Chapter 3

Data and Signals

Note

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

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**

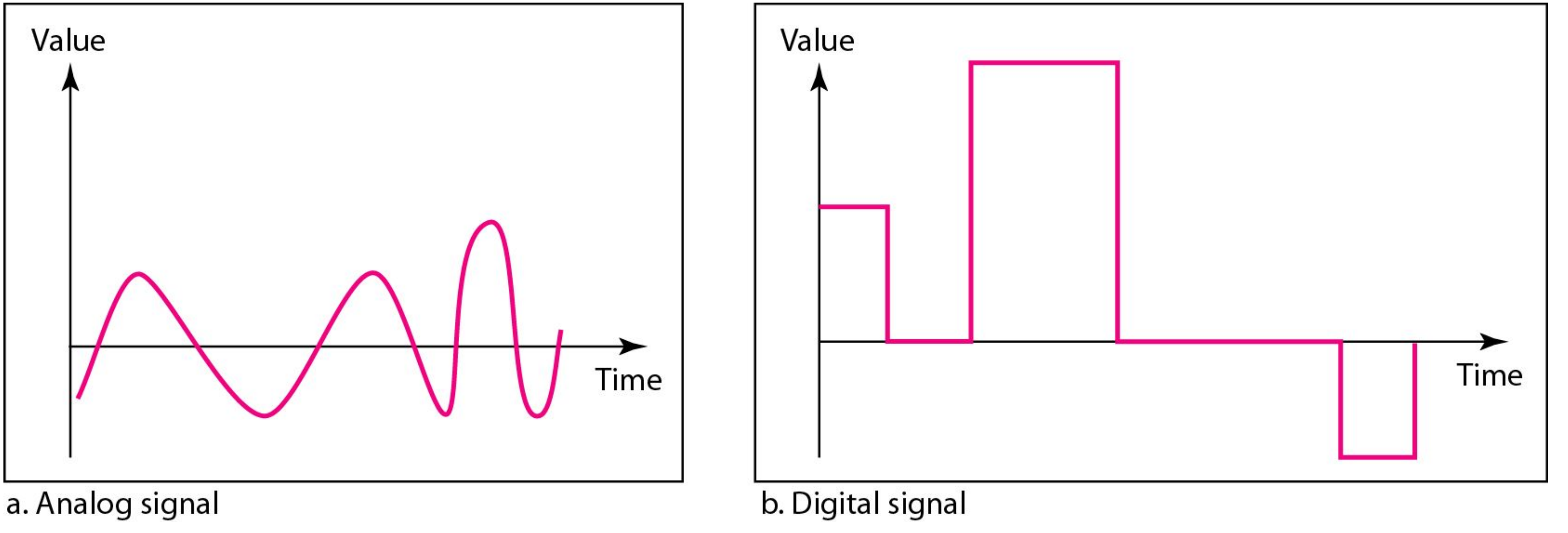
Analog and Digital Data

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

Analog and Digital Signals

- 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 3.1 *Comparison of analog and digital signals*



3-2 PERIODIC ANALOG SIGNALS

In data communications, we commonly use periodic analog signals and nonperiodic digital 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 3.2 *A sine wave*

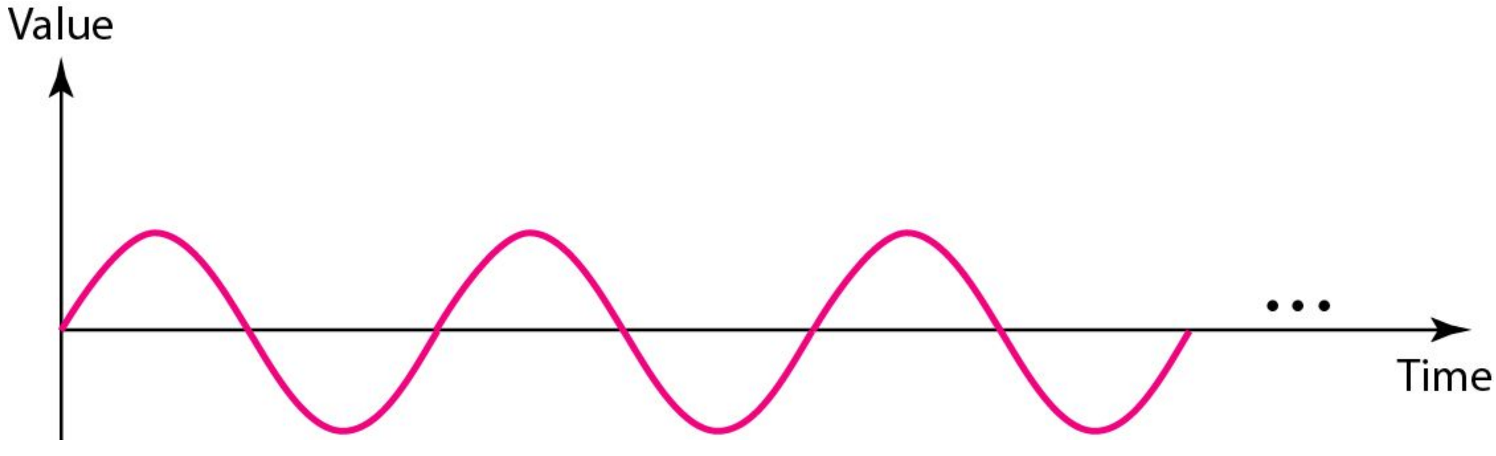
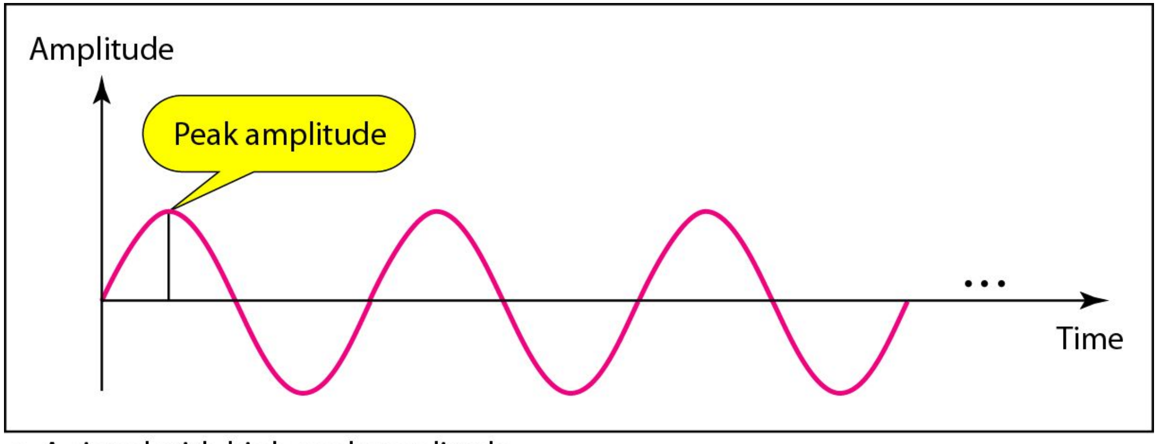
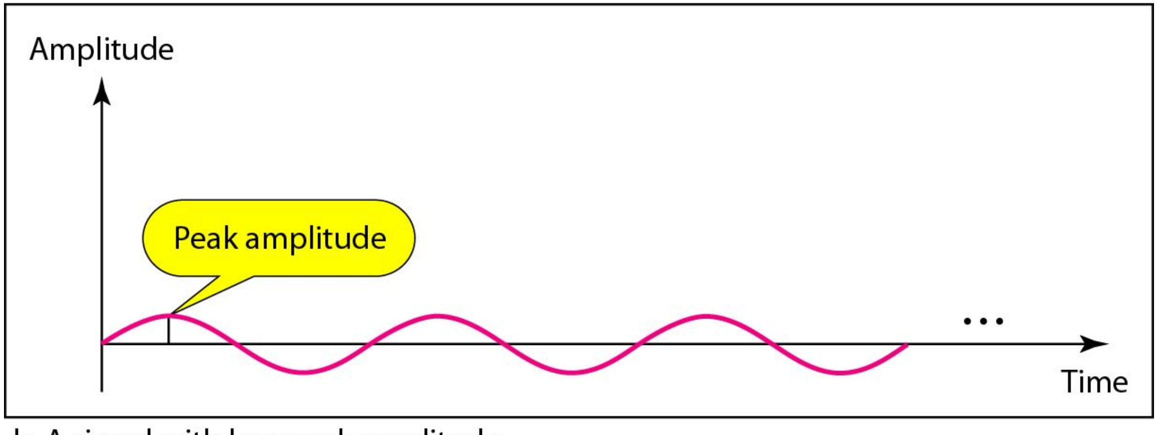


Figure 3.3 *Two signals with the same phase and frequency, but different amplitudes*



a. A signal with high peak amplitude



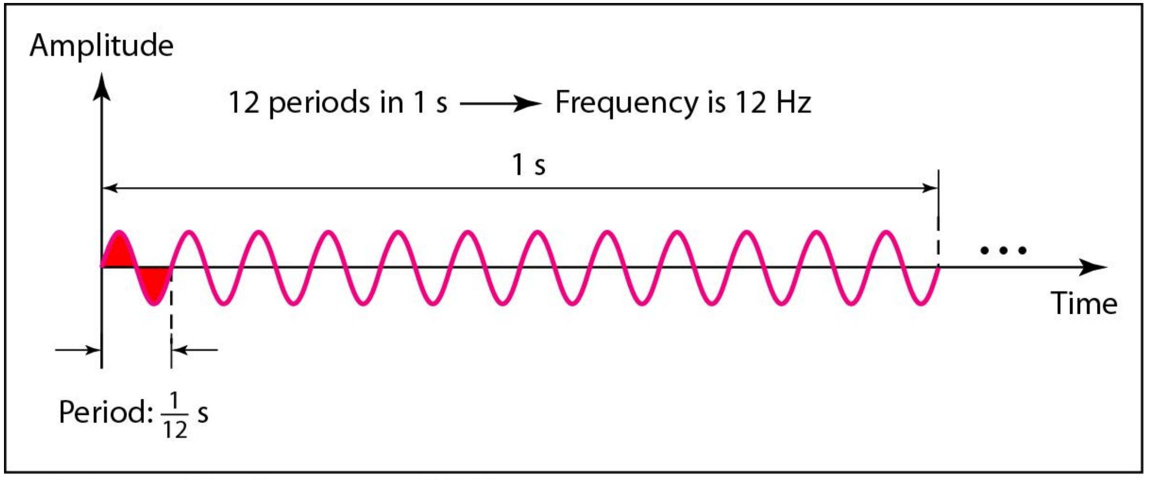
b. A signal with low peak amplitude

Note

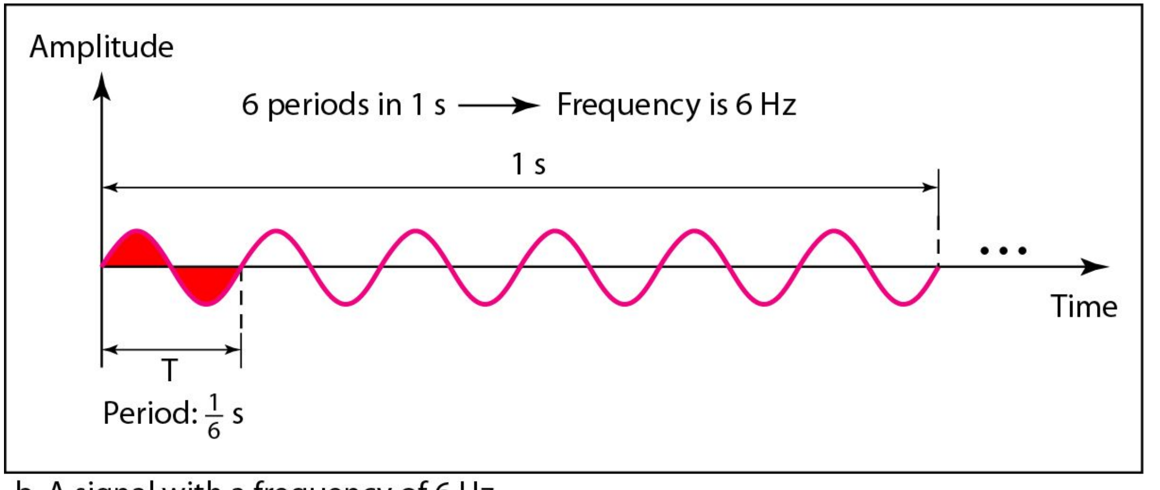
Frequency and period are the inverse of each other.

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

Figure 3.4 *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 3.1

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

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

Example 3.2

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).

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

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

Frequency

- 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.

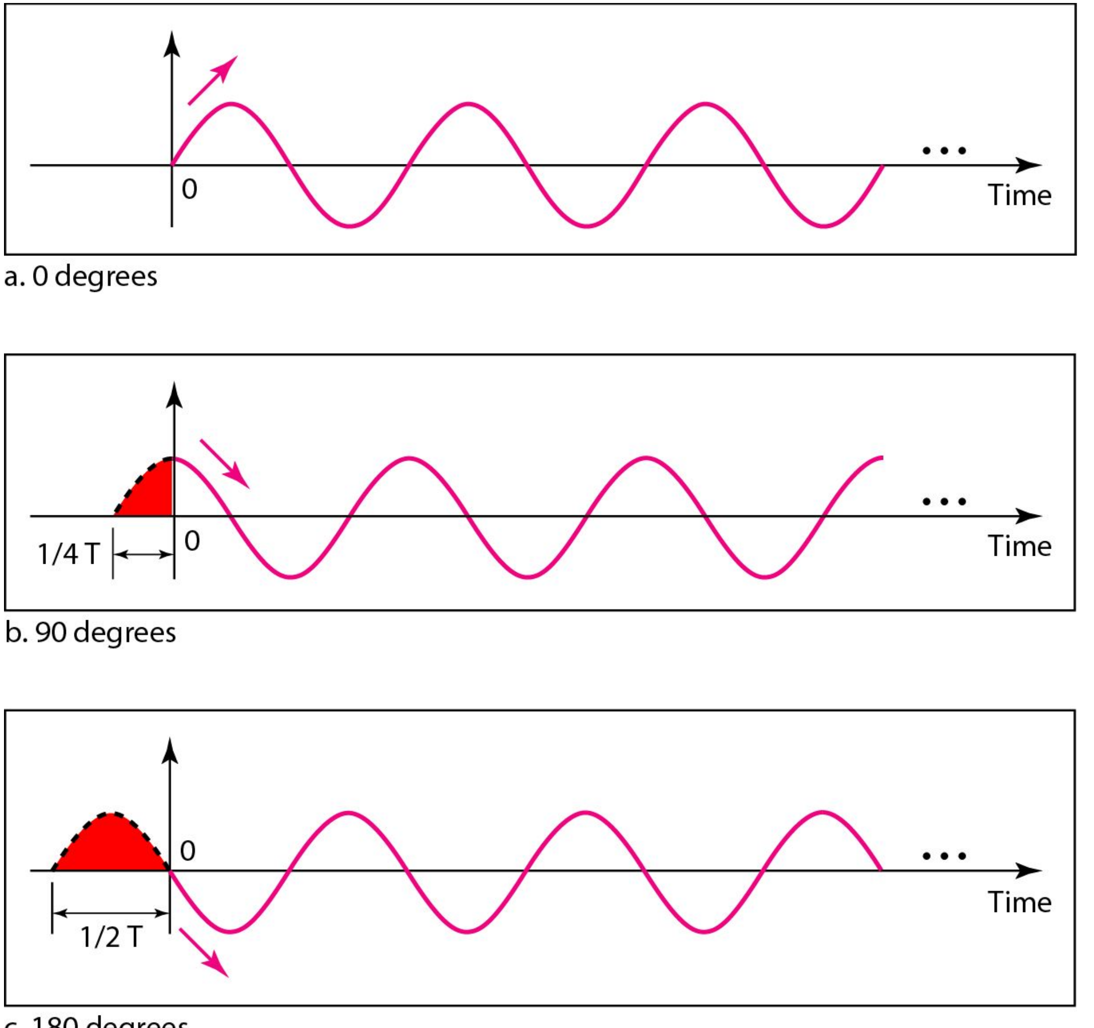
Note

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



a. 0 degrees

b. 90 degrees

c. 180 degrees

Example 3.3

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

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

Figure 3.6 *Wavelength and period*

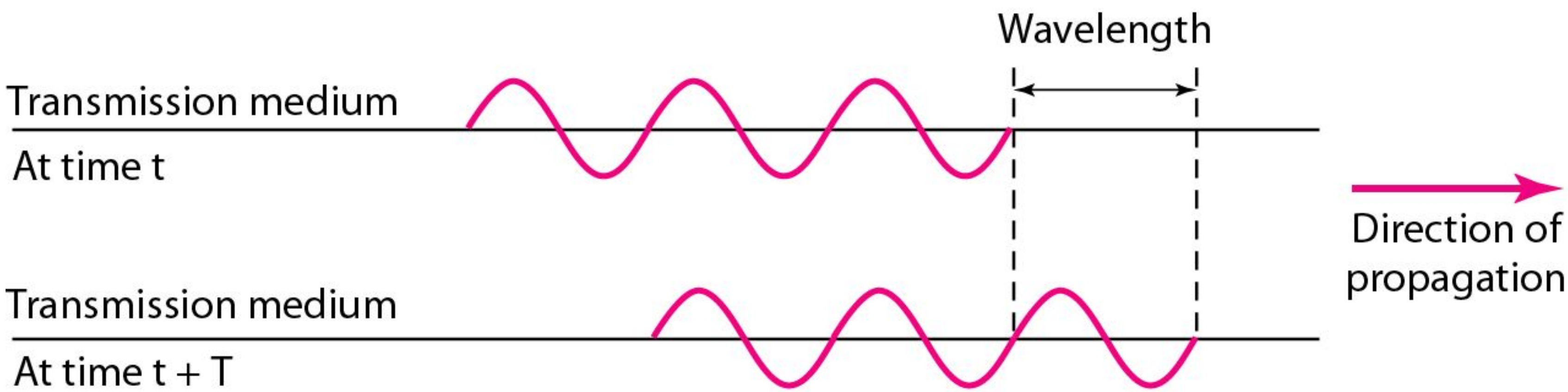
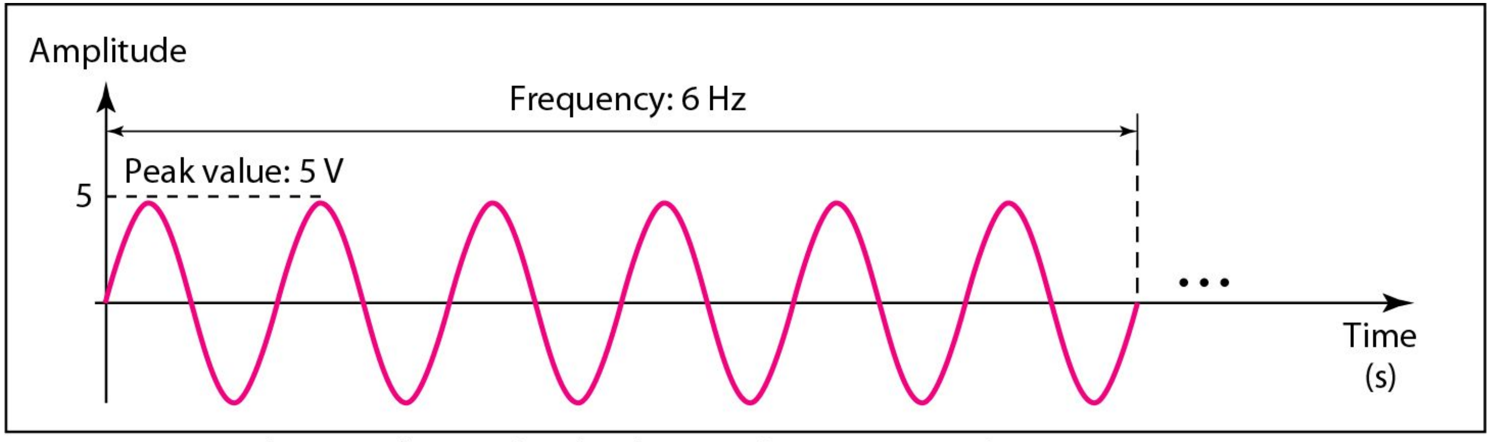
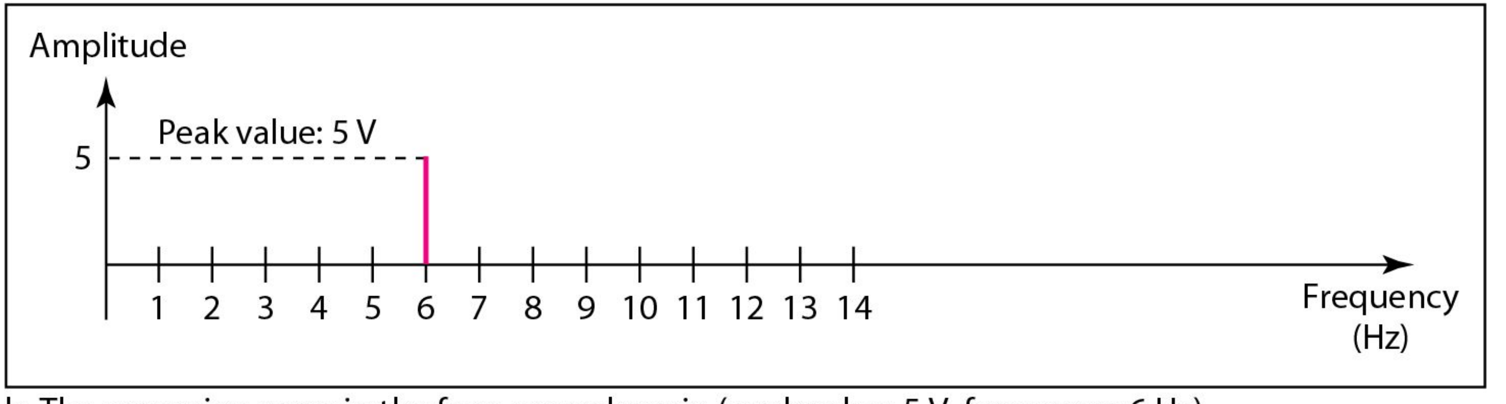


