

MOBILE COMPUTING

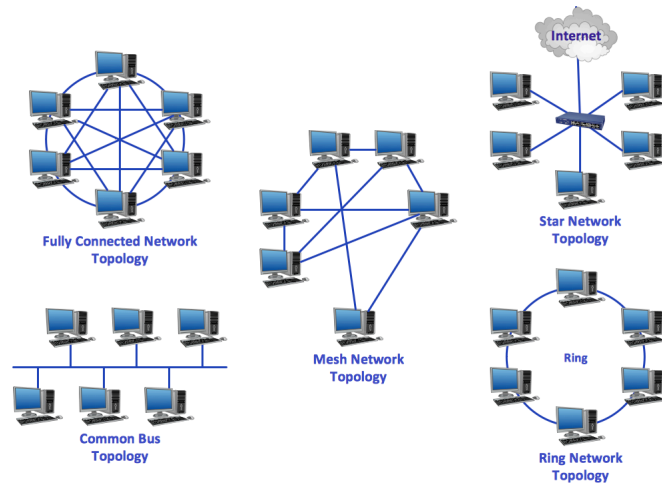
CSE 40814/60814
Spring 2021



Computer Network Terminology

- **Network:** group of computers and associated devices that are connected by communication facilities
- **Wide Area Network (WAN):** world-wide (Internet)
- **Metropolitan Area Network (MAN):** city-scale
- **Local Area Network (LAN):** laboratory/office-scale (Ethernet)
 - **WLAN:** wireless LAN (Wi-Fi)
 - **WPAN:** wireless personal area network (Bluetooth)
 - **WBAN:** wireless body area network
- **Packet:** basic unit that is transferred over a network

Network Topologies



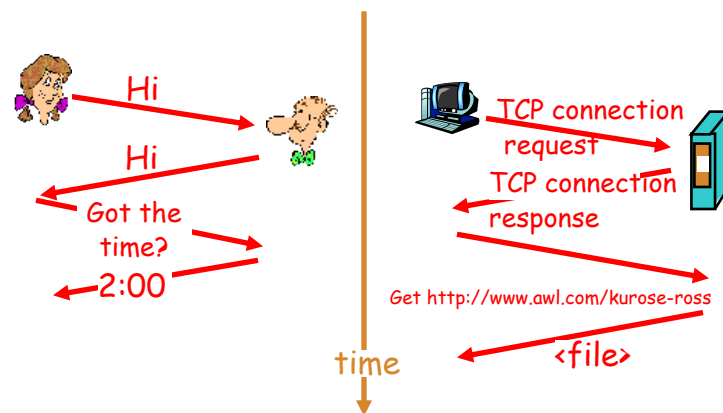
Network Protocols

- Protocols are the **building blocks** of a network architecture
- Formal standards and policies enabling communication
- IEEE (Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers): standardization
 - Example: Project 802
 - 802.3: Ethernet
 - 802.11: WLAN
 - 802.15: WPAN

Communication

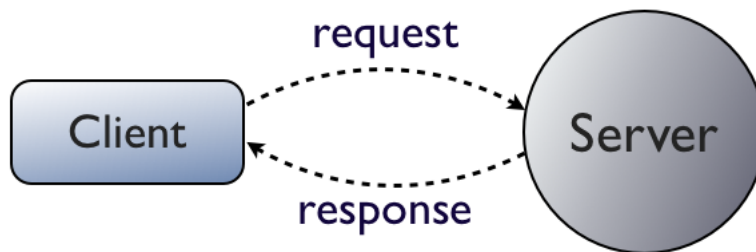
- Who initiates communication?
- Order of communication?
- How long can I talk?
- How loud can I speak?
- Do I have to say something specific at beginning or end?
- Do I have to add meta information?
- What do I do if I get interrupted?
- What do I do if I was not understood?

Protocols



Client/Server Model

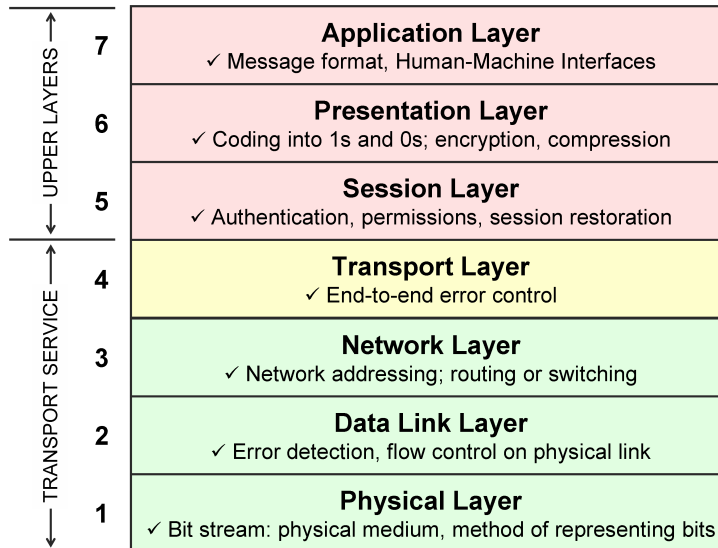
- Client: “active” (initiates communication)
- Server: “passive” (listens and responds)



