EEM602 Internet of Things

Lecture # 6
(IOT Course: Link and Physical Layers (OSI)

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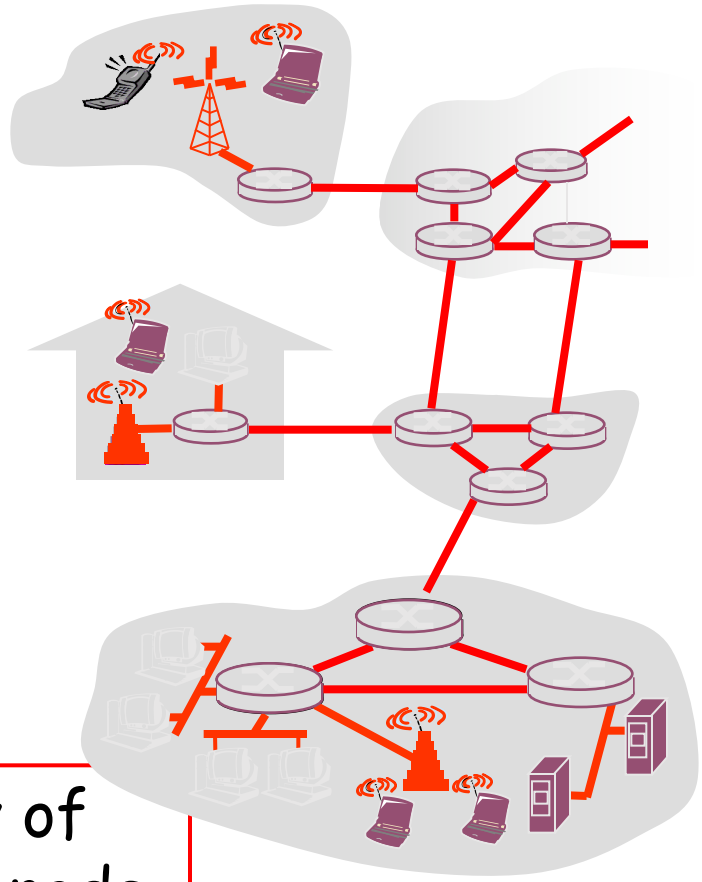
Link Layer

- 5.1 Introduction and services
- 5.2 Error detection and correction
- 5.3Multiple access protocols
- 5.4 Link-layer Addressing
- 5.5 Ethernet
- 5.6 Link-layer switches

Link Layer: Introduction

Some terminology:

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



data-link layer has responsibility of transferring datagram from one node to adjacent node over a link

Link layer: context

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

transportation analogy

- trip from Princeton to Lausanne
  - limo: Princeton to JFK
  - plane: JFK to Geneva
  - train: Geneva to Lausanne
- tourist = datagram
- transport segment = communication link
- transportation mode = link layer protocol
- travel agent = routing algorithm

Link Layer Services

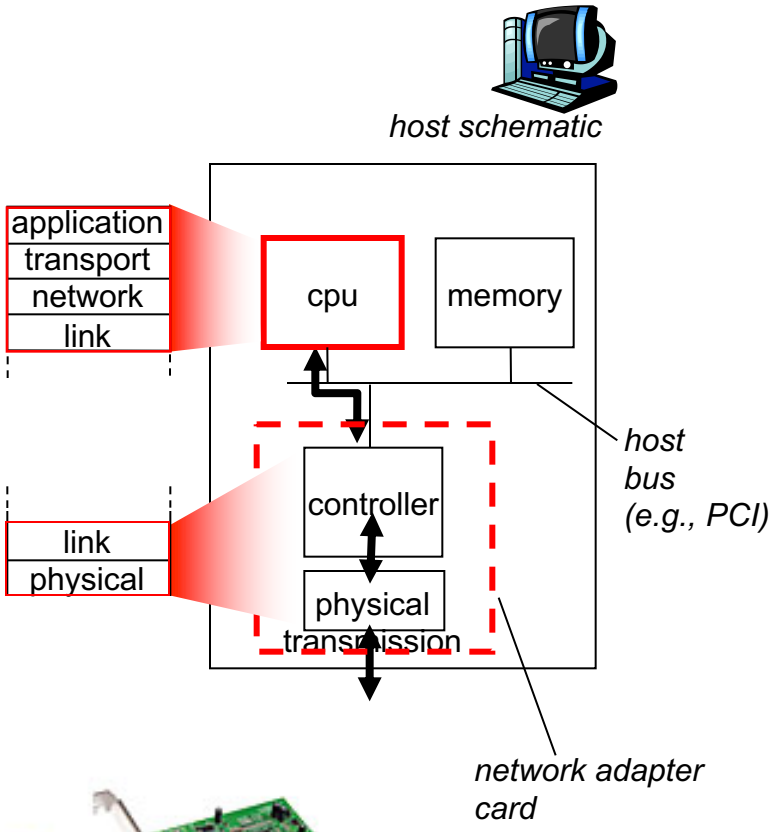
- *framing, link access:*
  - encapsulate datagram into frame, adding header, trailer
  - channel access if shared medium
  - "MAC" addresses used in frame headers to identify source, dest
    - different from IP address!
- *reliable delivery between adjacent nodes*
  - we learned how to do this already (chapter 3)!
  - seldom used on low bit-error link (fiber, some twisted pair)
  - wireless links: high error rates
    - Q: why both link-level and end-end reliability?

Link Layer Services (more)

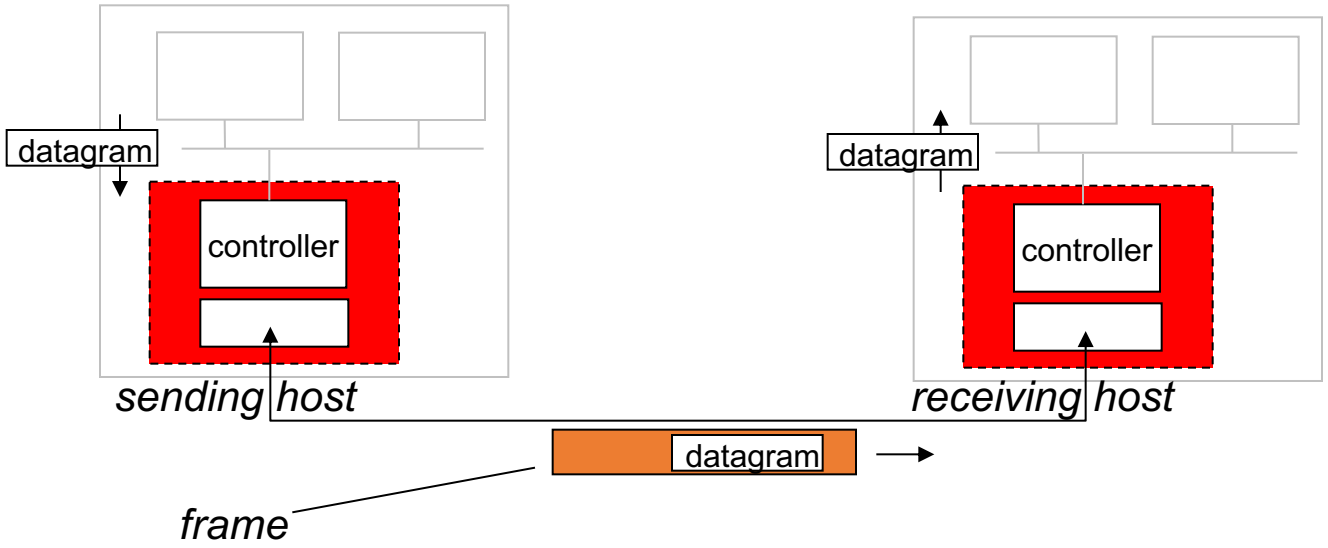
- *flow control:*
  - pacing between adjacent sending and receiving nodes
- *error detection*:
  - errors caused by signal attenuation, noise.
  - receiver detects presence of errors:
    - signals sender for retransmission or drops frame
- error correction:
  - receiver identifies *and corrects* bit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

Where is the link layer implemented?

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



Adaptors Communicating



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

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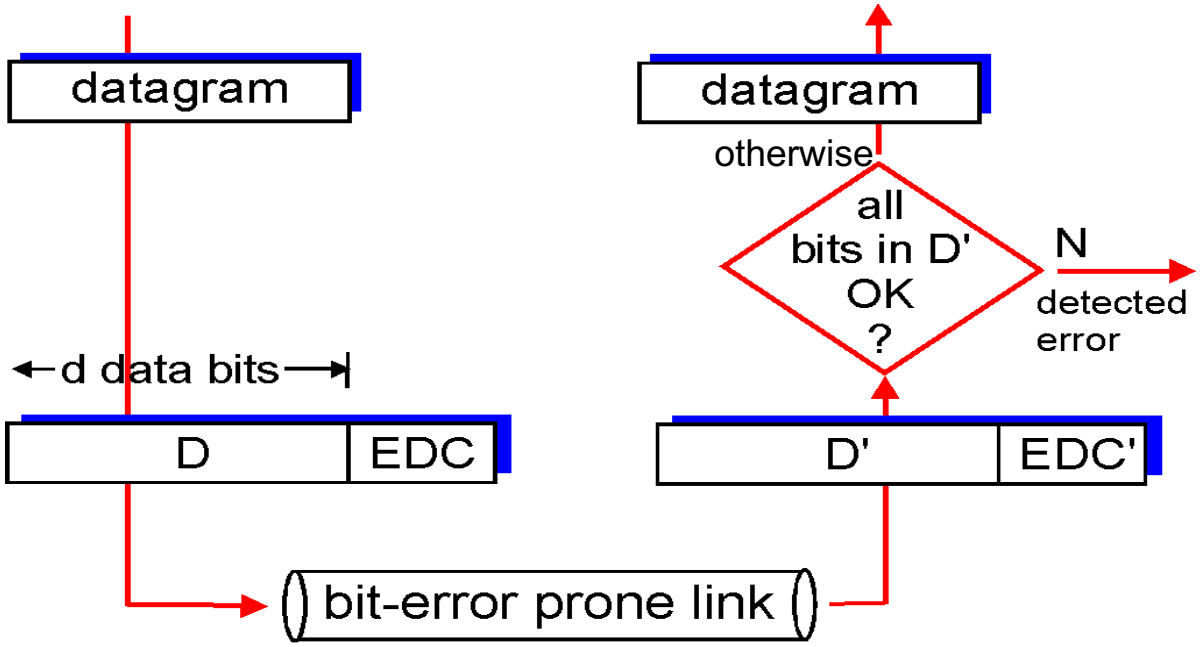
- 5.8 Link virtualization: MPLS
- 5.9 A day in the life of a web request

Error Detection

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

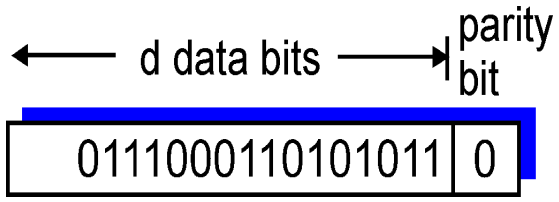
- Error detection not 100% reliable!
  - protocol may miss some errors, but rarely
  - larger EDC field yields better detection and correction



Parity Checking

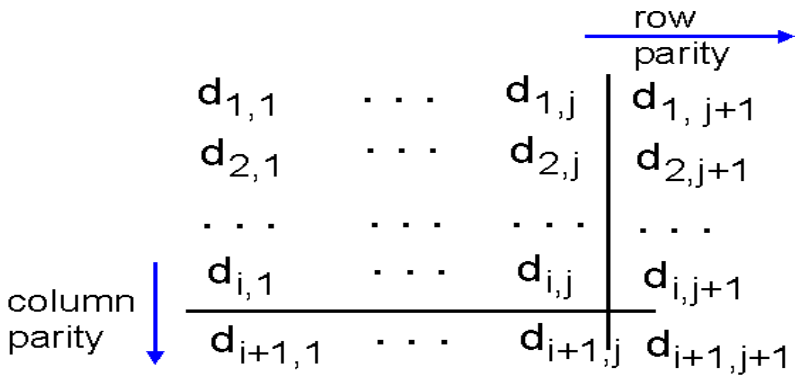
Single Bit Parity:

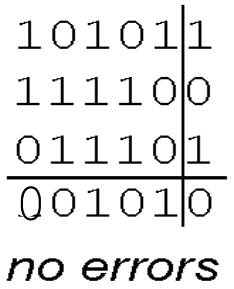
Detect single bit errors



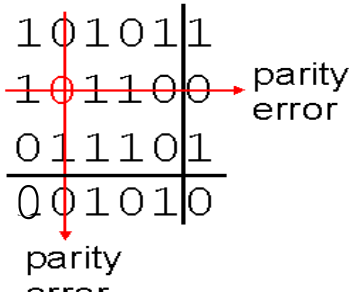
Two Dimensional Bit Parity:

Detect *and correct* single bit errors





no errors



correctable single bit error

Internet checksum (review)

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

Sender:

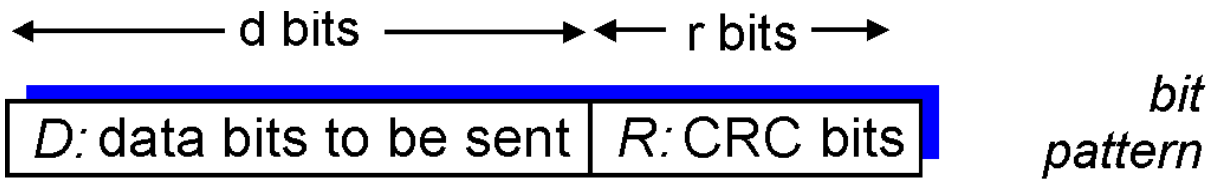
- treat segment contents as sequence of 16-bit integers
- checksum: addition (1's complement sum) of segment contents
- sender puts checksum value into UDP checksum field

Receiver:

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

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
  - <D,R> exactly divisible by G (modulo 2)
  - receiver knows G, divides <D,R> by G. If non-zero remainder: error detected!
  - can detect all burst errors less than r+1 bits
- widely used in practice (Ethernet, 802.11 WiFi, ATM)



$D * 2^r$ XOR R

mathematical formula

CRC Example

Want:

$D \cdot 2^r$ XOR R = nG

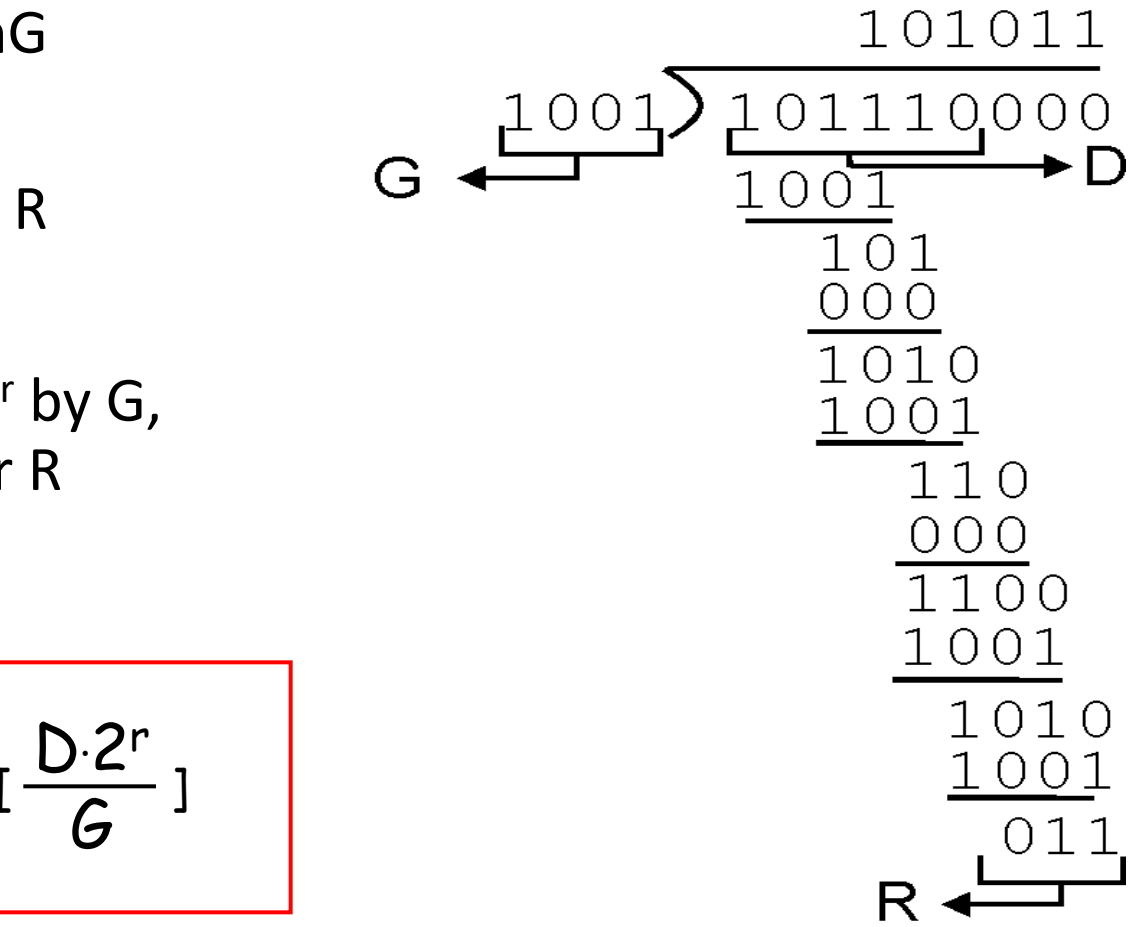
equivalently:

$D \cdot 2^r$ = nG XOR R

equivalently:

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

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



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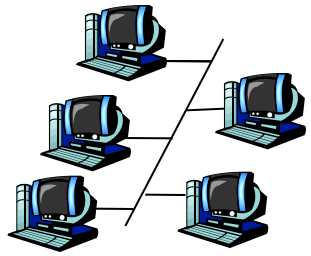
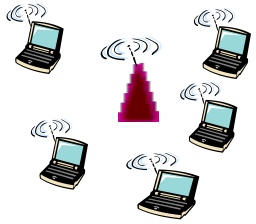
Multiple Access Links and Protocols

