

Chapter 5: DataLink Layer

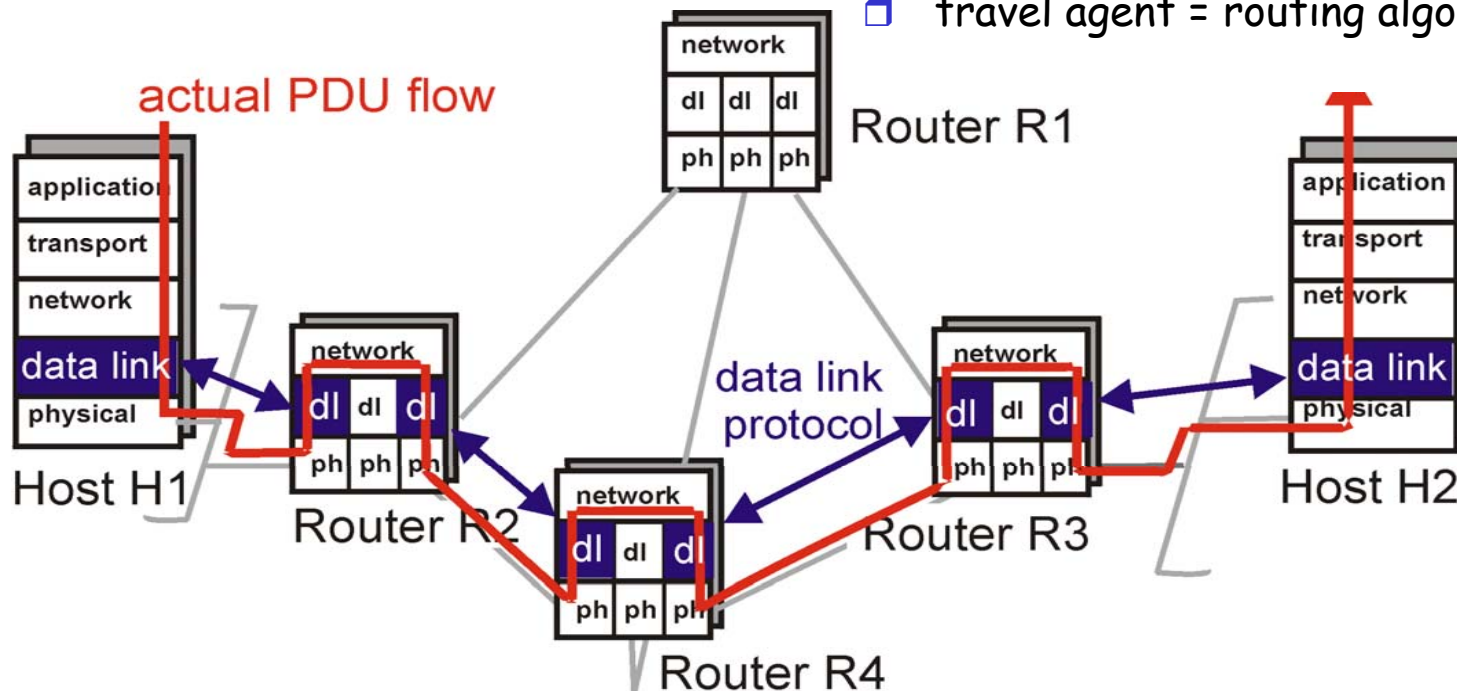
Course on Computer Communication and Networks, CTH/GU

The slides are adaptation of the slides made
available by the authors of the course's main
textbook

Slides with darker
background are for
extra information or
background/context

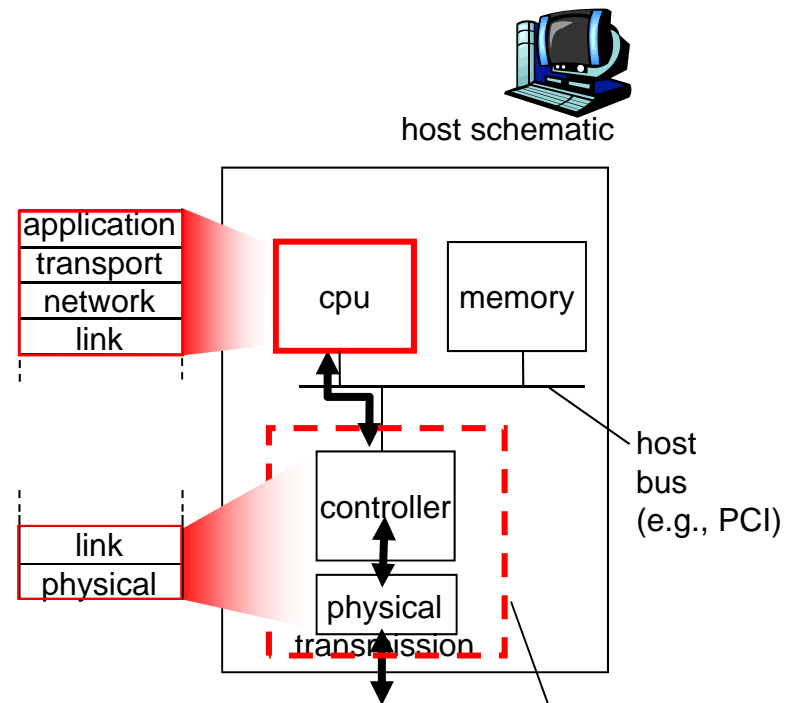
Link layer: context

- 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

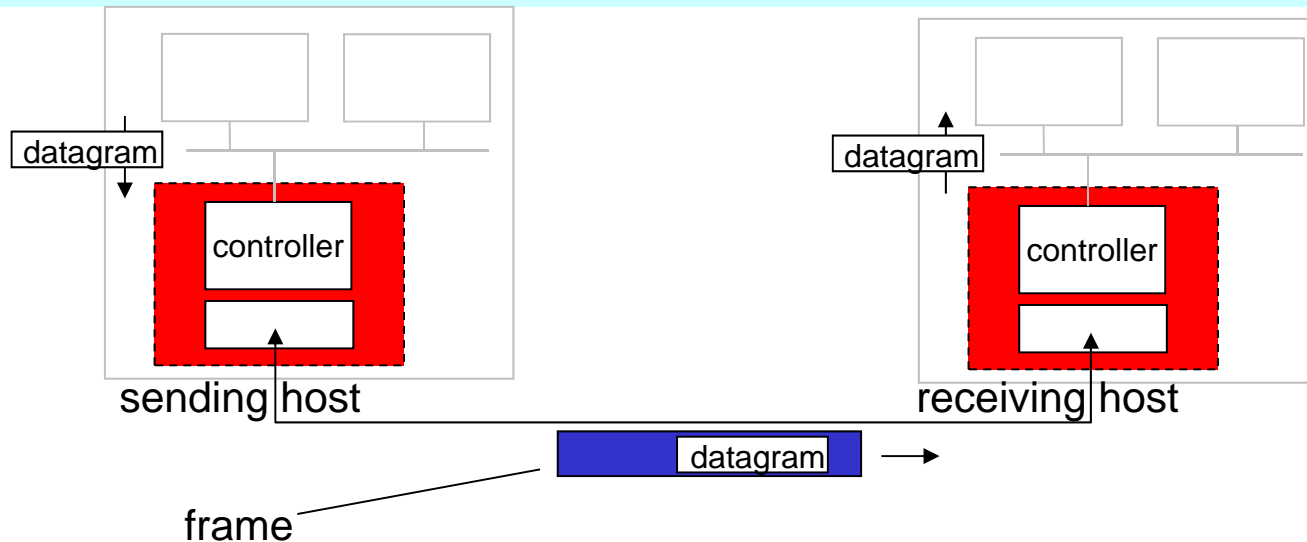


Where is the link layer implemented?

- ❑ in each and every host
- ❑ link layer implemented in "adaptor" (aka *network interface card* NIC)
 - E.g. Ethernet 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 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, flow ctrl

- Control when errors + pace between adjacent sending and receiving 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)

❑ *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

Link Layer



- 5.1 Introduction and services
- □ 5.3 Multiple access protocols

- (5.2 Error detection and correction)

- *grey items will be treated as complement, in subsequent lecture

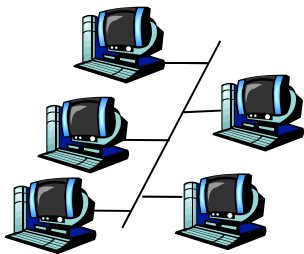
LAN technology

- 5.5 Ethernet
- 5.6 Interconnection
- 5.4 Link-Layer Addressing
- 5.9 A day in the life of a web request
- (5.7 PPP
- 5.8 Link Virtualization: ATM and MPLS)
- Framing

Multiple Access Links and Protocols

Two types of "links":

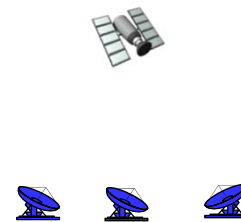
- point-to-point
 - PPP for dial-up access
- **broadcast** (shared wire or medium)
 - Ethernet
 - upstream HFC
 - 802.11 wireless LAN



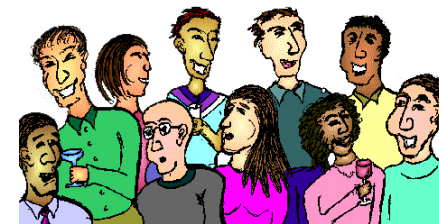
shared wire (e.g.,
cabled Ethernet)



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

Ideal Multiple Access 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
4. Simple

MAC Protocols: a taxonomy

Three broad classes:

□ Channel Partitioning

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

□ Random Access

- allow collisions; "recover" from collisions

□ "Taking turns"

