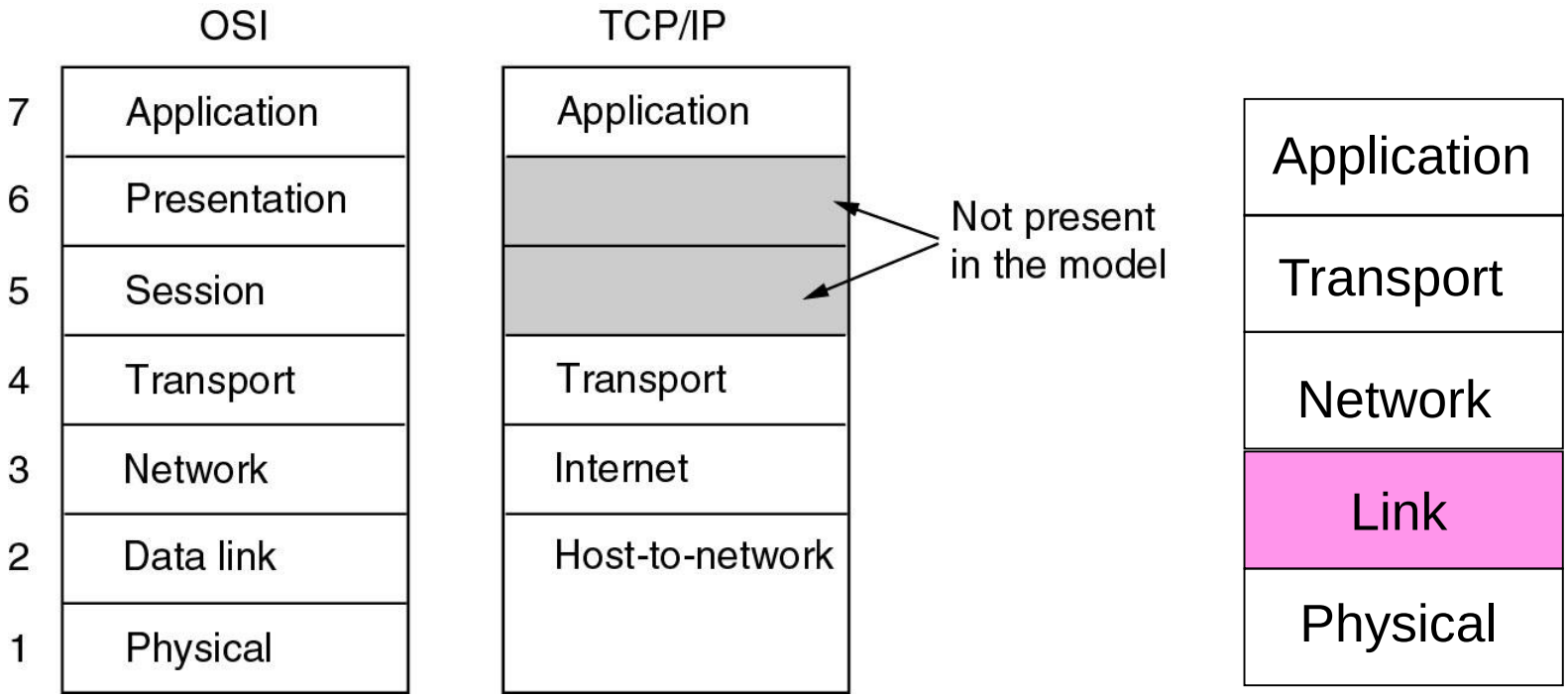
Week 3 – Data Link Layer

COMP90007

Internet Technologies

The Data Link Layer in OSI and TCP/IP



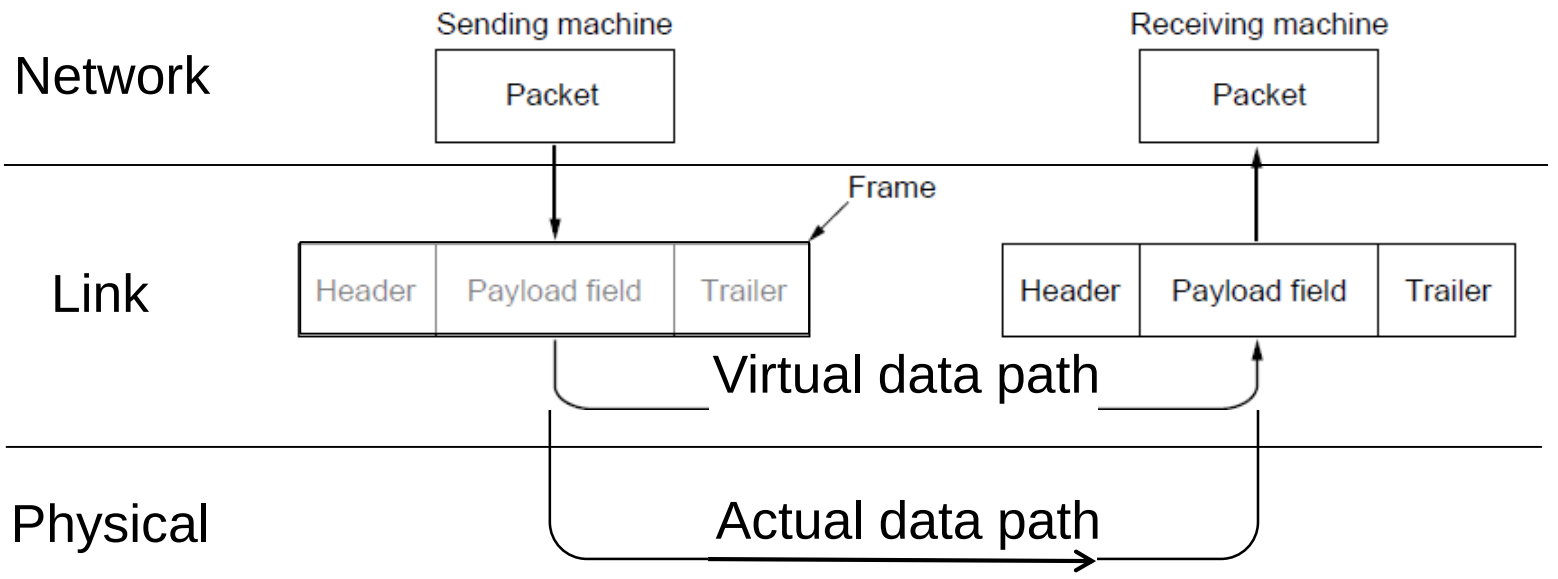
- Reliable, efficient communication of “frames” between two adjacent machines.
- Handles transmission errors and flow control.

