



## 15-744 Computer Networks

Background Material 1:  
Getting stuff from here to there  
Or  
How I learned to love OSI layers 1-3



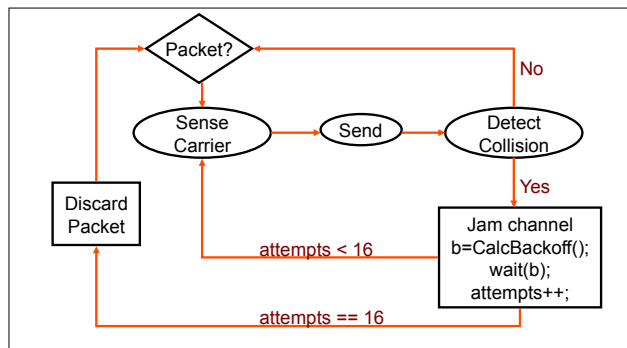
## Outline

- Link-Layer
  - Ethernet and CSMA/CD
  - Bridges/Switches
- Network-Layer
- Physical-Layer



## Ethernet MAC (CSMA/CD)

- Carrier Sense Multiple Access/Collision Detection

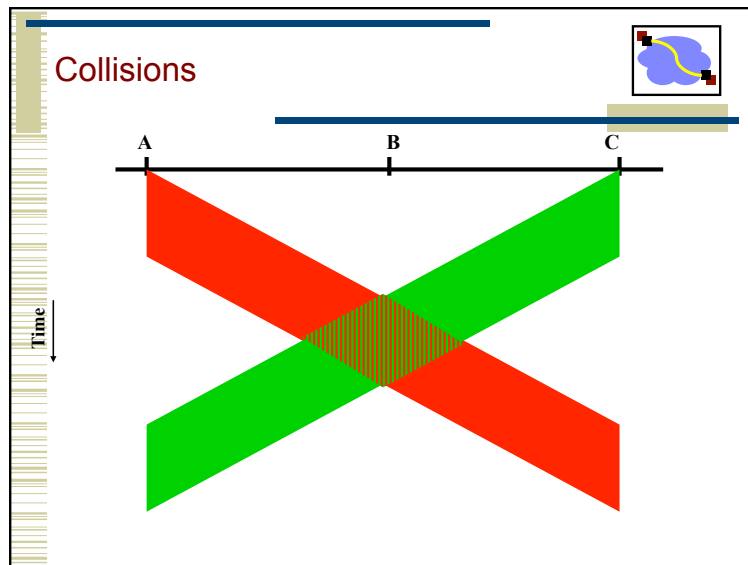


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## Ethernet Backoff Calculation

- Exponentially increasing random delay
  - Infer senders from # of collisions
  - More senders → increase wait time
- First collision: choose K from {0,1}; delay is K x 512 bit transmission times
- After second collision: choose K from {0,1,2,3}...
- After ten or more collisions, choose K from {0,1,2,3,4,...,1023}



### Minimum Packet Size

- What if two people sent really small packets
  - How do you find collision?
- Consider:
  - Worst case RTT
  - How fast bits can be sent

### Ethernet Collision Detect

- Min packet length > 2x max prop delay
  - If A, B are at opposite sides of link, and B starts one link prop delay after A
- Jam network for 32-48 bits after collision, then stop sending
  - Ensures that everyone notices collision

### Ethernet Frame Structure

- Sending adapter encapsulates IP datagram (or other network layer protocol packet) in **Ethernet frame**

## Ethernet Frame Structure (cont.)



- **Addresses:** 6 bytes
  - Each adapter is given a globally unique address at manufacturing time
    - Address space is allocated to manufacturers
      - 24 bits identify manufacturer
      - E.g., 0:0:15:\* → 3com adapter
    - Frame is received by all adapters on a LAN and dropped if address does not match
  - Special addresses
    - Broadcast – FF:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF is “everybody”
    - Range of addresses allocated to multicast
      - Adapter maintains list of multicast groups node is interested in

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## 4B/5B Encoding



- Data coded as symbols of 5 line bits → 4 data bits, so 100 Mbps uses 125 MHz.
  - Uses less frequency space than Manchester encoding
- Uses NRI to encode the 5 code bits
- Each valid symbol has at least two 1s: get dense transitions.
- 16 data symbols, 8 control symbols
  - Data symbols: 4 data bits
  - Control symbols: idle, begin frame, etc.
- Example: FDDI.

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## Framing



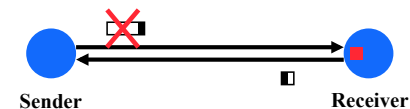
- A link layer function, defining which bits have which function.
- Minimal functionality: mark the beginning and end of packets (or frames).
- Some techniques:
  - out of band delimiters (e.g. FDDI 4B/5B control symbols)
  - frame delimiter characters with character stuffing
  - frame delimiter codes with bit stuffing
  - synchronous transmission (e.g. SONET)

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## Dealing with Errors Stop and Wait Case



- Packets can get lost, corrupted, or duplicated.
  - Error detection or correction turns corrupted packet in lost or correct packet
- Duplicate packet: use sequence numbers.
- Lost packet: time outs and acknowledgements.
  - Positive versus negative acknowledgements
  - Sender side versus receiver side timeouts
- Window based flow control: more aggressive use of sequence numbers (see transport lectures).



