

Telematics I

Chapter 3 Physical Layer

- ❑ Baseband transmission over physical channels
- ❑ Limitations on data rate: Nyquist and Shannon
- ❑ Clock extraction
- ❑ Broadband versus baseband transmission
- ❑ Examples

(Acknowledgement: These slides have been taken from Prof. Karl's set of slides)



Goals of this Chapter

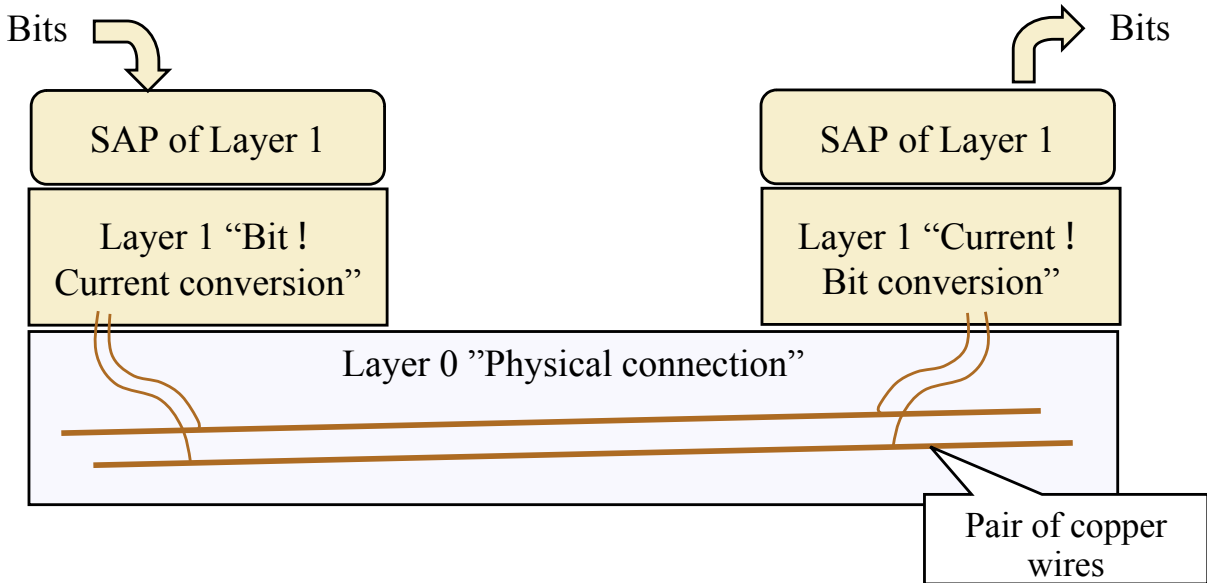
- ❑ Answer the basic question: how can data be transported over a physical medium?
- ❑ Understand the basic service provided by a physical layer
- ❑ Different ways to put “bits on the wire”
- ❑ Reasons why performance of any physical layer is limited
- ❑ Reasons for errors
- ❑ A few examples of important physical layers

- ❑ Note: This is *vastly* simplified material



Basic Service of Physical Layer: Transport Bits

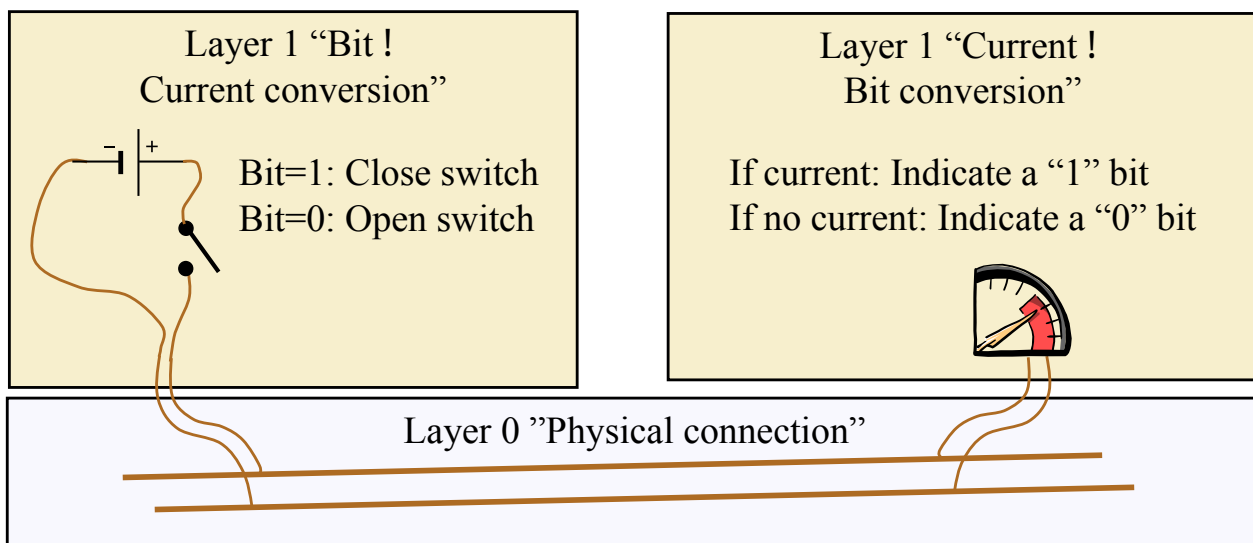
- The physical layer should enable the transport of bits between two locations A and B
- Abstraction: Bit sequence – correct, in order delivery



A Bit-to-Signal Conversion Rule

- A simple conversion rule
 - For a "1" bit, apply current to the pair of wires
 - For a "0" bit, no current

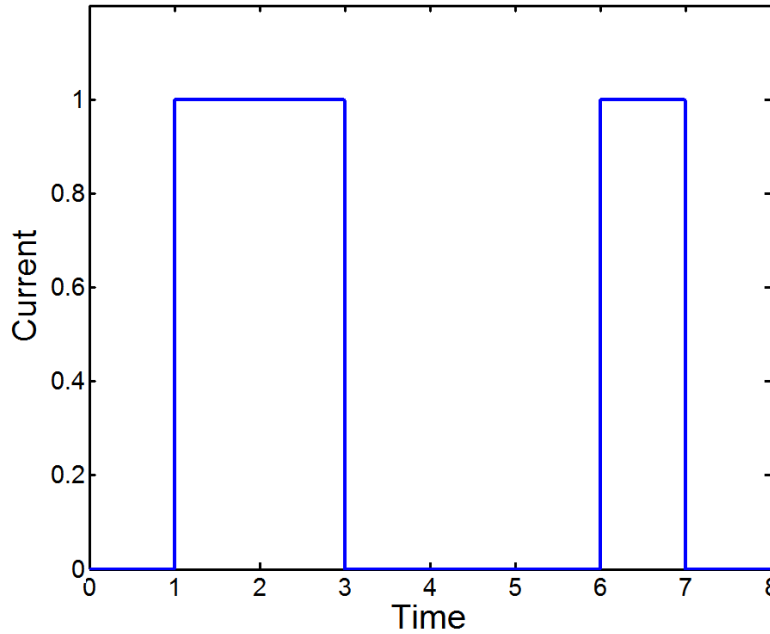
This is called
"Non return to
zero" NRZ



Example: Transmit Bit Pattern for Character "b"

