Chair for Network Architectures and Services – Prof. Carle
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Master Course Computer Networks IN2097

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Chapter 5: The Data Link Layer

Our goals:

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

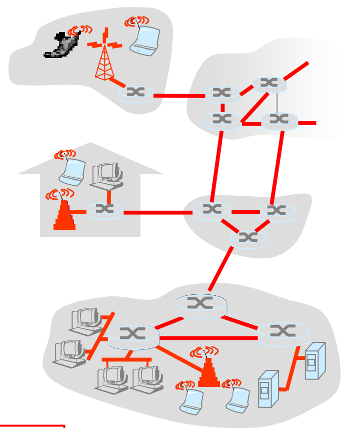
Link Layer

- 5.1 Introduction and services
- 5.2 Multiple access protocols
- 5.3 Link-layer Addressing
- 5.4 Ethernet
- 5.5 Link-layer switches

Link Layer: Introduction

Some terminology:

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



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

Link layer: context

- datagram transferred by different link protocols over different links:
  - e.g., Ethernet on first link, frame relay on intermediate links, 802.11 on last link
- each link protocol provides different services
  - e.g., may or may not provide reliable data transmission over link

transportation analogy

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

Link Layer Services

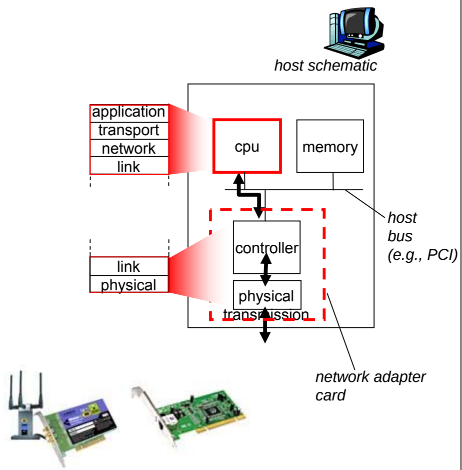
- framing, link access:
  - encapsulate datagram into frame, adding header, trailer
  - channel access if shared medium
  - “MAC” addresses used in frame headers to identify source, dest
    - different from IP address!
- reliable delivery between adjacent nodes
  - we learned how to do this already (transport layer, chapter 3)
  - seldom used on low bit-error link (fiber, some twisted pair)
  - wireless links: high error rates
    - Q: why both link-level and end-end reliability?

Link Layer Services (more)

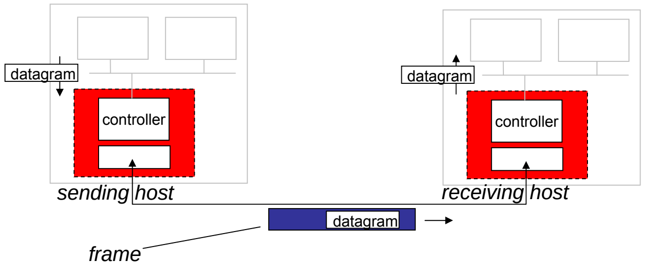
- *flow control:*
  - pacing between adjacent sending and receiving nodes
- *error detection*:
  - errors caused by signal attenuation, noise.
  - receiver detects presence of errors:
    - signals sender for retransmission or drops frame
- error correction:
  - receiver identifies *and corrects* bit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

Where is the link layer implemented?

- in each and every host
- link layer implemented in “adaptor” (aka *network interface card* NIC)
  - Ethernet card, PCMCI 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, reliable data transmission, flow control, etc.
- receiving side
  - looks for errors, rdt, flow control, etc
  - extracts datagram, passes to upper layer at receiving side

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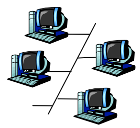
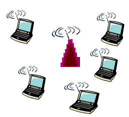
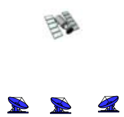
Multiple Access Links and Protocols

Two types of “links”:

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

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
   - no synchronization of clocks, slots
4. simple

MAC Protocols: a taxonomy

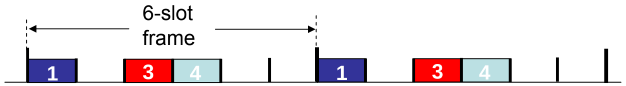
Three broad classes:

- Channel Partitioning
  - divide channel into smaller “pieces” (time slots, frequency, code)
  - allocate piece to node for exclusive use
- Random Access
  - channel not divided, allow collisions
  - “recover” from collisions
- “Taking turns”
  - nodes take turns, but nodes with more to send can take longer turns

