

Introduction to Networked, Mobile and Wireless Systems



COS 518: *Advanced Computer Systems*
Lecture 5

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Today



1. **The UNIX Socket API**
2. Remote Procedure Call
3. Introduction to Wireless Communications



UNIX Socket API

- Socket interface
 - **Network programming interface for applications**
 - Originally provided in Berkeley UNIX
 - Later adopted by all popular operating systems
 - Simplifies porting applications to different OSes
- In UNIX, (almost) everything is like a file
 - All input is like reading a file, output like writing
 - File is represented by an integer file descriptor
- API implemented as system calls to the kernel
 - *e.g.*, connect, read, write, close, ...



Sockets

- Endpoint of a connection
 - Identified by IP address and Port number
 - Primitive to implement high-level networking interfaces
 - e.g., Remote procedure call (RPC)
-
- 1. Stream sockets** (TCP sockets): HTTP, SSH, FTP, e.g.
 - Connection-oriented (require establishment, teardown)
 - Reliable, in-order, exactly-once delivery of **data stream**
 - 2. Datagram sockets** (UDP sockets): DNS, VoIP, e.g.
 - Best-effort, connection-less delivery of **datagrams**

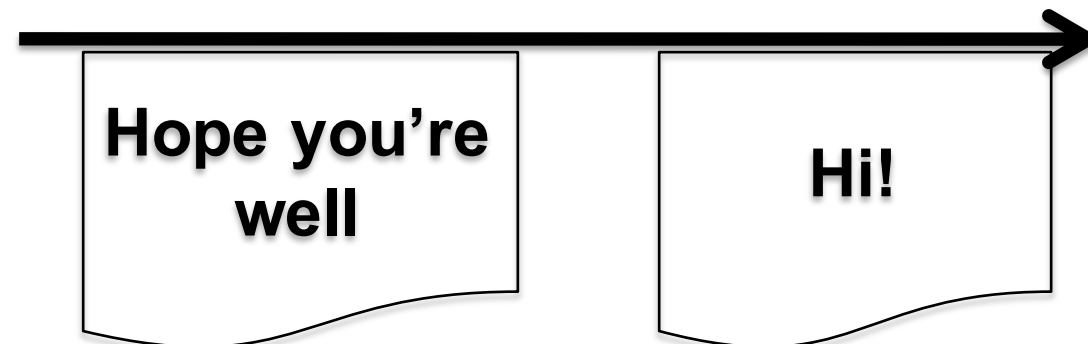


Streams versus datagrams (1/2)

- When sending "Hi!" and "Hope you're well"
- TCP treats them as a single byte stream:



- UDP treats them as separate messages:





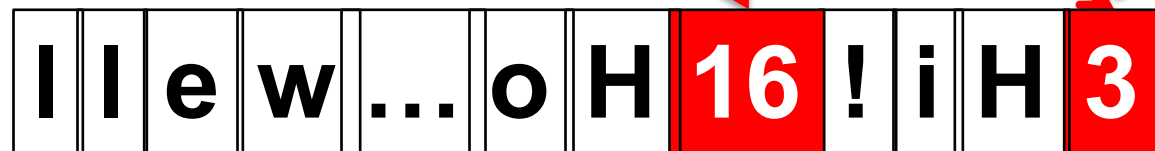
Streams versus datagrams (2/2)

- Thus, TCP needs application-level message boundary.
 - By carrying **length** in application-level header, e.g.

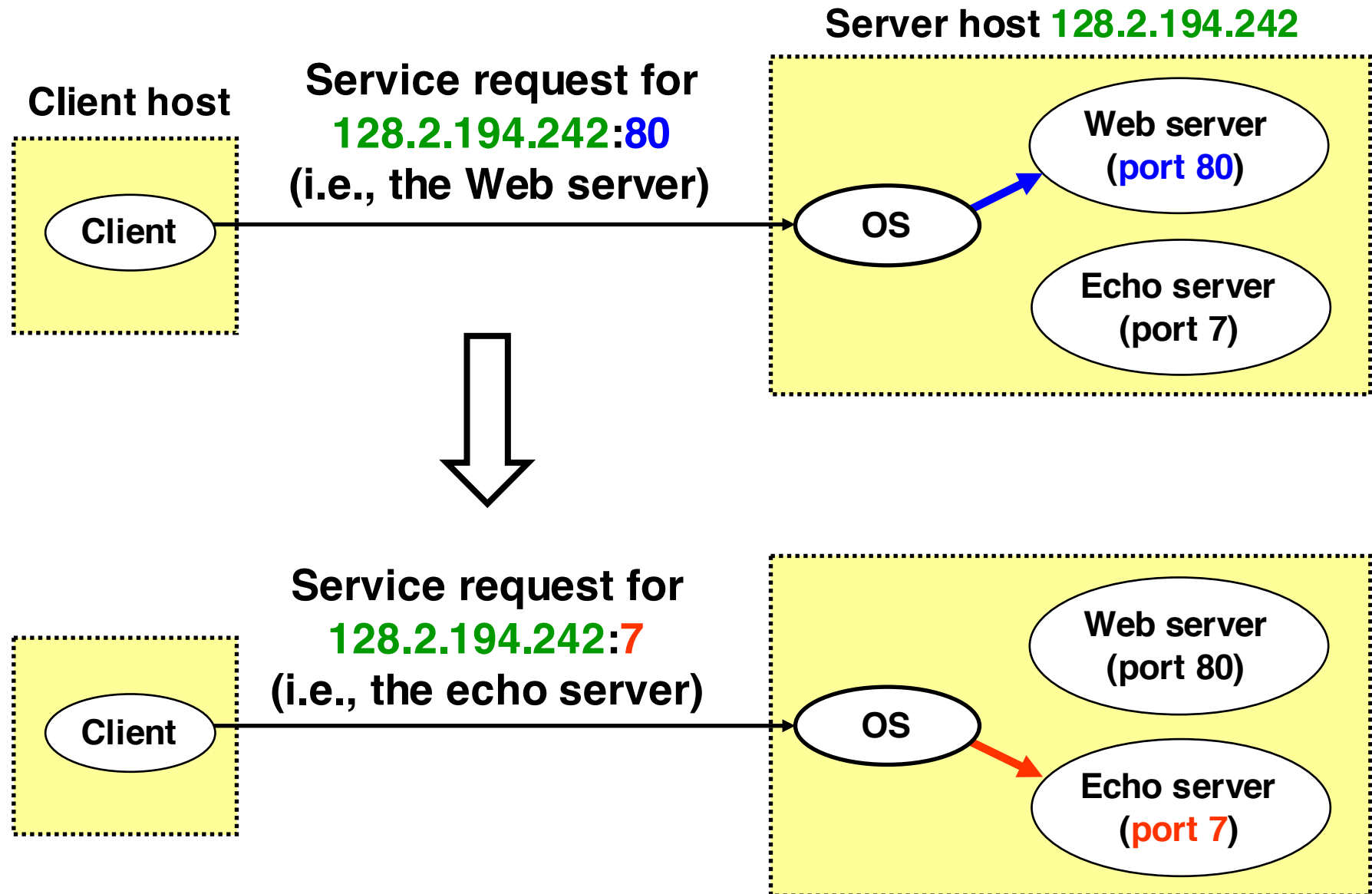
```
struct my_app_hdr {  
    int length  
}
```



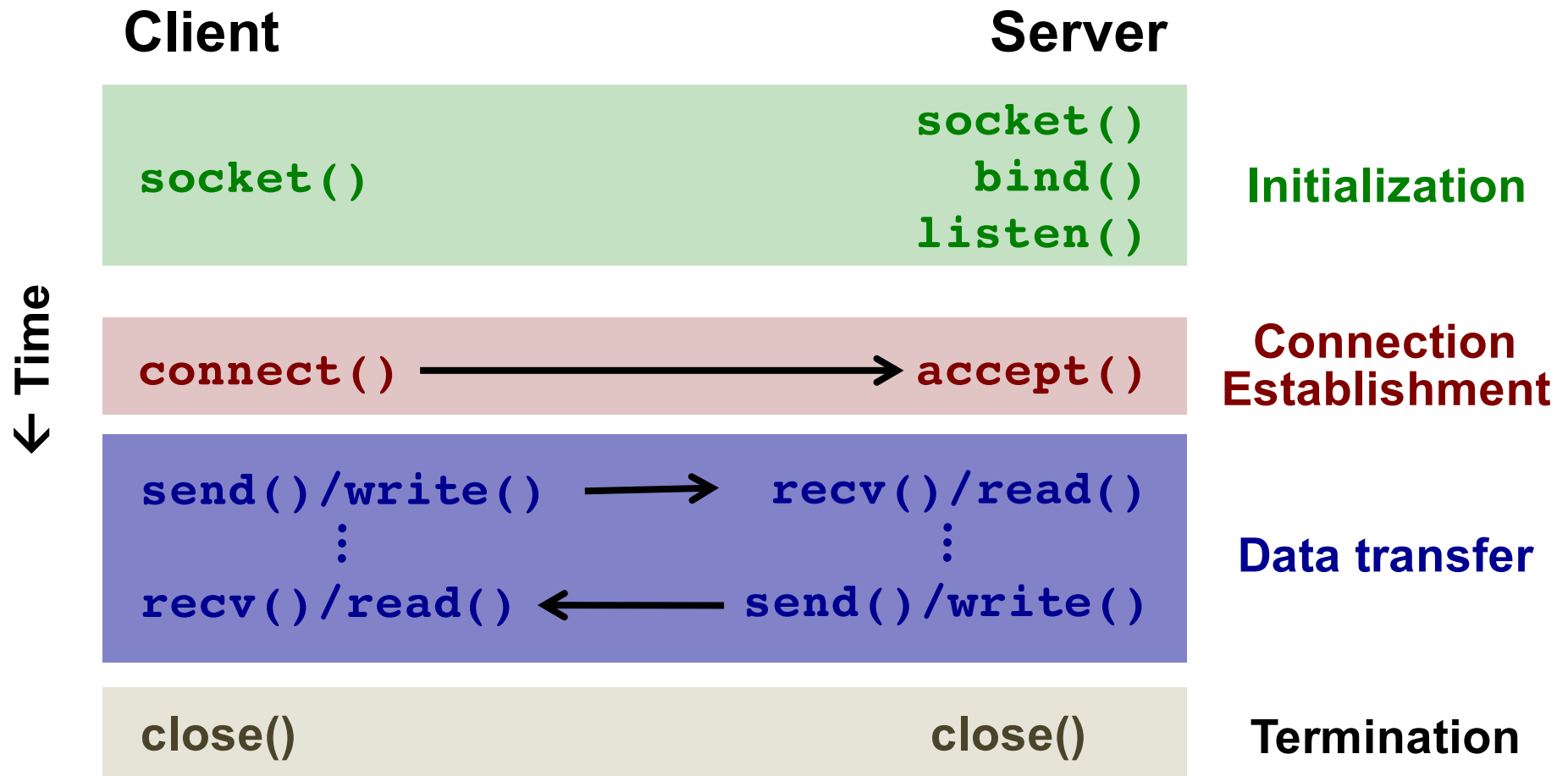
Bytes stream



IP address and port number identify endpoints



Scenario #1: Client-server reliable stream





Initialization at server and client: **socket()**

```
int sock = socket(AF_INET, SOCK_STREAM, 0);  
if (sock < 0) {  
     perror("Couldn't create socket");  
    abort();  
}
```

- **socket(...)**: returns a socket descriptor
- **AF_INET**: **IPv4 address family**. (also OK with PF_INET)
 - Compare IPv6 → AF_INET6
- **SOCK_STREAM**: **streaming socket type**
 - Compare datagram socket → SOCK_DGRAM
- **perror()**: prints out an error message



Error codes in Unix programming

- `extern int errno; // by #include <errno.h>`
- Many Unix system calls and library functions set `errno` on errors
- Macros for error codes ('E' + error name)
 - `EINTR`, `EWOULDBLOCK`, `EINVAL`, ...
 - `% man [function name]` shows possible error codes for the function name
- Functions to convert error code into human readable messages
 - `void perror(const char *my_str)`
 - Always looks for `errno`
 - prints out "my str: error code string"
 - `const char *strerror(int err_code)`
 - You must provide an error code
 - returns a string for the `err_code`



