

CSE3213 Computer Network I

Chapter 3.3-3.6 Digital Transmission Fundamentals

Course page:
<http://www.cse.yorku.ca/course/3213>

Slides modified from Alberto Leon-Garcia and Indra Widjaja

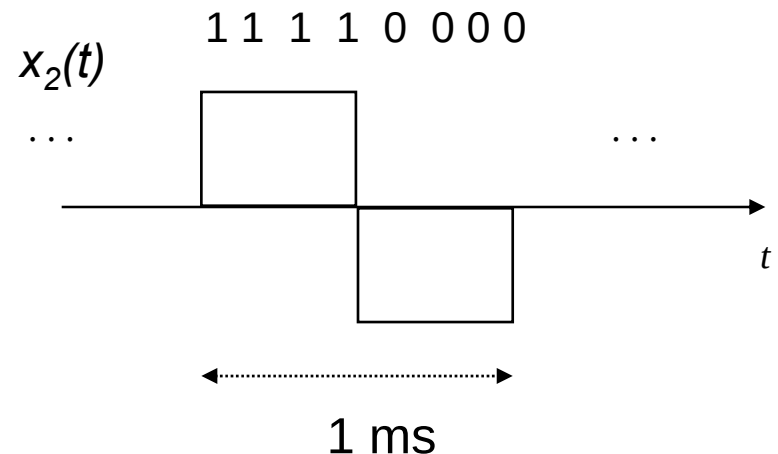
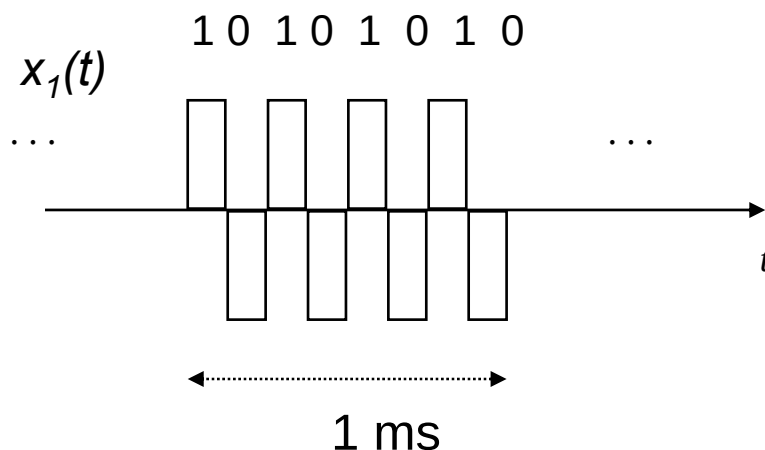
Digital Representation of Analog Signals

Digitization of Analog Signals

1. Sampling: obtain samples of $x(t)$ at uniformly spaced time intervals
2. Quantization: map each sample into an approximation value of finite precision
 - Pulse Code Modulation: telephone speech
 - CD audio
3. Compression: to lower bit rate further, apply additional compression method
 - Differential coding: cellular telephone speech
 - Subband coding: MP3 audio
 - Compression discussed in Chapter 12

Sampling Rate and Bandwidth

- A signal that varies faster needs to be sampled more frequently
- *Bandwidth* measures how fast a signal varies



- What is the bandwidth of a signal?
- How is bandwidth related to sampling rate?

Periodic Signals

- A periodic signal with period T can be represented as sum of sinusoids using Fourier Series:

$$x(t) = a_0 + a_1 \cos(2\pi f_0 t + \phi_1) + a_2 \cos(2\pi 2f_0 t + \phi_2) + \dots \\ + a_k \cos(2\pi k f_0 t + \phi_k) + \dots$$

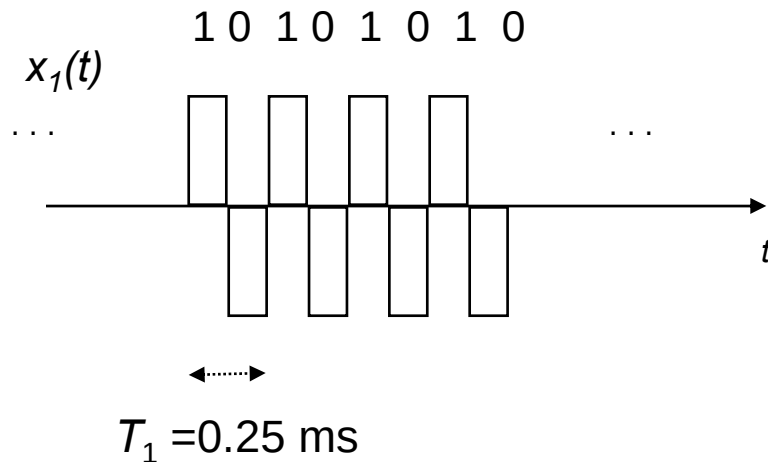
“DC”
long-term
average

fundamental
frequency $f_0 = 1/T$
first harmonic

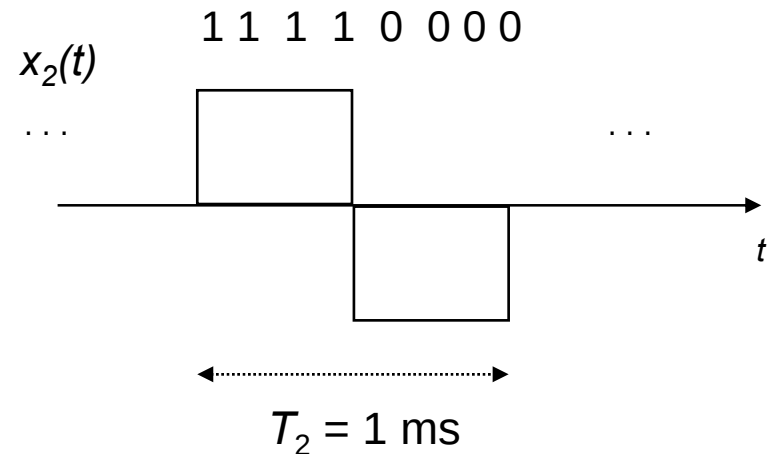
k th harmonic

- $|a_k|$ determines amount of power in k th harmonic
- Amplitude spectrum $|a_0|, |a_1|, |a_2|, \dots$

Example Fourier Series



$$\begin{aligned}
 x_1(t) = & 0 + \frac{4}{\pi} \cos(2\pi 4000t) \\
 & + \frac{4}{3\pi} \cos(2\pi 3(4000)t) \\
 & + \frac{4}{5\pi} \cos(2\pi 5(4000)t) + \dots
 \end{aligned}$$



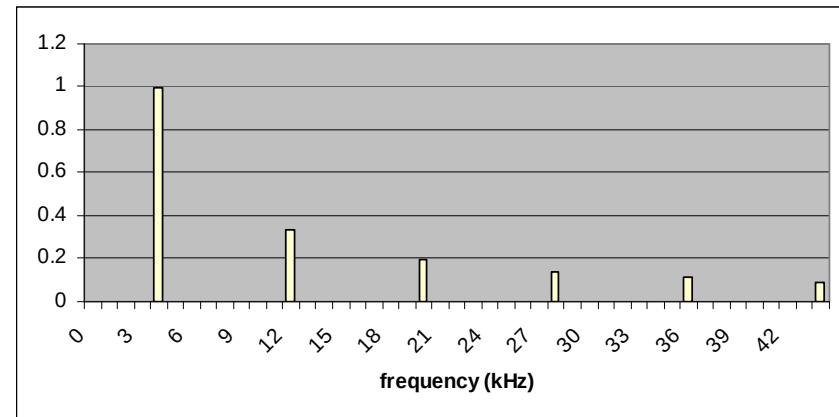
$$\begin{aligned}
 x_2(t) = & 0 + \frac{4}{\pi} \cos(2\pi 1000t) \\
 & + \frac{4}{3\pi} \cos(2\pi 3(1000)t) \\
 & + \frac{4}{5\pi} \cos(2\pi 5(1000)t) + \dots
 \end{aligned}$$

