

Computer Networks

Lecture 2: Physical layer + Data Link layer

Based on slides from D. Choffnes Northeastern U. and P. Gill from StonyBrook University
Revised Autumn 2015 by S. Laki

Static Channel Allocation

Multiplexing

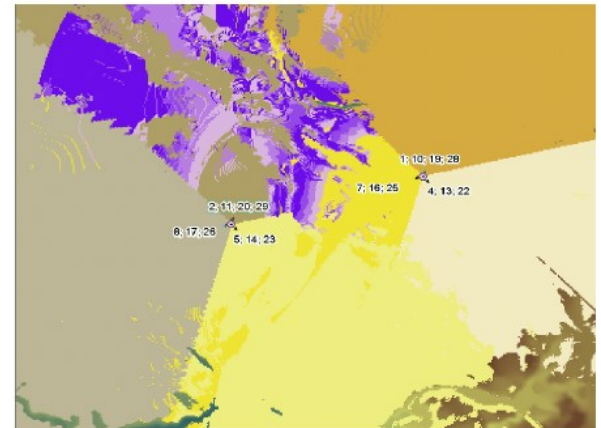
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- Enabling multiple signals to travel through the same media at the same time
- To this end, the channel is split into multiple smaller subchannels
- A special device (multiplexer) is needed at the sender, transmitting signals to the proper subchannel

Space-Division Multiplexing

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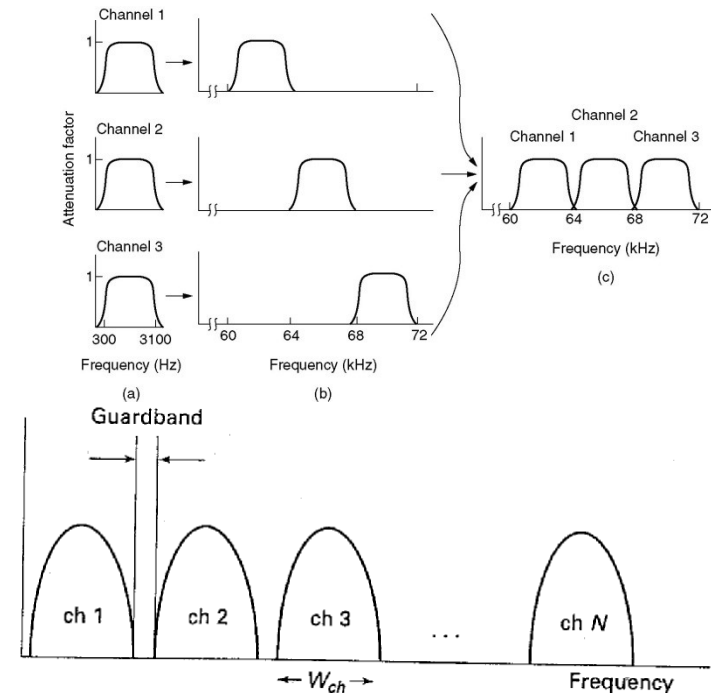
- Simplest way of multiplexing
- Wired example: point-to-point wire for each subchannel
- Wireless example: Different antennas for the subchannels



Frequency-Division Multiplexing

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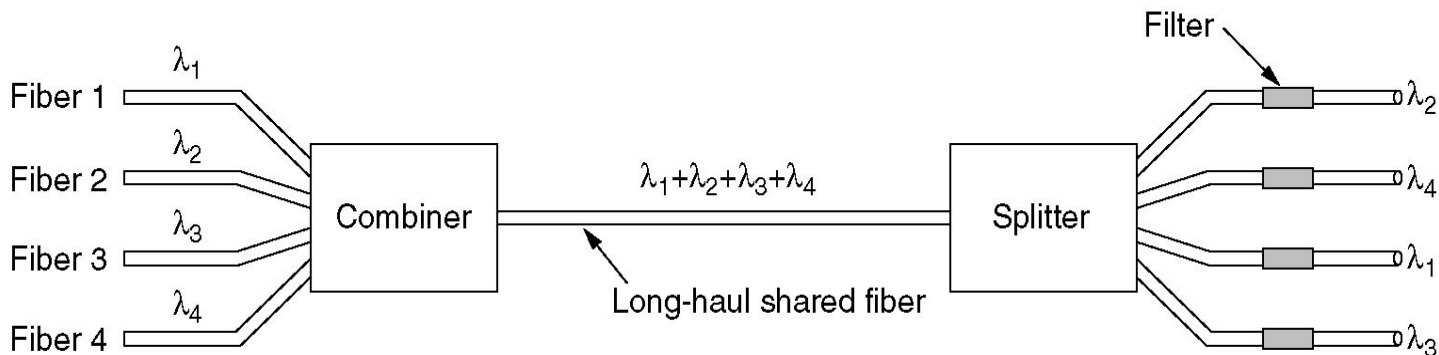
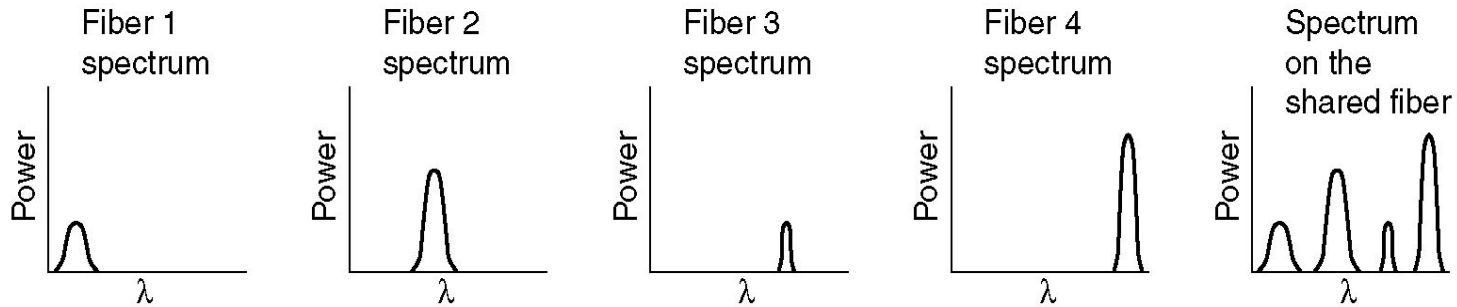
- Multiple signals are combined and transmitted over the channel
- Each signal is transmitted in different frequency ranges
- Typically used for analog transmission
- Multiple implementations...



