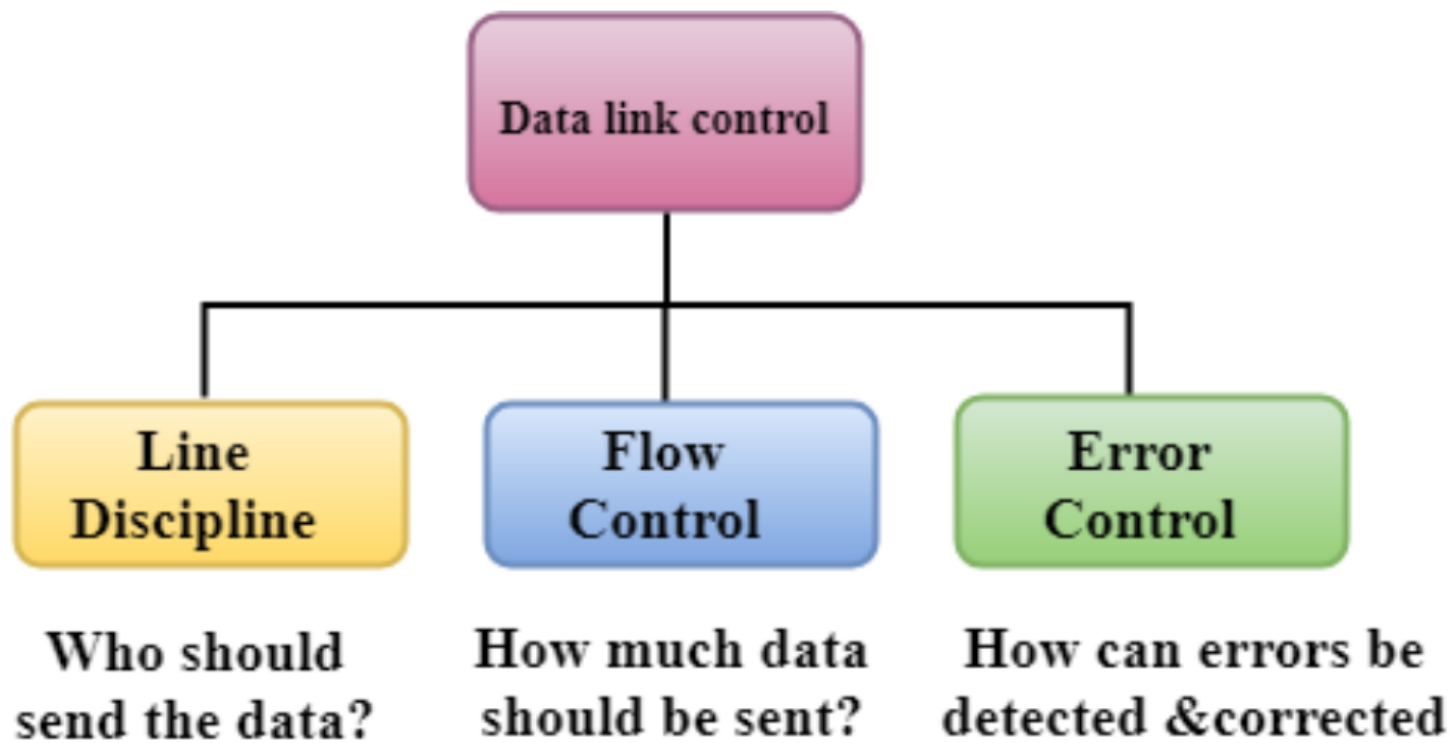


Data Link Control is the service provided by the Data Link Layer to provide reliable data transfer over the physical medium. For example, In the half-duplex transmission mode, one device can only transmit the data at a time. If both the devices at the end of the links transmit the data simultaneously, they will collide and leads to the loss of the information. The Data link layer provides the coordination among the devices so that no collision occurs.

The Data link layer provides three functions:

- Line discipline
- Flow Control
- Error Control



- Line Discipline is a functionality of the Data link layer that provides the coordination among the link systems. It determines which device can send, and when it can send the data.

Line Discipline can be achieved in two ways:

- ENQ/ACK
- Poll/select

END/ACK

END/ACK stands for

Enquiry/Acknowledgement is used when there is no wrong receiver available on the link and having a dedicated path between the two devices so that the device capable of receiving the transmission is the intended one.

