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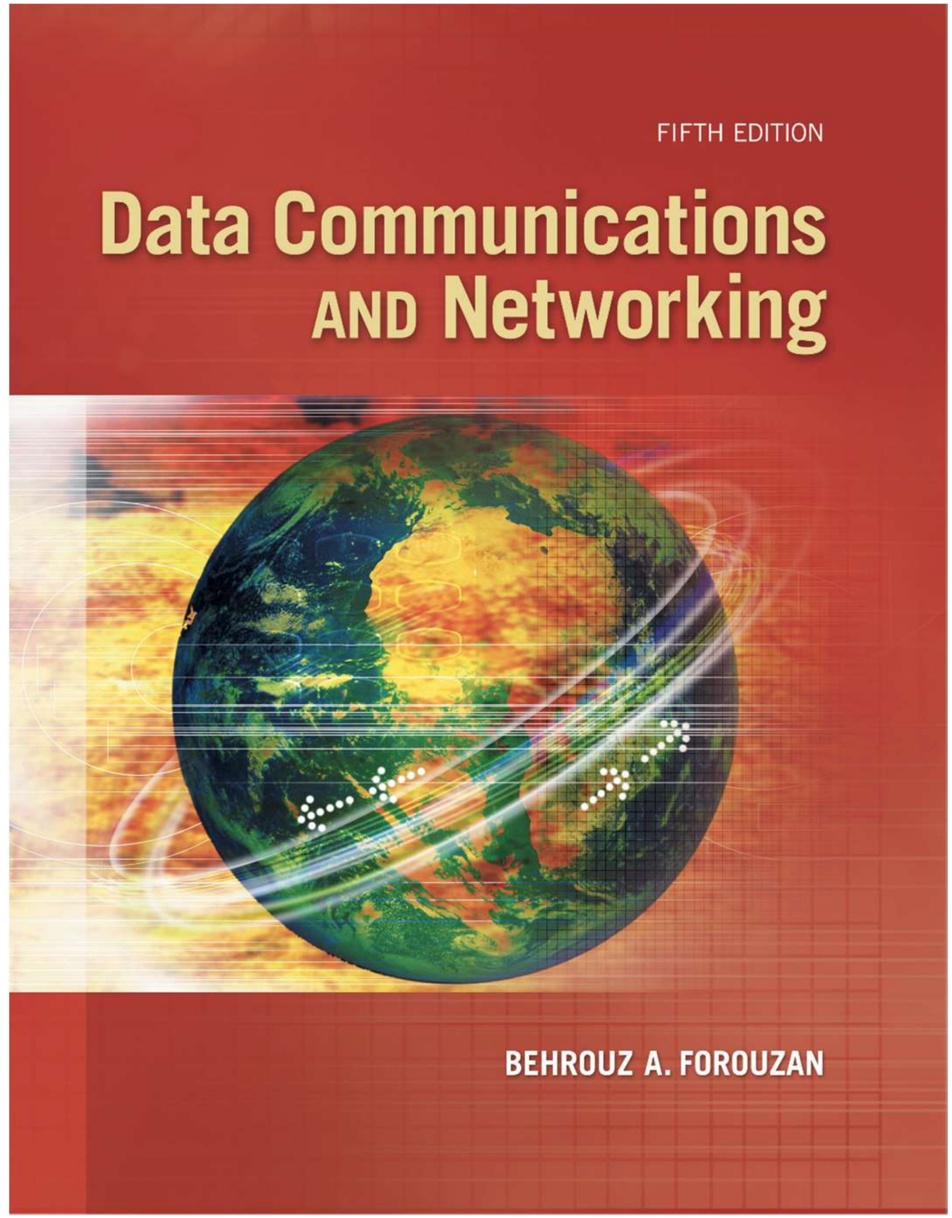
Chapter 3

Introduction To Physical Layer



Chapter 3: Outline

3.1 DATA AND SIGNALS

3.2 PERIODIC ANALOG SIGNALS

3.3 DIGITAL SIGNALS

3.4 TRANSMISSION IMPAIRMENT

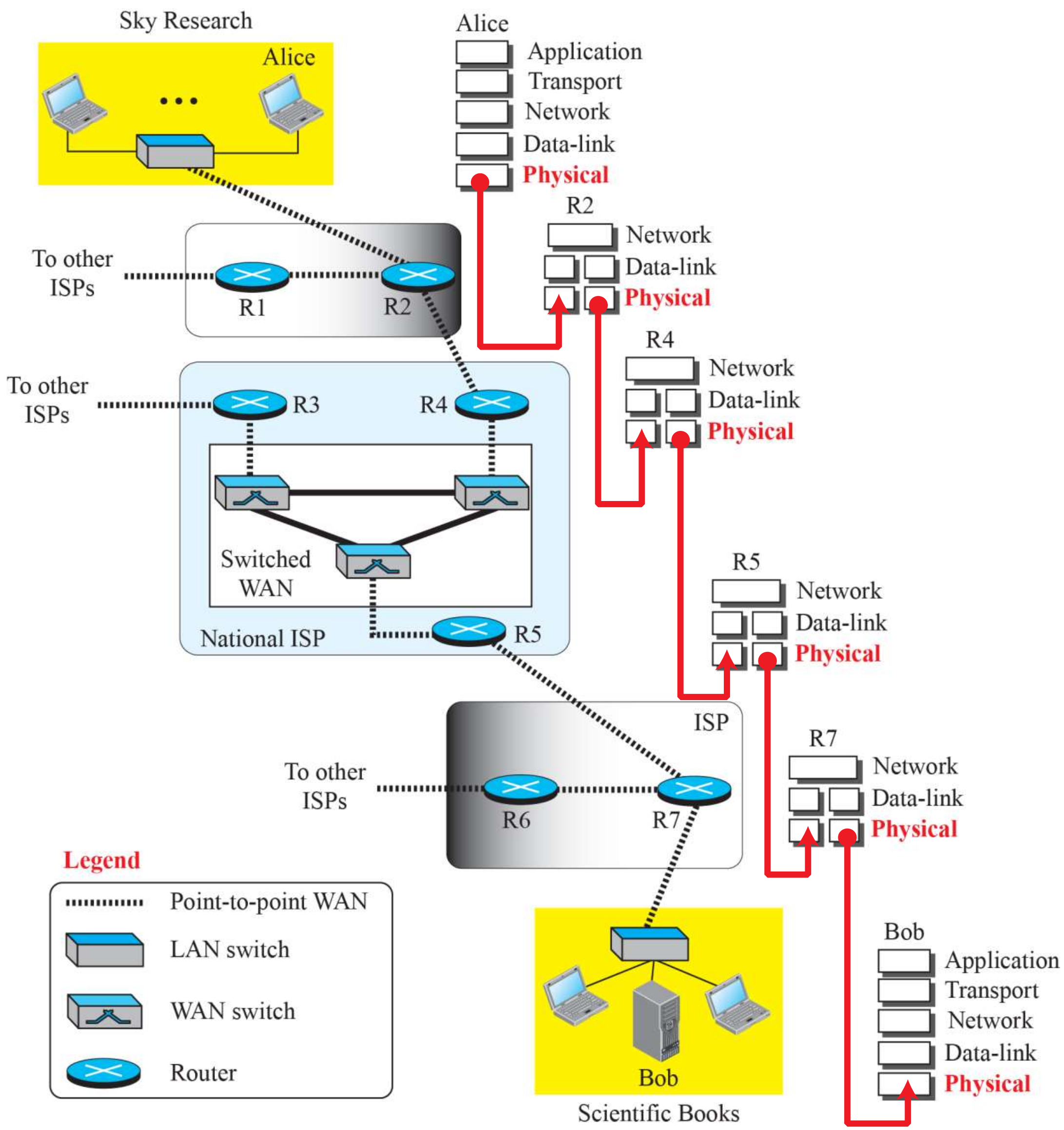
3.5 DATA RATE LIMITS

3.6 PERFORMANCE

3-1 DATA AND SIGNALS

Figure 3.1 shows a scenario in which a scientist working in a research company, Sky Research, needs to order a book related to her research from an online bookseller, Scientific Books.

Figure 3.1: Communication at the physical layer



3.1.1 Analog and Digital Data

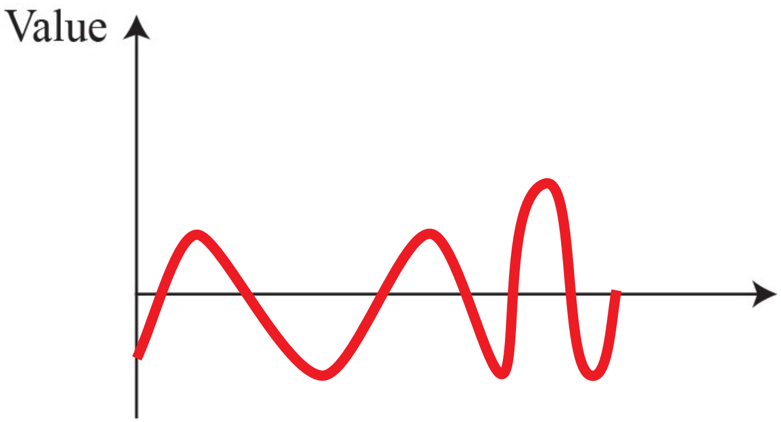
- ***Analog data : Information that is continuous***
  - ***Example: an analog clock that has hour, minute, and second hands gives information in a continuous form. The movements of the hands are continuous.***
- ***Digital data: Information that has discrete states.***
  - ***Example: a digital clock that reports the hours and the minutes will change suddenly from 8:05 to 8:06.***

3.1.2 Analog and Digital Signals

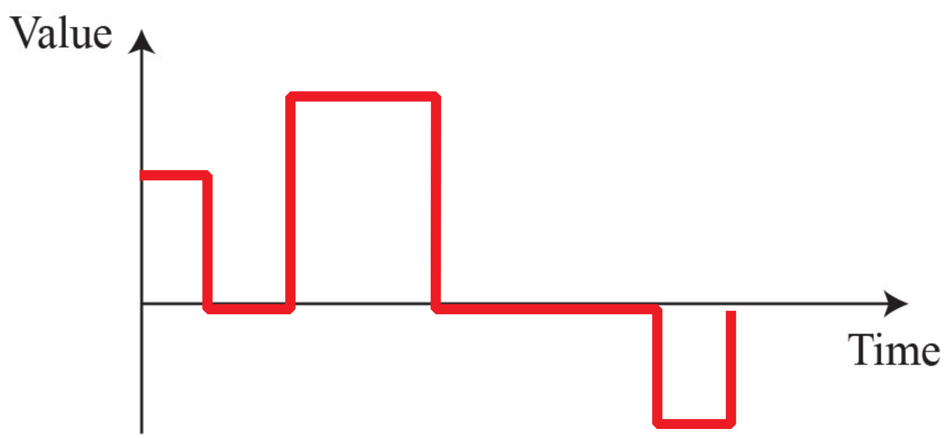
Like the data they represent, signals can be either analog or digital.
An analog signal has infinitely many levels of intensity over a period of time. As the wave moves from value A to value B, it passes through and includes an infinite number of values along its path.

A digital signal, on the other hand, can have only a limited number of defined values. Although each value can be any number, it is often as simple as 1 and 0.

Figure 3.2: Comparison of analog and digital signals



a. Analog signal



b. Digital signal

3.1.3 Periodic and Nonperiodic

A periodic signal completes a pattern within a measurable time frame, called a period, and repeats that pattern over subsequent identical periods. The completion of one full pattern is called a cycle.

A nonperiodic signal changes without exhibiting a pattern or cycle that repeats over time.

3-2 PERIODIC ANALOG SIGNALS

Periodic analog signals can be classified as simple or composite. A simple periodic analog signal, a sine wave, cannot be decomposed into simpler signals. A composite periodic analog signal is composed of multiple sine waves.

3.2.1 Sine Wave

The sine wave is the most fundamental form of a periodic analog signal. When we visualize it as a simple oscillating curve, its change over the course of a cycle is smooth and consistent, a continuous, rolling flow. Figure 3.3 shows a sine wave. Each cycle consists of a single arc above the time axis followed by a single arc below it.

