

Redes de computadoras

Introducción

Objetivos

- Fortalecer los conceptos básicos de las redes modernas de comunicaciones
- Identificar los principales retos y tendencias de las redes informáticas
- Configurar y desplegar redes de comunicaciones contemporáneas

Evolución de las redes de computadoras

ARPANET, in full Advanced Research Projects Agency Network, experimental computer network that was the forerunner of the Internet. The Advanced Research Projects Agency (ARPA), an arm of the U.S. Defense Department, funded the development of the Advanced Research Projects Agency Network (ARPANET) in the late 1960s. Its initial purpose was to link computers at Pentagon-funded research institutions over telephone lines.

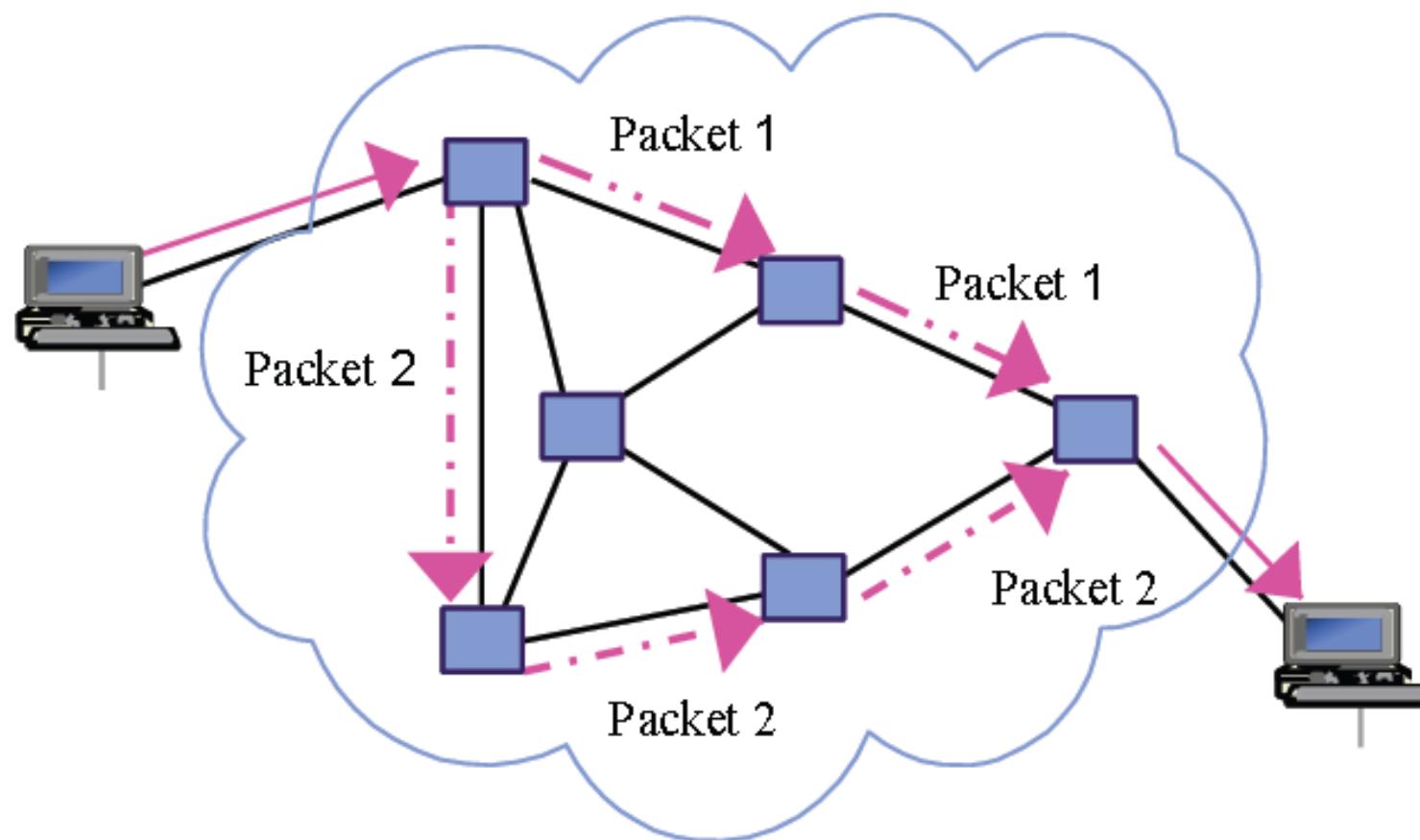
Fuente: Encyclopaedia Britannica.

Comunicación de paquetes

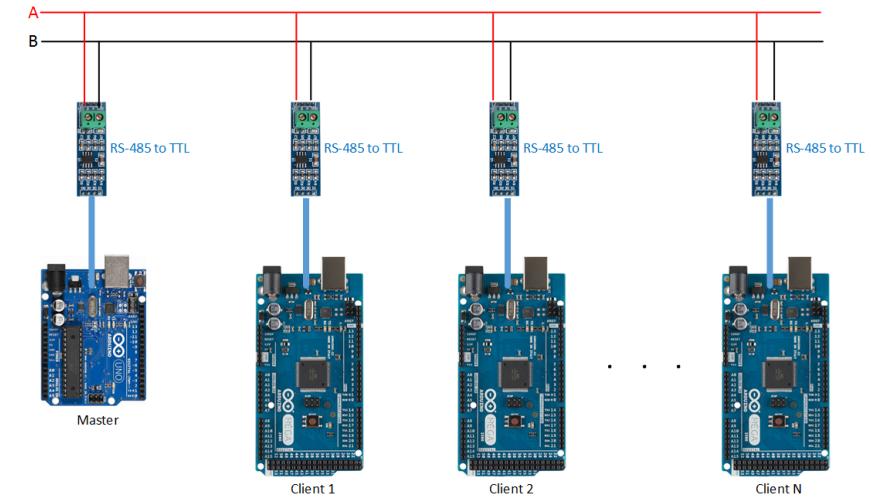
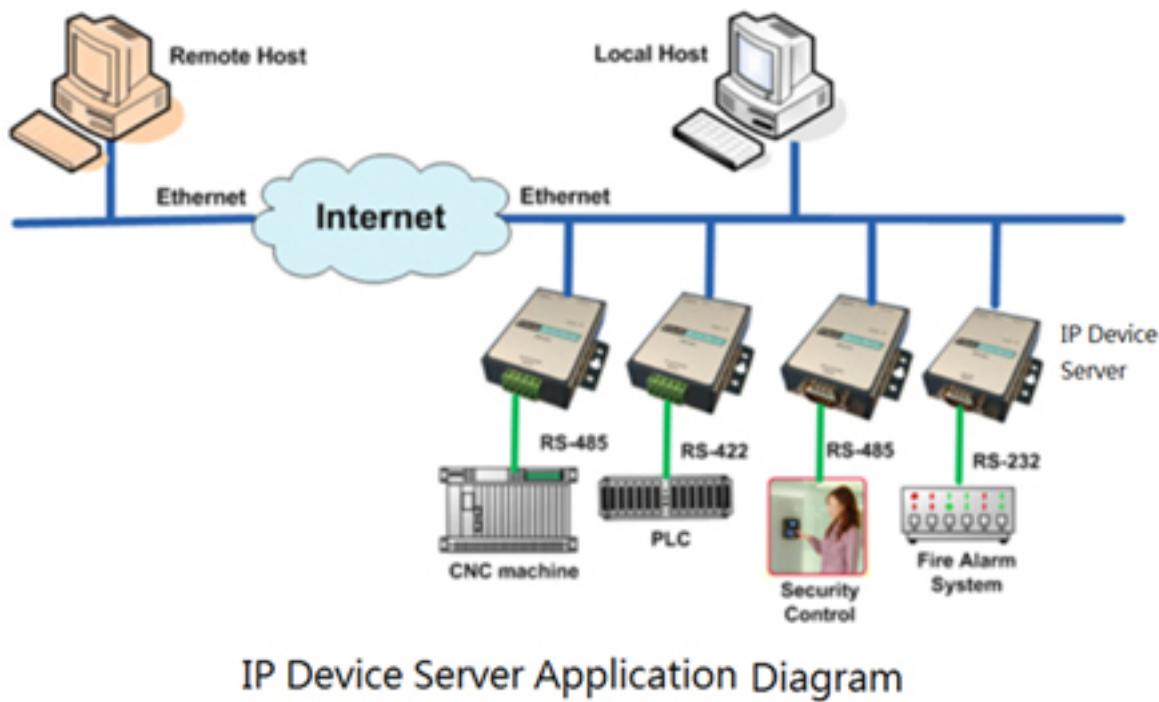
Paul Baran, a researcher at the RAND Corporation think tank, first introduced the idea. Baran was instructed to come up with a plan for a computer communications network that could survive nuclear attack and continue functioning. He came up with a process that he called “hot-potato routing,” which later became known as packet switching.



Comunicación de paquetes.



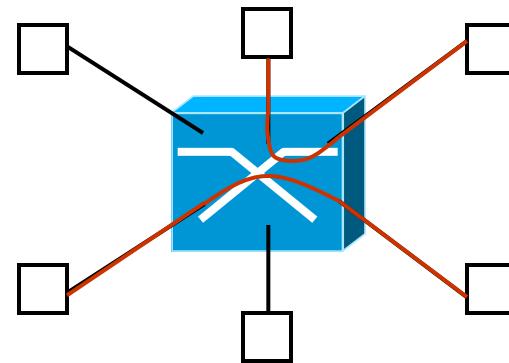
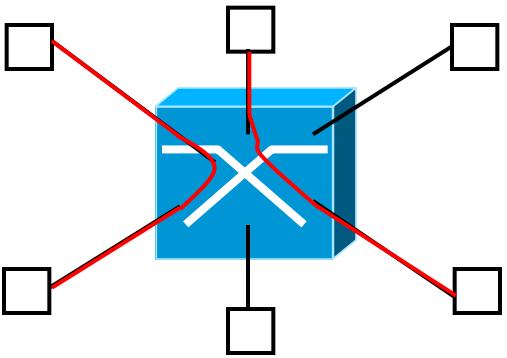
Redes de datos.



Internet de las cosas



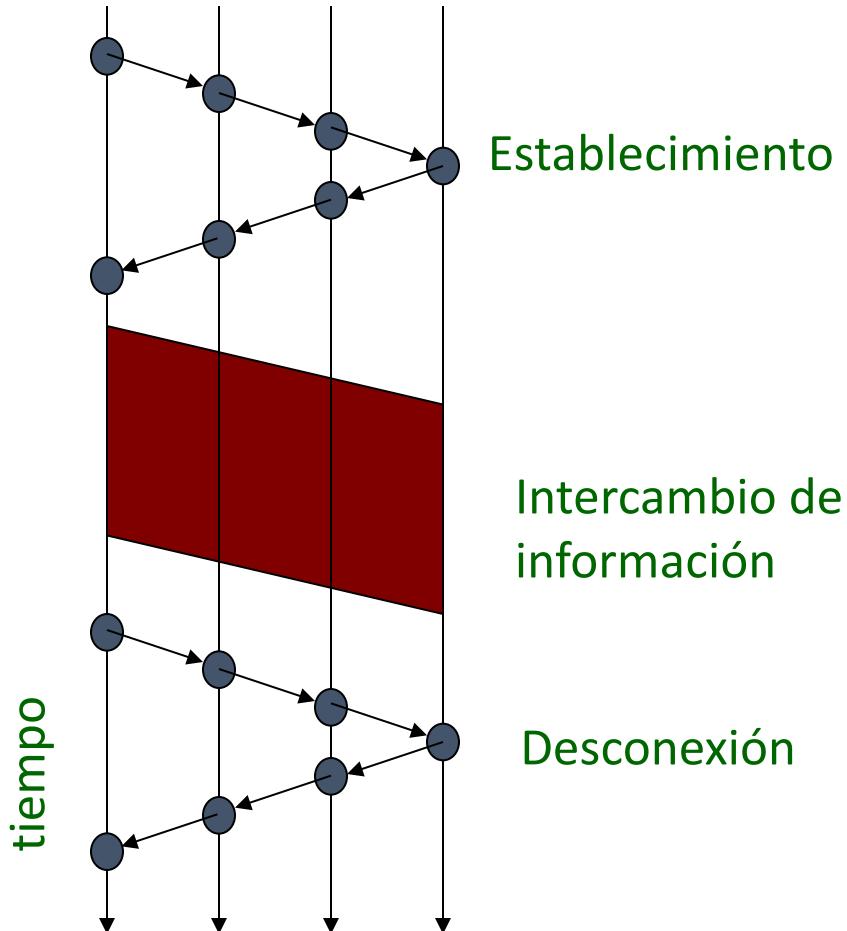
Commutación



Commutación

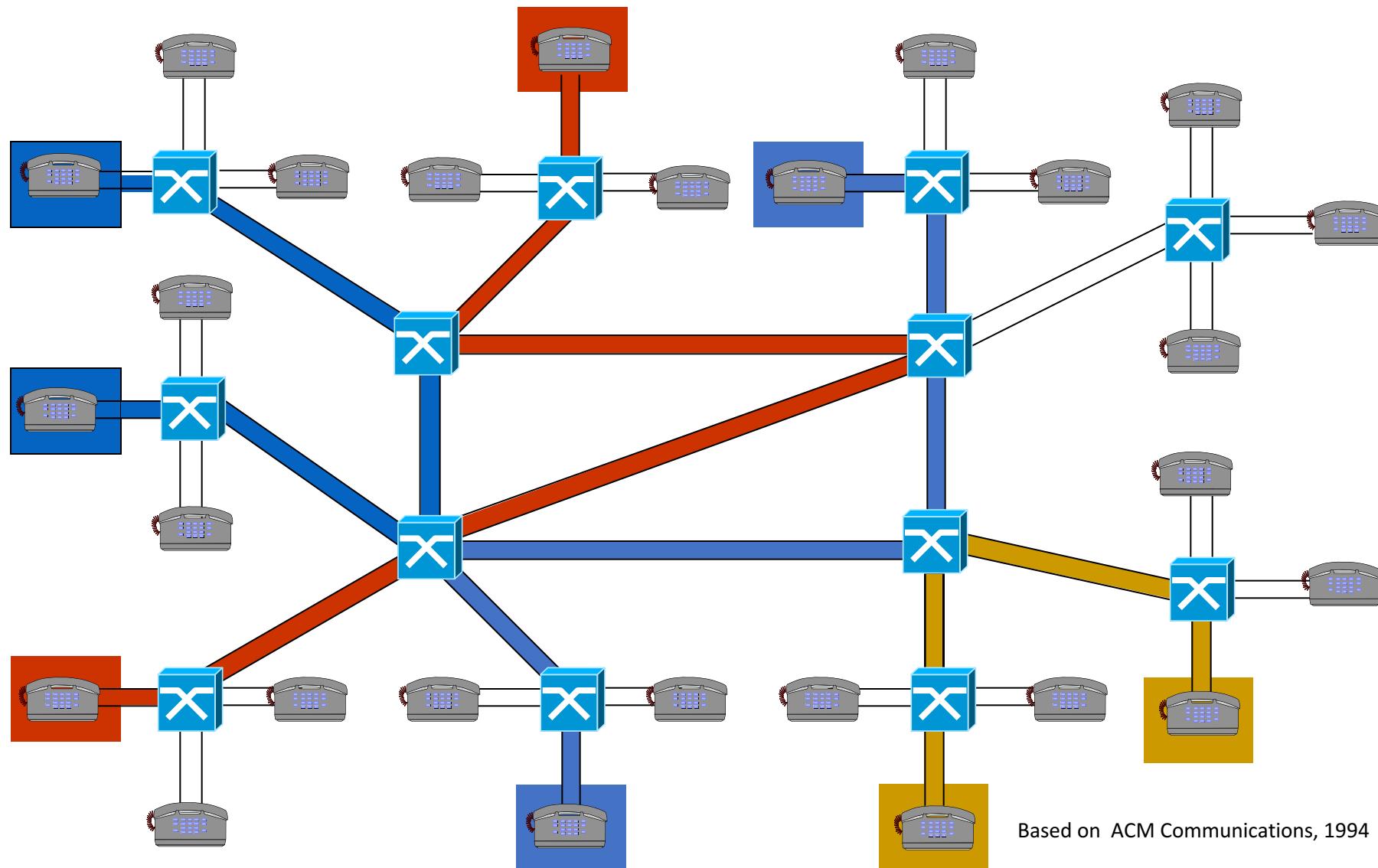
- **Circuitos:** se dedica una ruta y se reservan recursos durante la comunicación
- **Mensajes:** se forma un mensaje que incluye dirección del destinatario y se envía sin establecer una conexión. El mensaje se almacena y retransmite de nodo en nodo
- **Paquetes:** similar a la commutación de mensajes, pero éste se divide en segmentos llamados paquetes, cada uno de los cuales es transmitido individualmente
 - Circuitos Virtuales
 - Datagramas

Commutación de circuitos



- Mecanismos de señalización establecen una trayectoria a través de la cual se transfiere información
 - Reservación de recursos
 - QoS bien definida
- Una vez terminada la conversación, una fase de desconexión permite liberar los recursos reservados

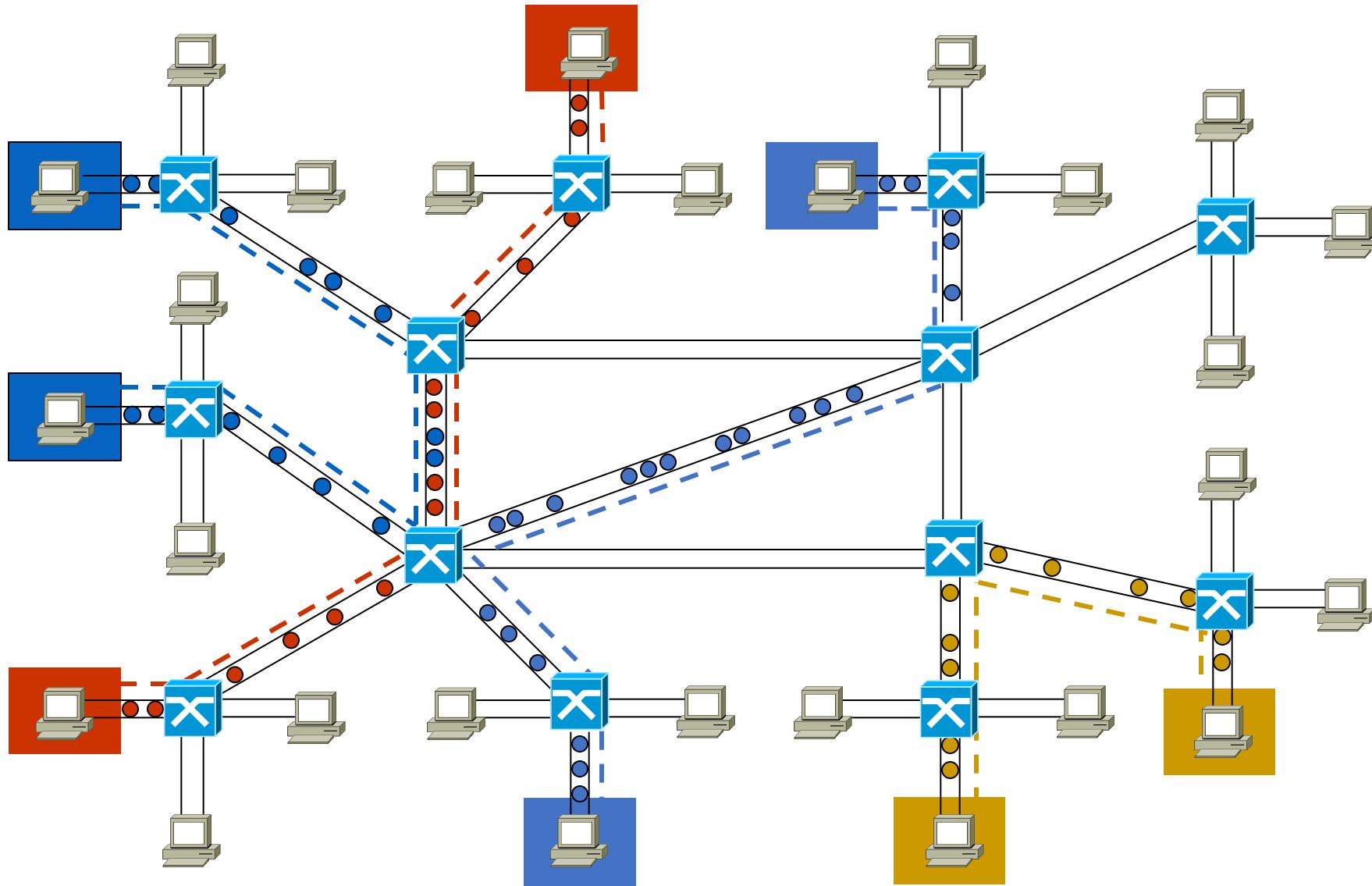
Commutación de circuitos



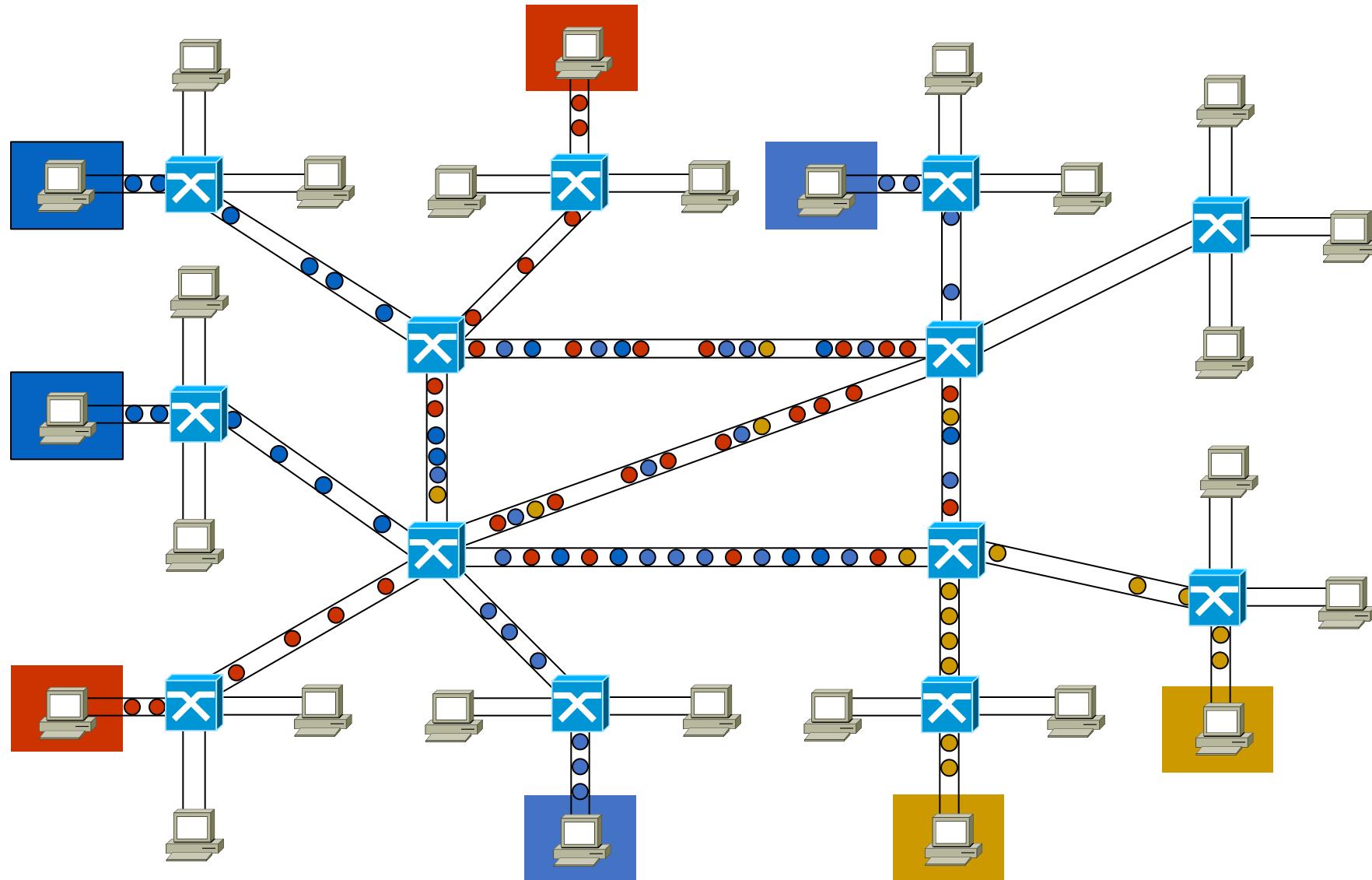
Commutación de circuitos

- Trayectoria dedicada para el flujo
- Ancho de banda y retraso definidos e invariantes
- Ideal para flujos a tasa constante con fuertes restricciones temporales (por ejemplo, conversaciones de voz)
- Reservación de recursos = alto costo independientemente del volumen intercambiado
- Inapropiado para tráfico en ráfagas (típico en servicios de datos)

Commutación de paquetes (circuitos virtuales)



Comunicación de paquetes (datagramas)



Commutación de paquetes

- Nodos de almacenamiento y re-envío
 - Retraso variable en caso de congestión
- Con datagramas, la trayectoria puede cambiar dinámicamente
- Puerto de salida determinado por tablas de commutación o enrutamiento
 - Estático o dinámico
 - Encabezado en el paquete para consultar tablas

Circuitos virtuales y datagramas

- Circuito virtual
 - Se establece una trayectoria durante la configuración del circuito. Es virtual porque los recursos físicos son compartidos, no dedicados
 - Cada paquete tiene un identificador de circuito virtual (VCI)
 - Los paquetes llegan en orden
 - Es común tener mecanismos de control de flujo
- Datagrama
 - Encabezado tiene la dirección destino final. Decisiones de ruteo basadas en este campo
 - Cada paquete se encamina de forma independiente
 - Los paquetes pueden llegar en desorden. El destino final es responsable de reordenarlos

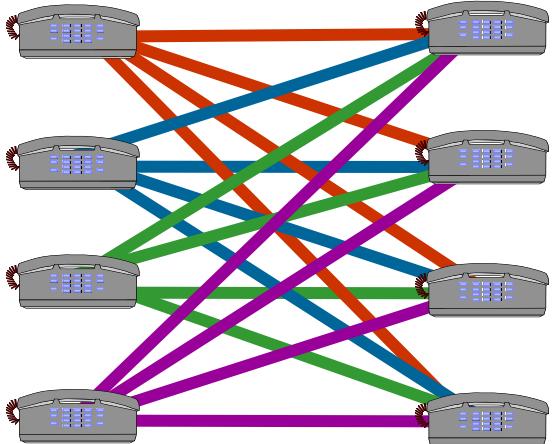
Comunicación de paquetes. Algunas ventajas

- Eficiencia
 - Enlaces compartidos por varios flujos
 - Paquetes encolados y retransmitidos tan pronto como sea posible
 - Los flujos son admitidos y transportados aún bajo condiciones de ligera congestión
- Conversión de tasas de transmisión automática
 - Puertos de entrada y salida no necesariamente operan a la misma velocidad

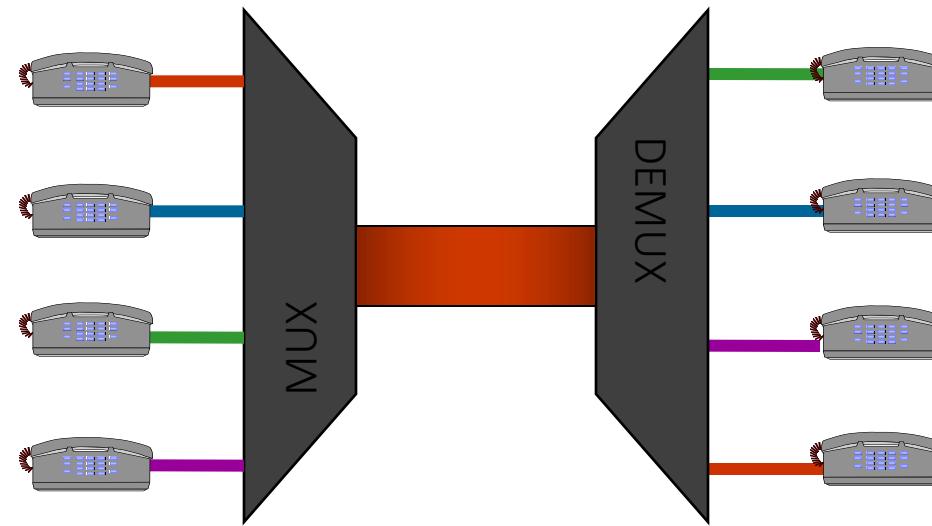
Multiplexaje

Permite la compartición de un medio de comunicación (recurso) entre varios usuarios.

Sin multiplexaje



Un canal
cuatro conexiones

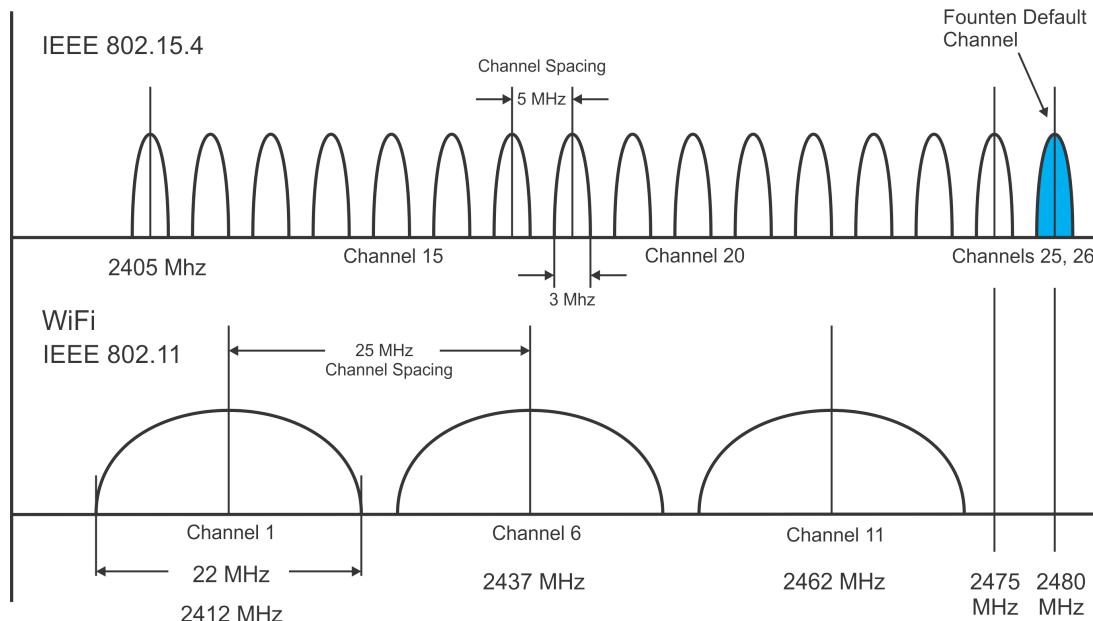


Dominios de multiplexaje

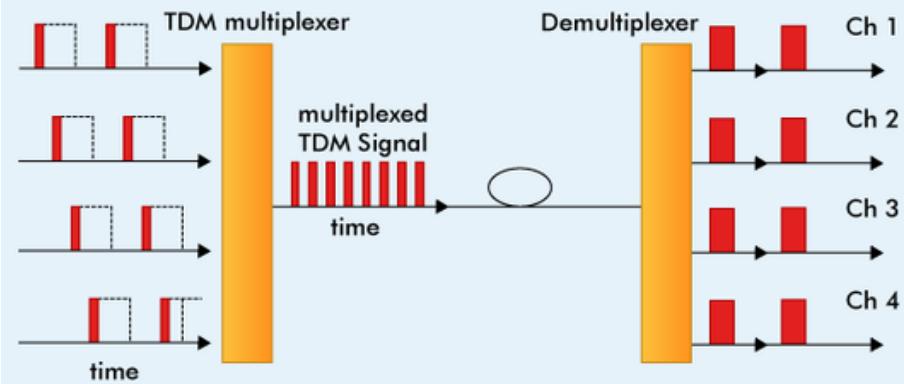
- En frecuencia: FDM
 - ... y longitud de onda: WDM
- En el tiempo: TDM
 - Síncrono
 - Asíncrono, estadístico
- Por código: CDM
- En el espacio: SDM

Multiplexaje en frecuencia

A cada comunicación (canal) se le asigna un rango de frecuencia (ancho de banda) distinto.

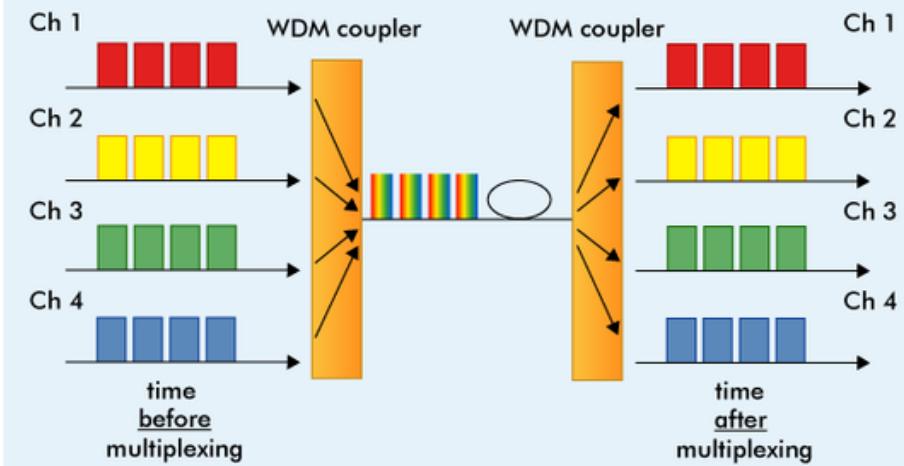


TDM (Time Division Multiplexing)



Multiplexaje en tiempo

WDM (Wavelength Division Multiplexing)



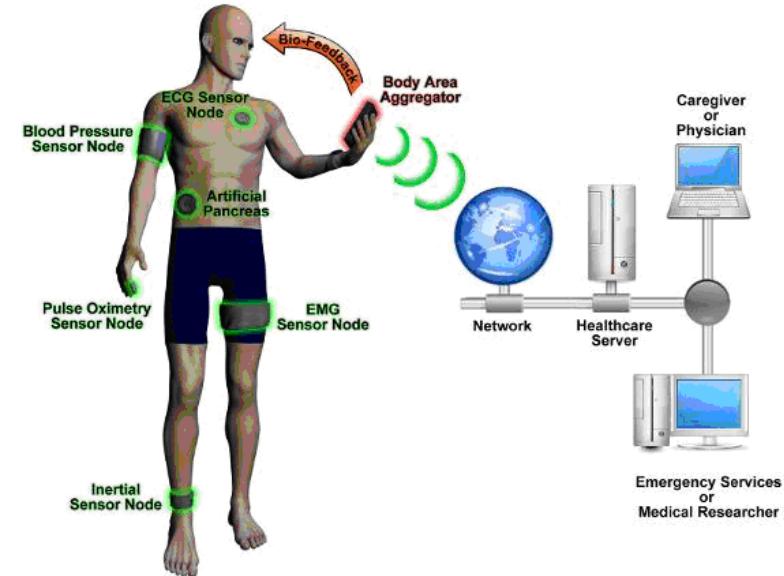
Multiplexaje en longitud de onda

Clasificación de redes

- Por el servicio que ofrecen
 - Telefonía fija y móvil, televisión, intercambio de datos, *trunking*
- Por su función en la arquitectura
 - Redes de acceso, redes de transporte
- Por la población de usuarios que las utilizan
 - redes públicas, privadas, corporativas, para el hogar
- Por su cobertura geográfica
 - BAN, PAN, LAN, CAN, MAN, WAN, GAN

Redes de área corporal (BAN)

- Cobertura de un par de metros
- Medio físico: piel o inalámbrico
- Baja velocidad
- Monitoreo de pacientes,
- Interconexión de dispositivos,
- Autenticación



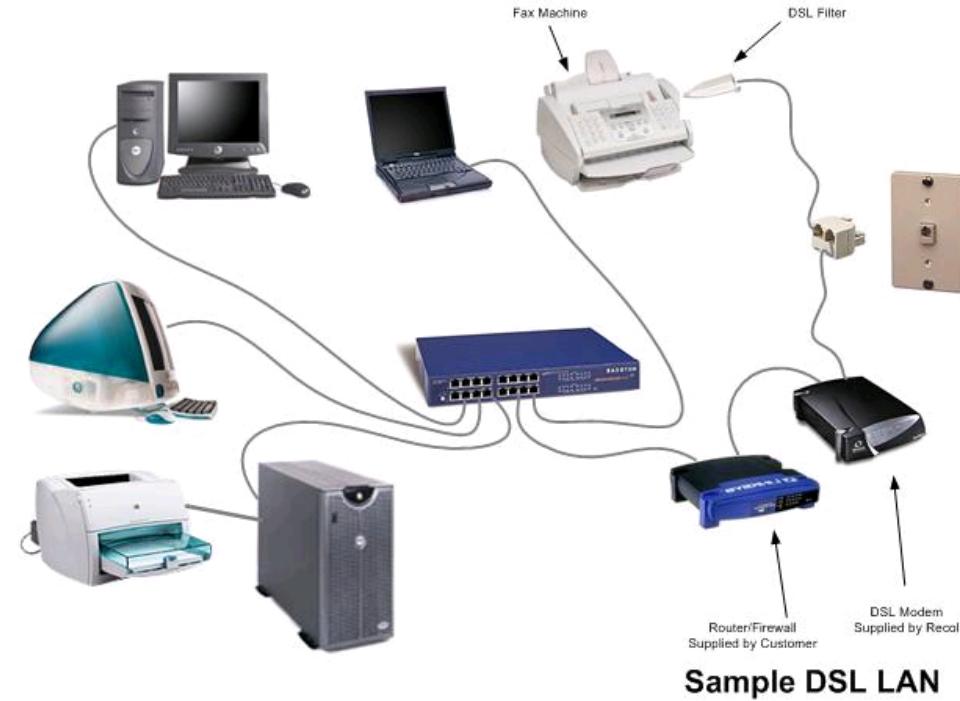
Redes de área personal (PAN)

- Cobertura diez metros
- Medio inalámbrico
- Velocidad 2.4 kb/s a 110 Mb/s
- Interconexión de dispositivos
- Ejemplos
 - Bluetooth
 - ZigBee
 - WUSB

