

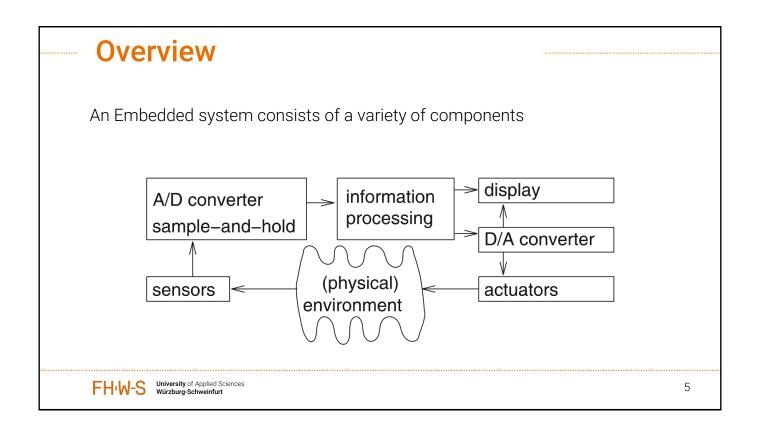
### FH<sub>'</sub>W-S

## Communication



# **Foundations**

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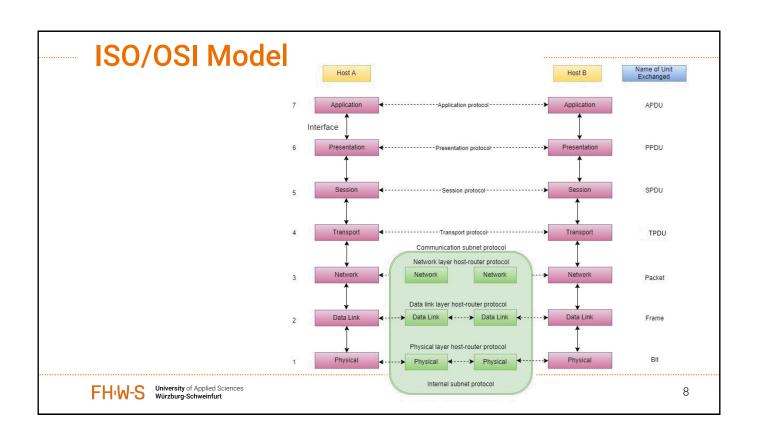
	Phone	TV	LAN	Fieldbus
Participants	Mostly 2	many	many	Mostly less than 200
Spatial distribution	Global	global	global	From local up to a few km
Routing	Yes	No	Yes	No
Information flow direction	w Bidirectional	Unidirectional	Bidirectional	Bidirectional
Transfer rate	Kbit/s	Gbit/s	Gbit/s	< 10MBit/s
Real-time	Yes	No	No	Yes
Information size	e Very long	Very long	Very long	Very short
Messaging frequency	Varying	Varying	Varying	Constant
Configuration of the participants req.		No	No	Yes
Environment	Office	Office	Office	Industry

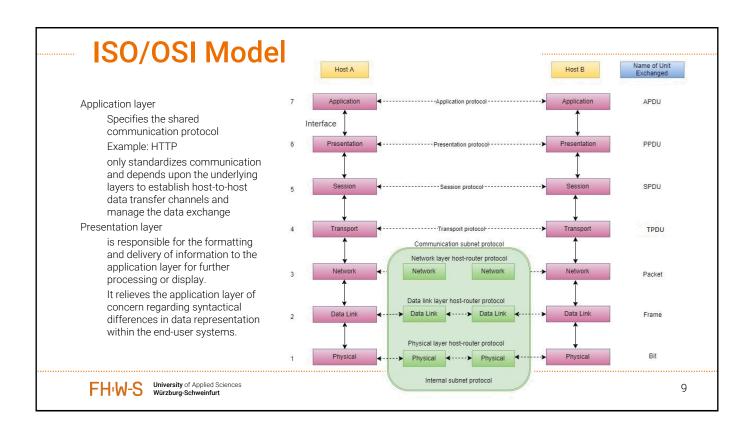


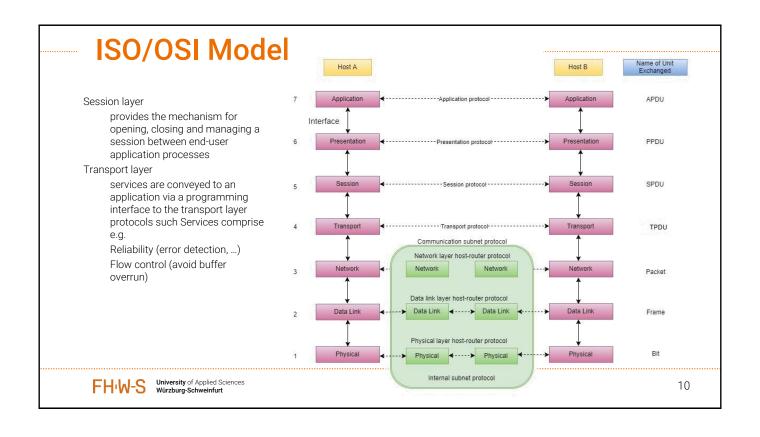
# What is important for Communication?

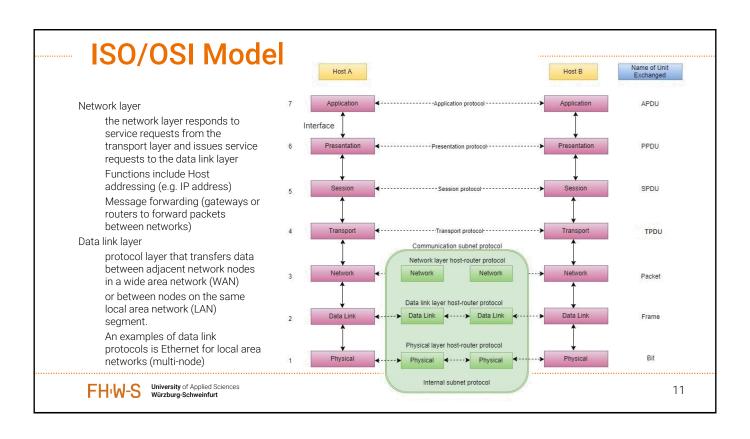
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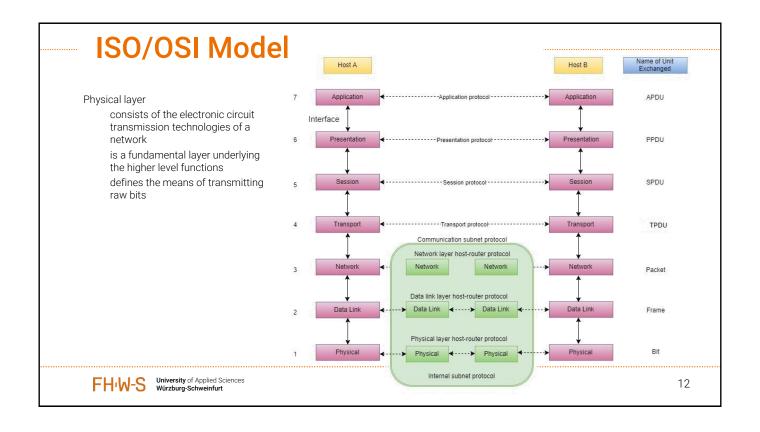
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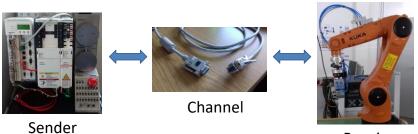




# **Physical Layer**

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# **Physical Layer**



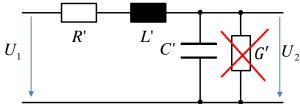
Communication on physical layer might suffer from Signal attenuation due to the impedance of the cable Jitter due to clock that are not precise enough Delays due to limited signal velocity Noise due to non-ideal sender, receiver conditions Reflection

Receiver

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# Signal attenuation

Signal attenuation due to the resistance of the cable



A two-wire cable can be modeled by a resistance, an inductance and a capacitance. The admittance  $\mathcal{G}'$  is usually neglected.

