### Chapter 6: The Link Layer and LANs

Applications ... built on ... Reliable (or unreliable) transport ... built on ... Best-effort global packet delivery ... built on ...

#### Best-effort local packet delivery

... built on ...

#### Physical transfer of bits

Source: Scott Shenker (UC Berkeley): slide 7 at The Future of Networking, and the Past of Protocols https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=YHeyuD89n1Y&t=111s

Application
Transport
Network
Link
Physical

## 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
- Iink virtualization: MPLS
- data center networking



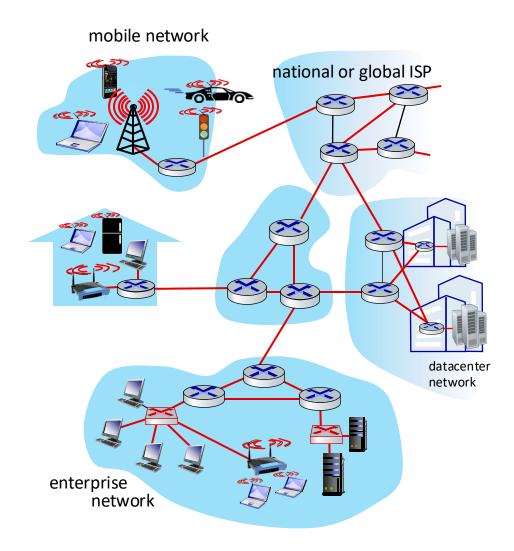
 a day in the life of a web request (at the end)

# 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

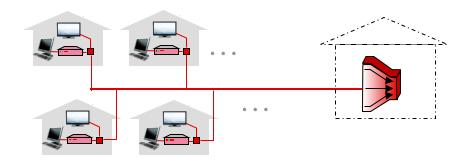
#### transportation analogy:

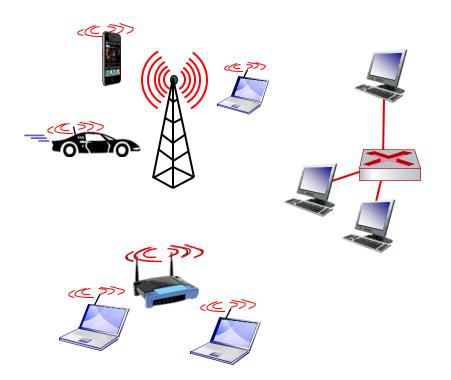
- trip from Princeton to Lausanne
  - limo: Princeton to JFK
  - plane: JFK to Geneva
  - train: Geneva to Lausanne
- tourist = datagram
- transport segment = communication link
- transportation mode = link-layer protocol
- travel agent = routing algorithm

# Link layer: services

#### framing, link access:

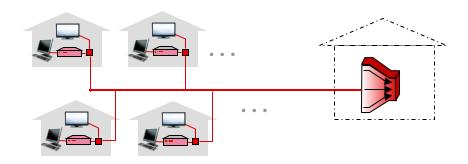
- encapsulate datagram into frame, adding header, trailer
- channel access if shared medium
- "MAC" addresses in frame headers identify source, destination (different from IP address!)
- reliable delivery between adjacent nodes
  - we already know how to do this!
  - seldom used on low bit-error links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

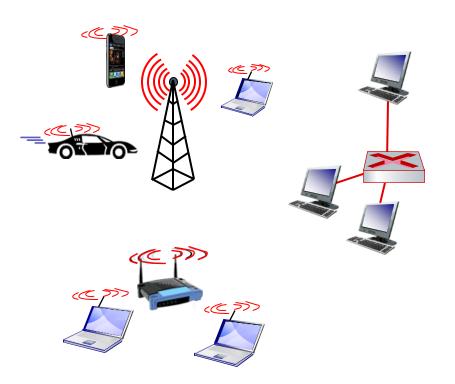




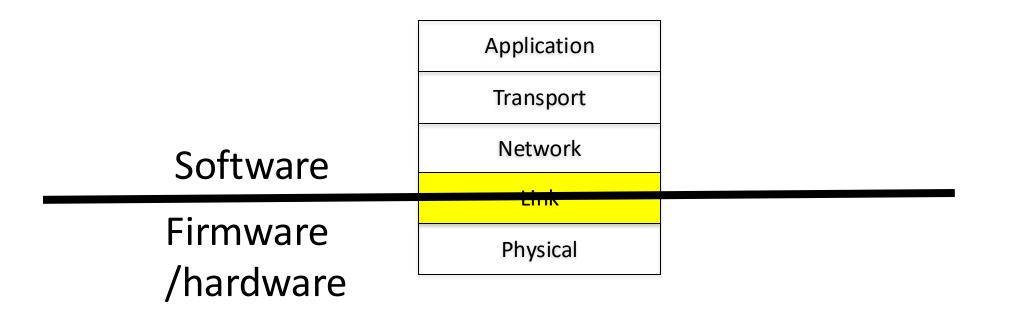
# Link layer: services (more)

- 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



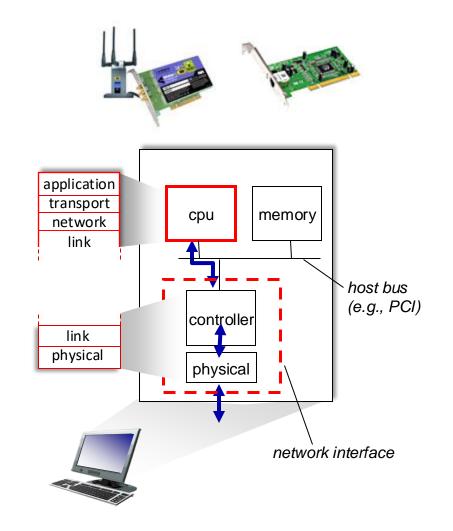


# Where is the link layer implemented?

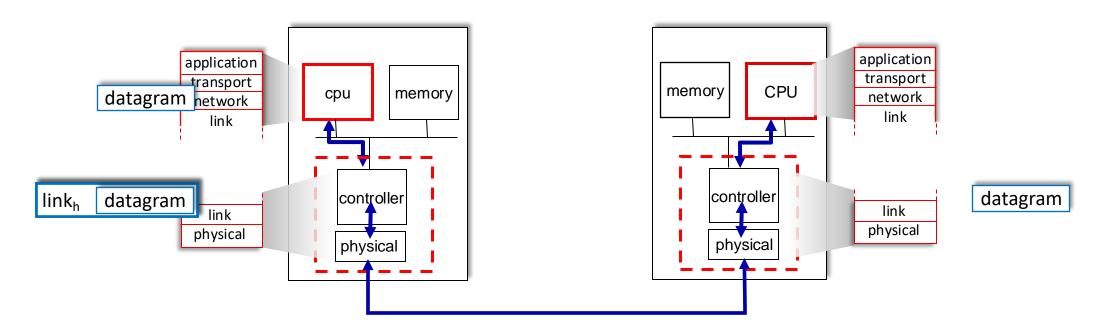


### Where is the link layer implemented?

- in each-and-every host
- link 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

# Link layer, LANs: roadmap

#### introduction

### error detection, correction

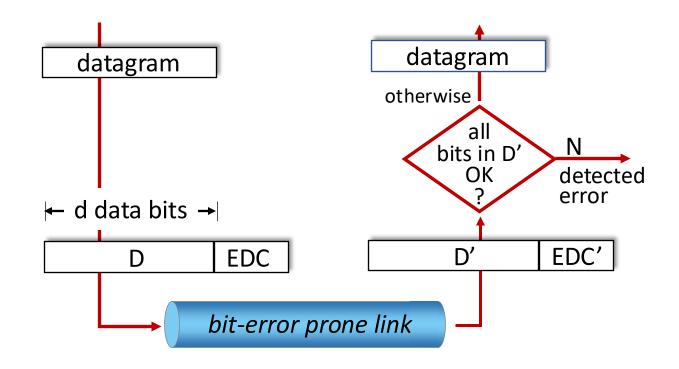
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### a day in the life of a web request

### **Error detection**

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



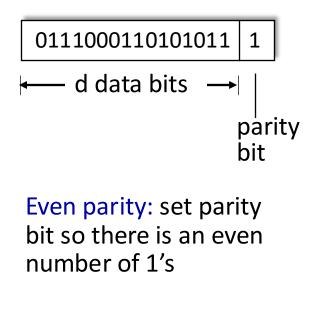
Error detection not 100% reliable!

