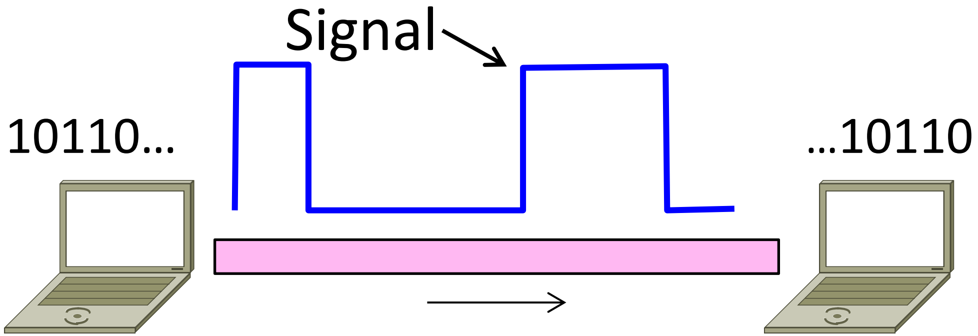
Sending bits over a link

- We've talked about signals representing bits. How, exactly?
  - This is the topic of <u>modulation</u>



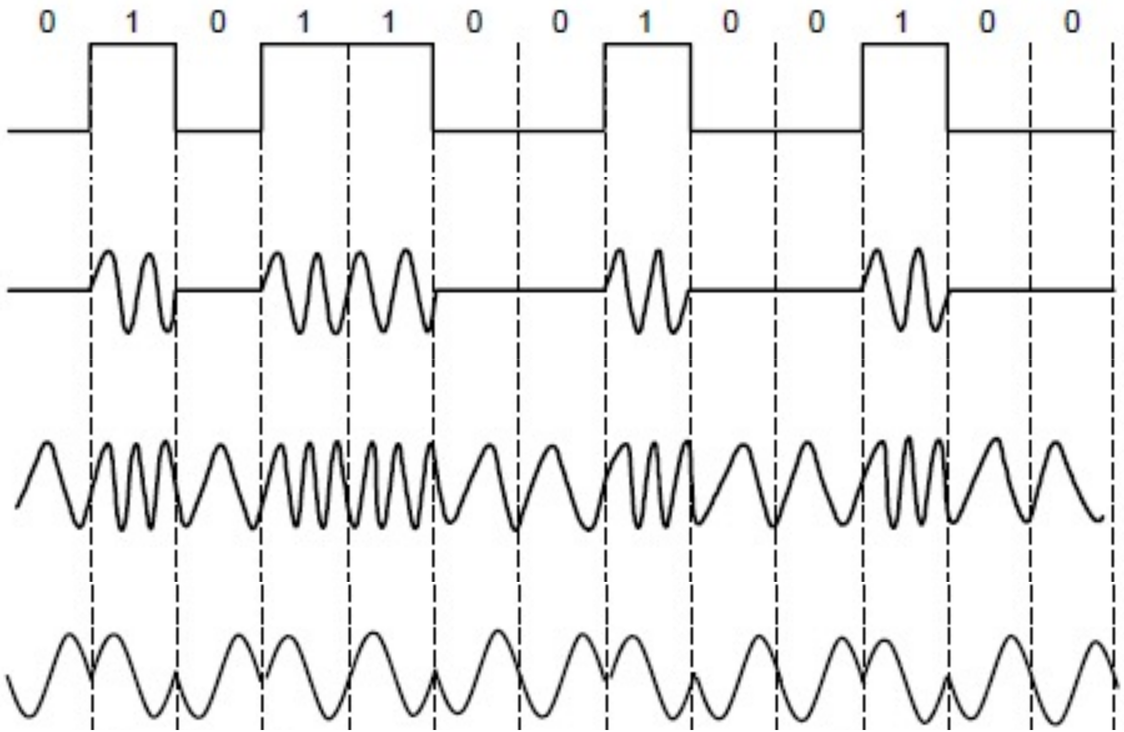
Modulation

NRZ signal of bits

Amplitude shift keying

Frequency shift keying

Phase shift keying



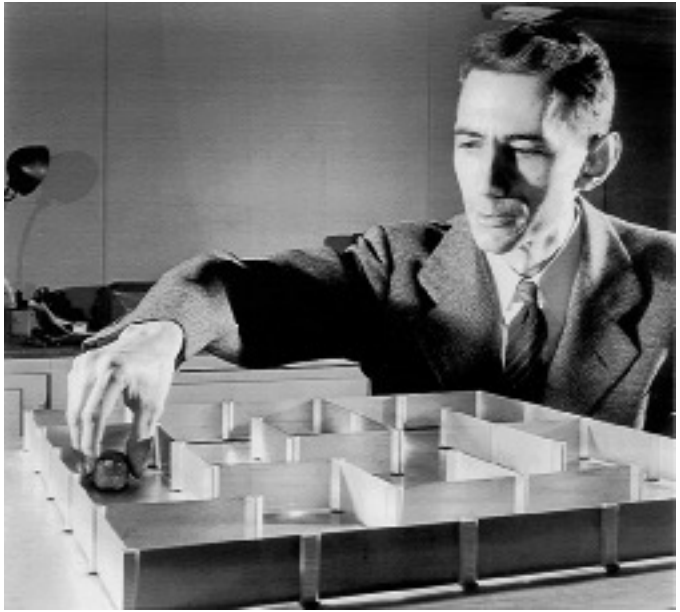
Key Channel Properties

- The bandwidth (B), signal strength (S), and noise strength (N)
  - B limits the rate of transitions
  - S and N limit how many signal levels we can distinguish

Claude Shannon (1916-2001)

- Father of information theory
  - "A Mathematical Theory of Communication", 1948
- Fundamental contributions to digital computers, security, and communications

Electromechanical mouse that "solves" mazes!



Credit: Courtesy MIT Museum

Shannon Capacity (2)

- Shannon limit is for capacity (C), the maximum information carrying rate of the channel:

$$C = B \log_2(1 + S/BN) \text{ bits/sec}$$

Wired/Wireless Perspective

- Wires, and Fiber
  - Engineer link to have requisite SNR and B

  →Can fix data rate

- Wireless
  - Given B, but SNR varies greatly, e.g., up to 60 dB!

  →Can't design for worst case, must adapt data rate

Wired/Wireless Perspective (2)

- Wires, and Fiber
  - Engineer link to have requisite SNR and B

  →Can fix data rate

Engineer SNR for data rate

- Wireless
  - Given B, but SNR varies greatly, e.g., up to 60 dB!

  →Can't design for worst case, must adapt data rate

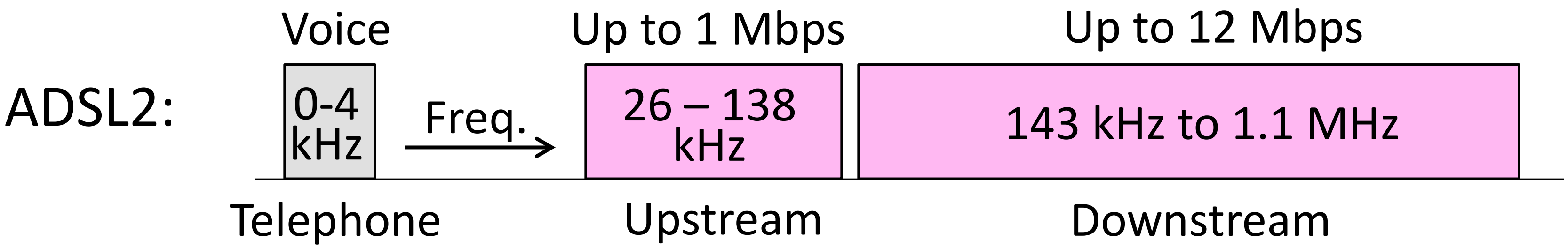
Adapt data rate to SNR

Putting it all together – DSL

- DSL (Digital Subscriber Line) is widely used for broadband; many variants offer 10s of Mbps
  - Reuses twisted pair telephone line to the home; it has up to ~2 MHz of bandwidth but uses only the lowest ~4 kHz

DSL (2)

- DSL uses passband modulation (called OFDM)
  - Separate bands for upstream and downstream (larger)
  - Modulation varies both amplitude and phase (called QAM)
  - High SNR, up to 15 bits/symbol, low SNR only 1 bit/symbol



Error Correction and Detections

- 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 – we'll see it again

Approach – Add Redundancy

- Error detection codes
  - Add check bits to the message bits to let some errors be detected
- Error correction codes
  - Add more check bits 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

Error detection codes

- Some bits may be received in error due to noise. How do we detect this?
  - Parity »
  - Checksums »
  - CRCs »

- Detection will let us fix the error, for example, by retransmission (later).

