Chapter 6 The Link Layer and LANs







Chapter 6: Link layer and LANs

our goals:

- understand principles behind link layer services:
 - error detection, correction
 - sharing a broadcast channel: multiple access
 - link layer addressing
 - local area networks: Ethernet, VLANs
- instantiation, implementation of various link layer technologies

Link layer, LANs: outline

- 6.1 introduction, services
- 6.2 error detection, correction
- 6.3 multiple access protocols
- 6.4 LANs
 - addressing, ARP
 - Ethernet
 - switches
 - VLANS

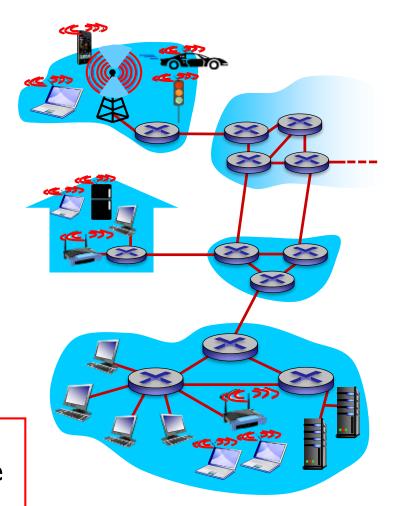
- 6.5 link virtualization: MPLS
- 6.6 data center networking
- 6.7 a day in the life of a web request

Link layer: introduction

terminology:

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

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



Link layer: context

- datagram transferred by different link protocols over different links:
 - e.g., 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

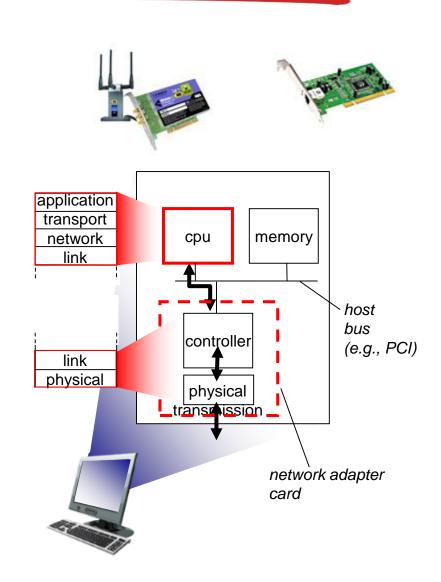
- framing, link access:
 - encapsulate datagram into frame, adding header, trailer
 - channel access if shared medium
 - "MAC" addresses used in frame headers to identify source, destination
 - different from IP address!
- reliable delivery between adjacent nodes
 - we learned how to do this already (chapter 3)!
 - seldom used on low bit-error link (fiber, some twisted pair)
 - wireless links: high error rates

Link layer services (more)

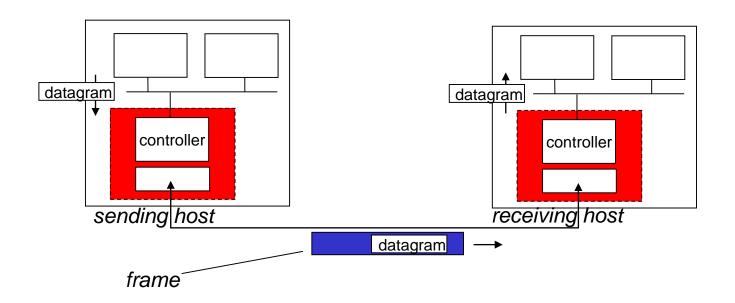
- flow control:
 - pacing between adjacent sending and receiving nodes
- error detection:
 - errors caused by signal attenuation, noise.
 - receiver detects presence of errors:
 - signals sender for retransmission or drops frame
- error correction:
 - receiver identifies and corrects bit error(s) without resorting to retransmission
- half-duplex and full-duplex
 - with half duplex, nodes at both ends of link can transmit, but not at same time

Where is the link layer implemented?

- in each and every host
- link layer implemented in "adaptor" (aka network interface card NIC) or on a chip
 - Ethernet card, 802.11 card; Ethernet chipset
 - 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, LANs: outline

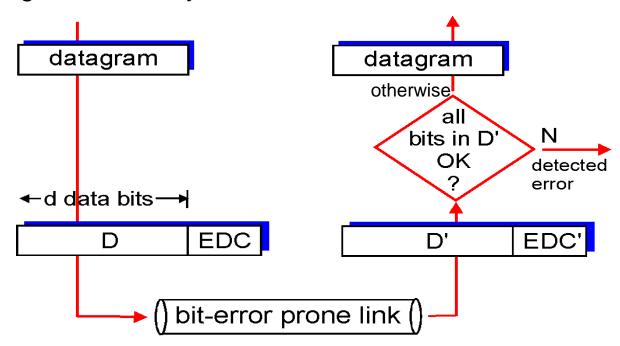
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Error detection

EDC= Error Detection and Correction bits (redundancy)

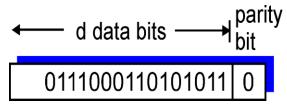
- D = Data protected by error checking, may include header fields
- Error detection not 100% reliable!
 - protocol may miss some errors, but rarely
 - larger EDC field yields better detection and correction



Parity checking

single bit parity:

detect single bit errors



two-dimensional bit parity:

detect and correct single bit errors

correctable single bit error

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

Internet checksum (review)

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

sender:

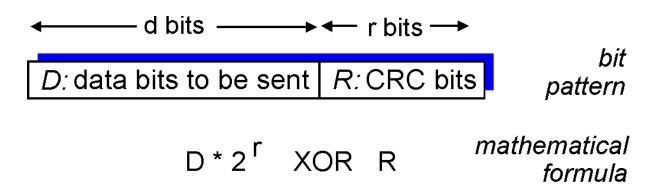
- treat segment contents as sequence of 16-bit integers
- checksum: addition (I's complement sum) of segment contents
- sender puts checksum value into UDP checksum field

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?

Cyclic redundancy check

- more powerful error-detection coding
- view data bits, D, as a binary number
- choose r+1 bit pattern (generator), G
- goal: choose r CRC bits, R, such that
 - <D,R> exactly divisible by G (modulo 2)
 - receiver knows G, divides <D,R> by G. If non-zero remainder: error detected!
 - can detect all burst errors less than r+1 bits
- widely used in practice (Ethernet, 802.11 WiFi, ATM)



CRC example

want:

 $D \cdot 2^r XOR R = nG$

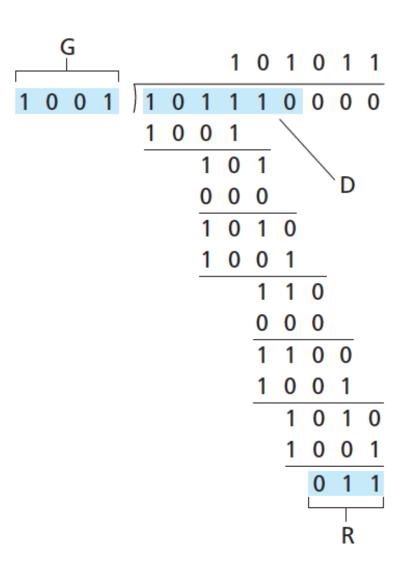
equivalently:

 $D \cdot 2^r = nG XOR R$

equivalently:

if we divide D.2^r by G, want remainder R to satisfy:

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



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Multiple access links, protocols

two types of "links":

- point-to-point
 - PPP for dial-up access
 - point-to-point link between Ethernet switch, host
- 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 protocols

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

multiple access protocol

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

An ideal multiple access protocol

given: broadcast channel of rate R bps desiderata:

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

MAC protocols: taxonomy

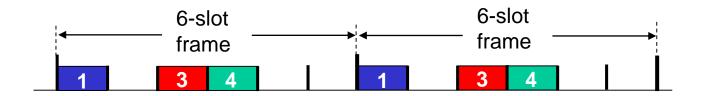
three broad classes:

- channel partitioning
 - divide channel into smaller "pieces" (time slots, frequency, code)
 - allocate piece to node for exclusive use
- random access
 - channel not divided, allow collisions
 - "recover" from collisions
- "taking turns"
 - nodes take turns, but nodes with more to send can take longer turns

Channel partitioning MAC protocols: TDMA

TDMA: time division multiple access

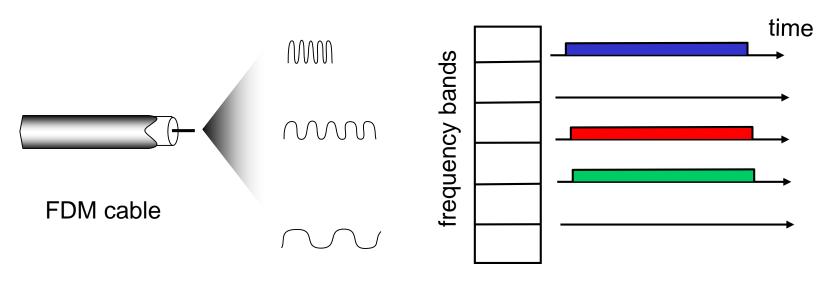
- access to channel in "rounds"
- each station gets fixed length slot (length = packet transmission time) in each round
- unused slots go idle
- example: 6-station LAN, 1,3,4 have packets to send, slots 2,5,6 idle



Channel partitioning MAC protocols: FDMA

FDMA: frequency division multiple access

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



Random access protocols

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

Slotted ALOHA

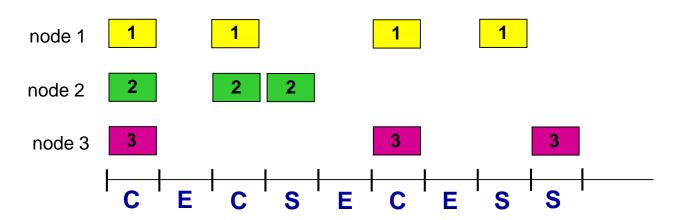
assumptions:

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

operation:

- when node obtains fresh frame, transmits in next slot
 - if no collision: node can send new frame in next slot
 - if collision: node retransmits frame in each subsequent slot with 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
- clock synchronization

Slotted ALOHA: efficiency

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

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

- max efficiency: find p* that maximizes
 Np(I-p)^{N-I}
- for many nodes, take limit of $Np*(I-p*)^{N-I}$ as N goes to infinity, gives:

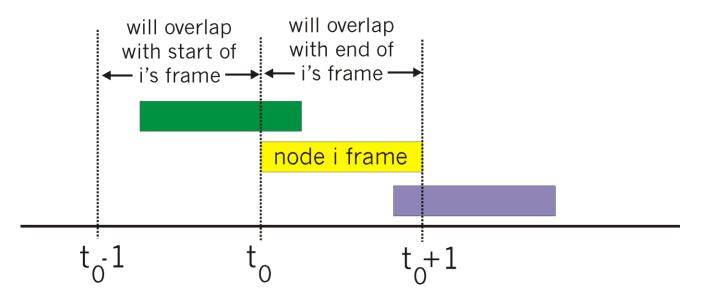
max efficiency = 1/e = .37

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



Pure (unslotted) ALOHA

- 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 $\begin{bmatrix} t_0 1, t_0 + 1 \end{bmatrix}$



Pure ALOHA efficiency

P(success by given node) = P(node transmits) -

P(no other node transmits in $[t_0-I,t_0]$ · P(no other node transmits in $[t_0,t_0+I]$

$$= p \cdot (1-p)^{N-1} \cdot (1-p)^{N-1}$$
$$= p \cdot (1-p)^{2(N-1)}$$

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

$$= 1/(2e) = .18$$

even worse than slotted Aloha!

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
 - distance & propagation delay play role in in determining collision probability





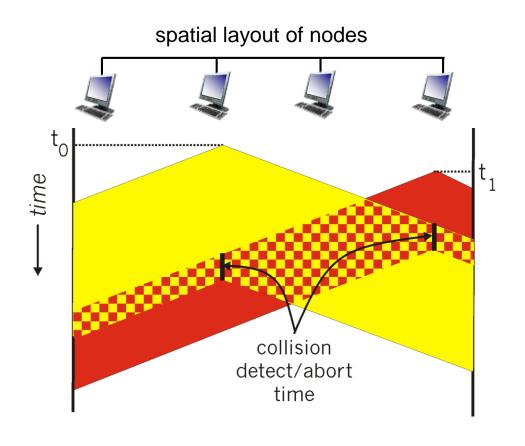
 t_1

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: received signal strength overwhelmed by local transmission strength
- human analogy: the polite conversationalist

CSMA/CD (collision detection)



Ethernet CSMA/CD algorithm

- I. NIC receives datagram from network layer, creates frame
- 2. If NIC senses channel idle, starts frame transmission. If NIC senses channel busy, waits until channel idle, then transmits.
- 3. If NIC transmits entire frame without detecting another transmission, NIC is done with frame!

- 4. If NIC detects another transmission while transmitting, aborts and sends jam signal
- 5. After aborting, NIC enters binary (exponential) backoff:
 - after mth collision, NIC chooses K at random from {0,1,2,..., 2^m-1}.
 NIC waits K'512 bit times, returns to Step 2
 - longer backoff interval with more collisions

CSMA/CD efficiency

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

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

- efficiency goes to I
 - as t_{prop} goes to 0
 - as t_{trans} goes to infinity
- better performance than ALOHA: and simple, cheap, decentralized!

"Taking turns" MAC protocols

channel partitioning MAC protocols:

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

random access MAC protocols

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

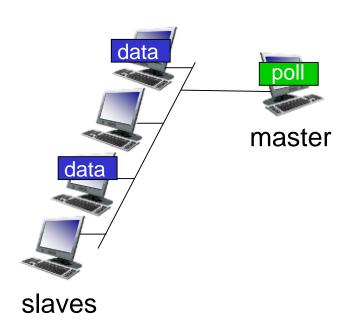
"taking turns" protocols

look for best of both worlds!

