CNT3004 - Computer Network Concepts

Dr. C. Tidwell, Fall 2020

Chapter 3

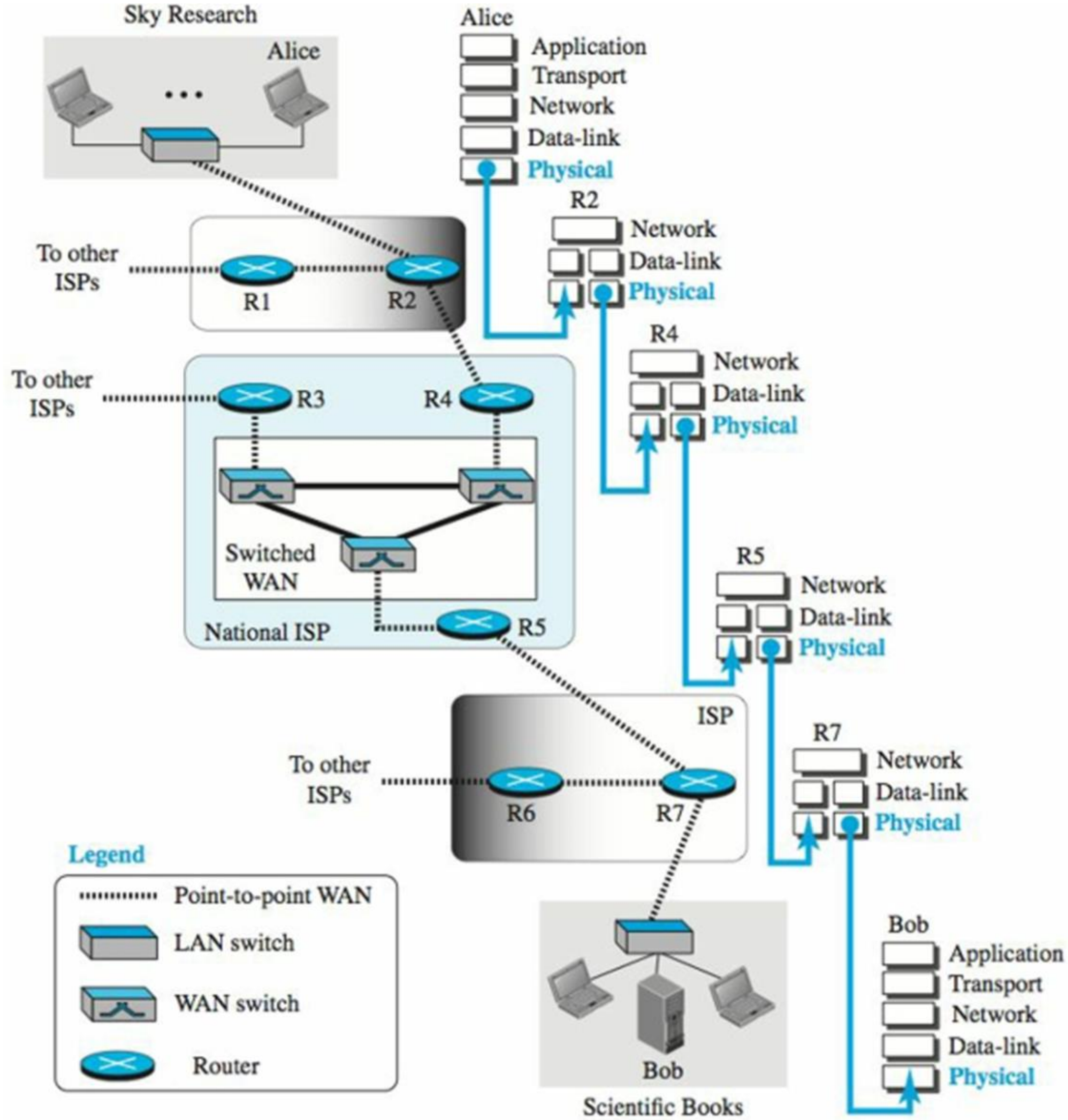
Physical Layer

Note

To be transmitted, data must be transformed to electromagnetic signals.

This Chapter will introduce data/signal representation, power computation, basic information theory

Figure 3.1 Communication at the physical layer



3-1 ANALOG AND DIGITAL

Data can be analog or digital. The term analog data refers to information that is continuous; digital data refers to information that has discrete states. Analog data take on continuous values. Digital data take on discrete values.

Topics discussed in this section:

Analog and Digital Data
Analog and Digital Signals
Periodic and Nonperiodic Signals

Note

Data can be analog or digital.
Analog data are continuous and take continuous values.
Digital data have discrete states and take discrete values.

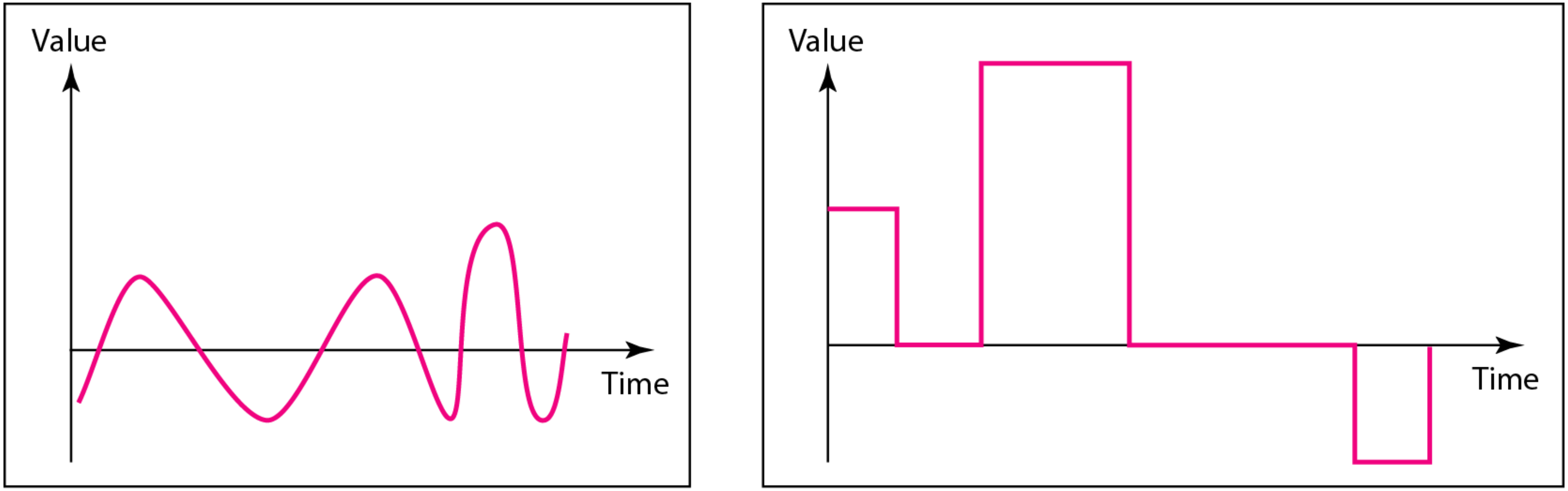
Analogy: Real number vs. Integer number

Analog data example: voice
temperature captured by analog sensor

Note

Signals can be analog or digital. Analog signals can have an infinite number of values in a range; digital signals can have only a limited number of values.

Figure 3.2 *Comparison of analog and digital signals*



a. Analog signal

b. Digital signal

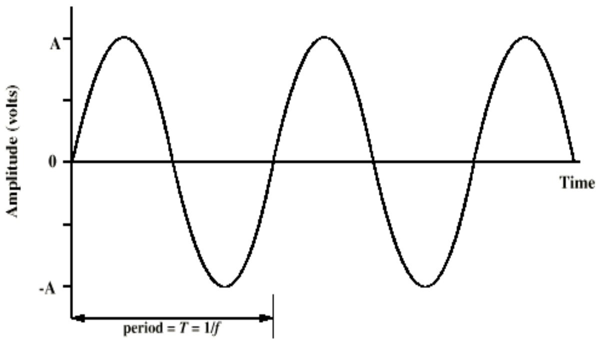
Note

In data communications, we commonly use periodic analog signals and nonperiodic digital signals.

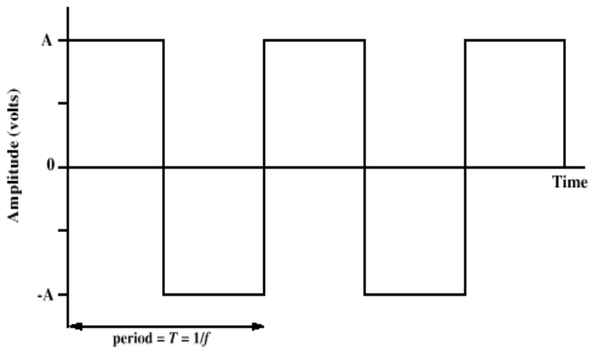
Periodic analog signal is used as data carrier (such as AM/FM radio)

Periodic signals vs nonperiodic signals

PERIODIC SIGNALS

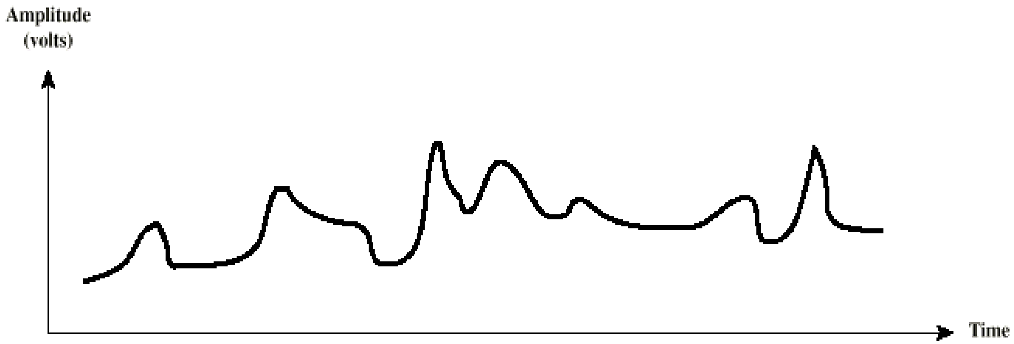


(a) Sine wave

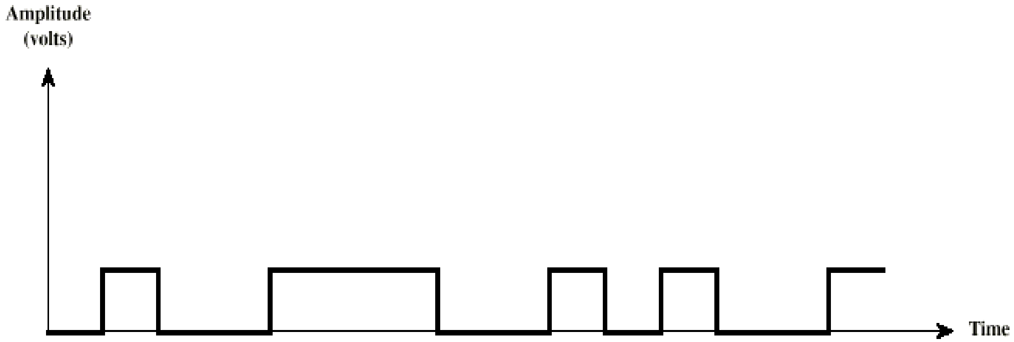


(b) Square wave

NONPERIODIC SIGNALS



(a) Continuous



(b) Discrete

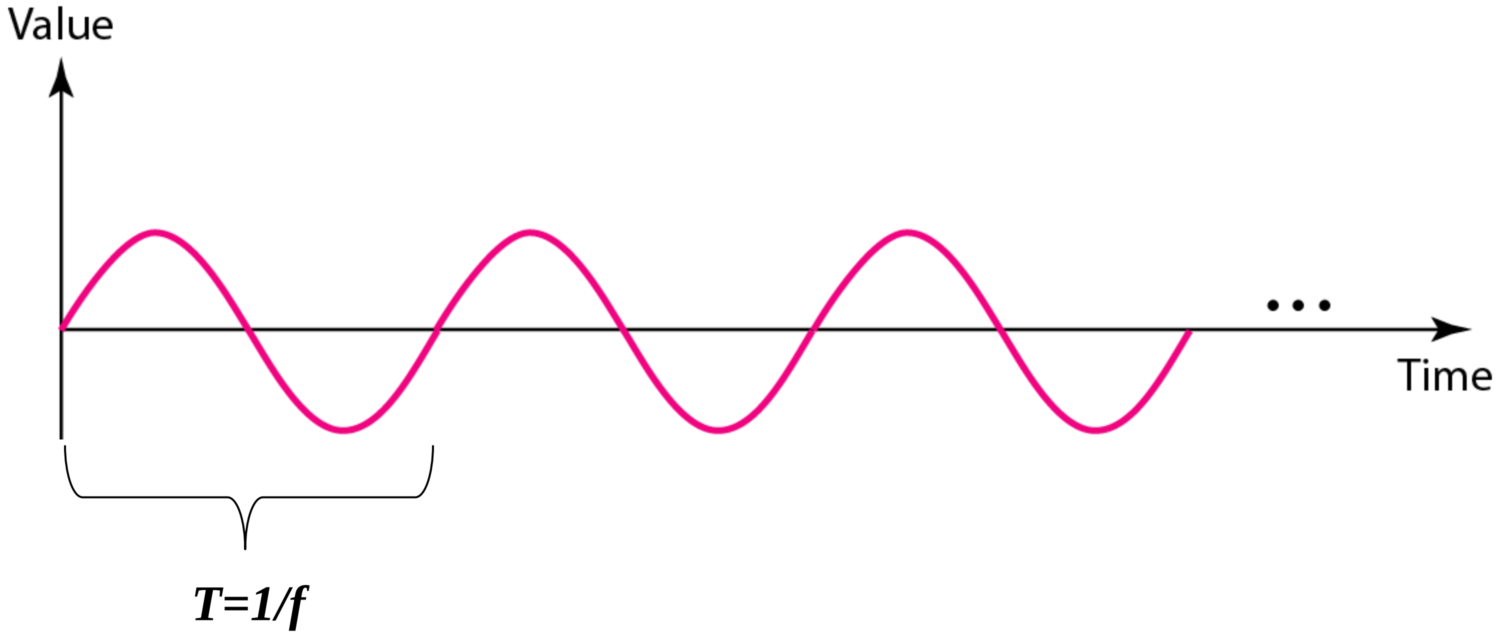
3-2 PERIODIC ANALOG SIGNALS

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.