Wavelength-Division Multiplexing

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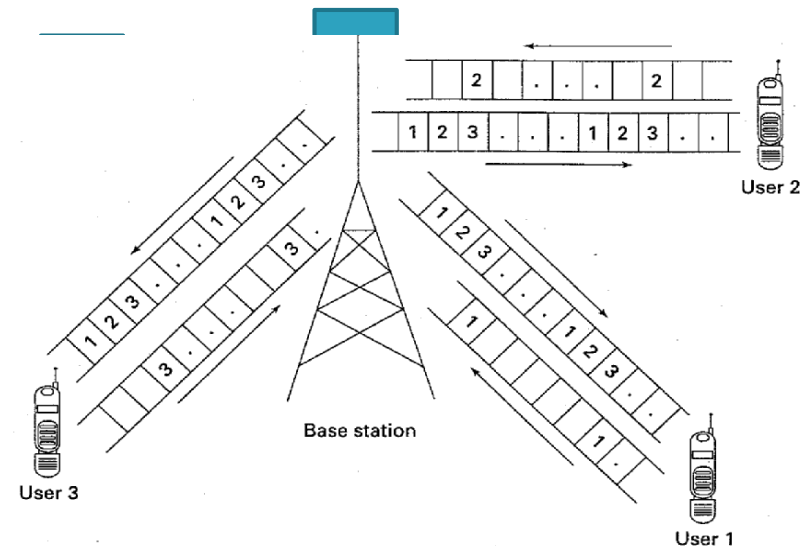
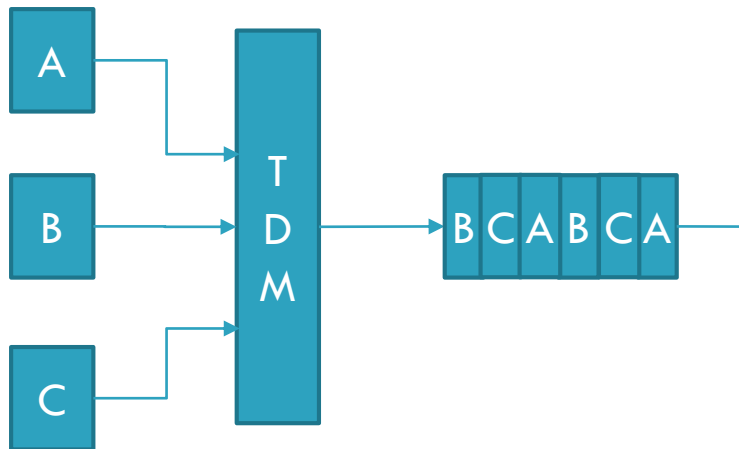
- Used for optical cables
- IR laser rays at different wavelengths



Time-Division Multiplexing

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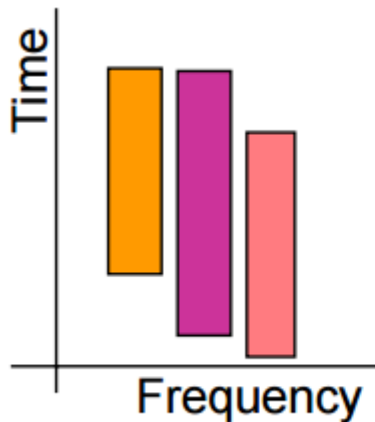
- Time is divided into not overlapping intervals
- Each time slot is assigned to a sender, exclusively.
- Empty slots may happen.



