

Lecture 3: Data Link Layer

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Short Term Course on "Teaching Computer Networks Effectively". Sponsored by AICTE.

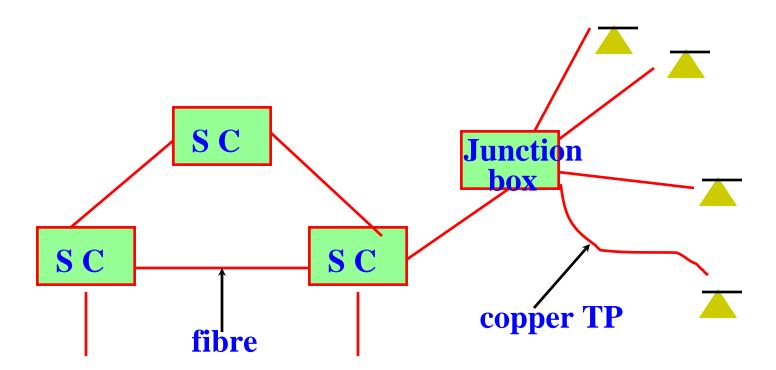
3.1 Access to the Shared Medium



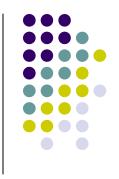
- Different topologies
- Different multiplexing schemes
 - Frequency Division Multiplexing
 - Time Division Multiplexing
 - Combination of both

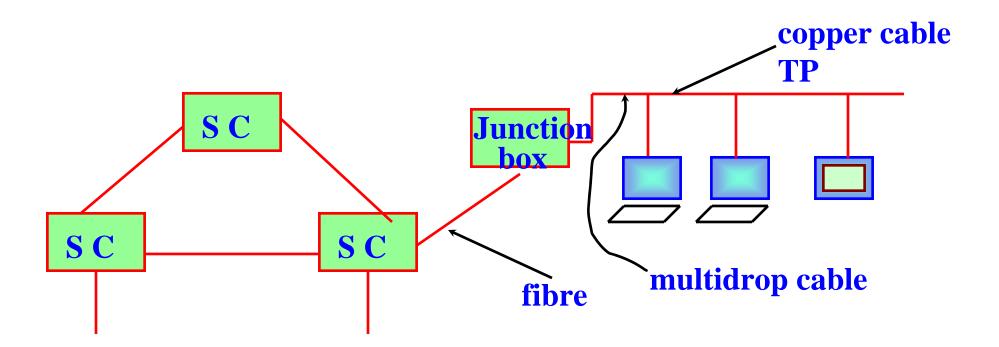
A Telephone Network

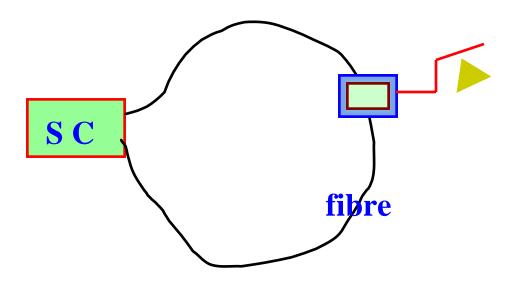








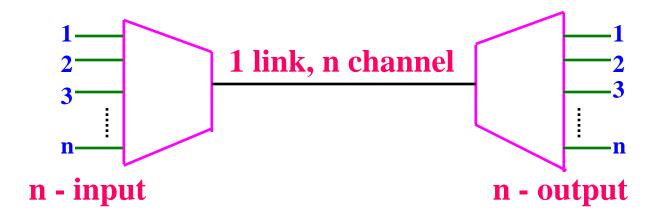






In urban areas – perhaps best solution is fibre

Trunks and multiplexing:



Multiplexing



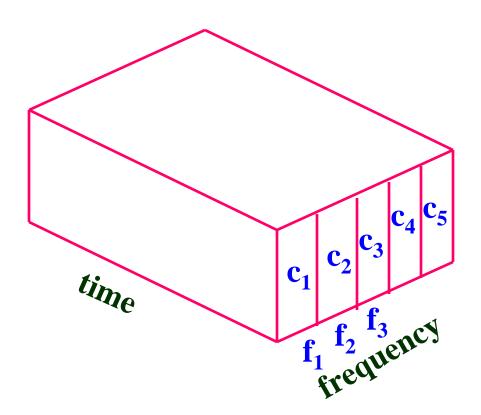
- Frequency Division Multiplexing (FDM) and Time Division Multiplexing (TDM)
 - Multiple conversation on the same link
- Frequency Division Multiplexing:
 - Frequency spectrum divided among logical channels
 - each user has exclusive access to a logical channel

