

# Ad hoc and Sensor Networks

## Chapter 4: Physical layer

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# Goals of this chapter

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- Get an understanding of the peculiarities of wireless communication
  - “Wireless channel” as abstraction of these properties – e.g., bit error patterns
  - Focus is on radio communication
- Impact of different factors on communication performance
  - Frequency band, transmission power, modulation scheme, etc.
- Understanding of energy consumption for radio communication
- Here, differences between ad hoc and sensor networks mostly in the required performance
  - Larger bandwidth/sophisticated modulation for higher data rate/range



# Overview

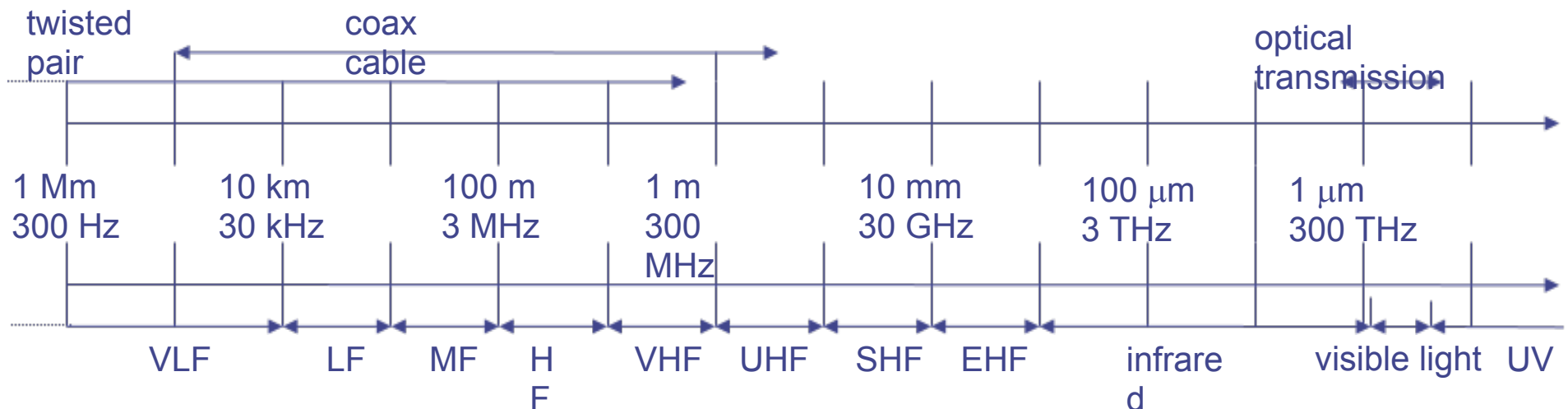
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- ***Frequency bands***
- Modulation
- Signal distortion – wireless channels
- From waves to bits
- Channel models
- Transceiver design



# Radio spectrum for communication

- Which part of the electromagnetic spectrum is used for communication
  - Not all frequencies are equally suitable for all tasks – e.g., wall penetration, different atmospheric attenuation (oxygen resonances, ...)



- VLF = Very Low Frequency UHF = Ultra High Frequency
- LF = Low Frequency SHF = Super High Frequency
- MF = Medium Frequency EHF = Extra High Frequency
- HF = High Frequency UV = Ultraviolet Light
- VHF = Very High Frequency

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# Frequency allocation

- Some frequencies are allocated to specific uses
  - Cellular phones, analog television/radio broadcasting, radar, emergency services, radio astronomy, ...
- Particularly interesting: ISM bands (“Industrial, scientific, medicine”) – license-free operation

Some typical ISM bands	
Frequency	Comment
13,553-13,567 MHz	
26,957 – 27,283 MHz	
40,66 – 40,70 MHz	
433 – 464 MHz	Europe
900 – 928 MHz	Americas
2,4 – 2,5 GHz	WLAN/WPAN
5,725 – 5,875 GHz	WLAN
24 – 24,25 GHz	



