Wireless Local Area Networks (WLANs) and Wireless Sensor Networks (WSNs)



Wireless Local Area Networks

- The proliferation of laptop computers and other mobile devices (PDAs and cell phones) created an *obvious* application level demand for wireless local area networking.
- Companies jumped in, quickly developing *incompatible* wireless products in the 1990's.
- Industry decided to entrust standardization to IEEE committee that dealt with wired LANs
 - namely, the IEEE 802 committee!!



IEEE 802 Standards Working Groups

Number	Topic
802.1	Overview and architecture of LANs
802.2 ↓	Logical link control
802.3 *	Ethernet
802.4 ↓	Token bus (was briefly used in manufacturing plants)
802.5	Token ring (IBM's entry into the LAN world)
802.6 ↓	Dual queue dual bus (early metropolitan area network)
802.7 ↓	Technical advisory group on broadband technologies
802.8 †	Technical advisory group on fiber optic technologies
802.9 ↓	Isochronous LANs (for real-time applications)
802.10↓	Virtual LANs and security
802.11 *	Wireless LANs
802.12↓	Demand priority (Hewlett-Packard's AnyLAN)
802.13	Unlucky number. Nobody wanted it
802.14↓	Cable modems (defunct: an industry consortium got there first)
802.15 *	Personal area networks (Bluetooth) 802.15.4 ZigBee
802.16 *	Broadband wireless
802.17	Resilient packet ring

Figure 1-38. The important ones are marked with *. The ones marked with \checkmark are hibernating. The one marked with \dagger gave up.



6.4 IEEE 802.11 list of Standards:

- IEEE 802.11 The original 1 Mbit/s and 2 Mbit/s, 2.4 GHz RF and IR standard
- IEEE 802.11a 54 Mbit/s, 5 GHz standard (1999, shipping products in 2001)
- IEEE 802.11b Enhancements to 802.11 to support 5.5 and 11 Mbit/s (1999)
- IEEE 802.11d International (country-to-country) roaming extensions
- IEEE 802.11e Enhancements: QoS, including packet bursting
- IEEE 802.11F Inter-Access Point Protocol (IAPP)
- IEEE 802.11g 54 Mbit/s, 2.4 GHz standard (backwards compatible with b) (2003)
- IEEE 802.11h 5 GHz spectrum, Dynamic Channel/Frequency Selection (DCS/DFS) and Transmit Power Control (TPC) for European compatibility
- IEEE 802.11i (ratified 24 June 2004) Enhanced security
- IEEE 802.11j Extensions for Japan
- IEEE 802.11k Radio resource measurement enhancements
- IEEE 802.11n Higher throughput improvements
- IEEE 802.11p WAVE Wireless Access for the Vehicular Environment (such as ambulances and passenger cars)
- IEEE 802.11r Fast roaming
- IEEE 802.11s Wireless mesh networking
- IEEE 802.11T Wireless Performance Prediction (WPP) test methods and metrics
- IEEE 802.11u Interworking with non-802 networks (e.g., cellular)
- IEEE 802.11v Wireless network management
- IEEE 802.11w Protected Management Frames



Classification of Wireless Networks

- Base Station :: all communication through an Access Point (AP) {note hub topology}. Other nodes can be fixed or mobile.
- Infrastructure Wireless :: AP is connected to the wired Internet.
- Ad Hoc Wireless: wireless nodes communicate directly with one another.
- MANETs (Mobile Ad Hoc Networks) :: ad hoc nodes are mobile.



Wireless LANs

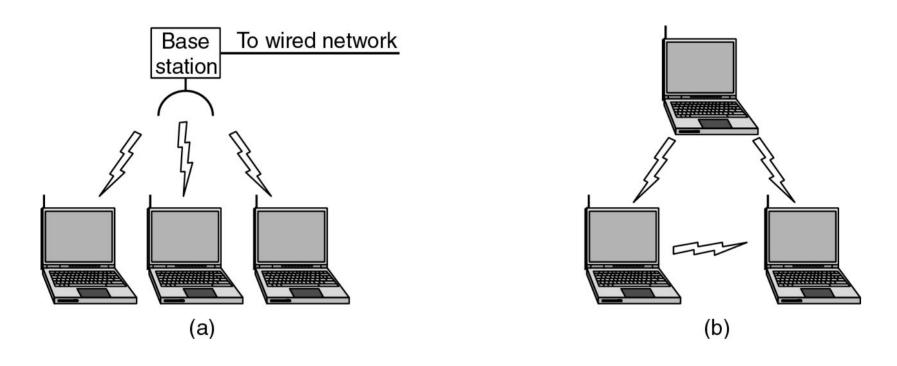


Figure 1-36.(a) Wireless networking with a base station. (b) Ad hoc networking.