Topics discussed in this section:

Sine Wave
Wavelength
Time and Frequency Domain
Composite Signals
Bandwidth

Figure 3.3 *A sine wave*



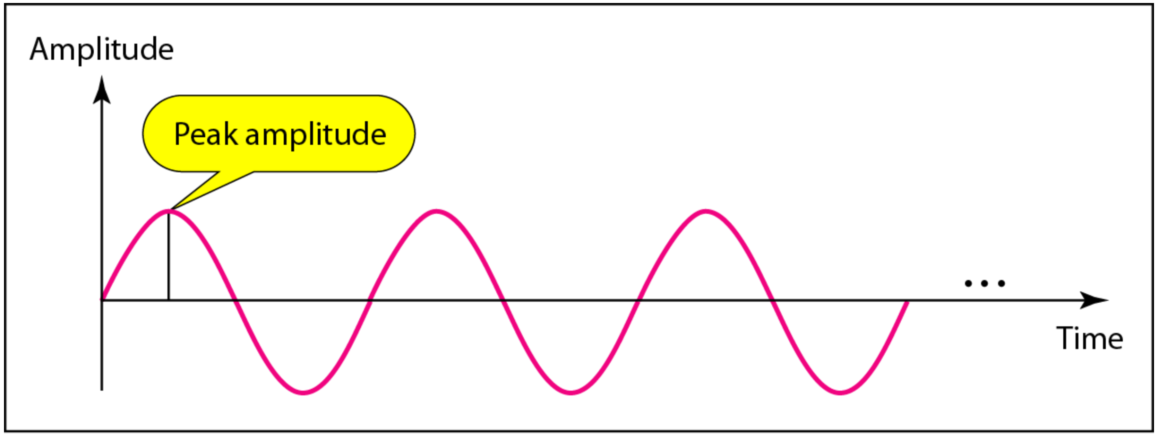
Sine wave parameters

peak amplitude (A)
- maximum strength of signal
- volts

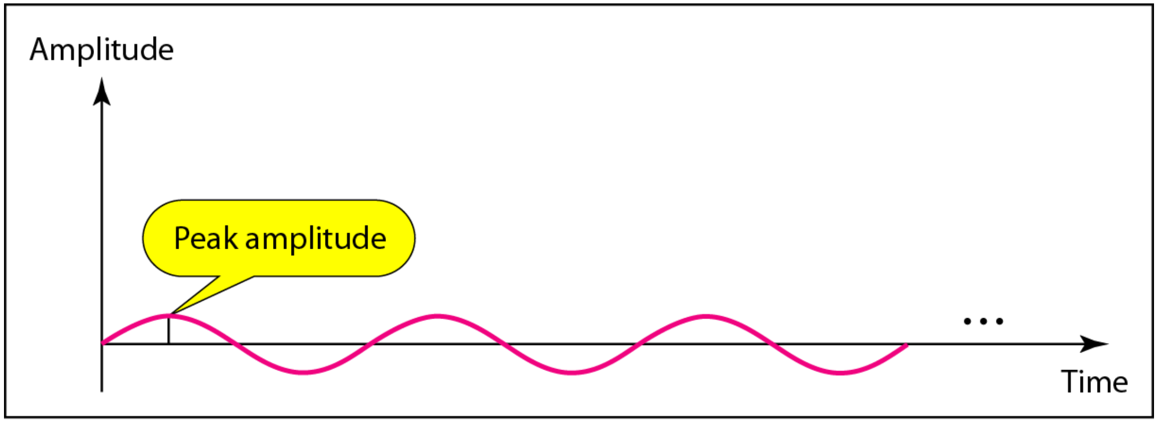
frequency (f)
- rate of change of signal
- Hertz (Hz) or cycles per second
- period = time for one repetition (T)
- $T = 1/f$

phase (ϕ)
- relative position in time

Figure 3.4 *Two signals with the same phase and frequency, but different amplitudes*



a. A signal with high peak amplitude



b. A signal with low peak amplitude

Example 3.1

The power in your house can be represented by a sine wave with a peak amplitude of 155 to 170 V. However, it is common knowledge that the voltage of the power in U.S. homes is 110 to 120 V. This discrepancy is due to the fact that these are root mean square (rms) values. The signal is squared and then the average amplitude is calculated. The peak value is equal to 2-1/2 × rms value

Example 3.2

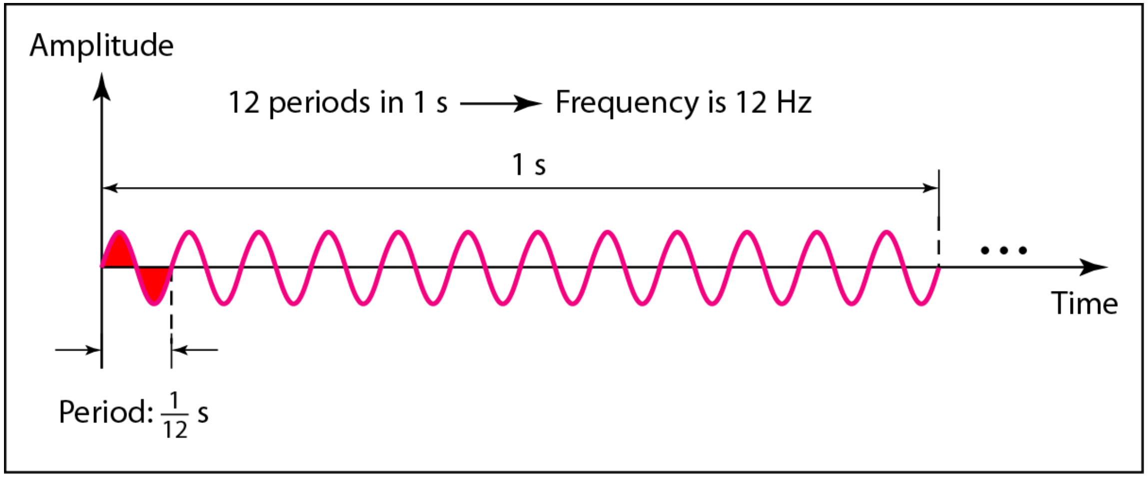
The voltage of a battery is a constant; this constant value can be considered a sine wave, as we will see later. For example, the peak value of an AA battery is normally 1.5 V.

Note

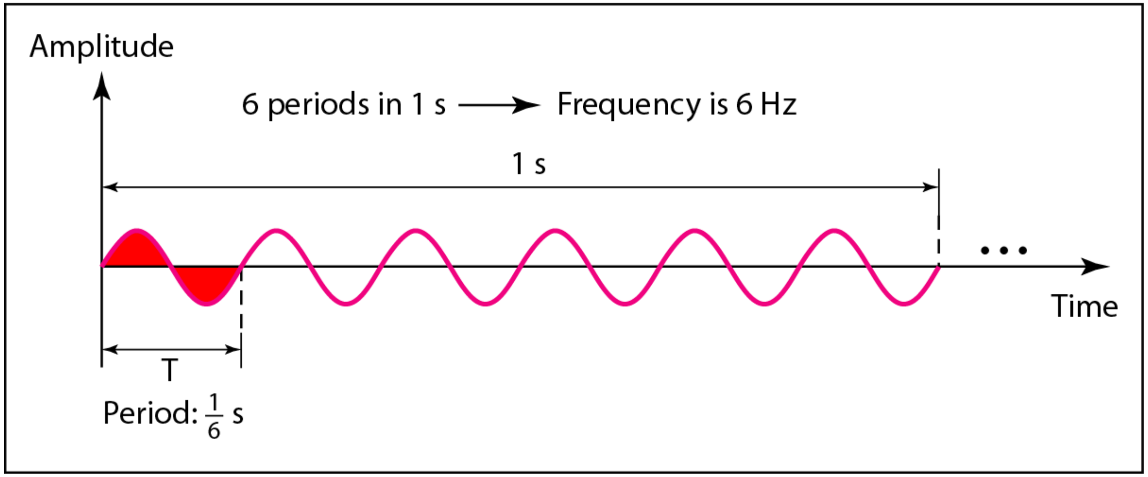
Frequency and period are the inverse of each other.

$$f = \frac{1}{T} \qquad \text{and} \qquad T = \frac{1}{f}$$

Figure 3.5 *Two signals with the same amplitude and phase, 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***

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 3.3

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

f = 60Hz = 1/f = 1/60 sec = 0.0166 sec = 16.6 ms

Example 3.4

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:.

100mili sec = 100 x 10^3 micro sec = 10^5 micro sec

Note

Frequency is the rate of change with respect to time.

Change in a short span of time means high frequency.

Change over a long span of time means low frequency.

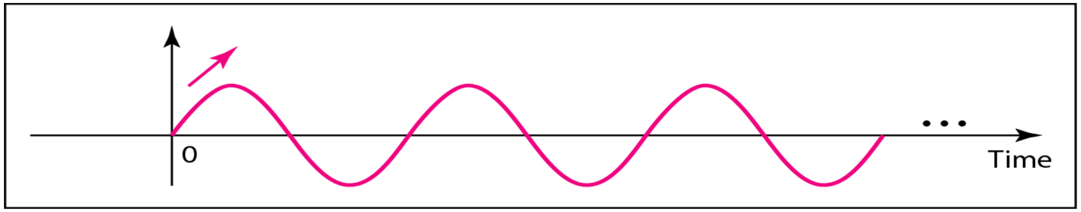
Note

If a signal does not change at all, its frequency is zero.
If a signal changes instantaneously, its frequency is infinite.

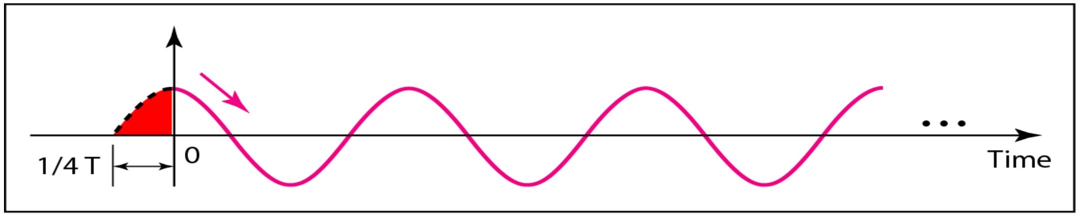
Note

Phase describes the position of the waveform relative to time 0.

Figure 3.6 *Three sine waves with the same amplitude and frequency, but different phases*

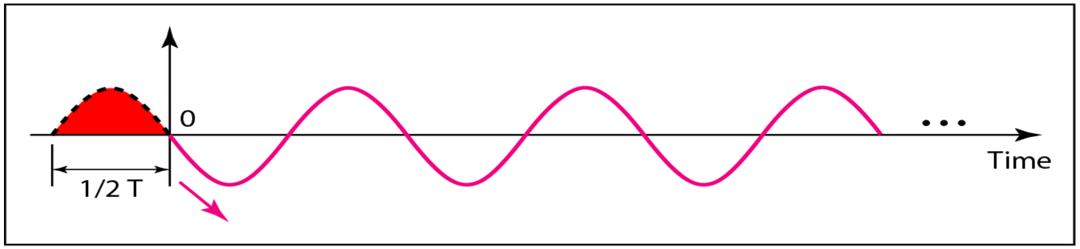


a. 0 degrees



b. 90 degrees

π/2 rad



c. 180 degrees

π rad

Phase unit: degree (360^o) or radians (2π rad)

Example 3.6

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

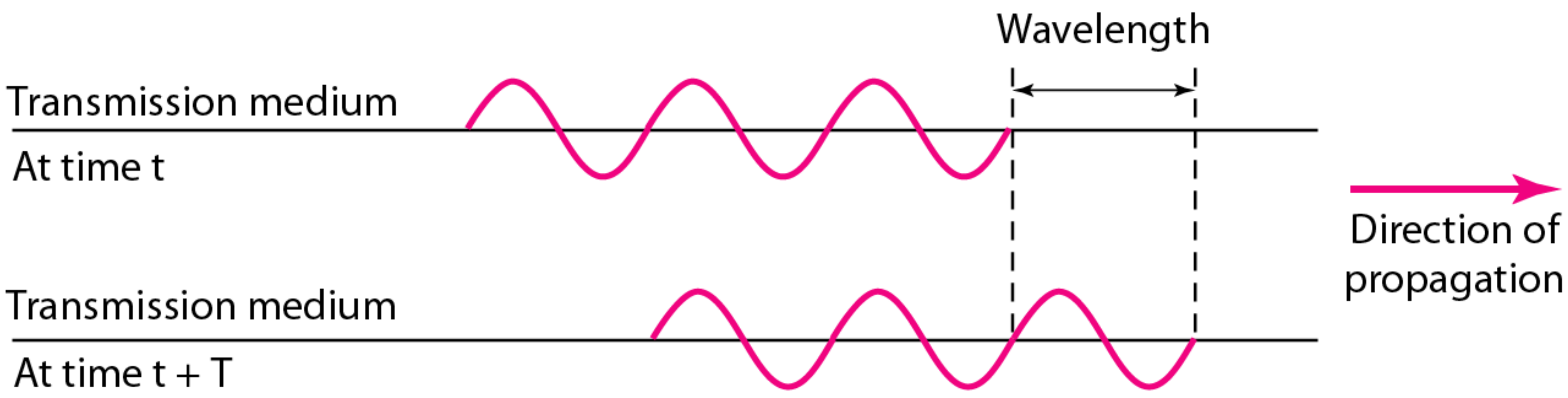
Solution

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

$$360^\circ \Leftrightarrow 2\pi \text{ rad}$$

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

Figure 3.7 *Wavelength and period*



Wavelength (λ)

is distance occupied by one cycle

- Another word, distance is a simple signal travels in one period.

