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# 15-441 Computer Networking

## Lecture 6

### Data link Layer – Access Control

Based on slides by Peter Steenkiste  
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1

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## Datalink Functions

- **Framing:** encapsulating a network layer datagram into a bit stream.
  - » Add header, mark and detect frame boundaries, ...
- **Error control:** error detection and correction to deal with bit errors.
  - » May also include other reliability support, e.g. retransmission
- **Flow control:** avoid sender overrunning receiver.
- **Media access:** controlling which frame should be sent over the link next.
  - » Easy for point-to-point links
  - » Harder for multi-access links: who gets to send?

2

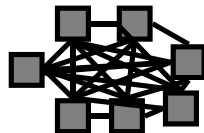
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## So far ...



Can connect two nodes

- ... But what if we want more nodes?



Wires for everybody!

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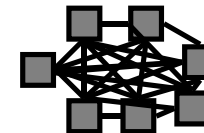
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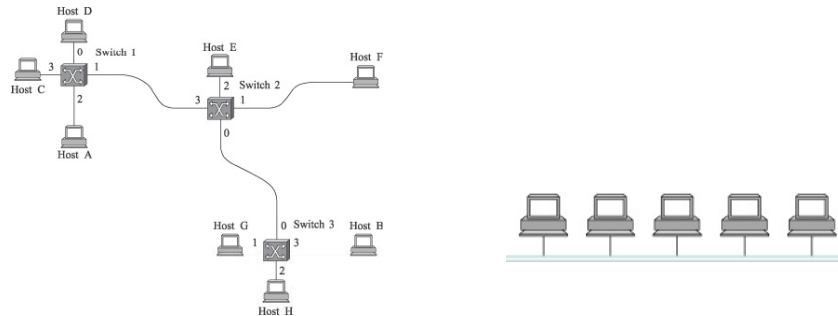


Wires for everybody!



4

## Datalink Architectures



- **Point-Point with switches**

- **Media access control.**

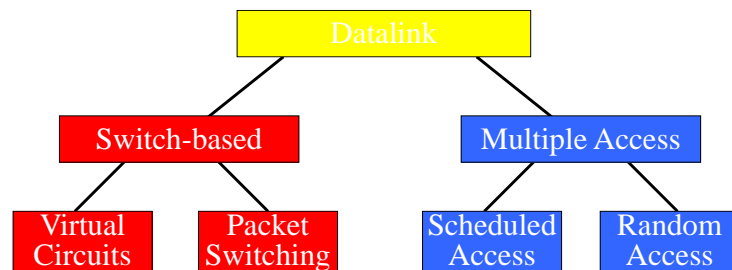
5

## Media Access Control

- **How do we transfer packets between two hosts connected to the same network?**
- **Switches connected by point-to-point links -- store-and-forward.**
  - » Used in WAN, LAN, and for home connections
  - » Conceptually similar to “routing”
    - But at the datalink layer instead of the network layer
- **Multiple access networks -- contention based.**
  - » Multiple hosts are sharing the same transmission medium
  - » Used in LANs and wireless
  - » Need to control access to the medium

6

## Datalink Classification



7

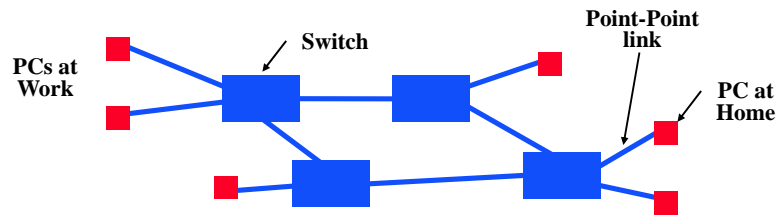
## Switching

- **Forward units of data based on address in header.**
- **Many data-link technologies use switching.**
  - » Virtual circuits: Frame Relay, ATM, X.25, ..
  - » Packets: Ethernet, MPLS, ...
- **“Switching” also happens at the network layer.**
  - » Layer 3: Internet protocol
  - » In this case, address is an IP address
  - » IP over SONET, IP over ATM, ...
  - » Otherwise, operation is very similar
- **Switching is different from SONET mux/demux.**
  - » SONET channels statically configured - no addresses