Figure 3.3: A sine wave

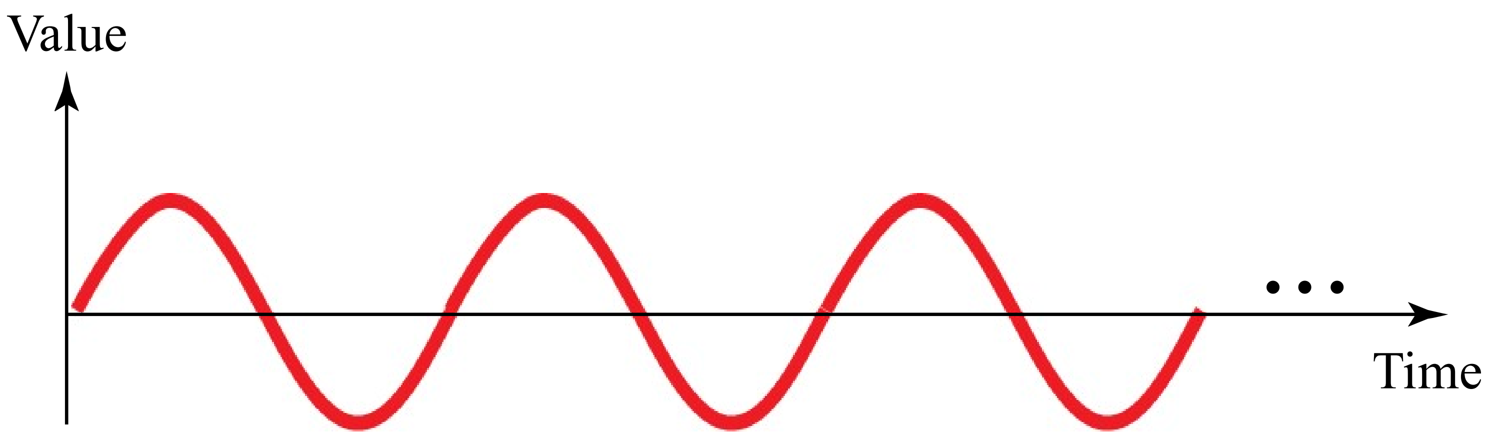
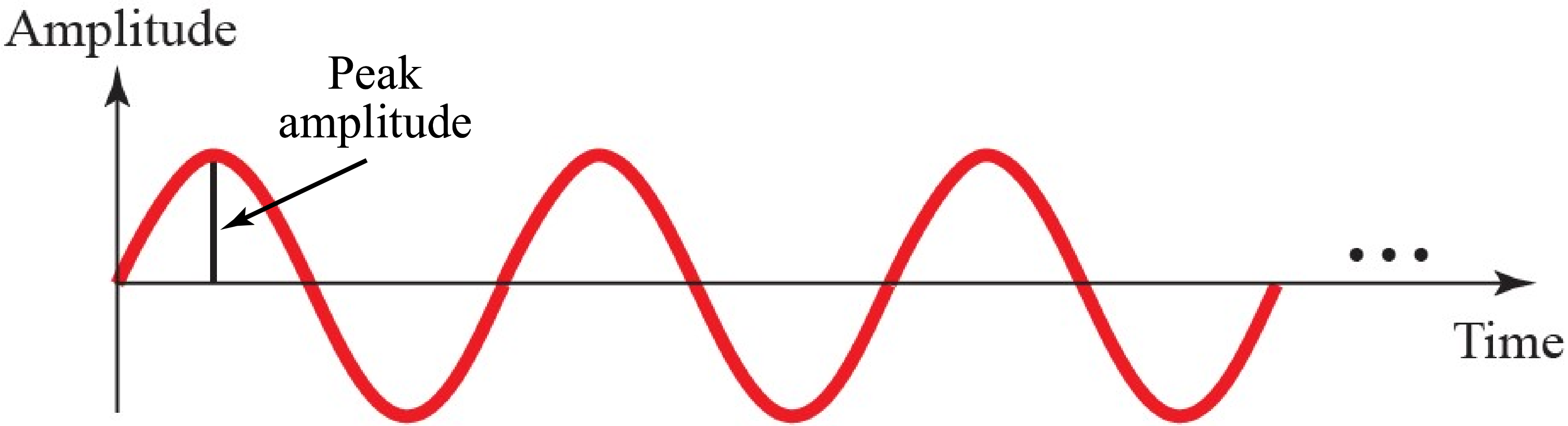
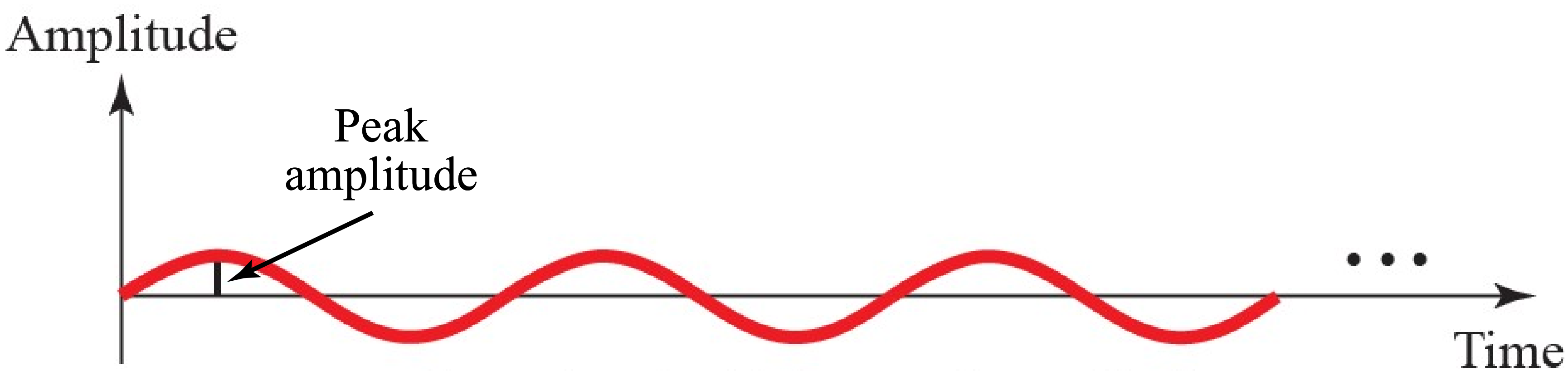


Figure 3.4: ***Two signals with two different amplitudes***

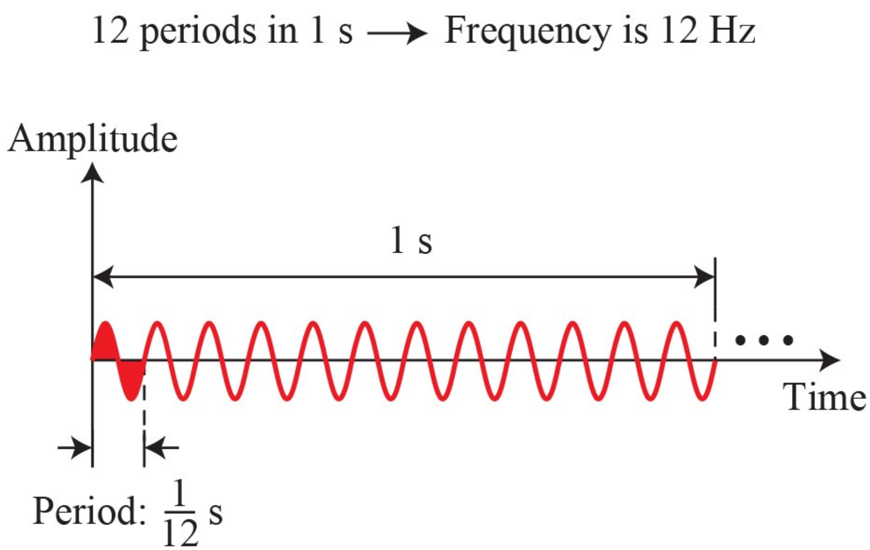


a. A signal with high peak amplitude

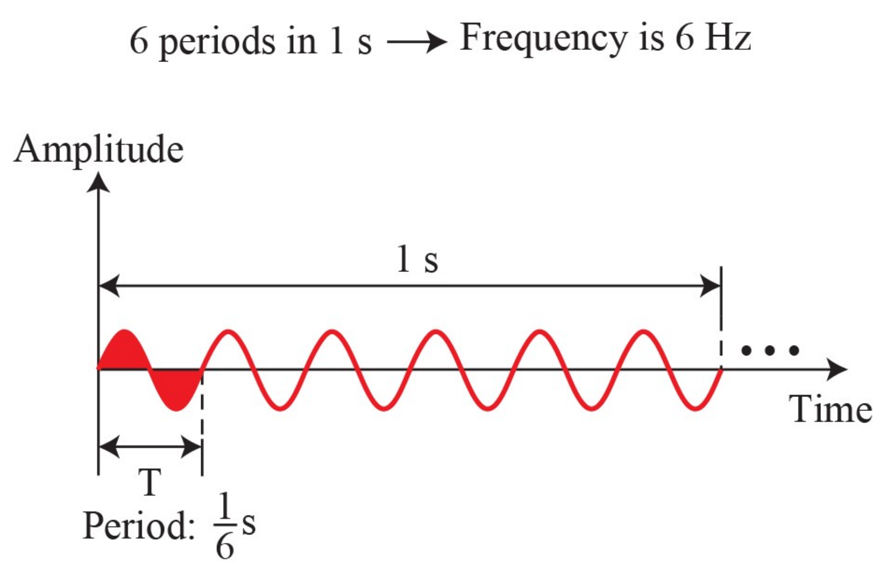


b. A signal with low peak amplitude

Figure 3.5: Two signals with the same phase and amplitude, but different frequencies



a. A signal with a frequency of 12 Hz



b. A signal with a frequency of 6 Hz

Table 3.1: Units of period and frequency

Period		*Frequency*	
Unit	*Equivalent*	*Unit*	*Equivalent*
Seconds (s)	1 s	Hertz (Hz)	1 Hz
Milliseconds (ms)	10^{-3} s	Kilohertz (kHz)	10^{3} Hz
Microseconds (μs)	10^{-6} s	Megahertz (MHz)	10^{6} Hz
Nanoseconds (ns)	10^{-9} s	Gigahertz (GHz)	10^{9} Hz
Picoseconds (ps)	10^{-12} s	Terahertz (THz)	10^{12} Hz

Example 3.1

Express a period of 100 ms in microseconds.

Solution

From Table 3.1 we find the equivalents of 1 ms (1 ms is 10^{-3} s) and 1 s (1 s is 10^{6} μs). We make the following substitutions:

$$100 \text{ ms} = 100 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s} = 100 \times 10^{-3} \times 10^{6} \ \mu\text{s} = 10^{2} \times 10^{-3} \times 10^{6} \ \mu\text{s} = 10^{5} \ \mu\text{s}$$

Example 3.2

The power we use at home has a frequency of 60 Hz (50 Hz in Europe). The period of this sine wave can be determined as follows:

$$T = \frac{1}{f} = \frac{1}{60} = 0.0166 \text{ s} = 0.0166 \times 10^3 \text{ ms} = 16.6 \text{ ms}$$

This means that the period of the power for our lights at home is 0.0116 s, or 16.6 ms. Our eyes are not sensitive enough to distinguish these rapid changes in amplitude.

Example 3.3

The period of a signal is 100 ms. What is its frequency in kilohertz?.

Solution

First we change 100 ms to seconds, and then we calculate the frequency from the period (1 Hz = 10^{-3} kHz).

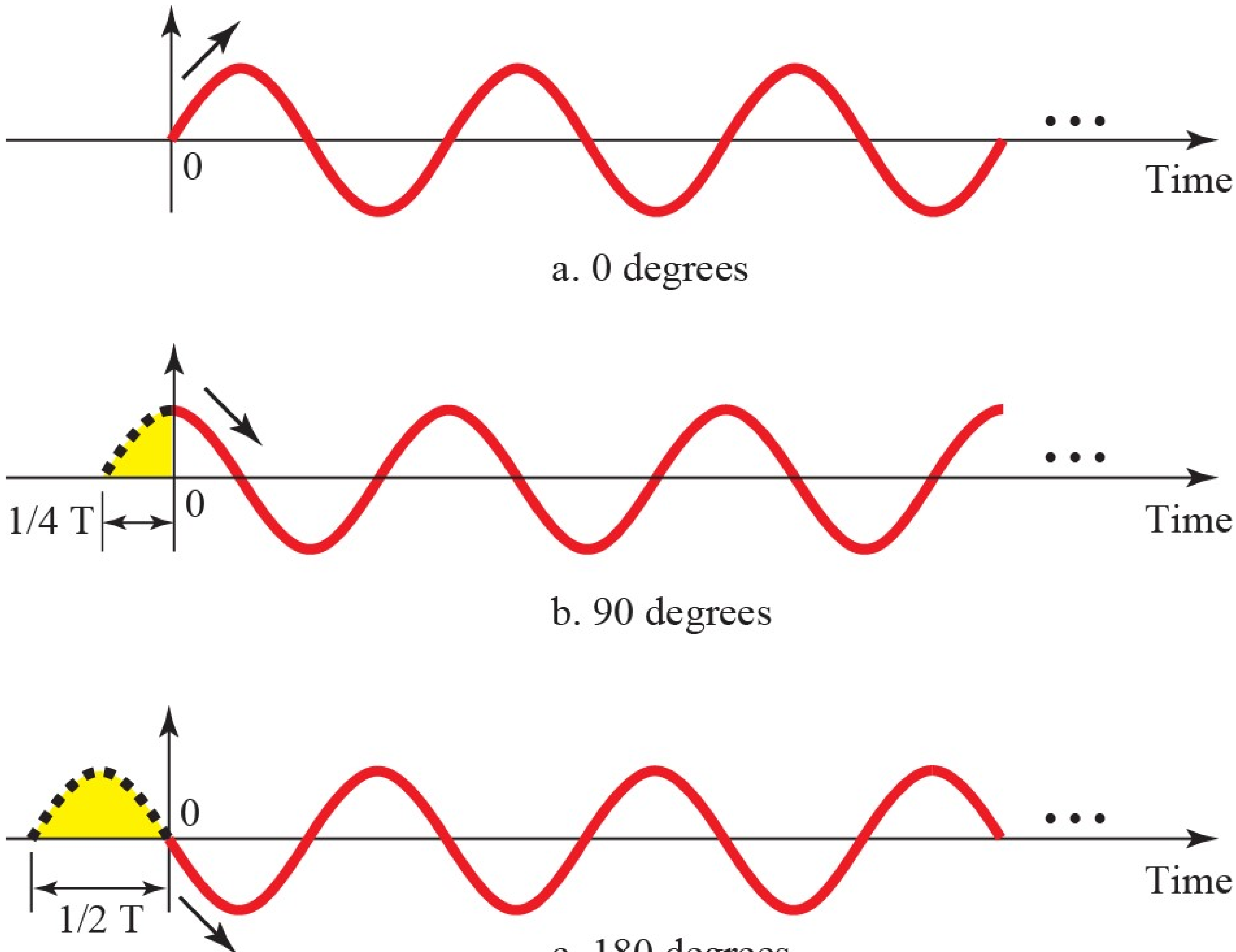
$$100 \text{ ms} = 100 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s} = 10^{-1} \text{ s}$$

$$f = \frac{1}{T} = \frac{1}{10^{-1}} \text{Hz} = 10 \text{ Hz} = 10 \times 10^{-3} \text{ kHz} = 10^{-2} \text{ kHz}$$

3.2.2 Phase

The term phase, or phase shift, describes the position of the waveform relative to time 0. If we think of the wave as something that can be shifted backward or forward along the time axis, phase describes the amount of that shift. It indicates the status of the first cycle.

