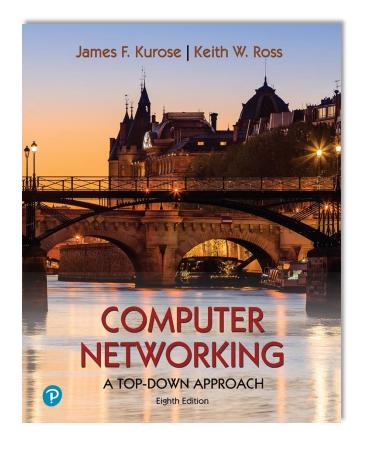


Computer Networks

Amir Mahdi Sadeghzadeh, Ph.D.

Chapter 6 The Link Layer and LANs



Computer Networking: A Top-Down Approach

8th edition Jim Kurose, Keith Ross Pearson, 2020

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
- datacenter networks

 instantiation, implementation of various link layer technologies



Link layer, LANs: roadmap

- introduction
- error detection, correction
- multiple access protocols
- LANs
 - addressing, ARP
 - Ethernet
 - switches
 - VLANs
- link virtualization: MPLS
- data center networking



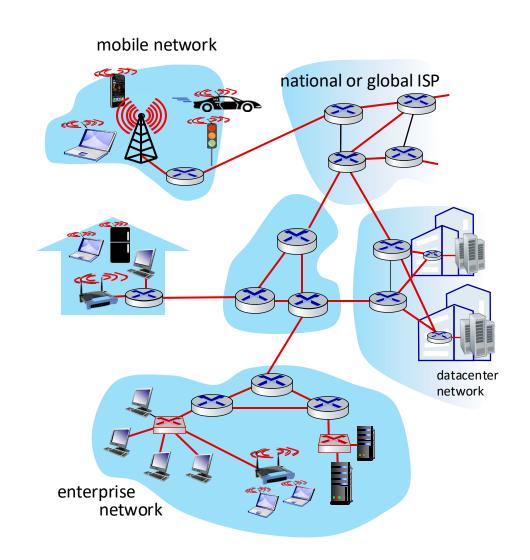
a day in the life of a web request

Link layer: introduction

terminology:

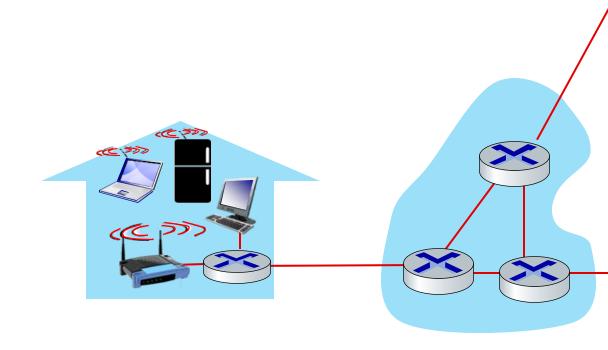
- hosts, routers: nodes
- communication channels that connect adjacent nodes along communication path: links
 - wired, wireless
 - LANs
- layer-2 packet: frame, encapsulates datagram

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

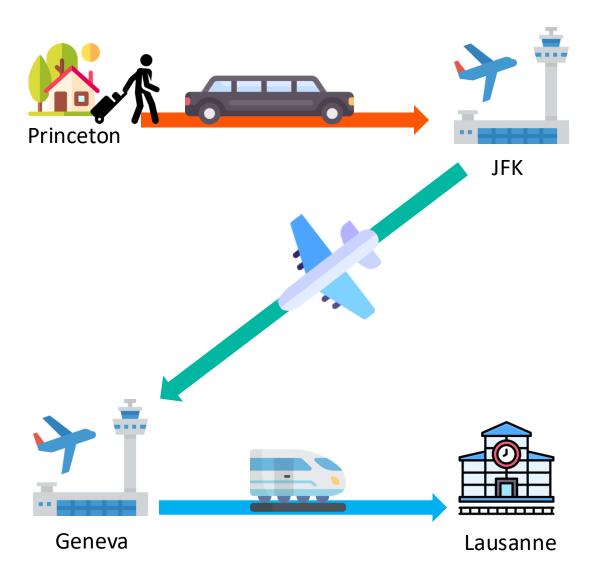


Link layer: context

- datagram transferred by different link protocols over different links:
 - e.g., WiFi on first link,
 Ethernet on next link
- each link protocol provides different services
 - e.g., may or may not provide reliable data transfer over link



Transportation analogy



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 = linklayer protocol
- travel agent = routing algorithm

Link layer, LANs: roadmap

- introduction
- error detection, correction
- multiple access protocols
- LANs
 - addressing, ARP
 - Ethernet
 - switches
 - VLANs
- link virtualization: MPLS
- data center networking