Initialization at the server: **bind()**

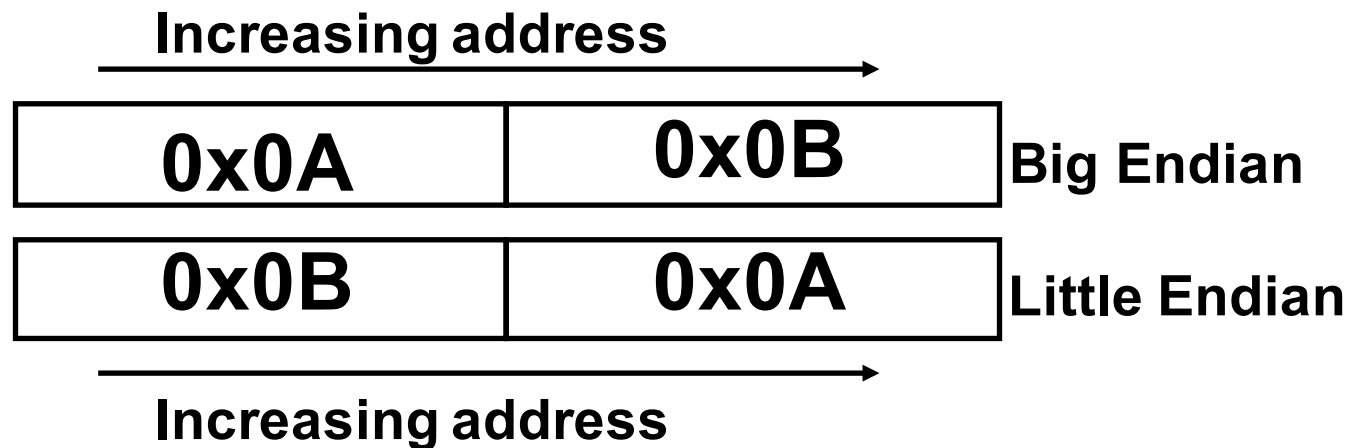
```
struct sockaddr_in sin;  
memset(&sin, 0, sizeof(sin));  
sin.sin_family = AF_INET;  
sin.sin_addr.s_addr = INADDR_ANY;  
sin.sin_port = htons(server_port);  
  
if (bind(sock, (struct sockaddr *)&sin, sizeof(sin)) < 0) {  
    perror("bind failed");  
    abort();  
}
```

- **bind**: binds a socket with a particular port number.
 - Kernel remembers which process has bound which port(s)
 - Only one process can bind a particular port number at a time
- **struct sockaddr_in**: IPv4 socket address structure
- **INADDR_ANY**: If server has multiple IP addresses, binds any address
- **htons(...)**: converts host byte order into network byte order



Endianness

- You have a 16-bit number: 0x0A0B. How is it stored in memory?



- Host endianness (byte order)** is not uniform
 - Some machines are big endian, others are little endian
- Communicating between machines with different host byte orders is problematic
 - Transferred 256 (0x0100), but received 1 (0x0001)



Endian-ness (cont'd)

- **Convention:** The network byte order is **big endian**
 - To avoid the endian problem, **we must use network byte order when sending 16-, 32-, 64-bit numbers**
- Utility functions for easy conversion:

```
uint16_t htons(uint16_t host16bitvalue);  
uint32_t htonl(uint32_t host32bitvalue);  
uint16_t ntohs(uint16_t net16bitvalue);  
uint32_t ntohl(uint32_t net32bitvalue);
```
- Hint: **h**, **n**, **s**, and **l** stand for host byte order, network byte order, short(16 bit), and long(32 bit), respectively



Reusing the same port

- After TCP connection closes, waits for twice **maximum segment lifetime** (from 1 to 4 mins, implementation dependent). Why?
 - By default, port number cannot be reused before two $\times$ MSL
 - But server port numbers are fixed, so must be reused
 - Solution: Server executes this code **before** `bind(...)`:

```
int optval = 1;
if (setsockopt(sock, SOL_SOCKET, SO_REUSEADDR,
    &optval, sizeof(optval)) < 0) {
    perror("reuse failed");
    abort();
}
```

- **setsockopt(...)**: changes socket, protocol options
 - e.g., buffer size, timeout value, ...



Initialization at the server: **listen()**

- Specify a willingness to accept incoming connections and a queue limit for incoming connections

```
if (listen(sock, back_log) < 0) {  
    perror("listen failed");  
    abort();  
}
```

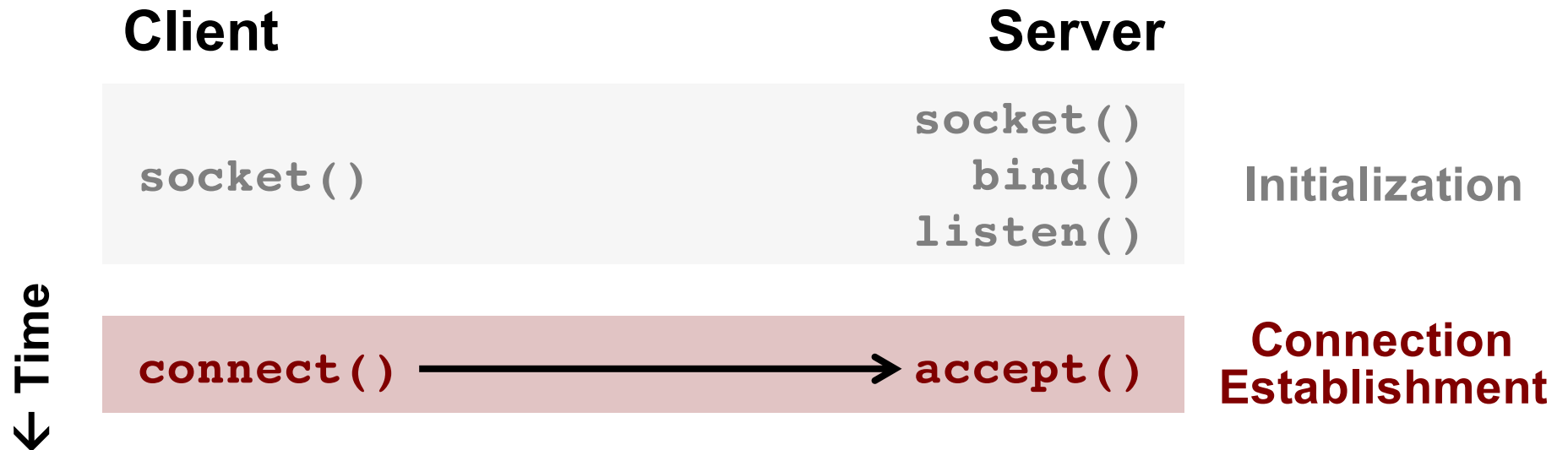
- **listen(...)**: converts an active socket to passive
- **back_log**: connection-waiting queue size. (e.g., 32)
 - Busy server may need a large value (e.g., 1024, ...)



Initialization: Summary

- Client
 - **socket ()**
- Server
 - **socket (...)**
 - **setsockopt (sock, SOL_SOCKET, SO_REUSEADDR)**
 - **bind (...)**
 - **listen (...)**
- Pitfalls:
 - The order of the functions matter
 - Don't forget to use **htons (...)** to handle port number

Scenario #1: Client-server reliable stream





Connection establishment at the client

```
struct sockaddr_in sin;
memset(&sin, 0, sizeof(sin));

sin.sin_family = AF_INET;
sin.sin_addr.s_addr = inet_addr("128.32.132.214");
sin.sin_port = htons(80);

if (connect(sock, (struct sockaddr *) &sin,
sizeof(sin)) < 0) {
    perror("connection failed");
    abort();
}
```

- **connect(...)**: waits until connection establishes/fails
- **inet_addr()**: converts an IP address string into a 32-bit address number (network byte order).

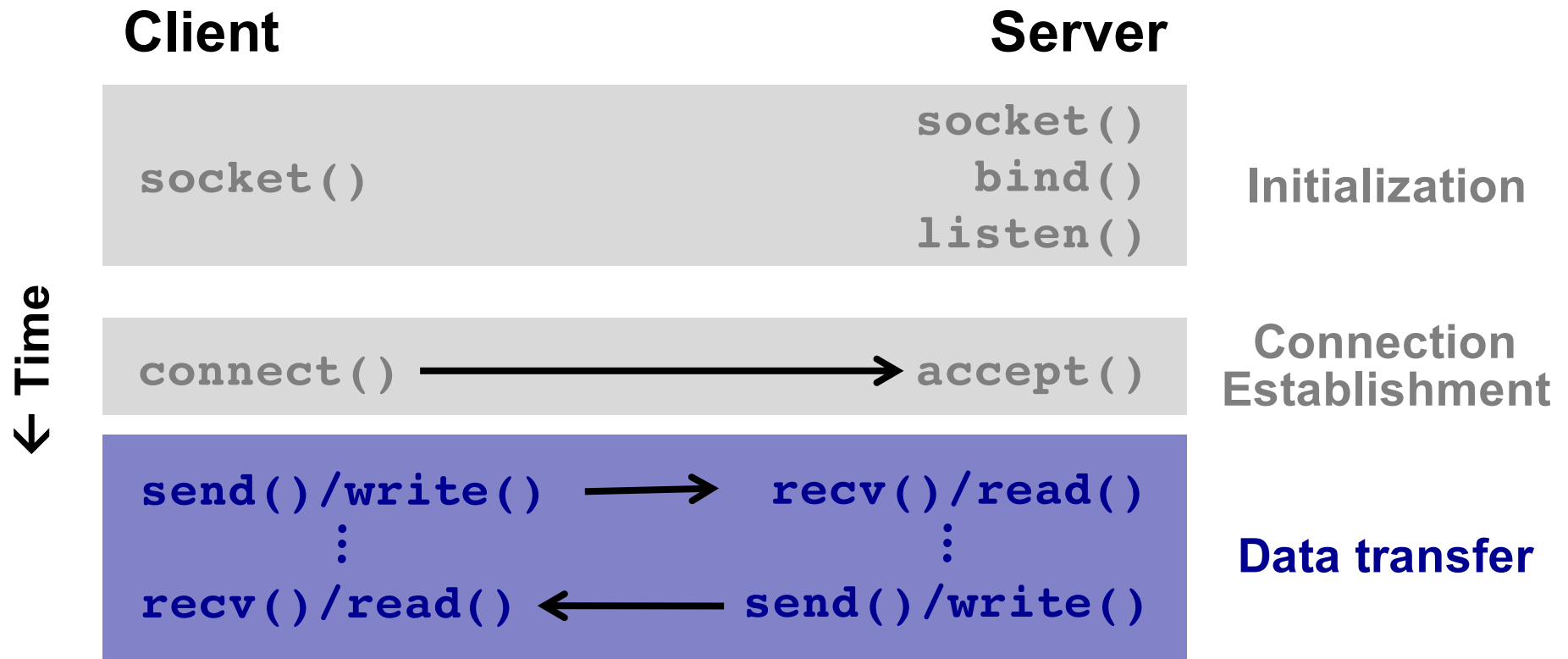
Connection establishment at the server



```
struct sockaddr_in client_sin;  
int addr_len = sizeof(client_sin);  
int client_sock = accept(listening_sock,  
                        (struct sockaddr *) &client_sin,  
                        &addr_len);  
  
if (client_sock < 0) {  
    perror("accept failed");  
    abort();  
}
```

- **accept()** **blocks** until a connection is present
- **accept()** returns a new socket descriptor for a client connection in the connection-waiting queue
 - This socket descriptor is to communicate with the client
 - listening_sock is not to communicate with a client
- **client_sin**: contains client IP address and port number
 - Q: Are they big- or little-endian?

