Wireless Networking Technologies WLAN, WiFi Mesh and WiMAX

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Course Outline

- Wireless Networks
 - Difference from wired
 - Mobility
- RF Basics
 - Frequency, modulation
 - Medium access control
- WiFi Overview
 - Basic elements
 - Standards and variants
- WiMaX Overview
 - Basic elements

- Wireless LANs (WiFi)
 - 802.11 standards
 - Mobility support
 - Voice and QoS support
- Mesh and Adhoc Networks
 - Routing and Transport
- Wireless MANs (WiMaX)
 - 802.16 standard
 - Voice and QoS support
- Trends
 - Overlay networks

Wireless Networks

Wireless networks

Access computing/communication services, on the move

- Wireless WANs
 - Cellular Networks: GSM, GPRS, CDMA
 - Satellite Networks: Iridium
- Wireless LANs
 - WiFi Networks: 802.11
 - Personal Area Networks: Bluetooth
- Wireless MANs
 - WiMaX Networks: 802.16
 - Mesh Networks: Multi-hop WiFi
 - Adhoc Networks: useful when infrastructure not available

Limitations of the mobile environment

- Limitations of the Wireless Network
 - limited communication bandwidth
 - frequent disconnections
 - heterogeneity of fragmented networks
- Limitations Imposed by Mobility
 - route breakages
 - lack of mobility awareness by system/applications
- Limitations of the Mobile Device
 - short battery lifetime
 - limited capacities

Mobile communication

Wireless vs. mobile Examples





stationary computer laptop in a hotel (portable) wireless LAN in historic buildings Personal Digital Assistant (PDA)

- Integration of wireless into existing fixed networks:
 - Local area networks: IEEE 802.11, ETSI (HIPERLAN)
 - Wide area networks: Cellular 3G, IEEE 802.16
 - Internet: Mobile IP extension

Wireless v/s Wired networks

Regulations of frequencies

- Limited availability, coordination is required
- useful frequencies are almost all occupied

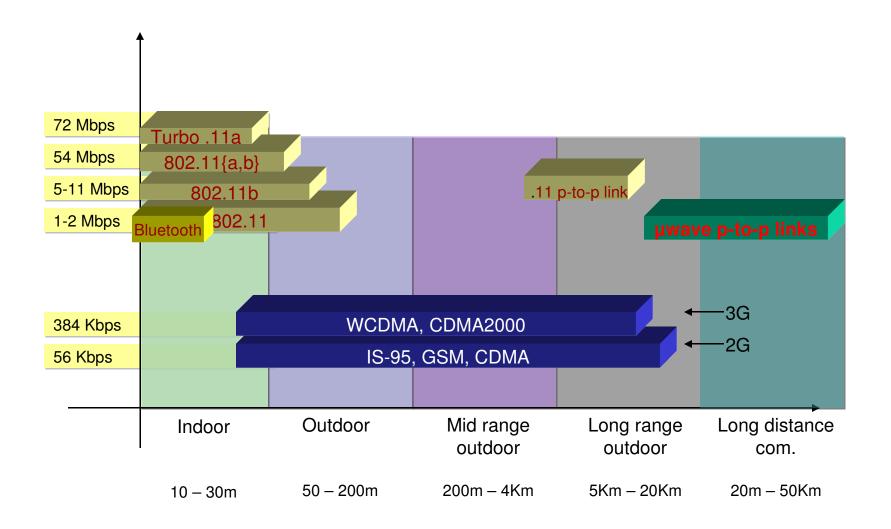
Bandwidth and delays

- Low transmission rates
 - few Kbits/s to some Mbit/s.
- Higher delays
 - several hundred milliseconds
- Higher loss rates
 - susceptible to interference, e.g., engines, lightning

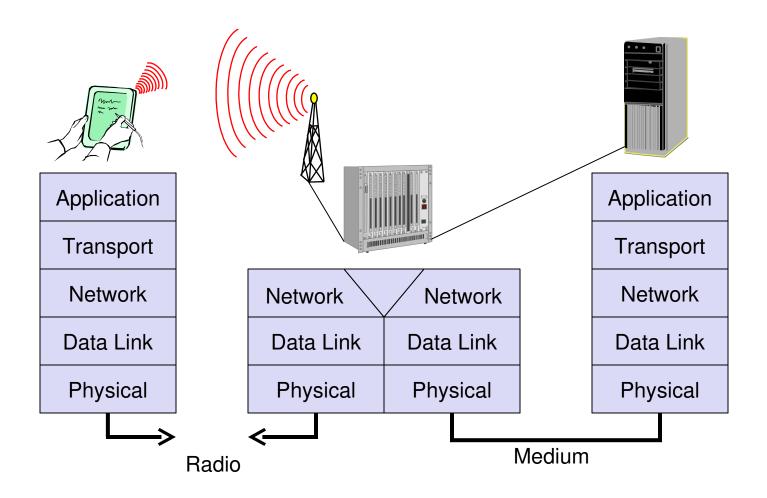
Always shared medium

- Lower security, simpler active attacking
- radio interface accessible for everyone
- _ secure access mechanisms important

Wireless Technology Landscape



Reference model



Effect of mobility on protocol stack

Application

- new applications and adaptations
- service location, multimedia

Transport

- congestion and flow control
- quality of service

Network

- addressing and routing
- device location, hand-over

Link

- media access and security
- Physical
 - transmission errors and interference

Perspectives

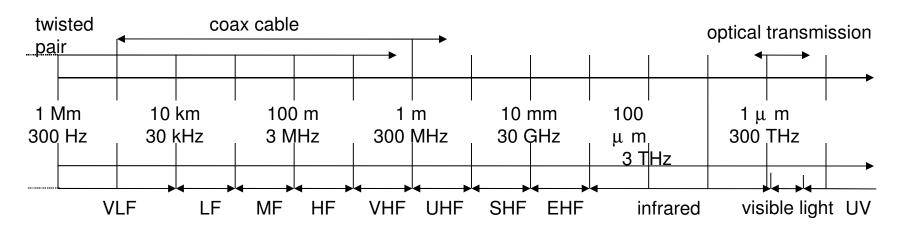
- Network designers: Concerned with cost-effective design
 - Need to ensure that network resources are efficiently utilized and fairly allocated to different users.
- Network users: Concerned with application services
 - Need guarantees that each message sent will be delivered without error within a certain amount of time.
- Network providers: Concerned with system administration
 - Need mechanisms for security, management, fault-tolerance and accounting.

RF Basics

Factors affecting wireless system design

- Frequency allocations
 - What range to operate? May need licenses.
- Multiple access mechanism
 - How do users share the medium without interfering?
- Antennas and propagation
 - What distances? Possible channel errors introduced.
- Signals encoding
 - How to improve the data rate?
- Error correction
 - How to ensure that bandwidth is not wasted?

Frequencies for communication



- VLF = Very Low Frequency UHF = Ultra High Frequency
- LF = Low Frequency SHF = Super High Frequency
- MF = Medium Frequency EHF = Extra High Frequency
- HF = High Frequency
 UV = Ultraviolet Light
- VHF = Very High Frequency
- Frequency and wave length: $\lambda = c/f$
- wave length λ , speed of light $c \cong 3x10^8 \text{m/s}$, frequency f

Wireless frequency allocation

- Radio frequencies range from 9KHz to 400GHZ (ITU)
- Microwave frequency range
 - 1 GHz to 40 GHz
 - Directional beams possible
 - Suitable for point-to-point transmission
 - Used for satellite communications
- Radio frequency range
 - 30 MHz to 1 GHz
 - Suitable for omnidirectional applications
- Infrared frequency range
 - Roughly, 3x10¹¹ to 2x10¹⁴ Hz
 - Useful in local point-to-point multipoint applications within confined areas

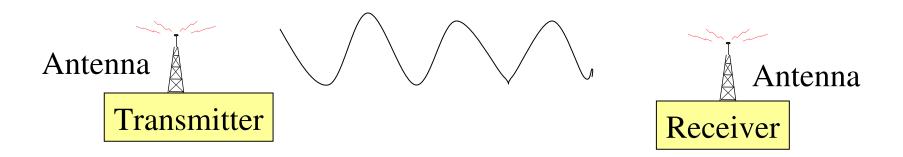
Frequencies for mobile communication

- VHF-/UHF-ranges for mobile radio
 - simple, small antenna for cars
 - deterministic propagation characteristics, reliable connections
- SHF and higher for directed radio links, satellite communication
 - small antenna, focusing
 - large bandwidth available
- Wireless LANs use frequencies in UHF to SHF spectrum
 - some systems planned up to EHF
 - limitations due to absorption by water and oxygen molecules (resonance frequencies)
 - weather dependent fading, signal loss caused by heavy rainfall etc.

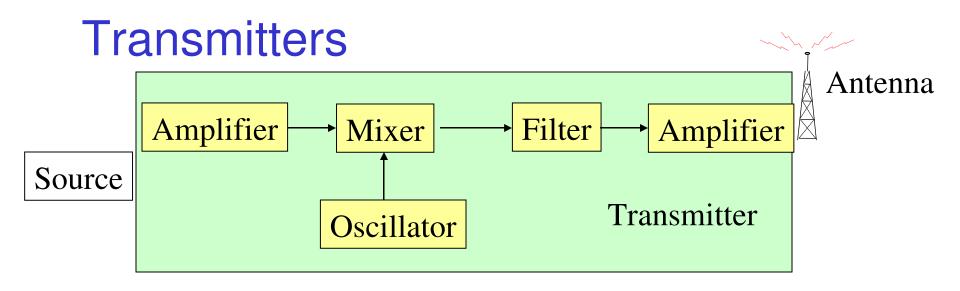
Frequency regulations

- Frequencies from 9KHz to 300 MHZ in high demand (especially VHF: 30-300MHZ)
- Two unlicensed bands
 - Industrial, Science, and Medicine (ISM): 2.4 GHz
 - Unlicensed National Information Infrastructure (UNII): 5.2 GHz
- Different agencies license and regulate
 - www.fcc.gov US
 - www.etsi.org Europe
 - www.wpc.dot.gov.in India
 - www.itu.org International co-ordination
- Regional, national, and international issues
- Procedures for military, emergency, air traffic control, etc

Wireless transmission



- Wireless communication systems consist of:
 - Transmitters
 - Antennas: radiates electromagnetic energy into air
 - Receivers
- In some cases, transmitters and receivers are on same device, called transceivers.



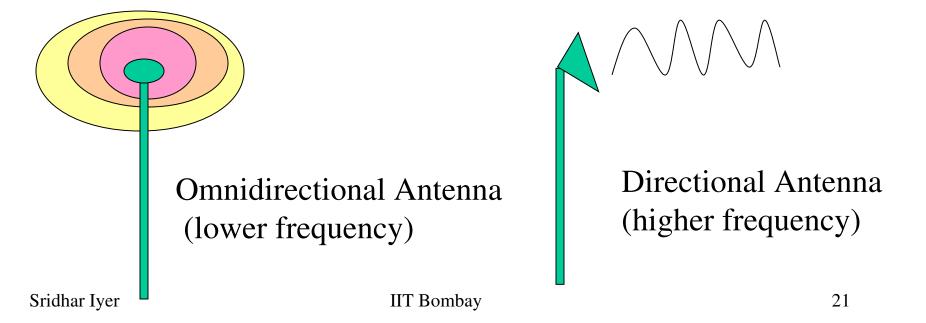
Suppose you want to generate a signal that is sent at 900 MHz and the original source generates a signal at 300 MHz.

- •Amplifier strengthens the initial signal
- •Oscillator creates a carrier wave of 600 MHz
- •Mixer combines signal with oscillator and produces 900 MHz (also does modulation, etc)
- •Filter selects correct frequency
- •Amplifier Strengthens the signal before sending it

Antennas

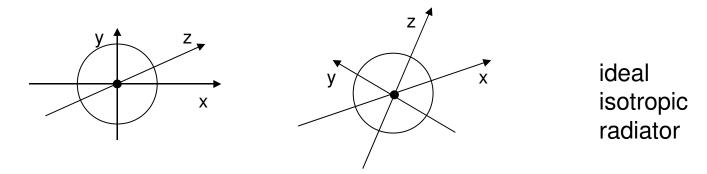
Antennas

- An antenna is an electrical conductor or system of conductors to send/receive RF signals
 - Transmission radiates electromagnetic energy into space
 - Reception collects electromagnetic energy from space
- In two-way communication, the same antenna can be used for transmission and reception



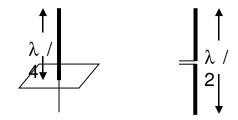
Antennas: isotropic radiator

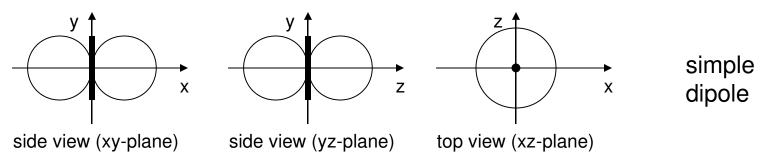
- Radiation and reception of electromagnetic waves, coupling of wires to space for radio transmission
- Isotropic radiator: equal radiation in all directions (three dimensional) - only a theoretical reference antenna
- Real antennas always have directive effects (vertically and/or horizontally)
- Radiation pattern: measurement of radiation around an antenna



Antennas: simple dipoles

- Real antennas are not isotropic radiators
 - dipoles with lengths λ /4 on car roofs or λ /2 (Hertzian dipole)
 - → shape of antenna proportional to wavelength
- Gain: maximum power in the direction of the main lobe compared to the power of an isotropic radiator (with the same average power)

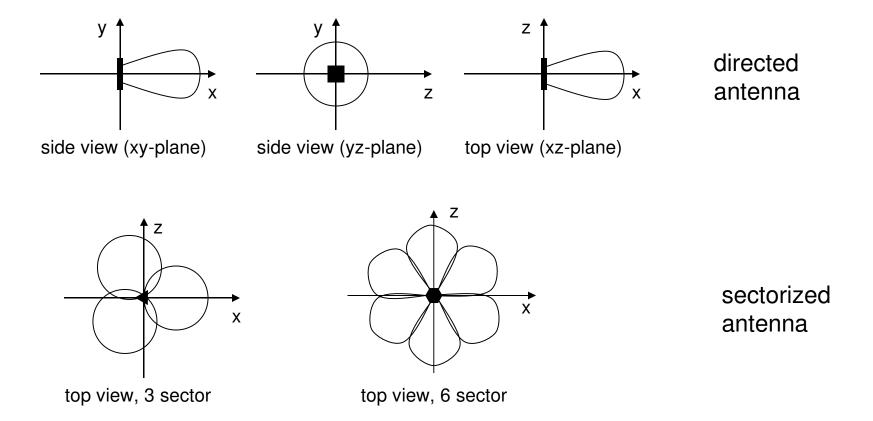




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Antennas: directed and sectorized

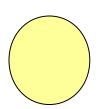
 Often used for microwave connections or base stations for mobile phones (e.g., radio coverage of a valley)



Antenna models

In Omni Mode:

Nodes receive signals with gain G°



In Directional Mode:

- Capable of beamforming in specified direction
- Directional Gain G^d (G^d> G⁰)

Directional communication

Received Power ∞ (Transmit power)

*(Tx Gain) * (Rx Gain)

Directional gain is higher

Directional antennas useful for:

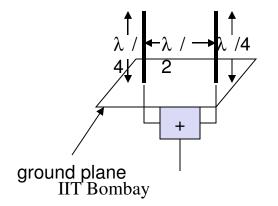
- Increase "range", keeping transmit power constant
- Reduce transmit power, keeping range comparable with omni mode

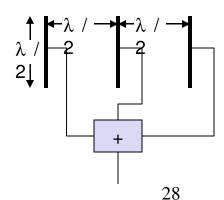
Comparison of omni and directional

Issues	Omni	Directional
Spatial Reuse	Low	High
Connectivity	Low	High
Interference	Omni •	Directional
Cost & Complexity	Low	High

Antennas: diversity

- Grouping of 2 or more antennas
 - multi-element antenna arrays
- Antenna diversity
 - switched diversity, selection diversity
 - receiver chooses antenna with largest output
 - diversity combining
 - combine output power to produce gain
 - cophasing needed to avoid cancellation





Signal Propagation and Modulation

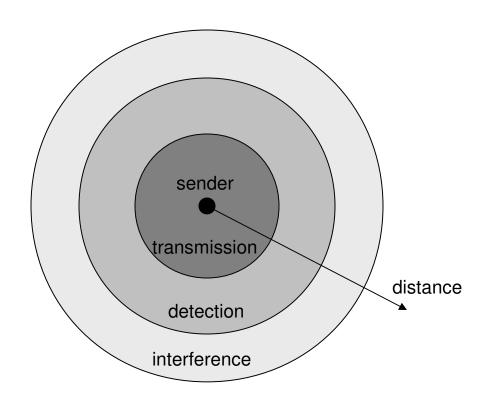
Signals

- physical representation of data
- function of time and location
- signal parameters: parameters representing the value of data
- classification
 - continuous time/discrete time
 - continuous values/discrete values
 - analog signal = continuous time and continuous values
 - digital signal = discrete time and discrete values
- signal parameters of periodic signals: period T, frequency f=1/T, amplitude A, phase shift φ
 - sine wave as special periodic signal for a carrier:

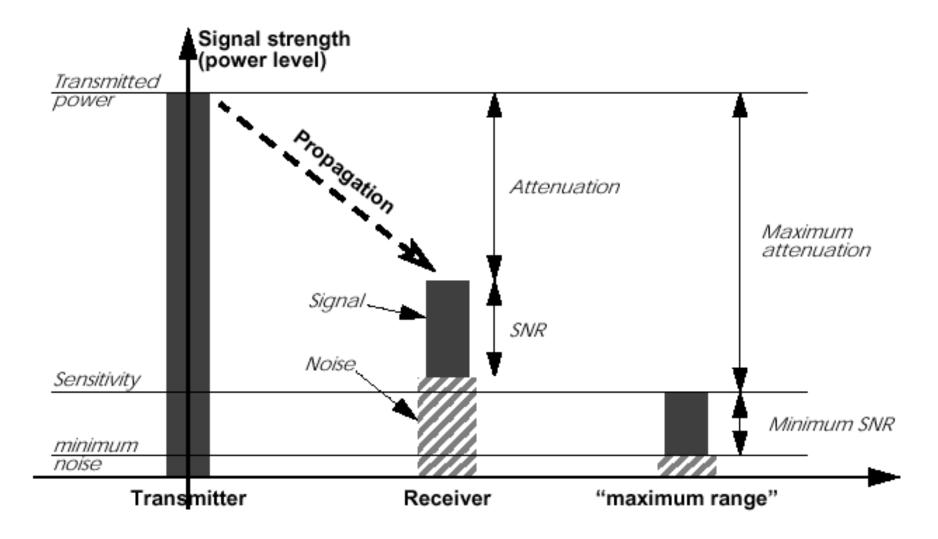
$$s(t) = A_t \sin(2 \pi f_t t + \phi_t)$$

Signal propagation ranges

- Transmission range
 - communication possible
 - low error rate
- Detection range
 - detection of the signal possible
 - no communication possible
- Interference range
 - signal may not be detected
 - signal adds to the background noise



Attenuation: Propagation & Range

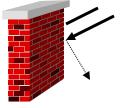


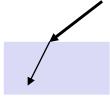
Attenuation

- Strength of signal falls off with distance over transmission medium
- Attenuation factors for unguided media:
 - Received signal must have sufficient strength so that circuitry in the receiver can interpret the signal
 - Signal must maintain a level sufficiently higher than noise to be received without error
 - Attenuation is greater at higher frequencies, causing distortion
- Approach: amplifiers that strengthen higher frequencies

Signal propagation

- Propagation in free space always like light (straight line)
- Receiving power proportional to 1/d²
 (d = distance between sender and receiver)
- Receiving power additionally influenced by
 - fading (frequency dependent)
 - shadowing
 - reflection at large obstacles
 - refraction depending on the density of a medium
 - scattering at small obstacles
 - diffraction at edges









shadowing Sridhar Iyer

reflection

refraction

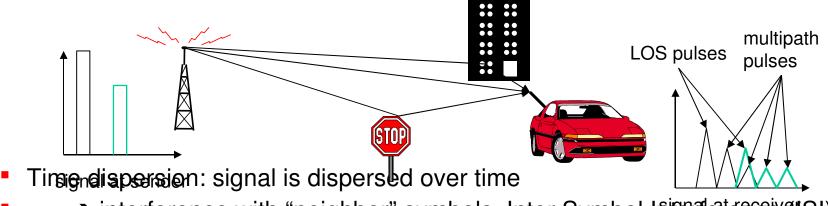
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scattering

diffraction

Multipath propagation

 Signal can take many different paths between sender and receiver due to reflection, scattering, diffraction

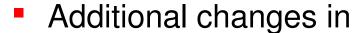


- → interference with "neighbor" symbols, Inter Symbol Iନାଂଅନୀଙ୍ଗଙ୍ଗ୍ୟାSI)
- The signal reaches a receiver directly and phase shifted
- distorted signal depending on the phases of the different parts

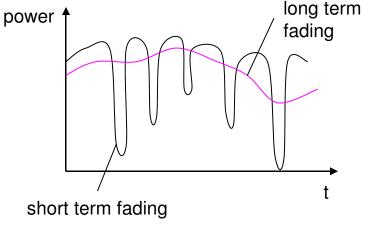
Effects of mobility

- Channel characteristics change over time and location
 - signal paths change
 - different delay variations of different signal parts
 - different phases of signal parts
- quick changes in the power received

(short term fading)



- distance to sender
- obstacles further away

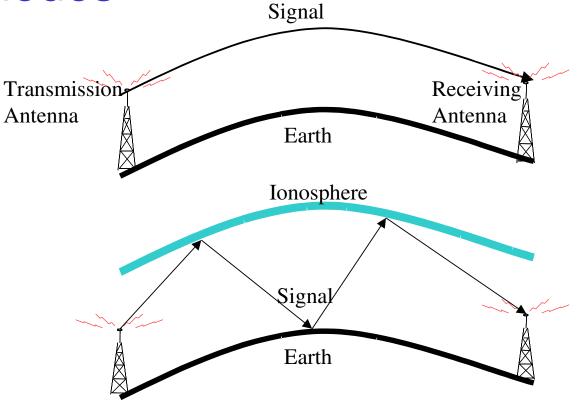


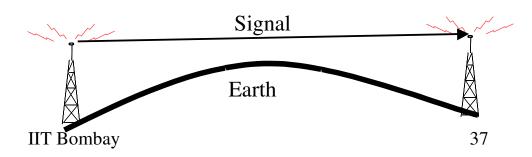
 slow changes in the average power received (long term fading) Propagation modes

a) Ground Wave Propagation

b) Sky Wave Propagation

c) Line-of-Sight Propagation Sridhar Iyer





Modulation

Digital modulation

- digital data is translated into an analog signal (baseband)
- ASK, FSK, PSK
- differences in spectral efficiency, power efficiency, robustness

Analog modulation

shifts center frequency of baseband signal up to the radio carrier

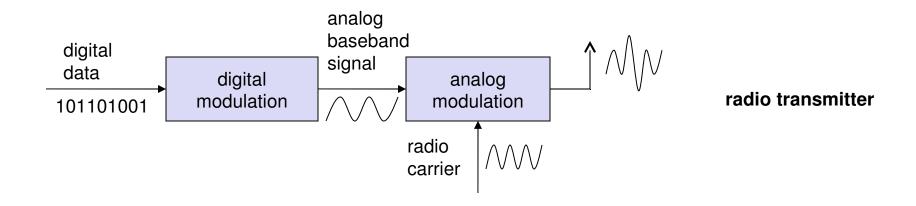
Motivation

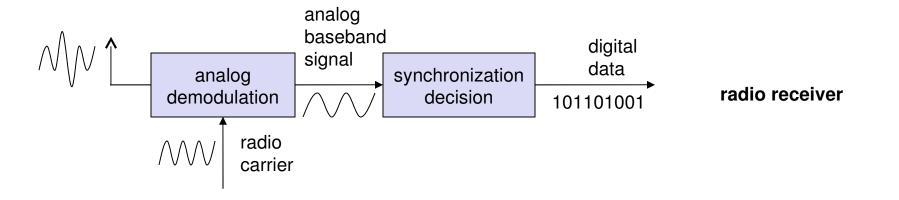
- smaller antennas (e.g., λ /4)
- Frequency Division Multiplexing
- medium characteristics

Basic schemes

- Amplitude Modulation (AM)
- Frequency Modulation (FM)
- Phase Modulation (PM)

Modulation and demodulation





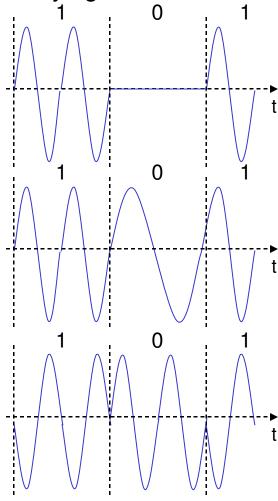
Digital modulation

Modulation of digital signals known as Shift Keying

Amplitude Shift Keying (ASK):

- very simple
- low bandwidth requirements
- very susceptible to interference
- Frequency Shift Keying (FSK):
 - needs larger bandwidth

- Phase Shift Keying (PSK):
 - more complex
 - robust against interference
- Many advanced variants



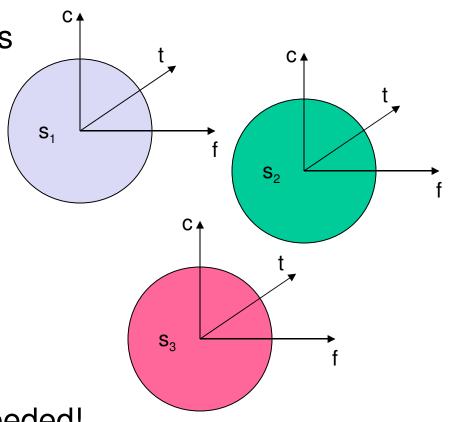
Multiplexing Mechanisms

Multiplexing

channels k_1 k_2 k_3 k_4 k_5 k_6

- Multiplexing in 4 dimensions
 - space (s_i)
 - time (t)
 - frequency (f)
 - code (c)
- Goal: multiple use of a shared medium

Important: guard spaces needed!

