

Wired LAN

Ethernet

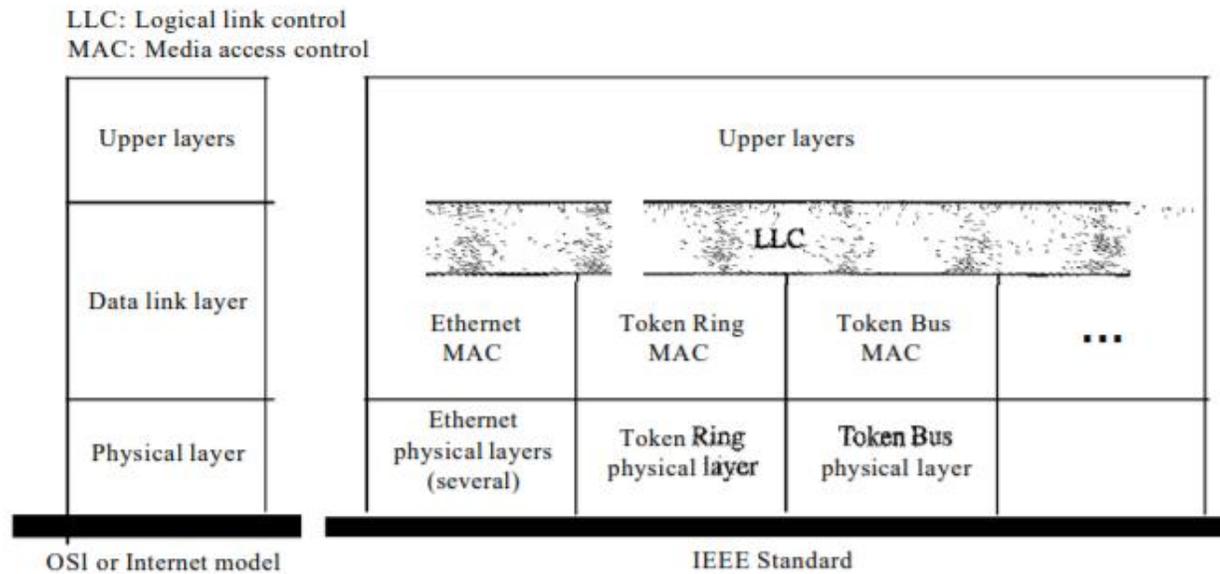
Introduction

□ IEEE STANDARDS

- In 1985, the Computer Society of the IEEE started a project, called **Project 802**, to set standards to enable intercommunication among equipment from a **variety of manufacturers**. Project 802 does not seek to replace any part of the **OSI** or the **Internet model**. Instead “ it is a way of specifying functions of the physical layer and the data link layer of major LAN protocols “. The standard was adopted by the American National Standards Institute (ANSI). In 1987, the International Organization for Standardization (ISO) also approved it as an international standard under the designation ISO 8802. The IEEE has subdivided the **data link** layer into two sublayers : logical link control (**LLC**) and media access control (**MAC**). IEEE has also created several physical layer standards for different LAN protocols .

Introduction

Figure 13.1 IEEE standard for LANs



LLC

- Data Link Layer

- ❖ Logical link control (LLC) functions :

- Flow control .

- Error control .

- Part of the framing duties .

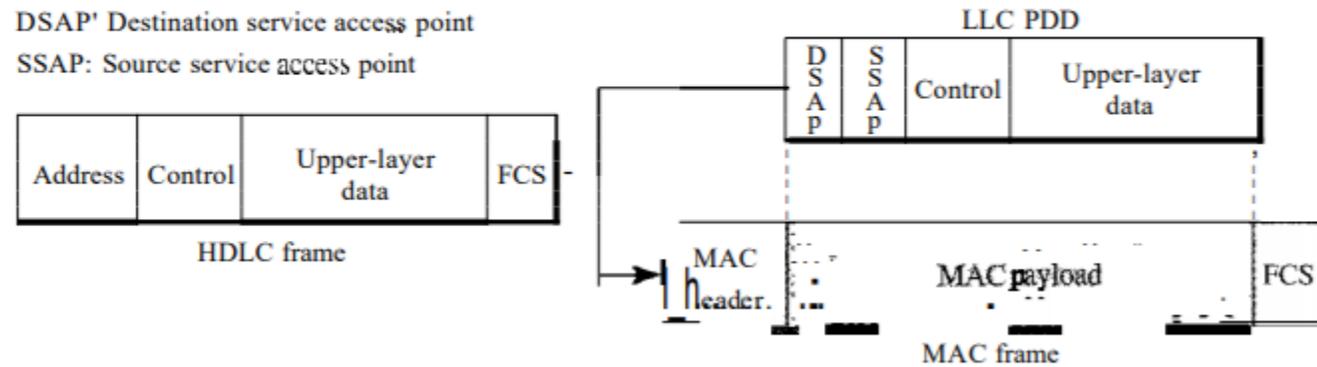
- ❖ The LLC provides **one** single data link control protocol for all IEEE LANs .

LLC

- ❖ Framing LLC defines a protocol data unit (PDU) that is some what similar to that of HDLC. The header contains a control field like the one in HDLC; this field is used for flow and error control. The two other header fields define the upper-layer protocol at the source and destination that uses LLC. These fields are called the destination service access point (DSAP) and the source service access point (SSAP). The other fields defined in a typical data link control protocol such as HDLC are moved to the MAC sublayer. In other words, a frame defined in HDLC is divided into a PDU at the LLC sublayer and a frame at the MAC sublayer .

