

The Data Link Layer

Based on slides by Shiv. Kalyanaraman and B. Sidkar RPI
Kurose and Ross from their book
Modified by Michalis Faloutsos UCR

1



Understand principles behind data link layer services:

- error detection, correction
- sharing a broadcast channel: multiple access
- link layer addressing
- reliable data transfer, flow control
- Instantiation and implementation of various link layer technologies

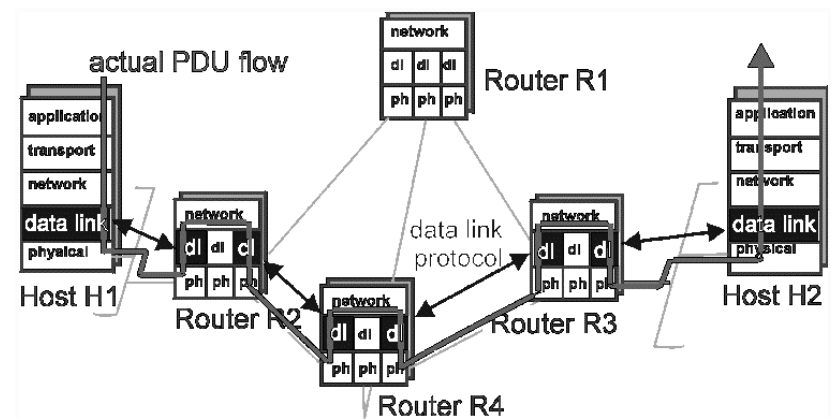
2



- link layer services
- error detection, correction
- multiple access protocols and LANs
- link layer addressing, ARP
- specific link layer technologies:
 - Ethernet
 - IEEE 802.11 LANs
 - PPP
 - ATM
 - hubs, bridges, switches

3

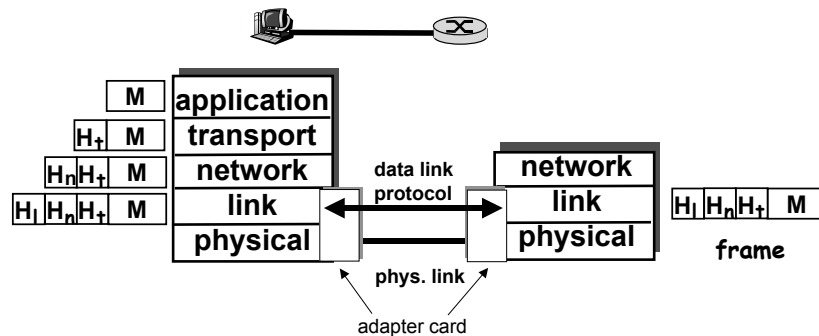
Link Layer: setting the context - 1



4

Link Layer: setting the context - 2

- two *physically connected* devices:
 - host-router, router-router, host-host
- unit of data: *frame*



5

Link Layer Services - 1

- **Framing, link access:**
 - encapsulate datagram into frame, adding header, trailer
 - implement channel access if shared medium,
 - 'physical addresses' used in frame headers to identify source, dest
 - different from IP address!

6

Link Layer Services - 2

- **Reliable delivery between two physically connected devices:**
 - 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?

7

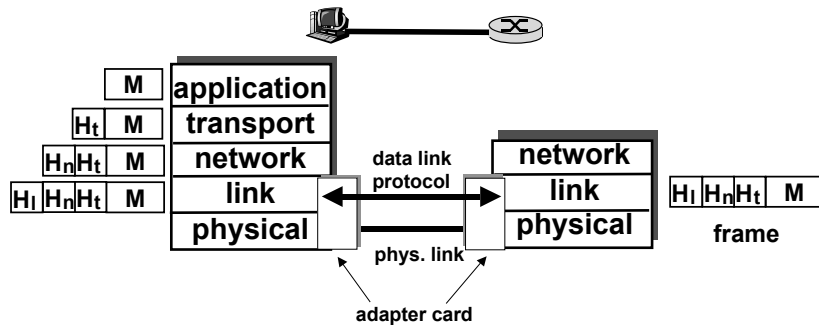
Link Layer Services - 3

- **Flow Control:**
 - pacing between sender and receivers
- **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