Channel Partitioning MAC protocols: TDMA

TDMA: time division multiple access

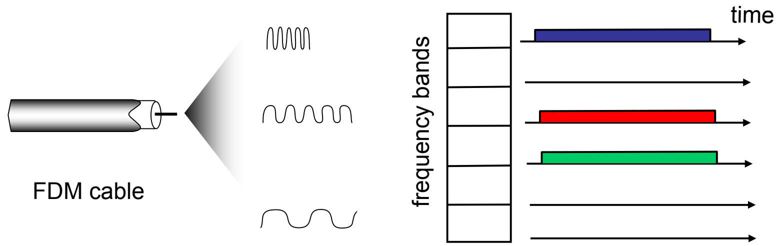
- access to channel in "rounds"
- each station gets fixed length slot (length = pkt trans time) in each round
- unused slots go idle
- example: 6-station LAN, 1,3,4 have packet; slots 2,5,6 are idle



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, frequency bands 2,5,6 are 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

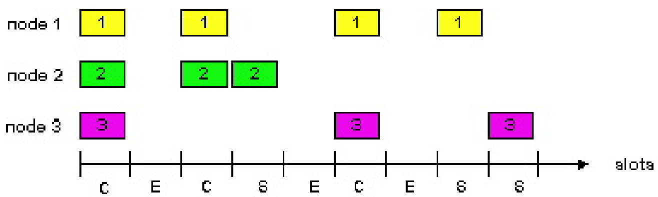
Assumptions:

- all frames same size
- time divided into equal size slots (time to transmit 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
- nodes may be able to detect collision in less time than time to transmit packet
- clock synchronization

Slotted Aloha efficiency

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

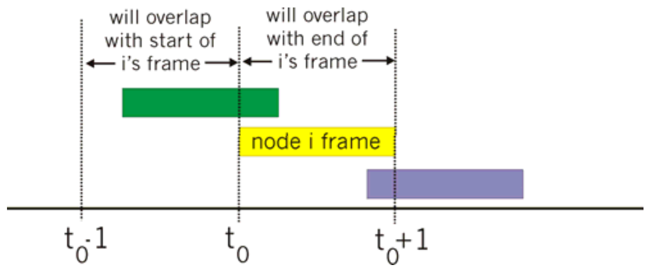
- *suppose:* N nodes with many frames to send, each transmits in slot with probability *p*
- probability that given node has success in a slot = one node transmits ^ N nodes do not transmit = $p(1-p)^{N-1}$
- probability that *any* node has a success = $Np(1-p)^{N-1}$
- max efficiency: find p* that maximizes $Np(1-p)^{N-1}$
- for many nodes, take limit of $Np^*(1-p^*)^{N-1}$ as N goes to infinity, gives: 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 t0 collides with other frames sent in [t0-1,t0+1]



Pure Aloha efficiency

P(success by given node) = P(node transmits) ·
P(no other node transmits in $[t_0-1,t_0]$ ·
P(no other node transmits in $[t_0, t_0+1]$
$= p \cdot (1-p)^{N-1} \cdot (1-p)^{N-1}$
$= p \cdot (1-p)^{2(N-1)}$

P(success by *any* node) = $Np(1-p)^{2(N-1)}$

… choosing optimum p and letting n → infinity ...

⇨ Max efficiency = 1/(2e) = .18

⇨ only 50% of slotted Aloha!

CSMA (Carrier Sense Multiple Access)

CSMA: listen before transmit:

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

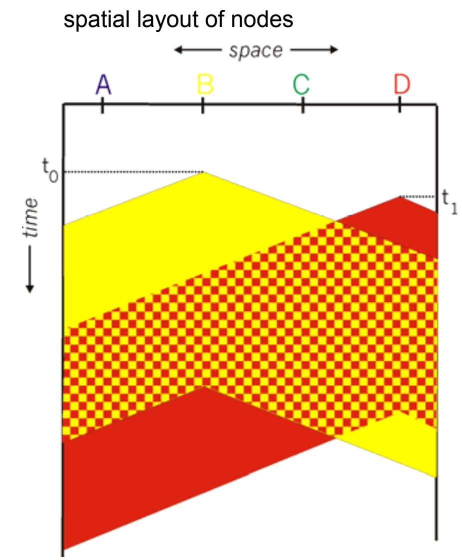
- human analogy: don't interrupt others!