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

# Parity checking

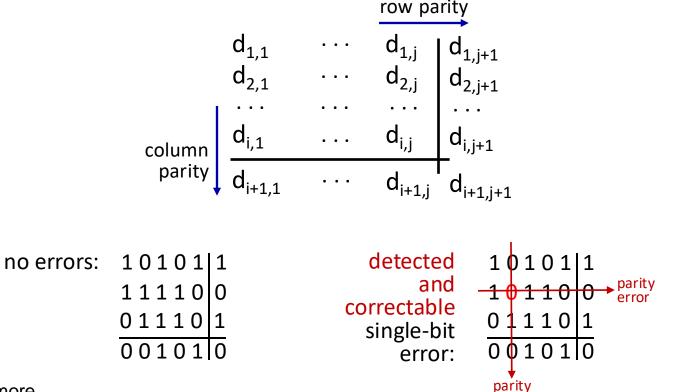
#### single bit parity:

detect single bit errors



#### two-dimensional bit parity:

detect and correct single bit errors



error

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

### Recall: Internet checksum

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

#### sender:

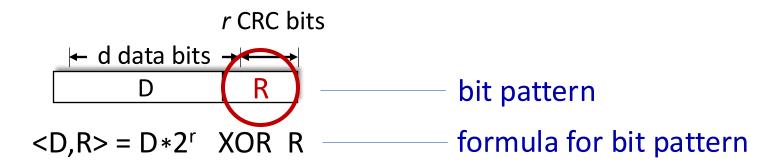
- treat contents of UDP segment (including UDP header fields and IP addresses) as sequence of 16-bit integers
- checksum: addition (one's complement sum) of segment content
- checksum value put into UDP checksum field

#### 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 ....

# Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC)

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



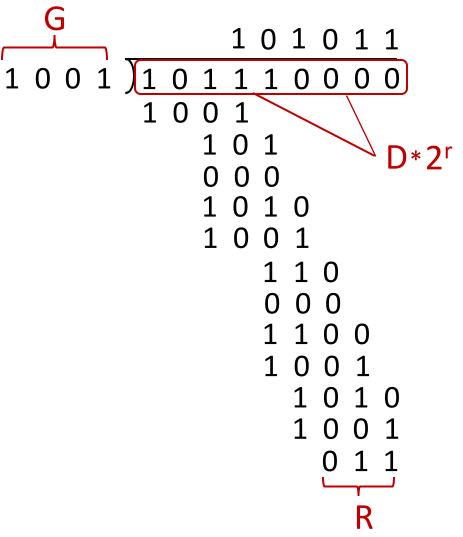
*goal:* choose *r* CRC bits, **R**, such that <D,R> exactly divisible by G (mod 2)

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

### Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC): example

We want:  $D \cdot 2^r XOR R = nG$ or equivalently:  $D \cdot 2^r = nG XOR R$ or equivalently: if we divide  $D \cdot 2^r$  by G, want remainder R to satisfy:

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



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



### 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*
- 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"

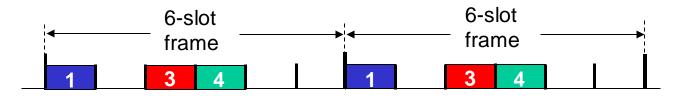
• nodes take turns, but nodes with more to send can take longer turns

Note: more for wireless networks (chapter 7)

### Channel partitioning MAC protocols: TDMA

#### TDMA: time division multiple access

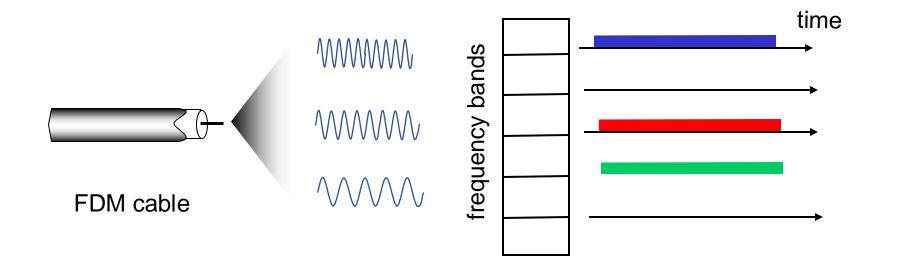
- access to channel in "rounds"
- each station gets fixed length slot (length = packet transmission time) in each round
- unused slots go idle
- example: 6-station LAN, 1,3,4 have packets to send, slots 2,5,6 idle



### Channel partitioning MAC protocols: FDMA

#### FDMA: frequency division multiple access

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



### Random access protocols

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

# **Slotted ALOHA**

#### assumptions:

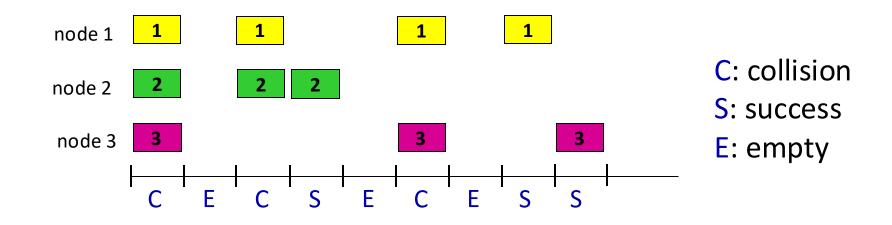
- all frames same size
- time divided into equal size slots (time to transmit 1 frame)
- nodes start to transmit only slot beginning
- nodes are synchronized
- if 2 or more nodes transmit in slot, all nodes detect collision

#### operation:

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

randomization – why?

## Slotted ALOHA



#### Pros:

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

#### Cons:

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

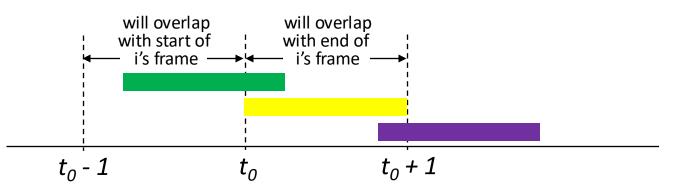
# Slotted ALOHA: efficiency

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

- suppose: N nodes with many frames to send, each transmits in slot with probability p
  - prob that given node has success in a slot  $= p(1-p)^{N-1}$
  - prob that any node has a success =  $Np(1-p)^{N-1}$
  - max efficiency: find  $p^*$  that maximizes  $Np(1-p)^{N-1}$
  - for many nodes, take limit of  $Np^*(1-p^*)^{N-1}$  as N goes to infinity, gives: max efficiency = 1/e = .37
- *at best:* channel used for useful transmissions 37% of time!

### 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% ! (see additional slides at the end)

### CSMA (carrier sense multiple access)

simple CSMA: listen before transmit:

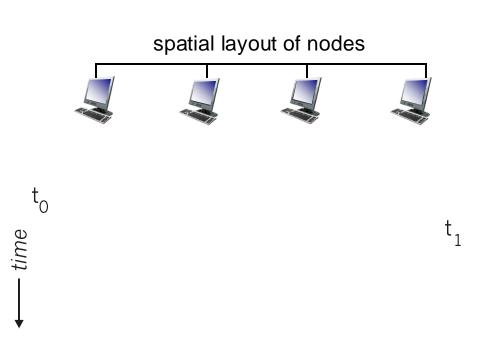
- if channel sensed idle: transmit entire frame
- if channel sensed busy: defer transmission
- human analogy: don't interrupt others!

