

CS144

An Introduction to Computer Networks

The Link Layer *aka Physical Layer*



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Goals for today

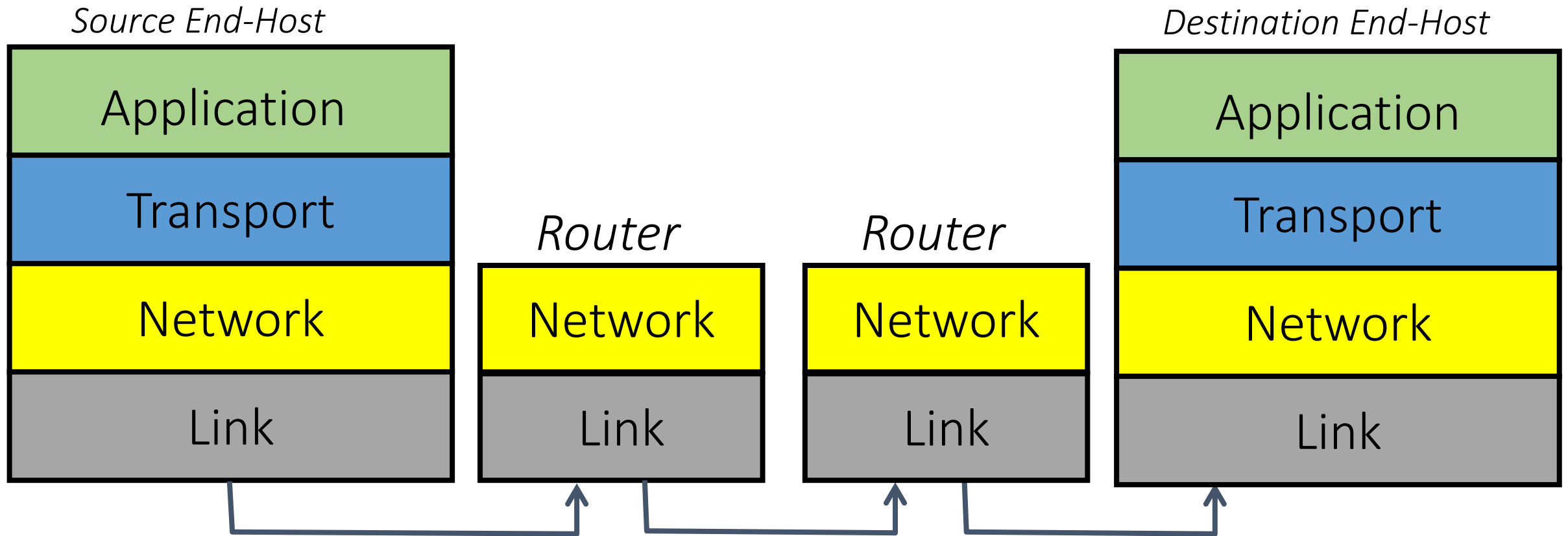
1. **Capacity:**

What determines the maximum data rate of a link?

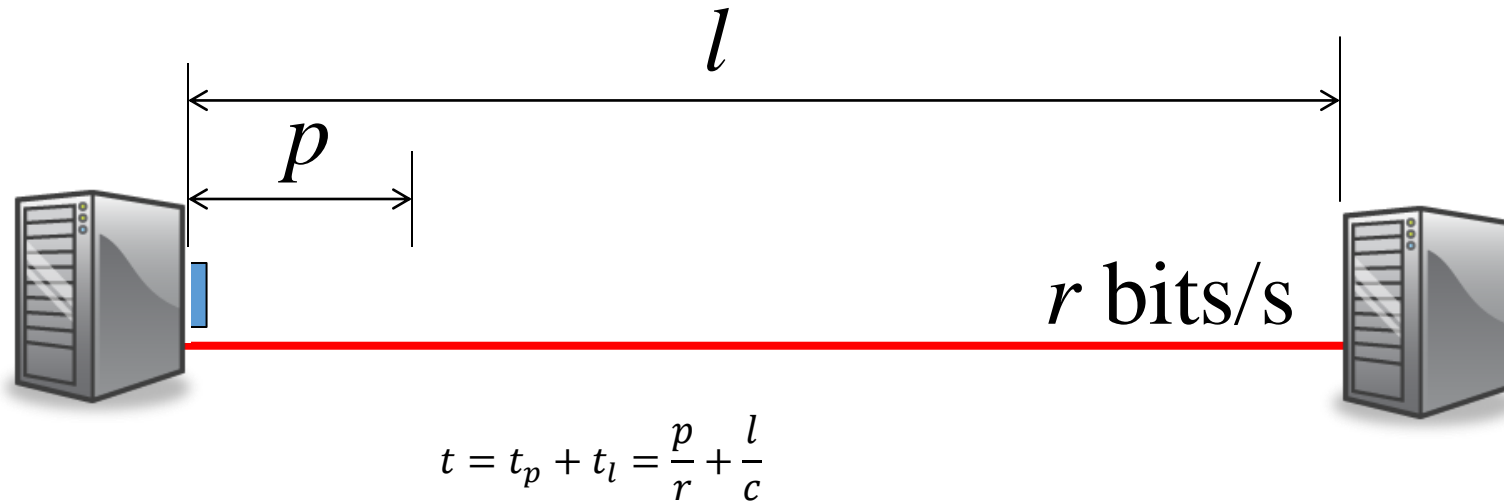
- ▶ How can we get close to the maximum capacity?

2. **Clocks:** Two communicating entities cannot have exactly the same clock or frequency. How can they communicate?

The 4 Layer Internet Model

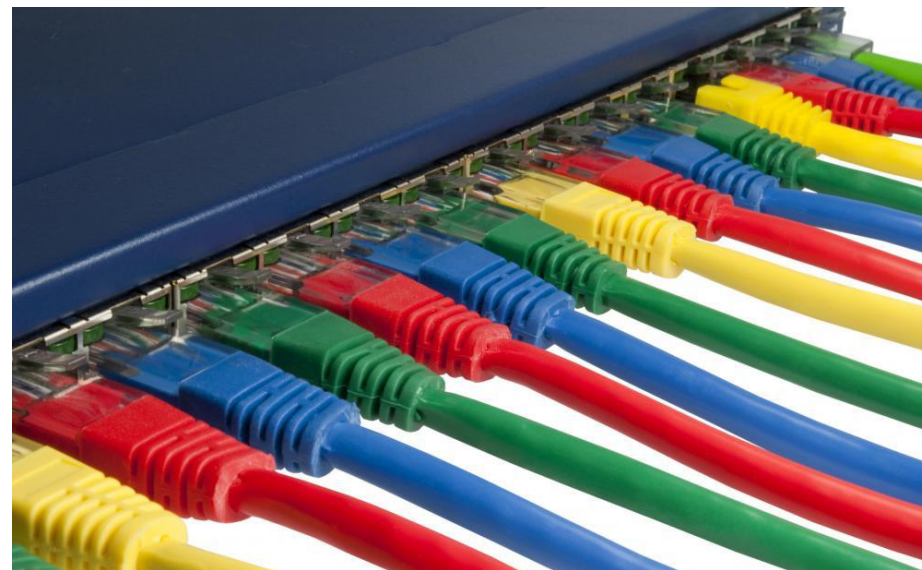


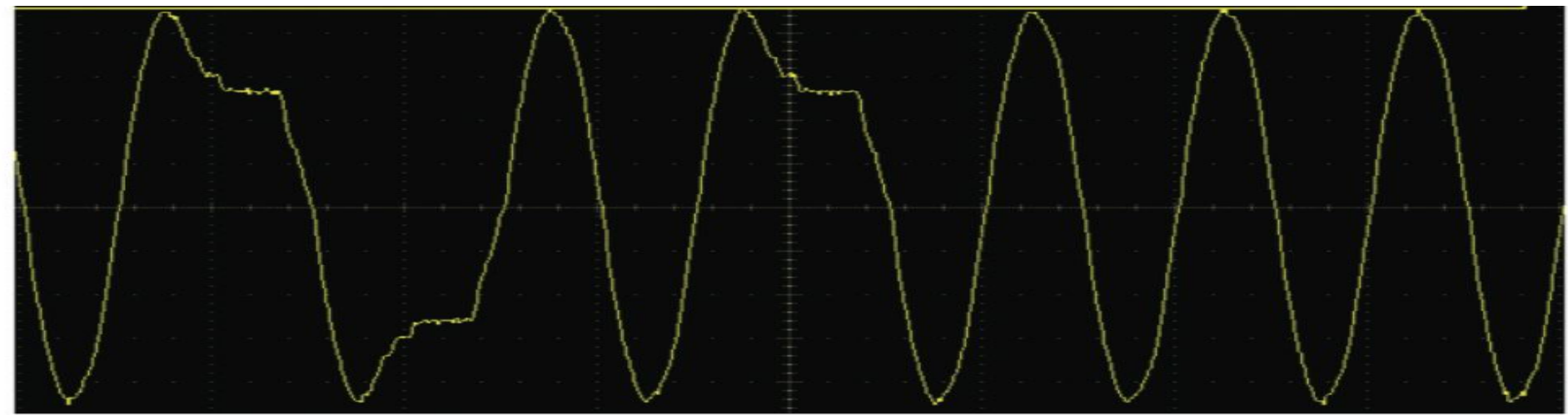
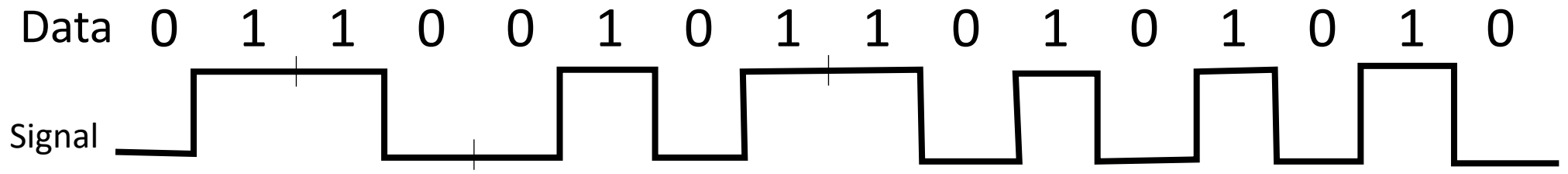
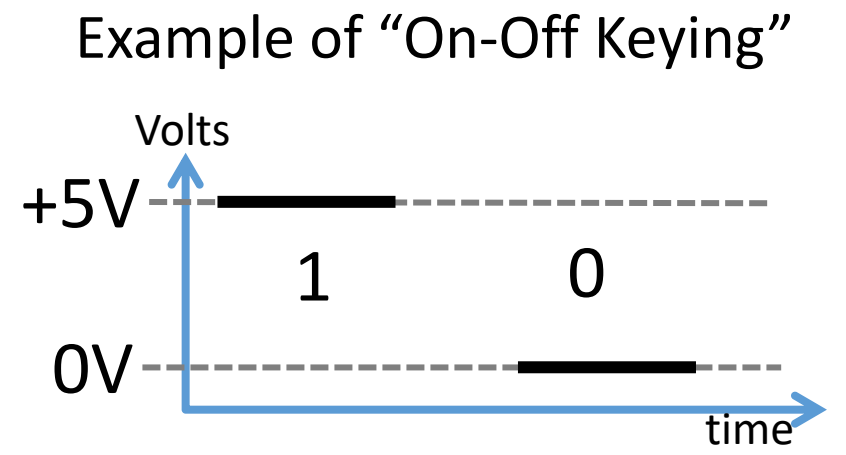
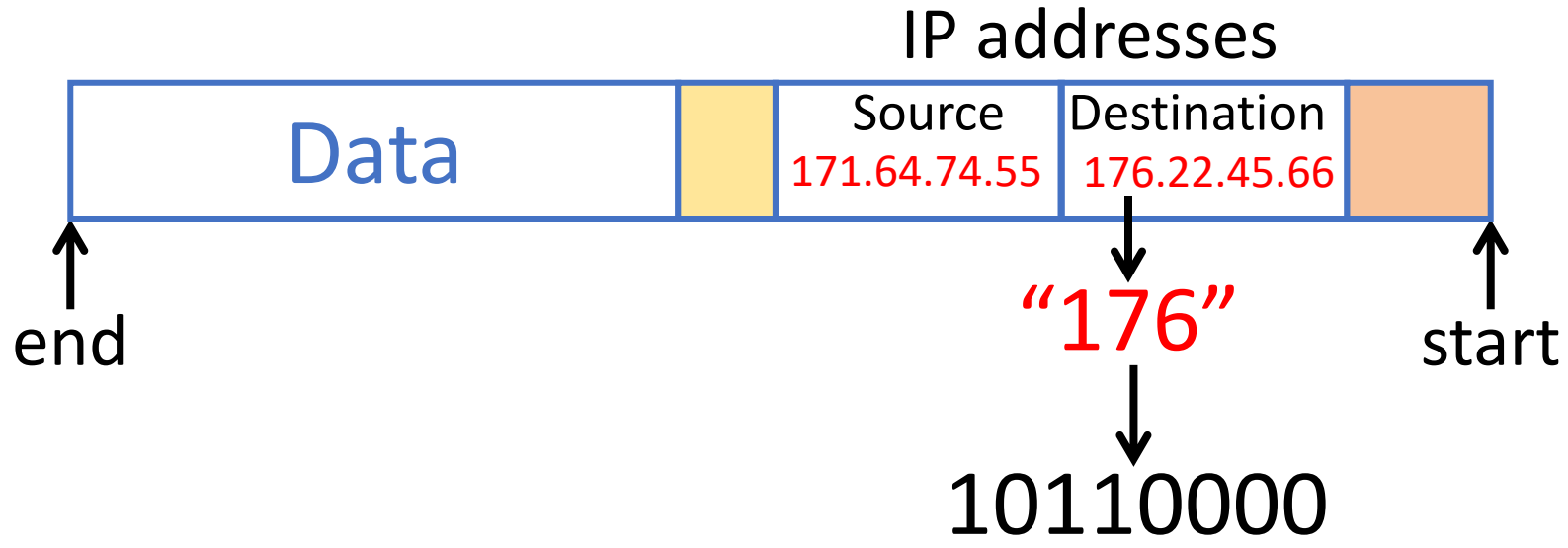
Total time to send a packet across a link: The time from when the first bit is transmitted until the last bit arrives.



