

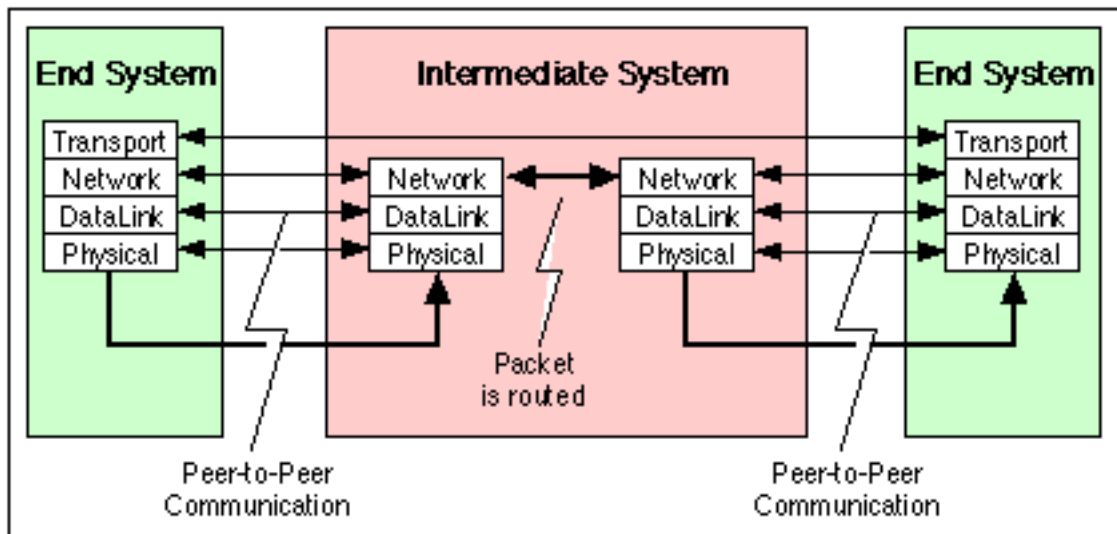
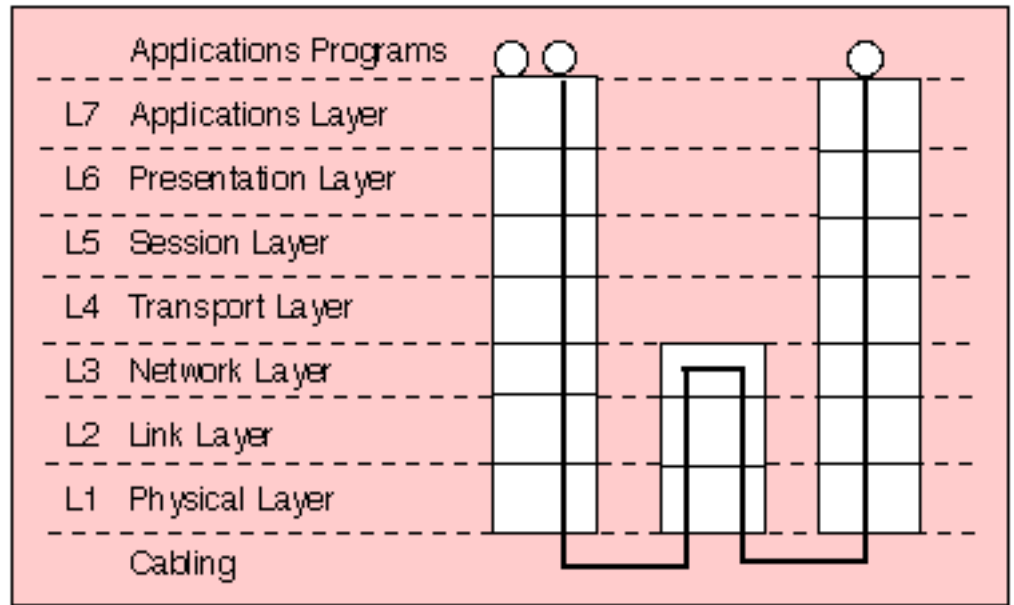
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Mark

1. (a) The Open Systems Interconnection (OSI) reference model describes some protocols as End-to-End and some as Link-by-Link (also known as Hop-by-Hop). Explain these two terms, and provide an appropriate diagram to illustrate End-to-End and Link-by-Link communication. [8 marks]

The communications engineer is concerned mainly with the protocols operating at the bottom four layers (physical, data link, network, and transport) in the OSI reference model. These layers provide the basic communications service. The layers above are primarily the concern of computer scientists who wish to build distributed applications programs using the services provided by the network.

The two lowest layers operate between adjacent systems connected via the physical link and are said to work "hop by hop". The protocol control information is removed after each "hop" across a link (i.e. by each System) and a suitable new header added each time the information is sent on a subsequent hop. The network layer (layer 3) operates network-wide and is present in all systems and responsible for overall co-ordination of all systems along the communications path. The layers above layer 3 operate end-to-end and are only used in the End Systems (ES) which are communicating. The Layer 4 - protocol control information is therefore unchanged by the IS in the network and is delivered to the corresponding ES in its original form. Layers 4-7 (if present) in Intermediate Systems (IS) play no part in the end-to-end communication.



