Operating Systems and Networks

Network Lecture 4: Link Layer (2)

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Pending Issues

- How to read the course textbook?
- How to prepare for the exam given that there is a huge amount of material?
- Grading and quizzes: To adhere precisely to the phrasing in the Vorlesungsverzeichnis, the quizzes will count 20% of the networking part grade of the course, so 10% of the total grade. We will have 4 quizzes, which we will announce. The best 3 quizzes will make up the 20% of the networking part grade.

Where we are in the Course

- Finishing off the Link Layer!
 - Builds on the physical layer to transfer frames over connected links

Application
Transport
Network
Link
Physical

Topics

- 1. Framing
 - Delimiting start/end of frames
- 2. Error detection/correction
 - Handling errors

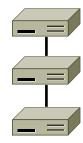


Done

Topics (2)

- 3. Retransmissions
 - Handling loss
- 4. Multiple Access
 - Classic Ethernet, 802.11
- 5. Switching
 - Modern Ethernet





Retransmissions (ARQ) (§3.3)

- Two strategies to handle errors:
- Detect errors and retransmit frame (Automatic Repeat reQuest, ARQ)
- 2. Correct errors with an error correcting code



Context on Reliability

Where in the stack should we place reliability functions?

Application

Transport

Network

Link

Physical

Context on Reliability (2)

- Everywhere! It is a key issue
 - Different layers contribute differently

Application
Transport
Network
Link
Physical

Recover actions
(correctness)

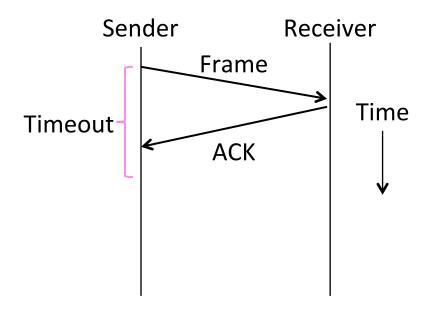
Mask errors
(performance optimization)

ARQ (Automatic Repeat reQuest)

- ARQ often used when errors are common or must be corrected
 - E.g., WiFi, and TCP (later)
- Rules at sender and receiver:
 - Receiver automatically acknowledges correct frames with an ACK
 - Sender automatically resends after a timeout, until an ACK is received

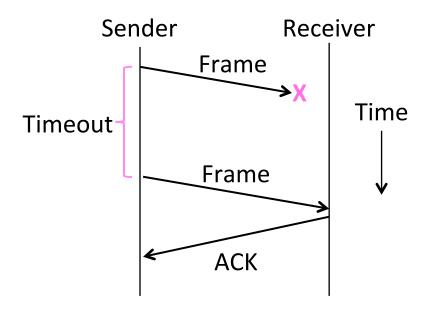
ARQ (2)

Normal operation (no loss, no error)



ARQ (3)

Loss and retransmission



So What's Tricky About ARQ?

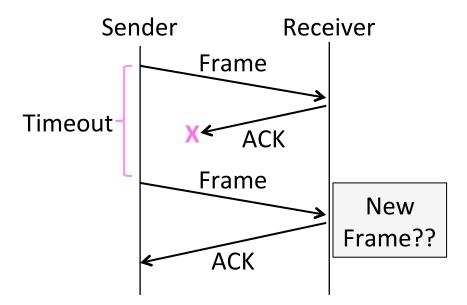
- Two non-trivial issues:
 - How long to set the timeout?
 - How to avoid accepting duplicate frames as new frames
- Want performance in the common case and correctness always

Timeouts

- Timeout should be:
 - Not too big (link goes idle)
 - Not too small (spurious resend)
- Fairly easy on a LAN
 - Clear worst case, little variation
- Fairly difficult over the Internet
 - Much variation, no obvious bound
 - We'll revisit this with TCP (later)

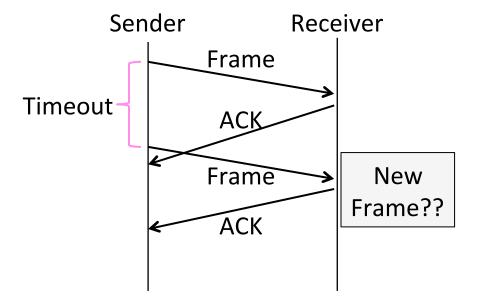
Duplicates

What happens if an ACK is lost?



Duplicates (2)

Or the timeout is early?

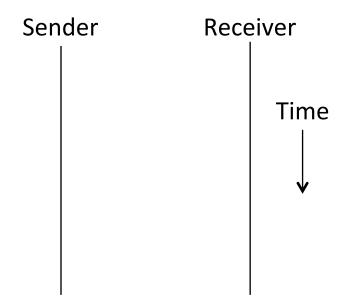


Sequence Numbers

- Frames and ACKs must both carry sequence numbers for correctness
- To distinguish the current frame from the next one, a single bit (two numbers) is sufficient
 - Called <u>Stop-and-Wait</u>

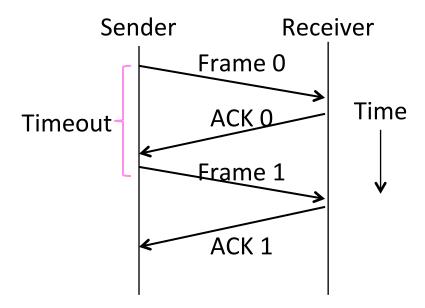
Stop-and-Wait

• In the normal case:



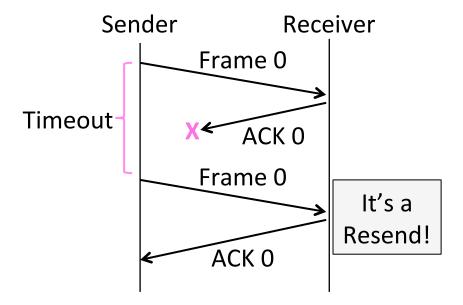
Stop-and-Wait (2)

• In the normal case:



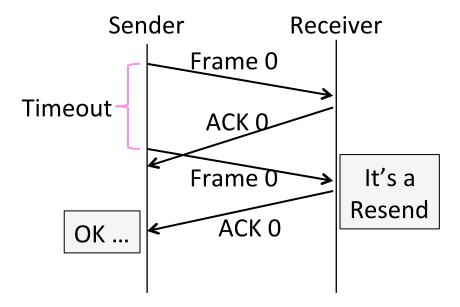
Stop-and-Wait (3)

• With ACK loss:



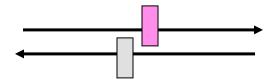
Stop-and-Wait (4)

With early timeout:



Limitation of Stop-and-Wait

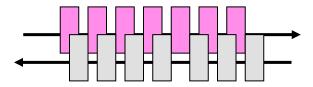
- It allows only a single frame to be outstanding from the sender:
 - Good for LAN, inefficient for high BD (bandwidth-delay product)



- Ex: R=1 Mbps, D = 50 ms
 - How many frames/sec? If R=10 Mbps?

Sliding Window

- Generalization of stop-and-wait
 - Allows W frames to be outstanding
 - Can send W frames per RTT (=2D)



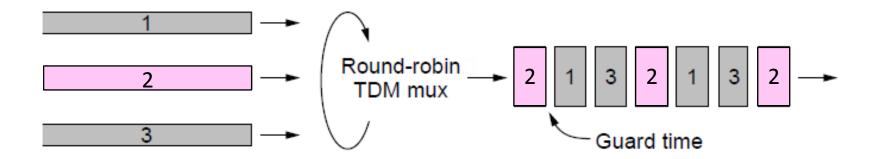
- Various options for numbering frames/ACKs and handling loss
 - Will look at along with TCP (later)

Multiplexing (§2.5.3, 2.5.4)

- Multiplexing is the network word for the sharing of a resource
- Classic scenario is sharing a link among different users
 - Time Division Multiplexing (TDM)
 - Frequency Division Multiplexing (FDM)

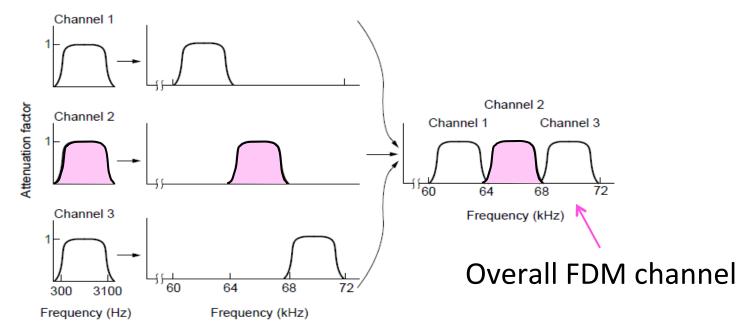
Time Division Multiplexing (TDM)

Users take turns on a fixed schedule



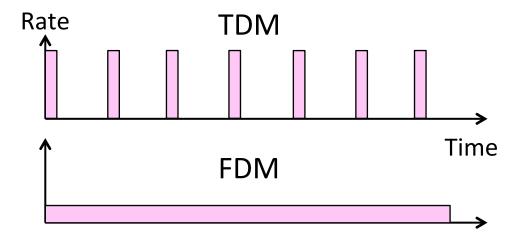
Frequency Division Multiplexing (FDM)

Put different users on different frequency bands



TDM versus FDM

In TDM a user sends at a high rate a fraction of the time;
 in FDM, a user sends at a low rate all the time

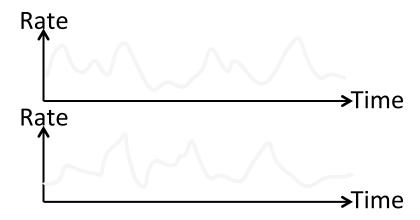


TDM/FDM Usage

- Statically divide a resource
 - Suited for continuous traffic, fixed number of users
- Widely used in telecommunications
 - TV and radio stations (FDM)
 - GSM (2G cellular) allocates calls using TDM within FDM

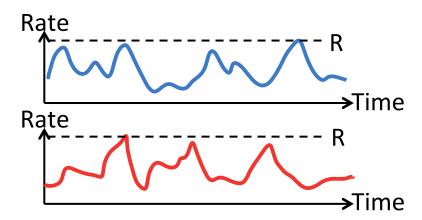
Multiplexing Network Traffic

- Network traffic is <u>bursty</u>
 - ON/OFF sources
 - Load varies greatly over time



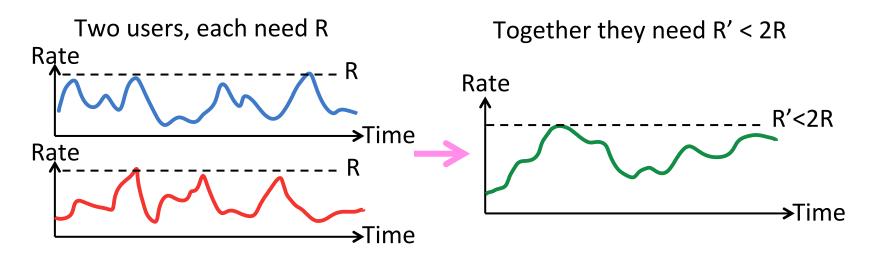
Multiplexing Network Traffic (2)

- Network traffic is <u>bursty</u>
 - Inefficient to always allocate user their ON needs with TDM/
 FDM



Multiplexing Network Traffic (3)

 <u>Multiple access</u> schemes multiplex users according to their demands – for gains of statistical multiplexing

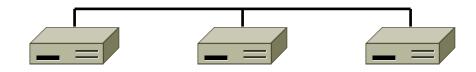


Multiple Access

- We will look at two kinds of multiple access protocols
- 1. Randomized. Nodes randomize their resource access attempts
 - Good for low load situations
- 2. Contention-free. Nodes order their resource access attempts
 - Good for high load or guaranteed quality of service situations

Randomized Multiple Access (§4.2.1-4.2.2, 4.3.1-4.3.3)

- How do nodes share a single link? Who sends when, e.g., in WiFI?
 - Explore with a simple model



Assume no-one is in charge; this is a distributed system

Randomized Multiple Access (2)

- We will explore random <u>multiple access control</u> or <u>medium access control</u> (MAC) protocols
 - This is the basis for <u>classic Ethernet</u>
 - Remember: data traffic is bursty

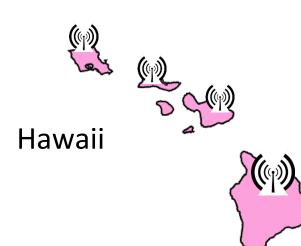


ALOHA Network

 Seminal computer network connecting the Hawaiian islands in the late 1960s



- When should nodes send?
- A new protocol was devised by Norm Abramson ...