8

Link Layer: Implementation

- Implemented in “adapter”
 - e.g., PCMCIA card, Ethernet card
 - typically includes: RAM, DSP chips, host bus interface, and link interface



9

Some basic concepts

- Bandwidth and throughput
- Link capacity limits
- Bandwidth delay product

10

Bandwidth and Throughput

- See PetDav p.40
- Bandwidth: the range of frequencies a channel can use
 - Tel. Line: 300 - 3300Hz -> 3000Hz
- Bandwidth commonly used as number of bits per sec that can be transmitted
- Throughput: the number of bits that can be delivered successfully defined per layer
 - For Link level, same as bandwidth
 - For application level, information that can go through
- Goodput: useful throughput
 - throughput - overhead

11

Link Capacity

- How much capacity (data rate) can a link support?
- Shannon's theorem - classic theorem:
 - $C = B \log_2 (1 + S/N)$
- Where
 - C is link capacity
 - B is the bandwidth of the line
 - S is average signal power
 - N is average noise power
- S/N is the signal to noise ratio
 - Expressed in decibels: $db = 10 \log_{10} (S/N)$
 - Signal strength is reported relative to noise
- For $db = 30$, and $B = 3300 - 300Hz$ -> $C = 30Kbps$

12

Bandwidth delay product

- **B**, Bandwidth is how fast I can push bits on the link
- **D**, Delay is the time it takes for information to arrive at the destination
- **B x D** is the amount of bits that can be in flight on a link before the receiver is aware of anything
- Often this is used for **D = round trip time**
 - Amount of information that is on the link before sender is informed that something arrived at the receiver

13

Error Detection - 1

EDC= Error Detection and Correction bits (redundancy)

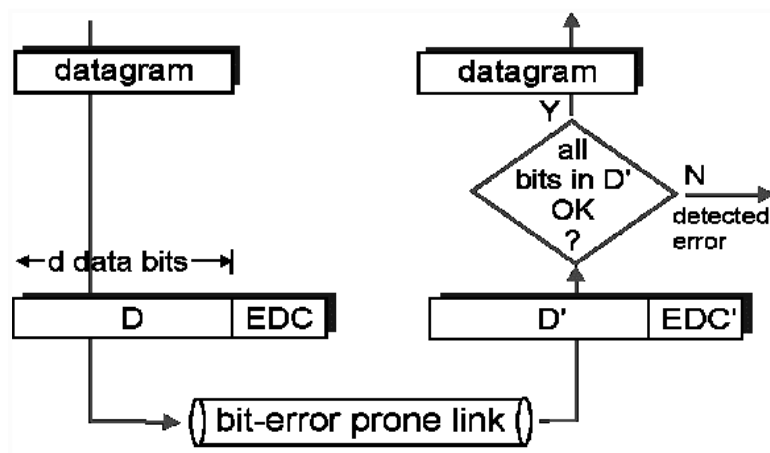
D = Data protected by error checking, may include header fields

Error detection not 100% reliable!

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

14

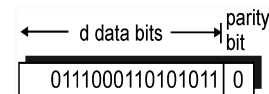
Error Detection - 2



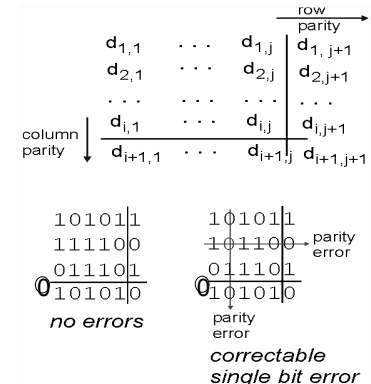
15

Parity Checking

Single Bit Parity:
Detect single bit errors



Two Dimensional Bit Parity:
Detect and correct single bit errors



16

Internet checksum

Goal: detect “errors” (e.g., flipped bits) in transmitted segment (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