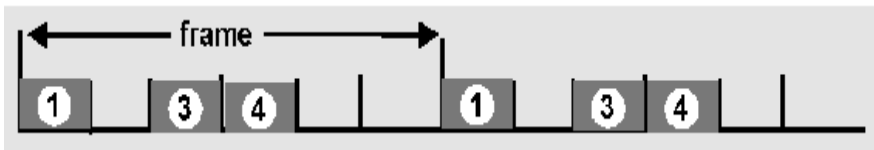
- tightly coordinate shared access to avoid collisions

Recall goal: efficient, fair, simple, decentralized

Channel Partitioning MAC protocols: TDMA, FDMA

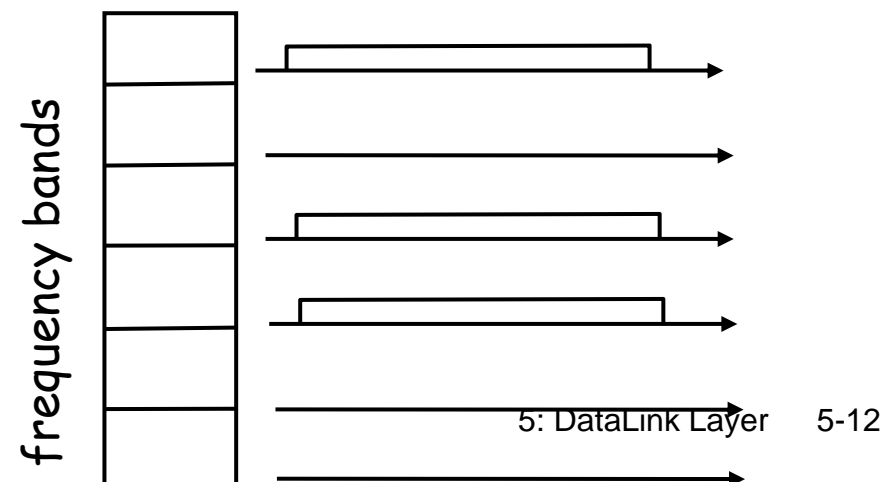
TDMA: time division multiple access

- 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



FDMA: frequency division multiple access

- each station assigned fixed frequency band
- **unused transmission time in frequency bands goes idle**
 - example: 6-station LAN, 1,3,4 have pkt, frequency bands 2,5,6 idle



Channel Partitioning CDMA

CDMA: Code Division Multiple Access

- ❑ allows each station to transmit over the entire frequency spectrum all the time.
- ❑ **simultaneous transmissions are separated using coding theory.**
- ❑ used mostly in wireless broadcast channels (cellular, satellite, etc) - we will study it in the wireless context
- ❑ has been "traditionally" used in the military

Observe:

MUX = speak person-to-person in designated space

CDMA = "shout" using different languages: the ones who know the language will get what you say

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

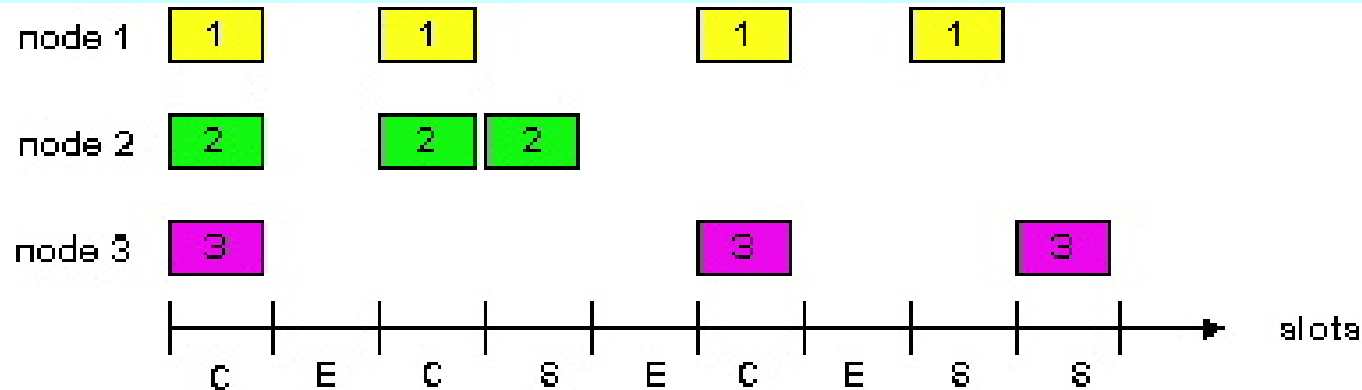
Assumptions:

- ❑ all frames same size
- ❑ time divided into equal size slots (time to transmit 1 frame)
- ❑ nodes start to transmit only at 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

Q: max fraction of successful transmissions?

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

A: Suppose N stations, each transmits in slot with probability p

- prob. successful transmission is:

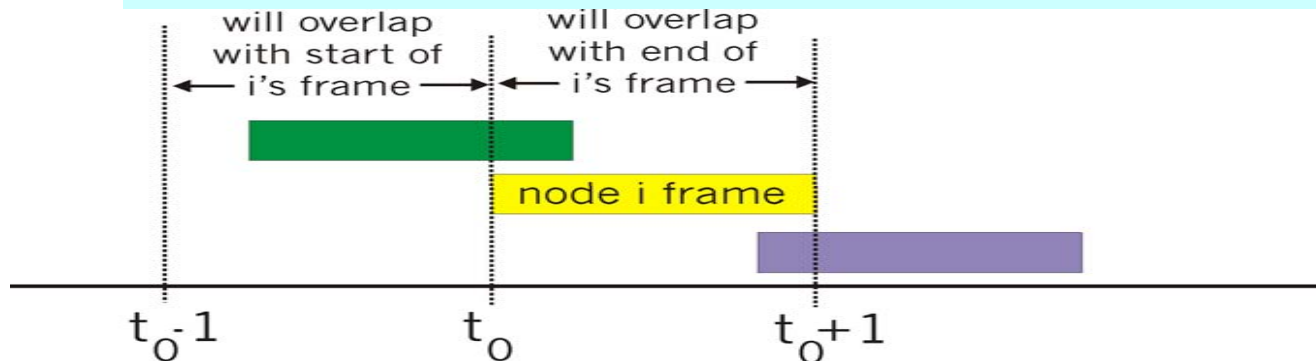
$$P[\text{specific node succeeds}] = p (1-p)^{N-1}$$

$$P[\text{any of } N \text{ nodes succeeds}] = N p (1-p)^{N-1}$$

$$\text{Efficiency} = 1/e = .37 \text{ LARGE } N$$

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

Pure Aloha vs slotted Aloha



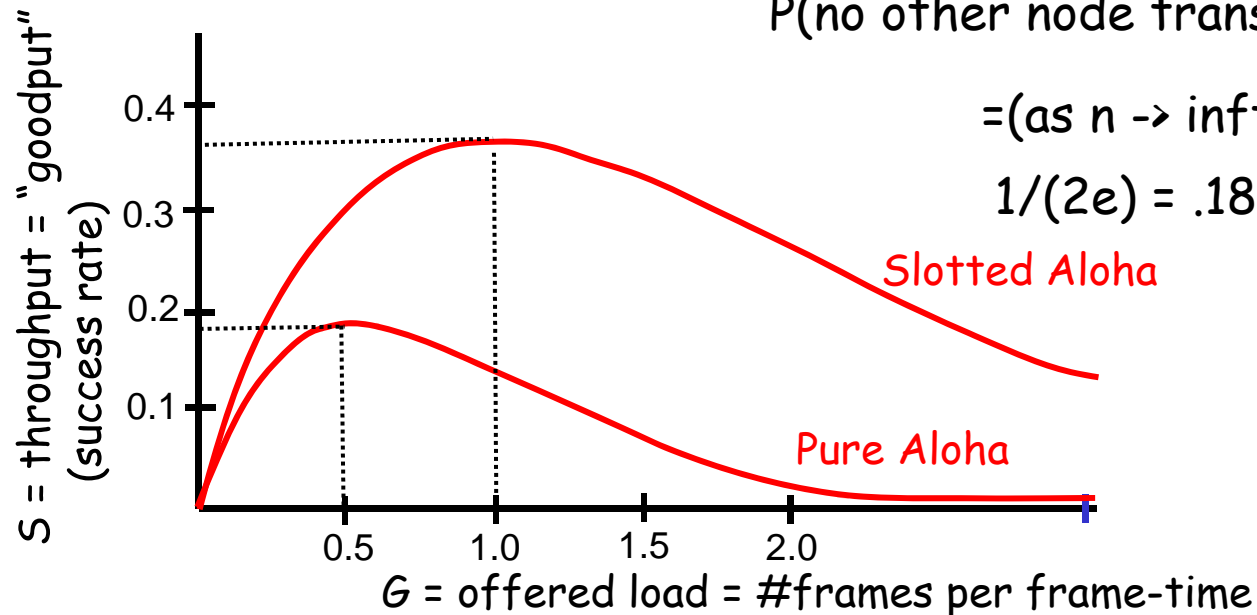
$$P(\text{success by any of } N \text{ nodes}) = N p \cdot (1-p)^{2N} =$$

i.e. $N p P(\text{no other node transmits in } [p_0-1, p_0])$

$P(\text{no other node transmits in } [p_0, p_0+1])$

$= (\text{as } n \rightarrow \infty \dots)$

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



CSMA: Carrier Sense Multiple Access

CSMA: listen before transmit:

- ❑ If channel sensed **busy**, defer transmission
 - back-off, random interval
- ❑ If/when channel sensed **idle**:
 - **p-persistent CSMA**: transmit immediately with probability p ; with probability $1-p$ retry after random interval
 - **non-persistent CSMA**: transmit after random interval

human analogy: don't interrupt others!