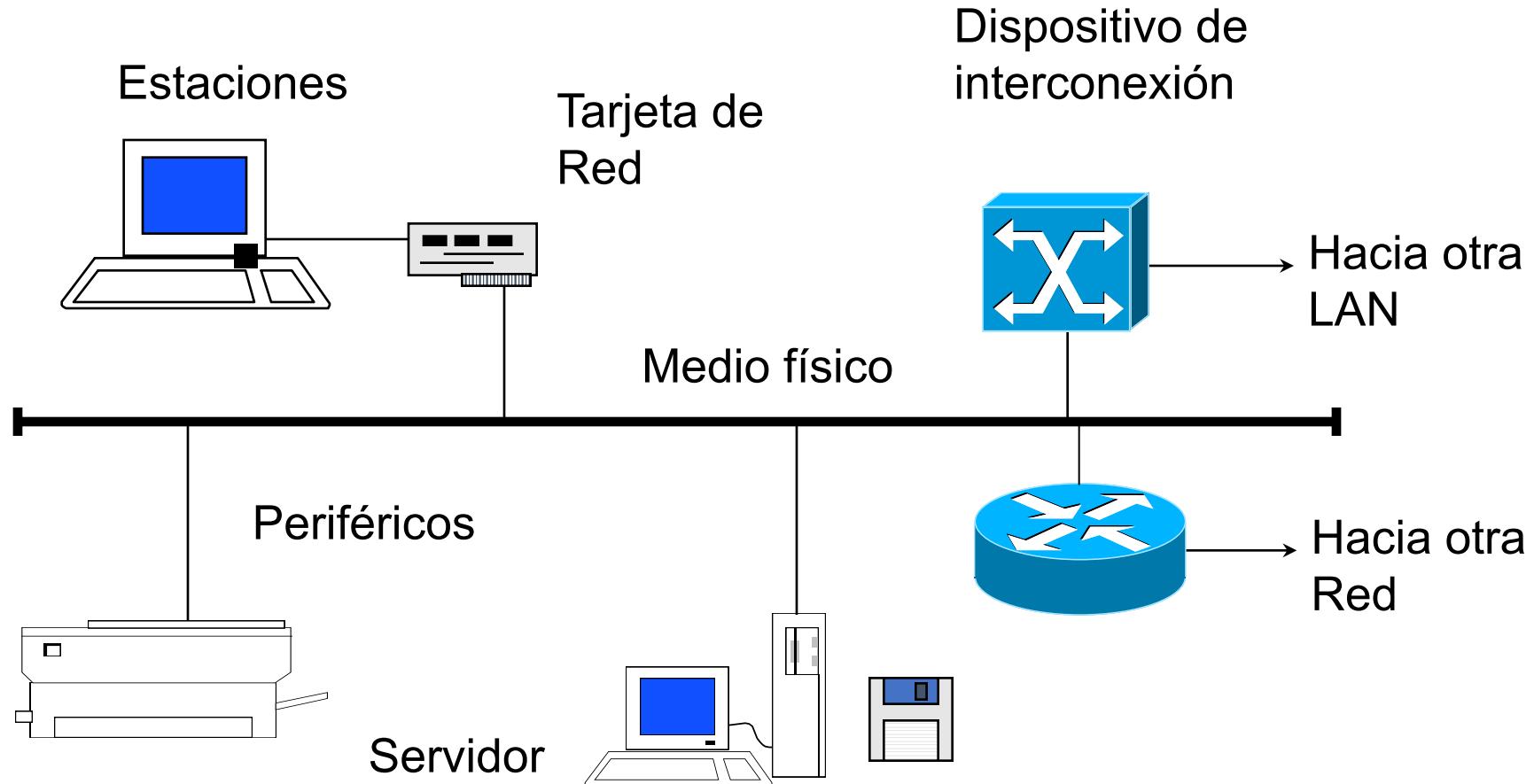


Red de área local (LAN)

- Cobertura de cientos de metros a algunos kilómetros
- Medio alambrado (cobre, fibra) e inalámbrico
- Velocidades 10 Mb/s a 10 Gb/s
- Ejemplos
 - Ethernet, 802.3
 - Token ring

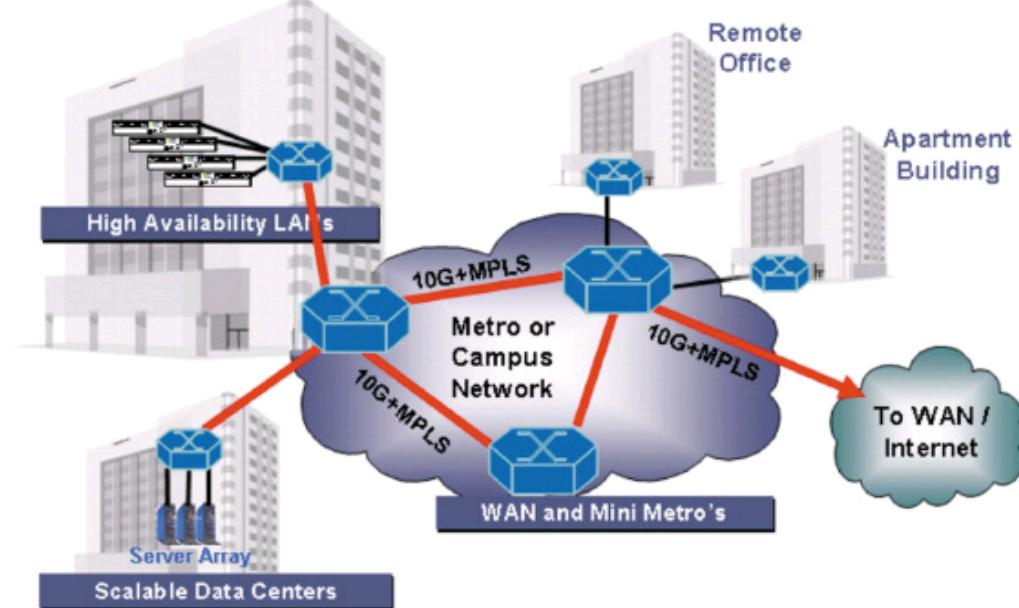


Componentes de una LAN



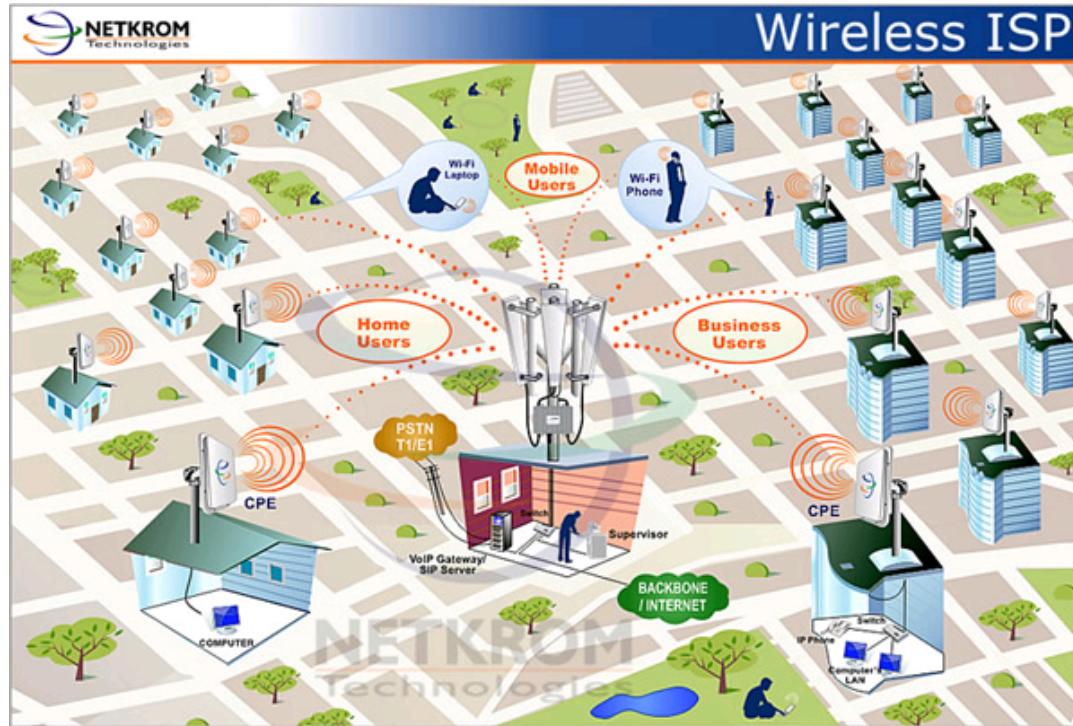
Red de área de campus (CAN)

- Cobertura de algunos kilómetros
- Medio alambrado (fibra)
- Velocidades 100 Mb/s a 10 Gb/s
- Interconecta redes locales en edificios, campus, hospitales
- Ejemplos Ethernet, ATM, FDDI



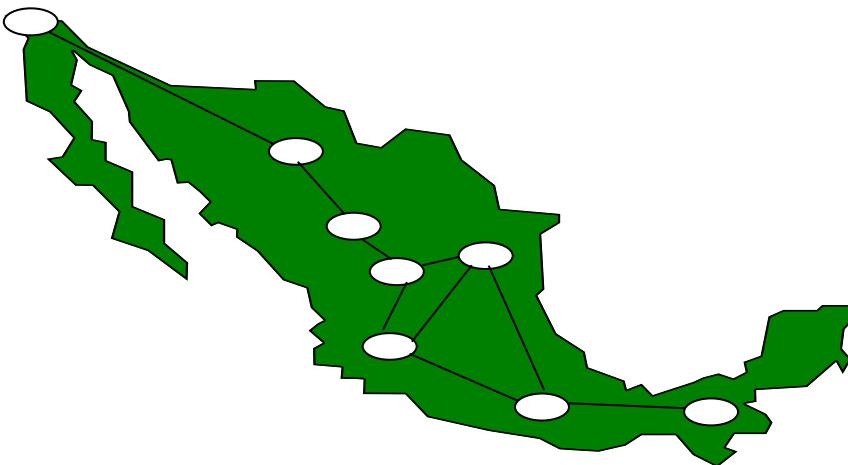
Red de área metropolitana (MAN)

- Cobertura de decenas de Km
- Medio alambrado (fibra, cobre) e inalámbrico
- Amplio rango de velocidades
- Interconecta redes locales en edificios, Redes de acceso
- Ejemplos:
MetroEthernet
WiMAX
PLC

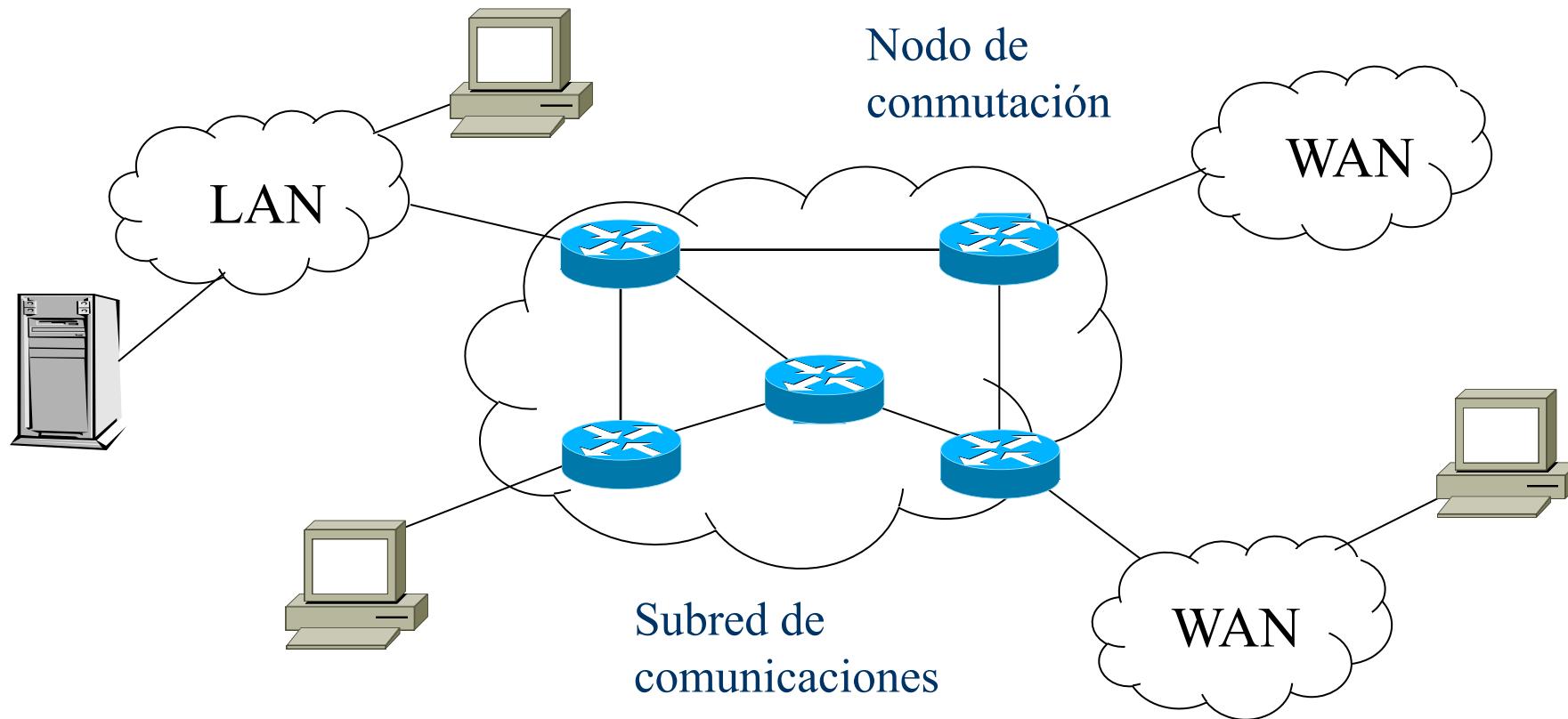


Red de área amplia (WAN)

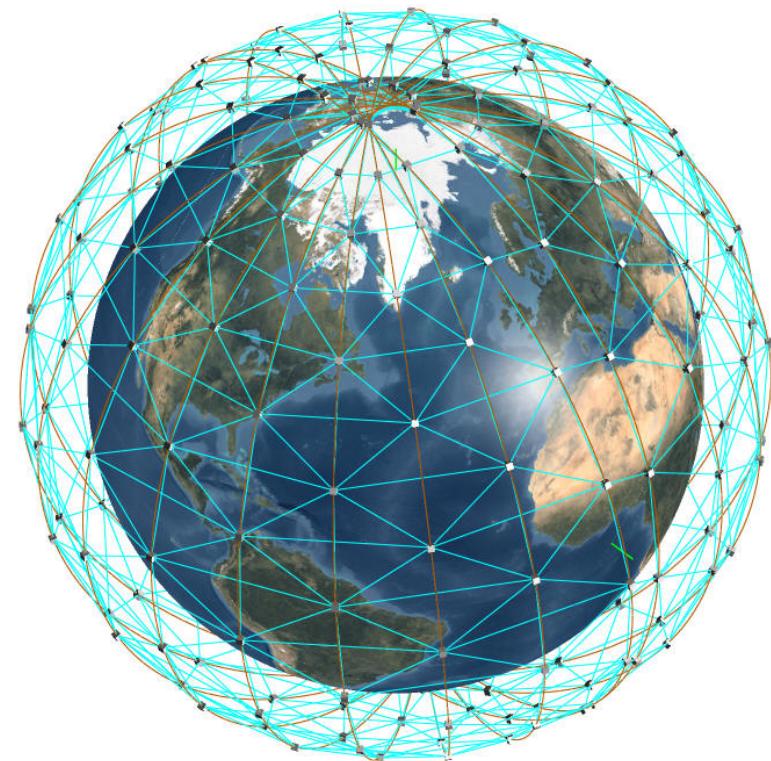
- Interconecta redes en grandes extensiones
- Muy alta velocidad con tecnologías recientes
- Ejemplos
 - SDH
 - Frame relay
 - ATM
 - DWDM



Componentes de una WAN



Redes de área global (GAN) - Internet

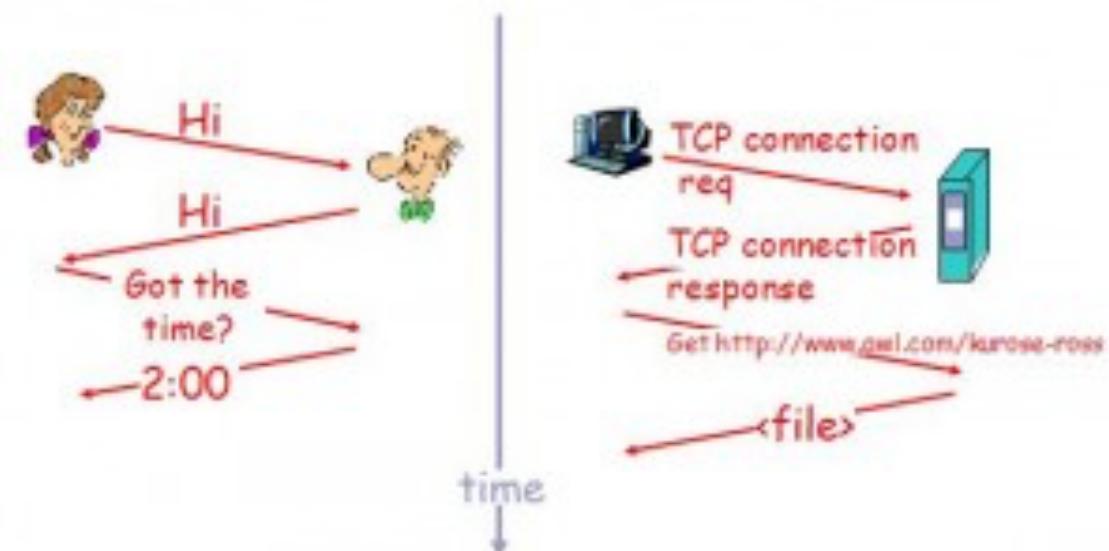


Redes de computadoras

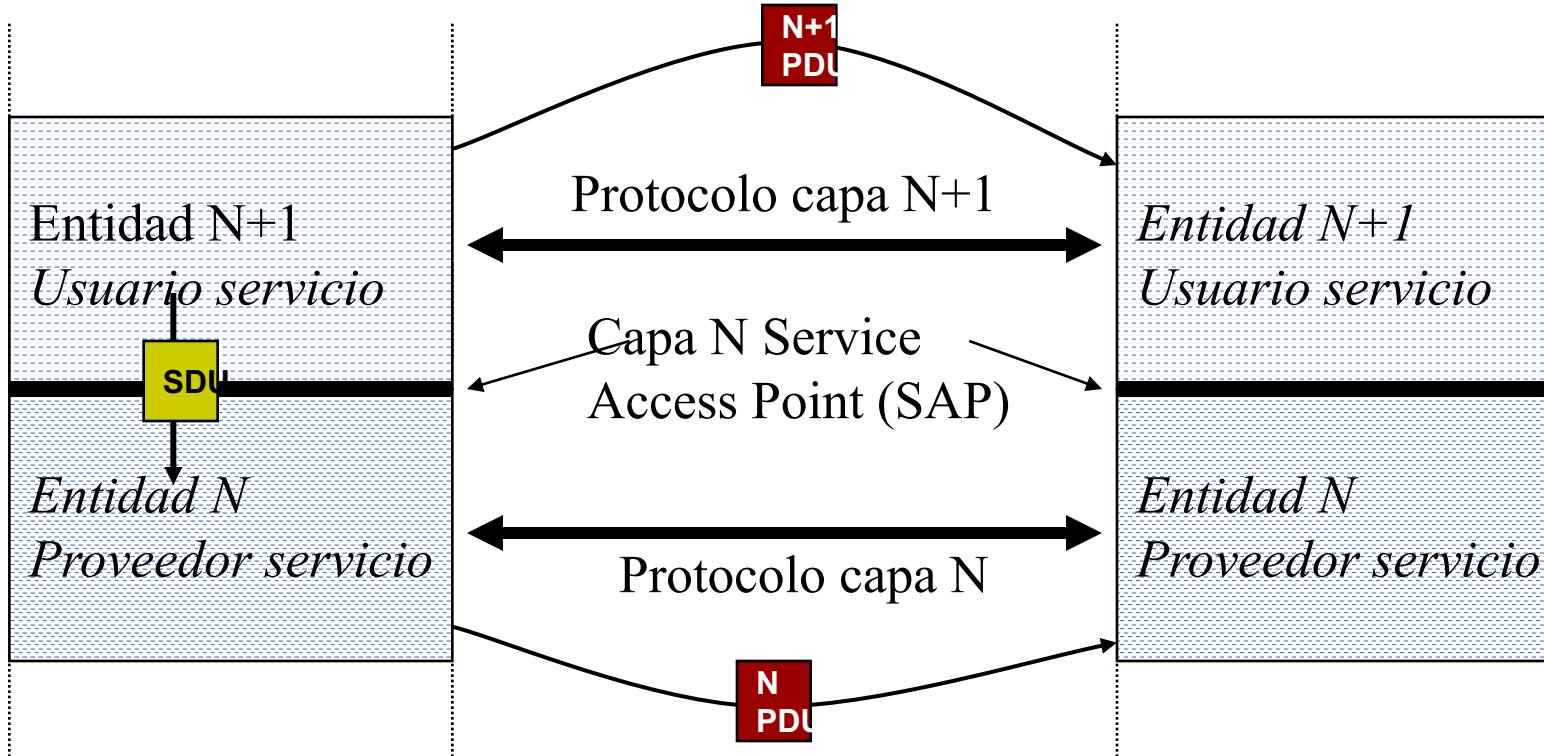
Modelos de referencia

Protocol

a human protocol and a computer network protocol:



Capas, protocolos, interfaces y servicios



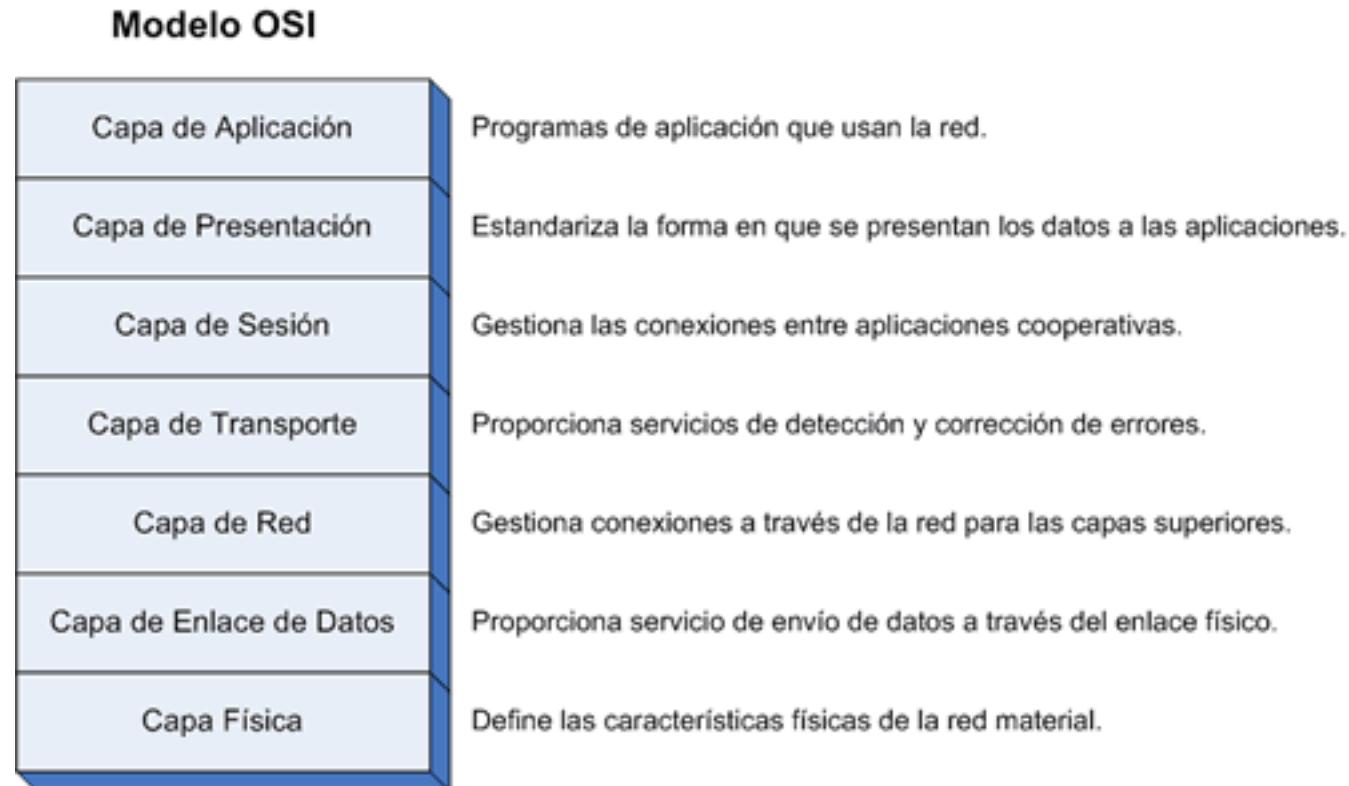
PDU - Protocol Data Unit
SDU - Service Data Unit

Separación en capas

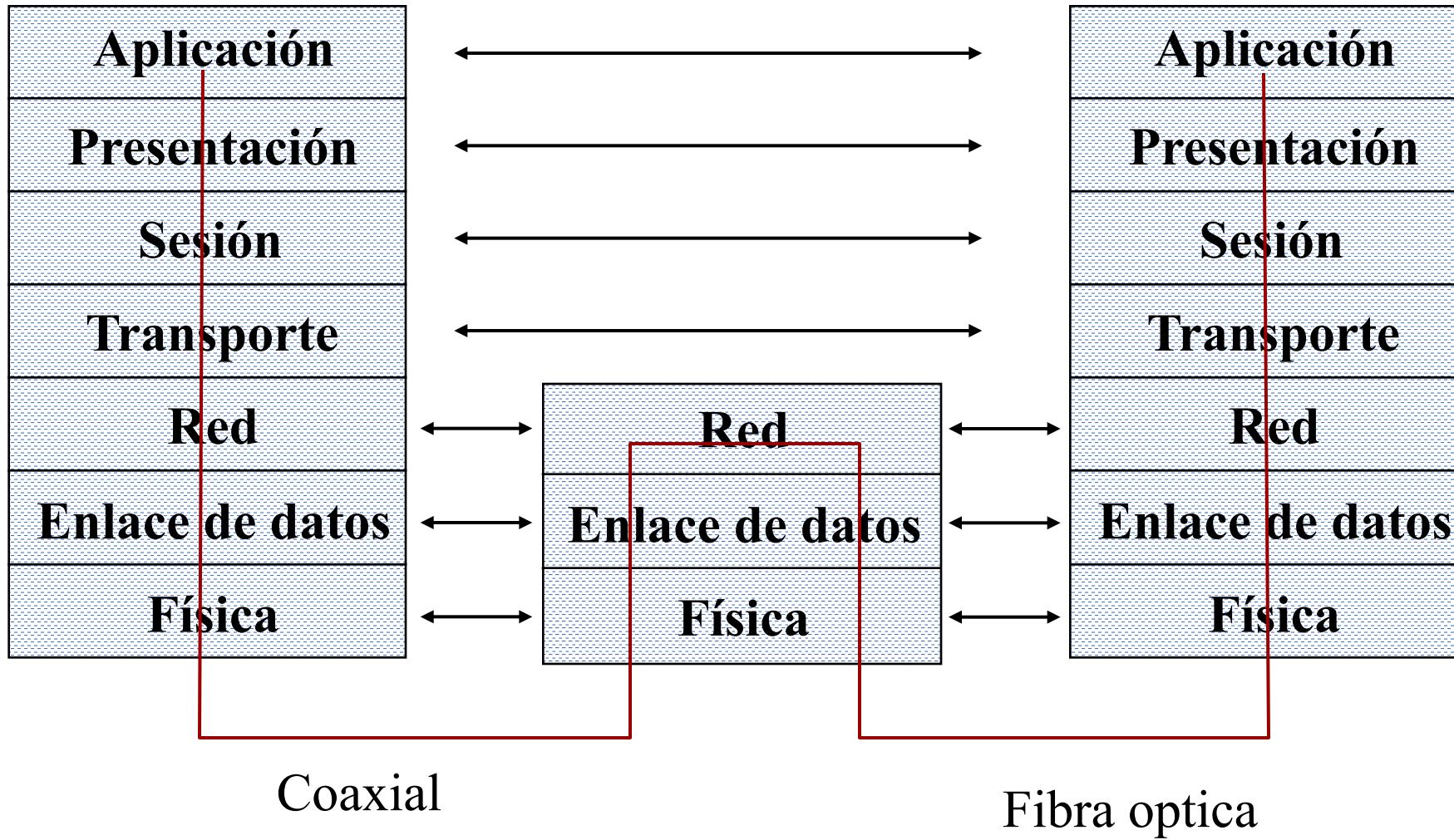
- Modularidad - Cada módulo desempeña una función particular en el desempeño global del sistema
- Cada capa ofrece un **servicio** a la capa superior enriqueciendo los servicios que ella recibe de la capa inferior
- La comunicación entre capas del mismo nivel entre dos sistemas (*entidades pares*), está definida por un **protocolo**

Modelo de referencia OSI

Modelo de *Interconexión de Sistemas Abiertos* propuesto por la Organización Internacional de Estándares (ISO) para establecer una referencia de estándares para redes.

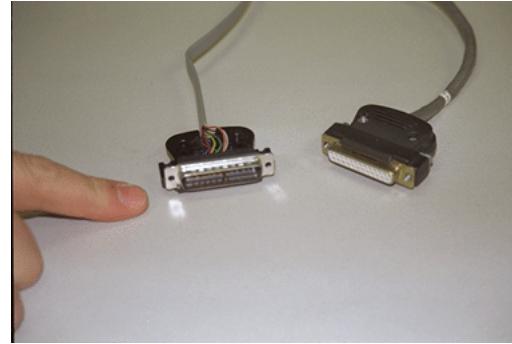


Independencia de capas



Capa física

- Se encarga de la transmisión de cadenas de bits en el medio físico. Se ocupa de las características
 - Mecánicas
 - Eléctricas
 - Estructuras
 - Procedimientoque establecen la transmisión



Capa de enlace de datos

Se encarga de:

- entramado de datos
- sincronización y control de acceso al medio
- transferencia de información fiable punto a punto (a través del medio físico)



Capa de red

- Establece rutas para encaminar los *paquetes* desde su origen hasta su destino final
- Acepta *paquetes* entrantes de la capa de transporte y *paquetes* en tránsito de la capa de enlace de datos y los dirige hacia la salida adecuada

Capa de transporte

- Segmentación y re-ensamblado de *mensajes* en *paquetes*
- Comunicación confiable extremo a extremo
- En algunas arquitecturas, p.e. Internet, control de flujo y control de congestión

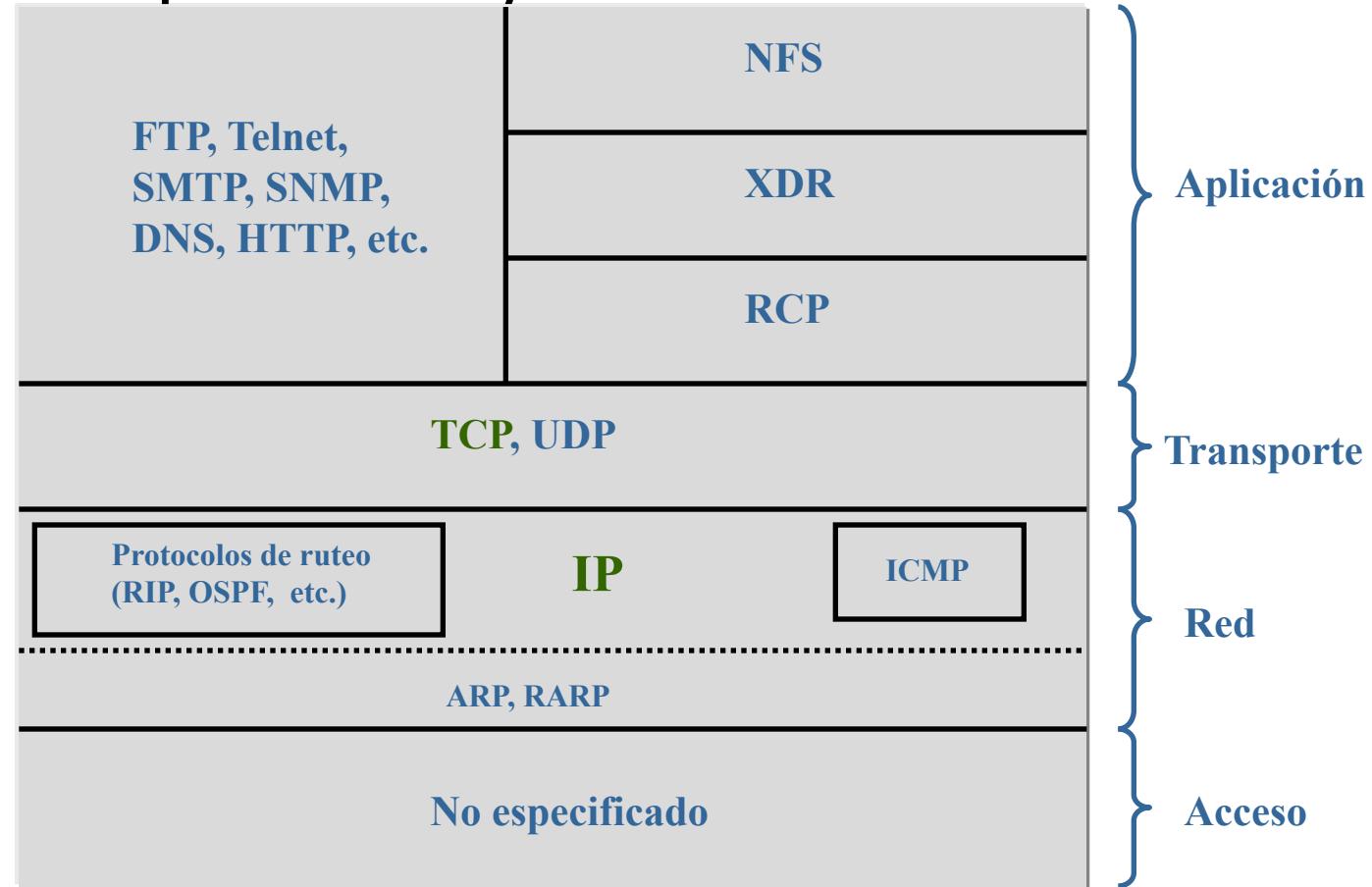
Capas de sesión y presentación

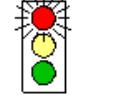
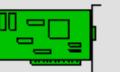
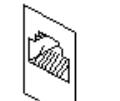
- Estructura de control para comunicaciones entre aplicaciones, administra y establece sesiones. Asigna derechos de acceso, funciones de cobro
- Realiza transformaciones útiles en los datos. Las funciones más importantes son
 - Cifrado
 - Compresión
 - Representación normalizada de datos

Capa de aplicación

- Servicios a los usuarios del ambiente de red. Se encarga de transacciones entre los usuarios
- Ejemplos
 - FTP
 - Navegación WWW
 - Correo electrónico
 - Administración de redes

Modelo de capas TCP/IP

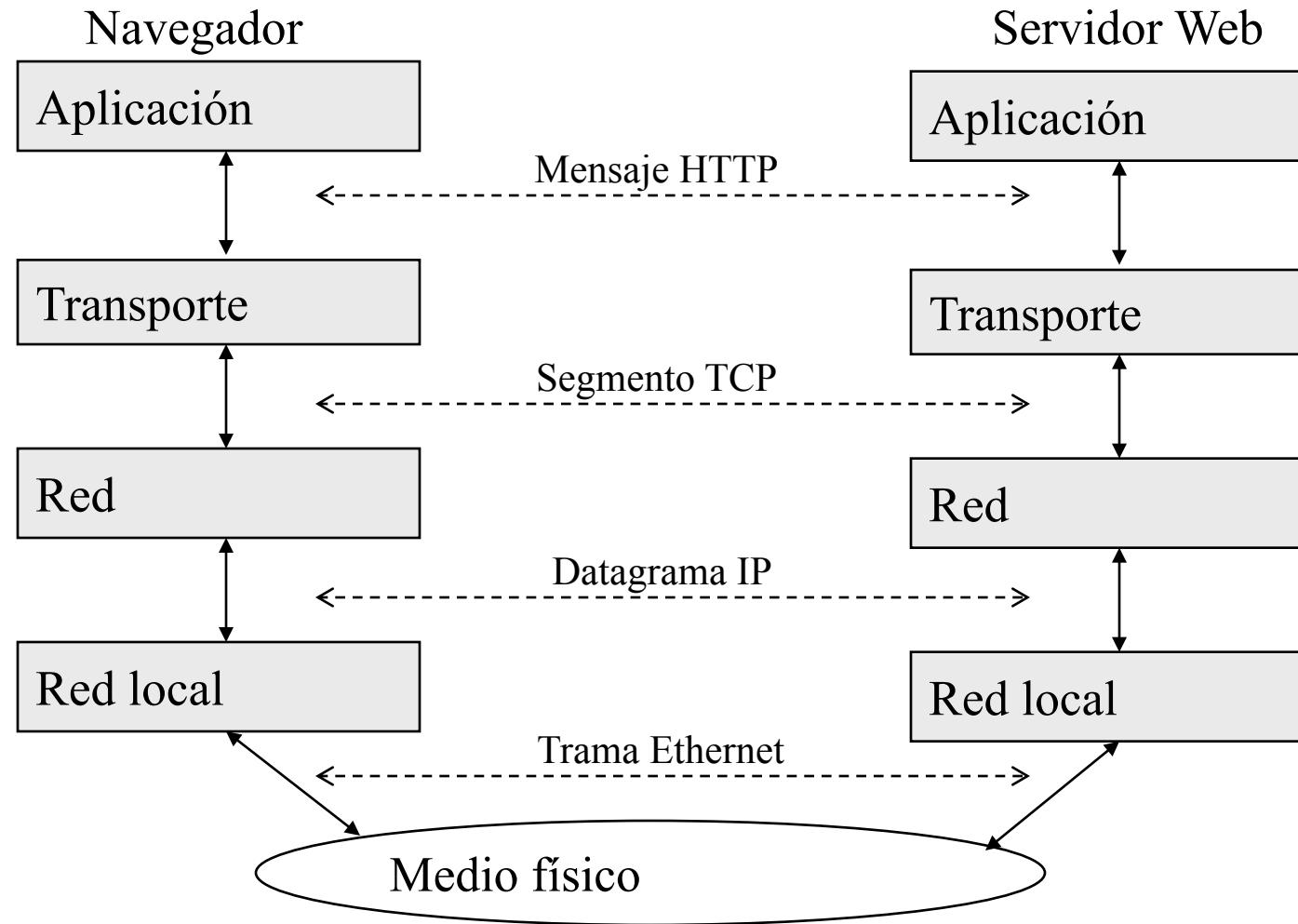


OSI MODEL		
7		Application Layer Type of communication: E-mail, file transfer, client/server.
6		Presentation Layer Encryption, data conversion: ASCII to EBCDIC, BCD to binary, etc.
5		Session Layer Starts, stops session. Maintains order.
4		Transport Layer Ensures delivery of entire file or message.
3		Network Layer Routes data to different LANs and WANs based on network address.
2		Data Link (MAC) Layer Transmits packets from node to node based on station address.
1		Physical Layer Electrical signals and cabling.