Only odd harmonics have power

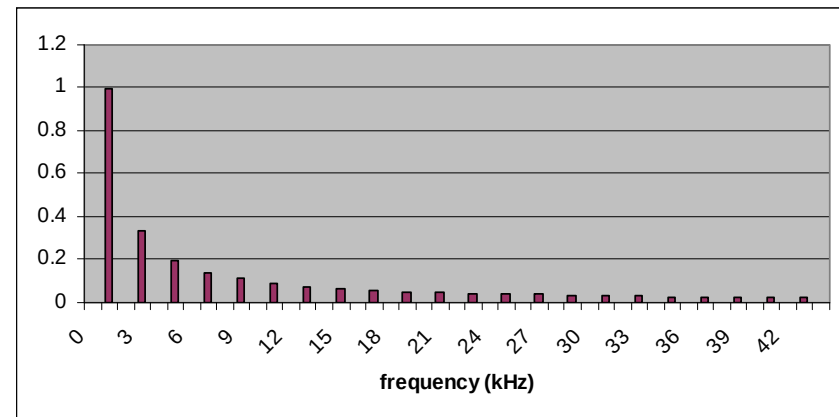
Spectra & Bandwidth

- Spectrum of a signal: magnitude of amplitudes as a function of frequency
- $x_1(t)$ varies faster in time & has more high frequency content than $x_2(t)$
- Bandwidth W_s is defined as range of frequencies where a signal has non-negligible power, e.g. range of band that contains 99% of total signal power