The 802.11 Protocol Stack

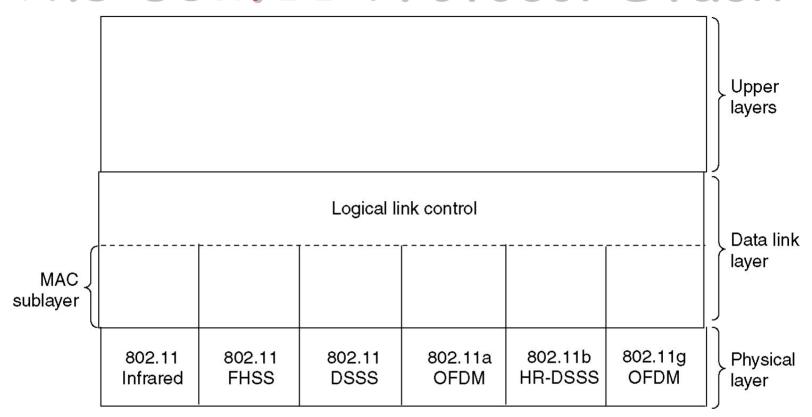


Figure 4-25. Part of the 802.11 protocol stack.

Note - ordinary 802.11 products are no longer being manufactured.

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- Physical layer conforms to OSI (five options)
 - 1997: **802.11** infrared, FHSS, DSSS {FHSS and DSSS run in the 2.4GHz band}
 - 1999: 802.11a OFDM and 802.11b HR-DSSS
 - 2001: **802.11g** OFDM
- 802.11 *Infrared*
 - Two capacities: 1 Mbps or 2 Mbps.
 - Range is 10 to 20 meters and cannot penetrate walls.
 - Does not work outdoors.
- 802.11 FHSS (Frequence Hopping Spread Spectrum)
 - The main issue is *multipath fading*.
 - [P&D] The idea behind spread spectrum is to spread the signal over a wider frequency to minimize the interference from other devices.
 - 79 non-overlapping channels, each 1 Mhz wide at low end of 2.4 GHz ISM band.
 - The same pseudo-random number generator used by all stations to start the hopping process.
 - Dwell time: min. time on channel before hopping (400msec).



- 802.11 DSSS (Direct Sequence Spread Spectrum)
 - The main idea is to represent each bit in the frame by multiple bits in the transmitted signal (i.e., it sends the XOR of that bit and n random bits).
 - Spreads signal over entire spectrum using pseudo-random sequence (similar to CDMA see Tanenbaum sec. 2.6.2).
 - Each bit transmitted using an 11-bit chipping Barker sequence, PSK at 1Mbaud.
 - This yields a a capacity of 1 or 2 Mbps.

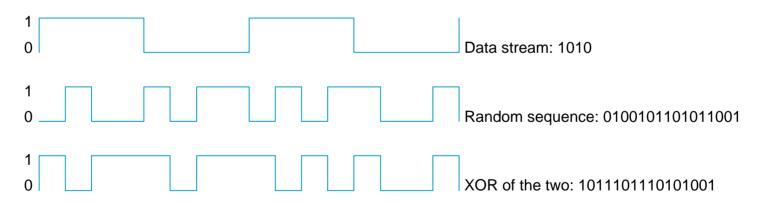


Figure 2.37 Example 4-bit chipping sequence

P&D slide



- 802.11a *OFDM* (Orthogonal Frequency Divisional Multiplexing)
 - Compatible with European HiperLan2.
 - **54 Mbps** in wider 5.5 GHz band → transmission range is limited.
 - Uses 52 FDM channels (48 for data; 4 for synchronization).
 - Encoding is complex (PSM up to 18 Mbps and QAM above this capacity).
 - E.g., at 54 Mbps 216 data bits encoded into into 288-bit symbols.
 - More difficulty penetrating walls.



