

Chapter 5: The Data Link Layer

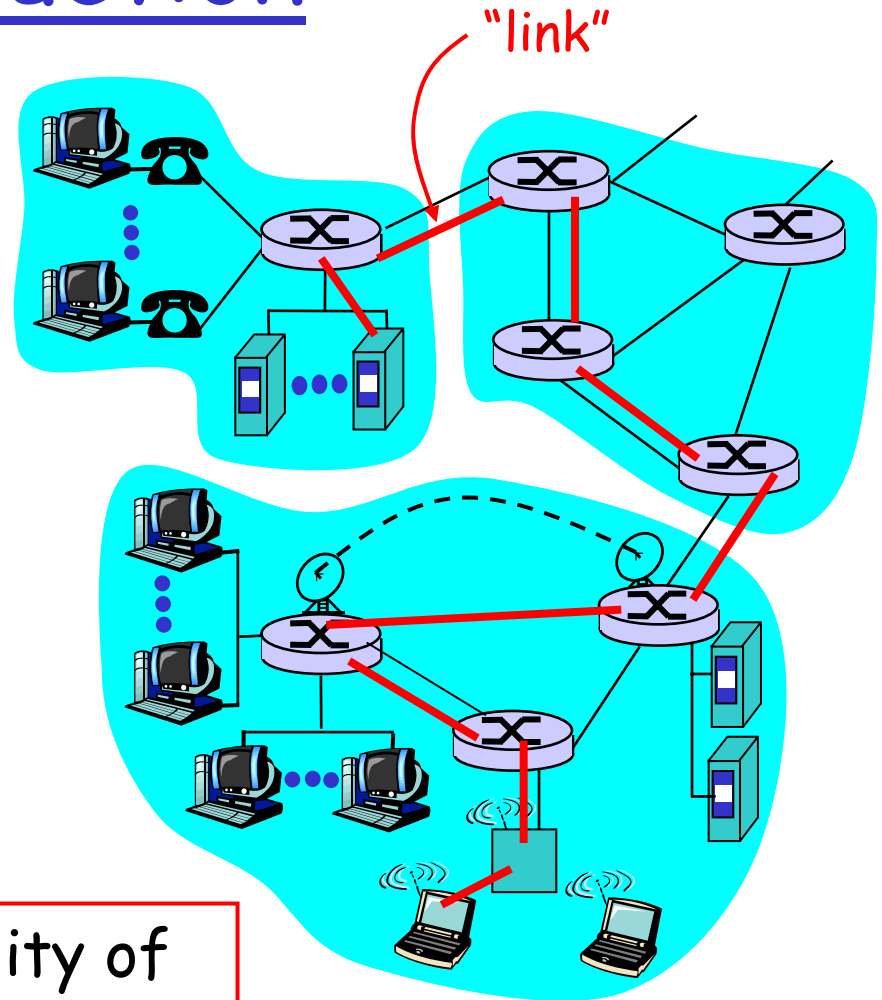
Our goals:

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

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 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, dest
 - 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

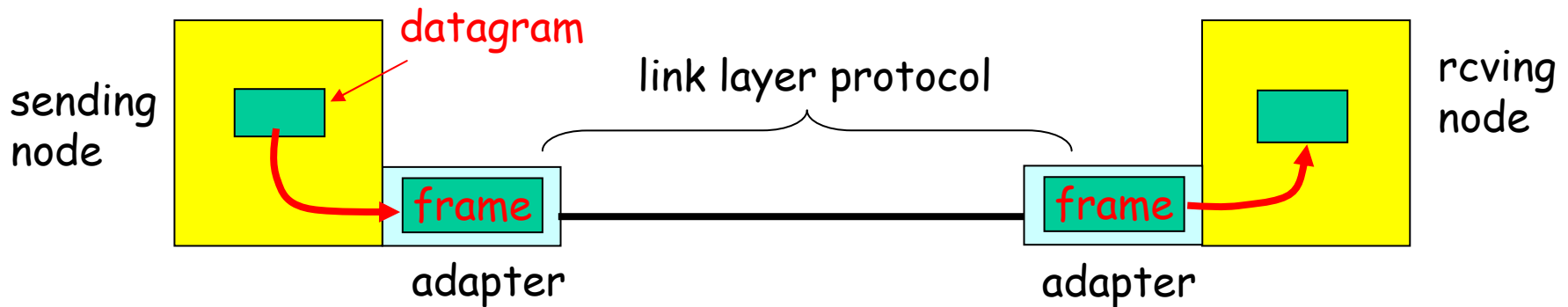
□ *Error Correction:*

- 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

Adapters Communicating



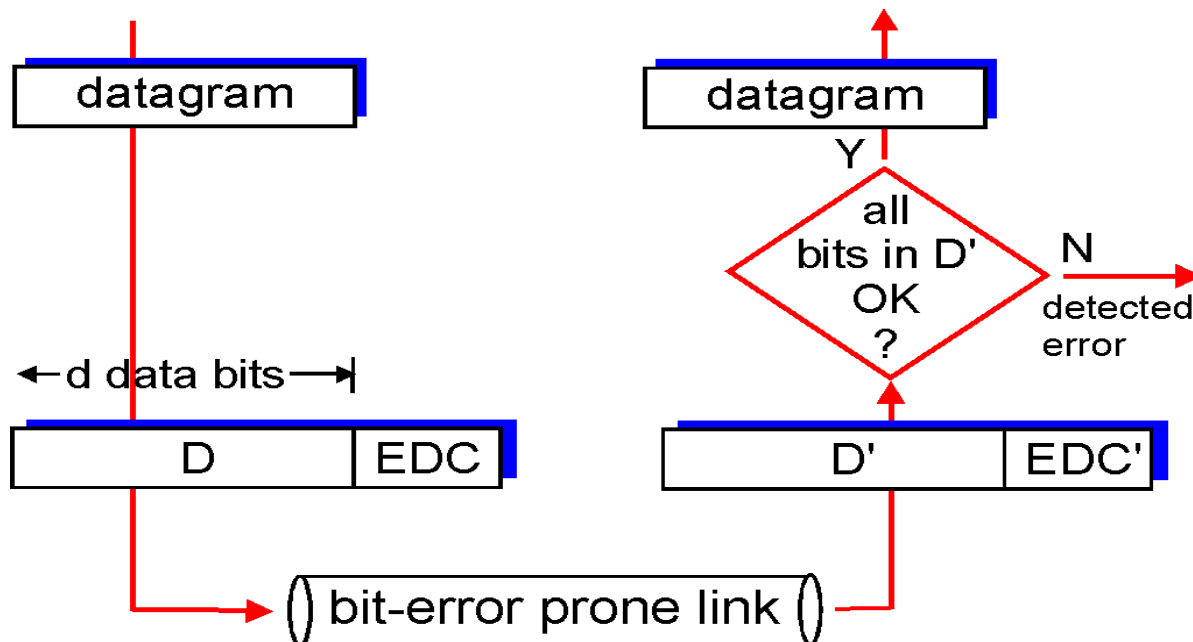
- ❑ link layer implemented in "adapter" (aka NIC)
 - Ethernet card, PCMCIA card, 802.11 card
- ❑ sending side:
 - encapsulates datagram in a frame
 - adds error checking bits, rdt, flow control, etc.
- ❑ receiving side
 - looks for errors, rdt, flow control, etc
 - extracts datagram, passes to rcvng node
- ❑ adapter is semi-autonomous
- ❑ implements link & physical layers

Error Detection

EDC= Error Detection and Correction bits (redundancy)

D = Data protected by error checking, may include header fields

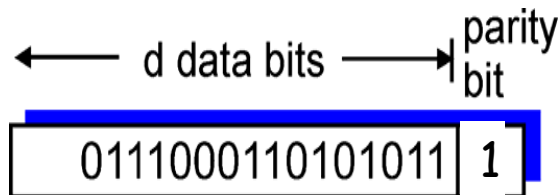
- Error detection not 100% reliable!
 - protocol may miss some errors, but rarely
 - larger EDC field yields better detection and correction



Parity Checking

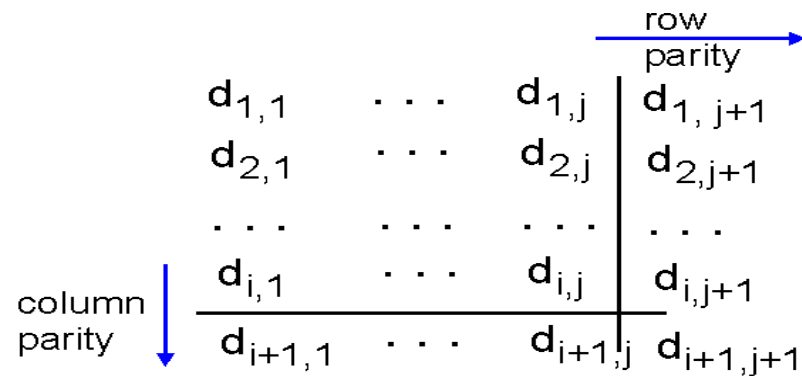
Single Bit Parity:

Detect single bit errors



Two Dimensional Bit Parity:

Detect *and correct* single bit errors



1	0	1	0	1	1
1	1	1	1	0	0
0	1	1	1	0	1
0	0	1	0	1	0

no errors

1	0	1	0	1	1
1	1	1	1	0	0
0	1	1	1	0	1
0	0	1	0	1	0

parity
error

*correctable
single bit error*

Internet checksum

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

Sender:

- ❑ treat segment contents as sequence of 16-bit integers
- ❑ checksum: addition (1's complement sum) of segment contents
- ❑ sender puts checksum value into the checksum field

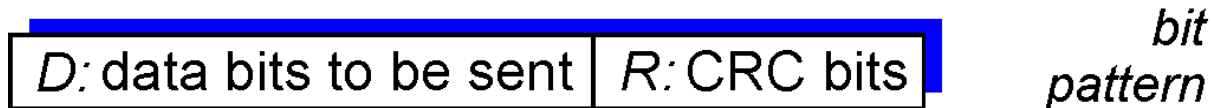
Receiver:

- ❑ compute checksum of received segment
- ❑ check if computed checksum equals checksum field value:
 - NO - error detected
 - YES - no error detected. *But maybe errors nonetheless?*
More later

Checksumming: Cyclic Redundancy Check

- ❑ view data bits, **D**, as a binary number
- ❑ choose $r+1$ bit pattern (generator), **G**
- ❑ goal: choose r CRC bits, **R**, such that
 - $\langle D, R \rangle$ exactly divisible by G (modulo 2)
 - receiver knows G , divides $\langle D, R \rangle$ 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, ATM, HDLC)

← d bits → ← r bits →



$D * 2^r \text{ XOR } R$ *mathematical
formula*

CRC Example

Want:

$$D \cdot 2^r \text{ XOR } R = nG$$

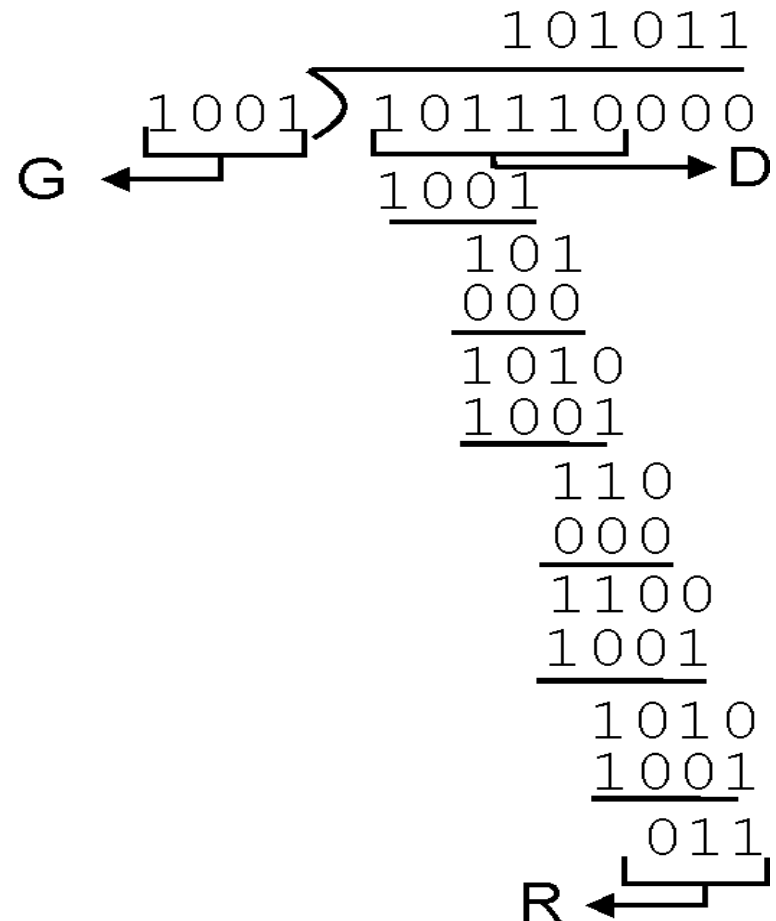
equivalently:

$$D \cdot 2^r = nG \text{ XOR } R$$

equivalently:

if we divide $D \cdot 2^r$ by G , want remainder R

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



Multiple Access Links and Protocols

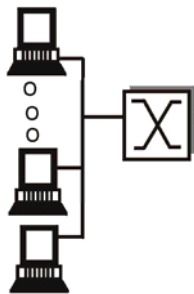
Two types of "links":

- point-to-point

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

- **broadcast** (shared wire or medium)

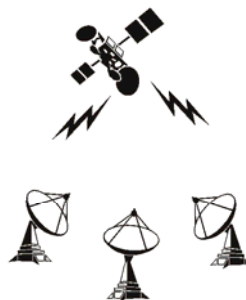
- traditional Ethernet
- upstream HFC (hybrid fiber-coax used in cable TV)
- 802.11 wireless LAN



shared wire
(e.g. Ethernet)



shared wireless
(e.g. 802.11)



satellite



cocktail party

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

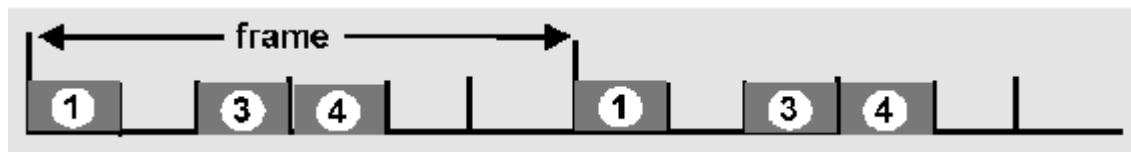
□ "Taking turns"

- Nodes take turns, but nodes with more to send can take longer turns

Channel Partitioning MAC protocols: TDMA

TDMA: time division multiple access

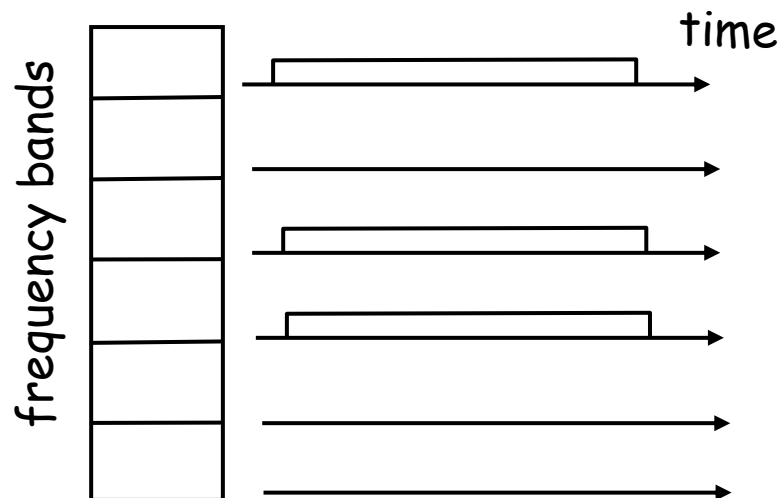
- ❑ access to channel in "rounds"
- ❑ each station gets fixed length slot (length = pkt trans time) in each round
- ❑ unused slots go idle
- ❑ example: 6-station LAN, 1,3,4 have pkts, slots 2,5,6 idle



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 pkts, frequency bands 2,5,6 idle



Random Access Protocols

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

Slotted ALOHA

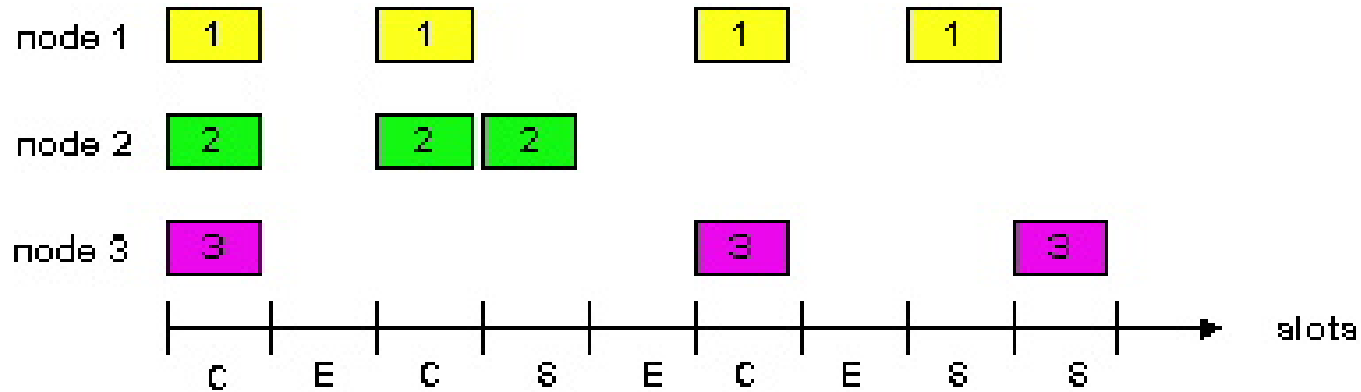
Assumptions

- ❑ all frames same size
- ❑ time is divided into equal size slots, time to transmit 1 frame
- ❑ nodes start to transmit frames only at beginning of slots
- ❑ nodes are synchronized
- ❑ if 2 or more nodes transmit in slot, all nodes detect collision

Operation

- ❑ when node obtains fresh frame, it 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 than time to transmit packet
- ❑ clock synchronization

Slotted Aloha efficiency

Efficiency is the long-run fraction of successful slots when there are many nodes, each with many frames to send

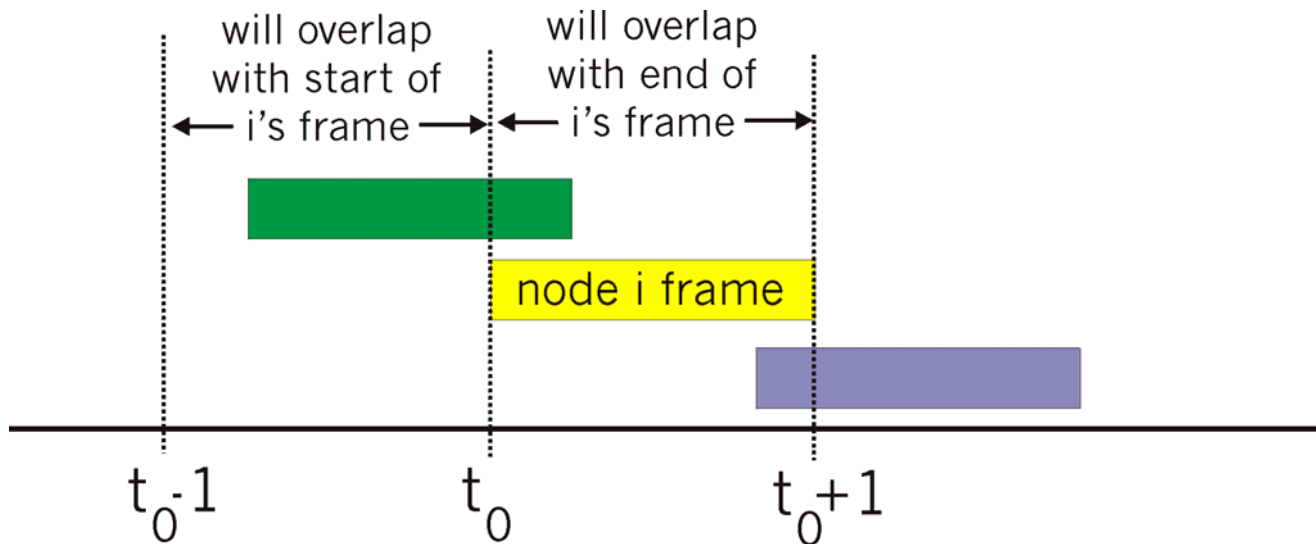
- Suppose N nodes with many frames to send, each transmits in slot with probability p
- prob that node 1 has success in a slot
 $= p(1-p)^{N-1}$
- prob that any node has a success $= Np(1-p)^{N-1}$

- For max efficiency with N nodes, 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 $1/e = .37$

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

$P(\text{success by given node}) = P(\text{node transmits}) \cdot$

$P(\text{no other node transmits in } [t_0-1, t_0] \cdot$

$P(\text{no other node transmits in } [t_0, t_0+1])$

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

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

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

Even worse ! $= 1/(2e) = .18$

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:

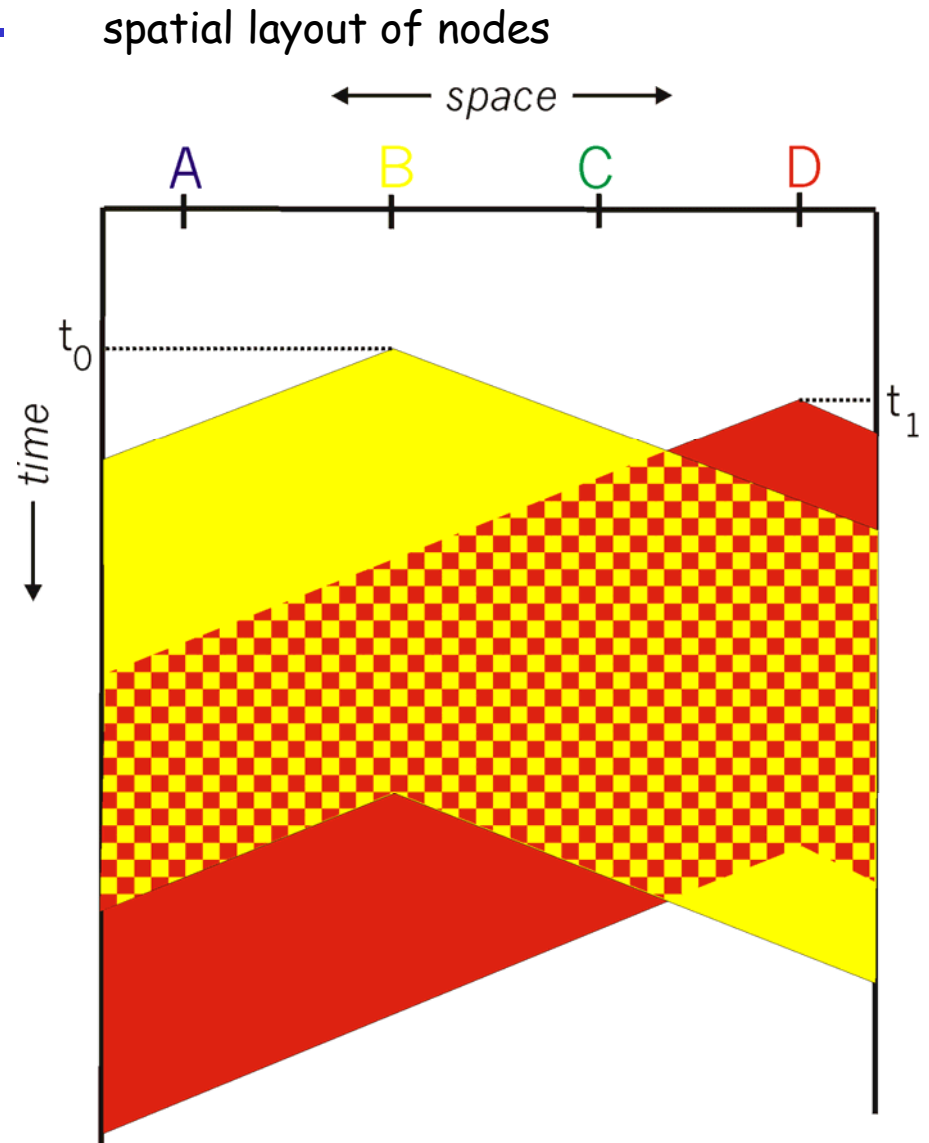
propagation delay means
two nodes may not hear
each other's transmission

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

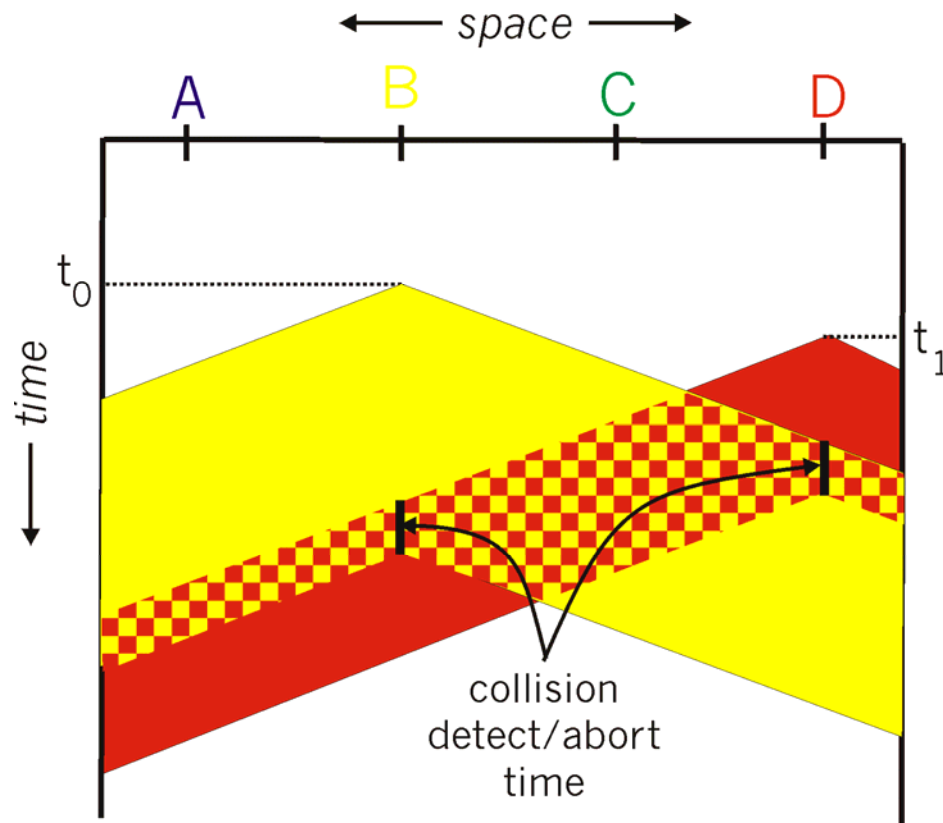
- collisions *detected* within short time
- colliding transmissions aborted, reducing channel wastage

□ collision detection:

- easy in wired LANs: measure signal strengths, compare transmitted, received signals
- difficult in wireless LANs: receiver shut off while transmitting

□ 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!

