Link Layer

Where we are in the Course

• Moving on up to the Link Layer!



Typical Implementation of Layers (2)



Scope of the Link Layer

- Concerns how to transfer messages over one or more connected links
 - Messages are <u>frames</u>, of limited size
 - Builds on the physical layer



In terms of layers ...



In terms of layers (2)



What are some challenges in the link layer?

What abstractions would we like to build?

Topics

- 1. Framing
 - Delimiting start/end of frames
- 2. Error detection and correction
 - Handling errors
- 3. Retransmissions
 - Handling loss
- 4. Multiple Access
 - 802.11, classic Ethernet
- 5. Switching
 - Modern Ethernet

Framing

Delimiting start/end of frames

Торіс

• The Physical layer gives us a stream of bits. How do we interpret it as a sequence of frames?



Simple ideas?

Framing Methods

- We'll look at:
 - Byte count (motivation)
 - Byte stuffing
 - Bit stuffing
- In practice, the physical layer often helps to identify frame boundaries
 - E.g., Ethernet, 802.11

Byte Count

- First try:
 - Let's start each frame with a length field!
 - It's simple, and hopefully good enough ...

Byte Count (2)



How well do you think it works?

Byte Count (3)

- Difficult to re-synchronize after framing error
 - Want a way to scan for a start of frame



Byte Stuffing

- Better idea:
 - Have a special flag byte value for start/end of frame
 - Replace ("stuff") the flag with an escape code

Problem?

FLAG	Header	Payload field	Trailer	FLAG	

Byte Stuffing

- Better idea:
 - Have a special flag byte value for start/end of frame
 - Replace ("stuff") the flag with an escape code
 - Complication: have to escape the escape code too!

FLAG	Header	Payload field	Trailer	FLAG

Byte Stuffing (2)

- Rules:
 - Replace each FLAG in data with ESC FLAG
 - Replace each ESC in data with ESC ESC



Byte Stuffing (3)

• Now any unescaped FLAG is the start/end of a frame



Unstuffing

You see:

- 1. Solitary FLAG?
- 2. Solitary ESC?
- 3. ESC FLAG?
- 4. ESC ESC FLAG?
- 5. ESC ESC ESC FLAG?
- 6. ESC FLAG FLAG?

Unstuffing

You see:

- 1. Solitary FLAG? -> Start or end of packet
- 2. Solitary ESC? -> Bad packet!
- 3. ESC FLAG? -> remove ESC and pass FLAG through
- 4. ESC ESC FLAG? -> pass one ESC and then start of end of packet
- 5. ESC ESC FLAG? -> pass ESC FLAG through
- 6. ESC FLAG FLAG? -> pass FLAG through then start of end of packet

Bit Stuffing

- Can stuff at the bit level too
 - Call a flag six consecutive 1s
 - On transmit, after five 1s in the data, insert a 0
 - On receive, a 0 after five 1s is deleted

Bit Stuffing (2)

• Example:



Bit Stuffing (3)

• So how does it compare with byte stuffing?





Link Example: PPP over SONET

- PPP is Point-to-Point Protocol
- Widely used for link framing
 - E.g., it is used to frame IP packets that are sent over SONET optical links

Link Example: PPP over SONET (2)

• Think of SONET as a bit stream, and PPP as the framing that carries an IP packet over the link



Link Example: PPP over SONET (3)

- Framing uses byte stuffing
 - FLAG is 0x7E and ESC is 0x7D

Bytes	1	1	1	1 or 2	Variable	2 or 4	1
	Flag 01111110	Address 111111111	Control 00000011	Protocol	Payload	Checksum	Flag 01111110

Link Layer: Error detection and correction

Торіс

• Some bits will be received in error due to noise. What can we do? Detect errors with codes Correct errors with codes Retransmit lost frames

• Reliability is a concern that cuts across the layers



• Ideas?

Approach – Add Redundancy

- Error detection codes
 - Add <u>check bits</u> to the message bits to let some errors be detected
- Error correction codes
 - Add more <u>check bits</u> to let some errors be corrected
- Key issue is now to structure the code to detect many errors with few check bits and modest computation

• Ideas?

Motivating Example

- A simple code to handle errors:
 - Send two copies! Error if different.
- How good is this code?
 - How many errors can it detect/correct?
 - How many errors will make it fail?