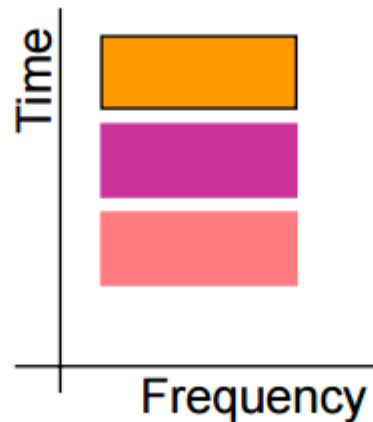
CDMA – Code Division Multiple Access

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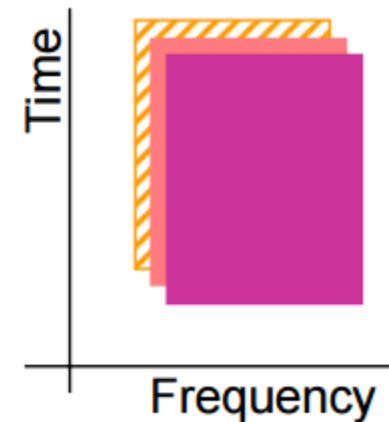
Frequency
Division
Multiple
Access
FDMA



Time
Division
Multiple
Access
TDMA



Code
Division
Multiple
Access
CDMA



CDMA Analogy



- 10 people in a room.
 - ▣ 5 speak English, 2 speak Spanish, 2 speak Chinese, and 1 speaks Russian.
- Everyone is talking at relatively the same time over the same medium – the air.
- Who can listen to whom and why?
- Who can't you understand?
- Who can't speak to anyone else?

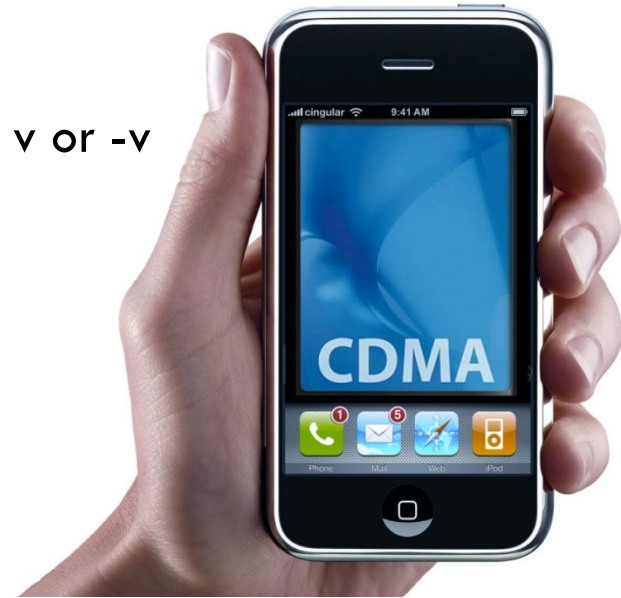
CDMA – Code Division Multiple Access

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- Used by 3G and 4G cellular networks
- Each station can broadcast at any time in the full frequency spectrum
- The signals may interfere
 - ▣ Resulting in a linear combination of individual signals

- Algorithm
 - ▣ We assign a vector of length m to each station: v
 - Pairwise orthogonal vectors!!!
 - ▣ Each bit is encoded by the chip vector of the sender or its complement: v or $-v$
 - ▣ If it sends bit 1, it transmits v
 - ▣ If it sends bit 0, it transmits $-v$

- Result is a sequence of vectors of length m



CDMA – Code Division Multiple Access

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□ Interference

□ A sends $a, -a, a, a$

□ B sends $b, b, -b, -b$

□ After interference we receive: $a+b, -a+b, a-b, a-b$???

□ How to decode?



CDMA – Code Division Multiple Access

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- Interference
 - ▣ A sends $a, -a, a, a$
 - ▣ B sends $b, b, -b, -b$
 - ▣ After interference we receive: $a+b, -a+b, a-b, a-b$???

- Decoding the message of A
 - ▣ Take the dot product by the sender's chip code
 - $(a+b)a > 0 \Rightarrow 1$
 - $(-a+b)a < 0 \Rightarrow 0$
 - $(a-b)a > 0 \Rightarrow 1$
 - $(a-b)a > 0 \Rightarrow 1$