Client/Server Model Examples

- HTTP (Hypertext Transfer Protocol)
- SMTP (Simple Mail Transfer Protocol)
- SSH (Secure Shell)
- DNS (Domain Name System)
- NFS/AFS (Network/Andrew File System)

Open System Interconnection (OSI)



ISO/OSI Model

- International Standardization Organization
- Open System Interconnection
- 7-Layer Protocol
- Internet Protocol
- TCP/IP Protocol
- Why “layered” approach?
 - An explicit structure for dealing with a complex system
 - Simplifies the design process
 - Modularity of layers eases maintenance and updating of system components
 - Accommodates incremental changes

ISO/OSI Model

- Physical Layer
 - **Physical/electrical characteristics**
 - Cable type, length, connectors, voltage levels, signal durations, ...
 - Binary data (bits) as electrical or optical signals.
- Data Link Layer
 - **Defines when/how medium will be accessed for transmission**
 - Units typically called “frames”; error detection/correction; divided into sublayers, including: **MAC = Medium Access Control** (MAC address 6f:00:2b:23:1f:32)
- Network Layer
 - **IP = Internet Protocol**
 - **Addressing and routing** (IP address 147.94.123.15)

ISO/OSI Model

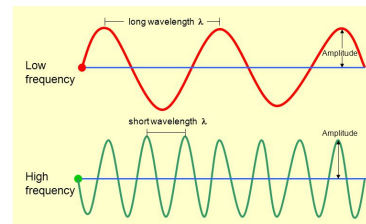
- Transport Layer
 - **UDP** (User Datagram Protocol)
 - **TCP** (Transmission Control Protocol)
 - Addressing (“**ports**”), error correction, flow control, congestion control
- Session Layer
 - Management of “sessions”
- Presentation Layer
 - Data translation, formatting, encryption, compression
- Application Layer
 - Interface between user applications and lower network services

Physical Layer (Layer 1)

- **Physical/electrical characteristics**

- Cable type, length, connectors, voltage levels, signal durations, ...
- Binary data (bits) as electrical or optical signals
- Frequencies and wavelengths (wireless)

Waves



- Frequency and wave length
 - $\lambda = c/f$
 - wave length λ
 - speed of light $c \cong 3 \times 10^8 \text{m/s}$
 - frequency f

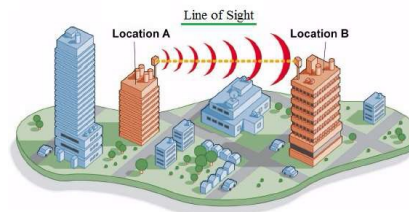
Frequencies for Mobile Communication

- **Low Frequencies:**

- low data rates
- travel long distances
- follow Earth's surface
- penetrate objects and water (submarine communication)

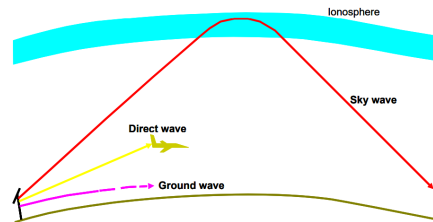
- **High Frequencies:**

- high data rates
- short distances
- straight lines
- cannot penetrate objects ("**Line of Sight**" or **LOS**)



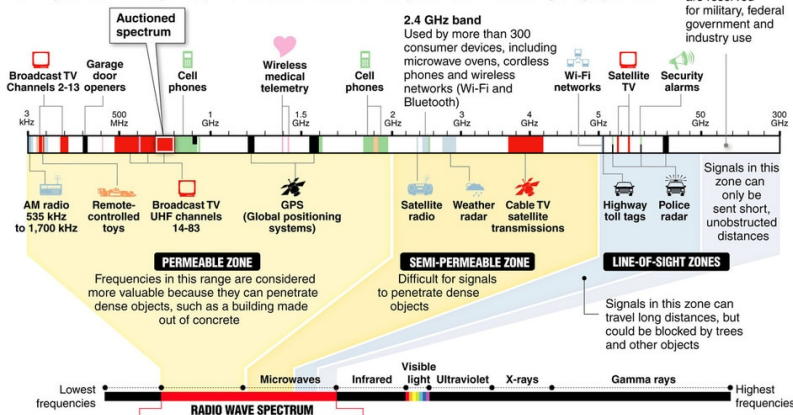
Propagation Behaviors

- **Ground wave (<2MHz):** follow earth's surface, long distances (submarine communication, AM radio)
- **Sky wave (2-30MHz):** reflected at ionosphere, around the world (intl. broadcasts, amateur radio)
- **Line-of-sight (>30MHz):** LOS, straight line, waves are bent by atmosphere due to refraction (mobile phones, satellite, cordless)

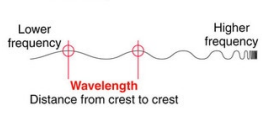


Inside the radio wave spectrum

Almost every wireless technology – from cell phones to garage door openers – uses radio waves to communicate. Some services, such as TV and radio broadcasts, have exclusive use of their frequency within a geographic area. But many devices share frequencies, which can cause interference. Examples of radio waves used by everyday devices:



The electromagnetic spectrum
 Radio waves occupy part of the electromagnetic spectrum, a range of electric and magnetic waves of different lengths that travel at the speed of light; other parts of the spectrum include visible light and x-rays; the shortest wavelengths have the highest frequency, measured in hertz

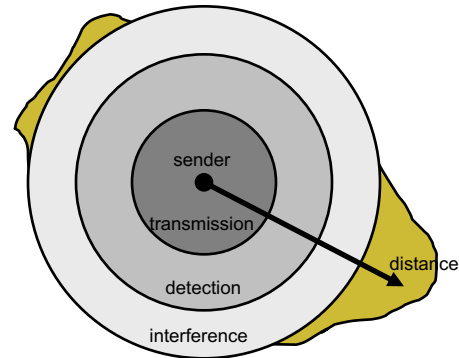


What is a hertz?
 One hertz is one cycle per second. For radio waves, a cycle is the distance from wave crest to crest
 1 kilohertz (kHz) = 1,000 hertz
 1 megahertz (MHz) = 1 million hertz
 1 gigahertz (GHz) = 1 billion hertz

Source: New America Foundation, MCT, Howstuffworks.com
 Graphic: Nathaniel Levine, Sacramento Bee © 2008 MCT

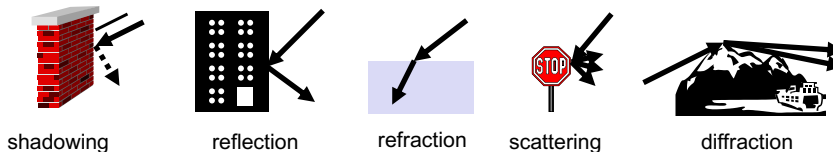
Signal propagation ranges

- **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

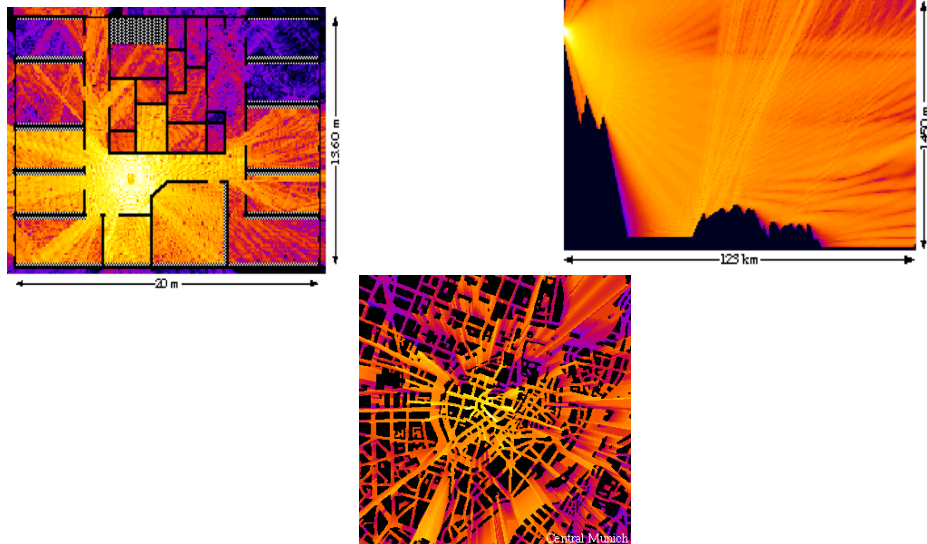


Other Propagation Effects

- **Shadowing**
- **Reflection** at large obstacles
- **Refraction** depending on the density of a medium
- **Scattering** at small obstacles
- **Diffraction** at edges

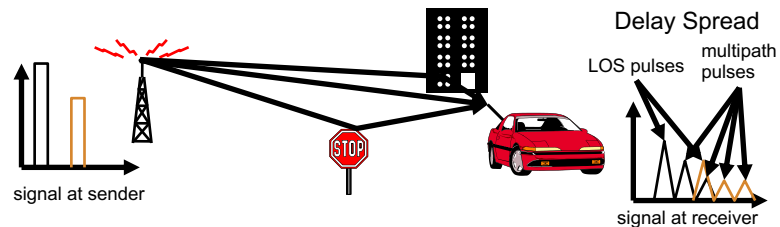


Real World Examples



Multipath propagation

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



- Time dispersion: signal is dispersed over time
 - interference with “neighbor” symbols, **Inter Symbol Interference (ISI)**
- The signal reaches a receiver directly and phase shifted
 - distorted signal depending on the phases of the different parts

Physical Layer: Modulation

- Digital modulation
 - digital data is translated into an analog signal
- Basic schemes
 - **Amplitude Modulation (AM)**
 - **Frequency Modulation (FM)**
 - **Phase Modulation (PM)**

Digital Modulation

- Modulation of digital signals known as Shift Keying

- **Amplitude Shift Keying (ASK):**

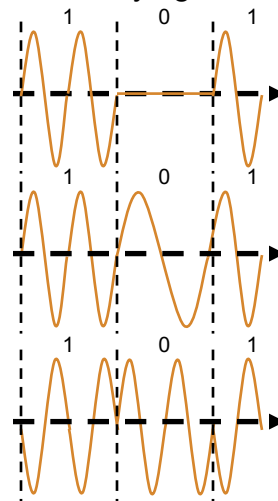
- very simple
- low bandwidth requirements
- very susceptible to interference