#### CSMA/CD: CSMA with *collision detection*

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

### **CSMA: collisions**

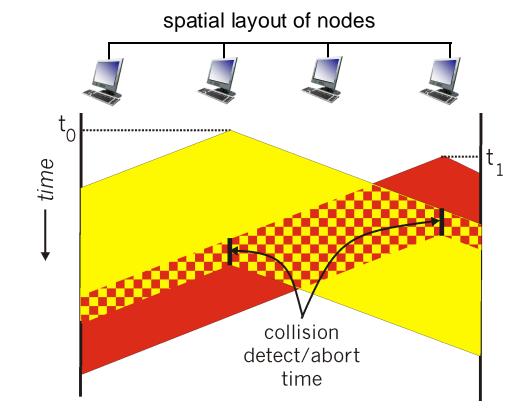
- collisions can still occur with carrier sensing:
  - propagation delay means two nodes may not hear each other's juststarted transmission
- collision: entire packet transmission time wasted
  - distance & propagation delay play role in in determining collision probability



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# CSMA/CD:

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



### Ethernet CSMA/CD algorithm

1. NIC receives datagram from network layer, creates frame

2. If NIC senses channel:

if idle: start frame transmission.

if **busy**: wait until channel idle, then transmit

- **3**. If NIC transmits entire frame without collision, NIC is done with frame !
- 4. If NIC detects another transmission while sending: abort, send jam signal
- 5. After aborting, NIC enters *binary (exponential) backoff:* 
  - after *m*th 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<sub>prop</sub> = 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  $t_{trans}$  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, 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

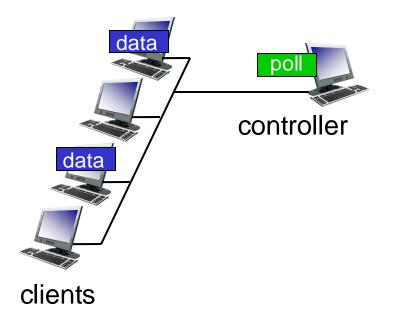
### "taking turns" protocols

Iook for best of both worlds!

# "Taking turns" MAC protocols

#### polling:

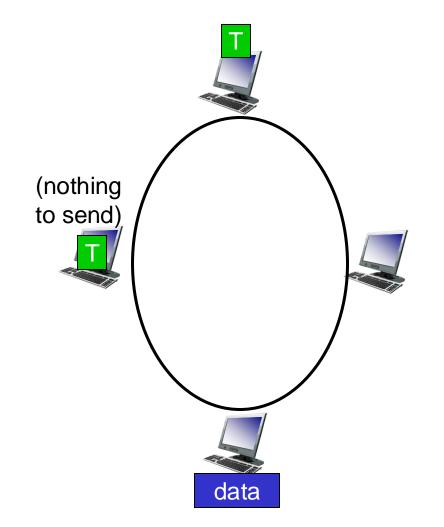
- controller node "invites" other nodes (clients)to transmit in turn
- typically used with "dumb" devices
- concerns:
  - polling overhead
  - latency
  - single point of failure (controller)



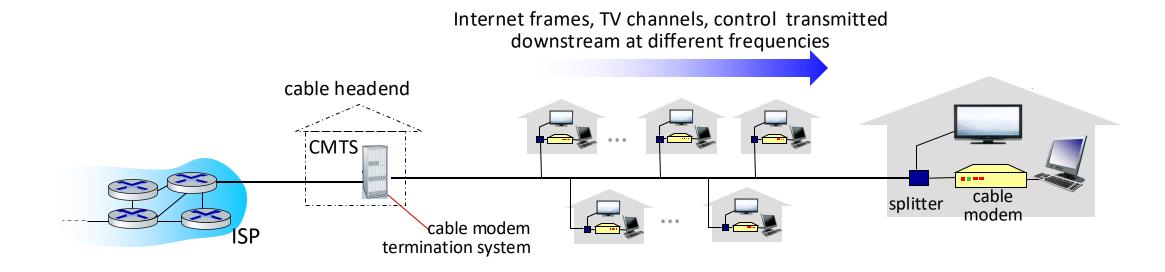
# "Taking turns" MAC protocols

### token passing:

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



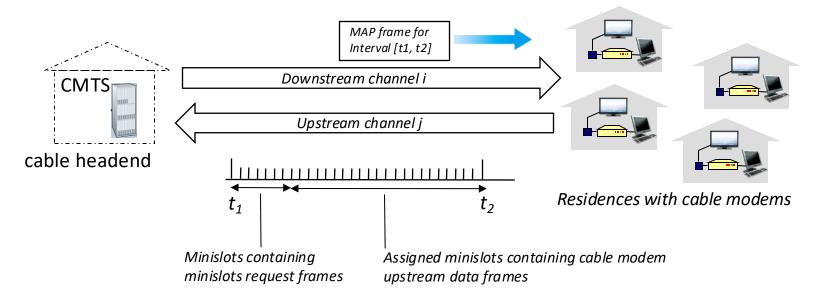
#### Cable access network: FDM, TDM and random access!



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

## 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 (chap 7)
- taking turns
  - polling from central site, token passing
  - Bluetooth, FDDI, token ring

# Link layer, LANs: roadmap

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 a day in the life of a web request

#### MAC addresses

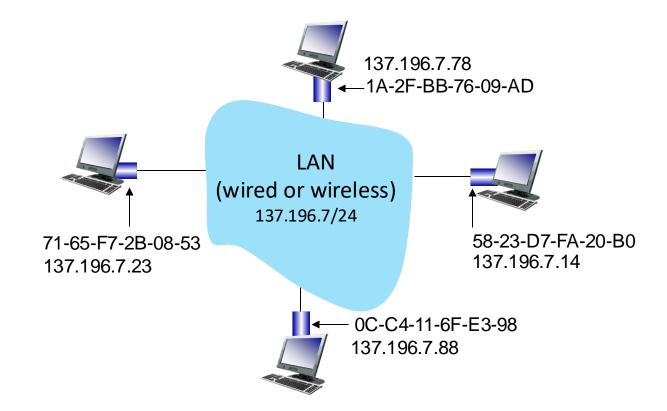
- 32-bit IP address:
  - *network-layer* address for interface
  - used for layer 3 (network layer) forwarding
  - e.g.: 128.119.40.136
- MAC (or LAN or physical or Ethernet) address:
  - function: used "locally" to get frame from one interface to another physically-connected interface (same subnet,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

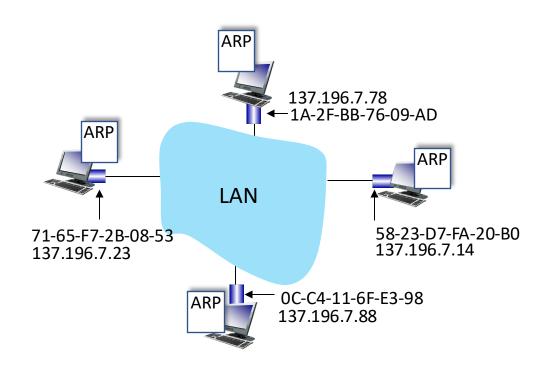


#### MAC addresses

- 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:

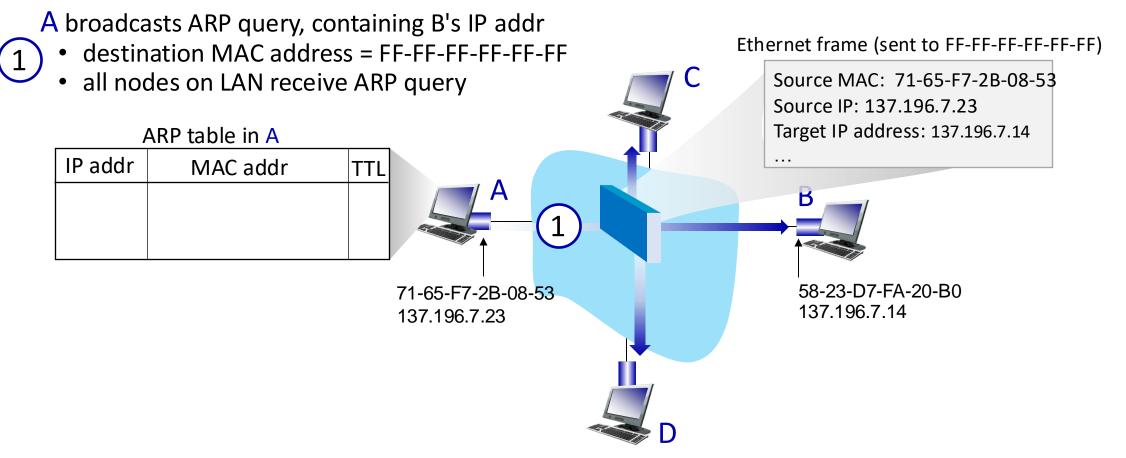
< IP address; MAC address; TTL>

• TTL (Time To Live): time after which address mapping will be forgotten (typically 20 min)

#### ARP protocol in action: same LAN

#### example: A wants to send datagram to B

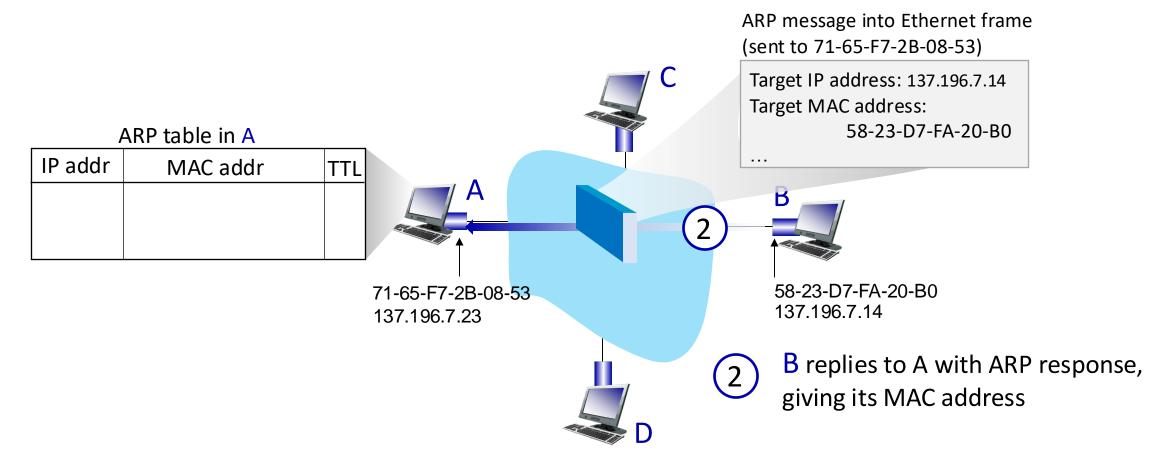
• B's MAC address not in A's ARP table, so A uses ARP to find B's MAC address



#### ARP protocol in action: same LAN

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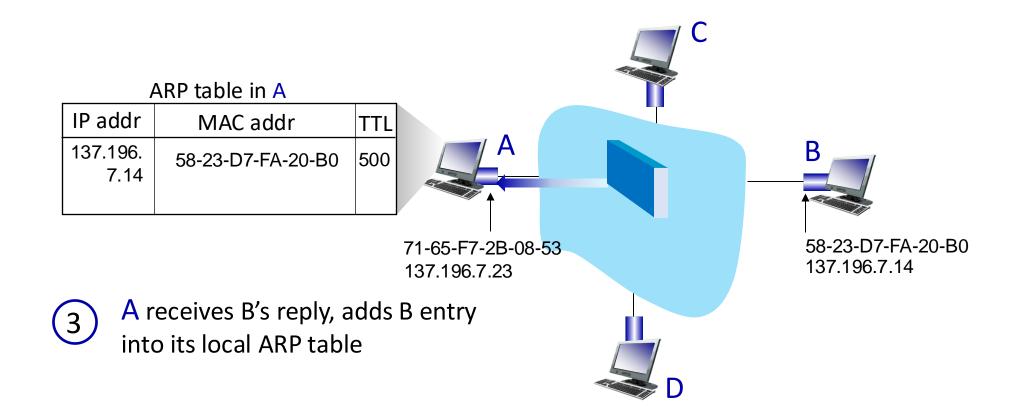
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#### ARP protocol in action: same LAN

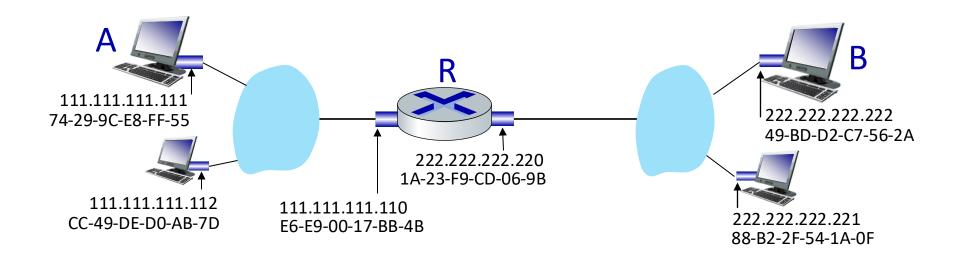
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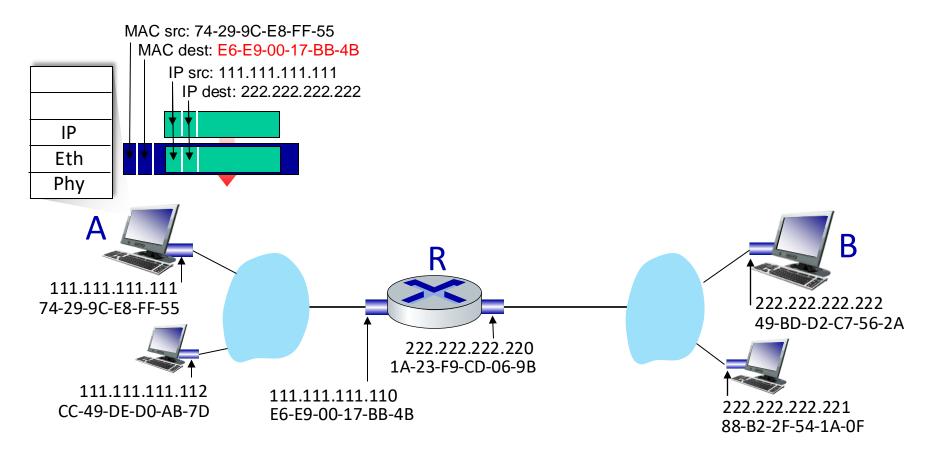


walkthrough: sending a datagram from A to B via R

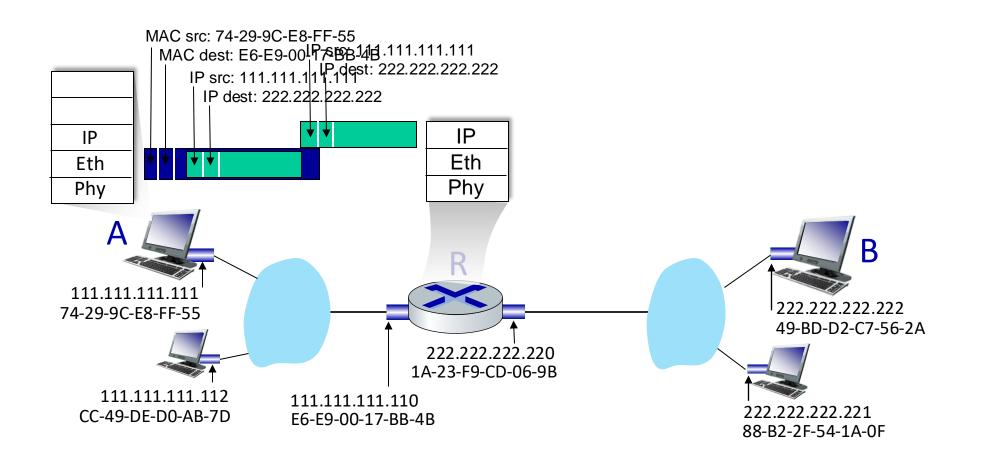
- focus on addressing at IP (datagram) and MAC layer (frame) levels
- assume that:
  - A knows B's IP address
  - A knows IP address of first hop router, R (how?)
  - A knows R's MAC address (how?)