LLC

Figure 13.2 HDLC frame compared with LLC and MAC frames



MAC

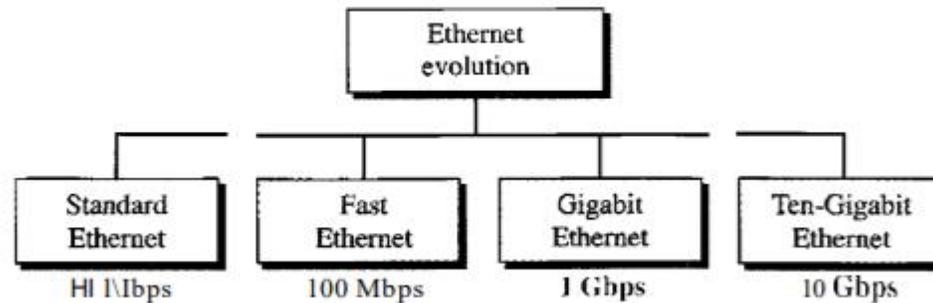
- ❖ IEEE Project 802 has created a sublayer called **media access control** that defines the specific **access method** for each LAN. For example, it defines **CSMA/CD** as the media access method for **Ethernet LANs** and the **token passing** method for **Token Ring** and **Token Bus** LANs. As we discussed in the previous section, part of the framing function is also handled by the MAC layer. In contrast to the LLC sublayer, the MAC sublayer contains a number of distinct modules; each defines the access method and the framing format specific to the corresponding LAN protocol .

STANDARD ETHERNET

□ STANDARD ETHERNET

- ❖ The original Ethernet was created in **1976** at **Xerox's Palo Alto** Research Center (PARC). Since then, it has gone through four generations: Standard Ethernet (**1 Mbps**), Fast Ethernet (**100 Mbps**), Gigabit Ethernet (**1 Gbps**), and Ten-Gigabit Ethernet (**10 Gbps**), as shown in Figure below .

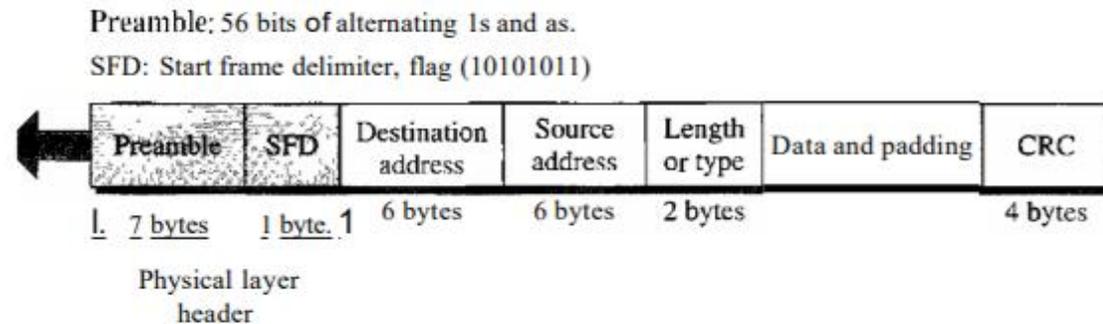
Figure 13.3 *Ethernet evolution through four generations*



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- ❖ The Ethernet frame contains **seven** fields: **preamble**, **SFD**, **DA**, **SA**, **length** or type of protocol data unit (**PDU**), **upper-layer data**, and the **CRC**. Ethernet does not provide any mechanism for **acknowledging** received frames, making it what is known as an unreliable medium. Acknowledgments must be implemented at the higher layers. The format of the MAC frame is shown in Figure below.

Figure 13.4 802.3 MAC frame



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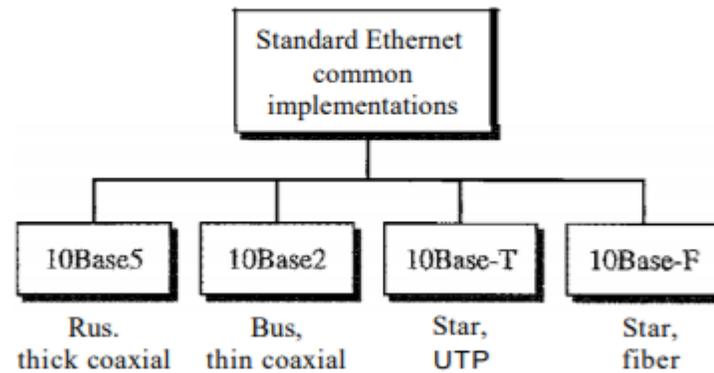
- ❖ Preamble : contains **7 bytes (56 bits)** of alternating 0s and 1s that **alerts** the receiving system to the coming frame and enables it to **synchronize** its input timing. The 56-bit pattern allows the stations to miss some bits at the beginning of the frame. The preamble is actually added at the physical layer and **is not** (formally) part of the frame .
- ❖ Start frame delimiter (SFD) : The SFD **warns** the stations that this is the **last chance for synchronization** .
- ❖ Destination address (DA) : The DA field is **6** bytes and contains the **physical address** of the **destination** station to receive the packet .
- ❖ Source address (SA). The SA field is also **6** bytes and contains the **physical address** of the **sender** of the packet .

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- ❖ Length or type : This field is defined as a **type field** or **length field**. The original Ethernet used this field as the type field to define the **upper-layer protocol** using the MAC frame.
- ❖ Data. This field carries data encapsulated from the **upper-layer protocols** . It is a minimum of **46** and a maximum of **1500** byte .
- ❖ CRC : The last field contains **error detection** information in this case a CRC 32

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Figure 13.8 *Categories of Standard Ethernet*

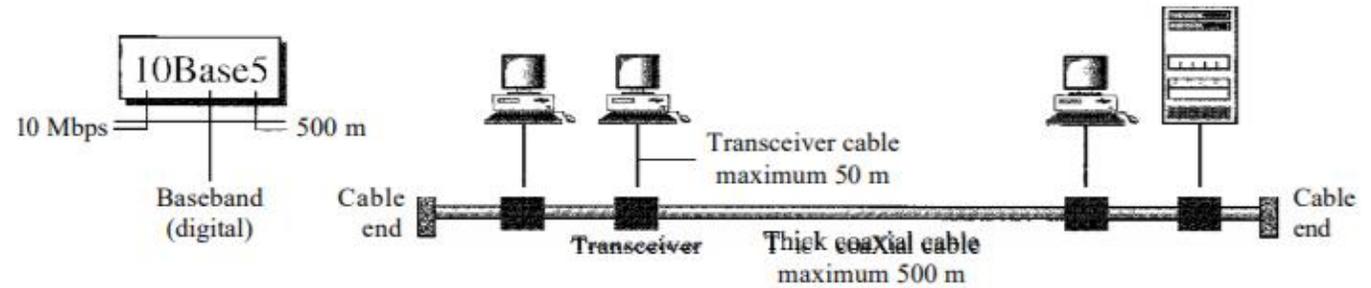


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- ❖ 10Base5 : **Thick** Ethernet or Thick net is The first implementation .
- ❖ The nickname derives from the **size** of the cable .
- ❖ 10Base5 use a **bus** topology with an external **transceiver** (transmitter/receiver) connected via a tap to a thick coaxial cable .
- ❖ The transceiver is responsible for **transmitting** , **receiving** , and **detecting collisions** .
- ❖ This means that collision can only happen in the **coaxial** cable .
- ❖ The maximum length of the coaxial cable must not exceed **500m** .
- ❖ If a length of more than 500m is needed we should use **repeaters** .