Multiplexing



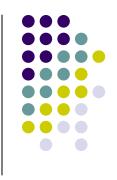
- Time division multiplexing:
 - User take turns in a round robin fashion
 - each user periodically gets the entire bandwidth for a little burst of time

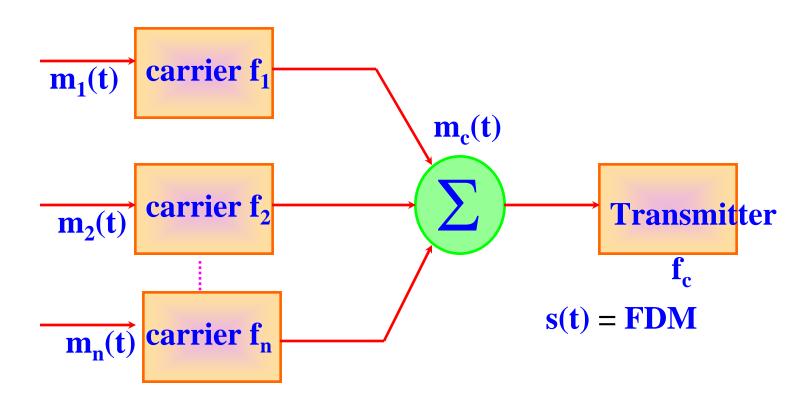
Frequency Division Multiplexing

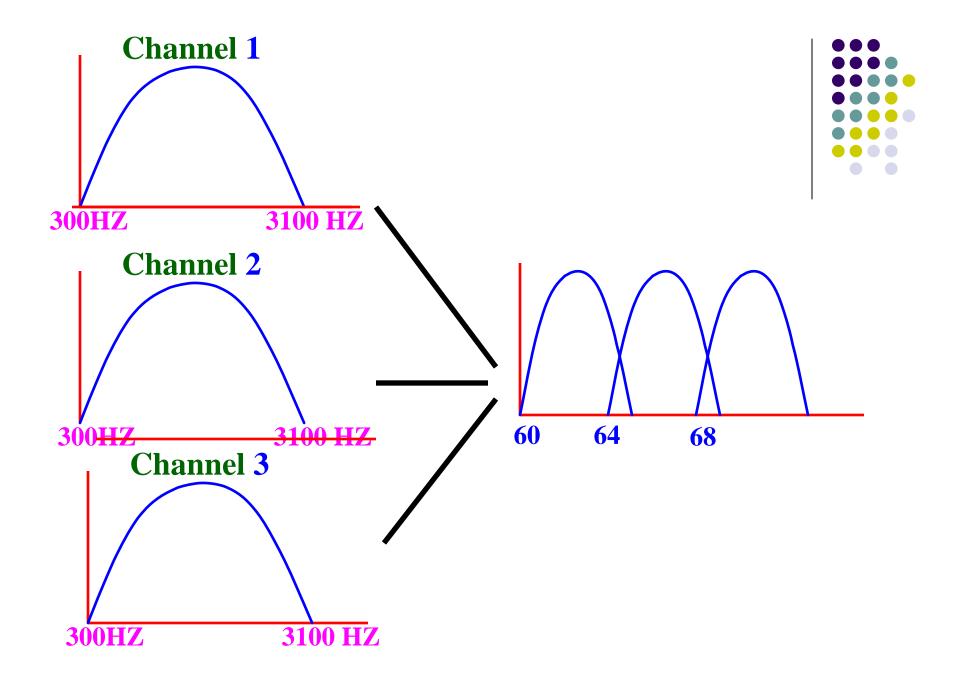






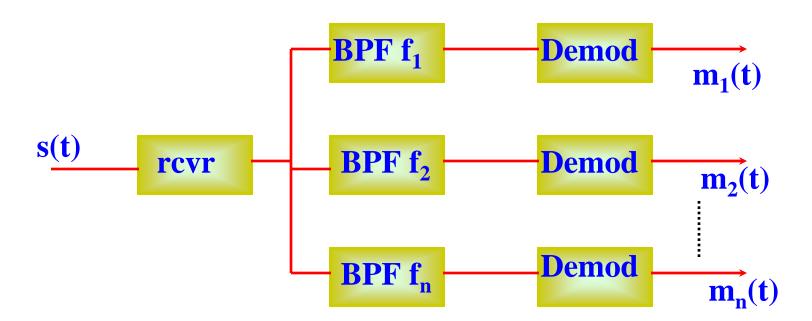






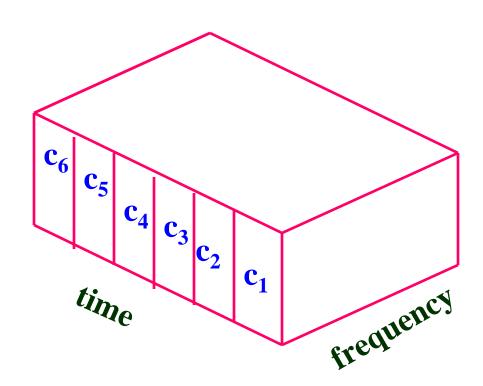






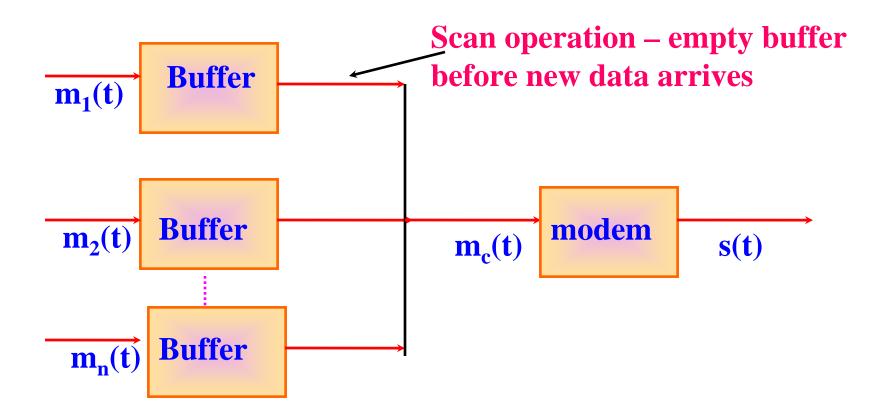






TDM (Transmitter)





Time Division Multiplexing



- Generally digital data:
 - interleave data from different channels
 - interleave portion of each signal
- Example: Each channel capacity 9.6kbps
 - To Multiplex 6 channels
 - Channel capacity 57.6kbps + overhead bits for control

Issues in TDM



- Transmission must be synchronous
- Data organised in frame
- frame → a cycle of time slots
- a slot dedicated to each data source
- slot length transmission buffer length