CSMA collisions

collisions *can* occur:

Due to propagation delay, two nodes may not hear each other's transmission

collision:

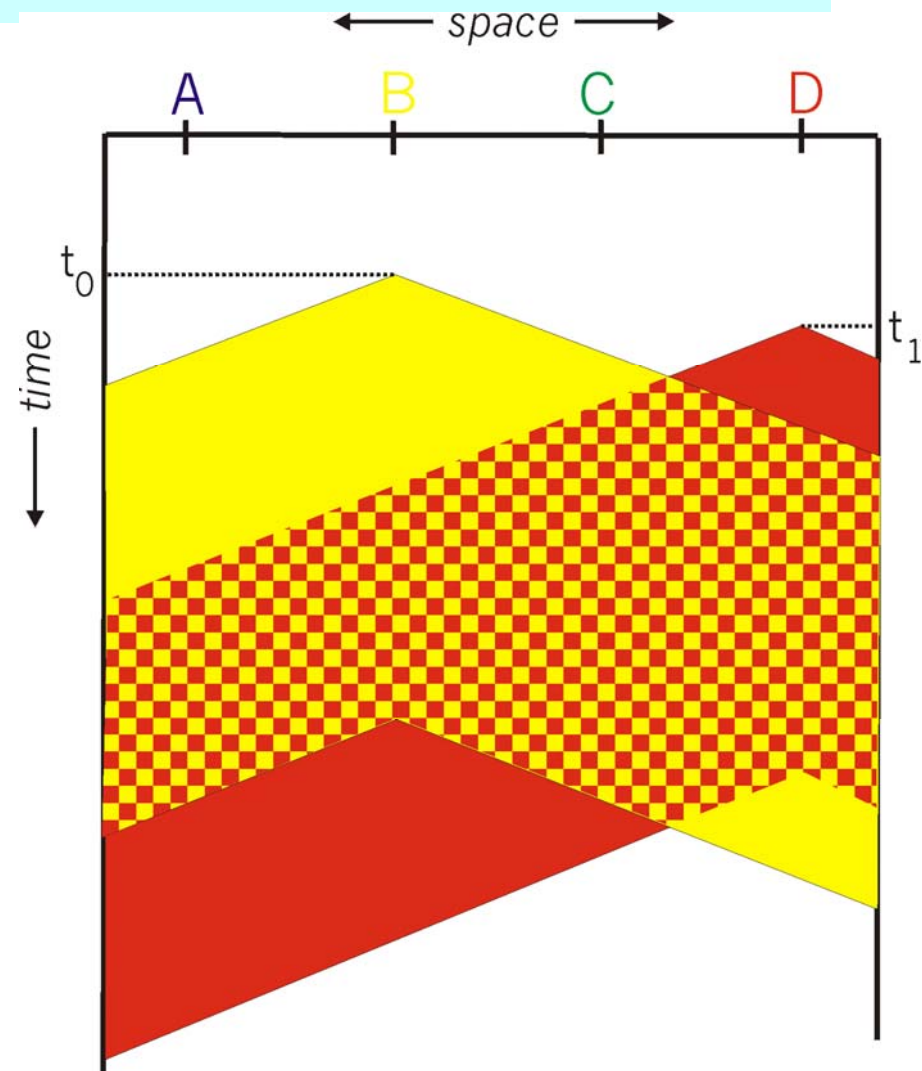
entire packet transmission time wasted

note:

role of distance and propagation delay (d) in determining collision

(collision-detection delay = $2d$)

spatial layout of nodes along ethernet



CSMA/CD (Collision Detection)

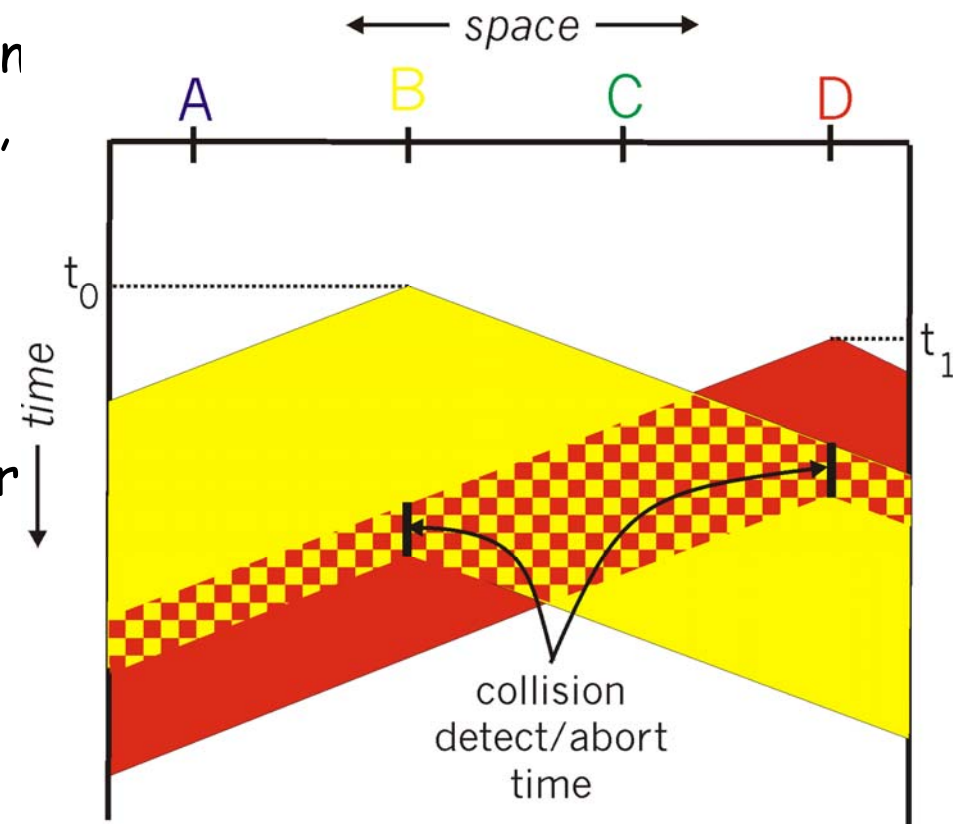
CSMA/CD: carrier sensing, deferral as in CSMA

- ❑ colliding transmissions **aborted**, reducing channel wastage
- ❑ persistent or non-persistent retransmission

collision detection:

- ❑ easy in wired LANs: measure signal strengths, compare transmitted, received signals
- ❑ different in wireless LANs: transmitter/receiver not "on" simultaneously; collision at the receiver matters, not the sender

human analogy: the polite conversationalist



Trade-off in MAC:

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

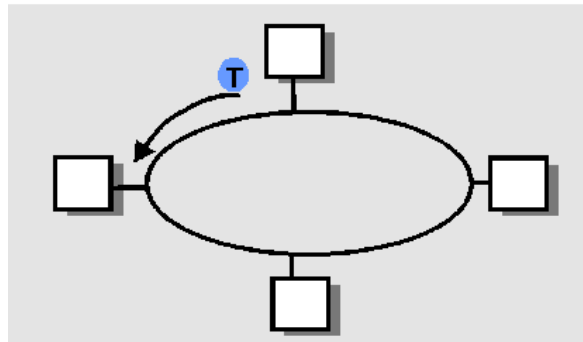
"taking turns" protocols

look for best of both worlds!

"Taking Turns" MAC protocols

Token passing:

- ❑ control **token-frame** passed from one node to next sequentially.
- ❑ not pure broadcast
- ❑ concerns:
 - token overhead
 - latency
 - single point of failure (token)



IEEE 802.4 Standard (General Motors Token Bus)

(not in must-study material)

Contention systems limitation: worst-case delay until successful transmission is unlimited => **not suitable for real-time traffic**

Solution: token-passing, round robin

- ❑ *token* = special control frame; only the holding station can transmit; then it passes it to another station, i.e. for token bus, the next in the **logical ring**
- ❑ 4 priority classes of traffic, using timers
- ❑ Logical ring-maintenance: **distributed strategy**
 - Robust, somehow complicated though

IEEE Standard 802.5 (Token Ring)

(not in must-study material)

Motivation: instead of complicated token-bus, have a physical ring

Principle: Each bit arriving at an interface is copied into a 1-bit buffer (inspected and/or modified); then copied out to the ring again.

- copying step introduces a 1-bit delay at each interface.

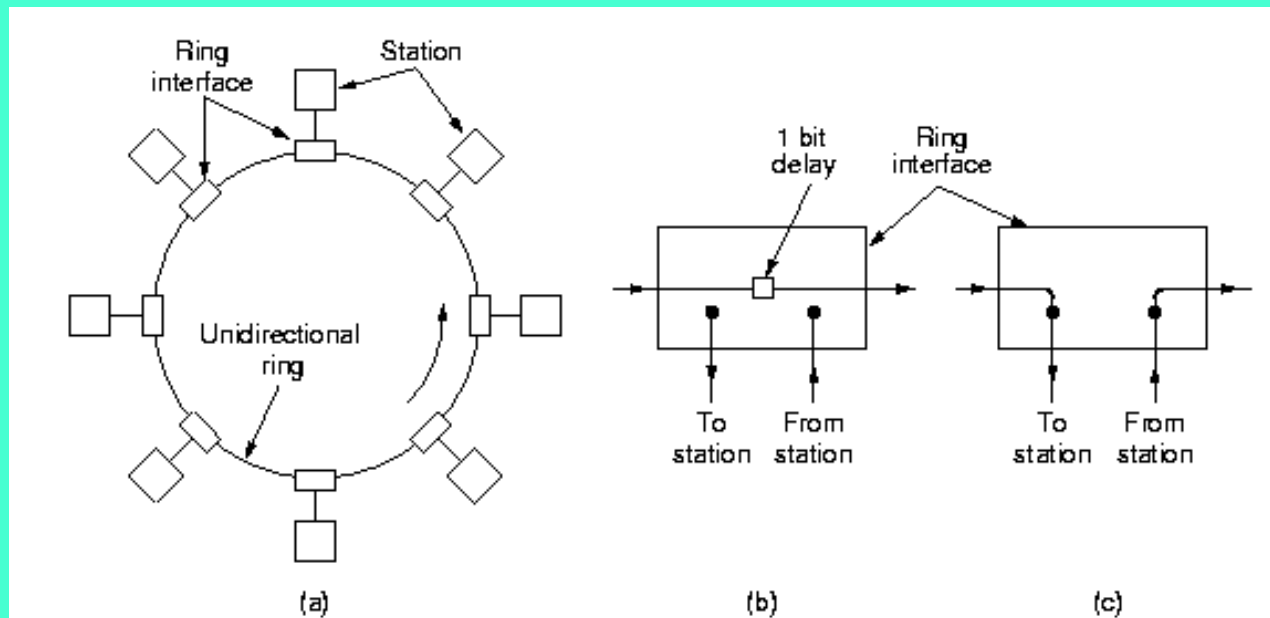


Fig. 4-28. (a) A ring network. (b) Listen mode. (c) Transmit mode.