- 802.11b HR-DSSS (High Rate Direct Sequence Spread Spectrum)
 - 11a and 11b shows a <u>split</u> in the standards committee.
 - 11b approved and hit the market before 11a.
 - Up to **11 Mbps** in 2.4 GHz band using 11 million chips/sec.
 - Note in this bandwidth all these protocols have to deal with interference from microwave ovens, cordless phones and garage door openers.
 - Range is 7 times greater than 11a.
 - 11b and 11a are incompatible!!



- 802.11g OFDM(Orthogonal Frequency Division Multiplexing)
 - An attempt to combine the best of both 802.11a and 802.11b.
 - Supports bandwidths up to 54 Mbps.
 - Uses 2.4 GHz frequency for greater range.
 - Is backward compatible with 802.11b.



802.11 MAC Sublayer Protocol

- In 802.11 wireless LANs, "seizing the channel" does not exist as in 802.3 wired Ethernet.
- Two additional problems:
 - Hidden Terminal Problem
 - Exposed Station Problem
- To deal with these two problems 802.11 supports two modes of operation:
 - DCF (Distributed Coordination Function)
 - PCF (Point Coordination Function).
- All implementations must support DCF, but PCF is optional.



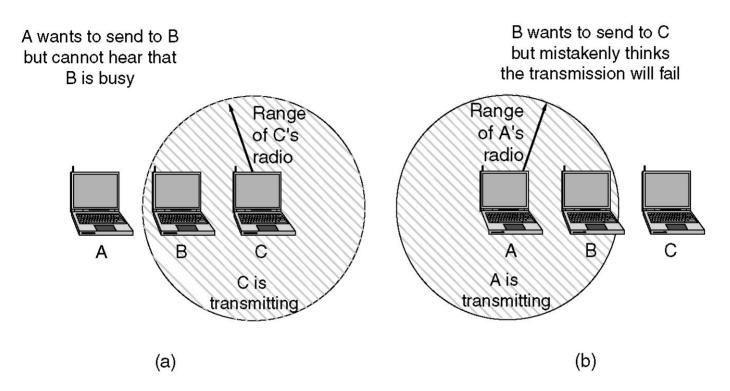


Figure 4-26.(a)The hidden terminal problem. (b) The exposed station problem.

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The Hidden Terminal Problem

- Wireless stations have transmission ranges and not all stations are within radio range of each other.
- Simple CSMA will not work!
- C transmits to B.
- If A "senses" the channel, it will not hear C's transmission and falsely conclude that A can begin a transmission to B.



The Exposed Station Problem

- This is the inverse problem.
- B wants to send to C and listens to the channel.
- When B hears A's transmission, B falsely assumes that it cannot send to C.



Distribute Coordination Function (DCF)

- Uses CSMA/CA (CSMA with Collision Avoidance).
 - Uses one of two modes of operation:
 - virtual carrier sensing
 - physical carrier sensing
- The two methods are supported:
- 1. MACAW (Multiple Access with Collision Avoidance for Wireless) with virtual carrier sensing.
- 2. 1-persistent physical carrier sensing.



Wireless LAN Protocols [Tan pp.269-270]

- MACA protocol solved hidden and exposed terminal problems:
 - Sender broadcasts a Request-to-Send (*RTS*) and the intended receiver sends a Clear-to-Send (*CTS*).
 - Upon receipt of a CTS, the sender begins transmission of the frame.
 - RTS, CTS helps determine who else is in range or busy (Collision Avoidance).
 - Can a collision still occur?



Wireless LAN Protocols

 MACAW added ACKs, Carrier Sense, and BEB done per stream and not per station.

