

Chapter 6 The Link Layer and LANs

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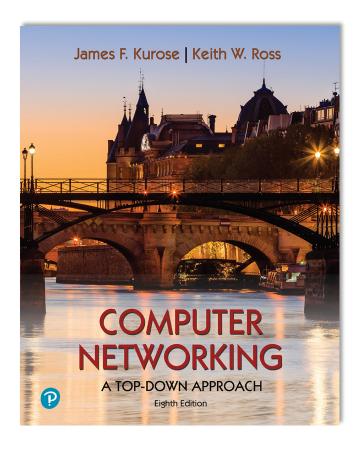
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Computer Networking: A Top-Down Approach

8th edition Jim Kurose, Keith Ross Pearson, 2020



- 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



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 instantiation, implementation of various link layer technologies





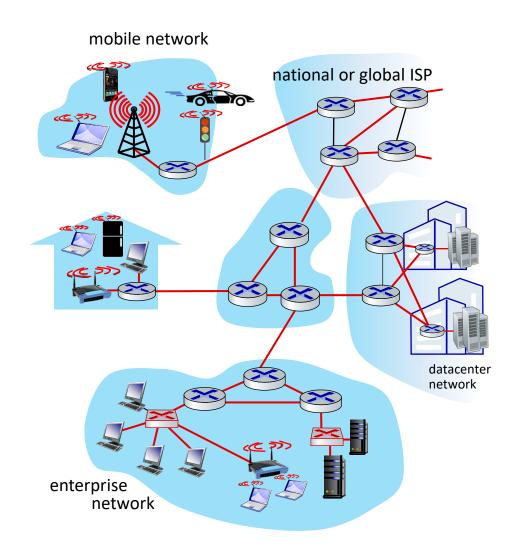
- introduction
- error detection, correction
- multiple access protocols
- LANs
 - addressing, ARP
 - Ethernet
 - switches
 - VLANs
- link virtualization: MPLS
- data center networking



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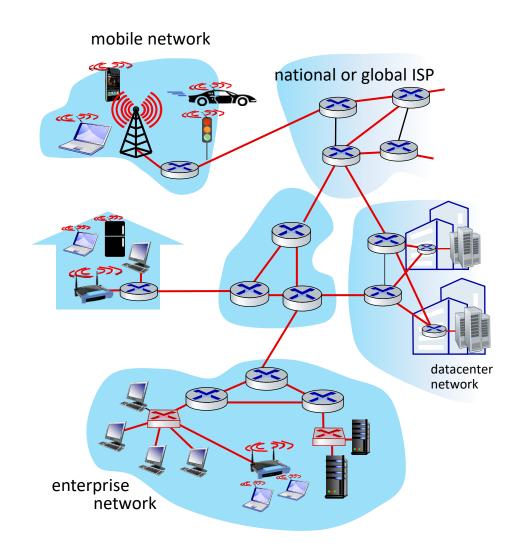


a day in the life of a web request



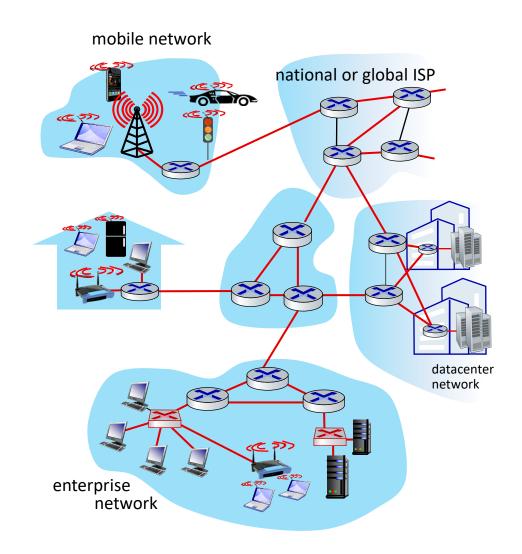
terminology:

- hosts, routers: nodes
- communication channels that connect adjacent nodes along communication path: links
 - wired, wireless
 - LANs
- layer-2 packet: frame, encapsulates datagram



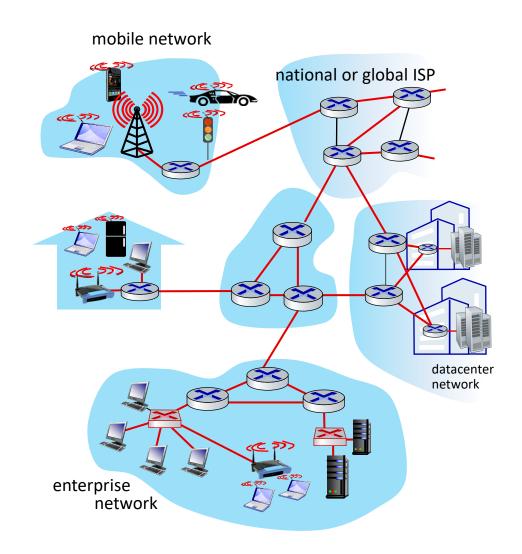
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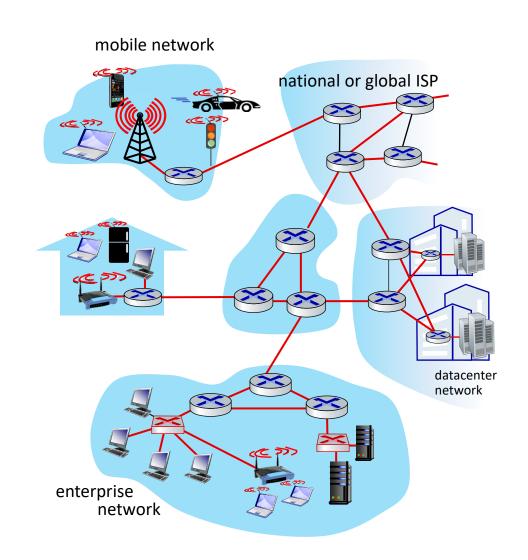
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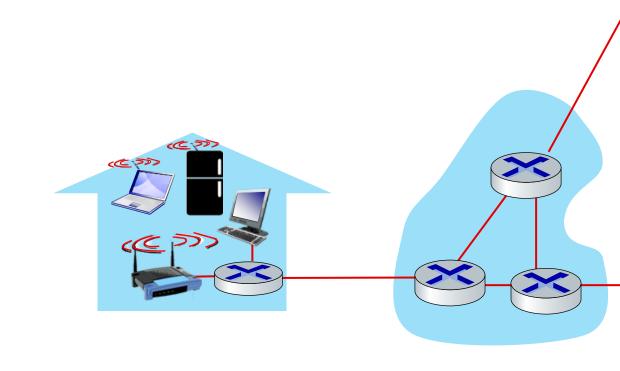
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link layer has responsibility of transferring datagram from one node to physically adjacent node over a link

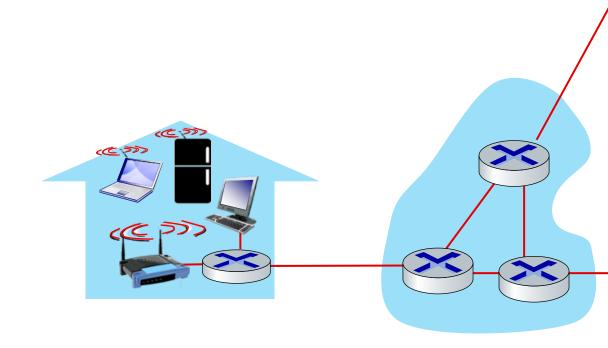


Link layer: context

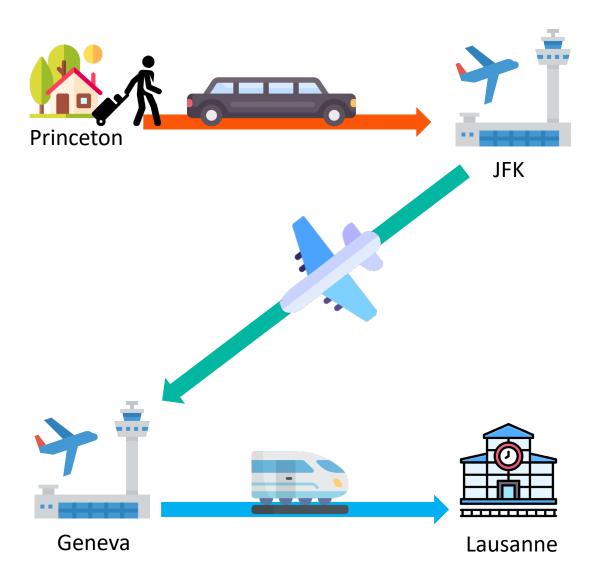


Link layer: context

- 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

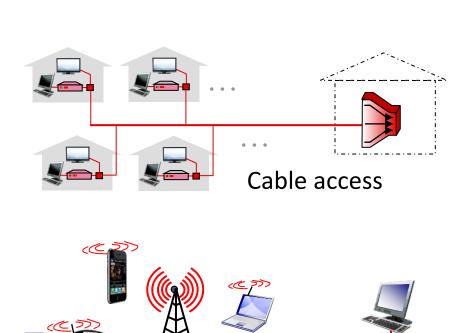


transportation analogy:

- 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 = linklayer protocol
- travel agent = routing algorithm



Link layer: services





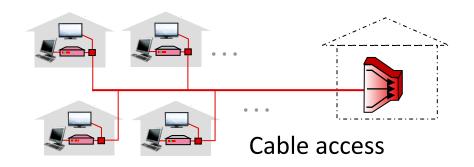
cellular

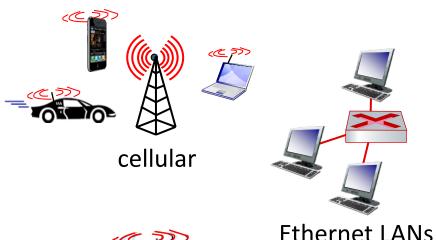
Ethernet LANs



Link layer: services

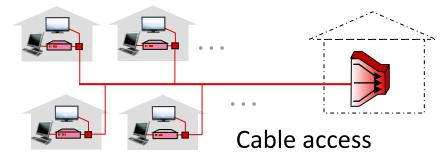
- framing, link access:
 - encapsulate datagram into frame, adding header, trailer
 - channel access if shared medium
 - "MAC" addresses in frame headers identify source, destination (different from IP address!)
- reliable delivery between adjacent nodes
 - we already know how to do this!
 - seldom used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

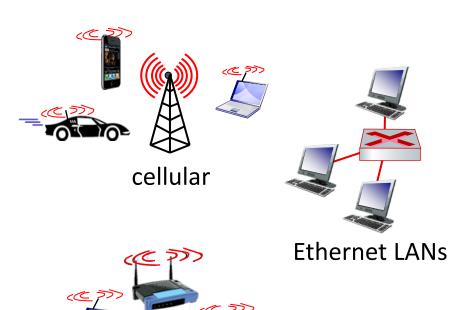














• flow control:

pacing between adjacent sending and receiving nodes

error detection:

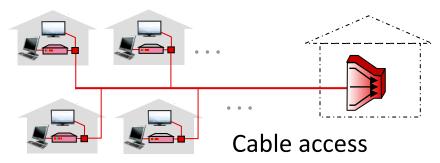
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- receiver detects errors, signals retransmission, or drops frame

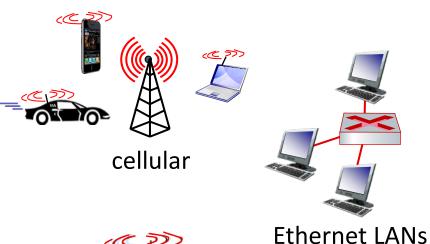
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receiver identifies and corrects bit error(s) without retransmission

half-duplex and full-duplex:

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









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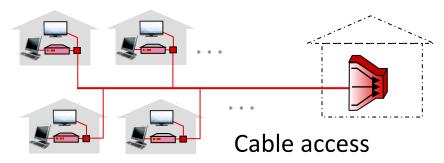
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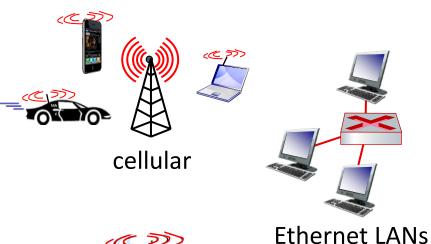
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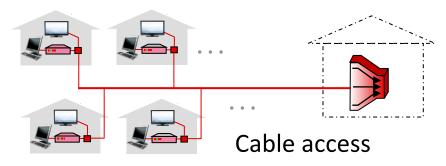
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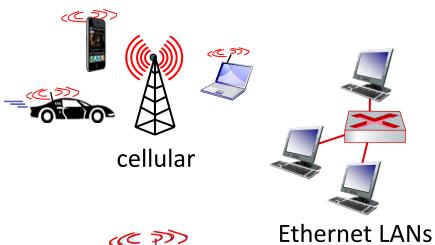
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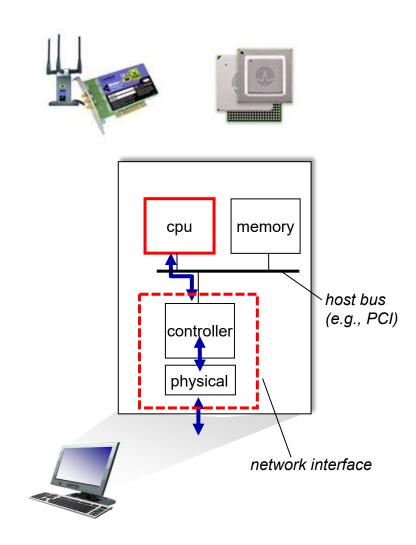
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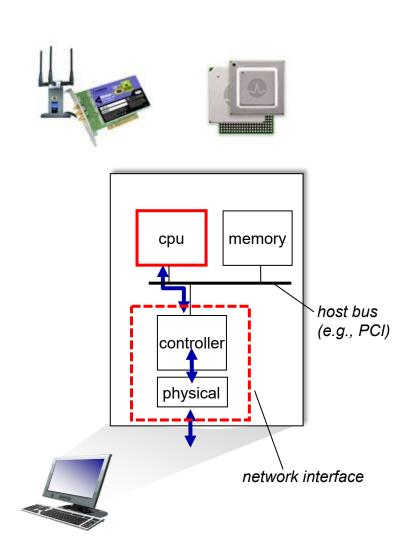