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Figure 13.10 *10Base5 implementation*

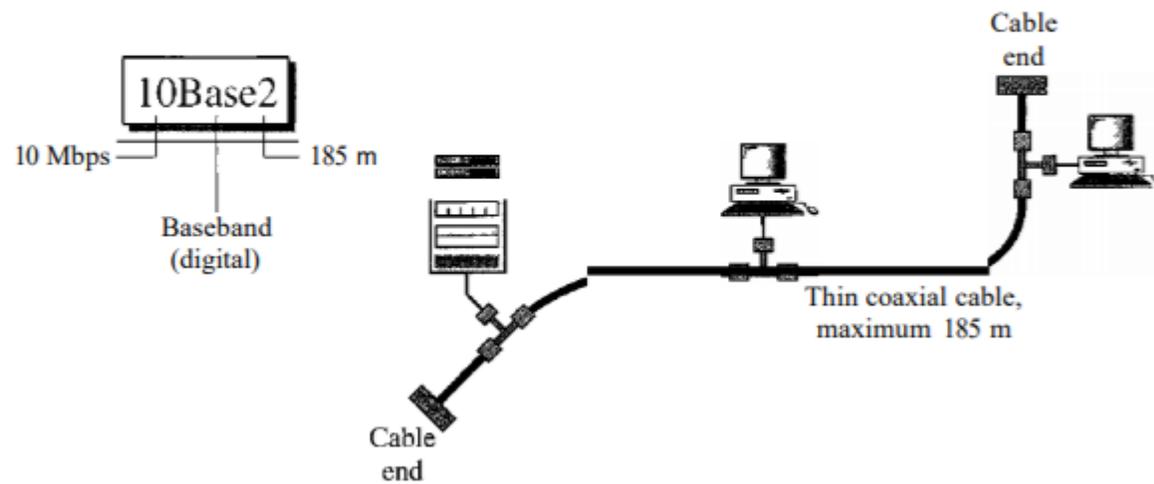


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- ❖ 10Base2 : **Thin Ethernet** or **Cheaper net** is The second implementation .
- ❖ 10 Base2 uses a **bus** topology .
- ❖ The cable is much thinner and more **flexible** .
- ❖ The cable can be **bent** to pass very close to the stations. In this case, the transceiver is normally **part** of the network interface card (**NIC**), which is installed inside the station .
- ❖ Note that the **collision** here occurs in the thin coaxial cable .
- ❖ This implementation is **more cost effective** than 10Base5 because thin coaxial cable is **less expensive** and the tee connections are **much cheaper** than taps.
- ❖ Installation is simpler because the thin coaxial cable is very **flexible** .
- ❖ The length of each segment cannot exceed **185** m (close to 200 m) due to the high level of **attenuation** in thin coaxial cable .

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Figure 13.11 *10Base2 implementation*

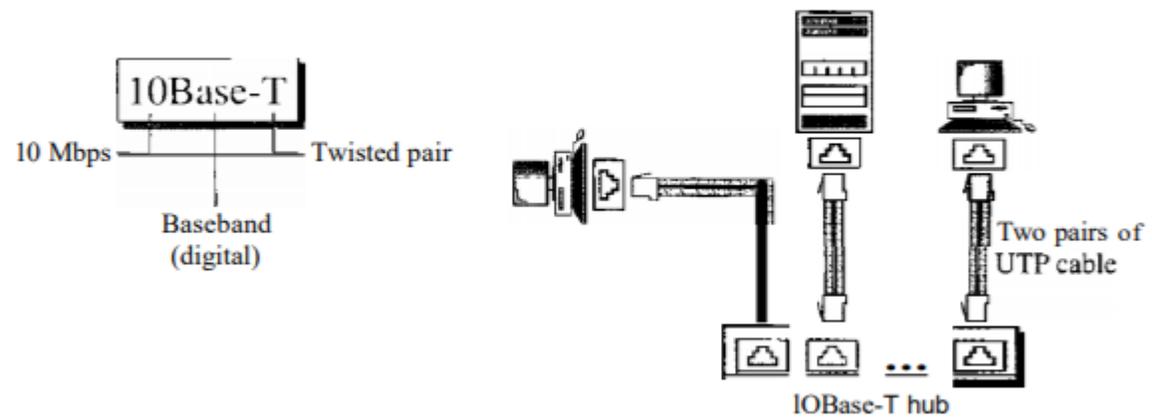


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- ❖ 10Base-T : **Twisted-Pair Ethernet** The third implementation .
- ❖ 10Base-T uses a physical **star** topology.
- ❖ The stations are connected to a **hub** via two pairs of twisted cable .
- ❖ Note that two pairs of twisted cable create **two paths** (one for sending and one for receiving) between the **station** and the **hub** .
- ❖ Any collision here happens in the **hub** .
- ❖ The maximum length of the twisted cable here is defined as **100 m**, to minimize the effect of **attenuation** in the twisted cable .

