

Chapter 5

Link Layer and LANs

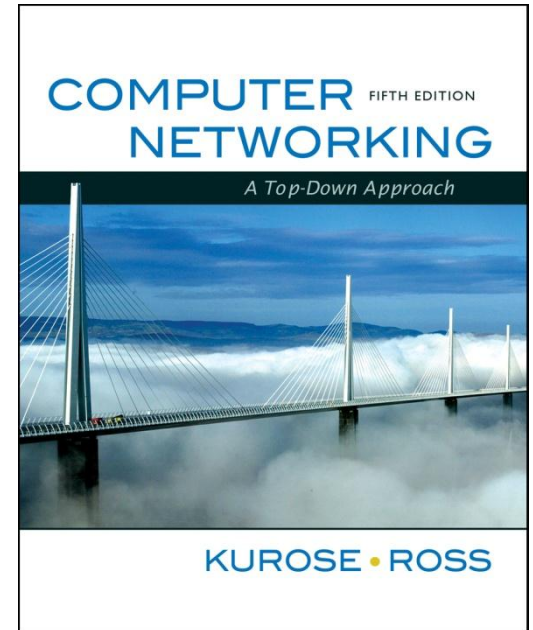
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Computer Networking:
A Top Down Approach
5th edition.
Jim Kurose, Keith Ross
Addison-Wesley, April
2009.

Chapter 5: The Data Link Layer

Our goals:

- ❑ understand principles behind data link layer services:
 - error detection, correction
 - sharing a broadcast channel: multiple access
 - link layer addressing
 - reliable data transfer, flow control: *done!*
- ❑ instantiation and implementation of various link layer technologies

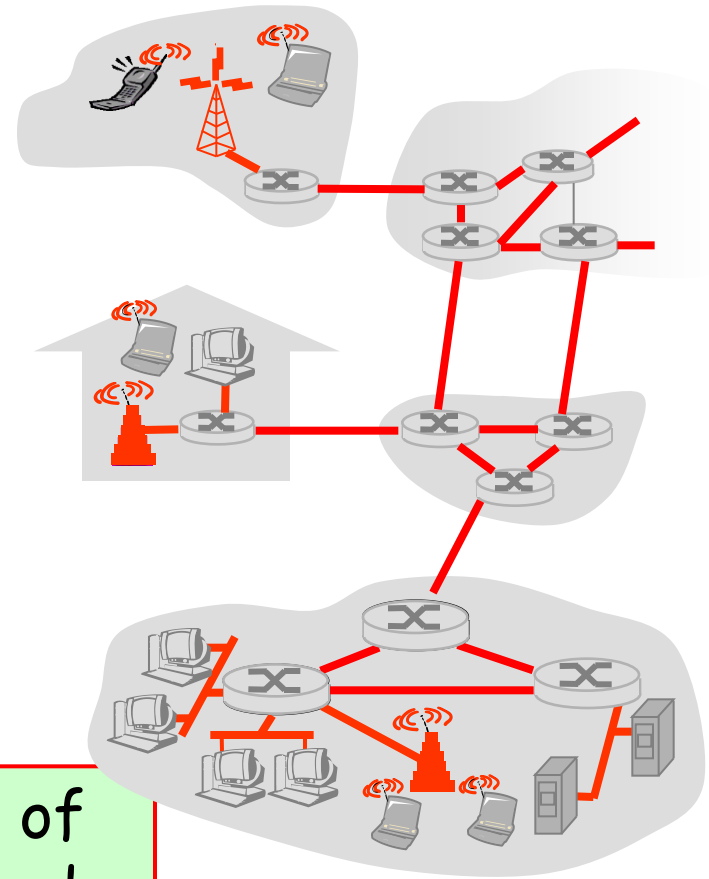
Link Layer

- ❑ 5.1 Introduction and services
- ❑ 5.2 Error detection and correction
- ❑ 5.3 Multiple access protocols
- ❑ 5.4 Link-layer Addressing
- ❑ 5.5 Ethernet
- ❑ 5.6 Link-layer switches
- ❑ 5.7 PPP
- ❑ 5.8 Link virtualization: ATM, MPLS

Link Layer: Introduction

Some terminology:

- ❑ hosts and routers are **nodes** (bridges and switches too)
- ❑ communication channels that connect adjacent nodes along communication path are **links**
 - wired links
 - wireless links
 - LANs
- ❑ layer-2 packet is a **frame**, encapsulates datagram



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

Link layer: context

- Datagram transferred by different link protocols over different links:

- e.g., Ethernet on first link, frame relay on intermediate links, 802.11 on last link

- Each link protocol provides different services

- e.g., may or may not provide rdt over link

transportation analogy

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

Link Layer Services

□ Framing, link access:

- encapsulate datagram into frame, adding header, trailer
- channel access if shared medium
- "MAC" addresses used in frame headers to identify source, dest
 - different from IP address!

□ Reliable delivery between adjacent nodes

- we learned how to do this already (chapter 3)!
- seldom used on low bit error link (fiber, some twisted pair)
- wireless links: high error rates
 - Q: why both link-level and end-end reliability?

Link Layer Services (more)

❑ *Flow Control:*

- pacing between adjacent sending and receiving nodes

❑ *Error Detection:*

- errors caused by signal attenuation, noise.
- receiver detects presence of errors:
 - signals sender for retransmission or drops frame

❑ *Error Correction:*

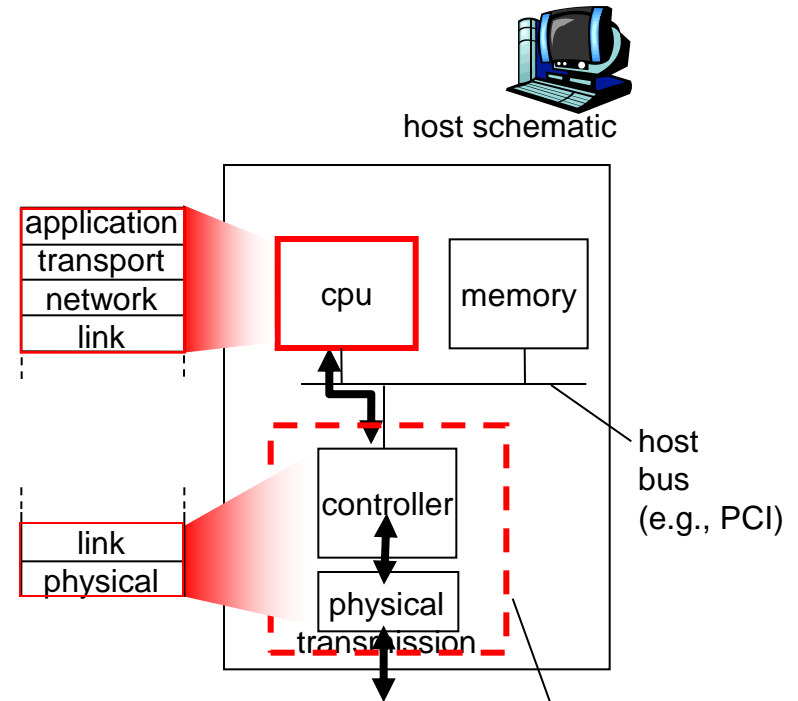
- receiver identifies *and* corrects bit error(s) without resorting to retransmission

❑ *Half-duplex and full-duplex*

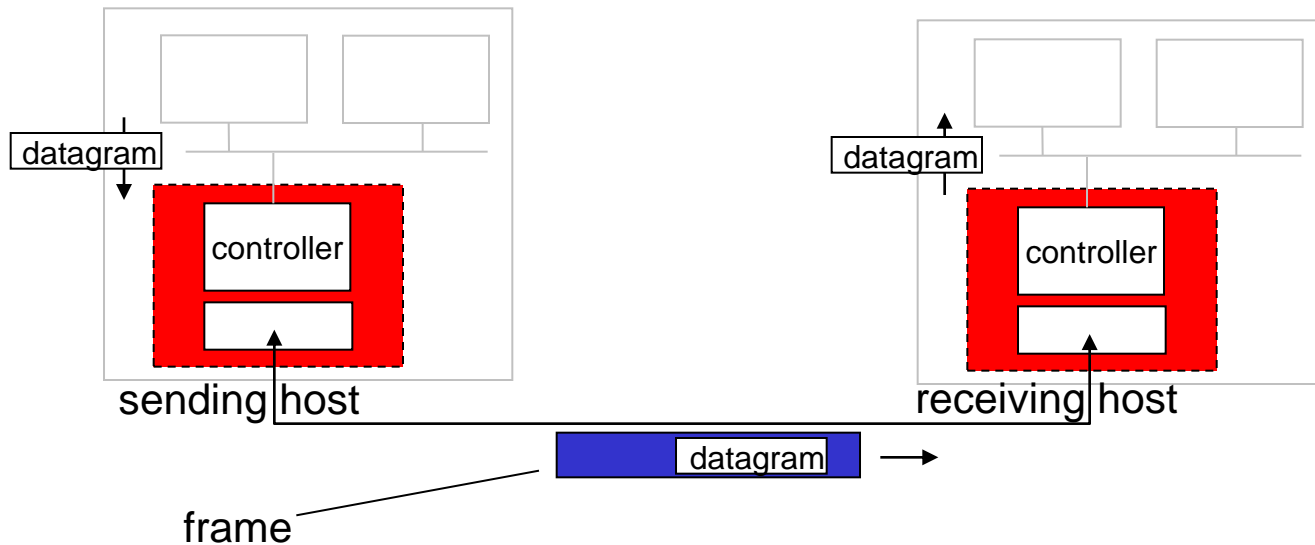
- with half duplex, nodes at both ends of link can transmit, but not at the same time

Where is the link layer implemented?

- in each and every host
- link layer implemented in "adaptor" (aka *network interface card* NIC)
 - Ethernet card, PCMCIA card, 802.11 card
 - implements link, physical layer
- attaches into host's system buses
- combination of hardware, software, firmware



Adaptors Communicating



□ sending side:

- encapsulates datagram in frame
- adds error checking bits, rdt, flow control, etc.

□ receiving side

- looks for errors, rdt, flow control, etc
- extracts datagram, passes to upper layer at receiving side

Link Layer

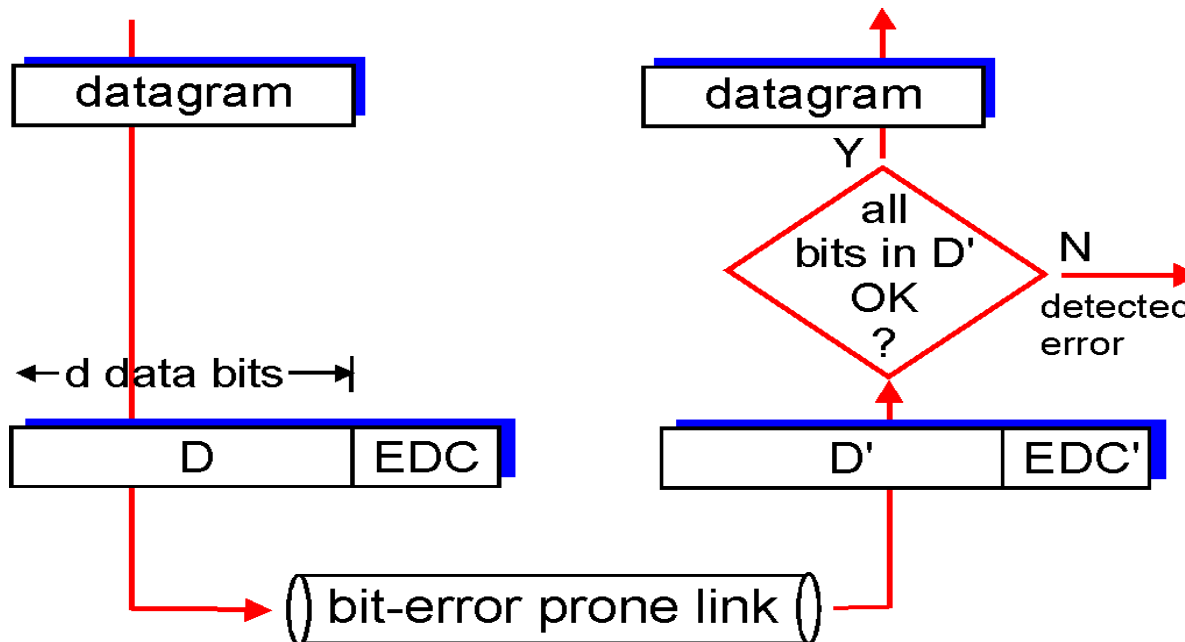
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Error Detection

EDC= Error Detection and Correction bits (redundancy)

D = Data protected by error checking, may include header fields

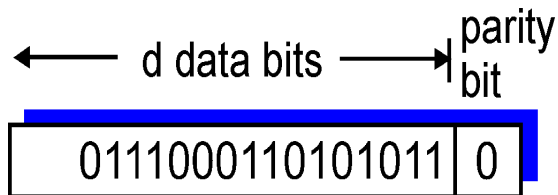
- Error detection is not 100% reliable!
 - protocol may miss some errors, but rarely
 - larger EDC field yields better detection and correction



Parity Checking

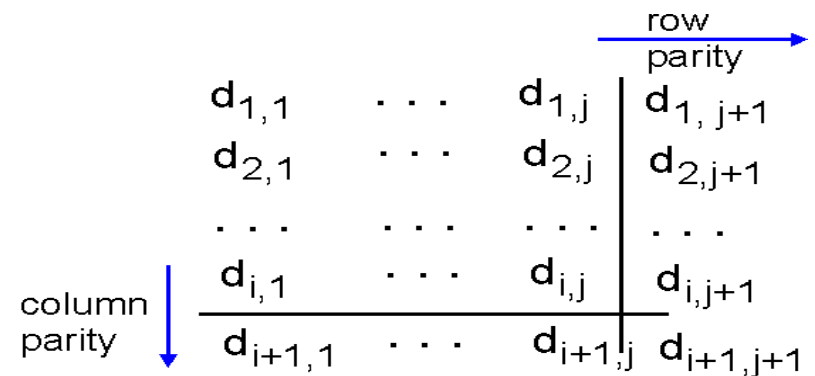
Single Bit Parity:

Detect single bit errors



Two Dimensional Bit Parity:

Detect *and correct* single bit errors



even (odd) parity bit

- An even (odd) parity bit is set to 1, if the number of ones in a given set of bits is odd (even)
- making the *total* number of ones, including the parity bit, even (odd).