# Example: US frequency allocation

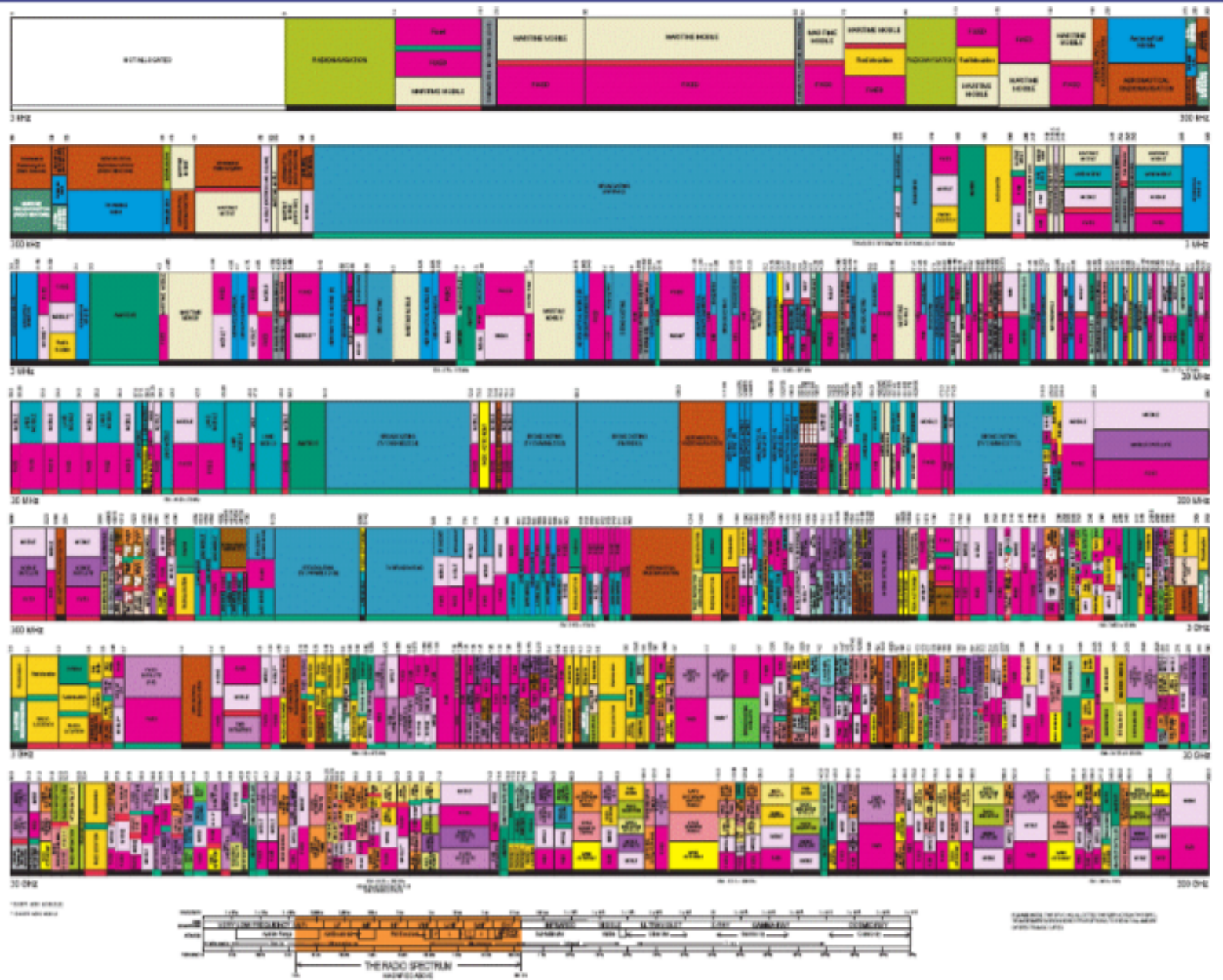
## UNITED STATES FREQUENCY ALLOCATIONS THE RADIO SPECTRUM

- RADIO SERVICES COLOR LEGEND**
- |                       |                       |                       |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| AIRSATELLITE SERVICE  | AIRSATELLITE SERVICE  | AIRSATELLITE SERVICE  |
| AIRSATELLITE SERVICE  | AIRSATELLITE SERVICE  | AIRSATELLITE SERVICE  |
| MOBILE                | MOBILE                | MOBILE                |
| MOBILE                | MOBILE                | MOBILE                |
| MOBILE                | MOBILE                | MOBILE                |
| MOBILE                | MOBILE                | MOBILE                |
| INFORMATIONAL SERVICE | INFORMATIONAL SERVICE | INFORMATIONAL SERVICE |
| FIXED                 | FIXED                 | FIXED                 |
| FIXED                 | FIXED                 | FIXED                 |

- ACTIVITY CODE**
- |                     |                     |
|---------------------|---------------------|
| GOVERNMENT USE ONLY | GOVERNMENT USE ONLY |
| GOVERNMENT USE ONLY |                     |
- ALLOCATION USAGE DESIGNATION**
- |           |         |  |
|-----------|---------|--|
| Service   | Example | Description  |
| Primary   | Fixed   | Fixed Station  |
| Secondary | Mobile  | 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th, 5th, 6th, 7th, 8th, 9th, 10th, 11th, 12th, 13th, 14th, 15th, 16th, 17th, 18th, 19th, 20th, 21st, 22nd, 23rd, 24th, 25th, 26th, 27th, 28th, 29th, 30th, 31st, 32nd, 33rd, 34th, 35th, 36th, 37th, 38th, 39th, 40th, 41st, 42nd, 43rd, 44th, 45th, 46th, 47th, 48th, 49th, 50th, 51st, 52nd, 53rd, 54th, 55th, 56th, 57th, 58th, 59th, 60th, 61st, 62nd, 63rd, 64th, 65th, 66th, 67th, 68th, 69th, 70th, 71st, 72nd, 73rd, 74th, 75th, 76th, 77th, 78th, 79th, 80th, 81st, 82nd, 83rd, 84th, 85th, 86th, 87th, 88th, 89th, 90th, 91st, 92nd, 93rd, 94th, 95th, 96th, 97th, 98th, 99th, 100th |

The data is taken from the Commission's Table of Frequency Allocations and is for informational purposes only. It is not intended to be used as a legal reference. For more information, visit [www.fcc.gov](http://www.fcc.gov).

