

UNIT-2

By Gavind Patidar

We must transform data into signals to send them from one place to another.

A simple signal by itself doesn't carry information any more than a straight line conveys words. First information must be translated into agreed-upon patterns of 0's and 1's for example using ASCII

Digital to digital : To carry the stored 1 or 0 in computer data are usually converted to digital signals. This is called digital-to-digital conversion or encoding digital data into a digital signal.

Analog to digital : → Sometimes we need to convert an analog signal (such as voice in telephone conversation) into a digital signal for several reasons, such as decrease the effect of noise. This is called analog-to-digital conversion (A/D) or digitizing an analog signal.

Digital to Analog : → Whenever we want to send digital signal coming out of a computer through a medium designed for an analog signal. For ex. send data from one place to another place using Public telephone line, the digital signal produced by computer should be converted to an analog signal. This is called digital-to-digital conversion or modulating a digital signal.

Analog to Analog : → Analog signal is sent over long distance using analog media. For ex. voice or music in air. However freq of voice or music is not appropriate for this kind of transmission. Signal should be carried by high freq signal. This is called Analog to Analog conversion (A/A)

Conversion Methods

Digital/Digital

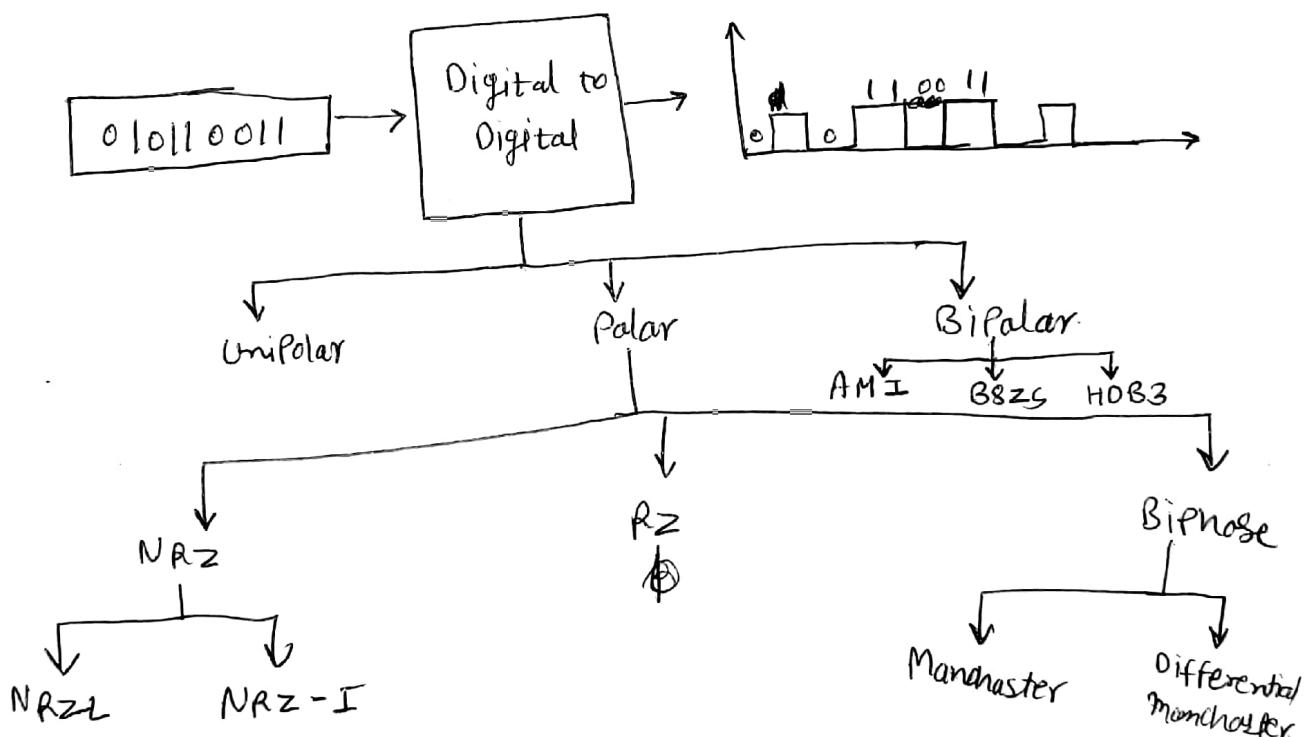
Analog/Digital

Digital/Analog

Analog/Analog

- 1) Digital to digital conversion : \rightarrow Representation of digital information by a digital signal.

In this encoding, the binary 1s and 0s generated by a computer are translated into a sequence of voltage pulses that can be propagated over a wire.

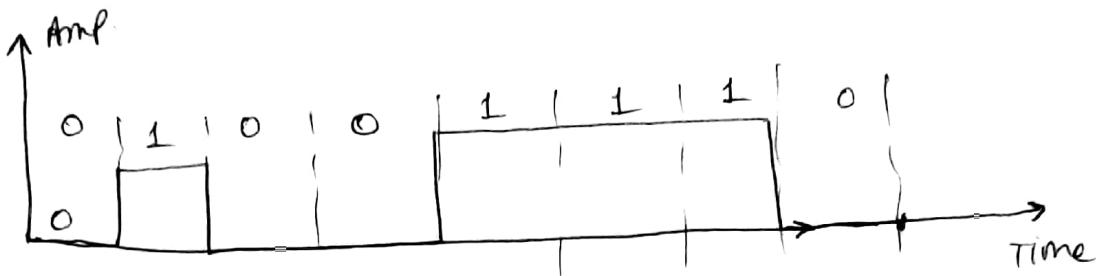


Unipolar \rightarrow very simple, obsolete today

\rightarrow It has only one polarity

\rightarrow Usually
 $1's \rightarrow +ve$ voltage
 $0's \rightarrow$ zero voltage

Example



Two problem

- 1) DC component: → The average Amp. of unipolar encoded signal is non zero. This creates what is called a direct current (DC) component (a component with zero freq). When a signal contains DC component, it can not travel through media that can not handle DC component.
- 2) Synchronization: → When signal is not varying, the receiver can not determine the beginning and ending of each bit. Especially when long 0's or 1's are appearing. Receiver uses timer for such problem but there may be mismatch in timing also. That may cause the problem. This problem can be avoided by using parallel line that carries a clock pulse but it will increase the cost.

Polar: →

Polar: → Uses two voltage levels: → +ve and -ve. By using both levels DC component problem is alleviated.

NRZ: → The level of the signal is always either +ve or -ve.

Non Return to zero level
a) NRZ-L: → Level of the signal depends on the type of bit it represents.

Usually → +ve voltage → 0
→ -ve voltage → 1

Synchronization problem if long stream of 1 or 0 is there

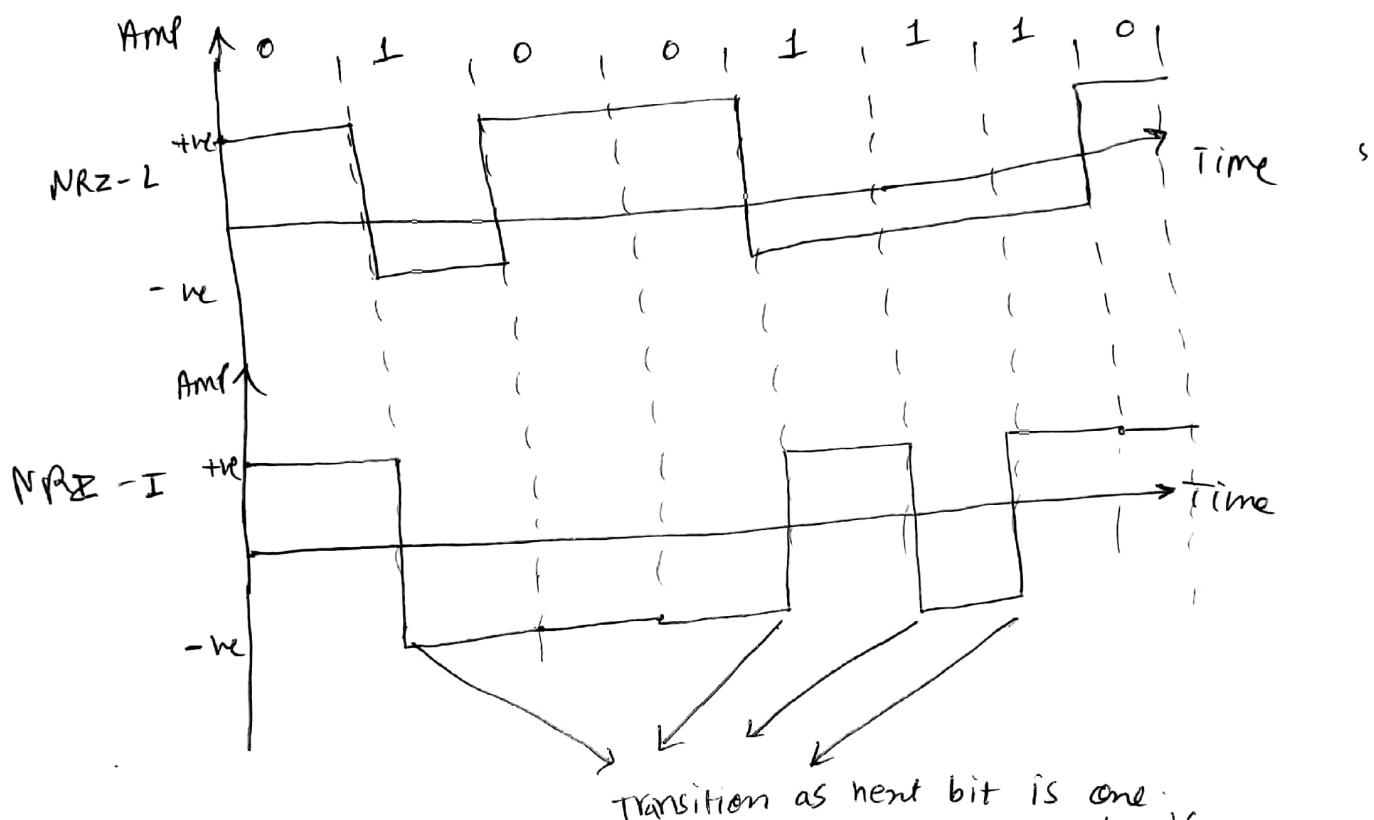
Non Return to zero
Invert

NRZ-I : \rightarrow An inversion of the voltage level represents a 1 bit.

\rightarrow bit 0 is represented by no change.

\rightarrow NRZ-I is superior to NRZ-L due to the synchronization provided by the signal change each time a 1 bit is encountered.

\rightarrow Long stream of 0 may cause synchronization problem.



Drawback of NRZ-I: \rightarrow consecutive seq. of 1's and 0's will create syn. problem.

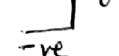
Return to zero (RZ): \rightarrow To assure synchronization, there must be signal change at each bit.

One sol'n is RZ which uses 3 levels, +ve, 0, -ve

1 bit: \rightarrow +ve to zero



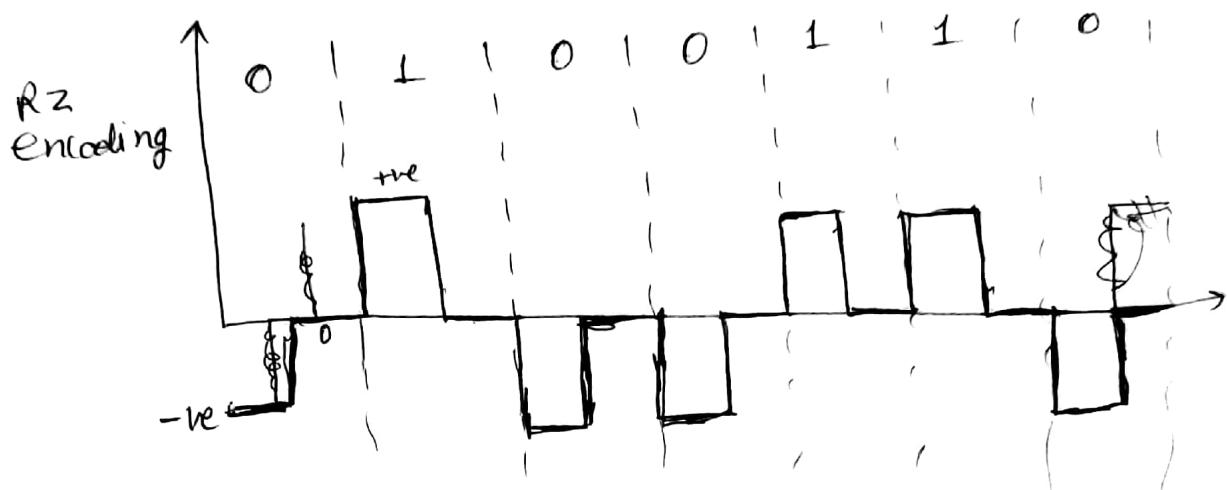
0 bit: \rightarrow -ve to zero



Disadvantage: \rightarrow Requires two signal changes to encode one bit and therefore occupies more bandwidth.

* A mod encoded digital signal must contain a provision for synch.

Ex: →



transitions can be used for synch.

Biphase: \rightarrow Best sol'n to the problem of synch.

→ Signal changes at the middle of the bit interval but does not return to zero. Instead it continues to opposite pole.

Two types:

1) Manchester: \rightarrow Inversion of at the middle of each bit interval for both synch. and bit representation.

→ A -ve to the transition represents binary +

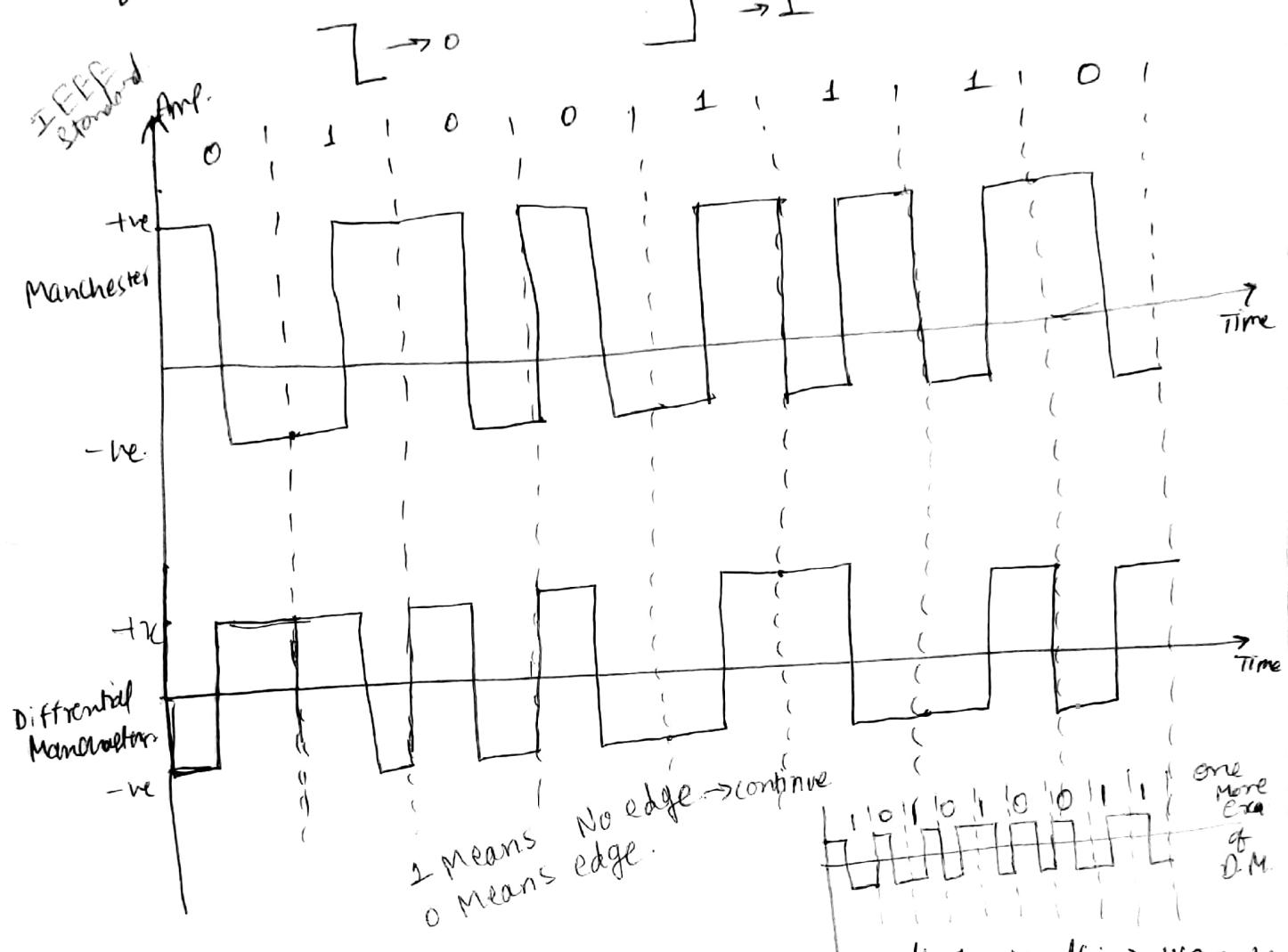
→ A +ve to -ve transition represents binary 0

2) Differential Manchester: → The inversion at the middle of the bit interval is used for synch., but the presence or absence of an additional transition at the beginningⁱⁿ of the interval is used to identify the bit.

bit.
→ A transition means binary 0, 1 or L

→ No transition means binary 1. 1 or 0

→ Requires two signal change for binary 0 but one for binary 1



Bipolar: → like RZ uses three voltage levels: $\rightarrow +ve, 0, -ve$

Unlike RZ, however the zero level in bipolar ends encoding is used to represent binary 0. The 1s are represented by alternating positive and -ve voltages.