Issues in TDM

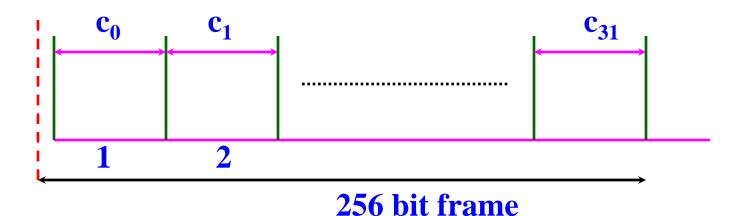


- synchronous TDM slots preassignd to sources
 - time slots for each slot transmitted whether data is present or absent
- Handle data source with different rates
 - assign more slots/ channels and fast sources
- Data is digital
 - Analog to digital conversion
 - PCM, DPCM, ADPCM, DM

Telephone Channel (E1)



- Conversion of analog signal to digital
 - PCM 8 KHZ * 8 bit/s
- 125 us/frame = 64 Kbps
- 30 voice channels + 2 signalling channels multiplexed together



Standards



- Leased lines:
- DS1 1.544 Mbps (24 channels) (T1)
- DS3 44.736 Mbps (30 DS1 links)
- STS-1 Synchronous Transport Signal
- STS-1 base link speed
- STS-N also called OC-N (electrical signal)
- OC optical carrier (optical signal)
- STS-48 2.488320 Gbps
- STS-3 155.250 Mbps
- STS-12 622.080 Mbps
- STS-24 1.244160 Gbps
- Telephone Network: primarily for voice and is circuit switched.

