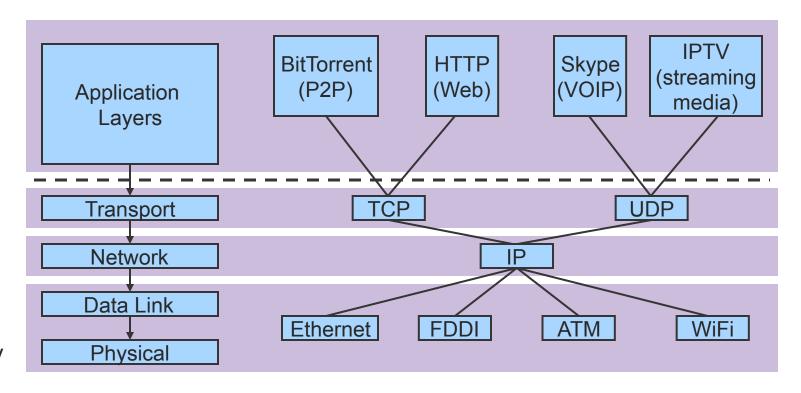
Direct Link Networks - Encoding

Reading: Peterson and Davie, Chapter 2

Where are we?

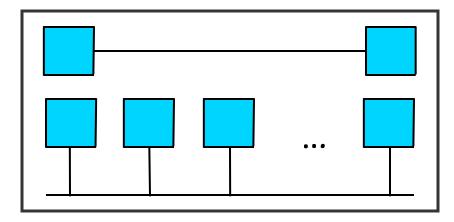


Today



Direct Link Networks

- All hosts are directly connected by a physical medium
- Key points
 - Encoding and Modulation
 - Framing
 - Error Detection
 - Medium Access Control



Internet Protocols

Framing, error detection, **Encoding** medium access control **Application** User-level software Presentation Session Transport Kernel software (device driver) Network Data Link Hardware (network adapter) **Physical**



Direct Link Networks - Outline

- Hardware building blocks
- Encoding
- Framing
- Error detection
- Multiple access media (MAC examples)
- Network adapters



Hardware Building Blocks

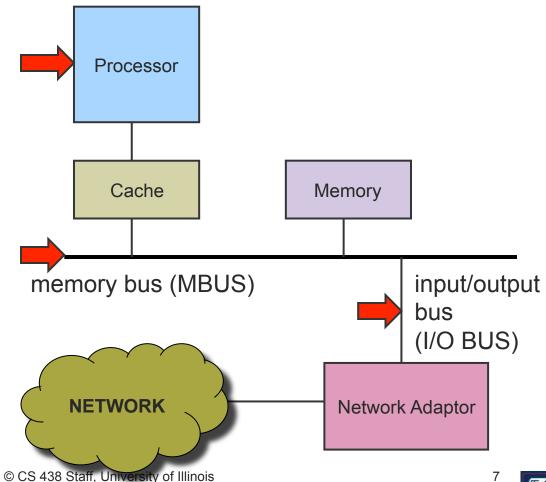
Nodes

- Hosts: general purpose computers
- Switches: typically special purpose hardware
- Routers: varied



Nodes: Workstation Architecture

- Finite memory
 - Scarce resource
- Runs at memory speeds, NOT processor speeds





Hardware Building Blocks

Links

- Physical medium
 - Copper wire with electronic signaling
 - Glass fiber with optical signaling
 - Wireless with electromagnetic (radio, infrared, microwave) signaling
 - Two cups and a string



Links - Copper

Copper-based Media

Category 5/6 Twisted Pair

ThinNet Coaxial Cable

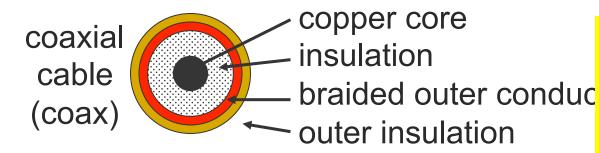
ThickNet Coaxial Cable

more twists, less crosstalk, better signal over longer distances

10-1Gbps 100m

10-100Mbps 200m

10-100Mbps 500m

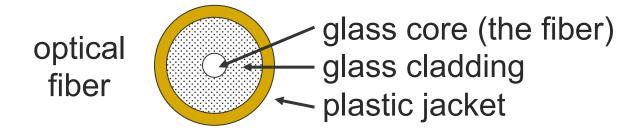


More expensive than twisted pair
High bandwidth and excellent noise immunity



Links - Optical

- Optical Media
 - Multimode Fiber 100Gbps 2km
 - Single Mode Fiber 100-2400Mbps 40km





Links - Optical

- Single mode fiber
 - Expensive to drive (Lasers)
 - Lower attenuation (longer distances) ≤ 0.5 dB/km
 - Lower dispersion (higher data rates)

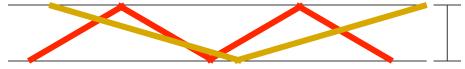
- Multimode fiber
 - Cheap to drive (LED's)
 - Higher attenuation
 - Easier to terminate

core of single mode fiber

~1 wavelength thick =

~1 micron

core of multimode fiber (same frequency; colors for clarity)



