

Operating Systems and Networks

Networks Part 2: Physical Layer

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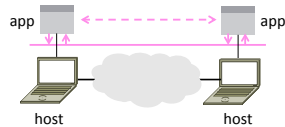
Overview

- Important concepts from last lecture
 - Statistical multiplexing, statistical multiplexing gain
 - OSI 7 layer model, interfaces, protocols
 - Encapsulation
- This lecture
 - Socket programming overview
 - Physical layer
- Online lecture videos: <http://computernetworks5e.org>

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Network-Application Interface

- Defines how apps use the network
 - Lets apps talk to each other via hosts; hides the details of the network

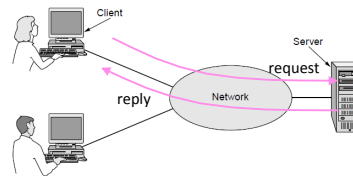


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Motivating Application

- Simple client-server connection setup



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Motivating Application (2)

- Simple client-server connection setup
 - Client app sends a request to server app
 - Server app returns a (longer) reply
- This is the basis for many apps!
 - File transfer: send name, get file (§6.1.4)
 - Web browsing: send URL, get page
 - Echo: send message, get it back
- Let's see how to write this app ...

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Socket API

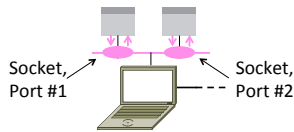
- Simple abstraction to use the network
 - The network service API used to write all Internet applications
 - Part of all major OSes and languages; originally Berkeley (Unix) ~1983
- Supports two kinds of network services
 - Streams: reliably send a stream of bytes
 - Datagrams: unreliably send separate messages. (Ignore for now.)

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Socket API (2)

- Sockets let apps attach to the local network at different ports



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Socket API (3)

Primitive	Meaning
SOCKET	Create a new communication endpoint
BIND	Associate a local address with a socket
LISTEN	Announce willingness to accept connections; give queue size
ACCEPT	Passively establish an incoming connection
CONNECT	Actively attempt to establish a connection
SEND	Send some data over the connection
RECEIVE	Receive some data from the connection
CLOSE	Release the connection

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Using Sockets

Client (host 1) Time Server (host 2)

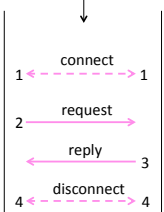


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Using Sockets (2)

Client (host 1) Time Server (host 2)

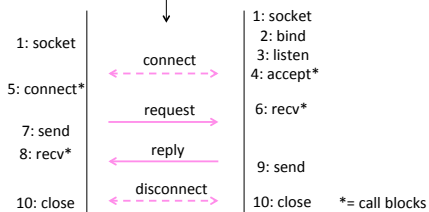


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Using Sockets (3)

Client (host 1) Time Server (host 2)



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Client Program (outline)

```

socket()           // make socket
getaddrinfo()     // server and port name
                  // www.example.com:80
connect()         // connect to server [block]
...
send()            // send request
recv()            // await reply [block]
...
                  // do something with data!
close()           // done, disconnect
    
```

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Server Program (outline)

```

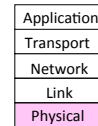
socket() // make socket
getaddrinfo() // for port on this host
bind() // associate port with socket
listen() // prepare to accept connections
accept() // wait for a connection [block]
...
recv() // wait for request
...
send() // send the reply
close() // eventually disconnect
    
```

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Where we are in the Course

- Beginning to work our way up starting with the Physical layer

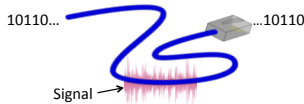


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Scope of the Physical Layer

- Concerns how signals are used to transfer message bits over a link
 - Wires etc. carry analog signals
 - We want to send digital bits



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Topics

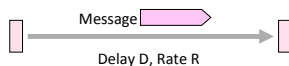
1. Properties of media
 - Wires, fiber optics, wireless
2. Simple signal propagation
 - Bandwidth, attenuation, noise
3. Modulation schemes
 - Representing bits, noise
4. Fundamental limits
 - Nyquist, Shannon