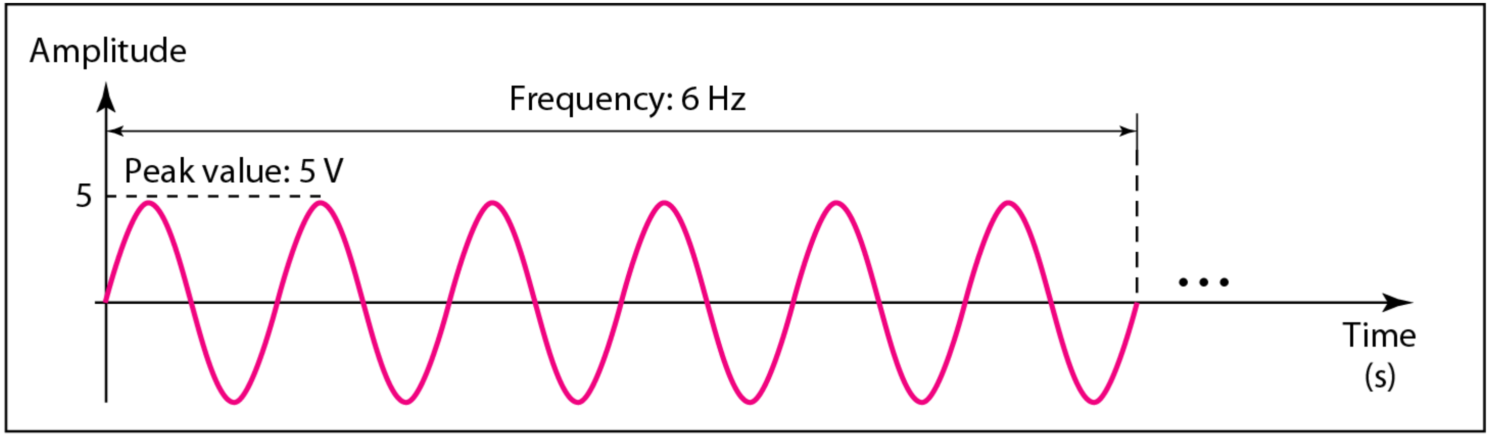
between two points of corresponding phase in two consecutive cycles

assuming signal velocity *v* have $\lambda = vT$

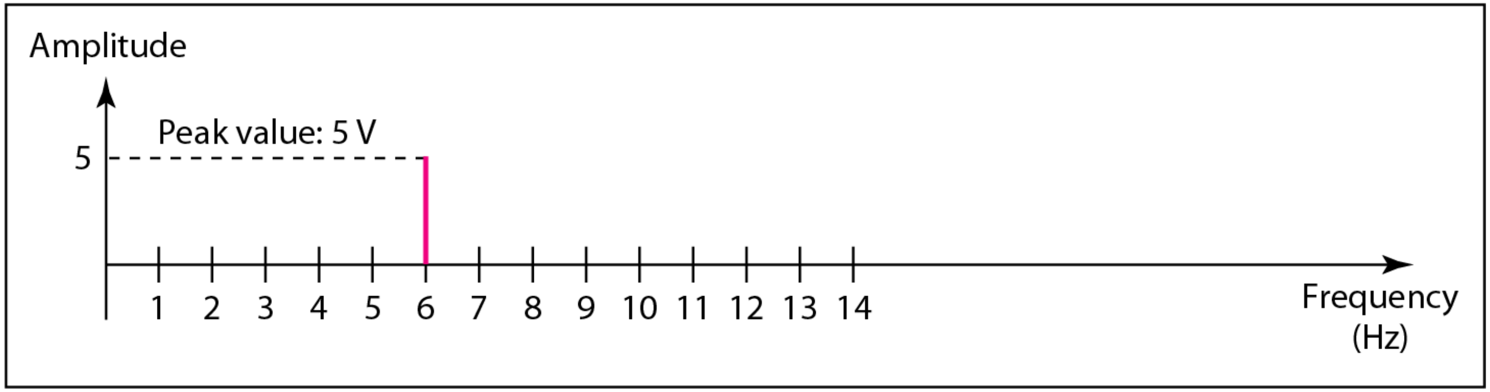
λ standard unit: meter (m)

- especially when *v=c*
  - $c = 3*10^8\ ms^{-1}$ (speed of light in free space)

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



a. A sine wave in the time domain (peak value: 5 V, frequency: 6 Hz)



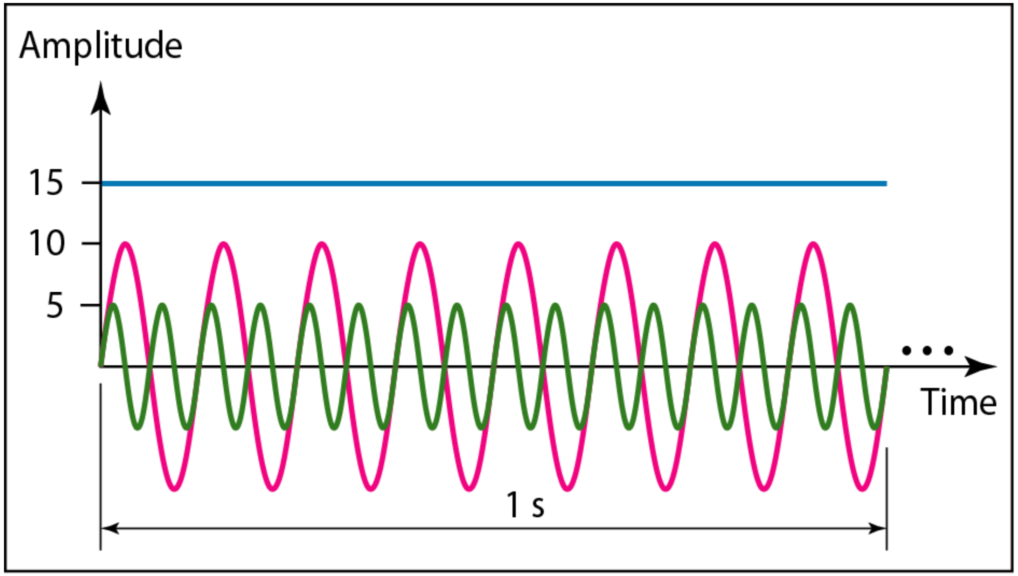
b. The same sine wave in the frequency domain (peak value: 5 V, frequency: 6 Hz)

Note

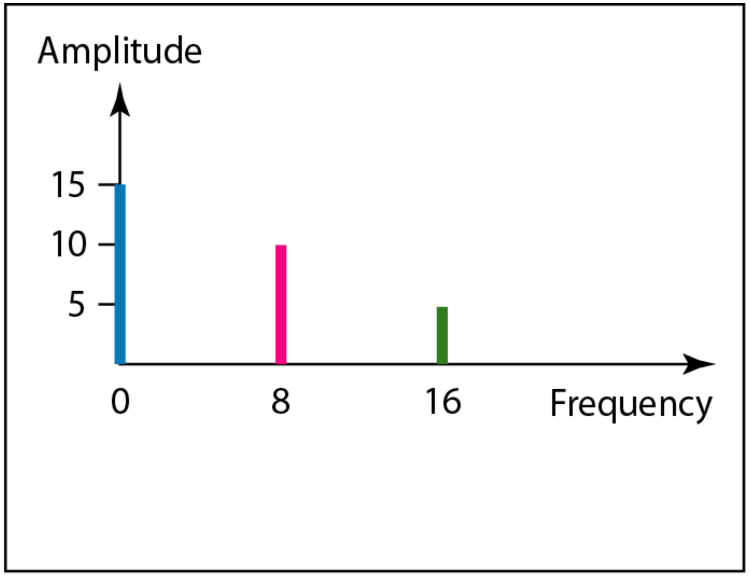
A complete sine wave in the time domain can be represented by one single spike in the frequency domain.

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

The frequency domain is more compact and useful when we are dealing with more than one sine wave. Figure 3.8 shows three sine waves, each with different amplitude and frequency. All can be represented by three spikes in the frequency domain.



a. Time-domain representation of three sine waves with frequencies 0, 8, and 16



b. Frequency-domain representation of the same three signals

Note

A single-frequency sine wave is not useful in data communications; we need to send a composite signal, a signal made of many simple sine waves.

Note

According to Fourier analysis, any composite signal is a combination of simple sine waves with different frequencies, amplitudes, and phases. Fourier analysis is discussed in Appendix C.

Note

**If the composite signal is periodic, the decomposition gives a series of signals with discrete frequencies;
if the composite signal is nonperiodic, the decomposition gives a combination of sine waves with continuous frequencies.**

Figure 3.10 *A composite periodic signal*

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.

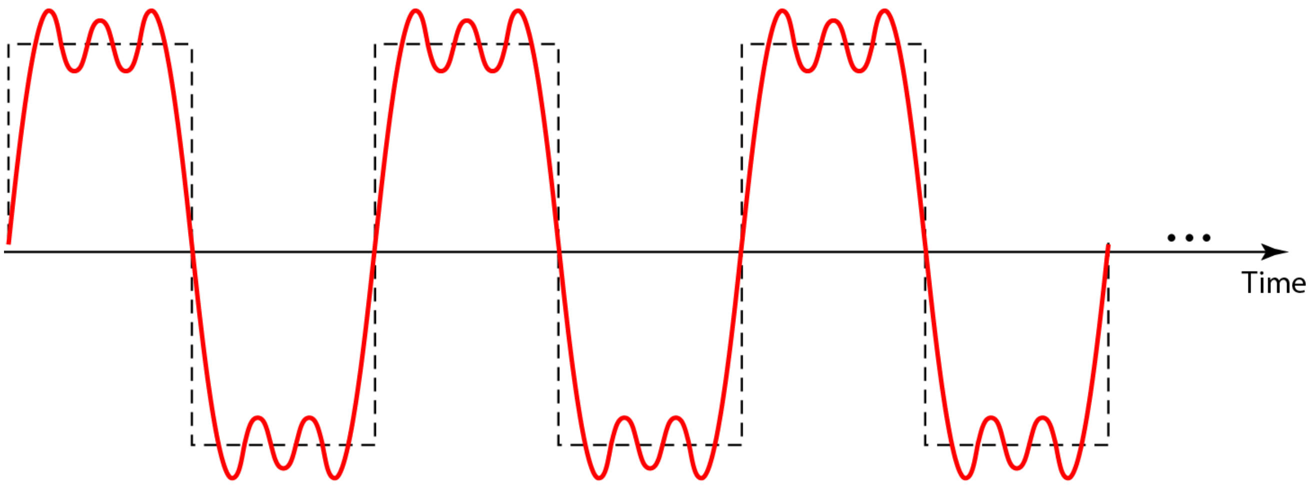
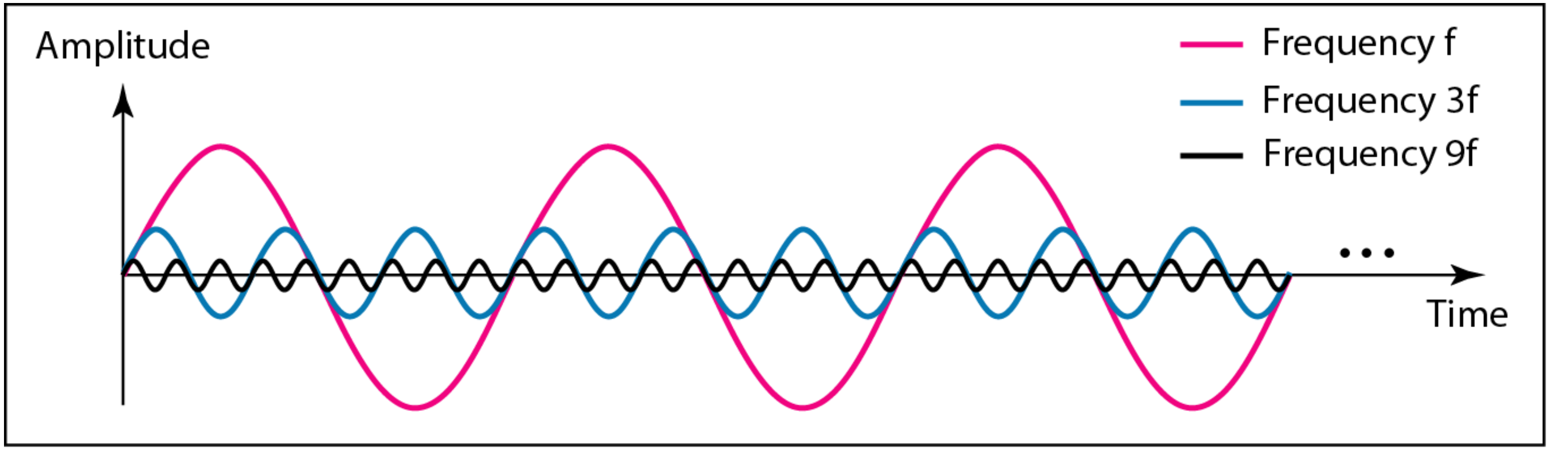
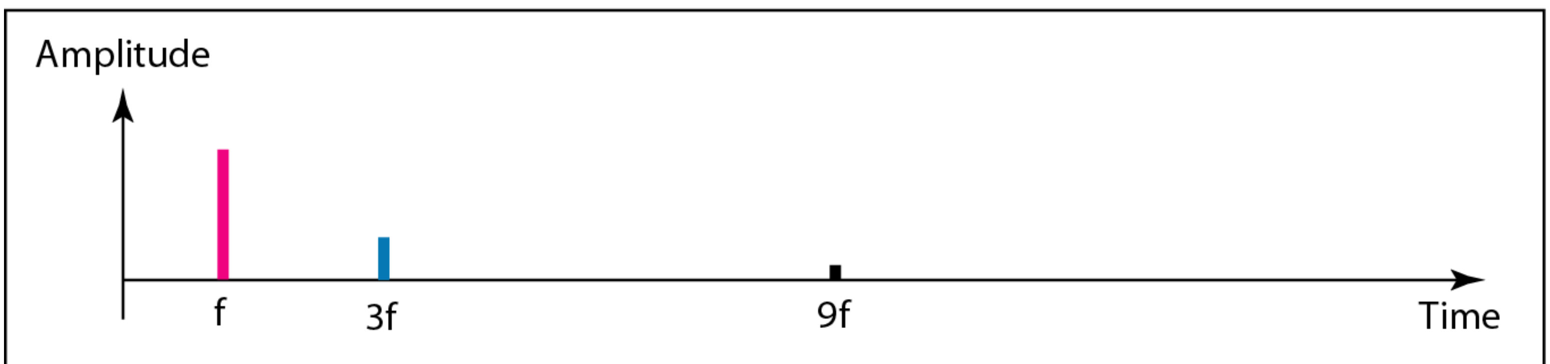


Figure 3.11 *Decomposition of a composite periodic signal in the time and frequency domains*



a. Time-domain decomposition of a composite signal



b. Frequency-domain decomposition of the composite signal

Composite signals

f is called fundamental frequency or first harmonic.