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## Summary



- CSMA/CD → carrier sense multiple access with collision detection
  - Why do we need exponential backoff?
  - Why does collision happen?
  - Why do we need a minimum packet size?
    - How does this scale with speed? (Related to HW)
- Ethernet
  - What is the purpose of different header fields?
  - What do Ethernet addresses look like?
- What are some alternatives to Ethernet design?

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## Outline



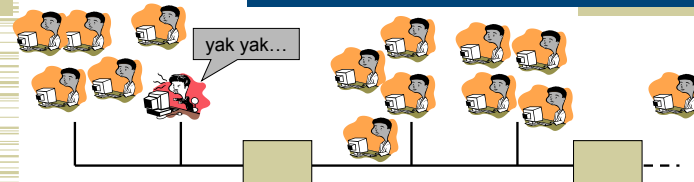
- **Link-Layer**
  - Ethernet and CSMA/CD
  - **Bridges/Switches**
- **Network-Layer**
- **Physical-Layer**

## Scale



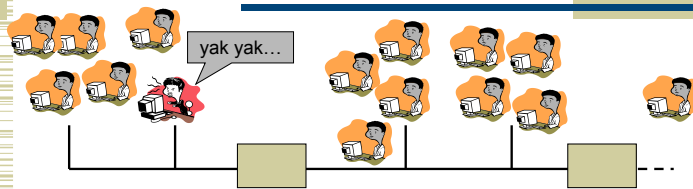
- What breaks when we keep adding people to the same wire?

## Scale



- What breaks when we keep adding people to the same wire?
- Only solution: split up the people onto multiple wires
  - But how can they talk to each other?

## Problem 1 – Reconnecting LANs



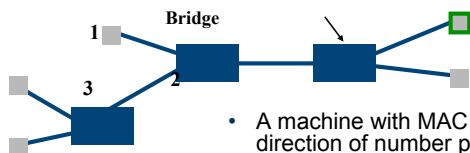
- When should these boxes forward packets between wires?
- How do you specify a destination?
- How does your packet find its way?

## Transparent Bridges / Switches

- Design goals:
  - Self-configuring without hardware or software changes
  - Bridge do not impact the operation of the individual LANs
- Three parts to making bridges transparent:
  - 1) Forwarding frames
  - 2) Learning addresses/host locations
  - 3) Spanning tree algorithm

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## Frame Forwarding



- A machine with MAC Address lies in the direction of number port of the bridge

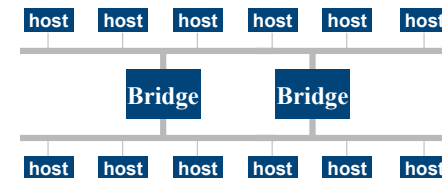
MAC Address	Port	Age
A21032C9A591	1	36
99A323C90842	2	01
8711C98900AA	2	15
301B2269011C	2	16
695519001190	3	11

- For every packet, the bridge “looks up” the entry for the packets destination MAC address and forwards the packet on that port.
  - Other packets are broadcast – why?
- Timer is used to flush old entries

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## Spanning Tree Bridges

- More complex topologies can provide redundancy.
  - But can also create loops.
- What is the problem with loops?
- Solution: spanning tree



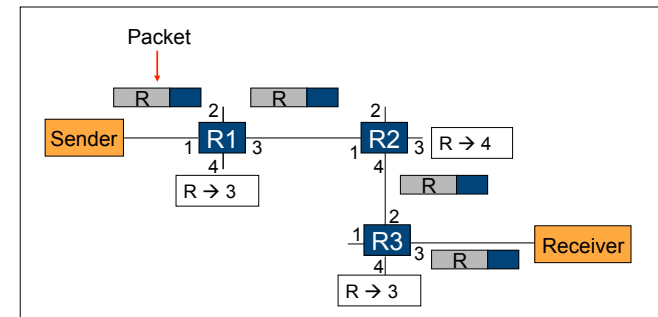
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- Link-Layer
- Network-Layer
  - Forwarding/MPLS
  - IP
  - IP Routing
  - Misc
- Physical-Layer

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## Global Address Example

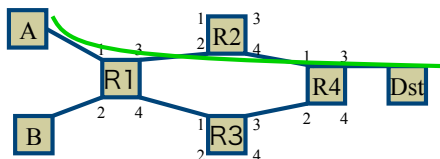


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Lecture 8: Bridging/Addressing/Forwarding

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## Virtual Circuit IDs/Switching: Label ("tag") Swapping

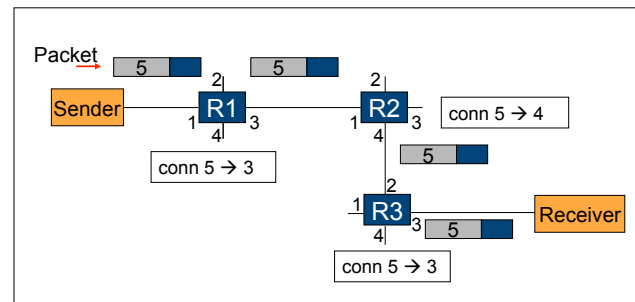


- Global VC ID allocation -- ICK! Solution: Per-link uniqueness. *Change VCI each hop.*

