



CS4700/5700: Network fundamentals

Data link layer.

From Signals to Packets

Analog Signal



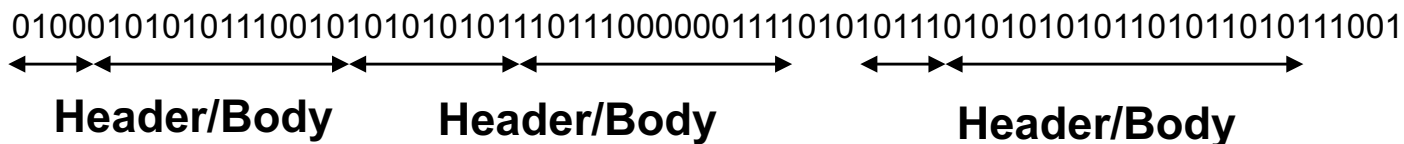
“Digital” Signal



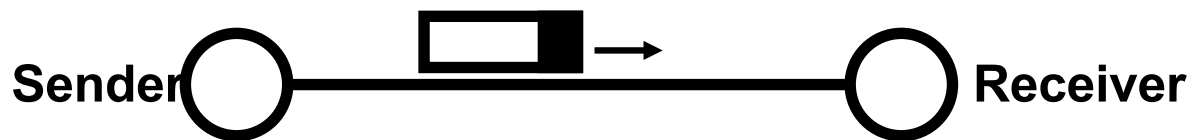
Bit Stream

0 0 1 0 1 1 1 0 0 0 1

Packets



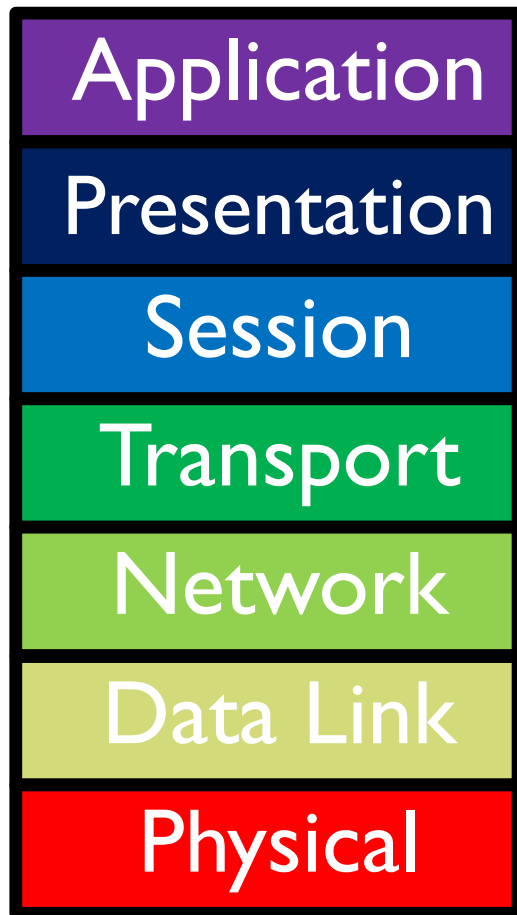
Packet Transmission





1: Framing

Data Link Layer



- ▶ **Function:**

- ▶ Send blocks of data (frames) between physical devices
- ▶ Regulate access to the physical media

- ▶ **Key challenge:**

- ▶ How to delineate frames?
- ▶ How to detect errors?
- ▶ How to perform media access control (MAC)?
- ▶ How to recover from and avoid collisions?

Framing

- ▶ Physical layer determines how bits are encoded
- ▶ Next step, how to encode blocks of data
 - ▶ Packet switched networks
 - ▶ Each packet includes routing information
 - ▶ Data boundaries must be known so headers can be read
- ▶ Types of framing
 - ▶ Byte oriented protocols
 - ▶ Bit oriented protocols
 - ▶ Clock based protocols

Byte Oriented: Sentinel Approach



- ▶ Add **START** and **END** sentinels to the data
- ▶ Problem: what if **END** appears in the data?
 - ▶ Add a special **DLE** (Data Link Escape) character before **END**
 - ▶ What if **DLE** appears in the data? Add **DLE** before it.
 - ▶ Similar to escape sequences in C
 - ▶ `printf("You must \"escape\" quotes in strings");`
 - ▶ `printf("You must \\escape\\ forward slashes as well");`
- ▶ Used by Point-to-Point protocol, e.g. modem, DSL, cellular

Byte Oriented: Byte Counting



- ▶ Sender: insert length of the data in bytes at the beginning of each frame
- ▶ Receiver: extract the length and read that many bytes

Bit Oriented: Bit Stuffing

01111110

Data

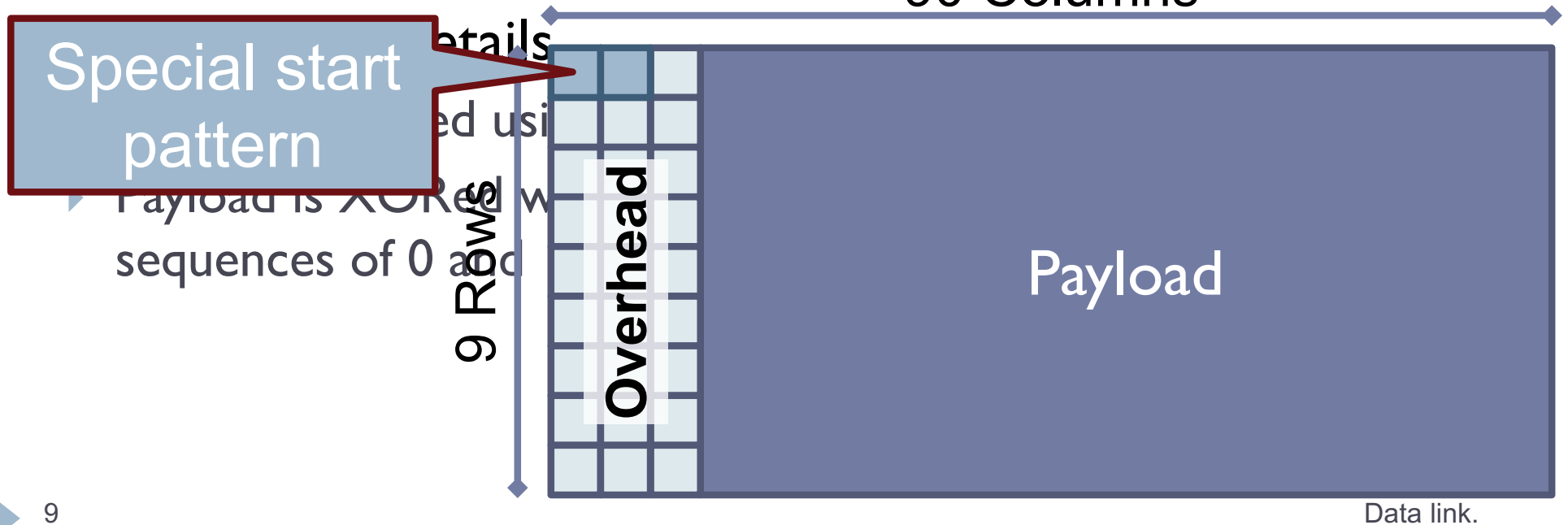
01111110

- ▶ Add sentinels to the start and end of data
 - ▶ Both sentinels are the same
 - ▶ Example: 01111110 in High-level Data Link Protocol (HDLC)
- ▶ Sender: insert a 0 after each 1111 in data
 - ▶ Known as “bit stuffing”
- ▶ Receiver: after seeing 1111 in the data...
 - ▶ 11110 → remove the 0 (it was stuffed)
 - ▶ 11111 → look at one more bit
 - ▶ 111110 → end of frame
 - ▶ 111111 → error! Discard the frame
- ▶ Disadvantage: 20% overhead at worst

Clock-based Framing: SONET

- ▶ **Synchronous Optical Network**

- ▶ Transmission over very fast optical links
- ▶ STS- n , e.g. STS-1: 51.84 Mbps, STS-768: 36.7 Gbps
- ▶ STS-1 frames based on fixed sized frames
 - ▶ $9 \times 90 = 810$ bytes





2: Error checking

Dealing with Noise

- ▶ **The physical world is inherently noisy**
 - ▶ Interference from electrical cables
 - ▶ Cross-talk from radio transmissions, microwave ovens
 - ▶ Solar storms
- ▶ **How to detect bit-errors in transmissions?**
- ▶ **How to recover from errors?**

Naïve Error Detection


- ▶ **Idea: send two copies of each frame**
 - ▶ `if (memcmp(frame1, frame2) != 0) { OH NOES, AN ERROR! }`
- ▶ **Why is this a bad idea?**
 - ▶ Extremely high overhead
 - ▶ Poor protection against errors
 - ▶ Twice the data means twice the chance for bit errors

Parity Bits

- Idea: add extra bits to keep the number of 1s **even**
 - ▣ Example: 7-bit ASCII characters + 1 parity bit