If the dot product is

< 0 : bit 0 was sent by A

> 0 : bit 1 was sent by A

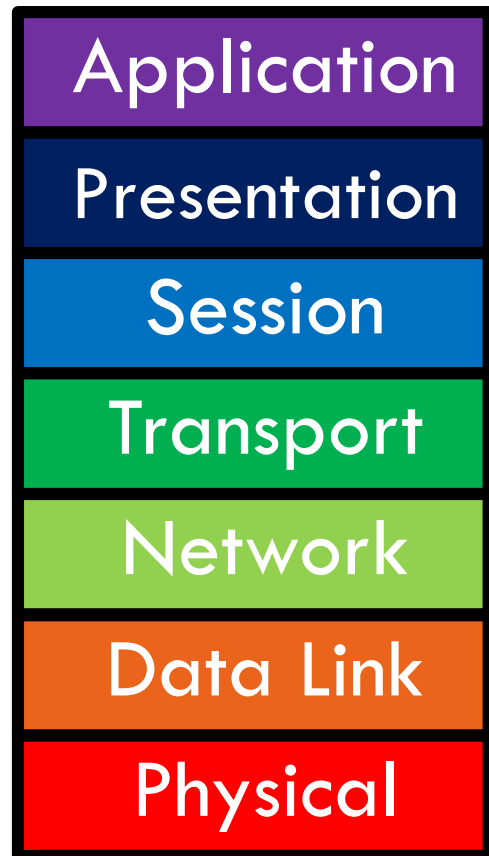
$= 0$: nothing was sent by A

the channel is not used by A



Data Link Layer

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- Function:
 - ▣ Send blocks of data (**frames**) between physical devices
 - ▣ Regulate access to the physical media
- Key challenge:
 - ▣ How to delineate frames?
 - ▣ How to detect errors?
 - ▣ How to perform **media access control (MAC)**?
 - ▣ How to recover from and avoid **collisions**?

- ❑ Framing
- ❑ Error Checking and Reliability
- ❑ Media Access Control
 - ❑ 802.3 Ethernet
 - ❑ 802.11 Wifi

Framing

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- ❑ Physical layer determines how bits are encoded
- ❑ Next step, how to encode blocks of data
 - ❑ Packet switched networks
 - ❑ Each packet includes routing information
 - ❑ Data boundaries must be known so headers can be read
- ❑ Types of framing
 - ❑ Byte oriented protocols
 - ❑ Bit oriented protocols
 - ❑ Clock based protocols

Byte Oriented: Byte Stuffing

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- Add **FLAG** bytes as sentinel to the beginning and end of the data
- Problem: what if **FLAG** appears in the data?
 - ▣ Add a special **DLE** (Data Link Escape) character before **FLAG**
 - ▣ What if **DLE** appears in the data? Add **DLE** before it.
 - ▣ Similar to escape sequences in C
 - `printf("You must \"escape\" quotes in strings");`
 - `printf("You must \\escape\\ forward slashes as well");`
- Used by Point-to-Point protocol, e.g. modem, DSL, cellular

Byte Oriented: Byte Counting

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- Sender: insert length of the data in bytes at the beginning of each frame
- Receiver: extract the length and read that many bytes
- What happens if there is an error transmitting the count field?

Bit Oriented: Bit Stuffing

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01111110

Data

01111110

- Add sentinels to the start and end of data (similarly to byte stuffing)
 - Both sentinels are the same
 - Example: 01111110 in High-level Data Link Protocol (HDLC)
- Sender: insert a 0 after each 11111 in data
 - Known as “bit stuffing”
- Receiver: after seeing 11111 in the data...
 - 111110 → remove the 0 (it was stuffed)
 - 111111 → look at one more bit
 - 1111110 → end of frame
 - 1111111 → error! Discard the frame
- Disadvantage: 20% overhead at worst
- What happens if error in sentinel transmission?

Clock-based Framing: SONET

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□ Synchronous Optical Network

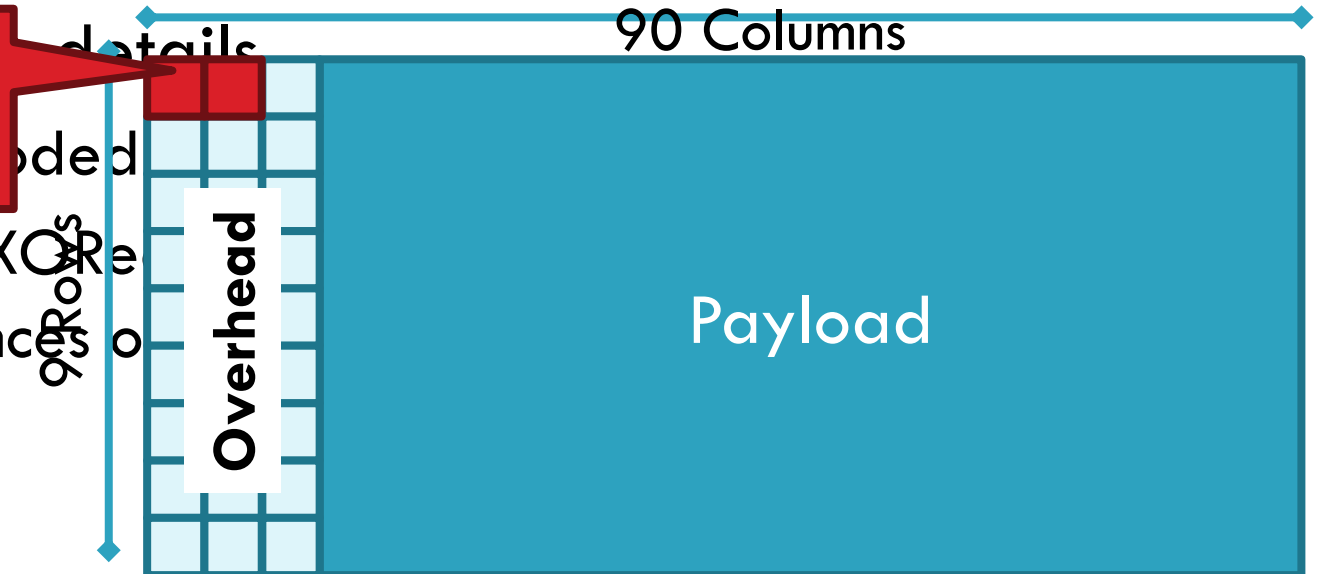
- Transmission over very fast optical links
- STS- n , e.g. STS-1: 51.84 Mbps, STS-768: 36.7 Gbps