8

## A Switch-based Network

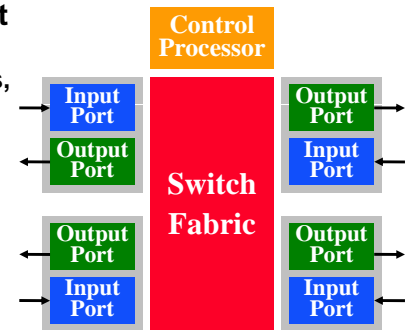
- Switches are connected by point-point links.
- Packets are forwarded hop-by-hop by the switches towards the destination.
  - » Forwarding is based on the address
- How does a switch work?
- How do nodes exchange packets over a link?
- How is the destination addressed?



9

## Switch Architecture

- Packets come in one interface, forwarded to output interface based on address.
  - » Same idea for bridges, switches, routers: address look up differs
- Control processor manages the switch and executes higher level protocols.
  - » E.g. routing, management, ...
- The switch fabric directs the traffic to the right output port.
- The input and output ports deal with transmission and reception of packets.



10

## Connections or Not?

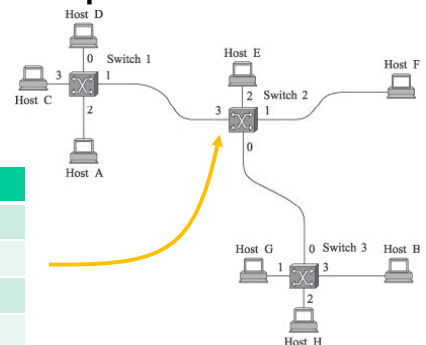
- Two basic approaches to packet forwarding
  - » Connectionless
  - » (virtual) Circuit switched
- When would you use?

11

## Connectionless

- Host can send anytime anywhere
- No idea if resources are available to get to dest
- Forwarding is independent for each packet
- No setup time
- Fault tolerant

Destination	Port
A	3
B	0
C	
D	
E	
F	



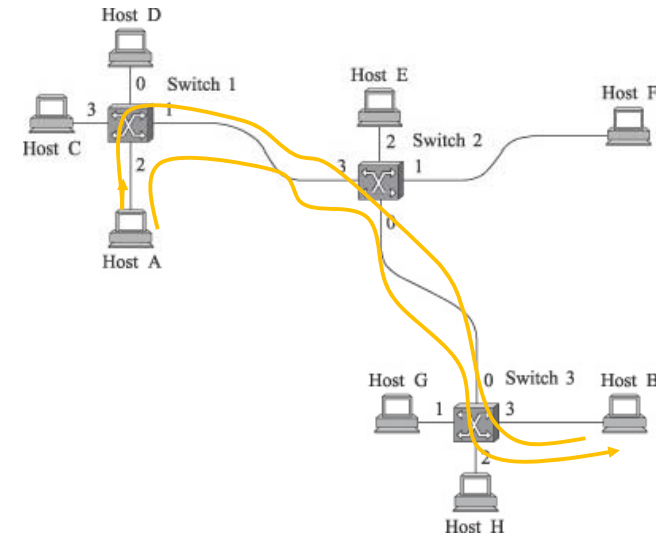
12

## Virtual Circuit Switching

- Two stage process
  - » Setup connection (create VCIs)
  - » Send packets
- RTT introduced before any data is sent
- Per packet overhead can be smaller ( $VCI \ll \text{addr}$ )
- Switch failures are hard to deal with
- Reserves resources for connection

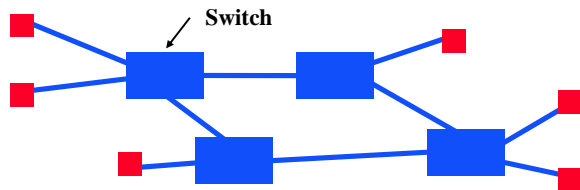
13

## Setup, assign VCIs



14

## Packet Forwarding: Address Lookup

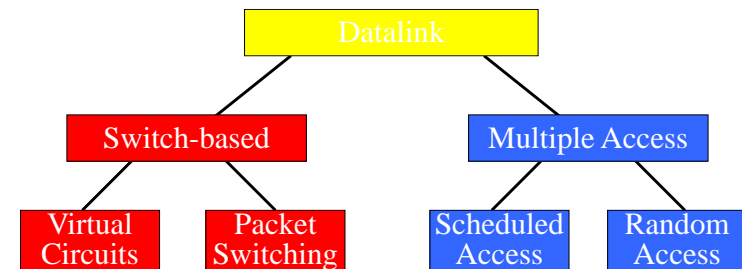


Address	Next Hop	Info
B31123812508	3	13
38913C3C2137	3	-
A21023C90590	0	-
128.2.15.1	1	(2,34)