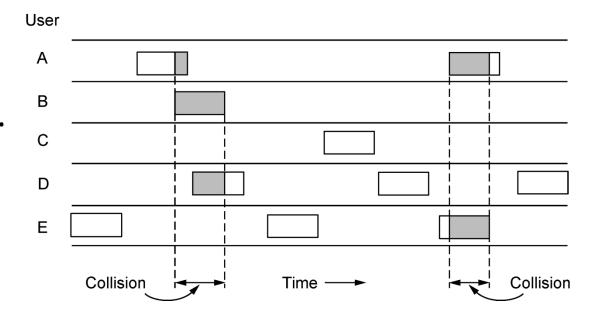
ALOHA Protocol

- Simple idea:
 - Node just sends when it has traffic.
 - If there was a collision (no ACK received) then wait a random time and resend
- That's it!

ALOHA Protocol (2)

 Some frames will be lost, but many may get through...

Good idea?

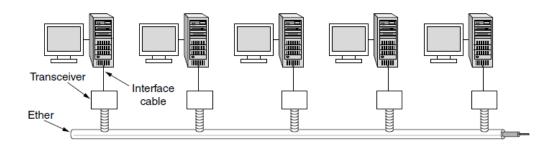


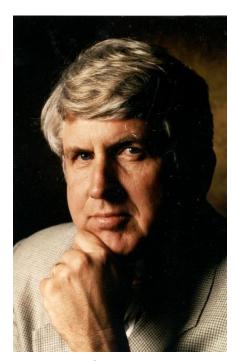
ALOHA Protocol (3)

- Simple, decentralized protocol that works well under low load!
- Not efficient under high load
 - Analysis shows at most 18% efficiency
 - Improvement: divide time into slots and efficiency goes up to 36%
- We'll look at other improvements

Classic Ethernet

- ALOHA inspired Bob Metcalfe to invent Ethernet for LANs in 1973
 - Nodes share 10 Mbps coaxial cable
 - Hugely popular in 1980s, 1990s





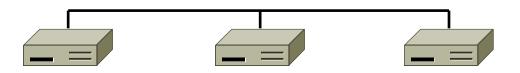
: © 2009 IEEE

CSMA (Carrier Sense Multiple Access)

- Improve ALOHA by listening for activity before we send (Doh!)
 - Can do easily with wires, not wireless
- So does this eliminate collisions?
 - Why or why not?

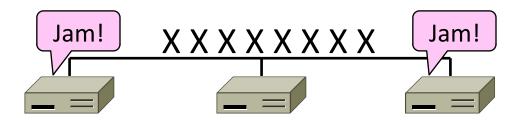
CSMA (2)

 Still possible to listen and hear nothing when another node is sending because of delay



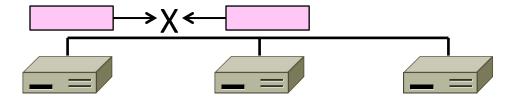
CSMA/CD (with Collision Detection)

- Can reduce the cost of collisions by detecting them and aborting (Jam) the rest of the frame time
 - Again, we can do this with wires



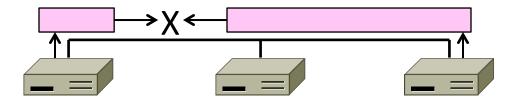
CSMA/CD Complications

- Want everyone who collides to know that it happened
 - Time window in which a node may hear of a collision is 2D seconds



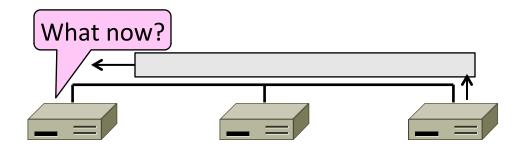
CSMA/CD Complications (2)

- Impose a minimum frame size that lasts for 2D seconds
 - So node can't finish before collision
 - Ethernet minimum frame is 64 bytes



CSMA "Persistence"

What should a node do if another node is sending?



Idea: Wait until it is done, and send

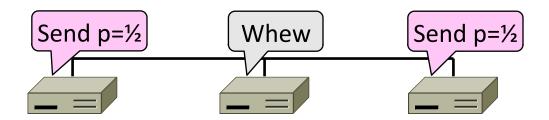
CSMA "Persistence" (2)

- Problem is that multiple waiting nodes will queue up then collide
 - More load, more of a problem



CSMA "Persistence" (3)

- Intuition for a better solution
 - If there are N queued senders, we want each to send next with probability 1/N

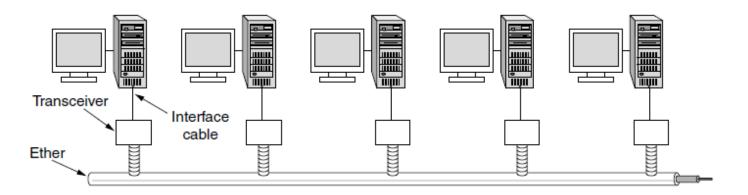


Binary Exponential Backoff (BEB)

- Cleverly estimates the probability
 - 1st collision, wait 0 or 1 frame times
 - 2nd collision, wait from 0 to 3 times
 - 3rd collision, wait from 0 to 7 times ...
- BEB doubles interval for each successive collision
 - Quickly gets large enough to work
 - Very efficient in practice