3f and *9f* are the third and ninth harmonics of the composite signal, respectively.

Fourier Series

We use Fourier Series to decompose any periodic signal into its harmonics

Fourier series

$$s(t) = A_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \underset{\boldsymbol{cos}}{\sin}\,(2\pi n f t) + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n \underset{\boldsymbol{sin}}{\cos}\,(2\pi n f t)$$

$$A_0 = \frac{1}{T}\int_0^T s(t)\, dt \qquad A_n = \frac{2}{T}\int_0^T s(t)\cos(2\pi n f t)\, dt$$

$$B_n = \frac{2}{T}\int_0^T s(t)\sin(2\pi n f t)\, dt$$

Coefficients

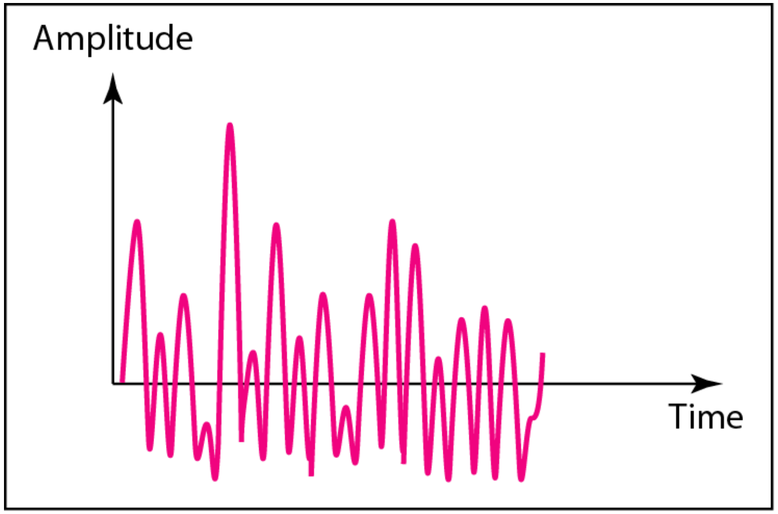
Fourier Series: Periodic Square Function

A good example of Fourier series for several types of signals is in here:

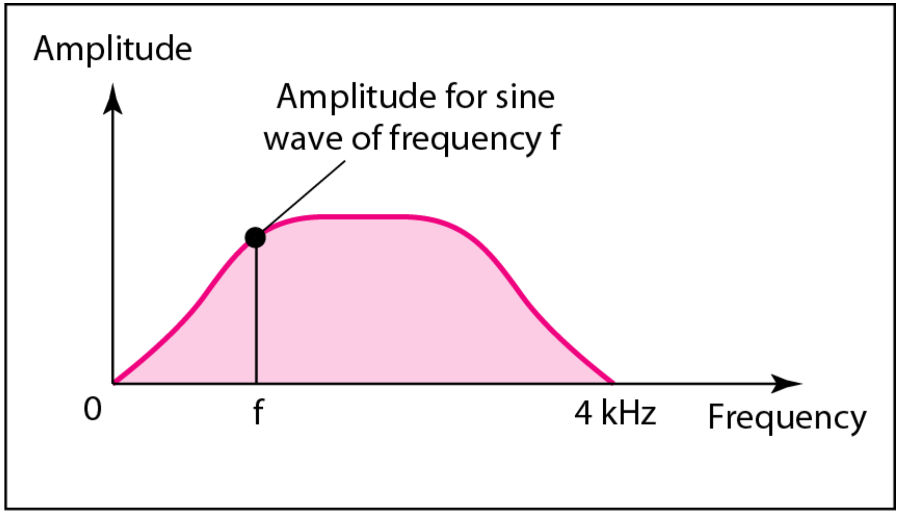
http://www.jhu.edu/~signals/fourier2/index.html.

Figure 3.12 *The time and frequency domains of a nonperiodic signal*

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.



a. Time domain



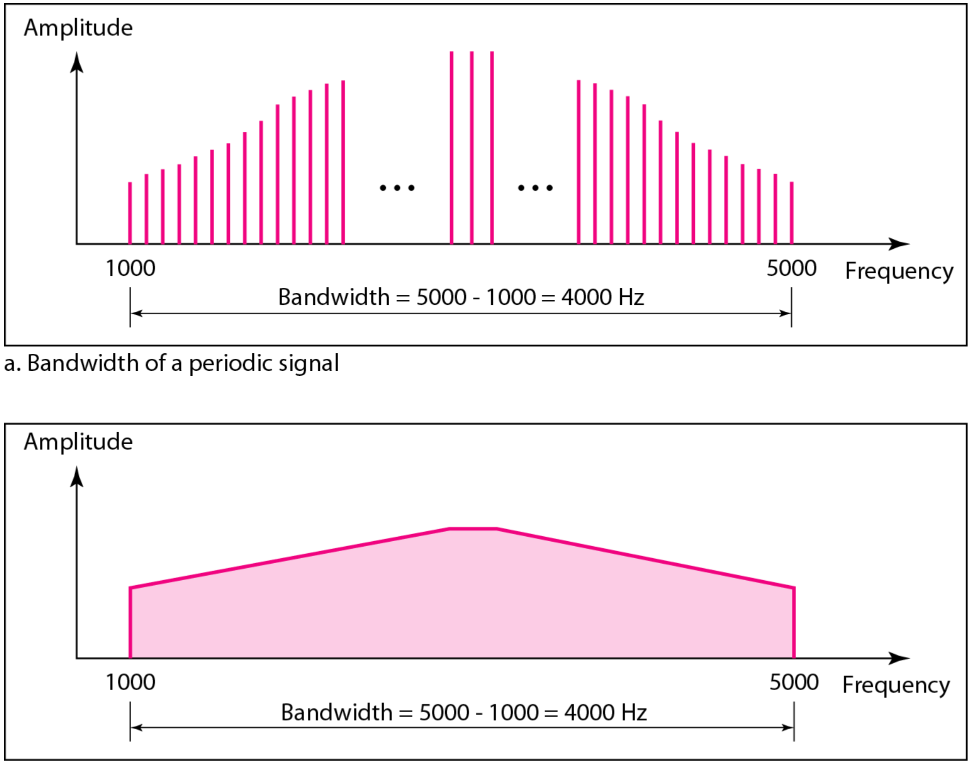
b. Frequency domain

Human voice frequency is between 0Hz and 4kHz

Note

The bandwidth of a composite signal is the difference between the highest and the lowest frequencies contained in that signal.

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.

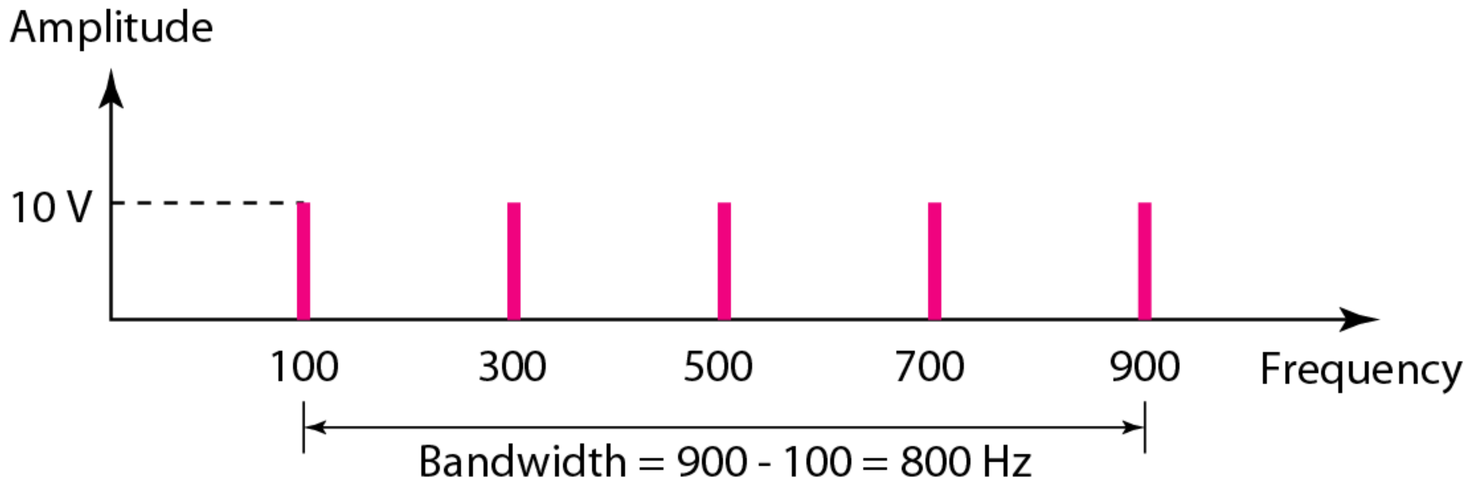
Solution

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

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

Figure 3.14 *The bandwidth for Example 3.10*

The spectrum has only five spikes, at 100, 300, 500, 700, and 900 Hz.



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.

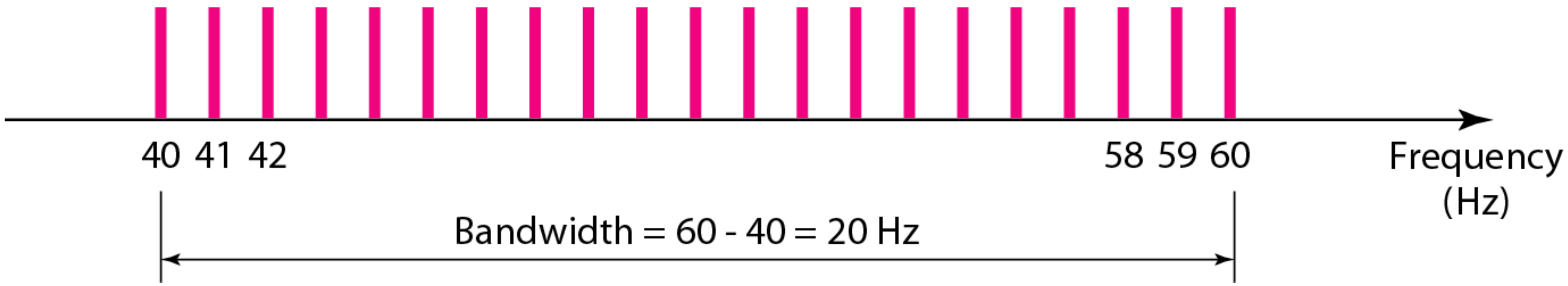
Solution

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

$$\boxed{B = f_h - f_l \quad \Rightarrow \quad 20 = 60 - f_l \quad \Rightarrow \quad f_l = 60 - 20 = 40 \text{ Hz}}$$

The spectrum contains all integer frequencies. We show this by a series of spikes (see Figure 3.14).

Figure 3.15 *The bandwidth for Example 3.11*



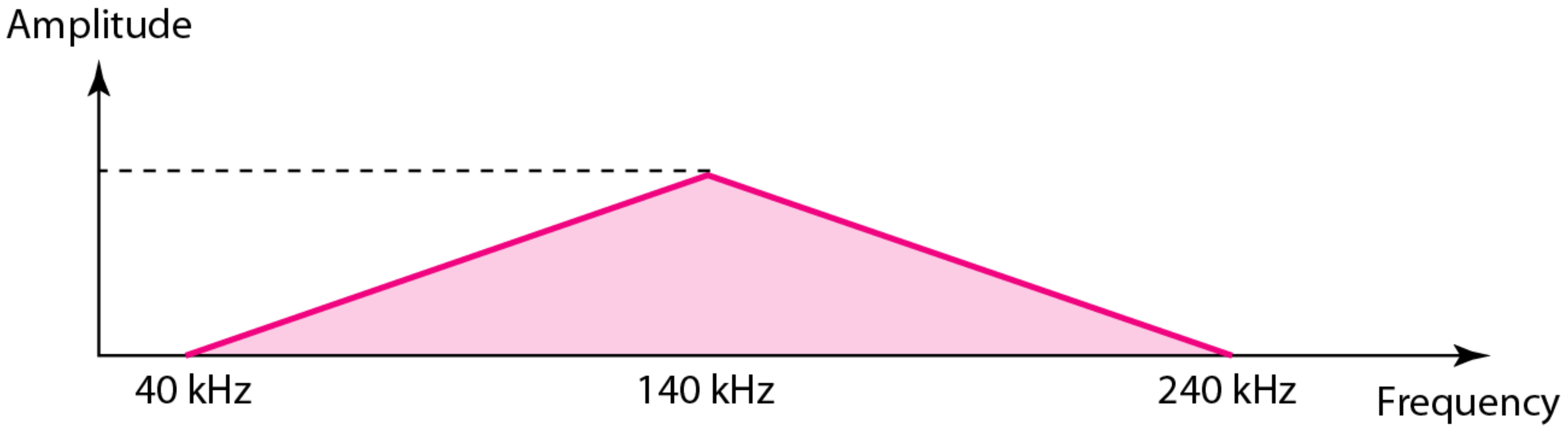
Example 3.12

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. From 0v to the 20v, the spectrum linear increase or decrease. Draw the frequency domain of the signal.