O(100 microns) thick

Links - Optical

- Advantages of optical communication
 - Higher bandwidths
 - Superior (lower) attenuation properties
 - Immune from electromagnetic interference
 - No crosstalk between fibers
 - Thin, lightweight, and cheap (the fiber, not the optical-electrical interfaces)



Links - Wireless

- Path loss
 - Signal attenuation as a function of distance
 - Signal-to-noise ratio (SNR—Signal Power/Noise Power) decreases, make signal unrecoverable
- Multipath propagation
 - Signal reflects off surfaces, effectively causing self-interference
- Internal interference (from other users)
 - Hosts within range of each other collide with one another's transmission
- External interference
 - Microwave is turned on and blocks your signal

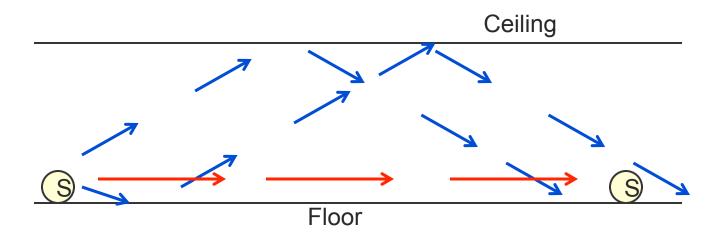


Wireless Path Loss

- Signal power attenuates by about $\sim r^2$ factor for omni-directional antennas in free space
 - o r is the distance between the sender and the receiver
- The exponent in the factor is different depending on placement of antennas
 - Less than 2 for directional antennas
 - Faster attenuation
 - Exponent > 2 when antennas are placed on the ground
 - Signal bounces off the ground and reduces the power of the signal



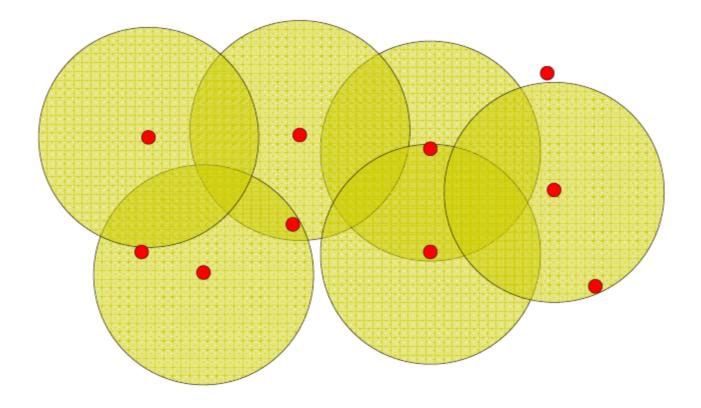
Wireless Multipath Effects



- Signals bounce off surfaces and interfere with one another
- What if signals are out of phase?
 - Orthogonal signals cancel each other and nothing is received!

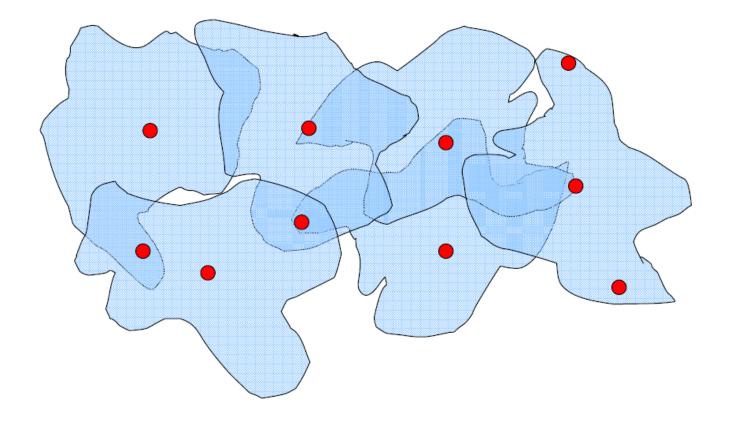


What is a Wireless "Link"?





What is a Wireless "Link"?



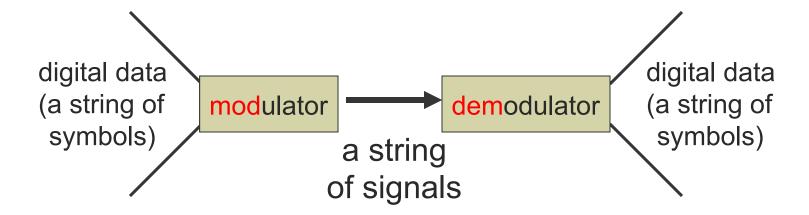


Wireless Bit Errors

- The lower the SNR (Signal/Noise) the higher the Bit Error Rate (BER)
- How can we deal with this?
 - Make the signal stronger
- Why is this not always a good idea?
 - Increased signal strength requires more power
 - Increases the interference range of the sender, so you interfere with more nodes around you
- Error correction can correct some problems



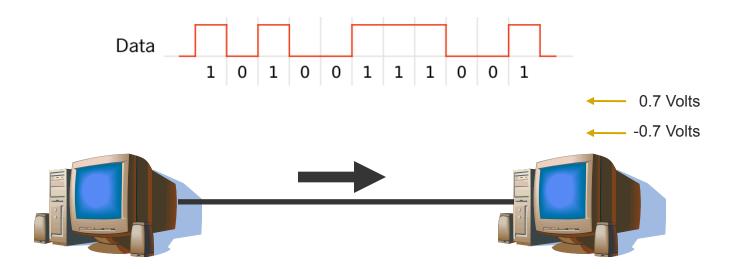
Encoding



- Problems with signal transmission
 - Attenuation: Signal power absorbed by medium
 - Dispersion: A discrete signal spreads in space
 - Noise: Random background "signals"



-How can two hosts communicate?