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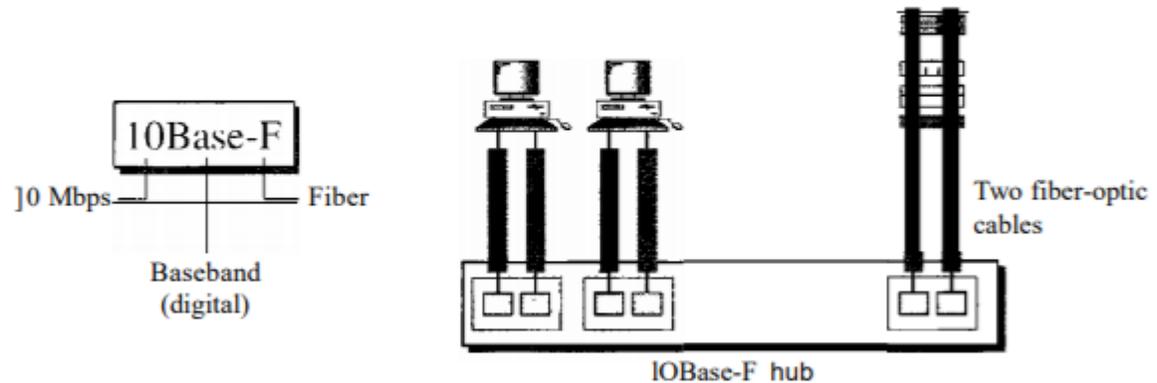
Figure 13.12 *10Base-T implementation*



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- ❖ 10Base-F : **Fiber Ethernet** Although there are several types of optical fiber 10-Mbps Ethernet, the most common is called 10Base-F.
- ❖ 10Base-F uses a **star** topology to connect stations to a **hub**.
- ❖ The stations are connected to the hub using **two** fiber-optic cables.

Figure 13.13 10Base-F implementation



STANDARD ETHERNET

- ❖ CHANGES IN THE STANDARD

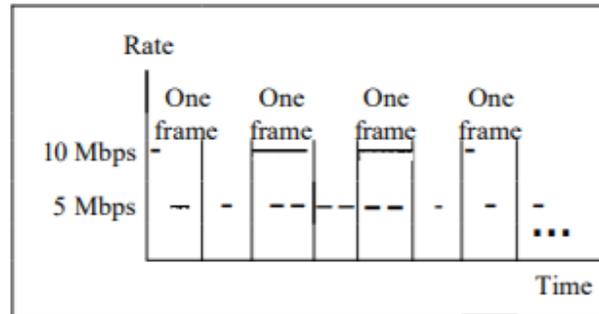
- ❖ The 10-Mbps Standard Ethernet has gone through several changes before moving to the higher data rates . These changes actually opened the road to the evolution of the Ethernet to become compatible with other high-data-rate LANs. We discuss some of these changes in this section.

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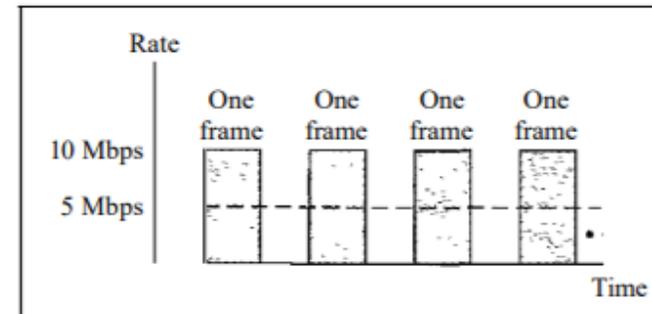
- ❖ **Bridged Ethernet** The first step in the Ethernet evolution was the division of a LAN by bridges .
- ❖ Bridges have two effects on an Ethernet LAN: They **raise the bandwidth** and they **separate collision domains** .
- ❖ **Raising the Bandwidth** In an unbridged Ethernet network, the total capacity (**10 Mbps**) is shared among **all** stations with a frame to send; the stations share the bandwidth of the network. If only one station has frames to send, it benefits from the total capacity (10 Mbps). But **if** more than one station needs to use the network, the capacity is **shared**.
- ❖ For example, if two stations have a lot of frames to send, they probably alternate in usage. When one station is sending, the other one **refrains** from sending. We can say that, in this case, each station on average, sends at a rate of **5 Mbps**. Figure 13.14 shows the situation .

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Figure 13.14 *Sharing bandwidth*



a. First station



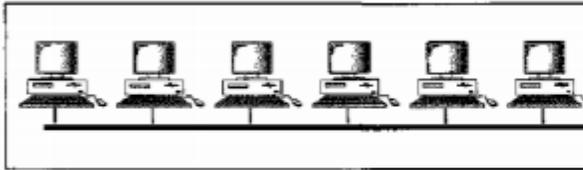
b. Second station

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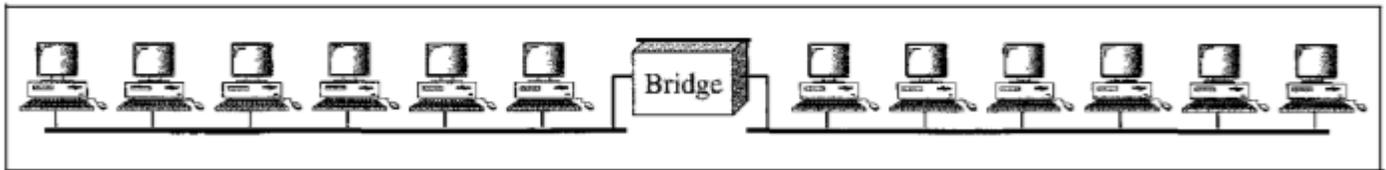
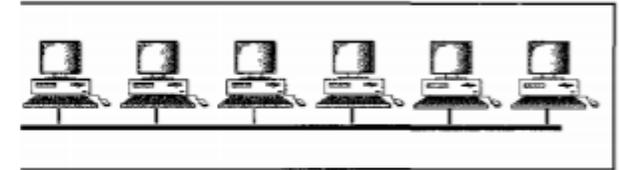
- ❖ The bridge can help here. A bridge **divides** the network into two or more networks . Bandwidth-wise, each network is **independent** .
- ❖ For example, in Figure 13.15, a network with **12** stations is divided into two networks, each with **6** stations. Now **each** network has a capacity of **10** Mbps. The 10-Mbps capacity in each segment is now shared between **6** stations (actually 7 because the bridge acts as a station in each segment), not 12 stations. In a network with a heavy load, each station theoretically is offered **10/6** Mbps instead of **10/12** Mbps, assuming that the traffic is not going through the bridge. It is obvious that if we further divide the network, we can gain more bandwidth for each segment. For example, if we use a four-port bridge, each station is now offered **10/3** Mbps, which is **4** times more than an unbridged network .