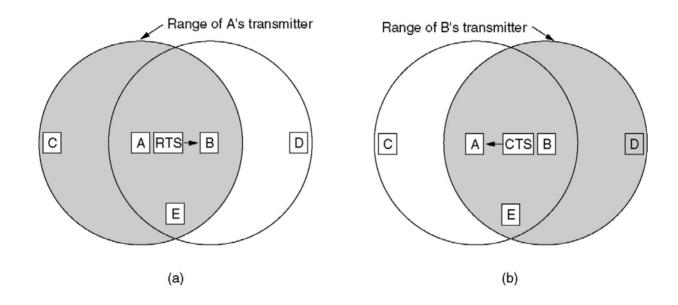


Figure 4-12. (a) A sending an RTS to B.

(b) B responding with a CTS to A.

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Virtual Channel Sensing in CSMA/CA

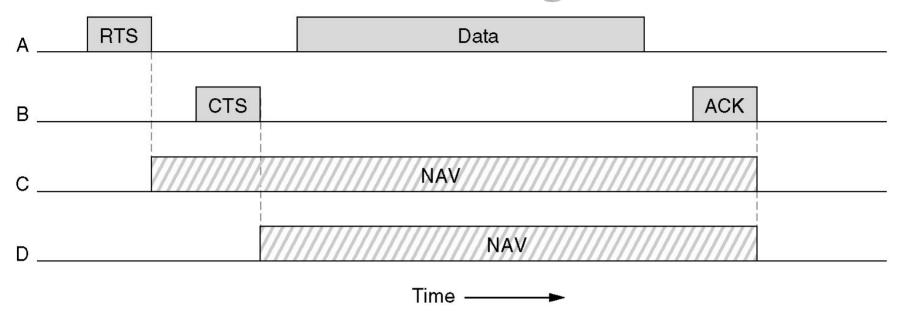


Figure 4-27. The use of virtual channel sensing using CSMA/CA.

- C (in range of A) receives the RTS and based on information in RTS creates a virtual channel busy NAV(Network Allocation Vector).
- D (in range of B) receives the CTS and creates a shorter NAV.

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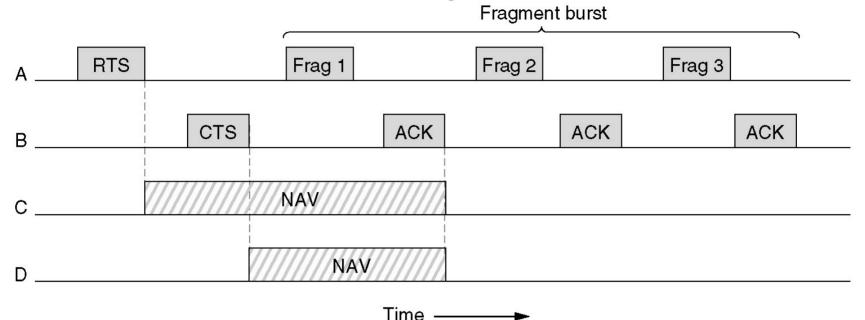
Virtual Channel Sensing in CSMA/CA

What is the advantage of RTS/CTS? RTS is 20 bytes, and CTS is 14 bytes. MPDU can be 2300 bytes.

- "virtual" implies source station sets the duration field in data frame or in RTS and CTS frames.
- Stations then adjust their NAV accordingly!



Figure 4-28 Fragmentation in 802.11



- High wireless error rates → long packets have less probability of being successfully transmitted.
- Solution: MAC layer fragmentation with stop-and-wait protocol on the fragments.

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1-Persistent Physical Carrier Sensing

- The station **senses** the channel when it wants to send.
- If idle, the station transmits.
 - A station does not sense the channel while transmitting.
- If the channel is busy, the station defers until idle and then transmits (1-persistent).
- Upon collision, wait a *random time* using binary exponential backoff (BEB).



Point Coordinated Function (PCF)

- PCF uses a base station to poll other stations to see if they have frames to send.
- No collisions occur.
- Base station sends *beacon frame* periodically.
- Base station can tell another station to *sleep* to save on batteries and base stations holds frames for sleeping station.

