#### 15-441 Lecture 6

Physical Layer (Cont) & Data Link Layer

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Based on slides from previous 441 lectures

#### Last Time

- · Physical Layer
  - Modulation
  - Bandwidth
  - Nyquist/Shannon
  - Multiplexing
  - Media

**Application** 

**Presentation** 

Session

**Transport** 

**Network** 

**Datalink** 

**Physical** 

# Today (& Tomorrow)

1. Physical layer. (Encoding)

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- 2. Datalink layer introduction, framing, error coding, MAC, switched networks.
- 3. Broadcast-networks, home networking.

**Application** 

**Presentation** 

Session

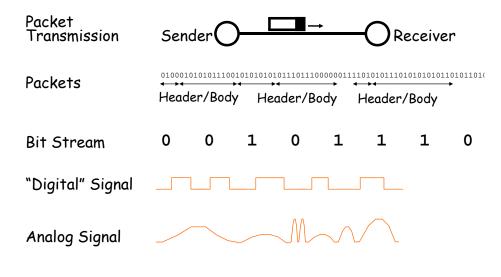
**Transport** 

Network

**Datalink** 

**Physical** 

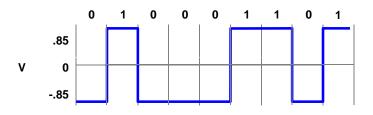
# From Signals to Packets



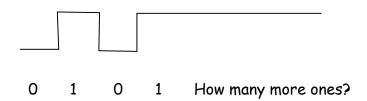
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#### How Encode?

· Seems obvious, why take time with this?

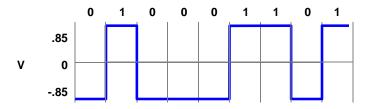


#### Why Encode?



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### Non-Return to Zero (NRZ)



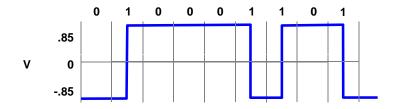
- ·1 -> high signal; 0 -> low signal
- Long sequences of 1's or 0's can cause problems:
  - Sensitive to clock skew, i.e. hard to recover clock
  - Difficult to interpret 0's and 1's  $_{\scriptscriptstyle 15\text{-}441~@\ 2008}$

# Why Do We Need Encoding?

- ·Keep receiver synchronized with sender.
- Create control symbols, besides regular data symbols.
  - E.g. start or end of frame, escape, ...
- Error detection or error corrections.
- Some codes are illegal so receiver can detect certain classes of errors
- Minor errors can be corrected by having multiple adjacent signals mapped to the same data symbol
- •Encoding can be done one bit at a time or in multi-bit blocks, e.g., 4 or 8 bits.
- Encoding can be very complex, e.g. wireless.

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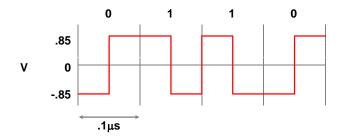
# Non-Return to Zero Inverted (NRZI)



- $\cdot 1 \rightarrow$  make transition;  $0 \rightarrow$  signal stays the same
- Solves the problem for long sequences of 1's, but not for 0's.

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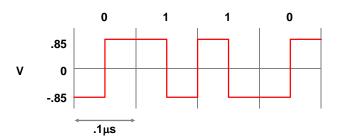
# Ethernet Manchester Encoding



- Positive transition for 0, negative for 1
- Transition every cycle communicates clock

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# Ethernet Manchester Encoding



- ·Positive transition for 0, negative for 1
- Transition every cycle communicates clock (but need 2 transition times per bit)
- ·DC balance has good electrical properties

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## 4B/5B Encoding

- Data coded as symbols of 5 line bits
  - $\rightarrow$  4 data bits, so 100 Mbps uses 125 MHz.
  - Uses less frequency space than Manchester encoding
- ·Uses NRZI to encode the 5 code bits
- ·Each valid symbol has at least two 1s
  - So never get three Os in a row
- (Why don't we care about 3 ones in a row?)
- ·16 data symbols, 8 control symbols
  - Data symbols: 4 data bits
- Control symbols: idle, begin frame, etc.
- ·Example: FDDI.