Functions & Methods of the Data Layer

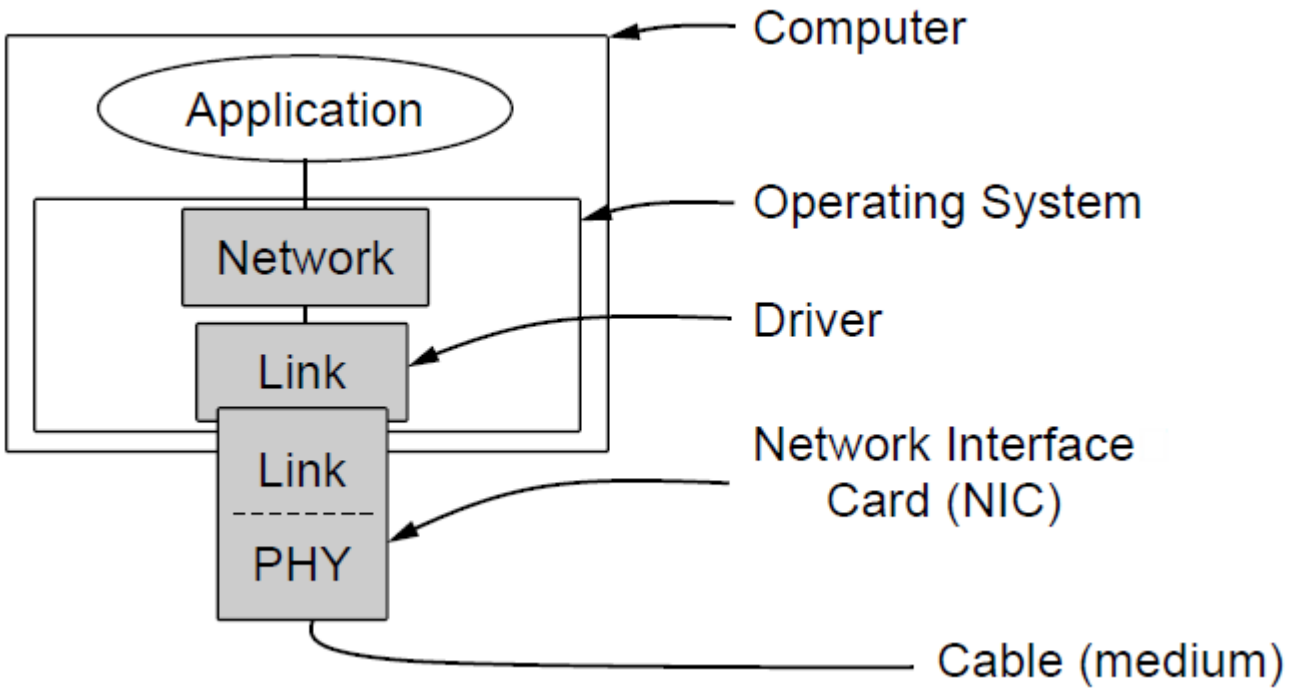
- Functions of the data link layer:
  1. Provide a well-defined service interface to network layer
  2. Handling transmission errors
  3. Data flow regulation
- Primary method:
  - Take **packets from network layer**, and encapsulate them **into frames** (containing a header, a payload, a trailer)

Relation Between Packets and Frames

Link layer accepts **packets** from the network layer, and encapsulates them into **frames** that it sends using the physical layer; reception is the opposite process



Typical Implementation



Type of Services

- **Connection-Oriented vs Connectionless**: Whether a connection is setup before sending a message
- **Acknowledged vs Unacknowledged**: Whether the receiver gives the sender an acknowledgement upon receiving the message

Services Provided to Network Layer

- Principal concern is transferring data from the network layer on source host to the network layer on destination host

- Services provided:
  - Unacknowledged connectionless service
  - Acknowledged connectionless service
  - Acknowledged connection-oriented service

Unacknowledged Connectionless Service

- Source host transmits independent frames to recipient host with no acknowledgement
- No logical connection establishment or release
- No lost frame recovery mechanism (or left to higher levels)
- E.g. Ethernet LANs (No logical connection is established beforehand or released afterward)
- Real-time traffic, e.g., voice

Acknowledged Connectionless Service

- Source host transmits independent frames to recipient host with acknowledgement
- No logical connection establishment or release
- Each frame individually acknowledged (retransmission if lost or errors)
- E.g. Wireless – IEEE 802.11 WiFi

Acknowledged Connection-Oriented Service

- Source host transmits independent frames to recipient host after connection establishment and with acknowledgement
- Connection established and released (communicate rate and details of message)
- Frames numbered, counted, acknowledged with logical order enforced
- Unreliable links such as satellite channel or long distance telephone circuit

Framing

- Physical layer provides no guarantee a raw stream of bits is error free
- Framing is the method used by data link layer to **break raw bit stream into discrete units** and generate a checksum for the unit
- **Checksums can be computed and embedded** at the source, then computed and compared at the destination checksum = f(payload)
- The primary purpose of framing is to provide some level of reliability over the unreliable physical layer

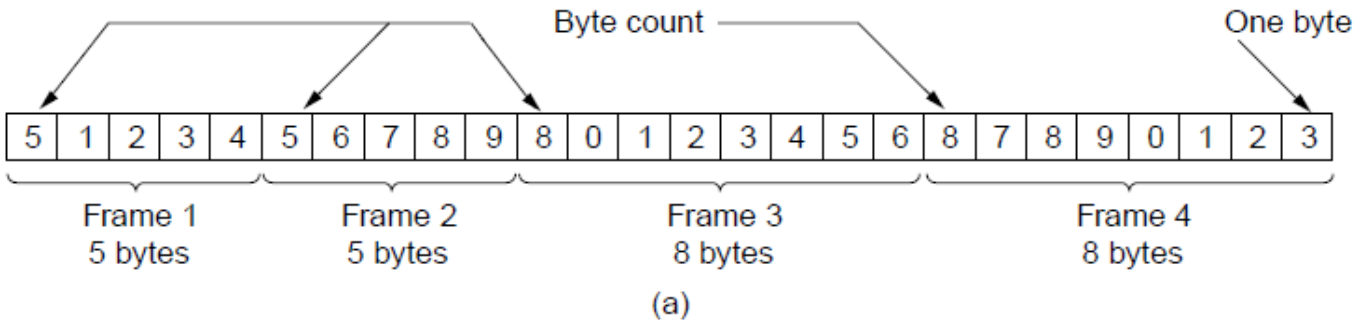
Framing Methods

- Framing methods:
  - Character (Byte) count
  - Flag bytes with byte stuffing
  - Start and end flags with bit stuffing
- Most data link protocols use a combination of character count and one other method

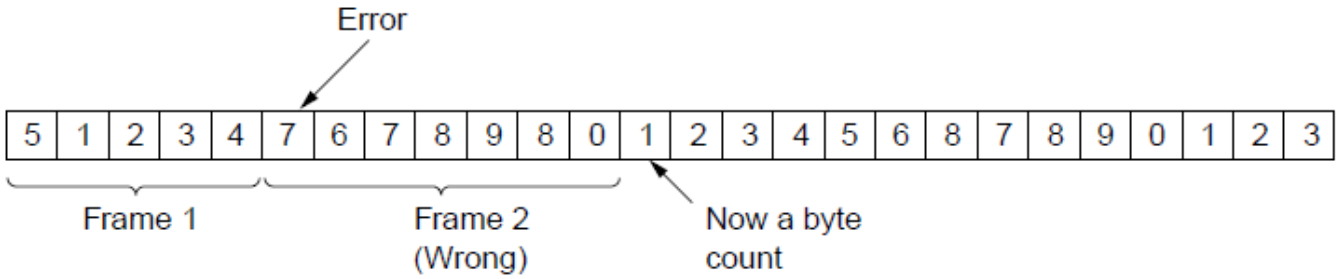
Character Counts

- Uses a field in the frame header to specify the number of characters in a frame