Simple Error Detection – Parity Bit

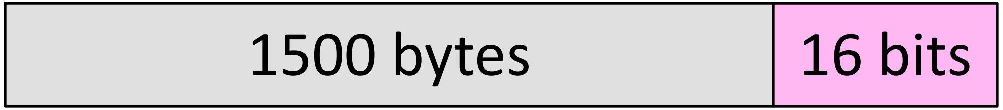
- Take D data bits, add 1 check bit that is the sum of the D bits
  - Sum is modulo 2 or XOR

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



- 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
f203
f4f5
f6f7
```

Internet Checksum (3)

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
    f203
    f4f5
    f6f7
+(0000)
------
  2ddf0
    ↓
    ddf0
+      2
------
    ddf2
    ↓
    220d
```

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
  f203
  f4f5
  f6f7
+ 220d
------
```

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
   f203
   f4f5
   f6f7
+  220d
 ------
  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

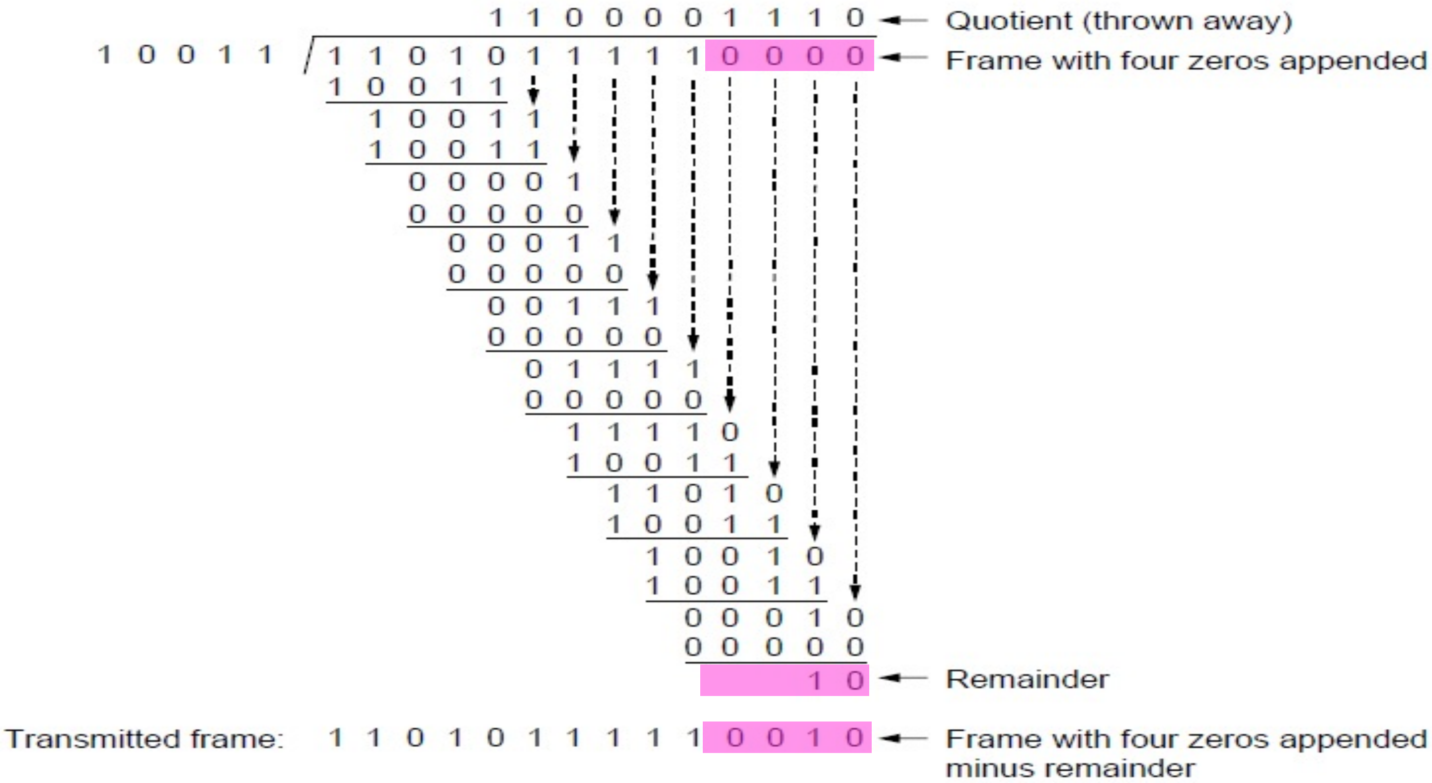
CRCs (4)

Data bits:
1101011111

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

$$1\,0\,0\,1\,1\,\overline{)\,1\;1\;0\;1\;0\;1\;1\;1\;1\;1\,}$$

CRCs (5)


1 1 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 0
Quotient (thrown away)
1 0 0 1 1
1 1 0 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 0
Frame with four zeros appended
1 0 0 1 1
1 0 0 1 1
1 0 0 1 1
0 0 0 0 1
0 0 0 0 0
0 0 0 1 1
0 0 0 0 0
0 0 1 1 1
0 0 0 0 0
0 1 1 1 1
0 0 0 0 0
1 1 1 1 0
1 0 0 1 1
1 1 0 1 0
1 0 0 1 1
1 0 0 1 0
1 0 0 1 1
0 0 0 1 0
0 0 0 0 0
1 0
Remainder
Transmitted frame: 1 1 0 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 1 0
Frame with four zeros appended minus remainder

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

Error Detection in Practice

- CRCs are widely used on links
  - Ethernet, 802.11, ADSL, Cable …
- Checksum used in Internet
  - TCP, UDP … but it is weak
- Parity
  - Is little used

Motivating Example

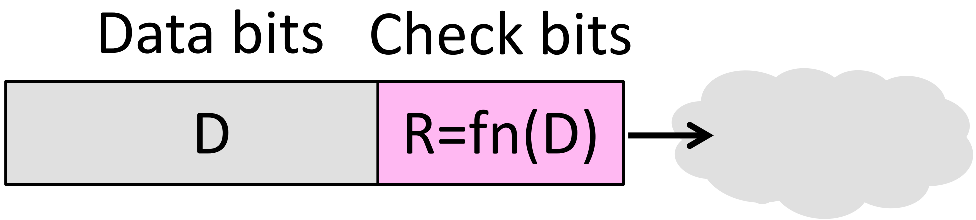
- A simple code to handle errors:
  - Send two copies! Error if different.
- How good is this code?
  - How many errors can it detect/correct?
  - How many errors will make it fail?

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