Motivating Example (2)

- We want to handle more errors with less overhead
 - Will look at better codes; they are applied mathematics
 - But, they can't handle all errors
 - And they focus on accidental errors (will look at secure hashes later)

Using Error Codes

• Codeword consists of D data plus R check bits (=systematic block code)



- Sender:
 - Compute R check bits based on the D data bits; send the codeword of D+R bits
Using Error Codes (2)

- Receiver:
 - Receive D+R bits with unknown errors
 - Recompute R check bits based on the D data bits; error if R doesn't match R'



Intuition for Error Codes

• For D data bits, R check bits:



 Randomly chosen codeword is unlikely to be correct; overhead is low

R.W. Hamming (1915-1998)

- Much early work on codes:
 - "Error Detecting and Error Correcting Codes", BSTJ, 1950
- "If the computer can tell when an error has occurred, surely there is a way of telling where the error is so the computer can correct the error itself" Hamming



Source: IEEE GHN, © 2009 IEEE

Hamming Distance

• Distance is the number of bit flips needed to change D_1 to D_2

• <u>Hamming distance</u> of a coding is the minimum error distance between any pair of codewords (bit-strings) that cannot be detected

Hamming Distance (2)

- Error detection:
 - For a coding of distance d+1, up to d errors will always be detected
- Error correction:
 - For a coding of distance 2d+1, up to d errors can always be corrected by mapping to the closest valid codeword

Simple Error Detection – Parity Bit

- Take D data bits, add 1 check bit that is the sum of the D bits
 - Sum is modulo 2 or XOR

Parity Bit (2)

- How well does parity work?
 - What is the distance of the code?
 - How many errors will it detect/correct?
- What about larger errors?

Checksums

• Idea: sum up data in N-bit words

• Widely used in, e.g., TCP/IP/UDP

1500 bytes	16 bits
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Stronger protection than parity

Internet Checksum

- Sum is defined in 1s complement arithmetic (must add back carries)
 - And it's the negative sum
- "The checksum field is the 16 bit one's complement of the one's complement sum of all 16 bit words ..." RFC 791

Internet Checksum (2)

Sending:

- 1.Arrange data in 16-bit words
- 2.Put zero in checksum position, add
- 3.Add any carryover back to get 16 bits
- 4.Negate (complement) to get sum

0001 f204 f4f5 f6f7

Internet Checksum (3)

Sending:

Arrange data in 16-bit words
Put zero in checksum position, add
Add any carryover back to get 16 bits
Negate (complement) to get sum

0001 f204 f4f5 f6f7 +(0000)2ddf1 ddf1 + 2 ddf3 220c

Internet Checksum (4)

Receiving:

- 1. Arrange data in 16-bit words
- 2. Checksum will be non-zero, add
- 3. Add any carryover back to get 16 bits
- 4. Negate the result and check it is 0

0001 f204 f4f5 f6f7 + 220c

Internet Checksum (5)

Receiving:

- 1. Arrange data in 16-bit words
- 2. Checksum will be non-zero, add
- 3. Add any carryover back to get 16 bits
- 4. Negate the result and check it is 0

0001 f204 f4f5 f6f7 + 220c 2fffd fffd 2 ┿ ffff 0000

Internet Checksum (6)

- How well does the checksum work?
 - What is the distance of the code?
 - How many errors will it detect/correct?
- What about larger errors?

Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC)

- Even stronger protection
 - Given n data bits, generate k check bits such that the n+k bits are evenly divisible by a generator C
- Example with numbers:

• n = 302, k = one digit, C = 3

CRCs (2)

- The catch:
 - It's based on mathematics of finite fields, in which "numbers" represent polynomials
 - e.g, 10011010 is $x^7 + x^4 + x^3 + x^1$
- What this means:
 - We work with binary values and operate using modulo 2 arithmetic

CRCs (3)

- Send Procedure:
- 1. Extend the n data bits with k zeros
- 2. Divide by the generator value C
- 3. Keep remainder, ignore quotient
- 4. Adjust k check bits by remainder
- Receive Procedure:
- 1. Divide and check for zero remainder

CRCs (4)

Check bits: $C(x)=x^{4}+x^{1}+1$ C = 10011k = 4



CRCs (6)

- Protection depend on generator
 - Standard CRC-32 is 10000010 01100000 10001110 110110111
- Properties:
 - HD=4, detects up to triple bit errors
 - Also odd number of errors
 - And bursts of up to k bits in error
 - Not vulnerable to systematic errors like checksums

Why Error Correction is Hard

- If we had reliable check bits we could use them to narrow down the position of the error
 - Then correction would be easy
- But error could be in the check bits as well as the data bits!
 - Data might even be correct

Intuition for Error Correcting Code

- Suppose we construct a code with a Hamming distance of at least 3
 - Need ≥3 bit errors to change one valid codeword into another
 - Single bit errors will be closest to a unique valid codeword
- If we assume errors are only 1 bit, we can correct them by mapping an error to the closest valid codeword
 - Works for d errors if $HD \ge 2d + 1$

Intuition (2)

• Visualization of code:

Valid codeword Error codeword R

Intuition (3)



Hamming Code

- Gives a method for constructing a code with a distance of 3
 - Uses $n = 2^k k 1$, e.g., n=4, k=3
 - Put check bits in positions p that are powers of 2, starting with position 1
 - Check bit in position p is parity of positions with a p term in their values
- Plus an easy way to correct [soon]

Hamming Code (2)

- Example: data=0101, 3 check bits
 - 7 bit code, check bit positions 1, 2, 4
 - Check 1 covers positions 1, 3, 5, 7
 - Check 2 covers positions 2, 3, 6, 7
 - Check 4 covers positions 4, 5, 6, 7