Scenario #1: Client-server reliable stream





Sending data (server or client)

```
char *data_addr = "hello, world";  
int len = 12;  
  
int sent_bytes = send(sock, data_addr, len, 0);  
if (sent_bytes < 0) {  
    perror("send failed");  
}
```

- **send()**: sends data, returns the number of sent bytes
 - Also OK with **write()**, **writen()**
- **data_addr**: address of data to send
- **len**: size of the data
- With **blocking** sockets (default), send() blocks until sending data
- With **non-blocking** sockets, sent_bytes may not equal len
 - If kernel lacks space, accepts only partial data
 - **You** must retry for the unsent data



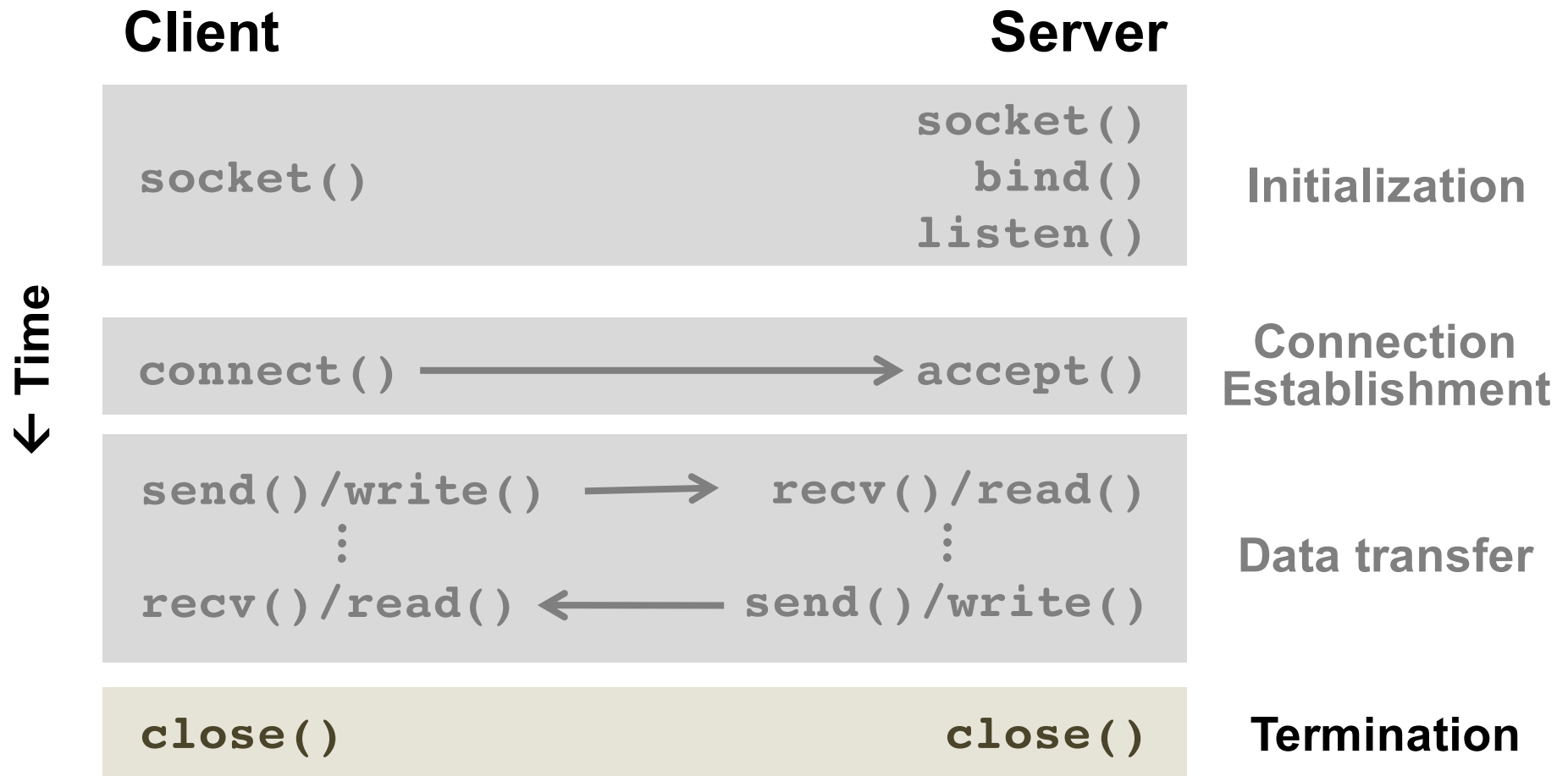
Receiving data (server or client)

```
char buf[4096];
int max_len = sizeof(buf);

int read_len = recv(sock, buf, max_len, 0);
if (read_len == 0) { // connection is closed
} else if (read_len < 0) { // error
    perror("recv failed");
} else { // OK, but no guarantee read_len == max_len
}
```

- **recv()**: Reads bytes from **sock**, returns count of bytes read
 - read_bytes may not equal to expected_data_len
 - If no data is available, **recv** blocks
 - If only partial data is available, `read_len < max_len`
 - If you get only partial data, you should retry for the remainder

Scenario #1: Client-server reliable stream



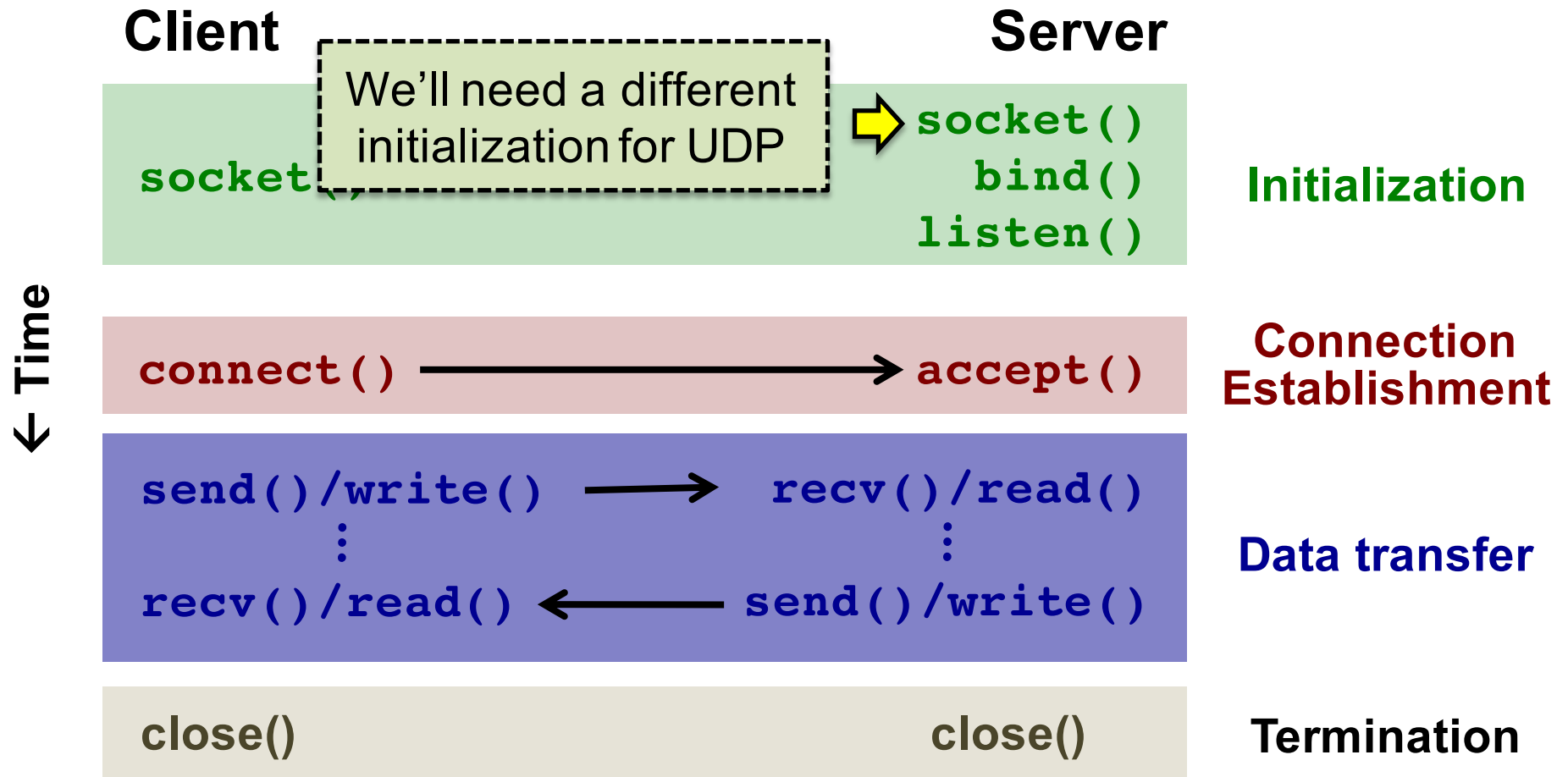
Termination at the server and client



- **close()** : closes the socket descriptor
- We cannot open files/sockets more than 1024*
 - We must release the resource after use
 - Super user can overcome this constraint, but regular user cannot



Scenario #2: Client-server datagrams





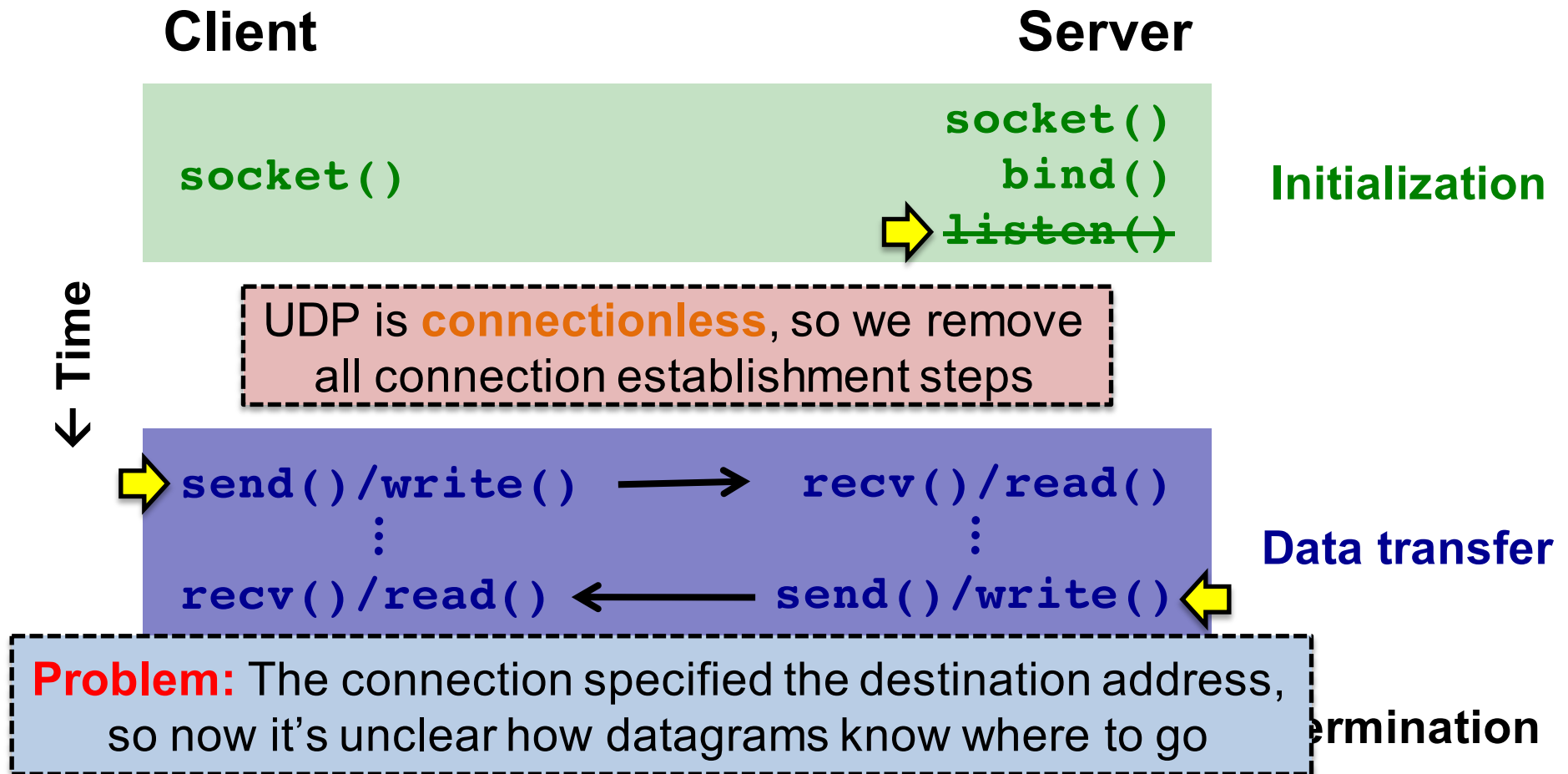
Initialization: UDP

```
int sock = socket(AF_INET, SOCK_DGRAM, 0);  
if (sock < 0) {  
    perror("socket failed");  
    abort();  
}
```