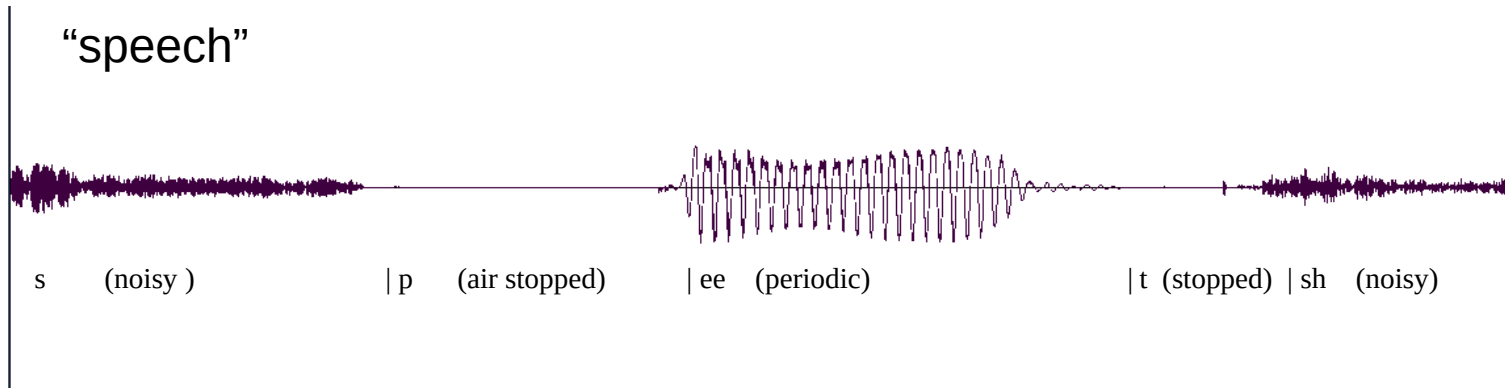
Spectrum of $x_1(t)$



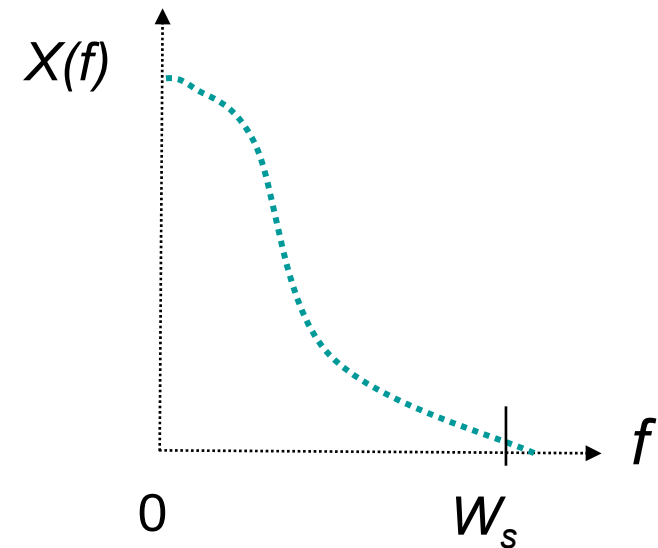
Spectrum of $x_2(t)$



Bandwidth of General Signals

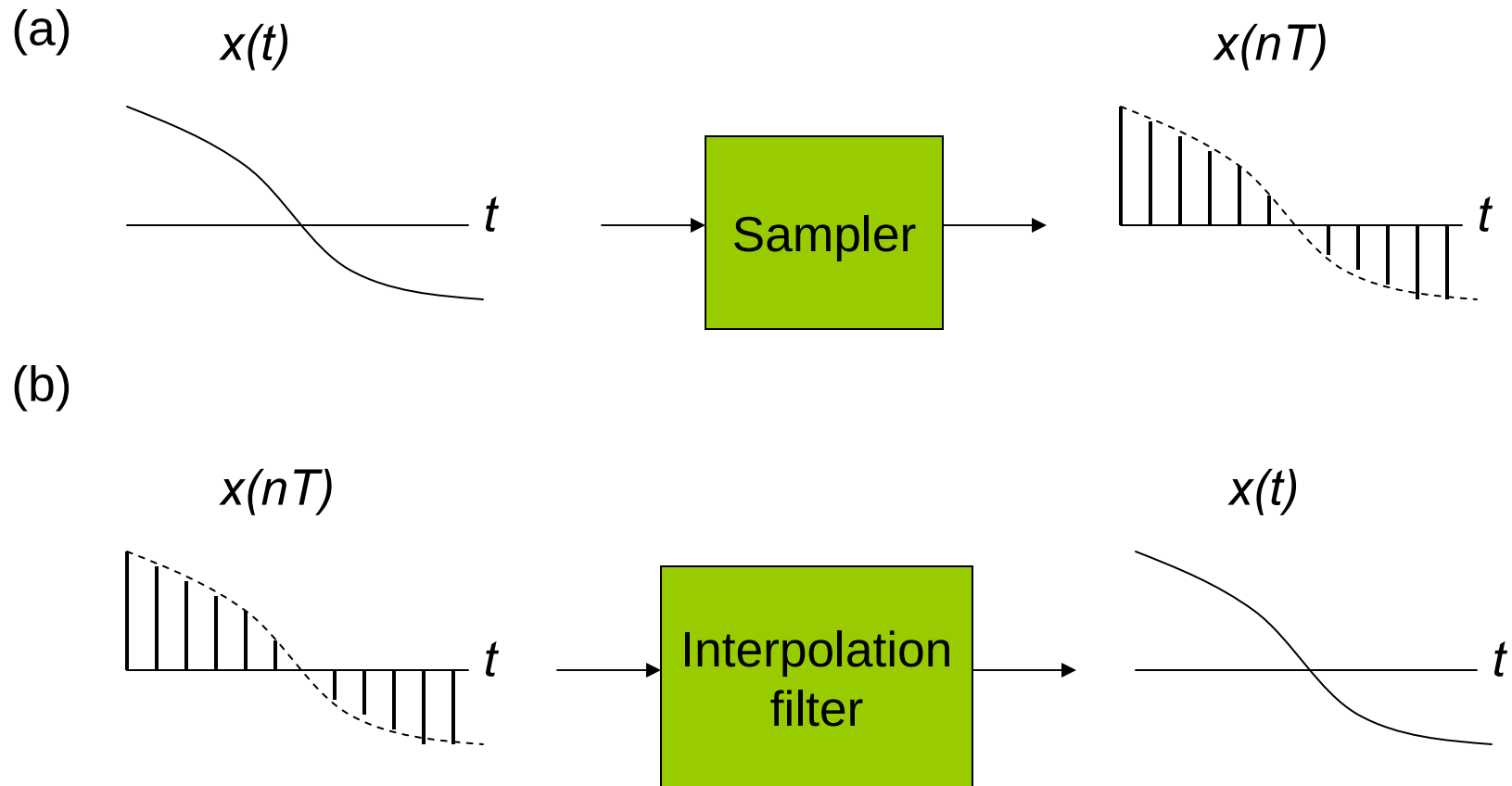


- Not all signals are periodic
 - E.g. voice signals varies according to sound
 - Vowels are periodic, “s” is noiselike
- Spectrum of long-term signal
 - Averages over many sounds, many speakers
 - Involves Fourier transform
- Telephone speech: 4 kHz
- CD Audio: 22 kHz

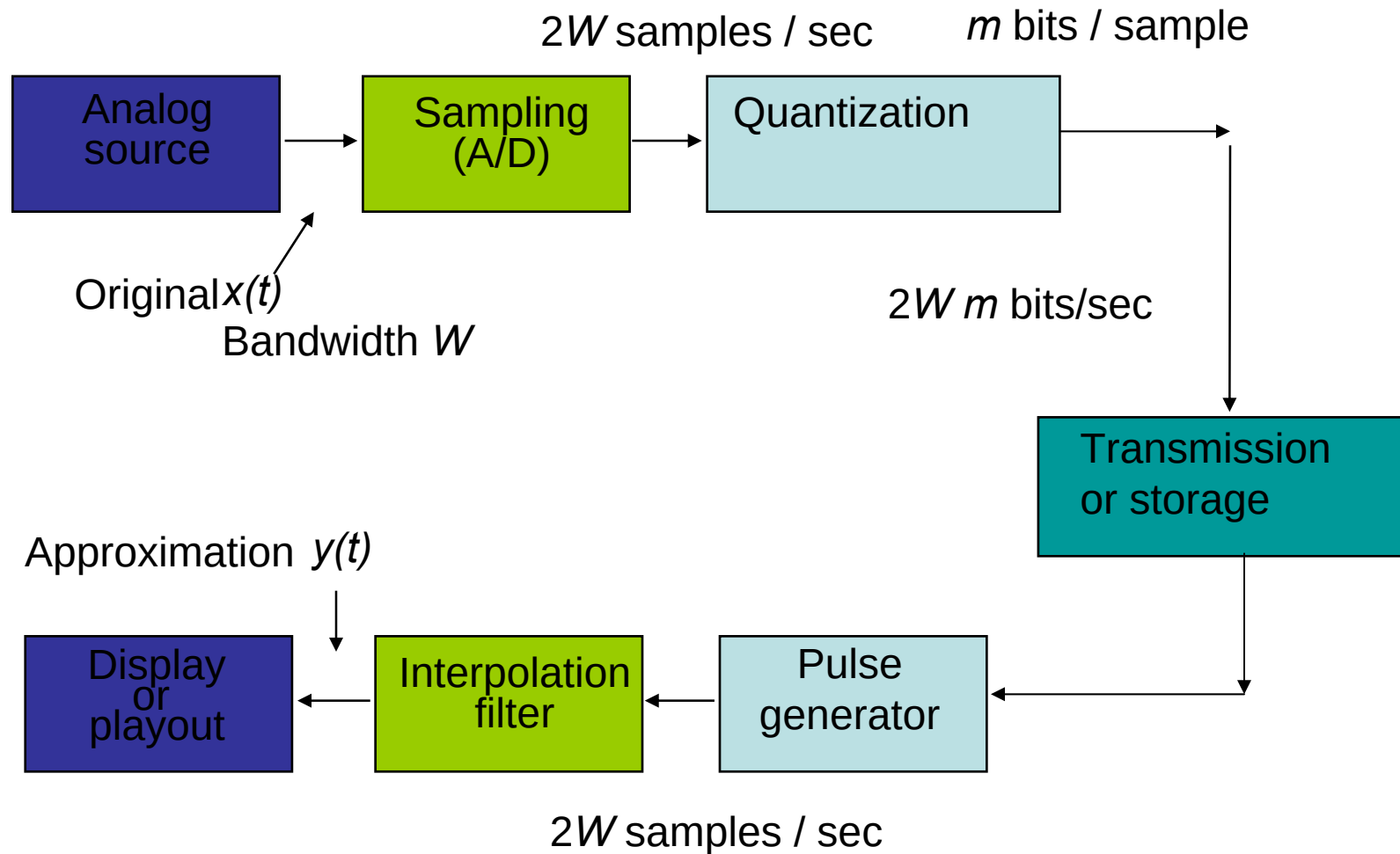


Sampling Theorem

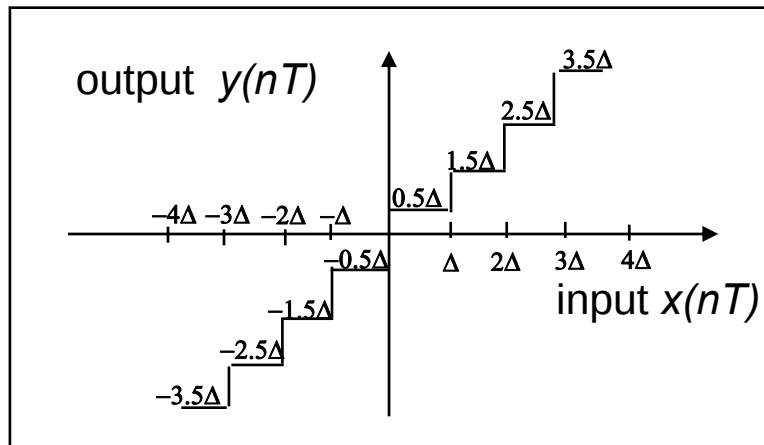
Nyquist: Perfect reconstruction if sampling rate $1/T > 2W_s$



