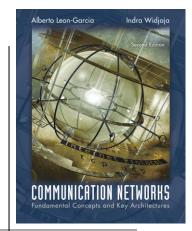
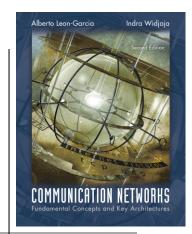
Chapter 5 Peer-to-Peer Protocols and Data Link Layer



PART I: Peer-to-Peer Protocols
Peer-to-Peer Protocols and Service Models
ARQ Protocols and Reliable Data Transfer
Flow Control
Timing Recovery
TCP Reliable Stream Service & Flow Control



Chapter 5 Peer-to-Peer Protocols and Data Link Layer



PART II: Data Link Controls
Framing
Point-to-Point Protocol
High-Level Data Link Control
*Link Sharing Using Statistical Multiplexing

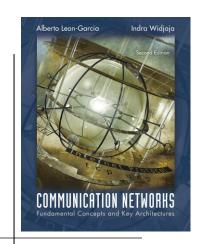


Chapter Overview



- Peer-to-Peer protocols: many protocols involve the interaction between two peers
 - Service Models are discussed & examples given
 - Detailed discussion of ARQ provides example of development of peer-to-peer protocols
 - Flow control, TCP reliable stream, and timing recovery
- Data Link Layer
 - Framing
 - PPP & HDLC protocols
 - *Statistical multiplexing for link sharing

Chapter 5 Peer-to-Peer Protocols and Data Link Layer

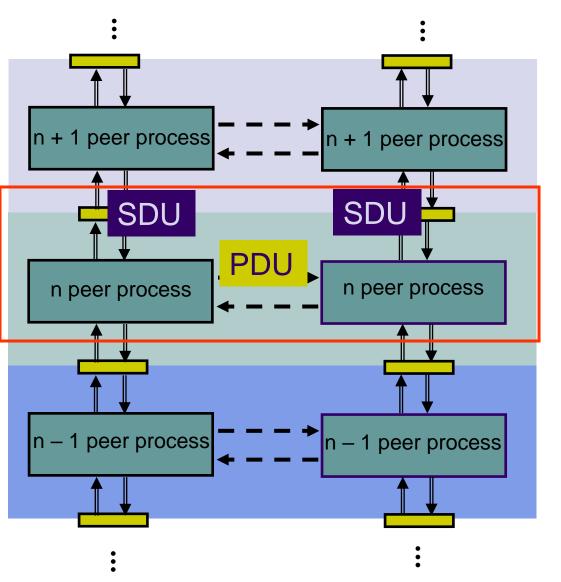


Peer-to-Peer Protocols and Service Models



Peer-to-Peer Protocols





- Peer-to-Peer processes
 execute layer-n protocol
 to provide service to
 layer-(n+1)
- Layer-(n+1) peer calls layer-n and passes Service Data Units (SDUs) for transfer
- Layer-n peers exchange Protocol Data Units (PDUs) to effect transfer
- Layer-n delivers SDUs to destination layer-(n+1) peer

Service Models



- The service model specifies the information transfer service layer-n provides to layer-(n+1)
- The most important distinction is whether the service is:
 - Connection-oriented
 - Connectionless
- Service model possible features:
 - Arbitrary message size or structure
 - Sequencing and Reliability
 - Timing, Pacing, and Flow control
 - Multiplexing
 - Privacy, integrity, and authentication

Connection-Oriented Transfer Service



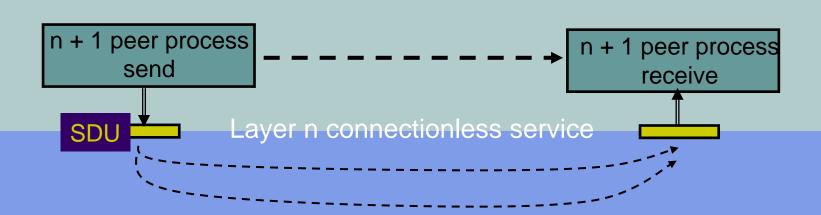
- Connection Establishment
 - Connection must be established between layer-(n+1) peers
 - Layer-n protocol must: Set initial parameters, e.g. sequence numbers; and Allocate resources, e.g. buffers
- Message transfer phase
 - Exchange of SDUs
- Disconnect phase
- Example: TCP, PPP



Connectionless Transfer Service



- No Connection setup, simply send SDU
- Each message send independently
- Must provide all address information per message
- Simple & quick
- Example: UDP, IP



Message Size and Structure



- What message size and structure will a service model accept?
 - Different services impose restrictions on size & structure of data it will transfer
 - Single bit? Block of bytes? Byte stream?
 - Ex: Transfer of voice mail = 1 long message
 - Ex: Transfer of voice call = byte stream

1 voice mail= 1 message = entire sequence of speech samples

(a)

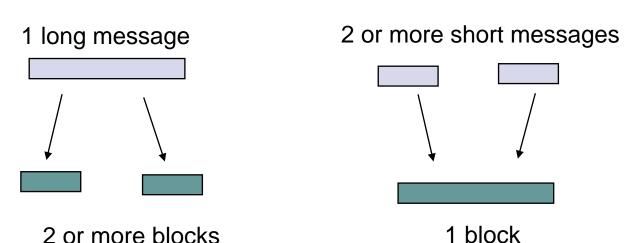
1 call = sequence of 1-byte messages

(b)

Segmentation & Blocking



- To accommodate arbitrary message size, a layer may have to deal with messages that are too long or too short for its protocol
- Segmentation & Reassembly: a layer breaks long messages into smaller blocks and reassembles these at the destination
- Blocking & Unblocking. a layer combines small messages into bigger blocks prior to transfer



Reliability & Sequencing



- Reliability: Are messages or information stream delivered error-free and without loss or duplication?
- Sequencing: Are messages or information stream delivered in order?
- ARQ protocols combine error detection, retransmission, and sequence numbering to provide reliability & sequencing
- Examples: TCP and HDLC

Pacing and Flow Control



- Messages can be lost if receiving system does not have sufficient buffering to store arriving messages
- If destination layer-(n+1) does not retrieve its information fast enough, destination layer-n buffers may overflow
- Pacing & Flow Control provide backpressure mechanisms that control transfer according to availability of buffers at the destination
- Examples: TCP and HDLC

Timing



- Applications involving voice and video generate units of information that are related temporally
- Destination application must reconstruct temporal relation in voice/video units
- Network transfer introduces delay & jitter
- Timing Recovery protocols use timestamps & sequence numbering to control the delay & jitter in delivered information
- Examples: RTP & associated protocols in Voice over IP

Multiplexing



- Multiplexing enables multiple layer-(n+1) users to share a layer-n service
- A multiplexing tag is required to identify specific users at the destination
- Examples: UDP, IP

Privacy, Integrity, & Authentication



- Privacy: ensuring that information transferred cannot be read by others
- Integrity: ensuring that information is not altered during transfer
- Authentication: verifying that sender and/or receiver are who they claim to be
- Security protocols provide these services and are discussed in Chapter 11
- Examples: IPSec, SSL

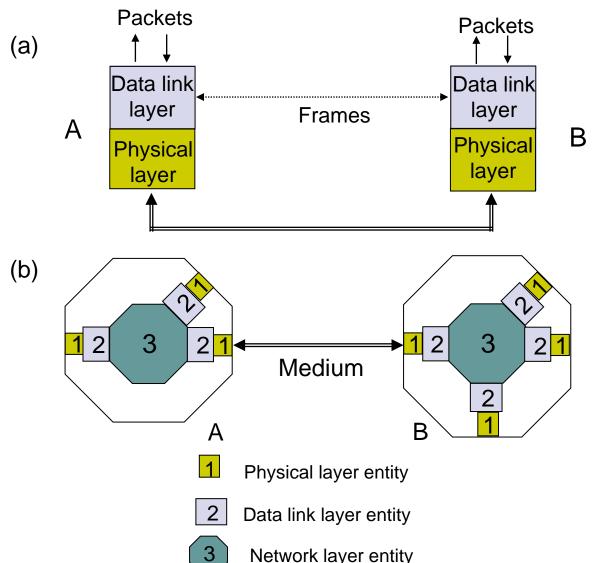
End-to-End vs. Hop-by-Hop



- A service feature can be provided by implementing a protocol
 - end-to-end across the network
 - across every hop in the network
- Example:
 - Perform error control at every hop in the network or only between the source and destination?
 - Perform flow control between every hop in the network or only between source & destination?
- We next consider the tradeoffs between the two approaches

Error control in Data Link Layer



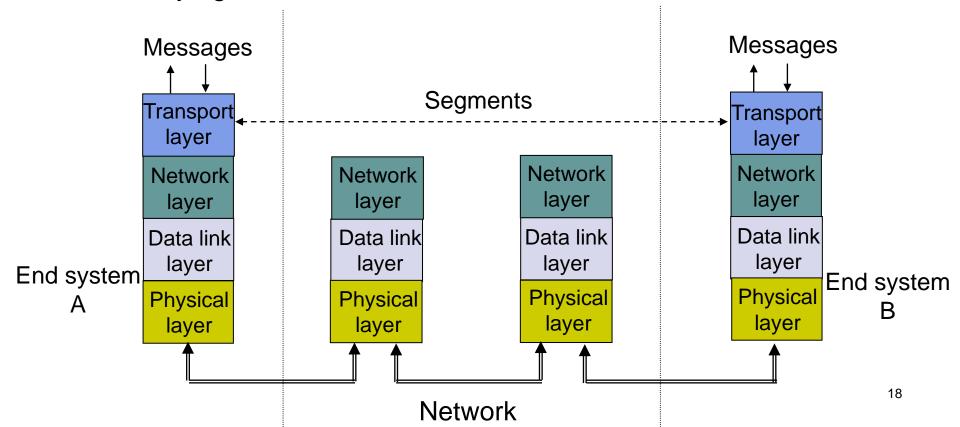


- Data Link operates over wire-like, directly-connected systems
- Frames can be corrupted or lost, but arrive in order
- Data link performs error-checking & retransmission
- Ensures error-free packet transfer between two systems

Error Control in Transport Layer

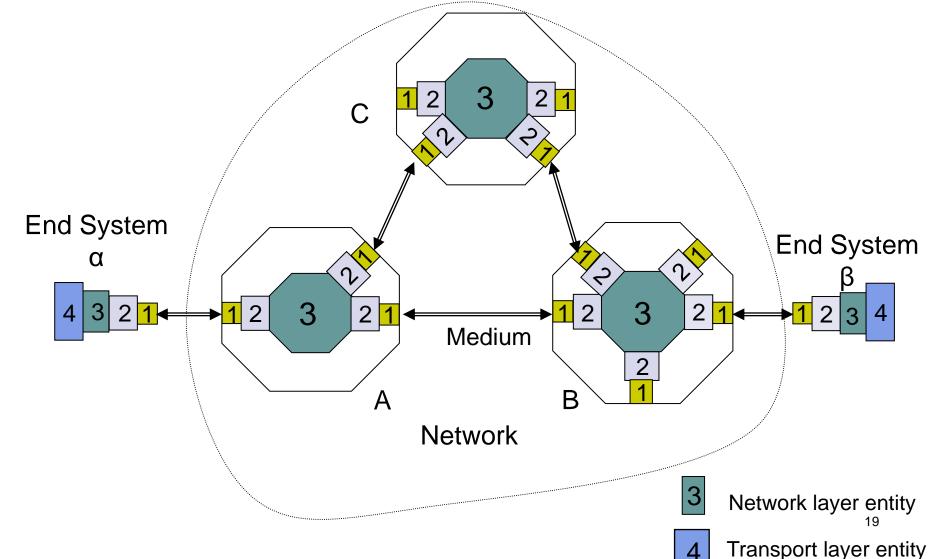


- Transport layer protocol (e.g. TCP) sends segments across network and performs end-to-end error checking & retransmission
- Underlying network is assumed to be unreliable



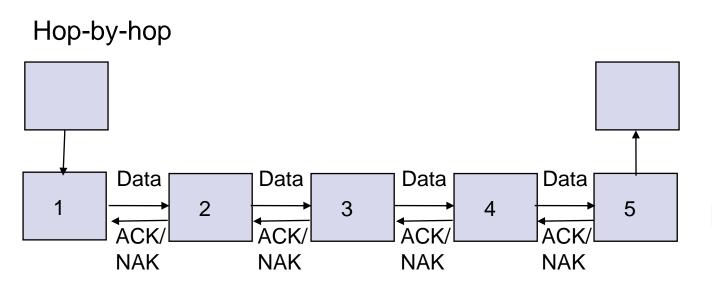
- Segments can experience long delays, can be lost, or arrive out-of-order because packets can follow different paths across network
- End-to-end error control protocol more difficult





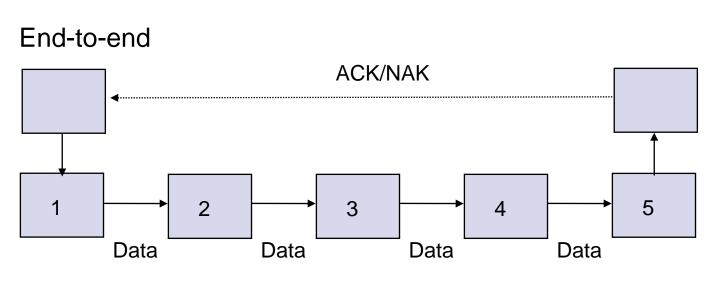
End-to-End Approach Preferred





Hop-by-hop cannot ensure E2E correctness

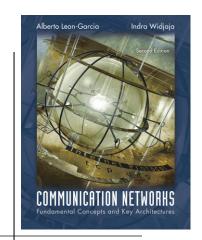
Faster recovery



Simple inside the network

More scalable if complexity at the edge

Chapter 5 Peer-to-Peer Protocols and Data Link Layer



ARQ Protocols and Reliable

Data Transfer



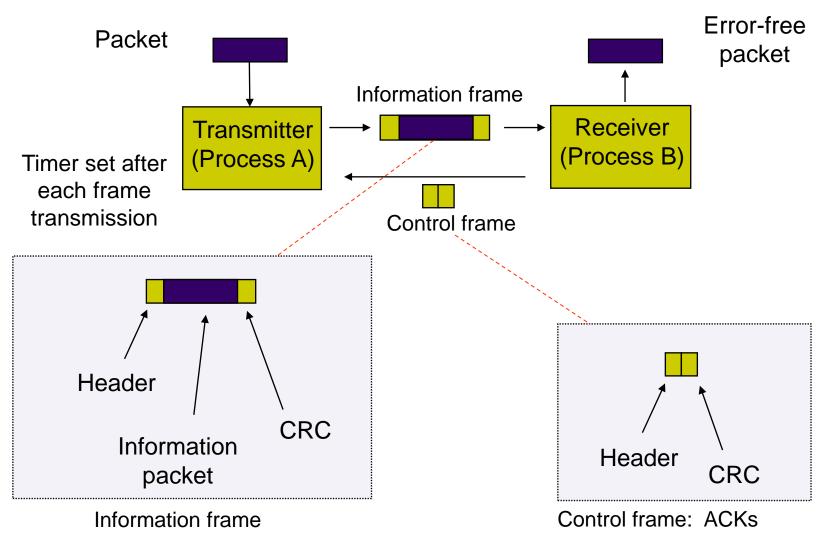
Automatic Repeat Request (ARQ)



- Purpose: to ensure a sequence of information packets is delivered in order and without errors or duplications despite transmission errors & losses
- We will look at:
 - Stop-and-Wait ARQ
 - Go-Back N ARQ
 - Selective Repeat ARQ
- Basic elements of ARQ:
 - Error-detecting code with high error coverage
 - ACKs (positive acknowledgments)
 - NAKs (negative acknowlegments)
 - Timeout mechanism

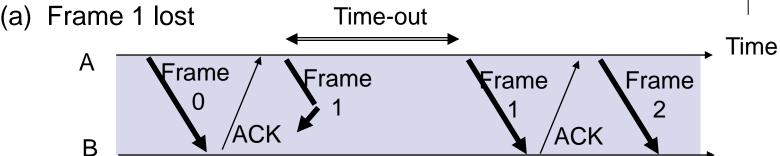
Stop-and-Wait ARQ

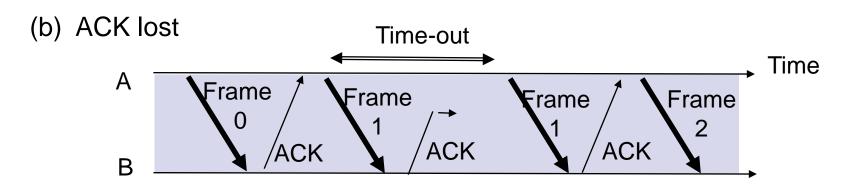
Transmit a frame, wait for ACK



Need for Sequence Numbers





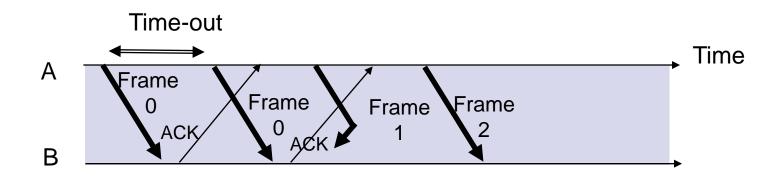


- In cases (a) & (b) the transmitting station A acts the same way
- But in case (b) the receiving station B accepts frame 1 twice
- Question: How is the receiver to know the second frame is also frame 1?
- Answer: Add frame sequence number in header
- S_{last} is sequence number of most recent transmitted frame