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## 4B/5B Encoding

Data	Code		Data	Code	
0000	11110		000	10010	
0001 0010	01001 10100		L001 L010	10011 10110	
0011	10101	1	L011	10111	
0100	01010	1	L100	11010	
0101	01011	1	L101	11011	
0110	01110	1	L110	11100	
0111	01111	1	L111	11101	

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#### Where we are

- ·We can send strings of bits
- We can keep the transmitter and receiver clock synchronized
- ·What next?
- ·Why?

#### Other Encodings

·8B/10B: Fiber Channel and Gigabit Ethernet

•64B/66B: 10 Gbit Ethernet

•B8ZS: T1 signaling (bit stuffing)

## Things to Remember

- · Encoding necessary for clocking
- ·Lots of approaches
- ·Rule of thumb:
  - -Little bandwidth → complex encoding
  - -Lots of bandwidth → simple encoding

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#### Where we are

- ·We can send strings of bits
- We can keep the transmitter and receiver clock synchronized
- ·What next?
  - Datalink layer
    - · Logical link control
  - · Media access control
  - Framing
  - Error detection/correction
  - Flow control
- Access

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## Framing

How do we differentiate the stream of bits into frames? Framing

- A link layer function, defining which bits have which function.
- Minimal functionality: mark the beginning and end of frames.
- ·Some techniques:
  - Out-of-band: delimiters (e.g. 4B/5B control symbols)
  - In-band:
    - · frame delimiter characters with char stuffing
    - · frame delimiter codes with bit stuffing
- Clock based: (e.g. SONET)

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# Out-of-band: E.g., 802.5



- ·802.5/token ring uses 4b/5b
- ·Start delim & end delim are "illegal" codes

### Sentinal based: E.g., BISYNC



•SYN: sync character

·SOH: start of header

·STX: start of text

•ETX: end of text

·What happens when ETX is in Body?

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### Character and Bit Stuffing

- Mark frames with special character.
  - What happens when the user sends this character?
  - Use escape character when controls appear in data:
     \*abc\*def -> \*abc\\*def
  - Very common on serial lines, in editors, etc.

#### ·Mark frames with special bit sequence

- must ensure data containing this sequence can be transmitted
- example: suppose 11111111 is a special sequence.
- transmitter inserts a 0 when this appears in the data:
- 11111111 -> 111111101
- must stuff a zero any time seven 1s appear:
- 11111110 -> 111111100
- receiver unstuffs.
- Notice frames may vary in their length!

Ethernet Framing

preamble datagram length more stuff

- Preamble is 7 bytes of 10101010 (5 MHz square wave) followed by one byte of 10101011
- Allows receivers to recognize start of transmission after idle channel

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### Clock Based Framing: SONET

- SONET is the Synchronous Optical Network standard for data transport over optical fiber.
- One of the design goals was to be backwards compatible with many older telco standards.
- Beside minimal framing functionality, it provides many other functions:
  - operation, administration and maintenance (OAM) communications
  - synchronization
  - multiplexing of lower rate signals
  - multiplexing for higher rates
- In otherwords, really complicated!

## Standardization History

- Process was started by divestiture in 1984.
- Multiple telephone companies building their own infrastructure
- ·SONET concepts originally developed by Bellcore.
- First standardized by ANSI T1X1 group for US.
- ·Later by CCITT and developed its own version.
- ·SONET/SDH standards approved in 1988.

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#### A Word about Data Rates

- Bandwidth of telephone channel is under 4KHz, so when digitizing:
  - 8000 samples/sec \* 8 bits = 64Kbits/second
- Common data rates supported by telcos in North America:
  - Modem: rate improved over the years
- T1/DS1: 24 voice channels plus 1 bit per sample (24 \* 8 + 1) \* 8000 = 1.544 Mbits/second
- T3/D53: 28 T1 channels:

7 \* 4 \* 1.544 = 44.736 Mbits/second

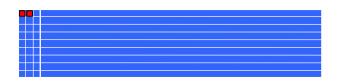
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#### How avoid clock skew?

