

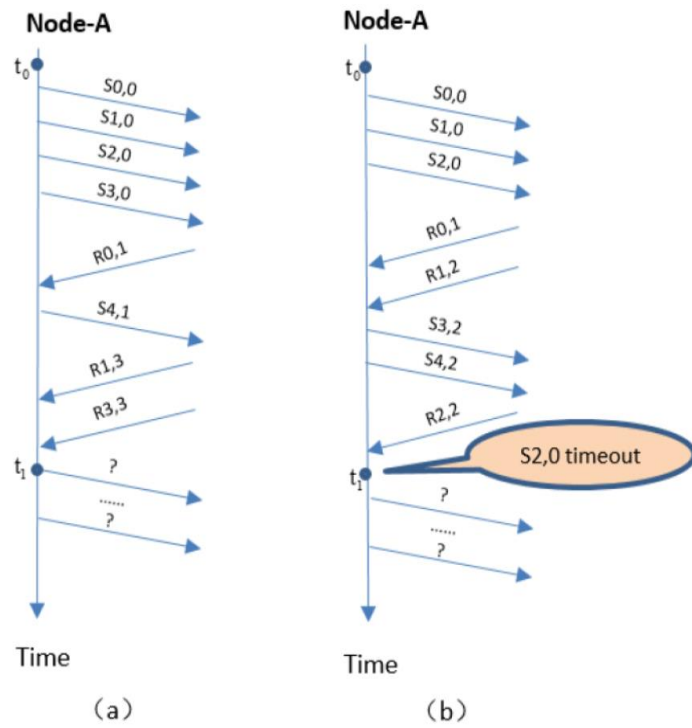
# Previously on Computer Networks

- Error detection codes
  - Parity, Checksum
  - CRC: error pattern and  $G(x)$
- Data link protocols
  - Utopian Simplex Protocol
  - Simplex Stop-and-Wait Protocol
  - Simplex Protocol for a Noisy Channel
  - Sliding Window Protocols: Utilization, Piggybacking, go back N, selective repeat

- Node-A and Node-B use the Go-Back-N frame protocol (GBN) for continuous two-way data transmission, and both parties always use piggyback confirmation, frame length is always 1000B.  $S_{x,y}$  and  $R_{x,y}$  respectively represent the data frames sent by both Node-A and Node-B, where:  $x$  is the transmission number,  $y$  is the acknowledgment number (indicating the next frame number to be expected to receive). The field of the transmission sequence number and the acknowledgment sequence number of the data frame is 3 bits. The channel transmission rate is 100-Mbps and RTT (Round Trip Time) = 0.96ms. The following figures show two scenarios in which Node-A sends and receives data frame, where  $t_0$  is the initial time and at that time both of the sending and acknowledgment sequence number of Node-A is 0, and the node-A has enough data to be transmitted at time  $t_1$ .

- Please answer the following questions:**

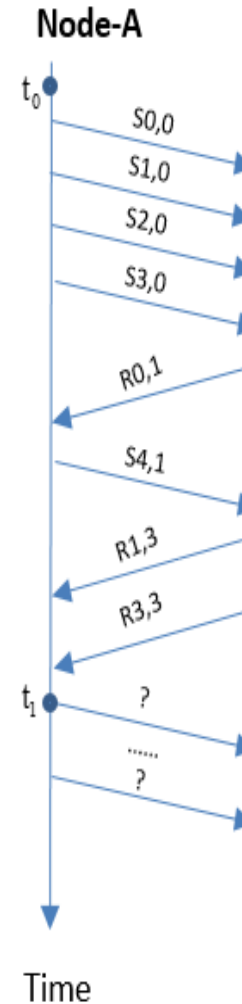
- For figure (a), starting from time  $t_0$  to  $t_1$ , how many frames does Node-A can confirm that Node-B has correctly received? What is (are) the correct frame(s) received (List in  $S_{x,y}$ )?
- For figure (a), starting from time  $t_1$ , how many data frames can Node-A send before a timeout doesn't occur and no new Node-B data frame is received? What are the first frame and the last frame (List in  $S_{x,y}$ )?
- For figure (b), starting from time  $t_1$ , how many data frames does Node-A need to retransmit before a timeout doesn't occur and no new Node-B data frame is received? What is the first retransmission frame (List in  $S_{x,y}$ )?
- What is the maximum channel utilization that Node-A can achieve?



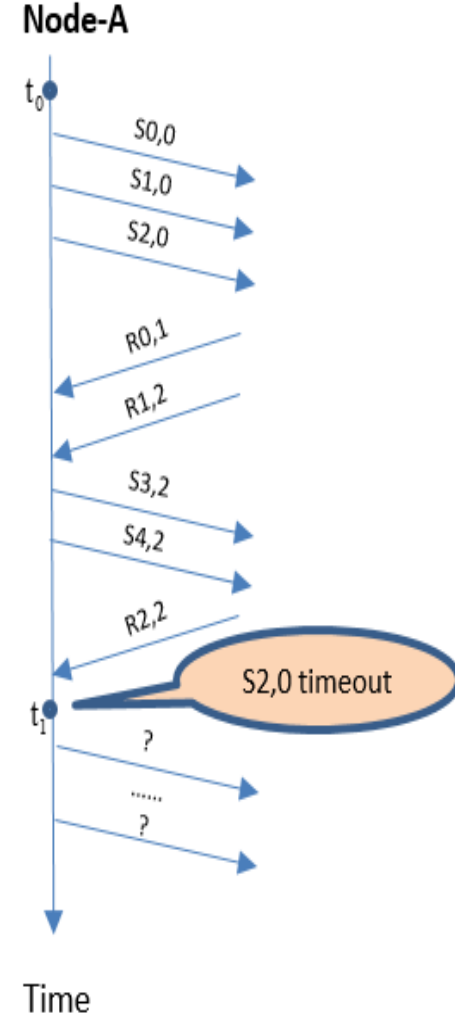
(1) For the graph (a), starting from time  $t_0$  to  $t_1$ , how many frames does Node-A can confirm that Node-B has correctly received? What is (are) the correct frame(s) received (List in  $S_x, y$ )?

Answer: 3  $S_{0,0}$   $S_{1,0}$   $S_{2,0}$

At time  $t_1$ , Node A receive the frames with an acknowledgment number of **3**, which means Node B has correctly received frame **0**, **1**, **2** from Node A. According to figure (a), the 3 frames are  $S_{0,0}$   $S_{1,0}$   $S_{2,0}$



(a)



(b)

(2) For Figure (a), starting from time  $t_1$ , how many data frames can Node-A send before a timeout doesn't occur and no new Node-B data frame is received? What are the first frame and the last frame (List in  $S_x, y$ )?

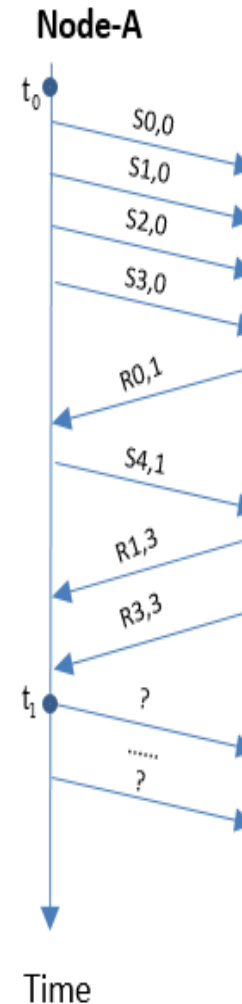
Answer: 5  $S5,2$   $S1,2$

Sequence number is 3 bits: 0, 1, ... 7 →  
Maximum window size = 7 in GBN

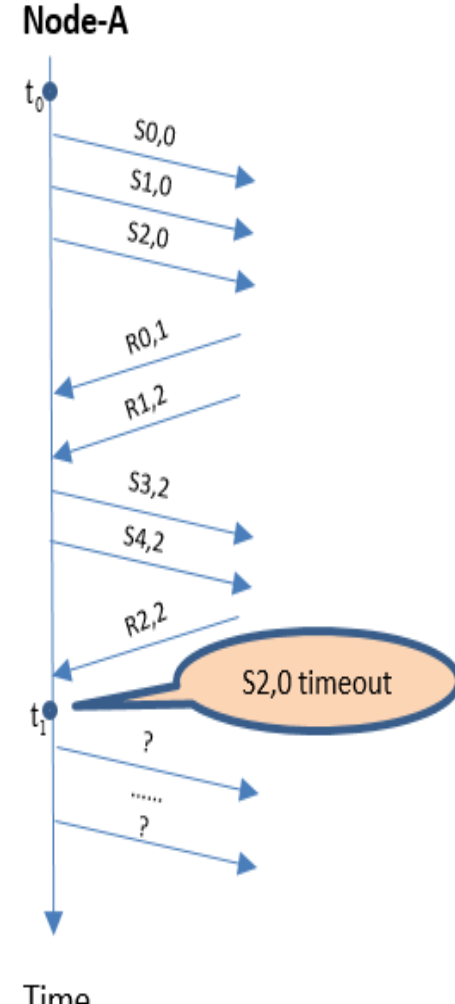
At time  $t_1$ , Node A confirms frame 2 has been received and its current window is from 3 to 1: 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 0, 1

Before  $t_1$ , Node A has send frame 3 and frame 4, so it can further send 5 frames from 5 to 1.

The acknowledgment sequence number of the expected data frame from Node B is frame 2.  
So the first frame is  $S5,2$ , and the last frame is  $S1,2$



(a)



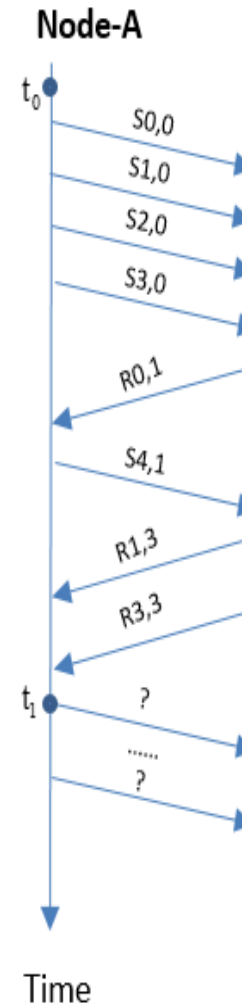
(b)

(3) For graph (b), starting from time  $t_1$ , how many data frames does Node-A need to **retransmit** before a timeout doesn't occur and no new Node-B data frame is received? What is the first retransmission frame (List in  $S_x, y$ )?

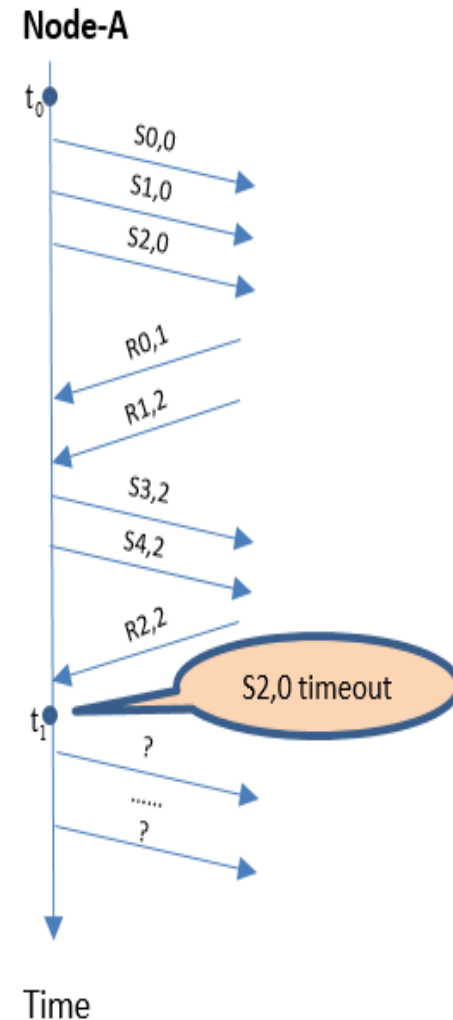
Answer: 3  $S_{2,3}$

At time  $t_1$ , Node A has send frame 4 and Node B sends the frames with an acknowledgment sequence number of 2, which means Node A has to retransmit **3 frames from 2 to 4**.

Meanwhile, Node A has received frame 2 from Node B, which means its next expected frame number is **3**. So the first retransmission frame is  **$S_{2,3}$**



(a)



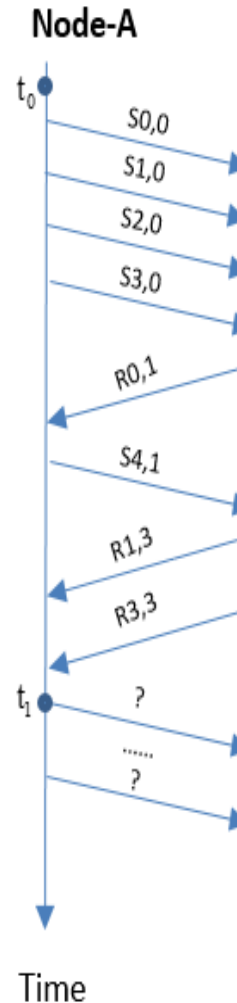
(b)

(4) What is the maximum channel utilization that Node-A can achieve?

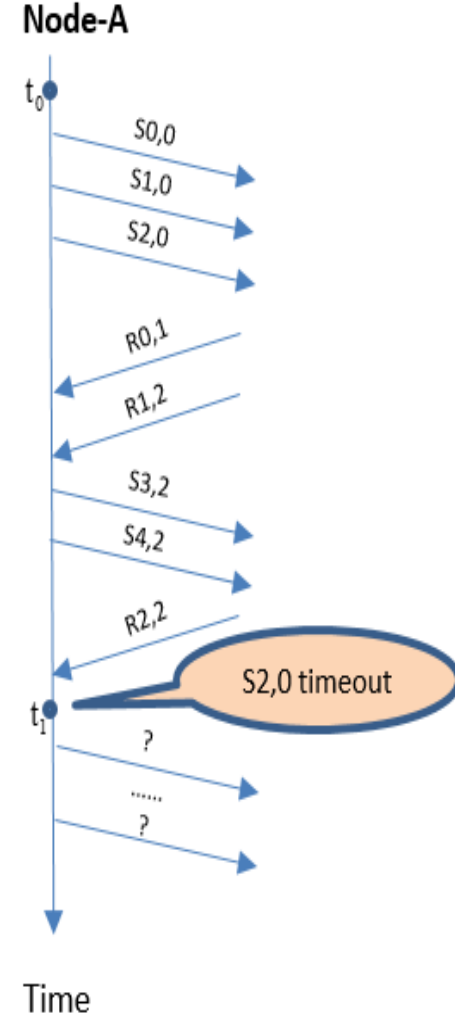
Answer: 50%

In this question, the acknowledgment sequence number is also 3 bits and thus its frame time cannot be ignored, so we have:

$$\begin{aligned}
 Utilization &= \frac{NT_{frame}}{2T_{prop} + T_{frame} + T_{ack}} \\
 &= \frac{7 \times (8 \times 1000)/(100 \times 10^6)}{0.96 \times 10^{-3} + 2 \times (8 \times 1000)/(100 \times 10^6)} \\
 &= 50\%
 \end{aligned}$$



(a)



(b)

# CHAPTER 4

## THE MEDIUM ACCESS CONTROL (MAC) **SUBLAYER** (介质访问子层)

- The channel allocation problem
- Multiple access protocols
- 802.3: Ethernet
- 802.11: Wireless LANs
- Data link layer switching
- 802.15: Bluetooth\*
- 802.16: Broadband wireless\*
- RFID\*

# THE CHANNEL ALLOCATION PROBLEM

- Two types of networks:
  - ◆ Those using **point-to-point** connection.
  - ◆ Those using **broadcast** channels.
- In any broadcast network, the key issue is how to determine who gets to use the channel when there is competition for it.
  - ◆ Consider a telephone conference call.
  - ◆ Broadcast channels are sometimes referred to as multiaccess channels or random access channels.
- The protocols used to determine who goes next on a multiaccess channel belong to a *sublayer* of the data link layer called the MAC (Medium Access Control). The MAC sublayer is the bottom part of the data link layer.



# The Channel Allocation Problem: Introduction

- 信道分配问题: How to allocate a single broadcast channel among competing users
  - **Static channel allocation** in LANs and MANs
    - TDM
    - FDM
  - **Dynamic channel allocation** in LANs and MANs
    - ALOHA
    - CSMA
    - Collision free protocols
    - Limited-contention protocols
    - ...

# The Channel Allocation Problem:

## **Static** channel allocation in LANs and MANs

The traditional way of allocating a single channel among multiple competing users is Frequency Division Multiplexing (FDM, 频分多路复用).

- ◆ When there is only a small and fixed number of users, each of which has a heavy (buffered) load of traffic, FDM is a simple and efficient allocation.
- ◆ When the number of senders is large and continuously **varying** or the traffic is **bursty**, FDM has some problems.

# The Channel Allocation Problem:

## **Static** channel allocation in LANs and MANs

- Mathematical analysis
- Similar for other static channel allocation methods such as TDM (Time Division Multiplexing)

# The Channel Allocation Problem:

## Dynamic channel allocation in LANs and MANs

**Five key assumptions** for the channel allocation problem

1. Independent Traffic (独立传输). The model consists of  $N$  independent stations, each with a program or user that generates frames for transmission.
2. Single channel (单信道假设). A single channel is available for all communication.
3. Collision assumption (冲突假设).
4. Time assumption (时间假设): (a) Continuous Time.(b) Slotted Time.
5. Carrier assumption (载波假设): (a) Carrier Sense.(b) No Carrier Sense.

# MULTIPLE ACCESS PROTOCOLS

- ALOHA
  - Carrier Sense Multiple Access (CSMA) protocols
  - Collision-free protocols
  - Limited contention protocols
- 
- Wireless LAN Protocols

# Multiple Access Protocols: ALOHA

- Let users transmit whenever they have data to be sent.
  - There will be collisions and the colliding frames will be destroyed.
  - The sender just waits a random amount of time and sends it again if a frame is destroyed.
- Two types of ALOHA:
  - Pure ALOHA
  - Slotted ALOHA

# Multiple Access Protocols: ALOHA

In pure ALOHA, frames are transmitted at completely arbitrary times.

