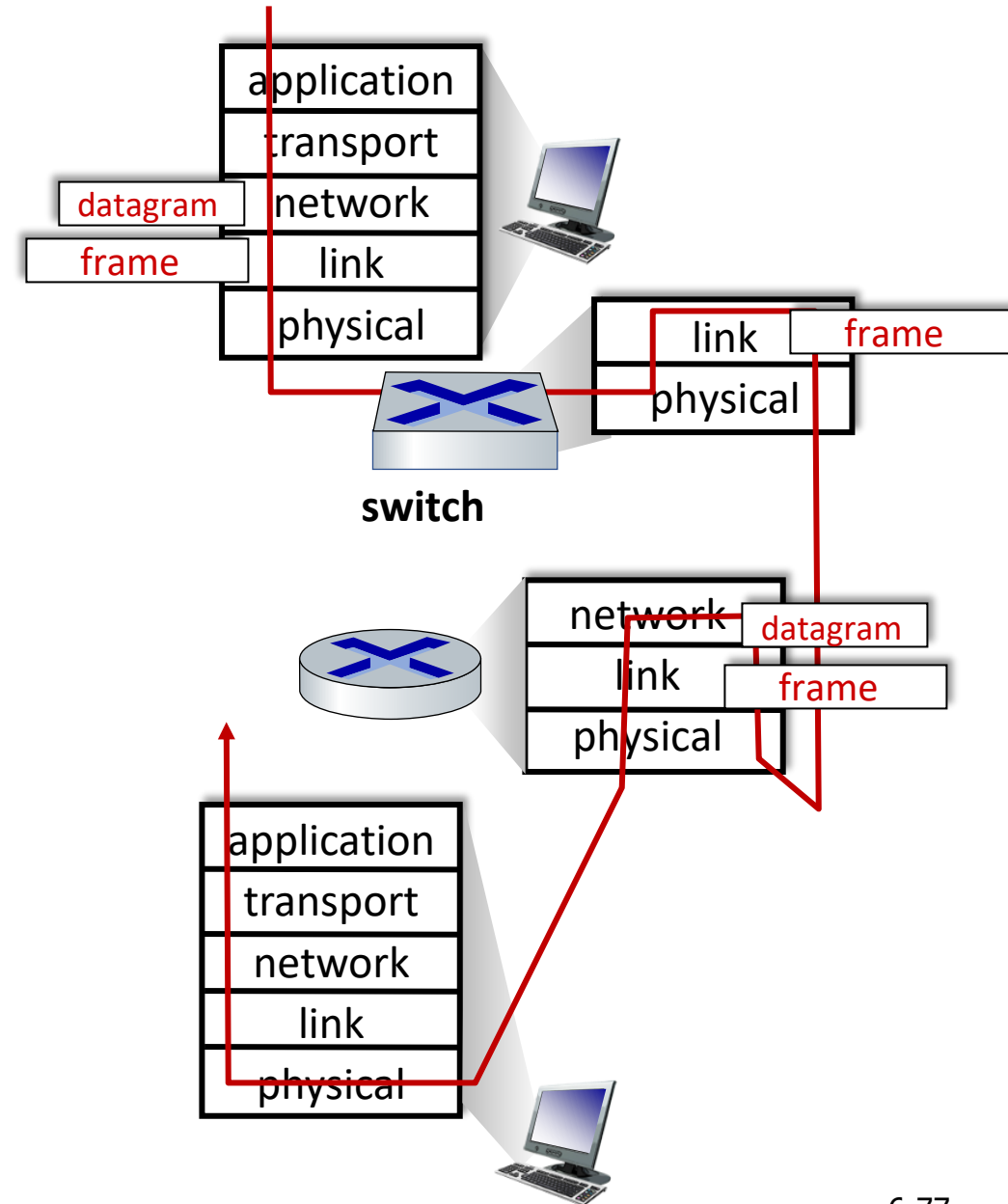
Switches vs. routers

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