**U.S. DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE**  
National Telecommunications and Information Administration  
Office of Spectrum Management  
OASOM 2012



# Overview

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- Frequency bands
- ***Modulation***
- Signal distortion – wireless channels
- From waves to bits
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# Transmitting data using radio waves

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- Basics: Transmitter can send a radio wave, receiver can detect whether such a wave is present and also its parameters
- Parameters of a wave = sine function:

$$s(t) = A(t) \sin(2\pi f(t)t + \phi(t))$$

- Parameters: amplitude  $A(t)$ , frequency  $f(t)$ , phase  $\phi(t)$
- Manipulating these three parameters allows the sender to express data; receiver reconstructs data from signal
- Simplification: Receiver “sees” the same signal that the sender generated – not true, see later!





# Modulation and keying

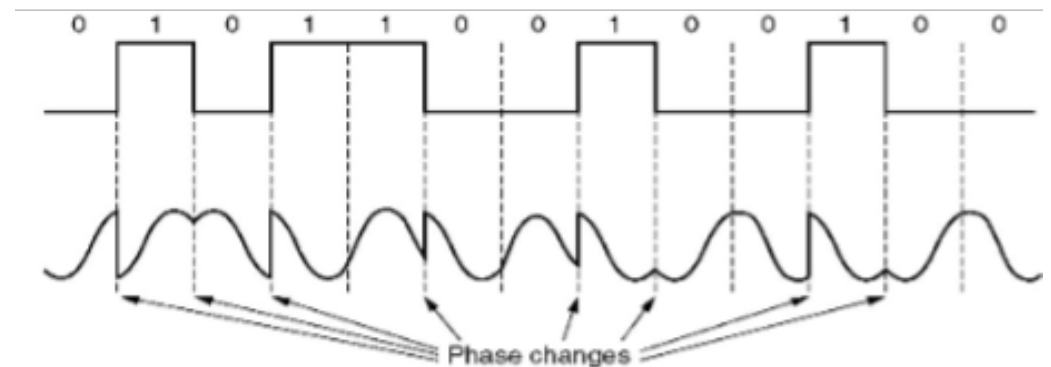
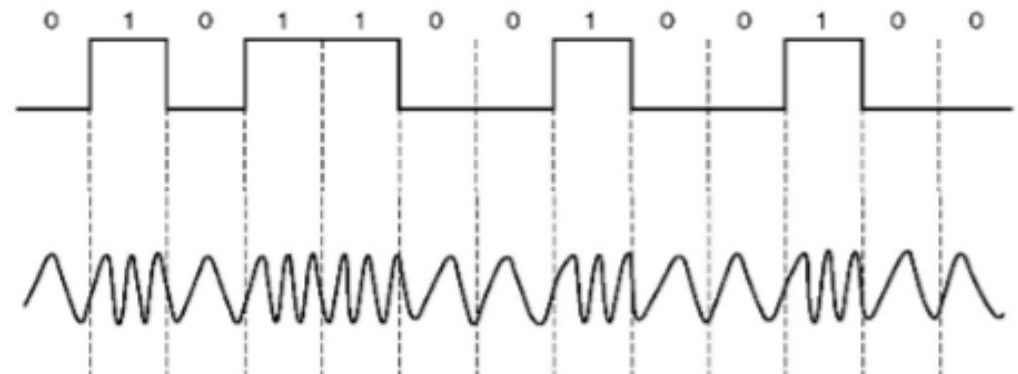
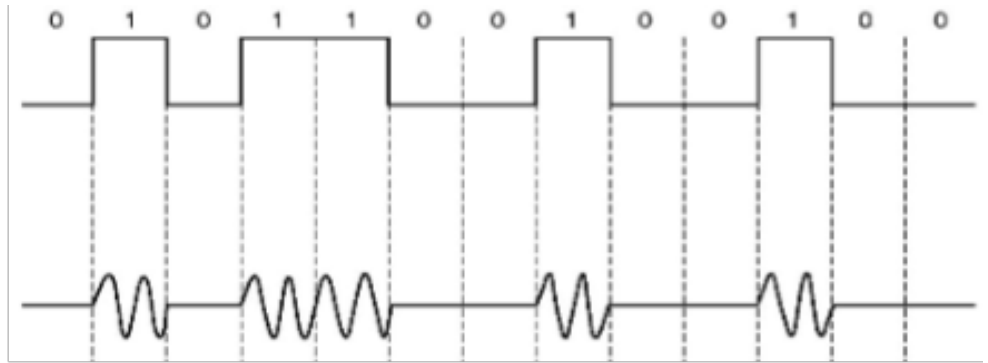
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- How to manipulate a given signal parameter?
  - Set the parameter to an arbitrary value: ***analog modulation***
  - Choose parameter values from a finite set of legal values: ***digital keying***
  - Simplification: When the context is clear, ***modulation*** is used in either case
- Modulation?
  - Data to be transmitted is used select transmission parameters as a function of time
  - These parameters modify a basic sine wave, which serves as a starting point for ***modulating*** the signal onto it
  - This basic sine wave has a ***center frequency  $f_c$***
  - The resulting ***signal*** requires a certain ***bandwidth*** to be transmitted (centered around center frequency)