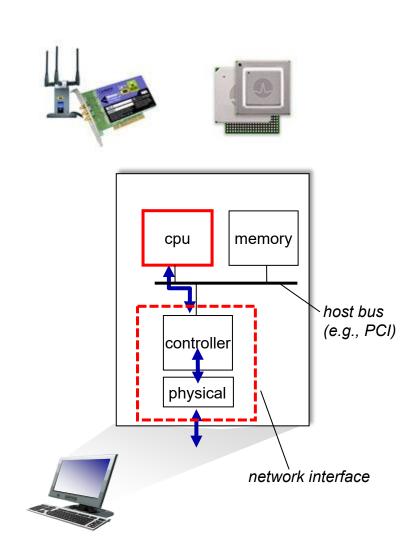


- in each-and-every host
- link layer implemented on-chip or in network interface card (NIC)
 - implements link, physical layer
- attaches into host's system buses
- combination of hardware, software, firmware



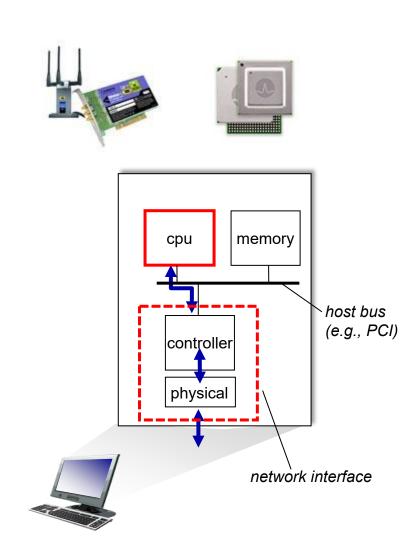


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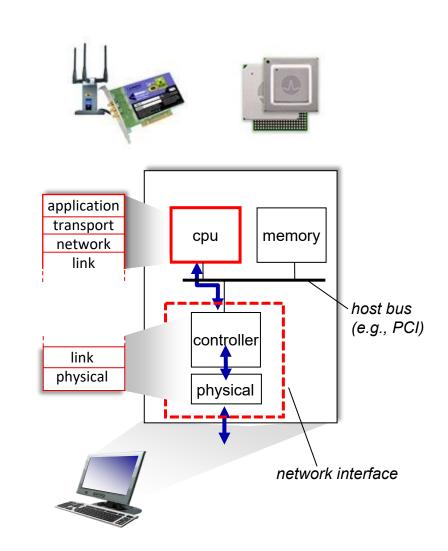


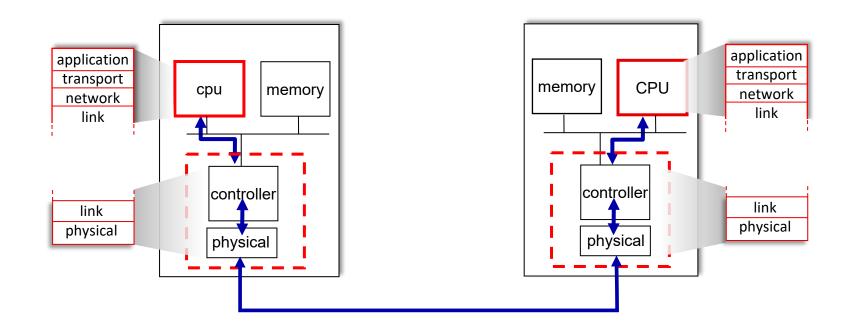
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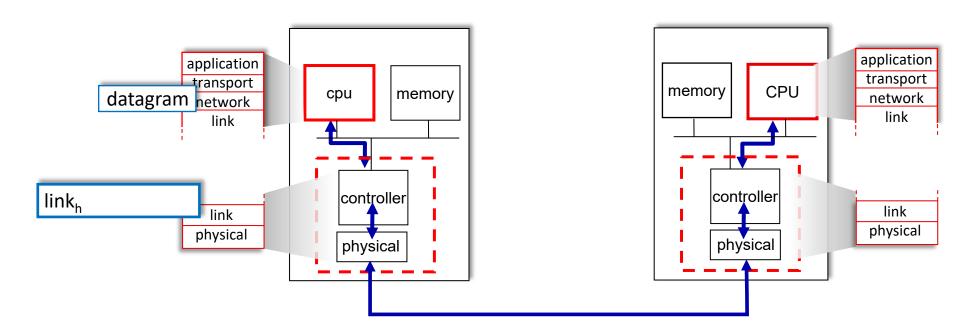




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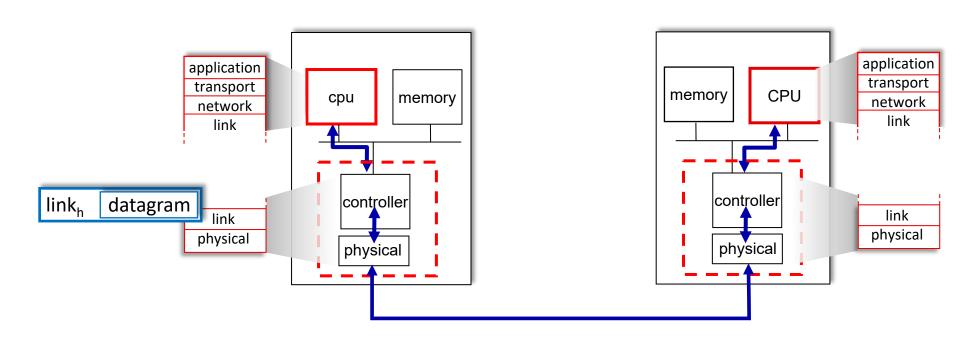






sending side:

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

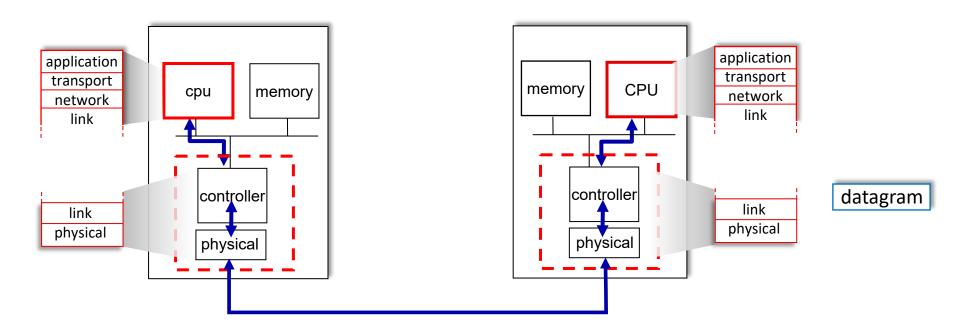


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- encapsulates datagram in frame
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receiving side:

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



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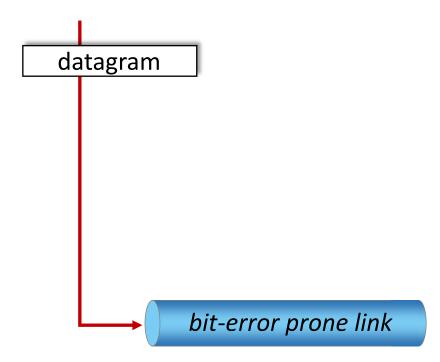
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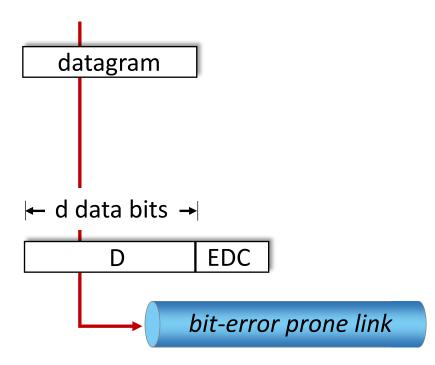


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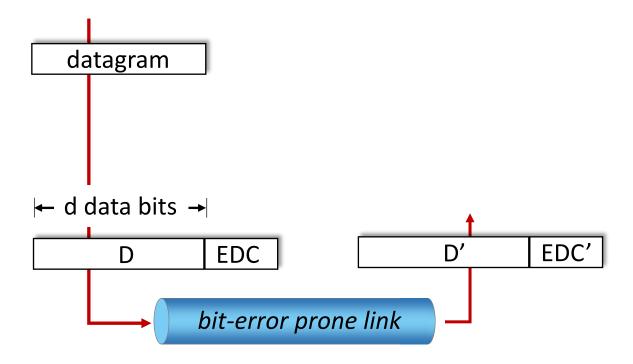
EDC: error detection and correction bits (e.g., redundancy)



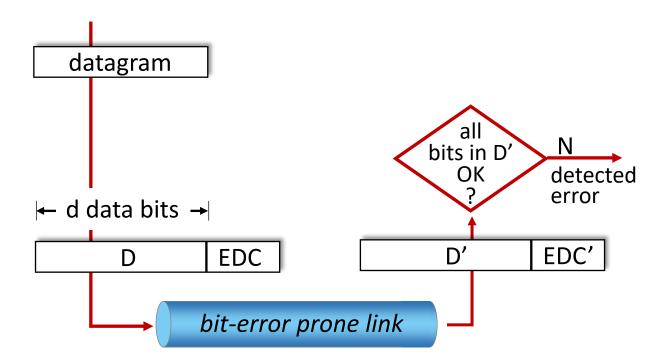
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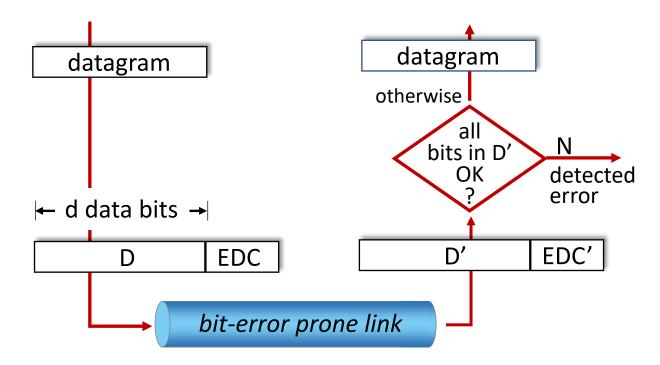
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Error detection

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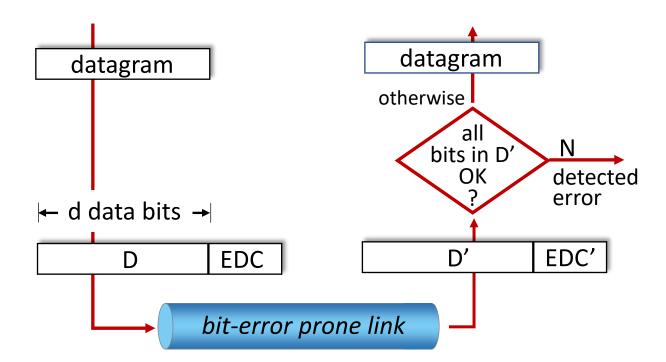
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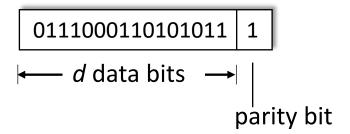


Error detection not 100% reliable!

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

single bit parity:

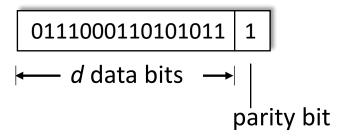
detect single bit errors



Even/odd parity: set parity bit so there is an even/odd number of 1's

single bit parity:

detect single bit errors



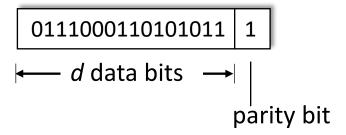
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At receiver:

- compute parity of d received bits
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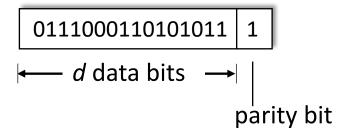
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Can detect *and* correct errors (without retransmission!)