Figure 3.6:* *Three sine waves with different phases



Example 3.6

A sine wave is offset 1/6 cycle with respect to time 0. What is its phase in degrees and radians?

Solution

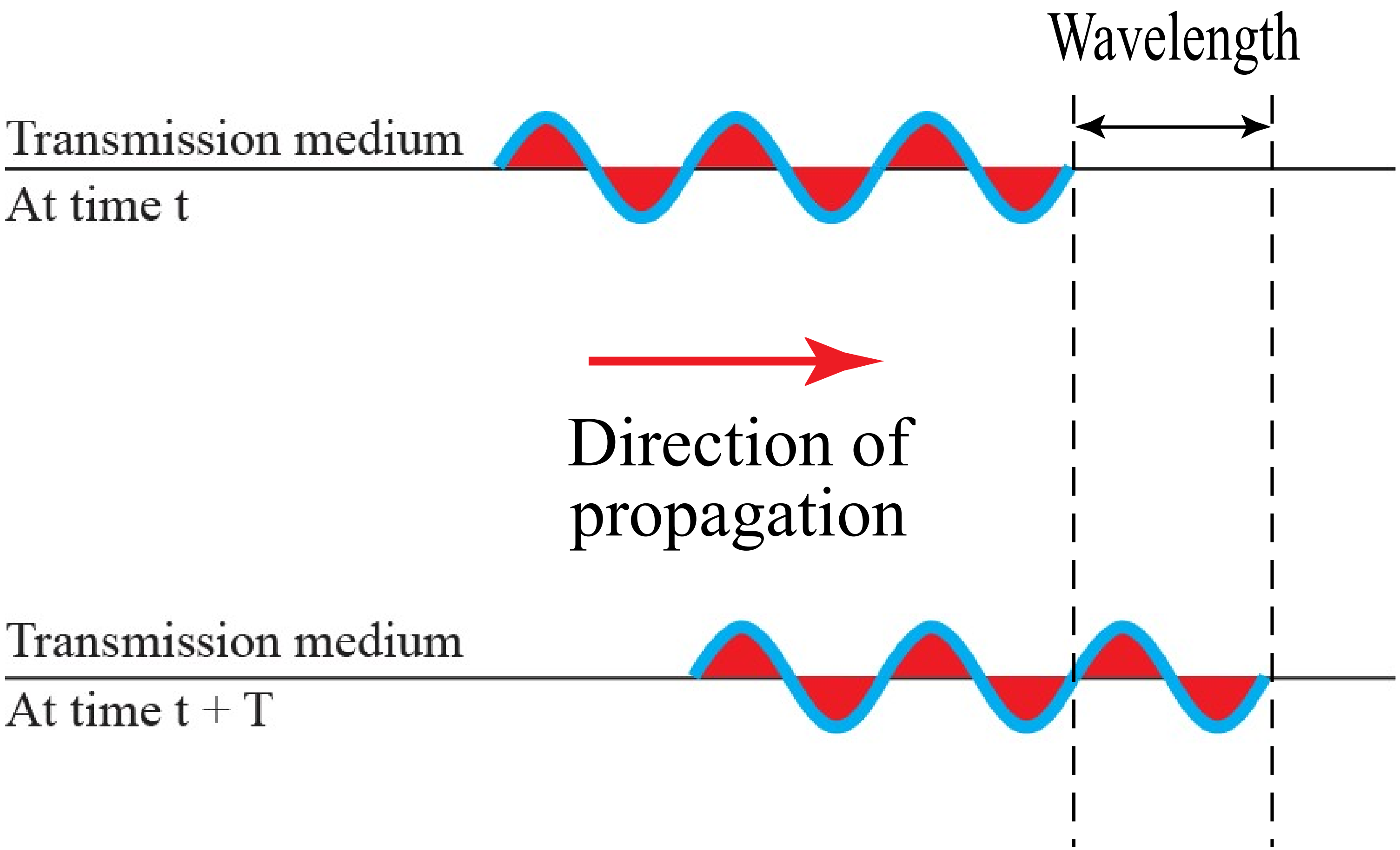
We know that 1 complete cycle is 360°. Therefore, 1/6 cycle is

$$\frac{1}{6} \times 360 = 60^\circ = 60 \times \frac{2\pi}{360}\ \text{rad} = \frac{\pi}{3}\ \text{rad} = 1.046\ \text{rad}$$

3.2.3 Wavelength

Wavelength is another characteristic of a signal traveling through a transmission medium. Wavelength binds the period or the frequency of a simple sine wave to the propagation speed of the medium (see Figure 3.7).

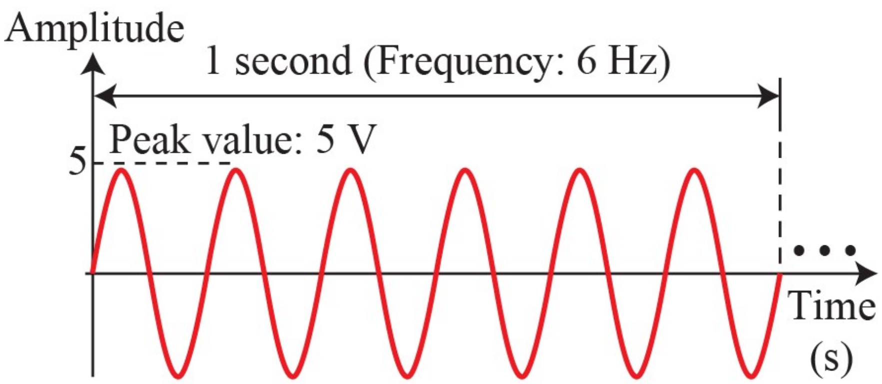
Figure 3.7: Wavelength and period



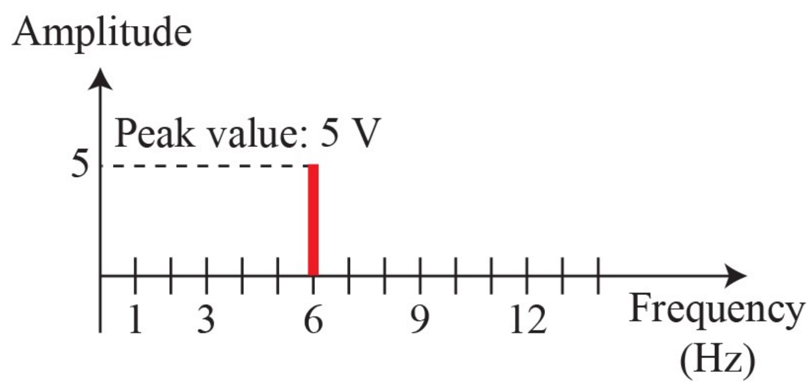
3.2.4 Time and Frequency Domains

A sine wave is comprehensively defined by its amplitude, frequency, and phase. We have been showing a sine wave by using what is called a time domain plot. The time-domain plot shows changes in signal amplitude with respect to time (it is an amplitude-versus-time plot). Phase is not explicitly shown on a time-domain plot.

Figure 3.8: The time-domain and frequency-domain plots of a sine wave



a. A sine wave in the time domain

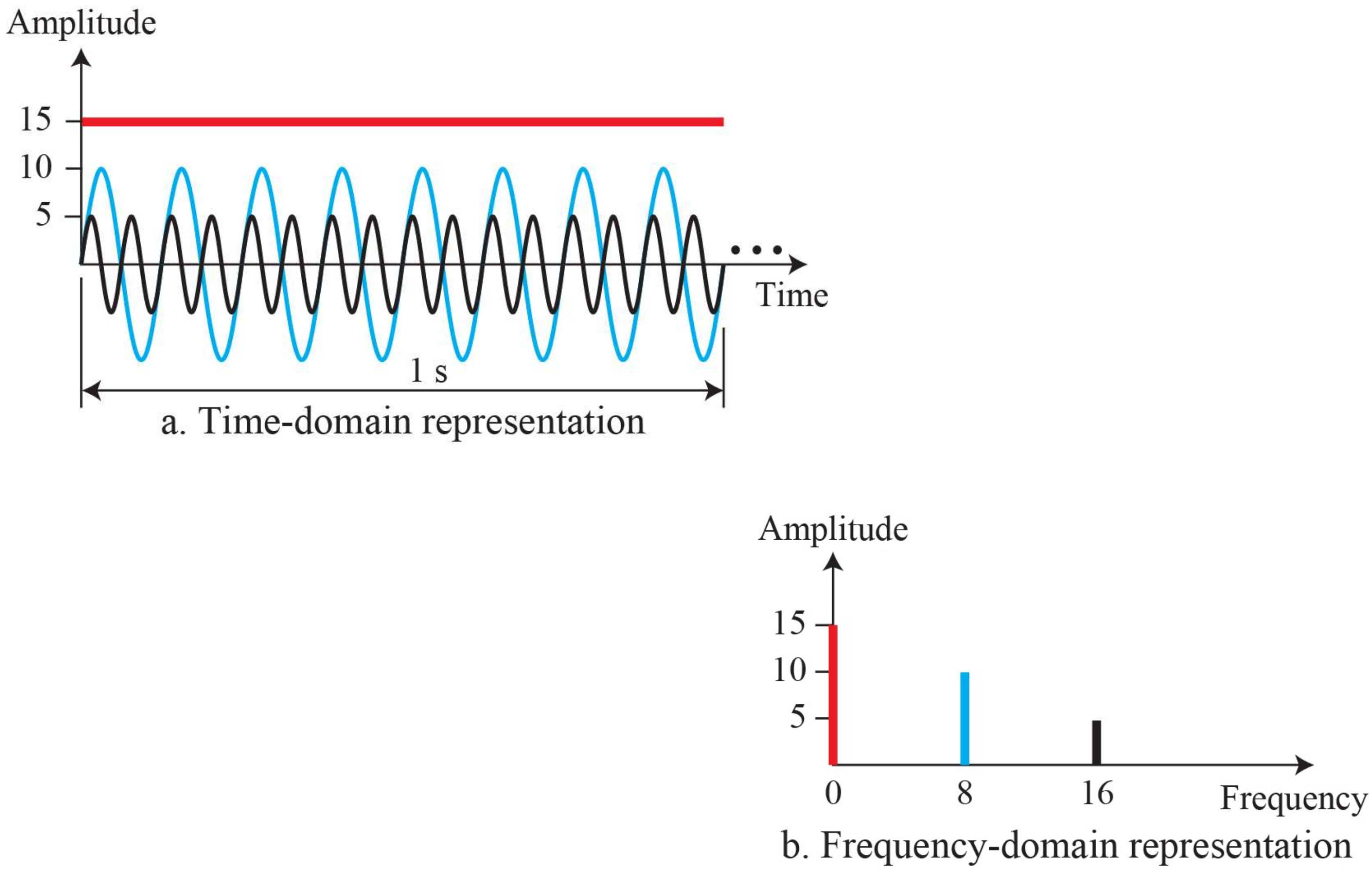


b. The same sine wave in the frequency domain

Example 3.7

The frequency domain is more compact and useful when we are dealing with more than one sine wave. For example, Figure 3.9 shows three sine waves, each with different amplitude and frequency. All can be represented by three spikes in the frequency domain.

Figure 3.9: The time domain and frequency domain of three sine waves



3.2.5 Composite Signals

So far, we have focused on simple sine waves. Simple sine waves have many applications in daily life. We can send a single sine wave to carry electric energy from one place to another. For example, the power company sends a single sine wave with a frequency of 60 Hz to distribute electric energy to houses and businesses. As another example, we can use a single sine wave to send an alarm to a security center when a burglar opens a door or window in the house. In the first case, the sine wave is carrying energy; in the second, the sine wave is a signal of danger.