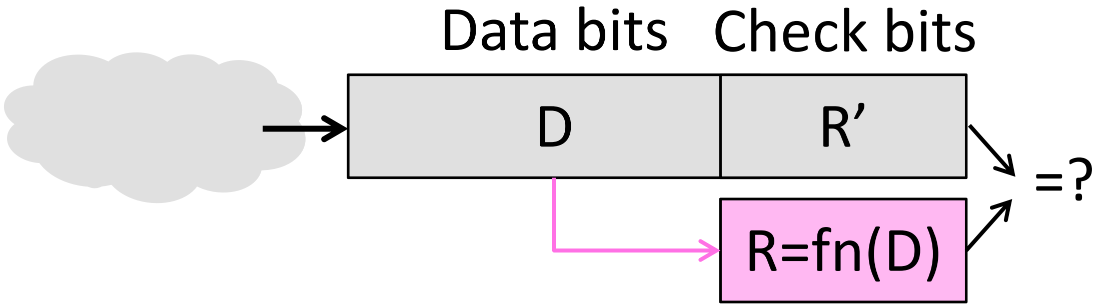
- Codeword consists of D data plus R check bits (=systematic block code)



- Sender:
  - Compute R check bits based on the D data bits; send the codeword of D+R bits

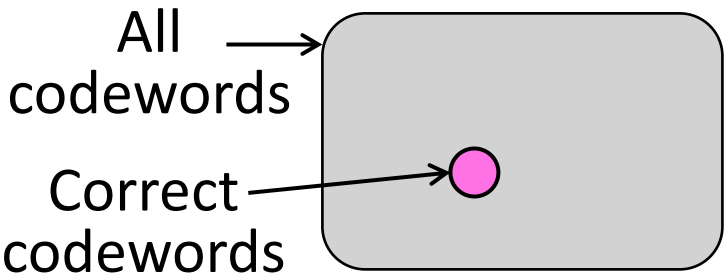
Using Error Codes (2)

- 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

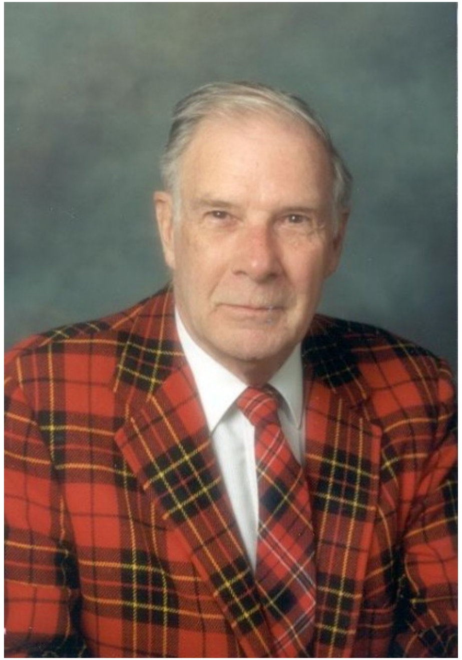
- For D data bits, R check bits:



- 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
- See also:
  - "You and Your Research", 1986



Source: IEEE GHN, © 2009 IEEE

Hamming Distance

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

- Hamming distance of a code is the minimum distance between any pair of codewords

Hamming Distance (2)

- Error detection:
  - For a code of distance d+1, up to d errors will always be detected

Hamming Distance (3)

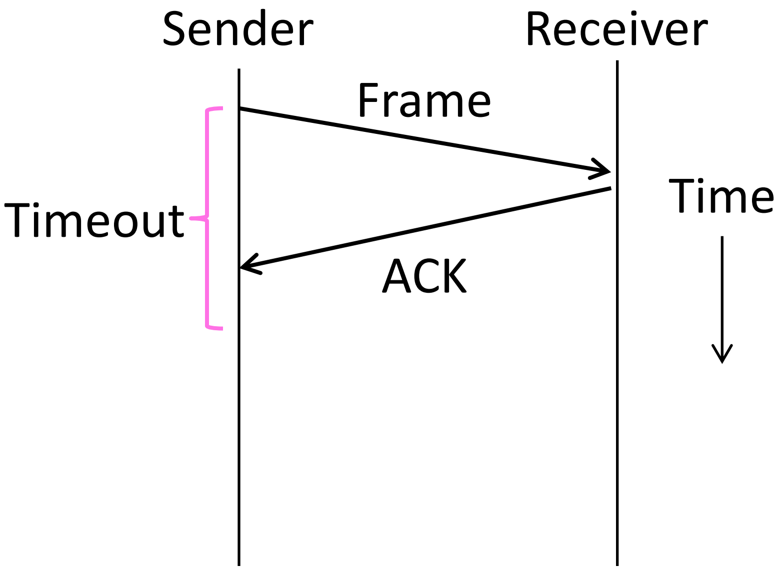
- Error correction:
  - For a code of distance 2d+1, up to d errors can always be corrected by mapping to the closest codeword

ARQ

- ARQ often used when errors are common or must be corrected
  - E.g., WiFi, and TCP (later)
- Rules at sender and receiver:
  - Receiver automatically acknowledges correct frames with an ACK
  - Sender automatically resends after a timeout, until an ACK is received

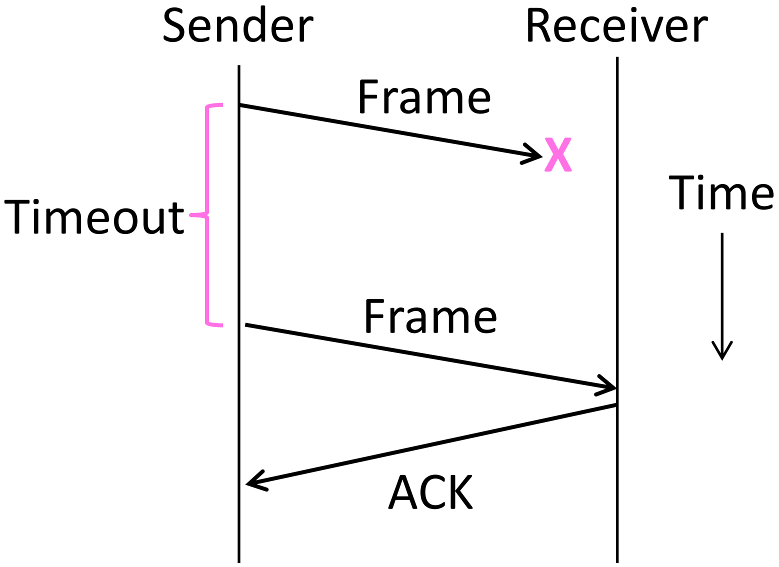
ARQ (2)

- Normal operation (no loss)



ARQ (3)

- Loss and retransmission



So What’s Tricky About ARQ?

- Two non-trivial issues:
  - How long to set the timeout? »
  - How to avoid accepting duplicate frames as new frames »
- Want performance in the common case and correctness always

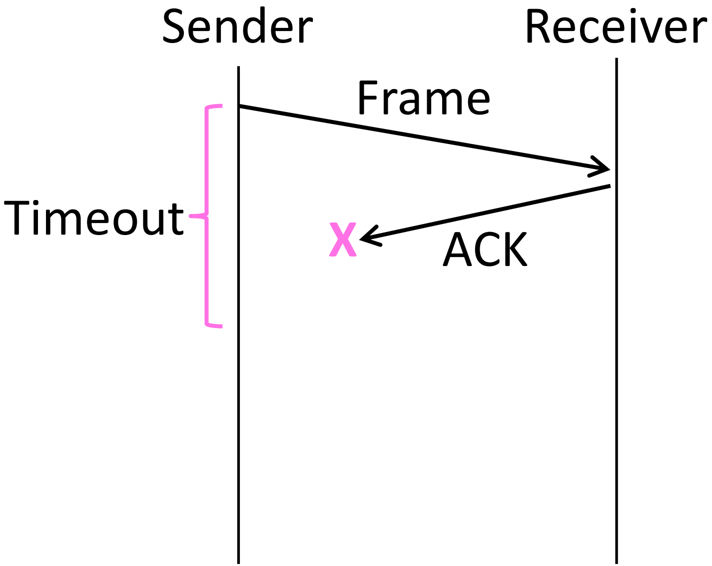
Timeouts

- Timeout should be:
  - Not too big (link goes idle)
  - Not too small (spurious resend)

- Fairly easy on a LAN
  - Clear worst case, little variation
- Fairly difficult over the Internet
  - Much variation, no obvious bound
  - We'll revisit this with TCP (later)

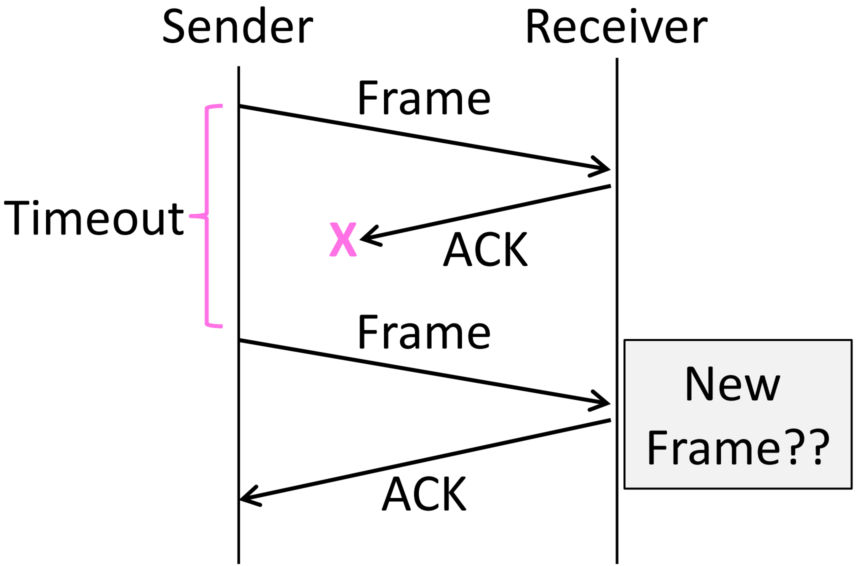
Duplicates