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Simple Link Model

- We'll end with an abstraction of a physical channel
 - Rate (or bandwidth, capacity, speed) in bits/second
 - Delay or Latency in seconds, related to length



- Other important properties:
 - Whether the channel is broadcast, and its error rate

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Message Latency

- Latency L: delay to send a message over a link
 - Transmission delay: time to put M-bit message "on the wire"

$$T\text{-delay} = M \text{ (bits)} / \text{Rate (bits/sec)} = M/R \text{ seconds}$$

- Propagation delay: time for bits to propagate across the wire

$$P\text{-delay} = \text{Length} / \text{speed of signals} = \text{Length} / \frac{1}{3}c = D \text{ seconds}$$

- Combining the two terms we have: $L = M/R + D$

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Metric Units

- The main prefixes we use:

Prefix	Exp.	prefix	exp.
K(ilo)	10 ³	m(illi)	10 ⁻³
M(ega)	10 ⁶	μ(micro)	10 ⁻⁶
G(iga)	10 ⁹	n(ano)	10 ⁻⁹

- Use powers of 10 for rates, 2 for storage or data size
 - 1 Mbps = 1,000,000 bps, 1 KB = 2¹⁰ bytes
- "B" is for bytes, "b" is for bits

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Latency Examples

- "Dialup" with a telephone modem:
 - D = 5 ms, R = 56 kbps, M = 1250 bytes
- Broadband cross-country link:
 - D = 50 ms, R = 10 Mbps, M = 1250 bytes

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Latency Examples (2)

- "Dialup" with a telephone modem:
 - D = 5 ms, R = 56 kbps, M = 1250 bytes
 - $L = 5 \text{ ms} + (1250 \times 8) / (56 \times 10^3) \text{ sec} = 184 \text{ ms!}$
- Broadband cross-country link:
 - D = 50 ms, R = 10 Mbps, M = 1250 bytes
 - $L = 50 \text{ ms} + (1250 \times 8) / (10 \times 10^6) \text{ sec} = 51 \text{ ms}$
- A long link or a slow rate means high latency
 - Often, one delay component dominates

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Bandwidth-Delay Product

- Messages take space on the wire!
- 
- The amount of data in flight is the bandwidth-delay (BD) product

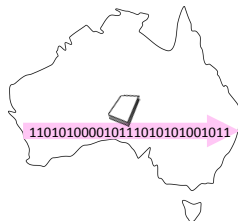
$$BD = R \times D$$
 - Measure in bits, or in messages
 - Small for LANs, big for "long fat" pipes

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Bandwidth-Delay Example

- Fiber at home, cross-country
 - R=40 Mbps, D=50 ms
 - $BD = 40 \times 10^6 \times 50 \times 10^{-3} \text{ bits}$
 - = 2000 Kbit
 - = 250 KB
- That's quite a lot of data "in the network"!



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How "Long" is a Bit?

- Interesting trivia: how "long" is the representation of a bit on a wire?
- Considering a fiber optic cable
 - Signal propagation speed: 200'000'000 m/s
 - Sending rate: 1Gbps → duration of sending one bit: 1ns
 - Bit "length": 1ns * 200'000'000 m/s = 0.2 m
 - "Length" of a 1Kb packet: 0.2m * 8 * 2¹⁰ = 1.6km

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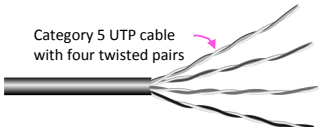
Types of Media (§2.2, 2.3)

- Media propagate signals that carry bits of information
- We'll look at some common types:
 - Wires
 - Fiber (fiber optic cables)
 - Wireless