Token Ring operation

- ❑ **to transmit** a frame, a station is required to seize the **token** and remove it from the ring before transmitting.
- ❑ bits that have propagated around the ring are removed from the ring by the sender (the receiver in FDDI).
- ❑ After a station has finished transmitting the last bit of its frame, it must **regenerate the token**.

IEEE 802.5 Ring: Maintenance

(not in must-study material)

Centralised: a "monitor" station oversees the ring:

- ❑ generates token when lost
- ❑ cleans the ring when garbled/orphan frames appear

If the monitor goes away, a convention protocol ensures that another station is *elected* as a monitor (e.g. the one with highest identity)

If the monitor gets "mad", though.....

IEEE 802.5 Ring: Priority Algorithm

(not in must-study material)

Station S

upon arrival of frame f:

set $\text{prior}(f) := \max\{\text{prior}(f), \text{prior}(S)\}$

forward(f)

upon arrival of T

if $\text{prior}(T) > \text{prior}(S)$ then forward(T)

else send own frame f with $\text{prior}(f) := 0$

wait until f comes back

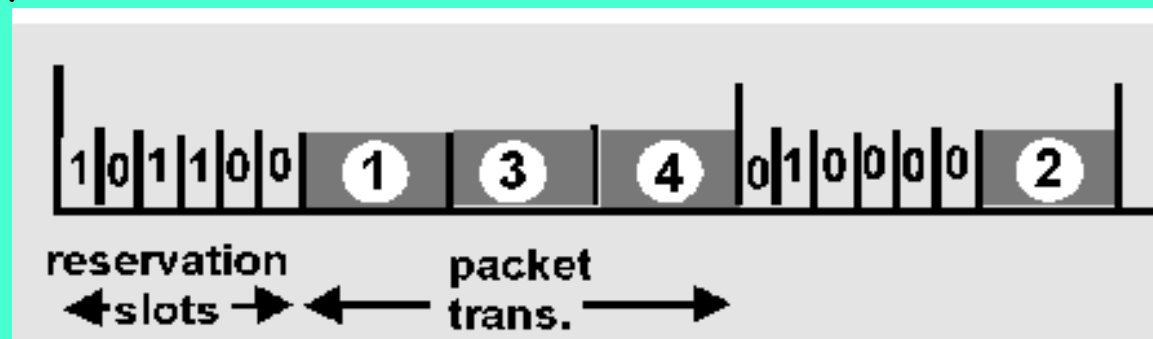
$\text{prior}(T) := \text{prior}(f)$

forward(T)

Reservation-based protocols

Distributed Polling - Bit-map protocol:

- ❑ time divided into slots
- ❑ begins with N short **reservation slots**
 - station with message to send posts reservation during **its** slot
 - reservation seen by all stations
 - reservation slot time equal to channel end-end propagation delay (why?)
- ❑ after reservation slots, message transmissions ordered by known priority



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, token passing
 - Bluetooth, FDDI, IBM Token Ring

Link Layer



- 5.1 Introduction and services
- □ 5.3 Multiple access protocols

- (5.2 Error detection and correction)

- *grey items will be treated as complement, in subsequent lecture

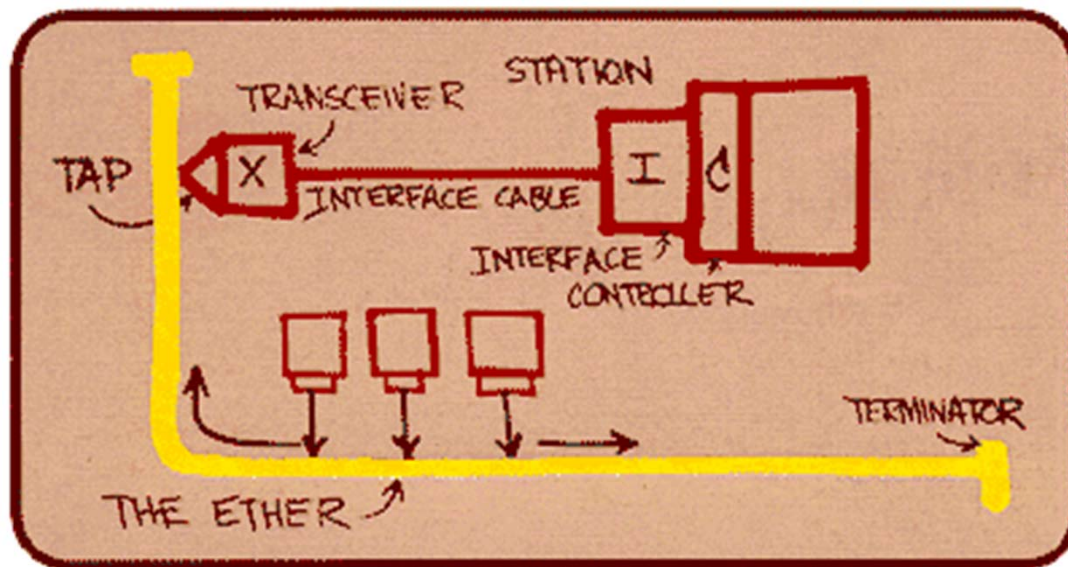
LAN technology

- 5.5 Ethernet
- 5.6 Interconnection
- 5.4 Link-Layer Addressing
- 5.9 A day in the life of a web request
- (5.7 PPP
- 5.8 Link Virtualization: ATM and MPLS)
- Framing

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

Ethernet: uses CSMA/CD

A: sense channel, if idle

then {

transmit and monitor the channel;

If detect another transmission

then {

abort and send jam signal;

update # collisions;

delay as required by exponential backoff algorithm;

goto A

}

else {done with the frame; set collisions to zero}

}

else {wait until ongoing transmission is over and goto A}

Ethernet's CSMA/CD (more)

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

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 $K \times$ frame-transmission time)

□ after m (<10) collisions: choose K from $\{0, \dots, 2^m\}$...

□ after ten or more collisions, choose K from $\{0,1,2,3,4, \dots, 1023\}$

Ethernet (CSMA/CD) Limitation

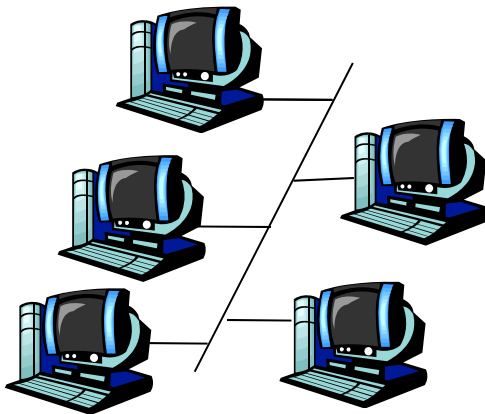
- Recall: collision detection interval = $2 * \text{Propagation delay along the LAN}$
- This implies a **minimum** frame size and/or a **maximum** wire length

Critical factor:

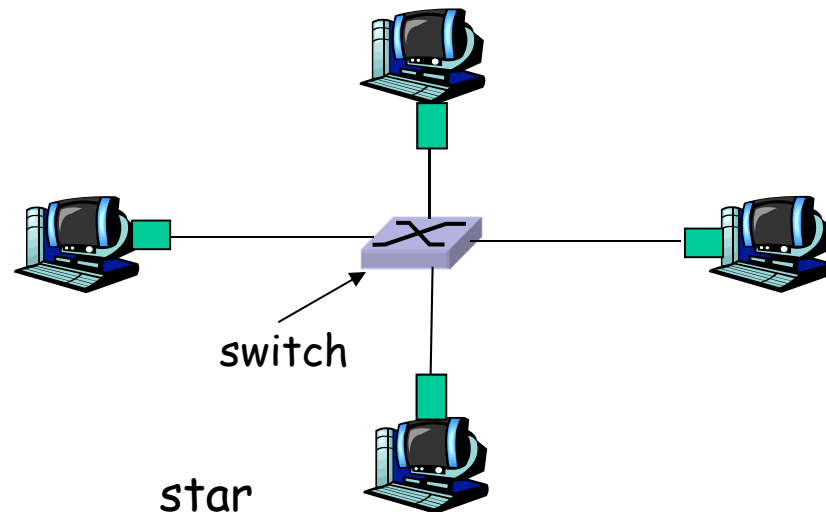
$$a = 2 * \text{propagation_delay} / \text{frame_transmission_delay}$$