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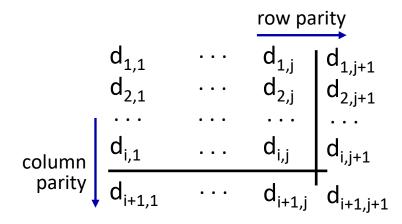
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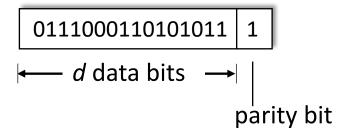


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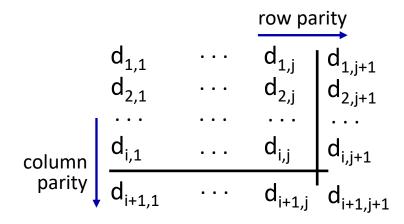
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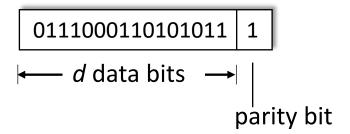


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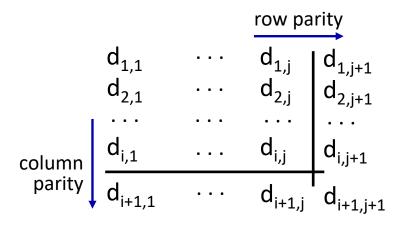
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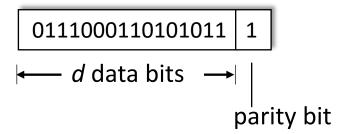


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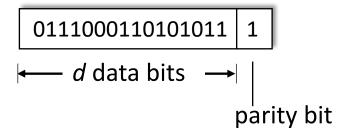
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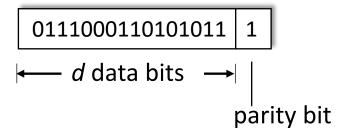
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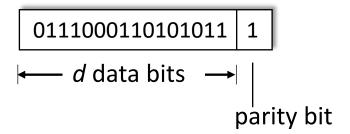
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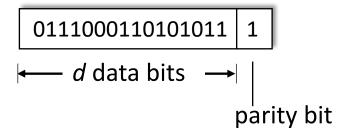
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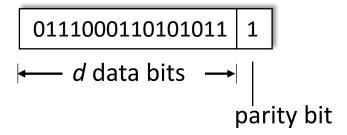
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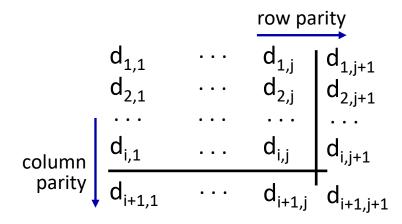
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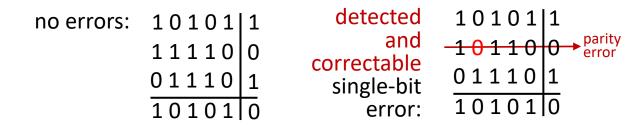
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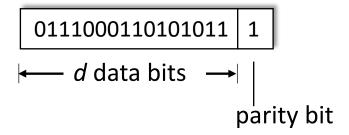
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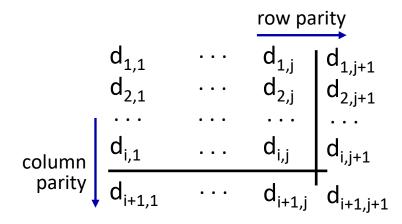
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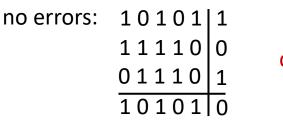
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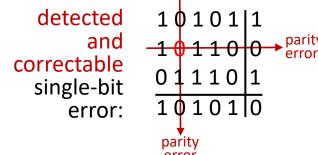
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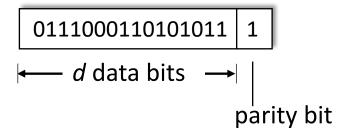






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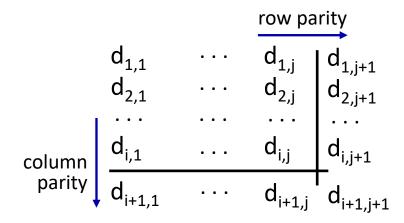
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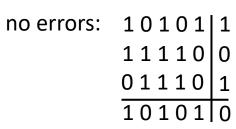
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Can detect *and* correct errors (without retransmission!)

two-dimensional parity: detect and correct single bit errors





^{*} Check out the online interactive exercises for more examples: http://gaia.cs.umass.edu/kurose_ross/interactive/

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

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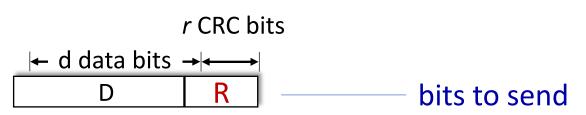
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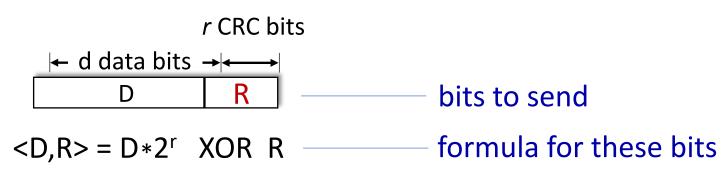
- compute checksum of received segment
- check if computed checksum equals checksum field value:
 - not equal error detected
 - equal no error detected. But maybe errors nonetheless? More later

- 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, specified in CRC standard)

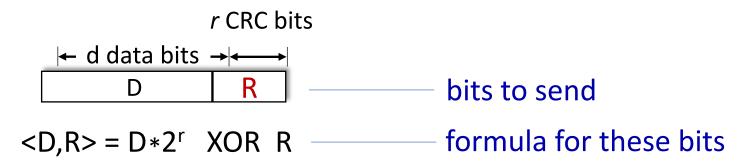
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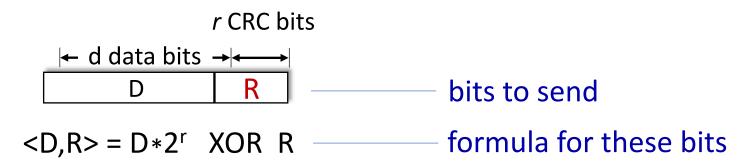
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sender: compute *r* CRC bits, R, such that <D,R> *exactly* divisible by G (mod 2)

- 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)

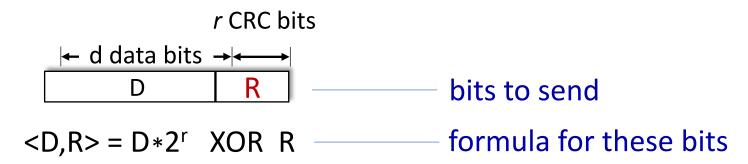
- more powerful error-detection coding
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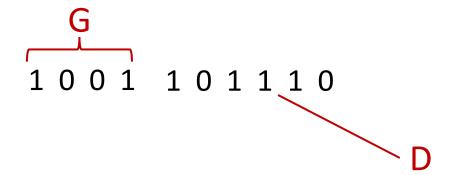
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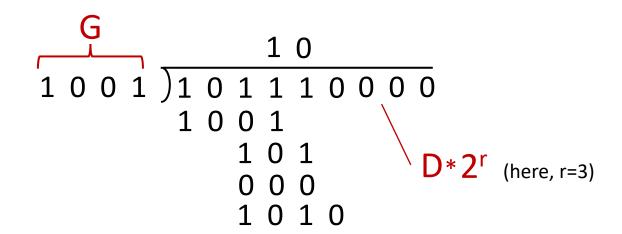
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^{*} Check out the online interactive exercises for more examples: http://gaia.cs.umass.edu/kurose_ross/interactive/

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

- point-to-point
 - point-to-point link between Ethernet switch, host
 - PPP for dial-up access
- broadcast (shared wire or medium)
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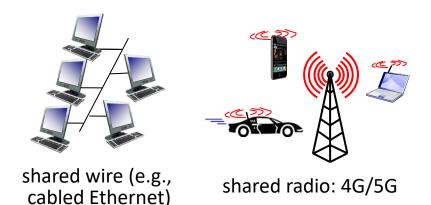
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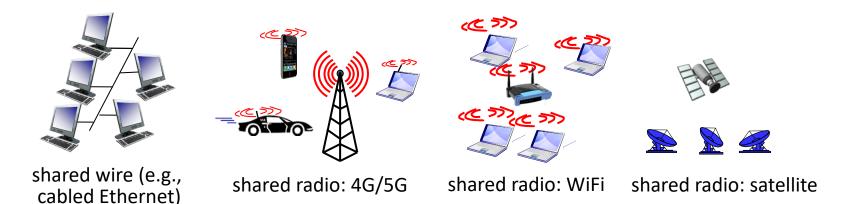
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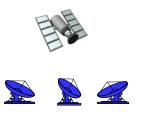
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shared radio: 4G/5G



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

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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

- 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
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- 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

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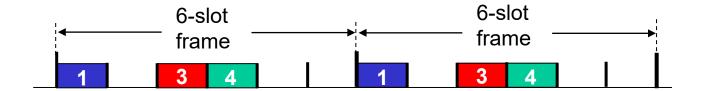
TDMA: time division multiple access

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

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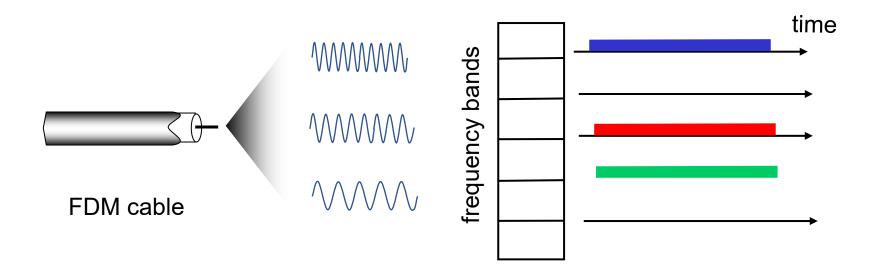
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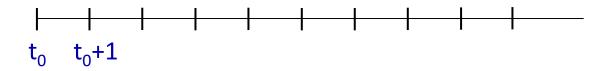
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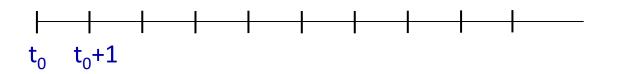
Slotted ALOHA



assumptions:

- all frames same size
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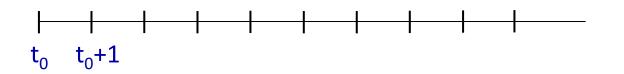
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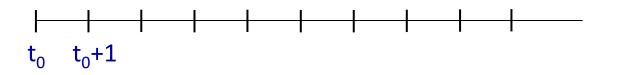


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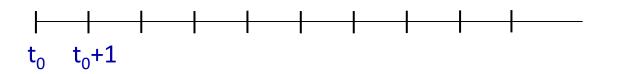


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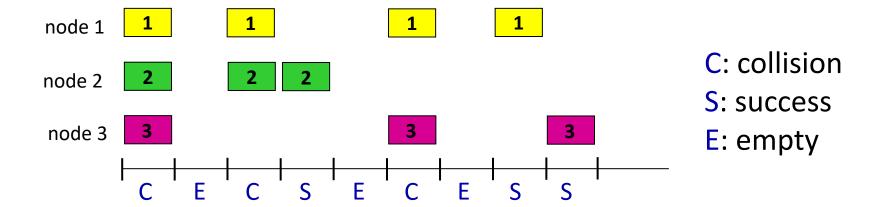
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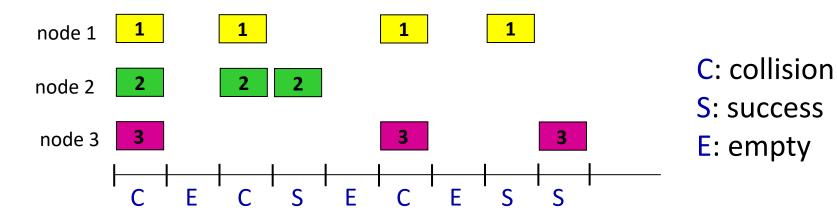
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randomization – why?





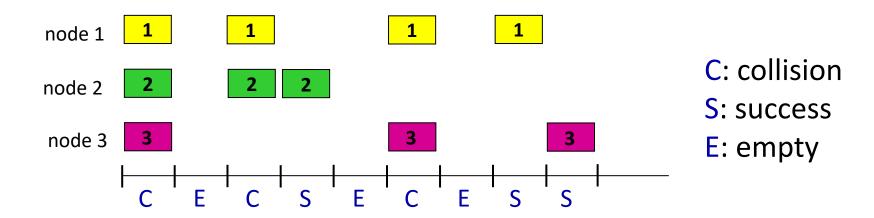




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Cons:

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





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 = $p(1-p)^{N-1}$
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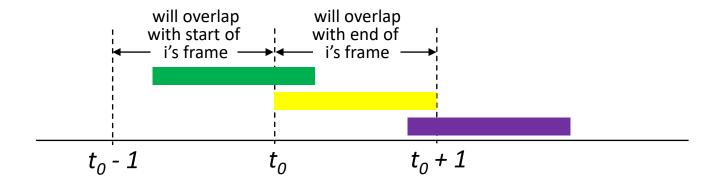
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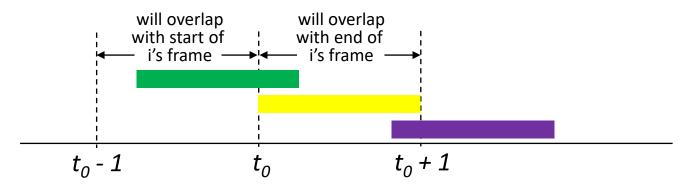
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- unslotted Aloha: simpler, no synchronization
 - when frame first arrives: transmit immediately
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pure Aloha efficiency: 18%!

