CS4700/CS5700 Fundamentals of Computer Networks

Lecture 13: Reliability

Slides used with permissions from Edward W. Knightly, T. S. Eugene Ng, Ion Stoica, Hui Zhang

<u>Overview</u>

- Goal: transmit correct information
- Problem: bits can get corrupted

 Electrical interference, thermal noise
- Problem: packets can be lost
- Solution
 - Detect errors
 - Recover from errors
 - Correct errors
 - Retransmission

<u>Outline</u>

- Revisit error detection
- Reliable Transmission

Naïve approach

- Send a message twice
- Compare two copies at the receiver
 If different, some errors exist
- How many bits of error can you detect?
- What is the overhead?

Error Detection

- Problem: detect bit errors in packets (frames)
- Solution: add extra bits to each packet
- Goals:
 - Reduce overhead, i.e., reduce the number of redundancy bits
 - Increase the number and the type of bit error patterns that can be detected
- Examples:
 - Two-dimensional parity
 - Checksum
 - Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC)
 - Hamming Codes

<u>Parity</u>

- Even parity
 - Add a parity bit to 7 bits of data to make an even number of 1's

0110100 1011010

- How many bits of error can be detected by a parity bit?
- What's the overhead?

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- Example: five 7-bit character packet, even parity



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- All 1-bit errors
- Example:



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- Example:



- All 2-bit errors
- Example:



- All 3-bit errors
- Example:



- Most 4-bit errors
- Example of 4-bit error that is not detected:



How many errors can you correct?

<u>Checksum</u>

- Sender: add all words of a packet and append the result (checksum) to the packet
- Receiver: add all words of a received packet and compare the result with the checksum
- Example: Internet checksum
 - Use 1's complement addition

- Negative number –x is x with all bits inverted
- When two numbers are added, the carry-on is added to the result
- Example: -15 + 16; assume 8-bit representation

15 = 00001111 → -15 = 11110000 + 16 = 00010000

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- Example: -15 + 16; assume 8-bit representation

$$15 = 00001111 \rightarrow -15 = 11110000 + 16 = 00010000$$

$$16 = 00010000$$

$$1 = 00000000$$

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1

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Internet Checksum Implementation

```
u short cksum(u short *buf, int count)
       register u long sum = 0;
       while (count--)
               sum += *buf++;
               if (sum & 0xFFFF0000)
                       /* carry occurred, so wrap around */
                       sum &= 0xFFFF;
                       sum++;
       return ~(sum & 0xFFFF);
```

<u>Properties</u>

How many bits of error can Internet checksum detect?

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- Why use this algorithm?
 - Link layer typically has stronger error detection
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 - Seems to be OK in practice

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- What about the end-to-end argument?

Example of checksum calculation

• If data is

 $1001 \ 1101 \ 0010 \ 1101 \ 1100 \ 0011 \ 1101 \ 0101$

• Convert to 16-bit words, then add, carry, and invert



<u>Overview</u>

- Revisit error detection
- Reliable transmission

Retransmission

- Problem: obtain correct information once errors are detected
- Retransmission is one popular approach
- Algorithmic challenges
 - Achieve high link utilization, and low overhead

Reliable Transfer

- Retransmit missing packets
 - Numbering of packets and ACKs
- Do this efficiently
 - Keep transmitting whenever possible
 - Detect missing ACKs and retransmit quickly
- Two schemes
 - Stop & Wait
 - Sliding Window
 - Go-back-n and Selective Repeat variants

Stop & Wait

- Send; wait for acknowledgement (ACK); repeat
- If timeout, retransmit





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 Need a 1 bit sequence number (i.e. alternate between 0 and 1) to distinguish duplicate frames

Problem with Stop-and-Go

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• Lots of time wasted in waiting for acknowledgements

Problem with Stop-and-Go

- Lots of time wasted in waiting for acknowledgements
- What if you have a 10Gbps link and a delay of 10ms?
 Need 100Mbit to fill the pipe with data
- If packet size is 1500B (like Ethernet), because you can only send one packet per RTT
 - Throughput = 1500*8bit/(2*10ms) = 600Kbps!
 - A utilization of 0.006%

Sliding Window

- *window* = set of adjacent sequence numbers
- The size of the set is the window size (WS)
 Assume it is n
- Let A be the last ack'd packet of sender without gap; then window of sender = {A+1, A+2, ..., A+n}
 - Sender window size (SWS)



- Sender can send packets in its window
- Let B be the last received packet without gap by receiver, then window of receiver = {B+1,..., B+n}
 - Receiver window size (RWS)
- Receiver can accept out of sequence packets, if in window



Basic Timeout and Acknowledgement

- Every packet k transmitted is associated with a timeout
- If by timeout(k), the ack for k has not yet been received, the sender retransmits k
- Basic acknowledgement scheme
 - Receiver sends ack for packet k when all packets with sequence numbers <= k have been received
 - An ack k means every packet up to k has been received





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SWS = 9, i.e. 9 packets in one RTT instead of 1

→ Can be fully
 efficient as long as
 WS is large enough

Observations

 With sliding windows, it is possible to fully utilize a link, provided the window size is large enough. Throughput is ~ (n/RTT)

– Stop & Wait is like n = 1.

- Sender has to buffer all unacknowledged packets, because they may require retransmission
- Receiver may be able to accept out-of-order packets, but only up to its buffer limits

Setting Timers

- The sender needs to set retransmission timers in order to know when to retransmit a packet that may have been lost
- How long to set the timer for?
 - Too short: may retransmit before data or ACK has arrived, creating duplicates
 - Too long: if a packet is lost, will take a long time to recover (inefficient)



Adaptive Timers

- The amount of time the sender should wait is about the round-trip time (RTT) between the sender and receiver
- For link-layer networks (LANs), this value is essentially known
- For multi-hop WANS, rarely known
- Must work in both environments, so protocol should adapt to the path behavior
- E.g. TCP timeouts are adaptive, will discuss later in the course