#### **CSCS 311**

# Data Communications and Networking

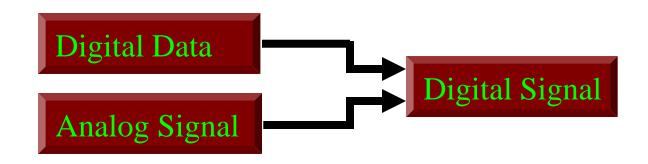
Lecture 15

### Lecture Focus:

Digital Transmission

### **Digital Transmission**

- A computer network is designed to send information from one point to another.
- This information needs to be converted to either a digital signal or an analog signal for transmission.
- Here, we study the schemes and techniques used to transmit data digitally.
  - First, we discuss digital-to-digital conversion techniques, methods which convert digital data to digital signals.
  - Second, we discuss analog-to-digital conversion techniques, methods which change an analog signal to a digital signal.



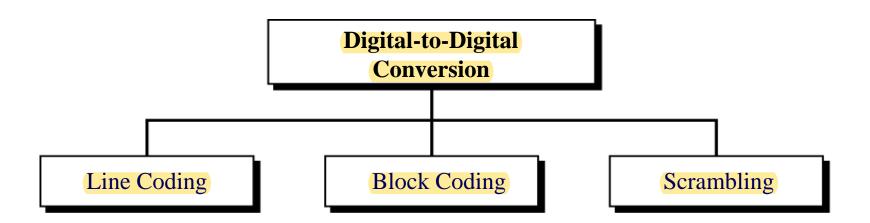
### **Digital Transmission**

#### DIGITAL-TO-DIGITAL CONVERSION

- Data can be either digital or analog. Signals that represent data can also be digital or analog.
- Here. we study how we can represent digital data by using digital signals.
- The conversion involves three techniques:
  - Line coding
  - Block coding
  - Scrambling
- Line coding is always needed.
- Block coding and scrambling may or may not be needed.

# **Digital Transmission**

# **Digital-to-Digital Conversion**



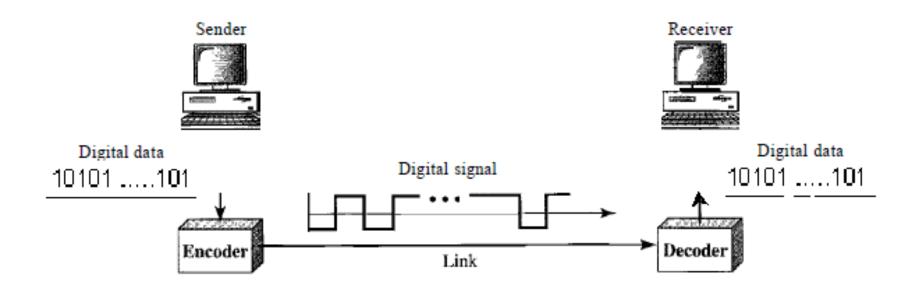
# Digital-to-Digital Conversion

#### Line Coding

- Line coding is the process of converting digital data to digital signals.
- We assume that data, in the form of text, numbers, graphical images, audio, or video, are stored in computer memory as sequences of bits.
- Line coding converts a sequence of bits to a digital signal.
  - At the sender, digital data are encoded into a digital signal;
  - At the receiver, the digital data are recreated by decoding the digital signal.

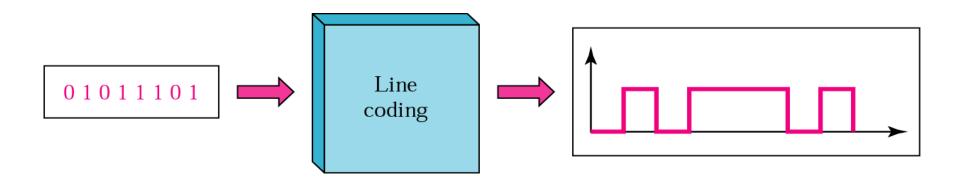
# Digital-to-Digital Conversion

# Line Coding Process



# Digital-to-Digital Conversion

# Line Coding Process

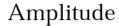


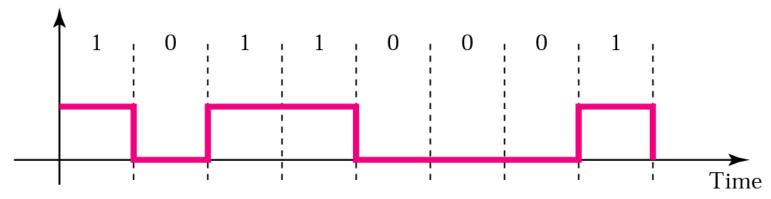
Line coding and decoding

#### Signal Element Versus Data Element

- A data element is the smallest entity that can represent a piece of information: this is the bit.
- In digital data communications, a signal element carries data elements.
- A signal element is the shortest unit (time wise) of a digital signal.
- In other words, data elements are what we need to send; signal elements are what we can send.
- Data elements are being carried; signal elements are the carriers.
- We define a ratio r which is the number of data elements carried by each signal element.
- Figure shows several situations with different values of r.

