

1

Packet Delay

1. Packet Delay

❖ **Bandwidth delay**

- The time needed for a sender to get the packet onto the wire.
- Ex: 1500-byte packet on 100 Mbps Ethernet,
  - Bandwidth delay =  $\frac{12\,000\text{ bits}}{\frac{100\text{ bits}}{\mu s}} = 120\text{ }\mu s$ .

❖ **Propagation delay**

- The time it takes for the head of the signal to travel from the sender to the receiver.
- The distance divided by the  $x$  speed of light.

1. Packet Delay

Medium	Propagation speed
Thick Coax	0.77c (231,000 km/sec)
Thin Coax	0.65c (195,000 km/sec)
Twisted Pair	0.59c (177,000 km/sec)
Fiber	0.66c (198,000 km/sec)

❖ **Propagation delay**

- The time it takes for the head of the signal to travel from the sender to the receiver.
- The distance divided by the  $x$  speed of light.
- Ex: 1,000 m of Ethernet using twisted pair
  - Propagation delay = \_\_\_\_\_ =  $\mu s$ .

## 1. Packet Delay

### ❖Store-and-forward delay

- The time spent reading in the entire packet before any of it can be retransmitted.

### ❖Queuing delay

- Depend on competing traffic and/or the system specifications.
  - Other words, is a delay based on how long the packet has to stay around in the intermediate device (e.g., router).

## 1. Packet Delay

### ❖Delay examples.

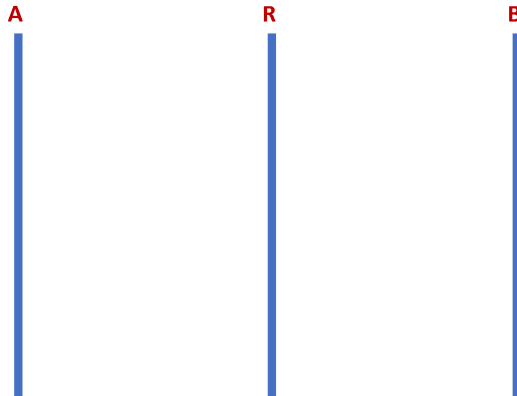
- Case 1: A-----B
  - Propagation delay is 40  $\mu\text{sec}$
  - Bandwidth is 1 byte/ $\mu\text{sec}$  (1 MB/sec, 8 Mbit/sec)
  - Packet size is 200 bytes (200  $\mu\text{sec}$  bandwidth delay)
  - One-way transmit time =  $\mu\text{sec}$



## 1. Packet Delay

### ❖Delay examples.

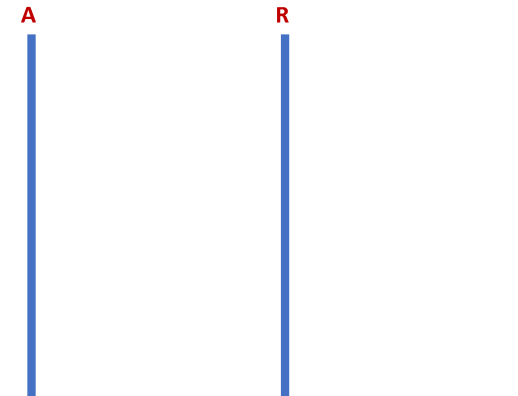
- Case 2: A ----- R ----- B
  - Two links, each with propagation delay 40  $\mu\text{sec}$ ; bandwidth and packet size as in Case 1.
  - One-way transmit time =  $\mu\text{sec}$



## 1. Packet Delay

### ❖Delay examples.

- Case 3: A ----- R ----- B
  - The same as 3, but with data sent as two 100-byte packets.
  - One-way transmit time =  $\mu\text{sec}$



## 1. Packet Delay

### ❖ Round-trip time (RTT)

- At most non-LAN scales, the delay is typically simplified to the RTT.
  - The time between sending a packet and receiving a response.
- Different delay scenarios have implications for protocols:
  - If a **network is bandwidth-limited** then protocols are easier to design. Extra RTTs do not cost much, so we can build in a considerable amount of back-and-forth exchange.
  - However, if a **network is delay-limited**, the protocol designer must focus on minimizing extra RTTs.
    - As an extreme case, consider wireless transmission to the moon (0.3 sec RTT), or to Jupiter (1 hour RTT).

## 1. Packet Delay

### ❖ Bandwidth x Delay

- Represents how much we can send before we hear anything back.
- (Delay: usually involving RTT)
- Ex:

RTT	bandwidth	bandwidth × delay
1 ms	10 Mbps	1.2 kB
100 ms	1.5 Mbps	20 kB
100 ms	600 Mbps	8 MB
100 ms	1.5 Gbps	20 MB

## 1. Packet Delay

### ❖ Packet Delay Variability

#### ➤ RTT is variable.

- On Ethernet and Wi-Fi networks there is an initial "contention period" before transmission actually begins.
- Different packets are routed via slightly different paths
- Or are handled differently by different queues of a parallel-processing switch.
- Mobile nodes are involved, then the distance and thus the propagation delay can change.