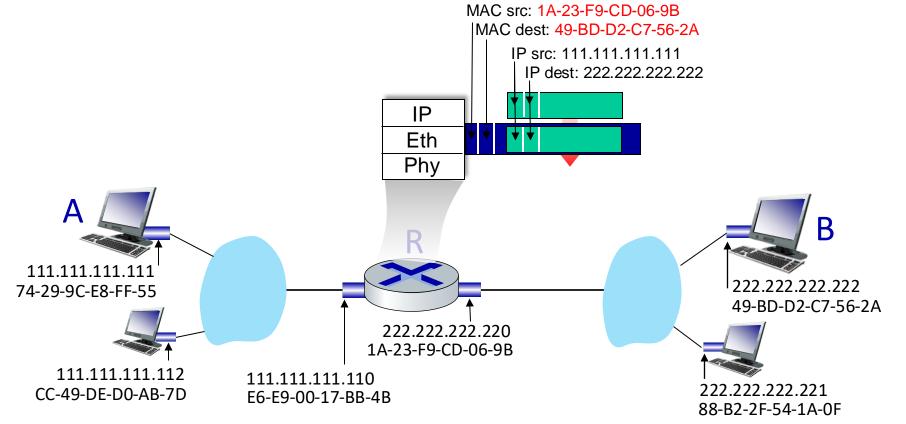
- A creates IP datagram with IP source A, destination B
- A creates link-layer frame containing A-to-B IP datagram
  - R's MAC address is frame's destination



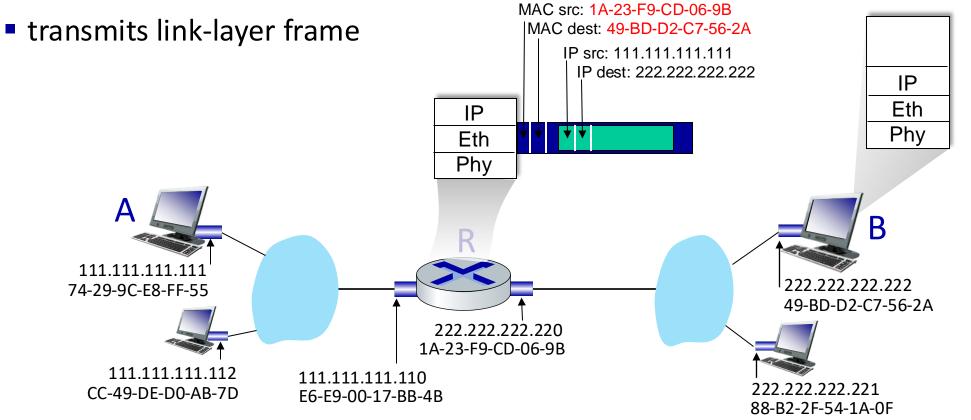
- frame sent from A to R
- frame received at R, datagram removed, passed up to IP



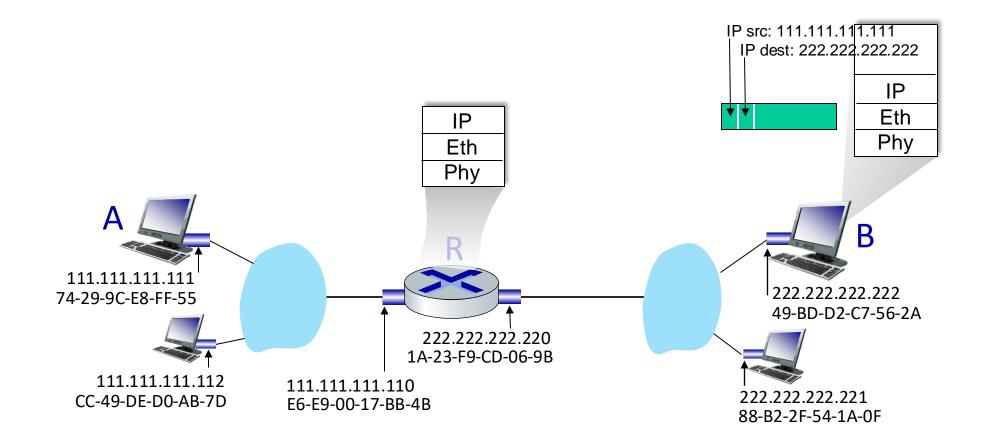
- R determines outgoing interface, passes datagram with IP source A, destination B to link layer
- R creates link-layer frame containing A-to-B IP datagram. Frame destination address: B's MAC address



- R determines outgoing interface, passes datagram with IP source A, destination B to link layer
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- B receives frame, extracts IP datagram destination B
- B passes datagram up protocol stack to IP



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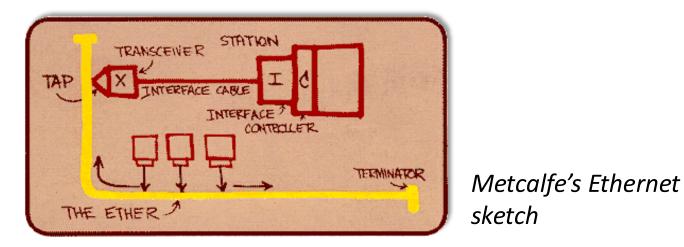


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#### Ethernet

"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)



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

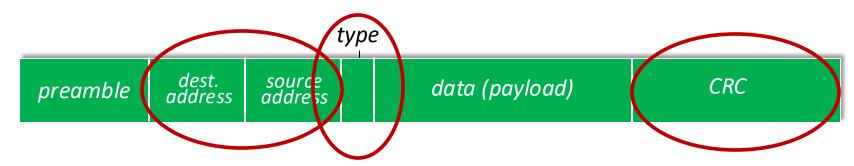
sending interface encapsulates IP datagram (or other network layer protocol packet) in Ethernet frame



#### preamble:

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

#### Ethernet frame structure (more)



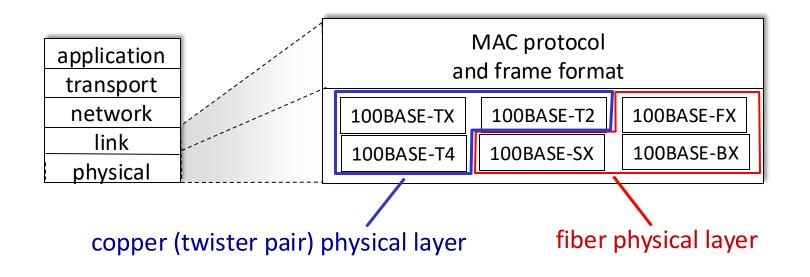
- addresses: 6 byte source, destination MAC addresses
  - if adapter receives frame with matching destination address, or with broadcast address (e.g., ARP packet), it passes data in frame to network layer protocol
  - otherwise, adapter discards frame
- type: indicates higher layer protocol
  - mostly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