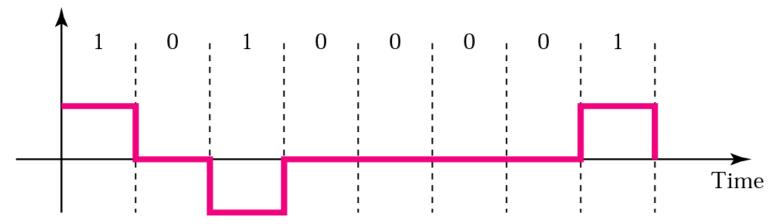
### Signal Element Versus Data Element





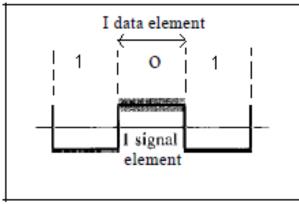
a. Two signal levels, two data levels

#### Amplitude

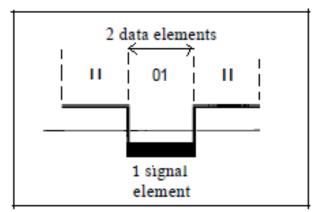


b. Three signal levels, three data levels

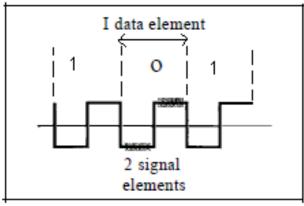
#### Signal Element Versus Data Element



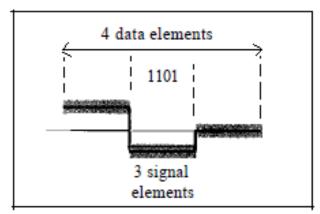
a. One data element per one signal element (r = 1)



c. Two data elements per one signal element (r=2)



b. One data element per two signal elements  $(l' = \frac{1}{2})$ 



d. Four data elements per three signal elements  $(l' = \frac{4}{3})$ 

#### Data Rate Versus Signal Rate

- O Data rate:
  - The number of data elements (bits) sent in 1s.
  - The unit is bits per second (bps).
- Signal rate:
  - The number of signal elements sent in 1s.
  - The unit is the baud.
- The data rate is sometimes called the bit rate.
- The signal rate is sometimes called the pulse rate, the modulation rate, or the baud rate.

#### Data Rate Versus Signal Rate

- One goal in data communications is to:
  - O Increase the data rate, and
  - Decrease the signal rate
- Increasing the data rate increases the speed of transmission; decreasing the signal rate decreases the bandwidth requirement.
- We need to carry more people in fewer vehicles to prevent traffic jams. We have a limited bandwidth in our transportation system.

#### Relationship between Data Rate and Signal Rate

- This relationship depends on the value of r.
- It also depends on the data pattern.
  - If a data pattern consists of all 1s or all 0s, the signal rate may be different from a data pattern of alternating 0s and 1s.
- To derive a formula for the relationship, we need to define three cases: the worst, the best, and the average.
  - The worst case is when we need the maximum signal rate.
  - The best case is when we need the minimum signal rate.
- We are usually interested in the average case.

#### Relationship between Data Rate and Signal Rate

 We can formulate the relationship between data rate and signal rate as:

$$S = c \times N \times 1$$
 baud

#### Where:

N is the data rate (bps);

c is the case factor, which varies for each case;

S is the number of signal elements; and

r is the previously defined factor.

#### Relationship between Data Rate and Signal Rate

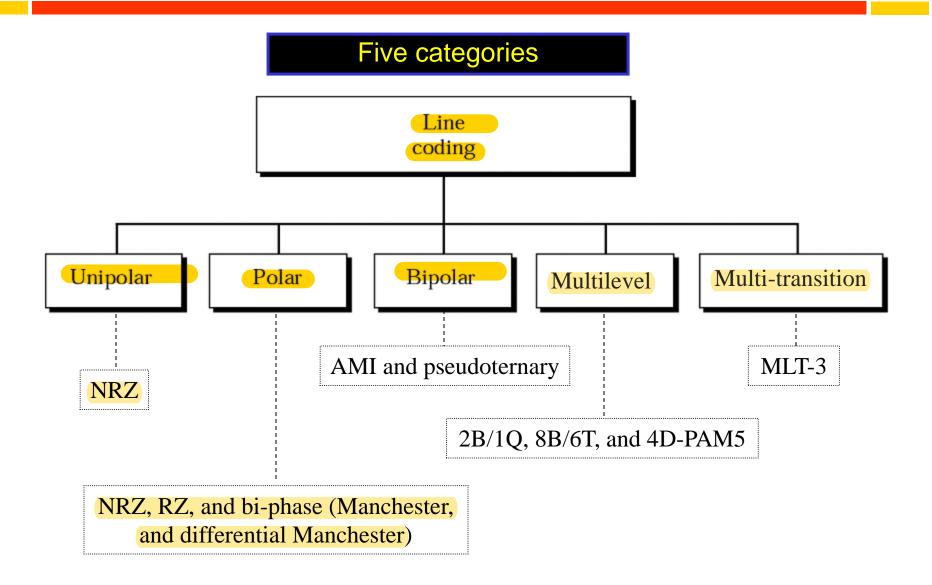
### Example

A signal is carrying data in which one data element is encoded as one signal element (r = 1). If the bit rate is 100 kbps, what is the average value of the baud rate if c is between 0 and I?