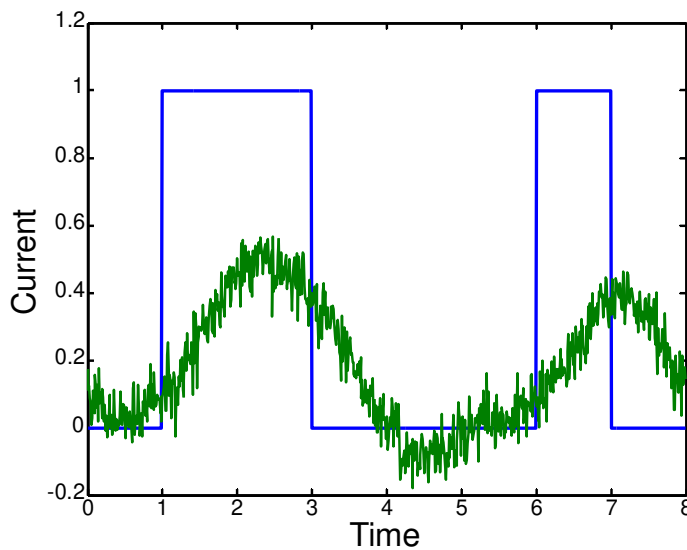
- ❑ Character "b" needs a representation as a sequence of bits
- ❑ One option: Use the ASCII code of "b", 98, as a binary number 01100010
- ❑ Resulting current put on the wire:

Note: Abstract **data** is represented by physical **signals** – changes of a physical quantity in time or space!



What Arrives at the Receiver?

- ❑ Typical pattern at the receiver:



- ❑ What is going on here?

Note: this and the following examples are exaggerated!



- To understand signal propagation on a physical medium, some background is required how such signals can be analyzed/treated mathematically

- First: **Fourier's theorem**

Any periodic function $g(t)$ (with period T) can be written as a (possibly infinite) sum of sine and cosine functions; the frequencies of these functions are integer multiples of the fundamental frequency $f = 1/T$.

$$g(t) = 1/2c + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \sin(2\pi nft) + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n \cos(2\pi nft)$$

Constants c, a_n, b_n are to be determined.



- Coefficients c, a_n, b_n in the Fourier series can be computed:

- $c = \frac{2}{T} \int_0^T g(t) dt$

- $a_n = \frac{2}{T} \int_0^T g(t) \sin(2\pi nft) dt$

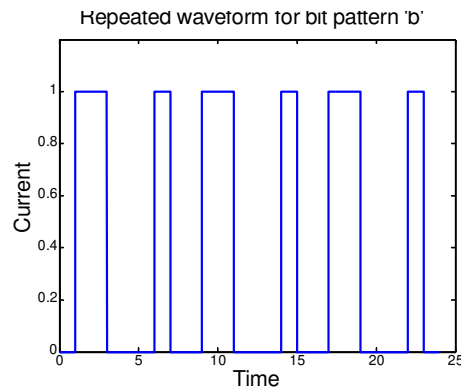
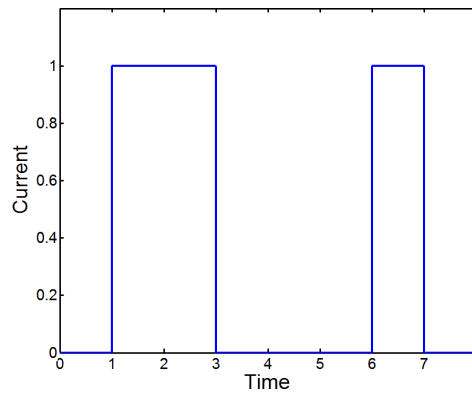
- $b_n = \frac{2}{T} \int_0^T g(t) \cos(2\pi nft) dt$

- Because of orthogonality of sines and cosines as basis functions
- The n -th summary terms are called **harmonics**
- The sum of the squares of the n -th coefficients – $a_n^2 + b_n^2$ – is proportional to the **energy contained in this harmonic**
 - Usually, root of it is shown – $(a_n^2 + b_n^2)^{1/2}$



Applying Fourier Analysis to the Example

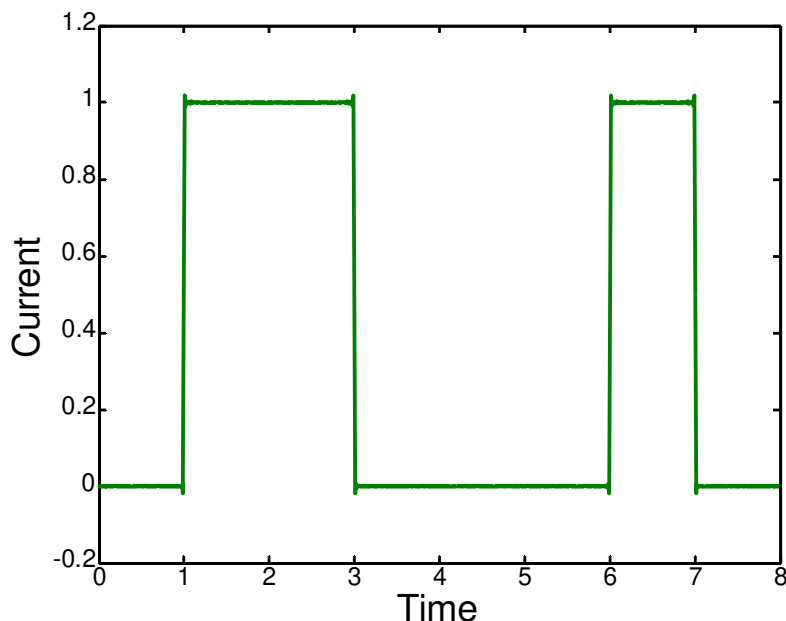
- ❑ The transmitted waveform of 'b' is not a periodic signal – Fourier not applicable directly
- ❑ Use a trick: Suppose waveform is repeated infinitely often, resulting in a periodic waveform with period 8 bit times



Applying Fourier Analysis to the Example

- ❑ Result of computing a_n , b_n , c and using 512 terms to represent the signal:

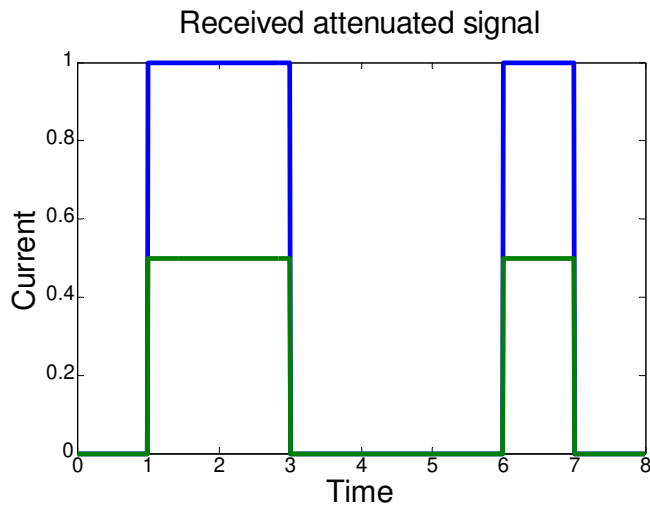
- ❑ Almost no discernible difference between original signal and Fourier series
 - ❑ Curves overlap