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

no errors

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

parity error

correctable
single bit error

Internet checksum

Goal: detect "errors" (e.g., flipped bits) in transmitted segment (note: used at transport layer *only*)

Sender:

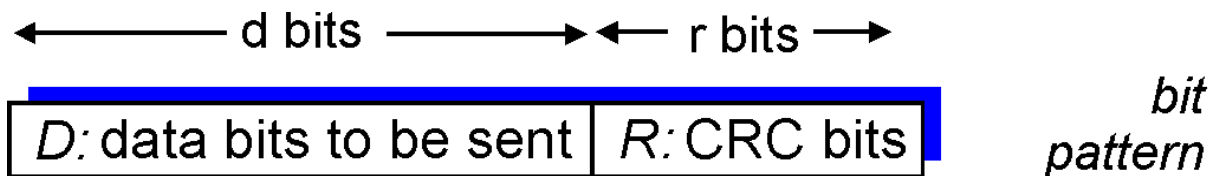
- ❑ treat segment contents as sequence of 16-bit integers
- ❑ checksum: addition (1's complement sum) of segment contents
- ❑ sender puts checksum value into UDP checksum field

Receiver:

- ❑ compute checksum of received segment
- ❑ check if computed checksum equals checksum field value:
 - NO - error detected
 - YES - no error detected. *But maybe errors nonetheless?*
More later

Checksumming: Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC)

- ❑ view data bits, **D**, as a binary number
- ❑ choose $r+1$ bit pattern (generator), **G**
- ❑ goal: choose r CRC bits, **R**, such that
 - $\langle D, R \rangle$ exactly divisible by G (modulo 2)
 - receiver knows G , divides $\langle D, R \rangle$ by G . If non-zero remainder: error detected!
 - can detect all burst errors less than $r+1$ bits
- ❑ widely used in practice (ATM, HDCL)



$$D * 2^r \text{ XOR } R$$

mathematical formula

CRC Example

Want:

$$D \cdot 2^r \text{ XOR } R = nG$$

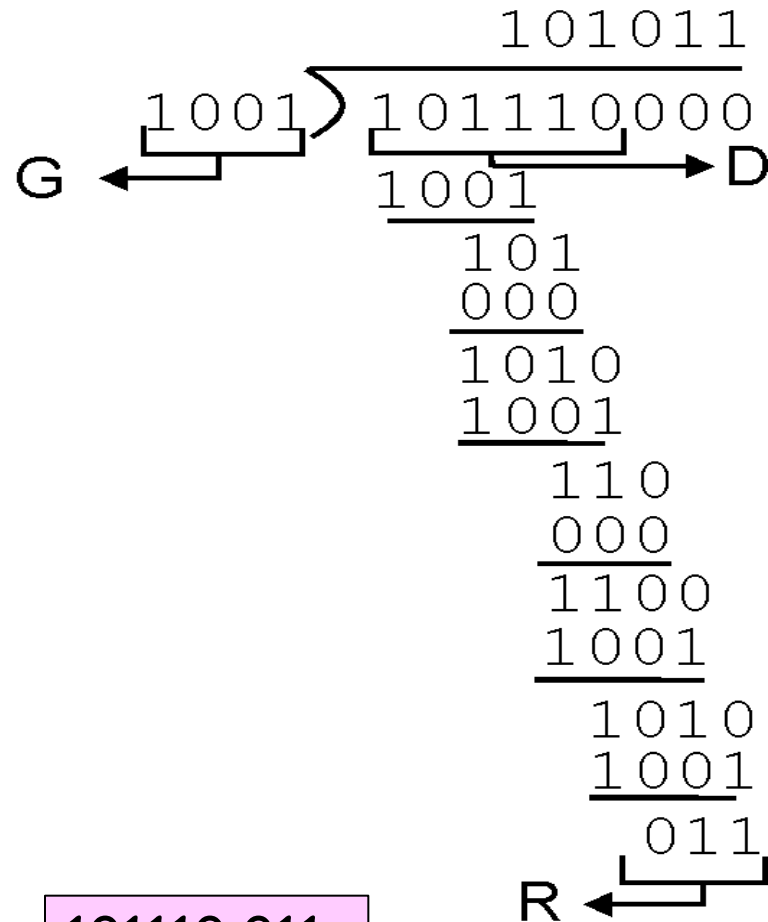
equivalently:

$$D \cdot 2^r = nG \text{ XOR } R$$

equivalently:

if we divide $D \cdot 2^r$ by G , want remainder R

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



101110 011

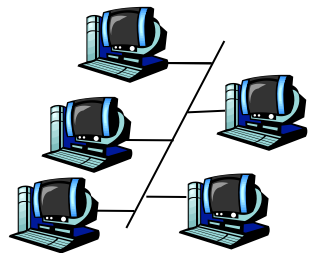
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Multiple Access Links and Protocols

Two types of "links":

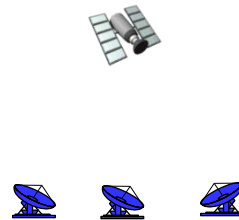
- ❑ point-to-point
 - PPP for dial-up access
 - point-to-point link between Ethernet switch and host (PPPoE)
- ❑ **broadcast** (shared wire or medium)
 - old-fashioned Ethernet
 - upstream HFC
 - 802.11 wireless LAN



shared wire (e.g.,
cabled Ethernet)



shared RF
(e.g., 802.11 WiFi)



shared RF
(satellite)



humans at a
cocktail party
(shared air, acoustical)

Multiple Access control protocols

- ❑ single shared broadcast channel
- ❑ two or more simultaneous transmissions by nodes:
interference -> one at a time
 - collision if node receives two or more signals at the same time

multiple access control protocol

- ❑ A distributed algorithm that determines how nodes share channel, i.e., determine when and which node can transmit
- ❑ communication about channel sharing must use channel itself!
 - no out-of-band channel for coordination

Ideal Multiple Access Control Protocol

Broadcast channel of rate R bps

1. When one node wants to transmit, it can send at rate R .
2. When M nodes want to transmit, each can send at average rate R/M
3. Fully decentralized:
 - no special node to coordinate transmissions
 - no synchronization of clocks, slots
4. Simple

MAC (Medium Access Control) Protocols: a taxonomy

Three broad classes:

❑ Channel Partitioning

- divide channel into smaller "pieces" (time slots, frequency, code)
- allocate piece to node for exclusive use

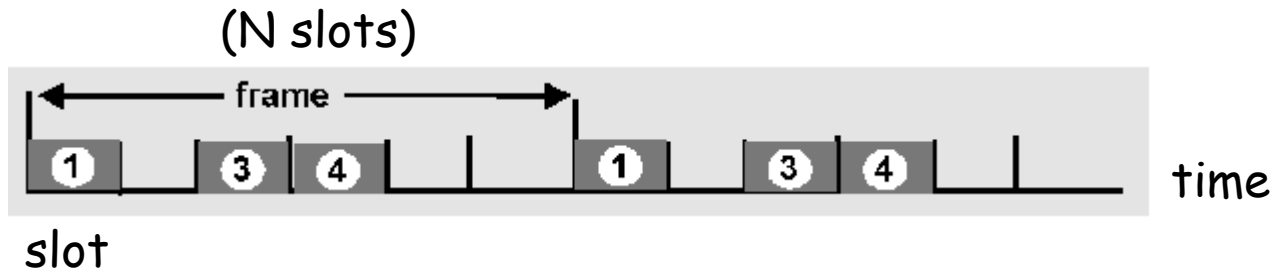
❑ Random Access

- channel not divided, allow collisions
- "recover" from collisions

❑ "Taking turns"

- Nodes take turns, but nodes with more to send can take longer turns

Channel Partitioning MAC protocols: TDMA



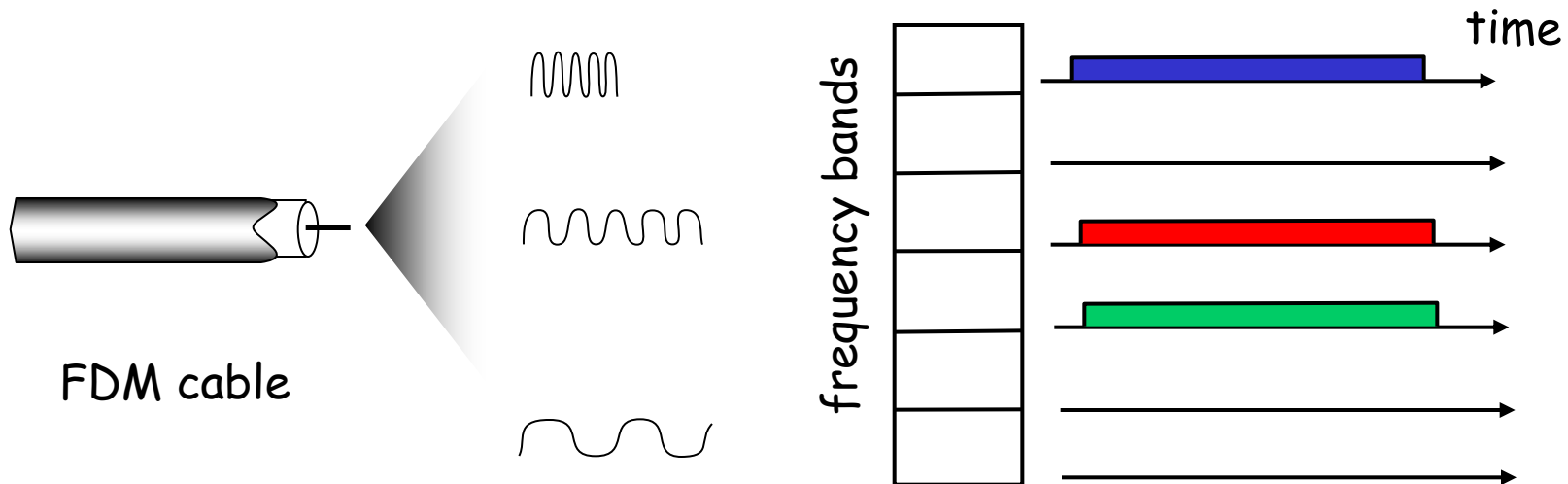
TDMA: time division multiple access

- ❑ channel divided into N time slots (frames)
- ❑ access to channel in "rounds"
- ❑ each station gets fixed length slot (length = pkt trans time) in each round
- ❑ unused slots go idle
- ❑ example: 6-station LAN, 1,3,4 have pkt, slots 2,5,6 idle
- ❑ inefficient with low duty cycle users and at light load.