□ STS-1 frames based on fixed sized frames

- $9 \times 90 = 810$ bytes \rightarrow after 810 bytes look for start pattern

Special start pattern

- Payload is XOCs
long sequences of 0s



- ❑ Framing
- ❑ Error Checking
- ❑ Media Access Control
 - ❑ 802.3 Ethernet
 - ❑ 802.11 Wifi

Dealing with Noise

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- The physical world is inherently noisy
 - ▣ Interference from electrical cables
 - ▣ Cross-talk from radio transmissions, microwave ovens
 - ▣ Solar storms
- How to detect bit-errors in transmissions?
- How to recover from errors?

Naïve Error Detection

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- Idea: send two copies of each frame
 - ▣ if (memcmp(frame1, frame2) != 0) { OH NOES, AN ERROR! }
- Why is this a bad idea?
 - ▣ Extremely high overhead
 - ▣ Poor protection against errors
 - Twice the data means twice the chance for bit errors

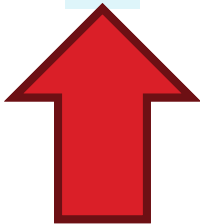
Parity Bits

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- Idea: add extra bits to keep the number of 1s **even**
 - Example: 7-bit ASCII characters + 1 parity bit

0101001 1 1101001 0 1011110 1 0001110 1 0110100 1

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- Detects 1-bit errors and some 2-bit errors
- Not reliable against bursty errors

Error control



- Error Control Strategies

- ▣ Error Correcting codes (Forward Error Correction (FEC))
- ▣ Error detection and retransmission Automatic Repeat Request (ARQ)

Error control

□ Objectives

▣ Error detection

■ with correction

- ▣ Forward error correction

■ without correction -> e.g. drop a frame

- ▣ Backward error correction
- ▣ The erroneous frame needs to be retransmitted

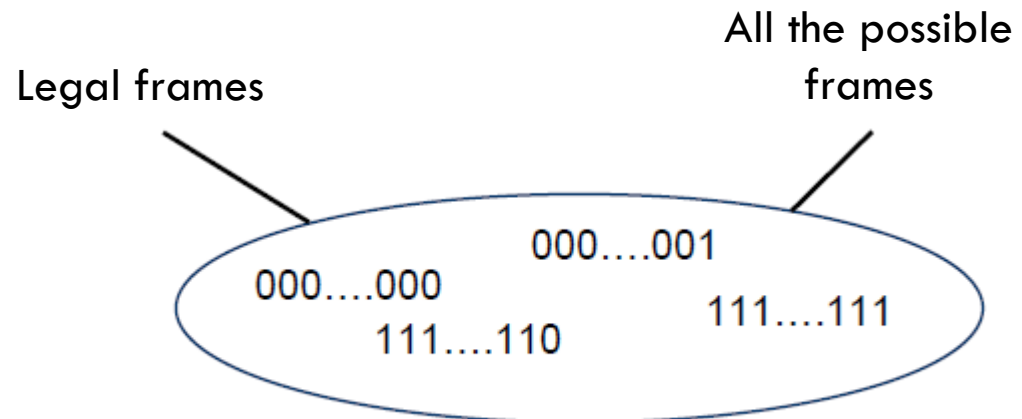
▣ Error correction

■ without error detection

- ▣ e.g. in voice transmission

Redundancy

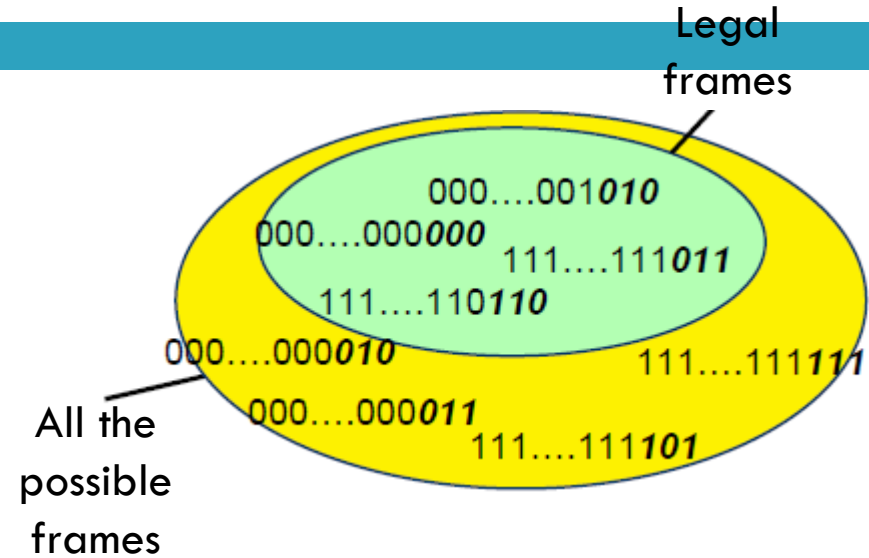
- Redundancy is required for error control
- Without redundancy
 - ▣ 2^m possible data messages can be represented as data on m bits
 - ▣ They all are legal!!!
 - ▣ Each error results a new legal data message
- How to detect errors???