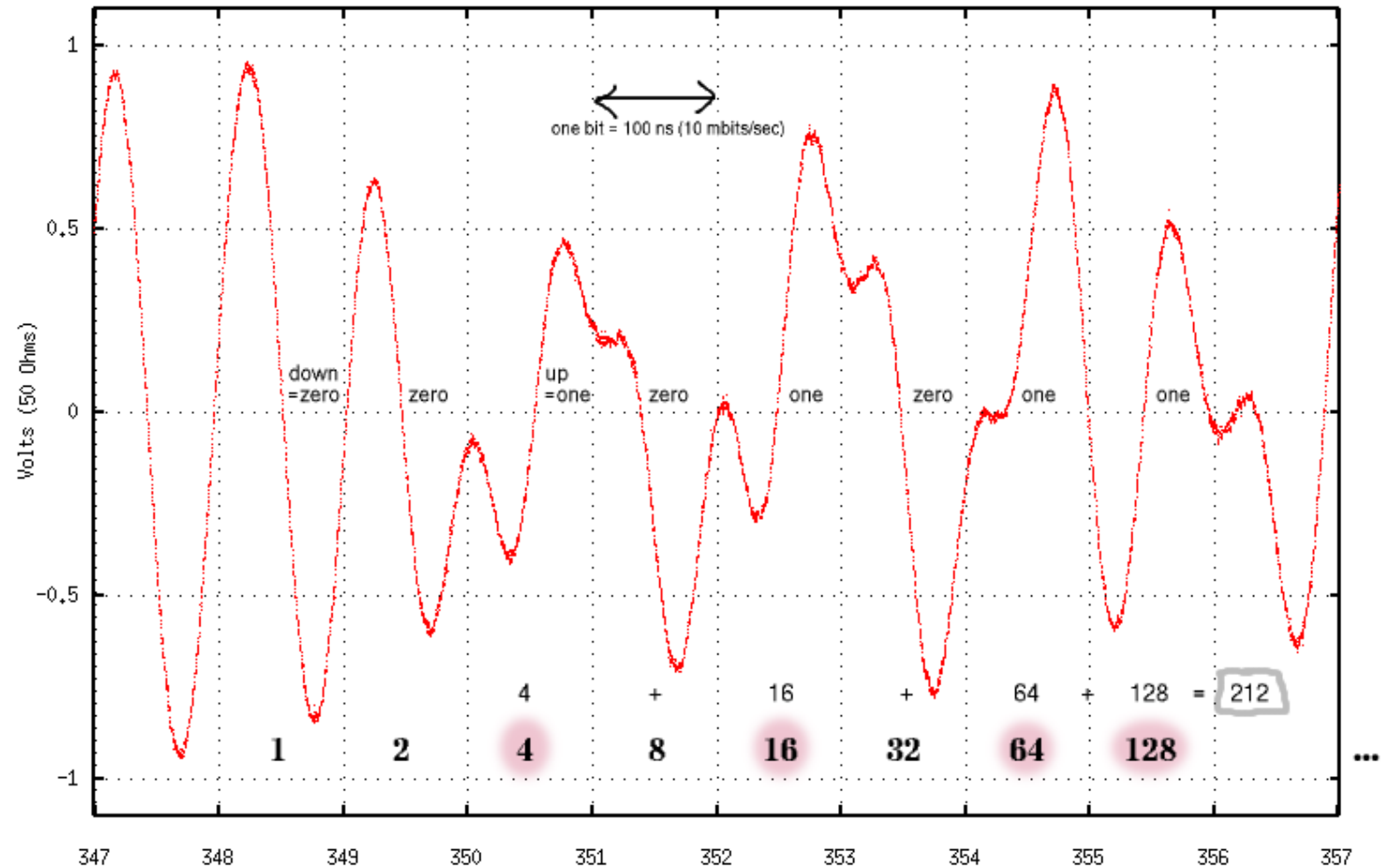
Example: A 100bit packet takes $10 + 5 = 15\mu\text{s}$ to be sent at 10Mb/s over a 1km link.







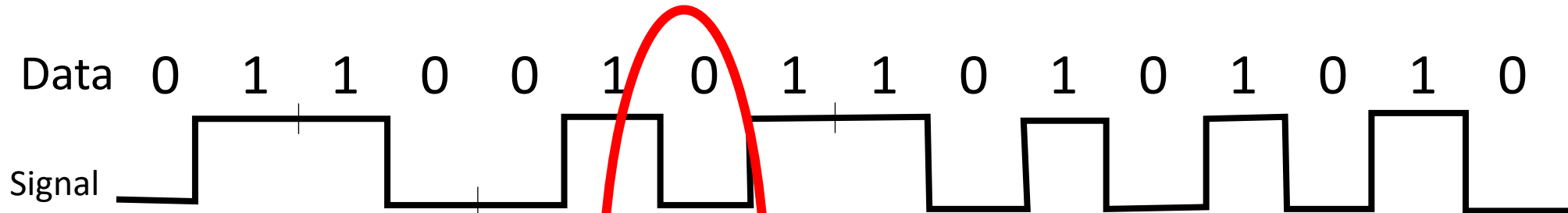
Keith: So
what was
this about?



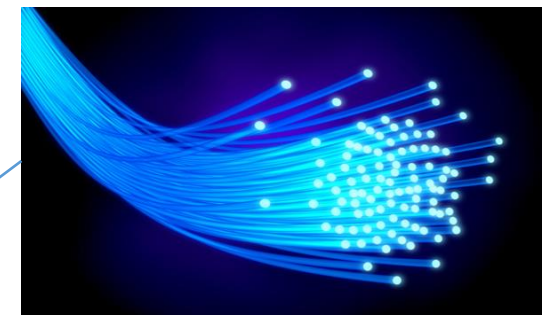
What determines the data rate?

Q: What determines the steepness (i.e. rate) of this change?

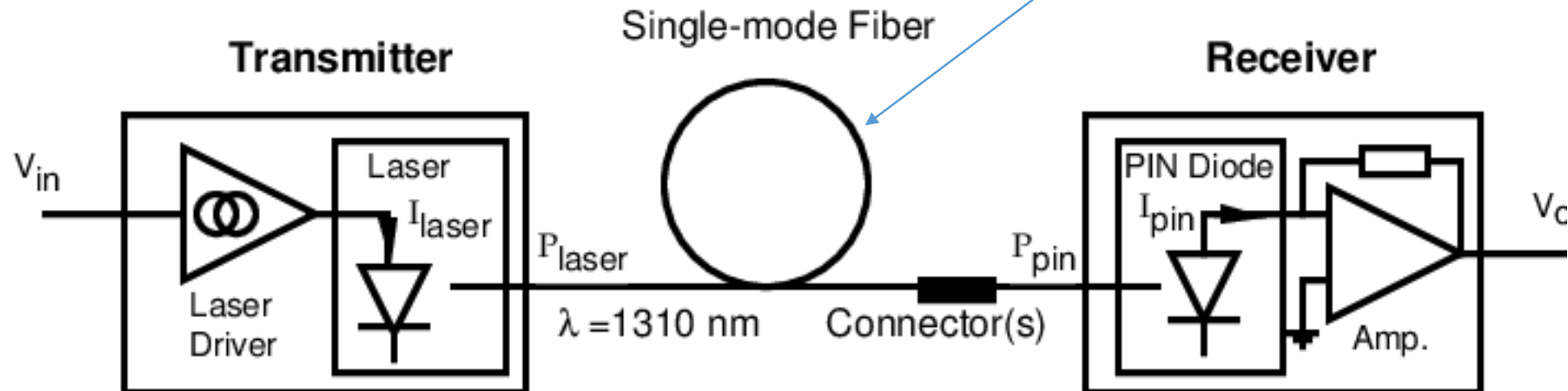
Q: How does the rate of change affect the data rate?



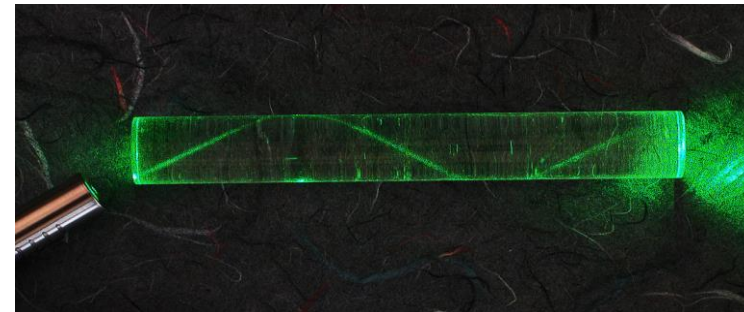
Fiber-optic communication links



Each fiber is smaller than a human hair



Commercial lasers can be switched on/off at rates above 100GHz



Light travels through the fiber because of total internal reflection

Characteristics of fiber-optical links

High bandwidth:

- Lasers can be switched on/off very fast. (“very steep rate of change”)
- The signal remains the same for a long distance (“low dispersion or spreading”)
- Multiple signals of different colors can be sent over a cable simultaneously (“wavelength division multiplexing” or WDM).