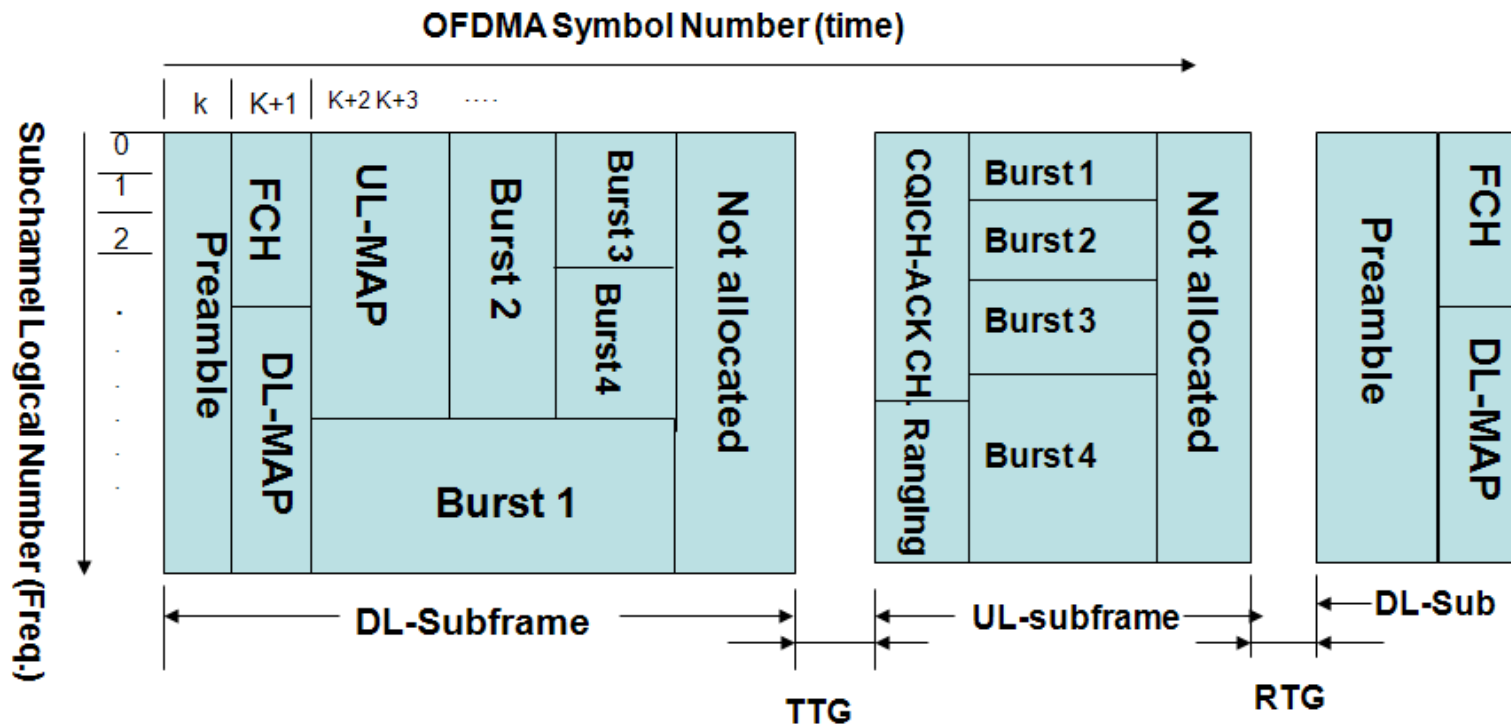
Channel Partitioning MAC protocols: FDMA

FDMA: frequency division multiple access

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



WiMAX



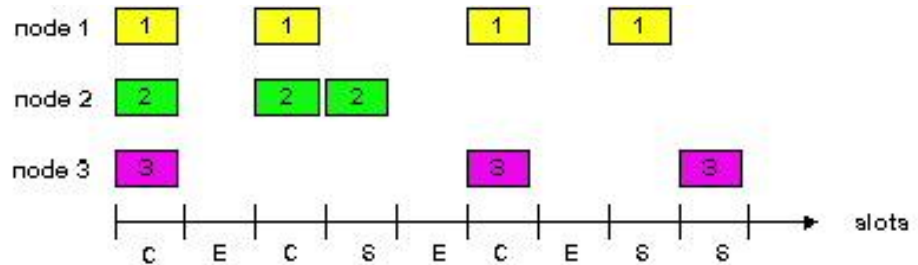
Random Access Protocols

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

Slotted ALOHA

Assumptions

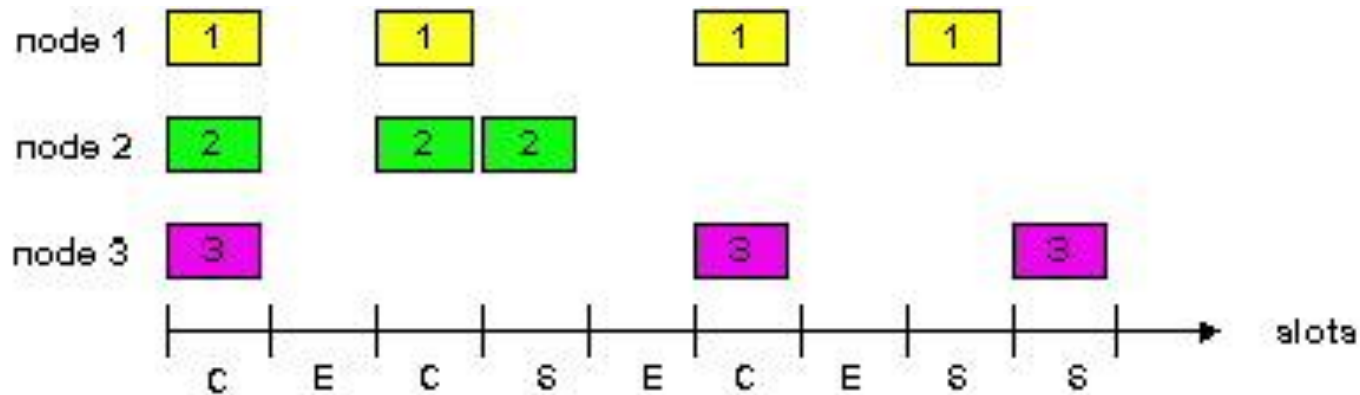
- ❑ all frames same size
- ❑ time is divided into equal size slots, time to transmit 1 frame
- ❑ nodes start to transmit frames only at beginning of slots
- ❑ nodes are synchronized
- ❑ if 2 or more nodes transmit in slot, all nodes detect collision



Operation

- ❑ when node obtains fresh frame (packet), it transmits in next slot
- ❑ no collision, node can send new frame in next slot
- ❑ if collision, node retransmits frame in each subsequent slot with prob. p until success

Slotted ALOHA



Pros

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

Cons

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

Slotted Aloha efficiency

Efficiency is the long-run fraction of successful slots when there are many nodes, each with many frames to send

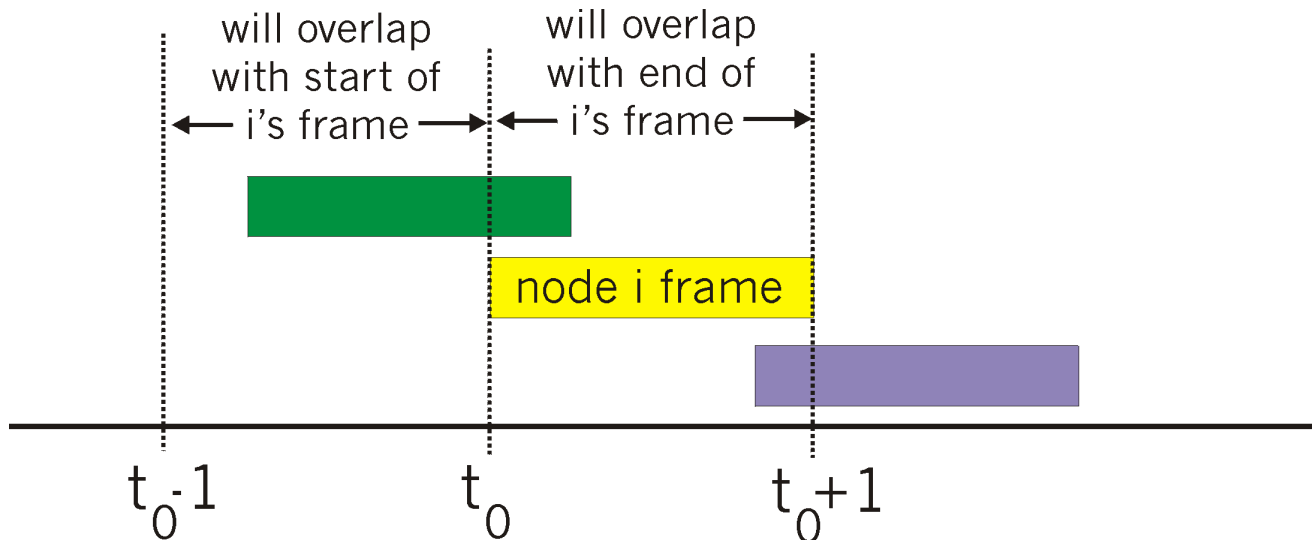
- Suppose N nodes with many frames to send, each transmits in slot with probability p
- prob that node 1 has success in a slot
 $= p(1-p)^{N-1}$
- prob that any node has a success $= Np(1-p)^{N-1}$

- For max efficiency with N nodes, find p^* that maximizes $Np(1-p)^{N-1}$
- For many nodes, take limit of $Np^*(1-p^*)^{N-1}$ as N goes to infinity, gives $1/e = .37$

At best: channel used for useful transmissions 37% of time!

Pure (unslotted) ALOHA

- simpler, no synchronization
- when frame first arrives
 - transmit immediately
- collision probability increases:
 - frame sent at t_0 collides with other frames sent in $[t_0-1, t_0+1]$



Pure Aloha efficiency

$P(\text{success by given node}) = P(\text{node transmits}) \cdot$

$$\begin{aligned} & P(\text{no other node transmits in } [p_0-1, p_0]) \cdot \\ & P(\text{no other node transmits in } [p_0, p_0+1]) \\ &= p \cdot (1-p)^{N-1} \cdot (1-p)^{N-1} \\ &= p \cdot (1-p)^{2(N-1)} \end{aligned}$$

... choosing optimum p and then letting $n \rightarrow \infty$...

Even worse ! $= 1/(2e) = .18$

p is the probability that a node has a frame to send

CSMA (Carrier Sense Multiple Access)

CSMA: listen before transmit:

- ❑ If channel sensed idle: transmit entire frame
- ❑ If channel sensed busy, defer transmission

- ❑ Human analogy: don't interrupt others!

CSMA collisions

collisions *can still occur*:

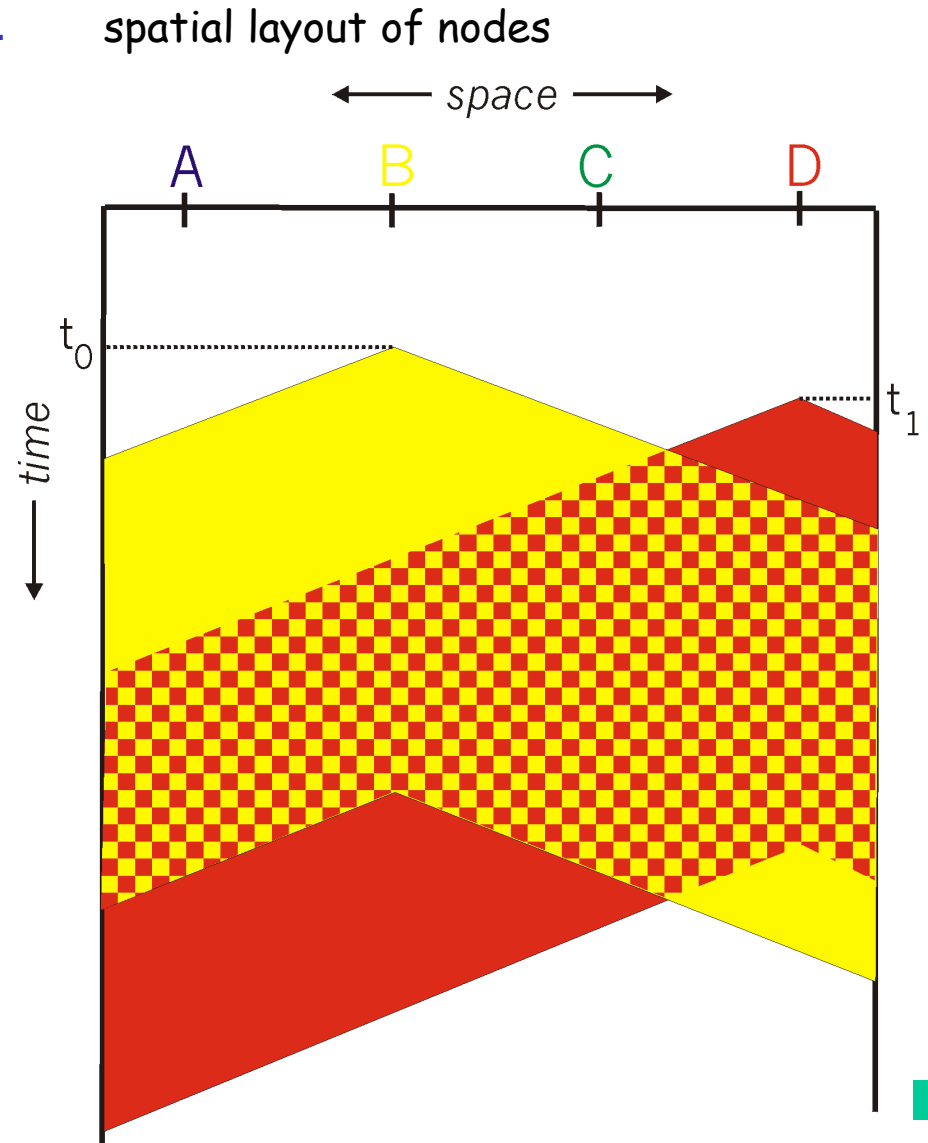
propagation delay means
two nodes may not hear
each other's transmission