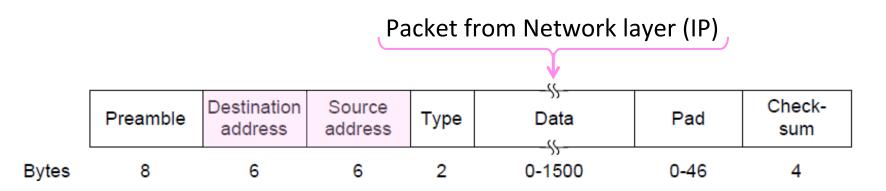
Classic Ethernet, or IEEE 802.3

- Most popular LAN of the 1980s, 1990s
 - 10 Mbps over shared coaxial cable, with baseband signals
 - Multiple access with "1-persistent CSMA/CD with BEB"
 - With reasonable parameters, 85% efficiency (Book 4.3.3)



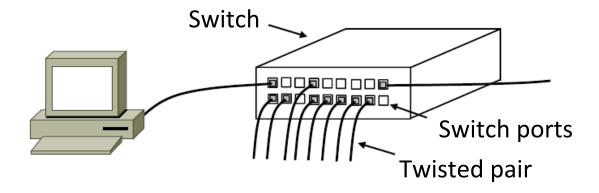
Ethernet Frame Format

- Has addresses to identify the sender and receiver
- CRC-32 for error detection; no ACKs or retransmission
- Start of frame identified with physical layer preamble



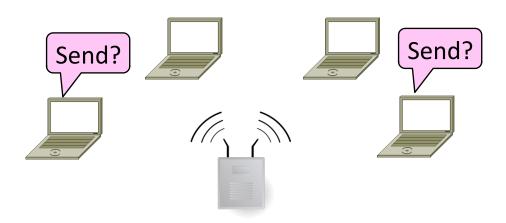
Modern Ethernet

- Based on switches, not multiple access, but still called Ethernet
 - We'll get to it later



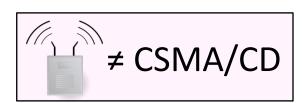
Wireless Multiple Access (§4.2.5, 4.4)

- How do wireless nodes share a single link? (Yes, this is WiFi!)
 - Build on our simple, wired model



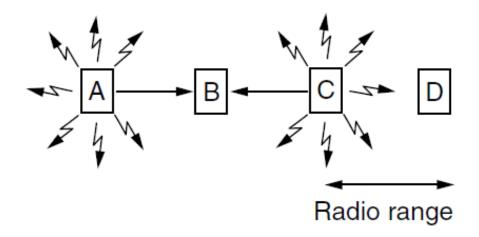
Wireless Complications

- Wireless is more complicated than the wired case (Surprise!)
 - Nodes may have different areas of coverage doesn't fit Carrier Sense
 - 2. Nodes can't hear while sending can't Collision Detect



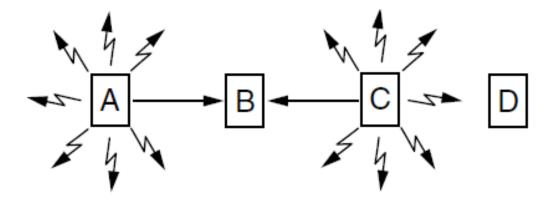
Different Coverage Areas

 Wireless signal is broadcast and received nearby, where there is sufficient SNR



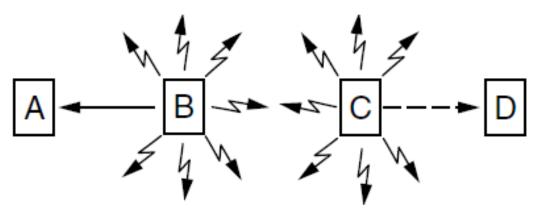
Hidden Terminals

- Nodes A and C are <u>hidden terminals</u> when sending to B
 - Can't hear each other (to coordinate) yet collide at B
 - We want to avoid the inefficiency of collisions



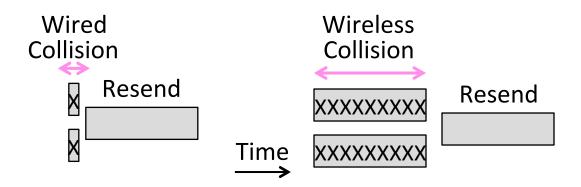
Exposed Terminals

- B and C are <u>exposed terminals</u> when sending to A and D
 - Can hear each other yet don't collide at receivers A and D
 - We want to send concurrently to increase performance



Nodes Can't Hear While Sending

- With wires, detecting collisions (and aborting) lowers their cost
- More wasted time with wireless



Possible Solution: MACA

- MACA uses a short handshake instead of CSMA (Karn, 1990)
 - 802.11 uses a refinement of MACA (later)
- Protocol rules:
 - A sender node transmits a RTS (Request-To-Send, with frame length)
 - 2. The receiver replies with a CTS (Clear-To-Send, with frame length)
 - 3. Sender transmits the frame while nodes hearing the CTS stay silent
 - Collisions on the RTS/CTS are still possible, but less likely

MACA – Hidden Terminals

- A > B with hidden terminal C
 - 1. A sends RTS, to B

A B C D

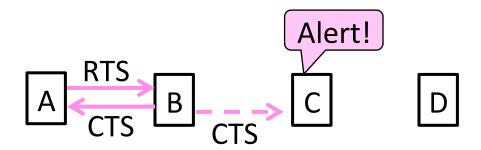
MACA – Hidden Terminals (2)

- A→B with hidden terminal C
 - 2. B sends CTS, to A, and C too



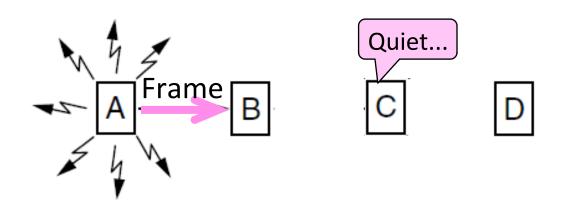
MACA – Hidden Terminals (3)

- A→B with hidden terminal C
 - 2. B sends CTS, to A, and C too



MACA – Hidden Terminals (4)