→ If the first 1 bit is represented by positive ampl. the second will be represented by -ve ampl. the third by +ve ampl. and so on.

→ alternation occurs even when 1 bit are not consecutive.

4) Bipolar Alternate Mark Inversion (AMI):

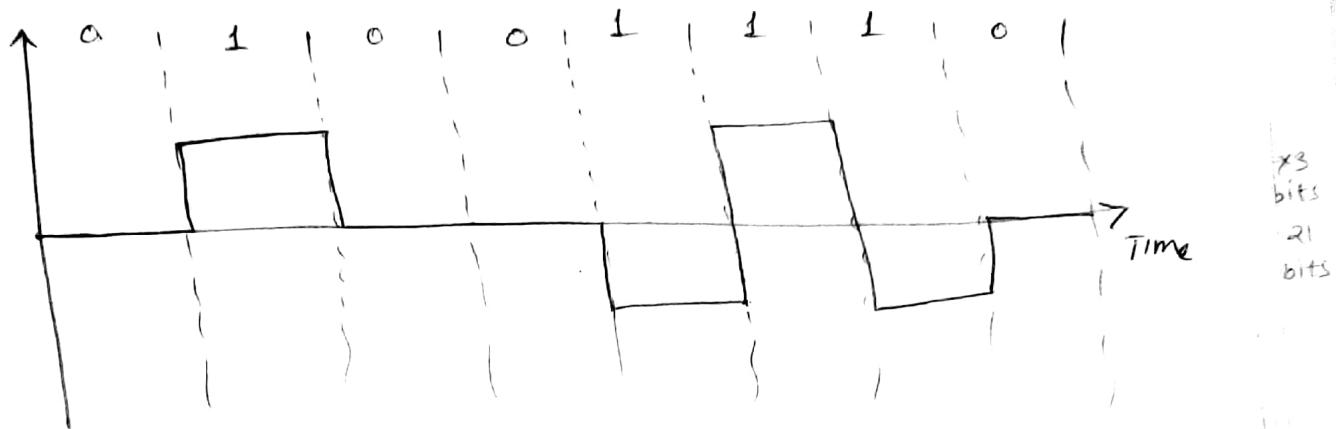
→ Simplest.

→ word mark comes from telephony means 1.

→ so AMI means alternate 1 inversion.

→ zero voltage represents binary 0.

→ Binary 1 are represented by alternating +ve and -ve voltages.



→ Advantages: →

1) DC component is zero.

2) Long seq. of 1s stay synchronized.

disadv: →

No mechanism to ensure the synch. of long string of 0s.

→ Variation of AMI are B8ZS and HDB3.
(Bipolar & zero-substitutions)

2) B8ZS: → adopted in North America. to provide synch. of long strings of 0s.

→ Work identical to AMI. as Synch. is often lost. When 0's are there. in AMI.

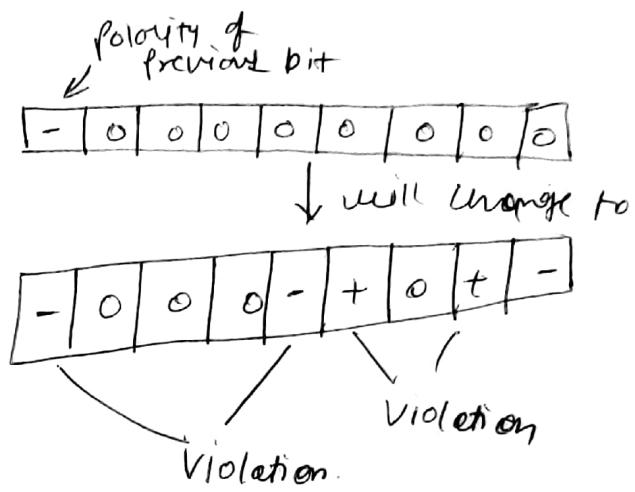
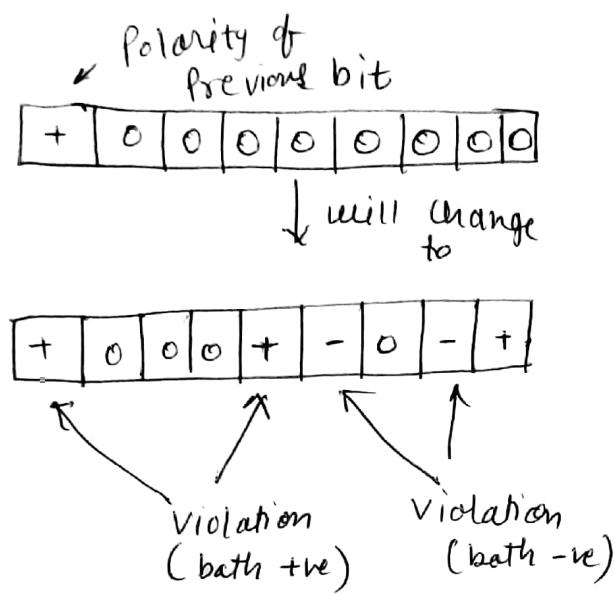
→ The difference between B8ZS and bipolar AMI occurs whenever eight or more consecutive 0s are encountered.

→ Solution is to force artificial signal changes, called Violation, within the 0 string.

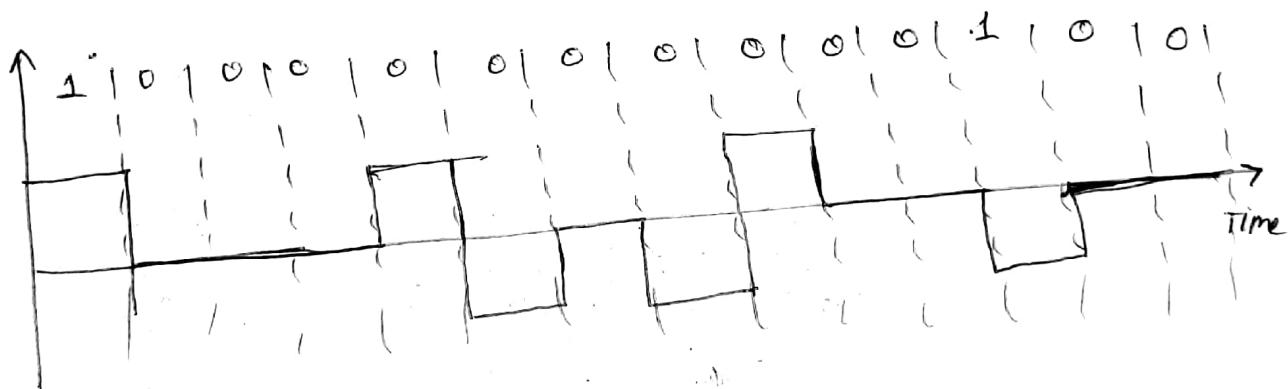
→ Anytime eight 0s occur in succession, B8ZS introduces changes in the pattern based on the polarity of the previous 1 (1 occurring just before the 0s)

⇒ If the previous 1 bit was positive, the eight 0s will be encoded as zero, zero, zero, Positive, negative, zero, negative, Positive.

→ If the Polarity of the Previous 1 is -ve. The pattern of violations is the same but with inverted polarities.
i.e. zero, zero, zero, Negative, Positive, zero, Positive, negative.

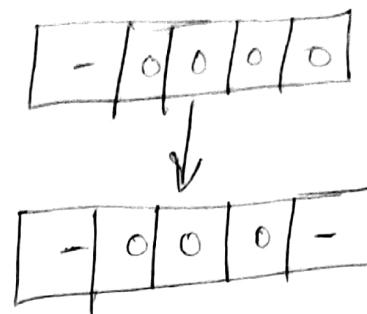
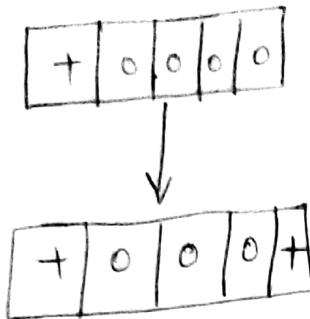


Ex: Encode the bit stream 1000000000100 using B8ZS, assume Polarity of first 1 is +ve.

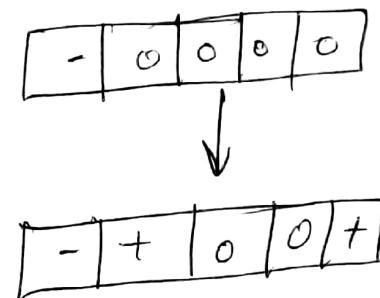
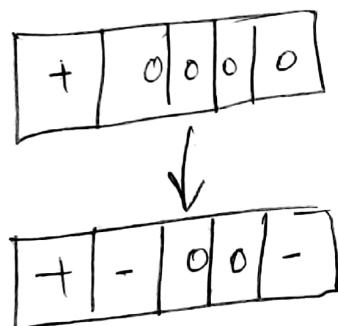


HDB3 (High density bipolar 3) : → Problem of Synch.
String of consecutive 0s is solved differently in Europe and Japan. This is called HDB3.
Introduce changes in AMI pattern every time four consecutive 0s are encountered instead of 8.

HDB3 Encoding

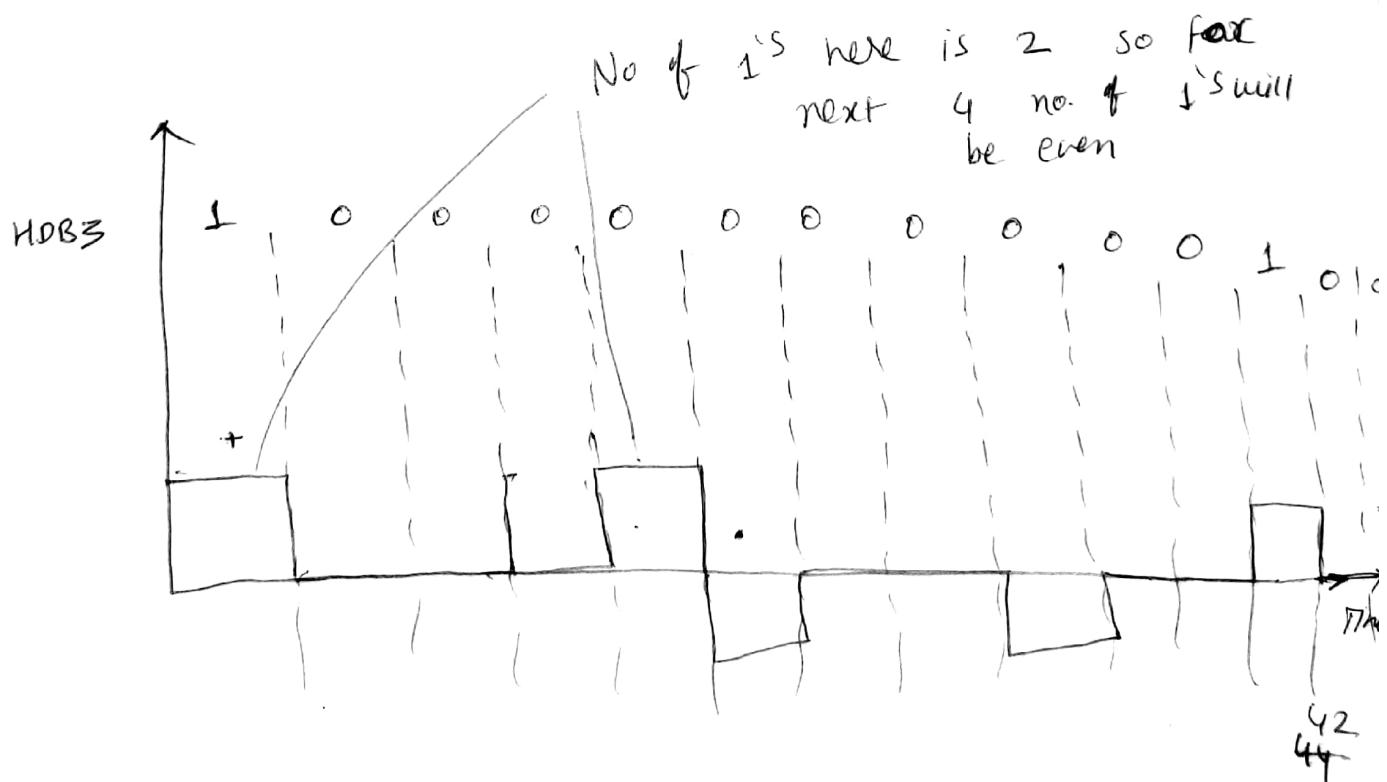


(a) If the no. of +s since the last substitution is even.

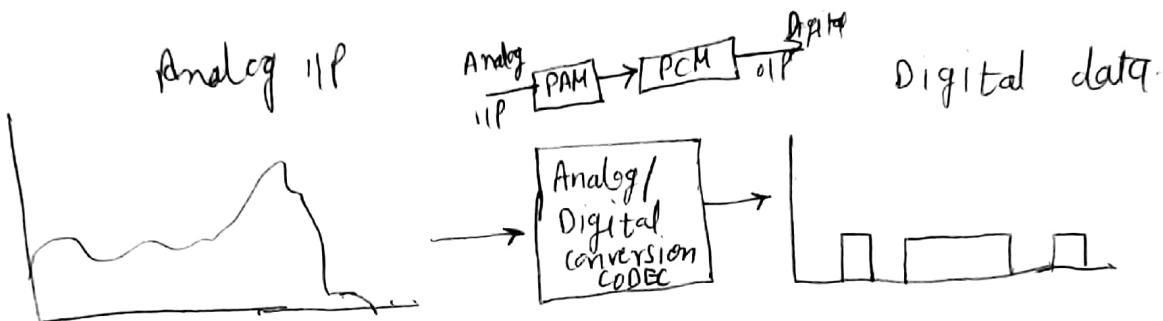


(b) If the no. of +s since the last substitution is odd.

Ex: using HDB3, encode the bit stream + 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0. Assume that the no. of 1s so far is odd and the first 1 is +ve.



Analog to Digital conversion: → To send human voice over a long distance we need to digitize it since digital signals are less prone to noise.



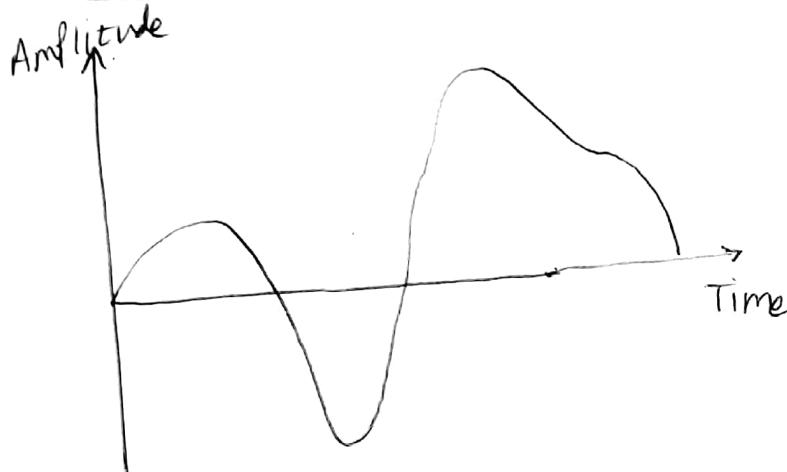
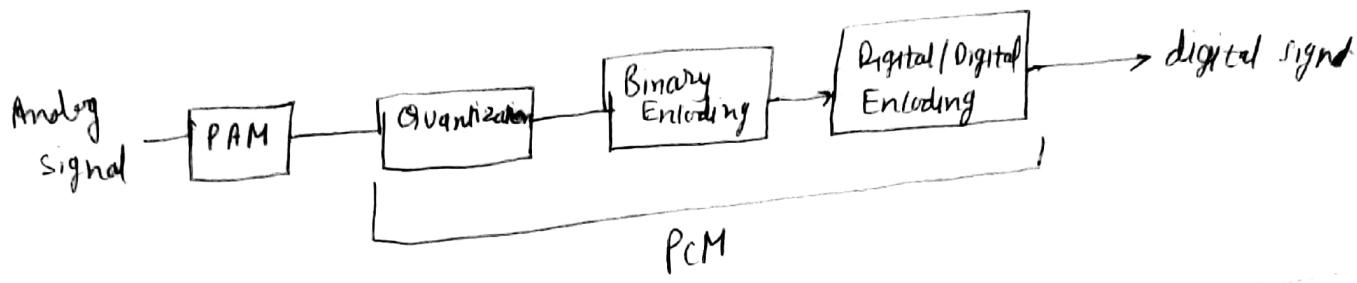
Problem: → How to translate information from an infinite number of values to a discrete number of values without sacrificing sense or quality.

PULSE AMPLITUDE MODULATION (PAM): → First step in analog-to-digital conversion.