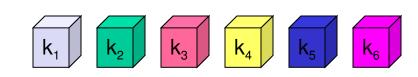


Frequency multiplex

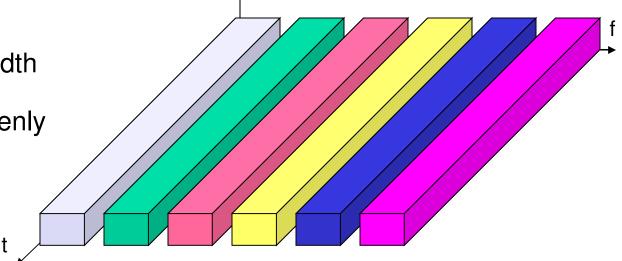
- Separation of the whole spectrum into smaller frequency bands
- A channel gets a certain band of the spectrum for the whole time

C

- Advantages:
- no dynamic coordination necessary
- works also for analog signals

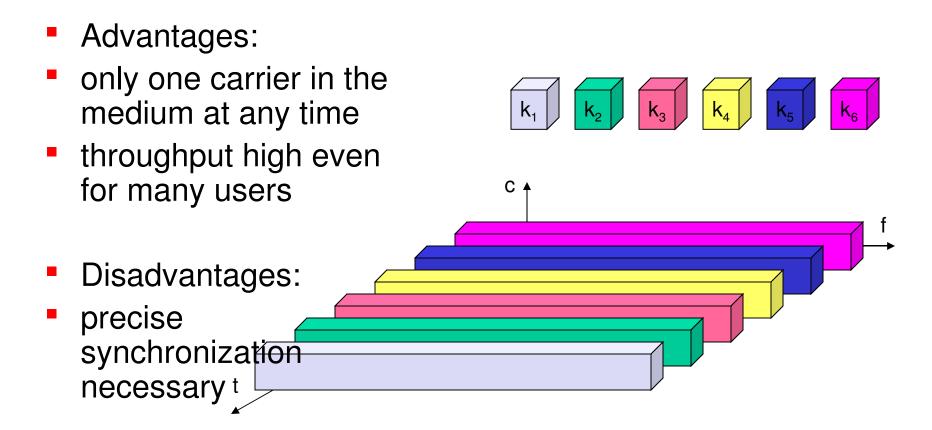


- Disadvantages:
- waste of bandwidth if the traffic is distributed unevenly
- inflexible
- guard spaces



Time multiplex

A channel gets the whole spectrum for a certain amount of time



Time and frequency multiplex

Combination of both methods

A channel gets a certain frequency band for a certain amount

of time

Example: GSM

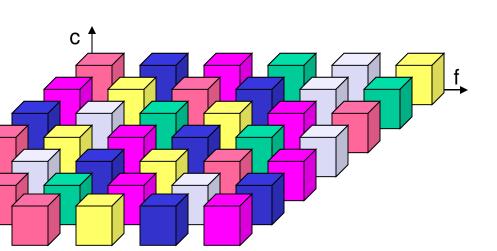
Advantages:

better protection against tapping

protection against frequency selective interference

higher data rates compected code multiplex

but: precise coording required



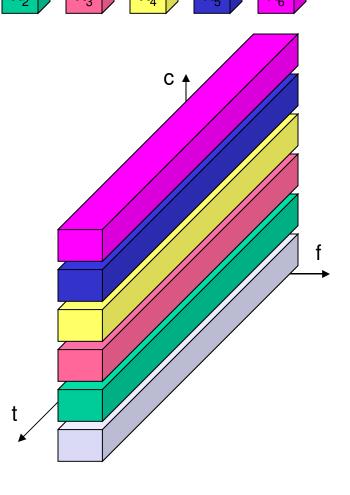
Code multiplex

Each channel has a unique code

 All channels use the same spectrum at the same time



- bandwidth efficient
- no coordination and synchronization necessary
- good protection against interference and tapping
- Disadvantages:
 - lower user data rates
 - more complex signal regeneration
- Implemented using spread spectrum technology



k₁

CDMA Example

- -D = rate of data signal
- Break each bit into k chips
 - Chips are a user-specific fixed pattern
- Chip data rate of new channel = kD
- If k=6 and code is a sequence of 1s and -1s
 - For a '1' bit, A sends code as chip pattern
 - <c1, c2, c3, c4, c5, c6>
 - For a '0' bit, A sends complement of code
 - <-c1, -c2, -c3, -c4, -c5, -c6>
- Receiver knows sender's code and performs electronic decode function

$$S_u(d) = d1 \times c1 + d2 \times c2 + d3 \times c3 + d4 \times c4 + d5 \times c5 + d6 \times c6$$
 [< d1](#), d2, d3, d4, d5, d6> = received chip pattern

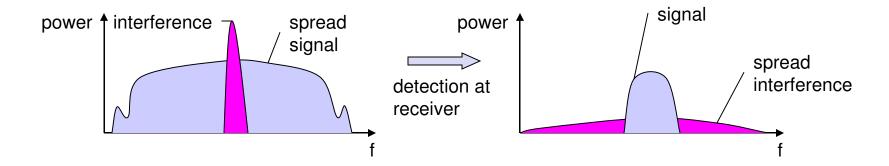
• <c1 c2 c3 c4 c5 c6> = sender's code

CDMA Example

- User A code = <1, -1, -1, 1, -1, 1>
 - To send a 1 bit = <1, -1, -1, 1, -1, 1>
 - To send a 0 bit = <-1, 1, 1, -1, 1, -1>
- User B code = <1, 1, -1, -1, 1, 1>
 - To send a 1 bit = <1, 1, -1, -1, 1, 1>
- Receiver receiving with A's code
 - (A's code) x (received chip pattern)
 - User A '1' bit: 6 -> 1
 - User A '0' bit: -6 -> 0
 - User B '1' bit: 0 -> unwanted signal ignored

Spread spectrum technology

- Problem of radio transmission: frequency dependent fading can wipe out narrow band signals for duration of the interference
- Solution: spread the narrow band signal into a broad band signal using a special code - protection against narrow band interference



- Side effects:
 - coexistence of several signals without dynamic coordination
 - tap-proof
- Alternatives: Direct Sequence, Frequency Hopping Sridhar Iyer

Spread-spectrum communications



Figure 5a Effect of PN Sequence on Transmit Spectrum

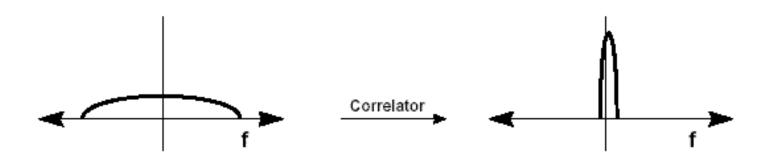
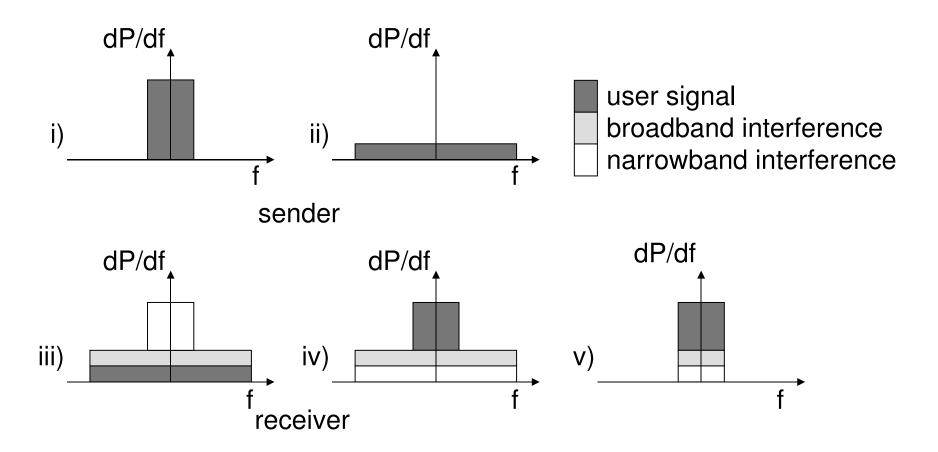


Figure 5b Received Signal is Correlated with PN to Recover Data and Reject Interference

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Effects of spreading and interference



DSSS properties

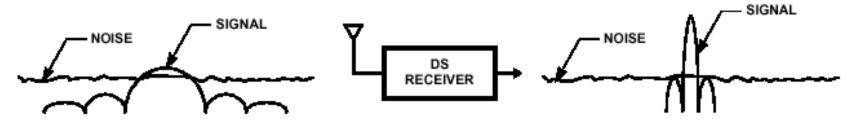


FIGURE 2A. LOW POWER DENSITY

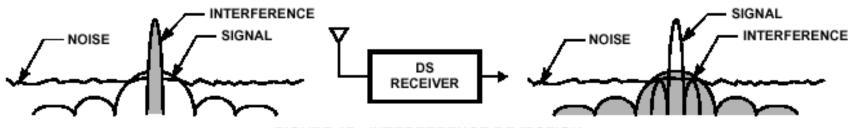


FIGURE 2B. INTERFERENCE REJECTION

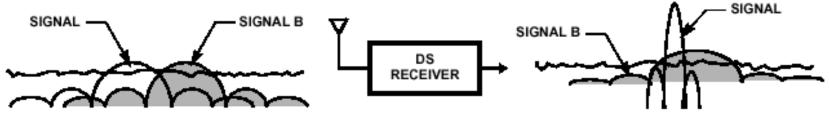


FIGURE 2C. MULTIPLE ACCESS

FIGURE 2. DIRECT SEQUENCE SPREAD SPECTRUM PROPERTIES

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Source: Intersil

DSSS (Direct Sequence)

 XOR of the signal with pseudo-random number (chipping sequence)

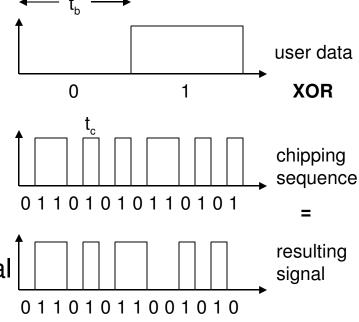
- many chips per bit (e.g., 128) result in higher bandwidth of the

signal

Advantages

reduces frequency selective fading

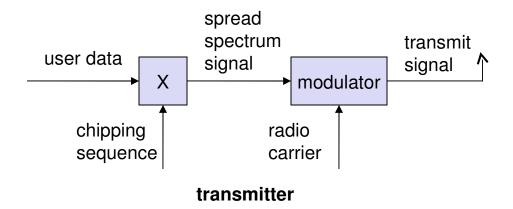
- in cellular networks
 - base stations can use the same frequency range
 - several base stations can detect and recover the signal
 - soft handover
- Disadvantages
 - precise power control necessary

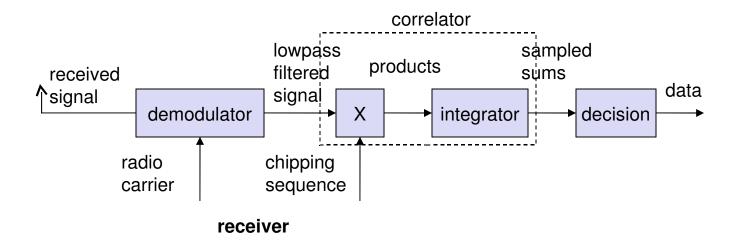


t_b: bit period

t_c: chip period

DSSS Transmit/Receive





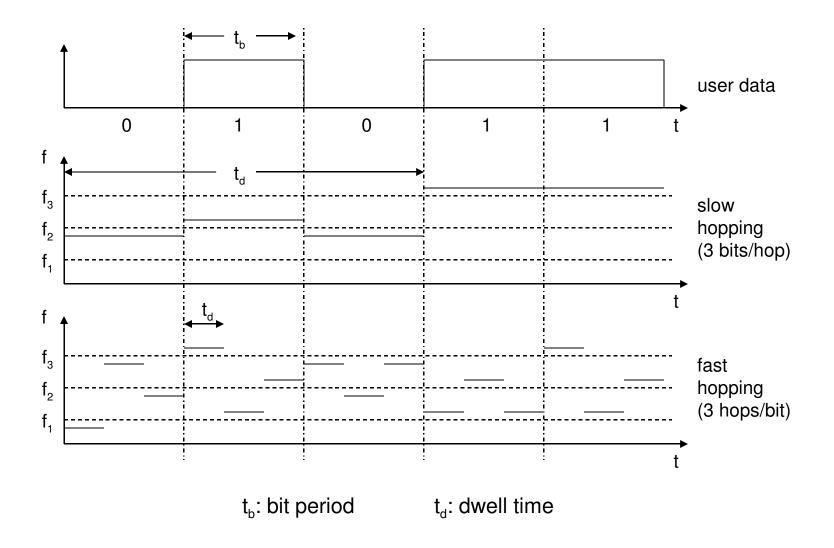
Frequency Hopping Spread Spectrum (FHSS)

- Signal is broadcast over seemingly random series of radio frequencies
- Signal hops from frequency to frequency at fixed intervals
- Channel sequence dictated by spreading code
- Receiver, hopping between frequencies in synchronization with transmitter, picks up message
- Advantages
 - Eavesdroppers hear only unintelligible blips
 - Attempts to jam signal on one frequency succeed only at knocking out a few bits

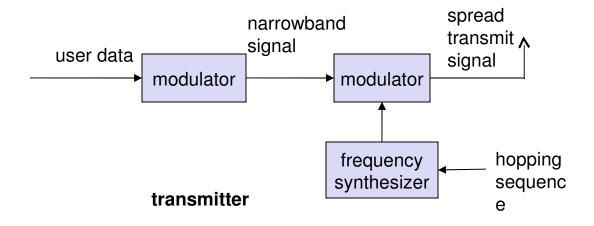
FHSS (Frequency Hopping)

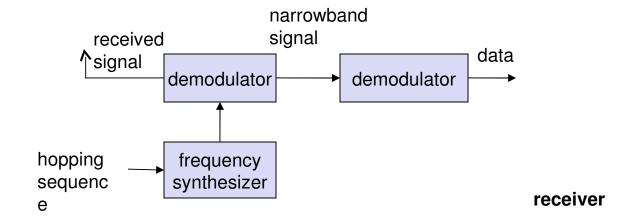
- Discrete changes of carrier frequency
 - sequence of frequency changes determined via pseudo random number sequence
- Two versions
 - Fast Hopping: several frequencies per user bit
 - Slow Hopping: several user bits per frequency
- Advantages
 - frequency selective fading and interference limited to short period
 - simple implementation
 - uses only small portion of spectrum at any time
- Disadvantages
 - not as robust as DSSS
 - simpler to detect

Slow and Fast FHSS



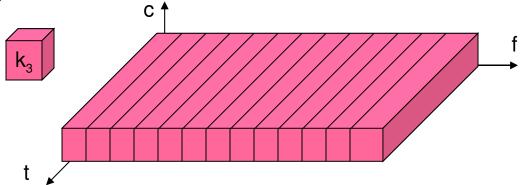
FHSS Transmit/Receive





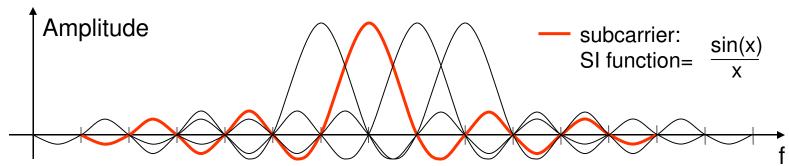
OFDM (Orthogonal Frequency Division)

 Parallel data transmission on several orthogonal subcarriers with lower rate



Maximum of one subcarrier frequency appears exactly at a frequency where all other subcarriers equal zero

superposition of frequencies in the same frequency range



OFDM

Properties

- Lower data rate on each subcarrier → less ISI
- interference on one frequency results in interference of one subcarrier only
- no guard space necessary
- orthogonality allows for signal separation via inverse FFT on receiver side
- precise synchronization necessary (sender/receiver)

Advantages

- no equalizer necessary
- no expensive filters with sharp edges necessary
- better spectral efficiency (compared to CDM)

Application

802.11a, HiperLAN2, ADSL

ALOHA

Stations transmit whenever they have data to send

- Detect collision or wait for acknowledgment
- If no acknowledgment (or collision), try again after a random waiting time

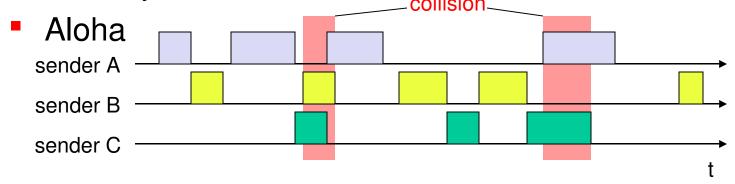
Collision: If more than one node transmits at the same time

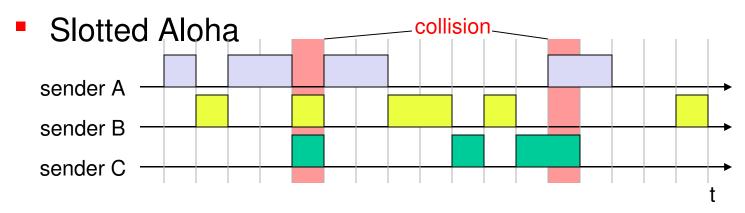
If there is a collision, all nodes have to re-transmit packets

Aloha/slotted Aloha

Mechanism

- random, distributed (no central arbiter), time-multiplex
- Slotted Aloha additionally uses time-slots, sending must always start at slot boundaries





Slotted Aloha

- Time is divided into slots
 - slot = one packet transmission time at least
- Master station generates synchronization pulses for time-slots
- Station waits till beginning of slot to transmit

 Vulnerability Window reduced from 2T to T; goodput doubles

Error control

Bit level error detection/correction

Single-bit, multi-bit or burst errors introduced due to channel noise

- Detected using redundant information sent along with data
- Full Redundancy:
 - Send everything twice
 - Simple but inefficient
- Common Schemes:
 - Parity
 - Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC)
 - Checksum

Error detection process

Transmitter

- For a given frame, an error-detecting code (check bits) is calculated from data bits
- Check bits are appended to data bits

Receiver

- Separates incoming frame into data bits and check bits
- Calculates check bits from received data bits
- Compares calculated check bits against received check bits
- Detected error occurs if mismatch

Frame level error correction

- Problems in transmitting a sequence of frames over a lossy link
 - frame damage, loss, reordering, duplication, insertion
- Solutions:
 - Forward Error Correction (FEC)
 - Use of redundancy for packet level error correction
 - Block Codes, Turbo Codes
 - Automatic Repeat Request (ARQ)
 - Use of acknowledgements and retransmission
 - Stop and Wait; Sliding Window

Block Code (Error Correction)

 Hamming distance – for 2 n-bit binary sequences, the number of different bits

```
- E.g., v_1=011011; v_2=110001; d(v1, v_2)=3
```

- For each data block, create a codeword
- Send the codeword
- If the code is invalid, look for data with shortest hamming distance (possibly correct code)

68

```
Datablock (k=2) Codeword (n=5)
00 00000
01 00111
10 11001
11 11110
```

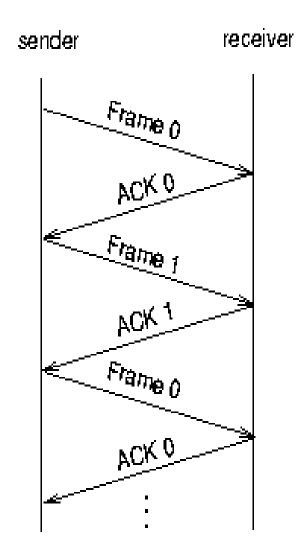
Suppose you receive codeword 00100 (error) Closest is 00000 (only one bit different)

Efficient version: Turbo Codes

Stop and Wait ARQ

- Sender waits for ACK

 (acknowledgement) after
 transmitting each frame; keeps
 copy of last frame.
- Receiver sends ACK if received frame is error free.
- Sender retransmits frame if ACKnot received before timer expires.
- Simple to implement but may waste bandwidth.
- Efficient Version: Sliding Window



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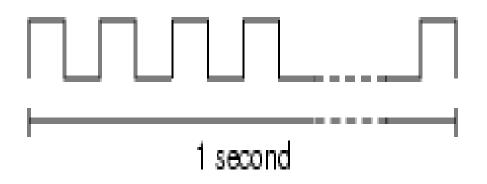
time

Bandwidth and Delay

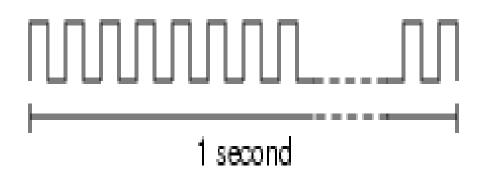
Bandwidth

- Amount of data that can be transmitted per unit time
 - expressed in cycles per second, or Hertz (Hz) for analog devices
 - expressed in bits per second (bps) for digital devices
 - $KB = 2^10 \text{ bytes}; Mbps = 10^6 \text{ bps}$
- Link v/s End-to-End

Bandwidth v/s bit width



1Mbps (each bit 1 microseconds wide)



2 Mbps (each bit 0.5 microseconds wide)

Latency (delay)

- Time it takes to send message from point A to point B
 - Latency = Propagation + Transmit+ Queue
 - Propagation = Distance / SpeedOfLight
 - Transmit = Size / Bandwidth
- Queueing not relevant for direct links
- Bandwidth not relevant if Size = 1 bit
- Software overhead can dominate when Distance is small
- RTT: round-trip time

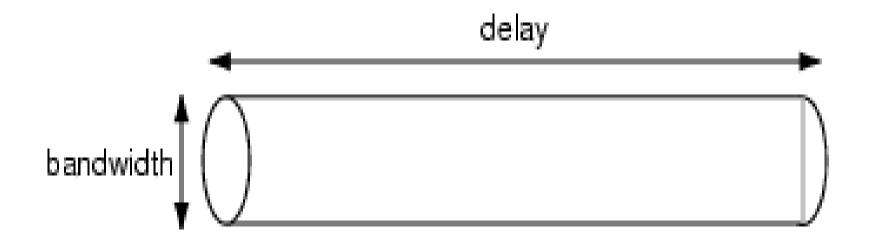
Delay X Bandwidth product

Relative importance of bandwidth and delay

Small message: 1ms vs 100ms dominates
 1Mbps vs 100Mbps

Large message: 1Mbps vs 100Mbps dominates
 1ms vs 100ms

Delay X Bandwidth product



100ms RTT and 45Mbps Bandwidth = 560 KB of data

TCP/IP Basics

Interconnection devices

Basic Idea: Transfer data from input to output

- Repeater
 - Amplifies the signal received on input and transmits it on output

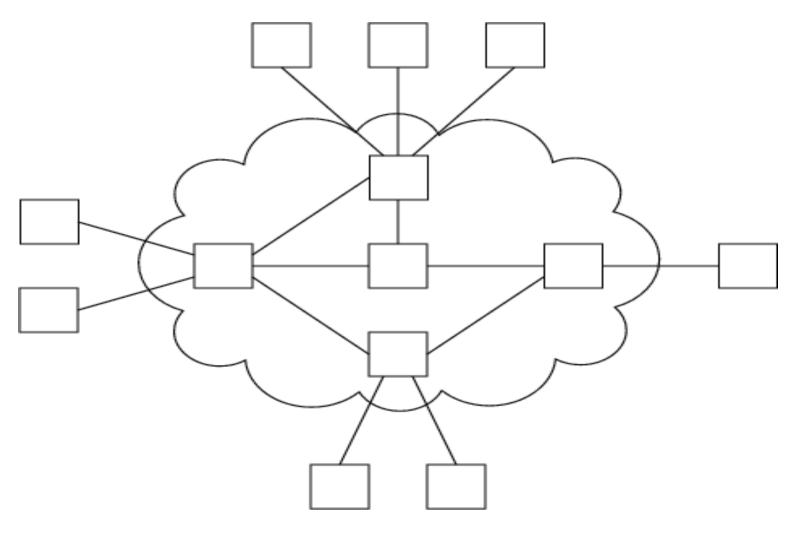
Switch

- Reads destination address of each packet and forwards appropriately to specific port
- Layer 3 switches (IP switches) also perform routing functions

Router

- decides routes for packets, based on destination address and network topology
- Exchanges information with other routers to learn network topology

Switched networks



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TCP/IP layers

Physical Layer:

- Transmitting bits over a channel.
- Deals with electrical and procedural interface to the transmission medium.

Data Link Layer:

- Transform the raw physical layer into a `link' for the higher layer.
- Deals with framing, error detection, correction and multiple access.

TCP/IP layers (contd.)

Network Layer:

- Addressing and routing of packets.
- Deals with subnetting, route determination.

Transport Layer:

- end-to-end connection characteristics.
- Deals with retransmissions, sequencing and congestion control.

TCP/IP layers (contd.)

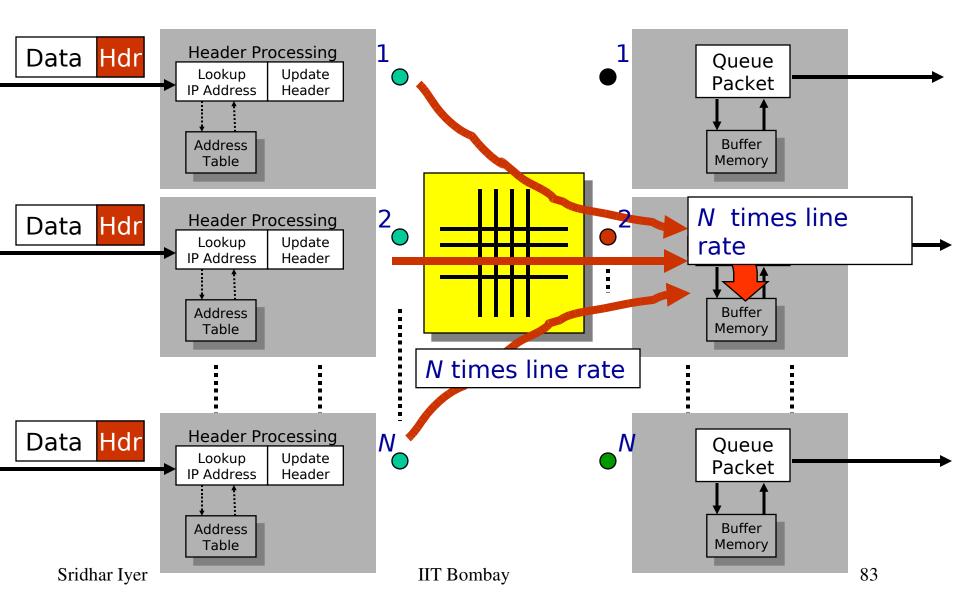
- Application Layer:
 - ``application'' protocols.
 - Deals with providing services to users and application developers.

Protocols are the building blocks of a network architecture.

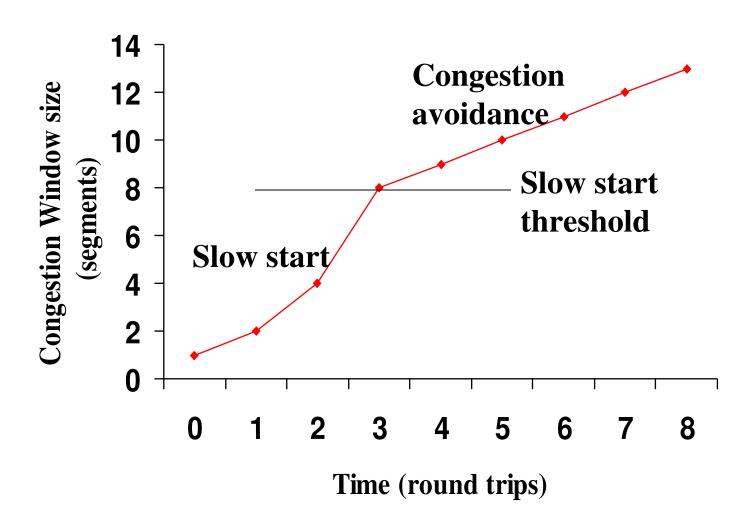
Lower layer services

- Unacknowledged connectionless service
 - No acknowledgements, no connection
 - Error recovery up to higher layers
 - For low error-rate links or voice traffic
- Acknowledged connectionless service
 - Acknowledgements improve reliability
 - For unreliable channels. e.g.: wireless systems
- Acknowledged connection-oriented service
 - Equivalent of reliable bit-stream; in-order delivery
 - Connection establishment and release
 - Inter-router traffic

Generic router architecture

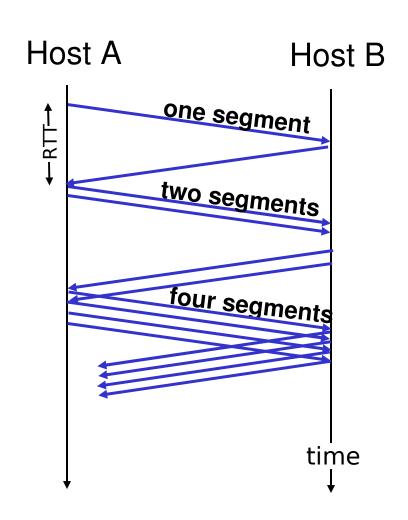


Typical TCP behaviour



Slow start phase

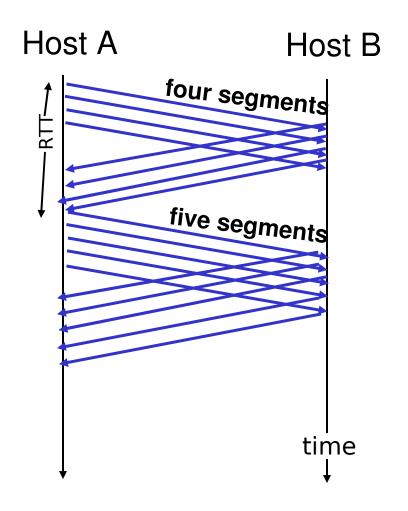
- initialize:
 - Cwnd = 1
- for (each ACK)
 - Cwnd++
- until
 - loss detection OR
 - •Cwnd > ssthresh



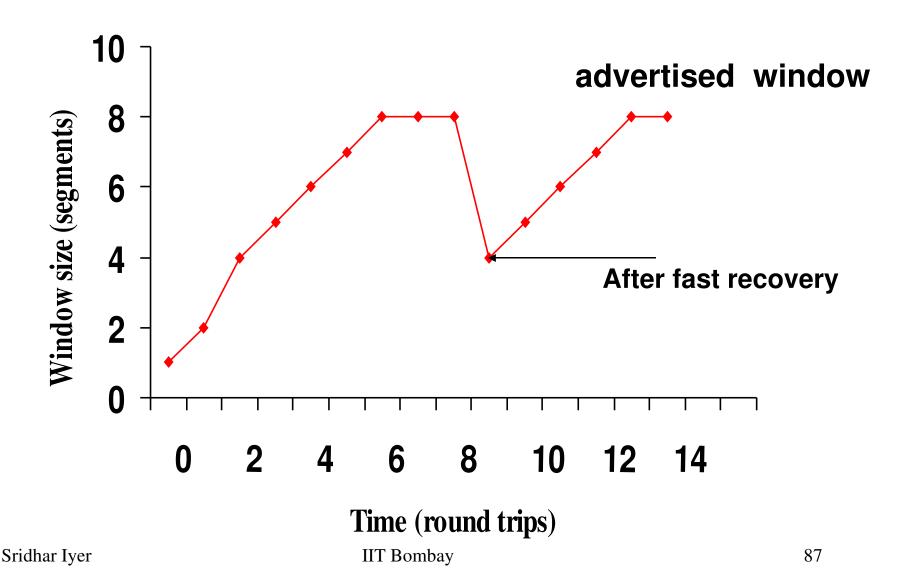
Congestion avoidance phase

```
/* Cwnd > threshold */
Until (loss detection) {
 every w ACKs:
   Cwnd++
ssthresh = Cwnd/2
• Cwnd = 1

    perform slow start
```



TCP: Fast retransmit and Fast recovery

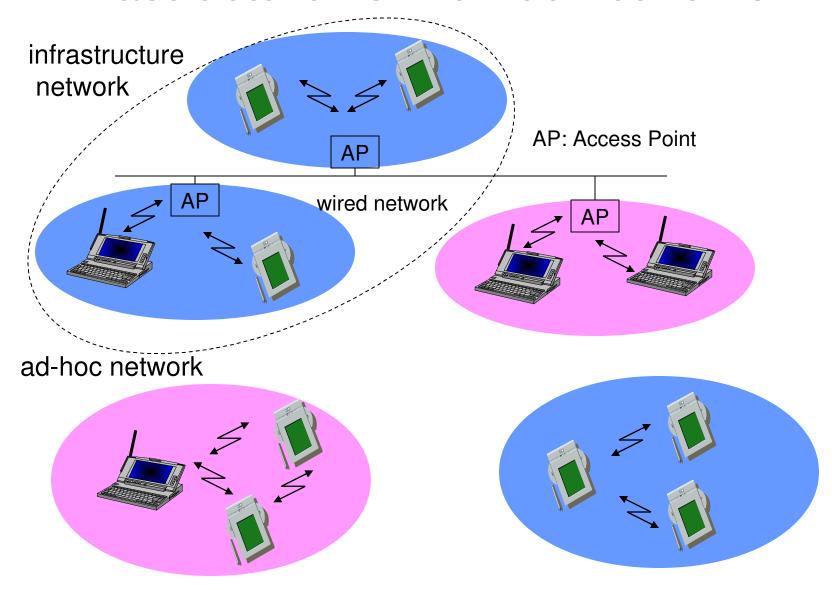


802.11 (WiFi) Overview

Wireless LANs

- Infrared (IrDA) or radio links (Wavelan)
- Advantages
 - very flexible within the reception area
 - Ad-hoc networks possible
 - (almost) no wiring difficulties
- Disadvantages
 - low bandwidth compared to wired networks
 - many proprietary solutions
- Infrastructure v/s ad-hoc networks (802.11)

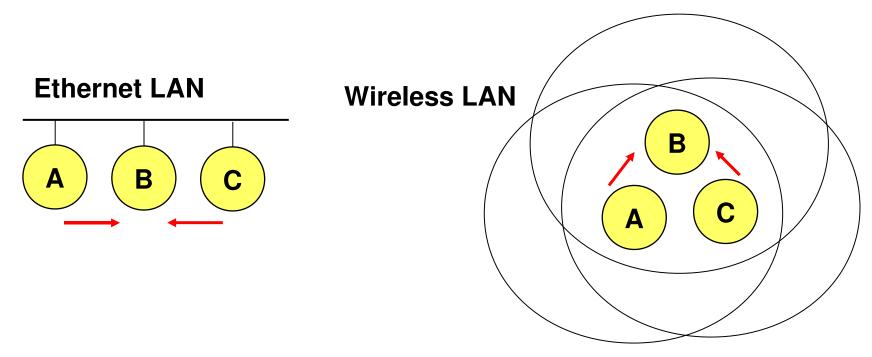
Infrastructure vs. Ad hoc networks



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Difference between wired and wireless



- If both A and C sense the channel to be idle at the same time, they send at the same time.
- Collision can be detected at sender in Ethernet.
- Half-duplex radios in wireless cannot detect collision at sender

Carrier Sense Multiple Access (CSMA)

- Listen before you speak
- Check whether the medium is active before sending a packet (i.e carrier sensing)
- If medium idle, then transmit
- If collision happens, then detect and resolve
- If medium is found busy, transmission follows:
 - 1- persistent
 - P- persistent
 - Non-persistent

Collision detection (CSMA/CD)

- All aforementioned scheme can suffer from collision
- Device can detect collision
 - Listen while transmitting
 - Wait for 2 * propagation delay
- On collision detection wait for random time before retrying
- Binary Exponential Backoff Algorithm
 - Reduces the chances of two waiting stations picking the same random time

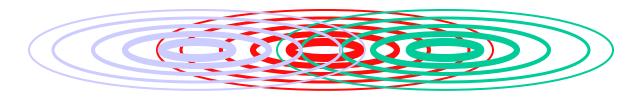
Binary Exponential Backoff

1.On detecting 1st collision for packet x station A chooses a number r between 0 and 1. wait for r * slot time and transmit.

