Computer Communication Networks

Link Layer

IECE / ICSI 416– Spring 2020

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Link layer and LANs

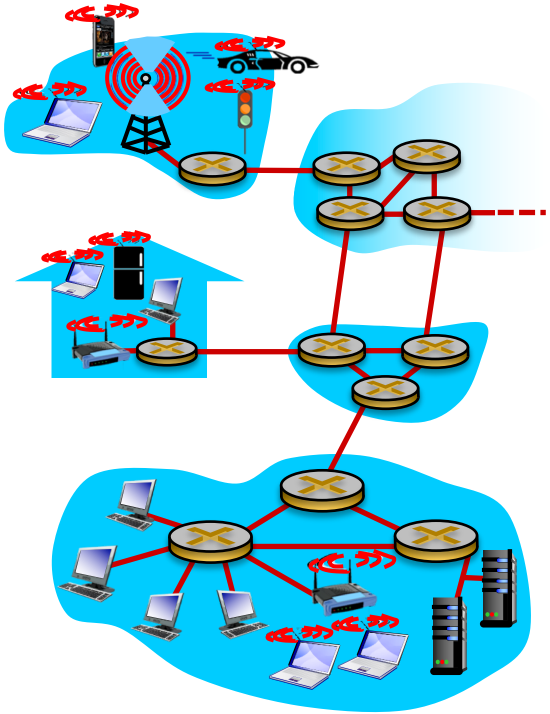
our goals:

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

Link layer: introduction

terminology:

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



data-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., Ethernet on first link, frame relay on intermediate links, 802.11 on last link
- each link protocol provides different services
  - e.g., may or may not provide rdt over link

transportation analogy:

- trip from Albany to San Francisco
  - uber: Albany Home to ALB
  - plane1: ALB to PHL
  - plane2: PHL to SFO
  - train (BART): SFO to train station
  - walk: train station to Hotel
- 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 used in frame headers to identify source, destination
    - different from IP address!

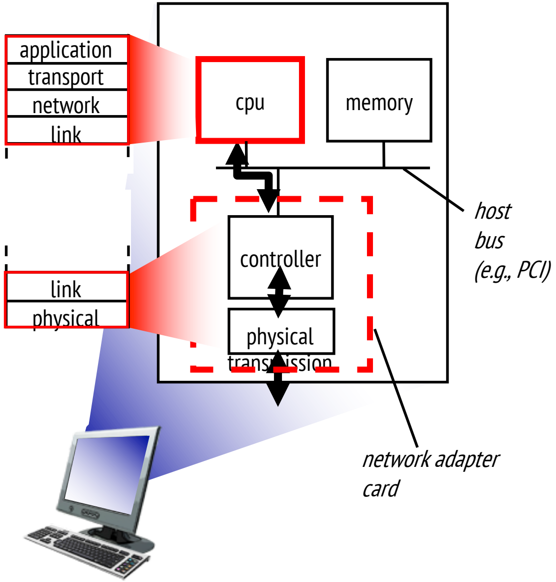
- *reliable delivery between adjacent nodes*
  - we learned how to do this already (RTP)!
  - seldom used on low bit-error link (fiber, some twisted pair)
  - wireless links: high error rates
    - *Q:* why both link-level and end-end reliability?

Link layer services (more)

