NSWI090: Computer Networks

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Lecture 4 **Techniques**

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Lecture Outline

Physical layer

- Analog / digital transmissions
- Baseband transmissions
 - Synchronization
 - Line coding
- Passband transmissions
 - Modulation

Data link layer

- Framing
- Protocols

Physical Layer

Transmission Media

Transmission media (physical transmission paths)

- Guided
 - Metallic: twisted pairs, coaxial cables
 - Optical: optical fibers
- Unguided
 - Wireless: radio, infrared and other transmissions

Signal transmission

- In all the cases, various forms of **electromagnetic waves** with continuously varying measurable characteristics are carried
 - Electrical signals: voltage, current, ...
 - Light pulses: intensity, ...
 - Radio waves: frequency, intensity, phase, ...

Properties of Physical Media

Undesired alterations of the transmitted signal

Attenuation: weakening of the transmitted signal



• Distortion: deformation of the transmitted signal



- Interference: interweaving with other signals
 - Including crosstalks from other communication channels

Properties of Physical Media

Theoretical objective

- Receive exactly the same signal as was transmitted
 - Or at least a signal with just enough fidelity so that the original one can be reconstructed

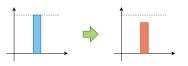
Unfortunately, real-world paths are never optimal

- Attenuation, distortion, interference, ...
- Two parallel wires always act as antenna
- \Rightarrow overall transmission potential is always limited
 - Ability to transmit various signals depends on frequency and nature of transitions
 - Signals out of bandwidth cannot be transmitted at all
 - Impact is proportional to the distance

Analog and Digital Transmissions

Analog transmissions

- We are directly interested in the actual measured values
 - E.g.: transmitted voltage 3.4 V vs. received 3.3 V



Digital transmissions

- Space of possible values is divided into discrete intervals
 - E.g.: low level ($0 \vee 1 \vee$) and high level ($3 \vee 5 \vee$)



Analog and Digital Transmissions

Physical paths always transmit a certain analog quantity

• Only the interpretation of received signals differs

Analog transmissions

- Will never be optimal = information always gets damaged
 - Impact can be reduced, but never completely removed
 - The more we try, the more expensive it will be
 - Moreover, chaining of individual paths and passive or active elements within the network only makes it worse

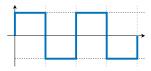
Digital transmissions

- Can be optimal
 - More efficient (require smaller bandwidth)
 - Without the chaining effect (signal is always regenerated)

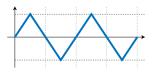
Waveforms

Waveform = basic shape of signal graph as a function of time

• Square



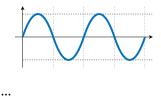
• Triangle



• Sine

- $y = A \cdot \sin(\omega \cdot t + \varphi)$
 - Amplitude A
 - Frequency ω

- Phase φ



Waveforms

Observation: Fourier transformation

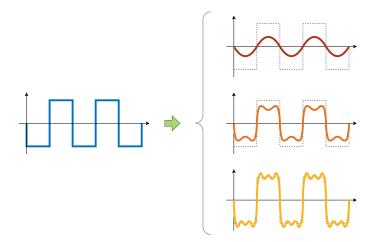
- Arbitrary wave can be decomposed to / approximated as a (possibly infinite) sum of sinusoidal waves
 - Each with different parameters (frequency, ...)