Sequence Numbers

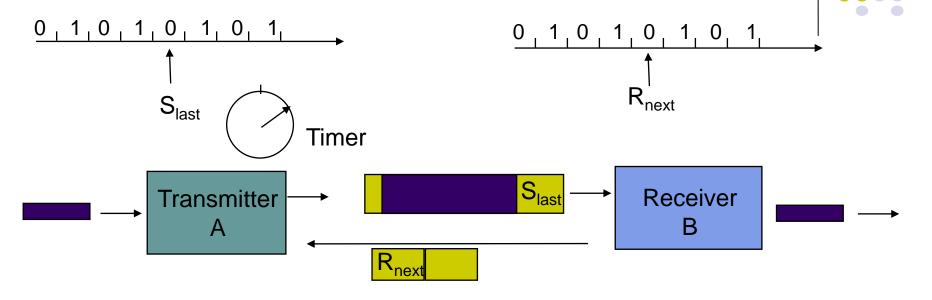


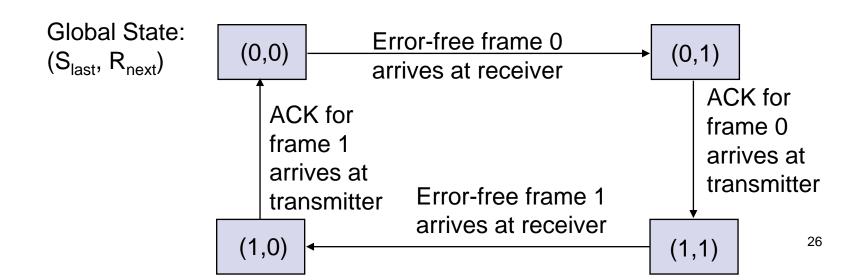
(c) Premature Time-out



- The transmitting station A misinterprets duplicate ACKs
- Incorrectly assumes second ACK acknowledges Frame 1
- Question: How is the receiver to know second ACK is for frame 0?
- Answer: Add frame sequence number in ACK header
- R_{next} is sequence number of next frame expected by the receiver
- Implicitly acknowledges receipt of all prior frames

1-Bit Sequence Numbering Suffices





Stop-and-Wait ARQ



Transmitter

Ready state

- Await request from higher layer for packet transfer
- When request arrives, transmit frame with updated S_{last} and CRC
- Go to Wait State

Wait state

- Wait for ACK or timer to expire;
 block requests from higher layer
- If timeout expires
 - retransmit frame and reset timer
- If ACK received:
 - If sequence number is incorrect or if errors detected: ignore ACK
 - If sequence number is correct (R_{next} = S_{last} +1): accept frame, go to Ready state

Receiver

Always in Ready State

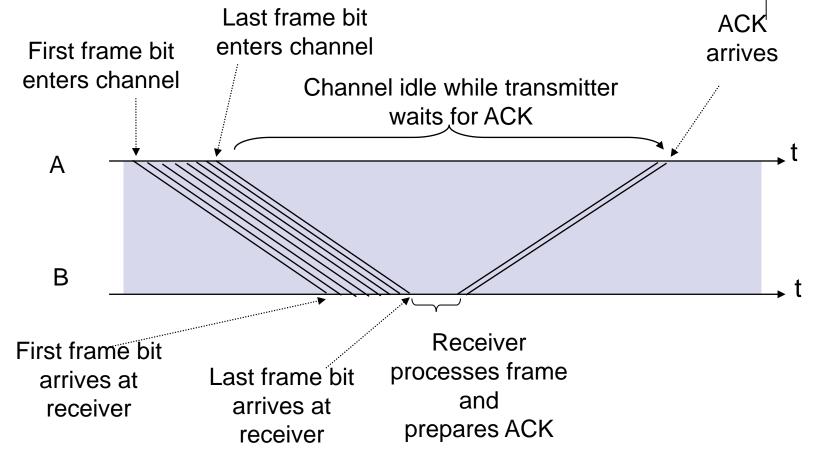
- Wait for arrival of new frame
- When frame arrives, check for errors
- If no errors detected and sequence number is correct (S_{last}=R_{next}), then
 - accept frame,
 - update R_{next},
 - send ACK frame with R_{next},
 - deliver packet to higher layer
- If no errors detected and wrong sequence number
 - discard frame
 - send ACK frame with R_{next}
- If errors detected
 - discard frame

Applications of Stop-and-Wait ARQ



- IBM Binary Synchronous Communications protocol (Bisync): character-oriented data link control
- Xmodem: modem file transfer protocol
- Trivial File Transfer Protocol (RFC 1350): simple protocol for file transfer over UDP

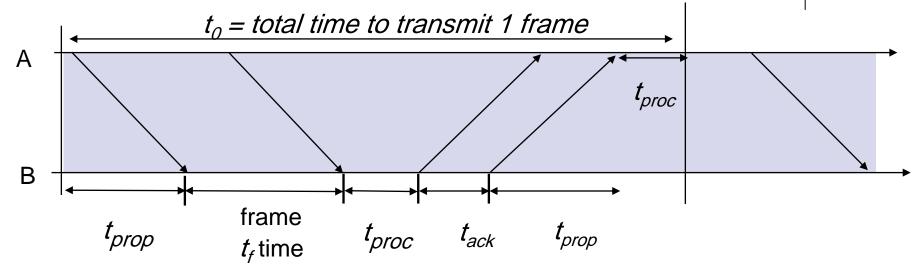
Stop-and-Wait Efficiency



- 10000 bit frame @ 1 Mbps takes 10 ms to transmit
- If wait for ACK = 1 ms, then efficiency = 10/11= 91%
- If wait for ACK = 20 ms, then efficiency = 10/30 = 33%²⁹

Stop-and-Wait Model



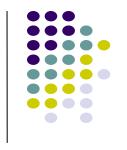


$$t_0 = 2t_{prop} + 2t_{proc} + t_f + t_{ack} \qquad \text{bits/info frame}$$

$$= 2t_{prop} + 2t_{proc} + \frac{n_f}{R} + \frac{n_a}{R} \qquad \text{bits/ACK frame}$$

channel transmission rate

S&W Efficiency on Error-free channel

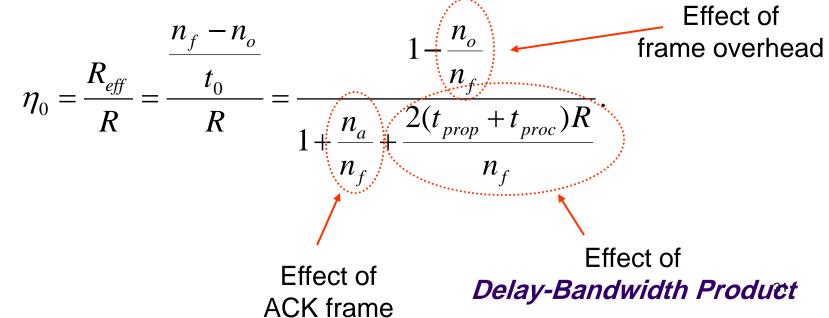


Effective transmission rate:

bits for header & CRC

$$R_{eff}^{0} = \frac{\text{number of information bits delivered to destination}}{\text{total time required to deliver the information bits}} = \frac{n_f - n_o}{t_0},$$

Transmission efficiency:



Example: Impact of Delay-Bandwidth Product



 $n_{\rm F}$ 1250 bytes = 10000 bits, $n_{\rm a}$ = $n_{\rm o}$ =25 bytes = 200 bits

2xDelayxBW Efficiency	1 ms	10 ms	100 ms	1 sec
	200 km	2000 km	20000 km	200000 km
1 Mbps	10 ³	104	10 ⁵	10 ⁶
	88%	49%	9%	1%
1 Gbps	10 ⁶	10 ⁷	108	10 ⁹
	1%	0.1%	0.01%	0.001%

Stop-and-Wait does not work well for very high speeds or long propagation delays

S&W Efficiency in Channel with Errors



- Let $1 P_f = \text{probability frame arrives w/o errors}$
- Avg. # of transmissions to first correct arrival is then $1/(1-P_f)$
- "If 1-in-10 get through without error, then avg. 10 tries to success"
- Avg. Total Time per frame is then $t_0/(1 P_f)$

$$\eta_{SW} = \frac{\frac{n_f - n_o}{t_0 / 1 - P_f}}{R} = \frac{\frac{1 - \frac{n_o}{n_f}}{1 - P_f}}{1 + \frac{n_a}{n_f} + \frac{2(t_{prop} + t_{proc})R}{n_f}} (1 - P_f)$$

Effect of frame loss

Example: Impact Bit Error Rate



 n_{f} =1250 bytes = 10000 bits, n_{a} = n_{o} =25 bytes = 200 bits Find efficiency for random bit errors with p=0, 10⁻⁶, 10⁻⁵, 10⁻⁴

$$1 - P_f = (1 - p)^{n_f} \approx e^{-n_f p}$$
 for large n_f and small p

$1 - P_f$ Efficiency	0	10 ⁻⁶	10 ⁻⁵	10-4
1 Mbps	1	0.99	0.905	0.368
& 1 ms	88%	86.6%	79.2%	32.2%

Bit errors impact performance as nfp approach 1

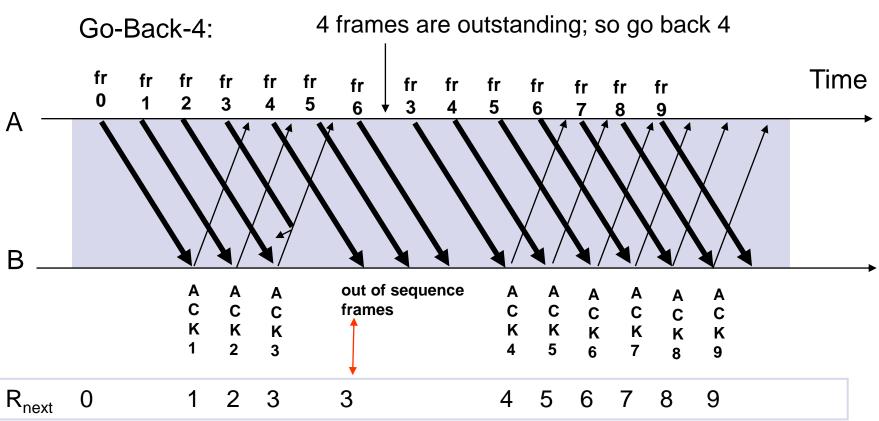
Go-Back-N



- Improve Stop-and-Wait by not waiting!
- Keep channel busy by continuing to send frames
- Allow a window of up to W_s outstanding frames
- Use *m*-bit sequence numbering
- If ACK for oldest frame arrives before window is exhausted, we can continue transmitting
- If window is exhausted, pull back and retransmit all outstanding frames
- Alternative: Use timeout

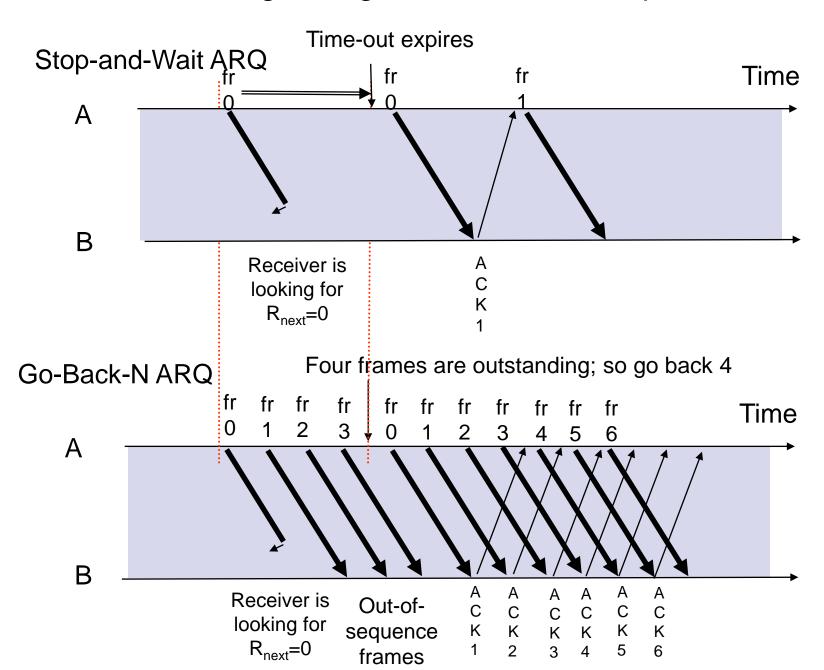
Go-Back-N ARQ





- Frame transmission are pipelined to keep the channel busy
- Frame with errors and subsequent out-of-sequence frames are ignored
- Transmitter is forced to go back when window of 4 is exhausted

Window size long enough to cover round trip time





Go-Back-N with Timeout

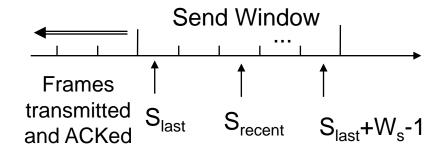


- Problem with Go-Back-N as presented:
 - If frame is lost and source does not have frame to send, then window will not be exhausted and recovery will not commence
- Use a timeout with each frame
 - When timeout expires, resend all outstanding frames

Go-Back-N Transmitter & Receiver



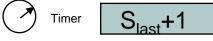
Transmitter



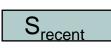
Buffers



oldest un-ACKed frame

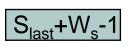






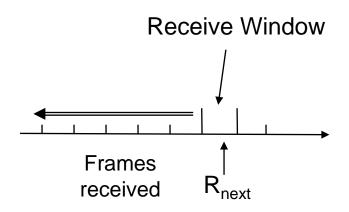
most recent transmission

•••



max Seq # allowed

Receiver



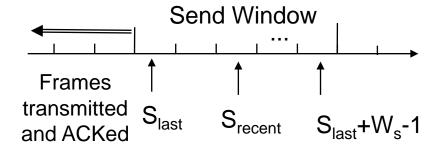
Receiver will only accept a frame that is error-free and that has sequence number R_{next}

When such frame arrives R_{next} is incremented by one, so the *receive window slides forward* by one

Sliding Window Operation



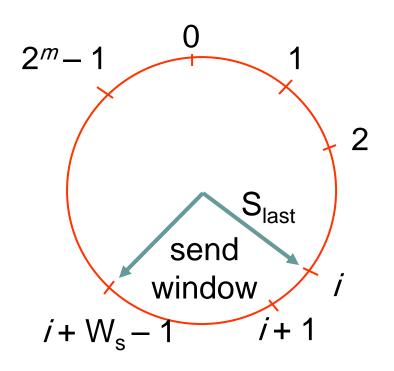
Transmitter



Transmitter waits for error-free ACK frame with sequence number S_{last} +1

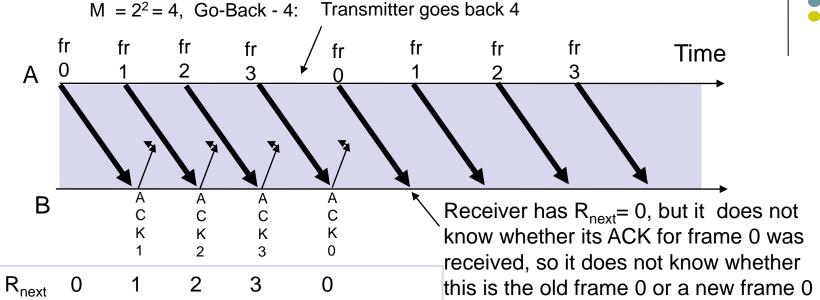
When such ACK frame arrives, S_{last} is incremented by one, and the *send window slides forward* by one

