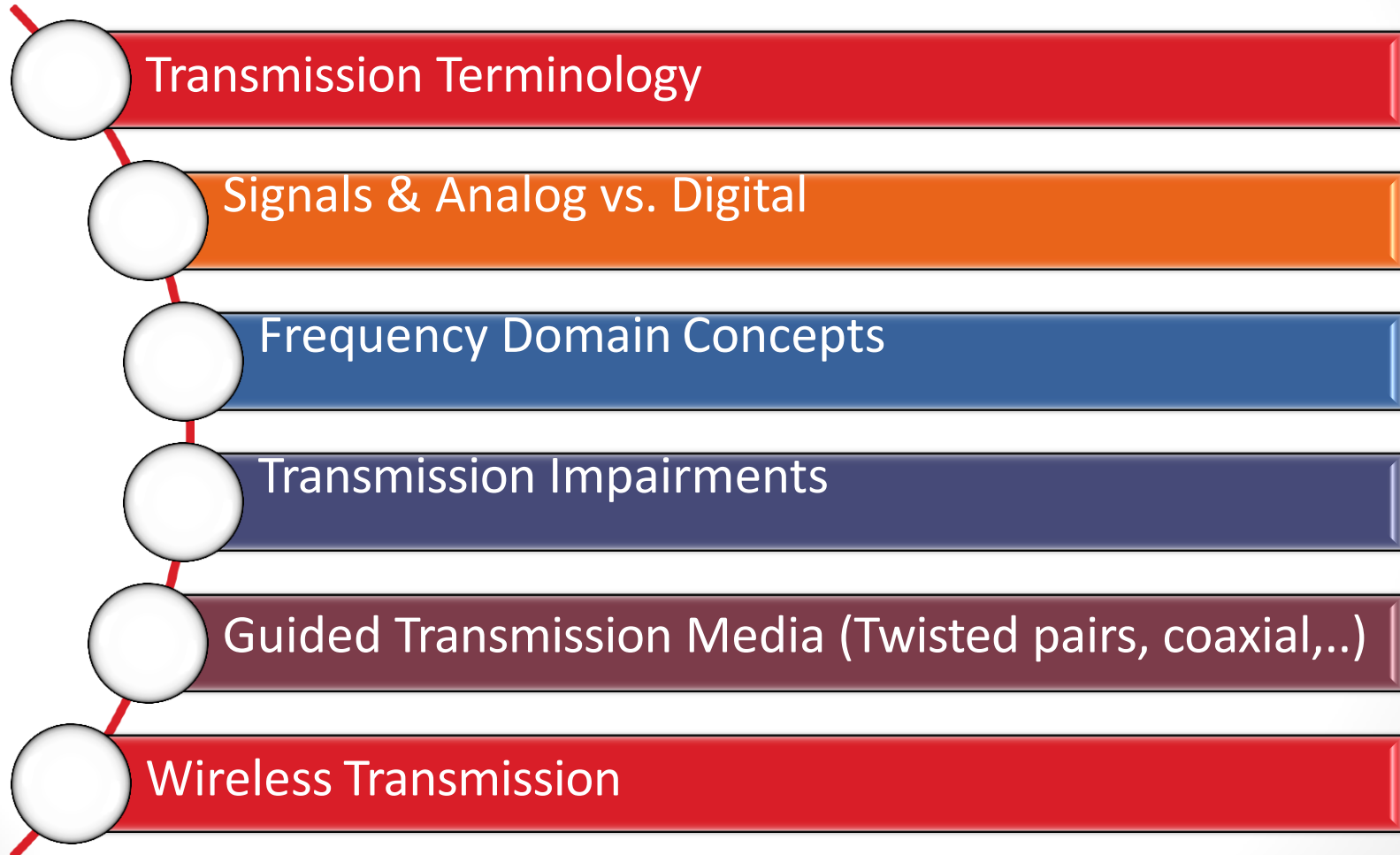


Lecture #3

Data Transmission & Media

Agenda



Data Transmission

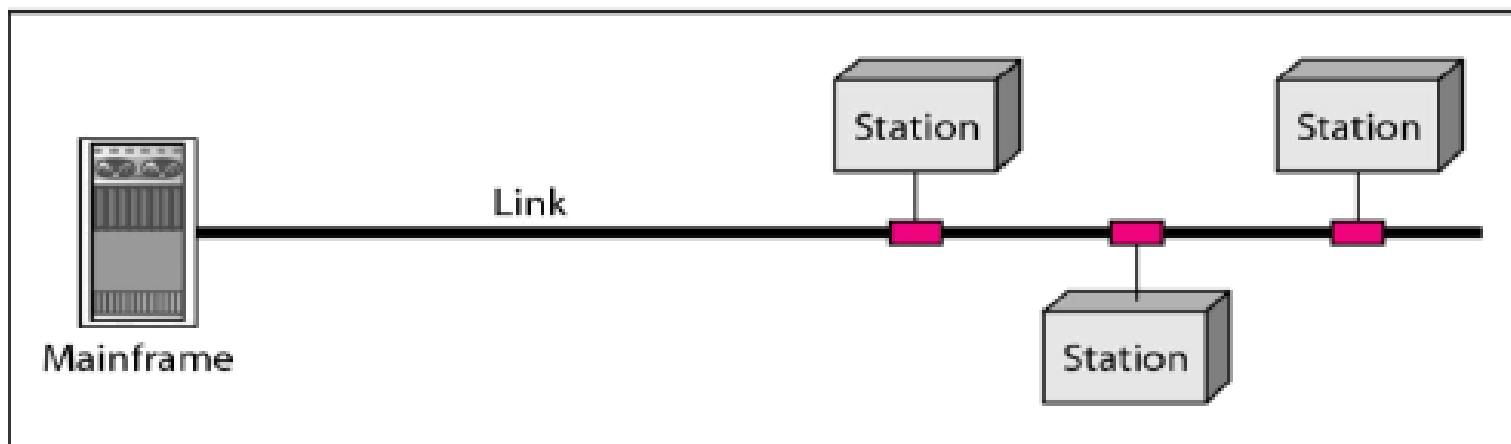
- The **successful** transmission of data depends on **two factors**:
 - The quality of the signal being transmitted
 - The characteristics of the transmission medium
- Data transmission occurs between a **transmitter** and a **receiver** over some transmission **medium**.
 - Guided media – physical path
 - twisted pair, coaxial cable, optical fiber
 - Unguided (wireless) media
 - Air, water , vacuum

Transmission Terminology

- Direct link
 - Transmission path from transmitter to receiver with **no intermediate devices** (other than amplifiers)
- Point to point
 - Direct link between the **only two devices** sharing the medium (Note: can apply to unguided media)
- Multipoint
 - **More than two devices** share the same medium