- Special bit sequences sent in first two chars of frame
  - But no bit stuffing. Hmmm?

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 Lots of transitions by xoring with special pattern (and hope for the best)

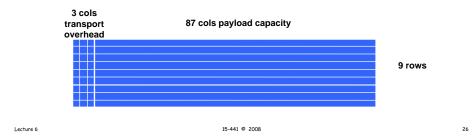


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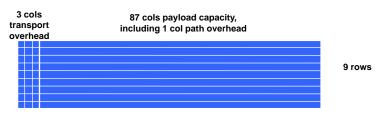
### Synchronous Data Transfer

- · Sender and receiver are always synchronized.
  - Frame boundaries are recognized based on the clock
  - No need to continuously look for special bit sequences
- ·SONET frames contain room for control and data.
- Data frame multiplexes bytes from many users
- Control provides information on data, management, ...



# SONET Framing

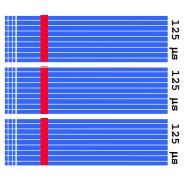
- · Base channel is STS-1 (Synchronous Transport System).
  - Takes 125  $\mu sec$  and corresponds to 51.84 Mbps
  - 1 byte/frame corresponds to a 64 Kbs channel (voice)
  - Transmitted on an OC-1 optical carrier (fiber link)
- · Standard ways of supporting slower and faster channels.
- Support both old standards and future (higher) data rates



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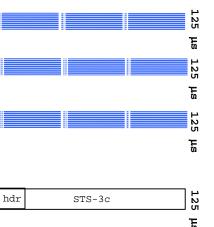
### How Do We Support Lower Rates?

- 1 Byte in every consecutive frame corresponds to a 64 Kbit/second channel.
  - 1 voice call.
- Higher bandwidth channels hold more bytes per frame.
  - Multiples of 64 Kbit/second
- · Channels have a "telecom" flavor.
  - Fixed bandwidth
  - Just data no headers
  - SONET multiplexers remember how bytes on one link should be mapped to bytes on the next link
    - Byte 33 on incoming link 1 is byte 97 on outgoing link 7



# How Do We Support Higher Rates?

- Send multiple frames in a 125 µsec time slot.
- The properties of a channel using a single byte/ST-1 frame are maintained!
  - Constant 64 Kbit/second rate
  - Nice spacing of the byte samples
- Rates typically go up by a factor of 4.
- Two ways of doing interleaving.
  - Frame interleaving
  - Column interleaving
    - concatenated version, i.e. OC-3c



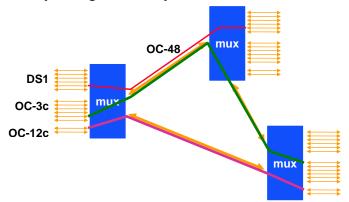
# The SONET Signal Hierarchy

STS-1 carries one DS-3 plus overhead

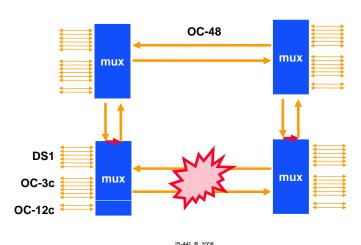
Signal Type	line rate	# of DS0		
DS0 (POTS)	64 Kbs	1		
DS1	1.544 Mbs	24		
DS3	44.736 Mbs	672		
OC-1	51.84 Mbs	672		
OC-3	155 Mbs	2,016		
OC-12	622 Mbs	8,064		
STS-48	2.49 Gbs	32,256		
STS-192	9.95 Gbs	129,024		
STS-768	39.8 Gbs	516,096		

# Using SONET in Networks

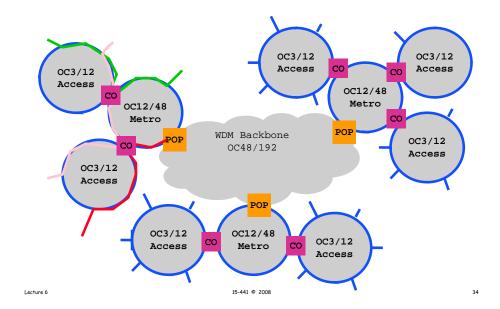
Add-drop capability allows soft configuration of networks, usually managed manually.