END/ACK coordinates which device will start the transmission and whether the recipient is ready or not.

Working of END/ACK

The transmitter transmits the frame called an Enquiry (ENQ) asking whether the receiver is available to receive the data or not.

The receiver responds either with the positive acknowledgement (ACK) or with the negative acknowledgement (NACK) where positive acknowledgement means that the receiver is ready to receive the transmission and negative acknowledgement means that the receiver is unable to accept the transmission.

Following are the responses of the receiver:

Data-link layer is responsible for implementation of point-to-point flow and error control mechanism.

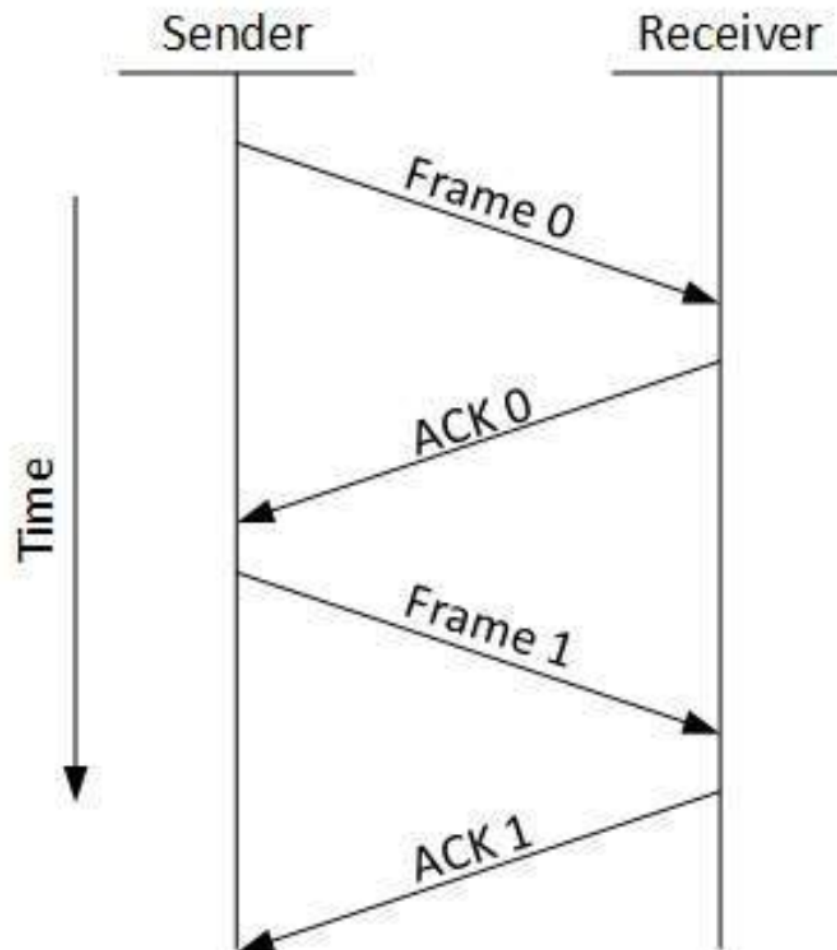
Flow Control

When a data frame (Layer-2 data) is sent from one host to another over a single medium, it is required that the sender and receiver should work at the same speed. That is, sender sends at a speed on which the receiver can process and accept the data. What if the speed (hardware/software) of the sender or receiver differs? If sender is sending too fast the receiver may be overloaded, (swamped) and data may be lost.

Two types of mechanisms can be deployed to control the flow:

- **Stop and Wait**

This flow control mechanism forces the sender after transmitting a data frame to stop and wait until the acknowledgement of the data-frame sent is received.



- **Sliding Window**

In this flow control mechanism, both sender and receiver agree on the number of data-frames after which the acknowledgement should be sent. As we learnt, stop and wait flow control mechanism wastes resources, this protocol tries to make use of underlying resources as much as possible.

Sliding Window protocol handles this efficiency issue by sending more than one packet at a time with a larger sequence numbers. The idea is same as pipelining in architectures.

Few Terminologies :

Transmission Delay (T_t) – Time to transmit the packet from host to the outgoing link. If B is the Bandwidth of the link and D is the Data Size to transmit

$$T_t = D/B$$

Propagation Delay (T_p) – It is the time taken by the first bit transferred by the host onto the outgoing link to reach the destination. It depends on the distance d and the wave propagation speed s (depends on the characteristics of the medium).