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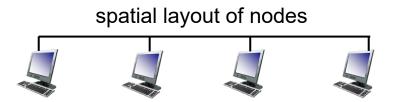
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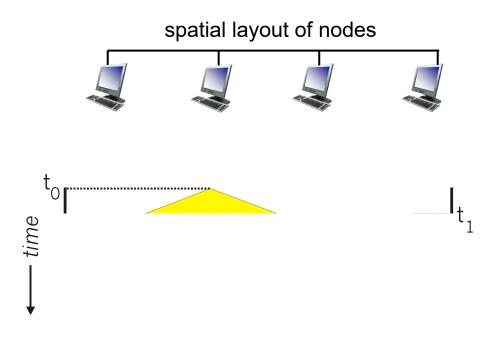
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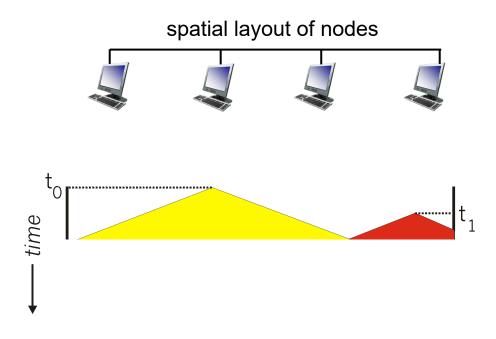
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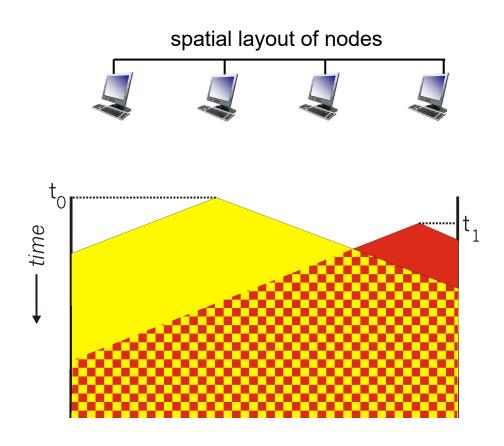
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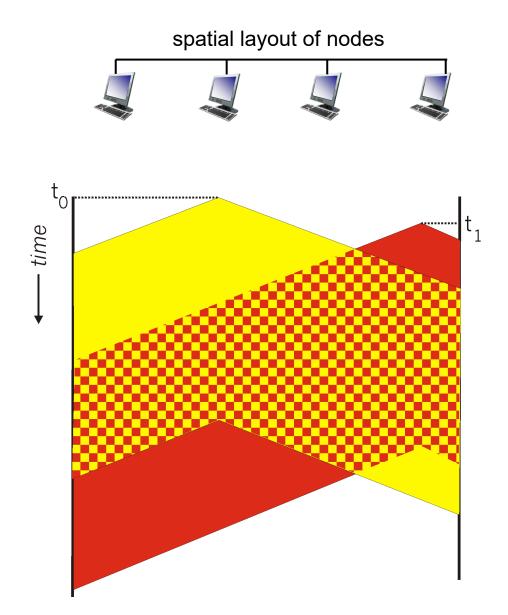




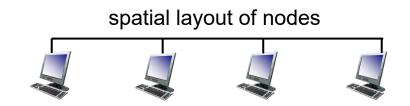


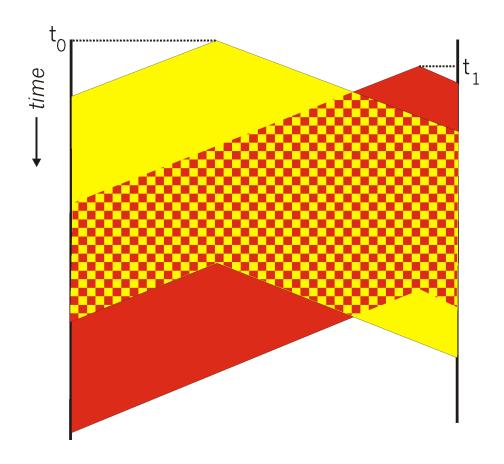






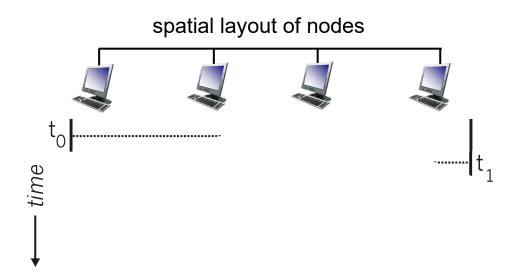
- collisions can still occur with carrier sensing:
 - propagation delay means two nodes may not hear each other's juststarted transmission
- collision: entire packet transmission time wasted
 - distance & propagation delay play role in in determining collision probability





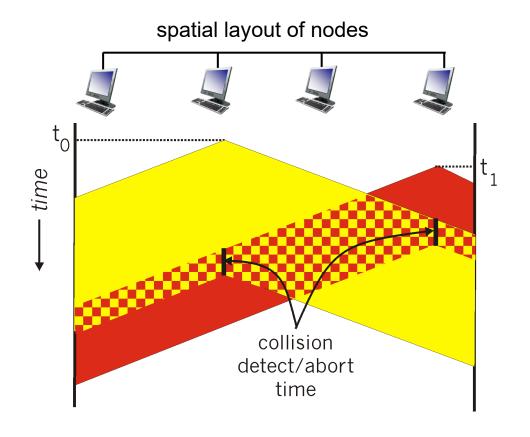
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CSMA/CD efficiency

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



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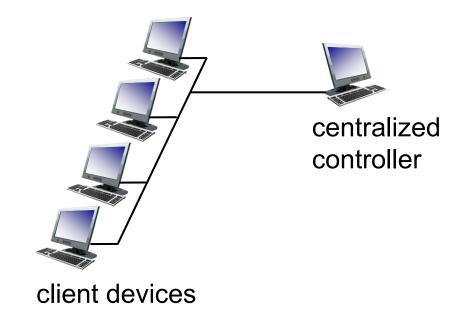
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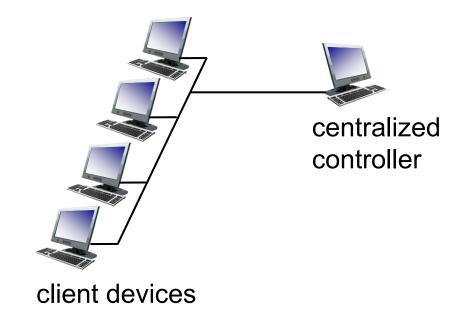
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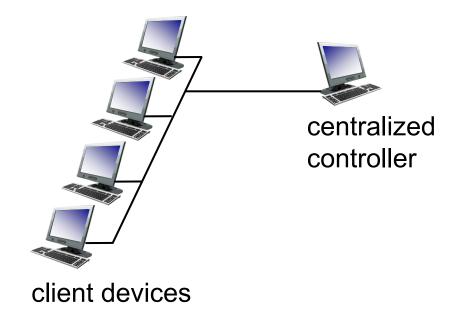








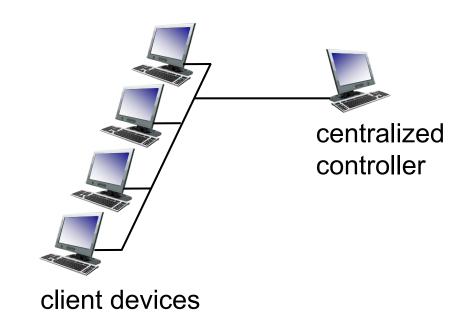






polling:

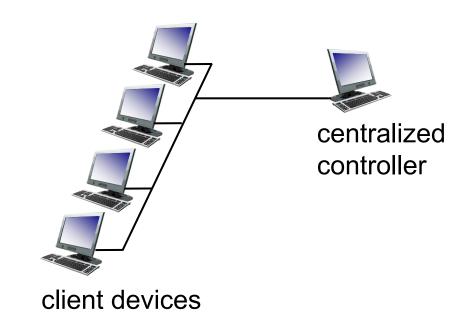
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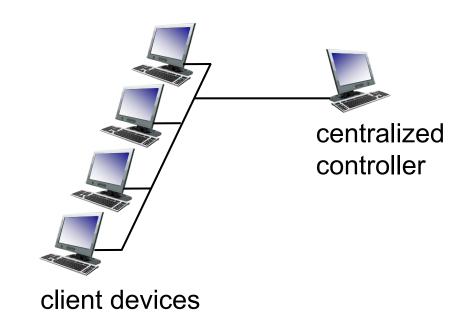
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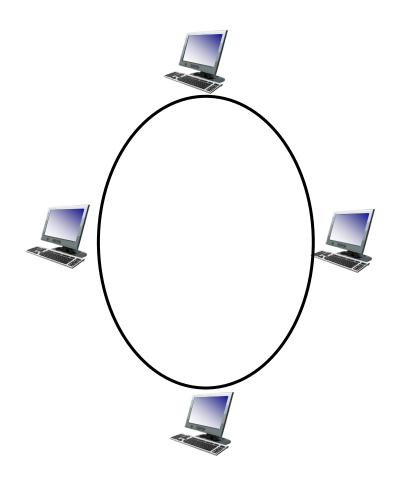


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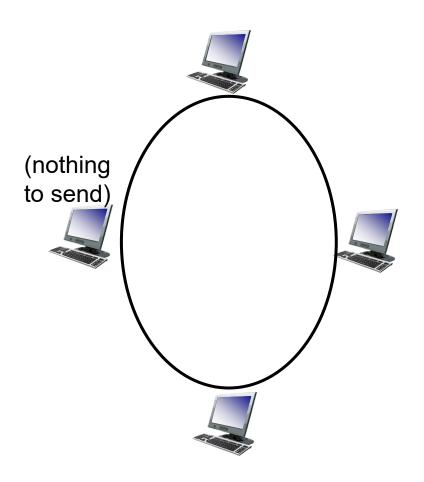
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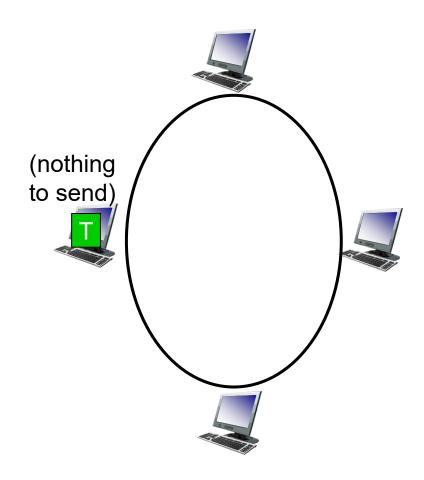




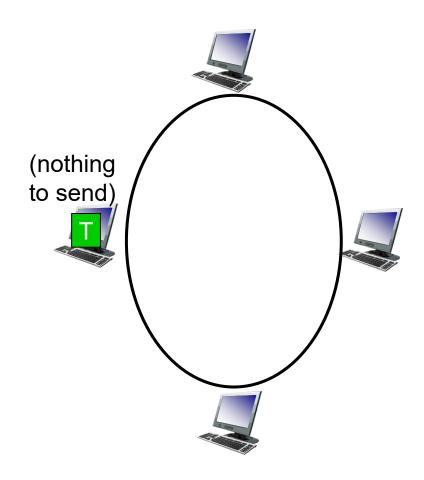








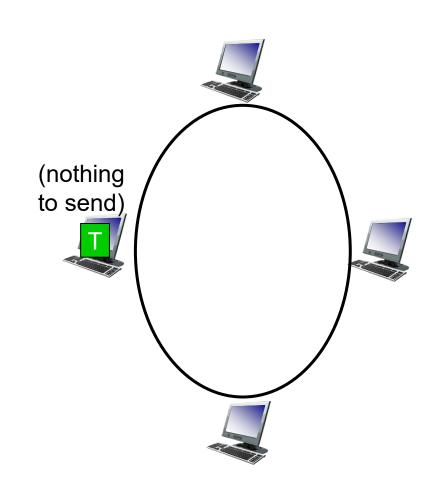




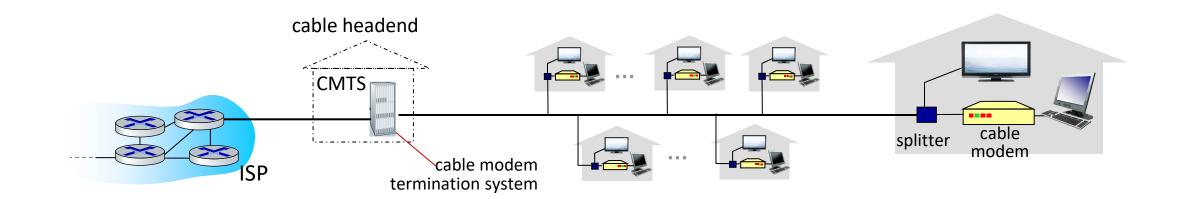


token passing:

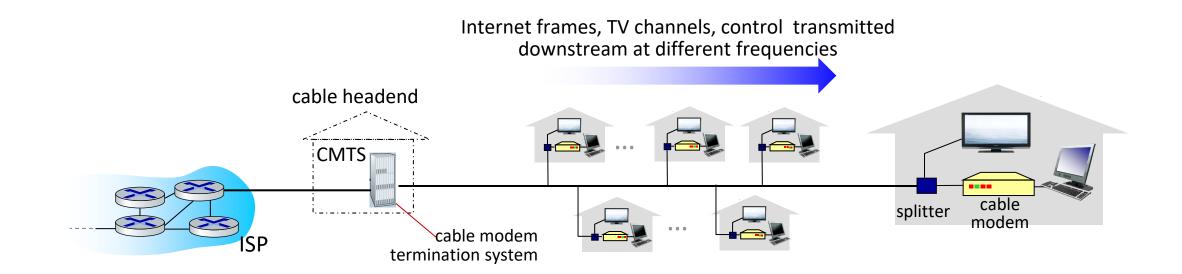
- control token message explicitly passed from one node to next, sequentially
 - transmit while holding token
- concerns:
 - token overhead
 - latency
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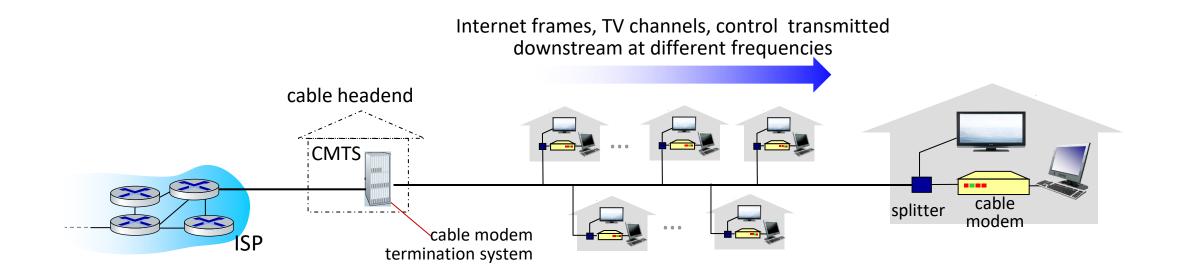
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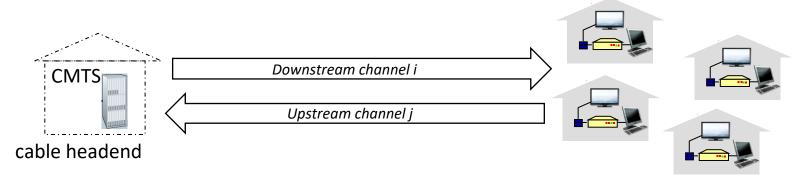


Cable access network: FDM, TDM and random access!