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Peer-to-Peer communication between OSI protocol layers

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| Mark | | <p>(b) A Universal Datagram Protocol (UDP) packet is sent via an Ethernet network. Draw a diagram to show the frame of data as it would appear on the Ethernet network. Your diagram should include all the protocol headers. [4 marks]</p> | |
| +1 +1 +1 +1 | | <p>It is the responsibility of the network layer (IP) protocol to ensure that the UDP message is sent to the correct destination. This is achieved by setting the destination address of the IP packet. The source address is set to the address of the computer generating the UDP request and the IP protocol type is set to "UDP" to indicate that the packet is to be handled by the remote end system's UDP server program.</p> | |
| | | <p>Encapsulation over an Ethernet LAN using an IP network layer header, and a MAC link layer header and trailer containing the 32-bit checksum consists of adding the following headers:</p> | |
| | | <p>Ethernet Preamble (8 B) + Ethernet MAC Header (14 B) + IP Header (20 B) + UDP Message (UDP Header + DATA) + CRC-32 (4 B)</p> | |
| =4 | | <p>(c) What is the purpose of a pre-amble and why is it sometimes needed for synchronous communications? [2 marks]</p> | |
| | | <p>The purpose of the idle time before transmission starts is to allow a small time interval for the receiver electronics in each of the nodes to settle after completion of the previous frame. A node starts transmission by sending an 8 byte (64 bit) preamble sequence. This consists of 62 alternating 1's and 0's followed by the pattern 11. When encoded using Manchester encoding, the 62 alternating bits produce a 10 MHz square wave. The purpose of the preamble is to allow time for the receiver in each node to achieve lock of the receiver Digital Phase Lock Loop which is used to synchronise the receive data clock to the transmit data clock. At the point when the first bit of the preamble is received, each receiver may be in an arbitrary state (i.e. have an arbitrary phase for its local clock). During the course of the preamble it learns the correct phase, but in so doing may miss (or gain) a number of bits. A special pattern (11), known as the start of frame delimiter, is therefore used to mark the last two bits of the preamble. When this is received, the Ethernet receive interface starts collecting the bits into bytes for processing by the MAC layer.</p> | |
| 2 | | <p>(d) A client program sends one UDP packet with 100 B of data each second to a server and receives a corresponding reply also with 60 B of data. The client and server are connected by an Ethernet LAN. Calculate the total number of bits sent via the Ethernet network by this program in each second. From the number of bits per second calculate the Utilisation, given that Ethernet typically operates at 10 Mbps. [6 marks]</p> | |
| | | <p>1 UDP message sent per second, with 1 reply received per second.</p> | |
| | | <p>Each message contains:</p> | |
| | | <p>MAC-Preamble (8 bytes) + MAC Header (14 bytes) + IP Header (20 bytes) + UDP(48bytes) + UDP Payload (60 bytes) + CRC-32 (4 bytes)</p> | |
| +4 | | <p>Total per second= (8+14+20+8+60+4) * 8 * 2= 912 * 2 bps = 1824 bps</p> | |
| | | <p>Total per second= 1824 bits /sec</p> | |
| | | <p>Assume 10 Mbps Ethernet operation.</p> | |
| | | <p>Utilisation = 2464 / clock rate * 100 = 1824 x 10⁻⁷ x 100 = 0.018 %</p> | |
| +2 =6 | | <p>Utilisation = 0.018 %</p> | |

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Mark

2. (a) Explain the properties of the Open Systems Interconnection (OSI) Physical Layer [4 marks]

The Physical layer provides electrical, functional, and procedural characteristics to activate, maintain, and deactivate physical links that transparently send the bit stream; it is also concerned with the timing required to identify the centre of each transmitted bit.

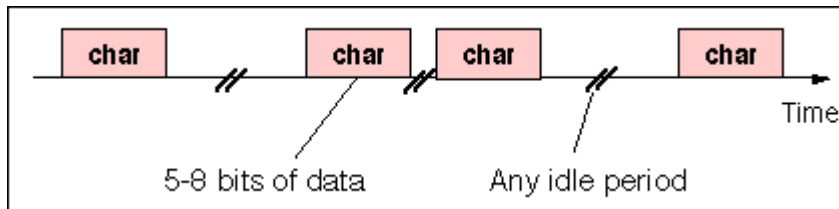
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It only recognises individual bits, not characters or multicharacter frames.

(b) Provide a description of the following terms:

(i) Asynchronous Transmission

The asynchronous communication technique is a physical layer transmission technique which is most widely used for personal computers providing connectivity to printers, modems, fax machines, etc. The most significant aspect of asynchronous communications is that the transmitter and receiver clock are independent and are not synchronised. In fact, there need be no timing relationship between successive characters (or bytes of data). Individual characters may be separated by any arbitrary idle period.



Asynchronous transmission of a series of characters

An asynchronous link communicates data as a series of characters of fixed size and format. Each character is preceded by a start bit and followed by 1-2 stop bits. Parity is often added to provide some limited protection against errors occurring on the link. The use of independent transmit and receive clocks constrains transmission to relatively short characters (<8 bits) and moderate data rates (< 64 kbps, but typically lower). The asynchronous transmitter delimits each character by a start sequence and a stop sequence. The start bit (0), data (usually 8 bits plus parity) and stop bit(s) (1) are transmitted using a shift register clocked at the nominal data rate.

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(ii) Synchronous Transmission

In the synchronous transmission, the receiver uses a clock which is synchronised to the transmitter clock. The clock may be transferred by either:

A separate interface circuit (as in X.21 or RS-449) or
Encoded in the data (e.g. Manchester Encoding, AMI encoding, HDB3 encoding)

An encoded clock is used in systems such as G.703, and Ethernet. Synchronous transmission has the advantage that the timing information is accurately aligned to the received data, allowing operation at much higher data rates. It also has the advantage that the receiver tracks any clock drift which may arise (for instance due to temperature variation). The penalty is however a more complex interface design, and potentially a more difficult interface to configure (since there are many more interface options).