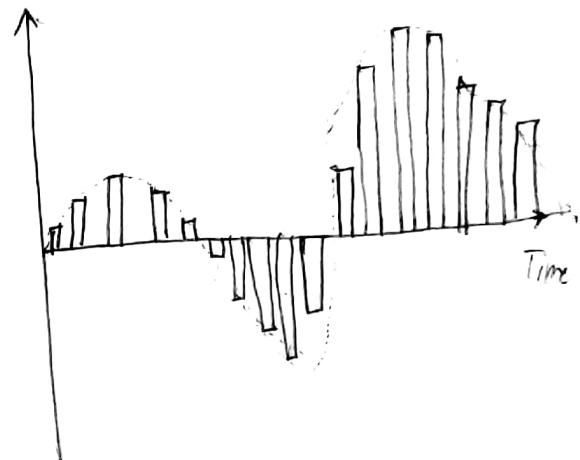
- In this analog signals are sampled and generates a series of pulses based on the results of the sampling. The term sampling means measuring the amplitude of signals at equal intervals.
- uses a technique called Sample and hold: → At a given moment, the signal level is read, then held briefly.
- Samples are done according to sampling theorem/Nyquist criteria.

Pulse Code Modulation (PCM): → modifies the pulses created by PAM. to create a completely digital signal.

- To do so PCM first quantizes the PAM pulses.
- Quantization is a method of assigning integral values in a specific range to sampled instances.
- Each value is translated into its seven * bit binary equivalent. Eight bit is sign bit.
- Binary digits are then transformed into a digital signal using one of the digital-to-digital encoding techniques. 43



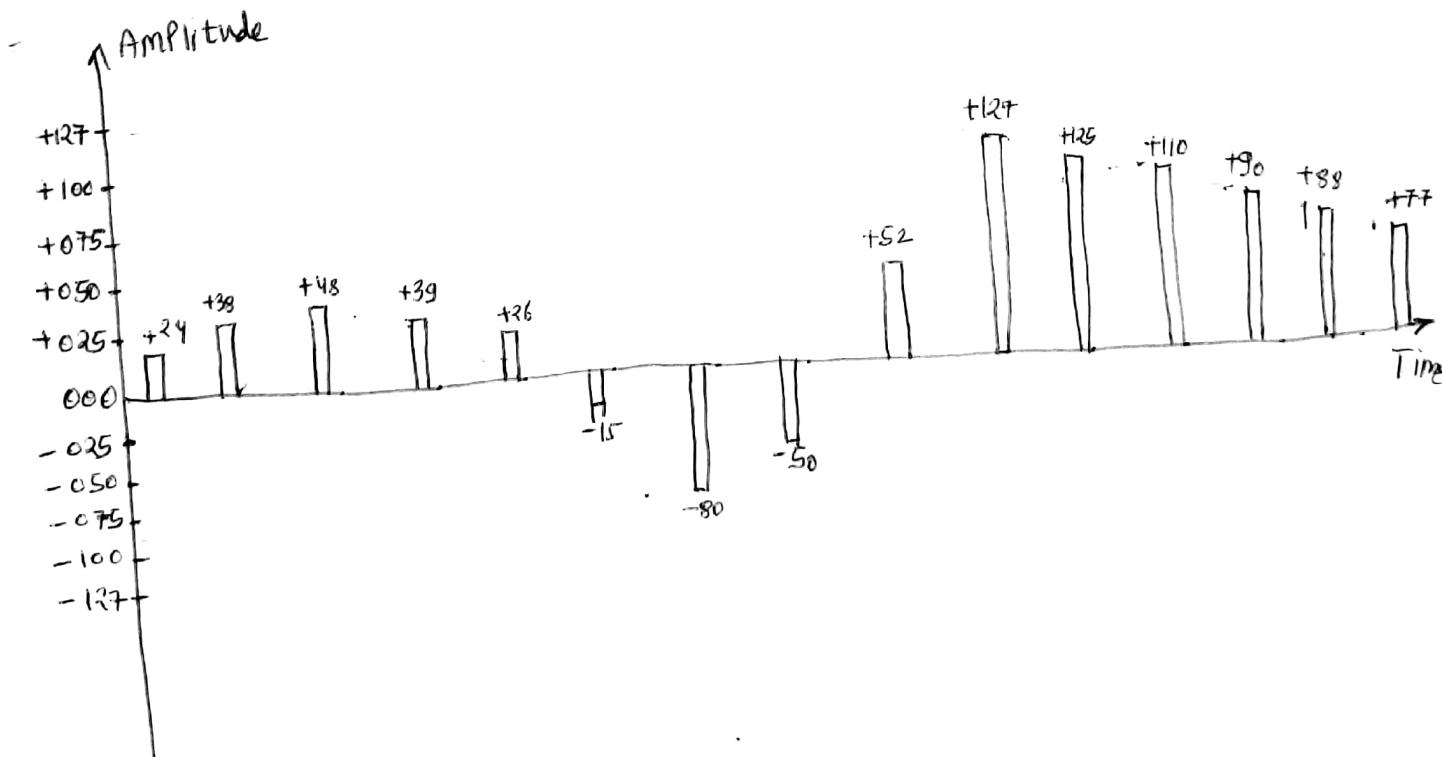
a) Analog signal



b) PAM signal
(sampled output)

Step - I : PAM

Quantized PAM signal:

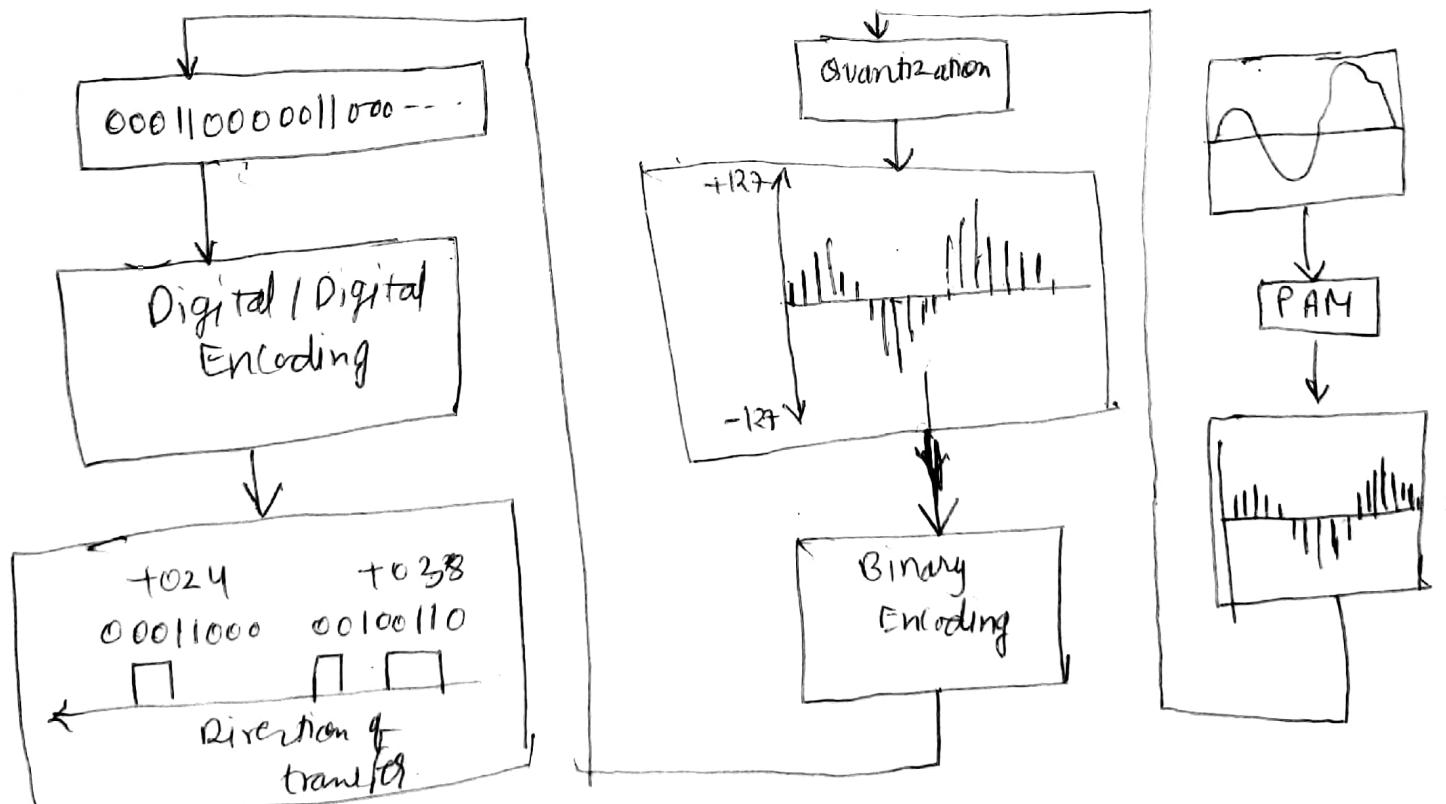
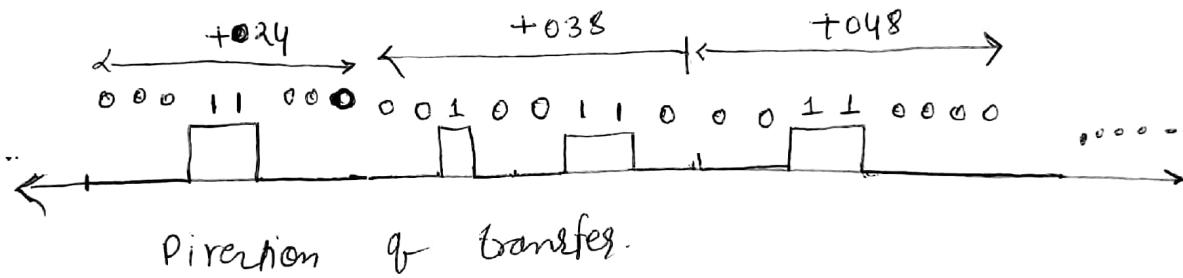


Quantizing Using Sign and magnitude

| | | | | | |
|------|----------|------|----------|------|----------|
| +024 | 00011000 | -05 | 10001111 | +125 | 01111101 |
| +038 | 00100110 | -080 | 11010000 | +110 | 01101110 |
| +048 | 00110000 | -050 | 10110010 | +090 | 01011010 |
| +039 | 00100111 | +052 | 00110110 | +088 | 01011000 |
| +026 | 00011010 | +127 | 01111111 | +077 | 01001101 |

↑
Sign bit
+ is 0 - is 1

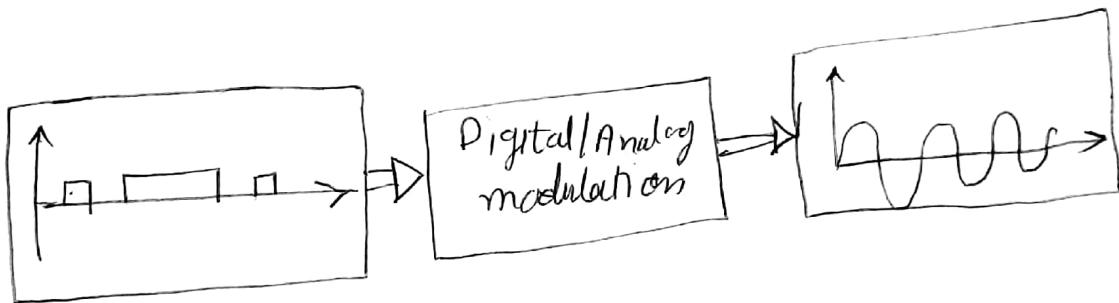
PCM.



Digital - to - Analog conversion: \rightarrow ASK, PSK, fSK
and $SAM = ASK + PSK$.

Modulation: \rightarrow Changing the characteristic (Amplitude, freq, phase) of high freq signal called carrier with respect to the message signal.

Demodulation: \rightarrow Reverse process of modulation in which message is extracted from carrier signal at the receiving end.



Bit rate: \rightarrow No of bits per second.

Band rate: \rightarrow No. of signal units per second. Band rate is less than or equal to the bit rate

$$\text{band rate} = \frac{\text{bit rate}}{\text{No. of bits per signal element}}$$

Ex: \rightarrow An analog signal carries four bits in each signal element. If 1000 signal elements are sent per second, find band rate and bit rate.

Solⁿ: Band rate = No of signal elements = 1000 baud per second

Bit rate = Band rate \times No. of bits per signal element

$$\text{Bit rate} = 1000 \times 4 \text{ bps} = 4000 \text{ bps}$$

Ex: The bit rate of a signal is 3000. If each signal element carries six bits, what is the baud rate?

$$\text{Sol}^n: \rightarrow \frac{3000}{6} = 500 \text{ baud rate}$$

→ Also called OOK
on-off keying

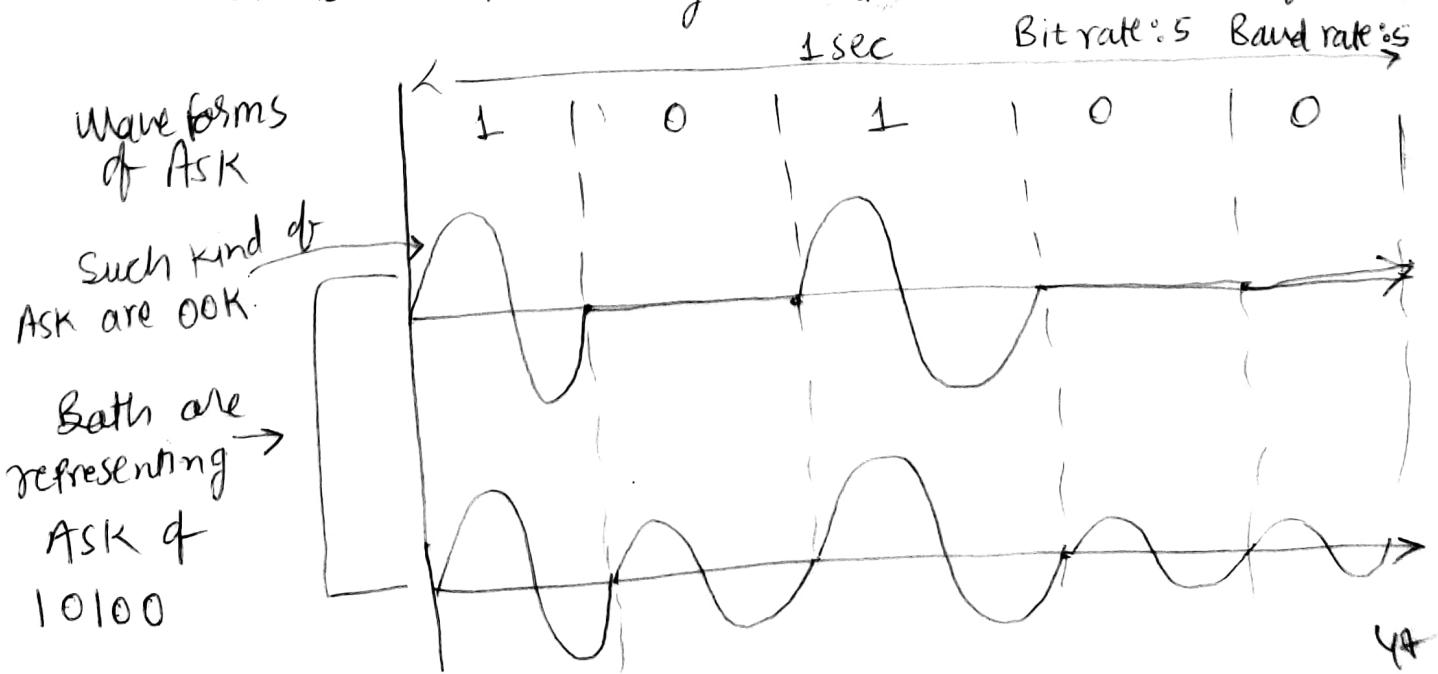
ASK (Amplitude shift keying) : → The strength of the carrier signal is varied to represent binary 1 or 0. Both freq and phase remains constant while amplitude change.

$$1 \rightarrow \begin{cases} V \\ -V \end{cases} \text{ sine wave} \quad \text{and} \quad 0 \rightarrow \text{---} \text{ ov}$$

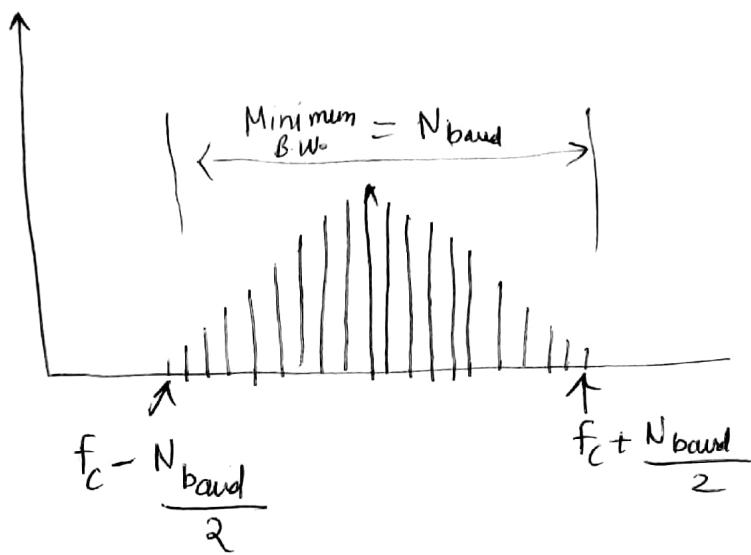
Disadvantages of ASK

ASK transmission is highly susceptible to noise interference. The noise voltage combines with the signal to change the amplitude. 0 can be changed to 1 and 1 can be changed to 0.

→ Noise usually affects the amplitude therefore ASK is the modulation method most affected by noise.