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Figure 13.15 *A network with and without a bridge*



a. Without bridging

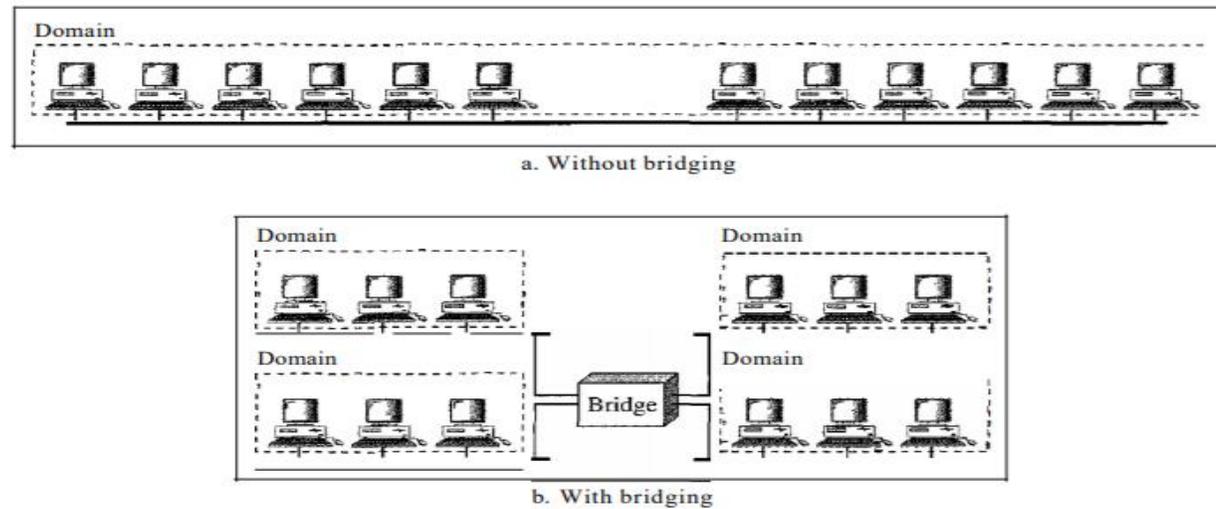


b. With bridging

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- ❖ **Separating Collision Domains** Another advantage of a bridge is the separation of the collision domain. Figure 13.16 shows the collision domains for an unbridged and a bridged network. You can see that the collision domain becomes much **smaller** and the probability of **collision** is reduced tremendously. Without bridging, **12** stations contend for access to the medium; with bridging only **3** stations contend for access to the medium .

Figure 13.16 Collision domains in an unbridged network and a bridged network



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Table 13.1 *Summary of Standard Ethernet implementations*

<i>Characteristics</i>	<i>10Base5</i>	<i>10Base2</i>	<i>10Base-T</i>	<i>10Base-F</i>
Media	Thick coaxial cable	Thin coaxial cable	2UTP	2 Fiber
Maximum length	500m	185 m	100m	2000m
Line encoding	Manchester	Manchester	Manchester	Manchester

Fast Ethernet

- ❑ Fast Ethernet was designed to **compete** with LAN protocols such as **FDDI** or **Fiber** Channel . IEEE created Fast Ethernet under the name **802.3u** . Fast Ethernet is backward-compatible with Standard Ethernet, but it can transmit data **10** times faster at a rate of **100 Mbps** .
- ❖ The goals of Fast Ethernet can be summarized as follows :
- ❖ Upgrade the data rate to **100** Mbps .
- ❖ Make it **compatible** with Standard Ethernet .
- ❖ Keep the **same** 48-bit address .
- ❖ Keep the **same** frame format .
- ❖ Keep the **same** minimum and maximum frame lengths .

Fast Ethernet

❖ MAC Sublayer

- Access method **half-duplex** and **full-duplex** .
- In half-duplex the stations are connected via a **hub** . in the full-duplex the connection is made via a **switch** with **buffers** at each port .
- The access method is the same (**CSMA/CD**) for the half-duplex approach . for full duplex Fast Ethernet there is no need for **CSMA/CD** .

Fast Ethernet

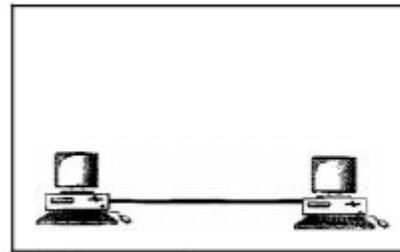
- ❖ MAC Sublayer
- ❖ Autonegotiation : A new **feature** added to Fast Ethernet is called autonegotiation. It allows a station or a hub a range of **capabilities**.
- ❖ It was designed particularly for the following purposes :
 - To allow incompatible devices to connect to one another. For example, a device with a maximum capacity of **10** Mbps can communicate with a device with a **100** Mbps capacity (but can work at a lower rate) .
 - To allow one device to have **multiple** capabilities .
 - To allow a station to check a **hub's capabilities** .

Fast Ethernet

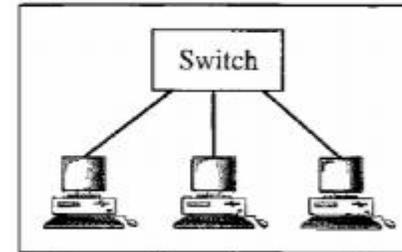
❖ Physical layer

- If there are **only** two stations they can be connected **point-to-point**. Three or more stations need to be connected in a **star** topology with a **hub** or a **switch** at the center.

Figure 13.19 *Fast Ethernet topology*



a. Point-to-point

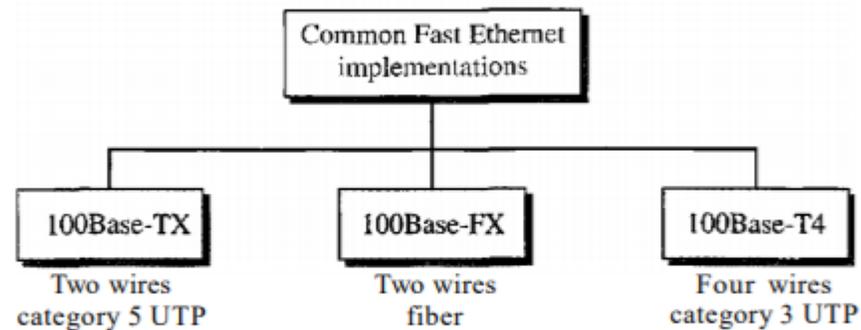


b. Star

Fast Ethernet

- ❖ Implementation Fast Ethernet implementation at the physical layer can be categorized as either **two-wire** or **four-wire**. The two-wire implementation can be either category **5 UTP** (100Base-TX) or **fiber-optic** cable (100Base-FX). The four-wire implementation is designed only for category **3 UTP** (100Base-T₄).