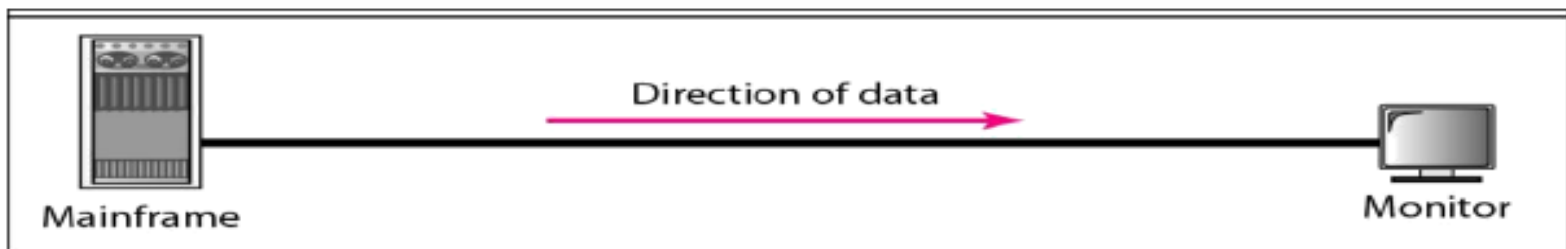
a. Point-to-point



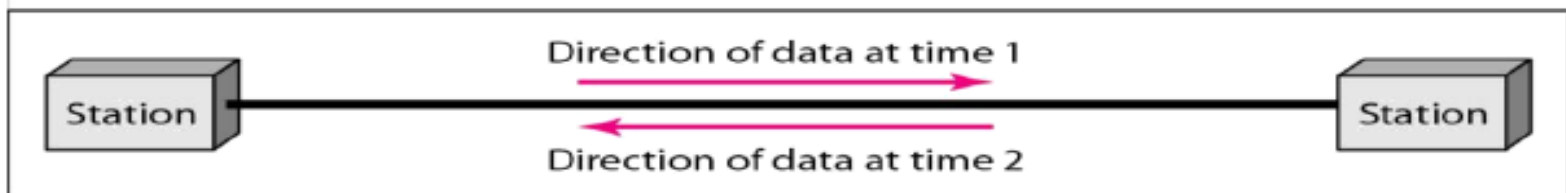
b. Multipoint

Transmission Terminology

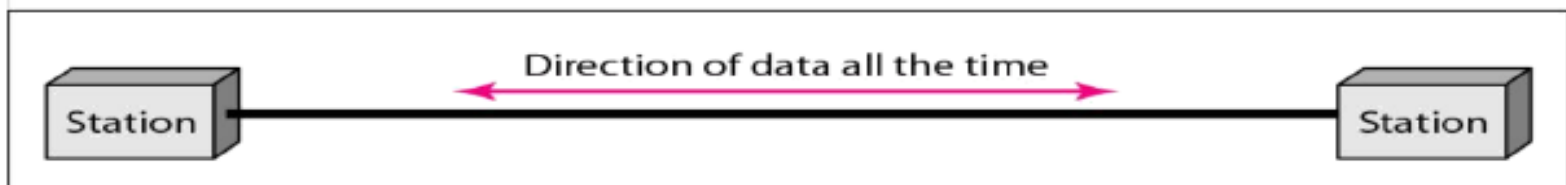
- Simplex
 - Signal transmitted in **one direction**
 - e.g. cable television
- Half-duplex
 - Both stations may transmit, but **one at a time**
 - e.g. police radio
- Full-duplex
 - Both stations may transmit **simultaneously**
 - e.g. telephone



a. Simplex



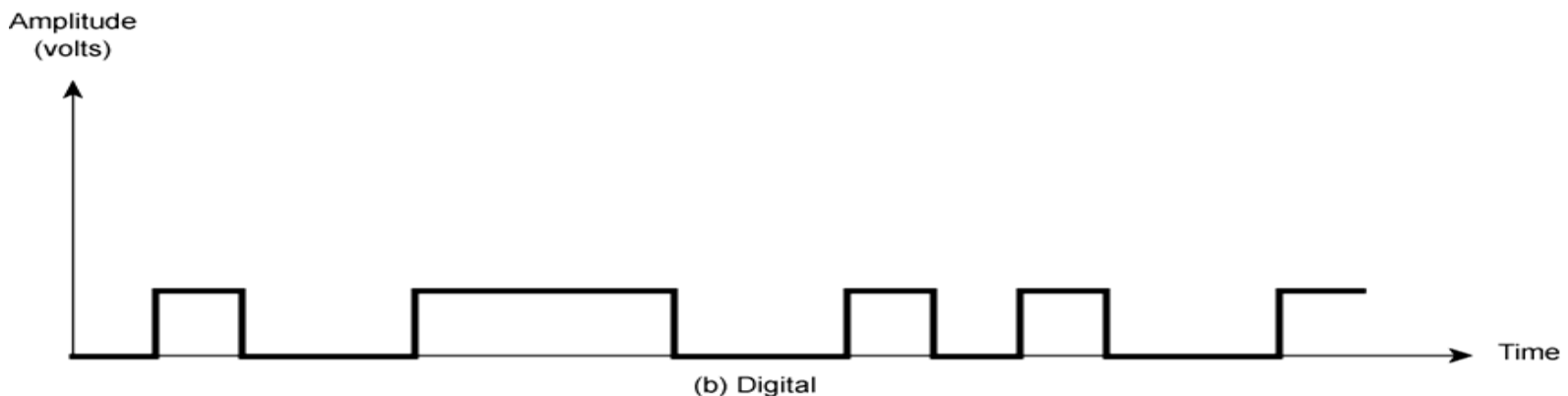
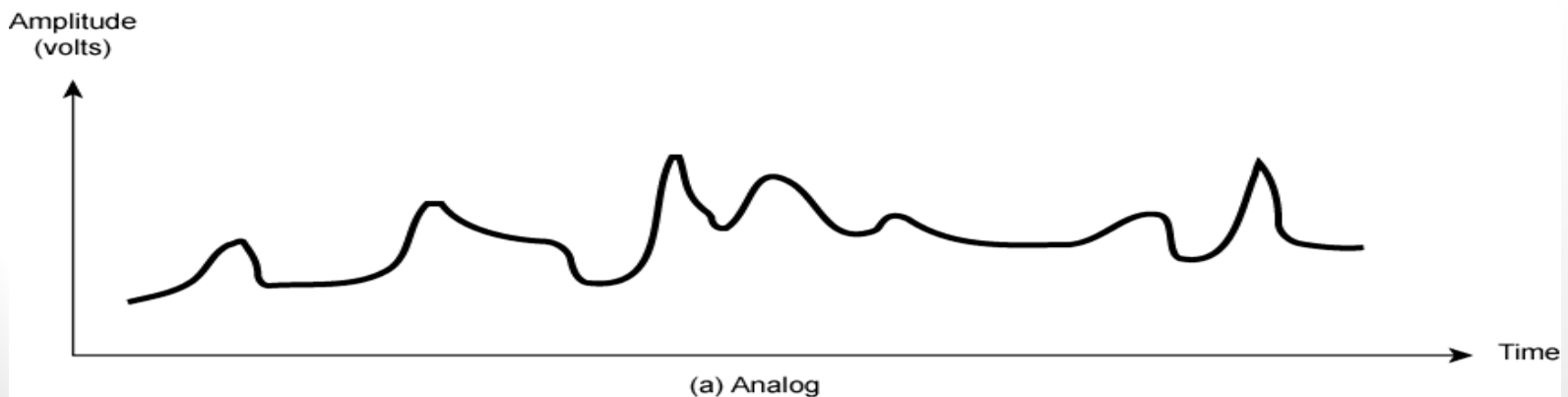
b. Half-duplex