Example 3.8

Figure 3.10 shows a periodic composite signal with frequency f. This type of signal is not typical of those found in data communications. We can consider it to be three alarm systems, each with a different frequency. The analysis of this signal can give us a good understanding of how to decompose signals. It is very difficult to manually decompose this signal into a series of simple sine waves. However, there are tools, both hardware and software, that can help us do the job. We are not concerned about how it is done; we are only interested in the result. Figure 3.11 shows the result of decomposing the above signal in both the time and frequency domains.

Figure 3.10: A composite periodic signal

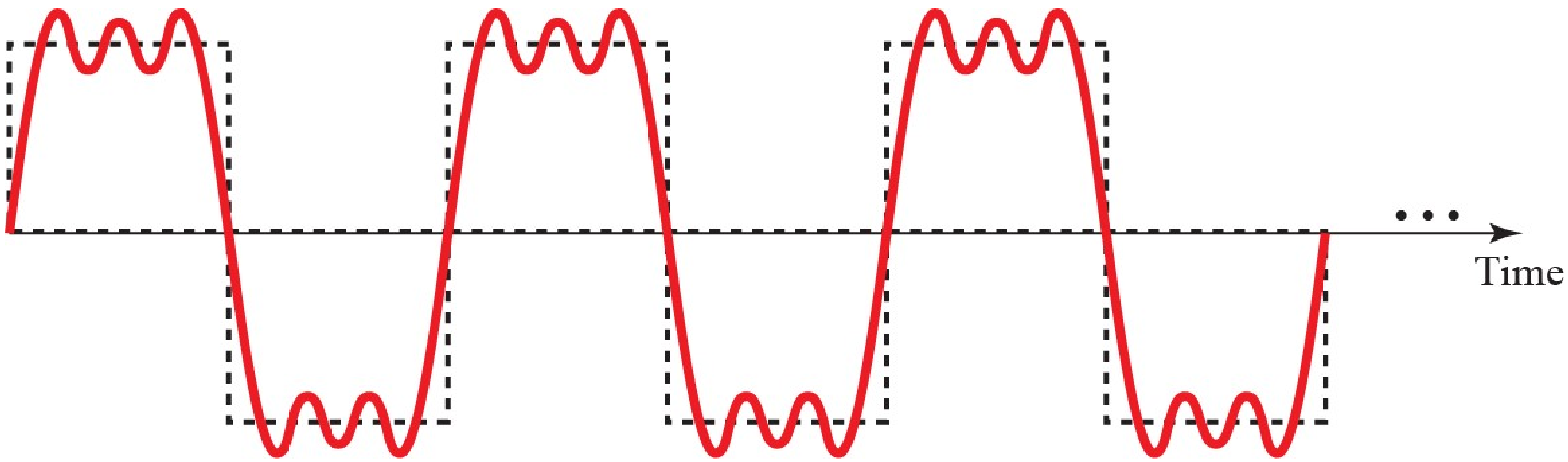
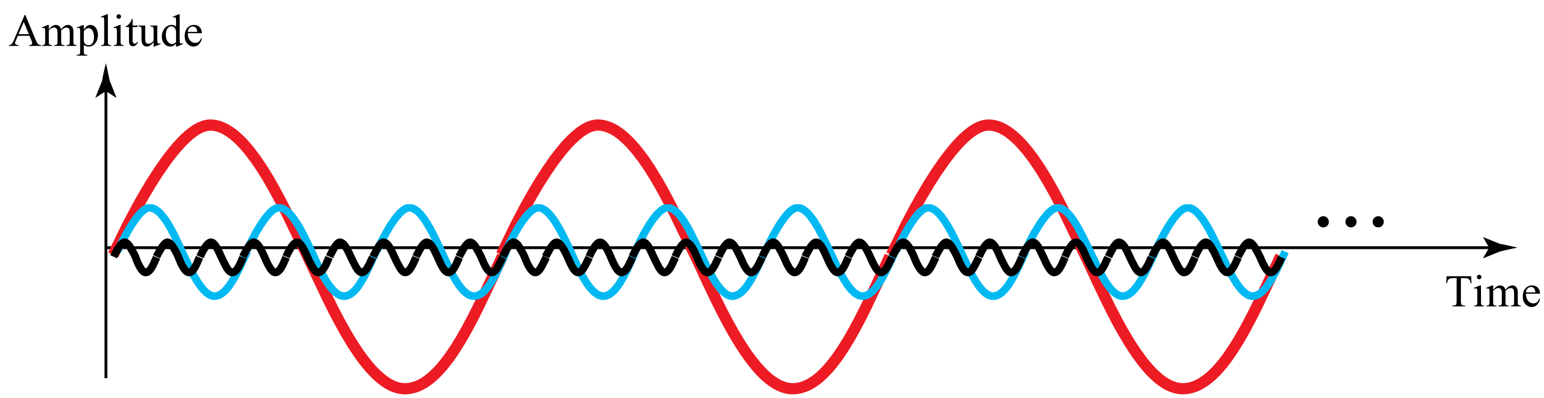
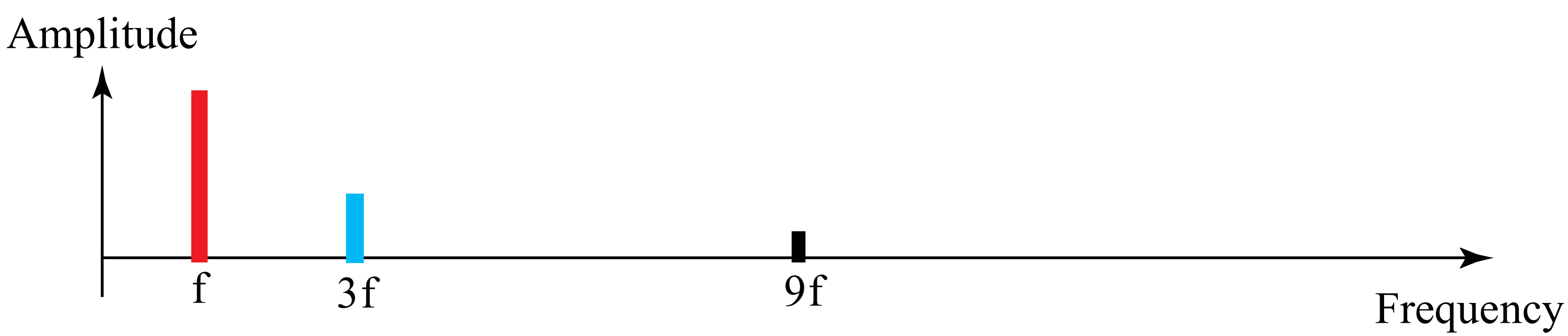


Figure 3.11: Decomposition of a composite periodic signal





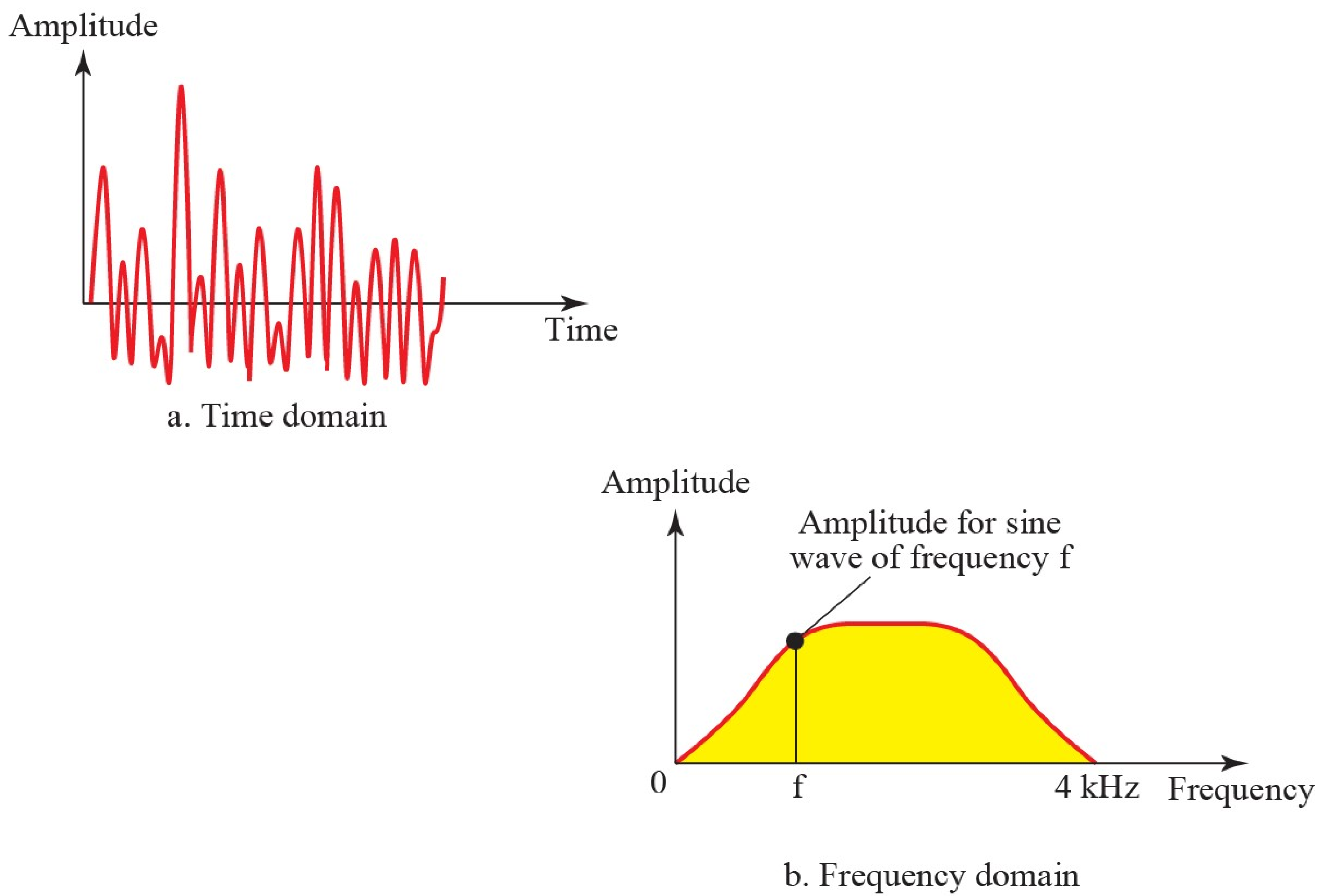
b. Frequency-domain decomposition of the composite signal

https://github.com/nussl/nussl

Example 3.9

Figure 3.12 shows a nonperiodic composite signal. It can be the signal created by a microphone or a telephone set when a word or two is pronounced. In this case, the composite signal cannot be periodic, because that implies that we are repeating the same word or words with exactly the same tone.

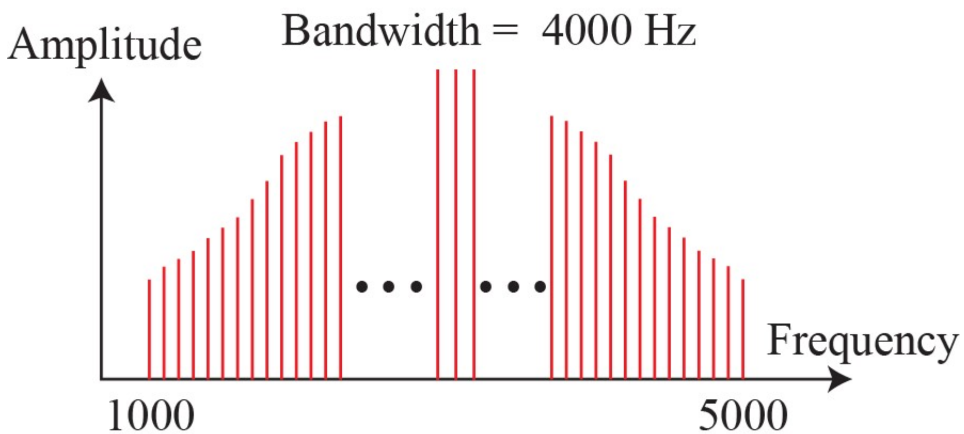
Figure 3.12: Time and frequency domain of a non-periodic signal



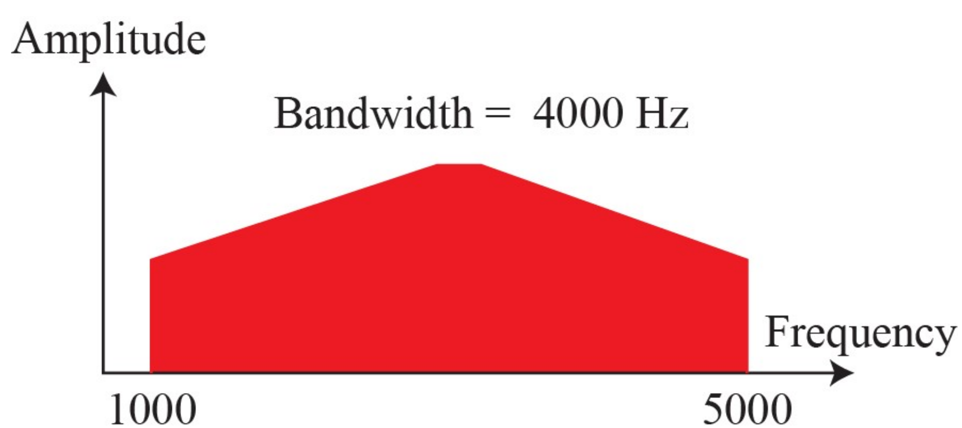
3.2.6 Bandwidth

The range of frequencies contained in a composite signal is its bandwidth. The bandwidth is normally a difference between two numbers. For example, if a composite signal contains frequencies between 1000 and 5000, its bandwidth is 5000 − 1000, or 4000.