Error-correcting codes

Redundancy

- A frame consists of
 - ▣ m data bits (message)
 - ▣ r redundant/check bits
 - ▣ The total length $n = m + r$



- This n-bit unit is referred to as an n-bit codeword!

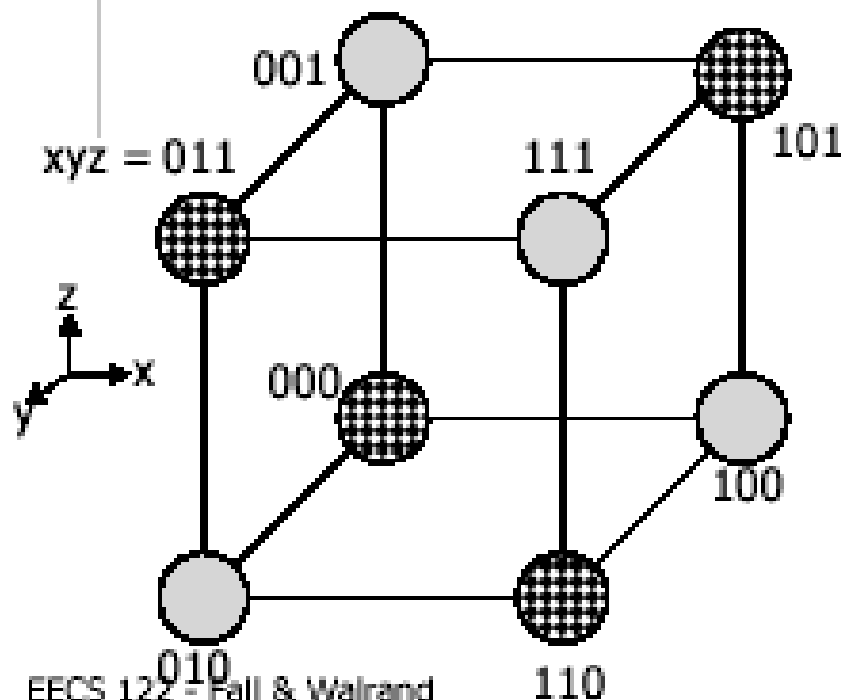
Error Control Codes

How Codes Work: Words and Codewords

◆ Code = subset of possible words: Codewords

◆ Example:

n 3 bits => 8 words; codewords: subset



Words:

000, 001, 010, 011

100, 101, 110, 111

Code:

000, 011, 101, 110

Send only codewords

Hamming distance

- The **Hamming distance** between two codewords is the number of differences between corresponding bits.

1. The Hamming distance $d(000, 011)$ is 2 because

$$000 \oplus 011 \text{ is } 011 \text{ (two 1s)}$$

2. The Hamming distance $d(10101, 11110)$ is 3 because

$$10101 \oplus 11110 \text{ is } 01011 \text{ (three 1s)}$$

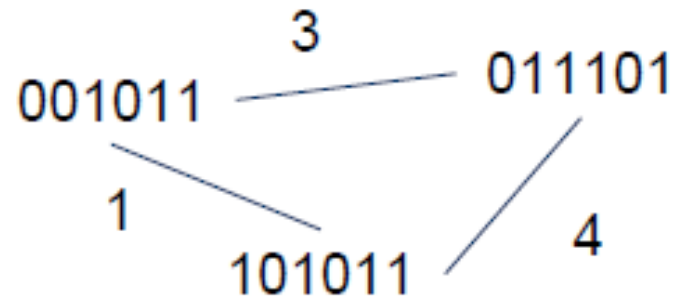
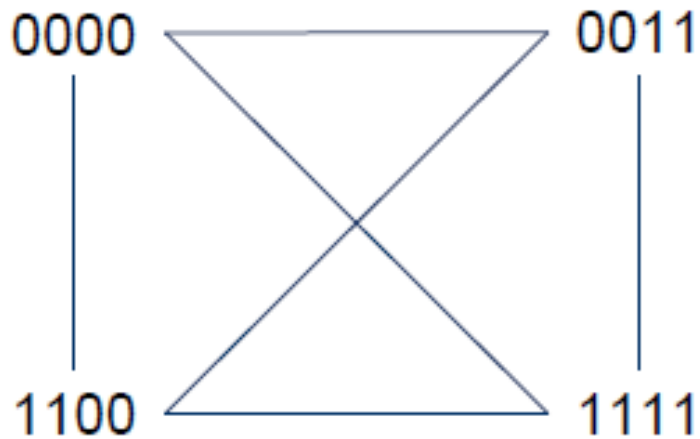
Hamming distance