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Wires – Twisted Pair

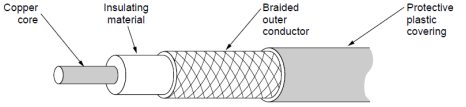
- Very common; used in LANs and telephone lines
 - Twists reduce radiated signal



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Wires – Coaxial Cable

- Also common. Better shielding for better performance

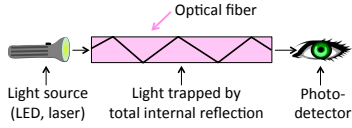


- Other kinds of wires too: e.g., electrical power (§2.2.4)

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Fiber

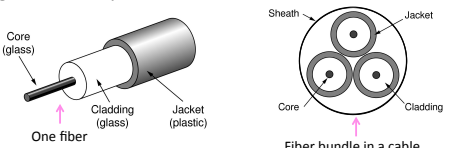
- Long, thin, pure strands of glass
 - Enormous bandwidth (high speed) over long distances



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Fiber (2)

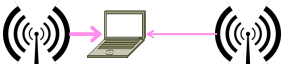
- Two varieties: multi-mode (shorter links, cheaper) and single-mode (up to ~100 km)



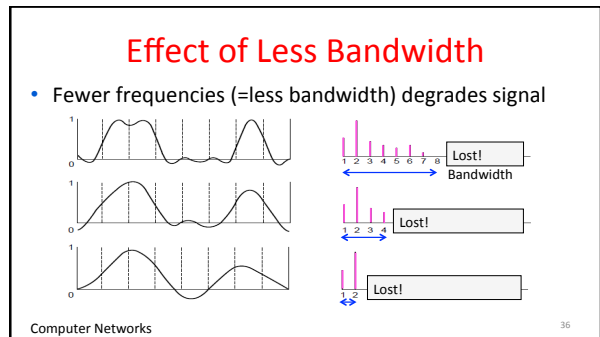
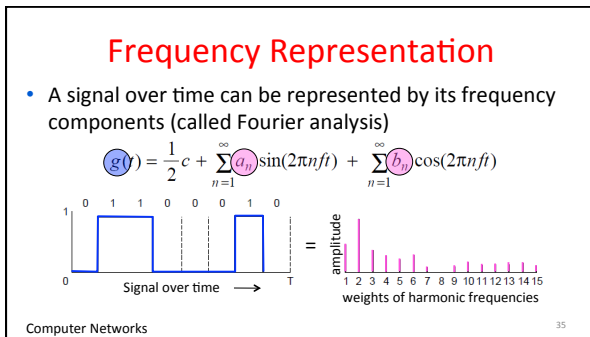
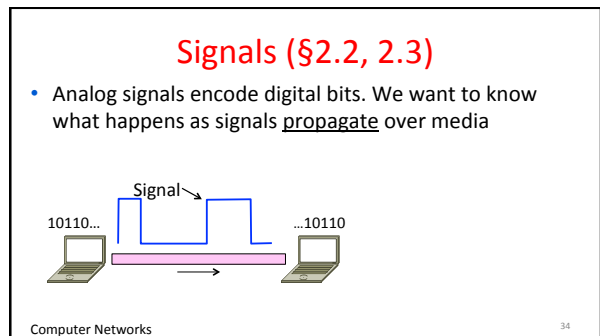
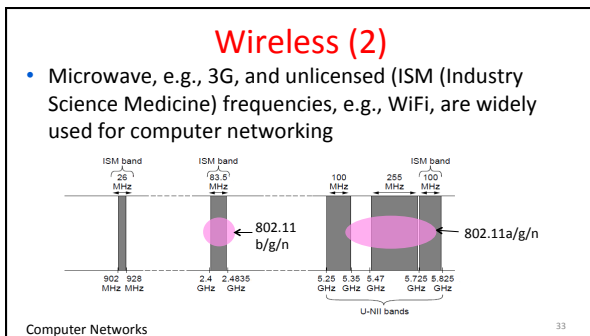
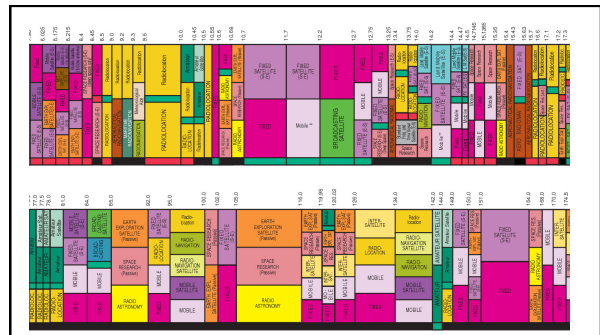
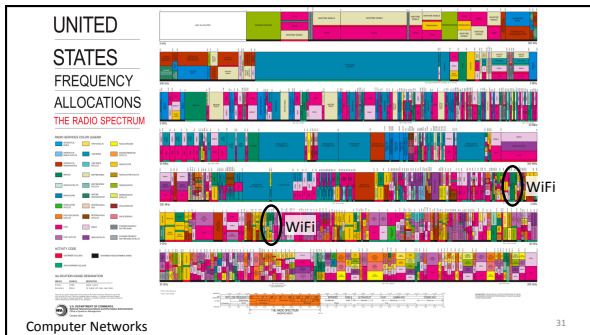
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Wireless