- UDP uses **SOCK_DGRAM** instead of **SOCK_STREAM**

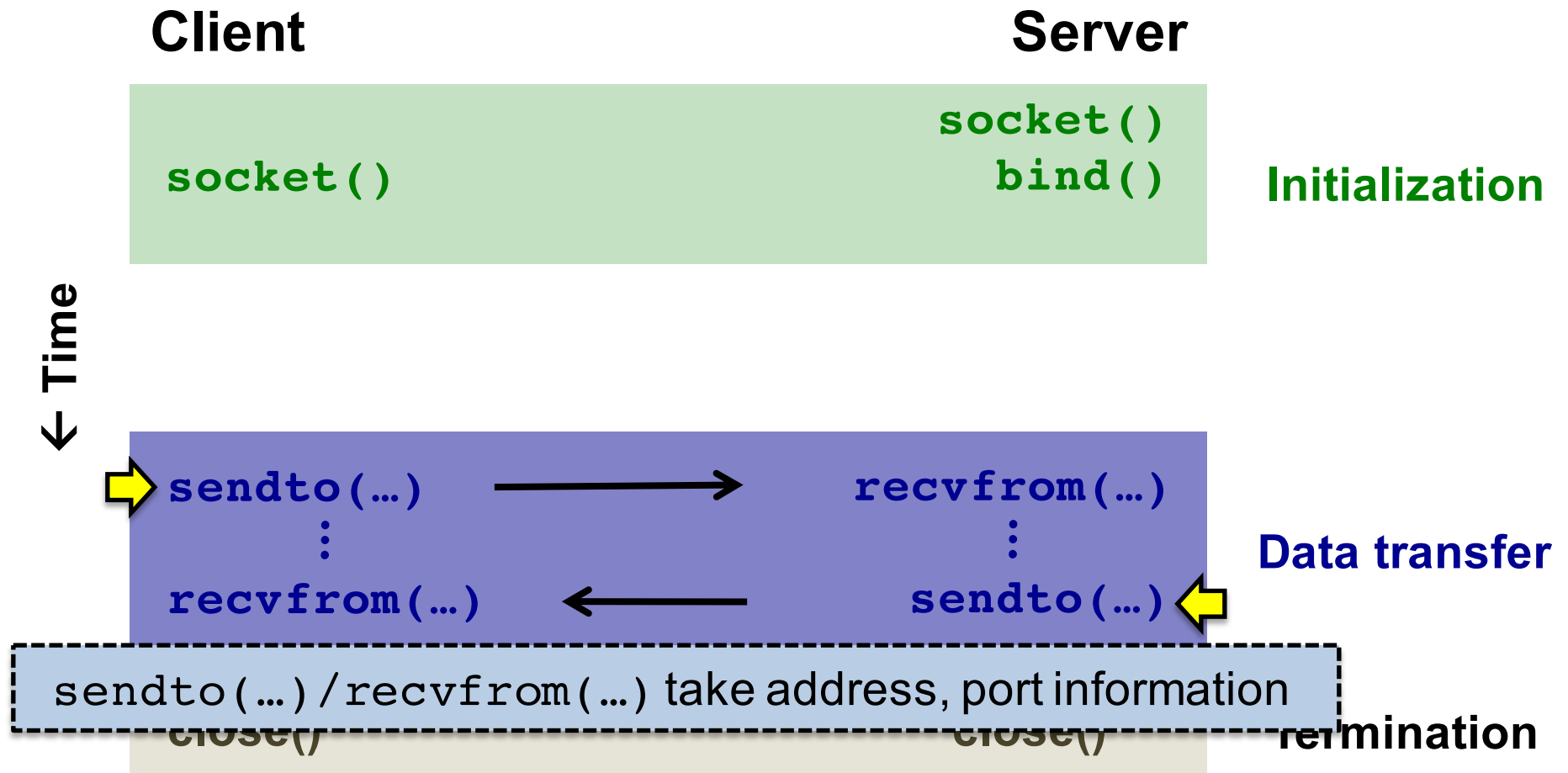


Scenario #2: Client-server datagrams





Scenario #2: Client-server datagrams





UDP send: sendto(...)

```
struct sockaddr_in sin;  
memset(&sin, 0, sizeof(sin));  
  
sin.sin_family = AF_INET;  
sin.sin_addr.s_addr = inet_addr("128.32.132.214");  
sin.sin_port = htons(1234);  
  
sent_bytes = sendto(sock, data, data_len, 0,  
                    (struct sockaddr*) &sin, sizeof(sin));  
if (sent_bytes < 0) {  
    perror("sendto failed");  
    abort();  
}
```

- **sendto(...)**: sends datagram to destination **address, port**
 - *cf.*, in TCP, we set destination when calling **connect()**
- As opposed to TCP, UDP packetizes data
 - So, sendto(...) either sends all the data or none



UDP receive: `recvfrom(...)`

```
struct sockaddr_in sin;  
int sin_len;  
char buffer[4096];  
  
int read_bytes = recvfrom(sock, buffer, sizeof(buffer), 0,  
                           (struct sockaddr *)&sin,  
                           &sin_len);  
  
if (read_bytes < 0) {  
    perror("recvfrom failed");  
    abort();  
}
```

- **recvfrom()**: reads datagram, sets source information
- Reading 0 bytes does not mean “connection closed” unlike TCP.
 - Recall UDP does not have a notion of “connection”.



API functions summary

TCP

- Initialization
 - `socket(AF_INET, SOCK_STREAM, 0)`
 - `setsockopt(sock, SOL_SOCKET, SO_REUSEADDR, ...)`
 - `bind()`
 - `listen()`
- Connection
 - `connect()`
 - `accept()`
- Data transfer
 - `send()`
 - `recv()`
- Termination
 - `close()`

UDP

- Initialization
 - `socket(AF_INET, SOCK_DGRAM, 0)`
 - `setsockopt(sock, SOL_SOCKET, SO_REUSEADDR, ...)`
 - `bind()`
- No connection
- Data transfer
 - `sendto()`
 - `recvfrom()`
- Termination
 - `close()`



How to handle multiple inputs?

- Many data sources, many sockets
 - e.g., busy web server, busy ssh server
- **Problem: asynchronous data arrival**
 - Program does not know when data will arrive on any socket!
 - If no data available, `recv(...)` blocks.
 - If blocked on one source, cannot handle other sources
 - e.g. a web server could not handle multiple connections
- Solutions
 - Polling using non-blocking socket → **Inefficient**
 - I/O multiplexing using `select()` → **Simple, performance(?)**
 - Multithreading → more complex, not covered today



Polling using non-blocking socket

- This approach **wastes CPU cycles**

```
// Fetch existing socket options
int opt = fcntl(sock, F_GETFL);
if (opt < 0) {
    perror("fcntl failed");
    abort();
}

// Update socket option with non-blocking option
if (fcntl(sock, F_SETFL, opt | O_NONBLOCK) < 0) {
    perror("fcntl failed");
    abort();
}

while (1) {
    int read_bytes = recv(sock, buffer, sizeof(buffer), 0);
    if (read_bytes < 0) {
        if (errno == EWOULDBLOCK) {
            // OK: Simply no data available now
        } else {
            perror("recv failed");
            abort();
        }
    } else { // read data here
    }
}
```



I/O multiplexing using select (...)

```
fd_set read_set;  
struct timeval timeout
```

```
FD_ZERO(&read_set);  
FD_SET(sock1, &read_set);  
FD_SET(sock2, &read_set);  
timeout.tv_sec = 0;  
timeout.tv_usec = 5000;
```

Initializes arguments
for select()

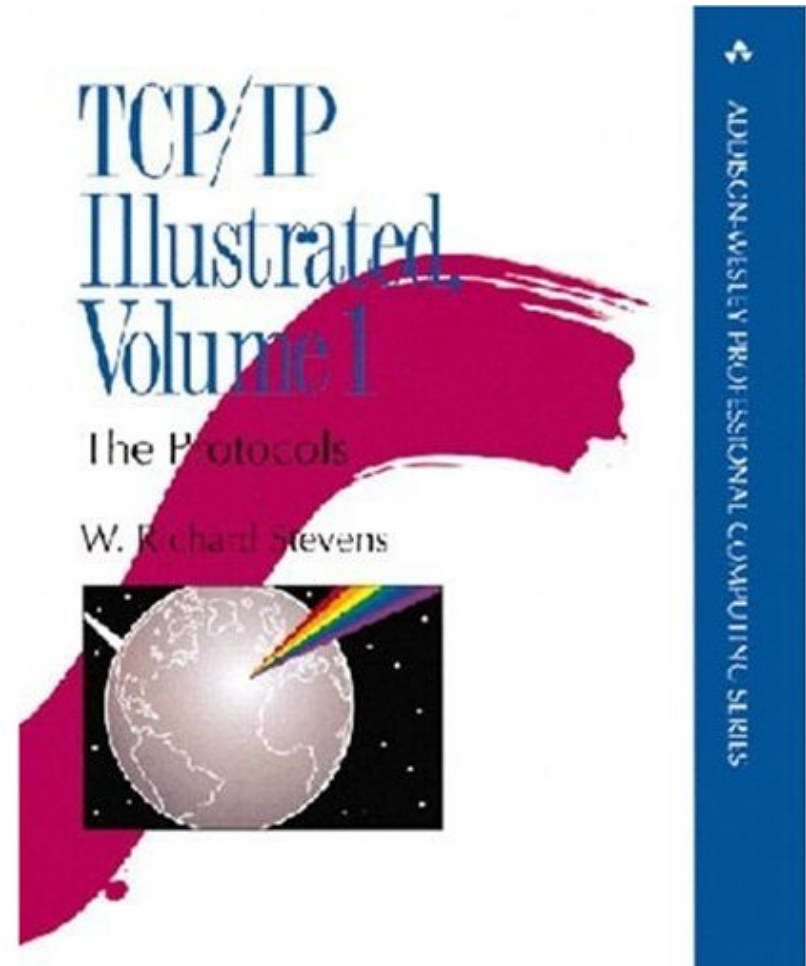
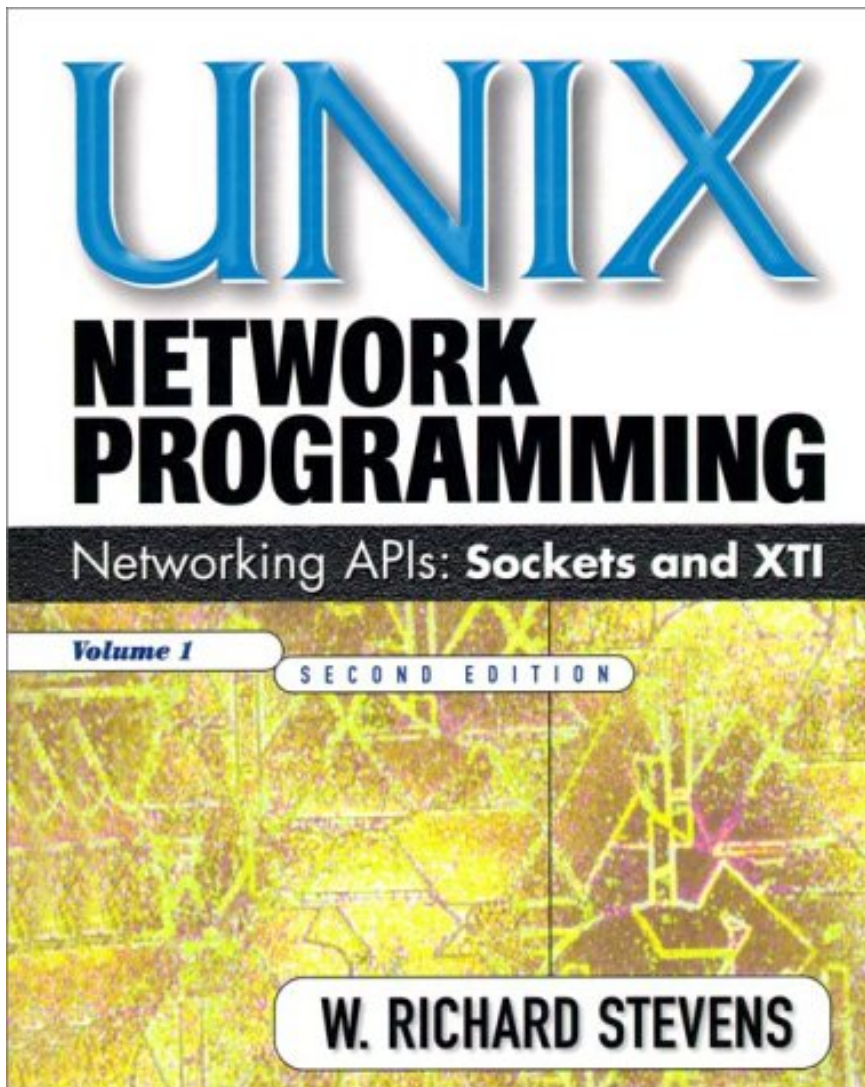
```
while (1) {  
    // the following blocks until >= 1 fd is ready for reading  
    if (select(MAX(sock1, sock2) + 1, &read_set, NULL,  
              NULL, &time_out) < 0) {  
        perror("select failed");  
        abort();  
    }
```