- 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:

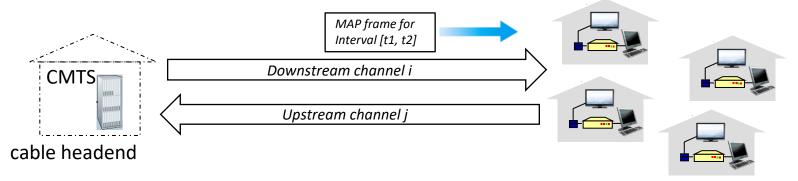


Residences with cable modems

DOCSIS: data over cable service interface specification

- FDM over upstream, downstream frequency channels
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 - downstream MAP frame: assigns upstream slots
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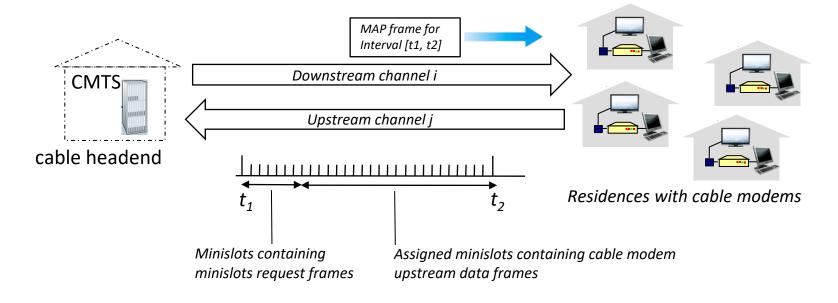


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Summary of MAC protocols

- channel partitioning, by time, frequency or code
 - Time Division, Frequency Division
- random access (dynamic),
 - ALOHA, S-ALOHA, CSMA, CSMA/CD
 - carrier sensing: easy in some technologies (wire), hard in others (wireless)
 - CSMA/CD used in Ethernet
 - CSMA/CA used in 802.11
- taking turns
 - polling from central site, token passing
 - Bluetooth, FDDI, token ring

Link layer, LANs: roadmap

- introduction
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- multiple access protocols
- LANs
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 - Ethernet
 - switches
 - VLANs
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a day in the life of a web request

- 32-bit IP address:
 - network-layer address for interface
 - used for layer 3 (network layer) forwarding
 - e.g.: 128.119.40.136

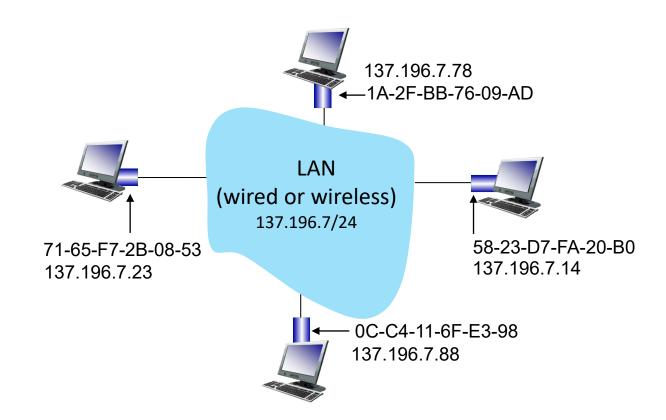
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 - e.g.: 1A-2F-BB-76-09-AD

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

each interface on LAN

- has unique 48-bit MAC address
- has a locally unique 32-bit IP address (as we've seen)



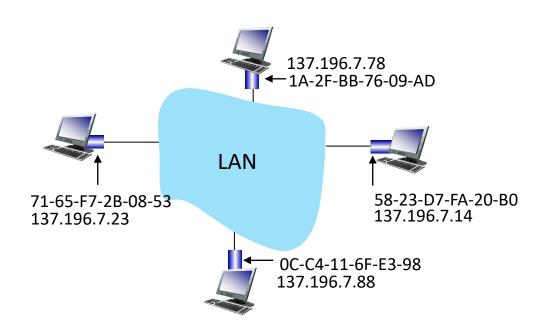
- MAC address allocation administered by IEEE
- manufacturer buys portion of MAC address space (to assure uniqueness)
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 - MAC address: like Social Security Number
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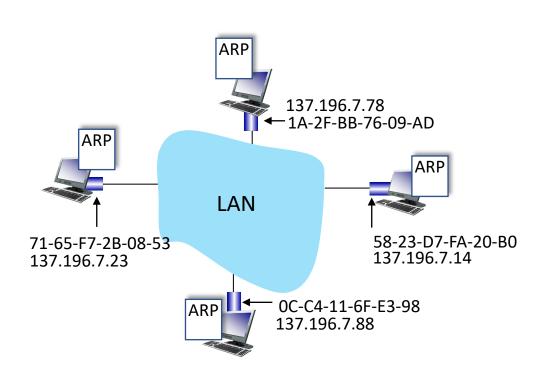
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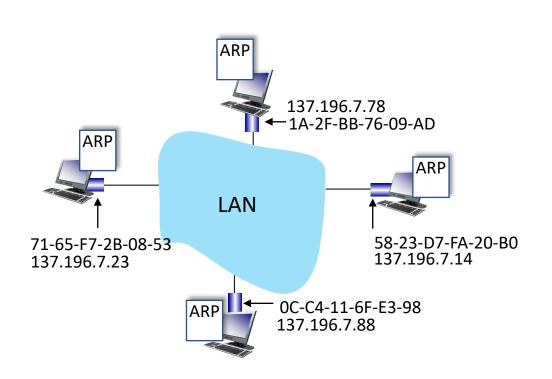
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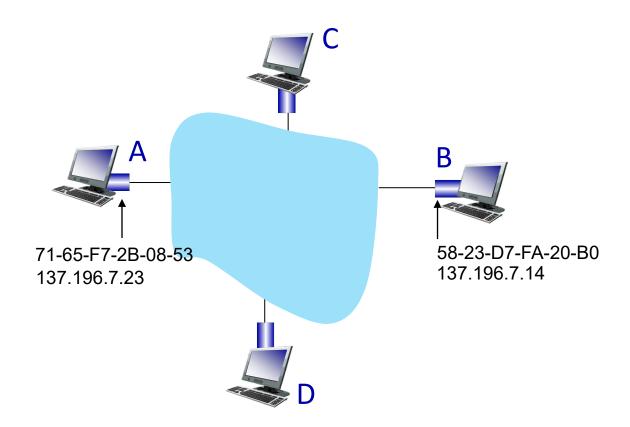
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 IP/MAC address mappings for some LAN nodes:

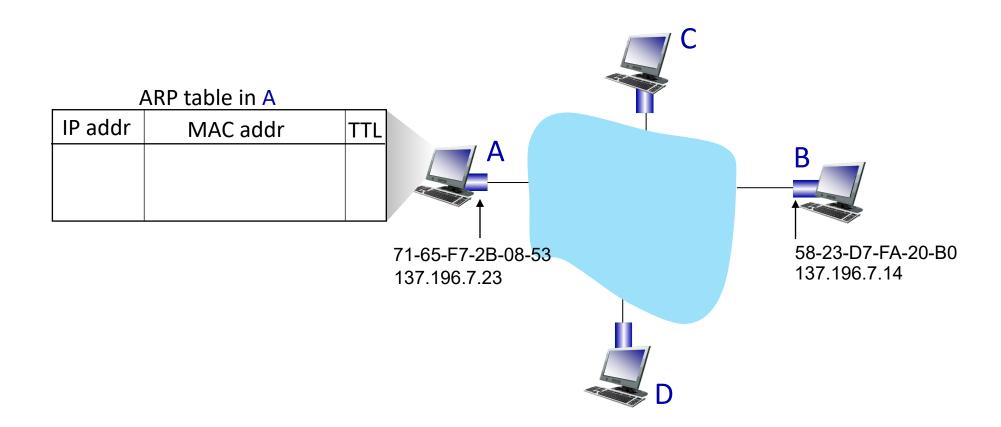
< IP address; MAC address; TTL>

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

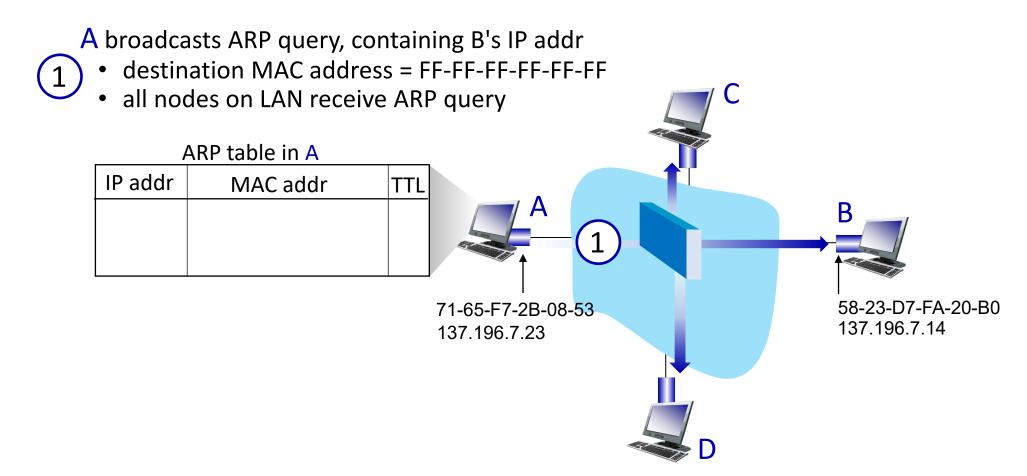
example: A wants to send datagram to B



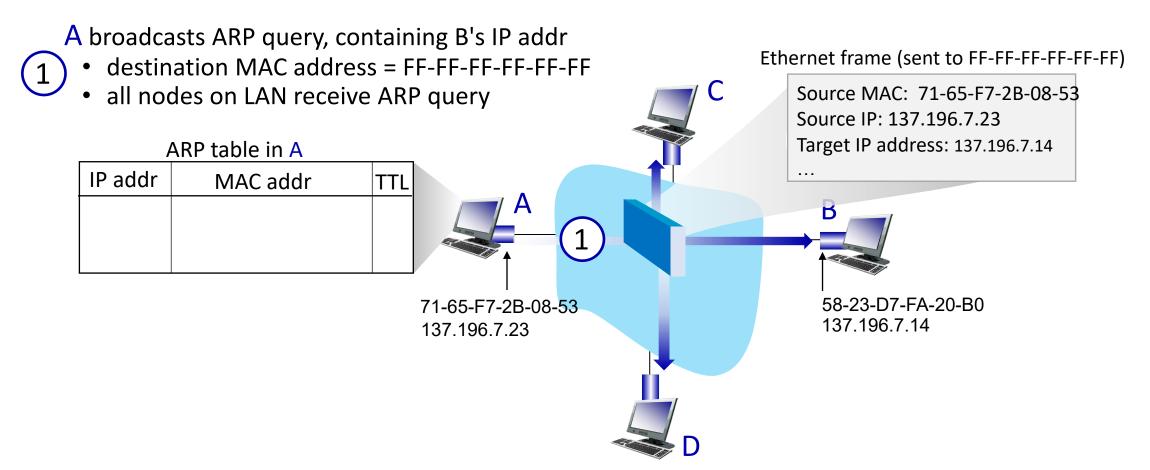
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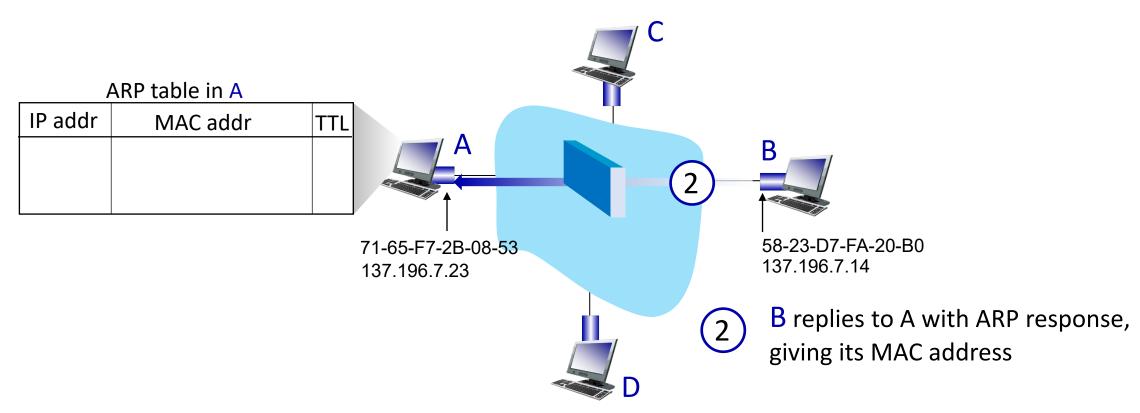
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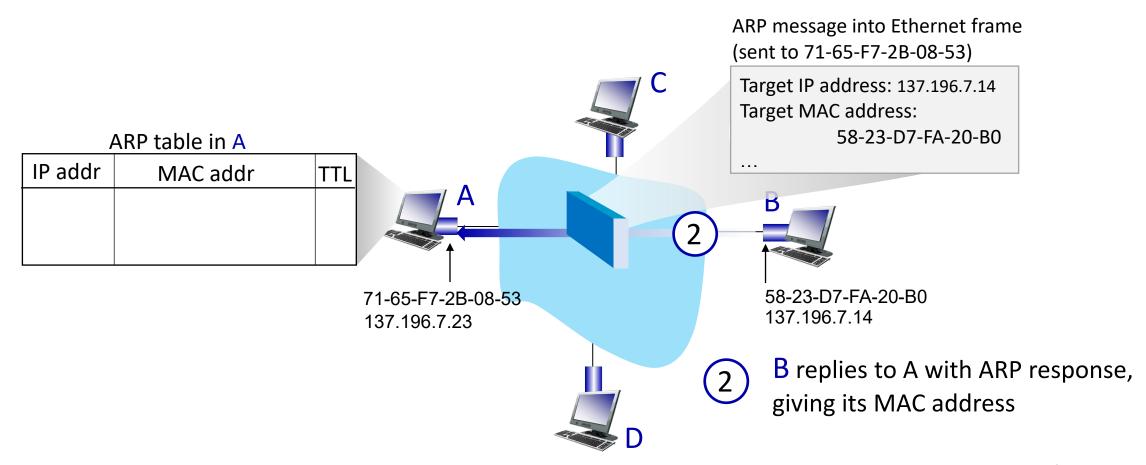
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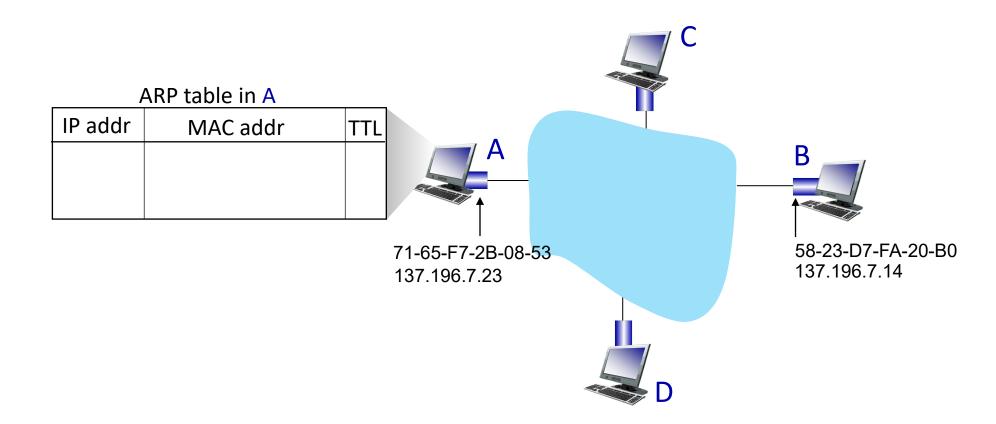
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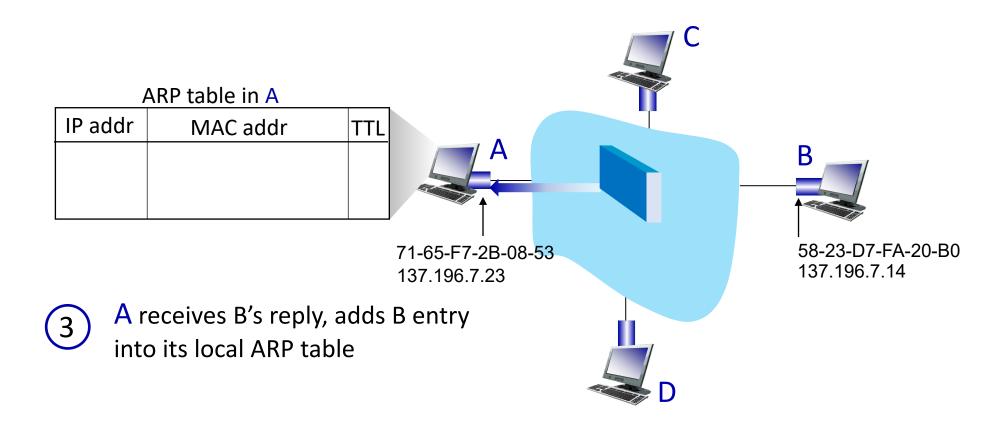
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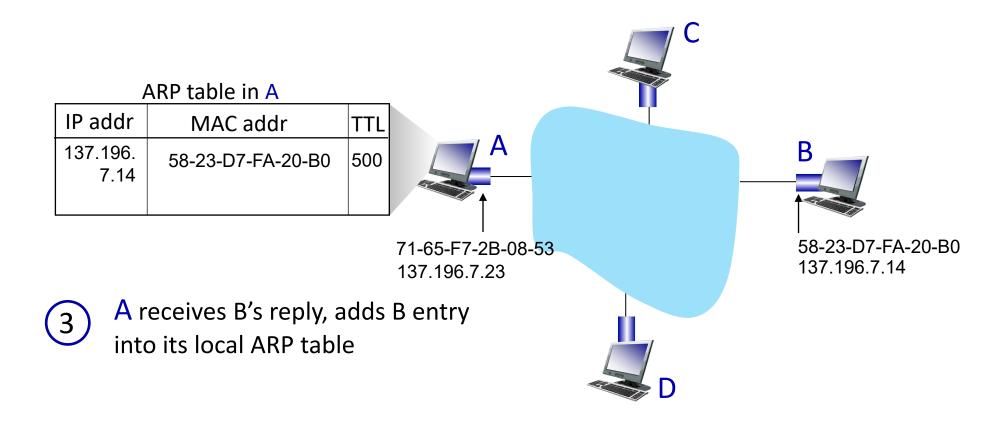
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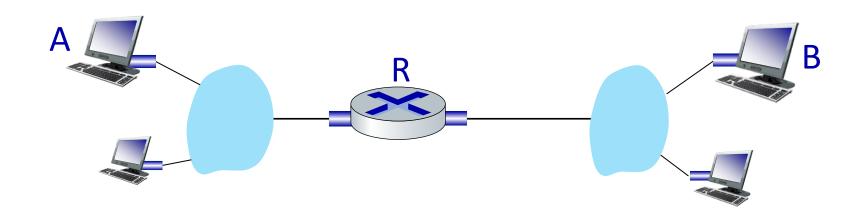


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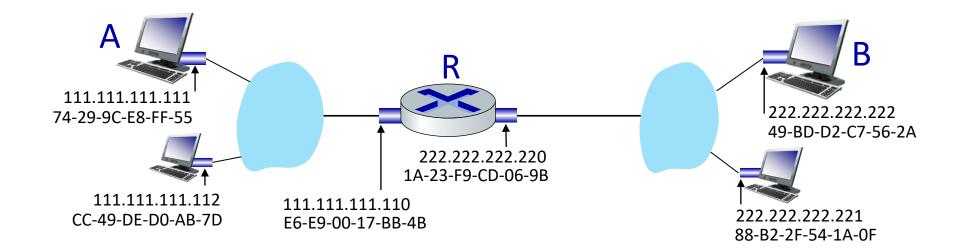
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focus on addressing – at IP (datagram) and MAC layer (frame) levels



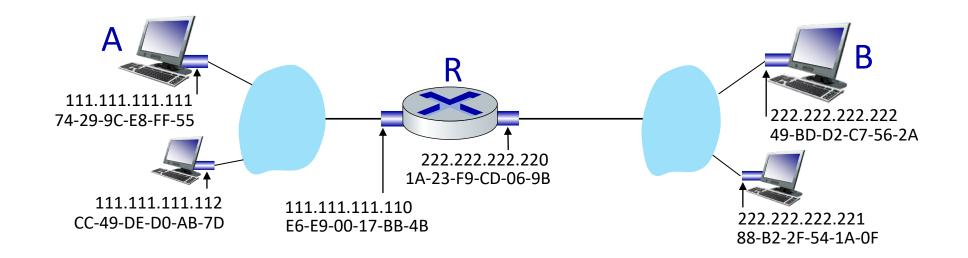
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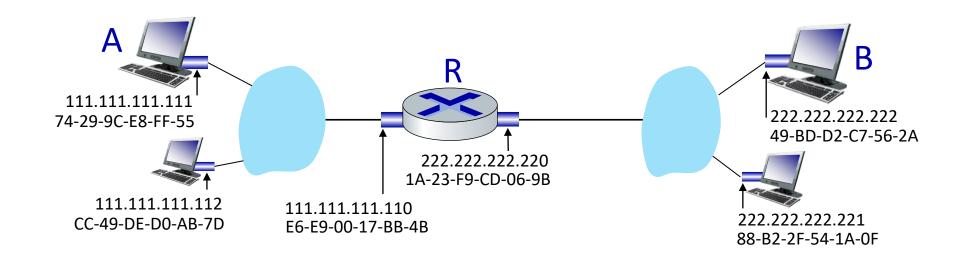
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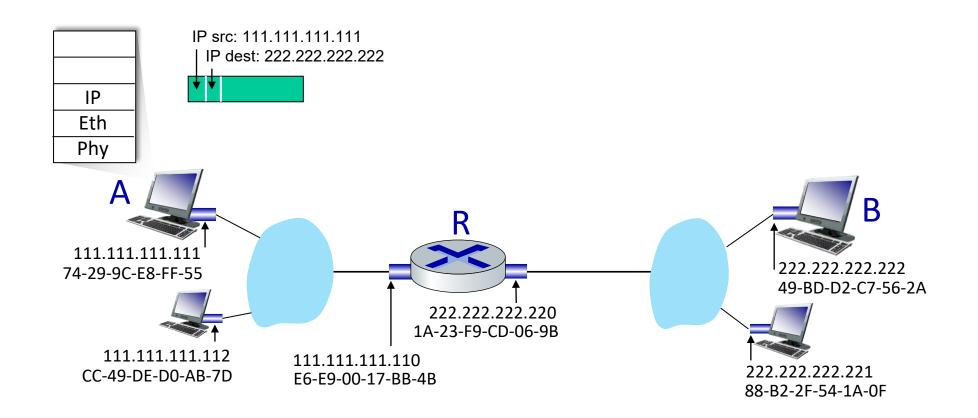
walkthrough: sending a datagram from A to B via R

- 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?)

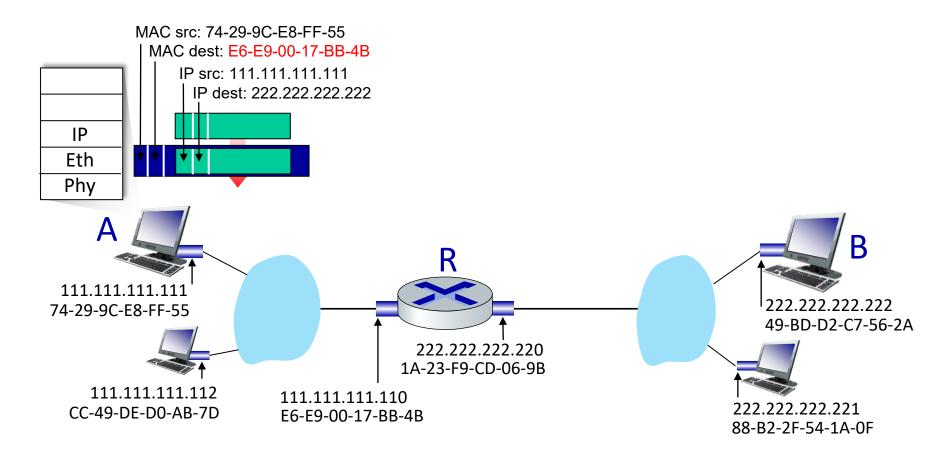




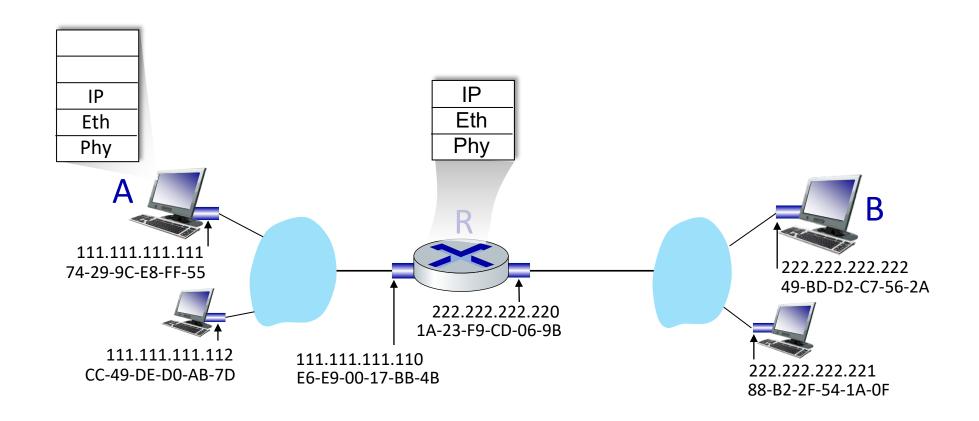
A creates IP datagram with IP source A, destination B