Figure 3.13: The bandwidth of periodic and nonperiodic composite signals



a. Bandwidth of a periodic signal



b. Bandwidth of a nonperiodic signal

Example 3.10

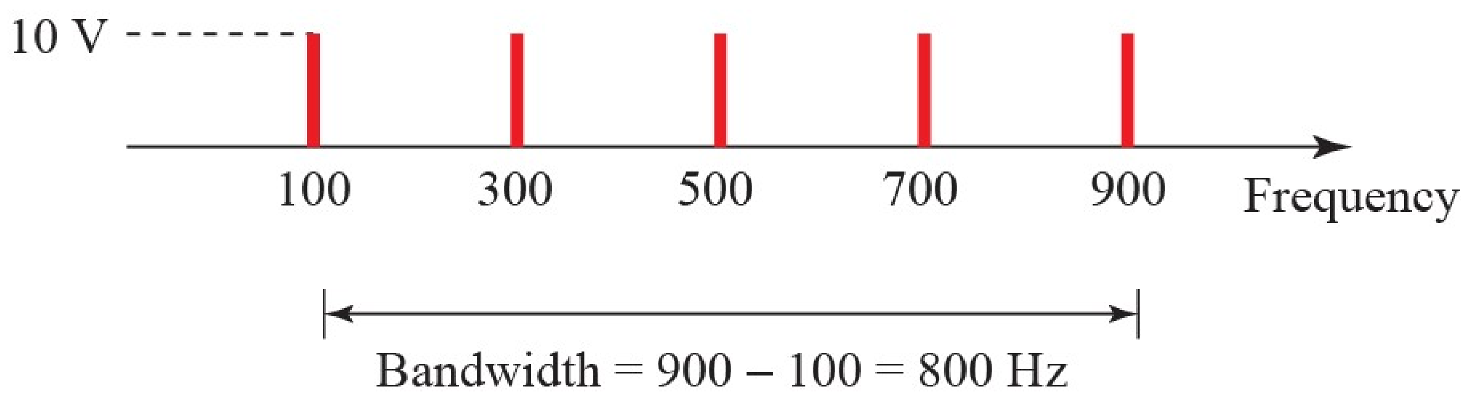
If a periodic signal is decomposed into five sine waves with frequencies of 100, 300, 500, 700, and 900 Hz, what is its bandwidth? Draw the spectrum, assuming all components have a maximum amplitude of 10 V.

Solution

Let f_h be the highest frequency, f_l the lowest frequency, and B the bandwidth. Then

$$B = f_h - f_l = 900 - 100 = 800 \text{ Hz}$$

***Figure 3.14:** The bandwidth for example 3.10*



Example 3.11

A periodic signal has a bandwidth of 20 Hz. The highest frequency is 60 Hz. What is the lowest frequency? Draw the spectrum if the signal contains all frequencies of the same amplitude.

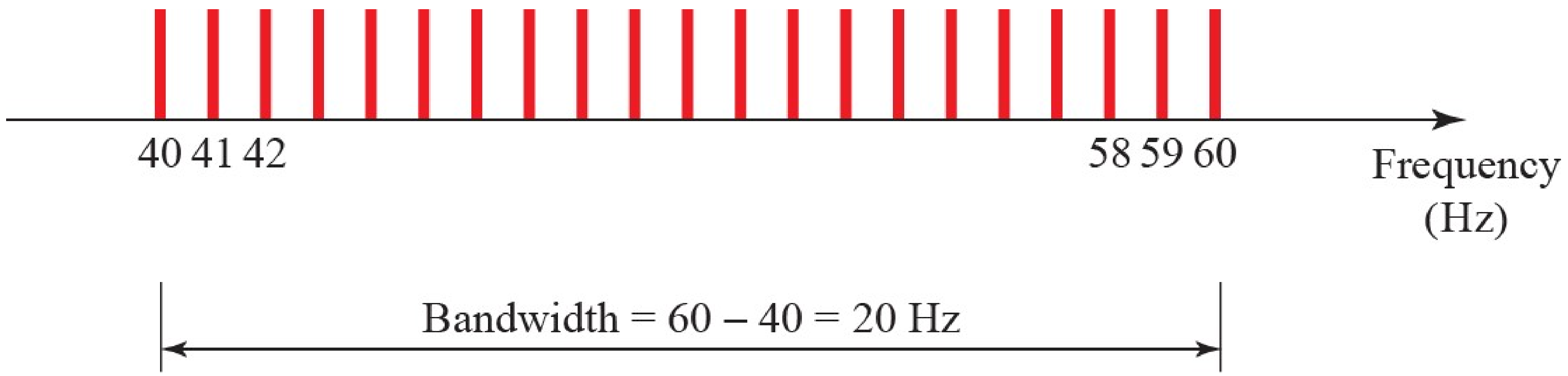
Solution

Let f_h be the highest frequency, f_l the lowest frequency, and B the bandwidth. Then

$$B = f_h - f_l \longrightarrow 20 = 60 - f_l \longrightarrow f_l = 60 - 20 = 40 \text{ Hz}$$

The spectrum contains all integer frequencies. We show this by a series of spikes (see Figure 3.15).

Figure 3.15: ***The bandwidth for example 3.11***



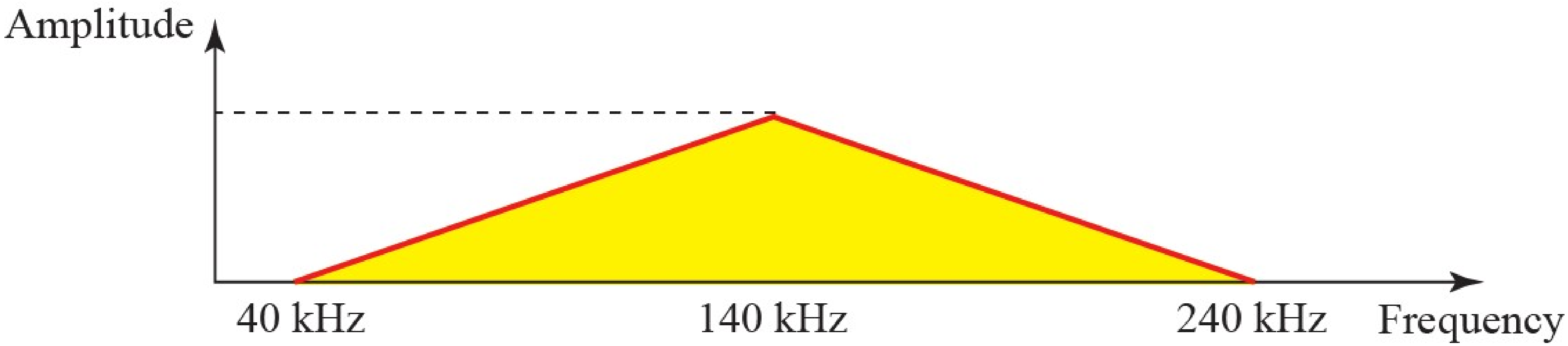
Example 3.12

A nonperiodic composite signal has a bandwidth of 200 kHz, with a middle frequency of 140 kHz and peak amplitude of 20 V. The two extreme frequencies have an amplitude of 0. Draw the frequency domain of the signal.

Solution

The lowest frequency must be at 40 kHz and the highest at 240 kHz. Figure 3.16 shows the frequency domain and the bandwidth.

***Figure 3.16:** The bandwidth for example 3.12*



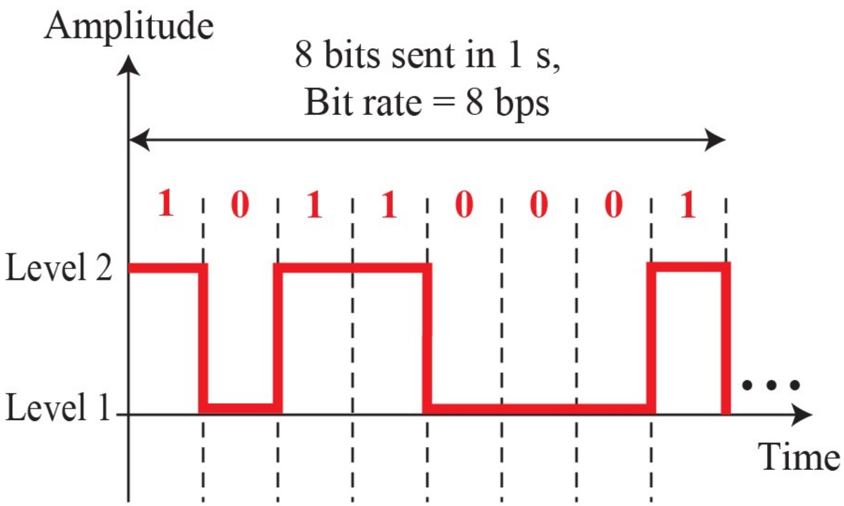
Example 3.15

Another example of a nonperiodic composite signal is the signal received by an old-fashioned analog black-and-white TV. A TV screen is made up of pixels (picture elements) with each pixel being either white or black. The screen is scanned 30 times per second. If we assume a resolution of 525 × 700 (525 vertical lines and 700 horizontal lines), which is a ratio of 3:4, we have 367,500 pixels per screen. If we scan the screen 30 times per second, this is 367,500 × 30 = 11,025,000 pixels per second. The worst-case scenario is alternating black and white pixels. In this case, we need to represent one color by the minimum amplitude and the other color by the maximum amplitude. We can send 2 pixels per cycle. Therefore, we need 11,025,000 / 2 = 5,512,500 cycles per second, or Hz. The bandwidth needed is 5.5125 MHz.

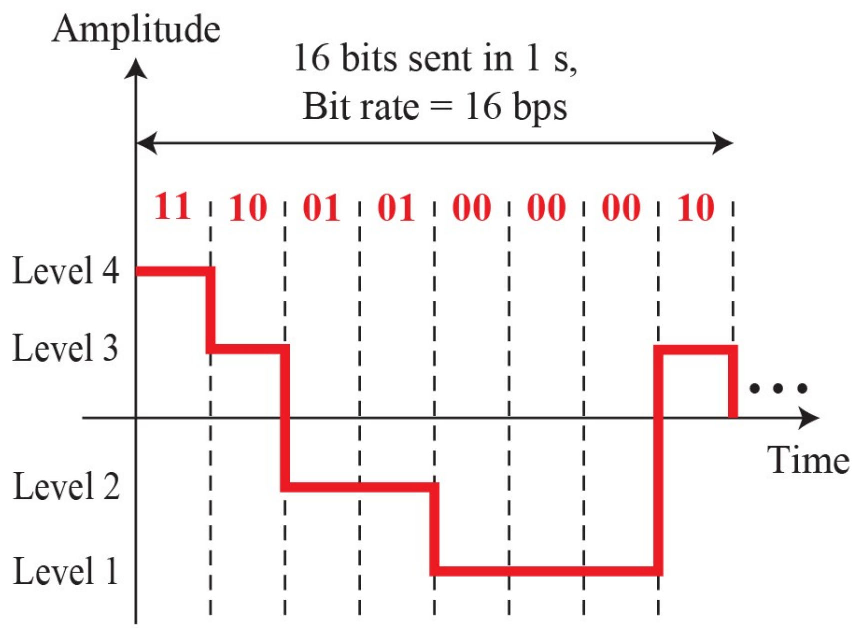
3-3 DIGITAL SIGNALS

In addition to being represented by an analog signal, information can also be represented by a digital signal. For example, a 1 can be encoded as a positive voltage and a 0 as zero voltage. A digital signal can have more than two levels. In this case, we can send more than 1 bit for each level. Figure 3.17 shows two signals, one with two levels and the other with four.

Figure 3.17: Two digital signals: one with two signal levels and the other with four signal levels



a. A digital signal with two levels



b. A digital signal with four levels

Example 3.16

A digital signal has eight levels. How many bits are needed per level? We calculate the number of bits from the following formula. Each signal level is represented by 3 bits.

$$\textbf{Number of bits per level} = \log_2 8 = 3$$

Example 3.17

A digital signal has nine levels. How many bits are needed per level? We calculate the number of bits by using the formula. Each signal level is represented by 3.17 bits. However, this answer is not realistic. The number of bits sent per level needs to be an integer as well as a power of 2. For this example, 4 bits can represent one level.

3.3.1 Bit Rate

Most digital signals are nonperiodic, and thus period and frequency are not appropriate characteristics. Another term—bit rate (instead of frequency)—is used to describe digital signals. The bit rate is the number of bits sent in 1s, expressed in bits per second (bps). Figure 3.17 shows the bit rate for two signals.

Example 3.18

Assume we need to download text documents at the rate of 100 pages per second. What is the required bit rate of the channel?