Figure 3.7 *The time-domain and frequency-domain plots of a sine wave*



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)

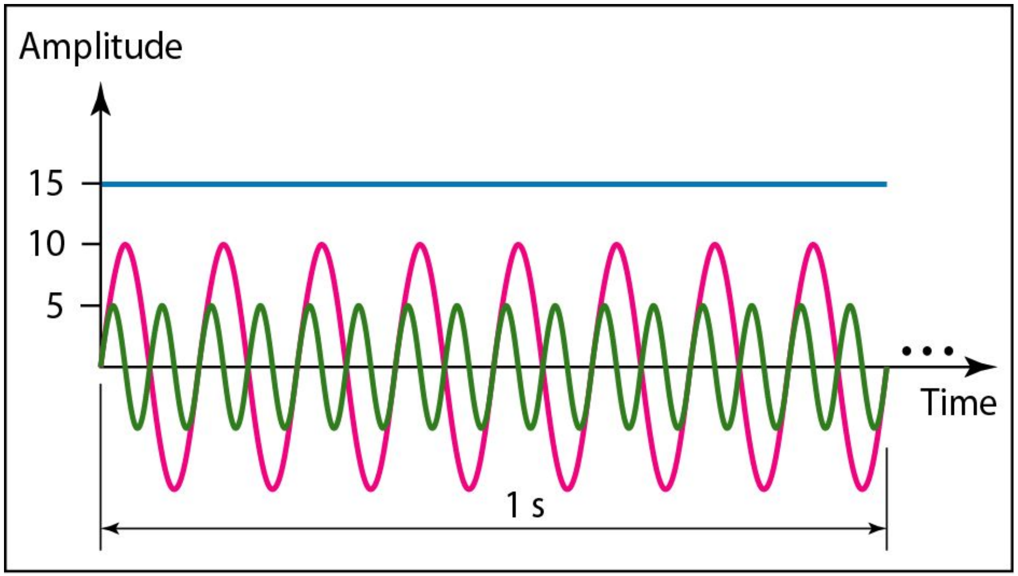
Note

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

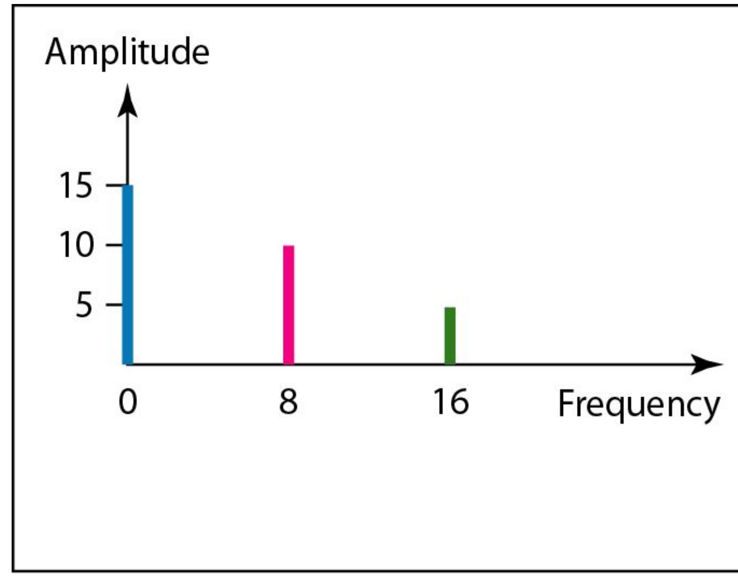
Example 3.7

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

Figure 3.8 *The time domain and frequency domain of three sine waves*



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



b. Frequency-domain representation of the same three signals

Signals and Communication

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

Composite Signals and Periodicity

- 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.

Example 3.4

Figure 3.9 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 3.9 ***A composite periodic signal***

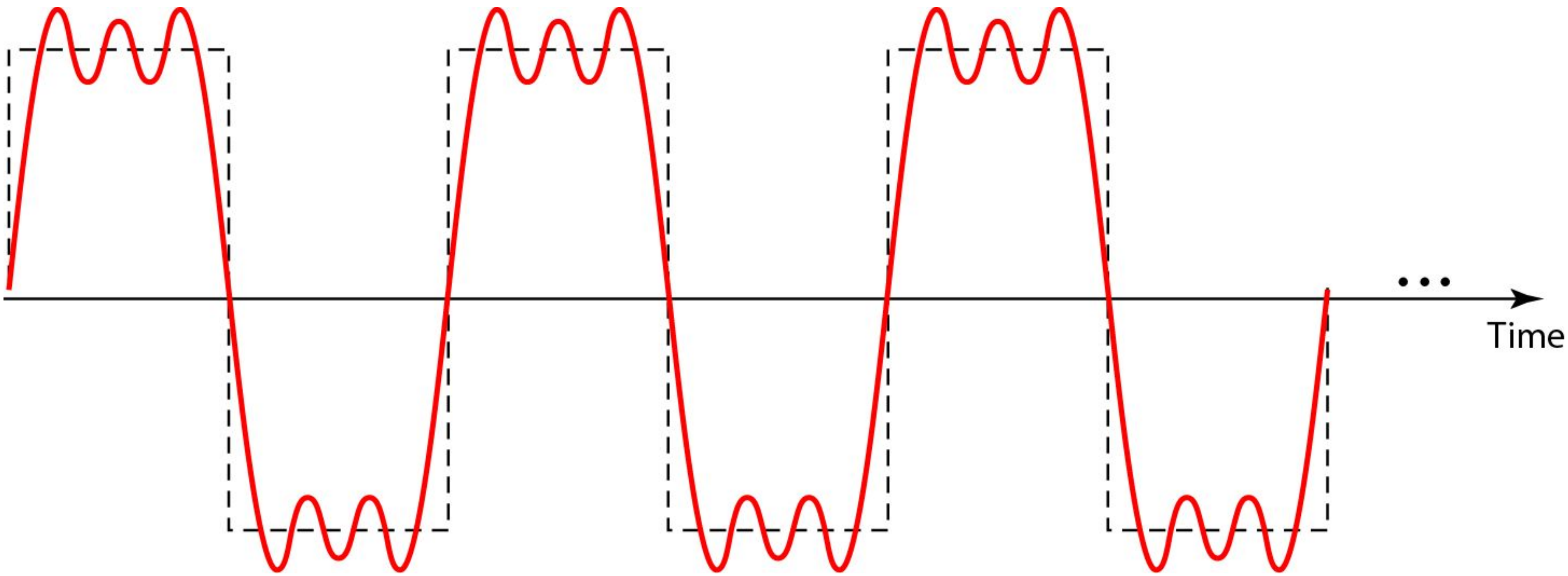
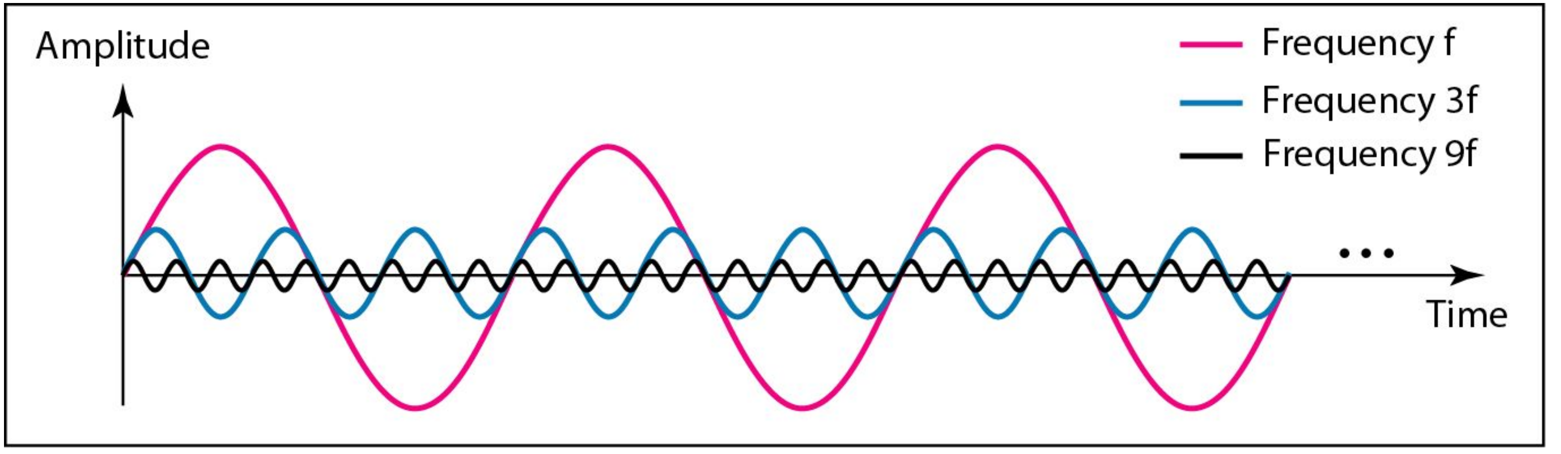
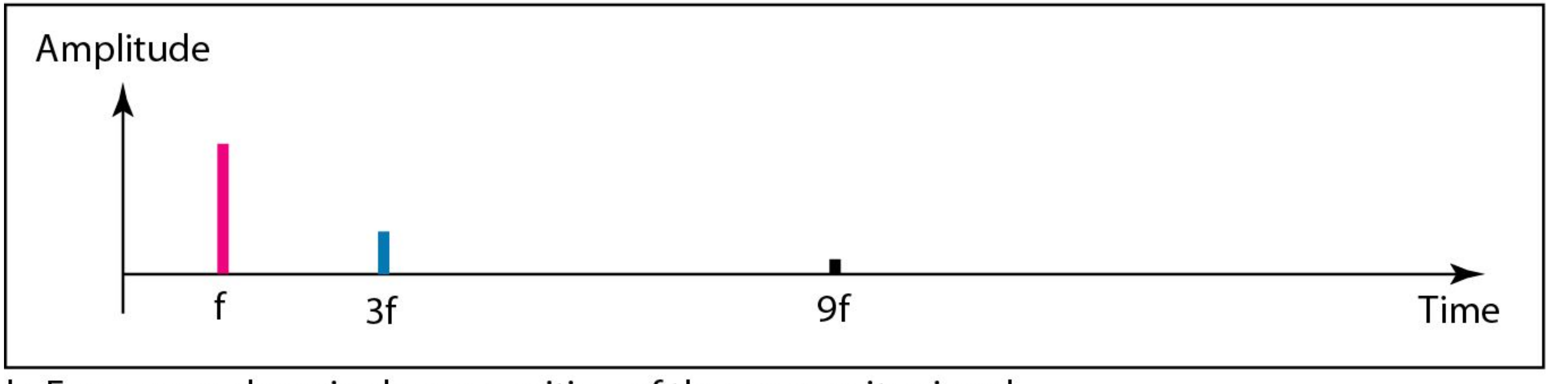


Figure 3.10 ***Decomposition of a composite periodic signal in the time and frequency domains***



a. Time-domain decomposition of a composite signal

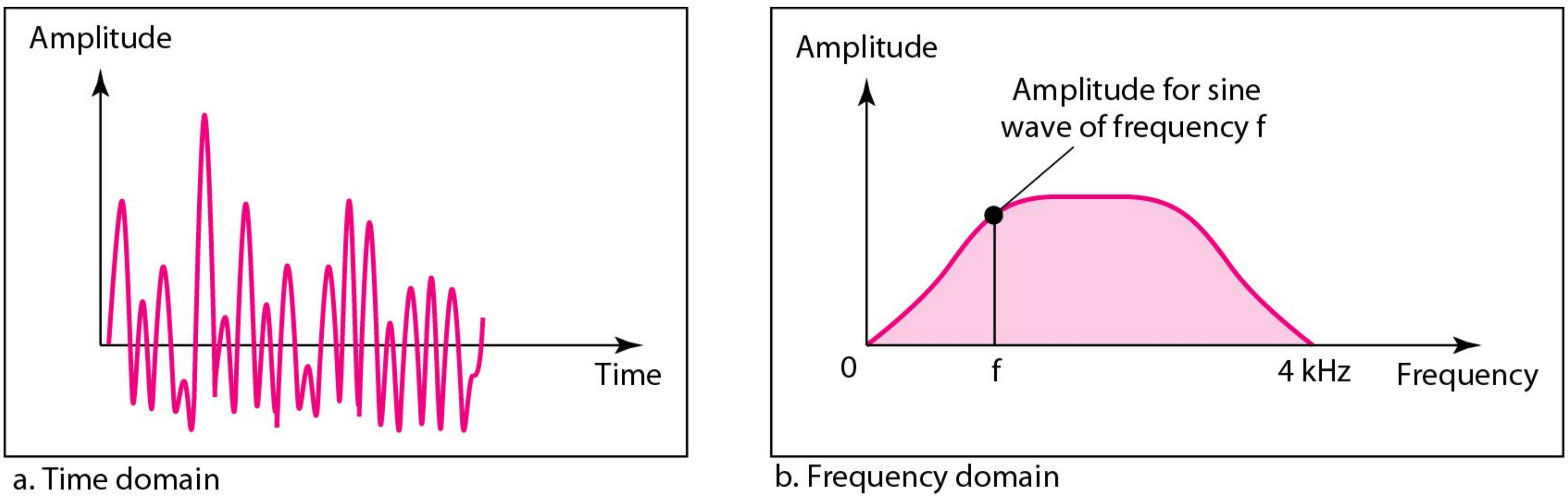


b. Frequency-domain decomposition of the composite signal

Example 3.5

Figure 3.11 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.

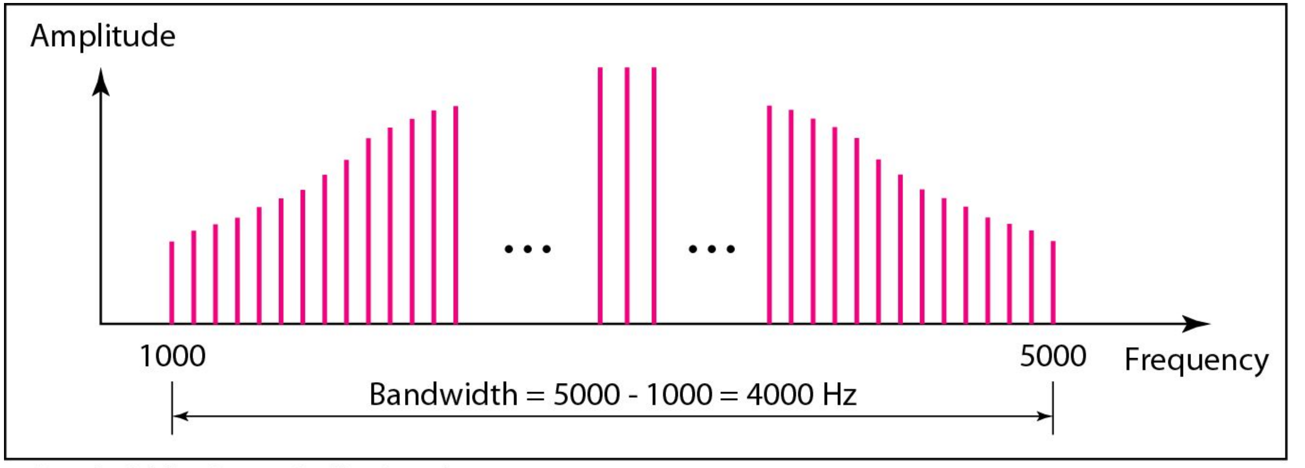
Figure 3.11 *The time and frequency domains of a nonperiodic signal*



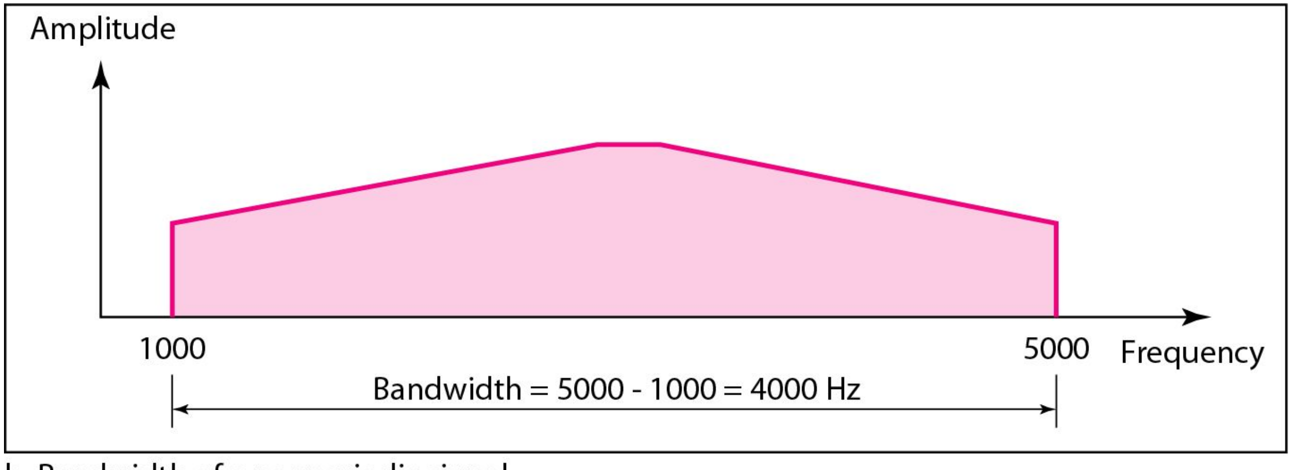
Bandwidth and Signal Frequency

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

Figure 3.12 *The bandwidth of periodic and nonperiodic composite signals*



a. Bandwidth of a periodic signal



b. Bandwidth of a nonperiodic signal

Example 3.6

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.

