

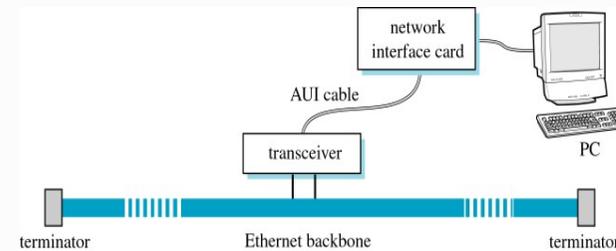
Lectures 15, 16, 17: Ethernet – 802.3 and 802.11

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314 S2T 2007

Ethernet 9.3

- IEEE 802.3: CSMA/CD on a shared bus



- Transceiver implements the MAC functions
- Originally 10 Mb/s on thick or thin 50Ω cable with repeaters and bridges, later on UTP with hubs and/or switches

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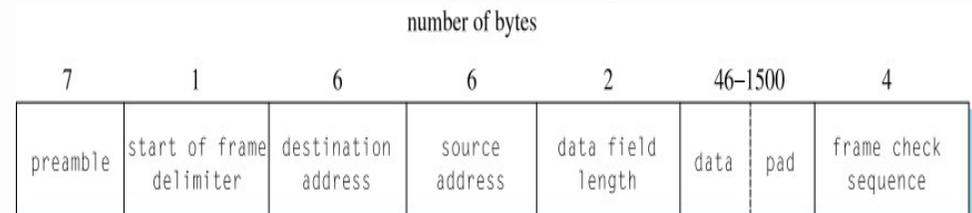
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Ethernet connection, step by step

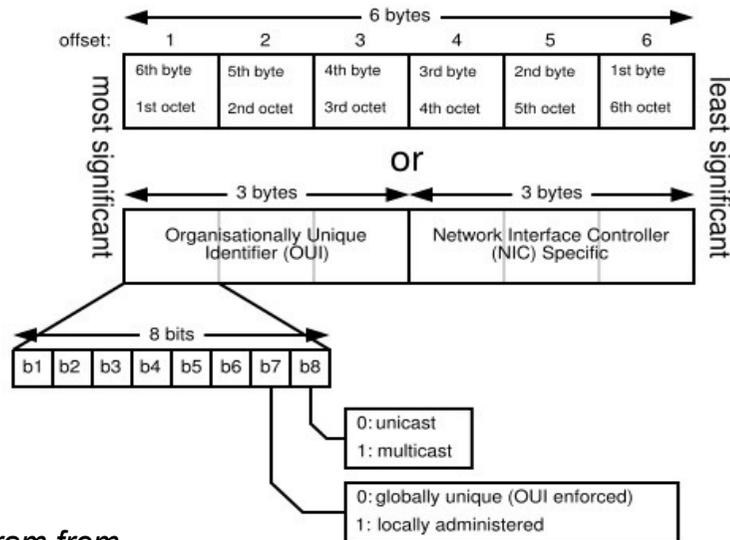
- Sending host builds a frame, sends it to Network Interface Card (NIC)
- NIC adds an Ethernet Header, waits for medium idle
- Sends packet, transceiver watches for collision. Tells NIC whether transmission succeeded or failed, NIC retries using *exponential backoff* algorithm
- Receiving host's transceiver sees packet, copies it to its NIC
- That NIC checks packet by computing CRC. If it was for this host (only, or as part of group), sends it to host via interrupt handler

Ethernet Frame, 802.2 encapsulation



- SFD and FCS are not counted as 'packet' bytes – they're not passed in to the host
- Data includes an 802.2 header
- Addresses (6-byte) are globally unique, 48 bits (MAC-48), see next slide
- Ethernet sends bytes in ascending order, bits in a byte low-order-bit-first

Ethernet Address Format (MAC-48)



- Diagram from [Wikipedia](#) web page

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Ethernet Frame, 'native'

- One extra convention:
 - Data Length field can carry an Ethertype instead, provided that the Ethertype value is > 1500, Ethernet's maximum packet size.
 - For example, Ethertype 0x0800 = 2048 (IP)
 - Length <= 1500 means that an 802.2 header follows

