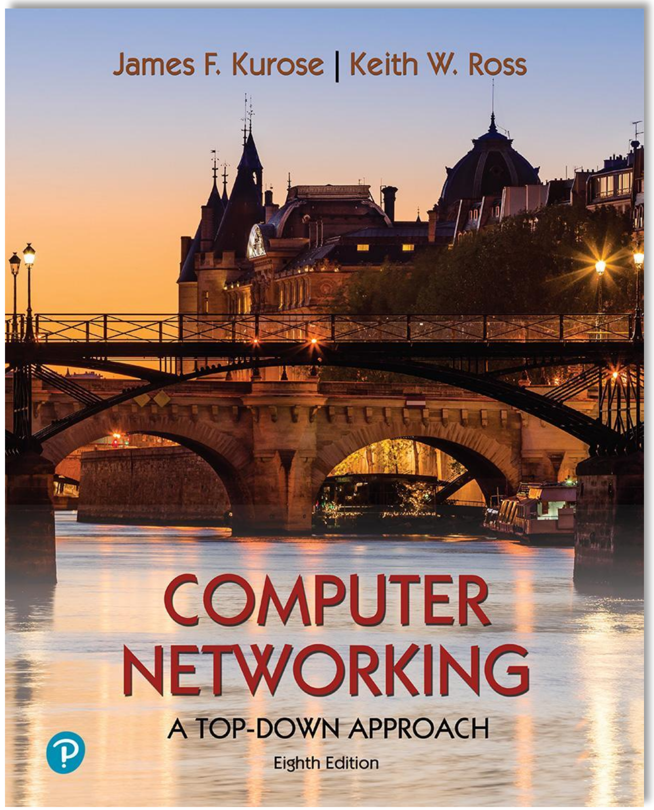
The Link Layer and LANs



Based on Computer Networking: A Top-Down Approach
8th edition
Jim Kurose, Keith Ross
Pearson, 2020

Link layer and LANs: our goals

- understand principles behind link layer services:
  - error detection, correction
  - sharing a broadcast channel: multiple access
  - link layer addressing
  - local area networks: Ethernet, VLANs

Link layer, LANs: roadmap

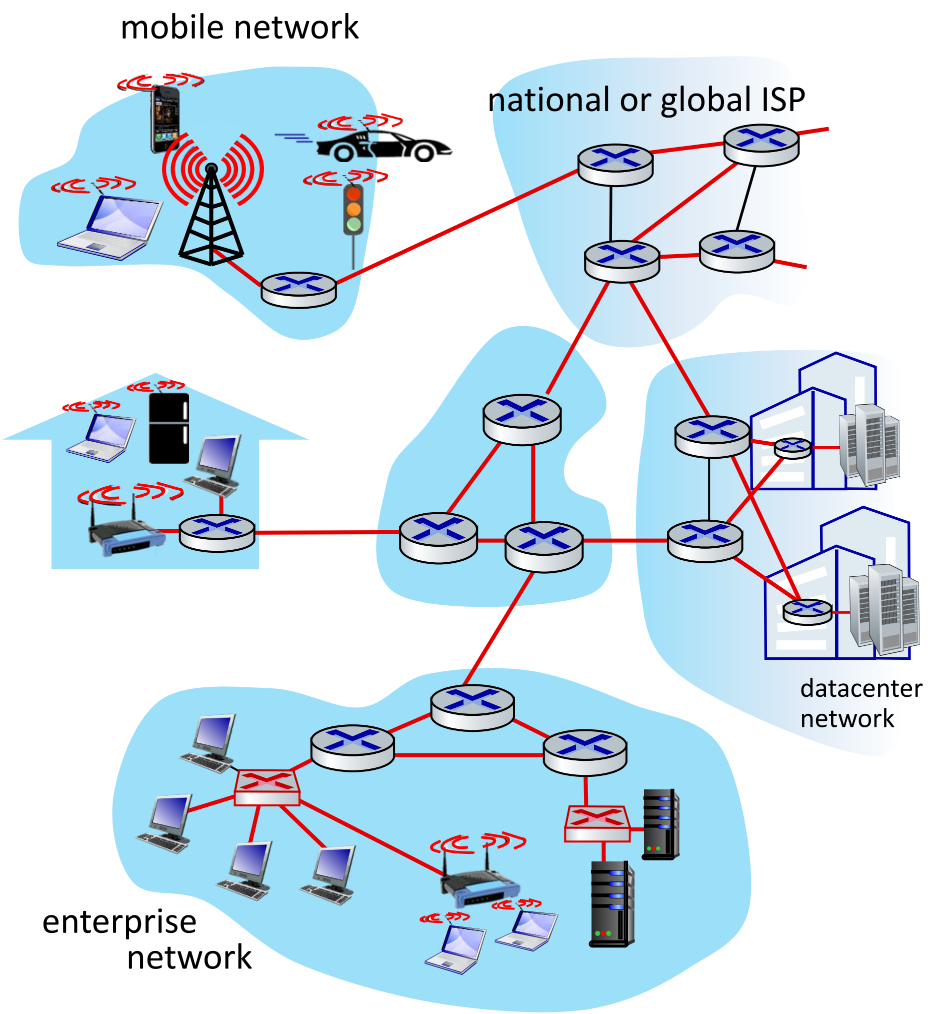
- introduction
- error detection, correction
- multiple access protocols
- LANs
  - addressing, ARP
  - Ethernet
  - switches

Link layer: introduction

terminology:

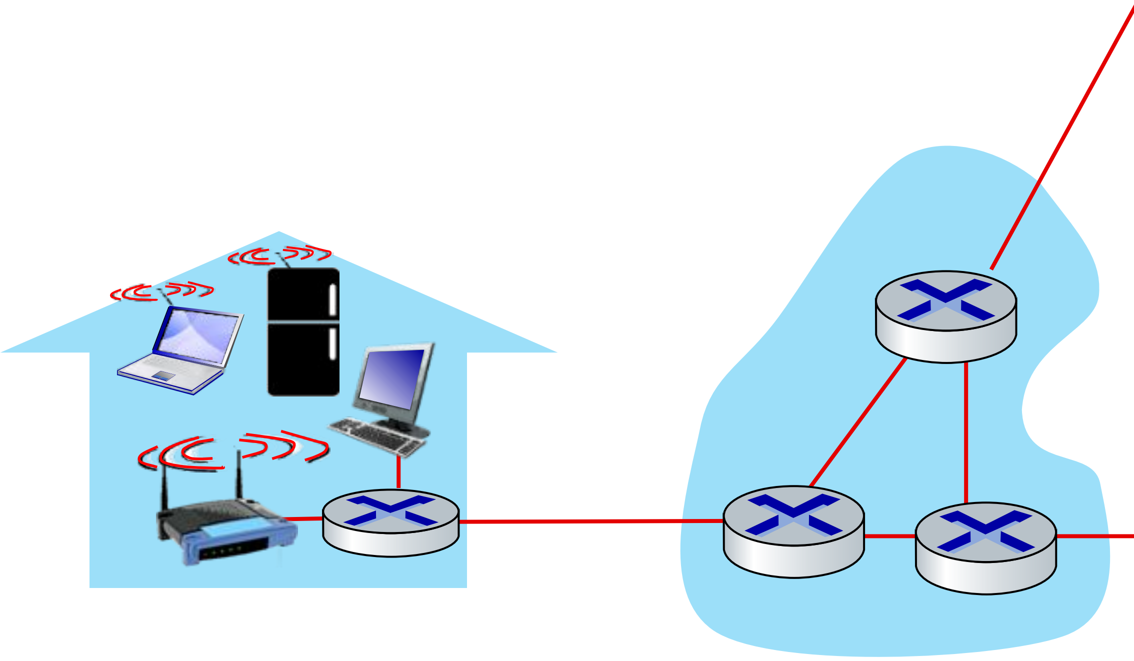
- hosts, routers: nodes
- communication channels that connect adjacent nodes along communication path: links
  - wired , wireless
  - LANs
- layer-2 packet: *frame*, encapsulates datagram

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

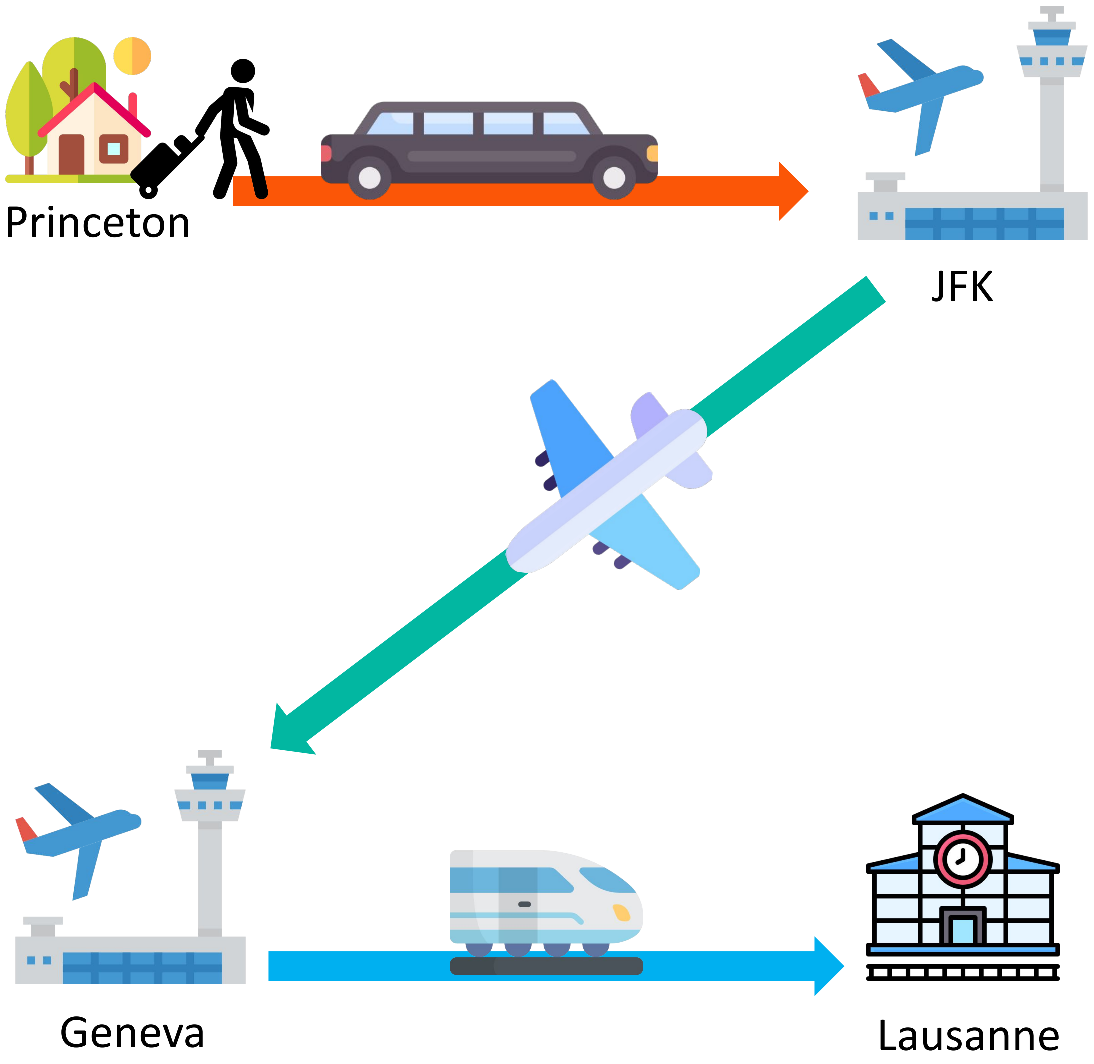


Link layer: context

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



Transportation analogy

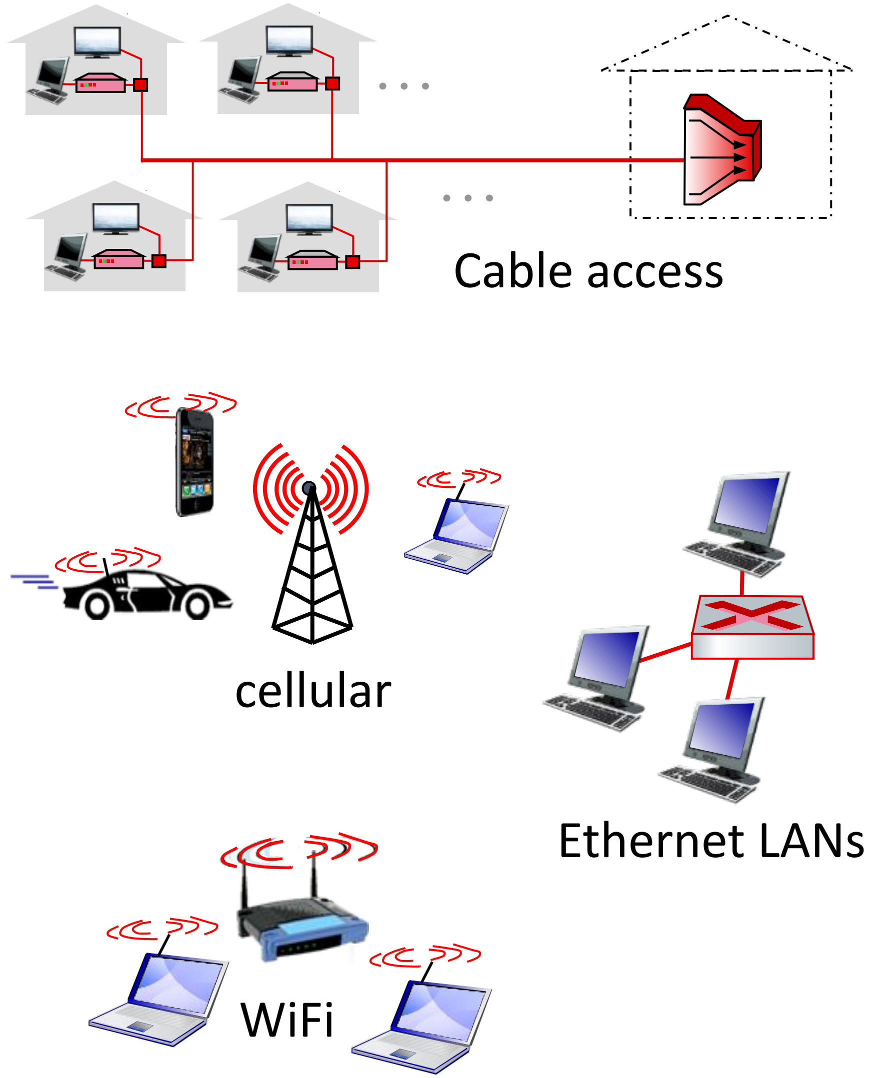


transportation analogy:

- trip from Princeton to Lausanne
  - limo: Princeton to JFK
  - plane: JFK to Geneva
  - train: Geneva to Lausanne
- tourist = datagram
- transport segment = communication link
- transportation mode = link-layer protocol
- travel agent = routing algorithm

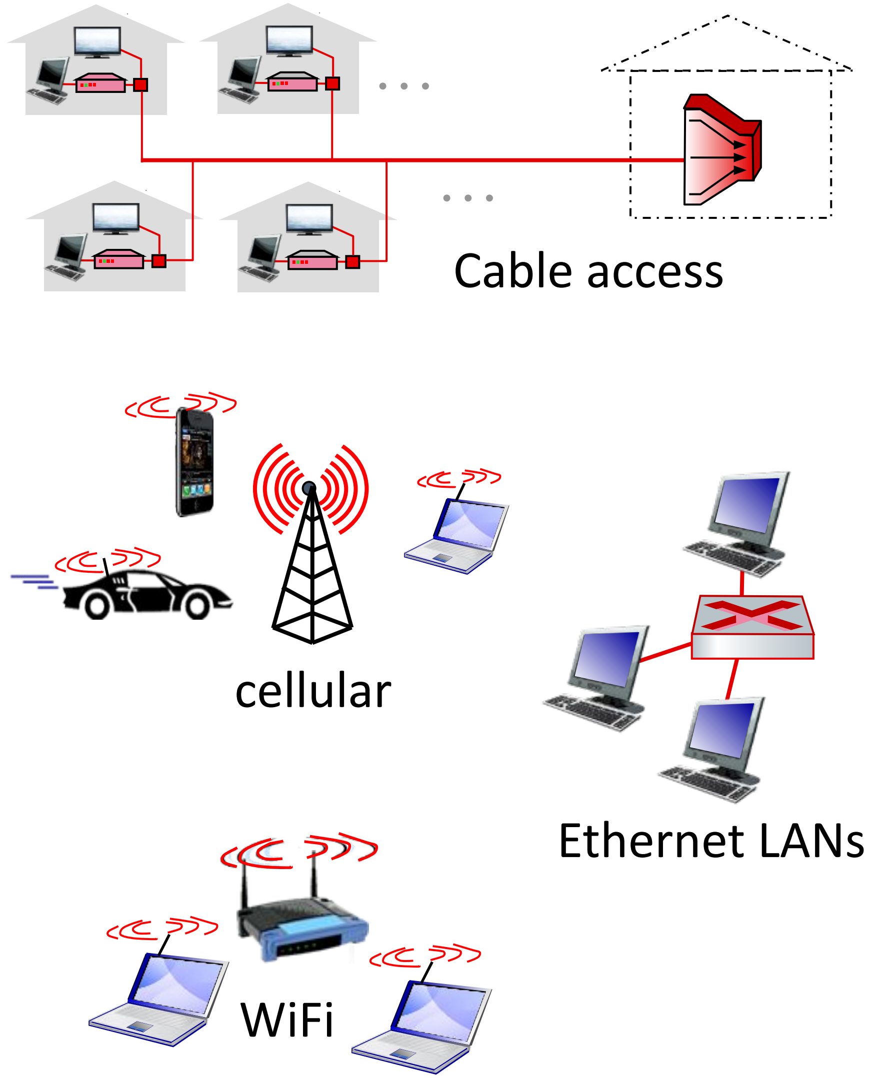
Link layer: services

- framing, link access:
  - encapsulate datagram into frame, adding header, trailer
  - channel access if shared medium
  - “MAC” addresses in frame headers identify source, destination (different from IP address!)
- reliable delivery between adjacent nodes
  - we already know how to do this!
  - seldom used on low bit-error links
  - wireless links: high error rates
    - ***Q:*** **why both link-level and end-end reliability?**