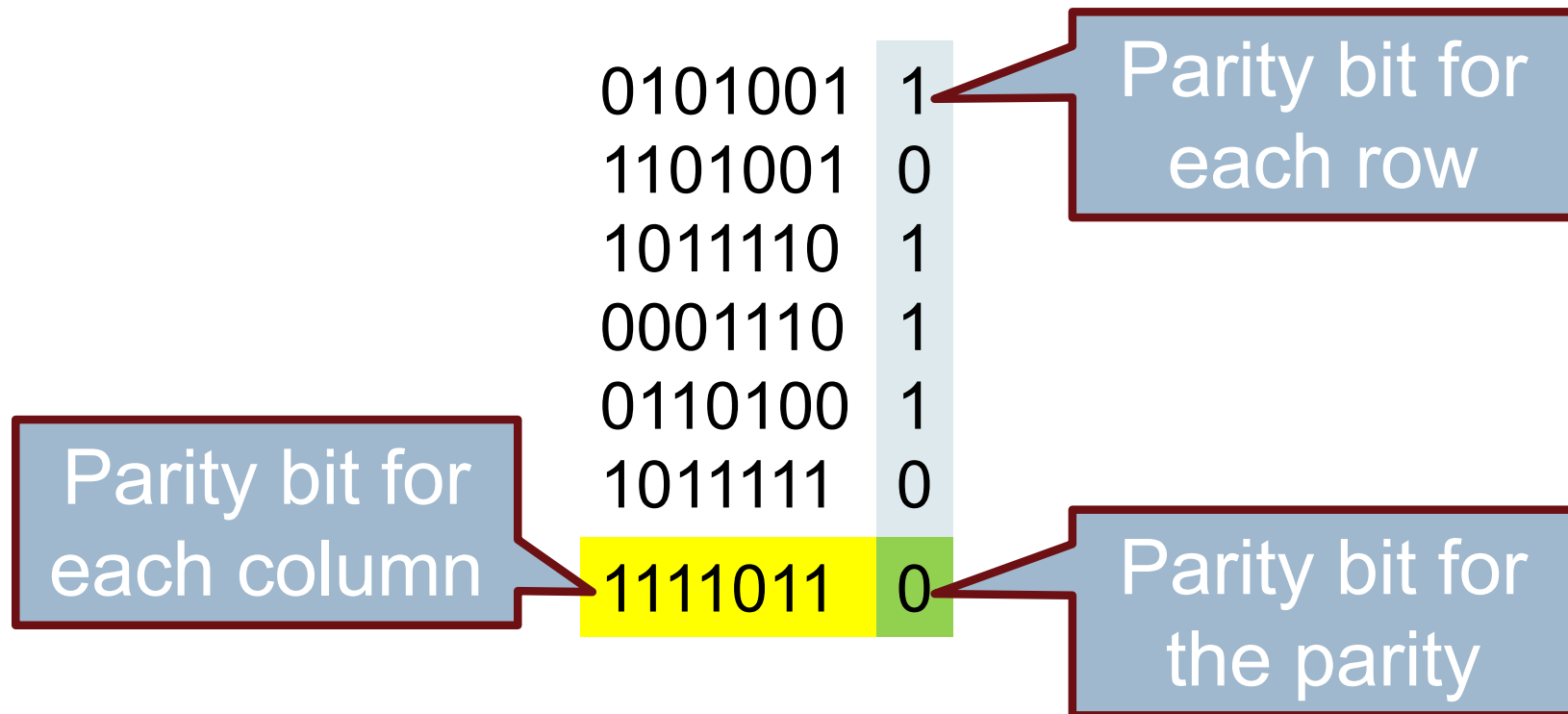
0101001 1 1101001 0 1011110 1 0001110 1 0110100 1

10



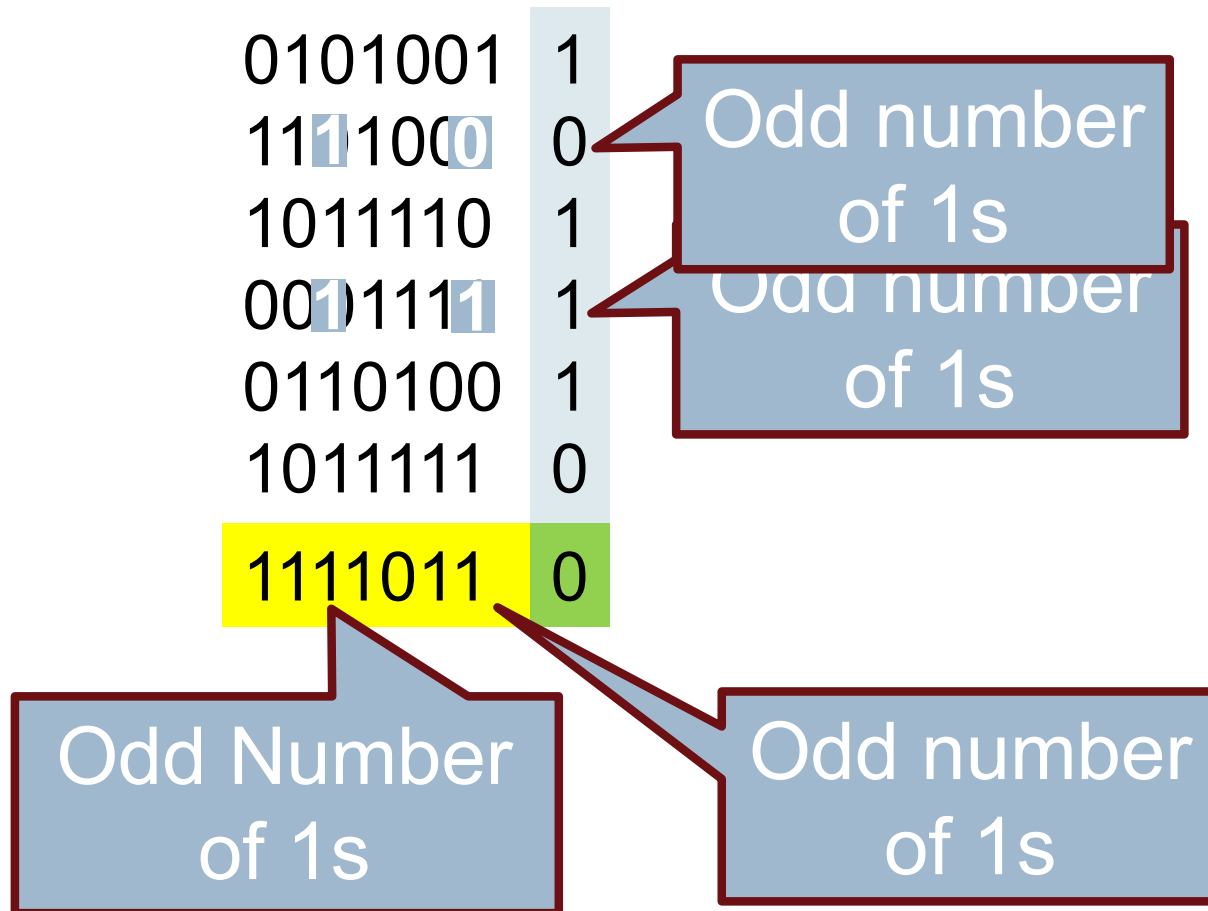
- ▶ Detects 1-bit errors and some 2-bit errors
- ▶ Not reliable against bursty errors

Two Dimensional Parity



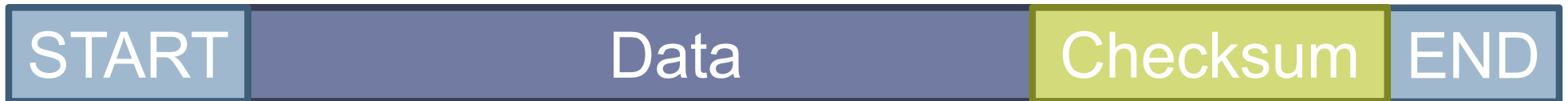
- ▶ Can detect all 1-, 2-, and 3-bit errors, some 4-bit errors
- ▶ 14% overhead

Two Dimensional Parity Examples



Checksums

- ▶ **Idea:**
 - ▶ Add up the bytes in the data
 - ▶ Include the sum in the frame



- ▶ Use ones-complement arithmetic
- ▶ Lower overhead than parity: 16 bits per frame
- ▶ But, not resilient to errors
 - ▶ Why?
- ▶ Used in UDP, TCP, and IP

▶ 16 1 101001 + 0 101001 = 10010010

Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC)

- ▶ Uses field theory to compute a semi-unique value for a given message
- ▶ Much better performance than previous approaches
 - ▶ Fixed size overhead per frame (usually 32-bits)
 - ▶ Quick to implement in hardware
 - ▶ Only 1 in 2^{32} chance of missing an error with 32-bit CRC
- ▶ Details are in the book/on Wikipedia

Should We Error Check in the Data Link?

