Lecture 3 Physical Media and Attenuation

Physical Layer

The physical layer is about communication between adjacent nodes.

- → What signals do we send?
- → How do we deal with distortion?

Say A is sending a message to B.

(binary: D > OV, 1 > 5V)

Ideally, B would receive exactly what A sends.

What could go wrong?

-> There could be magnetic flux through the circuit, messing up the voltages. enf d # due to currents between other people talking

How to fix?

"Cross-talk" · Reduce area of loop.

· Twisted-pair. > reduces flux. If done well, climinates most cross-talk

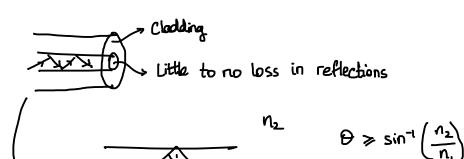
CAT-3 cables have 10 Mbps over 100m. CAT-5 cables have 100 Mbps over 100 m. CAT-6 cables have 1 Glops over 100m. 10 Gbjs over 50 m.

- · Ethernet connectors have many wires coming in. (& wires — 4 twisted pairs)
- · Co-axial cables have a layer of shielding / insulation.

Copper - Voltage between the two wires. > Insulation

> (0-2 in) Thin Net Coax give 100 Mbps over 200 m (0.4 in) ThickNet Coax give 100 Mbps over 500m

· Optic fibres allow very high data rate. They use light rays instead of electric signals, thus reducing attenuation. fired from Løser.



If it allows multiple argles to pass through (modes), it is called multi-mode fibre.

They are not the best because different modes can overlap. In single-mode fibre, only one mode passes through.

Reduce diemeter or increase refractive index.

More expensive.

Say A transmits amplitude A_{in} and B receives amplitude A_{2} . The attenuation, measured in dB, is equal to

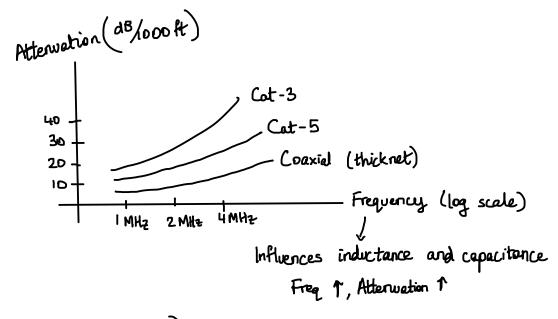
10
$$\log_{10}\left(\frac{p_{in}}{p_{out}}\right) = 20 \log_{10}\left(\frac{A_{in}}{A_{out}}\right)$$

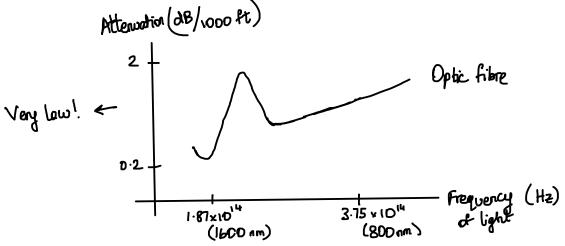
It is usually measured in dB/1000 At instead Note that it is additive over distance.

If P goes to P/2, attenuation is $\sim 3 aB$.

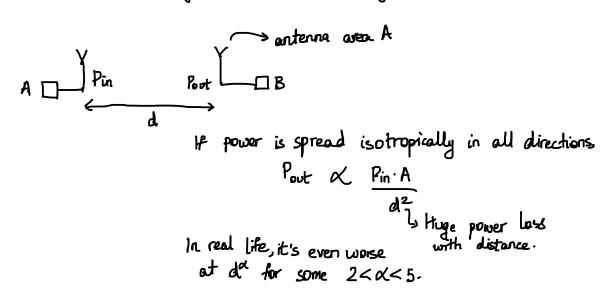
We also measure absolute power in dBm, dBW.

Suppose power P. $|0|\log_{10}\left(\frac{P}{1 \text{ mW}}\right) \longrightarrow \text{Power in dBm}.$





Say A and B are communicating wirelessly. A sends signals via antenna.



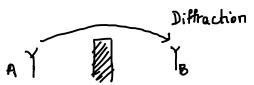
To solve this, we sometimes use directional antennos.

(dish antennas for example)

Nowadays, we use MIMO (multiple-input and multiple-output) or more recently, massive MIMD.

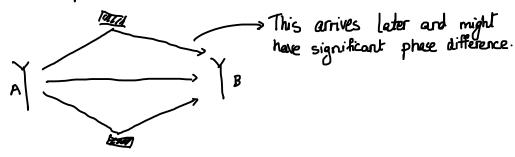
In the wireless case, we could have

- → Interference (counterpart of cross-talk)
- → Obstructions



(Not a problem if) line of sight

- Multipath (counterpart of multimode)

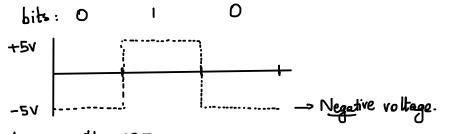


Lecture 4 Line Coding

Given a set of bits, we have to convert them into signals. How? Wired situation.