- Address from header.
  - » Absolute address (e.g. Ethernet)
  - » (IP address for routers)
  - » (VC identifier, e.g. ATM))
- Next hop: output port for packet.
- Info: priority, VC id, ..
- Table is filled in by protocol.

15

## Datalink Classification



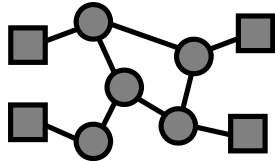
16

## Problem: Sharing a Wire

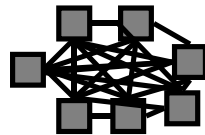


Learned how to connect hosts

- ... But what if we want more hosts?



Switches



Wires for everybody!

- Expensive! How can we share a wire?



17

## Listen and Talk



- Natural scheme – listen before you talk...
  - » Works well in practice

18

## Listen and Talk



- Natural scheme – listen before you talk...
  - » Works well in practice

19

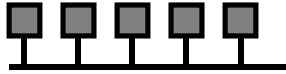
## Listen and Talk



- Natural scheme – listen before you talk...
  - » Works well in practice
- But sometimes this breaks down
  - » Why? How do we fix/prevent this?

20

## Problem: Who is this packet for?



- Need to put an address on the packet
- What should it look like?
- How do you determine your own address?
- How do you know what address you want to send it to?

21

## Outline

- Aloha
- Ethernet MAC
- Collisions
- Ethernet Frames

22

## 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 and ALOHA
  - » CSMA and CSMA/CD

23

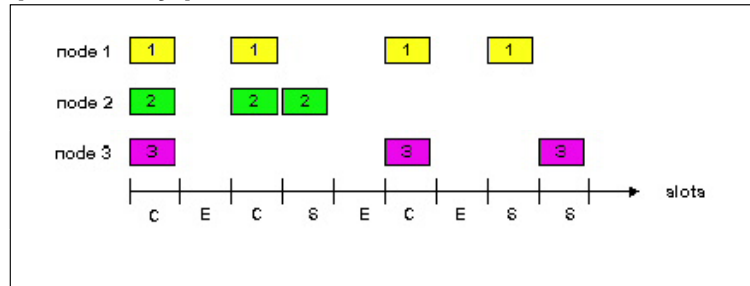
## Aloha – Basic Technique

- First random MAC developed
  - » For radio-based communication in Hawaii (1970)
- Basic idea:
  - » When you are ready, transmit
  - » Receivers send ACK for data
  - » Detect collisions by timing out for ACK
  - » Recover from collision by trying after random delay
    - Too short → large number of collisions
    - Too long → underutilization

24

## Slotted Aloha

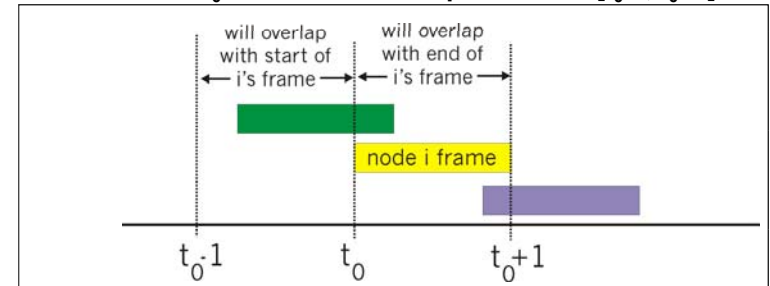
- Time is divided into equal size slots
  - » Equal to packet transmission time
- Node (w/ packet) transmits at beginning of next slot
- If collision: retransmit pkt in future slots with probability  $p$ , until successful