- Encode information on modulated "Carrier signal"
 - Phase, frequency, and/or amplitude modulation
 - Ethernet: self-clocking Manchester coding
 - Technologies: copper, optical, wireless



Encoding

Goal

 Understand how to connect nodes in such a way that bits can be transmitted from one node to another

Idea

- The physical medium is used to propagate signals
 - Modulate electromagnetic waves
 - Vary voltage, frequency, wavelength
- Data is encoded in the signal



Bauds and Bits

- Baud rate
 - Number of physical symbols transmitted per second
- Bit rate
 - Actual number of data bits transmitted per second
- Relationship
 - Depends on the number of bits encoded in each symbol



Analog vs. Digital Transmission

- Analog and digital correspond roughly to continuous and discrete
- Data: entities that convey meaning
 - Analog: continuously varying patterns of intensity (e.g., voice and video)
 - Digital: discrete values (e.g., integers, ASCII text)
- Signals: electric or electromagnetic encoding of data
 - Analog: continuously varying electromagnetic wave
 - May be propagated over a variety of media
 - Digital: sequence of voltage pulses
 - May be transmitted over a wire medium



Analog vs. Digital Transmission

- Advantages of digital transmission over analog
 - Cheaper
 - Simpler for multiplexing distinct data types (audio, video, e-mail, etc.)
 - Easier to encrypt
- Two examples based on modulator-demodulators (modems)
 - Electronic Industries Association (EIA) standard: RS-232
 - International Telecommunications Union (ITU)
 V.32 9600 bps modem standard

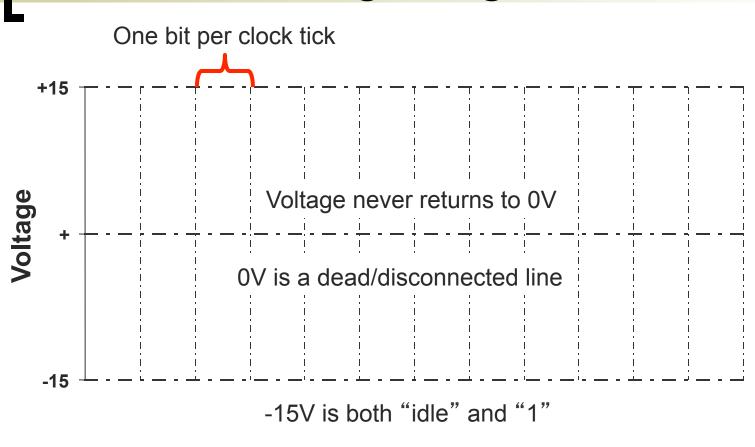


RS-232

- Communication between computer and modem
- Uses two voltage levels (+15V, -15V), a binary voltage encoding
- Data rate limited to 19.2 kbps (RS-232-C); raised to 115,200 kbps in later standards
- Characteristics
 - Serial
 - One signaling wire, one bit at a time
 - Asynchronous
 - Line can be idle, clock generated from data
 - Character-based
 - Send data in 7- or 8-bit characters



RS-232 Timing Diagram



Time

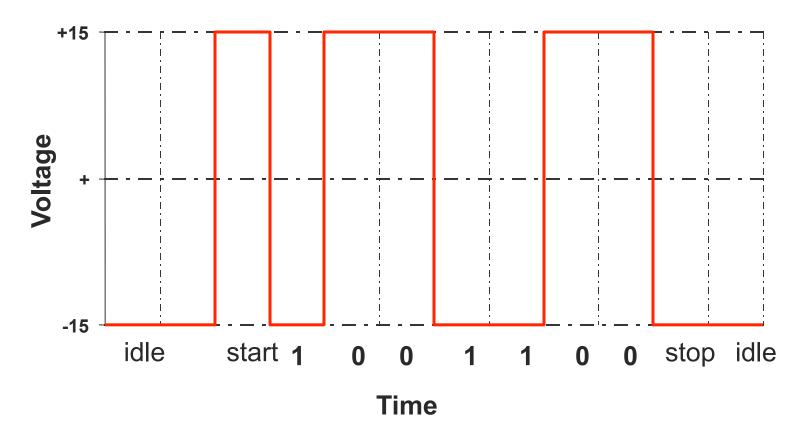


RS-232

- Initiate send by
 - Push to 15V for one clock (start bit)
- Minimum delay between character transmissions
 - Idle for one clock at -15V (stop bit)
- One character
 - 0, 1 or 2 voltage transitions
- Total Bits
 - 9 bits for 7 bits of data (78% efficient)
- Start and stop bits also provide framing