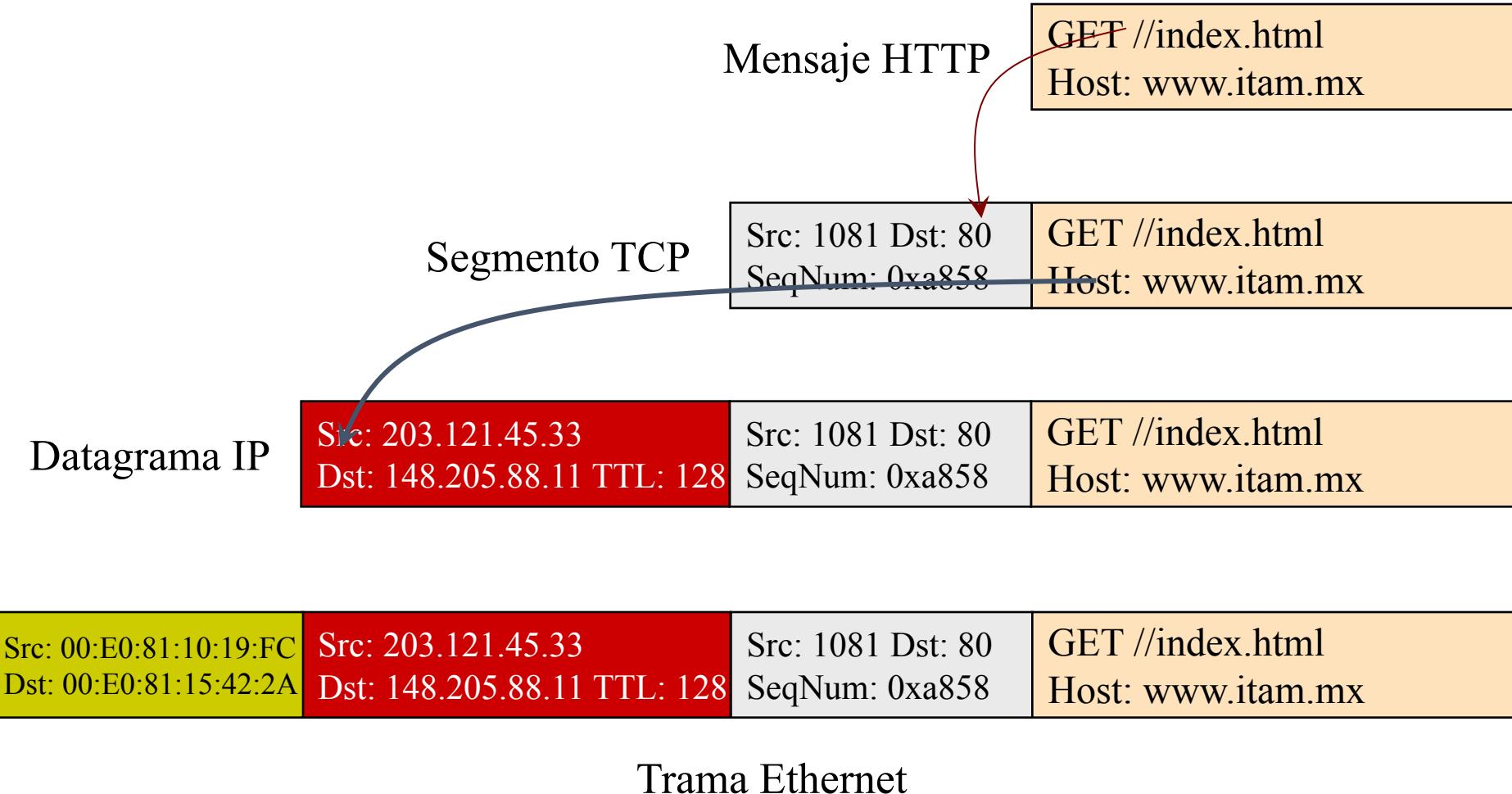
TCP / IP
FTP, Telnet, HTTP, SNMP, DNS, OSPF, RIP, Ping, Traceroute
TCP <small>(delivery ensured)</small>
UDP <small>(delivery NOT ensured)</small>
IP <small>(ICMP, IGMP, ARP, RARP)</small>



Arquitectura en capas



Protocolos de red



Capa física

Medios de transmisión

Contenido

- Conceptos generales
- Medios guiados
 - Par trenzado
 - Cable coaxial
 - Fibra óptica
- Medios libres
 - Medios inalámbricos
 - Microondas
 - Satélites

Medios de transmisión

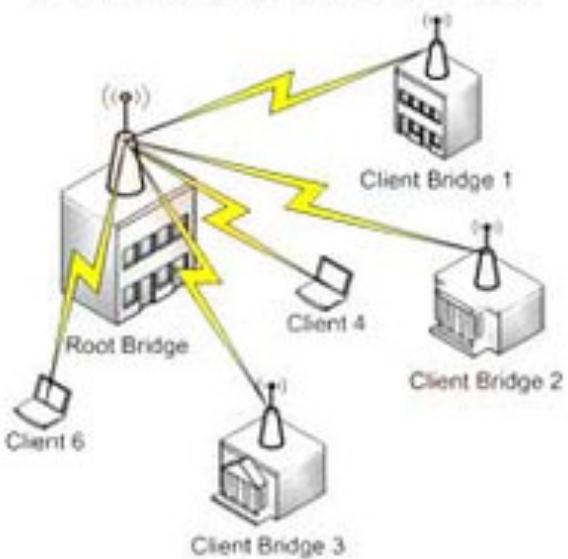
- Camino físico a través del cual se transmite información entre dos dispositivos
- Características
 - Tipo de conexión
 - Modo de transmisión
 - Características de transmisión
 - Características de propagación
 - Cobertura
 - Costo

Tipos de conexión

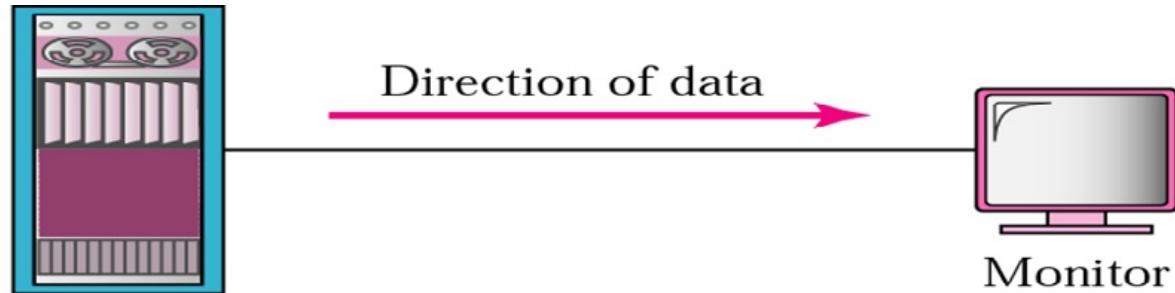
Point to Point connection:



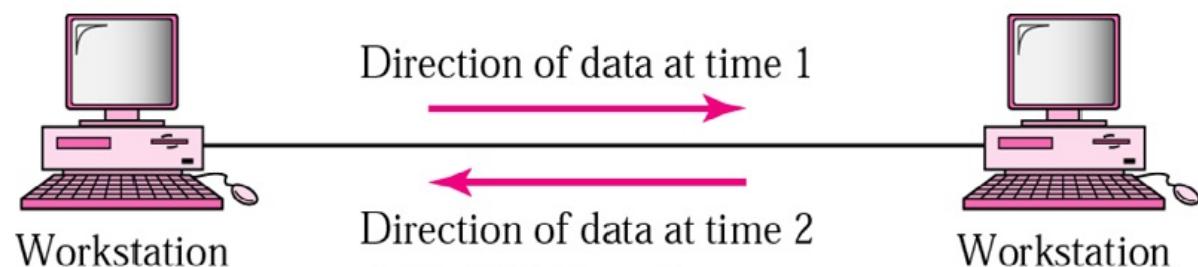
Point to Multipoint connection:



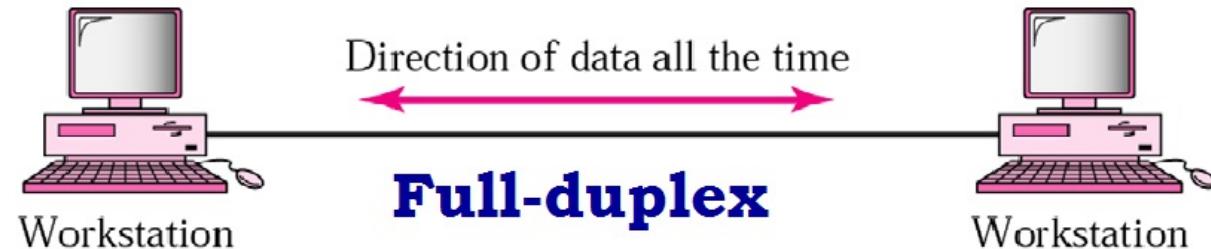
Modos de transmisión



Mainframe **Simplex Mode**



Half-duplex



Transmisión de datos

- Las señales transmitidas pueden
 - Alterarse por ruido
 - Atenuarse
 - Distorsionarse
- La atenuación y la distorsión dependen de:
 - El medio de transmisión
 - El ancho de banda
 - La velocidad de transmisión
 - La distancia
- El medio determina
 - El ancho de banda
 - La tasa de bits

Características de transmisión

- Atenuación
 - La potencia de la señal disminuye con la distancia.
 - Dependiente del medio, pero en general, a mayor frecuencia, mayor atenuación
- Distorsión
 - La señal recibida es distinta de la transmitida. La atenuación es distinta para distintos componentes de frecuencia
 - Distorsión por retardo
 - La velocidad de propagación varía con la frecuencia
 - Efecto de trayectorias múltiples
 - Distorsión por ruido.

Capacidades de los medios

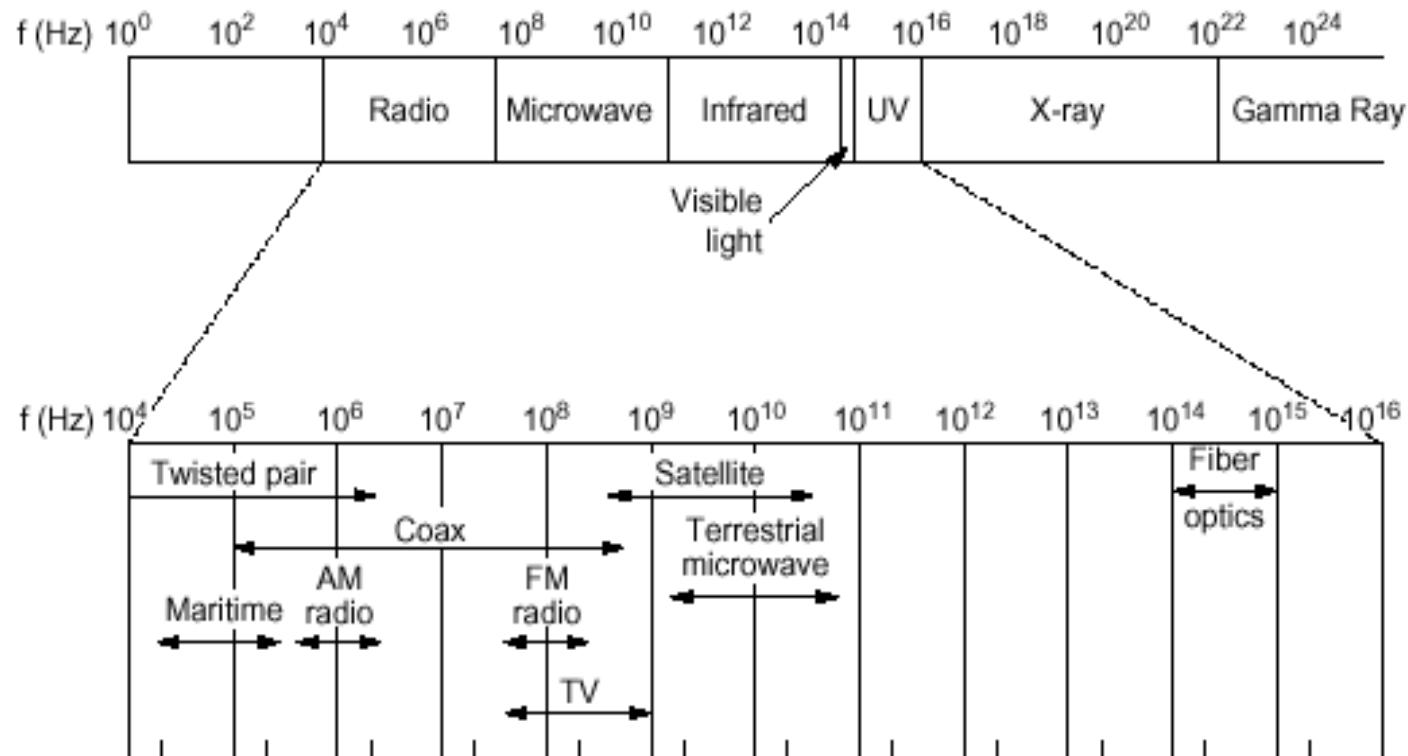
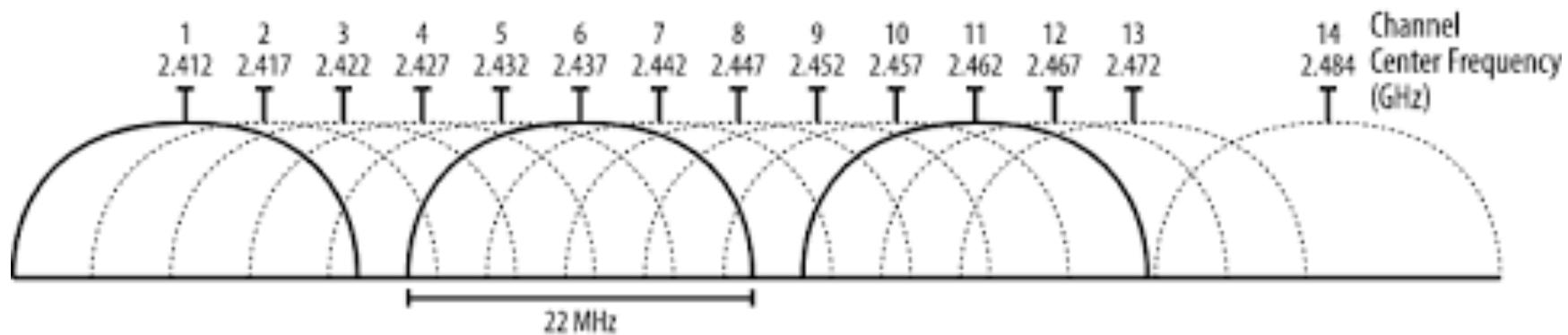


Fig. 2-11. The electromagnetic spectrum and its uses for communication.

Ancho de banda

- Rango de frecuencias en las que opera un sistema de comunicación.
- Ejemplo WiFi



WiFi

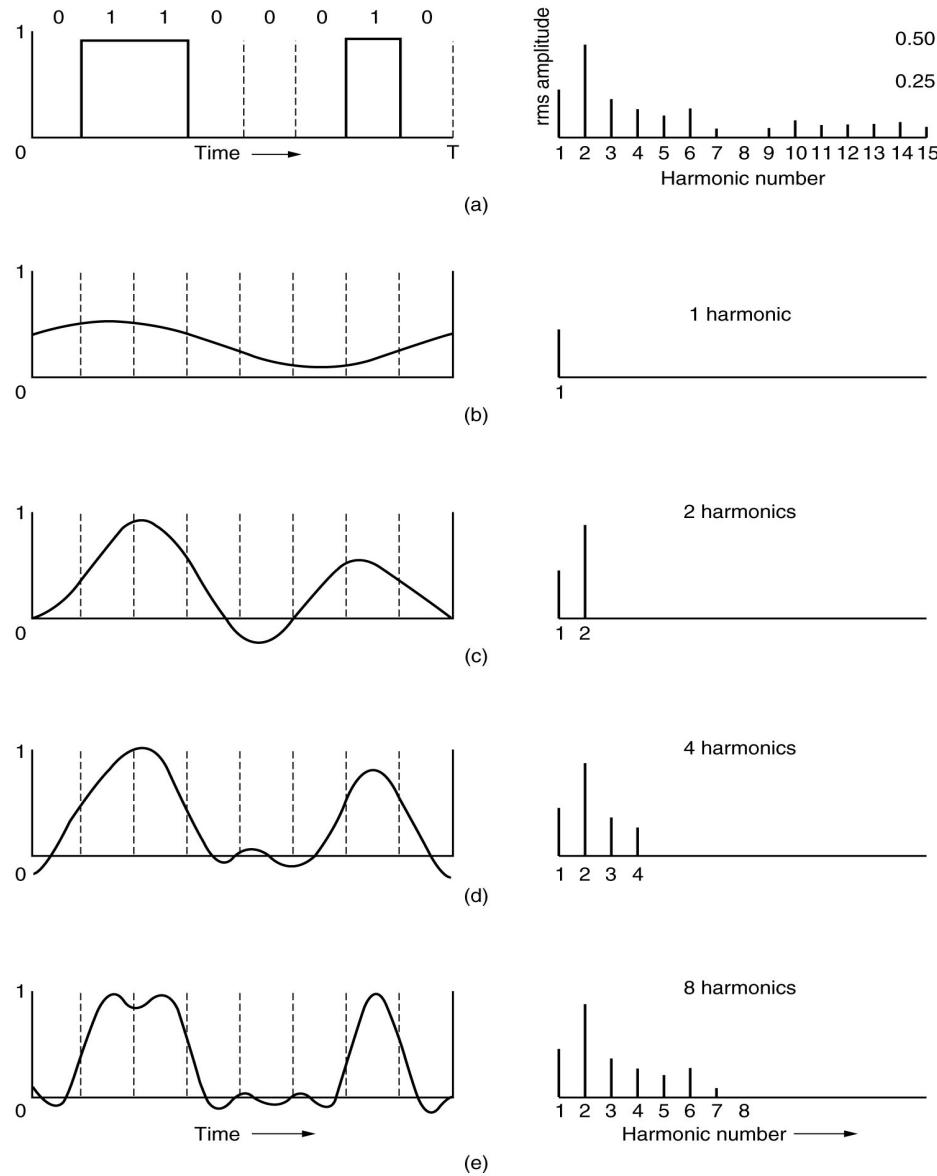
2.4GHZ BAND CHANNEL NUMBERS & FREQUENCIES

CHANNEL NUMBER	LOWER FREQUENCY MHZ	CENTER FREQUENCY MHZ	UPPER FREQUENCY MHZ
1	2401	2412	2423
2	2406	2417	2428
3	2411	2422	2433
4	2416	2427	2438
5	2421	2432	2443
6	2426	2437	2448
7	2431	2442	2453
8	2436	2447	2458
9	2441	2452	2463
10	2446	2457	2468
11	2451	2462	2473
12	2456	2467	2478
13	2461	2472	2483
14	2473	2484	2495

Velocidad o tasa de transmisión

- Tasa de transmisión de símbolos. Es el número de símbolos transmitidos por segundo (bauds)
- Tasa de transmisión de bits. Es el número de bits que se transmiten por segundo (bps)

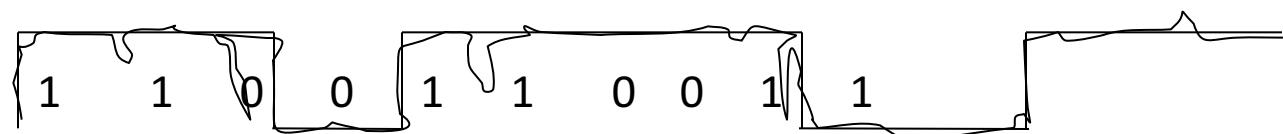
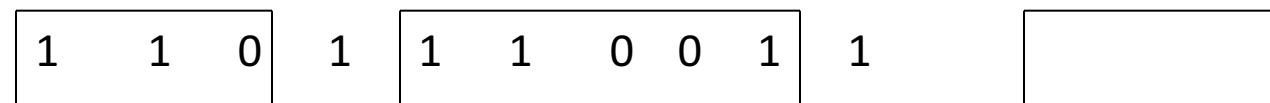
Ejemplo:
Transmisión de la letra “b”



Fuente: Tanenbaum

Velocidad de transmisión

- Fórmula de Nyquist
 - Si un canal tiene un ancho de banda B
 - $C = 2B$ bps Dos niveles por elemento
 - Caso general (ideal)
 - $C = 2B \log_2 (M)$ bps M = Niveles por elemento
 - Sin embargo, la velocidad se reduce porque la transmisión no es perfecta. Hay ruido

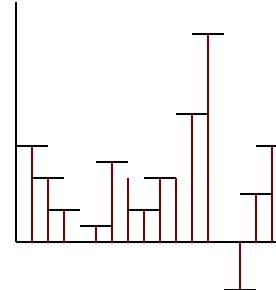
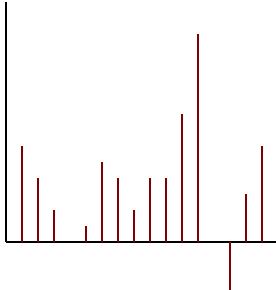
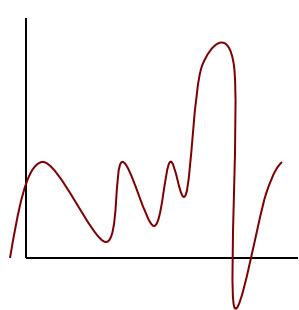
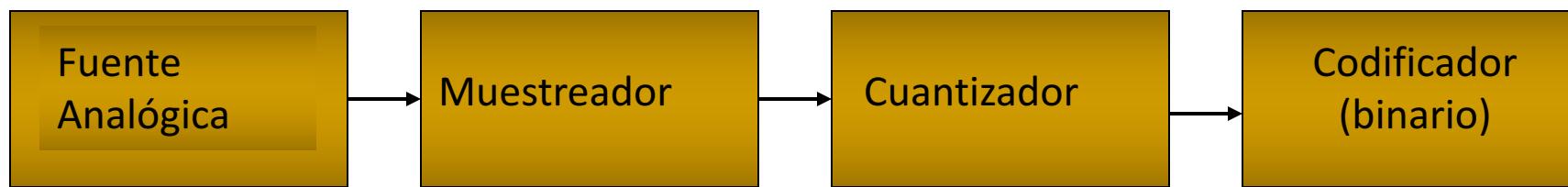


Teorema de Shannon

$$C = B \log_2 \left(1 + \frac{S}{N} \right)$$

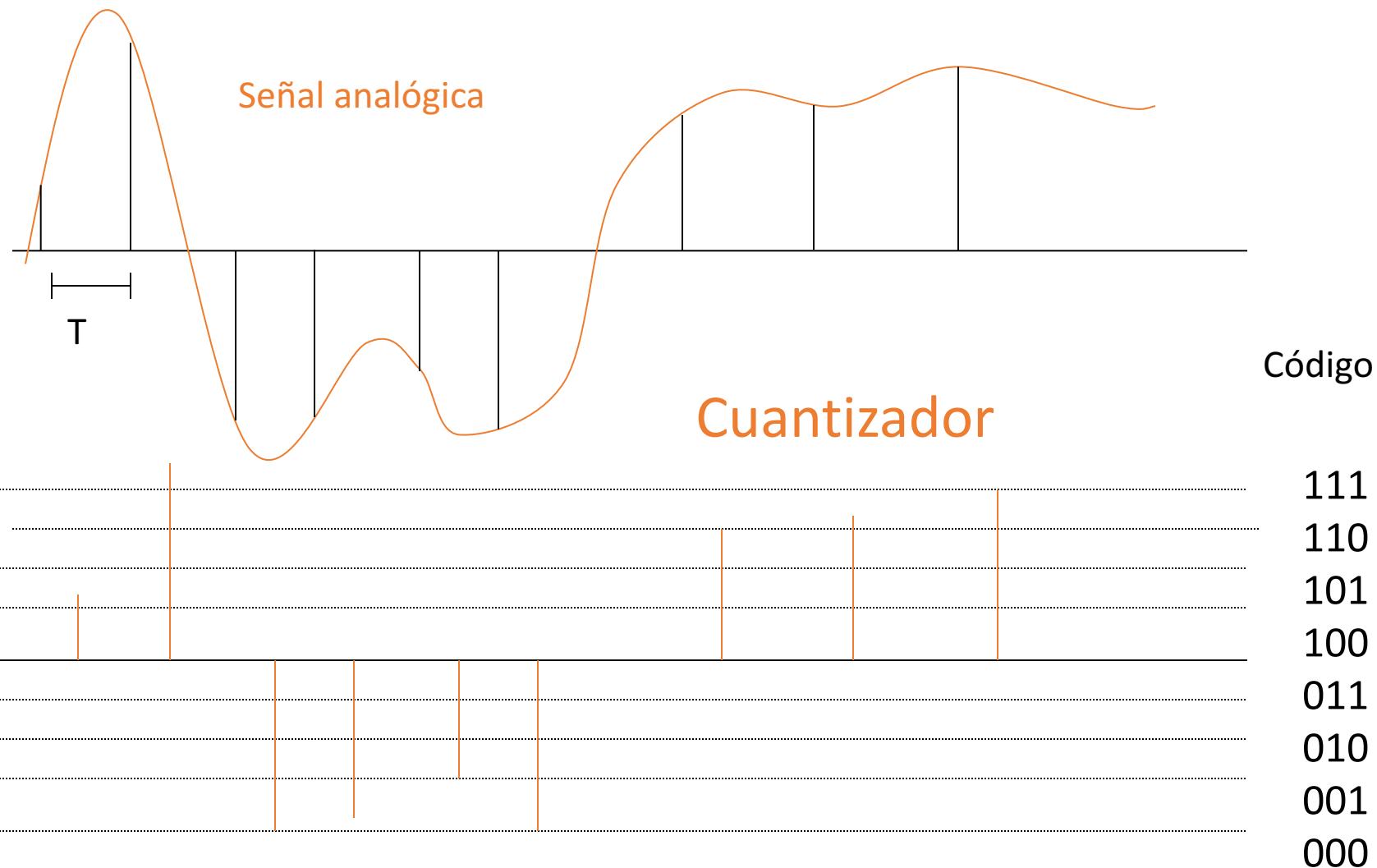
- Capacidad de un medio de transmisión
 - Relación señal a ruido = 422
 - Ancho de banda = 3300 Hz
 - C se acerca a 28.8 kbps
 - ¿Cómo trabaja un módem a 56 kbps? 228558-1

Conversión de analógica a digital (A/D)

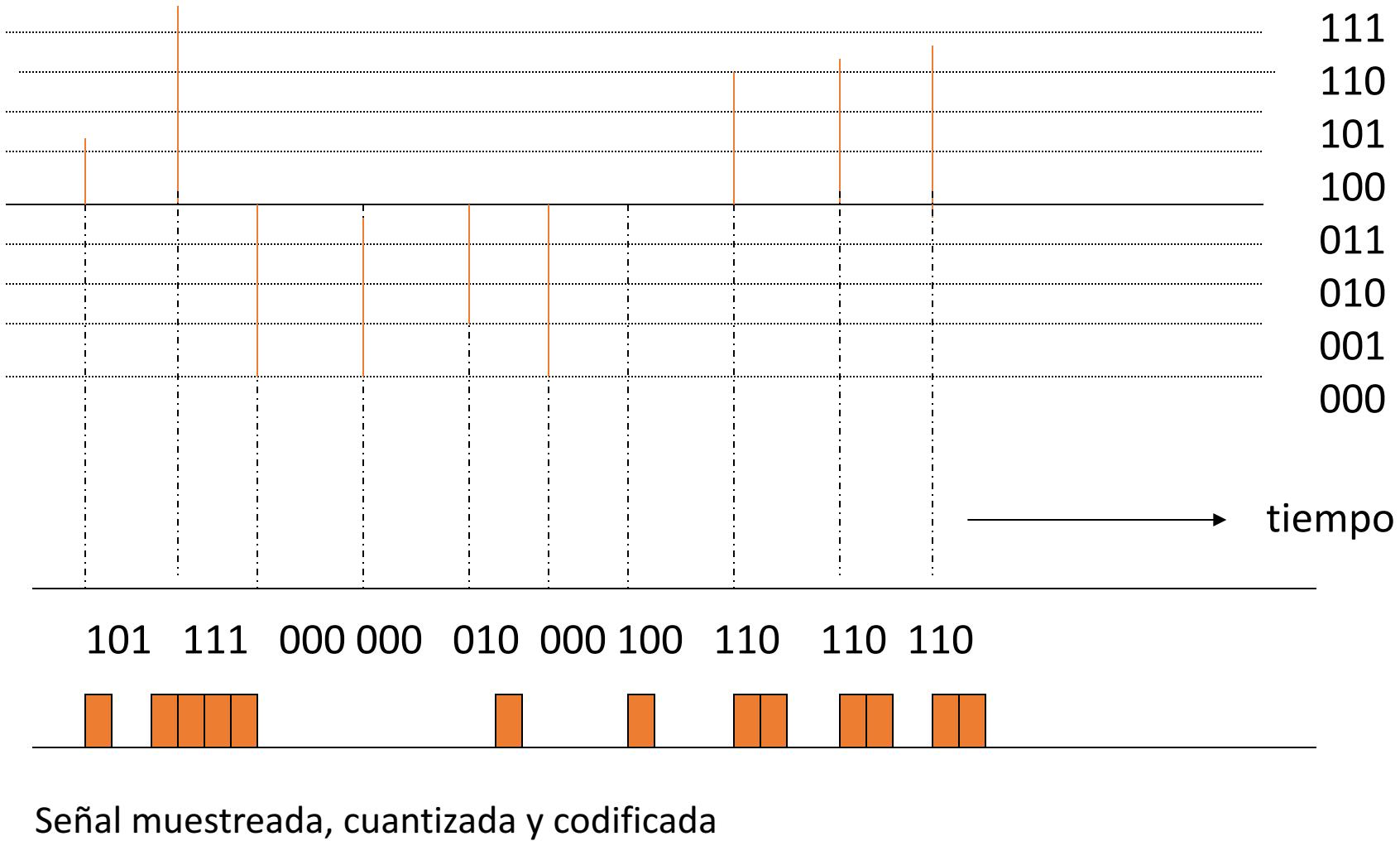


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Conversión A/D: muestreo y cuantización

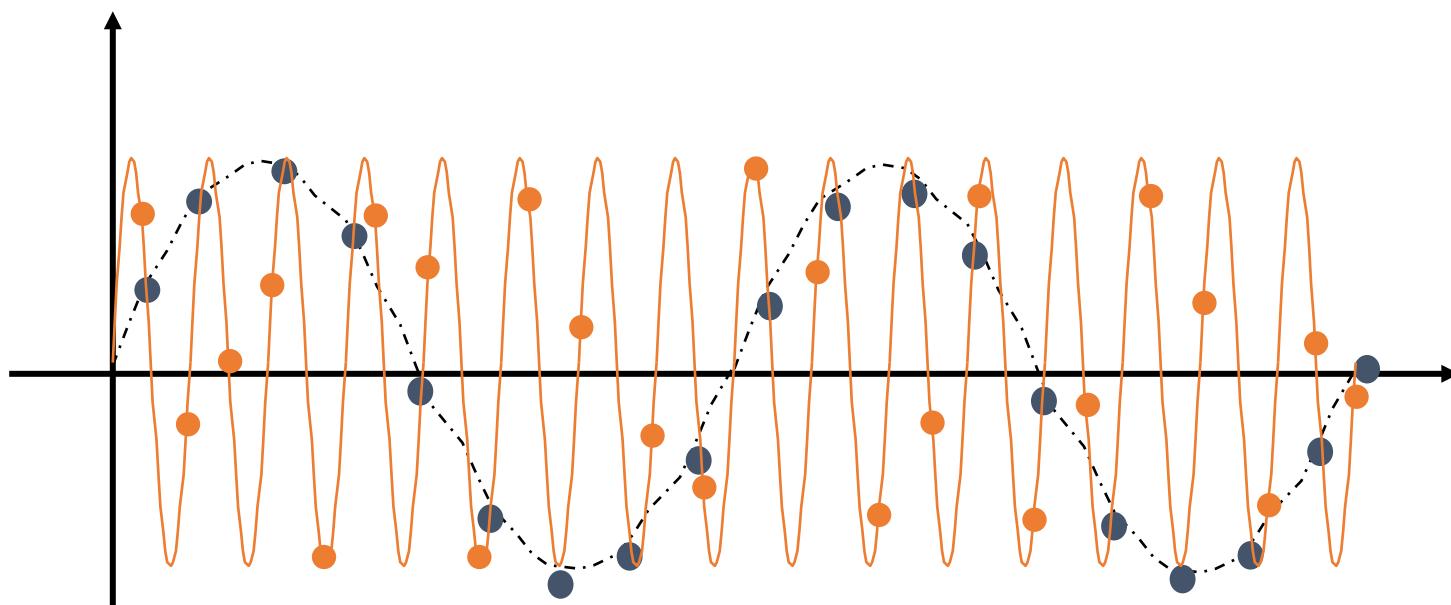


Conversión A/D: cuantización y codificación



Frecuencia de muestreo

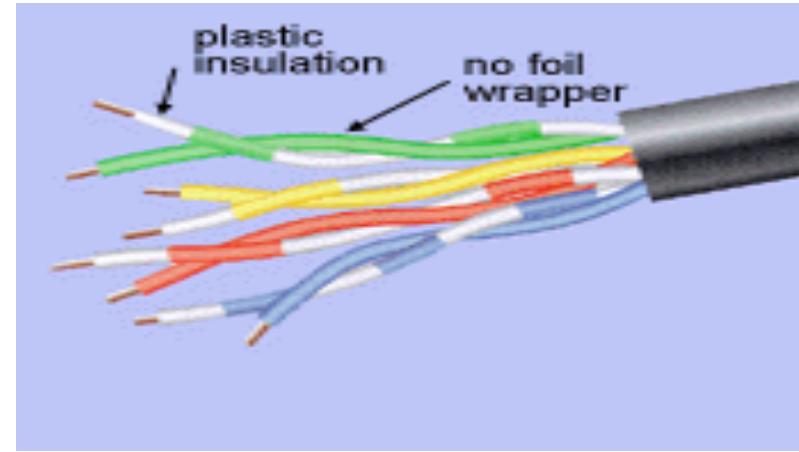
- El teorema de muestreo de Nyquist indica que deben tomarse al menos $2B$ muestras, donde B es la frecuencia máxima de la señal.



Medios guiados

Par trenzado

- Par de conductores de cobre aislados trenzados entre sí
- Económico, flexible y sumamente difundido en redes telefónicas (bucle de abonado) y redes locales
- Tres tipos:
 - no blindado (UTP)
 - Recubierto (FTP)
 - blindado (STP)



Par trenzado

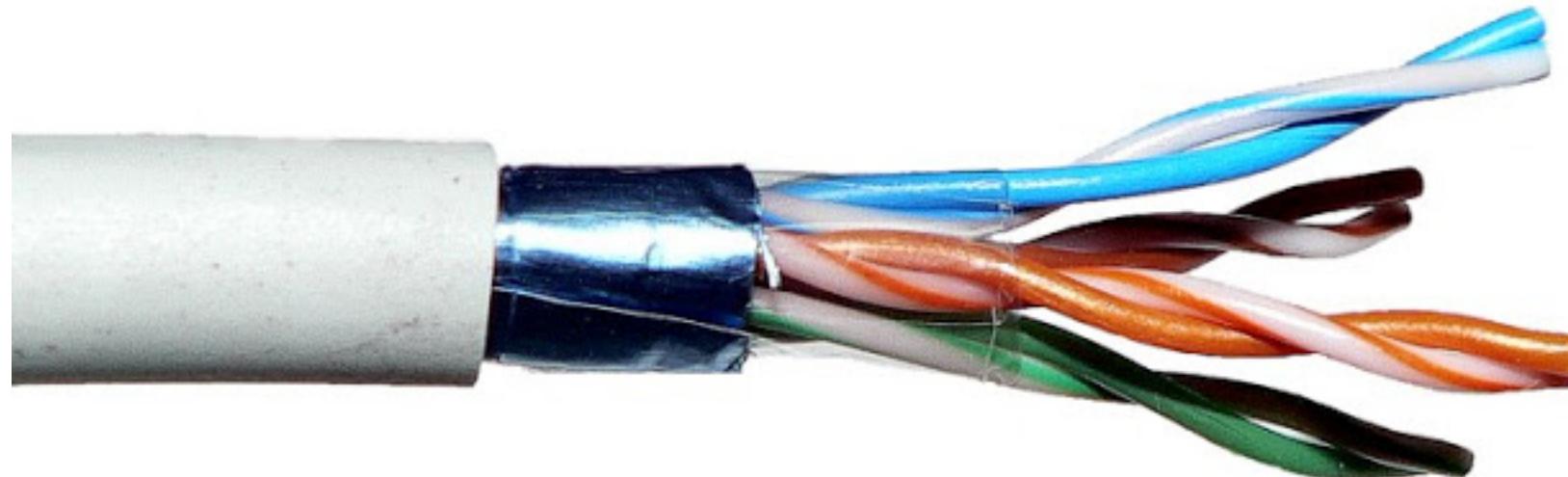
- Cada par es un canal de comunicación
- Diámetro de cada cable < 1mm
- El trenzado reduce la interferencia entre cables adyacentes (diafonía)
- Alcance depende de la frecuencia, pero limitado a distancias relativamente cortas: atenuación 3dB/km@1kHz
 - Amplificadores cada 5 a 6 km (analógico) y repetidores cada 2 ó 3 km (digital)
- Susceptible al ruido pues no se eliminan todas las interferencias (sobre todo en UTP)

UTP – Estándar EIA/TIA - 568

- Categoría 1: Comunicaciones telefónicas únicamente
- Categoría 2: Transmisión de datos a 4 MHz
- Categoría 3: Tasas hasta 16 MHz
- Categoría 4: Tasas hasta 20 MHz
- Categoría 5: Tasas hasta 100 MHz
- Categoría 6: Tasas hasta 200 MHz
- Categoría 7: Tasas hasta 600 MHz

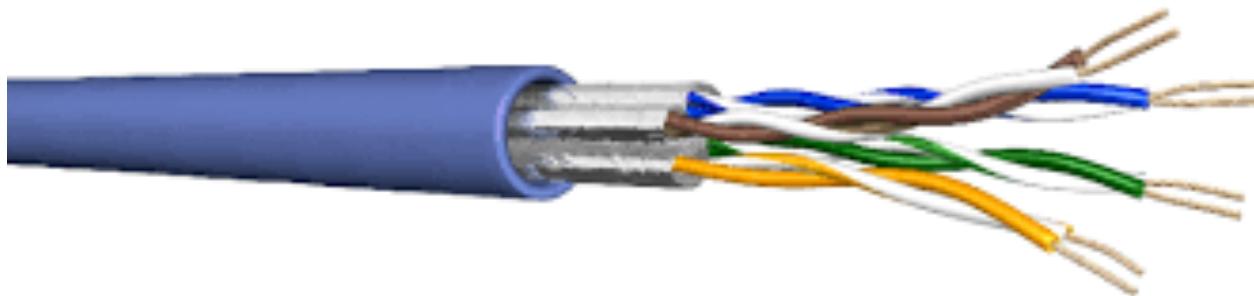
Cable FTP

Cable FTP (Foiled Twisted Pair)

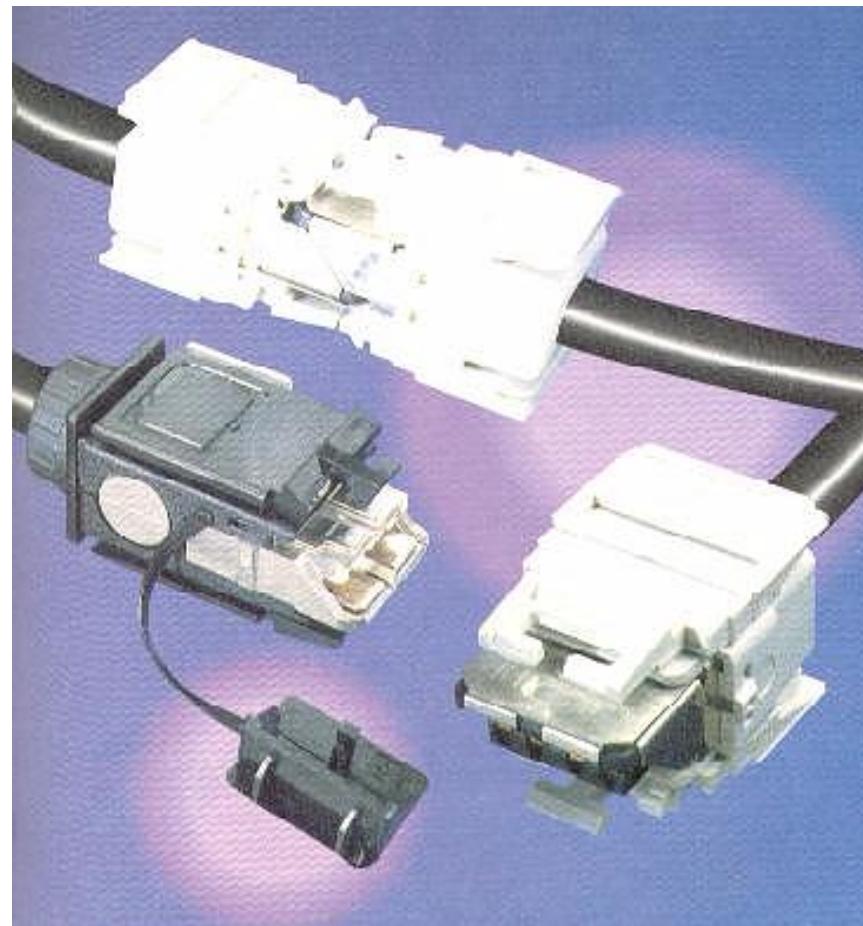


STP

- Pares de cobre recubiertos con malla metálica
- El recubrimiento reduce la interferencia y el ruido eléctrico
- Más costoso y menos flexible que UTP