Figure 13.20 *Fast Ethernet implementations*



Fast Ethernet

□ Encoding

- ❖ Manchester encoding needs a **200-Mbaud** bandwidth for a data rate of **100 Mbps**, which makes it **unsuitable** for a medium such as twisted-pair cable. 100Base-TX uses two pairs of twisted-pair cable (either category **5 UTP** or **STP**). For this implementation, the **MLT-3** scheme was selected since it has good bandwidth performance. However, since MLT-3 is **not** a self-synchronous line coding scheme, **4B/5B** block coding is used to provide bit synchronization by preventing the **occurrence** of a long sequence of 0s and 1s. This creates a data rate of **125 Mbps**, which is fed into MLT-3 for encoding.
- ❖ 100Base-FX uses two pairs of fiber-optic cables. **Optical** fiber can easily handle high bandwidth requirements by using simple encoding schemes. The designers of 100Base-FX selected the **NRZ-I** encoding scheme for this implementation. However, NRZ-I has a bit synchronization problem for long sequences of 0s (or 1s, based on the encoding). To overcome this problem, the designers used **4B/5B**.

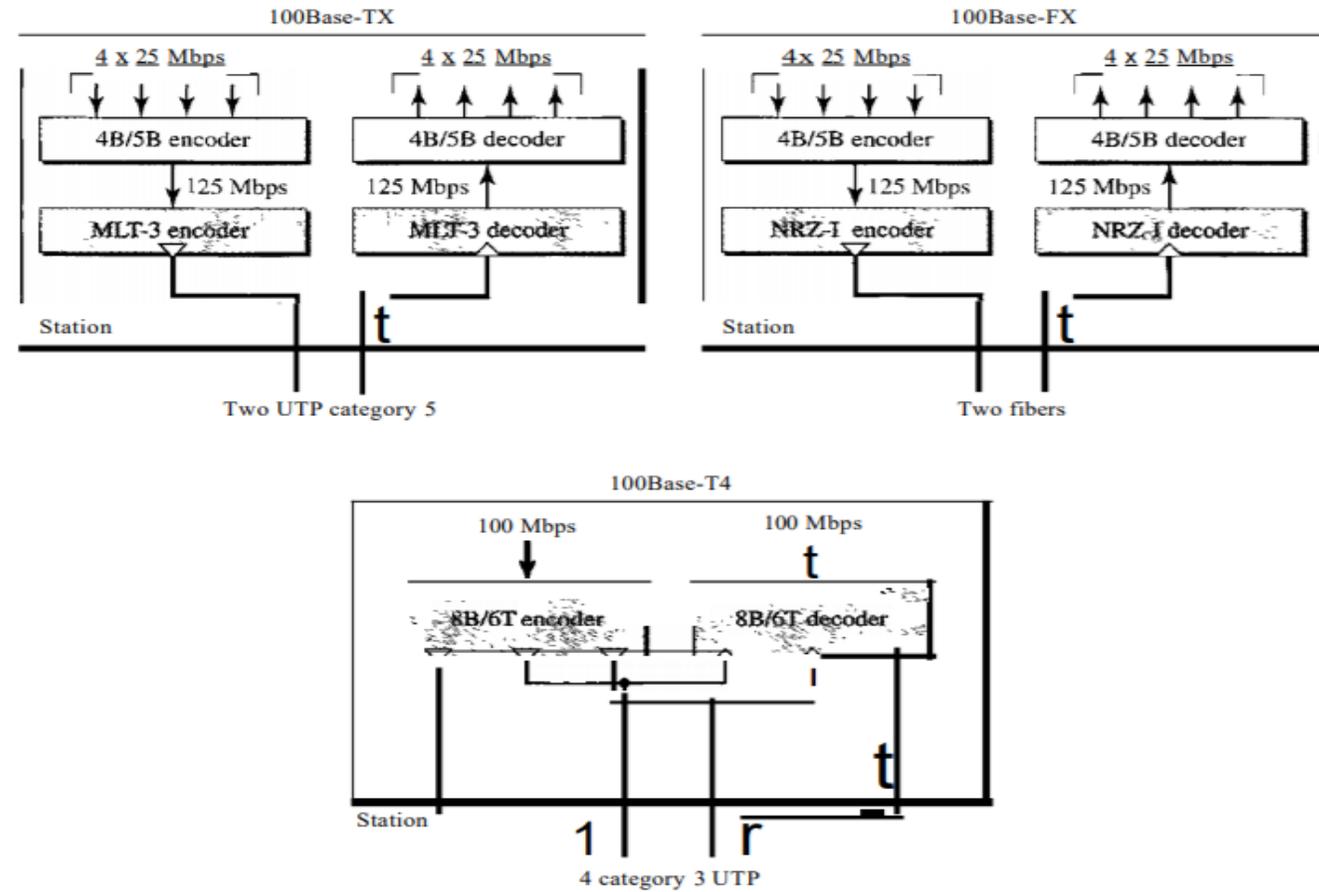
Fast Ethernet

□ Encoding

- ❖ block encoding as we described for 100Base-TX. The block encoding increases the bit rate from 100 to 125 Mbps, which can easily be handled by **fiber-optic** cable. A 100Base-TX network can provide a data rate of 100 Mbps, but it requires the use of category **5 UTP** or **STP** cable. This is **not cost-efficient** for buildings that have already been wired for **voice-grade twisted-pair**. A new standard, called **100Base-T₄**, was designed to use category 3 or higher UTP. The implementation uses four pairs of UTP for transmitting 100 Mbps. Encoding/decoding in 100Base-T₄ is more **complicated**. As this implementation uses category 3 UTP, each twisted-pair cannot easily handle more than **25** Mbaud. In this design, one pair switches between sending and receiving. Three pairs of UTP category 3, however, can handle only **75** Mbaud (25 Mbaud) each. We need to use an encoding scheme that converts 100 Mbps to a 75 Mbaud signal. **8B/6T** satisfies this requirement. In 8B/6T eight data elements are encoded as six signal elements. This means that 100 Mbps uses only $(6/8) \times 100$ Mbps or **75** Mbaud.