Bandwidth of ASK : \rightarrow When we decompose an ASK modulated signal, we get a spectrum of many simple freq.



$$\boxed{\text{B.W. requirement for A.S.K.} = (1+d) N_{\text{band}}}$$

Here . B.W. = Bandwidth

N_{band} = band rate

d = factor related to the condition of line (with min. $d=0$)

$$\boxed{\text{B.W.} = N_{\text{band}}} \rightarrow d=0$$

Ex: \rightarrow Find the min b/w for ASK signal transmitting 2000 bps. The transmission mode is half duplex.

Solⁿ: \rightarrow In ASK. Band rate and bit rate are same as B.W. \therefore Band rate = 2000 and hence

$$\boxed{\text{B.W.} = 2000 \text{ Hz}}$$

Ex: \rightarrow Given B.W. = 5000 Hz for an ASK. what is bit rate and

Solⁿ: \rightarrow In ASK. B.W. = bit rate = $\frac{\text{band rate}}{2}$ = 5000 bps

Ex. Given a B.W. of 10,000 Hz (1000 to 11,000). draw the full duplex ASK dig of the system. Find the carriers and B.W. in each direction. Assume there is no gap between the bands in two directions.

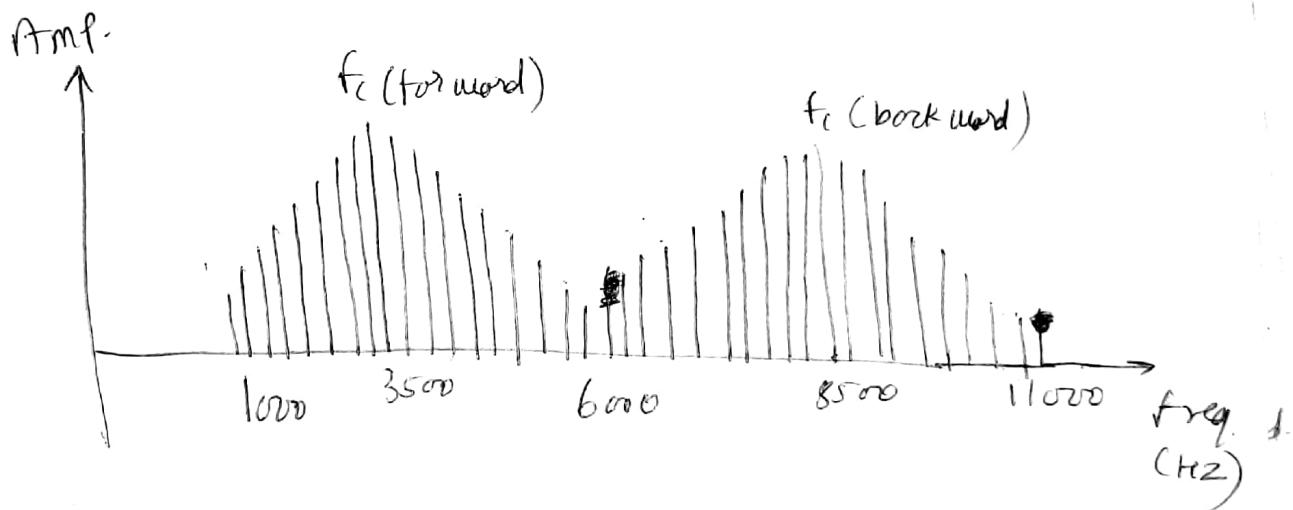
Solⁿ: → for Full duplex ASK, the B.W. for each direction is

$$B.W. = 10000/2 = 5000 \text{ Hz}$$

The carrier freq. can be chosen at the middle of each band.

$$f_c(\text{forward}) = 1000 + 5000/2 = 3500 \text{ Hz}$$

$$f_c(\text{backward}) = 11000 - 5000/2 = 8500 \text{ Hz}$$



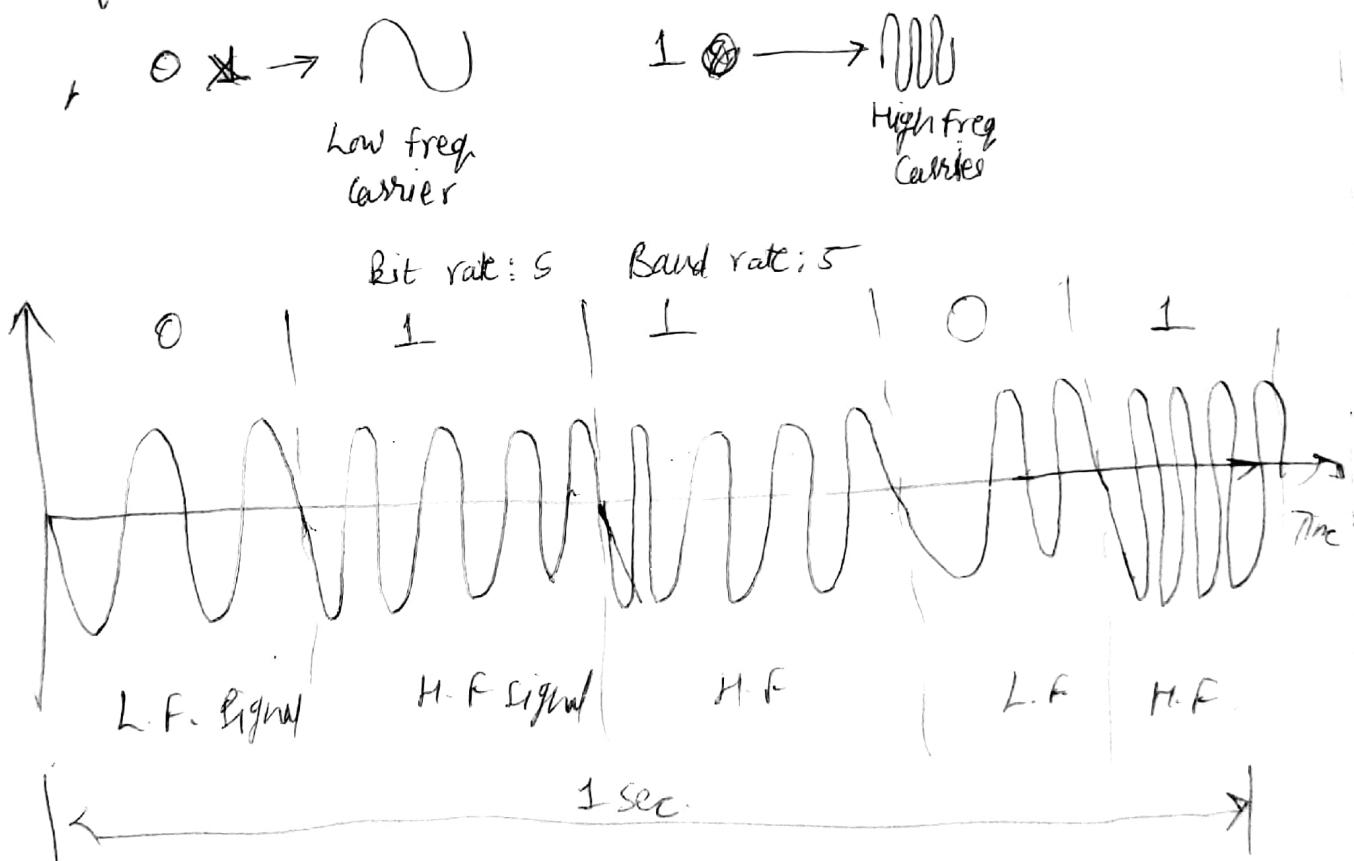
Frequency shift keying (FSK): → freq. keying of the carrier signal is varies varied to represent binary 1 or 0. Both Amp and freq. remain constant.

Frequency shift keying (FSK): \rightarrow the freq. of the carrier signal is varied to represent binary 1 or 0. freq. of the signal during each bit duration is constant and its value depends upon the bit 0 or 1.

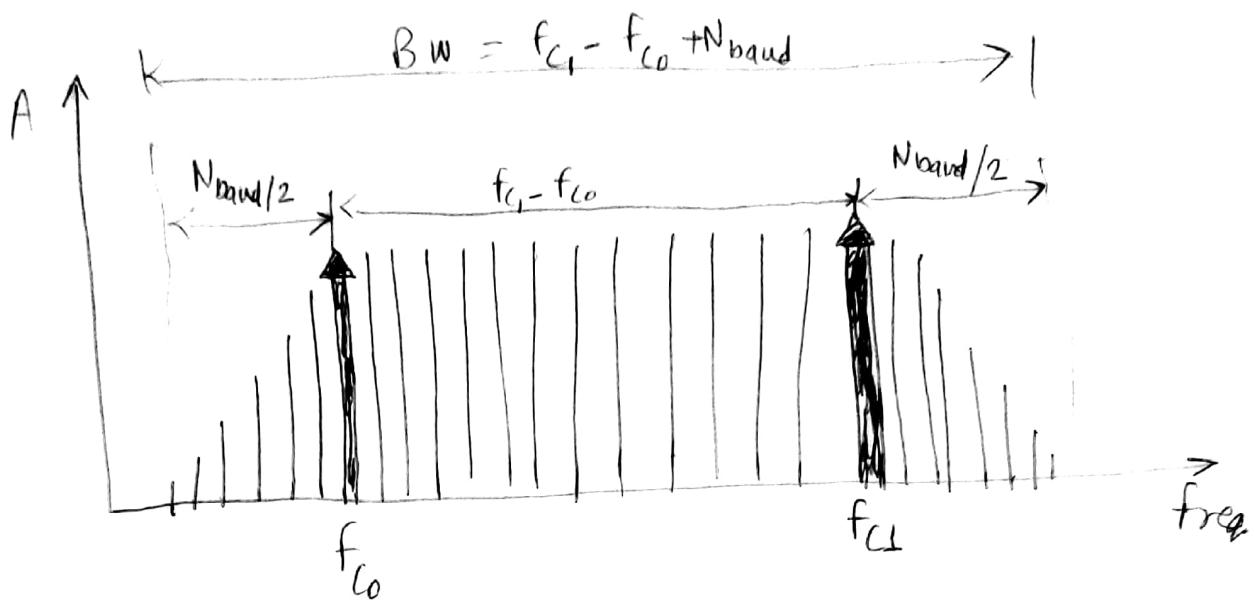
\rightarrow Both Ampl. and Phase remain constant.

FSK avoids most of the noise problem of ASK. as receiver is looking for freq. change it may avoids the ampl.

\rightarrow Limiting factors of FSK are the physical capabilities of the carriers.



$$\text{Bandwidth of FSK: } \rightarrow \text{B.W.} = (f_{c1} - f_{c0}) + N_{\text{band}}$$



Relationship between band rate and bandwidth in FSK

Ex: → find the min. B.W. for an FSK signal transmitting at 2000 bps. transmission is in half duplex mode and carriers must be separated by 3000 Hz.

$$\begin{aligned}
 B.W. &= \cancel{2000} \cdot \text{Band rate} + (f_{C_1} - f_{C_0}) \xrightarrow{3000 \text{ Hz}} \\
 &= \text{Bit rate} + (f_{C_1} - f_{C_0}) \\
 &= 2000 + 3000 = 5000 \text{ Hz.}
 \end{aligned}$$

Ex: → find the max ~~B.W.~~ bit rate for an FSK signal if the B.W. of the medium is 12000 Hz and difference between the two carriers must be at least 2000 Hz. Transmission in full duplex

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Sol: } \rightarrow \text{full duplex } B.W. &= \frac{12000}{2} = 6000 \text{ Hz.} \\
 \text{Band rate} &= B.W. - (f_{C_1} - f_{C_0}) = \\
 &= 6000 - 2000 \\
 &= 4000 \text{ bps.}
 \end{aligned}$$

Phase shift keying (PSK) : \rightarrow the phase of the carrier varied to represent binary 1 or 0. Both Peak ~~and~~ Amplitude and freq. remain constant as the phase changes.

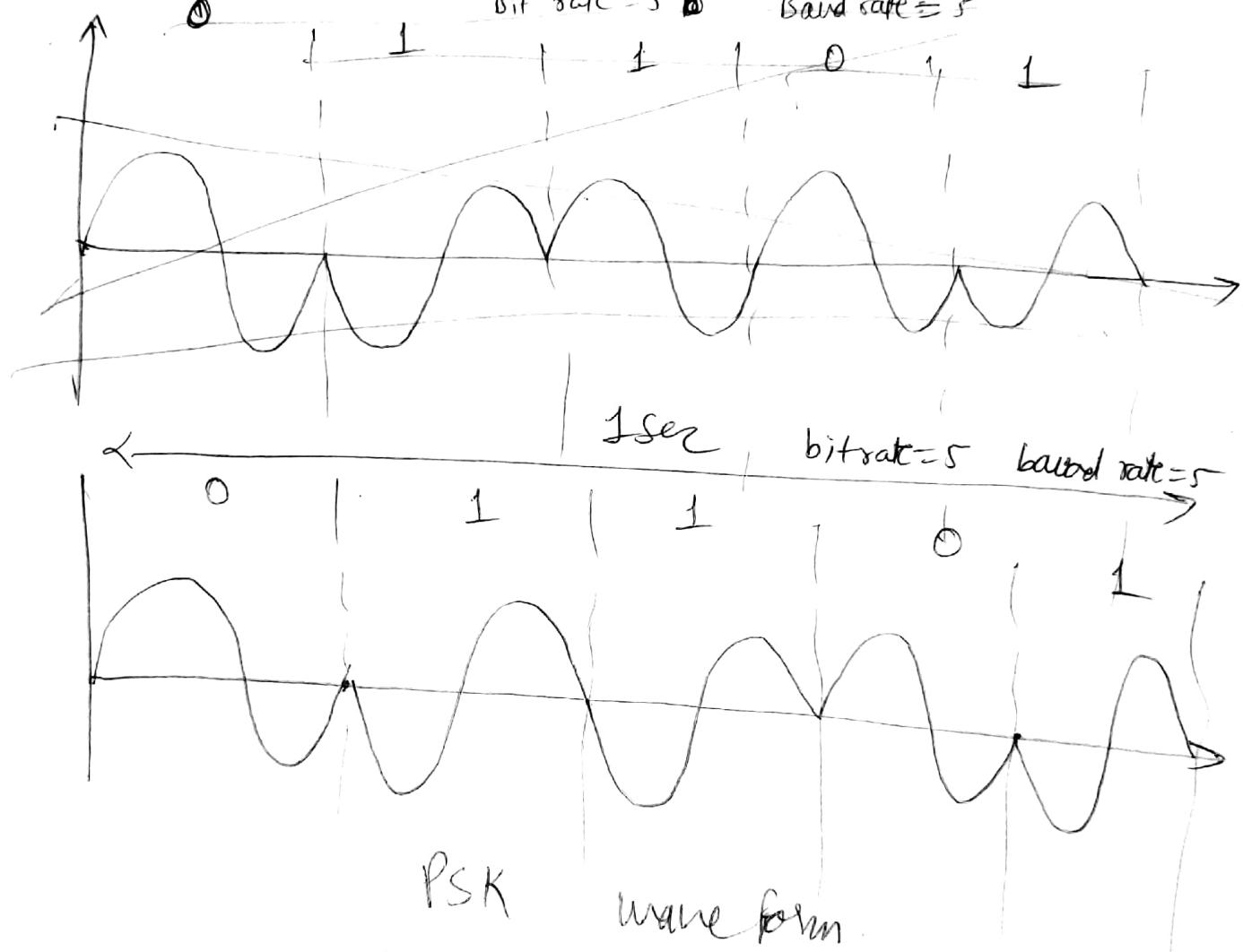
0° phase $\rightarrow 0$

180° phase $\rightarrow 1$

0

Bit rate = 5

Band rate = 5



| Bit | phase |
|-----|-------------|
| 0 | 0° |
| 1 | 180° |



Constellation

PSK is not susceptible to the noise degradation that affects ASK, nor to the bandwidth limitations of FSK.

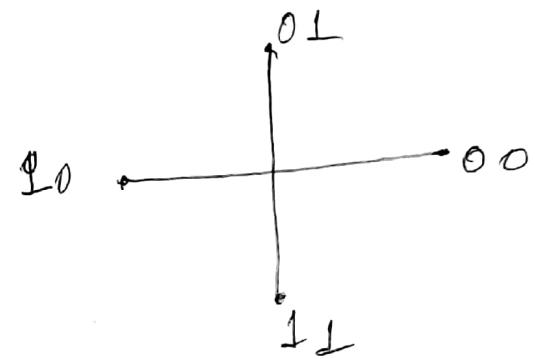
4-PSK: → If we change the phase of the carrier according to the two bit combination.

of bit we can achieve 4-psk.

| Dibit | Phase |
|-------|-------|
| 00 | 0 |
| 01 | 90 |
| 10 | 180 |
| 11 | 270 |

$$\text{Angle} = \frac{360}{2^n}$$

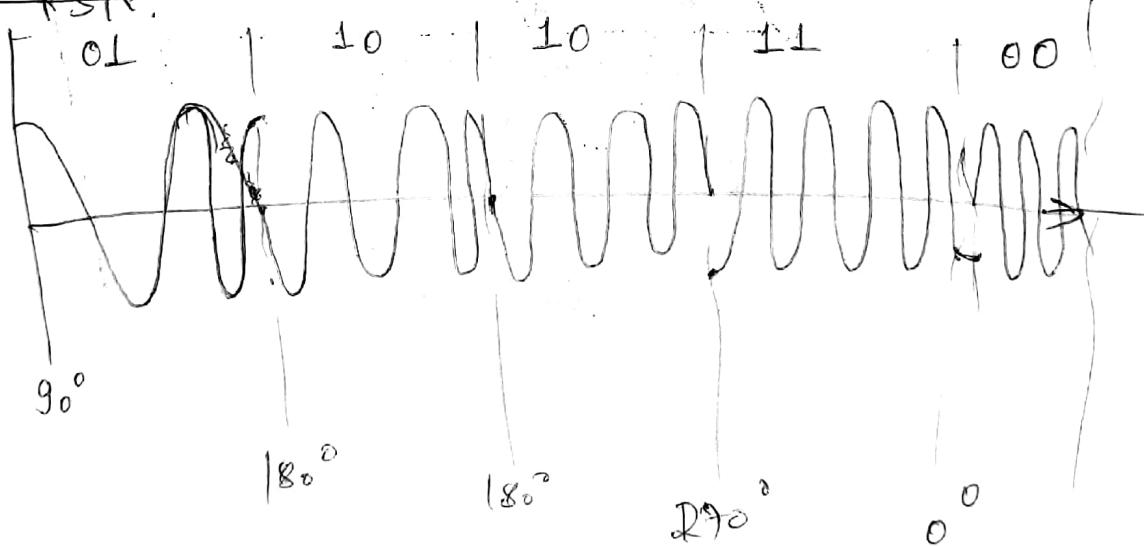
n = bit combination



Orientation dig.