No error

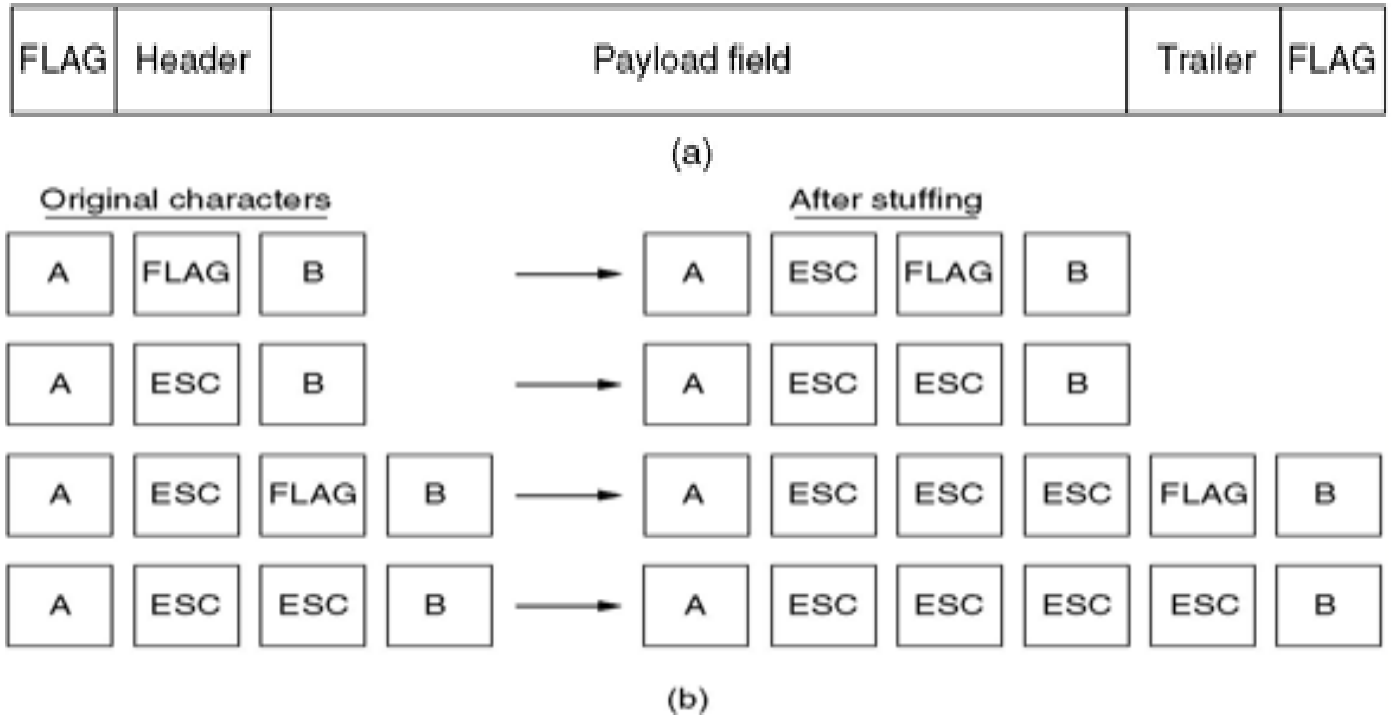


Case with error



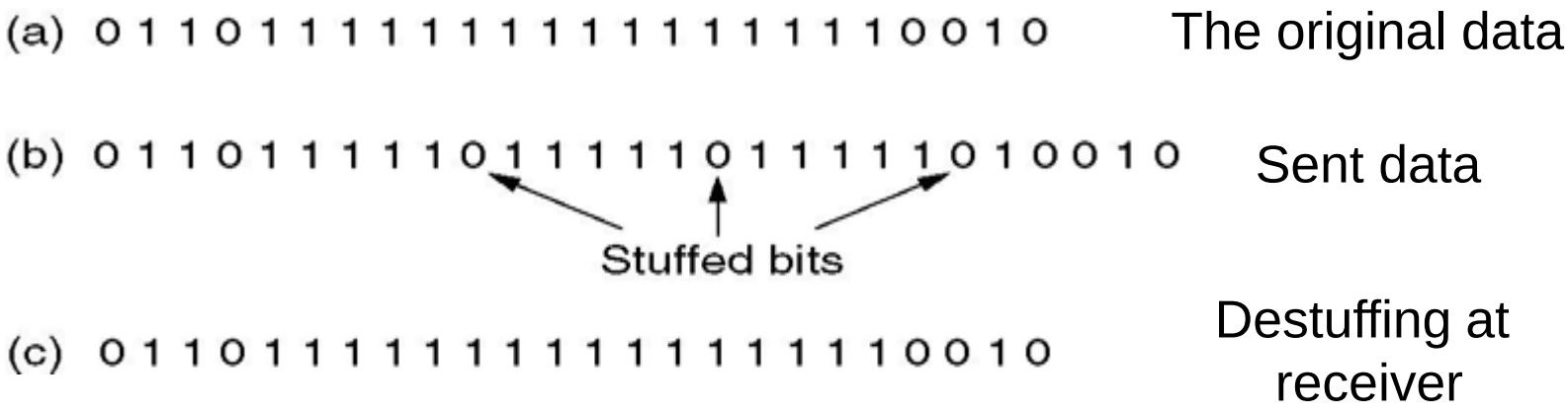
Flag Bytes with Byte Stuffing

- Each frame starts and ends with a special byte -“flag byte”



Start and End flags with Bit stuffing

- Frames contain an arbitrary number of bits and allow character codes
- With an arbitrary number of bits per character
- Each frame begins and ends with a special bit pattern 01111110



Insert 0 after five ones (11111)

Error Control

- Ensuring that a garbled message by the physical layer is not considered as the original message by the receiver by adding check bits
- Error Control deals with
  - **Detecting** the error
  - **Correcting** the error
  - **Re-transmitting** lost frames
- Link layer deals with bit errors

Error Detection and Correction

- Physical media may be subject to errors
- Errors may occur **randomly or in bursts**
- Bursts of errors are easier to detect but harder to resolve
- Resolution needs to occur before handing data to network layer
- Key issues
  - ***Fast*** mechanism and ***low computational overhead***
  - ***Minimum amount of extra bits*** send with the data
  - Detection of ***different kinds of error***

Example

- Repeat the bits, if a copy is different than the other there is an error
  - 01101 -> 000 111 111 000 111
- How many different errors can this detect?
- How many errors can this correct?
- What is the minimum number of errors that can fail the algorithm?
  (Note: the algorithm can detect up to 2 errors and retransmission is needed)
- What is the overhead?
- Answers: 2, 1, 3, Sending 1 bit 3 times

Error Bounds – Hamming distance

- Code turns data of n bits into codewords of n+k bits
- Hamming distance is the minimum bit flips to turn one valid codeword into any other valid one.
  - Example with 4 codewords of 10 bits (n=2, k=8):
    - 0000000000 Hamming distance is 5
    - 0000011111
    - 1111100000
    - 1111111111
- Bounds for a code with distance:
  - 2d+1 – can correct d errors (e.g., 2 errors above)
  - d+1 – can detect d errors (e.g., 4 errors above)

Error Bounds

Q: Why can a code with distance *2d+1* **correct** up to *d* errors?

- Errors are corrected by mapping a received invalid codeword to the nearest valid codeword, i.e., the one that can be reached with the fewest bit flips
- If there are more than *d* bit flips, then the received codeword may be closer to another valid codeword than the codeword that was sent

Example: Sending 0000000000 with 2 flips might give 1100000000 which is closest to 0000000000, correcting the error.

But with 3 flips 1110000000 might be received, which is closest to 1111100000, which is still an error

Hamming Code

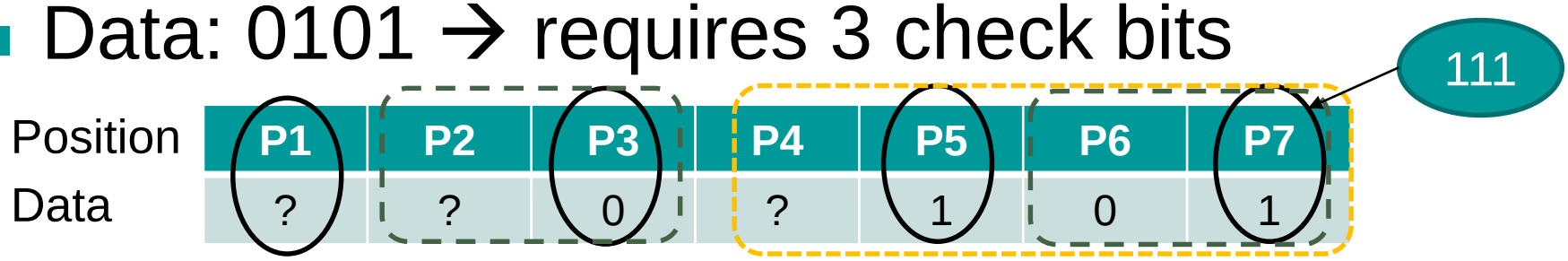
- $n=2^k-k-1$ (n: number of data, k: check bits)
- Put **check bits in positions *p* that are power of 2**, starting with position 1
- Check bit in **position *p* is parity of positions with a *p* term in their value**
- Example: Data: 0101 - > requires 3 check bits

$4 = (2^3) – 3 – 1$

Example

Put check bits in positions p that are power of 2, starting with position 1

- Data: 0101 → requires 3 check bits



1. Calculate the parity bits for P1, P2, P4

P1 + P3 + P5 + P7 = ?+0+1+1= 0 (even)
P2 + P3 + P6 + P7 = ?+0+0+1= 1 (odd)
P4 + P5 + P6 + P7 = ?+1+0+1= 0 (even)