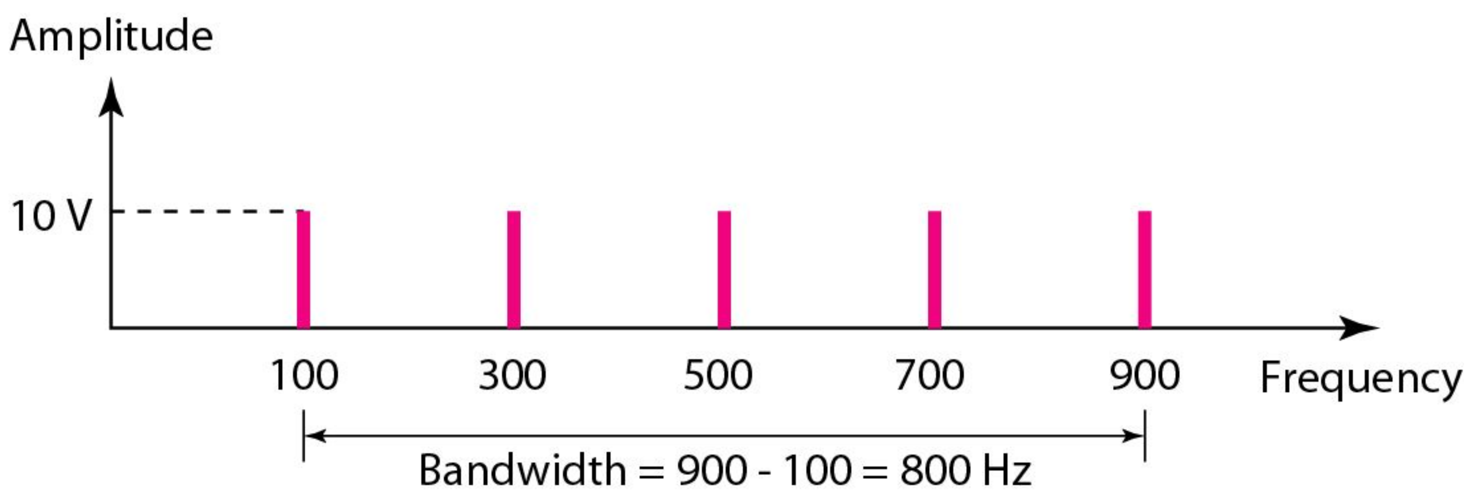
Solution

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

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

The spectrum has only five spikes, at 100, 300, 500, 700, and 900 Hz (see Figure 3.13).

Figure 3.13 *The bandwidth for Example 3.6*



Example 3.7

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.

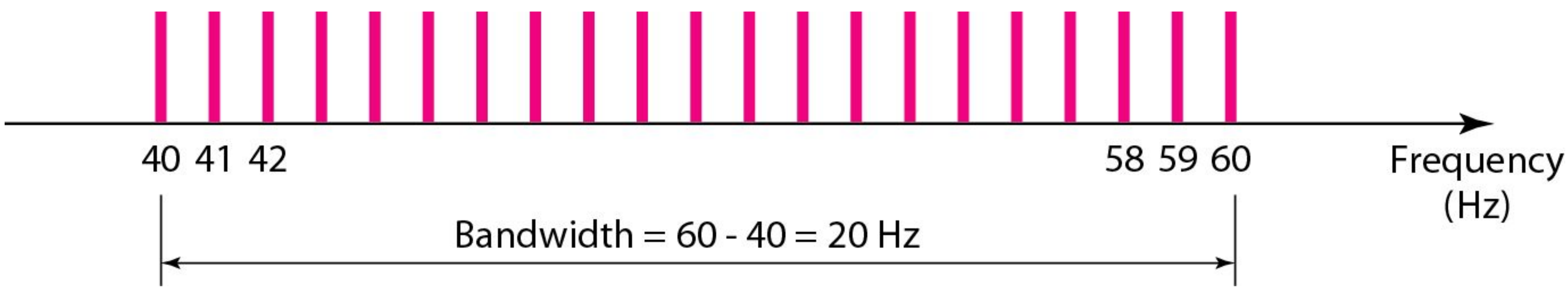
Solution

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 3.14 *The bandwidth for Example 3.7*



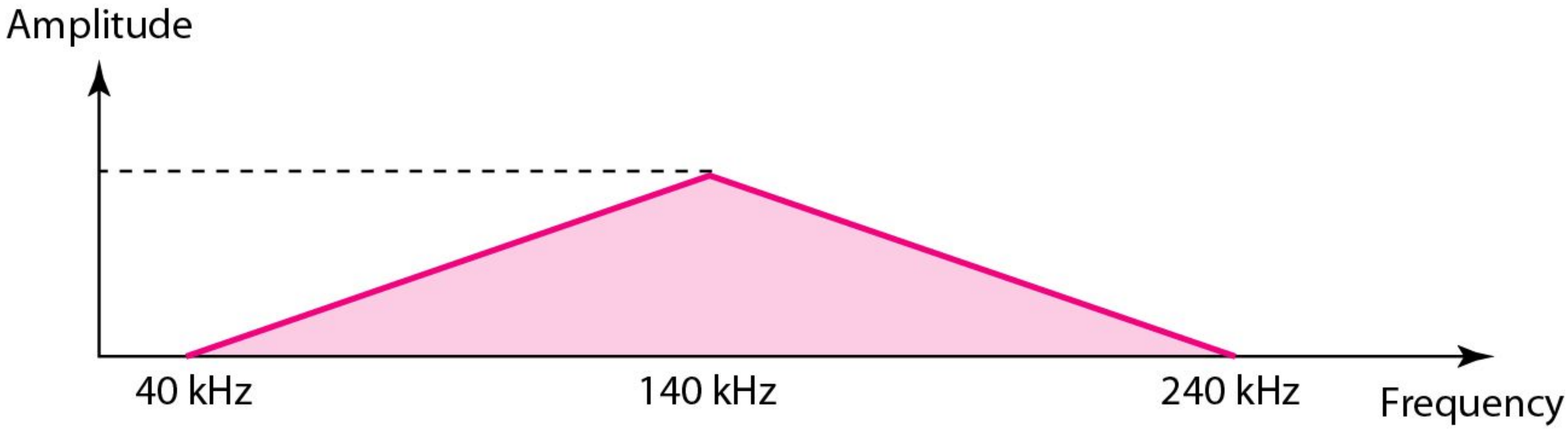
Example 3.8

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 3.15 shows the frequency domain and the bandwidth.

Figure 3.15 *The bandwidth for Example 3.8*



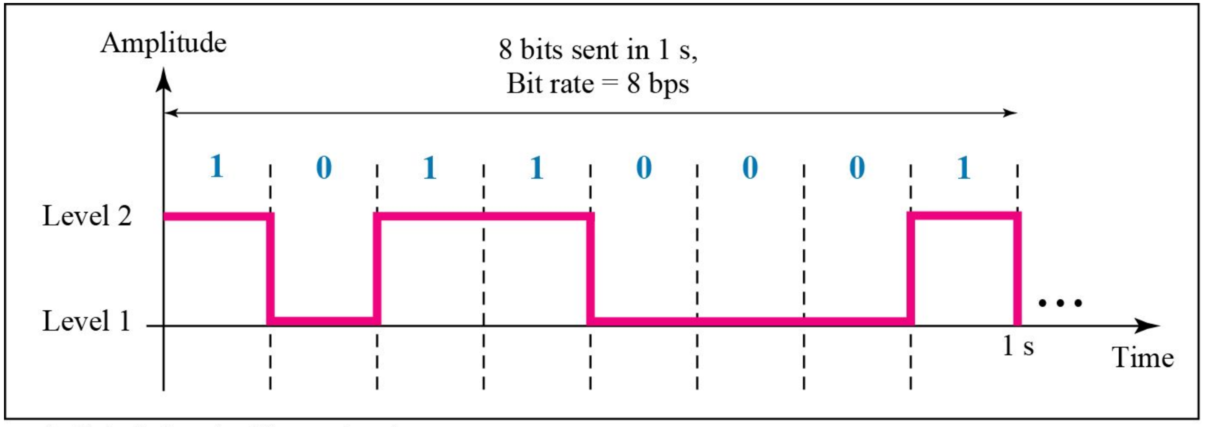
Example 3.11

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. If we assume a resolution of 525 × 700, 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. 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.

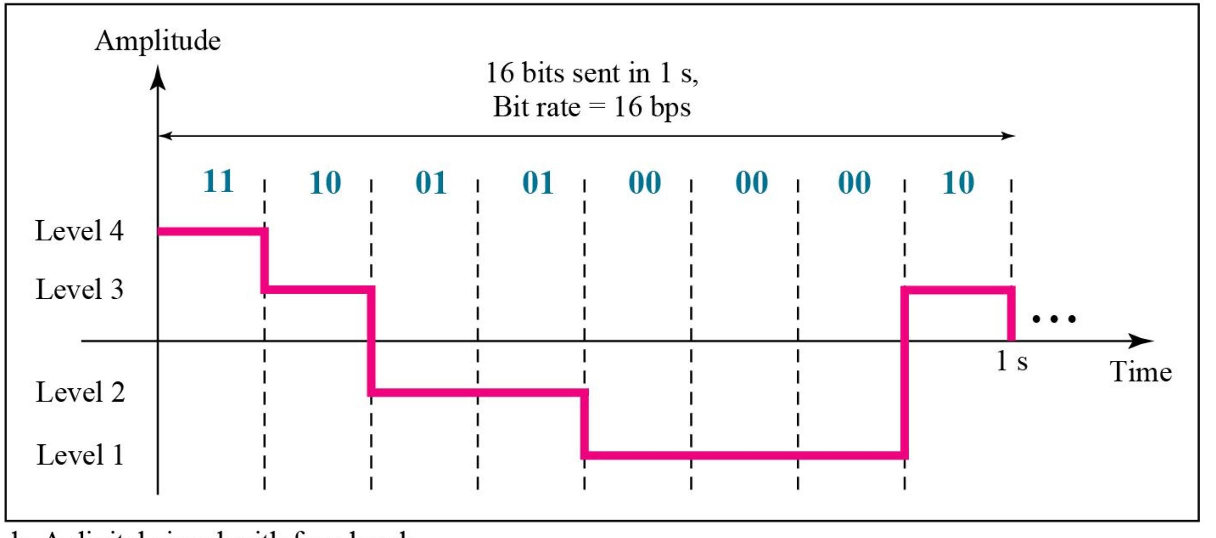
3-3 DIGITAL SIGNALS

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 3.16 *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 formula

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

Each signal level is represented by 3 bits.

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.

Example 3.18

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

Solution

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

$$\boxed{100 \times 24 \times 80 \times 8 = 1{,}636{,}000 \text{ bps} = 1.636 \text{ Mbps}}$$

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. Twenty-four bits represents one color pixel.

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

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

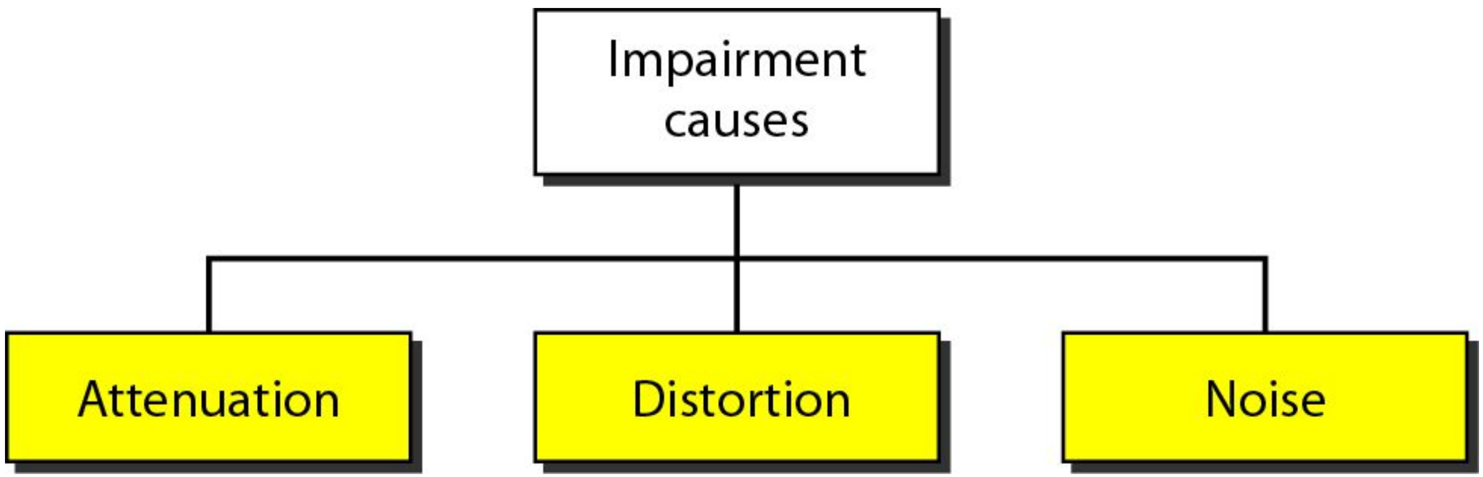
3-4 TRANSMISSION IMPAIRMENT

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.

Topics discussed in this section:

- **Attenuation**
- **Distortion**
- **Noise**

Figure 3.25 *Causes of impairment*



Attenuation

- Means loss of energy -> weaker signal
- When a signal travels through a medium it loses energy overcoming the resistance of the medium
- Amplifiers are used to compensate for this loss of energy by amplifying the signal.

Measurement of Attenuation

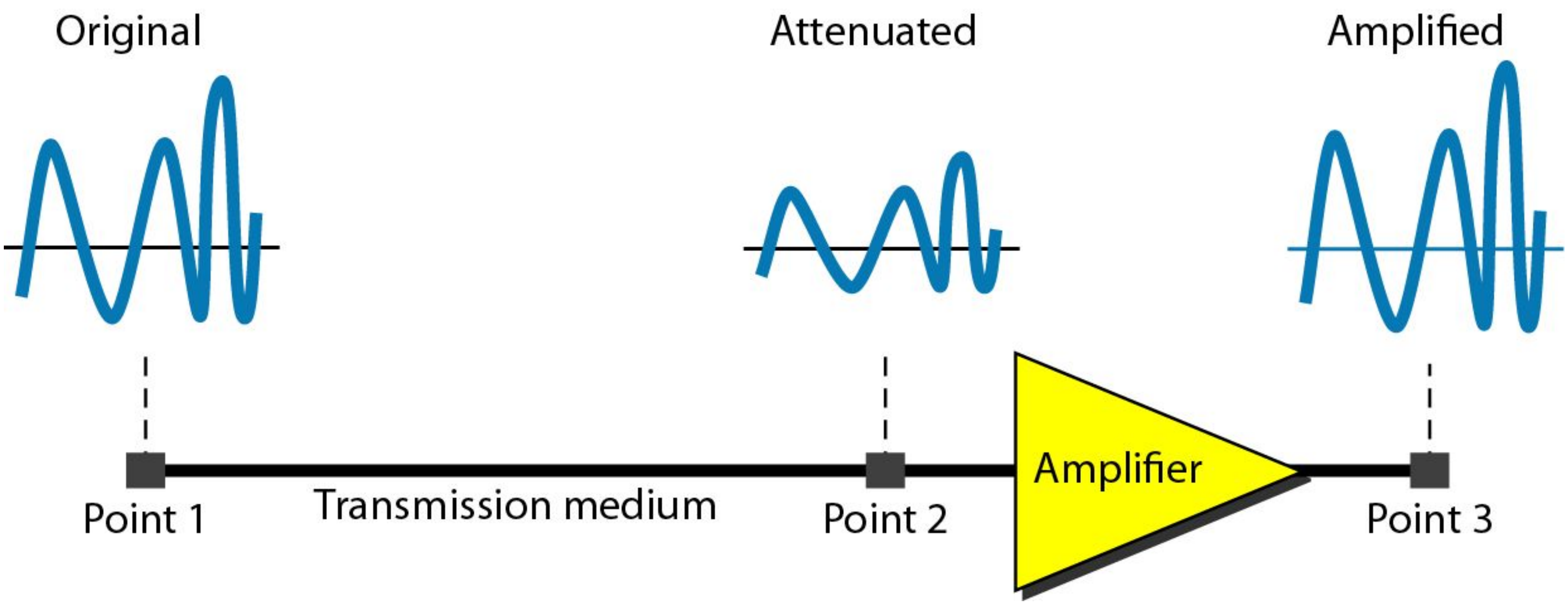
- To show the loss or gain of energy the unit "decibel" is used.

$$dB = 10\log_{10} P_2/P_1$$

P_1 - input signal

P_2 - output signal

Figure 3.26 *Attenuation*



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

$$10 \log_{10} \frac{P_2}{P_1} = 10 \log_{10} \frac{0.5 P_1}{P_1} = 10 \log_{10} 0.5 = 10(-0.3) = -3 \text{ dB}$$

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

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

$$10 \log_{10} \frac{P_2}{P_1} = 10 \log_{10} \frac{10P_1}{P_1}$$

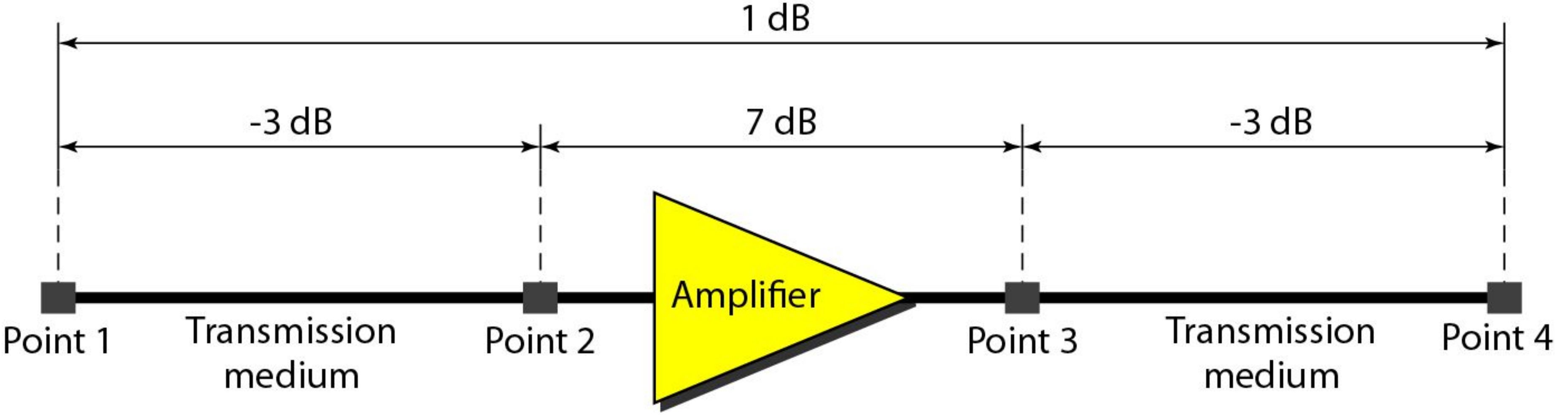
$$= 10 \log_{10} 10 = 10(1) = 10 \text{ dB}$$

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

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

Figure 3.27 *Decibels for Example 3.28*



Example 3.29

Sometimes the decibel is used to measure signal power in milliwatts. In this case, it is referred to as dB_m and is calculated as $dB_m = 10 \log10 P_m$, where P_m is the power in milliwatts. Calculate the power of a signal with $dB_m = -30$.