However, real-world media have limited bandwidth

- I.e., range of frequencies that can be transmitted safely
 - Since they only suffer from minimal attenuation and distortion
- Frequencies out of this range cannot be transmitted
 - Extent of damage follows the bathtub curve
- ⇒ sharp changes cause complications
 - Simply because higher harmonics are truncated
 - The less of them are influenced, the higher the signal fidelity

Waveforms

Possible impact of limited bandwidth on sharp changes



Baseband / Passband Transmissions

Baseband transmissions (unmodulated transmissions)

- Sequence of pulses with directly encoded data
 - Near-zero frequency range is used
 - Based on square waveform in practice
 - Whole bandwidth carries only one data signal



- Line coding
 - Information is represented by different signal levels or edges
- Features
 - Easier to implement, common for wired media
 - Only for shorter distances (attenuation, distortion)

Baseband / Passband Transmissions

Passband transmissions (modulated transmissions)

- Harmonic carrier wave
 - Usually shifted to higher frequency spectrum
 - Only frequencies around the carrier are used
 - So that we stay within a given frequency band

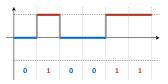


- Modulation
 - Information is represented by changes in wave parameters
- Features
 - Even for longer distances and with higher rates
 - Common for wireless and optical channels

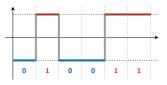
Baseband Transmissions

Line code examples

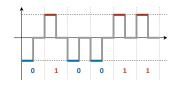
• Unipolar



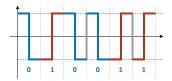
• Bipolar NRZ



• Bipolar RZ



• Manchester



Baseband Transmissions

Baseband transmissions

- Sequence of electric / light pulses with directly encoded data
 - Frequency of signal changes pprox frequency of data changes

Basic principles

- Polarity: number of recognized levels
 - Unipolar (low, high) / bipolar (negative, positive and zero)
- NRZ (non-return-to-zero) / RZ (return-to-zero)
- Biphase: at least one transition per bit period is required
- Encoding of useful values
 - Being at a particular level
 - Making a specific transition
 - E.g.: Manchester (direction of the mid-bit transition)

Synchronization

Synchronization issue

- Bit period = time interval needed to send one bit
- Receiver must be synchronized with the transmitter
 - I.e., timing between both the devices must be maintained
 - So that the received signal can be correctly sampled
- If not, bit slips can occur
 - Loss or gain of a bit or more bits, caused by clock drift



- Accurate clocks would help
 - Unfortunately, they are expensive for commodity equipment

Synchronization

Possible solutions for fully synchronized transmissions

- Separate clock signal
 - No big deal for computer buses, wasteful for most networks
 - I.e., not used in practice
- Self-clocking approaches
 - Clock signal is embedded in the actual data transmission
 - Necessary condition
 - Sufficient number of transitions in the signal must be ensured
 - Clock recovery
 - Process of extracting the timing information
 - If not ideal, received signal will not be sampled at optimal times

Synchronization

Common isochronous self-clocking techniques

- = clock signals are sent at the same time as data
- Direct recovery
 - Clock ticks are defined by data transitions themselves
 - It is guaranteed they occur on a regular basis in each bit period
 - Technique: redundant coding
- Indirect recovery
 - Clock ticks must be derived from the actual sequence of data
 - Assumption: synchronization is preserved for a certain time
 - Apparently, longer runs of the same bit must be avoided
 - Techniques: bit stuffing, block coding

Alternative anisochronous self-clocking techniques

= clock signals are sent at different times to data

DC Component and Disparity

DC component = mean amplitude of the waveform

- Motivation
 - Long-distance paths cannot reliably transport a DC component
- Desired situation: balanced DC (no DC component, ...)
 - I.e., mean amplitude is zero
- Approaches
 - Constant-weight code: each symbol is balanced on its own
 - Paired disparity code: balancing across individual symbols

Running disparity

- Difference between the number of transmitted 0 and 1 bits
- Desired situation: bounded disparity
 - Disparity should be as near to neutral as possible

Redundant coding

- Every bit period inherently contains at least one transition
- Ensures synchronization
- 100% overhead
 - Doubles the required bandwidth
- Examples
 - Manchester
 - Direction of the mid-bit transition determines the data bit
 - Clock signals occur at these mid-bit transitions
 - Self-clocking, DC balanced, 100% overhead
 - Unsuitable for higher data rates
 - Usage: Ethernet (10 Mb/s), NFC, ...
 - Bipolar RZ