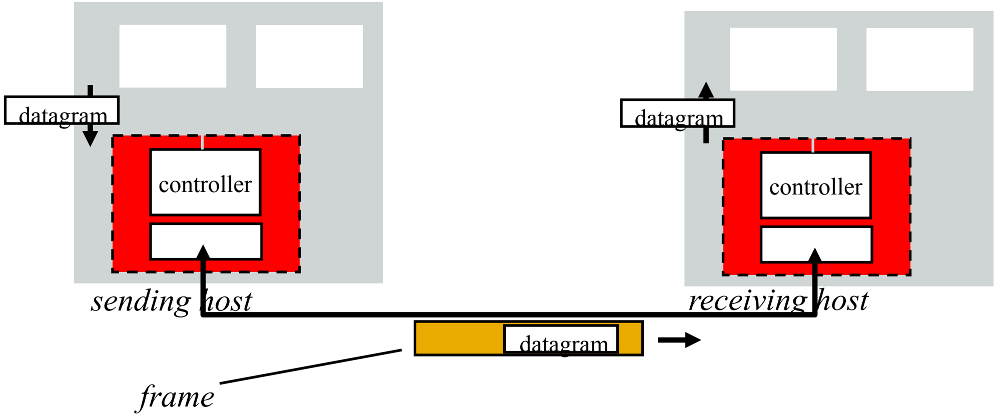
- ***flow control:***
  - pacing between adjacent sending and receiving nodes
- ***error detection:***
  - errors caused by signal attenuation, noise.
  - receiver detects presence of errors:
    - signals sender for retransmission or drops frame
- ***error correction:***
  - receiver identifies *and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

Where is the link layer implemented?

- in each and every host
- link layer implemented in "adaptor" (aka *network interface card* NIC) or on a chip
  - Ethernet card, 802.11 card; Ethernet chipset
  - implements link, physical layer
- attaches into host's system buses
- combination of hardware, software, firmware



Adaptors communicating

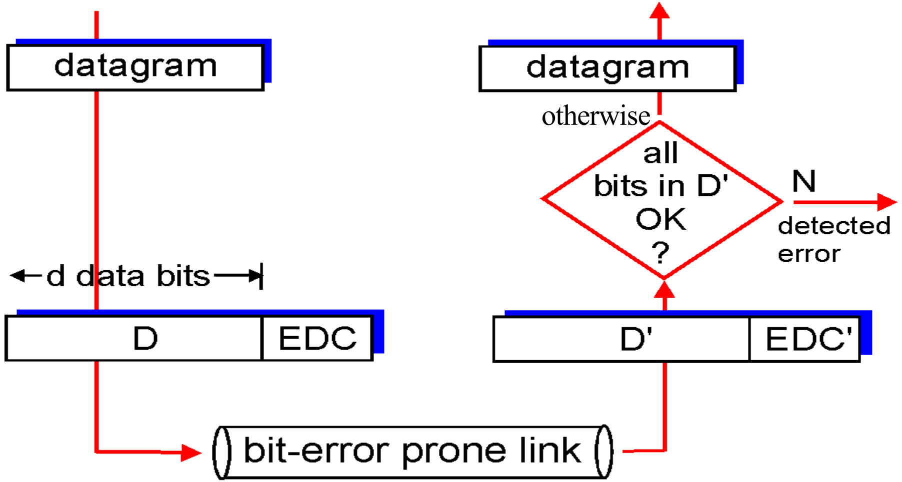


- sending side:
  - encapsulates datagram in frame
  - adds error checking bits, rdt, flow control, etc.
- receiving side:
  - looks for errors, rdt, flow control, etc.
  - extracts datagram, passes to upper layer at receiving side

Error detection

EDC= Error Detection and Correction bits (redundancy)
D = Data protected by error checking, may include header fields

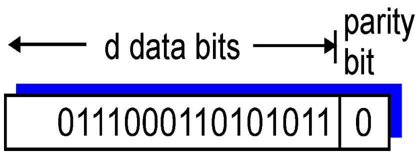
- Error detection not 100% reliable!
  - protocol may miss some errors, but rarely
  - larger EDC field yields better detection and correction



Parity checking

single bit parity:

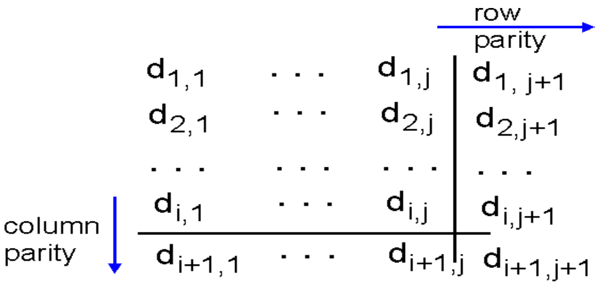
- *d*etect single bit errors



- **Even parity**
  - Total number of (d+1) 1's is even
- **Odd parity**
  - Total number of (d+1) 1's is odd

two-dimensional bit parity:

- detect and correct single bit errors



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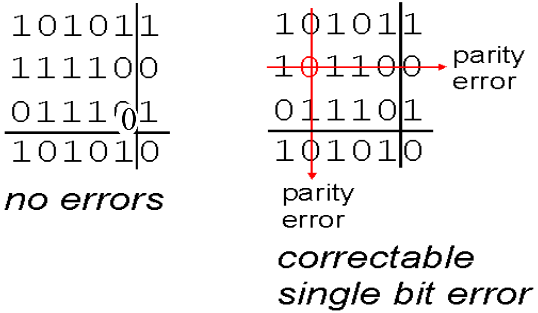


Internet checksum (review)

goal: detect "errors" (e.g., flipped bits) in transmitted packet (note: used at transport layer only)

sender:

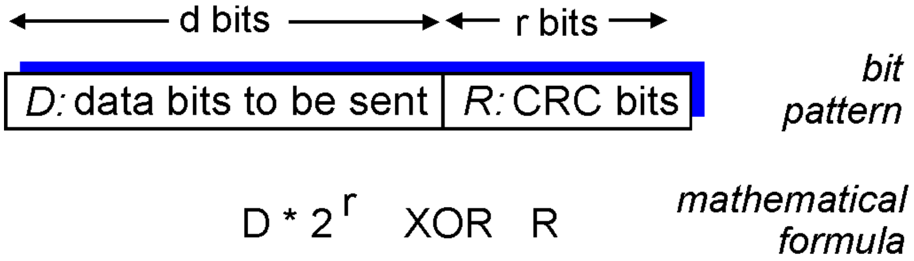
- treat segment contents as sequence of 16-bit integers
- checksum: addition (1's complement sum) of segment contents
- sender puts checksum value into UDP checksum field

receiver:

- compute checksum of received segment
- check if computed checksum equals checksum field value:
  - NO - error detected
  - YES - no error detected. *But maybe errors nonetheless?*

Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC)

- more powerful error-detection coding
- view data bits, D, as a binary number
- choose r+1 bit pattern (generator), G
- goal: choose r CRC bits, R, such that
  - <D,R> exactly divisible by G (modulo 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, ATM)



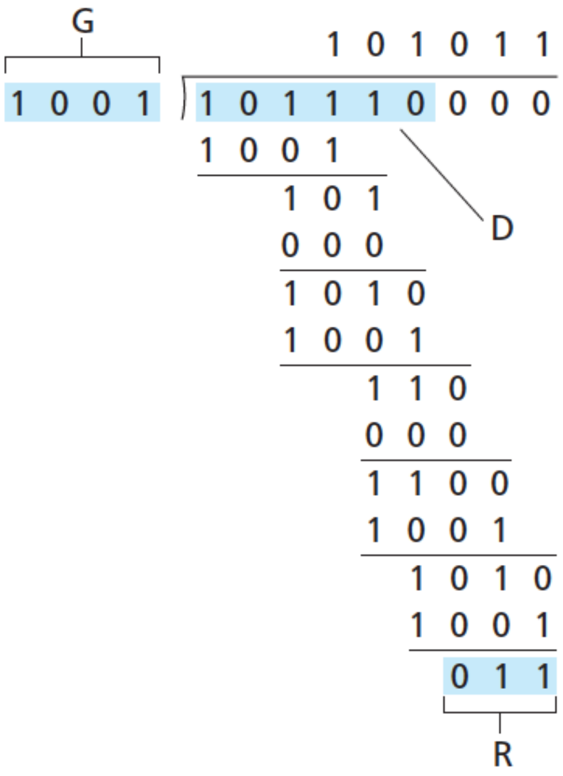
Modulo 2 Arithmetic

- CRC Calculations are done in modulo-2 arithmetic.
  - Without carries and borrows in addition and subtraction
- Addition & Subtraction are identical and equivalent to bitwise XOR.
- Multiplication and division are same as in base-2 arithmetic.