Slot time is taken as 2 * propagation delay

- k. On detecting k^{th} collision for packet x choose r between $0,1,...,(2^k-1)$
- When value of k becomes high (10), give up.
- Randomization increase with larger window, but delay increases.

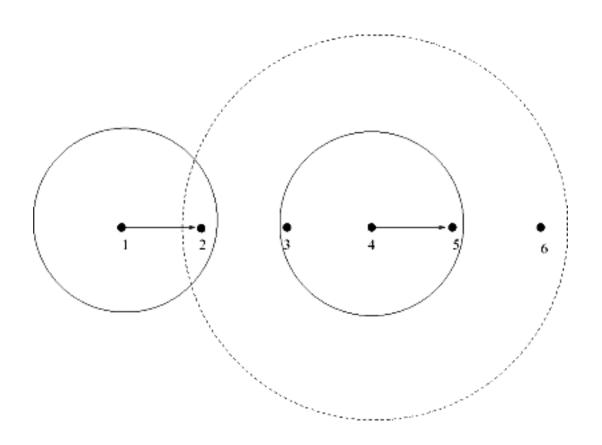
Hidden Terminal Problem



A B C

- A and C cannot hear each other.
- A sends to B, C cannot receive A.
- C wants to send to B, C senses a "free" medium (CS fails)
- Collision occurs at B.
- A cannot receive the collision (CD fails).
- A is "hidden" for C.

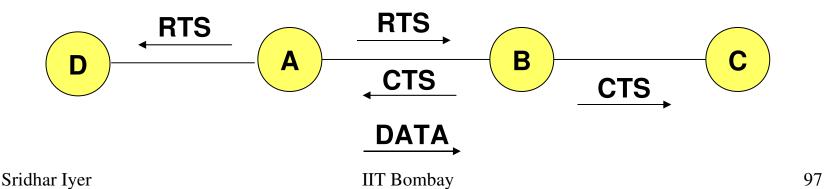
Effect of interference range



Transmission from $1 \Rightarrow 2$ will fail

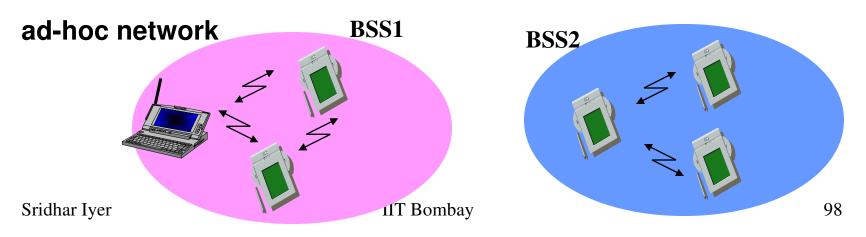
Solution for Hidden Terminals

- A first sends a Request-to-Send (RTS) to B
- On receiving RTS, B responds Clear-to-Send (CTS)
- Hidden node C overhears CTS and keeps quiet
 - Transfer duration is included in both RTS and CTS
- Exposed node overhears a RTS but not the CTS
 - D's transmission cannot interfere at B

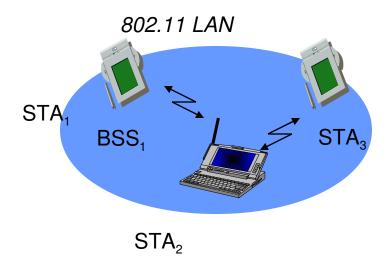


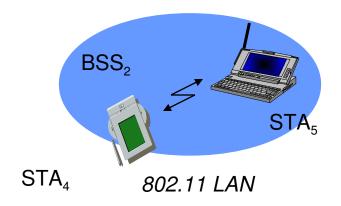
Components of IEEE 802.11 architecture

- The basic service set (BSS) is the basic building block of an IEEE 802.11 LAN
- The ovals can be thought of as the coverage area within which member stations can directly communicate
- The Independent BSS (IBSS) is the simplest LAN. It may consist of as few as two stations



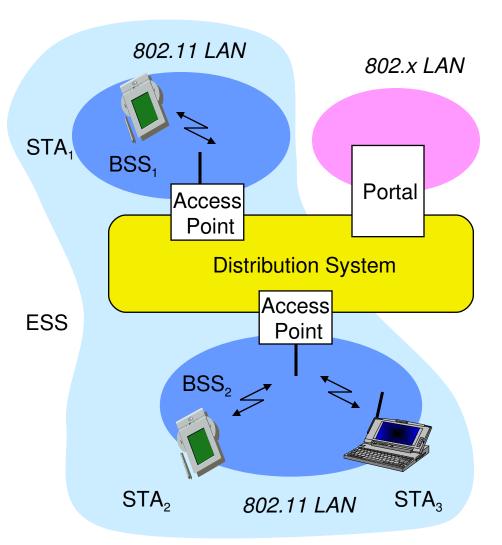
802.11 - ad-hoc network (DCF)





- Direct communication within a limited range
 - Station (STA):
 terminal with access
 mechanisms to the
 wireless medium
 - Basic Service Set (BSS):
 group of stations using the
 same radio frequency

802.11 - infrastructure network (PCF)



Station (STA)

 terminal with access mechanisms to the wireless medium and radio contact to the access point

Basic Service Set (BSS)

 group of stations using the same radio frequency

Access Point

station integrated into the wireless
 LAN and the distribution system

Portal

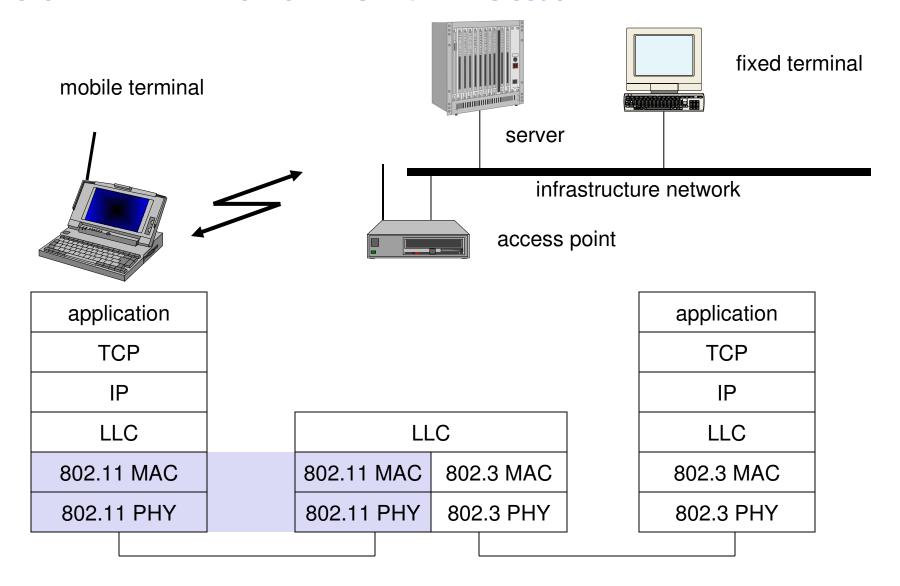
bridge to other (wired) networks

Distribution System

 interconnection network to form one logical network (EES: Extended Service Set) based on several BSS

> 100 Source: Schiller

802.11- in the TCP/IP stack



802.11 - MAC layer

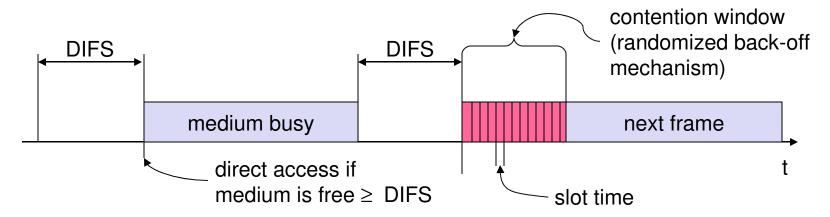
Traffic services

- Asynchronous Data Service (mandatory) DCF
- Time-Bounded Service (optional) PCF

Access methods

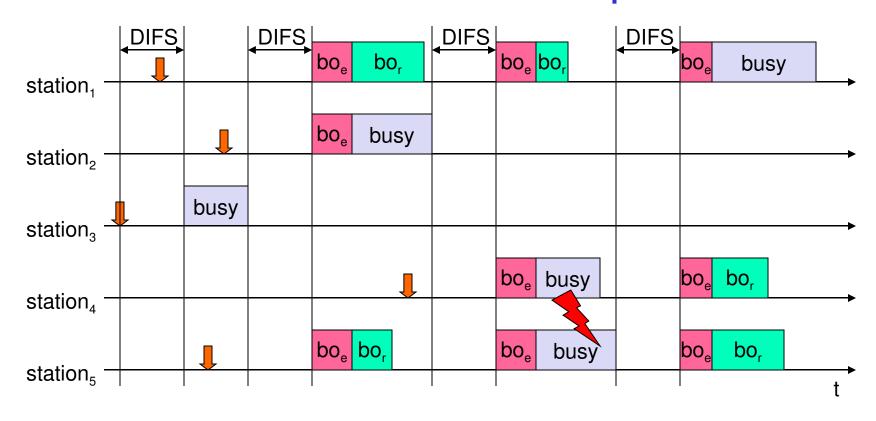
- DCF CSMA/CA (mandatory)
 - collision avoidance via randomized back-off mechanism
 - ACK packet for acknowledgements (not for broadcasts)
- DCF w/ RTS/CTS (optional)
 - avoids hidden terminal problem
- PCF (optional)
 - access point polls terminals according to a list

802.11 - CSMA/CA



- station ready to send starts sensing the medium (Carrier Sense based on CCA, Clear Channel Assessment)
- if the medium is free for the duration of an Inter-Frame Space (IFS),
 the station can start sending (IFS depends on service type)
- if the medium is busy, the station has to wait for a free IFS, then the station must additionally wait a random back-off time (collision avoidance, multiple of slot-time)
- if another station occupies the medium during the back-off time of the station, the back-off timer stops (fairness)

802.11 -CSMA/CA example



busy medium not idle (frame, ack etc.)

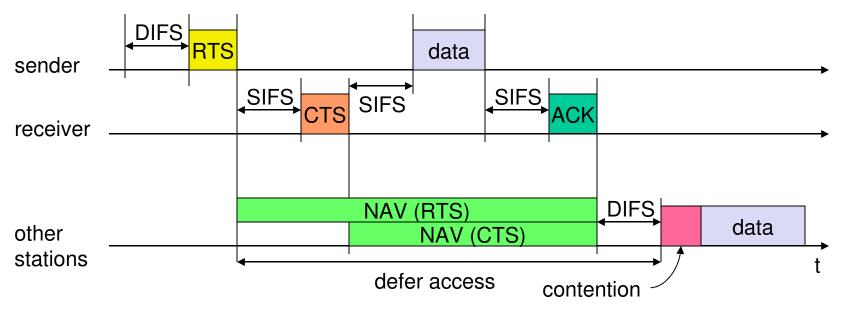
packet arrival at MAC

bo_e elapsed backoff time

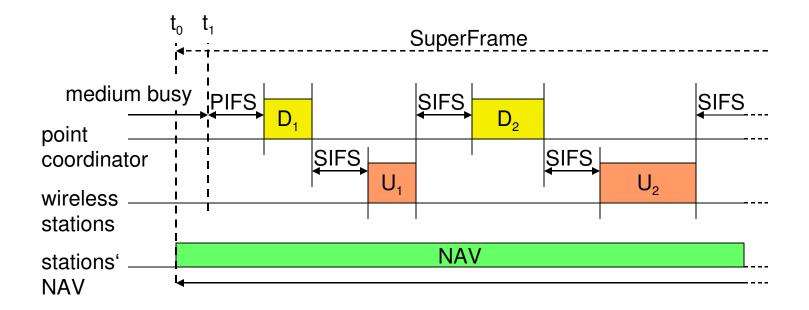
bo_r residual backoff time

802.11 -RTS/CTS

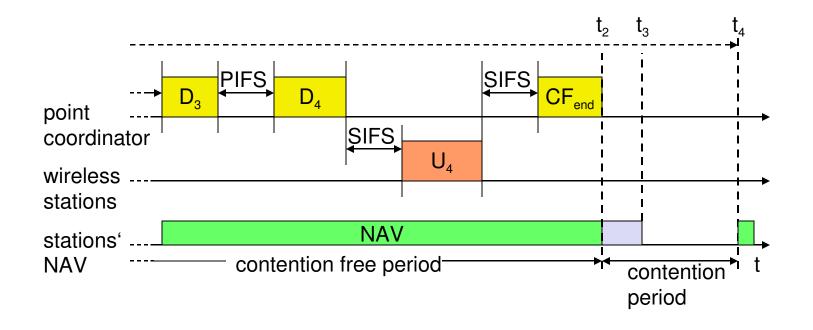
- station can send RTS with reservation parameter after waiting for DIFS (reservation determines amount of time the data packet needs the medium)
- acknowledgement via CTS after SIFS by receiver (if ready to receive)
- sender can now send data at once, acknowledgement via ACK
- other stations store medium reservations distributed via RTS and CTS



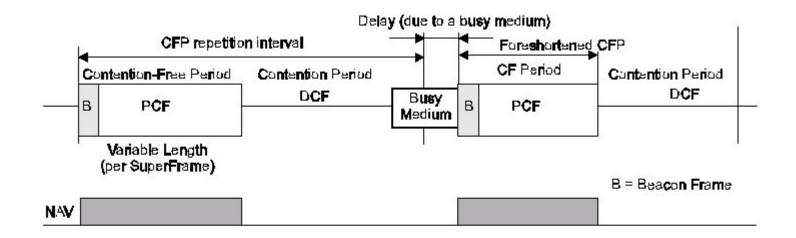
802.11 - PCF I



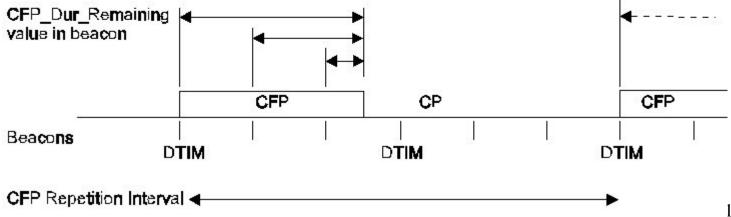
802.11 - PCF II



CFP structure and Timing



CFP/CP Alternation and Beacon Periods



Srid

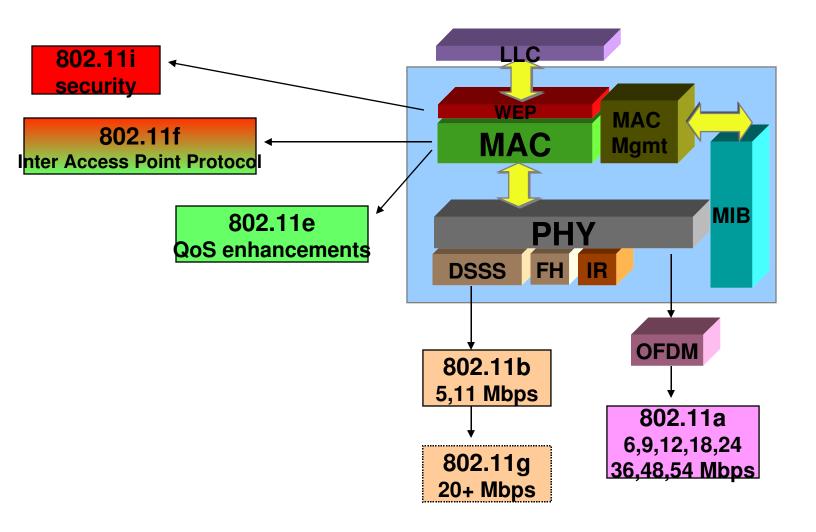
802.11 - MAC management

- Synchronization
 - try to find a LAN, try to stay within a LAN
 - timer etc.
- Power management
 - sleep-mode without missing a message
 - periodic sleep, frame buffering, traffic measurements
- Association/Reassociation
 - integration into a LAN
 - roaming, i.e. change networks by changing access points
 - scanning, i.e. active search for a network
- MIB Management Information Base
 - managing, read, write

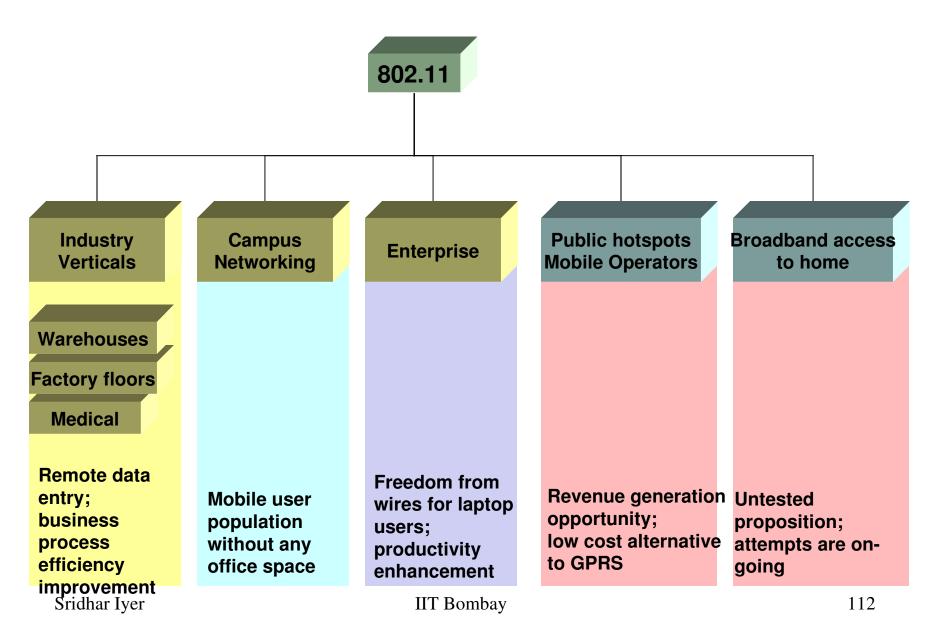
802.11 - Channels, association

- 802.11b: 2.4GHz-2.485GHz spectrum divided into 11 channels at different frequencies
 - AP admin chooses frequency for AP
 - interference possible: channel can be same as that chosen by neighboring AP!
- host: must associate with an AP
 - scans channels, listening for beacon frames containing AP's name (SSID) and MAC address
 - selects AP to associate with
 - may perform authentication
 - will typically run DHCP to get IP address in AP's subnet

802.11 variants



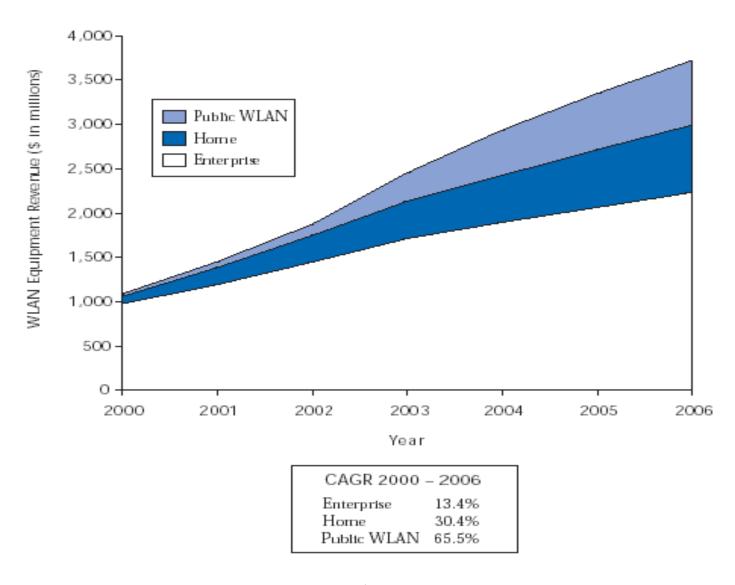
802.11 Market Evolution



Public WLANs

- Provide significantly higher data rates than widearea wireless networks
- Could take advantages of both WLAN and widearea radio technologies to create new services and reduce networking costs
- Public WLANs are the first wave of all-IP radio access networks
- New and innovative business models for providing public mobile services

Worldwide WLAN sales



802.16 (WiMaX) Overview

Motivation for 802.16

Broadband:

- A transmission facility having a bandwidth sufficient to carry multiple voice, video or data, simultaneously.
- High-capacity fiber to every user is expensive.

Broadband Wireless Access:

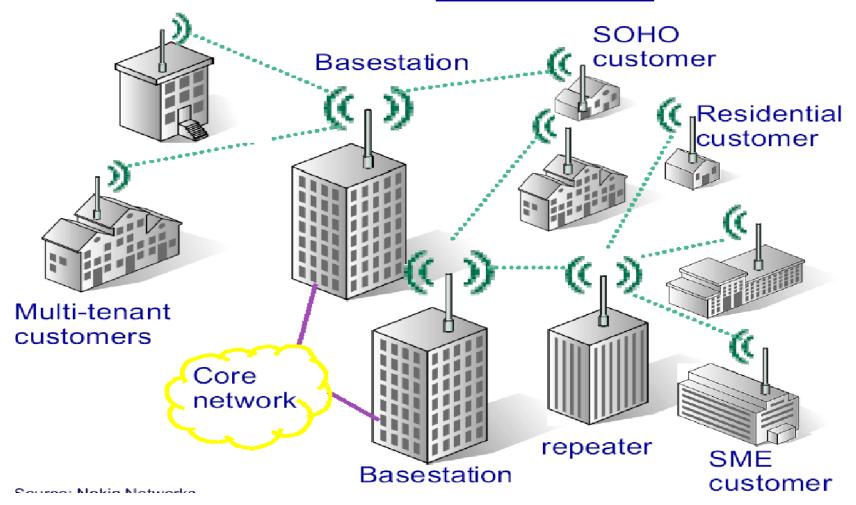
- provides "First-mile" network access to buildings.
- Cost effective and easy deployment.

IEEE 802.16

- WirelessMAN air interface
 - for fixed point to multi-point BWA
- Broad bandwidth: 10-66 GHz
 - Channel as wide as 28 MHz and
 - Data rate upto 134 Mbps
- MAC designed for efficient use of spectrum
 - Bandwidth on demand
 - QoS Support

802.16 Architecture

WirelessMAN: Wireless Metropolitan Area Network



Channel model

- Two Channels: Downlink and Uplink
- Supports both Time Division Duplexing and Frequency Division Duplexing
- Base station maps downstream traffic onto time slots with individual subscriber stations allocated time slot serially
- Uplink is shared between a number of subscriber stations by Time Division Multiple Access

Network initialization of SS

- Acquires downlink and uplink channel.
- Perform initial ranging, negotiate basic capabilities.
- Perform registration and authorization.
- Establish IP connectivity and time of day.
- Transfer operational parameters.
- Set up connections.

Bandwidth requests and grants

- Ways
 - Bandwidth request packet.
 - Piggybacking bandwidth request with normal data packet.
- Request can be made during time slot assigned by base station for sending request or data.
- Grant modes
 - Grant per connection.
 - Grant per subscriber station.
- Grant per subscriber station is more efficient and scalable but complex than Grant per connection.