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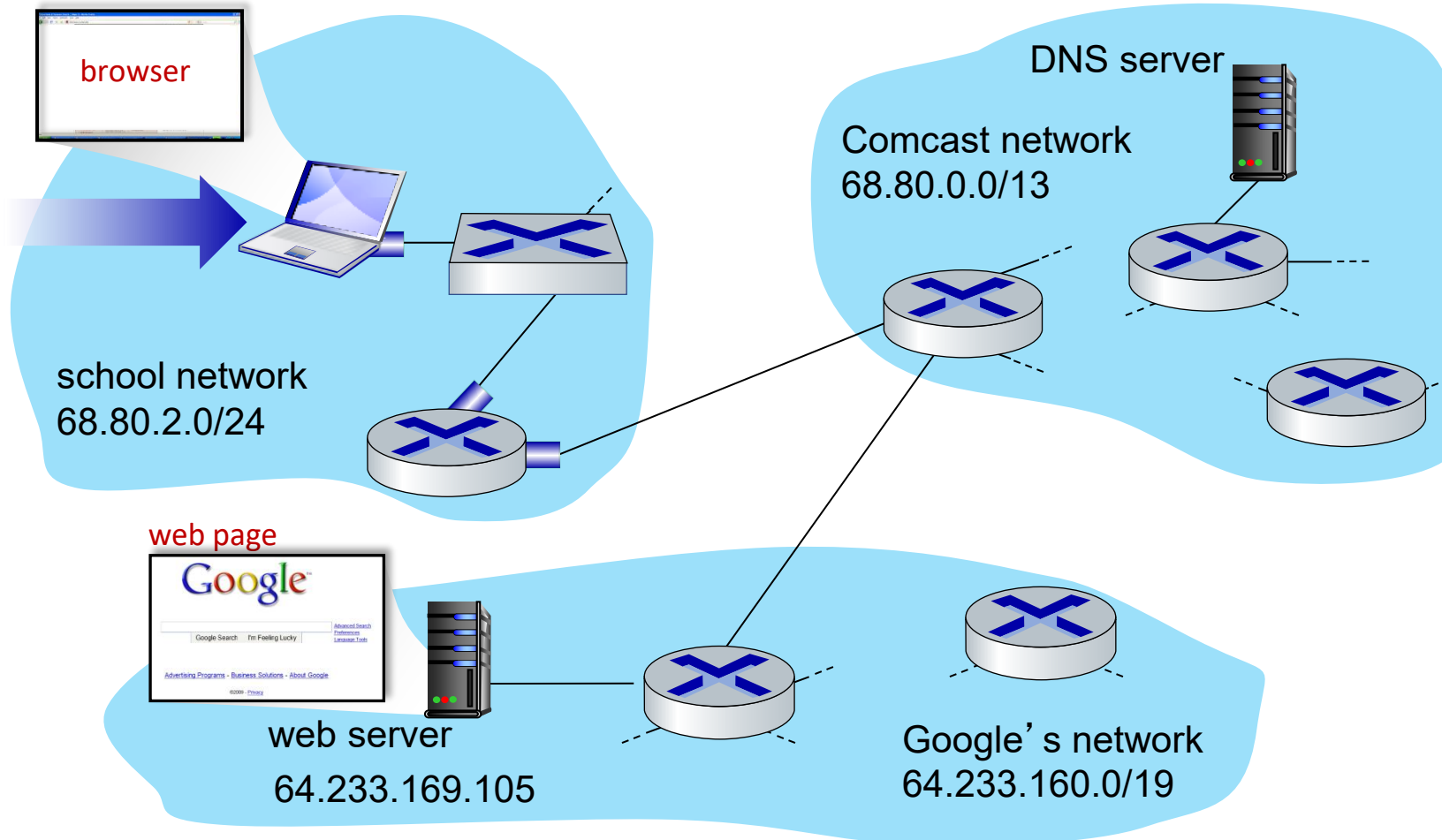