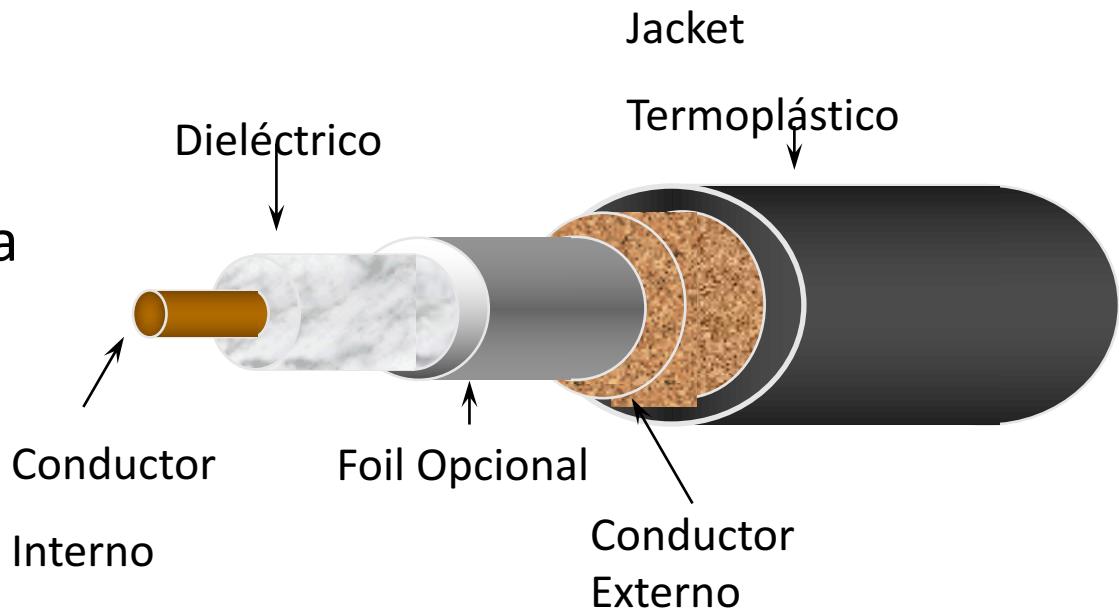


STP-A: Sistema Blindado 150 Ohms



Cable coaxial

- Conductor central de cobre rodeado por otro conductor en forma de malla circular y separados por un medio dieléctrico.
- Mayor inmunidad que par trenzado, puede cubrir mayores distancias a mayores frecuencias
- Dos clases:
 - Banda base: transmisión digital
 - Banda amplia: transmisión analógica



Cable coaxial

- La frecuencia depende de la distancia y de las características del cable
 - 1 a 2 GHz para 1 km
 - 300 MHz para 100 km
- Transmisión digital en configuración de banda amplia requiere generalmente de un par de cables unidireccionales
- Más costoso y difícil de instalar y manipular, ha sido ampliamente sustituido por UTP categoría 5 en redes locales

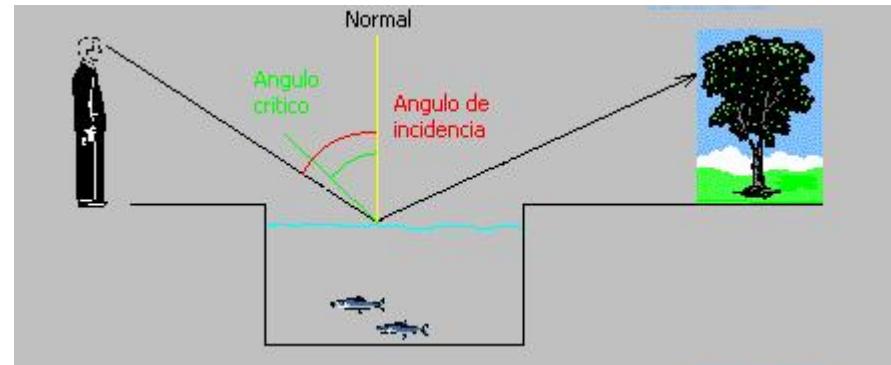
Fibra óptica

- Fibra de vidrio o plástico (núcleo) a través de la cual se transmite la señal en forma de energía luminosa
- El núcleo está rodeado por un revestimiento, también de vidrio o plástico con un índice de refracción menor
- Es una forma de guía de onda en la que la señal óptica se propaga por la reflexión interna entre el núcleo y el revestimiento



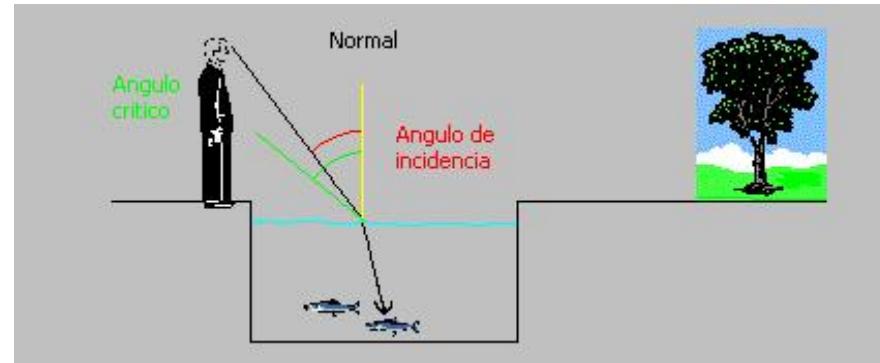
Principio de transmisión

- Ángulo de incidencia mayor al ángulo crítico
- $n_1 > n_2$



Reflexión

- Ángulo de incidencia menor al ángulo crítico
 - $n_1 > n_2$
- n es el índice de refracción



Refracción

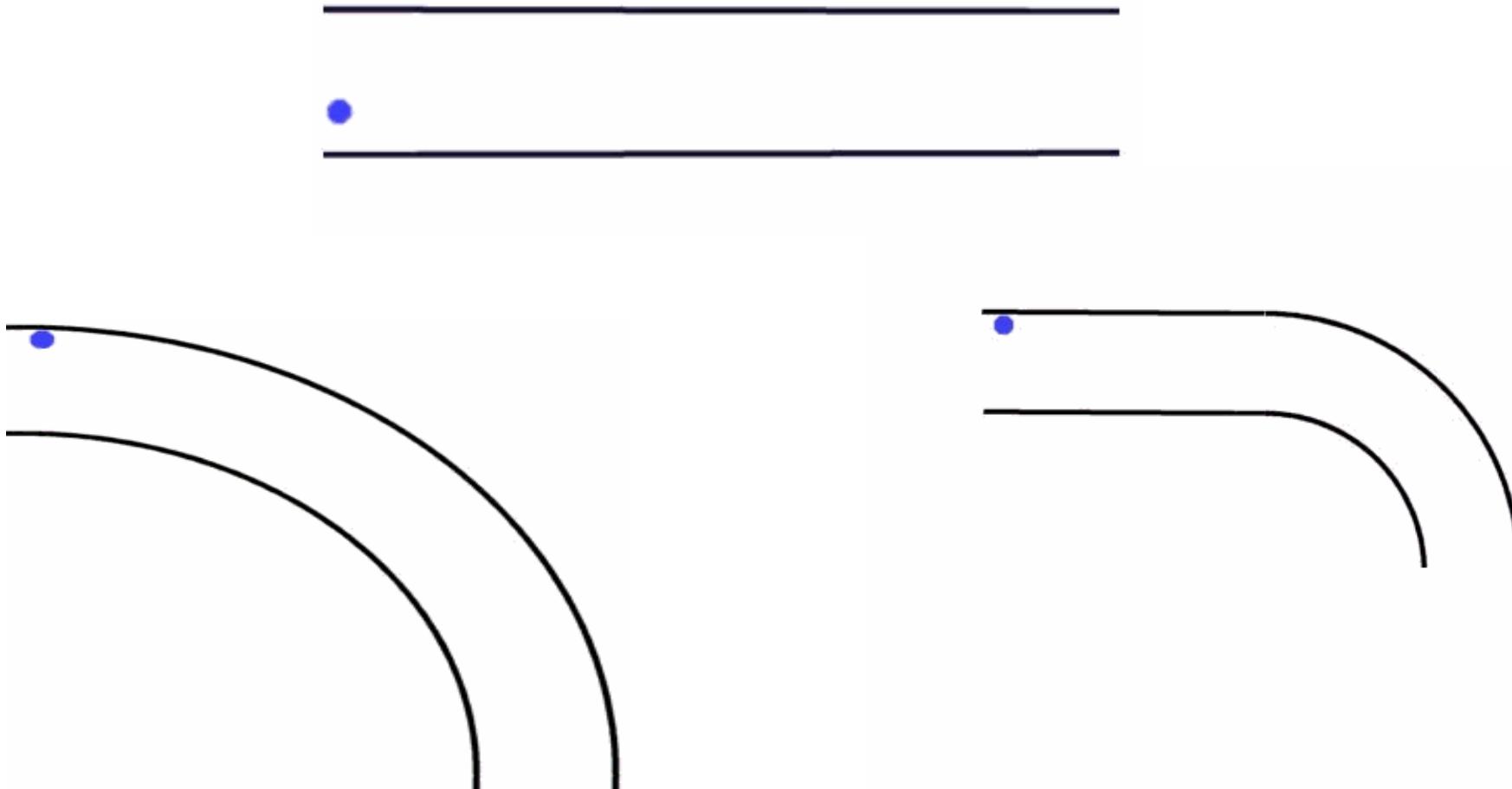
Características

- Menor atenuación que par trenzado y coaxial, permite transmitir señales a distancias mucho mayores sin necesidad de amplificación
- Transmite luz, por lo que es inmune a interferencias electromagnéticas
- Inmune a factores ambientales (oxidación, tormentas eléctricas, etc.)
- Capacidad de transmitir 500 Gbps con una sola longitud de onda.
- Más delgada y más ligera que el par trenzado
- Seguridad: muy difícil de intervenir

Características (cont.)

- Atenuación
 - Absorción por calor, fugas, impurezas, dobleces, vibración atómica
- Muy costosa
 - Instalación, mantenimiento, interfaces (sobre todo monomodal)
- Poco flexible: no soporta dobleces con grandes ángulos
- Relativamente frágil
- Usos: Enlaces larga distancia, redes metropolitanas, backbone redes LAN

Angulo crítico de flexión



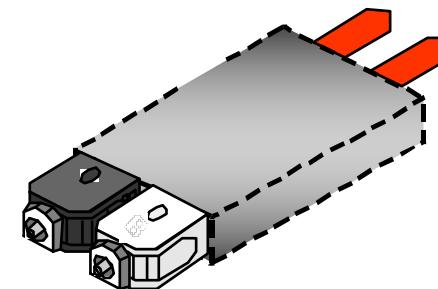
Conectores 568ST



Conectores 568SC



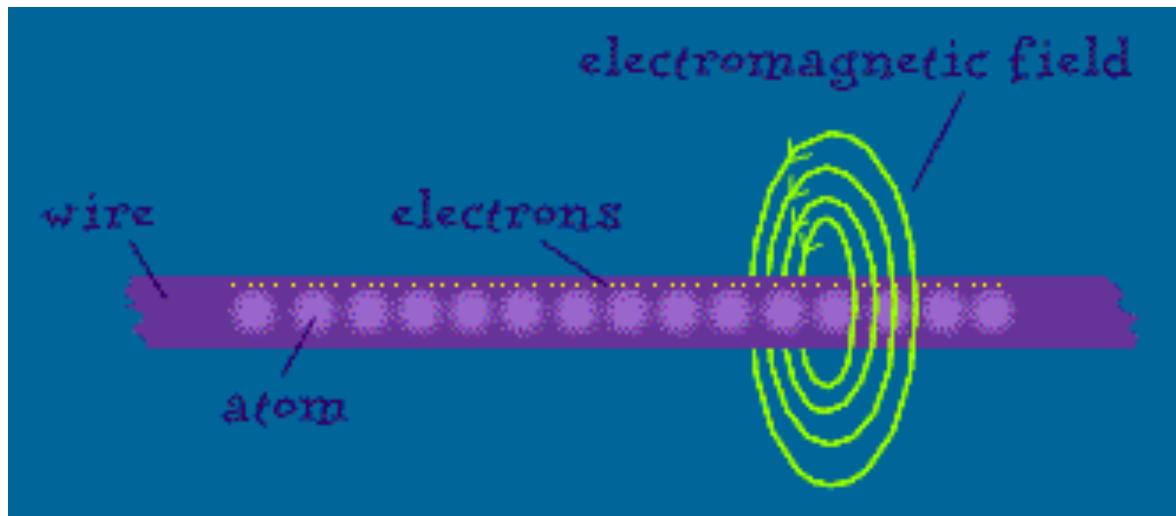
Conectores 568-SC



Medios no guiados

Ondas electromagnéticas

- La corriente eléctrica genera un campo eléctrico que induce un campo magnético que a su vez genera un campo eléctrico...
- Principio de radiación de las antenas



Medios no guiados

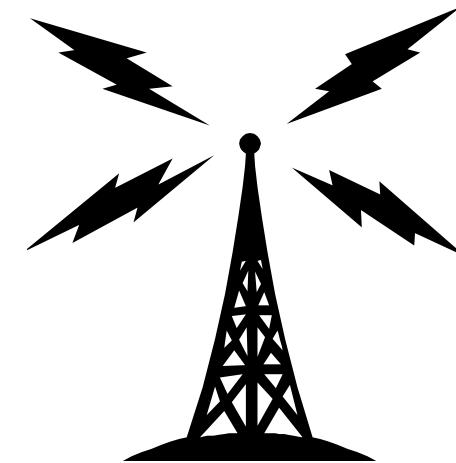
- El espacio o el aire es el medio de propagación de las ondas electromagnéticas. No se requiere de conexión física
- Emisor y receptor pueden ser fijos o móviles
- Amplia gama de espectro: servicios con requerimientos grandes de ancho de banda o limitados
- Puede implementarse rápidamente
- Propenso a interferencias
- Estricto control de acceso y utilización del medio

Aplicaciones

- Radiodifusión (radio, TV, datos)
- Redes locales y metropolitanas
- Telefonía celular
- Servicios de *trunking*
- Aplicaciones ICM y de entretenimiento
- Radiolocalización
- Navegación
- ...

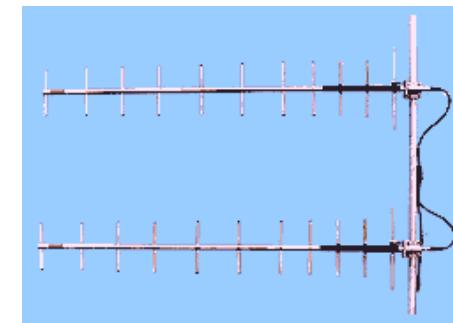
Radiodifusión

- Propagación omnidireccional de señales terrenas
- Antenas relativamente sencillas sin necesidad de alineación muy precisa
- Difusión de radio AM, FM
- Difusión de televisión VHF, UHF
- Servicios de datos

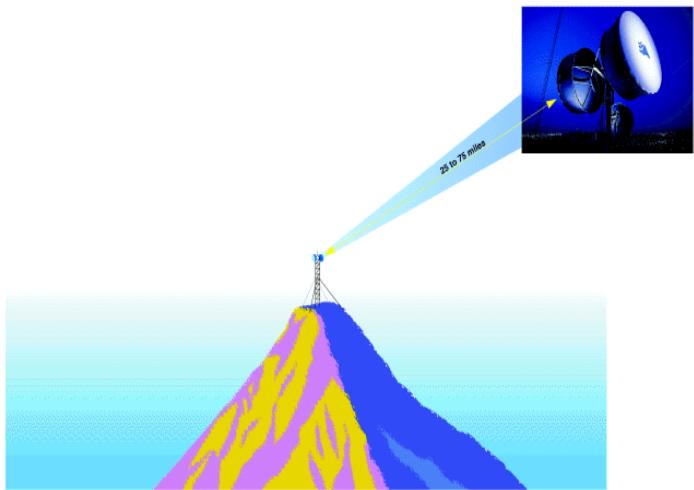


Microondas

- Propagación en línea de vista, requiere de alineación muy precisa
- Utiliza antenas altamente direccionales para minimizar interferencia
- Frecuencias dedicadas y reguladas por COFETEL
- Señales de microondas pueden atravesar paredes y barreras físicas
- Exposición a radiaciones es nociva para la salud
- Propensa a interferencia de otras fuentes



Microondas terrestres

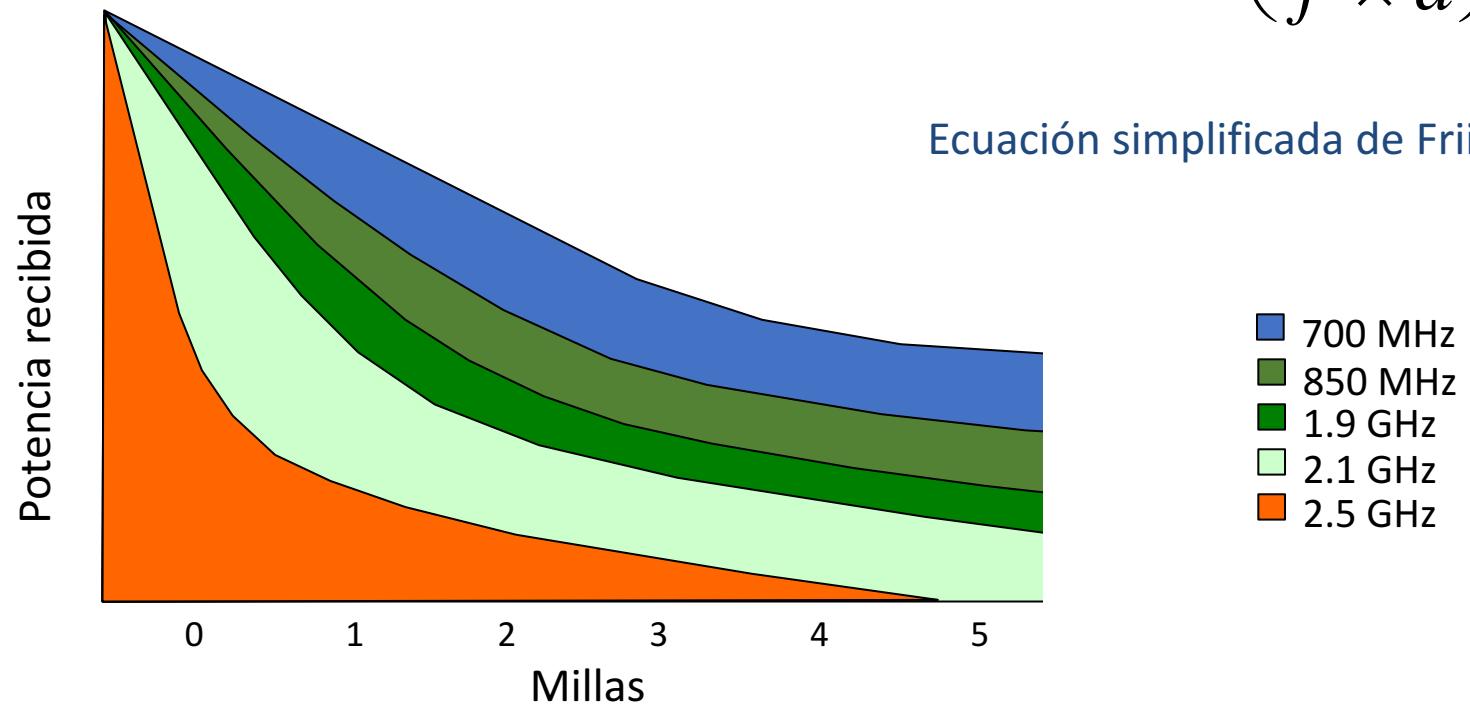


- Rangos de frecuencia de 2 a 40 GHz
- Relativamente cara aunque puede resultar la tecnología más económica en el corto plazo o cuando la instalación física no es viable
- Distancia entre repetidores de 40 km a 100 km
- Tasas de transmisión de decenas de Mbps, aunque 500 Mbps son factibles
- Telecomunicaciones de media y larga distancia
- Enlaces punto a punto entre edificios
- Voz, televisión y redes de datos privadas

Frecuencia vs cobertura

$$P_{rx} = P_{tx} \left(\frac{1}{f \times d} \right)^2$$

Ecuación simplificada de Friis



Fuente: Propia con datos de Morgan Stanley

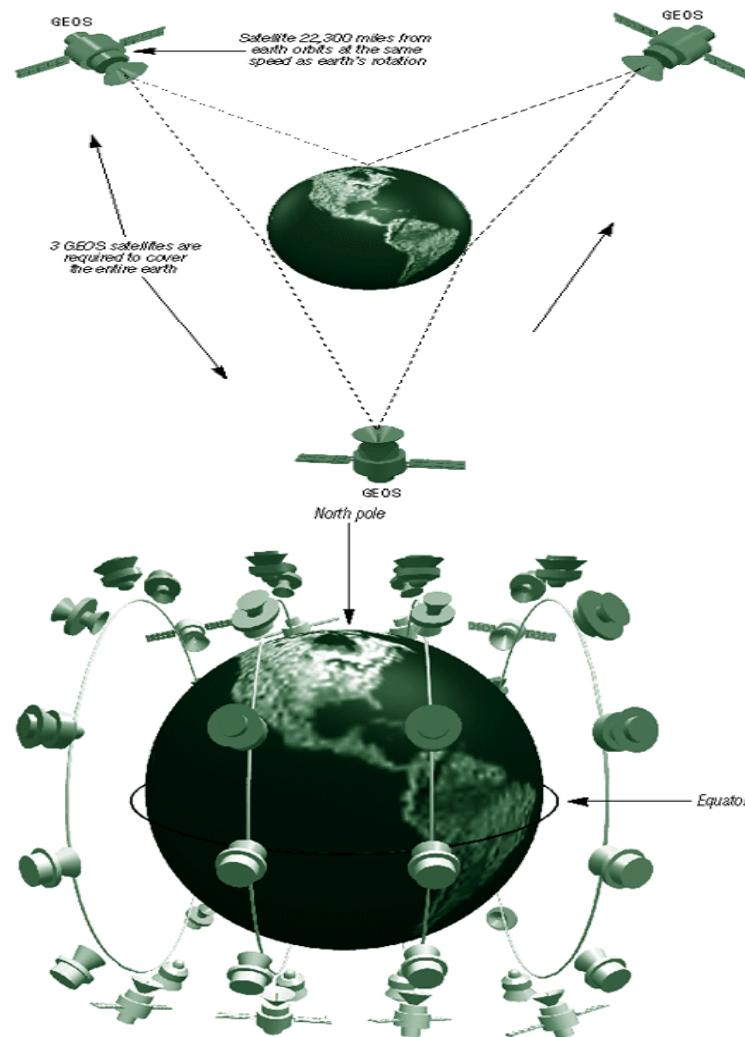
Frecuencia vs cobertura

Frecuencia (GHz)	Distancia (km)
2	60
4-6	50
7-8	45
11	40
13	35
15	20
20	10
30	5
60	0.5

Para una potencia fija

Enlaces satelitales

- Estación de relevo de microondas en el espacio, funciona como un amplificador o como un repetidor
- Conectividad
 - punto a punto para enlazar dos estaciones terrenas
 - Punto multipunto para servicios de difusión
- Huella puede ser amplia o angosta
- Categorías
 - LEO, MEO, GEO



Enlaces satelitales

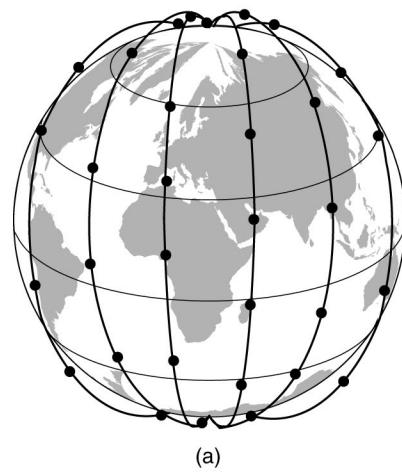
- Anchos de banda de 36 A 72 Mbps en canales de 64 kbps a 512 kbps
- Bandas de frecuencia de operación (transponders):
 - Banda C: 3.7 - 4.2 5.925 - 6.425 GHz
 - Banda Ku: 11.7 - 12.2 14 -14.5 GHz
 - Banda L: 1.6465 - 1.66 1.545 - 1.5585 GHz
- Orbita geoestacionaria
 - Cinturon de Clark: 35,784 km sobre el ecuador
 - Antenas en posición fija

Enlaces satelitales

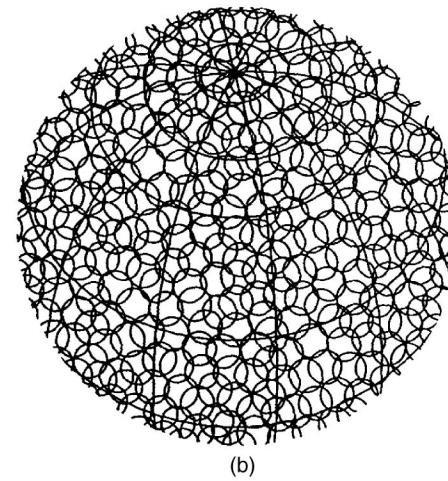
- Usos
 - Difusión de televisión
 - Telefonía larga distancia
 - Redes de datos privadas
- Limitaciones
 - Retraso: satélite geoestacionario 250 ms
 - Seguridad
 - Susceptibilidad a condiciones atmosféricas (> 10GHz)
 - Visibilidad desde la tierra

Satélites de órbita baja

- LEO
- 750 a 1500 Km. de altura
- Ejemplos:
 - Iridium 66 satélites
 - Globalstar 48
 - SkyBridge 80

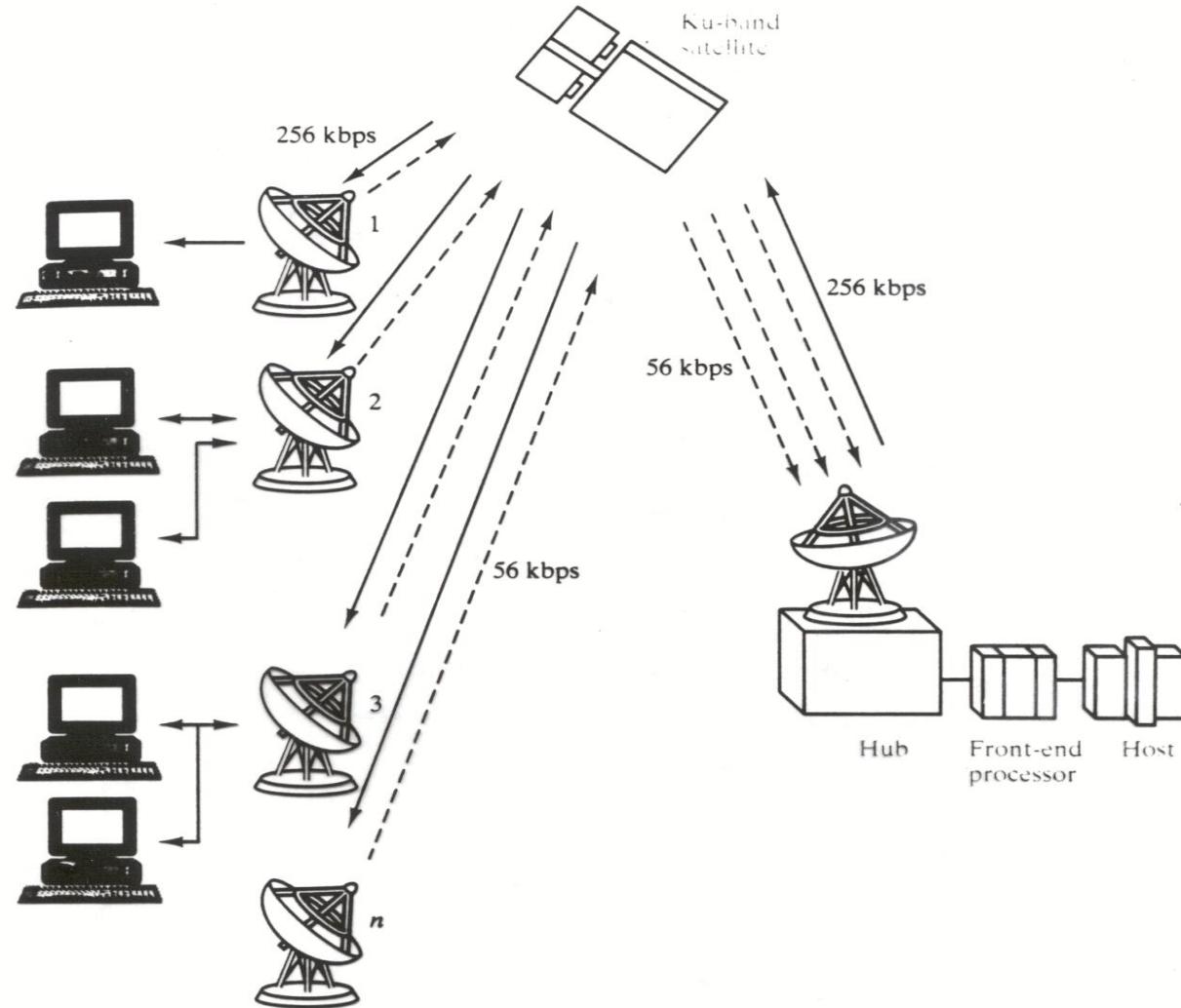


(a)



(b)

VSAT: Very small aperture terminals



VSAT

- Alternativa de bajo costo para empresas
- Comparten satélite para transmitir información hacia un nodo concentrador
- El concentrador coordina la comunicación entre suscriptores
- Transmisión con mucha potencia, permite que las antenas receptoras tengan diámetro pequeño (0.6 a 3.8 m)

Infrarrojo

- Transmisor modula haz de luz infrarroja
- Se requiere línea de vista o reflexión en una superficie clara (por ejemplo, el techo)
- Tasas de transmisión hasta de 20 Mbps
- No requiere licencia
- Cobertura limitada: potencia de emisión restringida para evitar daños
- Conectividad punto a punto
- Inherentemente seguro pues las ondas infrarrojo no penetran las paredes
- Luz ambiental puede ser una fuente de ruido. Necesario filtros ópticos pasa bandas

Comparación entre medios

	P.Trenzado	Coaxial	F. Optica	μOndas	Satélite
Costo	Muy bajo	Bajo	Medio	Alto	Muy alto
Velocidad	Muy baja	Media	Muy alta	Alta	Alta
Disponibilidad	Buena	Buena	Buena	Buena	Media, Buena
Escalabilidad	Media	Buena (local)	Buena	Buena	Buena
Errores	Media	Buena	Muy buena	Media	Media
Seguridad	Media	Media	Muy buena	Mala	Mala
Distancia	Buena	Mala	Buena	Buena	Buena

The Data Link Layer

Chapter 3

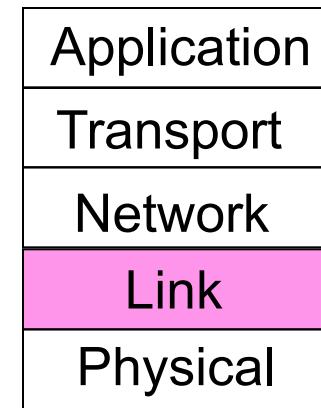
- Data Link Layer Design Issues
- Error Detection and Correction
- Elementary Data Link Protocols
- Sliding Window Protocols
- Example Data Link Protocols

Revised: August 2011

The Data Link Layer

Responsible for delivering frames of information over a single link

- Handles transmission errors and regulates the flow of data

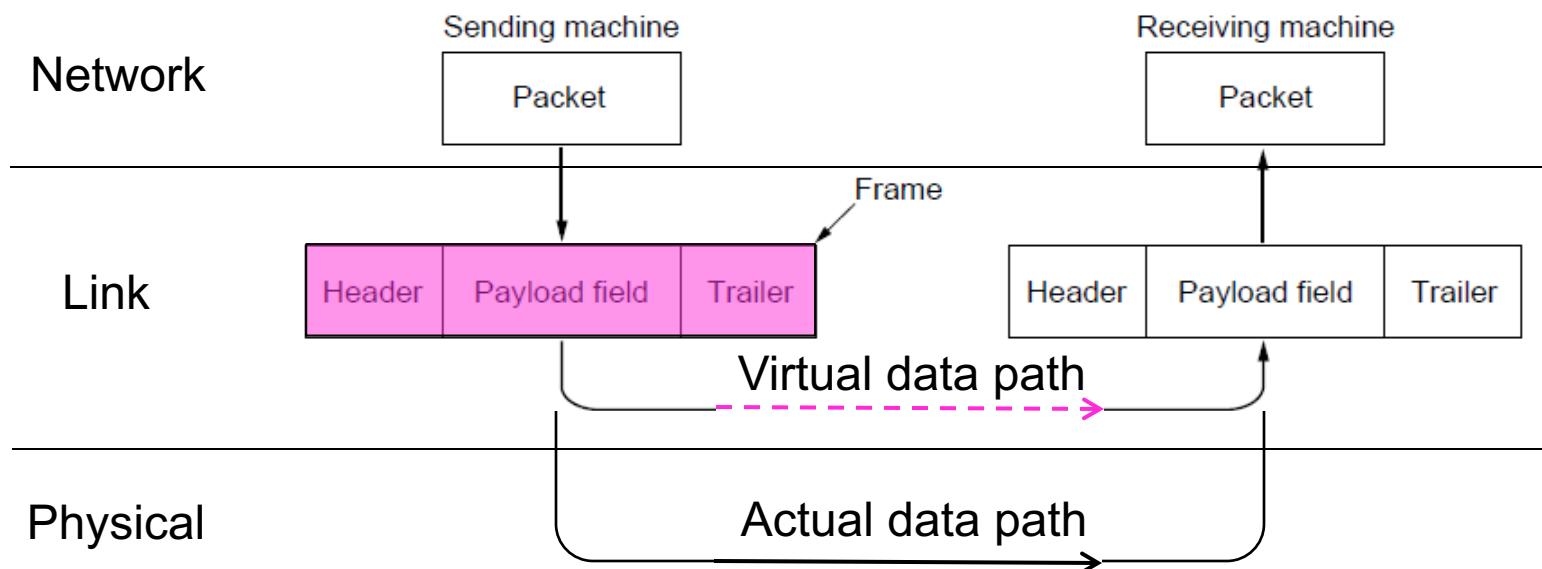


Data Link Layer Design Issues

- Frames »
- Possible services »
- Framing methods »
- Error control »
- Flow control »

Frames

Link layer accepts packets from the network layer, and encapsulates them into frames that it sends using the physical layer; reception is the opposite process



Possible Services

Unacknowledged connectionless service

- Frame is sent with no connection / error recovery
- Ethernet is example

Acknowledged connectionless service

- Frame is sent with retransmissions if needed
- Example is 802.11

Acknowledged connection-oriented service

- Connection is set up; rare

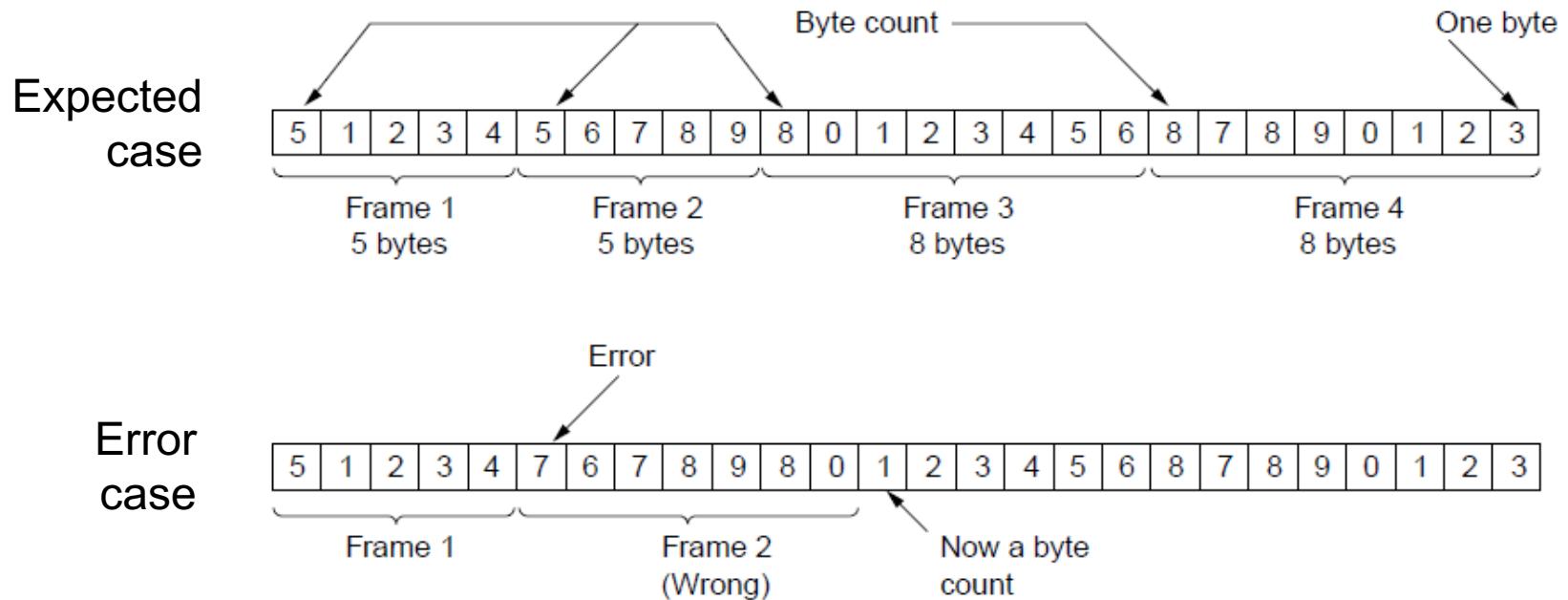
Framing Methods

- Byte count »
- Flag bytes with byte stuffing »
- Flag bits with bit stuffing »
- Physical layer coding violations
 - Use non-data symbol to indicate frame

Framing – Byte count

Frame begins with a count of the number of bytes in it

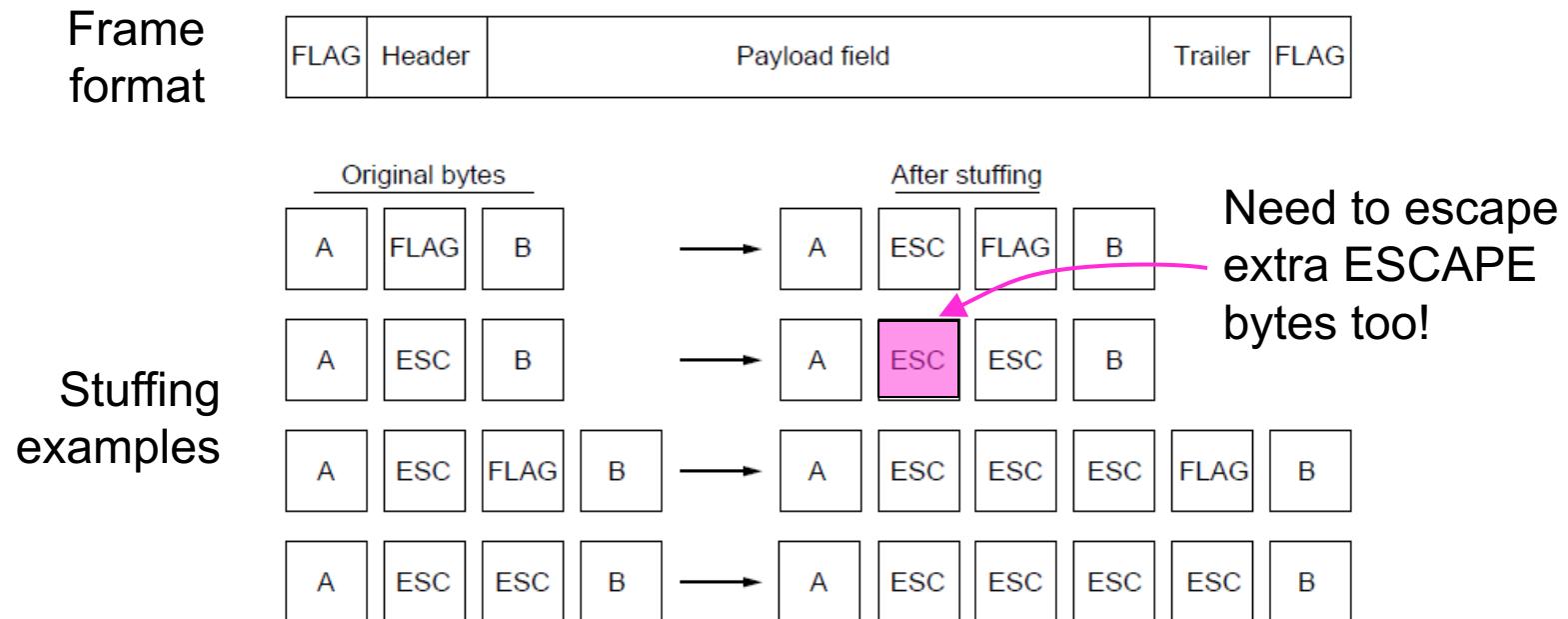
- Simple, but difficult to resynchronize after an error



Framing – Byte stuffing

Special flag bytes delimit frames; occurrences of flags in the data must be stuffed (escaped)

- Longer, but easy to resynchronize after error



Framing – Bit stuffing

Stuffing done at the bit level:

- Frame flag has six consecutive 1s (not shown)
- On transmit, after five 1s in the data, a 0 is added
- On receive, a 0 after five 1s is deleted

Data bits 0 1 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 1 0

Transmitted bits
with stuffing 0 1 1 0 1 1 1 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 0 1 0 0 1 0

Stuffed bits

Error Control

Error control repairs frames that are received in error

- Requires errors to be detected at the receiver
- Typically retransmit the unacknowledged frames
- Timer protects against lost acknowledgements

Detecting errors and retransmissions are next topics.