- If not all the 2^n possible codewords are used
 - ▣ Set of legal codewords =: S
- Hamming distance of the complete code
 - ▣ The smallest Hamming distance of between all the possible pairs in the set of legal codewords (S)

$$d(S) = \min_{x,y \in S, x \neq y} d(x, y)$$

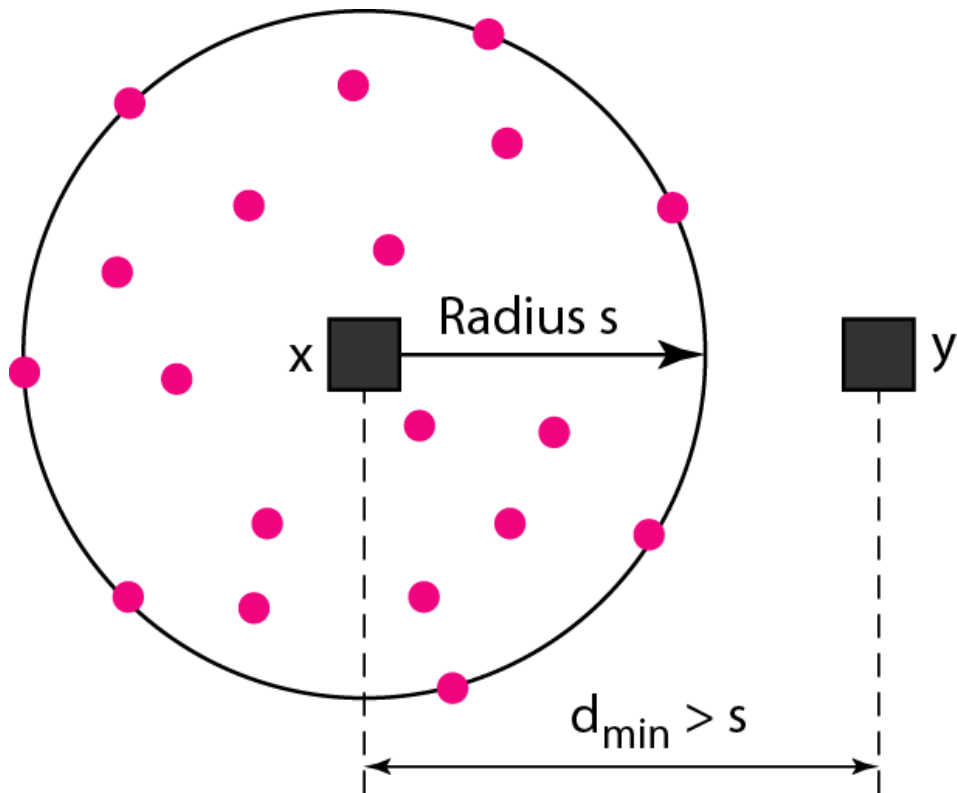
What is the Hamming distance?

- Two examples:



Error detection

To detect d errors, you need a distance $d+1$ code.

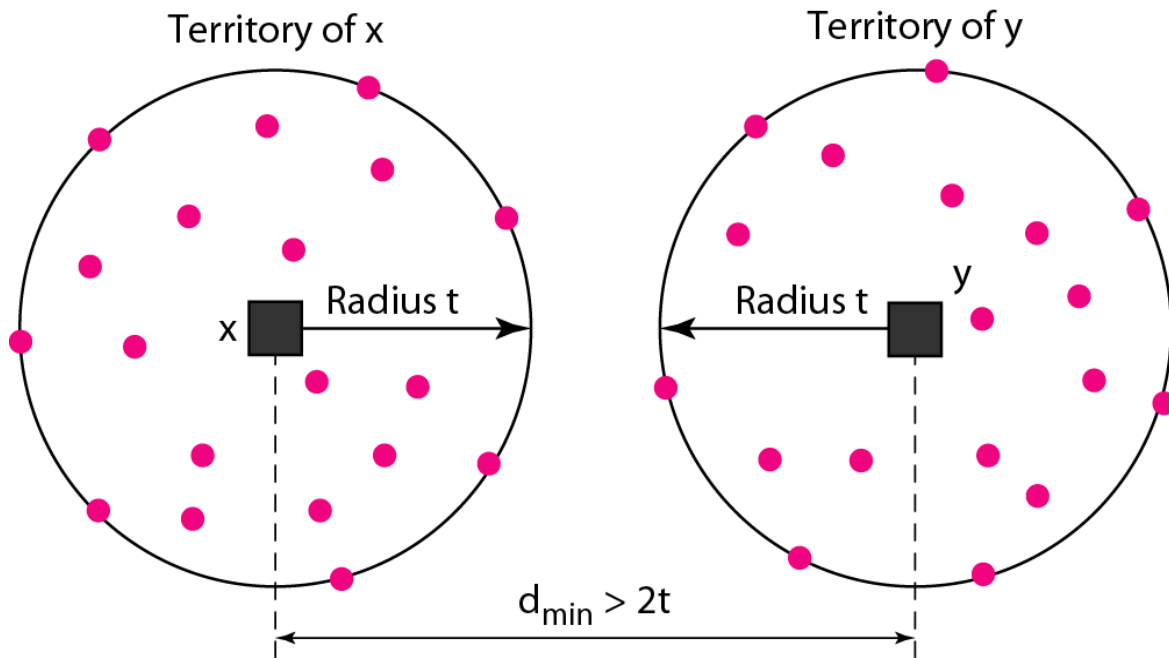


Legend

- Any valid codeword
- Any corrupted codeword with 0 to s errors

Error correction

To correct d errors, you need a distance $2d+1$ code.