Solution

We can calculate the power in the signal as

$$\mathrm{dB_m} = 10 \log_{10} P_m = -30$$

$$\log_{10} P_m = -3 \qquad P_m = 10^{-3}\ \mathrm{mW}$$

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 × (−0.3) = −1.5 dB. We can calculate the power as

$$\text{dB} = 10 \log_{10} \frac{P_2}{P_1} = -1.5$$

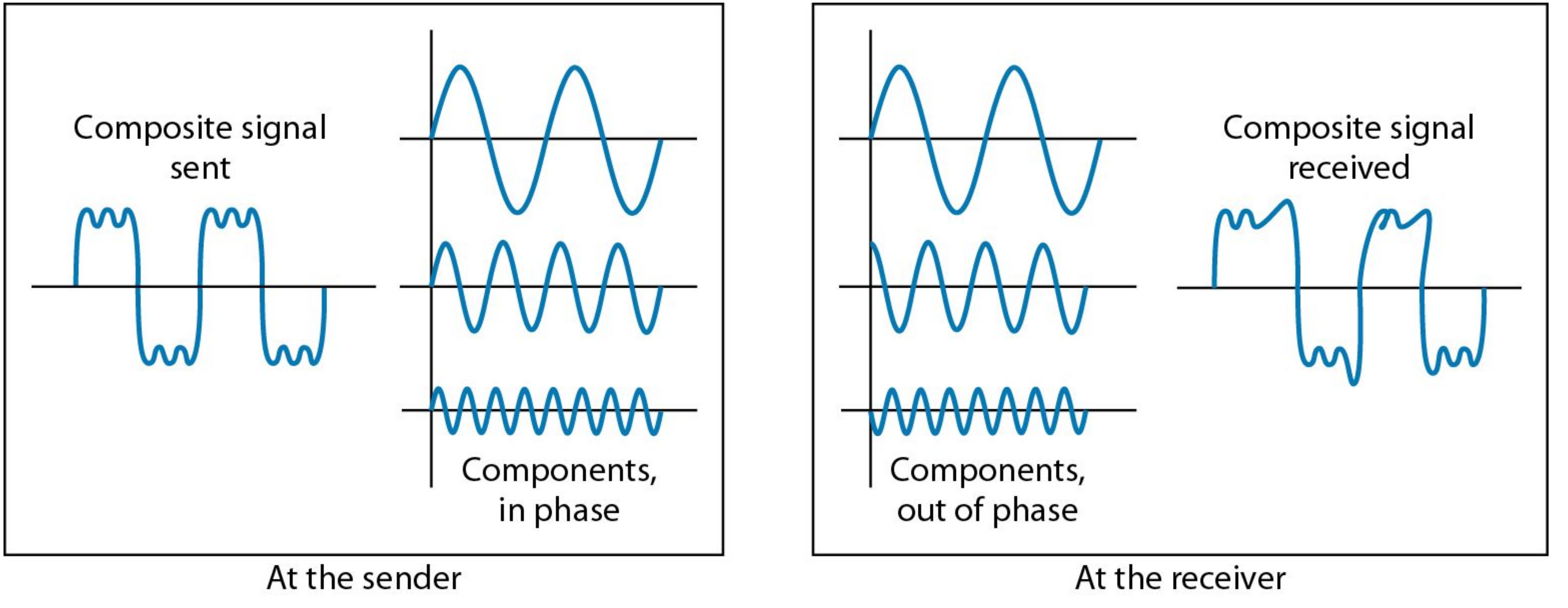
$$\frac{P_2}{P_1} = 10^{-0.15} = 0.71$$

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

Distortion

- Means that the signal changes its form or shape
- Distortion occurs in composite signals
- Each frequency component has its own propagation speed traveling through a medium.
- The different components therefore arrive with different delays at the receiver.
- That means that the signals have different phases at the receiver than they did at the source.

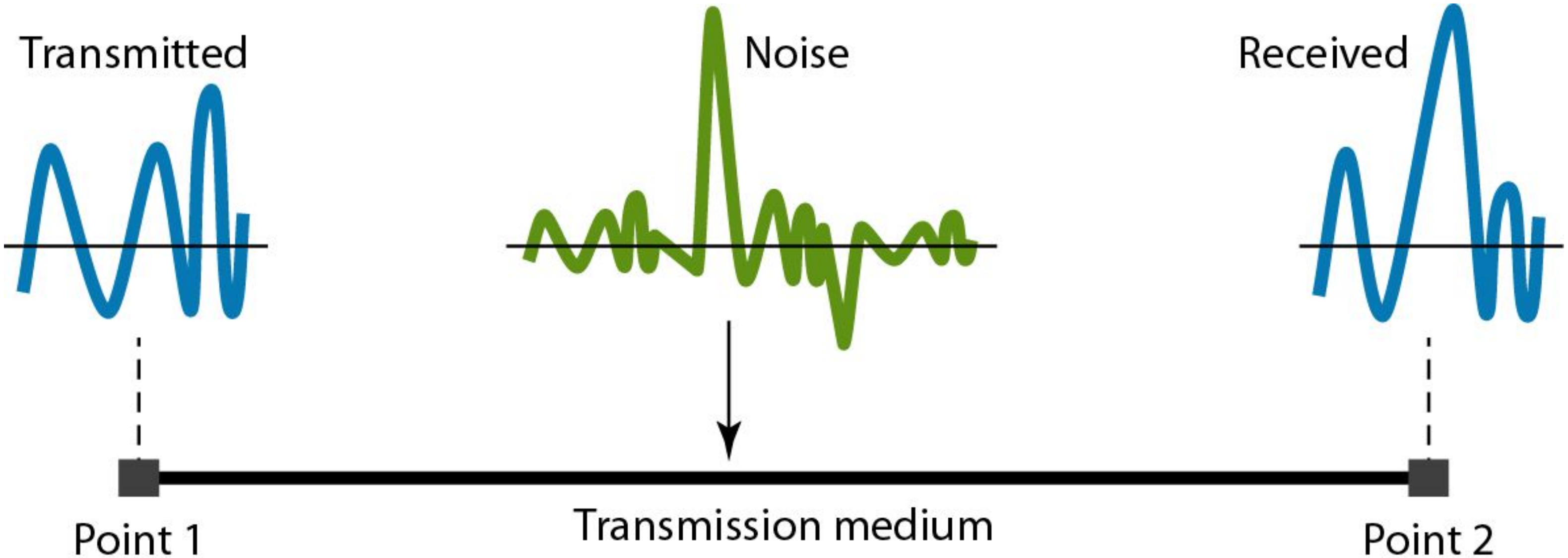
Figure 3.28 *Distortion*



Noise

- There are different types of noise
  - Thermal - random noise of electrons in the wire creates an extra signal
  - Induced - from motors and appliances, devices act are transmitter antenna and medium as receiving antenna.
  - Crosstalk - same as above but between two wires.
  - Impulse - Spikes that result from power lines, lighning, etc.

Figure 3.29 *Noise*



Signal to Noise Ratio (SNR)

- To measure the quality of a system the SNR is often used. It indicates the strength of the signal wrt the noise power in the system.
- It is the ratio between two powers.
- It is usually given in dB and referred to as $SNR_{dB.}$

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:

$$SNR = \frac{10{,}000\ \mu W}{1\ mW} = 10{,}000$$

$$SNR_{dB} = 10 \log_{10} 10{,}000 = 10 \log_{10} 10^4 = 40$$

Example 3.32

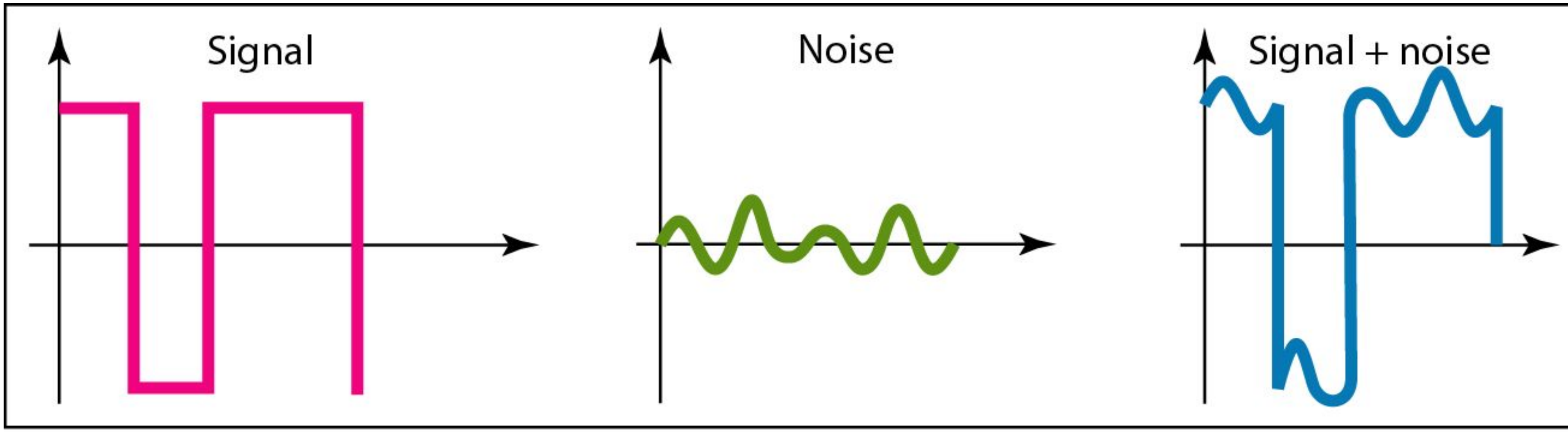
The values of SNR and SNR_{dB} for a noiseless channel are

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

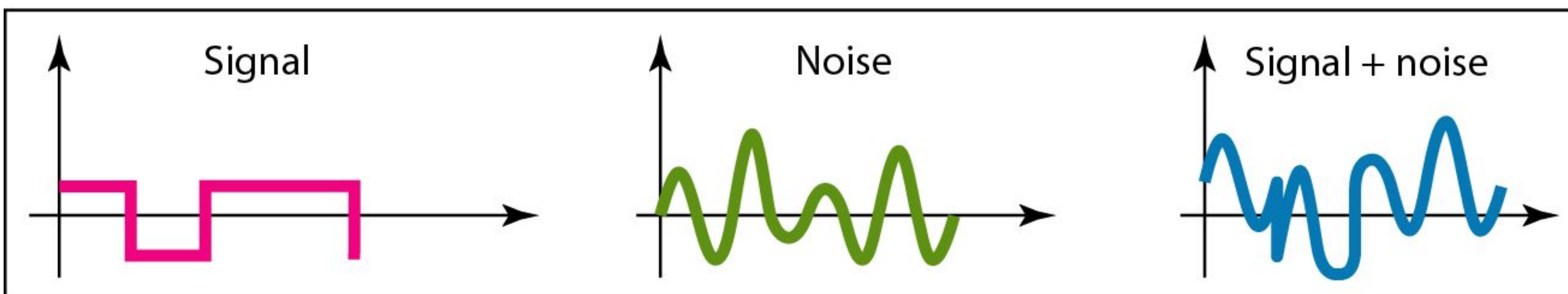
$$\mathrm{SNR_{dB}} = 10 \log_{10} \infty = \infty$$

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

Figure 3.30 *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**

Note

Increasing the levels of a signal increases the probability of an error occurring, in other words it reduces the reliability of the system. Why??

Capacity of a System

- The bit rate of a system increases with an increase in the number of signal levels we use to denote a symbol.
- A symbol can consist of a single bit or “n” bits.
- The number of signal levels = 2^n.
- As the number of levels goes up, the spacing between level decreases -> increasing the probability of an error occurring in the presence of transmission impairments.

Nyquist Theorem

- Nyquist gives the upper bound for the bit rate of a transmission system by calculating the bit rate directly from the number of bits in a symbol (or signal levels) and the bandwidth of the system (assuming 2 symbols/per cycle and first harmonic).
- Nyquist theorem states that for a noiseless channel:

$$C = 2\,B\,\log_2 2^n$$

C= capacity in bps

B = bandwidth in Hz

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

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

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:

$$265{,}000 = 2 \times 20{,}000 \times \log_2 L$$

$$\log_2 L = 6.625 \qquad L = 2^{6.625} = 98.7 \text{ levels}$$

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.

Shannon's Theorem

- Shannon's theorem gives the capacity of a system in the presence of noise.

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

- Note that in the Shannon formula there is no indication of the signal level, which means that no matter how many levels we have, we cannot achieve a data rate higher than the capacity of the channel. In other words, the formula defines a characteristic of the channel, not the method of transmission.

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. The signal-to-noise ratio is usually 3162. For this channel the capacity is calculated as

$$C = B \log_2 (1 + \text{SNR}) = 3000 \log_2 (1 + 3162) = 3000 \log_2 3163$$
$$= 3000 \times 11.62 = 34{,}860 \text{ bps}$$

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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.

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.

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

Example (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.

$$\boxed{4 \text{ Mbps} = 2 \times 1 \text{ MHz} \times \log_2 L \quad \Rightarrow \quad L = 4}$$

Note

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

3-6 PERFORMANCE

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?

Topics discussed in this section:

- **Bandwidth - capacity of the system**
- **Throughput - no. of bits that can be pushed through**
- **Latency (Delay) - delay incurred by a bit from start to finish**
- **Bandwidth-Delay Product**

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. Often referred to as Capacity.**

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. The bandwidth is a potential measurement of a link; the throughput is an actual measurement of how fast we can send data.
- For example, we may have a link with a bandwidth of 1 Mbps, but the devices connected to the end of the link may handle only 200 kbps.This means that we cannot send more than 200 kbps through thislink.

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

$$\text{Throughput} = \frac{12{,}000 \times 10{,}000}{60} = 2 \text{ Mbps}$$

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

Propagation & Transmission delay

- Propagation speed - speed at which a bit travels though the medium from source to destination.
- Transmission speed - the speed at which all the bits in a message arrive at the destination. (difference in arrival time of first and last bit)

Propagation and Transmission Delay

- Propagation Delay = Distance/Propagation speed
- Transmission Delay = Message size/bandwidth bps
- Latency = Propagation delay + Transmission delay + Queueing time + Processing time

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

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

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-kbyte message (an e-mail) 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 shown on the next slide:

Example 3.46 (continued)

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

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

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. The transmission time can be ignored.

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.

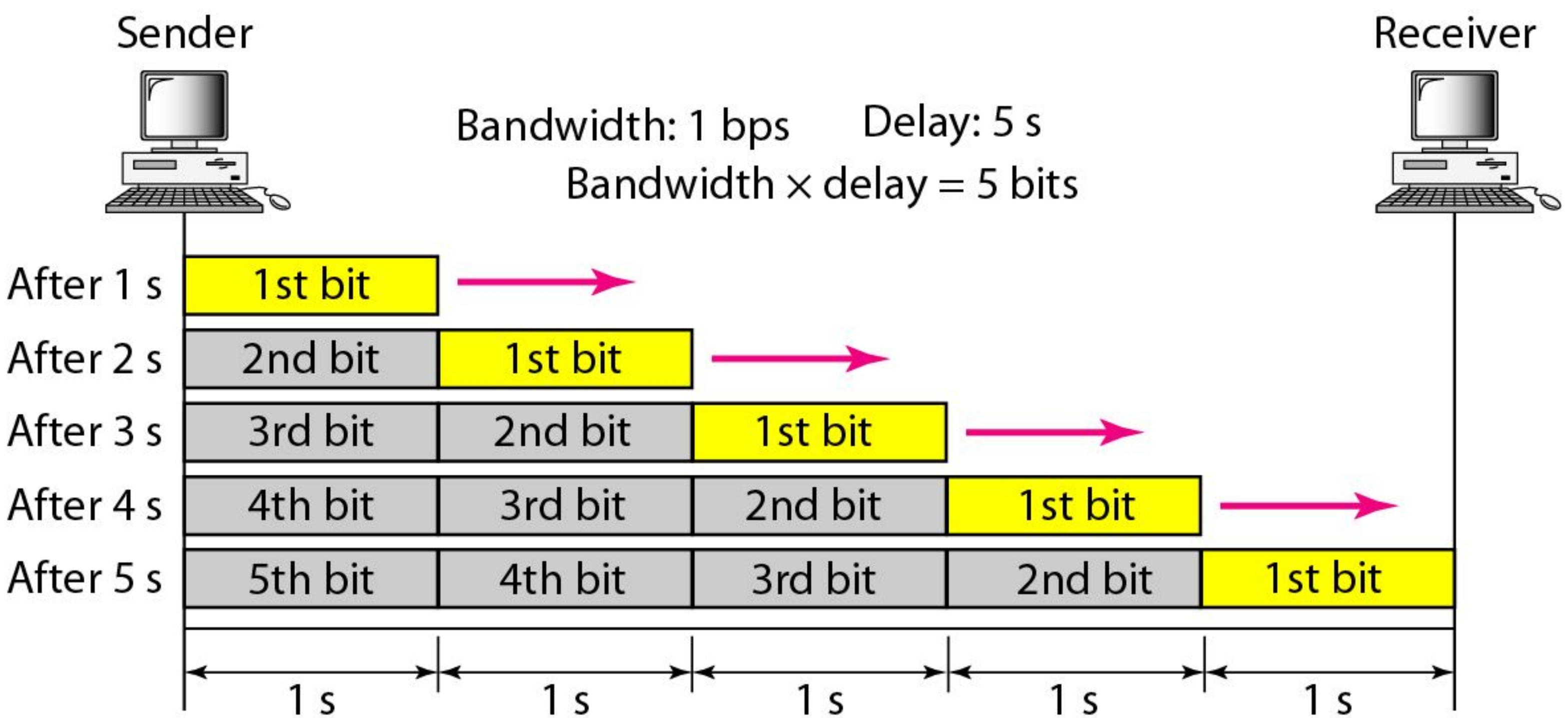
Example 3.47 (continued)

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

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

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.

Figure 3.31 *Filling the link with bits for case 1*



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 3.33.

Figure 3.33 *Concept of bandwidth-delay product*

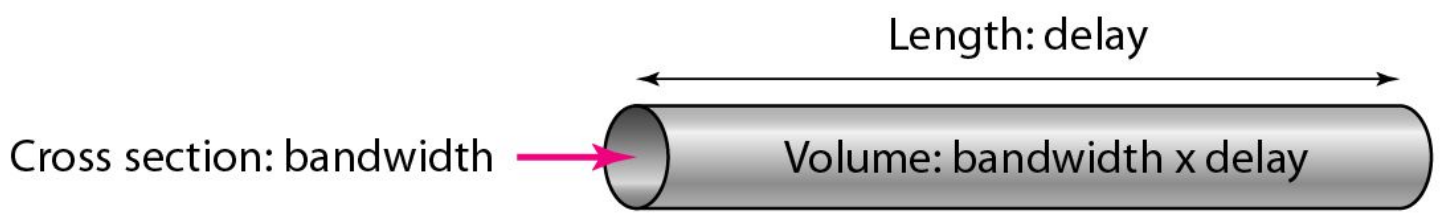
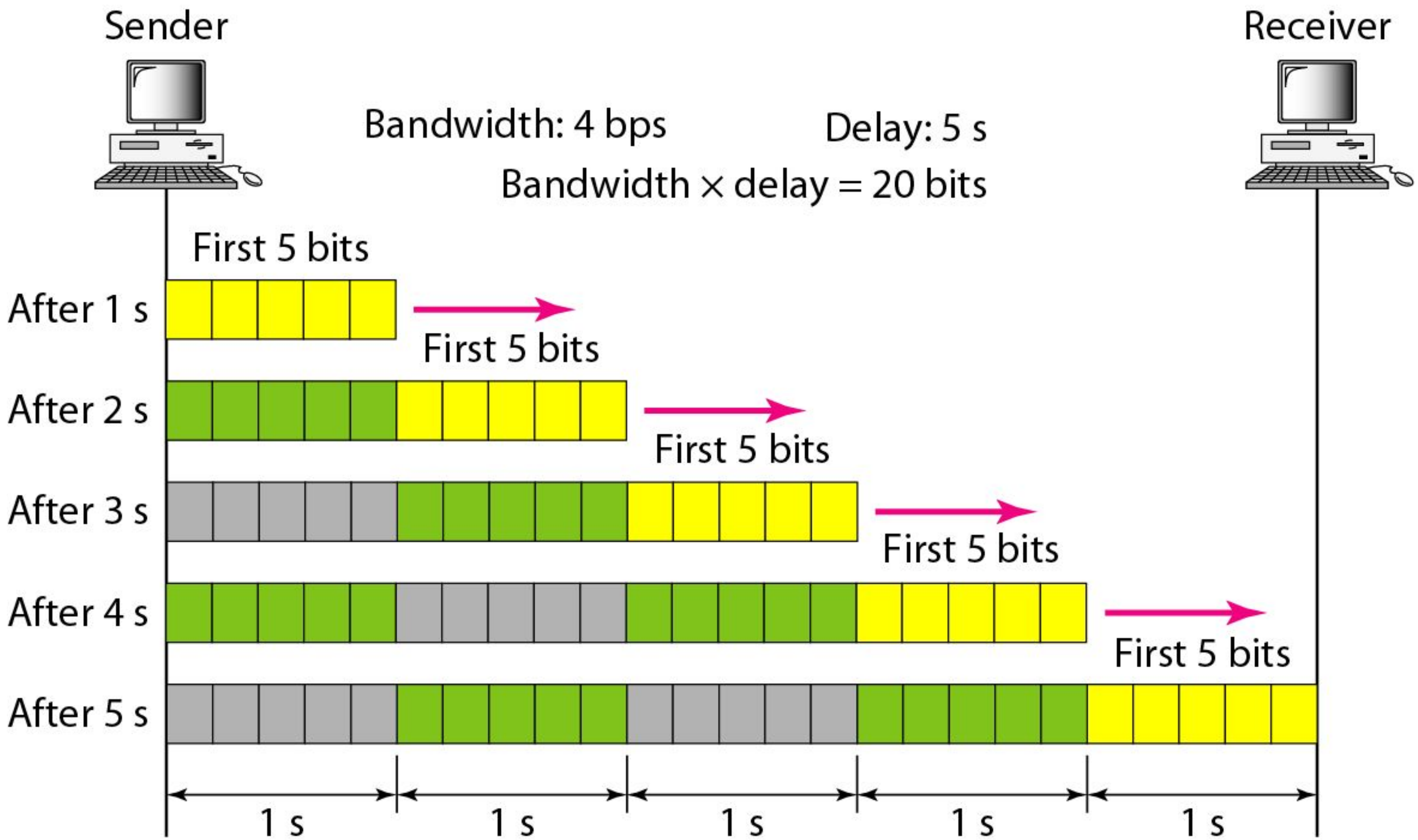


Figure 3.32 *Filling the link with bits in case 2*



Note

The bandwidth-delay product defines the number of bits that can fill the link.