Efficiency – It is defined as the ratio of total useful time to the total cycle time of a packet. For stop and wait protocol,

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Total cycle time} &= T_t(\text{data}) + T_p(\text{data}) + \\ &\quad T_t(\text{acknowledgement}) + \\ &= T_t(\text{data}) + T_p(\text{data}) + T_p \\ &= T_t + 2 * T_p\end{aligned}$$

Since acknowledgements are very less in size, their transmission delay can be neglected.

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Efficiency} &= \text{Useful Time} / \text{Total Cycle Time} \\ &= T_t / (T_t + 2 * T_p) \quad (\text{For Stop and} \\ &= 1 / (1 + 2a) \quad [\text{Using } a = T_p / T_t\end{aligned}$$

Effective Bandwidth(EB) or Throughput

– Number of bits sent per second.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{EB} &= \text{Data Size}(L) / \text{Total Cycle time}(T_t + T_p) \\ &\text{Multiplying and dividing by Bandwidth (B)} \\ &= (1/(1+2a)) * B \quad [\text{Using } a = T_p / T_t] \\ &= \text{Efficiency} * \text{Bandwidth} \end{aligned}$$

Capacity of link – If a channel is Full Duplex, then bits can be transferred in both the directions and without any collisions. Number of bits a channel/Link can hold at maximum is its capacity.

$$\text{Capacity} = \text{Bandwidth}(B) * \text{Propagation}(T_p)$$

For Full Duplex channels,

$$\text{Capacity} = 2 * \text{Bandwidth}(B) * \text{Propagation}(T_p)$$

Sliding window protocol has two types:

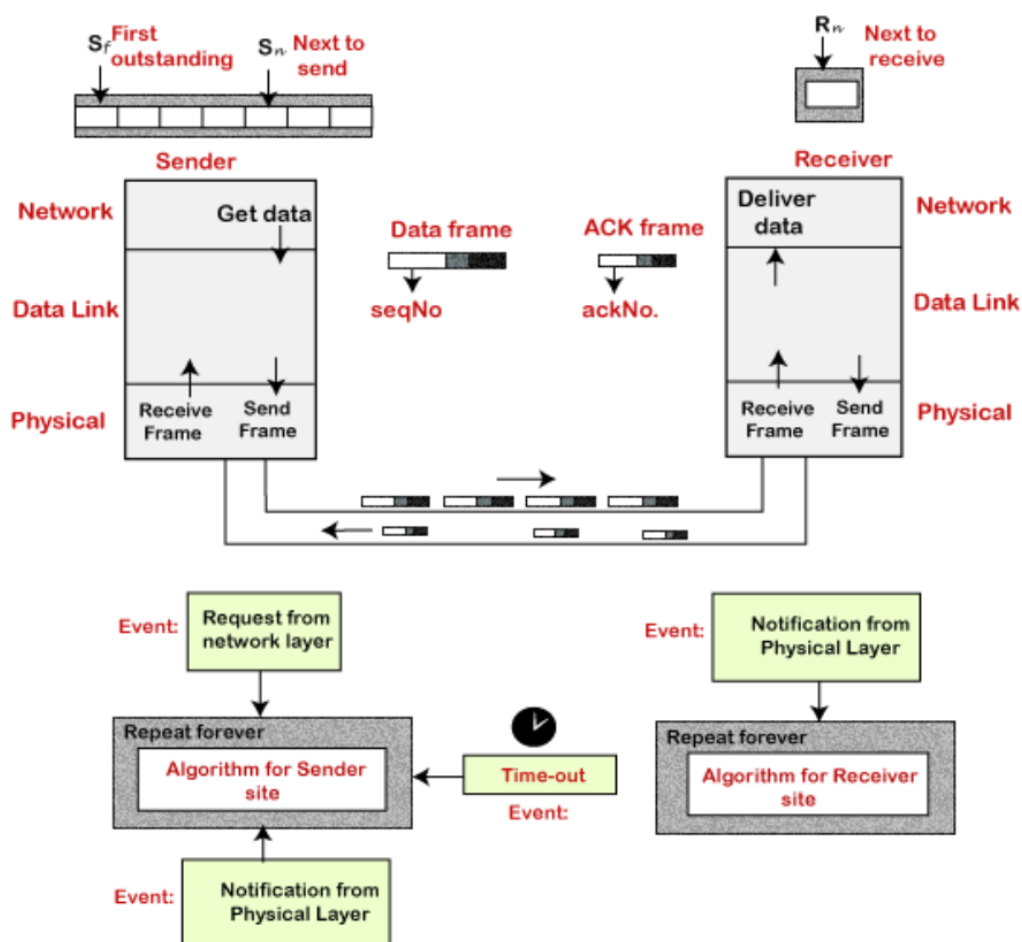
1. Go-Back-N ARQ
2. Selective Repeat ARQ