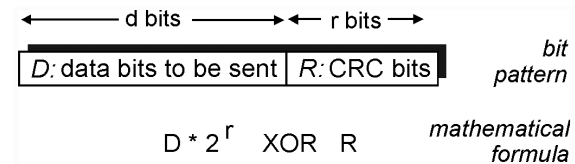
Receiver:

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

17

Checksumming: Cyclic Redundancy Check

- View data bits, D , as a binary number
- Choose $r+1$ bit pattern (generator), G
- Goal: choose r CRC bits, R , such that
 - $\langle D, R \rangle$ exactly divisible by G (modulo 2)
 - receiver knows G , divides $\langle D, R \rangle$ by G . If non-zero remainder: error detected!
 - can detect all burst errors less than $r+1$ bits
- Widely used in practice (ATM, HDCL)



18

CRC Example

Want:

$$D \cdot 2^r \text{ XOR } R = nG$$

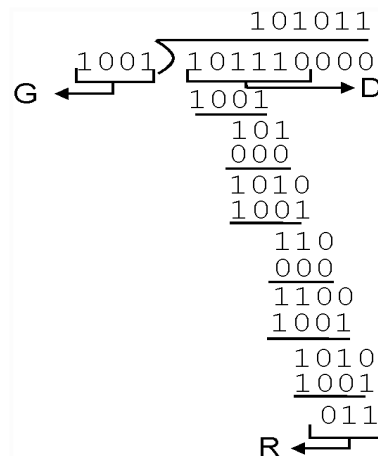
equivalently:

$$D \cdot 2^r = nG \text{ XOR } R$$

equivalently:

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

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

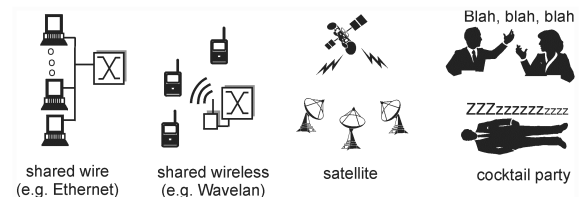


See picture from book (this is weird) 19

Multiple Access Links and Protocols

Three types of “links”:

- Point-to-point (single wire, e.g. PPP, SLIP)
- Broadcast (shared wire or medium; e.g., Ethernet, Wavelan, etc.)



- Switched (e.g., switched Ethernet, ATM etc)

20

Multiple Access Protocols - 1

- single shared communication channel
- two or more simultaneous transmissions by nodes: interference
 - only one node can send successfully at a time
- *multiple access protocol*:
 - distributed algorithm that determines how stations share channel, i.e., determine when station can transmit

21

Multiple Access protocols - 2

- *multiple access protocol (cont.)*:
 - communication about channel sharing must use channel itself!
 - What to look for in multiple access protocols:
 - synchronous or asynchronous
 - information needed about other stations
 - robustness (e.g., to channel errors)
 - performance

22

Multiple Access protocols - 3

- claim: humans use multiple access protocols all the time
- How do we share?

23

MAC Protocols: a taxonomy

Three broad classes:

- Channel Partitioning
 - divide channel into smaller “pieces” (time slots, frequency)
 - allocate piece to node for exclusive use
- Random Access
 - allow collisions
 - “recover” from collisions
- “Taking turns”
 - tightly coordinate shared access to avoid collisions

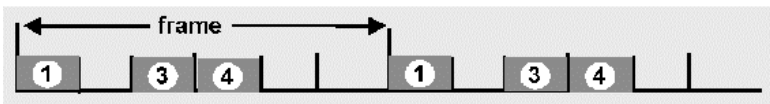
Goal: efficient, fair, simple, decentralized

24

Channel Partitioning MAC protocols: TDMA - 1

TDMA: time division multiple access

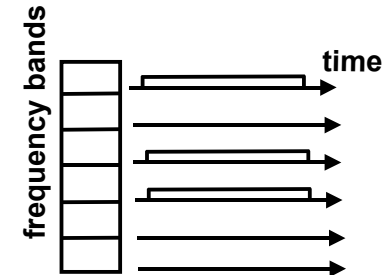
- Access to channel in "rounds"
- Each station gets fixed length slot (length = pkt trans time) in each round
- Unused slots go idle
- Example: 6-station LAN, 1,3,4 have pkt, slots 2,5,6 idle