Bit stuffing

- Artificially added opposite bit is sent after every long run
 - Receiver automatically removes such extra bits
- Ensures synchronization
- Overhead tends to 0%

Scrambling

- Bits to be sent are mixed with a pseudo-random sequence
 - Receiver must also be able to generate exactly the same sequence so that the original data can be reconstructed
- Helps with bounded disparity and synchronization

Block coding schemes

- Tuples of n bits are translated to k > n bits before sending
 - Based on fixed dictionary mappings or other rules
 - E.g.: 0001 ightarrow 01001, ...
- Features
 - Output tuples with the most changes are preferred
 - So that sufficient number of transitions is achieved
 - Multiple alternatives may exist for one input tuple
 - May intentionally be chosen based on the previously sent data
 - Several output tuples may remain unused
 - Serve as low-level control signals or for simple error detection
- Reasonable overhead

Block coding schemes (cont'd): examples

• 4B5B

- Maps groups of 4 bits onto groups of 5 bits
- Self-clocking, DC balanced with scrambler only
- 25% overhead
- Usage: Fast Ethernet (100 Mb/s), ...
- 8b/10b
 - Maps groups of 5+3 bits onto groups of 6+4 bits
 - Self-clocking, DC balanced, bounded disparity
 - Run-length limit of 5 consecutive equal bits
 - Running disparity is guaranteed to be not more than $\pm\,2$
 - 25% overhead
 - Usage: Gigabit Ethernet (1 Gb/s), HDMI, SATA, USB 3.0, ...

Line Codes

Line code = particular line coding approach

- May mutually combine various generic techniques
- Main tasks
 - Optional higher level
 - Sequence of input bits is logically scrambled and / or converted
 - Lower level
 - Prepared sequence is then physically transmitted
 - Patterns (distinct levels or transitions) of voltage, current, or photons must be devised to represent the data to be sent

Line Codes

Generic objective

- Ensure regular, frequent and evenly distributed changes in the transmitted logical data / physical signal
- Obstacles
 - Input data is not under our control
 - Features unique to each physical medium must be reflected
 - Attenuation, distortion, interference, ...
- Practical consequences
 - Higher rates and higher reliability

Particular goals

- Facilitate synchronization, eliminate a DC component
- Minimize transmission hardware

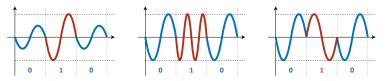
Passband Transmissions

Passband transmissions

- Harmonic carrier wave with modulated data
 - Frequency of signal changes >> frequency of data changes

(Analog) modulation

- Process of signal shaping so that it can convey useful data
- Amplitude (AM) / frequency (FM) / phase (PM) modulation



- Usage of varying amplitudes, frequencies and / or phases
 - Including (some of) their mutual combinations

Passband Transmissions

Keying = digital modulation

- Fundamental techniques
 - Amplitude-Shift Keying (ASK): different amplitudes
 - Frequency-Shift Keying (FSK): different frequencies
 - Phase-Shift Keying (PSK): different phases
- Only limited number of states is recognized
 - In contract with the traditional analog modulation
- Observations
 - Once again, mutual combinations are possible
 - Reliability of change detection ability varies
 - Phase modulation is the most efficient one (because of the sharpest changes)

Quadrature Amplitude Modulation

Example: Quadrature Amplitude Modulation (QAM)

- Family of both analog and digital modulation techniques
- Alternatives
 - 16-QAM: 16 states, 1 symbol = 4 bits
 - 64-QAM: 64 states, 1 symbol = 6 bits
 - Wi-Fi 2 (802.11a), Wi-Fi 3 (802.11g), Wi-Fi 4 (802.11n), DVB-T
 - 256-QAM: 256 states, 1 symbol = 8 bits
 - Wi-Fi 5 (802.11ac), DVB-T2
 - 1024-QAM: 1024 states, 1 symbol = 10 bits
 - Wi-Fi 6 (802.11ax)