## Self-Healing SONET Rings



# SONET as Physical Layer



#### **Datalink Functions**

- Framing: encapsulating a network layer datagram into a bit stream.
- Add header, mark and detect frame boundaries, ...
- Error control: error detection and correction to deal with bit errors.
- May also include other reliability support, e.g. retransmission
- ·Flow control: avoid sender overrunning receiver.
- Media access: controlling which frame should be sent over the link next.
  - Easy for point-to-point links

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- Harder for multi-access links: who gets to send?

### Error Coding

- Transmission process may introduce errors into a message.
- Single bit errors versus burst errors
- ·Detection:
- Requires a convention that some messages are invalid
- Hence requires extra bits
- An (n,k) code has codewords of n bits with k data bits and r=(n-k) redundant check bits
- · Correction
- Forward error correction: many related code words map to the same data word
- Detect errors and retry transmission

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### Two basic approaches

- Forward Error Correction
- Detect and Retransmit
- ·Which should we use? Why? When?

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#### Basic Concept: Hamming Distance

- Hamming distance of two bit strings = number of bit positions in which they differ.
- If the valid words of a code have minimum Hamming distance D, then D-1 bit errors can be detected.
- •If the valid words of a code have minimum Hamming distance D, then [(D-1)/2] bit errors can be corrected.

HD=3

1 0 1 1 0

1 1 0 1 0

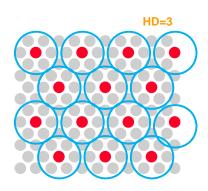
HD=2

Basic Concept: Hamming Distance

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- Hamming distance of two bit strings = number of bit positions in which they differ.
- •If the valid words of a code have minimum Hamming distance D, then D-1 bit errors can be detected.
- •If the valid words of a code have minimum Hamming distance D, then [(D-1)/2] bit errors can be corrected.

1 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 0



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# Examples

- A (4,3) parity code has D=2: 0001 0010 0100 0111 1000 1011 1101 1110 (last bit is binary sum of previous 3, inverted "odd parity")
- ·1001111 corrects to 1001011
- •Note the inherent risk in correction; consider a 2-bit error resulting in 1001011 -> 1111011.
- There are formulas to calculate the number of extra bits that are needed for a certain D.

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#### Internet Checksum

- Add up all words transmitted (mod checksum size)
- Simple form of validation (and easy to implement)

Start	Access	Frame	Dest	Src	Body		checksum	End	Frame
delim	ctrl	ctrl	adr	adr				delim	status

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#### CRC: Basic idea

Treat bit strings as polynomials:

- Sender and Receiver agree on a divisor polynomial of degree k
- •Message of M bits  $\rightarrow$  send M+k bits
- ·No errors if M+k is divisible by divisor polynomial
- •If you pick the right divisor you can:
  - Detect all 1 & 2-bit errors
  - Any odd number of errors
  - All Burst errors of less than k bits
  - Some burst errors >= k bits

# Cyclic Redundancy Codes (CRC)

- Commonly used codes that have good error detection properties.
- Can catch many error combinations with a small number or redundant bits
- · Based on division of polynomials.
- Errors can be viewed as adding terms to the polynomial
- Should be unlikely that the division will still work
- Can be implemented very efficiently in hardware.
- •Examples:

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- CRC-32: Ethernet
- CRC-8, CRC-10, CRC-32: ATM

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# Link Flow Control and Error Control

- Dealing with packet loss and corruption: error control.
- · Dealing with receiver overflow: flow control.
- Meta-comment: these issues are relevant at many layers.
  - Link layer: sender and receiver attached to the same "wire"
  - End-to-end: transmission control protocol (TCP) sender and receiver are the end points of a connection
- · How can we implement flow control?