c. Full-duplex

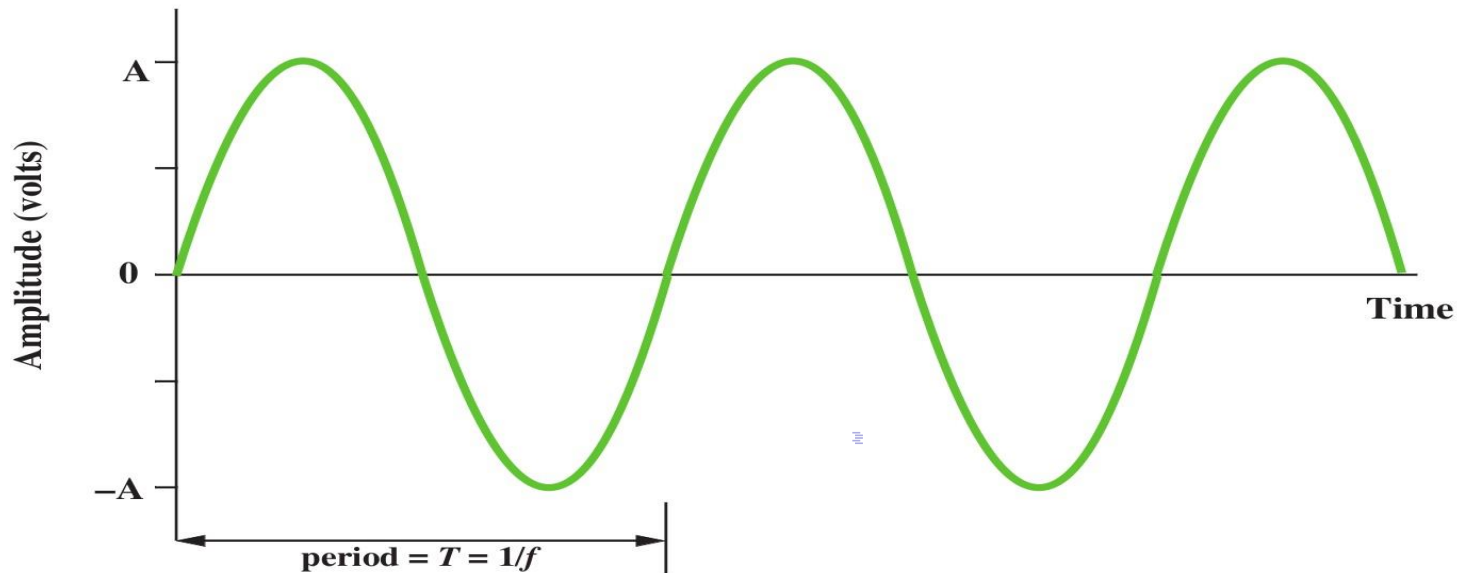
Analog vs. Digital

- Analog signal
 - Signal intensity varies in a smooth, **continuous**, fashion over time
 - no breaks
- Digital signal
 - Signal intensity maintains constant **level** for some period of time and then abruptly changes to another constant level – **discrete** signals

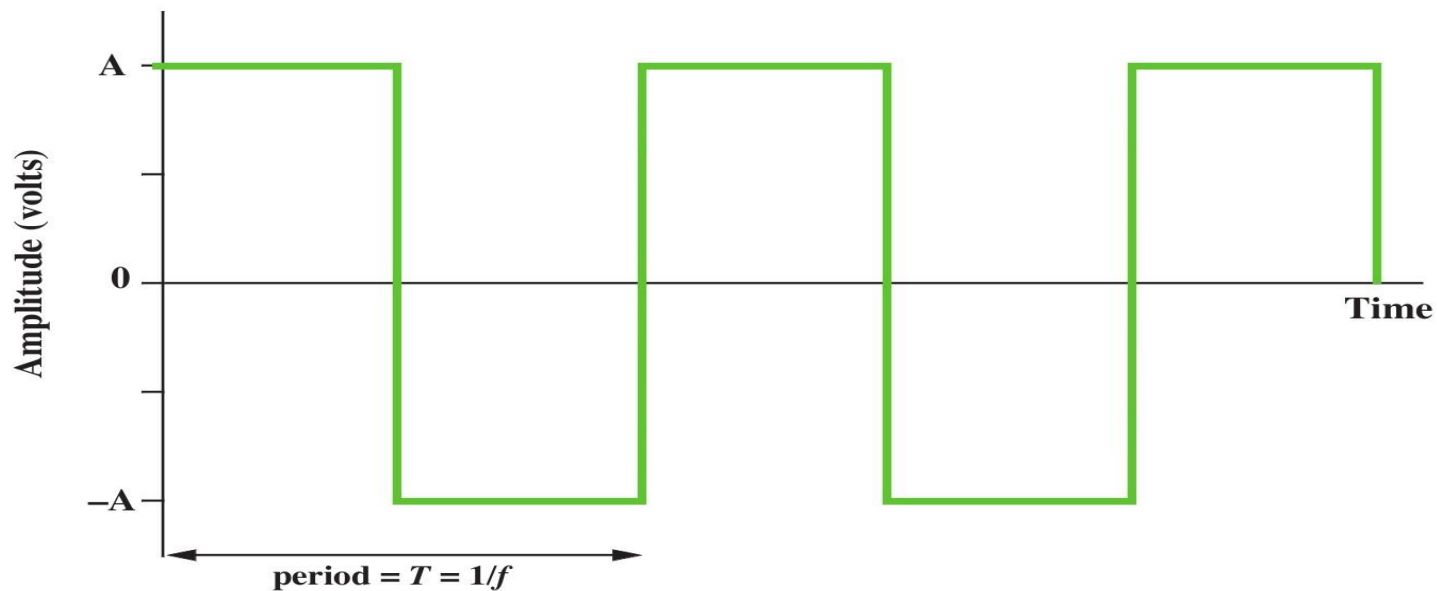


Examples of Periodic Signals

Any signal is either periodic (the following two) or aperiodic



(a) Sine wave



(b) Square wave

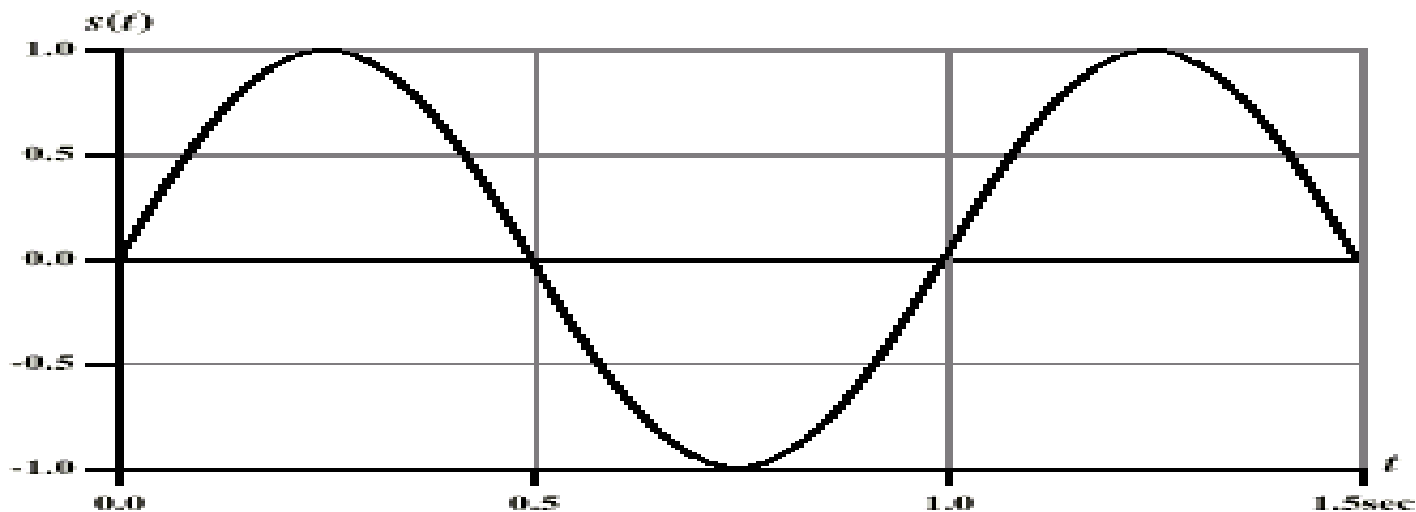
Sine Wave

(periodic continuous signal)

- Peak amplitude (A)
 - **Maximum strength** of signal
 - Typically measured in volts
- Frequency (f)
 - **Rate** at which signal **repeats**
 - Hertz (Hz) or cycles per second

$$T = 1 / f$$

- Period (T) is time to repeat
- Phase (ϕ)
 - Relative **position in time** within a single period



(a) $A = 1, f = 1, \phi = 0$

Wavelength (λ)

- **Distance** occupied by a **single cycle**

or

Distance between **two points** of **corresponding phase** of two consecutive cycles