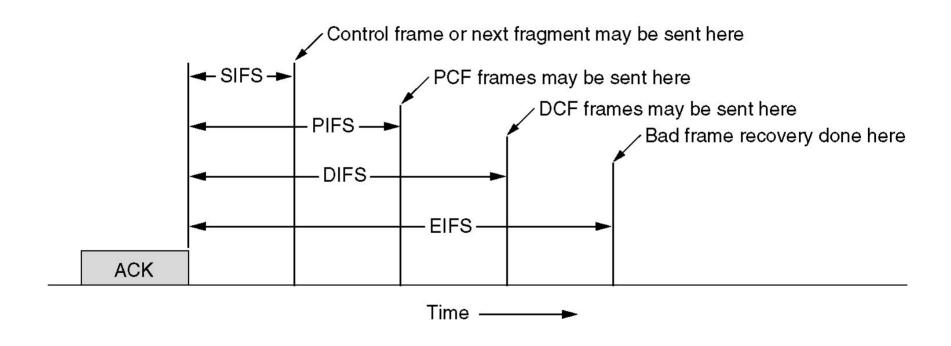


DCF and PCF Co-Existence

- Distributed and centralized control can co-exist using InterFrame Spacing.
- SIFS (Short IFS) :: is the time waited between packets in an ongoing dialog (RTS,CTS,data, ACK, next frame)
- PIFS (PCF IFS) :: when no SIFS response, base station can issue beacon or poll.
- DIFS (DCF IFS) :: when no PIFS, any station can attempt to acquire the channel.
- EIFS (Extended IFS) :: lowest priority interval used to report bad or unknown frame.



Figure 4-29. Interframe Spacing in 802.11.







A Few Wireless Details

- 802.11b and 802.11g use *dynamic rate adaptation* based on ?? (algorithms internal to wireless card at the AP)
 - e.g. for 802.11b choices are: 11, 5.5, 2 and 1 Mbps
- RTS/CTS may be turned off by default [Research has shown that RTS/CTS degrades performance when hidden terminal is not an issue].
- All APs (or base stations) will periodically send a beacon frame (10 to 100 times a second).
- Beacon frames are also used by DCF to synchronize and handle nodes that want to *sleep*. The AP will buffer frames intended for a sleeping wireless client.
- AP downstream/upstream traffic performance is asymmetric.
- Wireless communication quality between two nodes can be asymmetric due to multipath fading.



Wireless Sensor Networks

- Sensors small devices with low-power transmissions and energy limitations (e.g., battery lifetime is often a **BIG** concern.)
- The main distinction from traditional wireless networks is that the data traffic originates at the sensor node and is sent **upstream** towards the access point (AP) or base station that collects the data.
- While the nature of data collection at the sensor is likely to be **event driven**, for robustness, the generation of sensor packets should be **periodic** if possible.

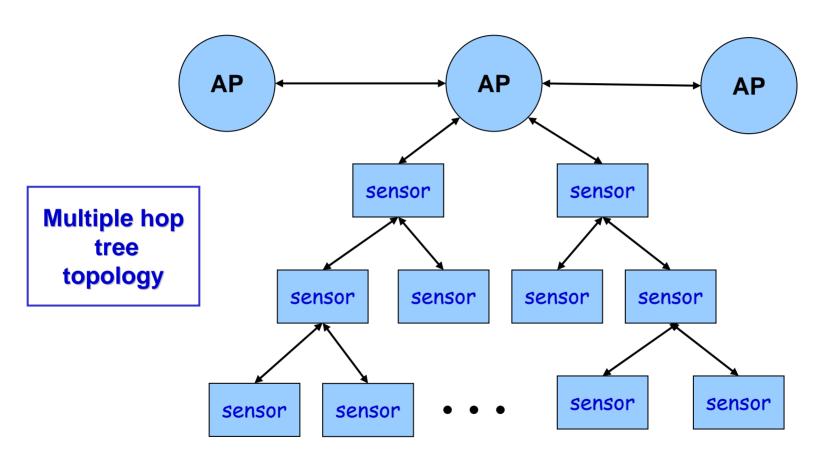


Tiered Architecture

- Smaller sensors on the leaves of the tree
 - 1. Motes, TinyOS
 - 2. Strong ARM PDA running Linux
 - Battery powered, lifetime is critical.
 - Need to be able to adjust transmission power and permit sensor to go to sleep.
- Second Tier
 - AP, base station or video aggregator
 - Data sent from sensors to more powerful computers for storage and analysis.



The Berkeley System





The Berkeley System