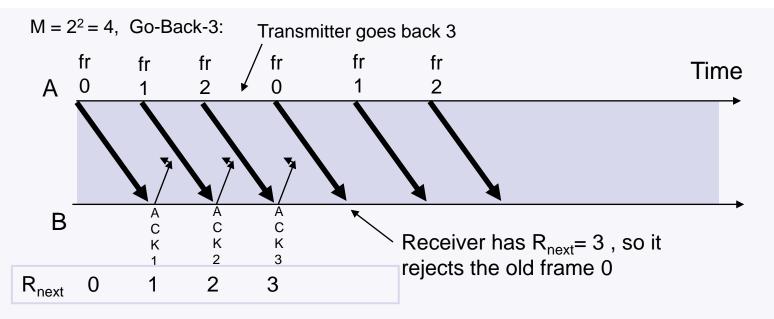
m-bit Sequence Numbering



Maximum Allowable Window Size is $W_s = 2^m-1$



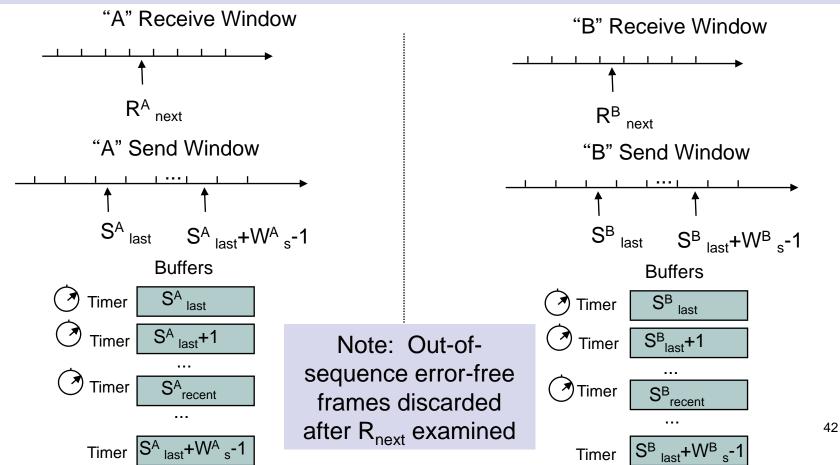




ACK Piggybacking in Bidirectional GBN







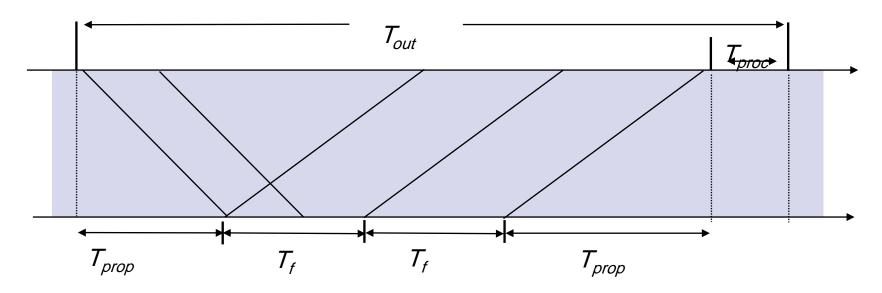
Applications of Go-Back-N ARQ



- HDLC (High-Level Data Link Control): bitoriented data link control
- V.42 modem: error control over telephone modem links

Required Timeout & Window Size





- Timeout value should allow for:
 - Two propagation times + 1 processing time: 2 T_{prop} + T_{proc}
 - A frame that begins transmission right before our frame arrives T_f
 - Next frame carries the ACK, T_f
- W_s should be large enough to keep channel busy for T_{out}

Required Window Size for Delay-Bandwidth Product

1 second



	•		
$2(t_{prop} + t_{proc})$	2 x Delay x BW	Window	
1 ms	1000 bits	1	
10 ms	10,000 bits	2	
100 ms	100,000 bits	11	

1,000,000 bits

Frame = 1250 bytes = 10,000 bits, R = 1 Mbps

101

Efficiency of Go-Back-N



- GBN is completely efficient, if W_s large enough to keep channel busy, and if channel is error-free
- Assume P_f frame loss probability, then time to deliver a frame is:
 - if first frame transmission succeeds $(1 P_f)$
 - t_f if first frame transmission succeeds $(1 P_f)$ $t_f + W_s t_f / (1 P_f)$ if the first transmission does not succeed P_f

$$t_{GBN} = t_f (1 - P_f) + P_f \{t_f + \frac{W_s t_f}{1 - P_f}\} = t_f + P_f \frac{W_s t_f}{1 - P_f}$$
 and

$$\eta_{GBN} = \frac{\frac{n_f - n_o}{t_{GBN}}}{R} = \frac{1 - \frac{n_o}{n_f}}{1 + (W_s - 1)P_f} (1 - P_f)$$

Delay-bandwidth product determines Ws

Example: Impact Bit Error Rate on GBN



 n_{f} =1250 bytes = 10000 bits, n_{a} = n_{o} =25 bytes = 200 bits

Compare S&W with GBN efficiency for random bit errors with $p = 0, 10^{-6}, 10^{-5}, 10^{-4}$ and R = 1 Mbps & 100 ms

1 Mbps x 100 ms = 100000 bits = 10 frames \rightarrow Use W_s = 11

Efficiency	0	10 ⁻⁶	10 ⁻⁵	10-4
S&W	8.9%	8.8%	8.0%	3.3%
GBN	98%	88.2%	45.4%	4.9%

- Go-Back-N significant improvement over Stop-and-Wait for large delay-bandwidth product
- Go-Back-N becomes inefficient as error rate increases

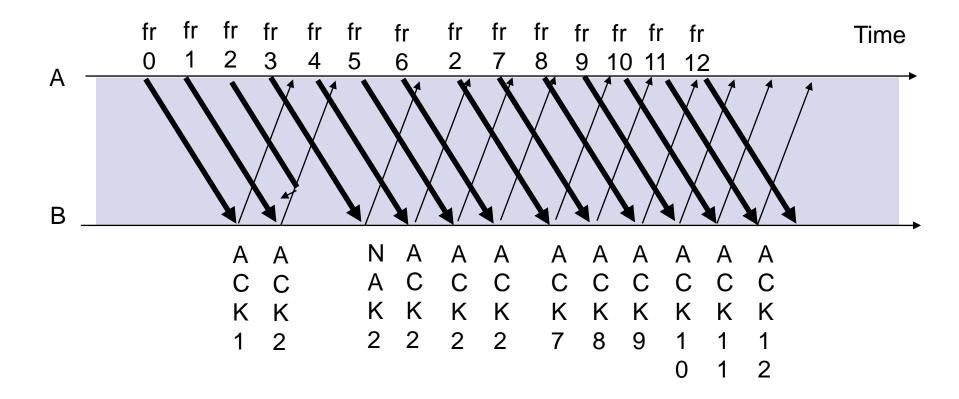
Selective Repeat ARQ



- Go-Back-N ARQ inefficient because multiple frames are resent when errors or losses occur
- Selective Repeat retransmits only an individual frame
 - Timeout causes individual corresponding frame to be resent
 - NAK causes retransmission of oldest un-acked frame
- Receiver maintains a receive window of sequence numbers that can be accepted
 - Error-free, but out-of-sequence frames with sequence numbers within the receive window are buffered
 - Arrival of frame with R_{next} causes window to slide forward by 1 or more

Selective Repeat ARQ

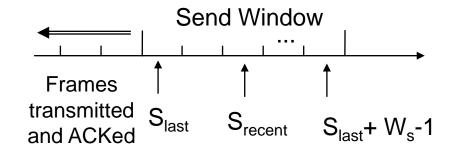


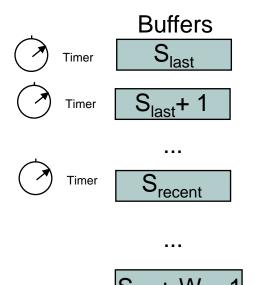


Selective Repeat ARQ

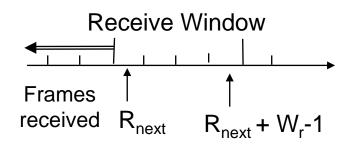


Transmitter





Receiver



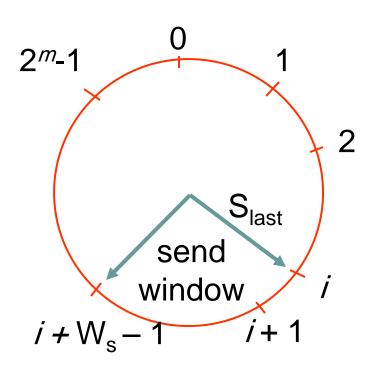
Buffers

...

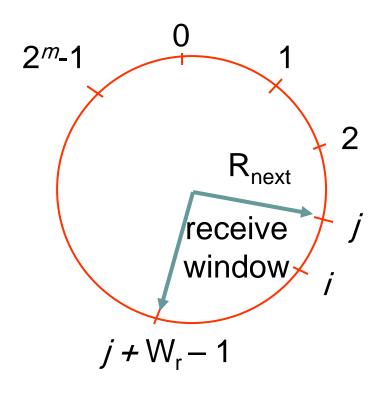
max Seq # accepted

Send & Receive Windows

Transmitter



Moves k forward when ACK arrives with $R_{\text{next}} = S_{\text{last}} + k$ $k = 1, ..., W_s$ Receiver



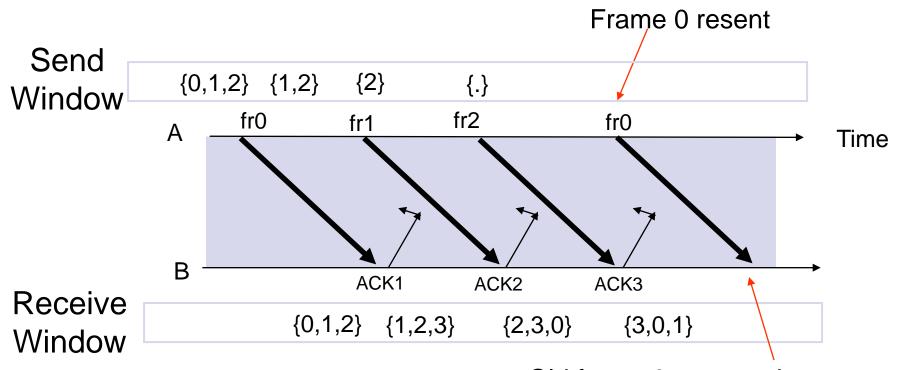
Moves forward by 1 or more when frame arrives with

Seq.
$$\# = R_{next}$$

What size W_s and W_r allowed?



• Example: $M=2^2=4$, $W_s=3$, $W_r=3$

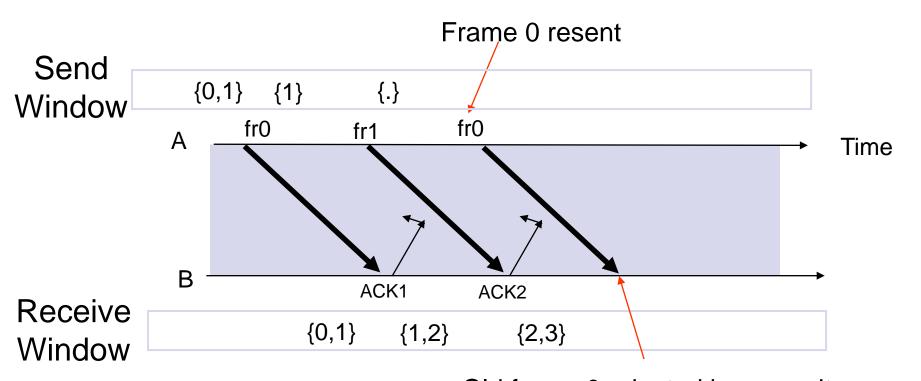


Old frame 0 accepted as a new frame because it falls in the receive window

$W_s + W_r = 2^m$ is maximum allowed



• Example: $M=2^2=4$, $W_s=2$, $W_r=2$

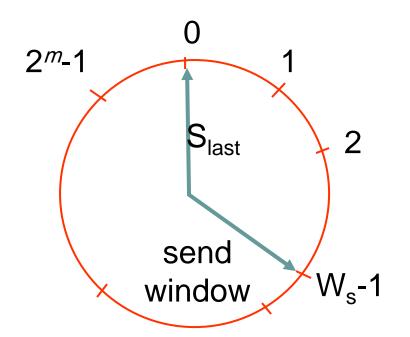


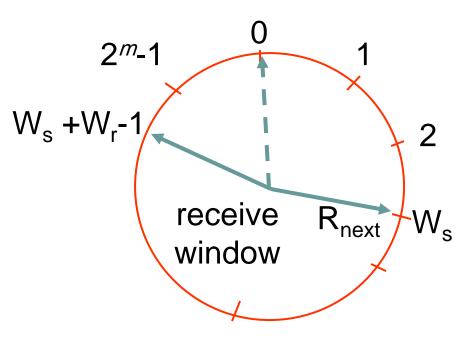
Old frame 0 rejected because it falls outside the receive window

Why $W_s + W_r = 2^m$ works

- Transmitter sends frames 0 to Ws-1; send window empty
- All arrive at receiver
- All ACKs lost
- Transmitter resends frame 0

- Receiver window starts at {0, ..., W_r}
- Window slides forward to {W_s,...,W_s+W_r-1}
- Receiver rejects frame 0 because it is outside receive window





Applications of Selective Repeat ARQ



- TCP (Transmission Control Protocol): transport layer protocol uses variation of selective repeat to provide reliable stream service
- Service Specific Connection Oriented Protocol: error control for signaling messages in ATM networks

Efficiency of Selective Repeat



- Assume P_f frame loss probability, then number of transmissions required to deliver a frame is:
 - $t_{f/}(1-P_{f})$

$$\eta_{SR} = \frac{\frac{n_f - n_o}{t_f / (1 - P_f)}}{R} = (1 - \frac{n_o}{n_f})(1 - P_f)$$

Example: Impact Bit Error Rate on Selective Repeat



 $n_{\rm F}$ 1250 bytes = 10000 bits, $n_{\rm a}$ = $n_{\rm o}$ =25 bytes = 200 bits Compare S&W, GBN & SR efficiency for random bit errors with p=0, 10⁻⁶, 10⁻⁵, 10⁻⁴ and R= 1 Mbps & 100 ms

Efficiency	0	10-6	10 ⁻⁵	10 ⁻⁴
S&W	8.9%	8.8%	8.0%	3.3%
GBN	98%	88.2%	45.4%	4.9%
SR	98%	97%	89%	36%

 Selective Repeat outperforms GBN and S&W, but efficiency drops as error rate increases

Comparison of ARQ Efficiencies



Assume n_a and n_o are negligible relative to n_f , and $L = 2(t_{prop} + t_{proc})R/n_f = (W_s-1)$, then

Selective-Repeat:

$$\eta_{SR} = (1 - P_f)(1 - \frac{n_o}{n_f}) \approx (1 - P_f)$$

Go-Back-N:

For P_f≈0, SR & GBN same

$$\eta_{GBN} = \frac{1 - P_f}{1 + (W_S - 1)P_f} = \frac{1 - P_f}{1 + LP_f}$$

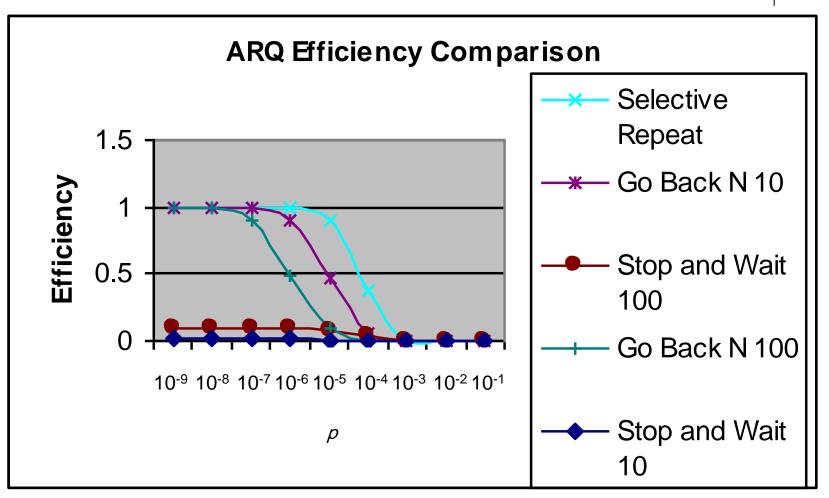
Stop-and-Wait:

For $P_f \rightarrow 1$, GBN & SW same

$$\eta_{SW} = \frac{(1 - P_f)}{1 + \frac{n_a}{n_f} + \frac{2(t_{prop} + t_{proc})R}{n_f}} \approx \frac{1 - P_f}{1 + L}$$