User

A



B



C



D



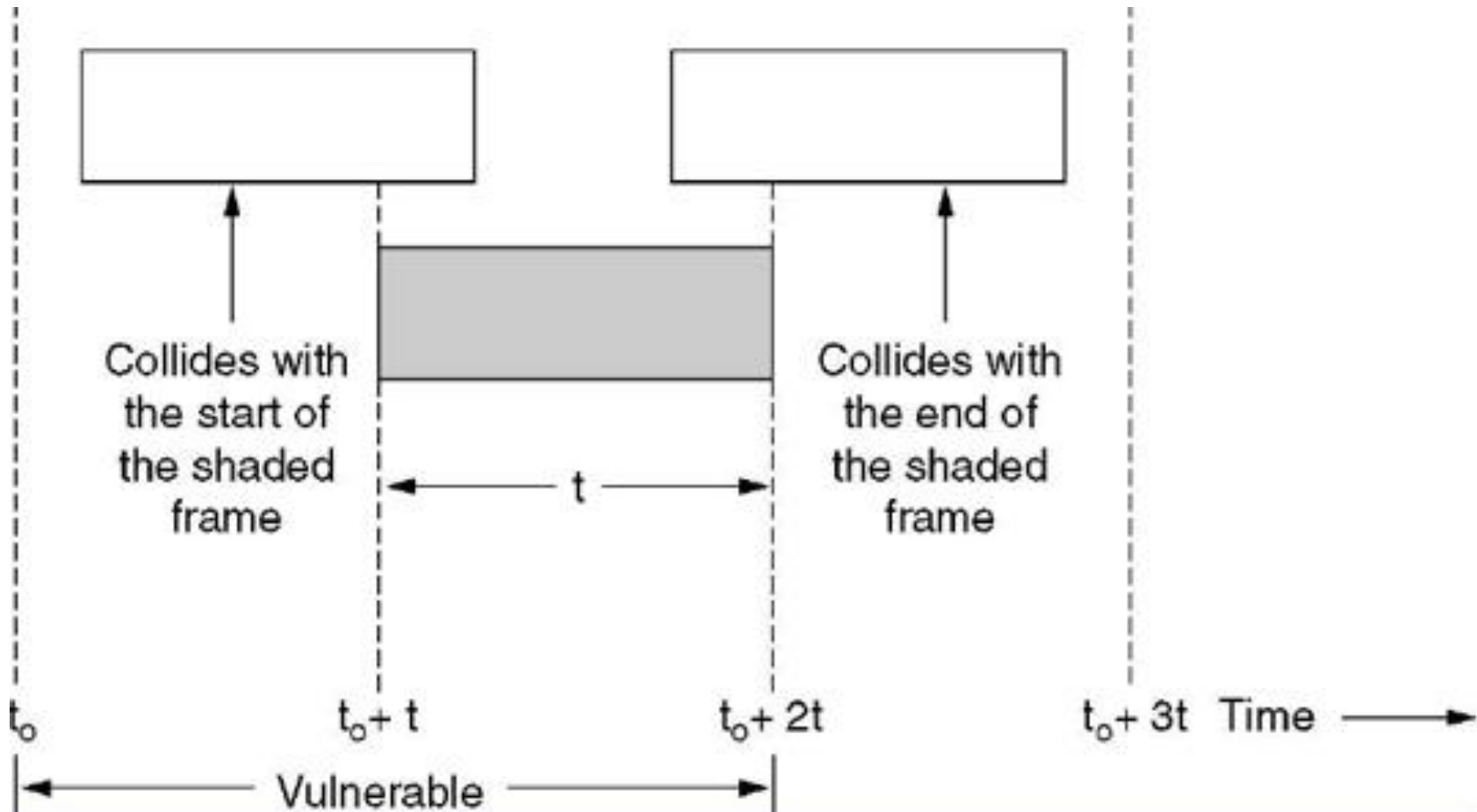
E



Time →

# Multiple Access Protocols: ALOHA

**Vulnerable period** for the shaded frame.





# Multiple Access Protocols: Slotted ALOHA

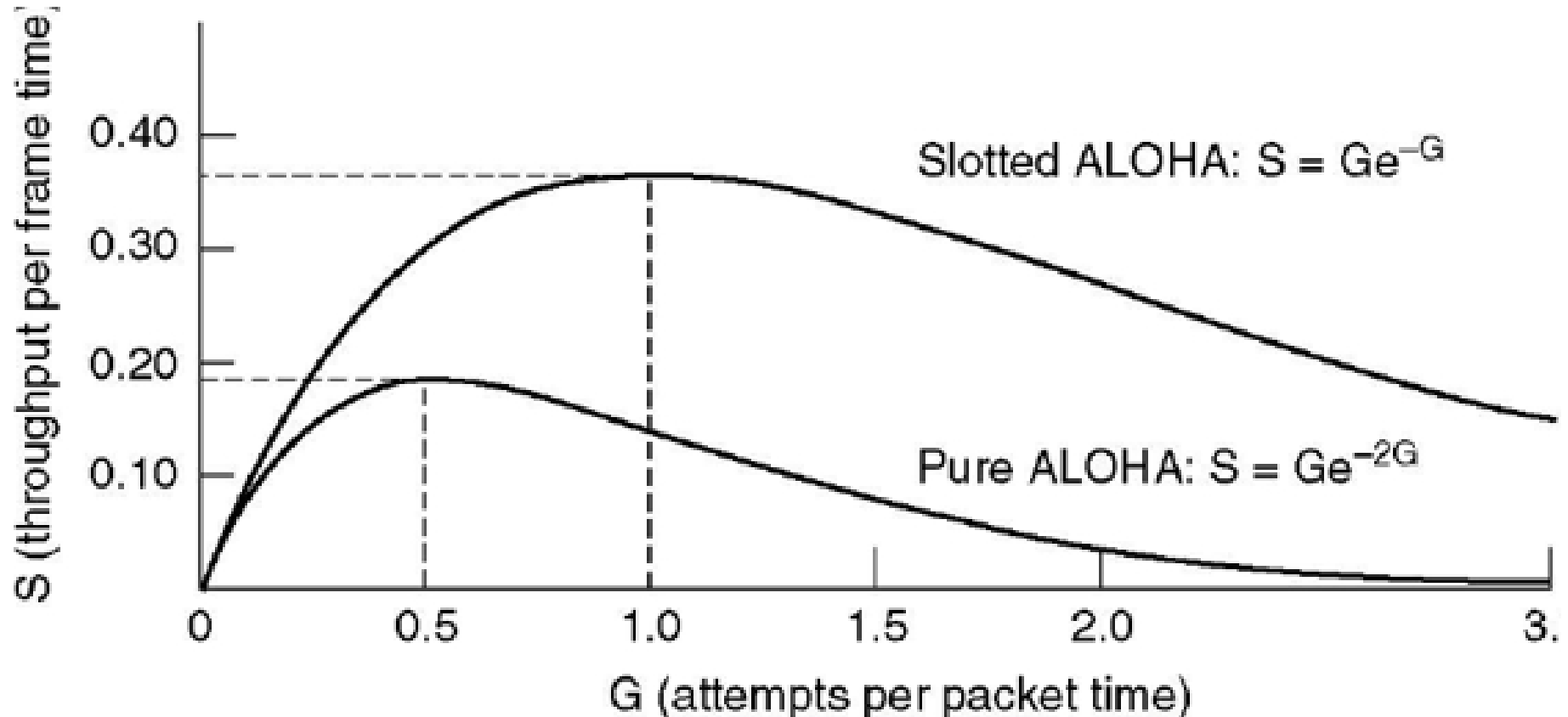
- In 1972, Roberts published a method for doubling the capacity of an ALOHA system.
- **Time is slotted.** A computer is not permitted to send at any time. Instead it is **required to wait for the beginning of the next slot.**
- **The vulnerable period is halved for Slotted ALOHA.**

# Multiple Access Protocols: Efficiency of ALOHA

- Concepts:
  - Frame time: frame length / bit rate
  - Stations generate  $N$  (Poisson mean) new frames per frame time
  - Offered load:  $G$  (Poisson mean) transmission attempts per frame time.  $G$  includes old and new.
    - At low loads:  $G \approx N$
    - At high loads:  $G > N$
  - Throughput  $S = GP_0$  where  $P_0$  is the probability that a frame does not suffer a collision.

# Multiple Access Protocols: ALOHA

Throughput versus offered traffic for ALOHA systems.



# Multiple Access Protocols: Notes

- **Note:** Protocols that are perfectly valid fall into disuse for political reasons, but years later some clever person realizes that a long-discarded protocol solves his current problem.
  - Study many protocols that are in current use.
  - Study a number of elegant protocols that are not currently in widespread use, but might easily be used in future applications.

# Multiple Access Protocols: CSMA

- With stations transmitting at will, without paying attention to what the other stations are doing, there are bound to be many collisions,  
不听就说 → poor channel utilization.
- If stations can detect what other stations are doing and adjust their behavior accordingly,  
先听再说 → better channel utilization.
- Protocols in which stations listen for a carrier and act accordingly are called Carrier Sense Multiple Access Protocols (CSMA Protocols, 载波侦听多路访问协议).

# Multiple Access Protocols: CSMA

- CSMA (Carrier Sense Multiple Access) without CD (Collision Detection)
  - Persistent CSMA
  - Non-persistent CSMA
  - p-persistent CSMA
- CSMA with CD

# Multiple Access Protocols:

## CSMA without CD: Persistent CSMA

Before sending, a station senses the channel.

- If the channel is **idle**, the station **transmits** a frame.
- If the channel is **busy**, the station **waits** until it becomes idle. Then the station transmits a frame.
- If a **collision occurs**, the station **waits a random amount of time** and starts all over again.

The protocol is called *1-persistent* because the station transmits with a probability of 1 whenever it finds the channel idle.

# Multiple Access Protocols:

## CSMA without CD: Persistent CSMA

### Discussion

- This scheme seems to avoid collisions except for the rare case of simultaneous sends, but in fact it does not.
- If two stations become ready in the middle of a third station's transmission,
  - ◆ both will wait politely until the transmission ends,
  - ◆ both will then begin transmitting exactly simultaneously, resulting in a collision.
- If they were not so impatient, there would be fewer collisions.



# Multiple Access Protocols:

## CSMA without CD: Persistent CSMA

### Discussion (Cont)

- propagation delay has an important effect on collisions
  - ◆ There is a chance that just after a station begins sending, another station will become ready to send and sense the channel.
  - ◆ If the first station's signal has not yet reached the second one, the latter will sense an idle channel and will also begin sending, resulting in a collision.
  - ◆ This chance depends on the number of frames that fit on the channel, or the bandwidth-delay (BD) product of the channel
    - ◆ Low BD product  $\rightarrow$  small chance of collision
    - ◆ Large BD product  $\rightarrow$  high chance of collision
- Better than ALOHA.

# Multiple Access Protocols:

## CSMA without CD: Non-persistent CSMA

- Before sending, a station senses the channel.
  - ◆ If the channel is **idle**, the station **transmits** a frame.
  - ◆ If the channel is **in use**, the station *does not* continually sense it. Instead, it **waits a random period of time** and then repeats the algorithm.
  - ◆ If a **collision occurs**, the station **waits a random amount of time** and starts all over again.
- Discussion
  - ◆ Better channel utilization than 1-persistent CSMA (less greedy)
  - ◆ Longer delays than 1-persistent CSMA

# Multiple Access Protocols:

## CSMA without CD: p-persistent CSMA

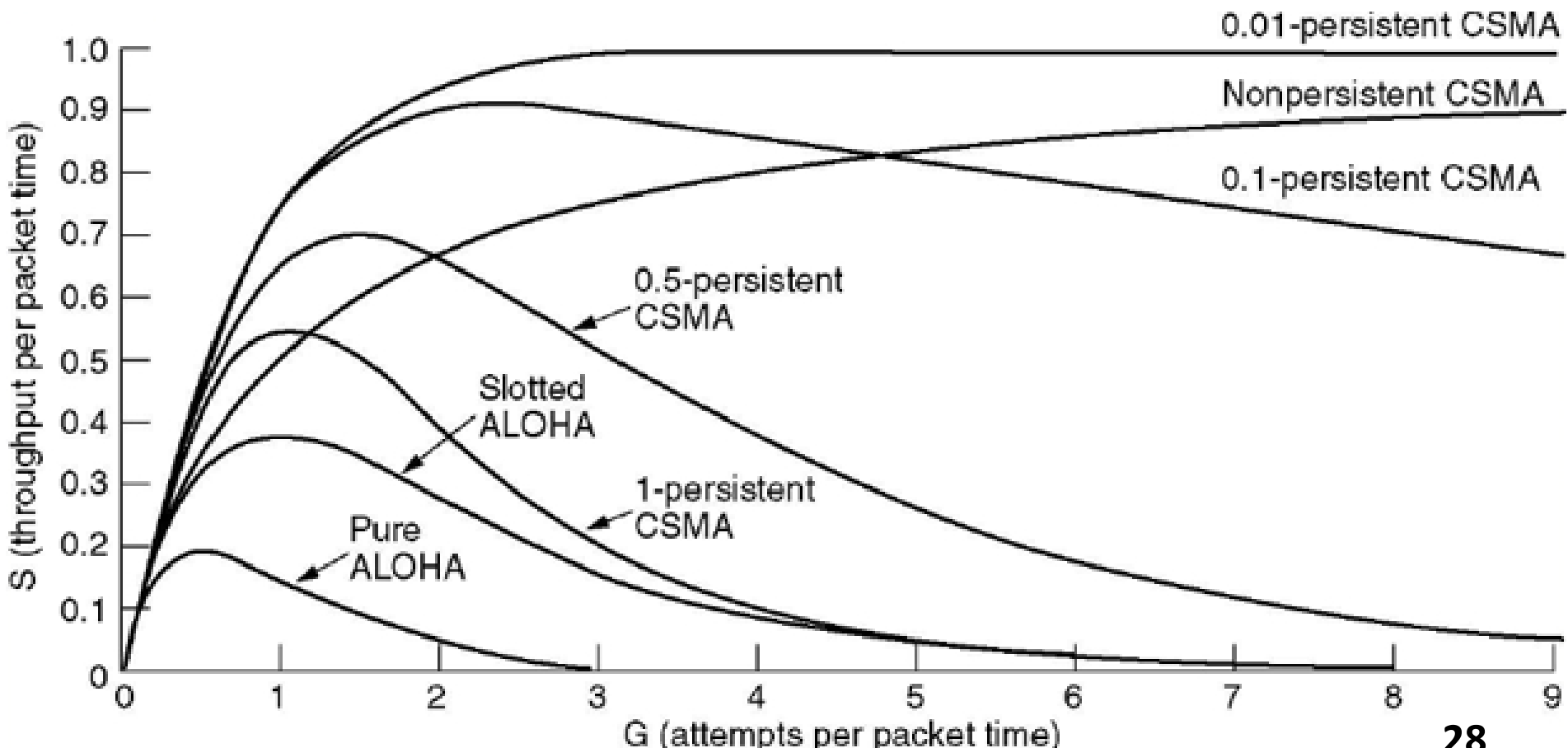
- Applied to slotted channels
- Before sending, a station senses the channel:
  - If the channel is **idle**, it **transmits with a probability  $p$** .  
With a probability  $q=1-p$ , it defers until the next slot.
  - If that slot is also idle, it either transmits or defers again, with probabilities  $p$  and  $q$ .
  - This process is repeated until either the frame has been transmitted or another station has begun transmitting.
  - If the channel is **busy**, it **waits until the next slot** and applies the above algorithm.

IEEE 802.11 uses a refinement of p-persistent CSMA

# Multiple Access Protocols:

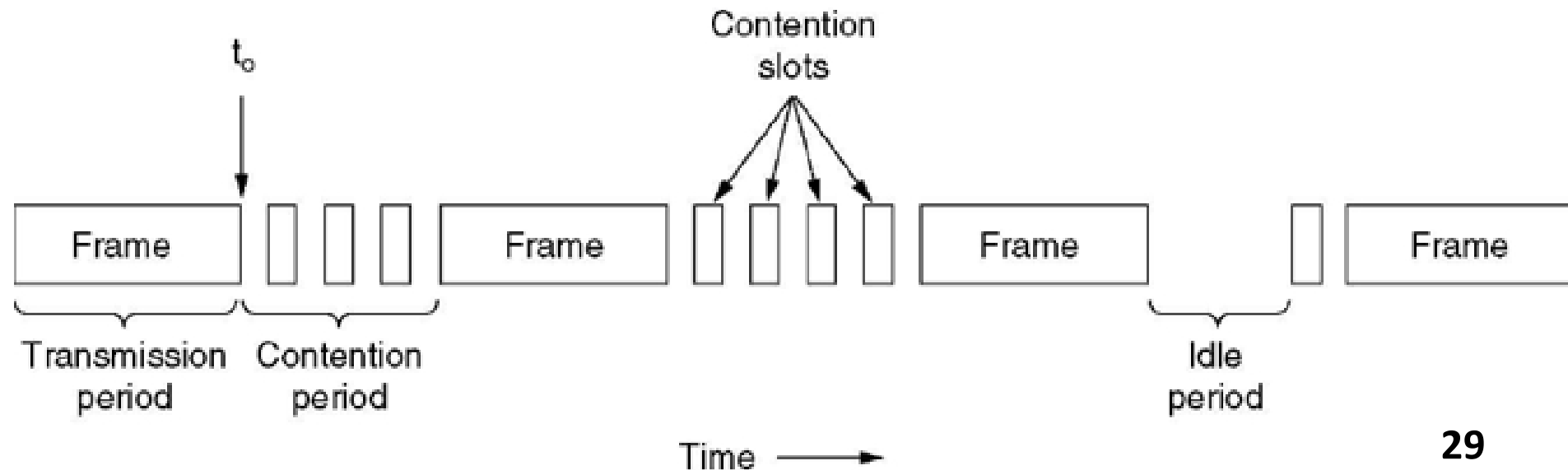
## CSMA without CD: Comparison

Comparison of the channel utilization versus load for various random access protocols.



# Multiple Access Protocols: CSMA with CD

- CSMA/CD (Carrier Sense Multiple Access with Collision Detection)
  - is an improvement over CSMA without CD.
  - As soon as stations detect a collision, they stop their transmissions.
- CSMA/CD can be in one of three states: **contention**, **transmission**, or **idle**.



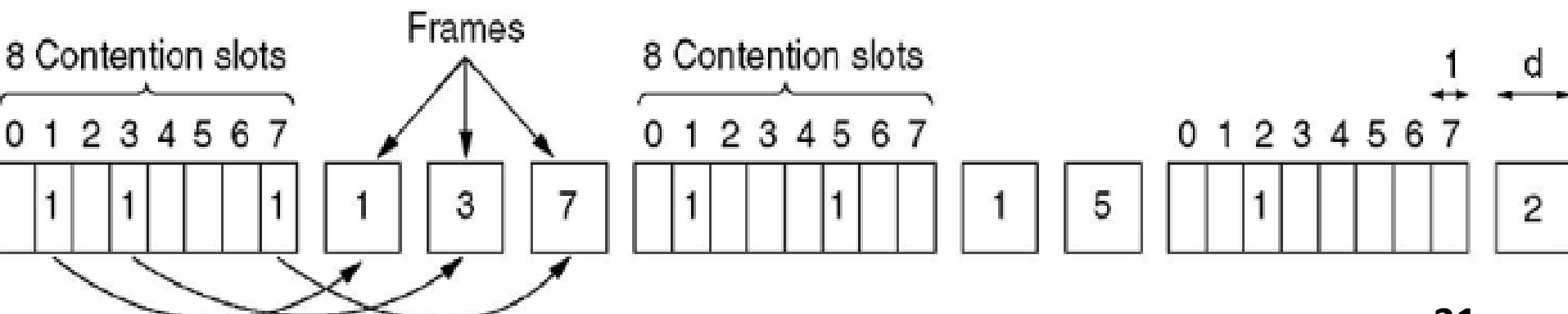
# Multiple Access Protocols: CSMA with CD

- How long will it take to detect collisions?
  - ◆ The time for transmitting one full frame?
  - ◆ The time for transmitting from one end to the other end of the cable?
  - ◆ In the worst case, a station cannot be sure that it has seized the channel until it has transmitted for  $2\tau$  without hearing a collision. Here  $\tau$  is the time for a signal to propagate between the two farthest stations.

# Multiple Access Protocols:

## Collision free protocols: A Bit-Map Protocol

- Each contention period consists of exactly  $N$  slots.
- In general, station  $i$  inserts 1 in time slot  $i$  in order to send data.
- After all  $N$  slots have passed by, each station has complete knowledge of which stations wish to transmit. Then they begin transmitting in numerical order. **Since everyone agrees on who goes next, there will never be any collisions.**
- After the last ready station has transmitted its frame, another  $N$  bit contention period is begun.



# Multiple Access Protocols:

## Collision free protocols: A Bit-Map Protocol

### ■ Notations:

- The time unit is one contention bit
- $N$ : contention period
- $d$ : data frame length

### ■ At low load:

- Delay for low-numbered stations:  $0.5N + 1N = 1.5N$
- Delay for high-numbered stations:  $0.5N$
- The mean delay for all stations is  $N$ .
- The efficiency:  $d/(N + d)$ .

### ■ At high load:

- the  $N$  bit contention period is distributed over  $N$  frames, yielding an overhead of only 1 bit per frame,
- the efficiency:  $d/(d + 1)$ .



# Multiple Access Protocols:

## Collision free protocols: Token Passing

- Token passing
  - The token represents permission to send.
  - If a station has a queued frame when it receives the token, it can send that frame before it passes the token to the next station.
  - If a station has no queued frame, it simply passes the token
- Two kinds of token passing
  - Token ring
  - Token bus

# Multiple Access Protocols:

## Collision free protocols: Token Ring

- For a *token ring* protocol, the stations are connected one to the next in a single ring.
- Passing the token to the next station then simply consists of receiving the token in from one direction and transmitting it out in the other direction.
- This way they will circulate around the ring and reach whichever station is the destination.
- Since all positions in the cycle are equivalent, there is no bias for low- or high-numbered stations.
- Examples: 802.5 (1980s), FDDI (1990s), RPR (Resilient Packet Ring, 802.17) (2000s), ...