CSMA collisions

collisions *can* still occur:
propagation delay means two nodes may not hear each other's transmission

collision:
entire packet transmission time wasted

note:
role of distance & propagation delay in determining collision probability



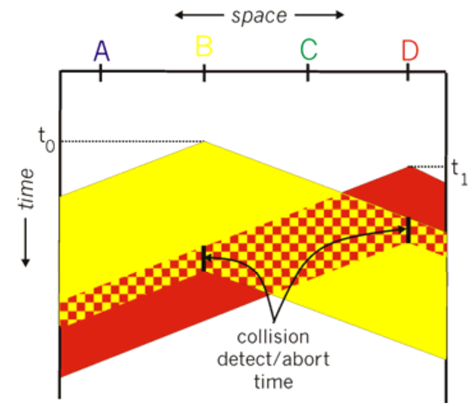
CSMA/CD (Collision Detection)

CSMA/CD: carrier sensing, deferral as in CSMA

- collisions *detected* within short time
- colliding transmissions aborted, reducing channel wastage

- collision detection:
  - easy in wired LANs: measure signal strengths, compare transmitted, received signals
  - difficult in wireless LANs: received signal strength overwhelmed by local transmission strength
- human analogy: the polite conversationalist

CSMA/CD collision detection



"Taking Turns" MAC protocols

channel partitioning MAC protocols:

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

Random access MAC protocols

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

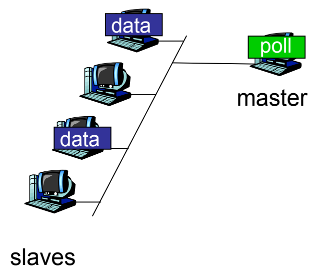
"taking turns" protocols

look for best of both worlds!

"Taking Turns" MAC protocols

Polling:

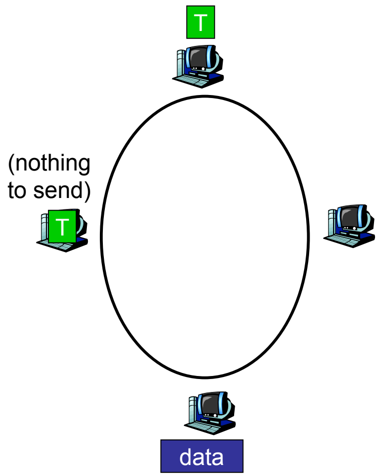
- master node "invites" slave nodes to transmit in turn
- typically used with "dumb" slave devices
- concerns:
  - polling overhead
  - latency
  - single point of failure (master)



"Taking Turns" MAC protocols

Token passing:

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



Summary of MAC protocols

- *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, IBM Token Ring

Link Layer

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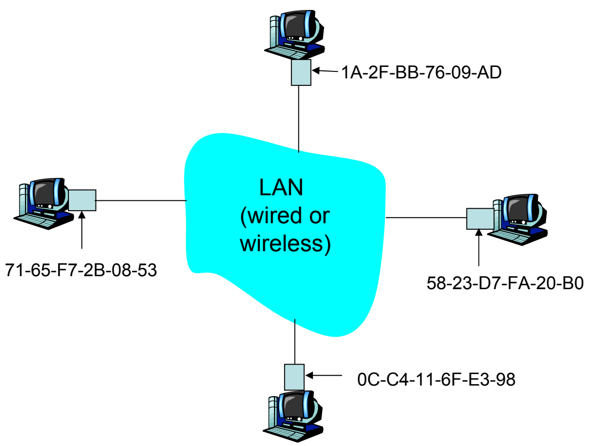
MAC Addresses and ARP

- 32-bit IP address:
  - *network-layer* address
  - used to get datagram to destination IP subnet
- MAC (or LAN or physical or Ethernet) address:
  - function: *get frame from one interface to another physically-connected interface (same network)*
  - 48 bit MAC address (for most LANs)
    - burned in NIC ROM, also sometimes software settable

LAN Addresses and ARP

Each adapter on LAN has unique LAN address



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

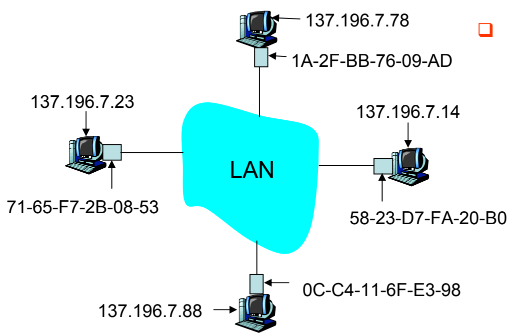
= adapter

LAN Address (more)

