### CSC 257/457 – Computer Networks

Fall 2018 MW 4:50 pm – 6:05 pm Dewey 2-110D

# Chapter 6 The Link Layer and LANs

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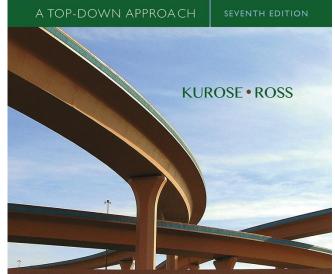
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## Computer Networking



*Computer Networking: A Top Down Approach* 

#### 7<sup>th</sup> edition

Jim Kurose, Keith Ross Pearson/Addison Wesley April 2016

## 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

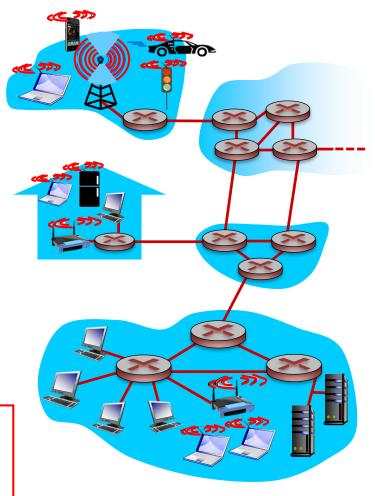
- 6.5 link virtualization: MPLS
- 6.6 data center networking
- 6.7 a day in the life of a web request

## 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

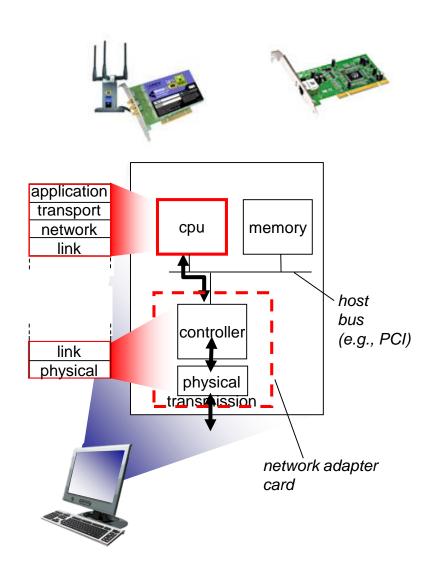
- framing, link access:
  - encapsulate datagram into frame, adding header, trailer
  - channel access if shared medium
  - "MAC" addresses used in frame headers to identify source, destination
    - different from IP address!
- reliable delivery between adjacent nodes
  - we learned how to do this already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

## Link layer services (more)

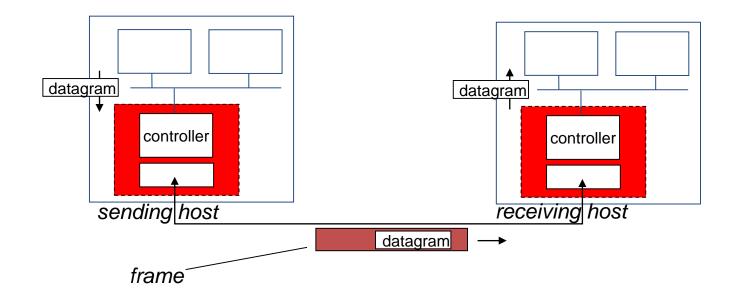
- flow control:
  - pacing between adjacent sending and receiving nodes
- error detection:
  - errors caused by signal attenuation, noise.
  - receiver detects presence of errors:
    - signals sender for retransmission or drops frame
- error correction:
  - receiver identifies and corrects bit error(s) 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) 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

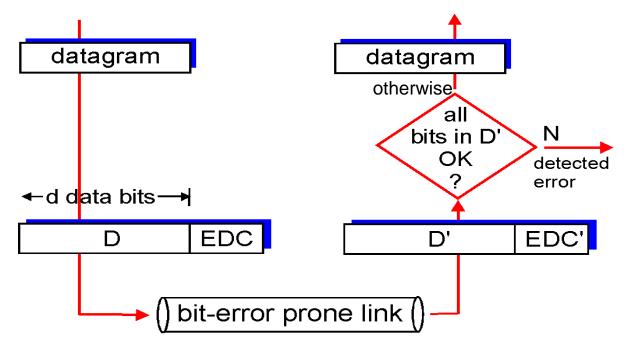
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### **Error detection**

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
- Odd parity
- Even parity

### two-dimensional bit parity:

detect and correct single bit errors

parity ... d<sub>1,j</sub> | d<sub>1,1</sub> d<sub>1, j+1</sub>  $\boldsymbol{d}_{2,j}$ d<sub>2,1</sub> d<sub>2,j+1</sub> column parity 101011 101011parity 111100  $\frac{101100}{100}$ error 011101 011100010 parity no errors error correctable single bit error

← d data bits → parity bit 0111000110101011 0

\* Check out the online interactive exercises for more examples: http://gaia.cs.umass.edu/kurose\_ross/interactive/