CRC Example

- want:
  - $D.2^r$ XOR R = nG
- equivalently:
  - $D.2^r$ = nG XOR R
- equivalently:
  - if we divide D.2r by G, we want remainder R to satisfy:

$$R = remainder \frac{D.2^r}{G}$$



Classwork

- Consider the 5-bit generator, G=10011. Suppose D has a value of 1010101010. What is the value of R?

Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC)

- Six generator polynomials that have become international standards are:
  - CRC-8 = x^8+x^2+x+1
  - CRC-10 = $x^{10}+x^9+x^5+x^4+x+1$
  - CRC-12 = $x^{12}+x^{11}+x^3+x^2+x+1$
  - CRC-16 = $x^{16}+x^{15}+x^2+1$
  - CRC-CCITT = $x^{16}+x^{12}+x^5+1$
  - CRC-32 = $x^{32}+x^{26}+x^{23}+x^{22}+x^{16}+x^{12}+x^{11}+x^{10}+x^8+x^7+x^5+x^4+x^2+x+1$

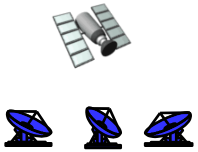
Multiple access links, protocols

two types of "links":

- point-to-point
  - PPP for dial-up access
  - point-to-point link between Ethernet switch, host
- *broadcast (shared wire or medium)*
  - old-fashioned Ethernet
  - upstream HFC
  - 802.11 wireless LAN

shared wire (e.g., cabled Ethernet)

shared RF (e.g., 802.11 WiFi)



shared RF (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: broadcast channel of rate R bps

desired:

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

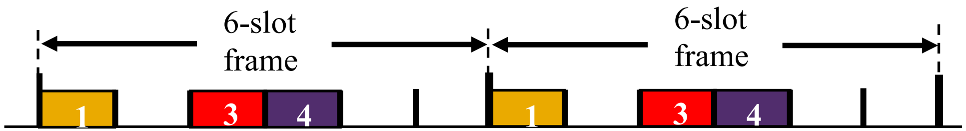
three broad classes:

- *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

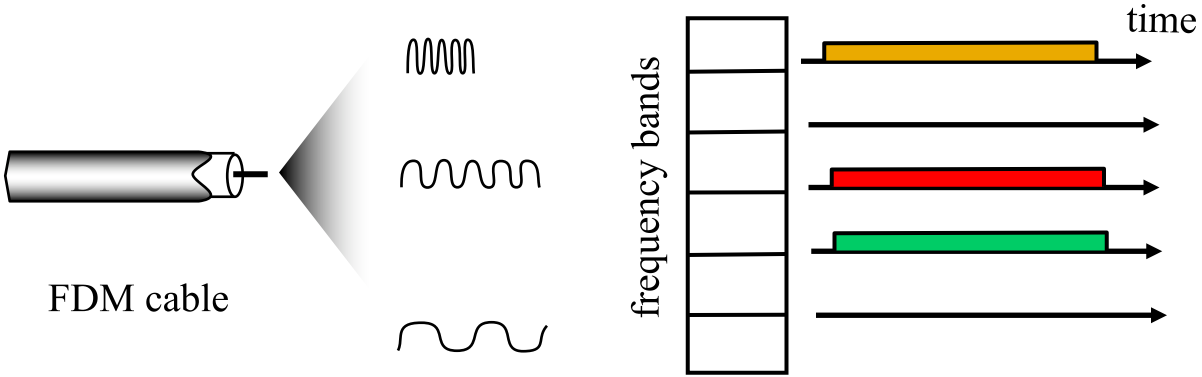
- access to channel in "rounds"
- each station gets fixed length slot (length = packet transmission time) in each round
- unused slots go idle
- example: 6-station LAN, 1,3,4 have packets to send, slots 2,5,6 idle



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



Code Division Multiple Access

- Each node has an unique code
- That code is used to encode the signal
- Multiple nodes can transmit simultaneously
- Receiver uses the code to decode the signal
- Uses:
  - Military, 3G