Standards

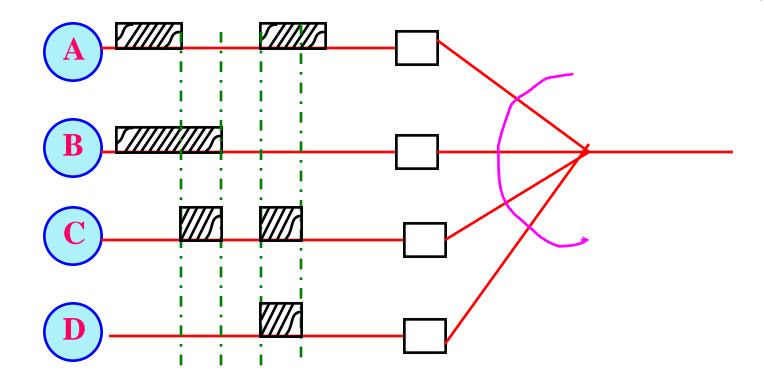
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Last Mile Links:
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- POTS 28.8 - 56 Kbps
- ISDN 64 - 128 Kbps
- (Integrated Services Digital Network)
- **xDSL** 16 Kbps 55.2 Mbps
- CATV 20 70 Mbps
- **ADSL** (asymmetric DSL)
- ADSL:
- Different speeds from home to CO & CO to home.
- Downstream (CO to subs) 8.448 Mbps (9000 ft)
- 1.544 Mbps (depends on distance from CO to home)
- 16 Kbps 640 Kbps
- (1800 ft) (9000 ft)
- **VDSL** very high data rate (12.96 Mbps 55.2 Mbps)
- (1000 4000 ft)



Asynchronous TDM





Asynchronous TDM: Intelligent **TDM** – allocate time slots on demand

- uses lower rate than required to multiplex n channels.

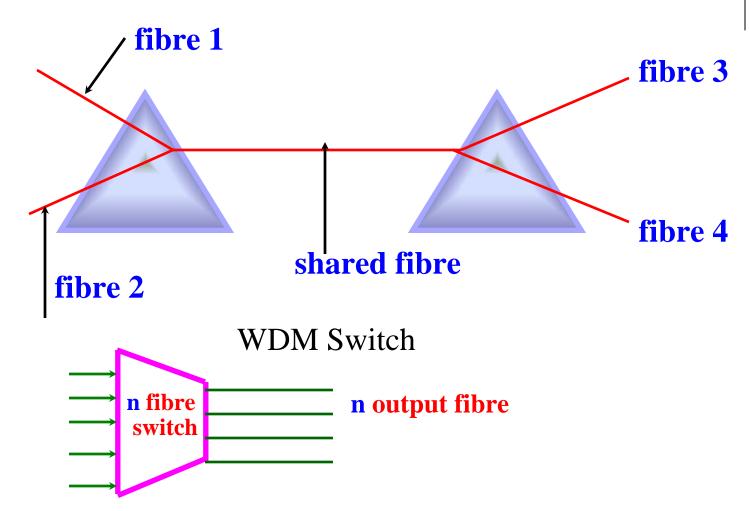
TDM and FDM



- Divide Frequency channel into a number frequency bands using FDM
- In each channel
 - Multiplex a number of channels using TDM
- Advent of Fibre
 - Wavelength division multiplexing
 - In each wavelength multiplex number of channels using TDM

Wavelength Division Multiplexing





3.2 Data Link Layer



- Study of algorithms for achieving reliable, efficient communication between two machines connected by a single link
- Issues: packets should be delivered in the same order they are sent - wire-like property

Data Link Layer

- What is so difficult?
 - communication circuits
 - introduce errors (error control)
 - introduce propagation delay
 - circuits have a finite data rate
 - fast sender/ slow receiver
 - Not all machines have the same speed

DLL functions



- a well defined service interface to the Network Layer
 - Transfer data from source NW layer to destination NW layer
- Convert the data from the Network Layer into frames