Solution

The lowest frequency must be at 40 kHz and the highest at 240 kHz. Figure 3.15 shows the frequency domain and the bandwidth.

Figure 3.16 *The bandwidth for Example 3.12*



Example 3.13

An example of a nonperiodic composite signal is the signal propagated by an AM radio station. In the United States, each AM radio station is assigned a 10-kHz bandwidth. The total bandwidth dedicated to AM radio ranges from 530 to 1700 kHz. (remember voice frequency is 0~4KHz)

Example 3.14

Another example of a nonperiodic composite signal is the signal propagated by an FM radio station. In the United States, each FM radio station is assigned a 200-kHz bandwidth. The total bandwidth dedicated to FM radio ranges from 88 to 108 MHz.

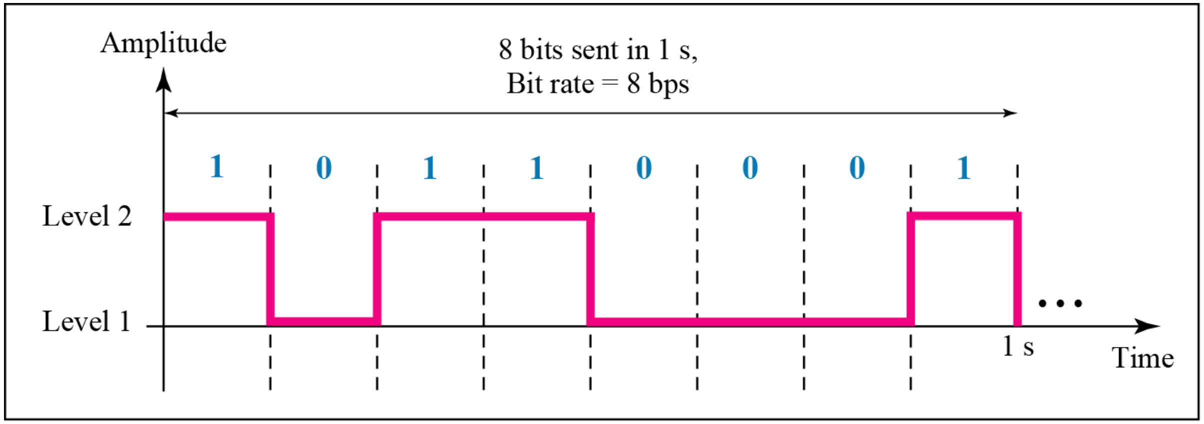
3-3 DIGITAL SIGNALS

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.

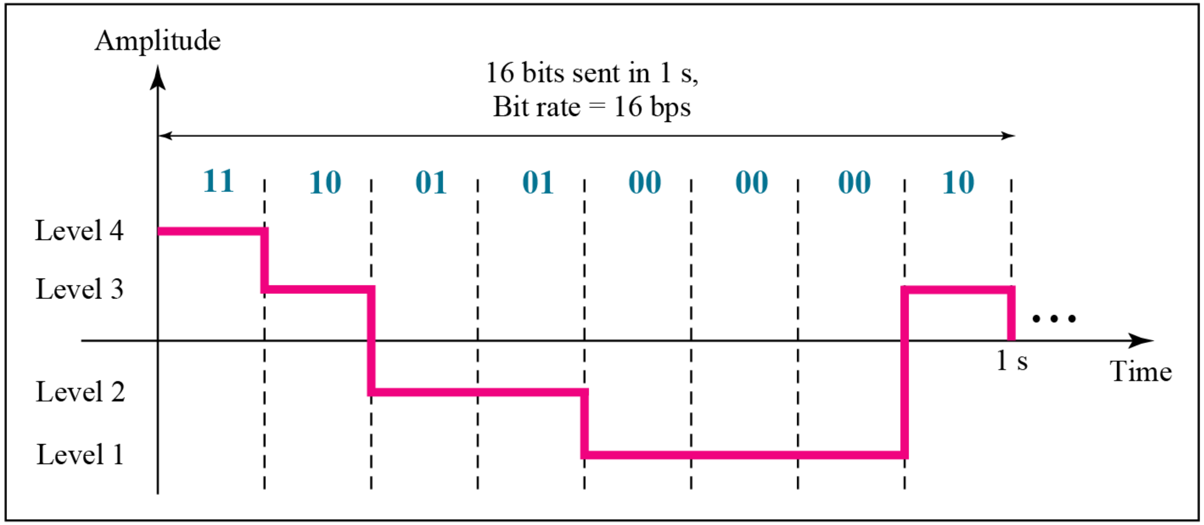
Topics discussed in this section:

Bit Rate
Bit Length
Digital Signal as a Composite Analog Signal
Application Layer

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

Note

Appendix C reviews information about exponential and logarithmic functions.

Example 3.16

A digital signal has eight levels. How many bits are needed per level? We calculate the number of bits from the formula

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

Each signal level is represented by 3 bits.

Bit Rate: number of bits sent in 1 second.
bps: bit per second

Example 3.18

Assume we need to download text documents at the rate of 100 pages per minute. What is the required bit rate of the channel? (assuming each page is an average of 24 lines with 80 characters in each line, and one character requires 8 bits)

Solution

the bit rate is (the solution on text book is wrong!)

$$24 \times 80 \times 8 \times 100 \text{ bit/min} = \frac{24 \times 80 \times 8 \times 100}{60} \text{ bit/sec}$$

$$= 25{,}600 \text{ bps} = 25.6 \text{ kbps}$$

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 period). We assume that each sample requires 8 bits to represent. What is the required bit rate?

Solution

The bit rate can be calculated as

$$2 \times 4000 \times 8 = 64000 \text{ bps} = 64 \text{ kbps}$$

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. There are 1920 by 1080 pixels per screen, and the screen is renewed 30 times per second. 24 bits represents one color pixel.

1920 x 1080 x 24 x 30 bit/sec = 1,492,992,000 bps = 1.5Gbps

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

Figure 3.18 ***The time and frequency domains of periodic and nonperiodic digital signals***

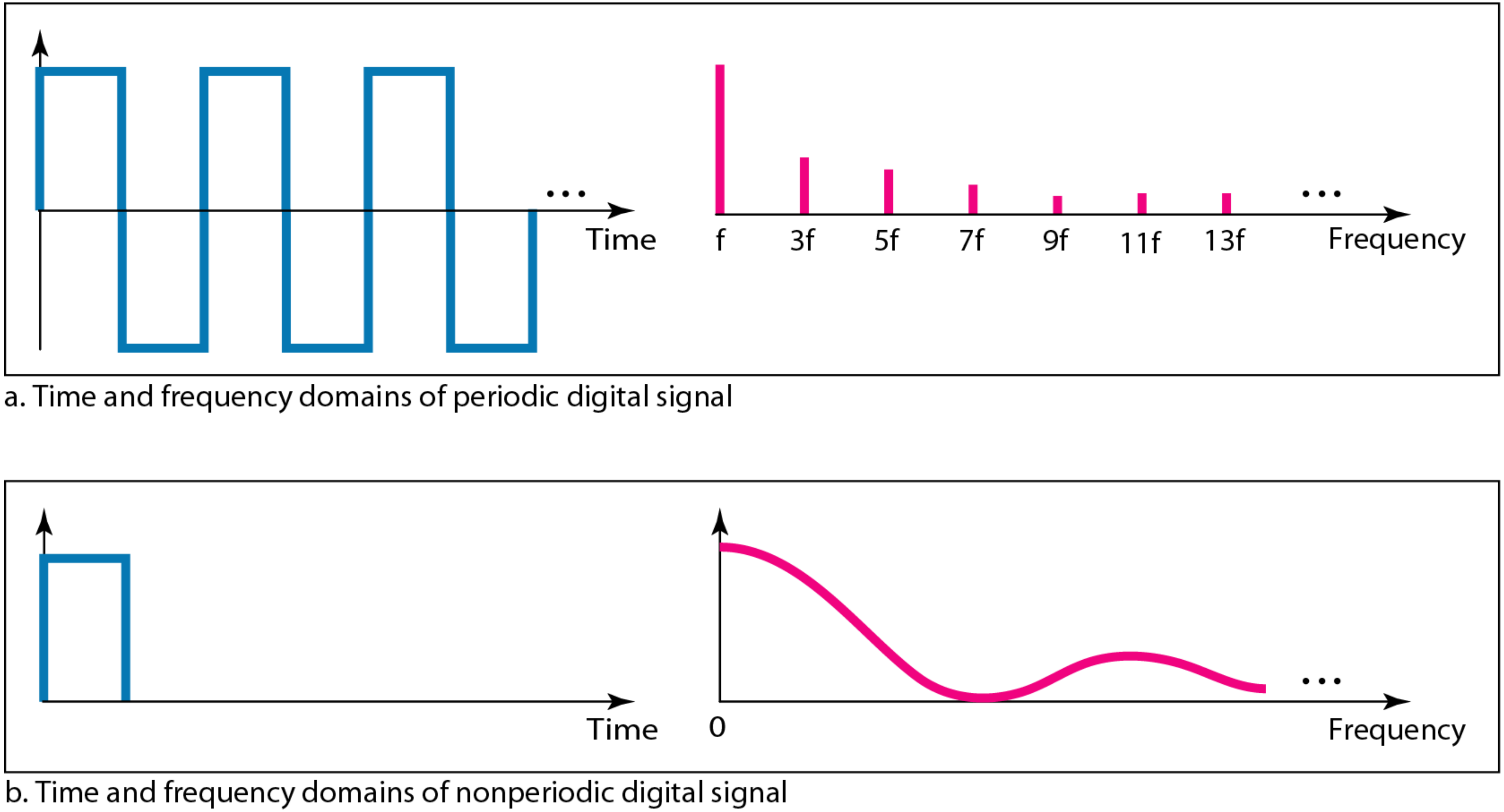
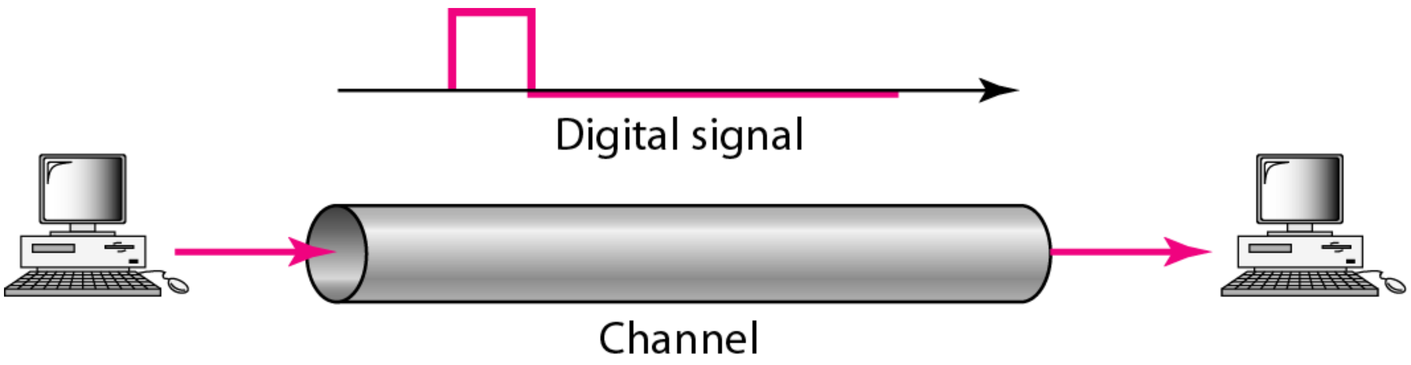


Figure 3.19 *Baseband transmission*

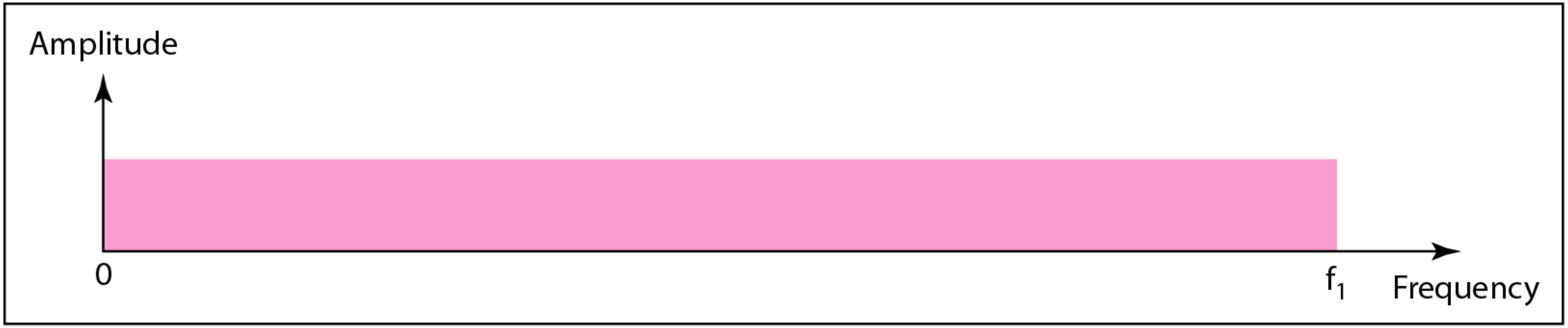


Baseband Transmission: sending digital signal without changing digital to an analog signal.