- a day in the life of a web request

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

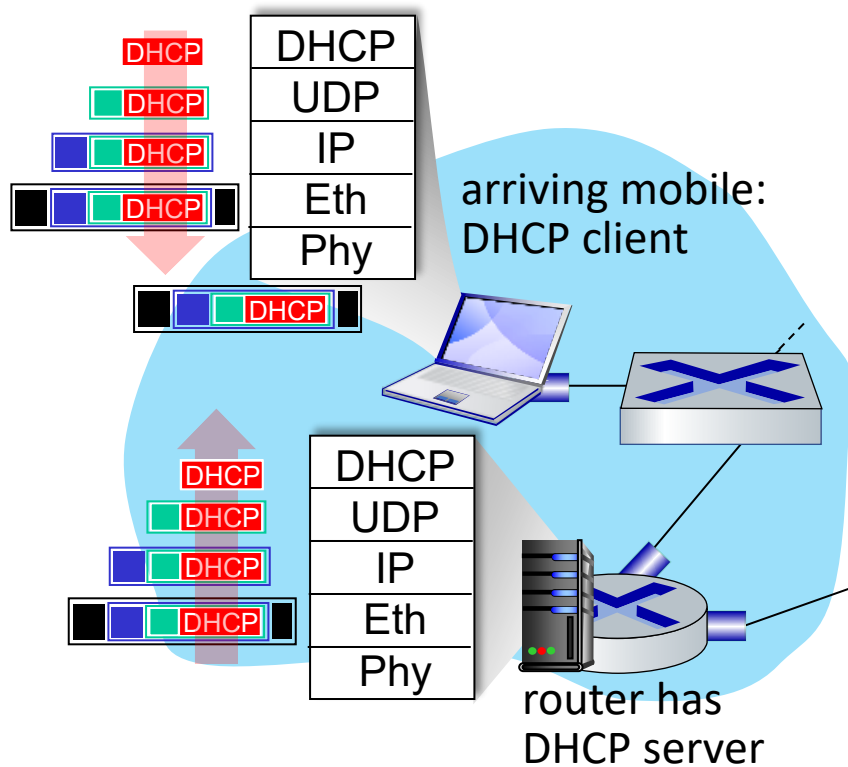


scenario:

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

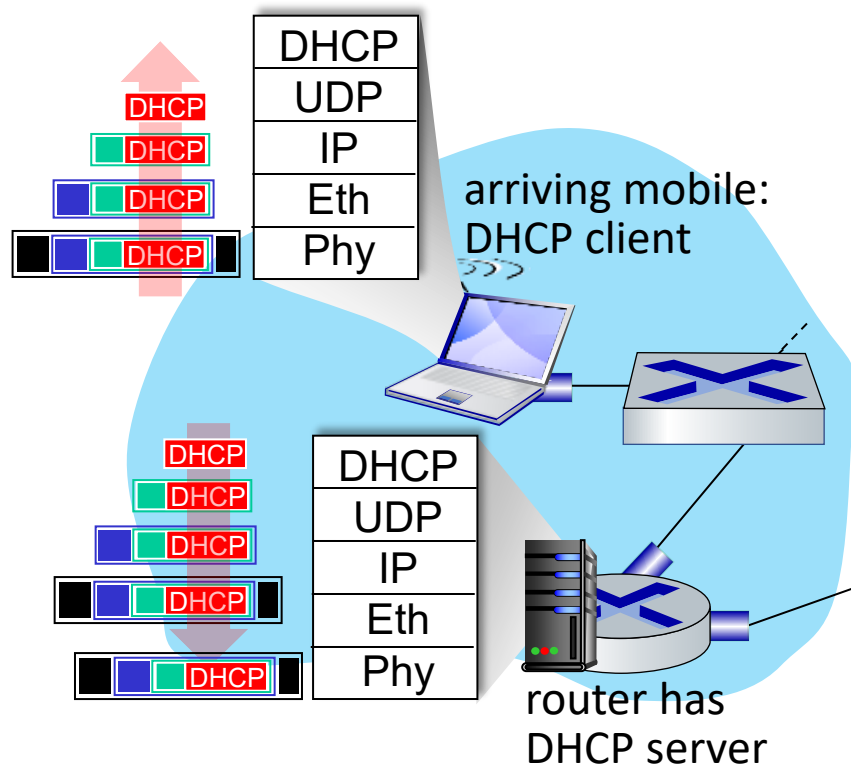
Sounds simple! 

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: FFFFFFFFFFFFFFFF) on LAN, received at router running **DHCP** server
- Ethernet **de-muxed** to IP de-muxed, UDP de-muxed to DHCP