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

ARP: Address Resolution Protocol

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



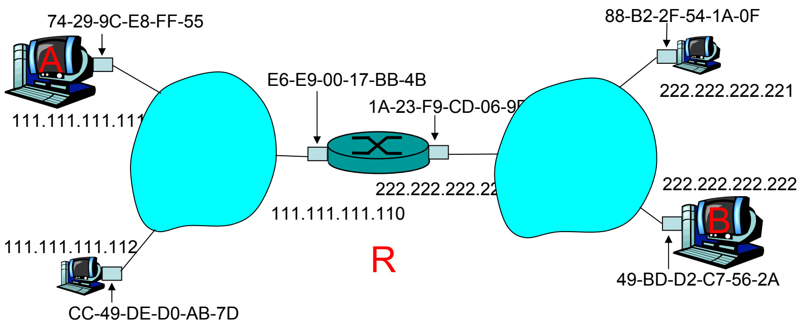
- Each IP node (host, router) on LAN has ARP (Address Resolution Protocol) table
- ARP table: IP/MAC address mappings for some LAN nodes
- <IP address; MAC address; TTL>
  - TTL (Time To Live): time after which address mapping will be forgotten (typically 20 min)

ARP protocol: Same LAN (network)

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

Addressing: routing to another LAN

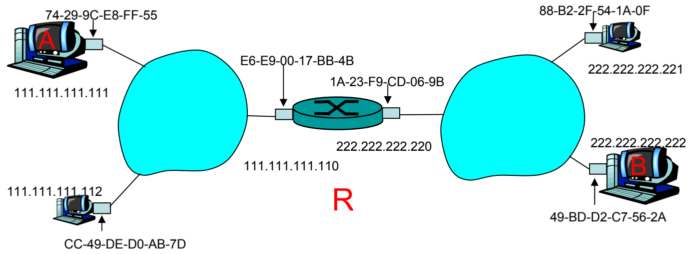
- walkthrough: send datagram from A to B via R
  assume A knows B's IP address



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

Addressing: routing to another LAN (2)

- A creates IP datagram with source A, destination B
- 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 destination, frame contains A-to-B IP datagram
- A's NIC sends frame
- R's NIC receives frame
- R extracts 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 and sends it to B



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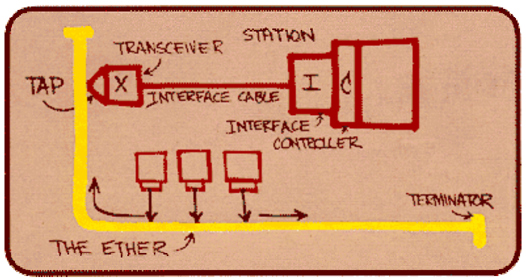
Ethernet

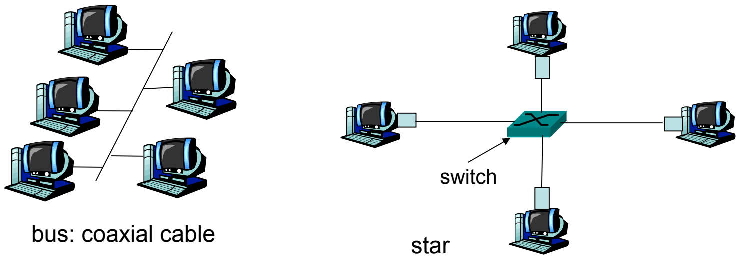
- "dominant" wired LAN technology:
- cheap $20 for NIC
- first widely used LAN technology
- simpler, cheaper than token LANs and ATM
- kept up with speed race: 10 Mbps – 10 Gbps



Metcalfe's Ethernet sketch

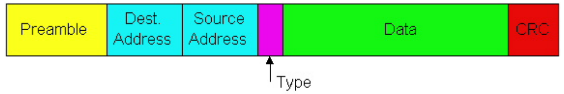
Star topology

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



Ethernet Frame Structure

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

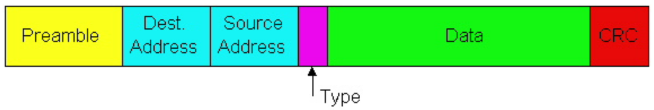


Preamble:

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

Ethernet Frame Structure (more)

- **Addresses**: 6 bytes
  - if adapter receives frame with matching destination address, or with broadcast address (eg ARP packet), it passes data in frame to network layer protocol
  - otherwise, adapter discards frame
- **Type**: indicates higher layer protocol (mostly IP but others possible, e.g., Novell IPX, AppleTalk)
- **CRC**: checked at receiver, if error is detected, frame is dropped



Ethernet: Unreliable, connectionless

- connectionless: No handshaking between sending and receiving NICs
- unreliable: receiving NIC doesn’t send ACKs or NAKs 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, application will see gaps
- Ethernet’s MAC protocol: unslotted CSMA/CD

Ethernet CSMA/CD algorithm

1. 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 **exponential backoff**: after *m*th collision, NIC chooses *K* at random from $\{0,1,2,\ldots,2^m-1\}$. NIC waits K·512 bit times, returns to Step 2

Ethernet's CSMA/CD (more)

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

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

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· 512 bit transmission times
- after second collision: choose K from {0,1,2,3}…
- after ten collisions, choose K from {0,1,2,3,4,…,1023}

See/interact with Java applet on AW Web site:
http://wps.aw.com/aw_kurose_network_5/
⇨ student resources - recommended!

CSMA/CD Efficiency

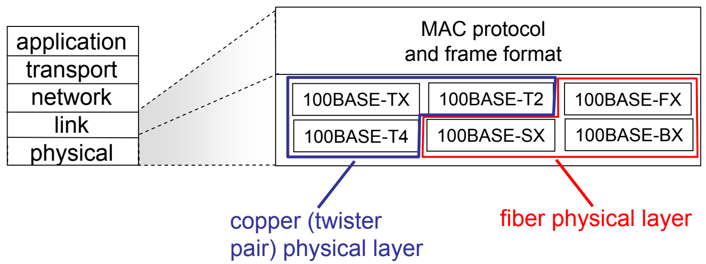
- T_{prop} = max propagation delay between 2 nodes in LAN
- t_{trans} = time to transmit max-size frame
- Approximation:

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

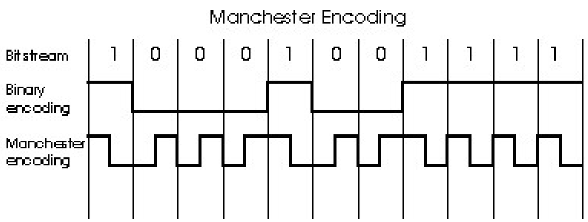
- Efficiency goes to 1
  - as t_{prop} goes to 0
  - as t_{trans} goes to infinity
- Better performance than ALOHA: and simple, cheap, decentralized!

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

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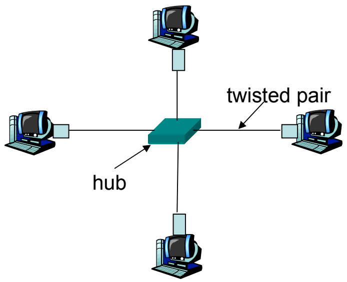
Hubs

- … physical-layer ("dumb") repeaters:
  - bits coming in one link go out all other links at same rate
  - all nodes connected to hub can collide with one another
  - no frame buffering
  - no CSMA/CD at hub: host NICs detect collisions

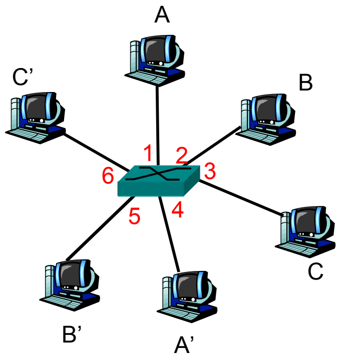


Switch

- link-layer device: smarter than hubs, take *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: allows multiple simultaneous transmissions

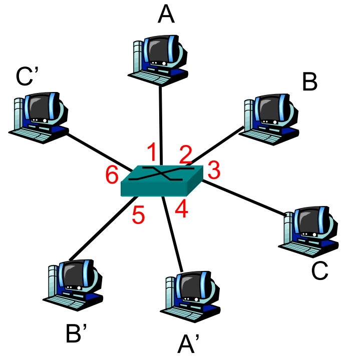
- hosts have dedicated, direct connection to switch
- switches buffer packets
- Ethernet protocol used on *each* incoming link, but no collisions; full duplex
  - each link is its own collision domain
- *switching:* A-to-A' and B-to-B' simultaneously, without collisions
  - not possible with dumb hub