- What happens if an ACK is lost?



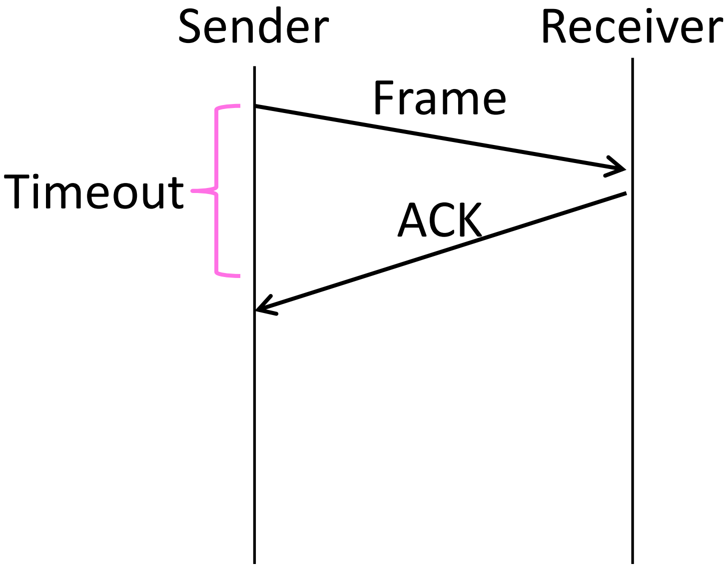
Duplicates (2)

- What happens if an ACK is lost?



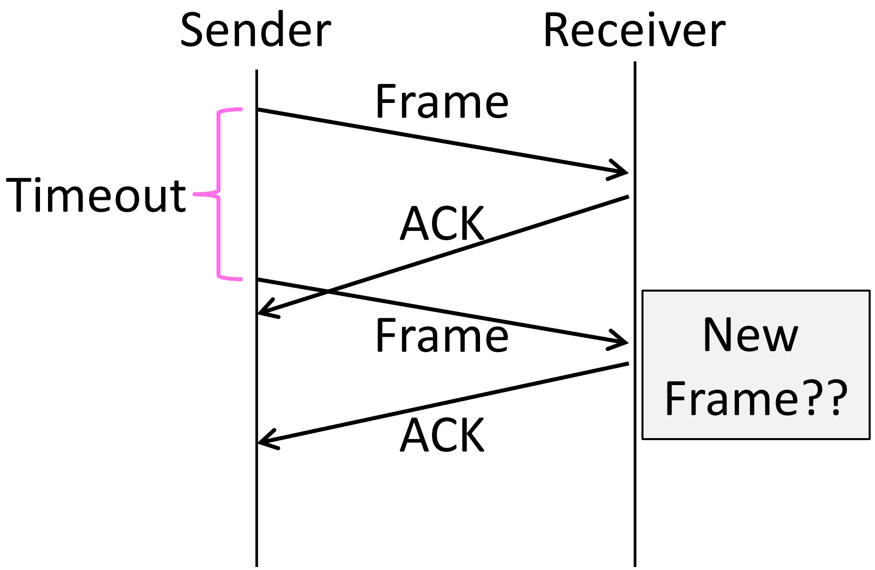
Duplicates (3)

- Or the timeout is early?



Duplicates (4)

- Or the timeout is early?

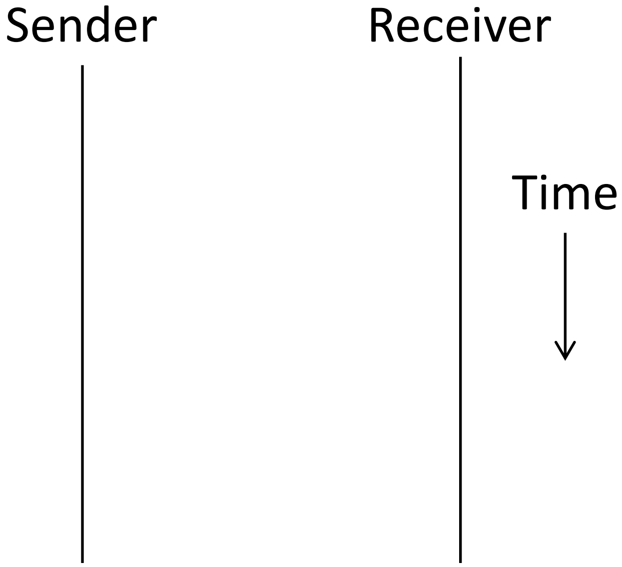


Sequence Numbers

- Frames and ACKs must both carry sequence numbers for correctness
- To distinguish the current frame from the next one, a single bit (two numbers) is sufficient
  - Called <u>Stop-and-Wait</u>

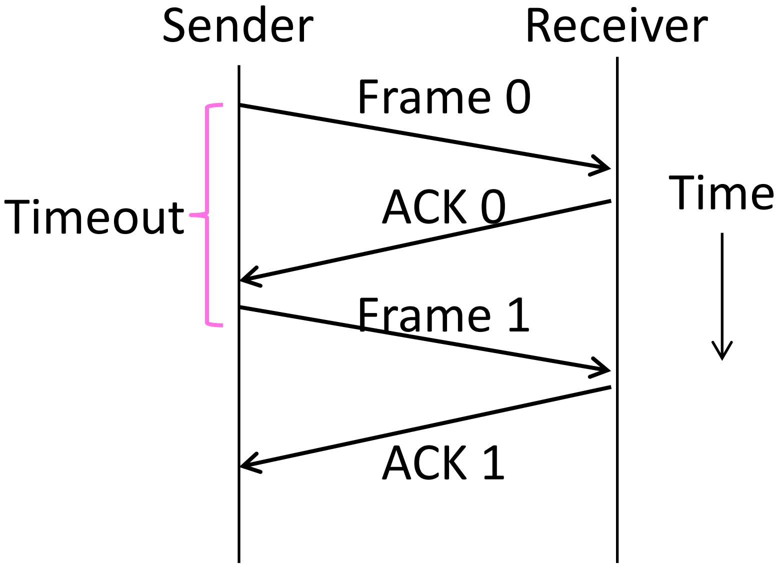
Stop-and-Wait

- In the normal case:



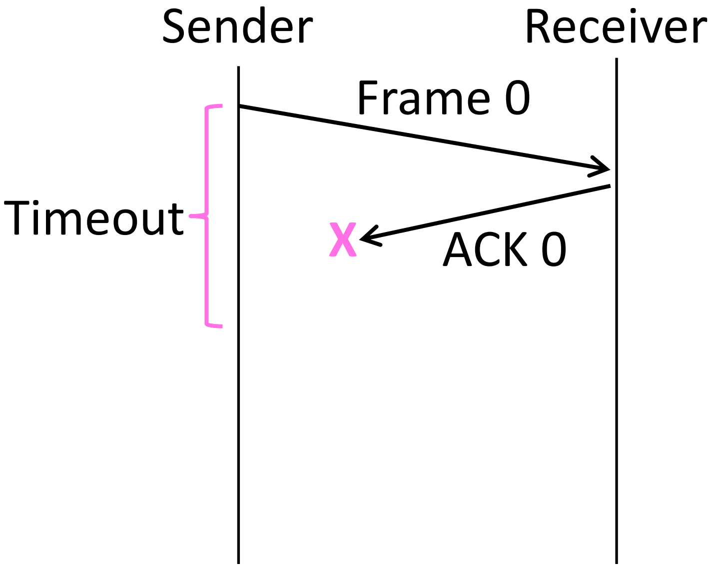
Stop-and-Wait (2)

- In the normal case:



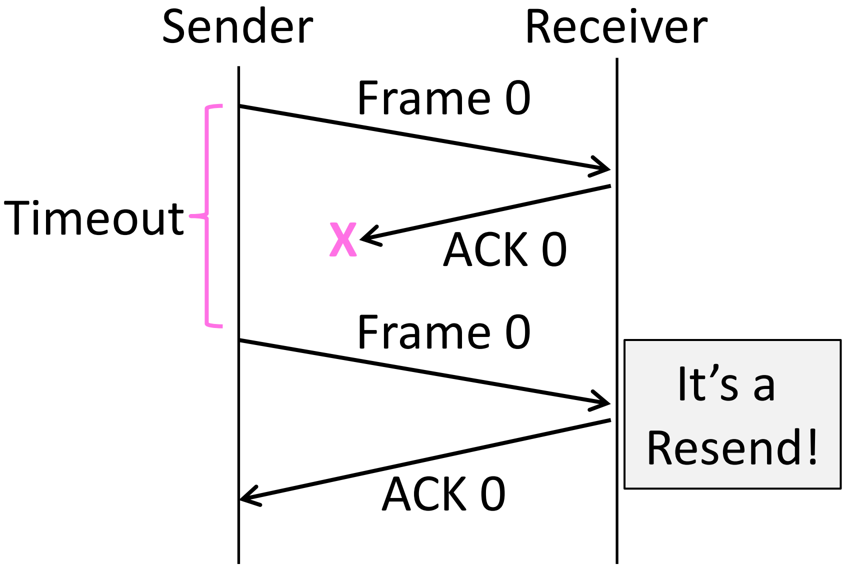
Stop-and-Wait (3)

- With ACK loss:



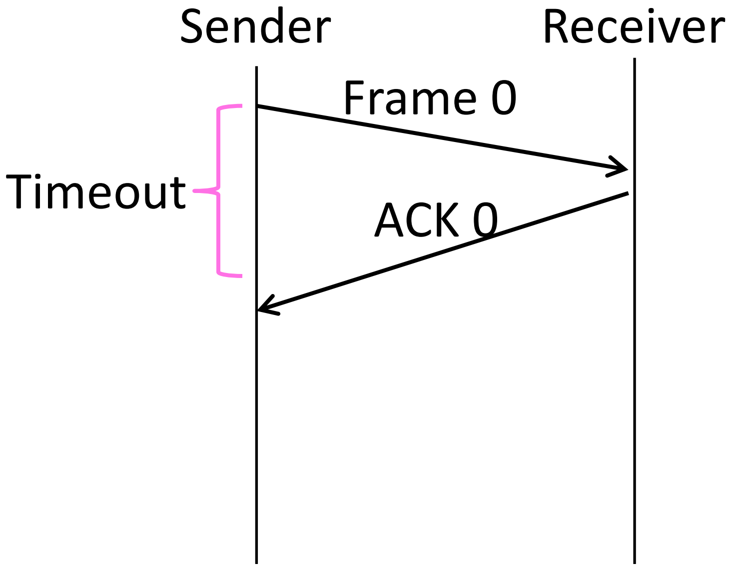
Stop-and-Wait (4)

- With ACK loss:



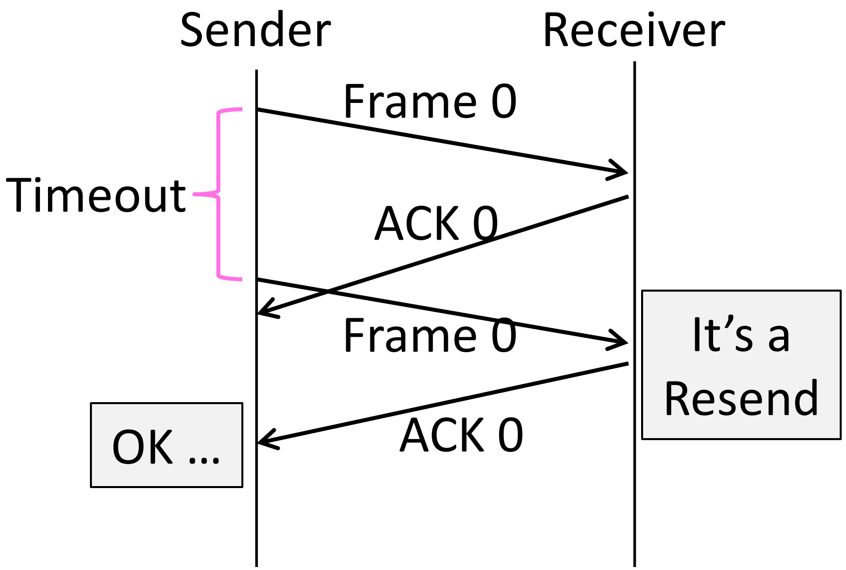
Stop-and-Wait (5)

- With early timeout:



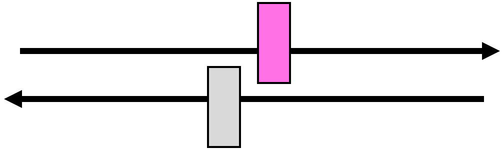
Stop-and-Wait (6)

- With early timeout:



Limitation of Stop-and-Wait

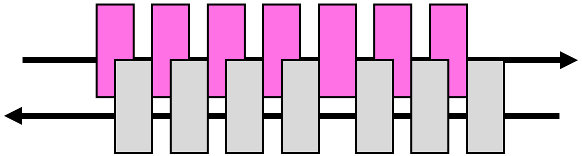
- It allows only a single frame to be outstanding from the sender:
  - Good for LAN, not efficient for high BD



- Ex: R=1 Mbps, D = 50 ms
  - How many frames/sec? If R=10 Mbps?

Sliding Window

- Generalization of stop-and-wait
  - Allows W frames to be outstanding
  - Can send W frames per RTT (=2D)



  - Various options for numbering frames/ACKs and handling loss
    - Will look at along with TCP (later)

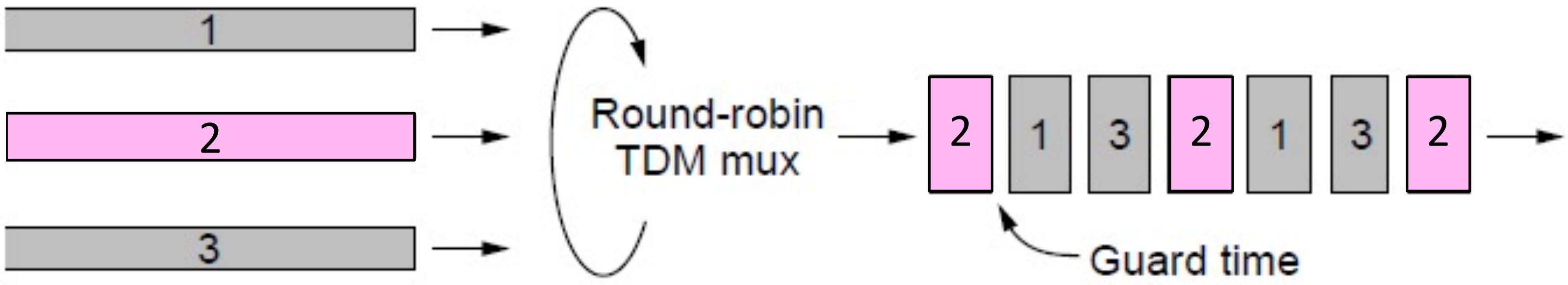
Multiple devices?

- Multiplexing is the network word for the sharing of a resource

- Classic scenario is sharing a link among different users
  - Time Division Multiplexing (TDM) »
  - Frequency Division Multiplexing (FDM) »

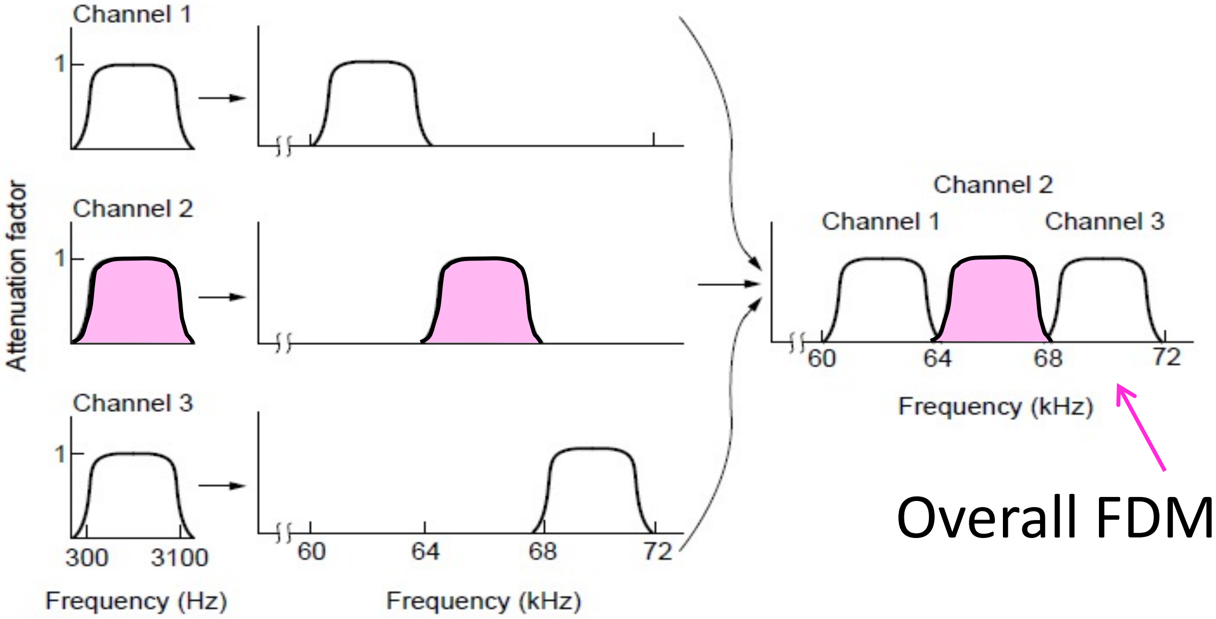
Time Division Multiplexing (TDM)

- Users take turns on a fixed schedule



Frequency Division Multiplexing (FDM)

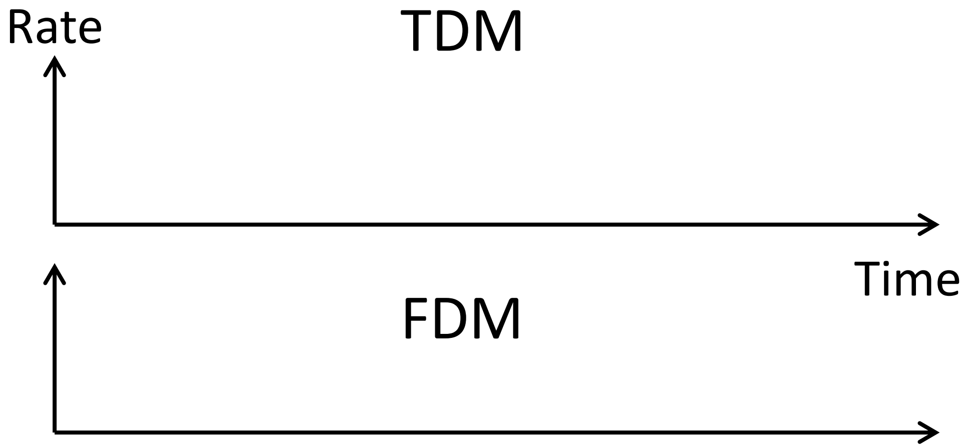
- Put different users on different frequency bands