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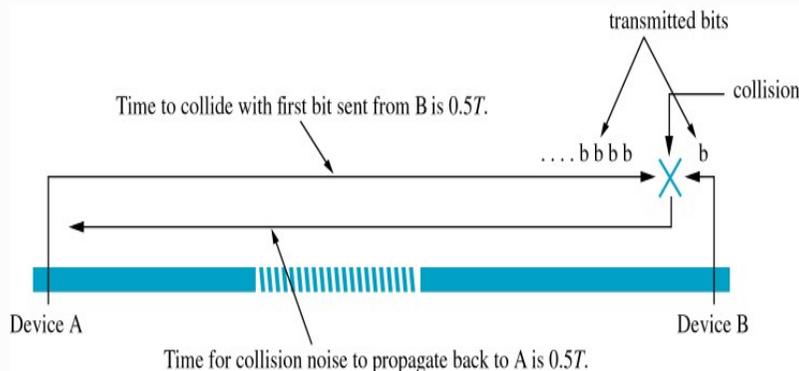
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Detecting Collisions

- Max packet size stops a host from monopolising the medium
- Min packet size set for reliable collision detection



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10Base5 Ethernet Specifications

- 'Segment' = *collision domain*
- Max segment length **500m**
- Max of **four** repeaters joining segments
- $2500\text{m}/(2 \times 10^8) \text{ m/s} = 12.5 \mu\text{s}$, 25 μs round-trip
- Allow 25 μs for (worst-case) repeater delay
- 50 μs at 10 Mb/s = 500 b, plus a few more
- 512 b = 64 B
- Min inter-packet gap is **12.5 μs** (i.e. 2.5km of cable) for 10, 100 and 1000 Mb/s Ethernet

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Physical Implementations

- **10Base5** = Thick Wire
 - thick coax, vampire taps, AUI on (50m) AUI cable
- **10Base2** = Thin Wire
 - thin coax, tee connectors, AUI built into NIC
- **10BaseT** = UTP (unshielded twisted pair) wire
 - max UTP cable length 100 metres
 - UTP into hubs (multiport repeaters) or switches
 - no collisions in switches, allows full-duplex working
 - status pulse to verify link is connected (flashing *link light* on NIC) [see *Wikipedia* for details]

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Fast (100 Mb/s) Ethernet 9.4

- 100BaseTX standardised (802.3u) in 1995
- Changes to go from 10 to 100 Mb/s on UTP:
 - couldn't use NRZI encoding directly at 100 Mb/s, too much RF interference (noise)
 - 4B/5B block encoding for each *nibble*, so as to ensure short 'same-bit' runs (Shay Table 9.3)
 - e.g. 1010-0010-0000-0000-0000-0000 becomes 10110-10100-11110-11110-11110-11110
 - that reduced the noise, but not enough to allow use of NRZI
 - MLT-3 signaling ..

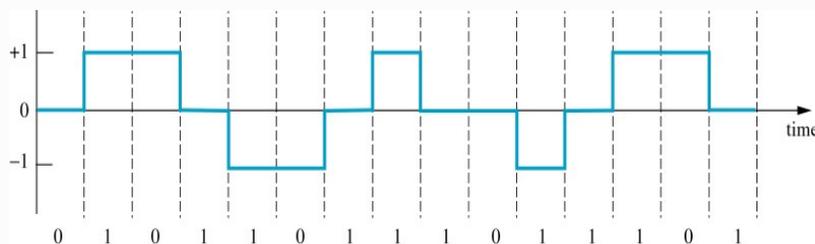
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Fast (100 Mb/s) Ethernet (2)

- MLT-3 signaling, Multilevel Line Transmission – Three signal Levels



- MLT-3 cycles through -1, 0, 1, 0, -1, ...
 - for a 1 bit, progress to next state
 - for a 0 bit, maintain same state
- Uses 25% max frequency compared to Manchester, works well over UTP