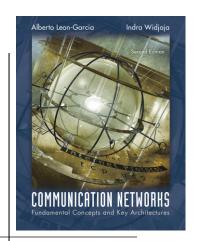
ARQ Efficiencies





Delay-Bandwidth product = 10, 100

Chapter 5 Peer-to-Peer Protocols and Data Link Layer

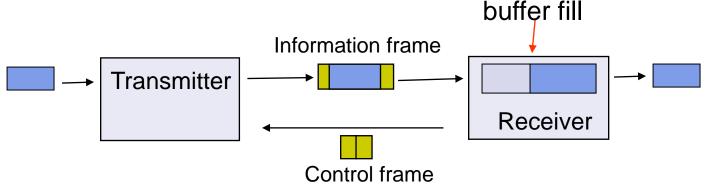


Flow Control



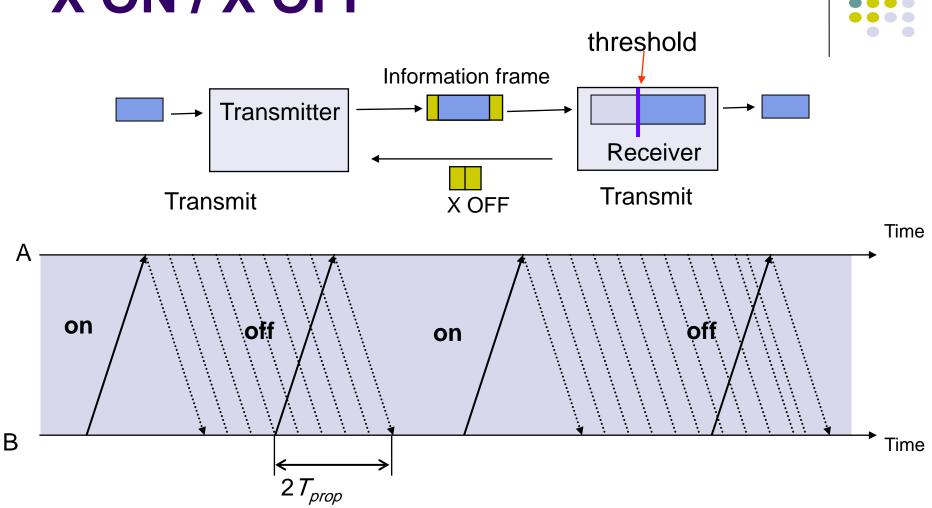
Flow Control





- Receiver has limited buffering to store arriving frames
- Several situations cause buffer overflow
 - Mismatch between sending rate & rate at which user can retrieve data
 - Surges in frame arrivals
- Flow control prevents buffer overflow by regulating rate at which source is allowed to send information 61

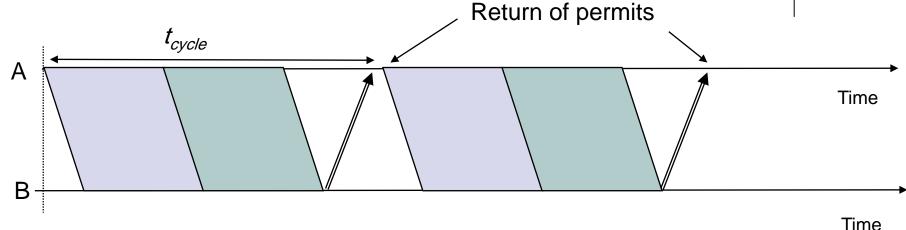
X ON / X OFF



Threshold must activate OFF signal while 2 T_{prop} R bits still remain in buffer

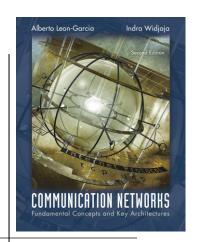
Window Flow Control





- Sliding Window ARQ method with W_s equal to buffer available
 - Transmitter can never send more than W_s frames
- ACKs that slide window forward can be viewed as permits to transmit more
- Can also pace ACKs as shown above
 - Return permits (ACKs) at end of cycle regulates transmission rate
- Problems using sliding window for both error & flow control
 - Choice of window size
 - Interplay between transmission rate & retransmissions
 - TCP separates error & flow control

Chapter 5 Peer-to-Peer Protocols and Data Link Layer

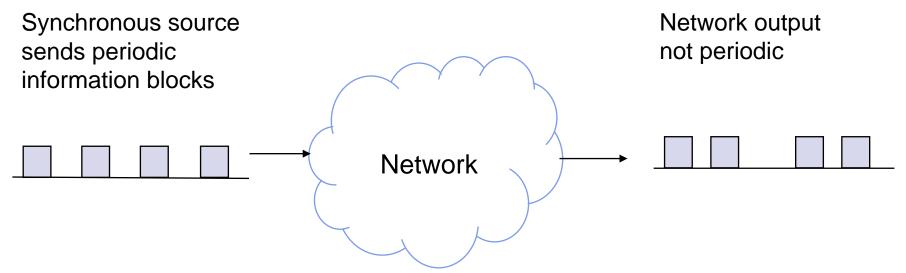


Timing Recovery



Timing Recovery for Synchronous Services

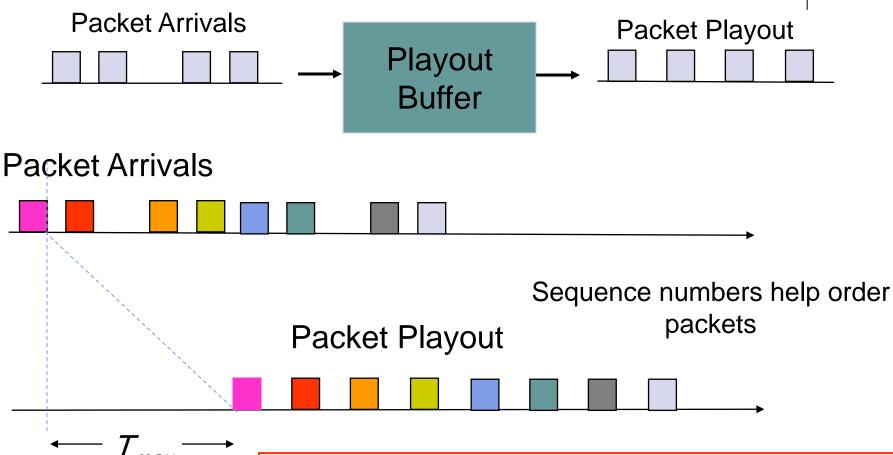




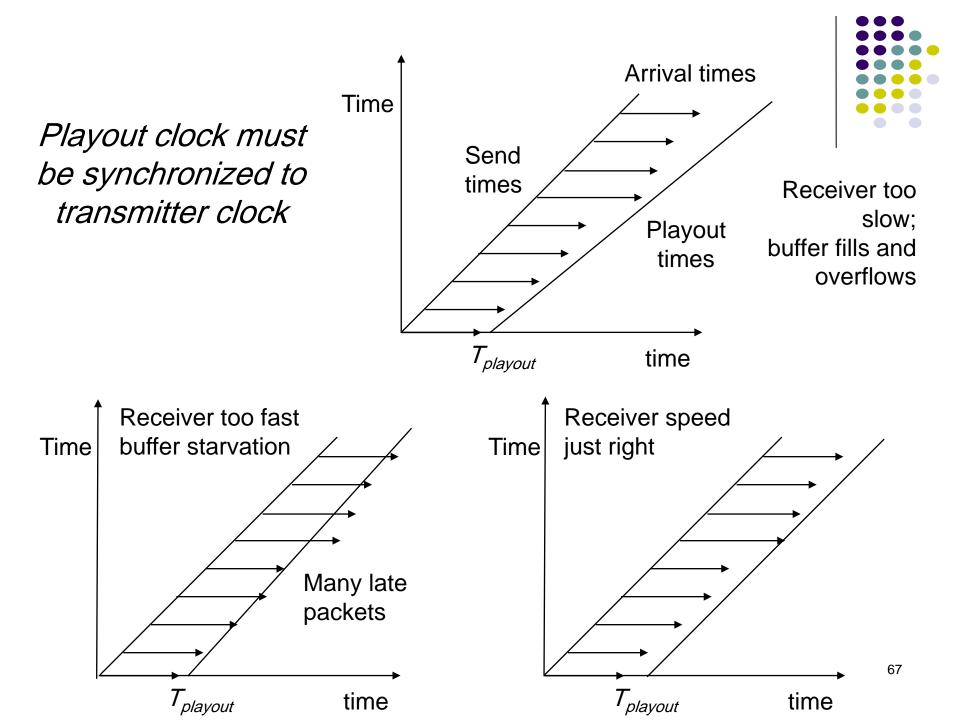
- Applications that involve voice, audio, or video can generate a synchronous information stream
- Information carried by equally-spaced fixed-length packets
- Network multiplexing & switching introduces random delays
 - Packets experience variable transfer delay
 - Jitter (variation in interpacket arrival times) also introduced
- Timing recovery re-establishes the synchronous nature of the stream

Introduce Playout Buffer



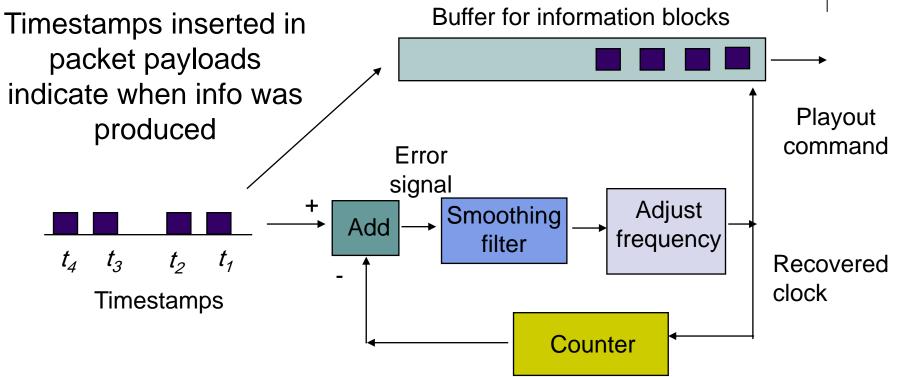


- Delay first packet by maximum network delay
- All other packets arrive with less delay
- Playout packet uniformly thereafter



Clock Recovery

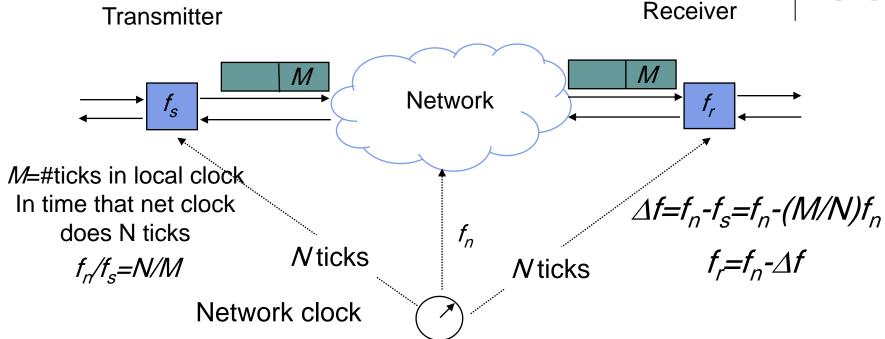




- Counter attempts to replicate transmitter clock
- Frequency of counter is adjusted according to arriving timestamps
- Jitter introduced by network causes fluctuations in buffer & in local clock

Synchronization to a Common Clock





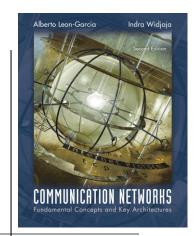
- Clock recovery simple if a common clock is available to transmitter & receiver
 - E.g. SONET network clock; Global Positioning System (GPS)
- Transmitter sends ∆f of its frequency & network frequency
- Receiver adjusts network frequency by ∆f
- Packet delay jitter can be removed completely

Example: Real-Time Protocol



- RTP (RFC 1889) designed to support realtime applications such as voice, audio, video
- RTP provides means to carry:
 - Type of information source
 - Sequence numbers
 - Timestamps
- Actual timing recovery must be done by higher layer protocol
 - MPEG2 for video, MP3 for audio

Chapter 5 Peer-to-Peer Protocols and Data Link Layer



TCP Reliable Stream Service & Flow Control



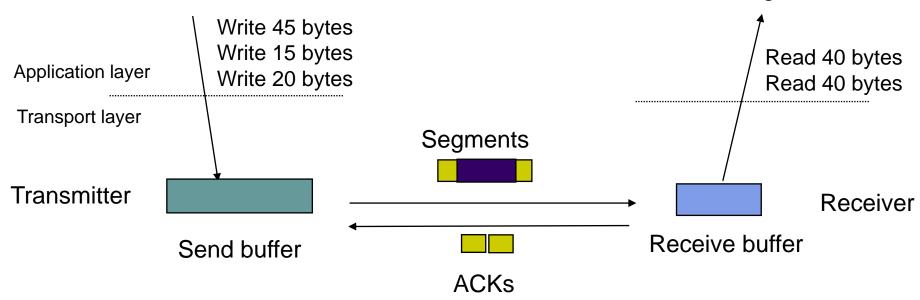
TCP Reliable Stream Service



Application Layer writes bytes into send buffer through socket

TCP transfers byte stream in order, without errors or duplications

Application Layer reads bytes from receive buffer through socket



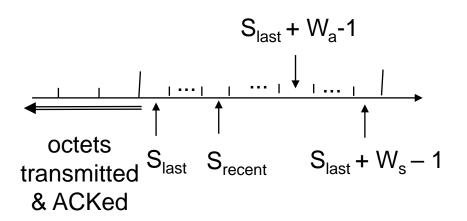
TCP ARQ Method



- TCP uses Selective Repeat ARQ
 - Transfers byte stream without preserving boundaries
- Operates over best effort service of IP
 - Packets can arrive with errors or be lost
 - Packets can arrive out-of-order
 - Packets can arrive after very long delays
 - Duplicate segments must be detected & discarded
 - Must protect against segments from previous connections
- Sequence Numbers
 - Seq. # is number of first byte in segment payload
 - Very long Seq. #s (32 bits) to deal with long delays
 - Initial sequence numbers negotiated during connection setup (to deal with very old duplicates)
 - Accept segments within a receive window

Transmitter

Send Window

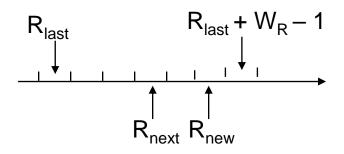


 S_{last} oldest unacknowledged byte S_{recent} highest-numbered transmitted byte $S_{last}+W_a$ -1 highest-numbered byte that can be transmitted $S_{last}+W_s$ -1 highest-numbered byte that can be accepted from the application

Receiver



Receive Window



R_{last} highest-numbered byte not yet read by the application R_{next} next expected byte R_{new} highest numbered byte received correctly R_{last}+W_R-1 highest-numbered byte that can be accommodated in receive buffer

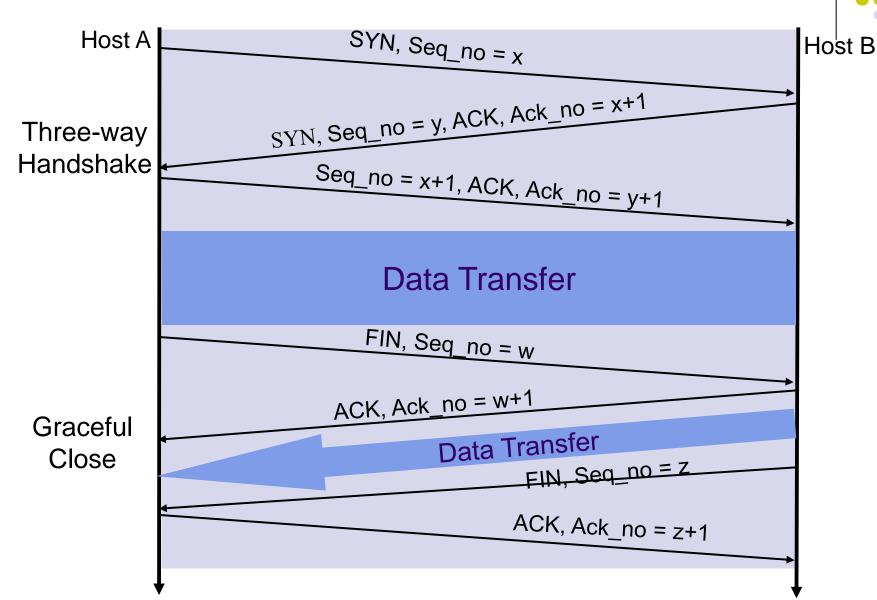
TCP Connections



- TCP Connection
 - One connection each way
 - Identified uniquely by Send IP Address, Send TCP Port #, Receive IP Address, Receive TCP Port #
- Connection Setup with Three-Way Handshake
 - Three-way exchange to negotiate initial Seq. #'s for connections in each direction
- Data Transfer
 - Exchange segments carrying data
- Graceful Close
 - Close each direction separately