Low signal loss: Typically 0.3dB/km (*)

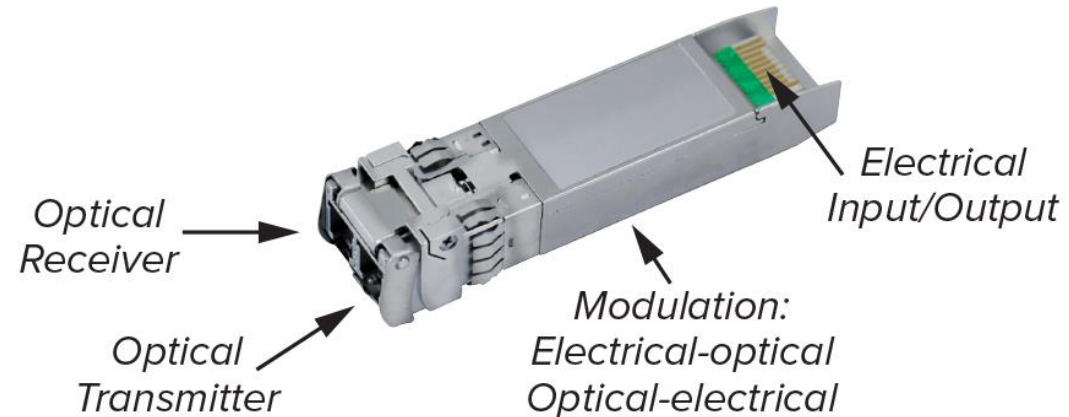
Electromagnetic interference immunity: An opaque jacket means light cannot enter the cable. Total internal reflection means it is very hard to detect the signal outside the cable.

$$(*) \text{ Power loss (dB)} = 10 \log_{10} \frac{P_1}{P_0}$$

For example: If power is reduced from 1W to 1mW, we would write: Power loss (dB) = $10 \log_{10} \frac{P_1}{P_0} = -30\text{dB}$, or simply a “30dB loss”. 0.3dB/km means about 7% is lost per km.

Fiber-optic communication links

Optical fibers and modules on the front panel of communication equipment



Typically used for very long and/or very fast communications

- Long haul links in the public Internet, e.g. 200km @ 400 Gb/s
- To connect buildings on campus, e.g. 2km @ 100Gb/s
- Between racks of equipment in a data center, e.g. 50m @ 100Gb/s
- World-record NEC (2011) 101.7 Tb/s over 370 WDM channels at 165km!

What determines the maximum data rate of a cable, fiber, wireless link, etc?

Q: What happens if we put the “bits” closer and closer together?

Q: If we can't put them closer together, how can we increase the number bits of information transmitted per second?

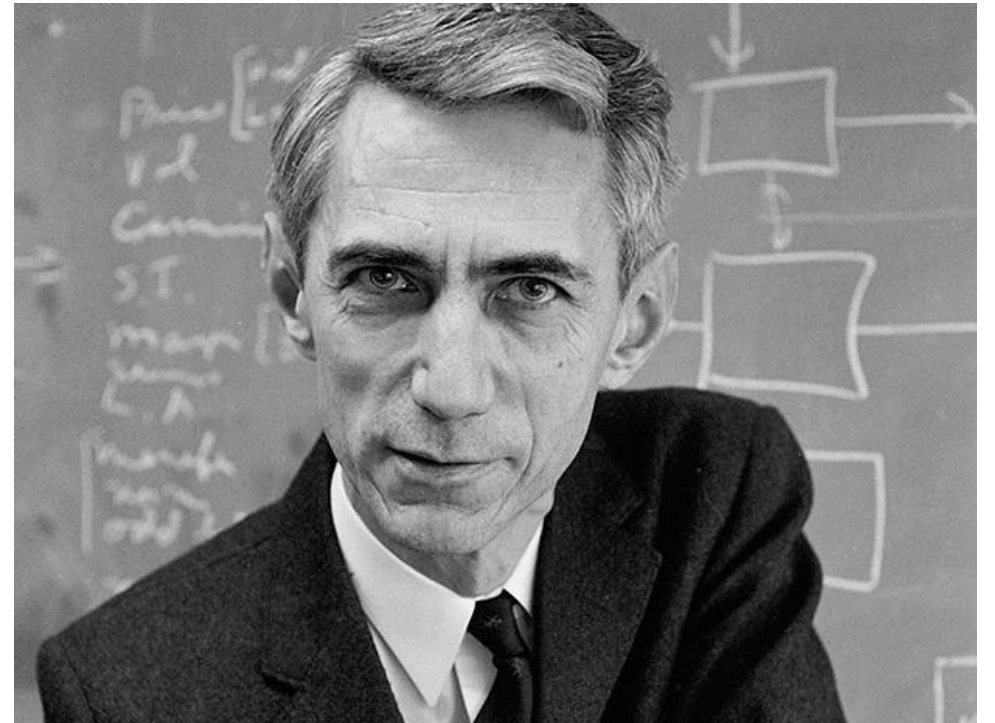
Q: What other factors limit the number of bits per second we can transmit?

Q: Are there any other factors other than “Bandwidth” and “Noise” that determine the maximum data rate of a channel?

Claude Shannon

1937: MS Thesis proposed using Boolean algebra for digital circuit design.

1948: “A Mathematical Theory of Communication” led to the field of **Information Theory** and **Shannon Capacity**



Claude Shannon (1916 – 2001)
Mathematician, Electrical Engineer

Shannon's Juggling Machines

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=dyc5bgpY86c>



Shannon Capacity

- Shannon capacity is the maximum error-free rate we can transmit through a channel (e.g. wire, fiber, air, ...).
- The maximum “data rate”.
- Under some mild assumptions:


$$\text{Shannon Capacity} = B \log_2 \left(1 + \frac{S}{N} \right)$$

- In other words, it depends only on Bandwidth and Signal-to-Noise ratio!
- EE376A: Information Theory. Wow.

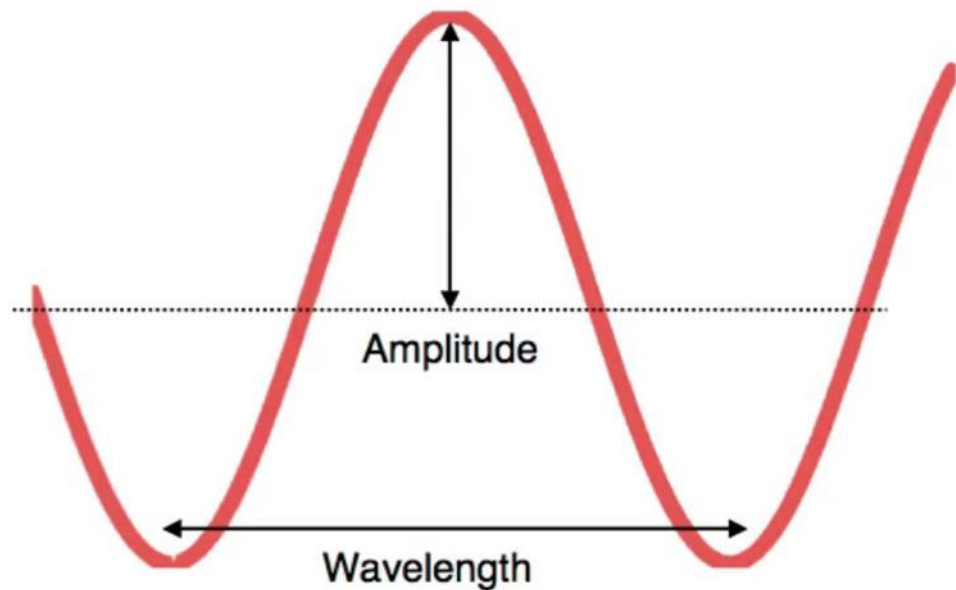
Shannon Capacity

But: It doesn't tell us how to achieve the capacity.

Hence: Huge numbers of researchers and engineers have spent decade trying to approach it, in different contexts:

- WiFi
- Cellular telephones
- Ethernet
- Optical Fibers
- ADSL Broadband access
- Modems 
- ...

Analog signals



Frequency = $1/\text{wavelength}$

Bandwidth: size of frequency range

Phase: location of peak within the wavelength

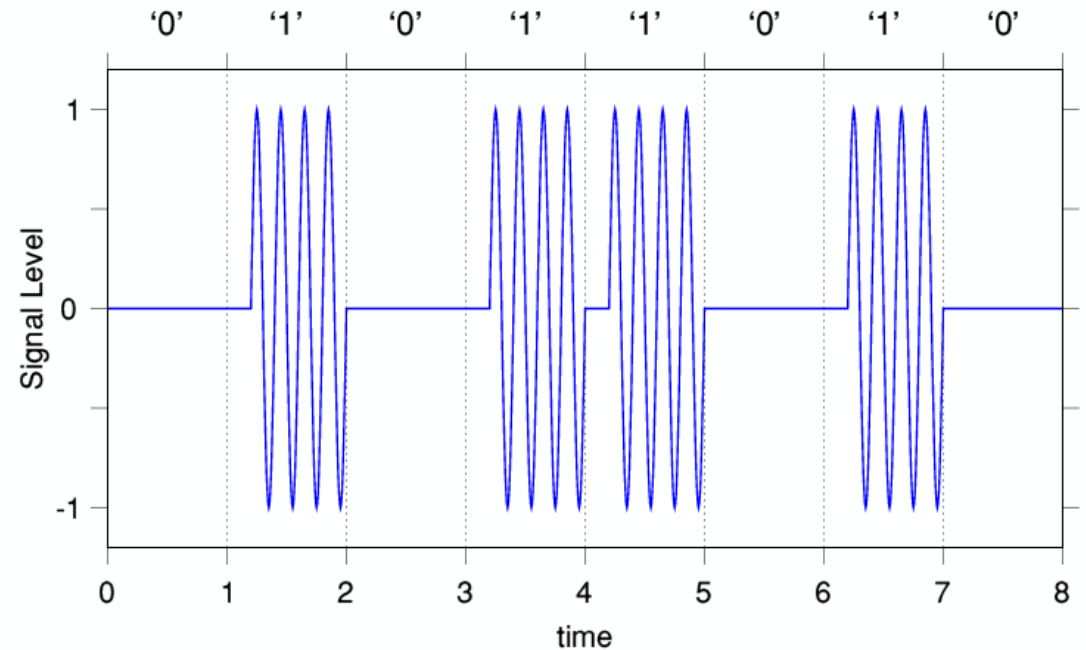


Figure 19.1 Simple on/off binary keying.