# Multiple Access Protocols:

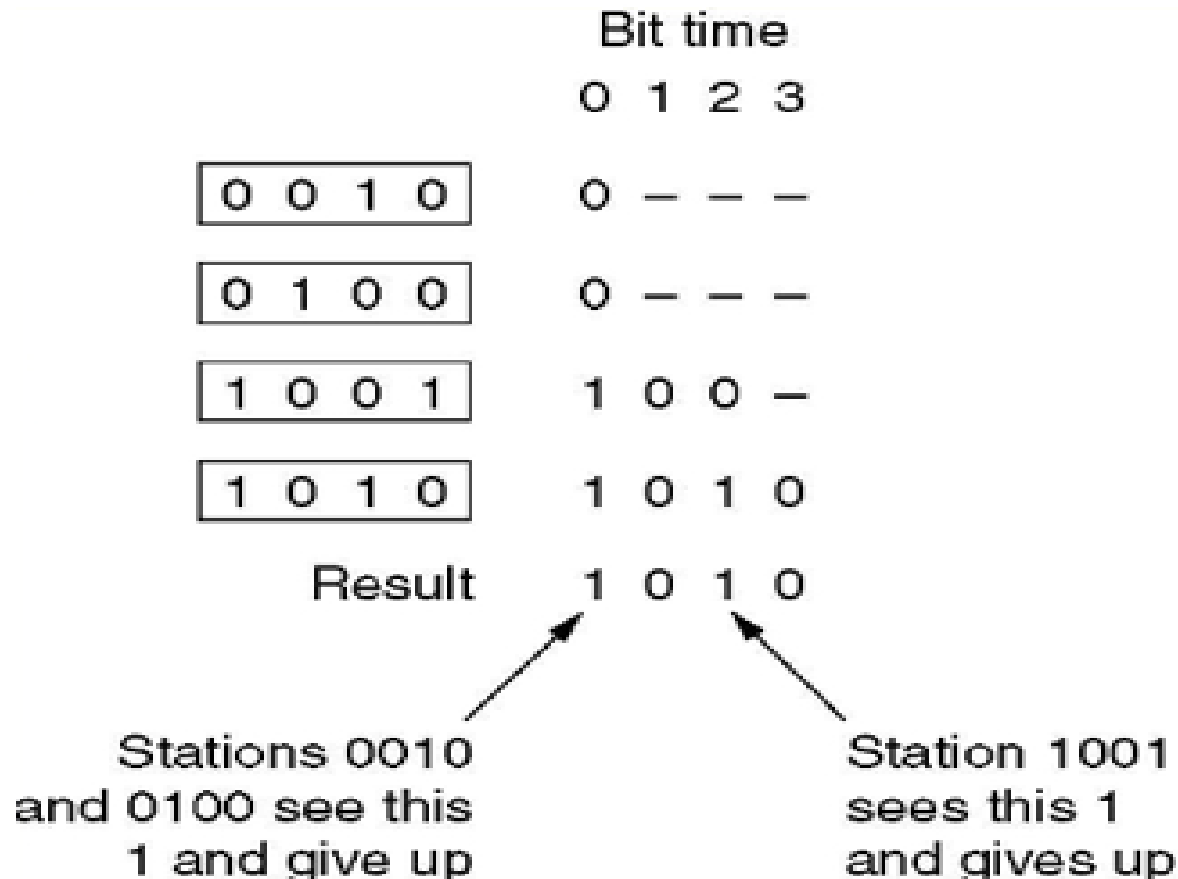
## Collision free protocols: Binary Countdown

- A station wanting to use the channel now broadcasts its address as a binary bit string, starting with the high-order bit. All addresses are assumed to be the same length.
- The bits in each address position from different stations are BOOLEAN ORed together by the channel when they are sent at the same time.
- To avoid conflicts, an arbitration rule must be applied: as soon as a station sees that a high-order bit position that is 0 in its address has been overwritten with a 1, it gives up.

# Multiple Access Protocols:

## Collision free protocols: Binary Countdown

The binary countdown protocol.  
A dash indicates silence.



# Multiple Access Protocols:

## Limited-Contention protocols

- Methods with contention
    - ◆ *Under **low** load*, the contention method (i.e., pure or slotted ALOHA, CSMA) is **preferable** due to its low delay.
    - ◆ *Under **high** load*, the contention method becomes increasingly **less efficient**.
  - Methods without contention
    - ◆ Under **low** load, the collision-free method has **high delay**.
    - ◆ Under **high** load, the collision-free method becomes increasingly **more efficient**.
- Limited-Contention Protocols

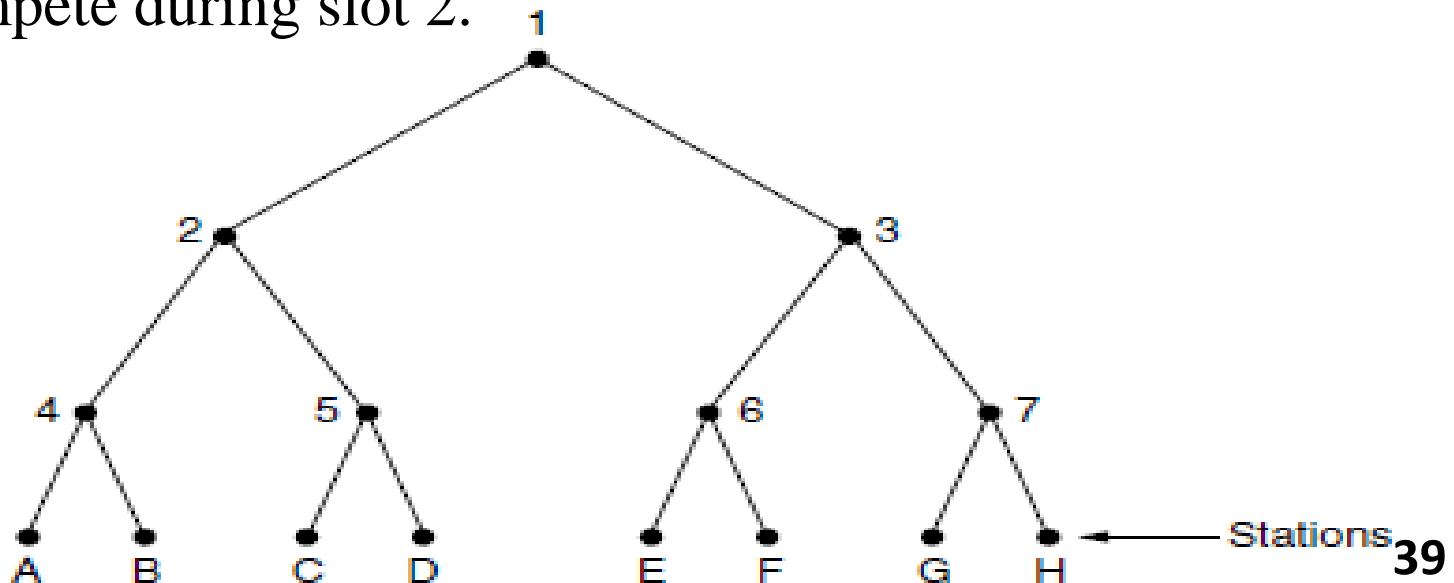
# Multiple Access Protocols:

## Limited-Contention protocols

- What we need is a way to assign stations to slots dynamically
  - With many stations per slot when the load is low
  - With a few stations per slot when the load is high.
- Adaptive Tree Walk Protocol (自适应树搜索协议)

# Multiple Access Protocols: Adaptive Tree Walk

- ◆ the stations as the leaves of a binary tree
- ◆ In **slot 0**, all stations are permitted to try to acquire the channel.
- ◆ If one of them does so, fine.
- ◆ If there is a **collision**, then during slot 1 only those **stations falling under node 2** in the tree may **compete**.
- ◆ If one of them acquires the channel, the slot following the frame is **reserved for stations under node 3**.
- ◆ If there is **collision** under node 2 for slot 1, **stations under node 4** may compete during slot 2.



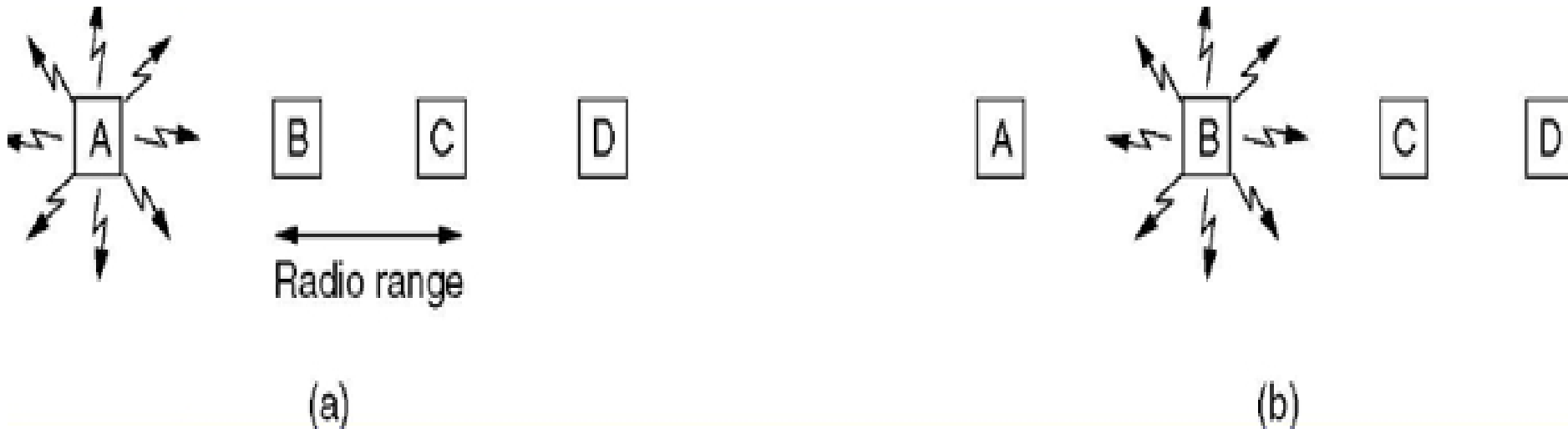
# Multiple Access Protocols: Adaptive Tree Walk

- Adaptive Tree Walk Protocol
  - ◆ At what level in the tree should the search begin?
  - ◆ The heavier the load, the farther down the tree the search should begin.
  - ◆ Begin at  $i = \log_2 q$  where  $q$  is the estimate of the number of ready stations.
  - ◆ Numerous improvements to the basic algorithm have been discovered (Bersekas and Gallager, 1992)



# Multiple Access Protocols: Wireless LAN Protocols

- Hidden station problem (隐藏终端问题)
- Exposed station problem (暴露终端问题)



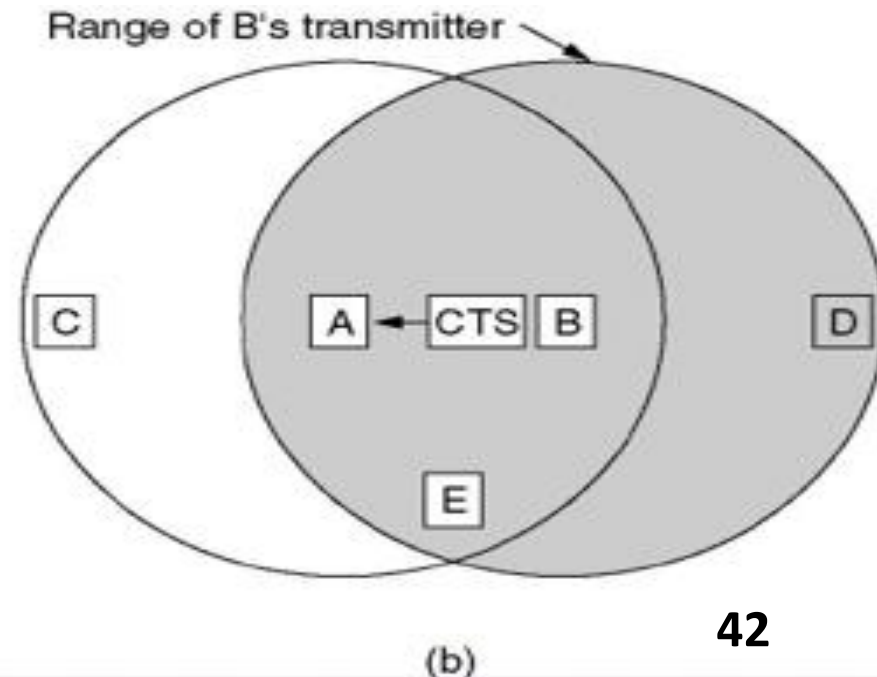
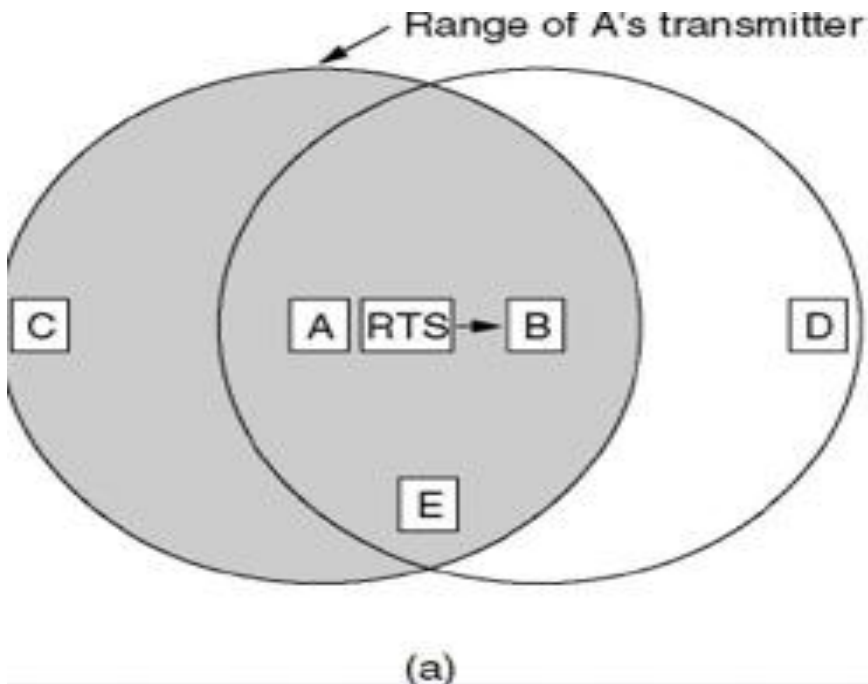
- The problem is that **before starting a transmission, a station really wants to know whether or not there is activity around the receiver not the sender.**

# Multiple Access Protocols: Wireless LAN Protocols

The MACA (Multiple Access with Collision Avoidance) protocol. A sending an RTS to B, B responding with a CTS to A.

1. D: A's hidden terminal, hear CTS and stop data
2. E: hear RTS and CTS, stop data
3. C: A's exposed terminal, hear RTS, wait until CTS, can transmit data

*Collision can still occur, e.g. RTS*



# IEEE 802.3 (Ethernet)

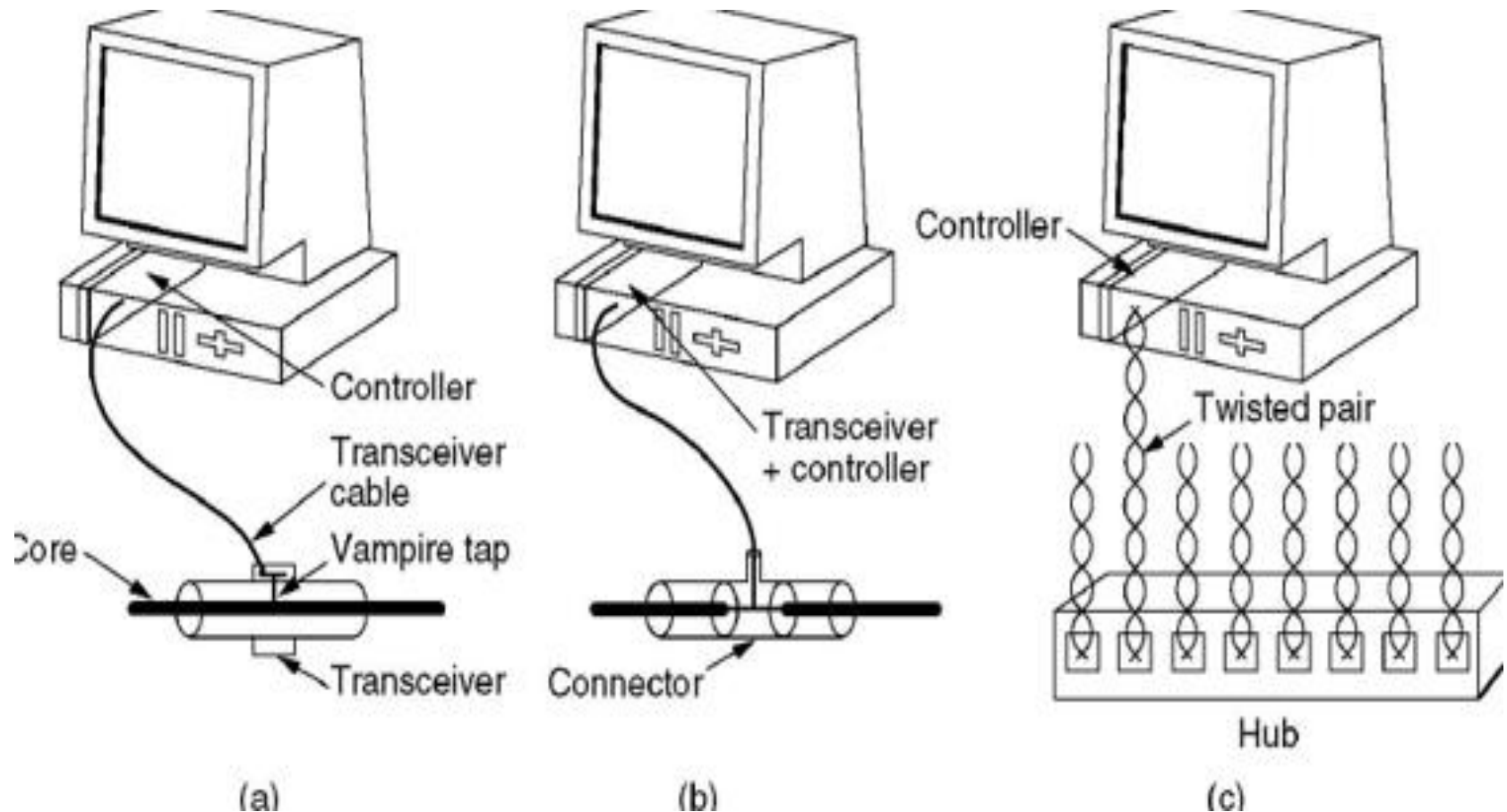
- Classic Ethernet Physical Layer
- Classic Ethernet MAC Sublayer Protocol
- Ethernet Performance
  
- Switched Ethernet
- Fast Ethernet
- Gigabit Ethernet
- 10-Gigabit Ethernet
  
- Retrospective on Ethernet

## 802.3: Classic Ethernet Physical Layer

- 197x: the real beginning was the ALOHA system constructed to allow radio communication between machines scattered over the Hawaiian Islands.
- Bob Metcalf is interested in Norman Abramson's work → after PhD graduation, Bob spend the summer in Hawaii working with Abramson (before work at Xerox PARC) → first local area network (Ethernet)
- The Ethernet was so successful. **Xerox**, **DEC**, and **Intel** drew up a standard for 10-Mbps Ethernet. (DIX standard)
- 802.3 standard describes a whole family of 1-persistent CSMA/CD system, running at speeds from 1 to 10-Mbps over various media. (802.3 standard)

# 802.3: Classic Ethernet Physical Layer

Three kinds of Ethernet cabling. (a) 10Base5 (thick Ethernet), (b) 10Base2 (thin Ethernet), (c) 10Base-T.