Star topology

- ❑ bus topology popular through mid 90s
 - all nodes in same collision domain (can collide with each other)
- ❑ today: star topology prevails (**more bps, shorter distances**)
 - **Hub** or active **switch** in center
 - (more in a while)



bus: coaxial cable



CSMA/CD efficiency

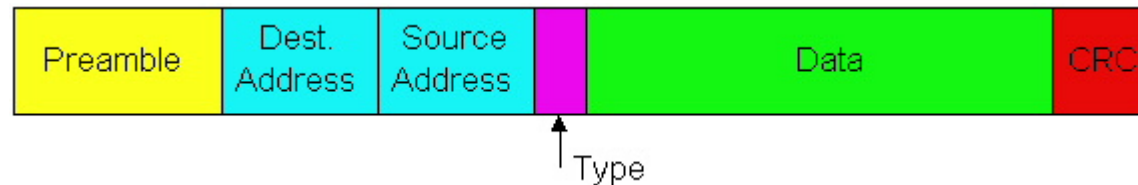
- T_{prop} = max prop between 2 nodes in LAN
- t_{trans} = time to transmit max-size frame

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

- Much better than ALOHA, but still decentralized, simple, and cheap

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

- to synchronize receiver, sender clock rates

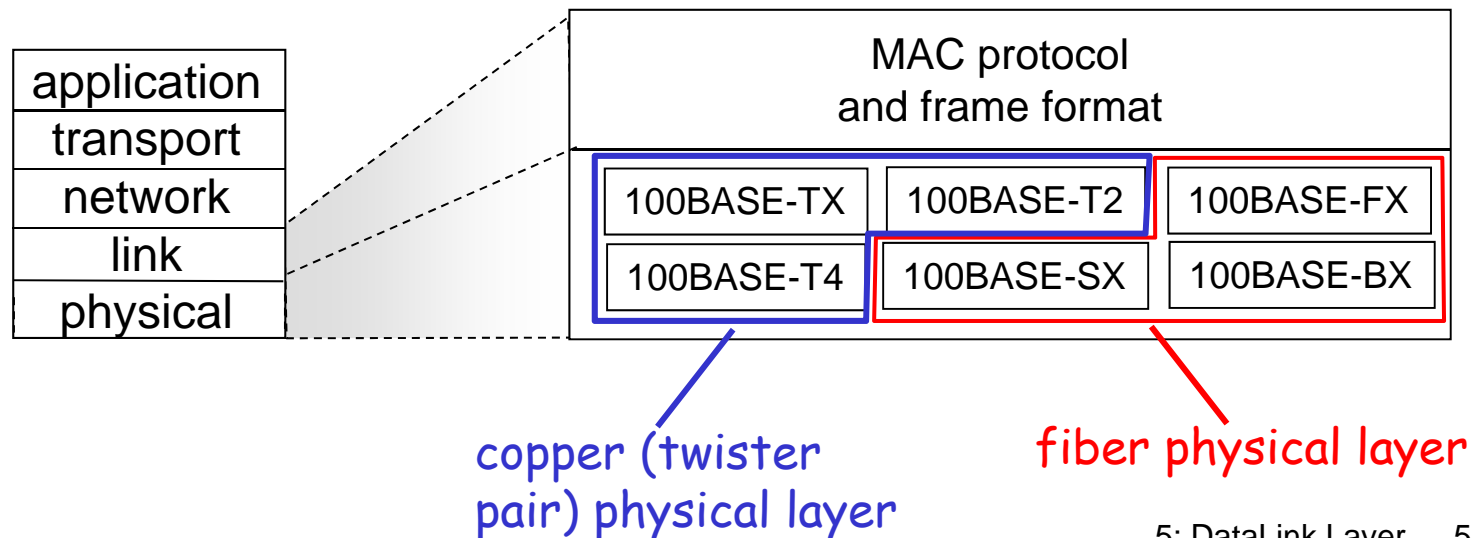
Addresses: 6 bytes, frame is received by all adapters on a LAN and dropped if address does not match

Type: indicates the higher layer protocol, mostly IP but others may be supported (such as Novell IPX and AppleTalk)

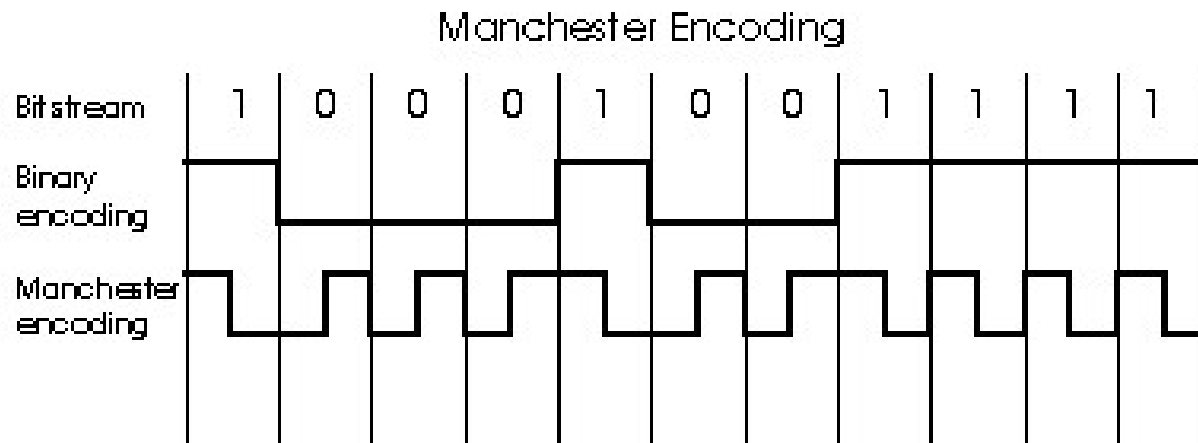
CRC: checked at receiver, if error is detected, the frame is simply dropped

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



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!
 - this is physical-layer stuff!

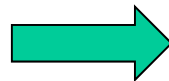
Ethernet: Unreliable, connectionless

- ❑ **connectionless:** No handshaking between sending and receiving NICs
- ❑ **unreliable:** receiving NIC doesn't send acks or nacks to sending NIC
 - stream of datagrams passed to network layer can have gaps (missing datagrams)
 - gaps will be filled if app is using TCP
 - otherwise, app will see gaps

Link Layer



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- 5.3 Multiple access protocols



LAN technology

- (5.2 Error detection and correction)

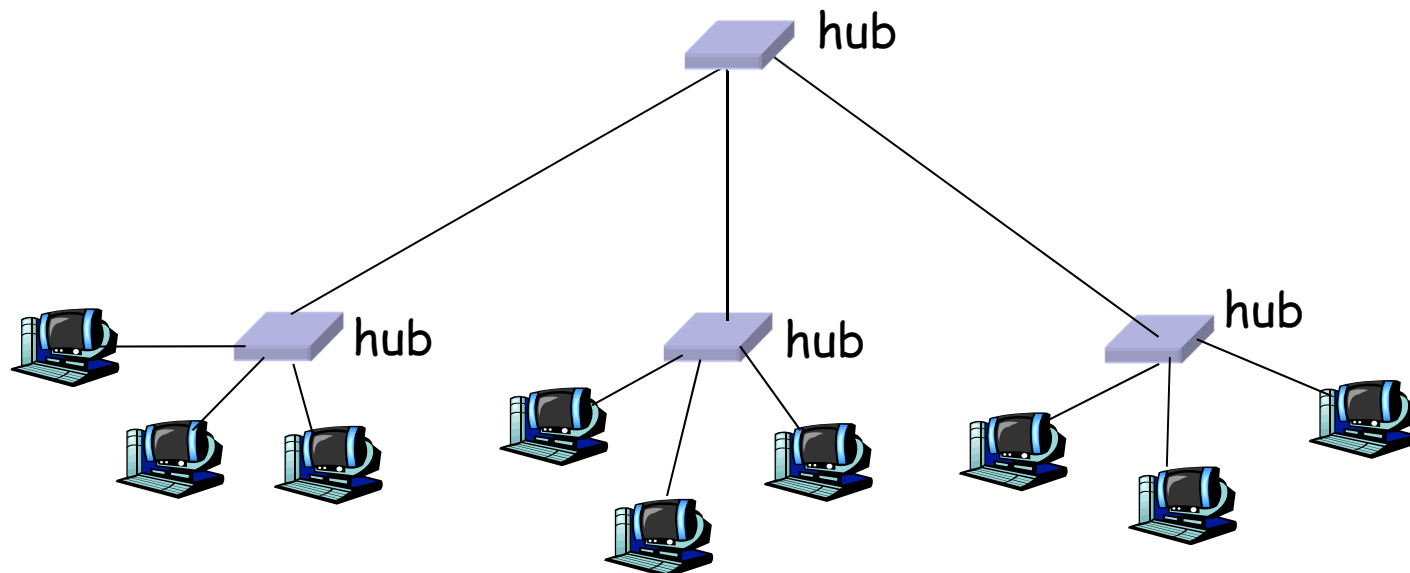
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Interconnecting with hubs