Flow Control

Prevents a fast sender from out-pacing a slow receiver

- Receiver gives feedback on the data it can accept
- Rare in the Link layer as NICs run at “wire speed”
 - Receiver can take data as fast as it can be sent

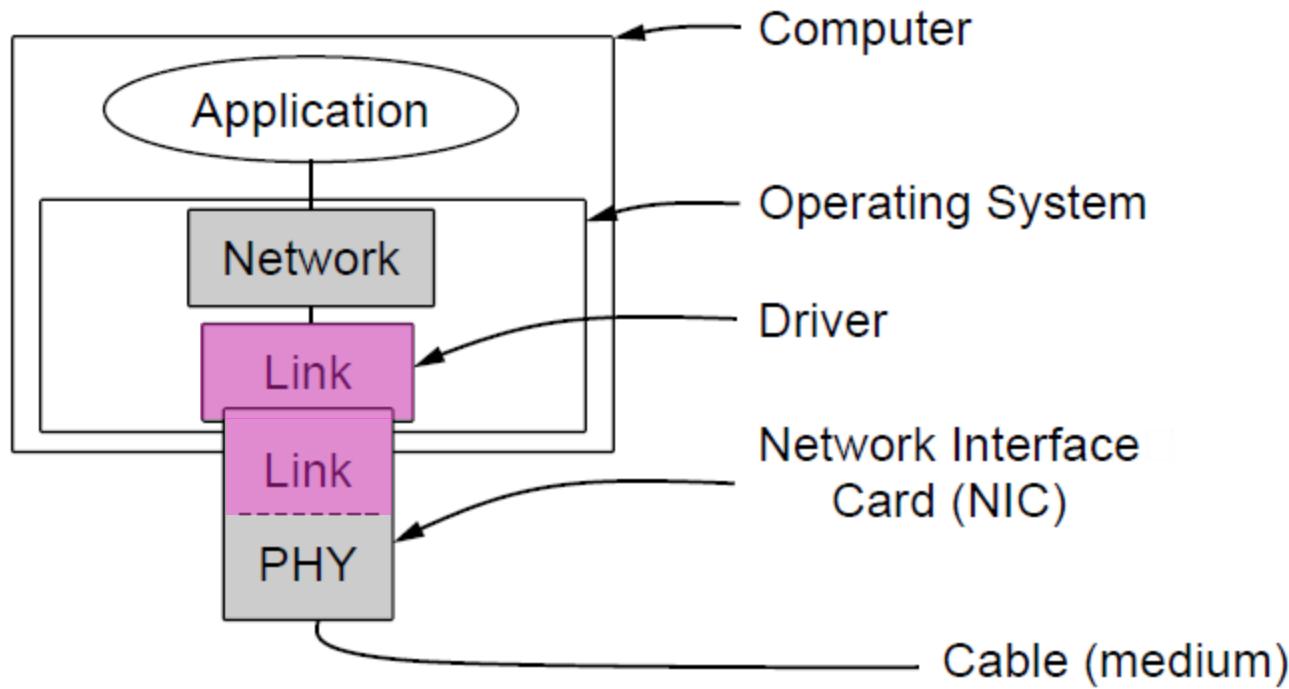
Flow control is a topic in the Link and Transport layers.

Elementary Data Link Protocols

- Link layer environment »
- Utopian Simplex Protocol »
- Stop-and-Wait Protocol for Error-free channel »
- Stop-and-Wait Protocol for Noisy channel »

Link layer environment (1)

Commonly implemented as NICs and OS drivers;
network layer (IP) is often OS software



Utopian Simplex Protocol

An optimistic protocol (p1) to get us started

- Assumes no errors, and receiver as fast as sender
- Considers one-way data transfer

```
void sender1(void)
{
    frame s;
    packet buffer;

    while (true) {
        from_network_layer(&buffer);
        s.info = buffer;
        to_physical_layer(&s);
    }
}
```

Sender loops blasting frames

```
void receiver1(void)
{
    frame r;
    event_type event;

    while (true) {
        wait_for_event(&event);
        from_physical_layer(&r);
        to_network_layer(&r.info);
    }
}
```

Receiver loops eating frames

- That's it, no error or flow control ...

Stop-and-Wait – Error-free channel

Protocol (p2) ensures sender can't outpace receiver:

- Receiver returns a dummy frame (ack) when ready
- Only one frame out at a time – called stop-and-wait
- We added flow control!

```
void sender2(void)
{
    frame s;
    packet buffer;
    event_type event;

    while (true) {
        from_network_layer(&buffer);
        s.info = buffer;
        to_physical_layer(&s);
        wait_for_event(&event);
    }
}
```

Sender waits to for ack after passing frame to physical layer

```
void receiver2(void)
{
    frame r, s;
    event_type event;
    while (true) {
        wait_for_event(&event);
        from_physical_layer(&r);
        to_network_layer(&r.info);
        to_physical_layer(&s);
    }
}
```

Receiver sends ack after passing frame to network layer

Stop-and-Wait – Noisy channel (1)

ARQ (Automatic Repeat reQuest) adds error control

- Receiver acks frames that are correctly delivered
- Sender sets timer and resends frame if no ack)

For correctness, frames and acks must be numbered

- Else receiver can't tell retransmission (due to lost ack or early timer) from new frame
- For stop-and-wait, 2 numbers (1 bit) are sufficient

Sliding Window Protocols

- Sliding Window concept »
- One-bit Sliding Window »
- Go-Back-N »
- Selective Repeat »

Sliding Window concept (1)

Sender maintains window of frames it can send

- Needs to buffer them for possible retransmission
- Window advances with next acknowledgements

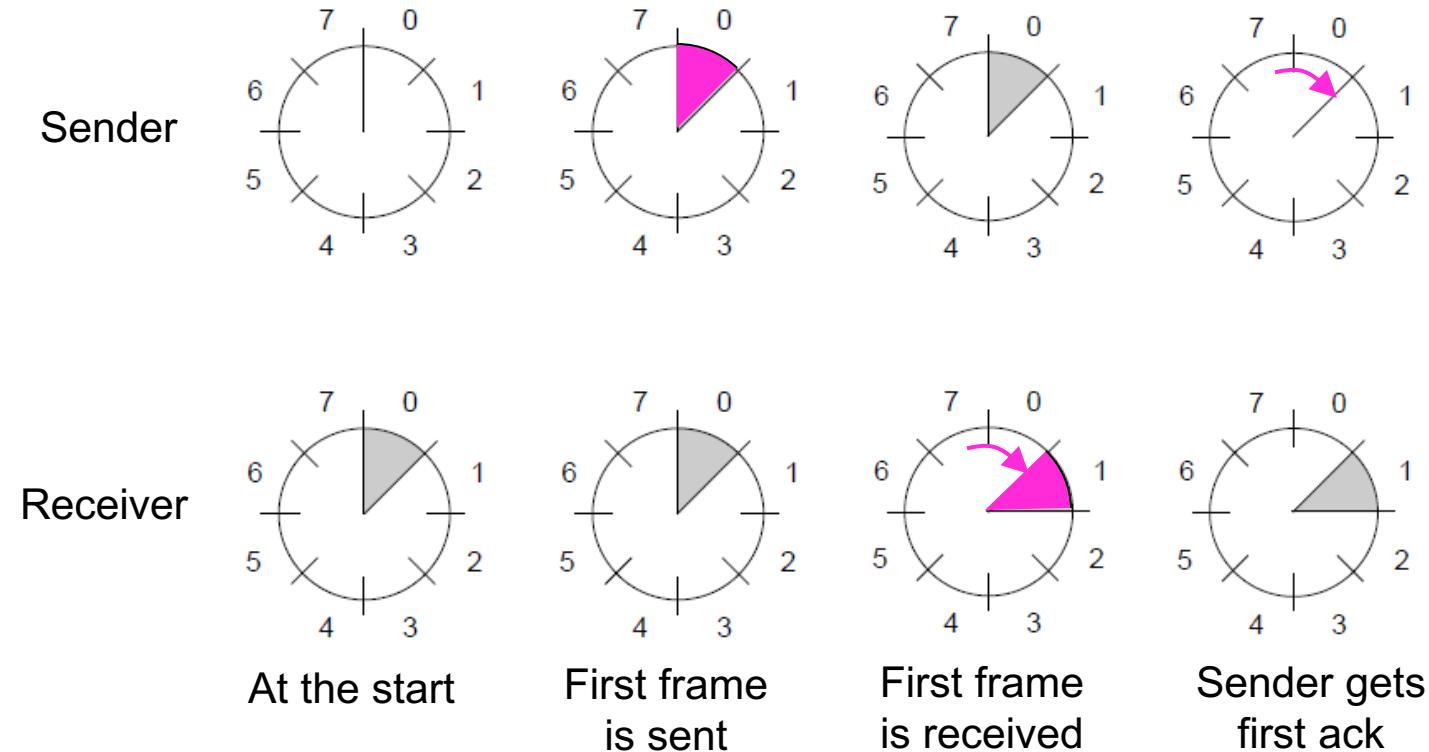
Receiver maintains window of frames it can receive

- Needs to keep buffer space for arrivals
- Window advances with in-order arrivals

Sliding Window concept (2)

A sliding window advancing at the sender and receiver

- Ex: window size is 1, with a 3-bit sequence number.



Sliding Window concept (3)

Larger windows enable pipelining for efficient link use

- Stop-and-wait ($w=1$) is inefficient for long links
- Best window (w) depends on bandwidth-delay (BD)
- Want $w \geq 2BD+1$ to ensure high link utilization

Pipelining leads to different choices for errors/buffering

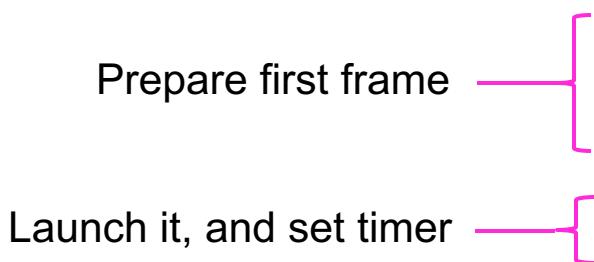
- We will consider Go-Back-N and Selective Repeat

One-Bit Sliding Window (1)

Transfers data in both directions with stop-and-wait

- Piggybacks acks on reverse data frames for efficiency
- Handles transmission errors, flow control, early timers

Each node is sender
and receiver (p4):



```
void protocol4 (void) {  
    seq_nr next_frame_to_send;  
    seq_nr frame_expected;  
    frame r, s;  
    packet buffer;  
    event_type event;  
    next_frame_to_send = 0;  
    frame_expected = 0;  
    from_network_layer(&buffer);  
    s.info = buffer;  
    s.seq = next_frame_to_send;  
    s.ack = 1 - frame_expected;  
    to_physical_layer(&s);  
    start_timer(s.seq);  
    . . .
```

One-Bit Sliding Window (2)

Wait for frame or timeout

If a frame with new data
then deliver it

If an ack for last send then
prepare for next data frame

(Otherwise it was a timeout)

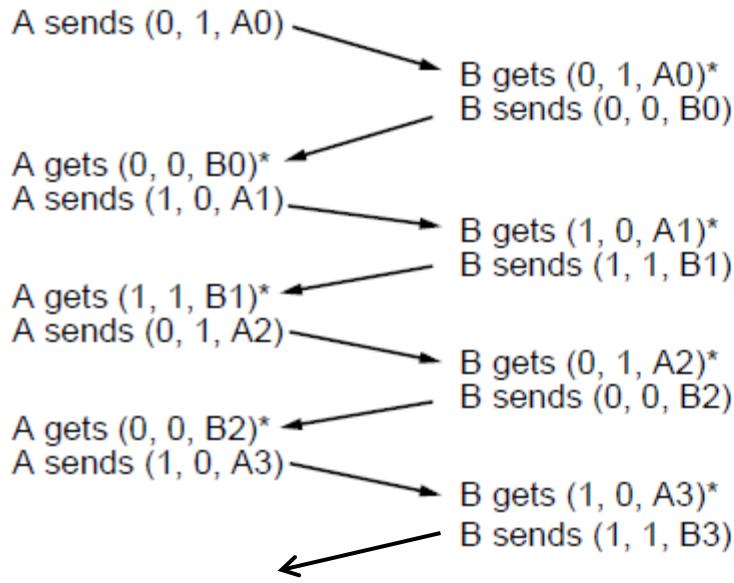
Send next data frame or
retransmit old one; ack
the last data we received

```
    . . .
while (true) {
    → wait_for_event(&event);
    if (event == frame_arrival) {
        from_physical_layer(&r);
        if (r.seq == frame_expected) {
            to_network_layer(&r.info);
            inc(frame_expected);
        }
        if (r.ack == next_frame_to_send) {
            stop_timer(r.ack);
            from_network_layer(&buffer);
            inc(next_frame_to_send);
        }
    }
    s.info = buffer;
    s.seq = next_frame_to_send;
    s.ack = 1 - frame_expected;
    → to_physical_layer(&s);
    start_timer(s.seq);
}
```

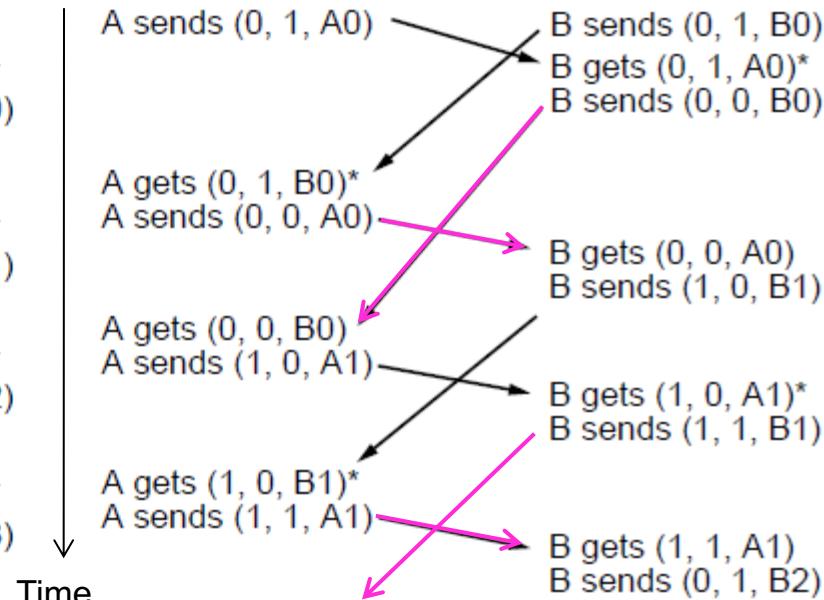
One-Bit Sliding Window (3)

Two scenarios show subtle interactions exist in p4:

- Simultaneous start [right] causes correct but slow operation compared to normal [left] due to duplicate transmissions.



Normal case

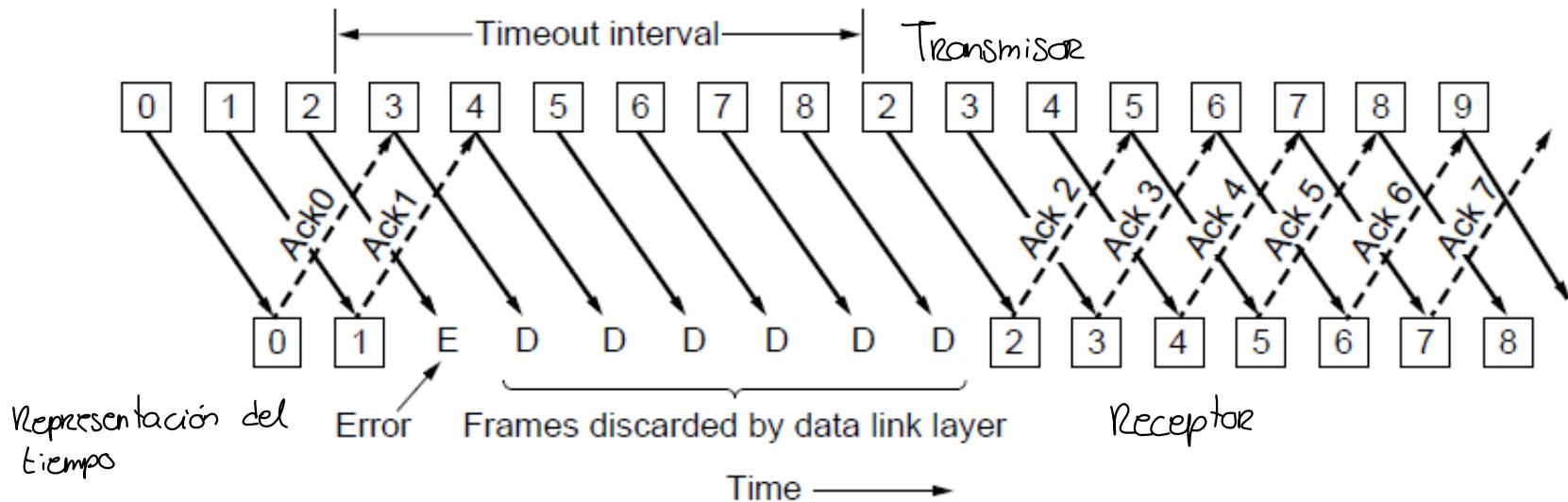


Correct, but poor performance

Go-Back-N (1)

Receiver only accepts/acks frames that arrive in order:

- Discards frames that follow a missing/errored frame
- Sender times out and resends all outstanding frames



Go-Back-N (2)

Tradeoff made for Go-Back-N:

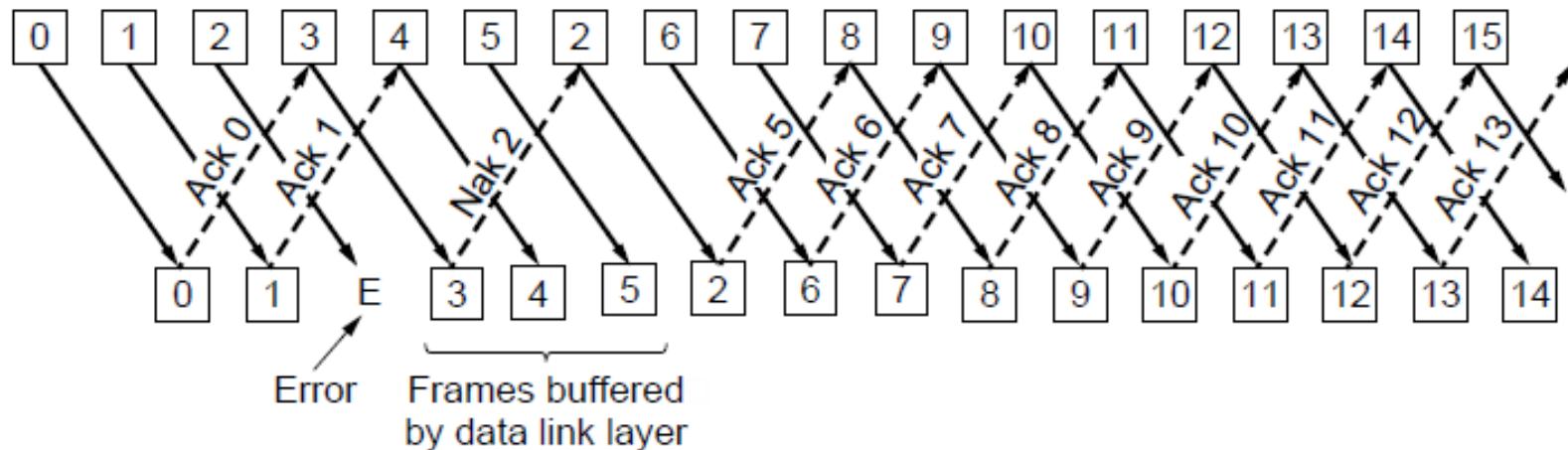
- Simple strategy for receiver; needs only 1 frame
- Wastes link bandwidth for errors with large windows; entire window is retransmitted

Implemented as p5 (see code in book)

Selective Repeat (1)

Receiver accepts frames anywhere in receive window

- Cumulative ack indicates highest in-order frame
- NAK (negative ack) causes sender retransmission of a missing frame before a timeout resends window



Selective Repeat (2)

Tradeoff made for Selective Repeat:

- More complex than Go-Back-N due to buffering at receiver and multiple timers at sender
- More efficient use of link bandwidth as only lost frames are resent (with low error rates)

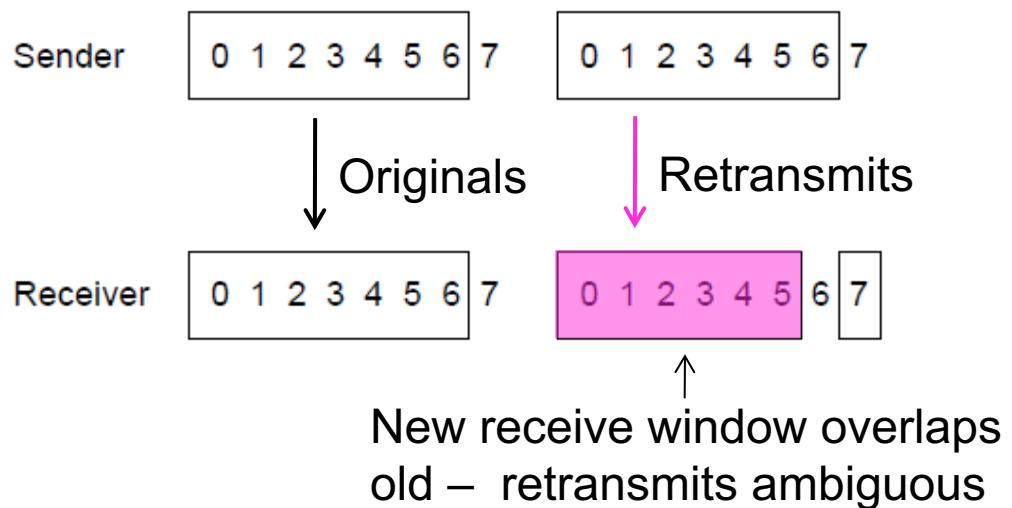
Implemented as p6 (see code in book)

Selective Repeat (3)

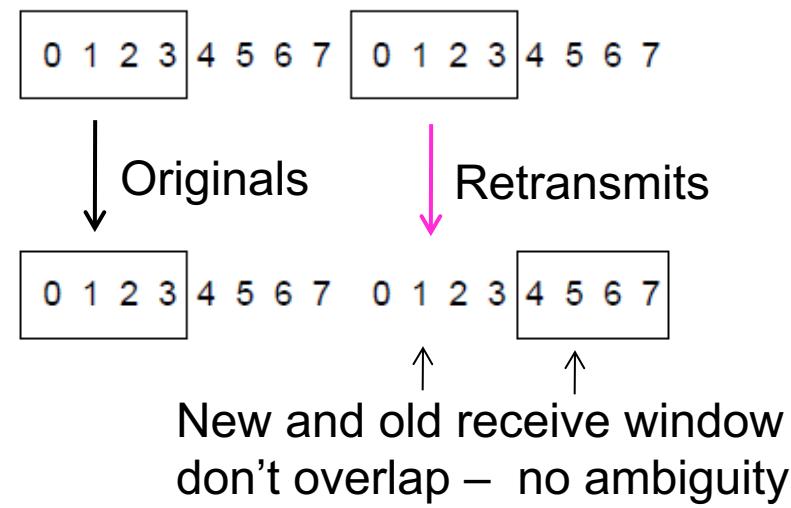
For correctness, we require:

- Sequence numbers (s) at least twice the window (w)

Error case ($s=8$, $w=7$) – too few sequence numbers



Correct ($s=8$, $w=4$) – enough sequence numbers



CRC

Cálculo del CRC con MATLAB

Ejemplo

Calcula el CRC de la secuencia de bits (trama) 1001 usando el CRC-3 GSM (0x3)

```
>> p = 2; %GF(2)
```

Los datos representados por un polinomio (invertimos el orden) y agregamos tres ceros

```
>> b = [ 0 0 0 1 0 0 1];
```

```
>> gfpoly(b);
```

Polinomio divisor (0x3 -> 11 -> 1011)

```
>> a = [1 1 0 1];
```

```
>> gfpoly(a);
```

Calcula la división de b entre a

```
>> [q,r] = gfdeconv(b,a,p)
```

```
q = 0 1 0 1
```

```
r = 0 1 1
```

El cociente es q y el residuo r (CRC)

```
>> gfpoly(r);
```

La trama completa sería los bits originales+CRC = 1001110

Los últimos tres bits corresponden al CRC (orden inverso)

Comprobación del CRC

- Trama

```
>> c = [0 1 1 1 0 0 1]  
>> [q,r] = gfdeconv(c,a,p)  
q = 0 1 0 1  
r = 0
```

Ejercicios.

- Realiza el cálculo del CRC para las siguientes tramas y estándares. Para los casos más sencillos se sugiere realizar el cálculo manualmente y posteriormente comprobar los resultados en MATLAB.

Trama/estándar CRC

- 1 1 1 1 /CRC-3-GSM
- 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 / CRC-4-ITU
- 1 0 0 0 0 1 / CRC-4-ITU
- 1 0 1 0 1 0 0 1 1 /CRC-5-EPC
- 0xA012/CRC-8-CCITT

Ejercicios.

- Comprueba si las siguientes tramas están libres de errores

- 1 1 0 0 1 1 1 1 1 0 1 1/CRC-4
- 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 0 1 1 0 0/CRC-4
- 1 0 1 1 1 1 1/CRC-5-ITU

Medium Access Control Sublayer

Chapter 4

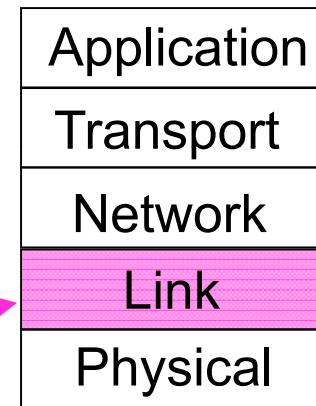
- Channel Allocation Problem
- Multiple Access Protocols
- Ethernet
- Wireless LANs
- Broadband Wireless
- Bluetooth
- RFID
- Data Link Layer Switching

Revised: August 2011

The MAC Sublayer

Responsible for deciding who sends next on a multi-access link

- An important part of the link layer, especially for LANs



MAC is in here!

Channel Allocation Problem (1)

For fixed channel and traffic from N users

- Divide up bandwidth using FTM, TDM, CDMA, etc.
- This is a static allocation, e.g., FM radio

This static allocation performs poorly for bursty traffic

- Allocation to a user will sometimes go unused

Channel Allocation Problem (2)

Dynamic allocation gives the channel to a user when they need it. Potentially N times as efficient for N users.

Schemes vary with assumptions:

Assumption	Implication
Independent traffic	Often not a good model, but permits analysis
Single channel	No external way to coordinate senders
Observable collisions	Needed for reliability; mechanisms vary
Continuous or slotted time	Slotting may improve performance
Carrier sense	Can improve performance if available

Si el canal se encuentra libre o no

Multiple Access Protocols

- ALOHA » método que nació de Hawaii. Estación base con diferentes islas
- CSMA (Carrier Sense Multiple Access) »
- Collision-free protocols »
- Limited-contention protocols »
- Wireless LAN protocols »

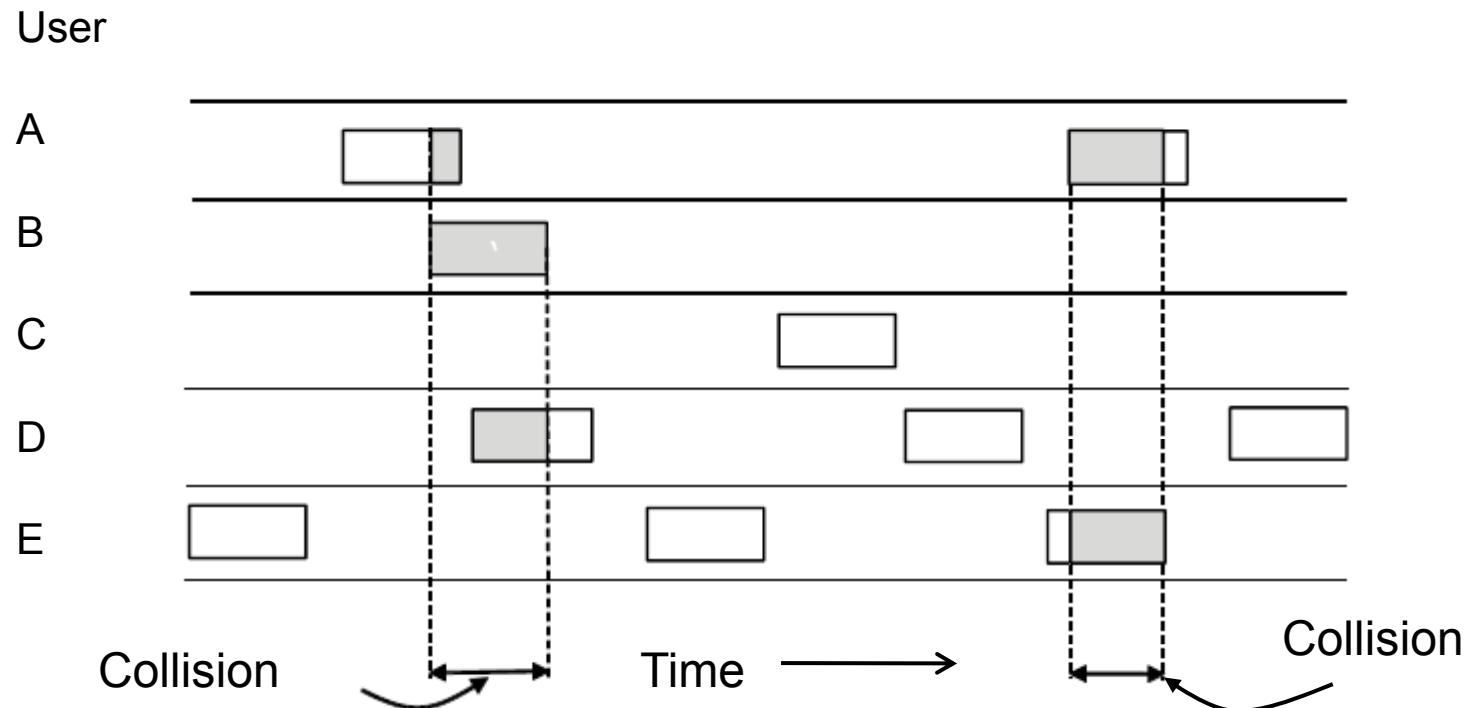
ALOHA (1)

Retransmisión? → los que tienen acuse de recibo. negativo

Control de flujo retransmisiones: cuando pasa un intervalo de tiempo

In pure ALOHA, users transmit frames whenever they have data; users retry after a random time for collisions

- Efficient and low-delay under low load



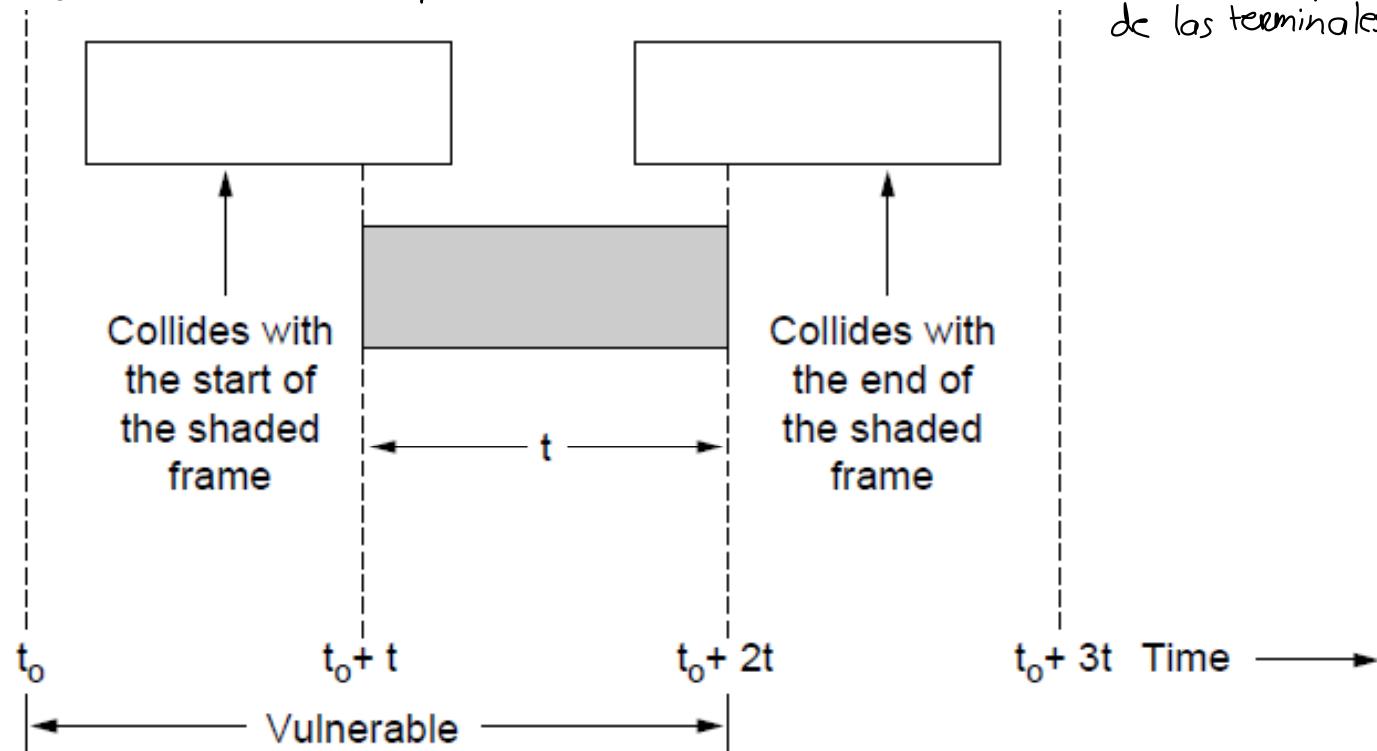
ALOHA (2)

Collisions happen when other users transmit during a vulnerable period that is twice the frame time

- Synchronizing senders to slots can reduce collisions

Bits de info se traslapan con el otro bit.

Colisión depende de la distancia de los terminales.



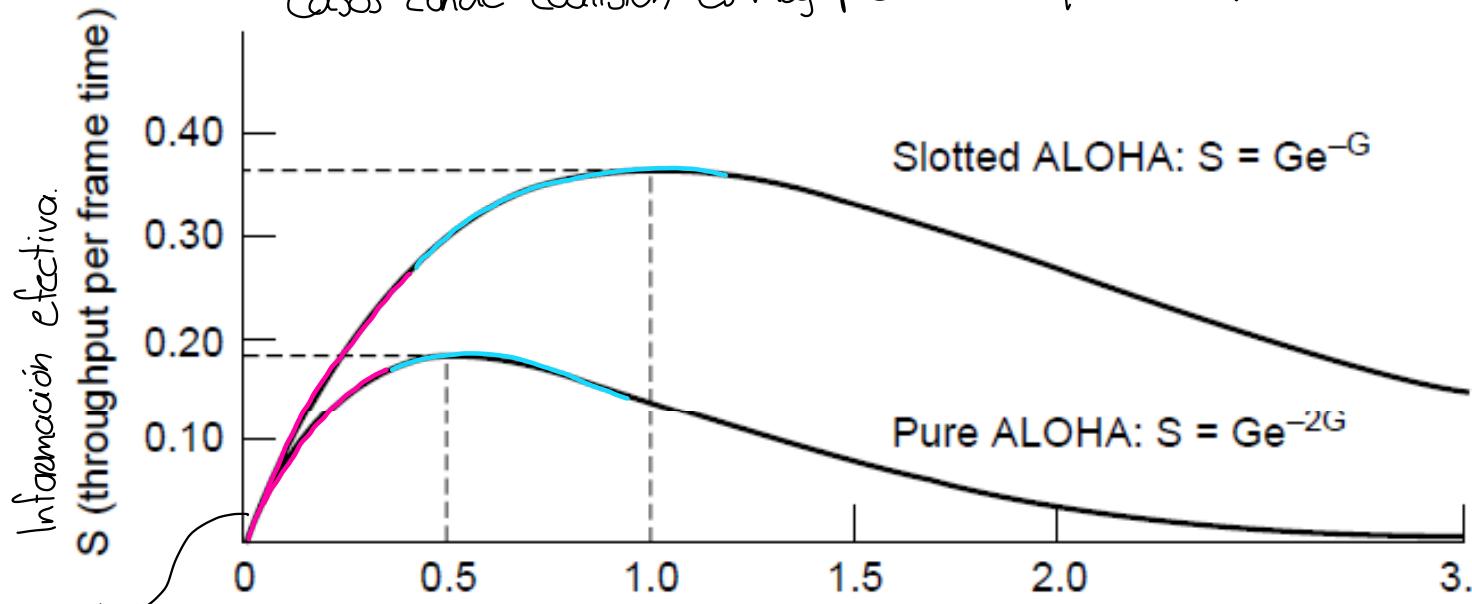
ALOHA (3)

Versión mejorada. ALOHA randomizado. Tramas empiezan en tiempo predefinido

Slotted ALOHA is twice as efficient as pure ALOHA

- Low load wastes slots, high loads causes collisions
- Efficiency up to $1/e$ (37%) for random traffic models

(casos donde colisión es muy probable → quitar los peores casos)



tráfico aumenta con menos velocidad el crecimiento de la red.
Info efectiva.