Fast Ethernet

Figure 13.21 Encoding for Fast Ethernet implementation



Fast Ethernet

Table 13.2 *Summary of Fast Ethernet implementations*

<i>Characteristics</i>	<i>100Base-TX</i>	<i>100Base-FX</i>	<i>100Base-T4</i>
Media	Cat 5 UTP or STP	Fiber	Cat 4 UTP
Number of wires	2	2	4
Maximum length	100m	100m	100m
Block encoding	4B/5B	4B/5B	
Line encoding	MLT-3	NRZ-I	8B/6T

Gigabit

- ❖ The need for an even **higher data rate** resulted in the design of the Gigabit Ethernet protocol (**1000 Mbps**). The IEEE committee calls the Standard **802.3z** .
- ❖ The goals of the Gigabit Ethernet design can be summarized as follows :
 - Upgrade the data rate to **1 Gbps** .
 - Make it **compatible** with Standard or Fast Ethernet .
 - Use the same **48-bit** address .
 - Use the **same** frame format .
 - Keep the **same** minimum and maximum frame lengths .
 - To support **auto negotiation** as defined in Fast Ethernet .

Gigabit

- ❖ Ethernet has two distinctive approaches for medium access: **half-duplex** and **full-duplex** .
- ❖ Almost all implementations of Gigabit Ethernet follow the **full-duplex** approach .

❑ Full-Duplex

- ❖ In full-duplex mode, there is a **central switch** connected to all computers or other switches. In this mode, each switch has buffers for each input port in which data are stored until they are transmitted. There is **no collision** in this mode, as we discussed before. This means that **CSMA/CD** is not used. Lack of collision implies that the maximum length of the cable is determined by the **signal attenuation** in the cable, **not by** the collision detection process .

Gigabit

❑ Half - Duplex

- ❖ Gigabit Ethernet can also be used in half-duplex mode, although it is rare. In this case, a **switch** can be replaced by a **hub**, which acts as the common cable in which a collision might occur. The half-duplex approach **uses CSMA/CD**. However, as we saw before, the maximum length of the network in this approach is totally dependent on the minimum frame size. Three methods have been defined: **traditional**, **carrier extension**, and **frame bursting**.
- ❖ **Traditional** In the traditional approach, we keep the minimum length of the frame as in traditional Ethernet (512 bits). However, because the length of a bit is 11100 shorter in Gigabit Ethernet than in 10-Mbps Ethernet, the slot time for Gigabit Ethernet is 512 bits \times 111000 JIS, which is equal to 0.512 JIS. The reduced slot time means that collision is detected 100 times earlier. This means that the maximum length of the network is 25 m. This length may be suitable if all the stations are in one room, but it may not even be long enough to connect the computers in one single office.

Gigabit

❑ Half - Duplex

- ❖ **Carrier Extension** To allow for a longer network, we increase the minimum frame length. The carrier extension approach defines the minimum length of a frame as 512 bytes (4096 bits). This means that the minimum length is 8 times longer. This method forces a station to add extension bits (padding) to any frame that is less than 4096 bits. In this way, the maximum length of the network can be increased 8 times to a length of 200 m. This allows a length of 100 m from the hub to the station.
- ❖ **Frame Bursting** Carrier extension is very inefficient if we have a series of short frames to send; each frame carries redundant data. To improve efficiency, frame bursting was proposed. Instead of adding an extension to each frame, multiple frames are sent. However, to make these multiple frames look like one frame, padding is added between the frames (the same as that used for the carrier extension method) so that the channel is not idle. In other words, the method deceives other stations into thinking that a very large frame has been transmitted.

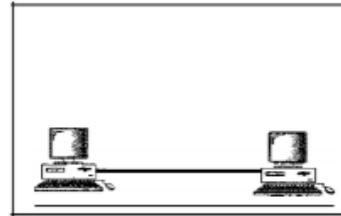
Gigabit

□ Topology

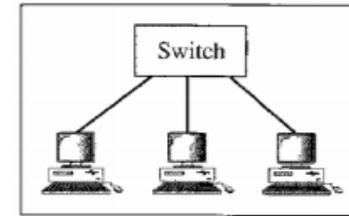
- ❖ Gigabit Ethernet is designed to connect two or more stations .
- ❖ If only two stations the type of connections is **point-to-point** .
- ❖ Three or more stations need to be connected in a **star** topology with a **hub** or a **switch** at the center .
- ❖ Another possible configuration is to connect several star topologies .

Gigabit

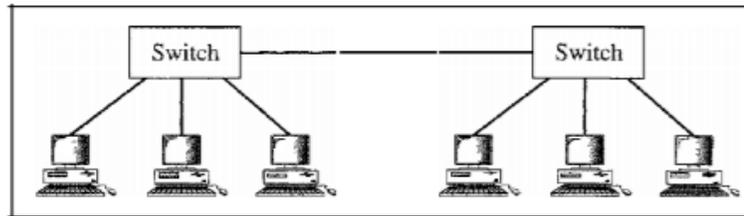
Figure 13.22 *Topologies of Gigabit Ethernet*