Go-Back-N ARQ

Go-Back-N ARQ protocol is also known as Go-Back-N Automatic Repeat Request. It is a data link layer protocol that uses a sliding window method. In this, if any frame is corrupted or lost, all subsequent frames have to be sent again.

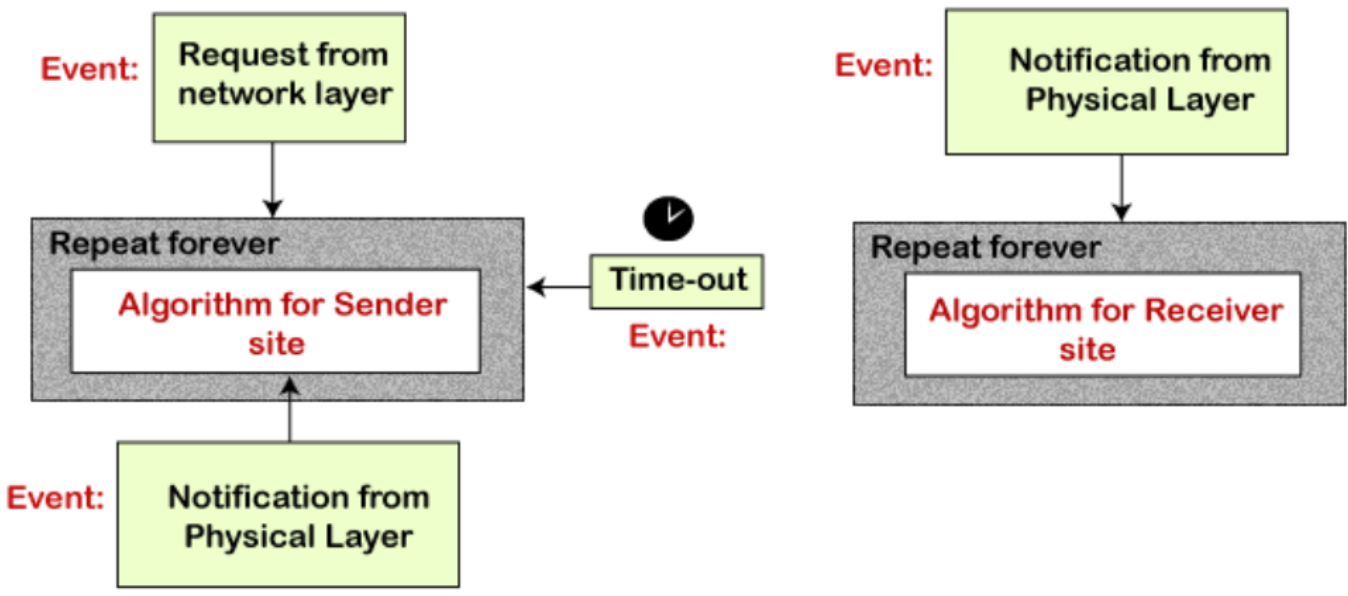
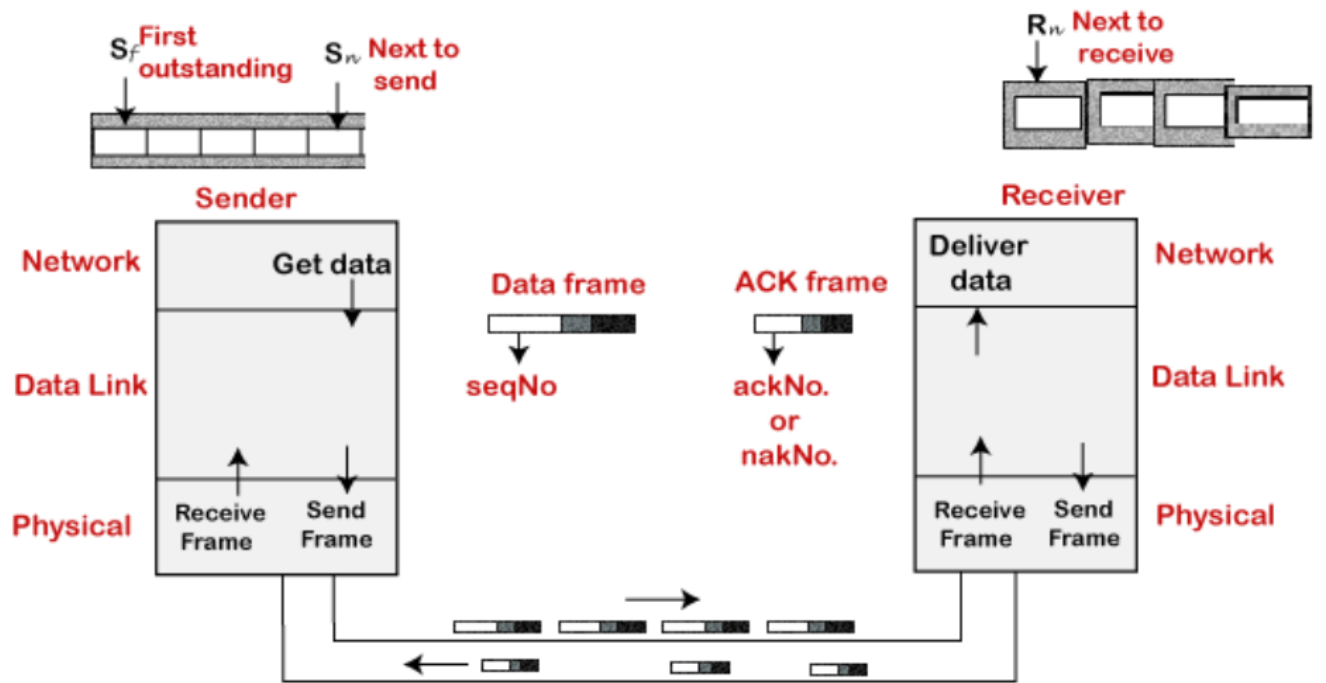
The size of the sender window is N in this protocol. For example, Go-Back-8, the size of the sender window, will be 8. The receiver window size is always 1.