#### Solution

We assume that the average value of c is 1/2. The baud rate is then:

```
S = c \times N \times 1/r
= 1/2 x 100,000 x 1/1
= 50,000 bauds
= 50 kbaud
```



There are several schemes in each category.

#### **UNIPOLAR**

In a unipolar scheme, all the signal levels are on one side of the time axis, either above or below.

Unipolar encoding uses only one voltage level.

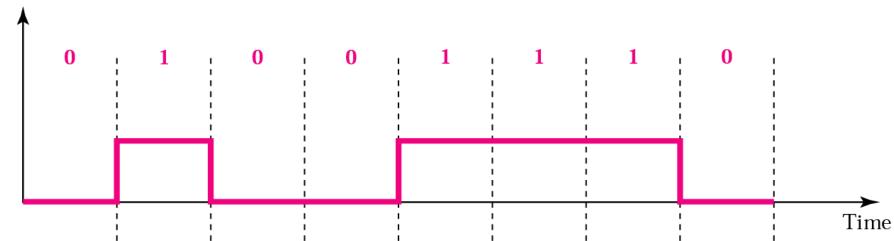
UNI = Single

#### **UNIPOLAR**

#### NRZ (Non-Return-to-Zero)

- Unipolar scheme was designed as a non-return-to-zero (NRZ) scheme in which the positive voltage defines bit 1 and the zero voltage defines bit 0.
- It is called NRZ because the signal does not return to zero at the middle of the bit.

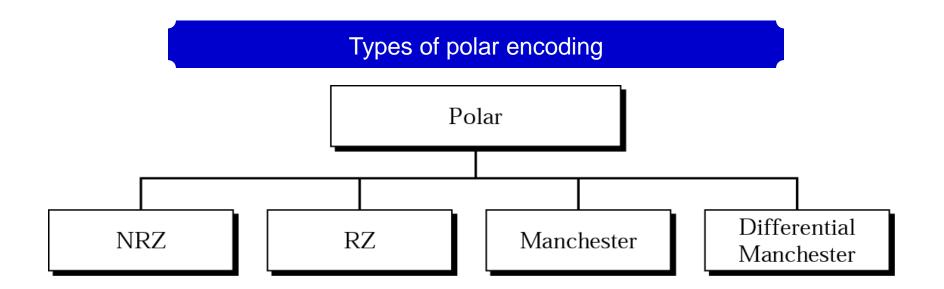
#### Amplitude



#### **POLAR SCHEMES**

- In polar schemes, the voltages are on the both sides of the time axis.
- For example, the voltage level for 0 can be positive and the voltage level for 1 can be negative.

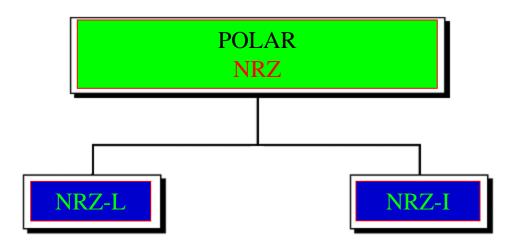
Polar encoding uses two voltage levels (positive and negative).



#### POLAR SCHEMES

#### NRZ (Non-Return-to-Zero)

- In polar NRZ encoding, we use two levels of voltage amplitude.
- We have two versions of polar NRZ:
  - NRZ-L
  - NRZ-I



#### POLAR SCHEMES

#### NRZ (Non-Return-to-Zero)

 In NRZ-L (NRZ-Level), the level of the voltage determines the value of the bit.

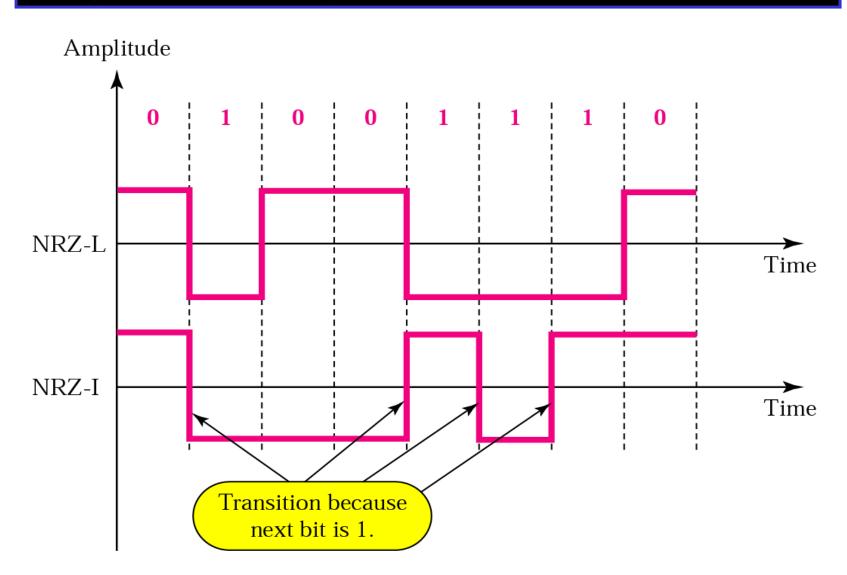
In NRZ-L the level of the signal is dependent upon the state of the bit.