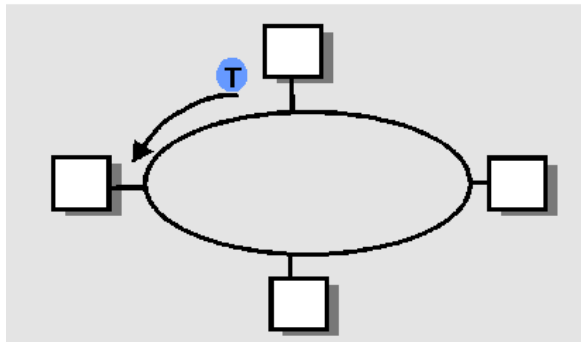
"Taking Turns" MAC protocols

Polling:

- ❑ master node
"invites" slave nodes
to transmit in turn
- ❑ concerns:
 - polling overhead
 - latency
 - single point of failure (master)

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

- ❑ 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 from a central site, token passing

MAC Addresses and ARP

□ 32-bit IP address:

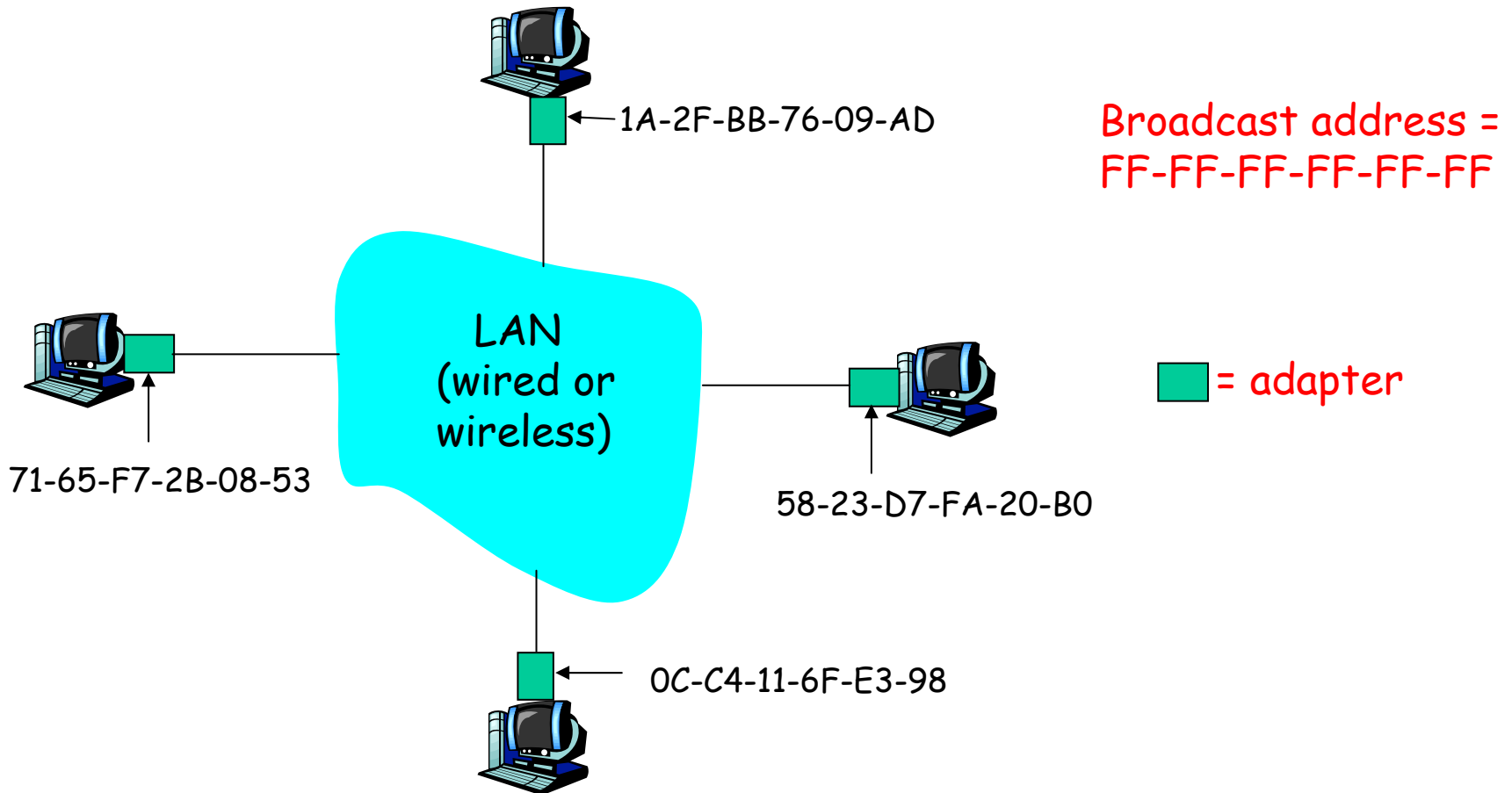
- *network-layer* address
- used to get datagram to destination IP subnet

□ MAC (or LAN or “physical” or Ethernet) address:

- used to get datagram from one interface to another physically-connected interface (same network)
- 48 bit MAC address (for most LANs) burned in the adapter ROM

LAN Addresses and ARP

Each adapter on LAN has unique LAN address



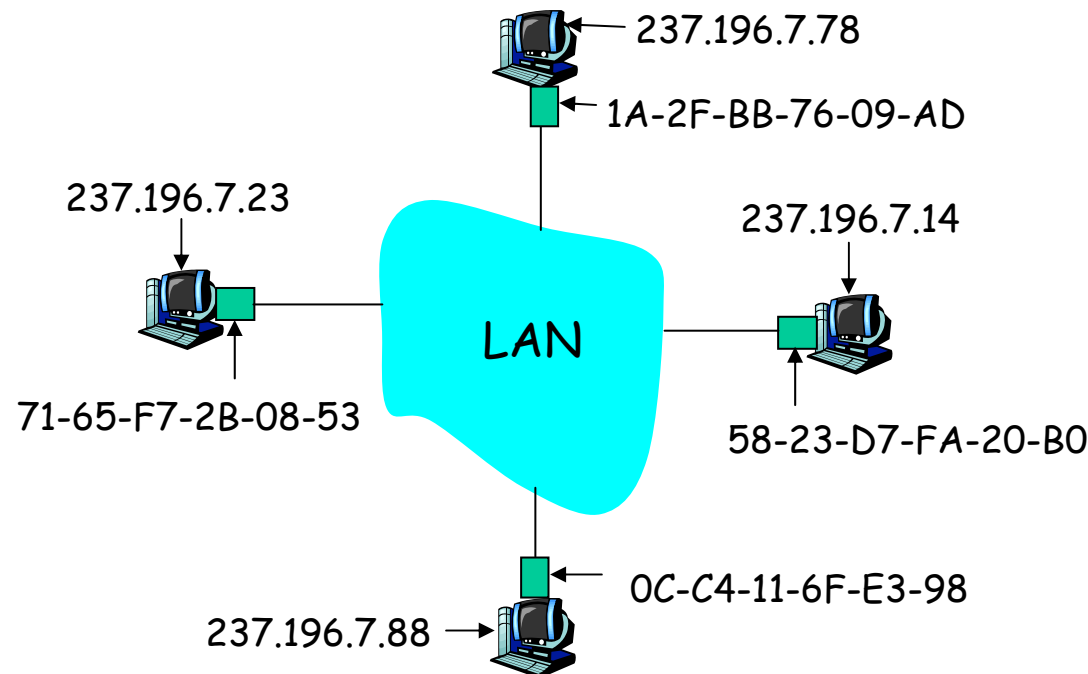
LAN Address (more)

- ❑ 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 allows easier portability
 - can move LAN card from one LAN to another
- ❑ IP hierarchical address NOT portable
 - 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** 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)

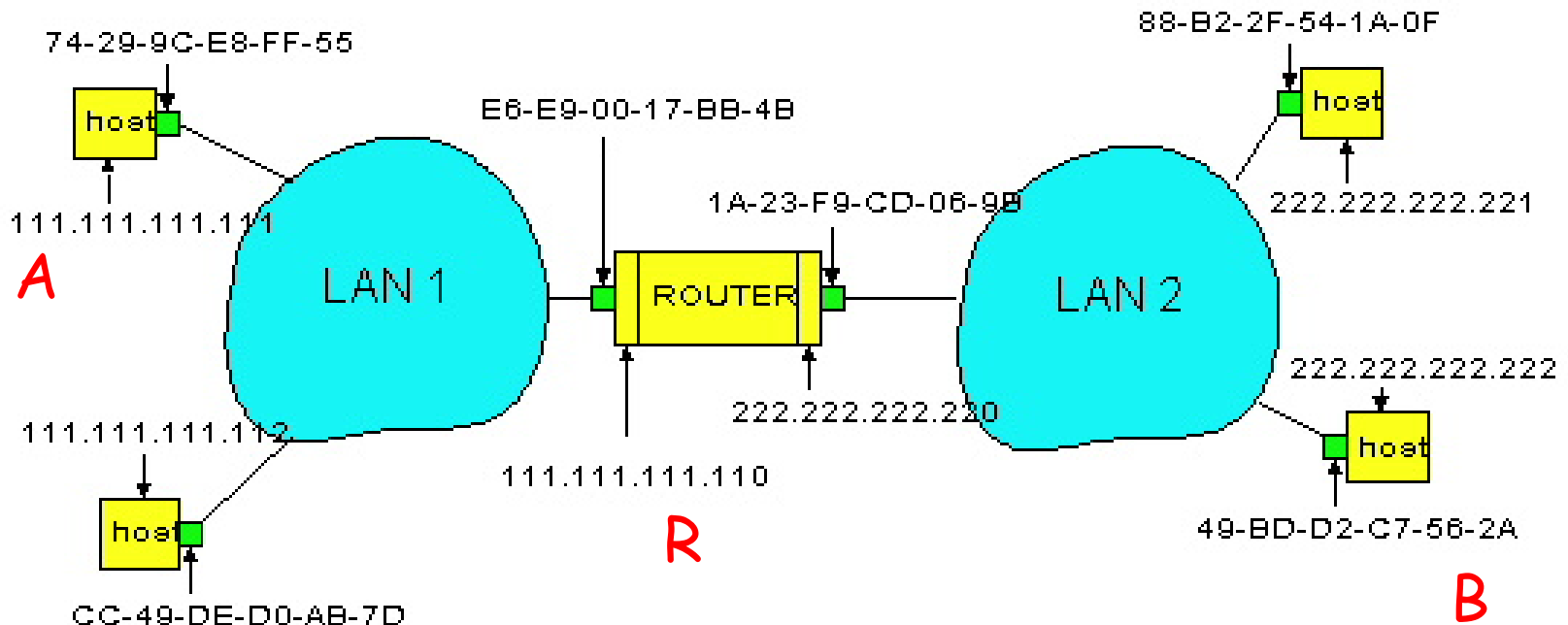


ARP protocol: Same LAN (network)

- ❑ 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

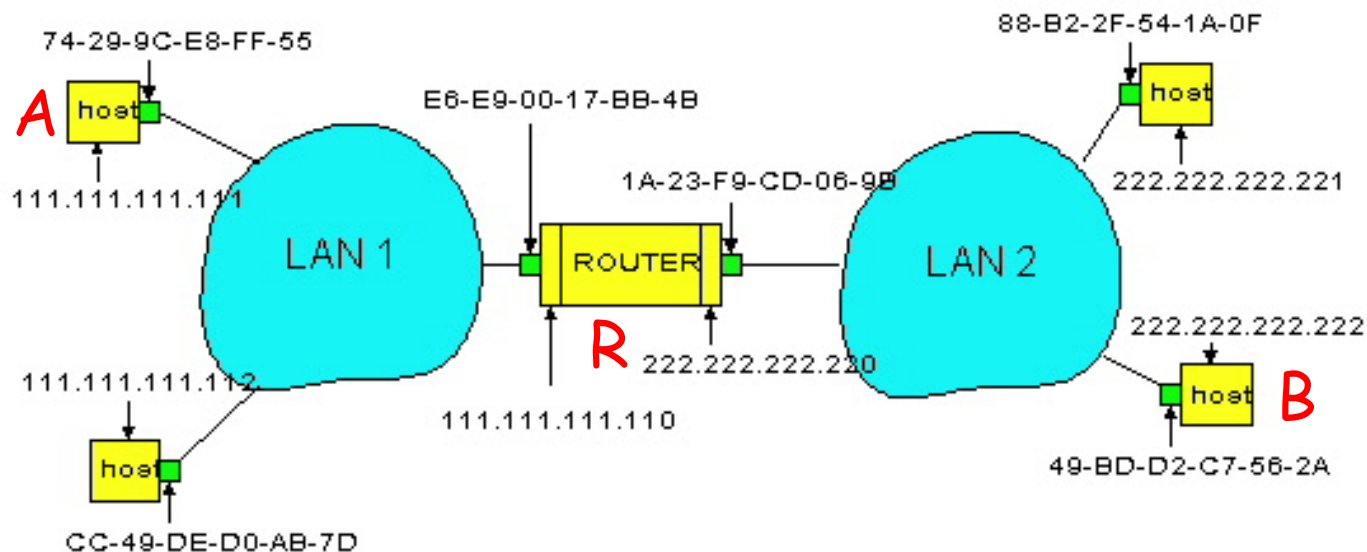
Routing to another LAN

walkthrough: **send datagram from A to B via R**
assume A know's B's IP address



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

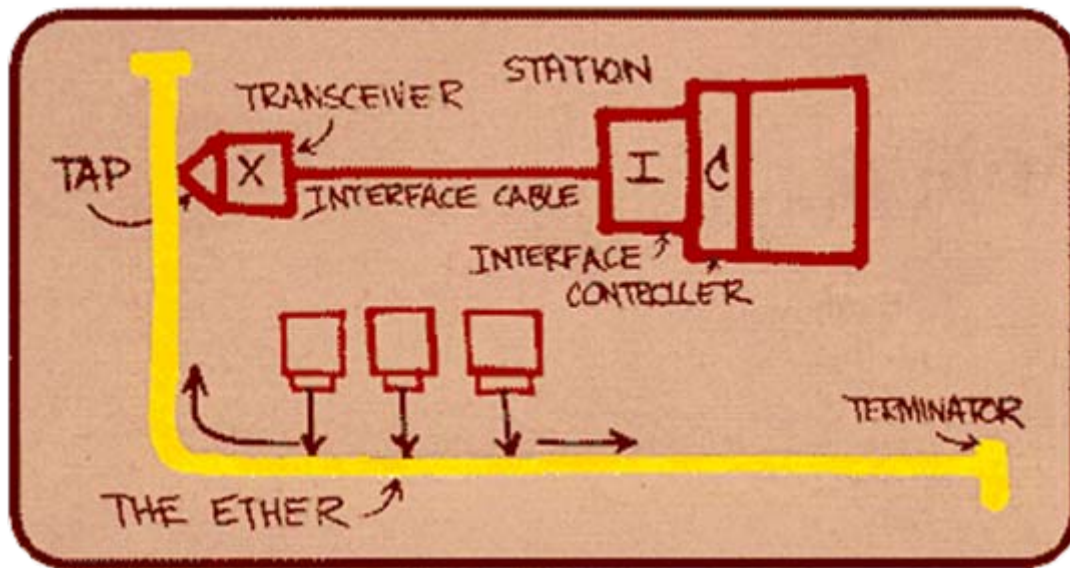
- ❑ A creates datagram with source A, destination B
- ❑ A uses ARP to get R's MAC address for 111.111.111.110
- ❑ A creates link-layer frame with R's MAC address as dest, frame contains A-to-B IP datagram
- ❑ A's adapter sends frame
- ❑ R's adapter receives frame
- ❑ R removes IP datagram from Ethernet frame, sees it's destined to B
- ❑ R uses ARP to get B's MAC address
- ❑ R creates frame containing A-to-B IP datagram, sends to B



Ethernet

"dominant" wired LAN technology:

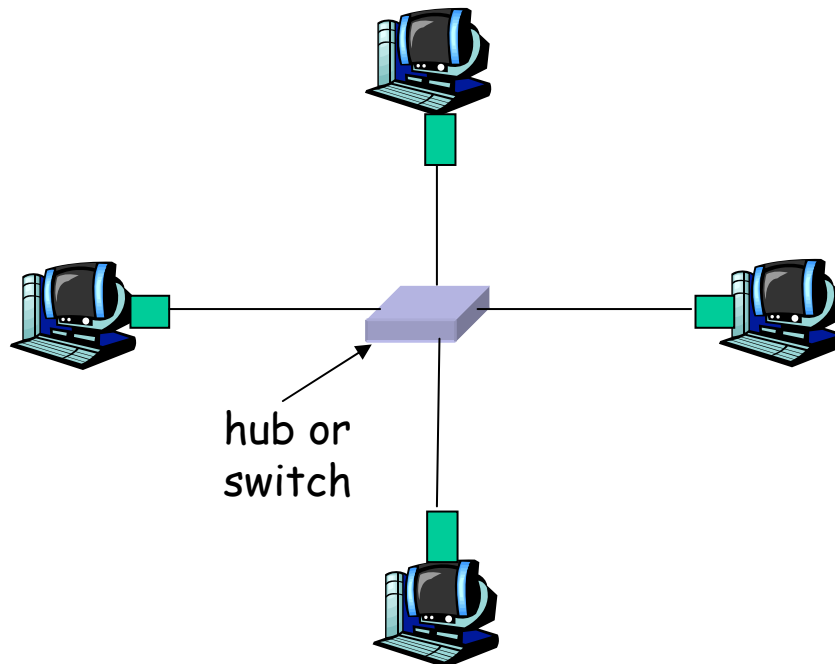
- ❑ cheap: \$20 for 100Mbps!
- ❑ first widely used LAN technology
- ❑ Simpler, cheaper than token LANs and ATM
- ❑ Kept up with speed race: 10 Mbps - 10 Gbps



Metcalfe's Ethernet sketch

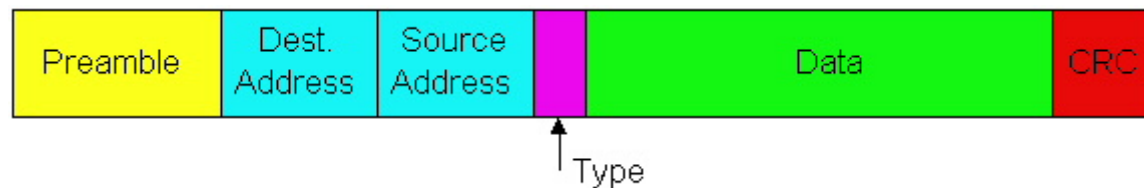
Star topology

- ❑ Bus topology popular through mid 90s
- ❑ Now star topology prevails
- ❑ Connection choices: hub or switch (more later)



Ethernet Frame Structure

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

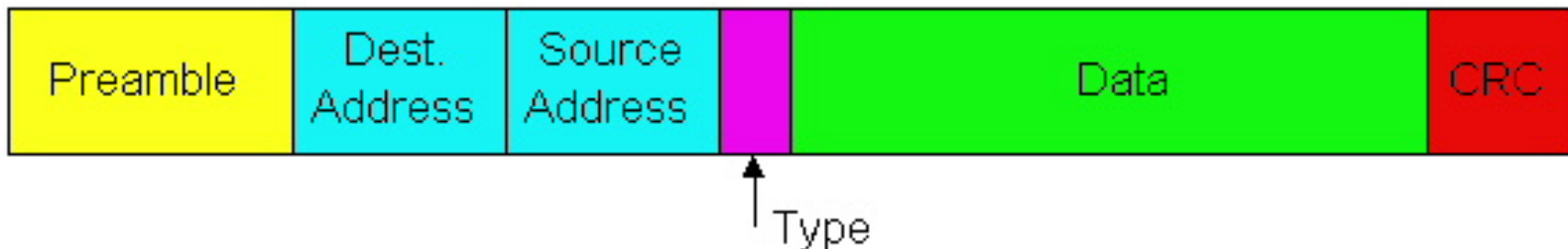


Preamble:

- ❑ 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 net-layer protocol
 - otherwise, adapter discards frame
- ❑ **Type:** 2 bytes, indicates the higher (network) layer protocol (commonly IP, but may also be ARP, Novell IPX and AppleTalk, etc.)
- ❑ **CRC:** 4 bytes, checked at receiver, if error is detected, the frame is simply dropped



Unreliable, connectionless service

- ❑ **Connectionless:** No handshaking between sending and receiving adapter.
- ❑ **Unreliable:** receiving adapter doesn't send acks or nacks to sending adapter
 - stream of datagrams passed to network layer can have gaps
 - gaps will be filled if app is using TCP
 - otherwise, app will see the gaps

Ethernet uses CSMA/CD

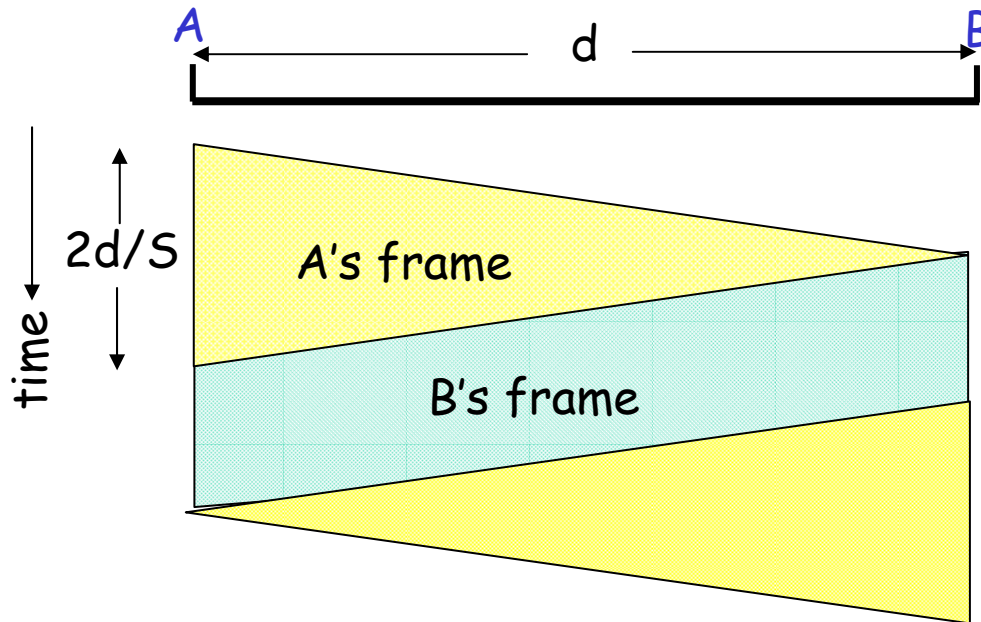
- ❑ No slots
- ❑ adapter doesn't transmit if it senses that some other adapter is transmitting, that is, **carrier sense**
- ❑ transmitting adapter aborts when it senses that another adapter is transmitting, that is, **collision detection**
- ❑ Before attempting a retransmission, adapter waits a random time, that is, **random access**

Ethernet CSMA/CD algorithm

1. Adapter receives datagram from net layer & creates frame
2. If adapter senses channel idle, it starts to transmit frame. If it senses channel busy, waits until channel idle and then transmits
3. If adapter transmits entire frame without detecting another transmission, the adapter is done with frame !
4. If adapter detects another transmission while transmitting, aborts and sends 48-bit jam signal
5. After aborting, adapter enters **exponential backoff**: after the m th collision, adapter chooses a K at random from $\{0, 1, 2, \dots, 2^m - 1\}$. Adapter waits $K \cdot 512$ bit times and returns to Step 2

Frame Size limitations for Ethernet

For proper collision detection: A's frame should last at least until B's frame reaches A



A's frame in yellow
B's frame in green

□ Minimum Frame size (F_{\min})

For proper collision detection:

F_{\min} = Min. frame size

R = Ethernet's transmission rate,
e.g., 10 Mb/s

d_{\max} = max. Ethernet segment
length

S = Propagation speed (2×10^8
m/s)

$$F_{\min}/R \geq 2d_{\max}/S$$

□ Maximum Frame Size (F_{\max})

For fairness among competing
nodes

F_{\min} = 64 Bytes, F_{\max} = 1500 Bytes

Ethernet's CSMA/CD (more)

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

Random retransmission delay:
K · 512 bit transmission times where K is randomly selected; bit time is 0.1 microsec for 10 Mbps and 0.01 microsec for 100 Mbps Ethernet

See/interact with Java applet on AWL Web site: highly recommended !