Digital Transmission of Analog Information

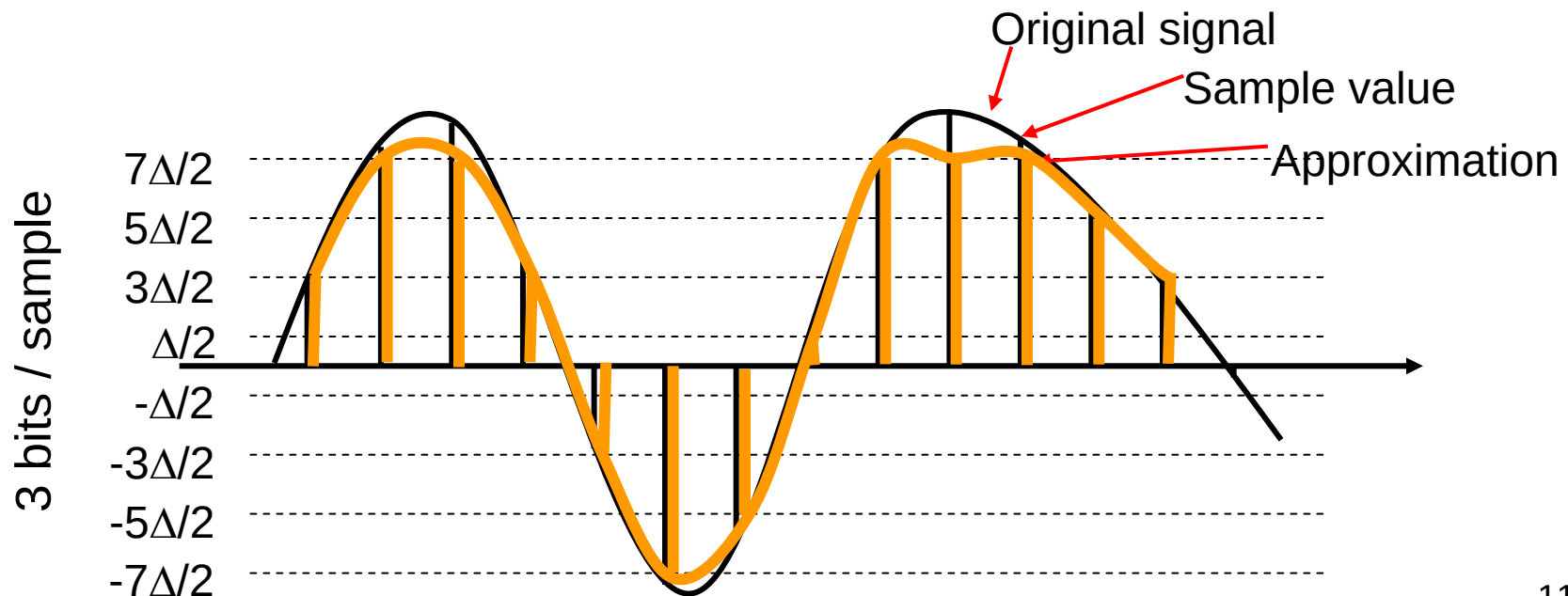


Quantization of Analog Samples



Quantizer maps input
into closest of 2^m
representation values

Quantization error:
“noise” = $x(nT) - y(nT)$



Example: Telephone Speech

$W = 4\text{KHz}$, so Nyquist sampling theorem
 $\Rightarrow 2W = 8000 \text{ samples/second}$

**PCM ("Pulse Code Modulation") Telephone
Speech (8 bits/sample):**

Bit rate = $8000 \times 8 \text{ bits/sec} = 64 \text{ kbps}$

Channel Characteristics

Transmission Impairments

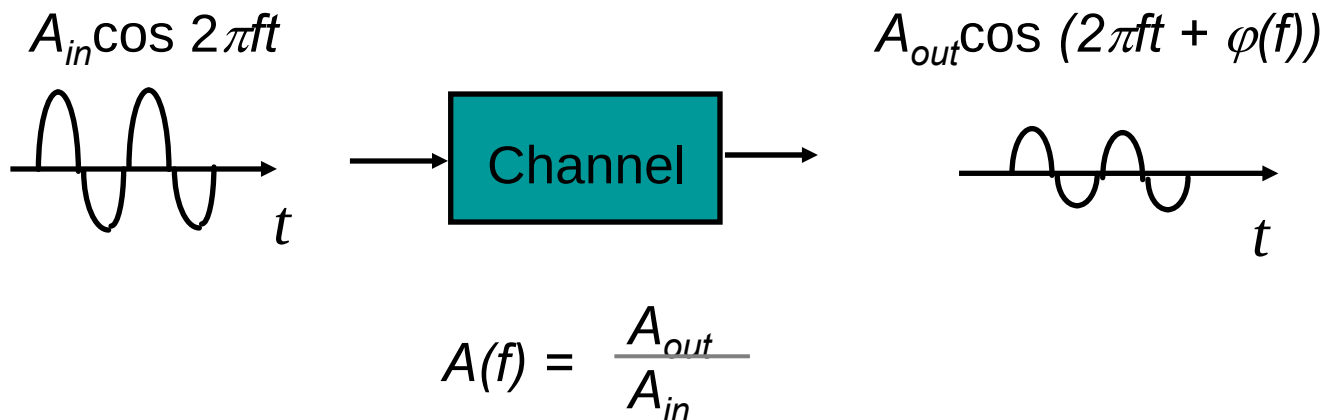
- Caused by imperfections of transmission media
- Analog signal: impairments degrade signal quality
- Digital signal: impairments cause bit errors
- Three main types of transmission impairments
 - Attenuation
 - Distortion
 - Noise

Attenuation

- Loss in power signal
 - A signal loses its energy while traveling through a medium
 - Loss in signal power as it is transferred across a system
- Overcome by boosting the signal
 - Analog → amplifiers
 - Digital → repeaters

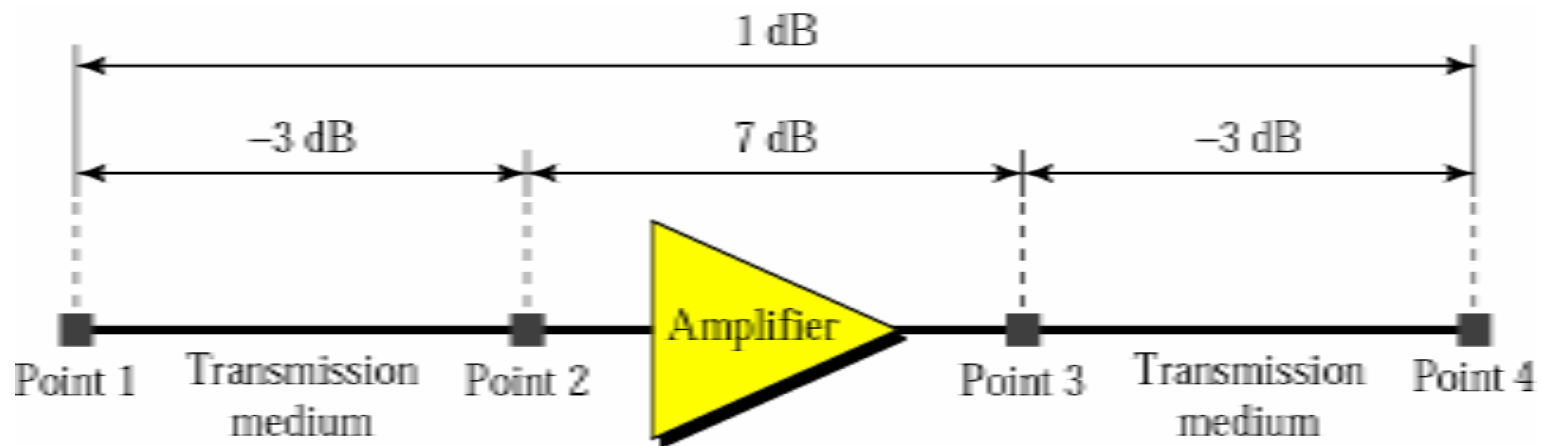
Attenuation (cont.)