On-Off Keying (OOK)

- One frequency
- 2 amplitudes

Sending 0s and 1s

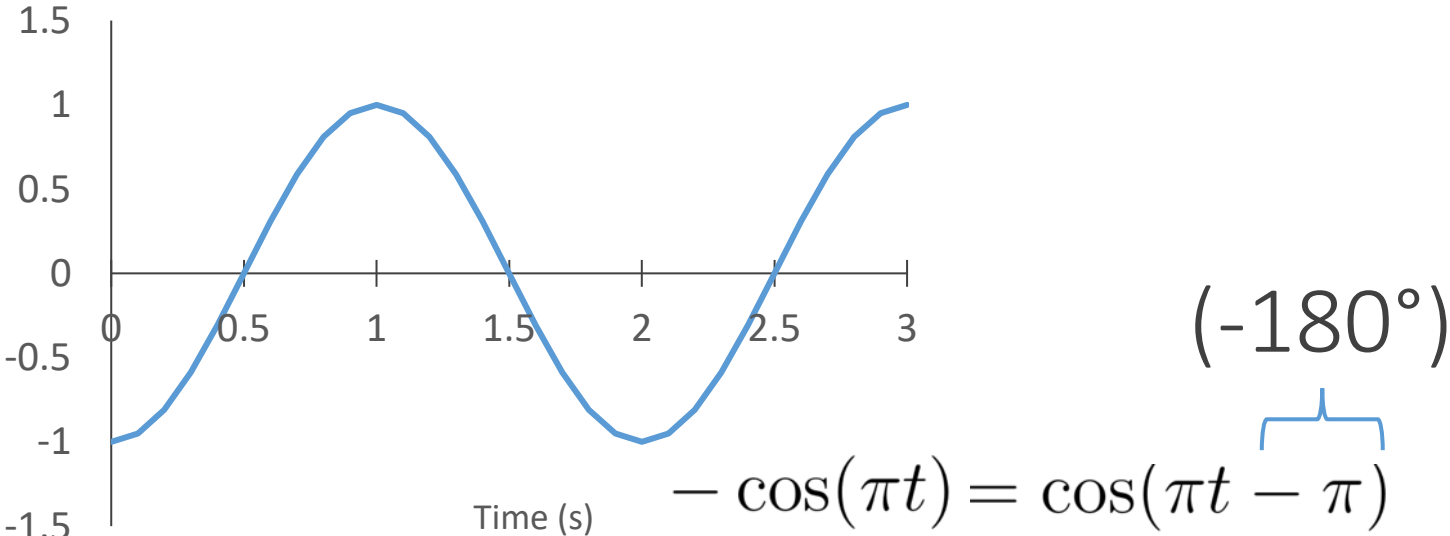
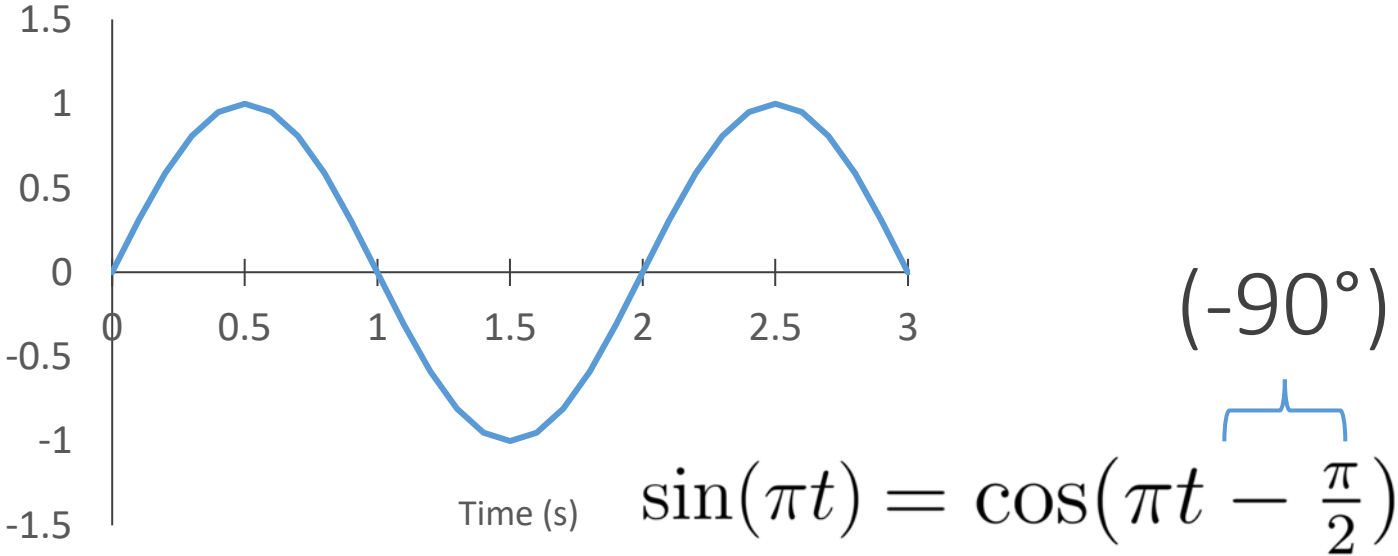
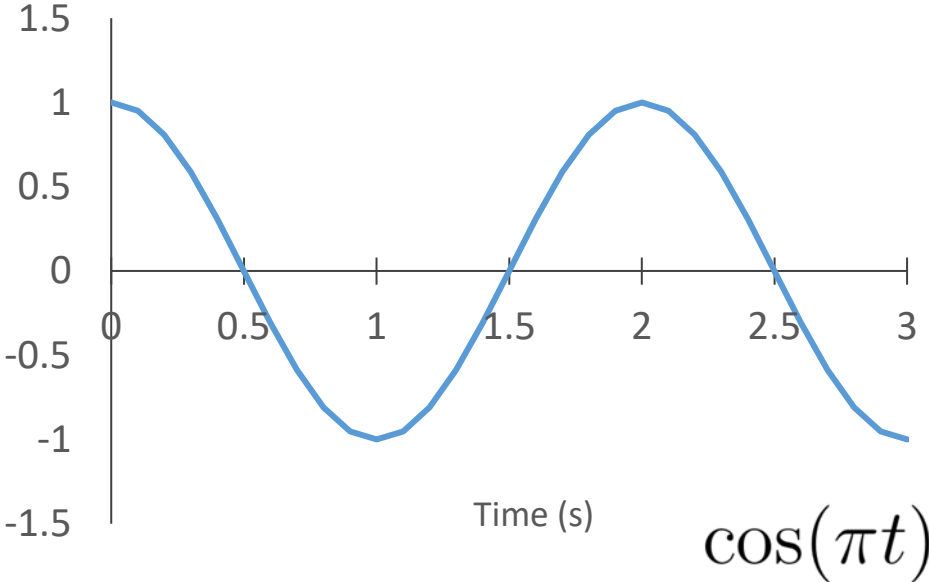
Frequency Shift Keying (FSK)

Amplitude Shift Keying (ASK)

Phase Shift Keying (PSK)

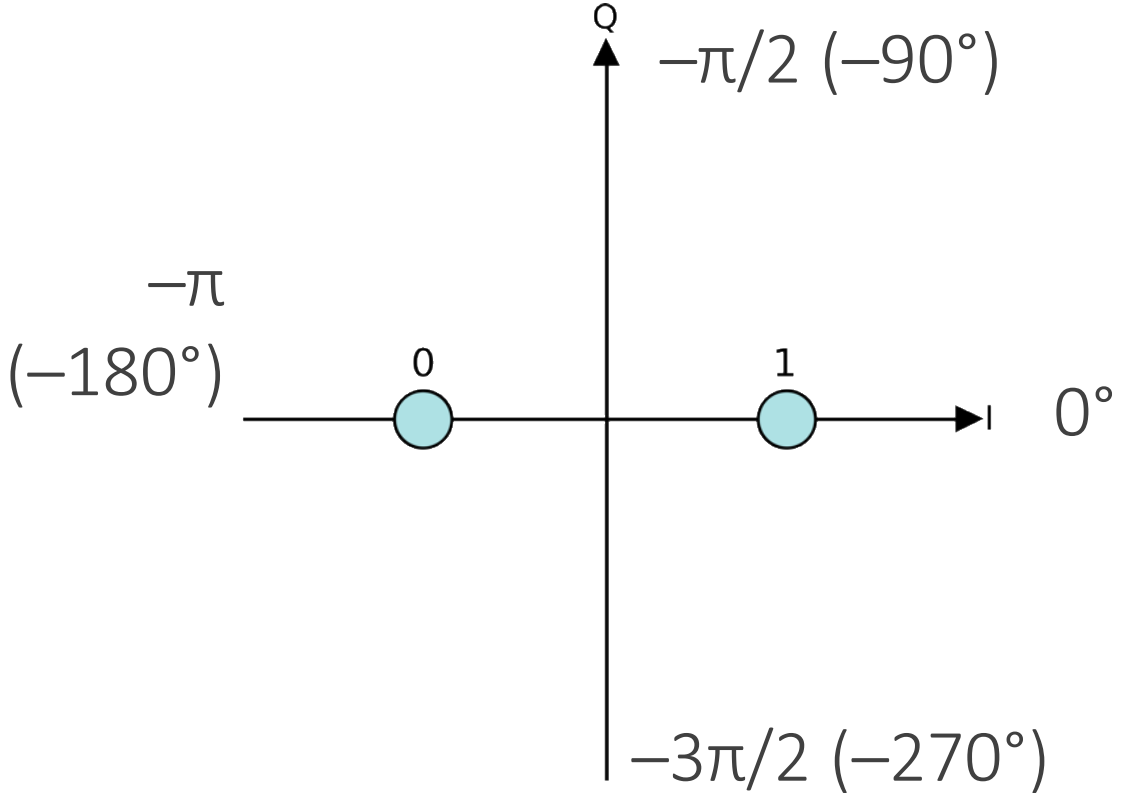
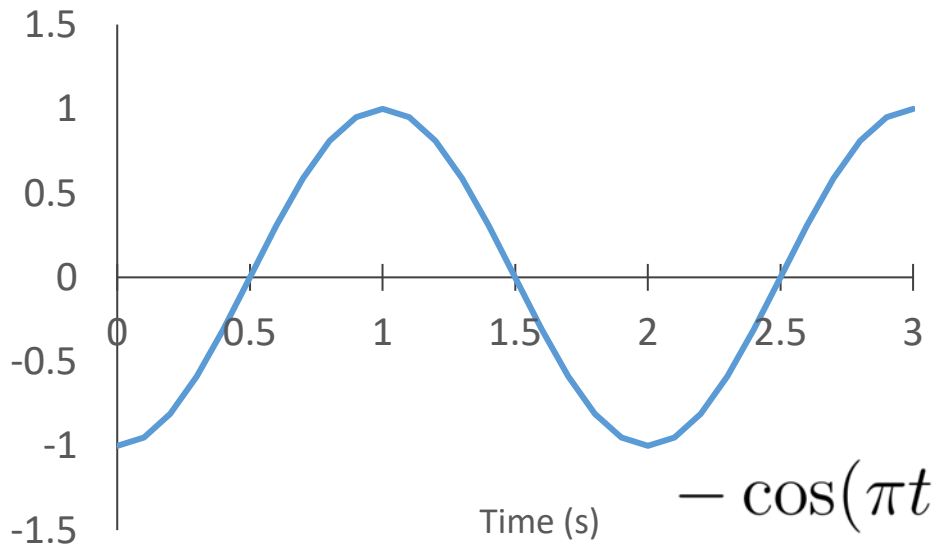
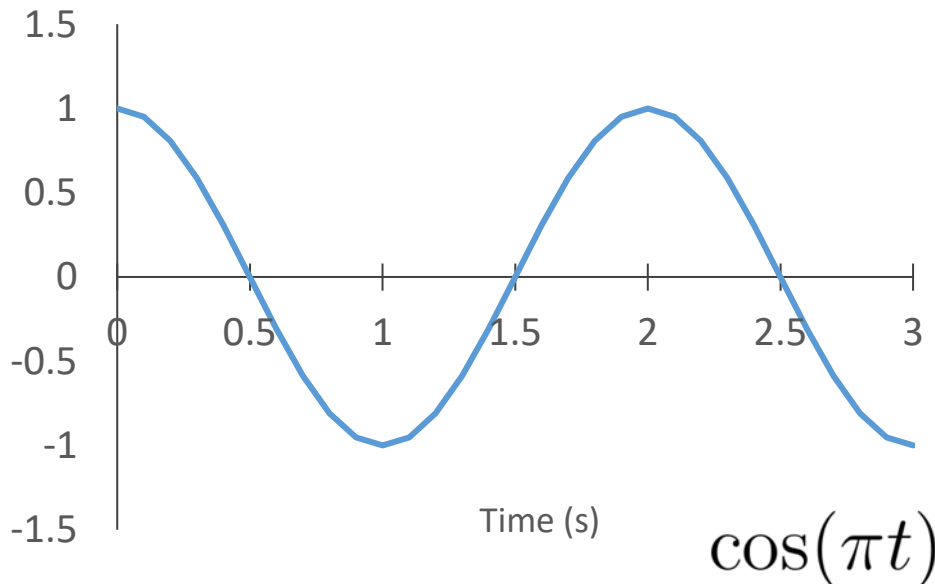
- For the same frequency + amplitude, vary the phase
- No variation in power (amplitude) or wavelength (frequency)