Data sent: 0100101

Example 1: At the receiver: 0100100 (error)	Example 2: At the receiver: 0000101 (error)
P1 + P3 + P5 + P7 = 0+0+1+0= 1 ×	P1 + P3 + P5 + P7 = 0+0+1+1= 0
P2 + P3 + P6 + P7 = 1+0+0+0= 1 ×	P2 + P3 + P6 + P7 = 0+0+0+1= 1 ×
P4 + P5 + P6 + P7 = 0+1+0+0= 1 ×	P4 + P5 + P6 + P7 = 0+1+0+1= 0
Error bit = P1+P2+P4 = P7	Error bit = P2

Error Correcting Codes Key Points

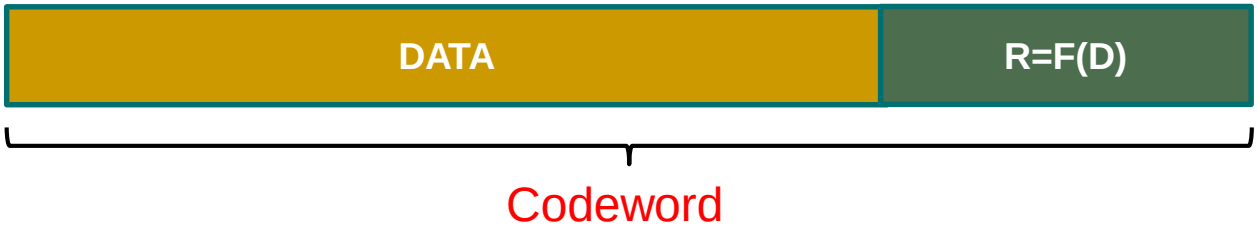
- More efficient in noisy transmission media e.g., wireless
- Challenge is that the error can be in the check bits
- Assumption on a specific number of errors occurring in transmission

Error Detecting Codes

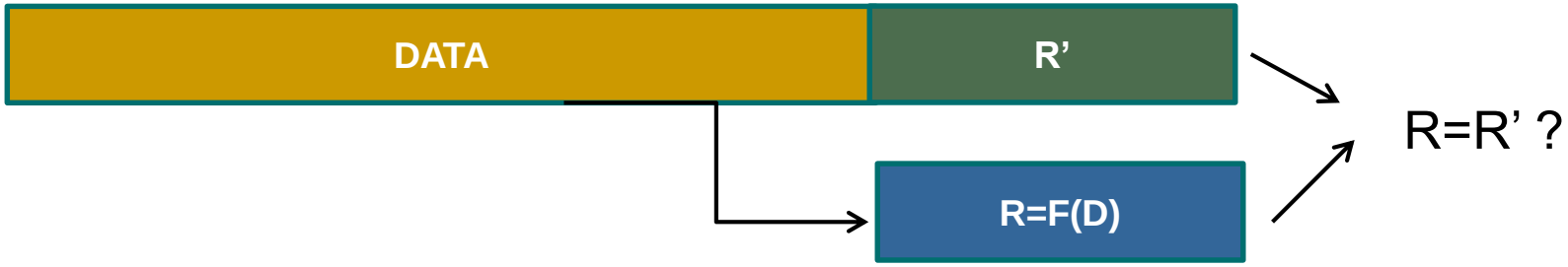
- More efficient in some transmission media – e.g. quality copper, where low error rates occur
- ***Parity*** (1 bit): XOR all the data bits and add the result as the check bit (Hamming distance=2)
- ***Checksum*** (16 bits): Add 16 bits of data and calculate 1's complement and add to the data as the check bits (Hamming distance=2)
- ***Cyclical Redundancy Check*** *(CRC)* – Use division by a k bits polynomial in base-2's representation (Standard 32-bit CRC: Hamming distance=4)

How it works?

- Sender: calculates R check bits using a function of data bits:



- Receiver: receives the codeword and calculates the same function on the data and match the results with received check bits:



Parity Bit

Given data 10001110, count the number of 1s

Add parity bit → 100011100 (for even parity)

100011101 (for odd parity)

Check the transferred data for errors on arrival.

Hamming distance is 2 for Parity Bit…

2 – 1 = **1 error bit can be detected** and

(2 – 1) / 2 = ½ not even 1 bit error can be corrected

(Internet) Checksum

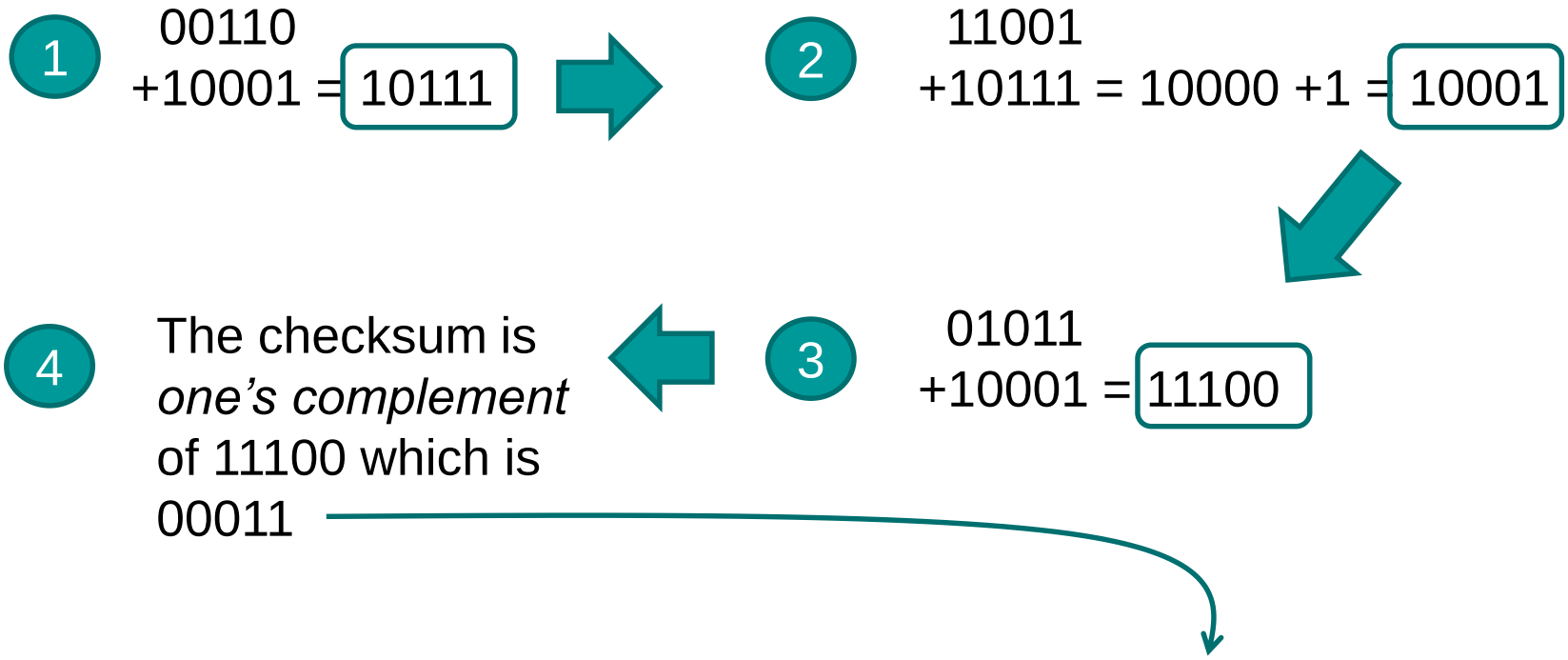
- There are different variation of checksum
- Internet Checksum (16-bit word):

“Sum modulo 2^{16} and adding any overflow of high order bits back into low-order bits”