- **Frequency Shift Keying (FSK):**

- needs larger bandwidth

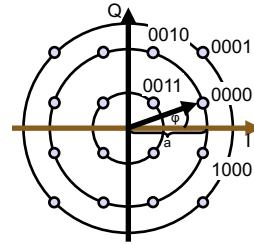
- **Phase Shift Keying (PSK):**

- more complex
- robust against interference



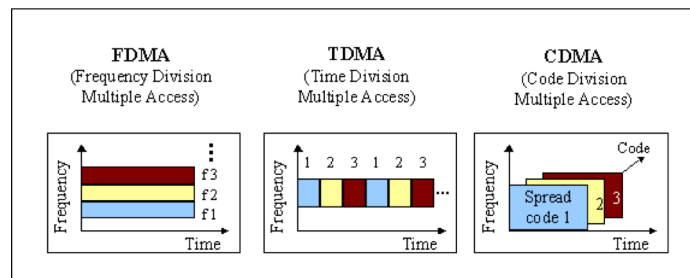
Quadrature Amplitude Modulation

- **Quadrature Amplitude Modulation (QAM)**
 - combines amplitude and phase modulation
 - it is possible to code n bits using one symbol
 - 2^n discrete levels, $n=2$ identical to QPSK
- Bit error rate increases with n , but less errors compared to comparable PSK schemes
 - Example: 16-QAM (4 bits = 1 symbol)
 - Symbols 0011 and 0001 have the same phase ϕ , but different amplitude a . 0000 and 1000 have different phase, but same amplitude.



Data Link Layer (Layer 2)

- **Defines when/how medium will be accessed for transmission**
- Units typically called “frames”; error detection/correction; divided into sublayers, including: **MAC = Medium Access Control** (MAC address 6f:00:2b:23:1f:32)
- Cell phone example:



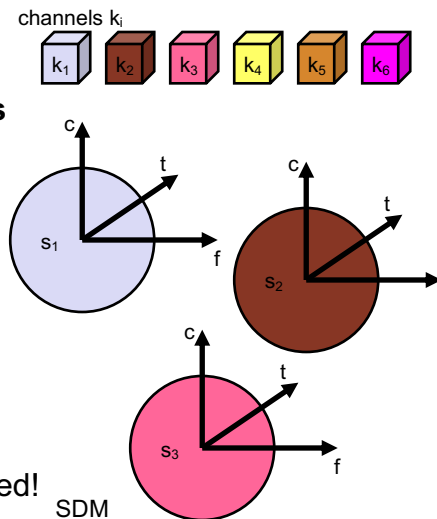
Multiplexing

- **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 division multiplexing (FDM)

- Separation of the whole spectrum into **smaller frequency bands**

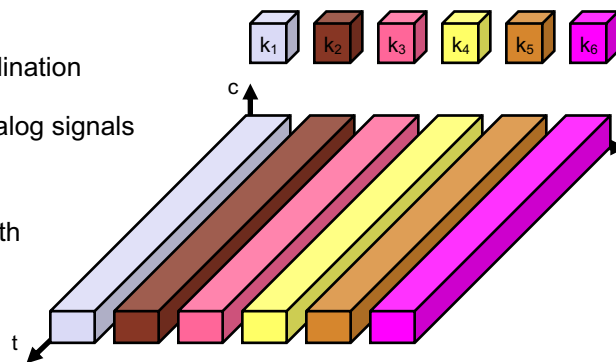
- A channel gets a certain band of the spectrum for the whole time

- Advantages

- no dynamic coordination necessary
- works also for analog signals

- Disadvantages

- waste of bandwidth if the traffic is distributed unevenly
- inflexible



Time division multiplexing (TDM)

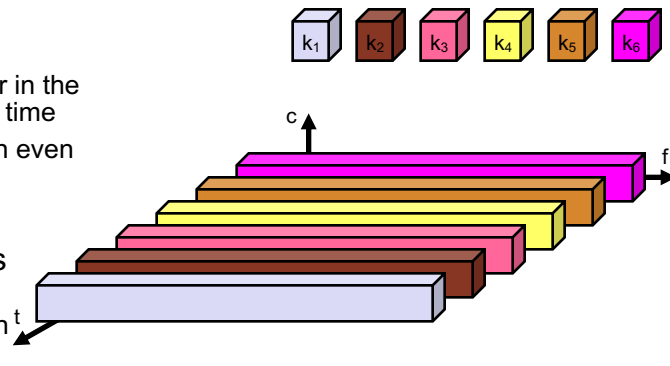
- A channel gets the whole spectrum for a **certain amount of time**

- Advantages

- only one carrier in the medium at any time
- throughput high even for many users