Fact 1: Signals are Attenuated in a Physical Medium

- **Attenuation α** : Ratio of transmitted to received power
 - $P_{recv} = P_{trans}/\alpha \Leftrightarrow \alpha = P_{trans}/P_{recv}$
 - High attenuation \Rightarrow little power arrives at receiver

- Attenuation depends on
 - Actual medium
 - Distance between sender and receiver
 - ... other factors
- Normalized, typically given in dB

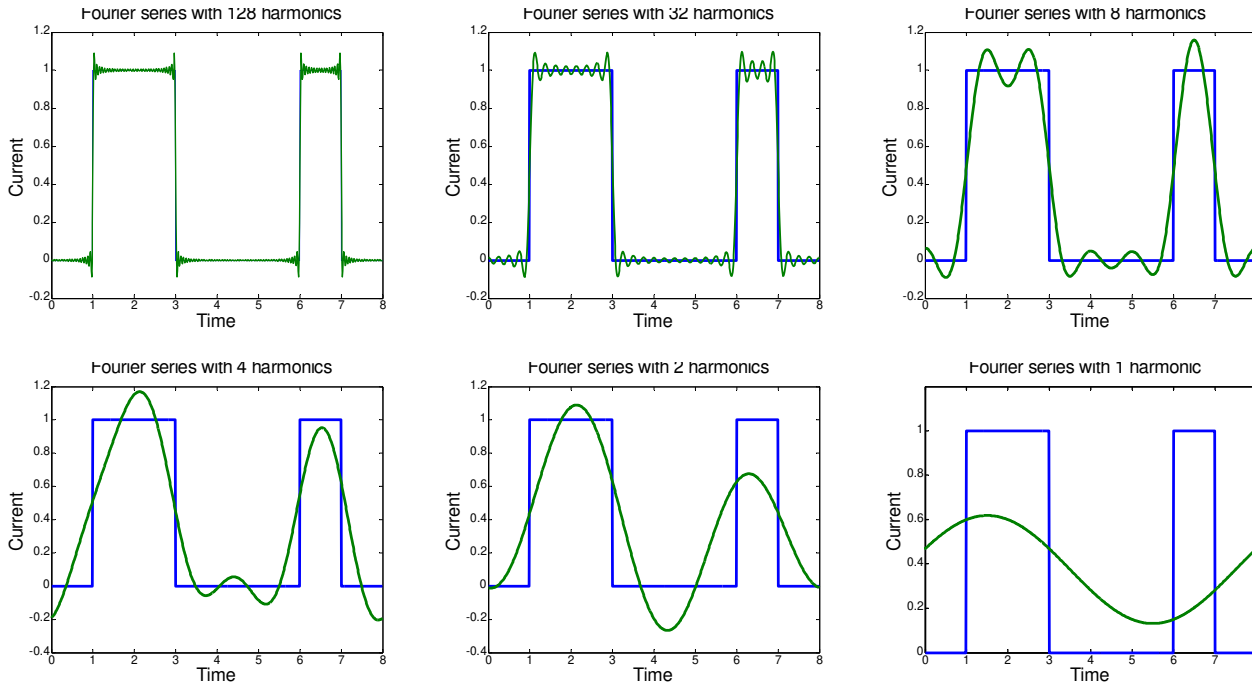


Fact 2: Not all Frequencies Pass Through a Medium

- Previous picture assumed that all frequencies travel unhindered through a physical medium
- This is not the case for real media!
- Simplified behavior: frequencies up to given upper bound f_c can pass; higher frequencies are suppressed
 - Mathematically: the Fourier series is cut off at a certain harmonic
 - High frequencies are **attenuated** to zero
- This frequency f_c is called the **bandwidth** of a physical medium (or channel)
 - Smaller f_c means fewer harmonics can pass through

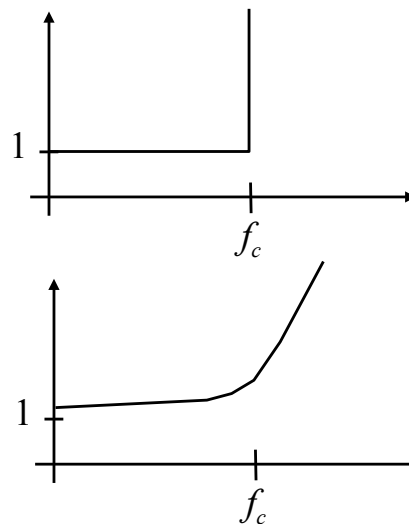


□ Result when fewer and fewer harmonics are transported



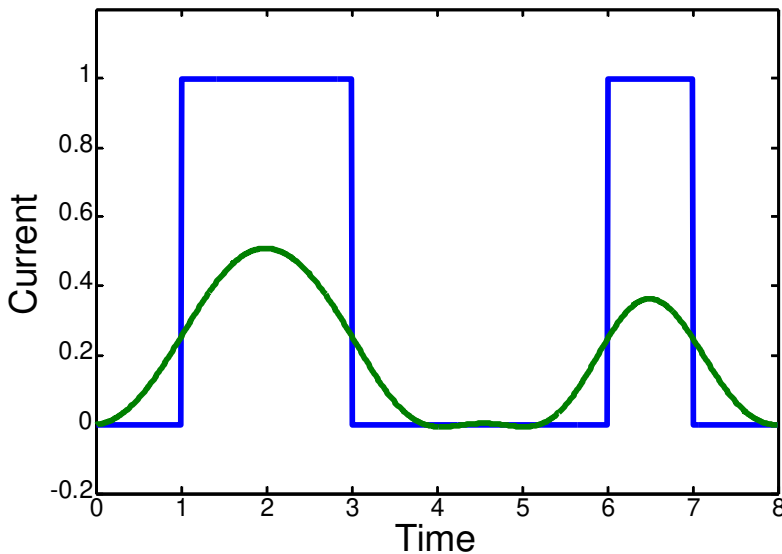
Fact 3: Attenuation Depends on Frequency

- Model just used: Cutoff
 - Attenuation is 1 below bandwidth, infinite above
- More realistic: attenuation depends on frequency
 - Attenuation close to 1 below bandwidth and increases for higher frequencies
- Both are examples of **bandwidth-limited medium / channel**

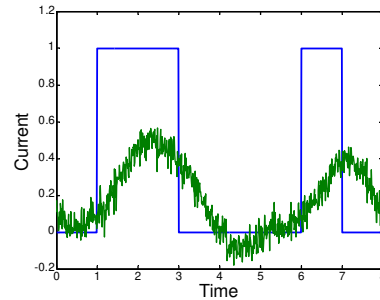


- Suppose attenuation is 2, 2.5, 3.333... , 5, 10, 1 for the 1st, 2nd, ... harmonic

Received signal with frequency-dependent attenuation



We have to explain this behavior:

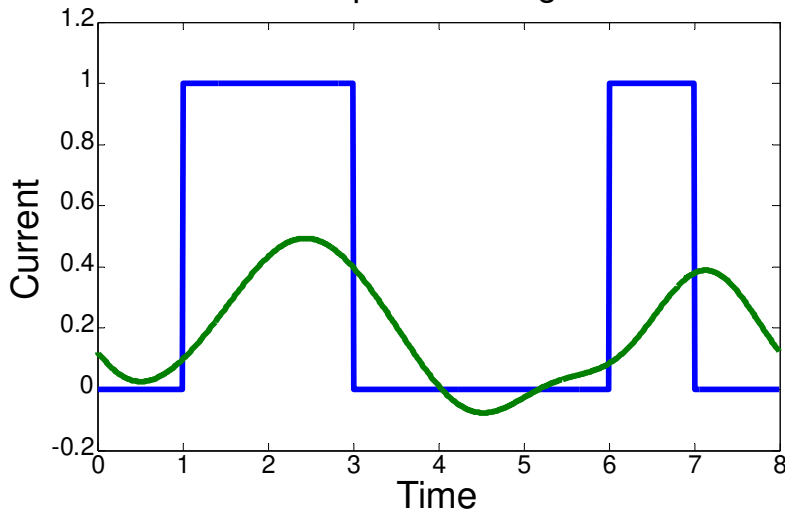


- In a physical medium other than vacuum, different frequencies have different propagation speed
 - Some wave lengths travel faster than others
- Apparent result: Waves arrive at receiver out of phase
 - Recall: a sine wave is determined by amplitude a , frequency f , and phase ϕ

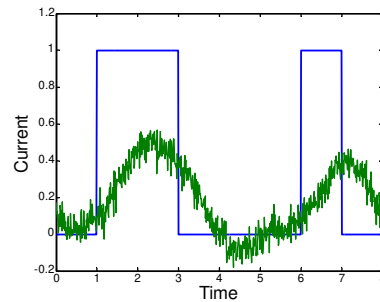
$$a \sin(2\pi ft + \phi)$$
 - This is called **distortion**
 - Sometimes also “jitter”, but the term jitter will re-appear later with a different, more common definition
- Amount of phase shift depends on frequency



Received signal with frequency-dependent attenuation and phase change



We have to explain this behavior:



- ❑ Behavior of “real” medium already well matched!
 - ❑ What about the “wiggling”?

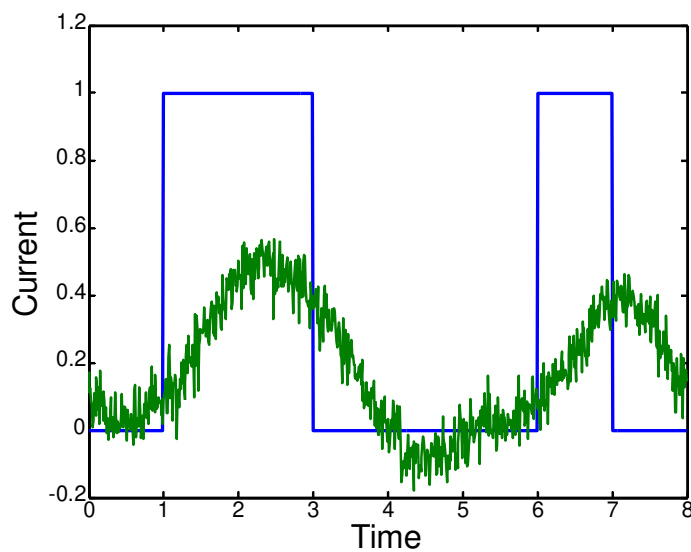


Fact 5: Real Media are Noisy

- ❑ A physical medium, in combination with the receiver, exhibits **random (thermal) noise**
 - ❑ Fluctuations in the receiver circuitry, interference from nearby transmissions, etc.
- ❑ Materializes as random fluctuations around the (noise-free) received signal
 - ❑ Typical model: noise as a Gaussian random variable of zero mean, uncorrelated in time
 - ❑ More sophisticated models exist



- When taking all five facts into account, the received wave form can be satisfyingly explained:



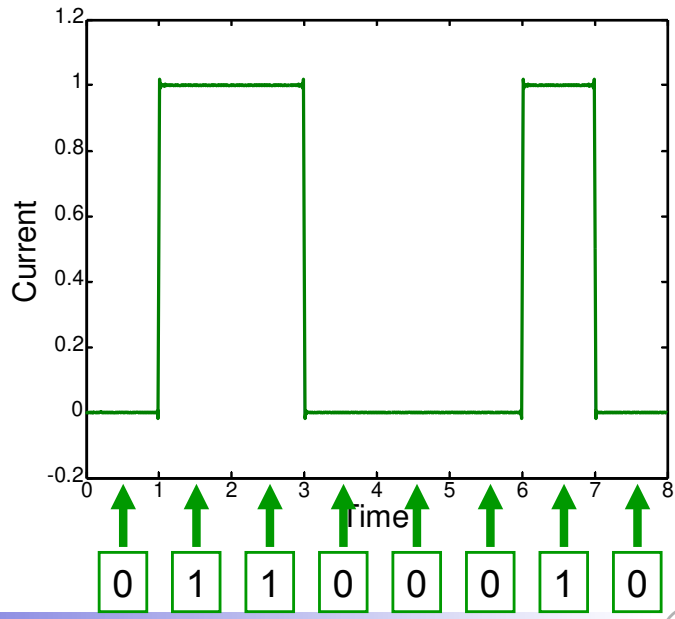
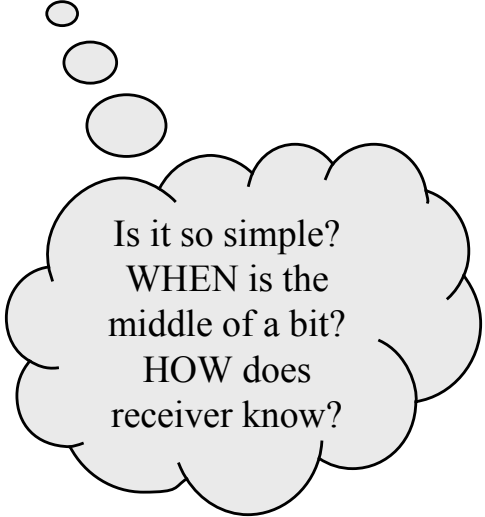
Overview

- Baseband transmission over physical channels
- **Limitations on data rate: Nyquist and Shannon**
- Clock extraction
- Broadband versus baseband transmission
- Examples



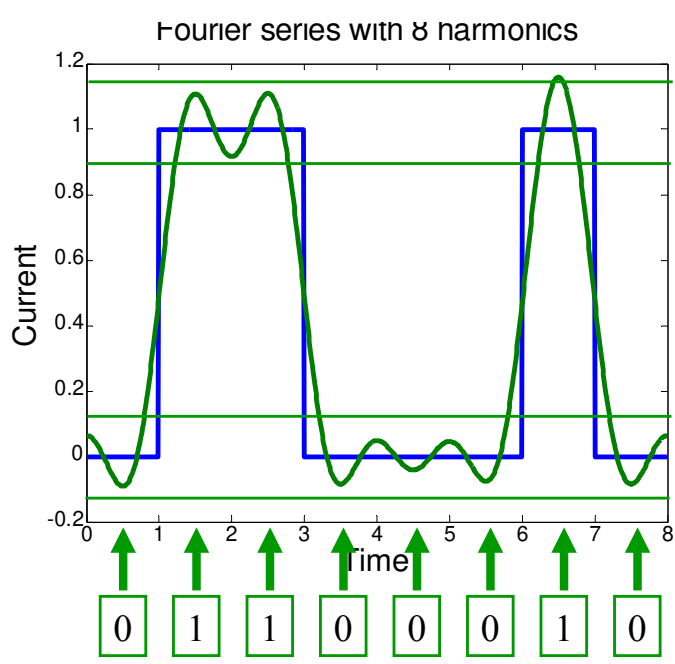
Converting Signals to Data: Sampling

- ❑ Suppose we have a channel with “sufficient” bandwidth available
- ❑ How does a receiver convert the signal back to data?
- ❑ Simple: Look at the signal
 - ❑ If high, bit is a 1
 - ❑ If low, bit is a 0