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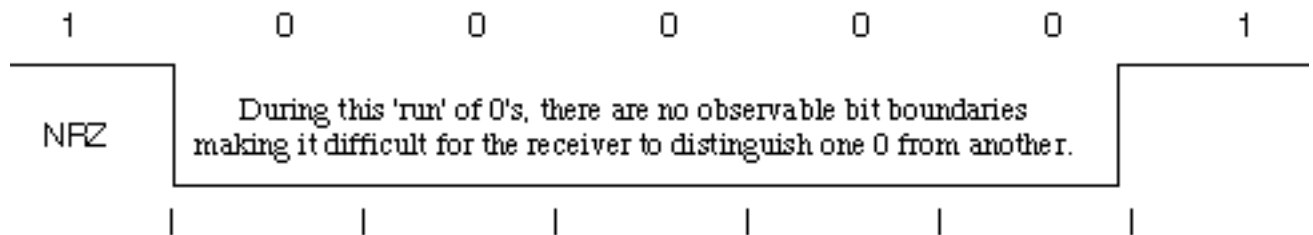
(iii) Non Return to Zero (NRZ)

Non-return to zero encoding is commonly used in slow speed communications interfaces for both synchron

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synchronous and asynchronous transmission. Using NRZ, a logic 1 bit is sent as a high value and a logic 0 bit is sent as a low value (the line driver chip used to connect the cable may subsequently invert these signals).

In NRZ transmission, each data bit is represented by a level. A high level may represent a logic 1, whereas a low level may represent a logic 0. The term is derived from the earlier transmission technique of sending pulses to represent bits (called Return to Zero, RZ) in which a logic 1 is represented by a pulse and a logic 0 by the absence of a pulse. (AMI and HDB3 are techniques derived from RZ). Manchester encoding uses a still different scheme where a logic 1 is represented by a transition in a particular direction (usually a rising edge in the centre of each bit. A transition in the opposite direction (downward in this case) is used to represent logic 0.



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(iv) Encoded Clock

Systems such as Manchester Encoding, AMI, HDB3 do not need a separate clock circuit to synchronise the transmit and receive clocks. Instead the data is encoded prior to transmission. The encoding is designed to introduce sufficient edges in the bit stream to ensure that a DPLL may successfully recover the phase and frequency of the clock - even when the data contains long runs of 0's and 1's which may otherwise give rise to very few clock edges. An encoded clock saves one communications circuit.

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=8

[8 marks]

(c) Compare the properties of Alternate Mark Inversion (AMI) and Manchester encoding. [4 marks]

AMI (Alternate Mark Inversion) is a synchronous clock encoding technique which uses bipolar pulses to represent logical 1 values. It is therefore a three level system. A logical 0 is represented by no symbol, and a logical 1 by pulses of alternating polarity. The alternating coding prevents the build-up of a d.c. voltage level down the cable. This is considered an advantage since the cable may be used to carry a small d.c. current to power intermediate equipment such as line repeaters.

AMI coding was used extensively in first generation PCM networks, but suffers the drawback that a long run of 0's produces no transitions in the data stream (and therefore does not contain sufficient transitions to guarantee lock of a DPLL). Successful transmission therefore relies on the user not wishing to send long runs of 0's and this type of encoding is not therefore transparent to the sequence of bits being sent.

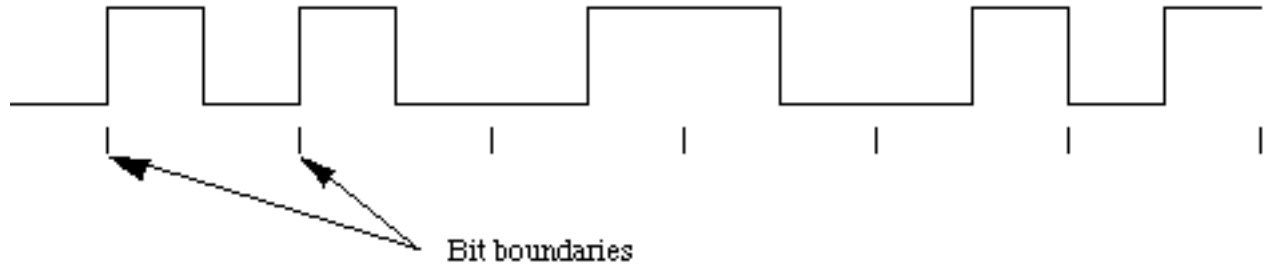
E.G. The pattern of bits " 1 0 0 0 0 1 1 0 " encodes to " + 0 0 0 0 - + "

In the Manchester encoding shown, a logic 1 is indicated by a 0 to 1 transition at the centre of the bit and logic 0 is indicated by a 1 to 0 transition at the centre of the bit. Note that signal transitions do not always occur at the 'bit boundaries' (the division between one bit and another), but that there is always a transition at the centre of each bit. (N.B. since most line driver electronics actually invert the bits prior to transmission you may observe the opposite coding on an oscilloscope connected to a cable).