Uplink scheduling services

- Unsolicited grant service
 - Support applications generating constant bit rate traffic periodically.
 - Provides fixed bandwidth at periodic intervals.
- Real-time polling service
 - Supports real-time applications generating variable bit rate traffic periodically.
 - Offers periodic opportunities to request bandwidth.
- Non-real-time polling service
 - Supports non-real-time applications generating variable bit rate traffic regularly.
 - Offers opportunities to request bandwidth regularly.
- Best effort

802.16: Summary

- Higher throughput at longer ranges (up to 50 km)
 - Better bits/second/Hz at longer ranges

Scalable system capacity

- Easy addition of channels maximizes cell capacity
- Flexible channel bandwidths accommodate allocations for <u>both</u> <u>licensed and license-exempt</u> spectrums

Coverage

- Standards-based mesh and smart antenna support
- Adaptive modulation enables tradeoff of bandwidth for range

Quality of Service

- Grant / request MAC supports voice and video
- Differentiated service levels: E1/T1 for business, best effort for residential

IEEE 802.16 Standard

	802.16	802.16a/REVd	802.16e
Completed	Dec 2001	802.16a: Jan 2003 802.16REVd: Q3'04	Estimate 2006
Spectrum	10 - 66 GHz	< 11 GHz	< 6 GHz
Channel Conditions	Line of sight only	Non line of sight	Non line of sight
Bit Rate	32 – 134 Mbps at 28MHz channelization	Up to 75 Mbps at 20MHz channelization	Up to 15 Mbps at 5MHz channelization
Modulation	QPSK, 16QAM and 64QAM	OFDM 256 sub-carriersQPSK, 16QAM, 64QAM	Same as 802.16a
Mobility	Fixed	Fixed	Pedestrian mobility – regional roaming
Channel Bandwidths	20, 25 and 28 MHz	Selectable channel bandwidths between 1.25 and 20 MHz	Same as 802.16a with uplink sub-channels to conserve power
Typical Cell Radius	1-3 miles	3 to 5 miles; max range 30 miles based on tower height, antenna gain and power transmit	1-3 miles

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802.11 Internals

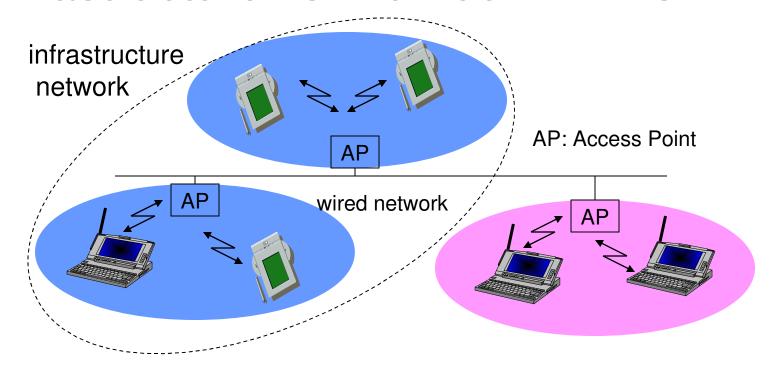
Wireless LANs vs. Wired LANs

- Destination address does not equal destination location
- The media impact the design
 - wireless LANs intended to cover reasonable geographic distances must be built from basic coverage blocks
- Impact of handling mobile (and portable) stations
 - Propagation effects
 - Mobility management
 - Power management

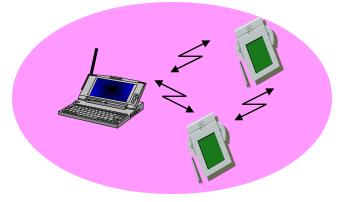
Wireless Media

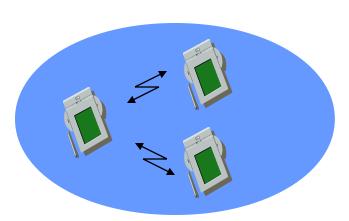
- Physical layers used in wireless networks
 - have neither absolute nor readily observable boundaries outside which stations are unable to receive frames
 - are unprotected from outside signals
 - communicate over a medium significantly less reliable than the cable of a wired network
 - have dynamic topologies
 - lack full connectivity and therefore the assumption normally made that every station can hear every other station in a LAN is invalid (i.e., STAs may be "hidden" from each other)
 - have time varying and asymmetric propagation properties

Infrastructure vs. Ad hoc WLANs



ad-hoc network





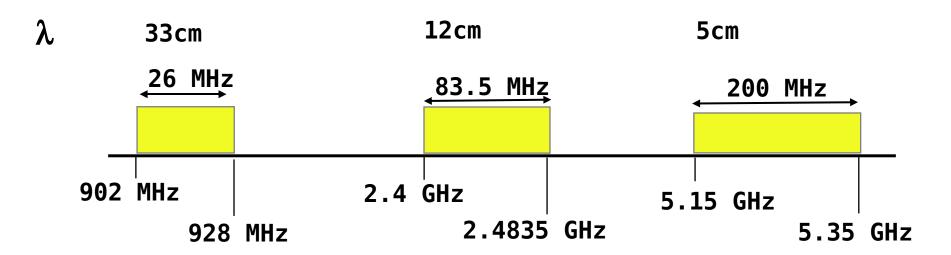
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128 Source: Schiller

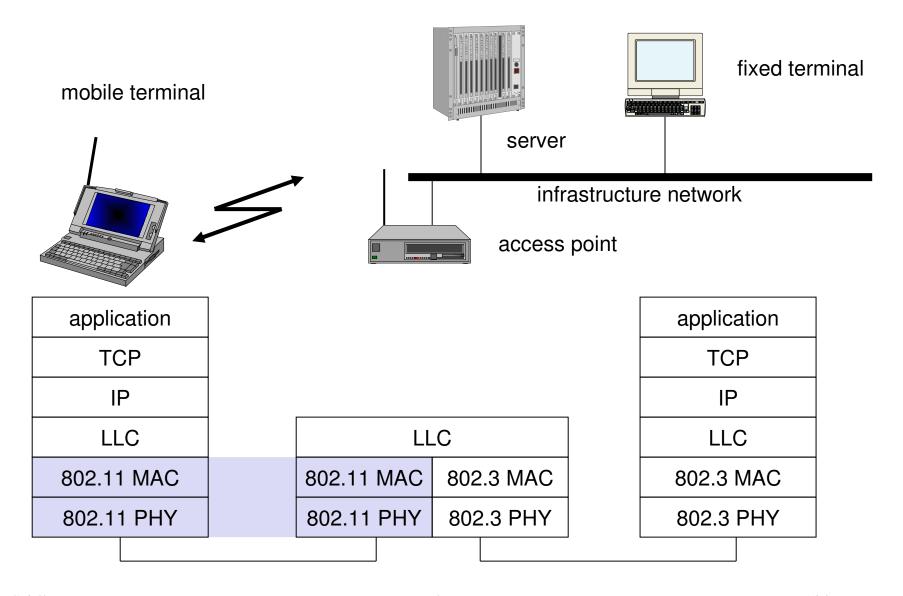
IEEE 802.11

 Wireless LAN standard defined in the unlicensed spectrum (2.4 GHz and 5 GHz U-NII bands)

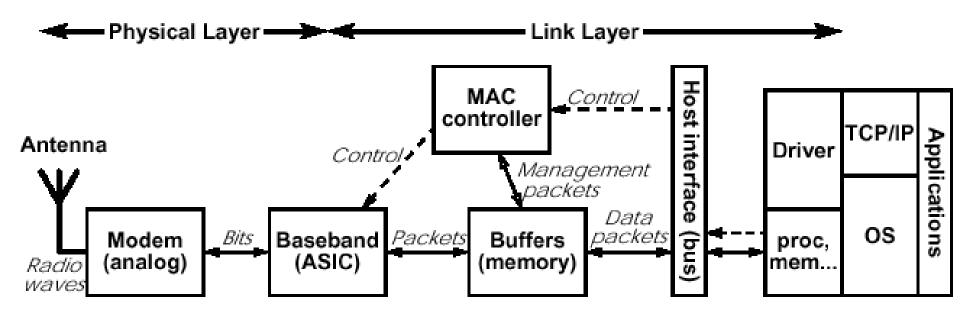


- Standards covers the MAC sublayer and PHY layers
- Three different physical layers in the 2.4 GHz band
 - FHSS, DSSS and IR
- OFDM based Phys laver in the 5 GHz band (802.11a)

802.11- in the TCP/IP stack



Functional Diagram



802.11 - Layers and functions

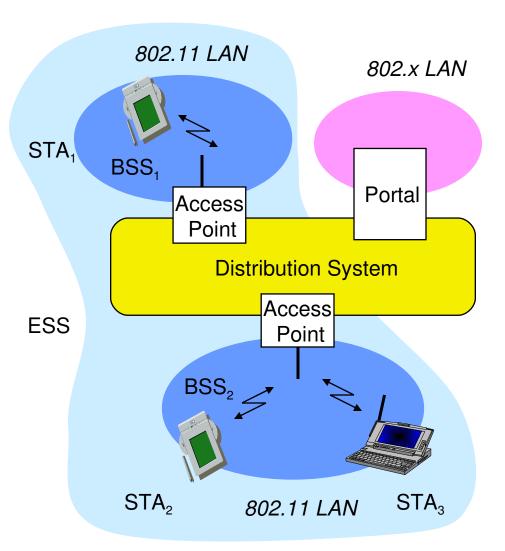
- MAC
 - access mechanisms, fragmentation, encryption
- MAC Management
 - synchronization, roaming,
 MIR power management

DLC	LLC		
	MAC	MAC Management	
PHY	PLCP	PHY Management	
	PMD		

- PLCP Physical Layer Convergence Protocol
 - clear channel assessment signal (carrier sense)
- PMD Physical Medium Dependent
 - modulation, codingPHY Management
 - channel selection, MIBStation Management
 - coordination of all management functions

Station Management

802.11 - infrastructure network



Station (STA)

 terminal with access mechanisms to the wireless medium and radio contact to the access point

Basic Service Set (BSS)

group of stations using the same radio frequency

Access Point

station integrated into the wireless
 LAN and the distribution system

Portal

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bridge to other (wired) networks

Distribution System

 interconnection network to form one logical network (EES: Extended Service Set) based on several BSS

> 133 Source: Schiller

Distribution System (DS) concepts

- The Distribution system interconnects multiple BSSs
- 802.11 standard logically separates the wireless medium from the distribution system – it does not preclude, nor demand, that the multiple media be same or different
- An Access Point (AP) is a STA that provides access to the DS by providing DS services in addition to acting as a STA.
- Data moves between BSS and the DS via an AP
- The DS and BSSs allow 802.11 to create a wireless network of arbitrary size and complexity called the Extended Service Set network (ESS)

Extended Service Set network

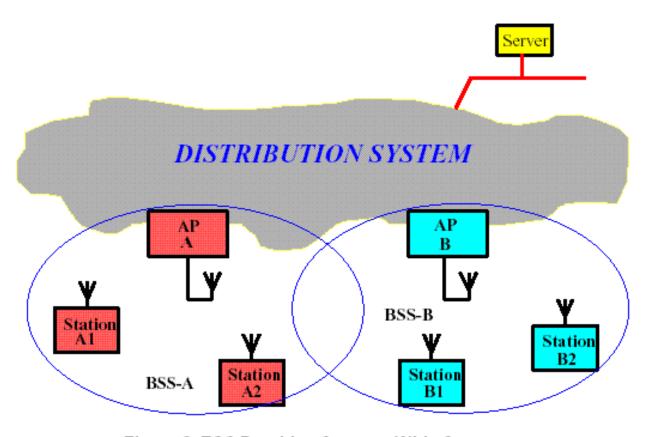


Figure 2 ESS Provides Campus-Wide Coverage

Sridhar Iyer IIT Bombay 135 Source: Intersil

802.11 - Physical layer

- 3 versions of spread spectrum: 2 radio (typ. 2.4 GHz), 1 IR
 - data rates 1 or 2 Mbps
- FHSS (Frequency Hopping Spread Spectrum)
 - spreading, despreading, signal strength, typically 1 Mbps
 - min. 2.5 frequency hops/s (USA), two-level GFSK modulation
- DSSS (Direct Sequence Spread Spectrum)
 - DBPSK modulation for 1 Mbps (Differential Binary Phase Shift Keying), DQPSK for 2 Mbps (Differential Quadrature PSK)
 - preamble and header of a frame is always transmitted with 1
 Mbps, rest of transmission 1 or 2 Mbps
 - chipping sequence: +1, -1, +1, +1, -1, +1, +1, -1, -1, -1 (Barker code)
 - max. radiated power 1 W (USA), 100 mW (EU), min. 1mW
- Infrared
 - 850-950 nm, diffuse light, typ. 10 m range
 - carrier detection, energy detection, synchronization

Spread-spectrum communications



Figure 5a Effect of PN Sequence on Transmit Spectrum

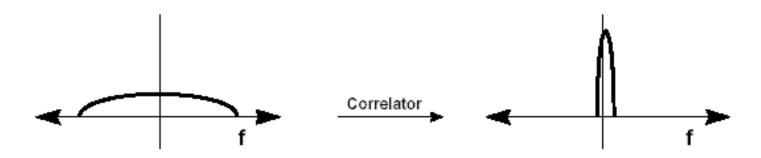


Figure 5b Received Signal is Correlated with PN to Recover Data and Reject Interference

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Source: Intersil

DSSS Barker Code modulation

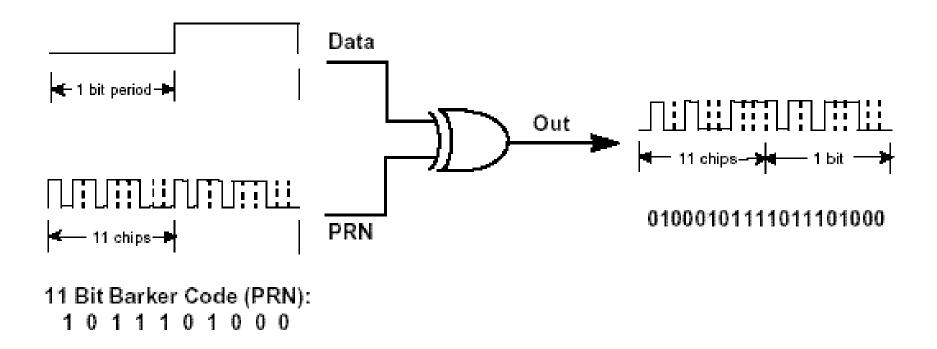


Figure 3 Digital Modulation of Data with PRN Sequence

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Source: Intersil

DSSS properties

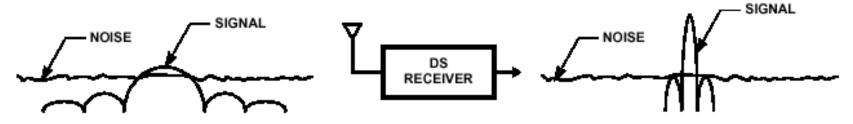


FIGURE 2A. LOW POWER DENSITY

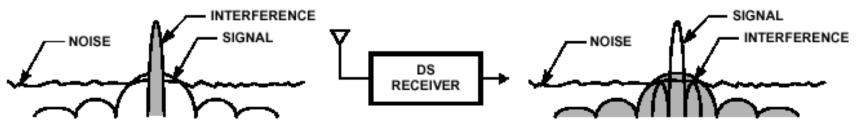


FIGURE 2B. INTERFERENCE REJECTION

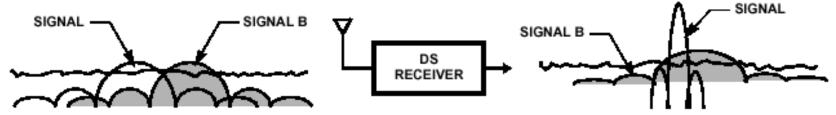


FIGURE 2C. MULTIPLE ACCESS

FIGURE 2. DIRECT SEQUENCE SPREAD SPECTRUM PROPERTIES

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Source: Intersil

802.11 - MAC layer

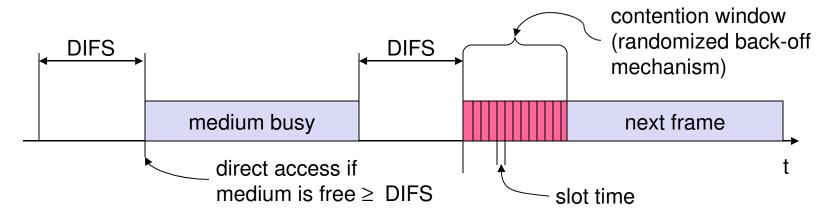
Traffic services

- Asynchronous Data Service (mandatory) DCF
- Time-Bounded Service (optional) PCF

Access methods

- DCF CSMA/CA (mandatory)
 - collision avoidance via randomized back-off mechanism
 - ACK packet for acknowledgements (not for broadcasts)
- DCF w/ RTS/CTS (optional)
 - avoids hidden/exposed terminal problem, provides reliability
- PCF (optional)
 - access point polls terminals according to a list

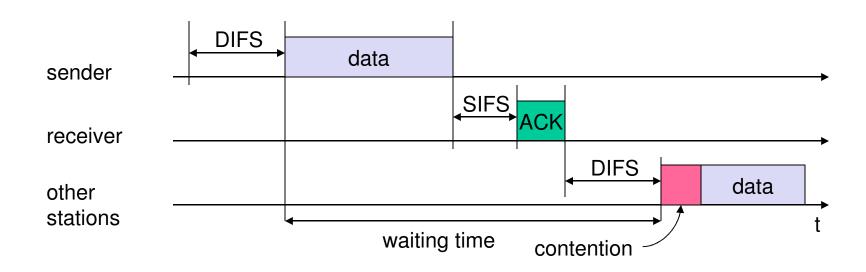
802.11 - CSMA/CA



- station which has data to send starts sensing the medium (Carrier Sense based on CCA, Clear Channel Assessment)
- if the medium is free for the duration of an Inter-Frame Space (IFS), the station can start sending (IFS depends on service type)
- if the medium is busy, the station has to wait for a free IFS plus an additional random back-off time (multiple of slot-time)
- if another station occupies the medium during the back-off time of the station, the back-off timer stops (fairness)

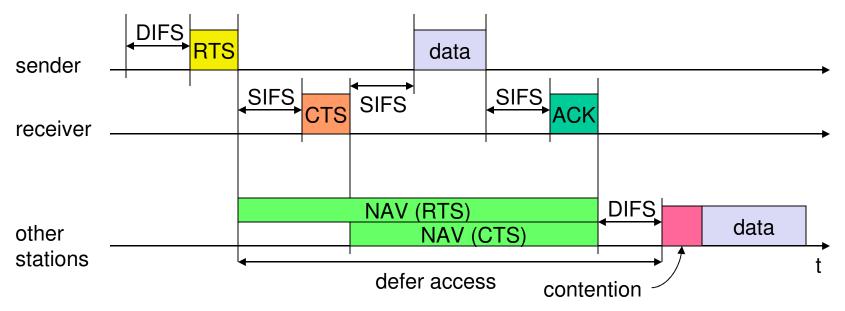
802.11 DCF – basic access

- If medium is free for DIFS time, station sends data
- receivers acknowledge at once (after waiting for SIFS) if the packet was received correctly (CRC)
- automatic retransmission of data packets in case of transmission errors



802.11 -RTS/CTS

- If medium is free for DIFS, station can send RTS with reservation parameter (reservation determines amount of time the data packet needs the medium)
- acknowledgement via CTS after SIFS by receiver (if ready to receive)
- sender can now send data at once, acknowledgement via ACK
- other stations store medium reservations distributed via RTS and CTS



802.11 - Carrier Sensing

In IEEE 802.11, carrier sensing is performed

- at the air interface (physical carrier sensing), and
- at the MAC layer (virtual carrier sensing)

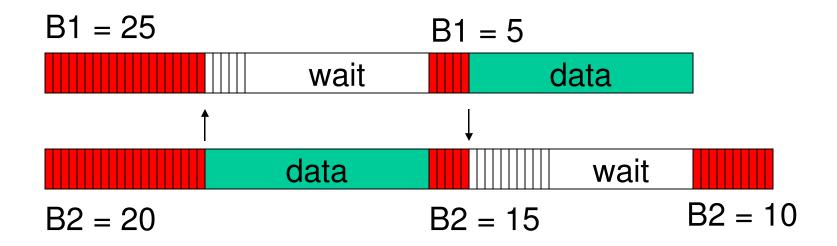
Physical carrier sensing

- detects presence of other users by analyzing all detected packets
- Detects activity in the channel via relative signal strength from other sources
- Virtual carrier sensing is done by sending MPDU duration information in the header of RTS/CTS and data frames
- Channel is busy if either mechanisms indicate it to be
- Duration field indicates the amount of time (in microseconds) required to complete frame transmission
- Stations in the BSS use the information in the duration field to adjust their network allocation vector (NAV)

802.11 - Collision Avoidance

- If medium is not free during DIFS time..
- Go into Collision Avoidance: Once channel becomes idle, wait for DIFS time plus a randomly chosen backoff time before attempting to transmit
- For DCF the backoff is chosen as follows:
 - When first transmitting a packet, choose a backoff interval in the range [0,cw]; cw is contention window, nominally 31
 - Count down the backoff interval when medium is idle
 - Count-down is suspended if medium becomes busy
 - When backoff interval reaches 0, transmit RTS
 - If collision, then double the cw up to a maximum of 1024
- Time spent counting down backoff intervals is part of MAC overhead

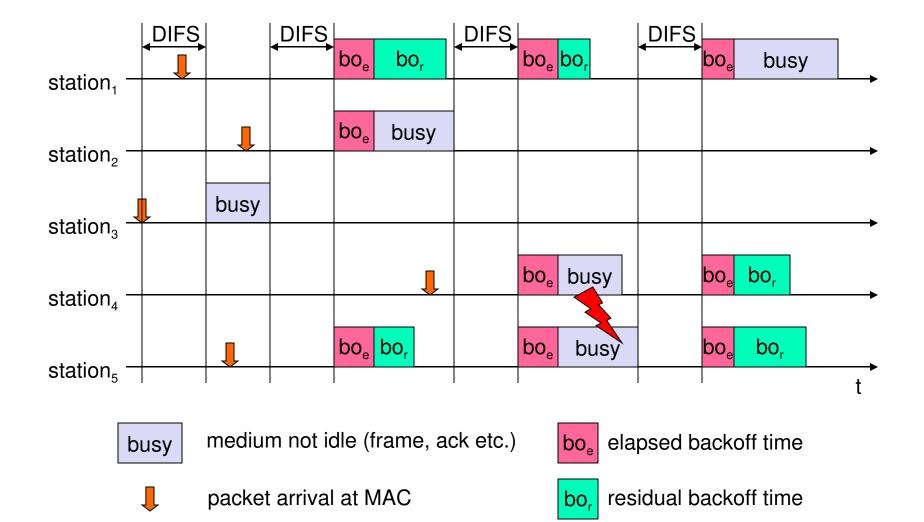
Example - backoff



cw = 31

B1 and B2 are backoff intervals at nodes 1 and 2

Backoff - more complex example



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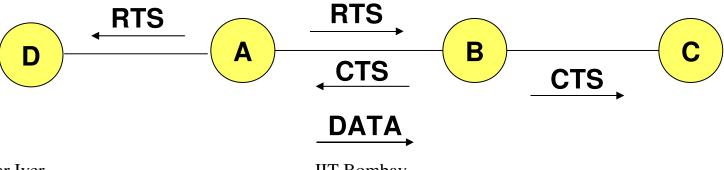
Source: Schiller

802.11 - Priorities

- defined through different inter frame spaces mandatory idle time intervals between the transmission of frames
- SIFS (Short Inter Frame Spacing)
 - highest priority, for ACK, CTS, polling response
 - SIFSTime and SlotTime are fixed per PHY layer (10 μ s and 20 μ s respectively in DSSS)
- PIFS (PCF IFS)
 - medium priority, for time-bounded service using PCF
 - PIFSTime = SIFSTime + SlotTime
- DIFS (DCF IFS)
 - lowest priority, for asynchronous data service
 - DCF-IFS: DIFSTime = SIFSTime + 2xSlotTime

Solution to Hidden Terminals

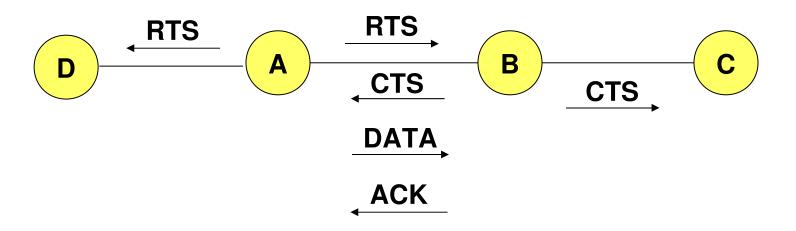
- A first sends a Request-to-Send (RTS) to B
- On receiving RTS, B responds Clear-to-Send (CTS)
- Hidden node C overhears CTS and keeps quiet
 - Transfer duration is included in both RTS and CTS
- Exposed node overhears a RTS but not the CTS
 - D's transmission cannot interfere at B



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802.11 - Reliability

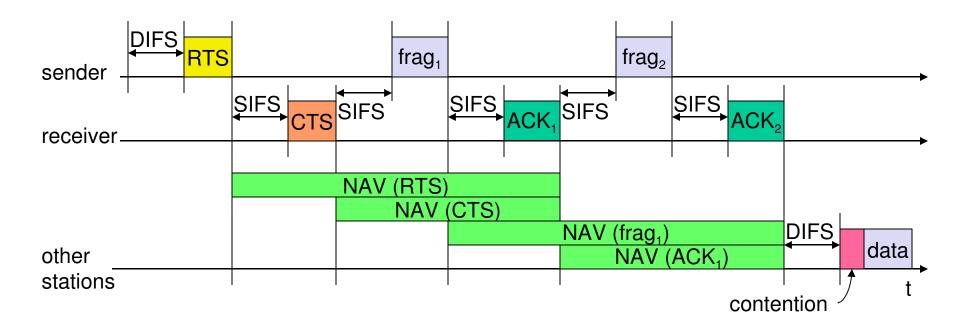
- Use acknowledgements
 - When B receives DATA from A, B sends an ACK
 - If A fails to receive an ACK, A retransmits the DATA
 - Both C and D remain quiet until ACK (to prevent collision of ACK)
 - Expected duration of transmission+ACK is included in RTS/ CTS packets



802.11 - Congestion Control

- Contention window (cw) in DCF: Congestion control achieved by dynamically choosing cw
- large cw leads to larger backoff intervals
- small cw leads to larger number of collisions
- Binary Exponential Backoff in DCF:
 - When a node fails to receive CTS in response to its RTS, it increases the contention window
 - cw is doubled (up to a bound cwmax =1023)
 - Upon successful completion data transfer, restore
 cw to cwmin=31

Fragmentation



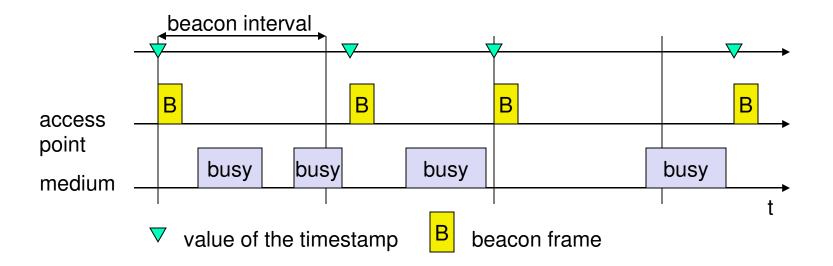
802.11 - MAC management

- Synchronization
 - try to find a LAN, try to stay within a LAN
 - timer etc.
- Power management
 - sleep-mode without missing a message
 - periodic sleep, frame buffering, traffic measurements
- Association/Reassociation
 - integration into a LAN
 - roaming, i.e. change networks by changing access points
 - scanning, i.e. active search for a network
- MIB Management Information Base
 - managing, read, write

802.11 - Synchronization

- All STAs within a BSS are synchronized to a common clock
 - Infrastructure mode: AP is the timing master
 - periodically transmits Beacon frames containing Timing Synchronization function (TSF)
 - Receiving stations accepts the timestamp value in TSF
 - Ad hoc mode: TSF implements a distributed algorithm
 - Each station adopts the timing received from any beacon that has TSF value later than its own TSF timer
- This mechanism keeps the synchronization of the TSF timers in a BSS to within 4 μ s plus the maximum propagation delay of the PHY layer

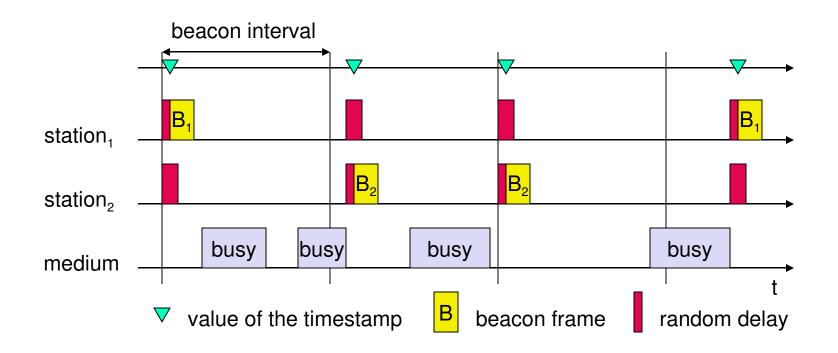
Synchronization using a Beacon (infrastructure mode)



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Source: Schiller

Synchronization using a Beacon (ad-hoc mode)



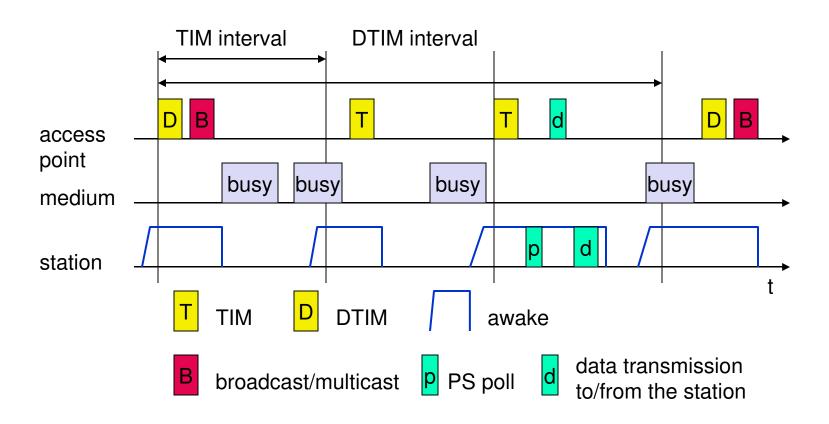
802.11 - Power management

- Idea: switch the transceiver off if not needed
- States of a station: sleep and awake
- Timing Synchronization Function (TSF)
 - stations wake up at the same time
- Infrastructure
 - Traffic Indication Map (TIM)
 - list of unicast receivers transmitted by AP
 - Delivery Traffic Indication Map (DTIM)
 - list of broadcast/multicast receivers transmitted by AP
- Ad-hoc
 - Ad-hoc Traffic Indication Map (ATIM)
 - announcement of receivers by stations buffering frames
 - more complicated no central AP
 - collision of ATIMs possible (scalability?)