collision:

entire packet transmission
time wasted

note:

role of distance & propagation
delay in determining collision
probability

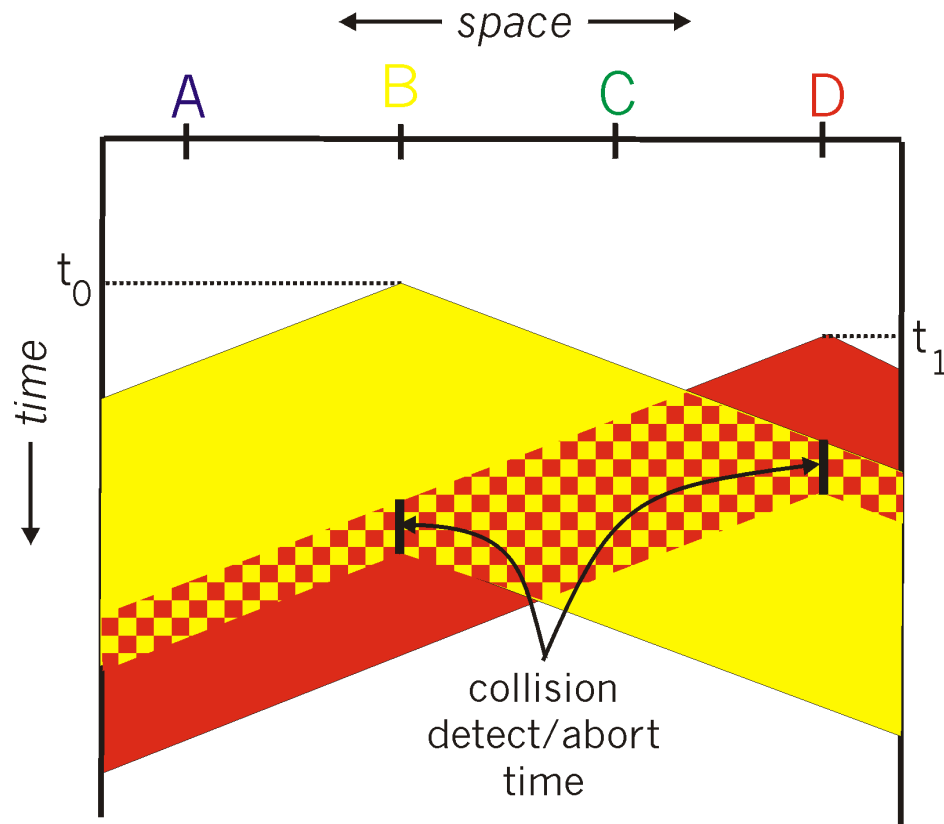


CSMA/CD (Collision Detection)

CSMA/CD: carrier sensing, deferral as in CSMA

- collisions *detected* within short time
- colliding transmissions aborted, reducing channel wastage
- collision detection:
 - easy in wired LANs: measure signal strengths, compare transmitted, received signals
 - difficult in wireless LANs: receiver shut off while transmitting
- human analogy: the polite conversationalist

CSMA/CD collision detection



“Taking Turns” MAC protocols

channel partitioning MAC protocols:

- share channel **efficiently** and **fairly** at high load
- **inefficient at low load**: delay in channel access, 1/N bandwidth allocated even if only 1 active node!

Random access MAC protocols

- **efficient at low load**: single node can fully utilize channel
- **high load: collision overhead**

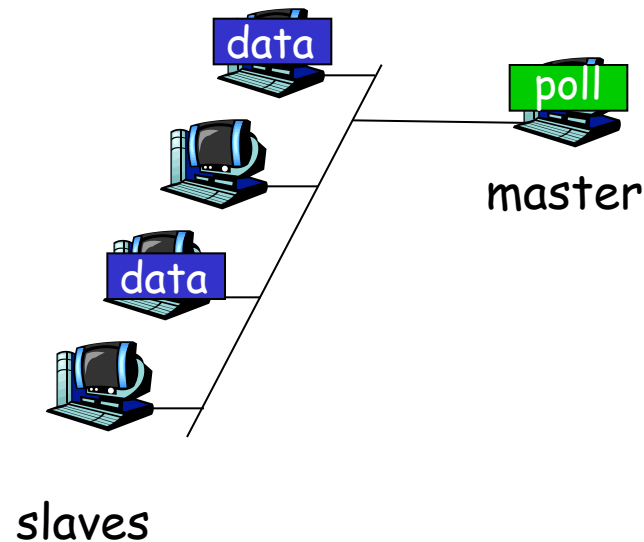
“taking turns” protocols

look for best of both worlds!

"Taking Turns" MAC protocols

Polling:

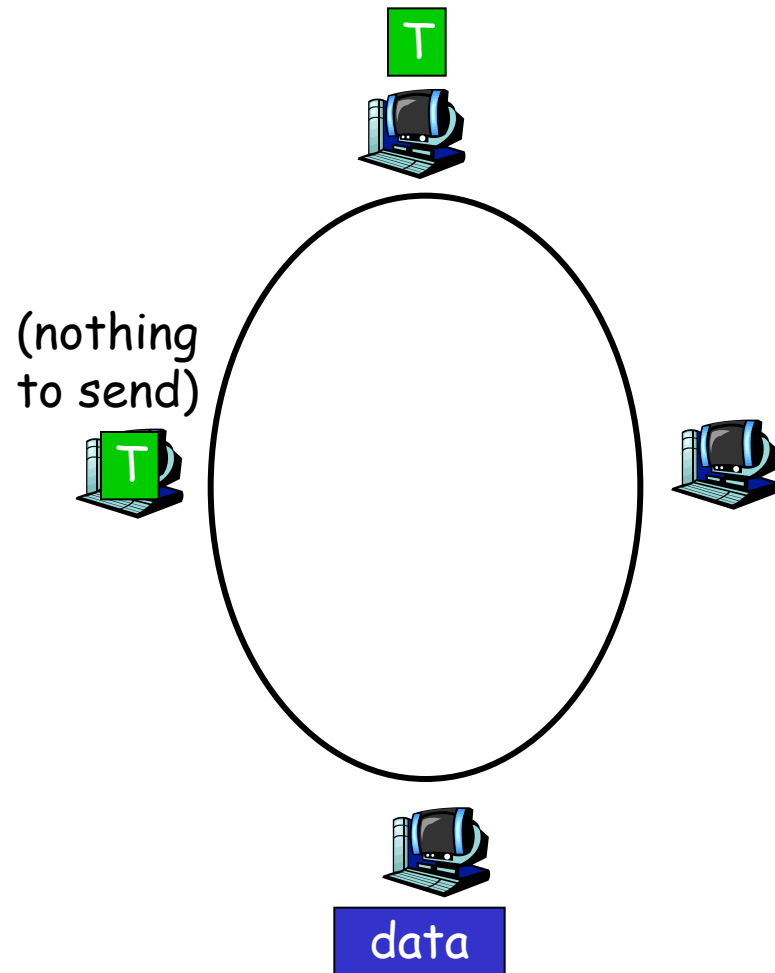
- ❑ master node
"invites" slave nodes to transmit in turn
- ❑ typically used with "dumb" slave devices
- ❑ concerns:
 - polling overhead
 - latency
 - single point of failure (master)



"Taking Turns" MAC protocols

Token passing:

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



Summary of MAC protocols

- What do you do with a shared media?
 - Channel Partitioning, by time, frequency or code
 - Time Division, Frequency Division
 - Random partitioning (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 a central site, token passing

Link Layer

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MAC Addresses and ARP

□ 32-bit IP address:

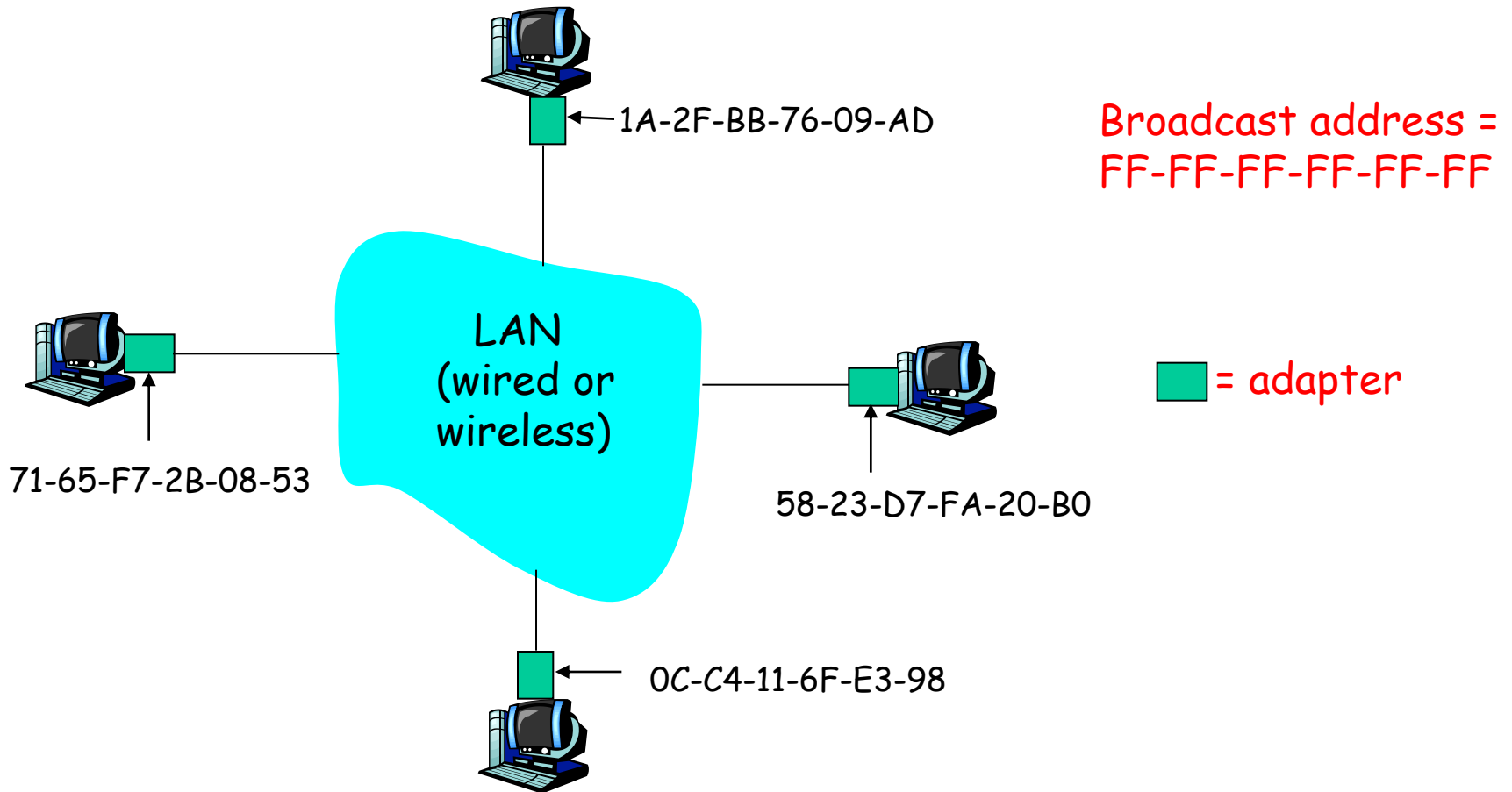
- *network-layer* address
- used to get datagram to destination IP subnet

□ MAC (or LAN or physical or Ethernet) address:

- used to get datagram from one interface to another physically-connected interface (same network)
- 48 bit MAC address (for most LANs) burned in the adapter ROM