A Manchester encoded signal contains frequent level transitions which allow the receiver to extract the clock signal using a Digital Phase Locked Loop (DPLL) and correctly decode the value and timing of each bit. To allow reliable operation using a DPLL, the transmitted bit stream must contain a high density of bit transitions.

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4 marks
 tions. Manchester encoding ensures this, allowing the receiving DPLL to correctly extract the clock signal. Manchester encoding is used as the physical layer of an Ethernet LAN.



4 The waveform for a Manchester encoded bit stream carrying the sequence of bits 0010115

(d) Plot the waveform which you would observe on an oscilloscope when a byte with the hexadecimal value of 0x57 is transmitted along an Ethernet coaxial cable. [4 marks]

The following points are to be remembered:

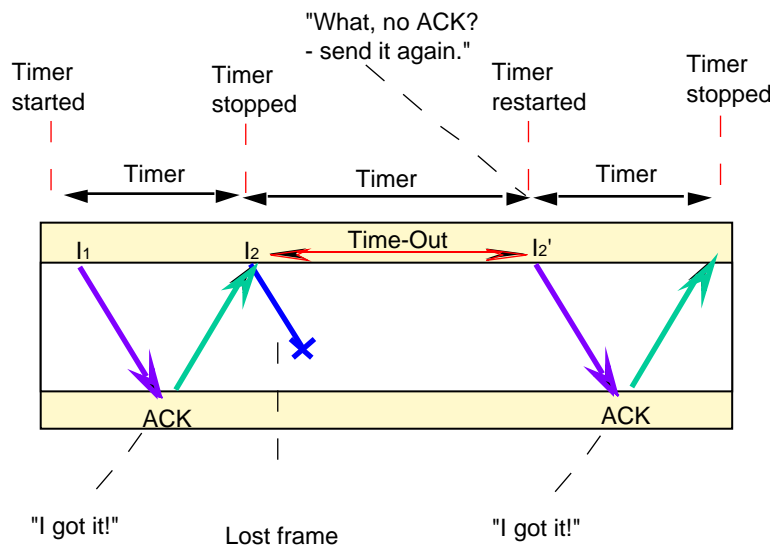
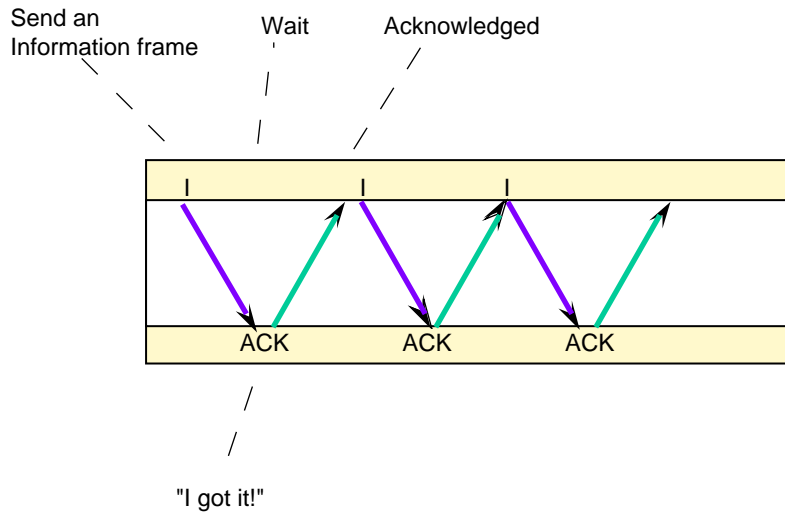
- +1 1) Bit reversal - the lsb of each byte is sent first. (01010111 becomes 11101010)
- +1 2) Each bit is encoded at 10 Mbps (i.e. one bit period is 0.1 microseconds)
- +1 3) Each bit is encoded (1 -> 0,1 and 0 -> 1,0)
- +1 4) The bits are inverted prior to transmission (1 -> 0 and 0 -> 1)