802.11 - Energy Conservation

- Power Saving in infrastructure mode
 - Nodes can go into sleep or standby mode
 - An Access Point periodically transmits a beacon indicating which nodes have packets waiting for them
 - Each power saving (PS) node wakes up periodically to receive the beacon
 - If a node has a packet waiting, then it sends a PS-Poll
 - After waiting for a backoff interval in [0,CWmin]
 - Access Point sends the data in response to PS-poll

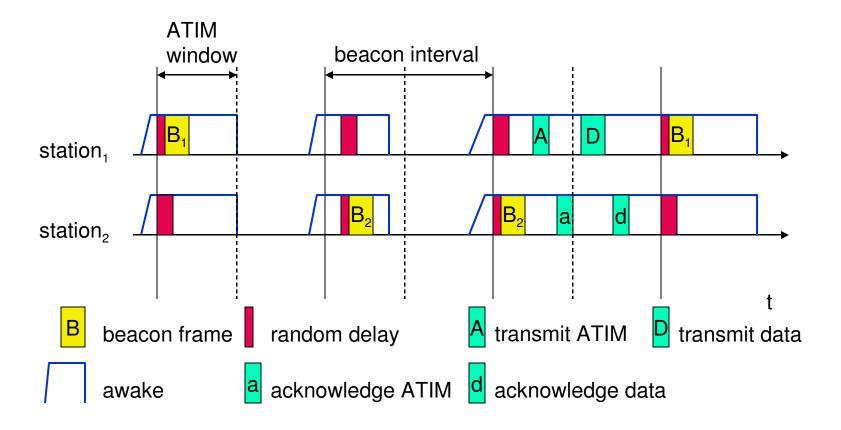
Power saving with wake-up patterns (infrastructure)



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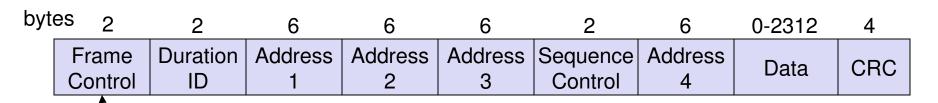
Source: Schiller

Power saving with wake-up patterns (ad-hoc)



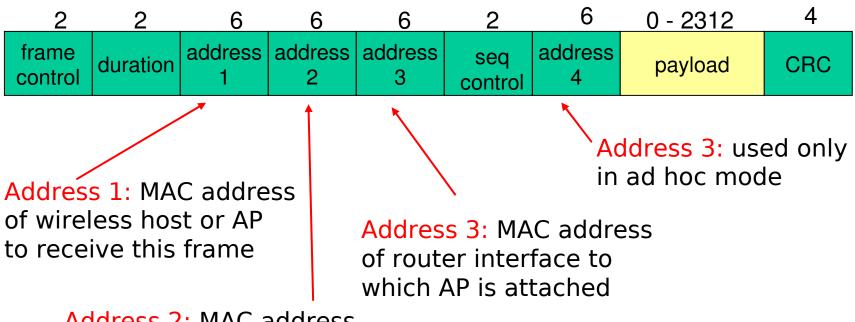
802.11 - Frame format

- Types
 - control frames, management frames, data frames
- Sequence numbers
 - important against duplicated frames due to lost ACKs
- Addresses
 - receiver, transmitter (physical), BSS identifier, sender (logical)
- Miscellaneous
 - sending time checksum frame control data



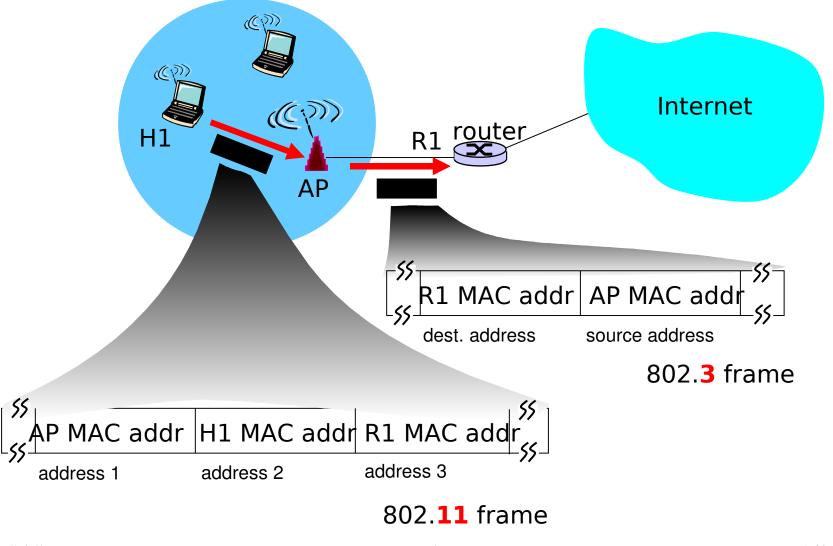
version, type, fragmentation, security, ...

802.11 frame: addressing



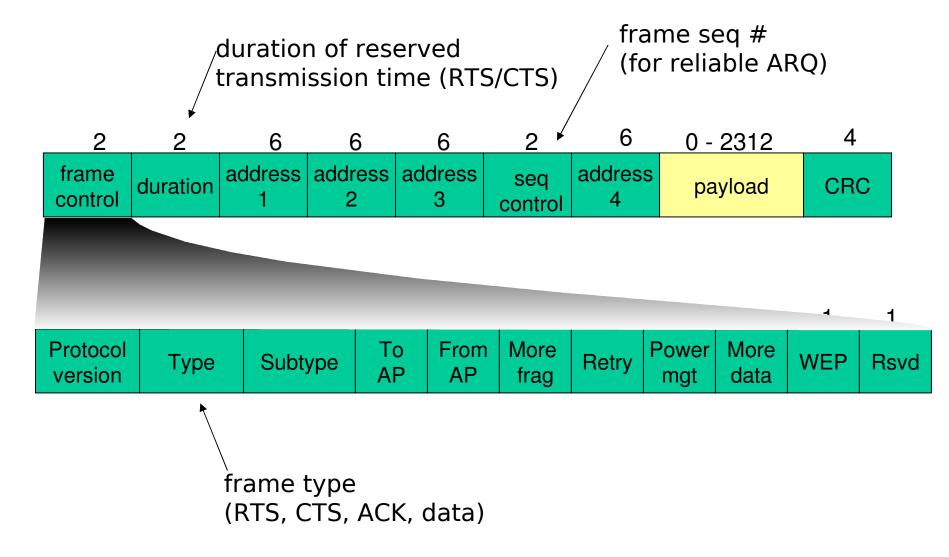
Address 2: MAC address of wireless host or AP transmitting this frame

802.11 frame: addressing



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802.11 frame: more



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Types of Frames

Control Frames

- RTS/CTS/ACK
- CF-Poll/CF-End

Management Frames

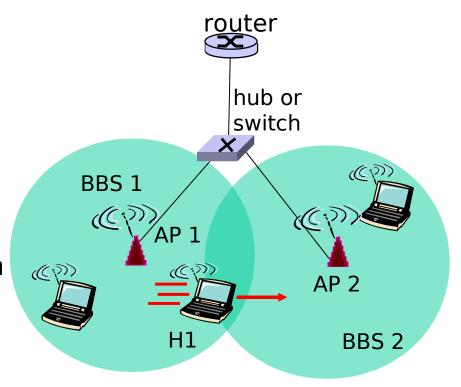
- Beacons
- Probe Request/Response
- Association Request/Response
- Dissociation/Reassociation
- Authentication/Deauthentication
- ATIM
- Data Frames

802.11 - Roaming

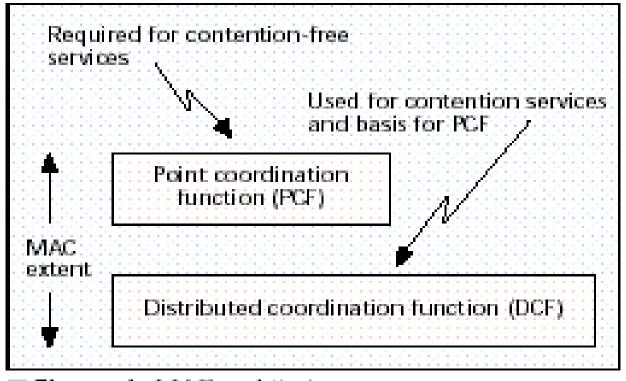
- Bad connection in Infrastructure mode? Perform:
- scanning of environment
 - listen into the medium for beacon signals or send probes into the medium and wait for an answer
- send Reassociation Request
 - station sends a request to a new AP(s)
- receive Reassociation Response
 - success: AP has answered, station can now participate
 - failure: continue scanning
- AP accepts Reassociation Request and
 - signals the new station to the distribution system
 - the distribution system updates its data base (i.e., location information)
 - typically, the distribution system now informs the old AP so it can release resources

802.11 - Roaming within same subnet

- H1 remains in same IP subnet: IP address can remain same
- switch: which AP is associated with H1?
 - self-learning
 - switch will see frame from H1
 and "remember" which switch
 port can be used to reach H1



802.11 - Point Coordination Function

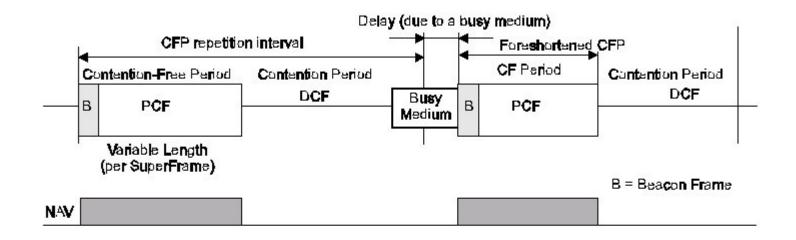


■ Figure 4. MAC architecture.

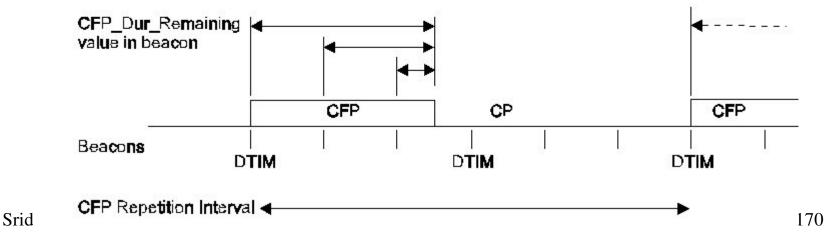
Coexistence of PCF and DCF

- A Point Coordinator (PC) resides in the Access Point and controls frame transfers during a Contention Free Period (CFP)
- A CF-Poll frame is used by the PC to invite a station to send data. Stations are polled from a list maintained by the PC
- The CFP alternates with a Contention Period (CP) in which data transfers happen as per the rules of DCF
- This CP must be large enough to send at least one maximum-sized packet including RTS/CTS/ACK
- CFPs are generated at the CFP repetition rate
- The PC sends Beacons at regular intervals and at the start of each CFP
- The CF-End frame signals the end of the CFP

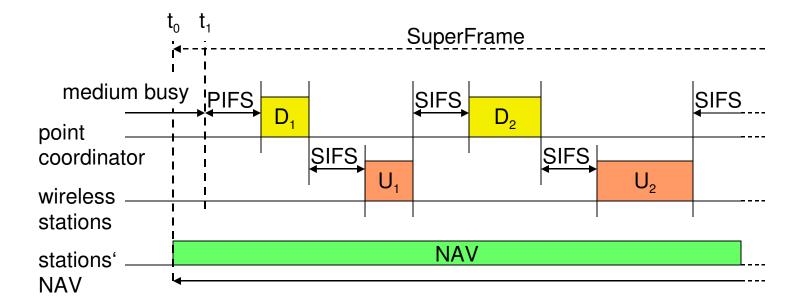
CFP structure and Timing



CFP/CP Alternation and Beacon Periods



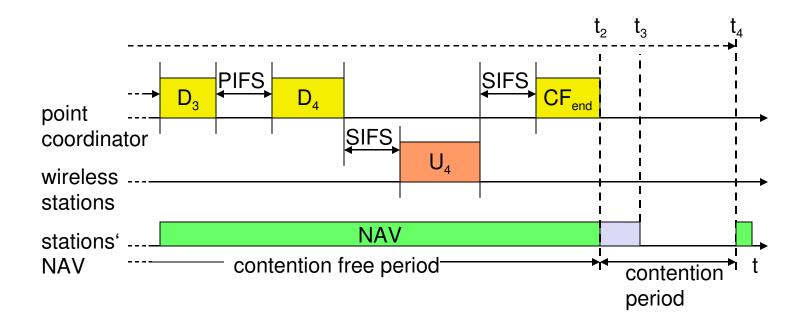
802.11 - PCF I



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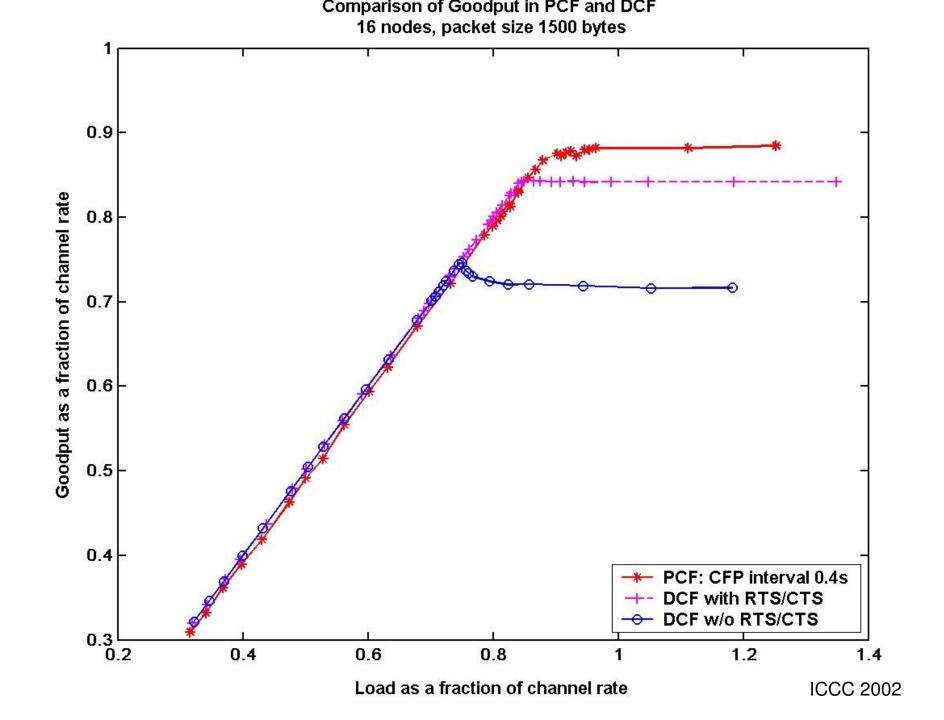
Source: Schiller

802.11 - PCF II



Throughput – DCF vs. PCF

- Overheads to throughput and delay in DCF mode come from losses due to collisions and backoff
- These increase when number of nodes in the network increases
- RTS/CTS frames cost bandwidth but large data packets (>RTS threshold) suffer fewer collisions
- RTC/CTS threshold must depend on number of nodes
- Overhead in PCF modes comes from wasted polls
- Polling mechanisms have large influence on throughput
- Throughput in PCF mode shows up to 20% variation with other configuration parameters – CFP repetition rate
- Saturation throughput of DCF less than PCF in all studies presented here ('heavy load' conditions)



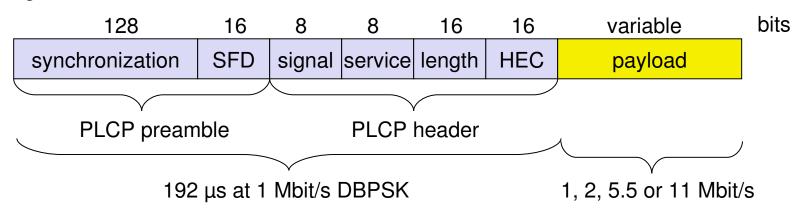
WLAN: IEEE 802.11b

- Data rate
 - 1, 2, 5.5, 11 Mbit/s, depending on SNR
 - User data rate max. approx. 6
 Mbit/s
- Transmission range
 - 300m outdoor, 30m indoor
 - Max. data rate ~10m indoor
- Frequency
 - Free 2.4 GHz ISM-band
- Security
 - Limited, WEP insecure, SSID
- Cost
 - 100\$ adapter, 250\$ base station, dropping
- Availability
 - Many products, many vendors

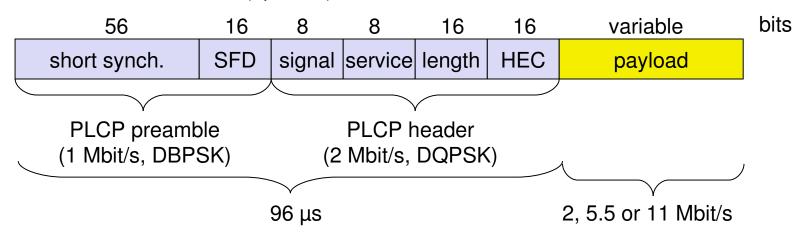
- Connection set-up time
 - Connectionless/always on
- Quality of Service
 - Typ. Best effort, no guarantees (unless polling is used, limited support in products)
- Manageability
 - Limited (no automated key distribution, sym. Encryption)
- Special
 - Advantage: many installed systems, lot of experience, available worldwide, free ISMband, many vendors, integrated in laptops, simple system
 - Disadvantage: heavy interference on ISM-band, no service guarantees, slow relative speed only

IEEE 802.11b – PHY frame formats

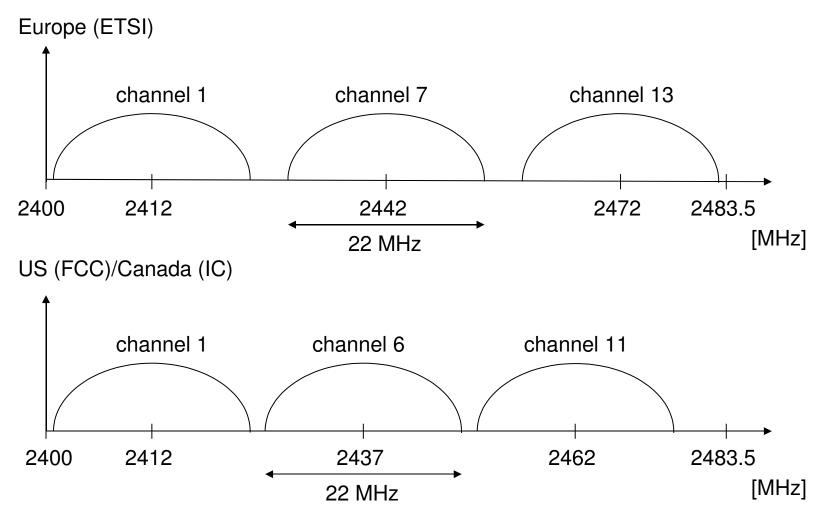
Long PLCP PPDU format



Short PLCP PPDU format (optional)



Channel selection (non-overlapping)



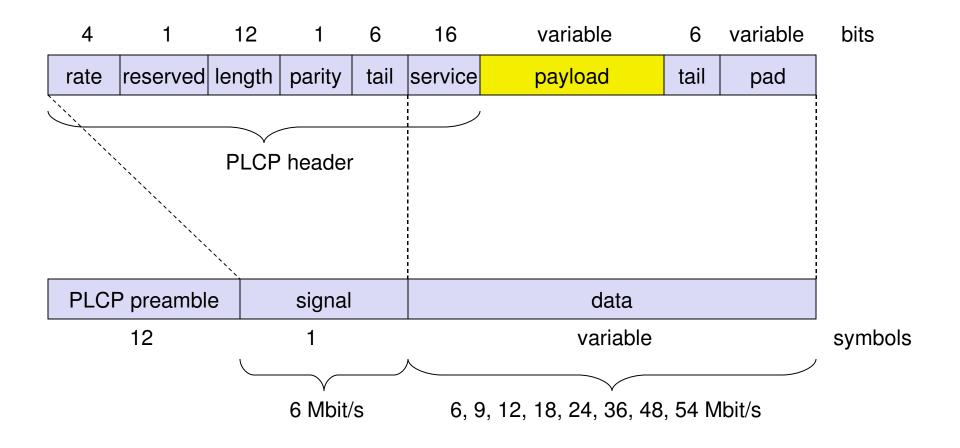
WLAN: IEEE 802.11a

- Data rate
 - 6, 9, 12, 18, 24, 36, 48, 54 Mbit/s, depending on SNR
 - User throughput (1500 byte packets): 5.3 (6), 18 (24), 24 (36), 32 (54)
 - 6, 12, 24 Mbit/s mandatory
- Transmission range
 - 100m outdoor, 10m indoor
 - E.g., 54 Mbit/s up to 5 m, 48 up to 12 m, 36 up to 25 m, 24 up to 30m, 18 up to 40 m, 12 up to 60 m
- Frequency
 - Free 5.15-5.25, 5.25-5.35, 5.725-5.825 GHz ISM-band
- Security
 - Limited, WEP insecure, SSID
- Cost
 - 280\$ adapter, 500\$ base station
- Availability

Some producte come vandore

- Connection set-up time
 - Connectionless/always on
- Quality of Service
 - Typ. best effort, no guarantees (same as all 802.11 products)
- Manageability
 - Limited (no automated key distribution, sym. Encryption)
- Special Advantages/Disadvantages
 - Advantage: fits into 802.x standards, free ISM-band, available, simple system, uses less crowded 5 GHz band
 - Disadvantage: stronger shading due to higher frequency, no QoS

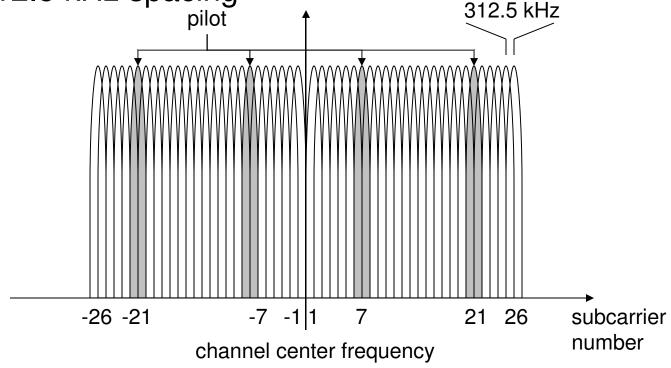
IEEE 802.11a – PHY frame format



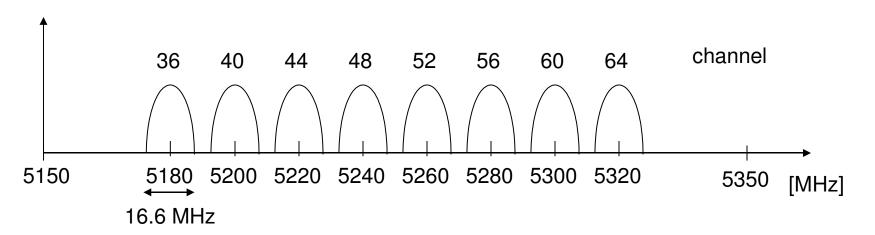
OFDM in IEEE 802.11a

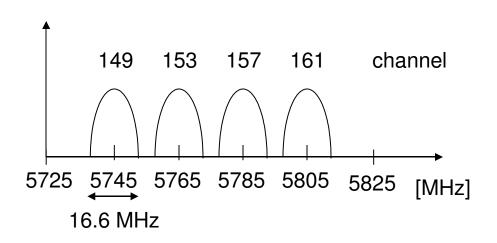
- OFDM with 52 used subcarriers (64 in total)
- 48 data + 4 pilot

312.5 kHz spacing



Operating channels for 802.11a





center frequency = 5000 + 5*channel number [MHz]

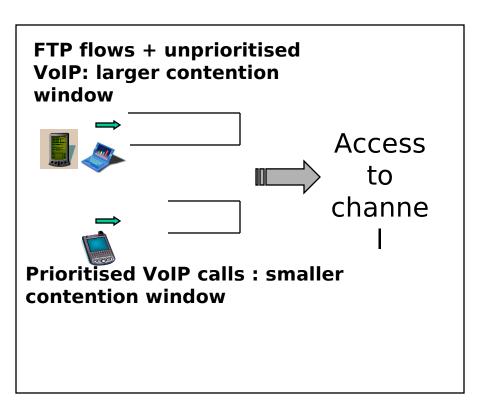
WLAN: IEEE 802.11e

- 802.11e: MAC Enhancements QoS
 - Enhance the current 802.11 MAC to expand support for applications with Quality of Service requirements, and in the capabilities and efficiency of the protocol.

EDCF

- Contention Window based prioritization
 - Real-time
 - Best effort
- Virtual collision resolved in favor of higher priority

Extending DCF: EDCF



EDCF improves upon DCF by prioritising traffic

- Each traffic class can have a different contention window
- Different traffic classes to use different interframe spaces, called Arbitration Interframe Space (AIFS)

EDCF contention window parameters

- VoIP (priority): 7-31
- FTP w/o priority: 32-1023
- VoIP w/o priority:32-1023

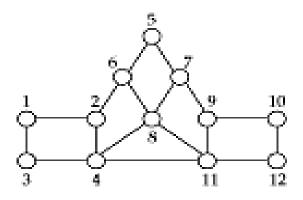
IEEE 802.11 Summary

- Infrastructure and ad hoc modes using DCF
- Carrier Sense Multiple Access
- Binary exponential backoff for collision avoidance and congestion control
- Acknowledgements for reliability
- Power save mode for energy conservation
- Time-bound service using PCF
- Signaling packets for avoiding Exposed/Hidden terminal problems, and for reservation
 - Medium is reserved for the duration of the transmission
 - RTS-CTS in DCF
 - Polls in PCF

Mobile IP

Traditional Routing

A routing protocol sets up a routing table in routers



ROUTING TABLE AT 1

Destination	Next hop
1	_
2	2□
3	3□
4	3□
5	2□
6	2.

Destination	Next hop
7	2
8□	2:□
9□	2:□
10□	2:□
11□	3:□
12.	3

 Routing protocol is typically based on Distance-Vector or Link-State algorithms

Routing and Mobility

Finding a path from a source to a destination

Issues

- Frequent route changes
 - amount of data transferred between route changes may be much smaller than traditional networks
- Route changes may be related to host movement
- Low bandwidth links

Goal of routing protocols

- decrease routing-related overhead
- find short routes
- find "stable" routes (despite mobility)

Mobile IP (RFC 3344): Motivation

Traditional routing

- based on IP address; network prefix determines the subnet
- change of physical subnet implies
 - change of IP address (conform to new subnet), or
 - special routing table entries to forward packets to new subnet

Changing of IP address

- DNS updates take to long time
- TCP connections break
- security problems

Changing entries in routing tables

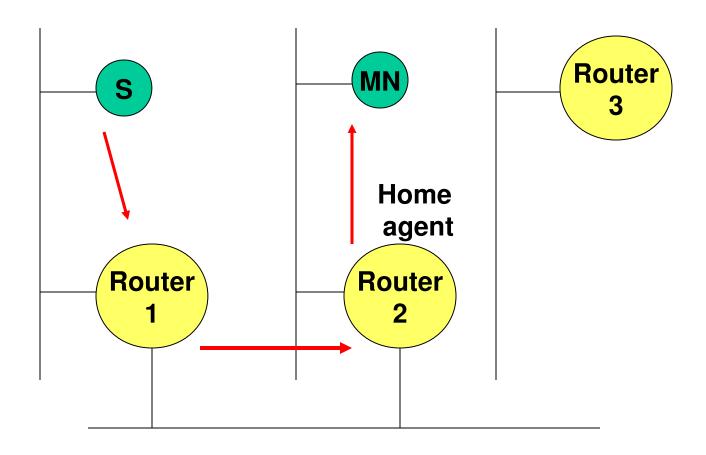
- does not scale with the number of mobile hosts and frequent changes in the location
- security problems

Solution requirements

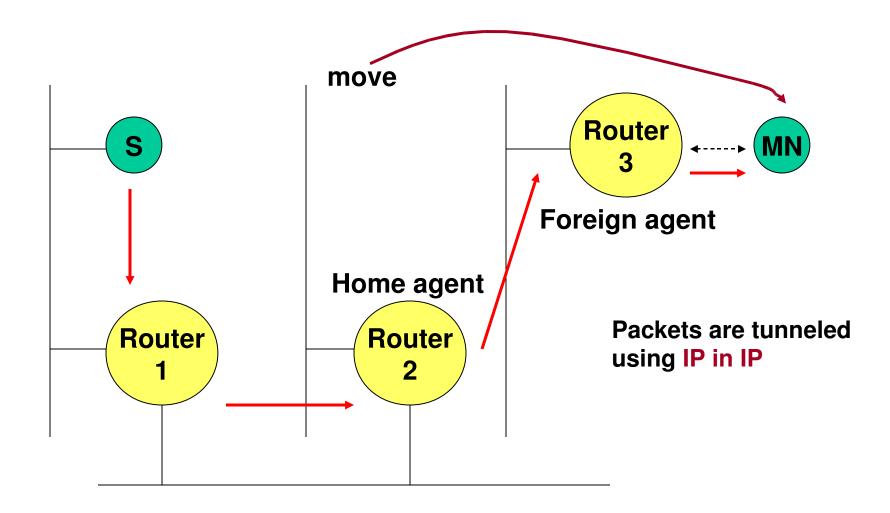
- retain same IP address, use same layer 2 protocols
- authentication of registration messages, ...