# 802.3: Classic Ethernet Physical Layer

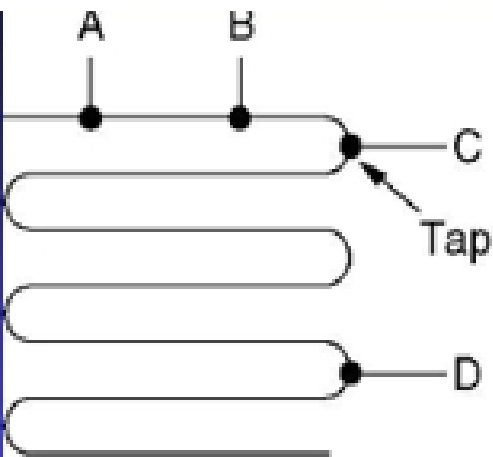
The most common kinds of  
Classic Ethernet cabling.

Name	Cable	Max. seg.	Nodes/seg.	Advantages
10Base5	Thick coax	500 m	100	Original cable; now obsolete
10Base2	Thin coax	185 m	30	No hub needed
10Base-T	Twisted pair	100 m	1024	Cheapest system
10Base-F	Fiber optics	2000 m	1024	Best between buildings

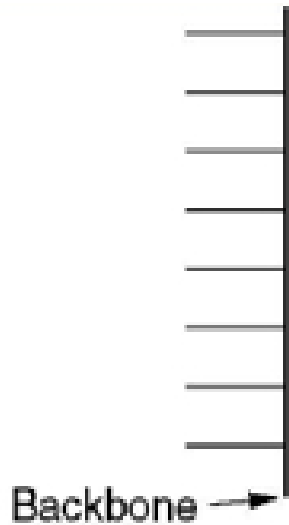
# 802.3: Classic Ethernet Physical Layer

Cable topologies.

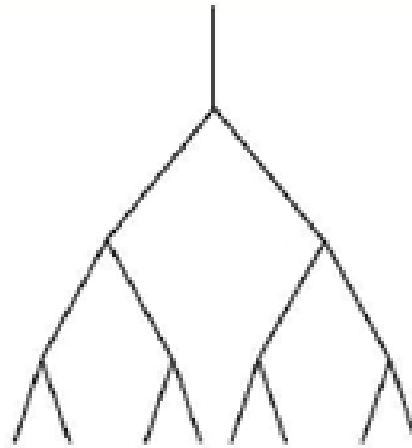
(a) Linear, (b) Spine, (c) Tree, (d) Segmented.



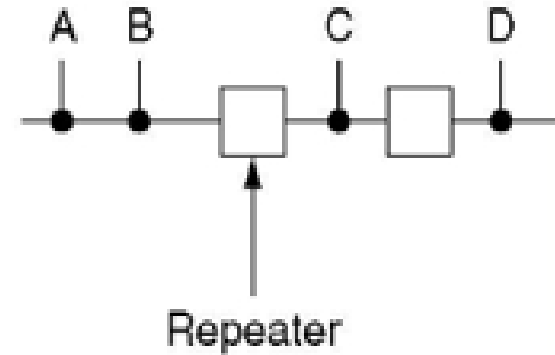
(a)



(b)



(c)



(d)

## 802.3: Classic Ethernet Physical Layer

- With 0 volts for a 0 bit, with 5 volts for a 1 bit.
  - ◆ Difficult to tell the difference between an idle sender (0 volts) and a 0 bit (0 volts).
    - If one station sends the bit string 0001000, others might falsely interpret it as 1000000 or 01000000.
- With  $-1$  volts for a 0 bit, with 1 volts for a 1 bit
  - ◆ A receiver may sample the signal at a slightly different frequency than the sender used to generate it
    - can be out of synchronization.
- To unambiguously determine the start, end, or middle of each bit without reference to an external clock.
  - ◆ **Manchester** encoding
  - ◆ **Differential Manchester** encoding



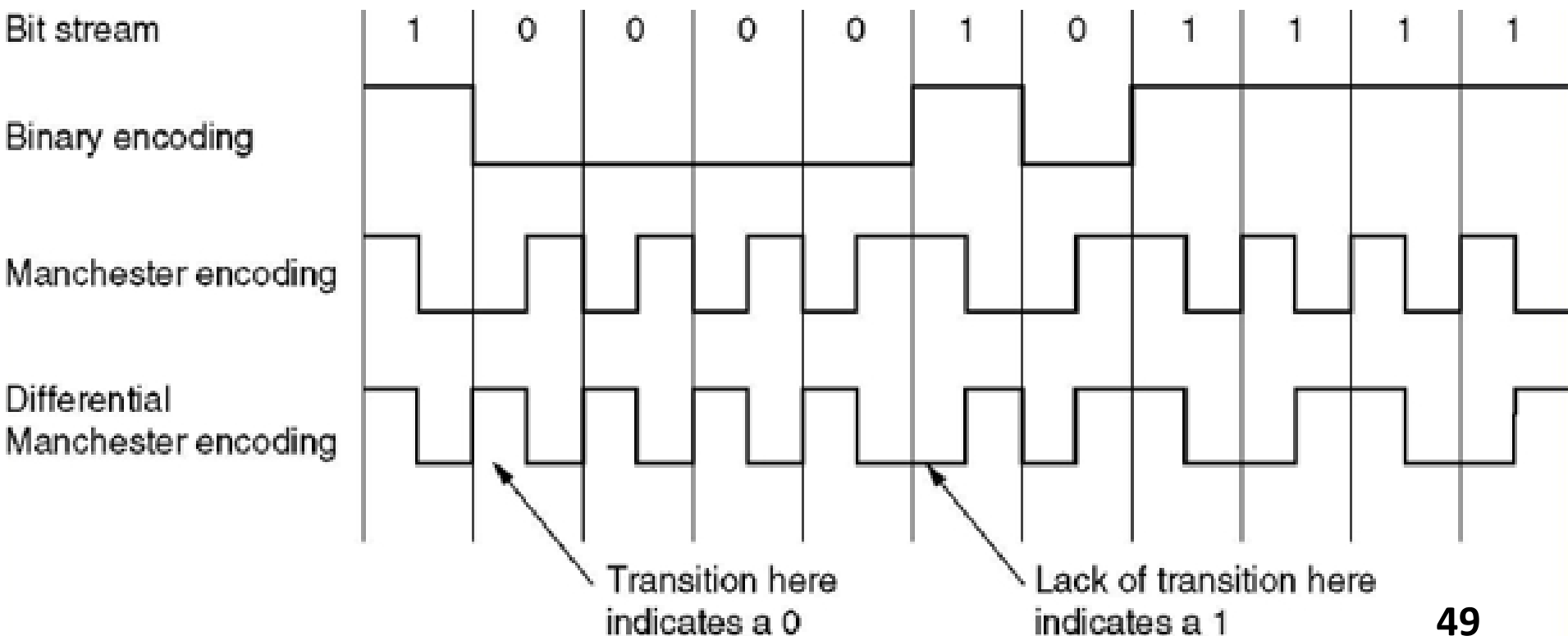
# 802.3: Classic Ethernet Physical Layer

**Manchester encoding** (used by Ethernet):

0: low-high;                      1: high-low;

**Differential Manchester encoding** (used by Token Ring):

0: presence of transition; 1: absence of transition



# Previously on Computer Networks

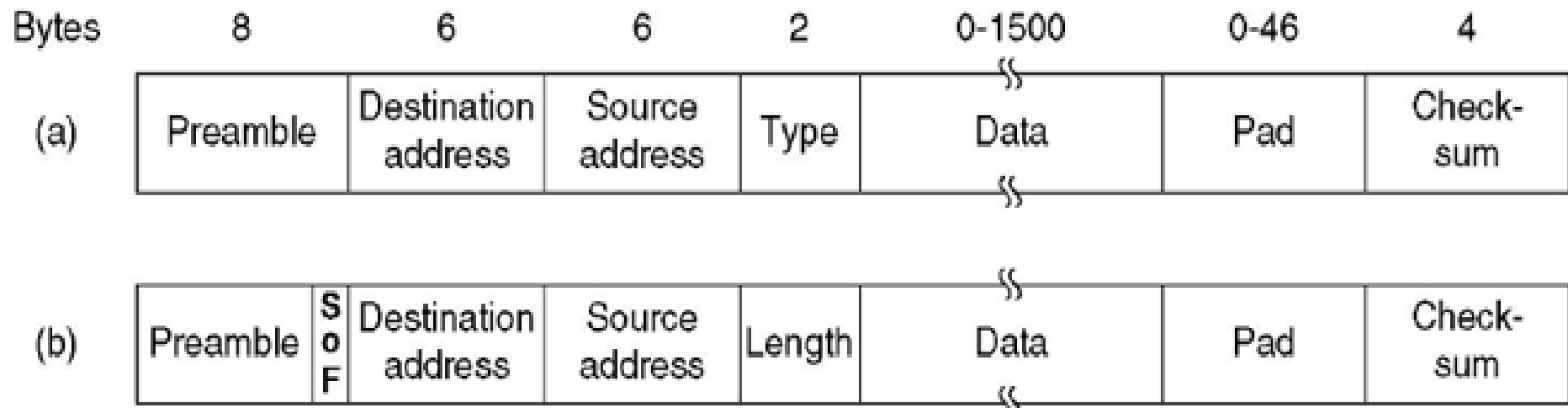
- Static channel allocation
- Dynamic channel allocation
  - ALOHA
  - CSMA, persistent CSMA, nonpersistent CSMA, p-persistent CSMA
  - Collision-free protocols: bitmap, token ring, binary countdown
  - Limited contention protocols: adaptive tree walk
- Wireless LAN
- 802.3 Ethernet physical layer

# 802.3: MAC Sublayer Protocol

## Frame formats.

- a) DIX Ethernet,
- b) IEEE 802.3.

*T/L <= 0x600 (1536): length; otherwise, type*

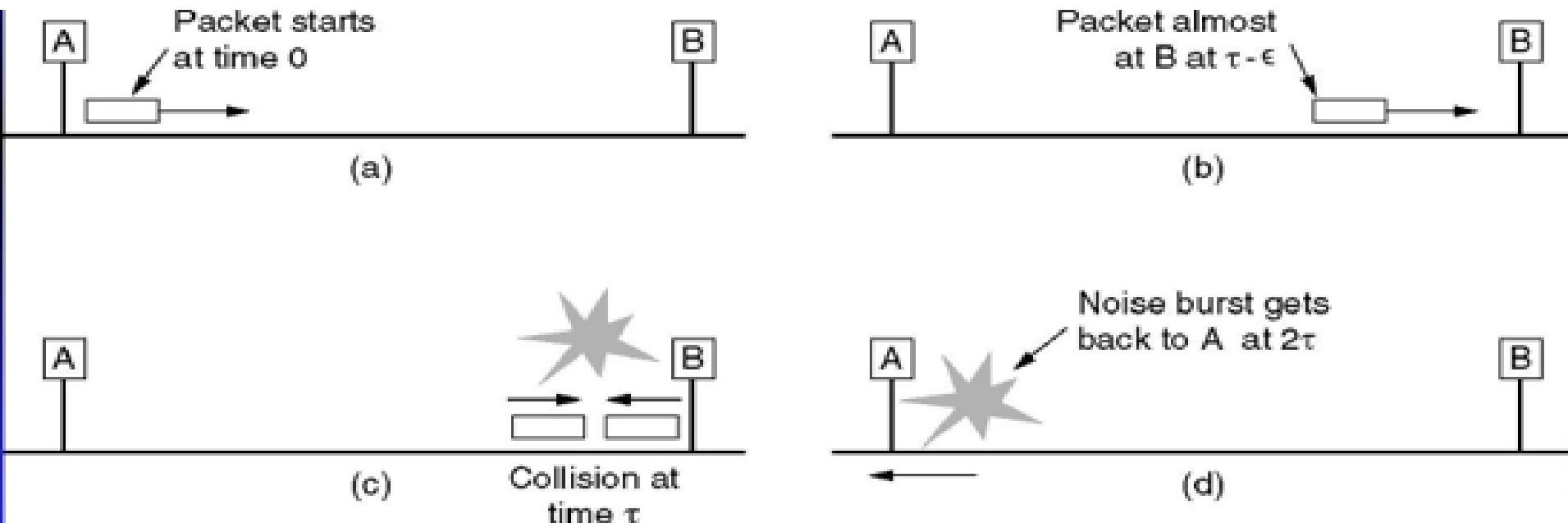


# 802.3: MAC Sublayer Protocol

- Preamble: 8 bytes, containing the bit pattern 10101010, used for synchronization
- Destination address and source address: 6 bytes each
  - Unicast address
  - Broadcast address
  - Multicast address
- Type field or length field
- Data: 1500 bytes (maximum), 46 bytes (minimum)
- Checksum: 32 bits, CRC

# 802.3: MAC Sublayer Protocol

How long does it take to find out whether there is a collision or not?



Collision detection can take as long as  $2\tau$ .

## 802.3: MAC Sublayer Protocol

- All frames must take **more than  $2\tau$**  to send.
  - Too quick (to miss the collision)
  - Longer than  **$2\tau$**  to be sure of success.
- For a 10-Mbps LAN with a maximum length of 2500 meters and four repeaters, the maximum RTT is about 50us.

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Min frame length} &= 50\mu\text{s} * 10 \text{ Mbps} \\ &= 50 * 10^{-6} \text{ s} * 10 * 10^6 \text{ bits/s} = 500 \text{ bits} \approx 64 \text{ B}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Min payload length} &= 64 - 18 \text{ (src:6, dest:6, type:2, crc:4)} \\ &= 46 \text{ B } (\rightarrow \text{ Why min payload} = 46)\end{aligned}$$

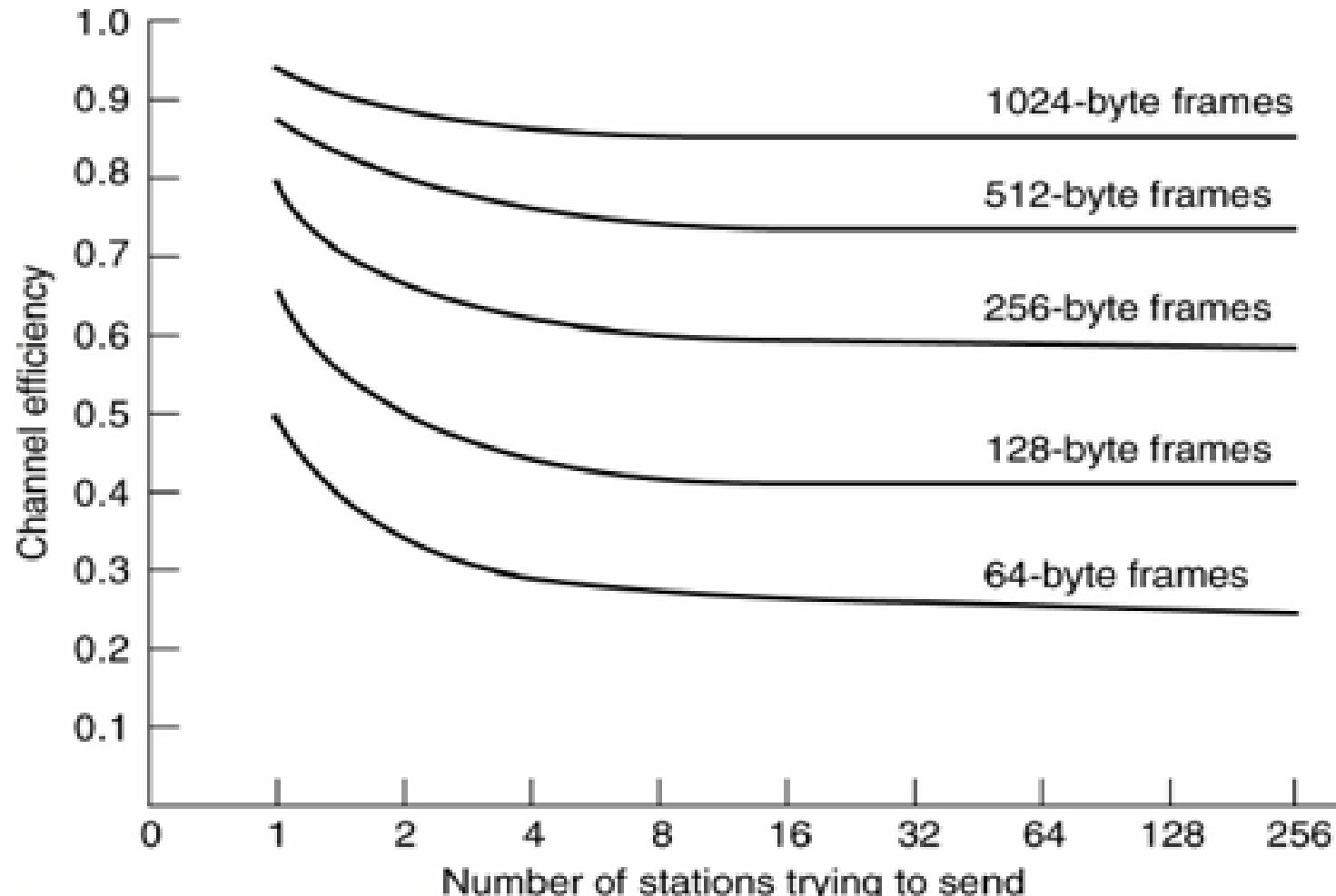
# 802.3: MAC Sublayer Protocol:

## The **Binary Exponential Backoff Algorithm**

- Time is divided into discrete slots (51.2us).
- After the *1st* collision, each station waits either 0 or 1 ( $k$  in  $0 \sim 2^1 - 1$ ) slot times before trying again.
- After the *2nd* collision, each station picks either 0,1,2,3 ( $k$  in  $0 \sim 2^2 - 1$ ) at random and waits that number of slot times.
- After  $i$ -th collisions, each station picks either 0,1,2,...,  $2^i - 1$  at random and waits that number of slot times.
- After 10th collisions, the randomization interval is frozen at a maximum of 1023 slots.
- After 16 consecutive collisions, the controller reports failure back to the computer.  
→ limited contention.

# 802.3: Performance

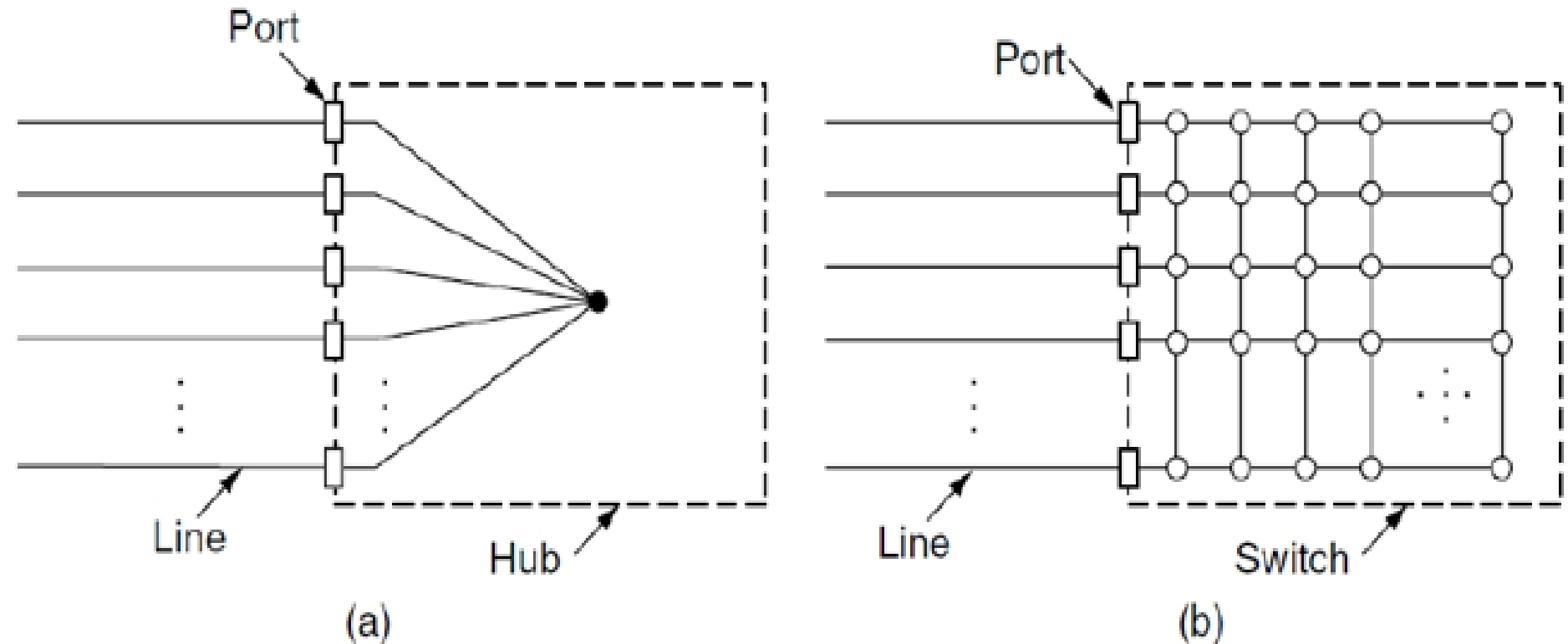
Efficiency of Ethernet at 10 Mbps with 512-bit slot times.