=4

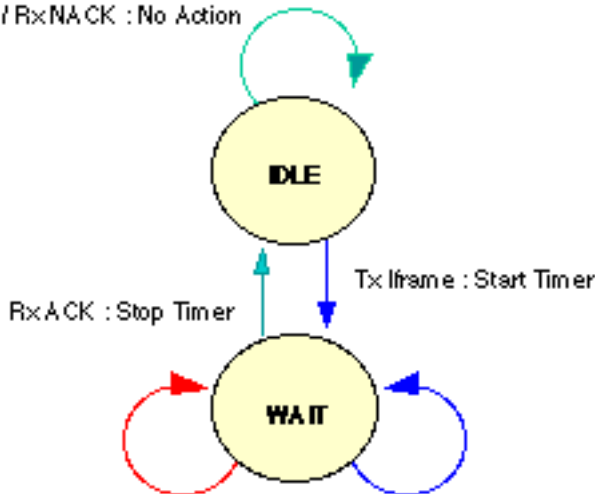
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| Mark | | <p>3. (a) An HDLC link may provide either a best effort or a reliable transmission service. In this context define what is meant by Best Effort and Reliable. [6 marks]</p> <p>Reliable delivery has been succinctly defined as "Data is accepted at one end of a link in the same order as was transmitted at the other end, without loss and without duplicates." This implies four constraints:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">(i) No loss (at least one copy of each frame is sent)(ii) No duplication (no more than one copy is sent)(iii) FIFO delivery (the frames are forwarded in the original order)(iv) A frame must be delivered within a reasonable period <p>For a communications protocol to support reliability, requires that the protocol numbers the PDUs that are transmitted, implements an error recovery procedure (e.g. checkpointing or go-back-N), and provides error free procedures for link management.</p> <p>There is very little data which is so important that it must be sent no matter how late. Layered protocols usually also employ timers at each level, governing this interval. The service provided by a protocol layer may be unreliable for various reasons including:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">(i) Corruption of bits within the physical medium or the interface to the physical media.(ii) Faulty bit-timing resulting in erroneous decoding of the value of a received bit.(iii) A software error within the software used to implement the communications protocol.(iv) Insufficient buffer space within the communications equipment. <p>A "Best Effort" service is one which does not provide full reliability. It usually performs some error control (e.g. discarding all frames which may have been corrupted) and may also provide some (limited) retransmission (e.g. CSMA/CD). The delivered data is not however guaranteed. A best effort service, normally requires reliability to be provided by a higher layer protocol. An example of best effort services is: Connection-less Data Link Layer - HDLC (UI frames).</p> <p>(b) What type of link service is required to support a network which uses the Internet Protocol (IP)? [1 mark]</p> <p>A connection-less, such as the UNIT DATA service provided by HDLC using "UI" frames. A standard using this service is defined by the IP suite and is known as the "Point-to-Point Protocol (PPP) (IP is itself a best effort service).</p> <p>(c) Provide a detailed description of Stop and Wait Recovery. Your answer should include a frame transition diagram showing two cases: normal operation, and recovery following a transmission error. [8 marks]</p> <p>Stop and Wait transmission is the simplest reliability technique and is adequate for a very simple communications protocol. A stop and wait protocol transmits a PDU of information and then waits for a response. The receiver receives each PDU and sends an Acknowledgement (ACK) PDU if the data was received correctly, and a Negative Acknowledgement (NACK) PDU if the data was not received. In practice, the receiver may not be able to reliably identify whether a PDU has been received, and the transmitter will usually also need to implement a timer to recover from the condition where the receiver does not respond.</p> <p>Under normal transmission the sender will receive an ACK for the data and then commence transmission of the next data block. For a long delay link, the sender may have to wait an appreciable time for this response. While it is waiting the sender is said to be in the "idle" state and is unable to send further data.</p> <p>When PDUs are lost, the receiver will not normally be able to identify the loss (it does not receive anything). The transmitter must then rely upon a timer to detect the lack of a response. In the case where a receiver is able to accurately identify that corrupted data has been received, it may generate a NACK to indicate this to the sender (this pre-empts the timer expiry and triggers immediate retransmission).</p> | |

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RxACK / RxNACK : No Action



The blue arrows show the sequence of data PDUs being sent across the link from the sender (top) to the receiver (bottom). A Stop and Wait protocol relies on two way transmission (full duplex or half duplex) to allow the receiver at the remote node to return PDUs acknowledging the successful transmission. The acknowledgements are shown in green in the diagram, and flow back to the original sender. A small processing delay may be introduced between reception of the last byte of a Data PDU and generation of the corresponding ACK.

In the diagram, the second PDU of Data is corrupted during transmission. The receiver discards the corrupted data (by noting that it is followed by an invalid data checksum). The sender is unaware of this loss but starts a timer after sending each PDU. Normally an ACK PDU is received before this the timer expires. In this case no ACK is received, and the timer counts down to zero and triggers retransmission of the same PDU by the sender. The sender always starts a timer following transmission, but in the second transmission receives an ACK PDU before the timer expires, finally indicating that the data has now been received by the remote node.

The state diagram (also showing the operation on NACK) is shown :

Green for ACK, Blue for Data, Red for NACK

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(d) How does HDLC overcome a fundamental limitation of stop and wait error recovery when used over a link with a higher delay bandwidth product? [5 marks]

Sequence Numbers & Windows

Two sequence numbers are employed by HDLC when providing a reliable data link service. One sequence number, the send sequence number (N(S)) records the number of each PDU sent. Another sequence number returns an acknowledgment confirming correct delivery of data to the receiver. This is the receive sequence number (N(R)).

The send sequence number

The send sequence number is the number (in the specified modulus) of the current I-frame being sent by the local node. Each transmitted I-frame is numbered in succession with a sequence number. This is implemented by copying the send state variable, V(S), into the send sequence number, N(S), in the frame. After a frame is transmitted the send state variable is incremented. The N(S) in retransmitted frames are not changed (i.e. the original N(S) value is sent in the retransmitted frame).

The receive sequence number

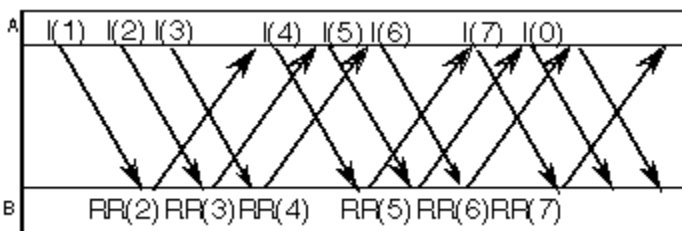
The receive sequence number is the number (in the same modulus) of the next I-frame expected by the node at the remote end of the link. For a link with no errors, the N(R) of the next frame sent by the remote node should be one more than the N(S) of the last frame received by the node. The N(R) value is equal to the remote node's receive sequence variable, V(R). Since the reception of a valid in-sequence I-frame causes the N(R) value to be assigned one plus the last N(S) value, the received N(S) value is one greater than the sent N(R) value. This process is known as "acknowledgement" and indicates to the local node that the remote node has correctly received all I-frames sent with a N(S) sequence number less than the received N(R) value.