Pass NULL instead of
&timeout if you want
to wait indefinitely

```
    if (FD_ISSET(sock1, &read_set)) {  
        // sock1 has data  
    }  
    if (FD_ISSET(sock2, &read_set)) {  
        // sock2 has data  
    }  
}
```

Check for I/O events
and act accordingly

For further information



Today



1. The UNIX Socket API

2. Remote Procedure Call

3. Introduction to Wireless Communications

Straw man: Writing a distributed application with sockets



Client

```
def main:  
    balance = acctBalance(id)  
    print balance
```

```
def acctBalanceStub:  
    msg ← id  
    send request  
    (wait for reply)  
    balance ← reply  
    return balance
```

Server

```
def acctBalance(id)  
    ...  
    return balance
```

```
def acctBalanceStub  
    wait for request  
    id ← request  
    balance = acctBalance(id)  
    reply ← balance  
    (send reply)
```



Remote Procedure Call (RPC)

- Within a single program, running in a single process, there is a well-known notion of **function call**:
 - **Caller** pushes arguments onto stack,
 - jumps to address of **callee** function
 - **Callee** reads arguments from stack,
 - executes, puts return value in register,
 - returns to next instruction in caller
- RPC aims to make communication in a **distributed** system appear just like **a local procedure call**



The RPC abstraction

- Library makes an API available to locally running applications
- Let servers **export** their local APIs to be accessible over the network, as well
- On the **client**, procedure call generates request over network to server
- On the **server**, the called procedure executes, result returned in response to client



Implementing RPC

- Data **types** may be **different sizes** on different machines (e.g., 32-bit vs. 64-bit integers)
- Data may have **different endian-ness** on different machines
- Need mechanism to pass procedure parameters and return values in **machine-independent fashion**
- Solution: **Interface Description Language (IDL)**



Interface Description Languages

- Compile interface description, produces:
 - Types in native language (e.g., Java, C, C++)
 - Code to marshal native data types into machine-neutral byte streams for network (and vice-versa)
 - Stub routines on client to forward local procedure calls as requests to server
- For Sun RPC, IDL is **XDR** (eXternal Data Representation)



Defining a wire format with Sun XDR

proto.x:

```
acctBalanceFormat {  
    request {  
        u_int64_t id;  
    };  
    response {  
        u_int32_t balance;  
    };  
} = 837501;
```



SUN XDR example

- Define API for procedure calls between client and server in XDR file, e.g., **proto.x**
- Compile: **rpcgen proto.x**, producing:
 - **proto.h**: RPC procedure prototypes, argument and return value data structure definitions
 - **proto_clnt.c**: client stub code to send RPC requests to remote server
 - **proto_svc.c**: server stub code to receive and dispatch RPC request to specified procedure
 - **proto_xdr.c**: argument and result marshaling/unmarshaling, host $\leftrightarrow$ network byte order conversion



Modern RPC: Google protobufs

- Goals (per Jeff Dean):
 - Self-describing, multiple language support
 - Efficient to encode/decode, compact serialized form

```
message SearchResult {  
  required int32 estimated_results = 1;  
  optional string error_message = 2;  
  repeated group Result = 3 {  
    required float score = 4;  
    required fixed64 docid = 5;  
    optional message<WebResultDetails> = 6;  
  };  
};
```

- Unique tags specify fields in message binary format
- Forward/backward compatibility: ignore new fields when parsing



Google Protobufs

- Automatically generated language wrappers
- Graceful client and server upgrades
 - Systems ignore tags they don't understand, but pass the information through (no need to upgrade intermediate servers)
- Serialization/deserialization
 - Lots of performance work here, benefits all users of protocol buffers, e.g., Snappy/Zippy compression
 - Format used to store data persistently (not just for RPCs): No need to convert between formats

Today



1. The UNIX Socket API

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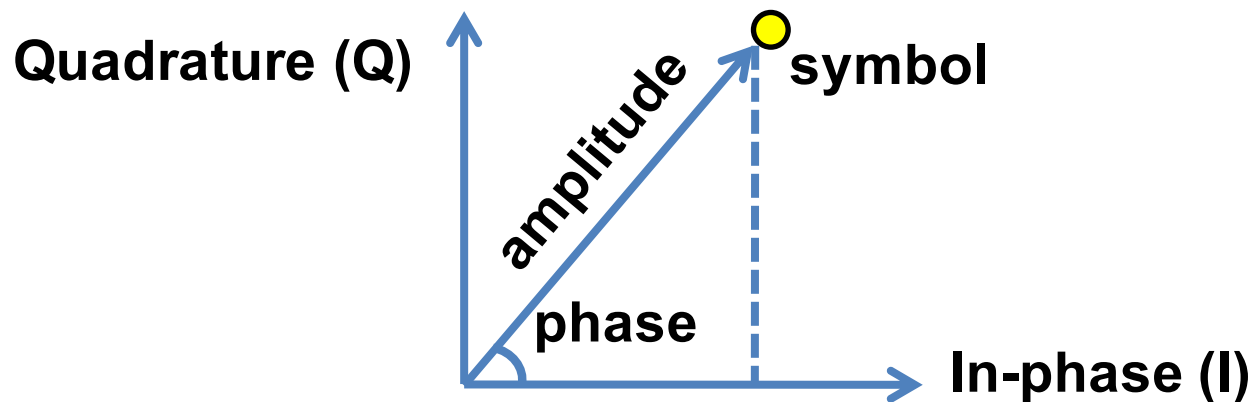
3. Introduction to Wireless Communications

- “Sensor hints” paper



What is modulation?

- To **modulate** means to **change**. Change what?
 - The **amplitude** and **phase (i.e., angle)** of a **carrier signal**
 - For 802.11 WiFi local area networks, this carrier signal is usually at 2.4 GHz or 5 GHz

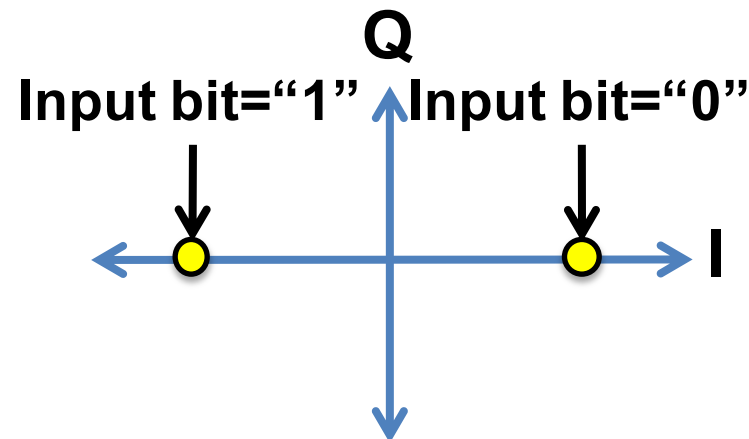


- **Digital modulation:** Use only a finite set of choices (*i.e., symbols*) for how to change the carrier and phase
 - Transmitter and receiver agree upon the symbols beforehand



From information bits to symbols...

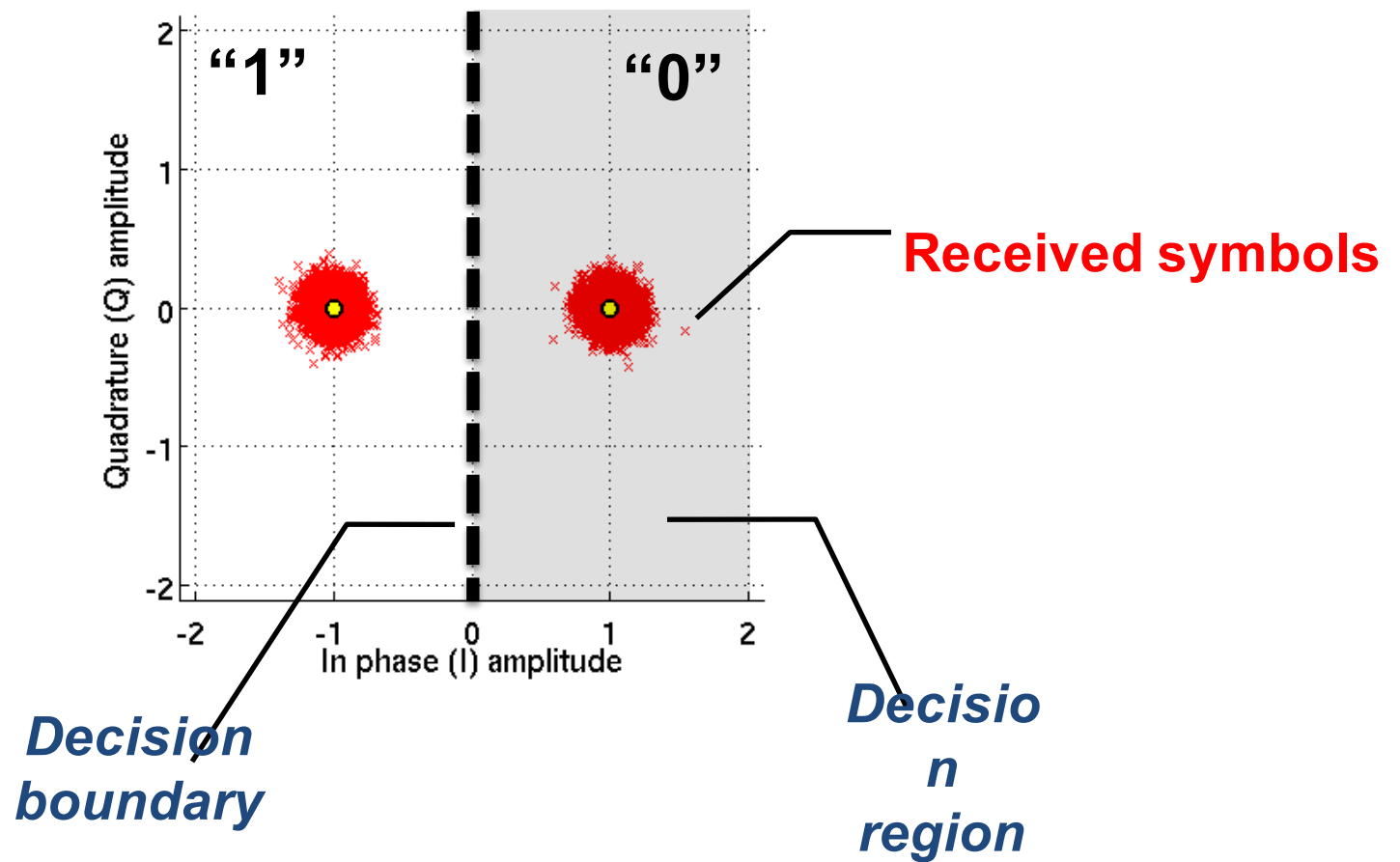
- Simplest possible scheme
 - Pick two symbols (**binary**)
 - The information bit decides which symbol you transmit
 - **Phase shift** of 180 degrees between the two symbols
 - So, this is called *binary phase shift keying*
 - **Sending rate:** $\log_2 2 = 1$ bit/symbol



...and back to bits!



