

Wirless Networks And Mobile Applications

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Disclaimer

Hello guys!

These notes contain all the concepts and arguments which are explained during professor's lessons. However they are not intended in any sense as a replacement for professor's lessons, but as a help for studying and preparing the exam. There could be also the presence of some errors and we don't take any responsibility for them. If you like to contribute for any correction, here is the link to the repository:

<https://github.com/filippobrugnolaro/WNMA-notes>

You can create a new branch with all modifications and create a pull request. We'll be pleased for any correction in order to improve the quality of the document. Hope it could be useful.

Cheers :)

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1 Introduction

1.1 Wireless Development

Present

it is constantly growing due to higher use of laptops or devices which can connect to internet. This implied an important growth of WiFi and n-G (3G, 4G, 5G) technologies also thanks to the emerging of apps with both low and high data demand. Smartphones open to new wireless scenarios such as AR, VR, MR, tele-presence. . . Other topics are Tactile Internet (combination of low latency, high availability, reliability and security) and Web Squared (integration of web 2.0 with technologies of sensing).

Future

it is based on ubiquitous communication among people and devices. So this implies to take into account some requirements such as bandwidth, delay, energy and connectivity.

Challenges

- Wireless channels are a difficult and capacity-limited broadcast communications medium (with respect to the wired counterpart);
- Traffic patterns, user locations, and network conditions are constantly changing;
- Applications are heterogeneous with hard constraints required by the network;
- Energy and delay constraints change design principles across all layers of the stack.

Multimedia requirements

	Voice	Data	Video	Game
Delay	low	irrelevant	low	low
Packet Loss	low	no	low	low
Bit Error Rate	10^{-3}	10^{-6}	10^{-6}	10^{-3}
Data Rate	8-32 Kbps	1-100 Mbps	1-20 Mbps	32-100 Kbps
Traffic	Continuous	Bursty	Continuous	Continuous

One-size-fits-all protocols and design

- are used by wired networks → poor results;
- do not work well → Crosslayer design.

Crosslayer Design

It's made of 5 layers:

Application	→ Meet delay, rate and energy constraints
Network	→ Adapt across design layers
Access	→ Reduce uncertainty through scheduling
Link	→ Provide robustness via diversity
Hardware	

1.2 Wireless Systems

There are different types of current wireless systems:

- Cellular Systems;
- Wireless LANs;
- Satellite Systems;
- Bluetooth;
- ...

And others which are emerging:

- Ad hoc Wireless Network;
- Mesh Network;
- Sensor Network;
- Distributed Control Network;
- MANET/VANET/FANET;
- Underwater Networks;
- RFID;
- Nano-networks;
- ...

1.2.1 Cellular Systems

Characteristics:

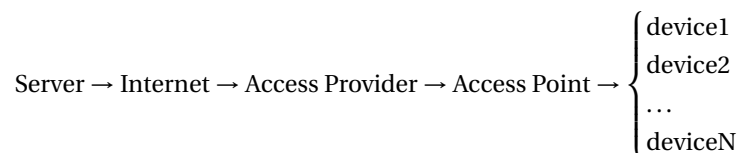
- every geographic region is divided into cells
 - more transmission distance \Rightarrow more power;
- frequency/timeslots/codes are reused at separated locations;
- co-channels interference between same color cells;

- base stations has control of functions and handoff;
- it can be shrunk to increase capacity and relax networking burden.
- it supports both voice (continuous) and data (bursty) requiring different:
 - access
 - routing strategies
- About connectivity:
 - 3G: packet-based switching for both voice and data (up to 7.2 Mbps)
 - 4G - 5G: are more focused on data (high bandwidth, high reliability, low latency)

1.2.2 Wireless Local Area Networks (WLANs)

Characteristics:

- devices are connected (wireless) to an AP¹
 - it is wired-connected to internet;
- breaks data into packets (≈ 1500 B) → AP¹ in even smaller size (500 B);
- MAC layer control access to shared channel (random access);
- backbone internet provides best-effort service
 - bandwidth cannot be determined!
 - users pay subscription only for home-access provider distance
 - ⇒ it can be bottleneck if the backbone is faster
 - having QoS (subscription) here can increase digital gap



There are different versions (802.11):

- b (old gen): only 2.4 GHz, speed 1-11 Mbps, range 100m
- g (legacy std): 2.4-5 GHz, speed up to 54 Mbps
- n (current gen): 2.4-5 GHz, speed up to 300 Mbps, multiple I/O
- ac (emerging gen): 2.4-5 GHz, speed up to 500 Mbps, multiple I/O
- s: used for mesh networks
- p: used for vehicular networks

¹Access Point

1.2.3 Satellite Systems

Satellites haven't been used so much until starlink which is gaining popularity because, even if they make light pollution, they are very lightweight and easy to wake up. There are many types of satellites:

- GEO (Geostationary Earth Orbit);
- MEO (Medium Earth Orbit);
- LEO (Low Earth Orbit).

In particular satellites:

- can cover large areas depending on their height in the space:
 - $> \text{height} \Rightarrow > \text{covered area}, > \text{latency}, < \text{bandwidth}$
 - $< \text{height} \Rightarrow < \text{covered area}, < \text{latency}, > \text{bandwidth}$
- for one-way transmission are optimised (i.e. radio and movie broadcasting);
- for two-way transmission are given up because of costs and few ambitions.

1.2.4 Bluetooth

Characteristics:

- it is a low cost replacement for cables;
- it covers a short range up to 100m with multihop
 - it requires exponential energy as distance grows
- frequency 2.4 GHz
- 4 channels (3 for voice, 1 for data up to 700 Kbps)
- Widely supported by telecommunications, PC...
 - it is a standard de facto (also BLE...)

1.2.5 Ad Hoc Networks

Characteristics:

- it is a peer-to-peer communications (born for military purposes)
- there isn't any backbone infrastructure
- routing is very hard because of:
 - dynamic topology;
 - typically multihop → to extend coverage area or reduce interferences

Problems:

- | | |
|------------------------|-------------------------|
| • hops; | • energy consumption; |
| • bandwidth; | • topology; |
| • collisions handling; | • dependency on device. |

1.2.6 Mesh Networks

Characteristics:

- Ad hoc opportunistic extension of a fixed urban infrastructure
→ full of wireless access point which can connect to other ones
- it is easier than ANET because of almost static topology;
- creation of wireless coverage which is:
 - low-cost
 - easily deployable
 - high performing
- Challenges to face:
 - QoS
 - routing protocols optimisation for fairness and load balancing
 - automatic setup on infrastructure's failures

1.2.7 Sensor Networks

Characteristics:

- there is at least one sensor as device in the network;
- energy is the principal constraint (low or no battery)
- data flows to centralised locations;
- low per-node rate → up to 100K nodes and they can cooperate in:
 - ★ transmission
 - ★ reception
 - ★ compression
 - ★ signal processing

1.2.8 Distributed Control over Wireless Links

Characteristics:

- it is a possible scenario where there is control over something;
- it has to be robust to failures;
- Packet loss and delays impact controller performance;
- used mainly on automated vehicles such as cars, UAVs...

1.2.9 Mobile Ad Hoc Networks (MANET)

Characteristics:

- ANET with a dynamic topology using:
 - Infrastructure Network (WiFi or 3G/4G)
 - Ad Hoc Multihop wireless Network
- Instantly deployable and re-configurable (for temporary needs);
- Portable (i.e. sensors) and mobile (i.e. cars);

1.2.10 Opportunistic Ad Hoc Networks

Characteristics:

- they are created when needed;
- Driven by “commercial” application needs:
 - Indoor WLAN extended coverage
 - Bluetooth sharing
 - Peer-to-Peer networking on vehicles
- Access to internet available
 - BUT if too costly or inadequate ⇒ replacement with Ad Hoc Network

1.2.11 Vehicular Ad Hoc Networks (VANET)

Characteristics:

- ANET for vehicles
- it has 1000m range
- it supports 5.9 GHz
- it has 6-27 Mbps data rate depending on range
- it is more predictable → it may deduce infos ⇒ useful for crosslayers

1.2.12 Flying Ad Hoc Networks (FANET)

Characteristics:

- ANET for flying objects (i.e drone, mixed vehicles...)
- there is a 3D topology → protocols needs to be redesigned

1.2.13 Underwater Sensor Networks

Characteristics:

- communication happens by sound → messages propagate in circles;
- important to compute when message arrives → avoid collisions.

1.2.14 Radio Frequency Identification (RFID)

Characteristics:

- it is based on tags (low cost), readers (high cost) and eventually a server;
- tags can have:
 - ★ no battery → emitter charges the tag with energy (steal control,...)
 - ★ battery → tag periodically emits its ID (check of product history, control with sensors,...)
- systems can be built:
 - lot of tags + one emitter ⇒ cheap
 - lot of emitters + one tag ⇒ expensive
- it can identify specific instance of a product! (not only type like barcode)

2 Radio Frequency

Most wireless communications are based on this technology.

2.1 Properties

Here is some characteristics and properties of radio frequency:

- Antenna:
 - it has high frequency alternate current \Rightarrow generates electromagnetic energy
 - it converts wired current to radio frequency and viceversa
 - it can produce radio frequency with different frequency/amplitude
 - as signal propagates \Rightarrow it becomes weaker and weaker
- Frequency \rightarrow it is the number of waves in a second:
 - there is a wireless spectrum (regulated and free areas)
 - wavelength = $\frac{c}{\text{freq}}$ \Rightarrow distance between spikes
 - it gives antenna's recommended length
 - it works better if size is $\frac{1}{2\pi}$ length of wavelength
- Amplitude:
 - higher amplitude signals \Rightarrow it goes further
 - transmission power = $\frac{\text{energy}}{\text{time}} \rightarrow \frac{\text{joule}}{\text{s}}$
- Coverage:
 - as distance grows \Rightarrow signal becomes weaker in an exponential decline
 - you can detect a weak signal \rightarrow but you can't really use it
(weak for exchanging messages)
 - problems:
 - * obstacles \rightarrow can reflect or absorb waves
 - it depends on material and frequency
 - rules of thumbs
 - high frequency \rightarrow short distances, more affected by obstacles
 - low frequency \rightarrow long distances, less affected by obstacles
 - * phase shifting \rightarrow positive/negative aspects \rightarrow early/late wavefront
 - signals can be null and overlap each other
 - polarisation \rightarrow physical orientation of antenna
 - * radio frequency is made up of 2 perpendicular fields (electric/magnetic) \Rightarrow the presence of:
 - Horizontal polarisation \rightarrow electric field parallel to ground
 - Vertical polarisation \rightarrow electric field perpendicular to ground \rightarrow if 2 antennas are perpendicular to ground \Rightarrow better transmission

2.2 Wireless Transmission

It happens through electromagnetic waves. There is a dependency on amplitude, frequency and phase values → each combination produces a new signal

Characteristics:

- Range:
 - Transmission: communication possible, low error rate
 - Detection: detection of signal, no exchanging messages
 - Interference: no detection for too much noise depending from many factors (distance, environment...)Detection requires more energy than communication
- Propagation:
 - it is at the light speed in free spaces
 - receiving power depends from distance between sender/receiver
 $rp = \frac{1}{d^2} \rightarrow rp$ influenced by:
 - * fading (dependent on frequency)
 - * shadowing (obstacles)
 - * reflection (large obstacles)
 - * refraction (density of obstacles)
 - * scattering (small obstacles)
 - * diffraction (at edges)
 - signal can follow different paths due to refraction, scattering, diffraction.
So there is:
 - * Time dispersion → signal is dispersed over time
 - * Phase shifting → signal is distorted
- Power measurement
 - It is the Decibel (dB) → expression power loss
 - It is more practical to use logarithmic decay → easy calculations
 - Decibel measures the logarithmic relative strength between 2 signals
 - Values of power measurements:
 - * positive → power gain
 - * negative → power loss

2.3 Antennas

Characteristics:

- it converts electrical energy in radio frequency waves (transmission) and viceversa (reception)
- its size → depends on radio frequency of transimission/reception
- its shape → depends on radio frequency radiation pattern
- position important to have max coverage