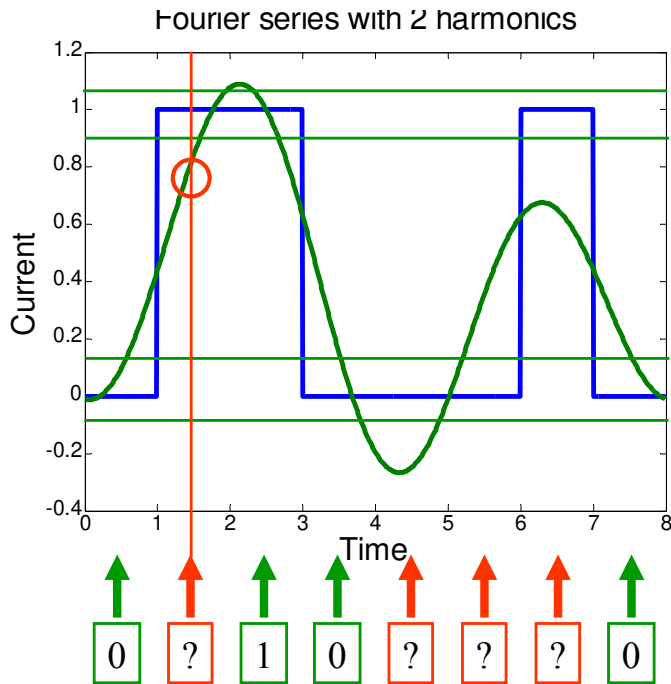


Sampling Over a Noisy or Bandwidth-Limited Channel

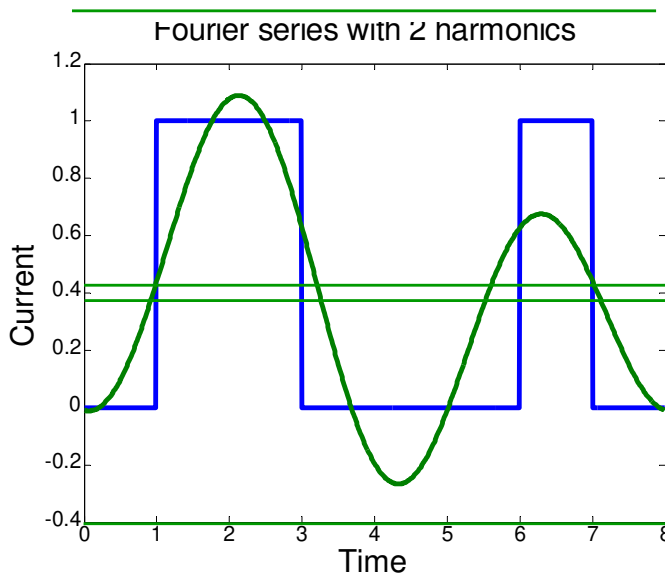
- ❑ In presence of noise or limited bandwidth (or both), signal will not likely be *exactly* 0 or 1
 - ❑ Or whatever 0 and 1 amounts to after attenuation
- ❑ Instead of comparing to these precise values, receiver has to use some thresholds within which a signal is declared as a 0 or a 1



- ❑ What happens when little bandwidth is available?
 - ❑ Assuming same thresholds as before
- ❑ At some sampling points, the signal will be outside the thresholds!
 - ❑ No justifiable decision possible
- ❑ What are possible ways out?



- ❑ Wide thresholds would (apparently) reduce opportunity for confusion
 - ❑ E.g., +/- 0.4
- ❑ But: what happens in presence of noise?
- ❑ Wider thresholds leads to higher probability of incorrect decisions!
- ❑ **Not good!**



Way Out 2: Increase Time for a Single Bit

- ❑ If bandwidth is limited, received signal cannot track very steep raises and falls in the signal
- ❑ Hence: give the signal more time to reach the required level for a 0 or a 1 detection.
- ❑ This means: Time for a single bit has to be extended!
 - ❑ Useable data rate is reduced!
- ❑ ***This is a fundamental limitation and cannot be circumvented***
- ❑ Formally:
 - maximum data rate = $2H$ bits/s
 - where H is the channel bandwidth
 - ❑ Basic reason: need to sample sufficiently often



Way Out 3: Use More Than Just 0 and 1 in the Channel

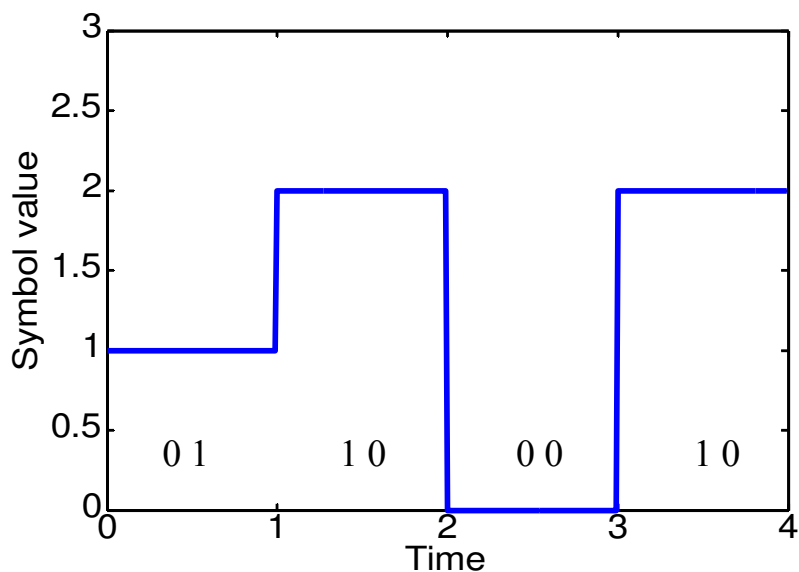
- ❑ Who says we can only use 0 and 1 as possible levels for the transmitted signal?
- ❑ Suppose the transmitter can generate signals (current, voltage, ...) at *four* different levels, instead of just two
- ❑ Then: to determine one of four levels, two bits are required
- ❑ Distinction:
 - ❑ “Bits” are 0 or 1, used in “higher” layers
 - ❑ “**Symbols**” can have multiple values, are transmitted over the channel
 - ❑ **Symbol rate**: Rate at which symbols are transmitted
 - Measured in **baud**
 - ❑ **Data rate**: Rate at which physical layer processes incoming data bits
 - Measured in **bit/s**



Way out 3: Use Four-Level Symbols to Encode Two Bits

□ Example:

- Map 00 ⇒ 0, 01 ⇒ 1, 10 ⇒ 2, 11 ⇒ 3
- **Symbol rate** is then only half the **data rate** as each symbol encodes two bits



Data Rate with Multi-Valued Symbols – Nyquist

- Using symbols with multiple values, the data rate can be increased
- **Nyquist formula** summarizes:

$$\text{maximum data rate} = 2H \log_2 V \text{ bits/s}$$

where V is the number of discrete symbol values



Unlimited Data Rate with Many Symbol Levels?