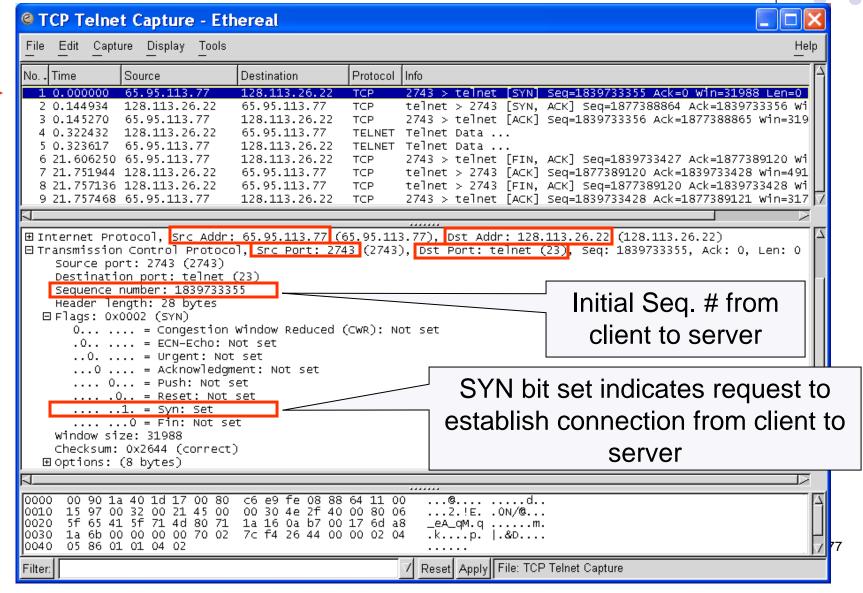
Three Phases of TCP Connection





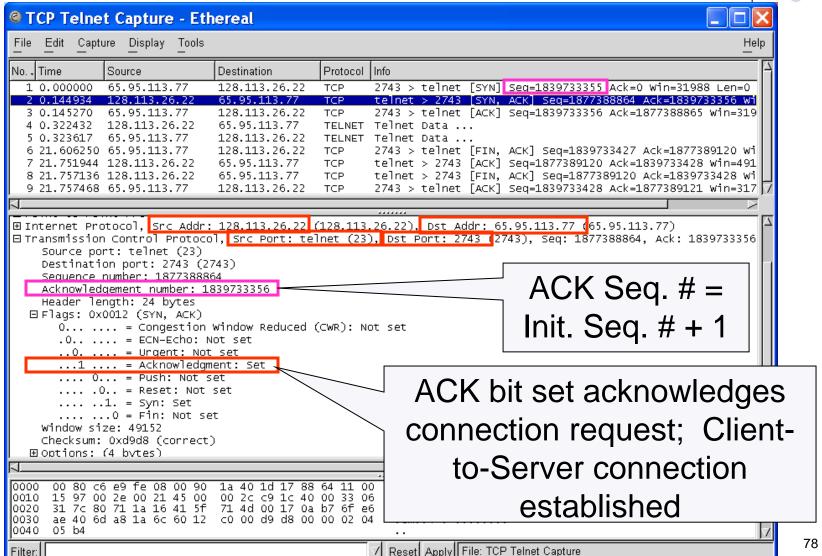
1st Handshake: Client-Server Connection Request



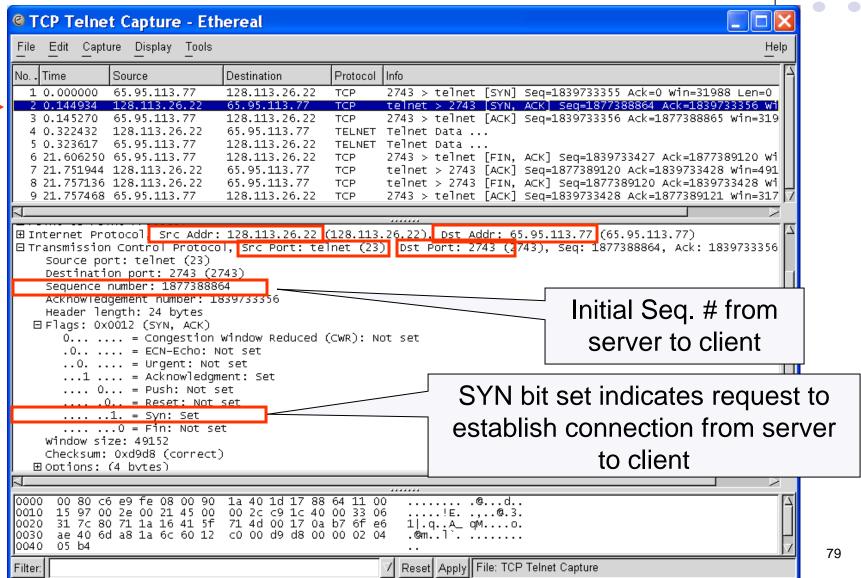


2nd Handshake: ACK from Server



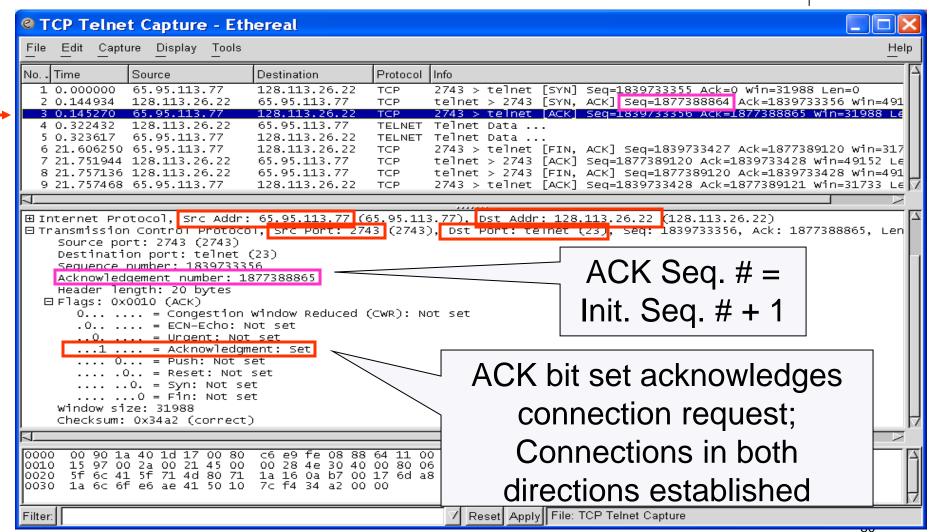


2nd Handshake: Server-Client Connection Request



3rd Handshake: ACK from Client



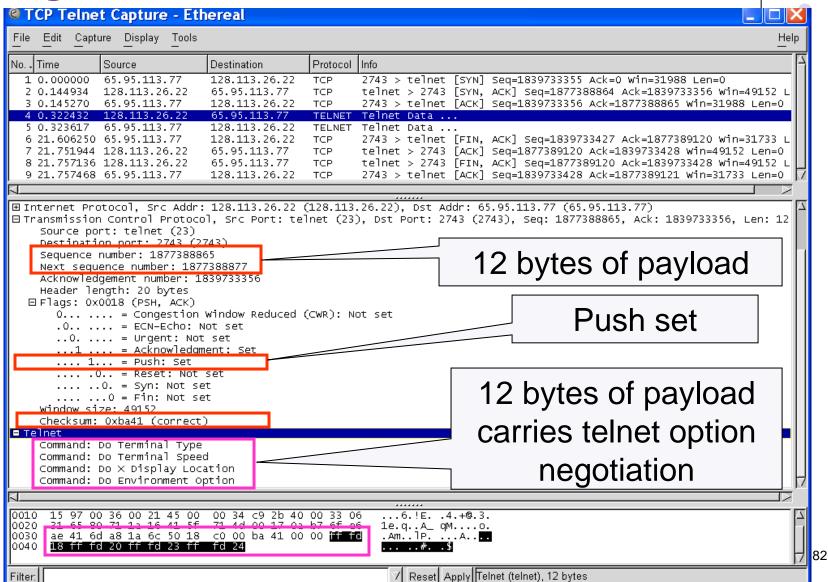


TCP Data Exchange



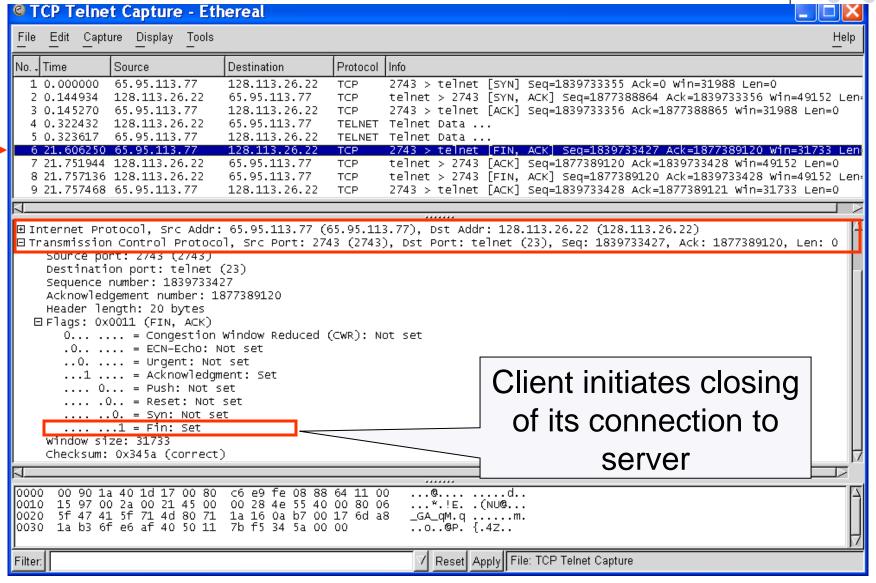
- Application Layers write bytes into buffers
- TCP sender forms segments
 - When bytes exceed threshold or timer expires
 - Upon PUSH command from applications
 - Consecutive bytes from buffer inserted in payload
 - Sequence # & ACK # inserted in header
 - Checksum calculated and included in header
- TCP receiver
 - Performs selective repeat ARQ functions
 - Writes error-free, in-sequence bytes to receive buffer

Data Transfer: Server-to-Client Segment



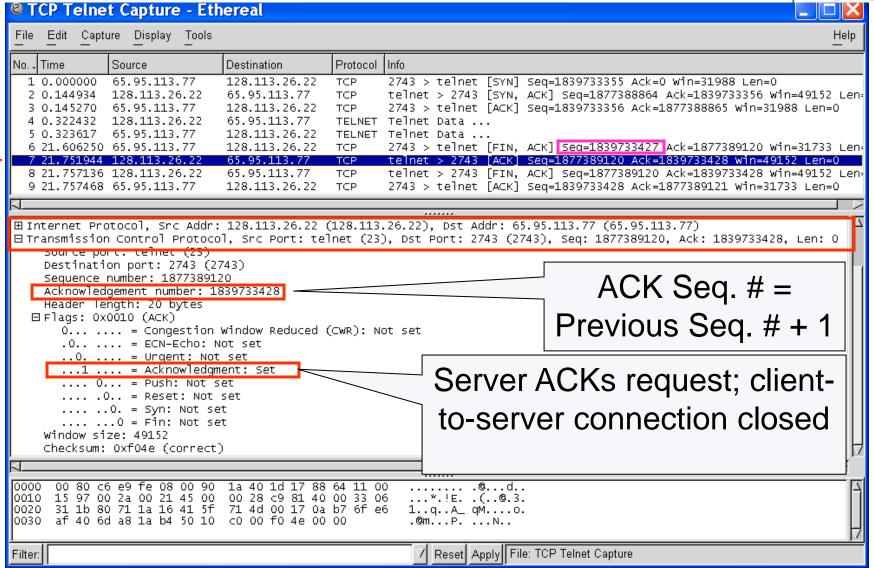
Graceful Close: Client-to-Server Connection





Graceful Close: Client-to-Server Connection





Flow Control



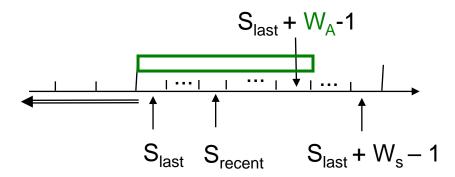
- TCP receiver controls rate at which sender transmits to prevent buffer overflow
- TCP receiver advertises a window size specifying number of bytes that can be accommodated by receiver

$$W_A = W_R - (R_{new} - R_{last} + 1)$$

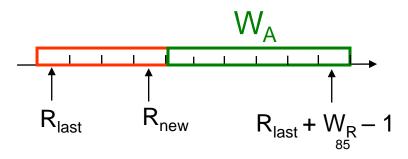
TCP sender obliged to keep # outstanding bytes below W_A

$$(S_{recent} - S_{last}) \le W_A - 1$$

Send Window

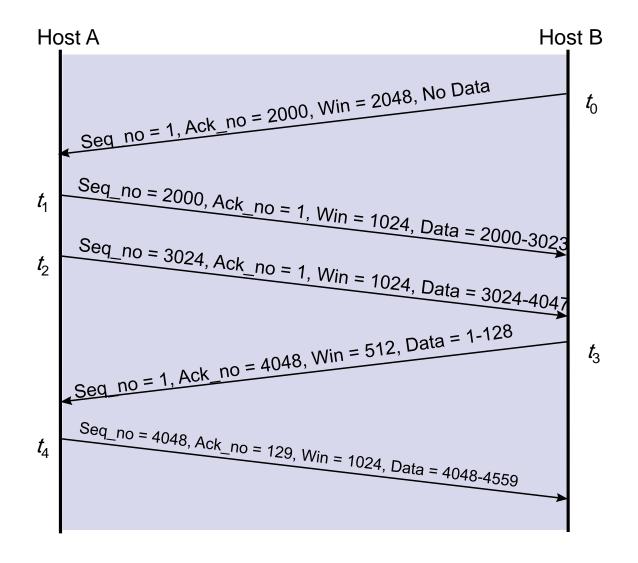


Receive Window



TCP window flow control





TCP Retransmission Timeout



- TCP retransmits a segment after timeout period
 - Timeout too short: excessive number of retransmissions
 - Timeout too long: recovery too slow
 - Timeout depends on RTT: time from when segment is sent to when ACK is received
- Round trip time (RTT) in Internet is highly variable
 - Routes vary and can change in mid-connection
 - Traffic fluctuates
- TCP uses adaptive estimation of RTT
 - Measure RTT each time ACK received: τ_n

$$t_{RTT}(\text{new}) = \alpha t_{RTT}(\text{old}) + (1 - \alpha) \tau_{\text{n}}$$

• $\alpha = 7/8$ typical

RTT Variability



- Estimate variance σ^2 of RTT variation
- Estimate for timeout:

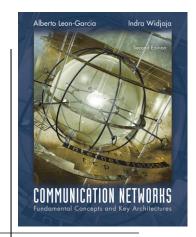
$$t_{out} = t_{RTT} + k \sigma_{RTT}$$

- If RTT highly variable, timeout increase accordingly
- If RTT nearly constant, timeout close to RTT estimate
- Approximate estimation of deviation

$$d_{RTT}(new) = \beta d_{RTT}(old) + (1-\beta) / \tau_n - t_{RTT}/$$

$$t_{out} = t_{RTT} + 4 d_{RTT}$$

Chapter 5 Peer-to-Peer Protocols and Data Link Layer

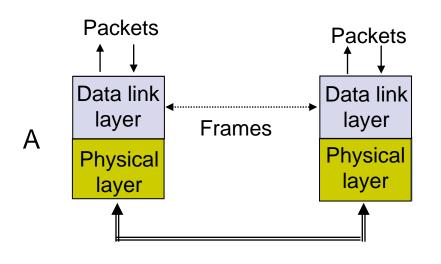


PART II: Data Link Controls
Framing
Point-to-Point Protocol
High-Level Data Link Control
Link Sharing Using Statistical Multiplexing



Data Link Protocols





Data Links Services

Framing

В

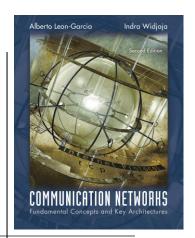
- Error control
- Flow control
- Multiplexing
- Link Maintenance
- Security: Authentication & Encryption

- Directly connected, wire-like
- Losses & errors, but no out-ofsequence frames
- Applications: Direct Links; LANs; Connections across WANs