0 1 1 0 1 0 1 1 0 0 → Data
1 sec Bit rate: 10 Baud rate: 5

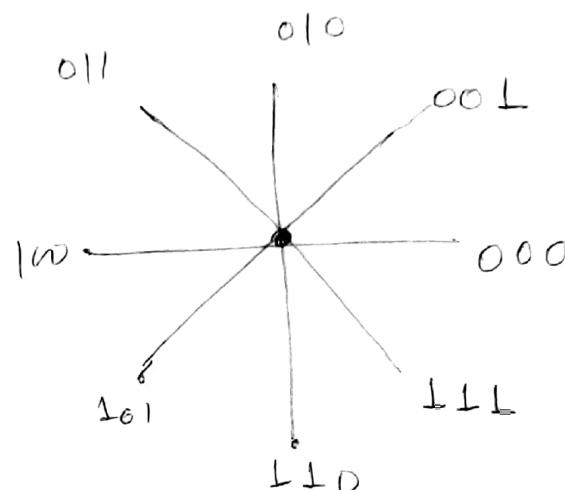
~~84 PPSR~~



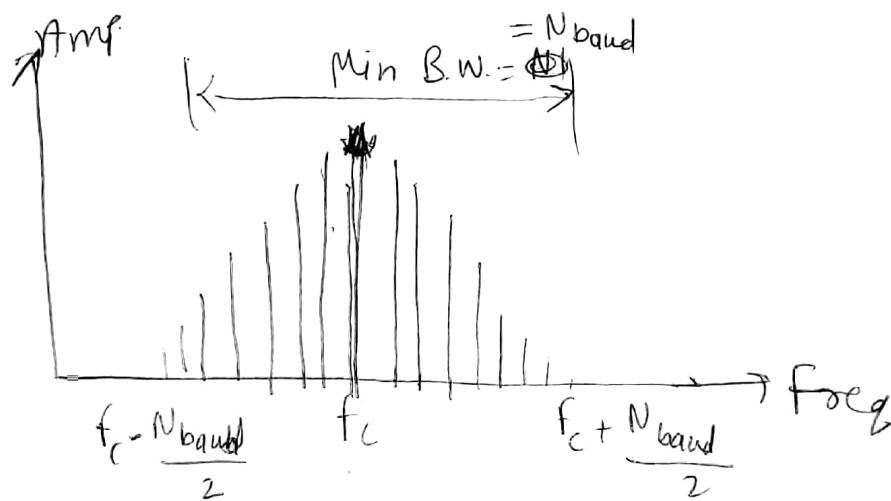
$$8 \text{ PSIK} \rightarrow \text{Angle} = \frac{360}{\frac{3}{2}} = \frac{360}{8} = 45, 90, 135,$$

8 PSK. →

| Trabit | Phase |
|--------|-------|
| 000 | 0 |
| 001 | 45 |
| 010 | 90 |
| 011 | 135 |
| 100 | 180 |
| 101 | 225 |
| 110 | 270 |
| 111 | 315 |



Constellation diagram.



B.W. of PSK.

Ex: Find the B.W. of 4-PSK signal transmitting at 2000bps. Transmission is in half-duplex mode.

Soln: - 4 PSK band rate is half of the bit rate.
band rate = $\frac{2000}{2} = 1000 \text{ baud}$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{PSK signal B.W.} &= \text{Band rate} \\ &= 1000 \text{ Hz} \end{aligned}$$

Ex: when B.W. = 5000 Hz for an 8-PSK signal, what are the band rate and bit rate?

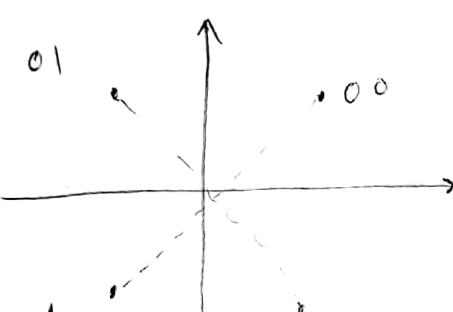
Baud \rightarrow For PSK band rate = Bit rate = 5000.

But in 8-PSK bit rate $= 3 \times 5000 = 15000 \text{ bps}$

$$\boxed{\text{Bit rate} = n \times \text{band rate}}$$

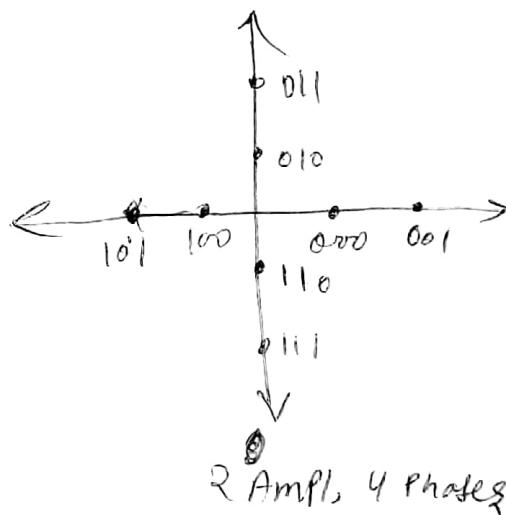
Quadrature-Amplitude Modulation (QAM) \rightarrow combining ASK and PSK in such a way that we have maximum contrast between bit, d-bit, tri-bit, quad-bit and so on.

4 QAM constellation

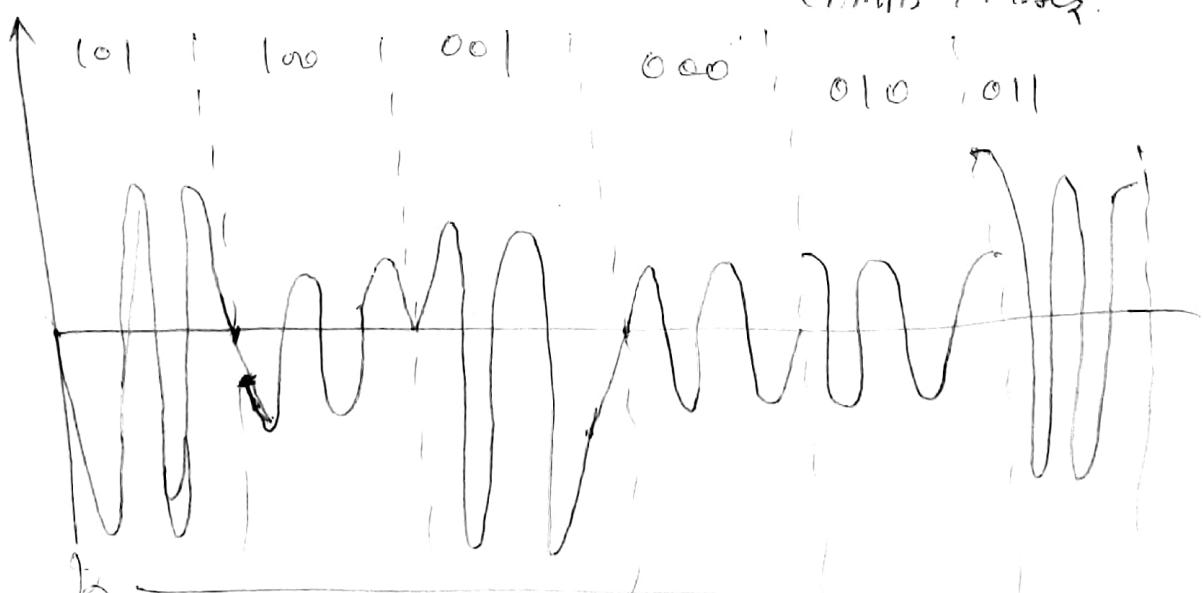


2 ampl, 4 phase

8 QAM



2 Ampl, 4 Phases.



1 sec. Band rate: 6
bit rate: 18

Bandwidth of QAM: \rightarrow Same of that required for ASK and ~~PSK~~ FSK transmission.

\rightarrow QAM has the same advantages as PSK over ASK.

16 QAM: \rightarrow we can have

\rightarrow 3 amplitude, 12 phases

\rightarrow 4 Amplitude, 8 phases

\rightarrow 2 Amplitude, 8 phases

Ex: \rightarrow A constellation diagram consists of eight equally spaced points on a circle. If the bit rate is 4800 bps. What is baud rate?

Solⁿ: \rightarrow 8 - PSK, $2^3 = 8$ Baud = $\frac{4800}{3} = 1600$ baud

Ex: \rightarrow Compute the bit rate for 1000 baud 16 QAM.

Solⁿ: \rightarrow 16 QAM means 4 bit per signal ($2^4=16$)
 $1000 \times 4 = 4000$ bps

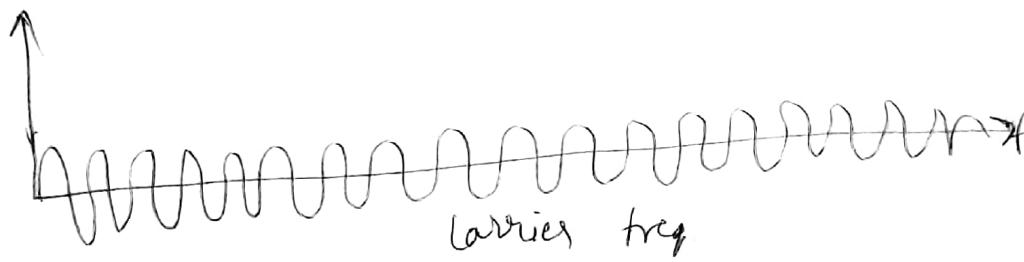
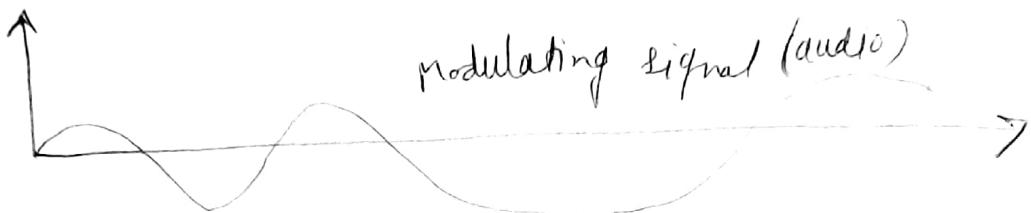
Ex: \rightarrow Compute the baud rate for a 72,000 bps 64 QAM signal.

Solⁿ: \rightarrow 64 QAM means there are six bit per signal element since $2^6=64$

$$\therefore \frac{72000}{6} = 12,000 \text{ baud}$$

Analog. to Analog conversion \rightarrow AM, FM, PM
Three types

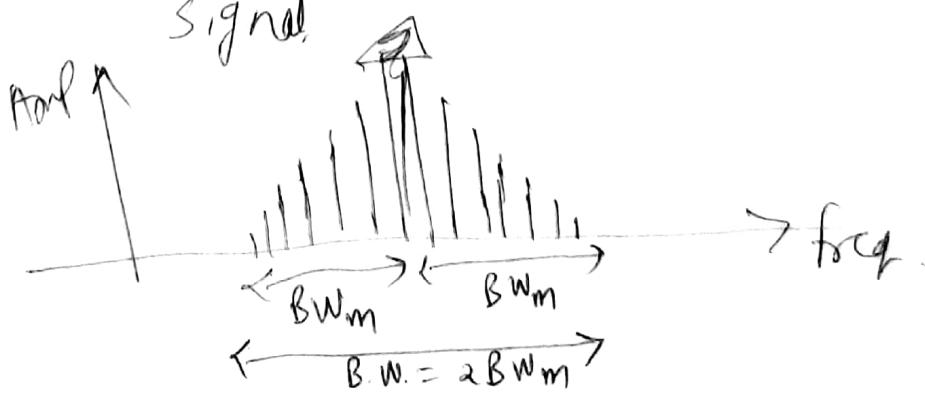
i) Amplitude modulation (A.M) \rightarrow Amplitude of carrier signal is varied with changing amp of message signal.



$$\text{AM B.W.} \Rightarrow B.W. = 2 \times B.W.m$$

B.W. of AM is twice of message

signal

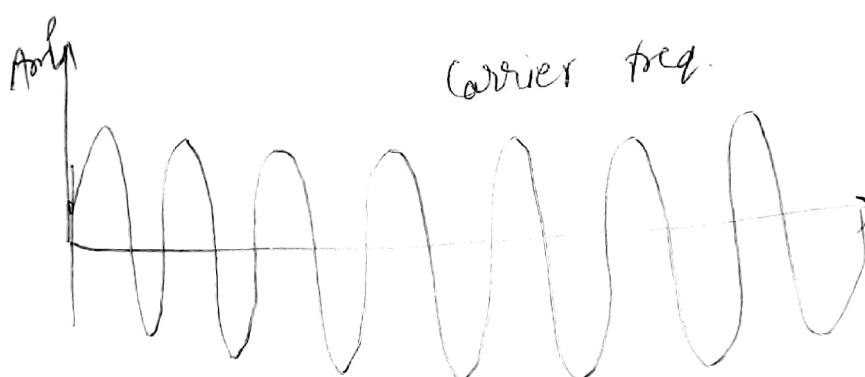
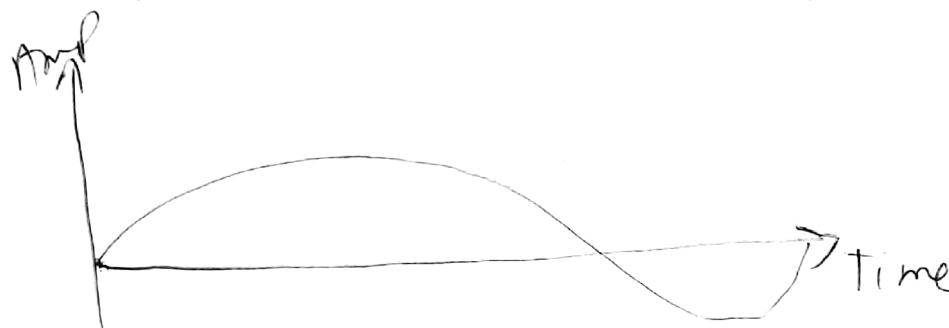


Ex: we have an audio signal with $BW = 4\text{kHz}$, what is the BW needed if we modulate the signal using AM.

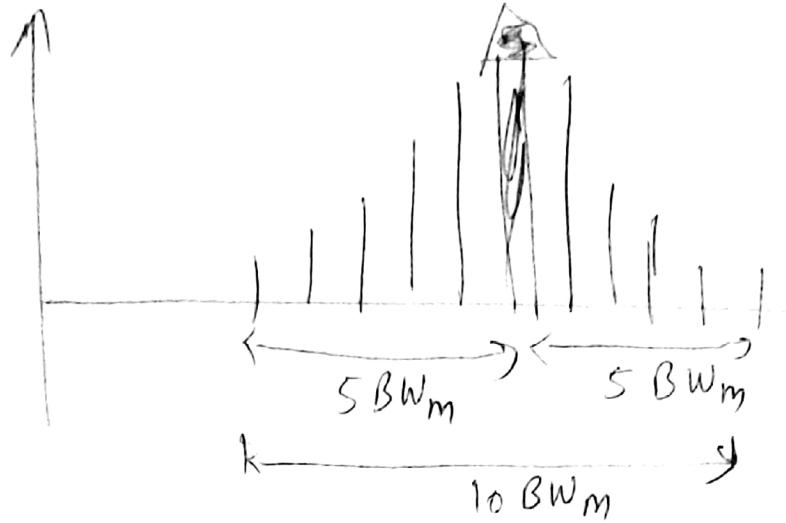
$$\text{Soln: } \rightarrow BW = 2 \times 4\text{kHz} = 8\text{kHz}$$

FM

Frequency Modulation (FM): \rightarrow the freq of carrier signal is change with respect to the changing voltage level (amplitude) of message signal. Ampl. and Phase remains constant.