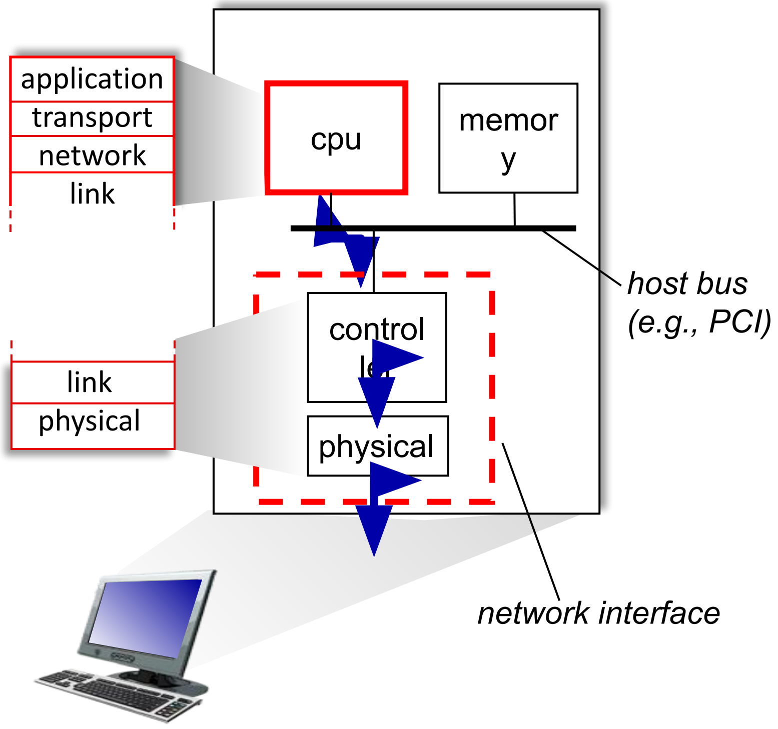
Link layer: services (more)

- flow control:
  - pacing between adjacent sending and receiving nodes
- error detection:
  - errors caused by signal attenuation, noise.
  - receiver detects errors, signals retransmission, or drops frame
- error correction:
  - receiver identifies *and corrects* bit error(s) without retransmission
- half-duplex and full-duplex:
  - with half duplex, nodes at both ends of link can transmit, but not at same time

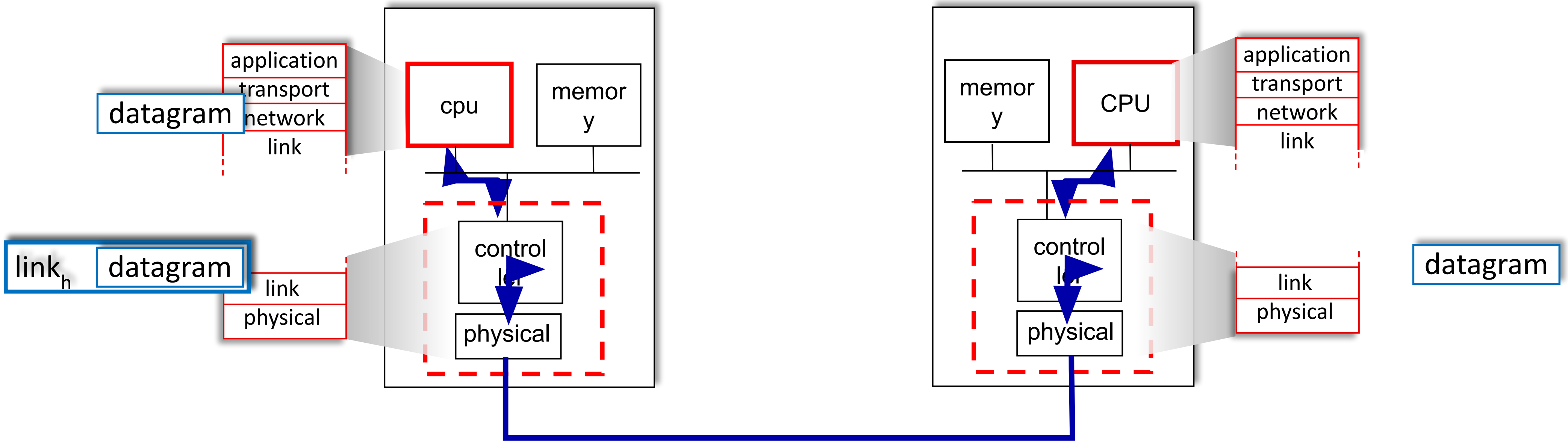


Host link-layer implementation

- in each-and-every host
- link layer implemented on-chip or in network interface card (NIC)
  - implements link, physical layer
- attaches into host's system buses
- combination of hardware, software, firmware



Interfaces communicating



sending side:

- encapsulates datagram in frame
- adds error checking bits, reliable data transfer, flow control, etc.

receiving side:

- looks for errors, reliable data transfer, flow control, etc.
- extracts datagram, passes to upper layer at receiving side

Link layer, LANs: roadmap

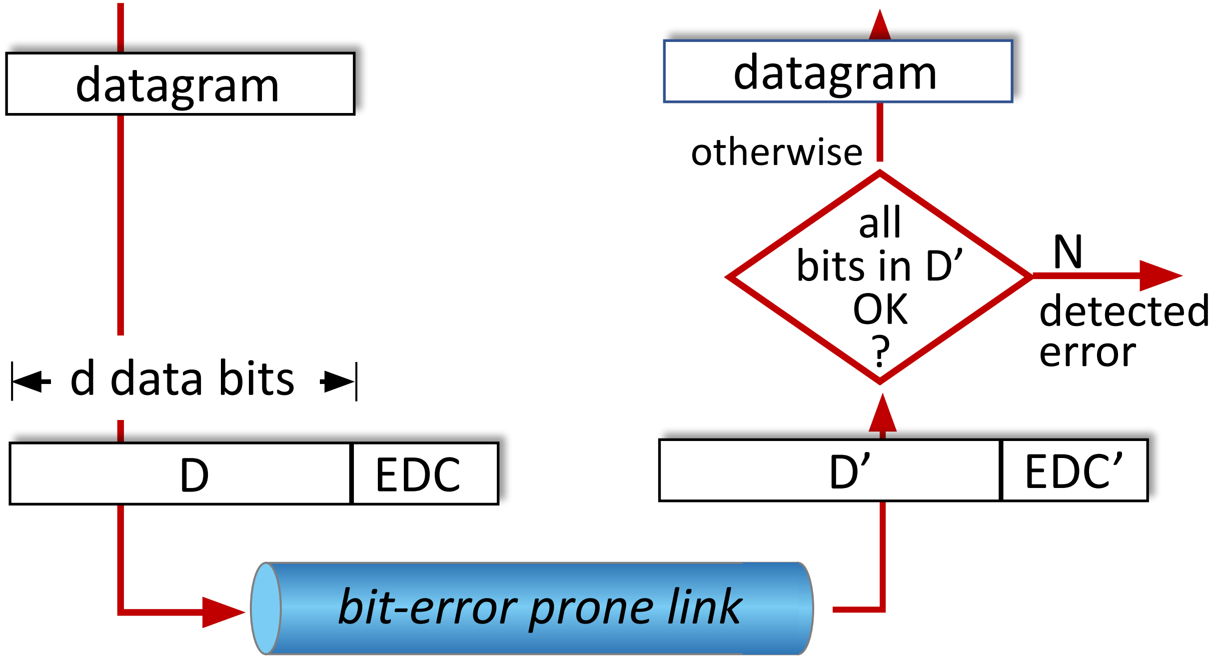
- introduction
- error detection, correction
- multiple access protocols
- LANs
  - addressing, ARP
  - Ethernet
  - switches
  - VLANs
- link virtualization: MPLS
- data center networking

- a day in the life of a web request

Error detection

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

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



Error detection not 100% reliable!

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

Parity checking

single bit parity:

- detect single bit errors

0111000110101011	1

← *d* data bits → | parity bit

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

At receiver:

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

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

- two-dimensional parity: detect *and correct* single bit errors

row parity →

column parity ↓

$d_{1,1}$	. . .	$d_{1,j}$	$d_{1,j+1}$
$d_{2,1}$	. . .	$d_{2,j}$	$d_{2,j+1}$
. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .
$d_{i,1}$	. . .	$d_{i,j}$	$d_{i,j+1}$
$d_{i+1,1}$	. . .	$d_{i+1,j}$	$d_{i+1,j+1}$

no errors:

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

detected and correctable single-bit error:

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

parity error →

parity error ↓

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

Internet checksum (review, see section 3.3)

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

sender:

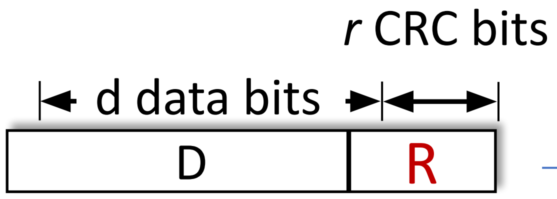
- treat contents of UDP segment (including UDP header fields and IP addresses) as sequence of 16-bit integers
- checksum: addition (one's complement sum) of segment content
- checksum value put into UDP checksum field

receiver:

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

Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC)

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



bits to send

<D,R> = $D * 2^r$ XOR R — formula for these bits

sender: compute *r* CRC bits, R, such that <D,R> *exactly* divisible by G (mod 2)

- receiver knows G, divides <D,R> by G. If non-zero remainder: error detected!
- can detect all burst errors less than r+1 bits
- widely used in practice (Ethernet, 802.11 WiFi)

Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC): example

Sender wants to compute R such that:

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

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

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

... which says:

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

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

algorithm for computing R

```
   G
                  1 0 1 0 1 1
1 0 0 1 ) 1 0 1 1 1 0 0 0 0
          1 0 0 1
              1 0 1
              0 0 0
              1 0 1 0
              1 0 0 1
                  1 1 0
                  0 0 0
                  1 1 0 0
                  1 0 0 1
                    1 0 1 0
                    1 0 0 1
                      0 1 1
                        R
```

$D * 2^r$ (here, r=3)

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

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- data center networking

- a day in the life of a web request

Multiple access links, protocols

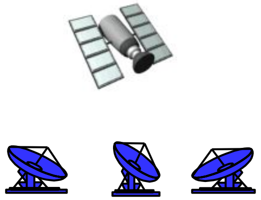
two types of “links”:

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

shared wire (e.g., cabled Ethernet)

shared radio: 4G/5G

shared radio: WiFi



shared radio: satellite

humans at a cocktail party (shared air, acoustical)

Multiple access protocols

- single shared broadcast channel
- two or more simultaneous transmissions by nodes: interference
  - *collision* if node receives two or more signals at the same time

multiple access protocol

- distributed algorithm that determines how nodes share channel, i.e., determine when node can transmit
- communication about channel sharing must use channel itself!
  - no out-of-band channel for coordination

An ideal multiple access protocol

given: multiple access channel (MAC) of rate *R* bps

desiderata:

1. when one node wants to transmit, it can send at rate *R*.
2. when *M* nodes want to transmit, each can send at average rate *R/M*
3. fully decentralized:
   - no special node to coordinate transmissions
   - no synchronization of clocks, slots
4. simple

MAC protocols: taxonomy

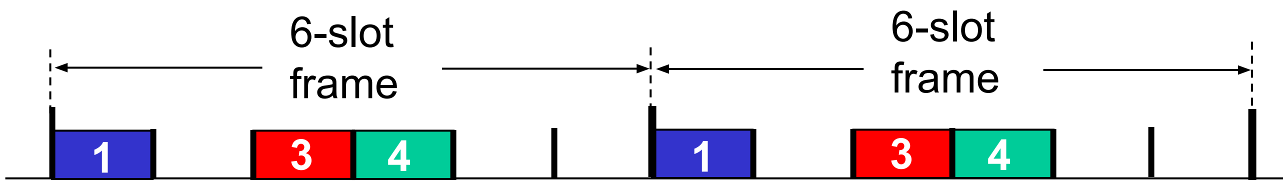
three broad classes:

- channel partitioning
  - divide channel into smaller “pieces” (time slots, frequency, code)
  - allocate piece to node for exclusive use
- random access
  - channel not divided, allow collisions
  - “recover” from collisions
- “taking turns”
  - nodes take turns, but nodes with more to send can take longer turns

Channel partitioning MAC protocols: TDMA

TDMA: time division multiple access

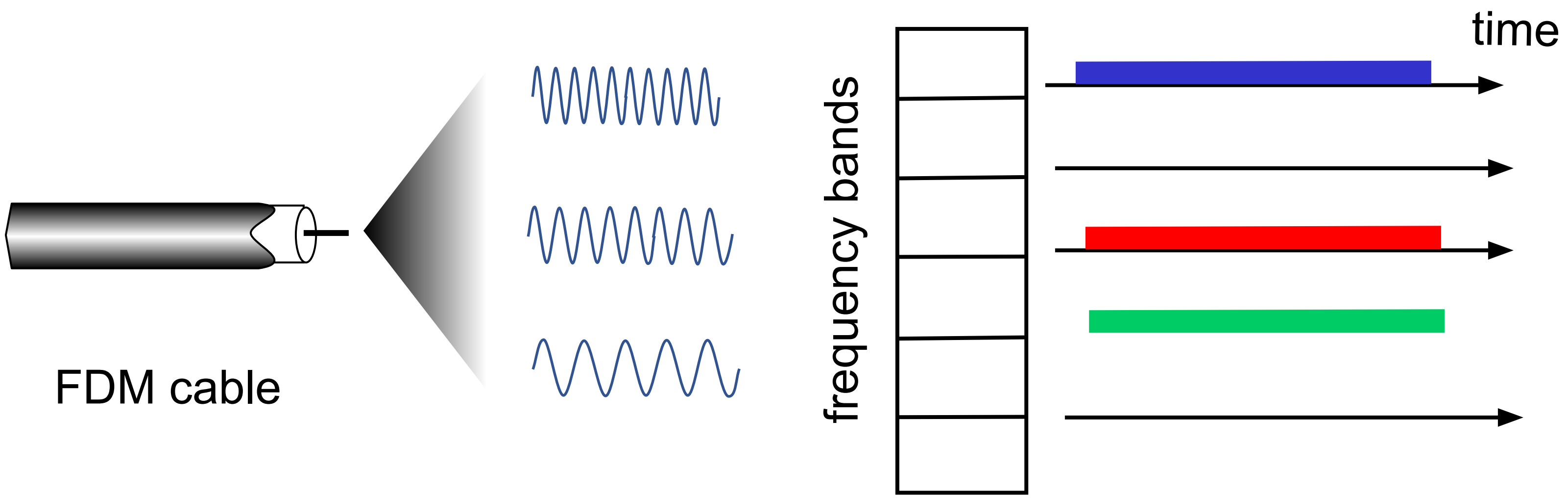
- access to channel in "rounds"
- each station gets fixed length slot (length = packet transmission time) in each round
- unused slots go idle
- example: 6-station LAN, 1,3,4 have packets to send, slots 2,5,6 idle