- Sender radiates signal over a region
 - In many directions, unlike a wire, to potentially many receivers
 - Nearby signals (same freq.) interfere at a receiver; need to coordinate use



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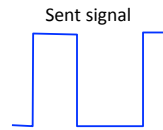
Signals over a Wire

- What happens to a signal as it passes over a wire?
 1. The signal is delayed (propagates at $\frac{2}{3}c$)
 2. The signal is attenuated (goes from m to km)
 3. Frequencies above a cutoff are highly attenuated
 4. Noise is added to the signal (later, causes errors)

EE: Bandwidth = width of frequency band, measured in Hz
 CS: Bandwidth = information carrying capacity, in bits/sec

Signals over a Wire (2)

- Example:



2: Attenuation:

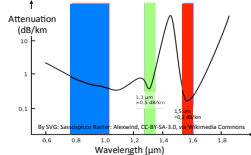
3: Bandwidth:

4: Noise:

Signals over Fiber

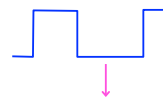
- Light propagates with very low loss in three very wide frequency bands

– Use a carrier to send information



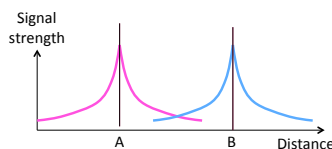
Signals over Wireless

- Signals transmitted on a carrier frequency, like fiber (more later)



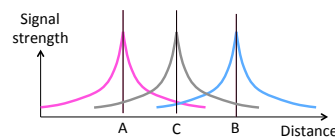
Signals over Wireless (2)

- Travel at speed of light, spread out and attenuate faster than $1/dist^2$



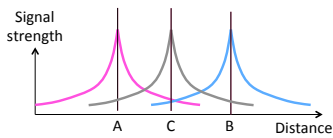
Signals over Wireless (3)

- Multiple signals on the same frequency interfere at a receiver



Signals over Wireless (4)

- Interference leads to notion of spatial reuse (of same freq.)



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Signals over Wireless (5)

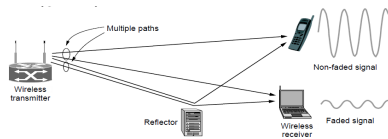
- Various other effects too!
 - Wireless propagation is complex, depends on environment
- Some key effects are highly frequency dependent
 - E.g., multipath at microwave frequencies

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Wireless Multipath

- Signals bounce off objects and take multiple paths
 - Some frequencies attenuated at receiver, varies with location
 - Messes up signal; handled with sophisticated methods

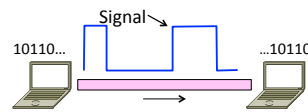


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Modulation (§2.5)