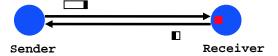
# Link Flow Control and Error Control

- Dealing with packet loss and corruption: error control.
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- Meta-comment: these issues are relevant at many layers.
- Link layer: sender and receiver attached to the same "wire"
- End-to-end: transmission control protocol (TCP) sender and receiver are the end points of a connection
- ·How can we implement flow control?
  - "You may send" (windows, stop-and-wait, etc.)
  - "Please shut up" (source quench, 802.3x pause frames, etc.)
  - Where are each of these appropriate?

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# Adding Flow Control

- Stop and wait flow control: sender waits to send the next packet until the previous packet has been acknowledged by the receiver.
  - Receiver can pace the receiver
- Drawbacks: adds overheads, slowdown for long links.



#### A Naïve Protocol

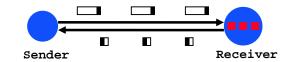
- Sender simply sends to the receiver whenever it has packets.
- · Potential problem: sender can outrun the receiver.
  - Receiver too slow, buffer overflow, ..
- · Not always a problem: receiver might be fast enough.



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#### Window Flow Control

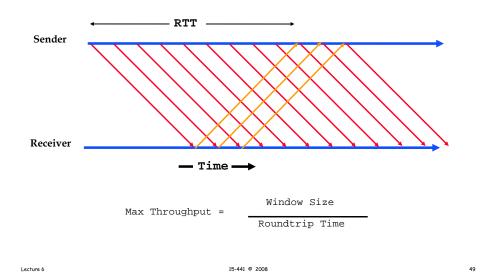
- Stop and wait flow control results in poor throughput for long-delay paths: packet size/roundtrip-time.
- Solution: receiver provides sender with a window that it can fill with packets.
- The window is backed up by buffer space on receiver
- Receiver acknowledges the a packet every time a packet is consumed and a buffer is freed
- How big should window be?



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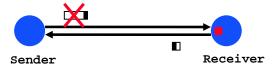
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## Bandwidth-Delay Product



Dealing with Errors Stop and Wait Case

- Packets can get lost, corrupted, or duplicated.
  - Error detection or correction turns corrupted packet in lost or correct packet
- Duplicate packet: use sequence numbers.
- Lost packet: time outs and acknowledgements.
- Positive versus negative acknowledgements
- Sender side versus receiver side timeouts
- Window based flow control: more aggressive use of sequence numbers (see transport lectures).



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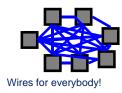
#### What is Used in Practice?

- ·No flow or error control.
  - E.g. regular Ethernet, just uses CRC for error detection
- Flow control only.
  - E.g. Gigabit Ethernet
- · Flow and error control.
  - E.g. X.25 (older connection-based service at 64 Kbs that guarantees reliable in order delivery of data)

#### So far ...



· ... But what if we want more nodes?

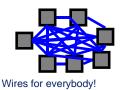


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#### So far ...



· ... But what if we want more nodes?



P-2-p

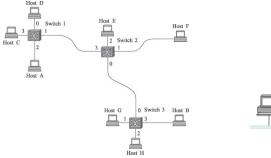
shared



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#### Datalink Architectures





· Point-Point with switches

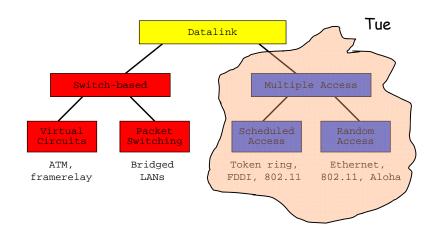
· Media access control.