25

Channel Partitioning MAC protocols: FDMA - 2

- Example: 6-station LAN, 1,3,4 have pkt, frequency bands 2,5,6 idle



26

Channel Partitioning (CDMA) - 1

CDMA (Code Division Multiple Access)

- unique "code" assigned to each user; ie, code set partitioning
- used mostly in wireless broadcast channels (cellular, satellite, etc)
- all users share same frequency, but each user has own "chipping" sequence (ie, code) to encode data

27

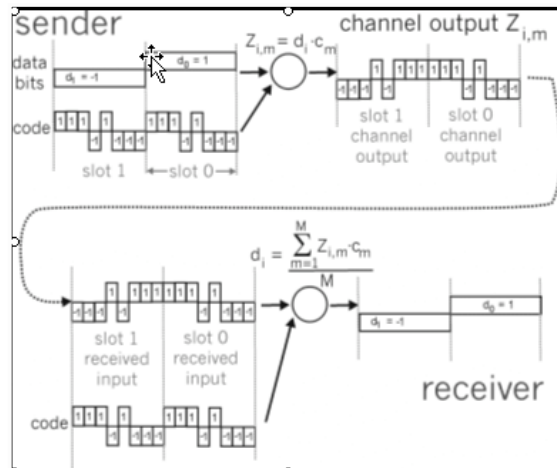
Channel Partitioning (CDMA) - 2

- Encoded signal = (original data) X (chipping sequence)
- Decoding: inner-product of encoded signal and chipping sequence
- allows multiple users to "coexist" and transmit simultaneously with minimal interference (if codes are "orthogonal")

Not in Peterson Davie!

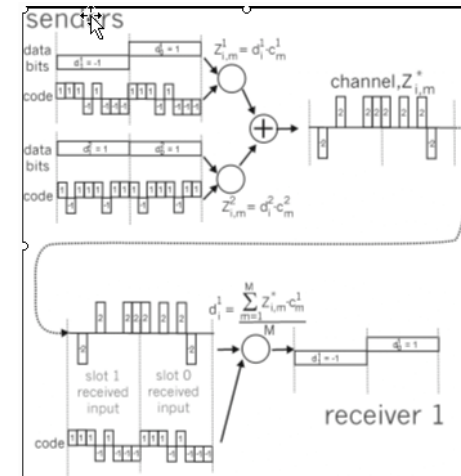
28

CDMA Encode/Decode



29

CDMA: two-sender interference



30

Performance of Fixed Assignment Protocols - 1

- Fixed assignment protocols are ideal for continuous streams such as video or audio
- What about for packet switched data?
- A “perfect” multiple access scheme would always use the channel when there are packets waiting (statistical multiplexing)
- The mean delay for statistical multiplexing is just like for the $M / M / 1$ queue: $E(T) = \frac{1}{\mu - \lambda}$, where λ is the arrival rate and μ is the service rate

31

Performance of Fixed Assignment Protocols - 2

- OTOH fixed assignment protocols divide the channel into N separate independent, μ/N identical subchannels
- If each user has arrival rate λ/N , each user/subchannel pair can be modeled as a separate $M / M / 1$ queue
- And the mean delay for a packet is $E(T) = \frac{1}{\mu/N - \lambda/N} = \frac{N}{\mu - \lambda}$
- So, if we use fixed assignment protocols for packet switched data, mean delay goes up by a factor of N !!