- Signal with velocity v , then wavelength is

$$\lambda = vT \quad \text{or} \quad \lambda f = v$$

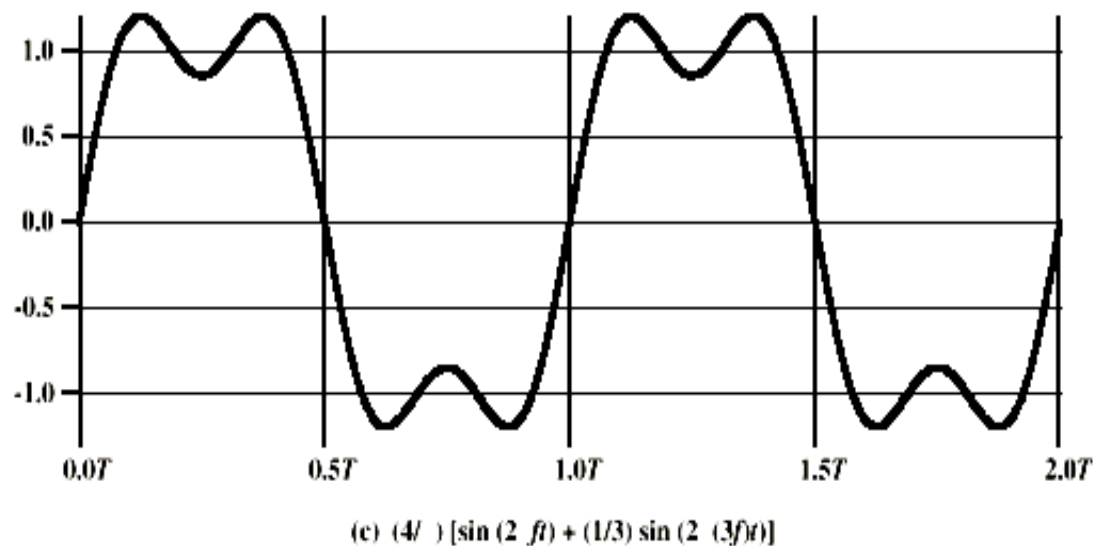
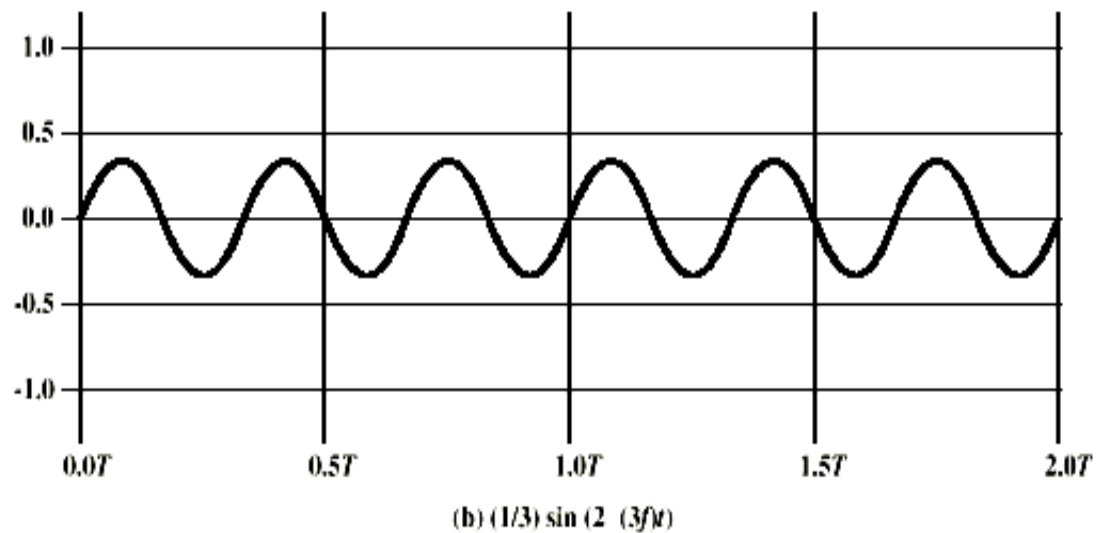
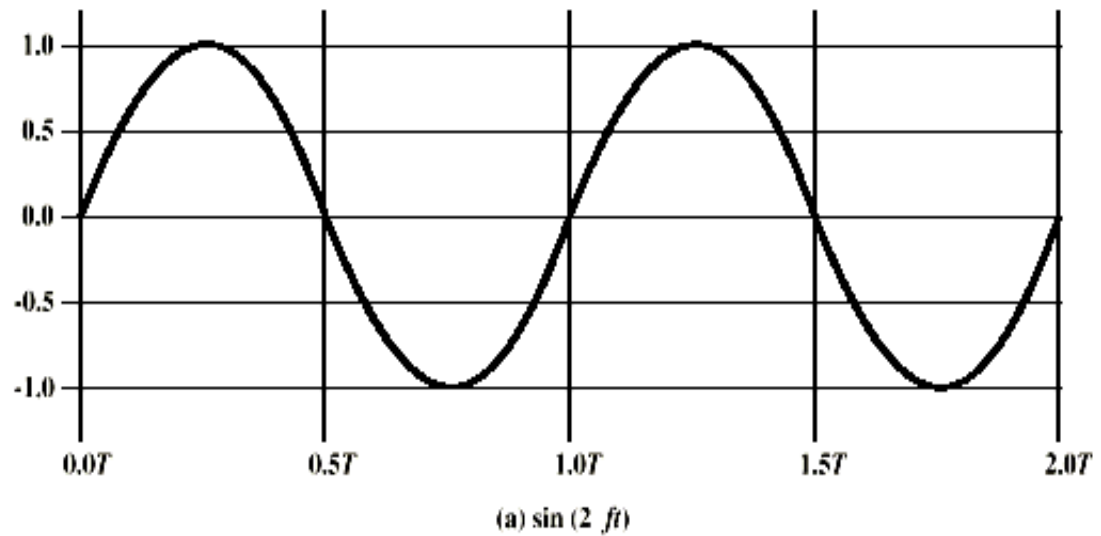
- Consider signal travelling at speed of light

$$v = c = 3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$$

Frequency Domain Concepts

- Signals are made up of **many frequencies**
- Components are sine waves
- **Fourier analysis** can show any signal is made up of components at various frequencies
- Each component is a sinusoid
- Can plot frequency domain functions

Addition of Frequency Components ($T = 1/f$)



Spectrum & Bandwidth

- Spectrum
 - **Range of frequencies contained in a signal**
 - e.g. f and $3f$ on previous slide
- Absolute bandwidth
 - **Width of the spectrum**
 - e.g. $2f$
- Effective bandwidth (or just “bandwidth”)
 - Narrow band of frequencies **containing most of the energy** in the signal

Data Rate and Bandwidth

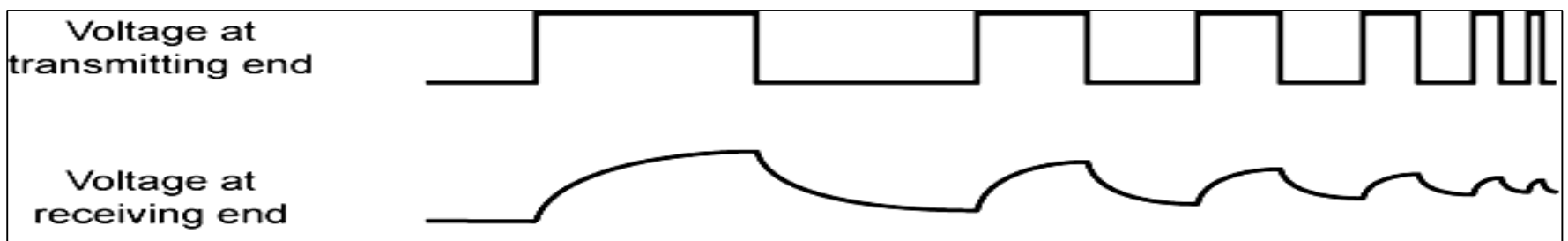
- Any **transmission system** can carry only a **limited band of frequencies**
 - Limits the data rate that can be carried
- Square waves have infinite components
 - Infinite bandwidth
- Most energy in first few components
- Limiting bandwidth creates **distortions**

Data, Signals, and Transmission

- Data
 - Entities that convey **information**
- Signals
 - Electric or electromagnetic **representations of data**
- Signaling
 - Physical **propagation** of signal along medium
- Transmission
 - Communication of data by **propagation** and **processing** of signals