25

## Pure (Unslotted) ALOHA

- Unslotted Aloha: simpler, no synchronization
- Pkt needs transmission:
  - » Send without awaiting for beginning of slot
- Collision probability increases:
  - » Pkt sent at  $t_0$  collide with other pkts sent in  $[t_0-1, t_0+1]$



26

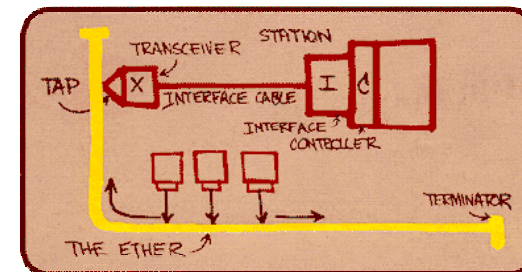
## Outline

- Aloha
- Ethernet MAC
- Collisions
- Ethernet Frames

27

## Ethernet

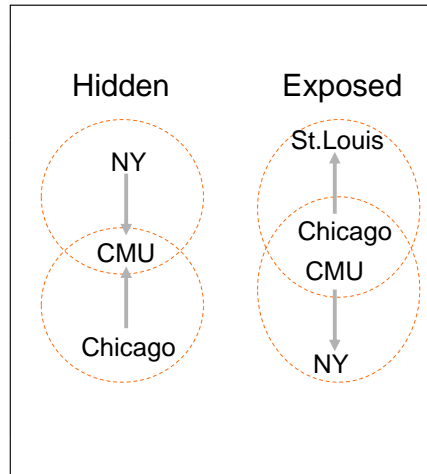
- First practical local area network, built at Xerox PARC in 70's
- "Dominant" LAN technology:
  - » Cheap
  - » Kept up with speed race: 10, 100, 1000 Mbps



28

## Ethernet MAC - Carrier Sense

- **Basic idea:**
  - » Listen to wire before transmission
  - » Avoid collision with active transmission
- **Why didn't ALOHA have this?**
  - » In wireless, relevant contention at the **receiver**, not sender
    - Hidden terminal
    - Exposed terminal



29

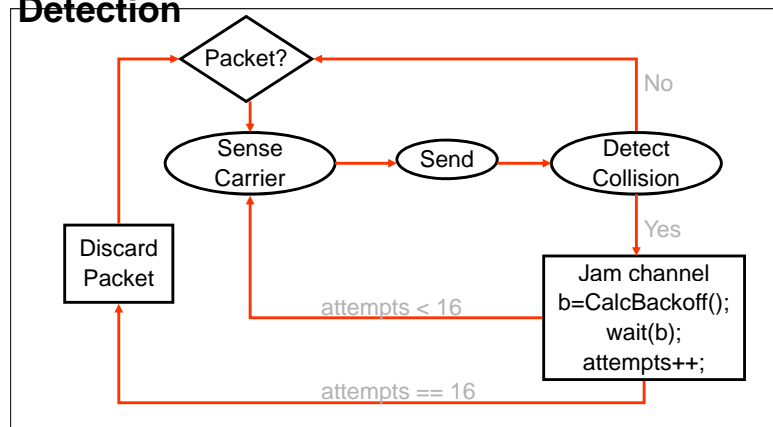
## Ethernet MAC - Collision Detection

- **But: ALOHA has collision detection also?**
  - » That was very slow and inefficient
- **Basic idea:**
  - » Listen while transmitting
  - » If you notice interference → assume collision
- **Why didn't ALOHA have this?**
  - » Very difficult for radios to listen and transmit
  - » Signal strength is reduced by distance for radio
    - Much easier to hear “local, powerful” radio station than one in NY
    - You may not notice any “interference”

30

## Ethernet MAC (CSMA/CD)

- **Carrier Sense Multiple Access/Collision Detection**



31

## Ethernet CSMA/CD: Making it work

- **Jam Signal:** make sure all other transmitters are aware of collision; 48 bits;
- **Exponential Backoff:**
  - If deterministic delay after collision, collision will occur again in lockstep
  - Why not random delay with fixed mean?
    - » Few senders → needless waiting
    - » Too many senders → too many collisions
  - **Goal:** adapt retransmission attempts to estimated current load
    - » heavy load: random wait will be longer