"Taking turns" MAC protocols

polling:

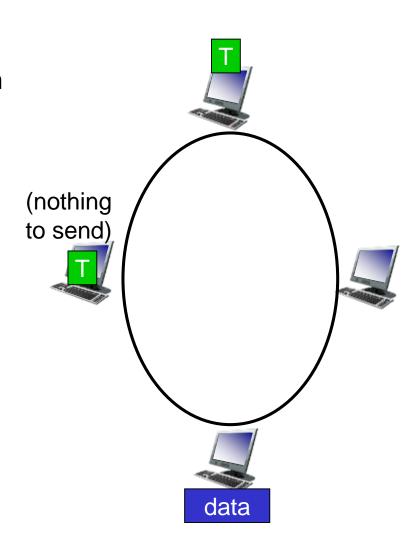
- master node "invites" slave nodes to transmit in turn
- typically used with "dumb" slave devices
- concerns:
 - polling overhead
 - latency
 - single point of failure (master)



"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

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

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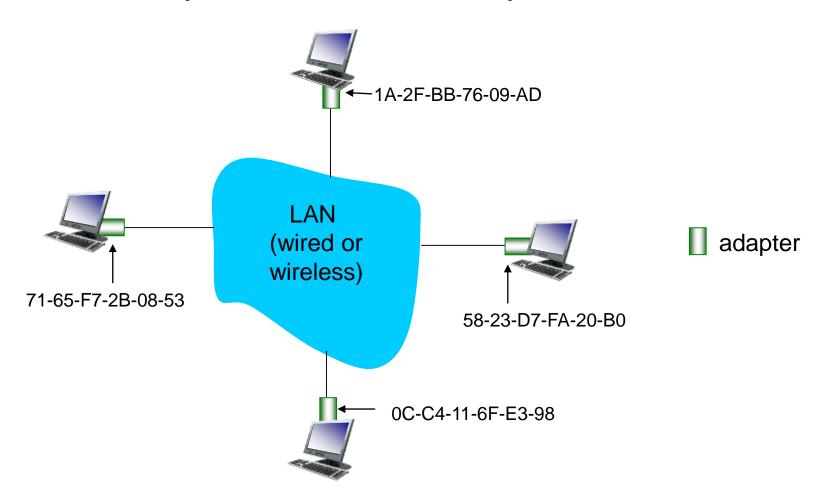
MAC addresses and ARP

- 32-bit IP address:
 - network-layer address for interface
 - used for layer 3 (network layer) forwarding
- MAC (or LAN or physical or Ethernet) address:
 - function: used 'locally" to get frame from one interface to another physically-connected interface (same network, in IP-addressing sense)
 - 48 bit MAC address (for most LANs) burned in NIC ROM, also sometimes software settable
 - e.g.: IA-2F-BB-76-09-AD

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

LAN addresses and ARP

each adapter on LAN has unique LAN address

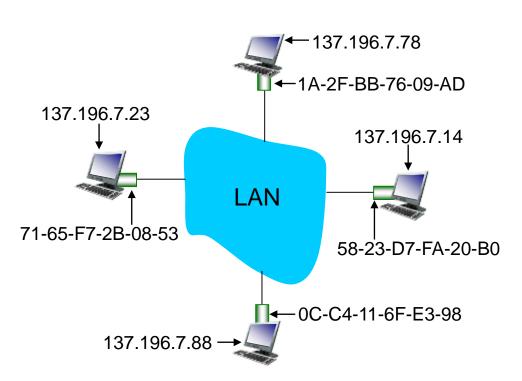


LAN addresses (more)

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

ARP: address resolution protocol

Question: how to determine interface's MAC address, knowing its IP address?



ARP table: each IP node (host, router) on LAN has table

- IP/MAC address mappings for some LAN nodes:
 - < IP address; MAC address; TTL>
- TTL (Time To Live): time after which address mapping will be forgotten (typically 20 min)

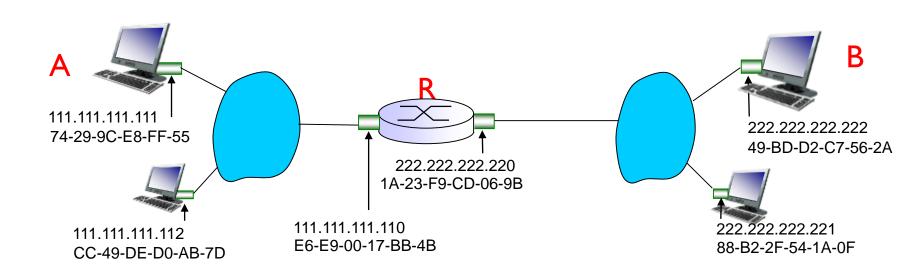
ARP protocol: same LAN

- A wants to send datagram to B
 - B's MAC address not in A's ARP table.
- A broadcasts ARP query packet, containing B's IP address
 - destination MAC address = FF-FF-FF-FF-FF
 - all nodes 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)

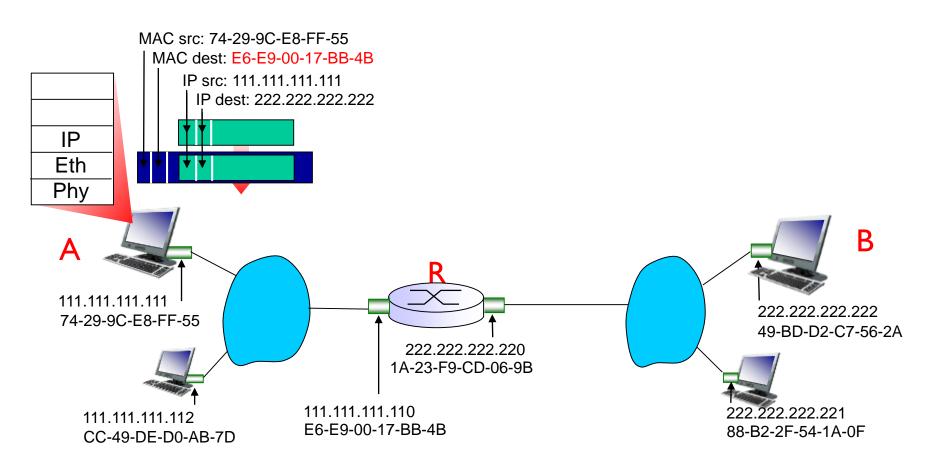
- A caches (saves) IP-to-MAC address pair in its ARP table until information becomes old (times out)
 - soft state: information that times out (goes away) unless refreshed
- ARP is "plug-and-play":
 - nodes create their ARP tables without intervention from net administrator

walkthrough: send datagram from A to B via R

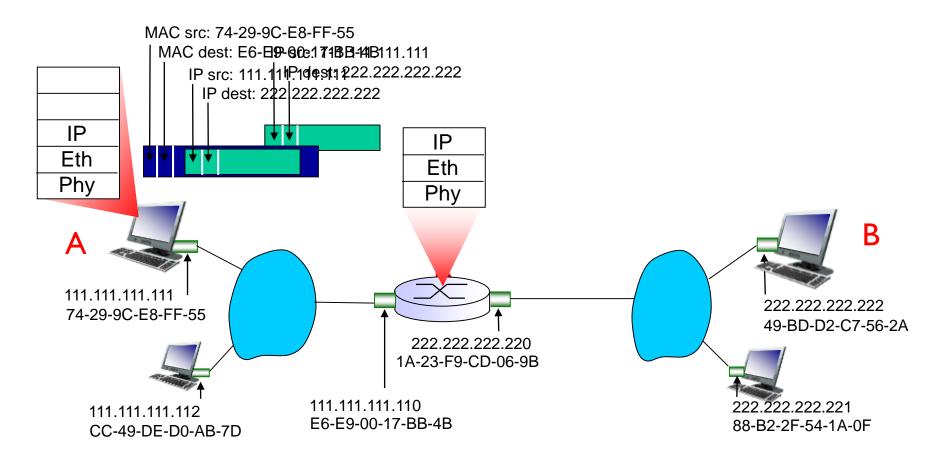
- focus on addressing at IP (datagram) and MAC layer (frame)
- assume A knows B's IP address
- assume A knows IP address of first hop router, R (how?)
- assume A knows R's MAC address (how?)