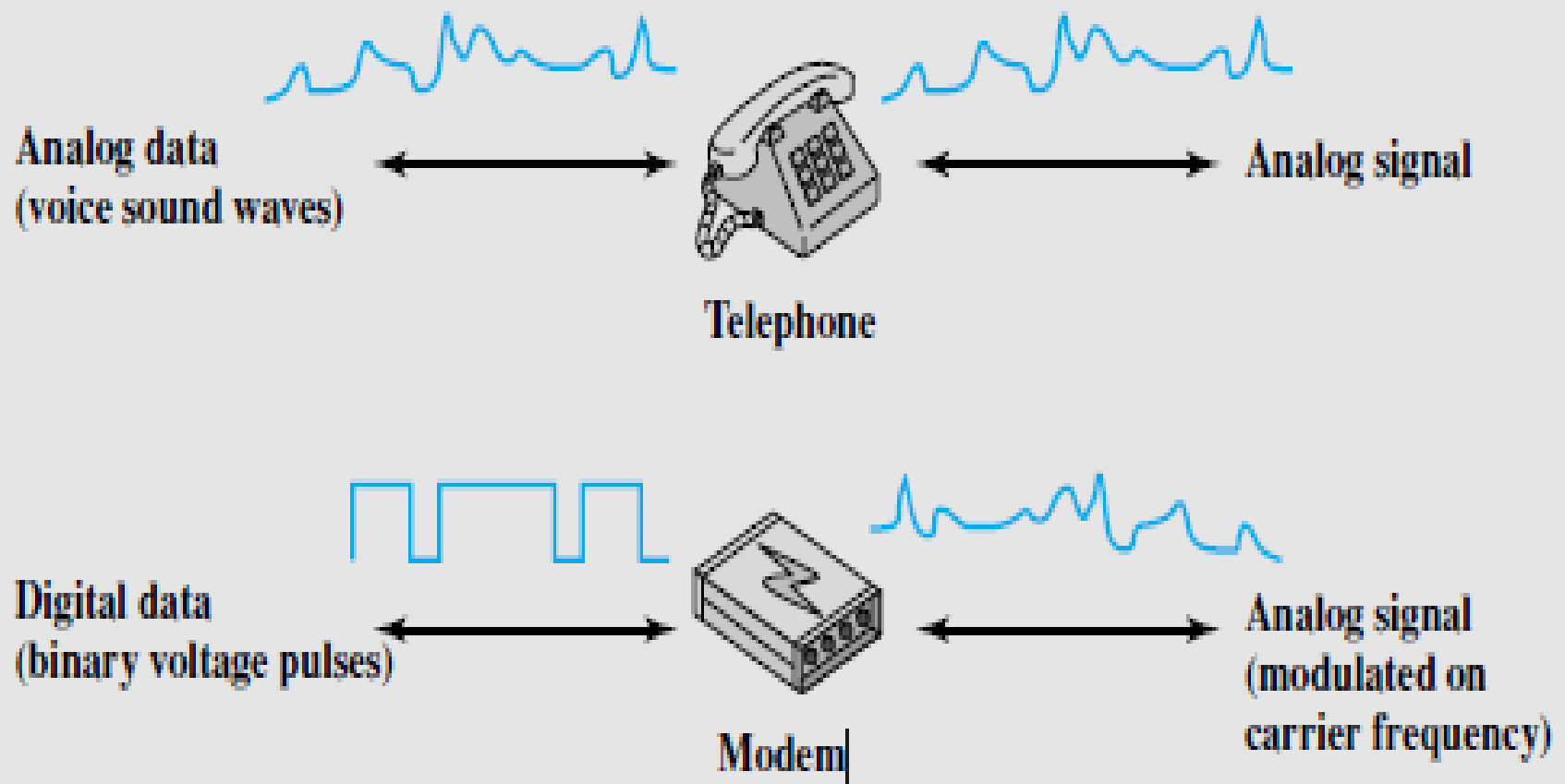
Digital Data & Signals

- Text (character strings)
 - Coded into sequence of bits
 - IRA – International Reference Alphabet (ASCII)
 - 7-bit code with parity bit
- Image
 - Coded into pixels with number of bits per pixel
 - May then be compressed
- Advantages
 - Cheaper
 - Less susceptible to noise interference
- Disadvantages
 - Suffer more from attenuation (strength loss)



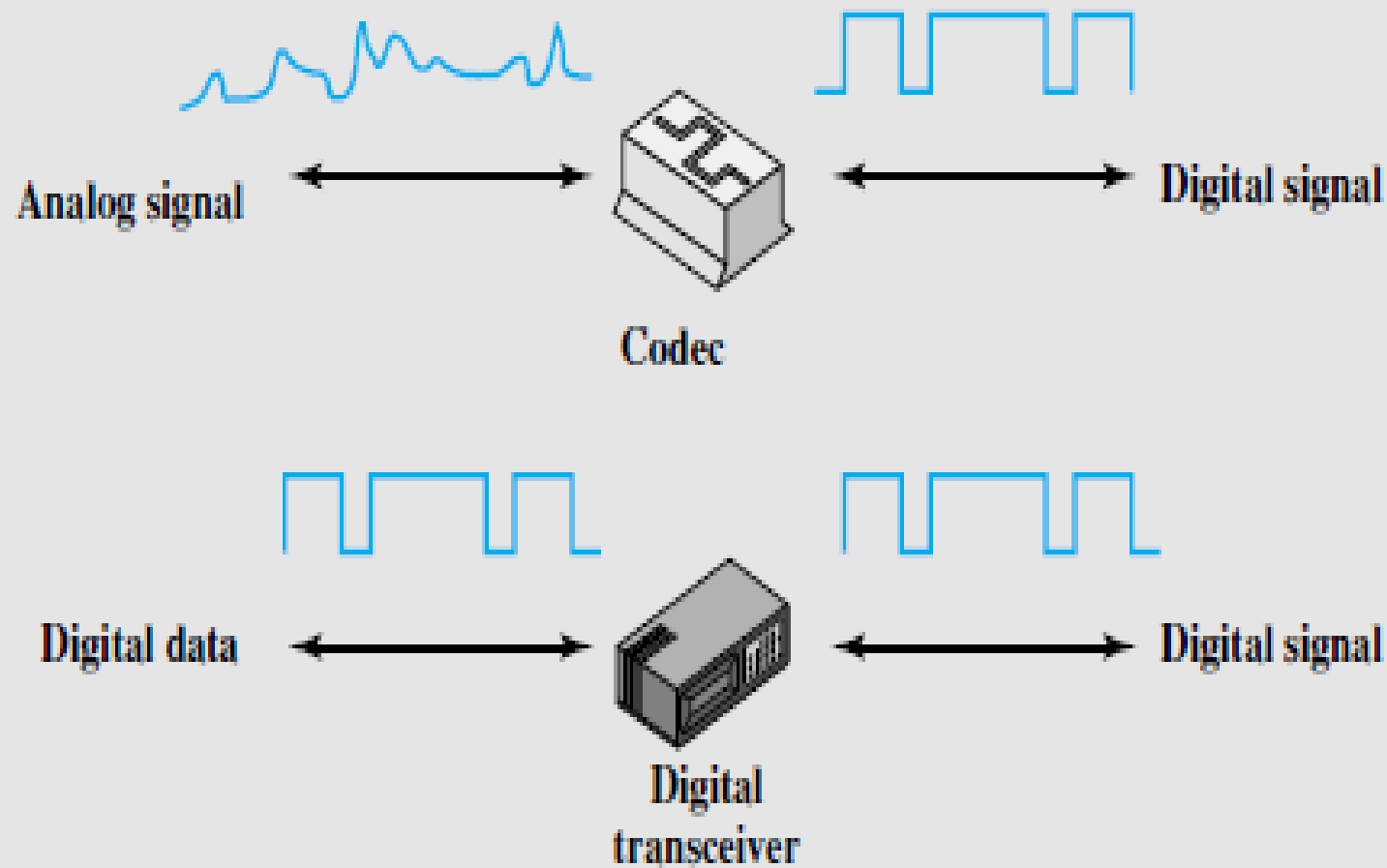
Analog Signaling

Analog signals: Represent data with continuously varying electromagnetic wave



Digital Signaling

Digital signals: Represent data with sequence of voltage pulses



Transmission Impairments

- signal received may differ from signal transmitted causing:
 - analog - **degradation of signal quality**
 - digital - **bit errors**
- most significant **impairments** are
 - attenuation
 - delay distortion
 - noise

