INF3190 - Data Communication Physical Layer

Carsten Griwodz Email: <u>griff@ifi.uio.no</u>

with slides from: Ralf Steinmetz, TU Darmstadt



University of Oslo

and/or data switching centers

Characteristics

mechanical.

functional and

electrical.

procedural

Using **physical connections**, the physical layer ensures

Data Circuit Terminating Equipment (DCE, "postal socket")

the transfer of a transparent bitstream

Data Terminal Equipment (DTE) and

between data link layer-entities

A physical connection permits transfer of a **bitstream** in the modes

ISO DEFINITION: the physical layer provides the following features:

to initiate, maintain and terminate physical connections between

- duplex or
- semi-duplex

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Ralf Steinmetz, Technische Universität Darmstadt

INF3190 – Data Communication



Mechanical



Electrical



e.g. .. "

- designed for IC Technology
- balanced generator
- differential receiver
- two conductors per circuit
- signal rate up to 10 Mbps
- distance: 1000m (at appr. 100 Kbps) to10m (at 10Mbps)
- considerably reduced crosstalk
- interoperable with V.10 / X.26 ..."

Functional, Procedural



Example RS-232-C, functional specification describes

- connection between pins
 - e.g. "zero modem" computer-computer-connection (Transmit(2) - Receive(3))
- meaning of the signals on the lines
 - DTR=1, when the computer is active, DSR=1, modem is active, ...
 - Action/reaction pairs specify the permitted sequence per event
 - e. g. when the computer sends an RTS, the modern responds with a CTS when it is ready to receive data

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Physical Layers



But how do we get **bits** into these cables?



Part 1: Basic terminology

- Frequency
- Period
- Amplitude
- Phase
- Wavelength
- Bandwidth
- Baseband
- Passband

- Nyquist's bit rate
- Shannon's capacity





periodic analog signal

it's Fourier transformation expresses it in terms of frequency and amplitude

(peak) **amplitude** of the signal: value of highest intensity, proportional to the energy carried: *here 1V*



period of the wave: amount of time to complete a wave: *here 1s* ⇔

frequency: the number of waves per seconds (Hz): here 1Hz

Signaling

The Fourier Series approximates any signal as a sum of sine functions. Here: only 1 sine function => need only 1 element of a Fourier series to describe it:

 $S_{A,f}(t) = A \times \sin(2\pi f t)$

it's Fourier transformation expresses it in terms of frequency and amplitude



Frequency





[simula . research laboratory]

Amplitude



Amplitude



Phase: position of the waveform relative to time O





Phases



Phases





Phases of frequency O



Wavelength

The distance in meters (milli,micro,nano) between identical position of the wave (e.g.: peak amplitude) after one period (1/frequency).



 λ : wavelength (in meter)

$$\lambda = \frac{v}{f}$$

where

v: speed of a wave in a medium (meter/second) f: frequency (1/second)



Wavelength

The distance in meters (milli,micro,nano) between identical position of the wave (e.g.: peak amplitude) after one period (1/frequency).

v for light in vacuum: 299 792 458 m/s

f for red light: 400–484 THz (10¹²Hz)

 λ of red light in vacuum: 619-749 nm $_{(10^9m)}$

 λ : wavelength (in meter)

$$\lambda = \frac{v}{f}$$

where

v: speed of a wave in a medium (meter/second) f: frequency (1/second)

Analog information coding



Receivers transform back to information

- derive their Fourier series parameters A and f at the receiving end
- derive Φ from a known time base



Coding digital information with analog signal





Sampling rate > 2 highest frequency



Data rate vs. signaling rate

Signaling rate:

number of times per time unit (second) the signal parameter may change $v_{\rm S}$, measured in bauds (1/s), symbols/second

Data rate:

number of bits transmitted per time unit (second)

 v_B , measured in bits per second (bit/s)

How many bits per symbol, i.e. $v_{S} \leftrightarrow v_{B:}$

- **1**. binary signal: $v_B = v_S$
- 2. synchronization, clock, redundancy part of encoding: $v_B < v_S$
- 3. one symbol carries several bits (eg.: 00, 01, 10, 11): $v_B > v_S$
 - for symbol with n values: v_B = v_S floor(log₂(n))
 - common: n = 2 (binary/bit), 3 (ternary), 4 (quarternary/DIBIT)
 - 8 (octonary/TRIBIT), 10 (denary)

Baud Rate and Bit Rate



two bits per symbol, allows binary code 00->00, 01->01, 10->10, 11->11

BAUD RATE

measure of number of symbols (characters) transmitted per unit of time

- signal speed, number of signal changes per second:
 - changes in amplitude, frequency, phase
- each symbol normally consist of a number of bits
- so the baud rate will only be the same as the bit rate when there is one bit per symbol



9 states but 8 binary values: three bits per symbol 00->000, 01->001, 02->010, 10->011, 11->100, 12->101, 20->110, 21->111

BIT RATE

number of bits transferred per second (bps)

- bit rate may be higher than baud rate ("signal speed")
- because one signal value may transfer several bits
- e.g. above same baud rate, different bit rate (if x has have same dimension)







Bandwidth



Digital information coding *(approach 1)*

Indirect transmission of digital signals

- approximate signaling flanks by composition of harmonic frequencies and amplitudes
- allows to restrict between upper and lower frequencies
- used bandwidth (max frequency min frequency)
- "can be restricted within a band"

Digital information coding (approach 1)



Digital information coding (approach 2)

Direct transmission of digital signals

- presence of absence of voltage indicates bits 1 and 0
- is received as a distorted, composite signal
- read voltage (amplitude) directly
- separate time base
- ignore frequency and phase
 - and their potential for carrying information

Digital information coding (approach 2)



Digital information coding (approach 2)



Bandwidth



Includes frequencies very close to O

Typical for electrical signals over cables

Can be used with approaches 1 and 2

A range of frequencies that is isolated for processing through a bandpass filter

Necessary for wireless channels Typical for optical cables

Can be used with approach 1



2000

3000

1000

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0

4000



Maximum data rate that can be transmitted over a noiseless channel



Nyquist's theorem



Maximum data rate of a channel

For a noiseless channel (and perfect sampling), Nyquist has defined the theoretical maximum bit rate.