4-3 TRANSMISSION MODES

The transmission of binary data across a link can be accomplished in either parallel or serial mode. In parallel mode, multiple bits are sent with each clock tick. In serial mode, 1 bit is sent with each clock tick. While there is only one way to send parallel data, there are three subclasses of serial transmission: asynchronous, synchronous, and isochronous.

Topics discussed in this section:

- ***Parallel Transmission***
- ***Serial Transmission***

Figure 4.31 Data transmission and modes

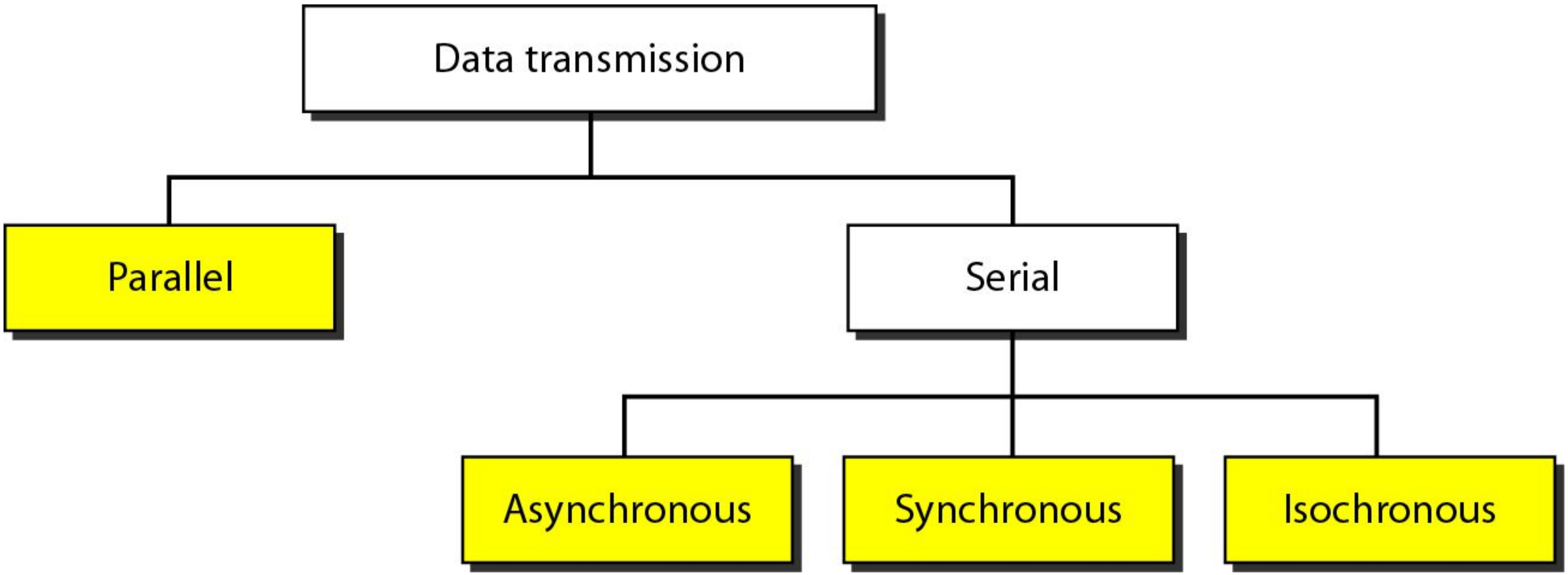


Figure 4.32 ***Parallel transmission***

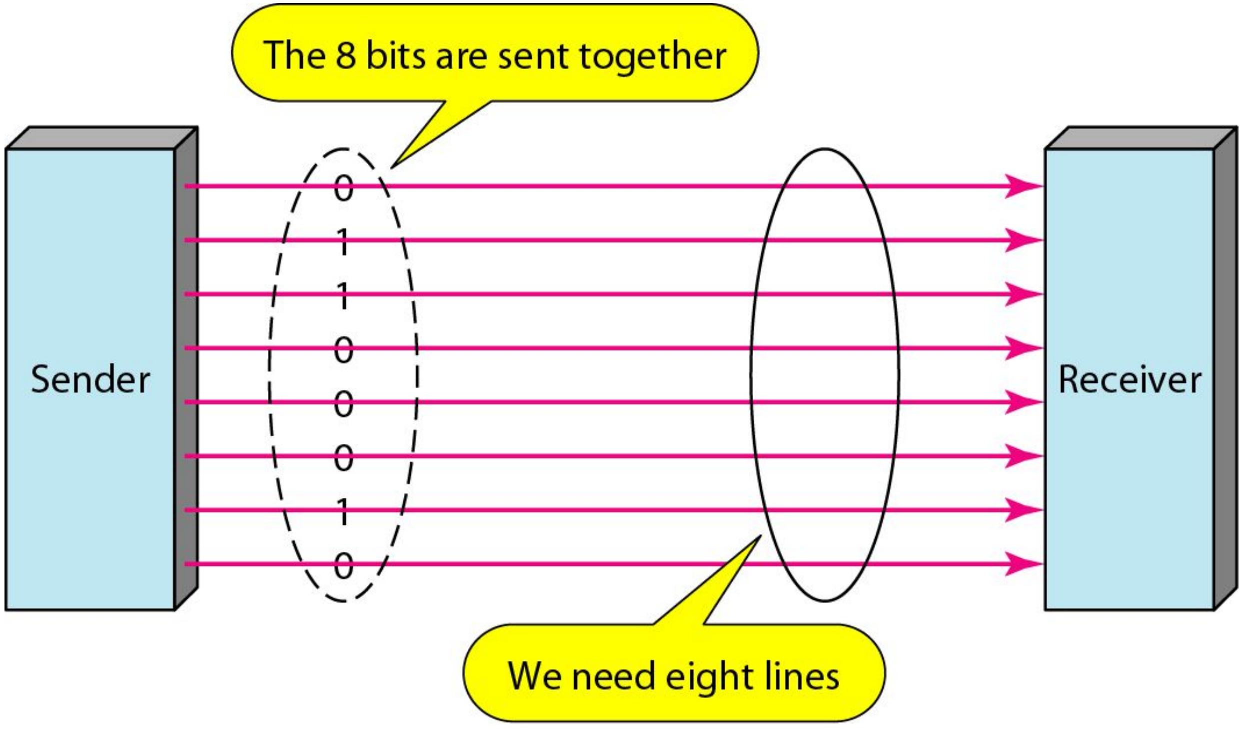
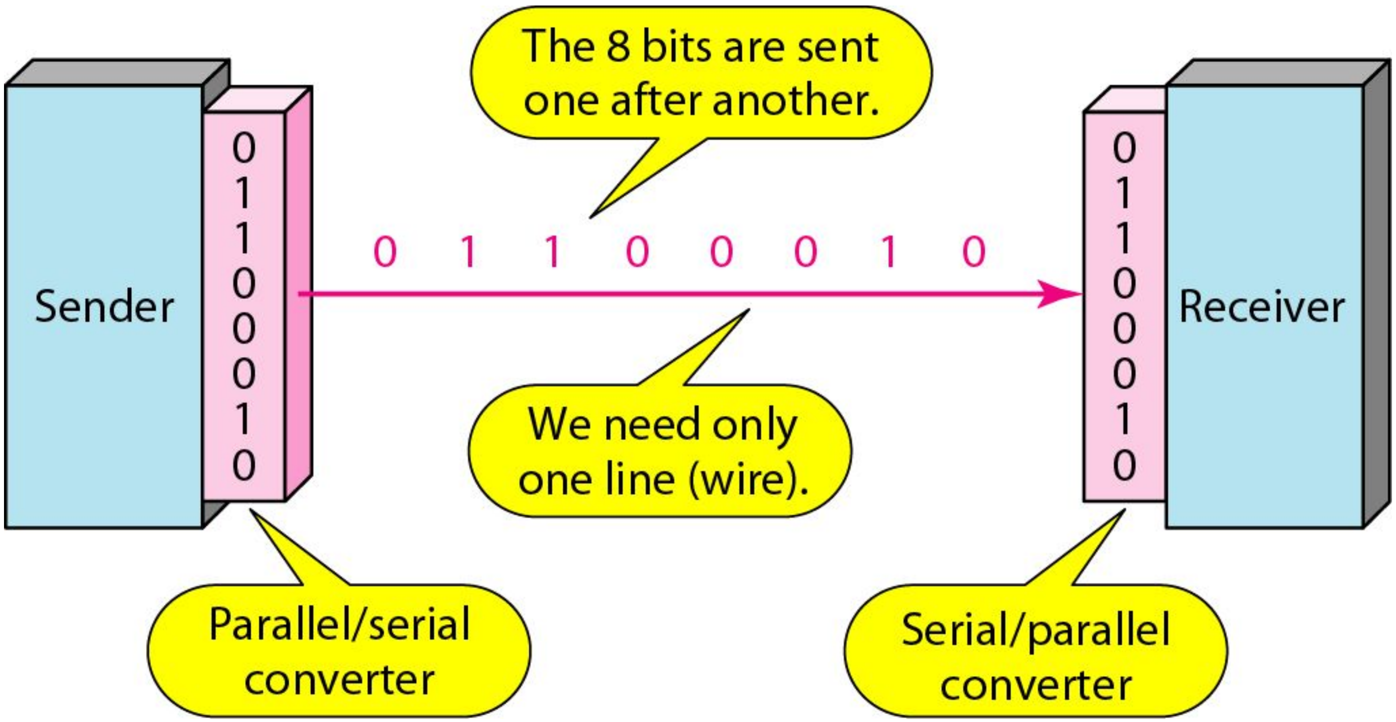


Figure 4.33 ***Serial transmission***



Note

In asynchronous transmission, we send 1 start bit (0) at the beginning and 1 or more stop bits (1s) at the end of each byte. There may be a gap between each byte.

Note

Asynchronous here means "asynchronous at the byte level," but the bits are still synchronized; their durations are the same.

Figure 4.34 Asynchronous transmission

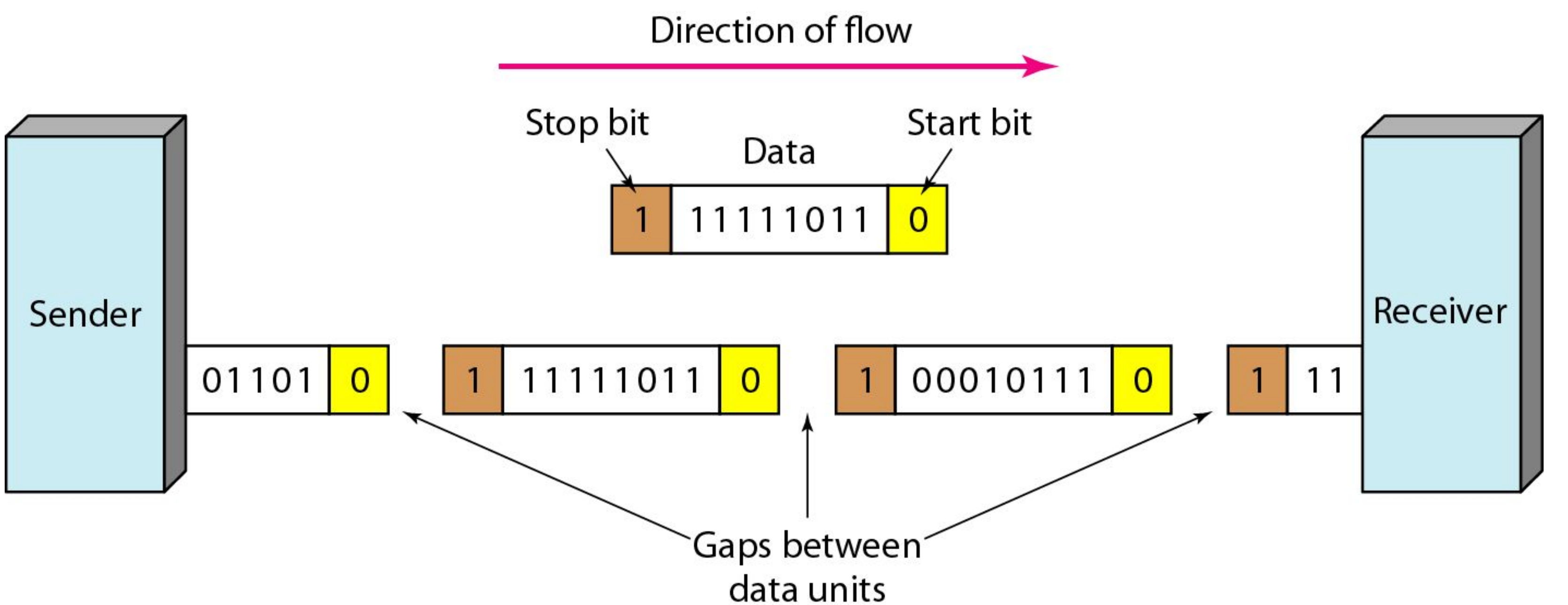
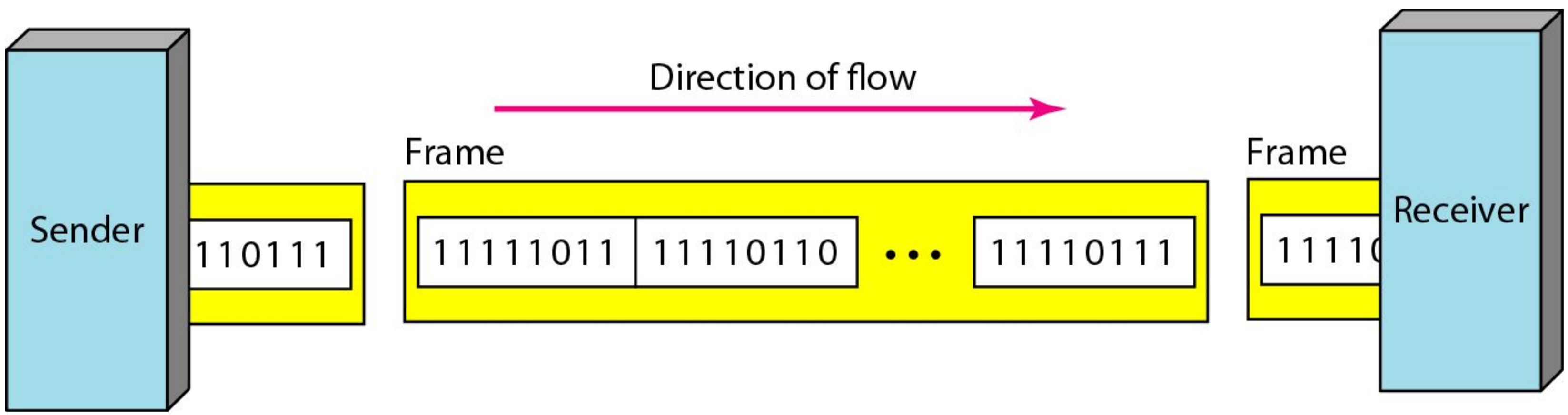


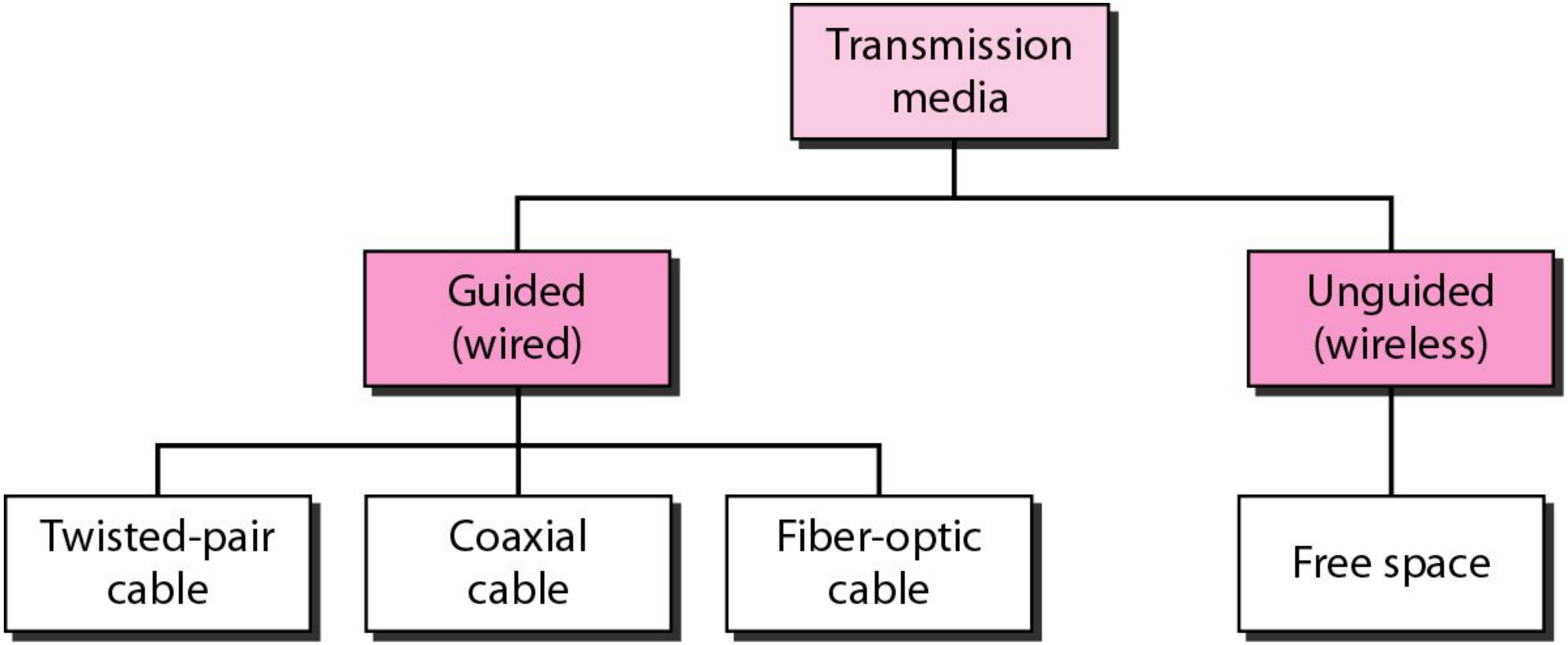
Figure 4.35 Synchronous transmission



Isochronous

- In isochronous transmission we cannot have uneven gaps between frames.
- Transmission of bits is fixed with equal gaps.