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 MAC protocol specifies:
  - how to *detect* collisions
  - how to *recover* from collisions (e.g., via delayed retransmissions)

- examples of random access MAC protocols:
  - slotted ALOHA
  - ALOHA
  - CSMA, CSMA/CD, CSMA/CA

Slotted ALOHA

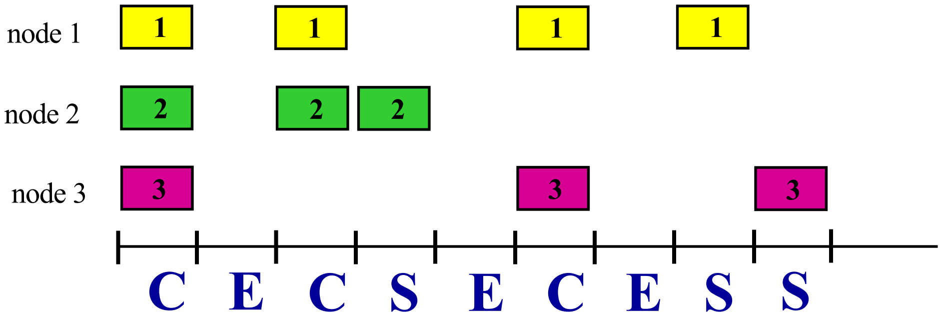
assumptions:

- 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

Slotted ALOHA



C, E, S:
Collision, Empty, Success

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: efficiency

- *suppose: N* nodes with many frames to send, each transmits in slot with probability *p*
- prob that given node has success in a slot $= p(1-p)^{N-1}$
- prob that *any* node has a success = $Np(1-p)^{N-1}$

- max efficiency: find p^* that maximizes $Np(1-p)^{N-1}$
- for many nodes, take limit of $Np^*(1-p^*)^{N-1}$ as N goes to infinity, gives:

max efficiency = 1/e = .37

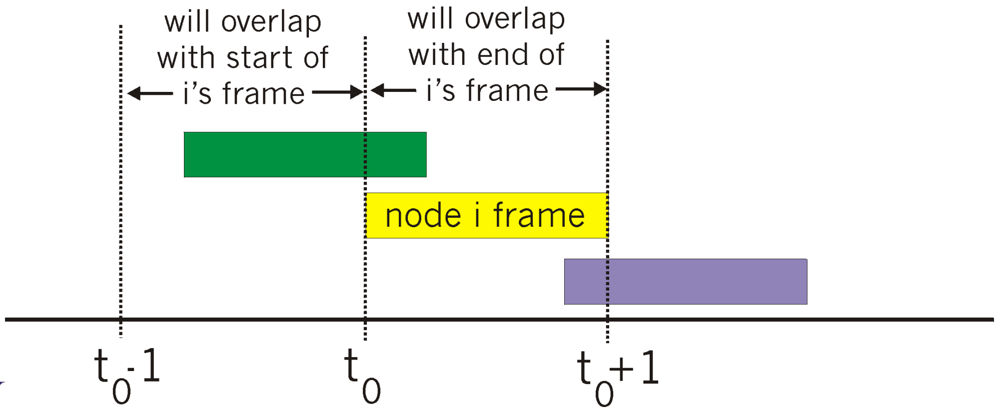
efficiency: long-run fraction of successful slots (many nodes, all with many frames to send)

at best: channel used for useful transmissions 37% of time!

!

Pure (unslotted) ALOHA

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



Pure ALOHA efficiency

P(success by given node) = P(node transmits) ·

P(no other node transmits in $[t_0\text{-}1, t_0]$ ·

P(no other node transmits in $[t_0, t_0\text{+}1]$

$$= p \cdot (1-p)^{N-1} \cdot (1-p)^{N-1}$$

$$= p \cdot (1-p)^{2(N-1)}$$

… choosing optimum p and then letting *n* $\rightarrow \infty$

$$= 1/(2e) = .18$$

even *worse* than slotted Aloha!