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}
- ❑ for max value of K=1023: wait time is about 50 msec for 10 Mbps, 5 msec for 100 Mbps Ethernet

CSMA/CD efficiency

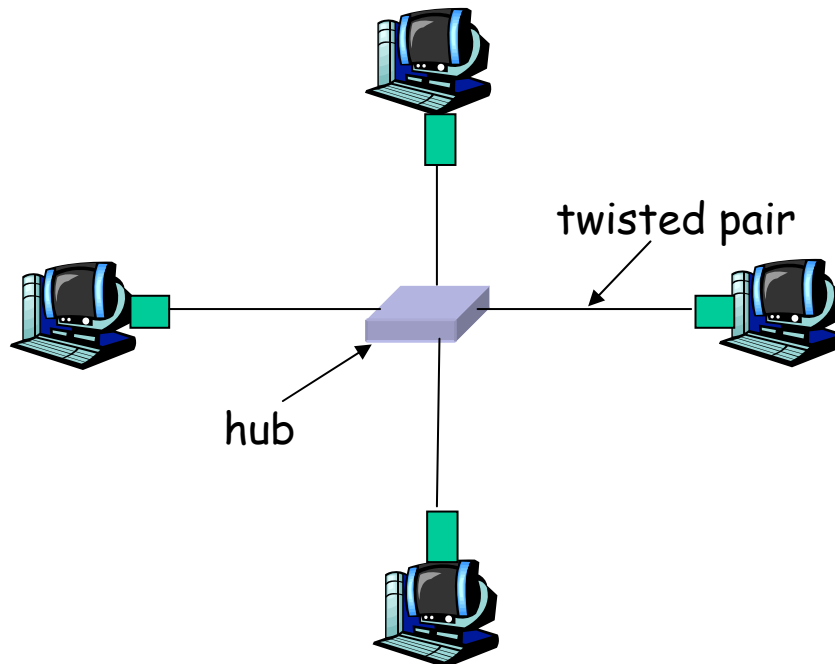
- t_{prop} = max prop between 2 nodes in LAN
- t_{trans} = time to transmit max-size frame

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

- Efficiency goes to 1 as t_{prop} goes to 0
- Goes to 1 as t_{trans} goes to infinity
- Much better than ALOHA, but still decentralized, simple, and cheap

10BaseT and 100BaseT

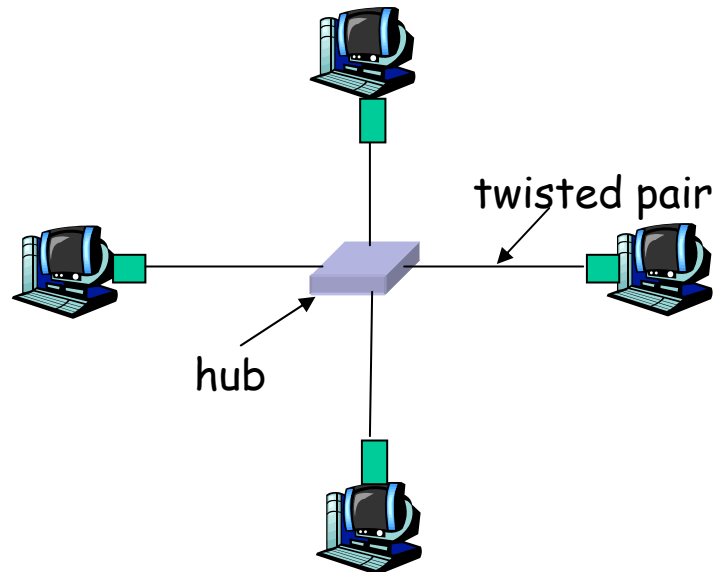
- ❑ 10/100 Mbps rates
- ❑ T stands for Twisted Pair
- ❑ Base stands for Baseband (unmodulated)
- ❑ Nodes connect to a hub: "star topology"; 100 m max distance between nodes and hub



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
- provides net management functionality

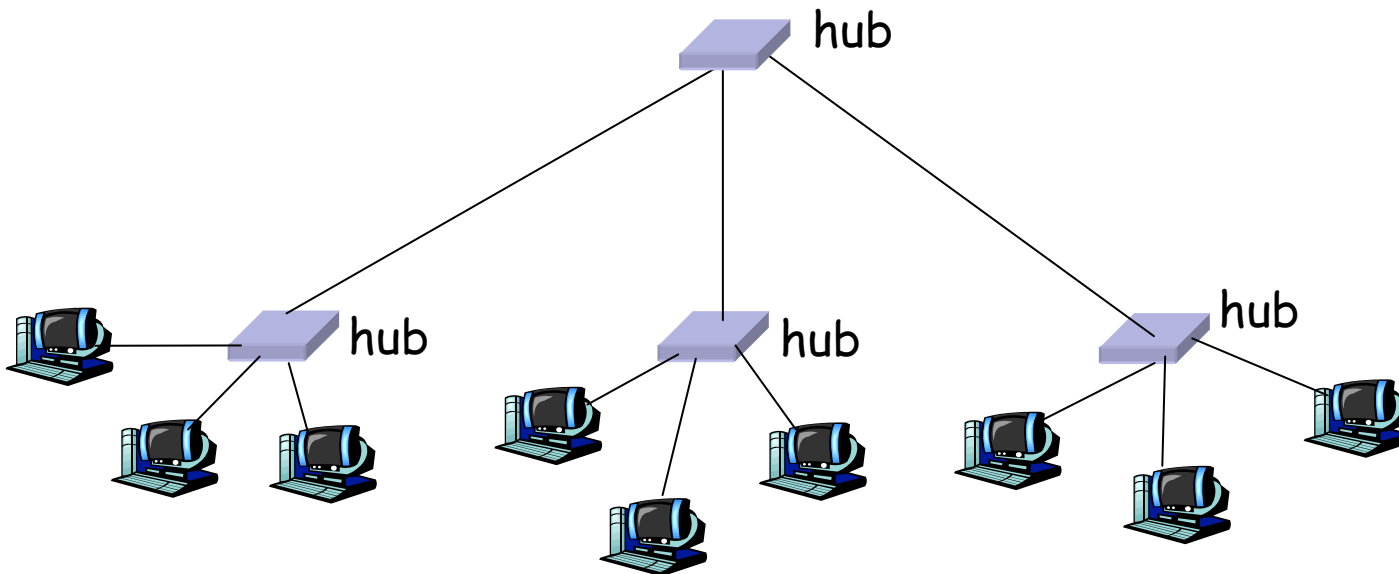


Gbit Ethernet

- ❑ uses standard Ethernet frame format
- ❑ allows for point-to-point links and shared broadcast channels
- ❑ in shared mode, CSMA/CD is used; short distances between nodes required for efficiency
- ❑ Full-Duplex at 1 Gbps for point-to-point links
- ❑ 10 Gbps now !

Interconnecting with hubs

- ❑ Backbone hub interconnects LAN segments
- ❑ Extends max distance between nodes
- ❑ But individual segment collision domains become one large collision domain
- ❑ Can't interconnect 10BaseT & 100BaseT



Switch

- ❑ Link layer device

- stores and forwards Ethernet frames
- examines frame header and **selectively** forwards frame based on MAC dest address
- when frame is to be forwarded on segment, uses CSMA/CD to access segment

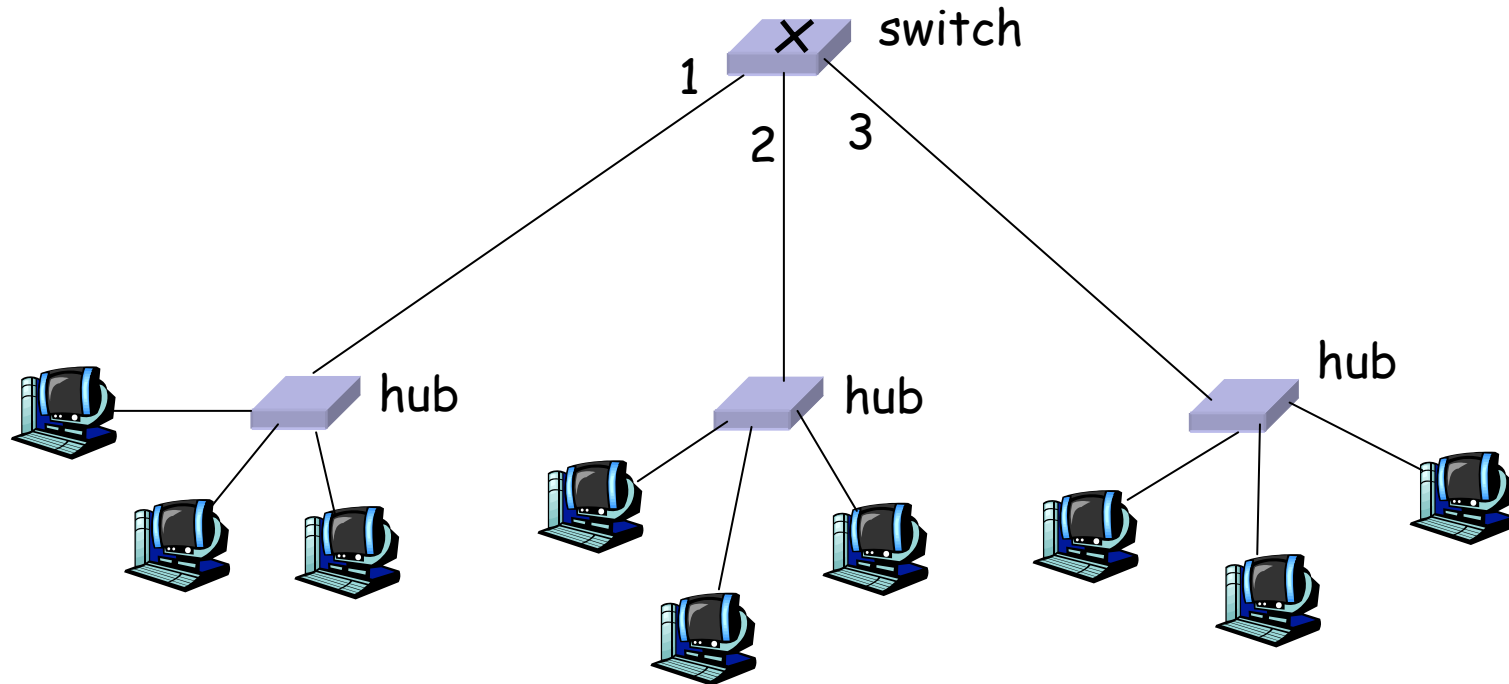
- ❑ transparent

- hosts are unaware of presence of switches

- ❑ plug-and-play, self-learning

- switches do not need to be configured

Forwarding



- How do determine onto which LAN segment to forward frame?
- Looks like a routing problem...

Self learning

- ❑ A switch has a **switch table**
- ❑ entry in switch table:
 - (MAC Address, Interface, Time Stamp)
 - stale entries in table dropped (TTL can be 60 min)
- ❑ 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

Filtering/Forwarding

When switch receives a frame:

index switch table using MAC dest address

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

}

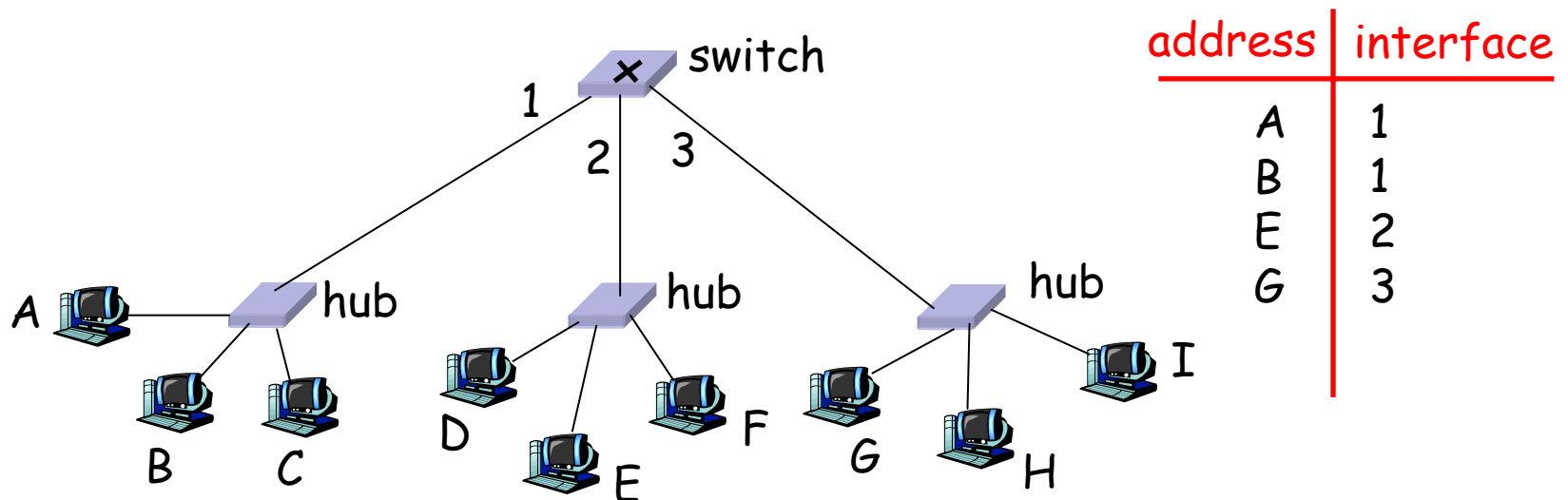
else flood



*forward on all but the interface
on which the frame arrived*

Switch example

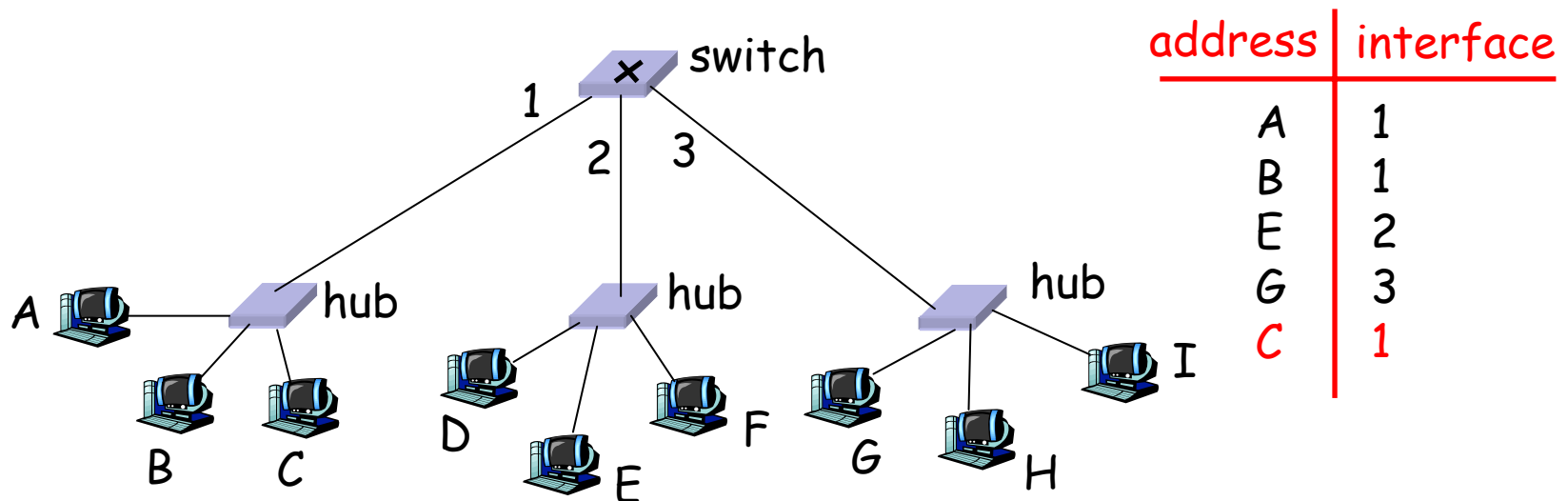
Suppose C sends frame to D



- ❑ Switch receives frame from from C
 - notes in bridge table that C is on interface 1
 - because D is not in table, switch forwards frame into interfaces 2 and 3
- ❑ frame received by D

Switch example

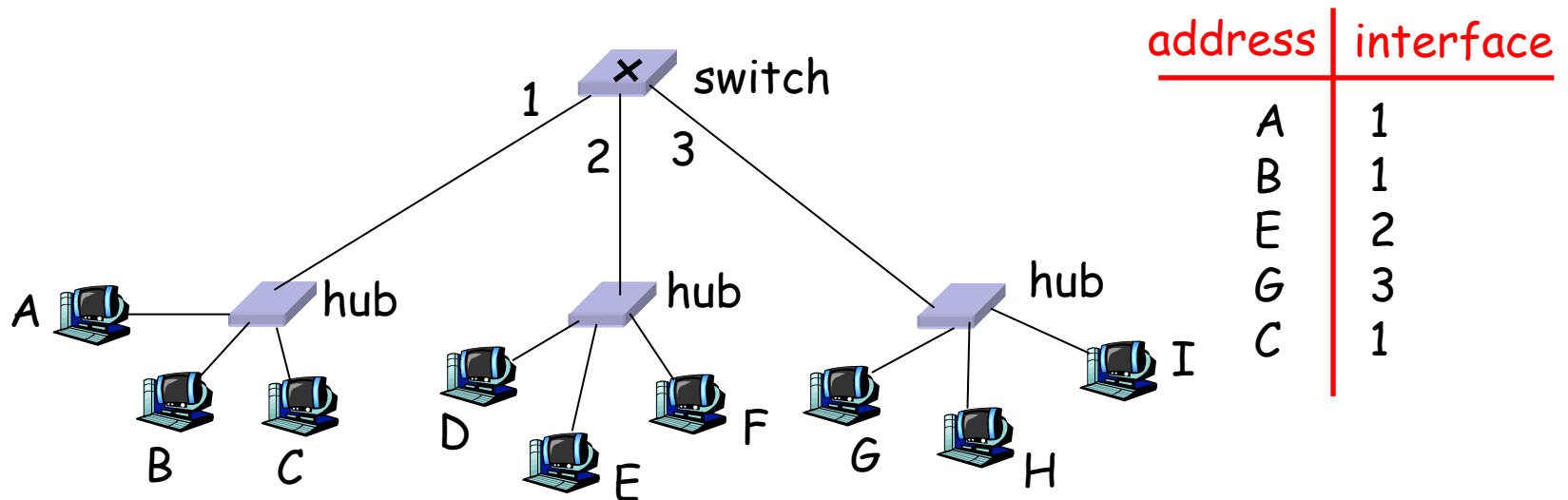
Suppose C sends frame to D



- ❑ Switch receives frame from from C
 - notes in bridge table that C is on interface 1
 - because D is not in table, switch forwards frame into interfaces 2 and 3
- ❑ frame received by D

Switch example

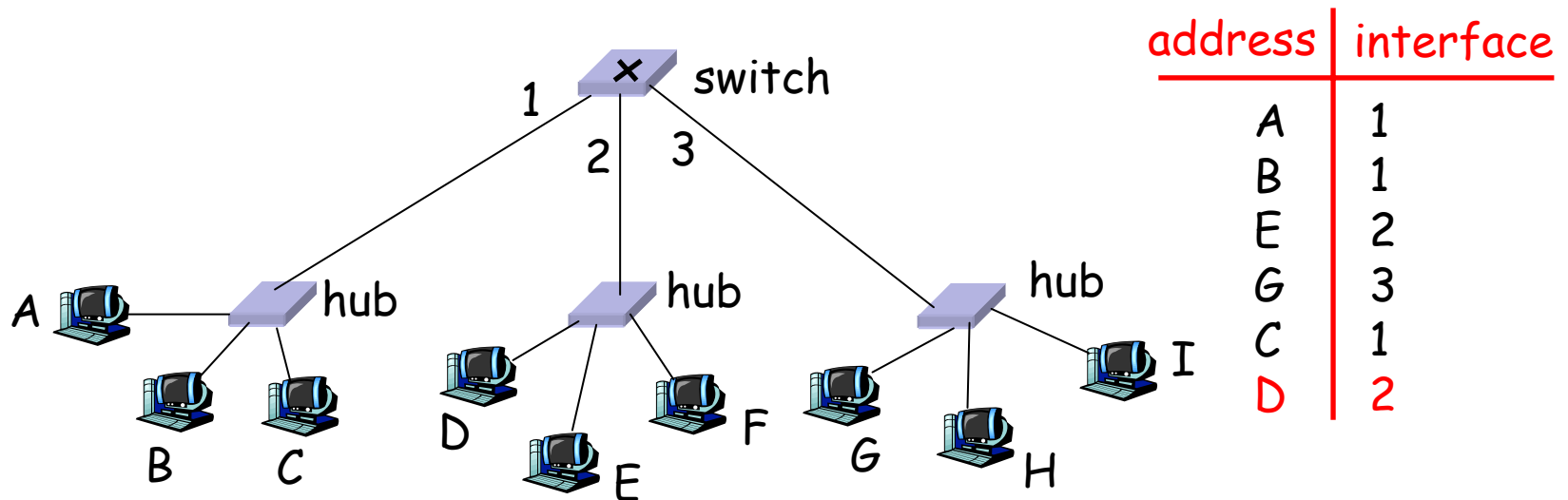
Suppose D replies back with frame to C.



- ❑ Switch receives frame from from D
 - notes in bridge table that D is on interface 2
 - because C is in table, switch forwards frame only to interface 1
- ❑ frame received by C

Switch example

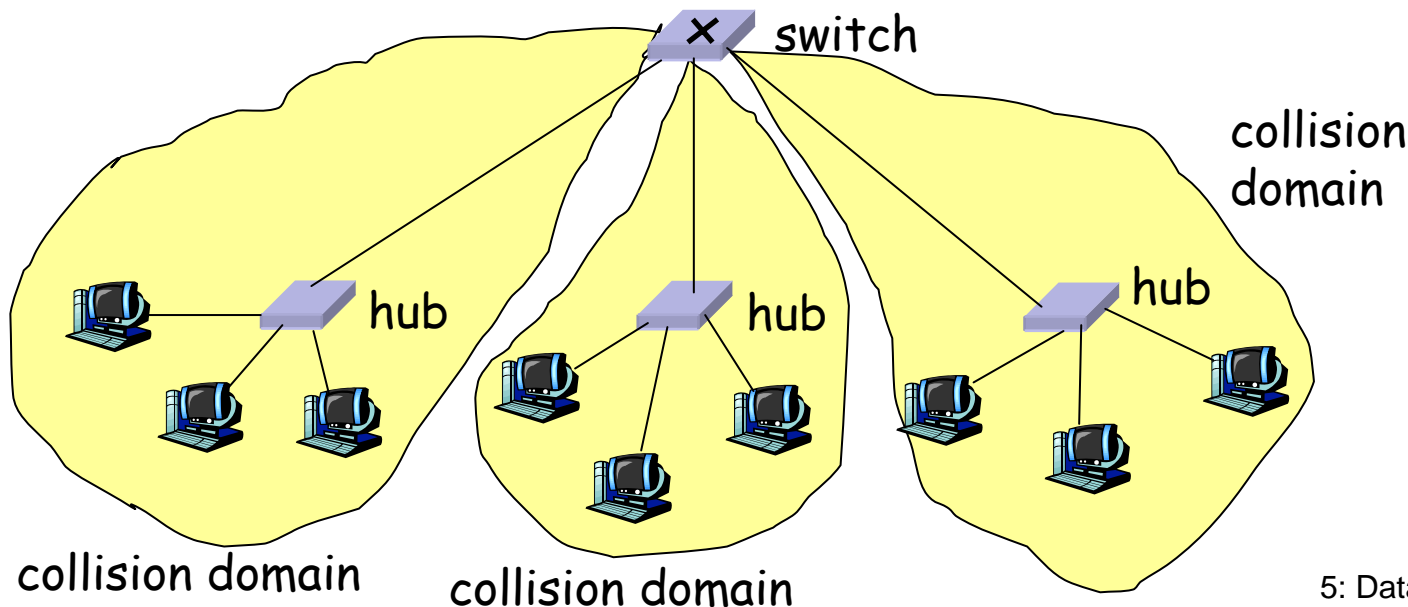
Suppose D replies back with frame to C.