There are different types of antennas:

- Omnidirectional antennas
- Semi-directional antennas
- Highly-directional antennas
- Sectorised-directional antennas

2.3.1 Omnidirectional antennas

Characteristics:

- radio frequency power is equally distributed in all direction around Y-axis
- used when:
 - need of uniform radio coverage
 - point-to-multipoint connections (star topology)
- Tilt → it is degree of inclination of antenna with respect to Y-axis
- Example of dipole antenna
 - passive gain due to concentration of radiations
 - active gain obtained with power amplifiers
 - signal is weak near the dipole
 - there is also:
 - * low gain → high signal near antenna, low far
 - * high gain → low signal near antenna, high far

2.3.2 Semi-directional antennas

Characteristics:

- radio frequency power is equally distributed only on $\frac{1}{2}$ direction (also few goes behind that direction)
- Types:
 - Patch → flat antennas mounted on walls
 - Panel → flat antennas mounted on walls
 - Yagi → rod with tines sticking out

2.3.3 Highly-directional antennas

Characteristics:

- radio frequency power is distributed on a specific direction and antenna could be as:
 - parabolic dish
 - grid
- it is used for long distances → point-to-point link
- there is what is called LoS (Line of Sight):
 - straight line between sender and receiver
 - needs no obstruction
- there is also the Freshnel Zone:
 - it is an area which is centered on LoS axis
 - most additive radio frequency signal is concentrated here
 - there is the need of no obstacles
(useless increasing power if Freshnel Zone is not free)
 - it depends on distance and frequency
 - ⇒ there is no dependency from type, degree, gain of antennas

2.3.4 Sectorised-directional antennas

Characteristics:

- there are multiple antennas → each one points to a direction
- it is applied the space multiplexing (channel reuse)
 - ⇒ assigned the same frequency for antennas which do not collide each others

3 Wireless Physical Layer

There are different frequency areas which can be regulated or free.

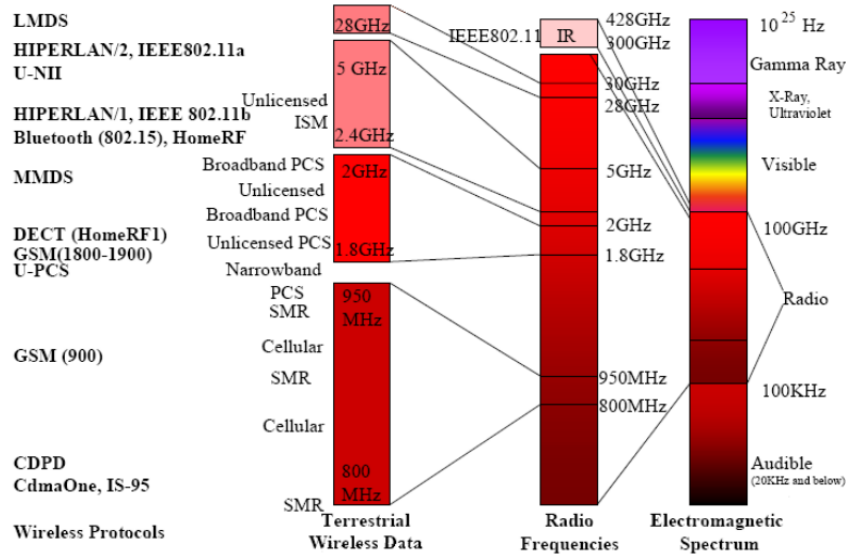


Figure 1: Wireless spectrum

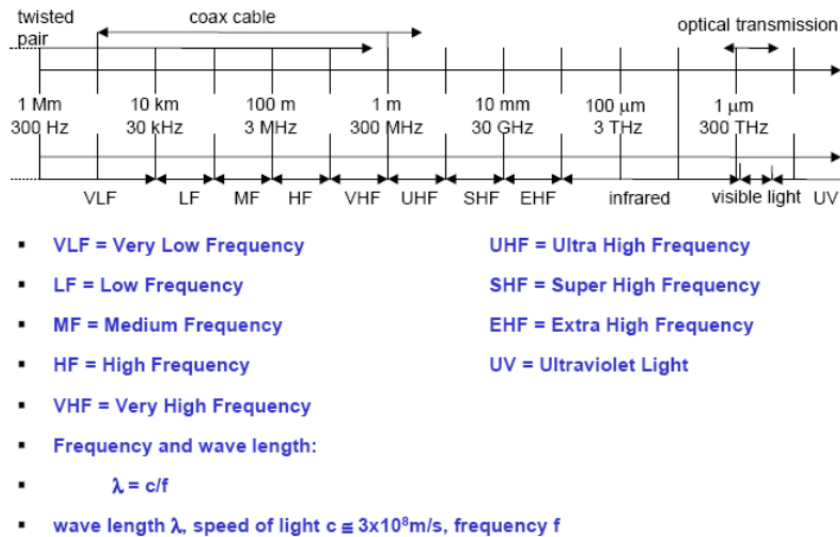


Figure 2: Wireless frequency

3.1 Characteristics

In this section there is some description about the main concepts of wireless physical layer

Bandwidth → maximum transfer capacity

- it can vary between each wireless channel
- bits go at the same speed (light physical limit) → gain in encoding/decoding
- spectrum can be bigger → more space ⇒ more risks (errors, interferences, ...)
- time to accomodate (less time, ...)

Coverage

- both isolated ⇒ they can't hear each others
- if A receives B, but B don't receive A ⇒ unidirectional link
- if A receives B and viceversa ⇒ bidirectional link
- Bidirectional links can be:
 - symmetric: A & B communicate with same speed
 - asymmetric: A & B communicate with different speed

Technology

There are different types of technologies used for wireless networks:

- Narrowband Radio System
 - used for long distance, LoS needed
 - send/receive using a single, licensed, narrowing radio frequency
 - cross-talks require coordination/license for each site (low rate)
- Spread Spectrum it can be of 2 types:
 - Frequency Hopping Spread Spectrum
 - * it can changes frequency in the way which is known by the receiver/transmitter
 - * unintended receivers may listen to FHSS² as impulse noise
 - * lower power/cost/throughput than DSSS³
 - Direct Sequence Spread Spectrum
 - * redundant bit pattern spreaded over a large spectrum
 - long chips can increase the possibility to recover the original bits
 - ⇒ it may avoid retransmission

²Frequency Hopping Spread Spectrum

³Direct Sequence Spread Spectrum

- * unintended receivers may listen to DSSS⁴ as low power wideband noise
- * high performance, low interferences, good security, more expensive
- Infrared
 - it is just below visible light ⇒ it can't go beyond obstacles
 - LoS is the key (it limitates mobility) → short range (indoor, LANs, ...)
 - high data-rate potential
 - high bandwidth, easily obstructed, inexpensive

	PROS	CONS
Frequency Hopping Spread Spectrum (FHSS)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use less power than DSSS • Lower cost • Increased security due to frequency switching 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lower throughput than DSSS
Direct Sequence Spread Spectrum (DSSS)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High performance • Low interference • Increased security due to chip coding 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expensive
Narrowband Microwave	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Long distance 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Line-of-sight with satellite dish • Requires FCC license • Not designed for WLAN use
Infrared	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High bandwidth 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Easily obstructed • Inexpensive

Figure 3: Wireless technologies comparison

Coverage Areas

There are different coverage areas:

- Wireless Wide/Metropolitan Area Network (WWAN & WMAN)

It is characterised by the use of:

 - satellites
 - * GEO → 3 of them cover the entire world → 500ms Round Trip Time
 - * LEO → more mobility, low coverage → nodes have to switch between them
 - cellular/multistructure WLAN
 - * lots of Access Point all connected to local Mobile terminals
 - * local Mobile terminals connected to internet backbone

⁴Direct Sequence Spread Spectrum

- Wireless Local Area Network (WLAN)

It can be of 2 types:

→ Ad-Hoc

- * it is a Peer-to-Peer "on the fly" communication
- * there is no administration, no setup, no costs

→ Infrastructure

- * it is a centralised control unit (Access Point + Local Server)
- * there is roaming between cells
- * there is resource sharing and backbone connection

- Wireless Personal Area Network (WPAN)

- it is used for alternative cable connection for in-home/offices
- common protocols are HomeRF, Bluetooth, ...

Environment

There are some challenges to take into account:

- capability to maintain needs for apps/services
- limited resources such as bandwidth, energy (battery constraints) ...
- device limits (I/O, keyboards, mouse, ...)
- mobility (number of users in the system, ...)
- QoS⁵ problems, reliability, negotiation...

Multiplexing

- Goal → to reach the multiple use of a shared channel
⇒ bandwidth to a large amount of devices
- There are multiple options and each one needs to have a guard spaces
⇒ avoid interferences, ...
- Types:
 - Space Multiplexing:
 - * devices are far away from each other
 - * devices have all the same frequency → no interference
 - * guard → safety physical space
 - Frequency Multiplexing:
 - * channel's spectrum is divided into smaller bands
 - * host use a single piece for the whole time

⁵Quality of Service → guarantee a certain amount of bandwidth

- * guard → safety frequency between bands

- * Pros:

- no dynamic coordination
- it works also for analog systems

- * Cons:

- inflexibility → traffic unbalanced ⇒ bandwidth waste

→ Time Multiplexing:

- * one carrier (round-robin) at a time uses the whole bandwidth

- * guard → time between transitions

- * Pros:

- high throughput for many users

- * Cons:

- require precise synchronization

→ Code Multiplexing:

- * how it works:

1. each channel has a unique code
2. each medium transmits at the same time
3. messages overlapping
4. signal combination
5. receiver decode only what of interest

- * Pros:

- no synchronization
- more bandwidth
- good protection in security/interferences

- * Cons:

- lower data rates
- more expensive → it needs to regenerate the signal (receiver)

3.2 Wireless vs Wired

Here there is a comparison between wireless and wired networks.

Attribute	Wireless PAN/LAN	Wired PAN/LAN
Throughput	10-100 Mbps	10-100 Mbps (and more)
Integrity & Reliability	Subject to interference	Highly reliable
Simplicity/ Ease of Use	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• No need to pull cable• Set up time is significantly lower• Moves, additions & changes much simpler	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Cable required• Set up time is significantly higher
Security	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Susceptible to interception• Encryption	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Not as susceptible to interception
Cost	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Initial HW investment high• Installation expenses and maintenance low	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Initial HW investment low• Installation expenses and maintenance high
Scalability	Simple to complex networks	Simple to complex networks
Safety	Little exposure to radio frequency energy	No exposure to radio frequency energy
Mobility	Provides access to real-time info anywhere	Does not support mobility

Figure 4: Wireless vs wired comparison

4 MAC Layer

4.1 Introduction

Multiple Access Control (MAC) layer:

- it is a media access control protocol in which there is:
 - coordination and scheduling of transmissions
 - hosts competing for having the channel
- Access control
 - it is referred to shared channel
 - broadcast of wireless transmission (at the light of speed)
 - who can transmit when/where
 - collisions → avoid/recover from them with detection or not
⇒ the problem is receiving at the same time (NOT SENDING)
- Goals:
 - low latency
 - good channel utilization (no collisions → using it as much as possible)
 - best effort + real time support

As in a human conversation:

- Everybody should have the chance to talk
- Do not speak until it is your turn
- Do not monopolize the conversation
- Raise your hand if you have to ask for something
- Do not interrupt while somebody is talking
- Do not fall asleep while somebody is talking

So the most important concepts are:

- efficiency in the bandwidth use → the maximum possible
 - resilience → avoid collisions
 - fairness → given n nodes and a bandwidth b , each one should have a bandwidth $b_n = \frac{b_{tot}}{n}$
 - robustness → decentralised, no single point of failure
 - simplicity → easy to implement
- Channel Access Problem
 - there is a multiple nodes share channel
⇒ simultaneous communication is not possible

- MAC protocols give schemes to schedule communication
 - * maximise number of communication → avoid collisions
 - * guarantee fairness among all transmitters
- trivial solution is Transmit and Pray
 - ⇒ plenty of collisions → poor throughput at high
- Carrier Sense Multiple Access (CSMA):
 - * it provides a fix to Transmit and Pray
 - * transmitters listen to the channel before sending → waiting when signal on channel
 - * collisions:
 - can still occur due to propagation delay
 - when it happens the entire packet could be lost → time wasted

4.2 MAC Protocols

MAC protocol → coordinates transmissions from different stations
⇒ minimize or avoid collisions

There are 3 different types of protocols:

- Channel partitioning (TDMA, FDMA, CDMA)
- Random Access (CSMA, MACA)
- Taking turns (polling)

Approaches to MAC layer are:

- Random Access:
 - Without carrier sensing → Pure Aloha, Slotted Aloha
 - With carrier sensing → CSMA, CSMA/CD, MACAW
- Controlled Access:
 - Centralized → entity regulate channel's access (FDMA, TDMA, CDMA)
 - Distributed → distributed apps with peer nodes regulate channel's access (Token ring)

Random Access Protocols

Characteristics:

- node transmits at random at full channel data rate
- if nodes collide then they retransmit at random times
- each one detects/recovers from collision in a different way

Here there is the description of the most important protocols.