Attenuation

- Signal **strength falls off** with distance over any communications medium
- Varies with frequency – higher has more
- Received signal strength must be:
 - **strong enough** to be detected
 - sufficiently **higher than noise** to be received without error
- Strength increased with **repeaters** or **amplifiers**
- Adjust for attenuation by amplifying more at higher frequencies

Delay Distortion

- occurs because **propagation velocity** of a signal through a guided medium varies with frequency
- various frequency **components arrive at different times** resulting in phase shifts between the frequencies
- particularly critical for digital data since parts of one bit spill over into others causing **intersymbol interference**

Noise

- **Unwanted signals** that are inserted somewhere between transmission and reception
- **Major limiting factor** in communications system performance

Categories of Noise

- Thermal Noise
 - **Thermal agitation of electrons**
 - Uniformly distributed across bandwidths
 - Referred to as “**white noise**”
- Intermodulation Noise
 - Produce **unwanted signals at a frequency that is the sum or difference of two original frequencies**
- e.g. signals at 4 KHz and 8 KHz may add noise at 12 KHz and interfere with a 12 KHz signal

Categories of Noise..

- Crosstalk
 - **a signal from one line is picked up by another**
 - can occur by electrical coupling between nearby twisted pairs or when microwave antennas pick up unwanted signals
- Impulse Noise
 - caused by **external electromagnetic interferences**
 - non-continuous, consisting of irregular pulses or spikes
 - short duration and high amplitude
 - **minor** annoyance for **analog** signals but a **major** source of error in **digital** data
 - For **example**, a sharp spike of energy of 0.01 s duration would not destroy any voice data but would wash out about 560 bits of digital data being transmitted at 56 kbps

Channel Capacity

- **Maximum rate** at which data can be transmitted over a given communications channel under given conditions
- Four concepts
 - Data rate - bits per second (bps))
 - Bandwidth - cycles per second – Hertz (Hz)
 - Noise – average noise level over path
 - Error rate – rate of corrupted bits
- **Limitations** are due to **physical properties**
- Main constraint on achieving efficiency is **noise**

Nyquist Bandwidth

In the case of a channel that is noise free:

- if rate of signal transmission is $2B$ then can carry signal with frequencies no greater than B
 - **given bandwidth B , highest signal rate is $2B$**
- for binary signals, $2B$ bps needs bandwidth B Hz
- can increase rate by using L signal levels
- Nyquist Formula is: **$C = 2B \log_2 L$**
- data rate can be increased by increasing signals
 - however this increases burden on receiver
 - noise & other impairments limit the value of L

1. A noiseless channel has a bandwidth of 4000 Hz and is transmitting a signal with two signal Levels. Calculate the maximum bit rate.

$$\text{Bit Rate} = 2 * \text{Bandwidth} * \log_2 L$$

$$\text{Bit Rate} = 2 * 4000 * \log_2 2$$

$$= 2 * 4000 * 1$$

$$= 8000 \text{ bps}$$

2. A noiseless channel has a bandwidth of 4000 Hz and is transmitting a signal with four signal Levels. Calculate the maximum bit rate.

$$\text{Bit Rate} = 2 * \text{Bandwidth} * \log_2 L$$

$$\text{Bit Rate} = 2 * 4000 * \log_2 4$$

$$= 2 * 4000 * 2$$

$$= 16,000 \text{ bps}$$

3. Consider a noiseless channel with a bandwidth of 20 KHz. We need to send 280 kbps over a channel. How many signal levels are required?

$$\text{Bit Rate} = 2 * \text{Bandwidth} * \log_2 L$$

$$280 = 2 * 20 * \log_2 L$$

$$280/40 = \log_2 L$$

$$7 = \log_2 L$$

$$\log_2 L = 7$$

$$L = 2^7$$

$$L = 128$$

Shannon Capacity Formula

- considering the **relation of data rate, noise and error rate**:
 - faster data rate shortens each bit so bursts of noise corrupts more bits
 - given noise level, higher rates mean higher errors
- Shannon developed formula relating these to signal to noise ratio (in decibels)
- $\text{SNR}_{\text{db}} = 10 \log_{10}(\text{signal/noise})$
- capacity **$C = B \log_2(1+\text{SNR})$**
 - **theoretical** maximum capacity
 - get much lower rates in practice

Shannon Capacity : Noisy Channel

$$\text{Capacity} = \text{Bandwidth} * \log_2(1 + \text{SNR})$$

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

$$\text{SNR}_{\text{dB}} = 10 \log_{10} \text{SNR}$$

1. Consider a **extremely noisy** channel in which signal to noise ratio is almost zero. Calculate the capacity of the channel.

$$\text{Capacity} = \text{Bandwidth} * \log_2(1 + \text{SNR})$$

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

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Capacity} &= B * \log_2(1 + \text{SNR}) \\ &= B * \log_2(1 + 0) \\ &= B * \log_2(1) \\ &= B * 0\end{aligned}$$

2. Calculate the highest bit rate(capacity of a channel) if the bandwidth is 3000Hz and signal to noise ratio(SNR) is 3162.

$$\text{Capacity} = \text{Bandwidth} * \log_2(1 + \text{SNR})$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Capacity} &= B * \log_2(1 + \text{SNR}) \\ &= 3000 * \log_2(1 + 3162) \\ &= 3000 * \log_2(3163) \\ &= 3000 * 11.627 \\ &= 34881 \text{ bps}\end{aligned}$$

3. Assume that $\text{SNR}_{\text{dB}} = 36$ and bandwidth of channel is 2MHz. Calculate channel capacity.

$$\text{SNR}_{\text{dB}} = 10 \log_{10} \text{SNR}$$

$$\text{Capacity} = \text{Bandwidth} * \log_2(1 + \text{SNR})$$

$$\text{SNR}_{\text{dB}} = 10 \log_{10} \text{SNR}$$

$$\text{SNR}_{\text{dB}}/10 = \log_{10} \text{SNR}$$

$$\log_{10} \text{SNR} = \text{SNR}_{\text{dB}}/10$$

$$\text{SNR} = 10^{\text{SNR}_{\text{dB}}/10}$$

$$\text{SNR} = 10^{36/10}$$

$$\text{SNR} = 10^{3.6}$$

$$\text{SNR} = 3981$$

$$\log_a x = y$$

$$x = a^y$$

$$\log_{10} \text{SNR} = \text{SNR}_{\text{dB}}/10$$

$$\text{SNR} = 10^{\text{SNR}_{\text{dB}}/10}$$

$$\text{Capacity} = B * \log_2(1 + \text{SNR})$$

$$= 2 * \log_2(1 + 3981)$$

$$= 2 * \log_2(3982)$$

$$= 2 * 11.959$$

$$= 23.91$$

$$= 24 \text{ Mbps approx.}$$

$$= 24 * 10^6 \text{ bps}$$

Transmission Media

- **Physical path** between transmitter and receiver
- conducted or **guided** media
 - use a conductor such as a wire or a fiber optic cable to move the signal from sender to receiver
- wireless or **unguided** media
 - use radio waves of different frequencies and do not need a wire or cable to transmit signals

Guided Transmission Media

- the transmission **capacity depends** on the **distance** and on whether the **medium** is point-to-point or multipoint
- e.g.
 - twisted pair wires
 - coaxial cables
 - optical fiber

Twisted Pair Wires

- consists of **two insulated copper wires** arranged in a regular spiral pattern to minimize the electromagnetic interference between adjacent pairs (**crosstalk**)
- often used at customer facilities and also over distances to carry voice as well as data communications
- **low frequency** transmission medium



Two varieties

- STP (shielded twisted pair)
 - the pair is wrapped with **metallic foil** or braid to insulate the pair from electromagnetic interference
- UTP (unshielded twisted pair)
 - each wire is insulated with **plastic wrap**, but the pair is encased in an outer covering

Twisted Pair Wires..