- ❑ Switch receives frame from from D
 - notes in bridge table that D is on interface 2
 - because C is in table, switch forwards frame only to interface 1
- ❑ frame received by C

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**

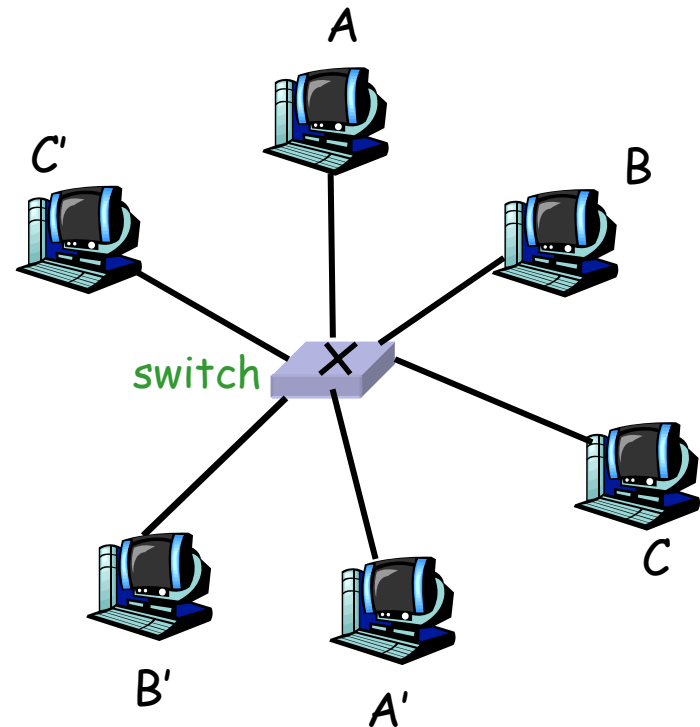


Switches: dedicated access

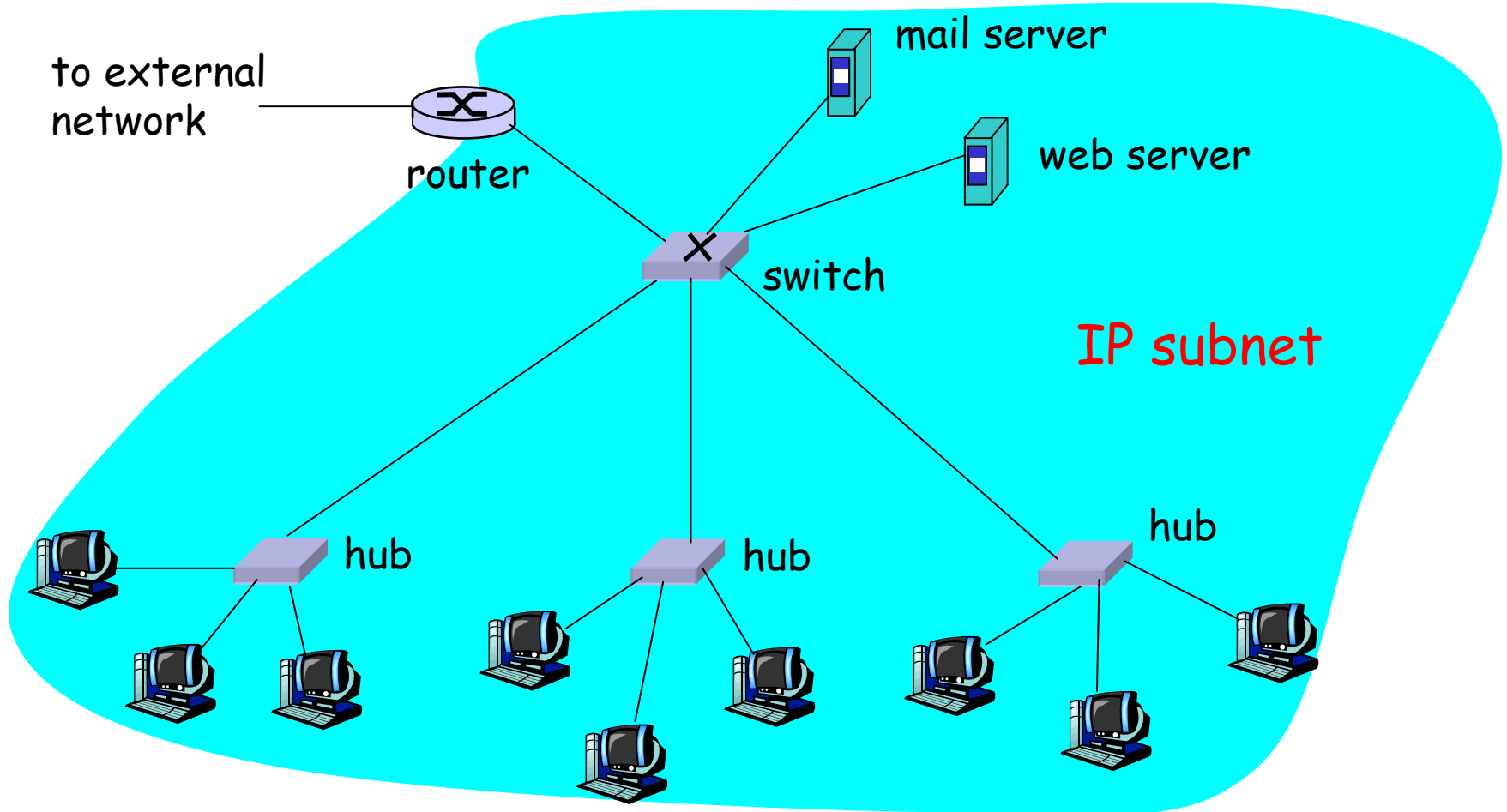
- ❑ Switch with many interfaces
- ❑ Hosts have direct connection to switch
- ❑ No collisions; full duplex

Switching: A-to-A' and B-to-B' simultaneously, no collisions

- ❑ combinations of shared/dedicated, 10/100/1000 Mbps interfaces possible

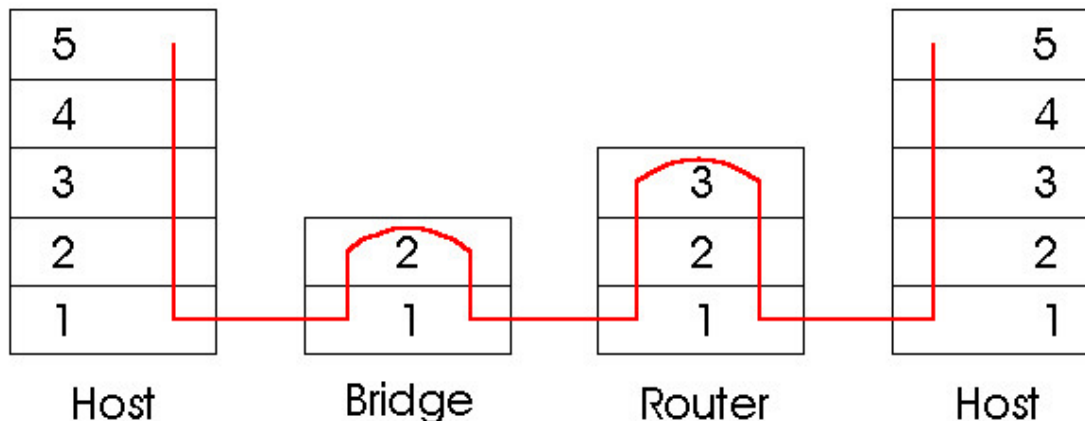


Institutional network



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

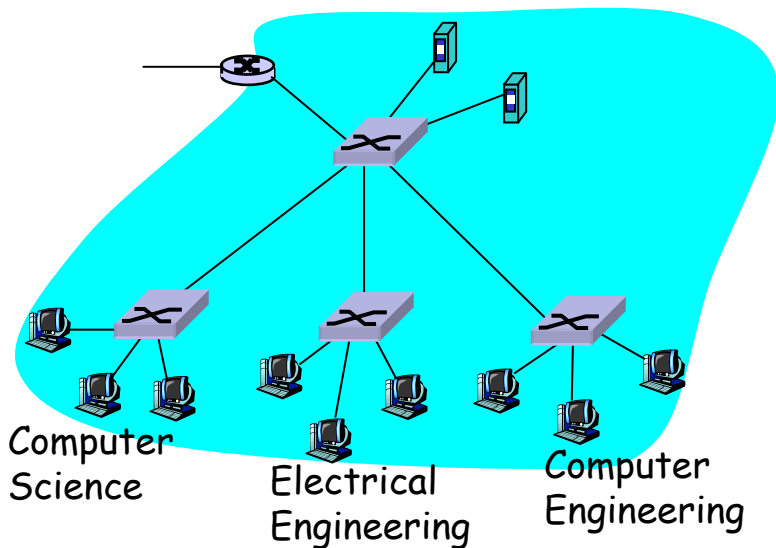


Summary comparison

	<u>hubs</u>	<u>routers</u>	<u>switches</u>
traffic isolation	no	yes	yes
plug & play	yes	no	yes
optimal routing	no	yes	no

VLANs: motivation

What's wrong with this picture?



What happens if:

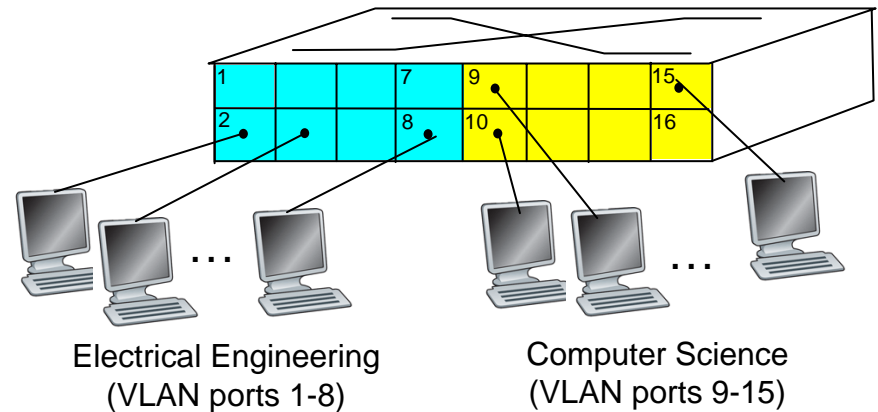
- ❑ CS user moves office to EE, but wants connect to CS switch?
- ❑ single broadcast domain:
 - all layer-2 broadcast traffic (ARP, DHCP) crosses entire LAN (security/privacy, efficiency issues)
- ❑ each lowest level switch has only few ports in use

VLANs

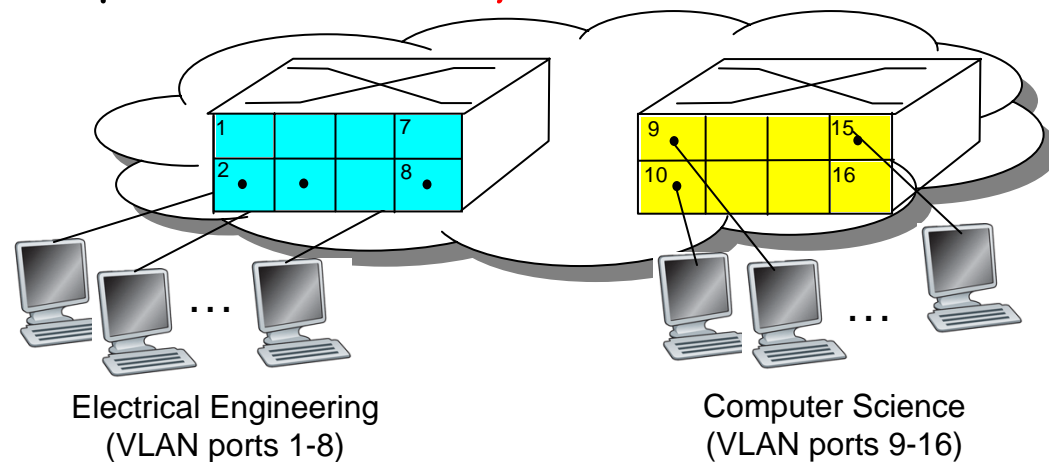
Virtual Local Area Network

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

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

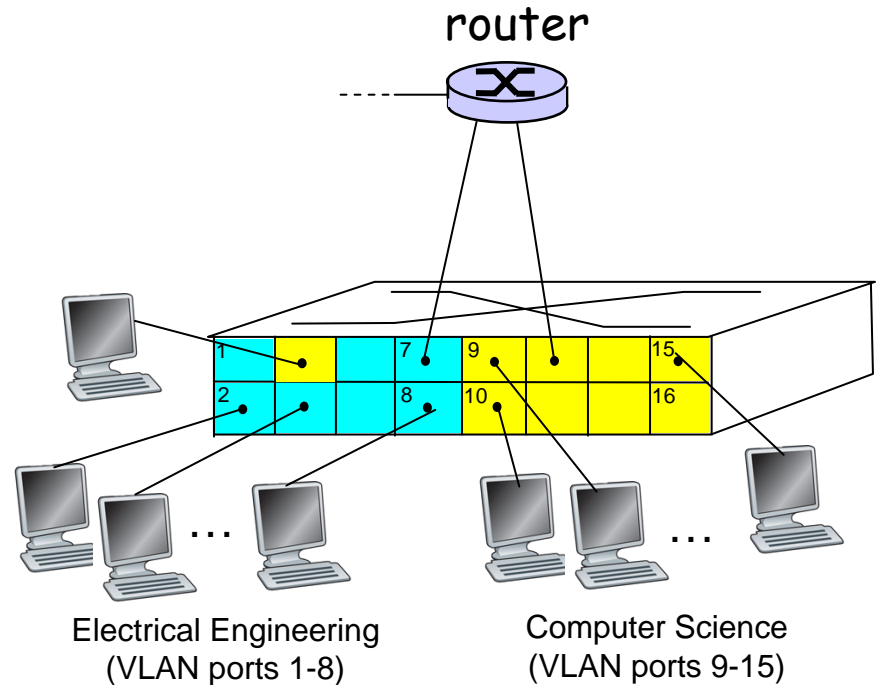


... operates as *multiple* virtual switches

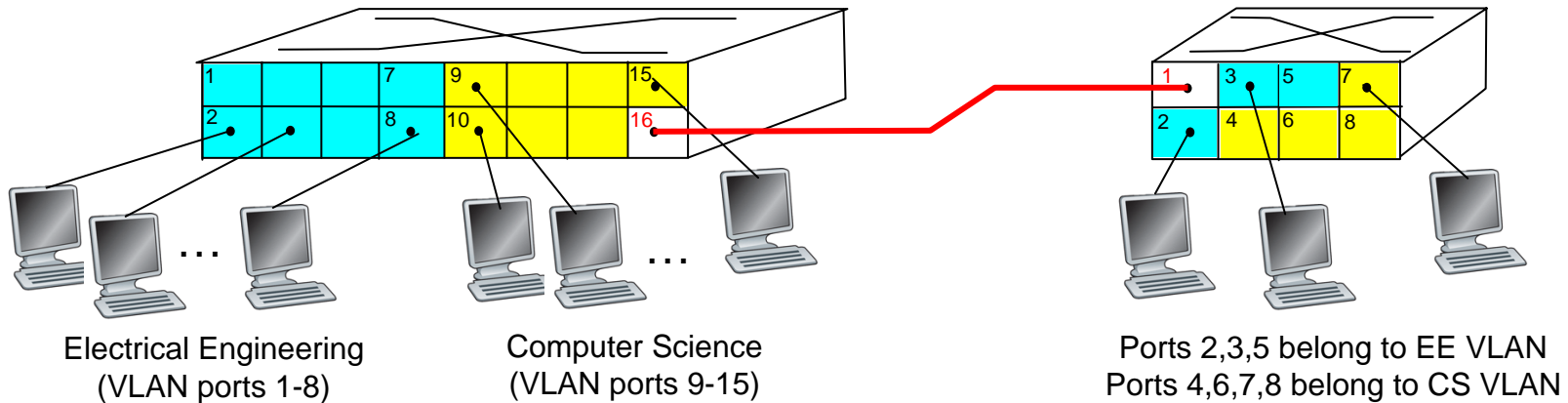


Port-based VLAN

- ❑ *traffic isolation*: frames to/from ports 1-8 can *only* reach ports 1-8
 - can also define VLAN based on MAC addresses of endpoints, rather than switch port
- ❑ *dynamic membership*: ports can be dynamically assigned among VLANs
- ❑ *forwarding between VLANs*: done via routing (just as with separate switches)
 - in practice vendors sell combined switches plus routers

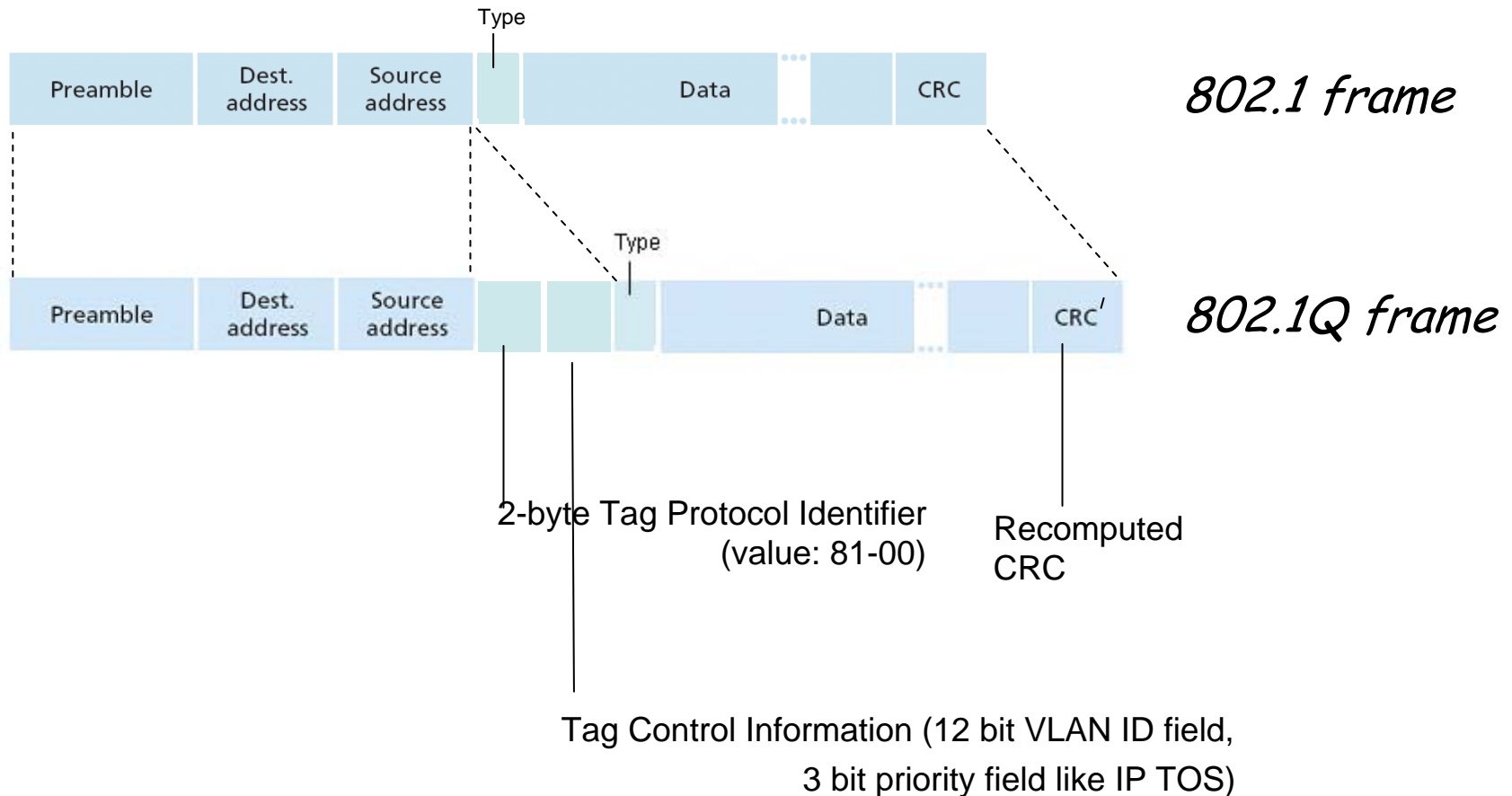


VLANs spanning multiple switches



- ❑ **trunk port:** carries frames between VLANs defined over multiple physical switches
 - frames forwarded within VLAN between switches can't be vanilla 802.1 frames (must carry VLAN ID info)
 - 802.1q protocol adds/removes additional header fields for frames forwarded between trunk ports

802.1Q VLAN frame format



Point to Point Data Link Control

- ❑ one sender, one receiver, one link: easier than broadcast link:
 - no Media Access Control
 - no need for explicit MAC addressing
 - e.g., dialup link, ISDN line
- ❑ popular point-to-point DLC protocols:
 - PPP (point-to-point protocol)
 - HDLC: High level data link control (Data link used to be considered “high layer” in protocol stack!)

PPP Design Requirements [RFC 1557]

- ❑ **packet framing:** encapsulation of network-layer datagram in data link frame
 - carry network layer data of any network layer protocol (not just IP) *at same time*
 - ability to demultiplex upwards
- ❑ **bit transparency:** must carry any bit pattern in the data field
- ❑ **error detection** (no correction)
- ❑ **connection liveness:** detect, signal link failure to network layer
- ❑ **network layer address negotiation:** endpoint can learn/configure each other's network address

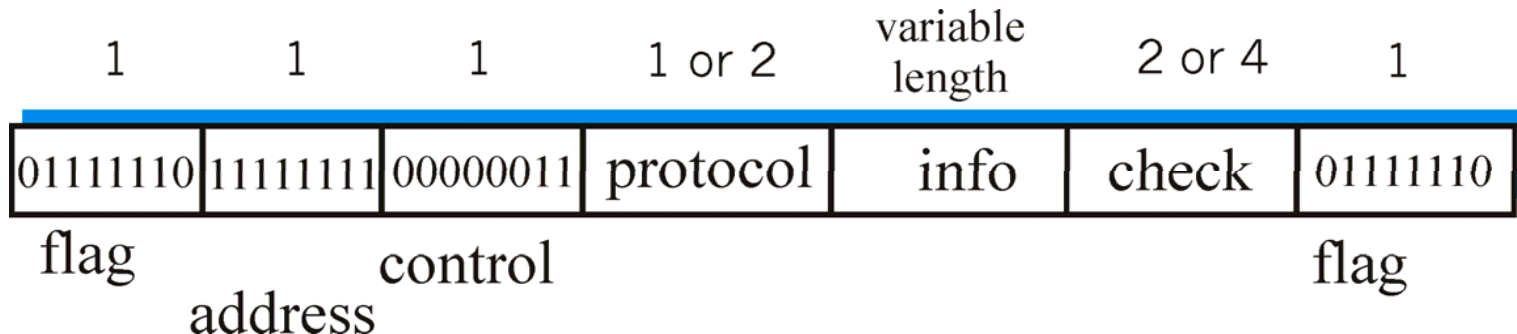
PPP non-requirements

- ❑ no error correction/recovery
- ❑ no flow control
- ❑ out of order delivery OK
- ❑ no need to support multipoint links (e.g., polling)

Error recovery, flow control, data re-ordering
all relegated to higher layers!

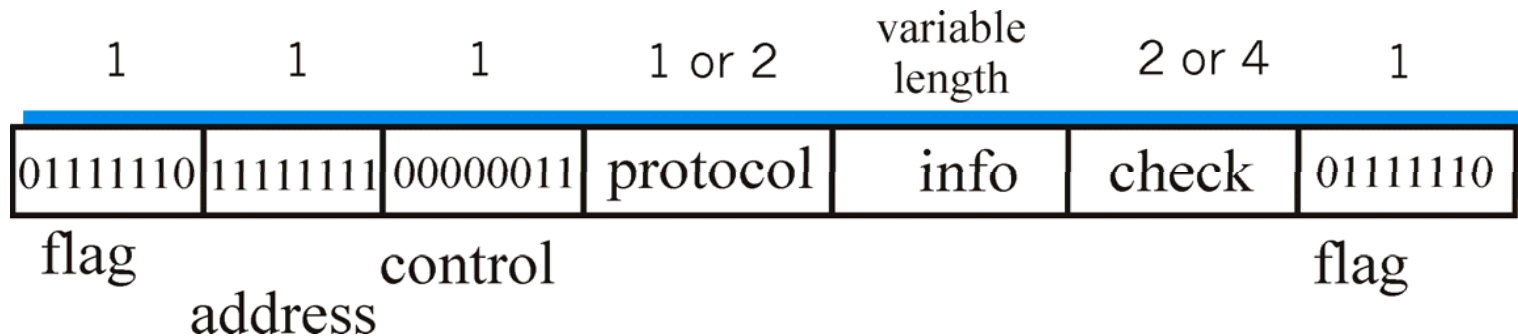
PPP Data Frame

- ❑ **Flag:** delimiter (framing)
- ❑ **Address:** does nothing (only one option)
- ❑ **Control:** does nothing; in the future possible multiple control fields
- ❑ **Protocol:** upper layer protocol to which frame delivered (eg, PPP-LCP, IP, IPCP, etc)



PPP Data Frame

- **info**: upper layer data being carried
- **check**: cyclic redundancy check for error detection

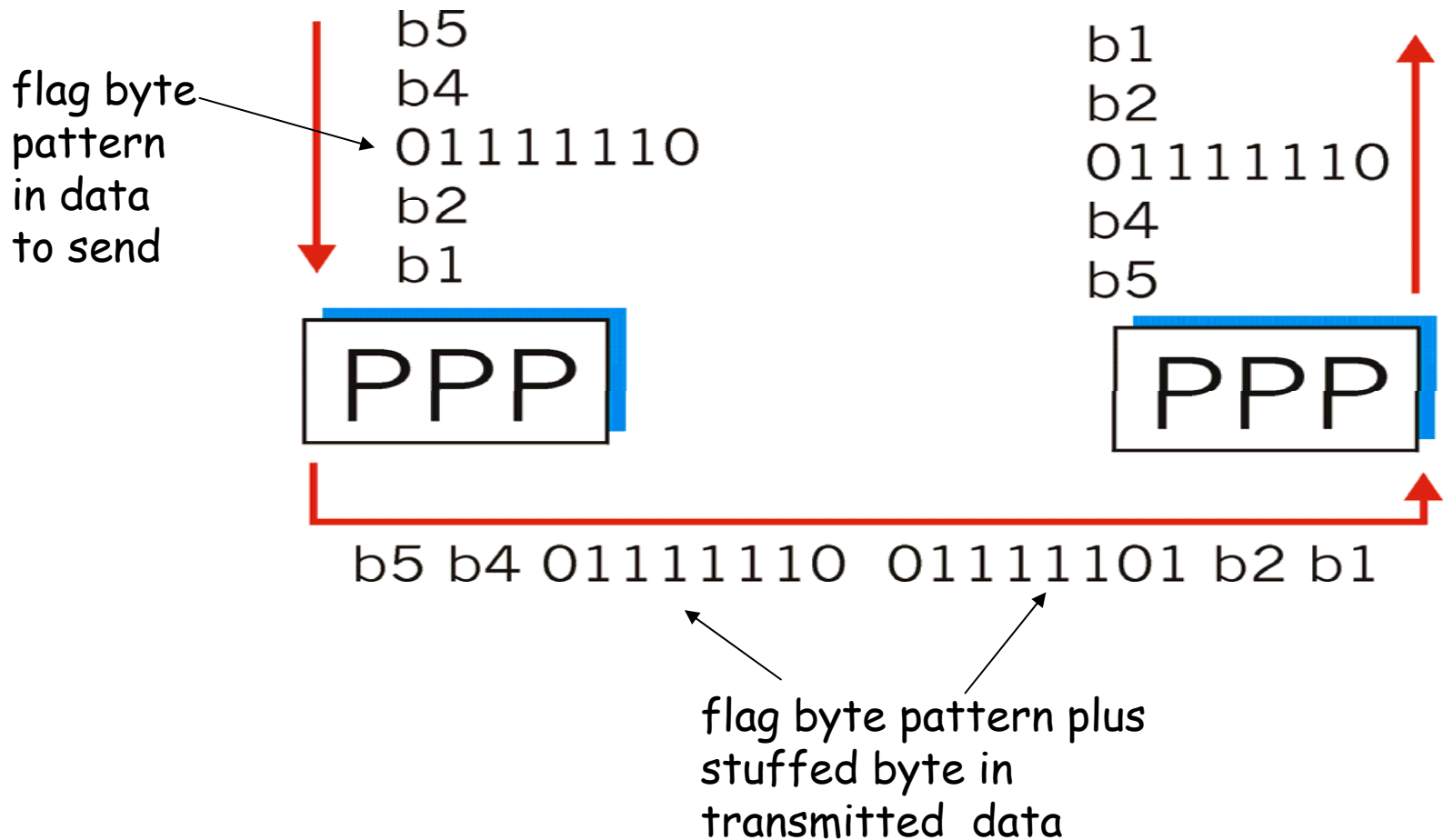


Byte Stuffing

- ❑ “data transparency” requirement: data field must be allowed to include flag pattern <01111110>
 - Q: is received <01111110> data or flag?