Windows

Many protocols need to number the PDUs which are sent by the protocol in order to provide a reliable service. Usually this numbering is performed by including sequence numbers in the Protocol Control Information (PCI) (i.e. the PDU header). The sequence numbers are normally stored using modulo-n arithmetic allowing the same set of numbers to be used time after time. A technique known as a "window" is used to ensure that the same sequence number is never used by two frames at any one time.

Example of the use of a Window in HDLC

An HDLC link (operating in the ABM mode) connecting two equipments A and B is operated with a window size (k) of 3 frames. Part of the transmission is shown in the frame transition diagram below. This diagram will be used to explain the terms modulus and window size.



The window specifies the maximum number of frames which may be transmitted without receiving an acknowledgment. The current window is defined as the number of frames which may be sent at the current time, this is always less than or equal to the link window size. The diagram above shows a window size of 3 frames. This results in a pause in transmission after sending the third frame, until the first frame has been acknowledged by the remote node (B). The window size also defines the amount of buffering required at the sending node (A) to hold one copy of each frame which is unacknowledged.

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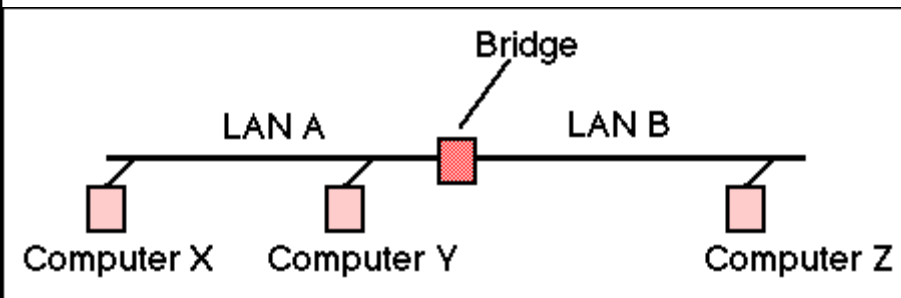
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4. (a) Explain in detail the operation of an Ethernet bridge when used to connect two Ethernet LAN segments. [6 marks]

A bridge is a LAN interconnection device which operates at the data link layer (layer 2) of the OSI reference model. It may be used to join two LAN segments (A,B), constructing a larger LAN. A bridge is able to filter traffic passing between the two LANs and may enforce a security policy separating different work groups located on each of the LANs.

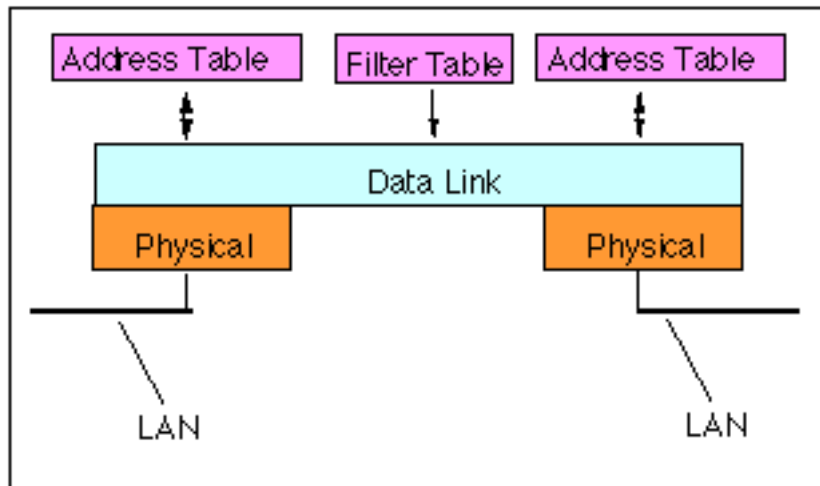
The format of PDUs at this layer in a LAN is defined by the Ethernet frame format (also known as MAC Medium Access Control). It consists of two 6 byte addresses and a one byte protocol ID / length field. The address field allows a frame to be sent to single and groups of stations. The MAC protocol is responsible for access to the medium and for the diagnosis of failure in either the

A bridge connecting two LAN segments (A and B).



The bridge learns (by observing the headers of Ethernet frames) which MAC addresses belong to the computers on each connected subnetwork by observing the source address values which originate on each side of the bridge. This is called "learning". In the figure in the question, the source addresses X,Y are observed to be on network A, while the address of computer Z will be observed to be on network B.

A bridge stores the hardware addresses observed from frames received by each interface and uses this information to learn which frames need to be forwarded by the bridge. Packets with a source of X and destination of Y are received and discarded, since the computer Y is directly connected to the LAN A, whereas packets from X with a destination of Z are forwarded to network B by the bridge.



The learned addresses are stored in the corresponding interface address table. Once this table has been set up the bridge examines the destination address of all frames, and forwards them only if the address does not correspond to the source address of a computer on the local subnetwork.

A system administrator may override the normal forwarding by inserting entries in a filter table to inhibit forwarding between different workgroups (for example to provide security). The filter table contains a list of source or destination addresses. Frames which match entries in the filter table will not be forwarded under any circumstances.