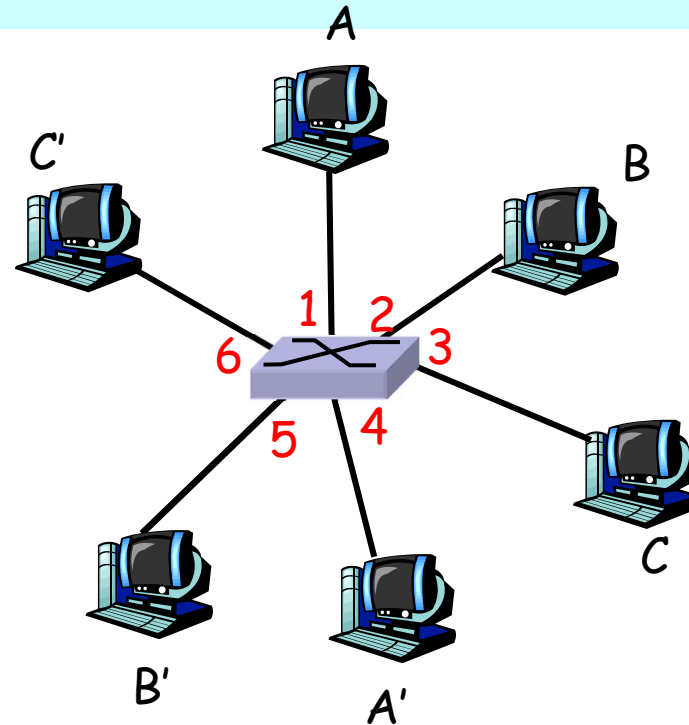
Hubs are essentially physical-layer repeaters:

- bits coming from one link go out all other links
- at the same rate (no frame buffering)
- **no CSMA/CD at hub: adapters detect collisions (one large collision domain)**
- provides net management functionality (monitoring, statistics)
- Extends distance between nodes
- Can't interconnect e.g. 10BaseT & 100BaseT



Switch: allows multiple simultaneous transmissions

- ❑ hosts may 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



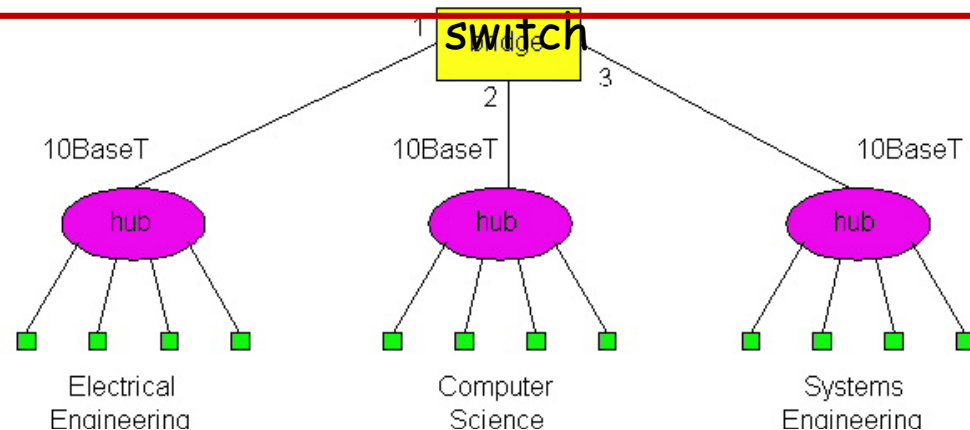
switch with six interfaces
(1,2,3,4,5,6)

Switches (bridges): cont.

- ❑ **Link Layer devices:** operate on frames, examining header and **selectively forwarding** frame based on its destination
 - **filtering:** same-LAN-segment frames not forwarded to other seg's
- ❑ **Advantages:**
 - Isolates collision domains:
 - higher total max throughput
 - no limit on number of nodes nor distances
 - Can connect different net-types (translational, ...)
 - Transparent: no need for any change to hosts LAN adapters

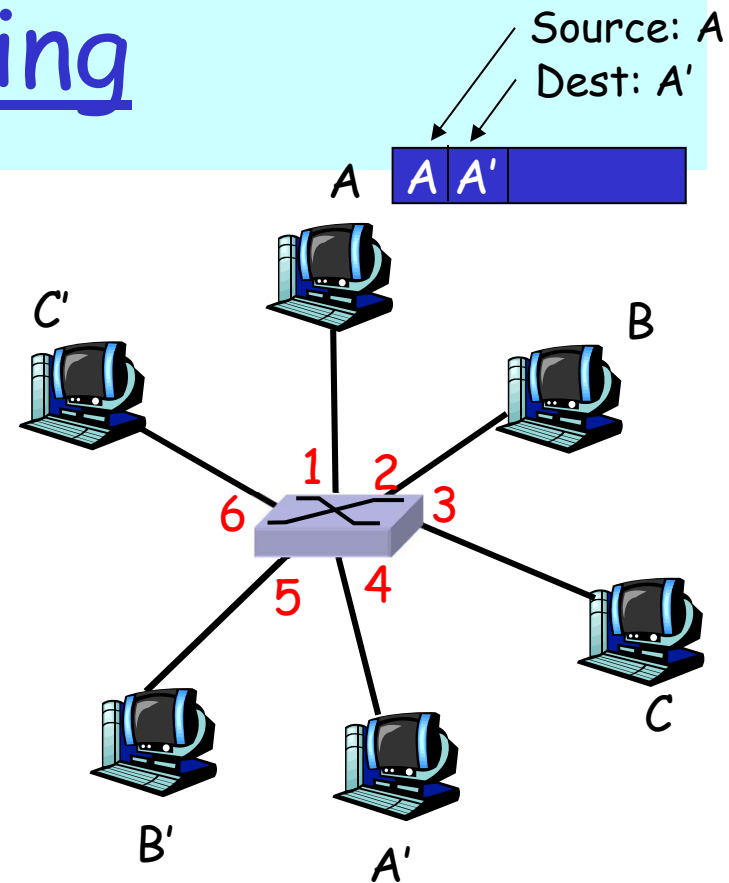
forwarding: how to know LAN segment on which to forward frame?

- looks like a routing problem...



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)

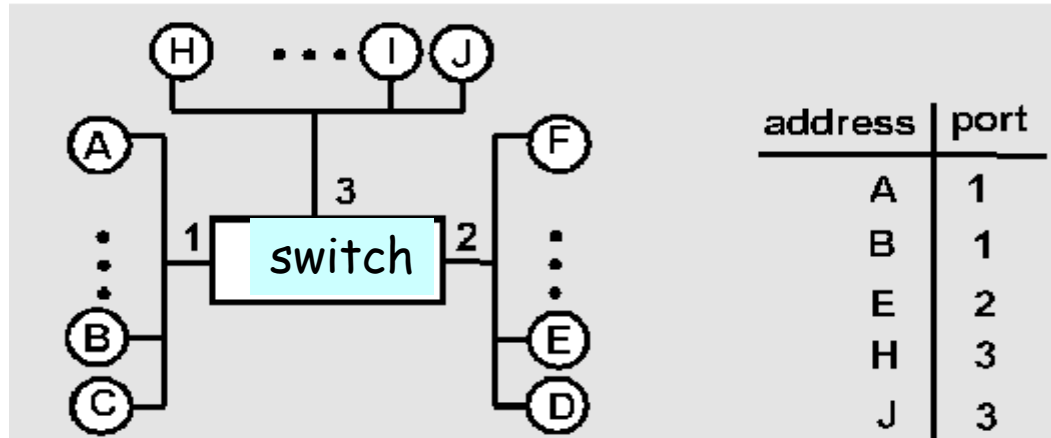
Switch: frame filtering/forwarding

When frame received:

1. record link associated with sending host
 2. index switch table using MAC dest address
 3. **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
- 

Switch Learning: example

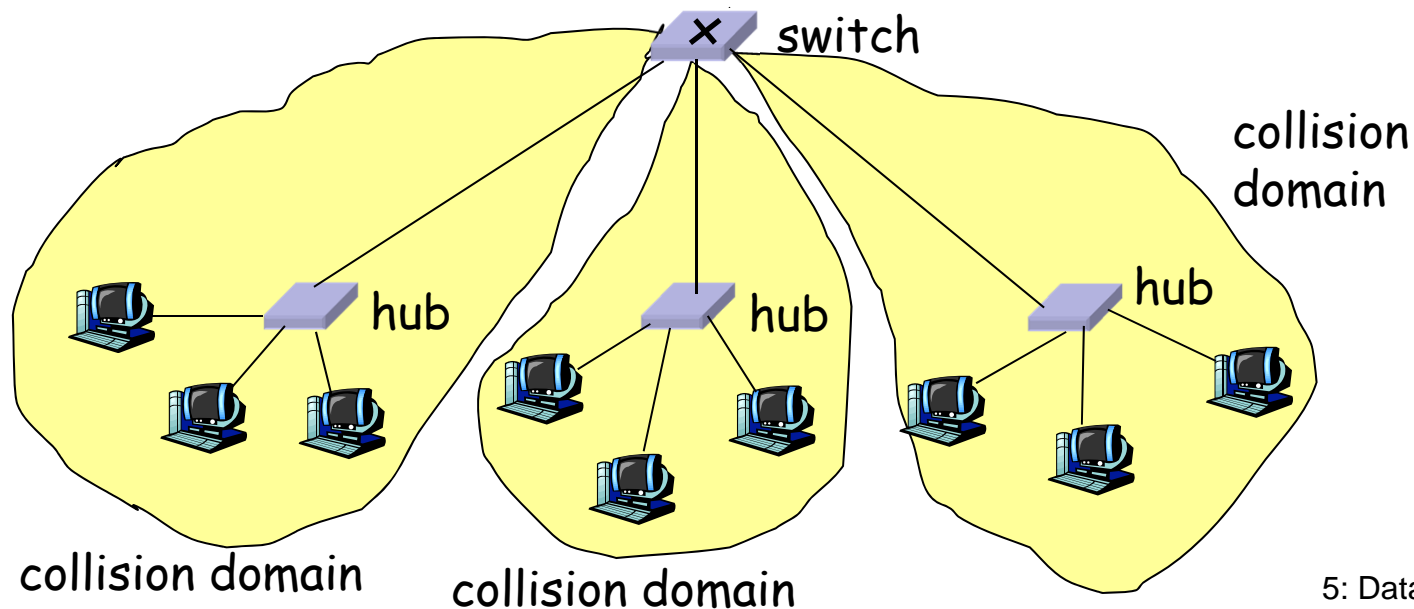
Suppose C sends a frame to D and D replies with a frame to C