- ❑ **Sender**: adds (“stuffs”) extra < 01111110> byte after each < 01111110> *data* byte
- ❑ **Receiver**:
 - two 01111110 bytes in a row: discard first byte, continue data reception
 - single 01111110: flag byte

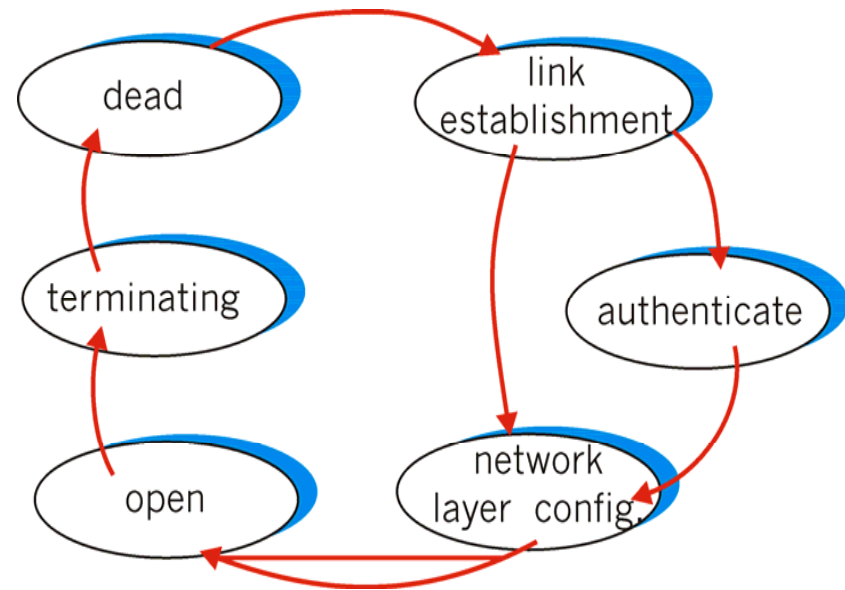
Byte Stuffing



PPP Data Control Protocol

Before exchanging network-layer data, data link peers must

- ❑ **configure PPP link** (max. frame length, authentication)
- ❑ **learn/configure network** layer information
 - for IP: carry IP Control Protocol (IPCP) msgs (protocol field: 8021) to configure/learn IP address



ATM and MPLS

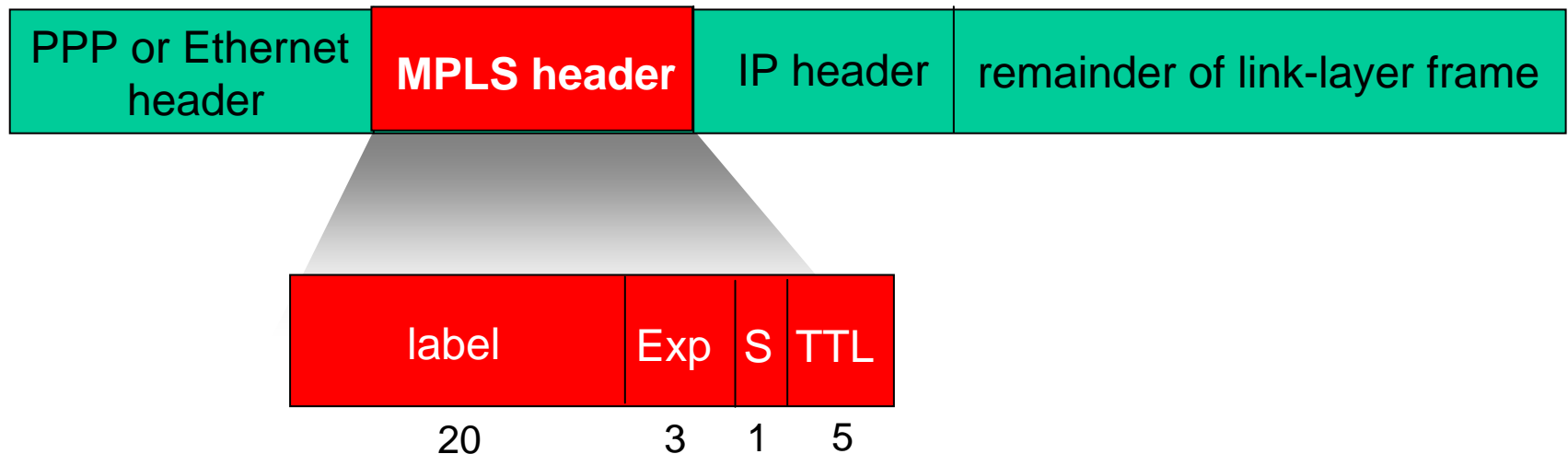
- ❑ ATM, MPLS separate networks in their own right
 - different service models, addressing, routing from Internet
- ❑ viewed by Internet as logical link connecting IP routers
 - just like dialup link is really part of separate network (telephone network)
- ❑ ATM, MPLS: of technical interest in their own right

Asynchronous Transfer Mode: ATM

- ❑ 1990's/00 standard for high-speed (155Mbps to 622 Mbps and higher) *Broadband Integrated Service Digital Network* architecture
- ❑ Goal: *integrated, end-end transport of carry voice, video, data*
 - meeting timing/QoS requirements of voice, video (versus Internet best-effort model)
 - "next generation" telephony: technical roots in telephone world
 - packet-switching (fixed length packets, called "cells") using virtual circuits

Multiprotocol label switching (MPLS)

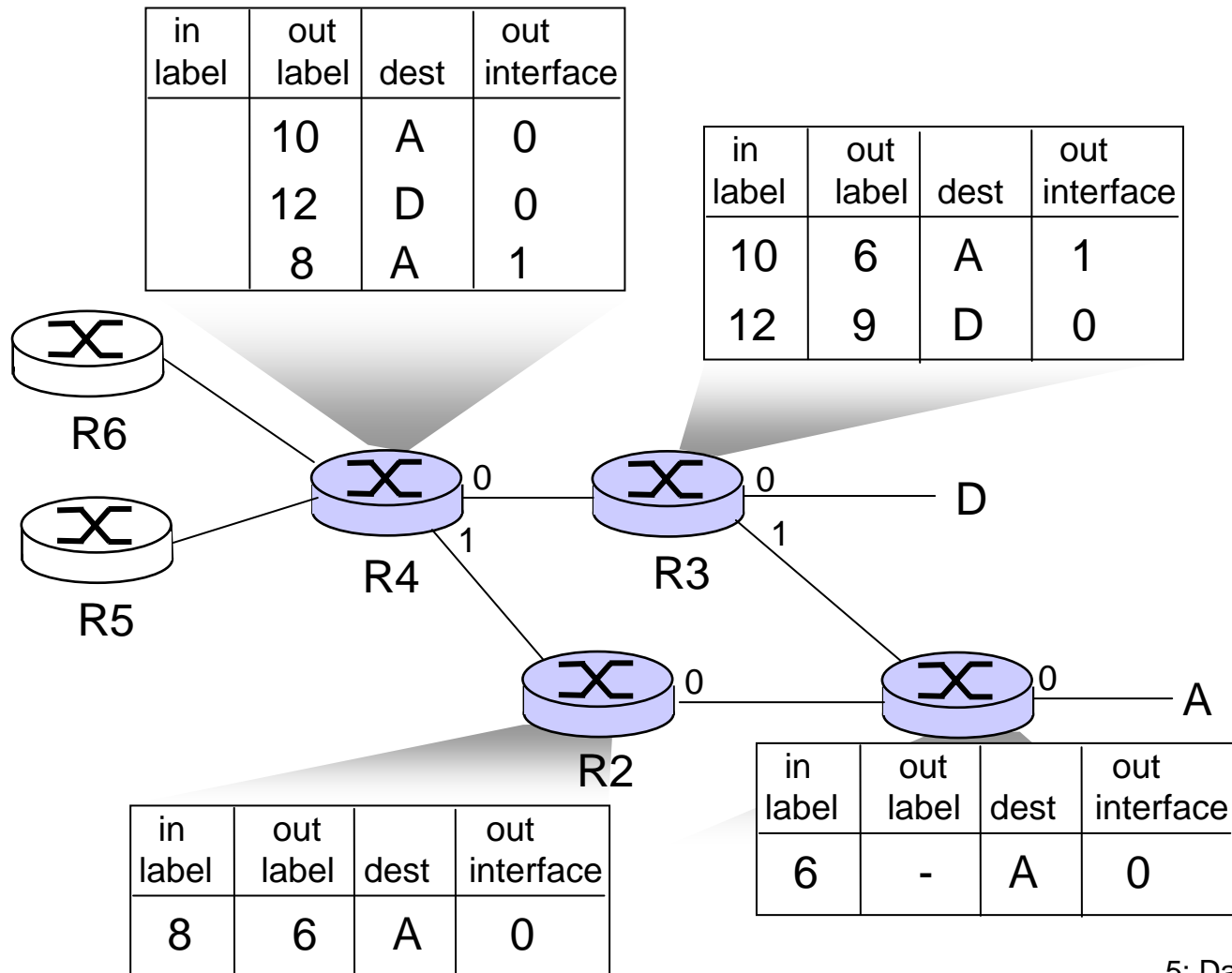
- initial goal: speed up IP forwarding by using fixed length label (instead of IP address) to do forwarding
 - borrowing ideas from Virtual Circuit (VC) approach
 - but IP datagram still keeps IP address!



MPLS capable routers

- ❑ a.k.a. label-switched router
- ❑ forwards packets to outgoing interface based only on label value (don't inspect IP address)
 - MPLS forwarding table distinct from IP forwarding tables
- ❑ signaling protocol needed to set up forwarding
 - RSVP-TE
 - forwarding possible along paths that IP alone would not allow (e.g., source-specific routing) !!
 - use MPLS for traffic engineering
- ❑ must co-exist with IP-only routers

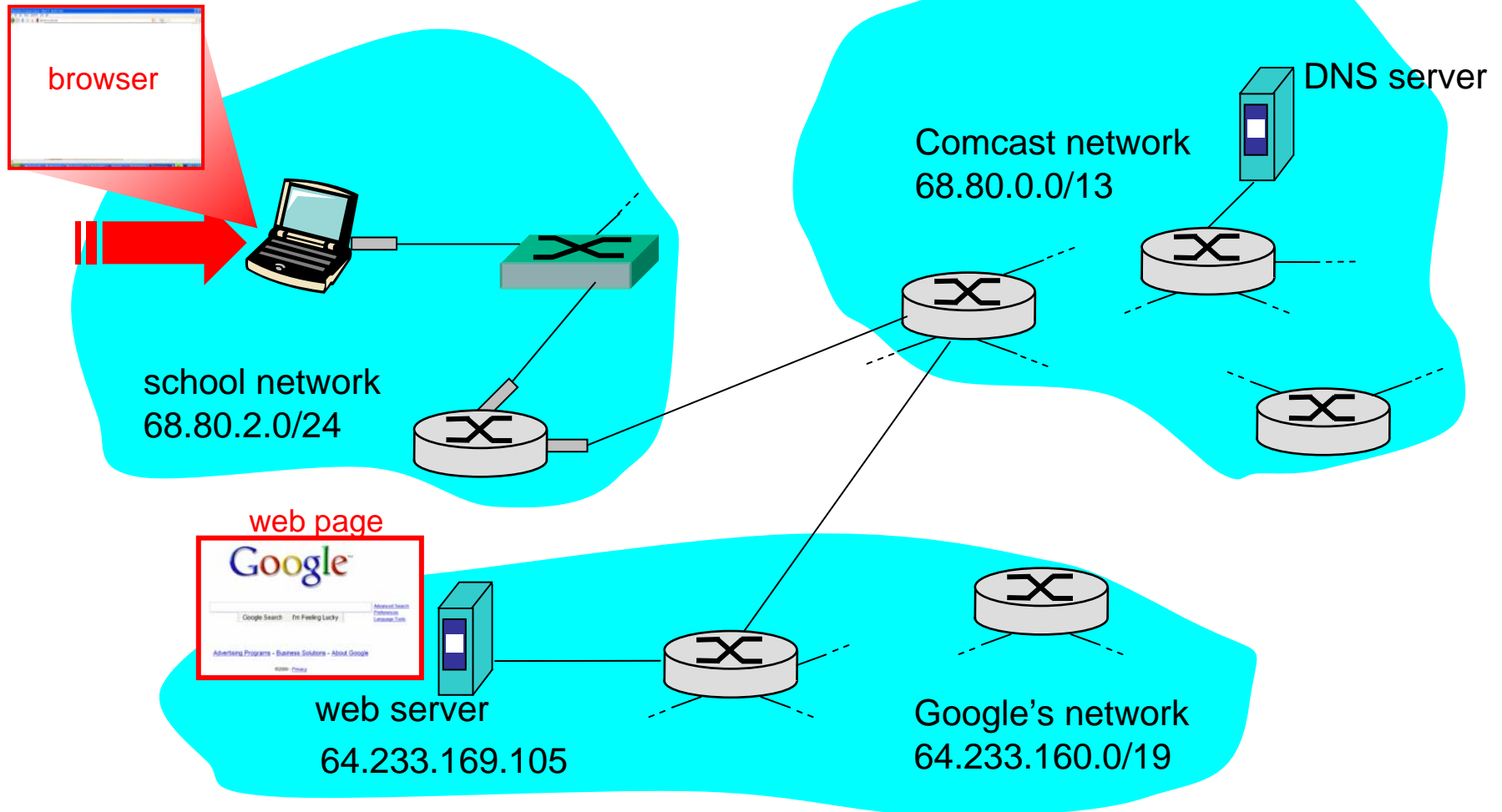
MPLS forwarding tables



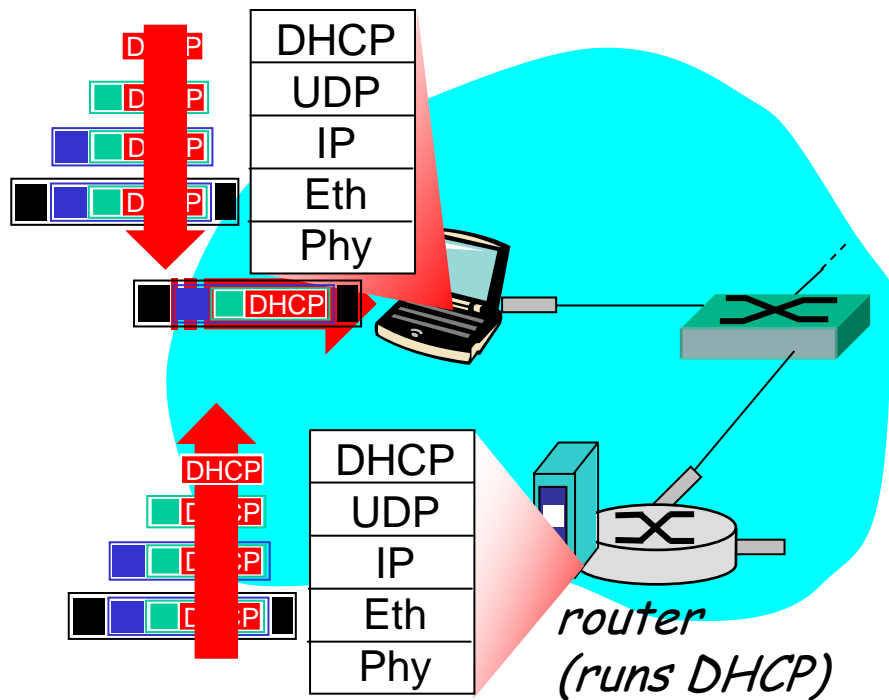
Synthesis: a day in the life of a web request

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

A day in the life: scenario

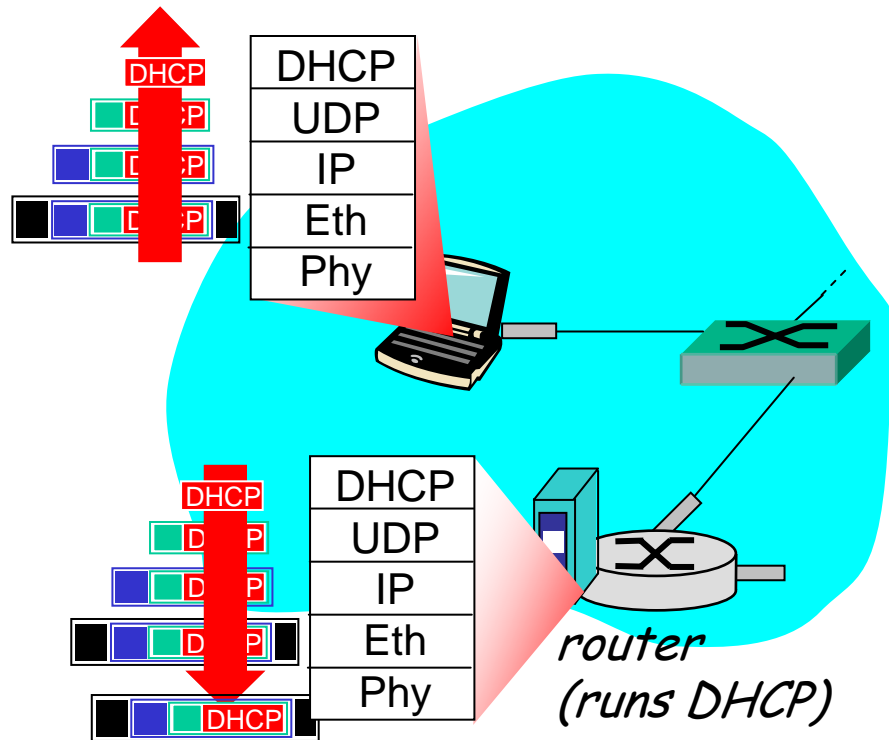


A day in the life... connecting to the Internet



- connecting laptop needs to get its own IP address, addr of first-hop router, addr of DNS server: use **DHCP**
- DHCP request **encapsulated** in **UDP**, encapsulated in **IP**, encapsulated in **802.1 Ethernet**
- Ethernet frame **broadcast** (dest: FFFFFFFFFFFFFFFF) on LAN, received at router running **DHCP** server
- Ethernet **demux'ed** to IP demux'ed, UDP demux'ed to DHCP

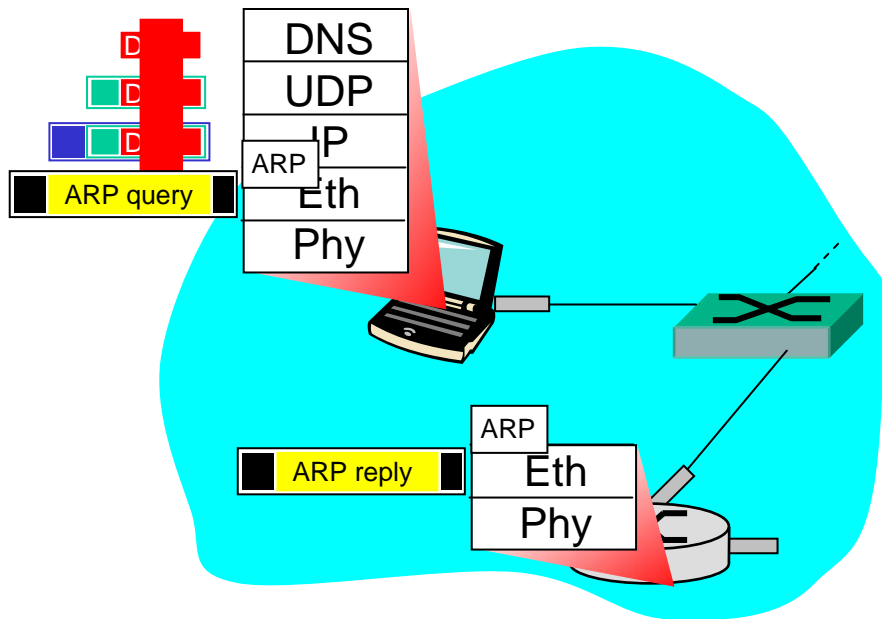
A day in the life... connecting to the Internet



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

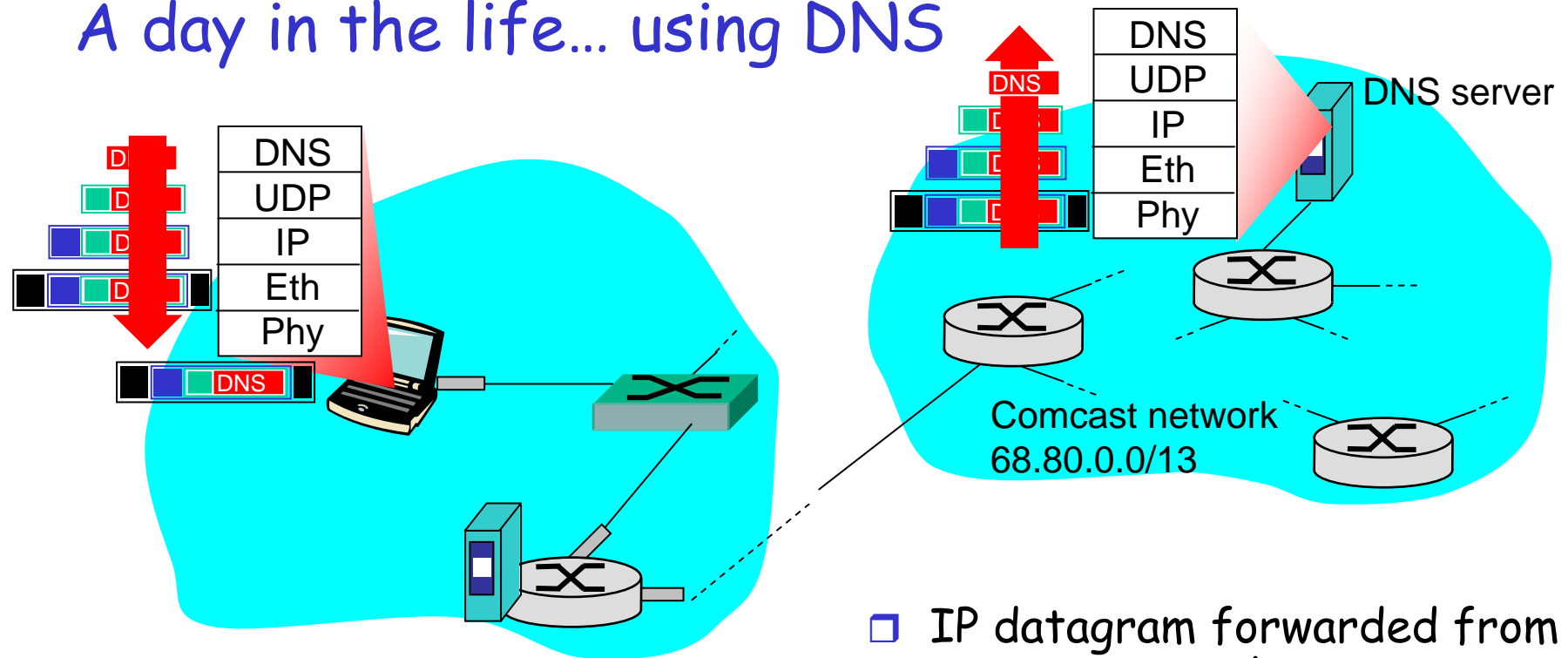
Client now has IP address, knows name & addr of DNS server, IP address of its first-hop router