- A→B with hidden terminal C
 - 3. A sends frame while C defers



MACA – Exposed Terminals

- $B \rightarrow A$, $C \rightarrow D$ as exposed terminals
 - B and C send RTS to A and D

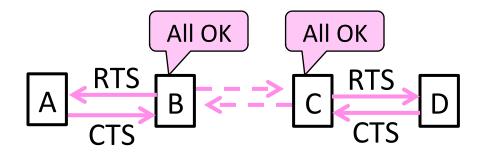
A B C D

MACA – Exposed Terminals (2)

- $B \rightarrow A$, $C \rightarrow D$ as exposed terminals
 - A and D send CTS to B and C

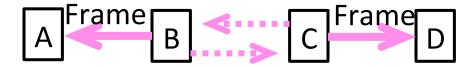
MACA – Exposed Terminals (3)

- $B \rightarrow A$, $C \rightarrow D$ as exposed terminals
 - A and D send CTS to B and C



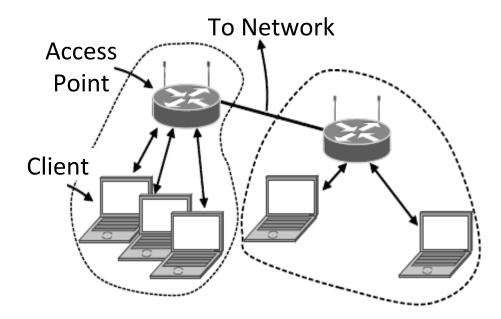
MACA – Exposed Terminals (4)

- $B \rightarrow A$, $C \rightarrow D$ as exposed terminals
 - A and D send CTS to B and C



802.11, or WiFi

- Very popular wireless LAN started in the 1990s
- Clients get connectivity from a (wired) AP (Access Point)
- It's a multi-access problem ☺
- Various flavors have been developed over time
 - Faster, more features

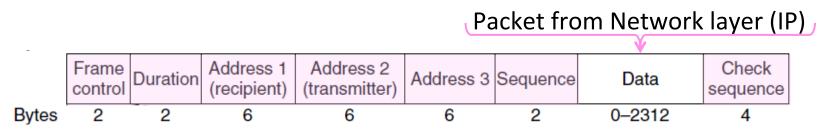


802.11 Physical Layer

- Uses 20/40 MHz channels on ISM bands
 - 802.11b/g/n on 2.4 GHz
 - 802.11 a/n on 5 GHz
- OFDM modulation (except legacy 802.11b)
 - Different amplitudes/phases for varying SNRs
 - Rates from 6 to 54 Mbps plus error correction
 - 802.11n uses multiple antennas; see "802.11 with Multiple Antennas for Dummies"

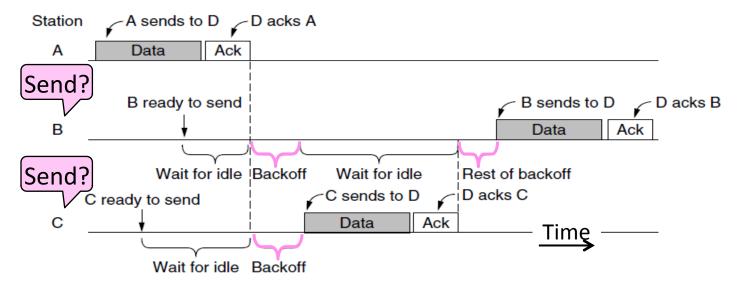
802.11 Link Layer

- Multiple access uses CSMA/CA (next); RTS/CTS optional
- Frames are ACKed and retransmitted with ARQ
- Funky addressing (three addresses!) due to AP
- Errors are detected with a 32-bit CRC
- Many, many features (e.g., encryption, power save)



802.11 CSMA/CA for Multiple Access

- Sender avoids collisions by inserting small random gaps
 - E.g., when both B and C send, C picks a smaller gap, goes first

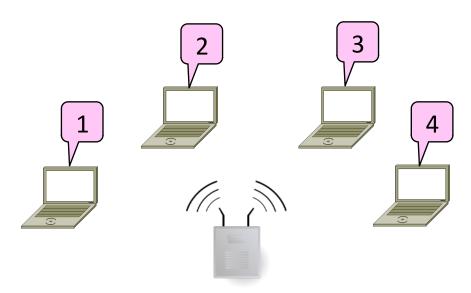


The Future of 802.11 (Guess)

- Likely ubiquitous for Internet connectivity
 - Greater diversity, from low- to high-end devices
- Innovation in physical layer drives speed
 - And power-efficient operation too
- More seamless integration of connectivity
 - Too manual now, and limited (e.g., device-to-device)

Contention-Free Multiple Access (§4.2.3)

- Another approach to multiple access
 - Based on turns, not randomization



Issues with Random Multiple Access

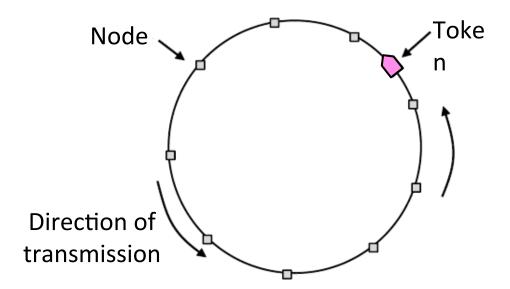
- CSMA is good under low load:
 - Grants immediate access
 - Little overhead (few collisions)
- But not so good under high load:
 - High overhead (expect collisions)
 - Access time varies (lucky/unlucky)
- We want to do better under load!