Baseband communication requires a low-pass channel

Example: Baseband Ethernet such as 10Base5, 100BaseT

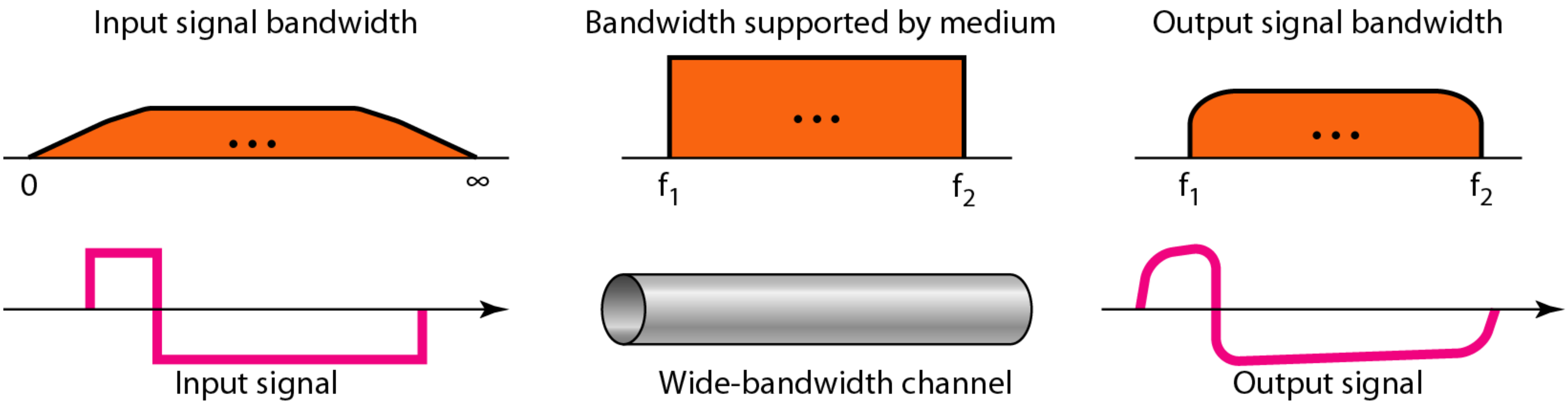
Figure 3.20 *Bandwidths of two low-pass channels*



a. Low-pass channel, wide bandwidth

b. Low-pass channel, narrow bandwidth

Figure 3.21 *Baseband transmission using a dedicated medium*



Note

Baseband transmission of a digital signal that preserves the shape of the digital signal is possible only if we have a low-pass channel with an infinite or very wide bandwidth.

Example 3.21

An example of a dedicated channel where the entire bandwidth of the medium is used as one single channel is a LAN. Almost every wired LAN today uses a dedicated channel for two stations communicating with each other, the other stations in LAN need to refrain from sending data. We study LANs in Chapter 14.

Example: Ethernet, Optical fiber

Figure 3.22 *Rough approximation of a digital signal using the first harmonic (first harmonic frequency is N/2, why?)*

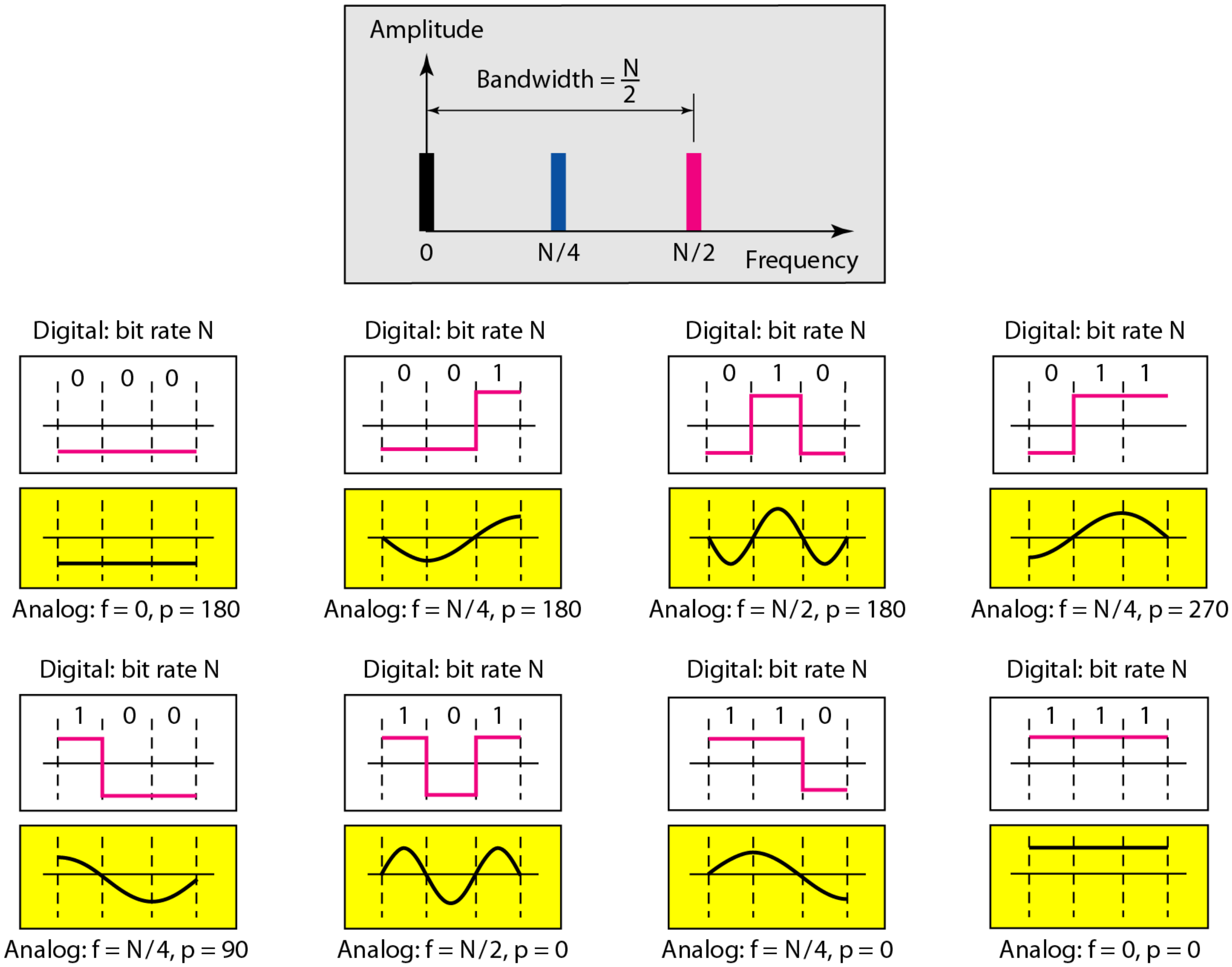
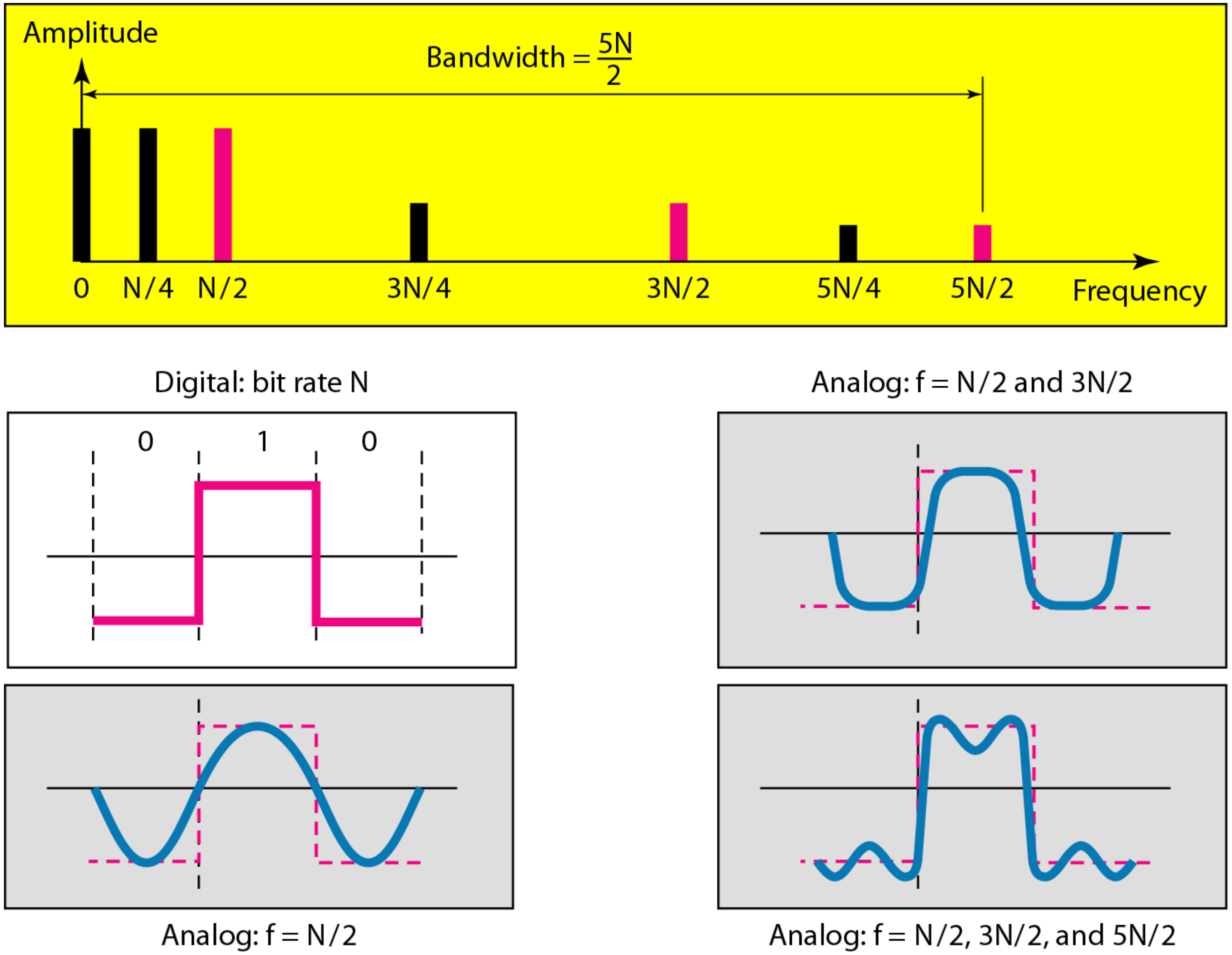


Figure 3.23 *Better approximation: Simulating a digital signal with first three harmonics*



Note

In baseband transmission, the required bandwidth is proportional to the bit rate; if we need to send bits faster, we need more bandwidth.

Table 3.2 ***Bandwidth requirements for different bitrate***

Bit Rate	*Harmonic 1*	*Harmonics 1, 3*	*Harmonics 1, 3, 5*
$n = 1$ kbps	$B = 500$ Hz	$B = 1.5$ kHz	$B = 2.5$ kHz
$n = 10$ kbps	$B = 5$ kHz	$B = 15$ kHz	$B = 25$ kHz
$n = 100$ kbps	$B = 50$ kHz	$B = 150$ kHz	$B = 250$ kHz

Example 3.22

What is the required bandwidth of a low-pass channel if we need to send 1 Mbps by using baseband transmission?

Solution

The answer depends on the accuracy desired.

a. The minimum bandwidth, is B = bit rate /2, or 500 kHz.

b. A better solution is to use the first and the third harmonics with B = 3 × 500 kHz = 1.5 MHz.

c. Still a better solution is to use the first, third, and fifth harmonics with B = 5 × 500 kHz = 2.5 MHz.

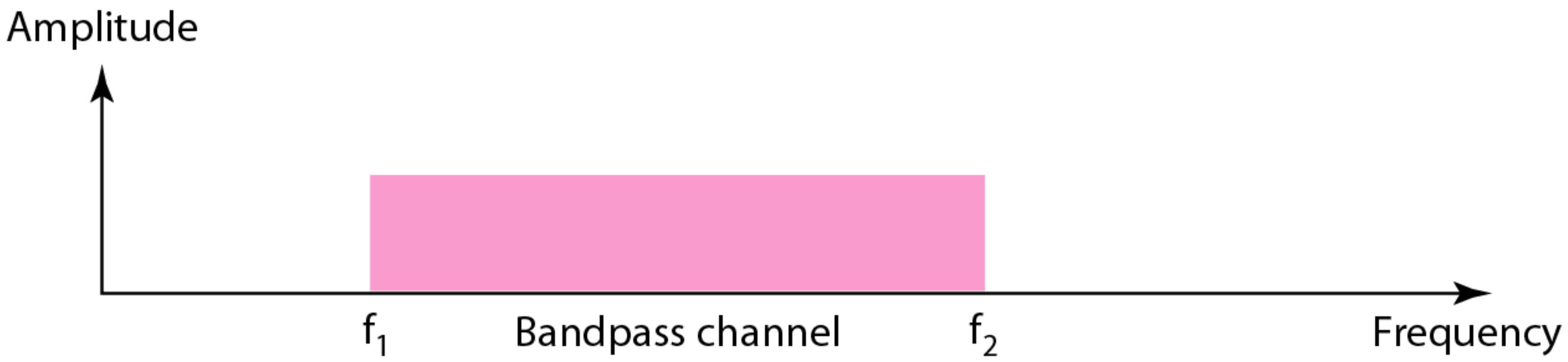
Example 3.22

We have a low-pass channel with bandwidth 100 kHz. What is the maximum bit rate of this channel?

Solution

The maximum bit rate can be achieved if we use the first harmonic. The bit rate is 2 times the available bandwidth, or 200 kbps.