- Category 3 UTP
 - data rates of up to **16 Mbps** are achievable
- Category 5 UTP
 - data rates of up to **100 Mbps** are achievable
 - more tightly twisted than Category 3 cables
- Category 7 STP
 - Data rates in excess of **10 Gbps**
 - More expensive, harder to work with

Twisted Pair Adv & Disadv

- Advantages

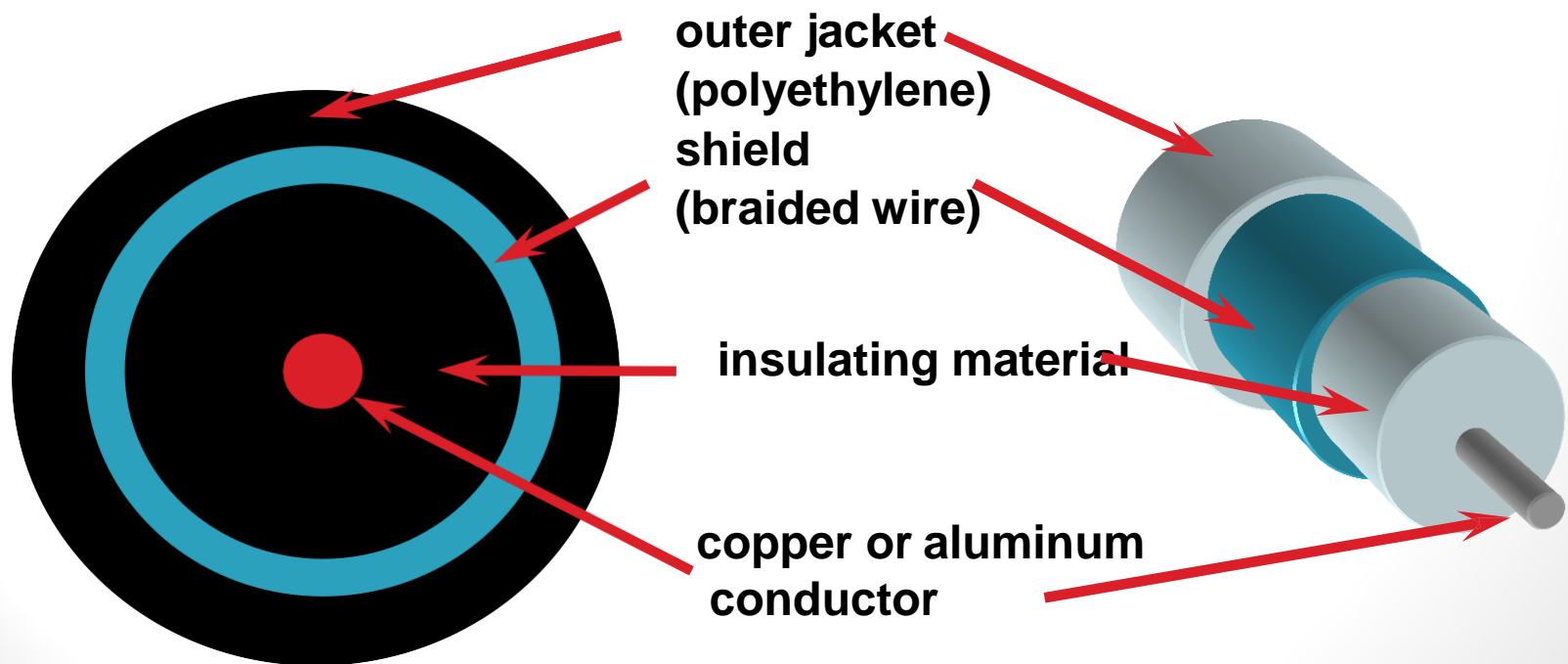
- **inexpensive** and readily available
- flexible, light weight, **easy to install**

- Disadvantages

- susceptibility to **interference** and noise
- **attenuation** problem
 - For analog, repeaters needed every 5-6 km
 - For digital, repeaters needed every 2-3 km
- relatively **low bandwidth** (100 MHz)

Coaxial Cable (or Coax)

- bandwidth of up to **500 MHz**
- has an **inner conductor** surrounded by a **braided mesh**
- both conductors **share a common center axial**, hence the term “**co-axial**”

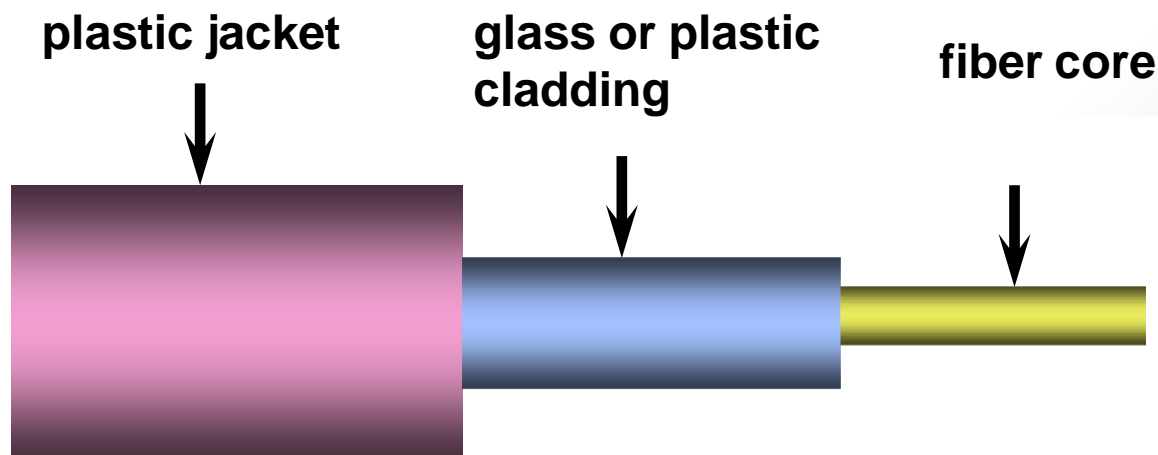


Coax Adv & Disadv

- ✓ higher **bandwidth**
 - ✓ 400 to 600 Mhz
 - ✓ Over 10,000 simultaneous voice conversations
- ✓ can be tapped easily (pros and cons)
- ✓ much **less** susceptible to **interference** than twisted pair
- ✓ Repeaters required every 2-3 km
- x high attenuation rate makes it **expensive over long distance** - more repeaters – especially for digital signaling at higher data rates
- x **bulky**

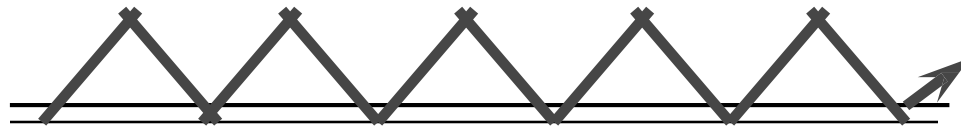
Fiber Optic Cable

- relatively new transmission medium used by **telephone companies** in place of **long-distance trunk lines**
- also used by **private companies** in implementing local data networks
- require a light source with injection **laser** diode (ILD) or light-emitting diodes (**LED**)
- consists of **three** concentric sections

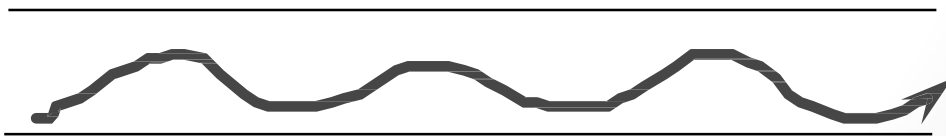


Fiber Optic Types

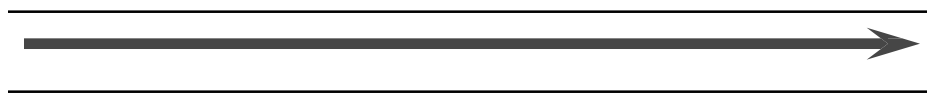
- multimode step-index fiber
 - the **reflective** walls of the fiber move the light pulses to the receiver