Nyquist's theorem



ε

- also valid when bandwidth range does not start at O
- ie. when we have been allocated part of a spectrum

But

- we cannot distinguish (higher) frequencies outside our spectrum
- a low-pass filter is needed to remove them before sampling



Most often, we have noise on a channel



But most often, we have noise on a channel



We cannot avoid bit errors from noise

But Shannon has introduced a formula that determines the highest **theoretical** data rate for a noise channel

B: bandwidth (Hz)

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{B} \times \log_{10}(1 + \mathbf{SNR})$$

the signal-to-noise ratio (SNR)



C: capacity (bps)

B: bandwidth (Hz)

$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{B} \times \log_{10}(1 + \mathbf{SNR})$

the signal-to-noise ratio (SNR)

We need the relative strength of the signal with respect to the noise to compute it:

SNR = average signal power / average noise power

Careful! SNR is often specified in decibel (dB) You need $SNR_{dB} = 10 \log_{10}(SNR)$

Part 2: Information coding

Information coding

- Binary Encoding
- Non-return-to-zero, inverted
- Manchester Encoding
- Differential Manchester Encoding

Multiplexing Techniques

- Frequency Multiplexing
- Time Division Multiplexing
- Multiplexer and Concentrator

Digital Information – Digital Transmission

Digital transmission

- high bit rate
- sender/receiver synchronization
 - common understanding of phase
 - clock recovery
- signal levels around OV (lower power)
 - error protection

Coding techniques

- binary encoding, non-return to zero-level (NRZ-L)
 - 1: high level
 - O: low level
- return to zero (RZ)
 - 1: clock pulse (double frequency) during interval
 - O: low level
- Non-return-to-zero, inverted
- Manchester Encoding
- Differential Manchester Encoding

Binary Encoding



Binary encoding (NRZ, Non-return-to-zero):

- "1": voltage on high
- "O": voltage on low

i.e.

- + simple, cheap
- + good utilization of the bandwidth (1 bit per symbol)
- no "self-clocking" feature



Non-return-to-zero, inverted



Non-return-to-zero, inverted:

- "1": change in the level
- "O": no change in the level

USB uses opposite convention

change on O, no change on 1

- + simple
- + 1 bit per symbol
- no "self-clocking"
- clock must be ensured by bit stuffing



Manchester Encoding



Bit interval is divided into two partial intervals: 11, 12

- "1":
 I1: high, I2: low
- "O":
 I1: low, I2: high

- + good "self-clocking" feature
- 0,5 bits per symbols
- Application: 802.3 (CSMA/CD)

Differential Manchester Encoding



Differential Manchester Encoding:

- bit interval divided into two partial intervals:
 - "1": no change in the level at the beginning of the interval
 - "O": change in the level

- + good "self-clocking" feature
- low susceptibility to noise because only the signal's polarity is recorded.
 Absolute values are irrelevant.
- 0,5 bit per symbol
- complex



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INF3190 - Data Communication Physical Layer (cnt'd)

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Multiplexing Techniques

Cost for implementing and maintaining either a narrowband or a wideband cable are almost the same

Multiplexing many conversations onto one channel



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Frequency Multiplexing

Principle

- frequency band is split between the users
- each user is allocated one frequency band

Application

example: multiplexing of voice telephone channels: phone, cable-TV



- filters limit voice channel to 3 000 Hz bandwidth
- each voice channel receives 4 000 Hz bandwidth
 - 3 000 Hz voice channel
 - 2 x 500 Hz gap (guard band)

Time Division Multiplexing

Principle

- user receives a time slot
- during this time slot he has the full bandwidth

Application

- multiplexing of end systems, but also
- in transmission systems



Ralf Steinmetz, Technische Universität Darmstadt Time Division Time Division Host Multiplexer Multiplexer Computer $d_1(t)$ $d_1(t)$ Buffer Buffer Buffer Terminal 1 emultiplexing Multiplexing DCE DCE $d_2(t)$ $d_2(t)$ Buffer Buffer Buffer 0090 9000 Terminal 2 Õ The TDM Frame d_n(t) $d_n(t)$ ••• d₂(t) d₁(t) TDM Control Buffer LT d_n(t) LH Buffer Buffer Terminal n

LT: Link Trailer, LH: Link Header, d_n(t): Fixed, predetermined slots for each device, TDM Control: Identification of specific TDM controls (may not exist on some TDMs) 0

INPUT from various links in predefined order OUTPUT at one single link in the same order

MULTIPLEXER

Multiplexer and Concentrator





TDM Control: Identification of specific TDM controls (may not exist on some TDMs)

Disadvantage: waste of time slots if station is not sending

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Multiplexer and Concentrator



Concentrator

- **INPUT** from several links
- OUTPUT at one single link
- no fixed slot allocation.
 - instead sending of (station addresses, data)

PROBLEM: All stations use maximum speed for sending

"Solution": internal buffers



i = 1

 $\sum c_i^{IN} > c^{OUT}$