# 802.3: Switched Ethernet

Hub  $\rightarrow$  Switch



# 802.3: Switched Ethernet

- **Switch**: The heart of this system is a **switch** containing a **high-speed backplane** that connects all of the ports
- Switch outputs frames to the ports for which those frames are destined. None of the other ports even knows the frame exists.
- What happens if more than one of the ports wants to send a frame at the same time?
  - Can send a frame on the cable at the same time
  - Why? Each port → one **collision domain**, whereas all stations attached to a hub → one collision domain

# 802.3: Fast Ethernet (100-Mbps)

- Two high speed Ethernet: FDDI and Fiber Channel
  - ◆ Haven't done KISS (Keep It Simple, Stupid)
- IEEE 802
  - ◆ → IEEE 802.3u or Fast Ethernet (1992~1995)
  - ◆ → IEEE 802.3z or gigabit Ethernet (1995~1998)

The original fast Ethernet cabling.

Name	Cable	Max. segment	Advantages
100Base-T4	Twisted pair	100 m	Uses category 3 UTP
100Base-TX	Twisted pair	100 m	Full duplex at 100 Mbps
100Base-FX	Fiber optics	2000 m	Full duplex at 100 Mbps; long runs

# 802.3: Gigabit Ethernet (1-Gbps)

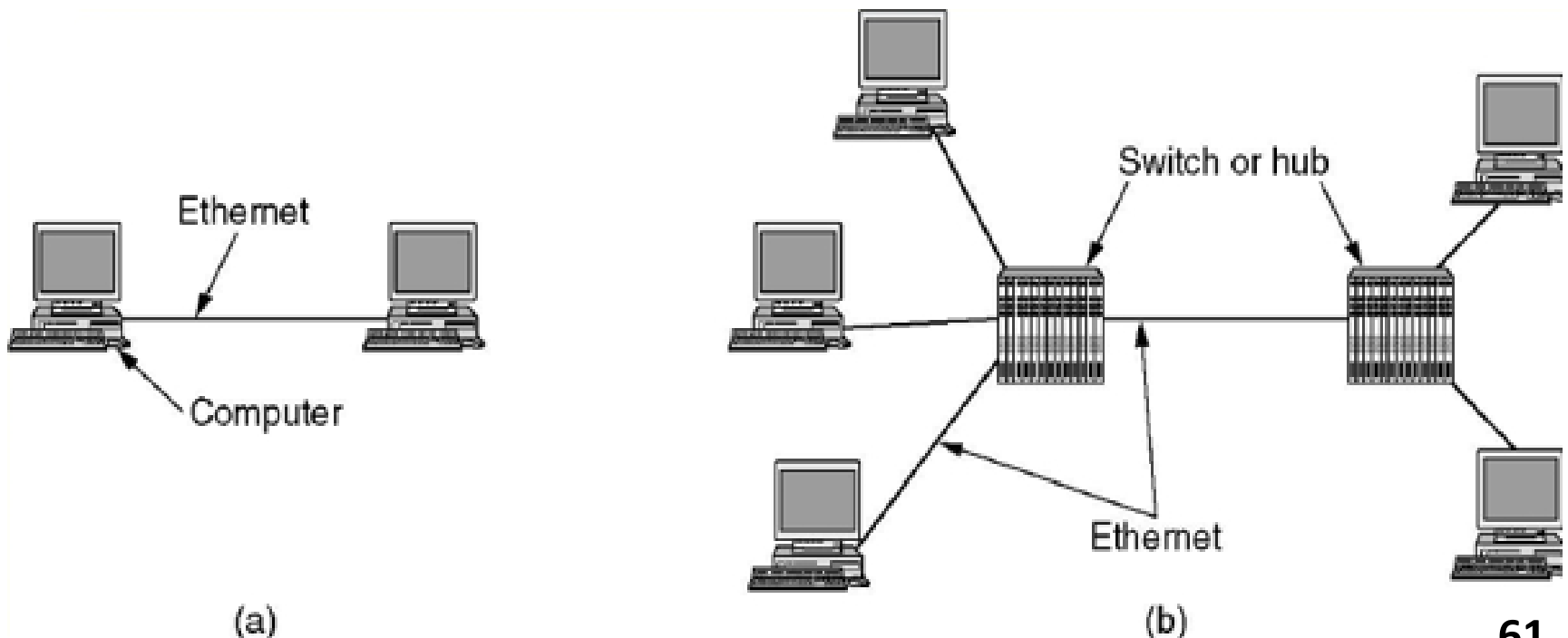
## Gigabit Ethernet cabling.

Name	Cable	Max. segment	Advantages
1000Base-SX	Fiber optics	550 m	Multimode fiber (50, 62.5 microns)
1000Base-LX	Fiber optics	5000 m	Single (10 $\mu$ ) or multimode (50, 62.5 $\mu$ )
1000Base-CX	2 Pairs of STP	25 m	Shielded twisted pair
1000Base-T	4 Pairs of UTP	100 m	Standard category 5 UTP

# 802.3: Gigabit Ethernet (1-Gbps)

Possible connections:

- a. A two-station Ethernet.
- b. A multistation Ethernet.



# 802.3: 10-Gigabit Ethernet

## 10-Gigabit Ethernet cabling.

Name	Cable	Max. segment	Advantages
10GBase-SR	Fiber optics	Up to 300 m	Multimode fiber (0.85 $\mu$ )
10GBase-LR	Fiber optics	10 km	Single-mode fiber (1.3 $\mu$ )
10GBase-ER	Fiber optics	40 km	Single-mode fiber (1.5 $\mu$ )
10GBase-CX4	4 Pairs of twinax	15 m	Twinaxial copper
10GBase-T	4 Pairs of UTP	100 m	Category 6a UTP

## 802.3: Comments

- Ethernet has been around for over 20 years
- Simple and flexible
  - ◆ Cheap
  - ◆ Easy to maintain
  - ◆ Ethernet works easily with TCP/IP
- There are 3 LAN standards:
  - ◆ 802.3 (Ethernet),
  - ◆ 802.4 (Token bus),
  - ◆ 802.5 (Token ring).
- They use roughly similar technology and get roughly similar performance.

# 802.3: Comments

## 802.3 (Ethernet):

- most widely used, simple, easy installation, low delay at low load.
- nondeterministic, no priorities, 64 byte minimum frame, collision problem

## 802.4 (Token bus(令牌总线) )

- more deterministic, short minimum frames, priorities, real-time, multiple channels.
- a lot of analog engineering and including modems and wideband amplifiers, extremely complex protocol, substantial delay at low load, poorly suited for fiber optic implementations and a small installed base of users.

## 802.5 (Token Ring(令牌环) )

- Easy engineering, fully digital, priorities, excellent throughput and efficiency at high load.
- centralized monitor, delay at low load.

→ **the winner is 802.3.**

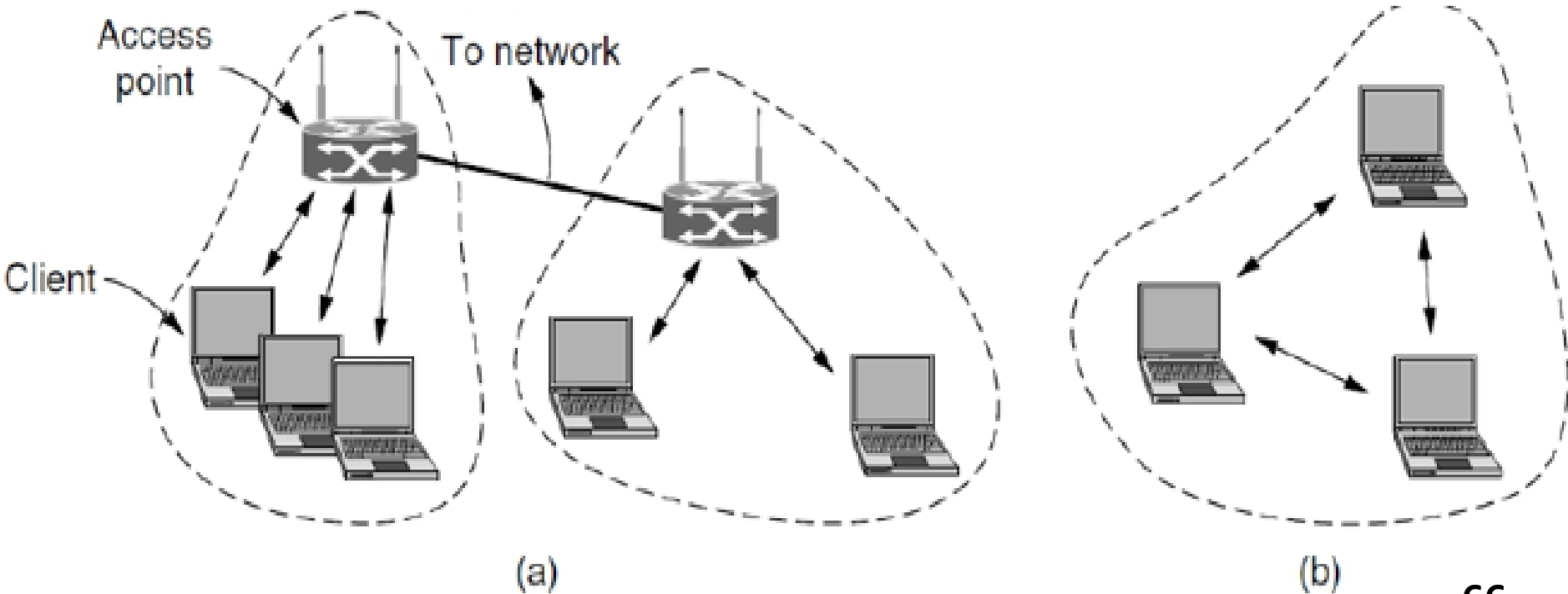


# IEEE 802.11 (WIRELESS LANs)

- The 802.11 Architecture and Protocol Stack
- The 802.11 Physical Layer
- The 802.11 MAC Sublayer Protocol
- The 802.11 Frame Structure
- Services

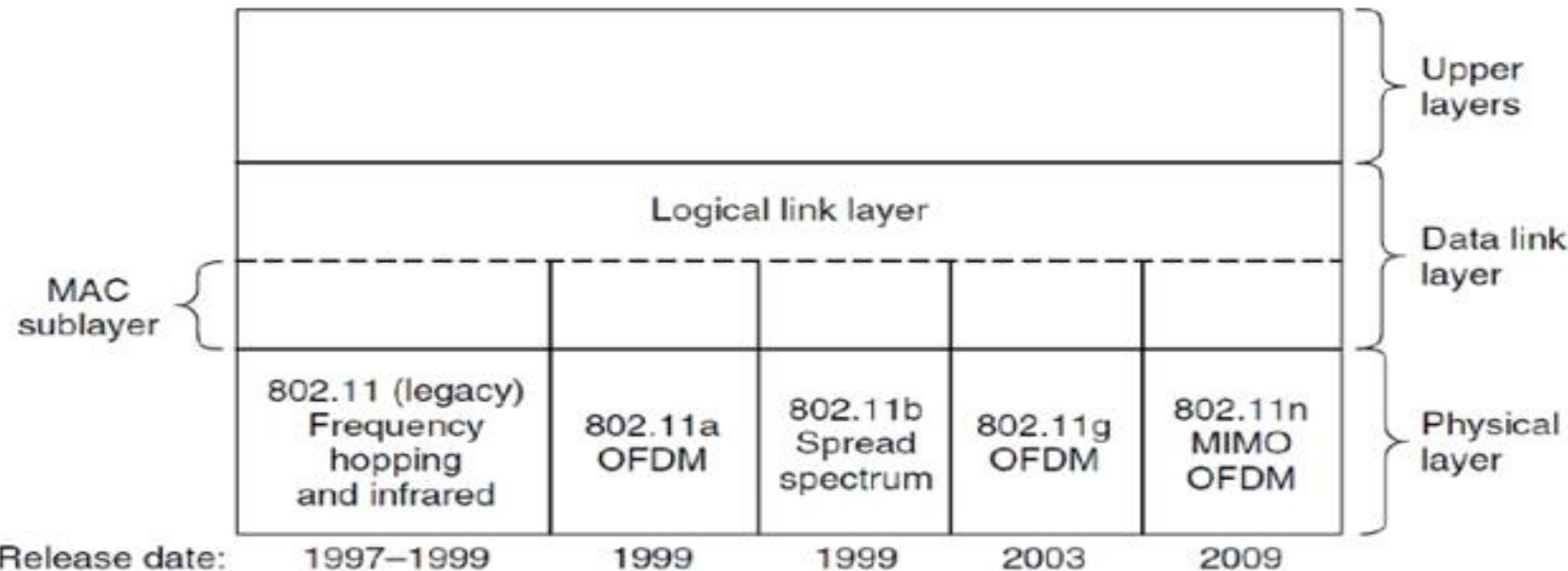
# The 802.11: Architecture and Protocol Stack

## 802.11 architecture. (a) Infrastructure mode. (b) Ad-hoc mode.



# The 802.11: Architecture and Protocol Stack

Part of the 802.11 protocol stack.



# The 802.11: Physical Protocol

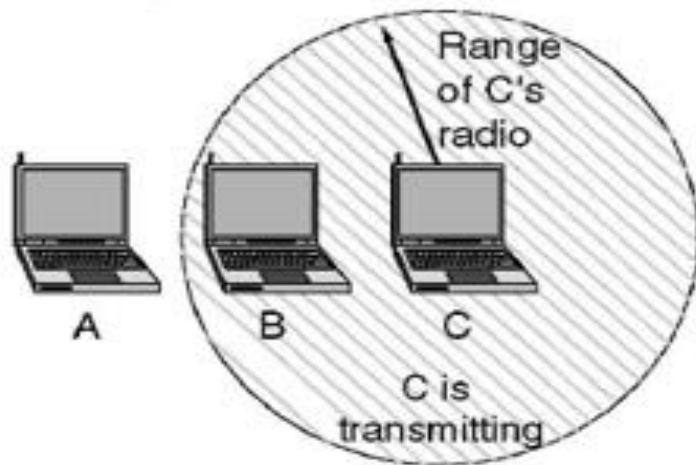
- **802.11: FHSS** (Frequency Hopping Spread Spectrum) and Infrared (**2.4Mbps**)
- **802.11a: OFDM** (Orthogonal Frequency Division Multiplexing) at 5GHz (**54Mbps**)
- **802.11b: HR-DSSS** (High Rate Direct Sequence Spread Spectrum) (**11Mbps**)
- **802.11g: OFDM** (Orthogonal Frequency Division Multiplexing) at 2.4 GHz (**54Mbps**)
- **802.11n: MIMO OFDM** (Multiple-Input Multiple-Output Orthogonal Frequency Division Multiplexing) at multiple frequencies. (**600Mbps**)

# The 802.11: Sublayer Protocol

(a) The hidden station problem.

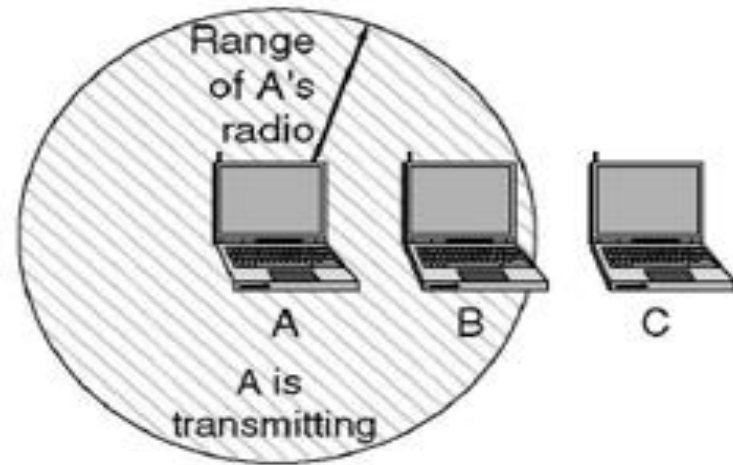
(b) The exposed station problem.