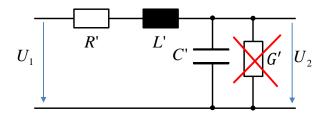
The resistance induces an attenuation that is independent of frequency. The inductance and the capacitance entail an attenuation that is frequency dependent.



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## Signal attenuation

Signal attenuation due to the resistance of the cable



Example:

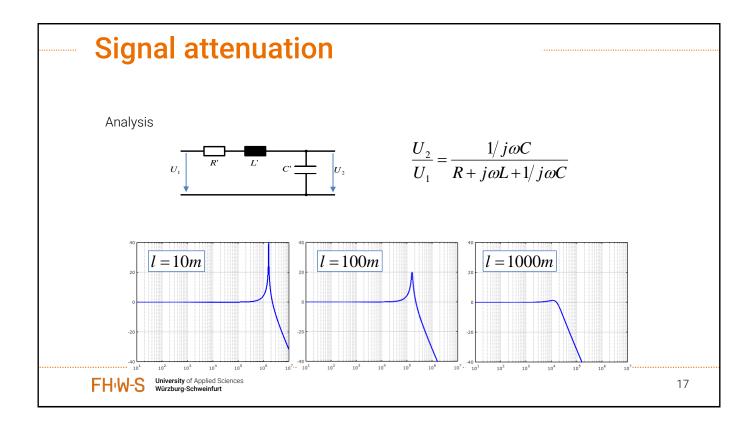
Typical values of Profibus PA

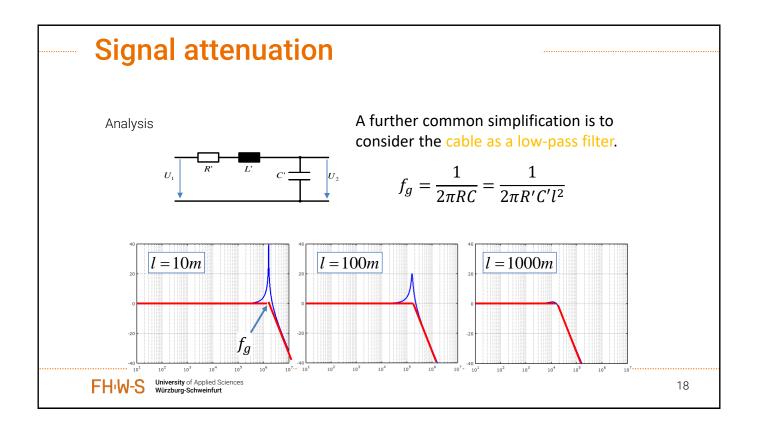
 $R'=100\Omega/km$ 

L'=1mH/km

C'=100nF/km

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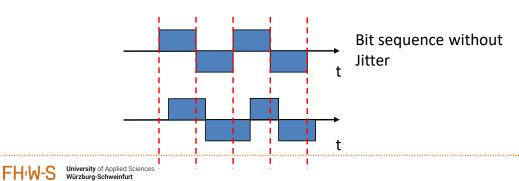
### **Jitter**

Jitter is noise on the time axis.

Example: A sender is supposed to send a signal at a given time point. However, due to Jitter, the signal is delayed by 100 ms. Causes might be

Limited performance of the sender

Clock generators that aren't precise enough.



**Delay** 

Delays due to limited signal velocity

In a cable, typical propagation velocities are 60% to 70% of the velocity of light. If line resistances can be neglected, the signal velocity can be calculated according to:

$$v = \frac{1}{\sqrt{L' \cdot C'}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{50pF/m \cdot 500nH/m}} = 2 \cdot \frac{10^8 m}{s} = 0.67c$$

$$Z_L = \sqrt{\frac{L'}{C'}} \to L' = 500nH/m$$

Electrical characteristics for Cat 5e UTP

Electrical citatacteristics for out se off				
Property	Nominal	Tolerance	Unit	ref
Characteristic impedance, 1–100 MHz	100	± 15	Ω	[18]
Characteristic impedance @ 100 MHz	100	± 5	Ω	[18]
DC loop resistance	≤ 0.188		Ω/m	[18]
Propagation speed	0.64		С	[18]
Propagation delay	4.80-5.30		ns/m	[18]

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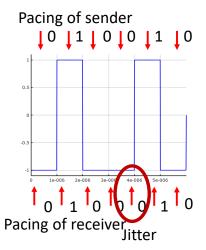
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### **Delay**

When digital signals are transmitted, the start and the end of a bit must be available for each participant. Thereby, sampling issues can be mitigated.

The delay of individual bits and the spatial distribution of the participants as well as different clocks can impair the synchronization.

It is distinguished between synchronous and asynchronous communication.



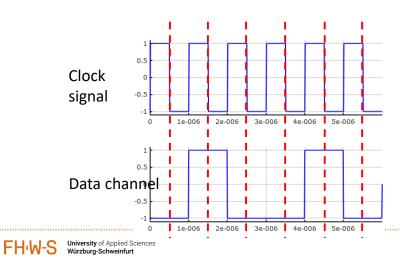


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# Synchronous transmission

A simple way to facilitate synchronous data transmission is to use a separate channel that determines the middle of a bit.

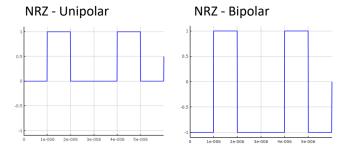


In this example, the falling edge determines the middle of a bit

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## **Synchronous transmission**

In the non-return-zero-code (NRZ), the signal level is constant over a bit. A change in the signal level is used to indicate the start and the end of a bit.



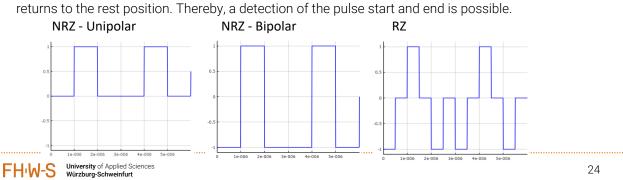


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## Synchronous transmission

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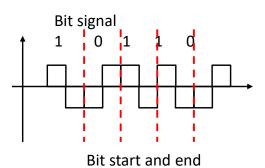
To overcome this drawback, a third state can be introduced. In half of a clock pulse, the signal returns to the rest position. Thereby, a detection of the pulse start and end is possible.



# **Synchronous transmission**

With Manchester coding, similar to RZ coding, an edge is also guaranteed in each bit. Manchester coding is used, for example, for 10 Mbit Ethernet or Profibus PA.

One disadvantage of Manchester coding is that the sender and receiver must be able to send and receive bits at practically twice the data rate. This increases the hardware requirements and lowers the gross data rate.





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### **Synchronous transmission**

In networks with higher transfer rates, a different method is used to ensure a sufficient number of edges. A 4-bit-signal is converted to a 5-bit-signal (4B5B Coding).

Due to this mapping, there are always bit edges in any bit combination.

The bit rate increases due to coding. For example, in 100 Mbit Ethernet to a bit rate of 125 Mbit/s.

4 Bits input	5 Bits output	4 Bits input	5 Bits output
0000	11110	1000	10010
0001	01001	1001	10011
0010	10100	1010	10110
0011	10101	1011	10111
0100	01010	1100	11010
0101	01011	1101	11011
0110	01110	1110	11100
0111	01111	1111	11101



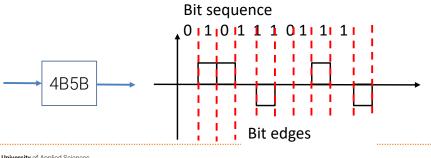
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## Synchronous transmission

Subsequently, the so-called multi-level transmission (MLT – Multi Level Transmission) is applied. This is based on three signal states: positive, neutral, and negative. Bits are encoded according to NRZ.