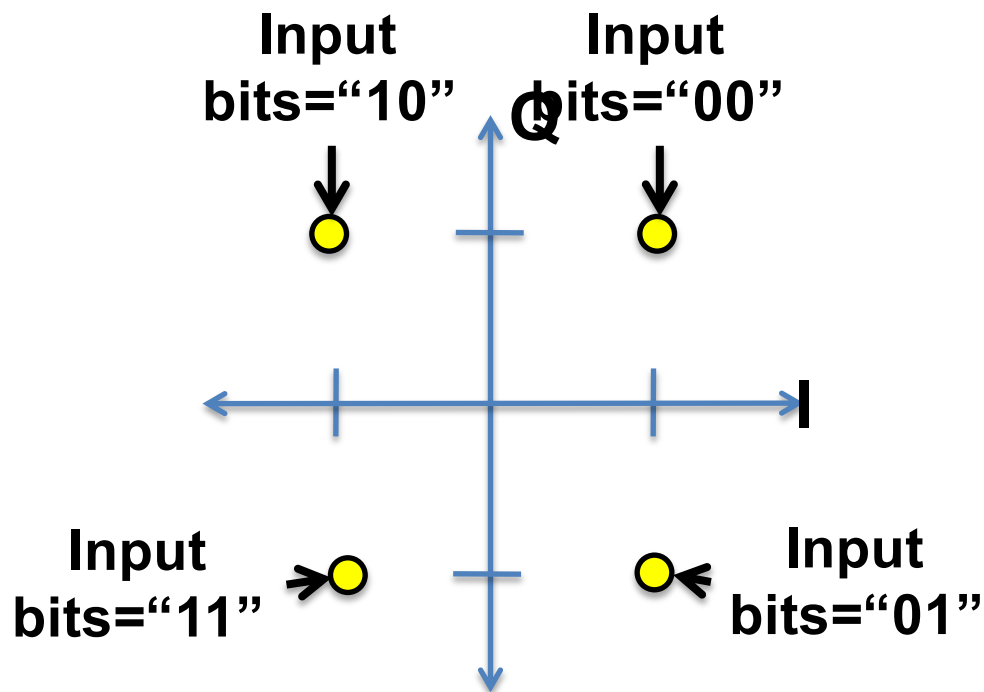
Received BPSK constellation



From information bits to symbols, twice as fast



Quadrature phase shift keying (QPSK)

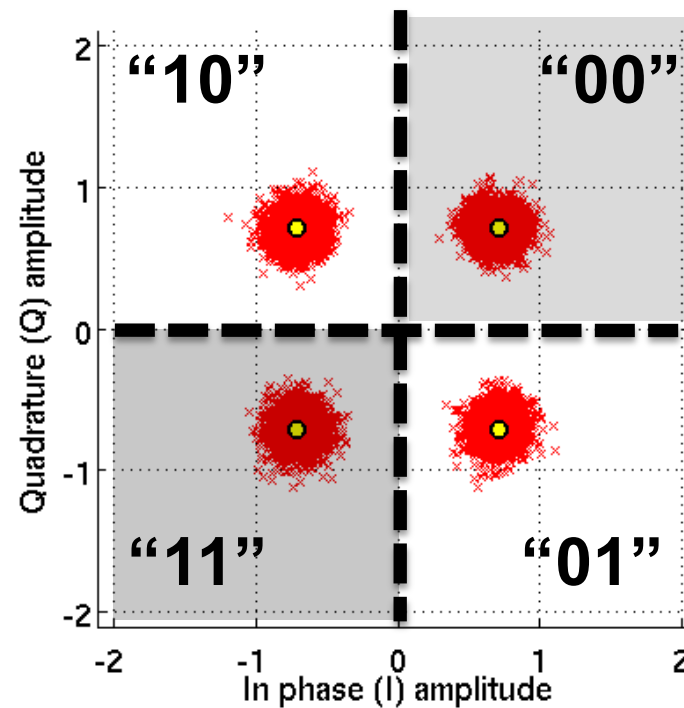


Sending $\log_2 4 = 2$ bits/symbol

...and back to bits, twice as fast!



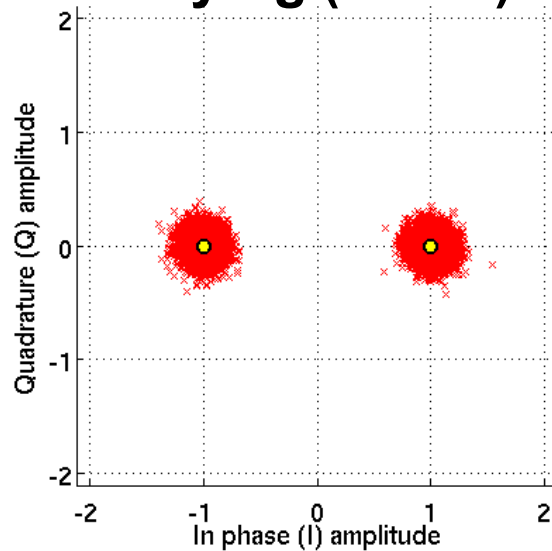
Received QPSK constellation



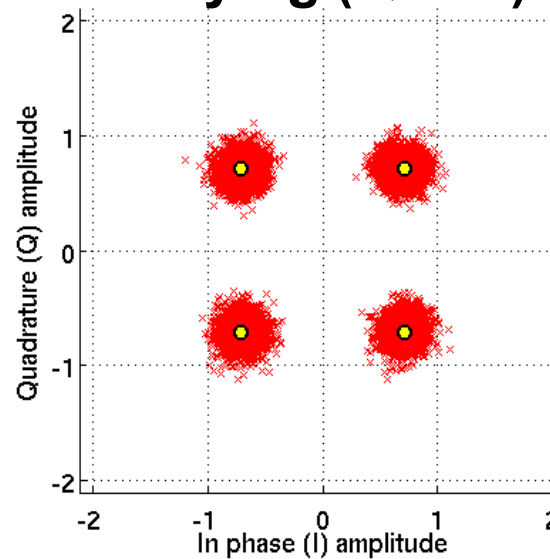
Change modulations, increase bitrate



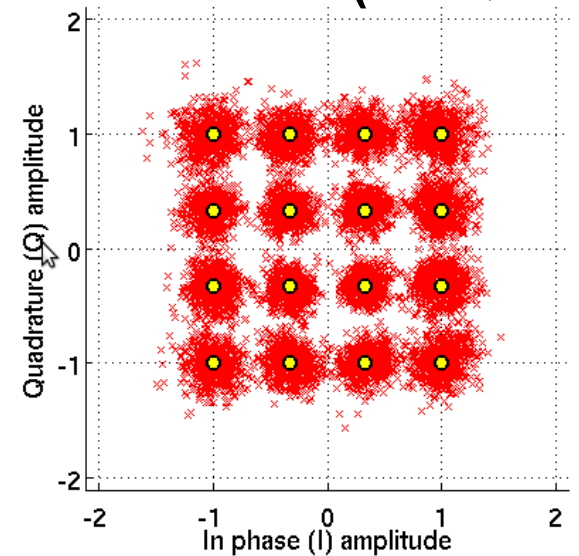
Binary Phase-Shift Keying (BPSK)



Quadrature Phase-Shift Keying (QPSK)



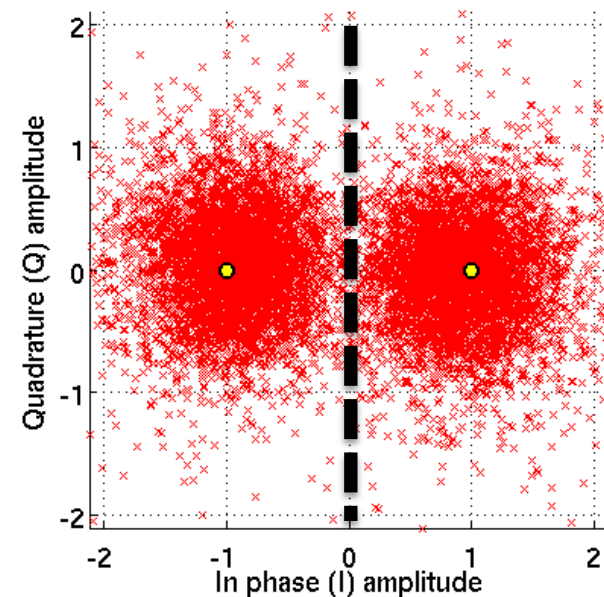
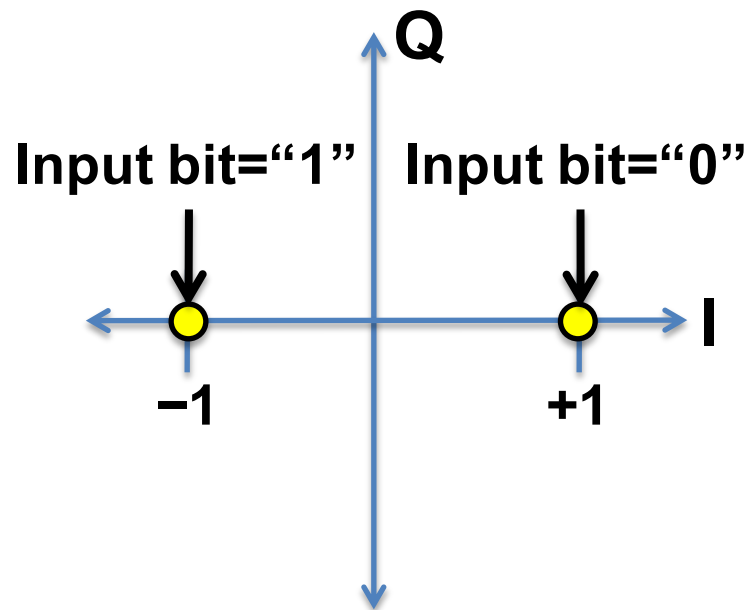
16-Quadrature Amplitude Modulation (16-QAM)