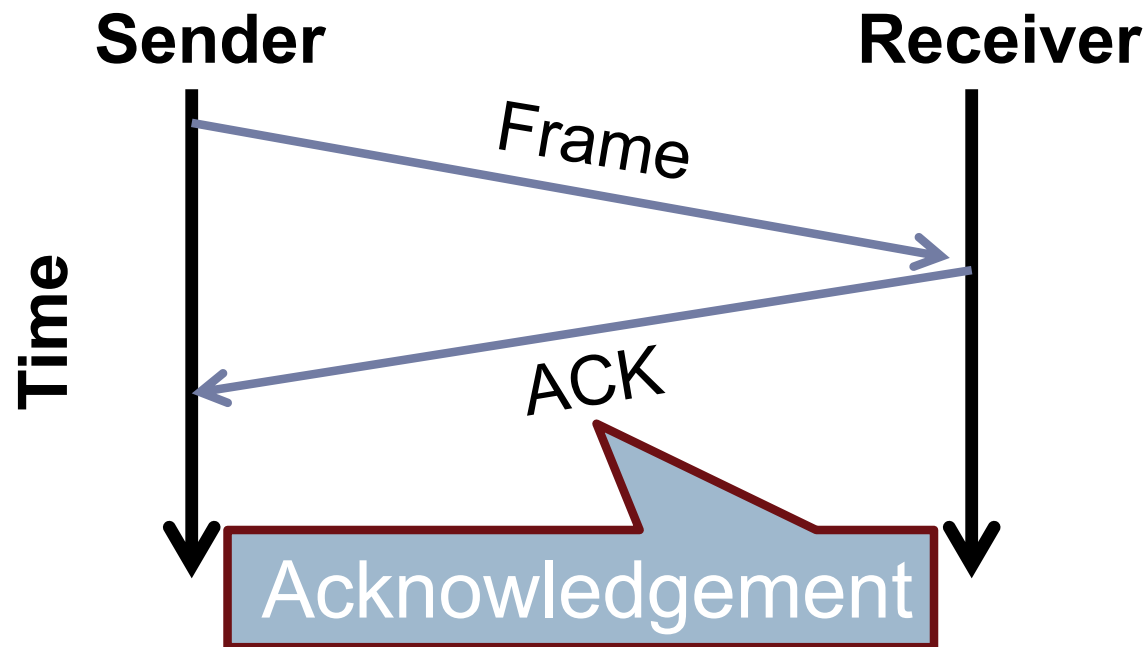
- ▶ **Recall the End-to-End Argument**
- ▶ **Cons:**
 - ▶ Error free transmission cannot be guaranteed
 - ▶ Not all applications want this functionality
 - ▶ Error checking adds CPU and packet size overhead
 - ▶ Error recovery requires buffering
- ▶ **Pros:**
 - ▶ Potentially better performance than app-level error checking
- ▶ **Data link error checking in practice**
 - ▶ Most useful over lossy links
 - ▶ Wifi, cellular, satellite



3: Reliability

What About Reliability?

- ▶ How does a sender know that a frame was received?
 - ▶ What if it has errors?
 - ▶ What if it never arrives at all?

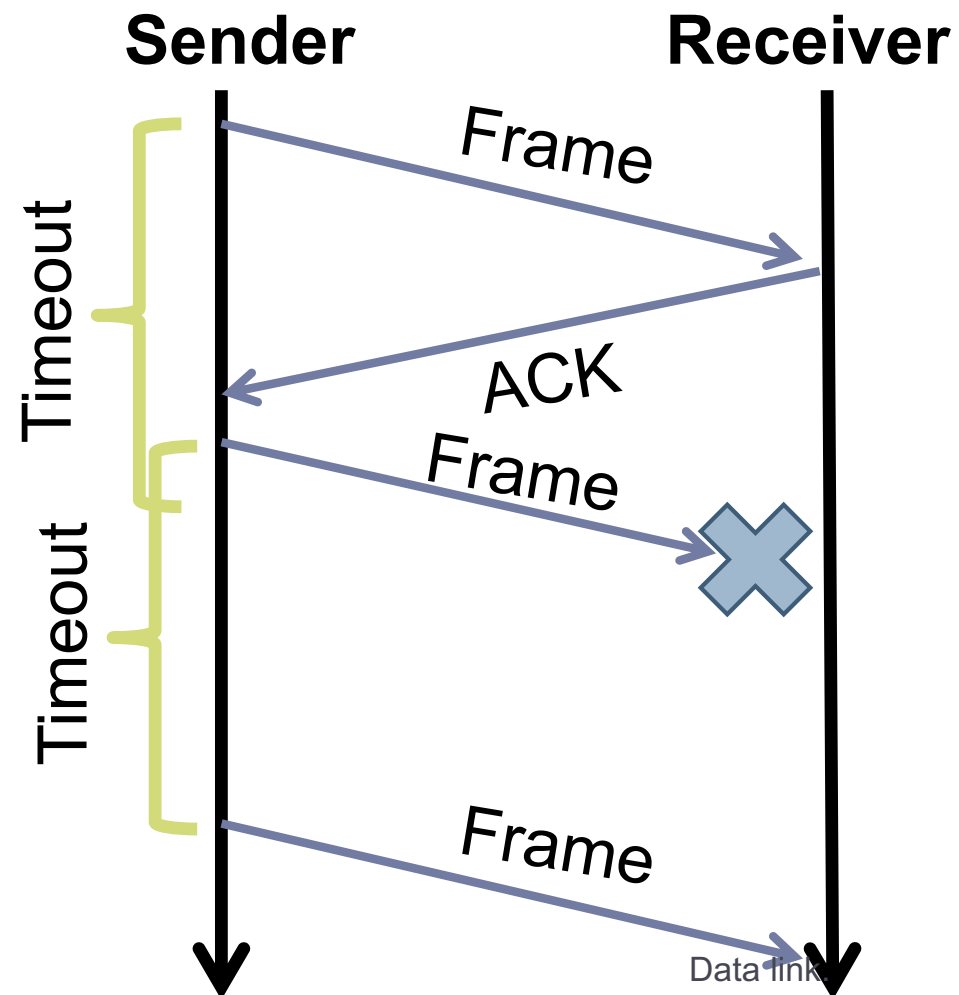


Stop and Wait

- ▶ Simplest form of reliability
- ▶ Example: Bluetooth
- ▶ Problems?
 - ▶ Utilization
 - ▶ Can only have one frame in flight at any time
- ▶ 10Gbps link and 10ms delay
 - ▶ Need 100 Mbit to fill the pipe
 - ▶ Assume packets are 1500B

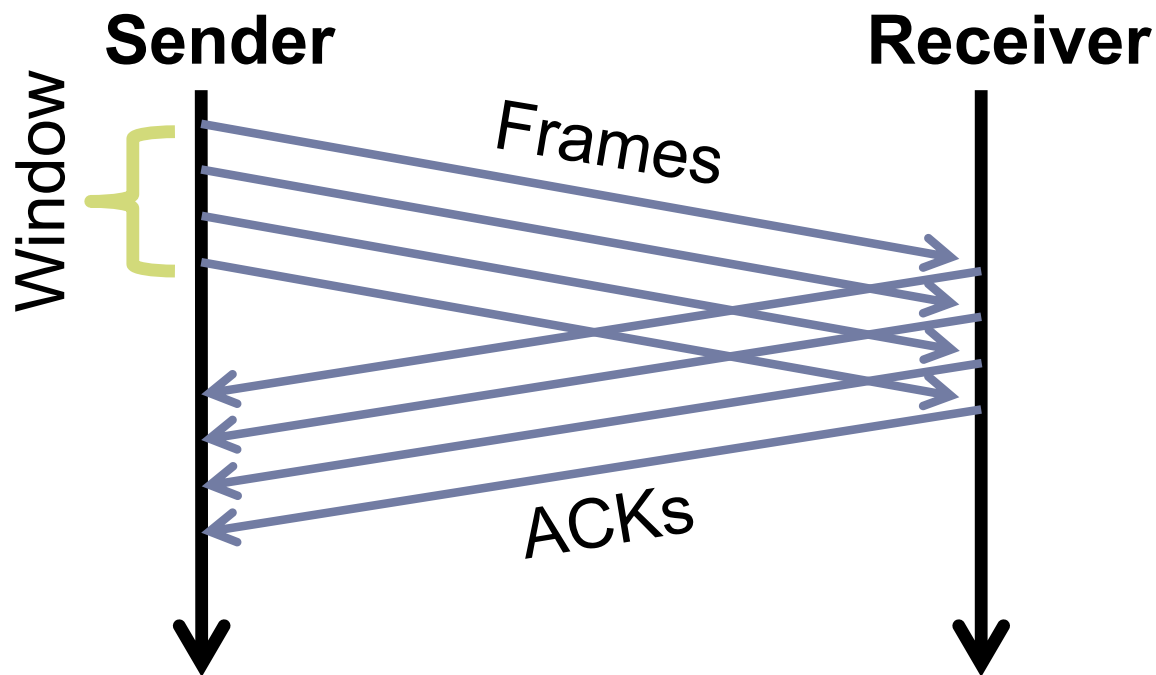
$$1500\text{B} * 8\text{bit} / (2 * 10\text{ms}) = 600\text{Kbps}$$

Utilization is 0.006%



Sliding Window

- ▶ Allow multiple outstanding, un-ACKed frames
- ▶ Number of un-ACKed frames is called the **window**



□ Made famous by TCP

▶ □²² We'll look at this in more detail later



2: Media access

What is Media Access?