# Modulation (keying!) examples

- Use data to modify the amplitude of a carrier frequency ! **Amplitude Shift Keying**
- Use data to modify the **frequency** of a carrier frequency ! **Frequency Shift Keying**
- Use data to modify the **phase** of a carrier frequency ! **Phase Shift Keying**



# Receiver: Demodulation

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- The receiver looks at the received wave form and matches it with the data bit that caused the transmitter to generate this wave form
  - Necessary: one-to-one mapping between data and wave form
- Problems caused by
  - Carrier synchronization: frequency can vary between sender and receiver (drift, temperature changes, aging, ...)
  - Bit synchronization (actually: symbol synchronization): When does symbol representing a certain bit start/end?
  - Frame synchronization: When does a packet start/end?
  - Biggest problem: Received signal is ***not*** the transmitted signal!



# Overview

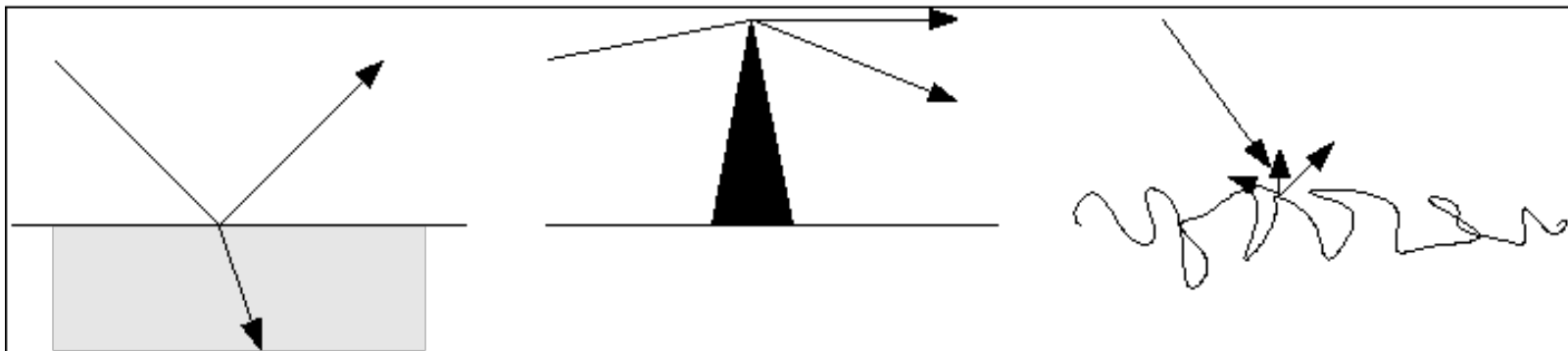
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- Frequency bands
- Modulation
- ***Signal distortion – wireless channels***
- From waves to bits
- Channel models
- Transceiver design



# Transmitted signal $\leftrightarrow$ received signal!

- Wireless transmission ***distorts*** any transmitted signal
  - Received  $\leftrightarrow$  transmitted signal; results in ***uncertainty at receiver*** about which bit sequence originally caused the transmitted signal
  - Abstraction: ***Wireless channel*** describes these distortion effects
- Sources of distortion
  - Attenuation – energy is distributed to larger areas with increasing distance
  - Reflection/refraction – bounce off a surface; enter material
  - Diffraction – start “new wave” from a sharp edge
  - Scattering – multiple reflections at rough surfaces
  - Doppler fading – shift in frequencies (loss of center)



# What is a Decibel- dB

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- Decibel is a unit used to express relative differences in signal strength
- It is expressed as the base 10 logarithm of the ratio of the **powers** of two signals:
  - $\text{dB} = 10 \log (P1/P2)$
- Logarithms are useful as the unit of measurement
  - **signal power tends to span several orders of magnitude**
  - **signal attenuation losses and gains can be expressed in terms of subtraction and addition**