- multimode graded-index fiber
 - acts to **refract** the light toward the center of the fiber **by variations in the density**



- single mode fiber
 - the light is guided down the center of an extremely **narrow core**



Fiber Optic Adv & Disadv

- ✓ **greater capacity** (hundreds of Gbps)
 - ✓ **smaller size** and lighter weight
 - ✓ lower attenuation
 - ✓ immunity to environmental interference
 - ✓ Greater repeater spacing – 10s of km
 - ✓ **highly secure** due to tap difficulty and lack of signal radiation
-
- x **expensive** over short distance
 - x requires highly **skilled installers**
 - x adding additional nodes is difficult

Guided Media Comparison

- Point-to-Point Characteristics

Transmission Medium	Rate Mbps	Bandwidth MHz	Repeaters km
Twisted Pair	100	3.5	2-6
Coaxial	500	500	1-10
Optical Fiber	200000	200000	10-50

Wireless Transmission

- Transmission and reception are achieved by means of an **antenna**
- **Directional** (higher frequencies)
 - transmitting antenna puts out **focused beam**
 - transmitter and receiver must be **aligned**
- **Omnidirectional** (lower frequencies)
 - signal spreads out in **all directions**
 - can be received by **many antennas**

Wireless Examples

- terrestrial microwave transmission
- satellite transmission
- broadcast radio
- infrared



Terrestrial Microwave

- uses the radio frequency spectrum, commonly from **2 to 40 Ghz**
- **parabolic dish transmitter**, mounted high as possible
- used by common carriers as well as private networks
- requires unobstructed **line of sight** between source and receiver
- curvature of the earth requires stations (called **repeaters**) to be ~50 km apart

Microwave Applications

- **long-haul telecommunications** service for both voice and television transmission
- **short point-to-point links** between buildings for closed-circuit TV or link between LANs
- **bypass application**
 - e.g. bypass local telephone company to reach long-distance carrier

Microwave Data Rates

Typical Digital Microwave Performance

Band (GHz)	Bandwidth (MHz)	Data Rate (Mbps)
2	7	12
6	30	90
11	40	135
18	220	274

Microwave

- Advantages

- **no cabling** needed between sites
- wide **bandwidth**
- **multichannel** transmissions

- Disadvantages

- **line of sight** requirement
- **expensive** towers and repeaters
- subject to **interference** - e.g. passing airplanes, rain

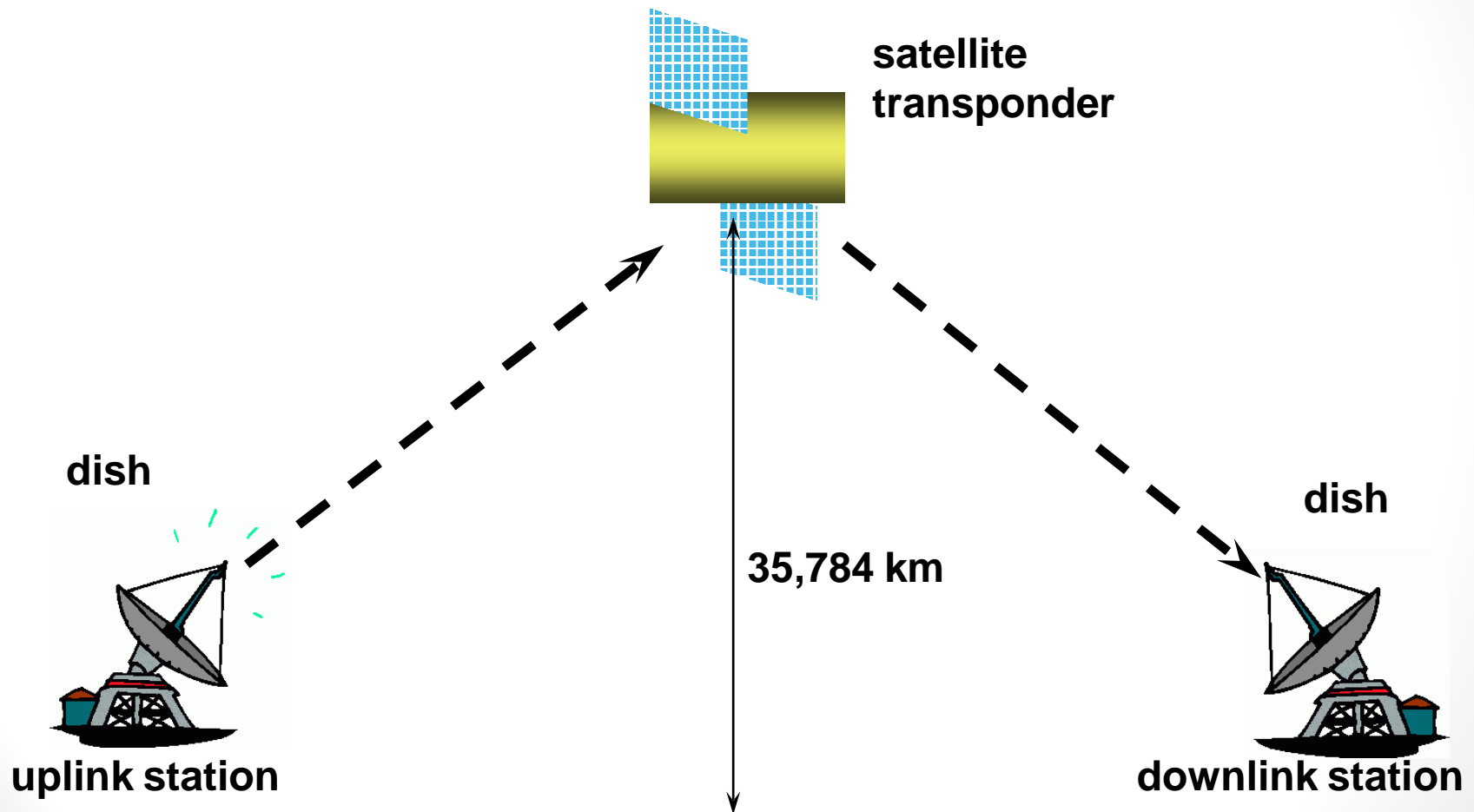
Satellite Transmission

- a microwave **relay station in space**
- can relay signals over **long distances**
- **geostationary** satellites
 - remain above the equator at **height of 35,863 km** (geosynchronous orbit)
 - **travel around the earth** in exactly the time the earth takes to rotate

Satellite Transmission Links

- earth stations communicate by sending signals to the satellite on an **uplink**
- the satellite then repeats those signals on a **downlink**
- the broadcast nature of the downlink makes it attractive for services such as the distribution of **television programming**

Satellite Transmission Process



Satellite Applications

- **television distribution**
 - a network provides programming from a central location
 - direct broadcast satellite (DBS)
- **long-distance telephone transmission**
 - high-usage international trunks
- private business networks
- **global positioning**
 - GPS services

Principal Satellite Bands

- **C band:** 4(downlink) - 6(uplink) GHz
 - the first to be designated
- **Ku band:** 12(downlink) -14(uplink) GHz
 - smaller and cheaper earth stations used
 - rain interference is the major problem
- **Ka band:** 20(downlink) - 30(uplink) GHz
 - even smaller and cheaper receivers
 - Even greater attenuation

Satellite

- Advantages

- can reach a **large** geographical **area**
- **high bandwidth**
- **cheaper** over long distances

- Disadvantages

- **high initial cost**
- susceptible to noise and interference
- **propagation delay** (1/4 second)

Radio

- **Omnidirectional** and easily received
- Broadcast radio
 - 30 MHz to 1 GHz - FM, UHF, VHF television
- Mobile telephony
 - several bands below 1GHz
- Wireless LAN
 - 2.4 GHz range for 11 MB up to 525 ft.

Infrared

- Modulation of incoherent infrared light
- Wavelength 900 nm
- Up to 2 Mbps
- Does not penetrate walls
 - no licensing required