- In NRZ-I (NRZ-Invert), the change or lack of change in the level of the voltage determines the value of the bit.
  - If there is no change, the bit is 0.
  - If there is a change, the bit is 1.

In NRZ-I the signal is inverted if a 1 is encountered.

### **POLAR SCHEMES**

### NRZ (Non-Return-to-Zero)



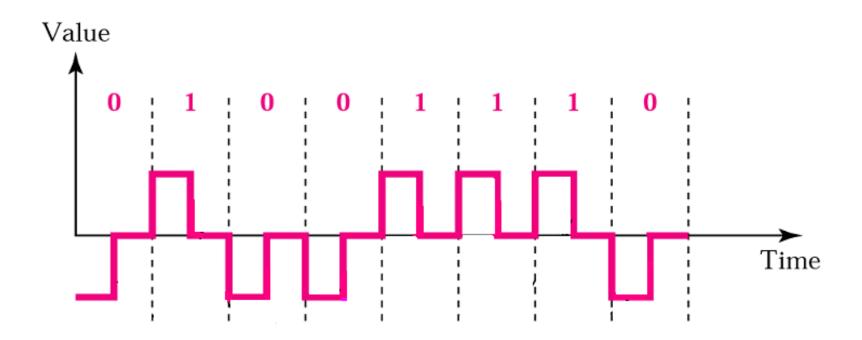
#### POLAR SCHEMES

#### RZ (Return-to-Zero)

- This scheme uses three values: positive, negative, and zero.
- In RZ, the signal changes not between bits but during the bit.
- Signal goes to 0 in the middle of each bit. It remains there until the beginning of the next bit.
- O The main disadvantage of RZ encoding is that it requires two signal changes to encode a bit and therefore occupies greater bandwidth.
- Another problem is the complexity: RZ uses three levels of voltage, which is more complex to create and discern.
- As a result of all these deficiencies, the scheme is not used today.
  - It has been replaced by the better-performing Manchester and differential Manchester schemes.

# POLAR SCHEMES

# RZ (Return-to-Zero)



#### POLAR SCHEMES

### Bi-phase

- O Manchester
- Differential Manchester

Bi-phase

Manchester

Differential Manchester

#### **POLAR SCHEMES**

#### Bi-phase: Manchester

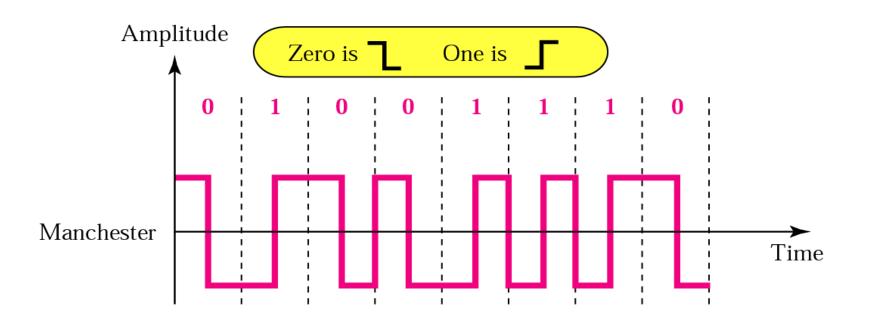
- The idea of RZ (transition at the middle of the bit) and the idea of NRZ-L are combined into the Manchester scheme.
- O In Manchester encoding, the duration of the bit is divided into two halves.
  - The voltage remains at one level during the first half and moves to the other level in the second half.

#### Bi-phase: Differential Manchester

- This scheme combines the ideas of RZ and NRZ-I.
- There is always a transition at the middle of the bit, but the bit values are determined at the beginning of the bit.
  - If the next bit is 0, there is a transition.
  - If the next bit is 1, there is none.