Overall FDM channel

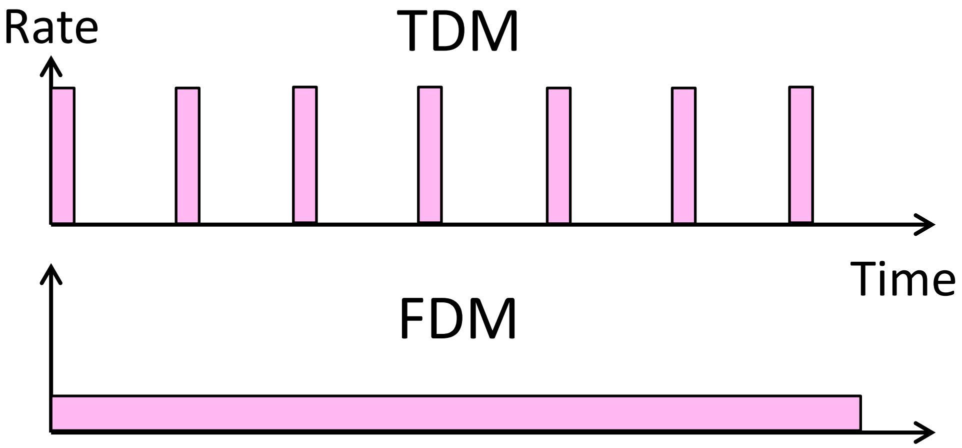
TDM versus FDM

- In TDM a user sends at a high rate a fraction of the time; in FDM, a user sends at a low rate all the time



TDM versus FDM (2)

- In TDM a user sends at a high rate a fraction of the time; in FDM, a user sends at a low rate all the time

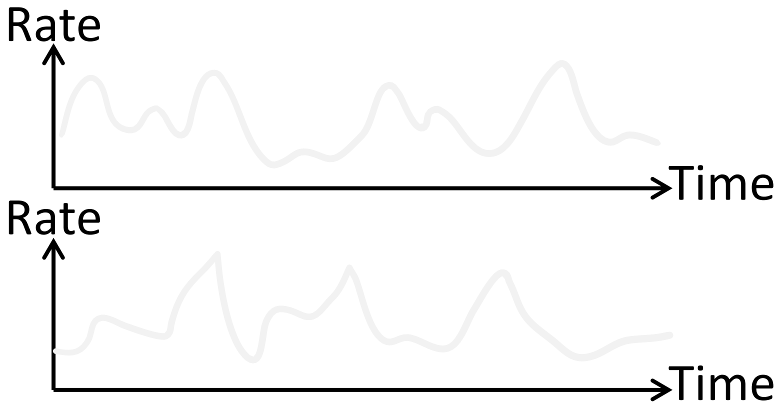


TDM/FDM Usage

- Statically divide a resource
  - Suited for continuous traffic, fixed number of users
- Widely used in telecommunications
  - TV and radio stations (FDM)
  - GSM (2G cellular) allocates calls using TDM within FDM

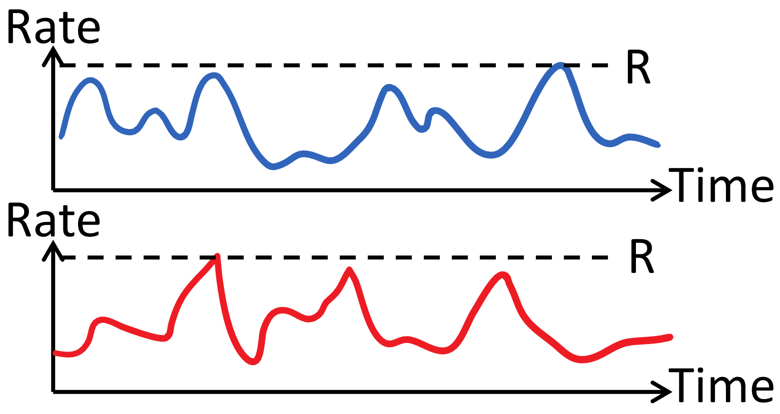
Multiplexing Network Traffic

- Network traffic is bursty
  - ON/OFF sources
  - Load varies greatly over time



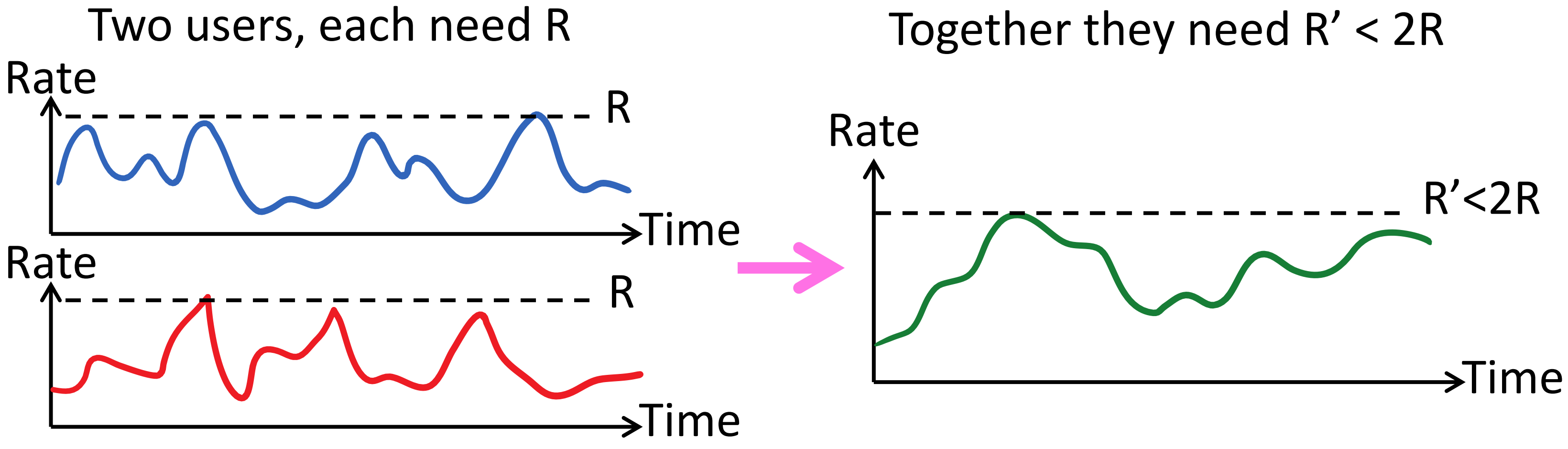
Multiplexing Network Traffic (2)

- Network traffic is bursty
  - Inefficient to always allocate user their ON needs with TDM/FDM



Multiplexing Network Traffic (3)

- Multiple access schemes multiplex users according to their demands – for gains of statistical multiplexing



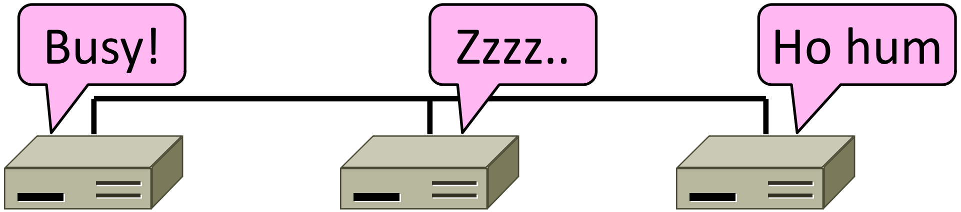
Multiple Access

- We will look at two kinds of multiple access protocols

1. Randomized. Nodes randomize their resource access attempts
   - Good for low load situations
2. Contention-free. Nodes order their resource access attempts
   - Good for high load or guaranteed quality of service situations

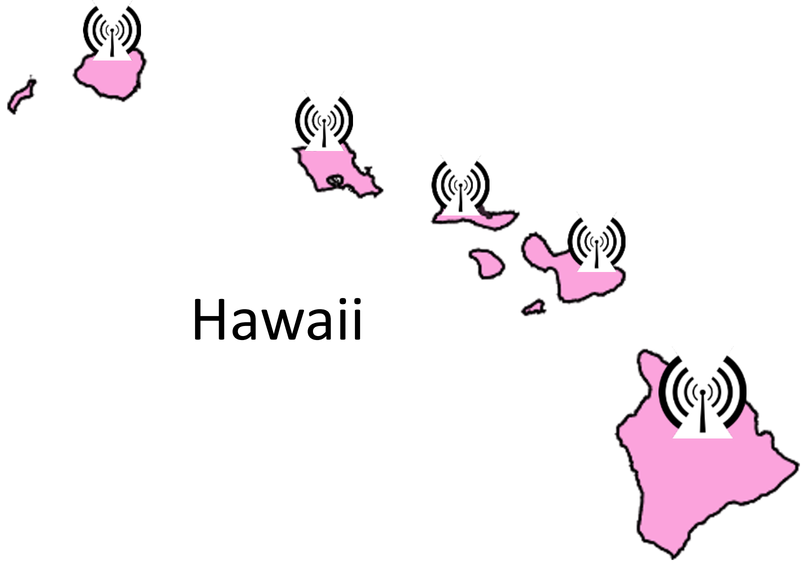
Random MAC

- We will explore random multiple access control (MAC) protocols
  - This is the basis for classic Ethernet
  - Remember: data traffic is bursty



ALOHA Network

- Seminal computer network connecting the Hawaiian islands in the late 1960s
  - When should nodes send?
  - A new protocol was devised by Norm Abramson …



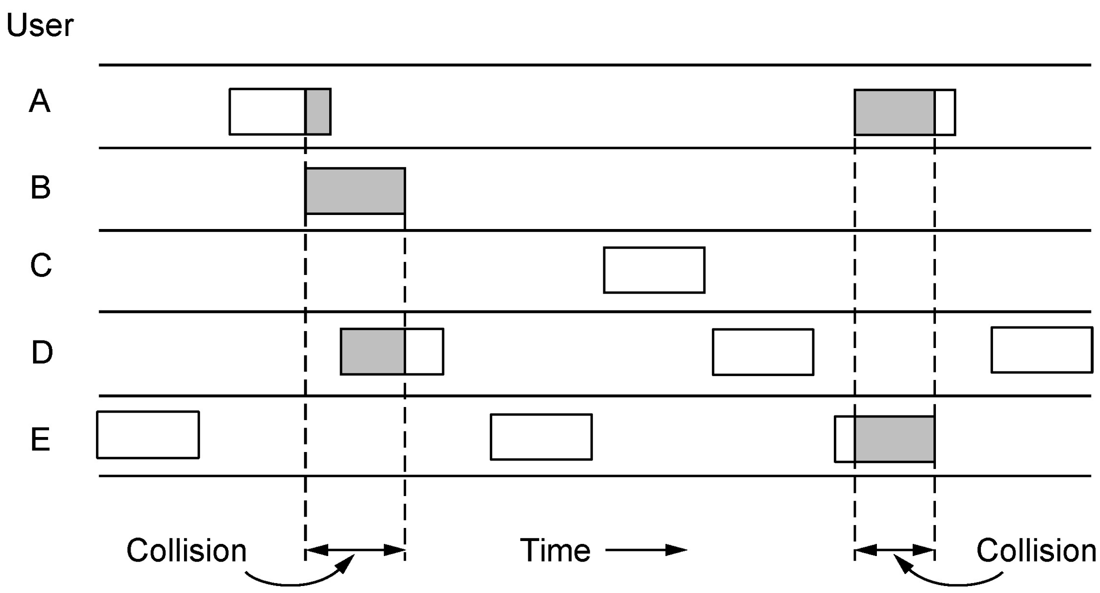
ALOHA Protocol

- Simple idea:
  - Node just sends when it has traffic.
  - If there was a collision (no ACK received) then wait a random time and resend