A logical "0" equals no signal change.

A logical "1" is represented by a periodic change: 0+0-



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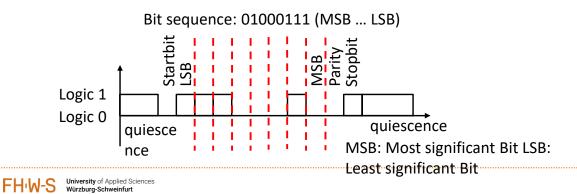
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## **Asynchronous transmission**

Asynchronous transmission

If signals are asynchronous, data sets must still be distinguishable. An example is the Universal Asynchronous Receiver and Transmitter (UART) method, e.g. UART used for the HART protocol. A Byte is encoded according to the following scheme:

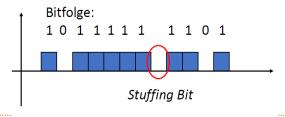


# **Asynchronous transmission**

### Bit stuffing

If you want to avoid coding with three levels you have to rely on falling or rising edges to detect bit boundaries. If several bits with identical levels appear, the synchronisation can be lost. For example, in the case of the CAN field bus, this is why after 5 identical bit levels on the line, a bit with an inverted level is inserted at the transmitter and removed again at the receiver.

A disadvantage of bit stuffing is the increase in the number of bits to be transmitted. An advantage is that a violation of the bit stuffing rule can be used for error detection.





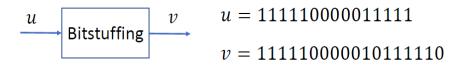
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## **Asynchronous transmission**

### Bit stuffing

To ensure that there are never more than five identical levels on the line, the levels must be counted in v and not in u.

If this were not the case, error frames could not be detected unambiguously on the CAN bus.



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What does asynchronous communication mean for the definition of an embedded system's behavior?

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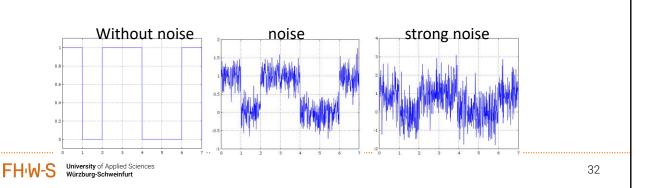
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### **Noise**

Noise due to non-ideal sender, receiver conditions

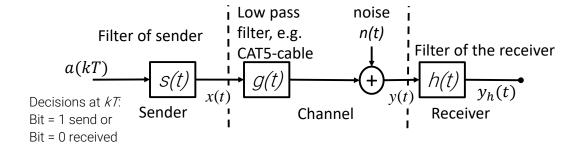
Noise can have different origins such as electromagnetic parasitic signals, non-ideal sender or receiver, ...

Usually white noise is observed, which leads to bit errors.



### **Noise**

The receiver can filter the signal to reduce the noise. A very suitable filter is the MATCHED filter. Therefore, the signal is convoluted with the conjugated time-reversed of the signal.

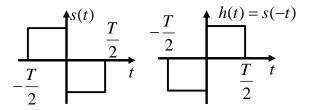


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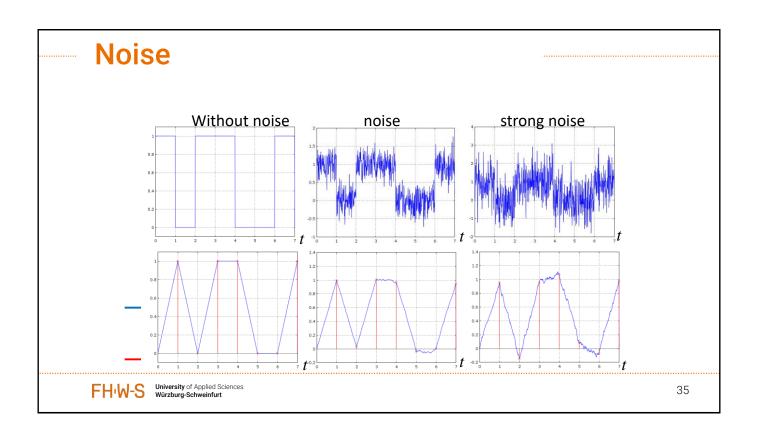
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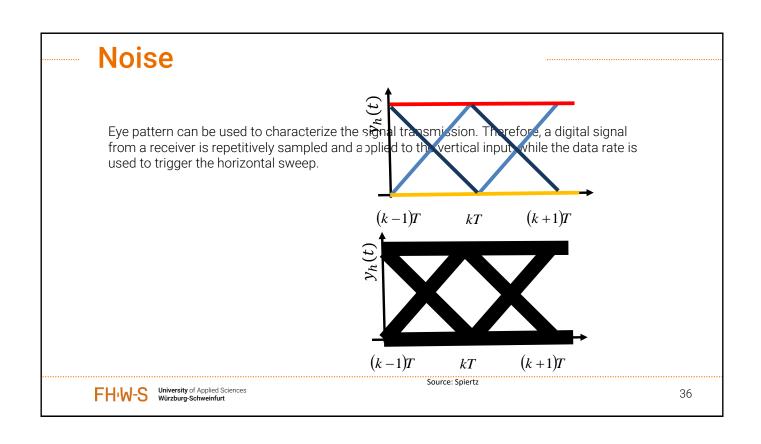
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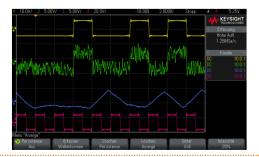
### **Noise**

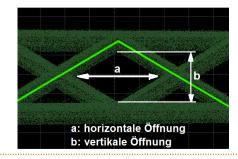
Eye pattern reveal important characteristics:

The opening of the eye a provides information of the clock quality.

The height b asses the probability of false interpreted bits.

As long there is an opening, no bit errors can be assumed.





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### Reflection

The line impedance allows to characterize the cable. The line resistance depends on loop resistance, loop inductance, and isolator capacitance. For high frequencies, the impedance can be approximated by

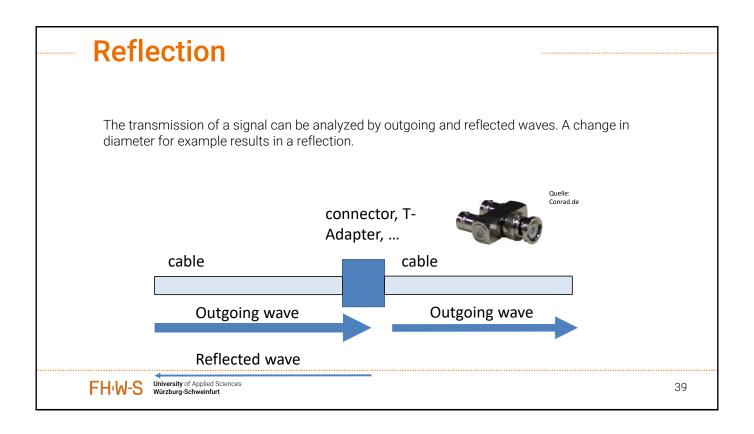
$$Z_L = \sqrt{\frac{R' + j\omega L'}{G' + j\omega C'}} \approx \sqrt{\frac{L'}{C'}}$$

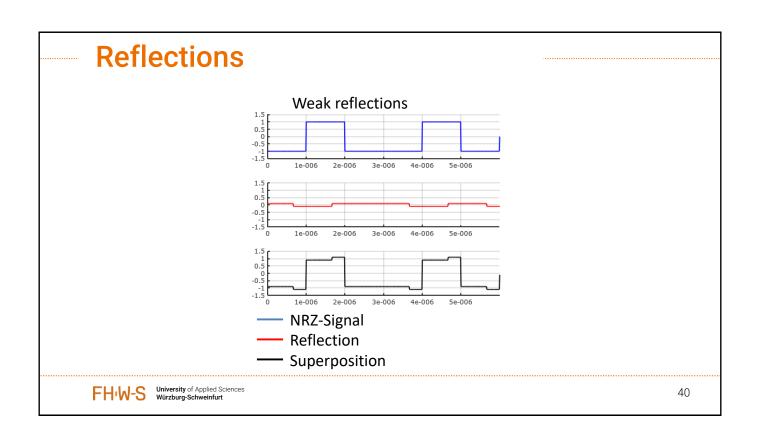
Common values:

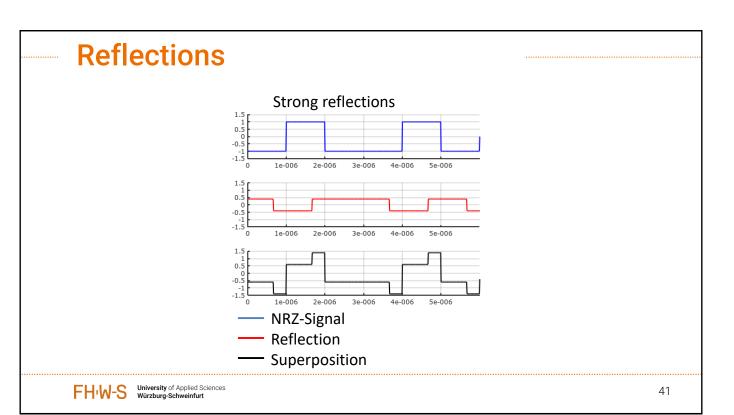
BNC-based networks 50  $\Omega$  Coaxial cables 75  $\Omega$ 

CAT5-cable 100  $\Omega$  CAN-High 120  $\Omega$ 

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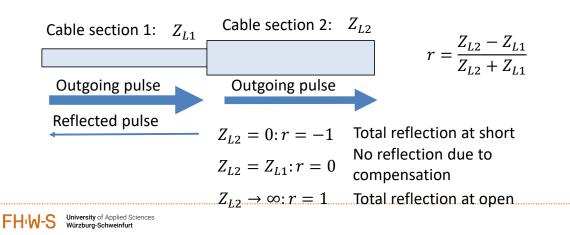








The reflections factor characterized the ration of outgoing and reflected signal and can be calculated from the line impedances.



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## **Data Link Layer**

#### Motivation

communication channels aren't ideal, bit failures are caused by noise

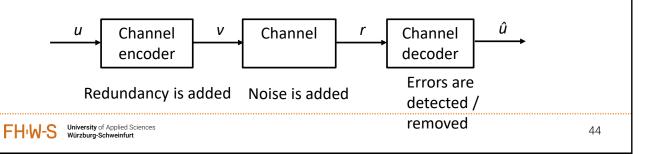
the second layer in the OSI model is the data link layer. This layer features functions to detect and correct errors. If an error is detected:

Send the data again – requires bidirectional communication

correct error - also possible for unidirectional communication

### Channel coding:

Adding redundancy to message to enable error detection/correction Encoding of the channel alters the data rate



#### Block codes

Instead of encoding single bits, bit packages are encoded For a (n, k) block code, k user and n-k redundancy bits are combined

k data bits

n-k redundancy bits

The code rate  $R_{\mathcal{C}}$  is the ratio of data bits and total bits

$$R_C = \frac{k}{n}$$
; and  $0 \le R_C \le 1$ 

Lower code rates facilitate improved error correction capabilities Low code rates require increased effort for signal transmission When the original string is part of the encoded word, the code is called systematic.



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## **Data Link Layer**

Fundamentals of coding theory

Encoding relies often on modulo 2 arithmetics

Binary addition is replaced by XOR operation, which results in a modulo 2 calculation

X <sub>1</sub>	X <sub>2</sub>	$y = x_1 + x_2$
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

No calculation of carry bits required, speeds up the calculation

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Fundamentals of coding theory

Binary multiplication is defined as a multiplication of polynomials

Binary addition uses modulo 2 arithmetics

$$v_1 = 1011$$

$$= x^3 + x + 1$$

$$v_2 = 101$$

$$= x^2 + 1$$

$$v_1 \cdot v_2 = (x^3 + x + 1) \cdot (x^2 + 1)$$

$$= x^5 + x^3 + x^2 + x^3 + x + 1$$

$$= x^5 + x^2 + x + 1$$

$$= 100111$$

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## **Data Link Layer**

Hamming distance

The Hamming distance of two bit series is the number of different bits.

$$d = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (v_{1,i} + v_{2,i})$$

The minimal Hamming distance  $d_{min}$  is the smallest Hamming distance between all existing codewords.

$$x=~d_{min}~-1;~~y=\left(\frac{d_{min}~-1}{2}\right)$$
 A correction algorithm can detect x bit errors and can correct y of them

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Hamming distance – Simple example How can a shepherd count his sheep? Counting the legs and divide by four.

Minimal distance between two data sets

 $d_{min} = 4$ 

Number of errors that can be detected

x = 3

Number of errors that can be corrected

y = 1

 $n = 16 \rightarrow no error four sheep$ 

 $n = 17 \rightarrow$  one error; four sheep; error corrected

 $n = 18 \rightarrow$  two errors; either four or five sheep, error not corrected

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## **Data Link Layer**

Hamming distance - Repetition code example Hamming distance - repetition code

> Each bit is repeated three times Systematic code

data code 000 111

The code rate is

 $R_c = 1/3$ 

The minimal distance is

 $d_{\min} = 3$ 

Number of errors that can be detected

 $x = d_{\min} - 1 = 2$ 

Number of errors that can be corrected

$$y = \left| \frac{d_{\min} - 1}{2} \right| = 1$$



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# Data link layer

Hamming distance – Repetition code example

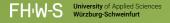
send	received	decoded		
000	000	000	No error	
000	010	000	Error detected	Error corrected
000	101	111	Error detected	Error can't be corrected
000	111	111	Error not detected	Error can't be corrected

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How can we detect all errors? At what cost?



# **Inter and Intra System Communication**

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# **Directivity of communication**

Simplex: Communication in one direction

Half duplex: Communication in both directions, but only one direction at a time

one direction at a time

Full duplex: Simultanuous communication in both directions







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## **Connecting networks**

### Repeater

Repeaters enable a larger number of fieldbus participants and/or a greater range of the bus.

They receive the bits and retransmit identical bits (without attenuations, etc.).

This introduces a certain delay which limits the number of repeaters.

Since repeaters do not change the data, they are transparent for all other bus participants.

### Wifi bridge





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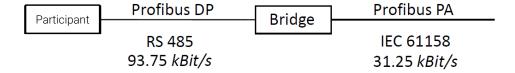
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## **Connecting networks**

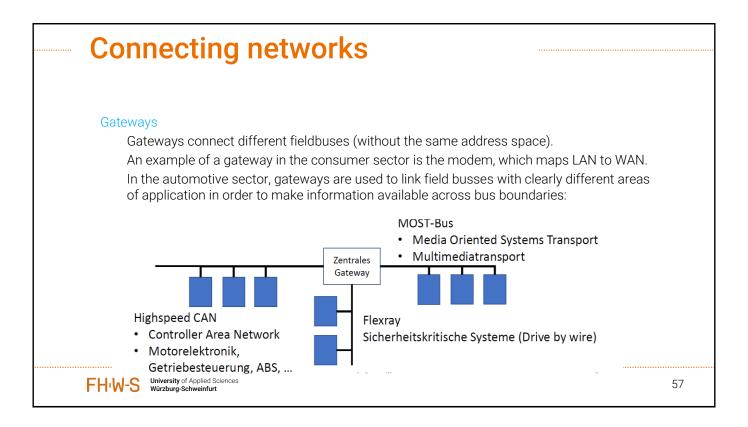
#### **Bridges**

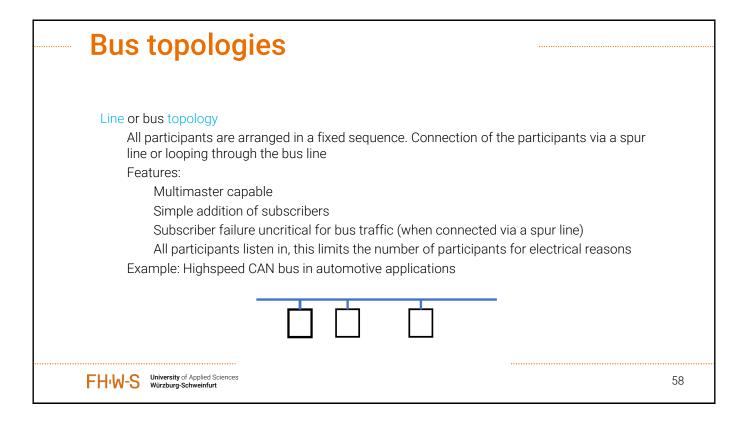
Bridges connect similar fieldbuses with the same address space and telegram formats. However, the connected segments can differ in transmission medium, transmission speed and topology.