## For Example

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- Suppose that a signal passes through two channels is first attenuated in the ratio of 20 and 7 on the second. The total signal degradation is the ratio of 140 to 1. Expressed in dB, this become  $10 \log 20 + 10 \log 7 = 13.01 + 8.45 = 21.46$  dB



# The order of dB

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- The following table helps to indicate the order of magnitude associated with dB:
  - 1 dB attenuation means that 0.79 of the input power survives.
  - 3 dB attenuation means that 0.5 of the input power survives.
  - 10 dB attenuation means that 0.1 of the input power survives.
  - 20 dB attenuation means that 0.01 of the input power survives.
  - 30 dB attenuation means that 0.001 of the input power survives.
  - 40 dB attenuation means that 0.0001 of the input power survives.





# Attenuation results in path loss

- Effect of attenuation: received signal strength is a function of the distance  $d$  between sender and transmitter
- Captured by ***Friis free-space equation***
  - Describes signal strength at distance  $d$  relative to some reference distance  $d_0 < d$  for which strength is known
  - $d_0$  is ***far-field distance***, depends on antenna technology

$$\begin{aligned} P_{\text{recv}}(d) &= \frac{P_{\text{tx}} \cdot G_t \cdot G_r \cdot \lambda^2}{(4\pi)^2 \cdot d^2 \cdot L} \\ &= \frac{P_{\text{tx}} \cdot G_t \cdot G_r \cdot \lambda^2}{(4\pi)^2 \cdot d_0^2 \cdot L} \cdot \left(\frac{d_0}{d}\right)^2 = P_{\text{recv}}(d_0) \cdot \left(\frac{d_0}{d}\right)^2 \end{aligned}$$

Slow fading: signal variations at timescales of (tens of) seconds to minutes



# Generalizing the attenuation formula

- To take into account stronger attenuation than only caused by distance (e.g., walls, ...), use a larger exponent

$$\gamma > 2$$

- $\gamma$  is the **path-loss exponent**

$$P_{\text{recv}}(d) = P_{\text{recv}}(d_0) \cdot \left(\frac{d_0}{d}\right)^\gamma$$

- Rewrite in logarithmic form (in dB):

$$PL(d)[\text{dB}] = PL(d_0)[\text{dB}] + 10\gamma \log_{10} \left(\frac{d}{d_0}\right)$$

- Take obstacles into account by a random variation

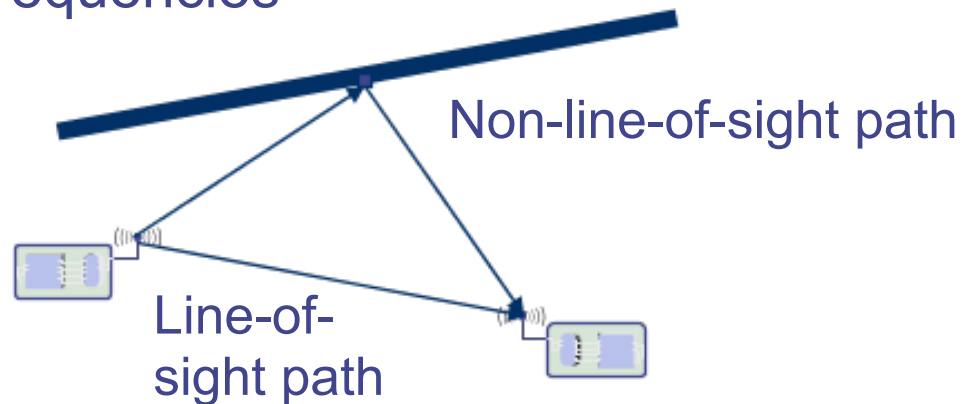
- Add a Gaussian random variable with 0 mean, variance  $\sigma^2$  to dB representation
- Equivalent to multiplying with a lognormal distributed r.v. in metric units ! **lognormal fading**

$$PL(d)[\text{dB}] = PL(d_0)[\text{dB}] + 10\gamma \log_{10} \left(\frac{d}{d_0}\right) + X_\sigma[\text{dB}]$$

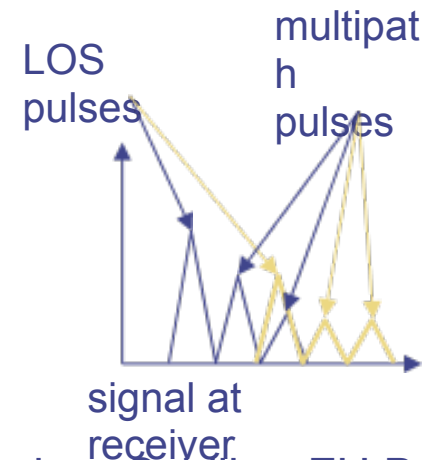


# Distortion effects: Non-line-of-sight paths

- Because of reflection, scattering, ..., radio communication is not limited to direct line of sight communication
  - Effects depend strongly on frequency, thus different behavior at higher frequencies