- Attenuation is usually expressed in decibel (dB)
- $\text{Atten.}(f) = 10 \log_{10} P_{\text{in}}/P_{\text{out}} \text{ [dB]}$
- $P_{\text{in}}/P_{\text{out}} = A_{\text{in}}^2/A_{\text{out}}^2 = 1/A^2$
- $\text{Atten.}(f) = 20 \log_{10} 1/A^2 \text{ [dB]}$

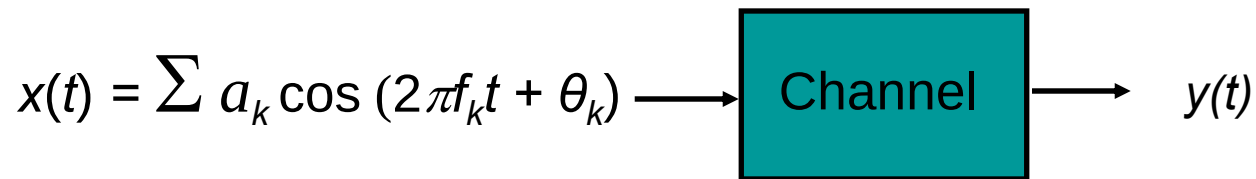


Attenuation (cont.)

- Loss positive dB
- Gain negative dB
- Overall just sum them up



Channel Distortion

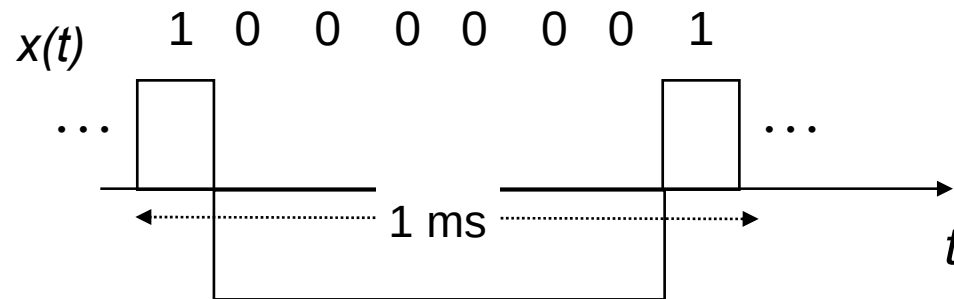


- Let $x(t)$ corresponds to a digital signal bearing data information
- How well does $y(t)$ follow $x(t)$?

$$y(t) = \sum A(f_k) a_k \cos(2\pi f_k t + \theta_k + \Phi(f_k))$$

- Channel has two effects:
 - If amplitude response is not flat, then different frequency components of $x(t)$ will be transferred by different amounts
 - If phase response is not flat, then different frequency components of $x(t)$ will be delayed by different amounts
- In either case, the shape of $x(t)$ is altered

Amplitude Distortion



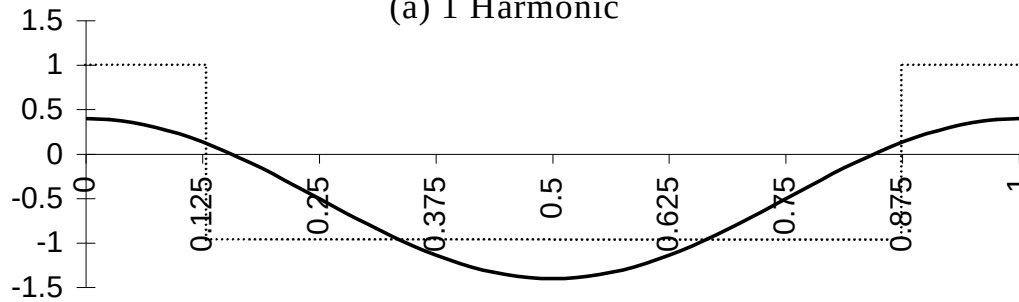
- Let $x(t)$ input to ideal lowpass filter that has zero delay and $W_c = 1.5 \text{ kHz}, 2.5 \text{ kHz}, \text{ or } 4.5 \text{ kHz}$

$$x(t) = -0.5 + \frac{4}{\pi} \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right) \cos(2\pi 1000t) + \frac{4}{\pi} \sin\left(\frac{2\pi}{4}\right) \cos(2\pi 2000t) + \frac{4}{\pi} \sin\left(\frac{3\pi}{4}\right) \cos(2\pi 3000t) + \dots$$

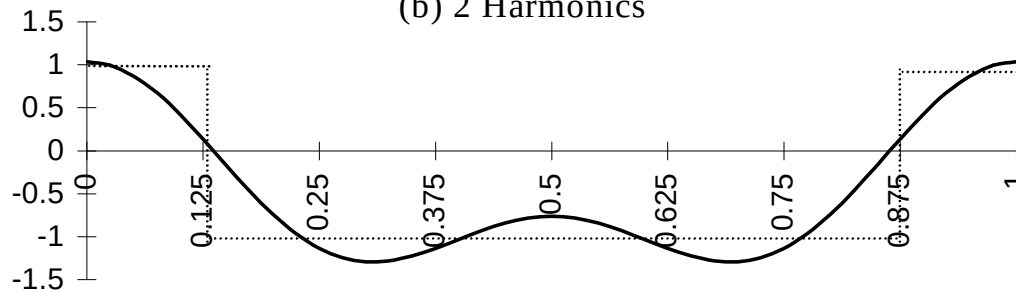
- $W_c = 1.5 \text{ kHz}$ passes only the first two terms
- $W_c = 2.5 \text{ kHz}$ passes the first three terms
- $W_c = 4.5 \text{ kHz}$ passes the first five terms

Amplitude Distortion (cont.)

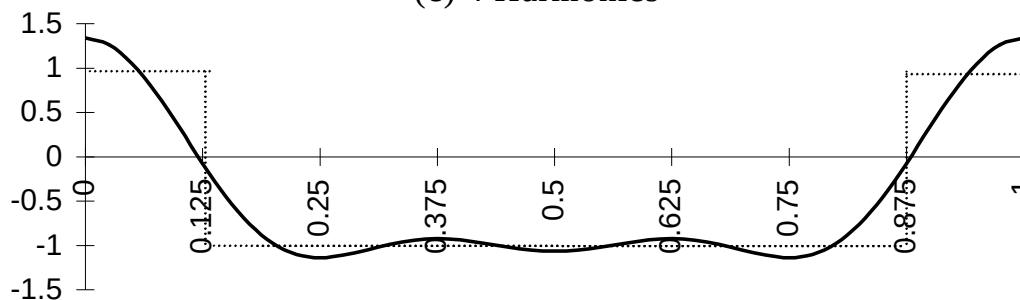
(a) 1 Harmonic



(b) 2 Harmonics



(c) 4 Harmonics



- As the channel bandwidth increases, the output of the channel resembles the input more closely

Noise

- Unwanted signals that get inserted or generated somewhere between a transmitter and a receiver
- Types of noise
 - Thermal noise: result of random motion of electrons → depends on temperature
 - Intermodulation noise: generated during modulation and demodulation
 - Crosstalk: effect of one wire on the other
 - Impulse noise: irregular pulses or noise spikes i.e. electromagnetic disturbances