Link Layer and LANs 6-13

## Internet checksum (review)

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

#### sender:

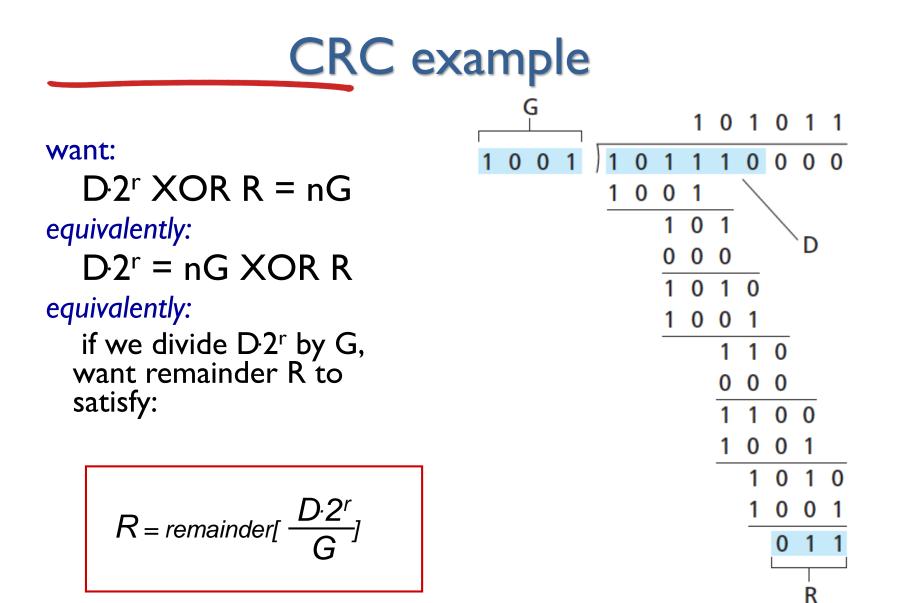
- treat segment contents as sequence of 16-bit integers
- checksum: addition (l's complement sum) of segment contents
- sender puts checksum value into UDP checksum field

#### 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)

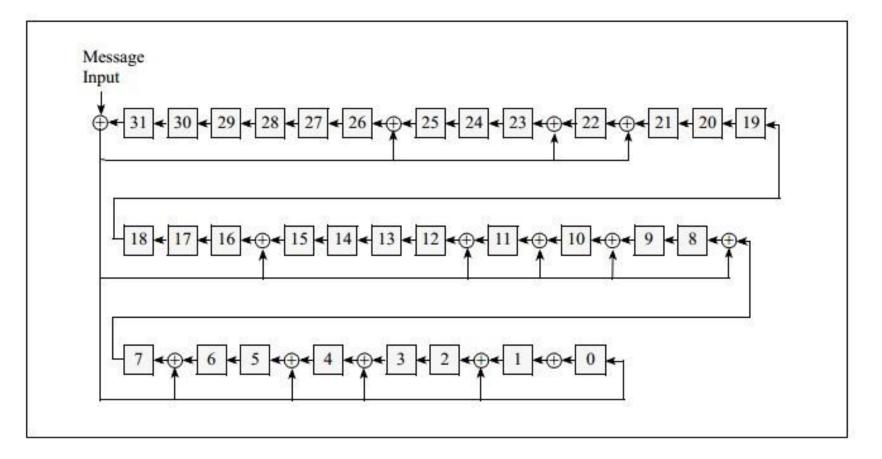


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# **CRC** in hardware

*CCITT-32:* 

 $x^{26} + x^{23} + x^{22} + x^{16} + x^{12} + x^{11} + x^{10} + x^8 + x^7 + x^5 + x^4 + x^2 + x + 1$ 



## Link layer, LANs: outline

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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 (hybrid fiber coax)
  - 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

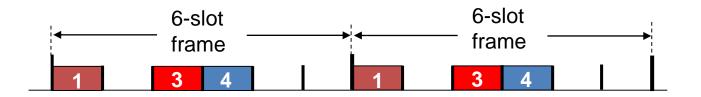
#### three broad classes:

- 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

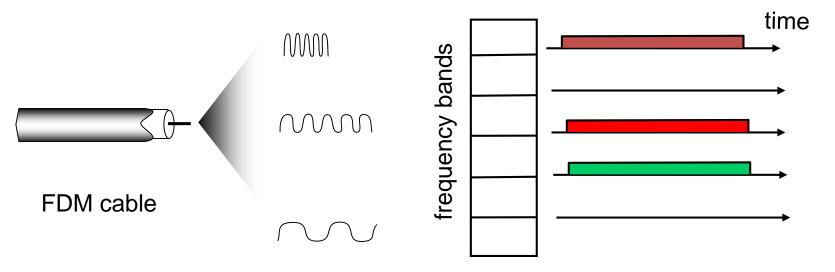
- access to channel in "rounds"
- each station gets fixed length slot (length = packet transmission time) in each round
- unused slots go idle
- example: 6-station LAN, 1,3,4 have packets to send, slots 2,5,6 idle