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



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

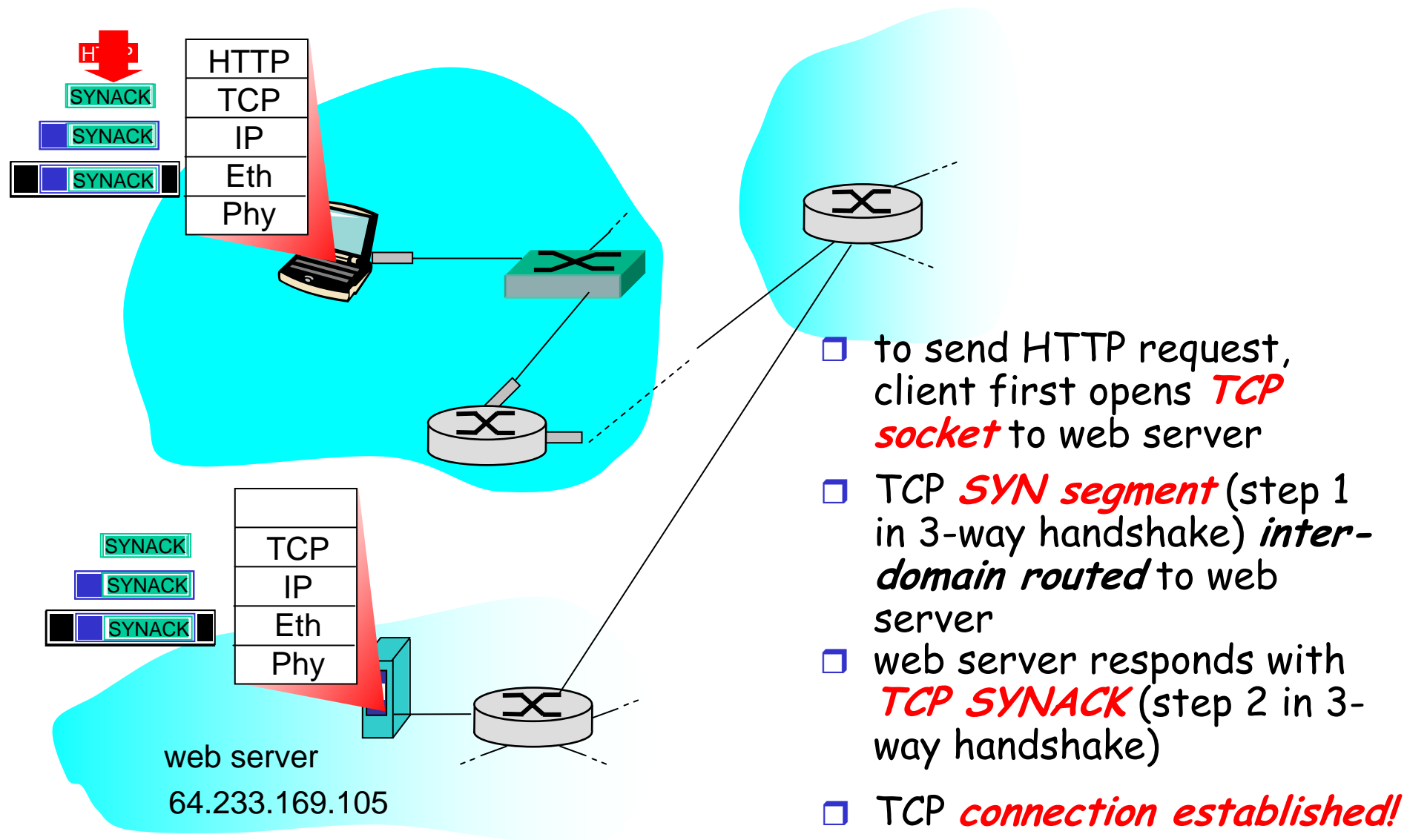
A day in the life... using DNS



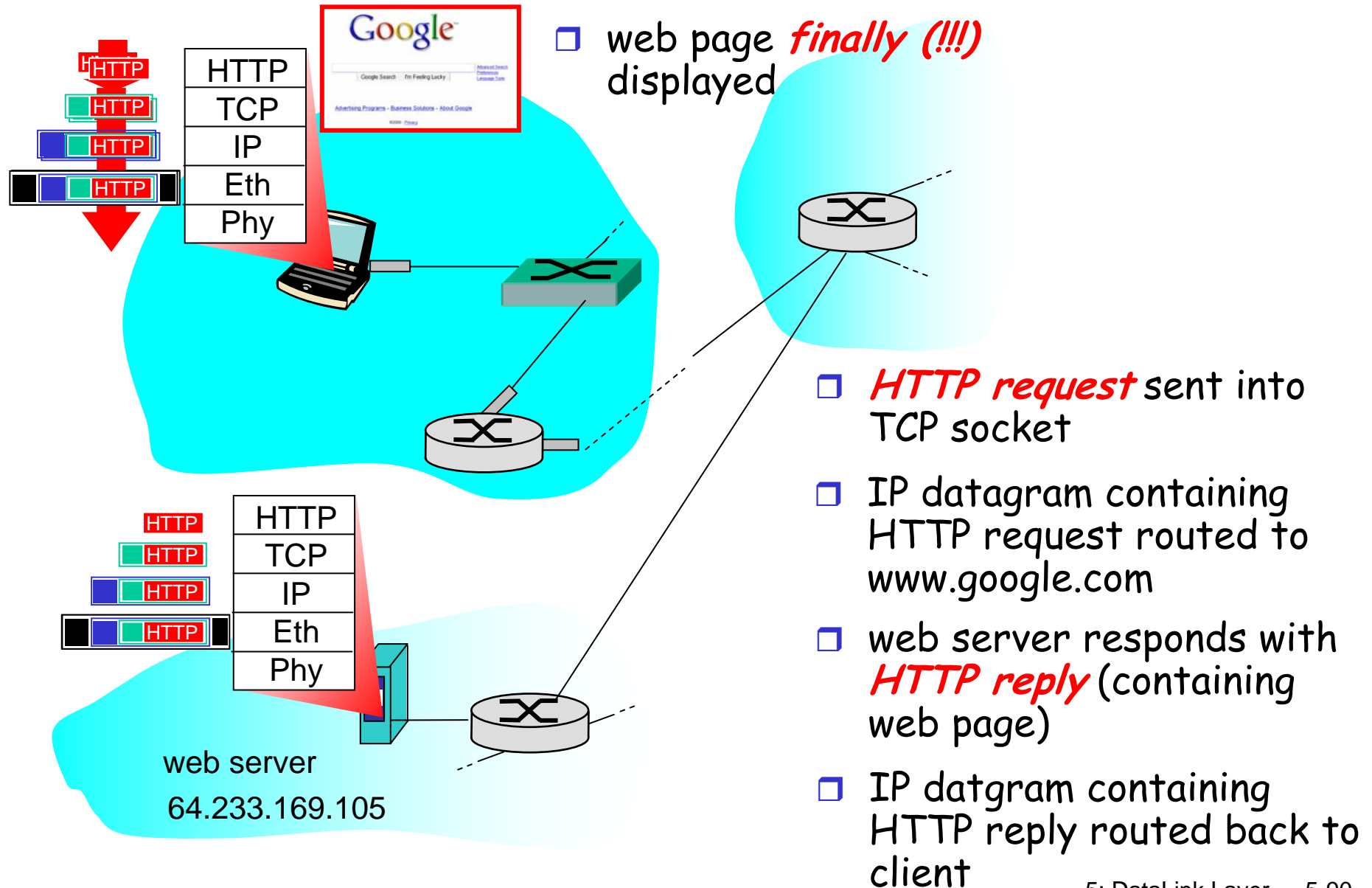
- ❑ IP datagram containing DNS query forwarded via LAN switch from client to 1st hop router

- ❑ IP datagram forwarded from campus network into comcast network, routed (tables created by *RIP, OSPF, IS-IS* and/or *BGP* routing protocols) to DNS server
- ❑ demux'ed to DNS server
- ❑ DNS server replies to client with IP address of www.google.com

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



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

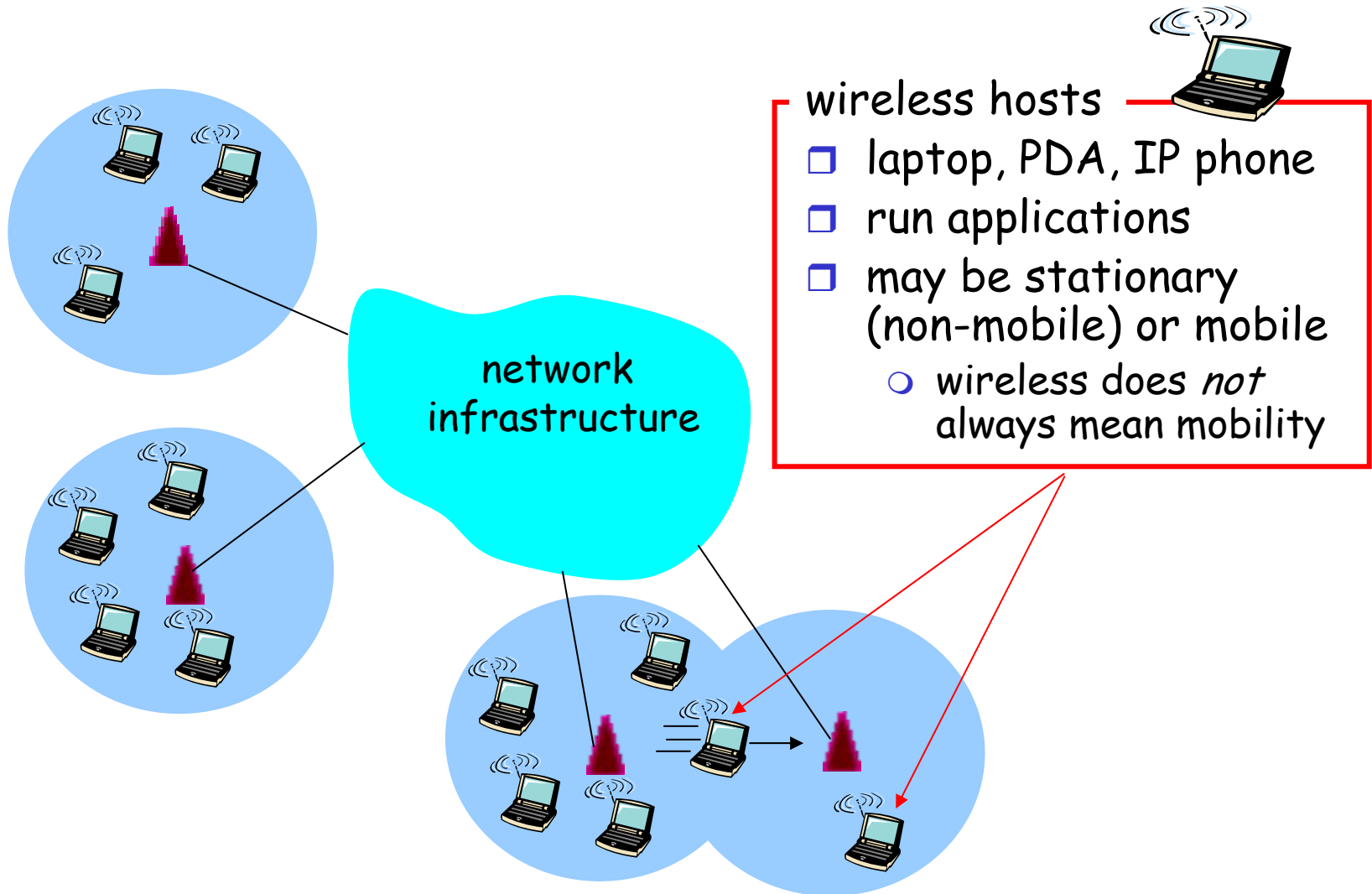


Chapter 6: Wireless and Mobile Networks

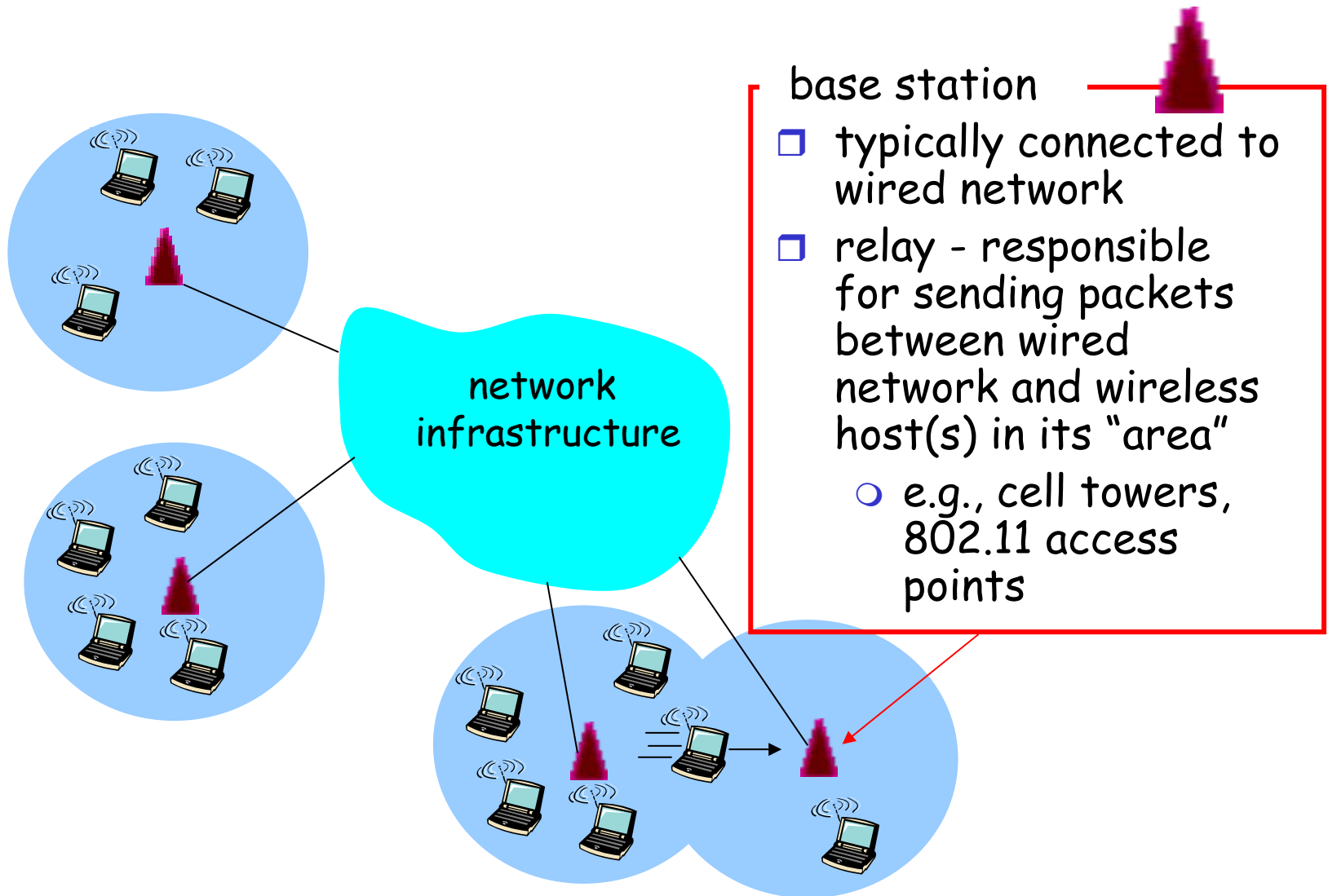
Background:

- ❑ # wireless (mobile) phone subscribers now exceeds # wired phone subscribers!
- ❑ computer nets: laptops, palmtops, PDAs, Internet-enabled phone promise anytime untethered Internet access
- ❑ two important (but different) challenges
 - *wireless*: communication over wireless link
 - *mobility*: handling the mobile user who changes point of attachment to network

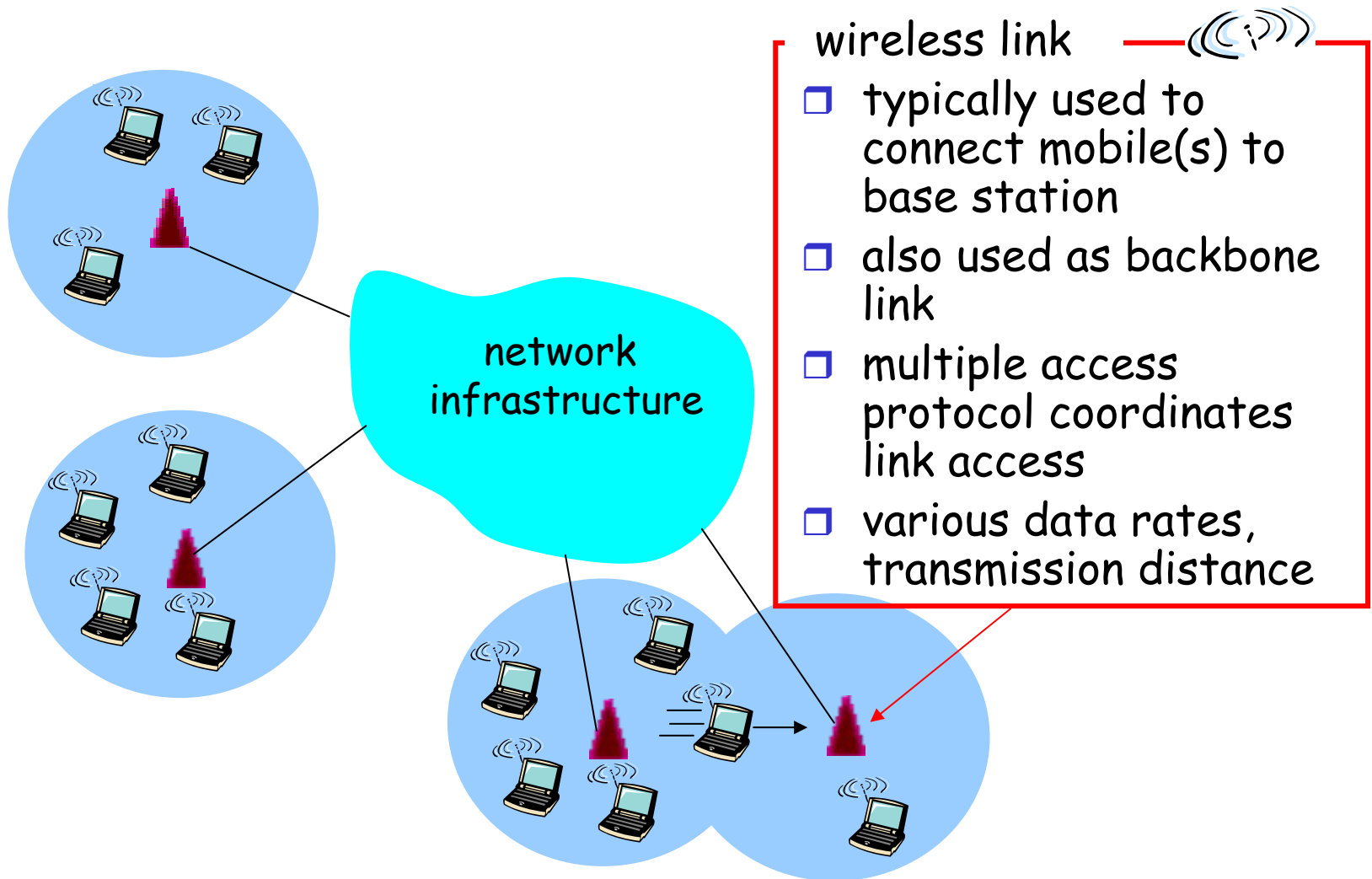
Elements of a wireless network



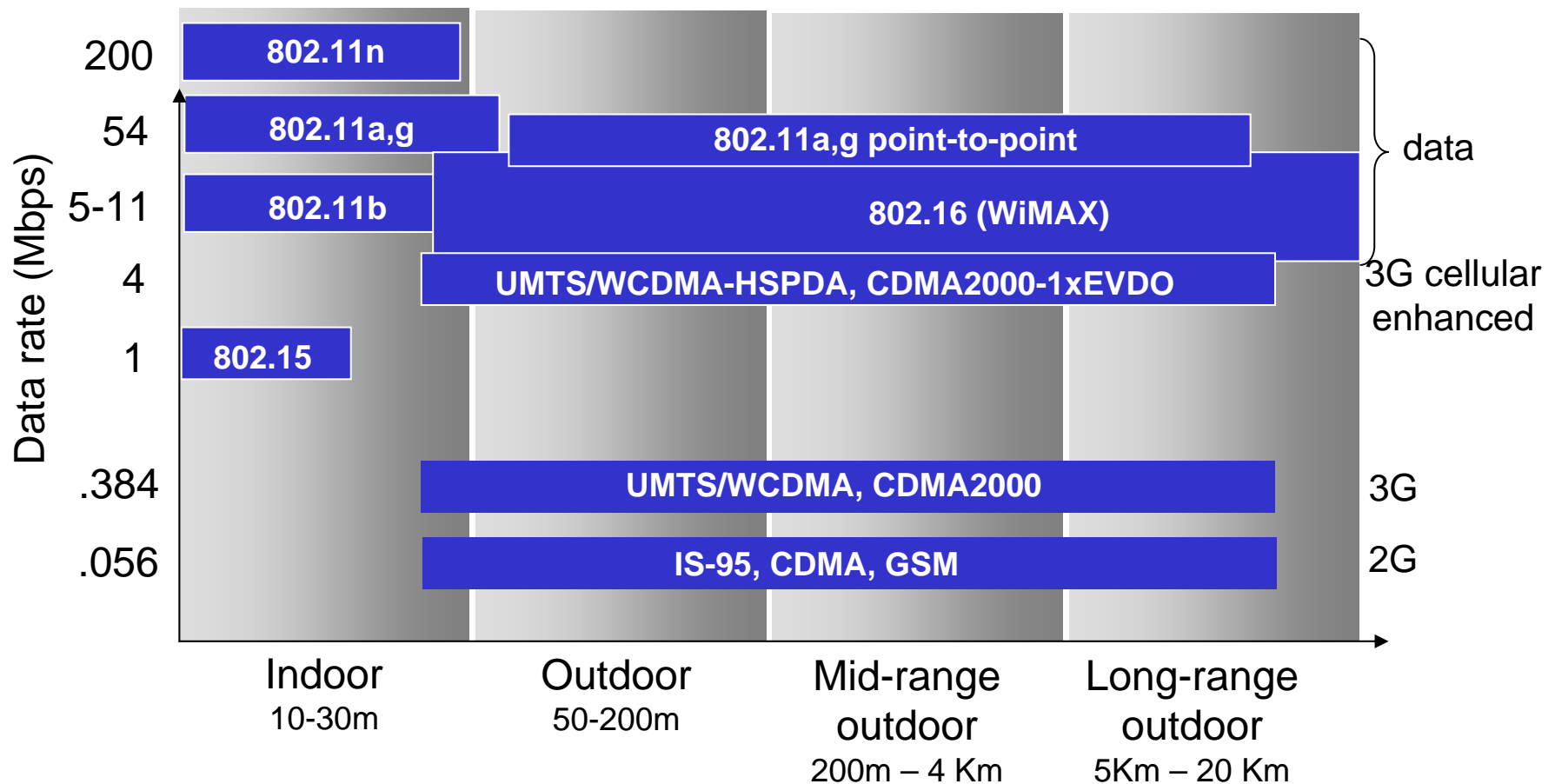
Elements of a wireless network



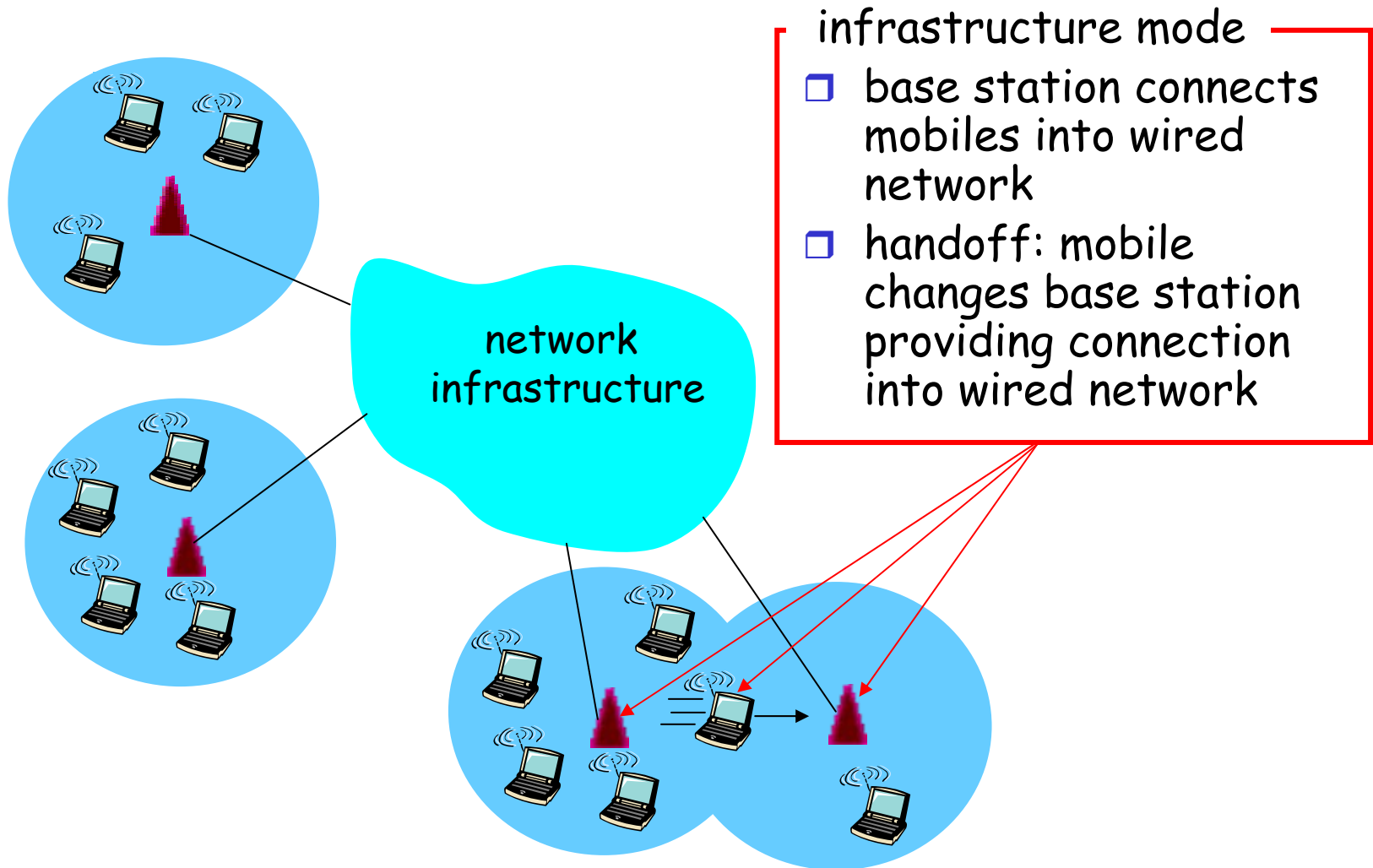
Elements of a wireless network



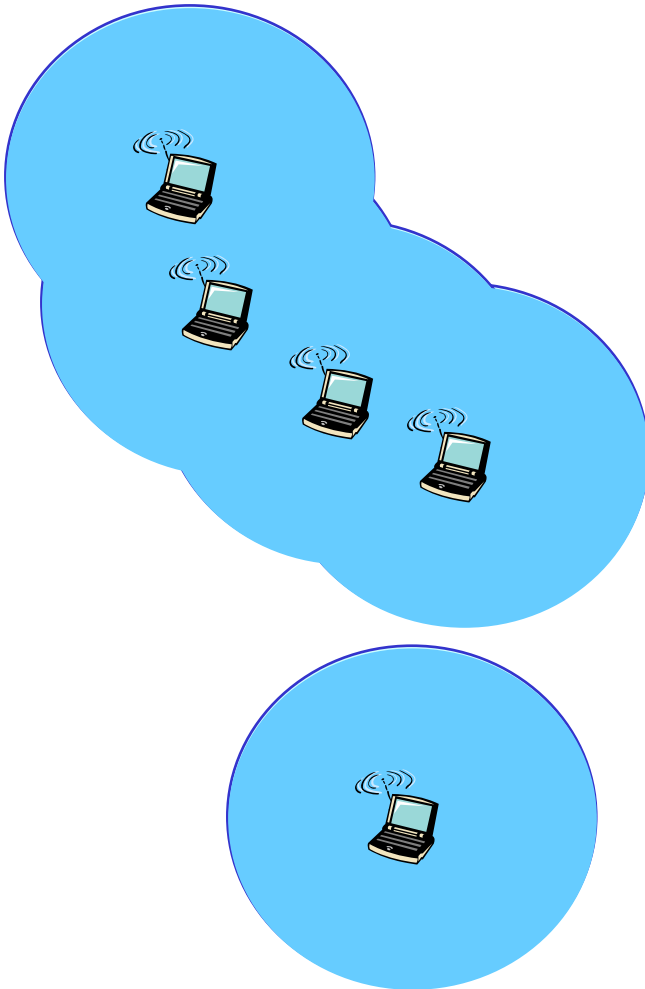
Characteristics of selected wireless link standards