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| Mark | | <p>(b) Provide a description of the key differences between a 10BaseT hub, an Ethernet Bridge, and an IP Router. Your answer should include appropriate diagrams and may include a table comparing the features provided by each equipment. [8 marks]</p> <p>LAN Repeaters or Hubs – Join LAN segments (OSI Layer 1)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">Very cheapRegenerate the signal and timing informationAllow multiple types of media to be connectedWork below the MAC Layer (Support all protocols)Build one single LAN <p>Bridges – Separate work group traffic(form collision domains) (OSI Layer 2)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">CheapAllow multiple types of media to be connected (also known as a “hub” or “switch”)Work at the MAC Layer (Support all protocols)May provide filtering to implement simple security policiesBuild one single IP network <p>Routers – Connect IP networks (OSI Layer 3)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">More ExpensiveWork at Network Layer (e.g. IP) and support one or more protocolsConnect separate networks into an internetMay protect networks from unauthorised access <p>A router is most suited for the connection of a LAN to a MAN. The router allows two separately administered networks to communicate without forming one homogenous network. The two networks may have different media, and belong to different IP networks (in the case of IP). The router also provides routing of packets to destinations reachable via the MAN and can control access to/from the MAN.</p> <p>(c) Ethernet supports Broadcast, Unicast and Multicast transmission modes, explain in detail what is meant by each term. Illustrate your answer by providing an example Medium Access Control (MAC) address of each type. [6 marks]</p> <p>Broadcast</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">Ethernet Defined Broadcast Destination Address = 01 00 00 00 00 (always)1 to ALLAll nodes receive the same PDU <p>Unicast</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">Sample Ethernet Unicast Destination Address = 08 00 20 01 62 f0 (i.e. unique address)1 to 1 (point-to-point)One or more nodes may receive the same PDU at Layer 2, but only node with a unique (local) address matching the received destination forwards the received PDU to layer 3. <p>Multicast</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">Sample Ethernet Multicast Destination Address = 01 00 00 00 00 55 (Group 55)1 to many (or many-to-many)All nodes receive the PDU at Layer 2, but only nodes which "join" the specified multicast group forward the PDU to Layer 3. A node may "register" or "join" none or more multicast groups and receive all PDUs which match any group. | |

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5. (a) The following terms are used when describing the Internet Protocol. Define the following terms: [8 marks]

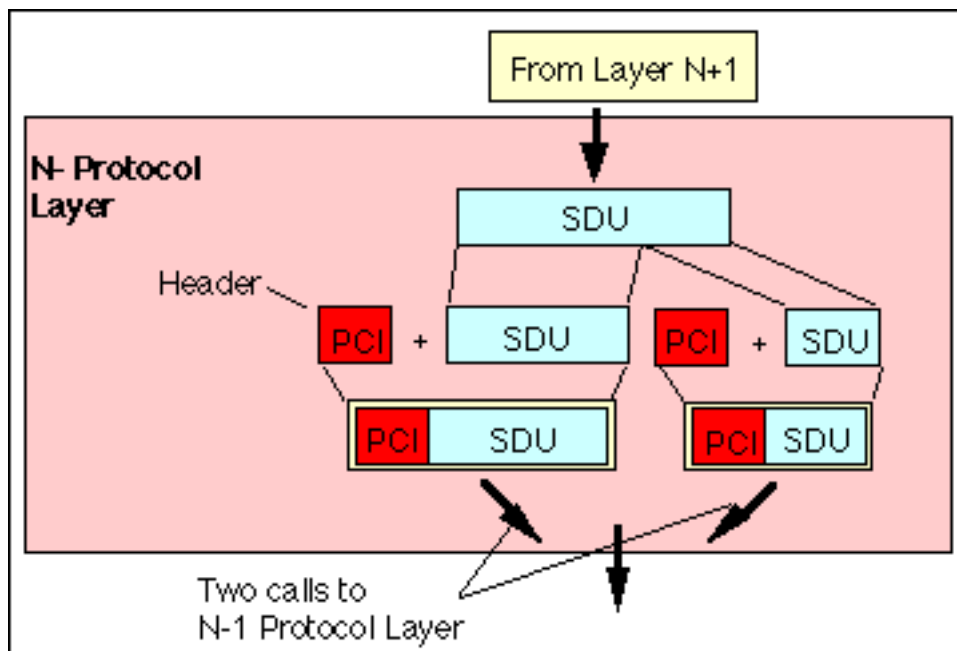
(i) Internet Protocol (IP) Address

An address is a data structure understood by a network which uniquely identifies the recipient within the network. An IP address is a 32 bit value consisting of two parts, the network part (identifying the network to which the computer is attached) and the host part (which identifies the host within the local network). The IP network address is identified as the bit-wise logical AND of the netmask and the 32-bit IP address.

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(ii) Fragmentation (or Segmentation)

Most communications protocols are specified using a layered architecture (e.g. using the OSI reference model). Each layer uses the service provided by the layer below. However, a layer is not always aware of the



maximum size of the packet payload (Service Data Unit (SDU)) which may be supported.

Encapsulation of a SDU by adding a PCI to form a PDU

In most cases packet networks limit the size of the maximum SDU at the network layer, but the actual maximum size will depend upon the network architecture which is being used. (LANs and MANs often allow comparatively large packets, whereas WANs often employ a much smaller maximum packet size). Many layers (e.g. the IP network protocol) therefore support a segmentation (also known as fragmentation) service which breaks large SDUs into a number of smaller SDUs. The corresponding peer protocol is responsible for reassembling the complete SDU before forwarding to the layer above. The corresponding process of joining together the received segments is known as "reassembly" and is performed by the receiver at the same protocol layer (i.e. peer-to-peer).