32

## Ethernet Backoff Calculation

- Exponentially increasing random delay
  - » Infer senders from # of collisions
  - » More senders → increase wait time
- First collision: choose K from {0,1}; delay is K x 512 bit transmission times
- After second collision: choose K from {0,1,2,3}...
- After ten or more collisions, choose K from {0,1,2,3,4,...,1023}

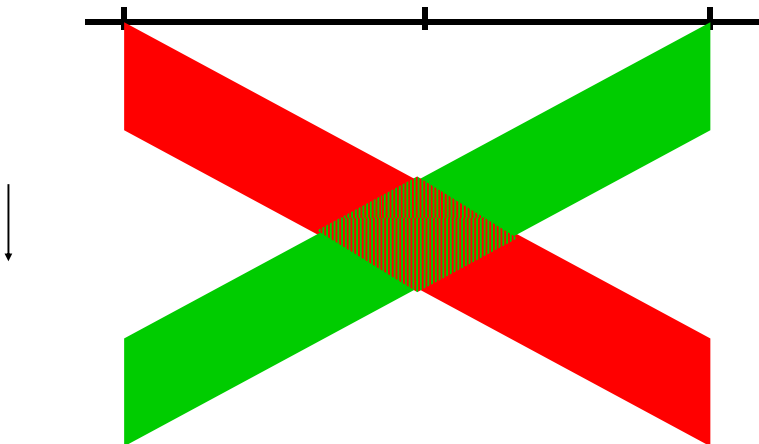
33

## Outline

- Aloha
- Ethernet MAC
- **Collisions**
- Ethernet Frames

34

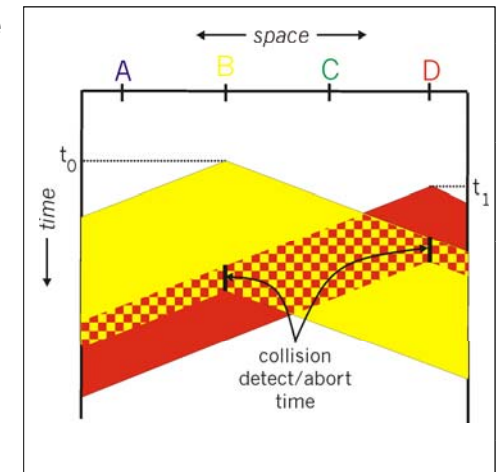
## Collisions



35

## Minimum Packet Size

- What if two people sent really small packets
  - » How do you find collision?



36

## Ethernet Collision Detect

- Min packet length > 2x max prop delay
  - » If A, B are at opposite sides of link, and B starts one link prop delay after A
- Jam network for 32-48 bits after collision, then stop sending
  - » Ensures that everyone notices collision

37

## End to End Delay

- $c$  in cable = 60% \*  $c$  in vacuum =  $1.8 \times 10^8$  m/s
- Modern 10Mb Ethernet
  - » 2.5km, 10Mbps
  - »  $\sim 12.5\mu\text{s}$  delay
  - » +Introduced repeaters (max 5 segments)
  - » Worst case – 51.2 $\mu\text{s}$  round trip time!
- Slot time = 51.2 $\mu\text{s}$  = 512bits in flight
  - » After this amount, sender is guaranteed sole access to link
  - » 51.2 $\mu\text{s}$  = slot time for backoff

38

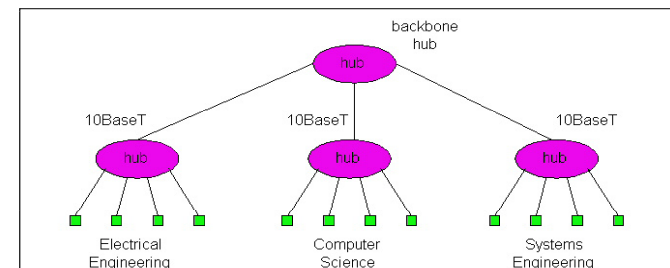
## Packet Size

- What about scaling? 3Mbit, 100Mbit, 1Gbit...
  - » Original 3Mbit Ethernet did not have minimum packet size
    - Max length = 1Km and No repeaters
  - » For higher speeds must make network smaller, minimum packet size larger or both
- What about a maximum packet size?
  - » Needed to prevent node from hogging the network
  - » 1500 bytes in Ethernet