LAN Addresses and ARP

Each adapter on LAN has unique LAN address



Broadcast address =
FF-FF-FF-FF-FF-FF

■ = adapter

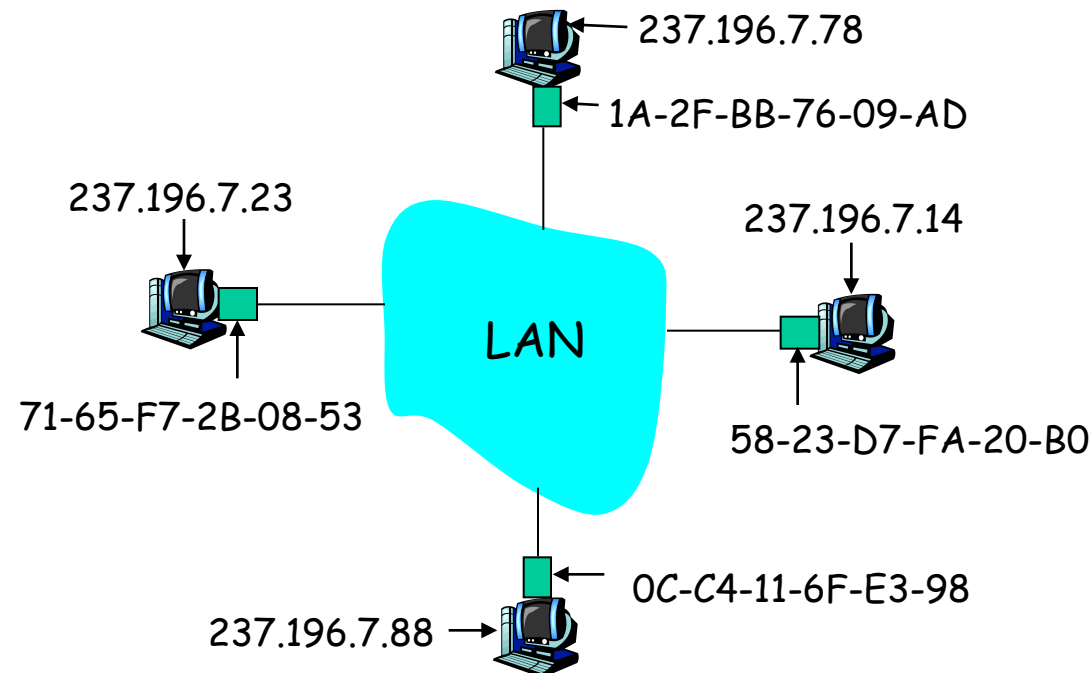
LAN Address (more)

- ❑ MAC address allocation administered by IEEE
- ❑ manufacturer buys portion of MAC address space (to assure uniqueness)
- ❑ Analogy:
 - (a) MAC address: like Social Security Number
 - (b) IP address: like postal address
- ❑ MAC flat address → portability
 - can move LAN card from one LAN to another
- ❑ IP hierarchical address NOT portable
 - depends on IP subnet to which node is attached

ARP: Address Resolution Protocol

Question: how to determine MAC address of B knowing B's IP address?

- Each IP node (Host, Router) on LAN has **ARP** table
- ARP Table: IP/MAC address mappings for some LAN nodes
 - < IP address; MAC address; TTL >
 - TTL (Time To Live): time after which address mapping will be forgotten (typically 20 min)

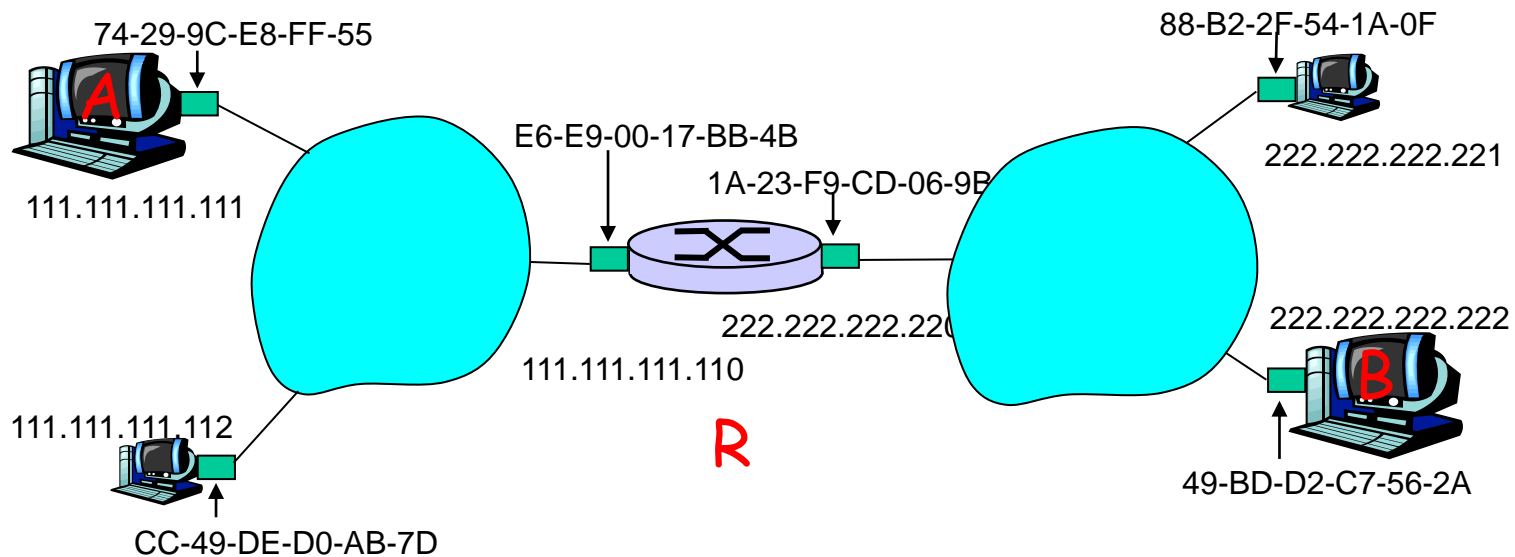


ARP protocol: Same LAN (network)

- ❑ A wants to send datagram to B, and B's MAC address not in A's ARP table.
- ❑ A **broadcasts** ARP query packet, containing B's IP address
 - Dest MAC address = FF-FF-FF-FF-FF-FF
 - all machines on LAN receive ARP query
- ❑ B receives ARP packet, replies to A with its (B's) MAC address
 - frame sent to A's MAC address (unicast)
- ❑ A caches (saves) IP-to-MAC address pair in its ARP table until information becomes old (times out)
 - soft state: information that times out (goes away) unless refreshed
- ❑ ARP is "plug-and-play":
 - nodes create their ARP tables without intervention from net administrator

Addressing: routing to another LAN

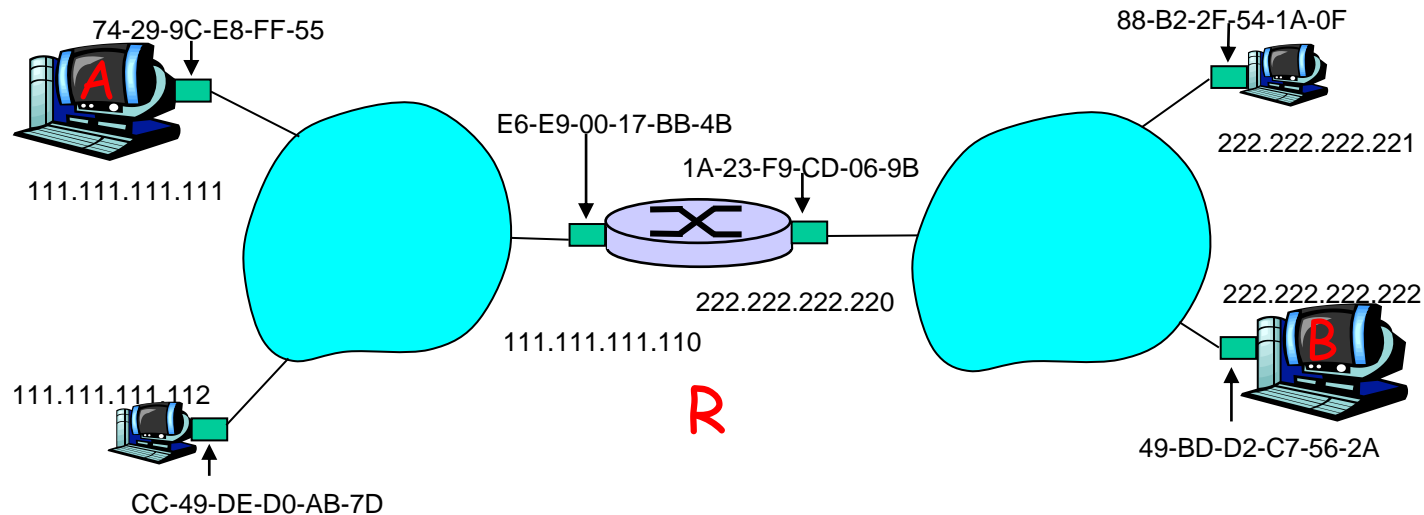
walkthrough: **send datagram from A to B via R**
assume A knows B's IP address



- two ARP tables in router R, one for each IP network (LAN)

1. A creates IP datagram with source A, destination B
2. A uses ARP to get R's MAC address for 111.111.111.110
3. A creates link-layer frame with R's MAC address as dest, frame contains A-to-B IP datagram
4. A's NIC sends frame
5. R's NIC receives frame
6. R removes IP datagram from Ethernet frame, sees its destined to B
7. R uses ARP to get B's MAC address
8. R creates frame containing A-to-B IP datagram sends to B

This is a **really** important example - make sure you understand!



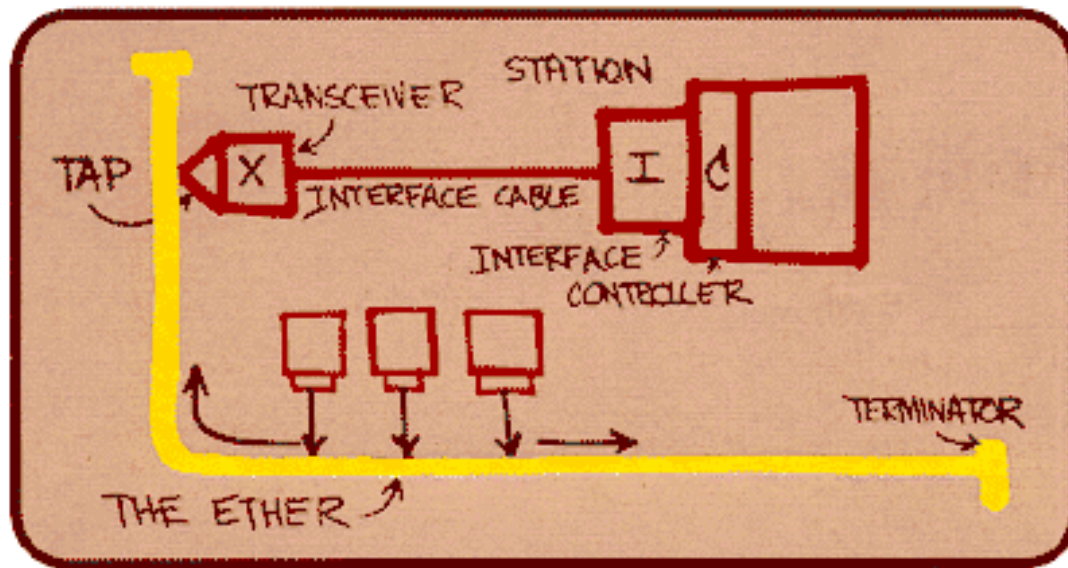
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Ethernet

“dominant” wired LAN technology:

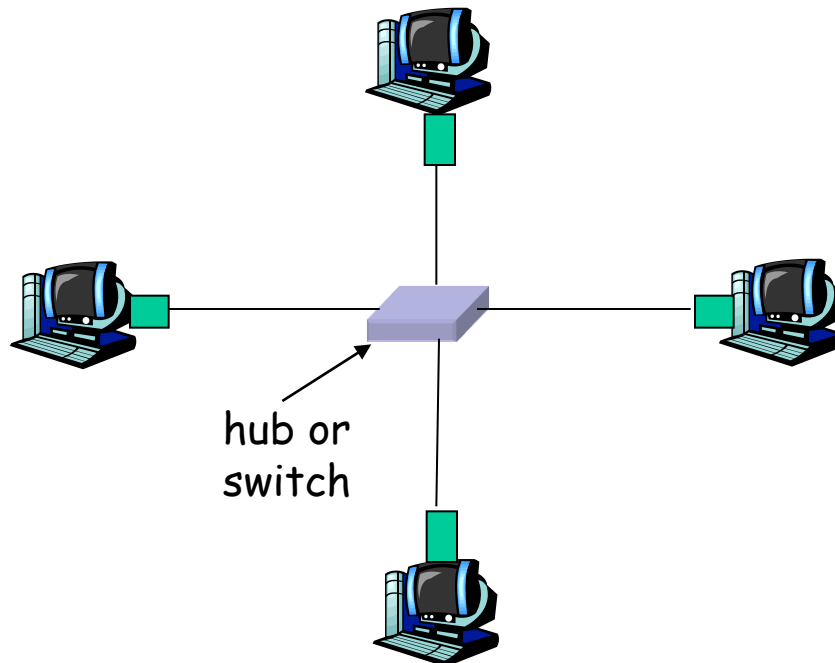
- ❑ cheap \$20 for 100Mbps!
- ❑ first widely used LAN technology
- ❑ Simpler, cheaper than token LANs and ATM
- ❑ Kept up with speed race: 10 Mbps - 10 Gbps