- Different paths have different lengths = propagation time
  - With movement: **fast fading**



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# Noise and interference

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- So far: only a single transmitter assumed
  - Only disturbance: self-interference of a signal with multi-path “copies” of itself
- In reality, two further disturbances
  - **Noise** – due to effects in receiver electronics, depends on temperature
    - Typical model: an additive Gaussian variable, mean 0, no correlation in time
  - **Interference** from third parties
    - Co-channel interference: another sender uses the same spectrum
    - Adjacent-channel interference: another sender uses some other part of the radio spectrum, but receiver filters are not good enough to fully suppress it
- Effect: Received signal is distorted by channel, corrupted by noise and interference
  - What is the result on the received bits?



# Symbols and bit errors

- Extracting symbols out of a distorted/corrupted wave form is fraught with errors
  - Depends essentially on strength of the received signal compared to the corruption
  - Captured by **signal to noise and interference ratio (SINR)**

$$\text{SINR} = 10 \log_{10} \left( \frac{P_{\text{recv}}}{N_0 + \sum_{i=1}^k I_i} \right)$$

- SINR allows for a given modulation (BER) for a given modulation
  - Also depends on data rate (# bits/symbol) of modulation
  - E.g., for simple DPSK, data rate corresponding to bandwidth:

$$\text{BER}(\text{SINR}) = 0.5 e^{-\frac{E_b}{N_0}}$$
$$E_b/N_0 = \text{SINR} \cdot \frac{1}{R}$$



# Examples for SINR ! BER mappings

BER

SINR



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# Channel models – analog

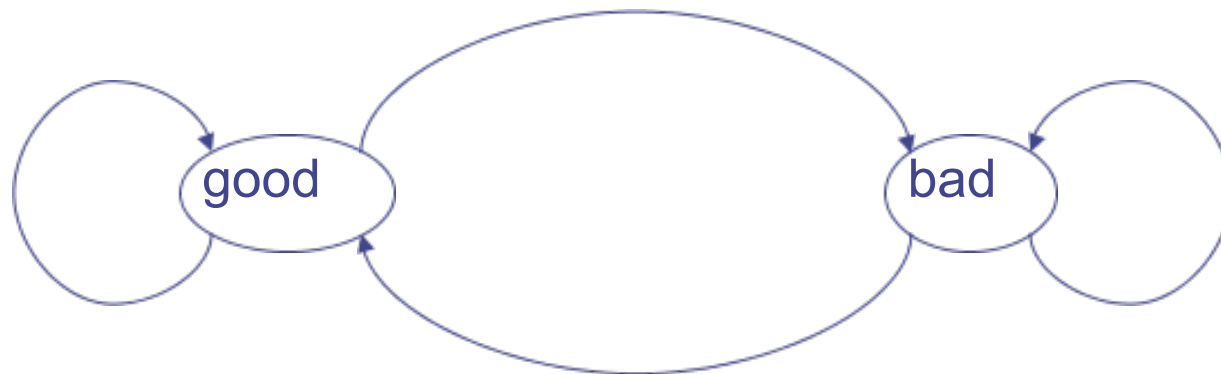
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- How to stochastically capture the behavior of a wireless channel
  - Main options: **model the SNR** or **directly the bit errors**
- Signal models
  - Simplest model: assume transmission power and attenuation are constant, noise an uncorrelated Gaussian variable
    - **Additive White Gaussian Noise** model, results in constant SNR
    - $r(t) = s(t) + n(t)$
  - Situation with no line-of-sight path, but many indirect paths: Amplitude of resulting signal has a **Rayleigh** distribution (**Rayleigh fading**)
  - One dominant line-of-sight plus many indirect paths: Signal has a **Rice** distribution (**Rice fading**)



# Channel models – digital

- Directly model the resulting bit error behavior
  - Each bit is erroneous with constant probability, independent of the other bits ! **binary symmetric channel (BSC)**
  - Capture fading models' property that channel be in different states ! Markov models – states with different BERs
    - Example: Gilbert-Elliot model with “bad” and “good” channel states and high/low bit error rates



# Wireless channel quality – summary

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- Wireless channels are substantially worse than wired channels
  - In throughput, bit error characteristics, energy consumption, ...
- Wireless channels are extremely diverse
  - There is no such thing as THE typical wireless channel
- Various schemes for quality improvement exist
  - Some of them geared towards high-performance wireless communication – not necessarily suitable for WSN, ok for MANET
  - Some of them general-purpose ARQ (automatic repeat request) and FEC(forward error correction)
  - Energy issues need to be taken into account!