Two types of “links”:

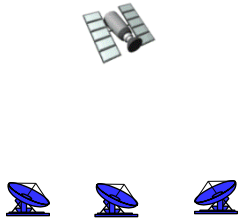
- point-to-point
  - PPP for dial-up access
  - point-to-point link between Ethernet switch and host
- broadcast (shared wire or medium)
  - old-fashioned Ethernet
  - upstream HFC
  - 802.11 wireless LAN



shared wire (e.g., cabled Ethernet)



shared RF (e.g., 802.11 WiFi)



shared RF (satellite)

humans at a cocktail party (shared air, acoustical)

Multiple Access protocols

- single shared broadcast channel
- two or more simultaneous transmissions by nodes: interference
  - collision if node receives two or more signals at the same time

multiple access protocol

- distributed algorithm that determines how nodes share channel, i.e., determine when node can transmit
- communication about channel sharing must use channel itself!
  - no out-of-band channel for coordination

Ideal Multiple Access Protocol

Broadcast channel of rate R bps

1. when one node wants to transmit, it can send at rate R.
2. when M nodes want to transmit, each can send at average rate R/M
3. fully decentralized:
   - no special node to coordinate transmissions
   - no synchronization of clocks, slots
4. simple

MAC Protocols: a taxonomy

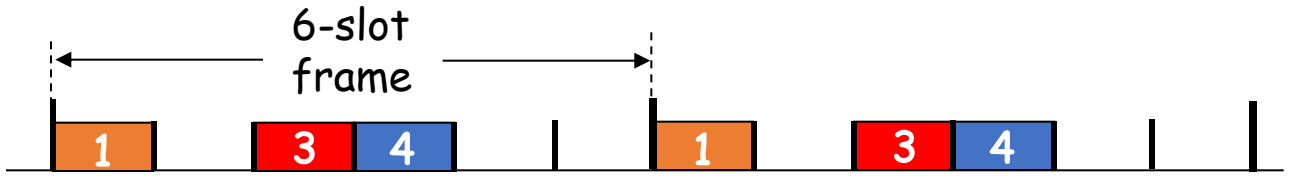
Three broad classes:

- Channel Partitioning
  - divide channel into smaller “pieces” (time slots, frequency, code)
  - allocate piece to node for exclusive use
- Random Access
  - channel not divided, allow collisions
  - “recover” from collisions
- “Taking turns”
  - nodes take turns, but nodes with more to send can take longer turns

Channel Partitioning MAC protocols: TDMA

TDMA: time division multiple access

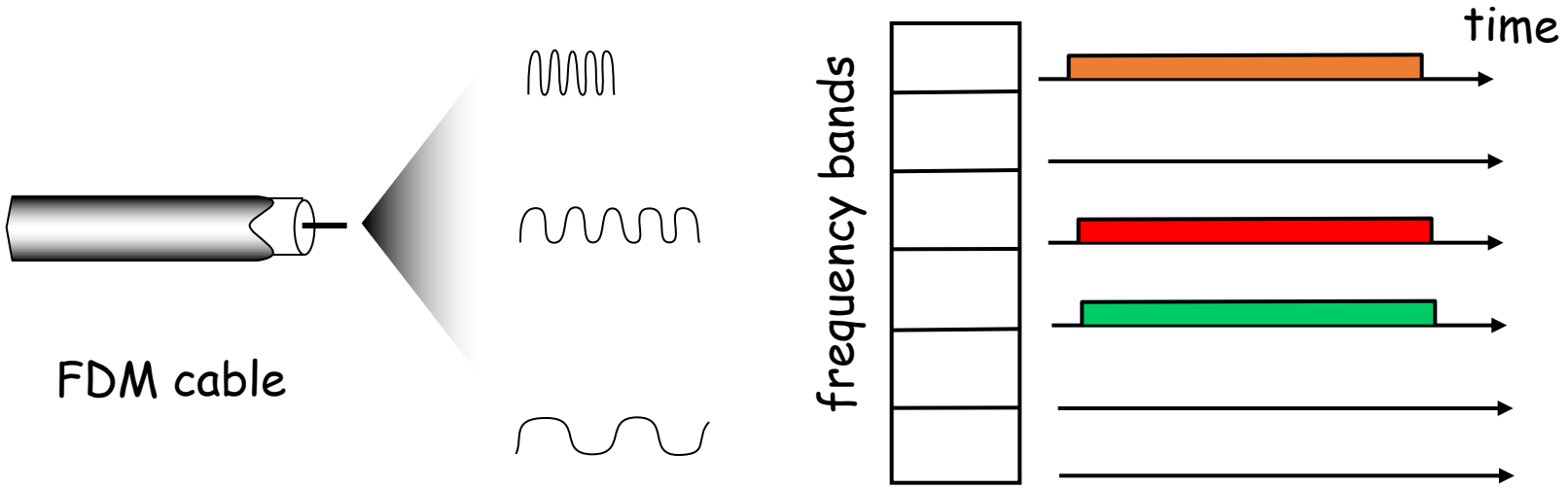
- access to channel in "rounds"
- each station gets fixed length slot (length = pkt trans time) in each round
- unused slots go idle
- example: 6-station LAN, 1,3,4 have pkt, slots 2,5,6 idle



Channel Partitioning MAC protocols: FDMA

FDMA: frequency division multiple access

- channel spectrum divided into frequency bands
- each station assigned fixed frequency band
- unused transmission time in frequency bands go idle
- example: 6-station LAN, 1,3,4 have pkt, frequency bands 2,5,6 idle



Random Access Protocols

- When node has packet to send
  - transmit at full channel data rate R.
  - no *a priori* coordination among nodes
- two or more transmitting nodes ➜ "collision",
- random access MAC protocol specifies:
  - how to detect collisions
  - how to recover from collisions (e.g., via delayed retransmissions)
- Examples of random access MAC protocols:
  - slotted ALOHA
  - ALOHA
  - CSMA, CSMA/CD, CSMA/CA

Slotted ALOHA

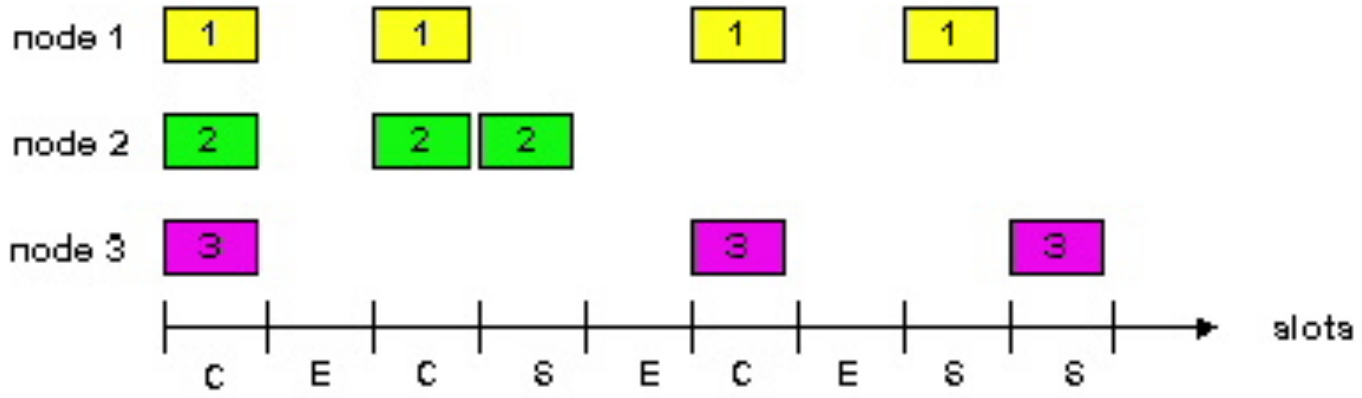
Assumptions:

- all frames same size
- time divided into equal size slots (time to transmit 1 frame)
- nodes start to transmit only slot beginning
- nodes are synchronized
- if 2 or more nodes transmit in slot, all nodes detect collision

Operation:

- when node obtains fresh frame, transmits in next slot
  - *if no collision:* node can send new frame in next slot
  - *if collision:* node retransmits frame in each subsequent slot with prob. p until success

Slotted ALOHA



Pros

- single active node can continuously transmit at full rate of channel
- highly decentralized: only slots in nodes need to be in sync
- simple

Cons

- collisions, wasting slots
- idle slots
- nodes may be able to detect collision in less than time to transmit packet
- clock synchronization

Slotted Aloha efficiency

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

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

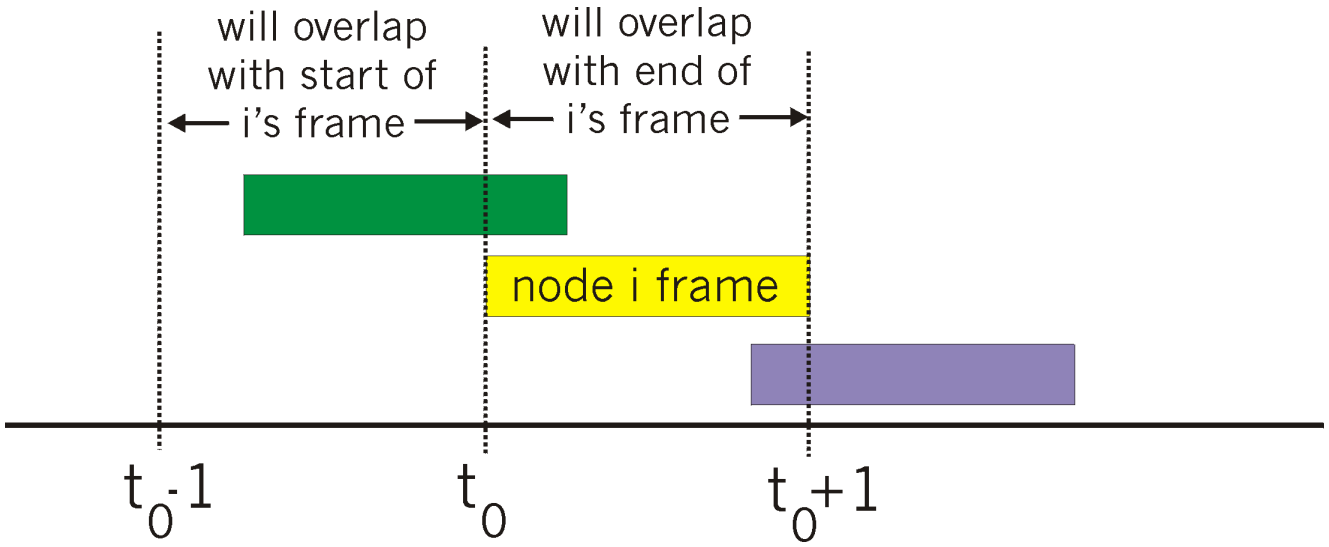
- max efficiency: find p* that maximizes $Np(1-p)^{N-1}$
- for many nodes, take limit of $Np^*(1-p^*)^{N-1}$ as N goes to infinity, gives:

Max efficiency = 1/e = .37

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

Pure (unslotted) ALOHA

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



Pure Aloha efficiency

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

P(no other node transmits in $[p_0\text{-}1,p_0]$ ·

P(no other node transmits in $[p_0\text{-}1,p_0]$

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

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

… choosing optimum p and then letting n -> infty ...

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

even *worse* than slotted Aloha!

CSMA (Carrier Sense Multiple Access)

CSMA: listen before transmit:

If channel sensed idle: transmit entire frame

- If channel sensed busy, defer transmission

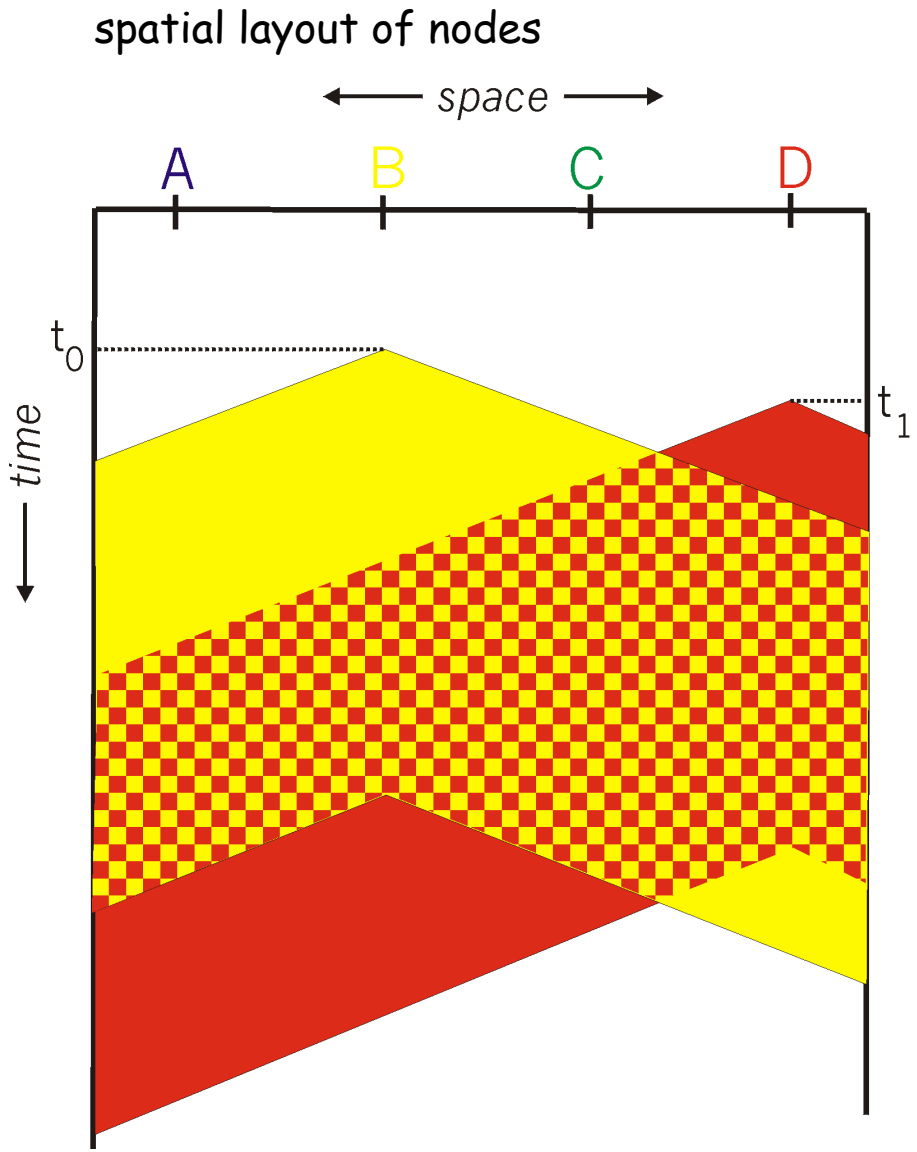
- human analogy: don’t interrupt others!

CSMA collisions

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

collision:
entire packet transmission time wasted

note:
role of distance & propagation delay in determining collision probability



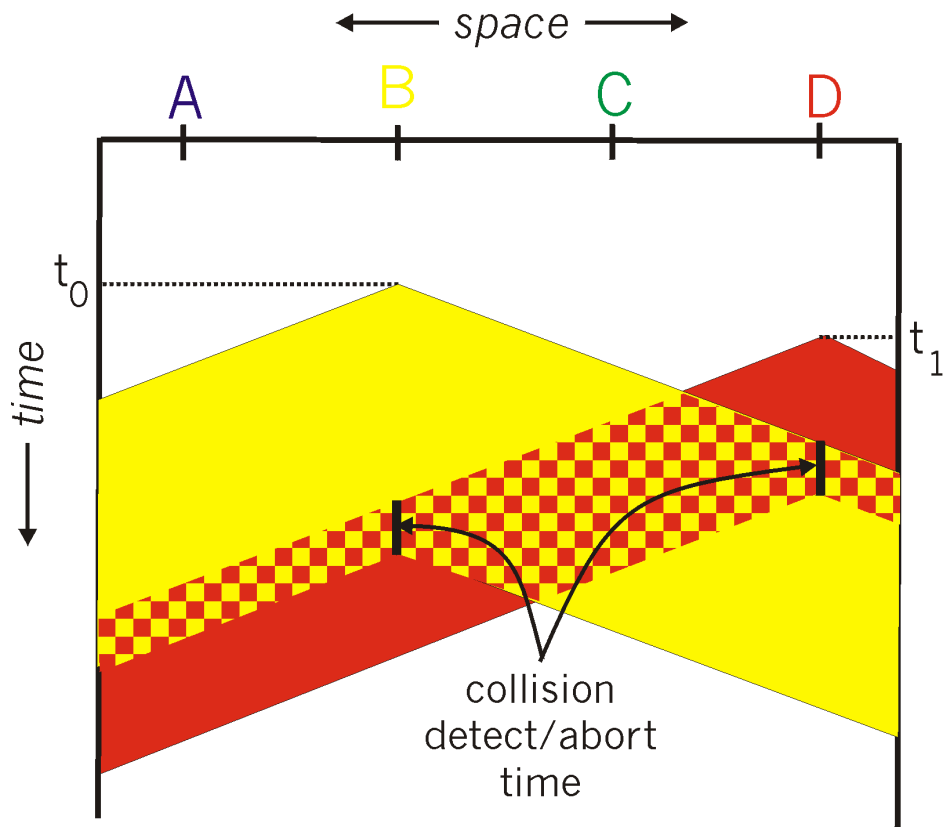
CSMA/CD (Collision Detection)

CSMA/CD: carrier sensing, deferral as in CSMA

- collisions *detected* within short time
- colliding transmissions aborted, reducing channel wastage

- collision detection:
  - easy in wired LANs: measure signal strengths, compare transmitted, received signals
  - difficult in wireless LANs: received signal strength overwhelmed by local transmission strength
- human analogy: the polite conversationalist

CSMA/CD collision detection



“Taking Turns” MAC protocols

channel partitioning MAC protocols:

- share channel *efficiently* and *fairly* 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

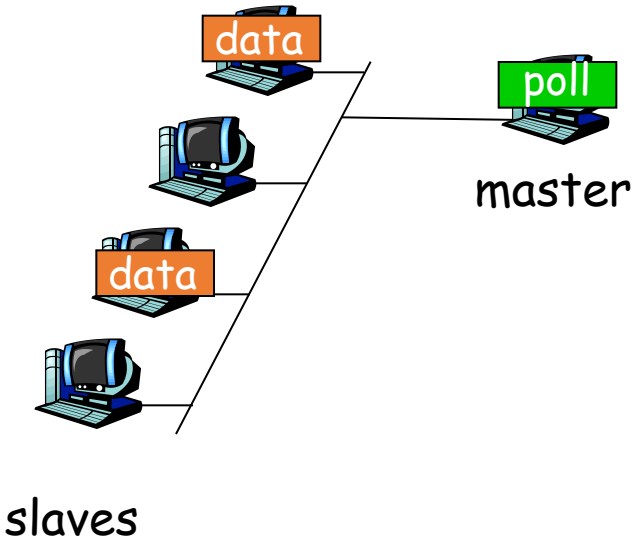
“taking turns” protocols

look for best of both worlds!