	Input Port	Input VCI	Output Port	Output VCI
R1:	1	5	3	9
R2:	2	9	4	2
R4:	1	2	3	5

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## Simplified Virtual Circuits Example



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Lecture 8: Bridging/Addressing/Forwarding

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## Comparison



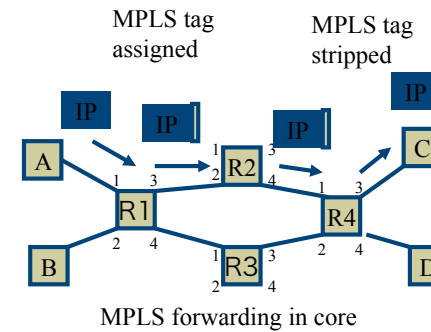
	Source Routing	Global Addresses	Virtual Circuits
Header Size	Worst	OK – Large address	Best
Router Table Size	None	Number of hosts (prefixes)	Number of circuits
Forward Overhead	Best	Prefix matching (Worst)	Pretty Good
Setup Overhead	None	None	Connection Setup
Error Recovery	Tell all hosts	Tell all routers	Tell all routers and Tear down circuit and re-route

9-20-07

Lecture 7: Addressing/Forwarding

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## MPLS core, IP interface



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## Outline



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  - IP Routing
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## IP Addresses

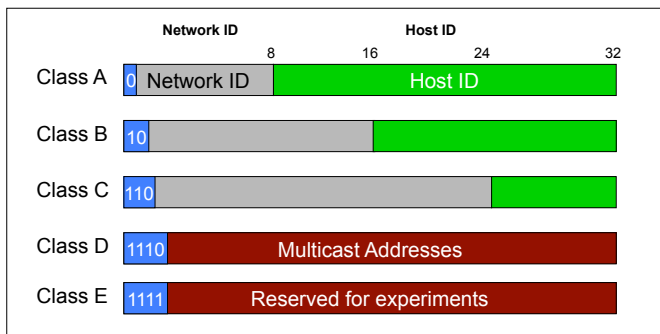


- Fixed length: 32 bits
- Initial classful structure (1981) (not relevant now!!!)
- Total IP address size: 4 billion
  - Class A: 128 networks, 16M hosts
  - Class B: 16K networks, 64K hosts
  - Class C: 2M networks, 256 hosts

High Order Bits	Format	Class
0	7 bits of net, 24 bits of host	A
10	14 bits of net, 16 bits of host	B
110	21 bits of net, 8 bits of host	C

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## IP Address Classes (Some are Obsolete)



## Original IP Route Lookup



- Address would specify prefix for forwarding table
  - Simple lookup
- www.cmu.edu address 128.2.11.43
  - Class B address – class + network is 128.2
  - Lookup 128.2 in forwarding table
  - Prefix – part of address that really matters for routing
- Forwarding table contains
  - List of class+network entries
  - A few fixed prefix lengths (8/16/24)
- Large tables
  - 2 Million class C networks

## Subnet Addressing RFC917 (1984)



- Class A & B networks too big
  - Very few LANs have close to 64K hosts
  - For electrical/LAN limitations, performance or administrative reasons
- Need simple way to get multiple “networks”
  - Use bridging, multiple IP networks or split up single network address ranges (subnet)
- CMU case study in RFC
  - Chose not to adopt – concern that it would not be widely supported ☺

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## Aside: Interaction with Link Layer



- How does one find the Ethernet address of a IP host?
- ARP (Address Resolution Protocol)
  - Broadcast search for IP address
    - E.g., “who-has 128.2.184.45 tell 128.2.206.138” sent to Ethernet broadcast (all FF address)
  - Destination responds (only to requester using unicast) with appropriate 48-bit Ethernet address
    - E.g., “reply 128.2.184.45 is-at 0:d0:bc:f2:18:58” sent to 0:c0:4f:d:ed:c6

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## Classless Inter-Domain Routing (CIDR) – RFC1338



- Allows arbitrary split between network & host part of address
  - Do not use classes to determine network ID
  - Use common part of address as network number
  - E.g., addresses 192.4.16 - 192.4.31 have the first 20 bits in common. Thus, we use these 20 bits as the network number → 192.4.16/20
- Enables more efficient usage of address space (and router tables) → How?
  - Use single entry for range in forwarding tables
  - Combined forwarding entries when possible

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## Host Routing Table Example



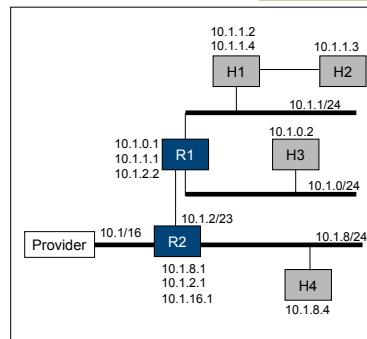
Destination	Gateway	Genmask	Iface
128.2.209.100	0.0.0.0	255.255.255.255	eth0
128.2.0.0	0.0.0.0	255.255.0.0	eth0
127.0.0.0	0.0.0.0	255.0.0.0	lo
0.0.0.0	128.2.254.36	0.0.0.0	eth0