Example of Checksum

Calculate checksum (5-bit word) for data

00110 10001 11001 01011



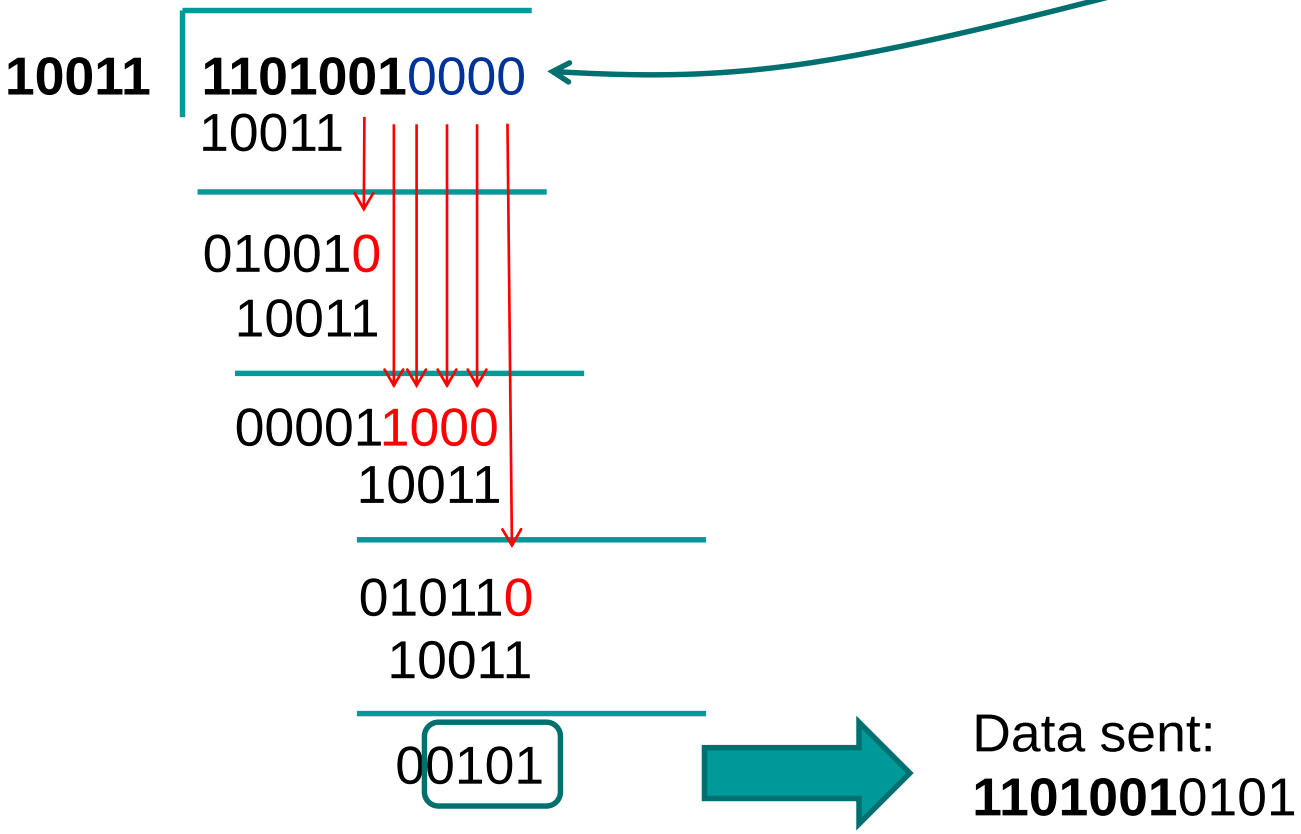
Cyclic Redundancy Check

- Based on a generator polynomial G(x)
  - e.g. $G(x) = x^4+x+1$ (10011)
  - Let *r* be the degree of *G*(*x*) (r=4). **Append *r* zero bits to the low-order end of the frame** so it now contains *m* + *r* bits and corresponds to the polynomial $x^rM(x)$.
  - **Divide the bit string corresponding to *G*(*x*)** into the bit string corresponding to $x^rM(x)$, using modulo 2 division.
  - **Subtract the remainder** (which is always *r* or fewer bits) from the bit string corresponding to $x^rM(x)$ using modulo 2 subtraction. The result is the checksummed frame to be transmitted. Call its polynomial *T*(*x*).

Example

Data: **1101001** and G(x) = x^4+x+1 (**10011**)

5 bits polynomial add **4** bits as the checksum – so add 0000



Data Transmission

- So far we have discussed how to send single messages and now we will **look at a series of messages**
- A service to send messages should have:
  - Reliability
  - **Flow Control**

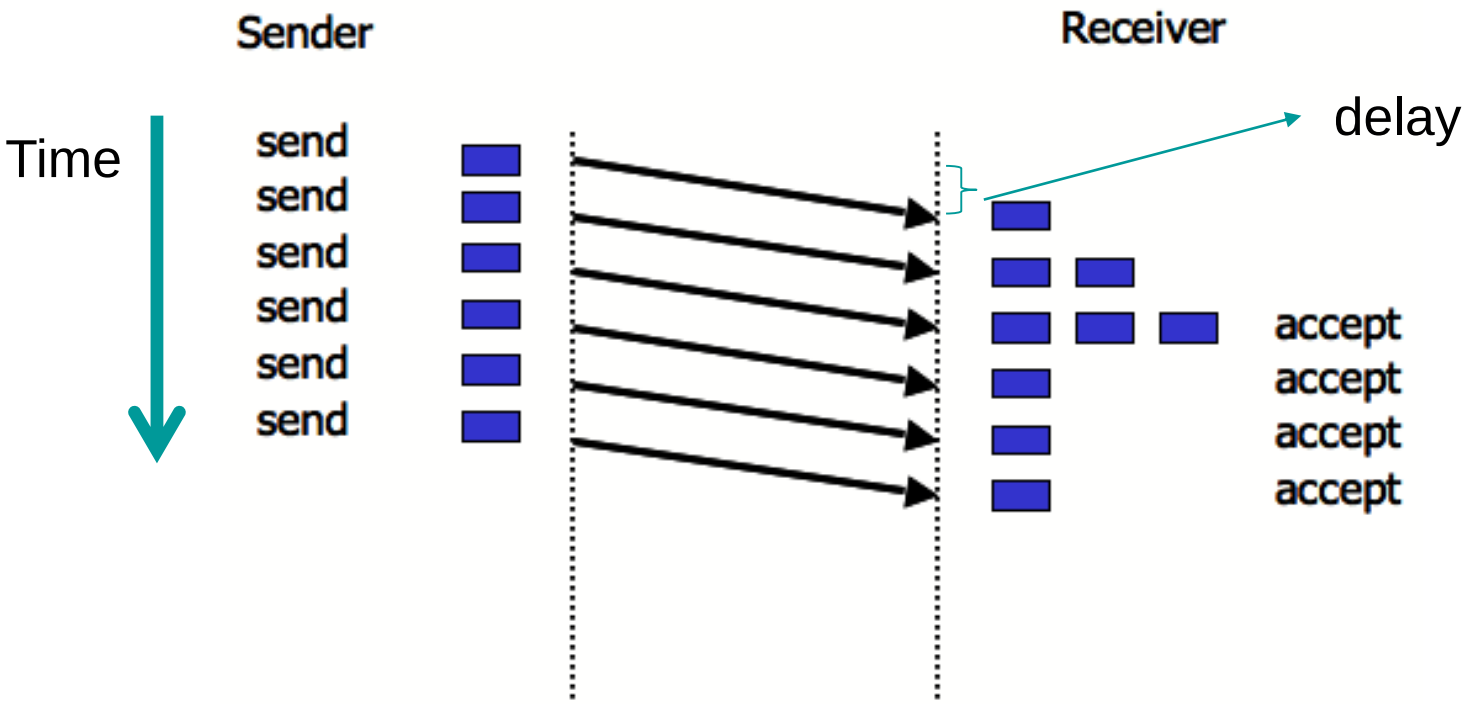
Reliability

- Each layer needs to make sure the service provided to other layers is reliable
- **Retransmission with error detection is a way of ensuring reliability**
- Error correction is another way but has its own shortcomings

Flow Control

- The **fast senders vs slow receivers problem requires a solution**
- Principles to control when sender can send next frame
  - **Feedback based flow control** (usually used in Data Link layer)
  - Rate based flow control