A wants to send to B  
but cannot hear that  
B is busy



(a)

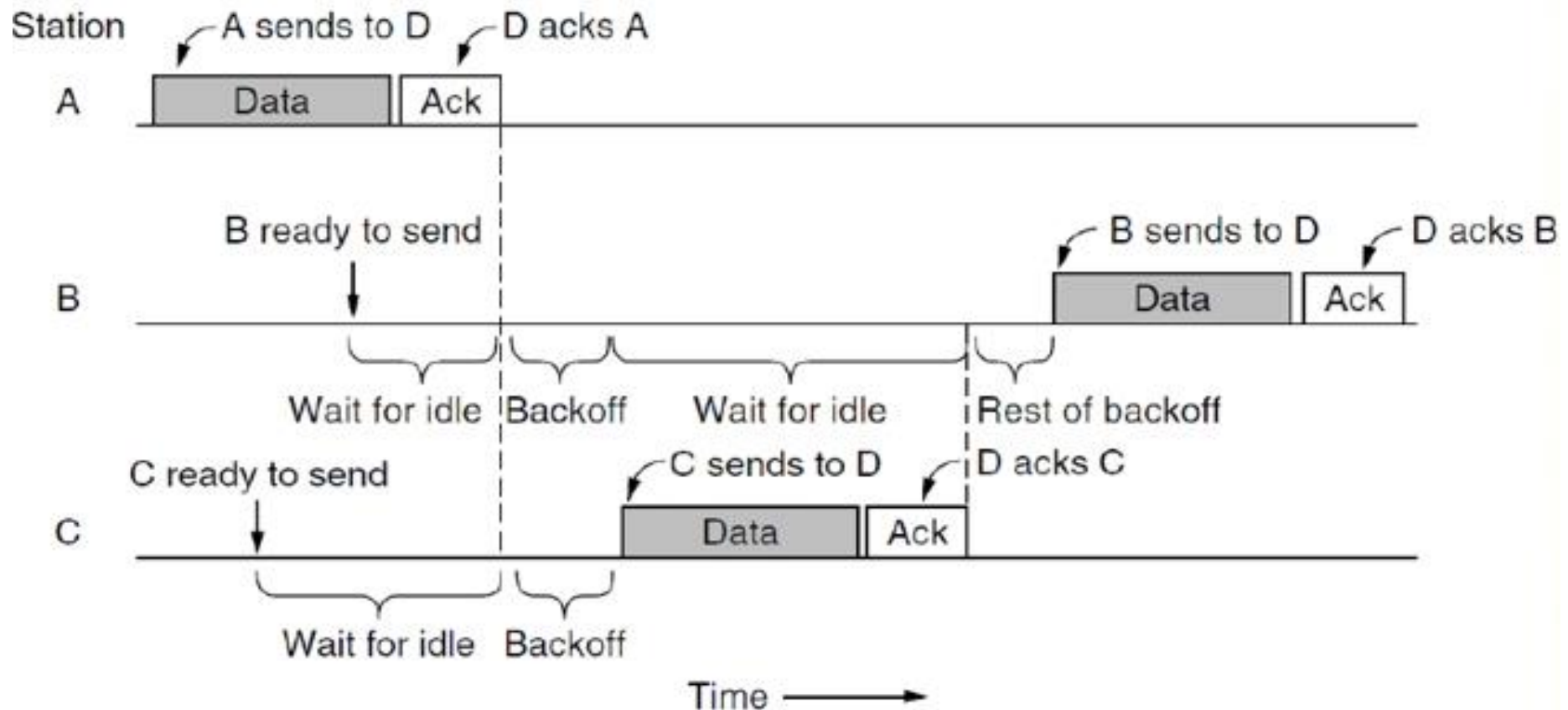
B wants to send to C  
but mistakenly thinks  
the transmission will fail



(b)

# The 802.11: Sublayer Protocol

## Sending a frame with CSMA/CA



# The 802.11: Sublayer Protocol

- **DCF** (Distributed Coordination Function, 分布协调功能): CSMA/CA (CSMA with Collision Avoidance)
- **PCF** (Point Coordination Function, 集中协调功能): the access point controls all activity in its cell, just like a cellular base station (not used in practice)

# The 802.11: Sublayer Protocol: PCF

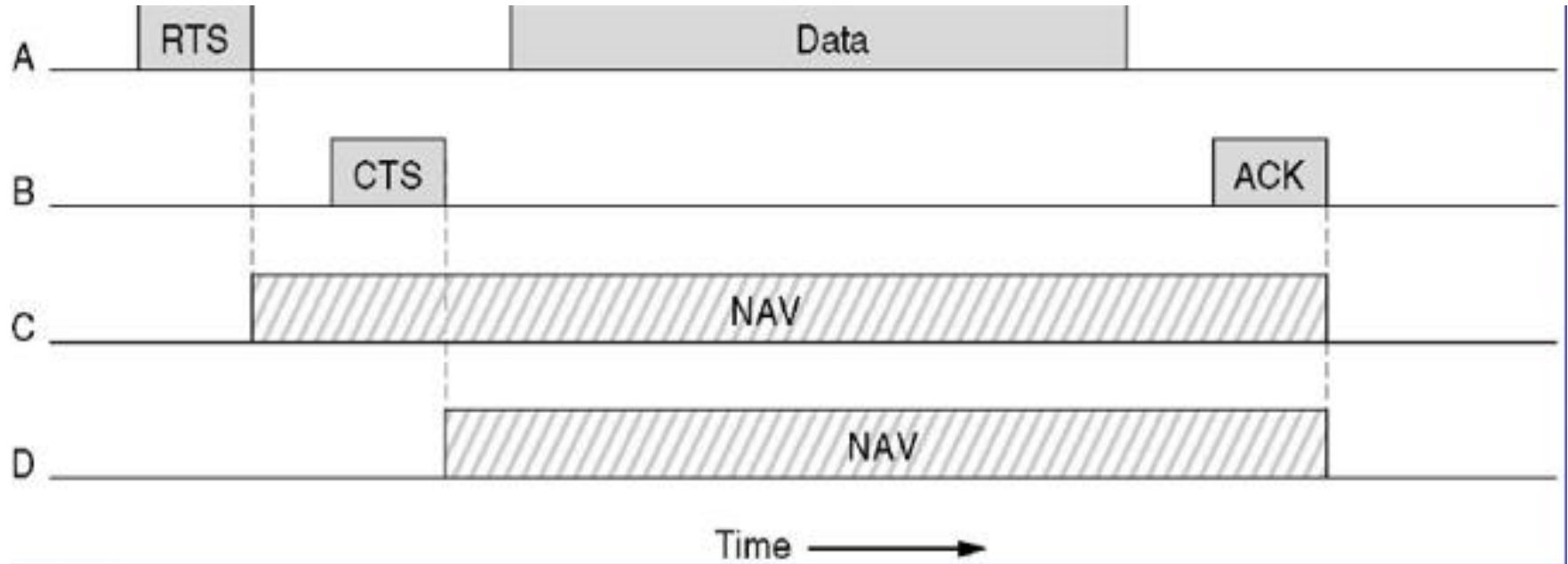
## ■ PCF (Point Coordination Function)

- ◆ The base station broadcasts a beacon frame periodically. The beacon frame contains system parameters, such as hopping sequences and dwell times (for FHSS), clock synchronization, etc.
- ◆ The base station also invites new stations to sign up for polling service. Once a station has signed up for polling service at a certain rate, it is effectively guaranteed a certain fraction of the bandwidth, thus making it possible to give quality-of-service guarantees.
- ◆ 802.11 pays attention to the issue of power management.



# The 802.11: Sublayer Protocol: DCF

The use of virtual channel sensing using CSMA/CA.

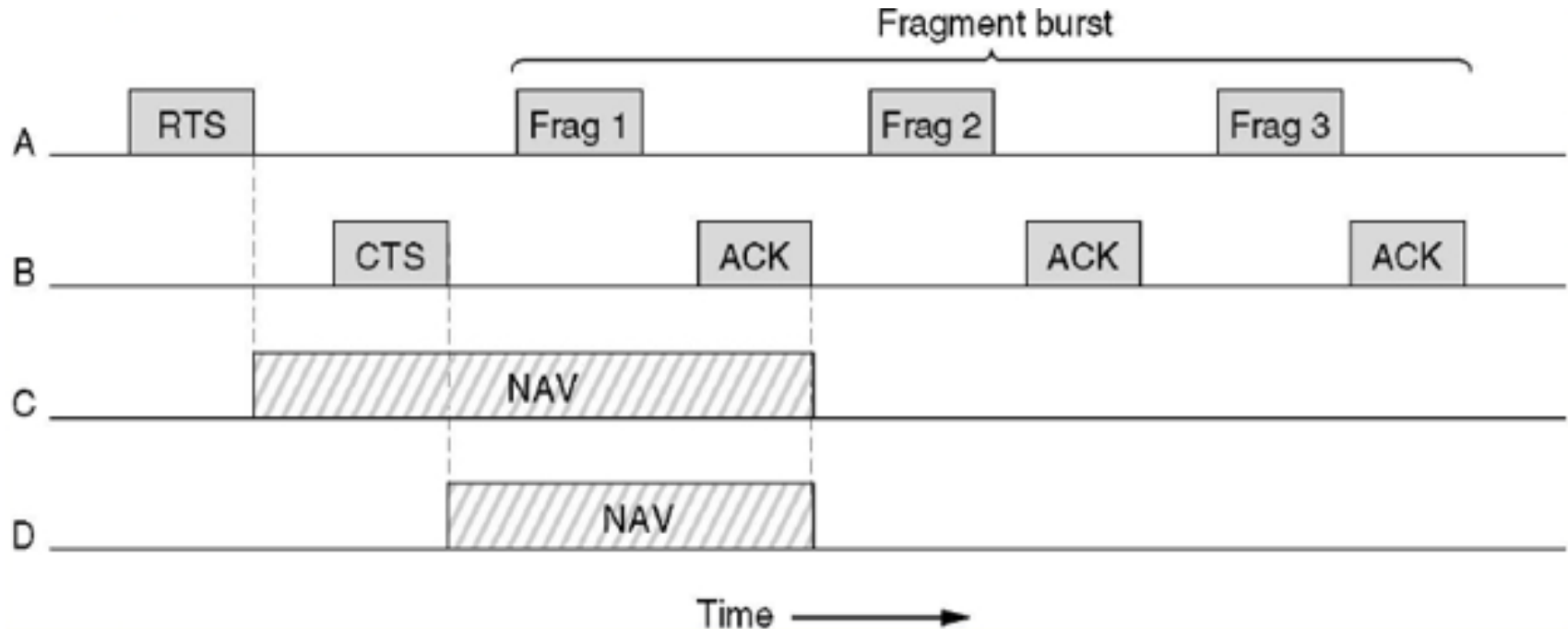


***802.11 takes a conservative approach:***

Stations hearing RTS cannot send data during NAV, i.e. exposed terminals of A cannot concurrently send data with A (as opposed to MACA)

# The 802.11: Sublayer Protocol: DCF

## A fragment burst.



*Why fragment?*

*How to ensure continuous transmission?*

# The 802.11: Sublayer Protocol

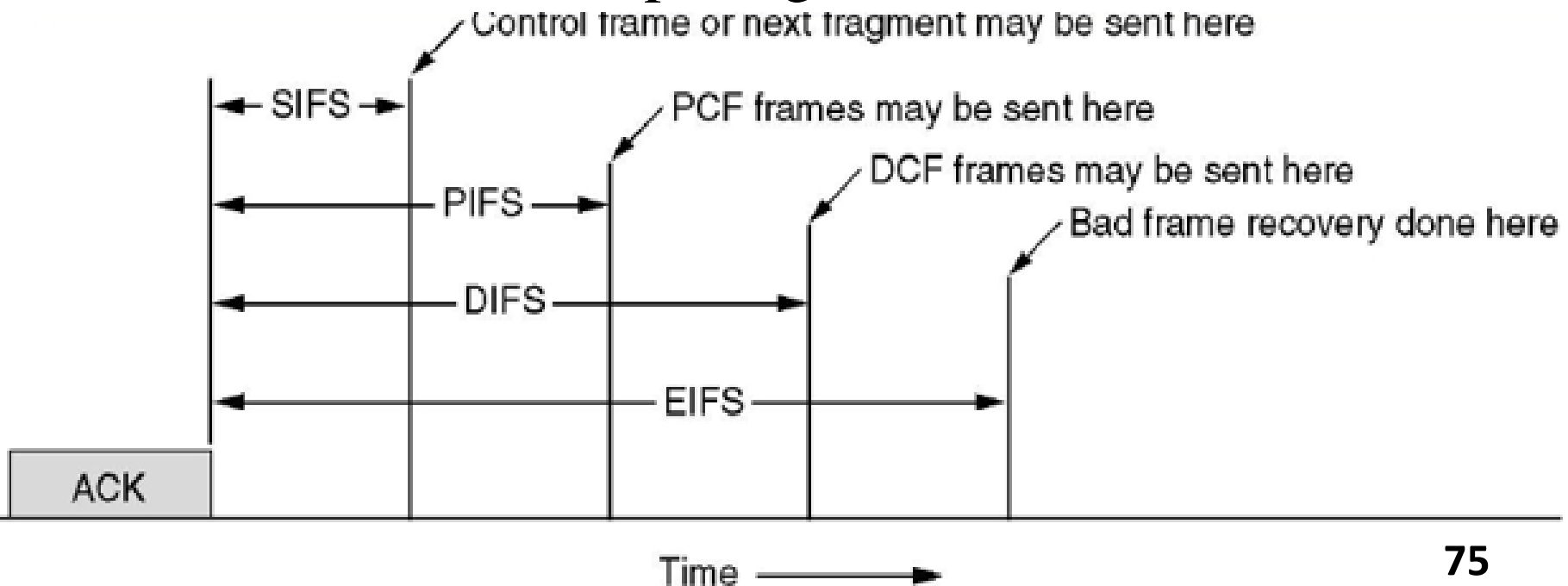
SIFS: Short InterFrame Spacing

PIFS: PCF InterFrame Spacing

DIFS: DCF InterFrame Spacing

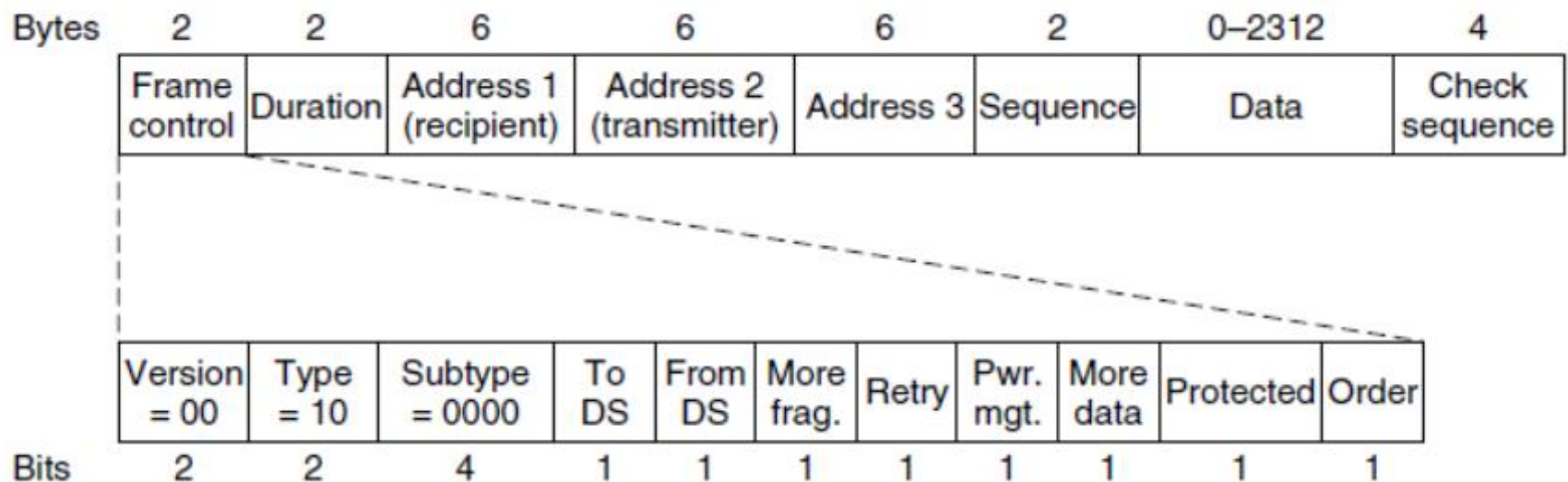
EIFS: Extended InterFrame Spacing

Interframe spacing in 802.11.



# The 802.11: Frame Structure

- The 802.11 standard defines three different classes of frames:
  - ◆ Data
  - ◆ Control
  - ◆ Management
- The 802.11 data frame



# The 802.11: Services

## ■ Intracell Services

- ◆ Authentication
- ◆ Deauthentication
- ◆ Privacy
- ◆ Data Delivery

## ■ Intercell Services

- ◆ Association
- ◆ Disassociation
- ◆ Reassociation
- ◆ Distribution
- ◆ Integration

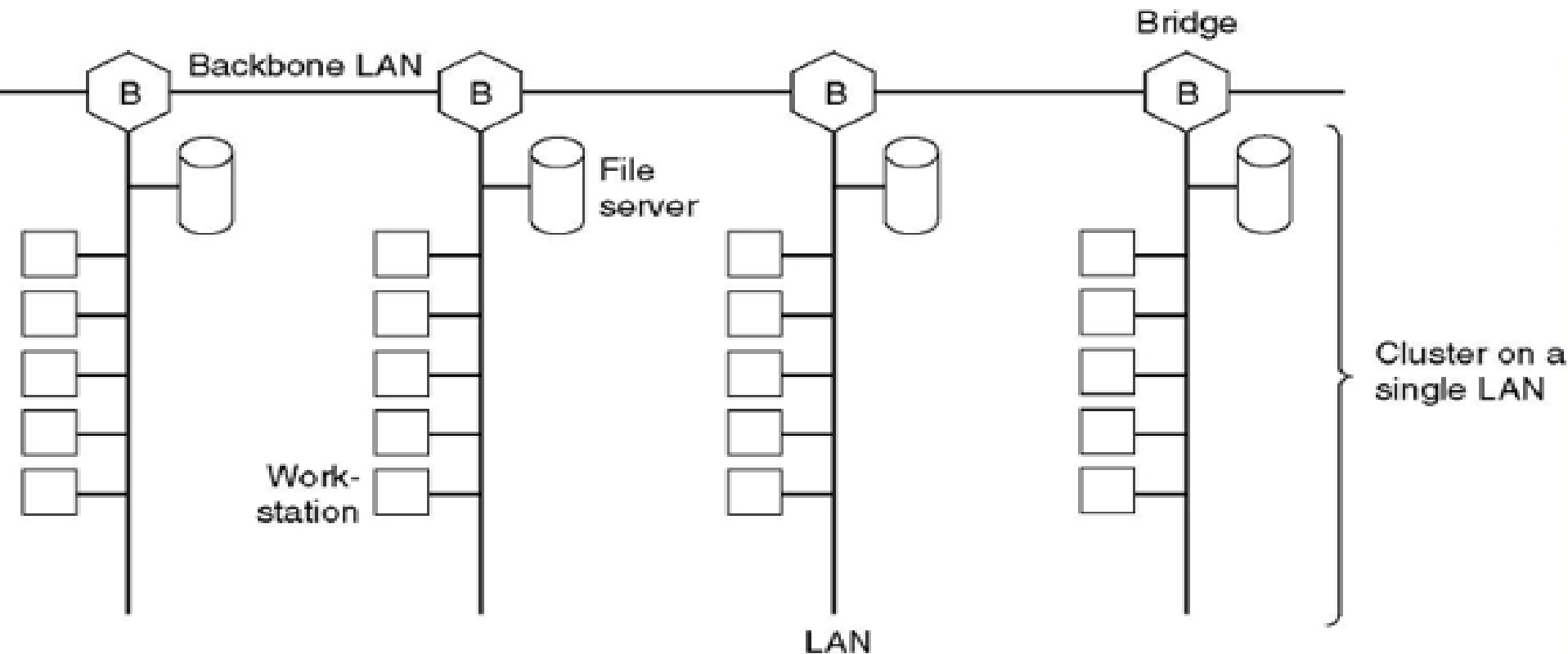
# Data Link Layer Switching

- ◆ Uses of Bridges
- ◆ Learning Bridges
- ◆ Spanning Tree Bridges
- ◆ Virtual LANs
- ◆ Hubs, Repeaters, Bridges, Switches, Routers, Gateways

# Data Link Layer Switching:

## Uses of Bridges

Multiple LANs connected by a backbone to handle a total load higher than the capacity of a single LAN.



# Data Link Layer Switching:

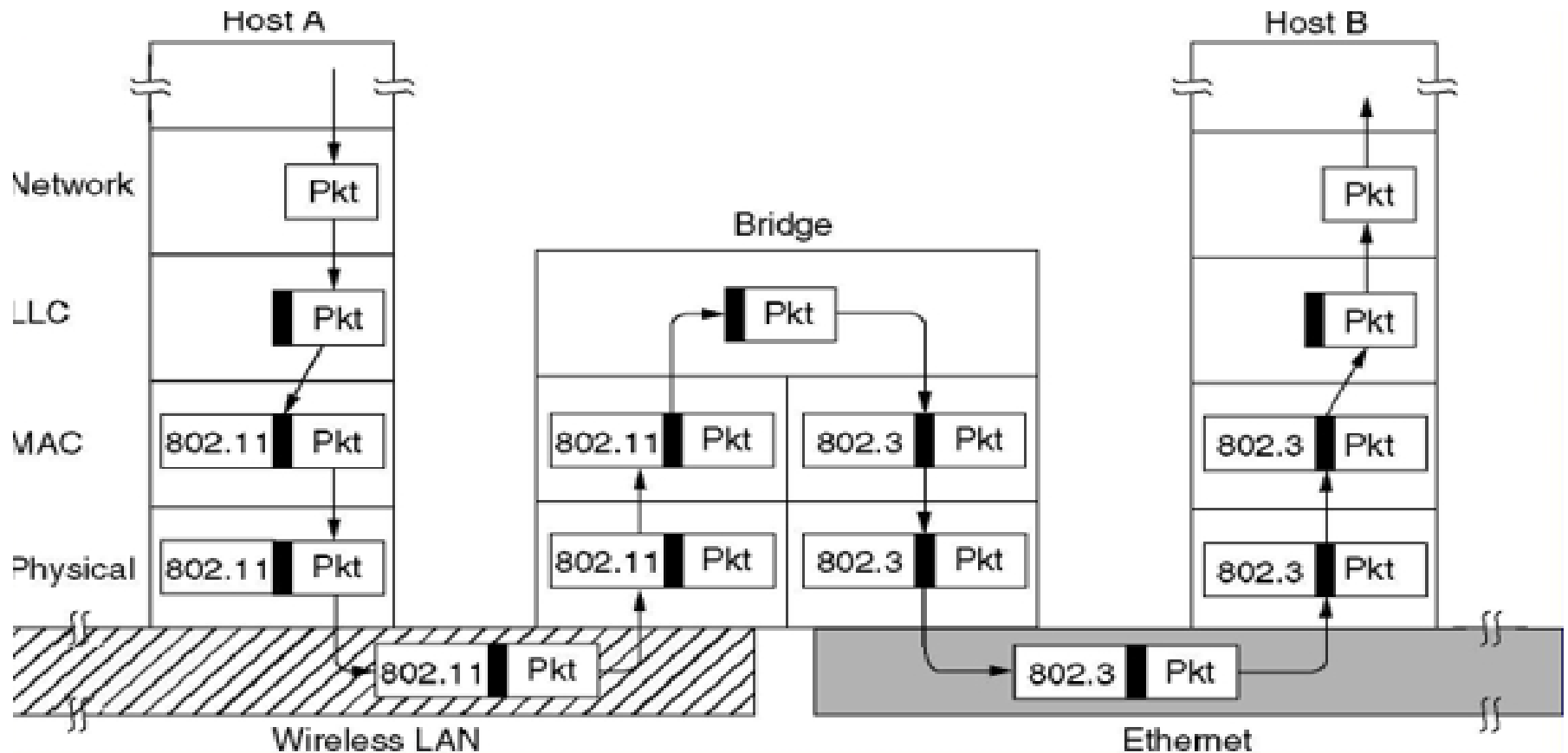
## Uses of Bridges

- Why bridges are used?
  - ◆ Different organizations have different LANs, but need communicate.
  - ◆ Different locations have different LANs. Using bridges are cost effective than using a centralized switch.
  - ◆ Multiple LANs are used to accommodate the load.
  - ◆ ...