Phase in Analog signals



- Same frequency
- Same amplitude
- Different phase

Phase in Analog signals



(-180°)

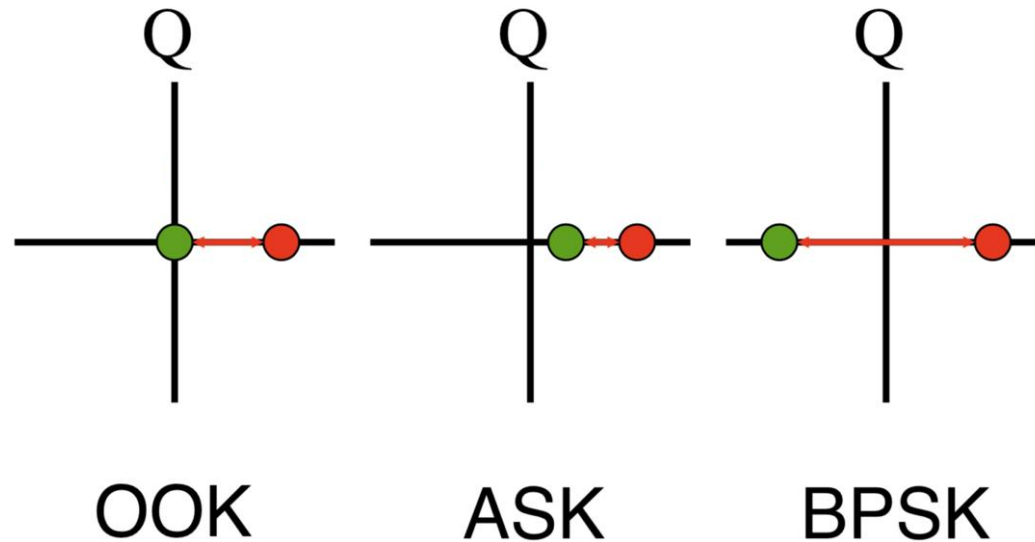
$$-\cos(\pi t) = \cos(\pi t - \pi)$$

- Same frequency
- Same amplitude
- Different phase

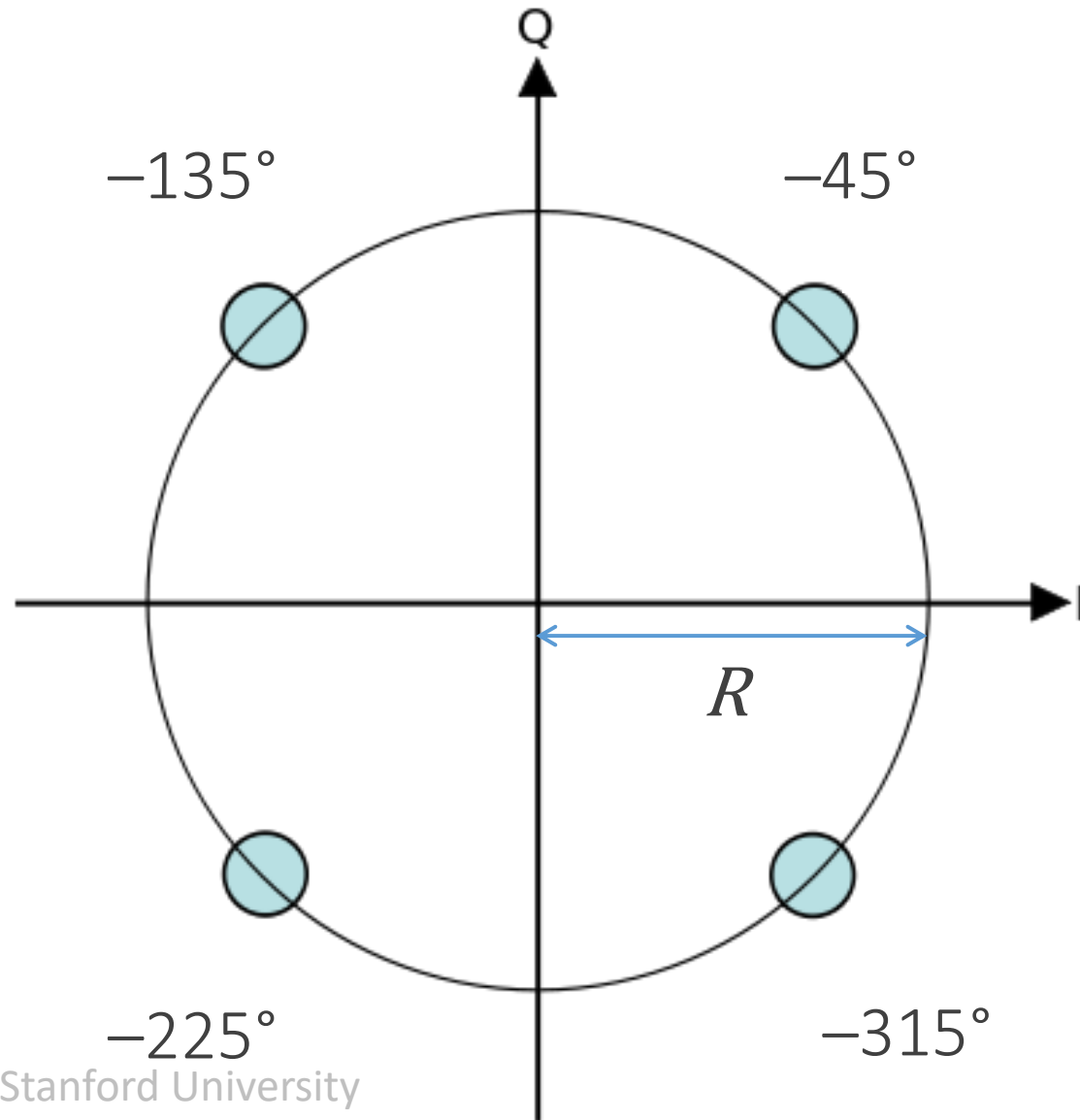
I/Q constellations

For the same frequency:

- What I/Q constellation (amplitude, phase) should I select?
- How should I assign a symbol (amplitude, phase) = to bits?

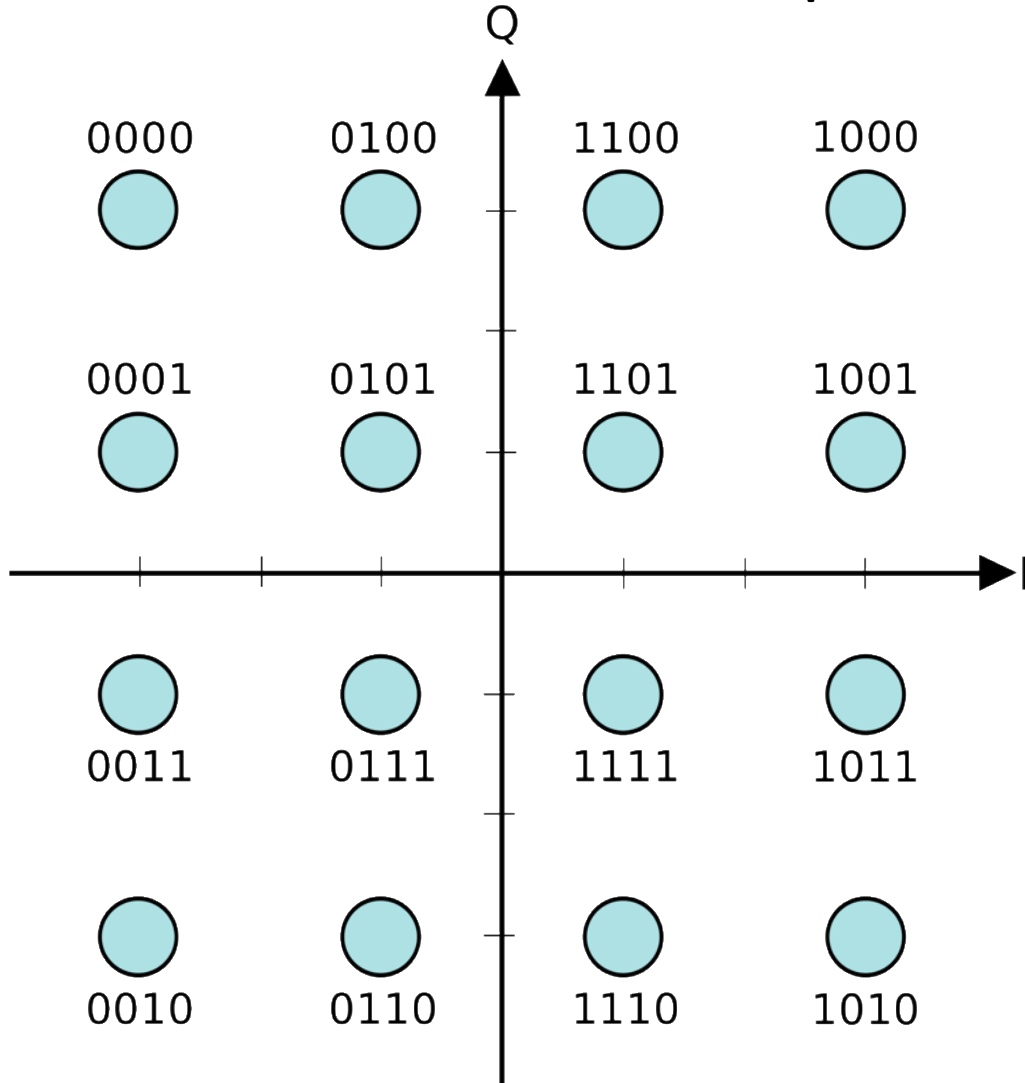


Quadrature Phase Shift Keying (QPSK)