Solution

From Table 3.1 we find the equivalents of 1 ms (1 ms is 10–3 s) and 1 s (1 s is 106 μs). We make the following substitutions:

$$100 \times 24 \times 80 \times 8 = 1{,}536{,}000 \text{ bps} = 1.536 \text{ Mbps}$$

Example 3.19

A digitized voice channel, as we will see in Chapter 4, is made by digitizing a 4-kHz bandwidth analog voice signal. We need to sample the signal at twice the highest frequency (two samples per hertz). We assume that each sample requires 8 bits. What is the required bit rate?

Solution

A page is an average of 24 lines with 80 characters in each line. If we assume that one character requires 8 bits, the bit rate is

$$2 \times 4000 \times 8 = 64{,}000 \text{ bps} = 64 \text{ kbps}$$

Example 3.20

What is the bit rate for high-definition TV (HDTV)?

Solution

HDTV uses digital signals to broadcast high quality video signals. The HDTV screen is normally a ratio of 16 : 9 (in contrast to 4 : 3 for regular TV), which means the screen is wider. There are 1920 by 1080 pixels per screen, and the screen is renewed 30 times per second. Twenty-four bits represents one color pixel. We can calculate the bit rate as

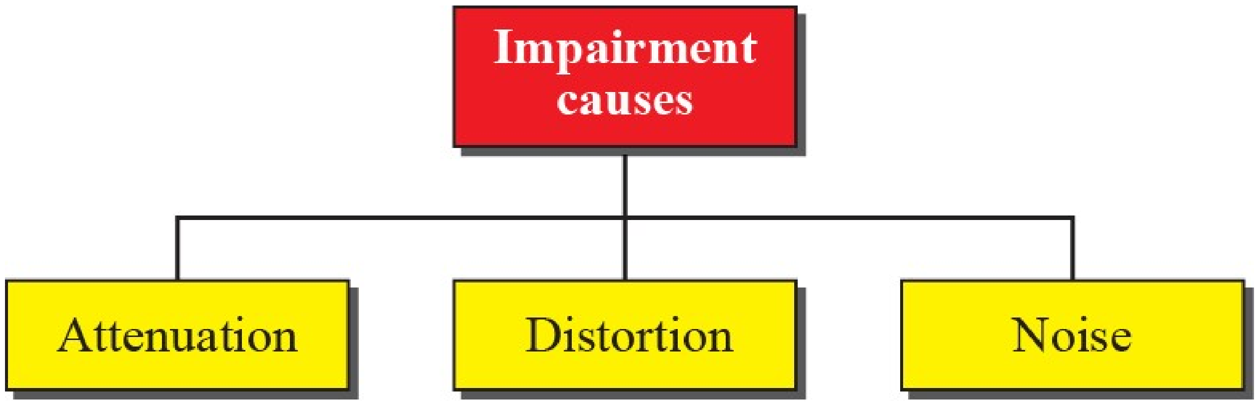
$$1920 \times 1080 \times 30 \times 24 = 1{,}492{,}992{,}000 \approx 1.5 \text{ Gbps}$$

The TV stations reduce this rate to 20 to 40 Mbps through compression.

3-4 TRANSMISSION IMPAIRMENT

Signals travel through transmission media, which are not perfect. The imperfection causes signal impairment. This means that the signal at the beginning of the medium is not the same as the signal at the end of the medium. What is sent is not what is received. Three causes of impairment are attenuation, distortion, and noise (see Figure 3.26).

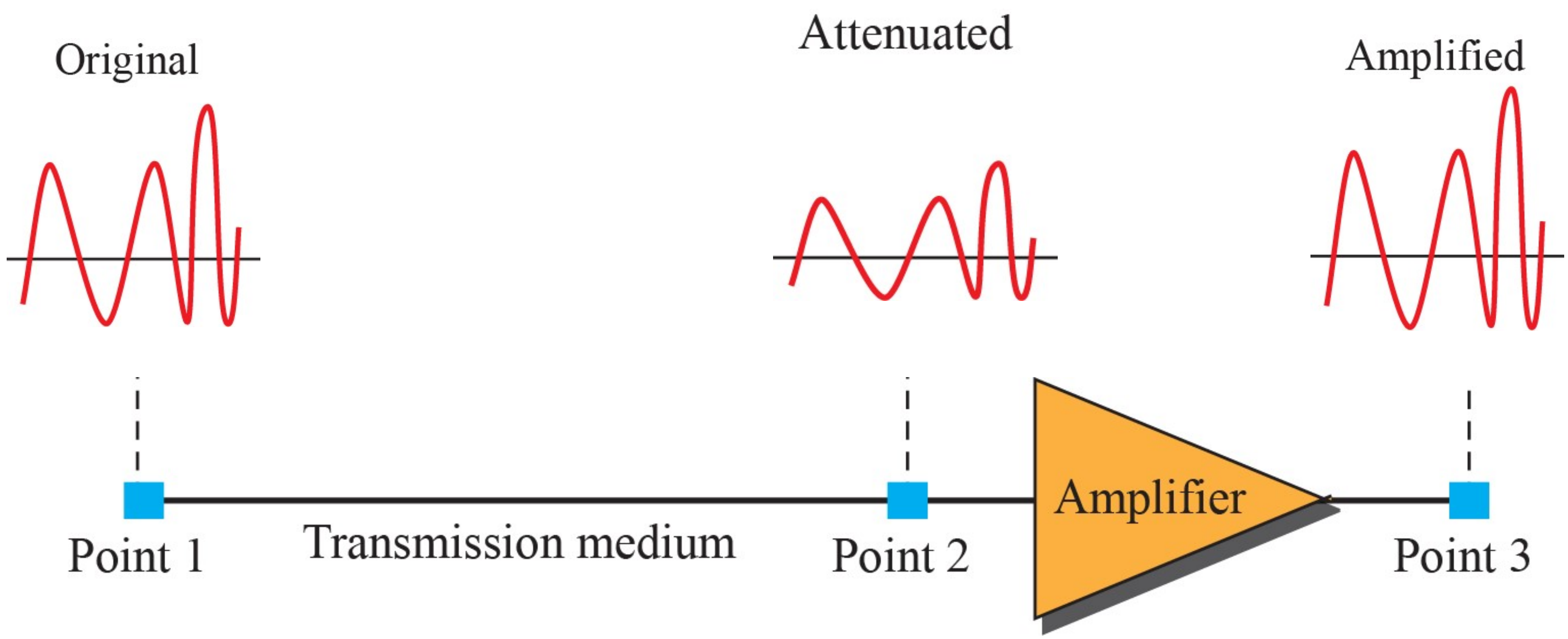
Figure 3.26: Causes of impairment



3.4.1 Attenuation

Attenuation means a loss of energy. When a signal, simple or composite, travels through a medium, it loses some of its energy in overcoming the resistance of the medium. That is why a wire carrying electric signals gets warm, if not hot, after a while. Some of the electrical energy in the signal is converted to heat. To compensate for this loss, amplifiers are used to amplify the signal. Figure 3.27 shows the effect of attenuation and amplification..

Figure 3.27: Attenuation and amplification



Example 3.26

Suppose a signal travels through a transmission medium and its power is reduced to one half. This means that P2 = 0.5 P1. In this case, the attenuation (loss of power) can be calculated as

$$\boxed{10 \log_{10} P_2/P_1 = 10 \log_{10} (0.5\, P_1)/P_1 = 10 \log_{10} 0.5 = 10 \times (-0.3) = -3 \text{ dB.}}$$

A loss of 3 dB (−3 dB) is equivalent to losing one-half the power.

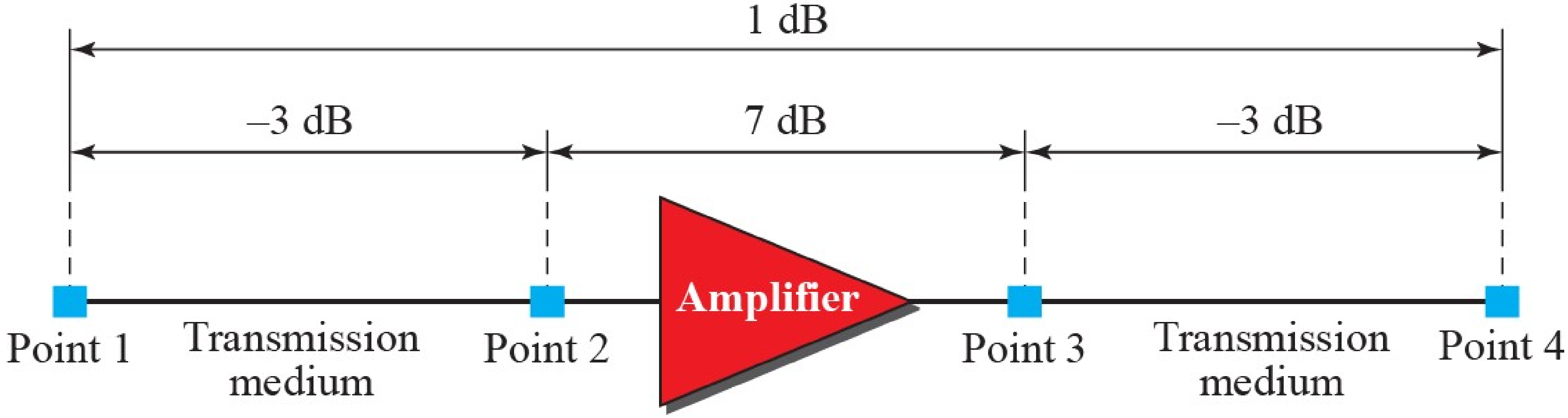
https://web.mst.edu/~kosbar/ee3430/ff/transmissionlines/propagation_coefficient/att_const/index.html

Example 3.27

A signal travels through an amplifier, and its power is increased 10 times. This means that $P_2 = 10P_1$. In this case, the amplification (gain of power) can be calculated as

$$10 \log_{10}\frac{P_2}{P_1} = 10 \log_{10}\frac{10P_1}{P_1} = 10 \log_{10}10 = 10(1) = 10 \text{ dB}$$

Figure 3.28: Decibels for Example 3.28



Example 3.28

One reason that engineers use the decibel to measure the changes in the strength of a signal is that decibel numbers can be added (or subtracted) when we are measuring several points (cascading) instead of just two. In Figure 3.28 a signal travels from point 1 to point 4. The signal is attenuated by the time it reaches point 2. Between points 2 and 3, the signal is amplified. Again, between points 3 and 4, the signal is attenuated. We can find the resultant decibel value for the signal just by adding the decibel measurements between each set of points. In this case, the decibel value can be calculated as

$$dB = -3 + 7 - 3 = +1$$

Example 3.30

The loss in a cable is usually defined in decibels per kilometer (dB/km). If the signal at the beginning of a cable with −0.3 dB/km has a power of 2 mW, what is the power of the signal at 5 km?

Solution

The loss in the cable in decibels is $5 \times (-0.3) = -1.5$ dB. We can calculate the power as

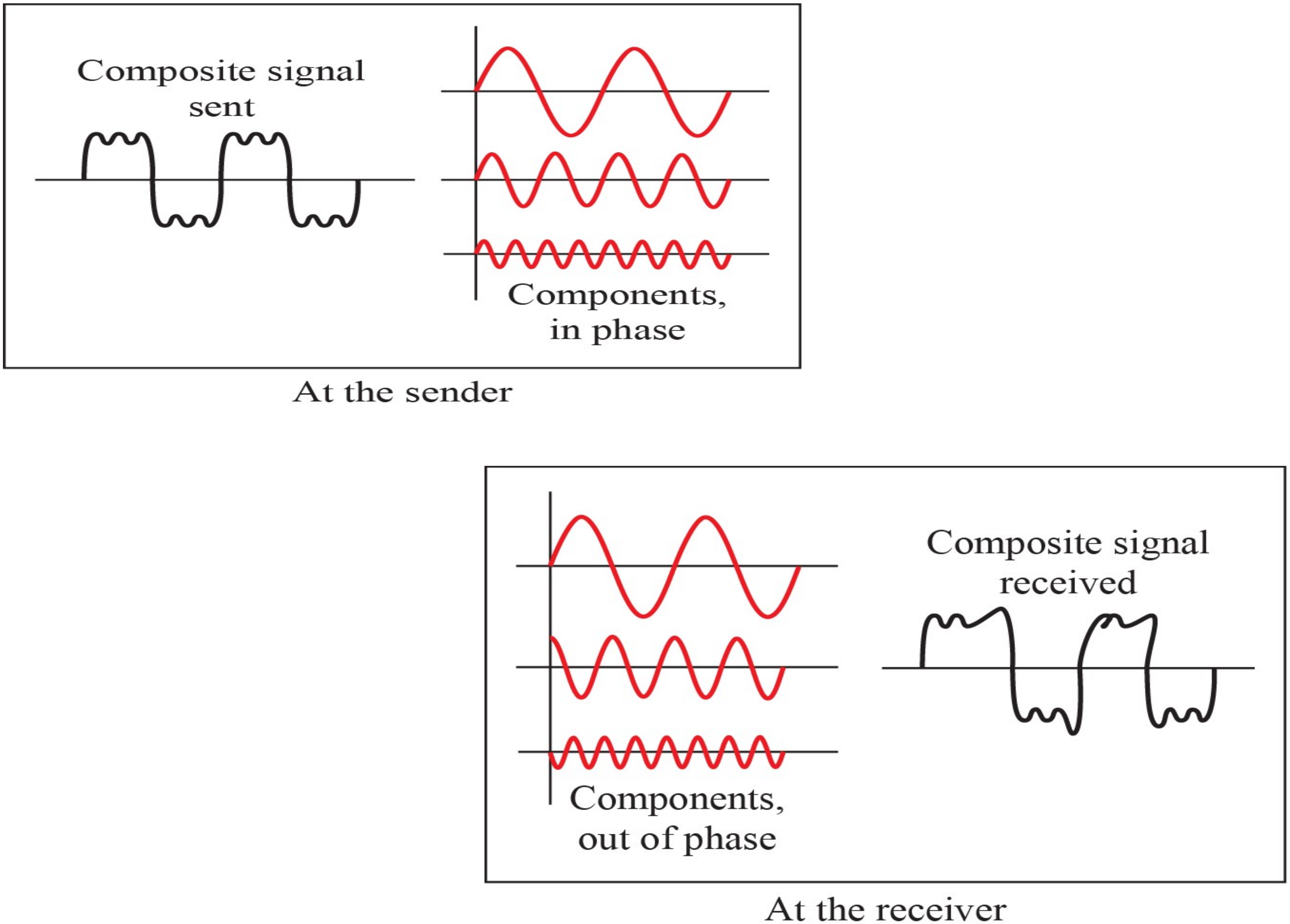
$$\mathrm{dB} = 10 \log_{10} (P_2 / P_1) = -1.5 \quad \longrightarrow \quad (P_2 / P_1) = 10^{-0.15} = 0.71$$

$$P_2 = 0.71 P_1 = 0.7 \times 2\ \mathrm{mW} = 1.4\ \mathrm{mW}$$

3.4.2 Distortion

Distortion means that the signal changes its form or shape. Distortion can occur in a composite signal made of different frequencies. Each signal component has its own propagation speed (see the next section) through a medium and, therefore, its own delay in arriving at the final destination. Differences in delay may create a difference in phase if the delay is not exactly the same as the period duration.