- Disadvantages

- precise synchronization necessary



Time and Frequency Multiplex

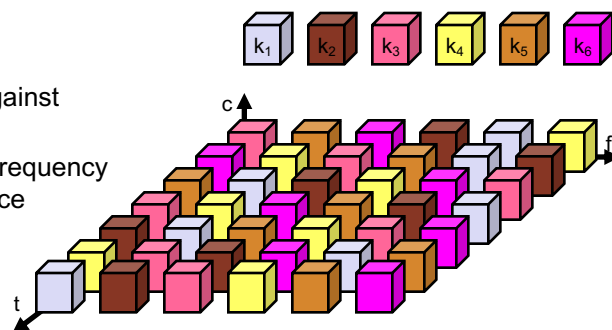
- Combination of both methods
- A channel gets a certain frequency band for a certain amount of time

- Example: **GSM**

- Advantages

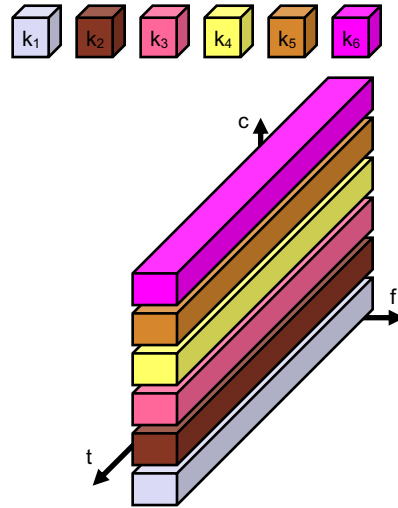
- better protection against tapping
- protection against frequency selective interference

- But: precise coordination required



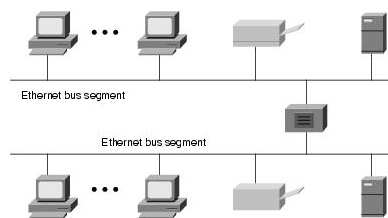
Code Division Multiplexing (CDM)

- Each channel has **unique code**
- All channels use the same spectrum at the same time
- Advantages
 - bandwidth efficient
 - no coordination and synchronization necessary
 - good protection against interference and tapping
- Disadvantages
 - varying user data rates
 - more complex signal regeneration
- Implemented using spread spectrum technology



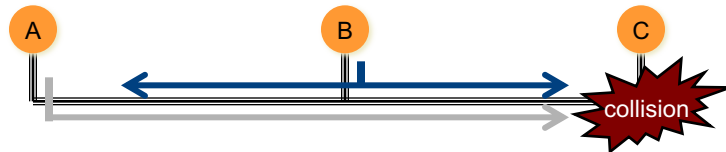
Example: Ethernet (802.3)

- Most popular LAN technology, uses bus architecture
- Easy to install, inexpensive
- Data is broken into **packets**

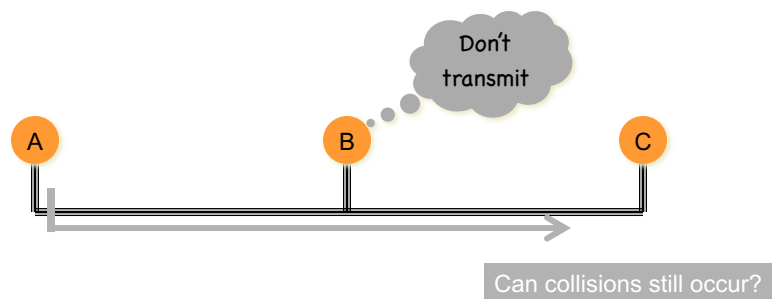


Example: Ethernet

- Medium Access Control (MAC) protocol
- **CSMA/CD** Protocol
 - **C**arrier **S**ense
 - **M**ultiple **A**ccess
 - **C**ollision **D**etection

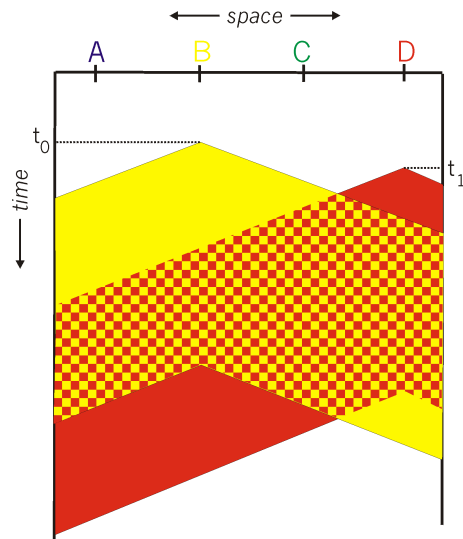


Example: Ethernet



- “Sense” (listen) carrier (“is anyone else talking right now?”)
- If “busy”: wait; if “idle”: transmit
- CD: Keep listening while transmitting
 - If collision detected: retry at a later time

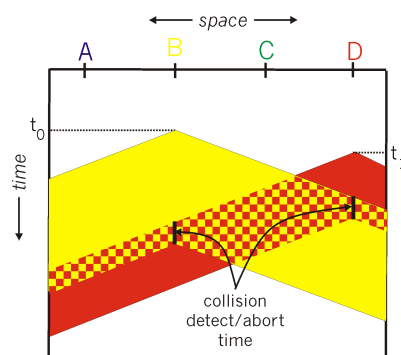
Collisions in CSMA



- Collisions still do occur:
 - Non-zero propagation delays
 - Partial collision: entire packet lost