“Taking Turns” MAC protocols

Polling:

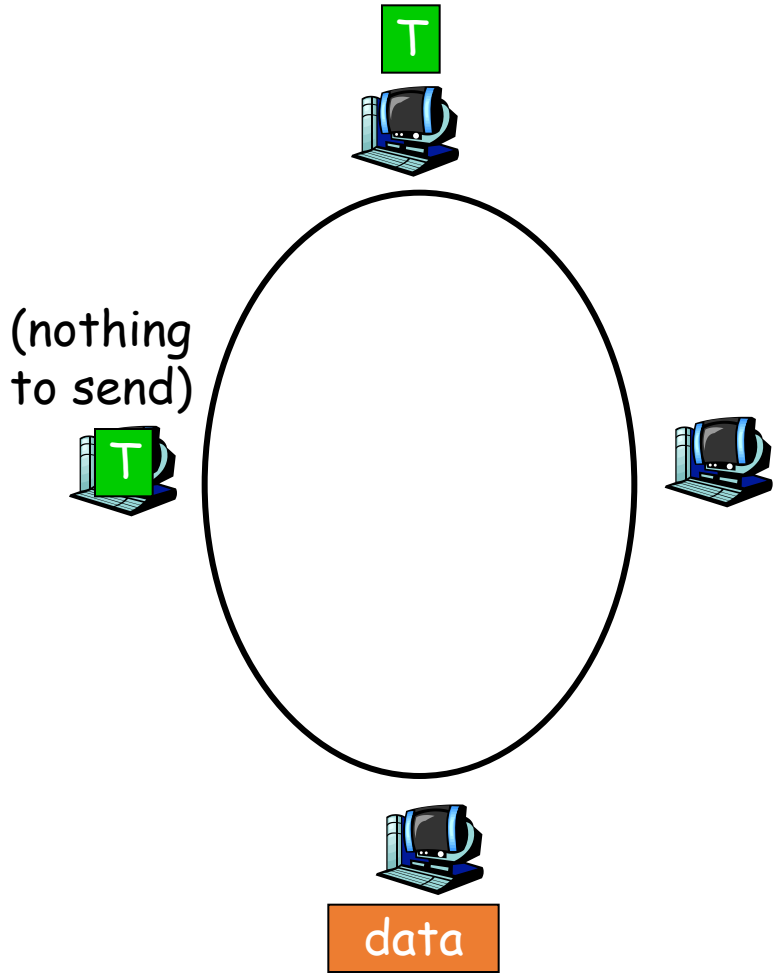
- master node “invites” slave nodes to transmit in turn
- typically used with “dumb” slave devices
- concerns:
  - polling overhead
  - latency
  - single point of failure (master)



“Taking Turns” MAC protocols

Token passing:

- control **token** passed from one node to next sequentially.
- token message
- concerns:
  - token overhead
  - latency
  - single point of failure (token)



Summary of MAC protocols

- *channel partitioning,* by time, frequency or code
  - Time Division, Frequency Division
- *random access* (dynamic),
  - ALOHA, S-ALOHA, CSMA, CSMA/CD
  - carrier sensing: easy in some technologies (wire), hard in others (wireless)
  - CSMA/CD used in Ethernet
  - CSMA/CA used in 802.11
- *taking turns*
  - polling from central site, token passing
  - Bluetooth, FDDI, IBM Token Ring

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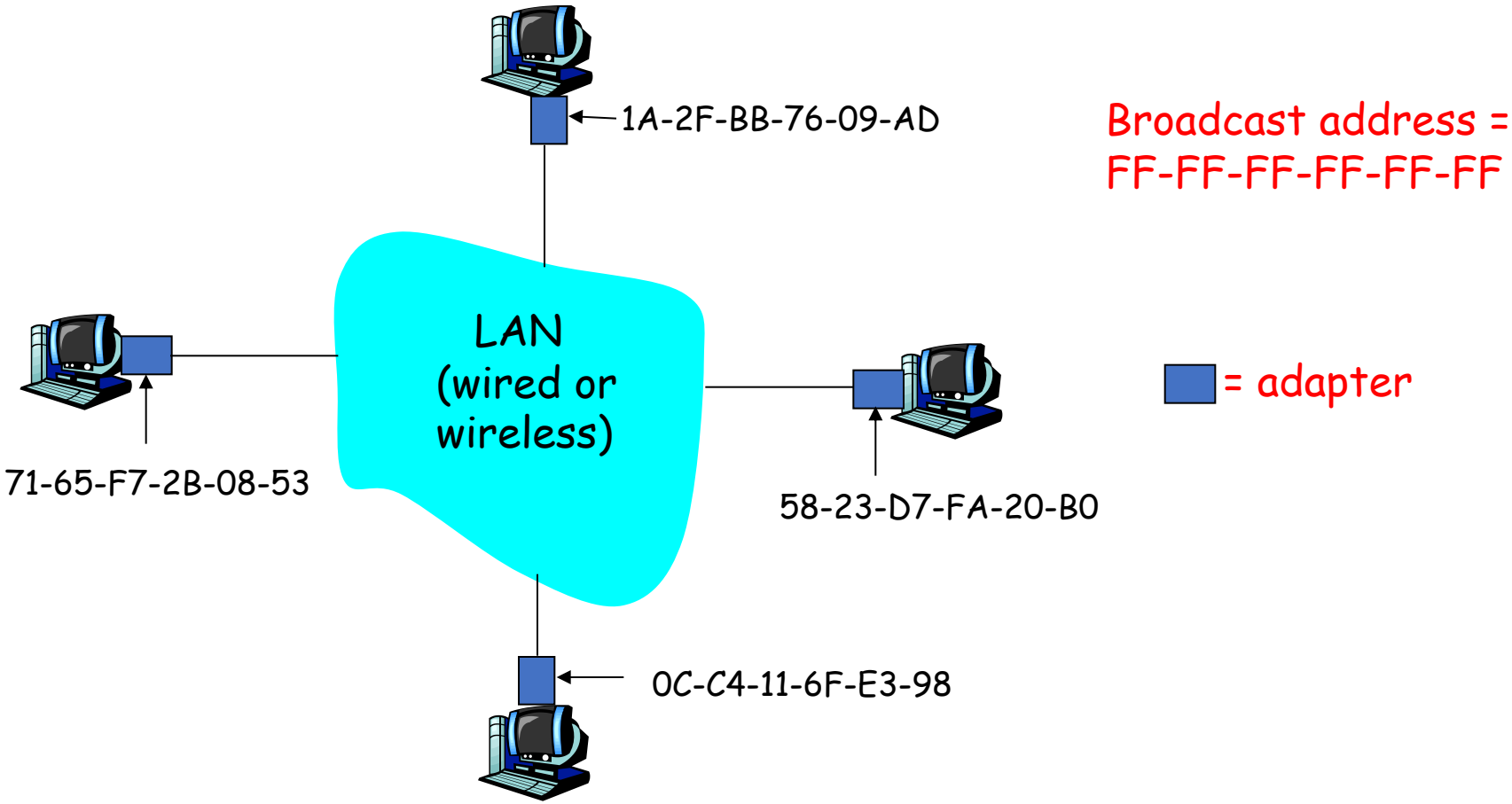
MAC Addresses and ARP

- 32-bit IP address:
  - *network-layer* address
  - used to get datagram to destination IP subnet
- MAC (or LAN or physical or Ethernet) address:
  - function: *get frame from one interface to another physically-connected interface (same network)*
  - 48 bit MAC address (for most LANs)
    - burned in NIC ROM, also sometimes software settable

LAN Addresses and ARP

Each adapter on LAN has unique LAN address



LAN Address (more)

- MAC address allocation administered by IEEE
- manufacturer buys portion of MAC address space (to assure uniqueness)
- analogy:

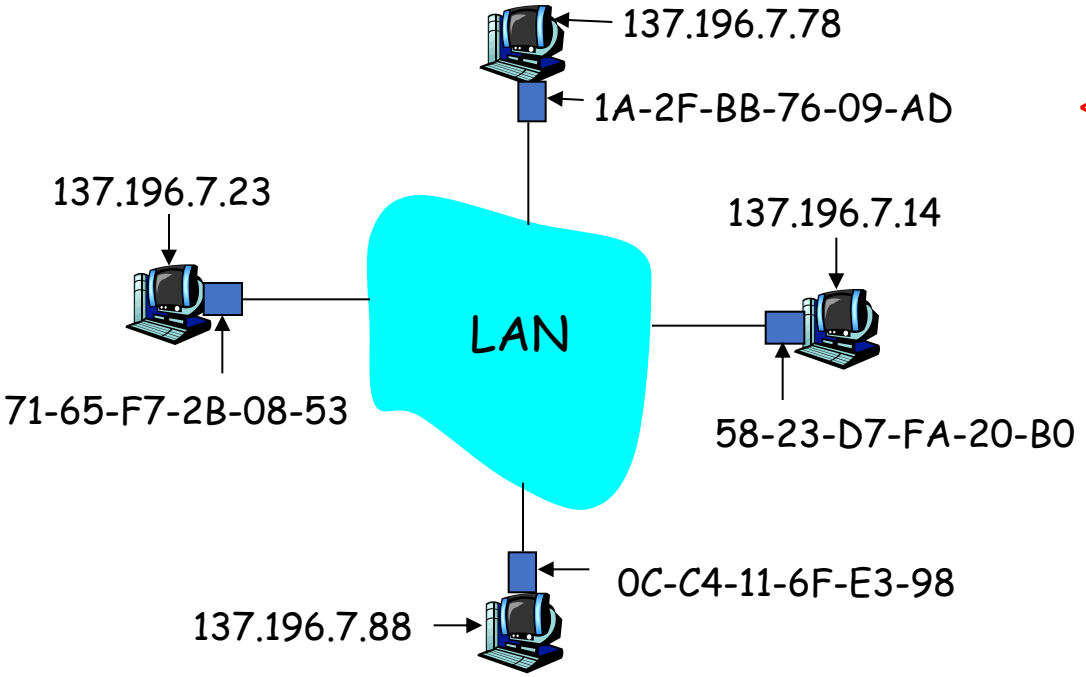
  (a) MAC address: like Social Security Number

  (b) IP address: like postal address

- MAC flat address ➜ portability
  - can move LAN card from one LAN to another
- IP hierarchical address NOT portable
  - address depends on IP subnet to which node is attached

ARP: Address Resolution Protocol

Question: how to determine MAC address of B knowing B's IP address?



- Each IP node (host, router) on LAN has ARP table
- ARP table: IP/MAC address mappings for some LAN nodes

  < IP address; MAC address; TTL>

  - TTL (Time To Live): time after which address mapping will be forgotten (typically 20 min)

ARP protocol: Same LAN (network)

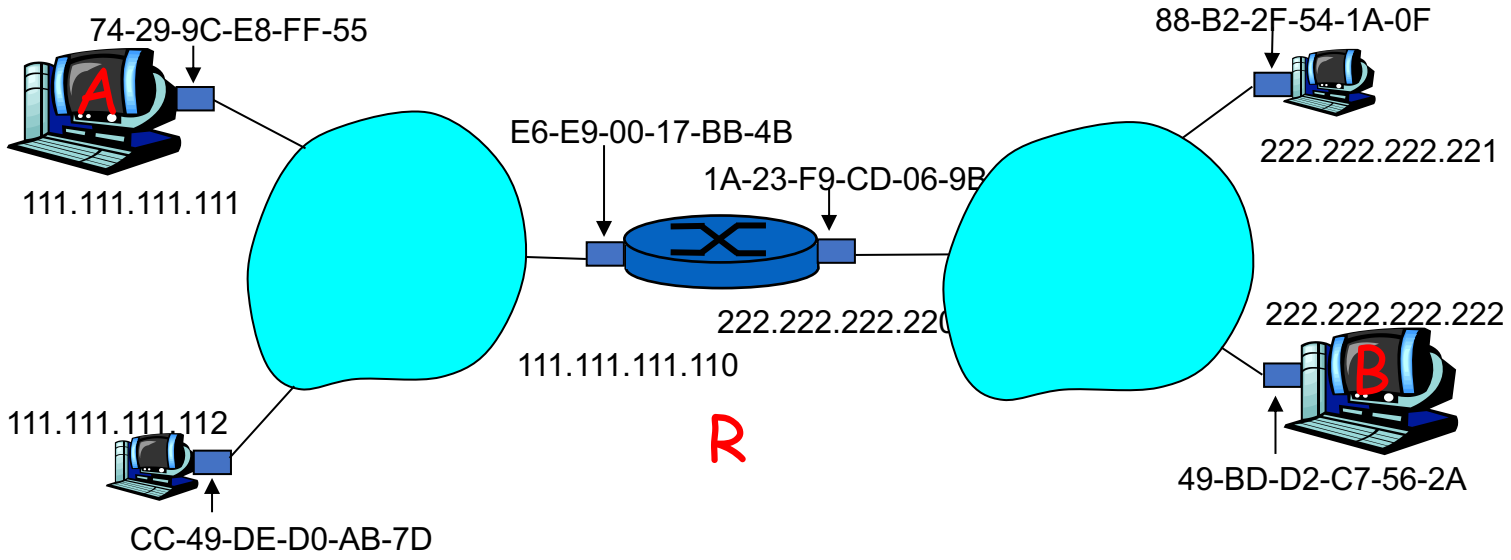
- A wants to send datagram to B, and B's MAC address not in A's ARP table.
- A broadcasts ARP query packet, containing B's IP address
  - dest MAC address = FF-FF-FF-FF-FF-FF
  - all machines on LAN receive ARP query
- B receives ARP packet, replies to A with its (B's) MAC address
  - frame sent to A's MAC address (unicast)

- A caches (saves) IP-to-MAC address pair in its ARP table until information becomes old (times out)
  - soft state: information that times out (goes away) unless refreshed
- ARP is "plug-and-play":
  - nodes create their ARP tables *without intervention from net administrator*

Addressing: routing to another LAN

walkthrough: send datagram from A to B via R

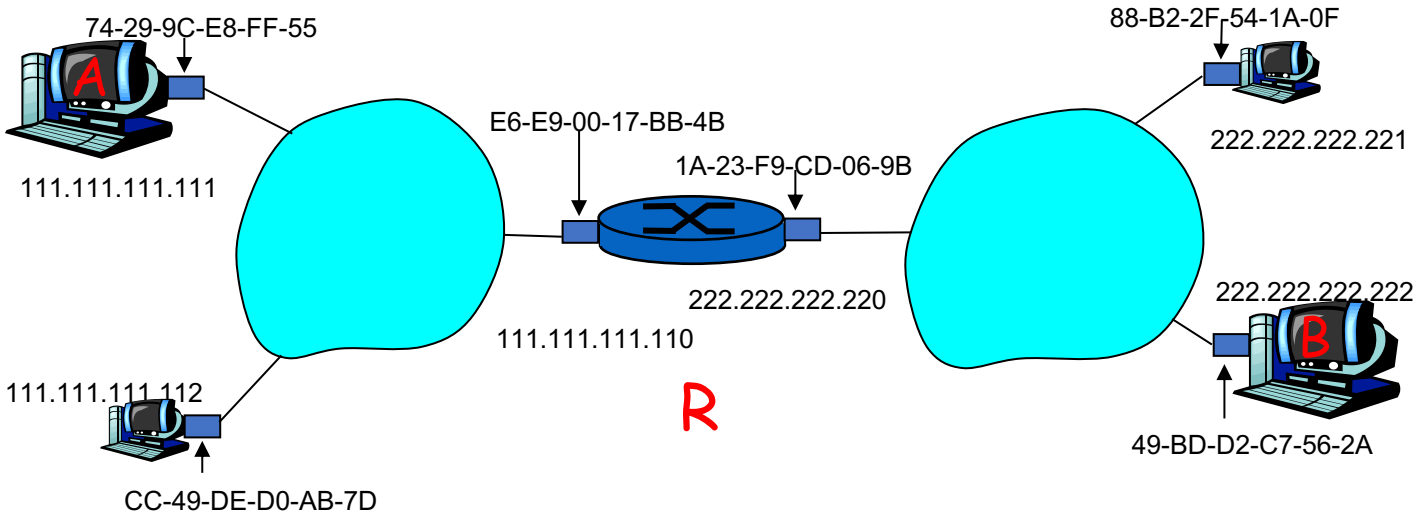
assume A knows B's IP address



- two ARP tables in router R, one for each IP network (LAN)

- A creates IP datagram with source A, destination B
- A uses ARP to get R's MAC address for 111.111.111.110
- A creates link-layer frame with R's MAC address as dest, frame contains A-to-B IP datagram
- A's NIC sends frame
- R's NIC receives frame
- R removes IP datagram from Ethernet frame, sees its destined to B
- R uses ARP to get B's MAC address
- R creates frame containing A-to-B IP datagram sends to B

This is a really important example – make sure you understand!