Channel partitioning MAC protocols: FDMA

FDMA: frequency division multiple access

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

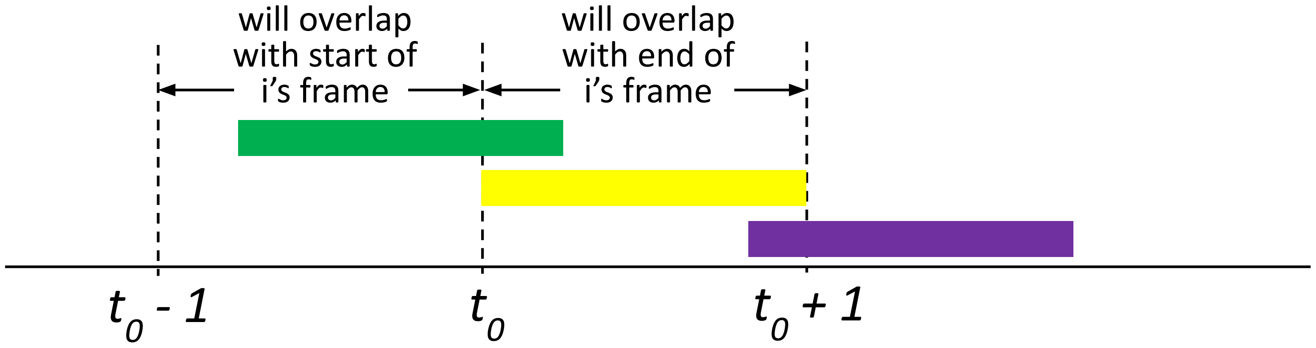


Random access protocols

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

Pure ALOHA

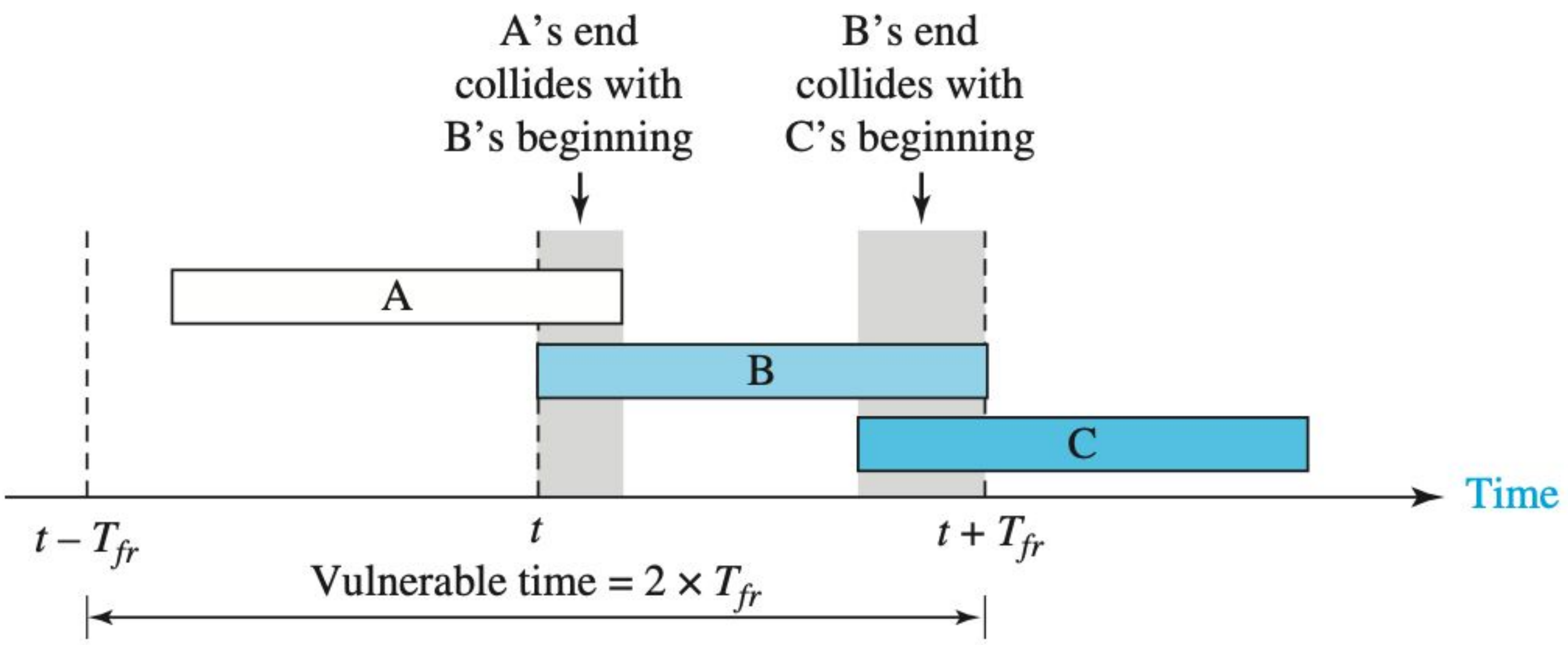
- unslotted Aloha: simpler, no synchronization
  - when frame first arrives: transmit immediately
- collision probability increases with no synchronization:
  - frame sent at t_0 collides with other frames sent in $[t_0-1, t_0+1]$



- pure Aloha efficiency: 18% !

Pure ALOHA

Figure 12.4 *Vulnerable time for pure ALOHA protocol*



Pure Aloha

Throughput

Let us call G the average number of frames the system generates during one frame transmission time. Then, it can be proven that the average number of successfully transmitted frames for pure ALOHA is $S = G \times e^{-2G}$.

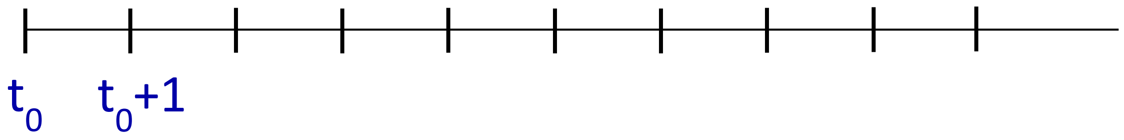
Q. A pure ALOHA network transmits 200-bit frames on a shared channel of 200 kbps. What is the throughput if the system (all stations together) produces

a. 1000 frames per second?

b. 500 frames per second?

c. 250 frames per second?

Slotted ALOHA



assumptions:

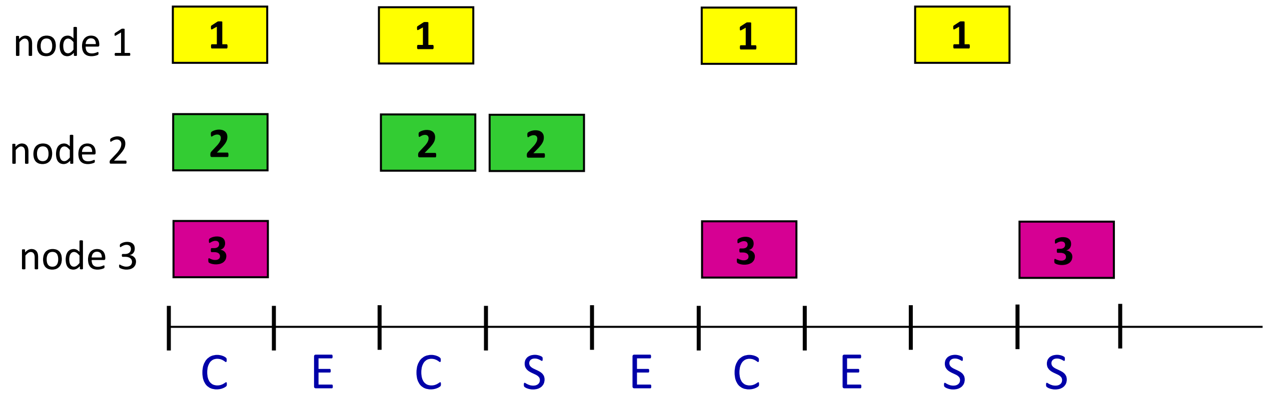
- all frames same size
- time divided into equal size slots (time to transmit 1 frame)
- nodes start to transmit only slot beginning
- nodes are synchronized
- if 2 or more nodes transmit in slot, all nodes detect collision

operation:

- when node obtains fresh frame, transmits in next slot
  - *if no collision:* node can send new frame in next slot
  - *if collision:* node retransmits frame in each subsequent slot with probability *p* until success

randomization – *why*?

Slotted ALOHA



C: collision
S: success
E: empty

Pros:

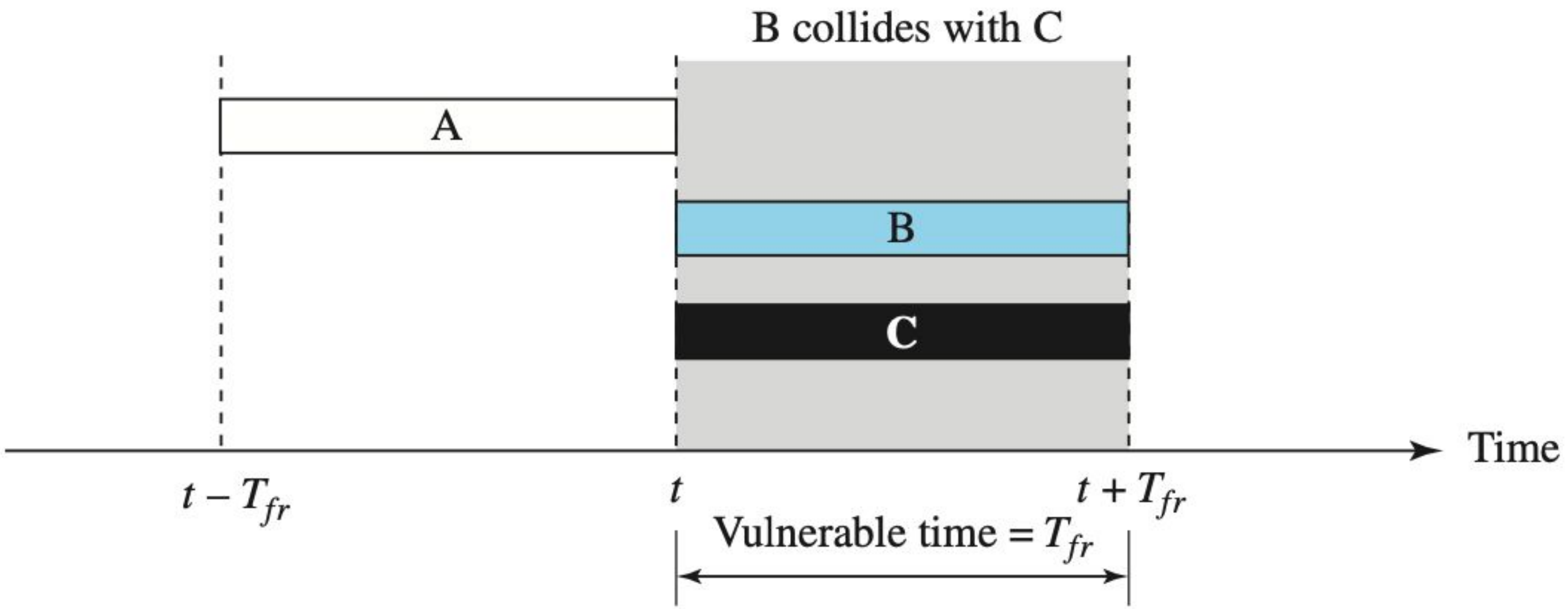
- single active node can continuously transmit at full rate of channel
- highly decentralized: only slots in nodes need to be in sync
- simple

Cons:

- collisions, wasting slots
- idle slots
- nodes may be able to detect collision in less than time to transmit packet
- clock synchronization

Slotted ALOHA

Figure 12.6 *Vulnerable time for slotted ALOHA protocol*



Slotted Aloha: efficiency

Throughput

Let us call G the average number of frames the system generates during one frame transmission time. Then, it can be proven that the average number of successfully transmitted frames for slotted ALOHA is $S = G \times e^{-G}$.

Q. A slotted ALOHA network transmits 200-bit frames on a shared channel of 200 kbps. What is the throughput if the system (all stations together) produces

a. 1000 frames per second?

b. 500 frames per second?

c. 250 frames per second?

CSMA (carrier sense multiple access)

simple CSMA (CSMA/CA): listen before transmit:

- if channel sensed idle: transmit entire frame
- if channel sensed busy: defer transmission

- human analogy: <u>don't interrupt others!</u>

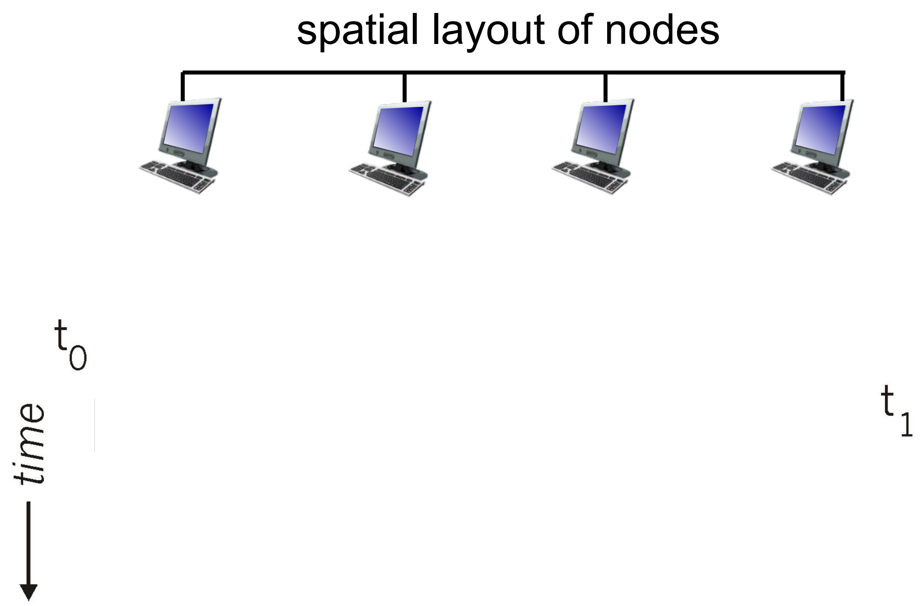
CSMA/CD: CSMA with *collision detection*

- collisions *detected* within short time
- colliding transmissions aborted, reducing channel wastage
- collision detection easy in wired, difficult with wireless

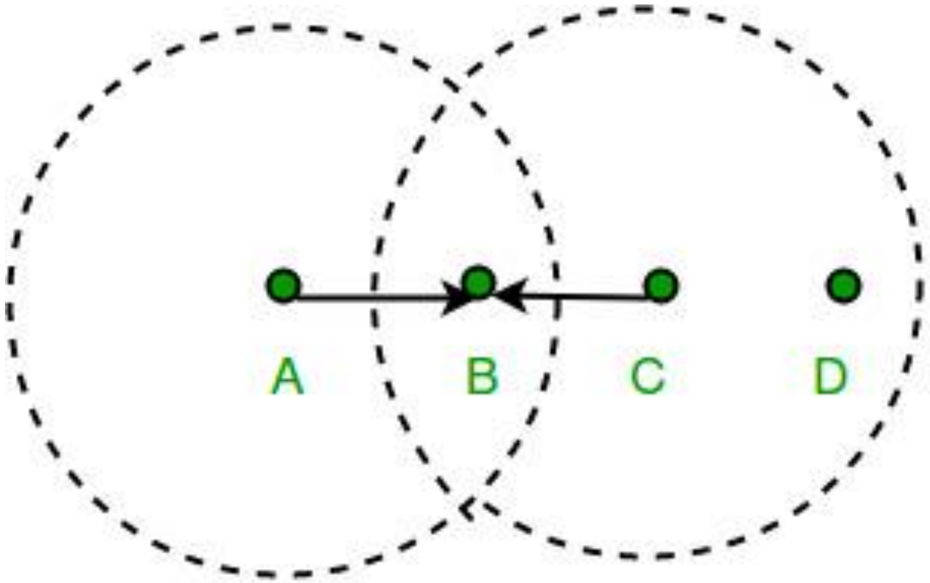
- human analogy: <u>the polite conversationalist</u>

CSMA/CA: collisions

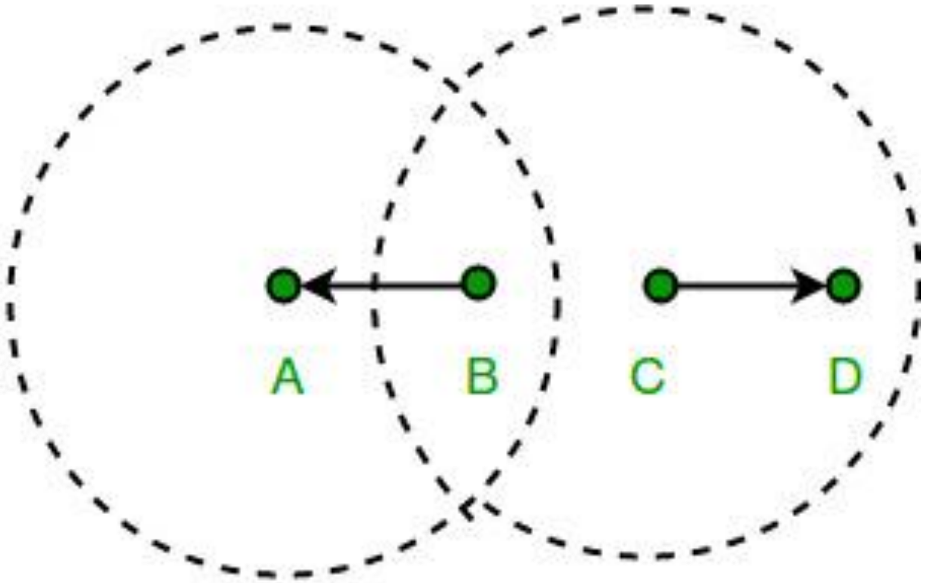
- collisions can *still* occur with carrier sensing:
  - propagation delay means two nodes may not hear each other's just-started transmission
- collision: entire packet transmission time wasted
  - distance & propagation delay play role in in determining collision probability