CSMA/CD

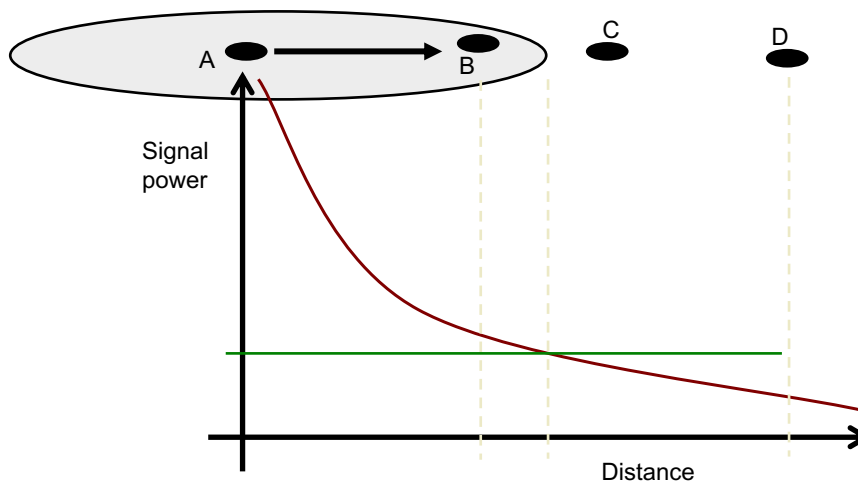
- **CD** = Collision Detection.
- How? Keep listening to channel while transmitting!
- If transmitted signal and sensed signal differ:
 - Collision detected
 - Abort transmission
 - Jam channel: send random bit sequence to "inform" other computers that a collision has occurred



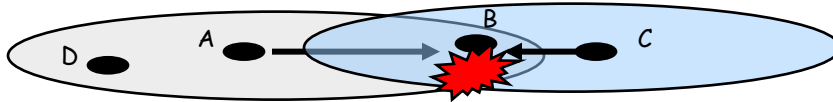
CSMA/CD

- Assumption: the received and transmitted signal are identical (non-dispersive)
- Assumption: receiver “sees” the same signals as transmitters on channel
- **Problem: both not true in wireless networks!**
- Transmitter does not know what the receiver “sees” and therefore does not know if transmission was successful

Wireless Transmissions

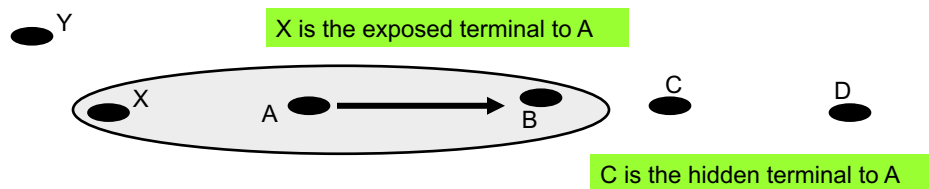


Collision Detection



- Signal received depends on “signal to interference plus noise ratio” ($SINR = P/(I+N)$).

Hidden Terminal/Exposed Terminal



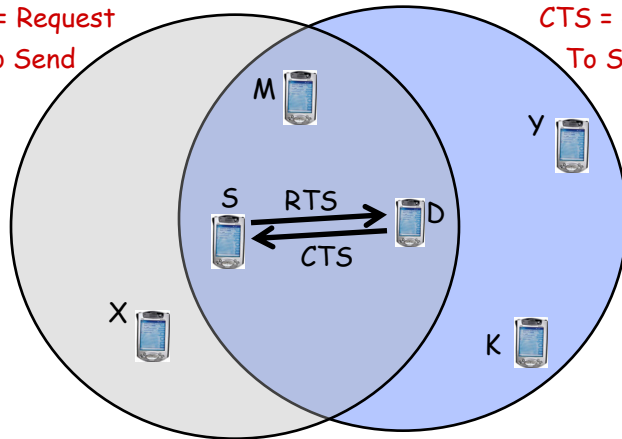
- **Hidden terminal:** C does not hear A (and A cannot hear C), but it can interfere with A at B.
 - Node SHOULD NOT transmit!
- **Exposed terminal:** X hears A and wants to transmit to Y. It cannot interfere with A at B.
 - Node SHOULD transmit!