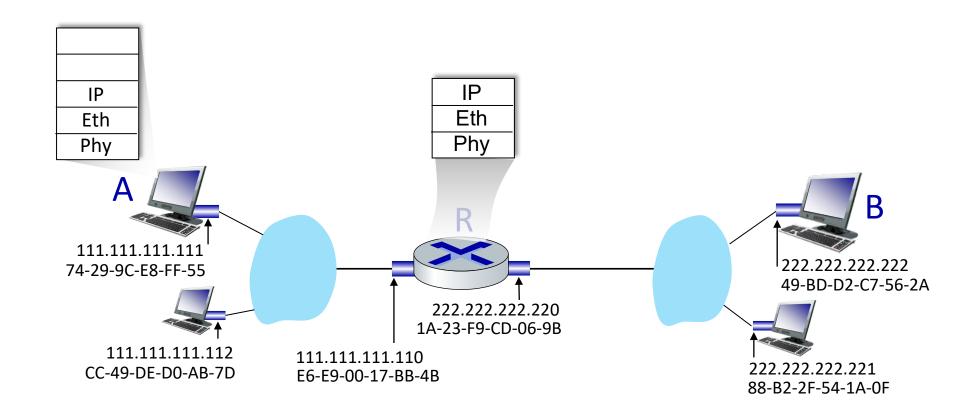
- A creates IP datagram with IP source A, destination B
- A creates link-layer frame containing A-to-B IP datagram
 - R's MAC address is frame's destination



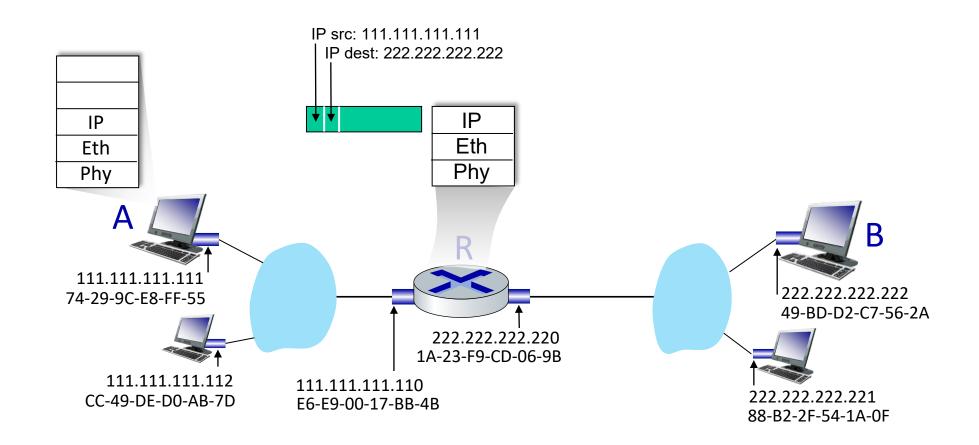
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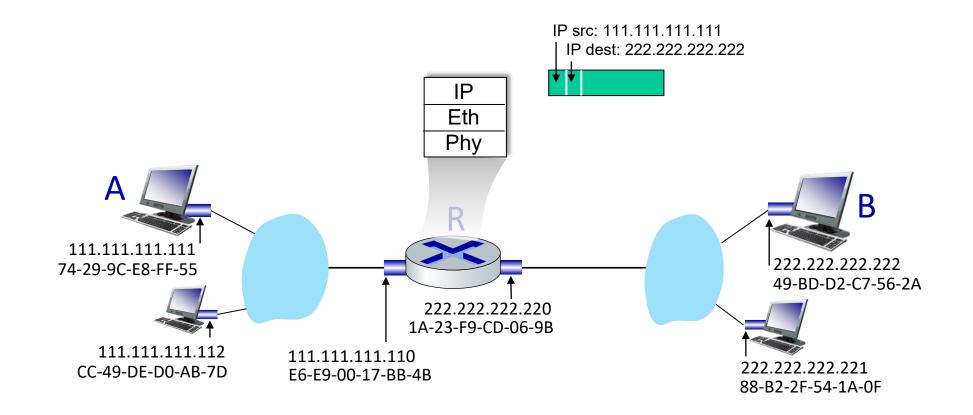


- frame sent from A to R
- frame received at R, datagram removed, passed up to IP

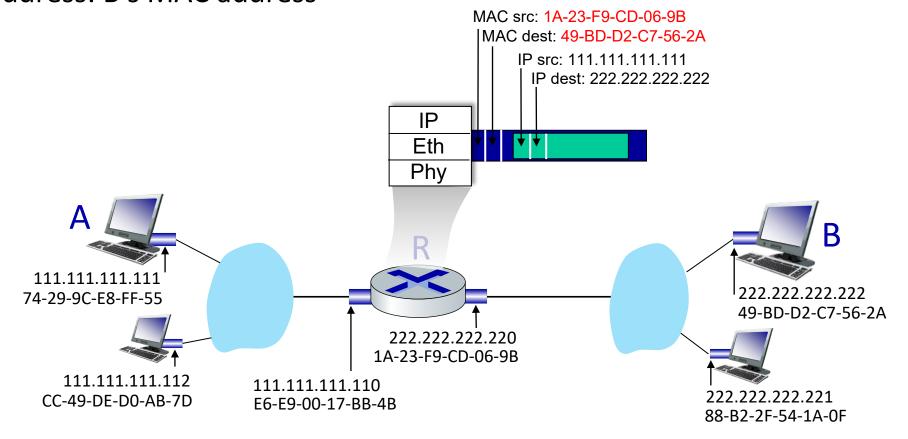


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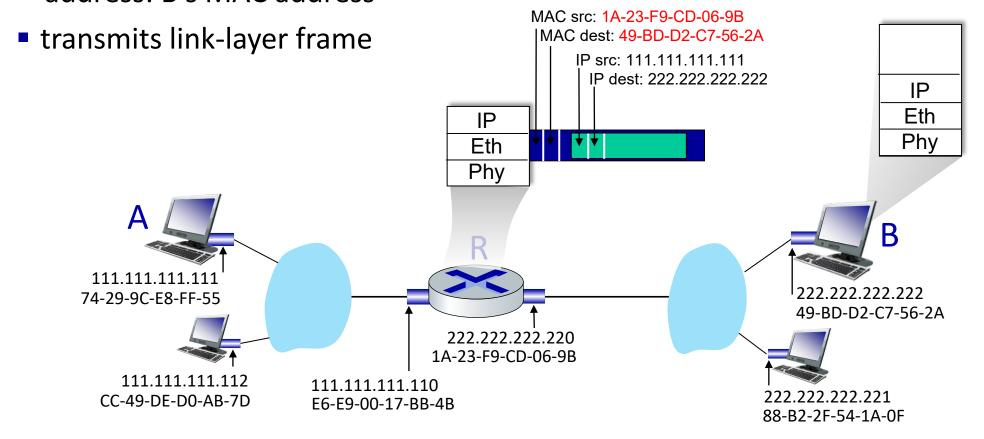




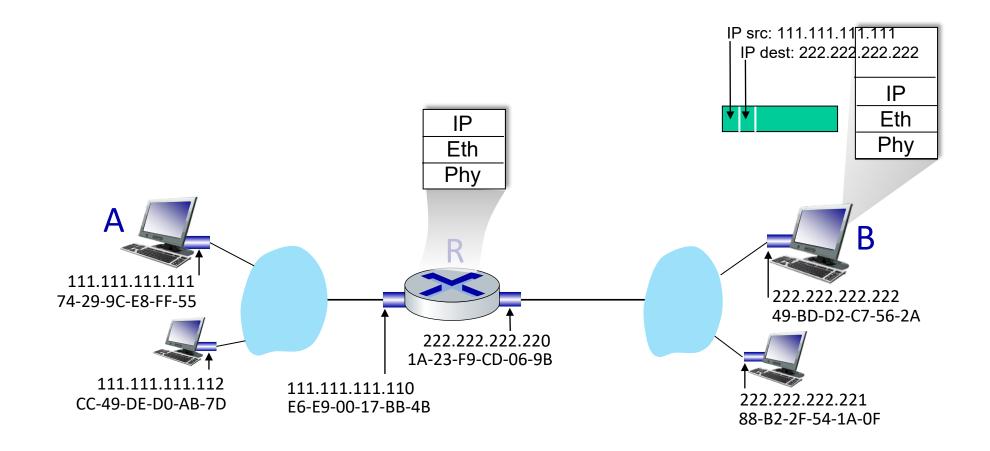
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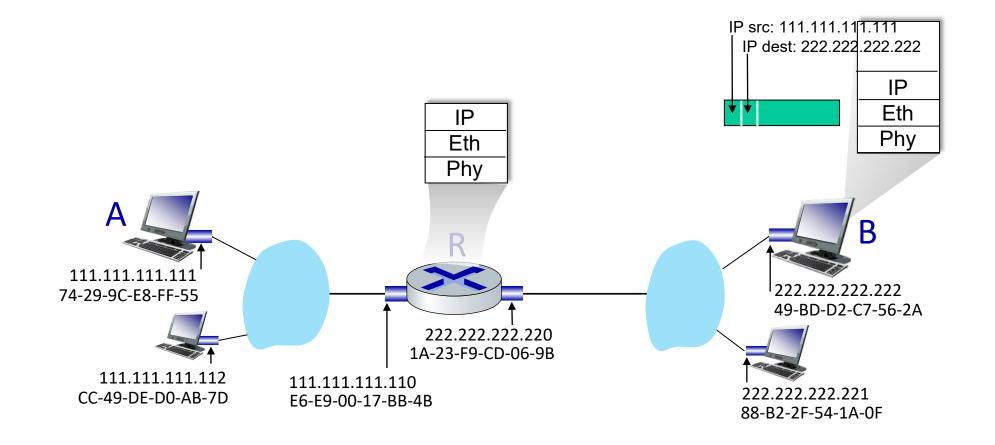
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- B passes datagram up protocol stack to IP



Link layer, LANs: roadmap

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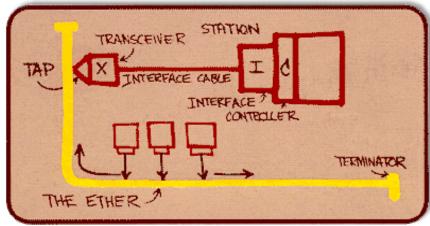
Ethernet

"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)

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

Metcalfe's Ethernet sketch

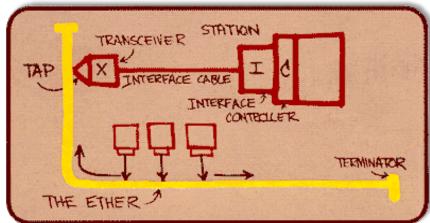


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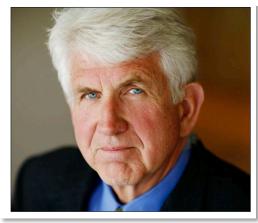
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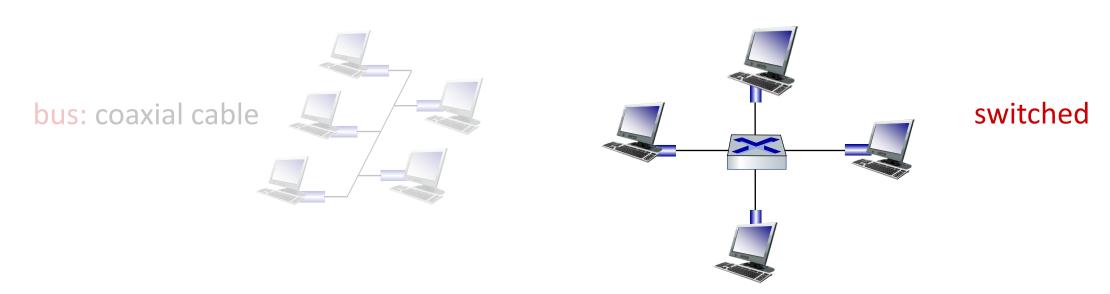
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Ethernet: physical topology

- 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

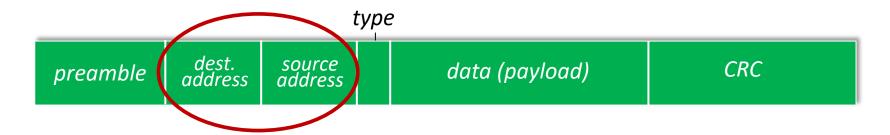
sending interface encapsulates IP datagram (or other network layer protocol packet) in Ethernet frame



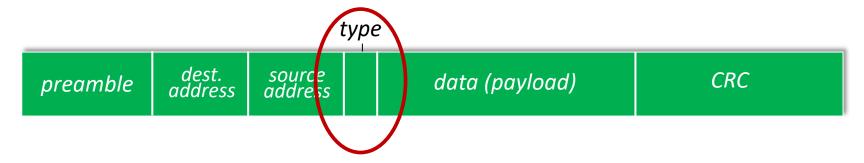
preamble:

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

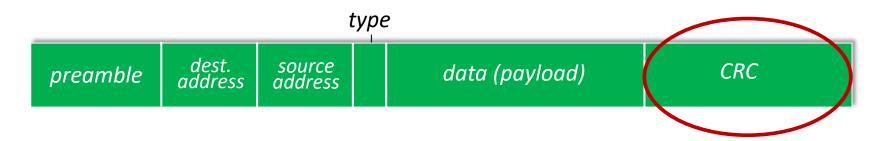




- addresses: 6 byte source, destination MAC addresses
 - if adapter receives frame with matching destination address, or with broadcast address (e.g., ARP packet), it passes data in frame to network layer protocol
 - otherwise, adapter discards frame
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 - mostly IP but others possible, e.g., Novell IPX, AppleTalk
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Ethernet switch