A problem in Wireless LAN

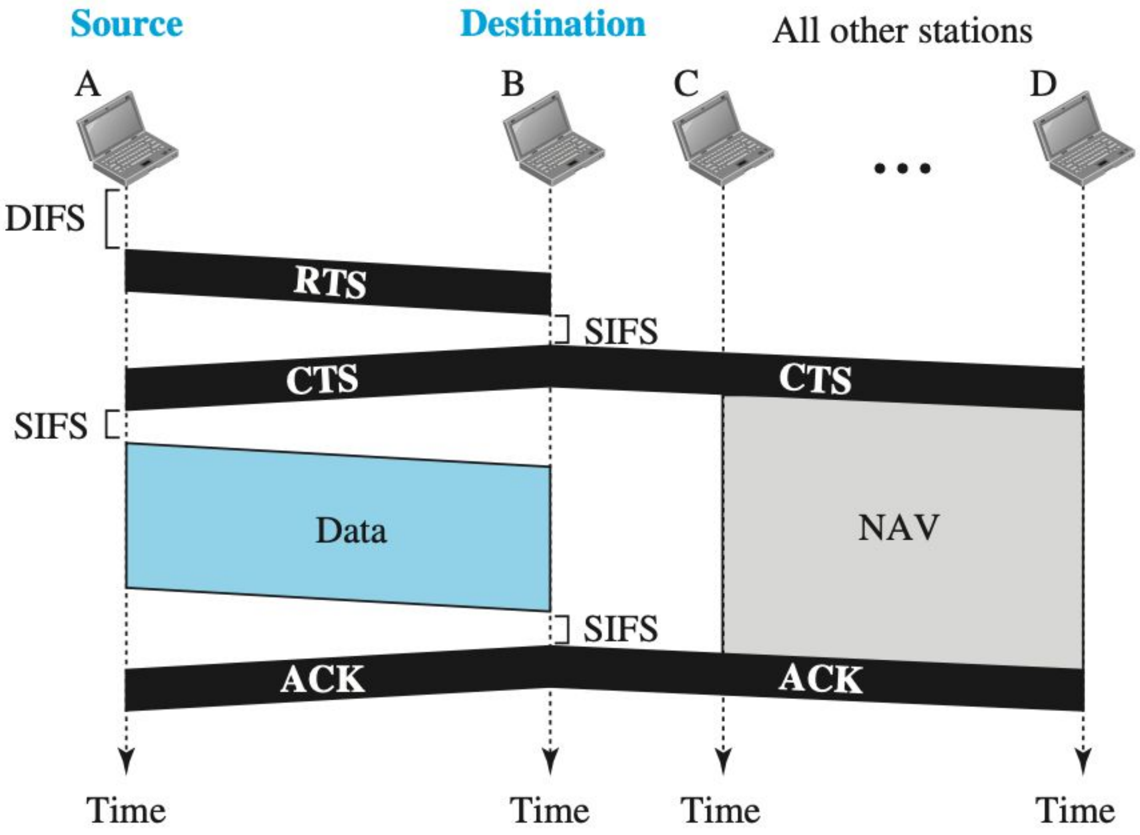


Hidden Node Problem



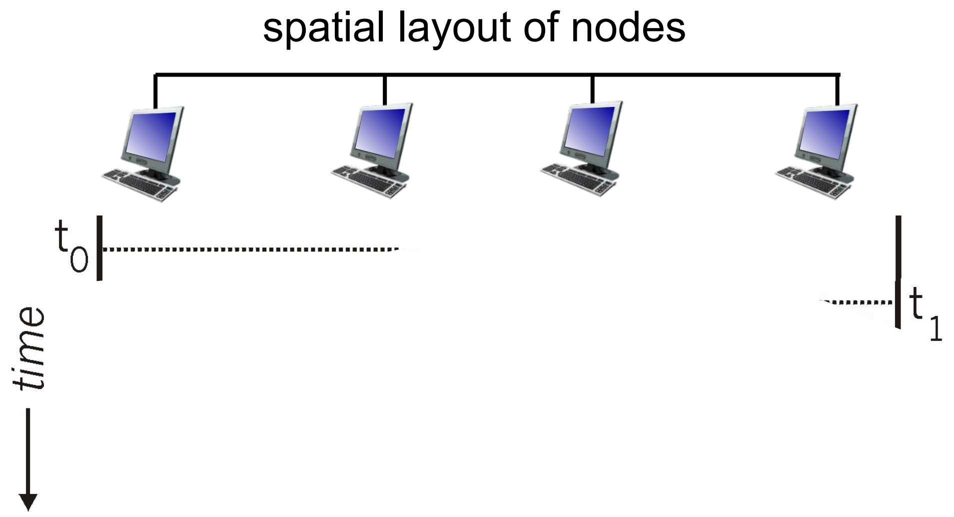
Exposed Node Problem

Solution to hidden & exposed node problem



CSMA/CD:

- CSMA/CD reduces the amount of time wasted in collisions
  - transmission aborted on collision detection



Ethernet CSMA/CD algorithm

1. Ethernet receives datagram from network layer, creates frame
2. If Ethernet senses channel:

   if idle: start frame transmission.

   if busy: wait until channel idle, then transmit
3. If entire frame transmitted without collision - done!
4. If another transmission detected while sending: abort, send jam signal
5. After aborting, enter *binary (exponential) backoff:*
   - after *m*th collision, chooses *K* at random from $\{0,1,2, \ldots, 2^m-1\}$. Ethernet waits $K \cdot 512$ bit times, returns to Step 2
   - more collisions: longer backoff interval

CSMA/CD efficiency

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

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

- efficiency goes to 1
  - as t_{prop} goes to 0
  - as t_{trans} goes to infinity
- better performance than ALOHA: and simple, cheap, decentralized!

"Taking turns" MAC protocols

channel partitioning MAC protocols:

- share channel *efficiently* and *fairly* at high load
- inefficient at low load: delay in channel access, 1/N bandwidth allocated even if only 1 active node!

random access MAC protocols

- efficient at low load: single node can fully utilize channel
- high load: collision overhead

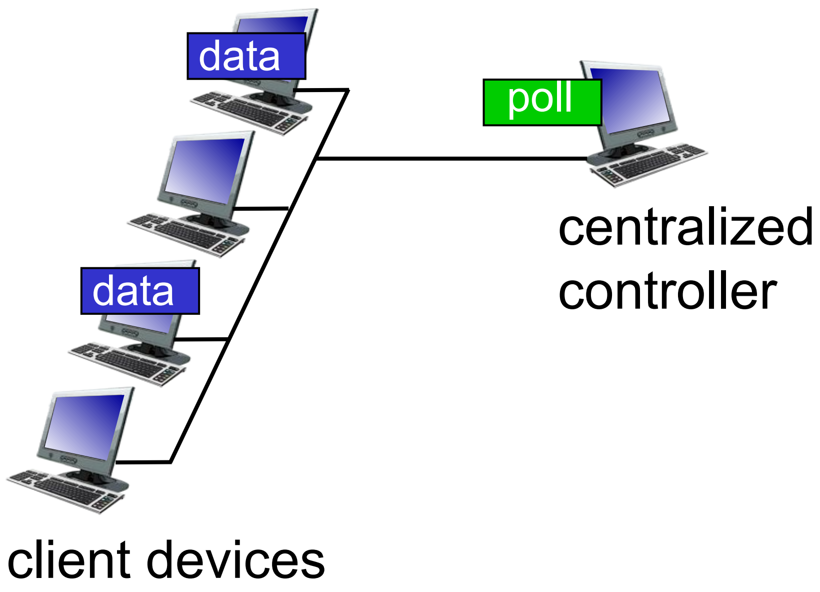
"taking turns" protocols

- look for best of both worlds!

“Taking turns” MAC protocols

polling:

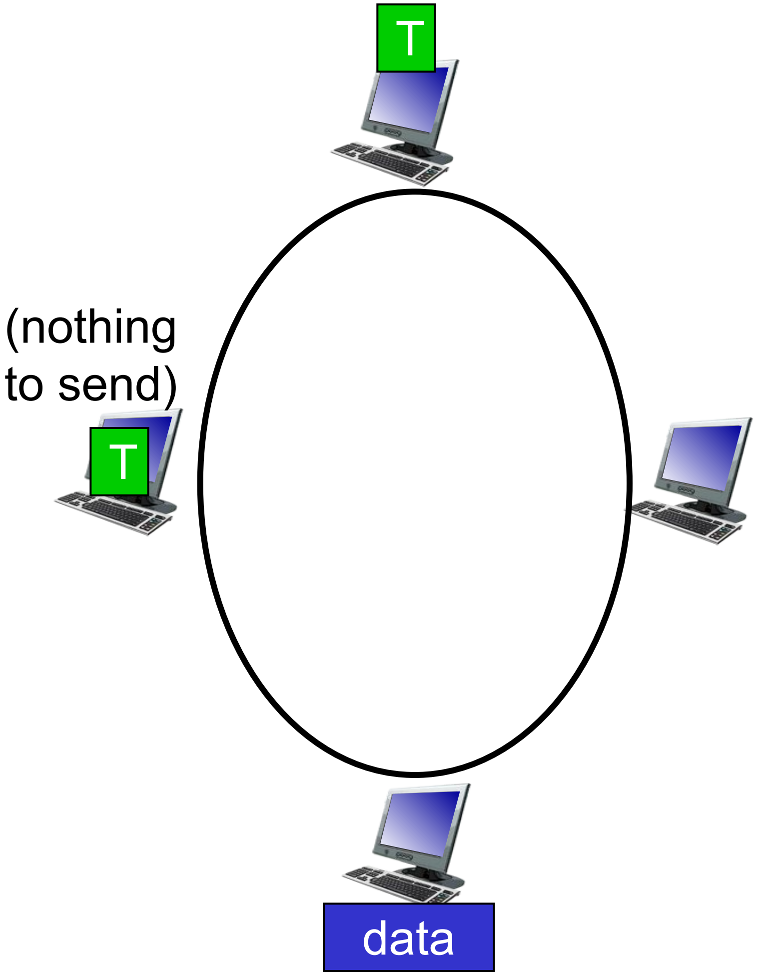
- centralized controller “invites” other nodes to transmit in turn
- typically used with “dumb” devices
- concerns:
  - polling overhead
  - latency
  - single point of failure (master)
- Bluetooth uses polling



"Taking turns" MAC protocols

token passing:

- control *token* message explicitly passed from one node to next, sequentially
  - transmit while holding token
- concerns:
  - token overhead
  - latency
  - single point of failure (token)



Summary of MAC protocols

- channel partitioning, by time, frequency or code
  - Time Division, Frequency Division
- random access (dynamic),
  - ALOHA, S-ALOHA, CSMA, CSMA/CD
  - carrier sensing: easy in some technologies (wire), hard in others (wireless)
  - CSMA/CD used in Ethernet
  - CSMA/CA used in 802.11
- taking turns
  - polling from central site, token passing
  - Bluetooth, FDDI, token ring

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MAC addresses

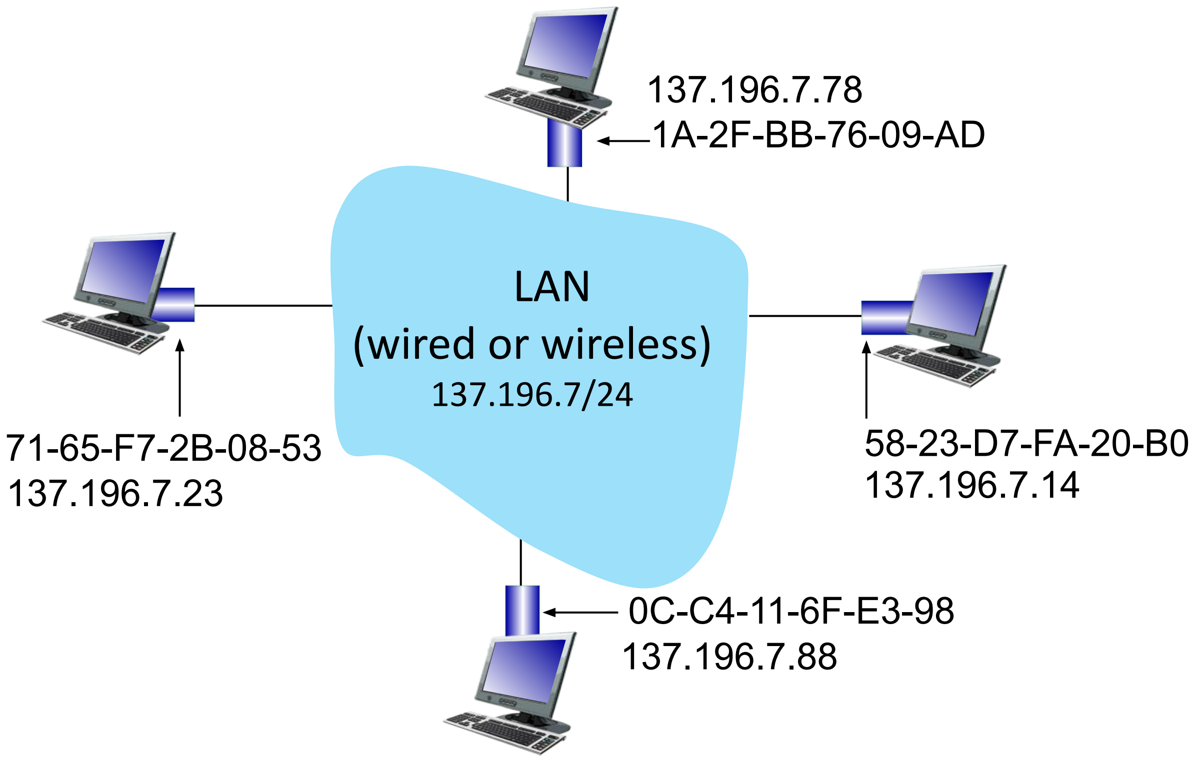
- 32-bit IP address:
  - *network-layer* address for interface
  - used for layer 3 (network layer) forwarding
  - e.g.: 128.119.40.136
- MAC (or LAN or physical or Ethernet) address:
  - function: used "locally" to get frame from one interface to another physically-connected interface (same subnet, in IP-addressing sense)
  - 48-bit MAC address (for most LANs) burned in NIC ROM, also sometimes software settable
  - e.g.: 1A-2F-BB-76-09-AD

hexadecimal (base 16) notation (each "numeral" represents 4 bits)

MAC addresses

each interface on LAN

- has unique 48-bit MAC address

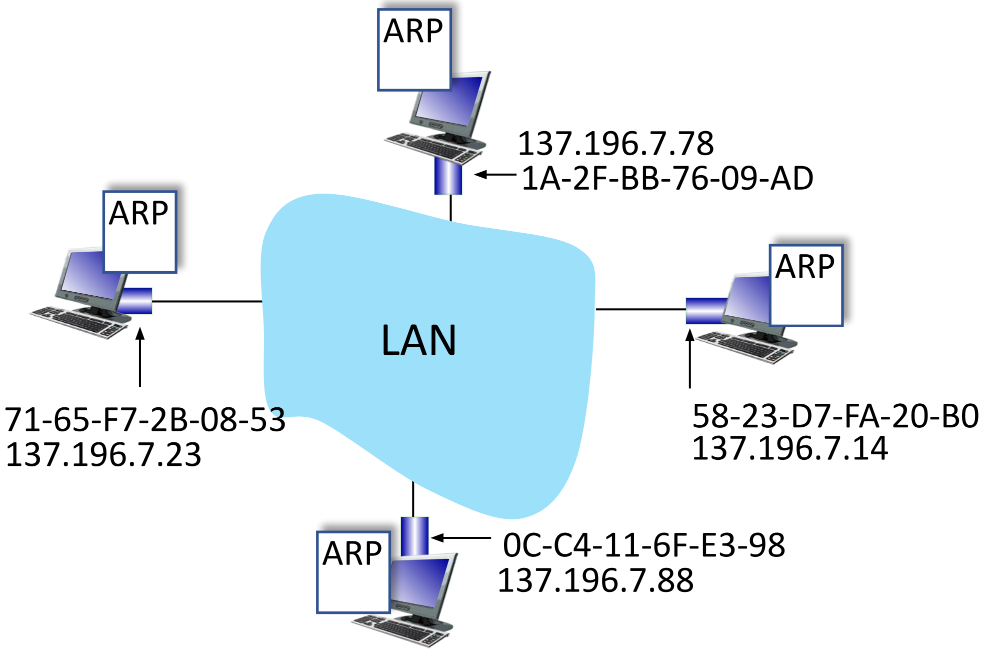


MAC addresses

- MAC address allocation administered by IEEE
- manufacturer buys portion of MAC address space (to assure uniqueness)
- analogy:
  - MAC address: like Adhaar card number
  - IP address: like postal address
- MAC flat address: portability
  - can move interface from one LAN to another
  - recall IP address *not* portable: depends on IP subnet to which node is attached

ARP: address resolution protocol

Question: how to determine interface's MAC address, knowing its IP address?