- From “netstat –rn”
- Host 128.2.209.100 when plugged into CS ethernet
- Dest 128.2.209.100 → routing to same machine
- Dest 128.2.0.0 → other hosts on same ethernet
- Dest 127.0.0.0 → special loopback address
- Dest 0.0.0.0 → default route to rest of Internet
  - Main CS router: gigrouter.net.cs.cmu.edu (128.2.254.36)

## Routing to the Network



- Packet to 10.1.1.3 arrives
- Path is R2 – R1 – H1 – H2



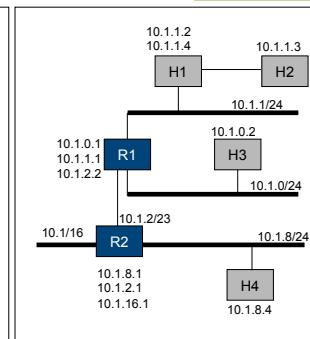
## Routing Within the Subnet



- Packet to 10.1.1.3
- Matches 10.1.0.0/23

### Routing table at R2

Destination	Next Hop	Interface
127.0.0.1	127.0.0.1	lo0
Default or 0/0	provider	10.1.16.1
10.1.8.0/24	10.1.8.1	10.1.8.1
10.1.2.0/23	10.1.2.1	10.1.2.1
10.1.0.0/23	10.1.2.2	10.1.2.1

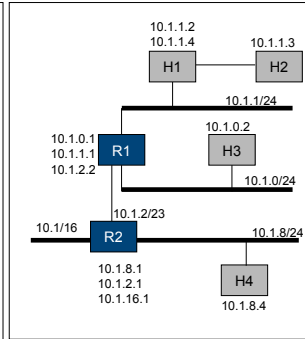


## Routing Within the Subnet

- Packet to 10.1.1.3
- Matches 10.1.1.1/31
  - Longest prefix match

### Routing table at R1

Destination	Next Hop	Interface
127.0.0.1	127.0.0.1	lo0
Default or 0/0	10.1.2.1	10.1.2.2
10.1.0.0/24	10.1.0.1	10.1.0.1
10.1.1.0/24	10.1.1.1	10.1.1.4
10.1.2.0/23	10.1.2.2	10.1.2.2
10.1.1.2/31	10.1.1.2	10.1.1.2

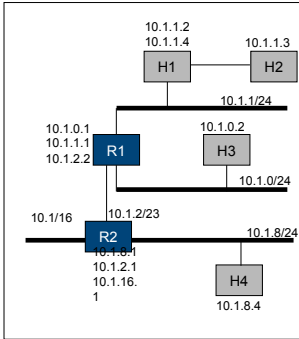


## Routing Within the Subnet

- Packet to 10.1.1.3
- Direct route
  - Longest prefix match

### Routing table at H1

Destination	Next Hop	Interface
127.0.0.1	127.0.0.1	lo0
Default or 0/0	10.1.1.1	10.1.1.2
10.1.1.0/24	10.1.1.2	10.1.1.1
10.1.1.3/31	10.1.1.2	10.1.1.2



## IP Addresses: How to Get One?

Network (network portion):

- Get allocated portion of ISP's address space:

ISP's block	<u>11001000</u>	<u>00010111</u>	<u>00010000</u>	00000000	200.23.16.0/20
Organization 0	<u>11001000</u>	<u>00010111</u>	<u>00010000</u>	00000000	200.23.16.0/23
Organization 1	<u>11001000</u>	<u>00010111</u>	<u>00010010</u>	00000000	200.23.18.0/23
Organization 2	<u>11001000</u>	<u>00010111</u>	<u>00010100</u>	00000000	200.23.20.0/23
...	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Organization 7	<u>11001000</u>	<u>00010111</u>	<u>00011110</u>	00000000	200.23.30.0/23

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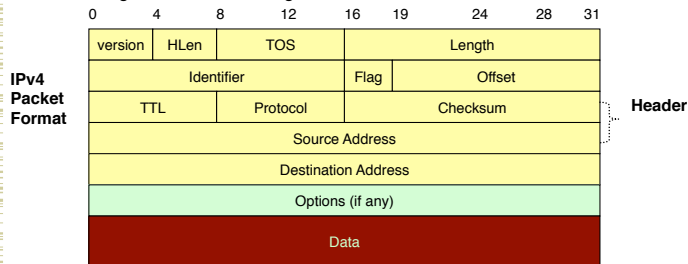
## IP Addresses: How to Get One?