- ❑ Nyquist's theorem appears to indicate that unlimited data rate can be achieved when only enough symbol levels are used
- ❑ Is this plausible?
- ❑ More and more symbol levels have to be spaced closer and closer together
- ❑ What then about noise?
 - ❑ Even small random noise would then result in one symbol being misinterpreted for another
- ❑ So not unlimited?



Shannon Limit on Achievable Data Rate

- ❑ Achievable data rate is fundamentally limited by noise
 - ❑ More precisely: by the relationship of signal strength compared to noise
 - ❑ The relatively fewer noise there is at the receiver, the easier it is for the receiver to distinguish between different symbol levels
- ❑ Relationship characterized by **Shannon, 1948**

$$\text{maximum data rate} = H \log_2 (1 + S/N) \text{ bits/s}$$

where S is signal strength, N is noise level

- ❑ This theorem formed the basis for **information theory**



- ❑ Baseband transmission over physical channels
- ❑ Limitations on data rate: Nyquist and Shannon
- ❑ **Clock extraction**
- ❑ Broadband versus baseband transmission
- ❑ Examples

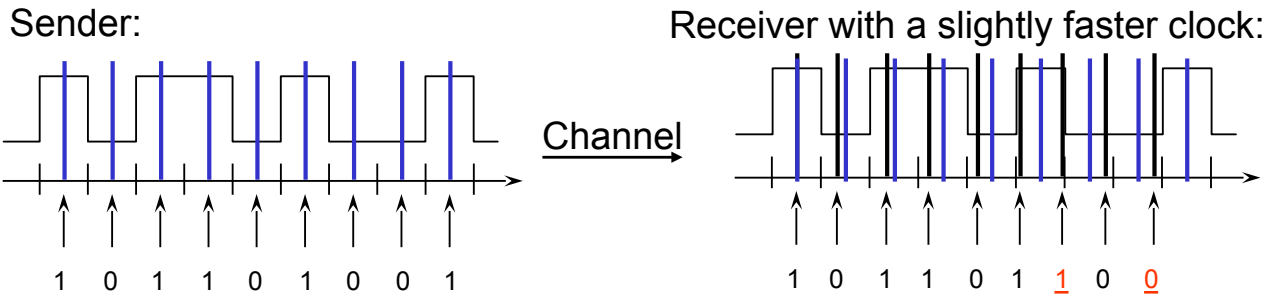


When to Sample the Received Signal?

- ❑ How does the receiver know **WHEN** to check the received signal for its value?
 - ❑ One typical convention: in the middle of each symbol
 - ❑ But when does a symbol start?
 - The length of a symbol is usually known by convention via the symbol rate
- ❑ The receiver has to be **synchronized** with the sender at the **bit** level
 - ❑ The link layer will have to deal with frame synchronization
 - ❑ There is also “character” synchronization – omitted here



- ❑ One simple option:
 - ❑ Assume that sender and receiver at some point in time are synchronized
 - ❑ That both have an internal clock that tics at every symbol step
- ❑ Usually, this does not work
 - ❑ **Clock drift** is major problem – two different clocks never stay in perfect synchrony
- ❑ Errors if synchronization is lost:

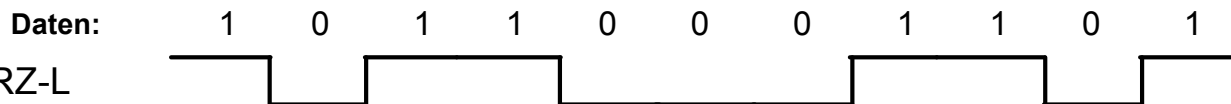


- ❑ Relying on clock synchronization does not work
- ❑ Provide an explicit clock signal
 - ❑ Needs parallel transmission over some additional channel
 - ❑ Must be in sync with the actual data, otherwise pointless
 - ⇒ Useful only for short-range communication
- ❑ Synchronize the receiver at crucial points (e.g., start of a character or of a block)
 - ❑ Otherwise, let the receiver clock run freely
 - ❑ Relies on short-term stability of clock generators (do not diverge too quickly)
- ❑ Extract clock information from the received signal itself
 - ❑ Treated next in more detail



Extract Clock Information from Signal Itself – NRZ-L

- ❑ Put enough information into the data signal itself so that the receiver can know immediately when a bit starts/stops
- ❑ Would the simple 0 ⇒ low, 1 ⇒ high mapping of bit ⇒ symbol work?
- ❑ It should – after all, receiver can use 0-1-0 transitions to detect the length of a bit



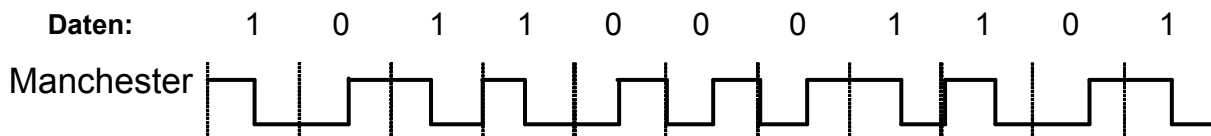
NRZ stands for “Non-Return to Zero”

- ❑ But, this scheme fails depending on bit sequences: think of long runs of 1s or 0s – receiver can lose synchronization
- ❑ Not to be able to transmit arbitrary data is not nice



Extract Clock Information From Signal Itself – Manchester

- ❑ Idea: At each bit, provide indication to receiver that this is where a bit starts or stops or has its middle
 - ❑ Example: Manchester encoding
 - ❑ For a 0 bit, have the symbol change in the bit middle from low to high
 - ❑ For a 1 bit, have the symbol change in the bit middle from high to low



- ❑ Ensures sufficient number of signal transitions
 - ❑ Independent of what data is transmitted!
- ❑ Drawback: needs twice the bandwidth as baudrate is twice the bitrate



- ❑ Baseband transmission over physical channels
- ❑ Limitations on data rate: Nyquist and Shannon
- ❑ Clock extraction
- ❑ **Broadband versus baseband transmission**
- ❑ Examples