ARP table: each IP node (host, router) on LAN has table

- IP/MAC address mappings for some LAN nodes:

  < IP address; MAC address; TTL>

- TTL (Time To Live): time after which address mapping will be forgotten (typically 20 min)

ARP protocol in action

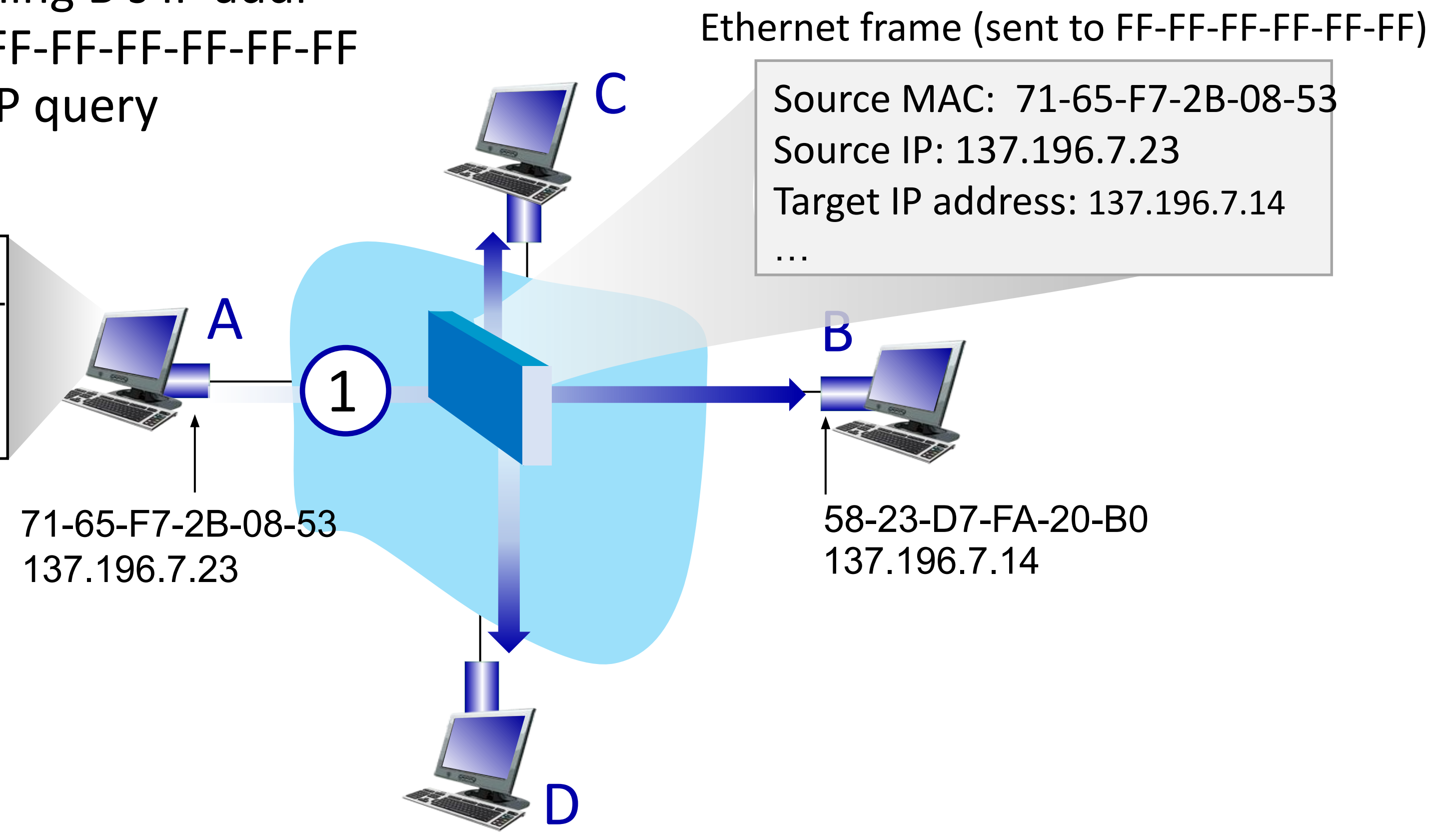
example: A wants to send datagram to B

- B’s MAC address not in A’s ARP table, so A uses ARP to find B’s MAC address

1 A broadcasts ARP query, containing B's IP addr
- destination MAC address = FF-FF-FF-FF-FF-FF
- all nodes on LAN receive ARP query

ARP table in A

IP addr	MAC addr	TTL



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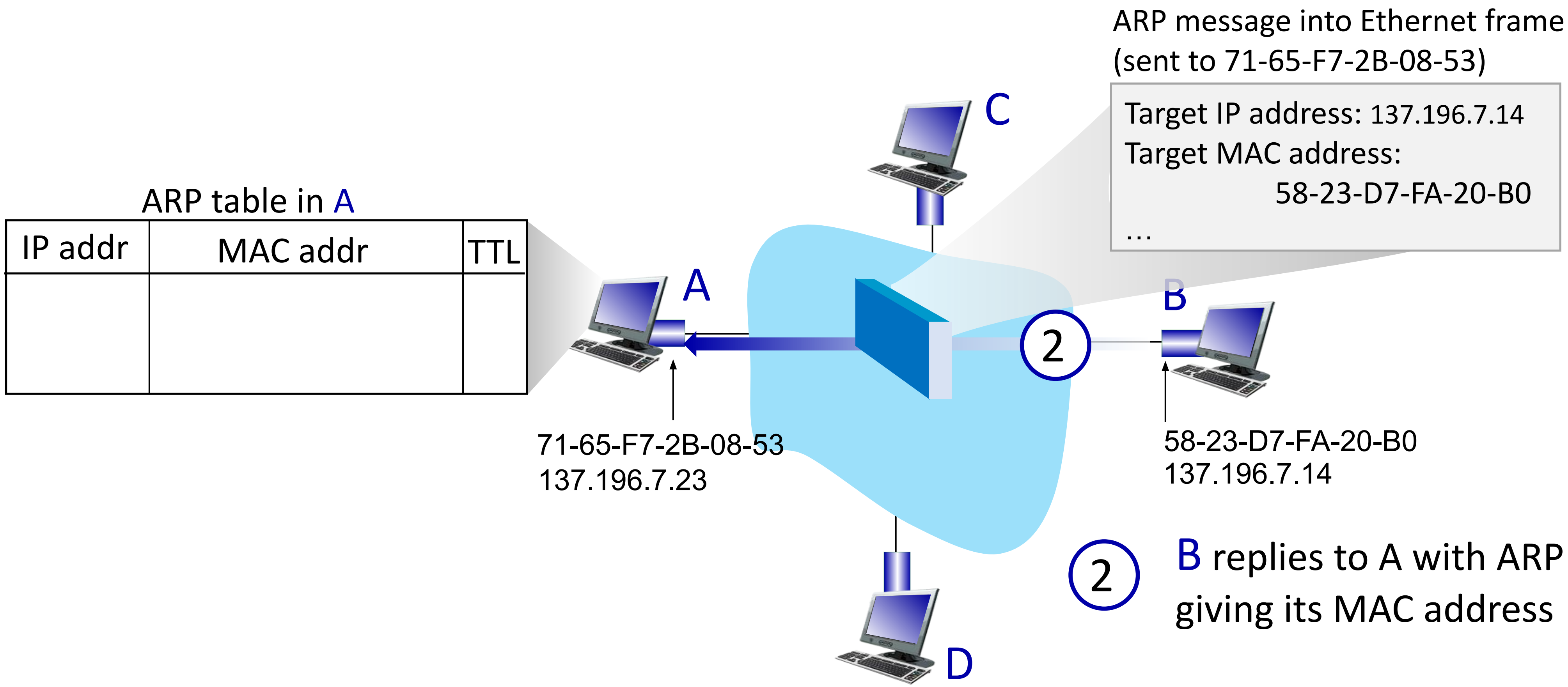


2 B replies to A with ARP response, giving its MAC address

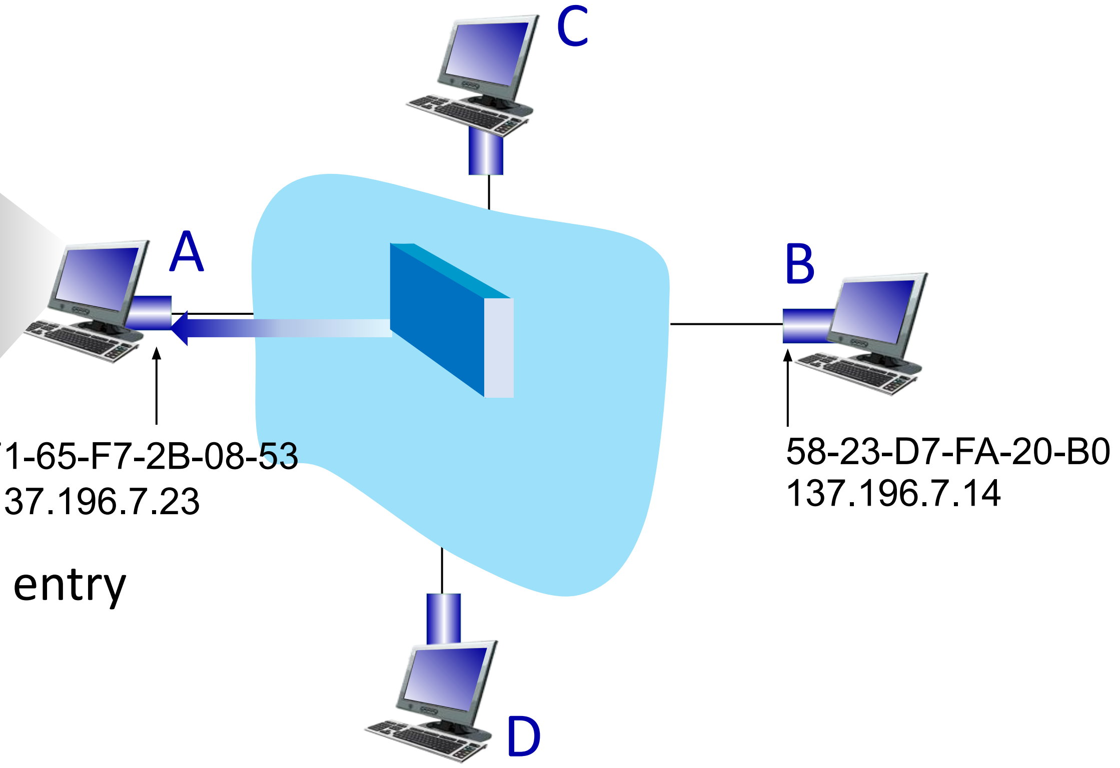
ARP protocol in action

example: A wants to send datagram to B

- B's MAC address not in A's ARP table, so A uses ARP to find B's MAC address

ARP table in A

IP addr	MAC addr	TTL
137.196.7.14	58-23-D7-FA-20-B0	500

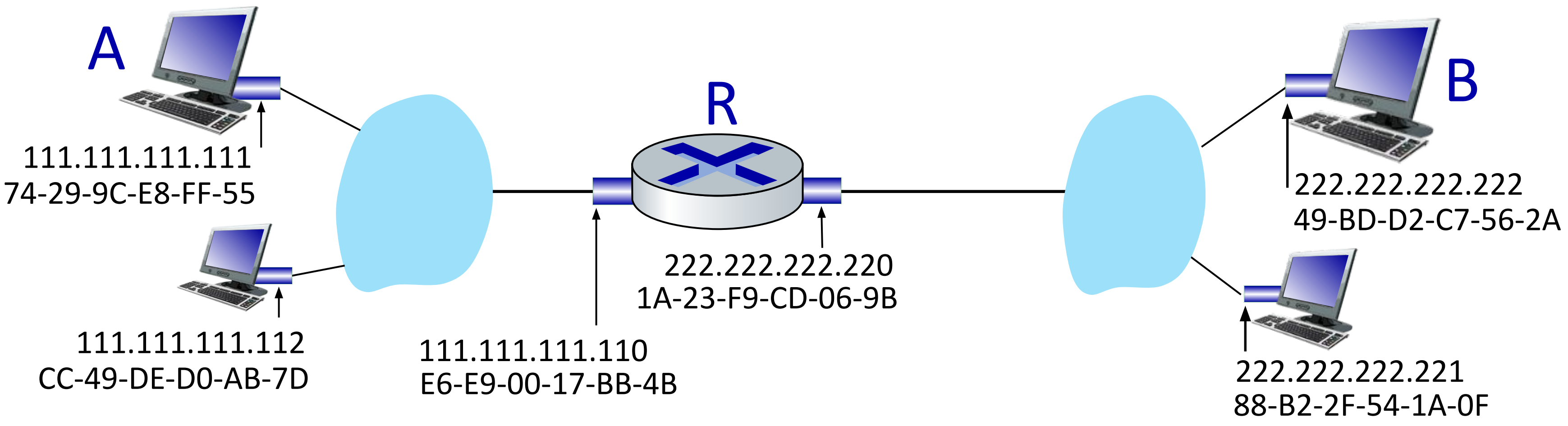


3 A receives B's reply, adds B entry into its local ARP table

Routing to another subnet: addressing

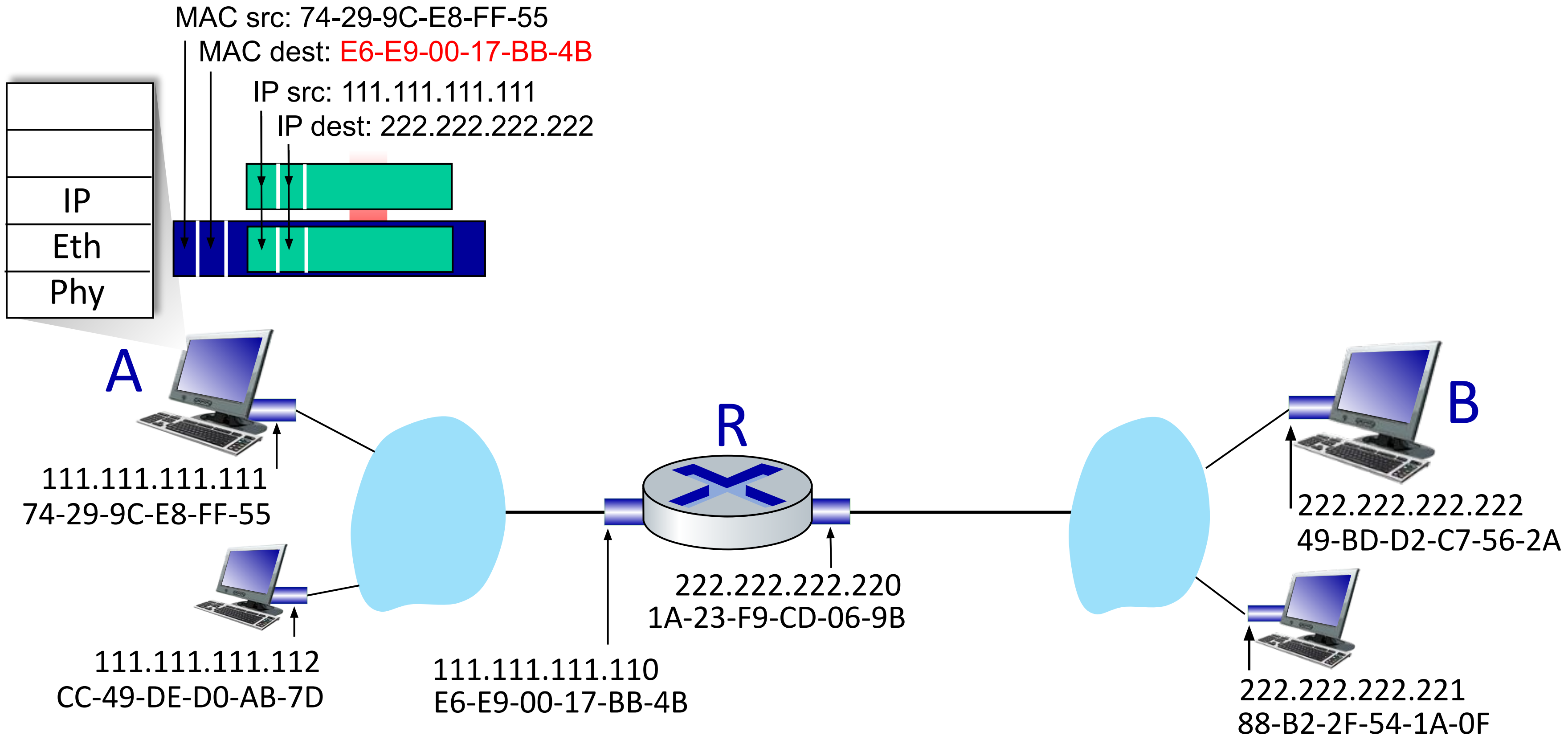
walkthrough: sending a datagram from *A* to *B* via *R*

- focus on addressing – at IP (datagram) and MAC layer (frame) levels
- assume that:
  - A knows B's IP address
  - A knows IP address of first hop router, R (how?)
  - A knows R's MAC address (how?)