- That's it!

ALOHA Protocol (2)

- Some frames will be lost, but many may get through…

- Good idea?

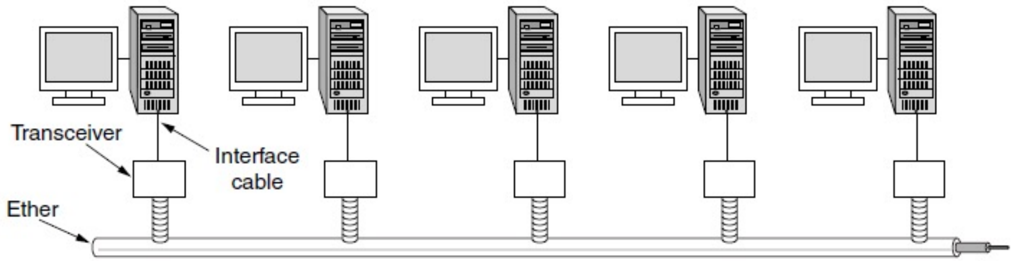


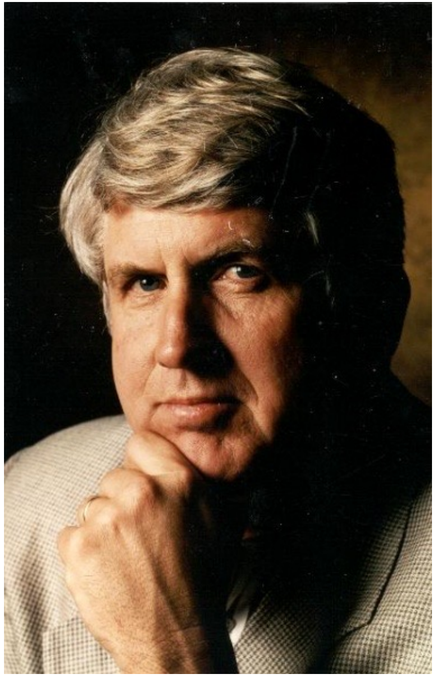
ALOHA Protocol (3)

- Simple, decentralized protocol that works well under low load!
- Not efficient under high load
  - Analysis shows at most 18% efficiency
  - Improvement: divide time into slots and efficiency goes up to 36%
- We’ll look at other improvements

Classic Ethernet

- ALOHA inspired Bob Metcalfe to invent Ethernet for LANs in 1973
  - Nodes share 10 Mbps coaxial cable
  - Hugely popular in 1980s, 1990s





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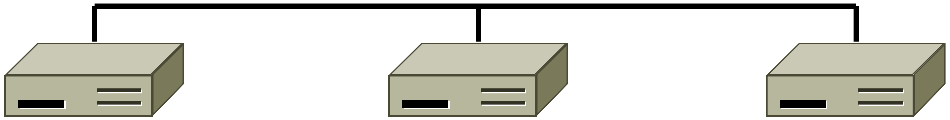
CSMA (Carrier Sense Multiple Access)

- Improve ALOHA by listening for activity before we send (Doh!)
  - Can do easily with wires, not wireless
- So does this eliminate collisions?
  - Why or why not?

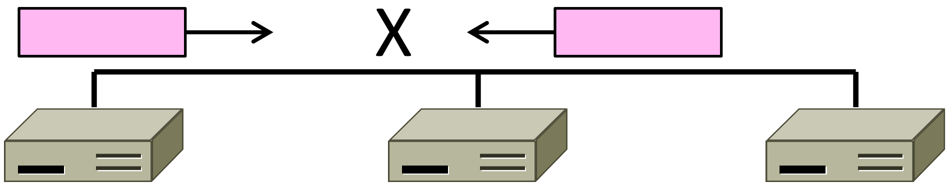
CSMA (2)

- Still possible to listen and hear nothing when another node is sending because of delay



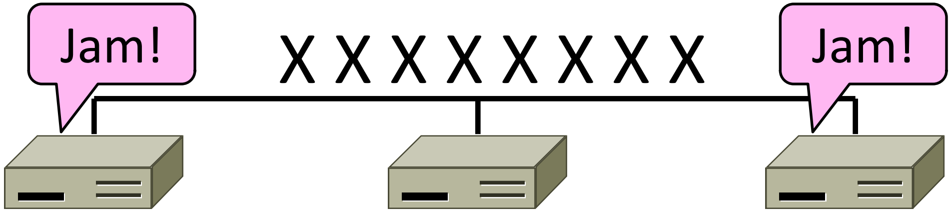
CSMA (3)

- CSMA is a good defense against collisions only when BD is small



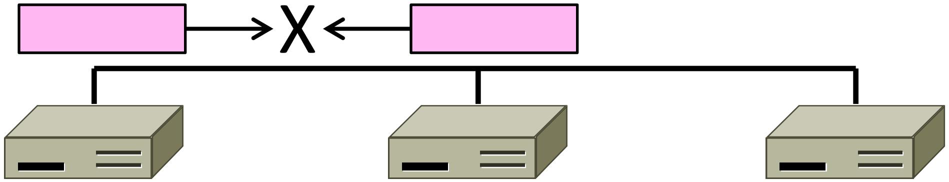
CSMA/CD (with Collision Detection)

- Can reduce the cost of collisions by detecting them and aborting (Jam) the rest of the frame time
  - Again, we can do this with wires



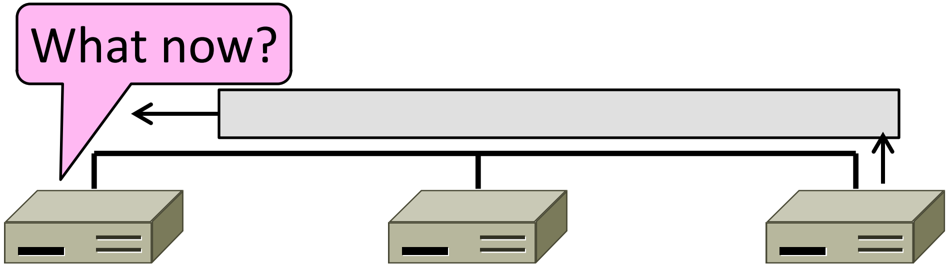
CSMA/CD Complications

- Want everyone who collides to know that it happened
  - Time window in which a node may hear of a collision is 2D seconds



CSMA "Persistence"

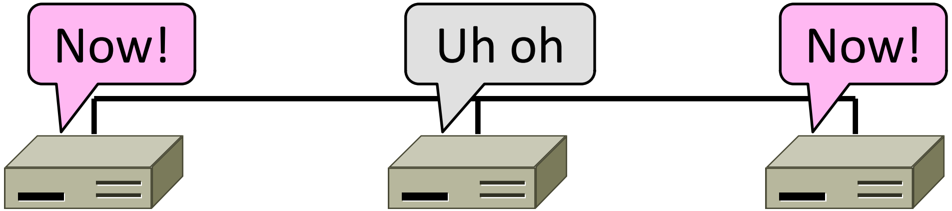
- What should a node do if another node is sending?



- Idea: Wait until it is done, and send

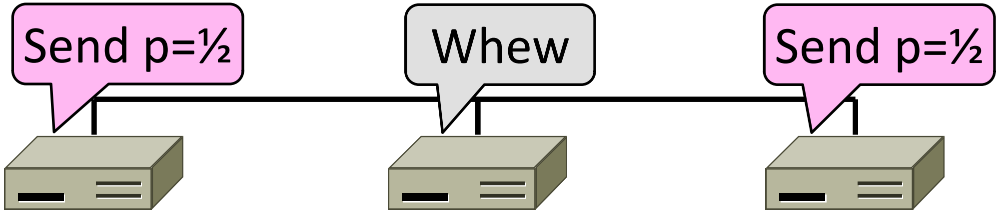
CSMA "Persistence" (2)

- Problem is that multiple waiting nodes will queue up then collide
  - More load, more of a problem



CSMA "Persistence" (3)

- Intuition for a better solution