- How does an ISP get block of addresses?
  - From **Regional Internet Registries (RIRs)**
    - ARIN (North America, Southern Africa), APNIC (Asia-Pacific), RIPE (Europe, Northern Africa), LACNIC (South America)
- How about a single host?
  - Hard-coded by system admin in a file
  - **DHCP**: **D**ynamic **H**ost **C**onfiguration **P**rotocol: dynamically get address: "plug-and-play"
    - Host broadcasts "DHCP discover" msg
    - DHCP server responds with "DHCP offer" msg
    - Host requests IP address: "DHCP request" msg
    - DHCP server sends address: "DHCP ack" msg

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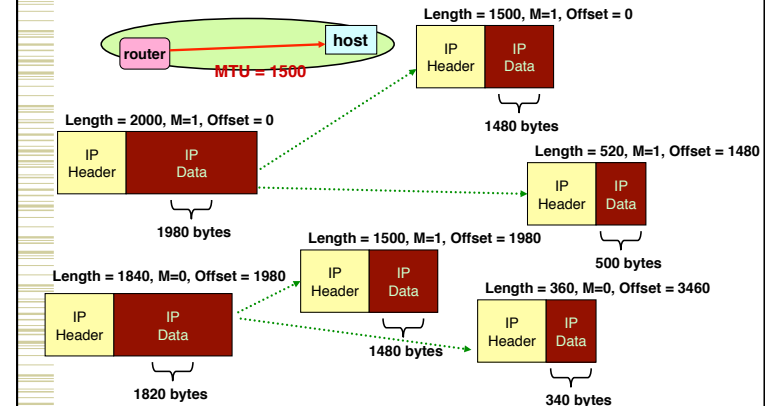
## IP Service Model

- Low-level communication model provided by Internet
- Datagram
  - Each packet self-contained
    - All information needed to get to destination
    - No advance setup or connection maintenance
  - Analogous to letter or telegram



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## IP Fragmentation Example



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## Important Concepts

- Base-level protocol (IP) provides minimal service level
  - Allows highly decentralized implementation
  - Each step involves determining next hop
  - Most of the work at the endpoints
- ICMP provides low-level error reporting
- IP forwarding → global addressing, alternatives, lookup tables
- IP addressing → hierarchical, CIDR
- IP service → best effort, simplicity of routers
- IP packets → header fields, fragmentation, ICMP

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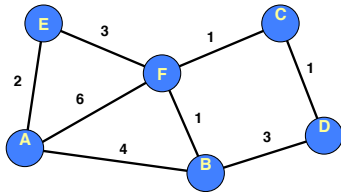
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## Distance-Vector Routing

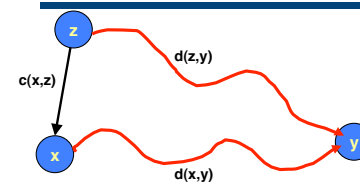
Initial Table for A		
Dest	Cost	Next Hop
A	0	A
B	4	B
C	$\infty$	-
D	$\infty$	-
E	2	E
F	6	F



- Idea
  - At any time, have cost/next hop of best known path to destination
  - Use cost  $\infty$  when no path known
- Initially
  - Only have entries for directly connected nodes

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## Distance-Vector Update



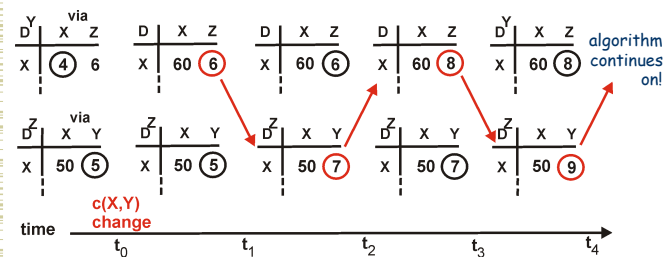
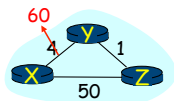
- Update(x,y,z)
  - $d \leftarrow c(x,z) + d(z,y)$  # Cost of path from x to y with first hop z
  - if  $d < d(x,y)$ 
    - # Found better path
    - return d,z # Updated cost / next hop
  - else
    - return d(x,y), nexthop(x,y) # Existing cost / next hop

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## Distance Vector: Link Cost Changes

### Link cost changes:

- Good news travels fast
- Bad news travels slow - "count to infinity" problem!

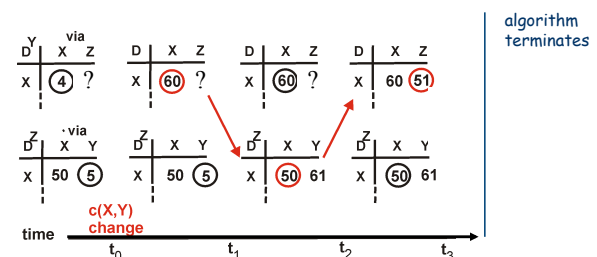
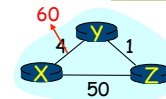


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## Distance Vector: Split Horizon

If Z routes through Y to get to X:

- Z does not advertise its route to X back to Y



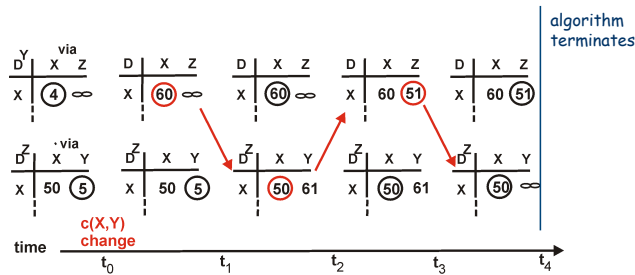
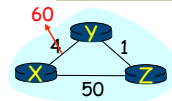
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## Distance Vector: Poison Reverse



If Z routes through Y to get to X :

- Z tells Y its (Z's) distance to X is infinite (so Y won't route to X via Z)
- Eliminates some possible timeouts with split horizon
- Will this completely solve count to infinity problem?