DLL functions

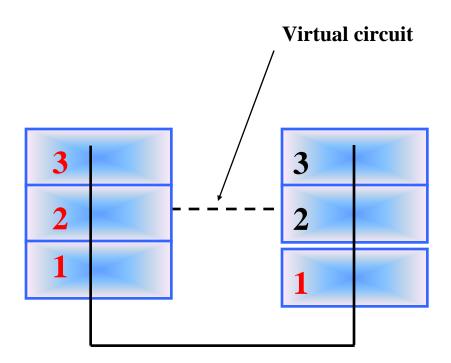


- Framing: determines the bits of the physical layer that make up a frames.
- Error control: deal with transmission error
- Flow control: regulate the flow of frames slow receiver are not swamped by fast senders





 Assume a virtual circuit from source to destination at the DLL



Data Link Layer Functions



- DLL processes on different hosts communicate with each other using a data link protocol.
 - Various Services provided:
 - Unacknowledged connection less service
 - Acknowledged connection less service
 - Acknowledged connection oriented service

Unacknowledged Connectionless Service



- source machine sends independent frames to the destination machine
 - without destination machine acknowledging them.
 - no connection established beforehand or released afterwards.
 - a frame lost, no efforts to recover it.
 - appropriate when error rate is low, recovery at higher layer.
 - appropriate for real time system speech better never than late!

Acknowledged Connectionless Service



- no connection used but each frame individually added.
- sender knows whether frame received safely or not.
- useful over unreliable links wireless links!
- Acknowledged service: only optimise
 Transport service, not a requirement.

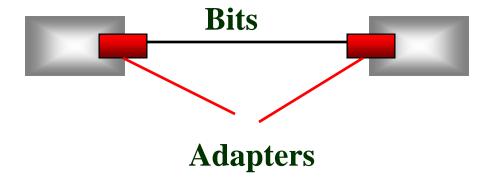
Connection Oriented Service



- establish connection between source, destination before data transferred.
- each frame numbered, DLL guaranties reception of all frames sent.
- each frame received only once, and in order
- reliable bit stream for network layer.

Primary Tasks of DLL

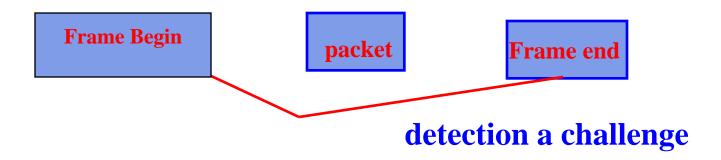
- Framing:
- Insert time gaps between frames
 - LANs do not guarantee timing



Primary Functions of DLL



Frame identified by begin and end bit patterns



Framing



- Byte Oriented Protocols
 - frame as a collection of bytes
- Bit Oriented Protocols
 - Methods devised:
 - Character count
 - Starting, ending characters with character stuffing
 - Starting and ending characters with bit stuffing.

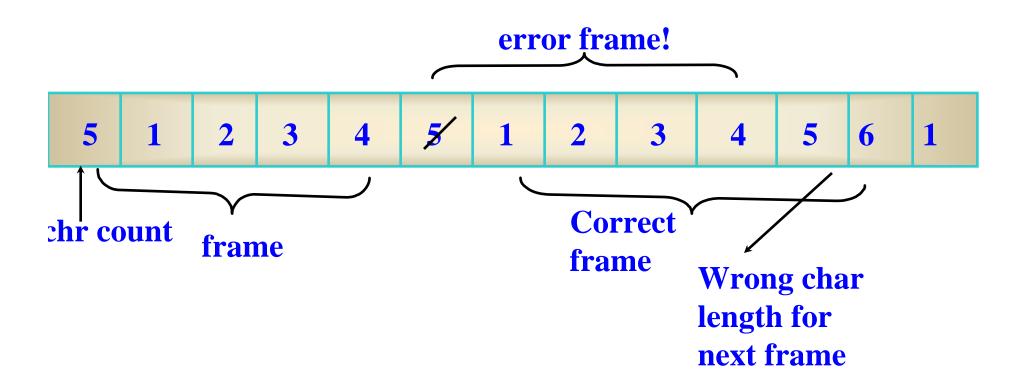
Framing using Character Count



In figure



received wrongly



Framing using Character Count



- Issues:
 - If a byte is lost, synchronisation is lost forever

Framing using Character Stuffing



- DLE STX (start of text)
- DLE ETX (end of text)
- receiver that lost track of synchronisation looks for
 - DLE STX
 - DLE ETX

pattern resync

Framing using Character Stuffing



- What if data contains DLE
 - Example DLE
 - STX A DLE B DLE ETX
- Escape the escape character
 - DLE STX A DLE DLE B DLE ETX
- Drawbacks:
 - Character based
 - Frames occur ONLY at character boundaries