- ▶ **Ethernet and Wifi are both multi-access technologies**
 - ▶ Broadcast medium, shared by many hosts
 - ▶ Simultaneous transmissions cause collisions
 - ▶ This destroys the data
- ▶ **Media Access Control (MAC) protocols are required**
 - ▶ Rules on how to share the medium
 - ▶ Strategies for detecting, avoiding, and recovering from collisions

Strategies for Media Access

- ▶ **Channel partitioning**

- ▶ Divide the resource into small pieces
- ▶ Allocate each piece to one host
- ▶ Example: Time Division Multi-Access (TDMA) cellular
- ▶ Example: Frequency Division Multi-Access (FDMA) cellular

- ▶ **Taking turns**

- ▶ Tightly coordinate shared access to avoid collisions
- ▶ Example: Token ring networks

- ▶ **Contention**

- ▶ Allow collisions, but use strategies to recover
- ▶ Examples: Ethernet, Wifi

Contention MAC Goals

- ▶ **Share the medium**
 - ▶ Two hosts sending at the same time collide, thus causing interference
 - ▶ If no host sends, channel is idle
 - ▶ Thus, want one user sending at any given time
- ▶ **High utilization**
 - ▶ TDMA is low utilization
 - ▶ Just like a circuit switched network
- ▶ **Simple, distributed algorithm**
 - ▶ Multiple hosts that cannot directly coordinate
 - ▶ No fancy (complicated) token-passing schemes

Contention Protocol Evolution

- ▶ **ALOHA**
 - ▶ Developed in the 70's for packet radio networks
- ▶ **Slotted ALOHA**
 - ▶ Start transmissions only at fixed time slots
 - ▶ Significantly fewer collisions than ALOHA
- ▶ **Carrier Sense Multiple Access (CSMA)**
 - ▶ Start transmission only if the channel is idle
- ▶ **CSMA / Collision Detection (CSMA/CD)**
 - ▶ Stop ongoing transmission if collision is detected

ALOHA

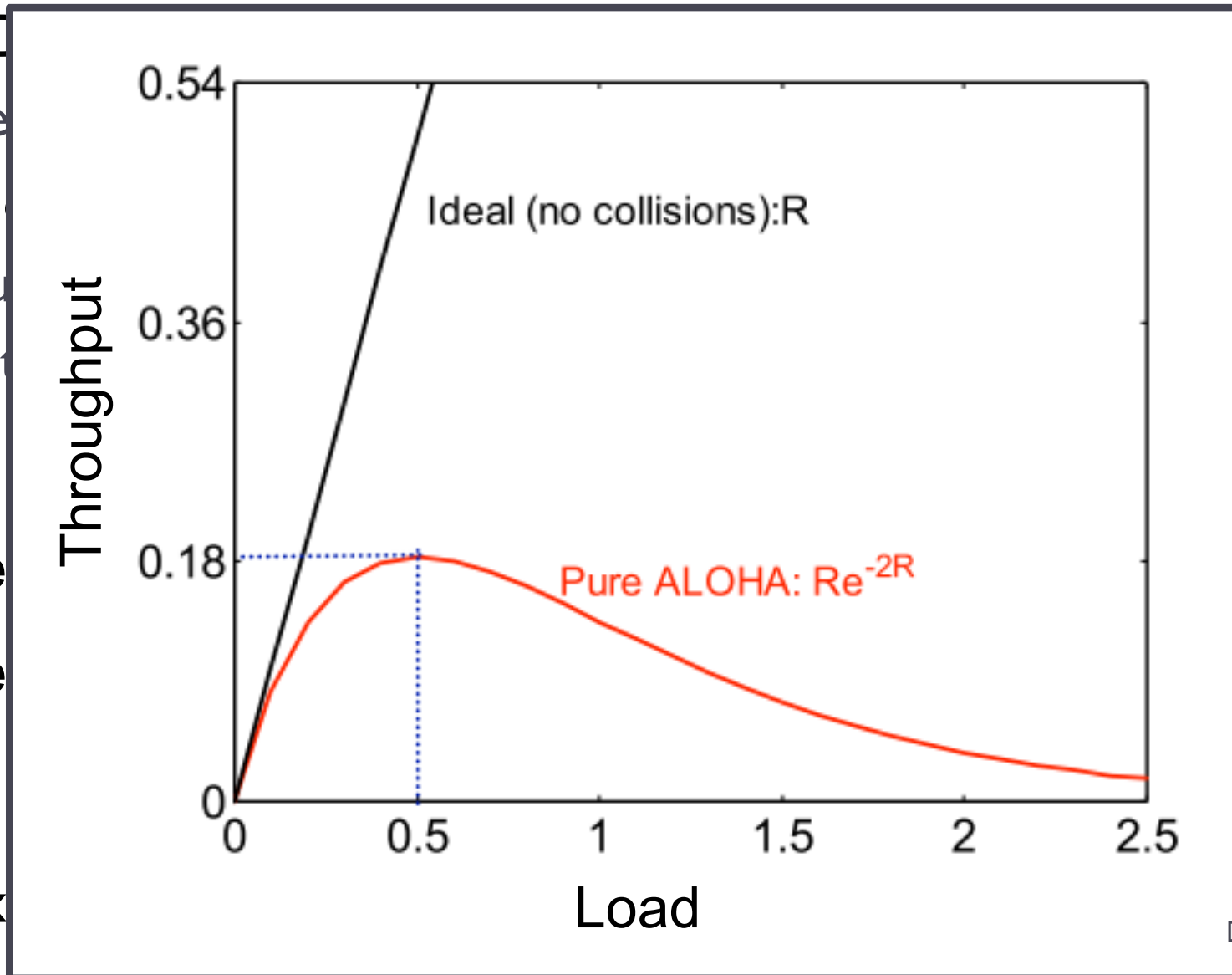
- ▶ **Topology:** radio broadcast with multiple stations
- ▶ **Protocol:**
 - ▶ Stations transmit data immediately
 - ▶ Receivers ACK all packets
 - ▶ No ACK = collision, wait a random time then retransmit

- Simple, but radical concept
- Previous attempts all divided the channel
 - TDMA, FDMA, etc.
- Optimized for the common case: few senders