# 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  $\rightarrow$  "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

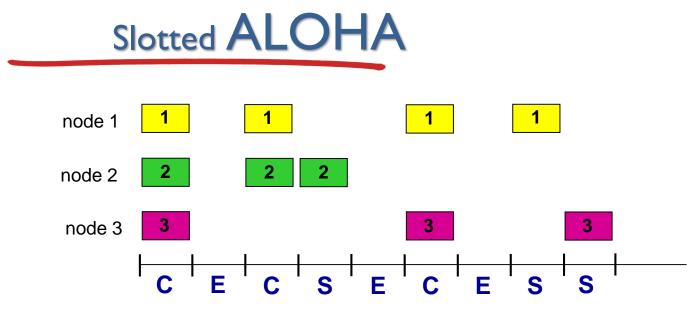


#### assumptions:

- 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



#### Pros:

Cons:

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

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

• simple

# 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)<sup>N-1</sup>

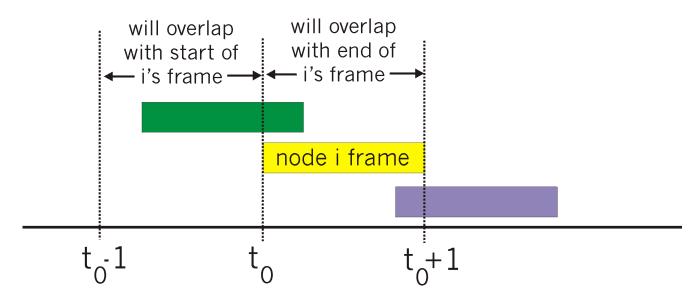
- max efficiency: find p\* that maximizes Np(1-p)<sup>N-1</sup>
- for many nodes, take limit of Np\*(1-p\*)<sup>N-1</sup> as N goes to infinity, gives:

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  $[t_0-1,t_0+1]$



# 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  $[t_0-I,t_0]$ 

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

 $\dots$  choosing optimum p and then letting n

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

### even worse than slotted Aloha!

 $\rightarrow \infty$ 

# CSMA (carrier sense multiple access)

## **CSMA:** listen before transmit: if channel sensed idle: transmit entire frame

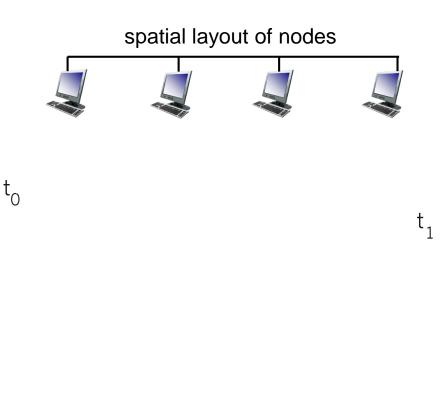
• if channel sensed busy, defer transmission

• human analogy: don't interrupt others!

## **CSMA** collisions

time

- 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



# 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)

spatial layout of nodes ............................. Ċ •t<sub>1</sub> time ....... collision detect/abort time

### Ethernet CSMA/CD algorithm

- I. NIC receives datagram from network layer, creates frame
- 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<sup>m</sup>-1}. NIC waits K<sup>5</sup>12 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<sub>trans</sub> = time to transmit max-size frame
- efficiency goes to I
  - $as t_{prop}$  goes to 0
  - as  $t_{trans}$  goes to infinity
- better performance than ALOHA: and simple, cheap, decentralized!

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

## "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

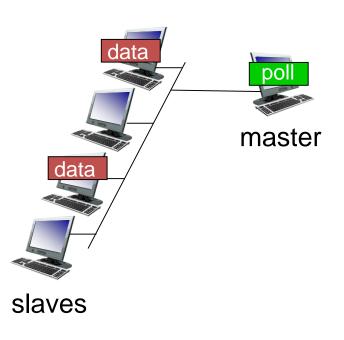
- efficient at low load: single node can fully utilize channel
- high load: collision overhead
- "taking turns" protocols

look for best of both worlds!

## "Taking turns" MAC protocols

## polling:

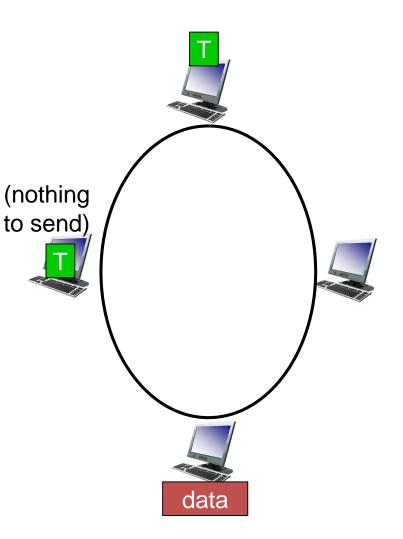
- master node "invites" slave nodes to transmit in turn
- typically used with "dumb" slave devices
- concerns:
  - polling overhead
  - latency
  - single point of failure (master)



## "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

### Acknowledgement

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