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



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  - addressing, ARP
  - Ethernet
  - switches
  - VLANs
- Ink virtualization: MPLS
- data center networking



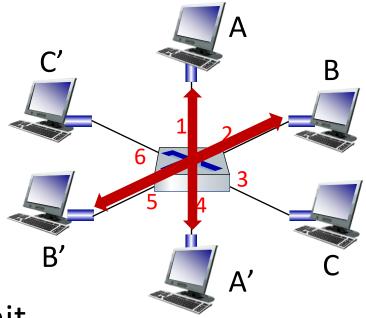
a day in the life of a web request

#### **Ethernet switch**

- Switch is a link-layer device: takes an *active* role
  - store, forward Ethernet 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

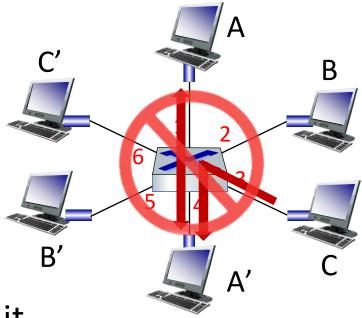
- hosts have dedicated, direct connection to switch
- switches buffer packets
- Ethernet protocol used on each incoming link, so:
  - no collisions; full duplex
  - each link is its own collision domain
- switching: A-to-A' and B-to-B' can transmit simultaneously, without collisions



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

### Switch: multiple simultaneous transmissions

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  - 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

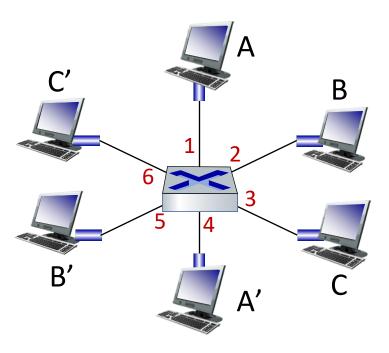


switch with six interfaces (1,2,3,4,5,6)

## Switch forwarding table

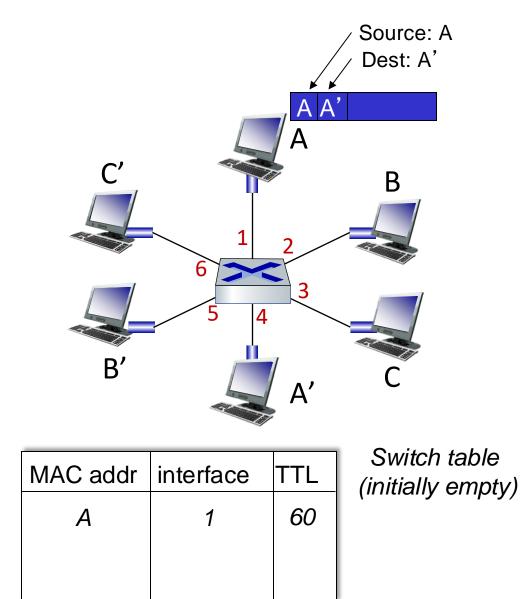
<u>Q</u>: how does switch know A' reachable via interface 4, B' reachable via interface 5?

- <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:

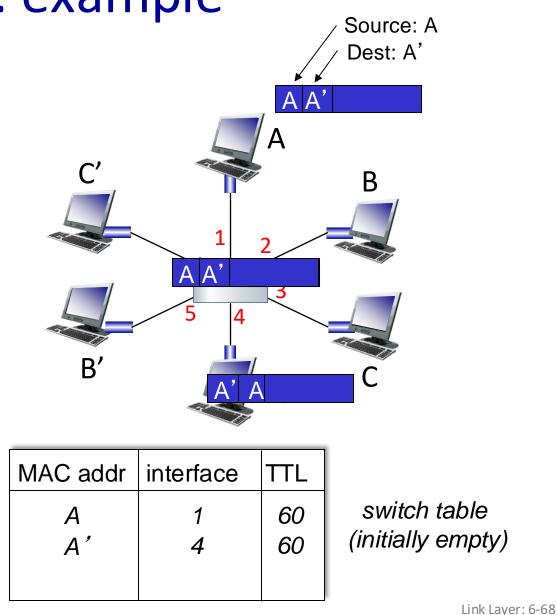
- 1. record incoming link, MAC address of sending host
- 2. index switch table using MAC destination address
- 3. if entry found for destination
   then {
  - if destination on segment from which frame arrived then drop frame
    - else forward frame on interface indicated by entry

```
}
```

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

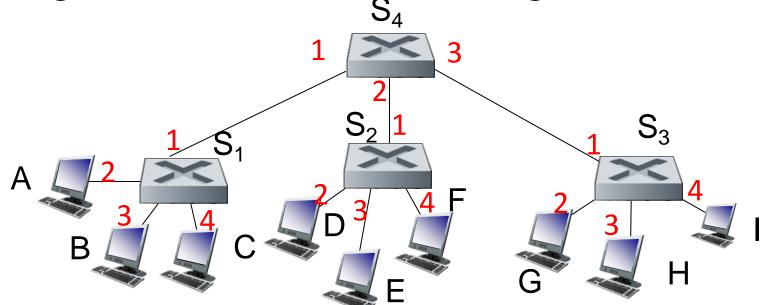
## Self-learning, forwarding: example

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



#### Interconnecting switches

self-learning switches can be connected together:

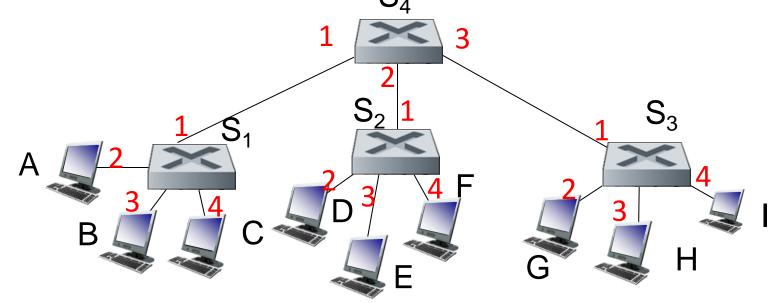


<u>*Q*</u>: sending from A to G - how does  $S_1$  know to forward frame destined to G via  $S_4$  and  $S_3$ ?

• <u>A:</u> self learning! (works exactly the same as in single-switch case!)

#### Self-learning multi-switch example

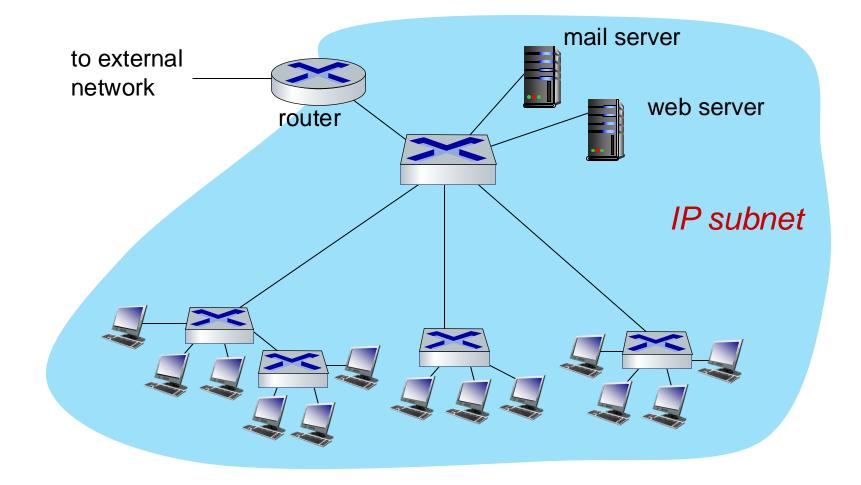
Suppose C sends frame to I, J responds to C