1. For each symbol:
 - What is the amplitude?
 - What is the phase?
2. Represent each symbol as a bit (or bits).

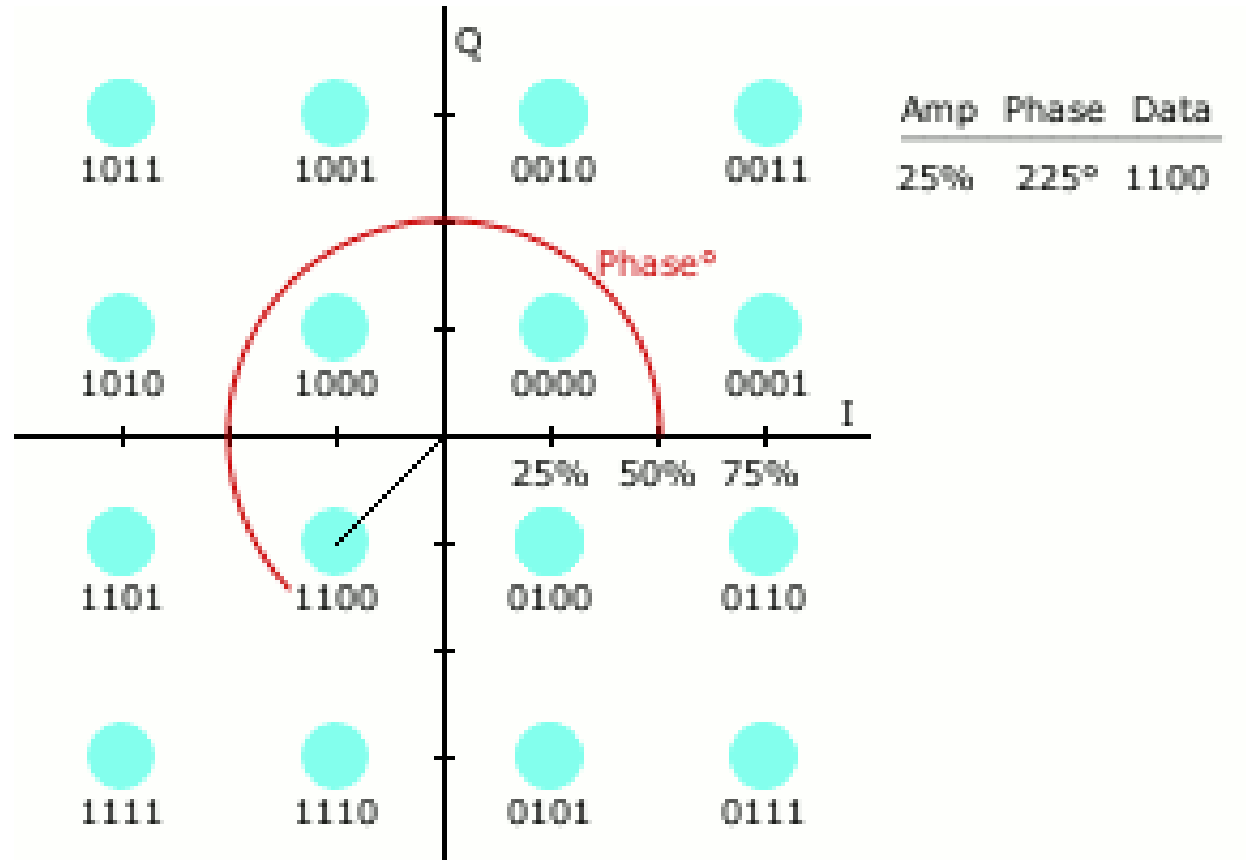
Quadrature Amplitude Modulation (16-QAM)



1. How many symbols?
2. How many amplitude variations?
3. How many phase variations?
4. How many bits per symbol?

Example 32 bit word transmission using 16-QAM

1100 1001 0100 1110 1100 0110 1100 1111
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7



Examples today

ASK/OOK: Wired Ethernet

FSK: Bluetooth

BPSK: 802.11 abgn

QPSK: 802.11 abgn, LTE

16-QAM: 802.11abgn, LTE

64-QAM: 802.11 abgn, LTE, 5G

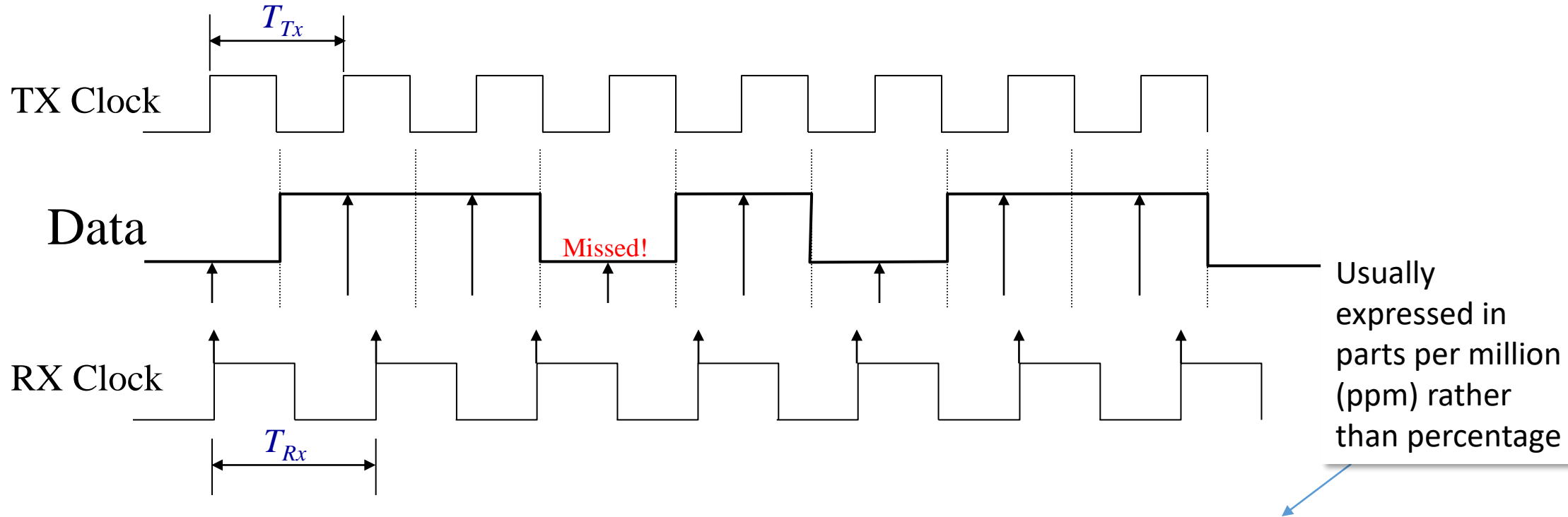
256-QAM: 5G

1024-QAM: Home powerline communication

32768-QAM: ADSL (digital data over long telephone cables)

Clocks

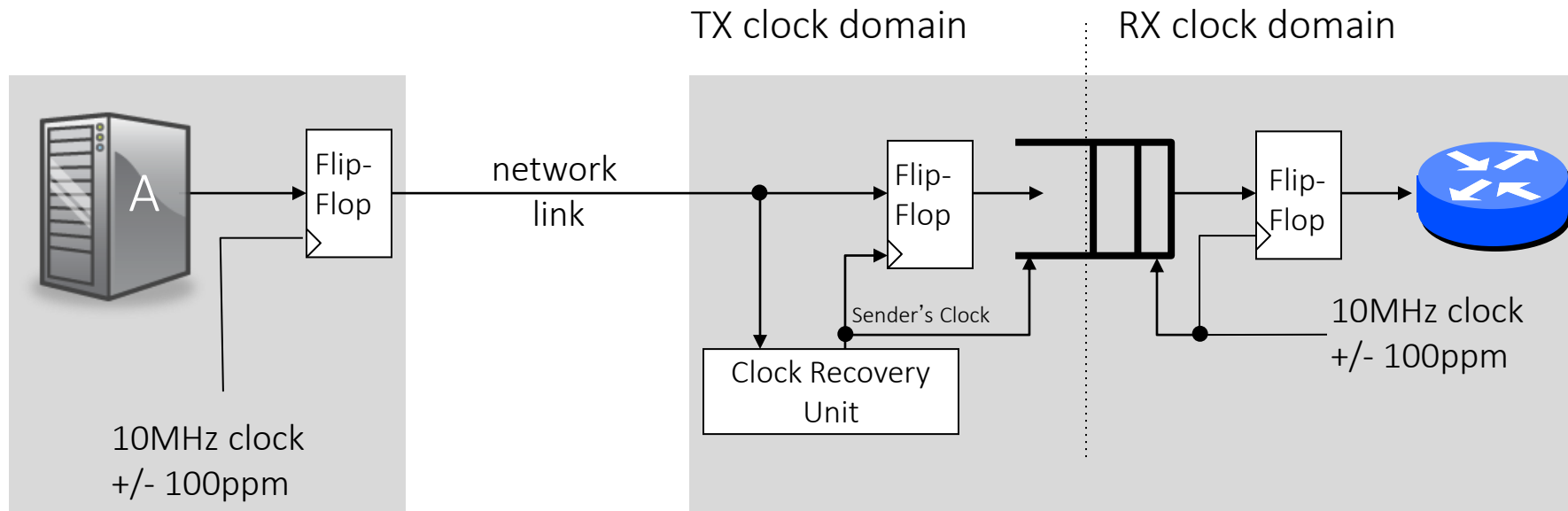
If we don't know the sender's (TX) clock



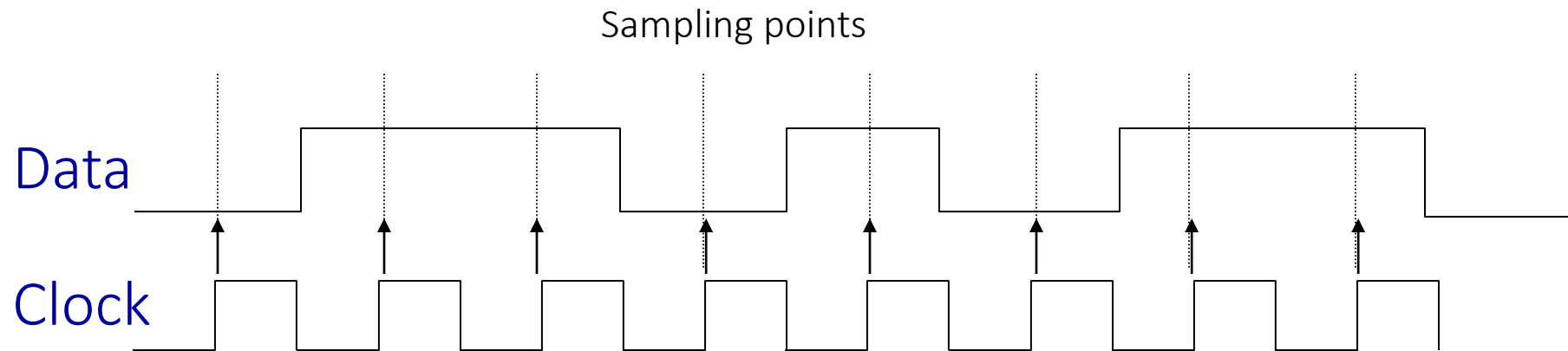
If the RX clock is $p\%$ slower than the TX clock, then: $T_{RX} = T_{TX} \left(1 + \frac{p}{100}\right)$

After $\frac{0.5}{10^{-2}p}$ bit times, the RX clock will miss a bit completely.