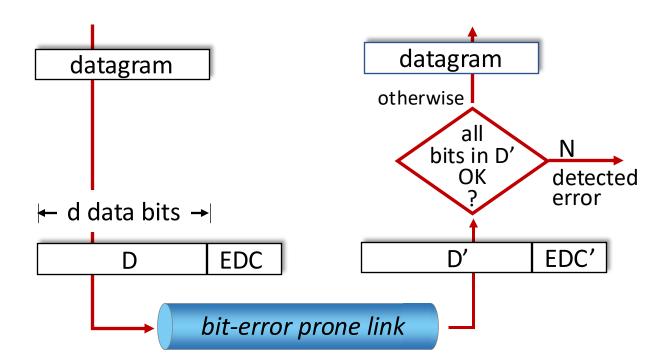


a day in the life of a web request

Error detection

EDC: error detection and correction bits (e.g., redundancy)

D: data protected by error checking, may include header fields



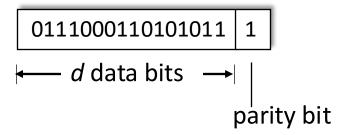
Error detection not 100% reliable!

- protocol may miss some errors, but rarely
- larger EDC field yields better detection and correction

Parity checking

single bit parity:

detect single bit errors



Even/odd parity: set parity bit so there is an even/odd number of 1's

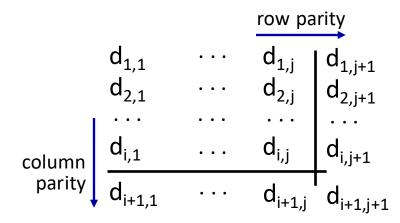
At receiver:

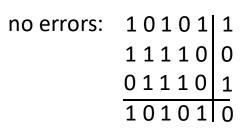
- compute parity of d received bits
- compare with received parity bit
 if different than error detected



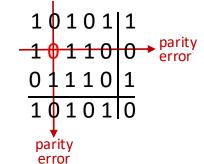
Can detect *and* correct errors (without retransmission!)

two-dimensional parity: detect and correct single bit errors





detected 1 0 1
and
correctable
single-bit
error: 1 0 1



^{*} Check out the online interactive exercises for more examples: http://gaia.cs.umass.edu/kurose_ross/interactive/

Internet checksum (review, see section 3.3)

Goal: detect errors (*i.e.*, flipped bits) in transmitted segment

sender:

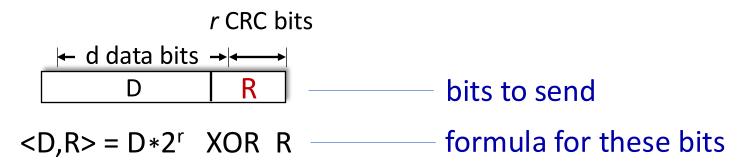
- treat contents of UDP segment (including UDP header fields and IP addresses) as sequence of 16-bit integers
- checksum: addition (one's complement sum) of segment content
- checksum value put into UDP checksum field

receiver:

- compute checksum of received segment
- check if computed checksum equals checksum field value:
 - not equal error detected
 - equal no error detected. But maybe errors nonetheless? More later

Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC)

- more powerful error-detection coding
- D: data bits (given, think of these as a binary number)
- G: bit pattern (generator), of r+1 bits (given, specified in CRC standard)



sender: compute *r* CRC bits, R, such that <D,R> *exactly* divisible by G (mod 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)

Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC): example

Sender wants to compute R such that:

 $D \cdot 2^r XOR R = nG$

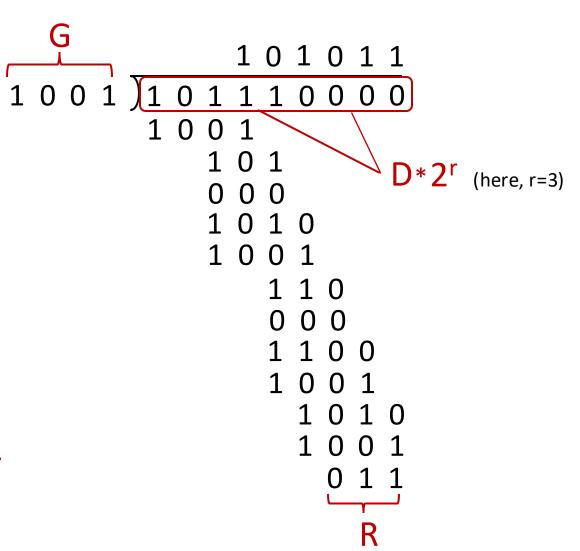
... or equivalently (XOR R both sides):

$$D \cdot 2^r = nG XOR R$$

... which says:

if we divide D · 2^r by G, we want remainder R to satisfy:

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



^{*} Check out the online interactive exercises for more examples: http://gaia.cs.umass.edu/kurose_ross/interactive/

Link layer, LANs: roadmap

- introduction
- error detection, correction
- multiple access protocols
- LANs
 - addressing, ARP
 - Ethernet
 - switches
 - VLANs
- link virtualization: MPLS
- data center networking



a day in the life of a web request

Multiple access links, protocols

two types of "links":