<u>Q</u>: show switch tables and packet forwarding in  $S_1$ ,  $S_2$ ,  $S_3$ ,  $S_4$ 

After A sends frame to G	After A sends frame to G and G responds to A
S1: A-2,	S1: A-2, G-1
S2: A-1	S2: A-1
S3: A-1;	S3: A-1; G-2
S4: A-1;	S4: A-1: G-3

#### Small institutional network



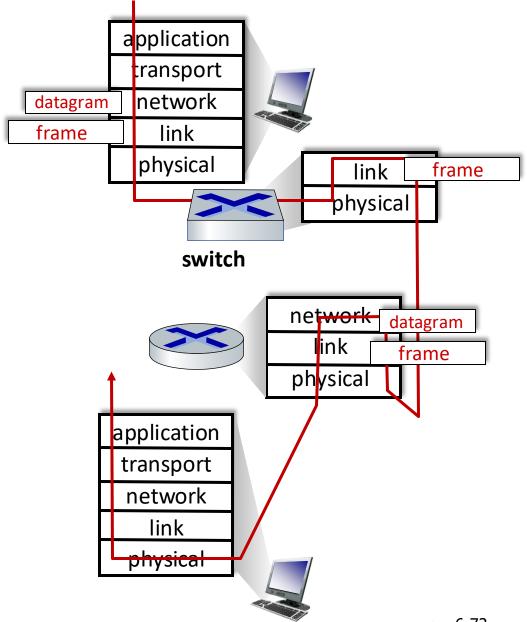
### Switches vs. routers

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

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

#### both have forwarding tables:

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



# Link layer, LANs: roadmap

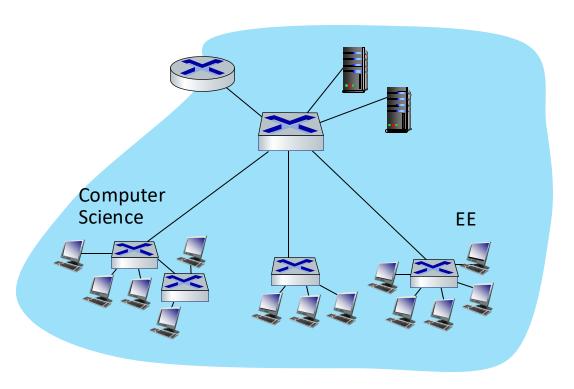
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 a day in the life of a web request

# Virtual LANs (VLANs): motivation

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

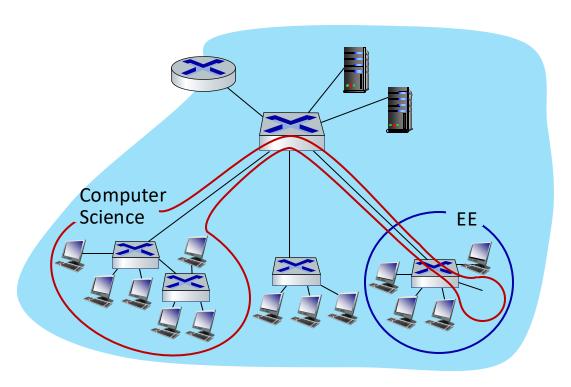


### single broadcast domain:

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

# Virtual LANs (VLANs): motivation

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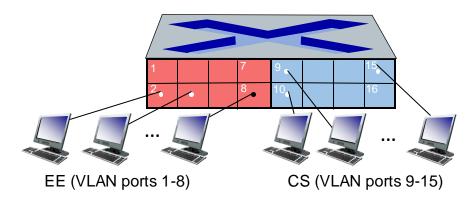
### administrative issues:

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

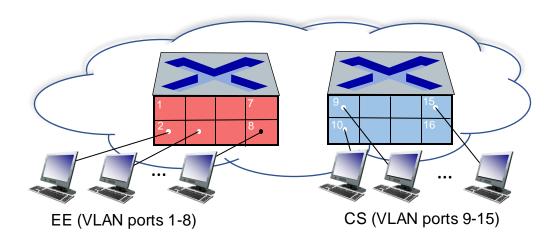
# Port-based VLANs

- Virtual Local Area Network (VLAN)
  - switch(es) supporting VLAN capabilities can be configured to define multiple *virtual* LANS over single physical LAN infrastructure.

port-based VLAN: switch ports grouped (by switch management software) so that single physical switch .....

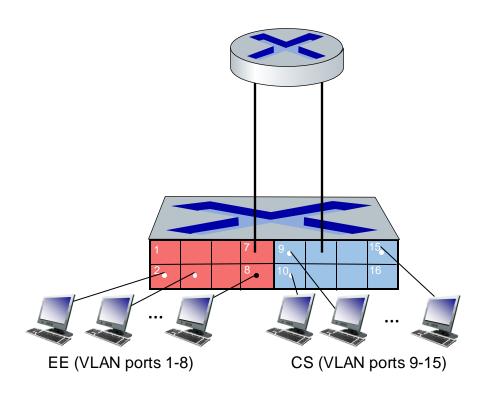


... operates as multiple virtual switches

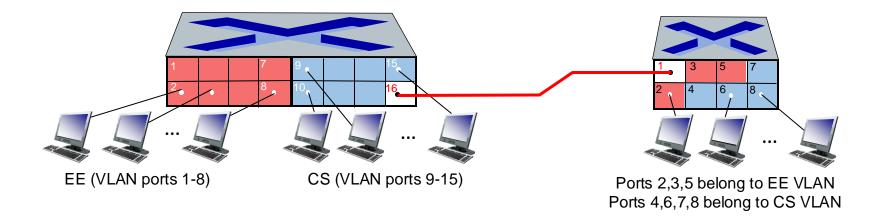


## Port-based VLANs

- traffic isolation: frames to/from ports 1-8 can only reach ports 1-8
  - can also define VLAN based on MAC addresses of endpoints, rather than switch port
- dynamic membership: ports can be dynamically assigned among VLANs
- forwarding between VLANS: done via routing (just as with separate switches)
  - in practice vendors sell combined switches plus routers



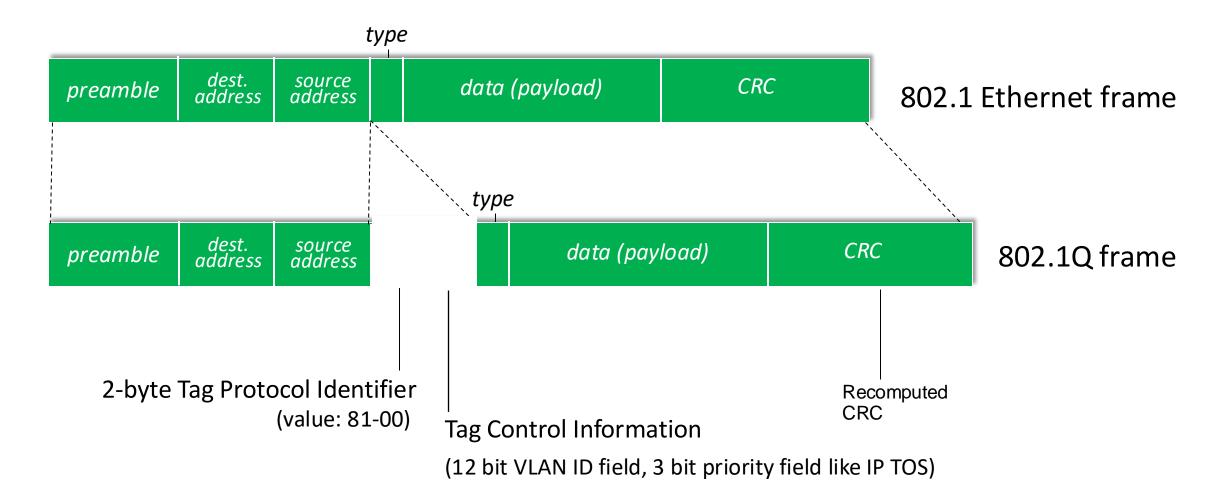
# VLANS spanning multiple switches



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

- frames forwarded within VLAN between switches can't be vanilla 802.1 frames (must carry VLAN ID info)
- 802.1q protocol adds/removed additional header fields for frames forwarded between trunk ports