Elements of a wireless network



Elements of a wireless network



ad hoc mode

- ❑ no base stations
- ❑ nodes can only transmit to other nodes within link coverage
- ❑ nodes organize themselves into a network: route among themselves

Wireless network taxonomy

	single hop	multiple hops
infrastructure (e.g., APs)	host connects to base station (WiFi, WiMAX, cellular) which connects to larger Internet	host may have to relay through several wireless nodes to connect to larger Internet: <i>mesh net</i>
no infrastructure	no base station, no connection to larger Internet (Bluetooth, ad hoc nets)	no base station, no connection to larger Internet. May have to relay to reach other a given wireless node MANET, VANET

Wireless Link Characteristics (1)

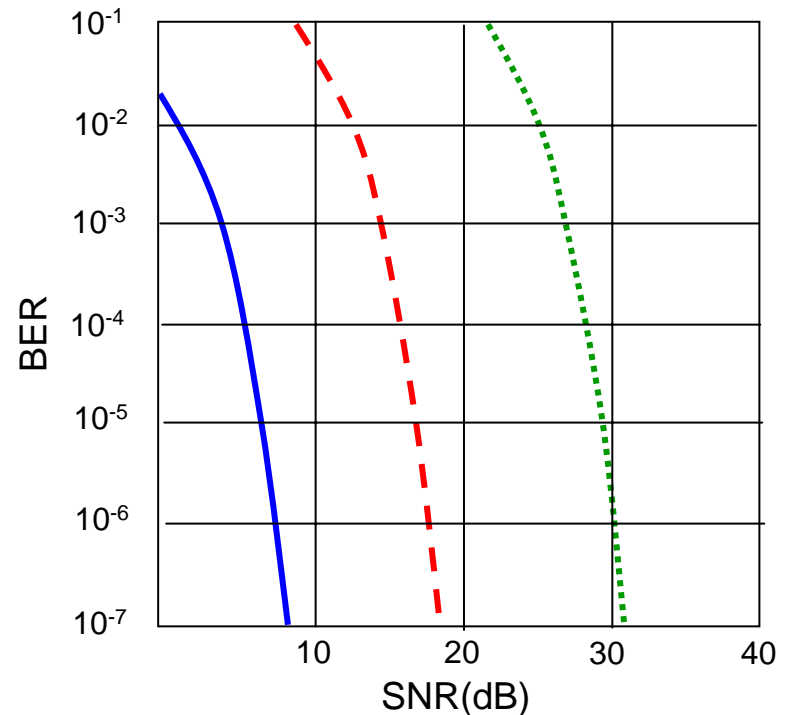
Differences from wired link

- **decreased signal strength:** radio signal attenuates as it propagates through matter (path loss)
- **interference from other sources:** standardized wireless network frequencies (e.g., 2.4 GHz) shared by other devices (e.g., phone); devices (motors) interfere as well
- **multipath propagation:** radio signal reflects off objects, arriving at destination at slightly different times

.... make communication across (even a point to point) wireless link much more "difficult"

Wireless Link Characteristics (2)

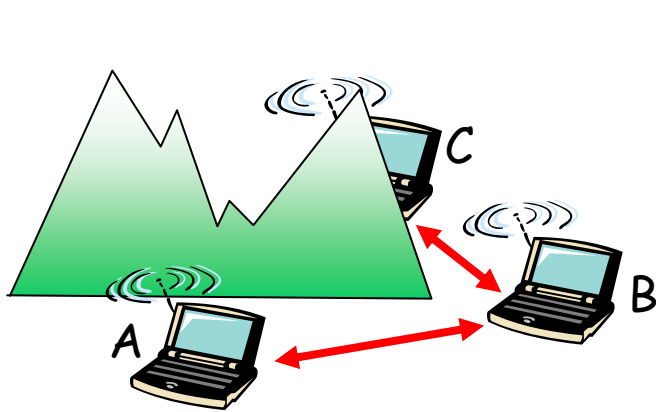
- SNR: signal-to-noise ratio
 - larger SNR - easier to extract signal from noise (a “good thing”)
- *SNR versus BER tradeoffs*
 - *given physical layer:*
increase power → increase SNR → decrease BER
 - *given SNR:* choose physical layer that meets BER requirement, giving highest throughput
 - SNR may change with mobility: dynamically adapt physical layer (modulation technique, rate)



- QAM256 (8 Mbps)
- - - QAM16 (4 Mbps)
- BPSK (1 Mbps)

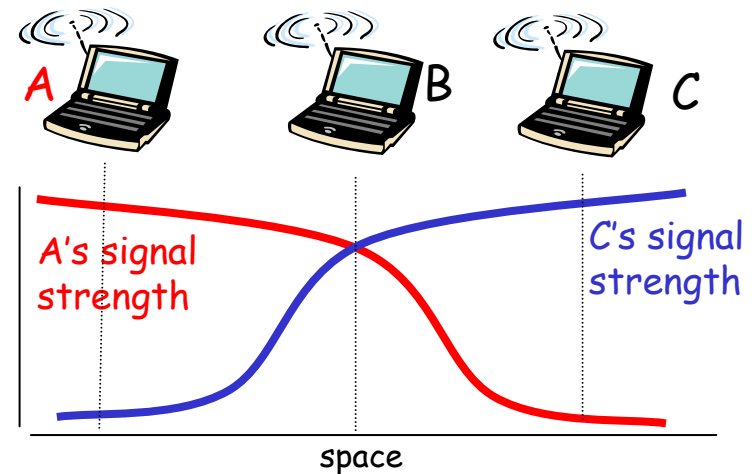
Wireless network characteristics

Multiple wireless senders and receivers create additional problems (beyond multiple access):



Hidden terminal problem

- ☐ B, A hear each other
 - ☐ B, C hear each other
 - ☐ A, C can not hear each other
- means A, C unaware of their interference at B



Signal attenuation:

- ☐ B, A hear each other
- ☐ B, C hear each other
- ☐ A, C can not hear each other interfering at B

IEEE 802.11 Wireless LAN

❑ 802.11b

- 2.4-5 GHz unlicensed spectrum
- up to 11 Mbps
- direct sequence spread spectrum (DSSS) in physical layer
 - all hosts use same chipping code

❑ 802.11a

- 5-6 GHz range
- up to 54 Mbps

❑ 802.11g

- 2.4-5 GHz range
- up to 54 Mbps

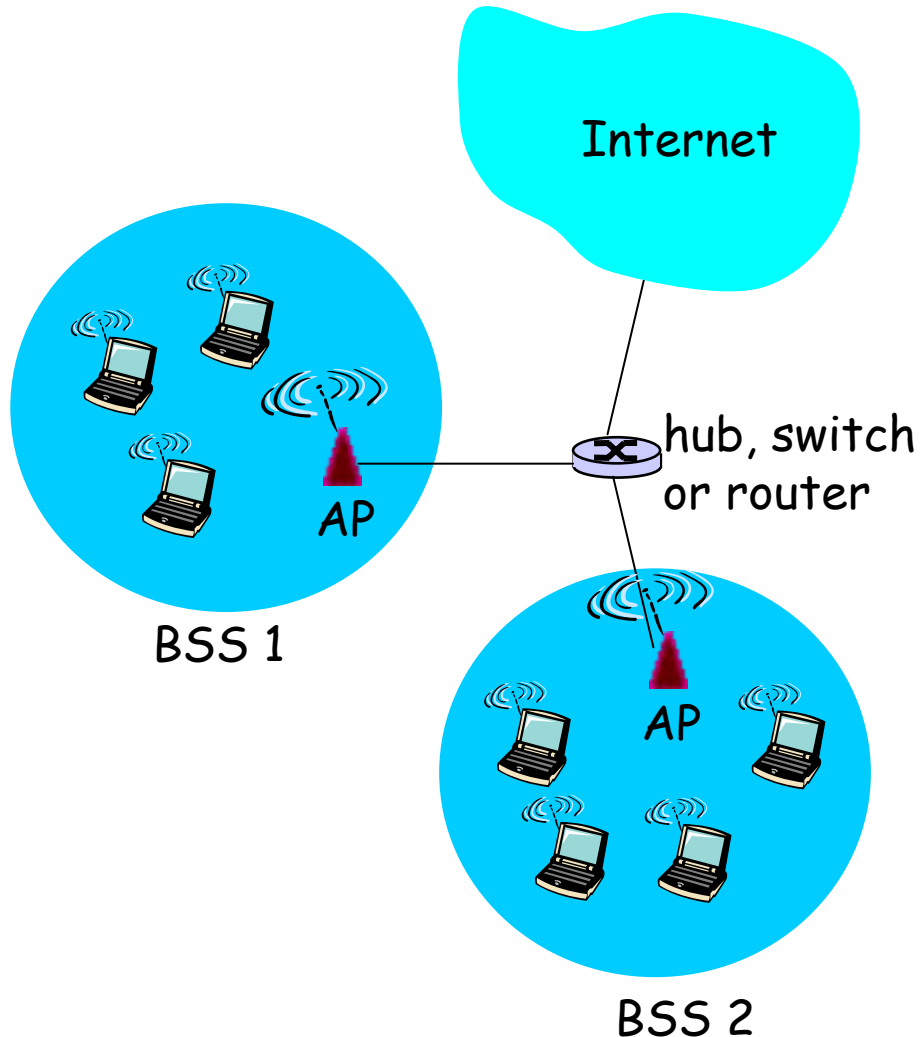
❑ 802.11n: multiple antennae

- 2.4-5 GHz range
- up to 200 Mbps

❑ all use CSMA/CA for multiple access

❑ all have base-station and ad-hoc network versions

802.11 LAN architecture

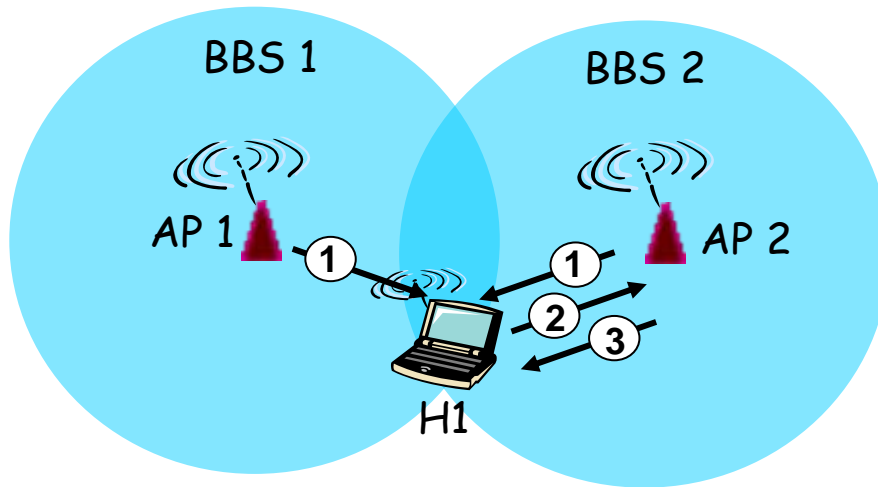


- ❑ wireless host communicates with base station
 - base station = access point (AP)
- ❑ Basic Service Set (BSS) (aka "cell") in infrastructure mode contains:
 - wireless hosts
 - access point (AP): base station
 - ad hoc mode: hosts only

802.11: Channels, association

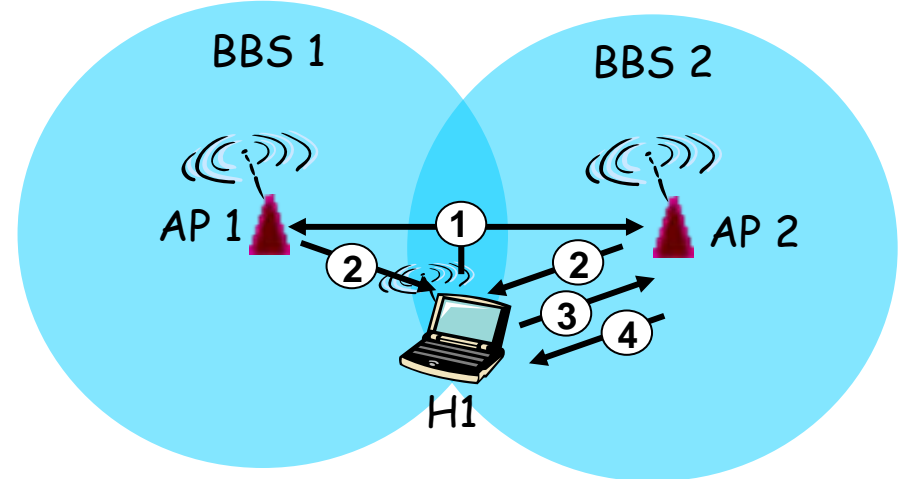
- ❑ 802.11b: 2.4GHz-2.485GHz spectrum divided into 11 channels at different frequencies
 - AP admin chooses frequency for AP
 - interference possible: channel can be same as that chosen by neighboring AP!
- ❑ host: must *associate* with an AP
 - scans channels, listening for *beacon frames* containing AP's name (SSID) and MAC address
 - selects AP to associate with
 - may perform authentication [Chapter 8]
 - will typically run DHCP to get IP address in AP's subnet

802.11: passive/active scanning



Passive Scanning:

- (1) beacon frames sent from APs
- (2) association request frame sent: H1 to selected AP
- (3) association response frame sent: H1 to selected AP

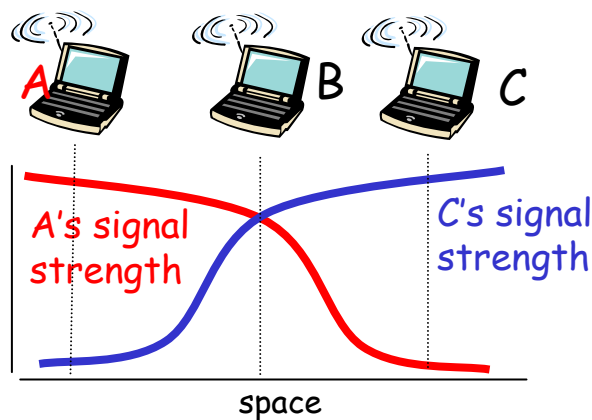
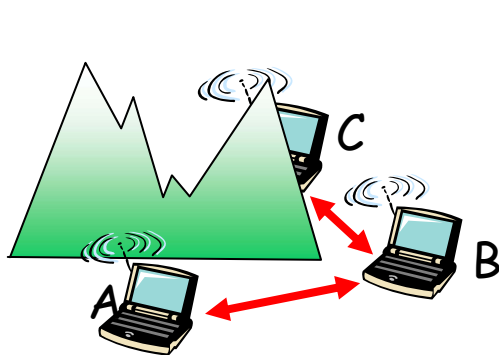


Active Scanning:

- (1) probe request frame broadcast from H1
- (2) probe response frame sent from APs
- (3) association request frame sent: H1 to selected AP
- (4) association response frame sent: H1 to selected AP

IEEE 802.11: multiple access

- ❑ avoid collisions: 2+ nodes transmitting at same time
- ❑ 802.11: CSMA - sense before transmitting
 - don't collide with ongoing transmission by other node
- ❑ 802.11: *no* collision detection!
 - difficult to receive (sense collisions) when transmitting due to weak received signals (fading)
 - can't sense all collisions in any case: hidden terminal, fading
 - goal: *avoid collisions*: CSMA/C(ollision)A(avoidance)



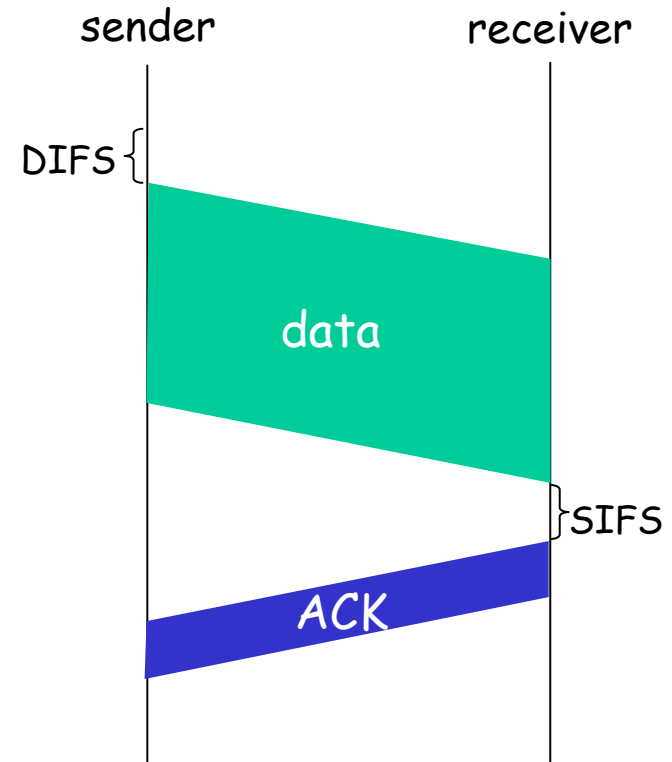
IEEE 802.11 MAC Protocol: CSMA/CA

802.11 sender

- 1 if sense channel idle for **DIFS** then
transmit entire frame (no CD)
- 2 if sense channel busy then
start random backoff time
timer counts down while channel idle
transmit when timer expires
if no ACK, increase random backoff
interval, repeat 2

802.11 receiver

- if frame received OK
return ACK after **SIFS** (ACK needed due
to hidden terminal problem)



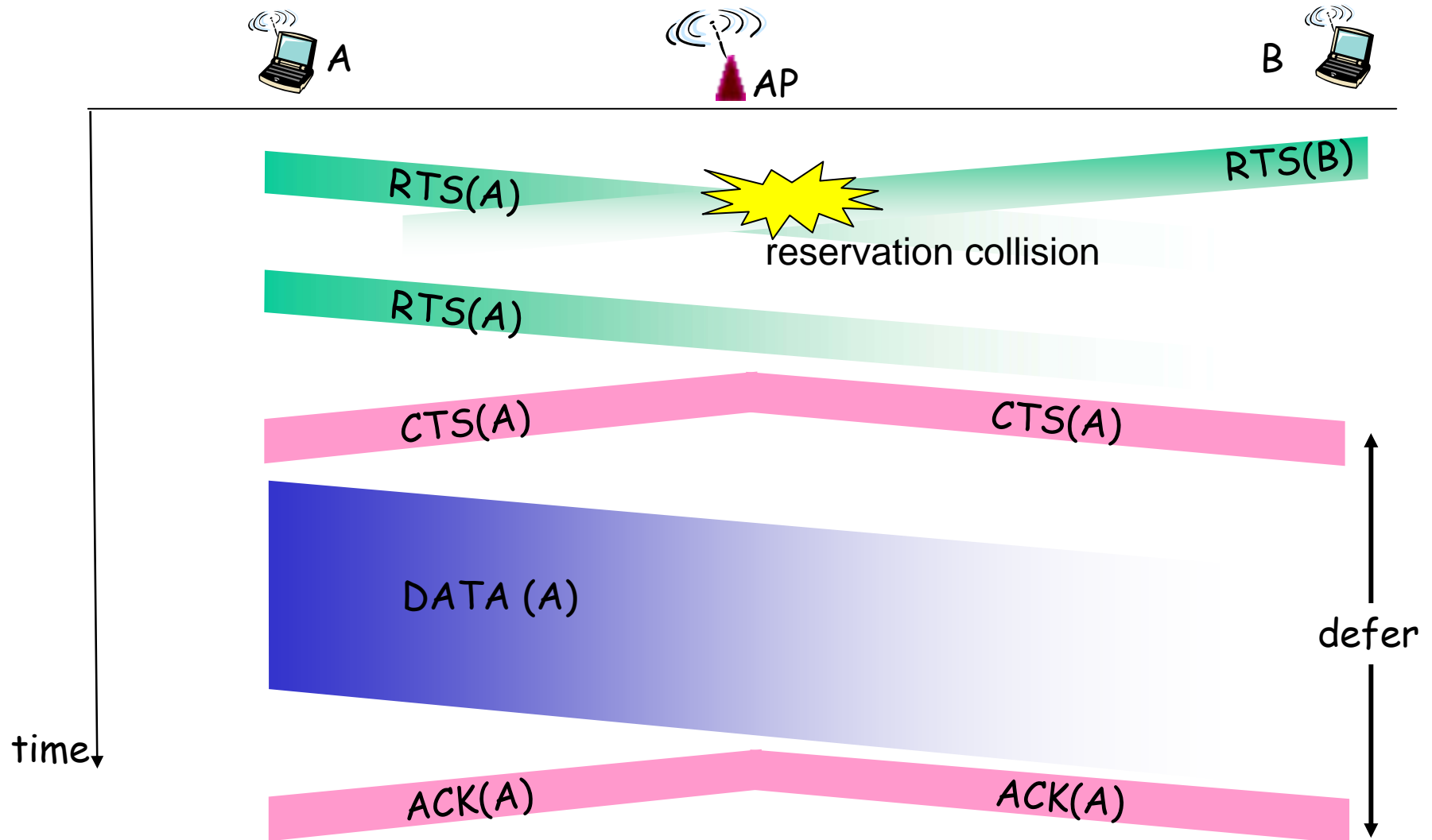
Avoiding collisions (more)

idea: allow sender to “reserve” channel rather than random access of data frames: avoid collisions of long data frames

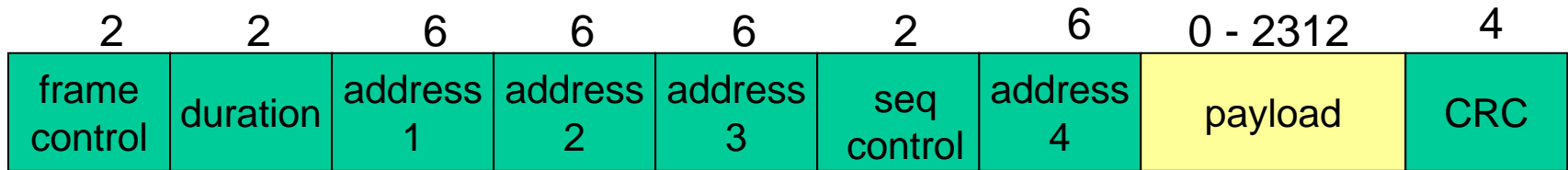
- ❑ sender first transmits *small* request-to-send (RTS) packets to BS using CSMA
 - RTSs may still collide with each other (but they're short)
- ❑ BS broadcasts clear-to-send CTS in response to RTS
- ❑ CTS heard by all nodes
 - sender transmits data frame
 - other stations defer transmissions

avoid data frame collisions completely
using small reservation packets!