Metcalfe's Ethernet sketch

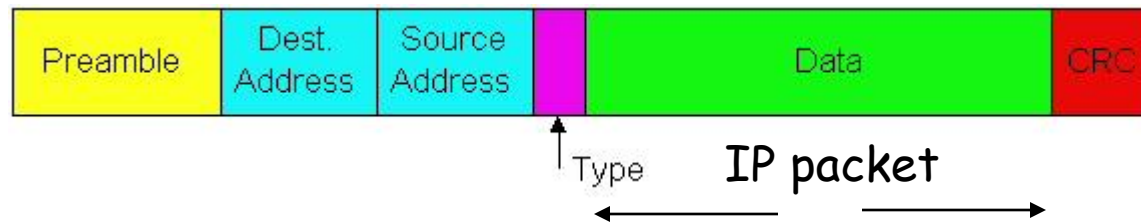
Star topology

- ❑ Bus topology popular through mid 90s
- ❑ Now **star** topology prevails
- ❑ Connection choices: hub or **switch** (more later)



Ethernet Frame Structure

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



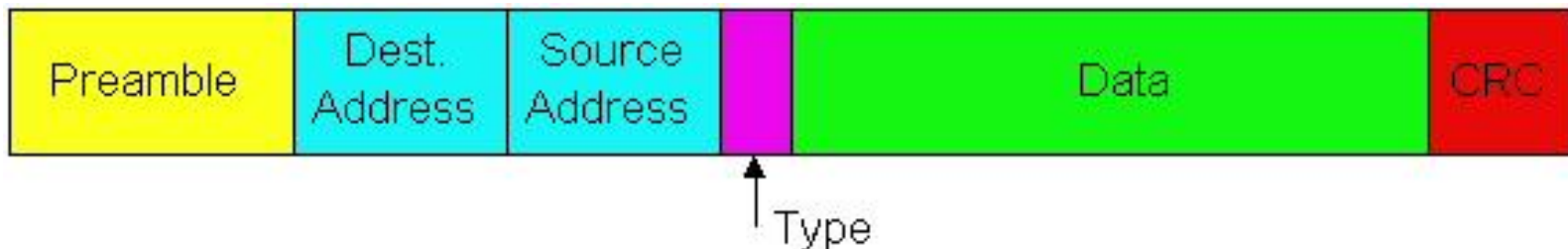
Preamble:

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

Ethernet Frame Structure

(more)

- ❑ **Addresses:** 6 bytes
 - if adapter receives frame with matching destination address, or with **broadcast address** (eg ARP packet), it passes data in frame to net-layer protocol
 - otherwise, adapter discards frame
- ❑ **Type:** indicates the higher layer protocol (mostly IP but others may be supported such as Novell IPX and AppleTalk)
- ❑ **CRC:** checked at receiver, if error is detected, the frame is simply dropped



Unreliable, connectionless service

- ❑ **Connectionless:** No handshaking between sending and receiving adapter.
- ❑ **Unreliable:** receiving adapter doesn't send acks or nacks to sending adapter
 - stream of datagrams passed to network layer can have gaps (frames missing (errored))
 - gaps will be filled if app is using TCP
 - otherwise, app will see the gaps

Ethernet uses CSMA/CD

- ❑ No slots
 - ❑ adapter doesn't transmit if it senses that some other adapter is transmitting, that is, **carrier sense**
 - ❑ transmitting adapter aborts when it senses that another adapter is transmitting, that is, **collision detection**
- Broadcast channel:
one sends
everyone can hear
 - One at a time
- ❑ Before attempting a retransmission, adapter waits a random time, that is, **random access**

Ethernet CSMA/CD algorithm

1. Adaptor receives datagram from net layer & creates frame
2. If adapter senses channel idle, it starts to transmit frame. If it senses channel busy, waits until channel idle and then transmits
3. If adapter transmits entire frame without detecting another transmission, the adapter is done with frame !
4. If adapter detects another transmission while transmitting, aborts and sends jam signal
5. After aborting, adapter enters **exponential backoff**: after the m^{th} collision, adapter chooses a K at random from $\{0, 1, 2, \dots, 2^m - 1\}$. Adapter waits $K \cdot 512$ bit times and returns to Step 2

Ethernet's CSMA/CD (more)

Jam Signal: make sure all other transmitters are aware of collision; 48 bits

Bit time: 0.1 microsec for 10 Mbps Ethernet ;
for $K=1023$, wait time is about 50 microsec

Exponential Backoff:

- **Goal:** adapt retransmission attempts to estimated current load
 - heavy load: random wait will be longer
- first collision: choose K from $\{0,1\}$; delay is $K \cdot 512$ bit transmission times
- after second collision: choose K from $\{0,1,2,3\}$...
- after ten collisions, choose K from $\{0,1,2,3,4,\dots,1023\}$

CSMA/CD efficiency

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

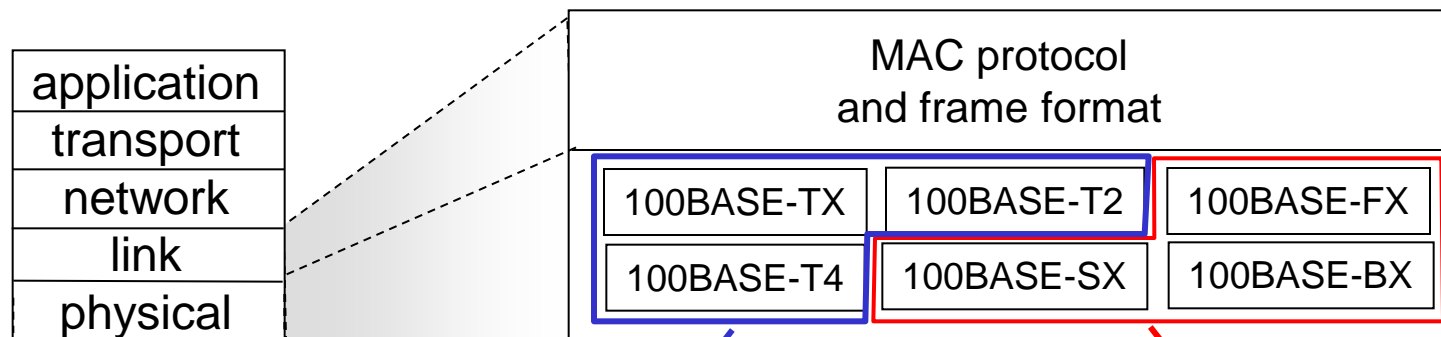
$$\text{efficiency} = \frac{1}{1 + 5t_{\text{prop}} / t_{\text{trans}}}$$

- Efficiency goes to 1 as t_{prop} goes to 0
- Goes to 1 as t_{trans} goes to infinity
- Much better than ALOHA, but still decentralized, simple, and cheap

802.3 Ethernet Standards: Link & Physical Layers

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

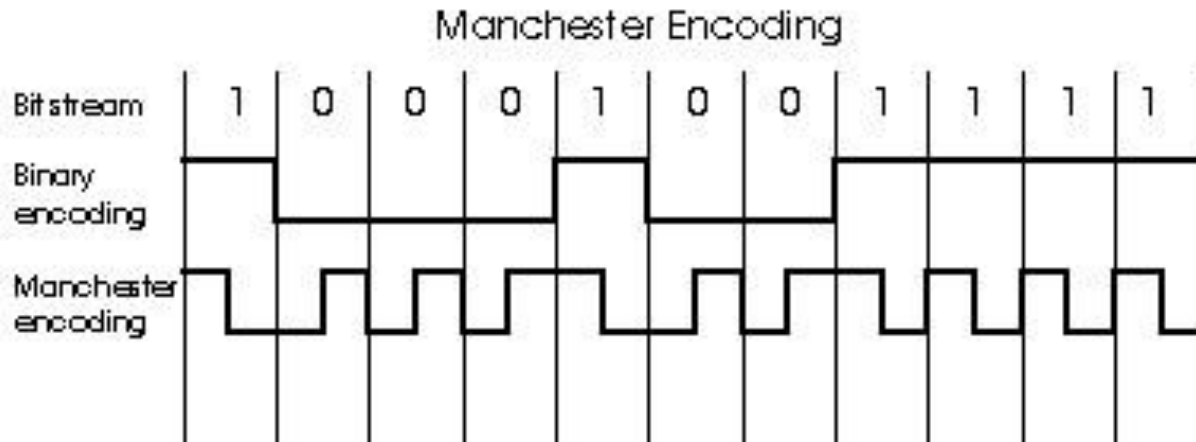
100BASE-SX - short wavelength optics, <300m, less expensive, multimode
100BASE-FX - long wavelength optics, < 2 km, full-duplex, multimode
100BASE-BX - - long wavelength optics, 10, 20,40 km, single-mode



copper (twister pair) physical layer

fiber physical layer

Manchester encoding



- ❑ Used in 10BaseT
- ❑ Each bit has a transition
- ❑ Allows clocks in sending and receiving nodes to synchronize to each other
 - no need for a centralized, global clock among nodes!
- ❑ Hey, this is physical-layer stuff!

Gbit Ethernet

- ❑ uses standard Ethernet frame format
- ❑ allows for point-to-point links and shared broadcast channels
- ❑ in shared mode, CSMA/CD is used; short distances between nodes required for efficiency
- ❑ uses hubs, called here "Buffered Distributors"
- ❑ Full-Duplex at 1 Gbps for point-to-point links
- ❑ 10 (100) Gbps now !

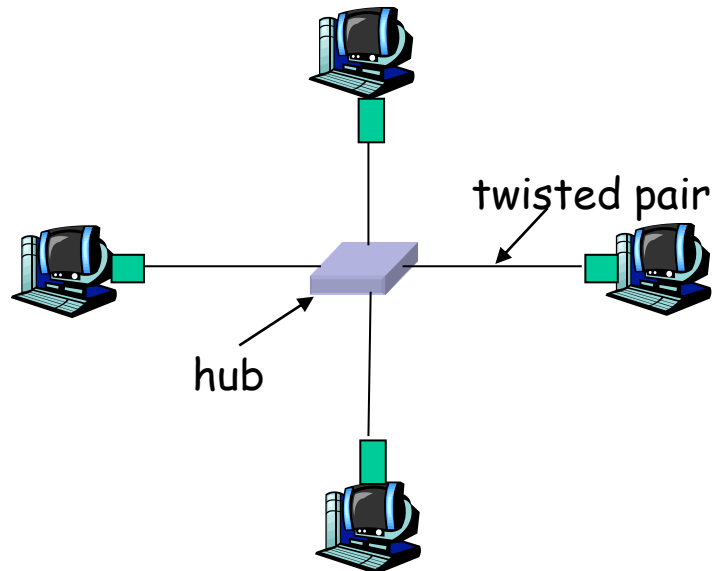
Link Layer

- ❑ 5.1 Introduction and services
- ❑ 5.2 Error detection and correction
- ❑ 5.3 Multiple access protocols
- ❑ 5.4 Link-layer Addressing
- ❑ 5.5 Ethernet
- ❑ 5.6 Link-layer switches
- ❑ 5.7 PPP
- ❑ 5.8 Link virtualization: ATM, MPLS