A Very Simple Protocol

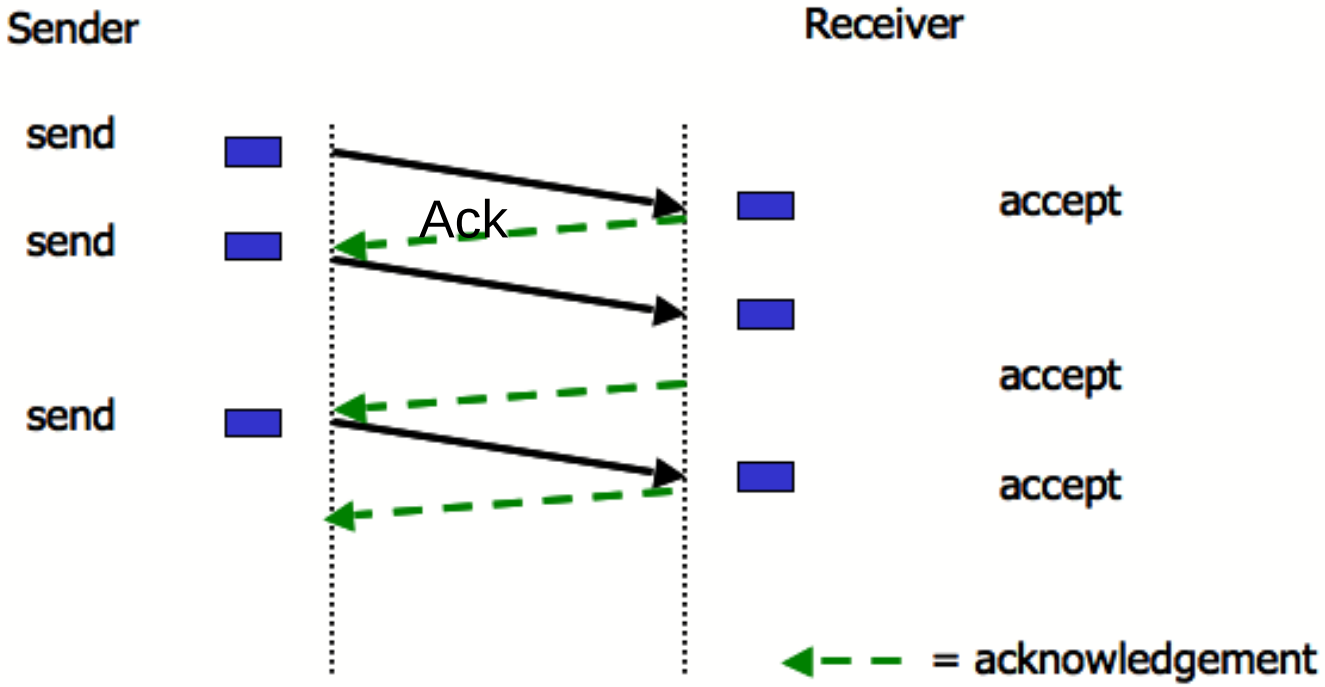


Acknowledged transmission

(**think: fast sender / slow receiver**)

Data transmitted in one direction

Time is relatively important, buffer space constrained

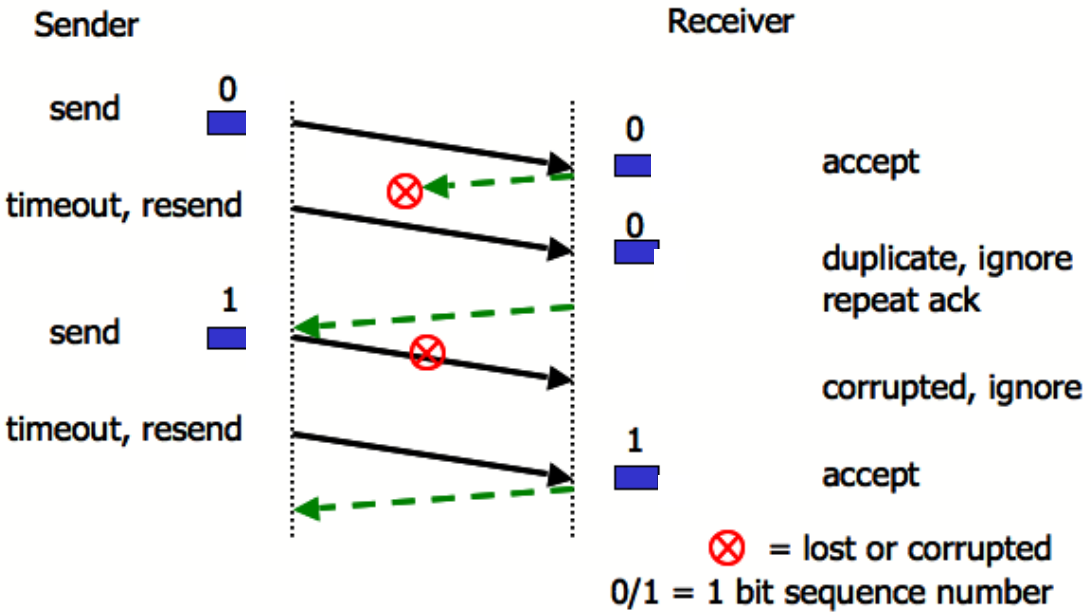


Noisy Channel Protocol

- Frames can be lost either entirely or partially
- Requires **distinction between frames already sent/received and those being re-transmitted**
- Requires ***timeout*** *function* to determine arrival or non-arrival of complete frames

Stop and Wait Protocol

- Concept of ARQ (Automatic Repeat reQuest)
  - Ack and Timeout
- Stop and Wait
  - One bit Ack



Link Utilization in Stop and Wait Protocols

Principle of efficiency in communication is measured by **Link Utilization (U)**.

Let **B** be the **bit-rate** of the link and **L** the **length of the frame**,

T_f= Time needed to transmit a frame of length L,

T_p= Propagation delay of the channel,

T_a= Time for transmitting an Ack,

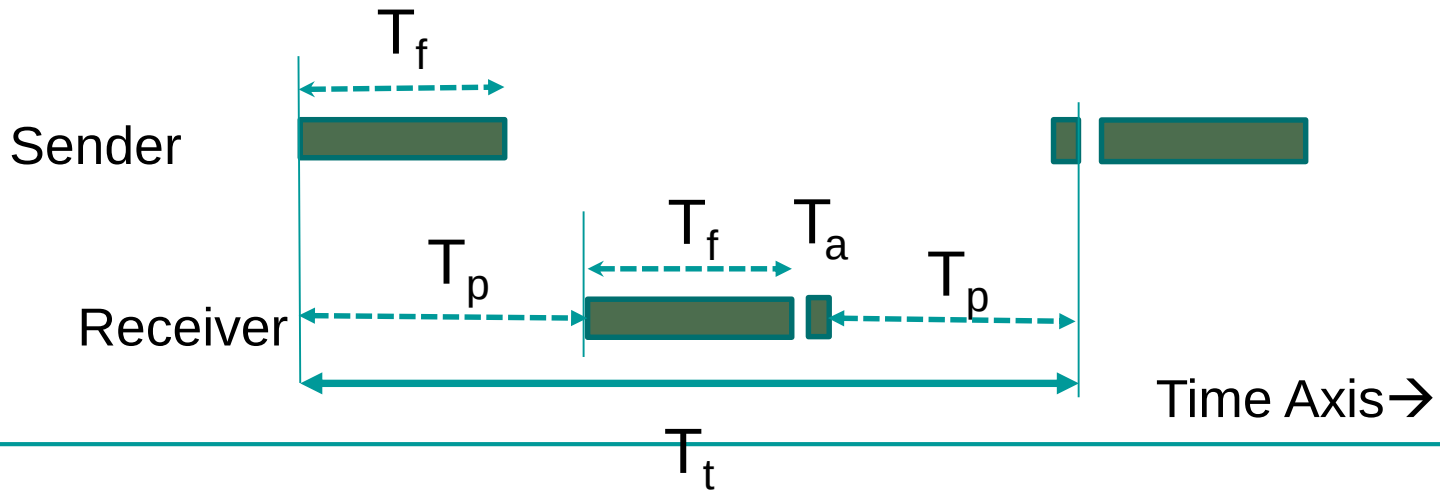
So we have $\mathbf{T_f = L/B}$. We can assume $\mathbf{T_a = 0}$. $\mathbf{T_t = T_f + 2T_p}$.