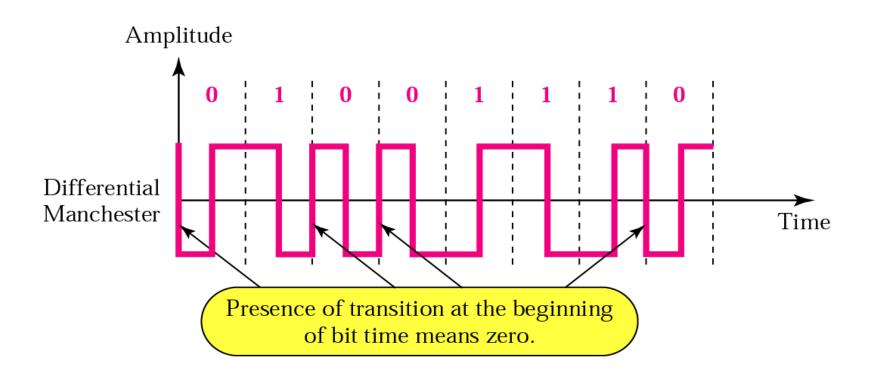
### POLAR SCHEMES

### Manchester encoding



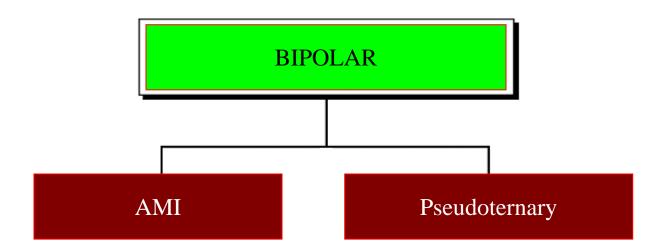
#### **POLAR SCHEMES**

### Differential Manchester encoding



#### **BIPOLAR SCHEMES**

- In bipolar encoding (sometimes called multilevel binary), there are three voltage levels: positive, negative, and zero.
  - The voltage level for one data element is at zero.
  - The voltage level for the other element alternates between positive and negative.



#### BIPOLAR SCHEMES

#### **AMI:** Alternate Mark Inversion

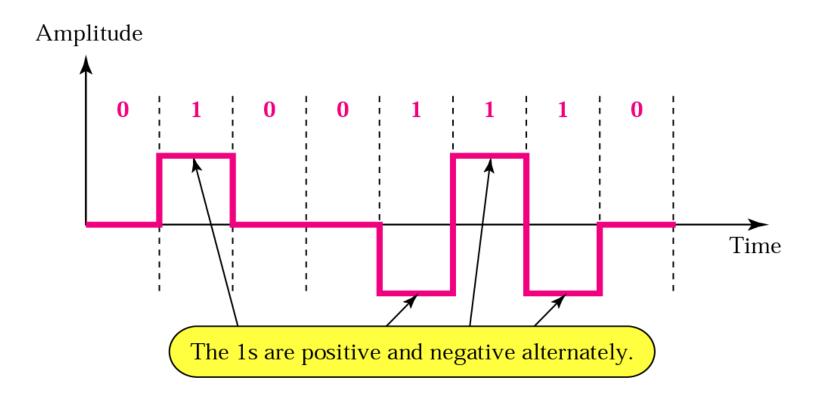
- In the term alternate mark inversion, the word mark comes from telegraphy and means 1. So AMI means alternate 1 inversion.
- A neutral zero voltage represents binary 0.
- Binary 1s are represented by alternating positive and negative voltages.

#### **Pseudoternary**

 A variation of AMI encoding is called pseudoternary in which the 1 bit is encoded as a zero voltage and the 0 bit is encoded as alternating positive and negative voltages.

#### **BIPOLAR SCHEMES**

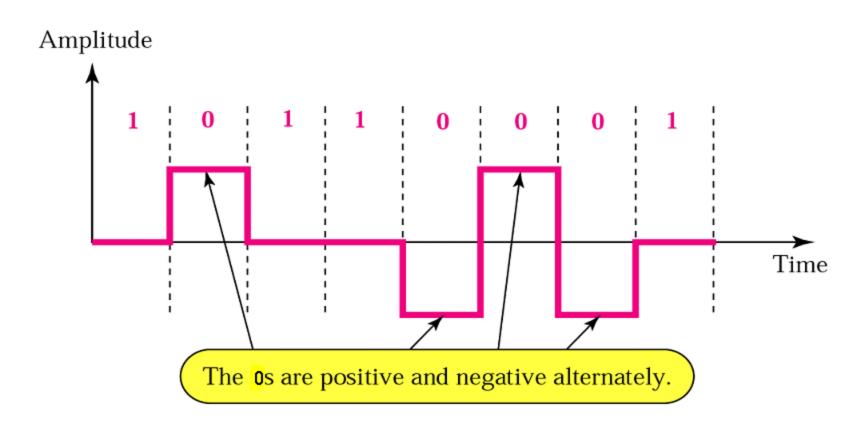
#### **AMI:** Alternate Mark Inversion



Bipolar AMI encoding

### **BIPOLAR SCHEMES**

### Pseudoternary



Bipolar Pseudoternary encoding

#### **MULTILEVEL SCHEMES**

- The desire to increase the data speed or decrease the required bandwidth has resulted in the creation of many schemes.
  - The goal is to increase the number of bits per baud by encoding a pattern of m data elements into a pattern of n signal elements.
- We only have two types of data elements (0s and 1s).
  - It means that a group of m data elements can produce a combination of 2<sup>m</sup> data patterns.
- We can have different types of signal elements by allowing different signal levels.
  - ⊙ If we have L different levels, we can produce L<sup>n</sup> combinations of signal patterns.
- If 2<sup>m</sup> = L<sup>n</sup>, then each data pattern is encoded into one signal pattern.
- If 2<sup>m</sup> < L<sup>n</sup>, data patterns occupy only a subset of signal patterns.
- Data encoding is not possible if 2<sup>m</sup> > L<sup>n</sup> because some of the data patterns cannot be encoded.