An example from the consumer sector would be an access point (Wifi to LAN).



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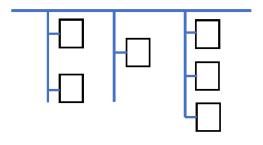


## **Bus topologies**

### Tree topology

Tree structures combine spatially connected structures into line structures. These are further combined in superordinate line structures.

The properties correspond to the line structure.





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## **Bus topologies**

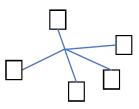
### Star topology

Star structures are similar to line structures. In contrast to these, all connections are brought together in one point. This point can be a simple electrical connection or even an active component with buffers and routing, for example a switch.

### Examples:

Lowspeed CAN

Fast Ethernet with a switch acting as central connection point





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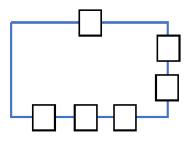
# **Bus topologies**

### Ring topology

With the ring structure, a participant failure interrupts the entire bus communication. The participants can refresh the signals and

thereby realise large distances. With the ring structure, adding participants is not trivial, as addressing is often done via the position in the ring.

Example: Ether CAT fieldb





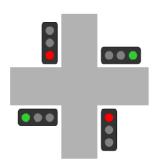
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## Bus access procedures

Bus access by allocation:

A participant has the right to access the bus. This usually happens cyclically.

This procedure includes master/slave, producerconsumer, token passing and TDMA. These procedures are basically deterministic (guaranteed message latency).



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### Bus access by demand

Each participant has the right to access the bus. If several participants send at the same time, there is an access conflict that must be resolved in a suitable manner.

The CSMA algorithms belong to this procedure. These procedures are fundamentally nondeterministic (non-guaranteed message latency).





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# Embedded Systems and Fieldbuses Bus access procedures Master / Slave: A central bus participant (master) requests another bus participant (slave) to send a certain data set or to perform a certain action. The slave only responds if it has been requested to do so by the master. Master sendet Slave reagiert mit Anforderung an Antworttelegramm Slave FH-W-S University of Applied Sciences Würzburg-Schweinfurt 64

#### **Benefits**

The coupling of the slaves is simple.

There is participant monitoring.

Communication is simple (question  $\rightarrow$  answer).

The time behaviour is deterministic and thus real-time capable.

#### **Drawbacks**

If the master fails, the entire bus communication breaks down.

There is no direct communication among the slaves. This must always be done via the master. This increases the overhead.

In the event of an alarm, the slaves cannot independently notify other us participants but must wait for the master to call them.

The cycle time increases with the number of slaves.

#### Example

Profibus PA Ether CAT



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### Bus access procedures

### **Producer Consumer:**

The arbitrator stores the order of all transmissions in the scanning table. It sends a request, for example a temperature value, to the respective producer.

The Producer recognizes the request and sends the requested value on the fieldbus.

The consumers know which value is being sent based on the request. They decide for themselves whether this value is relevant to them.



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### **Benefits**

Broadcast is possible, as each consumer decides for himself which values are relevant to him.

Real-time capability is given.

-Cyclic data transfers are reported to the arbitrator orange and the arbitrator controls the time allocation for this.

### Drawbacks

If the arbitrator fails, the entire bus fails.

The cycle time increases with the number of producers.

### Example

**Profinet IO** 



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## Bus access procedures

#### Token passing

The token corresponds to the send authorisation on the bus. It is passed on to another participant after the message has been sent. To prevent a total failure of the system due to the failure of a participant, the token is also passed on after a certain time has elapsed. Passing on via spatial neighbourhood, for example in a ring bus, is called token ring. Token forwarding via addresses is called a token bus.



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### **Benefits**

The participants monitor each other.

The time behaviour is deterministic and thus real-time capable.

### **Drawbacks**

Time delay in the event of a token loss or an incorrect token duplication.

Token administration and transfer is relatively time-consuming.

### Example

**FoundationFieldbus** 

**Modbus** 



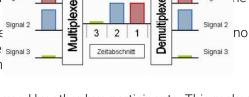
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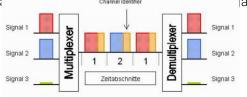
### Bus access procedures

TDMA (Time Division Multiple Access): The data i Signal 1 bus.

With synchronous TDMA, each participant receive addresses are needed in the messages, as the sel signal 3 position. If there is no data to send, this causes in participant can send at this time.

With asynchronous TDMA, unused time slots are used by other bus participants. This makes more efficient use of the bus. However, the mess:





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#### **Benefits**

Each participant has a guaranteed transmission bandwidth and latency.

Deterministic time behaviour (real-time capable).

Simple protocol in the synchronous procedure.

### **Drawbacks**

All participants need a synchronous clock.

Adding and removing participants is complicated

### Example

**Interbus** 

**Sercos** 

GSM (old mobile phone communication standard)



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### Bus access procedures

CSMA (Carrier Sense Multiple Access) describe bus access procedures, where all participants have equal rights and can transmit on the bus at any time. If two participants send simultaneously, the message is distorted by the collision on the bus.

With CSMA/CD (Carrier Sense Multiple Access / Collision Detection), the transmitter reads the bus signal.

If it detects a collision, it immediately stops sending the message. After a transmitterspecific waiting time, the message is sent again, since the previously sent message was disturbed by the collision. CSMA/CD is not deterministic, as collision-free transmission can never be guaranteed.

Example: 10 Mbit Ethernet in half duplex



# Bus access procedures

Worst case scenario:

Participant A sends an Ethernet telegram of minimum length.

In the worst case, participant B begins to send its own telegram exactly when the telegram from A arrives at B.

In order for participant A to notice this collision, the beginning of B's telegram, responsible for the collision must reach participant A before A has finished sending the message.

This is why minimal telegrams are critical.

The signal must therefore pass through the length I twice within one telegram period

The time required for this is called round trip delay.



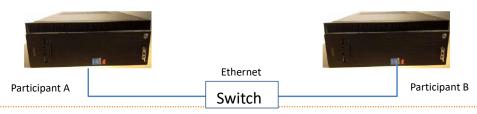


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# Bus access procedures

Fast Ethernet (100 Mbit) is the basis for all current fieldbus technologies that are based on Ethernet.

Here, one pair of the four wire pairs is used for the transmitting direction and one pair for the receiving direction. This means that each cable between the switch and participant A/B is used in full duplex mode and collision detection can be avoided.



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# Bus access procedures

CSMA/CR (Carrier Sense Multiple Access / Collision Resolution):

Each message has a specific priority. If several participants send simultaneously, the message with the highest priority prevails.

For this purpose, it must be detected for each bit whether it is sent by another transmitter.

With CSMA/CD, the interference only has to be detected for each telegram.

### Benefits:

Messages with the highest priority have the shortest waiting times.

The data transmission is event-driven.

In case of collisions, a message always gets through anyway.

### Drawback

Non-deterministic bus access for messages with low priority.