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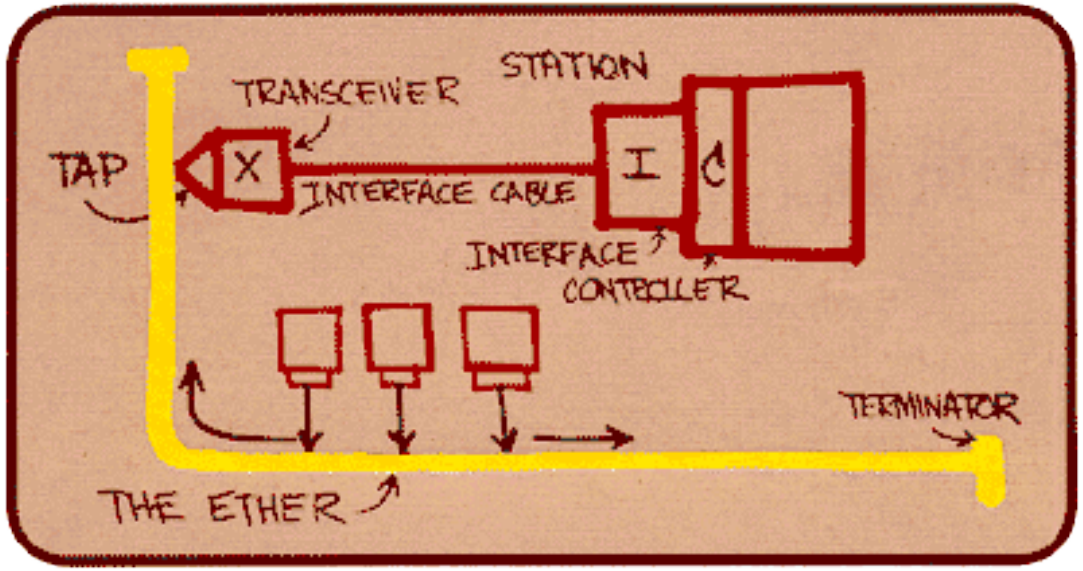
Ethernet

"dominant" wired LAN technology:

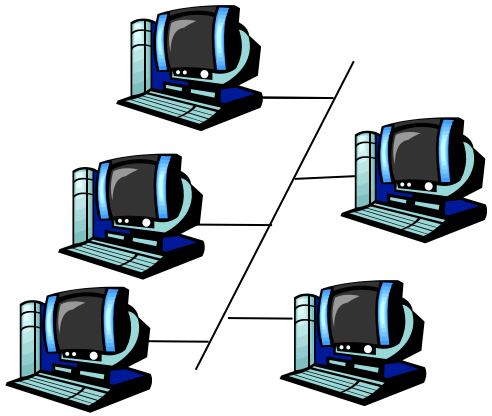
- cheap $20 for NIC
- first widely used LAN technology
- simpler, cheaper than token LANs and ATM
- kept up with speed race: 10 Mbps – 10 Gbps



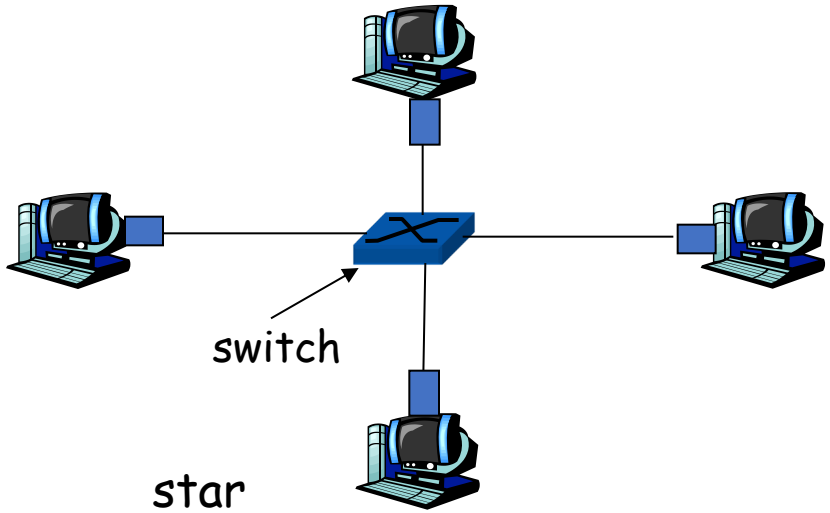
Metcalfe's Ethernet sketch

Star topology

- bus topology popular through mid 90s
  - all nodes in same collision domain (can collide with each other)
- today: star topology prevails
  - active *switch* in center
  - each “spoke” runs a (separate) Ethernet protocol (nodes do not collide with each other)



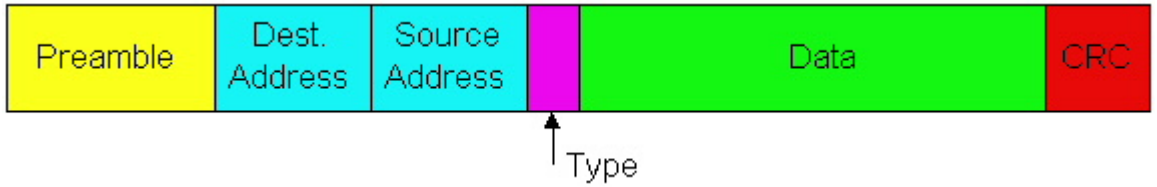
bus: coaxial cable



star

Ethernet Frame Structure

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

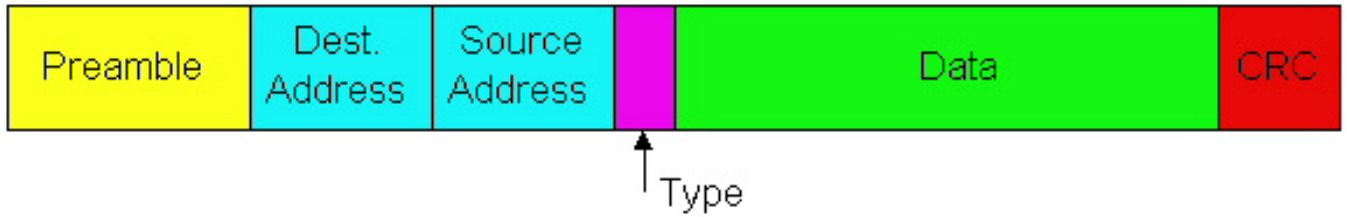


Preamble:

- 7 bytes with pattern 10101010 followed by one byte with pattern 10101011
- used to synchronize receiver, sender clock rates

Ethernet Frame Structure (more)

- Addresses: 6 bytes
  - if adapter receives frame with matching destination address, or with broadcast address (eg ARP packet), it passes data in frame to network layer protocol
  - otherwise, adapter discards frame
- Type: indicates higher layer protocol (mostly IP but others possible, e.g., Novell IPX, AppleTalk)
- CRC: checked at receiver, if error is detected, frame is dropped



Ethernet: Unreliable, connectionless

- connectionless: No handshaking between sending and receiving NICs
- unreliable: receiving NIC doesn't send acks or nacks to sending NIC
  - stream of datagrams passed to network layer can have gaps (missing datagrams)
  - gaps will be filled if app is using TCP
  - otherwise, app will see gaps
- Ethernet's MAC protocol: unslotted CSMA/CD

Ethernet CSMA/CD algorithm

1. NIC receives datagram from network layer, creates frame
2. If NIC senses channel idle, starts frame transmission If NIC senses channel busy, waits until channel idle, then transmits
3. If NIC transmits entire frame without detecting another transmission, NIC is done with frame !
4. If NIC detects another transmission while transmitting, aborts and sends jam signal
5. After aborting, NIC enters **exponential backoff**: after *m*th collision, NIC chooses *K* at random from $\{0,1,2,\ldots,2^m-1\}$. NIC waits $K \cdot 512$ bit times, returns to Step 2

Ethernet's CSMA/CD (more)

Jam Signal: make sure all other transmitters are aware of collision; 48 bits

Bit time: .1 microsec for 10 Mbps Ethernet ;
for K=1023, wait time is about 50 msec

See/interact with Java applet on AWL Web site: highly recommended !

Exponential Backoff:

- *Goal*: adapt retransmission attempts to estimated current load
  - heavy load: random wait will be longer
- first collision: choose K from {0,1}; delay is K· 512 bit transmission times
- after second collision: choose K from {0,1,2,3}…
- after ten collisions, choose K from {0,1,2,3,4,…,1023}

CSMA/CD efficiency

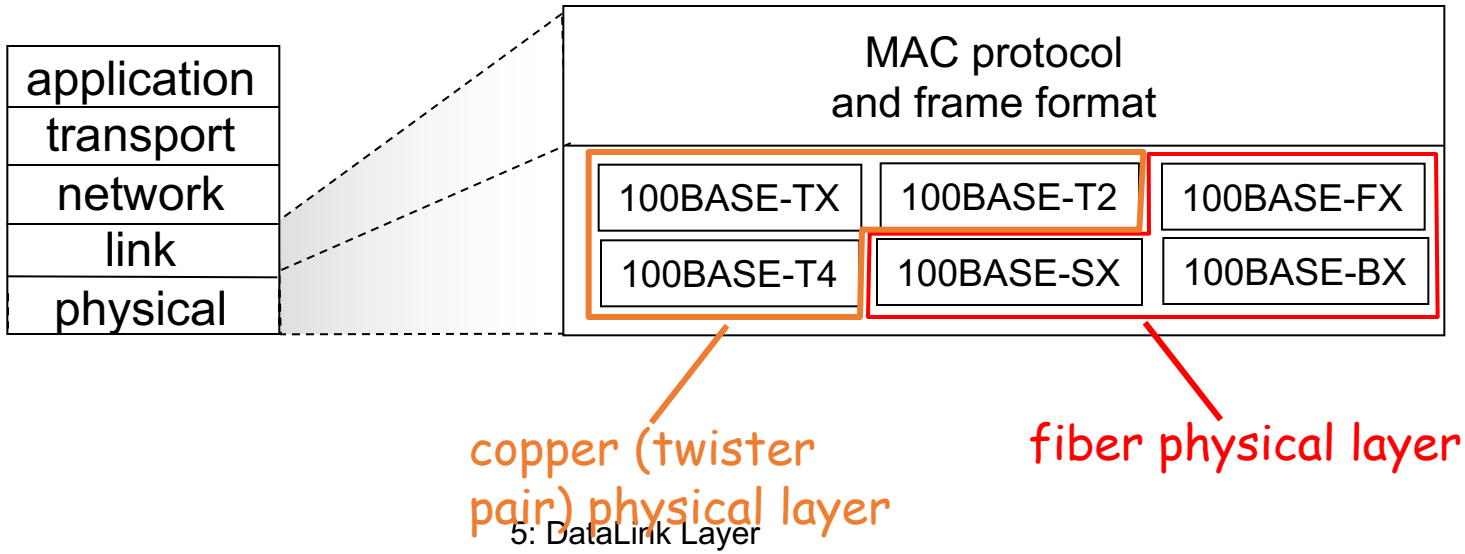
- T_{prop} = max prop delay between 2 nodes in LAN
- t_{trans} = time to transmit max-size frame

- efficiency goes to 1
  - as t_{prop} goes to 0
  - as t_{trans} goes to infinity
- better performance than ALOHA: and simple, cheap, decentralized!

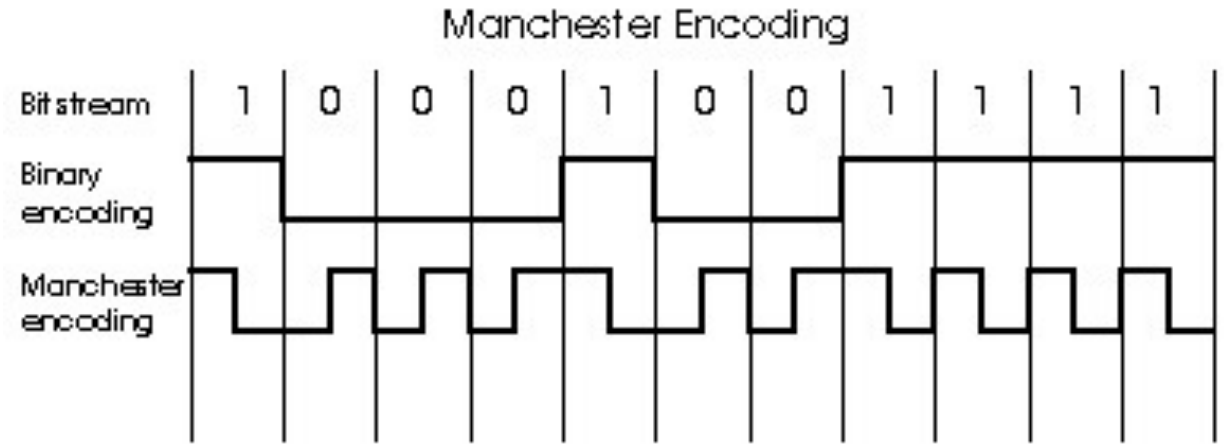
$$efficiency = \frac{1}{1 + 5t_{prop}/t_{trans}}$$

802.3 Ethernet Standards: Link & Physical Layers

- *many* different Ethernet standards
  - common MAC protocol and frame format
  - different speeds: 2 Mbps, 10 Mbps, 100 Mbps, 1Gbps, 10G bps
  - different physical layer media: fiber, cable



Manchester encoding



- used in 10BaseT
- each bit has a transition
- allows clocks in sending and receiving nodes to synchronize to each other
  - no need for a centralized, global clock among nodes!
- Hey, this is physical-layer stuff!

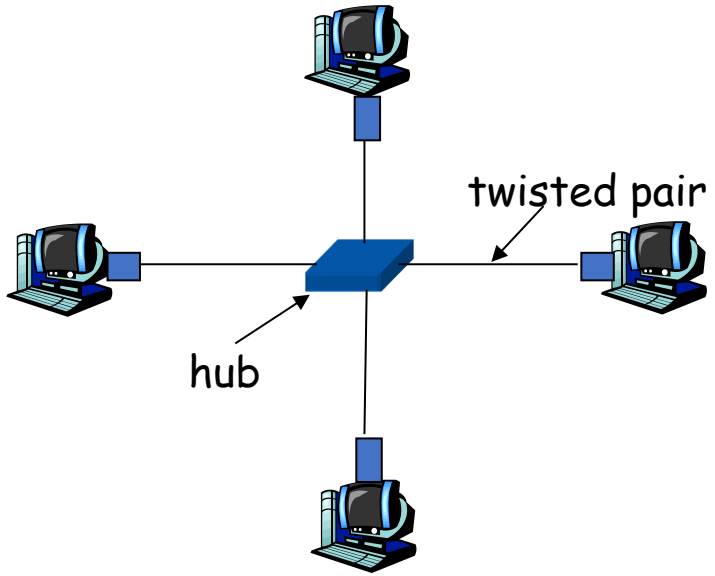
Link Layer

- 5.1 Introduction and services
- 5.2 Error detection and correction
- 5.3 Multiple access protocols
- 5.4 Link-layer Addressing
- 5.5 Ethernet
- 5.6 Link-layer switches, LANs

Hubs

… physical-layer (“dumb”) repeaters:

- bits coming in one link go out *all* other links at same rate
- all nodes connected to hub can collide with one another
- no frame buffering
- no CSMA/CD at hub: host NICs detect collisions

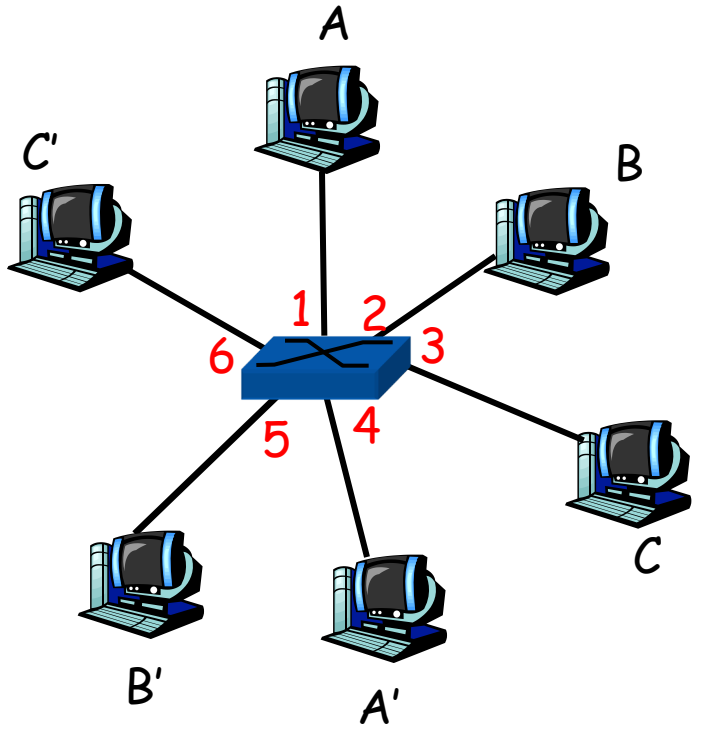


Switch

- link-layer device: smarter than hubs, take *active* role
  - store, forward Ethernet frames
  - examine incoming frame's MAC address, selectively forward frame to one-or-more outgoing links when frame is to be forwarded on segment, uses CSMA/CD to access segment
- *transparent*
  - hosts are unaware of presence of switches
- *plug-and-play, self-learning*
  - switches do not need to be configured