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Hamming Code (3)

- Example: data=0101, 3 check bits
 - 7 bit code, check bit positions 1, 2, 4
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$$p_1 = 0 + 1 + 1 = 0$$
, $p_2 = 0 + 0 + 1 = 1$, $p_4 = 1 + 0 + 1 = 0$

Hamming Code (4)

- To decode:
 - Recompute check bits (with parity sum including the check bit)
 - Arrange as a binary number
 - Value (syndrome) tells error position
 - Value of zero means no error
 - Otherwise, flip bit to correct

Hamming Code (5)

• Example, continued $\rightarrow 0 1 0 0 1 0 1$ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

p₄=

Syndrome = Data =

Hamming Code (6)

• Example, continued $\rightarrow 0 1 0 0 1 0 1$ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

$$p_1 = 0 + 0 + 1 + 1 = 0, \quad p_2 = 1 + 0 + 0 + 1 = 0,$$

 $p_4 = 0 + 1 + 0 + 1 = 0$

Syndrome = 000, no error Data = 0 1 0 1

Hamming Code (7)

• Example, continued $\rightarrow 0 1 0 0 1 1 1$ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

p₁= p₂=

p₄=

Syndrome = Data =

Hamming Code (8)

• Example, continued $\rightarrow 0 1 0 0 1 1 1$ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

$$p_1 = 0 + 0 + 1 + 1 = 0, \quad p_2 = 1 + 0 + 1 + 1 = 1,$$

 $p_4 = 0 + 1 + 1 + 1 = 1$

Syndrome = 1 1 0, flip position 6 Data = 0 1 0 1 (correct after flip!)

Hamming Code (3)

- Example: bad message 0100111
 - 7 bit code, check bit positions 1, 2, 4
 - Check 1 covers positions 1, 3, 5, 7
 - Check 2 covers positions 2, 3, 6, 7
 - Check 4 covers positions 4, 5, 6, 7

$p_1 = 0 + 0 + 1 + 1 = 0$, $p_2 = 1 + 0 + 1 + 1 = 1$, $p_4 = 0 + 1 + 1 + 1 = 1$

Hamming Code (3)

- Example: bad message 0100111
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$p_1 = 0 + 0 + 1 + 1 = 0$, $p_2 = 1 + 0 + 1 + 1 = 1$, $p_4 = 0 + 1 + 1 + 1 = 1$

Other Error Correction Codes

- Real codes are more involved than Hamming
- E.g., Convolutional codes (§3.2.3)
 - Take a stream of data and output a mix of the input bits
 - Makes each output bit less fragile
 - Decode using Viterbi algorithm (which can use bit confidence values)



Other Codes (2) – Turbo Codes

- Turbo Codes
 - Evolution of convolutional codes
 - Sends multiple sets of parity bits with payload
 - Decodes sets together (e.g. Sudoku)
 - Used in 3G and 4G cellular technologies
- Invented and patented by Claude Berrou
 - Professor at École Nationale Supérieure des Télécommunications de Bretagne


Other Codes (3) – LDPC

- Low Density Parity Check (§3.2.3)
 - LDPC based on sparse matrices
 - Decoded iteratively using a belief propagation algorithm
- Invented by Robert Gallager in 1963 as part of his PhD thesis
 - Promptly forgotten until 1996 ...



Source: IEEE GHN, © 2009 IEEE

Detection vs. Correction

- Which is better will depend on the pattern of errors. For example:
 - 1000 bit messages with a <u>bit error rate</u> (<u>BER</u>) of 1 in 10000
- Which has less overhead?

Detection vs. Correction

- Which is better will depend on the pattern of errors. For example:
 - 1000 bit messages with a <u>bit error rate</u> (<u>BER</u>) of 1 in 10000
- Which has less overhead?
 - It still depends! We need to know more about the errors

Detection vs. Correction (2)

Assume bit errors are random

• Messages have 0 or maybe 1 error (1/10 of the time)

Error correction:

- Need ~10 check bits per message
- Overhead:

Error detection:

- Need ~1 check bits per message plus 1000 bit retransmission
- Overhead:

Detection vs. Correction (3)

Assume errors come in bursts of 100

• Only 1 or 2 messages in 1000 have significant (multi-bit) errors

Error correction:

- Need >>100 check bits per message
- Overhead:

Error detection:

- Need 32 check bits per message plus 1000 bit resend 2/1000 of the time
- Overhead:

Detection vs. Correction (4)

• Error correction:

- Needed when errors are expected
- Or when no time for retransmission
- Error detection:
 - More efficient when errors are not expected
 - And when errors are large when they do occur

Error Correction in Practice

- Heavily used in physical layer
 - LDPC is the future, used for demanding links like 802.11, DVB, WiMAX, power-line, ...
 - Convolutional codes widely used in practice
- Error detection (w/ retransmission) is used in the link layer and above for residual errors
- Correction also used in the application layer
 - Called Forward Error Correction (FEC)
 - Normally with an erasure error model
 - E.g., Reed-Solomon (CDs, DVDs, etc.)