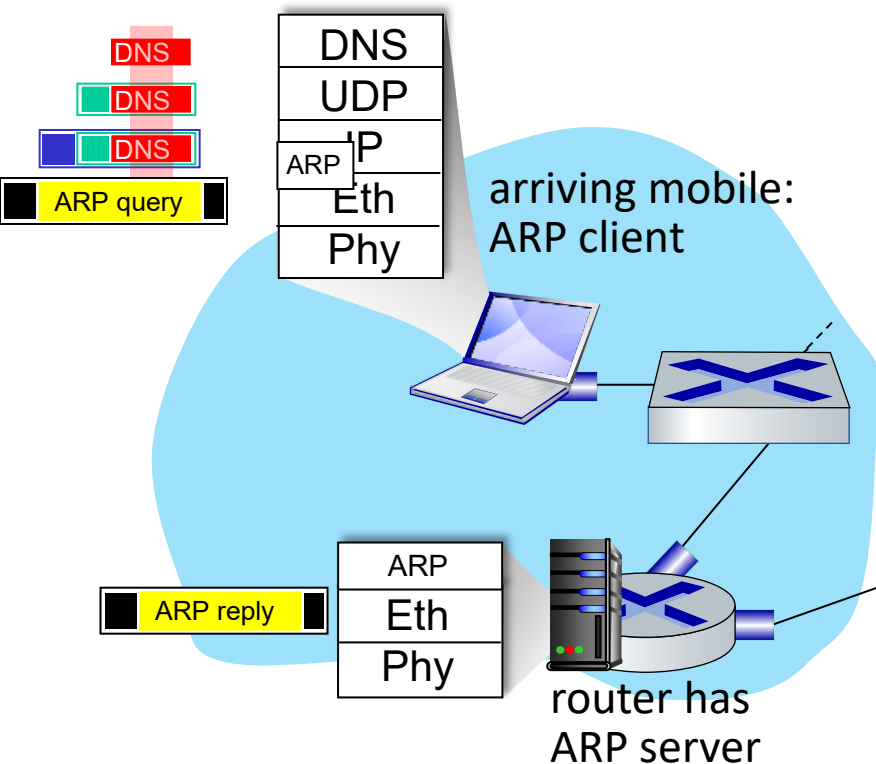
A day in the life: connecting to the Internet



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

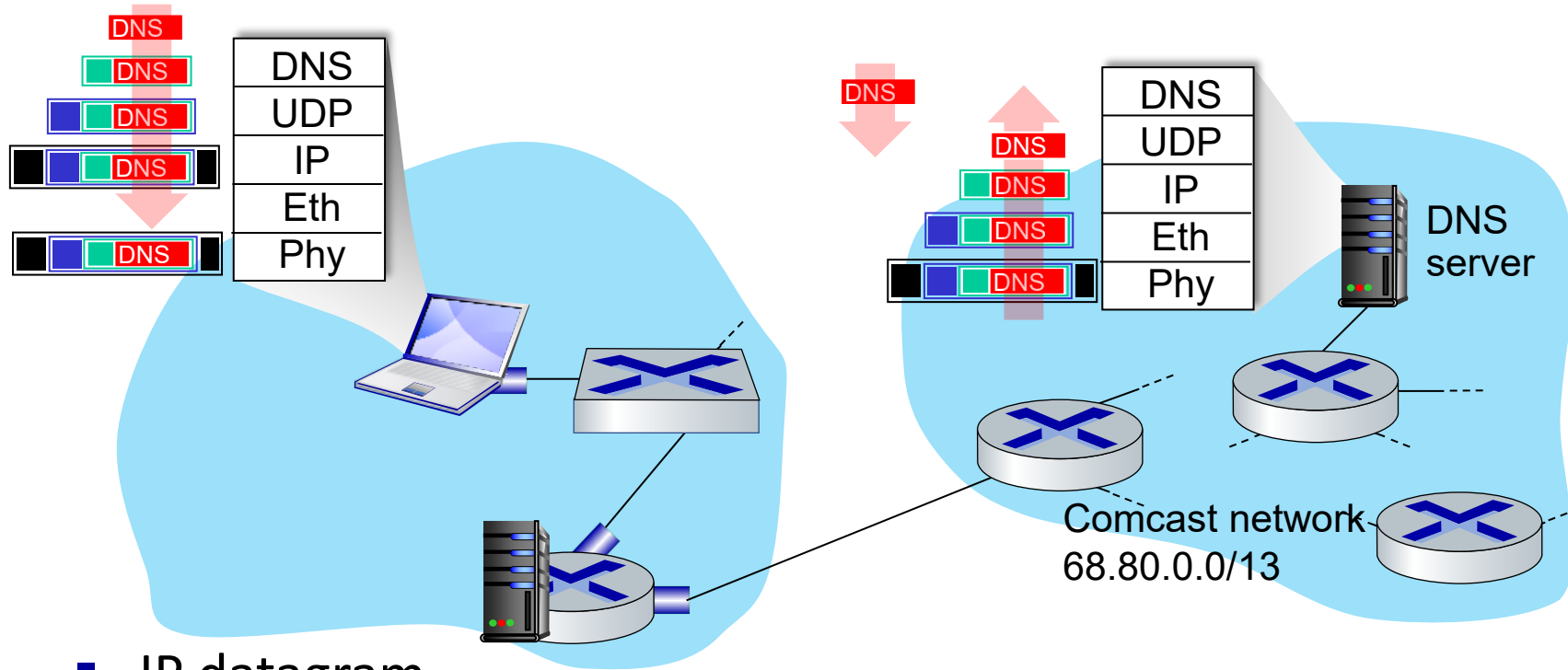
Client now has IP address, knows name & addr of DNS server, IP address of its first-hop router