Figure 7.2 ***Classes of transmission media***



7-1 GUIDED MEDIA

Guided media, which are those that provide a conduit from one device to another, include twisted-pair cable, coaxial cable, and fiber-optic cable.

~~Topics discussed in this section:~~

Twisted-Pair Cable

Coaxial Cable

Fiber-Optic Cable

Figure 7.3 ***Twisted-pair cable***

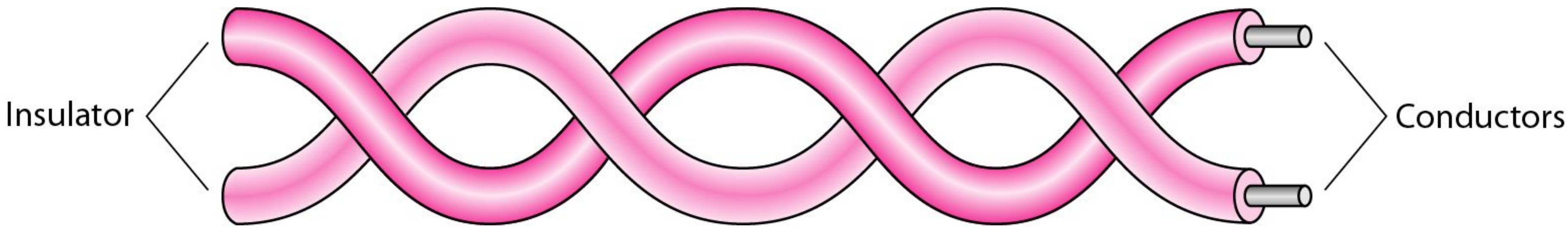


Figure 7.4 ***UTP and STP cables***

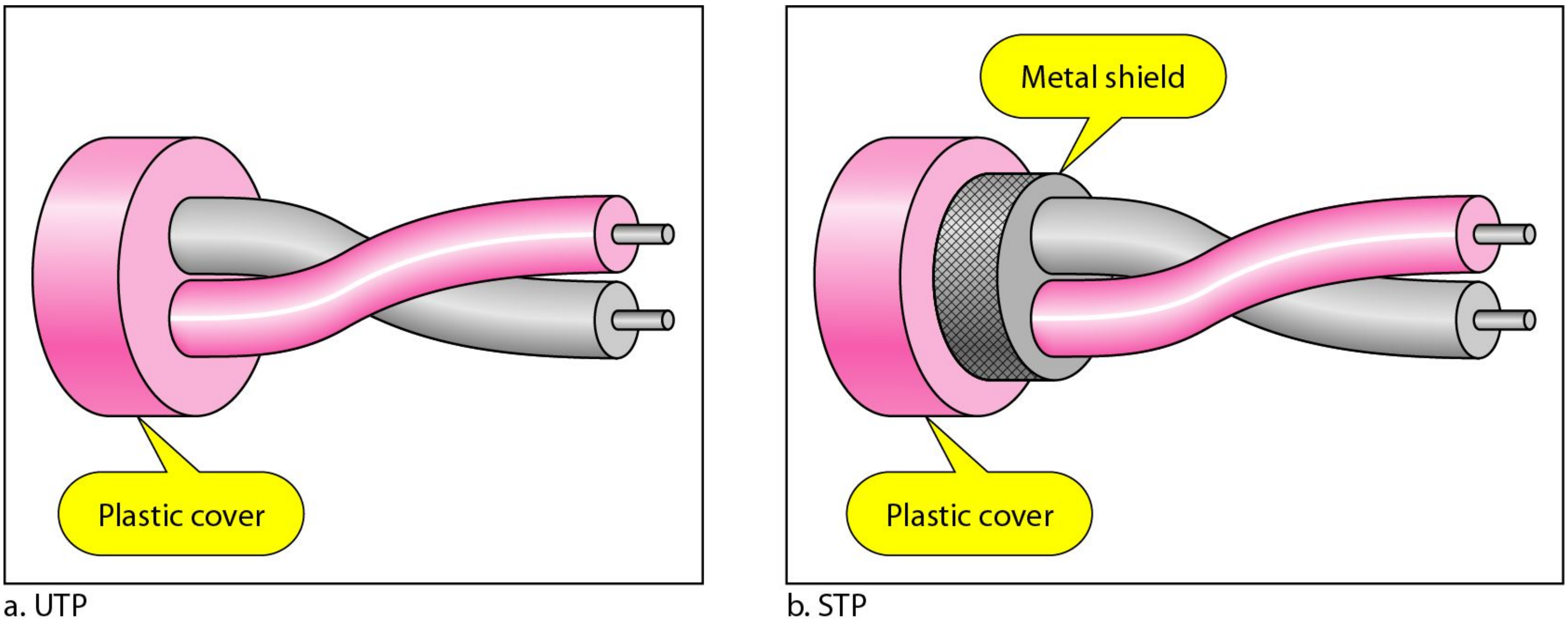


Table 7.1 ***Categories of unshielded twisted-pair cables***

Category	*Specification*	*Data Rate (Mbps)*	*Use*
1	Unshielded twisted-pair used in telephone	< 0.1	Telephone
2	Unshielded twisted-pair originally used in T-lines	2	T-1 lines
3	Improved CAT 2 used in LANs	10	LANs
4	Improved CAT 3 used in Token Ring networks	20	LANs
5	Cable wire is normally 24 AWG with a jacket and outside sheath	100	LANs
5E	An extension to category 5 that includes extra features to minimize the crosstalk and electromagnetic interference	125	LANs
6	A new category with matched components coming from the same manufacturer. The cable must be tested at a 200-Mbps data rate.	200	LANs
7	Sometimes called SSTP (shielded screen twisted-pair). Each pair is individually wrapped in a helical metallic foil followed by a metallic foil shield in addition to the outside sheath. The shield decreases the effect of crosstalk and increases the data rate.	600	LANs

Figure 7.5 ***UTP connector***

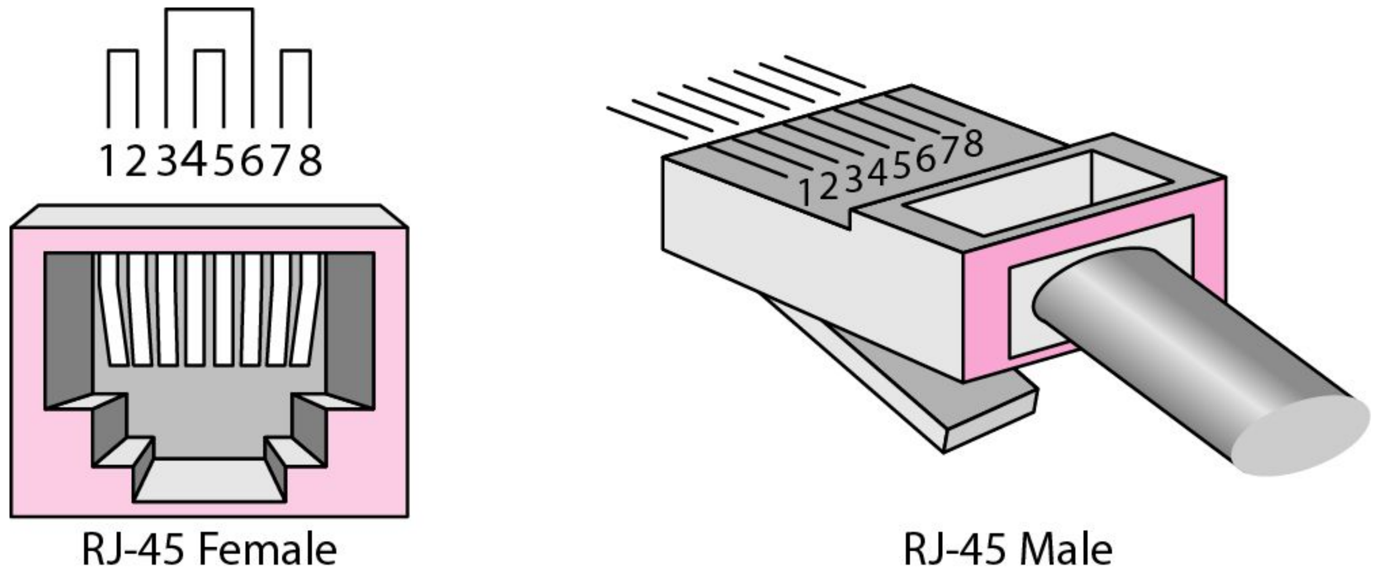


Figure 7.6 ***UTP performance***

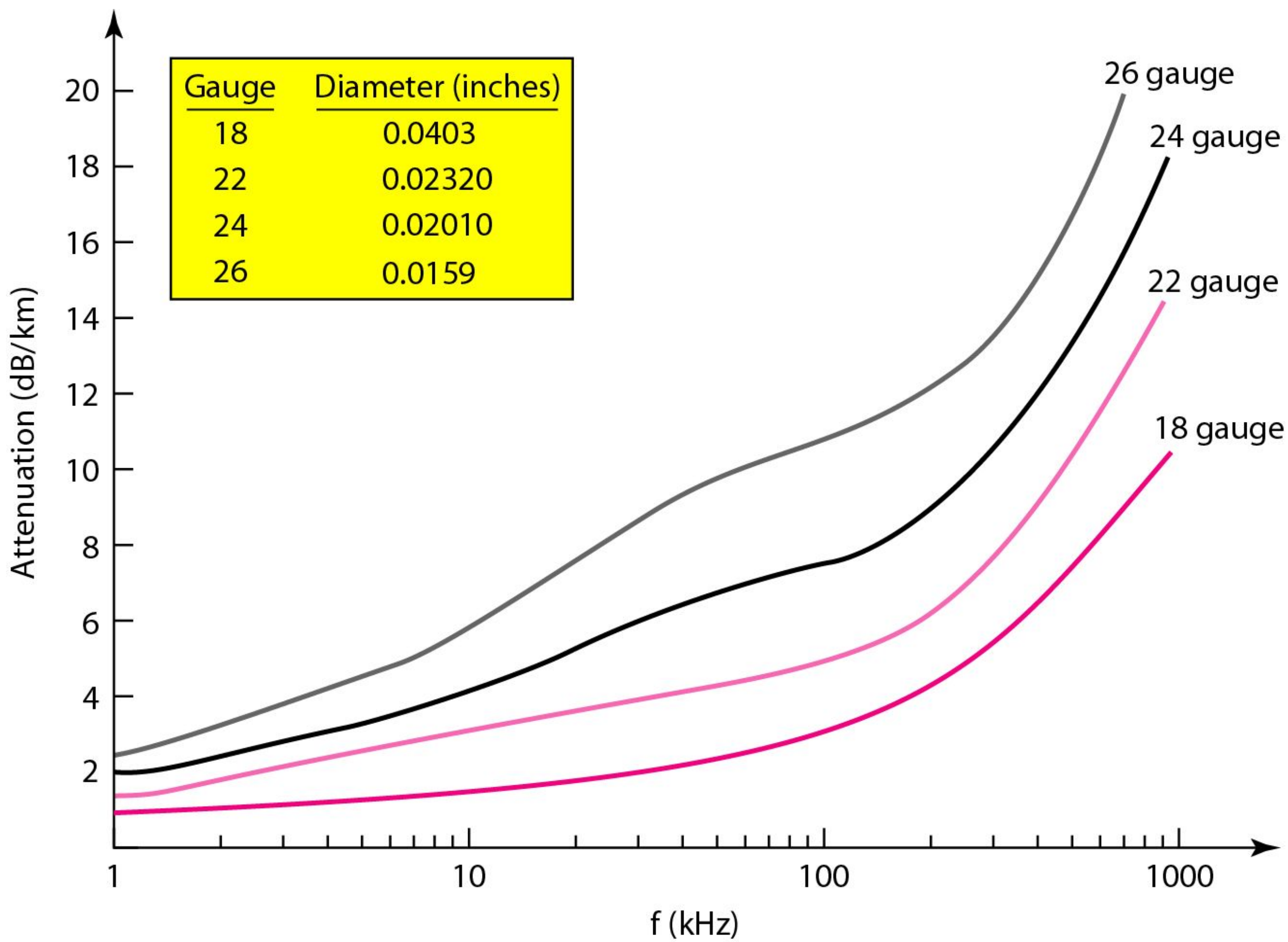


Figure 7.7 ***Coaxial cable***

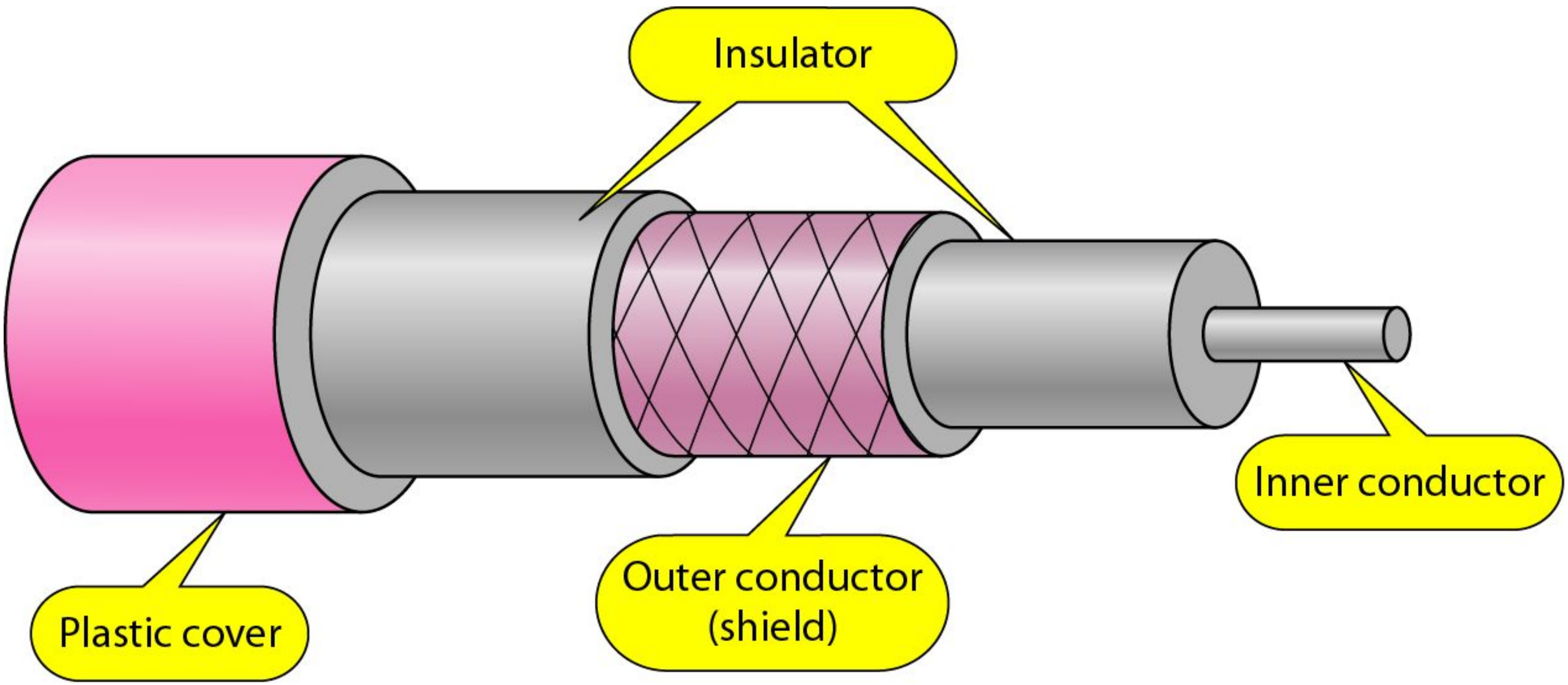


Table 7.2 ***Categories of coaxial cables***

Category	*Impedance*	*Use*
RG-59	75 Ω	Cable TV
RG-58	50 Ω	Thin Ethernet
RG-11	50 Ω	Thick Ethernet