Collision Avoidance: RTS-CTS exchange



802.11 frame: addressing



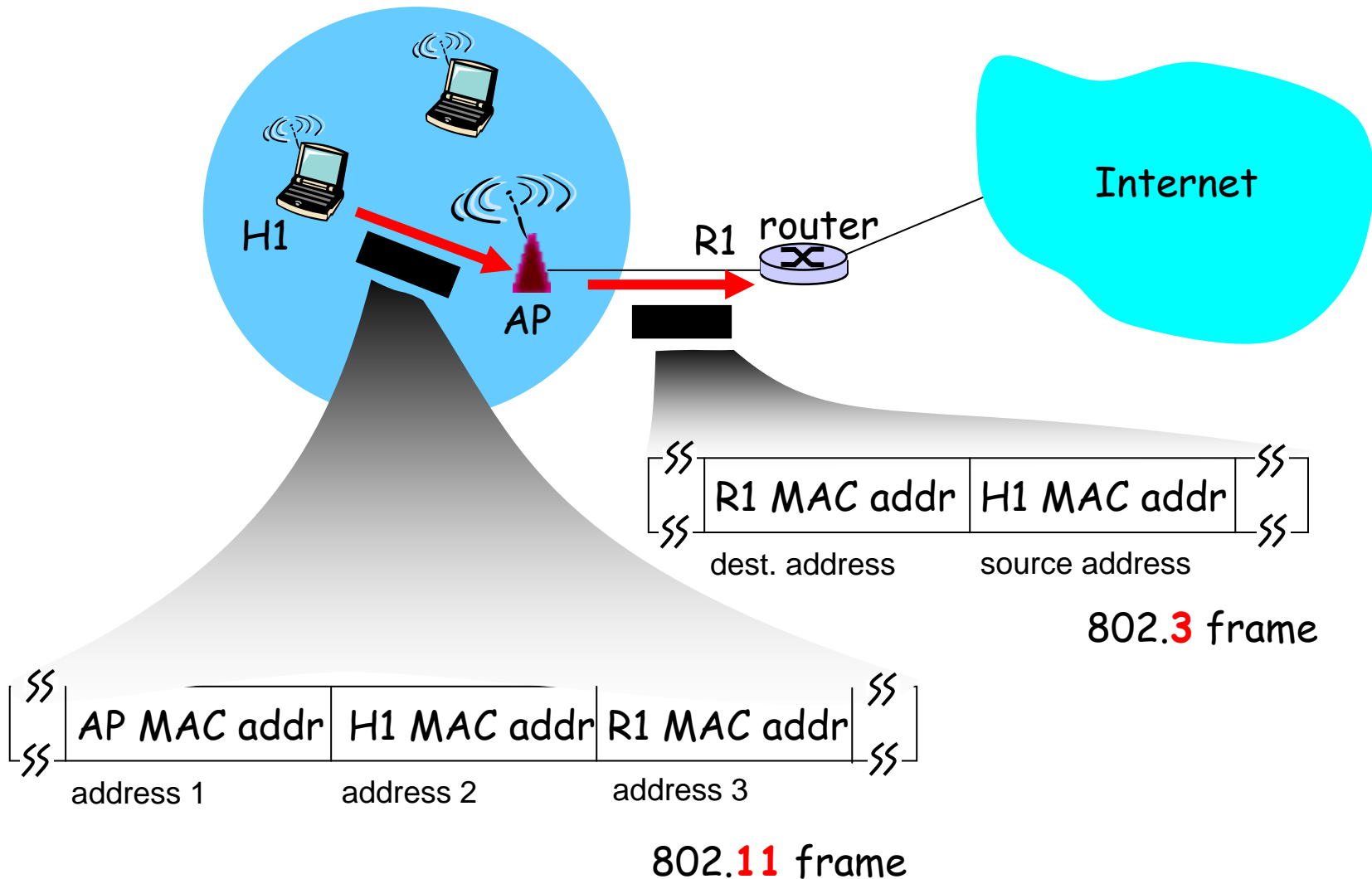
Address 1: MAC address of wireless host or AP to receive this frame

Address 2: MAC address of wireless host or AP transmitting this frame

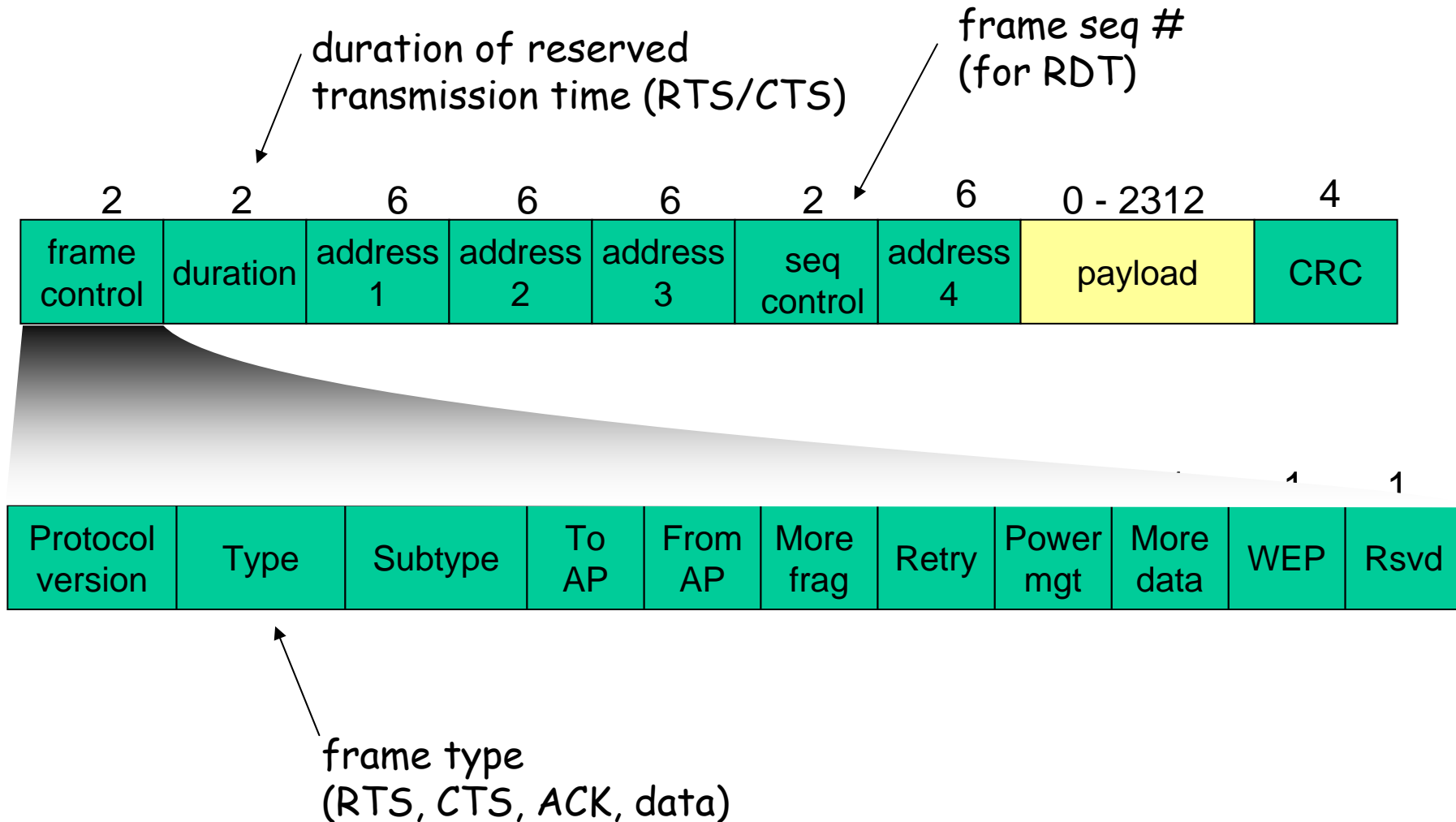
Address 3: MAC address of router interface to which AP is attached

Address 4: used only in ad hoc mode

802.11 frame: addressing

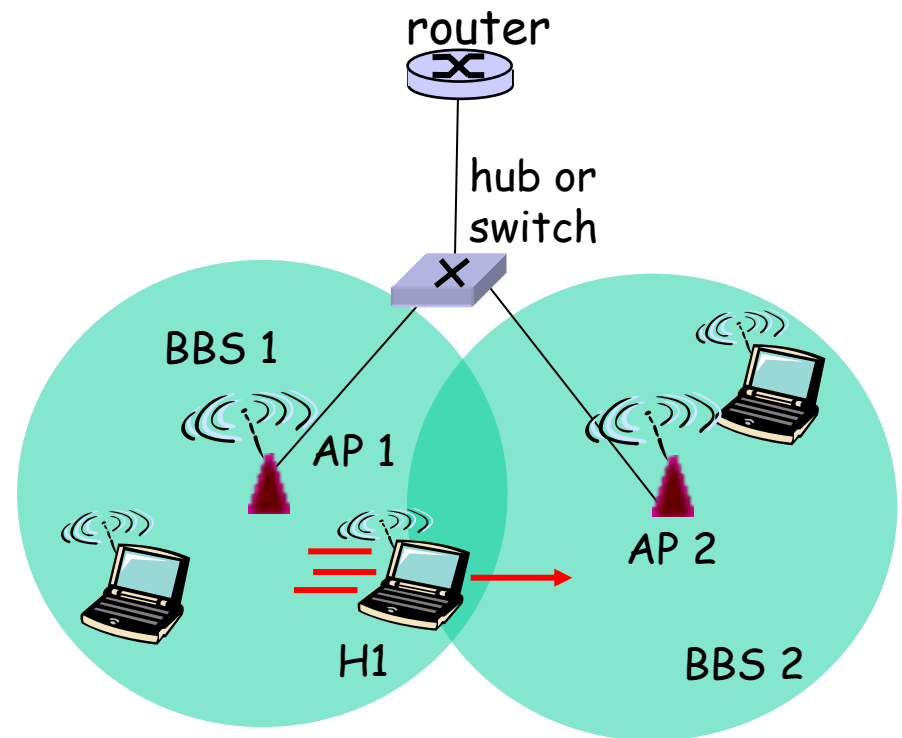


802.11 frame: more



802.11: mobility within same subnet

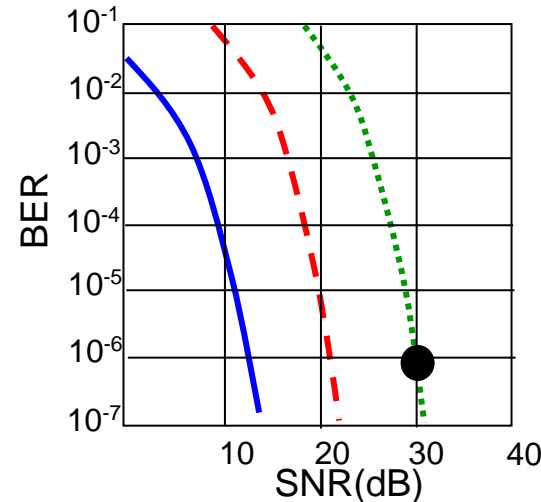
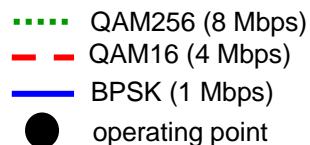
- ❑ H1 remains in same IP subnet: IP address can remain same
- ❑ switch: which AP is associated with H1?
 - self-learning (Ch. 5): switch will see frame from H1 and "remember" which switch port can be used to reach H1



802.11: advanced capabilities

Rate Adaptation

- base station, mobile dynamically change transmission rate (physical layer modulation technique) as mobile moves, SNR varies



1. SNR decreases, BER increase as node moves away from base station
2. When BER becomes too high, switch to lower transmission rate but with lower BER

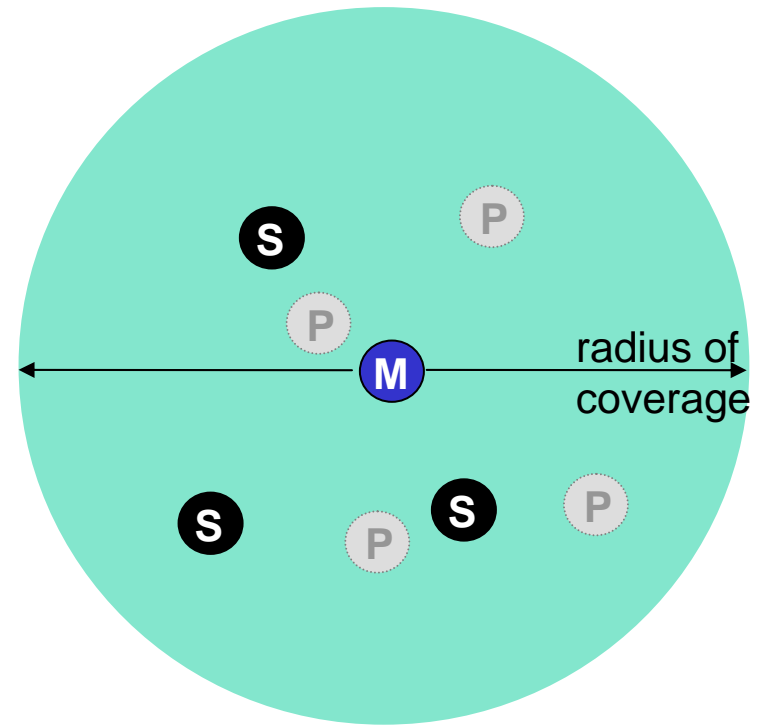
802.11: advanced capabilities

Power Management

- ❑ node-to-AP: "I am going to sleep until next beacon frame"
 - AP knows not to transmit frames to this node
 - node wakes up before next beacon frame
- ❑ beacon frame: contains list of mobiles with AP-to-mobile frames waiting to be sent
 - node will stay awake if AP-to-mobile frames to be sent; otherwise sleep again until next beacon frame

802.15: personal area network

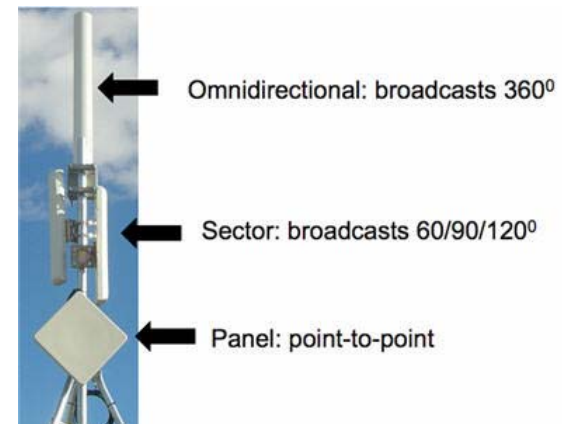
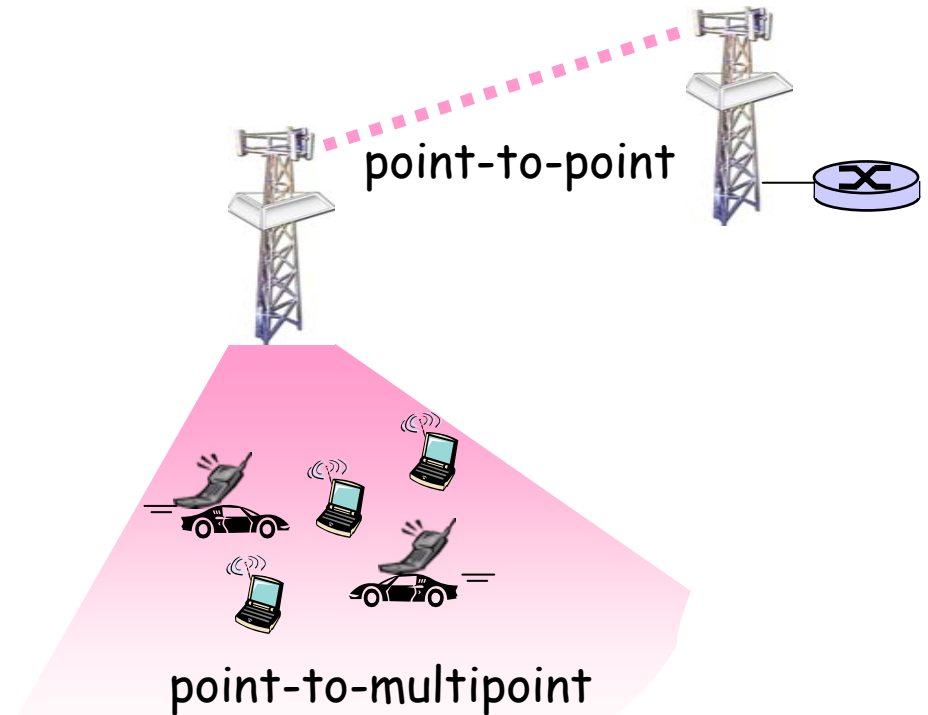
- ❑ less than 10 m diameter
- ❑ replacement for cables (mouse, keyboard, headphones)
- ❑ ad hoc: no infrastructure
- ❑ master/slaves:
 - slaves request permission to send (to master)
 - master grants requests
- ❑ 802.15: evolved from Bluetooth specification
 - 2.4-2.5 GHz radio band
 - up to 721 kbps



- M** Master device
- S** Slave device
- P** Parked device (inactive)

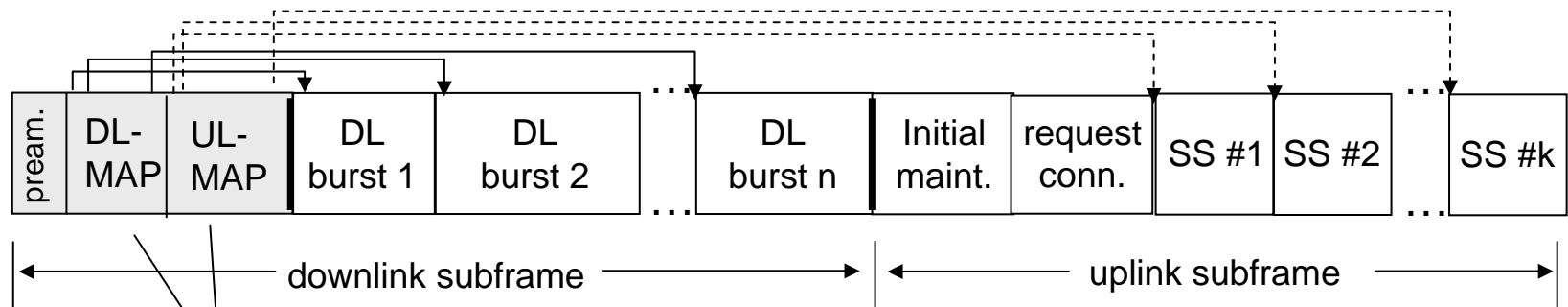
802.16: WiMAX

- ❑ like 802.11 & cellular:
base station model
 - transmissions to/from base station by hosts with omnidirectional antenna
 - base station-to-base station backhaul with point-to-point antenna
- ❑ unlike 802.11:
 - range ~ 6 miles ("city rather than coffee shop")
 - ~14 Mbps



802.16: WiMAX: downlink, uplink scheduling

- ❑ transmission frame
 - down-link subframe: base station to node
 - uplink subframe: node to base station



base station tells nodes who will get to receive (DL map)
and who will get to send (UL map), and when

- ❑ WiMAX standard provide mechanism for scheduling, but not scheduling algorithm

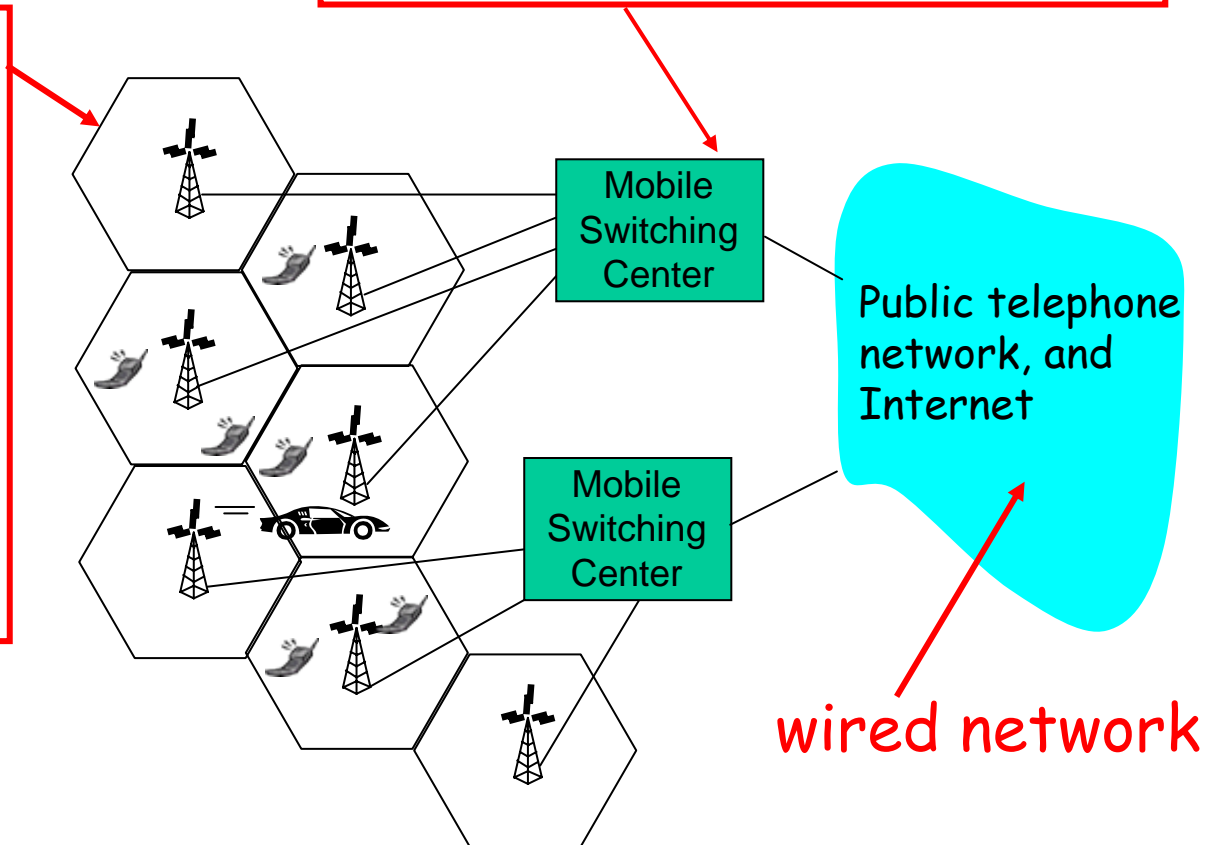
Components of cellular network architecture

cell

- covers geographical region
- *base station* (BS) analogous to 802.11 AP
- *mobile users* attach to network through BS
- *air-interface*: physical and link layer protocol between mobile and BS

MSC

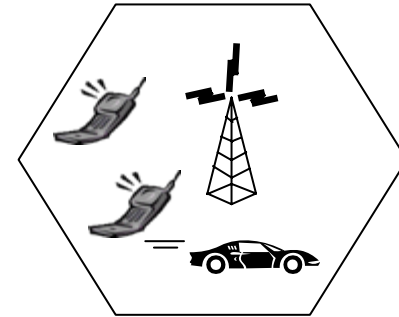
- connects cells to wide area net
- manages call setup
- handles mobility



Cellular networks: the first hop

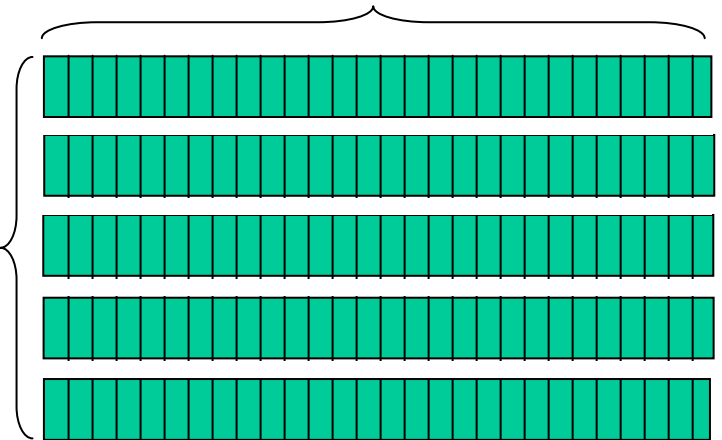
Two techniques for sharing mobile-to-BS radio spectrum

- ❑ **combined FDMA/TDMA:** divide spectrum in frequency channels, divide each channel into time slots
- ❑ **CDMA:** code division multiple access



time slots

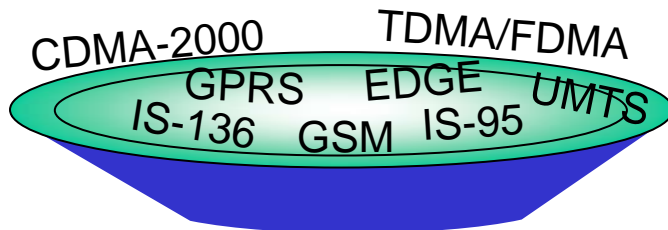
frequency bands



Cellular standards: brief survey

2G systems: voice channels

- ❑ IS-136 TDMA: combined FDMA/TDMA (north america)
- ❑ GSM (global system for mobile communications): combined FDMA/TDMA
 - most widely deployed
- ❑ IS-95 CDMA: code division multiple access



Don't drown in a bowl of alphabet soup: use this for reference only

Cellular standards: brief survey

2.5 G systems: voice and data channels

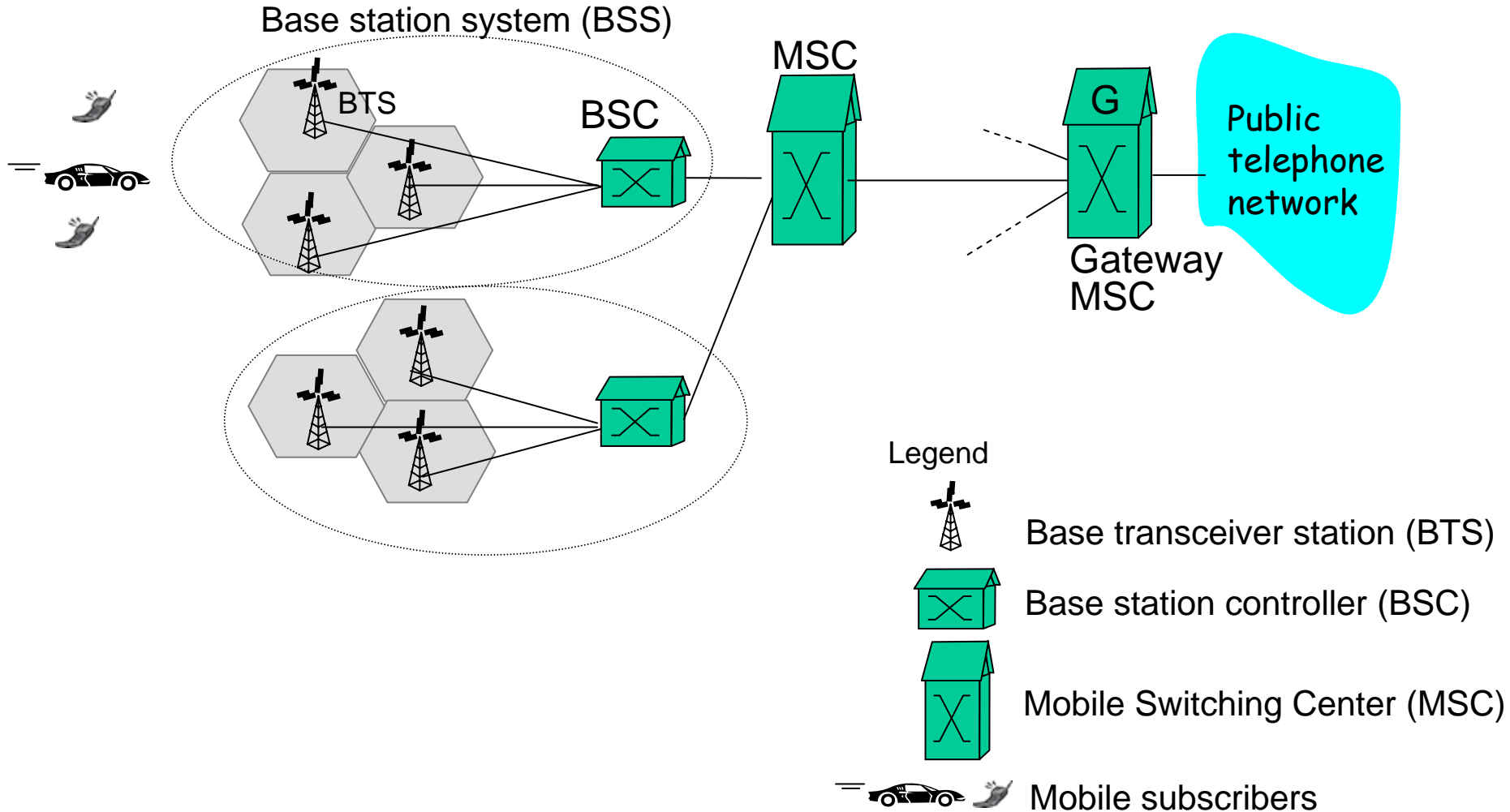
- ❑ for those who can't wait for 3G service: 2G extensions
- ❑ general packet radio service (GPRS)
 - evolved from GSM
 - data sent on multiple channels (if available)
- ❑ enhanced data rates for global evolution (EDGE)
 - also evolved from GSM, using enhanced modulation
 - data rates up to 384K
- ❑ CDMA-2000 (phase 1)
 - data rates up to 144K
 - evolved from IS-95

Cellular standards: brief survey

3G systems: voice/data

- ❑ Universal Mobile Telecommunications Service (UMTS)
 - data service: High Speed Uplink/Downlink packet Access (HSDPA/HSUPA): 3 Mbps
- ❑ CDMA-2000: CDMA in TDMA slots
 - data service: 1xEvolution Data Optimized (1xEVDO) up to 14 Mbps

2G (voice) network architecture



2.5G (voice+data) network architecture