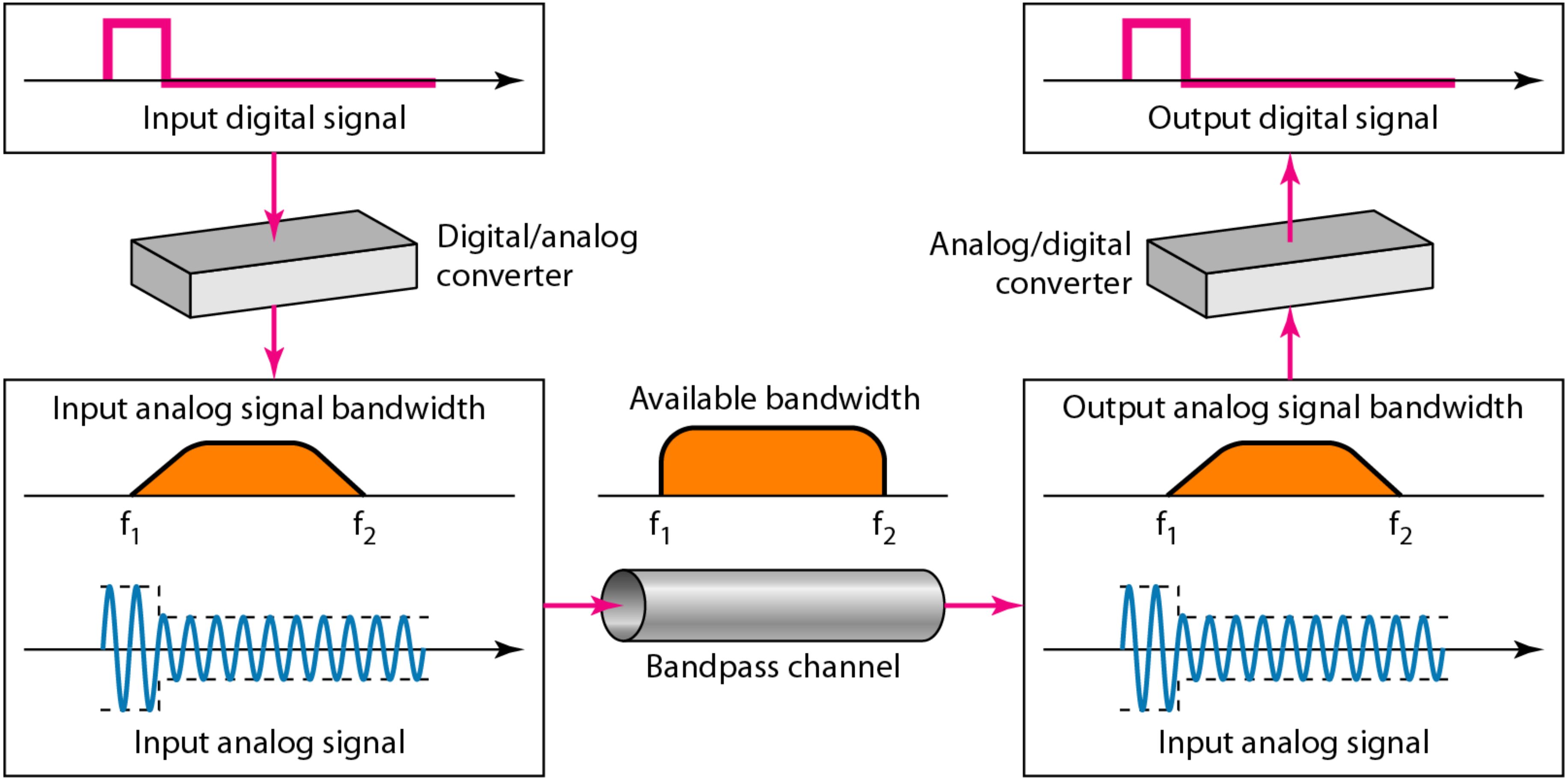
Figure 3.24 *Bandwidth of a bandpass channel*



Note

If the available channel is a bandpass channel, we cannot send the digital signal directly to the channel (why?); we need to convert the digital signal to an analog signal before transmission.

Figure 3.25 *Modulation of a digital signal for transmission on a bandpass channel*



Example: AM radio

Example 3.24

An example of broadband transmission using modulation is the sending of computer data through a telephone subscriber line, the line connecting a resident to the central telephone office. These lines are designed to carry voice with a limited bandwidth. The channel is considered a bandpass channel (voice is 0-4kHz, why not baseband channel?). The converter, in this case, is called a modem (modulator-demodulator)

Example 3.25

A second example is the digital cellular telephone. For better reception, digital cellular phones convert the analog voice signal to a digital signal (see Chapter 16).

But in transmission, digital data is modulated for going through the bandpass wireless channel.

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.

Topics discussed in this section:

Attenuation
Distortion
Noise

Figure 3.26 *Causes of impairment*

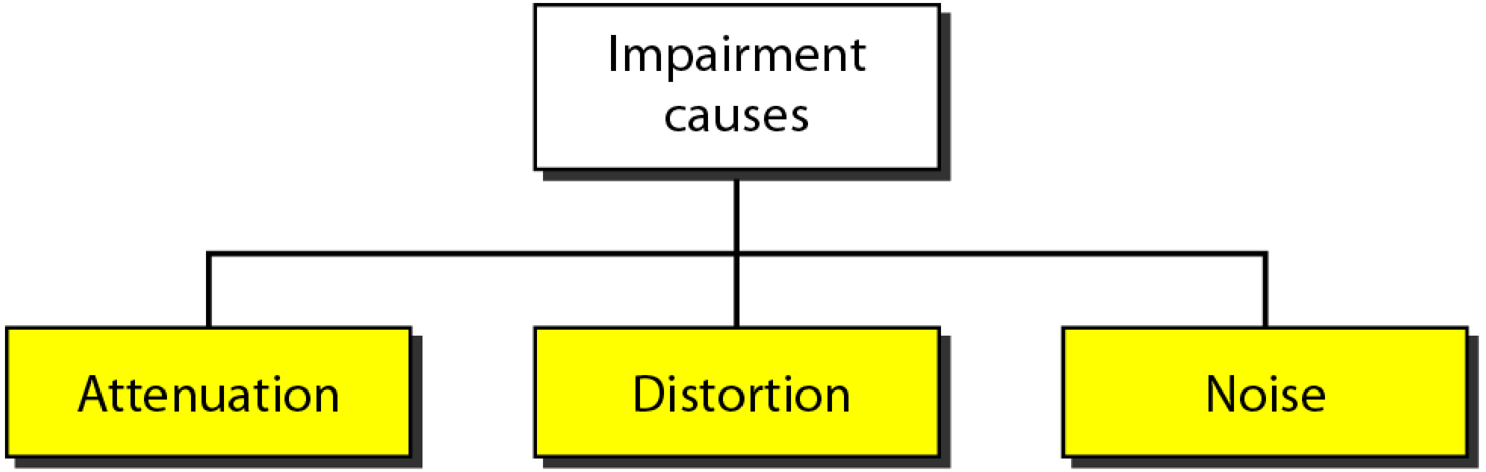
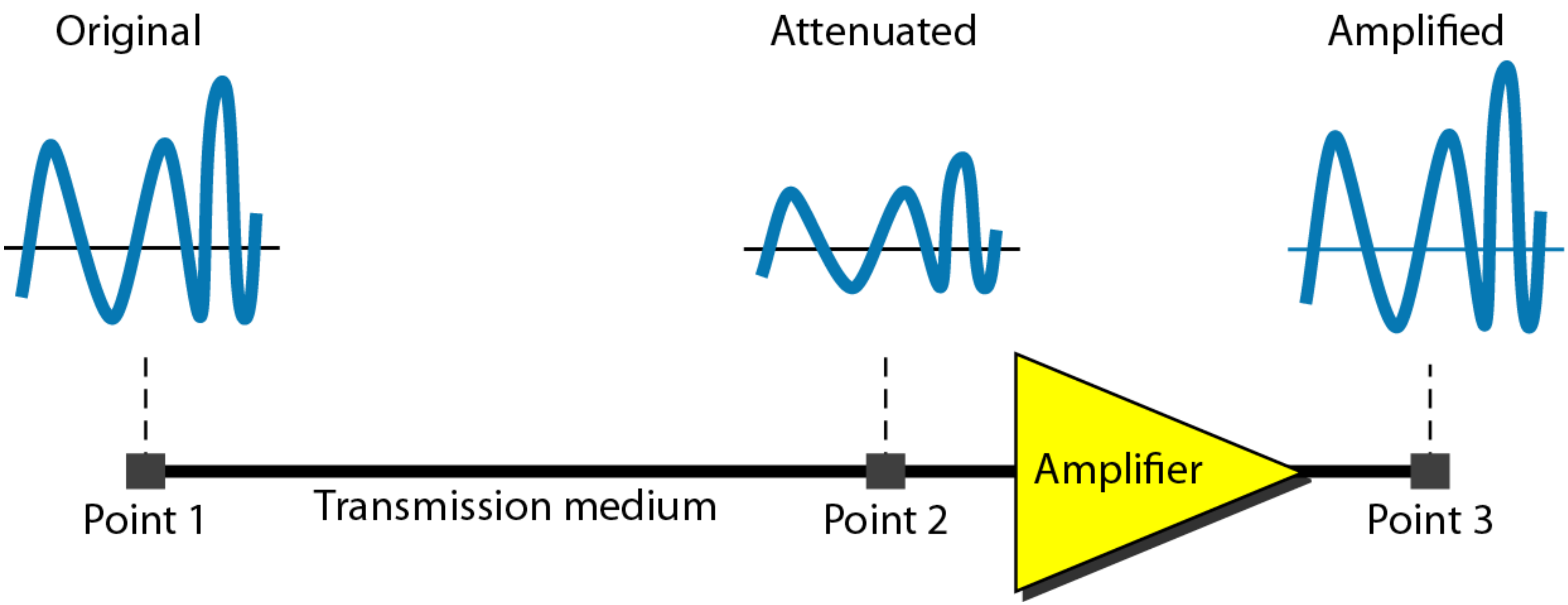


Figure 3.27 *Attenuation: loss of energy*



Attenuation: Decibel

Measures the relative strength of two signals.

Or one signal at two different points (attenuation).

P1,P2: power of signal at points 1 and 2, respectively.

$$dB = 10\log_{10}\frac{P2}{P1}$$

P2: Power at receiver

P1: Power at sender

Attenuation: Decibel

Some books define dB in term of voltage of signal

This is because $\boxed{dB = 20log_{10}\frac{V_2}{V_1}}$ of voltage

Example 3.26

Suppose a signal travels through a transmission medium and its power is reduced to one-half. This means that P_2 is $(1/2)P_1$. In this case, the attenuation (loss of power) can be calculated as

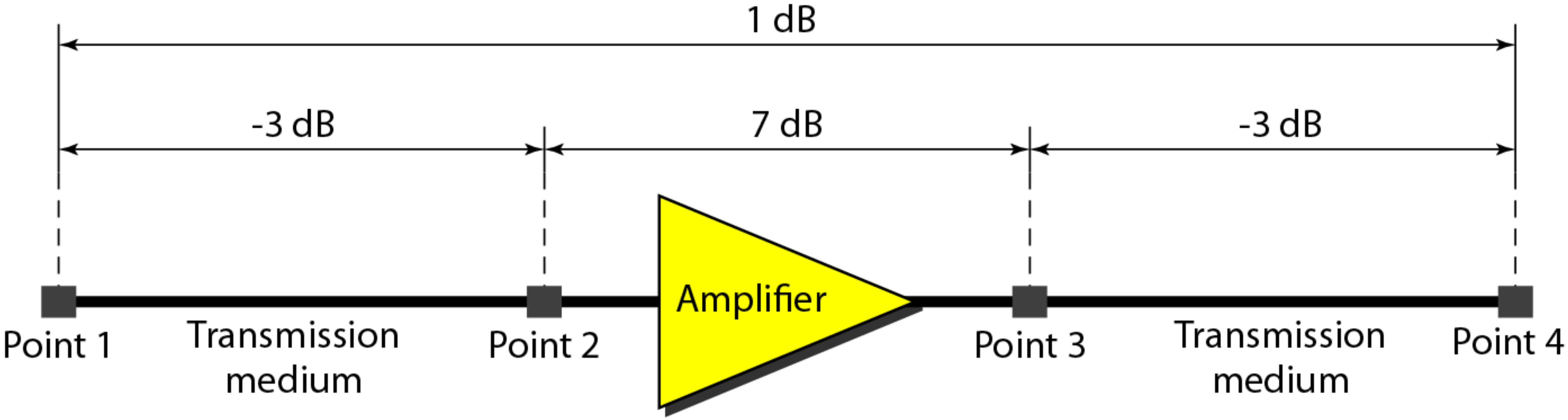
A loss of 3 dB (–3 dB) is equivalent to losing one-half the power. (what does a gain of 3dB means?)