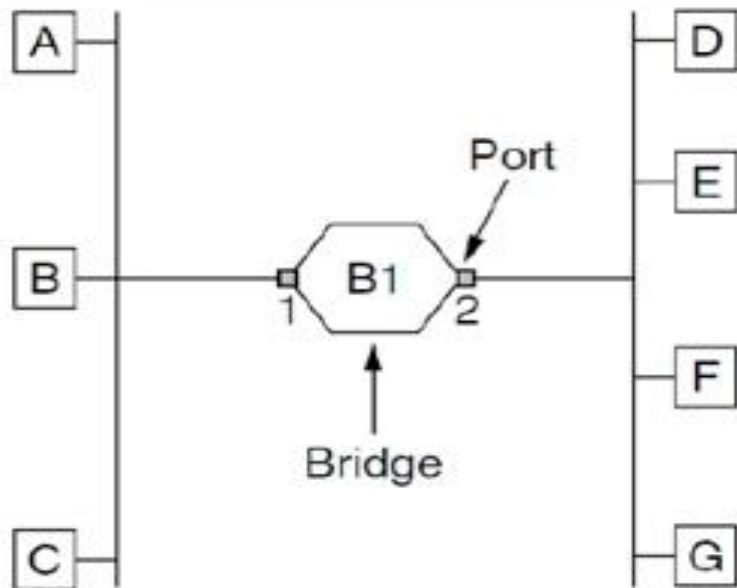
# Data Link Layer Switching: Uses of Bridges

Operation of a LAN bridge from 802.11 to 802.3.

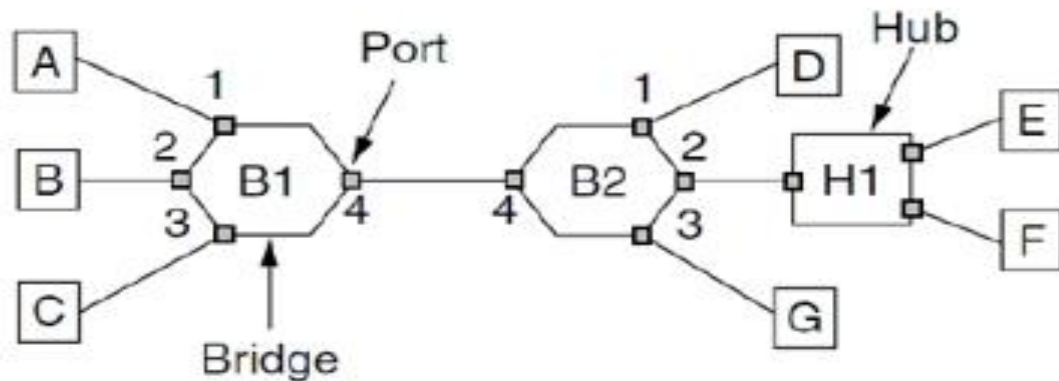


# Data Link Layer Switching: Learning Bridges

- a) Bridge connecting two LANs.
- b) Bridges (and a hub) connecting seven point-to-point stations.



(a)



(b)

# Data Link Layer Switching:

## Learning Bridges

- The first 802 bridge is a **learning bridge** or **transparent bridge** (透明网桥).
- The bridge has a big (hash) table inside it. The table can list each possible destination and tell which output line (LAN) it belongs on.
- When a frame arrives, a bridge must decide whether to discard or forward it and if the latter, on which LAN to put the frame.

# Data Link Layer Switching:

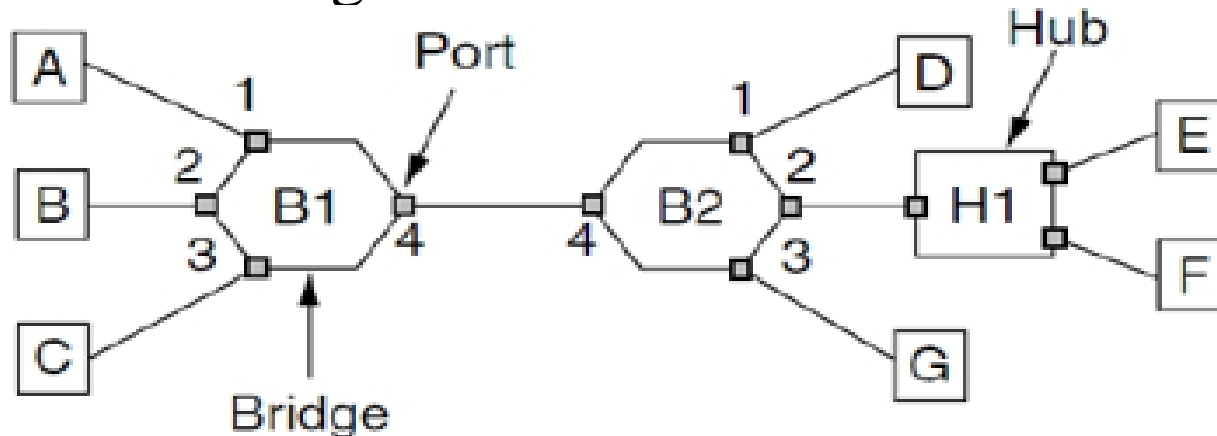
## Learning Bridges

- The hash table for the bridge
  - ◆ When the first bridges are first plugged in, all the hash tables are empty. None of the bridges know where any of the destinations are, so they use the flooding algorithm.
  - ◆ As time goes on, the bridges learn where destinations are. (**backward learning**)
  - ◆ Whenever a frame whose source is already in the table arrives, its entry is updated with the current time. (time updating)
  - ◆ Periodically, a process in the bridge scans the hash table and purges all entries more than a few minutes old. (Aging)

# Data Link Layer Switching:

## Learning Bridges

- The routing procedure for an incoming frame depends on the LAN it arrives and the LAN its destination is on.
  - If destination and source LANs are the same,  
→ Discard the frame.
  - If the destination and source LANs are different,  
→ Forward the frame.
  - If the destination LAN is unknown,  
→ Use flooding.



# Data Link Layer Switching:

## Spanning Tree Bridges

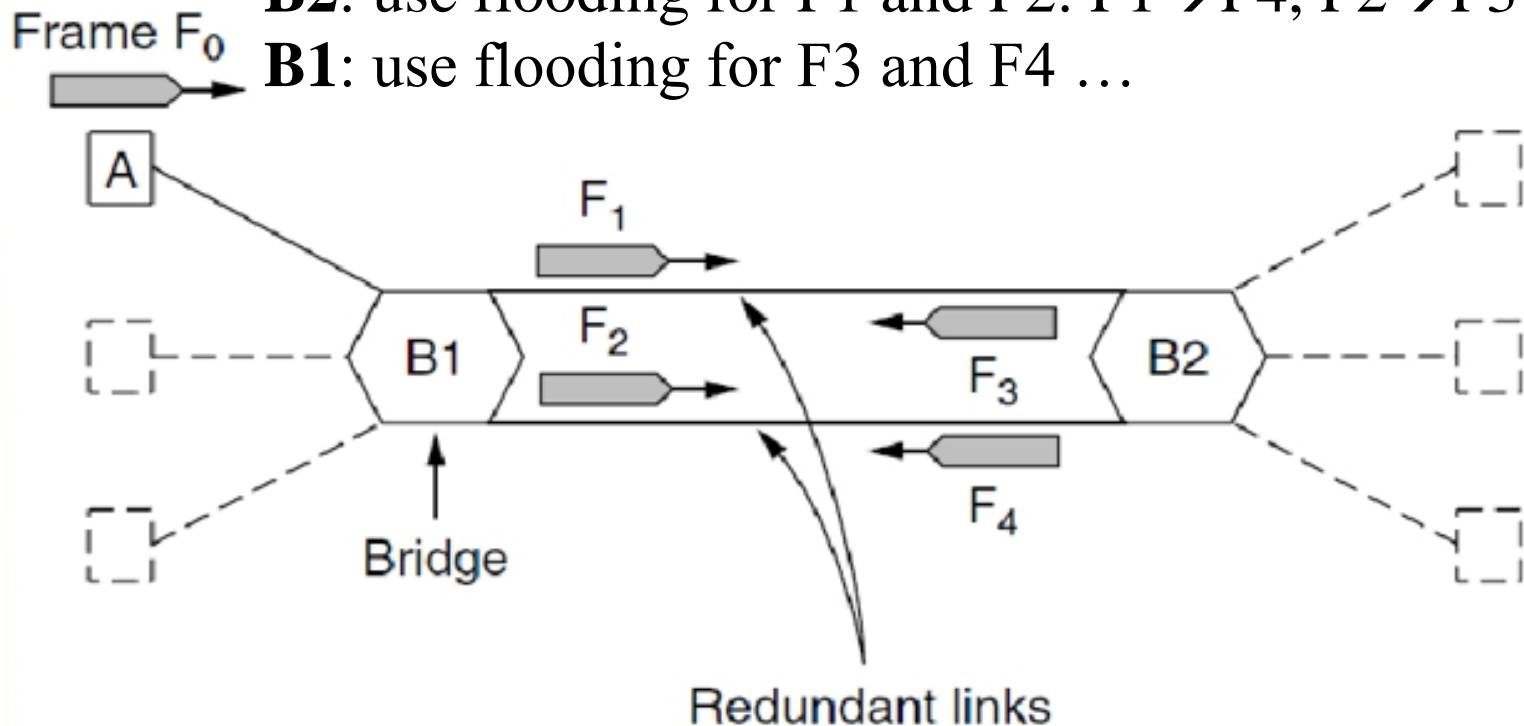
To increase reliability, redundant link may used. → **loop**

**Ex:** A → unknown station

**B1:** use flooding for F<sub>0</sub>, → F<sub>1</sub> and F<sub>2</sub> and others

**B2:** use flooding for F<sub>1</sub> and F<sub>2</sub>: F<sub>1</sub> → F<sub>4</sub>, F<sub>2</sub> → F<sub>3</sub>

**B1:** use flooding for F<sub>3</sub> and F<sub>4</sub> ...



Bridges with two parallel links

# Data Link Layer Switching:

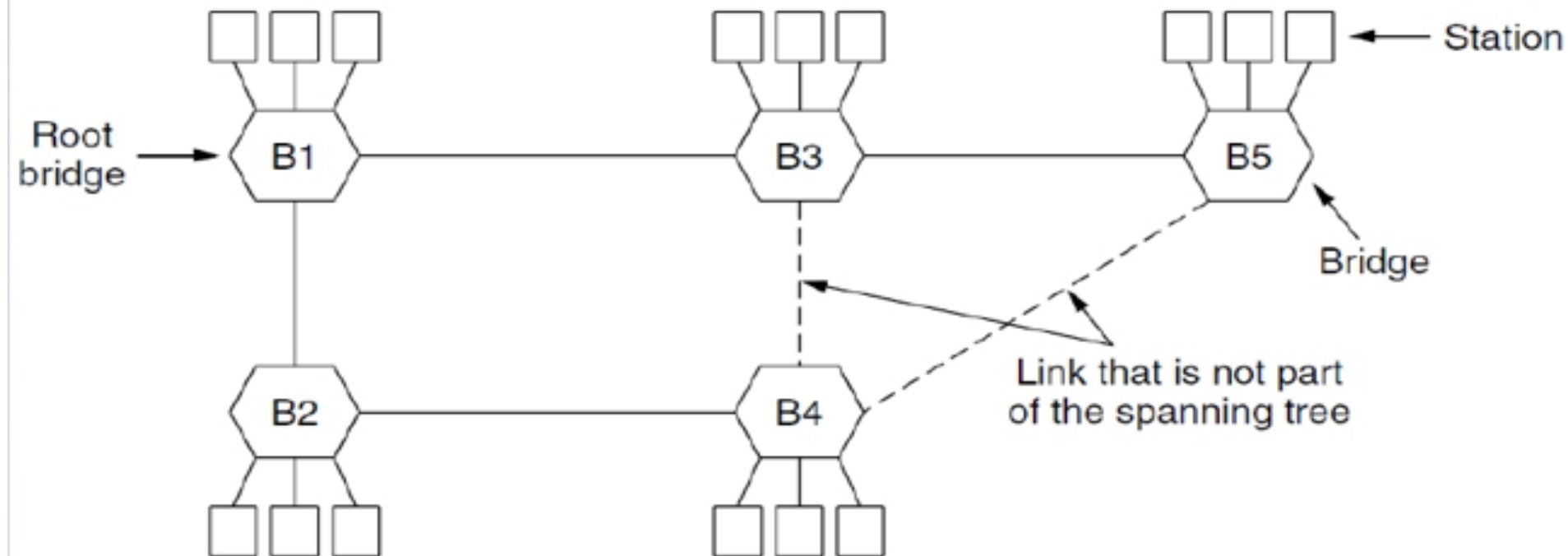
## Spanning Tree Bridges

- The problem occurs if the topology contains loops!
- The solution to this difficulty is for the bridges to communicate with each other and overlay the actual topology with a spanning tree that reaches every LAN.

# Data Link Layer Switching:

## Spanning Tree Bridges

A spanning tree connecting five bridges.  
The dashed lines are links that are not part of the spanning tree.





# Data Link Layer Switching:

## Spanning Tree Bridges

- How to build the spanning tree
  - ◆ The bridges have to choose one bridge to be the root of the tree. They make this choice by having each one broadcast its serial number, installed by the manufacturer and guaranteed to be unique worldwide. The bridge with the lowest serial number becomes the root.
  - ◆ A tree of shortest paths from the root to every bridge and LAN is constructed. This tree is the spanning tree.
  - ◆ If a bridge or LAN fails, a new one is computed.

# Data Link Layer Switching:

## Spanning Tree Bridges: Radia Perlman

*I think that I shall never see  
A graph more lovely than a tree.*

*A tree whose crucial property*

*Is loop-free connectivity.  
A tree which must be sure to span.*

*So packets can reach every LAN.*

*First the Root must be selected*

*By ID it is elected.  
Least cost paths from Root are traced*

*In the tree these paths are placed.*

*A mesh is made by folks like me*

*Then bridges find a spanning tree.*

# Data Link Layer Switching:

## Virtual LANs

- To increase the scope of a LAN
  - Ex: International Company
- To increase flexibility. e.g., how to dynamically move the user from one LAN to another LAN?
  - Pulling out plugs and pushing them back in somewhere else
  - VLAN (Virtual LAN), IEEE 802.1Q standard

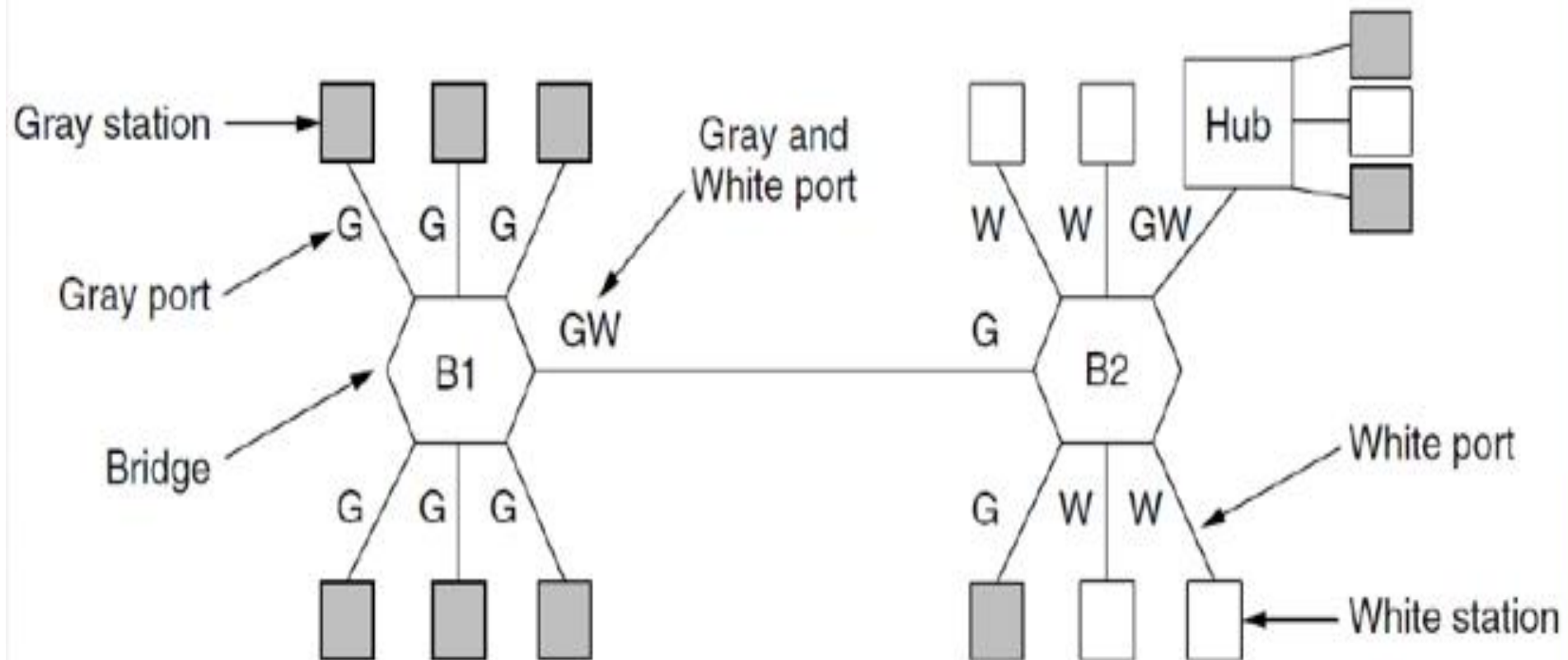
# Data Link Layer Switching:

## Virtual LANs

- To setup a VLAN-based network
- The network administrator decides how many VLANs there will be, which computers will be on which VLAN, and what the VLANs will be called.
- The VLANs are marked/named by colors since it is then possible to print color diagrams showing the physical layout of the machines.
- To make the VLANs function correctly, configuration tables have to set up in the bridges or switches. These tables tell which VLANs are accessible via which ports (lines).
- A port may be labeled with multiple VLAN colors.

# Data Link Layer Switching: Virtual LANs

Two VLANs, gray and white, on a bridged LAN.