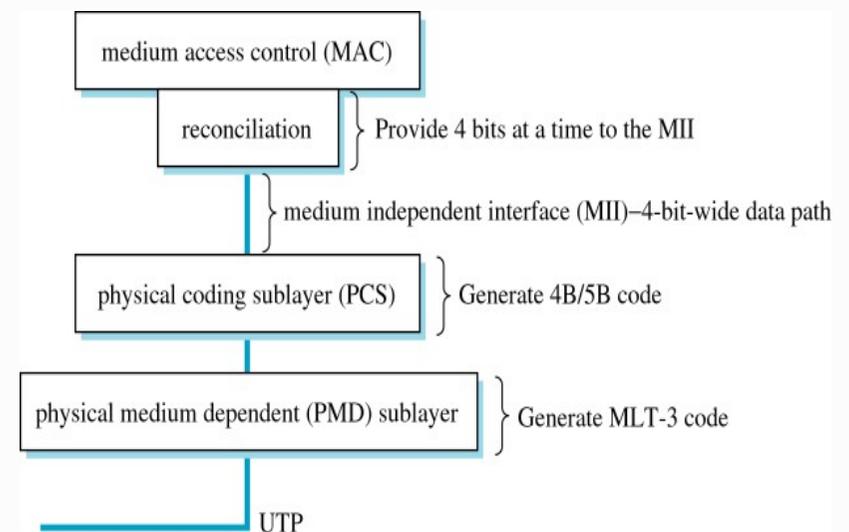
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Fast (100 Mb/s) Ethernet (3)

- 100BaseTX physical layers



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100BaseT4

- 100 Mb/s Ethernet on four Category 3 UTP cables
- Not widely used today

100BaseFX – 100 Mb/s on Fibre

- Multi-mode or single-mode fibre
- Segment length 412 metres if collisions can occur, 2 km in full duplex (i.e. using switches)
- Uses 4B/5B block encoding, same as for UTP
- Uses NRZI signaling instead of MLT-3
- Normally use ST fibre connectors
 - ST connectors just push in
 - SC (an older type) is a bayonet-style connector

Collision Domain

- 10Mb/s Ethernet used a minimum frame size of 512 bits, (transmitted in 51.2 μ s) for a maximum segment length of 2500m
- 100Mb/s Ethernet transmits a frame in 1/10 the time, so the max segment length decreases. For 100BaseTX it is only 100m
- 1GB/s Ethernet would require even less!

Gigabit Ethernet 9.5

- Collision Domains again ..
 - 1000BaseX (fibre, 802.3z) and 1000BaseT (twisted pair, 802.3ab) allow collisions
 - when collisions are possible, need to use a longer minimum frame so as to keep 100BaseTX's maximum segment length of 100m
 - do that by using a min frame of 4096 bits, i.e. extra padding on short packets
 - can also send a group of packets back-to-back as a 'burst frame,' only the first packet needs to be 4096 bits long
 - collisions are not possible in full-duplex mode; that uses 512b minimum frames (same as earlier standards)

1000BaseX

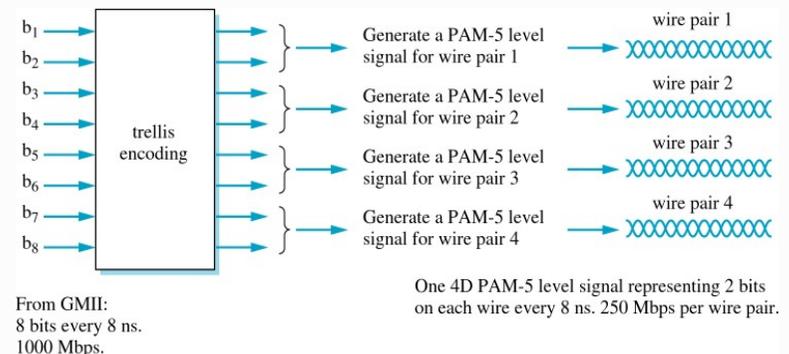
- Gigabit Ethernet on fibre (or coax cable)
- Similar to 100Mb/s Ethernet, but uses GMII
 - 8-bit-wide data path instead of 4
 - 1 bit of data (on all 8 lines) every 8 ns
- Uses 8B/10B block encoding instead of 4B/5B
 - code symbols are chosen so as to provide *DC balance*, i.e. equal numbers of 0s and 1 over the *long term*
 - has two encoder states and two alternate mappings for each symbol: 'more 0s' and 'more 1s'