Framing using Bit Stuffing



- Allow arbitrary length frames
 - each frame begins and ends with a flag byte
 - 01111110
- whenever data contains 5 consecutive ones insert 0

Framing using Bit Stuffing

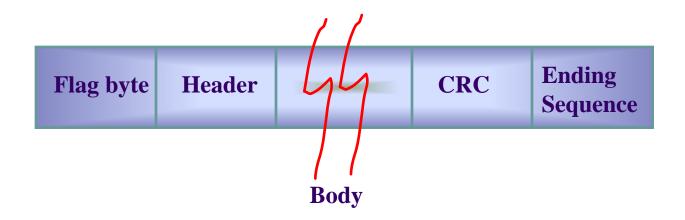


- Example:
 - 011011111111111110 NWL A
 - 01101111101111101110 Physical
 - 0110111111111111110 NWL B
- Why bit oriented:
 - packets of different sizes for each packet header and trailer, bit stuffing.

Framing Protocols



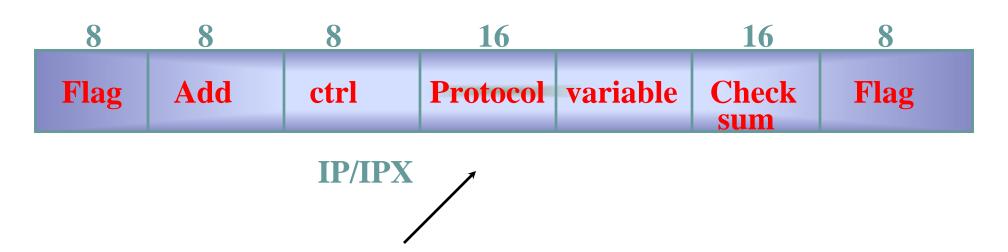
- BISYNC & PPP use character stuffing
- DECNET DDCMP count field
- HDLC High Level Data Link Control
 - Bit stuffing using



P-P-P Links



Uses flag byte



LCP - Link Control Protocol

several field are negotiated: escape sequences

Clock-based Framing: SONET



- special information about the beginning and ending of frames.
 - no bit stuffing
- STS 1: 51.84 Mbps
- STS 1 frame: nine rows of 90 bytes each.
 - first three bytes of each row are over head and rest are data.

Clock-based Framing: SONET

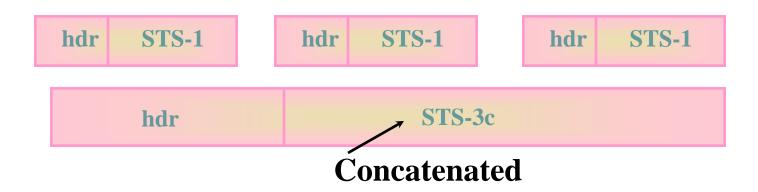


- first two bytes special bit pattern (of frame)
- used for determining start of frame.
- bit pattern occurs in data resynchronisation
- expect this bits pattern every 810 bytes!
- actually SONET can implement its own network





- SONET not over just a single link.
- SONET link implements packet switched NW.
- SONET provides better services
 - not only data provide voice also
- Can generate multiple STS-frames from STS-1



SONET Framing - Issues



- Floating payload across frame boundaries
 - uses overhead bytes to indicate the location of the start of frame
- Clock synchronisation
 - Used in Fibre networks

3.3 Error Detection

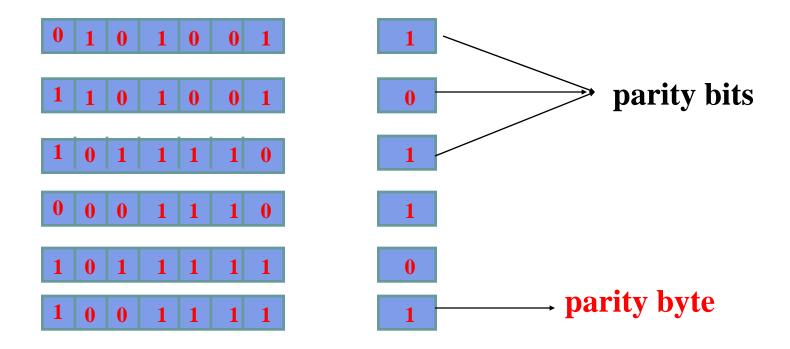


- Add redundant bits
 - simple case
 - two copies of data
 - receiver compares copies 'equal' then no error.
 - probability of same bits corrupted low.
 - Add k bits << n bits (n is message length)
 - Example: 12,000 bits (1500 byte) cost 32 bit CRC.
- Why redundant bits?
 - Redundant bits are used by receiver to detect errors