Hubs

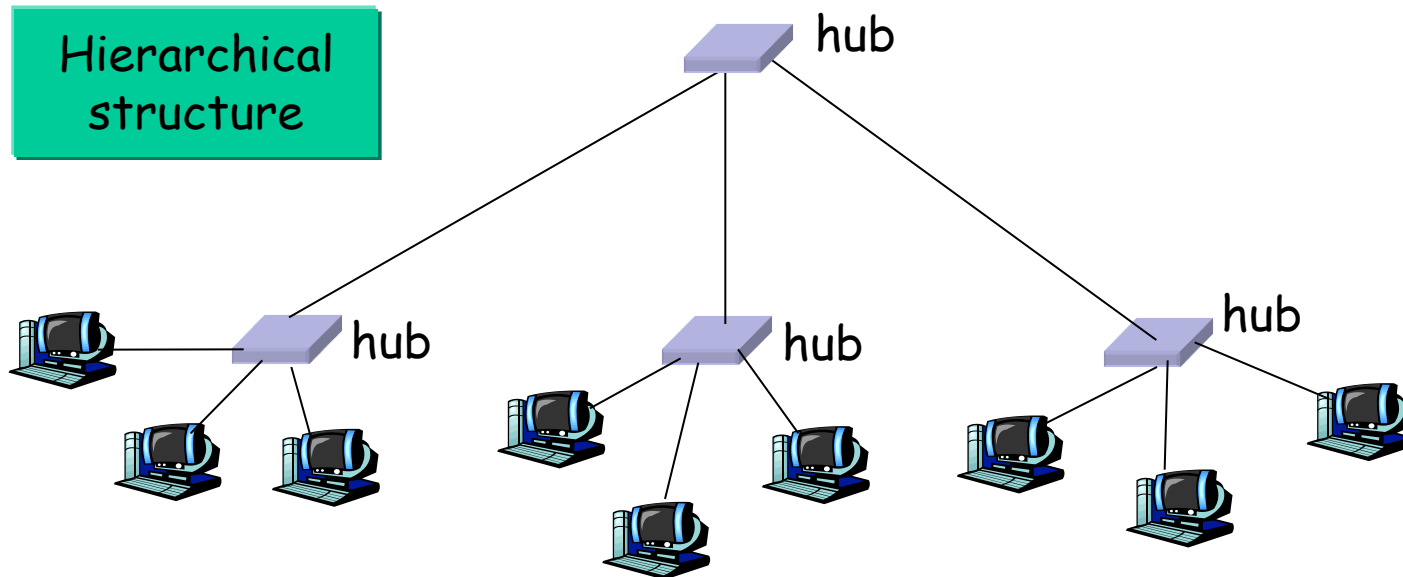
... physical-layer (“dumb”) repeaters:

- bits coming in one link go out *all* other links at same rate
- all nodes connected to hub can collide with one another
- no frame buffering
- no CSMA/CD at hub: host NICs detect collisions



Interconnecting with hubs

- ❑ Backbone hub interconnects LAN segments
- ❑ Extends *max distance* between nodes
- ❑ But individual segment **collision domains** become one large collision domain
- ❑ Can't interconnect 10BaseT & 100BaseT



Switch

- Link layer device

- stores and forwards Ethernet frames
- examines frame header and **selectively** forwards frame based on MAC dest address
- when frame is to be forwarded on segment, uses CSMA/CD to access segment

- transparent

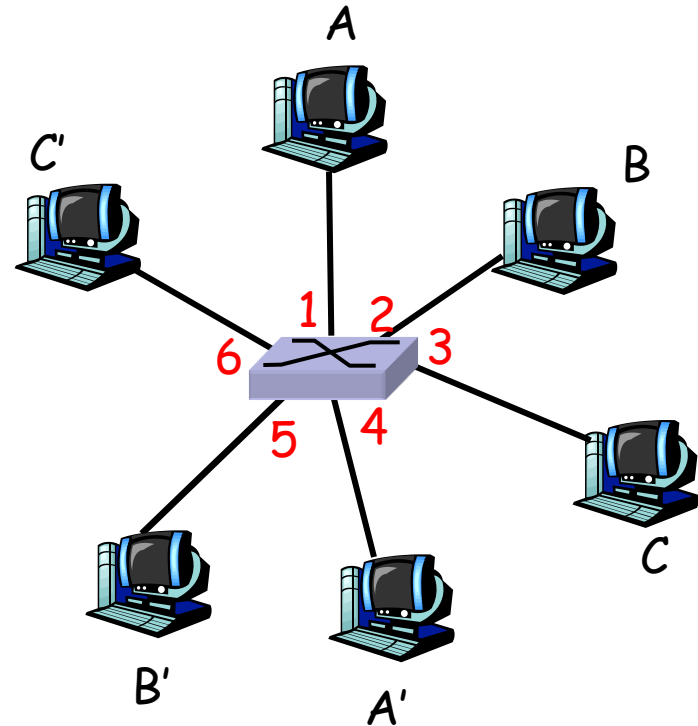
- hosts are unaware of presence of switches

- plug-and-play, self-learning

- switches do not need to be configured

Switch: allows multiple simultaneous transmissions

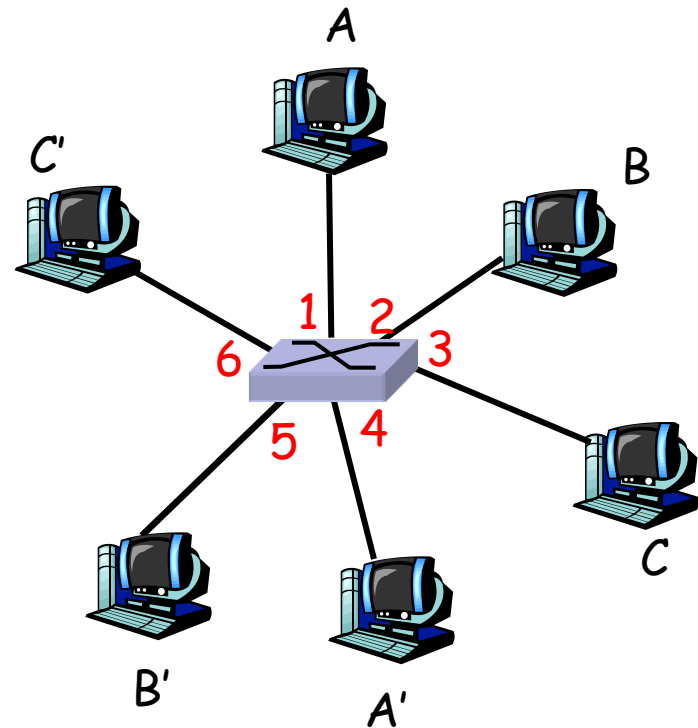
- ❑ hosts have dedicated, direct connection to switch
- ❑ switches buffer packets
- ❑ Ethernet protocol used on *each* incoming link, but **no collisions; full duplex**
 - each link is its own collision domain
- ❑ **switching**: A-to-A' and B-to-B' simultaneously, without collisions
 - not possible with dumb hub



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

Switch Table

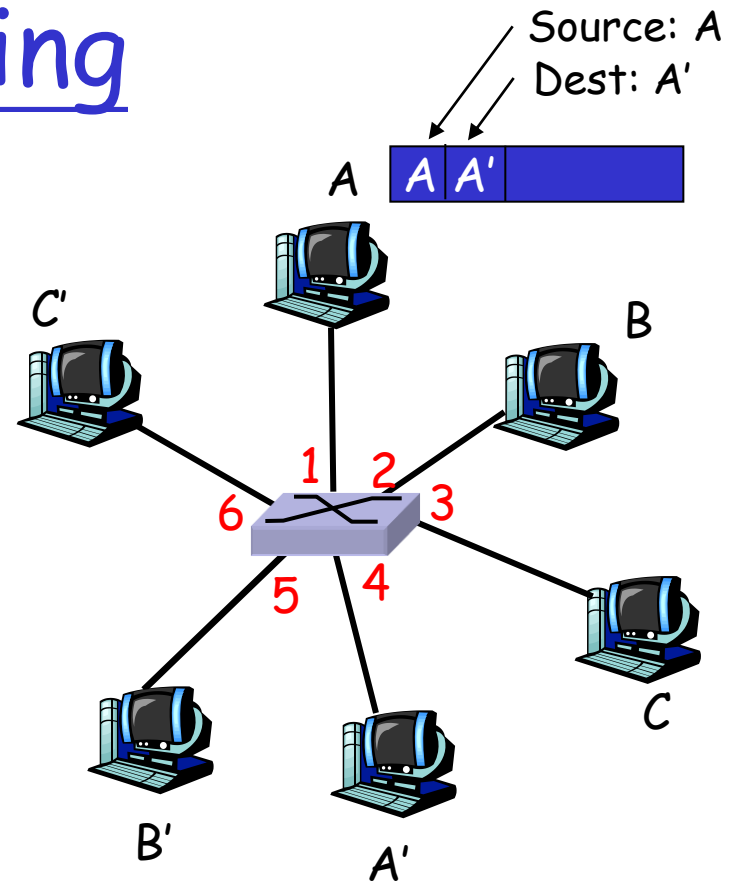
- Q: how does switch know that A' reachable via interface 4, B' reachable via interface 5?
- A: each switch has a **switch table**, each entry:
 - (MAC address of host, interface to reach host, time stamp)
- looks like a routing table!
- Q: how are entries created, maintained in switch table?
 - something like a routing protocol?



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

Switch: self-learning

- switch *learns* which hosts can be reached through which interfaces
 - when frame received, switch "learns" location of sender: incoming LAN segment
 - records sender/location pair in switch table



MAC addr	interface	TTL
A	1	60

Switch table
(initially empty)

Filtering/Forwarding

When switch receives a frame:

index switch table using MAC dest address

if entry found for destination
then{

if dest on segment from which frame arrived
then drop the frame

else forward the frame on interface indicated

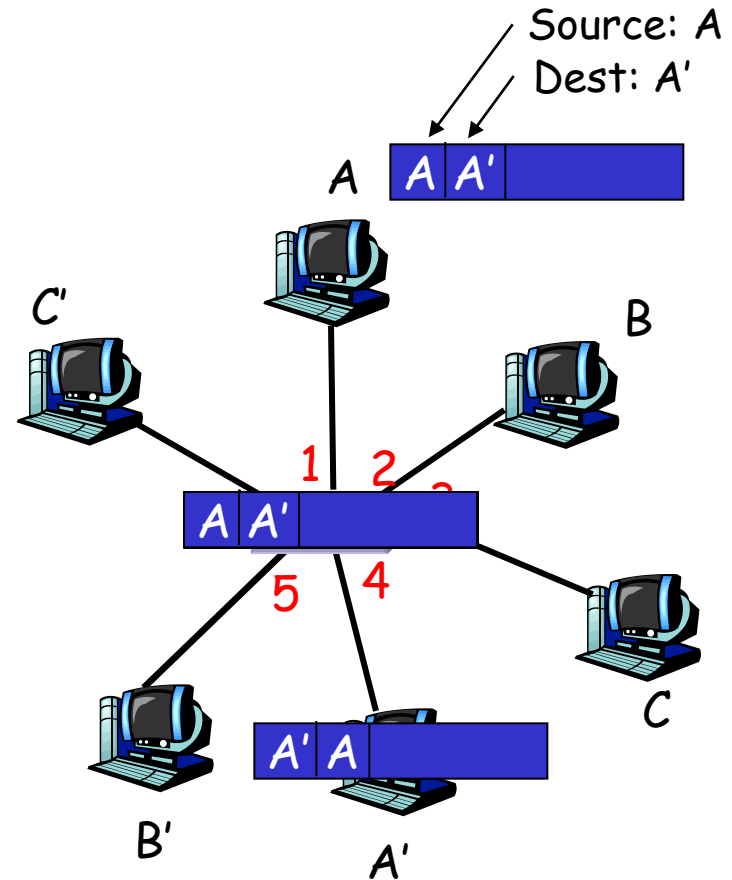
}

else flood

*forward on all but the interface
on which the frame arrived*

Self-learning, forwarding: example

- ❑ frame destination unknown: **flood**
- ❑ destination A location known: **selective send**

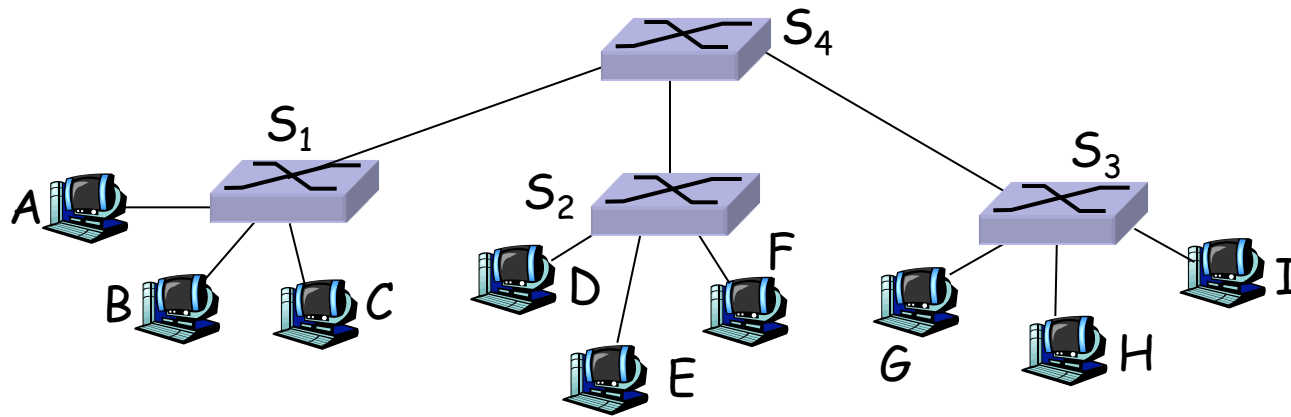


MAC addr	interface	TTL
A	1	60
A'	4	60

Switch table
(initially empty)

Interconnecting switches

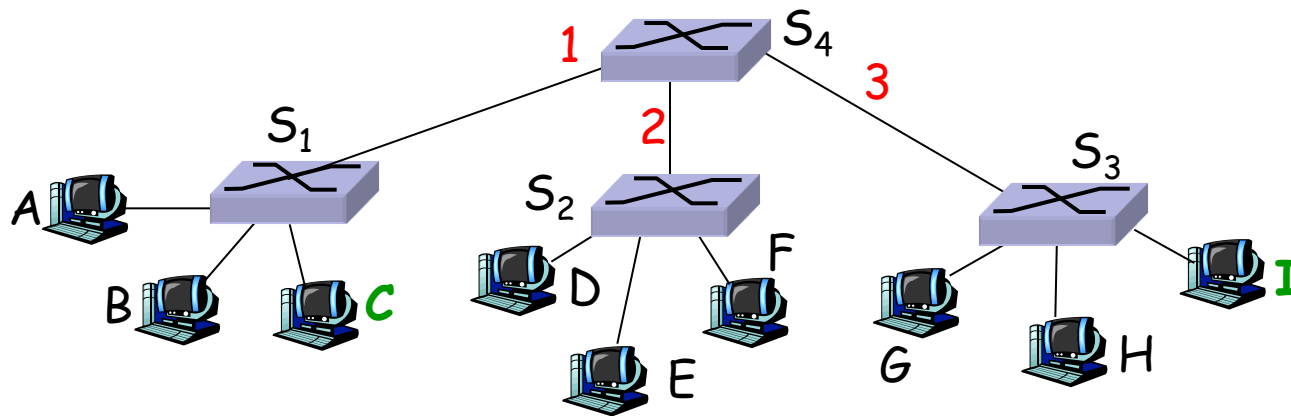
- switches can be connected together



- **Q:** sending from A to G - how does S₁ know to forward frame destined to G via S₄ and S₃?
- **A:** self learning! (works exactly the same as in single-switch case!)