4.2.1 Slotted Aloha

Characteristics:

- time is divided into equal size slots → equal to full packet size
- newly arriving station transmits at the beginning of the next slot
- if collision occurs:
 - assumption of the presence of channel feedback
 - retransmission of packet at each slot with probability P , until successful
- Successful of transmission:

given:

 - N = number of stations
 - P = probability that each station transmits in the slot
 - S = probability of successful of transmission

the value of S is:

 - $S = p(1-p)^{(N-1)}$ by a single node
 - $S = Np(1-p)^{(N-1)}$ by any of N nodes
- throughput efficiency is about $\frac{1}{e}$ → and:
 1. obtaining $p = \frac{1}{N}$ (p should be tailored based on N)
 2. substituting p to $S = Np(1-p)^{(n-1)} \Rightarrow S = N\frac{1}{N}(1-\frac{1}{N})^{(N-1)}$
 3. solving S at the limit obtaining $S = \frac{1}{e}$
- it is fully decentralised

4.2.2 Pure Aloha

Characteristics:

- it doesn't require time slots → no synchronization
- nodes can transmit at any time \Rightarrow collision may increase
- Successful of transmission:

given:

 - N = number of stations
 - P = probability that each station transmits in the slot
 - S = probability of successful of transmission

the value of S is:

- $S = p(1-p)^{2(N-1)}$ by a single node
- $S = Np(1-p)^{2(N-1)}$ by any of N nodes

- throughput efficiency is about $\frac{1}{2e}$ → every transmission can occupy 2 slots
→ and:
 1. obtaining $p = \frac{1}{2(N-1)}$ (p should be tailored based on N)
 2. substituting p to $S = Np(1-p)^{2(N-1)} \Rightarrow S = N \frac{1}{2(N-1)} (1 - \frac{1}{2(N-1)})^{2(N-1)}$
 3. solving S at the limit obtaining $S = \frac{1}{2e}$

4.2.3 Considerations Pure & Slotted Aloha

Both are:

- not efficient at all → a lot of retransmissions:
 - ★ Pure Aloha throughput → 18.4 %
 - ★ Slotted Aloha throughput → 36.8 %
- unfair → aggressive senders can capture the channel
- robust → decentralized
- simple:
 - ★ Pure Aloha → no coordination
 - ★ Slotted Aloha → just synchronization

4.2.4 Carrier Sense Multiple Access (CSMA)

Characteristics:

- Aloha protocols are less performing → lack of coordination among nodes
- Each node continuously listens to channel → awareness of channel's freedom
⇒ improve in efficiency

There are different types of CSMA:

- 1-persistent CSMA
- non-persistent CSMA
- p-persistent CSMA

4.2.4.1 1-persistent CSMA

Characteristics:

- how it works:
 1. nodes listen to the channel
 2. the channel can be:
 - free → immediate transmission
 - busy → waiting until channel is free → $P_R = 1$

$\Rightarrow P_R$ = probability of retransmission
(if there is a collision \rightarrow node waits for a random time and
retries \Rightarrow desynchronization)

- propagation time
 - \rightarrow impact on performance
 - \rightarrow more time \Rightarrow more collisions
 - Example:
A can't hear B \rightarrow B is transmitting for so much time and A want to transmit
 \rightarrow channel is free for A but it is not \Rightarrow collision
 - \rightarrow even with no propagation time
 - Example:
if two nodes transmit and a third is occupying the channel
 \rightarrow when channel is free \rightarrow all 2 transmit at same time \Rightarrow collision

4.2.4.2 Non-persistent CSMA

Characteristics:

- how it works:
 1. nodes listen to the channel
 2. the channel can be:
 - \rightarrow free \rightarrow immediate transmission
 - \rightarrow busy \rightarrow waiting a random time and then retry to listen
- it is less aggressive than 1-persistent CSMA

4.2.4.3 P-persistent CSMA

Characteristics:

- it is slot based
- how it works:
 1. nodes listen to the channel
 2. the channel can be:
 - \rightarrow free \rightarrow transmission with probability p
 - \rightarrow busy \rightarrow wait with probability $(1-p)$ and then retry to listen
- Aggressiveness:
 - \rightarrow it depends on p
 - \rightarrow p can be choose depending to the number of nodes:
 - * many \rightarrow it may be conservative
 \Rightarrow bandwidth waste depending on number of collisions
 - * few \rightarrow it may be aggressive
 \Rightarrow bandwidth waste depending on time of channel not used

4.2.4.4 CSMA with Collision Detection (CSMA/CD)

Characteristics:

- it is like CSMA → but collisions are detected within few bit times
- when it is detected → transmission aborted ⇒ reduction of channel wastage
- transmission is typically implemented persistently
- collision detection can approach channel utilization = 1 in LANs
→ it can detect immediately if something is wrong
- easy detection in wired LANs → it can measure signal strength
→ on the line, or code violations, ...
- collision detection can't be done in wireless LANs
Example:
the receiver shut off while transmitting → avoid damaging it with excess power

4.2.5 Wireless Medium Access Control

Some basics:

- transmission strength drops exponentially as the distance grows
- there is the SINR (⇒ signal interface noise ratio)
→ calculation of how strong is signal compared to interference
- SINR threshold → bound in which signal can't be detected anymore
→ C can hear but not receive correctly the message
→ A can't send/listen at the same time
Example:
collision with A → D may not; B/C maybe
- Collision detection:
 - A is out of C range (and vicerversa), both have B on range
→ they send together ⇒ collision at receiver B
 - Both:
 - * don't know their position
 - * can only hear themselves → no listening while transmitting
 - * can't determine the signal quality at receiver
 - Two problems:
 - * Hidden Terminal Problem → nodes don't know the topology
→ they transmit to same node without knowing other's transmission
⇒ collision
 - * Exposed Terminal Problem → nodes are in each other range
→ transmission to different receivers → even if channel is free
→ one don't transmit thinking channel is busy

4.3 802.11 Protocol

Characteristics:

- it is a standard ratified in 1999
- aim is to have a common way to allow communication between nodes
- it is used in WLAN indoors with various version (n/ac/...)
 - frequency used are unlicensed → 2.4/5 GHz, 900 MHz
- WLAN configuration with access point or ad-hoc network
- it defines both MAC and physical layer (radio frequency, header, size, ack, ...)
- definition of some terms:
 - DIFS (Distributed Inter Frame Space): time waiting for channel to be free
 - if channel is occupied ⇒ timer restarts from the beginning (low priority → for asynchronous data service)
 - SIFS (Short Inter Frame Space): time useful to process some procedures like:
 - * CTS (Clear To Send)
 - * Datas
 - * ACK (Acknowledgement)
 - ⇒ high priority
 - CW (Contention Window):
 - slots to be waited after a successful DIFS → 1 slot = 1 SIFS
 - if channel is occupied ⇒ timer stops and restart from there
 - if there is a collision → CW is increased at max 1024 slots
 - when succeeding → CW reset to the value
 - NAV (Network Allocation Vector): time the sender declares to hold the medium → other nodes can go to sleep ⇒ sparing energy

There are different versions of 802.11 protocol and for accessing to MAC layer which are explained in the next sections.

Access methods are:

- MAC-DCF CSMA/CA:
 - collision avoidance via randomized back-off mechanism
 - minimum distance between consecutive packets
 - ACK packet for acknowledgements (not for broadcasts)
- MAC-DCF CSMA/CA with RTS/CTS
 - Distributed Foundation Wireless MAC
 - avoids hidden terminal problem
- MAC- PCF
 - access point polls terminals according to a list

4.3.1 CSMA version

- nodes listen before transmitting
- if the channel is:
 - free → node begins to transmit data
 - busy → NAV defer access to medium
 - if it was in:
 - * DIFS → it restarts the timer
 - * CW → it stops and restarts at same timer position when newly free
- receiver returns to emitter ACK after SIFS amount of time
- how it works:
 1. transmitter waits a DIFS time ($\approx 16\mu s$)
 2. if the channel is:
 - busy → it restarts the DIFS counter (point 1.)
 - free → it goes to CW (point 3.)
 3. transmitter waits in the CW
 4. if the channel is:
 - busy → it stops the timer and restarts at the same time of CW
 - free → it begins to transmit (point 5.)
 5. transmitter sends data (for a max of $33\mu s$)
 6. receiver sends back an ACK after SIFS time ($9\mu s$)
 - automatic retransmission of packets in case of transmission errors
- it is subjected to the hidden terminal problem \Rightarrow use of CSMA/CA

4.3.2 CSMA/CA version

It works similarly as CSMA, but it improves hidden terminal problem (not solved).

- it uses the collision avoidance (CA).

In particular it adds:

 - RTS (Request To Send) → it freezes stations near the transmitter
 - CTS (Clear To Send) → freezes stations near the receiver
 - station could be possibly hidden from transmitter
 - \Rightarrow this prevents collisions by hidden station during data transfer

\Rightarrow RTS and CTS are very short → collisions during data phase are very unlikely
- nodes listen before transmitting

- if the channel is:
 - free → nodes begin to send the RTS/CTS and datas
 - busy → NAV defer access to medium
 - if it was in:
 - * DIFS → it restarts the timer
 - * CW → it stops and restarts at same timer position when newly free
- receiver returns to emitter ACK after SIFS amount of time
- how it works:
 1. transmitter waits a DIFS time
 2. if the channel is:
 - busy → it restarts the DIFS counter (point 1.)
 - free → it goes to CW (point 3.)
 3. transmitter waits in the CW
 4. if the channel is:
 - busy → it stops the timer and restarts at the same time of CW
 - free → it begins to transmit (point 5.)
 5. transmitter sends a RTS to receiver
 6. receiver sends back a CTS to transmitter after SIFS time
 7. transmitter sends data after SIFS time
 8. receiver sends back an ACK after SIFS time
 - automatic retransmission of packets in case of transmission errors

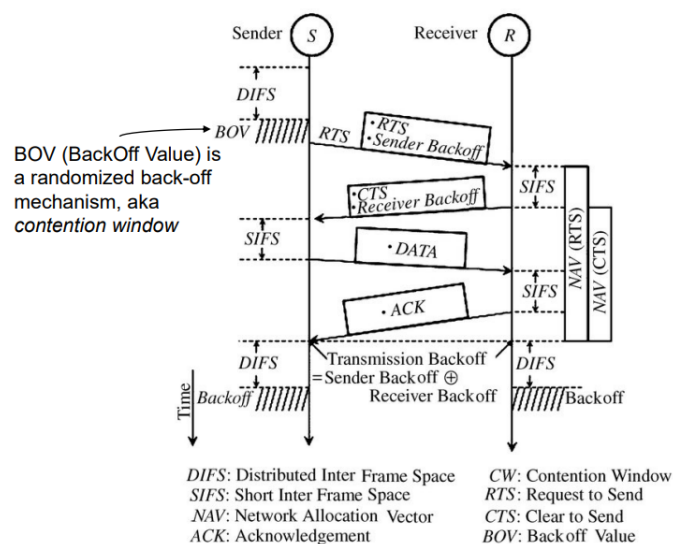


Figure 5: CSMA/CA

4.3.3 Point Coordinating Function (PCF)/Polling version

Characteristics:

- Access Point has complete control over transmissions
- it asks to each node if it has something to transmit → managed by round-robin
⇒ no collisions, ok with many nodes
- how it works:
 1. AP announces if it supports PCF in the beacon
 2. The AP periodically broadcasts beacons
 3. Nodes use these beacons to learn about AP
 4. The node and the AP authenticate each other:
 - (a) node associates with that AP
 - (b) node sends an association request management frame
→ here node announces to the AP if:
 - ★ pollable
 - ★ capable to transmit during the contention free period (CFP)
 - (c) AP replies with an association response

4.3.4 Considerations CSMA

Some considerations about CSMA:

- exposed terminal problem → it is not improved → with CSMA is even worse
→ enlarge the detection ⇒ there are potentially more nodes
- it is always better to use RTS/CTS on CSMA/CA and polling versions because:
 - more bandwidth consumed → but probability of collision is smaller
⇒ it is an improvement at the cost of limited overhead of transmission
 - if data packets are very small (as RTS ones) → it is worse
- positioning → can deal with different MAC layers (802.11, 802.3)

Application
TCP
IP
LLC
802.11 MAC
802.11 PHY

LLC	
802.11 MAC	802.3 MAC
802.11 PHY	802.3 MAC

Application
TCP
IP
LLC
802.3 MAC
802.3 PHY

4.3.5 Synchronization in 802.11

Characteristics:

- AP send beacons in infrastructure networks
- beacons are scheduled in beacon interval → transmission may be delayed by CSMA deferral
- timestamp contains timer value at transmit time
- Power Management approach:
 - allow idle stations to go to sleep → save mode stored in AP
 - AP buffers packets for sleeping stations → AP announces which station has packets buffered → message is sent with TIM⁶ interval
 - power saving station wake up periodically to listen to beacons
 - TSF⁷ assures AP and power saving stations are synchronized
 - there is also dTIM → less frequently → stations give priority to dTIM → used for broadcasting/multicasting
- Scanning:
 - used for
 - * finding/joining networks
 - * finding a new AP while roaming
 - * initialising a new ad hoc network
 - MAC layer uses common mechanism for all physical
 - it could be:
 - * active → it looks explicitly for AP
On each channel ⇒
send a probe → wait for probe response
send an association request → wait for association request response
 - * passive → only listen for beacons

4.3.6 Congestion Avoidance (DCF)

Characteristics:

- how it works actually:
 - after DIFS → randomly choose a backoff time interval
 - Countdown the backoff interval when medium is free
 - it goes stand-by if medium becomes busy in the range [0,CW]
 - When backoff time interval reaches 0 → transmit packet (or RTS)

⁶Traffic Indicator Map

⁷Timing Synchronization Function

- Congestion control → dynamically adjusting the CW
- Counting down backoff time intervals contributes to MAC overhead
- Binary Exponential Backoff → a node fails to receive CTS
⇒ it double up the CW (typically max size is 1024)
→ when node successfully completes transfer ⇒ it restores CW to CW_{min}
- So about the dimension of CW:
 - Large CW ⇒ large backoff time intervals ⇒ can result in larger overhead
 - Small CW ⇒ probabilistically to a larger number of collisions

4.3.7 MILD Algorithm MACAW

Characteristics:

- node fails to receive CTS → it multiplies CW by 1.5
⇒ less aggressive than 802.11 which multiplies by 2
- node successfully completes a transfer → it reduces CW by 1
⇒ more conservative than 802.11 where CW is restored to CW_{min}
- 802.11 reduces cw much faster than it increases it
- MACAW: cw reduction slower than the increase
⇒ Exponential Increase and Linear Decrease
- MACAW can avoid wild oscillations of CW when congestion is high

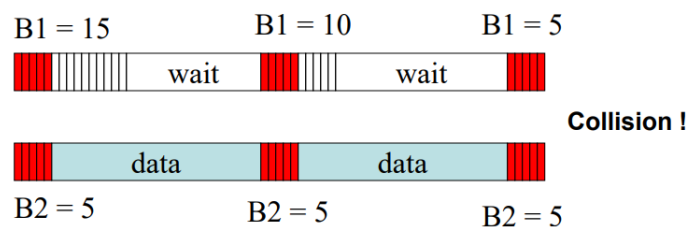
4.3.8 Fairness Issue

Characteristics:

- Definition:
 - nodes should receive equal bandwidth
 - bandwidth should be tailored to how much they want to transmit
⇒ otherwise waste of time/bandwidth
- unfairness → one node has backed off much more than some other node (\approx channel dominance)
→ A transmits many packets before B is transmitting its first
- how MACAW tries to solve:
 1. a node transmits a packet → it appends on packet its current CW value
 2. All nodes hear CW value → use it for their future transmission attempts
 3. The effect is to reset all competing nodes to the same level
- Weighted Fair Queuing → it is assigned a weight to each node
⇒ bandwidth used by each node → proportional to the weight assigned

- Distributed Fair Scheduling (DFS)

- it is fully distributed algorithm for achieving weighted fair queueing
- it works well on a LAN
- how it works:
 1. Chooses backoff intervals proportional to packet size/weight
 2. DFS attempts to follow the centralized Self-Clocked Fair Queueing



Weight of node 1 = 1 **B1 = 15** (DFS actually picks a random value with mean 15)

Weight of node 2 = 3

Assume equal
packet size

B2 = 5 (DFS picks a value with mean 5)

Figure 6: Distributed Fair Scheduling (DFS)

5 Network Layer

It is difficult to have a direct path to destination (in ad hoc networks)

Routing protocol → goal is having a good path from source to destination

⇒ good can be:

- the shortest
- the less expensive
- the fastest

5.1 Routing algorithm

Characteristics:

- Graph abstraction for algorithms:
 - Nodes → routers
 - Edges → physical links
- Classification:
 - information can be:
 - * Global → all router have complete topology
⇒ Ex: link state algorithm
 - * Decentralised → routers know topology only of their neighbours
→ routing table build when needed ⇒ exchange of information
⇒ Ex: Distance vector algorithm
 - algorithm can be:
 - * Static → topology fixed all the time → it changes slowly
 - * Dynamic → topology changes frequently → periodic update of nodes
- Example of link state algorithm ⇒ Dijkstra algorithm:
 - net topology → link costs known to all nodes
 - * accomplished via link state broadcasting
 - * all nodes have same info
 - it computes least cost paths from one node to all the others
⇒ it gives forwarding table for that node
 - how it works:

Notation:

 - * $c(x, y)$: link cost from node x to y; initially = $+\infty$
 - * $D(v)$: current value of cost of path from source to destination v
 - * $p(v)$: predecessor node along path from source to destination v
 - * N' : set of node whose least cost path is known

Algorithm:

```

1: Initialization:
2:  $N' = \{u\}$ 
3: for all nodes  $v$  do
4:   if  $v$  is adjacent to  $u$  then
5:      $D(v) = c(u, v)$ 
6:   else
7:      $D(v) = +\infty$ 
8:   end if
9: end for
10:
11: Iterations:
12: repeat
13:   find  $w \notin N' \mid D(w)$  is a minimum
14:   add  $w$  to  $N'$ 
15:   for all  $v$  adjacent to  $w$  &  $v \notin N'$  do
16:      $D(v) = \min(D(v), D(w) + c(w, v))$  //update  $D(v)$ 
17:   end for
18: until all nodes  $\in N'$ 

```

5.2 Infrastructure Network vs MANET

Differences:

<p>Infrastructure Network</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • AP/base stations define cells/areas • simple routing → one hop from AP to wireless node <p>Wired</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • symmetric link → bidirectional • limited redundancy → for reliability and load sharing • planned links → high QoS, fixed topology 	<p>MANET</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • no infrastructure → no static network • hard routing → some nodes are not close ⇒ someone must forward data <p>Wireless</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • asymmetric link → unidirectional • random redundancy → in connectivity between nodes • dynamic links → dynamic topology, interference
---	---

⇒ Traditional Routing Algorithms → doesn't work well for MANET

This is because MANETs:

- have dynamic topology → nodes leave and enter quickly
- have minor performance due:
 - energy consumption → incompatibility with periodic updates
 - limited bandwidth → even more to exchange routing info

- asymmetric links → info about link + quality of link
→ different costs depending on the direction
- are inefficient → slow convergence time
- are not robust enough
- are non-functional → large amount of data not dealing with asymmetric links
- could have path length (hop count) → which may not be the best metric
- need routing which rely on data link (not just only network layer updates)
→ this determines connectivity + quality of links

So for a good Unicast Routing Protocol these are all goals:

- minimal control/processing overhead
- multi-hop path routing
- self-starting
- energy constraints
- traffic patterns → inform nodes on what a node is going to do
- dynamic topology maintenance
- no loops
- no central authority

5.3 Routing Procols Classification

Routing protocols can be classified into 3 different categories:

- Proactive (table-driven):
 - routing information always up-to-date
 - routing overhead independent of route usage
 - used for not so much dynamic networks
- Reactive (Source-initiated):
 - routes maintained only for routes in use ⇒ less overhead
 - explicit route discovery mechanism
- Hybrid
 - combination of proactive and reactive

5.3.1 Proactive Routing Approach

Characteristics:

- based on link-state/distance-vector protocols
- each node knows to path to reach another node thanks to consistent tables
- there is periodic/event-driven routing updates
- routing updates ⇒ more overhead
- if ad-hoc network is really dynamic ⇒ most of updates are not used at all
- low latency → because route is known
- protocols differ on the method to propagate informations
→ every node use a unique ID

- high route convergence time
- Examples: DSDV, WRP ...

Here there are some proactive routing protocols.

5.3.1.1 Destination Sequenced Distance Vector (DSDV)

Characteristics:

- based on Bellman-Ford algorithm
- use sequence number to avoid loops → new nodes ⇒ higher sequence number
- optimizations → as incremental data exchange, delayed exchange of updates
- packets are transmitted according to routing table
- each node:
 - maintains a routing table with entry for each node in the network
→ <dest_addr; dest_seq_number; next_hop; hop_count; install_time>
 - maintains its own sequence number ⇒ so it:
 - * updates if neighbour informations are changed
 - * avoid loops
 - * distinguish new routers
- updates:
 - are periodic to keep consistency → done with the inclusion of
<dest_addr; dest_seq_num; hop_count> ⇒ lot of overhead
 - nodes send routing tables for important link changes → ex: link broken
 - if node receive routes from 2 different neighbours → it can be chosen:
 - * the one with higher dest_seq_num
 - * the one with lower hop count
 - lots of control traffic is created → so there are 2 types of routing update packets:
 - * Full dumps:
 - it carries all routing table information
 - transmitted relatively infrequently
 - * Incremental updates:
 - it carries only information changed since last full dump
 - it fits within one network protocol data unit (NPDU)
 - when it doesn't fit ⇒ full dump

5.3.1.2 Optimized Link State Routing (OLSR)

Characteristics:

- based on state-link algorithm
- good for large and dense networks
- all links with neighboring Mobile Hosts → declared and flooded in entire network
- it is done periodic control of messages sent
- use of traffic patterns
- it minimizes flooding of control traffic using only selected Mobile Hosts
 - ⇒ Multipoint Relays:
 - it minimizes the flooding of broadcast packets in the network
 - each Mobile Host select a set of neighboring Mobile Host to retransmit
 - ⇒ reduction of duplicate retransmissions in the same region
 - this set can change over time → indicated by Hello messages
 - typically are selected neighbour at 1 hop

5.3.1.3 Clusterhead Gateway Switch Routing (CGSR)

Characteristics:

- nodes organised in hierarchy:
 - Clusterhead → selected by election
 - Gateway → it connects clusterhead
 - how it works:
 1. Nodes send packet through clusterheads
 2. Clusterheads communicate among themselves using DSDV
 - two clusters are connected through a gateway node

5.3.2 Reactive Routing Approach

Characteristics:

- source builds routing on demand by flooding
 - nodes receive and broadcast again → route discovery cycle
- it maintains only active routes
- pro → less control overhead ⇒ better scaling
- cons → latency or long delay in finding route
RFC⁸ 3561 not suitable for real-time traffic

⁸Request For Comments

- route discovery by flooding → every node propagates the message
⇒ assumption of algorithms → sender need to know the existence of receiver
- route maintenance procedure is used to repair routes
- Example: AODV, DRS ...