Synchronous communication on network links



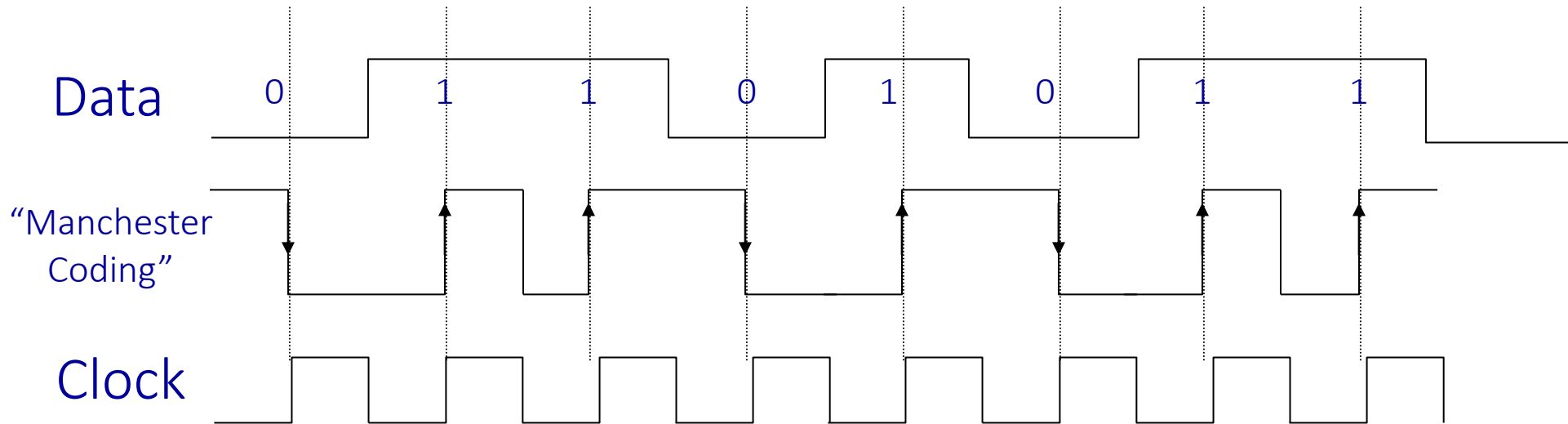
Encoding for clock recovery



If the clock is not sent separately, the data stream must have enough **transitions** for the receiver to determine when to sample the arriving data.

Encoding for clock recovery

Example #1: 10Mb/s Ethernet



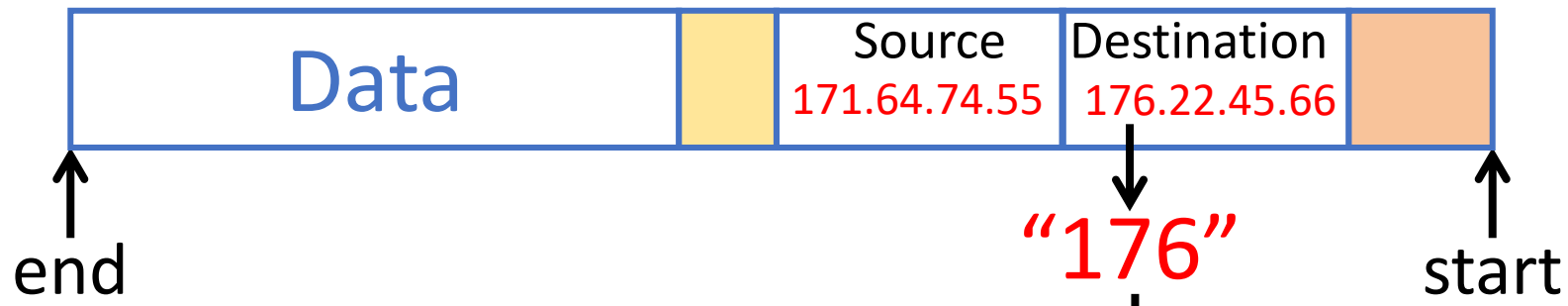
Advantages of Manchester encoding:

- Guarantees one transition per bit period.
- Ensures d.c. balance (i.e. equal numbers of hi and lo).

Disadvantages

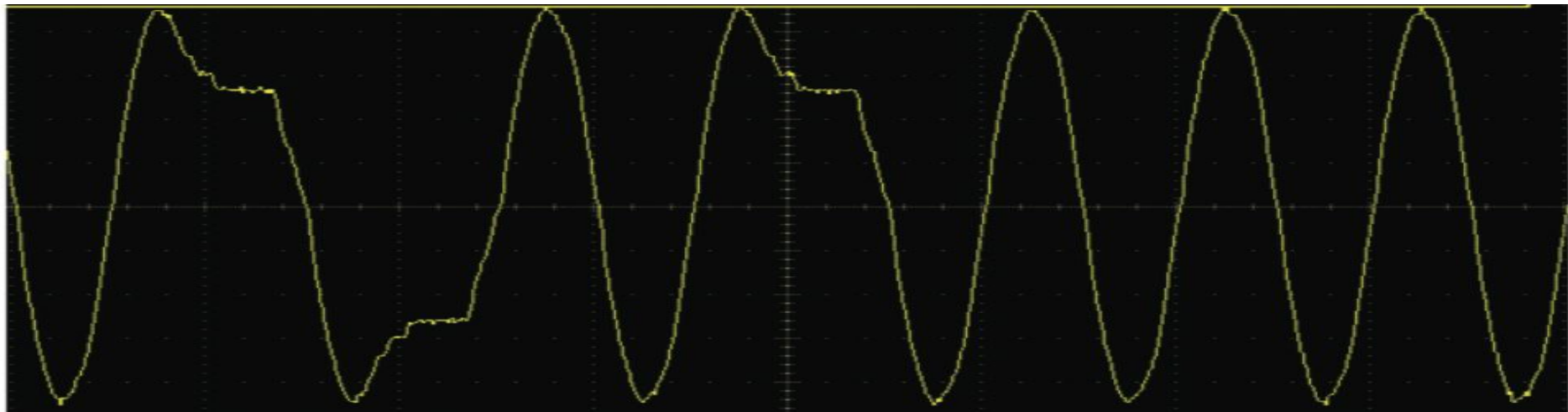
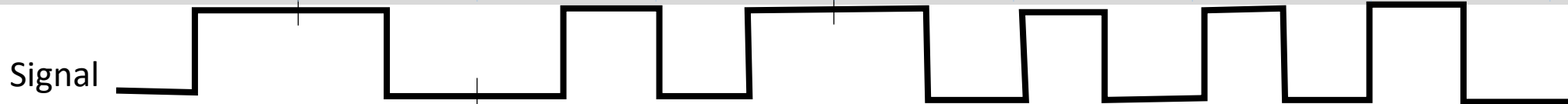
- Doubles bandwidth needed in the worst case.

IP addresses



"176"
10110000

| Data | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | | | | | | |
|--------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| <i>Manchester Encoded Data</i> | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |



Encoding for clock recovery

Example #2: 4b/5b encoding

| 4-bit data | 5-bit code |
|------------|------------|
| 0000 | 11110 |
| 0001 | 01001 |
| 0010 | 10100 |
| ... | ... |

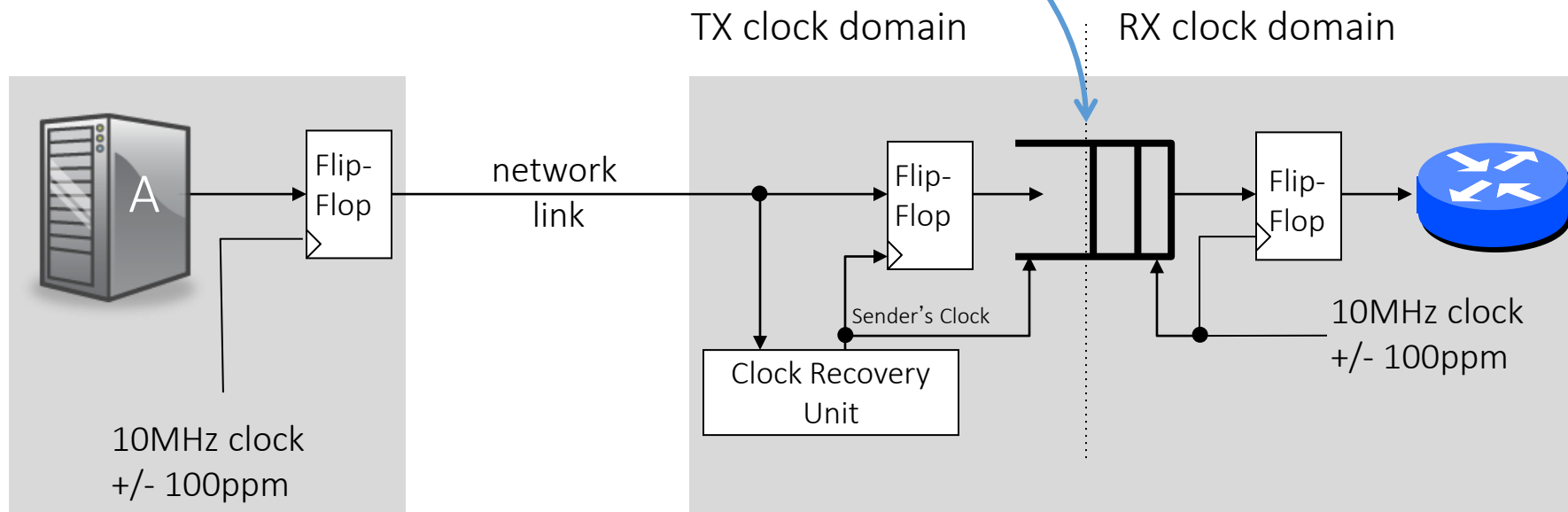
Advantages of 4b/5b encoding:

- More bandwidth efficient (only 25% overhead).
- Allows extra codes to be used for control information.