Tradeoffs vs. TDMA

- ▶ In TDMA
- ▶ De
- ▶ In ALOHA
- ▶ Mu
- ▶ Bur

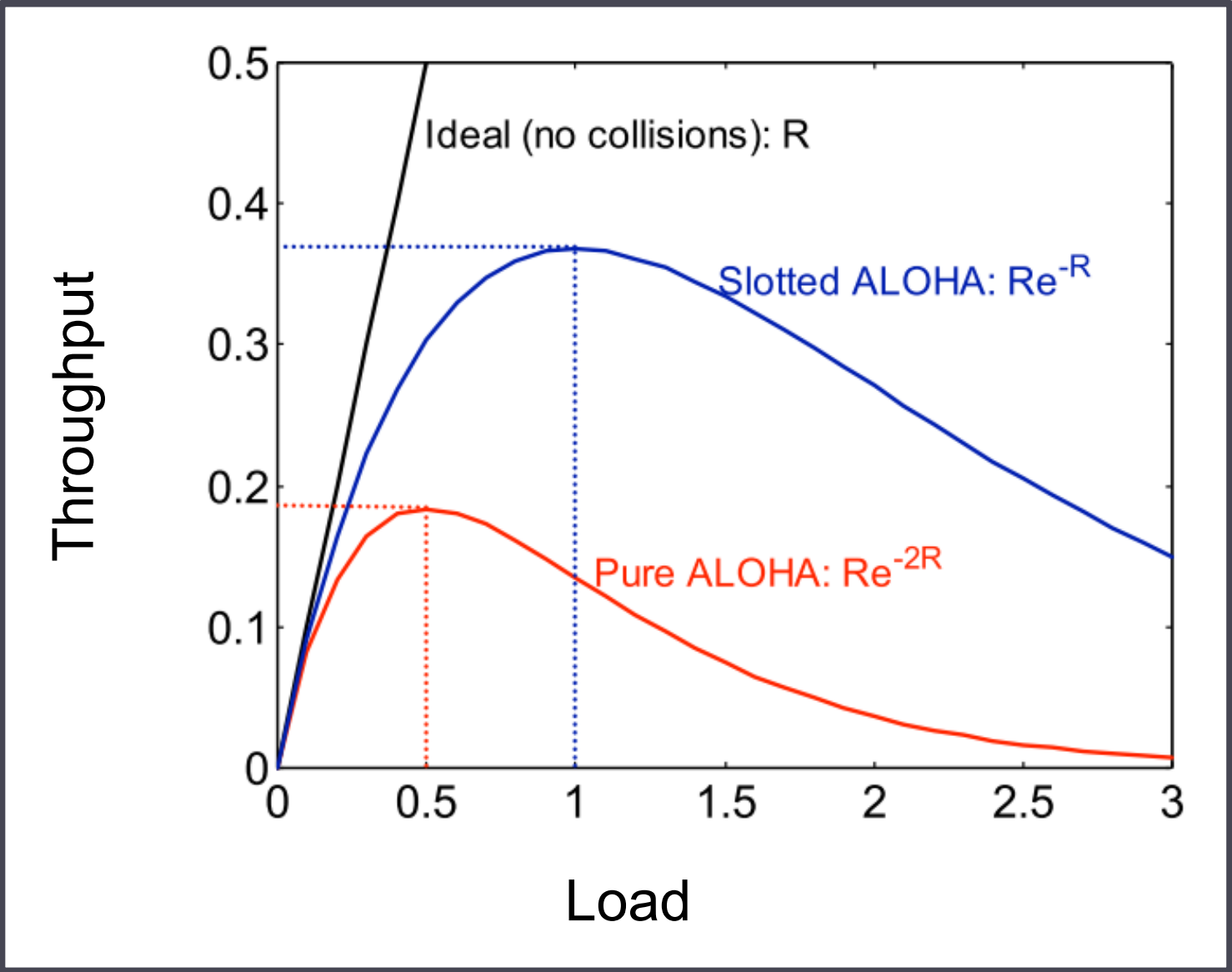
Sender
Sender



- ▶ Max
- 29

Slotted ALOHA

- ▶ Pro
- ▶ Sa
- ▶ H
- ▶ Thu
- ▶ 3
- ▶ B



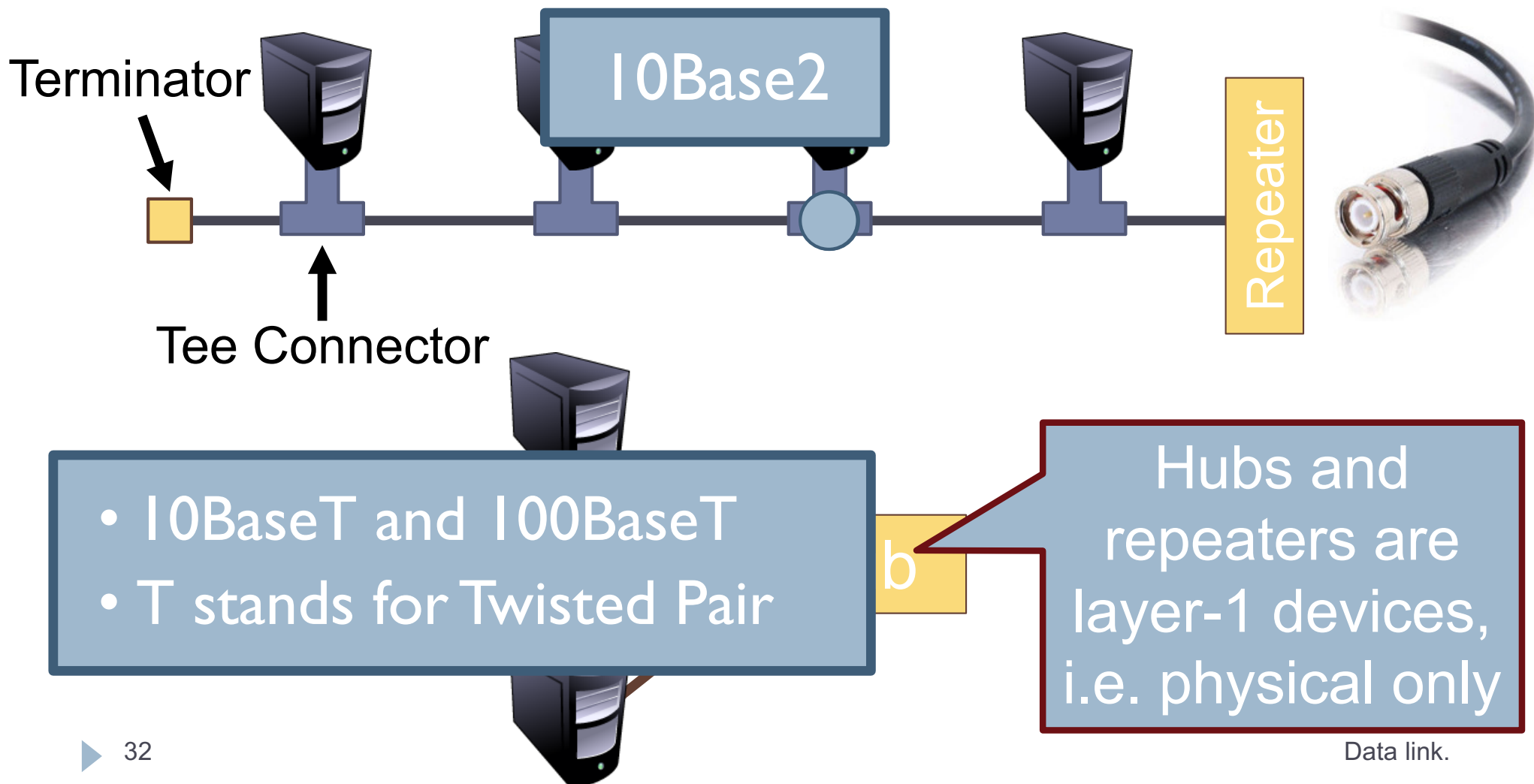
802.3 Ethernet



- ▶ Preamble is 7 bytes of 10101010.
- ▶ Start Frame (SF) is 10101011
- ▶ Source and destination are MAC addresses
 - ▶ E.g. 00:45:A5:F3:25:0C
 - ▶ Broadcast: FF:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF
- ▶ Minimum packet length of 64 bytes, hence the pad

Broadcast Ethernet

- ▶ Originally, Ethernet was a broadcast technology

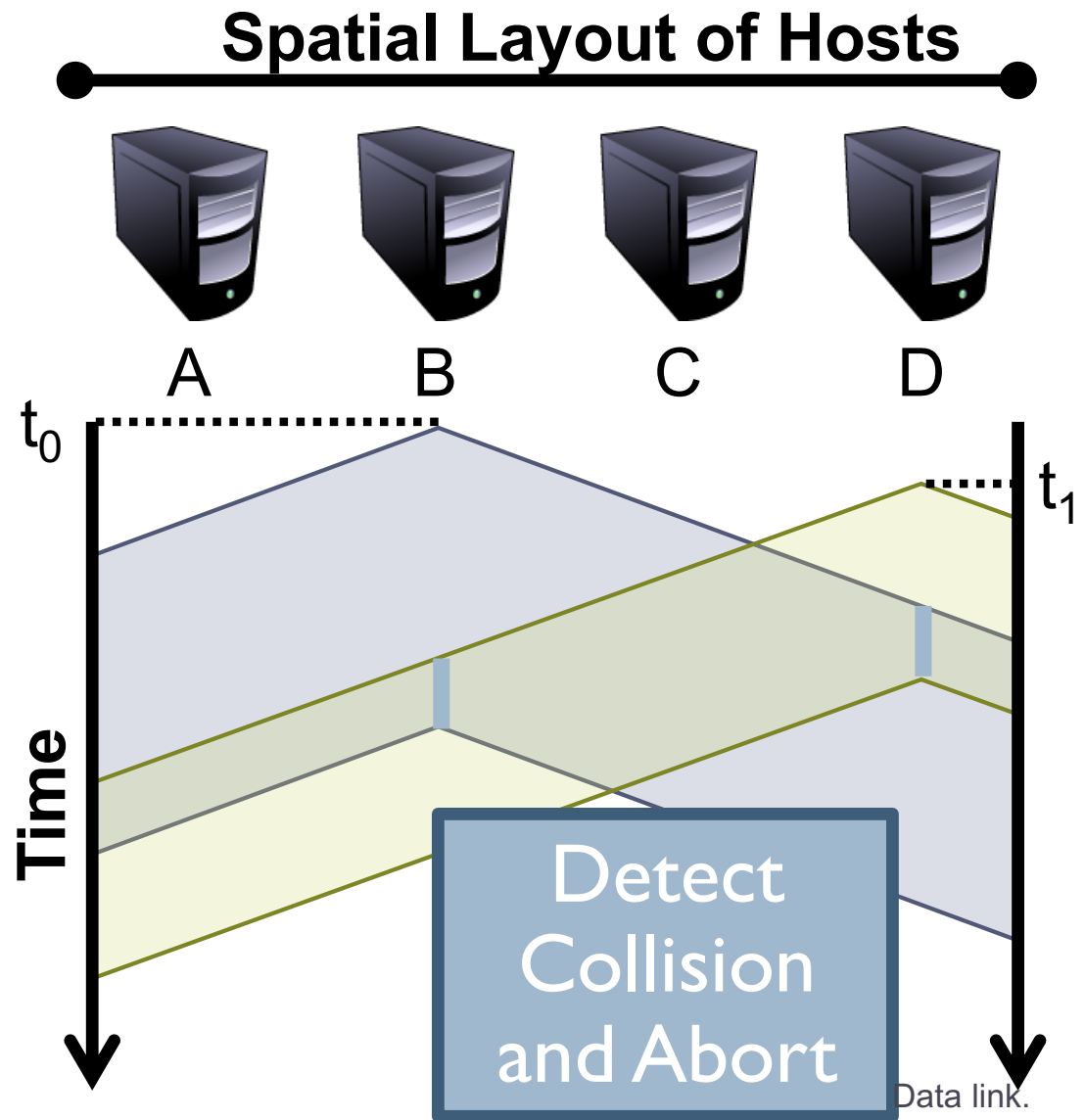


CSMA/CD

- ▶ Carrier sense multiple access with collision detection
- ▶ Key insight: wired protocol allows us to sense the medium
- ▶ Algorithm
 1. Sense for carrier
 2. If carrier is present, wait for it to end
 - ▶ Sending would cause a collision and waste time
 3. Send a frame and sense for collision
 4. If no collision, then frame has been delivered
 5. If collision, abort immediately
 - ▶ Why keep sending if the frame is already corrupted?
 6. Perform exponential backoff then retransmit

CSMA/CD Collisions

- ▶ Collisions can occur
- ▶ Collisions are quickly detected and aborted
- ▶ Note the role of distance, propagation delay, and frame length



Exponential Backoff

- ▶ When a sender detects a collision, send “jam signal”
 - ▶ Make sure all hosts are aware of collision
 - ▶ Jam signal is 32 bits long (plus header overhead)
- ▶ Exponential backoff operates in multiples of 512 bits
 - ▶ Select $k \in [0, 2^n - 1]$, where n = number of collisions
 - ▶ Wait $k * 51.2\mu\text{s}$ before retransmission
 - ▶ n is capped at 10, frame dropped after 16 collisions
- ▶ Backoff time is divided into contention slots



Remember
this number

Data link

Minimum Packet Sizes

- ▶ Why is the minimum packet size 64 bytes?
 - ▶ To give hosts enough time to detect collisions
- ▶ What is the relationship between packet size and cable length?