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Mobile IP: Basic Idea



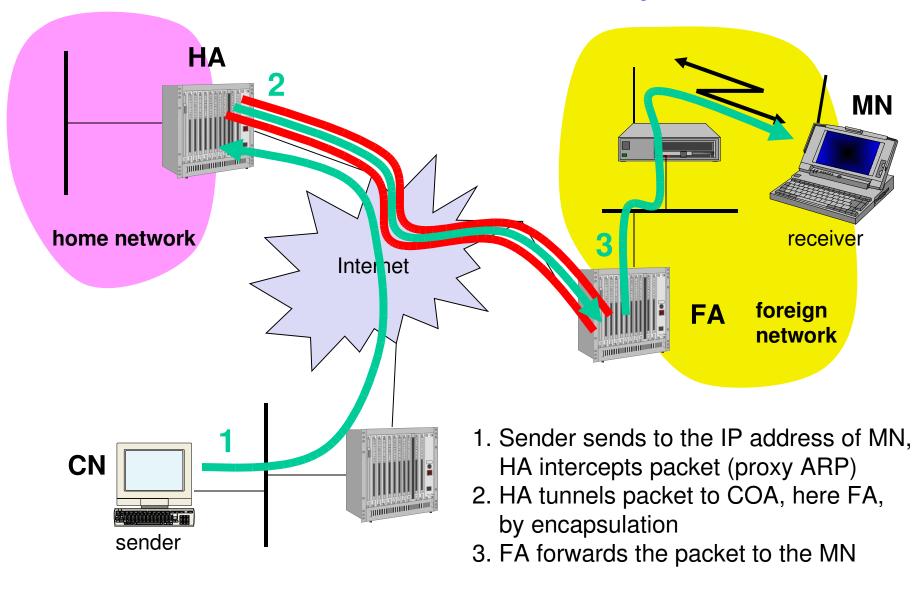
Mobile IP: Basic Idea



Mobile IP: Terminology

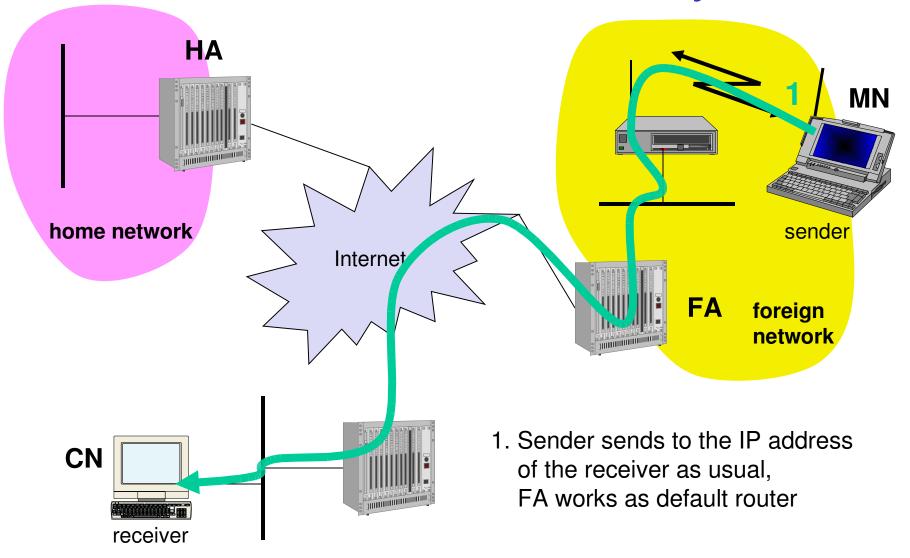
- Mobile Node (MN)
 - node that moves across networks without changing its IP address
- Home Agent (HA)
 - host in the home network of the MN, typically a router
 - registers the location of the MN, tunnels IP packets to the COA
- Foreign Agent (FA)
 - host in the current foreign network of the MN, typically a router
 - forwards tunneled packets to the MN, typically the default router for MN
- Care-of Address (COA)
 - address of the current tunnel end-point for the MN (at FA or MN)
 - actual location of the MN from an IP point of view
- Correspondent Node (CN)
 - host with which MN is "corresponding" (TCP connection)

Data transfer to the mobile system



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Data transfer from the mobile system



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Mobile IP: Basic Operation

Agent Advertisement

- HA/FA periodically send advertisement messages into their physical subnets
- MN listens to these messages and detects, if it is in home/foreign network
- MN reads a COA from the FA advertisement messages

MN Registration

- MN signals COA to the HA via the FA
- HA acknowledges via FA to MN
- limited lifetime, need to be secured by authentication

HA Proxy

- HA advertises the IP address of the MN (as for fixed systems)
- packets to the MN are sent to the HA
- independent of changes in COA/FA

Packet Tunneling

Mobile IP: Other Issues

Reverse Tunneling

- firewalls permit only "topological correct" addresses
- a packet from the MN encapsulated by the FA is now topological correct

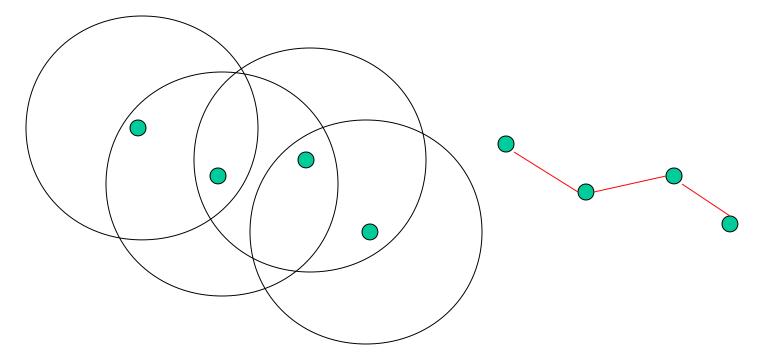
Optimizations

- Triangular Routing
 - HA informs sender the current location of MN
- Change of FA
 - new FA informs old FA to avoid packet loss, old FA now forwards remaining packets to new FA

Mesh and Adhoc Networks

Multi-Hop Wireless

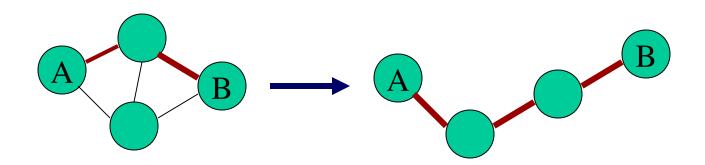
May need to traverse multiple links to reach destination



Mobility causes route changes

Mobile Ad Hoc Networks (MANET)

- Host movement frequent
- Topology change frequent

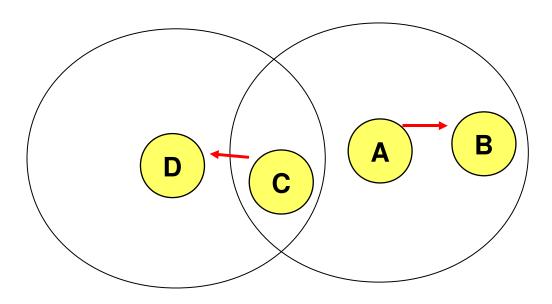


- No cellular infrastructure. Multi-hop wireless links.
- Data must be routed via intermediate nodes.

MAC in Ad hoc networks

- IEEE 802.11 DCF is most popular
 - Easy availability
- 802.11 DCF:
 - Uses RTS-CTS to avoid hidden terminal problem
 - Uses ACK to achieve reliability
- 802.11 was designed for single-hop wireless
 - Does not do well for multi-hop ad hoc scenarios
 - Reduced throughput
 - Exposed terminal problem

Exposed Terminal Problem

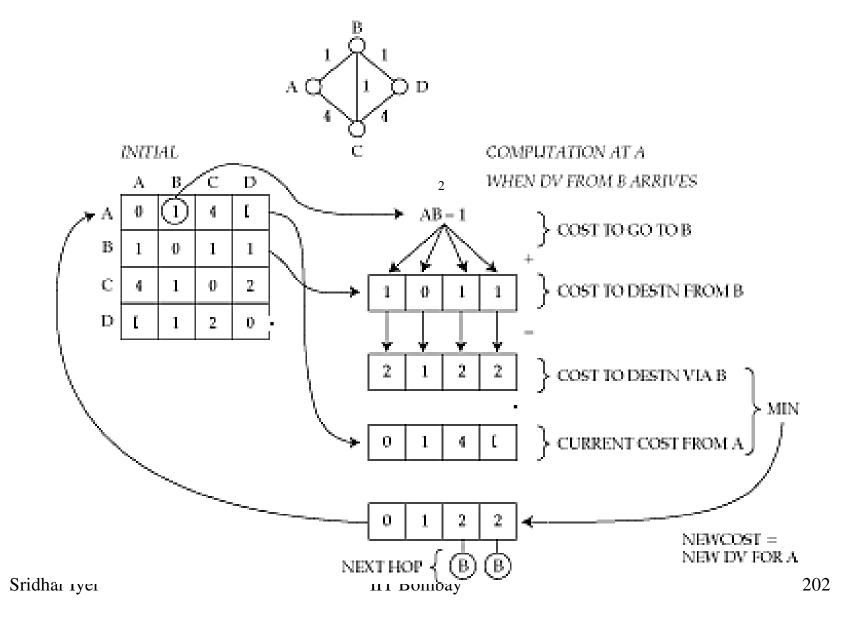


- A starts sending to B.
- C senses carrier, finds medium in use and has to wait for A->B to end.
- D is outside the range of A, therefore waiting is not necessary.
- A and C are "exposed" terminals

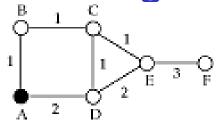
Distance-vector & Link-state Routing

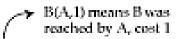
- Both assume router knows
 - address of each neighbor
 - cost of reaching each neighbor
- Both allow a router to determine global routing information by talking to its neighbors
- Distance vector router knows cost to each destination
- Link state router knows entire network topology and computes shortest path

Distance Vector Routing: Example

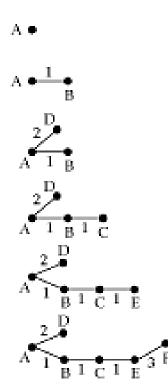


Link State Routing: Example





PERMANENT	TEMPORARY	COMMENTS
Α	B(A,1), D(A,2)	ROOT AND ITS NEIGHBORS
A, B(A 1)	D(A,2), C(B,2)	ADD C(B,2)
A, B(A,1) D(A,2)	E(D,4), C(B,2)	C(D,3) DIDN'T MAKE IT
A, B(A,1) D(A,2), C(B,2)	E(C,3)	E(D,4) TOO LONG
A, B(A,1) D(A,2), C(B,2) A, B(A,1) D(A,2), C(B,2) E(C,3)	E(C,3) F(E,6)	



MANET Routing Protocols

Proactive protocols

- Traditional distributed shortest-path protocols
- Maintain routes between every host pair at all times
- Based on periodic updates; High routing overhead
- Example: DSDV (destination sequenced distance vector)

Reactive protocols

- Determine route if and when needed
- Source initiates route discovery
- Example: DSR (dynamic source routing)

Hybrid protocols

- Adaptive; Combination of proactive and reactive
- Example : ZRP (zone routing protocol)

Dynamic Source Routing (DSR)

Route Discovery Phase:

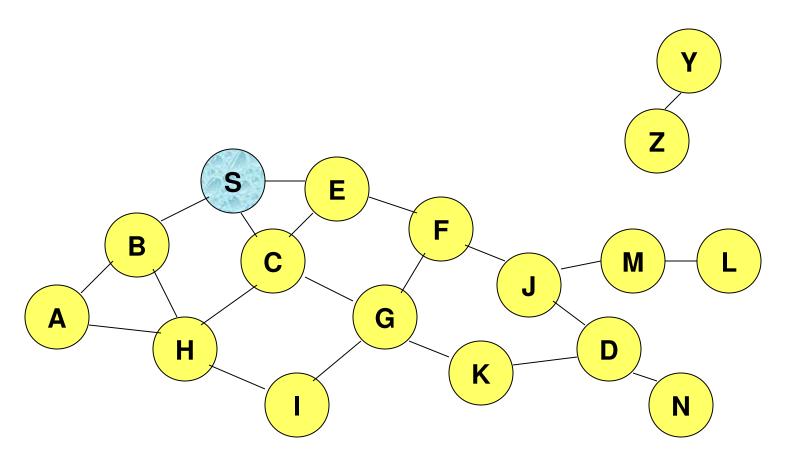
- Initiated by source node S that wants to send packet to destination node D
- Route Request (RREQ) floods through the network
- Each node appends own identifier when forwarding RREQ

Route Reply Phase:

- D on receiving the first RREQ, sends a Route Reply (RREP)
- RREP is sent on a route obtained by reversing the route appended to received RREQ
- RREP includes the route from S to D on which RREQ was received by node D

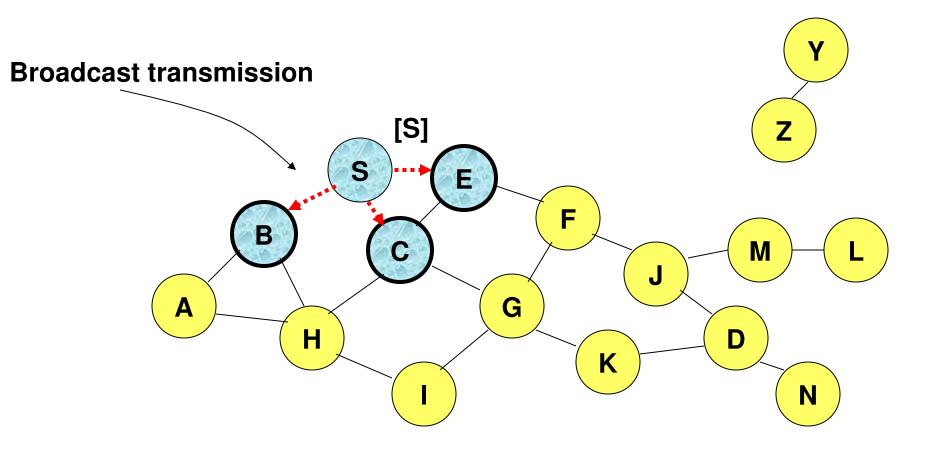
Data Forwarding Phase:

S sends data to D by source routing through intermediate nodes



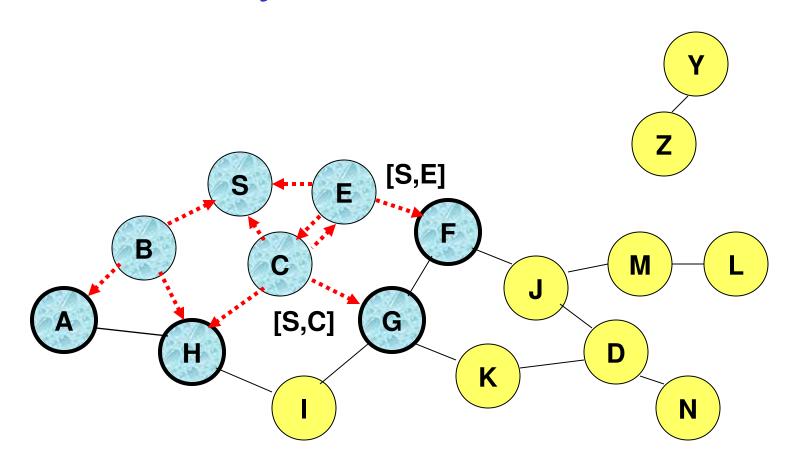


Represents a node that has received RREQ for D from S

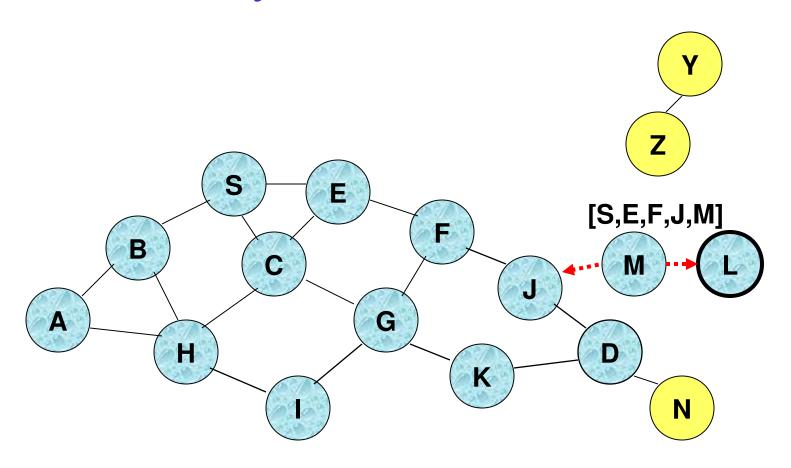


Represents transmission of RREQ



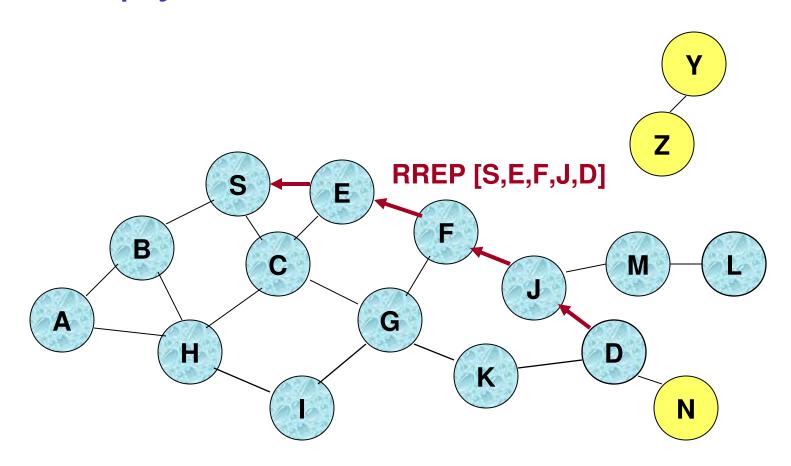


 Node H receives packet RREQ from two neighbors: potential for collision



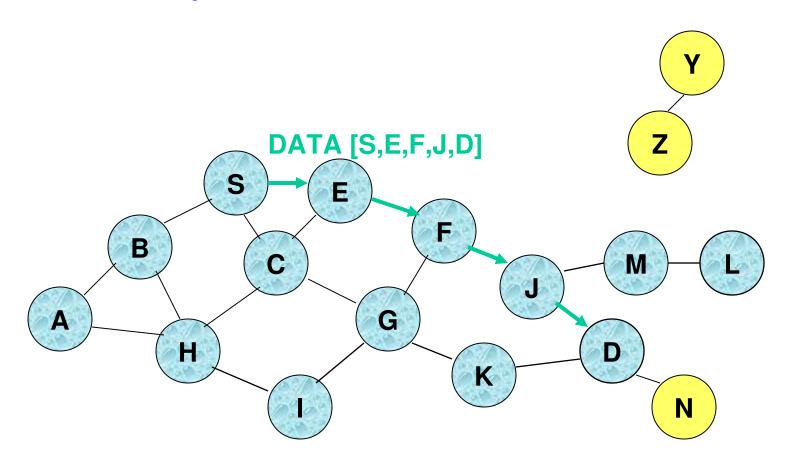
 Node D does not forward RREQ, because node D is the intended target of the route discovery

Route reply in DSR



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Data delivery in DSR



Packet header size grows with route length

Destination-Sequenced Distance-Vector (DSDV)

- Each node maintains a routing table which stores
 - next hop, cost metric towards each destination
 - a sequence number that is created by the destination itself
- Each node periodically forwards routing table to neighbors
 - Each node increments and appends its sequence number when sending its local routing table
- Each route is tagged with a sequence number; routes with greater sequence numbers are preferred

DSDV

- Each node advertises a monotonically increasing even sequence number for itself
- When a node decides that a route is broken, it increments the sequence number of the route and advertises it with infinite metric
- Destination advertises new sequence number

DSDV example

- When X receives information from Y about a route to Z
 - Let destination sequence number for Z at X be S(X), S(Y) is sent from Y



- If S(X) > S(Y), then X ignores the routing information received from Y
- If S(X) = S(Y), and cost of going through Y is smaller than the route known to X, then X sets Y as the next hop to Z
- If S(X) < S(Y), then X sets Y as the next hop to Z, and S(X) is updated to equal S(Y)

Protocol Trade-offs

Proactive protocols

- Always maintain routes
- Little or no delay for route determination
- Consume bandwidth to keep routes up-to-date
- Maintain routes which may never be used

Reactive protocols

- Lower overhead since routes are determined on demand
- Significant delay in route determination
- Employ flooding (global search)
- Control traffic may be bursty
- Which approach achieves a better trade-off depends on the traffic and mobility patterns

TCP over wireless

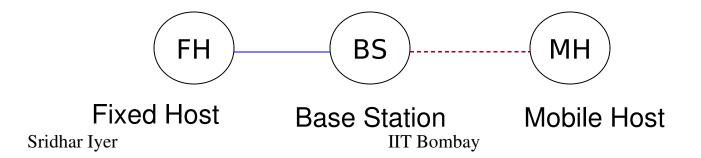
Impact of transmission errors

- Wireless channel may have bursty random errors
- Burst errors may cause timeout
- Random errors may cause fast retransmit
- TCP cannot distinguish between packet losses due to congestion and transmission errors
- Unnecessarily reduces congestion window
- Throughput suffers

Split connection approach

 End-to-end TCP connection is broken into one connection on the wired part of route and one over wireless part of the route

- Connection between wireless host MH and fixed host FH goes through base station BS
- FH-MH = FH-BS + BS-MH

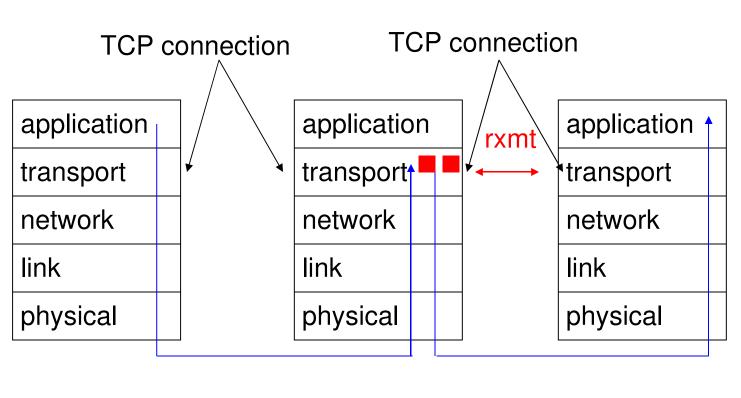


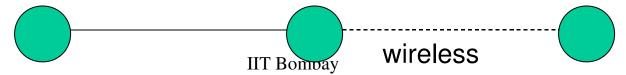
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I-TCP: Split connection approach

Per-TCP connection state

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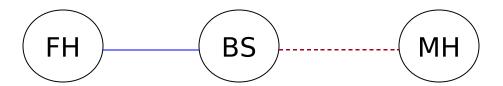




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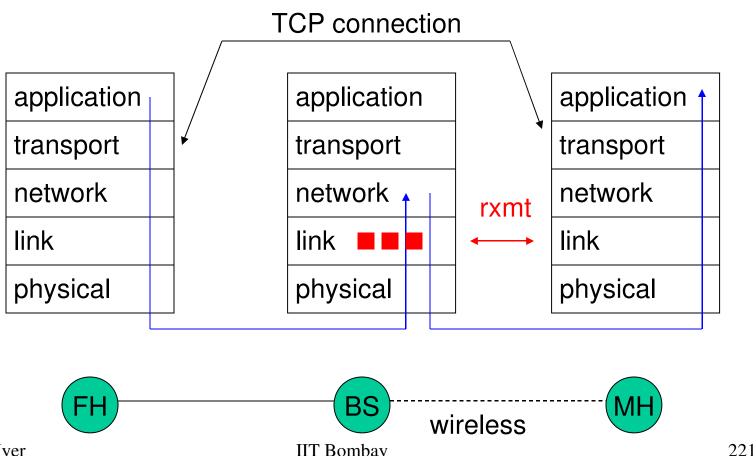
Snoop protocol

- Buffers data packets at the base station BS
 - to allow link layer retransmission
- When dupacks received by BS from MH
 - retransmit on wireless link, if packet present in buffer
 - drop dupack
- Prevents fast retransmit at TCP sender FH



Snoop protocol

Per TCP-connection state



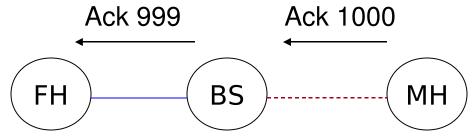
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Impact of handoffs

- Split connection approach
 - hard state at base station must be moved to new base station.
- Snoop protocol
 - soft state need not be moved.
 - while the new base station builds new state, packet losses may not be recovered locally
- Frequent handoffs a problem for schemes that rely on significant amount of hard/soft state at base stations
 - hard state should not be lost
 - soft state needs to be recreated to benefit performance

M-TCP

- Similar to the split connection approach, M-TCP splits one TCP connection into two logical parts
 - the two parts have independent flow control as in I-TCP
- The BS does not send an ack to MH, unless BS has received an ack from MH
 - maintains end-to-end semantics
- BS withholds ack for the last byte ack'd by MH



M-TCP

- When a new ack is received with receiver's advertised window = 0, the sender enters persist mode
- Sender does not send any data in persist mode
 - except when persist timer goes off
- When a positive window advertisement is received, sender exits persist mode
- On exiting persist mode, RTO and cwnd are same as before the persist mode

TCP in MANET

Several factors affect TCP performance in MANET:

- Wireless transmission errors
 - may cause fast retransmit, which results in
 - retransmission of lost packet
 - reduction in congestion window
 - reducing congestion window in response to errors is unnecessary
- Multi-hop routes on shared wireless medium
 - Longer connections are at a disadvantage compared to shorter connections, because they have to contend for wireless access at each hop
- Route failures due to mobility

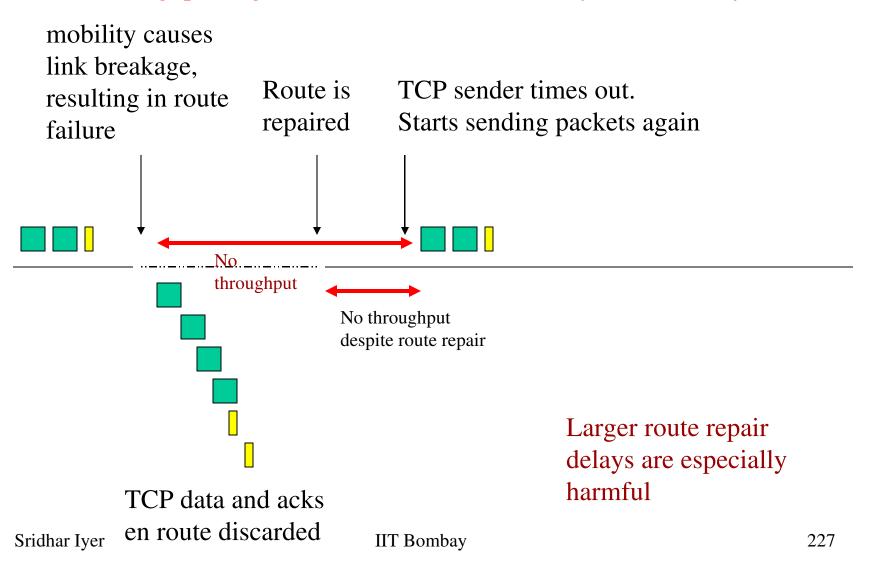
Impact of Multi-hop Wireless Paths

TCP throughput degrades with increase in number of hops

- Packet transmission can occur on at most one hop among three consecutive hops
 - Increasing the number of hops from 1 to 2, 3 results in increased delay, and decreased throughput
- Increasing number of hops beyond 3 allows simultaneous transmissions on more than one link, however, degradation continues due to contention between TCP Data and Acks traveling in opposite directions
- When number of hops is large enough (>6), throughput stabilizes

Impact of Node Mobility

TCP throughput degrades with increase in mobility but not always



WiFi: Management and Security

Network management

- Five key areas (FCAPS):
 - Fault management
 - Capacity management
 - Accounting(access) management
 - Performance management
 - Security management
- FCAPS at all layers of a stack (network, middleware, apps)

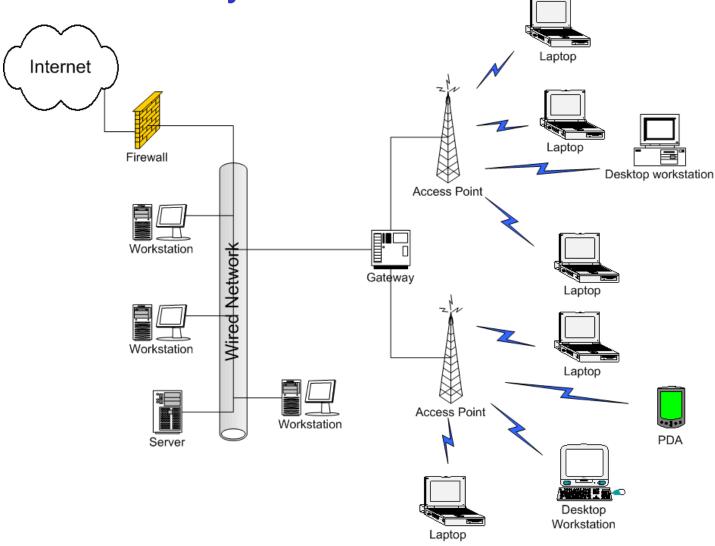
Security is the main area of concern

Wireless Network Management

In addition to the wired network issues, wireless network management needs to address some specific issues:

- Roaming.
- Persistence of Mobile Units.
- Lack of SNMP Agents in Mobile Units.
- Mobile Adhoc Networks.