Example: CAN



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# **Delays**

Delays can cause problems in fieldbus systems: A system reacts with delay to an alarm, for example an increased temperature in a chemical process.

Delays are caused by

the data link layer, as bits may only be used after the CRC has been received.

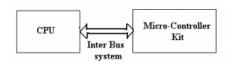
The bus access procedures:

In the case of master/slave access, the query by the master alone causes a delay.

With cyclic messages, the cycle time causes a delay.



The inter-system protocol using to communicate the two different devices. Like communication between computer to microcontroller kit



### Main categories

UART (Universal Asynchronous Receiver and Transmitter) USART (Universal Synchronous and Asynchronous Receiver and Transmitter) USB (Universal Serial Bus)



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# Inter system protocols

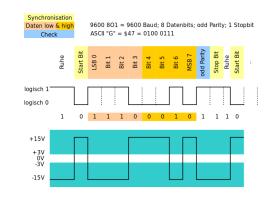
### Universal Asynchronous Receiver Transmitter (UART)

ART describes the arrangement of the bits during transmission

Often referred to as serial interface

### Working principle

Data is transmitted in frames of 8 bits Parity bit enables verification of correct transmission



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In microcontrollers the UART method is implemented with two lines for the transmission of data (level from 0V to 5V)

RX for receiving data

TX for sending data

The RS232 interface is well known. Here, however, the UART communication protocol is implemented with a level of -15V to 15V.





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### Universal Serial Bus (USB)

Serial communication of two-wire protocol. The data cable signal lines are labeled D+ and D-. Additionally, two cables for power supply.

This protocol is nowadays mainly used to communicate with the system peripherals.



Name	möglich ab	Brutto- Datenrate	Symbolrate Modulation <sup>[18][19]</sup>
Low Speed	USB 1.0	1,5 Mbit/s (187,5 kByte/s)	1,5 MBd NRZI-Code mit Bit-Stuffing
Full Speed	USB 1.0	12 Mbit/s (1,5 MByte/s)	12 MBd NRZI-Code mit Bit-Stuffing
Hi-Speed	USB 2.0	480 Mbit/s (60 MByte/s)	480 MBd NRZI-Code mit Bit-Stuffing
SuperSpeed	USB 3.0	4000 Mbit/s (500 MByte/s)	5000 MBd 8b10b-Code
SuperSpeed +	USB 3.1	9697 Mbit/s (1212 MByte/s)	10000 MBd 128b132b-Code



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# Inter system protocols

Universal Serial Bus (USB)

The USB standard has some advantages:

High data rate can be achieved with comparatively little effort.

Automatic detection of peripherals during operation.

The USB standard is comparatively complex:

A host controller (in the form of a chip) is required for communication.

Dynamic addressing of connected devices.

Tree structures with up to 127 devices on one host controller possible.

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UART	USART	USB
The term UART stands for Universal Asynchronous Transmitter and Receiver	The term USART stands for Universal Synchronous and Asynchronous Data Transmitter and Receiver	The term USB stands for Universal Serial Bus
UART mainly includes two wire-based protocols like transmitter and receiver	USART is a two-wire protocol like Transmitter and Receiver	USB is a two-wire protocol like D+ & D-
It transmits as well as receives pockets of data by byte without classes pulse	It transmits and receives a block of data through classes pulses	It transmits and receives the data through clock pulses
 UART is a half-duplex communication	USART is a full-duplex communication	USB is also full-duplex communication
UART is slow as compared to USART	USART is slow as compared to USB	It is fast as compared to USART and UART

# Fieldbuses

# **Definition**

Different definitions of fieldbuses are used:

Fieldbus describes a group of industrial computer protocols (for communication). It is used for real-time control.

Fieldbuses are industrial networks which define the communication protocols and hardware interface.

A fieldbus is a communication network usually based on the OSI seven-layer model, connecting field devices such as sensors, actuators, and field controllers such as PLC, drive controllers



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# **Fieldbuses**

Fieldbuses allow Reduction of weight Simple connection of components Maintenance via remote access



Fieldbuses are described in IEC 61156 "Digital Data Communication for Measurement and Control" It contains ca. 20 different fieldbus systems with different parameters such as

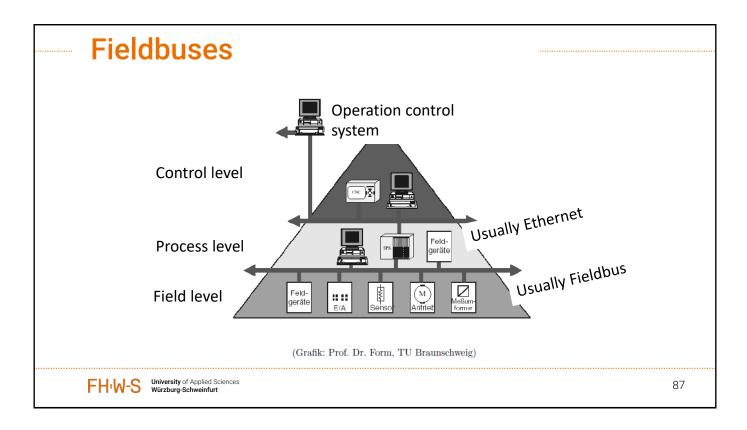
Data rate

Latency

Robustness



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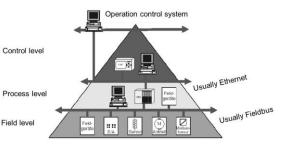
# **Fieldbuses**

### **Process level:**

- · Processing of data
  - Control of sub processes
  - Calculation of derived parameters
- Visualization
- Interface for operator

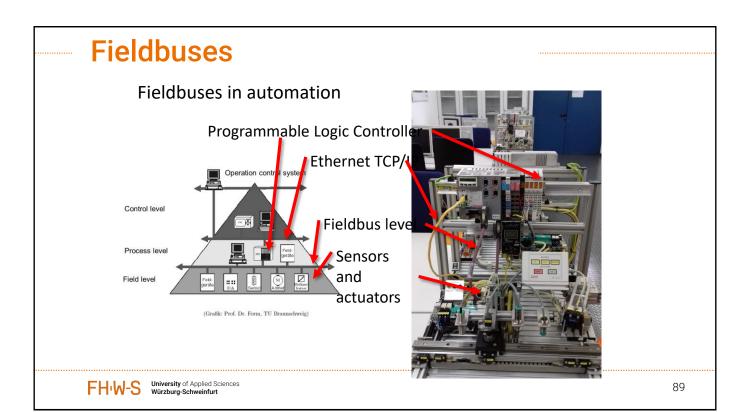
### Field level

- · Recording of sensor values
- · Control of actuators
- · Data exchange with Fieldbus
- Control of sub processes



(Grafik: Prof. Dr. Form, TU Braunschweig)

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# **Fieldbuses**

Some of the numerous fieldbus systems will be presented here.

The individual systems differ significantly in the following parameters:

How many participants can be supplied with data?

How much latency does the fieldbus system cause?

What data volumes can be transmitted?

Is the latency and the data rate predictable, is the fieldbus deterministic or not?

The bus systems presented and their areas of application are:

CAN bus in the automobile

Profibus DP and Profibus PA for process automation

Profinet and EtherCAT as an Ethernet-based fieldbus for various areas of application

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The CAN bus was developed in the 1980s by Bosch and Intel for automotive industries. The aim was to reduce the weight of the cabling and to reduce maintenance costs of the electrical system.

ISO 11898-1: Data Link Layer (data link layer)

ISO 11898-2: Bit transmission layer for

Highspeed (up to 1 MBit/s)

ISO 11898-3: Data link layer for low speed (up

tospeed (up to 125 kBit/s)

ISO = International Organisation for

Standardisation





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## **CAN Bus**

### Characteristics

Distribution: over one billion installed devices (as of 2008)

Topology: Line

Medium: twisted pair cable

Transmission rate: 50 kBit/s at 1000 m line length, 1 MBit/s at 40 m length

Transmission: Asynchronous with bit stuffing (bipolar, NRZ)

Bus access: CSMA / CA

Number of participants:

The maximum number of possible participants is limited by the driver components used. Common limits are 32, 64 or 110 participants. The limitation of the number of participants is due to the fact that the dominant bit must be realised as a voltage difference and the respective other participants count as consumers for this dominant bit.