1. Time t : Host A starts transmitting
2. Time $t + d$: Host B starts transmitting
3. Time $t + 2*d$: collision detected

- 10 Mbps Ethernet
- Packet and cable lengths change for faster Ethernet standards

$$\text{min_frame_size} * \text{light_speed} / (2 * \text{bandwidth}) = \text{max_cable_length}$$

▶ 36 $(64B * 8) * (2.5 * 10^8 \text{mps}) / (2 * 10^7 \text{bps}) = 6400 \text{ meters}$ Data link.

Cable Length Examples

$$\text{min_frame_size} * \text{light_speed} / (2 * \text{bandwidth}) = \text{max_cable_length}$$
$$(64\text{B} * 8) * (2.5 * 10^8 \text{mps}) / (2 * 10 \text{Mbps}) = 6400 \text{ meters}$$

- What is the max cable length if min packet size were changed to 1024 bytes?
 - ▣ 102.4 kilometers
- What is max cable length if bandwidth were changed to 1 Gbps ?
 - ▣ 64 meters
- What if you changed min packet size to 1024 bytes and bandwidth to 1 Gbps?
 - ▣ 1024 meters

Exponential Backoff, Revisited

- ▶ Remember the 512 bit backoff timer?
- ▶ Minimum Ethernet packet size is also 512 bits
 - ▶ $64 \text{ bytes} * 8 = 512 \text{ bits}$
- ▶ Coincidence? Of course not.
 - ▶ If the backoff time was < 512 bits, a sender who waits and another who sends immediately can still collide

Maximum Packet Size

- ▶ **Maximum Transmission Unit (MTU): 1500 bytes**
- ▶ **Pros:**
 - ▶ Bit errors in long packets incur significant recovery penalty
- ▶ **Cons:**
 - ▶ More bytes wasted on header information
 - ▶ Higher per packet processing overhead
- ▶ **Datacenters shifting towards Jumbo Frames**
 - ▶ 9000 bytes per packet

Long Live Ethernet

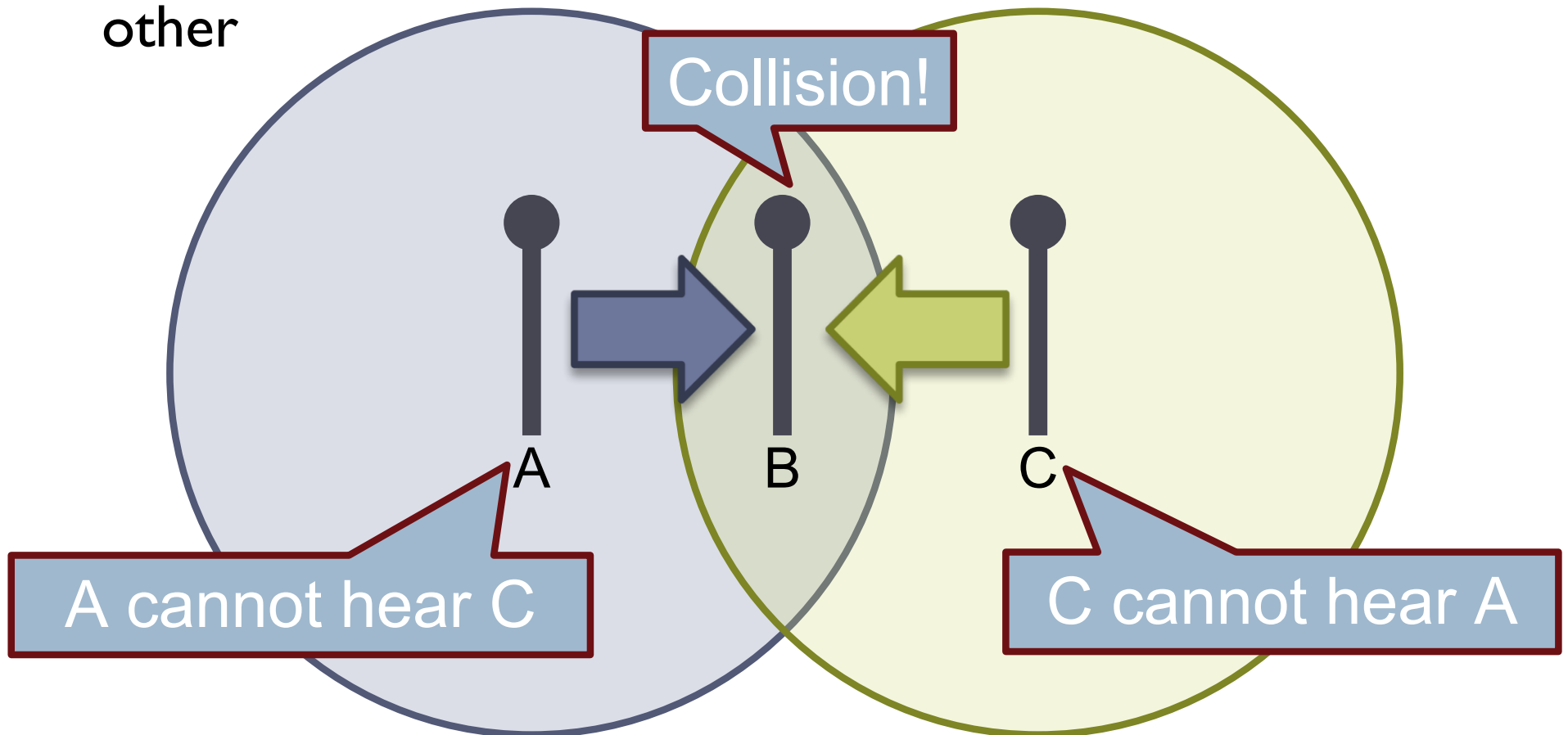
- ▶ **Today's Ethernet is switched**
 - ▶ More on this later
- ▶ **1Gbit and 10Gbit Ethernet now common**
 - ▶ 100Gbit on the way
 - ▶ Uses same old packet header
 - ▶ Full duplex (send and receive at the same time)
 - ▶ Auto negotiating (backwards compatibility)
 - ▶ Can also carry power

802.3 vs. Wireless

- ▶ Ethernet has one shared collision domain
 - ▶ All hosts on a LAN can observe all transmissions
- ▶ Wireless radios have small range compared to overall system
 - ▶ Collisions are local
 - ▶ Collisions are at the receiver, not the sender
 - ▶ Carrier sense (CS in CSMA) plays a different role
- ▶ 802.11 uses CSMA/CA not CSMA/CD
 - ▶ Collision avoidance, rather than collision detection