Wireless security



Threats

- Disclosure of sensitive/confidential data
- Denial of service (DoS)
- Unauthorized access to wireless-enabled resources
- Potential weakening of existing security measures on connected wired networks and systems

Vulnerabilities

- Wired Equivalent Privacy (WEP) encryption standard is weak
- Radio signals susceptible to jamming and interference
- Protocol vulnerabilities allow
 - Network sessions to be taken over by an intruder
 - Injection of invalid data into network traffic
 - Network reconnaissance
- Default configurations create "open" network

Vulnerabilities - 1

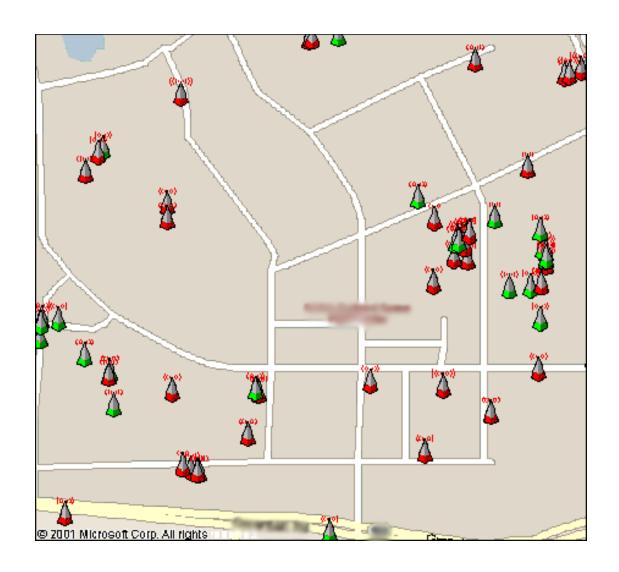
Example: The radio signal from a wireless network can spill over from the building where access points are located to neighboring buildings, parking lots and public roads.



Vulnerabilities - 2

Example: Many wireless networks do not use WEP or other encryption to protect network traffic.

- = Access points using encryption
- = Access points without encryption



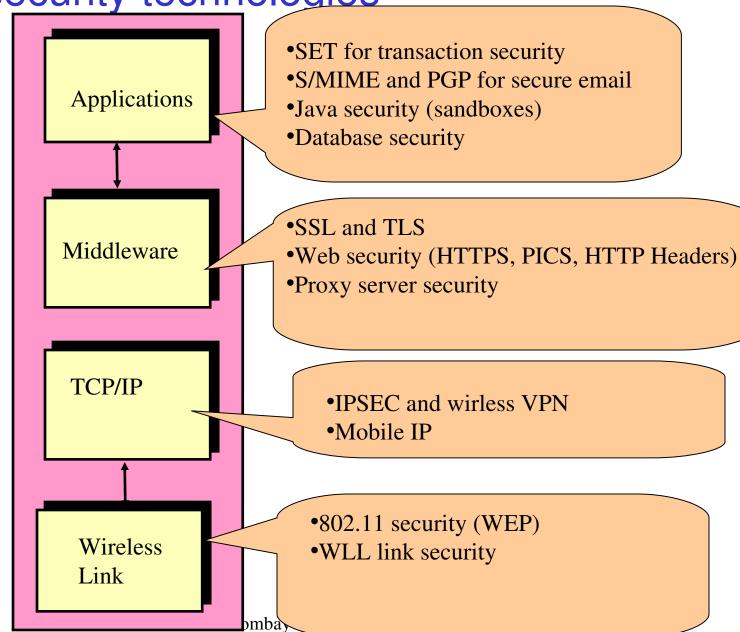
Vulnerabilities - 3

Example: These packet traces show highly confidential data that can be captured from a wireless network

Wireless security technologies

Can use
higher level
services to
compensate
for lower layers

Tradeoffs in performance and security



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Security and availability

- The security S is provided at the following levels:
 - Level 0: no security specified
 - -Level 1: Authorization and authentication of principals
 - Level 2: Auditing and encryption (Privacy)
 - Level 3: Non-repudiation and delegation
- Availability A can be represented in terms of replications (more replications increase system availability):
 - -Level 0: No replication (i.e., only one copy of the resource is used)
 - Level 1: Replication is used to increase availability. The resource is replicated for a fail-safe operation
 - Level 2: FRS (Fragmentation, Redundancy, Scattering) is used. FRS schemes split a resource, replicate it, and scatter it around the network to achieve high availability and intrusion tolerance

Being secure

- Develop wireless network policies
- Conduct risk assessments to determine required level of security
- Limit access to wireless networks through the use of wireless security measures (i.e. 802.11i or WPA)
- Maintain logical separation between wireless and wired networks
- Perform wireless scans to identify wireless networks and applications (on a regular basis)
- Enforce wireless network policies

802.16 internals

IEEE 802 family

802.2 Logical Link

802.1 Bridging

Data

Link

Layer

802.3	802.4	802.5	802.6	802.11	802.12	802.16	
Medium	Medium	Medium	Medium	Medium	Medium	Medium	
Access	Access	Access	Access	Access	Access	Access	
802.3 Physical	802.4 Physical	802.5 Physical	802.6 Physical	802.11 Physical	802.12 Physical	802.16 Physical	Physical Layer

IEEE 802.16

Purpose:

 to enable rapid worldwide deployment of cost-effective broadband wireless access products

802.16:

- consists of the BS (Base Station) and SSs(Subscriber Stations)
- All data traffic goes through the BS, and the BS can control the allocation of bandwidth on the radio channel.
- 802.16 is a Bandwidth on Demand system.

Standard specifies:

The air interface, MAC (Medium Access Control), PHY(Physical layer)

IEEE 802.16

- The spectrum to be used
 - 10 66 GHz licensed band
 - Due to the short wavelength
 - Line of sight is required
 - -Multipath is negligible
 - Channels 25 or 28 MHz wide are typical
 - Raw data rates in excess of 120 Mbps
 - 2 -11 GHz
 - IEEE Standards Association Project P802.16a
 - Approved as an IEEE standard on Jan 29, 2003

IEEE 802.16 MAC layer function

- Transmission scheduling :
 - Controls up and downlink transmissions so that different QoS can be provided to each user
- Admission control :
 - Ensures that resources to support QoS requirements of a new flow are available
- Link initialization:
 - Scans for a channel, synchronizes the SS with the BS, performs registration, and various security issues.
- Support for integrated voice/data connections:
 - Provide various levels of bandwidth allocation, error rates, delay and jitter

Basic services

- UGS(Unsolicited Grant Service)
 - Supports real-time service flows that generate fixed size data packets on a periodic basis, such as T1/E1 and Voice over IP
 - The BS shall provide fixed size slot at periodic intervals.
- rtPS(Real-Time Polling Service)
 - Supports real-time service flows that generate variable size data packets on a periodic basis, such as MPEG video
- nrtPS(Non-Real-Time Polling Service)
 - Supports non real-time service flows that generate variable size data packets on a regular basis, such as high bandwidth FTP.
- BE(Best Effort service)
 - Provides efficient service to best effort traffic

FDD based MAC protocol

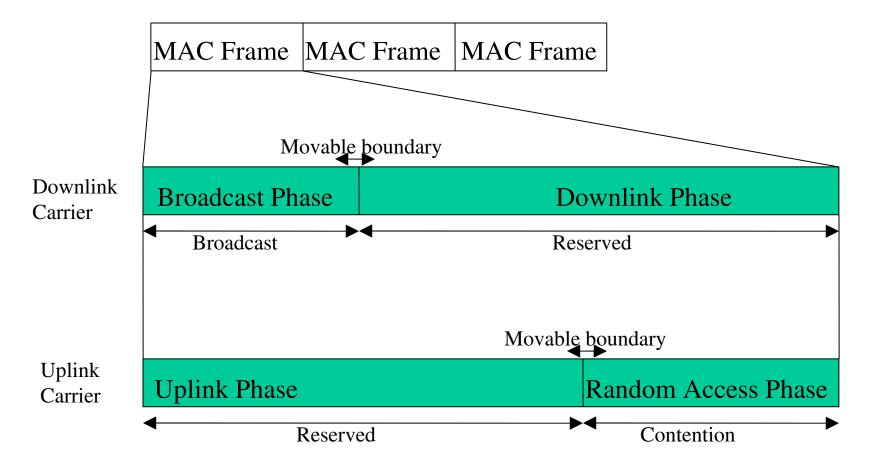
Downlink

- Broadcast phase : The information about uplink and downlink structure is announced.
- DL-MAP(Downlink Map)
 - DL-MAP defines the access to the downlink information.
- UL-MAP(Uplink Map)
 - UL-MAP message allocates access to the uplink channel

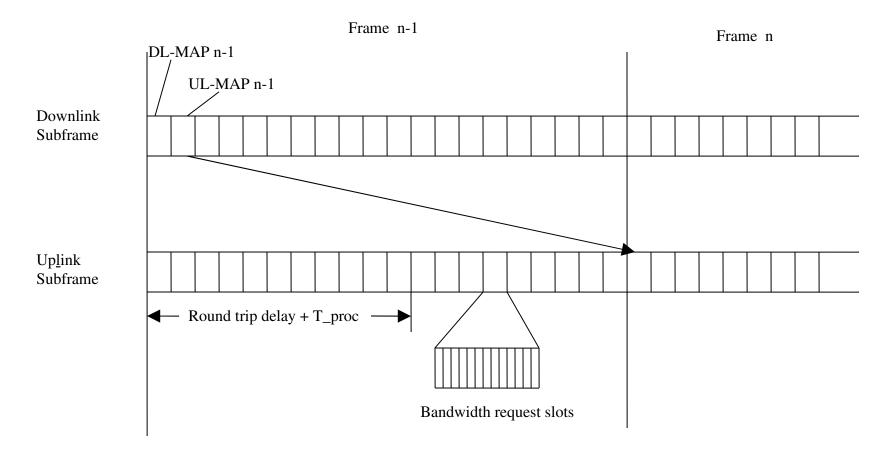
Uplink

 Random access area is primarily used for the initial access but also for the signalling when the terminal has no resources allocated within the uplink phase.

FDD based 802.16 MAC Protocol



Time relevance of PHY and MAC control information



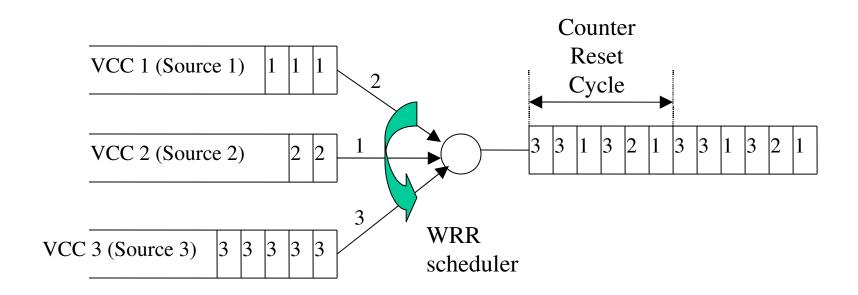
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Downlink Scheduling

- Radio resources have to be scheduled according to the QoS(Quality of Service) parameters
- Downlink scheduling:
 - the flows are simply multiplexed
 - the standard scheduling algorithms can be used
 - WRR(Weighted Round Robin)
 - VT(Virtual Time)
 - WFQ(Weighted Fair Queueing)
 - WFFQ(Worst-case Fair weighted Fair Queueing)
 - DRR(Deficit Round Robin)
 - DDRR(Distributed Deficit Round Robin)

WRR

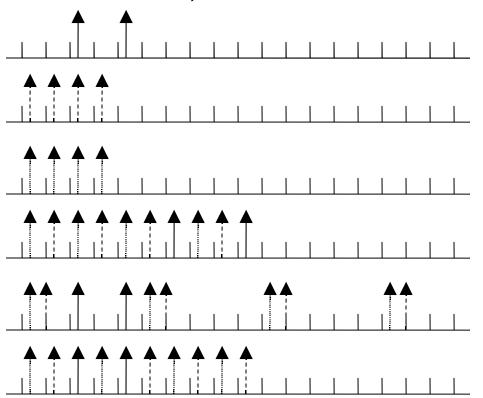
• It is an extention of round robin scheduling based on the static weight.



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- VT : aims to emulate the TDM(Time Division Multiplexing) system
 - connection 1 : reserves 50% of the link bandwidth
 - connection 2, 3 : reserves 20% of the link bandwidth



Connection 1

Average inter-arrival: 2 units

Connection 2

Average inter-arrival: 5 units

Connection 3

Average inter-arrival: 5 units

First-Come-First-Served service order

Virtual times

Virtual Clock service order

Uplink Scheduling

Uplink scheduling:

- Responsible for the efficient and fair allocation of the resources(time slots) in the uplink direction
- Uplink carrier:
 - Reserved slots
 - contention slots(random access slots)
- The standard scheduling algorithms can be used

Bandwidth allocation and request mechanisms

- The method by which the SS(Subscriber Station) can get the bandwidth request message to the BS(Base Station)
 - Unicast
 - When an SS is polled individually, no explicit message is transmitted to poll the SS.
 - The SS is allocated, in the UP-MAP(Uplink Map), bandwidth sufficient for a bandwidth request.
 - Multicast
 - Certain CID(Connection Identifier) are reserved for multicast groups and for broadcast messages.
 - An SS belonging to the polled group may request bandwidth during any request interval allocated to that CID in the UP-MAP
 - Broadcast

Bandwidth allocation and request mechanisms

UGS:

- The BS provides fixed size bandwidth at periodic intervals to UGS.
- The SS is prohibited from using any contention opportunities.
- The BS shall not provide any unicast request opportunities.

rtPS

- The BS provides periodic unicast request opportunities.
- The SS is prohibited from using any contention opportunities.

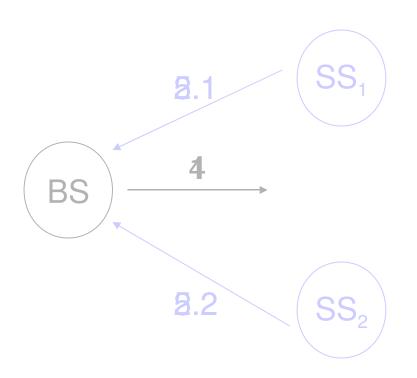
nrtPS

- The BS provides timely unicast request opportunities.
- The SS is allowed to use contention request opportunities.

BE

The SS is allowed to use contention request opportunities.

Bandwidth Request-Grant Protocol



- 4: BS alleeates bandwidth to SSs for transmitting databased on the indexed and width requests.
- 2. Bandwidth is talso allocated for reguesting more bandwidth.
- 2:2 35 transmits data with pandwidth requests.
- 5.2 SS₂ transmits data and bandwidth requests.

Example

Total Uplink Bytes = 100

2 SS and 1 BS

SS₁

Demands:

UGS = 20

rtPS = 12

nrtPS = 15

BE = 30

 SS_2

Demands:

UGS = 10

rtPS = 10

nrtPS = 15

BE = 20

Flows:	UGS	rtPS	nrtPS	BE
1 st Round	40	30	20	10
	30	22	20	10
Excess Bytes = 18				
2 nd Round	30	22	20+12	10+6
	30	22	32	16
Excess Bytes = 2				
3 rd Round	30	22	30	16+2
	30	22	30	18

Total Demand Per Flow:

UGS = 30

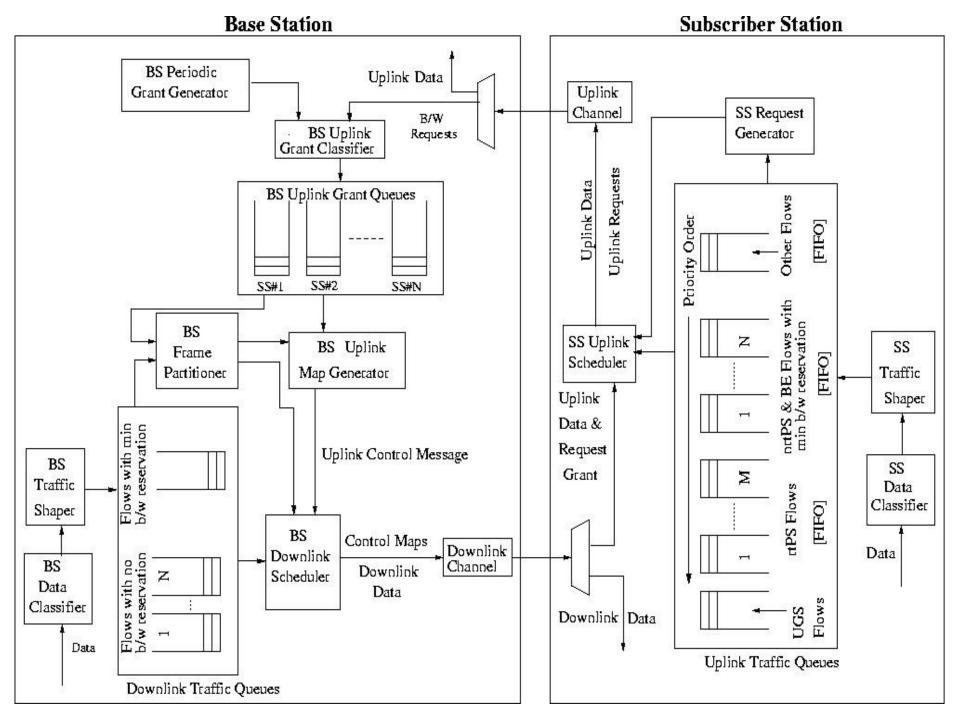
rtPS = 22

nrtPS = 30

BE = 50

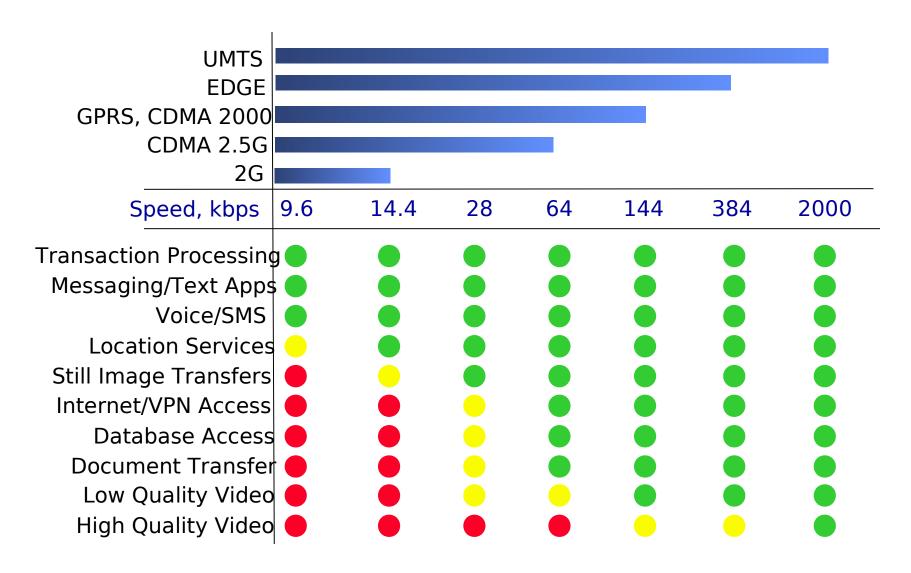
$$SS_1$$
 Allocation = 20 +12 + 15 + 9 = 56

$$SS_2$$
 Allocation = $10 + 10 + 15 + 9 = 44$

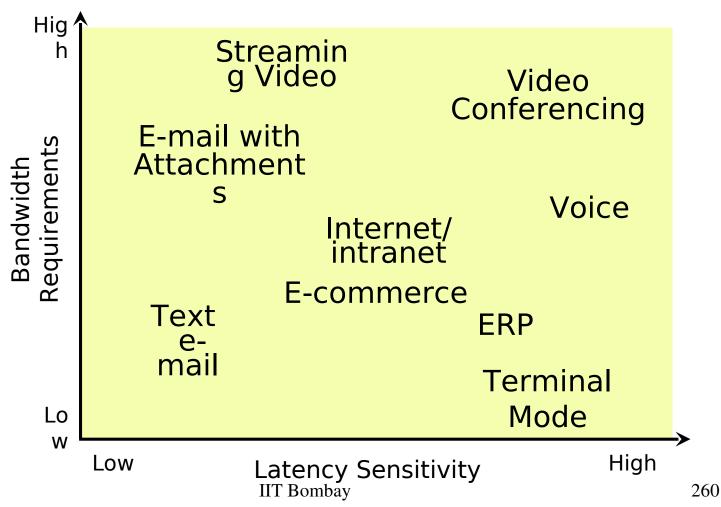


QoS and Voice/Video Applications

Bandwidth and applications



Applications: network requirements



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Quality of Service

Network-level QoS

- Metrics include available b/w, packet loss rates, etc
- Elements of a Network QoS Architecture
 - QoS specification (traffic classes)
 - Resource management and admission control
 - Service verification and traffic policing
 - Packet forwarding mechanisms (filters, shapers, schedulers)
 - QoS routing

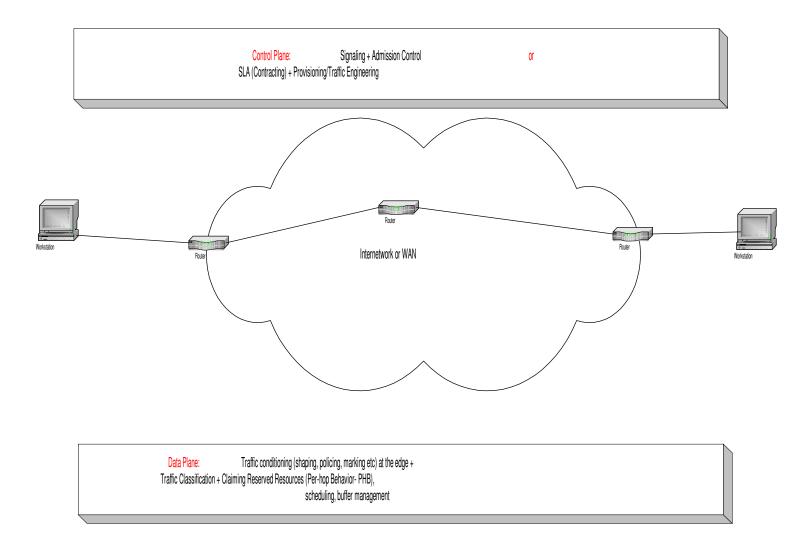
Application-level QoS

- How well user expectations are qualitatively satisfied
- Clear voice, jitter-free video, etc
- Implemented at application-level:
 - end-to-end protocols (RTP/RTCP)
 - application-specific encodings (FEC)

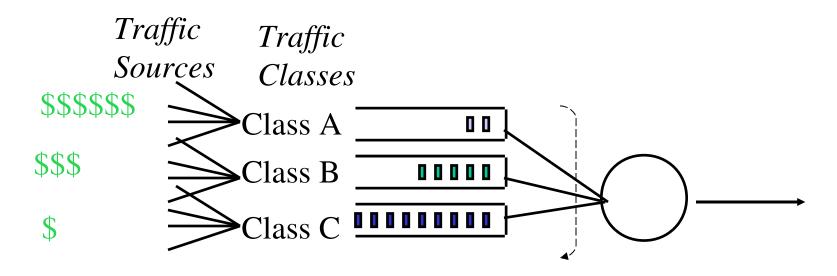
QoS building blocks

- What kind of premium services?
 - Service/SLA design
- How much resources?
 - admission control/provisioning
- How to ensure network utilization, load balancing?
 - QoS routing, traffic engineering
- How to set aside resources in a distributed manner?
 - signaling, provisioning, policy
- How to deliver services when the traffic actually comes in?
 - traffic shaping, classification, scheduling
- How to monitor quality, account and price these services?
 - network management, accounting, billing, pricing

QoS big picture: Control/Data planes



Services: Queuing/Scheduling



- Extra bits indicate the queue (class) for a packet
- High \$\$ users get into high priority queues, which are in turn less populated => lower delay and near-zero likelihood of packet drop

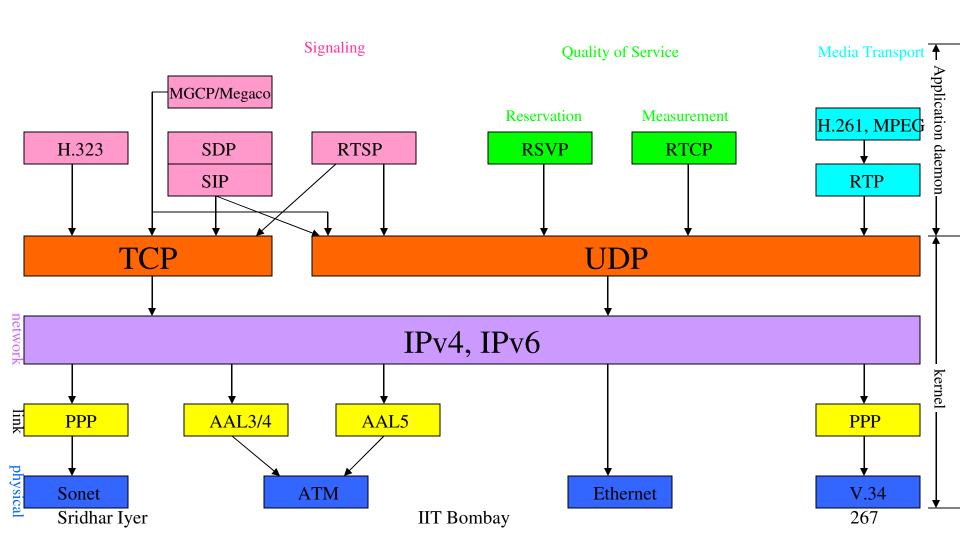
QoS and pricing

- QoS Pricing
 - Multi-class network requires differential pricing
 - Otherwise all users select best service class
- Service provider's perspective
 - Low cost (implementn, metering, accounting, billing)
 - Encourage efficient resource usage
 - Competitiveness and cost recovery
- User's perspective
 - Fairness and Stability
 - Transparency and Predictability
 - Controllability

Multimedia applications

- Audio
 - Speech (CELP type codecs)
 - Music (MP3, WAV, WMA, Real)
- Video (MPEG –1, 2, 4)
- Streaming
 - using HTTP/TCP (MP3)
 - using RTP/UDP (Video)

Multimedia protocol stack



Session Initiation Protocol (SIP)

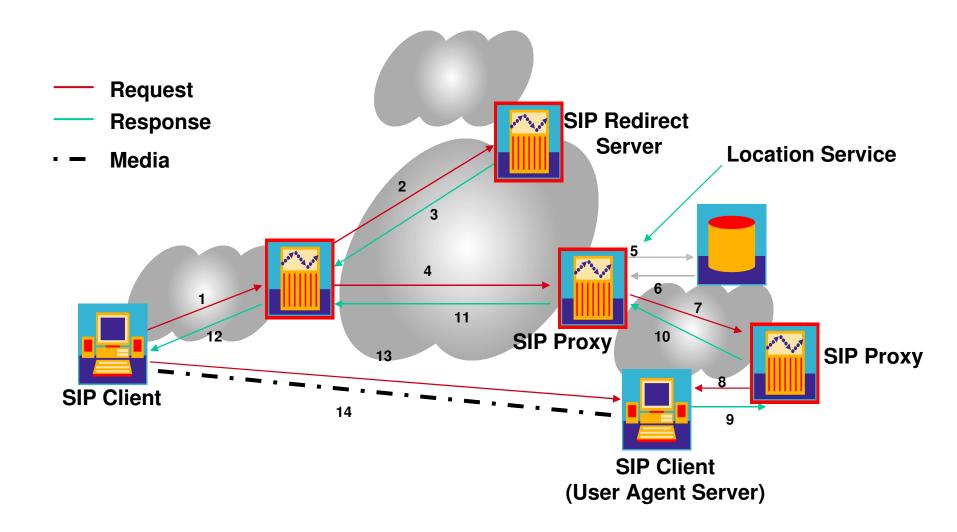
- Invite users to sessions
 - Find the user's current location
 - match with their capabilities and preferences in order to deliver invitation
- Modify/Terminate sessions

- Session Description Protocol (SDP)
 - Used to specify client capabilities
 - Example (client can support MPEG-1 video codec, and MP3 codecs)

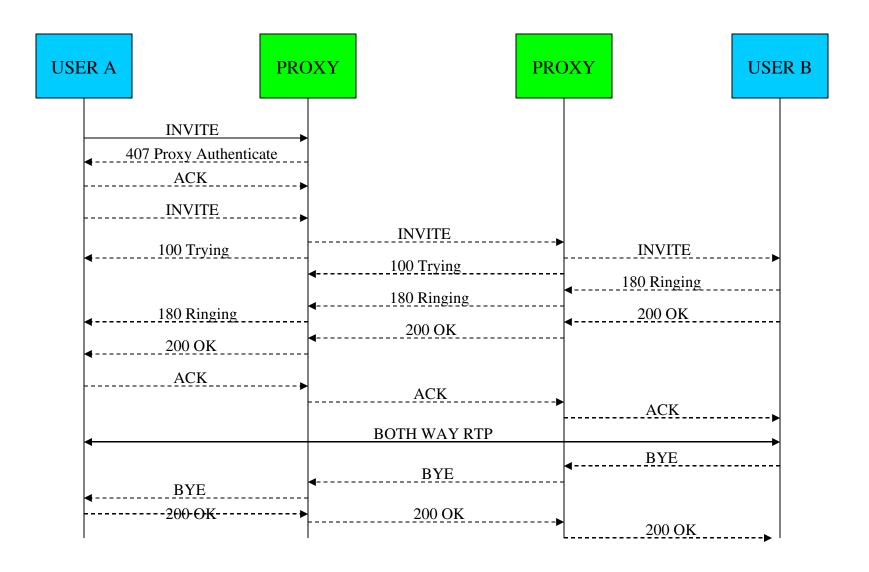
SIP components

- User Agent Client (UAC)
 - End systems; Send SIP requests
- User Agent Server (UAS)
 - Listens for call requests
 - Prompts user or executes program to determine response
- User Agent: UAC plus UAS
- Registrar
 - Receives registrations regarding current user locations
- Redirect Server
 - Redirects users to try other server
- Proxy Server

SIP architecture



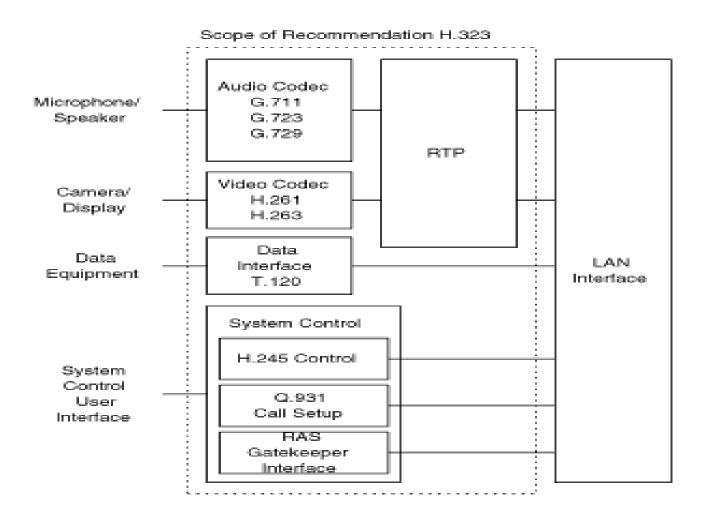
SIP call flow example



H.323

- H.323 is an ITU standard for multimedia communications over best-effort LANs.
- Part of larger set of standards (H.32X) for videoconferencing over data networks.
- H.323 addresses call control, multimedia management, and bandwidth management as well as interfaces between LANs and other networks.