If the receiver receives a corrupted frame, it cancels it. The receiver does not accept a corrupted frame. When the timer expires, the sender sends the correct frame again. The design of the Go-Back- N ARQ protocol is shown below.



Selective Repeat ARQ is also known as the Selective Repeat Automatic Repeat Request. It is a data link layer protocol that uses a sliding window method. The Go-back-N ARQ protocol works well if it has fewer errors. But if there is a lot of error in the frame, lots of bandwidth loss in sending the frames again. So, we use the Selective Repeat ARQ protocol. In this protocol, the size of the sender window is always equal to the size of the receiver window. The size of the sliding window is always greater than 1.

If the receiver receives a corrupt frame, it does not directly discard it. It sends a negative acknowledgment to the sender. The sender sends that frame again as soon as on the receiving negative acknowledgment. There is no waiting for any time-out to send that frame. The design of the Selective Repeat ARQ protocol is shown below.



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

Ethernet :-

Ethernet is most widely used LAN Technology, which is defined under IEEE standards 802.3. The reason behind its wide usability is Ethernet is easy to understand, implement, maintain and allows low-cost network implementation. Also, Ethernet offers flexibility in terms of topologies which are allowed. Ethernet generally uses Bus Topology. Ethernet operates in two layers of the OSI model, Physical Layer, and Data Link Layer. For Ethernet, the protocol data unit is Frame since we mainly deal with DLL. In order to handle collision, the Access control mechanism used in Ethernet is CSMA/CD. Manchester Encoding Technique is used in Ethernet.

Fast Ethernet

The Fast Ethernet standard (IEEE 802.3u) has been established for Ethernet networks that need higher transmission speeds. This standard raises the Ethernet speed limit from 10 Mbps to 100 Mbps with only minimal changes to the existing cable structure. Fast Ethernet provides faster throughput for video, multimedia, graphics, Internet surfing and stronger error detection and correction.