#### **MULTILEVEL SCHEMES**

- The code designers have classified these types of coding as mBnL, where:
  - om is the length of the binary pattern,
  - B means binary data,
  - on is the length of the signal pattern, and
  - L is the number of levels in the signaling.
- A letter is often used in place of L:
  - $\odot$  B (binary) for L = 2,

  - Q (quaternary) for L =4.
- O Note that:
  - The first two letters define the data pattern, and
  - The second two define the signal pattern.

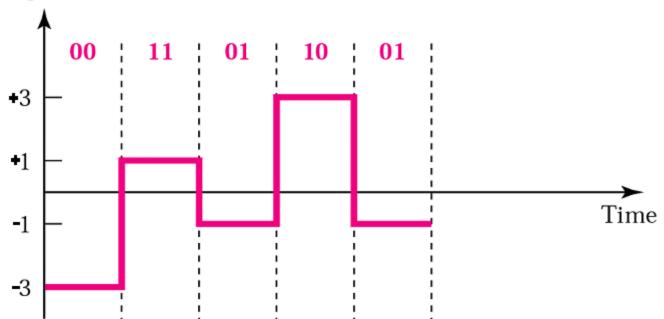
In mBnL schemes, a pattern of m data elements is encoded as a pattern of n signal elements in which  $2^m \le L^n$ .

#### MULTILEVEL SCHEMES

#### 2B1Q

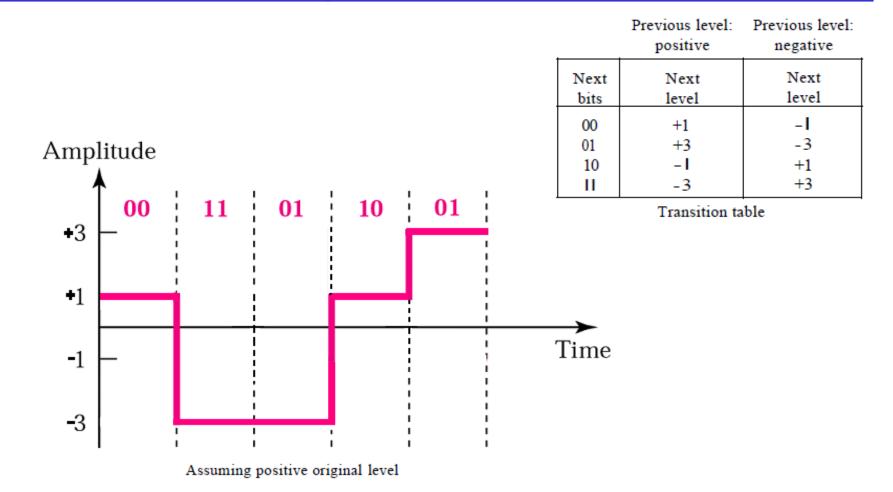
- The first mBnL scheme, two binary, one quaternary (2B1Q), uses data patterns of size 2 and encodes the 2-bit patterns as one signal element belonging to a four-level signal.
- O In this type of encoding m = 2, n = 1, and L = 4 (quaternary).
- Figure below shows an example of a 2B1Q signal.

#### Amplitude



### MULTILEVEL SCHEMES

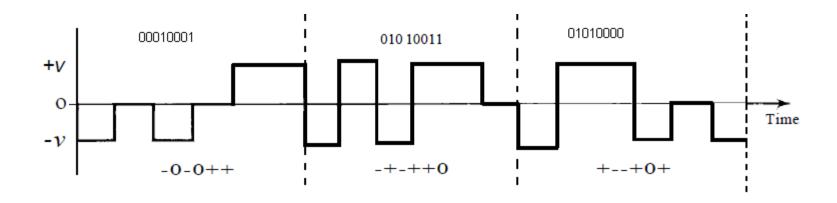
2B1Q



#### MULTILEVEL SCHEMES

## 8B6T : Eight binary, six ternary

- O The idea is to encode a pattern of 8 bits as a pattern of 6 signal elements, where the signal has three levels (ternary).
- O In this type of scheme, we can have  $2^8 = 256$  different data patterns and  $3^6 = 478$  different signal patterns.
- There are 478 256 = 222 redundant signal elements that provide synchronization and error detection.