Data Rate Limit

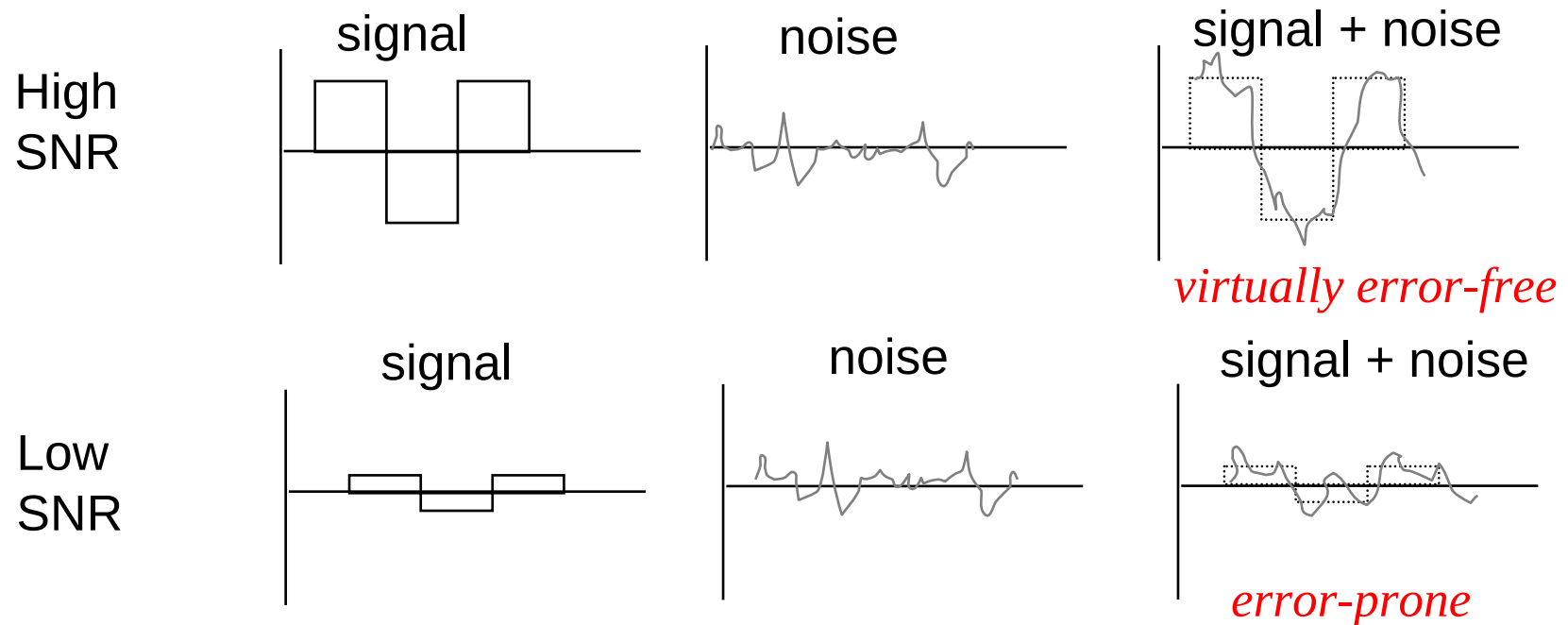
- Nyquist Theorem: maximum rate at which digital data can be transmitted over a channel of bandwidth B [Hz] is

$$C = 2 \times B \times \log_2 M \text{ [bps]}$$

M is a number of levels in digital signals

- Theoretical limit
- In practice we need to use both Nyquist and Shannon to find what data rate and signal levels are appropriate for each particular channel

Channel Noise affects Reliability



$$\text{SNR} = \frac{\text{Average Signal Power}}{\text{Average Noise Power}}$$

$$\text{SNR (dB)} = 10 \log_{10} \text{SNR}$$

Shannon Channel Capacity

- If transmitted power is limited, then as M increases spacing between levels decreases
- Presence of noise at receiver causes more frequent errors to occur as M is increased

Shannon Channel Capacity:

The maximum reliable transmission rate over an ideal channel with bandwidth W Hz, with Gaussian distributed noise, and with SNR S/N is

$$C = W \log_2 (1 + S/N) \text{ bits per second}$$

- Reliable means error rate can be made arbitrarily small by proper coding

Example

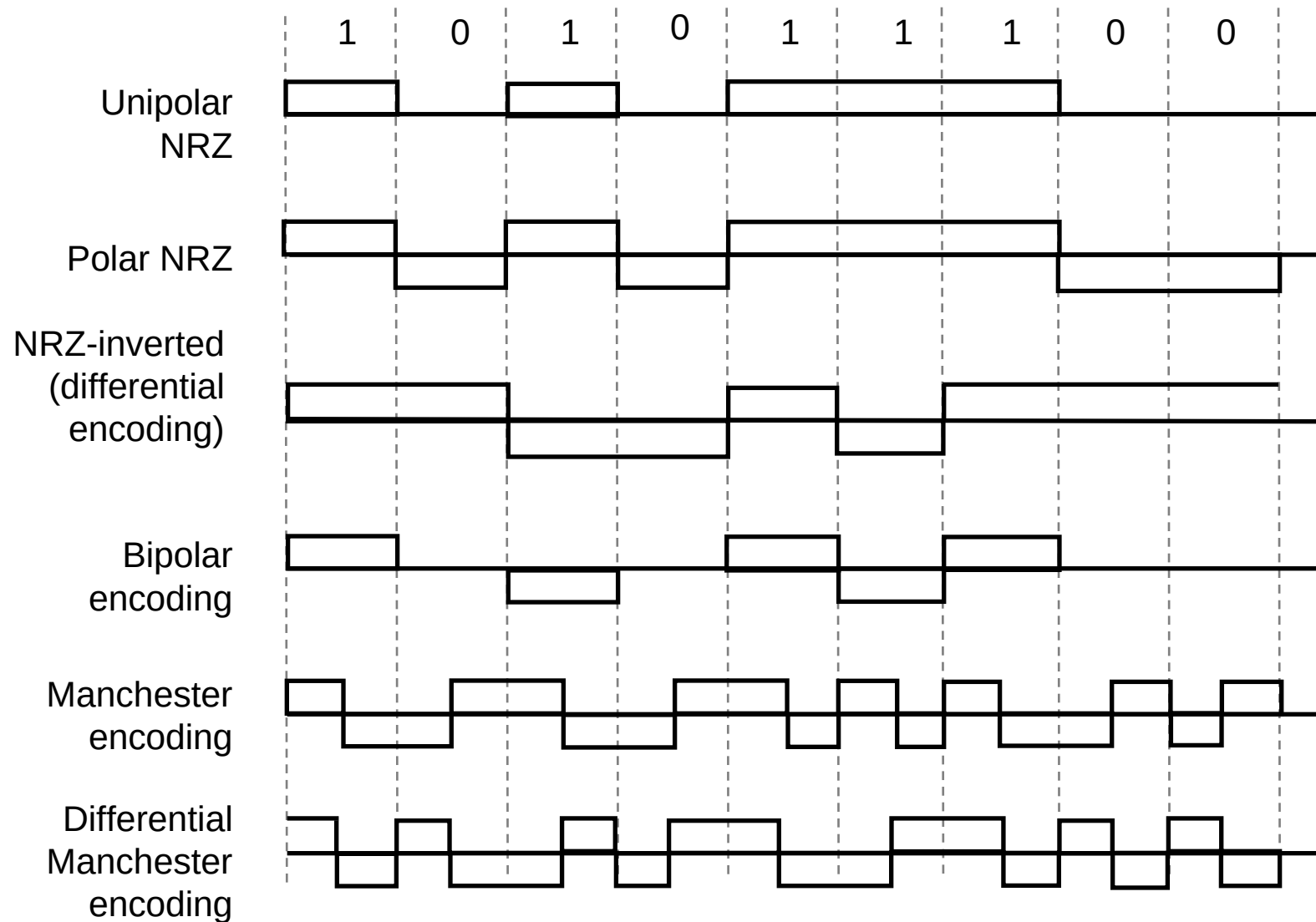
- Consider a 3 kHz channel with 8-level signaling.
Compare bit rate to channel capacity at 20 dB SNR
- 3KHz telephone channel with 8 level signaling
Bit rate = $2 \times 3000 \text{ pulses/sec} \times 3 \text{ bits/pulse} = 18 \text{ kbps}$
- 20 dB SNR means $10 \log_{10} S/N = 20$
Implies $S/N = 100$
- Shannon Channel Capacity is then
 $C = 3000 \log (1 + 100) = 19,963 \text{ bits/second}$

Line Coding

What is Line Coding?