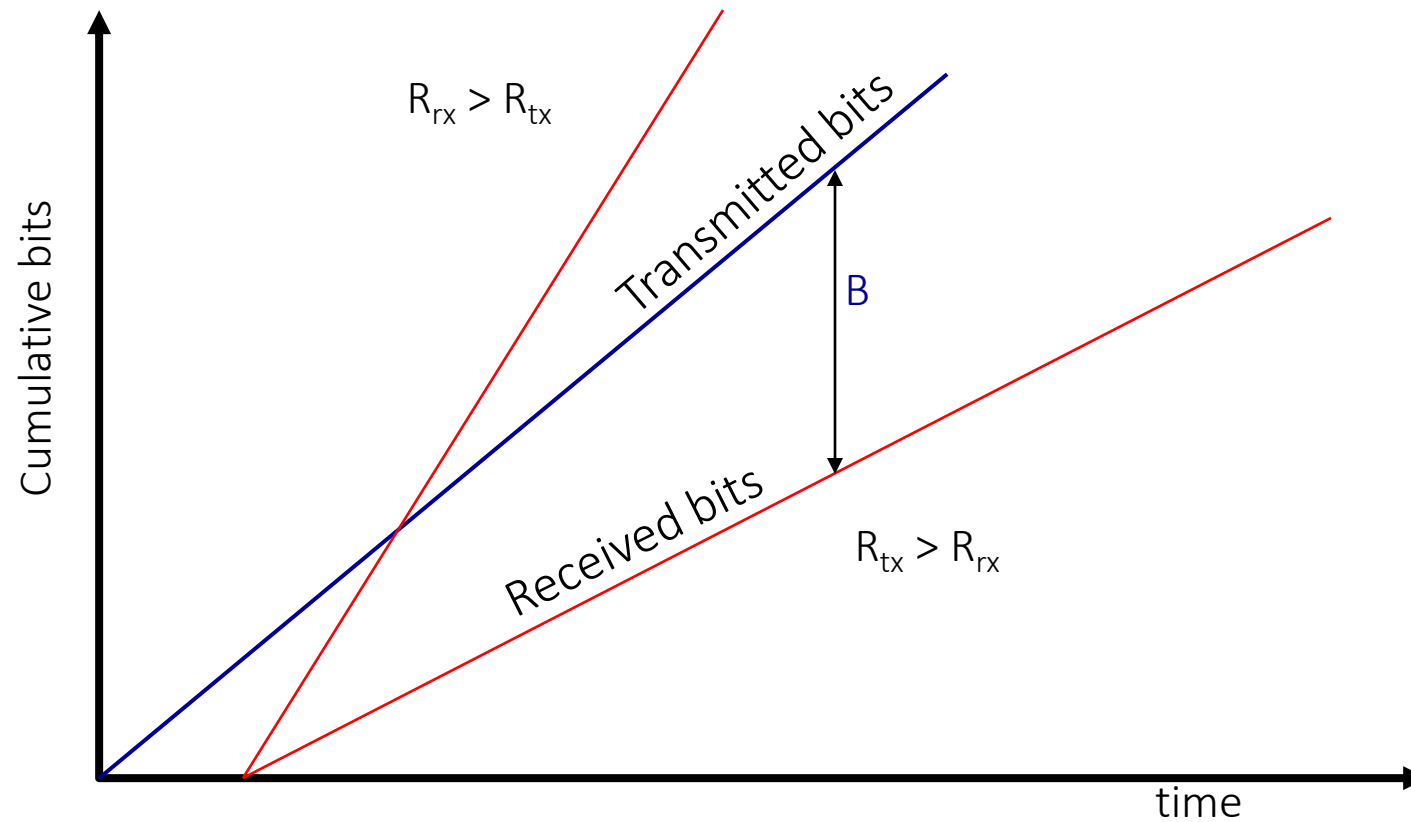
Disadvantages

- Fewer transitions makes clock recovery a little harder.

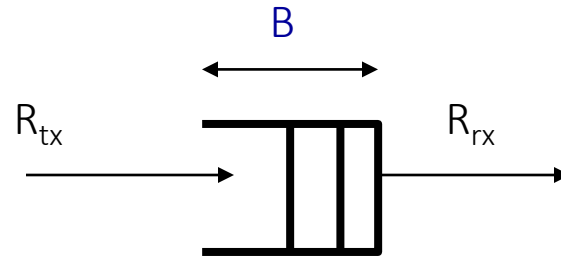
Elasticity Buffer



Sizing an elasticity buffer

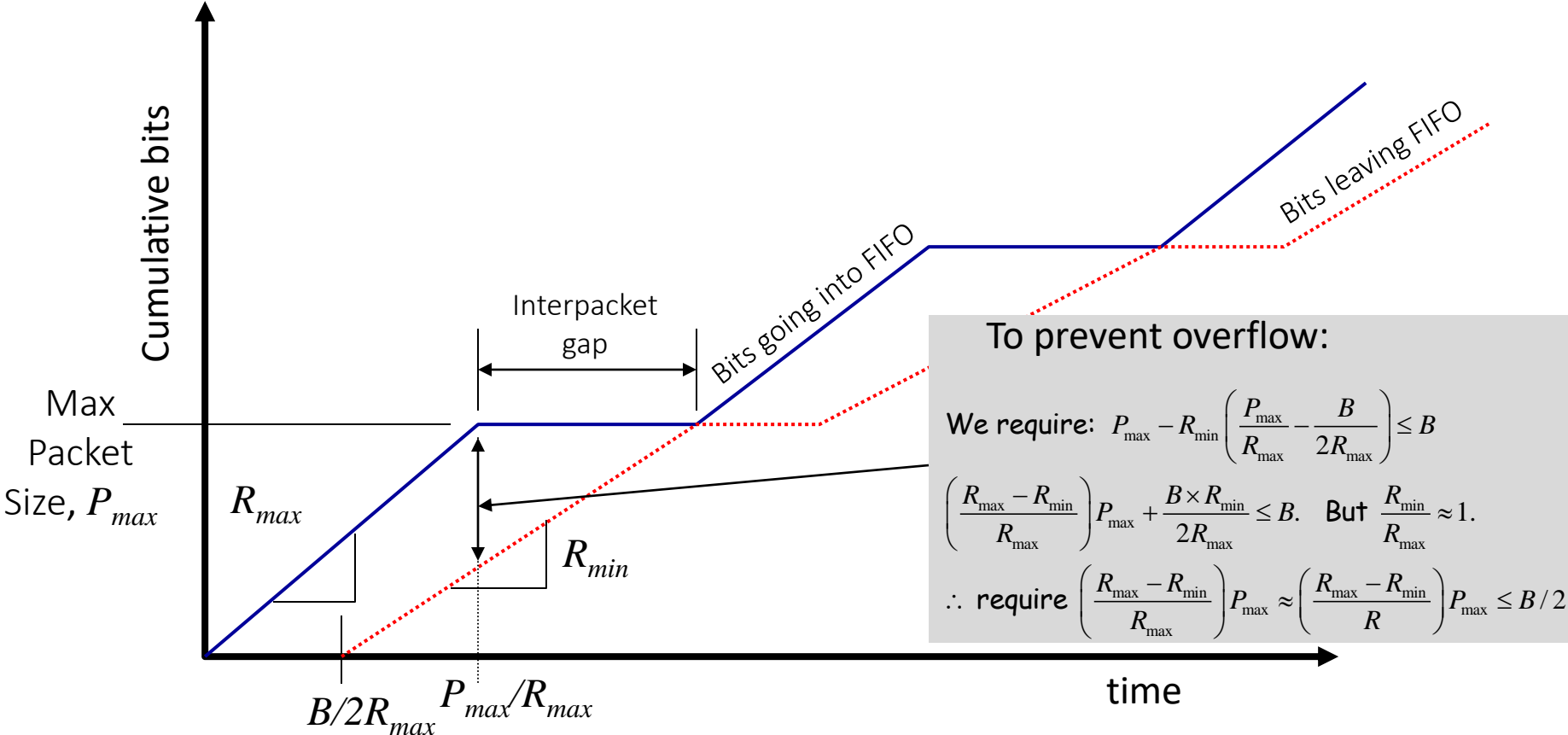


Sizing an elasticity buffer

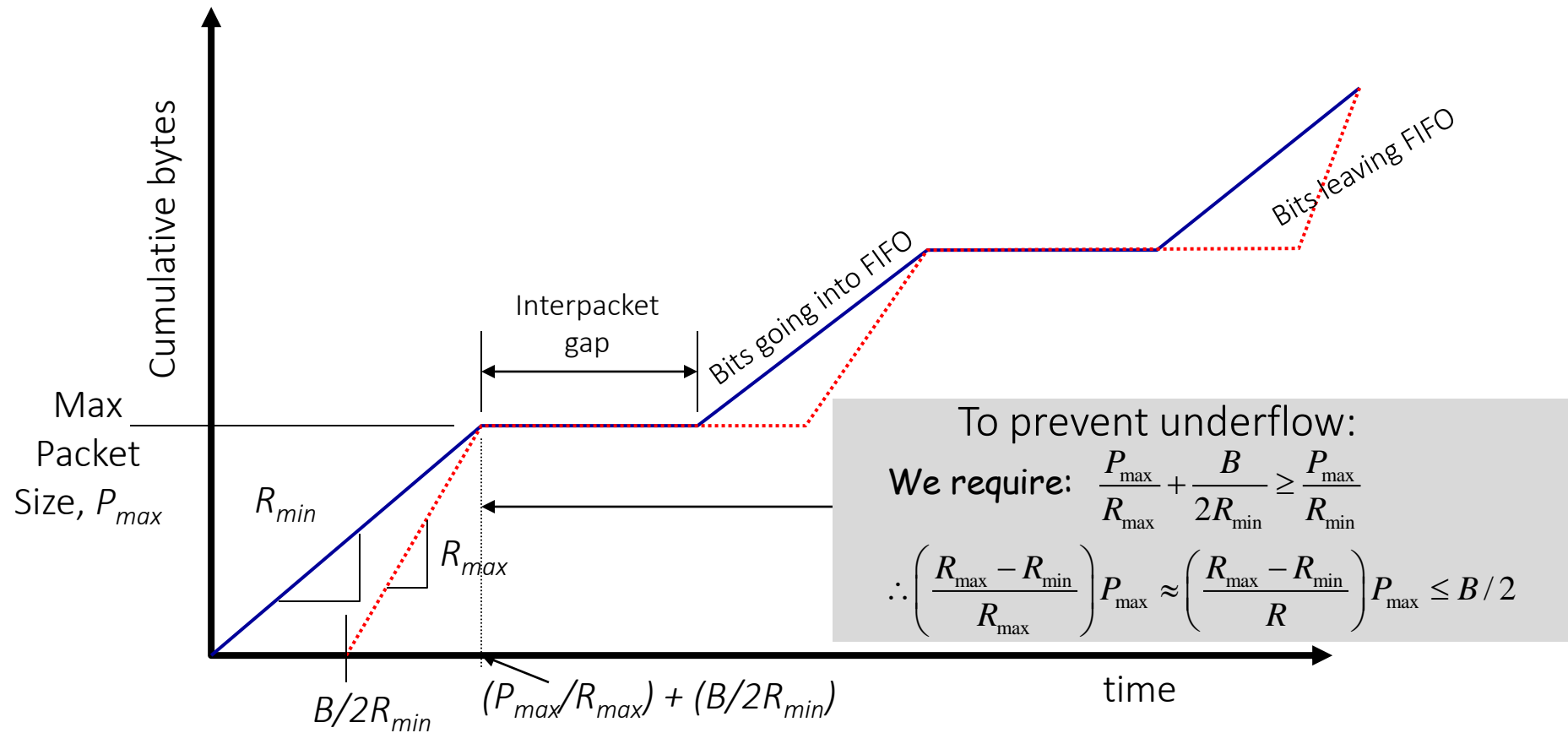


1. Hold buffer nominally at $B/2$.
 - At start of new packet, allow buffer to fill to $B/2$.
 - Or, make sure buffer drains to $B/2$ before new packet.
2. Size buffer so that it does not overflow or underflow before packet completes.
3. ($R_{tx} > R_{rx}$): Given inter packet gap, size $B/2$ for no overflow.
4. ($R_{rx} > R_{tx}$): Given max length packet, pick $B/2$ for no underflow.

Preventing overflow



Preventing underflow



Sizing an elasticity buffer

Example

Maximum packet size 4500bytes

Clock tolerance +/- 100ppm

$$\frac{R_{\max} - R_{\min}}{R} = 200 \times 10^{-6}$$

$$\Rightarrow B \geq 2(4500 \times 8 \times 200 \times 10^{-6}) = 14 \text{ bits}$$

Therefore,

1. Elasticity buffer needs to be at least 14 bits
2. Wait for at least 7 bits before draining buffer
3. Inter-packet gap at least 7 bits