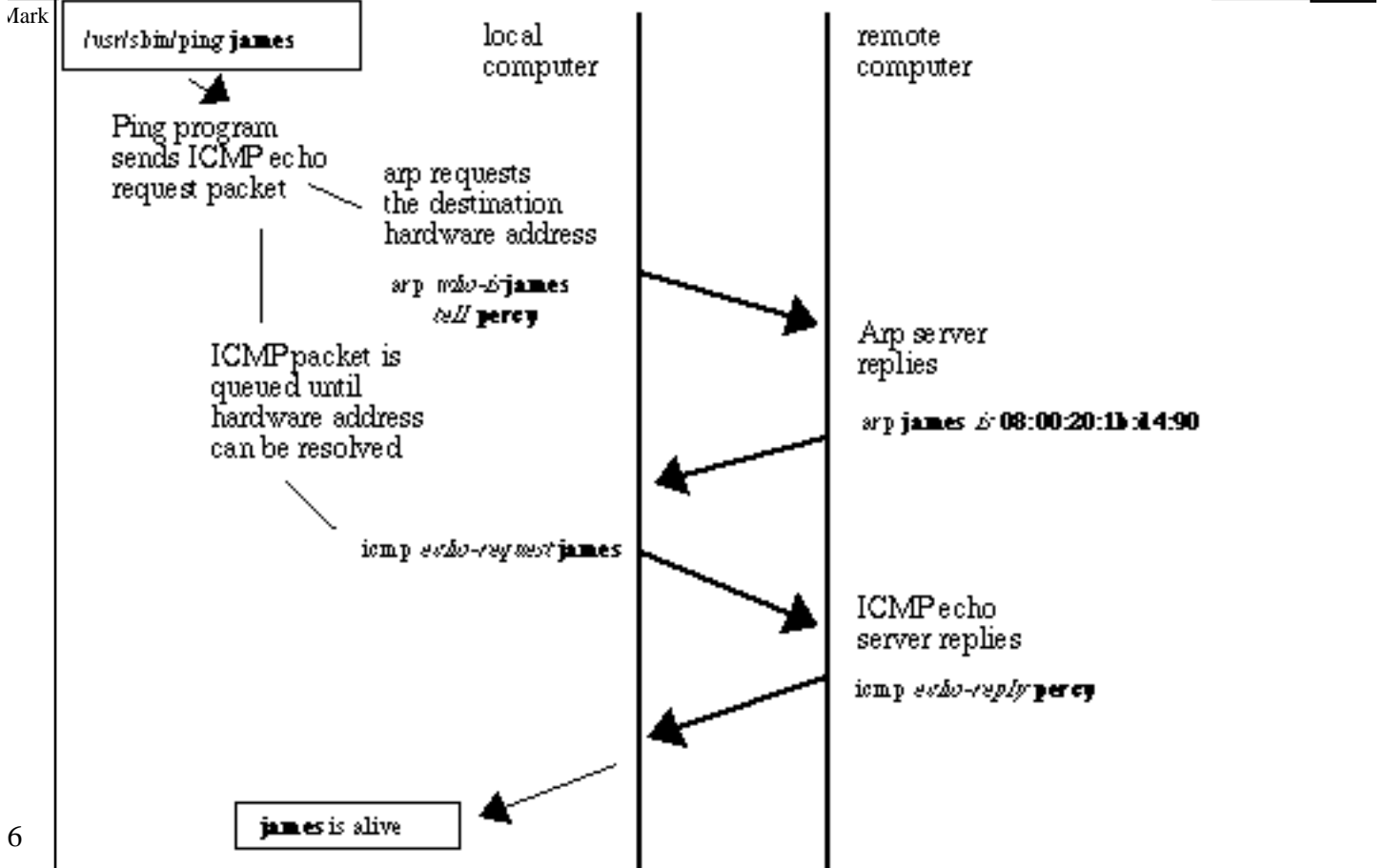
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(iii) Maximum Transmission Unit (MTU)

The maximum transfer unit is the largest size of IP datagram which may be transferred using a specific data link connection. The MTU value is a design parameter of a LAN and a mutually agreed value for most WAN links. The size of MTU may vary greatly between different links (from 128 B up to 10 kB) and is the reason why fragmentation/segmentation is sometimes required by IP routers.

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Frames:

MAC+ ARP request + CRC-32
src: percy-enet (x)
dst: Broadcast

MAC + ARP reply + CRC-32
src: james-enet (y)
dst: percy-enet (x)

MAC + IP + ICMP ECHO request + DATA + CRC-32
src: percy-enet (x)
dst: james-enet (y)

MAC + IP + ICMP ECHO reply + DATA + CRC-32
src: james-enet (y)
dst: percy-enet (x)

(c) Outline the protocol headers which are present in each of the four Ethernet frames and calculate the total size of each frame assuming the ICMP payload is 100 B. [6 marks]

MAC+ ARP request + CRC-32 = 14 + 28 + PAD + 4 = 64 B

MAC + ARP reply + CRC-32 = 14 + 28 + PAD + 4 = 64 B

Note minimum Ethernet PDU is 60 B (including MAC header, excluding CRC-32)

MAC + IP + ICMP ECHO request + DATA + CRC-32 = 14 + 20 + 8 + 100 + 4 = 146 B

MAC + IP + ICMP ECHO reply + DATA + CRC-32 = 14 + 20 + 8 + 100 + 4 = 146 B

8 Byte preamble may be added in each case (no loss of marks for adding this).

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