Switch: allows *multiple* simultaneous transmissions

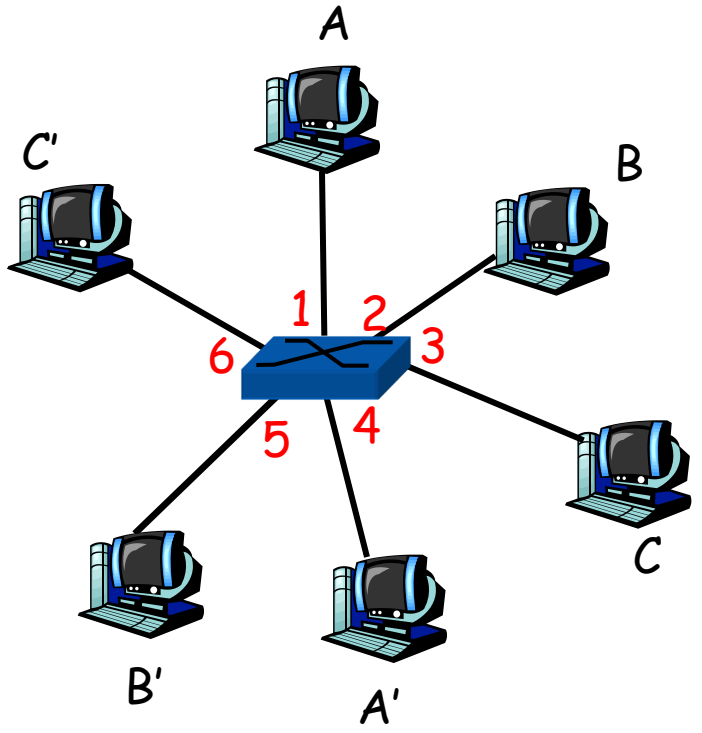
- hosts have dedicated, direct connection to switch
- switches buffer packets
- Ethernet protocol used on *each* incoming link, but no collisions; full duplex
  - each link is its own collision domain
- *switching:* A-to-A' and B-to-B' simultaneously, without collisions
  - not possible with dumb hub



switch with six interfaces (1,2,3,4,5,6)

Switch Table

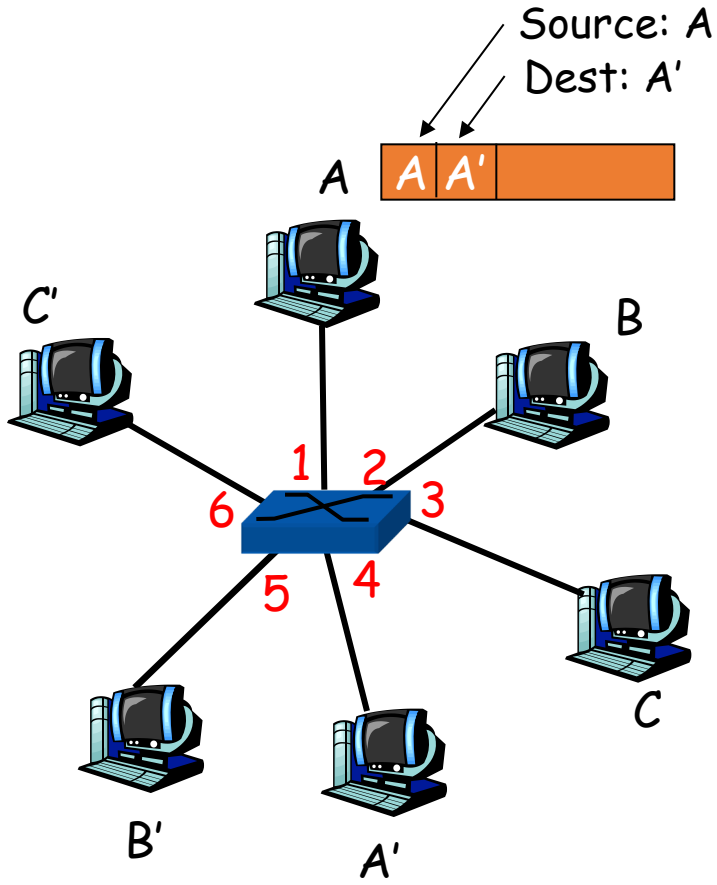
- *Q:* how does switch know that A' reachable via interface 4, B' reachable via interface 5?
- *A:* each switch has a switch table, each entry:
  - (MAC address of host, interface to reach host, time stamp)
- looks like a routing table!
- *Q:* how are entries created, maintained in switch table?
  - something like a routing protocol?



switch with six interfaces (1,2,3,4,5,6)

Switch: self-learning

- switch *learns* which hosts can be reached through which interfaces
  - when frame received, switch "learns" location of sender: incoming LAN segment
  - records sender/location pair in switch table



MAC addr	interface	TTL
A	1	60

Switch table (initially empty)

Switch: frame filtering/forwarding

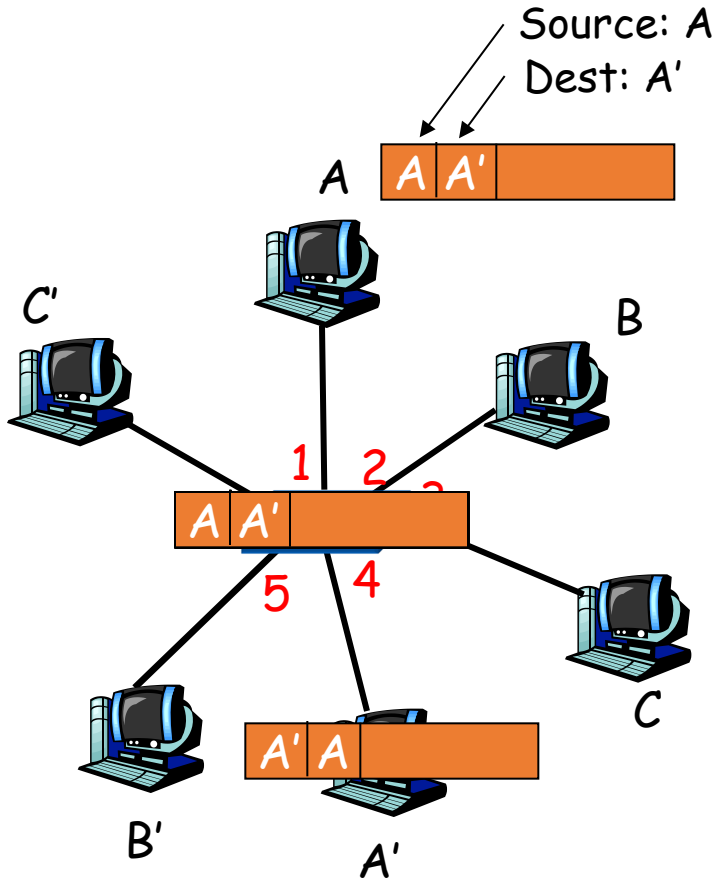
When frame received:

1. record link associated with sending host
2. index switch table using MAC dest address
3. **if** entry found for destination
   then {
   if dest on segment from which frame arrived
   then drop the frame
   else forward the frame on interface indicated
   }
   else flood

forward on all but the interface on which the frame arrived

Self-learning, forwarding: example

- frame destination unknown: *flood*
- destination A location known: *selective send*

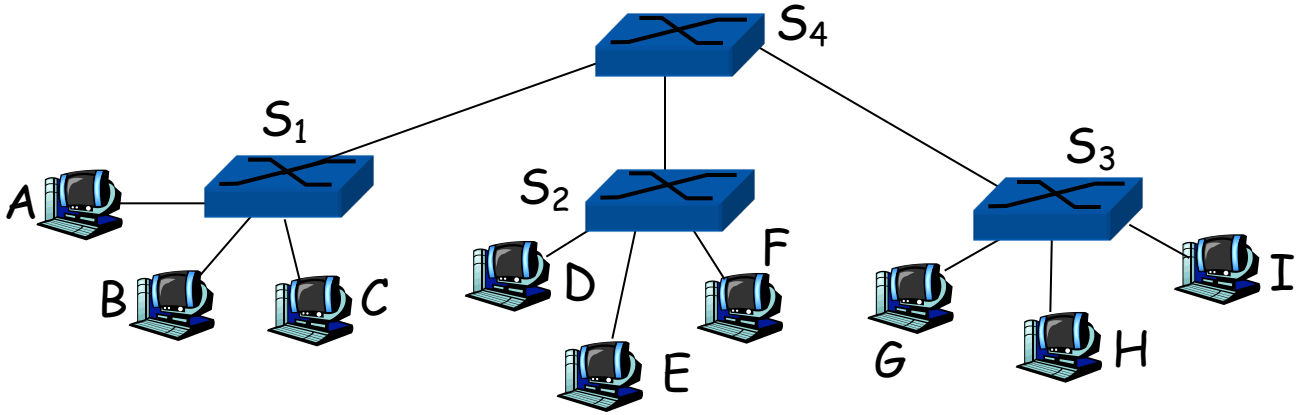


MAC addr	interface	TTL
A	1	60
A'	4	60

Switch table (initially empty)

Interconnecting switches

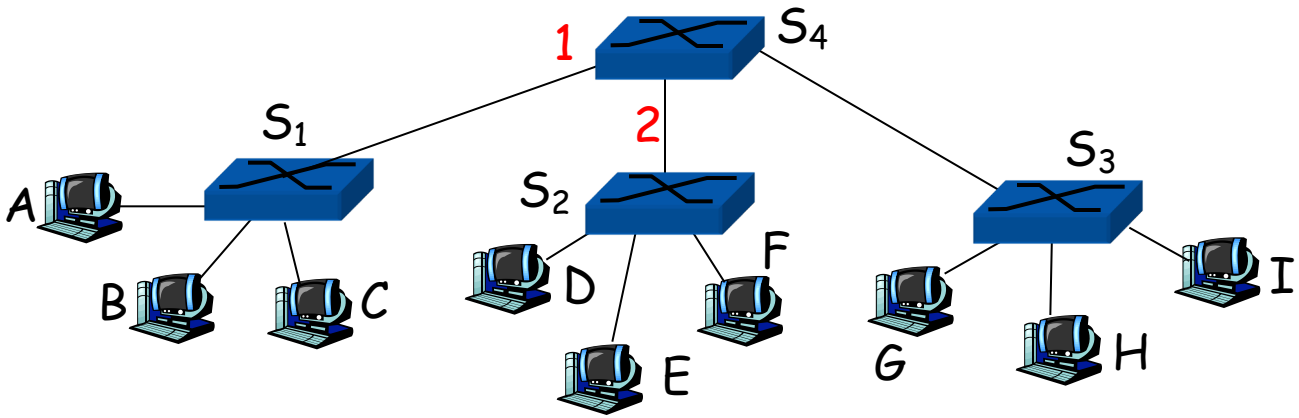
- switches can be connected together



- *Q:* sending from A to G - how does S_1 know to forward frame destined to F via S_4 and S_3?
- *A:* self learning! (works exactly the same as in single-switch case!)

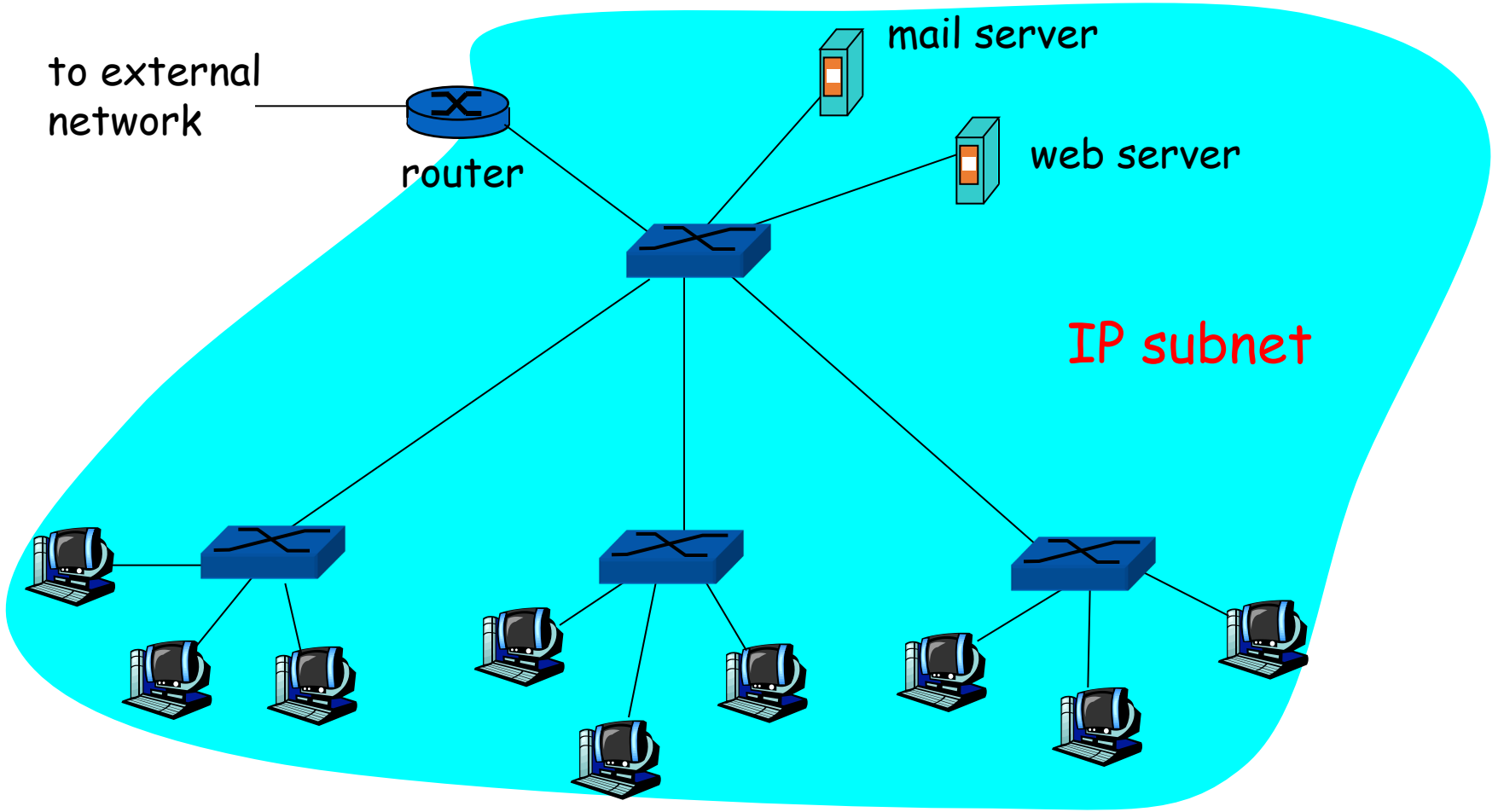
Self-learning multi-switch example

Suppose C sends frame to I, I responds to C



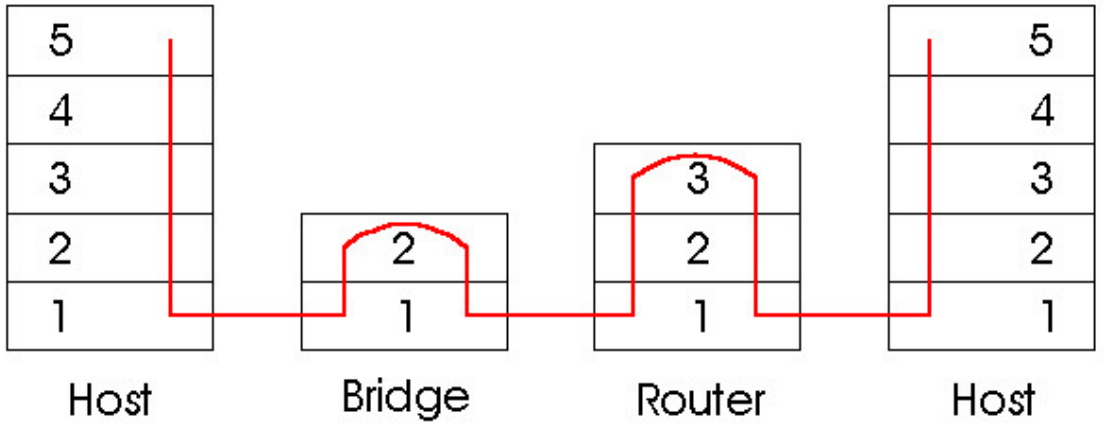
- *Q:* show switch tables and packet forwarding in S_1, S_2, S_3, S_4

Institutional network



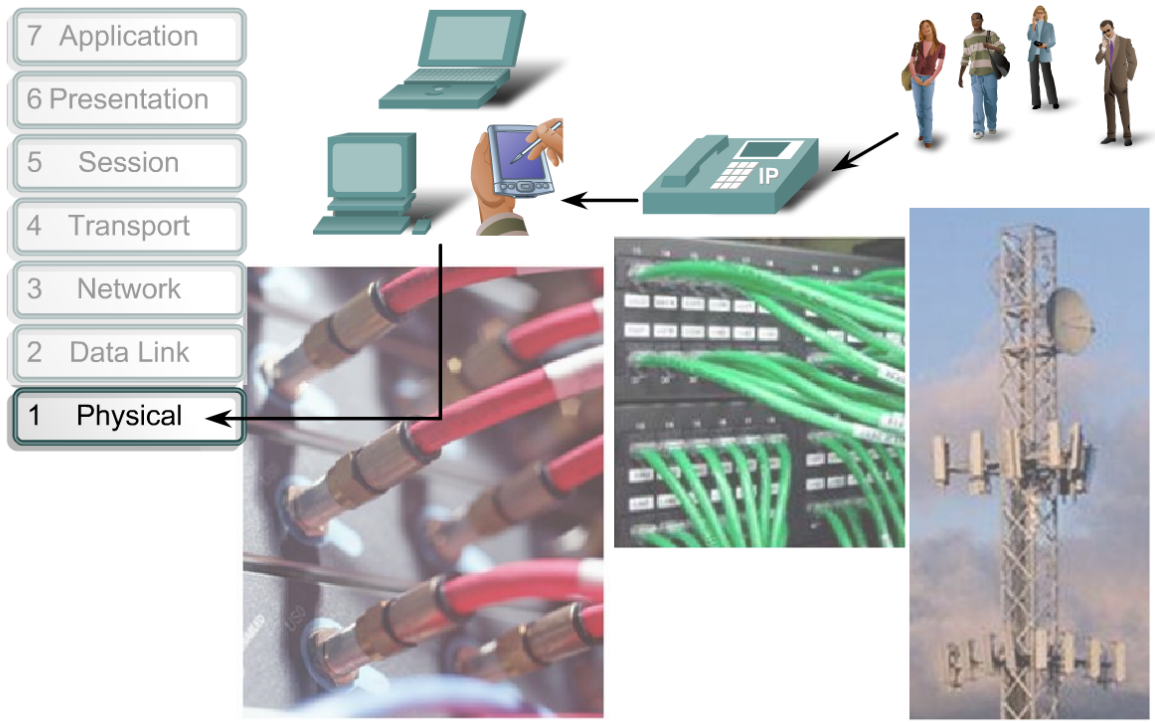
Switches vs. Routers

- both store-and-forward devices
  - routers: network layer devices (examine network layer headers)
  - switches are link layer devices
- routers maintain routing tables, implement routing algorithms
- switches maintain switch tables, implement filtering, learning algorithms