Turn-Taking Multiple Access Protocols

- They define an order in which nodes get a chance to send
 - Or pass, if no traffic at present
- We just need some ordering ...
 - E.g., Token Ring
 - E.g., node addresses

Token Ring

 Arrange nodes in a ring; token rotates "permission to send" to each node in turn



Turn-Taking Advantages

- Fixed overhead with no collisions
 - More efficient under load
- Regular chance to send with no unlucky nodes
 - Predictable service, easily extended to guaranteed quality of service

Turn-Taking Disadvantages

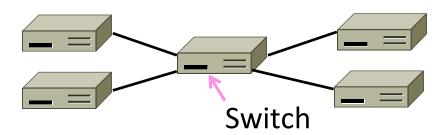
- Complexity
 - More things that can go wrong than random access protocols!
 - E.g., what if the token is lost?
 - Elect a leader who manages the token, what to do if leader crashes?
 - Higher overhead at low load

Turn-Taking in Practice

- Regularly tried as an improvement offering better service
 - E.g., qualities of service
- But random multiple access is hard to beat
 - Simple, and usually good enough
 - Scales from few to many nodes

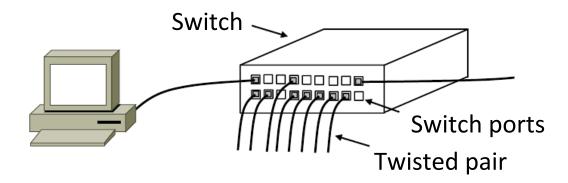
LAN Switches (§4.3.4, 4.8.1-4.8.2, 4.8.4)

- How do we connect nodes with a <u>switch</u> instead of multiple access
 - Uses multiple links/wires
 - Basis of modern (switched) Ethernet



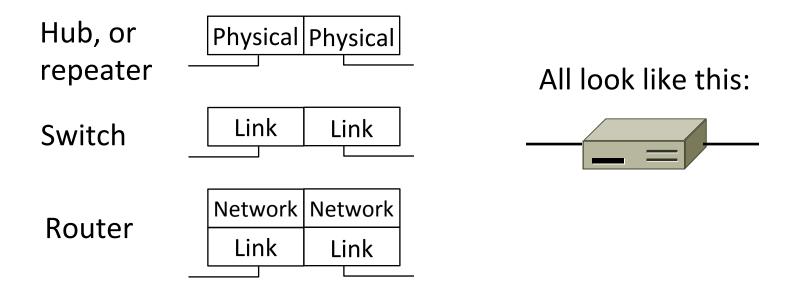
Switched Ethernet

- Hosts are wired to Ethernet switches with twisted pair
 - Switch serves to connect the hosts
 - Wires usually run to a closet



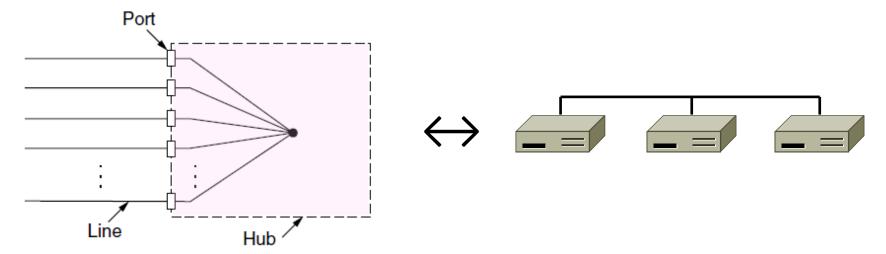
What's in the box?

Remember from protocol layers:



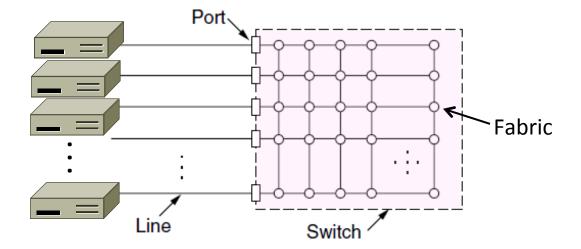
Inside a Hub

 All ports are wired together; more convenient and reliable than a single shared wire



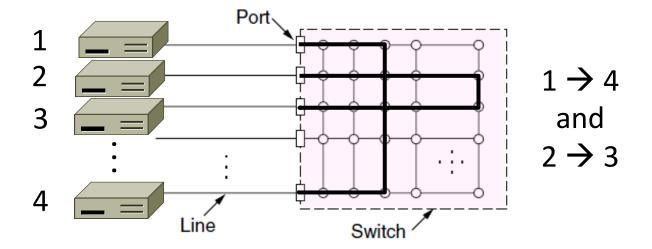
Inside a Switch

 Uses frame addresses to connect input port to the right output port; multiple frames may be switched in parallel



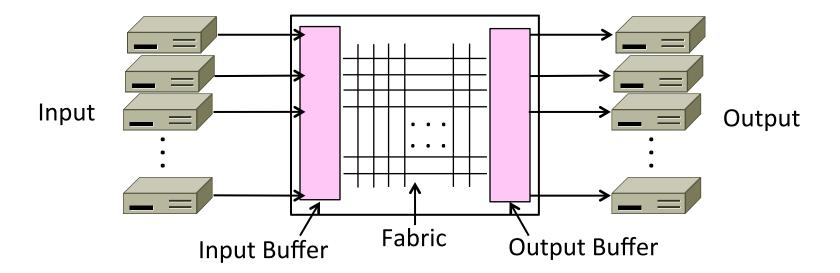
Inside a Switch (2)

- Port may be used for both input and output (full-duplex)
 - Just send, no multiple access protocol



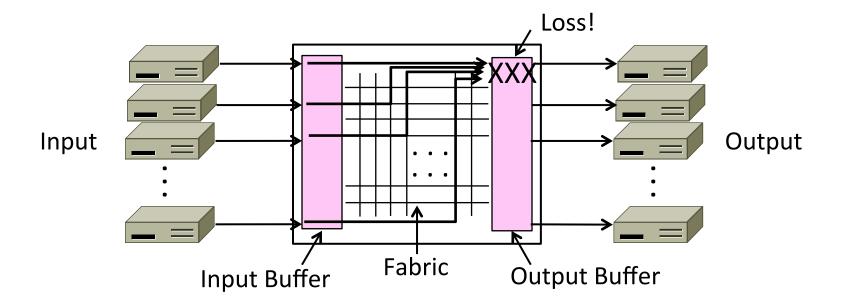
Inside a Switch (3)

Need buffers for multiple inputs to send to one output



Inside a Switch (4)