#### **Multi-Transition Schemes**

### Multiline Transmission: MLT-3

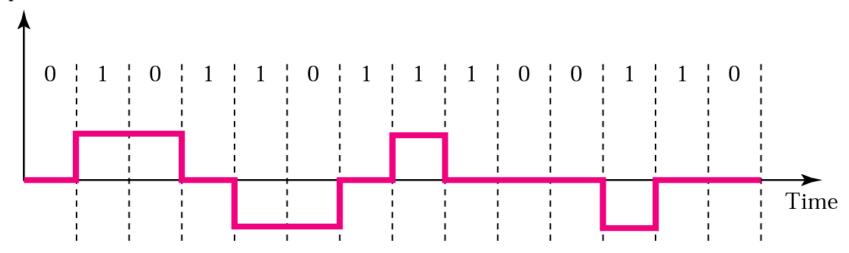
- NRZ-I and differential Manchester are classified as differential encoding but use two transition rules to encode binary data (no inversion, inversion).
- O If we have a signal with more than two levels, we can design a differential encoding scheme with more than two transition rules.
- Multiline transmission, three level (MLT-3) scheme uses three levels (+V, 0, and -V) and three transition rules to move between the levels.
  - 1. If the next bit is 0, there is no transition.
  - 2. If the next bit is 1 and the current level is not 0, the next level is 0.
  - 3. If the next bit is 1 and the current level is 0, the next level is the opposite of the last nonzero level.

### **Multi-Transition Schemes**

## Multiline Transmission: MLT-3

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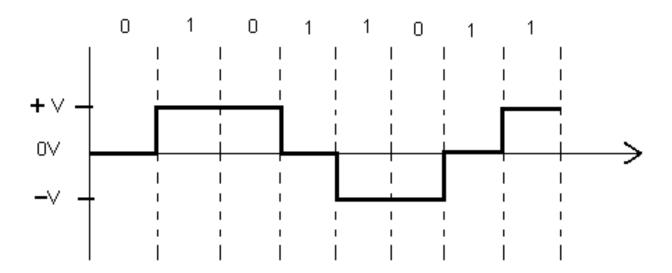
#### Amplitude



#### **Multi-Transition Schemes**

## Multiline Transmission: MLT-3

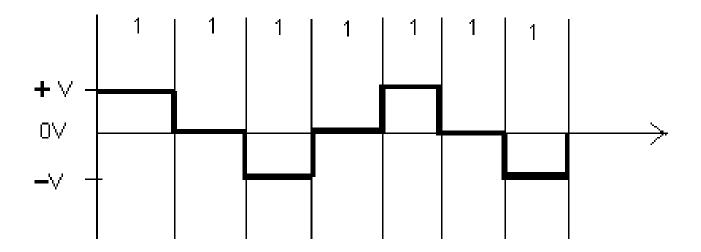
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#### **Multi-Transition Schemes**

## Multiline Transmission: MLT-3

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- 2. If the next bit is 1 and the current level is not 0, the next level is 0.
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Draw the graph of the NRZ-L, NRZ-I, Manchester, Differential Manchester schemes using each of the following data streams, assuming that the last signal level has been positive.

- a. 00000000
- b. 11111111
- c. 01010101
- d. 00110011

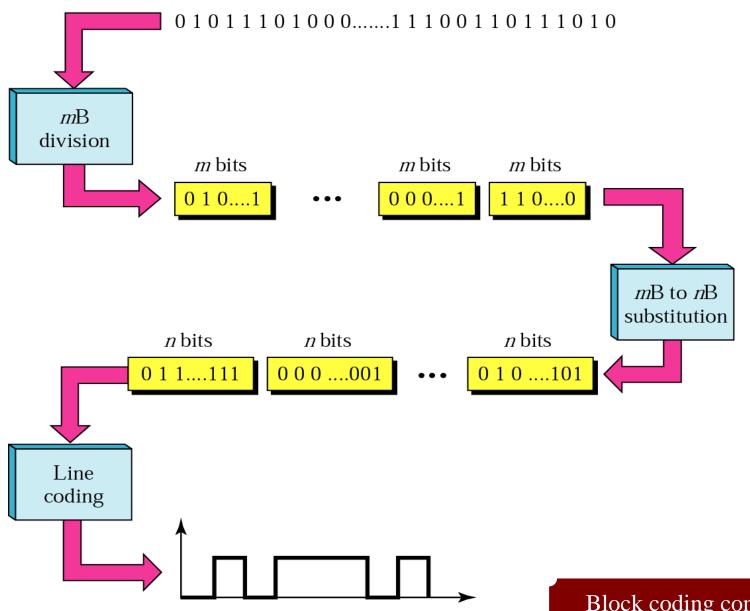
## 2B1Q scheme:

- b. 1111111111111111
- c. 0101010101010101
- d. 0011001100110011

### MLT-3 scheme:

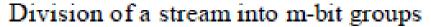
- a. 00000000
- b. 11111111
- c. 01010101
- d. 00011000