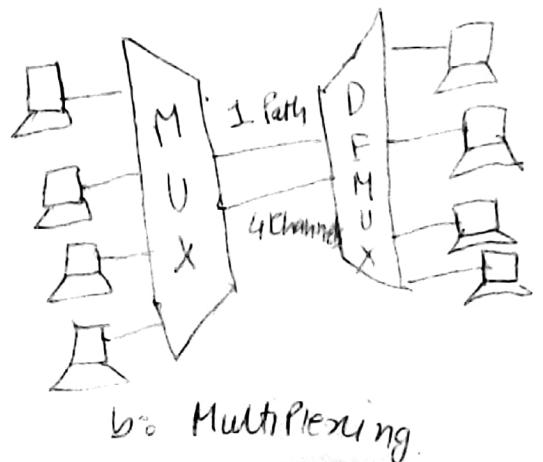
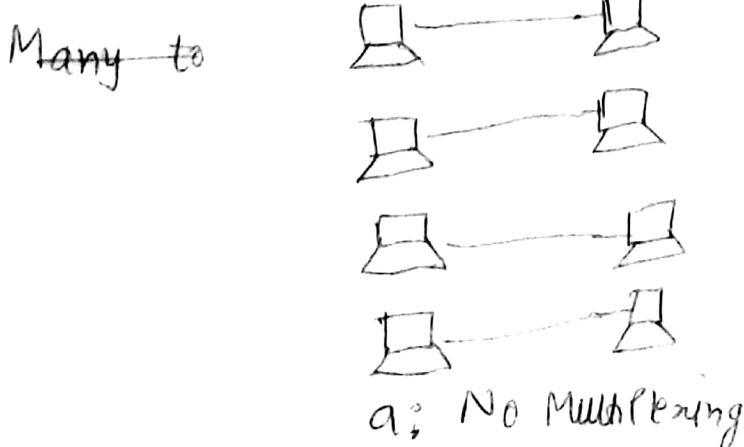
$$F.M. \text{ Bandwidth} = 10 \times BW_m \quad \text{approximately}$$



PM (Phase modulation) : → In PM the Phase of the carrier signal is changed to follow the changing voltage level of the message signal. Ampl. and freq. remains constant.

→ Many to one
 Multiplexing: → is the set of techniques that allows the simultaneous transmission of multiple signals across a single data link.

→ As data- and telecommunications usage increases, so does traffic. We can accommodate this increase by continuing to add individual lines each time a new channel is needed or we can install higher capacity lines and use each to carry multiple signals.

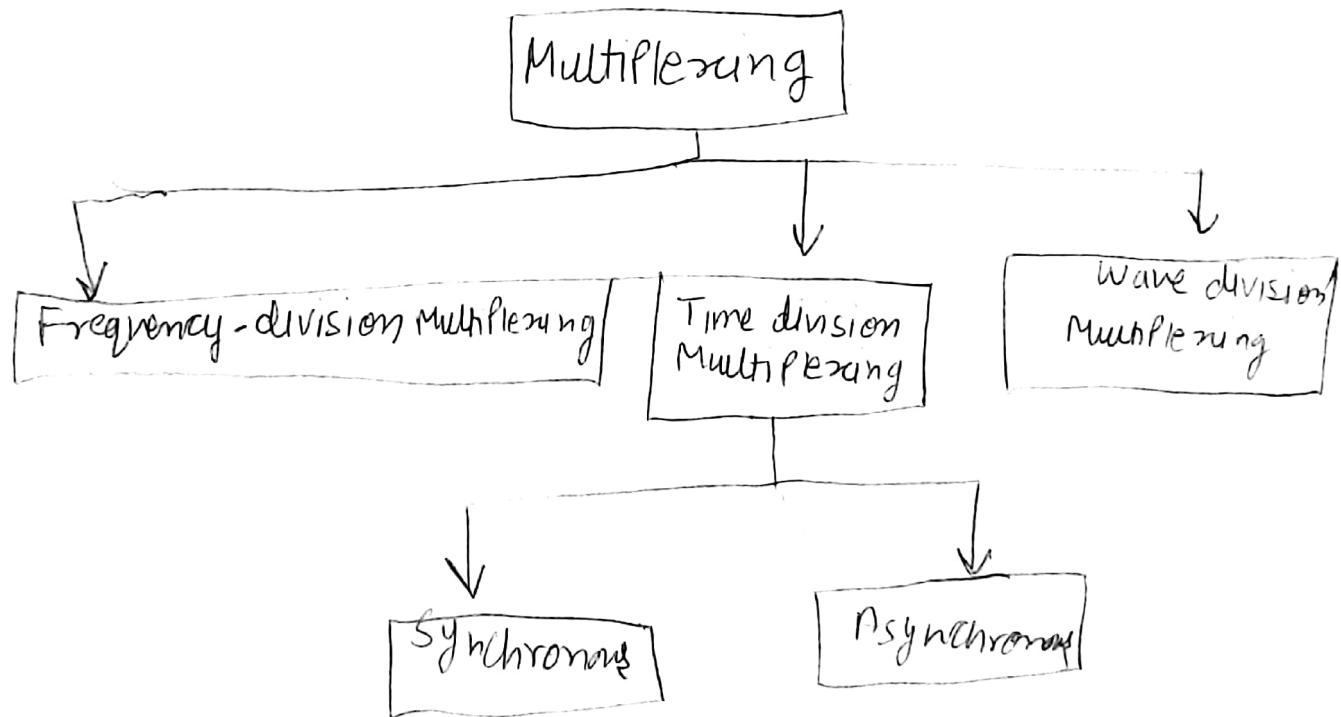


Many to one / one to many: → In a multiplexed system, n devices share the capacity of one link. In fig b. the basic format of multiplexed system is shown in which four devices on left direct their transmission stream to a multiplexer(MUX), which combines them into a single stream (many to one). At the receiving end, that stream is fed into demultiplexer(DEMUX), which separates the stream back into its component transmission (one to many) and directs them to their intended receiving device.

→ Path refers to the physical link.

→ Channel refers to a portion of a path that carries transmission between a given pair of devices.

→ One path can have many (n) channels.

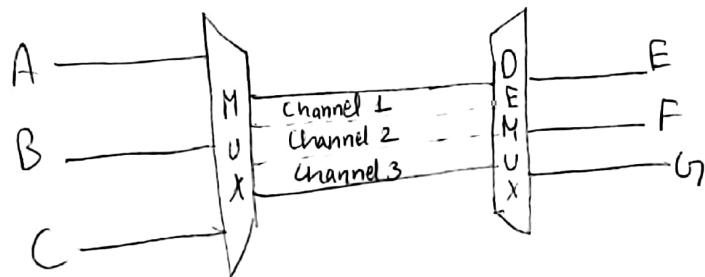


Frequency Division Multiplexing (FDM)

→ Analog technique.

→ Can be applied when B.W. of link is greater than the combined B.W. of the signals to be transmitted.

- In FDM, signals generated by each sending device modulate different carrier frequencies. These modulated signals are then combined into a single composite signal that can be transported by link.
- Carrier frequencies are separated by enough bandwidth to accommodate the modulated signal. These B.W. ranges are the channels through which the various signals travel.
- Channel must be separated by strips of unused b.w. (Guard bands) to prevent signals from overlapping.
- Analogy: → three narrow streets merge to form a three-lane highway.

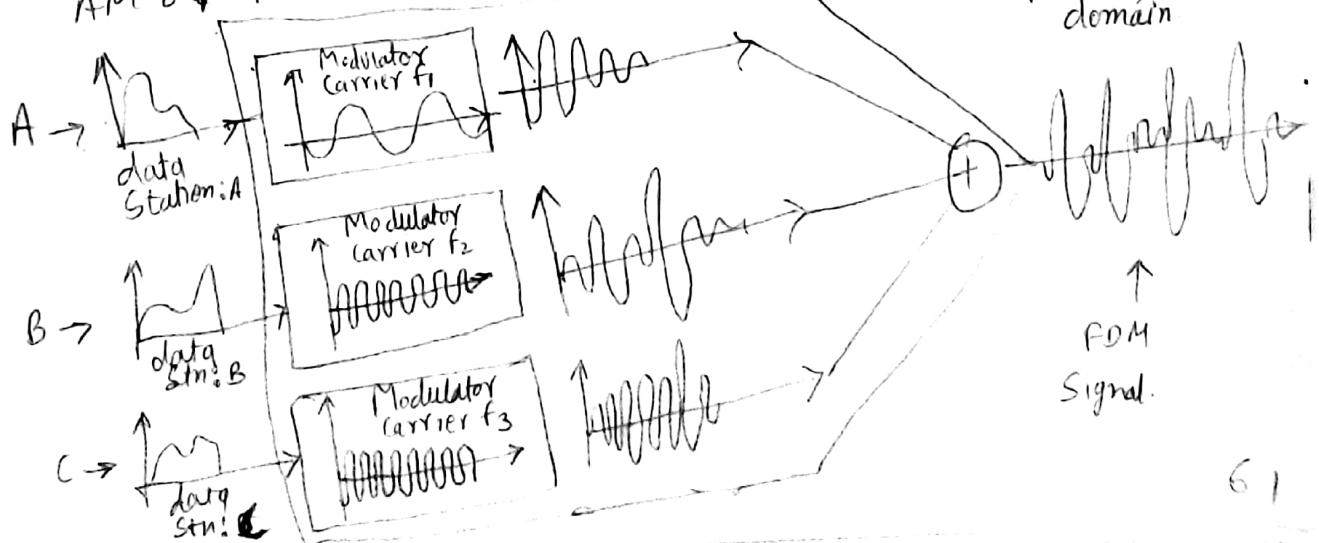


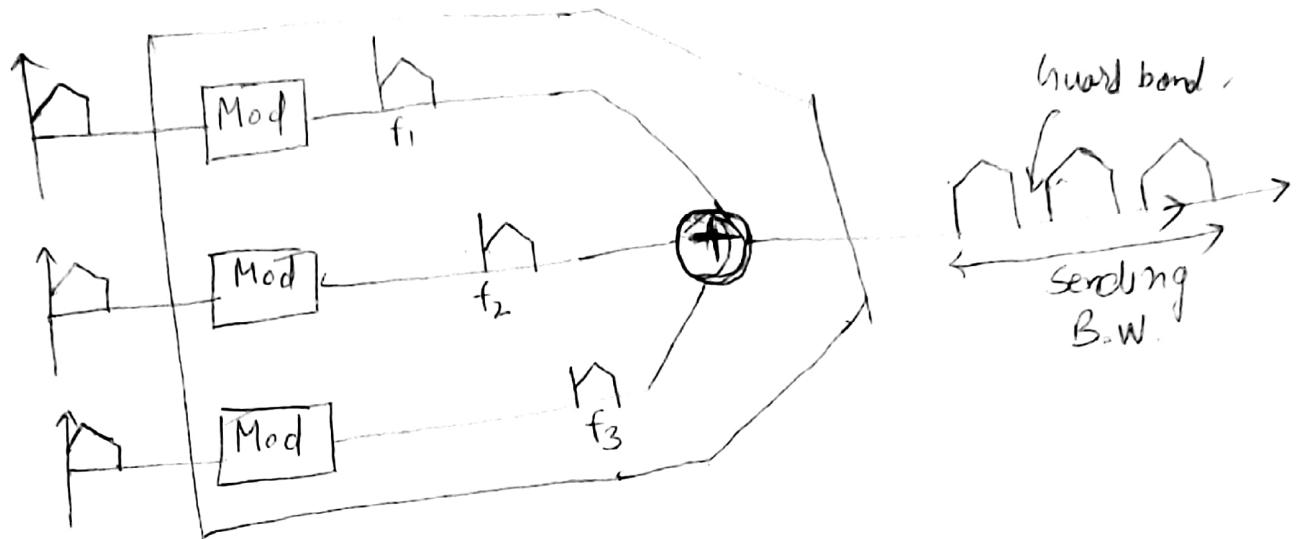
- Channel division is achieved by freq rather than space.

The FDM process: → In FDM, signals are modulated onto separate carrier frequencies (f_1 , f_2 and f_3) using either AM or FM.

Multiplexing: →

Fig: FDM Multiplexing process, T-Domain





Demultiplexing: Demultiplexers use series of filters to decompose the multiplexed signal into its constituent component signals. Individual signals are then passed to a demodulator that separates them from their carriers and passes them to the waiting receivers.

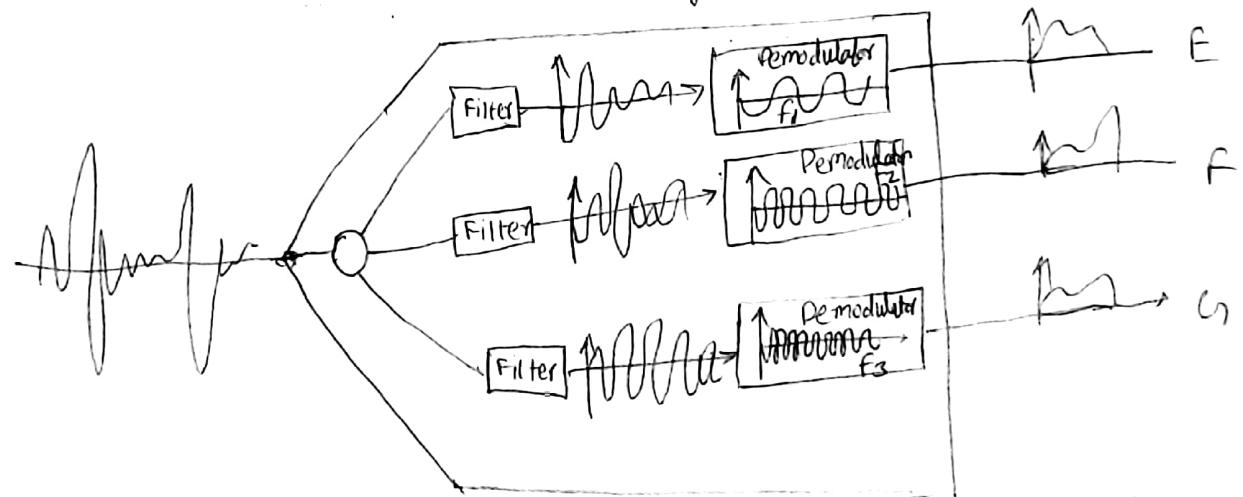
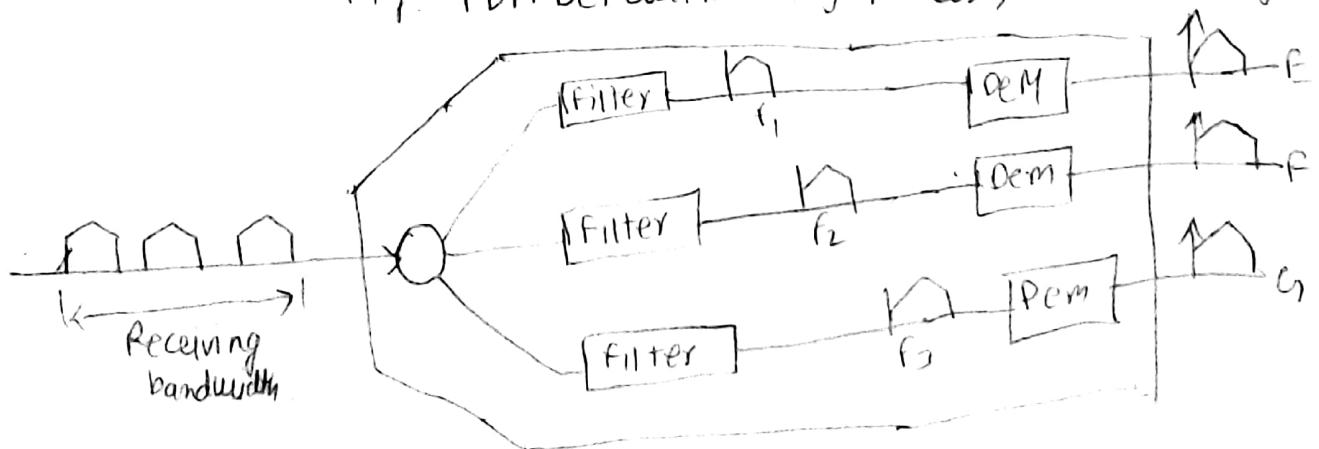


Fig: FDM Demultiplexing Process, Time domain



WAVE DIVISION MULTIPLEXING (WDM) : \rightarrow Same as FDM, except that the multiplexing and demultiplexing involve light signals transmitted through fiber optic channel.

- The idea is the same, we are combining different signals of different frequencies. However the difference is that frequencies are very high.

\rightarrow Technology is very complex, the idea is very simple.

\rightarrow Combine multiple light sources into one single light at the multiplexer and do the reverse ~~at~~ at demultiplexer. Combining and splitting of light sources are easily handled by a prism.

Prism bends a beam of light based on the angle of incidence and the freq.