5.3.2.1 Ad Hoc On-Demand Distance Vector Routing (AODV)

Characteristics:

- RFC 3561 → based on DSDV
- dest_seq_num avoids loops
- routing table only exchanges with nodes of a given route
- how it finds a route:
 1. source sends Route Request Packet (RREQ)
→ many routes can be found, but one implemented
 2. nodes floods it to neighbours
 3. Route Reply Packet (RREP) is sent back by destination
⇒ but nodes:
 - respond the first time they receive the request
 - reply only if they have contact/valid route with destination
 4. Route Error messages update routes
- if routes are not used ⇒ they expire and get discarded
 - it reduces obsolete routes ⇒ it doesn't require explicit route maintenance
 - it minimizes routes from source to destination
- it discovers routes as and when necessary
→ path maintained only in involved nodes (routing table)
- routes are maintained as long as necessary
- nodes have a unique dest_seq_num
⇒ it is increased for every change in neighbourhood topology
- it utilizes a routing table to store routing informations → there are 2 types:
 - for unicast routes → path from source to destination
 - for multicast routes → flooding
→ it is a problem if a node receives all at once ⇒ collision and congestion
- route table stores → <dest_add; next_hop_add; dest_seq_num; life_time> →
life_time → used as expiring time → updated each time route is used
- each node maintains list of precursor nodes for each destination to route to
⇒ help in route maintenance

- how route discovery works (\Rightarrow node wishes to send a packet):
 1. it checks if destination is in the routing table:
 - \rightarrow Yes \rightarrow it forwards the packet to the next hop;
 - \rightarrow No \rightarrow it initiates a route discovery process;
 2. source node creates a new Route Request (RREQ) packet
 - \rightarrow which contains:
 - ★ source_IP_add
 - ★ source_curr_seq_num
 - ★ dest_IP_add
 - ★ dest_seq_num
 - ★ broad_ID
 - \rightarrow broad_ID incremented each time a source node uses RREQ
 - \rightarrow broad_ID + dest_IP_add = unique ID for RREQ
 3. Broadcasting is done via flooding
 4. when intermediate node receives RREQ
 - \Rightarrow node sets up reverse route entry for source node in its routing table
 - \rightarrow Reverse Route Entry consists of:
 - ★ source_IP_add
 - ★ source_seq_num
 - ★ num_hops_to_source
 - ★ pred_IP_add
 - ★ life_time
 - \rightarrow nodes can send RREP using reverse route
 5. when RREQ reaches destination \Rightarrow to respond it should have:
 - \rightarrow unexpired entry for destination
 - \rightarrow dest_seq_num \geq seq_num_RREQ (for loop prevention)
 6. there are 2 scenarios depending on satisfaction of conditions in last point. If they are:
 - \rightarrow satisfied \Rightarrow node responds sending a RREP back to source using unicasting and reverse path
 - \rightarrow not satisfied \Rightarrow node increments hop count in RREQ and floods to neighbours

Observation

Also intermediate node can also RREP

- \rightarrow if it knows a more recent path \Rightarrow dest_seq_num newer
- \rightarrow not used so much \Rightarrow because: new RREQ \Rightarrow new dest_seq_num
- \Rightarrow intermediate dest_seq_num < new dest_seq_num \Rightarrow it can't send RREP

- Timeouts:

Routing table entry keeping a reverse path is deleted:

- after a timeout ⇒ it should be long enough to allow RREP to come back
- if it is not used for active_route_timeout interval
 - if no data is being sent ⇒ that entry will be deleted even if it is valid

- Link Failure Detection:

- neighboring nodes periodically exchange "Hello" messages
- absence of message ⇒ link failure
- MAC level ACKs missing ⇒ link failure

- Optimizations:

- RREQ are sent with a TTL⁹ with hop count ⇒ limit flooding propagation
- initially small TTL ⇒ then larger if RREP is not received by source
- Expanding Ring Search:
 - * it prevents flooding of network during route discovery
 - * it controls TTL of RREQ to search incrementally larger areas
 - * Advantages → less overhead when successful
 - * Disadvantages → longer delay if route isn't found immediately:
 - there could be many possible destinations
 - it would be better without optimization
 - maybe it doesn't find the optimal path

5.3.2.2 Dynamic Source Routing (DSR)

Characteristics:

- each data packet has full source route and provokes overhead
- RREQ has attached full source-route and is sent back in RREP
- route table overhead is only at source node
- route discovery similar to AODV:
 1. sender initiate request
 2. intermediate nodes add their address onto request
 3. when request reaches destination ⇒ it includes the full path
- it is better in terms of mobility

⁹Time To Leave

5.3.2.3 Associativity-Based Routing (ABR)

Characteristics:

- it defines degree of association stability as metric instead of number of hops
- nodes with less mobility/better links → they have higher stability value
- it is DSR-like protocol for routing

5.3.2.4 Signal Stability Routing (SSR)

Characteristics:

- it defines signal strength of links as metric
- RREQ is forwarded only if packet is received over a link with good signal
- it is DSR-like protocol for routing

5.3.2.5 Other metrics definition

- Expected Transmission Time (ETT) → time to reach a node ⇒ easy to compute
→ more useful than signal strength
- Weighted Cumulative Expected Transmission Time (WCETT)
→ better for multi-radio/asymmetric links

5.3.2.6 Flooding

Characteristics:

- used for Control Packet Delivering
- how it works:
 1. sender sends a broadcast packet to all its neighbours → to find a route
 2. neighbours forward it
→ if seq_num no already seen ⇒ it avoids packet resending
 3. destination doesn't forward it
→ if destination receives packet ⇒ sender can reach the destination
- Pro:
 - simple and more efficient when there is:
 - * high dynamic topology
 - * small data packet are sent infrequently
 - higher reliability of data delivery → multiple paths to reach destination
- Cons:
 - potential high overhead → nodes can receive packets multiple times
 - lower reliability of data delivery → broadcasting hard to implement without overhead increasing
 - potential packet loss → more nodes send same packet to same destination simultaneously

5.3.3 DSDV vs AODV

Differences:

DSDV	AODV
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • every change is broadcasted • new neighbours link \Rightarrow news is broadcasted • new broken link \Rightarrow news is broadcasted • more control overhead (high) • local movements \Rightarrow global effects 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • no broadcasting necessary • only affected nodes are informed • new broken link \Rightarrow no global broadcasting • less control overhead (low) • local movements \Rightarrow local effects

5.3.4 DSR vs AODV

Differences:

DSDV	AODV
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • source route in packet headers \Rightarrow especially for small packets • routing table maintained only on source • lifetime for routes discovery 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • only predecessor on each packet • routing tables maintained also on nodes • no lifetime for routes discovery

5.3.5 Other Routing Protocols

There are other protocols:

- Hybrid:
 - \rightarrow Zone Routing Protocol (ZRP)
- Geographic Routing Protocols:
 - \rightarrow Location Aided Routing (LAR)
 - \rightarrow Distance Routing Effect Algorithm for Mobility (DREAM)
 - \rightarrow Greedy Perimeter Stateless Routing (GPSR)

5.3.5.1 Greedy Perimeter Stateless Routing (GPSR)

Characteristics:

- nodes know the destination/neighbours location
- each node forwards a packet to its neighbor closest to the destination
 - \rightarrow using some greedy, local optima algorithms
- There is a problem \rightarrow the risk of local minima (\Rightarrow two nodes keep exchanging the same packet)

- if routing holes are found \Rightarrow it uses perimeter routing (right hand rule)
→ to find local minimum
- Right Hand Rule:
 - use of first 3 fingers
 - it works only in 2D topology
 - how it works:
 1. there is an imaginary line from source to destination
 2. the packet is sent to the first node counterclockwise

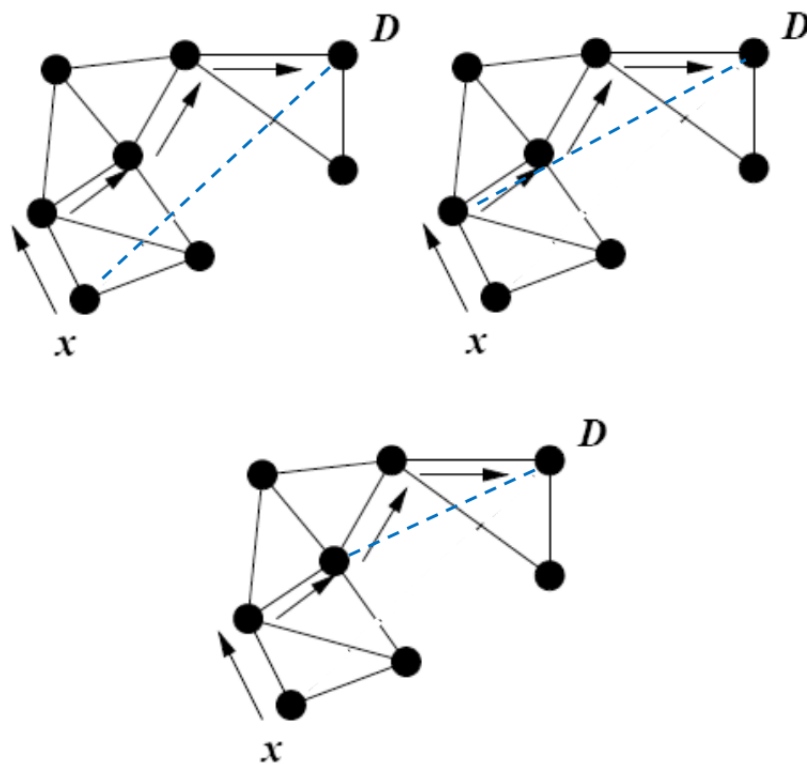


Figure 7: Example: Right Hand Rule

6 Transport Layer

6.1 Overview

- it is after the network layer → receiver transport layer communicates with the analogue sender transport layer
- it sends data of application layer → as fast as it decides
→ in order not to create congestions
- it is the last layer unpacked from the layers' stack
→ used to know how to send packets

There are 3 main types of protocols for transport layer:

- UDP:
 - it is light, fast, unreliable → used for streaming and online games
 - it just forwards what it is received from application layer
⇒ this implies:
 - * no ACK
 - * no congestion control
 - * no care about order in receiver
- TCP:
 - it is reliable, end-to-end, two-way protocol → used for sending files
 - it assures that receiver gets packets correctly and ordered → waiting for ACK
 - there is control over flow and congestion → on receiver and on internet
⇒ this implies:
 - * it cares about speed → not overwhelming receiver
 - * it prevents bottleneck → it prevents packet-loss
 - * if packets aren't received correctly ⇒ they won't go up in the layers' stack of receiver
 - it is closed to IP → TCP/IP
 - there are many protocols → new ones must be backwards-compatible
- QUIC:
 - it is faster and simpler than TCP ⇒ no 3-way handshake, ...
 - transport ⇒ UDP + new layer → to emulate only TCP good things

Some definitions:

- Capacity → total data transfer available
- Bandwidth → total data transfer available right now
- Throughput → what is sent out

- Goodput → what is received in

6.2 TCP Protocol

Characteristics:

- it is byte-stream connection-oriented, reliable, full-duplex
- byte-stream:
 - app writes bytes
 - TCP sends segments $\Rightarrow \approx 1.5\text{KB}$
 - app reads bytes
- it has flow and congestion control
- it is tied to the Internet Protocol (IP)

6.2.1 TCP Reliability

Characteristics:

- it is used checksum → to detect bit level errors
- it is used sequence numbers → to detect sequencing errors \Rightarrow so:
 - duplicates packets are discarded
 - packets can be reordered
 - lost packets can be retransmitted
- how to detect lost packets:
 - Timeout-based Recovery:
 - * it requires sender to maintain data until it is ACKed
 - * based on RTT (Round Trip Time) → waiting before retransmitting
 - * it requires RTO (Retransmission TimeOut) calculation
 - accurate RTT estimators:
 - low RTO → unneeded retransmissions
 - high RTO → poor throughput
 - 3 Dupacks:
 - * Ack → packet received correctly, in order until packet x
 - * Dupack → same ack is received 2 times \Rightarrow it happens:
 - packet loss
 - packet reordering
 - AWND update

- * Problem → TCP timeouts lead to inactivity periods
- * Proposal → use 3 duplicate ACKs to trigger retransmission
- Speed:
 - There are various types of increasing speed → packets for RTT:
 - linear (1-1, 2-2, 3-3, 4-4, ...) → increase sliding windows (active packets)
 - exponential (1-1, 2-2, 4-4, 8-8, ...) → slide on every packet
 - Ssthresh → it doesn't start from first every retransmission:
 - * additive
 - * multiplicative
- Flow Control:
 - it blocks the sender from overwhelming the receiver
 - Receiving side → AWND in returning ACKs is set by receiver
⇒ how much space is left in its buffer
 - Sending side → Sending Window represents the actual bytes sent out
 $SW = \min(AW, CW)$ → min between advertised and congestion window
- Congestion Control:
 - Delay-Bandwidth Product:
 - * delay → time passed from sender to receiver → known as ping
 - * bandwidth → how much is sent simultaneously on the channel
 - * RTT is twice the Delay
 - * bandwidth is distributed like:
 - half the traffic is travelling
 - half reached the receiver and is sending ACKs back
 - it blocks the sender from overwhelming the network
 - Idea:
 - * each source determines network capacity for itself
 - * it is used implicit feedback
- feedback algorithms are used for congestion control → AIMD
 - Context:
 - * in the past people didn't think about wireless
 - * any loss in wired links ⇒ caused by congestion (no error loss)
→ creation of algorithm to regulate this
 - AIMD (Additive Increase Multiplicative Decrease):
 - * adjust to changes in the available capacity

- * CWND (Congestion Window):
 - increase when congestion goes down
 - decrease when congestion goes up
- * Congestion detection → assumption that lost packet ⇒ congestion:
 - timeout → for serious problems
 - 3 dupacks → for minor problems
- * how it works basically:
 - if timeout:
 - occurs ⇒ increment CWND by one packet per RTT
→ linear increment
 - doesn't occur ⇒ divide CWND by 2
→ multiplicative decrement
 - ⇒ transmission goes up and down
- * Slow Start Threshold:
 - it is used:
 - ★ when first starting a connection
 - ★ when connection goes dead waiting for timeout
 - threshold is fixed → very large at the beginning
 - how it works:
 1. beginning with CWND = 1 packet
 2. before threshold → exponential increase ⇒ 2x CWND
 3. after threshold → linear increase
 4. if congestion level is reached ⇒ new threshold becomes $\frac{1}{2}$
and if it is indicated by:
 - ★ 3 dupacks ⇒ CWND = new threshold
⇒ linear increase
 - ★ timeout ⇒ CWND = 1 ⇒ use of slow start
⇒ exponential increase

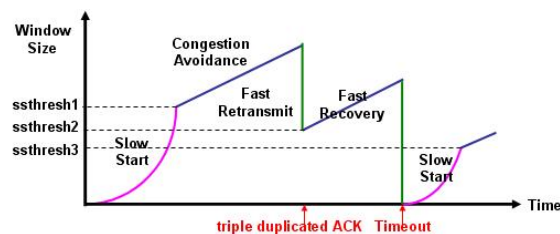


Figure 8: AIMD and SStThreshold

6.3 Legacy TCP Versions

Here there are a description of some TCP versions.

6.3.1 TCP Tahoe

Characteristics:

- it has all TCP features previously described
- congestion control with AIMD + slow start + timeouts only for losses detection

6.3.2 TCP Reno

Characteristics:

- it has both timeouts and 3 dupacks
- 3 dupacks is used to quickly recover from light congestion (1 packet loss)
→ without having a timeout

6.3.3 TCP New Reno

Characteristics:

- it is like TCP Reno
- it introduces partial ACKs to recover more packets → without using timeouts
→ one recovery every RTT

6.3.4 TCP SACK

Characteristics:

- it is the acronym for Selective ACK
- returning acks declares which packets were received
- all non received packets (no ACK) can be retransmitted
→ recover from multiple losses in just one RTT

6.3.5 TCP Vegas

Characteristics:

- it is based on the assumption on throughput → $\text{actual} \leq \text{expected}$
where:
 - $\text{actual} = \text{acks} / \text{round trip time}$
 - $\text{expected} = \text{window size} / \text{round trip time}$
- reaction happens per congestion episode not per loss
- it includes some modification from basic TCP:
 - modified Congestion Avoidance
 - aggressive Retransmission

- aggressive Window Adaptation
- modified Slow-Start
- Modified Congestion Avoidance:
 - throughput → actual \leq expected
 - expected throughput → it is transmission rate with no other traffic/queue
 - Monitor transmission rate (throughput, goodput):
 - * Given static parameters α, β as values representing how many packets TCP Vegas can have in queues ($\alpha = 3, \beta = 1$)
 - if $\alpha < \beta \Rightarrow$ expected $- \beta < \text{expected} - \alpha < \text{expected}$
 - there are different scenarios:
 - if expected $- \alpha < \text{actual} < \text{expected}$
 - \Rightarrow decrease queues \rightarrow increase rate
 - \Rightarrow low congestion \rightarrow closer to expected
 - if expected $- \beta < \text{actual} < \text{expected} - \alpha$
 - \Rightarrow don't do anything
 - \Rightarrow maybe congestion
 - if actual $< \text{expected} - \beta$
 - \Rightarrow increase queues \rightarrow decrease rate before packet drop
 - \Rightarrow high congestion \rightarrow prevent packet loss
 - CWND is updated every RTT \rightarrow if:
 - * expected $- \text{actual} < \alpha$
 - $\Rightarrow \text{CWND} = \frac{\text{CWND} + 1}{\text{CWND}}$
 - * expected $- \text{actual} > \beta$
 - $\Rightarrow \text{CWND} = \frac{\text{CWND} - 1}{\text{CWND}}$
 - * $\alpha < \text{expected} - \text{actual} < \beta$
 - $\Rightarrow \text{CWND} = \text{CWND}$

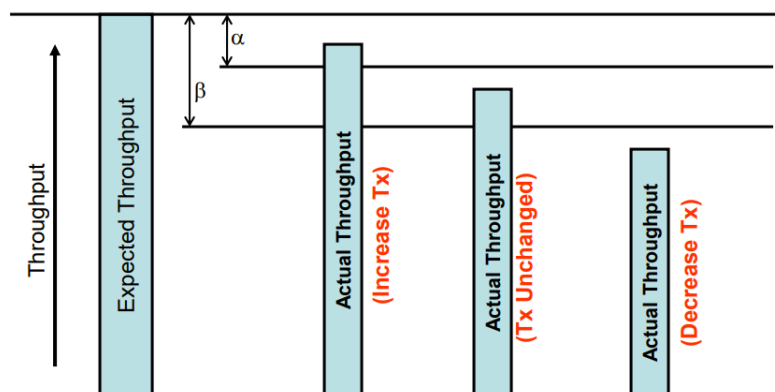


Figure 9: Modified Congestion Avoidance in TCP Vegas

- Aggressive Retransmission → with 3 dupacks:
 - 1st and 2nd packets → it checks timeout
 - if timeout expires ⇒ immediately retransmission
- Aggressive CWND update → 3 different types of update:
 - recovery → CWND becomes $\frac{3}{4}$ when it enters into recovery
 - instead of $\frac{1}{2}$
 - multiple loss → CWND is reduced by 1 size
 - initial setting → CWND is set on dimension 2 → instead of 1
- Modified Slow Start:
 - TCP keeps the congestion window fixed in every other RTT
 - it measures the throughput
 - Given:
 - * static parameter γ as value $\frac{1\text{packet}}{RTT}$
 - * actual and expected throughput defined as backwards (§6.3.5)
 - on every next RTT, it does the followings:
 - * if $\text{expected} - \text{actual} < \gamma$ → continue Slow Start:
 - $\text{CWND} = 2 \cdot \text{CWND}$ for each RTT
 - $\text{CWND} = \text{CWND} + 1$ for each ACK
 - ⇒ Exponential Increase
 - * if $\text{expected} - \text{actual} > \gamma$ → switch to Congestion Avoidance:
 - Set $\text{SSThreshold} = \text{CWND}$
 - follow Congestion Avoidance's rules written before

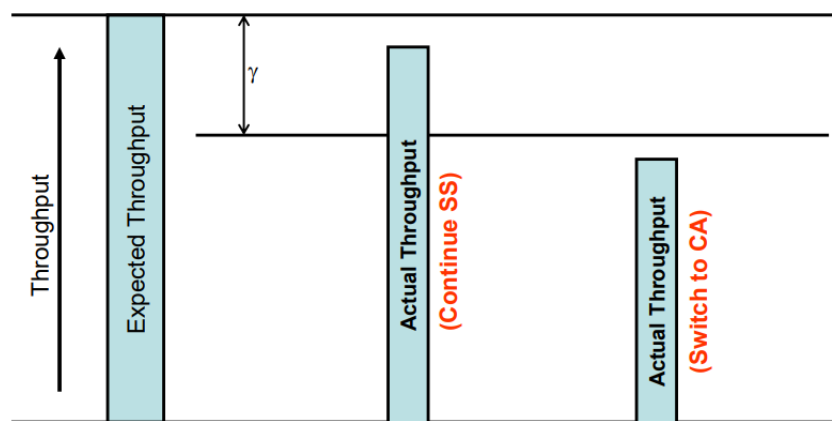


Figure 10: Modified Slow Start in TCP Vegas

- Retrocompatibility:

- it is sensible to delay variations
- it can't coexists with other versions
- Example:

When a TCP Vegas flow shares the same bottleneck with a TCP New Reno

→ as soon as the pipe is full and packets get buffered

⇒ TCP Vegas reduces its data rate

⇒ more space to TCP New Reno

→ it continues its growth till congestion

→ for the example this makes vegas not used → but it inspires other protocols

6.4 Wireless TCP

Characteristics:

- Problems:
 - there are error losses → they are assumed as congestion ⇒ Shrunked CWND ⇒ drop data rate
 - difficult to distinguish congestion from error losses
 - there are burst losses ⇒ multiple CWND shrinking ⇒ drop data rate
 - there is latency → it can be:
 - * variable
 - * hard to estimate → $\frac{RTT}{RTO}$
 - * high → protocol no more fair
 - there can be disconnections/handoff/fading → for weaker signal
 - bandwidth can be variable ⇒ wastage and loss bursts
- Multi-Hop Wireless Paths:
 - there is an exponential decrease of throughput/ increased delay
 - from 1 to 3 hops
 - packets/transmissions are in competition
 - contention also between datas and ACKs → if channel is not free ⇒ waiting
 - lareger number of hops ⇒ throughput stabilizes → effective pipelining
- Throughput decrease:
 - generally true when increasing speed
 - why → because of link breakage and repair latency:
 1. sender doesn't know that the link is broken
 - ⇒ it may continue transmitting (packet loss)
 2. sender doesn't know when it is all available again
 - it will retransmit when timeout occurs
 - how to improve it:
 - * network feedback → if AWND of receiver has size 0, network can notify sender ⇒ sender stops immediately
 - * TCP failure → sender is notified with a message about it
 - * TCP callback → let sender knows when link is broken/repared
 - * dynamic TCP timeout → alleviate TCP timeouts/backoffs

6.4.1 Wireless TCP Protocols

There are different types of protocols for transport layers in wireless TCP:

- Connection split:
 - local retransmission
 - quick action on wireless link
 - TCP specific for wireless link
 - Examples:

* I-TCP	* M-TCP
* PROXY	* SNOOP
- Pure End-to-End:
 - new protocol → better than old version, retrocompatibility ...
 - sender is aware of wireless link
 - Examples:

* Delayed Dupacks	* TCP-Aware
* Freeze-TCP	* TCP Probing
* WTCP	* TCP Westwood
* TCP Hybla	* TCP CUBIC
* TCP High Speed	* TCP Compound
* TCP Fast	* ...