Legend

- Any valid codeword
- Any corrupted codeword with 1 to t errors

Example

S={ 00000000,
00001111,
11110000,
11111111
}

Parity bit – already discussed

- A single parity bit is appended to the data
 - ▣ Chosen according to the number of 1 bits in the message
 - odd or even

- An example using even parity
 - ▣ Original message: 1011010
 - ▣ A 0 bit is added to the end: 10110100
 - ▣ $m=8$ and $r=1$ in this case

- The distance of this code is 2, since any single-bit error produces a codeword with the wrong parity.

Checksums

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- Idea:
 - ▣ Add up the bytes in the data
 - ▣ Include the sum in the frame



- Use ones-complement arithmetic
- Lower overhead than parity: 16 bits per frame
- But, not resilient to errors
 - ▣ Why? $1101001 + 0101001 = 10010010$
- Used in UDP, TCP, and IP

Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC)

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- Uses field theory to compute a semi-unique value for a given message
- Much better performance than previous approaches
 - ▣ Fixed size overhead per frame (usually 32-bits)
 - ▣ Quick to implement in hardware
 - ▣ Only 1 in 2^{32} chance of missing an error with 32-bit CRC

CRC (Cyclic Redundancy Check)

□ Polynomial code

- ▣ Treating bit strings as representations of polynomials with coefficients of 0 and 1.

□ CRC

- ▣ Add k bits of redundant data to an n -bit message.
- ▣ Represent n -bit message as an $n-1$ degree polynomial;
 - e.g., $MSG=10011010$ corresponds to $M(x) = x^7 + x^4 + x^3 + x^1$.
- ▣ Let k be the degree of some divisor polynomial $G(x)$;
 - e.g., $G(x) = x^3 + x^2 + 1$.
 - Generator polynomial
 - Agreed upon it in advance

CRC

- Transmit polynomial $P(x)$ that is evenly divisible by $G(x)$, and receive polynomial $P(x) + E(x)$;
 - $E(x)=0$ implies no errors.

- Recipient divides $(P(x) + E(x))$ by $G(x)$;
 - the remainder will be zero in only two cases:
 - $E(x)$ was zero (i.e. there was no error),
 - or $E(x)$ is exactly divisible by $C(x)$.

- Choose $G(x)$ to make second case extremely rare.

A basic example with numbers

- Make all legal messages divisible by 3
- If you want to send 10
 - ▣ First multiply by 4 to get 40
 - ▣ Now add 2 to make it divisible by 3 = 42
- When the data is received ..
 - ▣ Divide by 3, if there is no remainder there is no error
 - ▣ If no error, divide by 4 to get sent message
- If we receive 43, 44, 41, 40, then error
- 45 would not be recognized as an error

Mod 2 arithmetic

- Operations are done modulo 2

| A | B | A + B |
|---|---|-------|
| 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 | 0 |

| A | B | A - B |
|---|---|-------|
| 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 | 0 |

| A | B | A · B |
|---|---|-------|
| 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 |

$$\begin{array}{r} 0110111011 \\ + 1101010110 \\ \hline = 1011101101 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 1111 \\ + 1010 \\ \hline \hline 0101 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 11001 \\ \times 101 \\ \hline \hline 11001 \\ + 11001 \\ \hline \hline 1111101 \end{array}$$

A basic example with polynomials

□ Sender:

▣ multiply $M(x) = x^7 + x^4 + x^3 + x^1$ by x^k ; for our example, we get

▣ $x^{10} + x^7 + x^6 + x^4(10011010000)$;

▣ divide result by $C(x) (1101)$;

| | | | |
|-----------|------|---|-----------|
| Generator | 1101 | $\begin{array}{r} 11111001 \\ 10011010000 \\ \underline{1101} \\ 1001 \\ \underline{1101} \\ 1000 \\ \underline{1101} \\ 1011 \\ \underline{1101} \\ 1100 \\ \underline{1101} \\ 1000 \\ \underline{1101} \\ 101 \end{array}$ | Message |
| | | $\begin{array}{r} 1000 \\ \underline{1101} \\ 101 \end{array}$ | Remainder |

Send $10011010000 + 101 = 10011010101$,
since this must be exactly divisible by $C(x)$;

Further properties

- Want to ensure that $G(x)$ does not divide evenly into polynomial $E(x)$.
- All single-bit errors, as long as the x^k and x^0 terms have non-zero coefficients.
- All double-bit errors, as long as $G(x)$ has a factor with at least three terms.
- Any odd number of errors, as long as $G(x)$ contains the factor $(x + 1)$.
- Any “burst” error (i.e. sequence of consecutive errored bits) for which the length of the burst is less than k bits.
- Most burst errors of larger than k bits can also be detected.