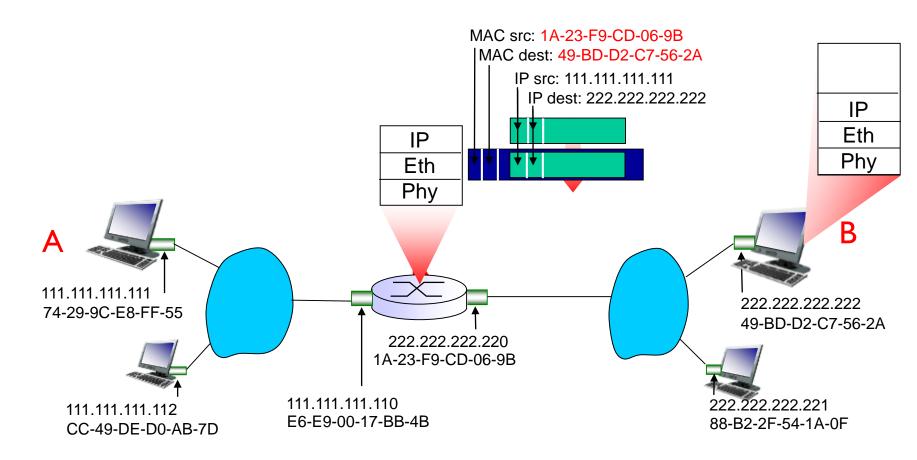
- A creates IP datagram with IP source A, destination B
- A creates link-layer frame with R's MAC address as destination address, frame contains A-to-B IP datagram



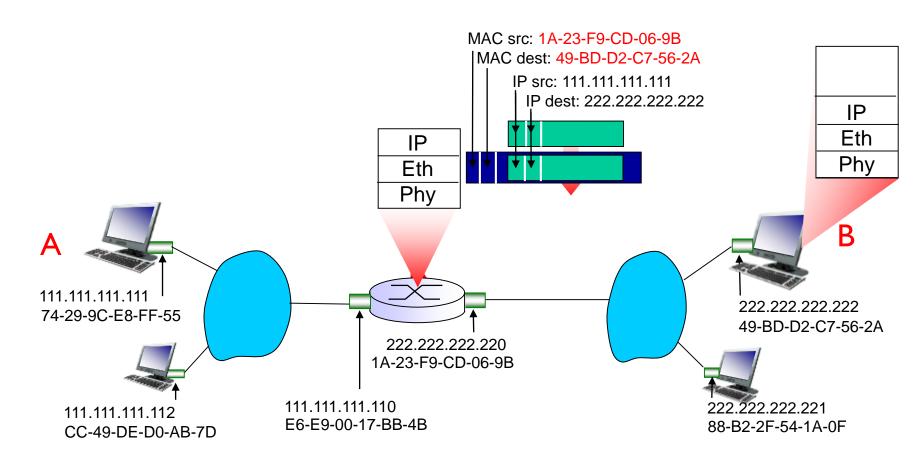
- frame sent from A to R
- frame received at R, datagram removed, passed up to IP



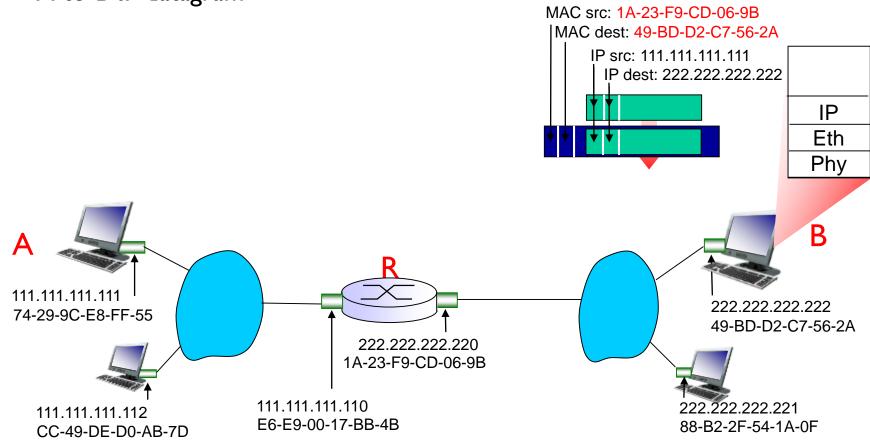
- R forwards datagram with IP source A, destination B
- R creates link-layer frame with B's MAC address as destination address, frame contains A-to-B IP datagram



- R forwards datagram with IP source A, destination B
- R creates link-layer frame with B's MAC address as destination address, frame contains A-to-B IP datagram



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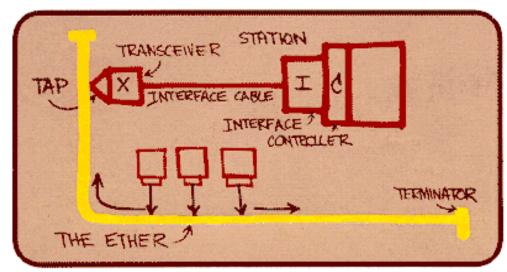
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Ethernet

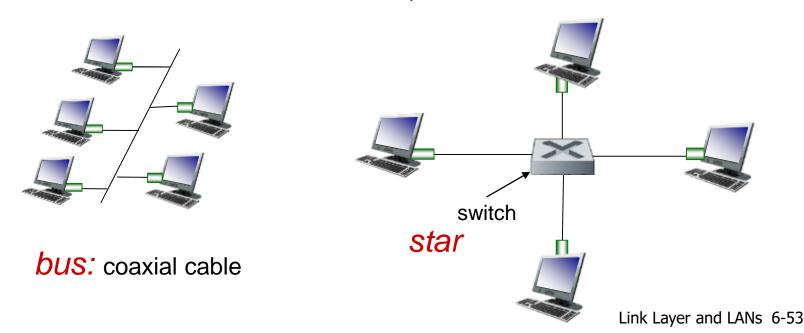
- "dominant" wired LAN technology:
- single chip, multiple speeds (e.g., Broadcom BCM5761)
- first widely used LAN technology
- simpler, cheap
- kept up with speed race: 10 Mbps 10 Gbps



Metcalfe's Ethernet sketch

Ethernet: physical topology

- bus: popular through mid 90s
 - all nodes in same collision domain (can collide with each other)
- star: prevails today
 - active switch in center
 - each "spoke" runs a (separate) Ethernet protocol (nodes do not collide with each other)