IEEE 802.11 (CSMA/CA)

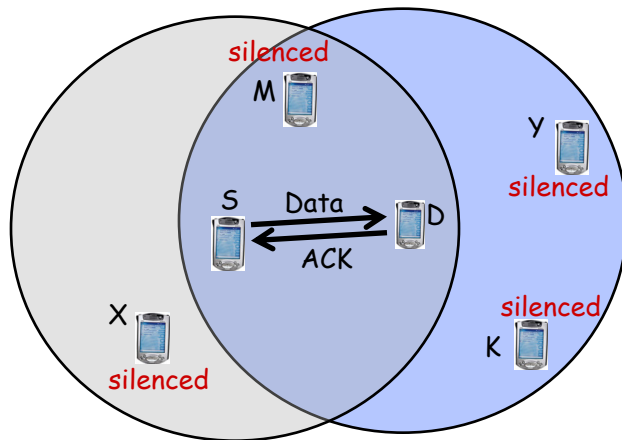
CA = Collision Avoidance

RTS = Request
To Send

CTS = Clear
To Send

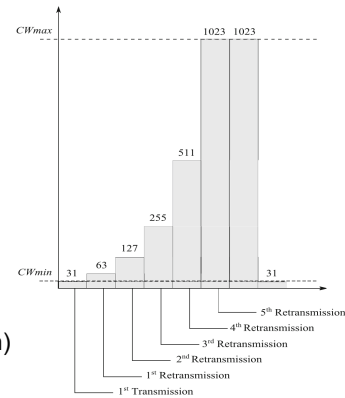


IEEE 802.11



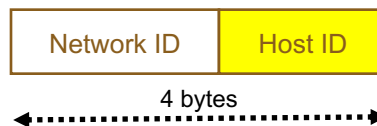
Exponential Backoff

- Wait random amount of time before transmitting!
- Choose a random number $R = \text{rand}(0, CW_{\min})$
- Each node counts down R
 - Continue carrier sensing while counting down
 - Once carrier busy, freeze countdown
- Whoever reaches ZERO transmits RTS
- If collision detected/suspected:
 - **Exponential Backoff** $R_i = \text{rand}(0, 2^i * CW_{\min})$
 - Once successful transmission, reset to $\text{rand}(0, CW_{\min})$



Network Layer (Layer 3)

- **Dominant protocol: IP = Internet Protocol**
- Addressing and routing (sender & receiver IP address)
- Uses 32 bit **hierarchical address space** with location information embedded in the structure



- IPv4 address is usually expressed in dotted-decimal notation, e.g.:

128.100.11.56

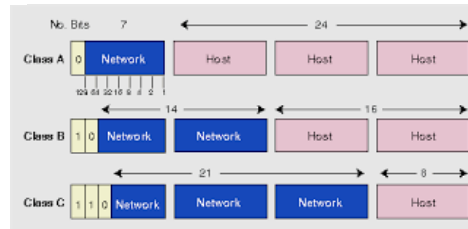
IPv4

Class A	Network	Host	Host	Host
Subnet Mask	255	0	0	0

Class B	Network	Network	Host	Host
Subnet Mask	255	255	0	0

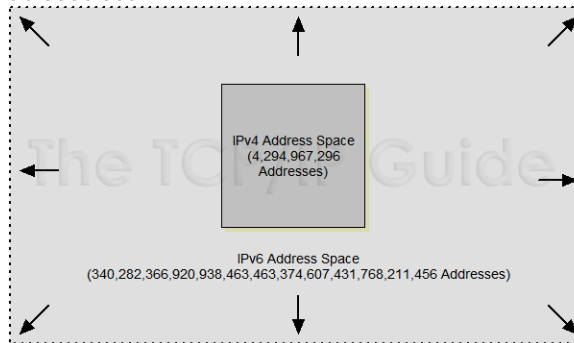
Class C	Network	Network	Network	Host
Subnet Mask	255	255	255	0

www.smartPctricks.com

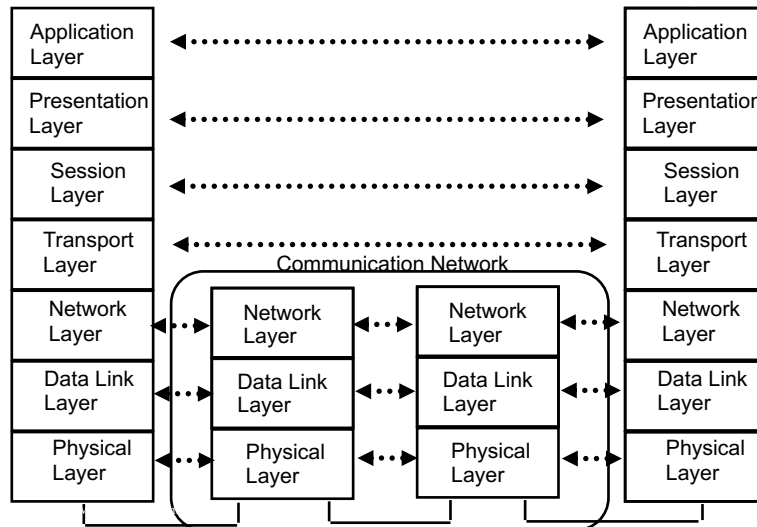


IPv6

- IPv6 addresses are 128 bits long
- 16 bytes of IPv6 address are represented as a group of hexadecimal digits, separated by colons, e.g.:
2000:fdb8:0000:0000:0001:00ab:853c:39a1
- Shorthand – leave out groups of zeros and leading zeros:
2000:fdb8:::1:ab:853c:39a1