The wireless channel

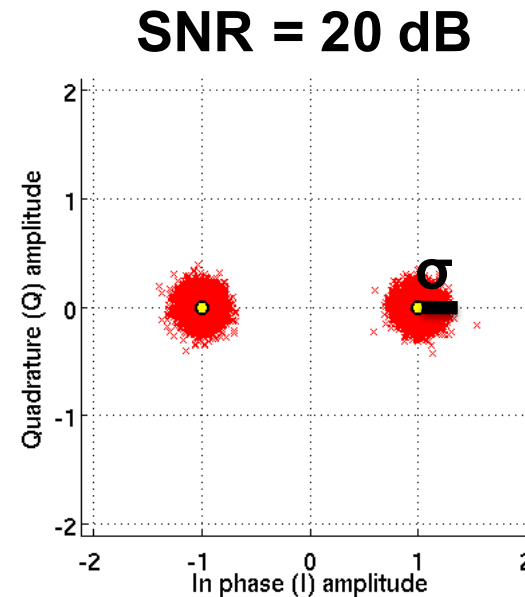
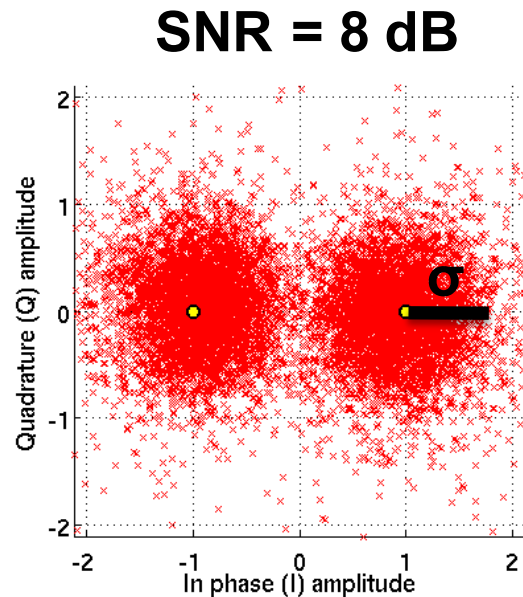
Transmitted signal reception: $r(t) = s(t) + n(t)$





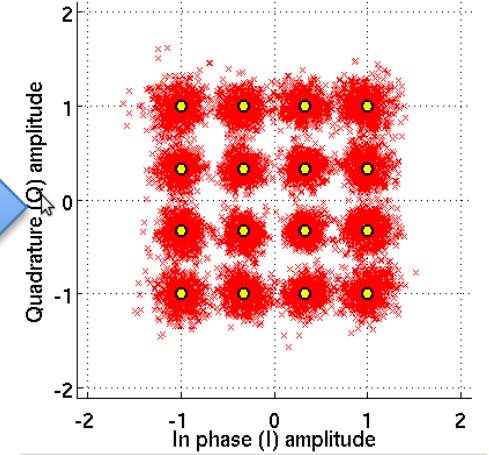
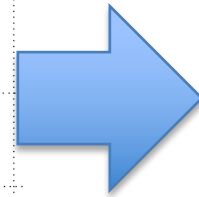
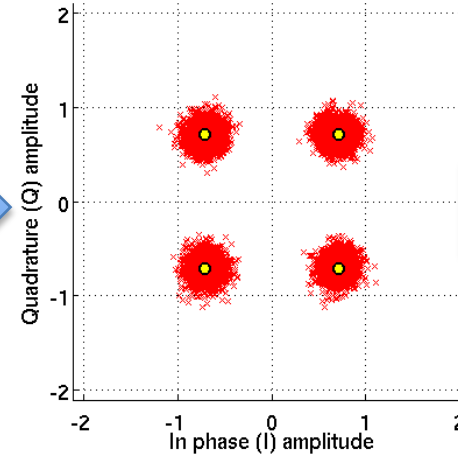
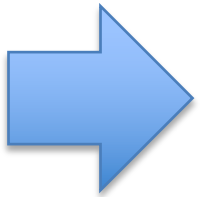
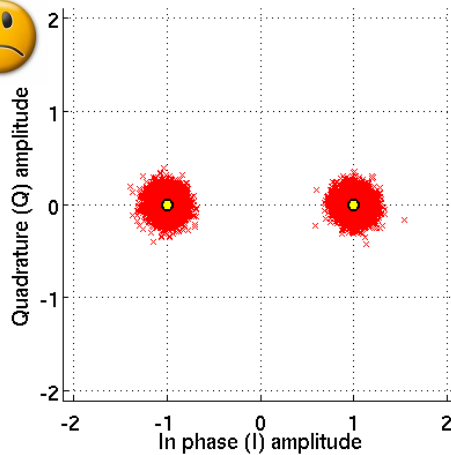
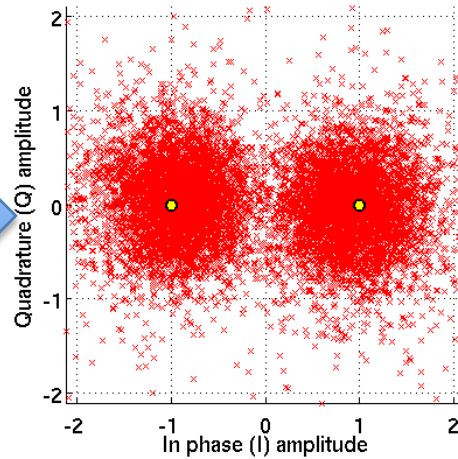
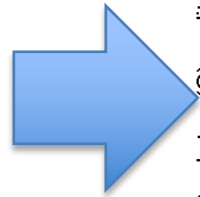
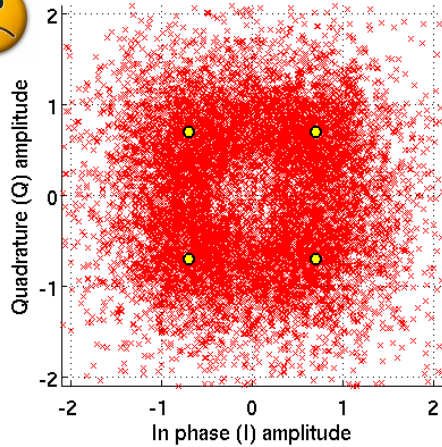
Signal to noise ratio (SNR)

- **Signal to noise ratio:** The ratio of the power of the signal to the power of the noise
 - Measured in **decibels (dB)**: 10 times $\log_{10}$ of a quantity



$$\begin{aligned}\text{SNR (dB)} &= 10 \log_{10} (\text{signal power} / \text{noise power}) \\ &= 10 \log_{10} (1^2 / \sigma^2) \quad (\text{assuming Gaussian noise}) \\ &= -20 \log_{10} \sigma\end{aligned}$$

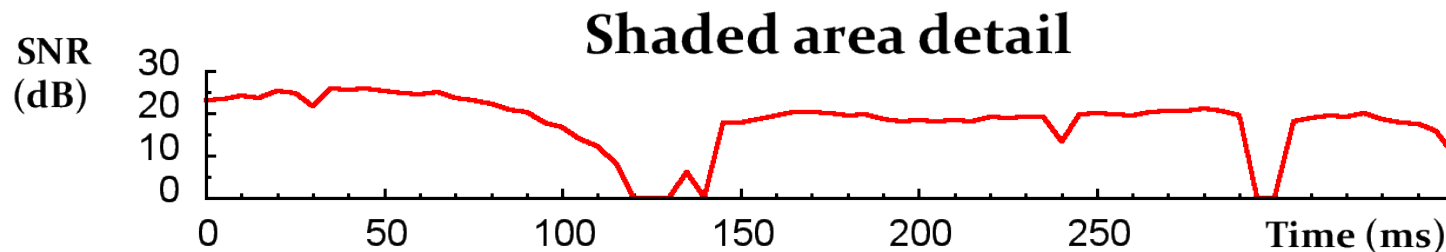
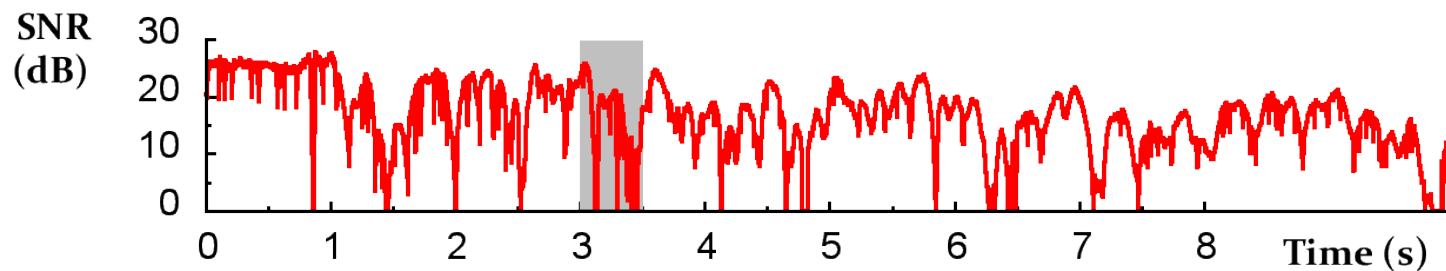
Modulation adaptation



The wireless channel varies quickly and unpredictably



- Walking speed wireless trace measuring SNR



- Fades last just tens of milliseconds
- Fades are large in magnitude (> 20 dB difference)



Channel coherence time

Transmit
antenna

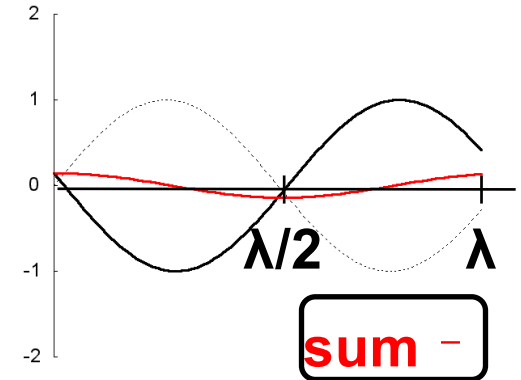
Receiver
antenna

d

$r(t)$

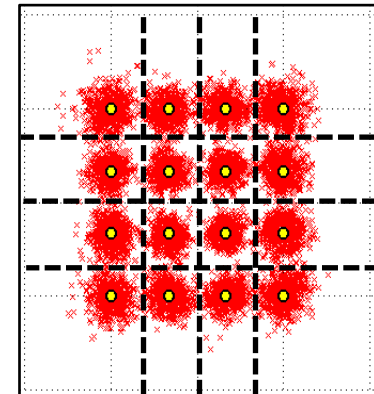
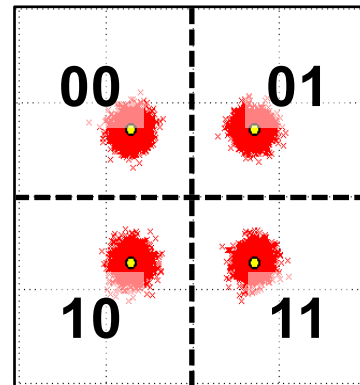
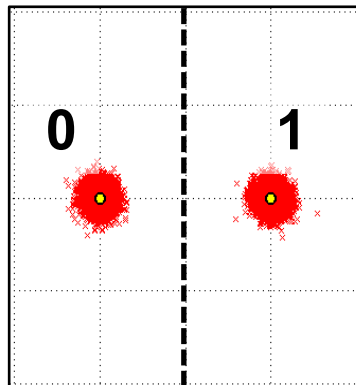
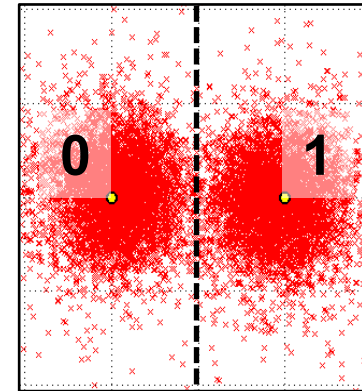
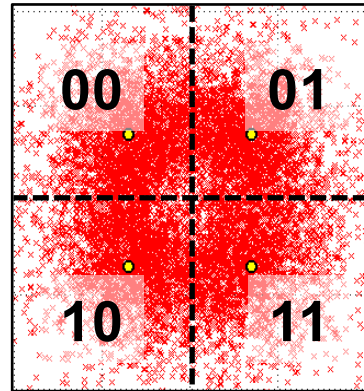
Wall