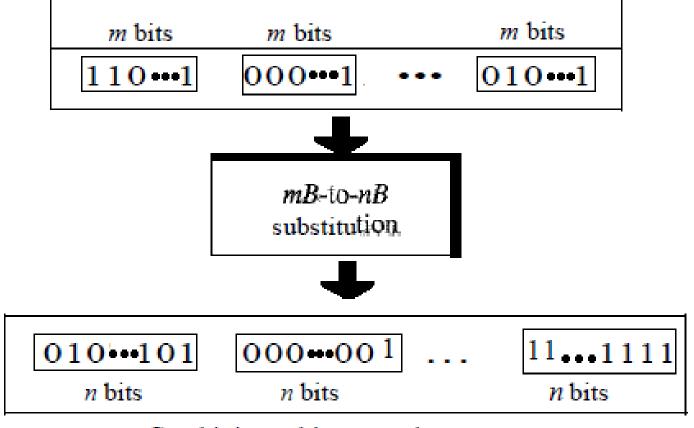
- O Block coding changes a block of m bits into a block of n bits, where n is larger than m.
- Block coding is referred to as an mB/nB encoding technique.
  - O It replaces each m-bit group with an n-bit group.
- O Block coding normally involves three steps:
  - Division, Substitution, and Combination.
- In the division step, a sequence of bits is divided into groups of m bits.
  - For example, in 4B/5B encoding, the original bit sequence is divided into 4-bit groups.
- The heart of block coding is the substitution step.
  - In this step, we substitute an m-bit group for an n-bit group.
  - For example, in 4B/5B encoding we substitute a 4-bit code for a 5-bit group.
- Finally, the n-bit groups are combined together to form a stream.
   The new stream has more bits than the original bits.



Block coding concept

## Block coding concept

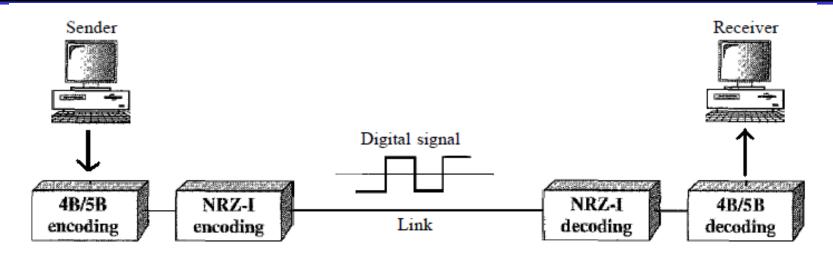




Combining n-bit groups into a stream

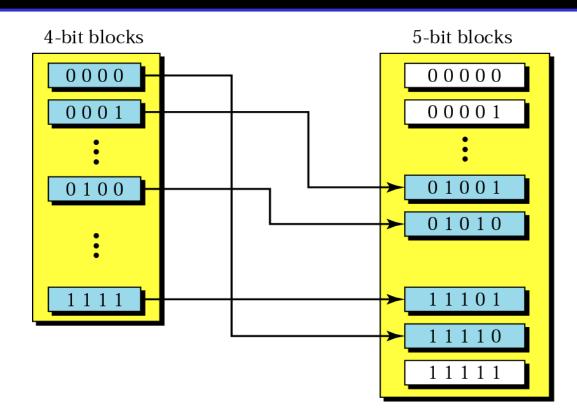
#### 4B/5B

- The four binary/five binary (4B/5B) coding scheme was designed to be used in combination with NRZ-I.
- Steps:
  - At the sender side, change the bit stream, prior to encoding with NRZ-I.
  - At the receiver, the NRZ-I encoded digital signal is first decoded into a stream of bits and then decoded.



## 4B/5B

- In 4B/5B, the 5-bit output that replaces the 4-bit input has no more than one leading zero (left bit) and no more than two trailing zeros (right bits).
- So when different groups are combined to make a new sequence, there are never more than three consecutive 0s.



#### 4B/5B

- A group of 4 bits can have only 16 different combinations while a group of 5 bits can have 32 different combinations.
  - This means that there are 16 groups that are not used for 4B/5B encoding.
  - O Some of these unused groups are used for control purposes; the others are not used at all. The latter provide a kind of error detection.
- O If a 5-bit group arrives that belongs to the unused portion of the table, the receiver knows that there is an error in the transmission.

# Block Coding 4B/5B

Data Sequence	Encoded Sequence	Control Sequence	Encoded Sequence
0000	11110	Q (Quiet)	00000
0001	01001	I (Idle)	11111
0010	10100	H (Halt)	00100
0011	10101	J (Start delimiter)	11000
0100	01010	K (Start delimiter)	10001
0101	01011	T (End delimiter)	01101
0110	01110	S (Set)	11001
0111	01111	R (Reset)	00111
1000	10010		
1001	10011		
1010	10110		
1011	10111		
1100	11 010		
1101	11011		
1110	11100		
1111	11101		

# **Digital Transmission**

# **Digital-to-Digital Conversion**