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

Switch Table

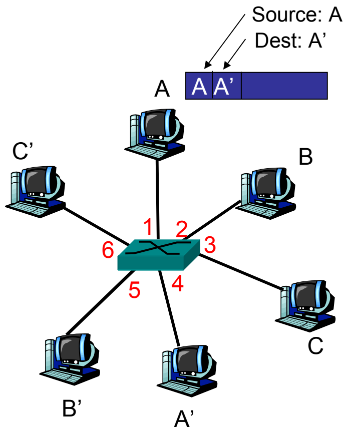
- *Q:* how does switch know that A' reachable via interface 4, B' reachable via interface 5?
- *A:* each switch has a switch table, each entry:
  - (MAC address of host, interface to reach host, time stamp)
- looks like a routing table!
- *Q:* how are entries created, maintained in switch table?
  -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



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

Switch: self-learning

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



MAC addr	interface	TTL
A	*1*	*60*

Switch table (initially empty)

Switch: frame filtering/forwarding

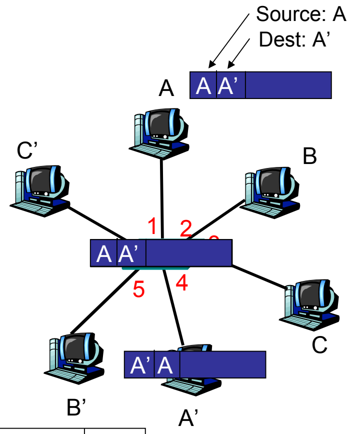
When frame received:

1. record link associated with sending host
2. index switch table using MAC destination 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

Self-learning, forwarding: example

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

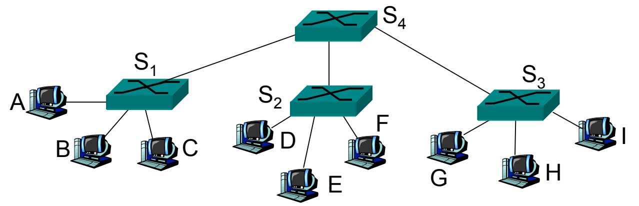


MAC addr	interface	TTL
A	*1*	*60*
A'	*4*	*60*

Switch table (initially empty)

Interconnecting switches

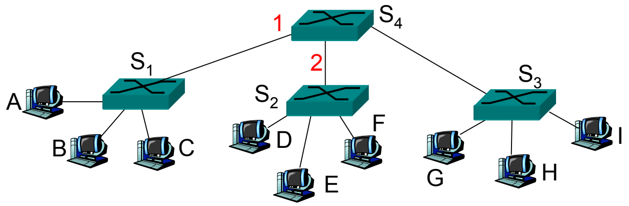
- switches can be connected together



- *Q:* sending from A to G - how does 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!)

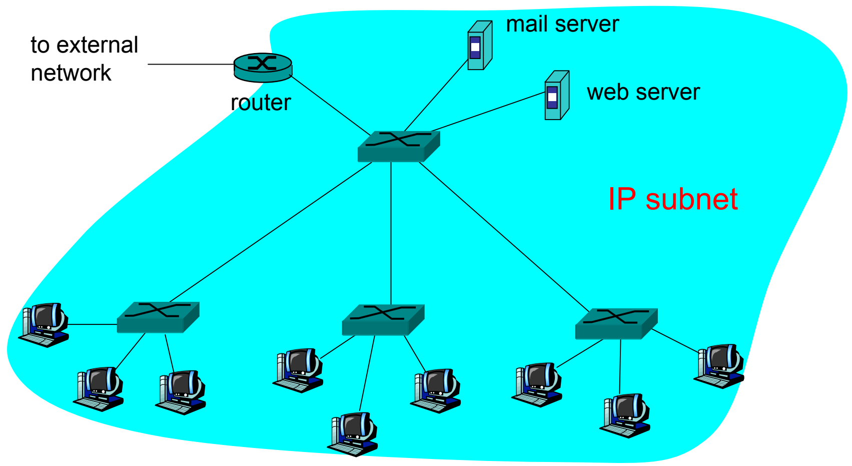
Self-learning multi-switch example

- Suppose C sends frame to I, I responds to C



- *Q:* show switch tables and packet forwarding in S_1, S_2, S_3, S_4

Institutional network



Switches vs. Routers

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