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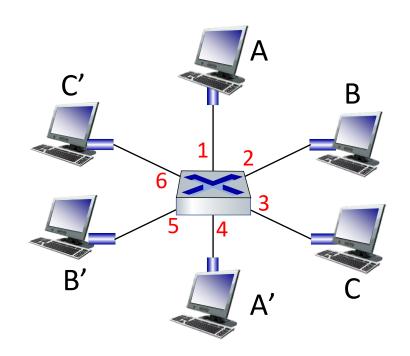
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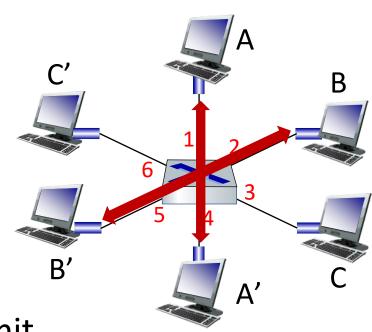
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switch with six interfaces (1,2,3,4,5,6)

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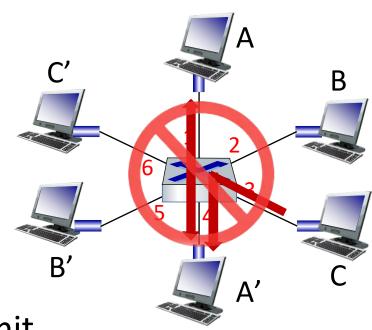
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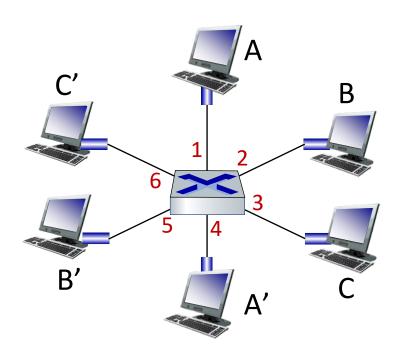
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 - but A-to-A' and C to A' can not happen simultaneously



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

Switch forwarding table

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

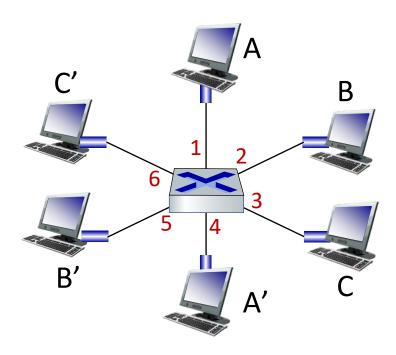


Switch forwarding table

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

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



Switch forwarding table

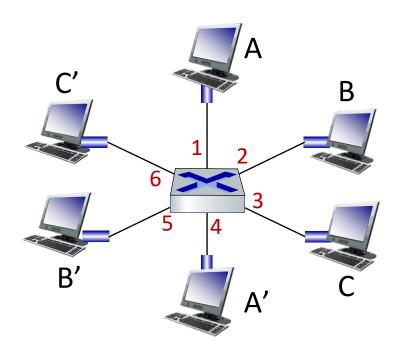
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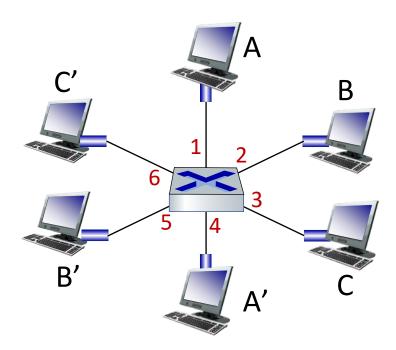
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- looks like a routing table!

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

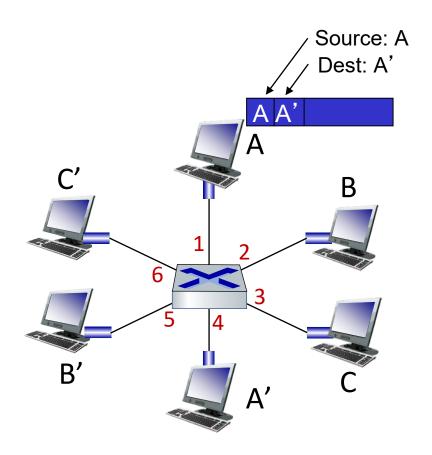
something like a routing protocol?



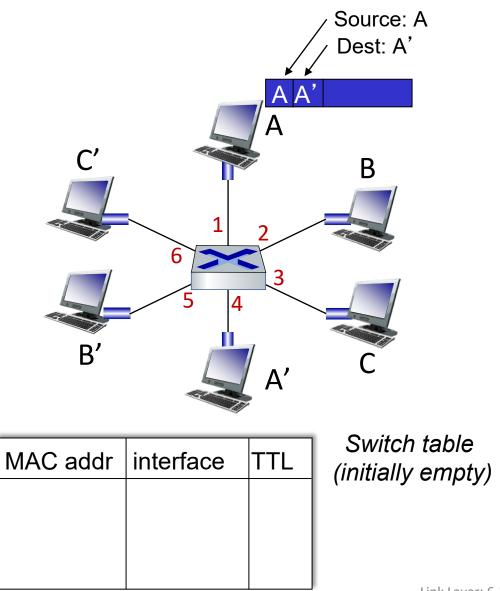
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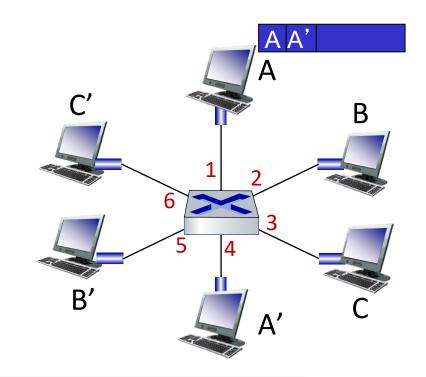


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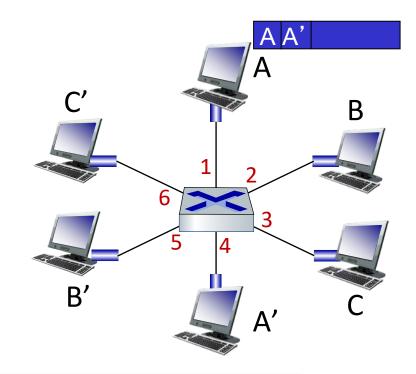
Link Layer: 6-296

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 - when frame received, switch "learns" location of sender: incoming LAN segment



MAC addr	interface	TTL

- 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



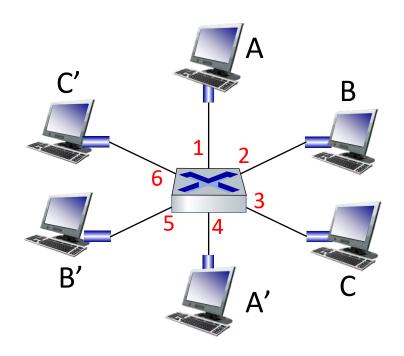
MAC addr	interface	TTL
Α	1	60

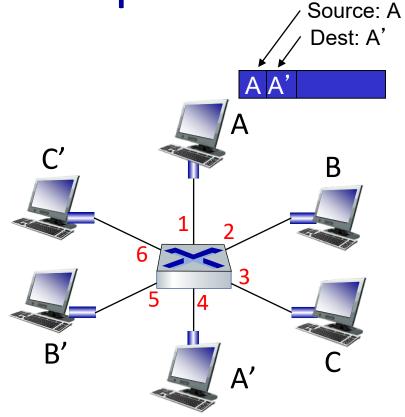
```
1. record incoming link, MAC address of sending host
2. index switch table using MAC destination address
3. if entry found for destination
  then {
  if destination on segment from which frame arrived
     then drop frame
      else forward frame on interface indicated by entry
   else flood /* forward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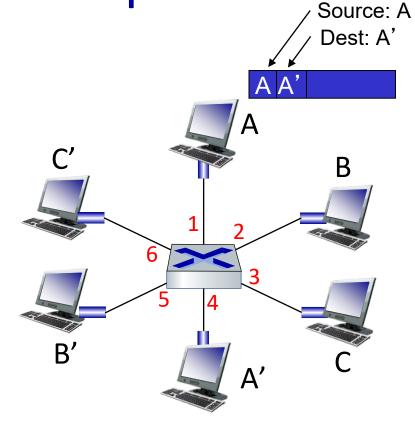
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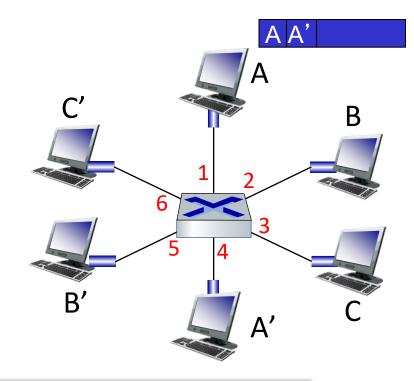






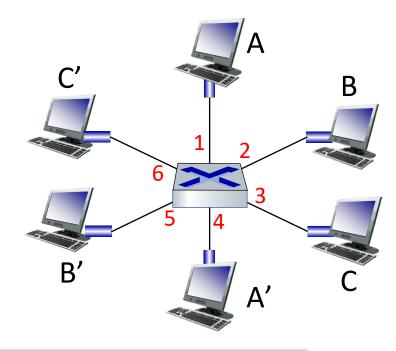
MAC addr	interface	TTL

• frame destination, A', location unknown:



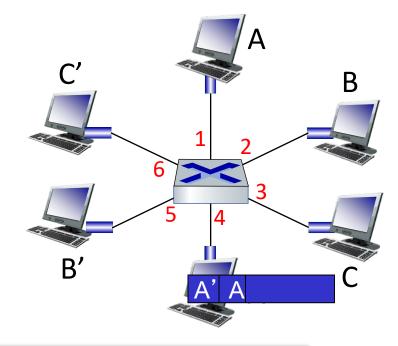
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Α	1	60

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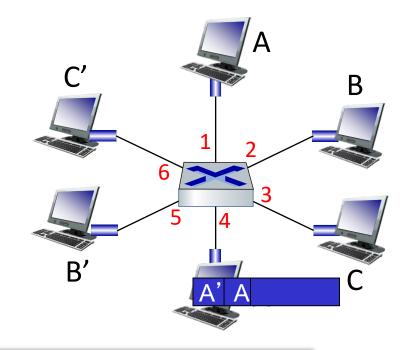
MAC addr	interface	TTL
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- frame destination, A', location unknown: flood
- destination A location known:



MAC addr	interface	TTL
Α	1	60

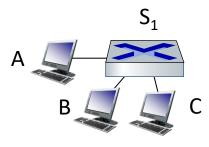
- frame destination, A', location unknown: flood
- destination A location known: selectively send on just one link



MAC addr	interface	TTL
Α	1	60
A'	4	60

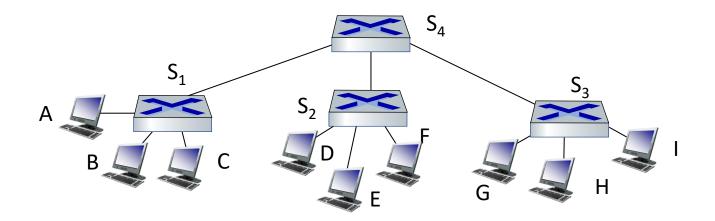
Interconnecting switches

self-learning switches can be connected together:



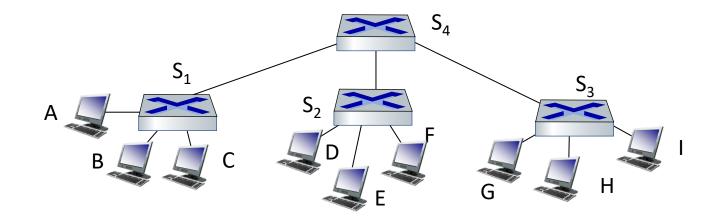
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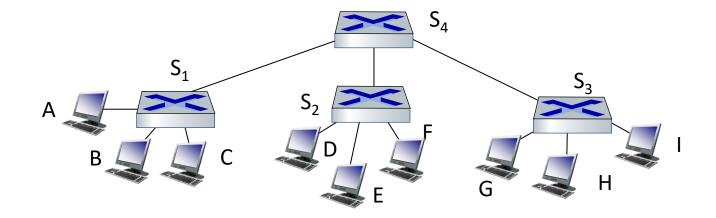


Q: sending from A to G - how does S₁ know to forward frame destined to G via S₄ and S₃?

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

Self-learning multi-switch example

Suppose C sends frame to I, I responds to C

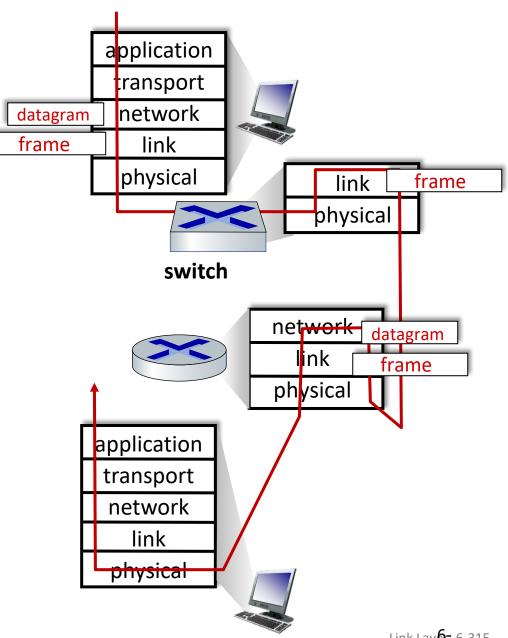


 $\underline{\mathbf{Q}}$: show switch tables and packet forwarding in S_1 , S_2 , S_3 , S_4

Switches vs. routers

both are store-and-forward:

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



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- routers: network-layer devices (examine network-layer headers)
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both have forwarding tables:

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