RS-232 Timing Diagram





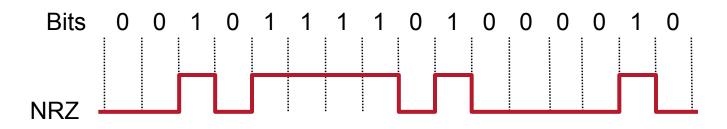
Voltage Encoding

- Binary voltage encoding
 - Done with RS-232 example
 - Generalize before continuing with V.32 (not a binary voltage encoding)
- Common binary voltage encodings
 - Non-return to zero (NRZ)
 - NRZ inverted (NRZI)
 - Manchester (used by IEEE 802.3—10 Mbps Ethernet)
 - 4B/5B



Non-Return to Zero (NRZ)

- Signal to Data
 - o High ⇒ ′
 - o Low ⇒ 0
- Comments
 - Transitions maintain clock synchronization
 - Long strings of 0s confused with no signal
 - Long strings of 1s causes baseline wander
 - Both inhibit clock recovery





Non-Return to Zero Inverted (NRZI)

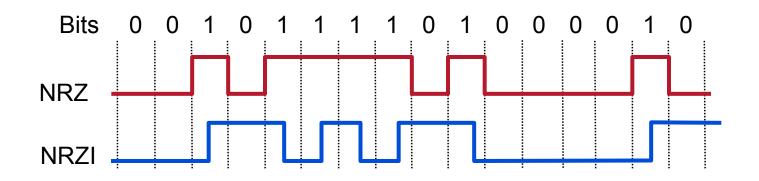
- Signal to Data
 - Transition

 \Rightarrow

Maintain

⇒ 0

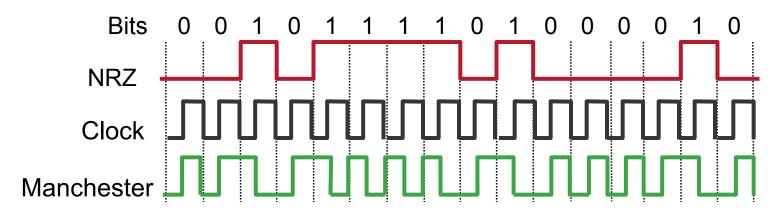
- Comments
 - Solves series of 1s, but not 0s





Manchester Encoding

- Signal to Data
 - XOR NRZ data with clock
 - High to low transition
 - Low to high transition⇒(
- Comments
 - (used by IEEE 802.3—10 Mbps Ethernet)
 - Solves clock recovery problem
 - Only 50% efficient (½ bit per transition)





4B/5B

Signal to Data

Encode every 4 consecutive bits as a 5 bit symbol

Symbols

- At most 1 leading 0
- At most 2 trailing 0s
- Never more than 3 consecutive 0s
- Transmit with NRZI

Comments

- 16 of 32 possible codes used for data
- At least two transitions for each code
- 80% efficient



4B/5B - Data Symbols

At most 1 leading 0

At most 2 trailing 0s

4B/5B - Control Symbols

- 111111 ⇒
- **■** 11000 ⇒
- 10001 ⇒
- 01101 ⇒
- 00111 ⇒
- 00100 ⇒
- Other ⇒

idle

start of stream 1

start of stream 2

end of stream 1

end of stream 2

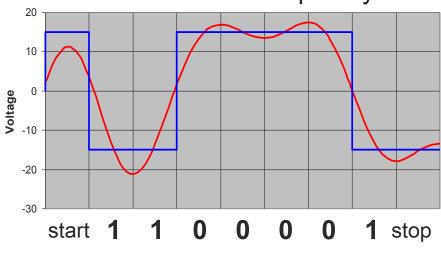
transmit error

invalid



Binary Voltage Encodings

- Problem with binary voltage (square wave) encodings
 - Very wide (Infinite) frequency range required, implying
 - Significant dispersion
 - Uneven attenuation
 - Prefer to use a narrower frequency band



Binary Voltage Encodings

- Problem with binary voltage (square wave) encodings
 - Very wide (Infinite) frequency range required, implying
 - Significant dispersion
 - Uneven attenuation
 - Prefer to use a narrower frequency band
- Types of modulation
 - Amplitude (AM)
 - Frequency (FM)
 - Phase/phase shift
 - Combinations of these