  - If there are N queued senders, we want each to send next with probability 1/N

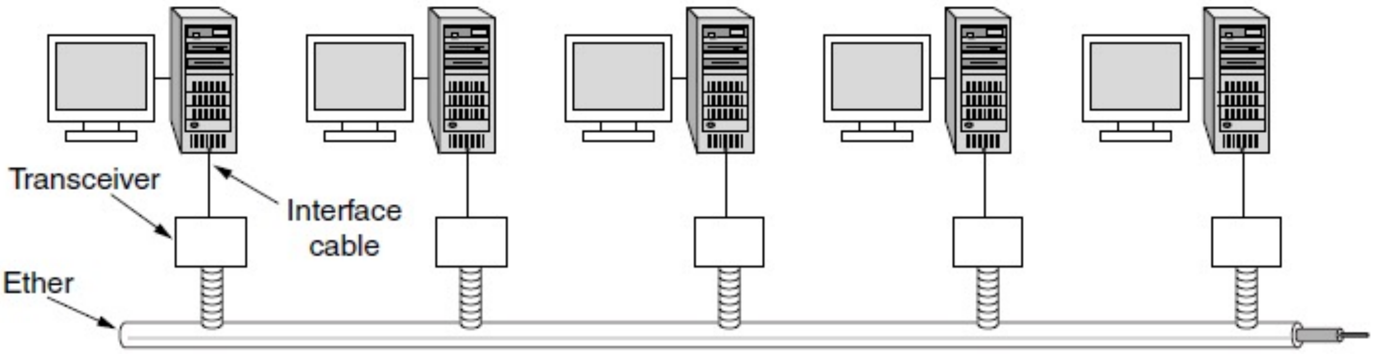


Binary Exponential Backoff (BEB)

- Cleverly estimates the probability
  - 1st collision, wait 0 or 1 frame times
  - 2nd collision, wait from 0 to 3 times
  - 3rd collision, wait from 0 to 7 times …
- BEB doubles interval for each successive collision
  - Quickly gets large enough to work
  - Very efficient in practice

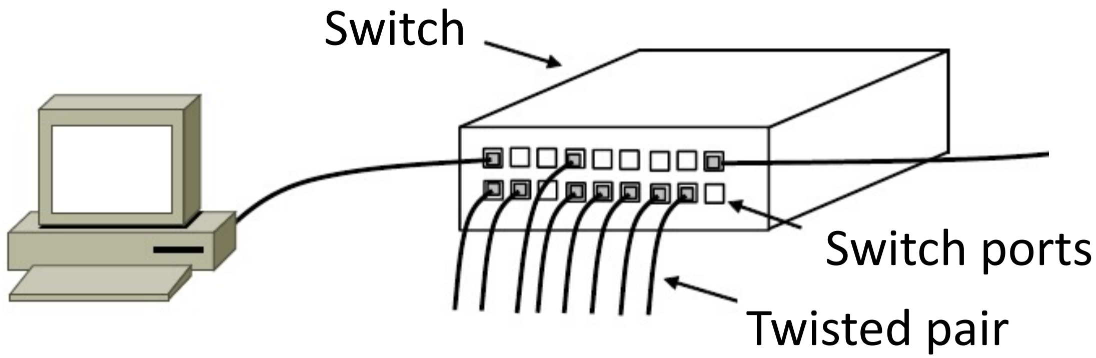
Classic Ethernet, or IEEE 802.3

- Most popular LAN of the 1980s, 1990s
  - 10 Mbps over shared coaxial cable, with baseband signals
  - Multiple access with "1-persistent CSMA/CD with BEB"



Modern Ethernet

- Based on switches, not multiple access, but still called Ethernet
  - We'll get to it in a later segment



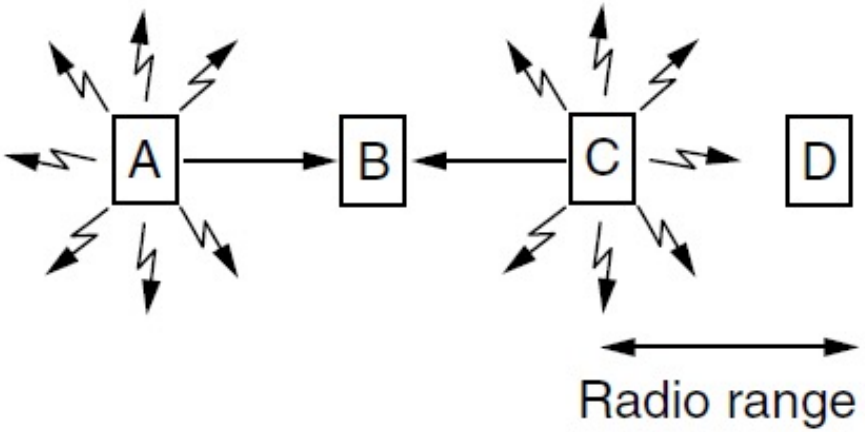
Wireless Complications

- Wireless is more complicated than the wired case (Surprise!)
  1. Nodes may have different areas of coverage – doesn't fit Carrier Sense »
  2. Nodes can't hear while sending – can't Collision Detect »


≠ CSMA/CD

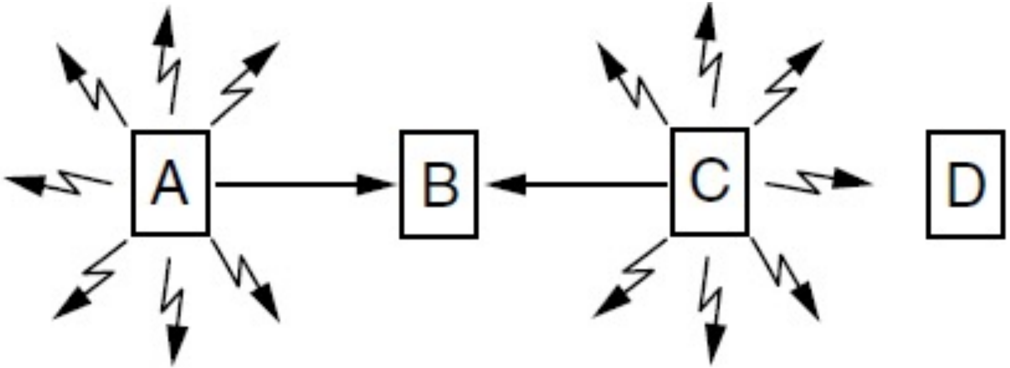
Different Coverage Areas

- Wireless signal is broadcast and received nearby, where there is sufficient SNR



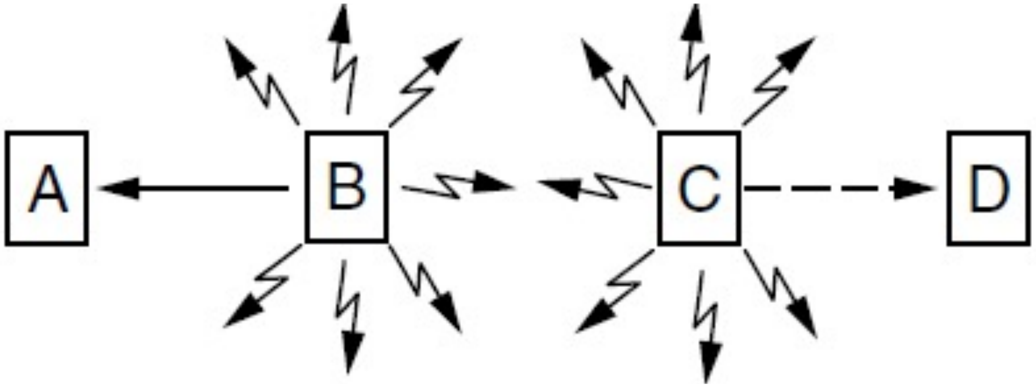
Hidden Terminals

- Nodes A and C are <u>hidden terminals</u> when sending to B
  - Can't hear each other (to coordinate) yet collide at B
  - We want to avoid the inefficiency of collisions



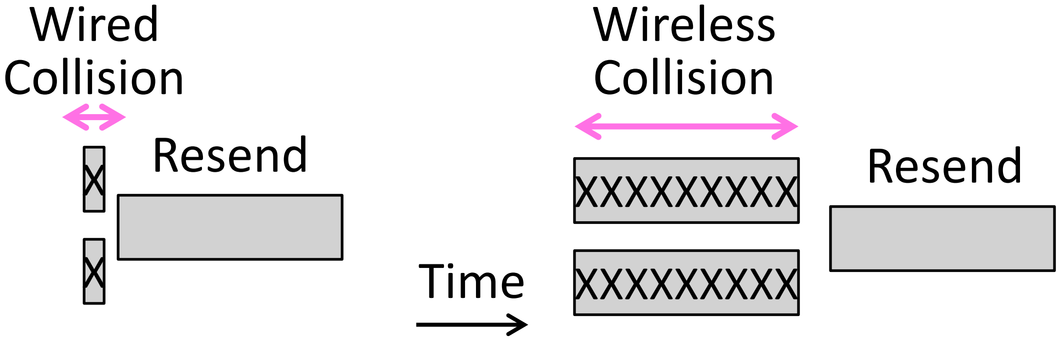
Exposed Terminals

- B and C are exposed terminals when sending to A and D
  - Can hear each other yet don't collide at receivers A and D
  - We want to send concurrently to increase performance



Nodes Can't Hear While Sending

- With wires, detecting collisions (and aborting) lowers their cost
- More wasted time with wireless



Possible Solution: MACA

- MACA uses a short handshake instead of CSMA (Karn, 1990)
  - 802.11 uses a refinement of MACA (later)

- Protocol rules:
  1. A sender node transmits a RTS (Request-To-Send, with frame length)
  2. The receiver replies with a CTS (Clear-To-Send, with frame length)
  3. Sender transmits the frame while nodes hearing the CTS stay silent
  - Collisions on the RTS/CTS are still possible, but less likely

MACA – Hidden Terminals

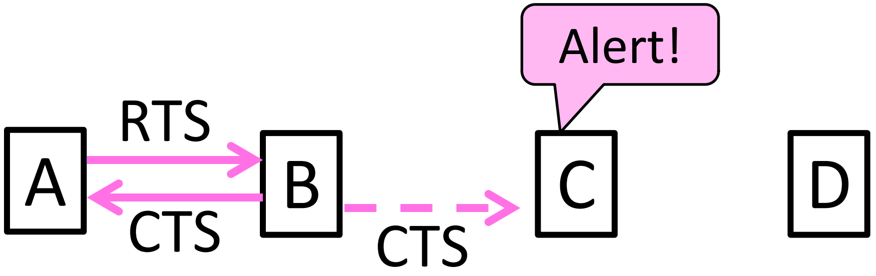
- A→B with hidden terminal C
  1. A sends RTS, to B

MACA – Hidden Terminals (2)

- A→B with hidden terminal C
  2. B sends CTS, to A, and C too

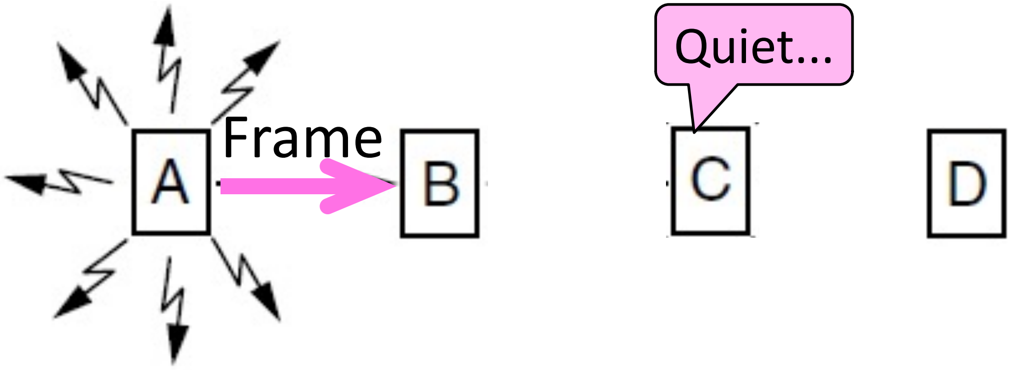
MACA – Hidden Terminals (3)

- A→B with hidden terminal C
  2. B sends CTS, to A, and C too



MACA – Hidden Terminals (4)

- A→B with hidden terminal C
  3. A sends frame while C defers

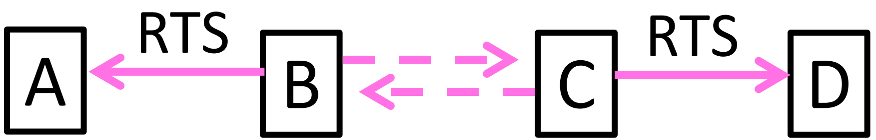


MACA – Exposed Terminals

- B→A, C→D as exposed terminals
  - B and C send RTS to A and D

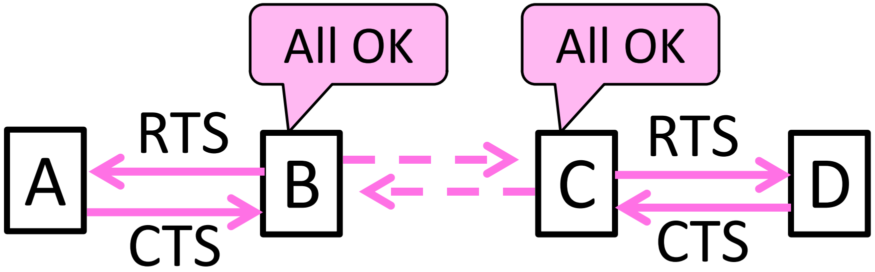
MACA – Exposed Terminals (2)

- B→A, C→D as exposed terminals
  - A and D send CTS to B and C



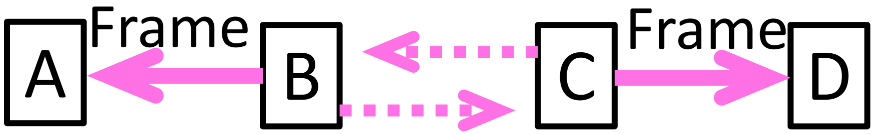
MACA – Exposed Terminals (3)

- B→A, C→D as exposed terminals
  - A and D send CTS to B and C



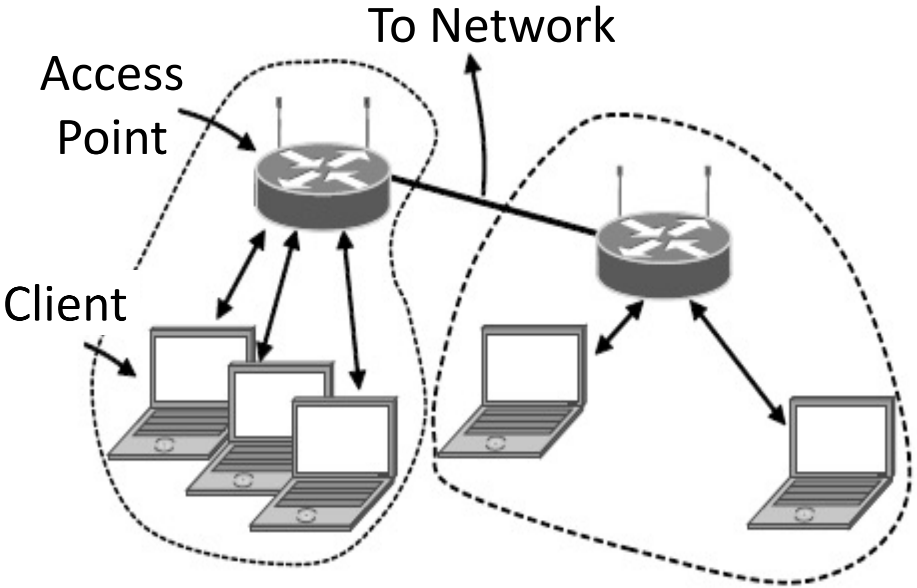
MACA – Exposed Terminals (4)

- B→A, C→D as exposed terminals
  - A and D send CTS to B and C



802.11, or WiFi

- Very popular wireless LAN started in the 1990s
- Clients get connectivity from a (wired) AP (Access Point)
- It's a multi-access problem ☺
- Various flavors have been developed over time
  - Faster, more features



802.11 Physical Layer

- Uses 20/40 MHz channels on ISM bands
  - 802.11b/g/n on 2.4 GHz
  - 802.11 a/n on 5 GHz
- OFDM modulation (except legacy 802.11b)
  - Different amplitudes/phases for varying SNRs
  - Rates from 6 to 54 Mbps plus error correction
  - 802.11n uses multiple antennas; see “802.11 with Multiple Antennas for Dummies”

802.11 CSMA/CA for Multiple Access

- Sender avoids collisions by inserting small random gaps
  - E.g., when both B and C send, C picks a smaller gap, goes first