39

## 10BaseT and 100BaseT

- 10/100 Mbps rate; latter called “fast ethernet”
- T stands for Twisted Pair (wiring)
- Minimum packet size requirement
  - » Make network smaller → solution for 100BaseT



40

## Gbit Ethernet

- **Minimum packet size requirement**
  - » Make network smaller?
    - 512bits @ 1Gbps = 512ns
    - $512\text{ns} * 1.8 * 10^8 = 92\text{meters}$  = too small !!
  - » Make min pkt size larger!
    - Gigabit Ethernet uses collision extension for small pkts and backward compatibility
- **Maximum packet size requirement**
  - » 1500 bytes is not really “hogging” the network
  - » Defines “jumbo frames” (9000 bytes) for higher efficiency

41

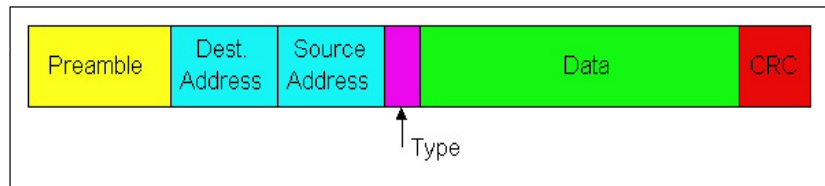
## Outline

- Aloha
- Ethernet MAC
- Collisions
- **Ethernet Frames**

42

## Ethernet Frame Structure

- Sending adapter encapsulates IP datagram (or other network layer protocol packet) in **Ethernet frame**



43

## Ethernet Frame Structure (cont.)

- **Preamble:** 8 bytes
  - » 101010...1011
  - » Used to synchronize receiver, sender clock rates
- **CRC:** 4 bytes
  - » Checked at receiver, if error is detected, the frame is simply dropped

44

## Ethernet Frame Structure (cont.)

- Each protocol layer needs to provide some hooks to upper layer protocols
  - » Demultiplexing: identify which upper layer protocol packet belongs to
  - » E.g., port numbers allow TCP/UDP to identify target application
  - » Ethernet uses Type field
- **Type: 2 bytes**
  - » Indicates the higher layer protocol, mostly IP but others may be supported such as Novell IPX and AppleTalk)

45

## Addressing Alternatives

- **Broadcast → all nodes receive all packets**
  - » Addressing determines which packets are kept and which are packets are thrown away
  - » Packets can be sent to:
    - Unicast – one destination
    - Multicast – group of nodes (e.g. “everyone playing Quake”)
    - Broadcast – everybody on wire
- **Dynamic addresses (e.g. Appletalk)**
  - » Pick an address at random
  - » Broadcast “is anyone using address XX?”
  - » If yes, repeat
- **Static address (e.g. Ethernet)**

46

## Ethernet Frame Structure (cont.)

- **Addresses: 6 bytes**
  - » Each adapter is given a globally unique address at manufacturing time
    - Address space is allocated to manufacturers
      - 24 bits identify manufacturer
      - E.g., 0:0:15:\* → 3com adapter
    - Frame is received by all adapters on a LAN and dropped if address does not match
  - » Special addresses
    - Broadcast – FF:FF:FF:FF:FF:FF is “everybody”
    - Range of addresses allocated to multicast
      - Adapter maintains list of multicast groups node is interested in

47

## Why Did Ethernet Win?

- **Failure modes**
  - » Token rings – network unusable
  - » Ethernet – node detached
- **Good performance in common case**
  - » Deals well with bursty traffic
  - » Usually used at low load
- **Volume → lower cost → higher volume ....**
- **Adaptable**
  - » To higher bandwidths (vs. FDDI)
  - » To switching (vs. ATM)
- **Easy incremental deployment**
- **Cheap cabling, etc**