We use line coding.

· Non-return to zero (NRZ)



(+5V when I and

Issues with NRZ.

- Clock recovery - 001100 and 010 are essentially the same How would we infer the actual clock duration of the sender?

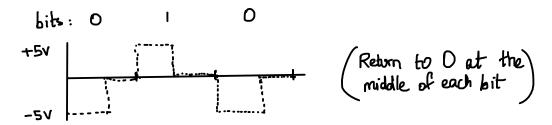
The clock may be slightly slower/faster due to imperfections and may also have "drift".

We are unable to recover the clock from the signal.

- Baseline warder- Instead of being exactly -5 and +5, there may be some offset. The DC offset is the average of the two offsets - the "new O". This leads to errors other than the usual errors itself.

If we use a high pass filter, it partially resolves it. However, if there is a long string of Os or ls, it gets messed up.

· Return to Zero (RZ)

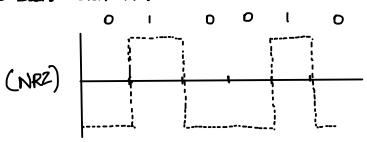


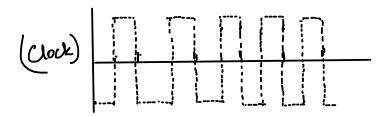
We never have a constant signal for a long time, so high pass filters can remove baseline wander.

However, the issue is that we now have three levels.

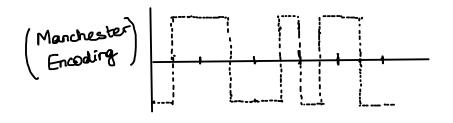
Manchester Coding (802.3 IEEE) Lestandard for ethernet

This is what is used usually. We start with NRZ.





We then XOR the two.



The regular transitions eliminate the issue of clock recovery.

Like RZ, we can use a high pass filter to eliminate baseline wander.

(but only two voltage levels)

Note that the encoding of a O has a positive transition
I has a negative transition

We can recognize the bit if we know where it starts.

- 1. We need to know where each bit begins.
- 2. We mustn't mess up the polarity.

To do 1, we use a known signal known as the preamble to synchronize. Before the actual message, we insert this special signal. It can be thought of as a physical layer header.

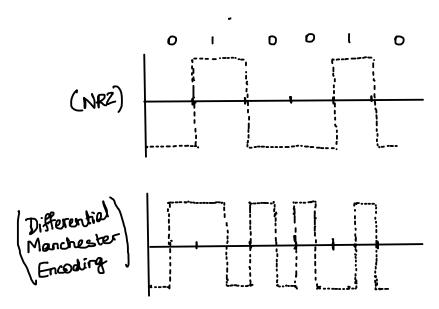
· Differential Manchester Encoding (802.5 IEEE)

It is used in token ring LANS (see.DLL)

for a 0, the first half is opposite of the last half of the previous bit.

1, the first half is equal to the last half of the previous bit.

Within each bit, there is a clock-like signal.



This has the advantages of Manchester encoding and further, the polarity issue is now gone.

(just see if it inverts or stays the same)

• 4B/5B Encoding:

Recall that in NRZ, we run into issues if the same bit occurs multiple times.

What if we manually change it once in a while? What this does is that for an input of 4 bits, it gives out 5 bits. For example,

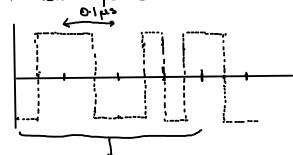
This ensures that there are atmost 3 consecutive Os/Is in the encoded bit string.

This is disadvantageous because there is some degree of redundancy.

Band Rate:

Recall that the bit rate is the maximum possible rumber of bits transferred per second.

The Baud rate is the maximum allowable number of symbol changes made to the transmission medium per second.



Horst case, one change every 0.05 µs

Baud rate = 2×10 symbols s-1

In some sense, Baud rate captures what protential we can use the medium to The allowable frequency range is related.

Lirecall that as freq. 1, attenuation 1.

An allowable signal should have most of the Fourier transform contained within the allowable frequencies.

Observe that in Manchester, Baud rate > bit rate and twice as much in NRZ, Baud rate = bit rate.

Lecture 5 Modulation in Wireless Networks

Suppose we have a sender with an antenna. He wants to send a signal. How would be do that? A free-for-all is infeasible.

The premnent steps in. spectrum

They auction certain ranges of frequencies for explicit purposes.

Then even if different frequencies interfere, we can use a bandpass filter.

Some bands like Wifi are unlicensed, but then interference is not an issue.

Say we are limited to (for ± 10 MHz)

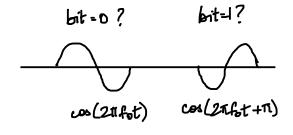
This is where modulation enters the picture.

Carrier wave: cos (211 fot)

A cas (211 fot +
$$\Theta$$
)

Amplifude Frequency Phase $\rightarrow 3$ types of modulation.