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

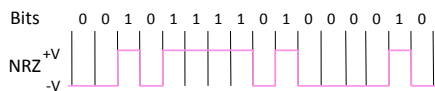


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A Simple Modulation

- Let a high voltage (+V) represent a 1, and low voltage (-V) represent a 0
 - This is called NRZ (Non-Return to Zero)



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Many Other Schemes

- Can use more signal levels, e.g., 4 levels is 2 bits per symbol
- Practical schemes are driven by engineering considerations
 - E.g., clock recovery

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Clock Recovery

- Um, how many zeros was that?
 - Receiver needs frequent signal transitions to decode bits

1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 ... 0

- Several possible designs
 - E.g., Manchester coding and scrambling (§2.5.1)

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Clock Recovery – 4B/5B

- Map every 4 data bits into 5 code bits without long runs of zeros
 - 0000 → 11110, 0001 → 01001, 1110 → 11100, ... 1111 → 11101
 - Has at most 3 zeros in a row
 - Also invert signal level on a 1 to break up long runs of 1s (called NRZI, §2.5.1)

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Clock Recovery – 4B/5B (2)

- 4B/5B code for reference:
 - 0000 → 11110, 0001 → 01001, 1110 → 11100, ... 1111 → 11101
- Message bits: 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1

Coded Bits: 1 1 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 0 0 1 0 0 1

Signal:

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Passband Modulation

- What we have seen so far is baseband modulation for wires
 - Signal is sent directly on a wire
- These signals do not propagate well on fiber / wireless
 - Need to send at higher frequencies
- Passband modulation carries a signal by modulating a carrier

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Passband Modulation (2)

- Carrier is simply a signal oscillating at a desired frequency:
- We can modulate it by changing:
 - Amplitude, frequency, or phase

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Passband Modulation (3)

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Fundamental Limits (§2.1)

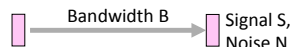
- How rapidly can we send information over a link?
 - Nyquist limit (~1924)
 - Shannon capacity (1948)
- Practical systems are devised to approach these limits

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Key Channel Properties

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



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Nyquist Limit

- The maximum symbol rate is $2B$
 - 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1
- Thus if there are V signal levels, ignoring noise, the maximum bit rate is:

$$R = 2B \log_2 V \text{ bits/sec}$$

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Claude Shannon (1916-2001)

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



Electromechanical mouse that “solves” mazes!

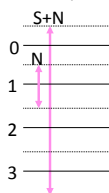
Credit: Courtesy MIT Museum

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Shannon Capacity

- How many levels we can distinguish depends on S/N
 - Or SNR, the Signal-to-Noise Ratio
 - Note noise is random, hence some errors
- SNR given on a log-scale in decibels:
 - $SNR_{dB} = 10 \log_{10}(S/N)$



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Shannon Capacity (2)

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

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

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Wired/Wireless Perspective


- Wires, and Fiber Engineer SNR for data rate
 - Engineer link to have requisite SNR and B
 - Can fix data rate

- Wireless Adapt data rate to SNR
 - Given B, but SNR varies greatly, e.g., up to 60 dB!
 - Can't design for worst case, must adapt data rate

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Putting it all together – DSL

- DSL (Digital Subscriber Line, see §2.6.3) is widely used for broadband; many variants offer 10s of Mbps
 - Reuses twisted pair telephone line to the home; it has up to ~2 MHz of bandwidth but uses only the lowest ~4 kHz



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DSL (2)

- DSL uses passband modulation (called OFDM §2.5.1)
 - Separate bands for upstream and downstream (larger)
 - Modulation varies both amplitude and phase (called QAM)
 - High SNR, up to 15 bits/symbol, low SNR only 1 bit/symbol

ADSL2: Voice
0-4
kHz Freq. → Up to 1 Mbps
26 - 138
kHz Up to 12 Mbps
143 kHz to 1.1 MHz

Telephone Upstream Downstream

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