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### CAN high speed:

1 Mbit/s with a maximum cable length of 40 m. Used for large amounts of cyclic data, e.g. engine control unit.

### CAN low speed:

125 kbit/s with a maximum cable length of 500 m. Typically transports user inputs such as windscreen wipers, window regulators, and so on.

### Gateways:

CAN buses and the other fieldbus systems (such as MOST, Flexray) are usually connected via gateways.

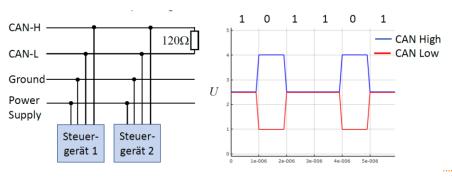


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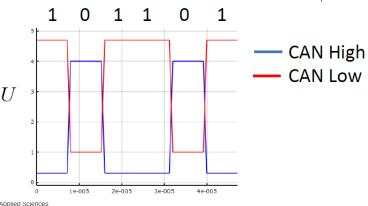
# **CAN Bus**

The high speed version is a linear bus with 120 Ohm terminating resistor. The minimum voltage difference at the dominant level is 0.9 volts, the ideal voltage difference is 2.0 volts. The recessive bit has no voltage difference.



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The lowspeed version has a linear or star topology. Due to a possible star topology, the terminating resistors must be installed in the control units. The minimum voltage difference at the dominant level is 2.3 volts. The dominant bit has the smaller voltage difference.



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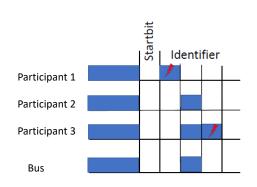
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# **CAN Bus**

Bus access and identifier

Identifiers determine the priority of a message. If a sender detects that it has sent a recessive bit, but that a dominant level is present on the bus, it stops sending because of the observed collision.

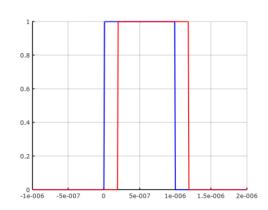
Logic 0 is the dominant level. Assumption: three participants start transmitting at the same time. Participant 2 prevails with the highest priority (dominant identifier). All other participants wait for the bus to rest and then try to send again.



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### Maximum cable length

A two-wire line (twisted pair line) is usually used for CAN. Assuming a bit rate of 1 MBit/s, a line length of 40 m and a propagation speed of approx. 70% of the speed of light, there is already a visible delay of the individual bits. The bus access control via the identifier and the necessary processing time in the nodes processing time in the participants results in the limitation of the line lengths.





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# **CAN Bus**

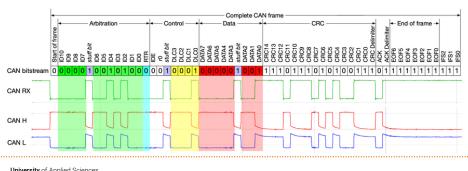
### CAN has four different telegrams

Data Frame: Standard format for data transport

Remote Frame: Request to send a specific data frame.

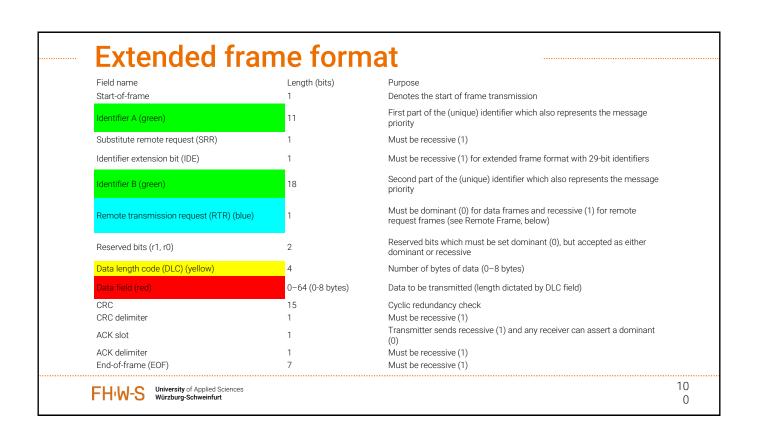
Error Frame: Telegram can be sent by every bus participant that detects an error.

Overload Frame: This telegram forces a pause on the bus.



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Field name	Length (bits)	Purpose	
Start-of-frame	1	Denotes the start of frame transmission	
Identifier (green)	11	A (unique) identifier which also represents the message priority	
Stuff bit	1	A bit of the opposite polarity to maintain synchronisation;	
Remote transmission request (RTR) (blue)	1	Must be dominant (0) for data frames and recessive (1) for remote request frames (see Remote Frame, below)	
Identifier extension bit (IDE)	1	Must be dominant (0) for base frame format with 11-bit identifiers	
Reserved bit (r0)	1	Reserved bit. Must be dominant (0), but accepted as either dominant or recessive.	
Data length code (DLC) (yellow)	4	Number of bytes of data (0–8 bytes)  Data to be transmitted (length in bytes dictated by DLC field)	
Data field (red)	0-64 (0-8 bytes)		
CRC	15	Cyclic redundancy check	
CRC delimiter	1	Must be recessive (1)	
ACK slot	1	Transmitter sends recessive (1) and any receiver can assert a dominar (0)	
ACK delimiter	1	Must be recessive (1)	
End-of-frame (EOF)	7	Must be recessive (1)	
Inter-frame spacing (IFS)	3	Must be recessive (1)	



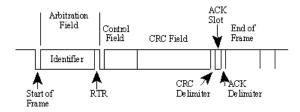
# Remote frame

A message (data frame) can be queried by sending a remote frame.

The identifier is identical to the identifier of the gueried data frame.

If the data frame and the corresponding remote frame are sent at the same time, the data frame wins because of the dominant RTR bit.

The remote frame has no data field, the data length code is identical to the corresponding data frame.



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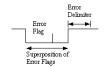
# **Error / Overload frame**

If a participant detects an error, it sends an error frame.

This consists of 6 dominant bits in a row and thus violates the bit stuffing rule.

The 6 dominant bits in succession destroy the faulty message just sent.

 $\ensuremath{\mathsf{All}}$  participants that detect an error frame discard the current message.



Participants send overload frames when their receive buffer is full and they can cannot receive any more messages.

Overload frames are identical to error frames (six dominant bits).

Error frames are sent directly when an error is detected, i.e. in the middle of another active frame.

Overload frames may only be sent during the "inter frame" time.

Each participant may only send two overload frames in succession in order not to occupy the bus for too long. bus for too long.

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### Bit monitoring:

Each node monitors the level on the bus. If this deviates from the transmitted level after the identifier, a "bit error" has occurred.

### Bit stuffina

If the bit stuffing rule is violated, a "Stuff error" has occurred.

### Frame check:

The CAN telegrams have certain fixed bits, for example CRC delimiters. If these fixed bits are violated, this is a "form error".

### Acknowledgement:

Each participant that receives a message correctly sets the bit in the ACK slot to the dominant level. If the sender does not receive a dominant bit in the ACK slot, this is an "acknowledgement error".

### CRC:

Any participant that performs an incorrect CRC sends a "CRC error".

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# **CAN Bus**

### Bit stuffing

With CAN, an additional inverted bit is inserted after five identical bits at the transmitter. is inserted. The receiver removes these additional bits again independently. The following contents of a telegram are not subject to the stuffing rule.