- ❑ C sends frame, switch has no info about D, so **floods**
 - switch **notes that C is on port 1**
 - frame ignored on upper LAN
 - frame received by D
- ❑ D generates reply to C, sends
 - switch sees frame from D
 - switch **notes that D is on interface 2**
 - switch knows C on interface 1, so **selectively** forwards frame out via interface 1

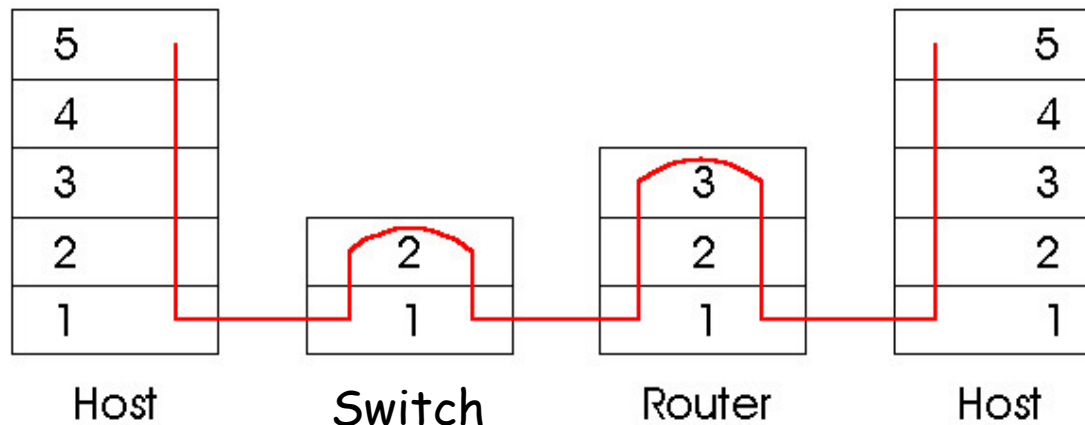
Switch: traffic isolation

- switch installation breaks subnet into LAN segments
- switch **filters** packets:
 - same-LAN-segment frames not usually forwarded onto other LAN segments
 - segments become separate **collision domains**



Switches vs. Routers

- ❑ both store-and-forward devices
 - routers: network layer devices (examine network layer headers)
 - Switches (bridges) are Link Layer devices
- ❑ routers maintain routing tables, implement routing algorithms
- ❑ switches maintain filtering tables, implement filtering, learning (and spanning tree) algorithms



Routers vs. Bridges/Switches

Bridges/Switches

- + Bridge operation is simpler requiring less processing bandwidth
- Topologies are restricted with bridges (a spanning tree must be built to avoid cycle)
- Bridges do not offer protection from broadcast storms (endless broadcasting by a host will be forwarded by a bridge)

Routers

- + arbitrary topologies can be supported, cycling is limited by good routing protocols
- + provide firewall protection against broadcast storms
- require detailed configuration (not plug and play) and higher processing capacity

Bridges/switches do well in small (few hundred hosts) while routers used in large networks (thousands of hosts)

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

Link Layer



- 5.1 Introduction and services
- 5.3 Multiple access protocols



LAN technology

- (5.2 Error detection and correction)
- *grey items will be treated as complement, in subsequent lecture

- 5.5 Ethernet
- 5.6 Interconnection
- 5.4 Link-Layer Addressing
- 5.9 A day in the life of a web request
- (5.7 PPP
- 5.8 Link Virtualization: ATM and MPLS)
- Framing

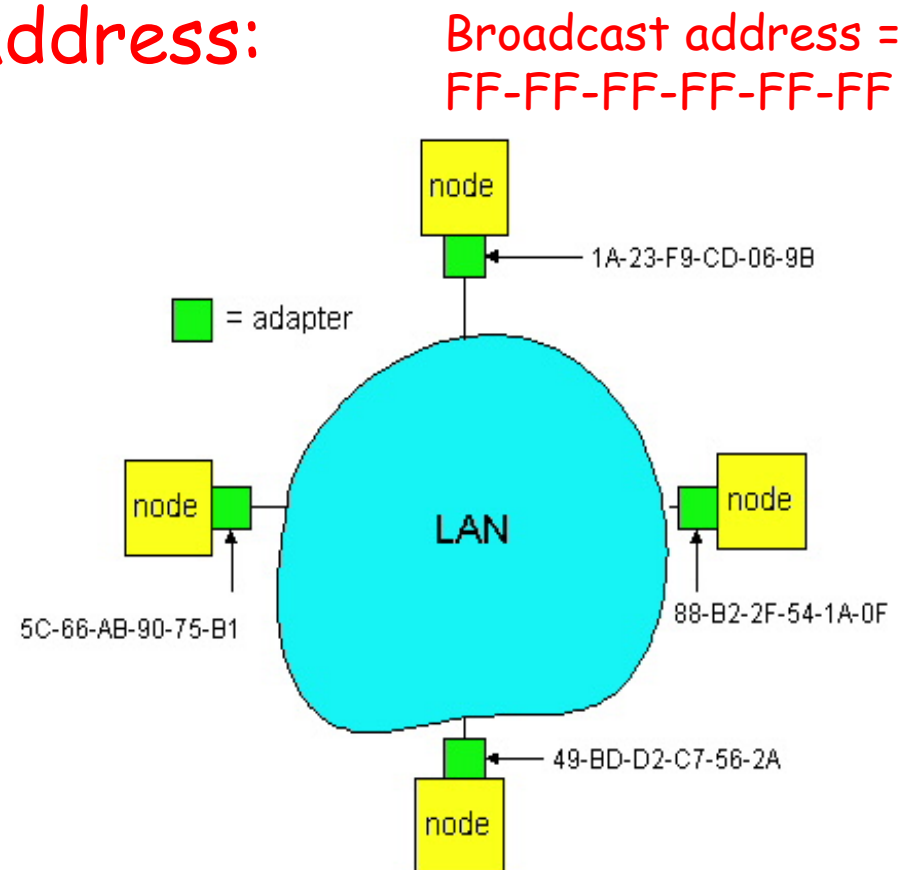
LAN Addresses

32-bit IP address:

- ❑ *network-layer* address
- ❑ used to get datagram to destination network (recall IP network definition)

LAN (or MAC or physical) address:

- ❑ to get datagram from one interface to another physically-connected interface (same network)
- ❑ 48 bit MAC address (for most LANs) burned in NIC's ROM (sometimes resettable)



LAN Address (more)

- ❑ MAC address allocation administered by IEEE
- ❑ manufacturer buys portion of MAC address space (to assure uniqueness)

Analogy:

(a) MAC address: like People's Names or PersonalNum's

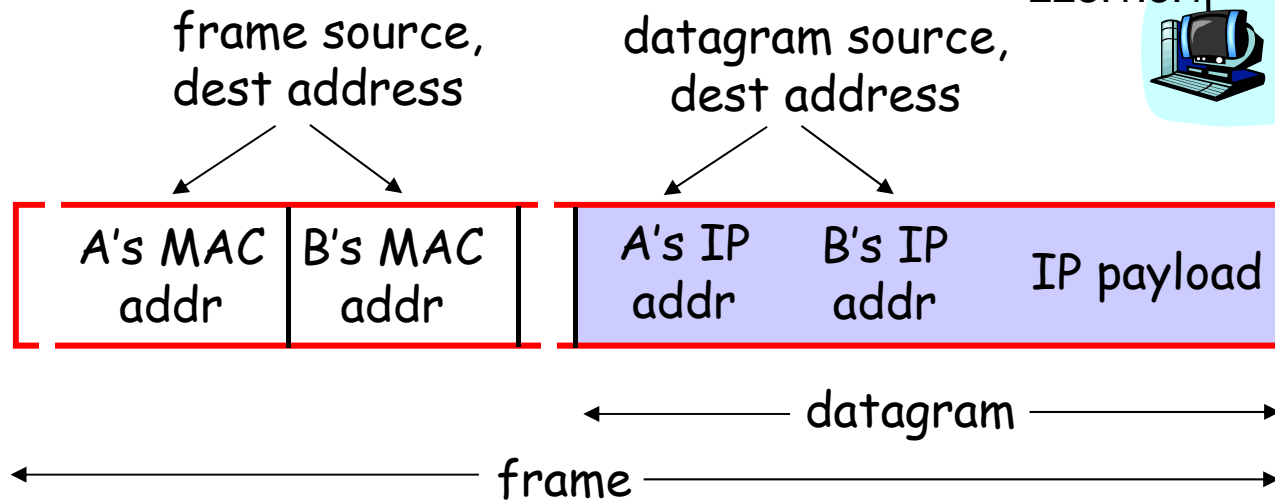
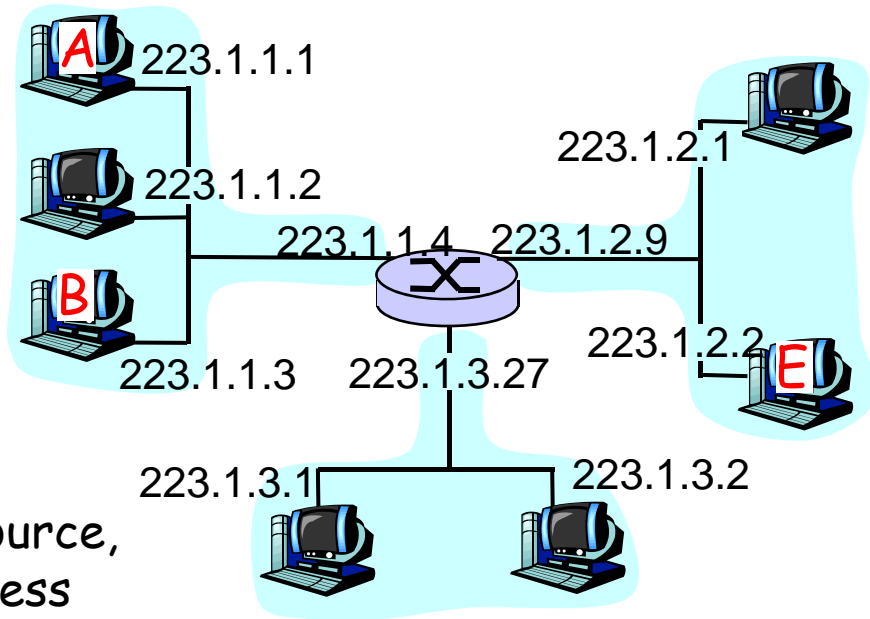
(b) IP address: like postal address