32

Random Access Protocols - 1

- 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)

33

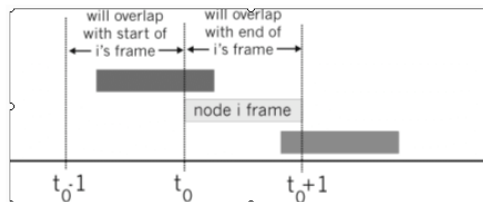
Random Access Protocols - 2

- Examples of random access MAC protocols:
 - ALOHA (not in PetDavie)
 - slotted ALOHA (not in PetDavie)
 - CSMA and CSMA/CD

34

Pure (unslotted) ALOHA - 1

- Unslotted Aloha: simpler, no synchronization
- pkt needs transmission:
 - send when you have a packet
- Collision probability increases:
 - pkt sent at t_0 collide with other pkts sent in $[t_0-1, t_0+1]$



35

Pure (unslotted) ALOHA - 2

Success if none starts right before or right after:

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(\text{success by given node}) &= P(\text{node transmits}) \cdot \\
 &\quad P(\text{no other node transmits in } [t_0-1, t_0]) \cdot \\
 &\quad P(\text{no other node transmits in } [t_0, t_0+1]) \\
 &= p \cdot (1-p)^{(N-1)} \cdot (1-p)^{(N-1)}
 \end{aligned}$$

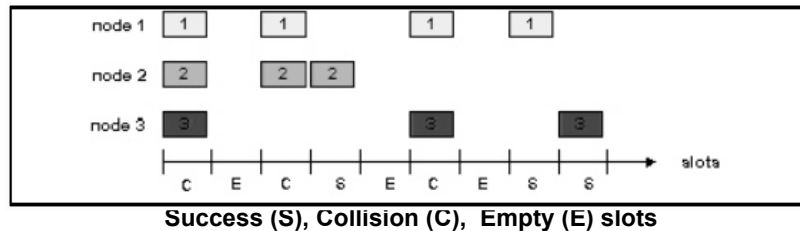
$$\begin{aligned}
 P(\text{success by any of } N \text{ nodes}) &= N p \cdot (1-p)^{(N-1)} \cdot \\
 &\quad (1-p)^{(N-1)}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \dots \text{ choosing optimum } p \text{ as } N \rightarrow \infty \dots \\
 = 1/(2e) = .18
 \end{aligned}$$

36

Slotted Aloha

- time is divided into equal size slots (= pkt trans. time)
- node with new arriving pkt: transmit at beginning of next slot
- if collision: retransmit pkt in future slots with probability p , until successful.



37

Slotted Aloha Efficiency

Q: What is max fraction slots successful?

A: Suppose N stations have packets to send

- each transmits in slot with probability p
- prob. successful transmission S is:

by single node: $S = p (1-p)^{(N-1)}$

by any of N nodes

$S = \text{Prob (only one transmits)}$

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

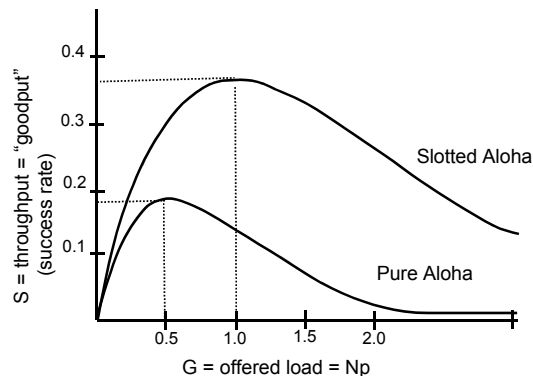
... choosing optimum p as $n \rightarrow \infty$...

$= 1/e = .37$ as $N \rightarrow \infty$

At best:
channel
use for useful
transmissions
37% of time!

38

Performance Comparison



*protocol constrains
effective channel
throughput!*

39

The Rules of Sharing

- CSMA: Collision Sensing Multiple Access**
 - Sense the channel before sending
- CSMA/CD: CSMA with Collision Detection**
 - Sense the channel before sending
 - Sense the channel **WHILE** sending too

40

Carrier Sensing Multiple Access (CSMA) - 1

- In some shorter distance networks, it is possible to listen to the channel before transmitting
- In radio networks, this is called “sensing the carrier”
- The CSMA protocol works just like Aloha except: If the channel is sensed busy, then the user waits to transmit its packet, and a collision is avoided
- This really improves the performance in short distance networks!