v



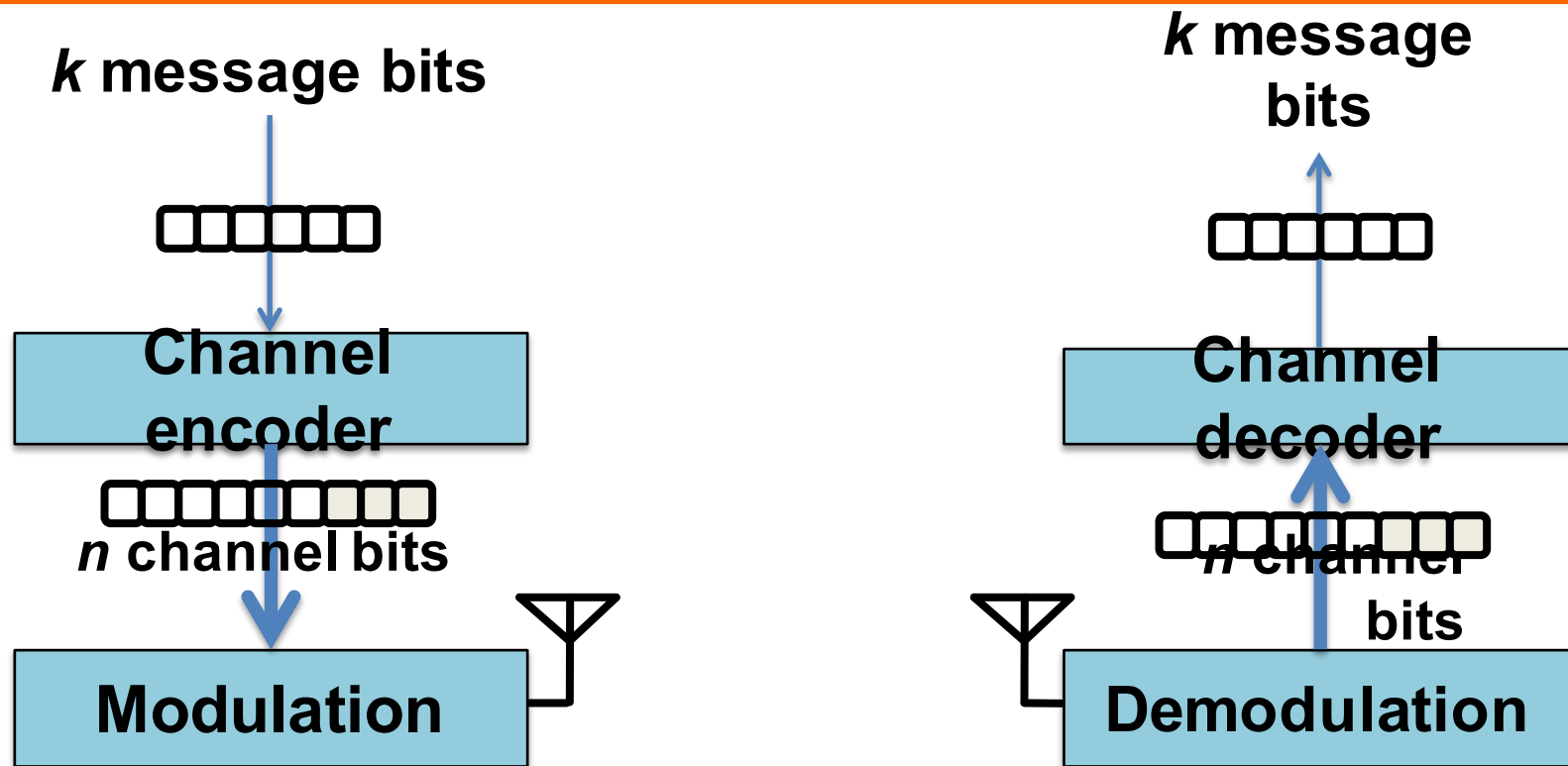
- Sender transmits the wireless signal at carrier frequency $f = c / \lambda$
 - Speed of light: c ; Wavelength of the signal: λ
- **Change in path length difference** of $\lambda/2$ moves from **constructive** to **destructive** interference
 - Receiver movement of $\lambda/4$: **coherence distance**
 - Time it takes to move a coherence distance: **coherence time**
 - Walking speed @ 2.4 GHz: ≈ 15 milliseconds

Current approach: Modulation adaptation



Metric: Signal-to-noise power ratio (SNR)

Current approach: Coding adaptation



Current approaches adapt a fixed code rate: $\frac{k}{n}$

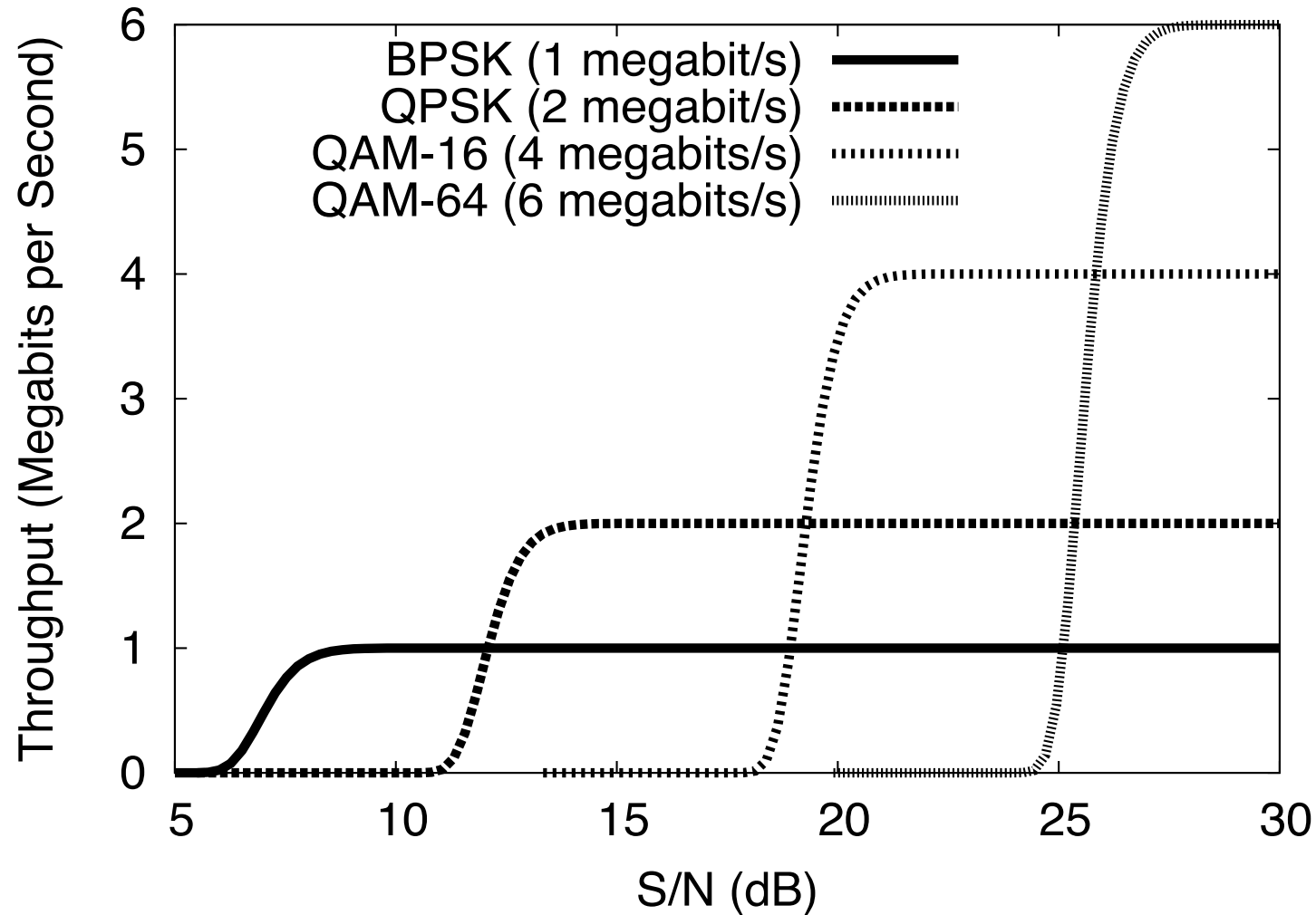
Lower code rate $\Rightarrow$ more parity bits $\Rightarrow$ more redundancy

WiFi bit rates change code rate, modulation



Bit-rate	802.11 Standards	DSSS or OFDM	Modulation	Bits per Symbol	Coding Rate	Mega-Symbols per second
1	b	DSSS	BPSK	1	1/11	11
2	b	DSSS	QPSK	2	1/11	11
5.5	b	DSSS	CCK	1	4/8	11
11	b	DSSS	CCK	2	4/8	11
6	a/g	OFDM	BPSK	1	1/2	12
9	a/g	OFDM	BPSK	1	3/4	12
12	a/g	OFDM	QPSK	2	1/2	12
18	a/g	OFDM	QPSK	2	3/4	12
24	a/g	OFDM	QAM-16	4	1/2	12
36	a/g	OFDM	QAM-16	4	3/4	12
48	a/g	OFDM	QAM-64	6	2/3	12
54	a/g	OFDM	QAM-64	6	3/4	12

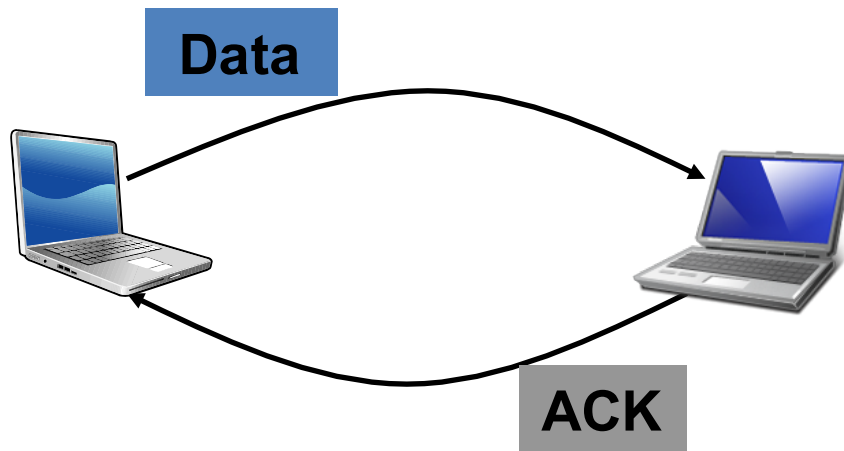
Fixed-rate codes *require* channel adaptation



Existing rate adaptation algorithms



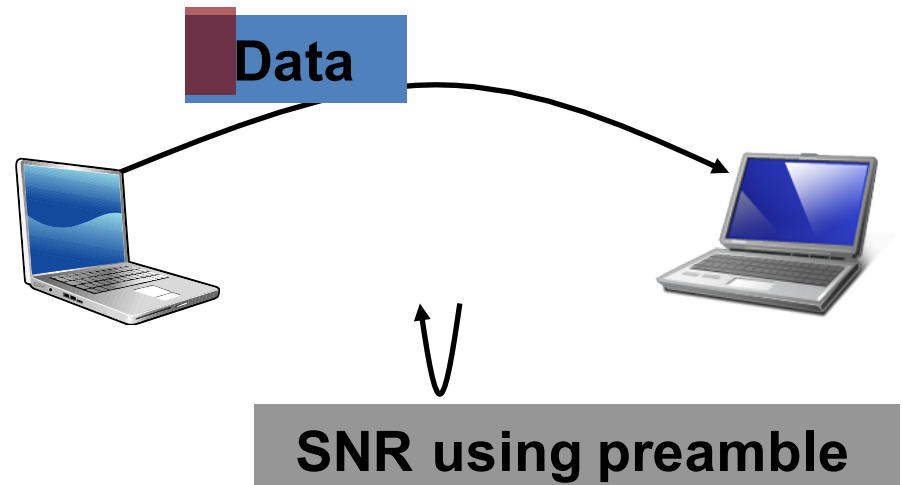
Frame-based



Estimate frame loss rate
at each bit rate

- **RRAA**, Wong *et al.*, 2006.
- **SampleRate**, Bicket, 2005.
- **ARF**, ONOE

SNR/BER-based



Lookup table:
SNR/BER → best rate

- **RBAR**, Holland *et al.*, 2001.
- **CHARM**, Judd *et al.*, 2008.
- **SoftRate**, Vutukuru *et al.*, 2009

SENSOR HINTS DISCUSSION