- ❑ MAC flat address => portability
 - can move LAN card from one LAN to another
- ❑ IP hierarchical address NOT portable
 - depends on network to which one attaches

Recall earlier routing discussion

Starting at A, given IP datagram addressed to B:

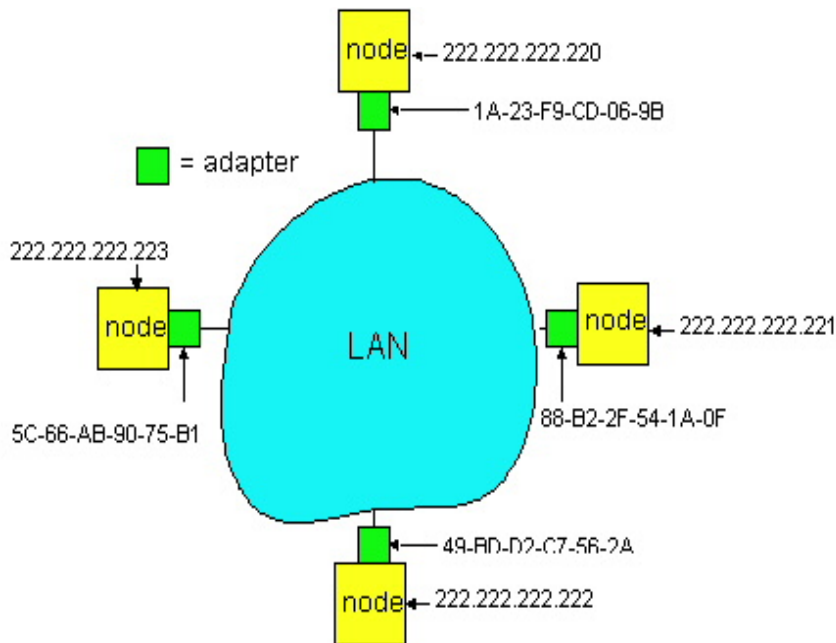
- look up net. address of B, find B on same net. as A
- link layer send datagram to B inside link-layer frame



ARP: Address Resolution Protocol

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

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

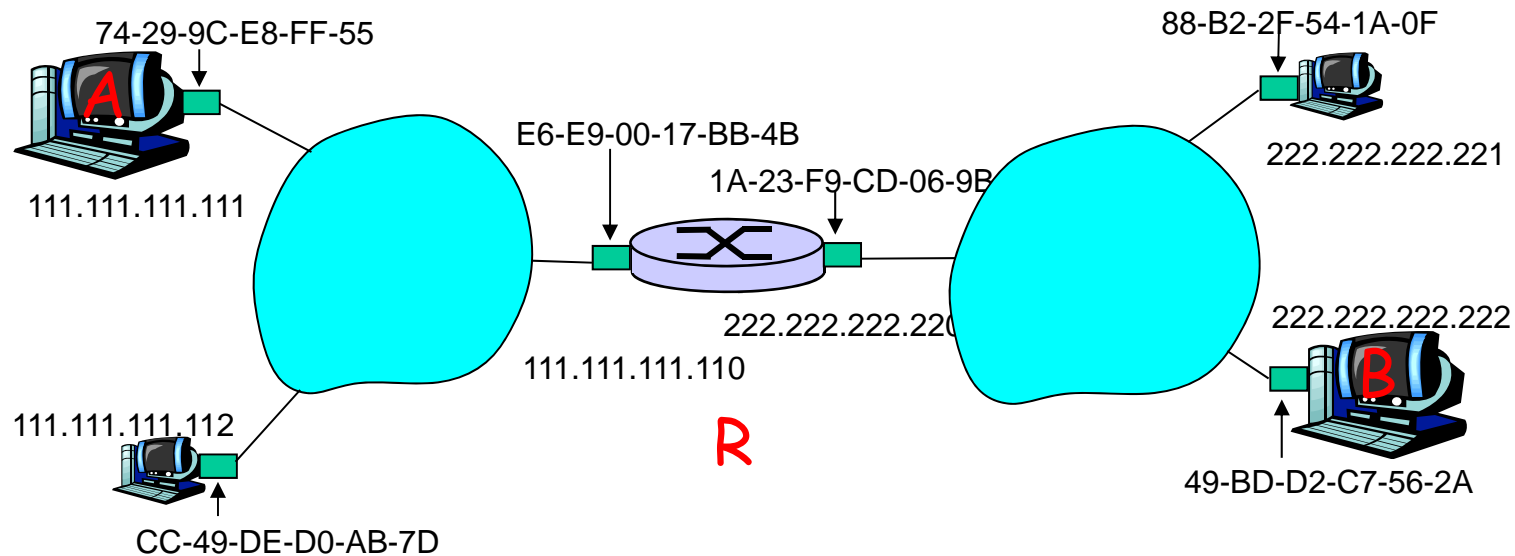


- Each IP node (Host, Router) on LAN has **ARP** module, table
 - ARP Table: IP/MAC address mappings
< IP address; MAC address; TTL >
< >
 - TTL (Time To Live): time to cache (typically 20 min); **afterwards**:
 - A **broadcasts** ARP query pkt, containing B's IP address
 - B receives ARP packet, replies to A with its (B's) physical layer address
 - A caches (saves) IP-to-physical address pairs until they time out
 - soft state: information that times out (goes away) unless refreshed

Addressing: routing to another LAN

walkthrough: **send datagram from A to B via R**

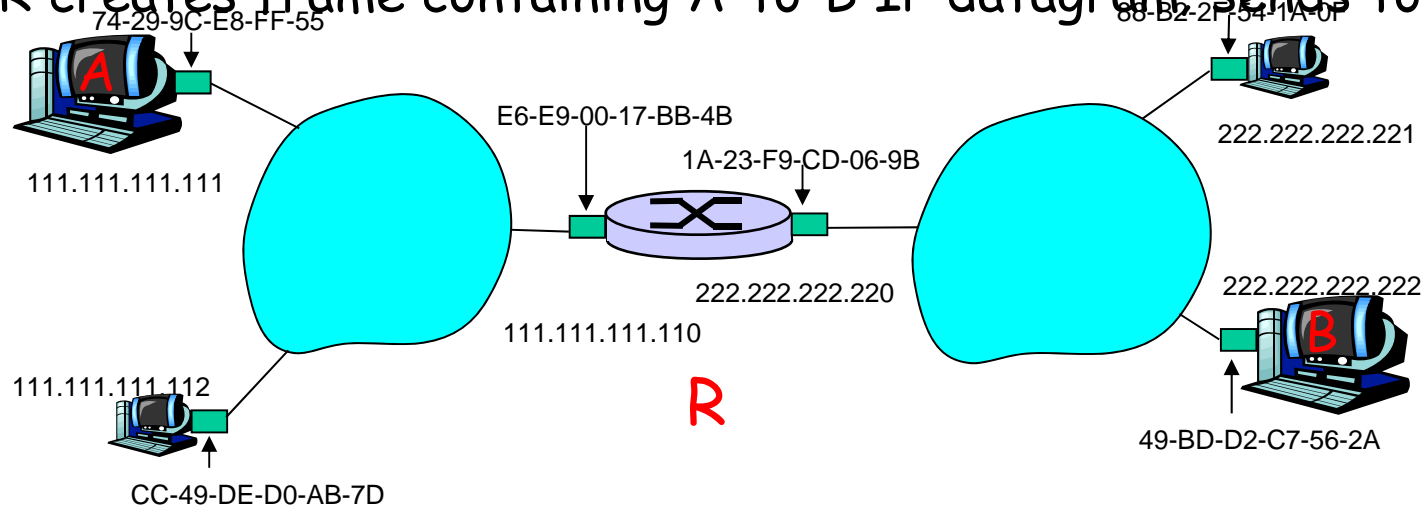
assume A knows B's IP address



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

- ❑ A creates IP datagram with source A, destination B
 - Network layer finds out I should be forwarded to R
- ❑ A uses ARP to get R's MAC address for 111.111.111.110
- ❑ A creates link-layer frame with R's MAC address as dest, frame contains A-to-B IP datagram
- ❑ A's NIC sends frame
- ❑ R's NIC receives frame
- ❑ R removes IP datagram from Ethernet frame, sees its destined to B
- ❑ R uses ARP to get B's MAC address
- ❑ R creates frame containing A-to-B IP datagram: sends to B

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



Link Layer



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- ❑ 5.3 Multiple access protocols

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- ❑ 5.5 Ethernet
- ❑ 5.6 Interconnection
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Review questions for this part

- Why both link-level and end-end reliability?
- Medium access methods: how they work, pros and cons
 - Partitioning
 - Random access
 - Reservation
- Aloha vs CSMA/CD
- Ethernet: protocol, management of collisions, connections
- Switches vs routers
- Addressing in link layer