Figure 3.29: Distortion



3.4.3 Noise

Noise is another cause of impairment. Several types of noise, such as thermal noise, induced noise, crosstalk, and impulse noise, may corrupt the signal. Thermal noise is the random motion of electrons in a wire, which creates an extra signal not originally sent by the transmitter. Induced noise comes from sources such as motors. Crosstalk is the effect of one wire on the other.

Figure 3.30: Noise

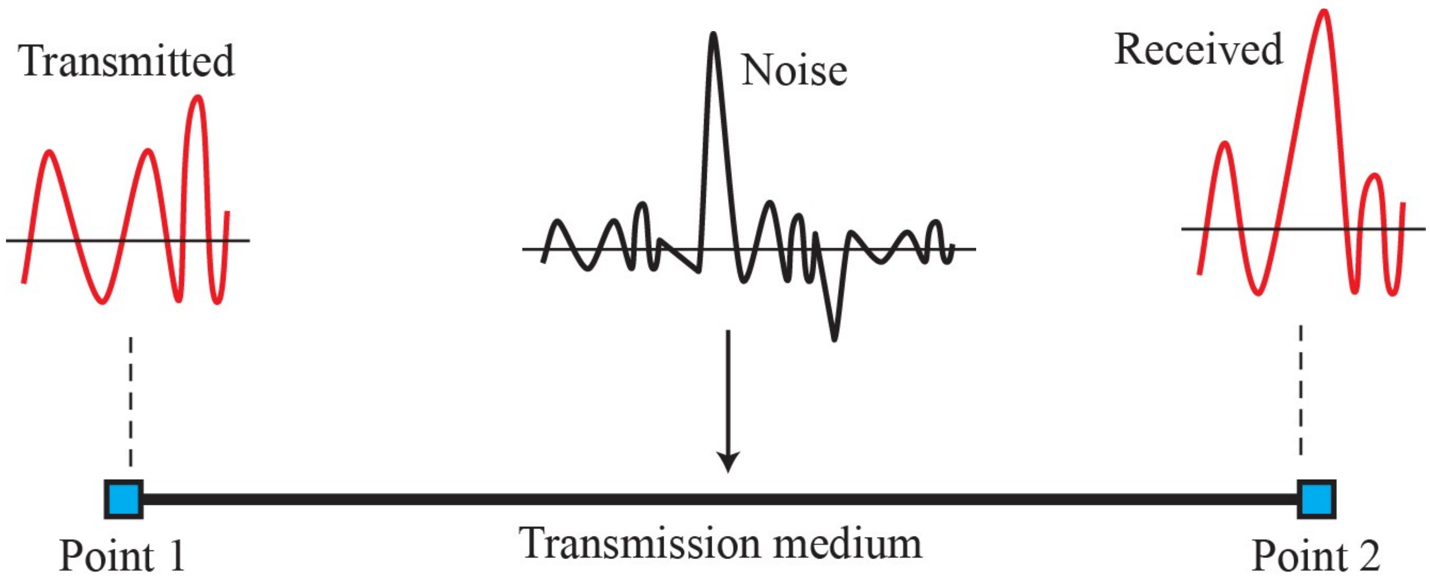
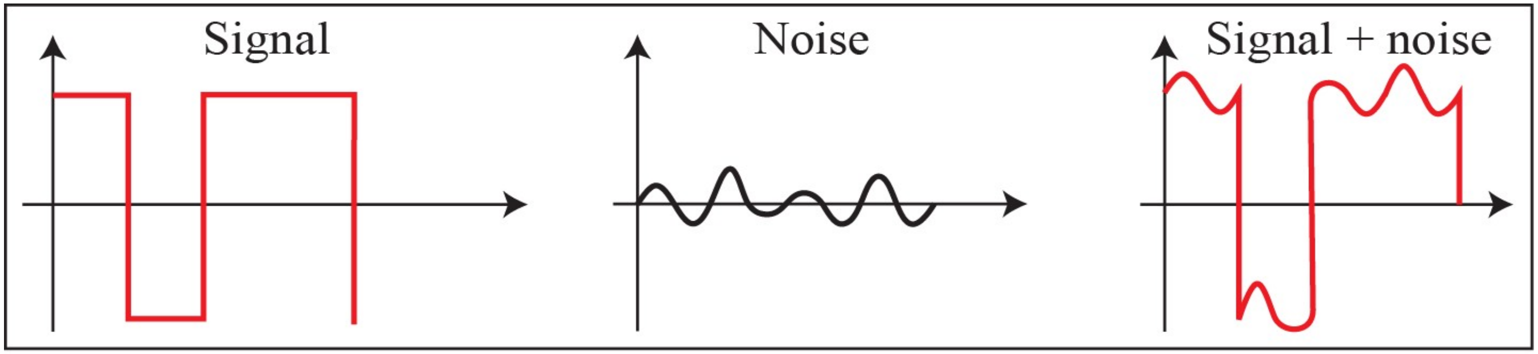
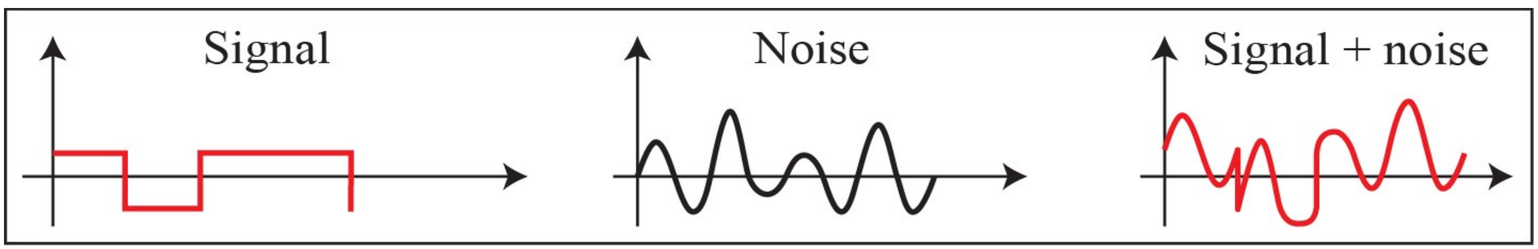


Figure 3.31: Two cases of SNR: a high SNR and a low SNR



a. High SNR



b. Low SNR

Example 3.31

The power of a signal is 10 mW and the power of the noise is 1 μW; what are the values of SNR and SNR_{dB}?

Solution

The values of SNR and SNR_{dB} can be calculated as follows:

$$SNR = (10{,}000\ \mu w) / (1\ \mu w) = 10{,}000 \qquad SNR_{dB} = 10 \log_{10} 10{,}000 = 10 \log_{10} 10^4 = 40$$

Example 3.32

The values of SNR and SNR_{dB} for a noiseless channel are

Solution

The values of SNR and SNRdB for a noiseless channel are

$$\text{SNR} = (\text{signal power}) / 0 = \infty \longrightarrow \text{SNR}_{\text{dB}} = 10 \log_{10} \infty = \infty$$

We can never achieve this ratio in real life; it is an ideal.

3-5 DATA RATE LIMITS

A very important consideration in data communications is how fast we can send data, in bits per second, over a channel. Two theoretical formulas were developed to calculate the data rate: one by Nyquist for a noiseless channel, another by Shannon for a noisy channel.

3.5.1 Noiseless Channel: Nyquist Rate

For a noiseless channel, the Nyquist bit rate formula defines the theoretical maximum bit rate.

$$\text{BitRate} = 2 \times \text{bandwidth} \times \log_2 L$$

Example 3.34

Consider a noiseless channel with a bandwidth of 3000 Hz transmitting a signal with two signal levels. The maximum bit rate can be calculated as

$$\text{BitRate} = 2 \times 3000 \times \log_2 2 = 6000 \text{ bps}$$

Example 3.35

Consider the same noiseless channel transmitting a signal with four signal levels (for each level, we send 2 bits). The maximum bit rate can be calculated as

$$\text{BitRate} = 2 \times 3000 \times \log_2 4 = 12{,}000 \text{ bps}$$

Example 3.36

We need to send 265 kbps over a noiseless channel with a bandwidth of 20 kHz. How many signal levels do we need?

Solution

We can use the Nyquist formula as shown:

$$265{,}000 = 2 \times 20{,}000 \times \log_2 L \longrightarrow \log_2 L = 6.625 \longrightarrow L = 2^{6.625} = 98.7 \text{ levels}$$

Since this result is not a power of 2, we need to either increase the number of levels or reduce the bit rate. If we have 128 levels, the bit rate is 280 kbps. If we have 64 levels, the bit rate is 240 kbps.

3.5.2 Noisy Channel: Shannon Capacity

In reality, we cannot have a noiseless channel; the channel is always noisy. In 1944, Claude Shannon introduced a formula, called the Shannon capacity, to determine the theoretical highest data rate for a noisy channel:

$$\text{Capacity} = \text{bandwidth} \times \log_2(1 + \text{SNR})$$

Example 3.37

Consider an extremely noisy channel in which the value of the signal-to-noise ratio is almost zero. In other words, the noise is so strong that the signal is faint. For this channel the capacity C is calculated as

$$C = B \log_2 (1 + \text{SNR}) = B \log_2(1 + 0) = B \log_2 1 = B \times 0 = 0$$

This means that the capacity of this channel is zero regardless of the bandwidth. In other words, we cannot receive any data through this channel.

Example 3.38

We can calculate the theoretical highest bit rate of a regular telephone line. A telephone line normally has a bandwidth of 3000 Hz (300 to 3300 Hz) assigned for data communications. The signal-to-noise ratio is usually 3162. For this channel the capacity is calculated as

$$C = B \log_2 (1 + \text{SNR}) = 3000 \log_2(1 + 3162) = 3000 \times 11.62 = 34{,}860 \text{ bps}$$

This means that the highest bit rate for a telephone line is 34.860 kbps. If we want to send data faster than this, we can either increase the bandwidth of the line or improve the signal-to-noise ratio.

Example 3.39

The signal-to-noise ratio is often given in decibels. Assume that $SNR_{dB} = 36$ and the channel bandwidth is 2 MHz. The theoretical channel capacity can be calculated as

$$\mathbf{SNR_{dB} = 10\ log_{10}SNR \longrightarrow SNR = 10^{SNR_{dB}/10} \longrightarrow SNR = 10^{3.6} = 3981}$$

$$\boldsymbol{C = B\ \log_2(1 + SNR) = 2 \times 10^6 \times \log_2 3982 = 24\ Mbps}$$

3.5.3 Using Both Limits

In practice, we need to use both methods to find the limits and signal levels. Let us show this with an example.

Example 3.41

We have a channel with a 1-MHz bandwidth. The SNR for this channel is 63. What are the appropriate bit rate and signal level?

Solution

First, we use the Shannon formula to find the upper limit.

$$C = B \log_2(1 + \text{SNR}) = 10^6 \log_2(1 + 63) = 10^6 \log_2 64 = 6 \text{ Mbps}$$

The Shannon formula gives us 6 Mbps, the upper limit. For better performance we choose something lower, 4 Mbps. Then we use the Nyquist formula to find the number of signal levels.

$$4 \text{ Mbps} = 2 \times 1 \text{ MHz} \times \log_2 L \longrightarrow L = 4$$

3-6 PERFORMANCE

Up to now, we have discussed the tools of transmitting data (signals) over a network and how the data behave. One important issue in networking is the performance of the network—how good is it? In this section, we introduce terms that we need for future chapters.