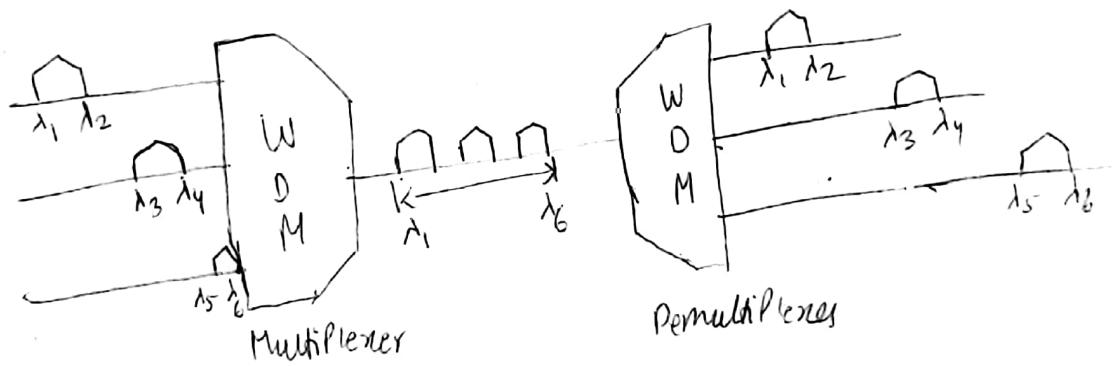


Fig: WDM

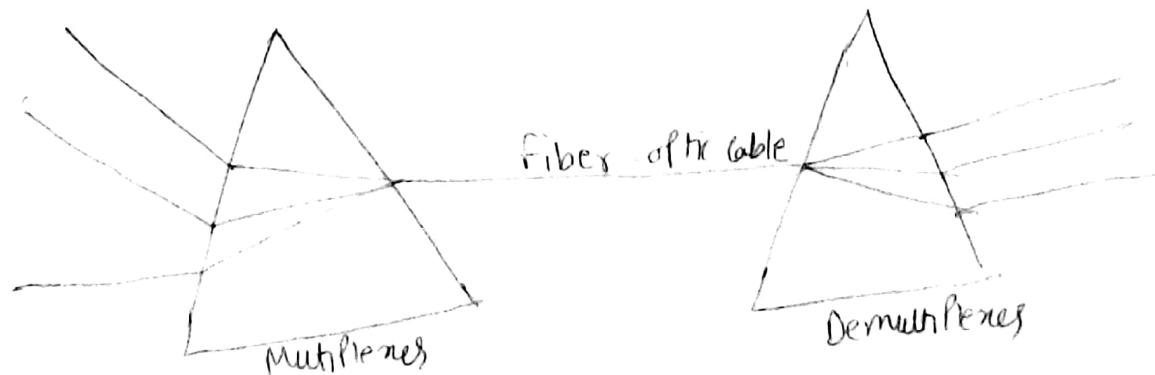
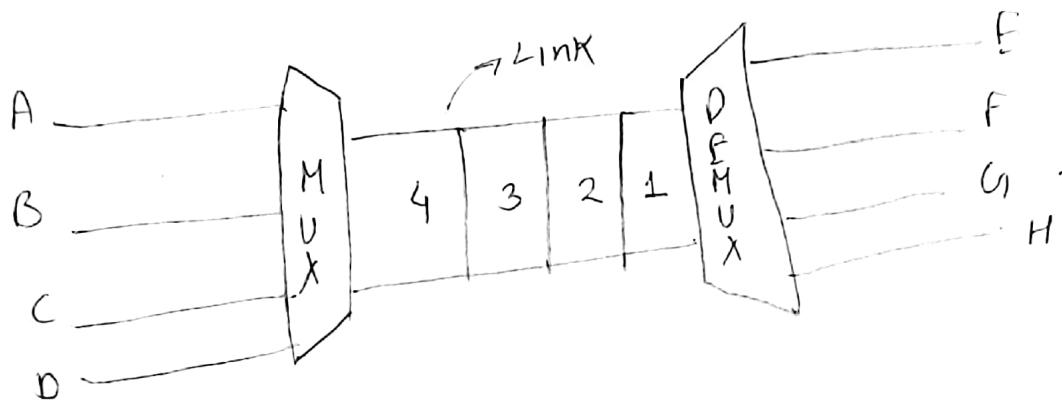


Fig: Prism in WDM multiplexing and demultiplexing

TIME DIVISION MULTPLEXING (TDM) : →

- TDM is a digital process
- Data rate capacity of medium should be greater than data rate required by the sending and receiving devices.
- In this link is sectioned by time rather than frequency.



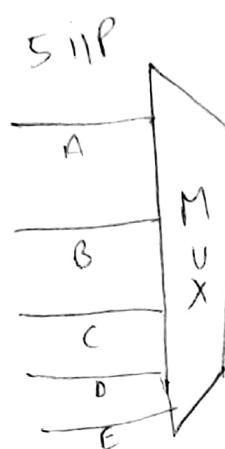
Synchronous TDM: → here synchronous means that the multiplexer allocated exactly the same time slot to each device at all times, whether or not a device has anything to transmit.

- for example time slot assigned for A can not be used by other devices.
- at allotted time slot device has opportunity to send a portion of its data.
- If a device is unable to transmit or does not have data to send, its time slot remains empty.

Frames: → time slots are grouped into frames.

A frame consists of one complete cycle of time slots, including one or more slots dedicated to each sending device. In a system with n input lines, each frame has at least n slots.

- If all the input devices sharing a link are transmitting at the same data rate, each device has one time slot per frame. However it is possible to accommodate varying data rates.



No. of i/p: 5
No. of slots in each frame: 5

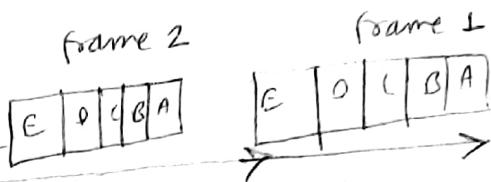


Fig Synchronous TDM

Interleaving: → Syn. TDM can be compared to a very fast rotating switch. The switch moves from device to device at a constant rate and in a fixed order to take the data. This process is called interleaving.

It can be done bit by bit, byte by byte or by any other data unit.

→ The multiplexer interleaves the different messages and form them into frames before putting them onto the link.

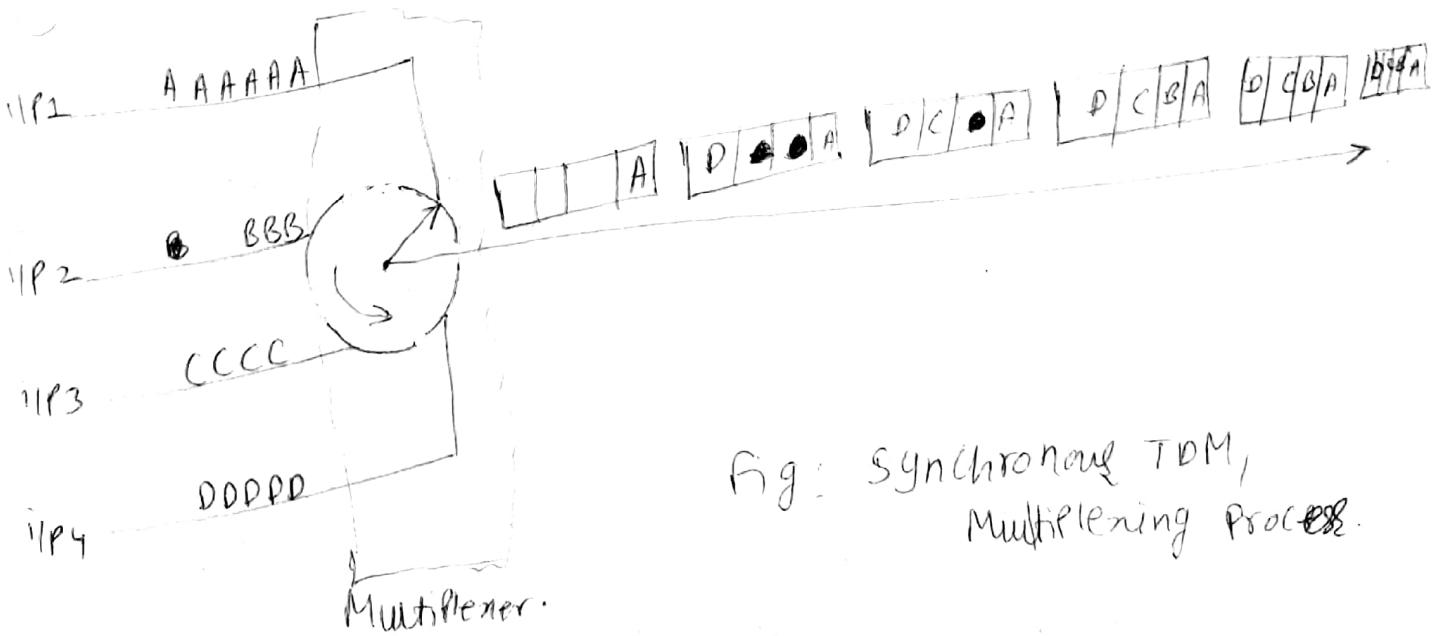
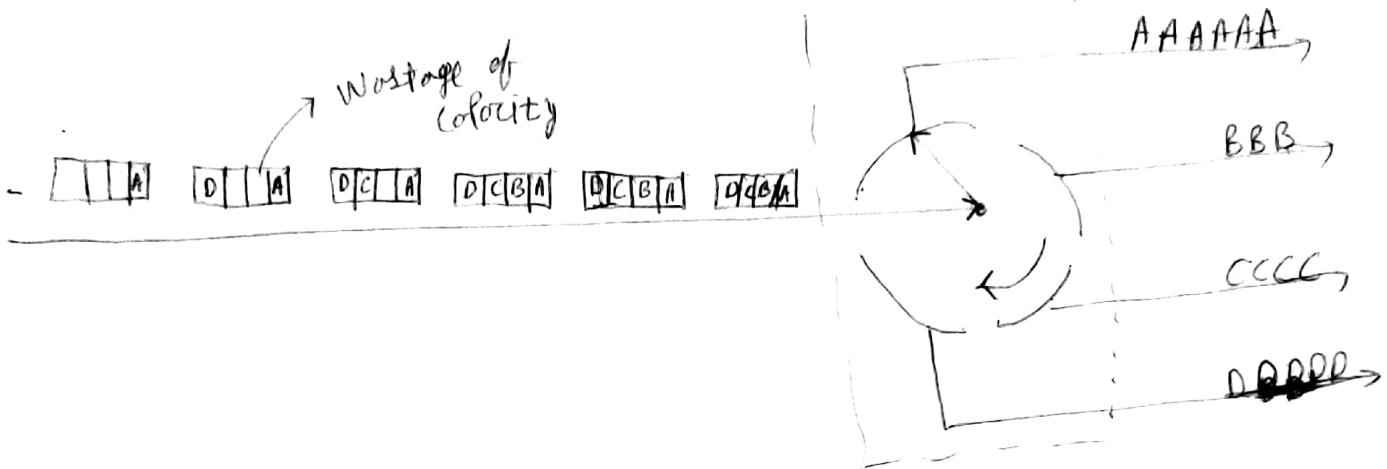


Fig: Synchronous TDM,
Multiplexing Process.

Demultiplexer



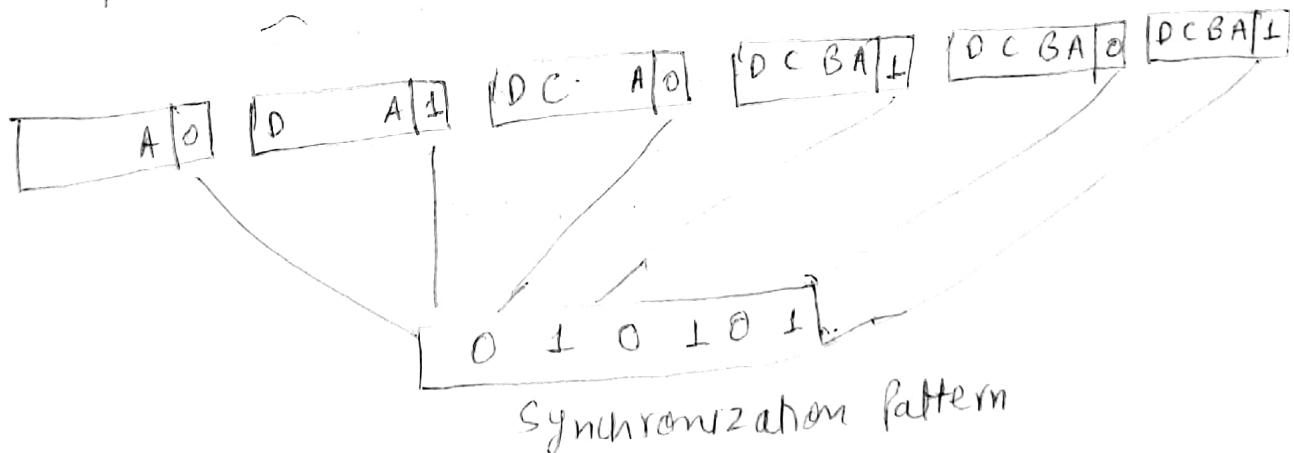
Framming bits: → Various factors can cause timing

Inconsistencies, for this reason, one or more synchronization bits are usually added to the beginning of each frame.

These bits are called framing bits,

→ it follows a pattern frame to frame, that allows the demultiplexer to synchronize with the incoming stream so that it can separate the time slots accurately.

→ In most case, this synchronization information consists of one bit per frame, alternating between 0 and 1.



Synchronous TDM example: → imagine we have four input sources on a syn-TDM line. Each source is creating 250 characters per second and each frame is carrying 1 char. From each source, the transmission path must be able to carry 250 frames per second.

- Assume each char 8 bits then Each frame = $8 \times 4 + 1$ framing bit
 $= 33$ bit
- Each device is creating 2000 bps (250×8 bit per char)
- And the line is carrying 8250 bps. (250 frames with 33 bits per frame): 8000 bits of data and 250 bits of overhead

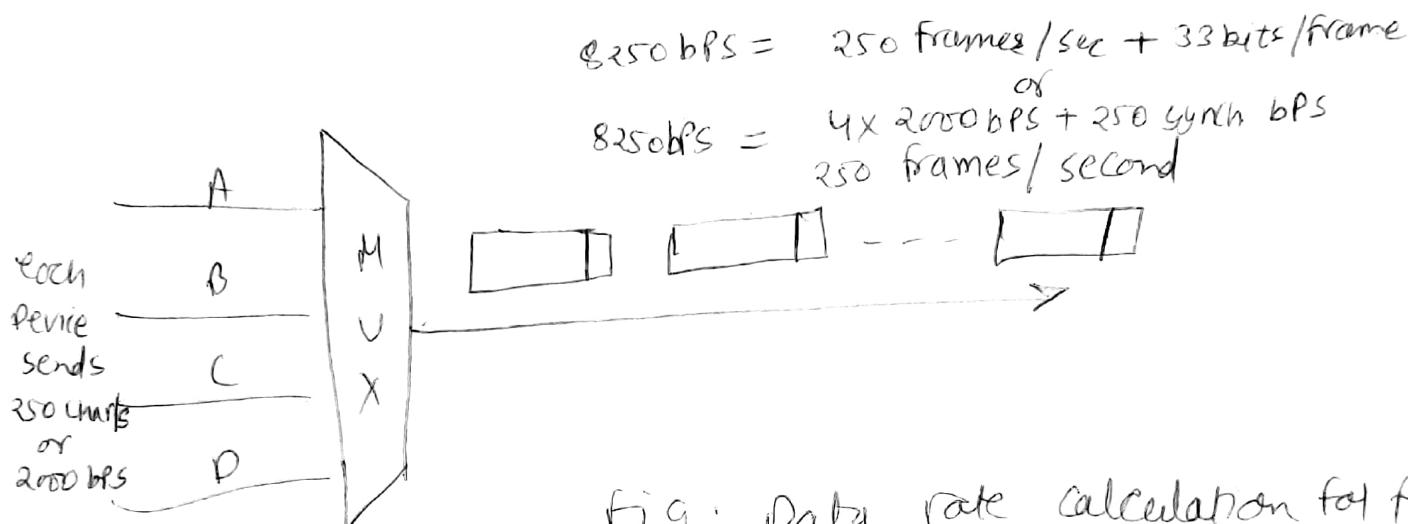
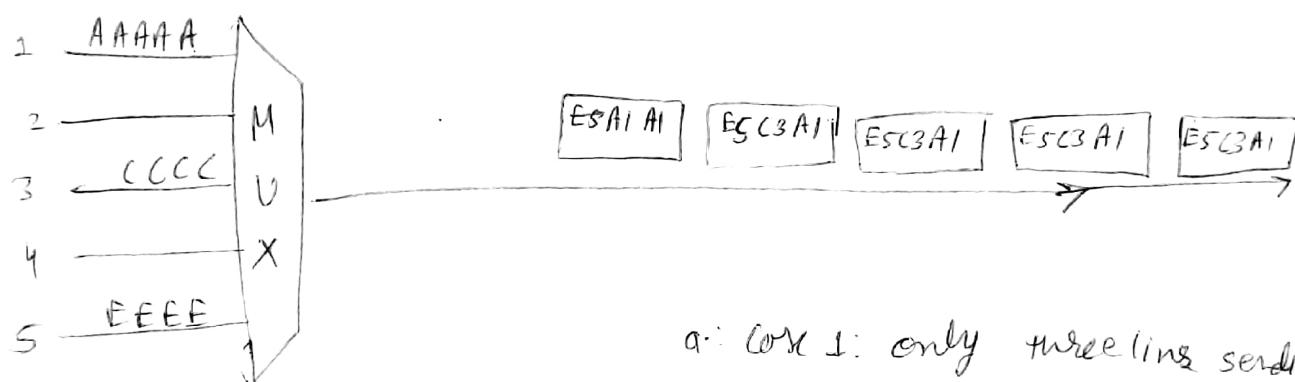


fig: Data rate calculation for frame

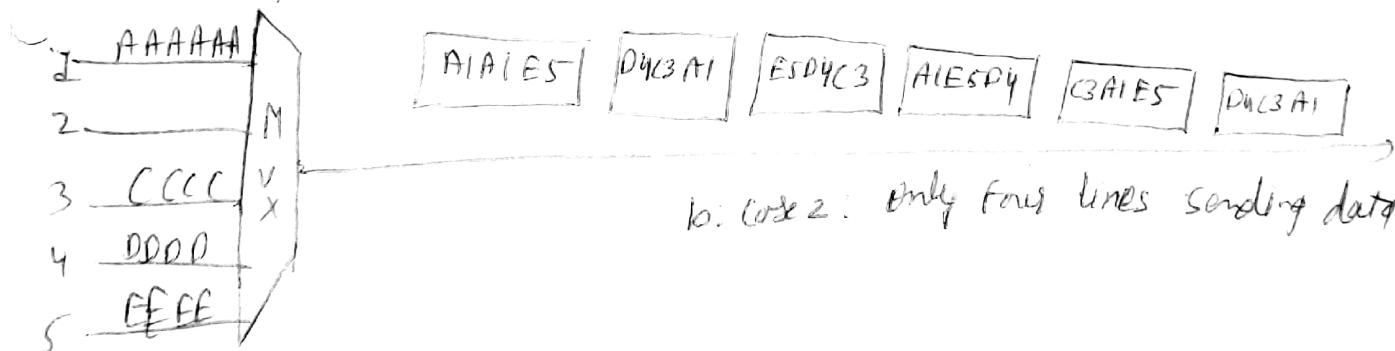
- Bit stuffing: → when the speed of each device is not integral multiple of other, they can be made to behave as if they were, by a technique called bit stuffing.
- In bit stuffing multiplexer adds extra bits to devices source stream to force the speed relationship among the various devices into integral multiple of each other.
- For ex: If one device has bit rate of 2.75 times that of the other device, we can add enough bits to raise the rate to 3 times that of the other. The extra bits are then discarded by the demultiplexer.