# Overview

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# Some transceiver design considerations

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- Strive for good power efficiency at low transmission power
  - Some amplifiers are optimized for efficiency at high output power
  - To radiate 1 mW, typical designs need 30-100 mW to operate the transmitter
    - WSN nodes: 20 mW (mica motes)
  - Receiver can use as much or more power as transmitter at these power levels
    - ! Sleep state is important
- Startup energy/time penalty can be high
  - Examples take 0.5 ms and  $\frac{1}{4}$  60 mW to wake up
- Exploit communication/computation tradeoffs
  - Might payoff to invest in rather complicated coding/compression schemes



# Direct Sequence Spread Spectrum (DSSS)

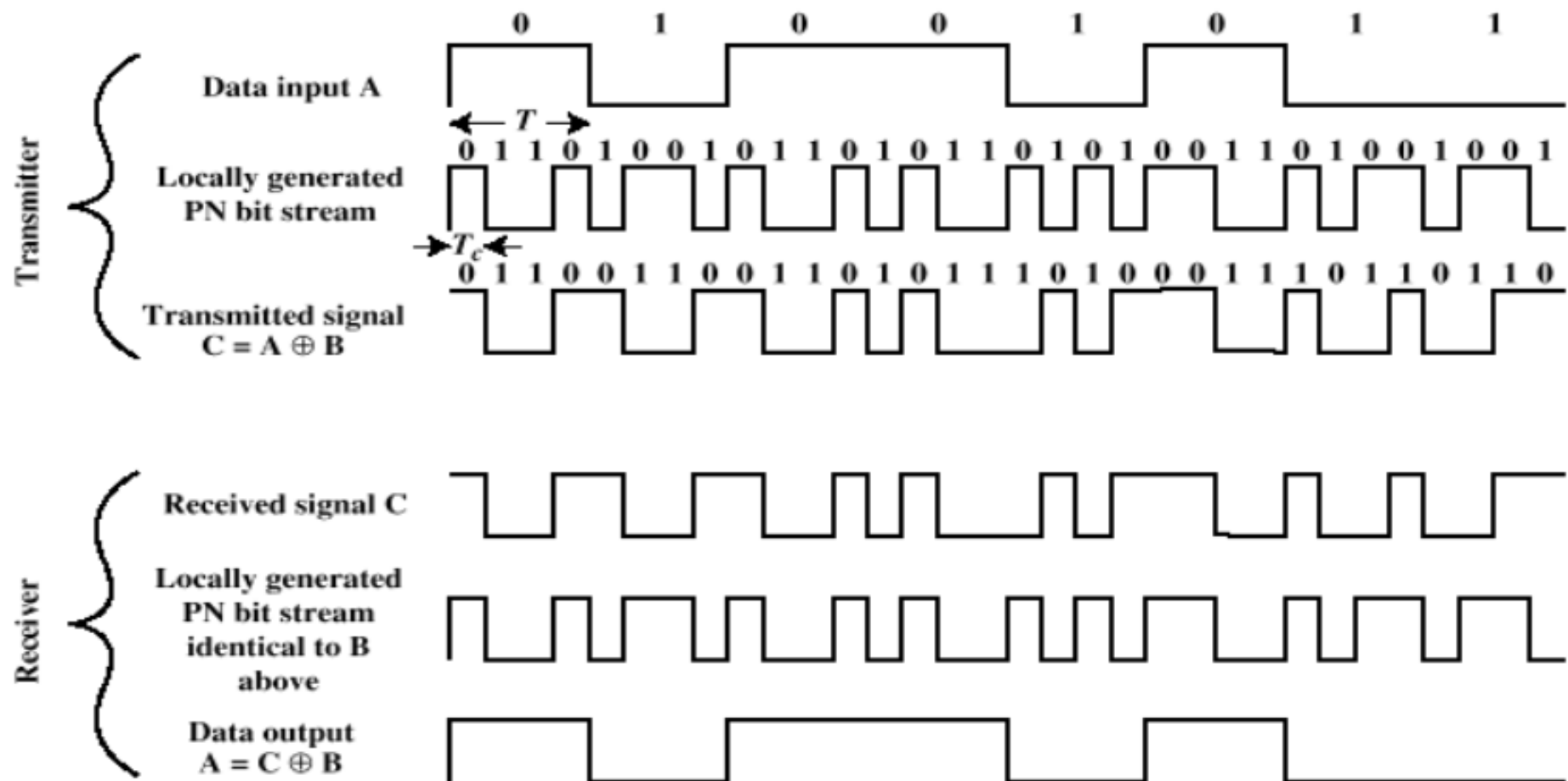


Figure 7.6 Example of Direct Sequence Spread Spectrum



# Frequency Hopping Spread Spectrum (FHSS)

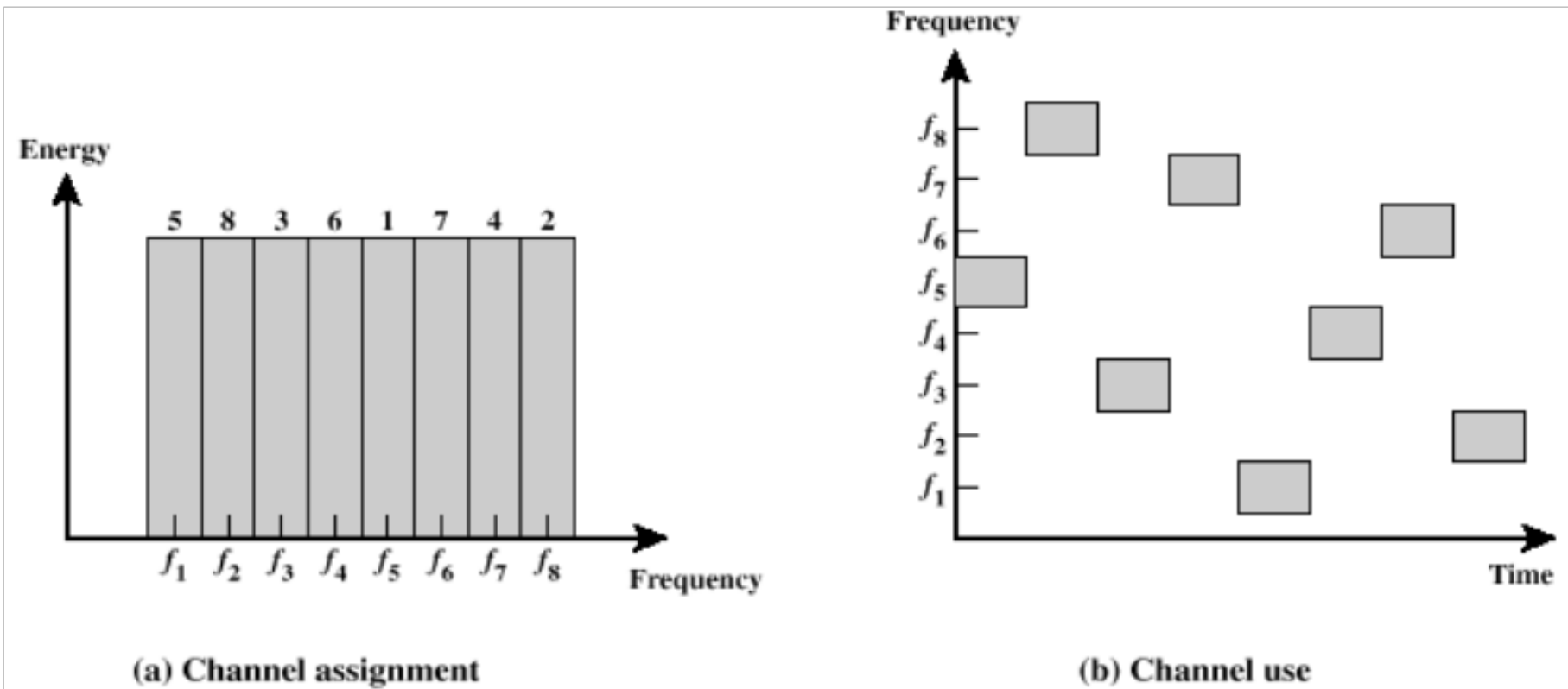


Figure 7.2 Frequency Hopping Example



# CDMA Example

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- Each station has its own unique chip sequence (CS)
- All CSs are pairwise orthogonal
- For example :(codes A, B, C and D are pairwise orthogonal)