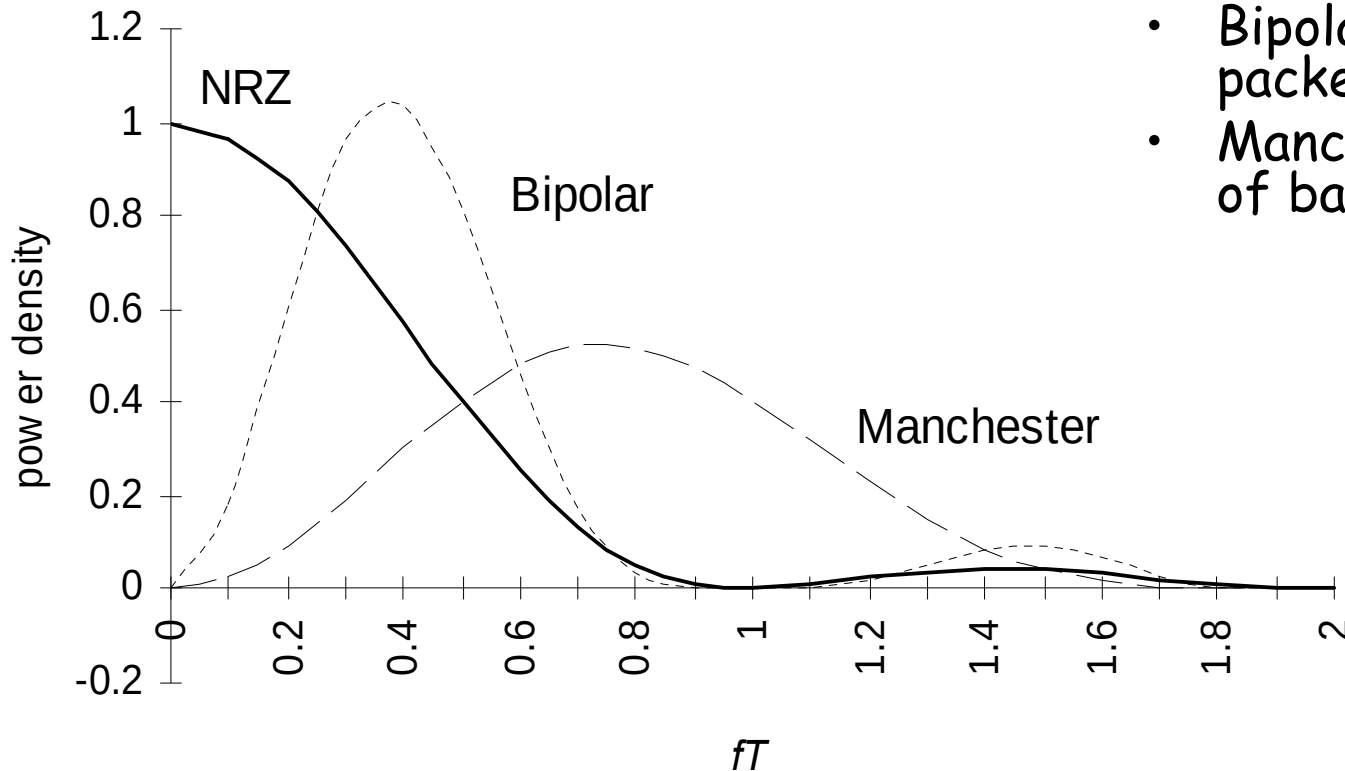
- Mapping of binary information sequence into the digital signal that enters the channel
 - Ex. "1" maps to +A square pulse; "0" to -A pulse
- Line code selected to meet system requirements:
 - *Transmitted power*: Power consumption = \$
 - *Bit timing*: Transitions in signal help timing recovery
 - *Bandwidth efficiency*: Excessive transitions wastes bw
 - *Low frequency content*: Some channels block low frequencies
 - long periods of +A or of -A causes signal to "droop"
 - Waveform should not have low-frequency content
 - *Error detection*: Ability to detect errors helps
 - *Complexity/cost*: Is code implementable in chip at high speed?

Line coding examples



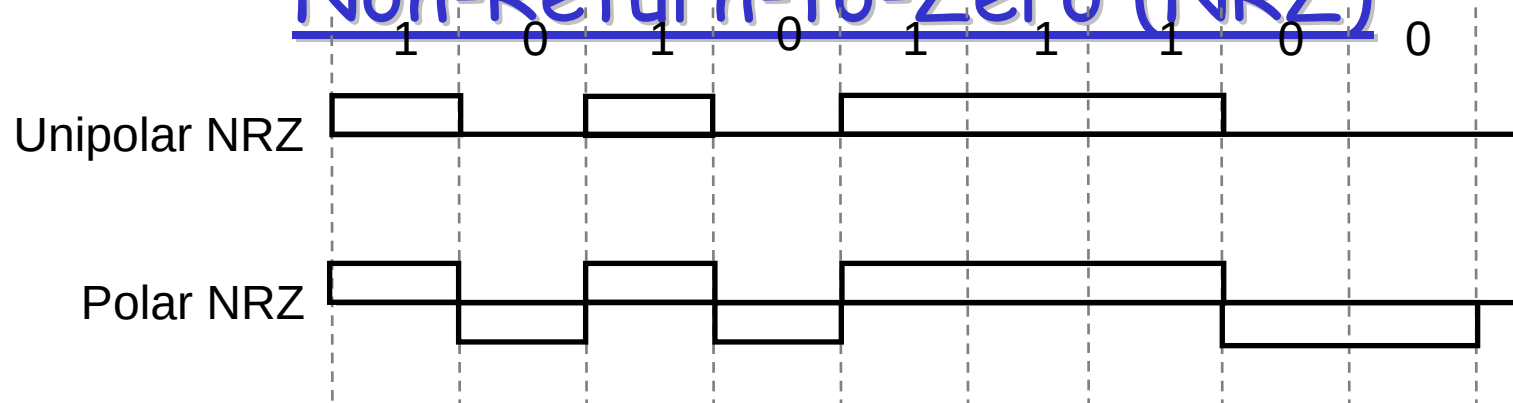
Spectrum of Line codes

- Assume 1s & 0s independent & equiprobable



- NRZ has high content at low frequencies
- Bipolar tightly packed around $T/2$
- Manchester wasteful of bandwidth

Unipolar & Polar Non-Return-to-Zero (NRZ)