There are three types of Fast Ethernet: 100BASE-TX for use with level 5 UTP cable; 100BASE-FX for use with fiber-optic cable; and 100BASE-T4 which utilizes an extra two wires for use with level 3 UTP cable. The 100BASE-TX standard has become the most popular due to its close compatibility with the 10BASE-T Ethernet standard.

Network managers who want to incorporate Fast Ethernet into an existing configuration are required to make many decisions. The number of users in each site on the network that need the higher throughput must be determined; which segments of the backbone need to be reconfigured specifically for 100BASE-T; plus what hardware is necessary in order to connect the 100BASE-T segments with existing 10BASE-T segments. Gigabit Ethernet is a future technology that promises a migration path beyond Fast Ethernet so the next generation of networks will support even higher data transfer speeds.

Gigabit Ethernet

Gigabit Ethernet was developed to meet the need for faster communication networks with applications such as multimedia and Voice over IP (VoIP). Also known as “gigabit-Ethernet-over-copper” or 1000Base-T, GigE is a version of Ethernet that runs at speeds 10 times faster than 100Base-T. It is defined in the IEEE 802.3 standard and is currently used as an enterprise backbone.

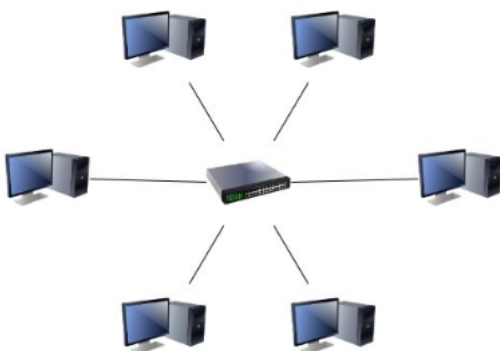
Existing Ethernet LANs with 10 and 100 Mbps cards can feed into a Gigabit Ethernet backbone to interconnect high performance switches, routers and servers.

From the data link layer of the OSI model upward, the look and implementation of Gigabit Ethernet is identical to that of Ethernet. The most important differences between Gigabit Ethernet and Fast Ethernet include the additional support of full duplex operation in the MAC layer and the data rates.

A *local-area network (LAN)* is a **computer network** that spans a relatively small area. Most often, a LAN is confined to a single room, building or group of buildings, however, one LAN can be connected to other LANs over any distance via telephone lines and radio waves.

A system of LANs connected in this way is called a wide-area network (**WAN**). The difference between a LAN and WAN is that the wide-area network spans a relatively large geographical area. Typically, a WAN consists of two or more local-area networks (LANs) and are often connected through public networks.

Nodes on a LAN



Most LANs connect **workstations** and personal computers. Each **node** (individual computer) in a LAN has its own **CPU** with which it executes programs, but it also is able to access data and devices anywhere on the LAN

This means that many users can share expensive devices, such as laser printers, as well as data. Users can also use the LAN to communicate with each other, by sending email or engaging in chat sessions.

Introduction of Internetworking

Internetworking is combined of 2 words, inter and networking which implies an association between totally different nodes or segments. This connection area unit is established through intercessor devices akin to routers or gateway. The first term for associate degree internetwork was catenet. This interconnection is often among or between public, private, commercial, industrial, or governmental networks. Thus, associate degree internetwork could be an assortment of individual networks, connected by intermediate networking devices, that functions as one giant network. Internetworking refers to the trade, products, and procedures that meet the challenge of making and administering internetworks.

There are chiefly 3 unit of
Internetworking:

1. Extranet
2. Intranet
3. Internet

Intranets and extranets might or might not have connections to the net. If there is a connection to the net, the computer network or extranet area unit is usually shielded from being accessed from the net if it is not authorized. The net isn't thought-about to be a section of the computer network or extranet, though it should function a portal for access to parts of associate degree extranet.

Network Devices (Hub, Repeater, Bridge, Switch, Router, Gateways and Brouter)

1. Repeater – A repeater operates at the physical layer. Its job is to regenerate the signal over the same network before the signal becomes too weak or corrupted so as to extend the length to which the signal can be transmitted over the same network. An important point to be noted about repeaters is that they do not amplify the signal. When the signal becomes weak, they copy the signal bit by bit and regenerate it at the original strength. It is a 2 port device.

2. Hub – A hub is basically a multiport repeater. A hub connects multiple wires coming from different branches, for example, the connector in star topology which connects different stations. Hubs cannot filter data, so data packets are sent to all connected devices. In other words, collision domain of all hosts connected through Hub remains one. Also, they do not have the intelligence to find out best path for data packets which leads to inefficiencies and wastage.