48

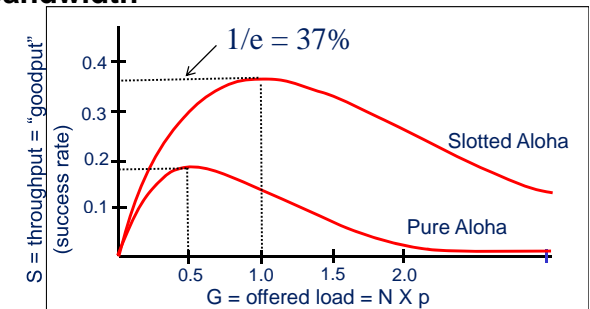
## And .. It is Easy to Manage

- You plug in the host and it basically works
  - » No configuration at the datalink layer
  - » Today: may need to deal with security
- Protocol is fully distributed
- Broadcast-based.
  - » In part explains the easy management
  - » Some of the LAN protocols (e.g. ARP) rely on broadcast
    - Networking would be harder without ARP
  - » Not having natural broadcast capabilities adds complexity to a LAN
    - Example: ATM

49

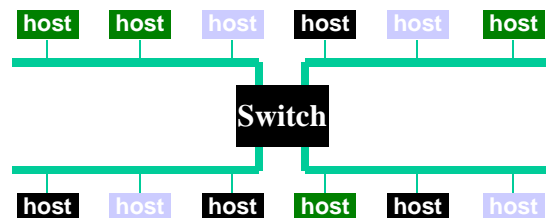
## Ethernet Problems: Unstable at High Load

- Peak throughput worst with
  - » More hosts – more collisions to identify single sender
  - » Smaller packet sizes – more frequent arbitration
  - » Longer links – collisions take longer to observe, more wasted bandwidth
- But works well
  - » Can improve efficiency by avoiding above conditions



## Virtual LANs

- Single physical LAN infrastructure that carries multiple "virtual" LANs simultaneously.
- Each virtual LAN has a LAN identifier in the packet.
  - » Switch keeps track of what nodes are on each segment and what their virtual LAN id is
- Can bridge and route appropriately.
- Broadcast packets stay within the virtual LAN.
  - » Limits the collision domain for the packet



51

## Summary

- CSMA/CD → carrier sense multiple access with collision detection
  - » Why do we need exponential backoff?
  - » Why does collision happen?
  - » Why do we need a minimum packet size?
    - How does this scale with speed?
- Ethernet
  - » What is the purpose of different header fields?
  - » What do Ethernet addresses look like?
- What are some alternatives to Ethernet design?

52

## EXTRA SLIDES

53

## Outline

- Random Access Analysis

54

## 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  $N \rightarrow \infty$  ...

$$\dots p = 1/N$$

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

At best:

55

## Pure Aloha (cont.)

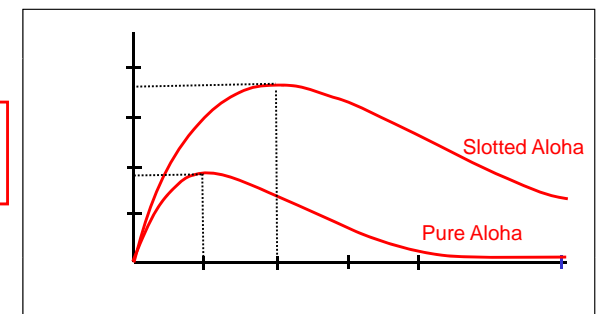
$P(\text{success by given node}) = P(\text{node transmits}) \times P(\text{no other node transmits in } [p_0-1, p_0])$

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

$P(\text{success by any of } N \text{ nodes}) = N p \times (1-p)^{(N-1)} \times (1-p)^{(N-1)} = 1/(2e) = .18$

... choosing optimum  $p$  as  $N \rightarrow \infty \rightarrow p = 1/2N$  ...

protocol



56

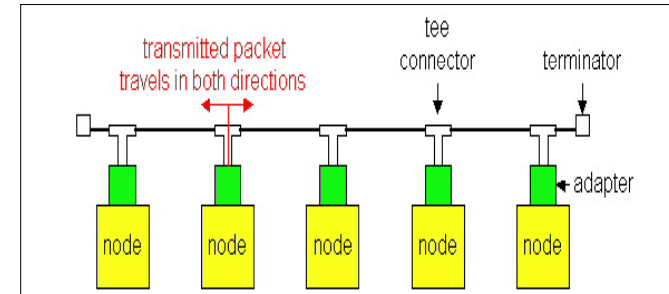
## Simple Analysis of Efficiency

- Key assumptions
  - » All packets are same, small size
    - Packet size = size of contention slot
  - » All nodes always have pkt to send
  - »  $p$  is chosen carefully to be related to  $N$ 
    - $p$  is actually chosen by exponential backoff
  - » Takes full slot to detect collision (i.e. no “fast collision detection”)