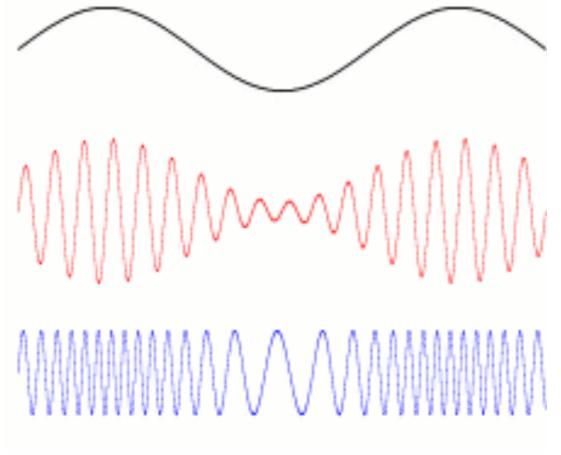


Example: AM/FM for continuous signal

Original signal

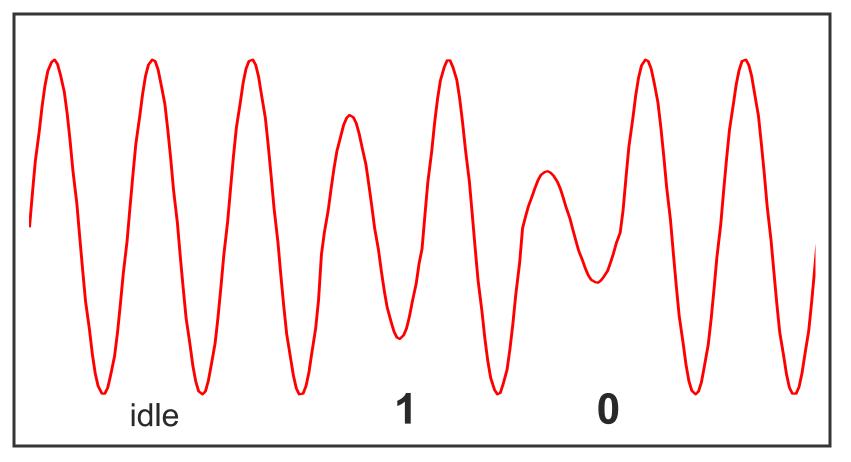


Frequency modulation



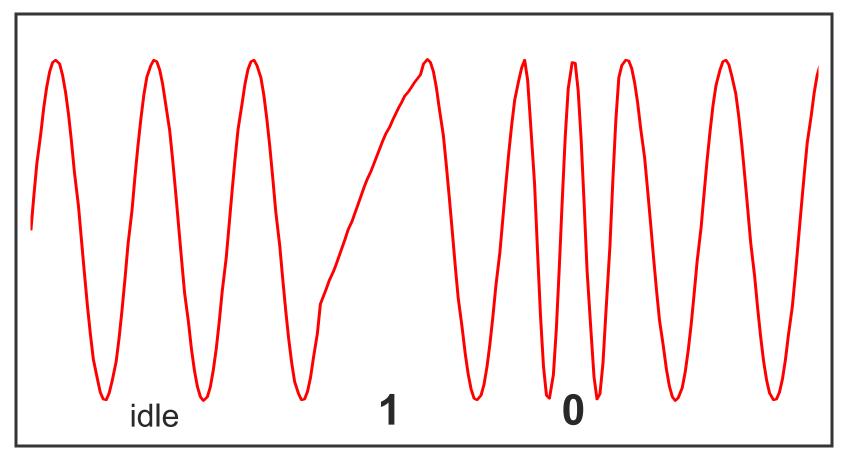


Amplitude Modulation



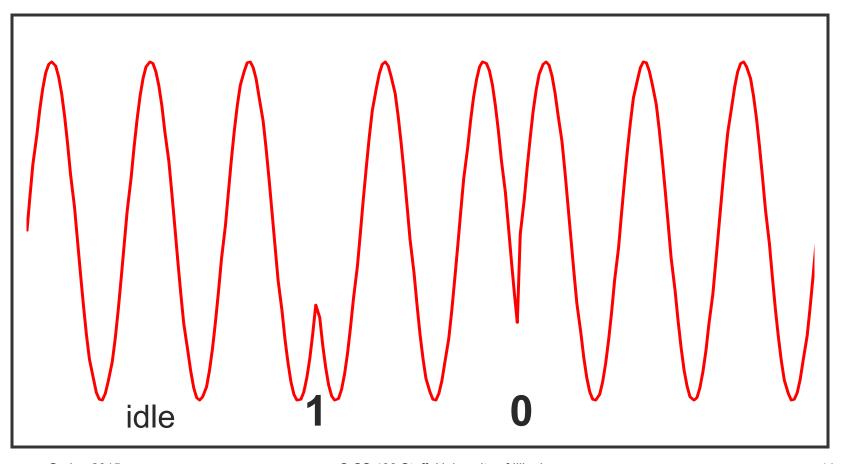


Frequency Modulation



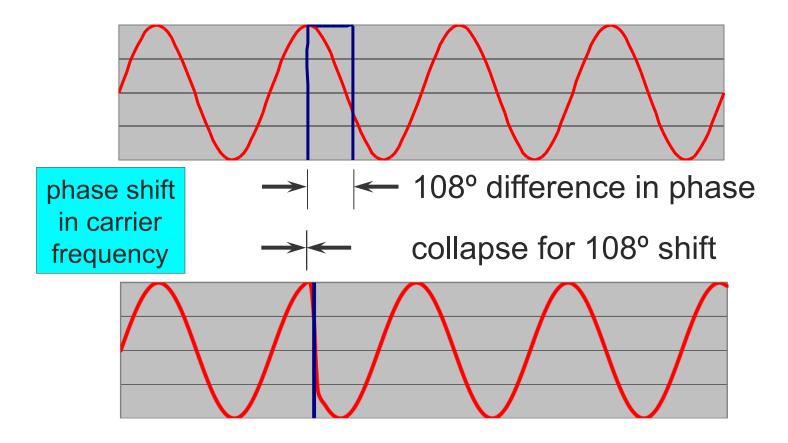


Phase Modulation





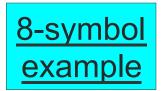
Phase Modulation

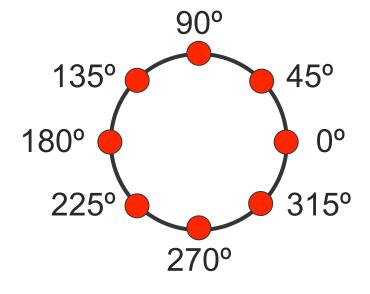




Phase Modulation Algorithm

- Send carrier frequency for one period
 - Perform phase shift
 - Shift value encodes symbol
 - Value in range [0, 360°)
 - Multiple values for multiple symbols
 - Represent as circle