## Poison Reverse Failures



Table for A			Table for B			Table for D			Table for F		
Dst	Cst	Hop	Dst	Cst	Hop	Dst	Cst	Hop	Dst	Cst	Hop
C	7	F	C	8	A	C	9	B	C	1	C

Table for A			Forced Update
Dst	Cst	Hop	
C	∞	-	

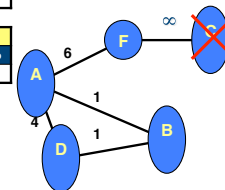
Table for F			Forced Update
Dst	Cst	Hop	
C	∞	-	

Table for A			Better Route
Dst	Cst	Hop	
C	13	D	

Table for B			Forced Update
Dst	Cst	Hop	
C	14	A	

Table for D			Forced Update
Dst	Cst	Hop	
C	15	B	

Table for A			Forced Update
Dst	Cst	Hop	
C	19	D	



- Iterations don't converge
- "Count to infinity"
- Solution
  - Make "infinity" smaller
  - What is upper bound on maximum path length?

## Link State Protocol Concept



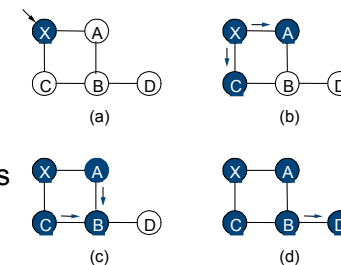
- Every node gets complete copy of graph
  - Every node "floods" network with data about its outgoing links
- Every node computes routes to every other node
  - Using single-source, shortest-path algorithm
- Process performed whenever needed
  - When connections die / reappear

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## Sending Link States by Flooding



- X Wants to Send Information
  - Sends on all outgoing links
- When Node B Receives Information from A
  - Send on all links other than A



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## Comparison of LS and DV Algorithms



### Message complexity

- **LS:** with  $n$  nodes,  $E$  links,  $O(nE)$  messages
- **DV:** exchange between neighbors only  $O(E)$

### Space requirements:

- LS maintains entire topology
- DV maintains only neighbor state

### Speed of Convergence

- **LS:** Complex computation
  - But...can forward before computation
  - may have oscillations
- **DV:** convergence time varies
  - may be routing loops
  - count-to-infinity problem
  - (faster with triggered updates)

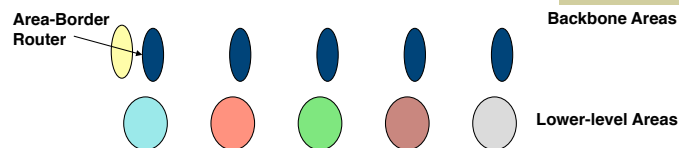
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## Routing Hierarchies



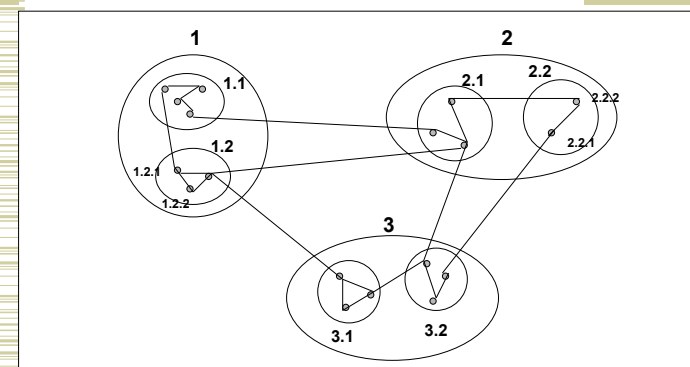
- Flat routing doesn't scale
  - Storage → Each node cannot be expected to store routes to every destination (or destination network)
  - Convergence times increase
  - Communication → Total message count increases
- Key observation
  - Need less information with increasing distance to destination
  - Need lower diameters networks
- Solution: area hierarchy

## Routing Hierarchy



- Partition Network into "Areas"
  - Within area
    - Each node has routes to every other node
  - Outside area
    - Each node has routes for **other top-level areas only**
    - Inter-area packets are routed to nearest appropriate border router
- Constraint: no path between two sub-areas of an area can exit that area

## Area Hierarchy Addressing



## Take Home Points

- Costs/benefits/goals of virtual circuits
- Cell switching (ATM)
  - Fixed-size pkts: Fast hardware
  - Packet size picked for low voice jitter. Understand trade-offs.
  - Beware packet shredder effect (drop entire pkt)
- Tag/label swapping
  - Basis for most VCs.
  - Makes label assignment link-local. Understand mechanism.
- MPLS - IP meets virtual circuits
  - MPLS tunnels used for VPNs, traffic engineering, reduced core routing table sizes