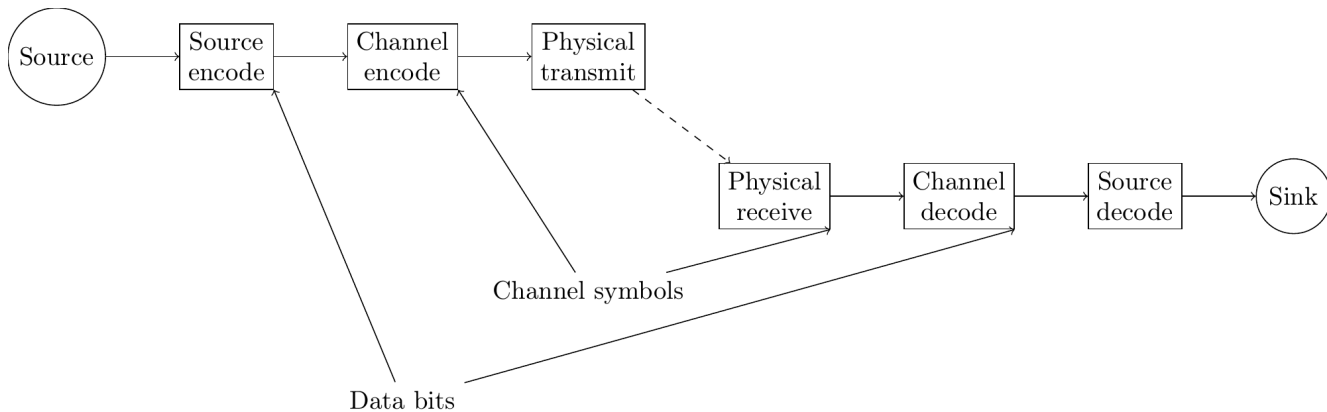


- ❑ The transmission schemes described so far: **Baseband transmission**
 - ❑ Baseband transmission directly puts the digital symbol sequences onto the wire
 - ❑ At different levels of current, voltage, ... essentially, **direct current (DC)** is used for signaling
- ❑ Baseband transmission suffers from the problems discussed above
 - ❑ Limited bandwidth reshapes the signal at receiver
 - ❑ Attenuation and distortion depend on frequency and baseband transmissions have many different frequencies because of their wide Fourier spectrum
- ❑ Possible alternative: **broadband transmission**



Baseband Transmission Systems

- Baseband transmission directly transmits a signal representing the channel symbols:

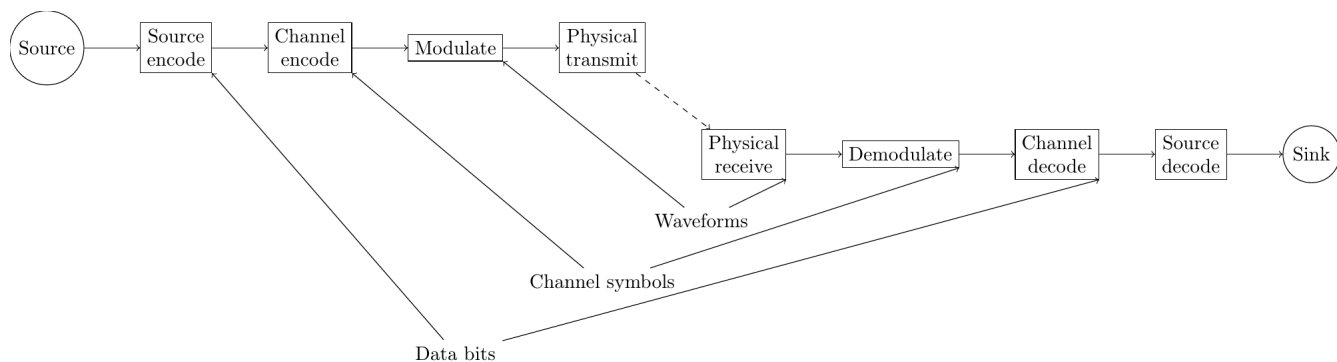


Structure of a Baseband Transmission System



Broadband Transmission Systems

- The main idea of broadband transmission is to modulate the channel symbols onto a carrier signal:



Structure of a Broadband Transmission System



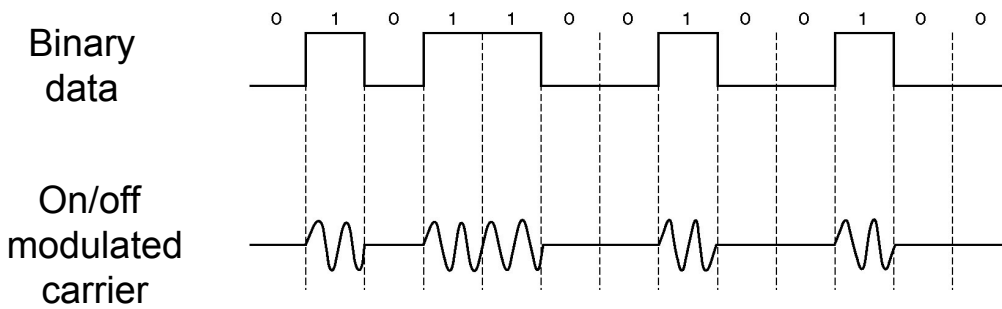
- ❑ Idea: get rid of the wide spectrum needed for DC transmission
- ❑ Use a **sine wave** as a carrier for the symbols to be transmitted
 - ❑ Typically, the sine wave has high frequency
 - ❑ But only a *single* frequency!
- ❑ Pure sine waves has no information, so its shape has to be influenced according to the symbols to be transmitted
 - ❑ The carrier has to be **modulated** by the symbols (widening the spectrum)
- ❑ Three parameters that can be influenced
 - ❑ Amplitude a
 - ❑ Frequency f
 - ❑ Phase ϕ

$$a \sin(2\pi ft + \phi)$$



- ❑ Given a sine wave $f(t)$ and a time-varying signal $s(t)$
 - ❑ $f(t) = a \sin(2\pi ft + \phi)$
 - ❑ Signal can be analog (i.e., a continuous function of time) or digital (i.e., a discrete function of time)
 - ❑ Signal can be e.g. the symbol levels discussed above
- ❑ The amplitude modulated sine wave $f_A(t)$ is given as:
$$f_A(t) = s(t) \sin(2\pi ft + \phi)$$
 - ❑ I.e., the amplitude is given by the signal to be transmitted
- ❑ Receiver can extract $s(t)$ from $f_A(t)$
- ❑ Special cases:
 - ❑ $s(t)$ is an **analog** signal – **amplitude modulation**
 - ❑ $s(t)$ is a **digital** signal – also called **amplitude keying**
 - ❑ $s(t)$ only takes 0 and 1 (or 0 and a) as values – **on/off keying**





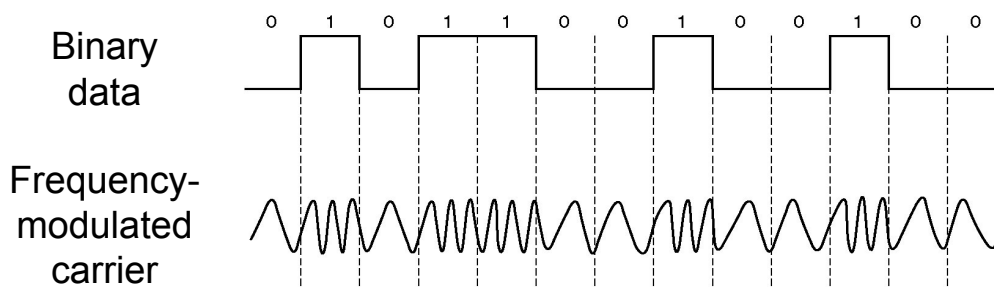
- ❑ Question:
 - ❑ How to solve bit synchronization here?
 - ❑ Is Manchester applicable?