1000BaseT (2)

- 1000BaseT does *not* support half-duplex
- Each GMII octet is divided into four 2-bit groups
- 5-level signalling – PAM5 – is used to send the 2-bit groups. Having 5 levels provides support for some control functions
- Cat5 isn't quite able to carry this reliably, so the link needs error-correction codes to allow for possible errors
 - *trellis encoding* sends extra information, *Viterbi decoding* detects and corrects errors
 - we're not going into the details!

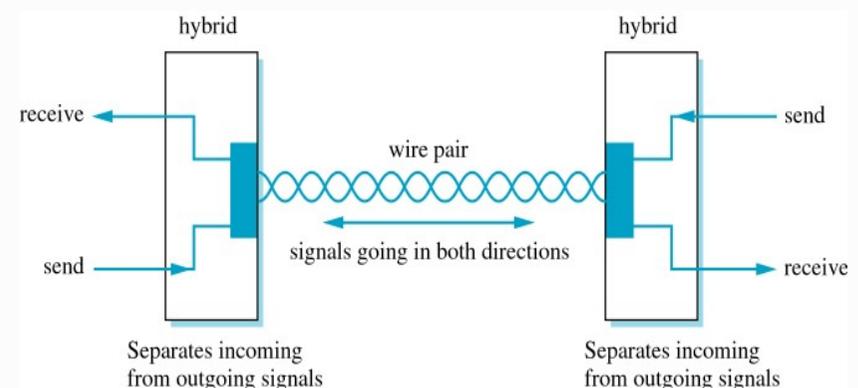
1000BaseT

- Gigabit Ethernet over Category 5 UTP
 - Note: 1000BaseTX is a different standard [*not widely used, see Wikipedia*]
- Much harder for UTP than fibre because of its high signal frequencies
- Uses all four twisted pairs in Cat5 cable to carry 250 Mb/s each



1000BaseT (3)

- All four Cat5 twisted pairs used for data
- Full-duplex carried over each pair at the same time using *hybrids* to combine/separate the signals



10 Gb/s Ethernet

- 802.3ae only works in full-duplex on fibre
- Standard specifies two physical layer types
 - LAN-PHY – for use in LANs
 - e.g. 10GBaseLX4, 300m
 - WAN-PHY – for linking LANs over a wide area
 - e.g. 10GBaseER, 40km
 - an alternative to SONET or ATM

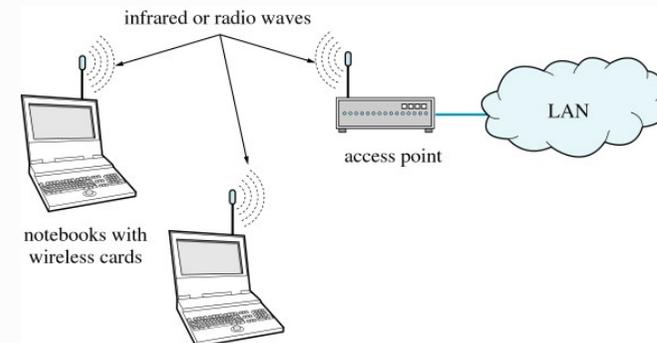
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Wireless Networks 9.7

- 802.11 standard; link medium is radio or infrared
- Infrared can bounce off walls and ceiling, radio penetrates through walls
- Normally use one or more *access points* to provide connectivity to movable hosts



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Spread Spectrum Wireless

- Used by 802.11 to minimise interference and (maybe) provide (a little) security
- Two technologies: Frequency Hopping (FHSS) and Direct-Sequence (DSSS)
- FHSS:
 - use a set of frequencies (channels)
 - hop between them in an agreed pseudo-random sequence
 - 802.11 uses 79 channels and 22 hopping sequences