41

Carrier Sensing Multiple Access (CSMA) - 2

- How long does a blocked user wait before trying again to transmit its packet? Three basic variants:
- 1-persistent: Blocked user continuously senses channel until its idle, then transmits
- 0-persistent: Blocked user waits a randomly chosen amount of time before sensing channel again

42

Carrier Sensing Multiple Access (CSMA) - 3

- P-persistent: Let τ = end-to-end propagation delay
 - If channel is idle then transmit packet
 - If channel busy then toss coin [with $P(\text{heads}) = P$]
 - Heads: Transmit at first idle
 - Tails: wait until first idle plus T , sense, repeat
- Human analogy: Don't interrupt others

43

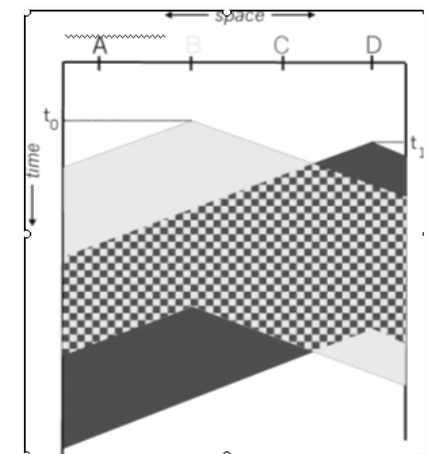
CSMA collisions

collisions *can* occur:
propagation delay
means two nodes may
not hear each
other's transmission

collision: entire packet
transmission time
wasted

note: role of
distance and
propagation delay in
determining
collision prob.

spatial layout of nodes along ethernet



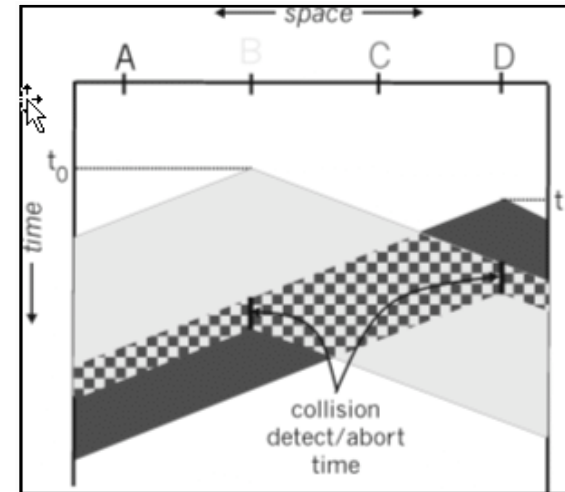
44

CSMA/CD (Collision Detection)

- CSMA improves performance, but still it wastes the channel during collisions
- In some very short distance networks (e.g. coax LANs), it is possible to listen while transmitting (in addition to listening before transmitting)
- If we detect a collision while transmitting, we can abort the transmission and free up the channel sooner
- This idea was proposed by R. Metcalfe and Boggs at Xerox PARC in the mid 1970s under the name Ethernet.
- Human analogy: the polite conversationalist

45

CSMA/CD collision detection



46

“Taking Turns” MAC protocols - 1

Channel partitioning MAC protocols:

- share channel efficiently 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!

47

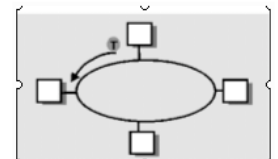
“Taking Turns” MAC protocols - 2

Polling:

- Master node “invites” slave nodes to transmit in turn
- Request to Send, Clear to Send messages
- Concerns:
 - polling overhead
 - latency
 - single point of failure (master)

Token passing:

- Control token passed from one node to next sequentially.
- Token message
- Concerns:
 - token overhead
 - latency
 - single point of failure (token)



48

Reservation-based protocols - 1

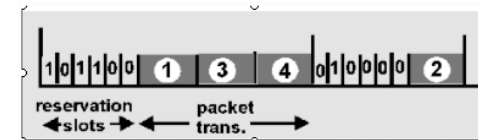
Distributed Polling:

- Time divided into slots
- Begins with N short reservation slots
 - reservation slot time equal to channel end-end propagation delay
 - station with message to send posts reservation
 - reservation seen by all stations

49

Reservation-based protocols - 2

- After reservation slots, message transmissions ordered by known priority



50