Introduction

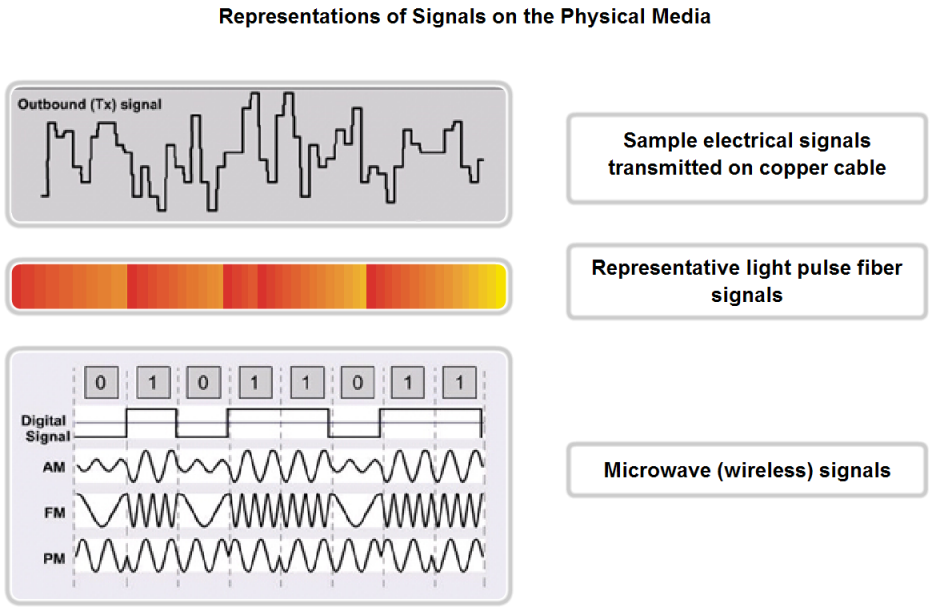
- The Physical layer is concerned with network media and signaling. This layer produces the representation and groupings of bits as voltages, radio frequencies, or light pulses
- The role of the OSI Physical layer is to encode the binary digits that represent Data Link layer frames into signals and to transmit and receive these signals across the physical media - copper wires, optical fiber, and wireless - that connect network devices



The Physical layer interconnects our data networks.

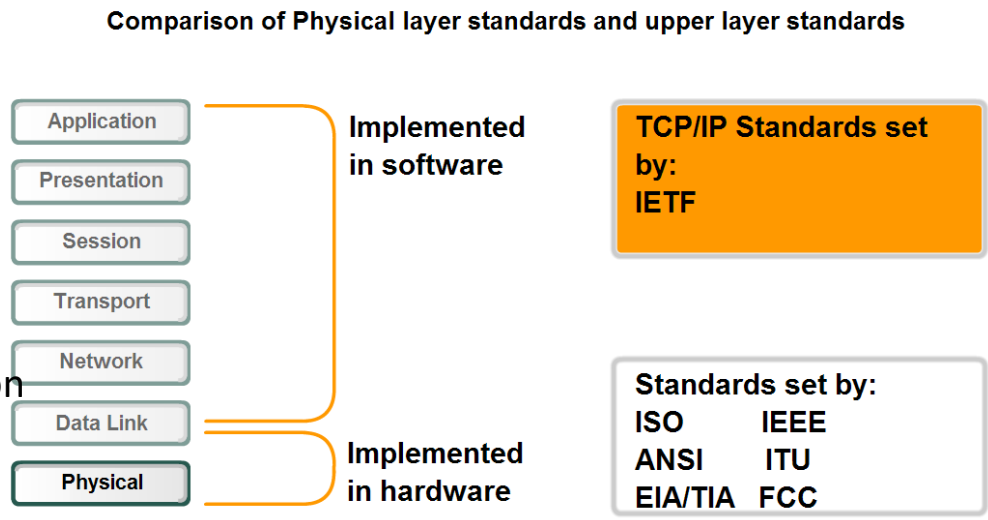
Physical Layer - Operation

- The media does not carry the frame as a single entity. The media carries signals, one at a time, to represent the bits that make up the frame.
- Three basic forms of network media:
  - Copper cable: data is represented by patterns of electrical pulses
  - Fiber: data is represented by patterns o light
  - Wireless: data is represented by patterr of radio transmissions
- To enable a receiving device to clearly recognize a frame boundary, the transmitting device adds signals to designate the start and end of a frame. These signals represent particular bit patterns that are only used to denote the start or end of a frame



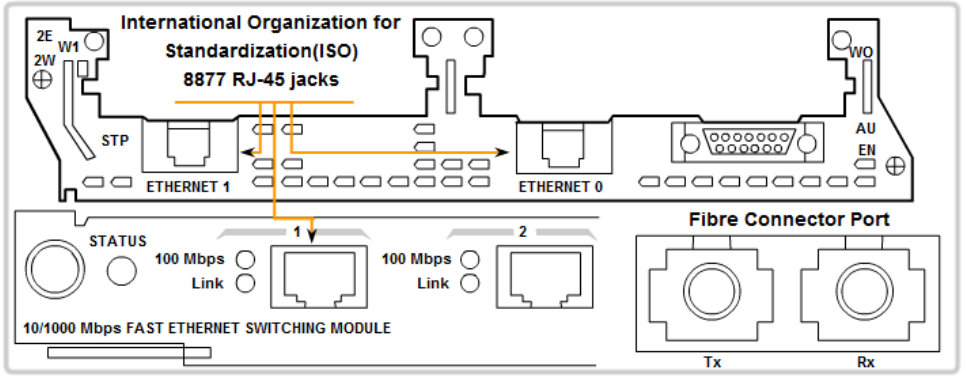
Physical Layer - Standards

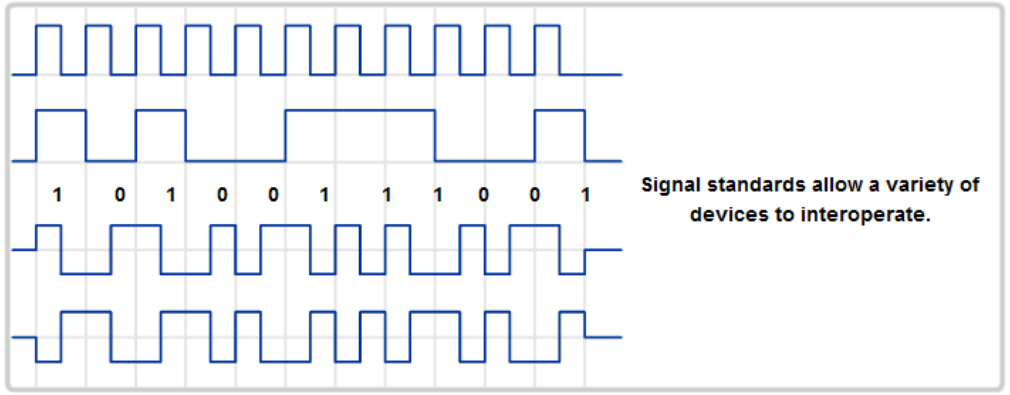
- The Physical layer consists of hardware, developed by engineers, in the form of electronic circuitry, media, and connectors
- the Physical layer technologies are defined by organizations such as:
  - The International Organization for Standardization (ISO)
  - The Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers (IEEE)
  - The American National Standards Institute (ANSI)
  - The International Telecommunication Union (ITU)
  - The Electronics Industry Alliance/Telecommunications Industry Association (EIA/TIA)
  - National telecommunications authorities such as the Federal Communication Commission (FCC) in the USA

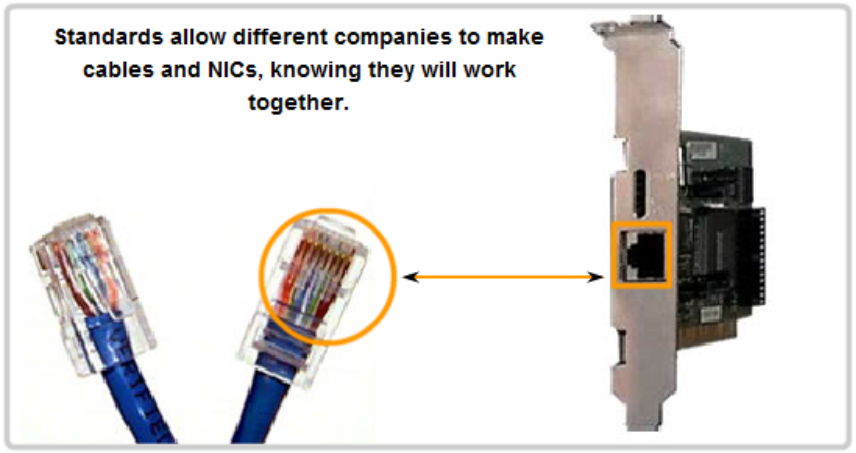


Physical Layer - Standards

- The technologies defined by these organizations include four areas of the Physical layer standards:
  - Physical and electrical properties of the media
  - Mechanical properties (materials, dimensions, pinouts) of the connectors
  - Bit representation by the signals (encoding)
  - Definition of control information signals



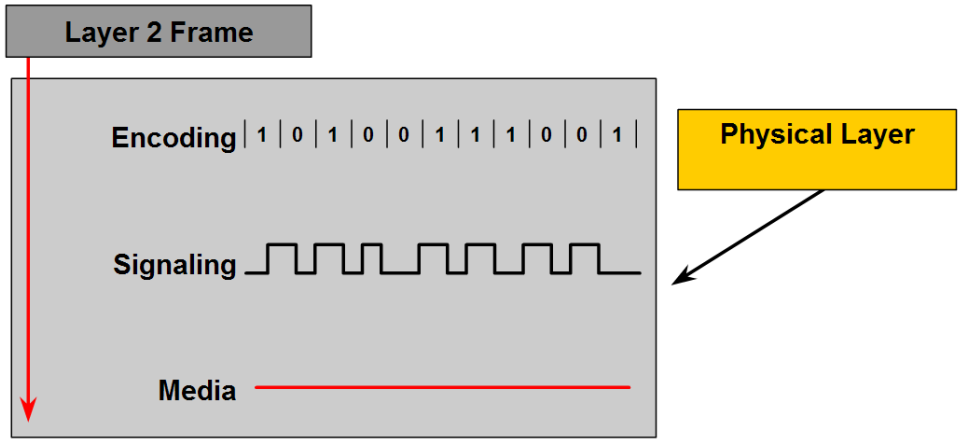




Physical Layer Fundamental Principles

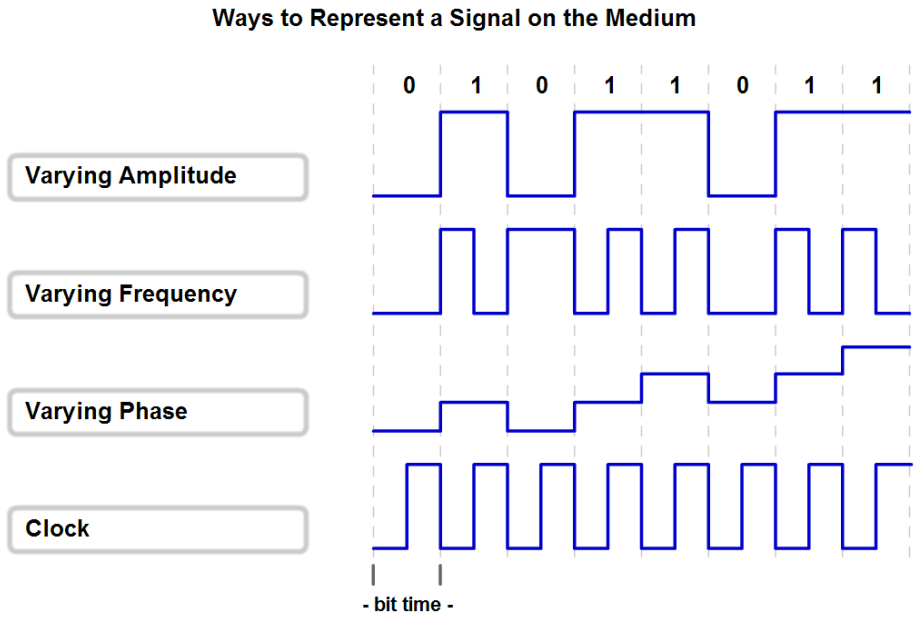
The three fundamental functions of the Physical layer are:

- The physical components: electronic hardware devices, media and connectors .. etc
- Data encoding: Encoding is a method of converting a stream of data bits into a predefined "code. Codes are groupings of bits used to provide a predictable pattern that can be recognized by both the sender and the received. This helps distinguishing data bits from control bits. (codes for data and control)
- Signaling: generating electrical, optical, or wireless signals that represent 0's and 1's. This could be simple or complex signaling



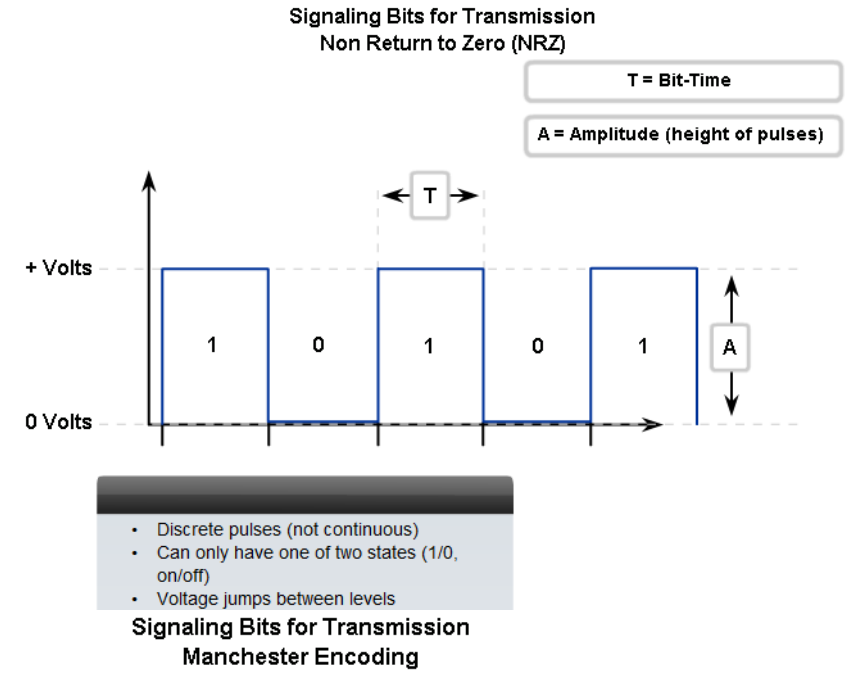
Signaling Bits for the Media

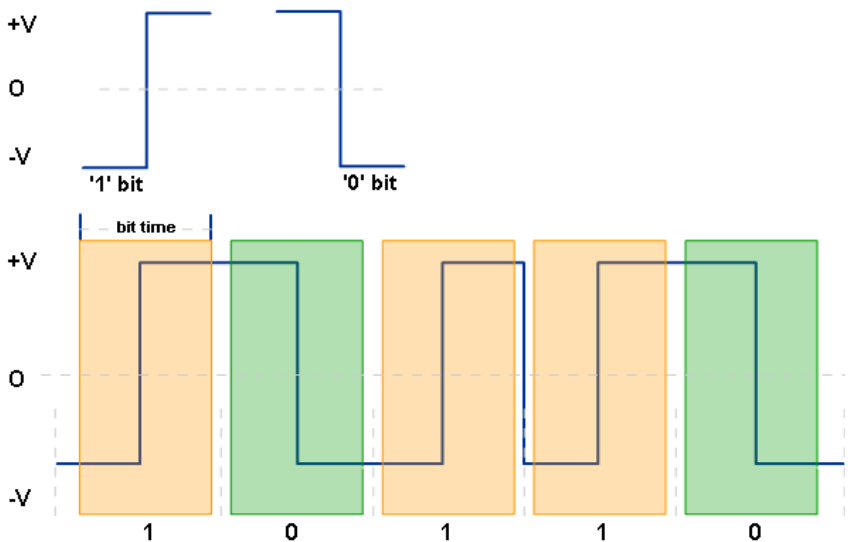
- Bits that represent the frame are changed to signals and sent one at a time
- Each signal placed on the medium has a period of time - bit time
- At the receiver these signals are examined at specific time and converted back to bit
- The bits then grouped and delivered as a frame to the Data Link layer
- Both transmission end need to be synchronized. In LAN is this done by maintaining clocks
- Bit represented on the media by different signaling methods
  - Amplitude
  - Frequency
  - Phase