(F.M. veel in analog)



You can show that the Fourier transform looks some thing like

Width depends on how frequently you change phase.

2 Usually far more than just I wavelength

If we change less frequently, low rate of transmission but restricted to a narrower band.

Sey s(t) is transmitted and due to reflections noise

is the received signal.

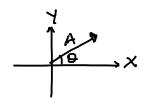
(west general case)

The bit error rate is the fraction of transmitted bits received erroneously. (interpreted)

We can think of signals in a vector space.

Focusing on frequency to, we can represent a wave Acos (271 fot -0) by the vector of magnitude A at angle Θ .

(in \mathbb{R}^2)



What would be the equivelent of the dot product here?

In these functional vector spaces, the inner product of I functions $f,g: [0,T] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is $\langle f,g \rangle = \int f(t)g(t) dt$

If we send the signals over time
$$T = N/f_0$$
, $Sin(e \langle e_1, e_1 \rangle = \langle e_2, e_2 \rangle = 1$, $e_1 = \sqrt{\frac{2f_0}{N}} \cos{(2\pi f_0 t)}$ and $e_2 = \sqrt{\frac{2f_0}{N}} \sin{(2\pi f_0 t)}$

and $\langle e_1, e_2 \rangle = 0$.

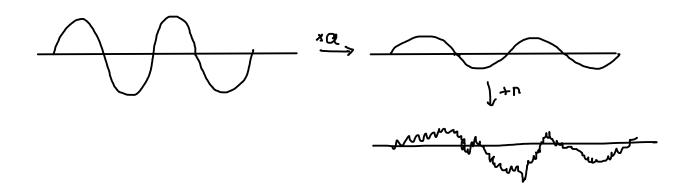
Suppose
$$r(t) = a \cdot s(t) + n(t)$$

attenuation AWGN

$$f_x = a \langle s_1 e_1 \rangle + \langle n_1 e_1 \rangle$$

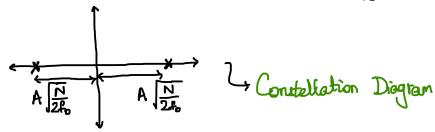
$$f_y = a \langle s_1 e_2 \rangle + \langle n_1 e_2 \rangle$$

$$L_{ny}$$



$$g = A \cos (2\pi f_0 t - \theta) = \frac{A}{\sqrt{2R_0}N} (\cos \theta e_1 + \sin \theta e_2)$$

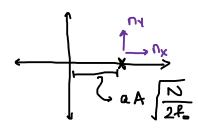
Suppose we transmit
$$s(t) = A\cos(2\pi f_0 t)$$
 if left O
$$S(t) = -A\cos(2\pi f_0 t) \text{ if bit } I$$
 for time $O \le t \le \tau = \frac{N}{f_0}$.

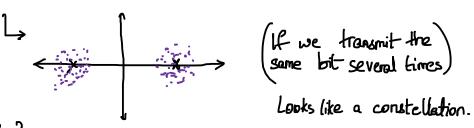


Say bit 0, so s(t). We receive as(t)+n(t)

rx = asx + nx

AWGN n is such that nx and ny are iid Gaussian.





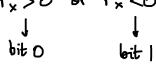
How do we do detection?

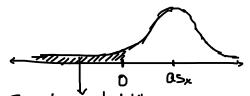
Say r(t) = a s(t) + n(t)

- Colculate rx and ry.

- Find the constellation point closest to (rx, ry).

(In this example, just see if $r_x > 0$ or $r_x < 0$)





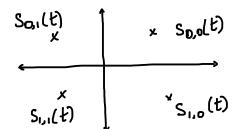
This tail probability is the probability of interpreting it incorrectly (if O is transmitted)

The signal-to-noise ratio is the ratio of signal power to noise power. (SNR)

The above modulation scheme is known as Binary Place Shift Keying.

(180° out of phase) < x > could switch O and I or even keep them on Y-axis.

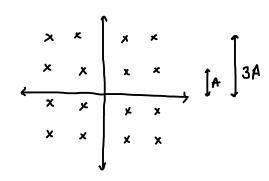
In Quadrature PSK (QPSK)



Can send two loits of dota at a time.

Transmission detection is nearly identical to BPSK.

QAM-16, In



Four bits of data at a time

QAM-256 has 8 bits of data.

What constellation do we use?

- 1. Allowed transmit power

Bit Error Rate is a function of SNR.

2. Received signed power

Say QPSK vs QAM-16 with same received signal power (and same attenuation).

Slower Faster but lower BER but higher BER

For example, our Wifi card constantly sees the SNR and dynamically changes the scheme used.

Each of these x's in the constellation diagram is called a symbol. The transmitted signal is just the concatenation of the signal corresponding to each of the bits.

8-PSK is

To sectors according to which we decide what to interpret received signed as

QAM-16's sector division is slightly trickier (what is it?)

(and not even uniform, in fact)

PSK is convenient because amplitude doesn't even enter the picture.