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



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

A day in the life... using DNS

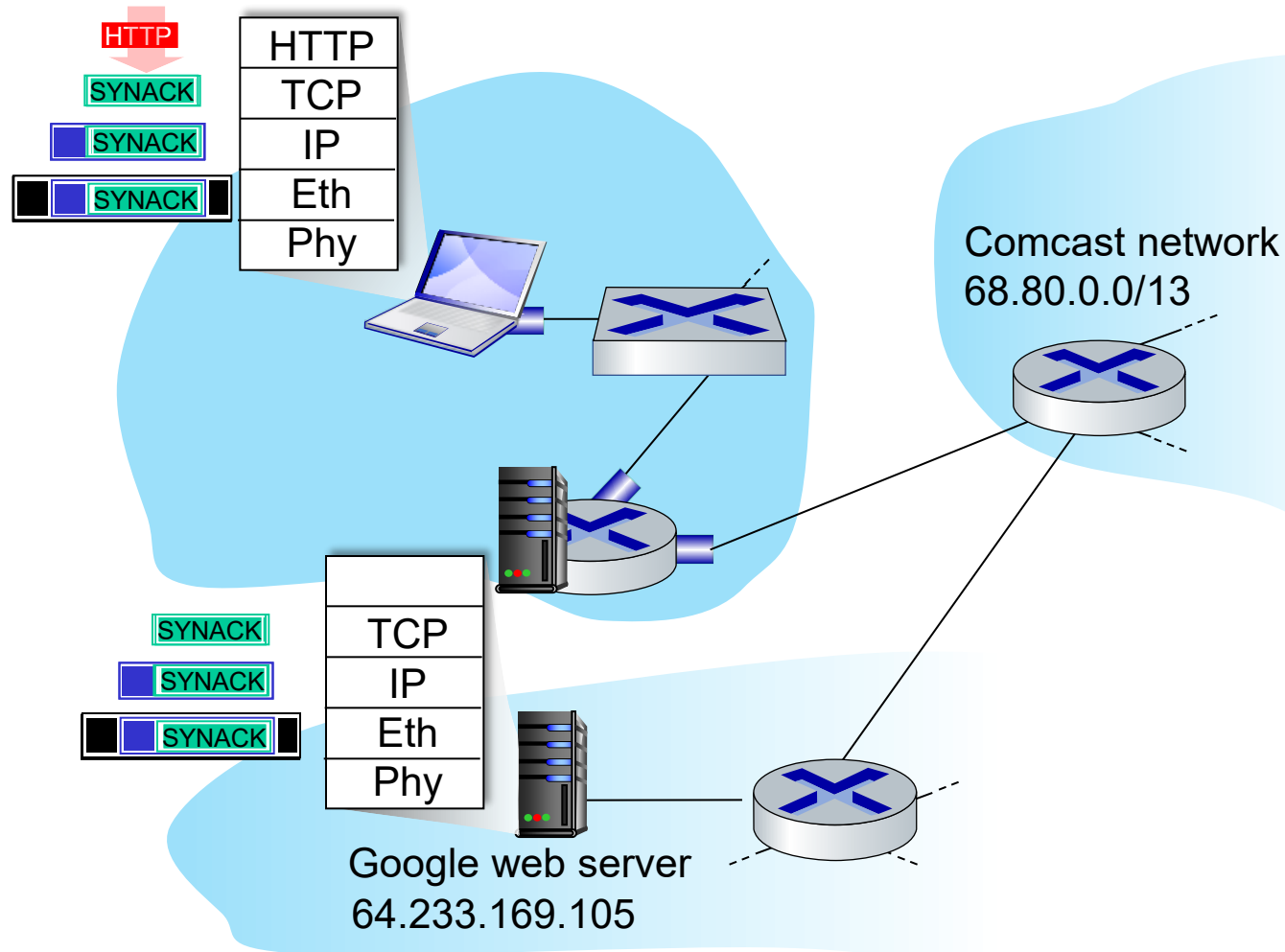


- IP datagram containing DNS query forwarded via LAN switch from client to 1st hop router