**CRC** Delimiter

ACK Slot

**ACK Delimiter** 

End of frame

Corresponding to the last 10 bits of the telegram

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A CRC check with 15 bits is used. The generator polynomial is

$$g = x^{15} + x^{14} + x^{10} + x^8 + x^7 + x^4 + x^3 + x^0$$

The minimum Hamming distance is 6. 5 random bit errors can be detected.

Max. telegram length (Base frame)

Max. telegram length (Extended frame)

Min. telegram length (Base frame)

Min. telegram length (Extended frame)

108 Bits 
$$R_c = \frac{108 - 15}{108} = 0.86$$
  
128 Bits  $R_c = \frac{128 - 15}{128} = 0.88$   
44 Bits  $R_c = \frac{44 - 15}{44} = 0.66$   
64 Bits  $R_c = \frac{64 - 15}{64} = 0.77$ 

128 Bits 
$$R_c = \frac{128 - 15}{128} = 0.88$$

44 Bits 
$$R_c = \frac{44 - 15}{44} = 0,66$$

64 Bits 
$$R_c = \frac{64 - 15}{64} = 0,77$$



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# **CAN Bus**

If messages are sent at the same time, the message with the highest priority goes through. This results in a greater average delay of the messages in case of a high bus load. The unsent messages must be stored temporarily. The finite memory size can lead to data loss. A good rule of thumb says: The bus load should not exceed 80 % for CAN. This corresponds to at least 20 % bus quiescence.



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Profibus was developed in the 1980s by Siemens, Bosch and others. There are several versions for different areas of application

Profibus - DP: (Decentralised periphery) Is used for fast data exchange at the field level. Its main area of application is in manufacturing technology and building automation.

Profibus - PA: (Process Automation) is originally designed for use in explosion/hazardous areas, but nowadays often used.

Profisafe: Main application in safety-critical areas because of additional measures for data protection.

The recommended plug connection for Profibus is a 9-pin D-Sub plug.



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# **Profibus**

Profibus DP characteristics:

Distribution: approx. 25 million installed devices (as of 2008).

Topology: Line

Medium: twisted pair, optical fibre

Transmission rate: 9.6 kBit/s at 1200 m, 12 Mbit/s at 100 m

Transmission: asynchronous UART, even parity, bus silence logic 1 (bipolar, NRZ)

Bus access: token passing between the masters, master-slave between the active master

and the associated slaves Number of participants: < 127

In the address byte, the addresses are coded from 1 to 126. 1 stands for the master class

1, 126 is the default setting.

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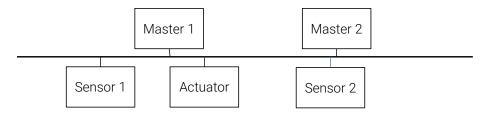
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Profibus DP - device classes:

The class 1 master is usually a PC or a PLC. It carries out the cyclic data traffic with its slaves via request and response telegrams.

The master class 2 is usually a PC. It carries out the acyclic data traffic with the slaves, for example to configure devices.

The slaves are all other participants in the bus traffic, including sensors, actuators, operating devices, etc.



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# **Profibus**

Profibus DP - message cycle

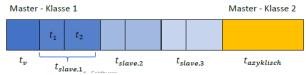
The duration of a complete message cycle is:

$$t_{cycle} = t_v + t_{acyclic} + \sum_{n=1}^{N} t_{slave,n}$$

 $t_v$  is the administration time of the class 1 master for token administration and searching for new participants.

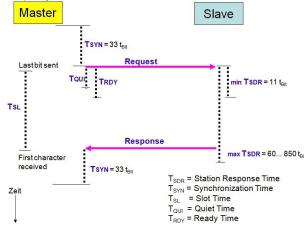
 $t_{acyclic}$  is the administration time of the class 2 master for device configuration.

 $t_{slave,n}$  is the time required for request telegram  $t_1$  and response telegram  $t_2$  between the class 1 master and the corresponding slave.



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Profibus DP – message cycle



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# **Profibus**

Profibus DP - message cycle

The time that must be spent by the master for communication with a slave can be estimated as follows:

Tslaven

 $pprox T_{Syn} + T_{SDR} + 11 \cdot (request \ telegram \ in \ Bytes) + 11 \cdot (response \ telegram \ in \ Bytes)$ 

 $t_{slave,n} = \frac{T_{slave,n}}{r}$ 

 $T_{syn}$  designates the 33 bit synchronization pause

 $T_{SDR}$  is the time the slave has to wait until he responds, at least 11 bits (SDR = Station Delay of Responder)

r is the bit rate of the bus, e.g. 9600 Bits/s for a maximum cable length of 1200 m

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Available telegram formats

Telegrams without data field Telegram with variable length of 4

to 249 bytes and therefore a payload in the range 1 to 246 bytes

Telegram with fixed data length of 8 bytes data

Token telegram

Short Confirmation for positive responses.

Telegram without data field: Telegram with variable length SD2 LE LEr SD2 DA FC PDU FCS ED The PDU has a variable length between 1 and 246 bytes. Telegram with fixed data length:

SD3 DA SA FC PDU FC

The PDU has a fixed length of 8 bytes. FCS ED Token telegram: SD4 DA Short confirmation:

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# **Profibus**

Example: Token Telegram

SD4 (Start Delimiter) to identify telegram format

DA is the destination address (1 Byte)

SA is the source address (1 Byte)

Example: Telegram with fixed data length (e.g. for sensor response)

SC

FC Function Code, determining telegram type

PDU Protocol Data Unit

FCS Frame Checking Sequence

**ED End Delimiter** 

Telegram with fixed data length:

SD3 DA SA EC PDU The PDU has a fixed length of 8 bytes

Token telegram:

SD1 SD2 SD3 SD4 ED SC

0x10 0x68 0xA2 0xDC 0x16 0xE5

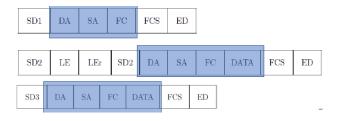
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Frame Checking Sequence

Profibus DP is using a FCS instead of a CRC.

All bytes of the telegram are added up in the frame check sequence, carry bits are ignored. The addition starts at the destination address. The Hamming distance is given as 4 in the literature.



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# **Profibus**

Profibus DP - General Station Description (GSD)

Every class 1 master and all field devices with slave functionality that conform to the

Text file using ASCII encoding

#Profibus\_DP GSD\_Revision Vendor\_Name Model\_Name Revision Ident\_Number "Endress+Hauser Flowtee AG"

"Prowirl 77"

"1.00.0x"

= 0x1510 ;Number in Hex!

= 0  $\theta = Profibus DP$  = 0  $\theta = DP\text{-}Slave$ Protocol\_Ident Station\_Type

; 3,75.supp = 1 unterstätze Übertragungsrate MaxTsdr.93.75 = 1000 Wartezeit, die Slave maximal benötigt, um auf ein Anforderungstelegramm zu antworten (in Bitzeit)

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### Profibus PA

The Profibus PA was specified in 1995.

Intrinsic safety (can also be used in explosive atmospheres)

Power supply of the field devices via the bus cable,

Interoperability (standardisation of the device functions).

Since the field devices do not need any power supply other than the bus cable, the Profibus PA is used in many different applications

Topology: line, star Medium: twisted pair

Transmission rate: 31.25 kBit/s only

Transmission: synchronous (Manchester-coded, logical 0 = falling edge in the middle of the bit)

Bus access: master / slave Error protection: CRC with 16 bits Number of participants: maximum 32



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# **Profibus**

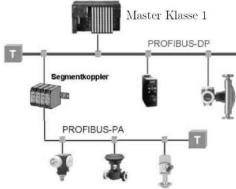
The Profibus - PA cannot be operated standalone, but requires a connection to the Profibus DP via a segment coupler (bridge). This fulfils the fo

Power supply of the PA participants,

Galvanic isolation

Rate adaptation

Telegram conversion





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# **Thanks**

This Lecture Material is based on Lecture Material provided by Prof. Dr. Martin Spiertz and Prof. Dr. Marco Schmidt

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