- point-to-point
 - point-to-point link between Ethernet switch, host
 - PPP for dial-up access
- broadcast (shared wire or medium)
 - old-school Ethernet
 - upstream HFC in cable-based access network
 - 802.11 wireless LAN, 4G/4G. satellite



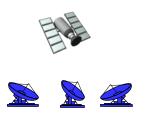
shared wire (e.g., cabled Ethernet)



shared radio: 4G/5G



shared radio: WiFi



shared radio: 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: multiple access channel (MAC) of rate R bps desiderata:

- 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: taxonomy

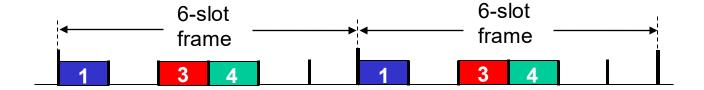
three broad classes:

- 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

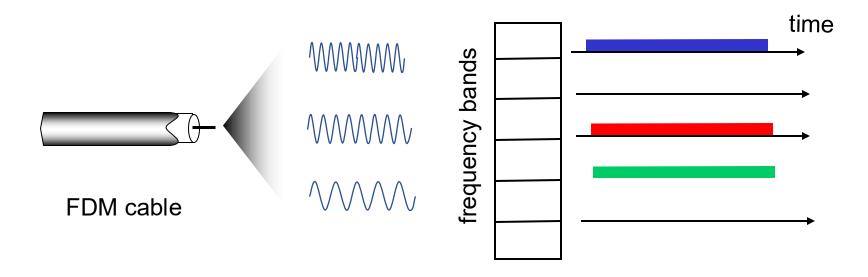
- access to channel in "rounds"
- each station gets fixed length slot (length = packet transmission time) in each round
- unused slots go idle
- example: 6-station LAN, 1,3,4 have packets to send, slots 2,5,6 idle



Channel partitioning MAC protocols: FDMA

FDMA: frequency division multiple access

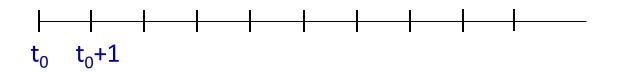
- channel spectrum divided into frequency bands
- each station assigned fixed frequency band
- unused transmission time in frequency bands go idle
- example: 6-station LAN, 1,3,4 have packet to send, frequency bands 2,5,6 idle



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: "collision"
- random access protocol specifies:
 - how to detect collisions
 - how to recover from collisions (e.g., via delayed retransmissions)
- examples of random access MAC protocols:
 - ALOHA, slotted ALOHA
 - CSMA, CSMA/CD, CSMA/CA

Slotted ALOHA



assumptions:

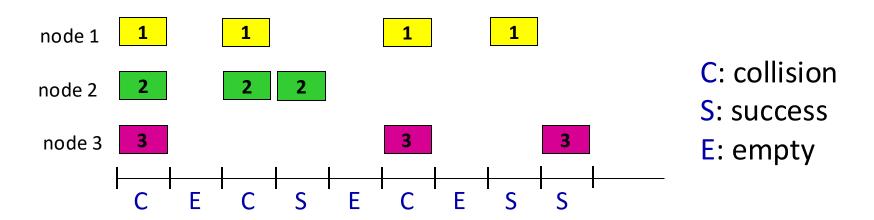
- all frames same size
- time divided into equal size slots (time to transmit 1 frame)
- nodes start to transmit only slot beginning
- nodes are synchronized
- if 2 or more nodes transmit in slot, all nodes detect collision

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 probability *p* until success

randomization – why?

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

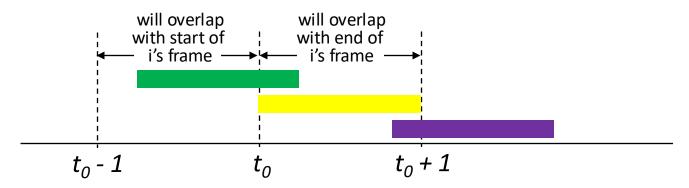
- suppose: N nodes with many frames to send, each transmits in slot with probability p
 - prob that given node has success in a slot = $p(1-p)^{N-1}$
 - prob that any node has a success = $Np(1-p)^{N-1}$
 - max efficiency: find p^* that maximizes $Np(1-p)^{N-1}$
 - for many nodes, take limit of $Np^*(1-p^*)^{N-1}$ as N goes to infinity, gives:

$$max\ efficiency = 1/e = .37$$

at best: channel used for useful transmissions 37% of time!

Pure ALOHA

- unslotted Aloha: simpler, no synchronization
 - when frame first arrives: transmit immediately
- collision probability increases with no synchronization:
 - frame sent at t₀ collides with other frames sent in [t₀-1,t₀+1]



pure Aloha efficiency: 18%!