- 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

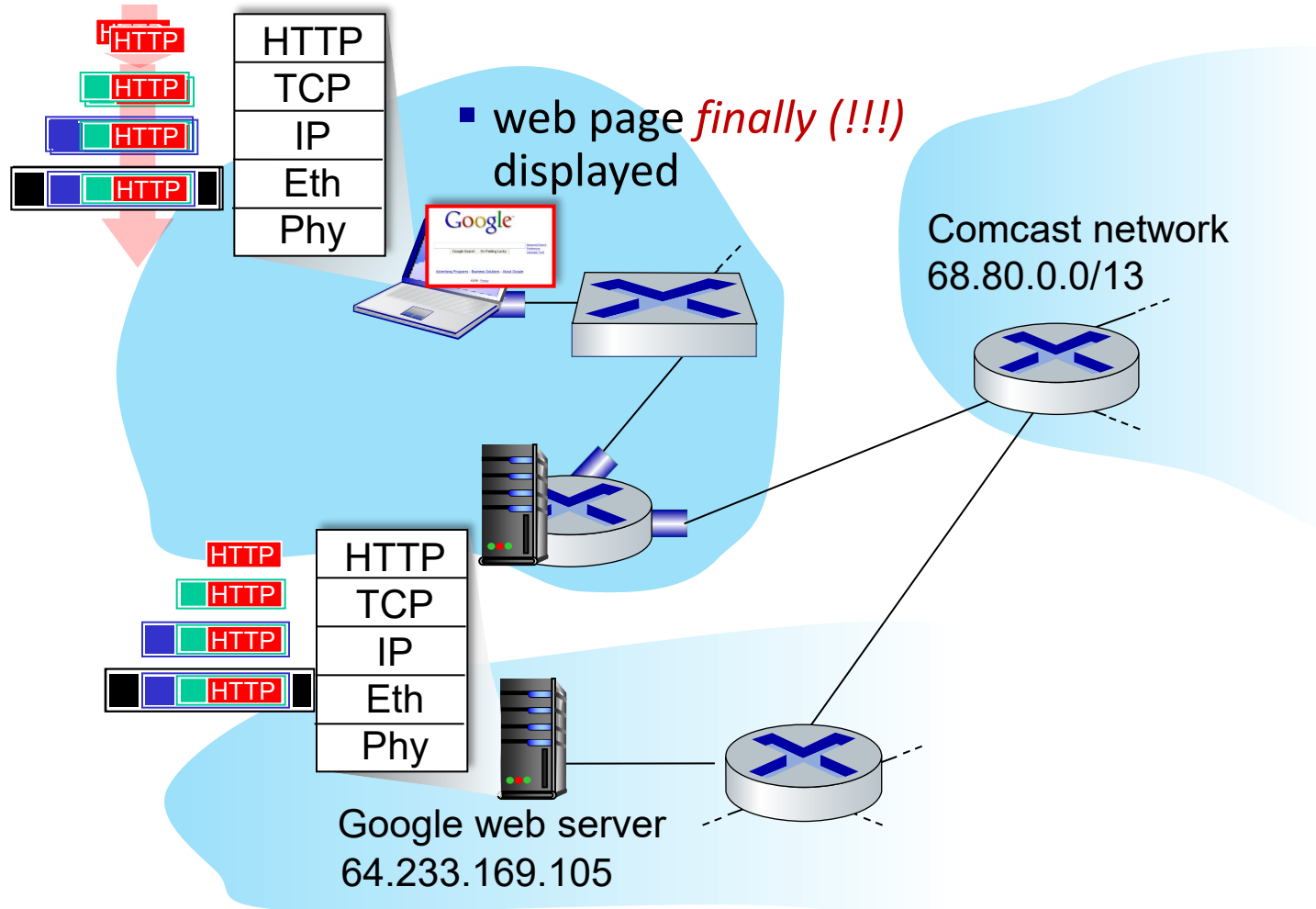
- de-muxed to DNS
- DNS replies to client with IP address of www.google.com

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 3-way handshake)
- TCP **connection established!**

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



- **HTTP request** sent into TCP socket
- IP datagram containing HTTP request routed to `www.google.com`
- web server responds with **HTTP reply** (containing web page)
- IP datagram containing HTTP reply routed back to client

Chapter 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
 - 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 *more* interesting topics!
 - wireless
 - security