H.323 architecture



H.323 components

Terminals:

All terminals must support voice; video and data are optional

Gatekeeper:

most important component which provides call control services

Gateway:

 an optional element which provides translation functions between H.323 conferencing endpoints (esp for ISDN, PSTN)

Multipoint Control Unit (MCU):

 supports conferences between three or more endpoints.
 Consists of a Multipoint Controller (MC) and Multipoint Processors (MP)

H.323 Gatekeeper

- Address translation
 - H.323 Alias to transport (IP) address
- Admission control
 - Permission to complete call
 - Can apply bandwidth limits
 - Method to control LAN traffic
- Call signaling/management/reporting/logging
- Management of Gateway
 - H.320, H.324, POTS, etc.

H.323 example

- 1. A sends request to GateKeeper: Can I call B?
- 2. GK resolves "Bob" to IP address through H.323 registration or external name service
- 3. GK applies Admission Policy
- 4. GK replies to A with B's IP address
- A sends Setup message to B
- 6. B checks with GK for authorizing the connection
- GK acknowledges B to accept call
- 8. B replies to A and alerts User
- H.245 connection established

Media transport: RTP

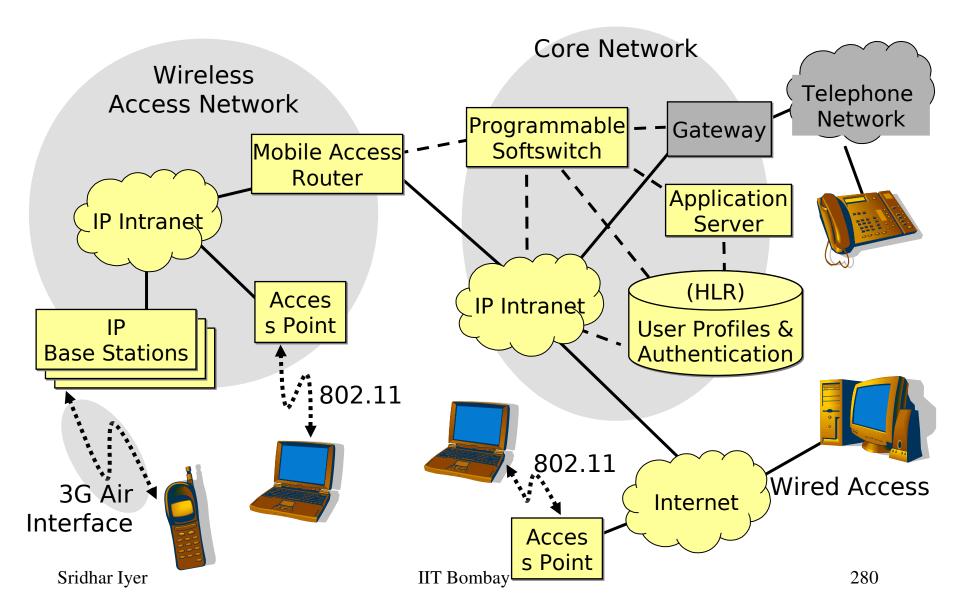
- Transport of real-time data, audio and video
- RTP follows the application level framing (ALF)
 - RTP specifies common application functions
 - Tailored through modifications and/or additions to the headers
- RTP consists of a data and a control part
 - The data part of RTP is a thin protocol
 - The control part of RTP is called RTCP
 - quality-of-service feedback from receivers
 - snchronization support for media streams

RTP (contd)

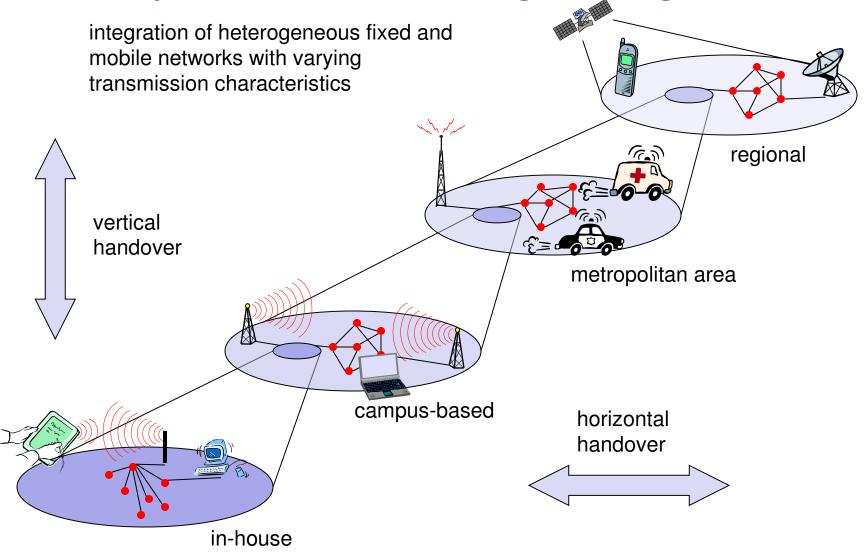
- RTP services
 - payload type identification
 - sequence numbering, timestamping
 - delivery monitoring, optional mixing/translation.
- UDP for multiplexing and checksum services
- RTP does not provide
 - mechanisms to ensure quality-of-service, guarantee delivery or prevent out-of-order delivery or loss

Trends

3G Network Architecture



Overlay Networks - the global goal



Future mobile and wireless networks

- Improved radio technology and antennas
 - smart antennas, beam forming, multiple-input multiple-output (MIMO)
 - space division multiplex to increase capacity, benefit from multipath
 - software defined radios (SDR)
 - use of different air interfaces, download new modulation/coding
 - requires a lot of processing power
 - dynamic spectrum allocation
 - spectrum on demand results in higher overall capacity
- Core network convergence
 - IP-based, quality of service, mobile IP
- Ad-hoc technologies
 - spontaneous communication, power saving, redundancy

References

- A.S. Tanenbaum. Computer Networks. Pearson Education, 2003.
- J. Schiller, Mobile Communications, Addison Wesley, 2002.
- Y-B. Lin and I Chlamtac, Wireless and Mobile Network Architectures, Wiley, 2001.
- 802.11 Wireless LAN, IEEE standards, www.ieee.org
- Various RFCs: RFC 2002, 2501, 3150, 3449, www.ietf.org
- Others websites:
 - www.palowireless.com

Thank You

Other Tutorials at: www.it.iitb.ac.in/~sri

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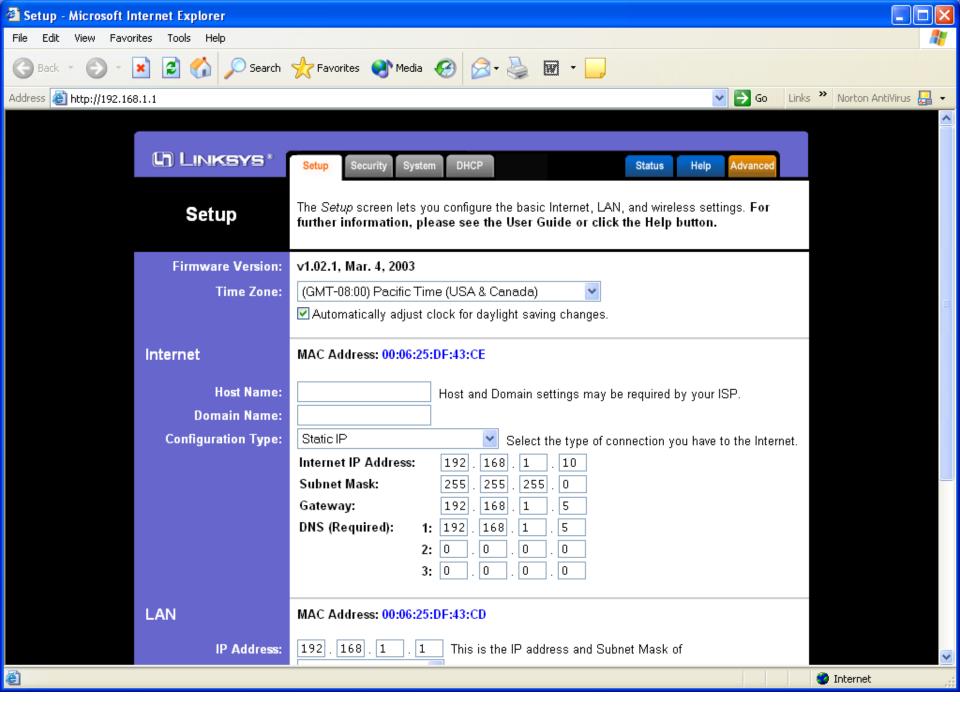
School of Information Technology

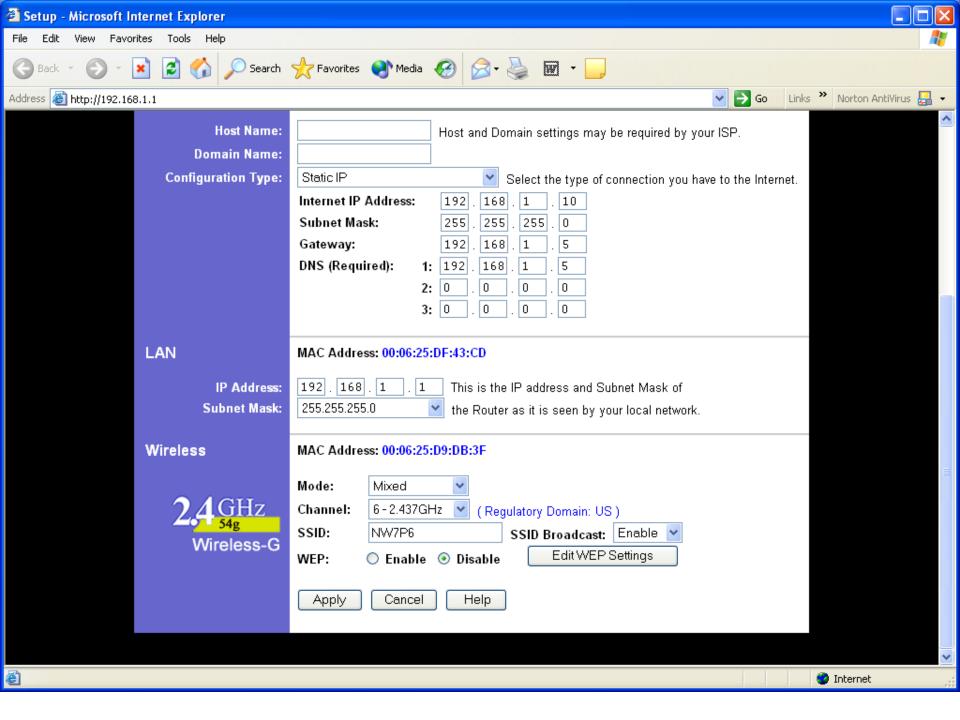
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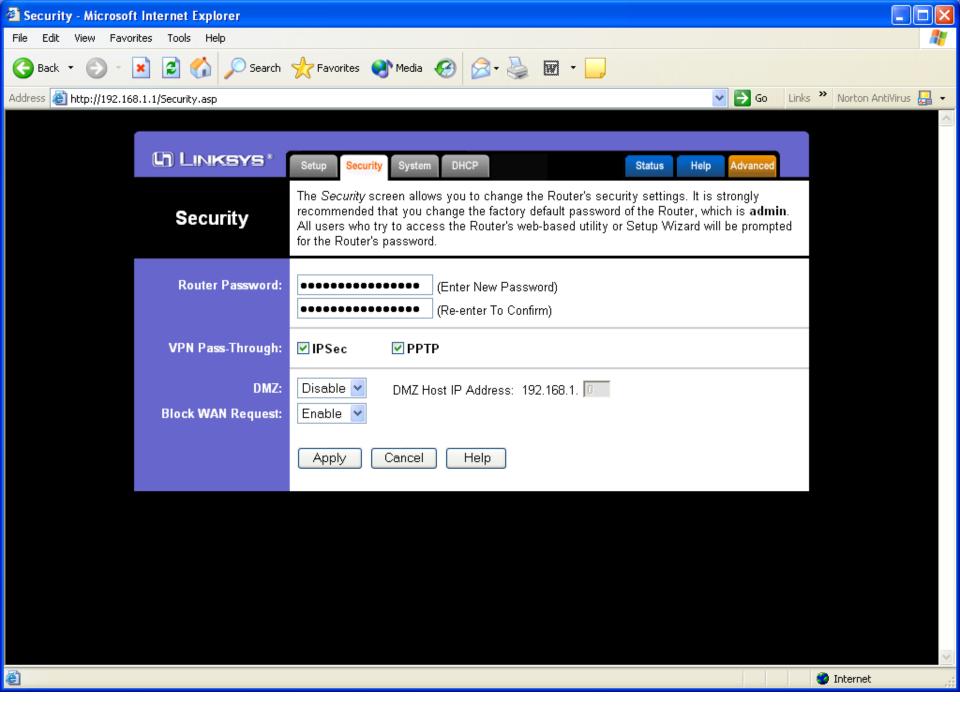
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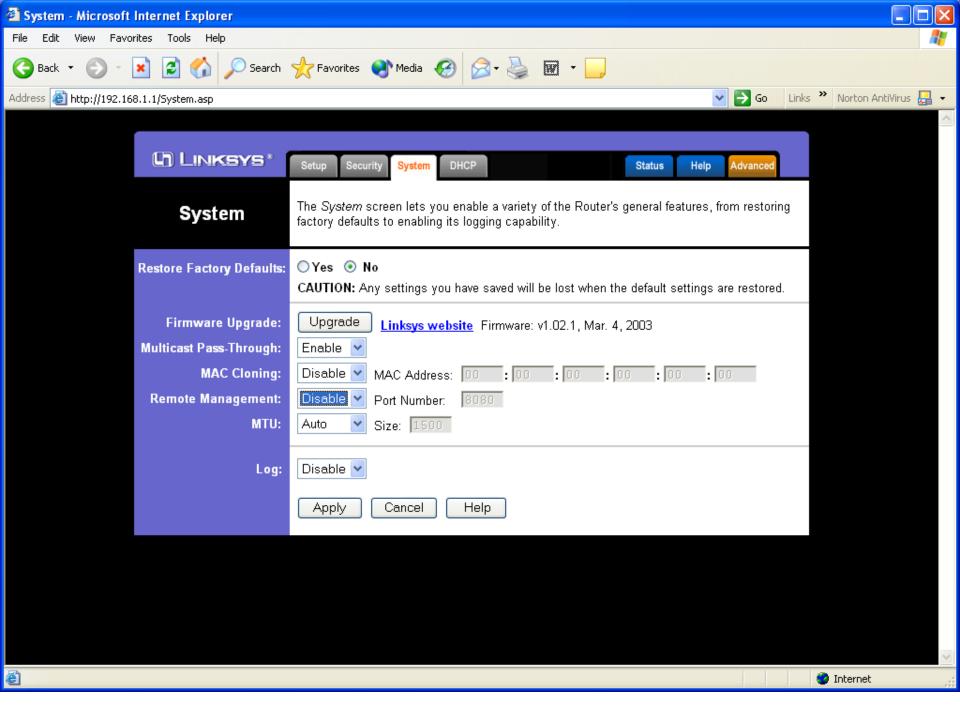
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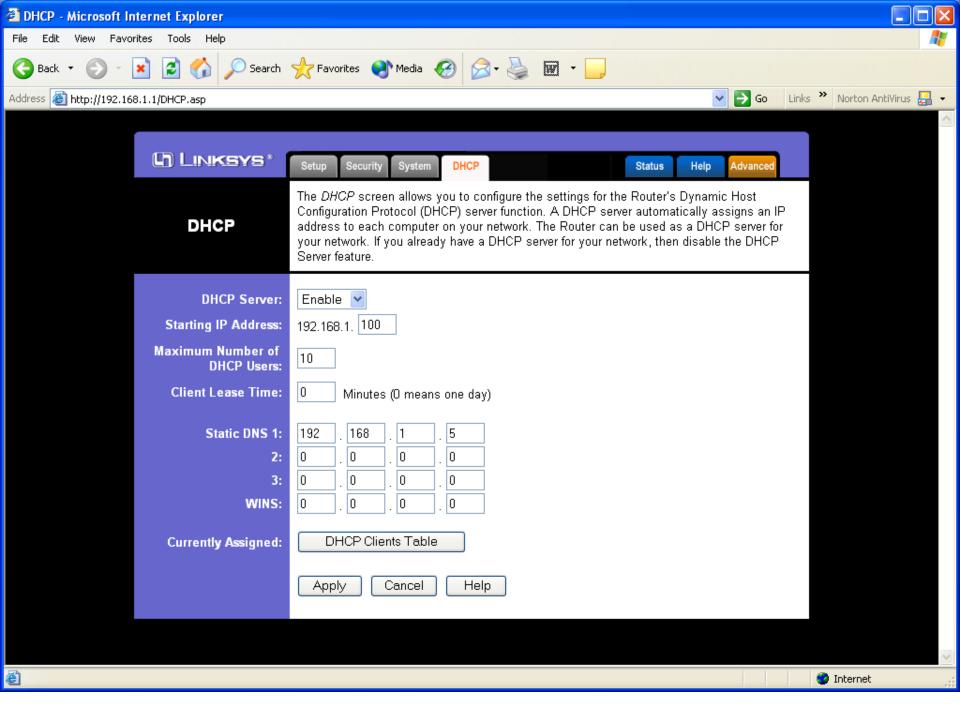
Extra Slides: AP Setup & Site Survey

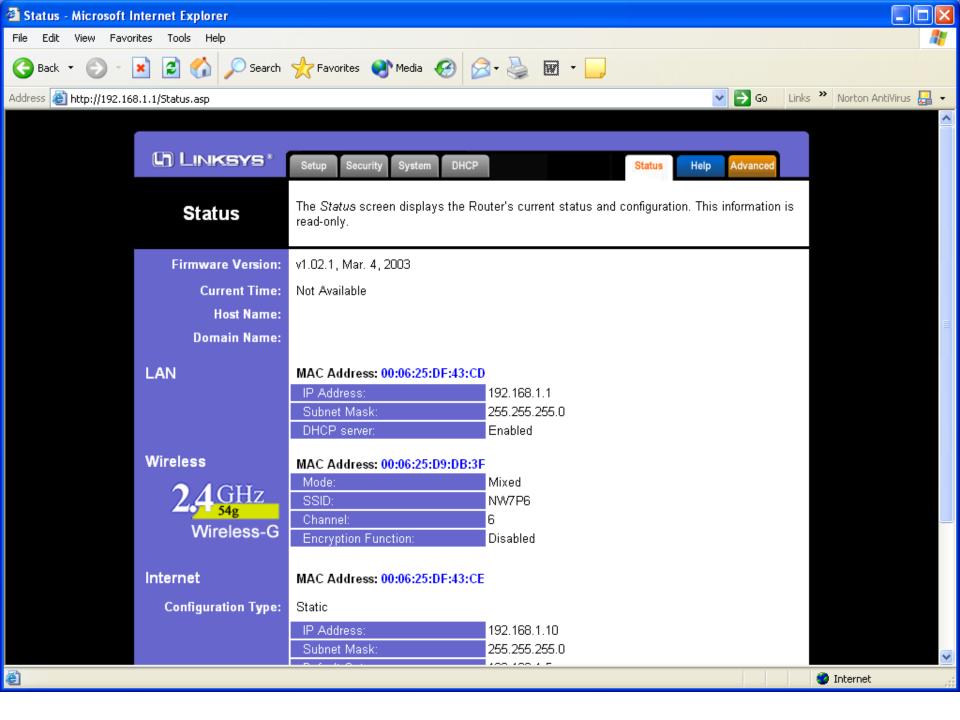


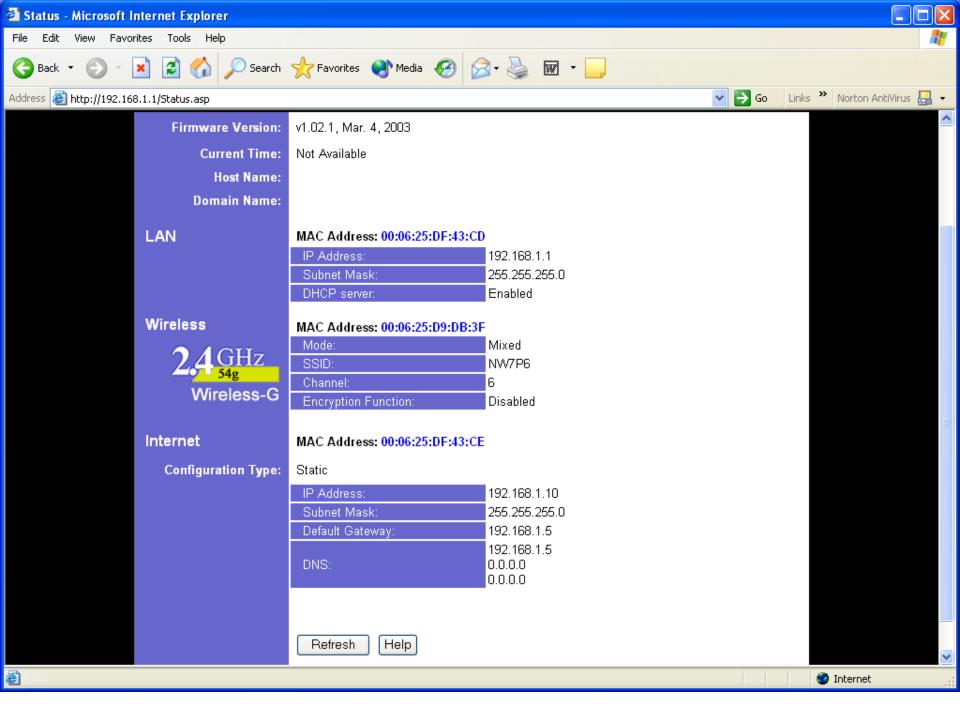


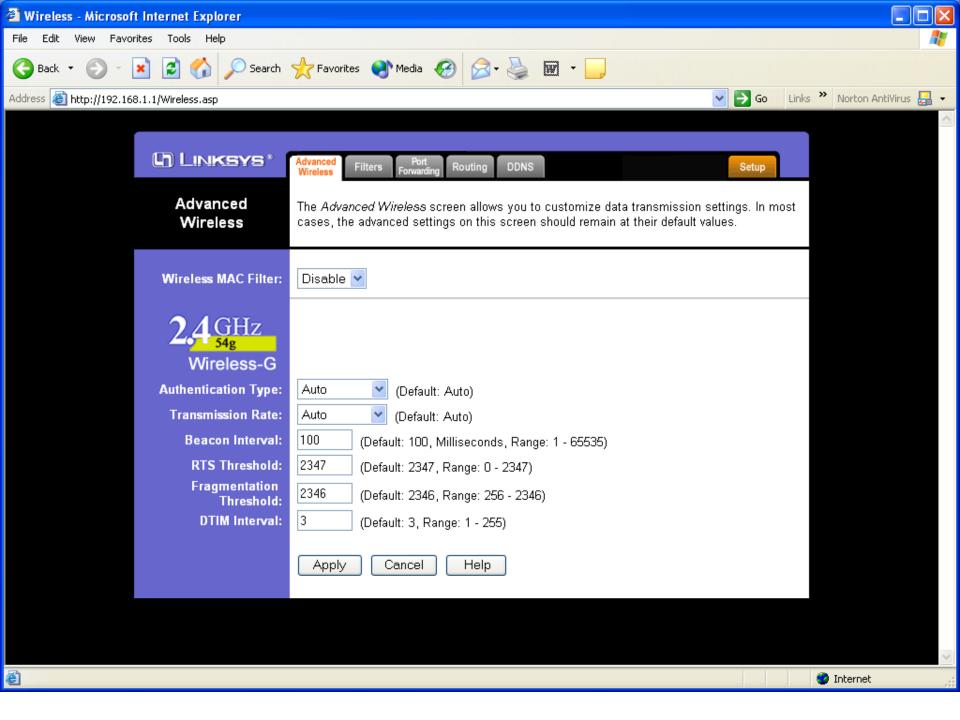


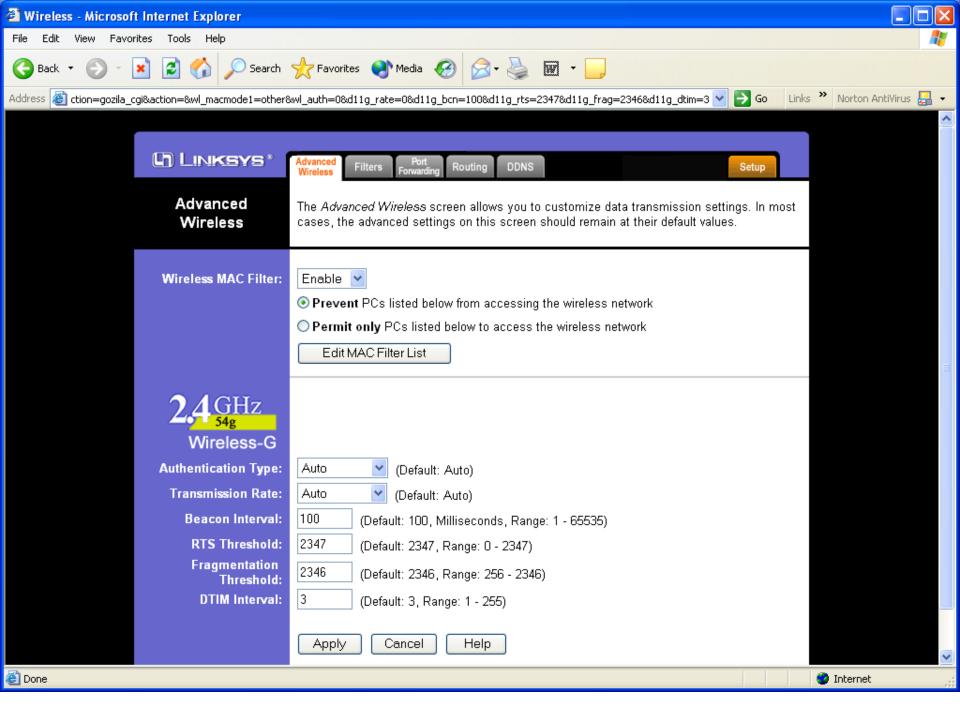












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