G (attempts per packet time)

máximo: al llegar al máximo empieza a decrecer el throughput.

CSMA (1)

CSMA improves on ALOHA by sensing the channel!

- User doesn't send if it senses someone else

Dispositivos pueden escuchar el canal antes de transmitir.

Dispositivos no tienen que moverse, solo esperan a que el canal esté libre.

Variations on what to do if the channel is busy:

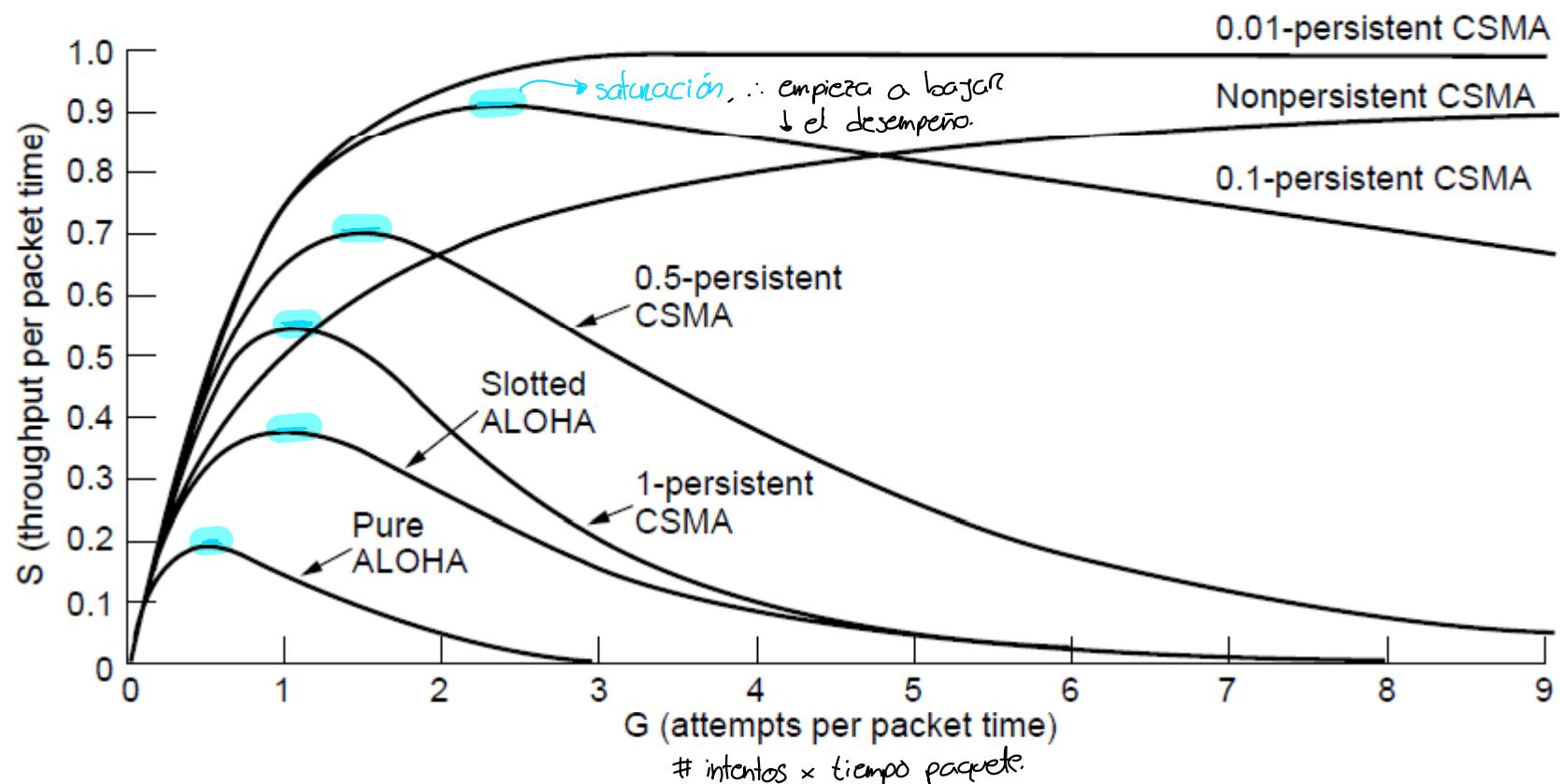
- 1-persistent (greedy) sends as soon as idle
- Nonpersistent waits a random time then tries again
- p-persistent sends with probability p when idle

cuando el canal está libre
empieza a transmitir.

Inconveniente: Si hay varios escuchando, al momento de liberarse, todos van a querer transmitir y provoca saturación.

CSMA (2) – Persistence

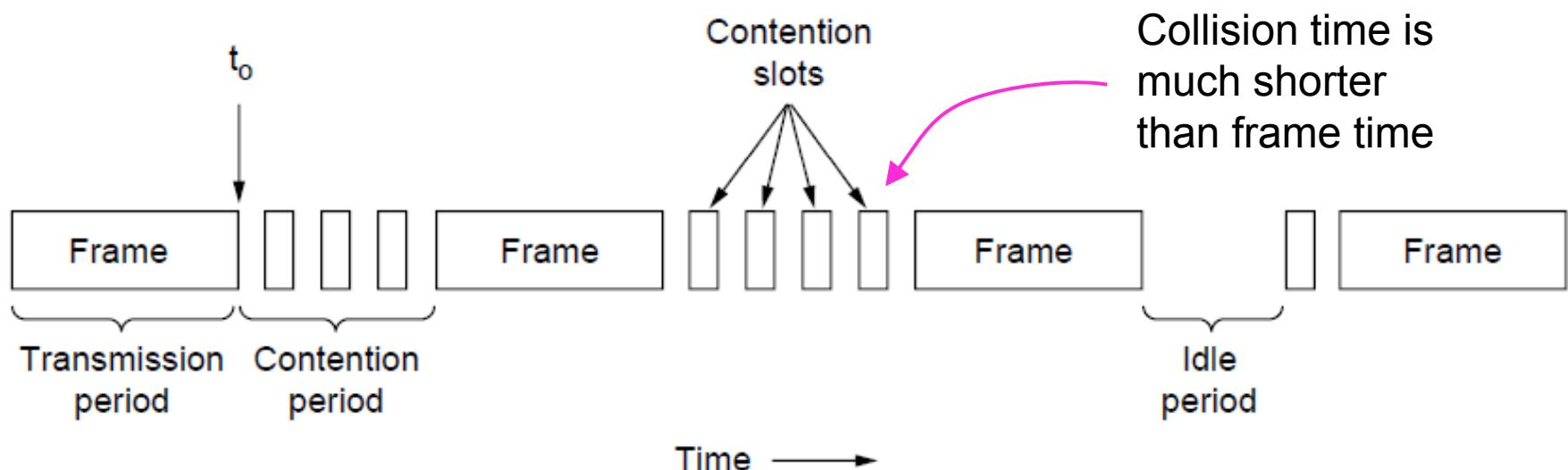
CSMA outperforms ALOHA, and being less persistent is better under high load



CSMA (3) – Collision Detection

CSMA/CD improvement is to detect/abort collisions

- Reduced contention times improve performance



Primero se verifica que este libre el medio (carrier sense), luego transmite la trama y al mismo tiempo estoy recibiendo.

Ranuras de contención: espacios donde se busca separar el medio en una transmisión.

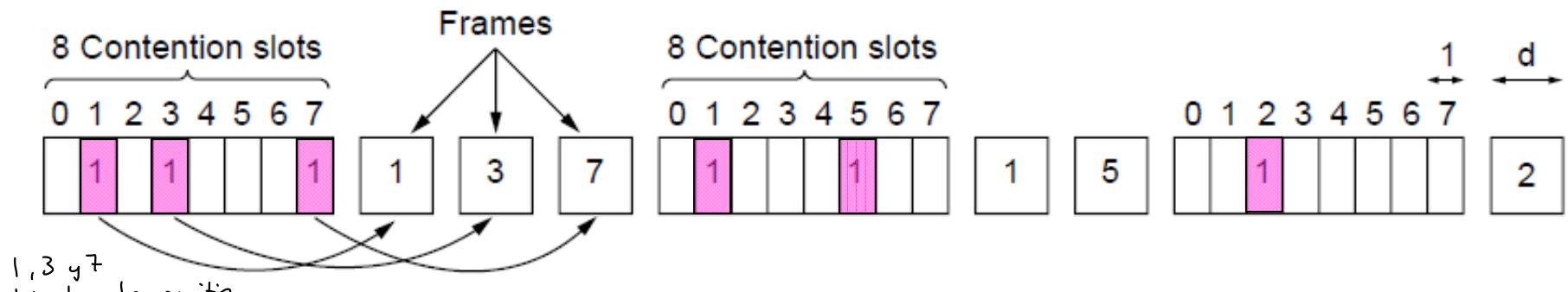
Collision-Free (1) – Bitmap

Collision-free protocols avoid collisions entirely

- Senders must know when it is their turn to send

The basic bit-map protocol:

- Sender set a bit in contention slot if they have data
- Senders send in turn; everyone knows who has data



1, 3 y 7
intento transmitir

Primeros reservan el lugar a donde transmitir y luego transmite. Cuando transmite todos, se puede volver a reservar.
de estaciones debe contener a todos los que quieren transmitir

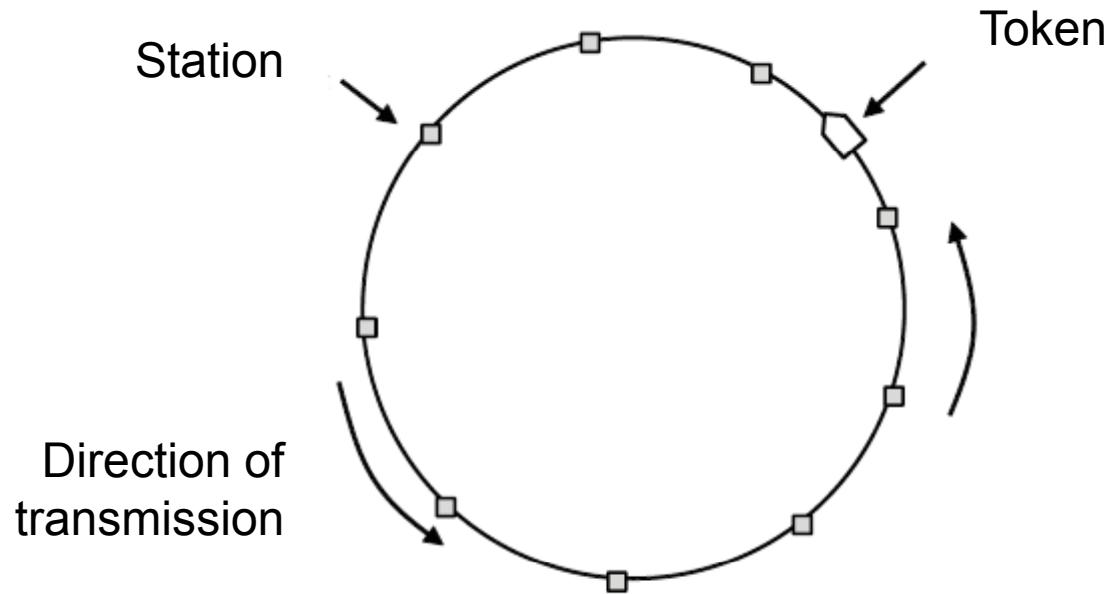
Ventaja: No hay colisiones.

Collision-Free (2) – Token Ring

estafeta.

Token sent round ring defines the sending order

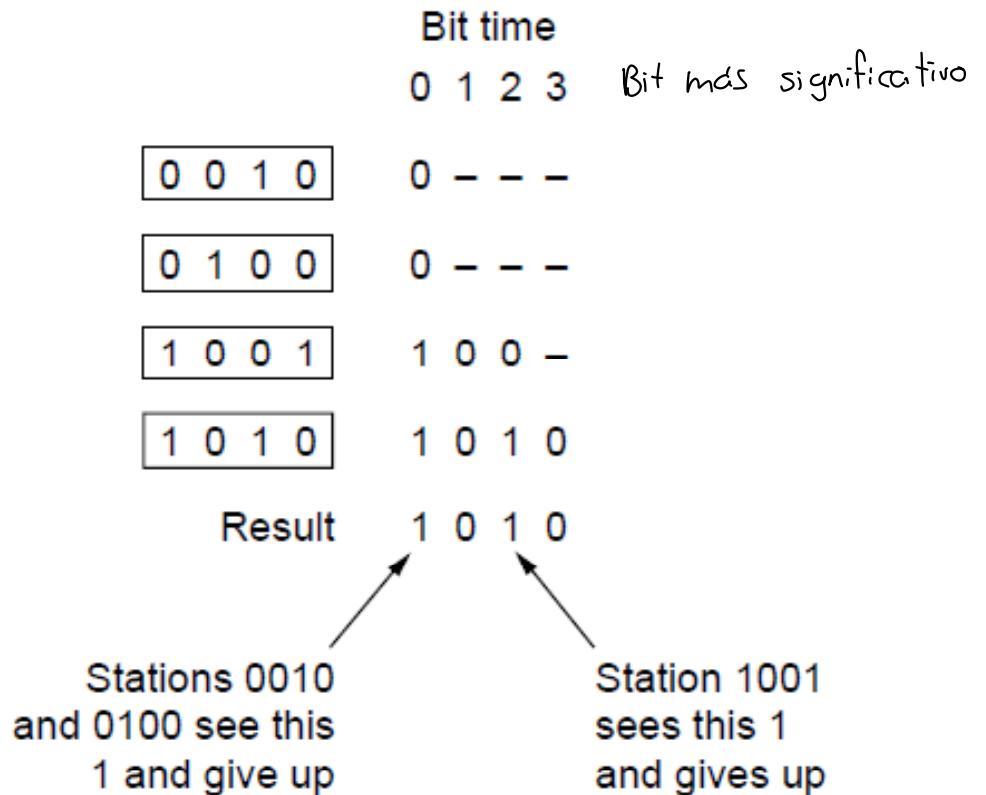
- Station with token may send a frame before passing
- Idea can be used without ring too, e.g., token bus



Collision-Free (3) – Countdown

Binary countdown improves on the bitmap protocol

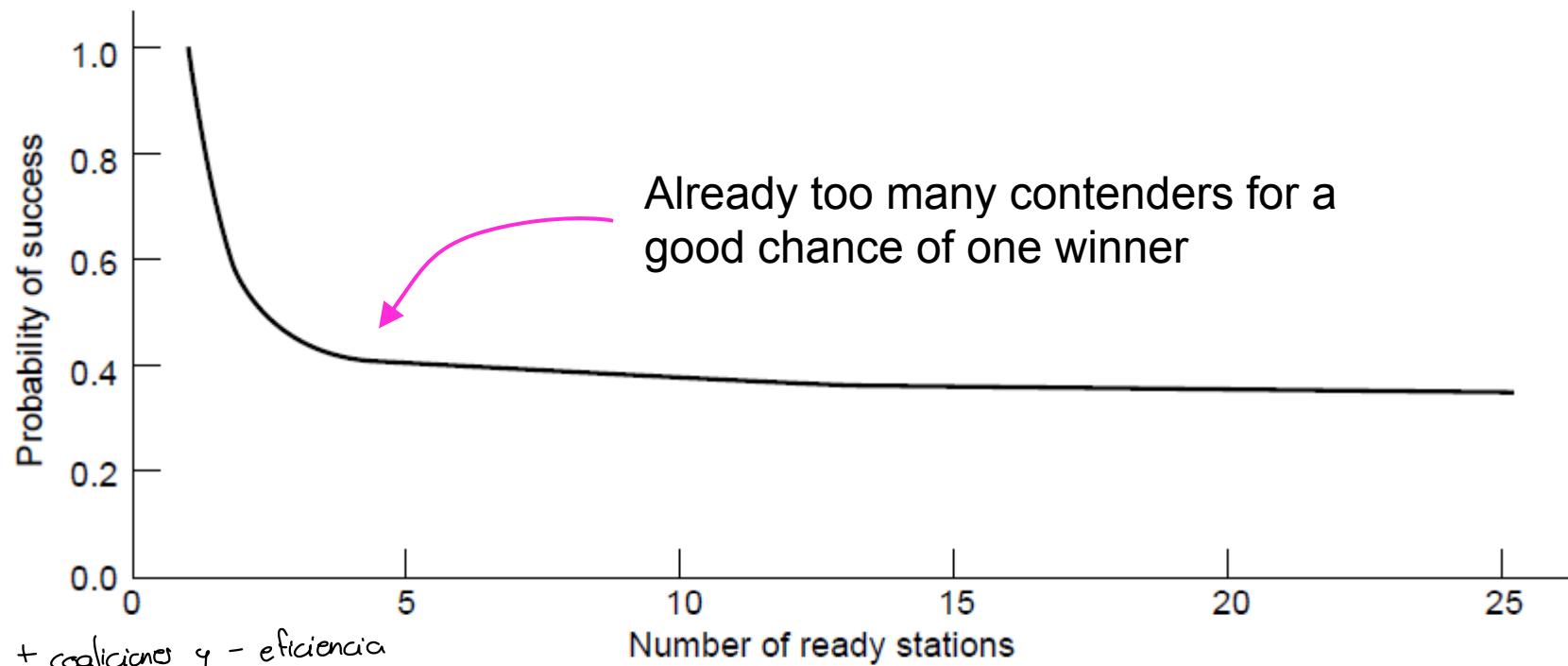
- Stations send their address in contention slot ($\log N$ bits instead of N bits)
- Medium ORs bits; stations give up when they send a “0” but see a “1”
- Station that sees its full address is next to send



Limited-Contention Protocols (1)

Idea is to divide stations into groups within which only a very small number are likely to want to send

- Avoids wastage due to idle periods and collisions

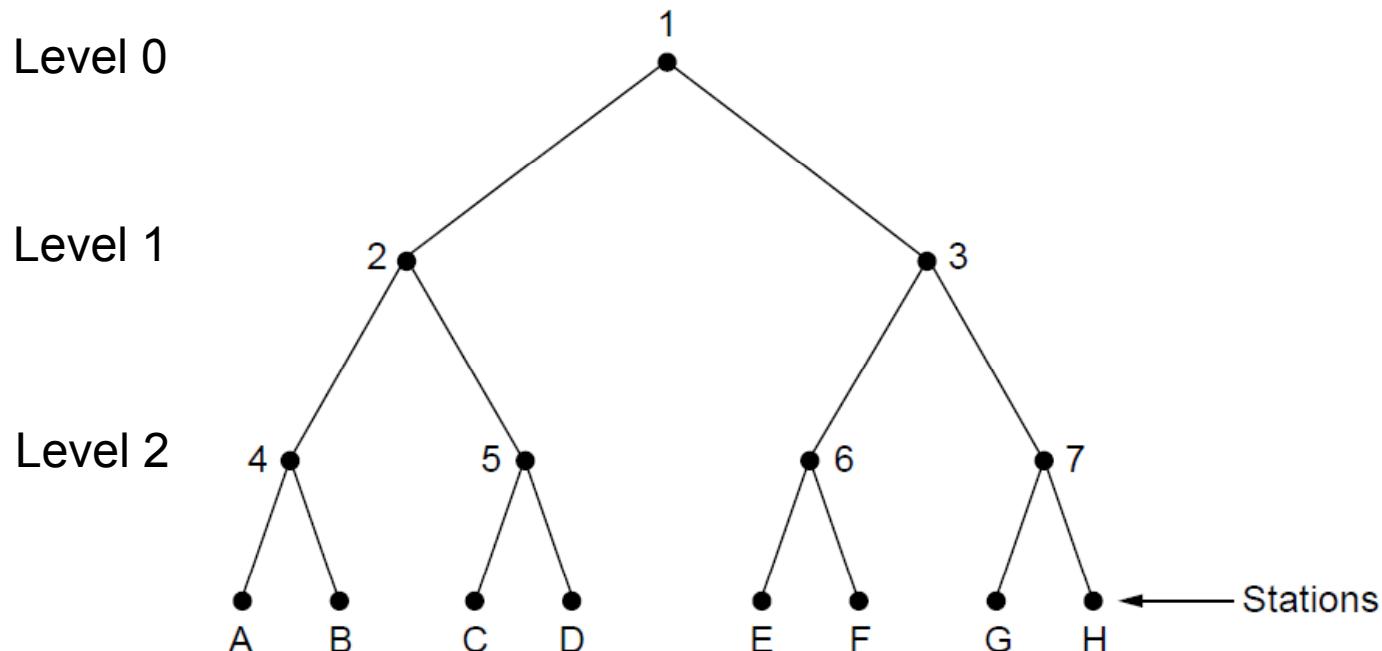


+ estaciones = + colisiones y - eficiencia
se limitan el # de estaciones

Limited Contention (2) –Adaptive Tree Walk

Tree divides stations into groups (nodes) to poll

- Depth first search under nodes with poll collisions
- Start search at lower levels if >1 station expected



Wireless LAN Protocols (1)

Wireless has complications compared to wired.

Nodes may have different coverage regions

- Leads to hidden and exposed terminals

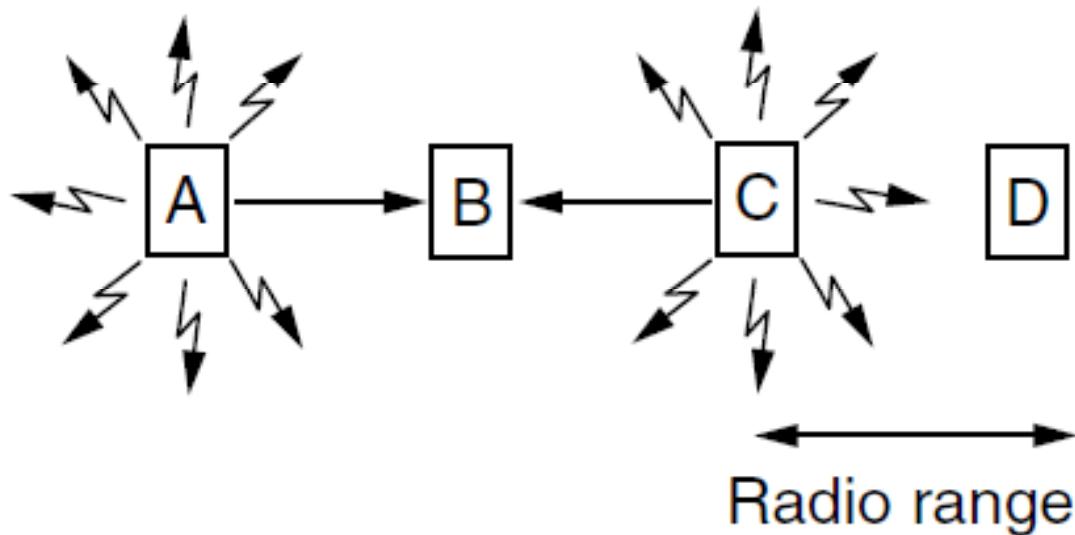
Nodes can't detect collisions, i.e., sense while sending

- Makes collisions expensive and to be avoided

Wireless LANs (2) – Hidden terminals

Hidden terminals are senders that cannot sense each other but nonetheless collide at intended receiver

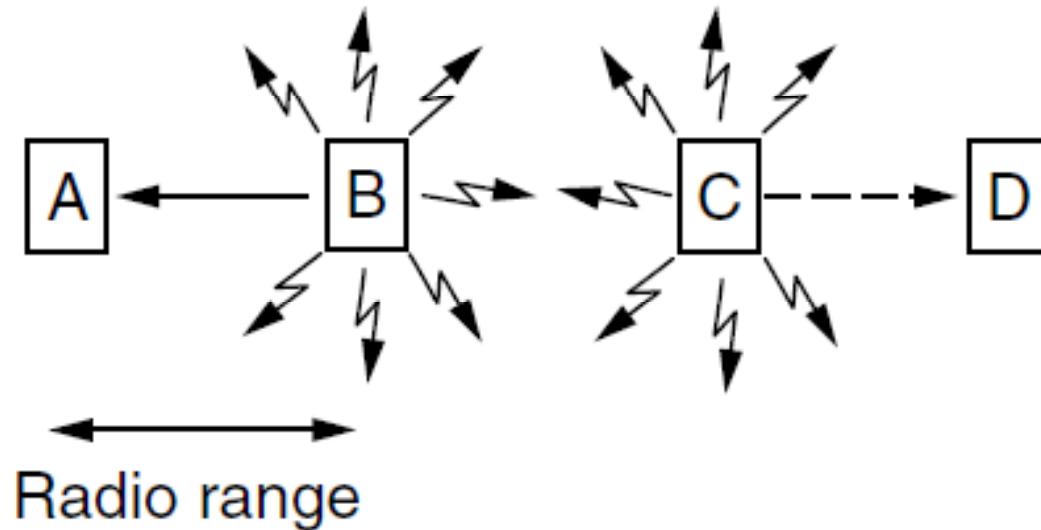
- Want to prevent; loss of efficiency
- A and C are hidden terminals when sending to B



Wireless LANs (3) – Exposed terminals

Exposed terminals are senders who can sense each other but still transmit safely (to different receivers)

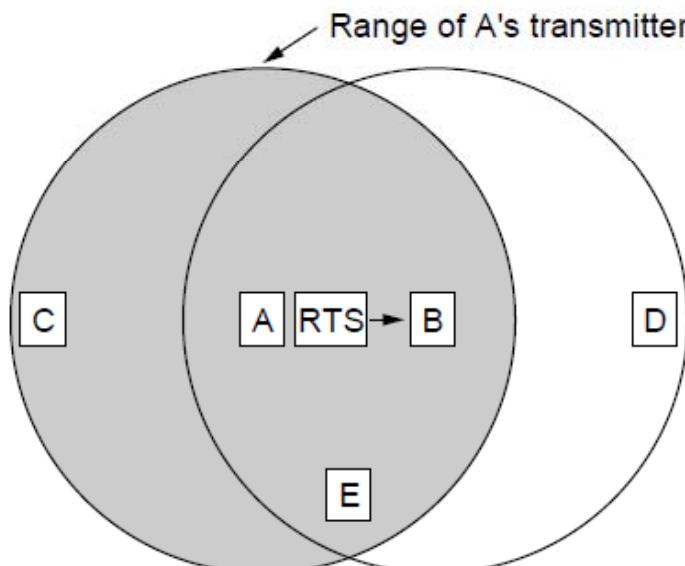
- Desirably concurrency; improves performance
- $B \rightarrow A$ and $C \rightarrow D$ are exposed terminals



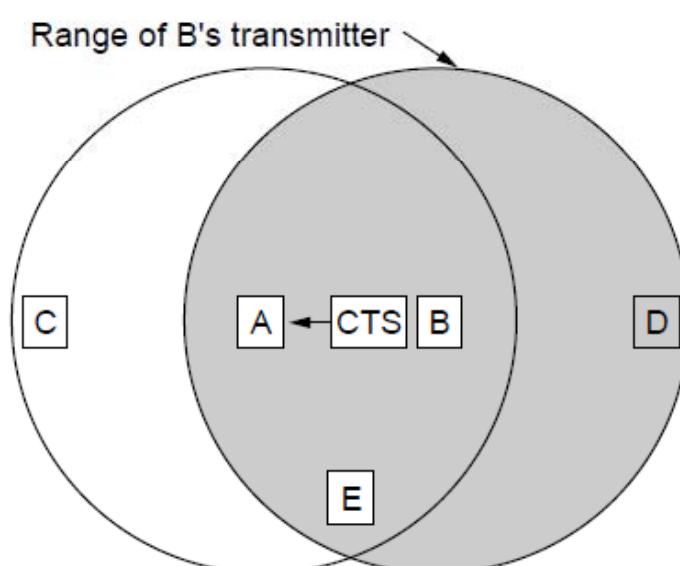
Wireless LANs (4) – MACA

MACA protocol grants access for A to send to B:

- A sends RTS to B [left]; B replies with CTS [right]
- A can send with exposed but no hidden terminals



A sends RTS to B; C and E
hear and defer for CTS



B replies with CTS; D and
E hear and defer for data

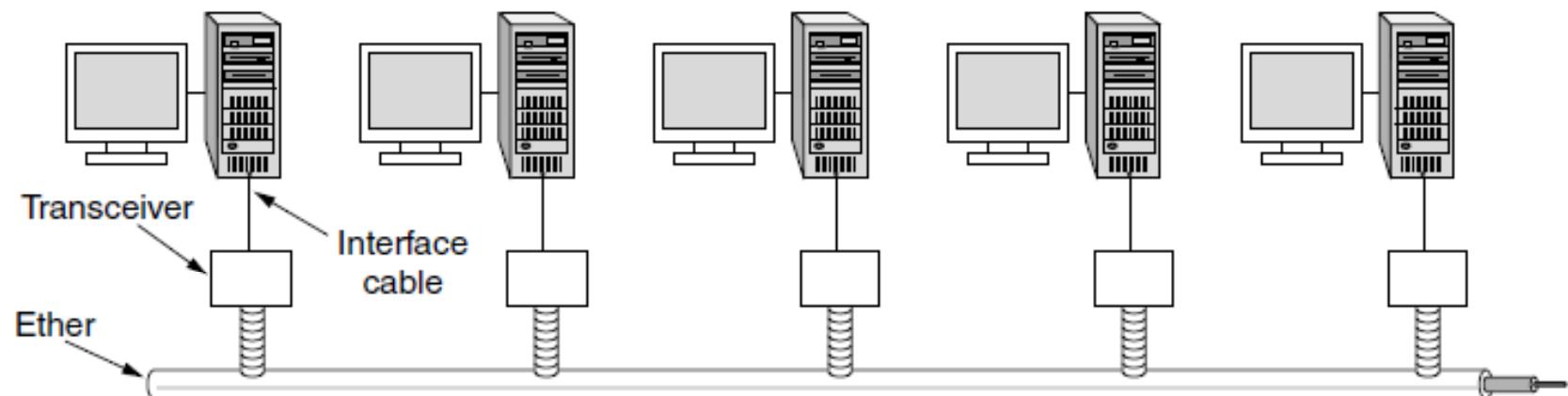
Ethernet

- Classic Ethernet »
- Switched/Fast Ethernet »
- Gigabit/10 Gigabit Ethernet »

Classic Ethernet (1) – Physical Layer

One shared coaxial cable to which all hosts attached

- Up to 10 Mbps, with Manchester encoding
- Hosts ran the classic Ethernet protocol for access



Classic Ethernet (2) – MAC

MAC protocol is 1-persistent CSMA/CD (earlier)

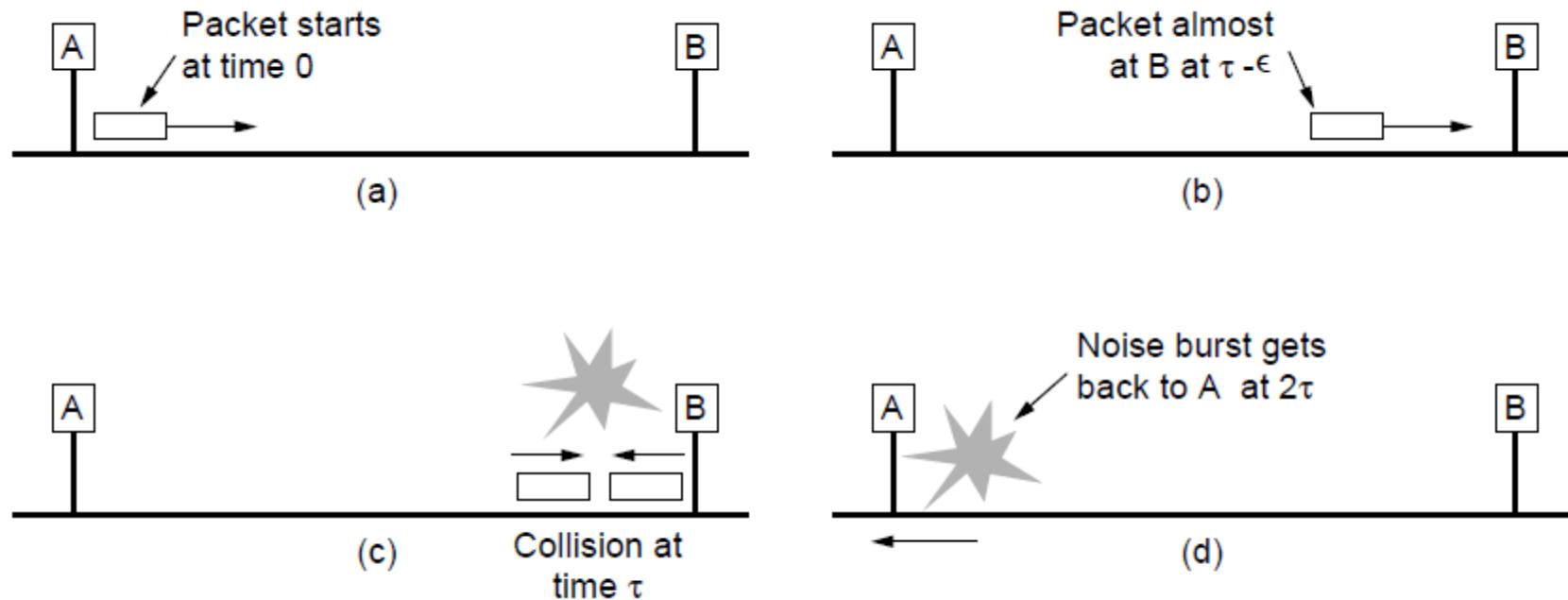
- Random delay (backoff) after collision is computed with BEB (Binary Exponential Backoff)
- Frame format is still used with modern Ethernet.

	Bytes	8	6	6	2	0-1500	0-46	4	
Ethernet (DIX)		Preamble	Destination address	Source address	Type	Data	Pad	Check-sum	
IEEE 802.3		Preamble	S o F	Destination address	Source address	Length	Data	Pad	Check-sum

Classic Ethernet (3) – MAC

Collisions can occur and take as long as 2τ to detect

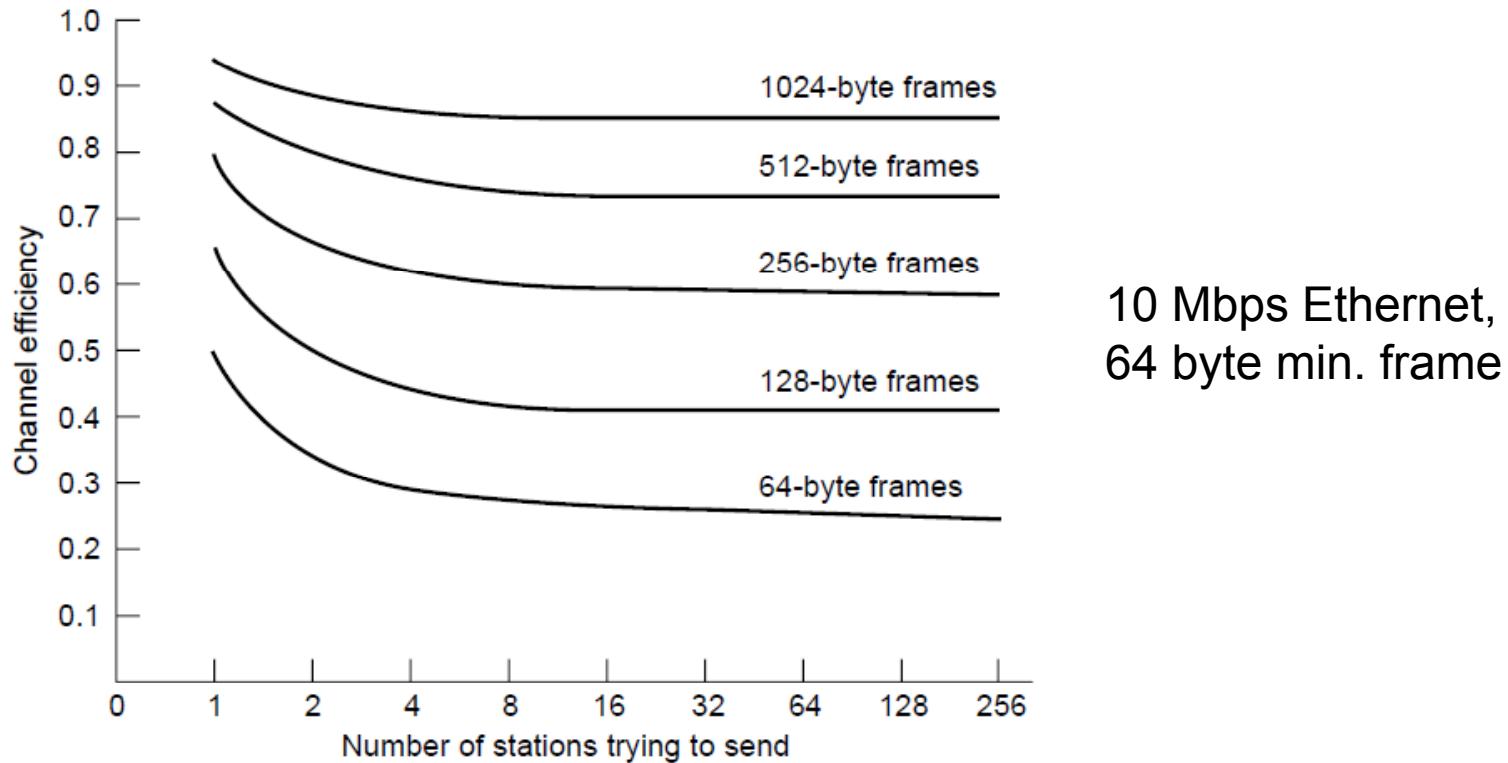
- τ is the time it takes to propagate over the Ethernet
- Leads to minimum packet size for reliable detection



Classic Ethernet (4) – Performance

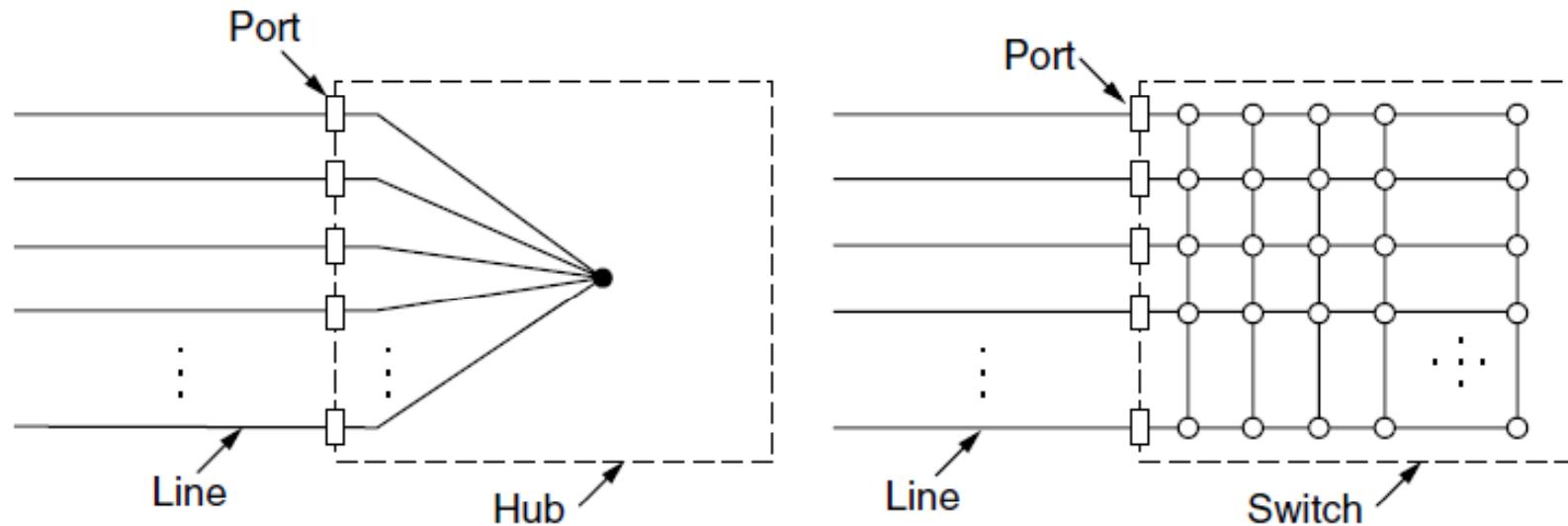
Efficient for large frames, even with many senders