Figure 7.8 ***BNC connectors***

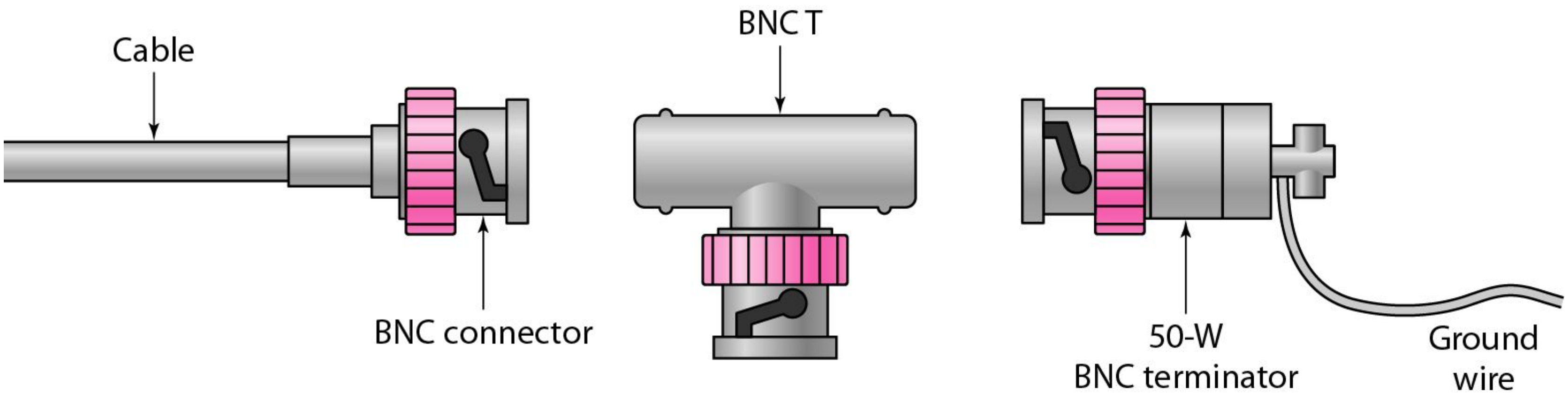


Figure 7.9 ***Coaxial cable performance***

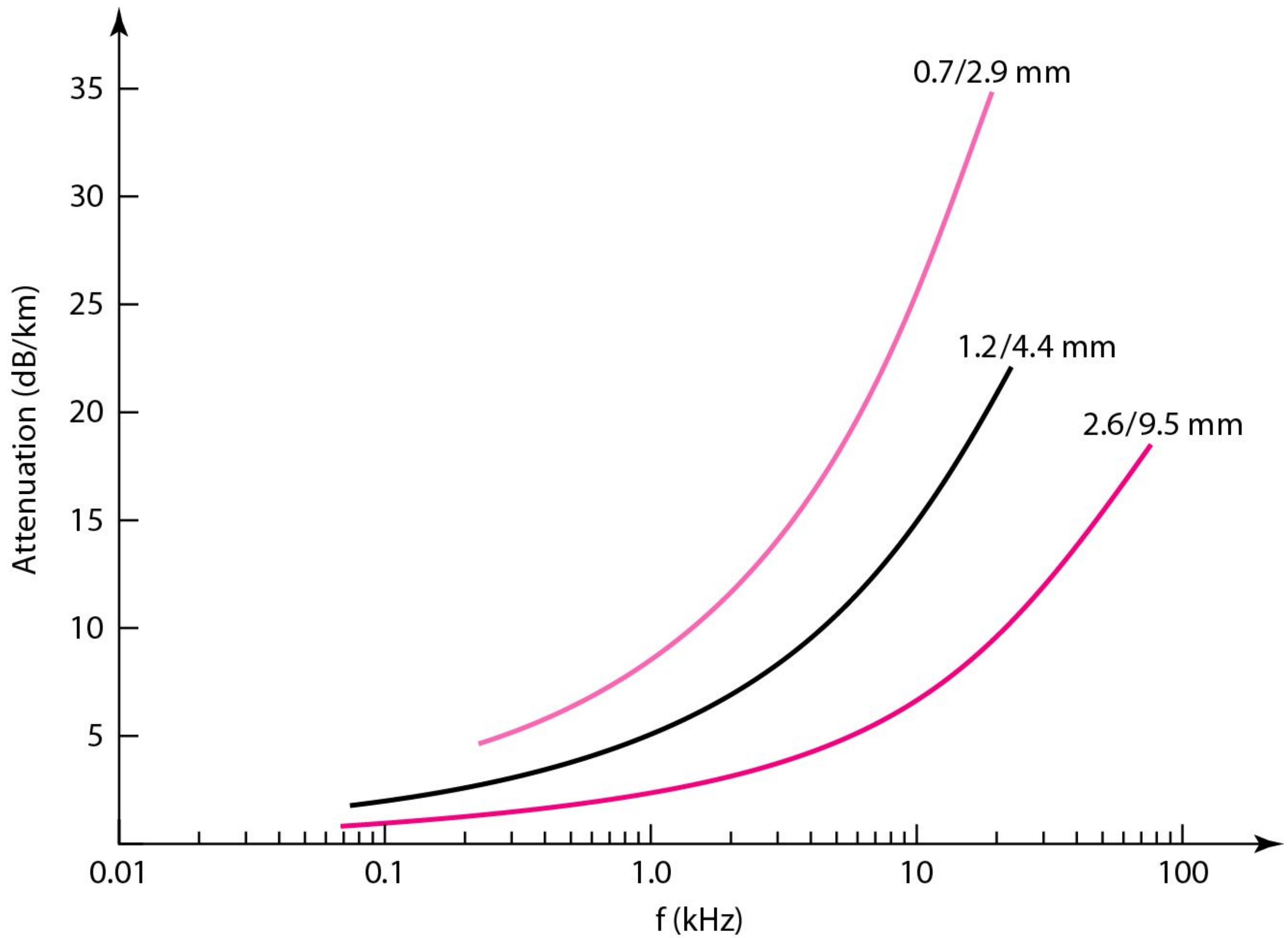


Figure 7.10 Fiber optics: ***Bending of light ray***

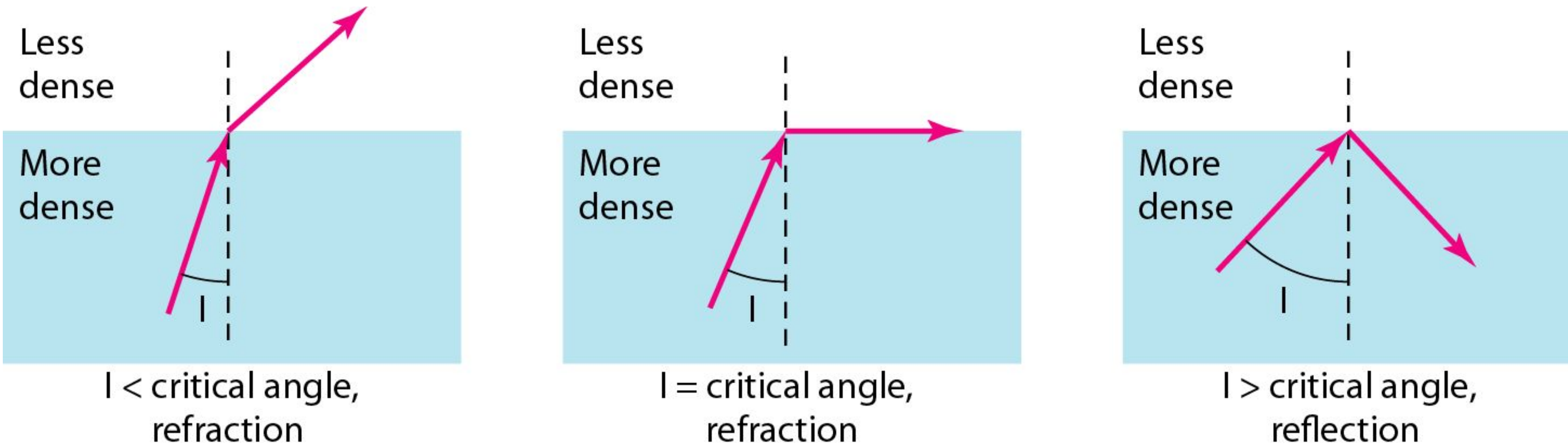


Figure 7.11 ***Optical fiber***

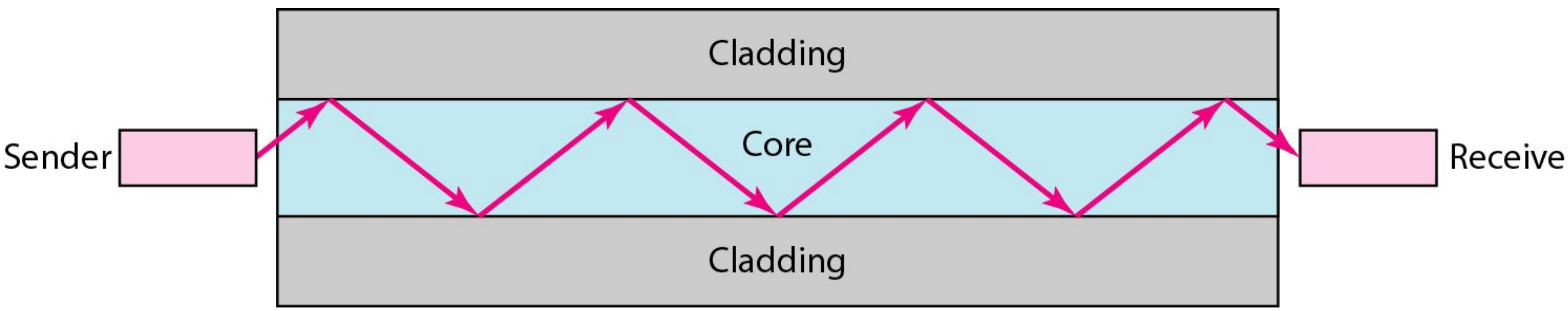


Figure 7.12 ***Propagation modes***

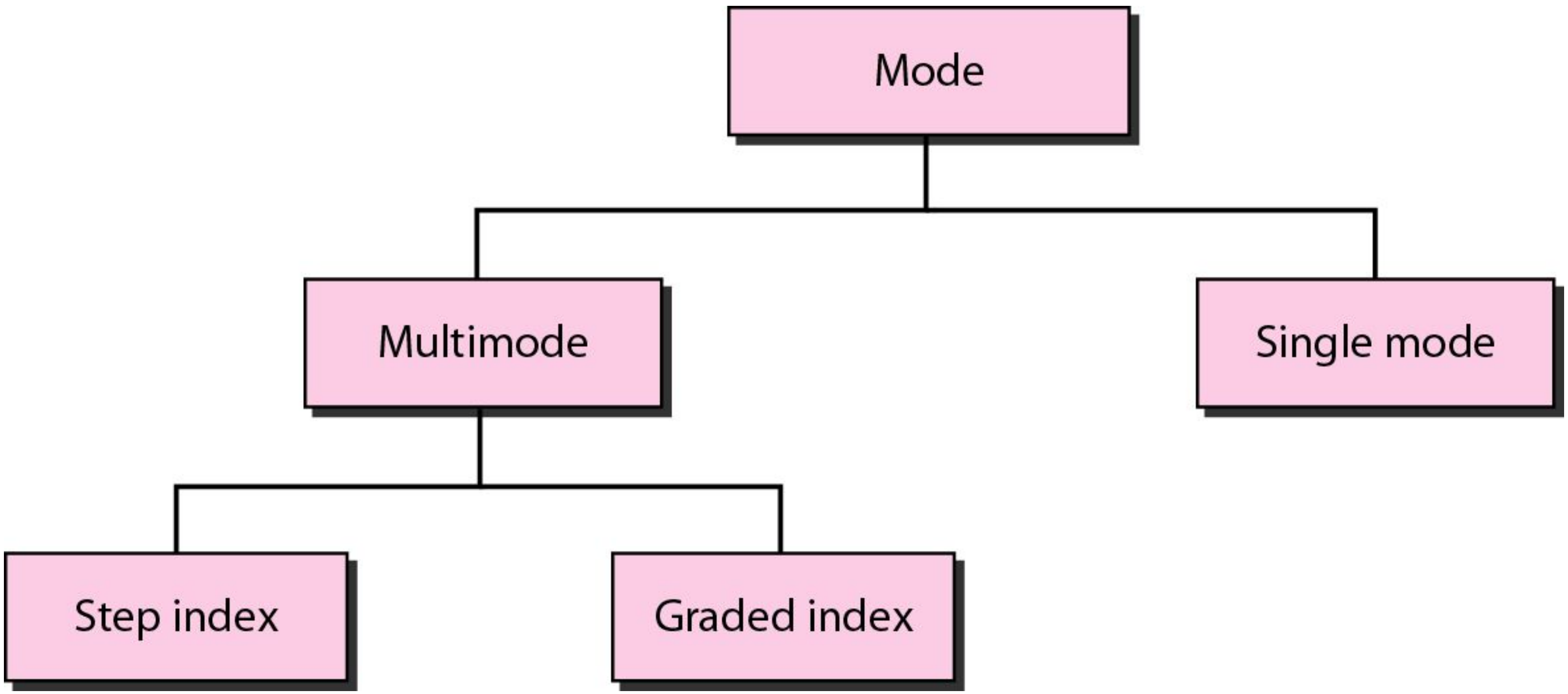


Figure 7.13 ***Modes***

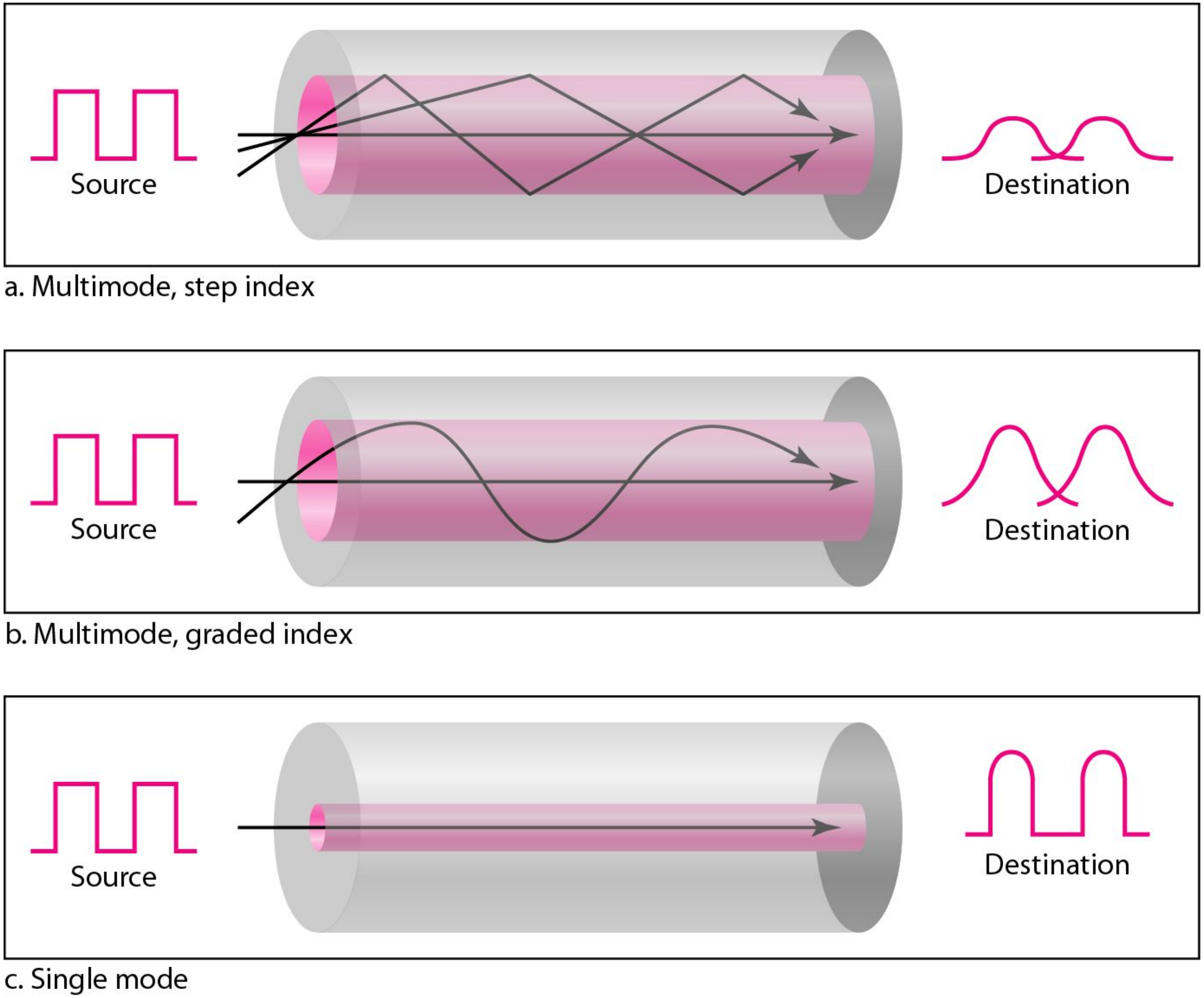


Table 7.3 ***Fiber types***

Type	*Core (µm)*	*Cladding (µm)*	*Mode*
50/125	50.0	125	Multimode, graded index
62.5/125	62.5	125	Multimode, graded index
100/125	100.0	125	Multimode, graded index
7/125	7.0	125	Single mode