Signaling Bits for the Media

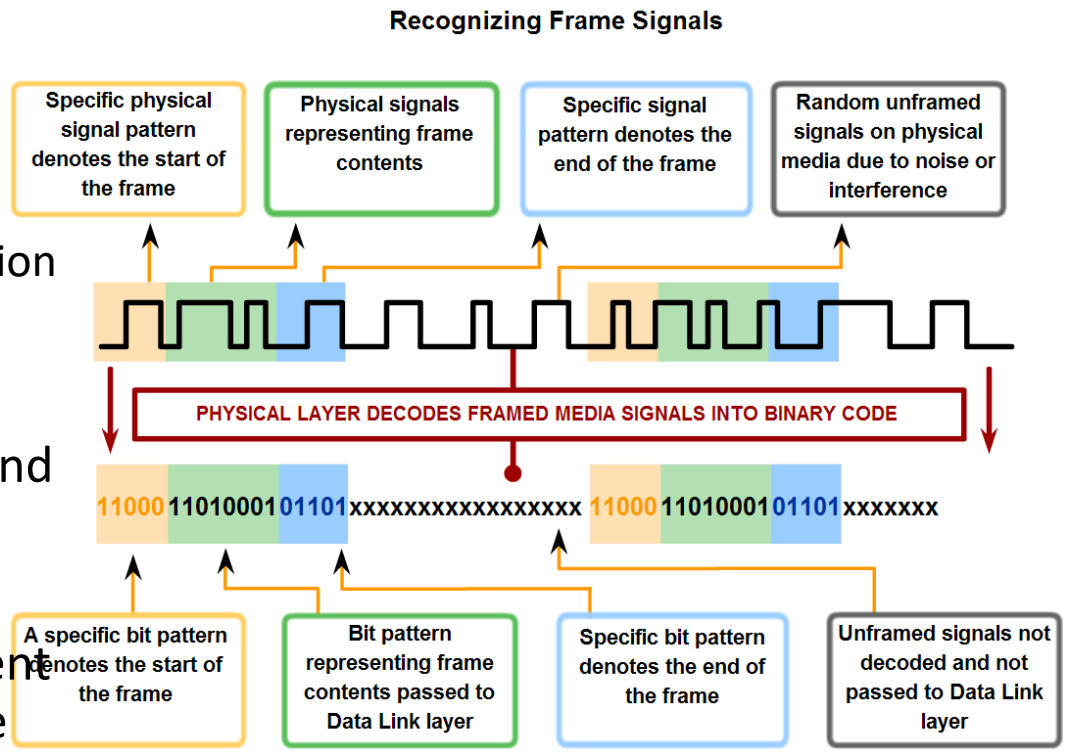
- Non Return to Zero (NRZ)
  - A low voltage value represents a logical 0 and a high voltage value represents a logical 1
  - Use the bandwidth inefficiently
  - Susceptible to EMI
  - Boundaries of bit are lost in long bit stream of 0's or 1's
- Manchester Encoding
  - Transition code i.e. low to high for 1 and high to low for 0
  - Transition at the middle of the bit time
  - It is not efficient at high bit rate
  - Used for 10Mbps Ethernet





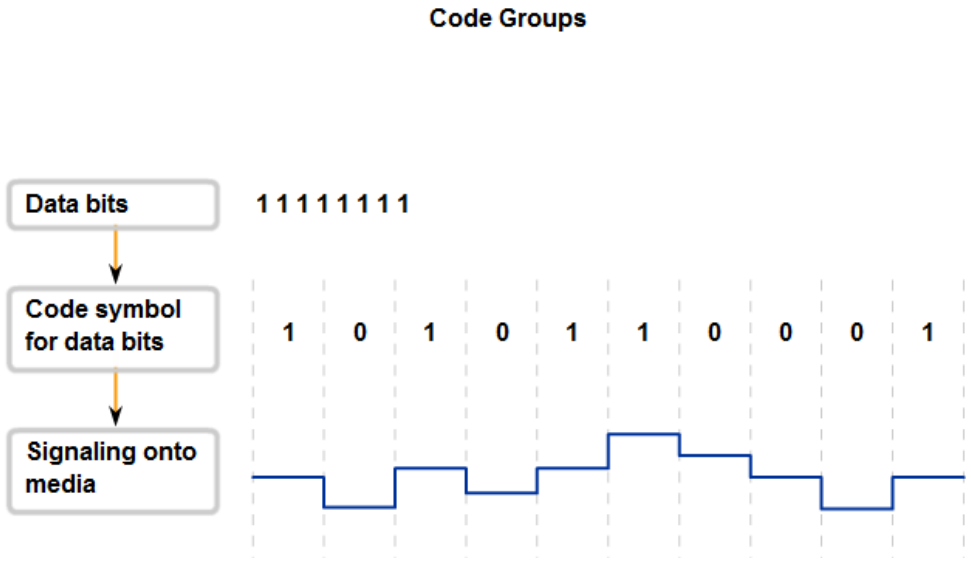
Encoding – Grouping Bits

- Word encoding a group of bit are encode before put to the media
- Word encoding
  - improves the efficiency at higher speed data transmission
  - Error detection
- Remember that the receiver need to know the beginning and the end of the frame
- This can be done by using pattern of signals that represent the start and end of the frame



Encoding – Grouping Bits

- Encoding techniques use bit patterns called symbols
- The Physical layer may use a set of encoded symbols - called code groups - to represent encoded data or control information
- Advantages using code groups include:
  - Reducing bit level error: the symbols force an ample number of bit transitions to occur on the media to synchronize this timing
  - Limiting the effective energy transmitted into the media: balancing the 0's and 1's in the codes (DC balancing) thereby reducing the interference radiated from the media
  - Helping to distinguish data bits from control bits: using different symbols for data and control
  - Better media error detection: errors can be detected easily by detecting invalid symbols



Encoding – 4B/5B Code

4B/5B Code Symbols

Data Codes

4B Code	5B Symbol
0000	11110
0001	01001
0010	10100
0011	10101
0100	01010
0101	01011
0110	01110
0111	01111
1000	10010
1001	10011
1010	10110
1011	10111
1100	11010
1101	11011
1110	11100
1111	11101

Control and Invalid Codes

4B Code	5B Symbol
idle	11111
start of stream	11000
start of stream	10001
end of stream	01101
end of stream	00111
transmit error	00111
invalid	00000
invalid	00001
invalid	00010
invalid	00011
invalid	00100
invalid	00101
invalid	00110
invalid	01000
invalid	10000
invalid	11001

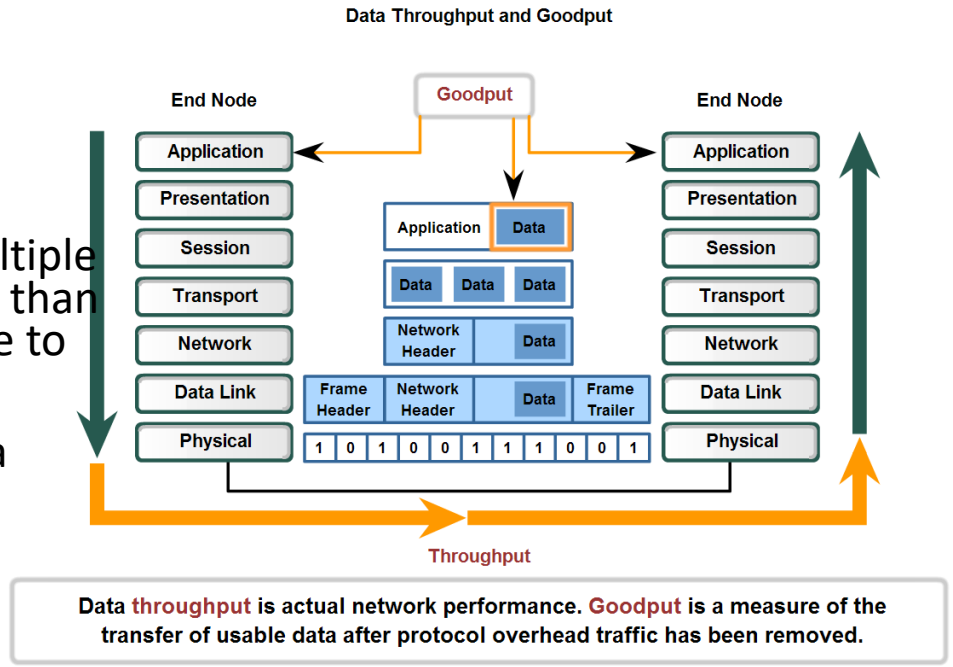
Data Carrying Capacity

- Data transfer can be measured in three ways:
  - Bandwidth
  - Throughput
  - Goodput
- Bandwidth: The capacity of the medium to carry data
- Digital bandwidth measures the amount of information that can flow from one place to another in a given amount of time
- Bandwidth is typically measured in kilobits per second (kbps) or megabits per second (Mbps)
- The practical bandwidth of a network is determined by a combination of factors:
  - the properties of the physical media and
  - the technologies chosen for signaling and detecting network signals

Unit of Bandwidth	Abbreviation	Equivalence
Bits per second	bps	1 bps = fundamental unit of bandwidth
Kilobits per second	kbps	1 kbps = 1,000 bps = 10^3 bps
Megabits per second	Mbps	1 Mbps = 1,000,000 bps = 10^6 bps
Gigabits per second	Gbps	1 Gbps = 1,000,000,000 bps = 10^9 bps
Terabits per second	Tbps	1 Tbps = 1,000,000,000,000 bps = 10^{12} bps

Data Carrying Capacity

- Throughput: is the measure of the transfer of bits across the media over a given period of time
- Many factors influence throughput:
  - the amount of traffic
  - the type of traffic
  - the number of network devices encountered on the network
- In an internetwork or network with multiple segments, throughput cannot be faster than the slowest link of the path from source to destination
- Goodput: is the measure of usable data transferred over a given period of time
- Goodput accounts for bits devoted to protocol overhead
- Goodput is throughput minus traffic overhead for establishing sessions, acknowledgements, and encapsulation



Types of Physical Media

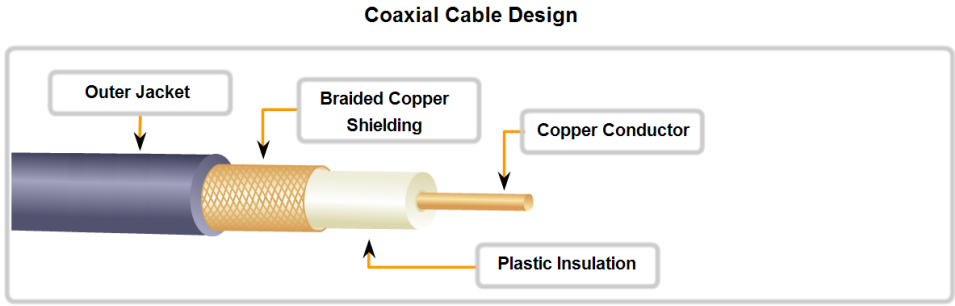
- There various organization contribute to the standard and development physical, electrical, and mechanical properties of the media
- Example, standards for copper media are defined for the:
  - Type of copper cabling used
  - Bandwidth of the communication
  - Type of connectors used
  - Pinout and color codes of connections to the media
  - Maximum distance of the media

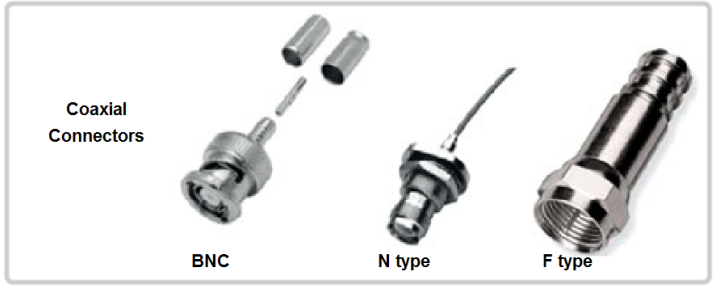
Ethernet Media

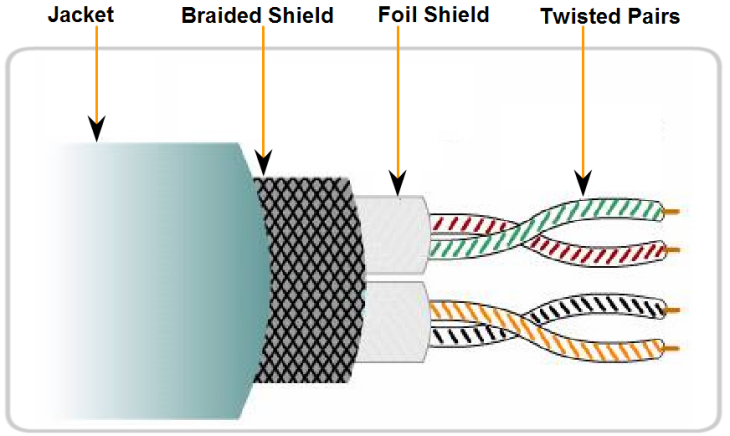
	10BASE-T	100BASE-TX	100BASE-FX	1000BASE-CX	1000BASE-T	1000BASE-SX	1000BASE-LX	1000BASE-ZX	10GBASE-ZR
Media	EIA/TIA Category 3, 4, 5 UTP, two pair	EIA/TIA Category 3, 4, 5 UTP, two pair	50/62.5 µm multi mode fiber	STP	EIA/TIA Category 3, 4, 5 UTP, four pair	62.5/50 micron multimode fiber	50/62.5 micron multimode fiber or 9 micron single mode fiber	9µm single mode fiber	9µm single mode fiber
Maximum Segment Length	100m (328 feet)	100m (328 feet)	2 km (6562 ft)	25 m (82 feet)	100 m (328 feet)	Up to 550 m (1,804 ft) depending on fiber used	550 m (MMF)10 km (SMF)	Approx. 70 km	Up to 80 km
Topology	Star	Star	Star	Star	Star	Star	Star	Star	Star
Connector	ISO 8877 (RJ-45)	ISO 8877 (RJ-45)		ISO 8877 (RJ-45)	ISO 8877 (RJ-45)				

Copper Media

- The most widely used media is the copper wires (coaxial, UTP, STP)
- Copper wires are used to connect nodes and different network devices in LAN and WAN
- The copper media type chosen is specified by the Physical layer standard required to link the Data Link layer
- Network media use different types of modular jacks and plugs
- One type of connector can be used for different types of connection. E.g. RJ45 in LANs and WANs (ISDN)

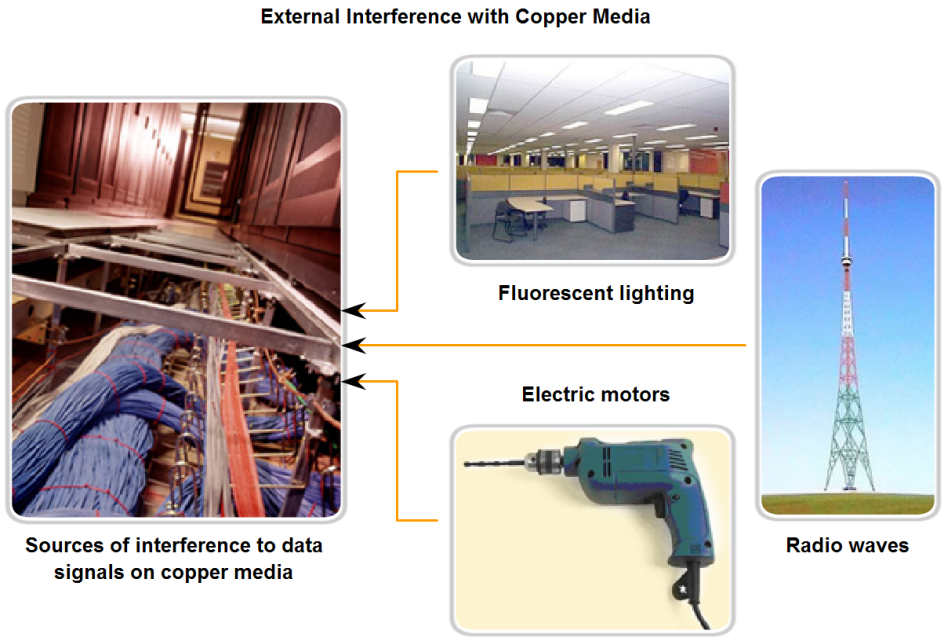






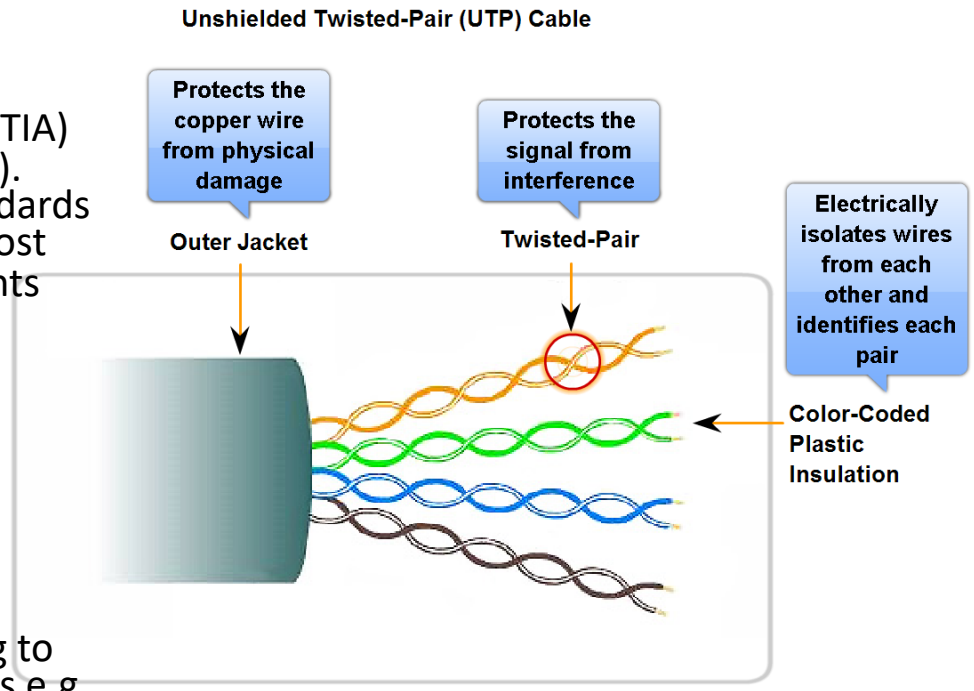
Copper Media – External Signal Interferance

- Signals in electrical cables are susceptible to interferences and noise from the surrounding
- The received signals should be in a good shape so they can be interpreted by the receiver.
- Radio waves (RFI), electromagnetic devices such as fluorescent lights, electric motors (EMI), and other devices are potential sources of noise
- Cable types with shielding or twisting of the pairs of wires are designed to minimize signal degradation due to electronic noise
- The susceptibility of copper cables to electronic noise can also be limited by:
  - Selecting the cable type or category most suited to protect the data signals in a given networking environment
  - Designing a cable infrastructure to avoid known and potential sources of interference in the building structure
  - Using cabling techniques that include the proper handling and termination of the cables