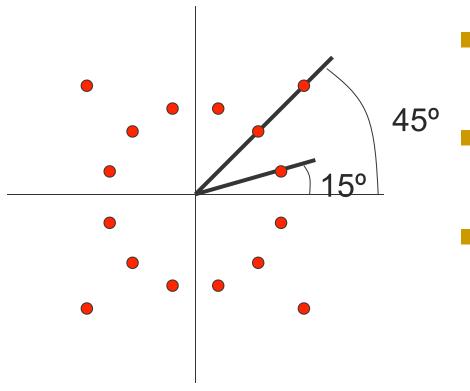


V.32 9600 bps

- Communication between modems
- Analog phone line
- Uses a combination of amplitude and phase modulation
 - Known as Quadrature Amplitude Modulation (QAM)
- Sends one of 16 signals each clock cycle



Constellation Pattern for V.32 QAM

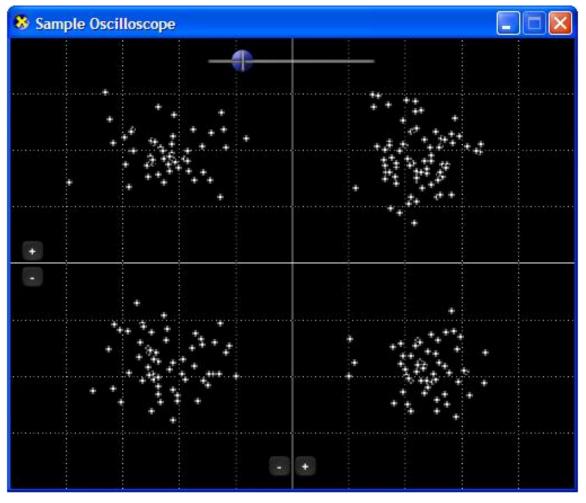


16-symbol example

- Same algorithm as phase modulation
- Can also change signal amplitude
- 2-dimensional representation
 - Angle is phase shift
 - Radial distance is new amplitude



Example constellation

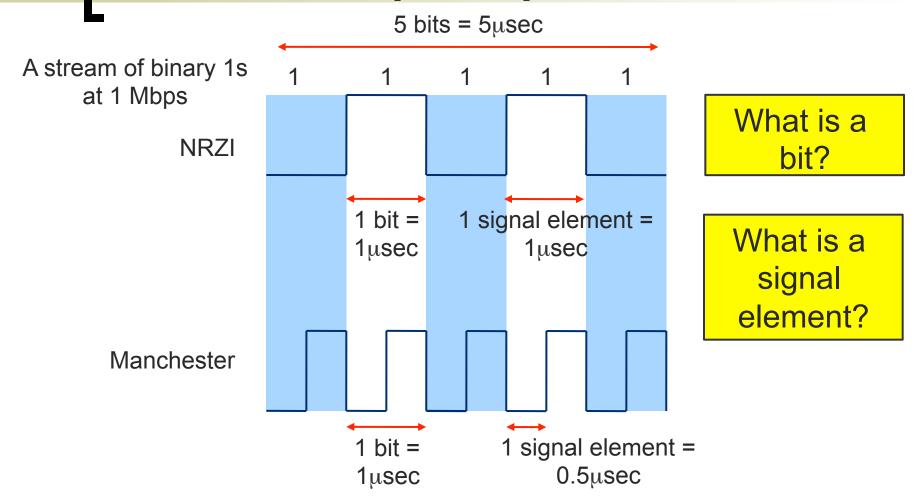


Comments on V.32

- V.32 transmits at 2400 baud
 - o i.e., 2,400 symbols per second
- Each symbol contains
 - $o \log_2 16 = 4 \text{ bits}$
- Data rate
 - \circ 4 x 2400 = 9600 bps
- Points in constellation diagram
 - Chosen to maximize error detection
 - Process called trellis coding



Modulation (Baud) Rate



Modulation (Baud) Rate

A stream of binary 1s at 1 Mbps

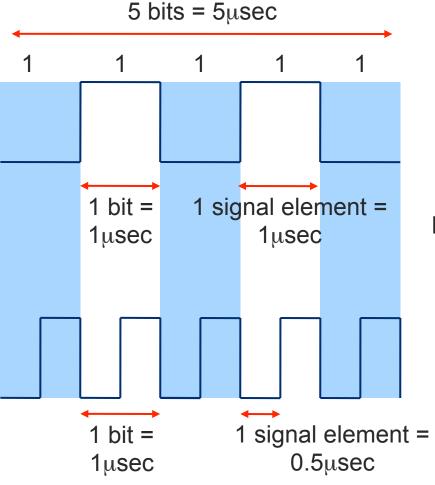
<u>NRZI</u>

What is the data rate?