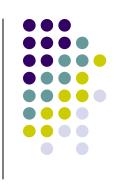




Two dimensional (2-d) parity



Error Detection: 2-d parity



- Add 1 bit to a seven bit code
 - catches all 1 2 and 3 & 4 bit errors along a row
 - extra byte carries redundant information.
 - does not add information.
- Additionally parity byte enables detection of errors along a column

Error Detection: Checksum



- Algorithm based on addition of all the codes used to encode the data.
- send Checksum
- receiver also computes Checksum
- Internet Checksum Algorithm:
 - Example: 16 bit integers treat data as 16 bit integers
 - Add using 16 bit one's complement.
 - take one's complement of result

Frame Error: A probabilistic Estimate



- Let probability that 1 bit is in error be p
 - Probability that no bit is in error in a 10000 bit packet is:
 - $(1-p)^{10000}$
 - Probability that 1 bit is in error
 - 10⁴p(1-p)⁹⁹⁹⁹⁹
 - Probability that at least 1 bit is in error
 - 1-(1-p) 10000

Error Detection: CRC



- CRC (Cyclic Redundancy Check)
 - goal to maximise the probability of detecting an error
 - nth degree polynomial
 - value of each bit is a coefficient
 - Example: 10011100
 - $M(x) = x^7 + x^4 + x^3 + x^2$
 - sender and receiver exchange polynomials

Error Detection: CRC



- Agreed upon polynomial C(x), degree k
- Message exchanged:
- M(x) + k bits = P(x)
- Make P(x) exactly divisible by C(x).
- If no errors at receiver
- P(x) / C(x) zero remainder => no errors
- B(x) of degree > C(x) => B(x) divisible by C(x)
- B(x) of degree = C(x) => B(x) divisible once by C(x)
- B(x) C(x) = remainder
- subtract C(x) from B(x)
 - EXOR on matching pair of coefficients.

CRC Algorithm

- Step1: Compute M(x) * x^k
 - equivalent to adding k zeros
 - example: M(x) = 1000, C(x) of degree 2
 - $x^3 * x^2 = x^5 = T(x) (10000)$
- Step2: Divide T(x) by C(x)
- Step3: Find remainder T(x) / C(x) = R(x)
- Step4: subtract T(x) R(x) = D(x)
 - D(x) is exactly divisible by C(x)
- Step5: Transmit D(x)

CRC - An example



- Example:
 - M(x) = 101010
 - $C(x) = x^3 + x^1$ (1010)
 - Message transmitted is:
 - 101010100 is transmitted
 - 101010100 is exactly divisible by 1010



101010000 - Message padded with 3 zeros

00000100 -- Remainder

101010100 - Message xored with remainder

CRC Standards



- CRC 8 : $x^8 + x^2 + x^1 + 1$
- CRC 10: $x^{10} + x^9 + x^5 + x^4 + x^1 + 1$
- CRC 12: $x^{12} + x^{11} + x^3 + x^2 + 1$
- CRC 16: $x^{16} + x^{12} + x^5 + 1$
- CRC CCITT: $x^{16} + x^{12} + x^5 + 1$
- CRC 32: $X^{32} + X^{26} + X^{23} + X^{22} + X^{16} + X^{12} + X^{11} + X^{10} + X^{8} + X^{7} + X^{5} + X^{4} + X^{2} + X + 1$

Characteristics of CRC



- detect all single bit errors as long as x^k & x⁰ have non zero coefficients.
- detect double bit errors as long as C(x) has at least three terms.
- any odd number of errors as long as C(x) has a factor (x+1)
- any burst error of length < k bits can also be detected.

Error Detection and Correction



- Code m + r
 - m bit message, r check bits
- Hamming distance of code:
 - Minimum distance between any two code words in a code
- To detect d errors d+1 code
- To correct d errors 2d+1 code

Summary



- Multiplexing to share a scarce resource
- Framing
- Error control