57

## Ethernet Technologies: 10Base2

- 10: 10Mbps; 2: under 185 (~200) meters cable length
- Thin coaxial cable in a bus topology



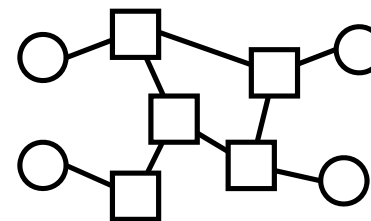
- Repeaters used to connect up to multiple segments
- Repeater repeats bits it hears on one interface to its other interfaces: physical layer device only

## Gbit Ethernet

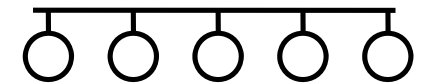
- Use standard Ethernet frame format
- Allows for point-to-point links and shared broadcast channels
- In shared mode, CSMA/CD is used; short distances between nodes to be efficient
- Uses hubs, called here “Buffered Distributors”
- Full-Duplex at 1 Gbps for point-to-point links

59

## Datalink Layer Architectures



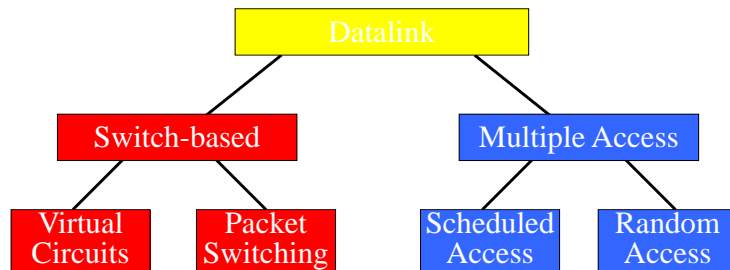
- Packet forwarding.
- Error and flow control.



- Media access control.
- Scalability.

60

## Datalink Classification



61

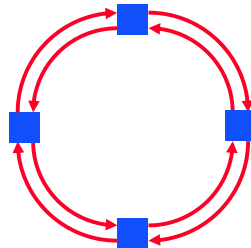
## Multiple Access Protocols

- **Prevent two or more nodes from transmitting at the same time over a broadcast channel.**
  - » If they do, we have a collision, and receivers will not be able to interpret the signal
- **Several classes of multiple access protocols.**
  - » Partitioning the channel, e.g. frequency-division or time division multiplexing
    - With fixed partitioning of bandwidth –
    - Not flexible; inefficient for bursty traffic
  - » Taking turns, e.g. token-based, reservation-based protocols, polling based
  - » Contention based protocols, e.g. Aloha, Ethernet
    - Next lecture

62

## Fiber Distributed Data Interface (FDDI)

- **One token holder may send, with a time limit**
  - » Provides known upper bound on delay.
- **Optical version of 802.5 token ring, but multiple packets may travel in train: token released at end of frame**
- **100 Mbps, 100km**
- **Optional dual ring for fault tolerance**
- **Concerns:**
  - » Token overhead
  - » Latency
  - » Single point of failure



63

## Other “Taking Turn” Protocols

- **Central entity polls stations, inviting them to transmit**
  - » Simple design – no conflicts
  - » Not very efficient – overhead of polling operation
  - » Example: the “Point Control Function” mode for 802.11
- **Stations reserve a slot for transmission.**
  - » For example, break up the transmission time in contention-based and reservation based slots
    - Contention based slots can be used for short messages or to reserve time slots
    - Communication in reservation based slots only allowed after a reservation is made
  - » Issues: fairness, efficiency

64

## MAC Protocols - Discussion

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- **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!
- **“Taking turns” protocols**
  - » More flexible bandwidth allocation, but
  - » Protocol can introduce unnecessary overhead and access delay at low load
- **Random access MAC protocols (next lecture)**
  - » Efficient at low load: single node can fully utilize channel
  - » High load: collision overhead