Data Rate (R)

- = bits/sec
- = 1 Mbps for both

Manchester

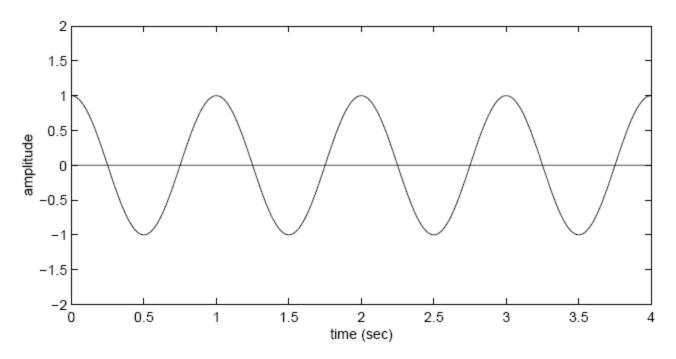


What is the modulation rate?

Modulation Rate

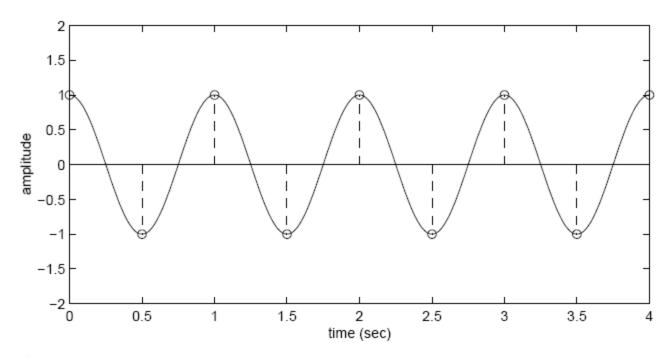
- = Baud Rate
- = Rate at which signal elements are generated
- = R (NRZI)
- = 2R (Manchester)





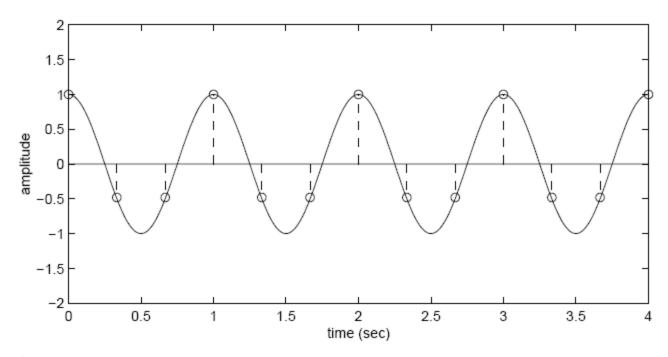
- Suppose you have the following 1Hz signal being received
- How fast to sample, to capture the signal?





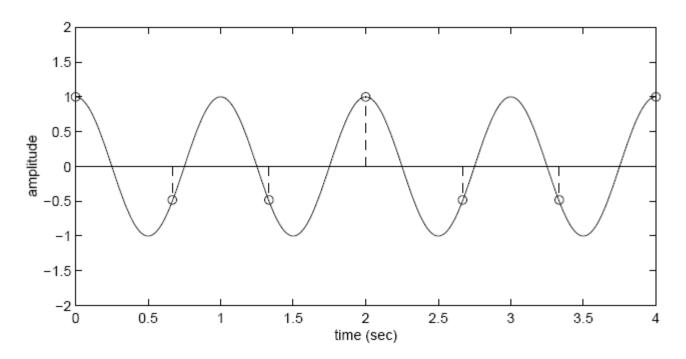
- Sampling a 1 Hz signal at 2 Hz is enough
 - Captures every peak and trough





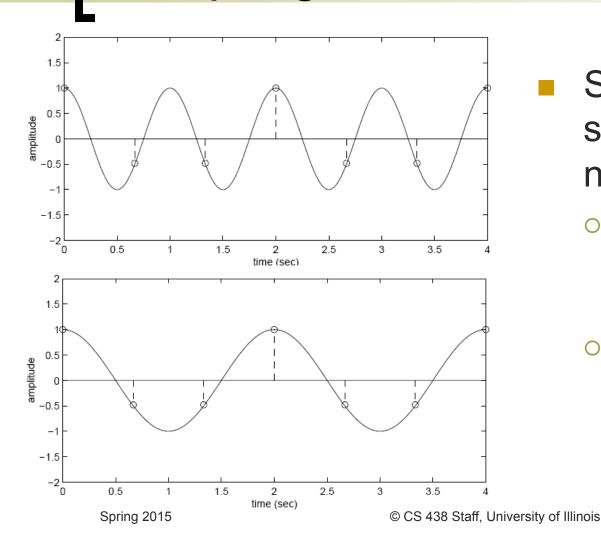
- Sampling a 1 Hz signal at 3 Hz is also enough
 - In fact, more than enough samples to capture variation in signal





- Sampling a 1 Hz signal at 1.5 Hz is not enough
 - Why?