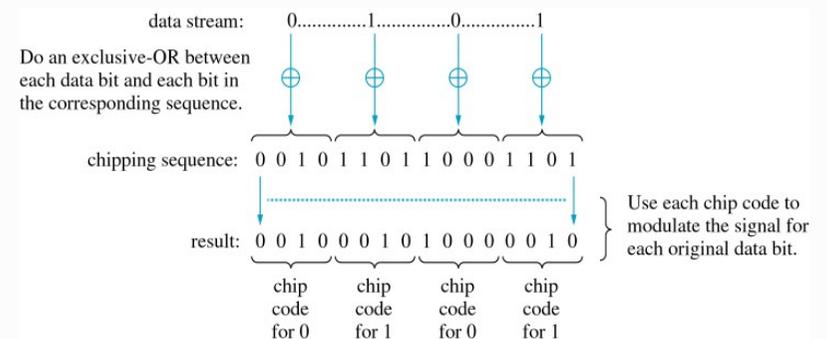
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Spread Spectrum Wireless (2)

- DSSS (includes CDMA):
 - for each transmitted bit, send a *chip*, i.e. an n-bit pseudo-random sequence, as illustrated in this diagram



- effect is to generate a high-bandwidth signal, that signal is modulated onto a 2.4 GHz carrier
- each station uses a different chipping sequence

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Contention, *Hidden Station* Problem

- Access Point (AP) can hear all stations, but they can't necessarily hear all of them
- That means they can't detect a collision
- 802.11 has 'Distributed Coordination Function (DCF)' that implements CSMA/CA, i.e. Collision Avoidance
- Next slide illustrates what happens when station A wants to send a message to station B ..

CTS/RTS Protocol

- All devices are contending for the medium. A waits until medium not busy, waits DIFS seconds and sends RTS to B
- B receives RTS and responds with CTS back to A; *however*, it waits for SIFS seconds (a little less than DIFS) before sending. Any other host wanting to send an RTS will wait for DIFS seconds
- If two hosts send RTS at same time the RTS messages will probably collide at B, so B will sense the collision and won't send CTS
- When A receives CTS it knows it has the medium and can send data. When B receives the data it replies with ACK
- Transmission from A to B is now complete, all hosts go back to contending again

802.11 Addressing

- All the stations that communicate with a single AP define a Basic Service Set (BSS)
- BSSes may be connected via a (wired) Distribution System (DS)
- To handle all the stations a host may need to talk to, 802.11 has *four* address fields in its message frame
- Shay lists address field usage in Table 9.9.
 - Address1 for destination host
 - Address2 for source host (needed for sending ACK)

802.11 Frame Format



- Duration: time message will require (for RTS/CTS frames)
- Control: includes ..
 - More Fragments bit. 802.11 may decrease max frame size, fragmenting and reassembling frames as needed. That's done to increase probability of error-free communication
 - To/From DS bit. Set for frames to/from the Distribution System
 - frame Type field. Distinguishes data / control / management frames. RTS, CTS and ACK are control frames

802.11 Management Frames

- Used for:
 - configuring a BSS; *Associate* Request/Response
 - find an AP; *Probe* Req/Resp
 - roaming; *Reassociate* Req/Resp
 - security; *Authenticate* frame, for exchanging security information [keys?]

802.11 Security/Privacy

- WEP – Wired Equivalent Privacy
 - easy to find wireless LANs, e.g. by 'war driving'
 - WEP is a simple authentication/encryption scheme using a 40-bit secret key and a 24-bit initialisation vector. Each message uses a different initialisation vector
 - WEP can be cracked because the initialisation vector sequence may repeat often if traffic is heavy. Newer schemes, e.g. WPA (WI-FI Protected Access) are better
 - 802.11 has several other potential security vulnerabilities

Hints for setting up a WLAN

- You don't *need* to broadcast your SSID (WLAN identifier)
- WEP is better than nothing, use it!
- It's simple to configure an AP to only recognise a small set of 802.11 MAC addresses