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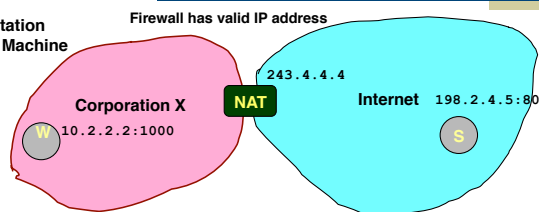
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## NAT: Opening Client Connection

W: Workstation  
S: Server Machine



- Client 10.2.2.2 wants to connect to server 198.2.4.5:80
  - OS assigns ephemeral port (1000)
- Connection request intercepted by firewall
  - Maps client to port of firewall (5000)
  - Creates NAT table entry

Int Addr	Int Port	NAT Port
10.2.2.2	1000	5000

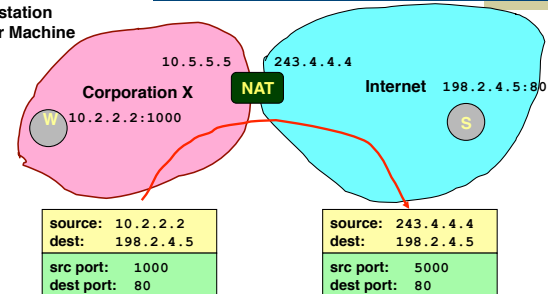
9-26-06

Lecture 9: IP Packets

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## NAT: Client Request

W: Workstation  
S: Server Machine



source: 10.2.2.2	dest: 198.2.4.5
src port: 1000	dest port: 80

source: 243.4.4.4	dest: 198.2.4.5
src port: 5000	dest port: 80

- Firewall acts as proxy for client
  - Intercepts message from client and marks itself as sender

Int Addr	Int Port	NAT Port
10.2.2.2	1000	5000

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Lecture 9: IP Packets

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## NAT: Server Response

W: Workstation  
S: Server Machine

Corporation X: 10.5.5.5  
NAT: 243.4.4.4  
Internet: 198.2.4.5:80  
Server Machine: 10.2.2.2:1000

source: 198.2.4.5	source: 198.2.4.5
dest: 10.2.2.2	dest: 243.4.4.4
src port: 80	src port: 80
dest port: 1000	dest port: 5000

- Firewall acts as proxy for client
  - Acts as destination for server messages
  - Relabels destination to local addresses

Int Addr	Int Port	NAT Port
10.2.2.2	1000	5000

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## Extending Private Network

W: Workstation  
S: Server Machine

Corporation X: 10.x.x.x  
NAT: 10.6.6.6  
Internet: 198.3.3.3

- Supporting Road Warrior
  - Employee working remotely with assigned IP address 198.3.3.3
  - Wants to appear to rest of corporation as if working internally
    - From address 10.6.6.6
    - Gives access to internal services (e.g., ability to send mail)
- Virtual Private Network (VPN)
  - Overlays private network on top of regular Internet

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## Supporting VPN by Tunneling

F: Firewall  
R: Router  
H: Host

10.5.5.5  
243.4.4.4  
10.6.6.6  
198.3.3.3

- Concept
  - Appears as if two hosts connected directly
- Usage in VPN
  - Create tunnel between road warrior & firewall
  - Remote host appears to have direct connection to internal network

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## Implementing Tunneling

10.5.5.5  
243.4.4.4  
10.6.6.6  
198.3.3.3

- Host creates packet for internal node 10.6.1.1
- Entering Tunnel
  - Add extra IP header directed to firewall (243.4.4.4)
  - Original header becomes part of payload
  - Possible to encrypt it
- Exiting Tunnel
  - Firewall receives packet
  - Strips off header
  - Sends through internal network to destination

source: 198.3.3.3	dest: 243.4.4.4
dest: 10.1.1.1	source: 10.6.6.6

Payload

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## Outline

- Link-Layer
- Network-Layer
- Physical-Layer

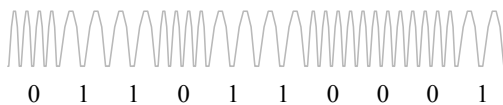
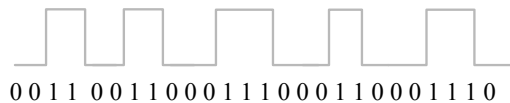
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## Packet vs. Circuit Switching

- Packet-switching: Benefits
  - Ability to exploit statistical multiplexing
  - More efficient bandwidth usage
- Packet switching: Concerns
  - Needs to buffer and deal with congestion:
  - More complex switches
  - Harder to provide good network services (e.g., delay and bandwidth guarantees)

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## Amplitude and Frequency Modulation



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## Capacity of a Noisy Channel

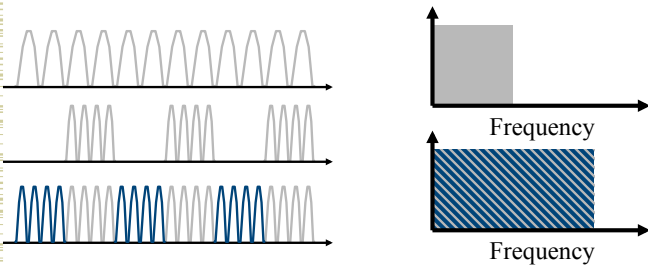
- Can't add infinite symbols - you have to be able to tell them apart. This is where noise comes in.
- Shannon's theorem:
  - $C = B \times \log(1 + S/N)$
  - C: maximum capacity (bps)
  - B: channel bandwidth (Hz)
  - S/N: signal to noise ratio of the channel
    - Often expressed in decibels (db).  $10 \log(S/N)$ .
- Example:
  - Local loop bandwidth: 3200 Hz
  - Typical S/N: 1000 (30db)
  - What is the upper limit on capacity?
    - Modems: Teleco internally converts to 56kbit/s digital signal, which sets a limit on B and the S/N.