Examples

- PPP
- HDLC
- Ethernet LAN
- IEEE 802.11 (Wi Fi) LAN

Chapter 5 Peer-to-Peer Protocols and Data Link Layer

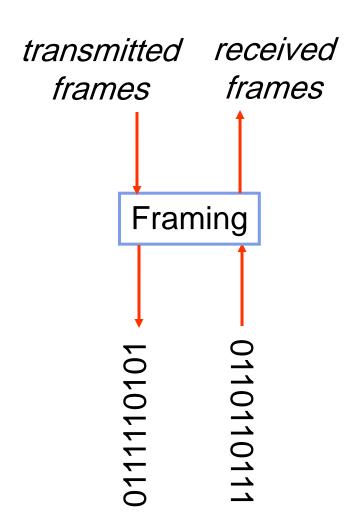


Framing



Framing





- Mapping stream of physical layer bits into frames
- Mapping frames into bit stream
- Frame boundaries can be determined using:
 - Character Counts
 - Control Characters
 - Flags
 - CRC Checks

Character-Oriented Framing



Data to be sent

A DLE B ETX DLE STX E

After stuffing and framing



- Frames consist of integer number of bytes
 - Asynchronous transmission systems using ASCII to transmit printable characters
 - Octets with HEX value <20 are nonprintable
- Special 8-bit patterns used as control characters
 - STX (start of text) = 0x02; ETX (end of text) = 0x03;
- Byte used to carry non-printable characters in frame
 - DLE (data link escape) = 0x10
 - DLE STX (DLE ETX) used to indicate beginning (end) of frame
 - Insert extra DLE in front of occurrence of DLE in frame
 - All DLEs occur in pairs except at frame boundaries

Framing & Bit Stuffing

HDLC frame

Flag	Address	Control	Information	FCS	Flag	
any number of hits						

- Frame delineated by flag character
- HDLC uses bit stuffing to prevent occurrence of flag 01111110 inside the frame
- Transmitter inserts extra 0 after each consecutive five 1s inside the frame
- Receiver checks for five consecutive 1s
 - if next bit = 0, it is removed
 - if next two bits are 10, then flag is detected
 - If next two bits are 11, then frame has errors

Example: Bit stuffing & destuffing



(a) Data to be sent

0110111111111100

After stuffing and framing

*01111110*011011111011111000*011111110*

(b) Data received

01111110000111011111011111011001111110

After destuffing and deframing

000111011111-1111-110

PPP Frame



Fla 01111	\sim	Address 1111111	Control 00000011	Protocol	Information	CRC	Flag 01111110
		1		i	nteger # of by	tes	
			Unnumbere frame	1	Specifies what kind of packet is contained in payload, e.g., LCP, NCP, IP, OSI CLNP, IPX		

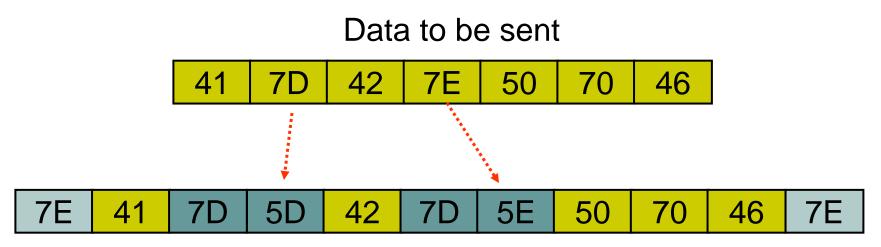
- PPP uses similar frame structure as HDLC, except
 - Protocol type field
 - Payload contains an *integer* number of bytes
- PPP uses the same flag, but uses byte stuffing
- Problems with PPP byte stuffing
 - Size of frame varies unpredictably due to byte insertion
 - Malicious users can inflate bandwidth by inserting 7D & 7E

Byte-Stuffing in PPP



- PPP is character-oriented version of HDLC
- Flag is 0x7E (01111110)
- Control escape 0x7D (01111101)
- Any occurrence of flag or control escape inside of frame is replaced with 0x7D followed by

original octet XORed with 0x20 (00100000)



After stuffing and framing

Generic Framing Procedure



			GFP payload area			
<u> </u>	2	2	2	2	0-60	
F	PLI	cHEC	Туре	tHEC	GEH	GFP payload
len	rload igth cator	Core header error checking	Payload type	Type header error checking	GFP extension headers	, ,

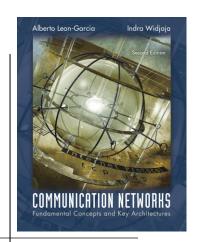
- GFP combines frame length indication with CRC
 - PLI indicated length of frame, then simply count characters
 - cHEC (CRC-16) protects against errors in count field (single-bit error correction + error detection)
- GFP designed to operate over octet-synchronous physical layers (e.g. SONET)
 - Frame-mapped mode for variable-length payloads: Ethernet
 - Transparent mode carries fixed-length payload: storage devices₉₈

GFP Synchronization & Scrambling



- Synchronization in three-states
 - Hunt state: examine 4-bytes to see if CRC ok
 - If no, move forward by one-byte
 - If yes, move to pre-sync state
 - Pre-sync state: tentative PLI indicates next frame
 - If N successful frame detections, move to sync state
 - If no match, go to hunt state
 - Sync state: normal state
 - Validate PLI/cHEC, extract payload, go to next frame
 - Use single-error correction
 - Go to hunt state if non-correctable error
- Scrambling
 - Payload is scrambled to prevent malicious users from inserting long strings of 0s which cause SONET equipment to lose bit clock synchronization (as discussed in line code section)

Chapter 5 Peer-to-Peer Protocols and Data Link Layer



Point-to-Point Protocol



PPP: Point-to-Point Protocol



- Data link protocol for point-to-point lines in Internet
 - Router-router; dial-up to router
- 1. Provides Framing and Error Detection
 - Character-oriented HDLC-like frame structure
- 2. Link Control Protocol
 - Bringing up, testing, bringing down lines; negotiating options
 - Authentication: key capability in ISP access
- 3. A family of *Network Control Protocols* specific to different network layer protocols
 - IP, OSI network layer, IPX (Novell), Appletalk

PPP Applications

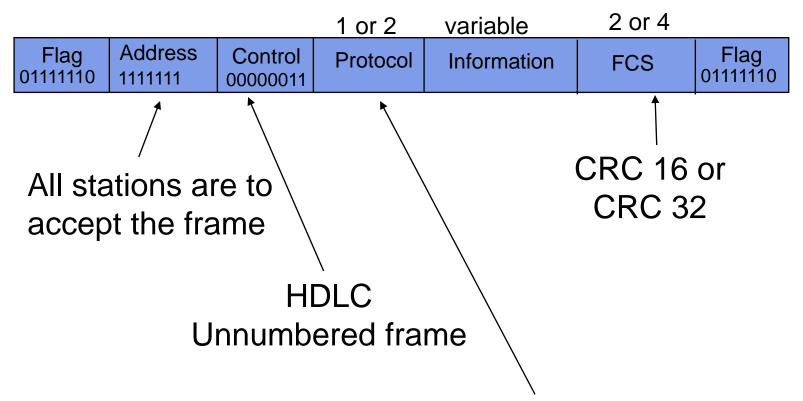


PPP used in many point-to-point applications

- Telephone Modem Links
 30 kbps
- Packet over SONET 600 Mbps to 10 Gbps
 - IP→PPP→SONET
- PPP is also used over shared links such as Ethernet to provide LCP, NCP, and authentication features
 - PPP over Ethernet (RFC 2516)
 - Used over DSL

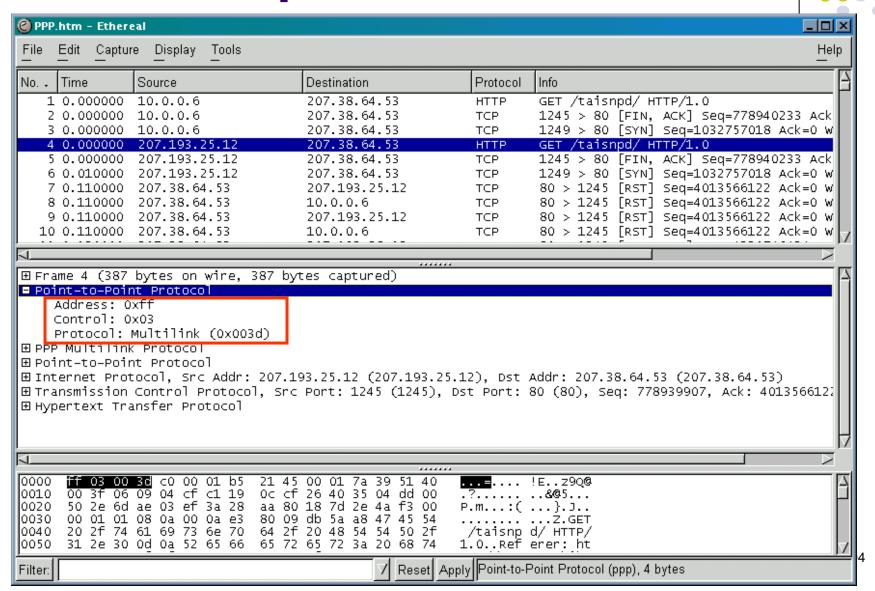
PPP Frame Format





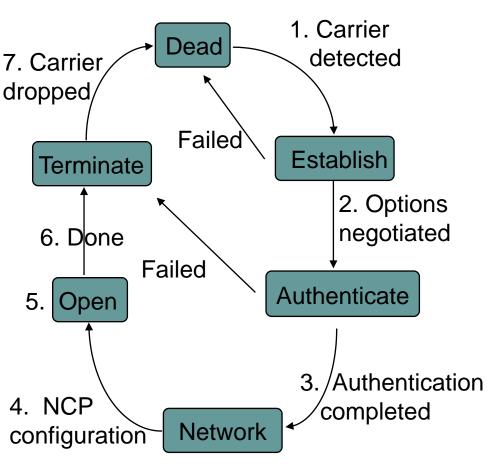
- PPP can support multiple network protocols simultaneously
- Specifies what kind of packet is contained in the payload
 e.g. LCP, NCP, IP, OSI CLNP, IPX...

PPP Example



PPP Phases





Home PC to Internet Service Provider

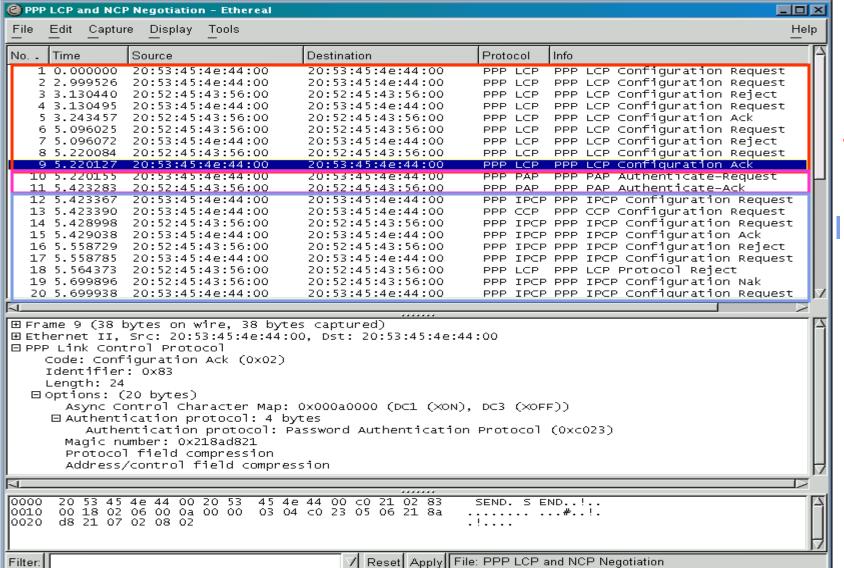
- 1. PC calls router via modem
- PC and router exchange LCP packets to negotiate PPP parameters
- 3. Check on identities
- NCP packets exchanged to configure the network layer, e.g. TCP/IP (requires IP address assignment)
- 5. Data transport, e.g. send/receive IP packets
- 6. NCP used to tear down the network layer connection (free up IP address); LCP used to shut down data link layer connection
- 7. Modem hangs up

PPP Authentication



- Password Authentication Protocol
 - Initiator must send ID & password
 - Authenticator replies with authentication success/fail
 - After several attempts, LCP closes link
 - Transmitted unencrypted, susceptible to eavesdropping
- Challenge-Handshake Authentication Protocol (CHAP)
 - Initiator & authenticator share a secret key
 - Authenticator sends a challenge (random # & ID)
 - Initiator computes cryptographic checksum of random # & ID using the shared secret key
 - Authenticator also calculates cryptocgraphic checksum & compares to response
 - Authenticator can reissue challenge during session

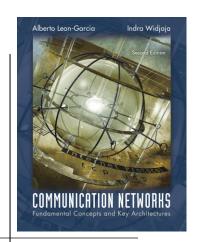
Example: PPP connection setup in dialup modem to ISP





LCP Setup PAP P NCP setup

Chapter 5 Peer-to-Peer Protocols and Data Link Layer



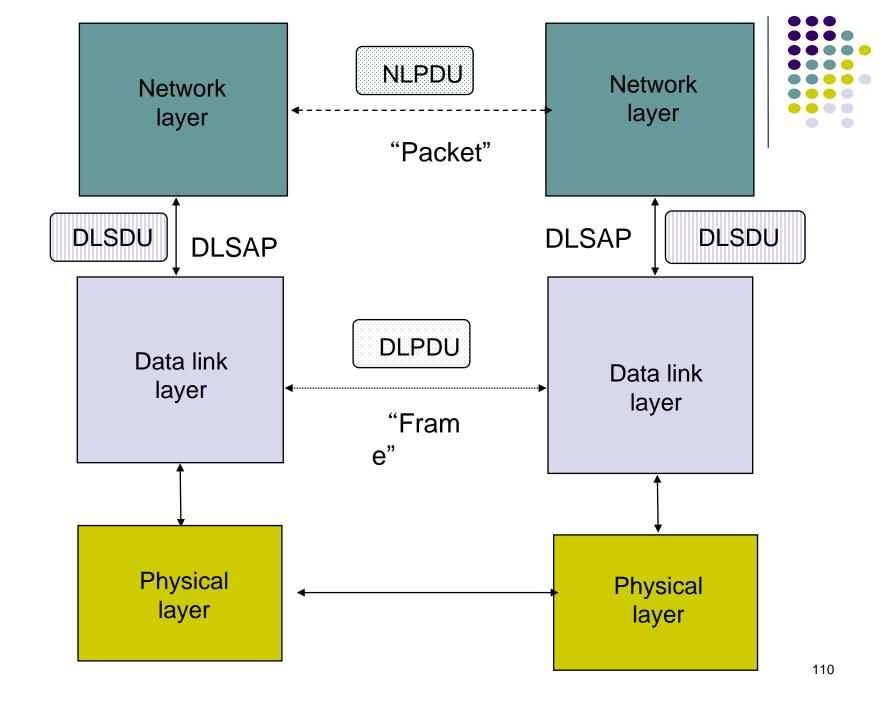
High-Level Data Link Control



High-Level Data Link Control (HDLC)

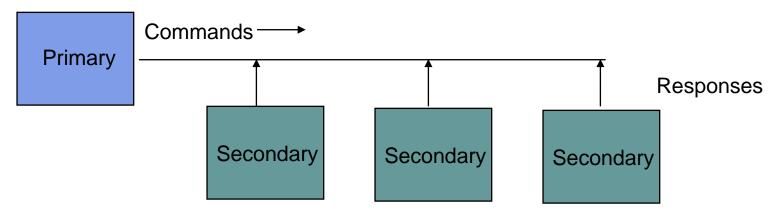


- Bit-oriented data link control
- Derived from IBM Synchronous Data Link Control (SDLC)
- Related to Link Access Procedure Balanced (LAPB)
 - LAPD in ISDN
 - LAPM in cellular telephone signaling



HDLC Data Transfer Modes

- Normal Response Mode
 - Used in polling multidrop lines



- Asynchronous Balanced Mode
 - Used in full-duplex point-to-point links



Mode is selected during connection establishment

HDLC Frame Format



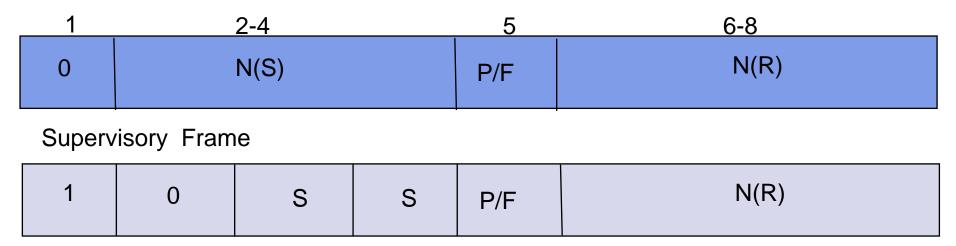
Flag Address Control	Information	FCS	Flag
----------------------	-------------	-----	------