- Degrades for small frames (and long LANs)



Switched/Fast Ethernet (1)

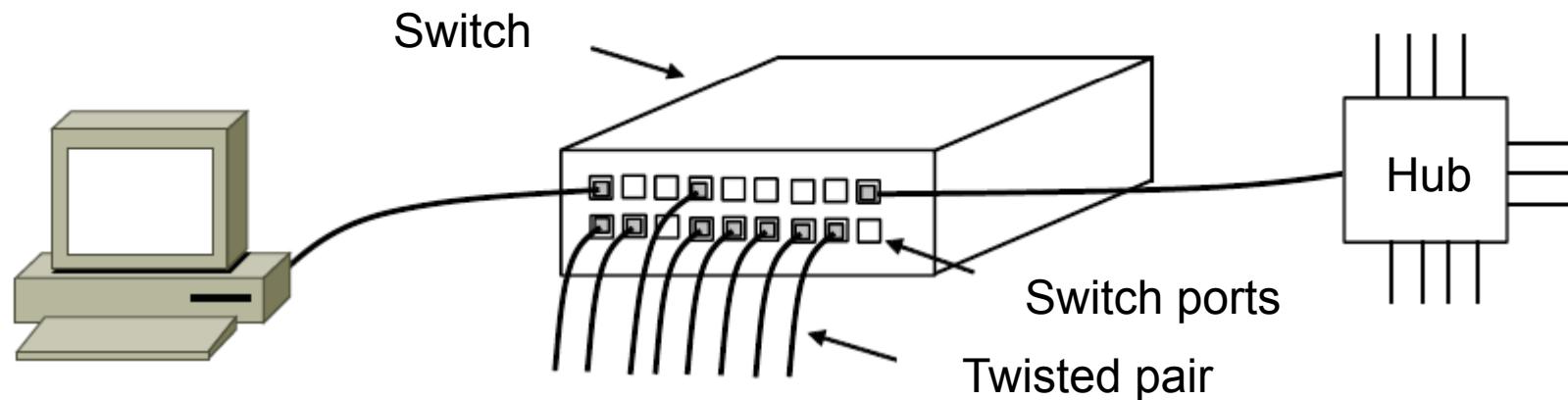
- Hubs wire all lines into a single CSMA/CD domain
- Switches isolate each port to a separate domain
 - Much greater throughput for multiple ports
 - No need for CSMA/CD with full-duplex lines



Switched/Fast Ethernet (2)

Switches can be wired to computers, hubs and switches

- Hubs concentrate traffic from computers
- More on how to switch frames the in 4.8



Switched/Fast Ethernet (3)

Fast Ethernet extended Ethernet from 10 to 100 Mbps

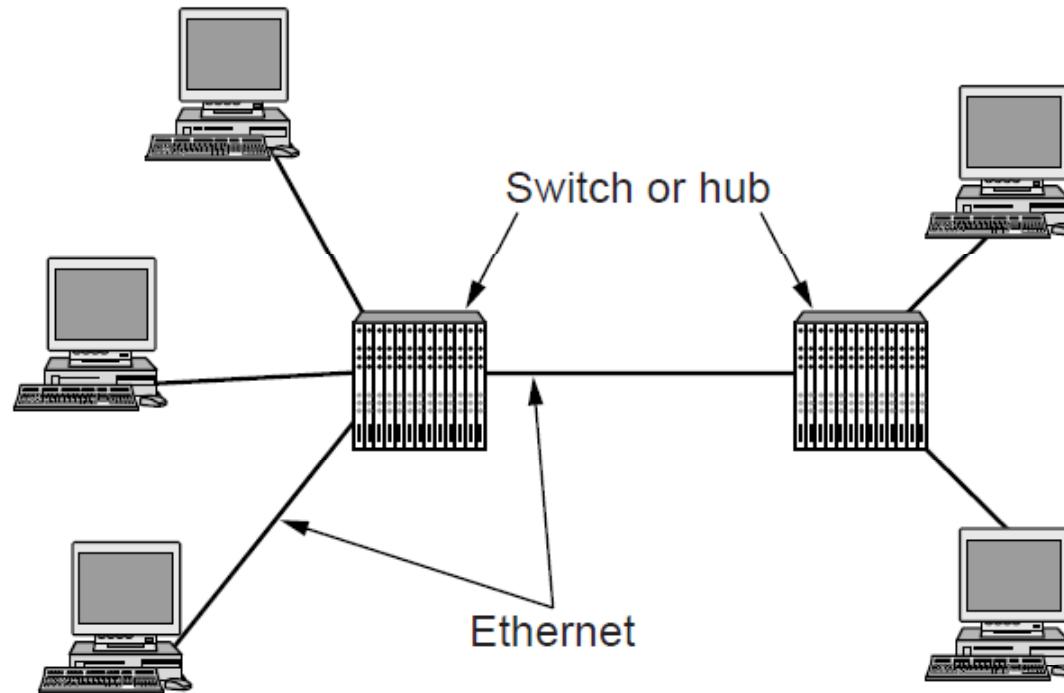
- Twisted pair (with Cat 5) dominated the market

Name	Cable	Max. segment	Advantages
100Base-T4	Twisted pair	100 m	Uses category 3 UTP
100Base-TX	Twisted pair	100 m	Full duplex at 100 Mbps (Cat 5 UTP)
100Base-FX	Fiber optics	2000 m	Full duplex at 100 Mbps; long runs

Gigabit / 10 Gigabit Ethernet (1)

Switched Gigabit Ethernet is now the garden variety

- With full-duplex lines between computers/switches



Gigabit / 10 Gigabit Ethernet (1)

- Gigabit Ethernet is commonly run over twisted pair

Name	Cable	Max. segment	Advantages
1000Base-SX	Fiber optics	550 m	Multimode fiber (50, 62.5 microns)
1000Base-LX	Fiber optics	5000 m	Single (10 μ) or multimode (50, 62.5 μ)
1000Base-CX	2 Pairs of STP	25 m	Shielded twisted pair
1000Base-T	4 Pairs of UTP	100 m	Standard category 5 UTP

- 10 Gigabit Ethernet is being deployed where needed

Name	Cable	Max. segment	Advantages
10GBase-SR	Fiber optics	Up to 300 m	Multimode fiber (0.85 μ)
10GBase-LR	Fiber optics	10 km	Single-mode fiber (1.3 μ)
10GBase-ER	Fiber optics	40 km	Single-mode fiber (1.5 μ)
10GBase-CX4	4 Pairs of twinax	15 m	Twinaxial copper
10GBase-T	4 Pairs of UTP	100 m	Category 6a UTP

- 40/100 Gigabit Ethernet is under development

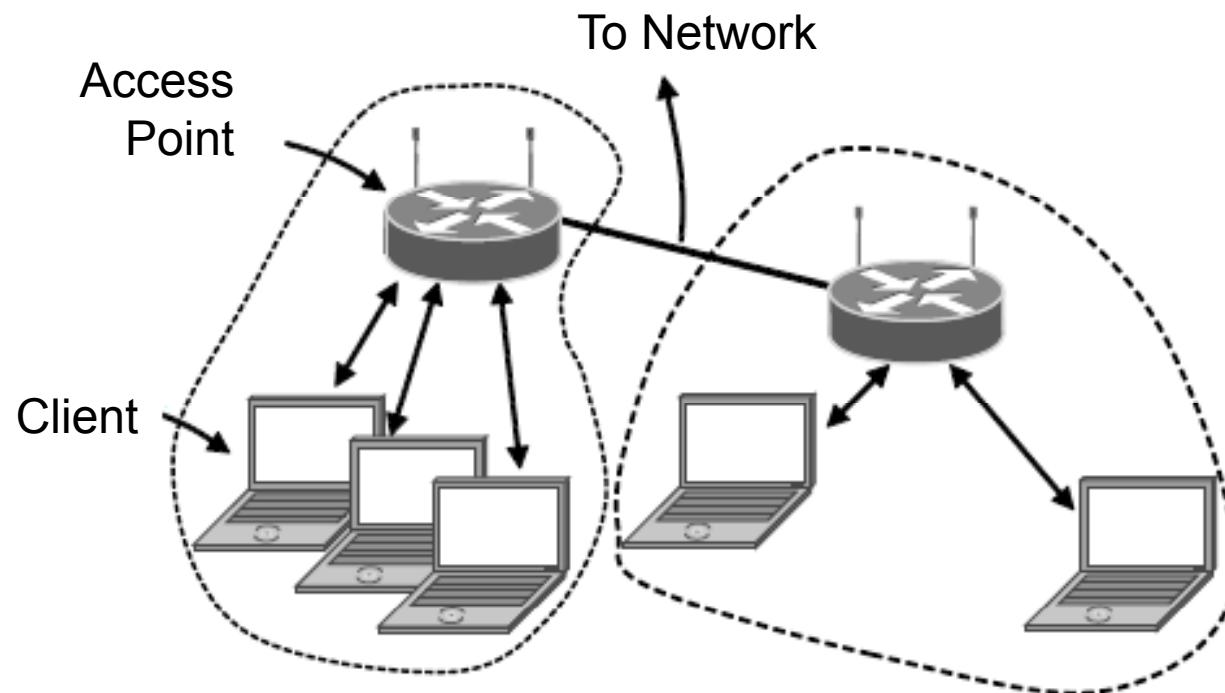
Wireless LANs

- 802.11 architecture/protocol stack »
- 802.11 physical layer »
- 802.11 MAC »
- 802.11 frames »

802.11 Architecture/Protocol Stack (1)

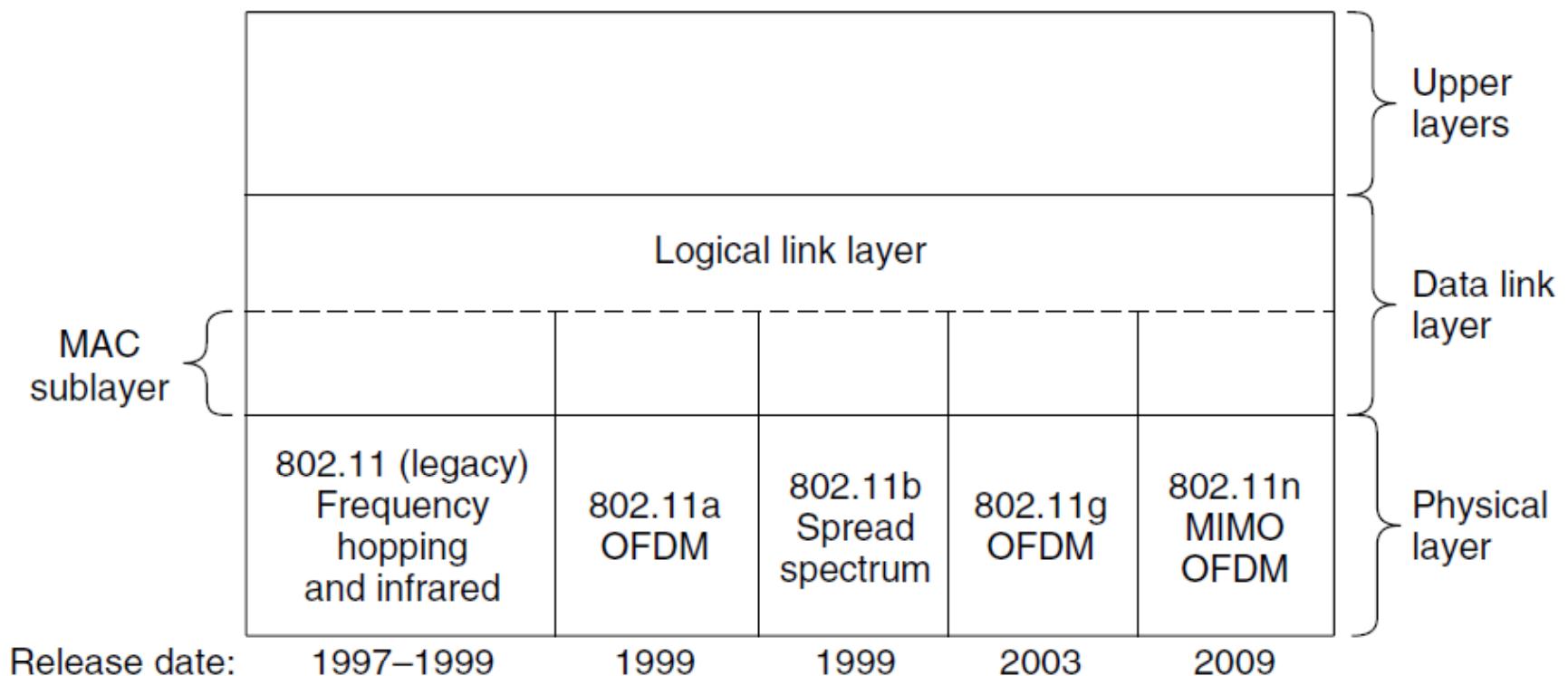
Wireless clients associate to a wired AP (Access Point)

- Called infrastructure mode; there is also ad-hoc mode with no AP, but that is rare.



802.11 Architecture/Protocol Stack (2)

MAC is used across different physical layers



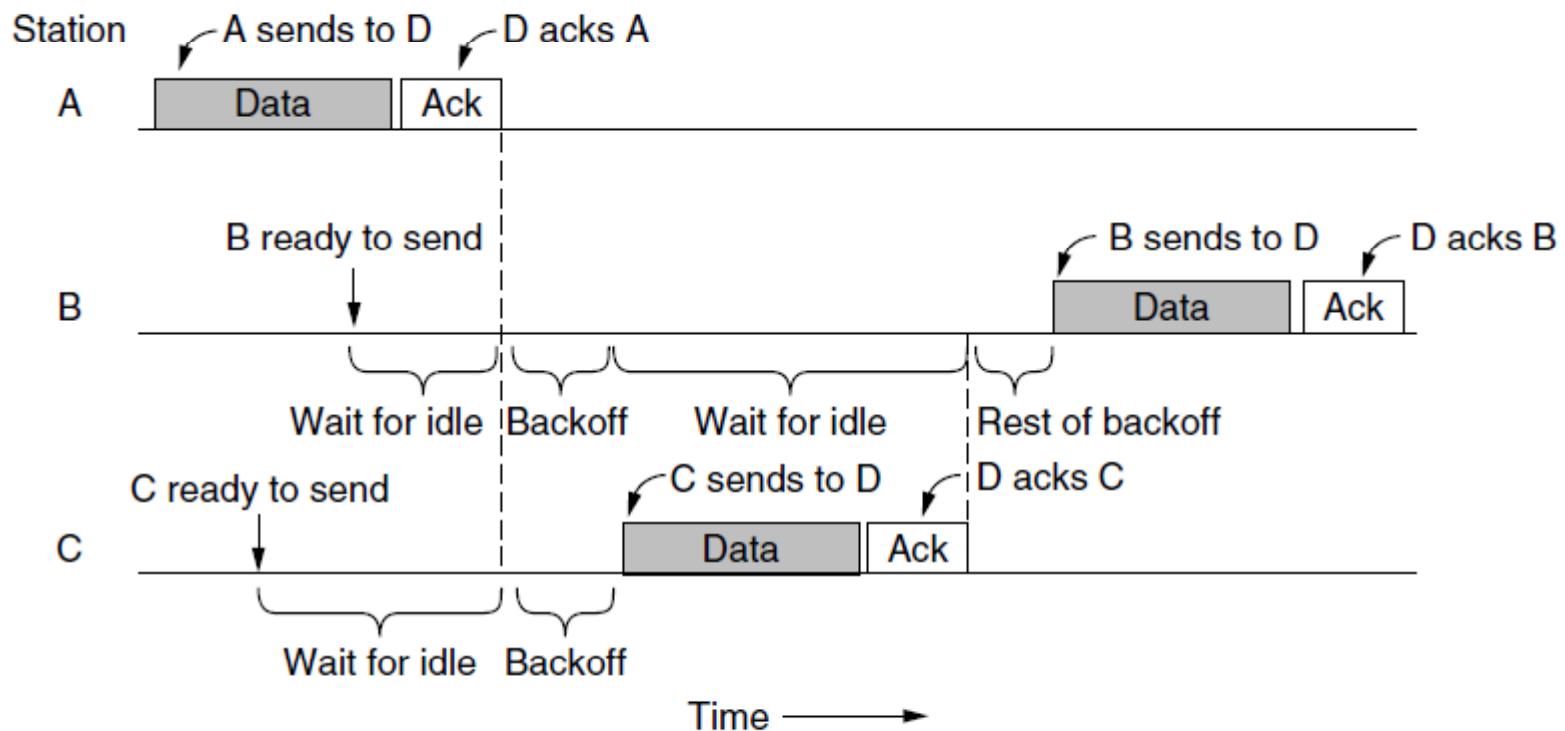
802.11 physical layer

- NICs are compatible with multiple physical layers
 - E.g., 802.11 a/b/g

Name	Technique	Max. Bit Rate
802.11b	Spread spectrum, 2.4 GHz	11 Mbps
802.11g	OFDM, 2.4 GHz	54 Mbps
802.11a	OFDM, 5 GHz	54 Mbps
802.11n	OFDM with MIMO, 2.4/5 GHz	600 Mbps

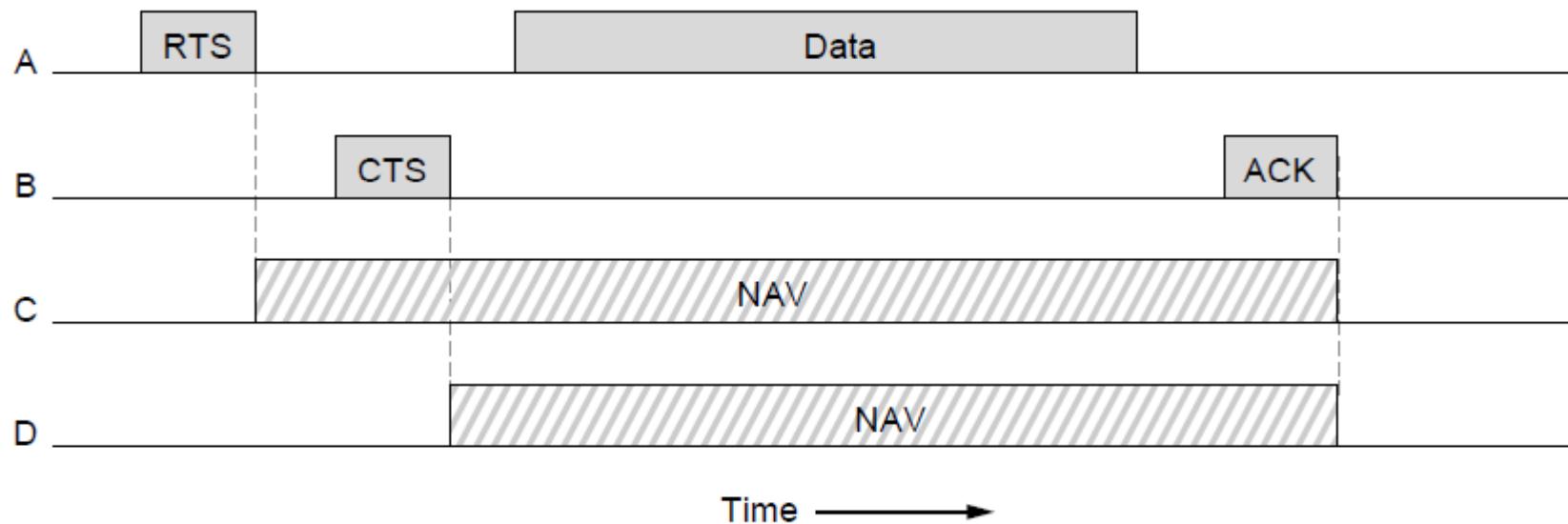
802.11 MAC (1)

- CSMA/CA inserts backoff slots to avoid collisions
- MAC uses ACKs/retransmissions for wireless errors



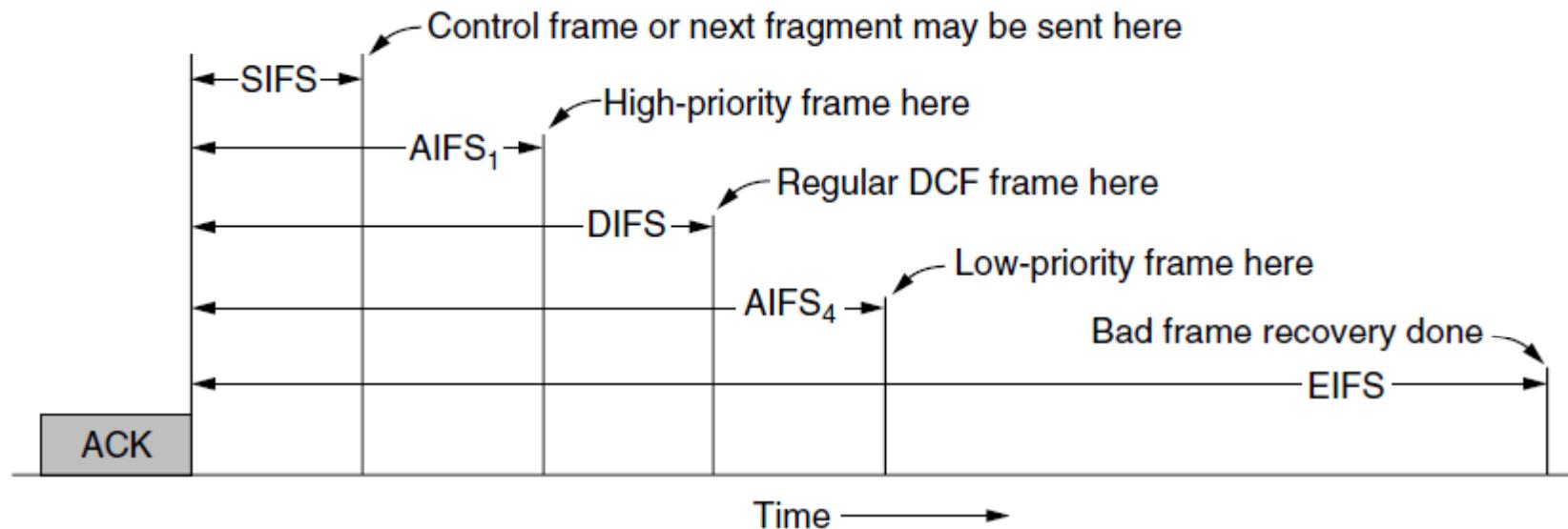
802.11 MAC (2)

Virtual channel sensing with the NAV and optional RTS/CTS (often not used) avoids hidden terminals



802.11 MAC (3)

- Different backoff slot times add quality of service
 - Short intervals give preferred access, e.g., control, VoIP
- MAC has other mechanisms too, e.g., power save



802.11 Frames

- Frames vary depending on their type (Frame control)
- Data frames have 3 addresses to pass via APs

Bytes	2	2	6	6	6	2	0–2312	4
	Frame control	Duration	Address 1 (recipient)	Address 2 (transmitter)	Address 3	Sequence	Data	Check sequence
Bits	2	2	4	1	1	1	1	1

Below the frame structure, a dashed line points to the 'Frame control' field, which is expanded into its bit-level representation:

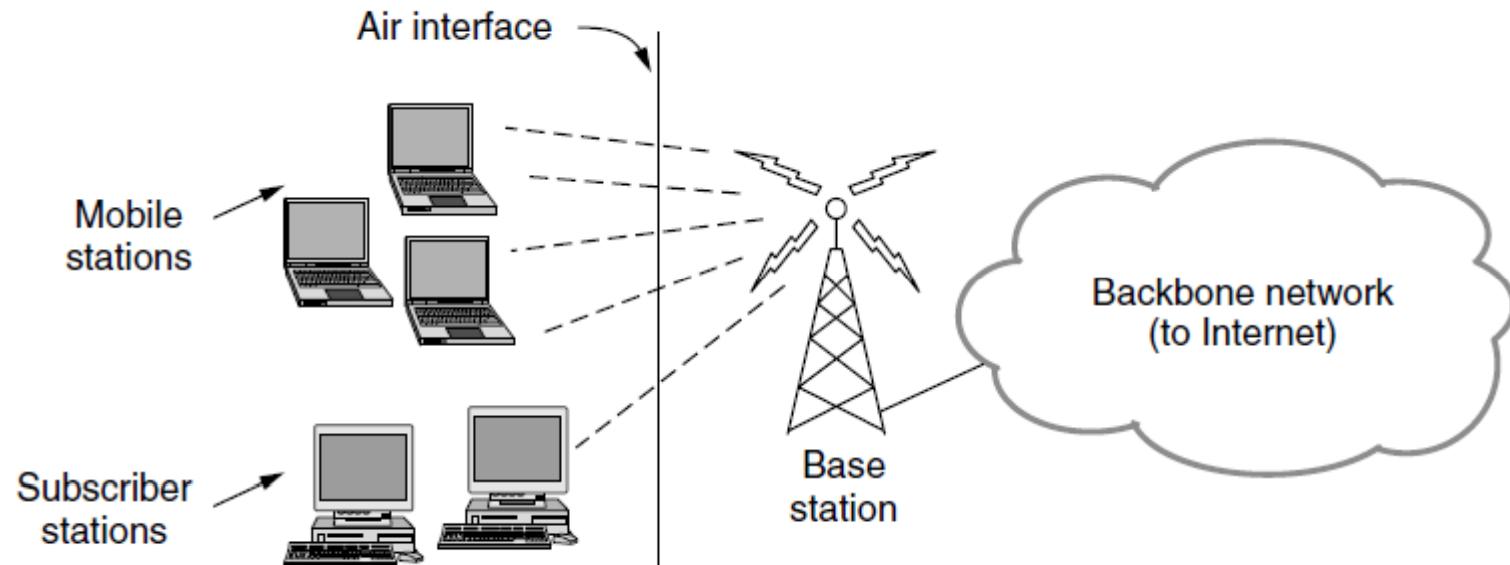
Version = 00	Type = 10	Subtype = 0000	To DS	From DS	More frag.	Retry	Pwr. mgt.	More data	Protected	Order
--------------	-----------	----------------	-------	---------	------------	-------	-----------	-----------	-----------	-------

Broadband Wireless

- 802.16 Architecture / Protocol Stack »
- 802.16 Physical Layer »
- 802.16 MAC »
- 802.16 Frames »

802.16 Architecture/Protocol Stack (1)

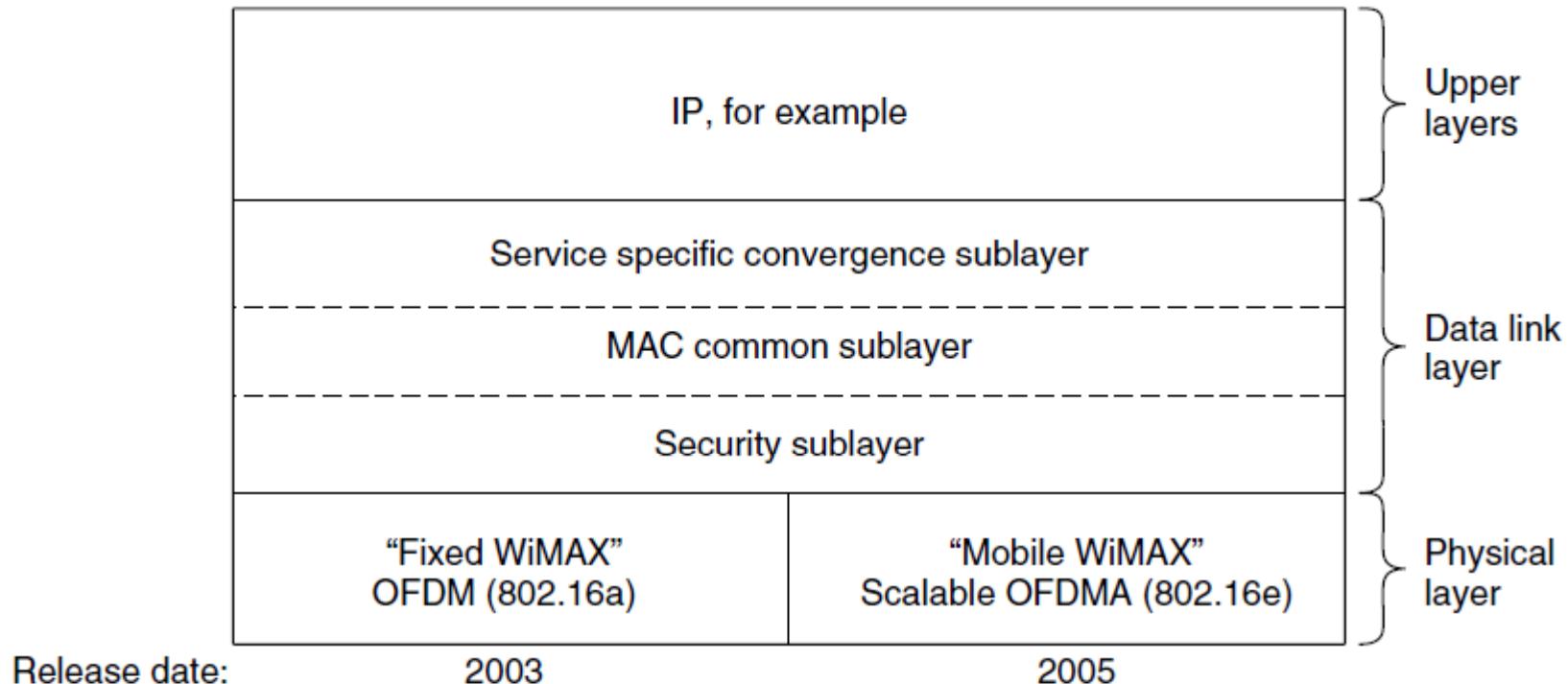
Wireless clients connect to a wired basestation (like 3G)



802.16 Architecture/Protocol Stack (2)

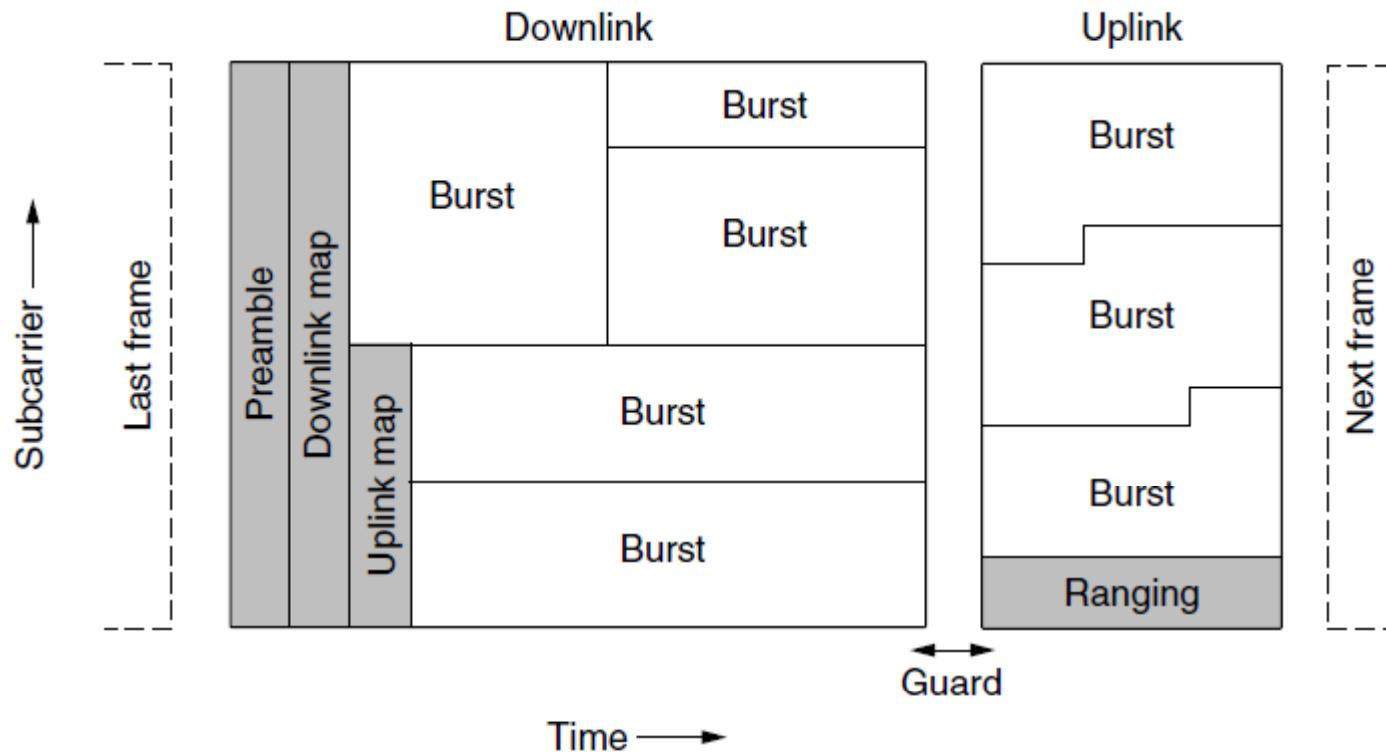
MAC is connection-oriented; IP is connectionless

- Convergence sublayer maps between the two



802.16 Physical Layer

Based on OFDM; base station gives mobiles bursts (subcarrier/time frame slots) for uplink and downlink



802.16 MAC

Connection-oriented with base station in control

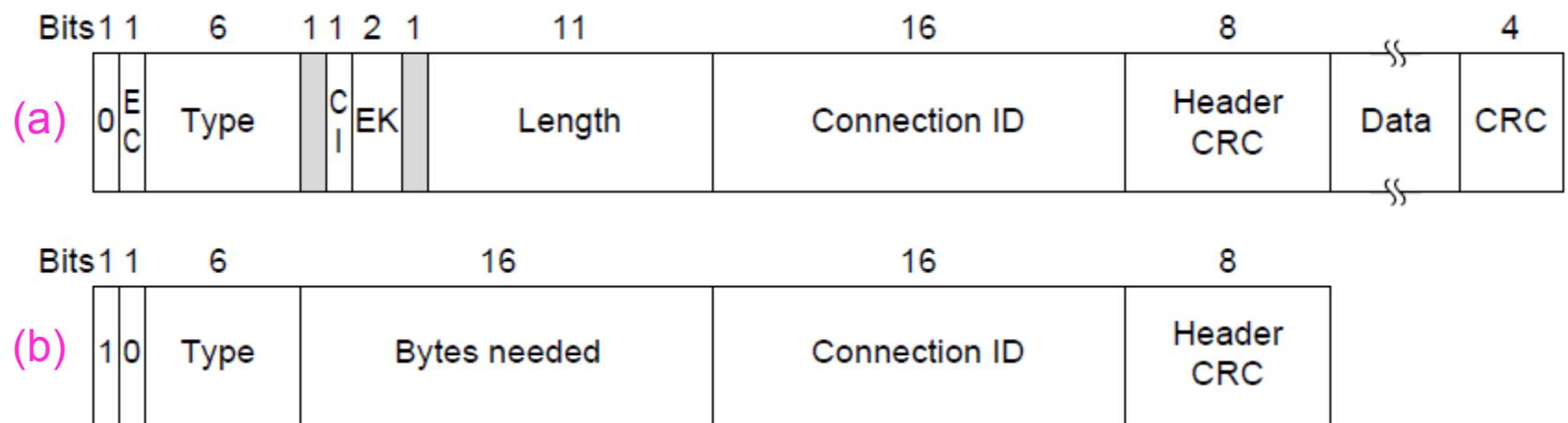
- Clients request the bandwidth they need

Different kinds of service can be requested:

- Constant bit rate, e.g., uncompressed voice
- Real-time variable bit rate, e.g., video, Web
- Non-real-time variable bit rate, e.g., file download
- Best-effort for everything else

802.16 Frames

- Frames vary depending on their type
- Connection ID instead of source/dest addresses



(a) A generic frame. (b) A bandwidth request frame

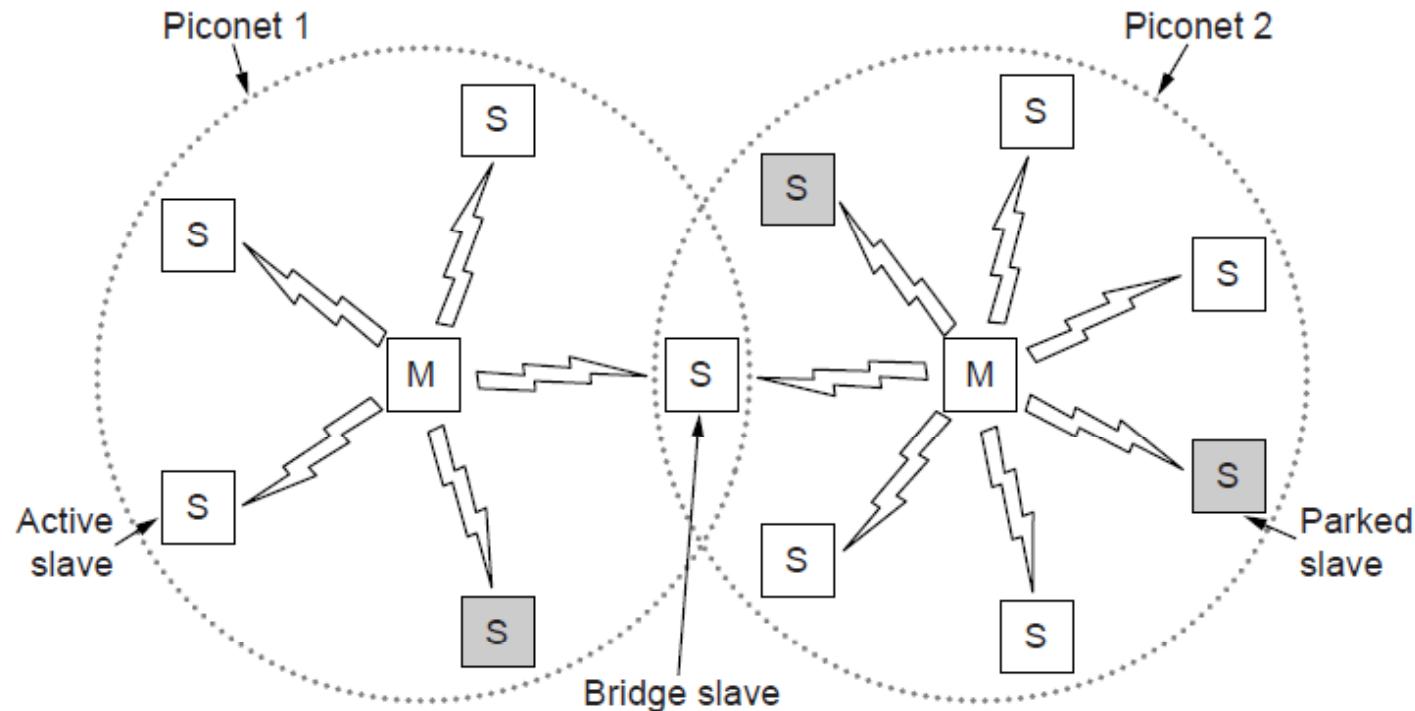
Bluetooth

- Bluetooth Architecture »
- Bluetooth Applications / Protocol »
- Bluetooth Radio / Link Layers »
- Bluetooth Frames »

Bluetooth Architecture

Piconet master is connected to slave wireless devices

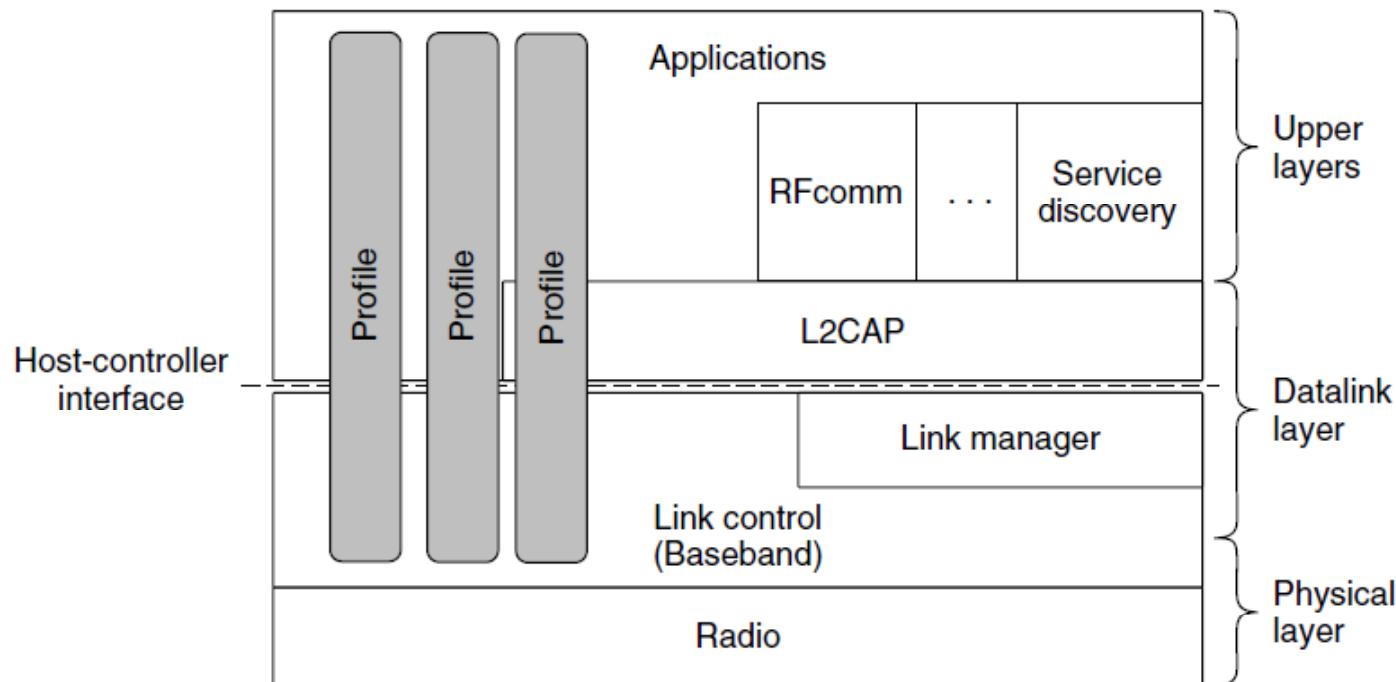
- Slaves may be asleep (parked) to save power
- Two piconets can be bridged into a scatternet



Bluetooth Applications / Protocol Stack

Profiles give the set of protocols for a given application

- 25 profiles, including headset, intercom, streaming audio, remote control, personal area network, ...