  - A: 00011011  $\Rightarrow$  (-1-1-1+1+1-1+1+1)
  - B: 00101110  $\Rightarrow$  (-1-1+1-1+1+1+1-1)
  - C: 01011100  $\Rightarrow$  (-1+1-1+1+1+1-1-1)
  - D: 01000010  $\Rightarrow$  (-1+1-1 - 1-1-1+1-1)





# CDMA Example

- $A \cdot B = (1+1-1-1+1-1+1-1) = 0$
- $B \cdot C = (1-1-1-1+1+1-1+1) = 0$
- Ex: If station C transmits 1 to station E, station B transmits 0 and station A transmits 1 simultaneously then the signal received by station E will become
  - $S_E = (-1+1-1+1+1+1-1-1) + (+1+1-1+1-1-1-1+1) + (-1-1-1+1+1-1+1+1) = (-1+1-3+3-1-1-1+1)$
  - E can convert the signal  $S_E$  to  $S_{EC} = S_E(-1+1-1+1+1+1-1-1) = (1+1+3+3+1-1+1-1)/8 = 1$



# Summary

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- Wireless radio communication introduces many uncertainties and vagaries into a communication system
- Handling the unavoidable errors will be a major challenge for the communication protocols
- Dealing with limited bandwidth in an energy-efficient manner is the main challenge
- MANET and WSN are pretty similar here
  - Main differences are in required data rates and resulting transceiver complexities (higher bandwidth, spread spectrum techniques)