Unshielded Twisted Pair (UTP) Cable

- four pairs of color-coded wires that have been twisted together and then encased in a flexible plastic sheath
- The twisting has the effect of reducing the effect of noise and ***crosstalk***
- UTP cabling standards are defined by Telecommunications Industry Association (TIA) and the Electronics Industries Alliance (EIA). E.g. stipulates the commercial cabling standards for LAN installations and is the standard most commonly used in LAN cabling environments
- Some the elements defined are:
  - Cable types
  - Cable lengths
  - Connectors
  - Cable termination
  - Methods of testing cable
- Cables are placed into categories according to their ability to carry higher bandwidth rates e.g. Cat5e and Cat6

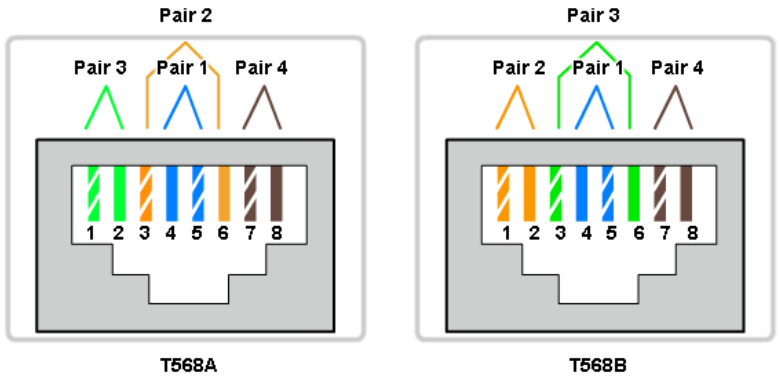


Unshielded Twisted Pair (UTP) Cable

- UTP cables terminated with RJ45 connectors
- UTP cables can be wired and terminated in different ways according to standards
- The following are main cable types that are obtained by using specific wiring conventions:
  - Ethernet Straight-through
  - Ethernet Crossover
  - Rollover

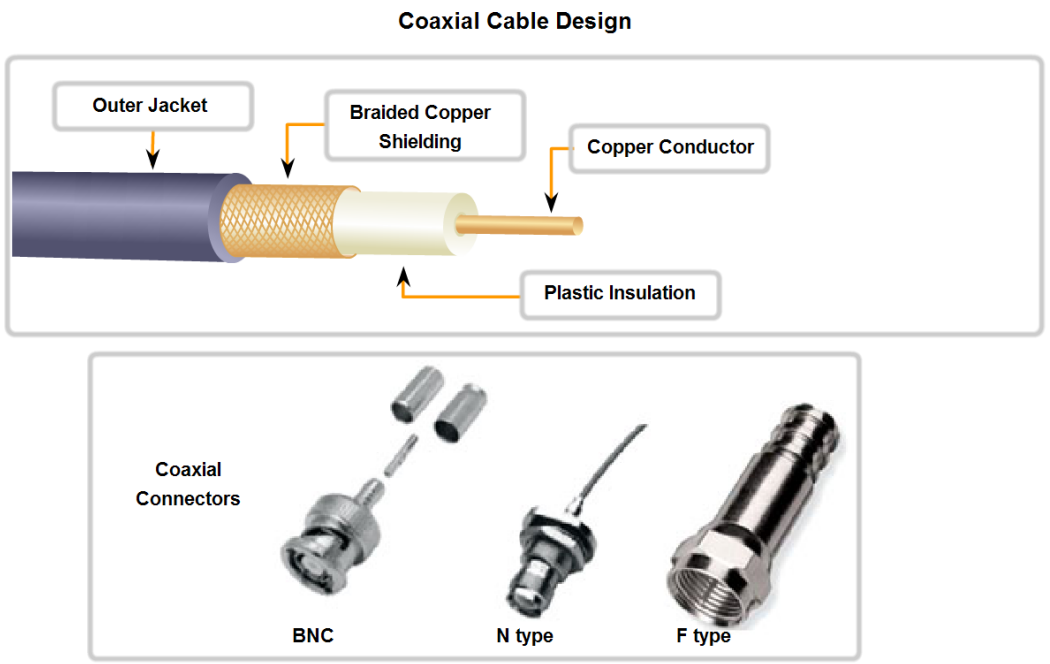
Straight-through, Crossover, and Rollover Cable Types

Cable Type	Standard	Application
Ethernet Straight-through	Both end T568A or both end T568B	Connecting a network host to a network device such as a switch or hub.
Ethernet Crossover	One end T568A, other end T568B	Connecting two network hosts. Connecting two network intermediary devices (switch to switch, or router to router).
Rollover	Cisco proprietary	Connect a workstation serial port to a router console port, using an adapter.



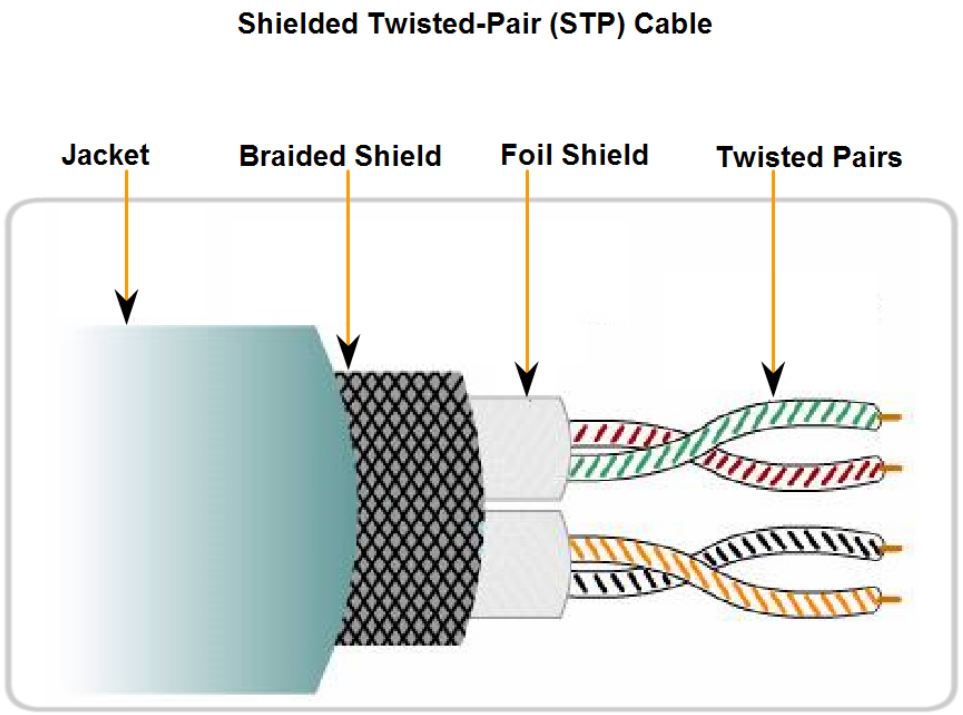
Other Types of Copper Media – Coaxial Cable (Coax)

- An important type of cable that is used in wireless and cable access technologies
- Used to attach antennas to wireless devices. It carries radio frequency (RF) energy between the antennas and the radio equipment
- Cables services (two-way system) provide Internet connectivity as well TV services (Hybrid Fiber Coax HFC)



Other Types of Copper Media – Shielded Twisted Pair (STP) Cable

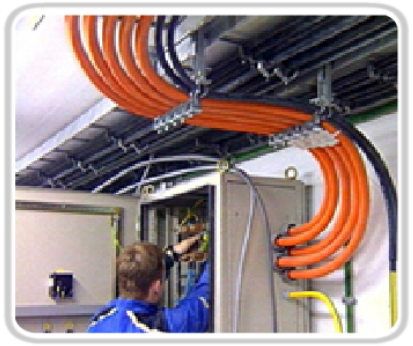
- Provides better noise protection than UTP cabling, however at a significantly higher price
- For many years, STP was the cabling structure specified for use in Token Ring network installations
- The new 10 GB standard for Ethernet has a provision for the use of STP cabling



Characteristics & Uses of Network Media

- Identify types of safety issues when working with copper cabling

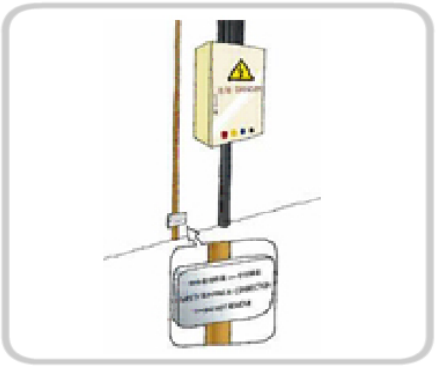
Copper Media Safety



The separation of data and electrical power cabling must comply with safety codes.

Cables must be connected correctly.

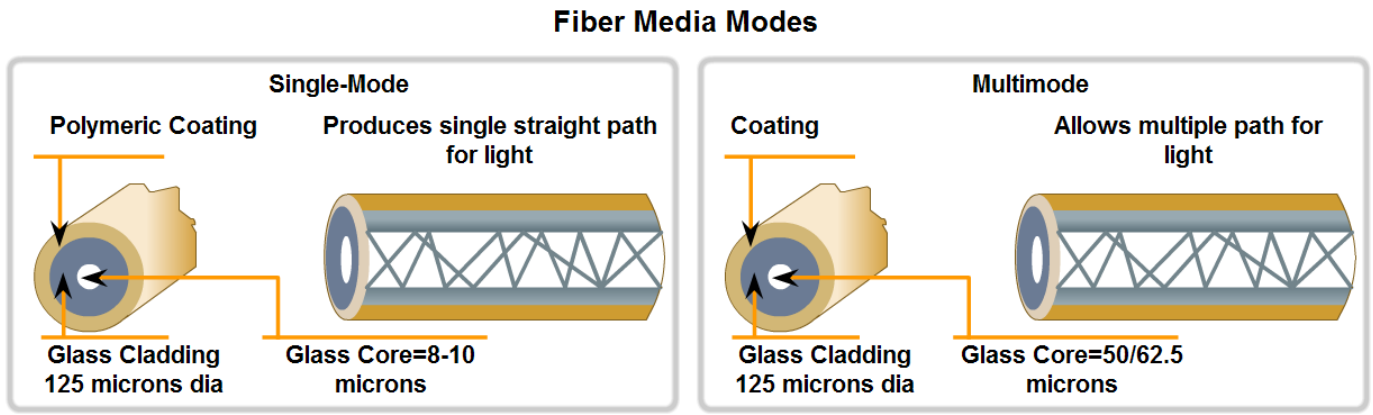
Installations must be inspected for damage.



Equipment must be grounded correctly.

Characteristics & Uses of Network Media

- Identify several primary characteristics of fiber cabling and its main advantages over other media

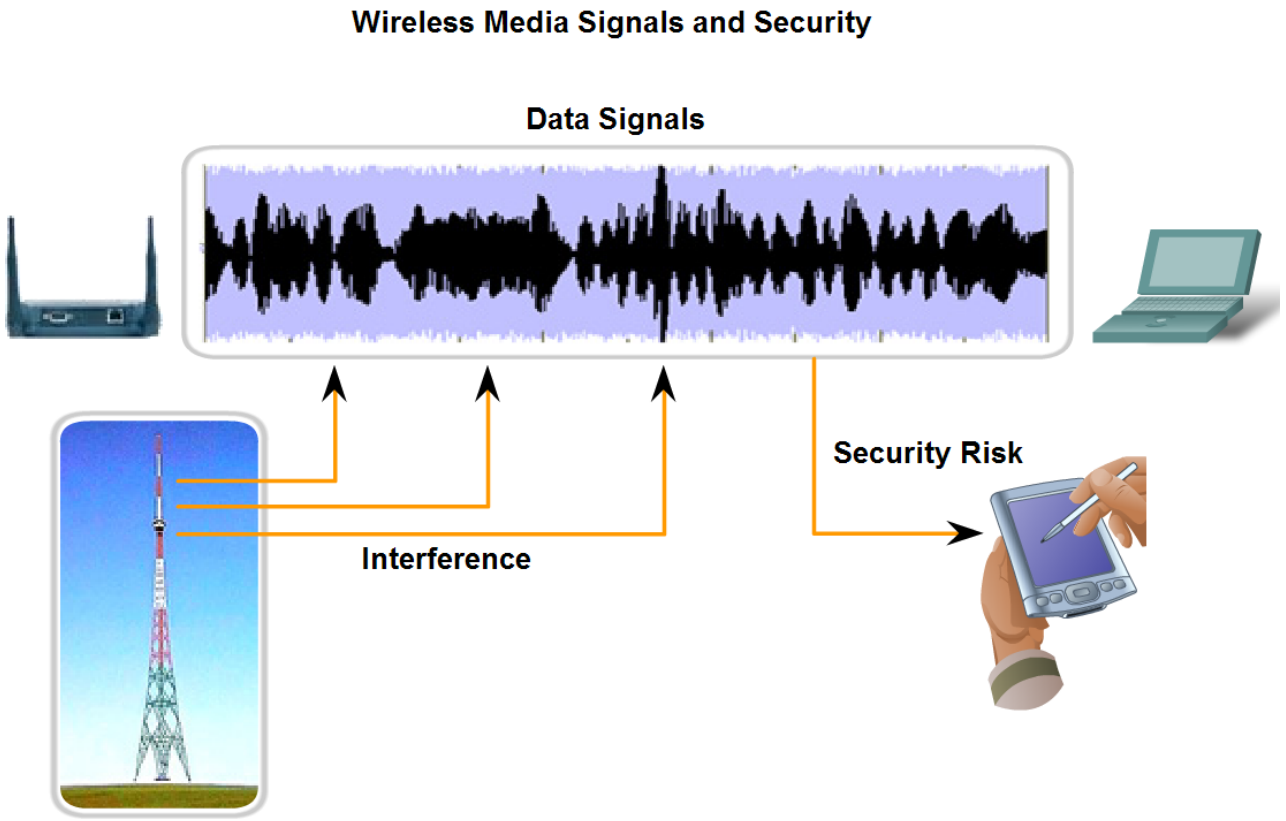


- Small Core
- Less Despersion
- Suited for long distance applications (up to 100 km, 62,14 mi.)
- Uses lasers as the light source often within campus backbones for distance of several thousand meters

- Larger core than single-mode cable (50 microns or greater)
- Allows greater dipersion and therefore, loss of signal
- Used for long distance appllication, but shoter than single-mode (up to ~2km, 6560 ft)
- Uses LEDs as the light source often within LANs or distances of couple hundred meters within a campus network

Characteristics & Uses of Network Media

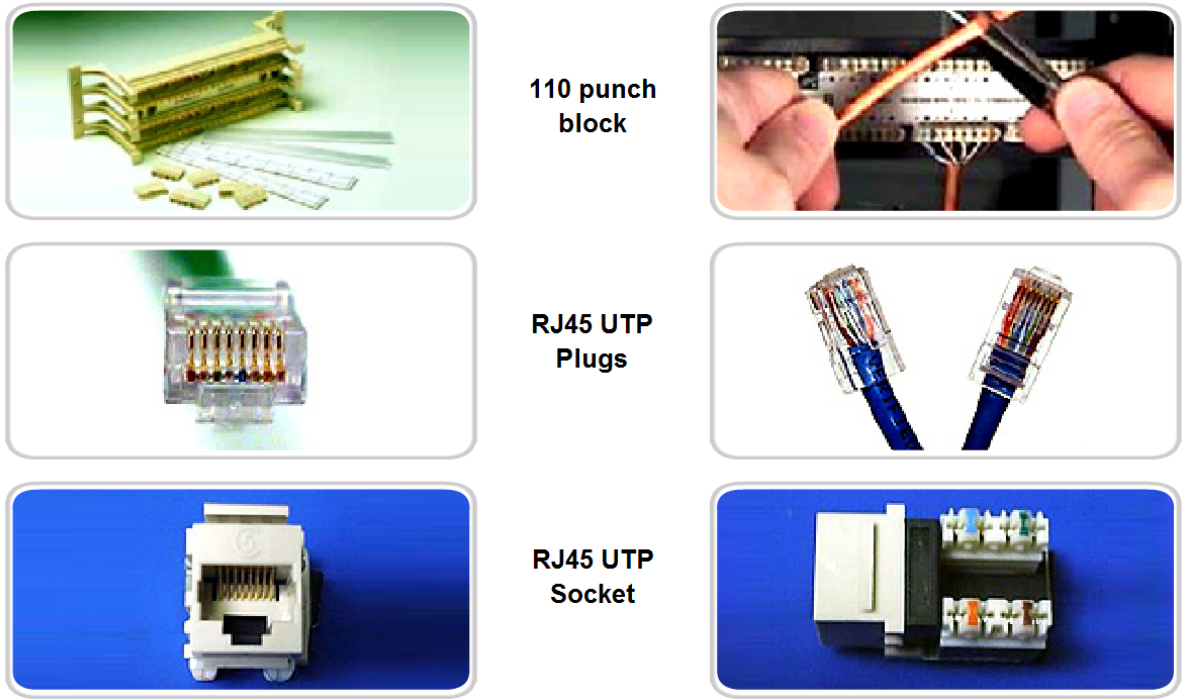
- Describe the role of radio waves when using air as the media and the increased need for security in wireless communications



Characteristics & Uses of Network Media

- Identify the characteristics used to categorize connectors, describe some common uses for the same connectors, and identify the consequences for misapplying a connector in a given situation

Copper Media Connectors



Summary

In this chapter, you learned to:

- Explain the role of Physical layer protocols and services in supporting communication across data networks.
- Describe the purpose of Physical layer signaling and encoding as they are used in networks.
- Describe the role of signals used to represent bits as a frame is transported across the local media.
- Identify the basic characteristics of copper, fiber, and wireless network media.
- Describe common uses of copper, fiber, and wireless network media.