Here there are a description of some of them.

6.4.1.1 SNOOP Protocol

Characteristics:

- it is designed to address high BER
- Base Station implements a Snoop Agent
 - it monitors all packets of sender and receiver (also ACKs)
 - it caches packets not acked yet into base station
 - it intercepts dupacks:
 - * $\frac{1}{2}$ → immediate retransmission (sender not notified)
 - * 3 → let sender knows about it (CWND shrinkage)
- Path: sender ↔ snoop agent ↔ receiver
- it needs low latency between sender and snoop agent
 - ⇒ otherwise traditional TCP is better
- Pro:
 - ✓ End-to-End preservation → no ACK created by snoop agent
 - ✓ local retransmission
 - ✓ high BER address

- Cons:
 - ✗ requirement of little latency on the wireless link
 - ✗ same performances on long disconnections
 - ✗ immediately after a handoff \Rightarrow Slow Start \rightarrow no packets in new cache

6.4.1.2 Satellites

There are:

- GEO \rightarrow have backbone configuration \rightarrow so there is \Rightarrow bridge between terrestrial antenna
- LEO \rightarrow have direct to home configuration \rightarrow so it works as \Rightarrow (terrestrial antenna \rightarrow satellite \rightarrow home)

All of them have:

- high RTT \rightarrow it can be $\approx 600\text{ms}$ for GEO
- important PER¹⁰ \rightarrow due to radio channels \rightarrow interferences, wheather ...

6.4.1.3 Slow Start and Congestion Avoidance Models

Characteristics:

- also referred as Van Jacobson algorithm
- In Slow Start phase:
 - \rightarrow CWND = CWND + 1 for every new ACK received
 - \rightarrow CWND = 2 · CWND for every RTT
- In Congestion Avoidance phase:
 - \rightarrow CWND = CWND + $\frac{1}{\text{CWND}}$ for every new ACK received
 - \rightarrow CWND = 2 · CWND for every RTT
- RTT changes dynamically

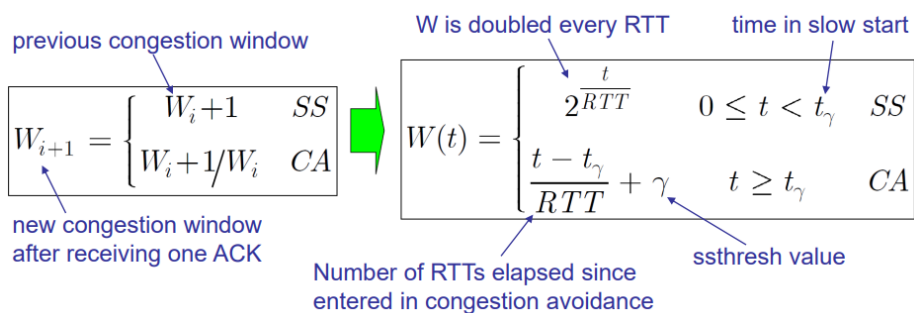


Figure 11: Slow Start & Congestion Avoidance Models

¹⁰Packet Error Rate

6.4.1.4 RTT Unfairness


It is one of the problems that protocols have to solve:

- $B(t) = \frac{W(t)}{RTT} \Rightarrow$ where $B(t)$ = bandwidth and $W(t)$ = window growth rate
- longer RTT \Rightarrow slower phase growth rate
- smaller RTT \Rightarrow bigger bandwidth

6.4.1.5 TCP Hybla

Characteristics:

- it equalizes transmission rate against RTT \Rightarrow fair RTT
- a longer RTT \Rightarrow compensate by sending twice on every ACK (\neq every RTT)
- there is the introduction of parameter $\rho = \frac{RTT}{RTT_0}$ where:
 - \rightarrow RTT is actual Round Trip Time
 - \rightarrow RTT_0 is reference Round Trip Time (for example $RTT_0 = 25\text{ms}$)

$$W^H(t) = \begin{cases} \rho 2^{\rho \frac{t}{RTT}} & 0 \leq t < t_{\gamma,0} \quad \text{SS} \\ \rho \left[\rho \frac{t - t_{\gamma,0}}{RTT} + \gamma \right] & t \geq t_{\gamma,0} \quad \text{CA} \end{cases}$$


$$B^H(t) = \frac{W^H(t)}{RTT} = \begin{cases} \frac{2^{\rho \frac{t}{RTT}}}{RTT_0} & 0 \leq t < t_{\gamma,0} \quad \text{SS} \\ \frac{1}{RTT_0} \left[\rho \frac{t - t_{\gamma,0}}{RTT} + \gamma \right] & t \geq t_{\gamma,0} \quad \text{CA} \end{cases}$$

Figure 12: Slow Start & Congestion Avoidance for TCP Hybla

- Pros:
 - \rightarrow End-to-End solution
 - \rightarrow it changes only on sender side \Rightarrow easily deployable
 - \rightarrow no damage for the entire system
 - \rightarrow it has RTT fairness
- Cons:
 - \rightarrow it is so aggressive \Rightarrow it can lead to multiple losses
 - \rightarrow measured RTT is sensitive to buffer size \rightarrow limited and not sustainable anymore at a certain point
 - \rightarrow no handling on BER/disconnections (as most of TCPs)
 - \rightarrow doubts about friendliness and fairness

What is friendliness:

- how different flows of TCPs cooperate
 - \rightarrow total amount of bandwidth increased

→ average amount of bandwidth

- new version shouldn't steal bandwidth of older versions
- it can take all new available bandwidth

6.4.1.6 TCP Westwood & TCP Westwood Plus

Characteristics:

- it is pure End-to-End
- flow control is based on estimation of eligible bandwidth (BWE)
 - monitoring of acks' arrival rate at sender side
 - use of BWE to set CWND and SStresh after a loss
 - * 3 Dupacks:
 - $SStresh = BWE \cdot RTT_{min}$ (\neq TCP New Reno $\rightarrow SStresh = \frac{CWND}{2}$)
 - if $CWND > SStresh \Rightarrow CWND = SStresh$
 - * Timeout expiration:
 - $SStresh = BWE \cdot RTT_{min}$ (\neq TCP New Reno $\rightarrow SStresh = \frac{CWND}{2}$)
 - $CWND = 1$
 - sending more than what you receive won't affect BWE

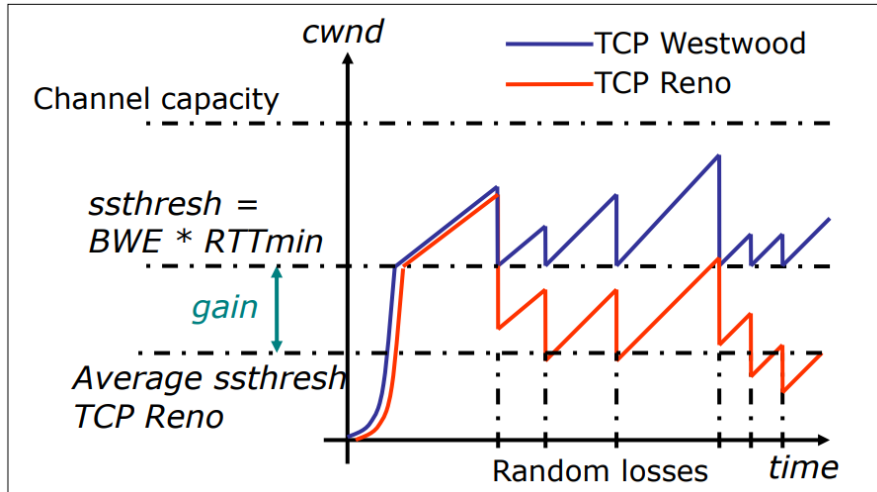


Figure 13: TCP Westwood vs TCP Reno

- Rate Estimation:
 - useful to enhance congestion control
 - computed by sampling/exponential filtering at sender
 - based on ACKs arrival times and amount of bandwidth delivered
 - ⇒ data ACKed are aggregated in interval $T = RTT$
 - used by sender to set CWND and SSThresh
- Pros:
 - BWE allows to reach higher throughput
 - it changes only on sender side
- Cons:
 - wrong BWE over asymmetric links
 - No handling of high BER/disconnections
 - doubts about friendliness and fairness

6.4.1.7 TCP Adaptive Selection

Characteristics:

- possibility to have different TCP variants concurrently → matching different characteristics of connections
- it can be applied in different ways depending on:
 - agent that performs TCP selection
 - use of cross-layer approach ⇒ not linked by the standard
 - changing TCP version on on-going connection ⇒ dynamic selection
- there are different modules that can be replaced in TCP-module-container
 - criteria:
 - TCP parameters → RTT, BWE ...
 - cross-layer informations
 - reliable channel estimation

6.4.1.8 TCP Cubic

Characteristics:

- it is used by default in linux kernels
- optimized congestion control algorithm for high speed networks with high latency
- window → cubic function of time since last congestion event
- Algorithm:
 1. inflection point set CWND prior last congestion event

2. quickly initial growth
 3. slow down + stay stable around CWND value when congestion happens
 4. no loss happens → quickly growth again
- Differences with standard TCPs
 - TCP Cubic doesn't rely on receipt of ACKs to increase CWND
 - TCP Cubic's CWND depends only on the last congestion event
 - ⇒ less RTT-unfairness → window growth independent from RTT

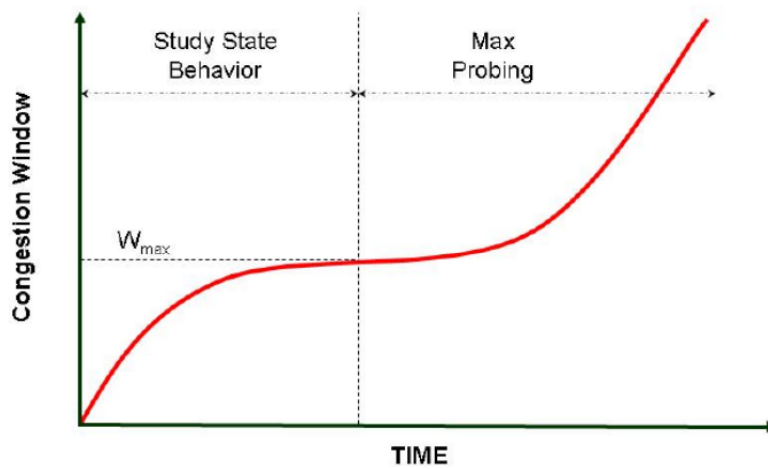


Figure 14: TCP Cubic: CWND growth

7 Vehicular Ad Hoc Networks (VANET)

7.1 IEEE 802.11p

- it provides connectivity to vehicles
 - beyond 4G → not so crucial
 - useful for safety/public apps
- parts taken from a and b versions
- it use a reserved sequency (5.9GHz)
 - 1000 m of transmission range
 - 26 Mbps → but it can be lower → sufficient for exchanging messages, ...
 - transmission up to 6 Mbps at 300m → nodes travelling at 200 km/h speed
- Problem:
 - connection with AP and vehicles
 - transmission range changes
 - transmission needs to be adapted
 - these can lead to sync problems among vehicles

7.2 Vehicular Networks: System Model

Introducing the context

- Safe driving:
 - alert messages → delivered quickly to all cars following the one that is alerting (Abnormal Vehicles)
 - need to generate a chain reaction
 - there are some problems:
 - * multiple transmission ⇒ when every node is broadcasting
 - * possible congestion ⇒ alert unuseful → crashes still can happen

For these reason, a system model with these characteristics is introduced:

- high mobility of nodes
- variable transmission range
- a car cannot be sure to be the farthest car receiving that broadcast message
- some approaches:
 - MCDS (Minimum Connected Dominant Set):
 - * minimum cardinality set of connected nodes ⇒ each other node in the network is connected to a node of the MCDS set
 - * MCDS nodes have to broadcast the message