For example for a Link with B=1Mbps and T_p=50ms and frame size 10Kb:

U= 10000/(10000+0.1* 10^6)=1/11;

U = (Time of transmitting a frame)/(Total time for the transfer) = T_f/T_t

We have $U = T_f / (T_f + 2T_p) = (L/B) / (L/B + 2T_p) = L/ (L+ 2T_p B)$.

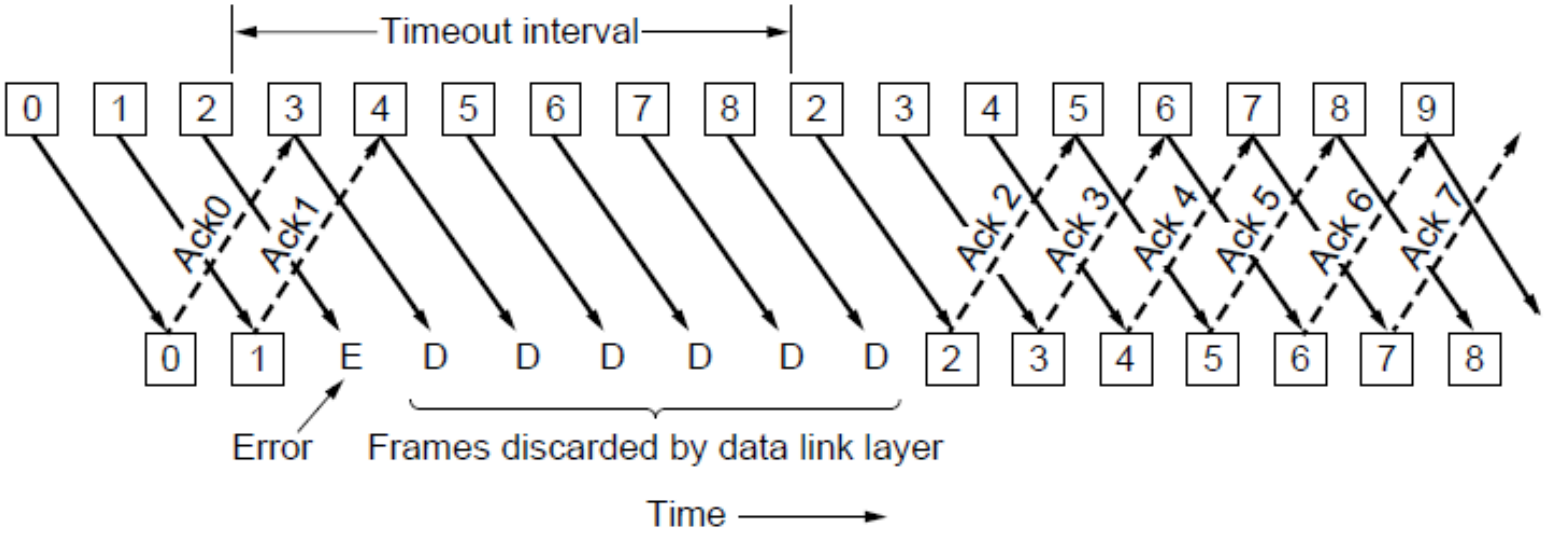


Sliding Window Protocols

- Data is commonly transmitted in both directions simultaneously
- Sender maintains a set of sequence numbers corresponding to frames allowed to send (within the “sending window”)
- Receiver maintains a set of sequence numbers corresponding to frames allowed to accept (within the “receiving window”)
- Stop and Wait can be seen as a special case with window size 1

Protocol Using Go-Back-N

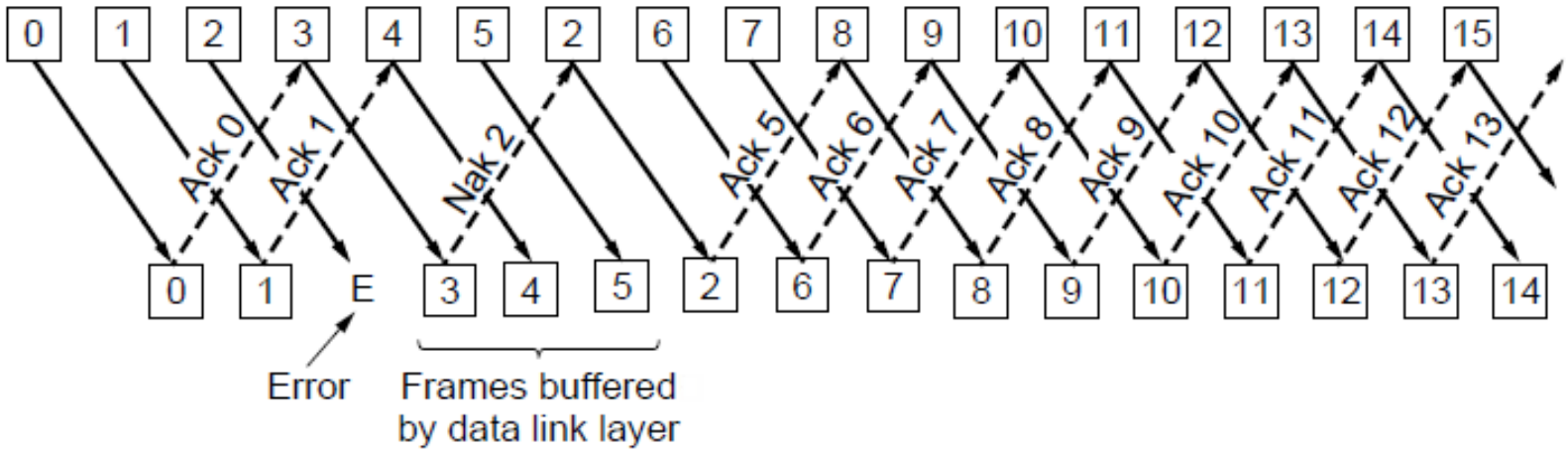
- Long transmission times need to be taken into account when programming timeouts e.g., low bandwidth or long distance
- Senders don't need to wait for acknowledgement for each frame before sending next frame



Receiver window size =1, Sender window size is N

Selective Repeat

- Receiver accepts frames anywhere in receive window
  - Cumulative ack indicates highest in-order frame
  - NAK (negative ack) causes sender retransmission of a missing frame before a timeout resends window

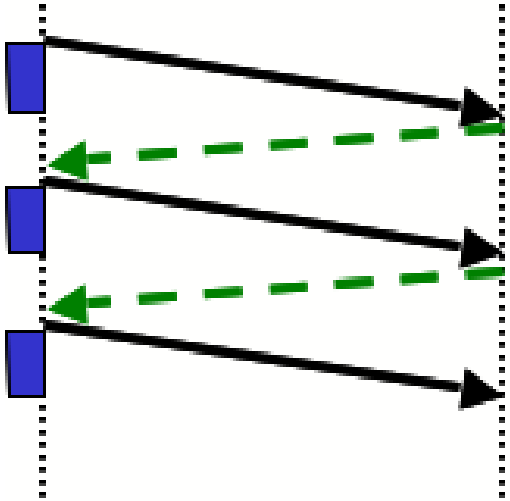


Go-Back-N vs Selective Repeat

- Go-Back-N: receiver discards all subsequent frames from error point, sending no acknowledgement, until the next frame in sequence
- Selective Repeat: receiver buffers good frames after an error point, and relies on sender to resend oldest unacknowledged frames
- Trade-off between efficient use of bandwidth and data link layer buffer space