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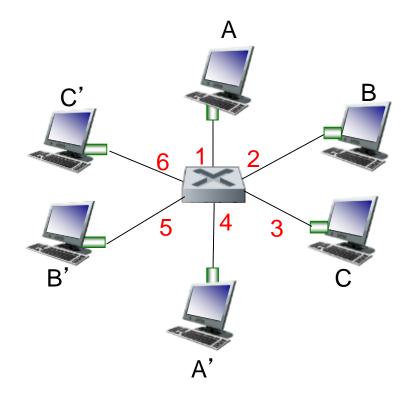
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Ethernet switch

- link-layer device: takes an active role
 - store, forward Ethernet frames
 - examine incoming frame's MAC address, selectively forward frame to one-or-more outgoing links when frame is to be forwarded on segment, uses CSMA/CD to access segment
- transparent
 - hosts are unaware of presence of switches
- plug-and-play, self-learning
 - switches do not need to be configured

Switch: multiple simultaneous transmissions

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



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

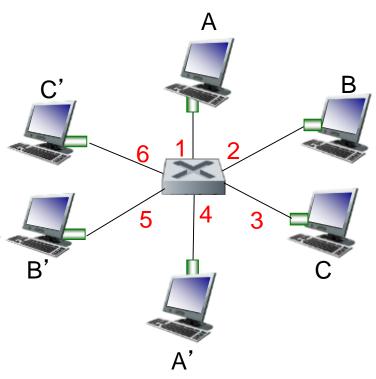
Switch forwarding table

Q: how does switch know 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?

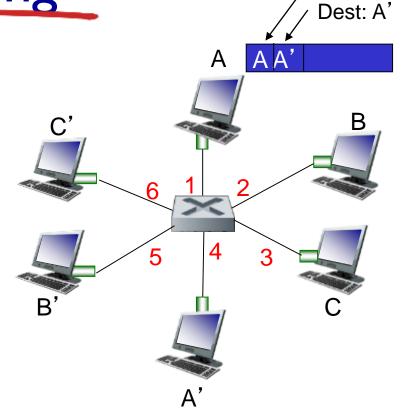
something like a routing protocol?



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 |
|----------|-----------|-----|
| Α | 1 | 60 |
| | | |
| | | |

Switch table (initially empty)

Source: A

Switch: frame filtering/forwarding

when frame received at switch:

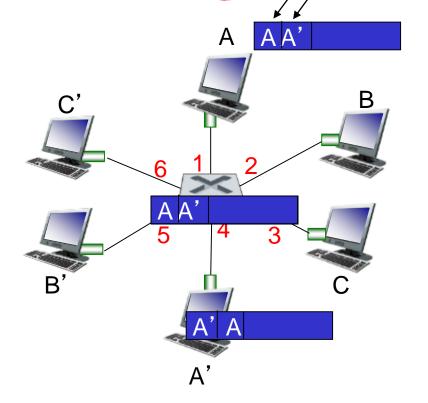
- I. record incoming link, MAC address of sending host
- 2. index switch table using MAC destination address

```
3. if entry found for destination then {
if destination on segment from which frame arrived then drop frame
else forward frame on interface indicated by entry
}
else flood /* forward on all interfaces except arriving interface */
```

Self-learning, forwarding: example

Source: A Dest: A'

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

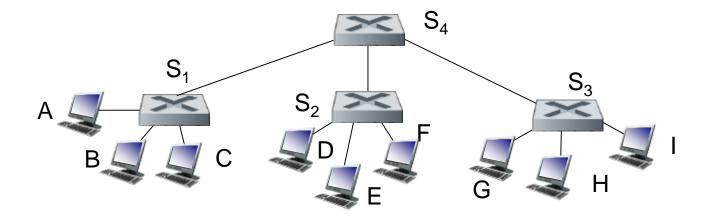


| MAC addr | interface | TTL |
|----------|-----------|-----|
| A | 1 | 60 |
| Α' | 4 | 60 |
| | | |

switch table (initially empty)

Interconnecting switches

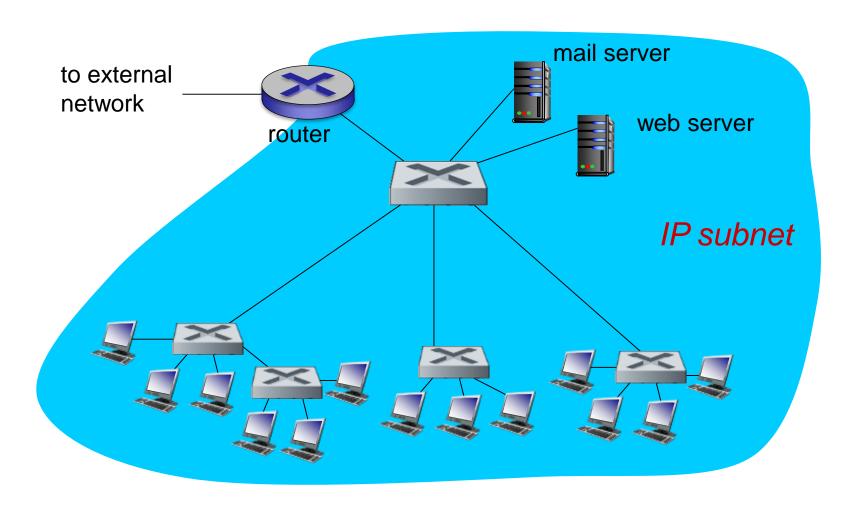
self-learning switches can be connected together:



Q: sending from A to G - how does S_1 know to forward frame destined to G via S_4 and S_3 ?

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

Institutional network



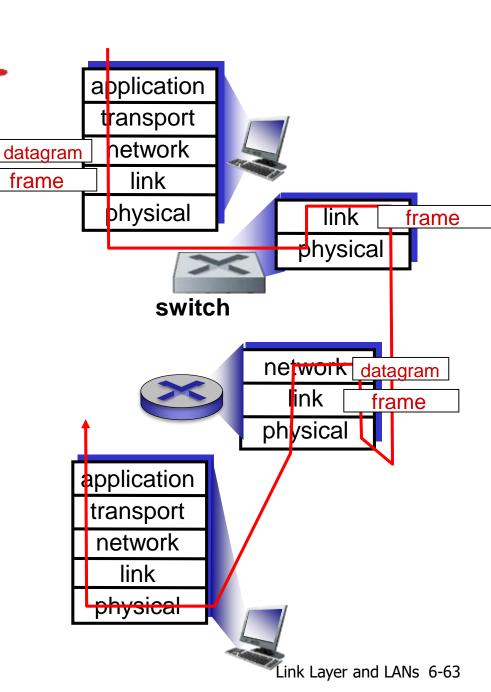
Switches vs. routers

both are store-and-forward:

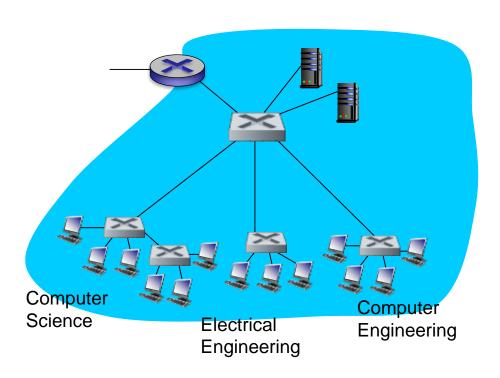
- routers: network-layer devices (examine networklayer headers)
- switches: link-layer devices (examine link-layer headers)

both have forwarding tables:

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



VLANs: motivation



consider:

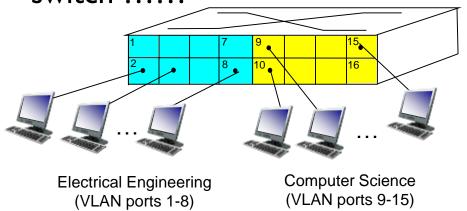
- CS user moves office to EE, but wants connect to CS switch?
- single broadcast domain:
 - all layer-2 broadcast traffic (ARP, DHCP, unknown location of destination MAC address) must cross entire LAN
 - security/privacy, efficiency issues

VLANs

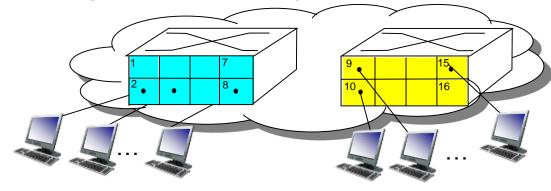
Virtual Local Area Network

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

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



... operates as multiple virtual switches

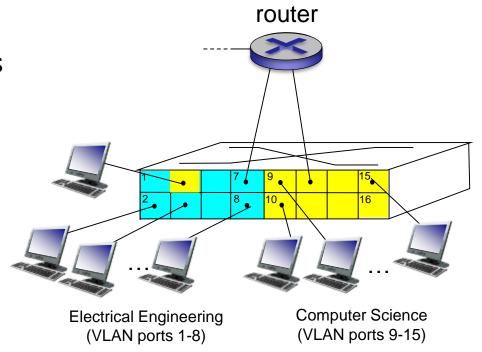


Electrical Engineering (VLAN ports 1-8)

Computer Science (VLAN ports 9-16)

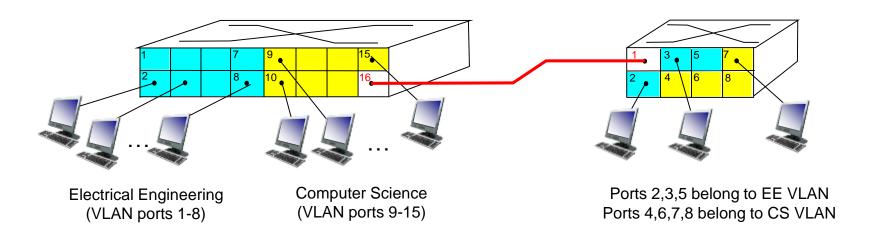
Port-based VLAN

- traffic isolation: frames to/from ports 1-8 can only reach ports 1-8
 - can also define VLAN based on MAC addresses of endpoints, rather than switch port
- dynamic membership: ports can be dynamically assigned among VLANs



- forwarding between VLANS: done via routing (just as with separate switches)
 - in practice vendors sell combined switches plus routers

VLANS spanning multiple switches



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

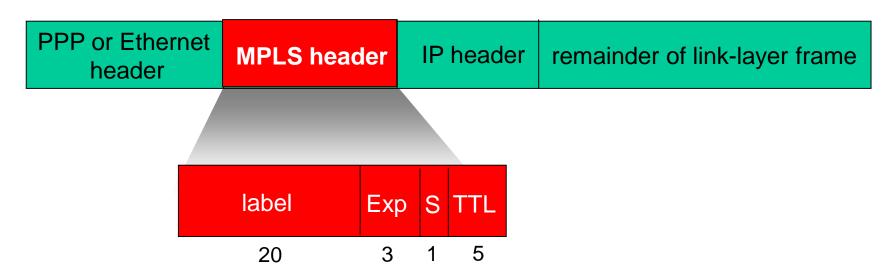
Link layer, LANs: outline

- 6. I introduction, services
- 6.2 error detection, correction
- 6.3 multiple access protocols
- 6.4 LANs
 - addressing, ARP
 - Ethernet
 - switches
 - VLANS

- 6.5 link virtualization: MPLS
- 6.6 data center networking
- 6.7 a day in the life of a web request

Multiprotocol label switching (MPLS)

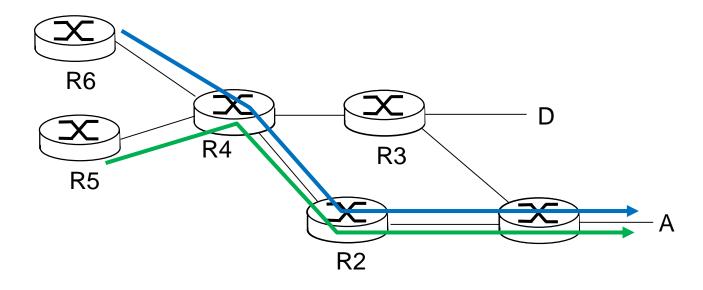
- initial goal: high-speed IP forwarding using fixed length label (instead of IP address)
 - fast lookup using fixed length identifier (rather than shortest prefix matching)
 - borrowing ideas from Virtual Circuit (VC) approach
 - but IP datagram still keeps IP address!



MPLS capable routers

- a.k.a. label-switched router
- forward packets to outgoing interface based only on label value (don't inspect IP address)
 - MPLS forwarding table distinct from IP forwarding tables
- flexibility: MPLS forwarding decisions can differ from those of IP
 - use destination and source addresses to route flows to same destination differently (traffic engineering)
 - re-route flows quickly if link fails: pre-computed backup paths (useful for VoIP)

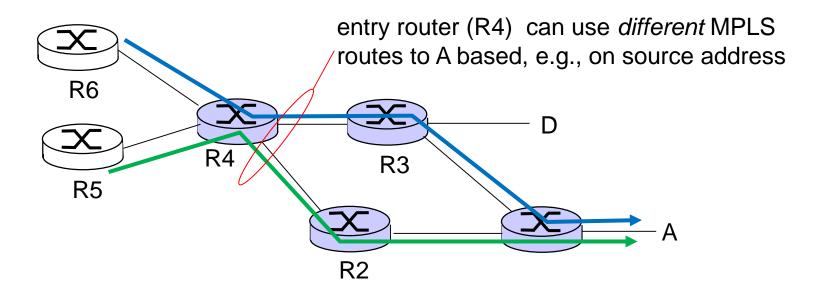
MPLS versus IP paths



 IP routing: path to destination determined by destination address alone



MPLS versus IP paths



 IP routing: path to destination determined by destination address alone



IP-only router

 MPLS routing: path to destination can be based on source and destination address

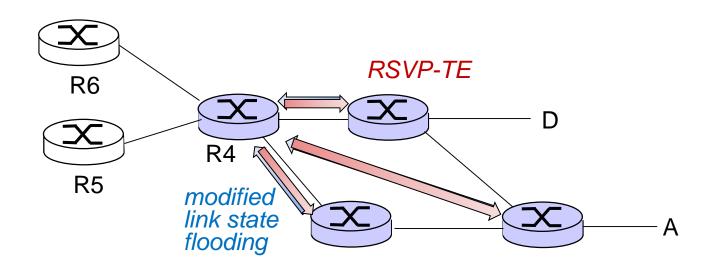


MPLS and IP router

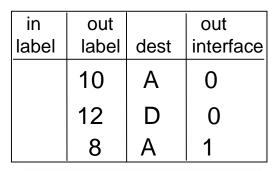
 fast reroute: precompute backup routes in case of link failure