# 802.1Q VLAN frame format



# Link layer, LANs: roadmap

- introduction
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  - addressing, ARP
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 a day in the life of a web request

### Datacenter networks

10's to 100's of thousands of hosts, often closely coupled, in close proximity:

- e-business (e.g. Amazon)
- content-servers (e.g., YouTube, Akamai, Apple, Microsoft)
- search engines, data mining (e.g., Google)

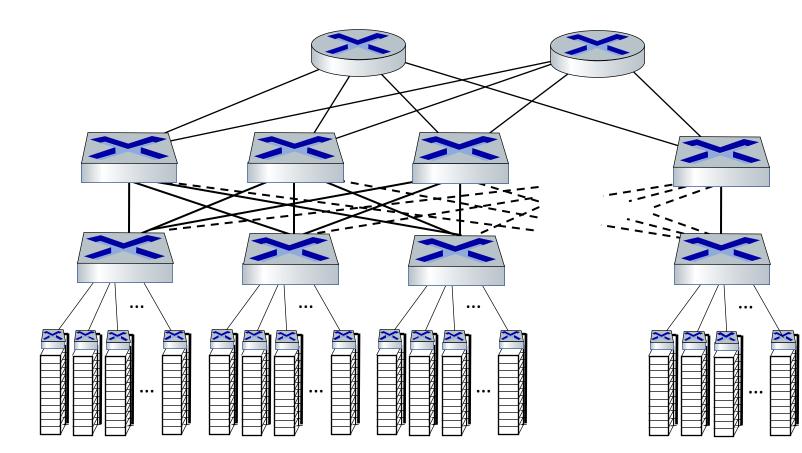
### challenges:

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



Inside a 40-ft Microsoft container, Chicago data center

### Datacenter networks: network elements



#### **Border routers**

connections outside datacenter

#### Tier-1 switches

connecting to ~16 T-2s below

#### Tier-2 switches

connecting to ~16 TORs below

#### Top of Rack (TOR) switch

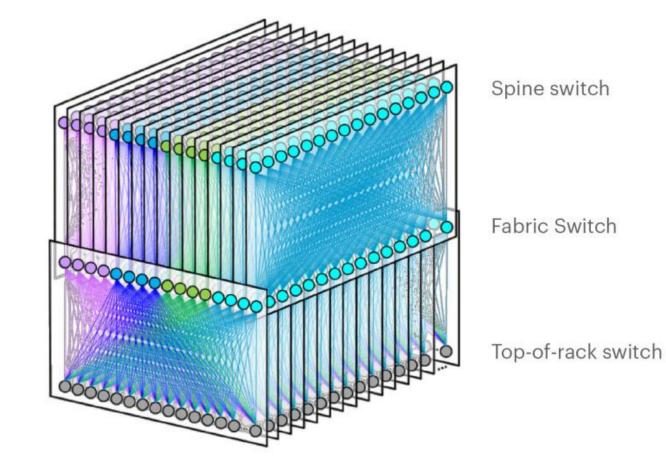
- one per rack
- 40-100Gbps Ethernet to blades

#### Server racks

20- 40 server blades: hosts

### Datacenter networks: network elements

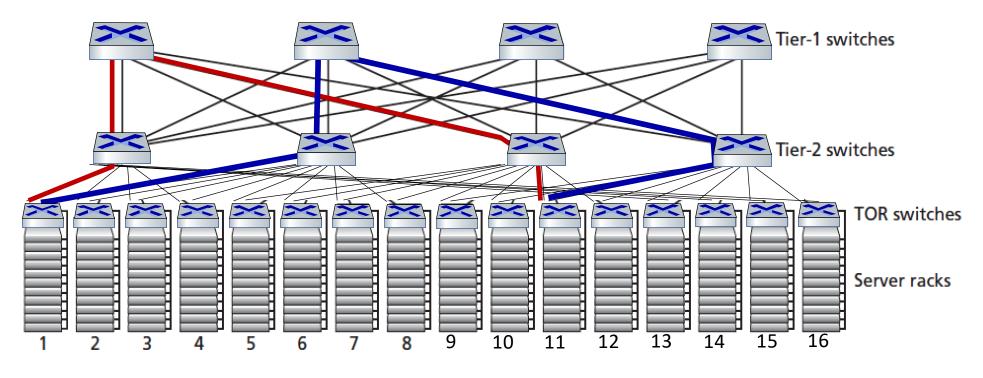
Facebook F16 data center network topology:



https://engineering.fb.com/data-center-engineering/f16-minipack/ (posted 3/2019)

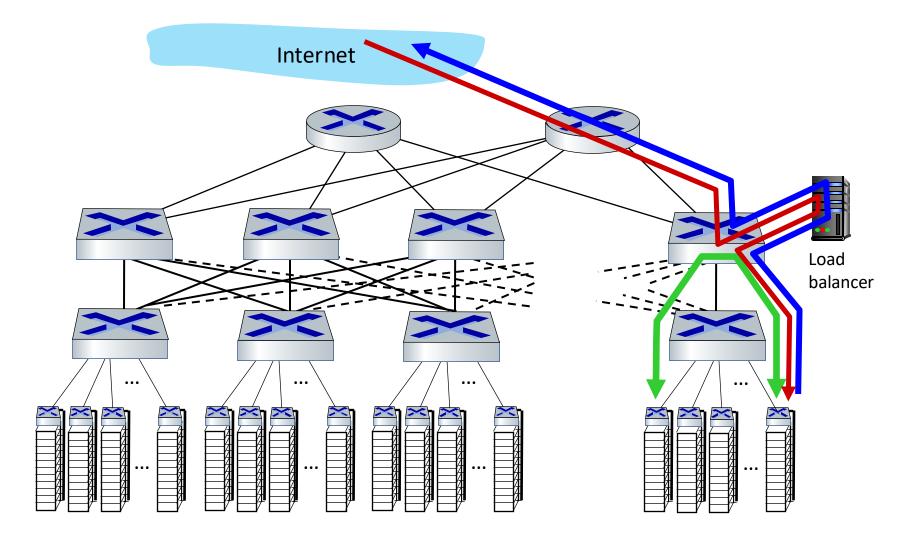
### Datacenter networks: multipath

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



two disjoint paths highlighted between racks 1 and 11

### Datacenter networks: application-layer routing



### load balancer: application-layer routing

- receives external client requests
- directs workload within data center
- returns results to external client (hiding data center internals from client)

### Datacenter networks: protocol innovations

### Iink layer:

• RoCE: remote DMA (RDMA) over Converged Ethernet

### transport layer:

- ECN (explicit congestion notification) used in transport-layer congestion control (DCTCP, DCQCN)
- experimentation with hop-by-hop (backpressure) congestion control
- routing, management:
  - SDN widely used within/among organizations' datacenters
  - place related services, data as close as possible (e.g., in same rack or nearby rack) to minimize tier-2, tier-1 communication

# 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

# Additional Chapter 6 slides

### Pure ALOHA efficiency

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

P(no other node transmits in  $[t_0-1,t_0]_{*}$ P(no other node transmits in  $[t_0-1,t_0]$ =  $p \cdot (1-p)^{N-1} \cdot (1-p)^{N-1}$ =  $p \cdot (1-p)^{2(N-1)}$ 

... choosing optimum p and then letting n

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

even worse than slotted Aloha!