Sustained overload will fill buffer and lead to frame loss

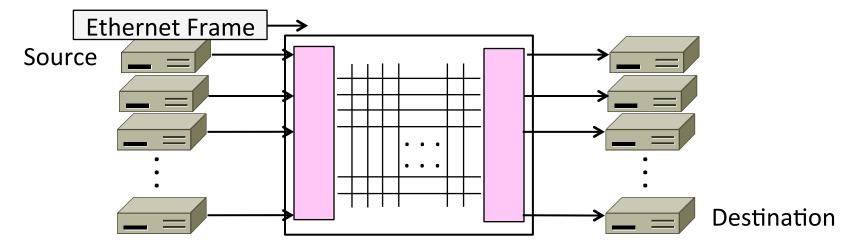


Advantages of Switches

- Switches and hubs have replaced the shared cable of classic Ethernet
 - Convenient to run wires to one location
 - More reliable; wire cut is not a single point of failure that is hard to find
- Switches offer scalable performance
 - E.g., 100 Mbps per port instead of 100 Mbps for all nodes of shared cable / hub

Switch Forwarding

- Switch needs to find the right output port for the destination address in the Ethernet frame. How?
 - Want to let hosts be moved around readily; don't look at IP

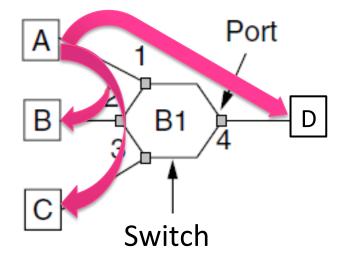


Backward Learning

- Switch forwards frames with a port/address table as follows:
 - 1. To fill the table, it looks at the source address of input frames
 - 2. To forward, it sends to the port, or else broadcasts to all ports

Backward Learning (2)

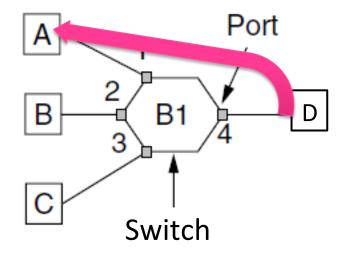
• 1: A sends to D



| Address | Port |
|---------|------|
| Α | |
| В | |
| С | |
| D | |

Backward Learning (3)

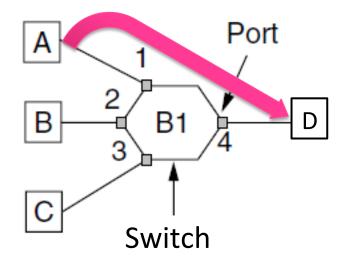
• 2: D sends to A



| Address | Port |
|---------|------|
| Α | 1 |
| В | |
| С | |
| D | |

Backward Learning (4)

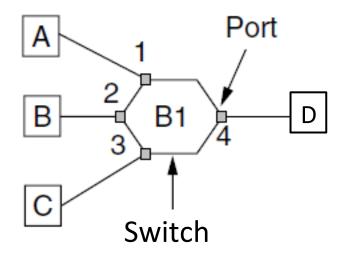
• 3: A sends to D



| Address | Port |
|---------|------|
| Α | 1 |
| В | |
| С | |
| D | 4 |

Backward Learning (5)

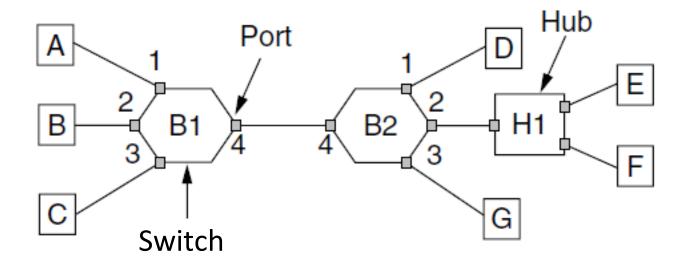
• 3: A sends to D



| Address | Port |
|---------|------|
| Α | 1 |
| В | |
| С | |
| D | 4 |

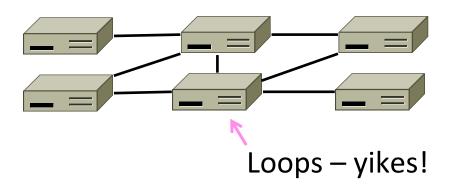
Learning with Multiple Switches

 Just works with multiple switches and a mix of hubs assuming no loops, e.g., A sends to D then D sends to A



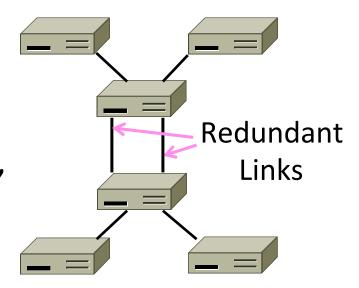
Switch Spanning Tree (§4.8.3)

 How can we connect switches in any topology so they just work?



Problem – Forwarding Loops

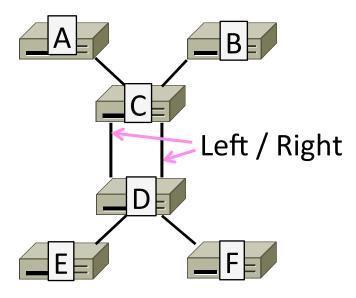
- May have a loop in the topology
 - Redundancy in case of failures
 - Or a simple mistake
- Want LAN switches to "just work"
 - Plug-and-play, no changes to hosts
 - But loops cause a problem ...



Forwarding Loops (2)

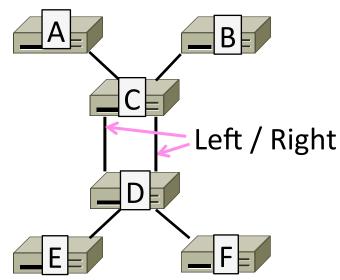
Suppose the network is started and A sends to F. What

happens?