## 1. Packet Delay

### ❖ Link's bandwidth, too, can vary dynamically.

- Shared bandwidth
- QoS (Quality of Service)
  - E.g., routers reserve a varying amount of bandwidth for
    - High-priority traffic
    - Depending on demand
    - Best-effort traffic

## 1. Packet Delay

### ❖ Link's bandwidth, too, can vary dynamically.

- $RTT_{noLoad}$  to be the time it takes to transmit a packet from A to B, and receive an acknowledgment back, with no queuing delay.
- We will usually assume that  $RTT_{noLoad}$  is fixed and well-defined.

## 2

## Packet Size

## 2. Packet Size

### ❖ How big should packets be?

- Should they be large (e.g., 64 kB)
- or small (e.g., 48 bytes)?
- Large packets would not allow other senders timely access to transmit.
- Large packets waste a smaller percentage of bandwidth on headers.
- In store-and-forward switches, smaller packets have much better throughput.

## 2. Packet Size

### ❖ Packet Size vs. Error Rates

- For relatively high error rates, it turns out to be better to send smaller packet, because when an error does occur then the entire packet containing it is lost.
  - Choose the packet size small enough that most packets do not encounter errors.
- To be fair, very large packets can be sent reliably on most cable links (e.g., TDM and SONET). Wireless, however, is more of a problem.

## 2. Packet Size

### ❖ Packet Size vs. Real-Time Traffic

- It is common to commingle bulk traffic on the same links with real-time traffic.
  - Real-time traffic has higher priority than bulk traffic.
    - Router does not begin forwarding a bulk-traffic packet if there are any real-time packets waiting.
    - However, once a bulk-traffic packet has begun transmission, it is impractical to interrupt it.

### ❖ Limited to the maximum Ethernet packet size.

- IPv4: 1500 bytes
- IPv6: 2 MB

## 3

## Error Detection

## 3. Error Detection

### ❖ Packet error detection is to add some extra bits (or called error-detection code)

- Allow the receiver to determine if the packet has been corrupted in transit.

### ❖ A corrupted packet will then be discarded by the receiver.

### ❖ Reasons:

- Low-frequency bit errors due to things like cosmic rays.
- Interference errors, typically generated by nearby electrical equipment.

## 3. Error Detection

### ❖ Single parity bit: this will catch all one-bit errors.

#### ➤ Ex:

- Data: **1001**
  - $\rightarrow \text{parity bit} = 1 \oplus 0 \oplus 0 \oplus 1 = 0$
- Send: **10010**
- Receive: 10110
  - $\rightarrow \text{Check: } 1 \oplus 0 \oplus 1 \oplus 1 \oplus 0 = 1 \neq 0$
  - $\rightarrow$  Data is corrupted.

### 3. Error Detection

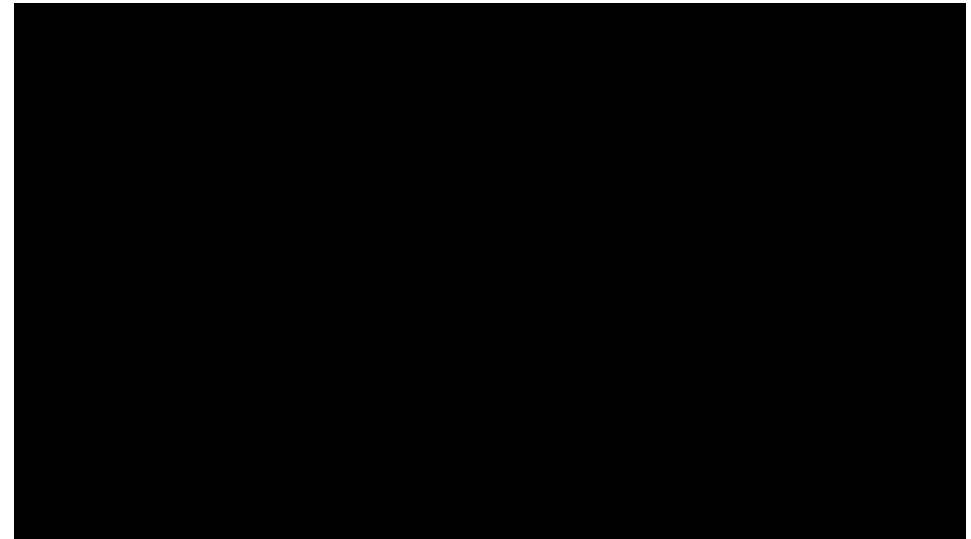
❖ **Internet checksum**: used by IP, TCP and UDP

- Taking the **one's-complement sum** of the 16-bit words of the message.
  - One's-complement sum: take the sum  $A+B$ . If there is an overflow bit, add it back in as low-order bit.
- A weakness of any error-detecting code based on sums is that transposing words leads to the same sum, and the error is not detected.
  - In particular, if a message is fragmented and the fragments are reassembled in the wrong order, the ones-complement sum will likely not detect it.

### 3. Error Detection

❖ **Cyclical Redundancy Check (CRC)**

- Ethernet frame.



### 3. Error Detection

❖ **Error-Correcting Codes (also called forward error correction)**

- That allows the receiver in many cases to figure out which bits are corrupted, and fix them.
- Mostly used in the Physical layer.

### QA