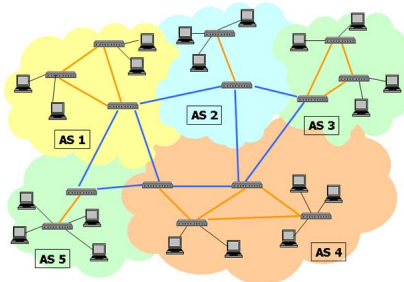


Network Protocols (“Protocol Stack”)



Routers

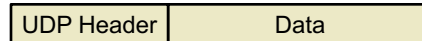
- Form backbone of the Internet
- Use IP layer to identify source and destination of packets
- Look up **routing tables** that determines “**next hop**”



Destination	Next Hop
147.39.21.X	131.19.18.121
89.44.X.X	131.19.22.119
203.21.X.X	137.18.47.48

Transport Layer (Layer 4)

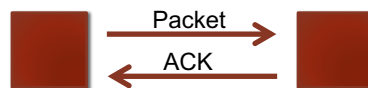
- **UDP** (User Datagram Protocol)



- Adds more addressing: “**ports**”
 - IP address tell you which computer
 - Ports tell you which application on that computer
 - Example: a web server “listens” to requests on port 80
 - Web browser: <http://www.google.com:80> = <http://216.58.216.100:80>
 - “:80”: optional
- **Unreliable!**
 - Packets can get lost; packets can arrive out of order

Transport Layer

- **TCP** (Transmission Control Protocol)
- **Reliable** protocol!
- Adds ports (just like UDP), but also provides:
 - In-order delivery of packets (using sequence numbers)
 - Reliable delivery: using acknowledgment (ACK) packets



- **Flow control & congestion control:**
 - Allows receiver to slow down sender
 - Allows “network” to slow down sender

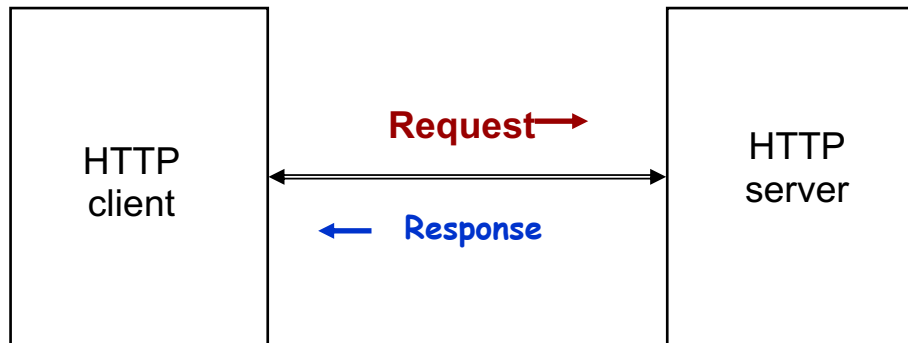
UDP vs TCP

- TCP:
 - typical choice of most applications
 - do not want to lose data, out-of-order arrival, etc.
 - email, web traffic, financial transactions, etc.
- UDP:
 - can be “faster”
 - no flow/congestion control “slowing down” traffic
 - no retransmissions
 - good for “real-time” traffic
 - out-of-order arrival: can also “reorder” at application level
 - loss of data: can be acceptable
 - missing frames in video/audio stream

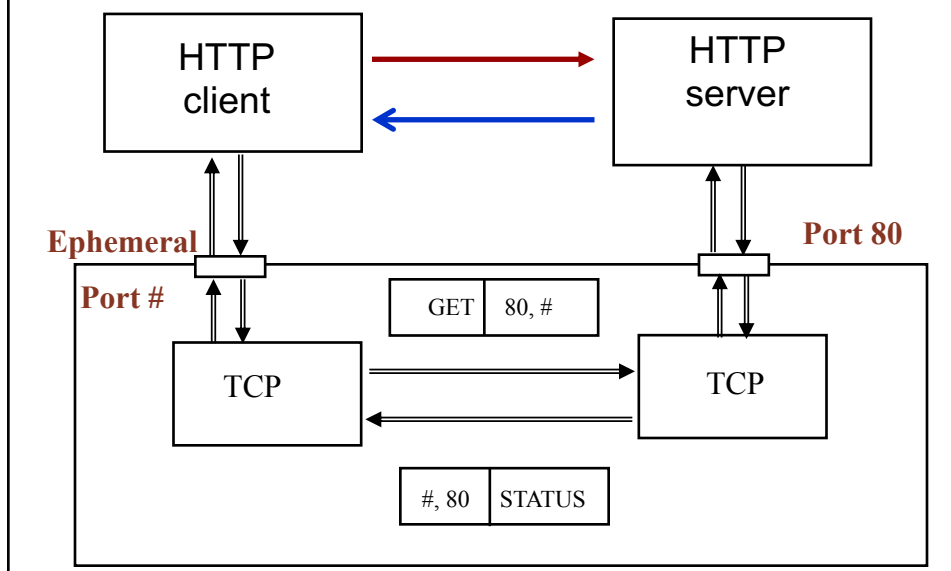
Upper Layers (Layers 5-7)

- Session Layer
 - Management of “sessions”
- Presentation Layer
 - Data translation, formatting, encryption, compression
- Application Layer
 - Interface between user applications and lower network services

Example: Web Servers



Example: Web Servers



Example: Web Servers