- Control field gives HDLC its functionality
- Codes in fields have specific meanings and uses
 - Flag: delineate frame boundaries
 - Address: identify secondary station (1 or more octets)
 - In ABM mode, a station can act as primary or secondary so address changes accordingly
 - Control: purpose & functions of frame (1 or 2 octets)
 - Information: contains user data; length not standardized, but implementations impose maximum
 - Frame Check Sequence: 16- or 32-bit CRC

Control Field Format



Information Frame



Unnumbered Frame

1	1	M	М	P/F	M	M	М
---	---	---	---	-----	---	---	---

- S: Supervisory Function Bits
- N(R): Receive Sequence Number
- N(S): Send Sequence Number

- M: Unnumbered Function Bits
- P/F: Poll/final bit used in interaction between primary and secondary

Information frames



- Each I-frame contains sequence number N(S)
- Positive ACK piggybacked
 - N(R)=Sequence number of next frame expected acknowledges all frames up to and including N(R)-1
- 3 or 7 bit sequence numbering
 - Maximum window sizes 7 or 127
- Poll/Final Bit
 - NRM: Primary polls station by setting P=1; Secondary sets F=1 in last I-frame in response
 - Primaries and secondaries always interact via paired P/F bits

Error Detection & Loss Recovery



- Frames lost due to loss-of-synch or receiver buffer overflow
- Frames may undergo errors in transmission
- CRCs detect errors and such frames are treated as lost
- Recovery through ACKs, timeouts & retransmission
- Sequence numbering to identify out-of-sequence & duplicate frames
- HDLC provides for options that implement several ARQ methods

Supervisory frames



Used for error (ACK, NAK) and flow control (Don't Send):

- Receive Ready (RR), SS=00
 - ACKs frames up to N(R)-1 when piggyback not available
- REJECT (REJ), SS=01
 - Negative ACK indicating N(R) is first frame not received correctly. Transmitter must resend N(R) and later frames
- Receive Not Ready (RNR), SS=10
 - ACKs frame N(R)-1 & requests that no more I-frames be sent
- Selective REJECT (SREJ), SS=11
 - Negative ACK for N(R) requesting that N(R) be selectively retransmitted

Unnumbered Frames

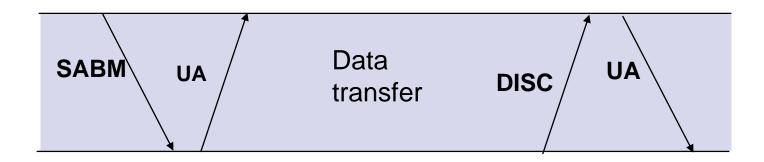


- Setting of Modes:
 - SABM: Set Asynchronous Balanced Mode
 - UA: acknowledges acceptance of mode setting commands
 - DISC: terminates logical link connectio
- Information Transfer between stations
 - UI: Unnumbered information
- Recovery used when normal error/flow control fails
 - FRMR: frame with correct FCS but impossible semantics
 - RSET: indicates sending station is resetting sequence numbers
- XID: exchange station id and characteristics

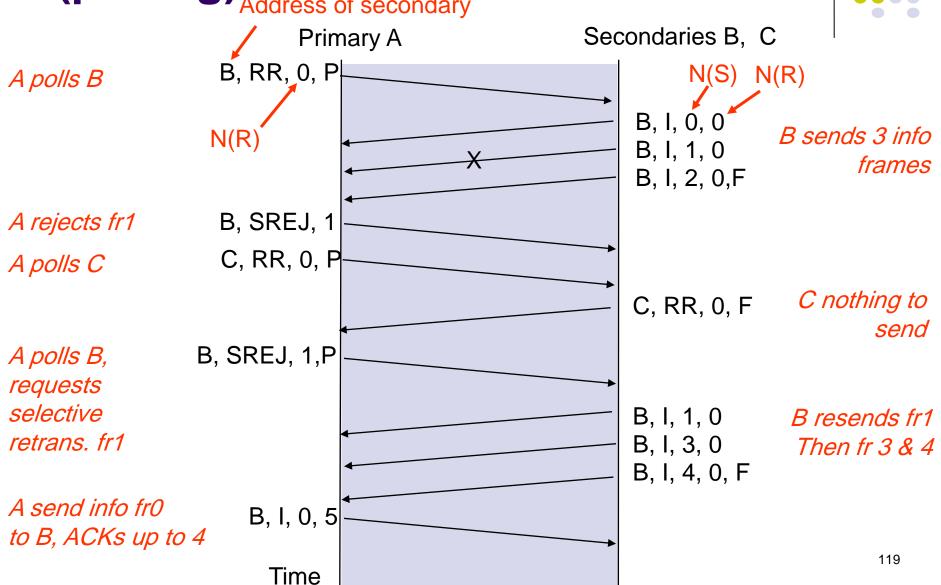
Connection Establishment & Release



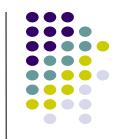
- Unnumbered frames used to establish and release data link connection
- In HDLC
 - Set Asynchronous Balanced Mode (SABM)
 - Disconnect (DISC)
 - Unnumbered Acknowledgment (UA)

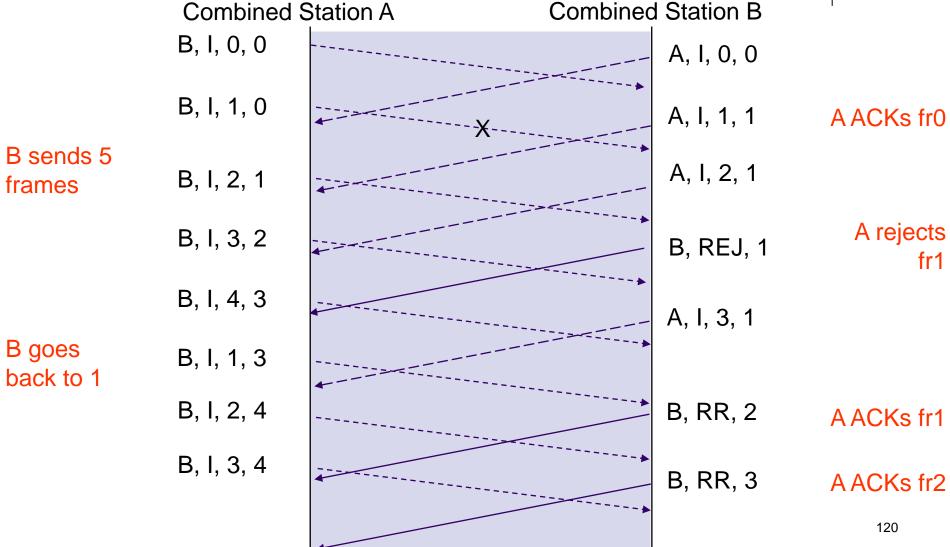


Example: HDLC using NRM (polling) Address of secondary



Frame Exchange using Asynchronous Balanced Mode

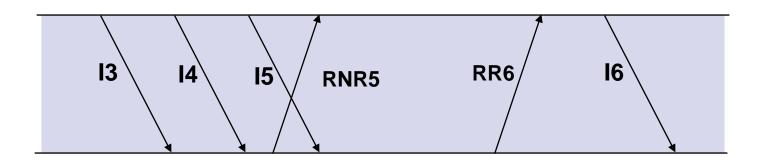




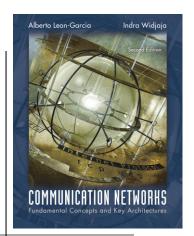
Flow Control



- Flow control is required to prevent transmitter from overrunning receiver buffers
- Receiver can control flow by delaying acknowledgement messages
- Receiver can also use supervisory frames to explicitly control transmitter
 - Receive Not Ready (RNR) & Receive Ready (RR)



Chapter 5 Peer-to-Peer Protocols and Data Link Layer

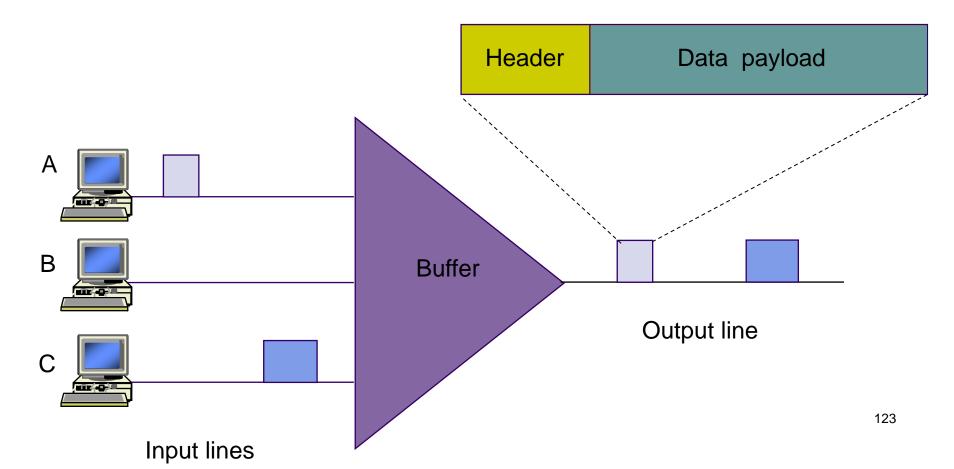


Link Sharing Using Statistical Multiplexing



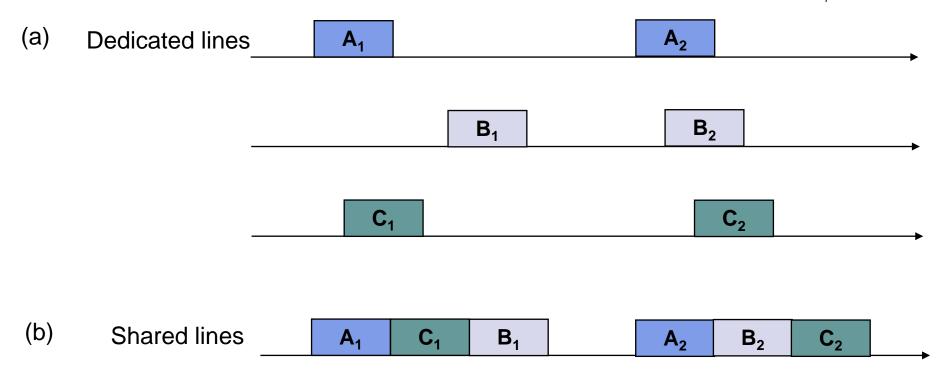
Statistical Multiplexing

- Multiplexing concentrates bursty traffic onto a shared line
- Greater efficiency and lower cost



Tradeoff Delay for Efficiency

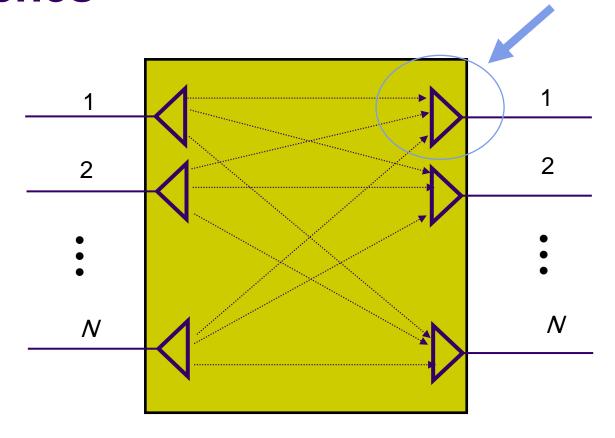




- Dedicated lines involve not waiting for other users, but lines are used inefficiently when user traffic is bursty
- Shared lines concentrate packets into shared line; packets buffered (delayed) when line is not immediately available

Multiplexers inherent in Packet Switches

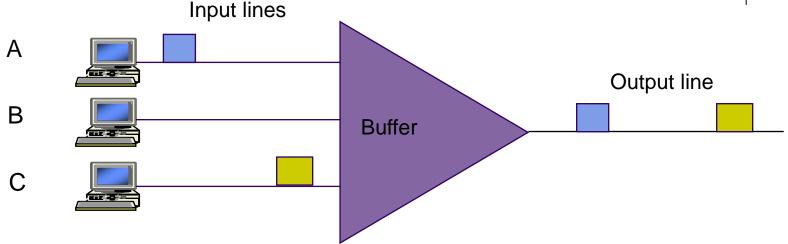




- Packets/frames forwarded to buffer prior to transmission from switch
- Multiplexing occurs in these buffers

Multiplexer Modeling

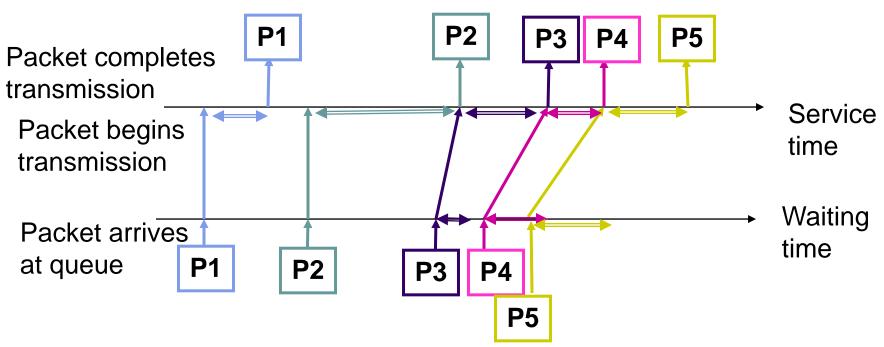




- Arrivals: What is the packet interarrival pattern?
- Service Time: How long are the packets?
- Service Discipline: What is order of transmission?
- Buffer Discipline: If buffer is full, which packet is dropped?
- Performance Measures:
- Delay Distribution; Packet Loss Probability; Line Utilization

Delay = Waiting + Service Times

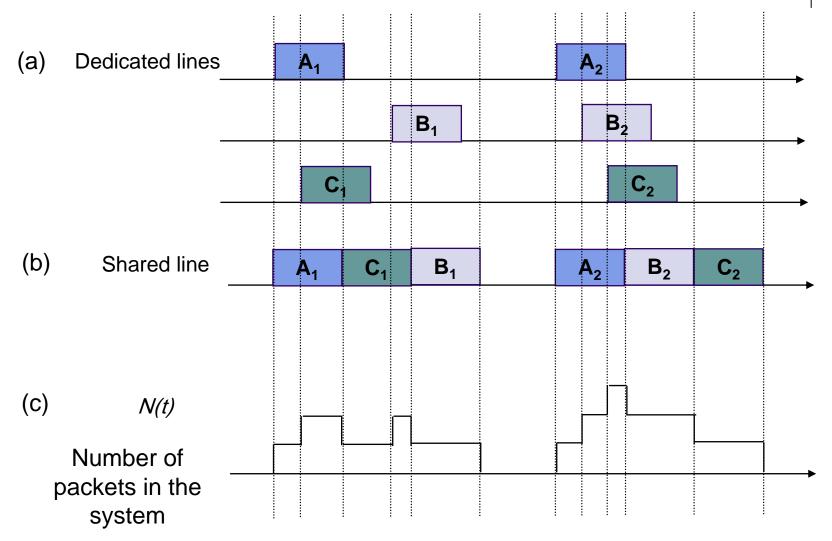




- Packets arrive and wait for service
- Waiting Time: from arrival instant to beginning of service
- Service Time: time to transmit packet
- Delay: total time in system = waiting time + service time

Fluctuations in Packets in the System





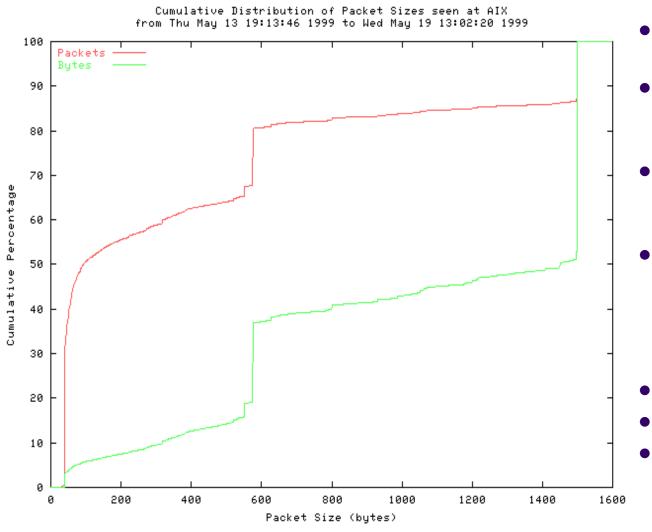
Packet Lengths & Service Times



- R bits per second transmission rate
- L = # bits in a packet
- X = L/R = time to transmit ("service") a packet
- Packet lengths are usually variable
 - Distribution of lengths → Dist. of service times
 - Common models:
 - Constant packet length (all the same)
 - Exponential distribution
 - Internet Measured Distributions fairly constant
 - See next chart