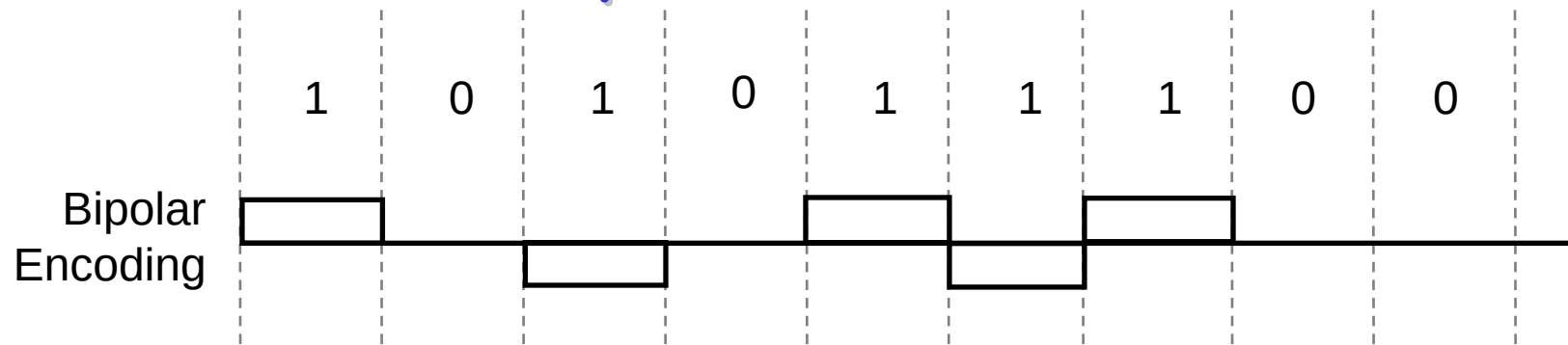
Unipolar NRZ

- "1" maps to +A pulse
- "0" maps to no pulse
- High Average Power
 $0.5 \cdot A^2 + 0.5 \cdot 0^2 = A^2/2$
- Long strings of A or 0
 - Poor timing
 - Low-frequency content
- Simple

Polar NRZ

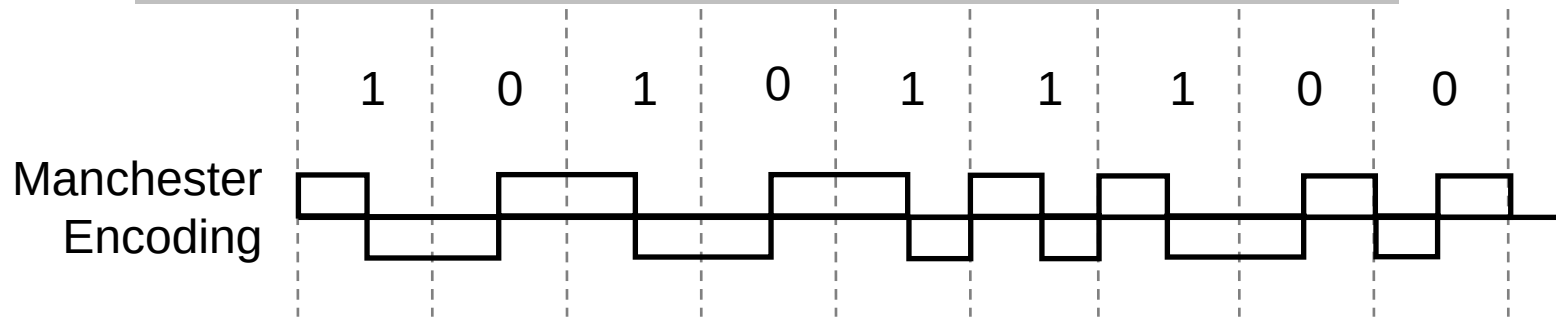
- "1" maps to +A/2 pulse
- "0" maps to -A/2 pulse
- Better Average Power
 $0.5 \cdot (A/2)^2 + 0.5 \cdot (-A/2)^2 = A^2/4$
- Long strings of +A/2 or -A/2
 - Poor timing
 - Low-frequency content
- Simple

Bipolar Code



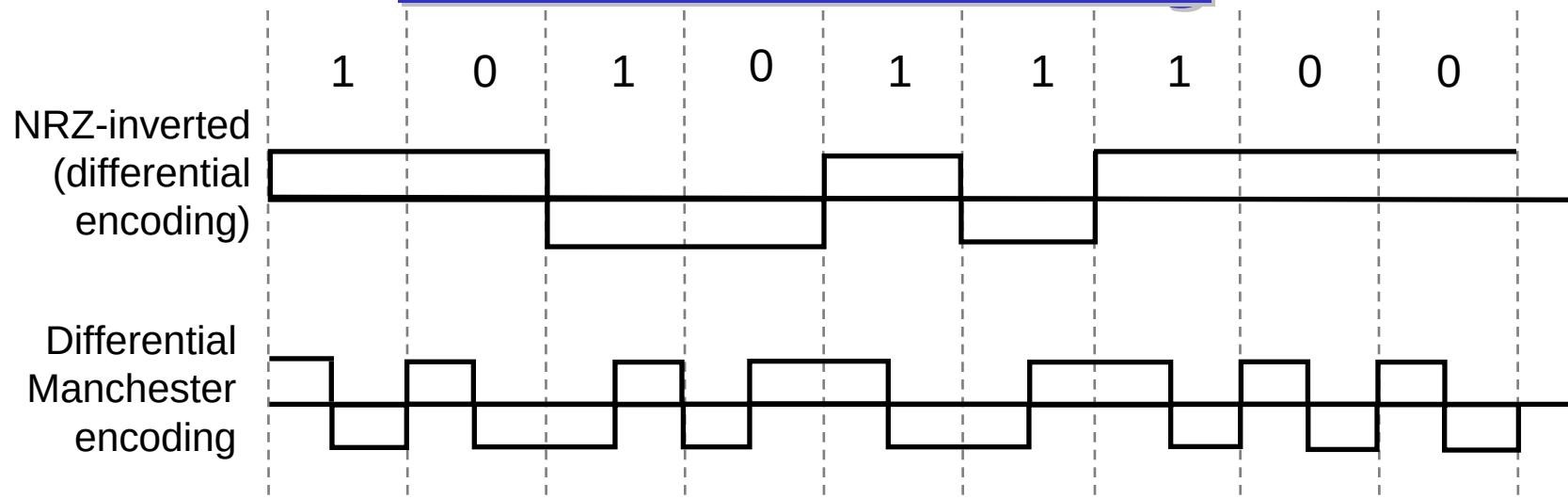
- Three signal levels: $\{-A, 0, +A\}$
- "1" maps to $+A$ or $-A$ in alternation
- "0" maps to no pulse
 - Every +pulse matched by -pulse so little content at low frequencies
- String of 1s produces a square wave
 - Spectrum centered at $T/2$
- Long string of 0s causes receiver to lose synch
- Zero-substitution codes

Manchester code & $mBnB$ codes



- "1" maps into $A/2$ first $T/2$, - $A/2$ last $T/2$
- "0" maps into $-A/2$ first $T/2$, $A/2$ last $T/2$
- Every interval has transition in middle
 - Timing recovery easy
 - Uses double the minimum bandwidth
- Simple to implement
- Used in 10-Mbps Ethernet & other LAN standards
- $mBnB$ line code
- Maps block of m bits into n bits
- Manchester code is 1B2B code
- 4B5B code used in FDDI LAN
- 8B10b code used in Gigabit Ethernet
- 64B66B code used in 10G Ethernet

Differential Coding



- Errors in some systems cause transposition in polarity, +A become -A and vice versa
 - All subsequent bits in Polar NRZ coding would be in error
- Differential line coding provides robustness to this type of error
- "1" mapped into transition in signal level
- "0" mapped into no transition in signal level
- Same spectrum as NRZ
- Errors occur in pairs
- Also used with Manchester coding