- * it is optimal but non feasible solution → it needs creation of overlay structure ⇒ to cover the network
 - * it is dangerous because of deterministic failure → what if a node in MCDS doesn't broadcast? → redundancy needed redundancy needed
 - * implementation with n nodes ⇒ $O(n \cdot \log(n))$ control messages
- RD (Redundancy Avoidance):
- * based on backoff mechanism → if there is a collision due congestion ⇒ it reduces frequency
 - * if following vehicle has already broadcast ⇒ actual nodes don't
 - * it isn't considered the number of hops in these schemas
- JS (Jamming Signal):
- * it is Urban Multi-hop Broadcasting Protocol
 - * it is used to determine next forwarder
 - * vehicles which receive alert → it emits JS for an amount of time ⇒ proportional to the distance from sender
 - * The last vehicle stopping the JS knows it is the last one → it forwards the alert message
 - * JS phase delays the transmission of the message ⇒ not suitable for alert messages
- CW (Contention Window):
- * vehicles set CW inversely proportional to distance from sender
 - * this implies:
 - no control traffic
 - something unrealistic ⇒ transmission rate not known → it needs to be determined in order to find the last one

7.3 Fast Broadcasting

Characteristics:

- fast broadcast is a solution designed to have alert messages covering the area of interest in as less time as possible (as few hops as possible)
- there are two types:
 - probabilistic:
 - * Pro → reliable
 - * Cons → End-to-End delay
 - deterministic:
 - * Pro → End-to-End delay

- * Cons → reliable

- how it works:

→ there are two phases:

- * estimation phase → vehicles exchange hello messages to collect info
→ in order to estimate their own transmission range.
- * broadcasting phase → transmission range estimation used to forward asap alert message to destination

→ here there is a detailed description of the two phases

1. estimation phase:

- * continuously run
- * time is splitted into rounds
- * one hello messages randomly sent every time round
- * hello contains
 - sender's position
 - maximum frontward distance from which another vehicle has been heard transmitting an hello message
- * About messages:
 - two types:
 - ★ hello → information to estimate transmission range
 - ★ alert → sender's transmission range
 - variables:
 - ★ CMBR (Current Maximum Backward Range)
→ computed by hearing hello from the back ⇒ someone could hear
 - ★ CMFR (Current Maximum Frontward Range)
→ computed by hearing hello from the front ⇒ I could hear

2. broadcast phase:

- * alert is generated by an Abnormal Vehicle
- * alert is sent in broadcast to warn following vehicles
- * alert includes estimated transmission range for that hop
- * node receiving alert waits an amount of time
→ proportional to the node's position with respect to the estimated maximum transmission range
(→ near ⇒ more time)
- * CW calculated as follow with R = range and D = distance:

$$CW = \lfloor \left(\frac{R_{max} - D}{R_{max}} \cdot (CW_{max} - CW_{min}) \right) + CW_{min} \rfloor$$

- if another car (farther from source) already forwarded
⇒ the other doesn't forward
 - wrong estimation ⇒ possibly huge delay
 - dynamic transmission rate ⇒ CW can be lower for estimation
- ROFF (RObust Fast Forwarding):
 - it is a multi-hop deterministic delay based
 - estimation → every vehicle sends hello every round
→ neighbourhood discovery

8 Indoor Localization

Localization → can provide a lot of useful services (best route, traffic jam, ...)

It can be:

- Outdoor → easy and eventually highly precise (≈ 1 m).
For example:
 - GPS → satellites
 - A-GPS → assisted, mobile cellular antennas helps to give a rough pos
- Indoor → not easy (GPS signal not working)
⇒ lots of applications can be built → with wide use of smartphones

Some notation:

- Environment → assumed to have cartesian coordinates
- Mobile Station (MS) → device to be localized
- Base Station (BS) → infrastructure component such as Access Point ...

Here there are some characteristics which describe better indoor localization

8.1 Metrics

Some metrics are:

- Accuracy → average error between estimated and actual measure
⇒ how much difference there is between measures
- Precision → error distribution of actual position vs the estimated one
⇒ how measures are spread
- Robustness → ability in maintaining accurate estimation
→ even when changing the context/environment
- Scalability → system behavior when changing number/density devices
- Cost → includes hardware, initial set up, maintenance ...

8.2 Approaches

- Triangulation:
 - it requires knowledge about arrival angles of signal emitted by MS ⇒ received by BS
 - characteristics:
 - * at least 2 angles are needed
 - * it requires complex hardware on BS
 - * indoor signal may be disturbed (walls ...)
 - * not really usable for strong multipath effects
- Trilateration:

- it requires knowledge of the distance between MS and BS
- 2D \Rightarrow 3BS, 3D \Rightarrow 4 BS

Distance Estimation is done \rightarrow propagation time of radio signal

\Rightarrow electromagnetic waves with speed of light $\Rightarrow d = c \cdot t_{prop}$

- Time Of Arrival (TOA):
 - MS and BS need synchronization \Rightarrow it is hard
 - how it works:
 - * BS emits signal to MS \rightarrow including time end trasmission (t_1)
 - * MS completes reception of signal at time (t_2)
 - * MS computes propagation time $\rightarrow t_{prop} = t_2 - t_1$
- RTT (Round Trip Time):
 - it doesn't require data exchange or clock synchronization
 - it measures time for path MS \rightarrow BS \rightarrow MS
 - so time propagation is $t_{prop} = \frac{t_{remote} - t_{local}}{2}$
 - where:
 - * $t_{local} \rightarrow$ depends on reaction time of hardware
 - * $t_{remote} \rightarrow$ from data to ACK

Measurement Error:

- it depends on granularity of timer useed to measure
- Example:

802.11 MAC layer \rightarrow hardware allows timestamp packet $1\mu s$ precision
 \Rightarrow it is high for indoor buildings \rightarrow granularity of 300 m at speed light
 \rightarrow 1 ns could be OK
- precision is not sufficient so there are 2 approaches:
 - Hardware:
 - * it uses timestamp provided by modified hardware
 - * it is used specific hardware to trigger MAC layer counter
 \rightarrow based on WLAN board's clock
 - * ≈ 7 m precision
 - * it can be competitionbined with software approaches
 - * measurements done in lowest possible layer (MAC layer)
 \Rightarrow to avoid software delays of other layers
 - * RTT is measured with data ACK (from reception of data to SIFS)

→ Software:

- * it uses multiple measurements to obtain estimation close to actual value
- * timestamp is provided by regular WLAN boards
 - only for received packets
- * need to introduce monitoring station:
 - to monitor communications between MS/BS
 - it is better if it is closer to MS
 - it collects a lot of timestamp both for send/received packets
 - then estimates the distance
- * Goodtry:
 - developed for research purposes
 - it measures RTS - CTS - DATA - ACK sequences
 - measuring twice the RTT for each transmission
 - positioning is done through the lowest weight squared error
 - management of multiple measurements

8.3 Other Approaches

Different approaches are:

- TDOA (Time Difference Of Arrival)
 - it measures arrival time of signal emitted by MS towards multiple BS
 - it exploits differences among the arrival times to extract the MS position
 - ⇒ not suitable for self-positioning
 - characteristics:
 - * sync needed for BSs → 2D ⇒ 3BS, 3D ⇒ 4BS
 - * server needed to manage both sync and measurements collection
- Scene Analysis:
 - method composed by 2 phases:
 1. fingerprint collection → start to collect fingerprints of known location of different BSs ⇒ fingerprint = signal strength and other parameters
 2. actual evaluation → it compares actual values with the stored ones
 - with AI algorithms (SVM, k-NN ...) or statistical methods
 - it is not robust → because new room ⇒ new fingerprint to be collected
 - ⇒ big initial effort and offline training
 - 2D ⇒ 3BS, 3D ⇒ 4BS

→ RSS (Received Signal Strength) depends on:

- * Multipath → measured strength is higher than ideal
⇒ because of reflected signals
- * Shadowing → in case of NLOS (non-line-of-sight) ⇒ signal can't be easily computed ⇒ signal absorbed
- * Moving Objects → cause high oscillations of RSS
→ need multiple measurements

→ k-NN (k-Nearest Neighbour) algorithm:

- * Given this notation first:
 - m = number of BS's
 - n = number of fingerprints in the training set
 - S_i = fingerprint corresponding to point (x_i, y_i, z_i) of training set
 - s = Measurement of RSS performed by MS in online phase
- * it computes distance s from every fingerprint in the training set
- * k points are chosen in the training set with smallest d_i^2 values
- * MS coordinates → estimated as either:
 - mean of coordinates of k locations
 - weighted mean of distances

- RFID (Radio Frequency Identification) → system composed of:

→ RFID reader:

- * it emits a signal to query tags which are in proximity
- * it receives the ID of each tag as a response
- * it is the most expensive

→ RFID tag:

- * it answers reader's queries with its ID → the way it is done can be:
 - passive → cheaper, short range, long life battery
 - active → expensive, long range, short life battery

- Active RFID example (Landmark):

→ it is a positioning system that exploits active RFID

→ it uses scene analysis based on RSSI

→ fingerprinter is considered as an array of RSSI
⇒ emitted by tag and received by MS

→ it is composed of:

- * RFID readers → used as BS, communicate with localization servers
- * Reference tag → tag with known coordinates

- * Tracking tag → tag to be localized (MS)
- it is robust because:
 - * reference tag doesn't require offline phase
 - * reference tag position can be dynamically measured
- for localization k-NN is used → so:
 - * it compares signal of tracking/reference tag
 - * system can be affected by the hardware
 - ⇒ not all RFID readers provide sufficiently fine granularity of RSS
 - active RFID tags are powered by a battery → system requires that transmission power of all tags has to be similar
 - ⇒ need to use RFID tags of the same type and with the same level of battery to make a comparison
- Passive RFID:
 - it is ok and less expensive when there is:
 - * wide space
 - * need to localize few nodes
 - Pro:
 - * less expensive
 - * ok for automated environments → predictable and low mobility
 - Cons:
 - * training phase is expensive
 - need of more snapshots (⇒ ≠ measures of same location)
 - * not too robust to environment changes

8.4 Augmented Reality (AR)

Characteristics:

- it is based on the superimposition of informative levels to the real world (virtual, multimedia, geolocalized elements, ...)
- it uses GPS, compass, accelerometer to adjust position/informations
- it is used position extraction through artificial markers (there is ARToolKit)
 - need to know position of the markers in the camera
- Coordinates translation (basics):
 - position of object in space is represented by a matrix M with some rotation/translation submatrices
 - given a point P , to extract coordinates of a point P'
 - ⇒ $M \cdot$ (matrix with coordinates of P)

→ ARToolKit provides:

- * P_m = position of marker in camera reference system
- * P_c = position of camera in marker reference system $\Rightarrow P_c = P_m^{-1}$
- * from P_c it is possible to extract translation array T_c
- * it is possible to derive the marker global position thanks to the translation matrix T_c

- Reference Systems:

- with a tag → it is possible to superimpose the object
 - determine its position is determined respect of what you're looking at
- with a camera → try to determine camera position respect of tag by using a picture
- your position \Rightarrow tag position → if you find a tag \Rightarrow you can be localized
- coverage of system \Rightarrow 5 MP images can recognize a 20x20 cm marker at 11 m of distance
- error sources can happen because:
 - * smartphone generates JPEG (quality loss)
 - min compression \Rightarrow good results
 - * calibration helps to compensate optic errors (\Rightarrow distorted images)
 - * position estimation error → proportional to due to the error in the orientation computation

- Multimarker:

- reasons:
 - * experiments with single marker/tag \Rightarrow too many errors
 - * if markers appear not frontally to camera \Rightarrow less errors
- it can be:
 - * planar
 - * octagonal
- creation of Octagonal Multimarker algorithm
 - * it is made of markers on different planes
 - * estimations on camera position and pictures are made
 - * non-frontal markers are privileged
- Results:
 - * 2 markers are enough
 - * average error is near 22cm
- Advantages respect to radiowaves systems:

- * high precision
- * lower cost for the hardware
- * lower installation/configuration time → < to scene analysis methods

→ Disadvantages respect to radiowaves systems:

- * Line of sight should be free between smartphone and one marker
- * Semi-automatic system