Hidden Terminal Problem

- ▶ Radios on the same network cannot always hear each other



- Hidden terminals mean that sender-side collision detection is useless

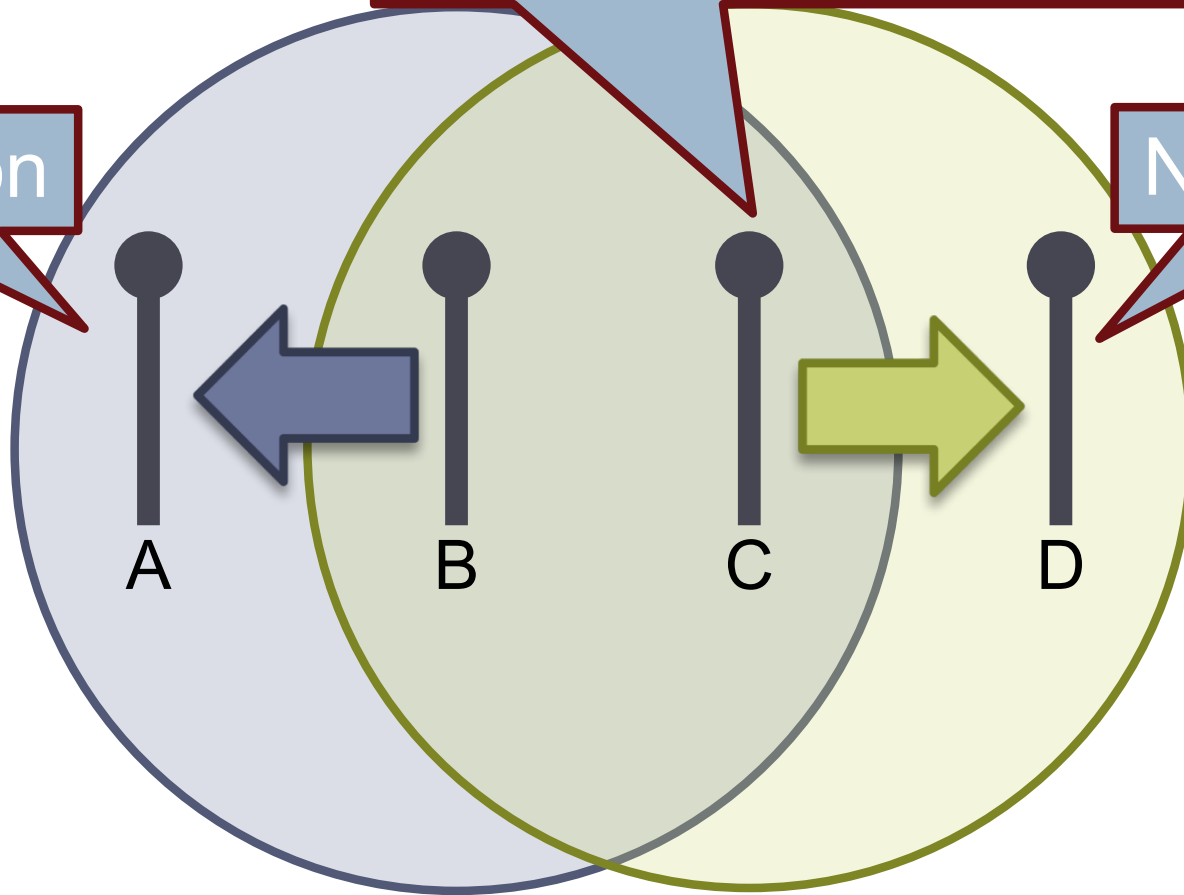
Exposed Terminal Problem

- ▶ Carrier sensing is pr

Carrier sense detects a busy channel

No collision

No collision

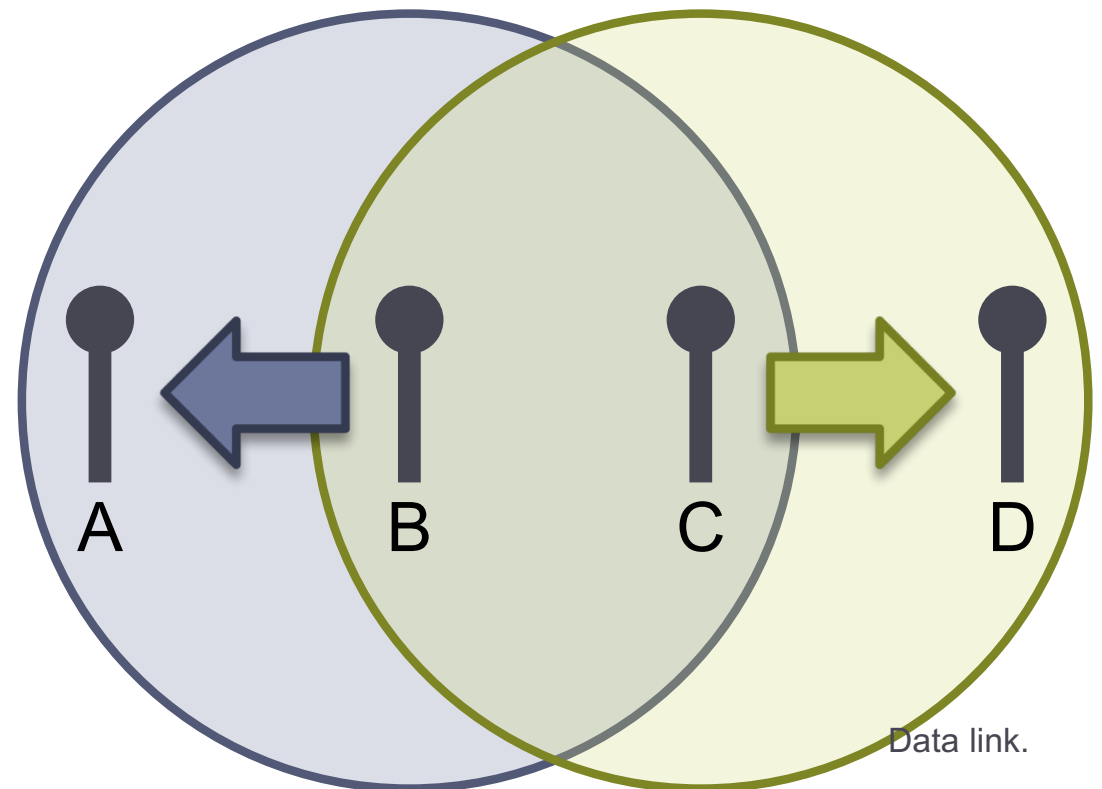


- ▶ **Carrier sense can erroneously reduce utilization**

Reachability in Wireless

- ▶ **High level problem:**

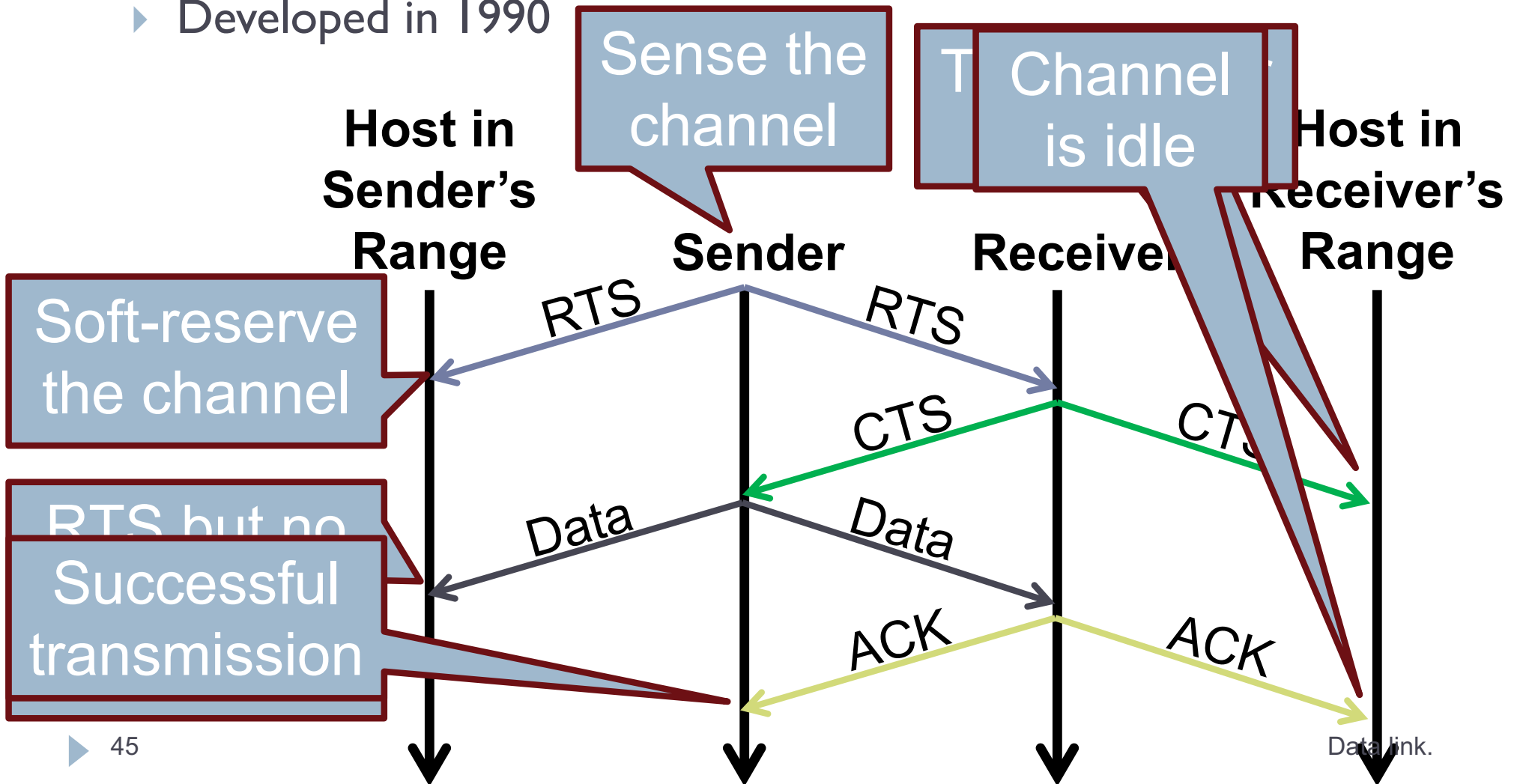
- ▶ Reachability in wireless is not transitive
- ▶ Just because A can reach B, and B can reach C, doesn't mean A can reach C