MPLS signaling

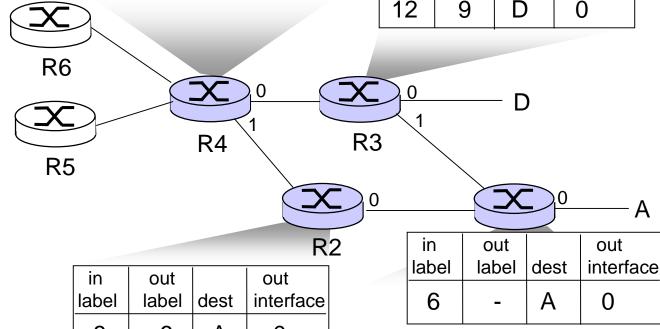
- modify OSPF, IS-IS link-state flooding protocols to carry info used by MPLS routing,
 - e.g., link bandwidth, amount of "reserved" link bandwidth
- entry MPLS router uses RSVP-TE signaling protocol to set up MPLS forwarding at downstream routers



MPLS forwarding tables



| in label | out label | dest | out interface |
|-------------|--------------|------|------------------|
| 10 | 6 | Α | 1 |
| 12 | 9 | D | 0 |



| in | out | | out |
|-------|-------|------|-----------|
| label | label | dest | interface |
| 8 | 6 | Α | 0 |

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Data center networks

- 10's to 100's of thousands of hosts, often closely coupled, in close proximity:
 - e-business (e.g. Amazon)
 - content-servers (e.g., YouTube, Akamai, Apple, Microsoft)
 - search engines, data mining (e.g., Google)

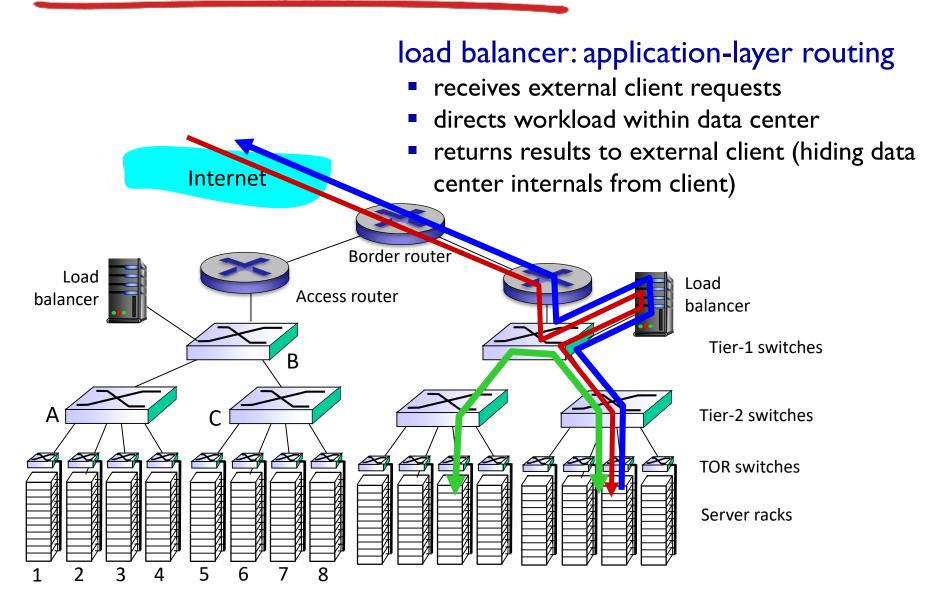
challenges:

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



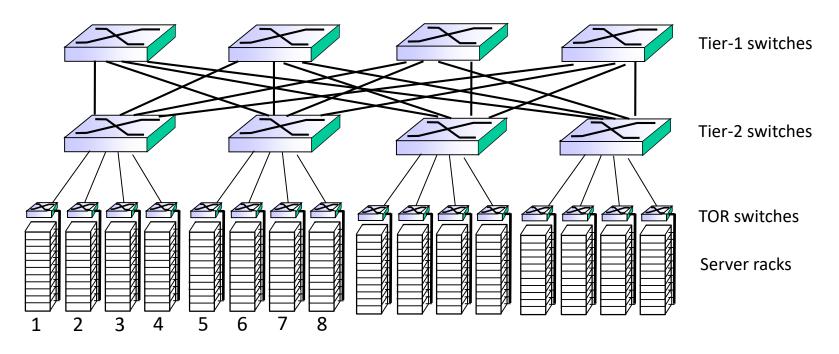
Inside a 40-ft Microsoft container, Chicago data center

Data center networks



Data center networks

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



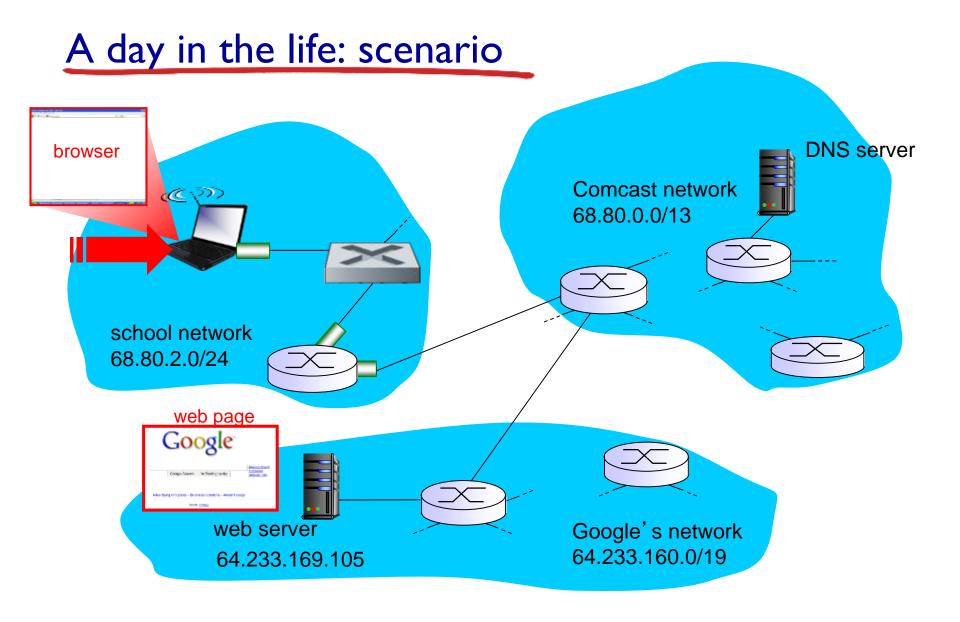
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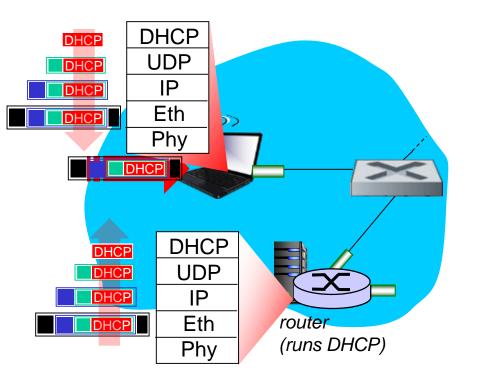
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Synthesis: a day in the life of a web request