- ❑ The frequency-modulated sine wave $f_F(t)$ is given by

$$f_F(t) = a \sin(2\pi s(t)t + \phi)$$

- ❑ Modulation/keying terminology like for AM
- ❑ Example



Note: $s(t)$ has an additive constant in this example to avoid having frequency zero



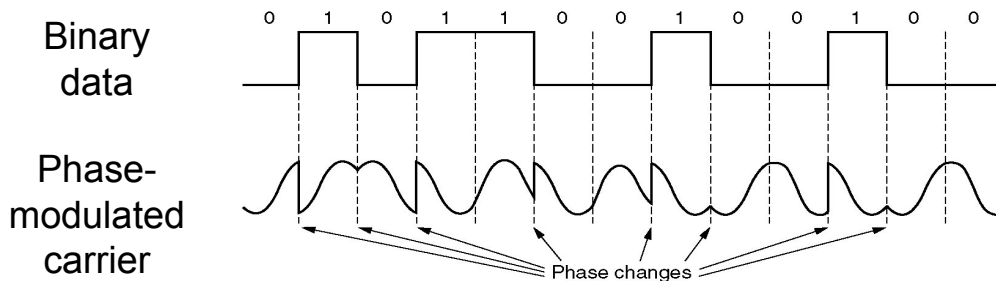
Phase Modulation

- Similarly, a phase modulated carrier is given by

$$f_P(t) = a \sin(2\pi ft + s(t))$$

- Modulation/keying terminology again similar

- Example:



- Here, $s(t)$ is chosen such that there are phase changes when the binary data changes
 - Typical example for **differential coding**
- Other possibilities: 0 \Rightarrow no phase shift, 1 \Rightarrow phase shift, or vice versa

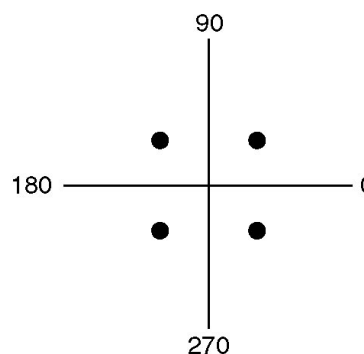


Phase Modulation With High Multiple Values per Symbol

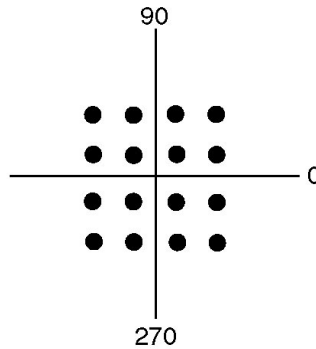
- A receiver can usually quite well distinguish phase shifts
- Hence: Use phase shifts of $0, \pi/2, \pi, 3/2 \pi$ to encode two bits per symbol
 - Even better: Use $\pi/4, 3/4\pi, 5/4\pi, 7/4\pi$ phase shifts for each bit
 - Why better? Clock extraction!
 - Result: Data rate is twice the symbol rate

- Technique is called Quadrature Phase Shift Keying (QPSK)

- Visualization as constellation diagram:



- ❑ Amplitude, frequency, and phase modulations can be fruitfully combined
- ❑ Example: 16-QAM (Quadrature Amplitude Modulation)
 - ❑ Use 16 different combinations of phase change and amplitude for each symbol
 - ❑ Per symbol, $2^4 = 16$ bits are encoded and transmitted in one step
 - ❑ Constellation diagram:



- ❑ A sender has two principal options what types of signals to generate
 - ❑ It can choose from a finite set of different signals – **digital transmission**
 - ❑ There is an infinite set of possible signals – **analog transmission**
- ❑ Simplest example: Signal corresponds to current/voltage level on the wire
 - ❑ In the digital case, there are finitely many voltage levels to choose from
 - ❑ In the analog case, any voltage is legal
- ❑ More complicated example: finite/ininitely many sinus functions
 - ❑ In both cases, the resulting **wave forms in the medium** can well be continuous functions of time!
- ❑ Advantage of digital signals: There is a principal chance that the receiver can precisely reconstruct the transmitted signal

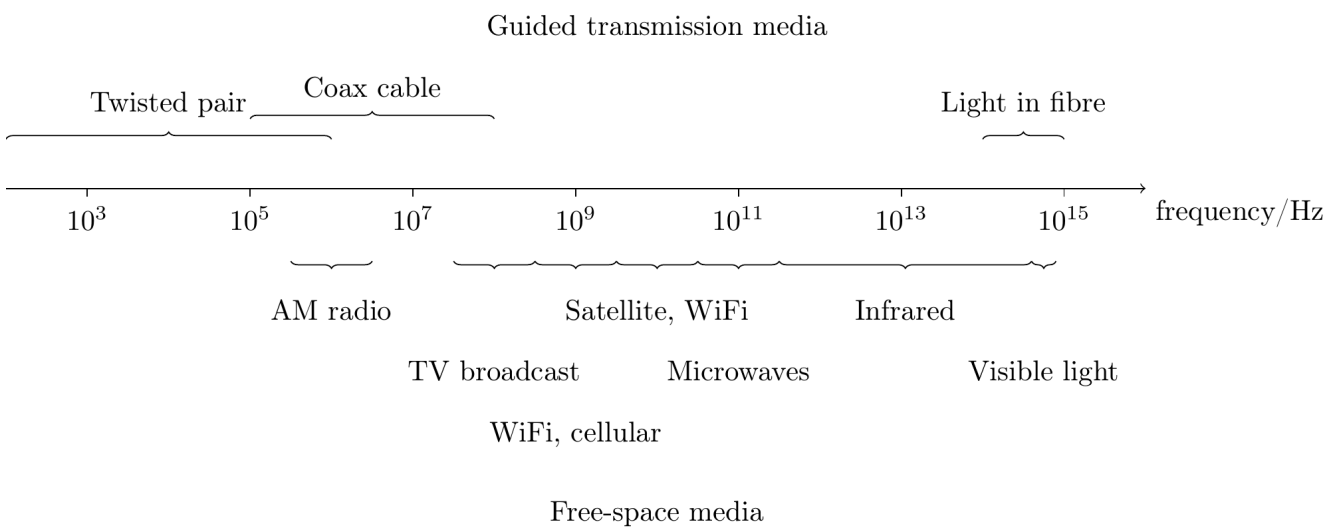


- Baseband transmission over physical channels
- Limitations on data rate: Nyquist and Shannon
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- Examples**



- Guided transmission media
 - Copper wire – twisted pair
 - Copper wire – coaxial cable
 - Fiber optics
- Wireless transmission
 - Radio transmission
 - Microwave transmission
 - Infrared
 - Lightwave





Conclusion

- ❑ The physical layer is responsible for turning a logical sequence of bits into a physical signal that can propagate through space
- ❑ Many different forms of physical signals are possible
- ❑ Signals are limited by their propagation in a physical medium (limited bandwidth, attenuation, dispersion) and by noise
- ❑ Bits can be combined into multi-valued symbols for transmission
 - ❑ Gives rise to the difference in data rate and baud rate
- ❑ Baseband transmission is fraught with problems, partially overcome by modulating a signal onto a carrier (broadband transmission)