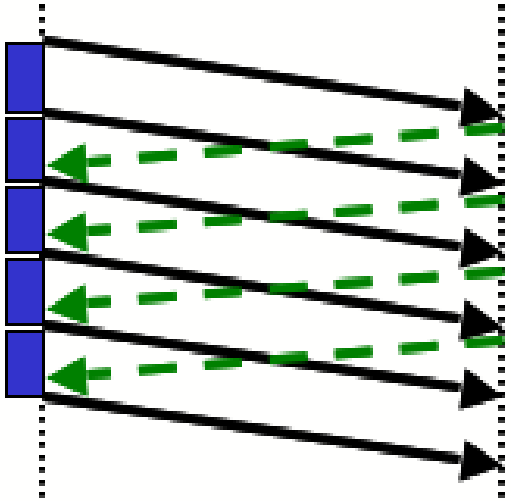
Link Efficiency

Stop and Wait



50% utilisation

Sliding Window



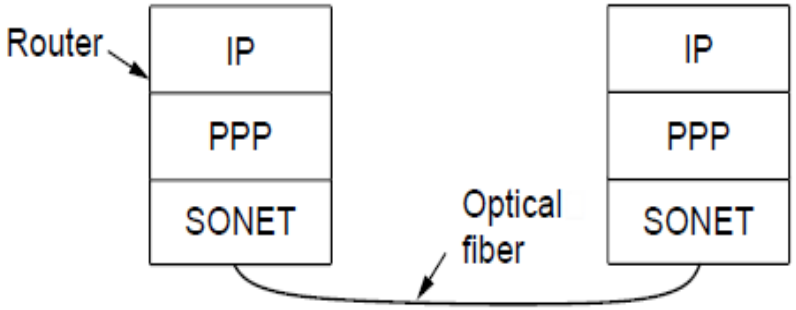
100% utilisation

Example Data Link Protocols

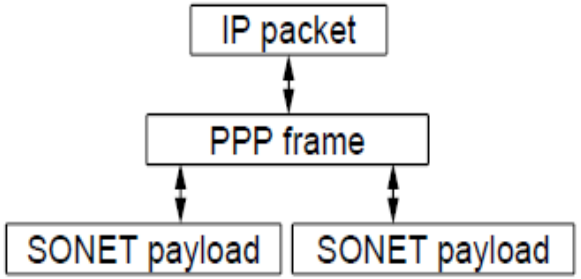
- Packet over SONET
- PPP (Point-to-Point Protocol)
- ADSL (Asymmetric Digital Subscriber Loop)

Packet over SONET

- Packet over SONET is the method used to carry IP packets over SONET optical fiber links
- Uses PPP (Point-to-Point Protocol) for framing



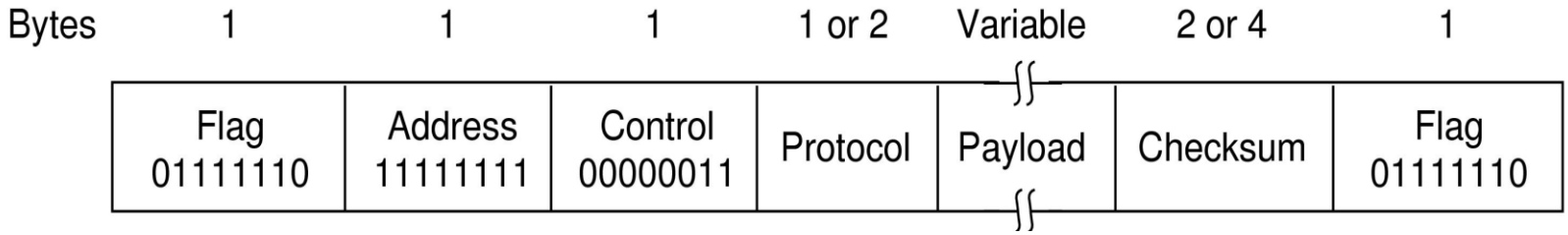
Protocol stacks



PPP frames may be split over SONET payloads

PPP

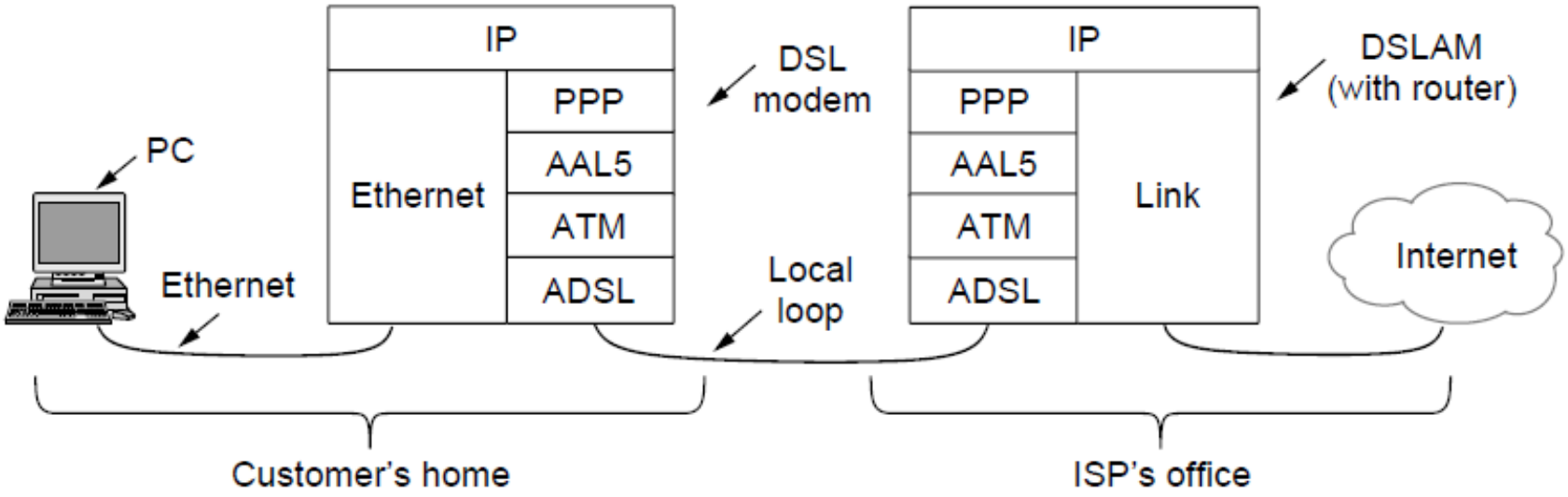
- PPP (Point-to-Point Protocol) is a general method for delivering packets across links
  - Framing uses a flag (0x7E) and byte stuffing
  - “Unnumbered mode” (connectionless unacknowledged service) is used
  - Errors are detected with a checksum



0x21 for IPv4IP packet

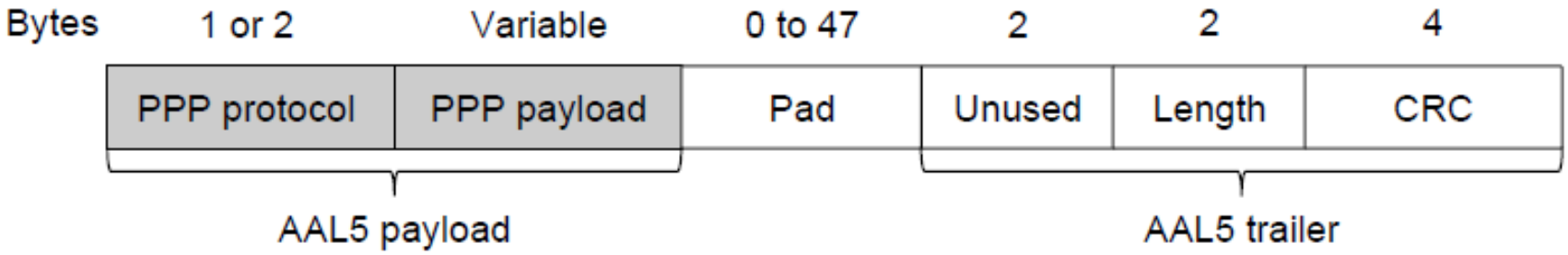
ADSL

- Widely used for broadband Internet over local loops
  - ADSL runs from modem (customer) to DSLAM (ISP)
  - IP packets are sent over PPP and AAL5/ATM (over)



ADSL

- PPP data is sent in AAL5 frames over ATM cells:
  - ATM is a link layer that uses short, fixed-size cells (53 bytes); each cell has a virtual circuit identifier
  - AAL5 is a format to send packets over ATM
  - PPP frame is converted to a AAL5 frame (PPPoA)



AAL5 frame is divided into 48-byte pieces, each of which goes into one ATM cell with 5-byte header