# Data Link Layer Switching:

## Virtual LANs

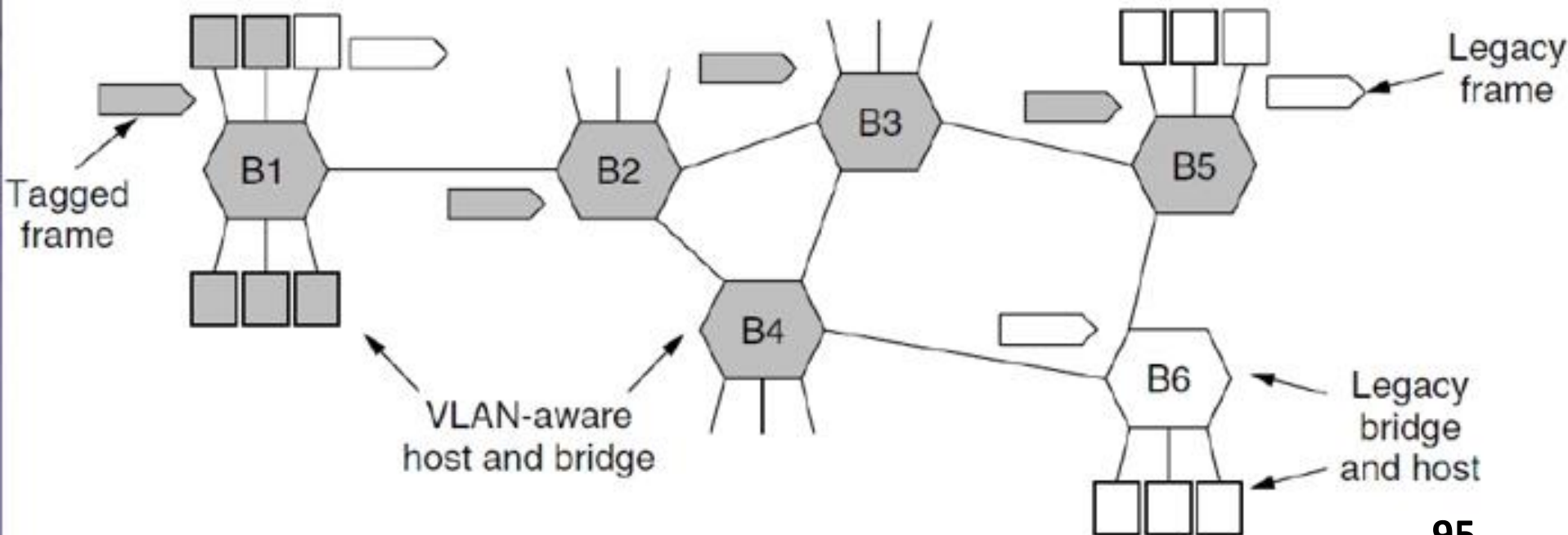
- How do bridges and switches know what color an incoming frame is:
  - Every port is assigned a VLAN color.
  - Every MAC address is assigned a VLAN color.
  - Every layer 3 protocol or IP address is assigned a VLAN color.
- IEEE 802.1Q: add a VLAN tag in Ethernet header

# Data Link Layer Switching:

## Virtual LANs: The IEEE 802.1Q Standard

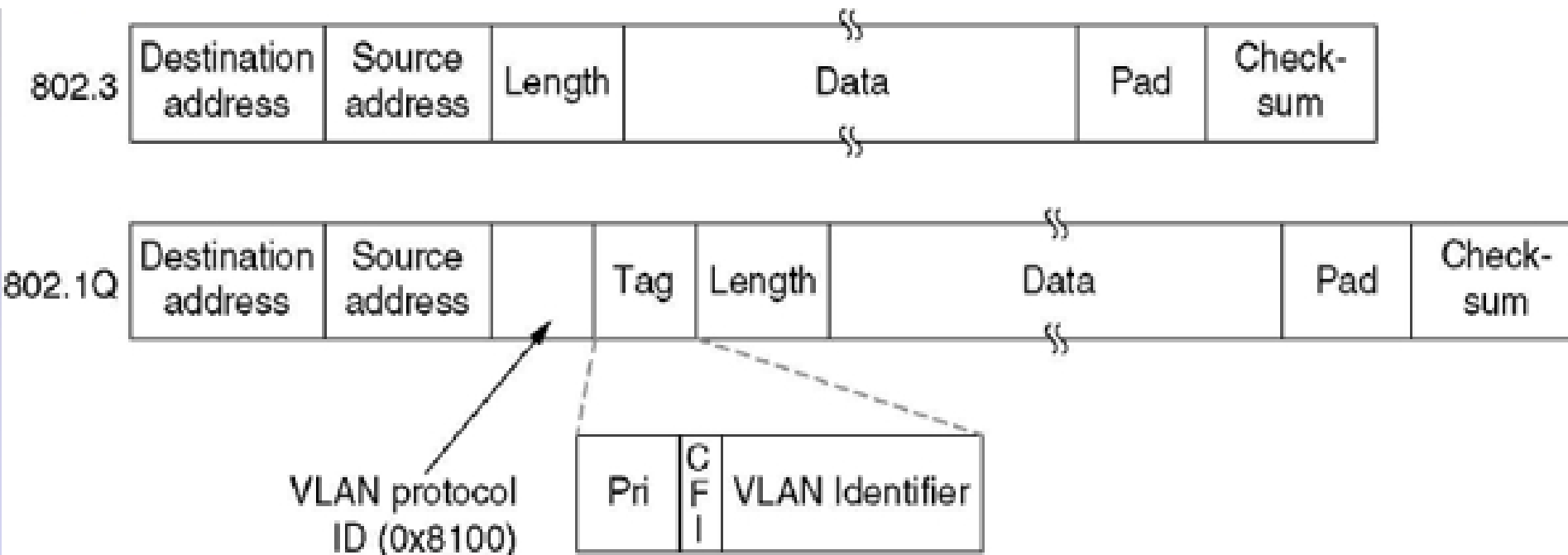
Bridged LAN that is only partly VLAN aware.

- The shaded symbols are VLAN aware.
- The empty ones are not.



# Data Link Layer Switching: The IEEE 802.1Q Standard

The 802.3 (legacy) and 802.1Q  
Ethernet frame formats.





# Data Link Layer Switching:

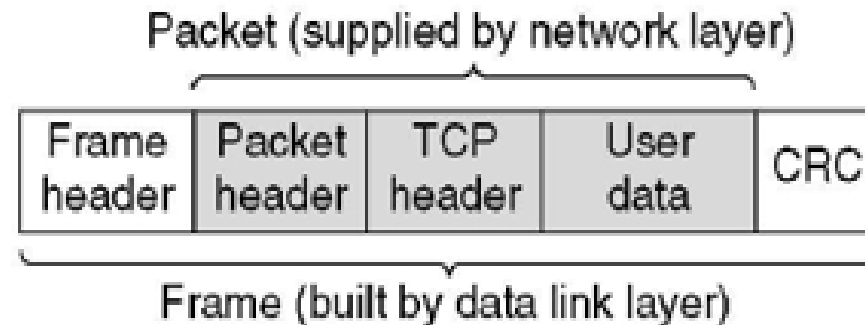
## Hubs, Repeaters, Bridges, Switches, Routers and Gateways

(a) Which device is in which layer.

(b) Frames, packets, and headers.

Application layer	Application gateway
Transport layer	Transport gateway
Network layer	Router
Data link layer	Bridge, switch
Physical layer	Repeater, hub

(a)



(b)

# Data Link Layer Switching:

## Hubs, Repeaters, Bridges, Switches, Routers and Gateways

- Repeaters (中继器)
  - Repeaters are analog devices that connected two cable segments.
  - A signal appearing on one of them is amplified and put out on the other.
  - Repeaters do not understand packets, frames, or headers.
  - They understand volts.

# Data Link Layer Switching:

## Hubs, Repeaters, Bridges, Switches, Routers and Gateways

- Hubs (网络集线器)
  - A hub has a number of input lines that it joins electrically.
  - Frames arriving on any of the lines are sent out on all the others.
  - If two frames arrive at the same time, they will collide, just as on a coaxial cable.
  - Hubs do not examine the 802 addresses or use them in any way.
  - They do not amplify the incoming signals.

# Data Link Layer Switching:

## Hubs, Repeaters, Bridges, Switches, Routers and Gateways

- Bridges (网桥)
  - A bridge connects two or more LANs.
  - When a frame arrives, software in the bridge extracts the destination address from the frame header and looks it up in a table to see where to send the frame.
  - A bridge may have line cards for different network types and different speeds.
  - With a bridge, each line is its own collision domain, in contrast to a hub.

# Data Link Layer Switching:

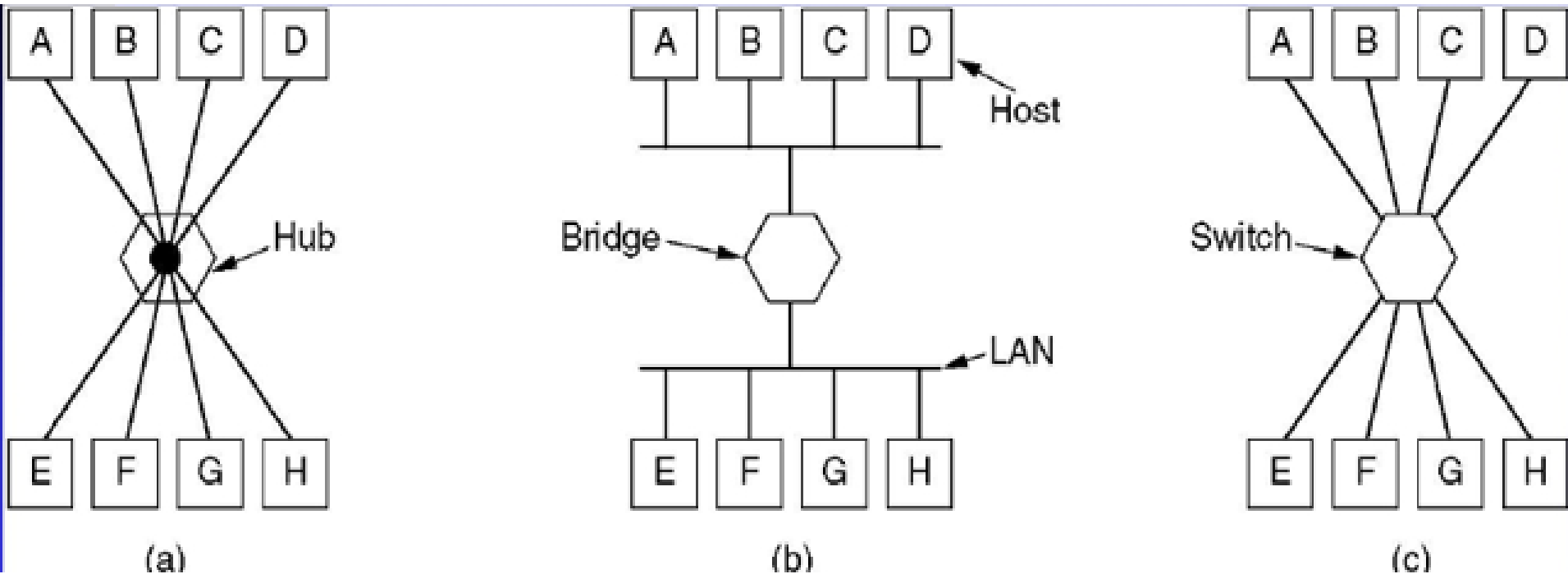
## Hubs, Repeaters, Bridges, Switches, Routers and Gateways

- Switches (交换机)
  - Switches are similar to bridges in that both route on frame addresses.
  - Each port is its own collision domain, switches never lose frames to collisions.
  - If frames come in faster than they can be retransmitted, the switch may run out of buffer space and have to start discarding frames.
  - Modern switches (**cut-through switch**) start forwarding frames as soon as the destination header field has come in, but before the rest of the frame has arrived.

# Data Link Layer Switching:

## Hubs, Repeaters, Bridges, Switches, Routers and Gateways

(a) A hub. (b) A bridge. (c) a switch.



# More on bridges and switches

- **Bridges** were originally intended to be able to join different kinds of LANs. Never worked well.
- **Switches** are modern bridges by another name. a few points
  - Switches have more ports
  - Switches are more general, e.g. telephone switch

# Data Link Layer Switching:

## Hubs, Repeaters, Bridges, Switches, Routers and Gateways

- Routers (路由器)
  - Routers use the packet header to choose an output line.
  - Routing algorithm: RIP, OSPF, ...
  - QoS



# Data Link Layer Switching:

## Hubs, Repeaters, Bridges, Switches, Routers and Gateways

- Gateways (网关)
  - Transport gateway
    - Transport gateways connects two computer that use different connection-oriented transport protocols.
    - For example, suppose a computer using the connection-oriented TCP/IP protocol needs to talk to a computer using the connection-oriented ATM transport protocol. The transport gateway can copy the packets from one connection to the other, reformatting them as need be.

# Data Link Layer Switching:

## Hubs, Repeaters, Bridges, Switches, Routers and Gateways

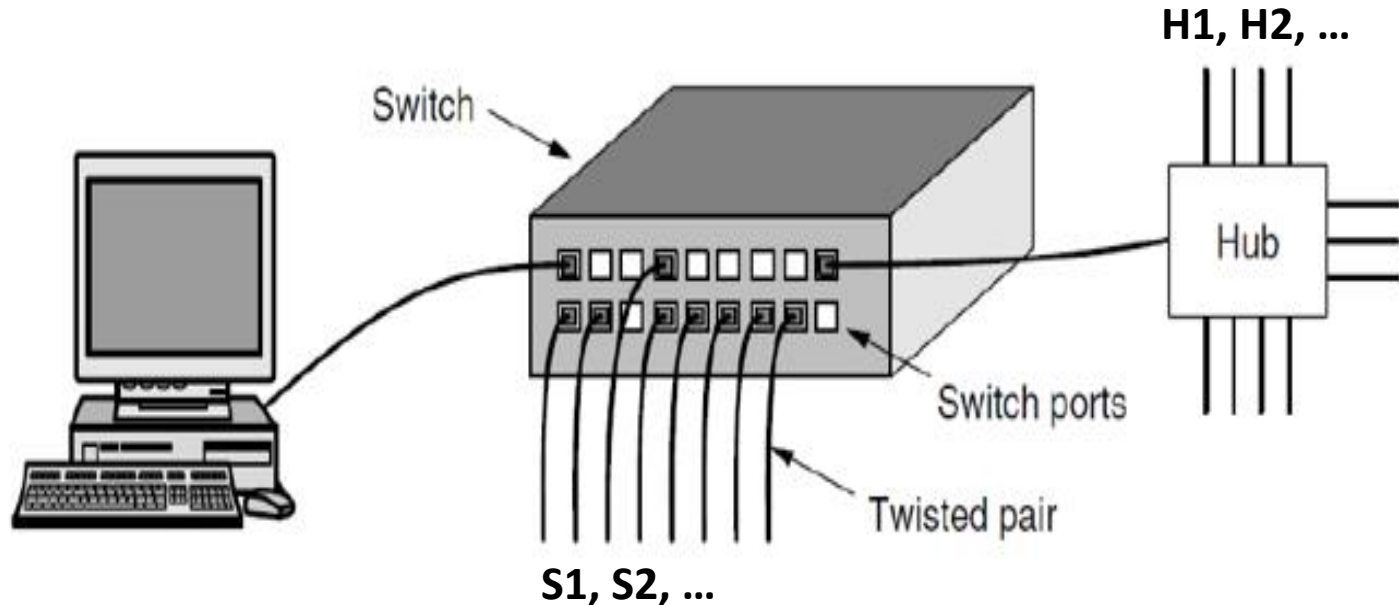
- Gateways (网关)
  - Application gateways
    - Application gateways understand the format and contents of the data and translate messages from one format to another.
    - An email gateway could translate Internet messages into SMS messages for mobile phones, for example

# Some Clarifications: Collision domain v.s. broadcast domain

- A **collision domain** is a section of a network where data packets can collide with one another when being sent on a shared medium or through repeaters, particularly when using early versions of Ethernet. A network collision occurs when more than one device attempts to send a packet on a network segment at the same time.
- A **broadcast domain** is a logical division of a computer network, in which all nodes can reach each other by broadcast *at the data link layer*. A broadcast domain can be within the same LAN segment or it can be bridged to other LAN segments.

# An Ethernet Switch

All stations are in the same broadcast domain  
H1, H2, ... are in the same collision domain



# Some Clarifications

- The host connected to a single hub belong to
  - Same collision domain and same broadcast domain
- Bridges can
  - Reduce the collision domain
  - Increase the broadcast domain
- Routers can
  - Increase the number of broadcast domains

# Homework

1. A group of  $N$  stations share a 56-kbps pure ALOHA channel. Each station outputs a 1000-bit frame on average once every 100 sec, even if the previous one has not yet been sent (e.g., the stations can buffer outgoing frames). What is the maximum value of  $N$ ?
2. Consider the delay of pure ALOHA versus slotted ALOHA at low load. Which one is less? Explain your answer.
3. Sixteen stations, numbered 1 through 16, are contending for the use of a shared channel by using the adaptive tree walk protocol. If all the stations whose addresses are prime numbers suddenly become ready at once, how many bit slots are needed to resolve the contention?

# Homework

4. Six stations, A through F, communicate using the MACA protocol. Is it possible for two transmissions to take place simultaneously? Explain your answer.
5. Consider building a CSMA/CD network running at 1Gbps over a 1-km cable with no repeaters. The signal speed in the cable is 200,000 km/sec. What is the minimum frame size?
6. Please show the differences between
- (a) The Ethernet CSMA/CD protocol and the 802.11 CSMA/CA protocol
  - (b) The MACA protocol and the 802.11 CSMA/CA protocol

# Homework

7. An unscrupulous host, A, connected to an 802.3 (Ethernet) network biases their implementation of the binary exponential backoff algorithm so they always choose from  $\{0,1\}$  after a collision, in any situation.

Another host, B, is trying to send a frame at the same time as A. Assuming A and B collide exactly three times before one of their transmissions succeeds, what are the odds that B sends its frame before A(as opposed to A sending before B)?



# Homework

8. Consider the following wireless network, where the circles are showing transmission ranges, and the presence of a host (letter) in a particular circle indicates it can hear that transmitter. If hosts A and C are both trying to send to host B will they encounter the hidden or exposed station problems? Does the MACA protocol help in this situation?

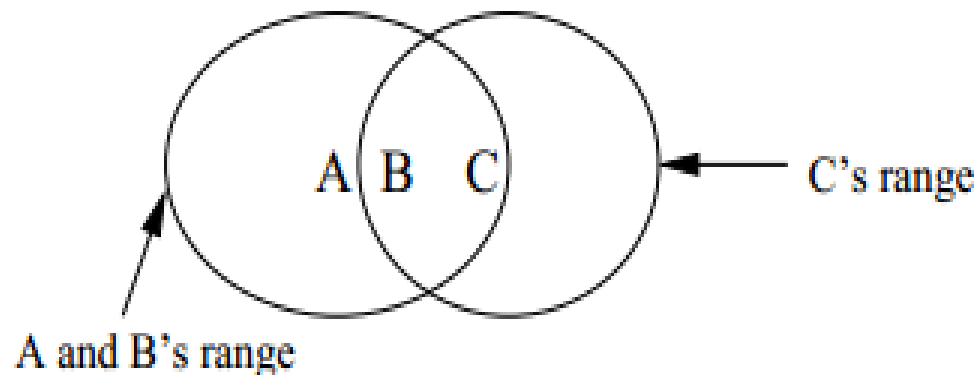


Figure 1: MACA Network showing transmission ranges for Question 8. 113

# Homework

9. Consider the extended LAN connected using bridges B1 and B2 in Fig. 4-41(b). Suppose the hash tables in the two bridges are empty. List all ports on which a packet will be forwarded for the following sequence of data transmissions:

- (a) A sends a packet to C.
- (b) E sends a packet to F.
- (c) F sends a packet to E.
- (d) G sends a packet to E.
- (e) D sends a packet to A.
- (f) B sends a packet to F.