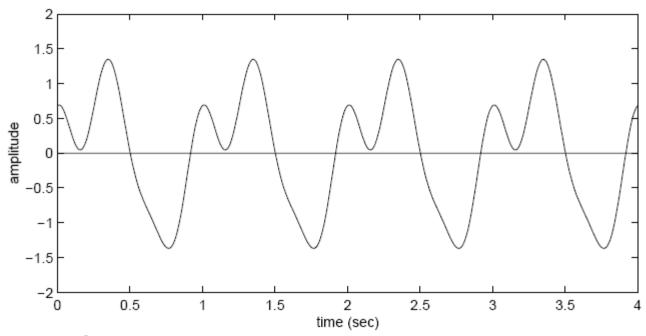




- Sampling a 1 Hz signal at 1.5 Hz is not enough
 - Can't distinguish between multiple possible signals
 - Problem known as aliasing



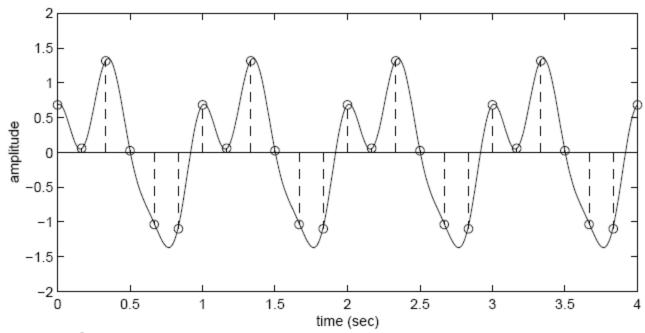
-What about more complex signals?



- Fourier's theorem
 - Any continuous signal can be decomposed into a sum of sines and cosines at different frequencies
- Example: Sum of 1 Hz, 2 Hz, and 3 Hz sines
 - o How fast to sample?



-What about more complex signals?



- Fourier's theorem
 - Any continuous signal can be decomposed into a sum of sines and cosines at different frequencies
- Example: Sum of 1 Hz, 2 Hz, and 3 Hz sines
 - How fast to sample? --> answer: 6 Hz



Generalizing the Examples

- What limits baud rate?
- What data rate can a channel sustain?
- How is data rate related to bandwidth?
- How does noise affect these bounds?
- What else can limit maximum data rate?



What Limits Baud Rate?

- Baud rate
 - Typically limited by electrical signaling properties
- Changing voltages takes time
 - No matter how small the voltage or how short the wire
- Electronics
 - Slow compared to optics
- Baud rate
 - Can be as high as twice the bandwidth of communication



What Data Rate can a Channel Sustain? How is Data Rate Related to Bandwidth?

 Transmitting N distinct signals over a noiseless channel with bandwidth B, we can achieve at most a data rate of



 Nyquist's Sampling Theorem (H. Nyquist, 1920's)



Noiseless Capacity

- Nyquist's theorem: 2B log₂ N
- Example 1: sampling rate of a phone line
 - \circ B = 4000 Hz
 - 2B = 8000 samples/sec.
 - sample every 125 microseconds



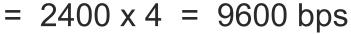
Noiseless Capacity

- Nyquist's theorem: 2B log₂ N
- Example 2: noiseless capacity
 - \circ B = 1200 Hz
 - N = each pulse encodes 16 symbols
 - C =



Noiseless Capacity

- Nyquist's theorem: 2B log₂ N
- Example 2: noiseless capacity
 - \circ B = 1200 Hz
 - N = each pulse encodes 16 symbols
 - \circ C = 2B log₂ (N) = D x log₂ (N)





How does Noise affect these Bounds?

Noise

- Blurs the symbols, reducing the number of symbols that can be reliably distinguished
- Claude Shannon (1948)
 - Extended Nyquist's work to channels with additive white Gaussian noise (a good model for thermal noise)

channel capacity $C = B \log_2 (1 + S/N)$

where

C is the maximum supportable bit rate

B is the channel bandwidth

S/N is the ratio between signal power sym

This N is noise not number of symbols



Noisy Capacity

$$SNR(dB) = 10 \log_{10} \left(\frac{P_{signal}}{P_{noise}} \right)$$

- Telephone channel
 - 3400 Hz at 40 dB SNR

decibels (dB) is a logarithmic unit of measurement that expresses the magnitude of a physical quantity (usually power or intensity) relative to a specified or implied reference level



Noisy Capacity

$$SNR(dB) = 10 \log_{10} \left(\frac{P_{signal}}{P_{noise}} \right)$$

- Telephone channel
 - 3400 Hz at 40 dB SNR
 - \circ C = B log₂ (1+S/N) bits/s
 - SNR = 40 dB $40 = 10 \log_{10} (S/N)$ S/N = 10,000
 - \circ C = 3400 log₂ (10001) = 44.8 kbps



Summary of Encoding

- Problems: attenuation, dispersion, noise
- Digital transmission allows periodic regeneration
- Variety of binary voltage encodings
 - High frequency components limit to short range
 - More voltage levels provide higher data rate
- Modulation schemes
 - Amplitude, frequency, phase, and combinations
 - Quadrature amplitude modulation: amplitude and phase, many signals
- Nyquist (noiseless) and Shannon (noisy) limits on data rates