3.6.1 Bandwidth

One characteristic that measures network performance is bandwidth. However, the term can be used in two different contexts with two different measuring values: bandwidth in hertz and bandwidth in bits per second..

3.6.2 Throughput

The throughput is a measure of how fast we can actually send data through a network. Although, at first glance, bandwidth in bits per second and throughput seem the same, they are different. A link may have a bandwidth of B bps, but we can only send T bps through this link with T always less than B.

3.6.3 Throughput

The latency or delay defines how long it takes for an entire message to completely arrive at the destination from the time the first bit is sent out from the source. We can say that latency is made of four components: propagation time, transmission time, queuing time and processing delay.

Latency = propagation time + transmission time + queuing time + processing delay

Example 3.44

A network with bandwidth of 10 Mbps can pass only an average of 12,000 frames per minute with each frame carrying an average of 10,000 bits. What is the throughput of this network?

Solution

We can calculate the throughput as

$$\text{Throughput} = (12{,}000 \times 10{,}000) / 60 = 2 \text{ Mbps}$$

The throughput is almost one-fifth of the bandwidth in this case.

Example 3.45

What is the propagation time if the distance between the two points is 12,000 km? Assume the propagation speed to be 2.4×108 m/s in cable.

Solution

We can calculate the propagation time as

$$\textbf{Propagation time} = (12{,}000 \times 10{,}000) / (2.4 \times 2^8) = 50 \text{ ms}$$

The example shows that a bit can go over the Atlantic Ocean in only 50 ms if there is a direct cable between the source and the destination.

Example 3.46

What are the propagation time and the transmission time for a 2.5-KB (kilobyte) message if the bandwidth of the network is 1 Gbps? Assume that the distance between the sender and the receiver is 12,000 km and that light travels at 2.4 × 108 m/s.

Solution

We can calculate the propagation and transmission time as

$$\text{Propagation time} = (12{,}000 \times 1000) / (2.4 \times 10^8) = 50 \text{ ms}$$

$$\text{Transmission time} = (2500 \times 8) / 10^9 = 0.020 \text{ ms}$$

Note that in this case, because the message is short and the bandwidth is high, the dominant factor is the propagation time, not the transmission time.

Example 3.47

What are the propagation time and the transmission time for a 5-MB (megabyte) message (an image) if the bandwidth of the network is 1 Mbps? Assume that the distance between the sender and the receiver is 12,000 km and that light travels at 2.4 × 108 m/s.

Solution

We can calculate the propagation and transmission times as

$$\text{Propagation time} = (12{,}000 \times 1000) / (2.4 \times 10^8) = 50 \text{ ms}$$

$$\text{Transmission time} = (5{,}000{,}000 \times 8) / 10^6 = 40 \text{ s}$$

We can calculate the propagation and transmission times as

3.6.4 Bandwidth-Delay Product

Bandwidth and delay are two performance metrics of a link. Generally, in data communications we consider the product of the two -- the bandwidth-delay product. Let us elaborate on this issue, using two hypothetical cases as examples.

Figure 3.32: Filling the links with bits for Case 1

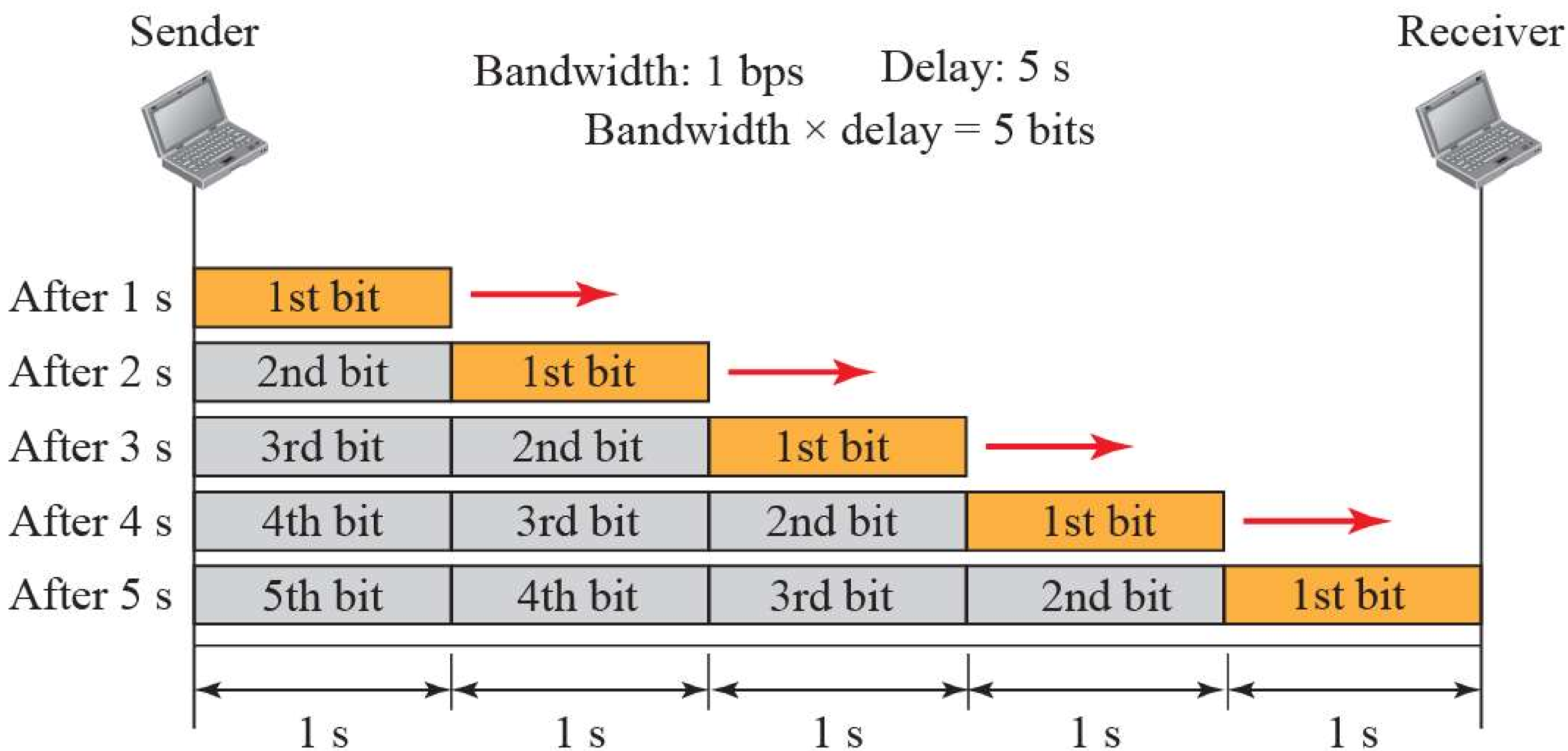
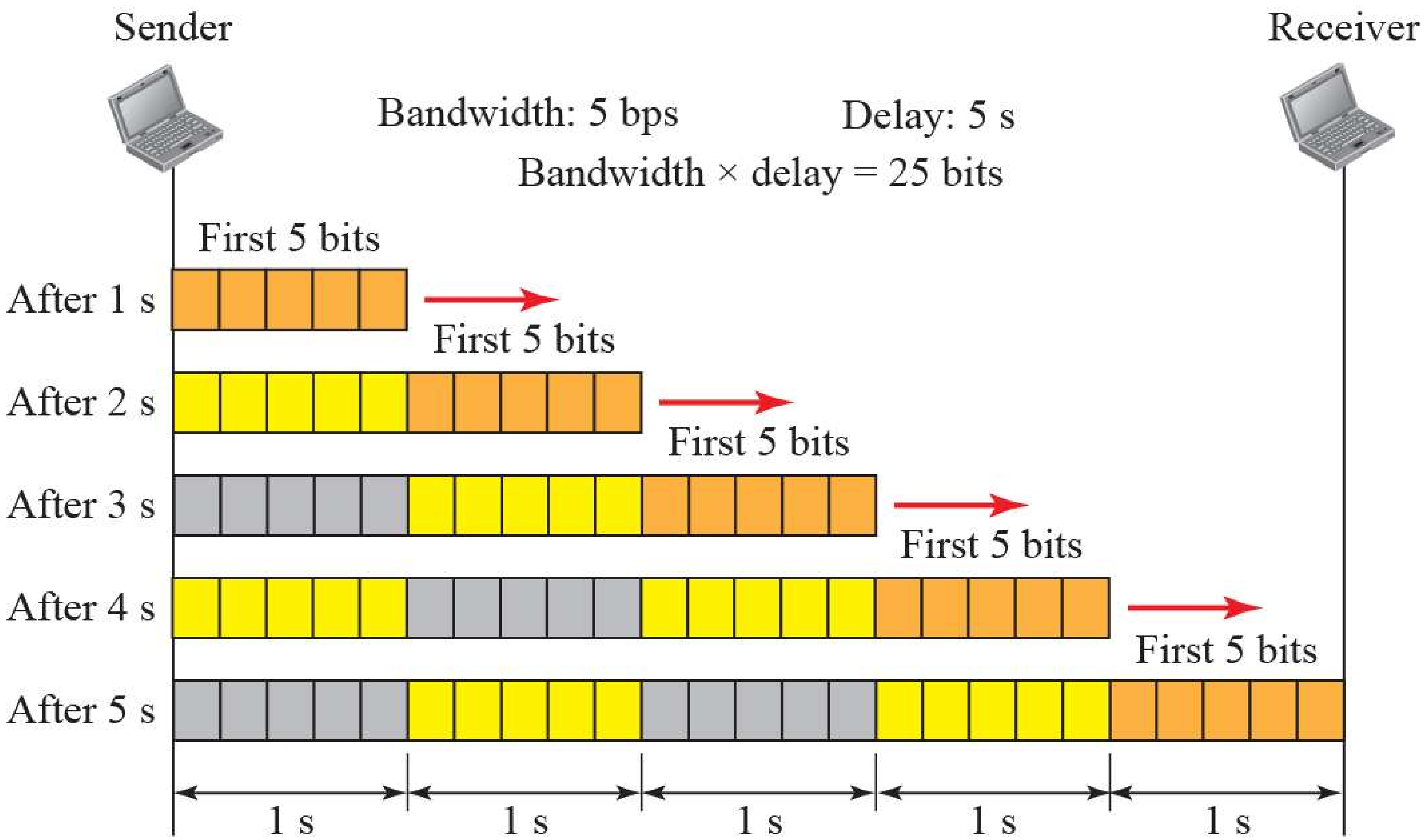


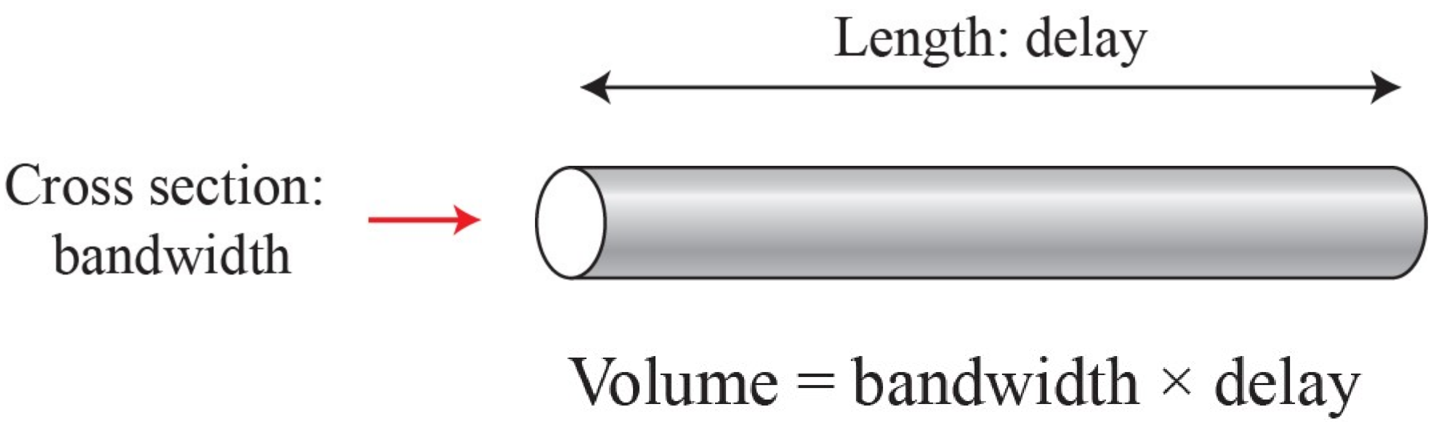
Figure 3.33: Filling the pipe with bits for Case 2



Example 3.48

We can think about the link between two points as a pipe. The cross section of the pipe represents the bandwidth, and the length of the pipe represents the delay. We can say the volume of the pipe defines the bandwidth-delay product, as shown in Figure 3.34.

Figure 3.34: Concept of bandwidth-delay product



3.6.5 Jitter

Another performance issue that is related to delay is jitter. We can roughly say that jitter is a problem if different packets of data encounter different delays and the application using the data at the receiver site is time-sensitive (audio and video data, for example). If the delay for the first packet is 20 ms, for the second is 45 ms, and for the third is 40 ms, then the real-time application that uses the packets endures jitter.