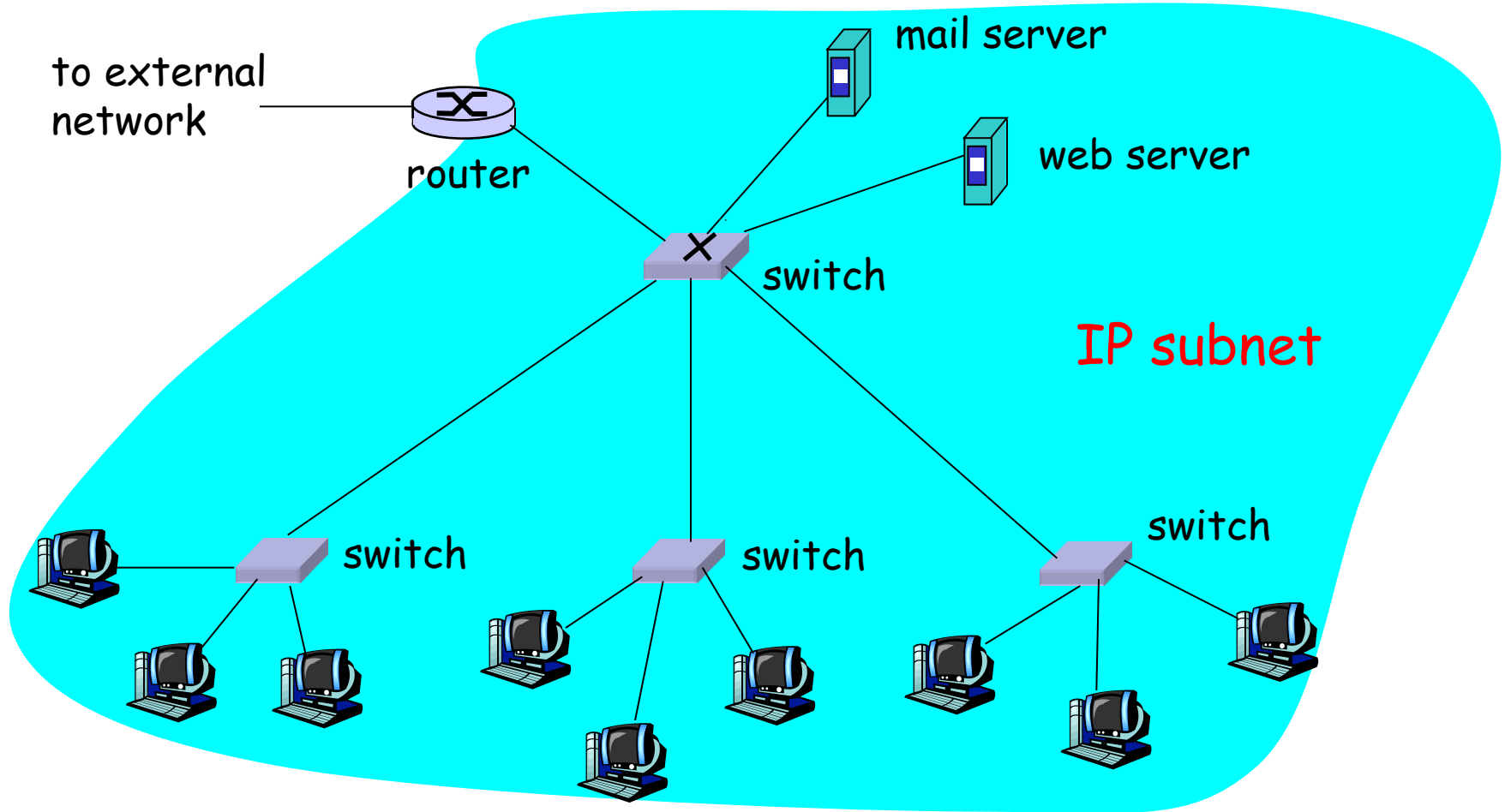
Self-learning multi-switch example

Suppose C sends frame to I, I responds to C



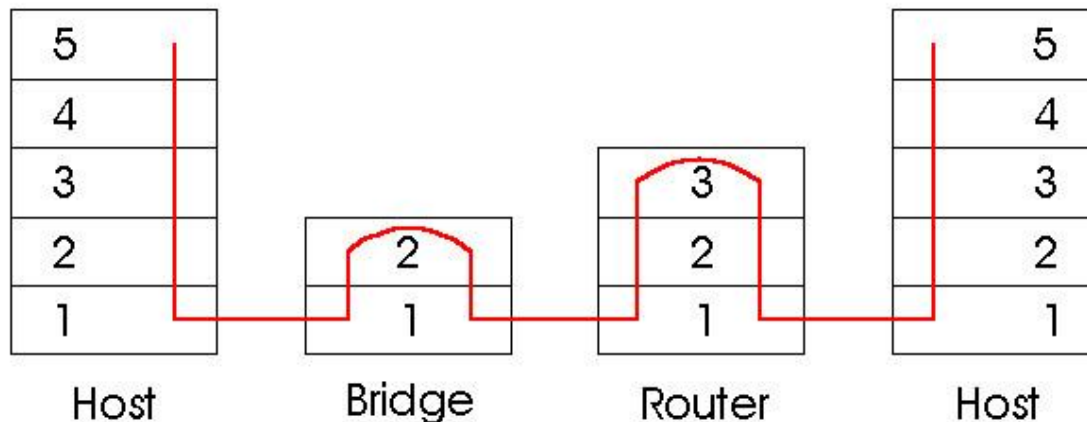
- Q: show switch tables and packet forwarding in S₁, S₂, S₃, S₄

Institutional network



Switches vs. Routers

- ❑ both store-and-forward devices
 - routers: network layer devices (examine network layer headers)
 - switches are link layer devices
- ❑ routers maintain routing tables, implement routing algorithms
- ❑ switches maintain switch tables, implement filtering, learning algorithms



Summary comparison

	<u>hubs</u>	<u>routers</u>	<u>switches</u>
traffic isolation	no	yes	yes
plug & play	yes	no	yes
optimal routing	no	yes	no
cut through	yes	no	yes

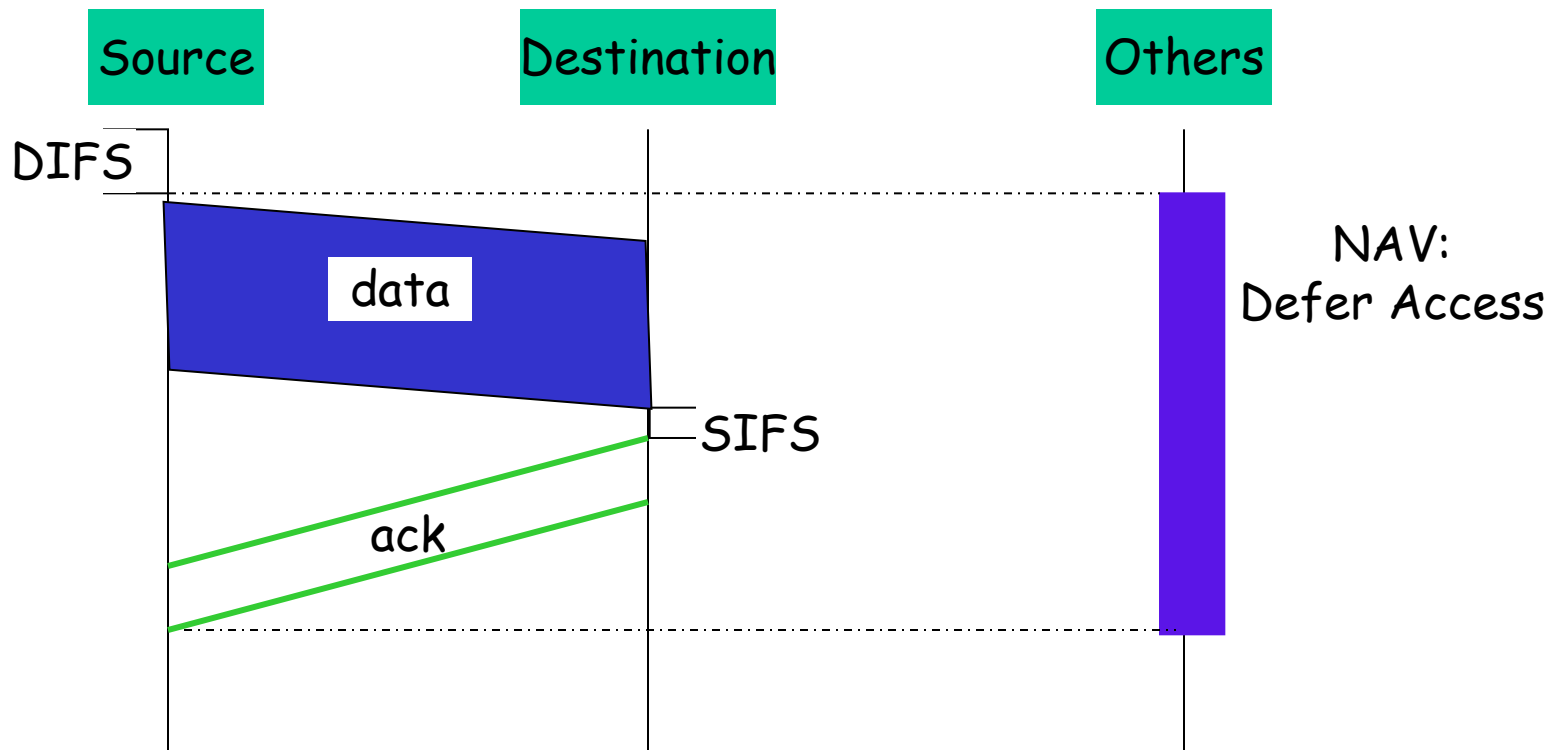
Chapter 5: Summary

- ❑ principles behind data link layer services:
 - error detection, correction
 - sharing a broadcast channel: multiple access
 - link layer addressing
- ❑ instantiation and implementation of various link layer technologies
 - Ethernet
 - switched LANS

The end. 😊

IEEE 802.11: Data Transmission and MAC-level Acknowledgment

- ❑ Immediate Positive ACK frame for error detection
- ❑ Retransmission for error recovery



Point-to-Point Protocol, or PPP

- ❑ A data link protocol for connection over synchronous and asynchronous circuits.
- ❑ Commonly used to establish a direct connection between two networking nodes.
- ❑ It can provide connection authentication, transmission encryption privacy, and compression.
- ❑ PPP is used over many types of physical networks including serial cable, phone line, trunk line, cellular telephone, specialized radio links, and fiber optic links such as SONET.
- ❑ Most Internet service providers (ISPs) use PPP for customer dial-up access to the Internet.
- ❑ Two encapsulated forms of PPP, PPPoE and Point-to-Point Protocol over ATM (PPPoA), are used by ISPs to connect DSL Internet service.
- ❑ it has largely superseded the older, non-standard Serial Line Internet Protocol (SLIP) and telephone company mandated standards (such as Link Access Protocol, Balanced (LAPB) in the X.25 protocol suite).