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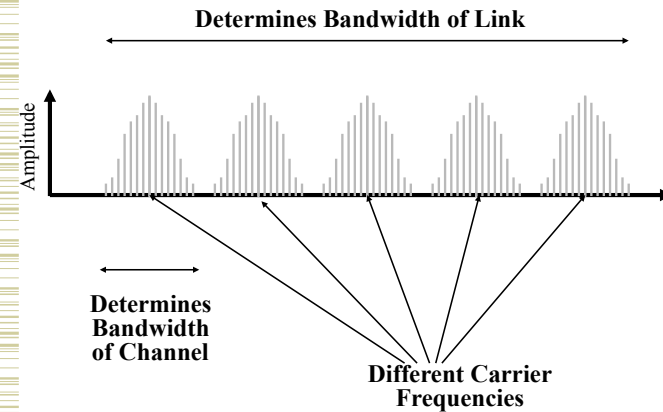
## Time Division Multiplexing



- Different users use the wire at different points in time.
- Aggregate bandwidth also requires more spectrum.



## Frequency Division Multiplexing: Multiple Channels

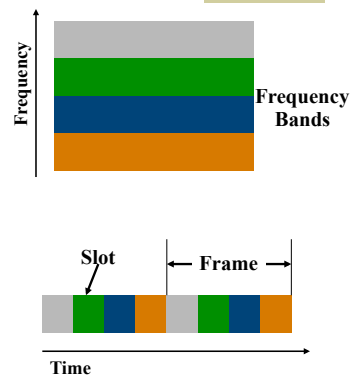


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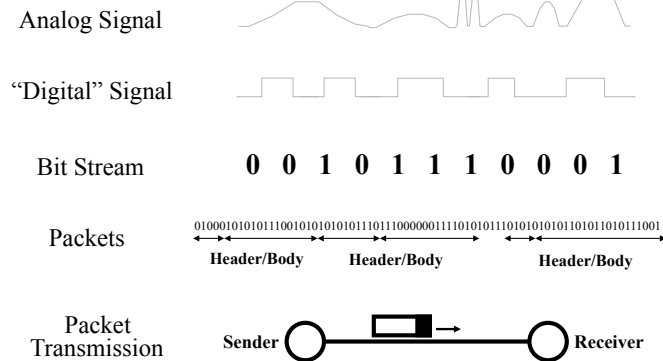
## Frequency versus Time-division Multiplexing



- With frequency-division multiplexing different users use different parts of the frequency spectrum.
  - I.e. each user can send all the time at reduced rate
  - Example: roommates
- With time-division multiplexing different users send at different times.
  - I.e. each user can send at full speed some of the time
  - Example: a time-share condo
- The two solutions can be combined.
  - Example: a time-share roommate
  - Example: GSM



## From Signals to Packets



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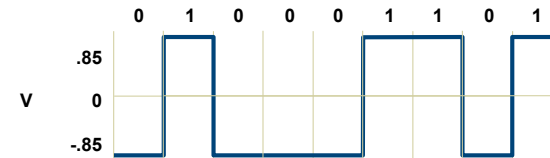
## Encoding



- We use two discrete signals, high and low, to encode 0 and 1
- The transmission is synchronous, i.e., there is a clock used to sample the signal
  - In general, the duration of one bit is equal to one or two clock ticks

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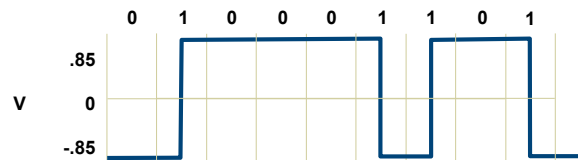
## Non-Return to Zero (NRZ)



- 1 → high signal; 0 → low signal
- Long sequences of 1's or 0's can cause problems:
  - Sensitive to clock skew, i.e. hard to recover clock
  - Difficult to interpret 0's and 1's

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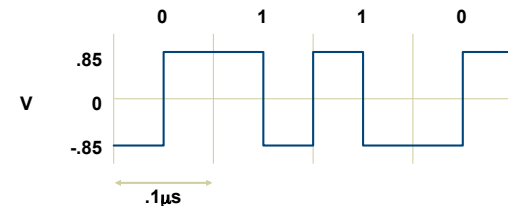
## Non-Return to Zero Inverted (NRZI)



- 1 → make transition; 0 → signal stays the same
- Solves the problem for long sequences of 1's, but not for 0's.

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## Ethernet Manchester Encoding



- Positive transition for 0, negative for 1
- Transition every cycle communicates clock (but need 2 transition times per bit)
- DC balance has good electrical properties

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