- journey down protocol stack complete!
 - application, transport, network, link
- putting-it-all-together: synthesis!
 - goal: identify, review, understand protocols (at all layers) involved in seemingly simple scenario: requesting www page
 - scenario: student attaches laptop to campus network, requests/receives www.google.com

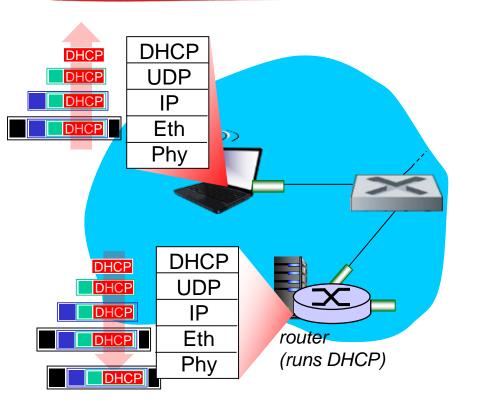


A day in the life... connecting to the Internet



- connecting laptop needs to get its own IP address, addr of first-hop router, addr of DNS server: use DHCP
- DHCP request encapsulated in UDP, encapsulated in IP, encapsulated in 802.3 Ethernet
- Ethernet frame broadcast (dest: FFFFFFFFFFFFFF) on LAN, received at router running DHCP server
- Ethernet demuxed to IP demuxed, UDP demuxed to DHCP

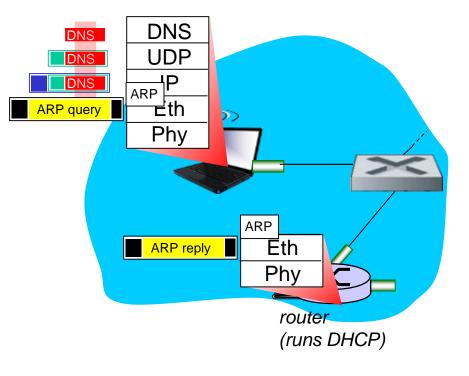
A day in the life... connecting to the Internet



- DHCP server formulates
 DHCP ACK containing
 client's IP address, IP
 address of first-hop router
 for client, name & IP address
 of DNS server
- encapsulation at DHCP server, frame forwarded (switch learning) through LAN, demultiplexing at client
- DHCP client receives DHCP ACK reply

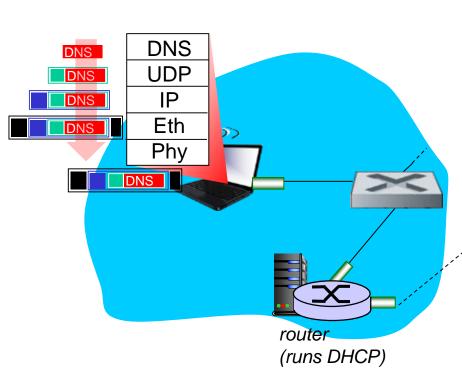
Client now has IP address, knows name & addr of DNS server, IP address of its first-hop router

A day in the life... ARP (before DNS, before HTTP)

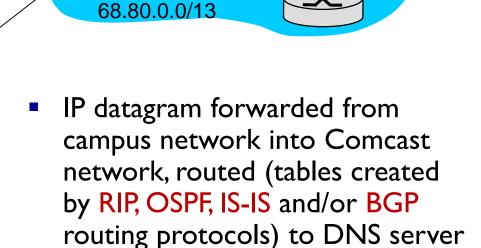


- before sending HTTP request, need IP address of www.google.com: DNS
- DNS query created, encapsulated in UDP, encapsulated in IP, encapsulated in Eth. To send frame to router, need MAC address of router interface: ARP
- ARP query broadcast, received by router, which replies with ARP reply giving MAC address of router interface
- client now knows MAC address of first hop router, so can now send frame containing DNS query

A day in the life... using DNS



 IP datagram containing DNS query forwarded via LAN switch from client to Ist hop router



demuxed to DNS server

DNS UDP

IΡ

Eth

Phy

Comcast network

DNS

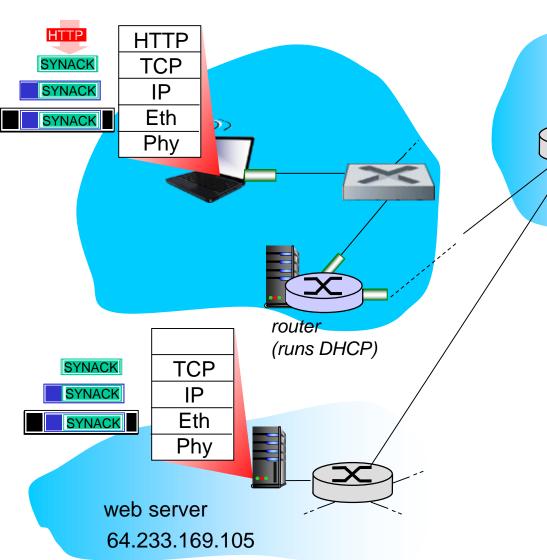
DNS

DNS

 DNS server replies to client with IP address of www.google.com

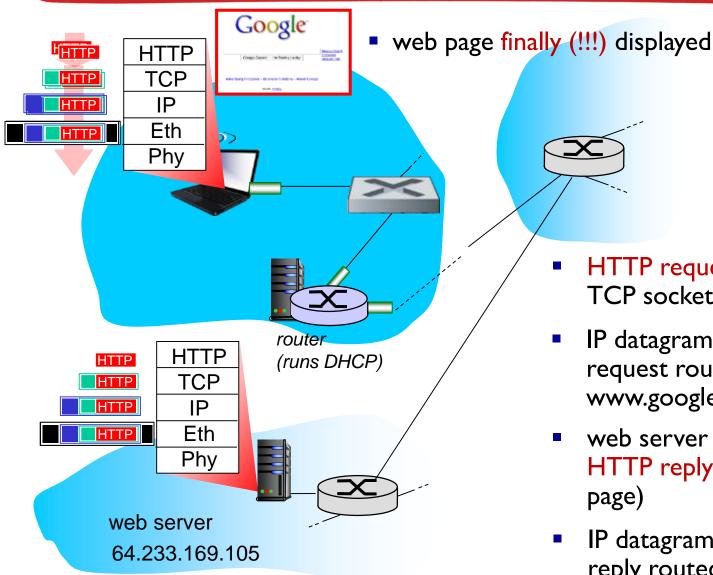
DNS server

A day in the life...TCP connection carrying HTTP



- to send HTTP request, client first opens TCP socket to web server
- TCP SYN segment (step I in 3way handshake) inter-domain routed to web server
- web server responds with TCP SYNACK (step 2 in 3-way handshake)
- TCP connection established!

A day in the life... HTTP request/reply



- HTTP request sent into TCP socket
- IP datagram containing HTTP request routed to www.google.com
- web server responds with HTTP reply (containing web page)
- IP datagram containing HTTP reply routed back to client

Chapter 6: 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, VLANs
 - virtualized networks as a link layer: MPLS
- synthesis: a day in the life of a web request

Chapter 6: let's take a breath

- journey down protocol stack complete (except PHY)
- solid understanding of networking principles, practice
- could stop here but lots of interesting topics!
 - wireless
 - multimedia
 - security