Types of Hub

- **Active Hub:-** These are the hubs which have their own power supply and can clean, boost, and relay the signal along with the network. It serves both as a repeater as well as wiring centre. These are used to extend the maximum distance between nodes.
- **Passive Hub :-** These are the hubs which collect wiring from nodes and power supply from active hub. These hubs relay signals onto the network without cleaning and boosting them and can't be used to extend the distance between nodes.
- **Intelligent Hub :-** It work like active hubs and include remote management capabilities. They also provide flexible data rates to network devices. It also enables an administrator to monitor the traffic passing through the hub and to configure each port in the hub.

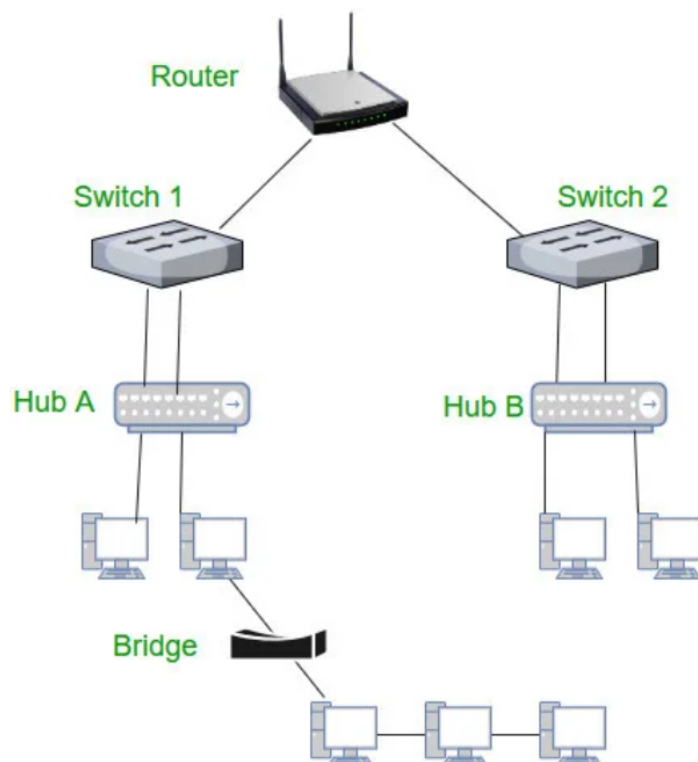
3. Bridge – A bridge operates at data link layer. A bridge is a repeater, with add on the functionality of filtering content by reading the MAC addresses of source and destination. It is also used for interconnecting two LANs working on the same protocol. It has a single input and single output port, thus making it a 2 port device.

Types of Bridges

- **Transparent Bridges:-** These are the bridge in which the stations are completely unaware of the bridge's existence i.e. whether or not a bridge is added or deleted from the network, reconfiguration of the stations is unnecessary. These bridges make use of two processes i.e. bridge forwarding and bridge learning.
- **Source Routing Bridges:-** In these bridges, routing operation is performed by source station and the frame specifies which route to follow. The host can discover frame by sending a special frame called discovery frame, which spreads through the entire network using all possible paths to destination.

4. Switch – A switch is a multiport bridge with a buffer and a design that can boost its efficiency (a large number of ports imply less traffic) and performance. A switch is a data link layer device. The switch can perform error checking before forwarding data, that makes it very efficient as it does not forward packets that have errors and forward good packets selectively to correct port only. In other words, switch divides collision domain of hosts, but broadcast domain remains same.

5. **Routers** – A router is a device like a switch that routes data packets based on their IP addresses. Router is mainly a Network Layer device. Routers normally connect LANs and WANs together and have a dynamically updating routing table based on which they make decisions on routing the data packets. Router divide broadcast domains of hosts connected through it.



6. Gateway – A gateway, as the name suggests, is a passage to connect two networks together that may work upon different networking models. They basically work as the messenger agents that take data from one system, interpret it, and transfer it to another system. Gateways are also called protocol converters and can operate at any network layer. Gateways are generally more complex than switch or router.

7. Brouter – It is also known as bridging router is a device which combines features of both bridge and router. It can work either at data link layer or at network layer. Working as router, it is capable of routing packets across networks and working as bridge, it is capable of filtering local area network traffic.