Asynchronous TDM: → disadvantage of syn. TDM
In syn. TDM full capacity of link is not used.

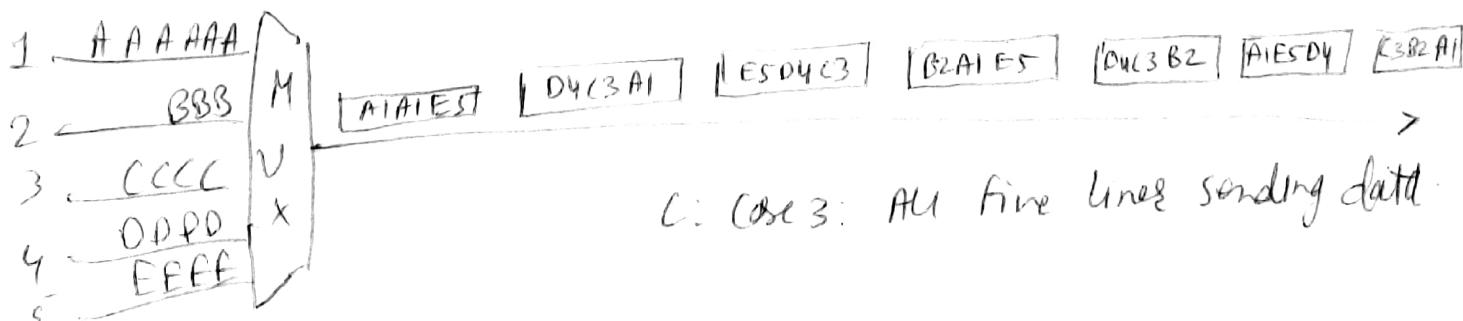
- As the time slots are preassigned and fixed in syn. TDM
- A problem arises that when connected device is not transmitting, the corresponding slot is empty and ~~that much~~ of the path is wasted.
- Asy. TDM or Statistical TDM is designed to avoid this waste.
- Here asy. means flexible or not fixed.



a: Case 1: only three lines sending data



b: Case 2: only four lines sending data



c: Case 3: All five lines sending data

→ In an ASY. system. If we have n I/O lines, the frame contains no more than m slots with $m \leq n$.
Here $n = \text{no. of I/O}$ and $m = \text{no. of slots}$.

→ ASY. TDm can support more devices than synchronous TDm.

Addressing and overhead → How does the Multiplexer know which slot belongs to which output line?

Each time slot must carry an address telling the demultiplexer how to divert data. This address is attached by multiplexer and removed by demultiplexer after ~~the~~ it has been read.

disadvantage of ASY. TDm: →

Adding address bits to each time slot increases the overhead of an asynchronous system and somewhat limits its potential efficiency.

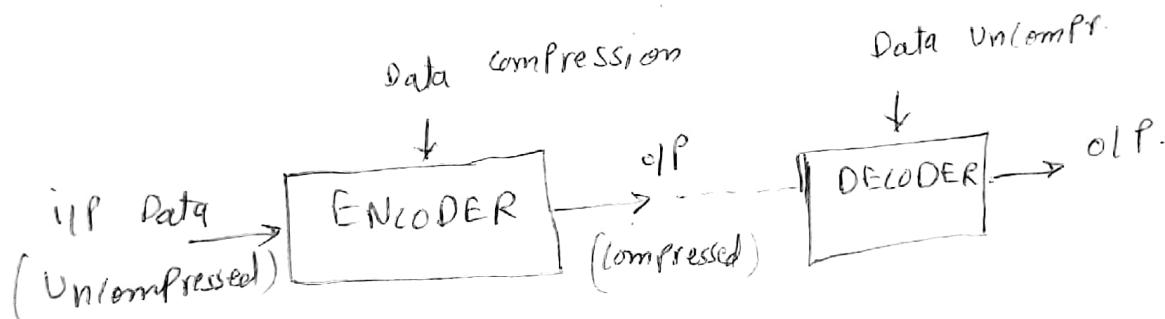
Overhead: → suppose one bit + 3 bit address is required
So this 3 bits are overhead.

Variable length time slot: → ASY. TDm can accommodate traffic of varying data rates by varying the length of the time slot.

Data Compression Introduction → It is the process of representing a given quantity of information by reducing the amount of data required to represent it.

Video file → 2 GB (uncompressed)
(2 hr) ↳ 750 MB (compressed)
 ↳ 2 hr

Data comp.: ↓ amount of disk space required
↓ Transmission B.W.



TYPES of Data compression

\downarrow
lossy compression.

Some info. is lost, less imp. inf. from media is removed.

Ex: Image, Audio, Video.

Terms: →

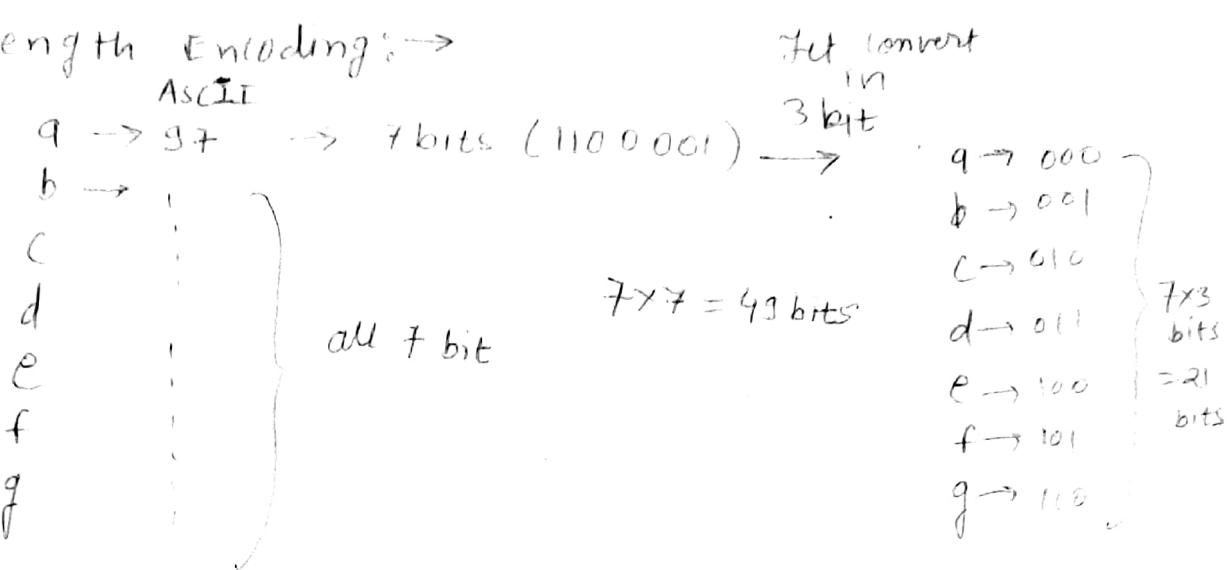
Terms: →
1) compression Ratio: → $\frac{\text{compressed file size}}{\text{original file size}}$

q) compression portion: \rightarrow 1 | compression ratio
approx.

3) compression time! \rightarrow Time ^{require} to compress. (ms)

4) Decompression Time: → Time required to decompress

Fixed length Encoding: →



Uncompressed data

Compressed Data

Run Length Coding: → simplest data comp.
(RLE) (Lossless)

→ Data are stored as a single data value and count rather than original.

Runs: → seq. of same symbol / data value.

But we have long seq. of B

B B B B B B B B : → $\underbrace{\quad}_{\text{Long seq}} \underbrace{B}_B \underbrace{8}_8$
Data count of
value data value

Ex: $\underbrace{B B B B B B B B}_{09}, \underbrace{A A A A A}_{05} \underbrace{N}_{01} \underbrace{M M M}_{03} \rightarrow$ total 20 data

↓ after RLE

B09 A05 N01 M03 → total 15 data

Ex. $000000000000|0000|0000000000$,

$\downarrow \quad \downarrow \quad \downarrow \quad \downarrow$
 Binary of 14, Bin of 4, Bin of 12
 $1110\ 0100\ 0000\ 1100$
 Bin of 0
 $\rightarrow 3 \text{ data}$

Can use
01 or 1

Drawback \rightarrow ex. $x\ y\ z \rightarrow$
 $\downarrow \text{RLE}$
 $x1\ y1\ z1$
 $\downarrow \text{RLE}$
 $\rightarrow 6 \text{ data}$

so when repeating values are not there then no
of bit increases

HUFFMAN CODE Frequency dependant code Data compression (variable length code)

Based on binary tree frequency sorting method that allows to encode any message sequence into shorter encoded message

Algorithm: \rightarrow i) Create sorted nodes based on probability/freq.

ii) Start loop

iii) Find and remove two smallest prob. Node \rightarrow weight

iv) Create new node $[wt \text{ node}] = wt[N_1] + wt[N_2]$

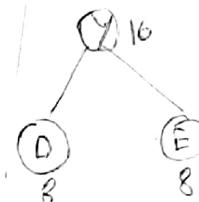
v) Insert new node back-to sorted list.

vi) Repeat the loop until only one last node is present

in the list.

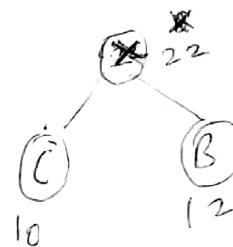
Ex. Enter compress the following data symbol with given freq as follows.

| Symbol | Freq | Code | Code Length |
|--------|------|------|-------------|
| A | 24 | 0 | 1 |
| B | 12 | 101 | 3 |
| C | 10 | 100 | 3 |
| D | 8 | 110 | 3 |
| E | 8 | 111 | 3 |



New Table 1

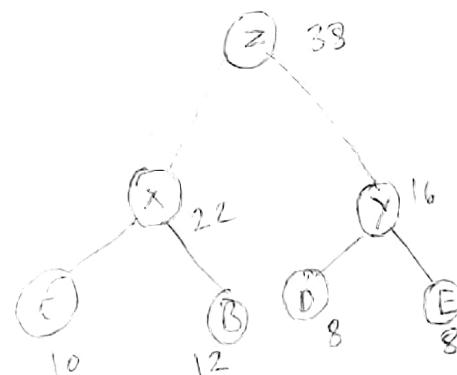
A - 24 B - 12
X - 16 C - 10] odd



Add above two trees

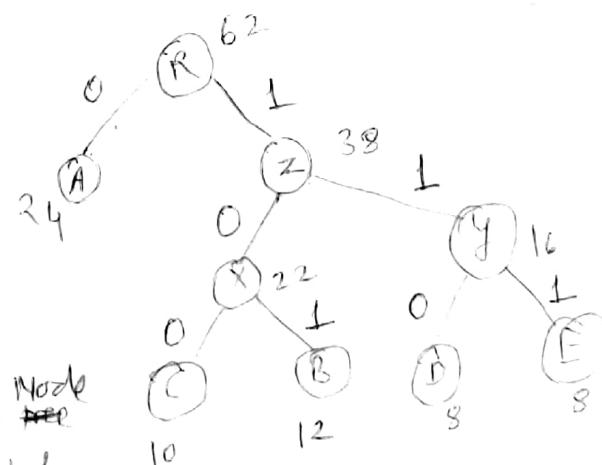
New Table 2

A - 24
Y - 22] add
X - 16

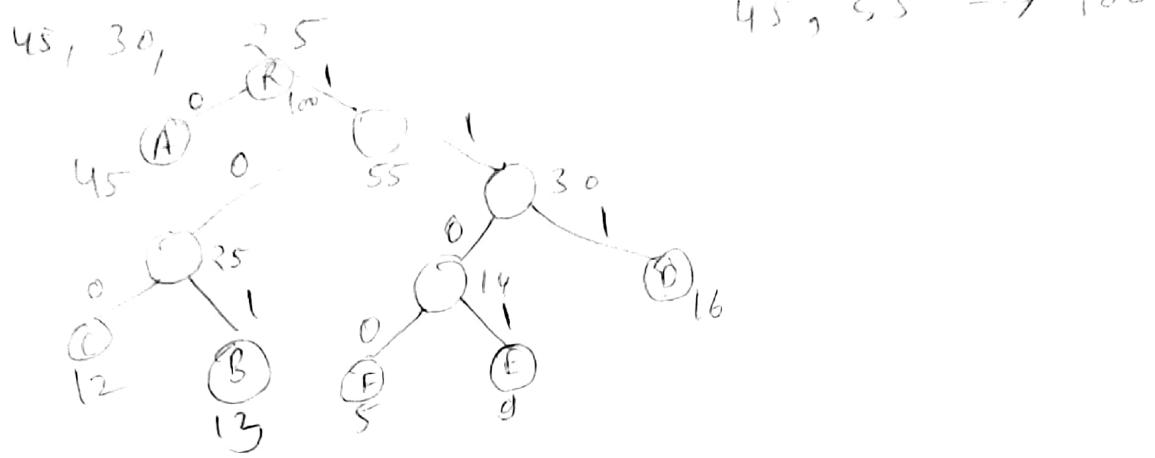


New Table 3

A - 24] add
Z - 38



→ Now assign 0 to left of Node
and 1 to right of Node



A $45 \rightarrow 0 \dots 1$

B $13 \rightarrow 101 \rightarrow 3$

C $12 \rightarrow 100 \rightarrow 3$

D $16 \rightarrow 111 \rightarrow 3$

E $9 \rightarrow 1101 \rightarrow 4$

F $5 \rightarrow 1100 \rightarrow 4$

$45, 55 \rightarrow 100$

Now suppose we have

A A B C D - - - -

then

0 0 101 100 111 - - -
A A B C D - - - -

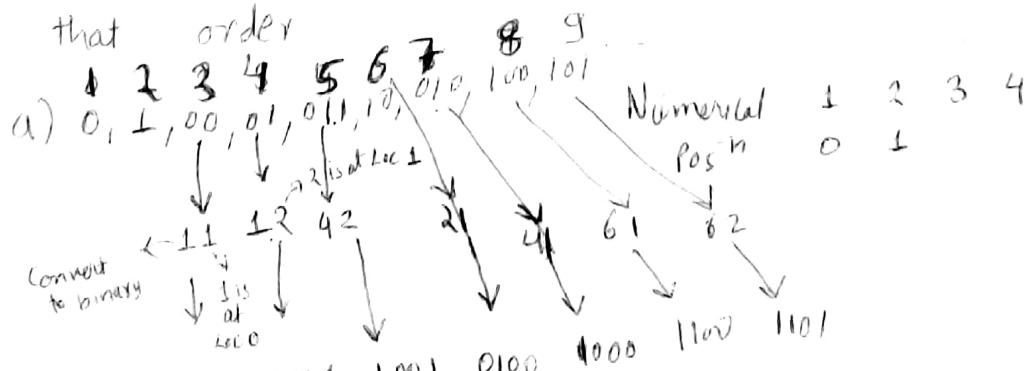
Lampel Zev (Assignment)

It is accomplished by parsing the ~~source data~~ stream into segments that are the ~~shortest subsequent~~ not encountered previously.

Ex: 00010110010100101

It is assumed that 0 and 1 are already stored

in that order



No.
refn

Binary
Encoded
Block

Ex 2: $\{ A \mid A \in \{A, B\}^* \}$

| test ⁿ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
|-----------------------|----|-----|-----|----|------|------|------|-----|------|
| seq: | A | AB | ABB | B | ABA | ABAB | BB | ABA | ABA |
| Numerical position | 0A | 1B | 2B | 3B | 2A | 5B | 4B | 3A | 7 |
| Binary | 0 | 01B | 101 | 1 | 1010 | 1011 | 1001 | 110 | 0111 |

$A \rightarrow 0$
 $B \rightarrow 1$

We code the phrase by writing the location of the prefix and value of the bit.