Quadrature Amplitude Modulation

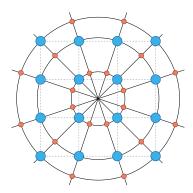
16-QAM

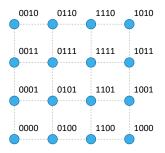
- 2 carriers shifted by 90° (\Rightarrow quadrature / orthogonal)
 - 1st wave: amplitude modulation with 3 states
 - 2nd wave: phase modulation with 12 states
- Altogether 36 states
 - Only 16 of them are actually considered
 - Those with higher mutual distances
- Mapping of states to symbols: Gray code
 - Adjacent symbols differ in exactly 1 bit position
 - So that small burst of noise does not lead to many bit errors

Quadrature Amplitude Modulation

16-QAM

Constellation diagram





Data Link Layer

Transparency

Transparency

- Separation of useful data from control signals
 - Since they need to be treated differently

Useful data

- Data to be transmitted for the higher layer
- Without any changes
 - More precisely, certain modifications may be unavoidable, but recipient must be able to reconstruct the original data

Control signals

- Commands to be correctly interpreted and executed
 - Allow to fulfill objectives of data link layer as such

Transparency

Strategies for stream transmissions

- Separate path
 - One wire is dedicated to control signals only
 - E.g.: older modems for dial-up Internet access via PSTN
 - Cumbersome, complicated
- Escaping
 - Two modes: data / commands
 - Mechanisms for interpretation switching must exist
 - Usage
 - Newer dial-up modes
 - Peripheral devices such as mouses, printers, ...

Strategies for block transmissions

• Framing

Framing

Encapsulation

- Construction of a frame (PDU in general)
 - Frame format needs to be defined
 - Internal structure: header, body, footer
 - Individual header fields and their meaning

Framing

- Delineation of frame boundaries
 - So that recipient can correctly recognize individual frames
 - Simply because L1 only provides a stream of raw bits
 - And so frames as blocks of data (their beginnings and endings) must be found within this unstructured sequence
- \Rightarrow encapsulation \neq framing

Framing

Generic framing techniques (independent on L1)

- Starting and ending flags
 - Special flags (byte, sequence of bits, ...) are added to explicitly mark frame beginning and ending
 - Occurrences of such flags inside frames (especially in payload) must be appropriately treated
 - Bit stuffing, positive / negative escaping, duplication, ...
- Starting flag and length
 - Special flag is added to explicitly mark frame beginning
 - Frame ending is detected indirectly using the frame length
 - Which is provided as one of the header fields
 - Not widely used
 - Since restoring order after desynchronization can be difficult

Framing

Specific framing techniques (dependent on L1)

- Starting flag and implicit ending
 - Frame beginning is marked explicitly as above
 - Frame ending is detected by the absence of the carrier
 - E.g.: Ethernet II with Manchester coding
- Line coding violations
 - Special non-data symbols provided by a given physical line code are used to mark frame beginning and ending
 - E.g.: 4B5B
- Counting of blocks
 - Individual blocks are counted using time-division multiplexing
 - Only works for blocks with fixed sizes
 - E.g.: digital hierarchies

Data Link Protocols

Data link protocols

- Distinguished with respect to the unit of data they work with
 - I.e., data granularity level they assume
- In particular: individual characters / bits / bytes

Groups of protocols

- Character-oriented protocols
 - Older protocols, no longer in use
 - E.g.: SLIP (Serial Line Internet Protocol)
- Bit-oriented protocols
 - E.g.: HDLC (High-Level Data Link Control)
- Byte-oriented protocols
 - E.g.: Ethernet

Stuffing

Character / bit / byte stuffing

- General technique allowing to mark specific points in data by adding extra symbols
 - Individual characters / bits / bytes depending on the protocol

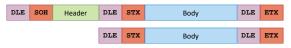
Use cases (at L2)

- Ensuring transparency itself
 - Escaping
 - Framing: flags delimiting frame beginnings and endings, ...
- Treating occurrences of flags in useful data
 - So that their otherwise intended meta meaning is suppressed
- Cooperation of physical and data link layers
 - Synchronization, ...