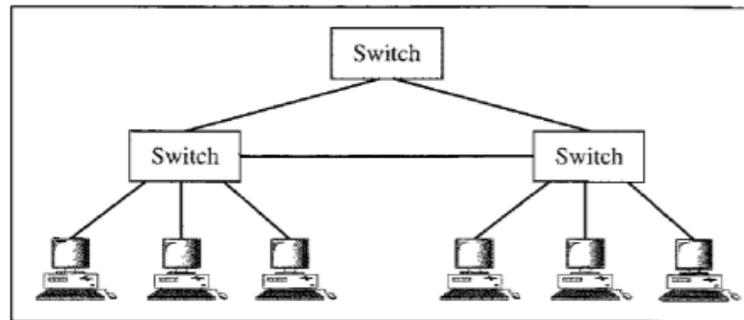
a. Point-to-point



b. Star



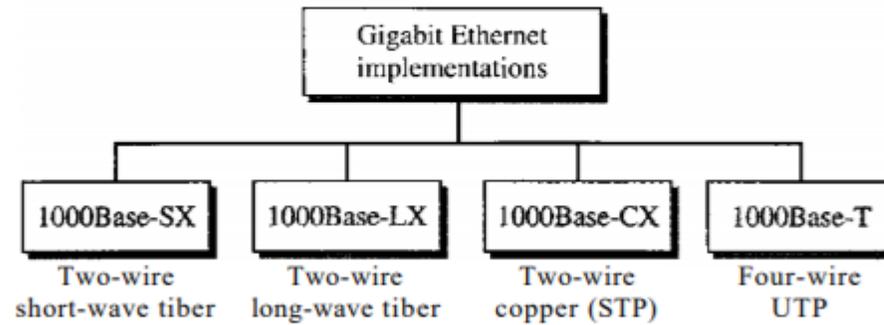
c. Two stars



d. Hierarchy of stars

Gigabit

Figure 13.23 *Gigabit Ethernet implementations*



Gigabit

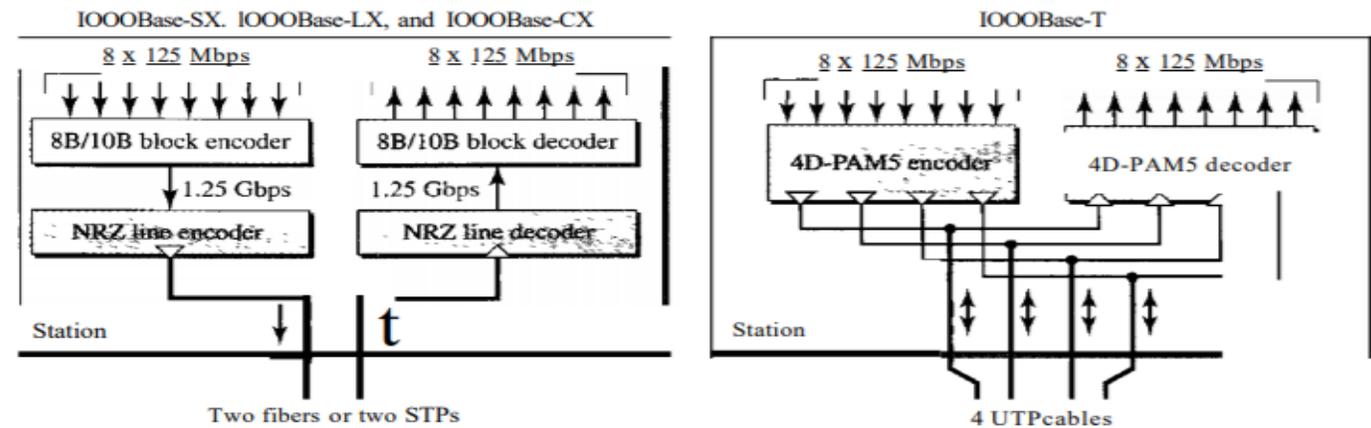
□ Encoding

- ❖ Gigabit cannot use **Manchester** encoding scheme because it involves a very high bandwidth (**2Gbaud**) .
- ❖ The two-wire implementations use an **NRZ** scheme .
- ❖ NRZ does not self-synchronize properly. To synchronize bits, particularly at this high data rate, **8B10B** block encoding .
- ❖ This block encoding prevents long sequences of Os or Is in the stream, but the resulting stream is 1.25 Gbps. Note that in this implementation, one wire (fiber or STP) is used for sending and one for receiving.

Gigabit

- ❖ In the **four-wire** implementation it is not possible to have 2 wires for input and 2 for output, because each wire would need to carry **500 Mbps**, which exceeds the capacity for category 5 UTP. As a solution, **4D-PAM5** encoding is used to reduce the bandwidth. Thus, all four wires are involved in both input and output; each wire carries 250 Mbps, which is in the range for category 5 UTP cable.

Figure 13.24 Encoding in Gigabit Ethernet implementations



Gigabit

Table 13.3 Summary of Gigabit Ethernet implementations

<i>Characteristics</i>	<i>1000Base-SX</i>	<i>1000Base-LX</i>	<i>1000Base-CX</i>	<i>1000Base-T</i>
Media	Fiber short-wave	Fiber long-wave	STP	Cat 5 UTP
Number of wires	2	2	2	4
Maximum length	550m	5000m	25m	100m
Block encoding	8B/10B	8B/10B	8B/10B	
Line encoding	NRZ	NRZ	NRZ	4D-PAM5

Ten – Gigabit

- ❖ The IEEE committee created **Ten-Gigabit Ethernet** and called it Standard **802.3ae** . The goals of the Ten-Gigabit Ethernet design can be summarized as follows :
 - Upgrade the data rate to **10 Gbps** .
 - Make it **compatible** with Standard, Fast, and Gigabit Ethernet.
 - Use the same **48-bit** address .
 - Use the same **frame** format .
 - Keep the same minimum and maximum **frame lengths** .
 - Allow the interconnection of existing LANs into a metropolitan area network (**MAN**) or a wide area network (**WAN**) .
 - Make Ethernet **compatible** with technologies such as **Frame Relay** and **ATM** .

Ten – Gigabit

- ❖ MAC Sublayer
 - Ten-Gigabit Ethernet operates only in **full duplex** mode which means there is no need for **contention**; CSMA/CD is **not used** in Ten-Gigabit Ethernet .
 - Physical Layer
 - The physical layer in Ten-Gigabit Ethernet is designed for using **fiber-optic** cable over **long** distances . Three implementations are the most common : **10GBase-S**, **10GBase-L**, and **10GBase-E** .

Table 13.4 Summary of Ten-Gigabit Ethernet implementations

<i>Characteristics</i>	<i>10GBase-S</i>	<i>10GBase-L</i>	<i>10GBase-E</i>
Media	Short-wave 850-nm multimode	Long-wave 1310-nm single mode	Extended 1550-nm single mode
Maximum length	300m	10km	40km

Done ...

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