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#### Media Access Control

- ·How do we transfer packets between two hosts connected to the same network?
- Switches connected by point-to-point links -- store-and-forward.
  - Used in WAN, LAN, and for home connections
  - Conceptually similar to "routing"
  - · But at the datalink layer instead of the network layer
- Multiple access networks -- contention based.
  - Multiple hosts are sharing the same transmission medium
  - Used in LANs and wireless
- Need to control access to the medium

#### Datalink Classification



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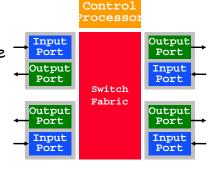
### Switching

- · Forward units of data based on address in header.
- ·Many data-link technologies use switching.
  - Virtual circuits: Frame Relay, ATM, X.25, ..
- Packets: Ethernet, MPLS, ...
- ·"Switching" also happens at the network layer.
  - Layer 3: Internet protocol
  - In this case, address is an IP address
- IP over SONET, IP over ATM, ...
- Otherwise, operation is very similar
- · Switching is different from SONET mux/demux.
  - SONET channels statically configured no addresses

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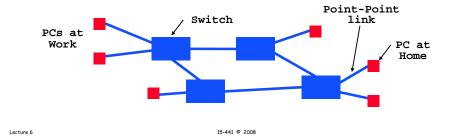
## Switch Architecture

- Packets come in one interface, forwarded to output interface based on address.
  - Same idea for bridges, switches, routers: address look up differs
- Control processor manages the switch and executes higher level protocols.
  - E.g. routing, management, ...
- The switch fabric directs the traffic to the right output port.
- The input and output ports deal with transmission and reception of packets.



#### A Switch-based Network

- Switches are connected by point-point links.
- •Packets are forwarded hop-by-hop by the switches towards the destination.
  - Forwarding is based on the address
- ·How does a switch work?
- ·How do nodes exchange packets over a link?
- ·How is the destination addressed?



#### Connections or Not?

- Two basic approaches to packet forwarding
  - Connectionless
  - (virtual) Circuit switched
- ·When would you use?

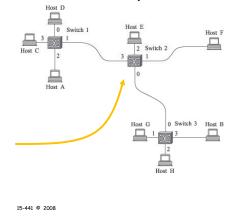
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#### Connectionless

- ·Host can send anytime anywhere
- ·No idea if resources are available to get to dest
- ·Forwarding is independent for each packet
- ·No setup time
- Fault tolerant

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Destination	Port
Α	3
В	0
С	
D	
Е	
F	
G	
Ч	

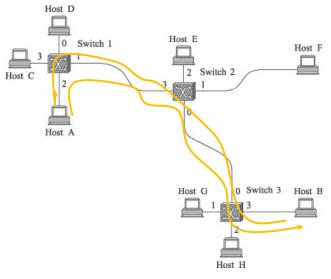


## Virtual Circuit Switching

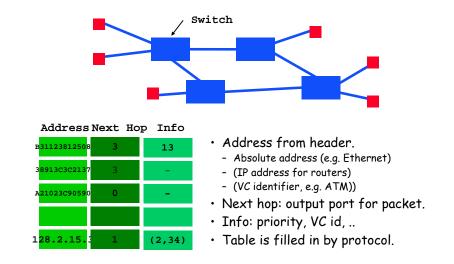
- Two stage process
- Setup connection (create VCIs)
- Send packets
- ·RTT introduced before any data is sent
- Per packet overhead can be smaller (VCI « adr)
- · Switch failures are hard to deal with
- ·Reserves resources for connection

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### Setup, assign VCIs

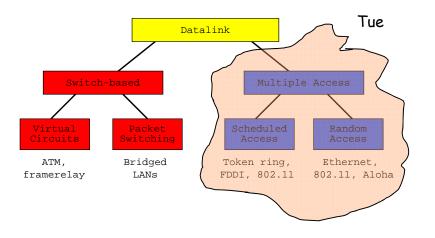


# Packet Forwarding: Address Lookup



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#### Datalink Classification



#### What we covered

- Encoding: way to put 1s and 0s on the line so receiver can decode them
- ·Framing: way to understand a basic chunk
- ·Error Control: ensure packets are not corrupted
- Flow control: Ensure receiver doesn't get overrun
- Media Access Control: How to get multiple nodes talking on the same network without requiring n<sup>2</sup> wires.

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