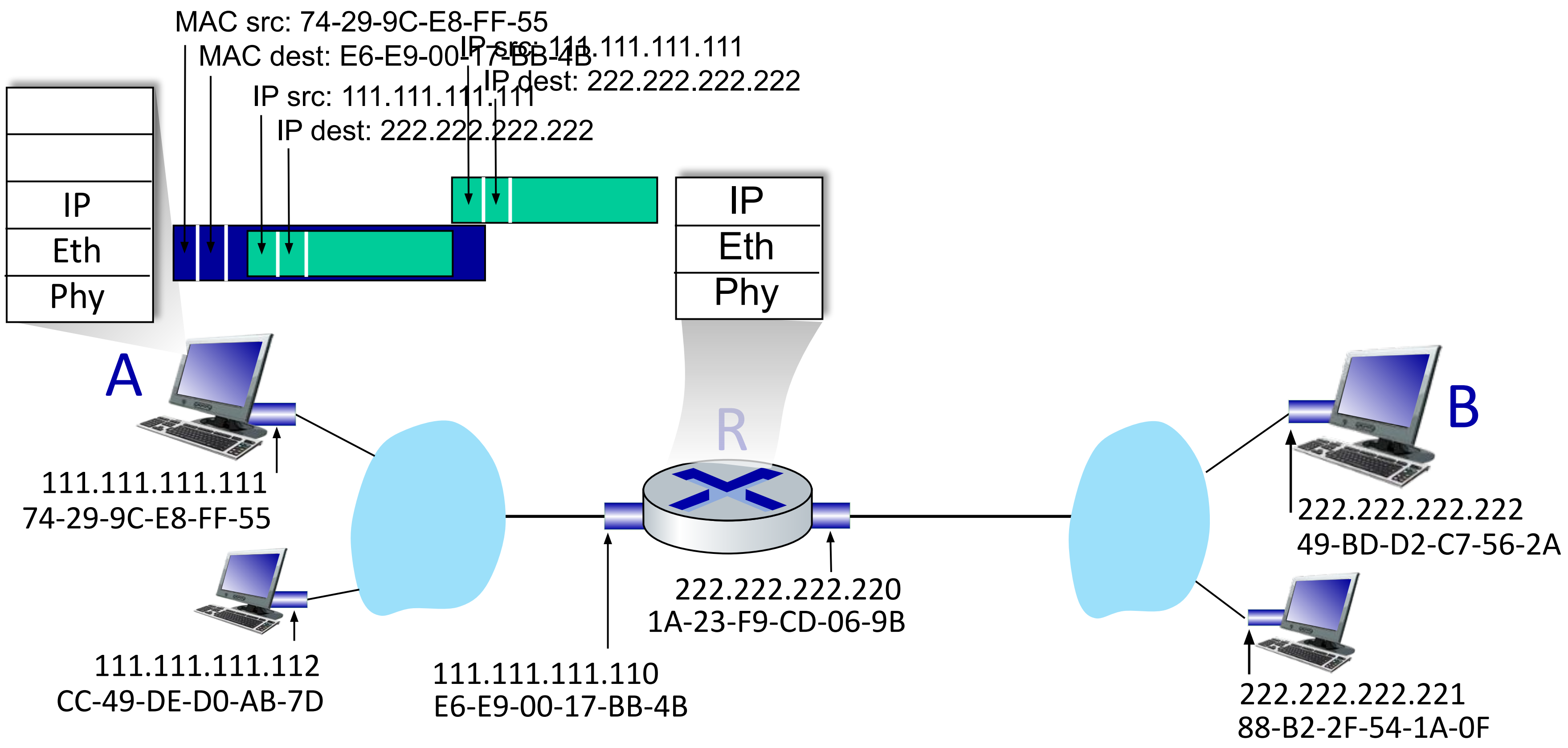
Routing to another subnet: addressing

- A creates IP datagram with IP source A, destination B
- A creates link-layer frame containing A-to-B IP datagram
  - R's MAC address is frame's destination



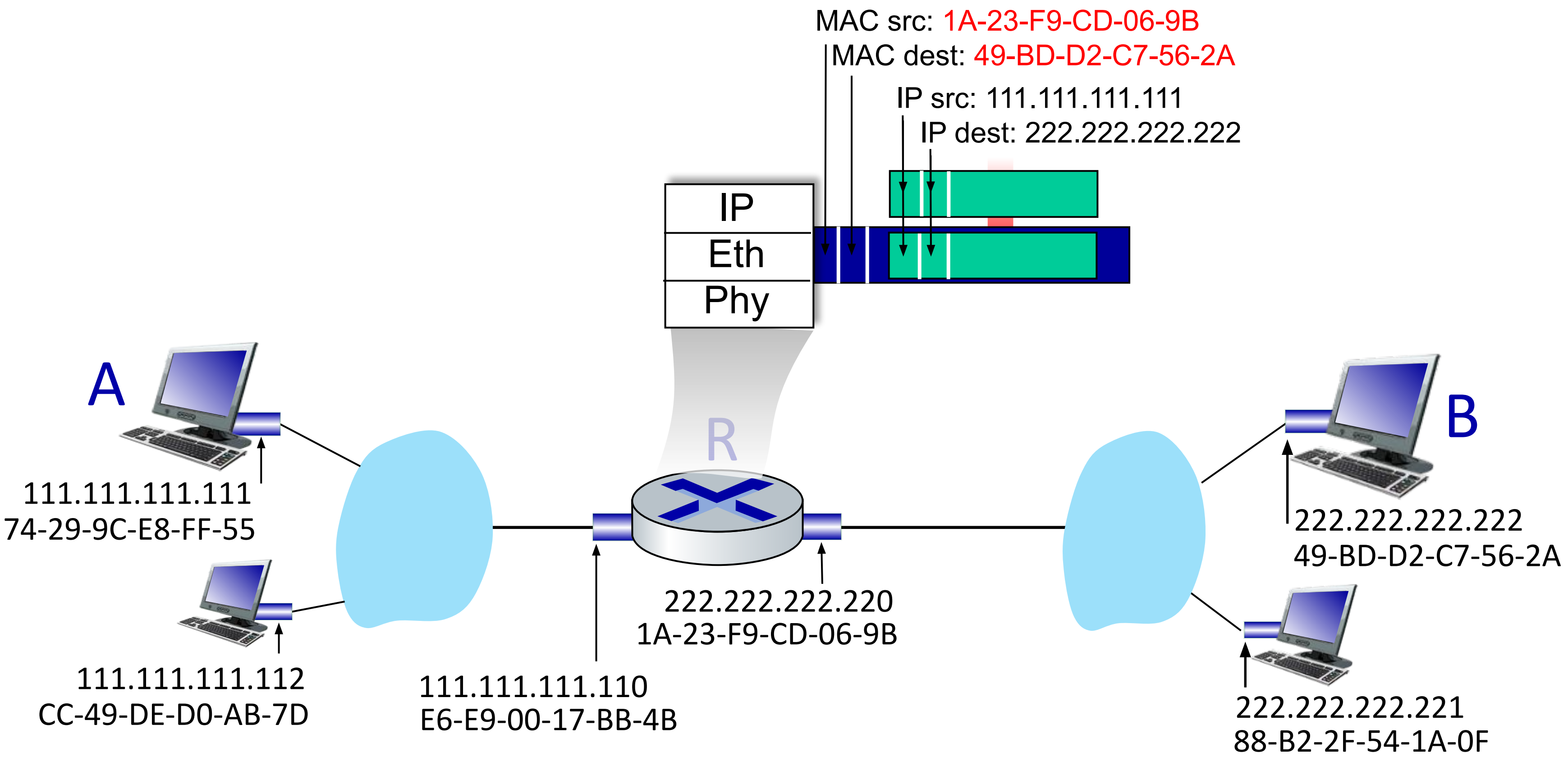
Routing to another subnet: addressing

- frame sent from A to R
- frame received at R, datagram removed, passed up to IP



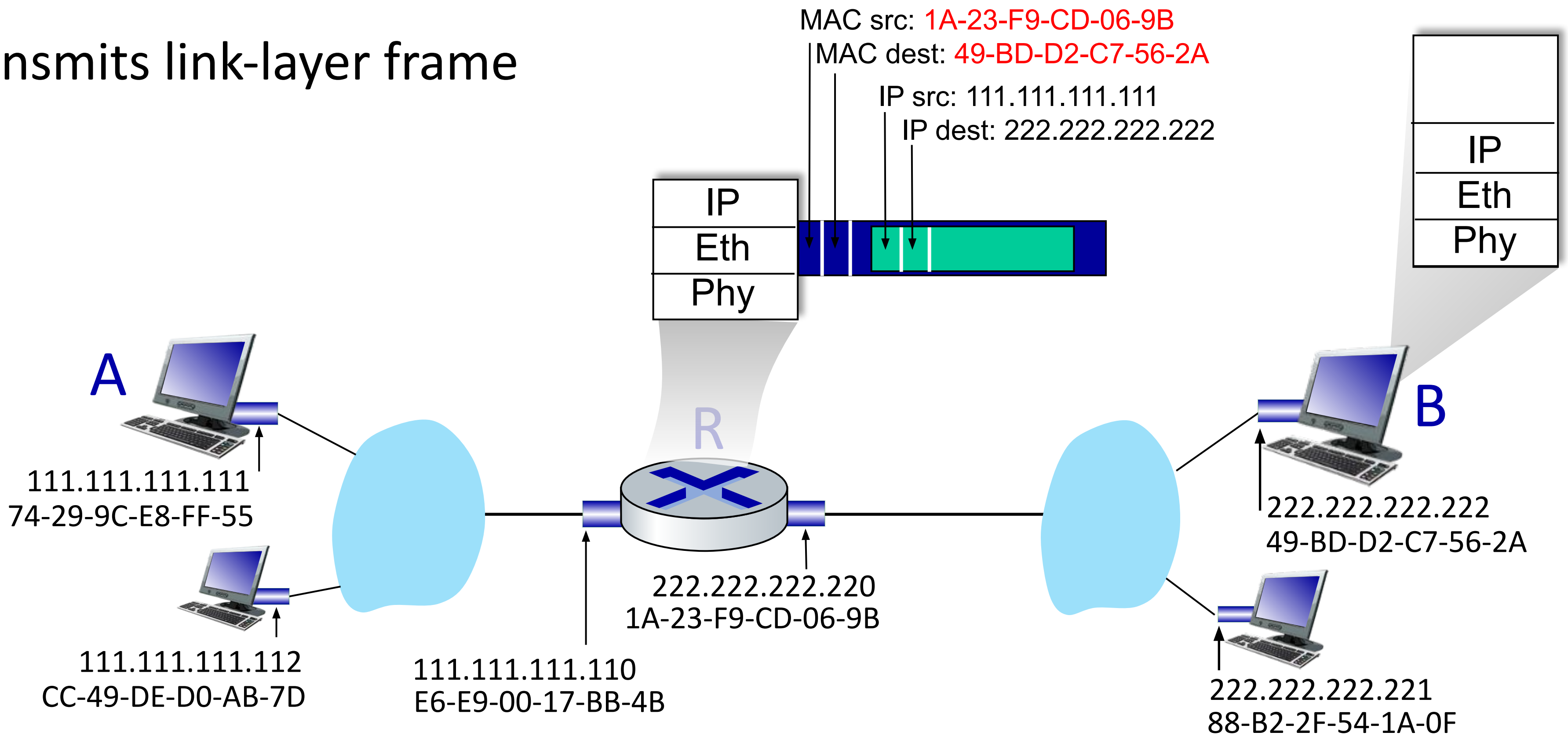
Routing to another subnet: addressing

- R determines outgoing interface, passes datagram with IP source A, destination B to link layer
- R creates link-layer frame containing A-to-B IP datagram. Frame destination address: B's MAC address



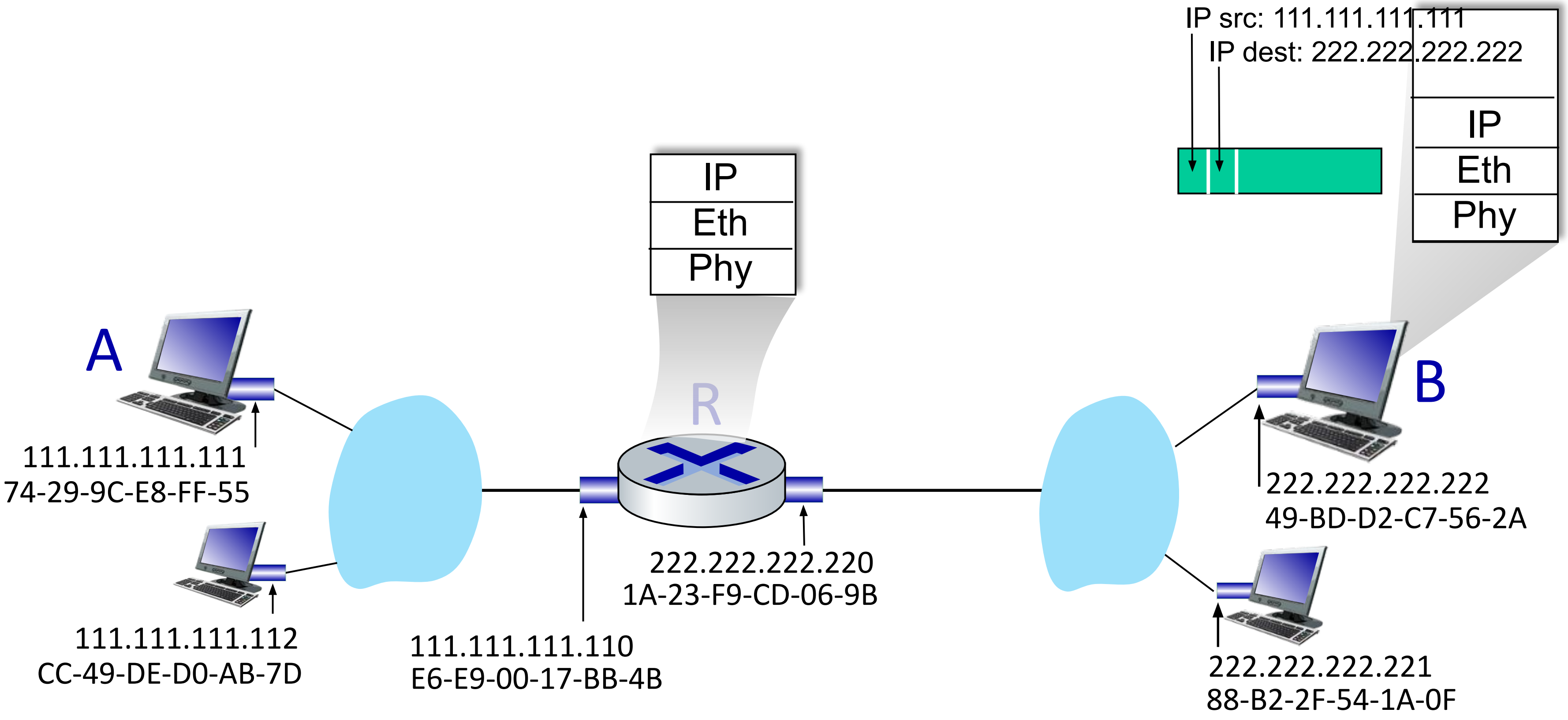
Routing to another subnet: addressing

- R determines outgoing interface, passes datagram with IP source A, destination B to link layer
- R creates link-layer frame containing A-to-B IP datagram. Frame destination address: B's MAC address
- transmits link-layer frame



Routing to another subnet: addressing

- B receives frame, extracts IP datagram destination B
- B passes datagram up protocol stack to IP



HDLC

High-level Data Link Control (HDLC) is a bit-oriented protocol for communication over point-to-point and multipoint links. It implements the ARQ mechanisms we discussed in this chapter.