Forwarding Loops (3)

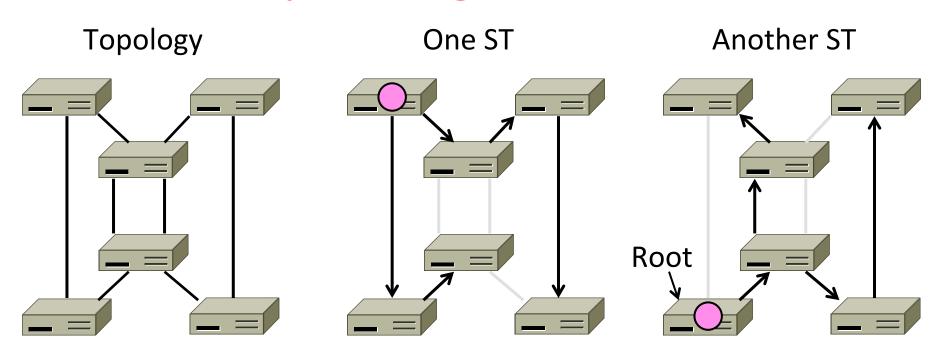
- Suppose the network is started and A sends to F. What happens?
 - $-A \rightarrow C \rightarrow B$, D-left, D-right
 - D-left → C-right, E, F
 - D-right → C-left, E, F
 - C-right → D-left, A, B
 - C-left → D-right, A, B
 - D-left → ...
 - D-right → ...



Spanning Tree Solution

- Switches collectively find a <u>spanning tree</u> for the topology
 - A subset of links that is a tree (no loops) and reaches all switches
 - Switches forward as normal but only on spanning tree
 - Broadcasts will go up to the root of the tree and down all the branches

Spanning Tree (2)



Radia Perlman (1951–)

- Key early work on routing protocols
 - Routing in the ARPANET
 - Spanning Tree for switches (next)
 - Link-state routing (later)
- Now focused on network security



Spanning Tree Algorithm

- Rules of the distributed game:
 - All switches run the same algorithm
 - They start with no information
 - Operate in parallel and send messages
 - Always search for the best solution
- Ensures a highly robust solution
 - Any topology, with no configuration
 - Adapts to link/switch failures, ...

Spanning Tree Algorithm (2)

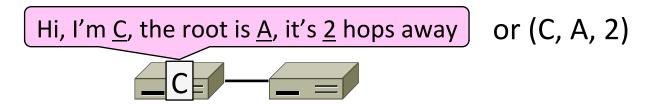
Outline:

- 1. Elect a root node of the tree (switch with the lowest address)
- Grow tree as shortest distances from the root (using lowest address to break distance ties)
- 3. Turn off ports for forwarding if they are not on the spanning tree

Spanning Tree Algorithm (3)

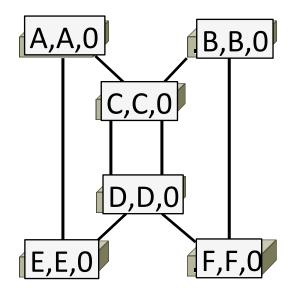
Details:

- Each switch initially believes it is the root of the tree
- Each switch sends periodic updates to neighbors with:
 - Its address, address of the root, and distance (in hops) to root
- Switches favors ports with shorter distances to lowest root
 - Uses lowest address as a tie for distances



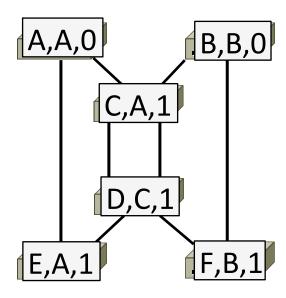
Spanning Tree Example

- 1st round, sending:
 - A sends (A, A, 0) to say it is root
 - B, C, D, E, and F do likewise
- 1st round, receiving:
 - A still thinks is it (A, A, 0)
 - B still thinks (B, B, 0)
 - C updates to (C, A, 1)
 - D updates to (D, C, 1)
 - E updates to (E, A, 1)
 - F updates to (F, B, 1)



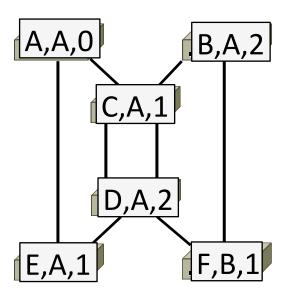
Spanning Tree Example (2)

- 2nd round, sending
 - Nodes send their updated state
- 2nd round receiving:
 - A remains (A, A, 0)
 - B updates to (B, A, 2) via C
 - C remains (C, A, 1)
 - D updates to (D, A, 2) via C
 - E remains (E, A, 1)
 - F remains (F, B, 1)



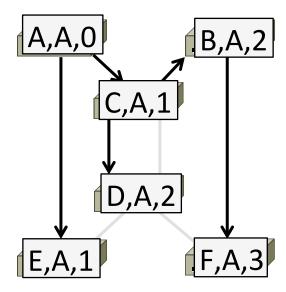
Spanning Tree Example (3)

- 3rd round, sending
 - Nodes send their updated state
- 3rd round receiving:
 - A remains (A, A, 0)
 - B remains (B, A, 2) via C
 - C remains (C, A, 1)
 - D remains (D, A, 2) via C-left
 - E remains (E, A, 1)
 - F updates to (F, A, 3) via B



Spanning Tree Example (4)

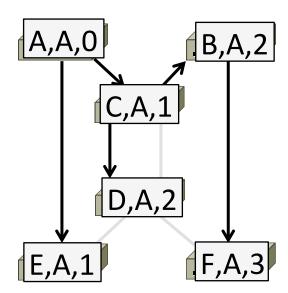
- 4th round
 - Steady-state has been reached
 - Nodes turn off forwarding that is not on the spanning tree
- Algorithm continues to run
 - Adapts by timing out information
 - E.g., if A fails, other nodes forget it,
 and B will become the new root



Spanning Tree Example (5)

- Forwarding proceeds as usual on the ST
- Initially D sends to F:

And F sends back to D:



Spanning Tree Example (6)

- Forwarding proceeds as usual on the ST
- Initially D sends to F:
 - D \rightarrow C-left
 - $C \rightarrow A, B$
 - $-A \rightarrow E$
 - $B \rightarrow F$
- And F sends back to D:
 - $F \rightarrow B$
 - $-B \rightarrow C$
 - $C \rightarrow D$

(hm, not such a great route)