Figure 7.14 ***Fiber construction***

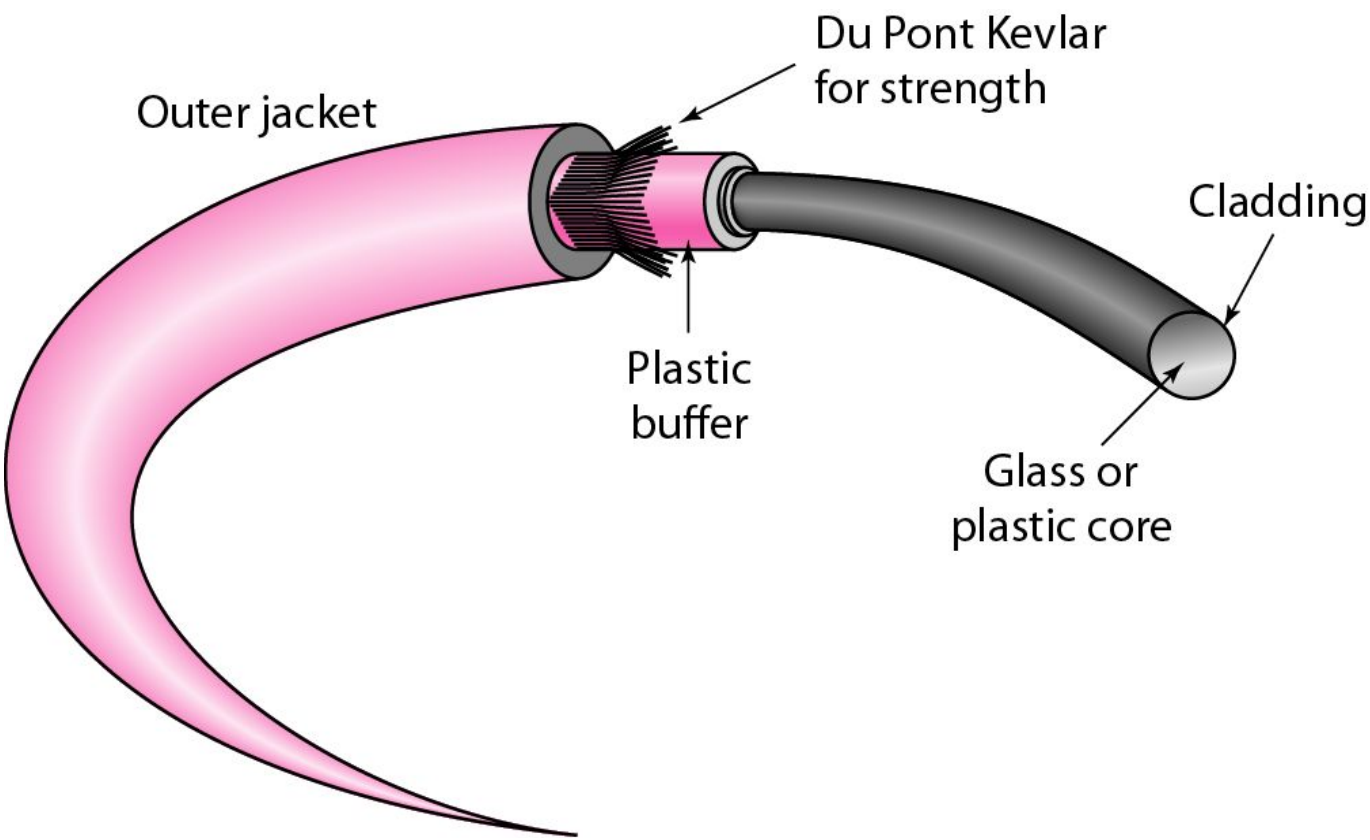


Figure 7.15 ***Fiber-optic cable connectors***

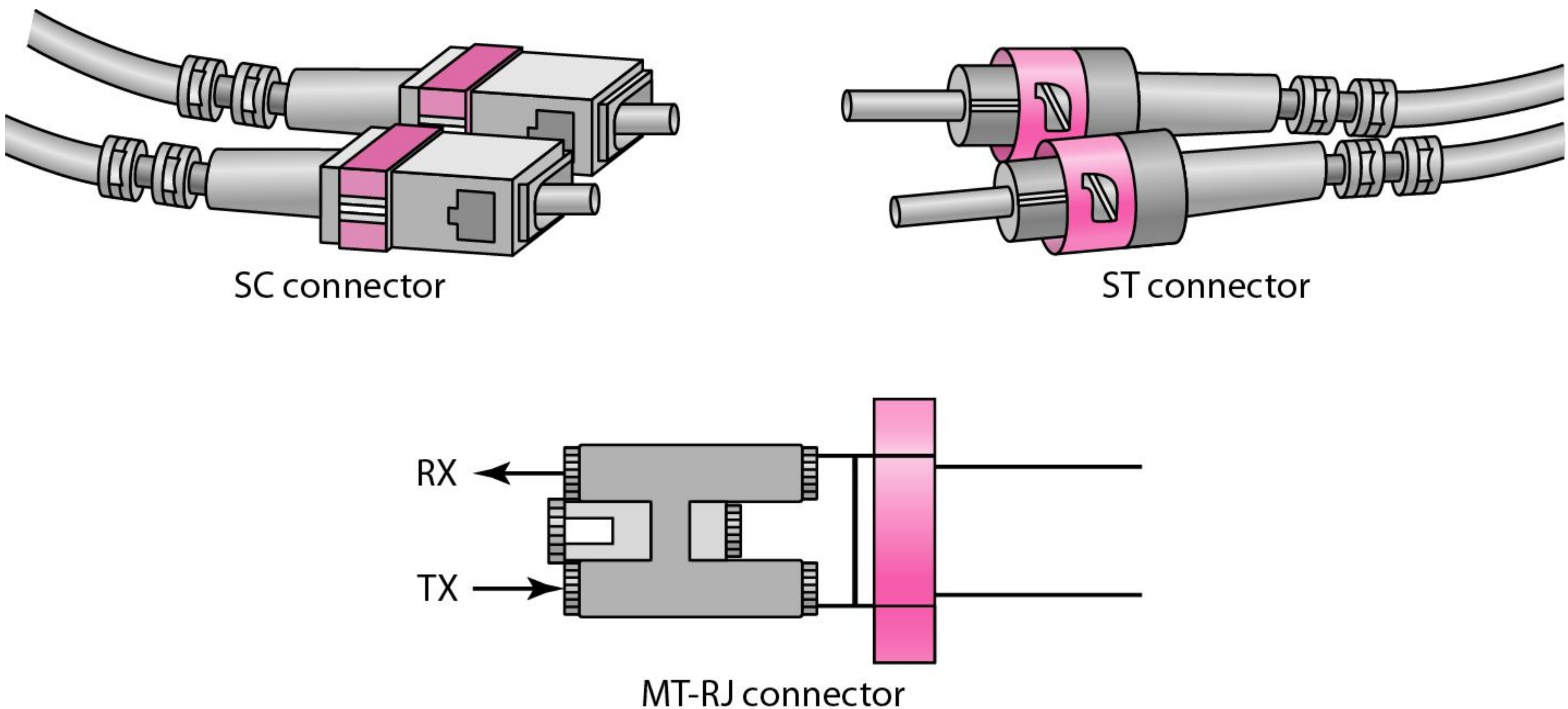
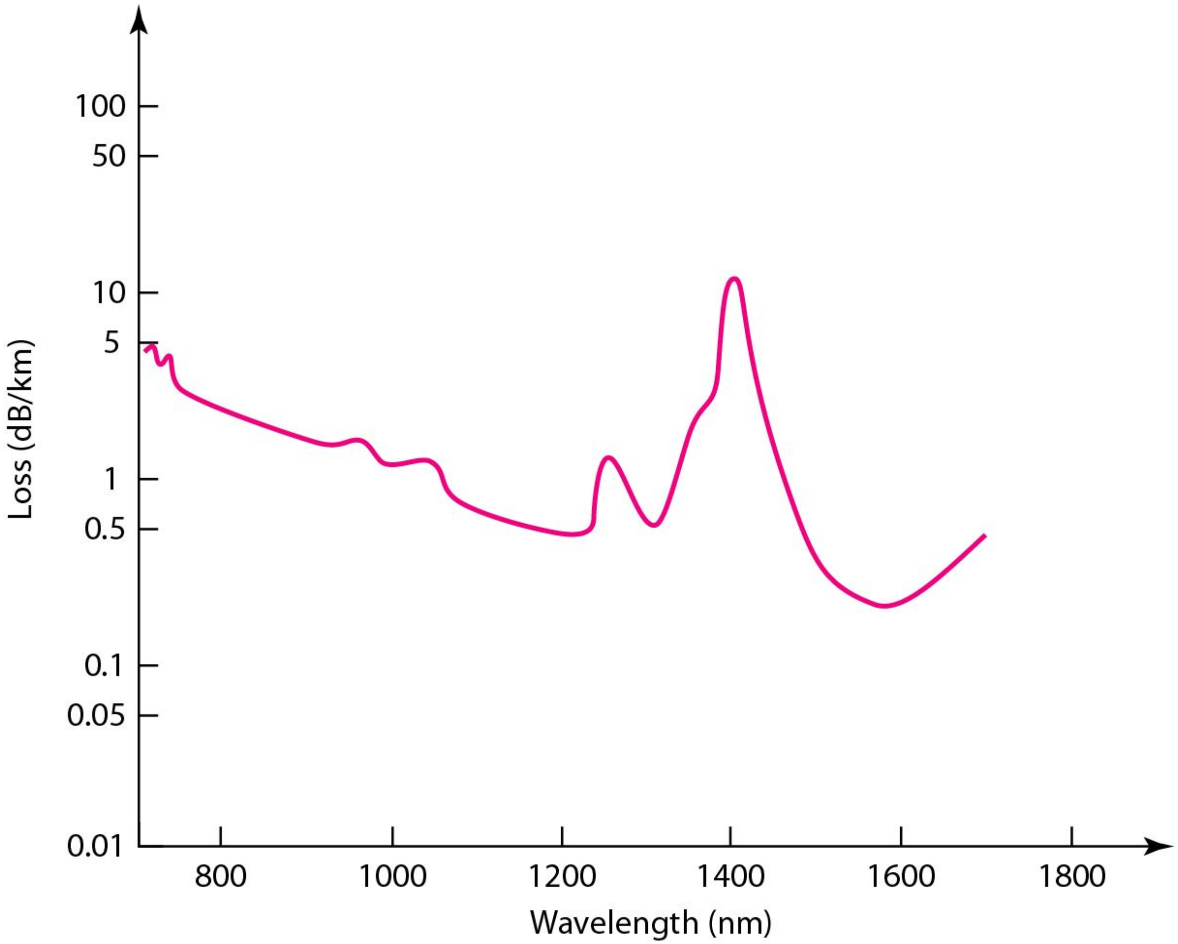


Figure 7.16 Optical fiber performance



7-2 UNGUIDED MEDIA: WIRELESS

Unguided media transport electromagnetic waves without using a physical conductor. This type of communication is often referred to as wireless communication.

~~***Topics discussed in this section:***~~

Radio Waves

Microwaves

Infrared

Figure 7.17 Electromagnetic spectrum for wireless communication

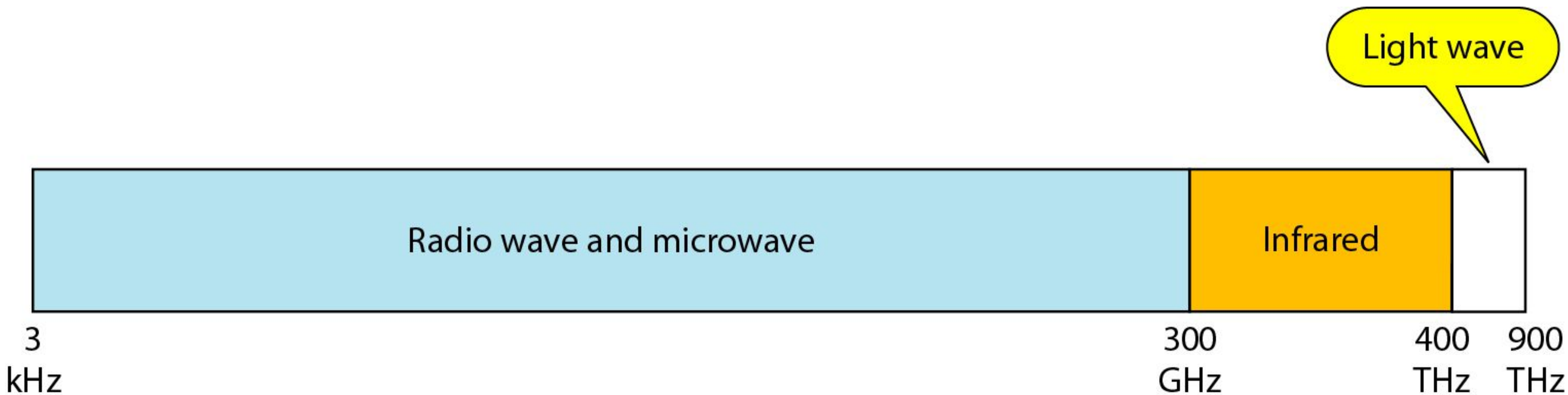


Figure 7.18 ***Propagation methods***

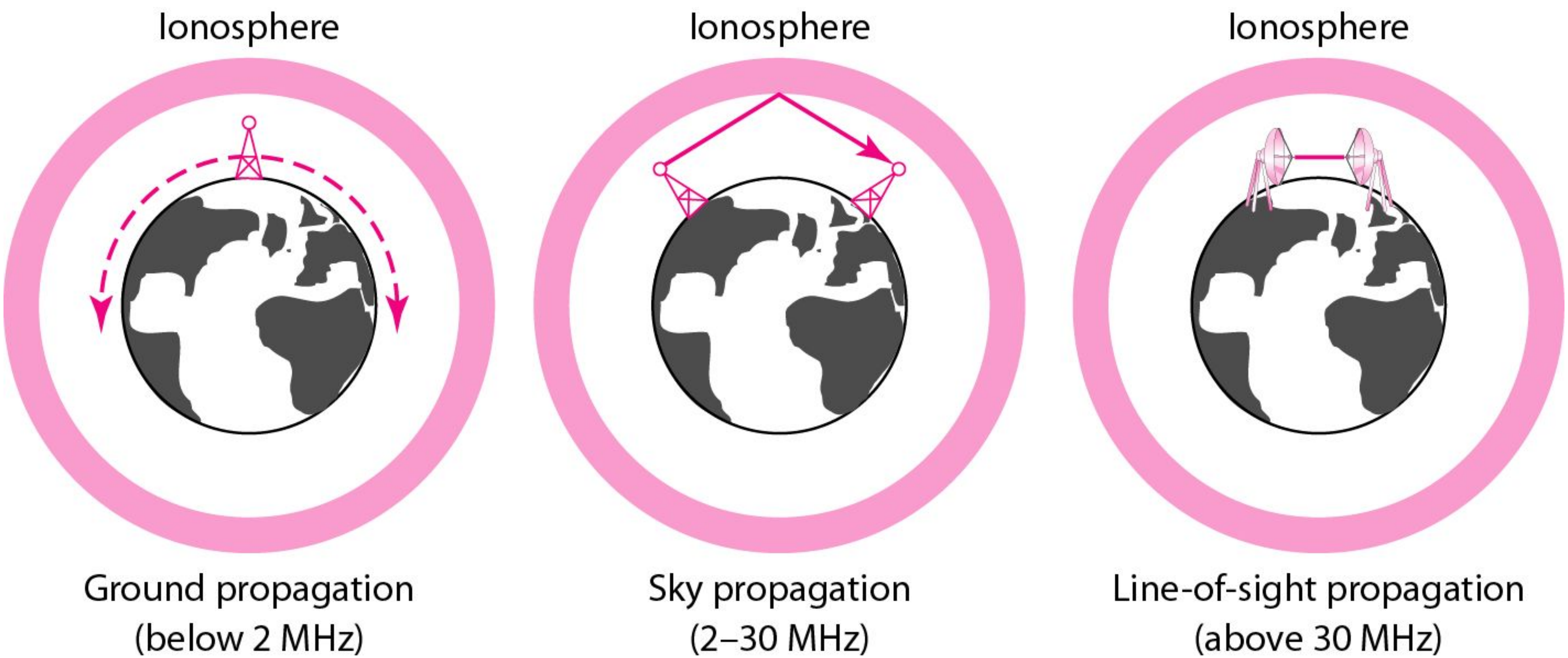
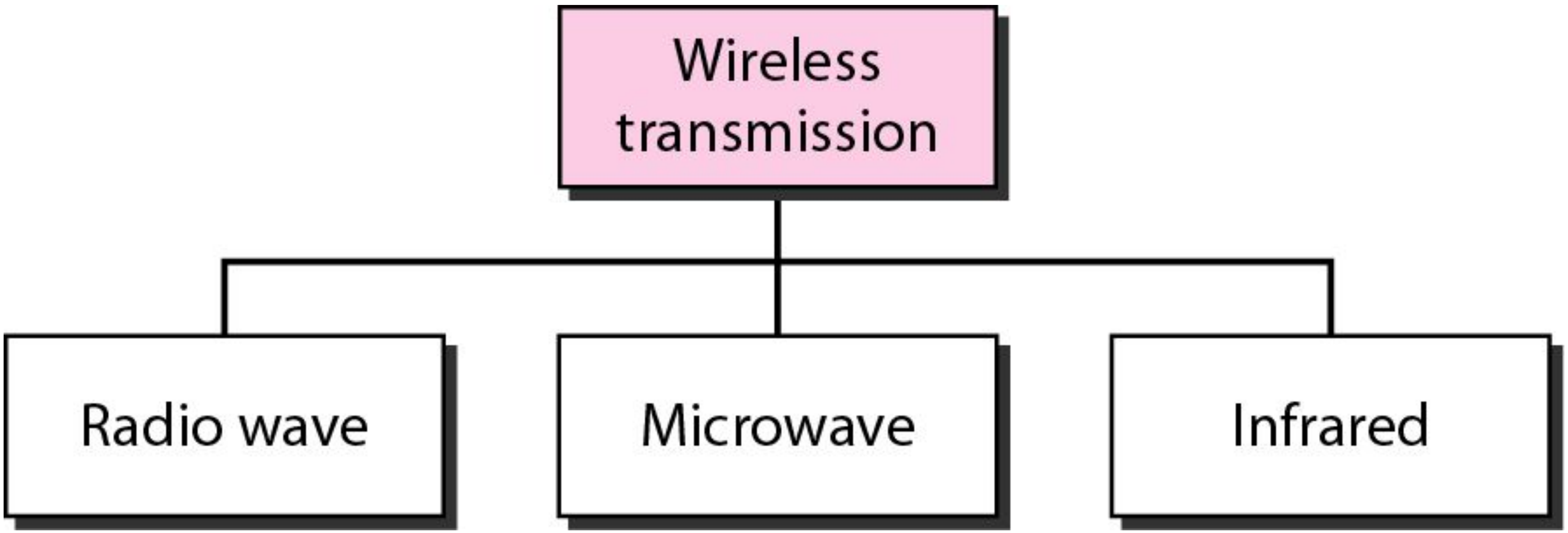


Table 7.4 **Bands**

Band	*Range*	*Propagation*	*Application*
VLF (very low frequency)	3–30 kHz	Ground	Long-range radio navigation
LF (low frequency)	30–300 kHz	Ground	Radio beacons and navigational locators
MF (middle frequency)	300 kHz–3 MHz	Sky	AM radio
HF (high frequency)	3–30 MHz	Sky	Citizens band (CB), ship/aircraft communication
VHF (very high frequency)	30–300 MHz	Sky and line-of-sight	VHF TV, FM radio
UHF (ultrahigh frequency)	300 MHz–3 GHz	Line-of-sight	UHF TV, cellular phones, paging, satellite
SHF (superhigh frequency)	3–30 GHz	Line-of-sight	Satellite communication
EHF (extremely high frequency)	30–300 GHz	Line-of-sight	Radar, satellite

Figure 7.19 ***Wireless transmission waves***



Note

Microwaves are used for unicast communication such as cellular telephones,

satellite networks,

and wireless LANs.

Higher frequency ranges cannot penetrate walls.

Use directional antennas - point to point line of sight communications.

Note

Radio waves are used for multicast communications, such as radio and television, and paging systems. They can penetrate through walls. Highly regulated. Use omni directional antennas

Figure 7.20 ***Omnidirectional antenna***

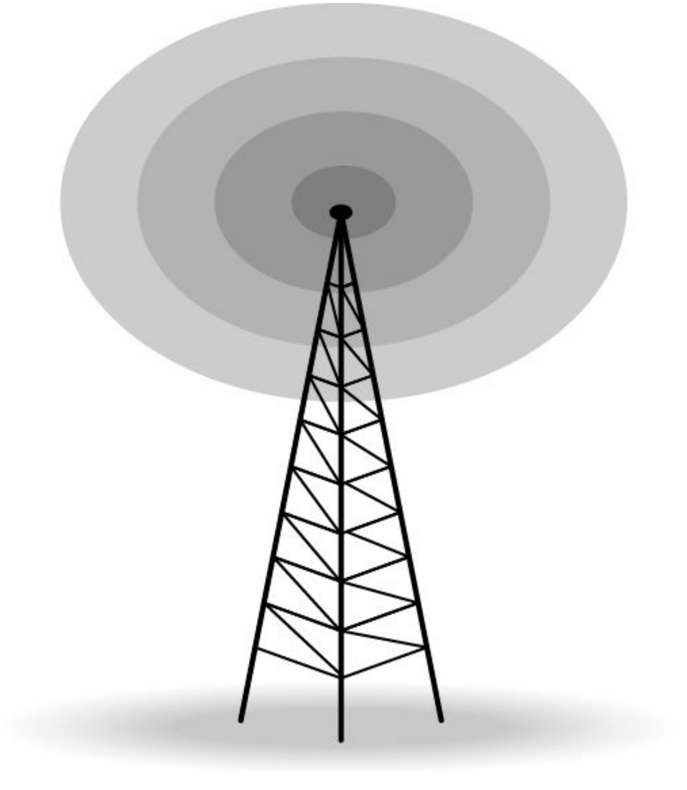
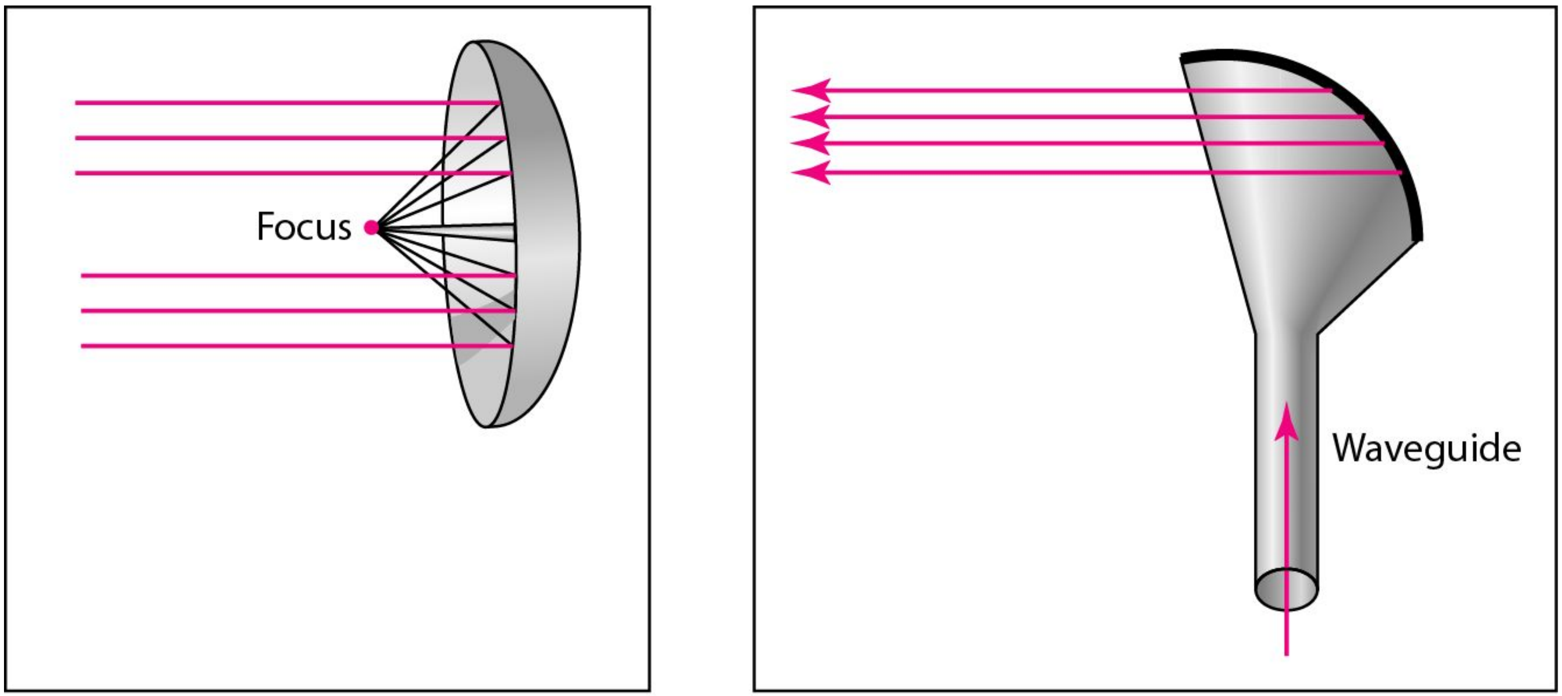


Figure 7.21 ***Unidirectional antennas***



a. Dish antenna

b. Horn antenna

Note

Infrared signals can be used for short-range communication in a closed area using line-of-sight propagation.

Wireless Channels

- Are subject to a lot more errors than guided media channels.
- Interference is one cause for errors, can be circumvented with high SNR.
- The higher the SNR the less capacity is available for transmission due to the broadcast nature of the channel.
- Channel also subject to fading and no coverage holes.