Topics discussed in this section:

Configurations and Transfer Modes
Frames
Control Field

Figure 11.25 *Normal response mode*

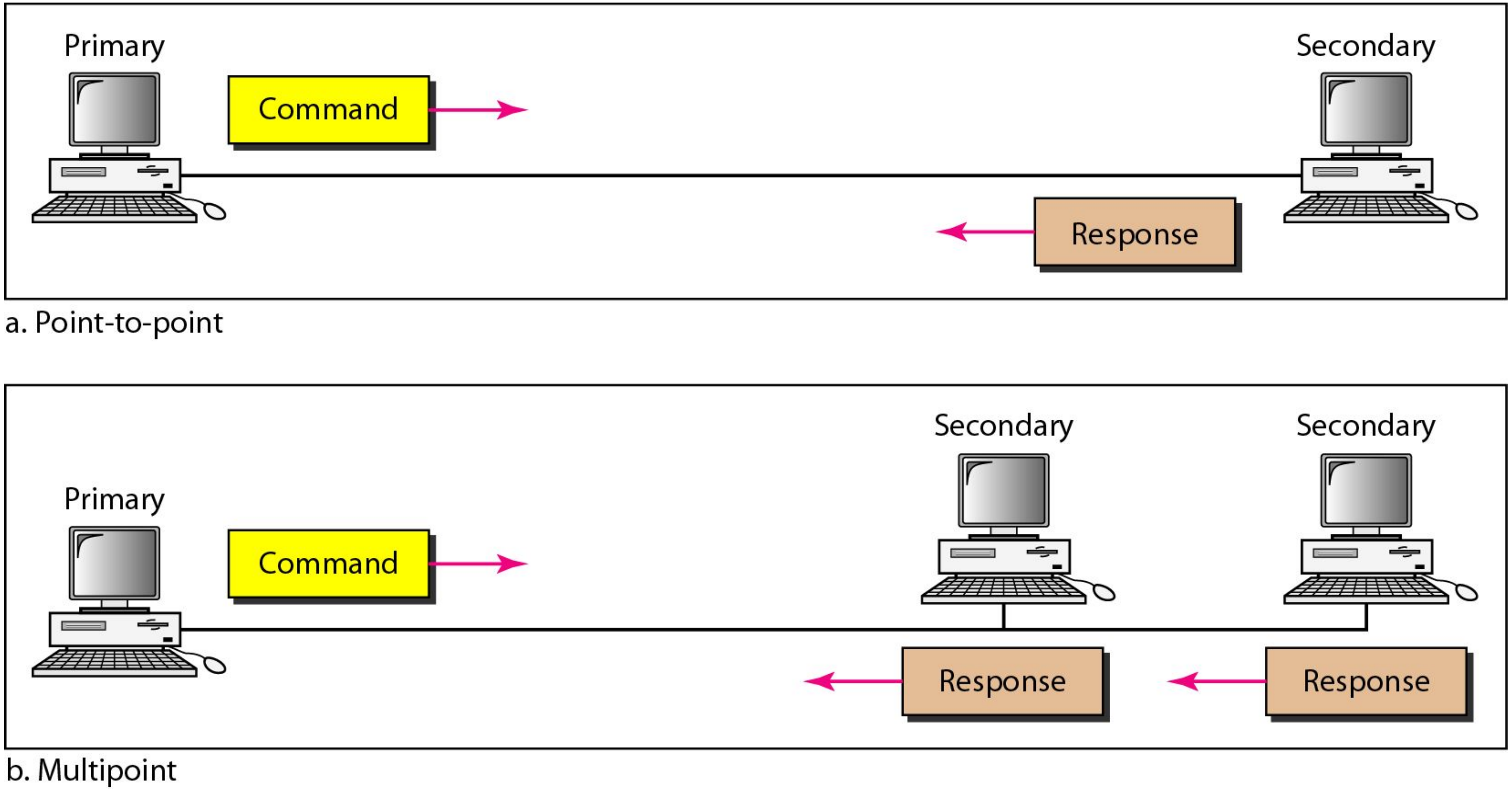


Figure 11.26 *Asynchronous balanced mode*

Figure 11.27 *HDLC frames*

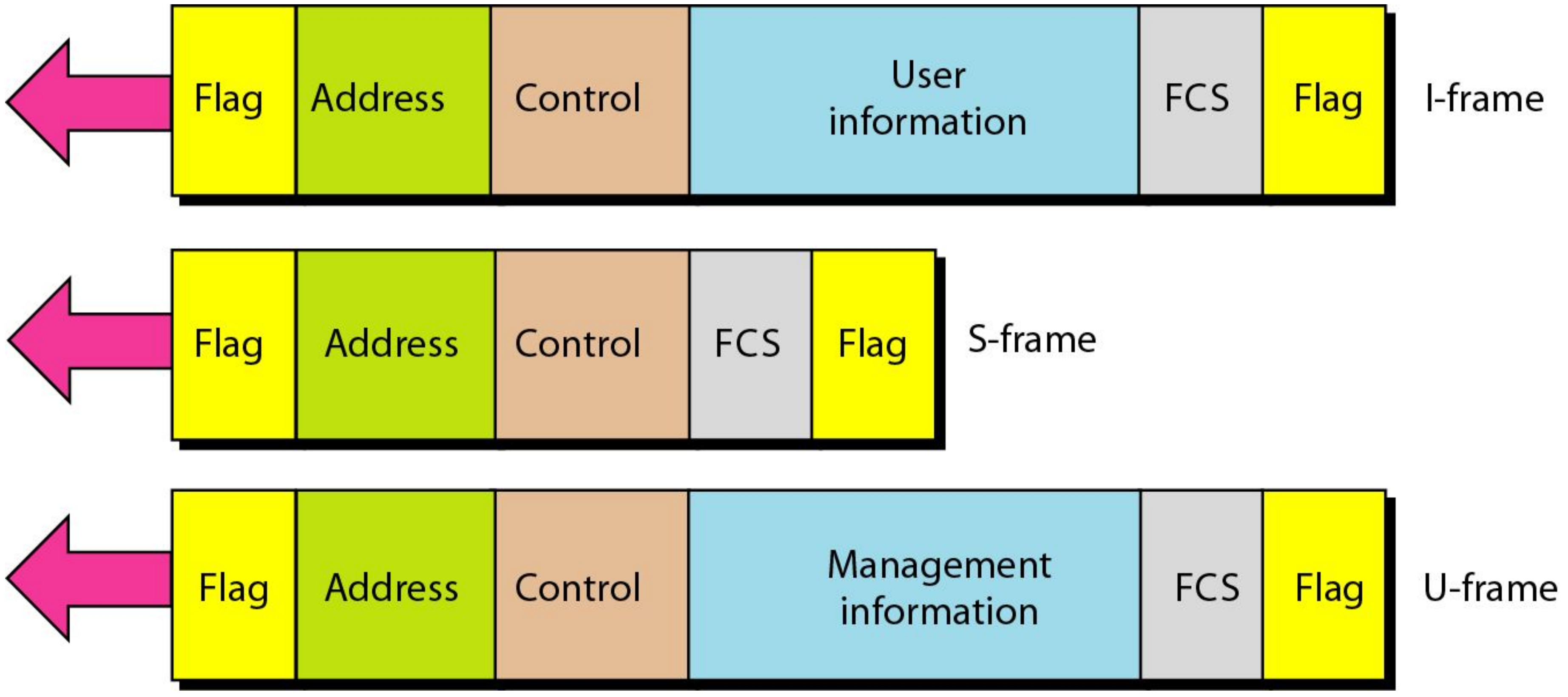


Figure 11.28 *Control field format for the different frame types*

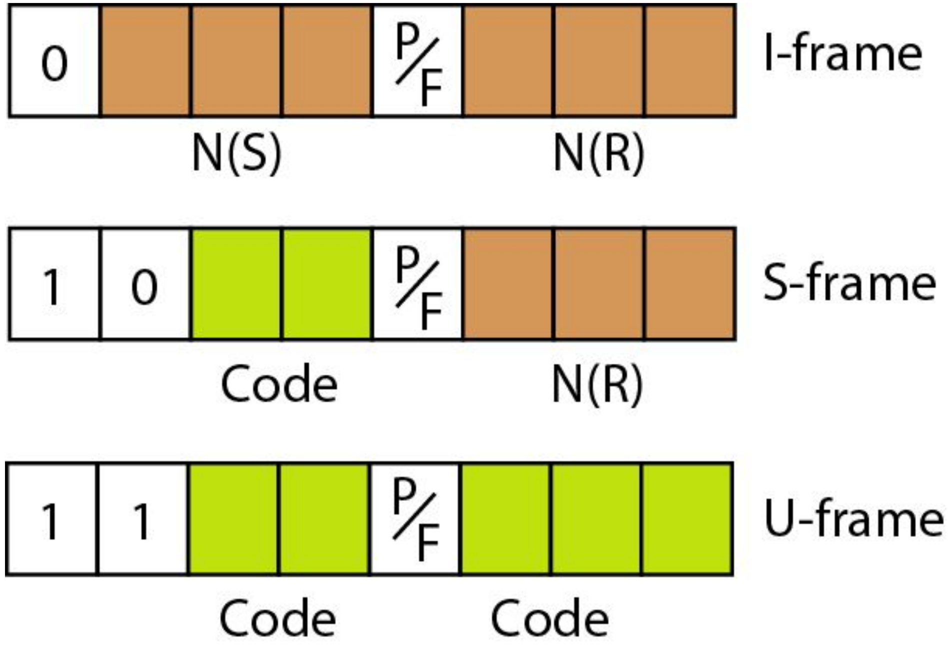


Table 11.1 *U-frame control command and response*

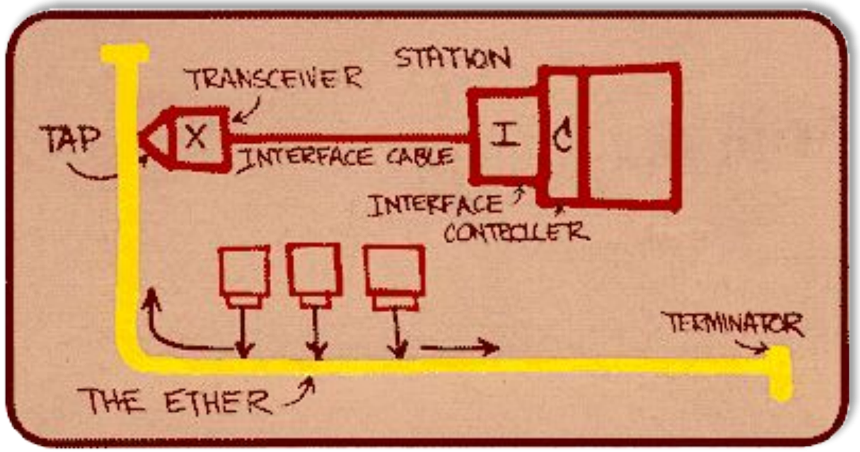
Code	*Command*	*Response*	*Meaning*
00 001	SNRM		Set normal response mode
11 011	SNRME		Set normal response mode, extended
11 100	SABM	**DM**	Set asynchronous balanced mode or **disconnect mode**
11 110	SABME		Set asynchronous balanced mode, extended
00 000	UI	**UI**	Unnumbered information
00 110		**UA**	**Unnumbered acknowledgment**
00 010	DISC	**RD**	Disconnect or **request disconnect**
10 000	SIM	**RIM**	Set initialization mode or **request information mode**
00 100	UP		Unnumbered poll
11 001	RSET		Reset
11 101	XID	**XID**	Exchange ID
10 001	FRMR	**FRMR**	Frame reject

Ethernet

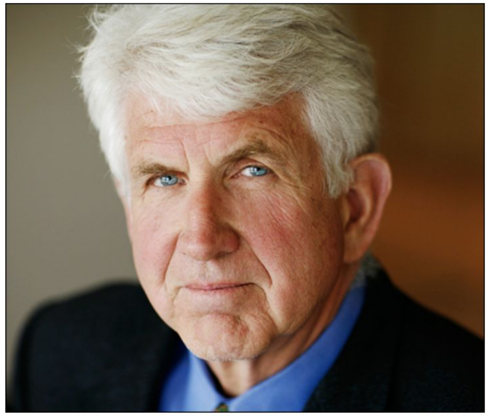
"dominant" wired LAN technology:

- first widely used LAN technology
- simpler, cheap
- kept up with speed race: 10 Mbps – 400 Gbps
- single chip, multiple speeds (e.g., Broadcom BCM5761)

Metcalfe's Ethernet sketch



Bob Metcalfe: Ethernet co-inventor, 2022 ACM Turing Award recipient

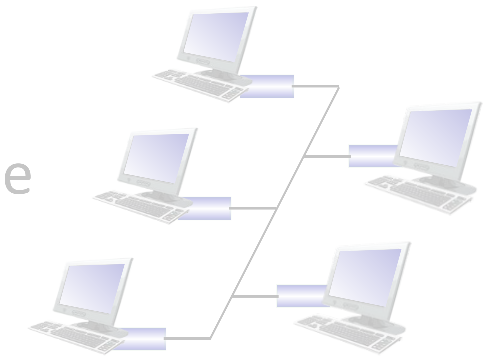


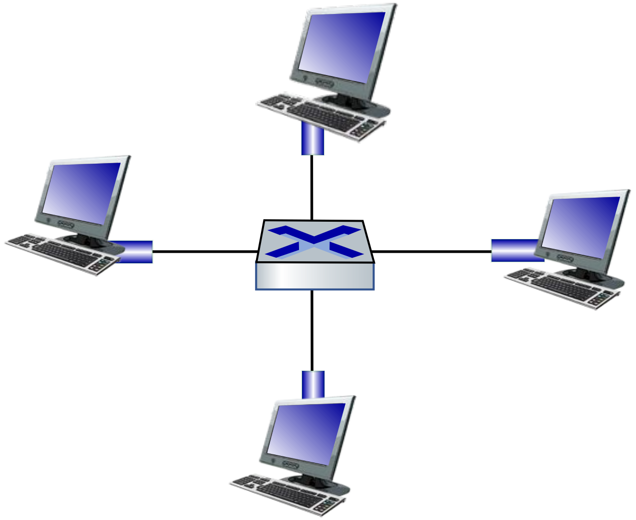
https://www.uspto.gov/learning-and-resources/journeys-innovation/audio-stories/defying-doubters

Ethernet: physical topology

- bus: popular through mid 90s
  - all nodes in same collision domain (can collide with each other)
- switched: prevails today
  - active link-layer 2 *switch* in center
  - each "spoke" runs a (separate) Ethernet protocol (nodes do not collide with each other)

bus: coaxial cable





switched

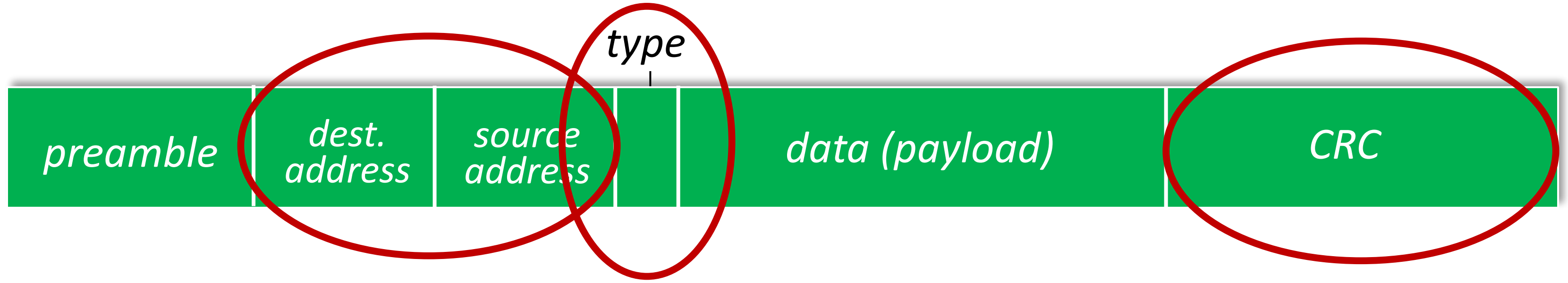
Ethernet frame structure

sending interface encapsulates IP datagram (or other network layer protocol packet) in Ethernet frame

preamble:

- used to synchronize receiver, sender clock rates
- 7 bytes of 10101010 followed by one byte of 10101011

Ethernet frame structure (more)