Measure Internet Packet Distribution

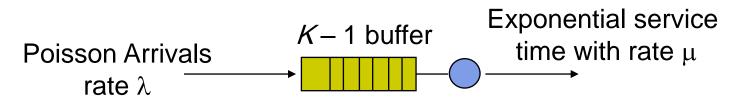




- Dominated by TCP traffic (85%)
- ~40% packets are minimum-sized 40 byte packets for TCP ACKs
- ~15% packets are maximum-sized Ethernet 1500 frames
- ~15% packets are 552
 & 576 byte packets for TCP implementations that do not use path MTU discovery
- Mean=413 bytes
- Stand Dev=509 bytes
- Source: caida.org

M/M/1/K Queueing Model





At most K customers allowed in system

- 1 customer served at a time; up to K-1 can wait in queue
- Mean service time E[X] = 1/μ
- Key parameter Load: $\rho = \lambda/\mu$
- When $\lambda \ll \mu$ ($\rho \approx 0$), customers arrive infrequently and usually find system empty, so delay is low and loss is unlikely
- As λ approaches μ ($\rho \rightarrow 1$), customers start bunching up and delays increase and losses occur more frequently
- When $\lambda > \mu$ ($\rho > 0$), customers arrive faster than they can be processed, so most customers find system full and those that do enter have to wait about K-1 service times

Poisson Arrivals



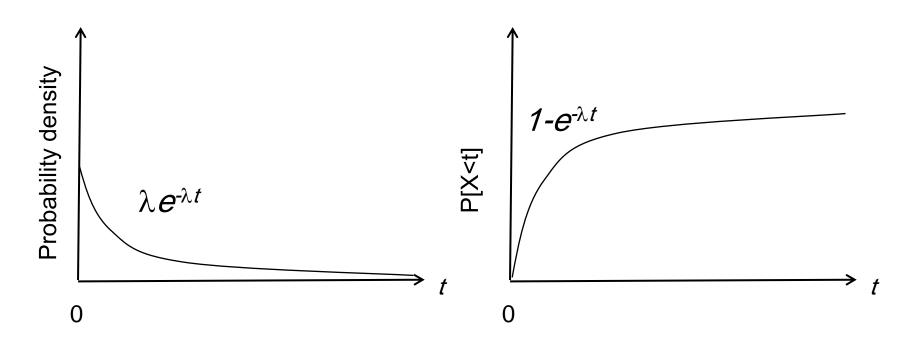
- Average Arrival Rate: λ packets per second
- Arrivals are equally-likely to occur at any point in time
- Time between consecutive arrivals is an exponential random variable with mean 1/ λ
- Number of arrivals in interval of time t is a Poisson random variable with mean λt

$$P[\text{ k arrivals in t seconds}] = \frac{(\lambda t)^k}{k!} e^{-\lambda t}$$

Exponential Distribution



$$P[X > t] = e^{-t/E[X]} = e^{-\lambda t}$$
 for $t > 0$.



M/M/1/K Performance Results



(From Appendix A)

Probability of Overflow:

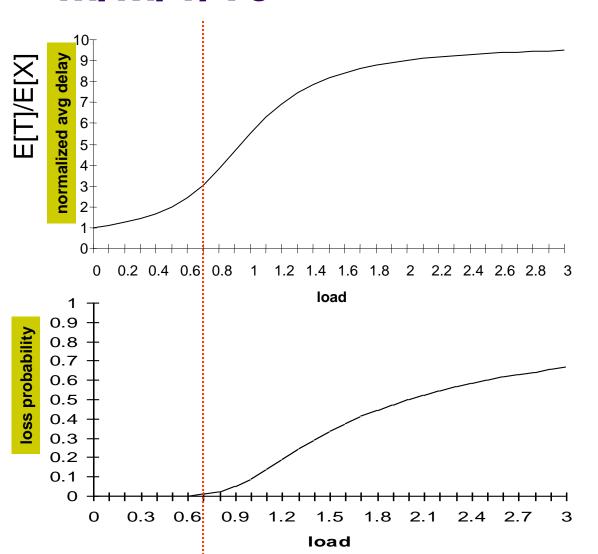
$$P_{loss} = \frac{(1-\rho)\rho^{K}}{1-\rho^{K+1}}$$

Average Total Packet Delay:

$$E[N] = \frac{\rho}{1 - \rho} - \frac{(K+1)\rho^{K+1}}{1 - \rho^{K+1}}$$

$$E[T] = \frac{E[N]}{\lambda(1 - P_K)}$$

M/M/1/10

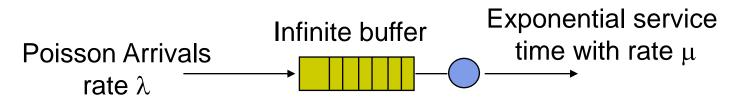




- Maximum 10
 packets allowed in system
- Minimum delay is 1 service time
- Maximum delay is 10 service times
- At 70% load delay & loss begin increasing
- What if we add more buffers?

M/M/1 Queue



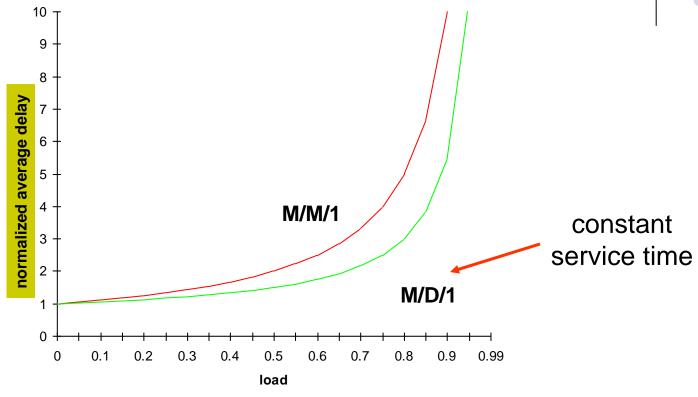


Unlimited number of customers allowed in system

- P_b=0 since customers are never blocked
- Average Time in system E[T] = E[W] + E[X]
- When $\lambda << \mu$, customers arrive infrequently and delays are low
- As λ approaches μ □ □ customers start bunching up and average delays increase
- When $\lambda > \mu \square \square$ customers arrive faster than they can be processed and queue grows without bound (unstable)

Avg. Delay in M/M/1 & M/D/1





$$E[T_M] = \frac{1}{\lambda} \left[\frac{\rho}{1 - \rho} \right] = \left[\frac{1}{1 - \rho} \right] \frac{1}{\mu} = \left[\frac{\rho}{1 - \rho} \right] \frac{1}{\mu} + \frac{1}{\mu} \quad \text{for M/M/1} \quad \text{model.}$$

$$E[T_D] = \left[1 + \frac{\rho}{2(1-\rho)}\right] \frac{1}{\mu} = \left[\frac{\rho}{2(1-\rho)}\right] \frac{1}{\mu} + \frac{1}{\mu} \quad \text{for M/D/1 system.}$$

Effect of Scale



- C = 100,000 bps
- Exp. Dist. with Avg. Packet Length: 10,000 bits
- Service Time: $\chi=0.1$ second
- Arrival Rate: 7.5 pkts/sec
- Load: ρ =0.75
- Mean Delay:

$$E[T] = 0.1/(1-.75) = 0.4 \text{ sec}$$

- C = 10,000,000 bps
- Exp. Dist. with Avg. Packet Length: 10,000 bits
- Service Time: $\chi = 0.001$ second
- Arrival Rate: 750 pkts/sec
- Load: ρ=0.75
- Mean Delay:
- E/T/= 0.001/(1-.75) =0.004 sec

Reduction by factor of 100

Aggregation of flows can improve Delay & Loss Performance

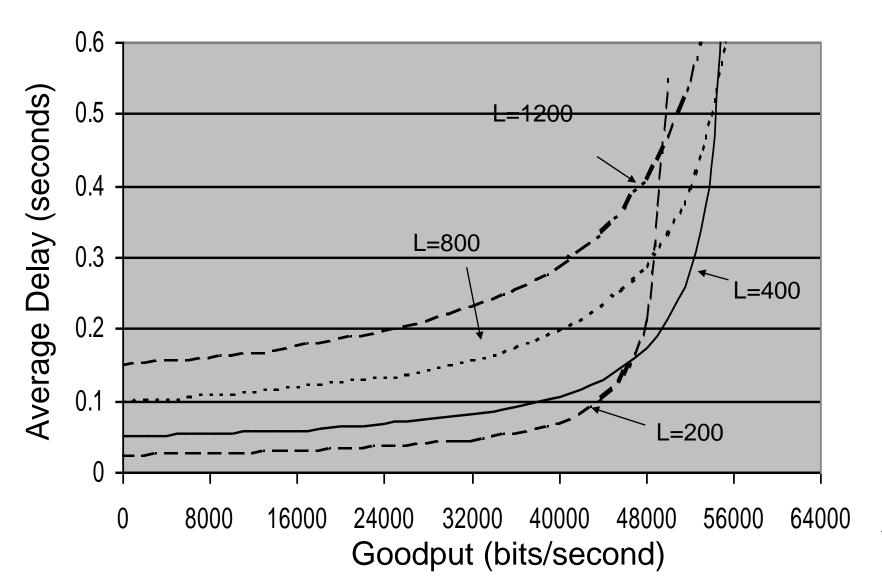
Example: Header overhead & Goodput



- Let R=64 kbps
- Assume IP+TCP header = 40 bytes
- Assume constant packets of total length
 - L= 200, 400, 800, 1200 bytes
- Find avg. delay vs. goodput (information transmitted excluding header overhead)
- Service rate μ = 64000/8L packets/second
- Total load $\rho = \lambda 64000/8L$
- Goodput = λ packets/sec x 8(L-40) bits/packet
- Max Goodput = (1-40/L)64000 bps

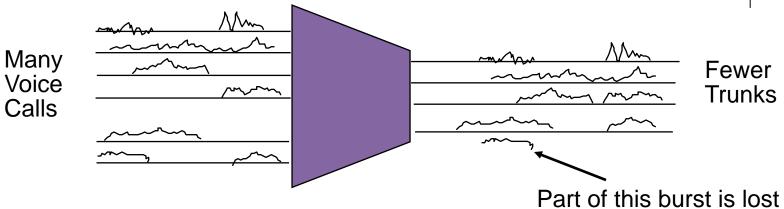
Header overhead limits maximum goodput





Burst Multiplexing / Speech Interpolation





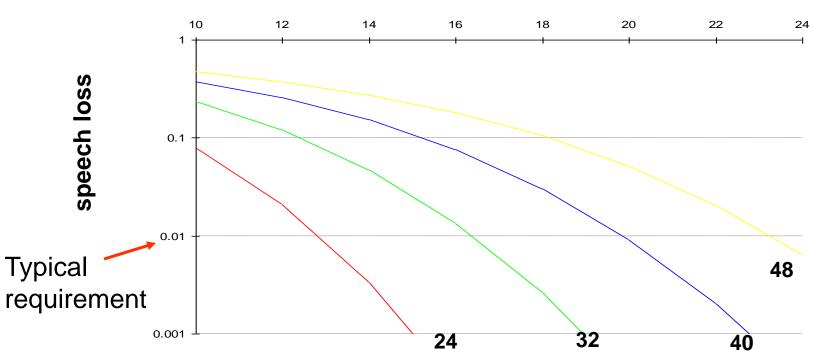
- Voice active < 40% time
- No buffering, on-the-fly switch bursts to available trunks
- Can handle 2 to 3 times as many calls
- Tradeoff: Trunk Utilization vs. Speech Loss
 - Fractional Speech Loss: fraction of active speech lost
- Demand Characteristics
 - Talkspurt and Silence Duration Statistics
 - Proportion of time speaker active/idle

Speech Loss vs. Trunks



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connections

speech loss =
$$\frac{\sum_{k=m+1}^{n} (k-m) \binom{n}{k} p^{k} (1-p)^{n-k}}{np} \text{ where } \binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}.$$

Effect of Scale



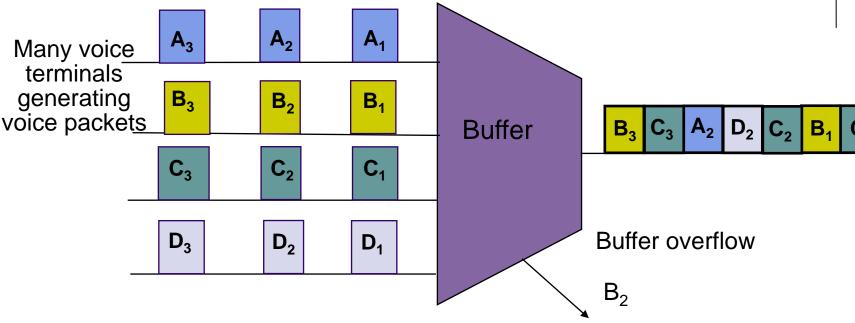
- Larger flows lead to better performance
- Multiplexing Gain = # speakers / # trunks

Trunks required for 1% speech loss

Speakers	Trunks	Multiplexing Gain	Utilization	
24	13	1.85	0.74	
32	16	2.00	0.80	
40	20	2.00	0.80	
48	23	2.09	0.83	

Packet Speech Multiplexing

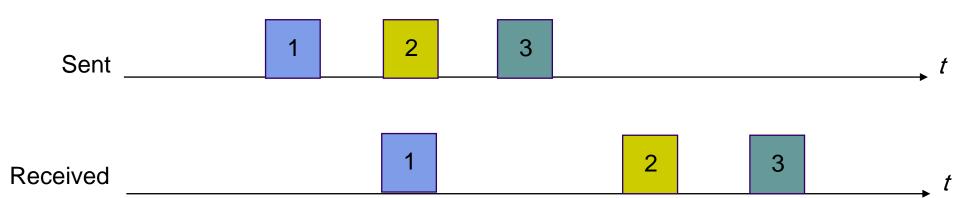




- Digital speech carried by fixed-length packets
- No packets when speaker silent
- Synchronous packets when speaker active
- Buffer packets & transmit over shared high-speed line
- Tradeoffs: Utilization vs. Delay/Jitter & Loss

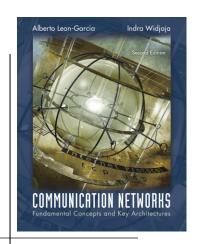
Packet Switching of Voice





- Packetization delay: time for speech samples to fill a packet
- Jitter: variable inter-packet arrivals at destination
- Playback strategies required to compensate for jitter/loss
 - Flexible delay inserted to produce fixed end-to-end delay
 - Need buffer overflow/underflow countermeasures
 - Need clock recovery algorithm

Chapter 5 Peer-to-Peer Protocols and Data Link Layer



ARQ Efficiency Calculations



Stop & Wait Performance



1 successful transmission i – 1 unsuccessful transmissions

$$E[t_{total}] = t_{0} + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (i - 1)t_{out} P[n_{t} = i]$$

$$= t_{0} + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (i - 1)t_{out} (1 - P_{f})^{i-1} P_{f}$$

$$= t_{0} + \frac{t_{out} P_{f}}{1 - P_{f}} = t_{0} \frac{1}{1 - P_{f}}.$$

Efficiency:

$$\eta_{SW} = \frac{\frac{n_f - n_o}{E[t_{total}]}}{R} = (1 - P_f) \frac{1 - \frac{n_o}{n_f}}{1 + \frac{n_a}{n_f} + \frac{2(t_{prop} + t_{proc})R}{n_f}} = (1 - P_f) \eta_0.$$

Go-Back-N Performance



1 successful transmission
$$i-1$$
 unsuccessful transmissions

$$\begin{split} E[t_{total}] &= t_f + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (i-1)W_s t_f P[n_t = i] \\ &= t_f + W_s t_f \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (i-1)(1-P_f)^{i-1} P_f \\ &= t_f + \frac{W_s t_f P_f}{1-P_f} = t_f \frac{1+(W_s-1)P_f}{1-P_f}. \end{split}$$

Efficiency:

$$\eta_{GBN} = \frac{\frac{n_f - n_o}{E[t_{total}]}}{R} = (1 - P_f) \frac{1 - \frac{n_o}{n_f}}{1 + (W_s - 1)P_f}.$$