Bluetooth Radio / Link Layers

Radio layer

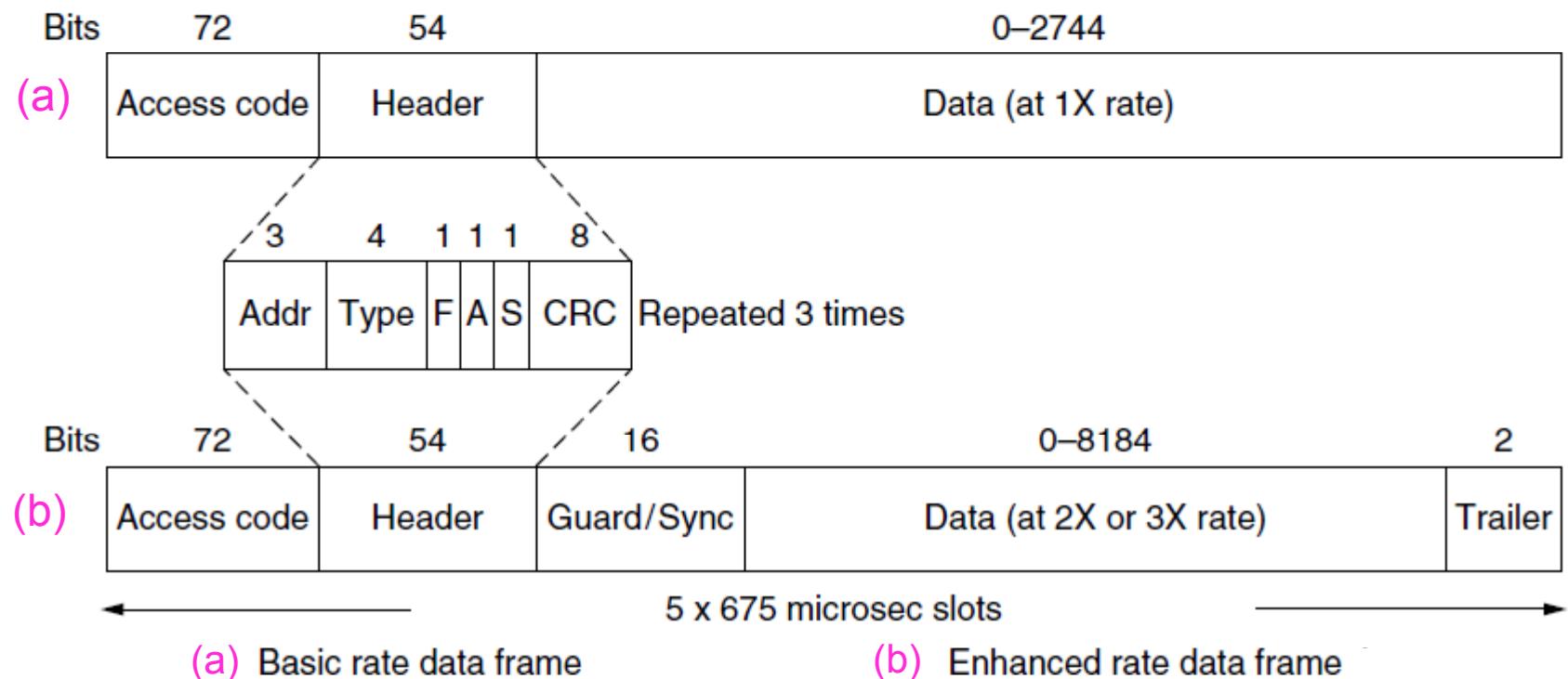
- Uses adaptive frequency hopping in 2.4 GHz band

Link layer

- TDM with timeslots for master and slaves
- Synchronous CO for periodic slots in each direction
- Asynchronous CL for packet-switched data
- Links undergo pairing (user confirms passkey/PIN) to authorize them before use

Bluetooth Frames

Time is slotted; enhanced data rates send faster but for the same time; addresses are only 3 bits for 8 devices

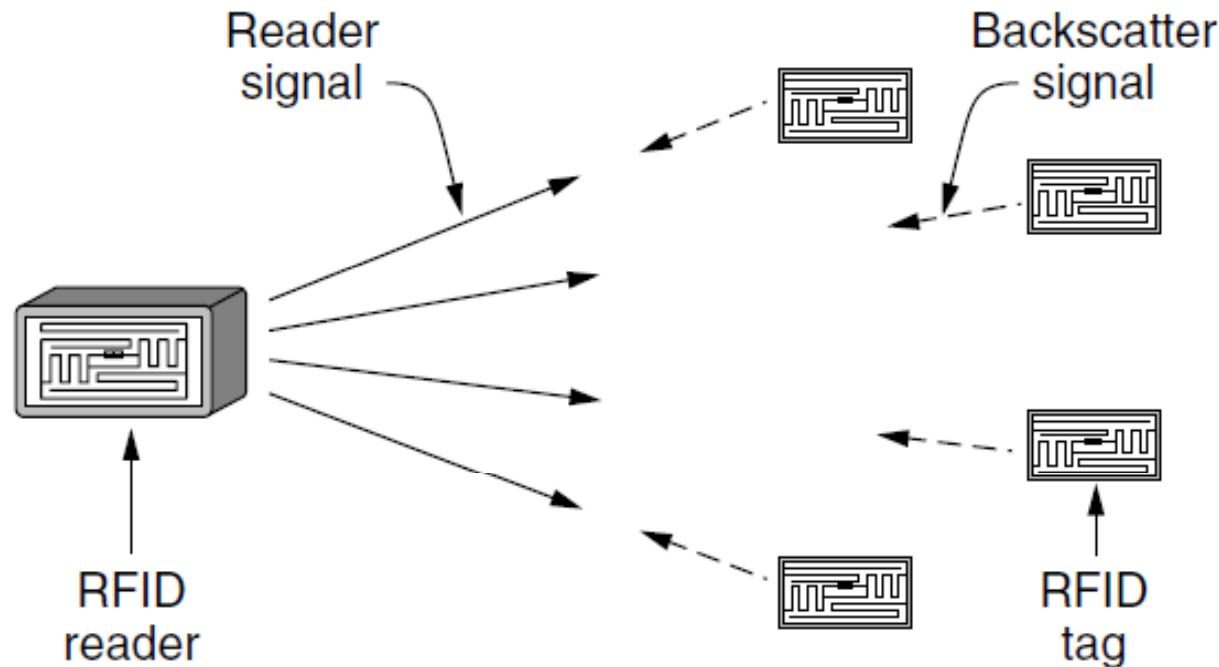


RFID

- Gen 2 Architecture »
- Gen 2 Physical Layer »
- Gen 2 Tag Identification Layer »
- Gen 2 Frames »

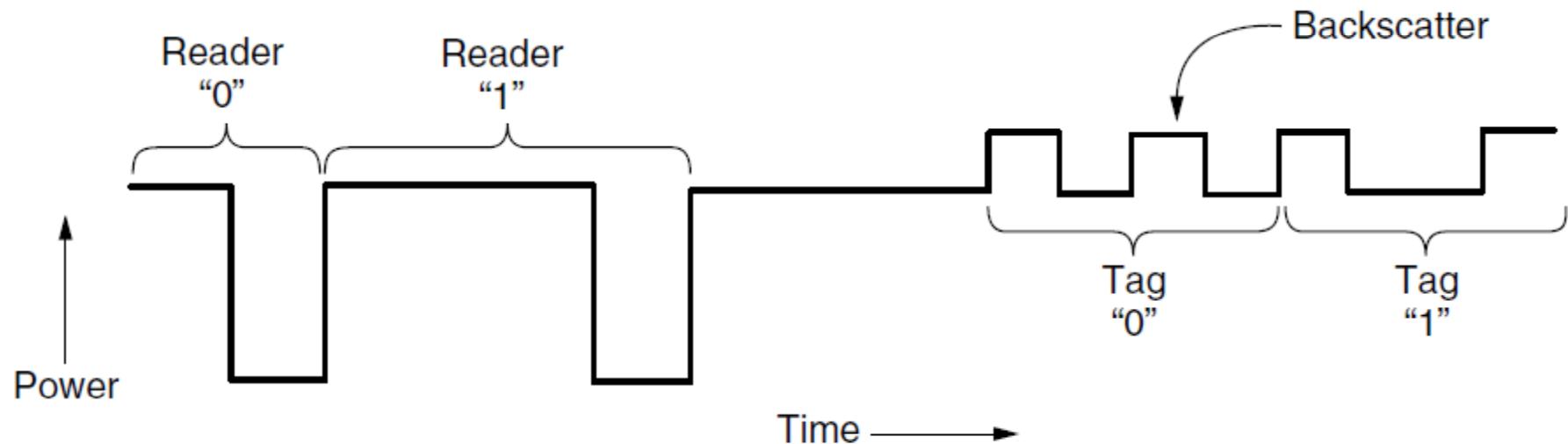
Gen 2 Architecture

Reader signal powers tags; tags reply with backscatter



Gen 2 Physical Layer

- Reader uses duration of on period to send 0/1
- Tag backscatters reader signal in pulses to send 0/1



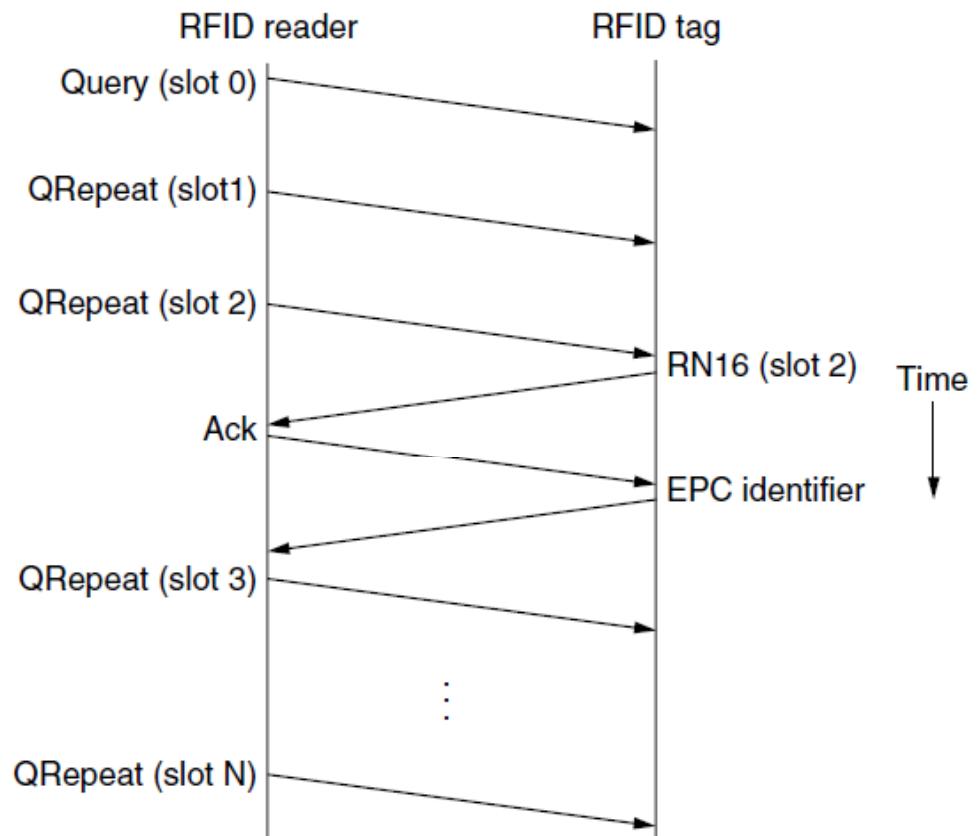
Gen 2 Tag Identification Layer

Reader sends query and sets slot structure

Tags reply (RN16) in a random slot; may collide

Reader asks one tag for its identifier (ACK)

Process continues until no tags are left



Gen 2 Frames

- Reader frames vary depending on type (Command)
 - Query shown below, has parameters and error detection
- Tag responses are simply data
 - Reader sets timing and knows the expected format



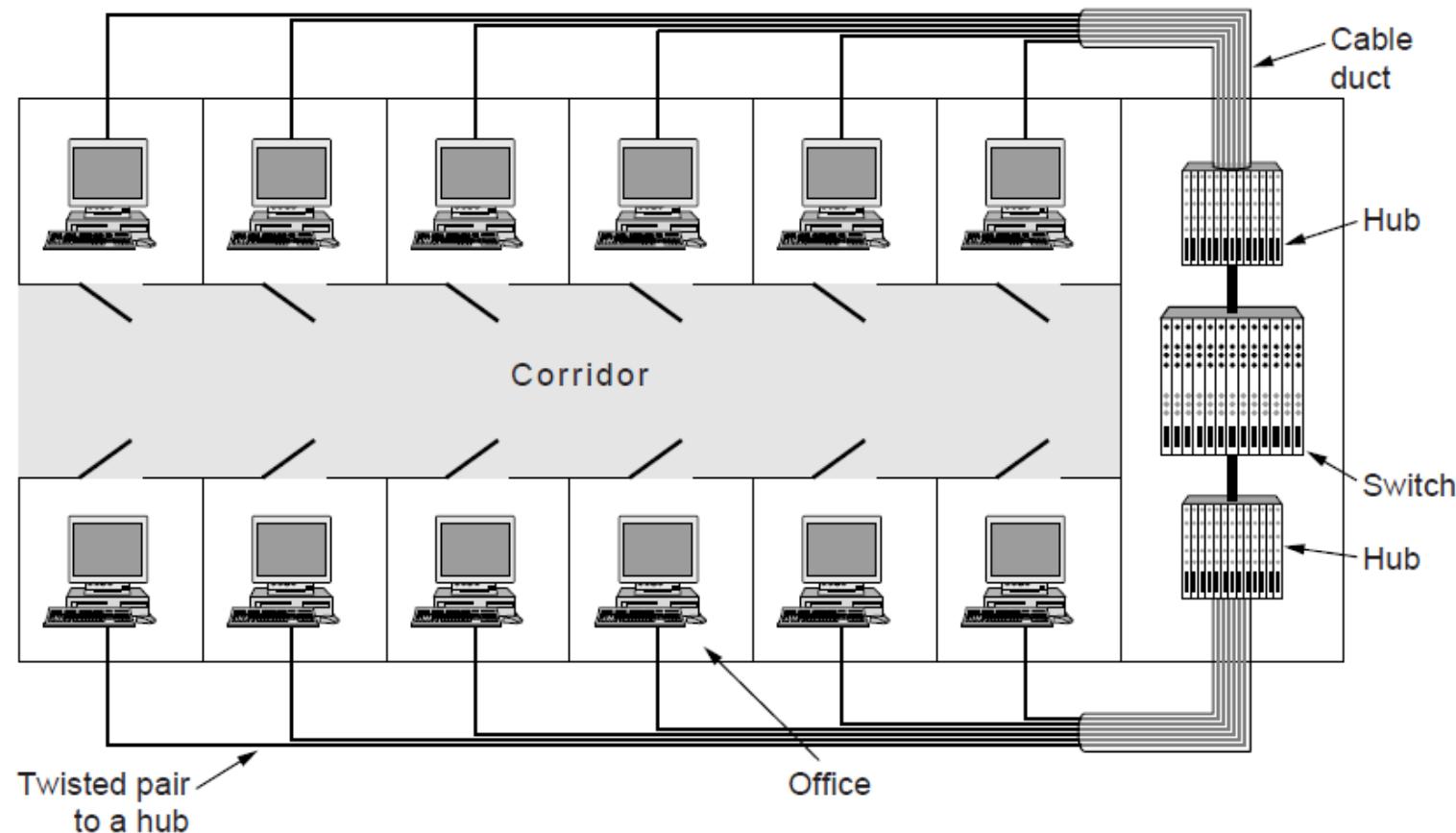
Data Link Layer Switching

- Uses of Bridges »
- Learning Bridges »
- Spanning Tree »
- Repeaters, hubs, bridges, .., routers, gateways »
- Virtual LANs »

Uses of Bridges

Common setup is a building with centralized wiring

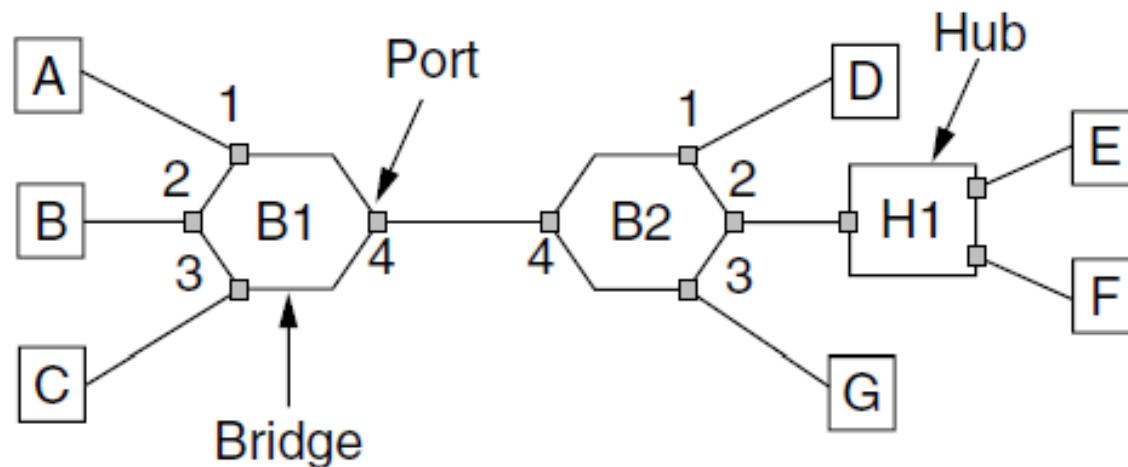
- Bridges (switches) are placed in or near wiring closets



Learning Bridges (1)

A bridge operates as a switched LAN (not a hub)

- Computers, bridges, and hubs connect to its ports



Learning Bridges (2)

Backward learning algorithm picks the output port:

- Associates source address on frame with input port
- Frame with destination address sent to learned port
- Unlearned destinations are sent to all other ports

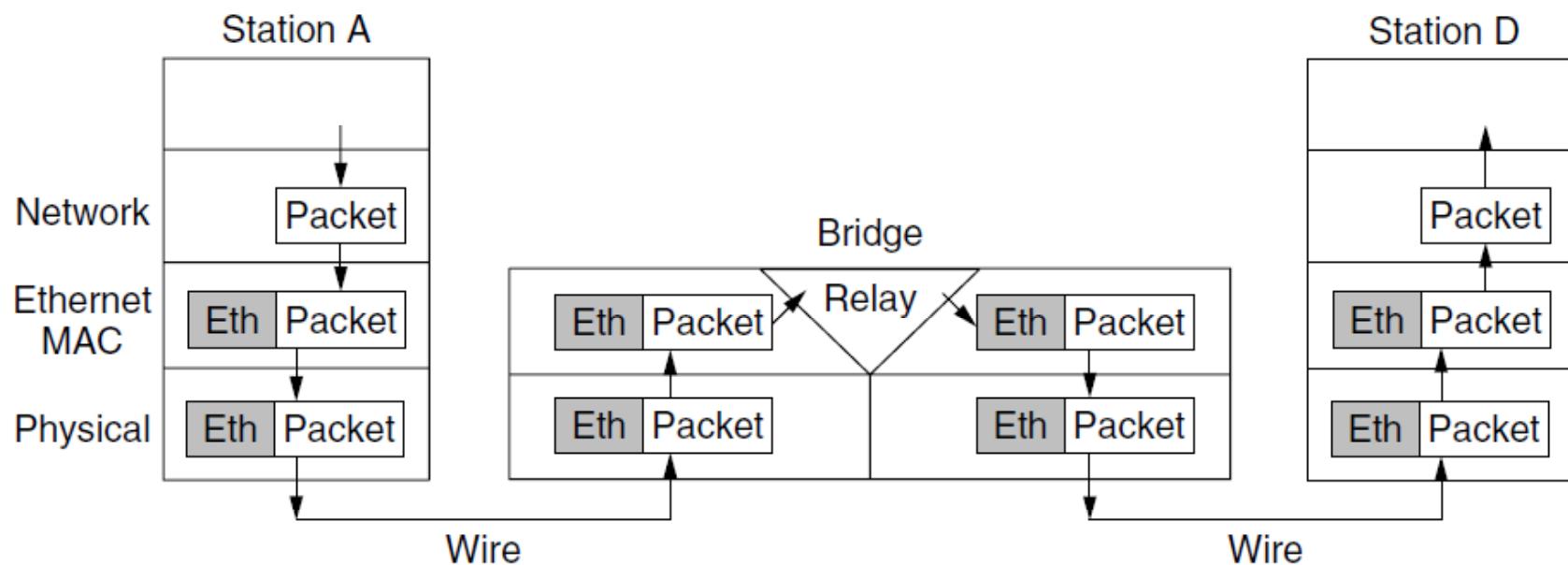
Needs no configuration

- Forget unused addresses to allow changes
- Bandwidth efficient for two-way traffic

Learning Bridges (3)

Bridges extend the Link layer:

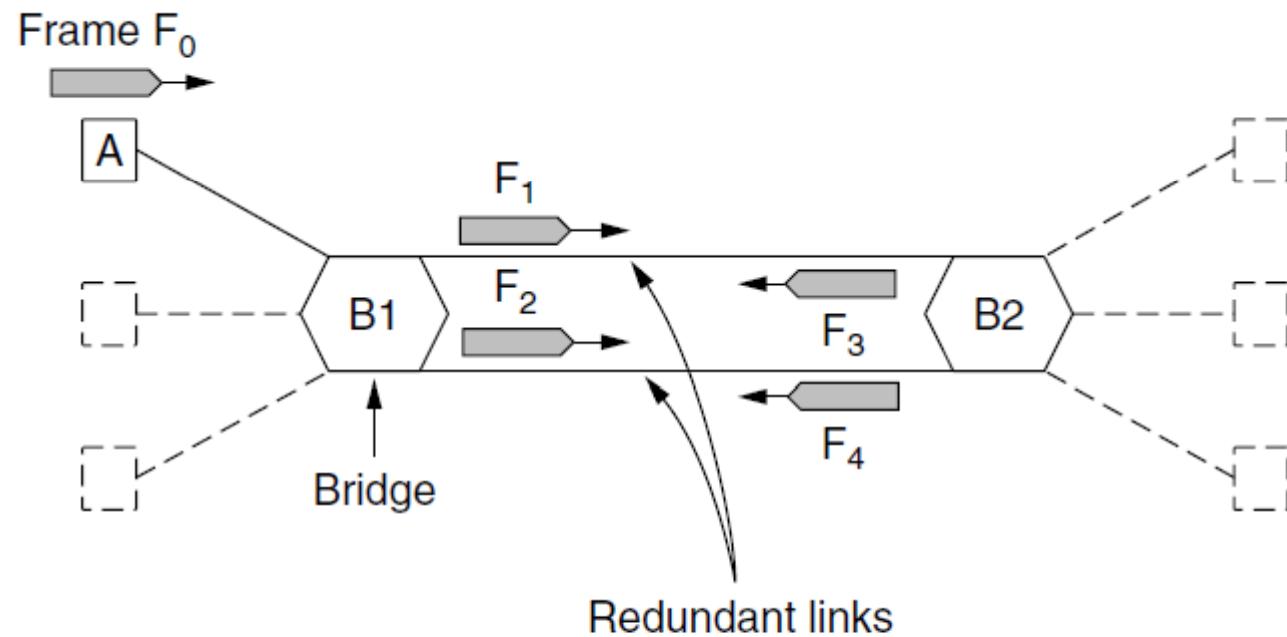
- Use but don't remove Ethernet header/addresses
- Do not inspect Network header



Spanning Tree (1) – Problem

Bridge topologies with loops and only backward learning will cause frames to circulate for ever

- Need spanning tree support to solve problem



Spanning Tree (2) – Algorithm

- Subset of forwarding ports for data is used to avoid loops
- Selected with the spanning tree distributed algorithm by Perlman

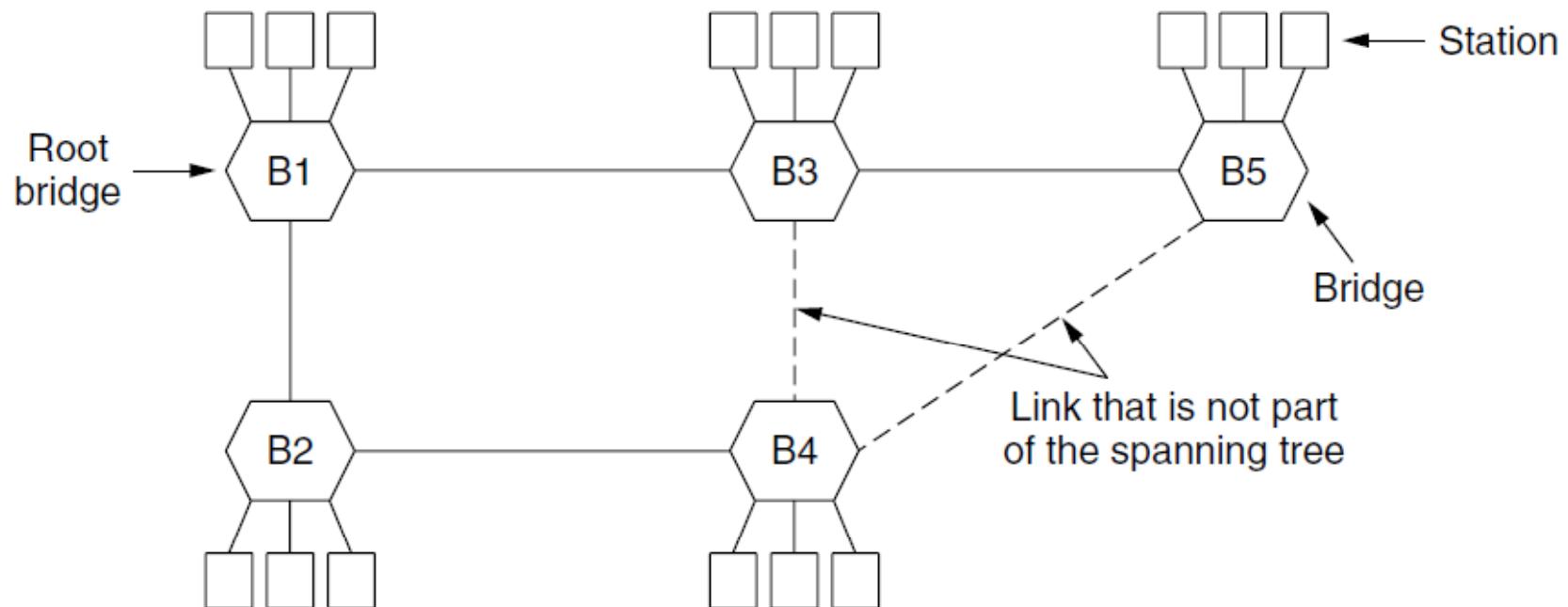
*I think that I shall never see
A graph more lovely than a tree.
A tree whose crucial property
Is loop-free connectivity.
A tree which must be sure to span.
So packets can reach every LAN.
First the Root must be selected
By ID it is elected.
Least cost paths from Root are traced
In the tree these paths are placed.
A mesh is made by folks like me
Then bridges find a spanning tree.*

– Radia Perlman, 1985.

Spanning Tree (3) – Example

After the algorithm runs:

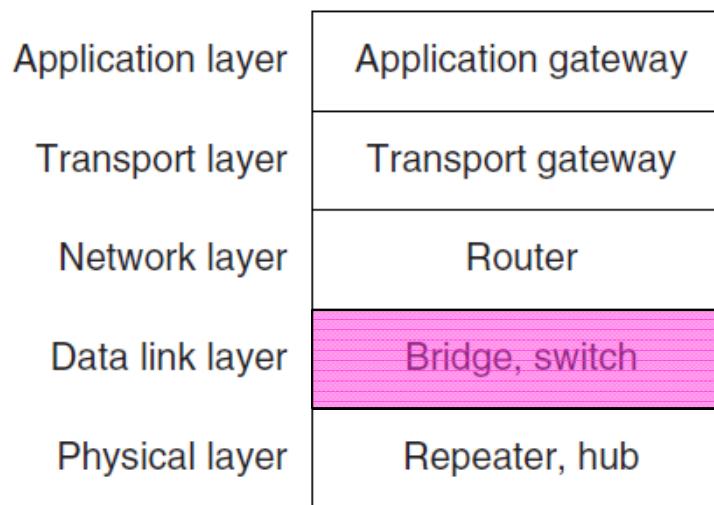
- B1 is the root, two dashed links are turned off
- B4 uses link to B2 (lower than B3 also at distance 1)
- B5 uses B3 (distance 1 versus B4 at distance 2)



Repeaters, Hubs, Bridges, Switches, Routers, & Gateways

Devices are named according to the layer they process

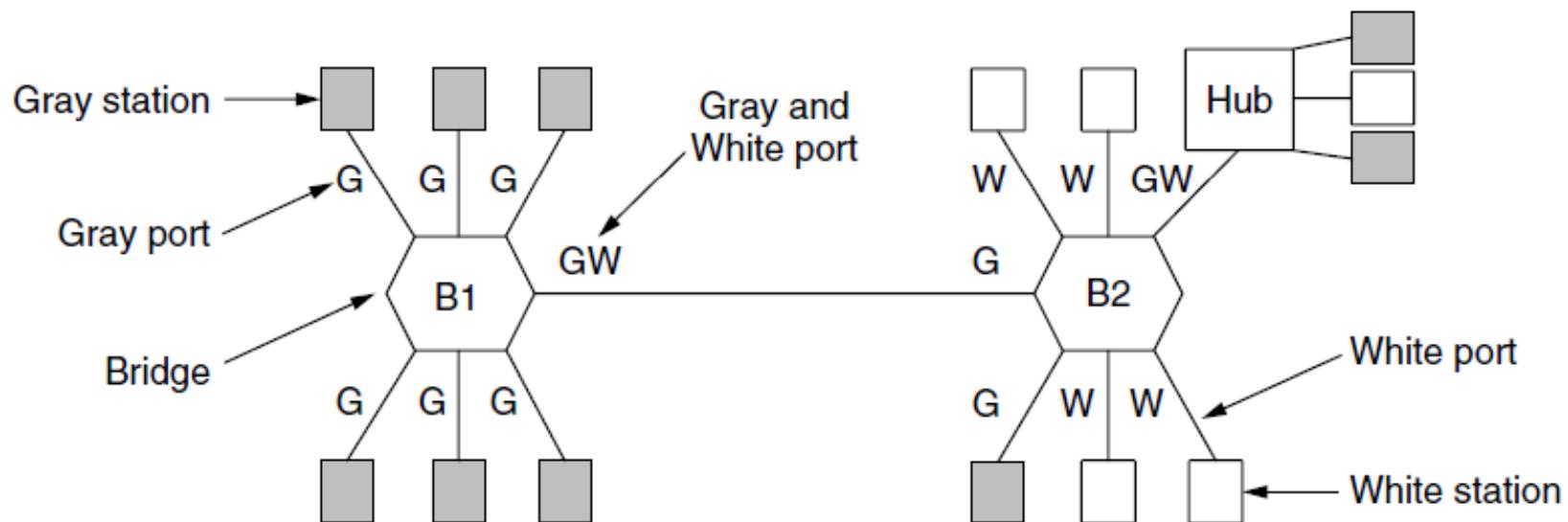
- A bridge or LAN switch operates in the Link layer



Virtual LANs (1)

VLANs (Virtual LANs) splits one physical LAN into multiple logical LANs to ease management tasks

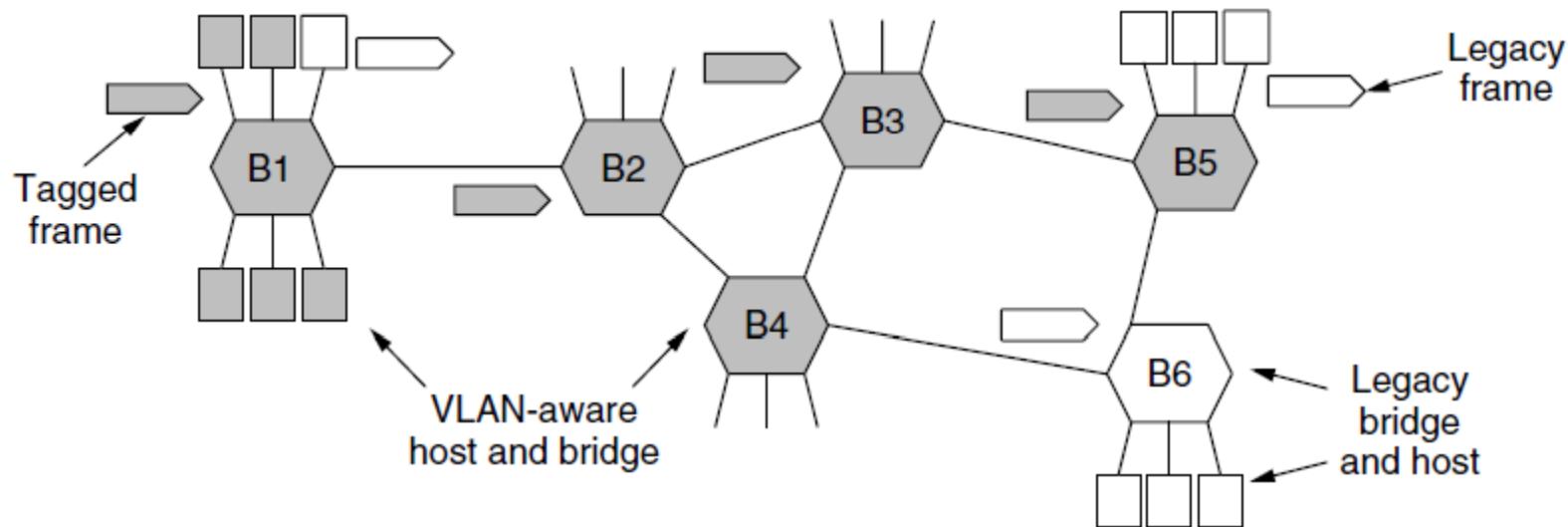
- Ports are “colored” according to their VLAN



Virtual LANs (2) – IEEE 802.1Q

Bridges need to be aware of VLANs to support them

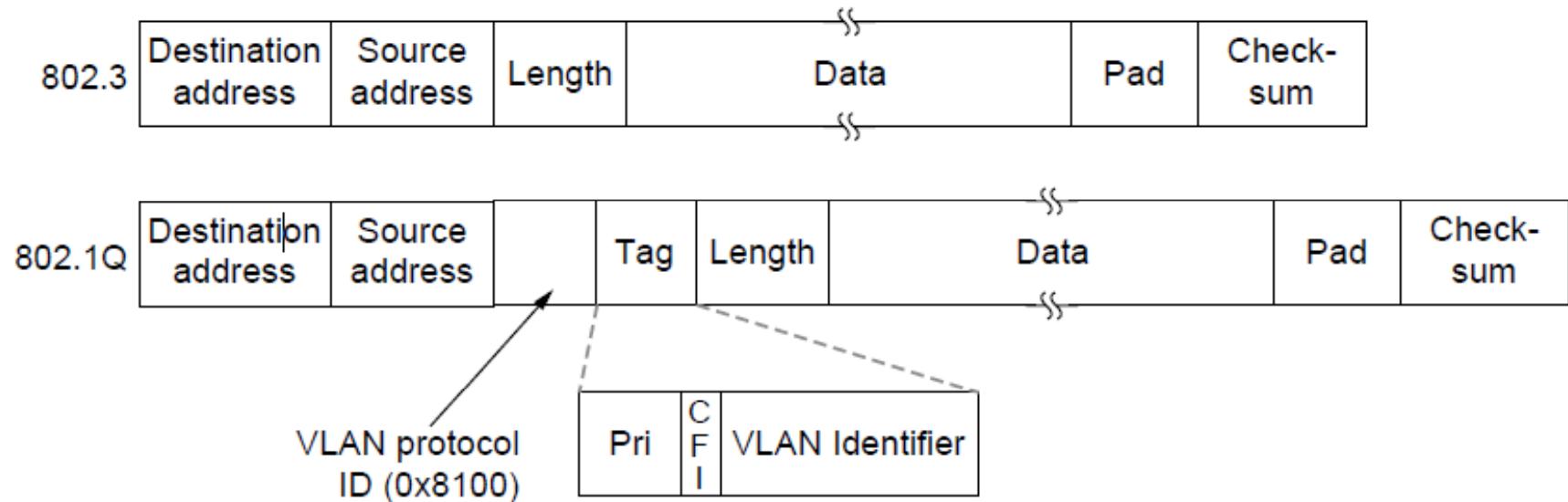
- In 802.1Q, frames are tagged with their “color”
- Legacy switches with no tags are supported



Virtual LANs (3) – IEEE 802.1Q

802.1Q frames carry a color tag (VLAN identifier)

- Length/Type value is 0x8100 for VLAN protocol



End

Chapter 4