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

Concept: 3dB means power decrease by half (increase by double)
10dB means 10 times increase/decrease

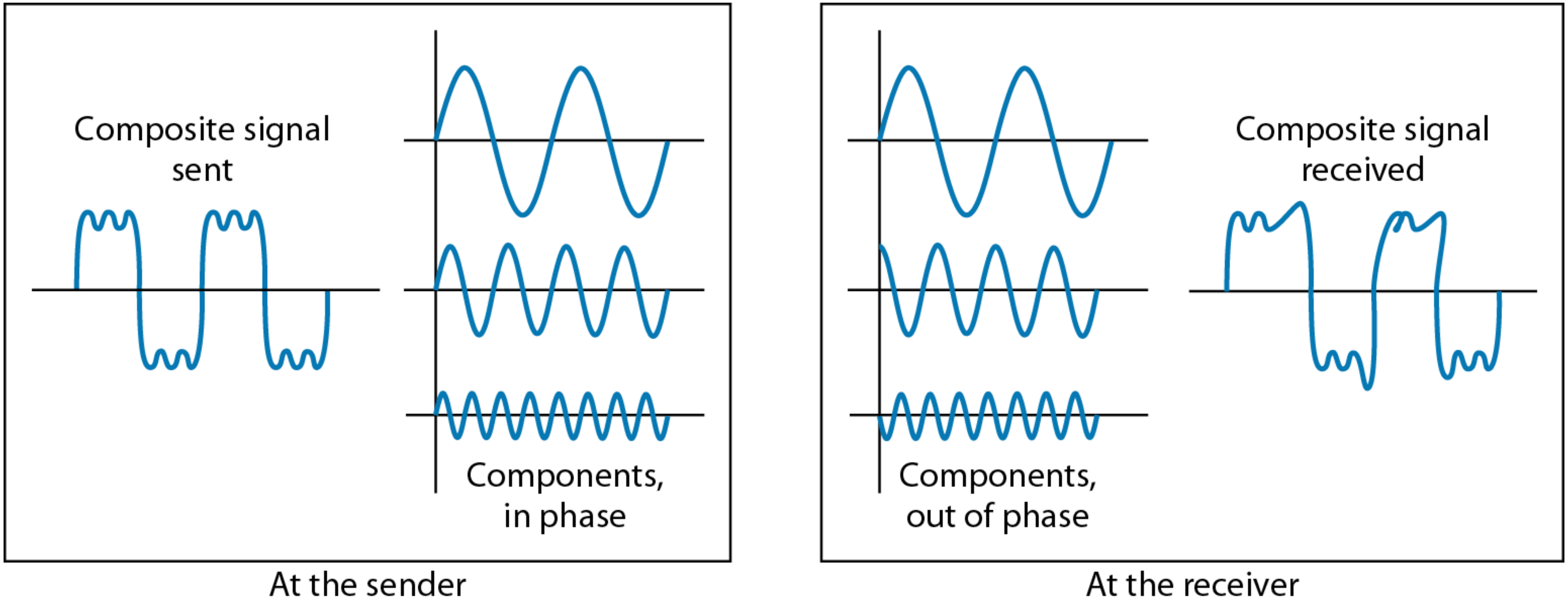
Figure 3.28 *Decibels for Example 3.28*



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 3.27 a signal travels from point 1 to point 4. In this case, the decibel value can be calculated as

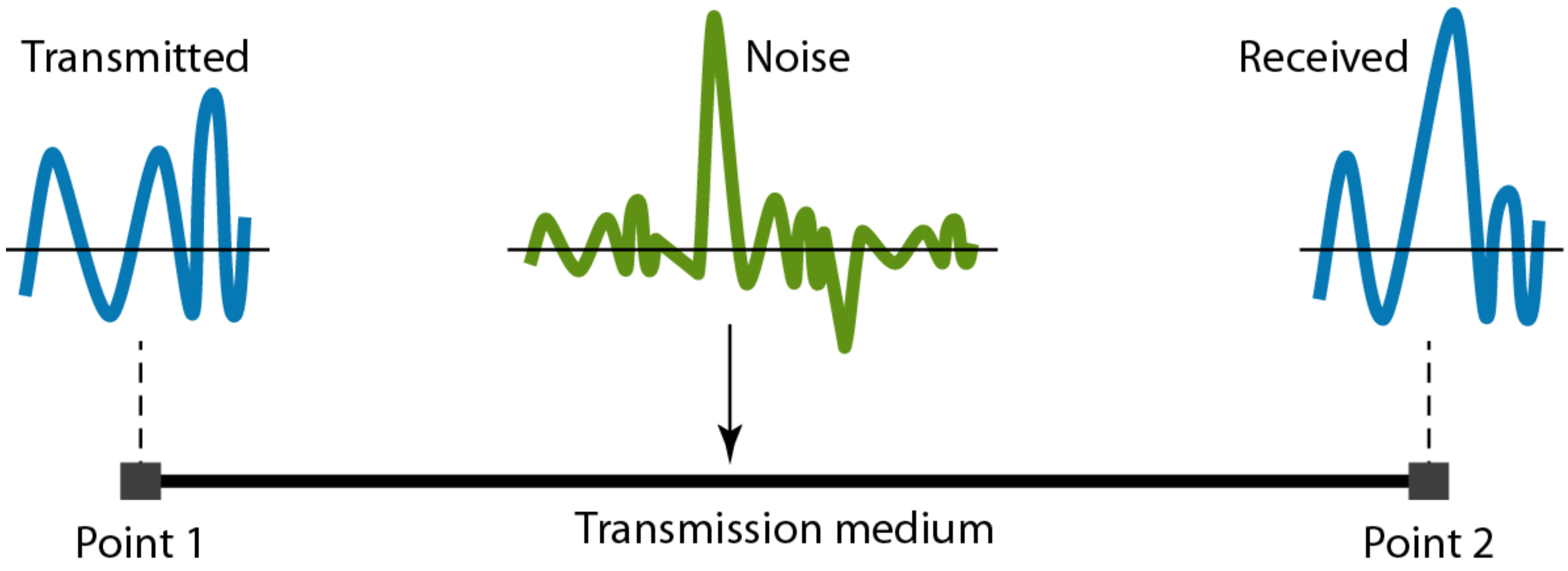
$$\boxed{dB = -3 + 7 - 3 = +1}$$

Figure 3.29 *Distortion*



This is because each frequency signal has its own propagation speed through a medium

Figure 3.30 *Noise*



Signal-to-Noise Ratio (SNR)

$$\boxed{SNR = \frac{avsp}{avnp}}$$

avsp = average signal power

avnp = average noise power

Decibel unit:

$$\boxed{SNR_{dB} = 10\log_{10} SNR}$$

Example 3.32

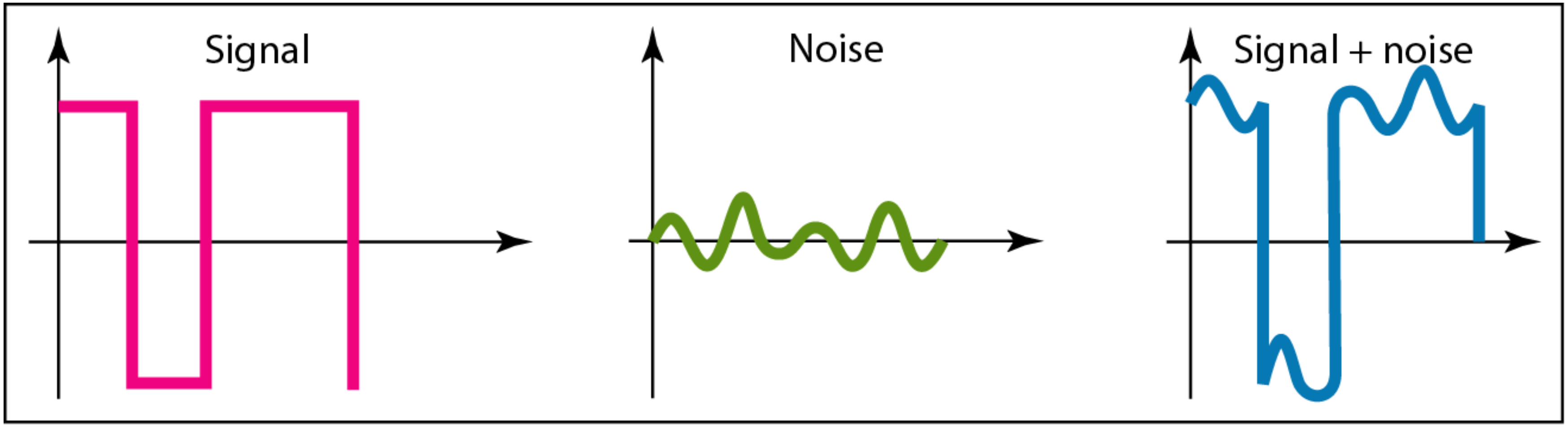
The values of SNR and SNR_{dB} for a noiseless channel are

$$\text{SNR} = \frac{\text{signal power}}{0} = \infty$$

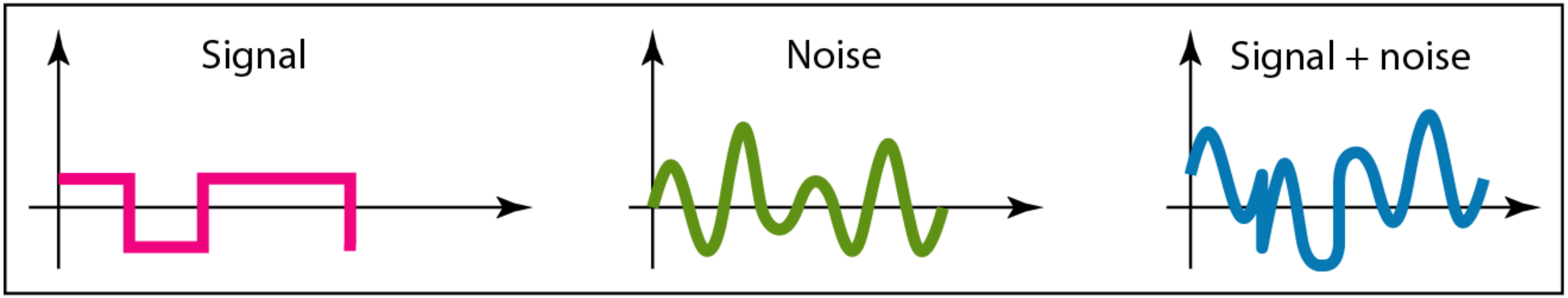
$$\text{SNR}_{\text{dB}} = 10 \log_{10} \infty = \infty$$

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

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



a. Large SNR



b. Small SNR

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. Data rate depends on three factors:

1. The bandwidth available
2. The level of the signals we use
3. The quality of the channel (the level of noise)

Topics discussed in this section:

Noiseless Channel: Nyquist Bit Rate
Noisy Channel: Shannon Capacity
Using Both Limits

Nyquist theorem

For a noiseless channel:

- *Theoretic Max BitRate* $= 2B\log_2 L$
  - B: bandwidth (Hz)
  - L: number of levels

Note

Increasing the levels of a signal may reduce the reliability of the system.

Because the receiver needs better hardware and reception signal to recover the data

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

$$2\,B\log_2 L \rightarrow 2 \times 3000 \times \log_2 2 = 6000 \text{ bps}$$

- ***Nyquist theorem (a noiseless channel)***
  - ***Theoretic Max BitRate = $2B\log_2 L$***
    - ***B: bandwidth (Hz)***
    - ***L: number of levels***

- Data rate cannot arbitrarily increased by increasing signal level

- In reality, this is not true because noise will limit signal level for receiver.

Noisy Channel: Shannon Capacity

Max bitRate $C = B \log_2(1+SNR)$

- B : bandwidth (Hz)
- SNR: signal-to-noise ratio
- No matter how many levels we use for signal
  - Intuition: if noise is bigger, signal level cannot be too bigger in order to correctly read received signal.
- Question: what is the minimum 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 3.40

For practical purposes, when the SNR is very high, we can assume that SNR + 1 is almost the same as SNR. In these cases, the theoretical channel capacity can be simplified to

$$\boxed{C = B \times \frac{\mathrm{SNR_{dB}}}{3}}$$

Why 3?

For example, we can calculate the theoretical capacity of the previous example as

$$\boxed{C = 2\ \mathrm{MHz} \times \frac{36}{3} = 24\ \mathrm{Mbps}}$$

Example 3.41 (continued)

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

$$C = B \log_2 L \longrightarrow 4\text{Mbps} = 2 \times 10^6 \times \log_2 L$$

$$\Rightarrow \log_2 L = 2 \Rightarrow L = 4$$

Note

The Shannon capacity gives us the upper limit; the Nyquist formula tells us how many signal levels we need.

3-6 PERFORMANCE

One important issue in networking is the performance of the network—how good is it? We discuss quality of service, an overall measurement of network performance, in greater detail in Chapter 24. In this section, we introduce terms that we need for future chapters.

Topics discussed in this section:

Bandwidth
Throughput
Latency (Delay)

Note

In networking, we use the term bandwidth in two contexts.

- **The first, bandwidth in hertz, refers to the range of frequencies in a composite signal or the range of frequencies that a channel can pass.**

- **The second, bandwidth in bits per second, refers to the speed of bit transmission in a channel or link.**

Example 3.42

The bandwidth of a subscriber line is 4 kHz for voice or data. The bandwidth of this line for data transmission can be up to 56,000 bps using a sophisticated modem to change the digital signal to analog.

What is the max bit rate if the signal level is 2 (binary signal) under noiseless condition?

Throughput

Throughput: how fast bps of data we can actually send

- ***Throughput is always smaller than link bandwidth***
- ***Why?***
  - ***data impairment causes data error***
  - ***Data congestion causes 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

$$\text{Throughput} = 10000 \text{ bit} \times 12{,}000/\text{min}$$

$$= \frac{10000 \times 12000}{60} = 2 \times 10^6 \text{ bps} = 2\text{Mbps}$$

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

Latency (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.

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

Propagation time

Measures the time required for a bit to travel from the source to the destination.

$$\Pr opagationTime = \frac{dis\tan ce}{propagationspeed}$$

Transmission Time

- ***First bit received → last bit received***

$$\boxed{TransmisisonTime = \frac{MessageSize}{Bandwidth}}$$

Queuing Time

It is the time needed for each intermediate or end device to hold the message before it can processed.

Top performance metric for networking routers

Example 3.47

What are the propagation time and the transmission time for a 5-Mbyte 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 2.4×10^8 m/s.

Solution

We can calculate the propagation and transmission times as shown on the next slide.

Example 3.47 (continued)

$$\text{Propagation Time} = \frac{12000\ x\ 10^3 m}{2.4\ x\ 10^8 m/s}$$

$$\text{Transmission Time} = \frac{5\ x\ 10^6\ x\ 8\ bits}{1.0\ x\ 10^6 bit/s}$$

Note that in this case, because the message is very long and the bandwidth is not very high, the dominant factor is the transmission time, not the propagation time. The propagation time can be ignored in most cases.