MACA

- ▶ **M**ultiple **A**ccess with **C**ollision **A**voidance

- ▶ Developed in 1990

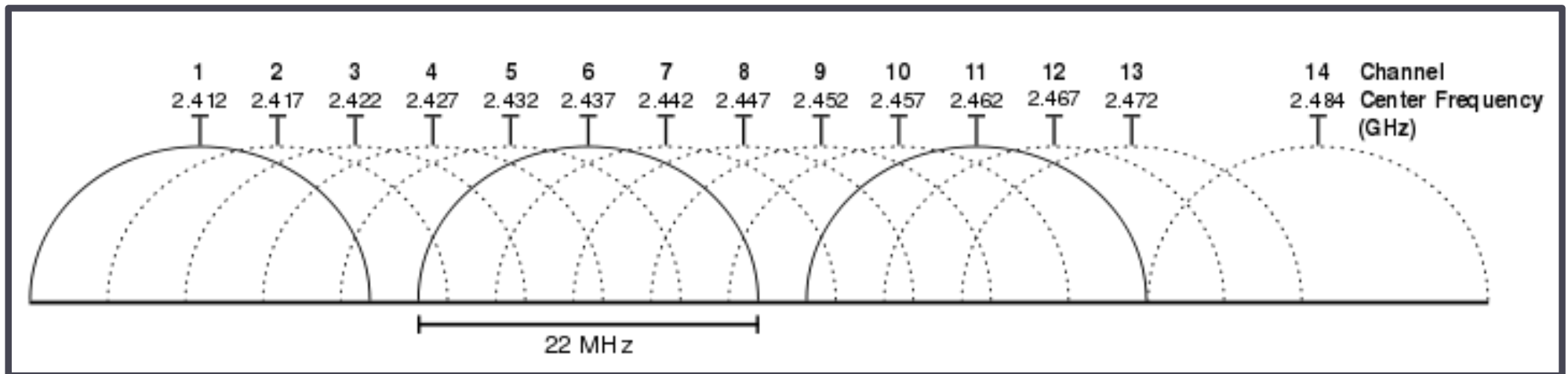


Collisions in MACA

- ▶ **What if sender does not receive CTS or ACK?**
 - ▶ Assume collision
 - ▶ Enter exponential backoff mode

802.11b

- ▶ **802.11**
 - ▶ Uses CSMA/CA, not MACA
- ▶ **802.11b**
 - ▶ Introduced in 1999
 - ▶ Uses the unlicensed 2.4 GHz band



802.11a/g

▶ 802.11a

- ▶ Uses the 5 GHz band
- ▶ 6, 9, 12, 18, 24, 36, 48, 54 Mbps
- ▶ Switches from CCK to Orthogonal Frequency Division Multiplexing (OFDM)
 - ▶ Each frequency is orthogonal

▶ 802.11g

- ▶ Introduced in 2003
- ▶ Uses OFDM to improve performance (54 Mbps)
- ▶ Backwards compatible with 802.11b
 - ▶ Warning: b devices cause g networks to fall back to CCK

802.11n/ac

▶ 802.11n

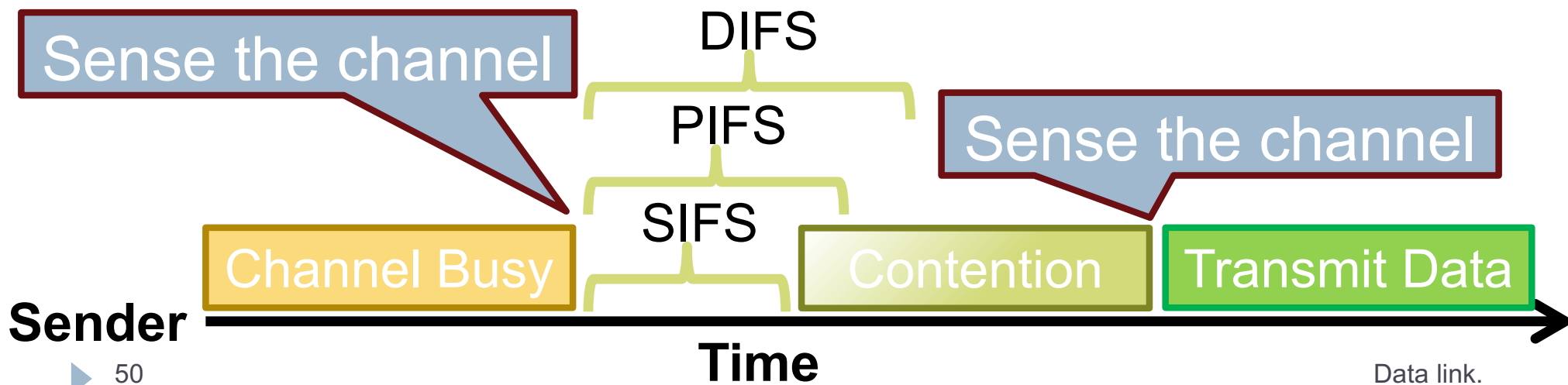
- ▶ Introduced in 2009
- ▶ Multiple Input Multiple Output (MIMO)
 - ▶ Multiple send and receive antennas per devices (up to four)
 - ▶ Data stream is multiplexed across all antennas
- ▶ Maximum 600 Mbps transfer rate (in a 4x4 configuration)
- ▶ 300 Mbps is more common (2x2 configuration)

▶ 802.11ac (January 2014)

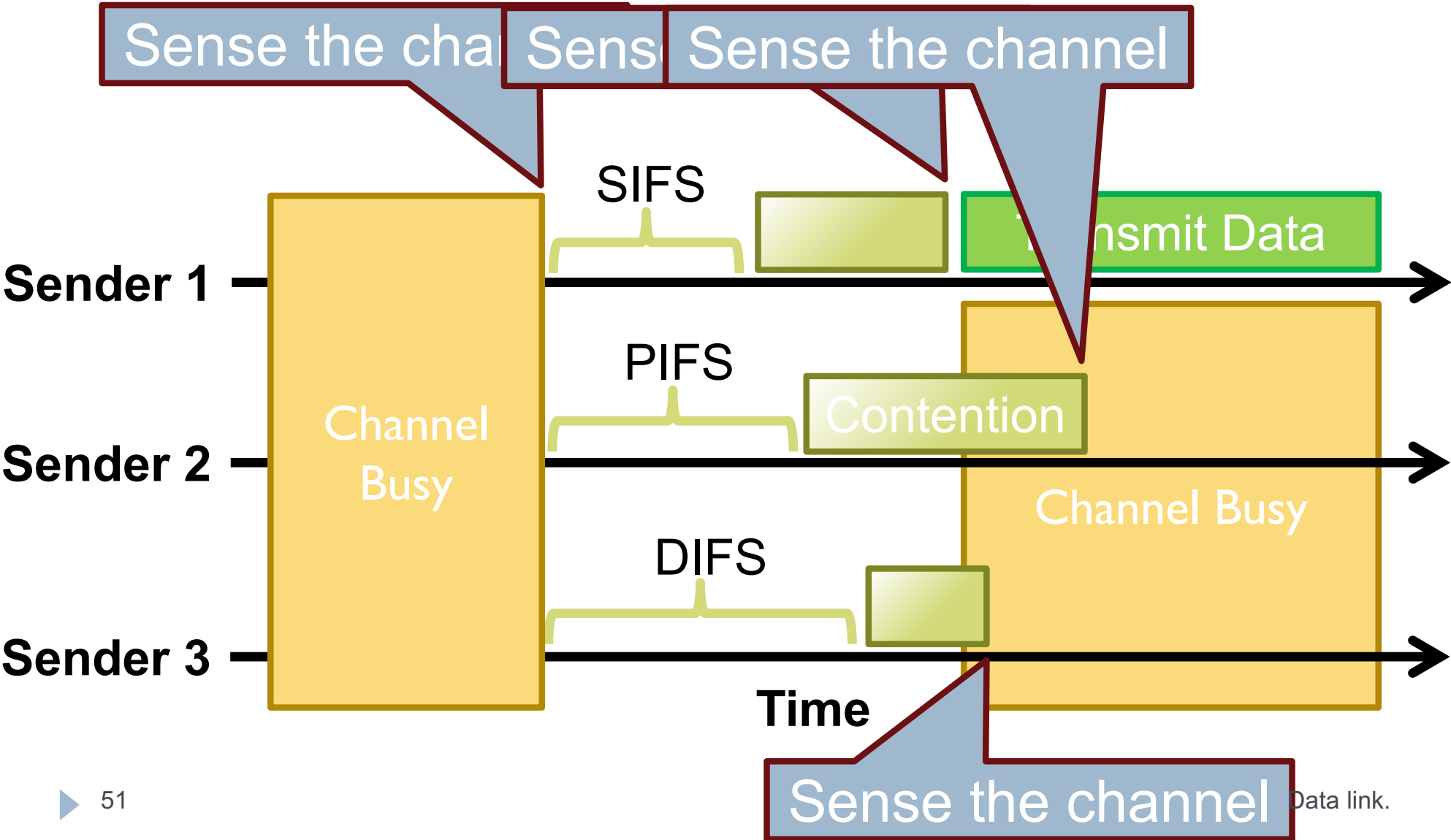
- ▶ 8x8 MIMO in the 5 GHz band, 500 Mbps – 1 GBps rates

802.11 Media Access

- ▶ MACA-style RTS/CTS is optional
- ▶ Distributed Coordination Function (DCF) based on...
 - ▶ Inter Frame Spacing (IFS)
 - ▶ DIFS – low priority, normal data packets
 - ▶ PIFS – medium priority, used with Point Coordination Function (PCF)
 - ▶ SIFS – high priority, control packets (RTS, CTS, ACK, etc.)
 - ▶ Contention interval: random wait time



802.11 DCF Example



801.11 is Complicated

- ▶ We've only scratched the surface of 802.11
 - ▶ Association – how do clients connect to access points?
 - ▶ Scanning
 - ▶ What about roaming?
 - ▶ Variable sending rates to combat noisy channels
 - ▶ Infrastructure vs. ad-hoc vs. point-to-point
 - ▶ Mesh networks and mesh routing
 - ▶ Power saving optimizations
 - ▶ How do you sleep and also guarantee no lost messages?
 - ▶ Security and encryption (WEP, WAP, 802.11x)
- ▶ This is why there are courses on wireless networking