Character-Oriented Protocols

Character-oriented protocols

 Control commands are expressed using special non-printable ASCII characters



Frame structure

- Header and body
 - SOH (Start of Header): beginning of the <u>optional</u> header
 - STX (Start of Text): beginning of the payload to be sent
 - ETX (End of Text): ending of the entire frame
- <u>Positive</u> escaping is needed to activate the meta meaning
 - DLE (Data Link Escape)

Character-Oriented Protocols

Payload (and header) transparency

Each occurrence of DLE symbol is doubled

Synchronization for L1

- Two synchronization characters are added before the frame beginning to help the physical layer
 - SYN (Synchronous Idle)

SYN	SYN	DLE	SOH	Header	DLE	STX	Body	DLE	ETX
-----	-----	-----	-----	--------	-----	-----	------	-----	-----

Character-Oriented Protocols

Example: SLIP (Serial Line Internet Protocol)

- Simple protocol allowing for direct encapsulation of IP packets
 - Intended only for P2P and fully duplex physical paths
 - Such as using a modem over local loops in PSTN
 - Only framing is necessary, nothing else (no addressing, ...)

END IP Packet END

Framing principles

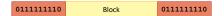
- Frame beginning and ending are marked using END (0xC0)
- Payload transparency
 - Each END is replaced with ESC (0xDB) ESC_END (0xDC)
 - Each ESC is replaced with ESC (0xDB) ESC_ESC (0xDD)
 - I.e., transposed characters are used instead of the original ones

Bit-Oriented Protocols

Bit-oriented protocols

- Special sequence of bits (flag) is used for marking both frame beginning and ending
 - Typical structure: N ones wrapped inside a pair of zeros

- E.g.: 0111111110 (N = 8)



Payload transparency

- Whenever the sender comes across a sequence of N-1 ones, extra zero is added
 - Recipient removes this zero to get the original data

Bit-Oriented Protocols

Example: HDLC (High-Level Data Link Control)

- Connection-oriented as well as connectionless protocol for P2P and P2MP paths
 - Standardized (ISO/IEC 13239:2002)
 - Inspiration for plenty of other protocols
 - IEEE 802.2 LLC (Ethernet LLC frames), PPP, LAPD (ISDN), ...



Framing principles

- Flag with N = 6 ones is used
- Bit stuffing for block transparency

Byte-Oriented Protocols

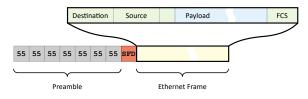
Byte-oriented protocols

- Trade-off between both the previously discussed groups
 - Usage of flags
 - As in **bit-oriented** protocols
 - The same idea, only alignment to whole bytes is required
 - E.g.: 01111110 (N = 6)
 - Usage of escaping bytes
 - For the purpose of payload transparency
 - As in character-oriented protocols
 - Higher overhead when compared to bit stuffing
 - Synchronization bytes at the beginning may also be used

Byte-Oriented Protocols

Example: Ethernet

Two basic types of frames are used (Ethernet II, 802.3)



Framing principles

- Synchronization preamble at the beginning
 - Sequence of 7 bytes 0x55 each transferred as 10101010
 - Big Endian for bytes, Little Endian for bits within a byte
- Frame beginning
 - SFD (Start Frame Delimiter): 0xD5 transferred as 10101011

Lecture Conclusion

Baseband transmissions

- Synchronization: self-clocking, clock recovery
- DC component, running disparity
- Line codes

Passband transmissions

Amplitude / frequency / phase modulation

Data link protocols

- Transparency: escaping, framing, stuffing
- Protocols
 - Character-oriented, bit-oriented, byte-oriented