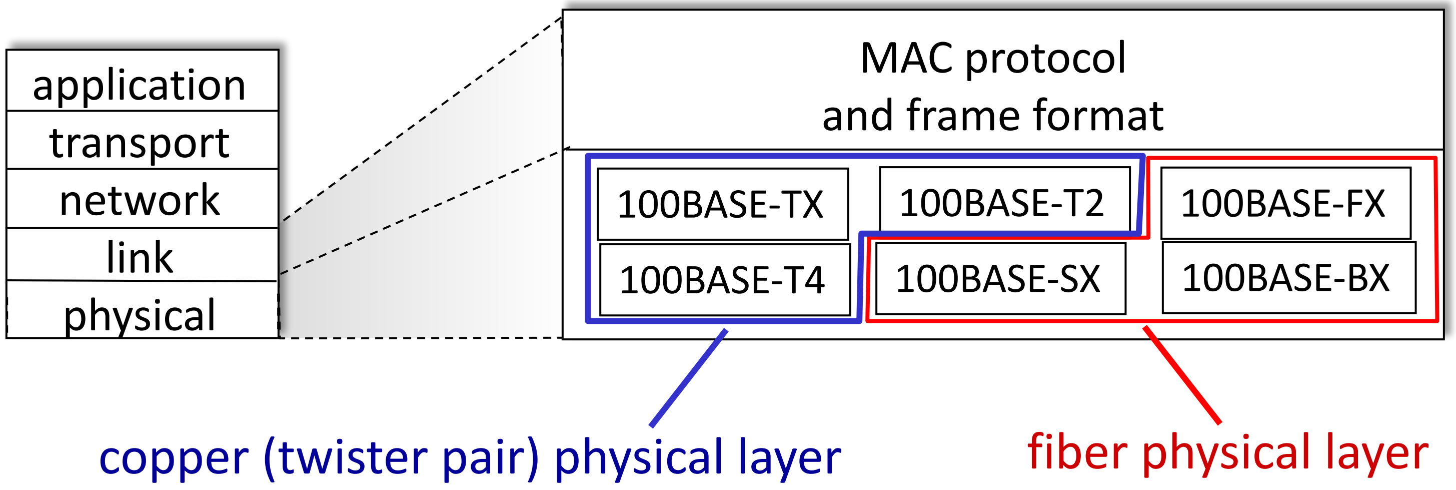
- addresses: 6 byte source, destination MAC addresses
  - if adapter receives frame with matching destination address, or with broadcast address (e.g., ARP packet), it passes data in frame to network layer protocol
  - otherwise, adapter discards frame
- type: indicates higher layer protocol
  - mostly IP but others possible, e.g., Novell IPX, AppleTalk
  - used to demultiplex up at receiver
- CRC: cyclic redundancy check at receiver
  - error detected: frame is dropped

Ethernet: unreliable, connectionless

- connectionless: no handshaking between sending and receiving NICs
- unreliable: receiving NIC doesn't send ACKs or NAKs to sending NIC
  - data in dropped frames recovered only if initial sender uses higher layer rdt (e.g., TCP), otherwise dropped data lost
- Ethernet's MAC protocol: unslotted CSMA/CD with binary backoff

802.3 Ethernet standards: link & physical layers

- *many* different Ethernet standards
  - common MAC protocol and frame format
  - different speeds: 2 Mbps, ... 100 Mbps, 1Gbps, 10 Gbps, 40 Gbps, 80 Gbps
    - different physical layer media: fiber, cable



Link layer, LANs: roadmap

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

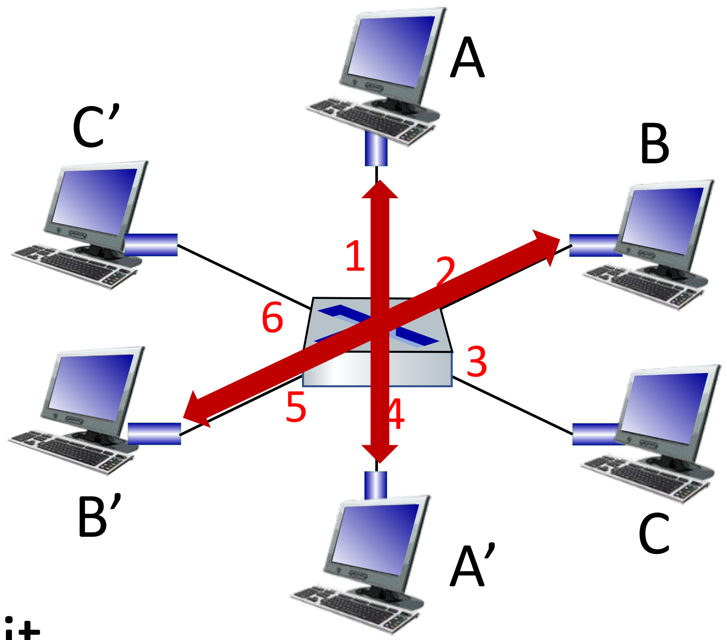
- a day in the life of a web request

Ethernet switch

- Switch is a link-layer device: takes an *active* role
  - store, forward Ethernet (or other type of) frames
  - examine incoming frame's MAC address, *selectively* forward frame to one-or-more outgoing links when frame is to be forwarded on segment, uses CSMA/CD to access segment
- transparent: hosts *unaware* of presence of switches
- plug-and-play, self-learning
  - switches do not need to be configured

Switch: multiple simultaneous transmissions

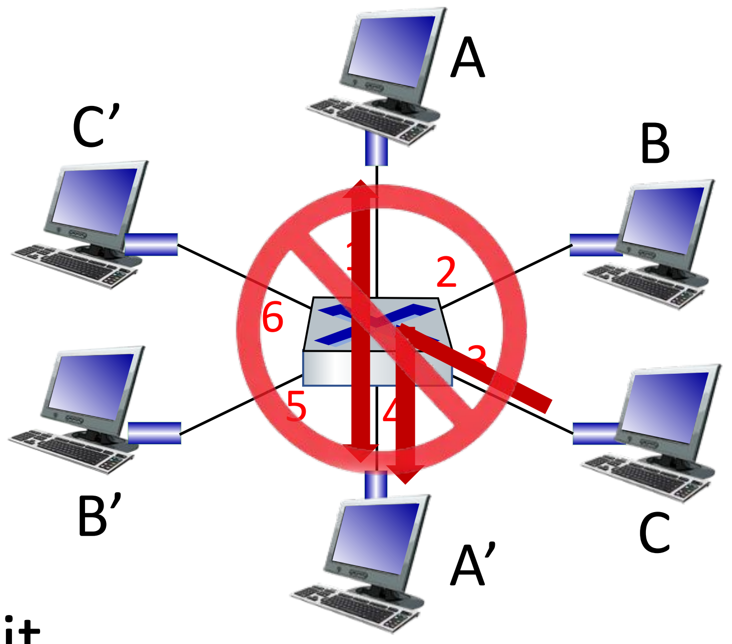
- hosts have dedicated, direct connection to switch
- switches buffer packets
- Ethernet protocol used on *each* incoming link, so:
  - no collisions; full duplex
  - each link is its own collision domain
- switching: A-to-A' and B-to-B' can transmit simultaneously, without collisions



switch with six interfaces (1,2,3,4,5,6)

Switch: multiple simultaneous transmissions

- hosts have dedicated, direct connection to switch
- switches buffer packets
- Ethernet protocol used on *each* incoming link, so:
  - no collisions; full duplex
  - each link is its own collision domain
- switching: A-to-A' and B-to-B' can transmit simultaneously, without collisions
  - but A-to-A' and C to A' can *not* happen simultaneously



switch with six interfaces (1,2,3,4,5,6)

Switch forwarding table

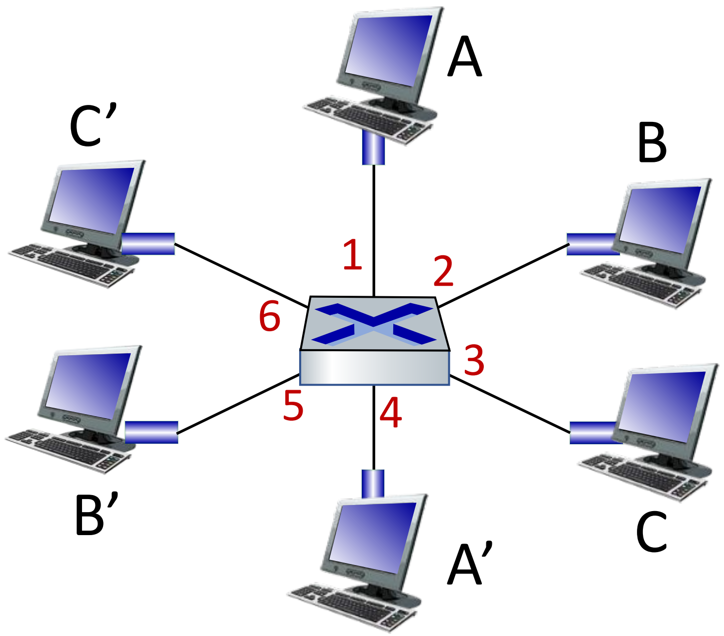
Q: how does switch know A' reachable via interface 4, B' reachable via interface 5?

A: each switch has a switch table, each entry:

- (MAC address of host, interface to reach host, time stamp)
- looks like a routing table!

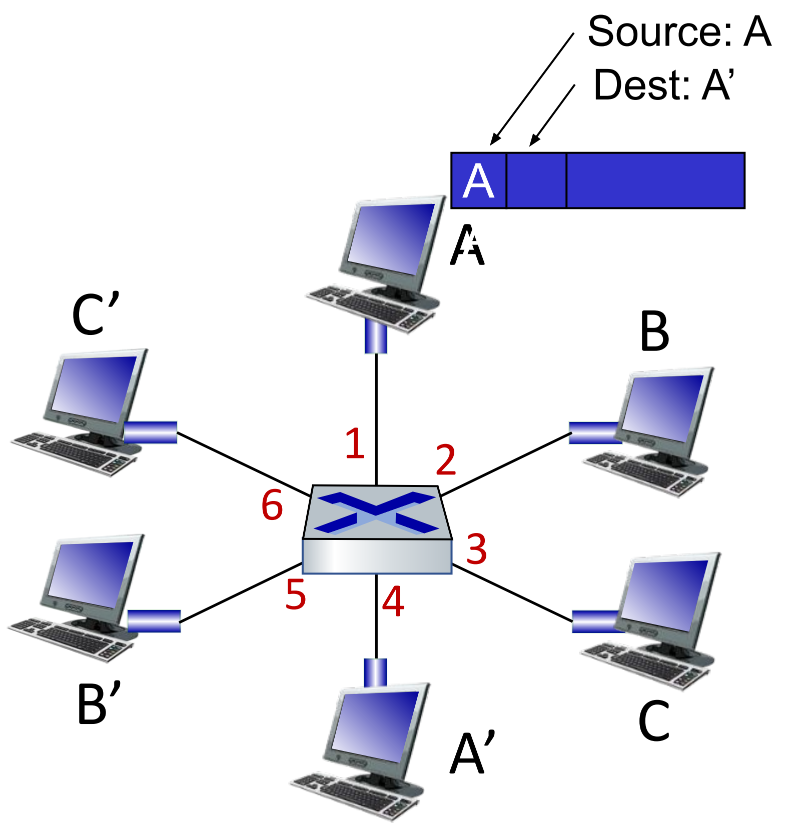
Q: how are entries created, maintained in switch table?

- something like a routing protocol?



Switch: self-learning

- switch *learns* which hosts can be reached through which interfaces
  - when frame received, switch "learns" location of sender: incoming LAN segment
  - records sender/location pair in switch table



MAC addr	interface	TTL
A	*1*	*60*

Switch table (initially empty)

Switch: frame filtering/forwarding

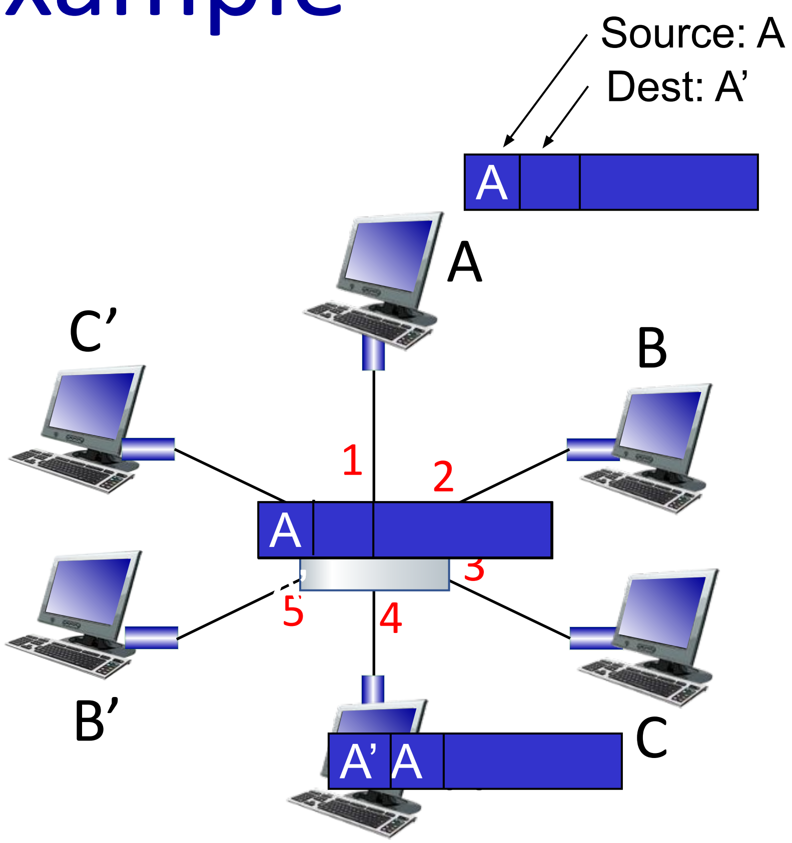
when frame received at switch:

1. record incoming link, MAC address of sending host
2. index switch table using MAC destination address
3. if entry found for destination
   then {
   if destination on segment from which frame arrived
      then drop frame
      else forward frame on interface indicated by entry
   }
   else flood /* forward on all interfaces except arriving interface */

Self-learning, forwarding: example

- frame destination, A', location unknown: flood
- destination A location known: selectively send

on just one link

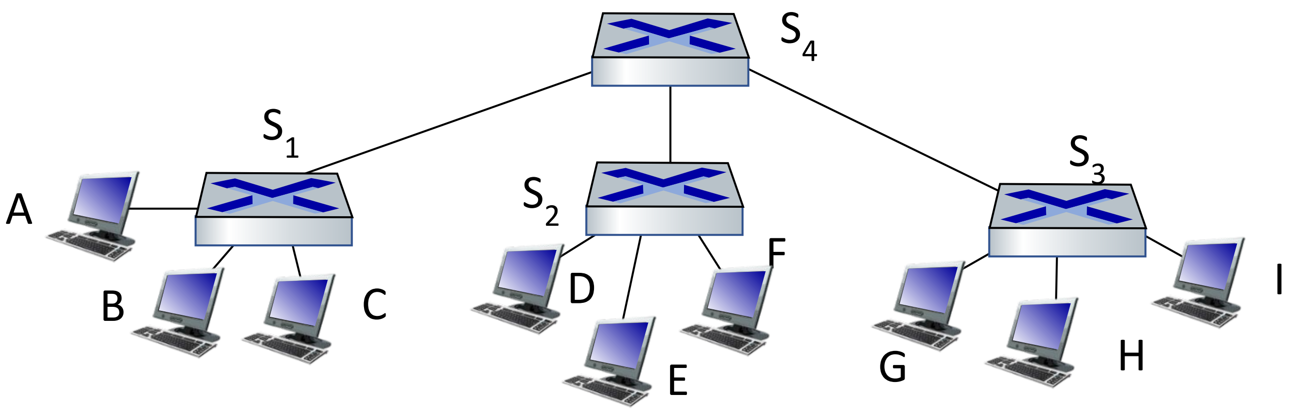


MAC addr	interface	TTL
A	*1*	*60*
A'	*4*	*60*

switch table (initially empty)

Interconnecting switches

self-learning switches can be connected together:

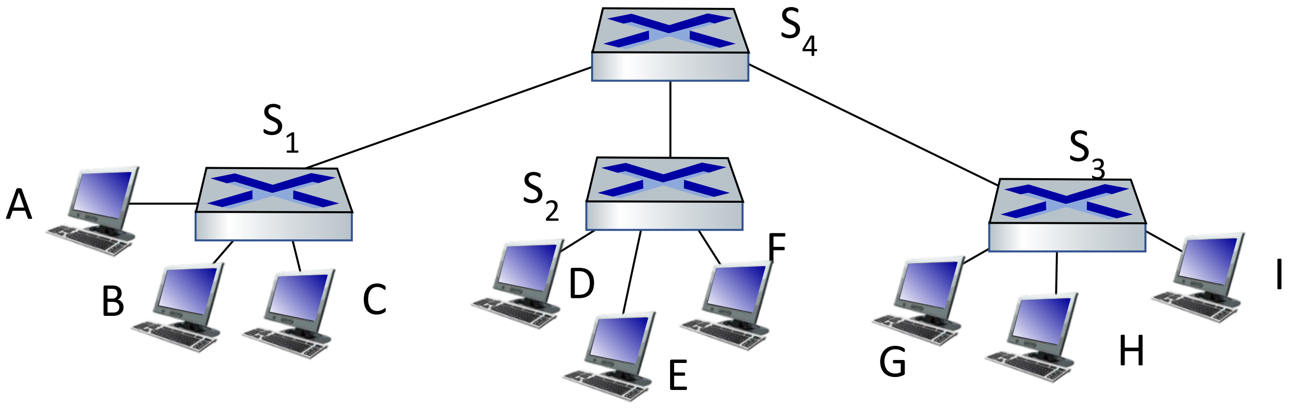


Q: sending from A to G - how does S_1 know to forward frame destined to G via S_4 and S_3?

- *A:* self learning! (works exactly the same as in single-switch case!)

Self-learning multi-switch example

Suppose C sends frame to I, I responds to C



Q: show switch tables and packet forwarding in S_1, S_2, S_3, S_4