Model of information processing

- Source (Quelle): creates bit patter with 0 and 1
- Source encoder (Quellencodierer): e.g. can be a compressor or an encryptor (source content is encoded)
- Channel encoder (Kanalcodierer): Als Kanalkodierung bezeichnet man das Verfahren, digitale Daten bei der Übertragung über gestörte Kanäle durch Hinzufügen von Redundanz gegen Übertragungsfehler zu schützen.
- Modulator / Line encoder (Line encoder): Modulater work on the physical layer and are responsible for adjustment so the signal can be transmitted over a specific medium. Line encoders the transmitted digital signals are in suitable channel code encoded
- Sender: e.g. Torax
- Channel (Kanal): e.g. MS Teams, Air
- Receiver: (Empfänger): e.g. the ears

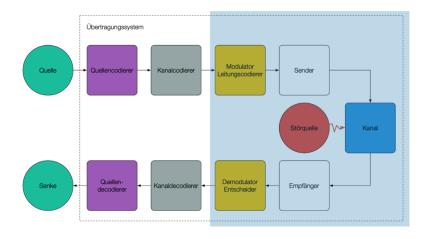


Figure 1: Model of information processing

Probability

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$$

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A) \cdot P(B)$$

$$P(A \cap B) = P(B \cap A) \tag{3}$$

$$P(A) \cdot P(B|A) = P(B) \cdot P(A|B) \tag{4}$$

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} \tag{5}$$

Gedächnislose Quelle

$$P(x_i, y_k) = P(x_i) \cdot P(y_k) \tag{6}$$

Gedächnisbehaftete Quelle

$$P(x_i, y_k) = P(x_i) \cdot P(y_k | x_i) \tag{7}$$

Baysschen Regel

$$P(A) \cdot P(B|A) = P(B) \cdot P(A|B) \tag{8}$$

 $Laplace ext{-}Experiment$

$$P(A) = \frac{|A|}{|\Omega|} \tag{9}$$

Vollständige Wahrscheinlichkeit:

$$\bigcup_{i}^{n} B_{i} = \Omega \text{ und } P(B_{i}) > 0 \forall i$$
 (10)

$$P(A) = \sum_{i}^{n} P(A|B_i) \cdot P(B_i)$$
(11)

$$=\sum_{i}^{n} \frac{P(A \cap B) \cdot P(B)}{P(B)} \tag{12}$$

$$=\sum_{i}^{n}P(A\cap B)\tag{13}$$

Source and Sink

(1)

Jeden Quelle hat ein Zeichenvorrat. Nachricht wird kodiert und wird über Kanal übertragen. Senke hat auch ein Zeichenvorrat und muss das übertragene Wort entscheiden und interpretieren. Dafür müssen die Zeichenvorräte der Quelle und Senke übereinstimmen.

• Wenn Zeichenvorrat ungleich: information irrelevant

• Wenn Zeichenvorrat:

- wort redundant: vorhersagbar

- wort nicht redundant: Information

Nachricht (Darstellung & Bedeutung)	redundant	nicht-redundant	
irrelevant	Zeichenvorrat bei Quelle und Senke verschieden		
relevant	vorhersagbar	Information	

Figure 2: Information, Nachricht

Entscheidungsgehalt

Mass für die minimale Anzahl Entscheidungen die getroffen werden müssen, um ein Zeichen zu erkennen. Dies geschieht unter der Annahme dass alle Zeichen gleich Wahrscheinlich sind. Dies kann in einem Binary Tree abgebildet werden und entspricht der Höhe bzw. dem log₂ der Anzahl Blätter.

$$H_0 = \log_2(N)[bit] \tag{14}$$

Zeichenvorrat: $X = \{a, b, c, d\}$, N = 4 verschieden Zeichen. Daher ist der Informationsgehalt $H_0 = \log_2(4) = 2$. Das sieht man auch ihm Baum 3. Es müssen zwei Entscheidungen getroffen werden, um zu einem Zeichen zu gelangen.

Entscheidungsfluss

Der Entscheidungsfluss ist der Entscheidungsgehalt im Verhältnis zu der Übertragungszeit eines Quellenzeichens.

$$H_0^* = \frac{\log_2(N)}{\tau} \left[\frac{\text{bit}}{s}\right] \tag{15}$$

Informationsgehalt eines Zeichens

Der Informationsgehalt eines Zeichens sagt aus, wie viele Entscheidungen zu treffen sind, um das zu Zeichen zu bestimmen. Mit anderen

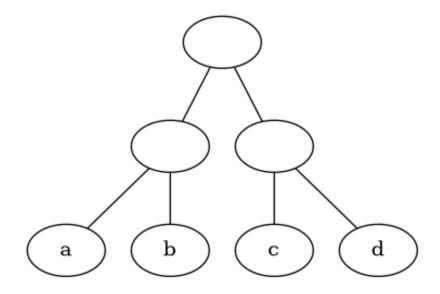


Figure 3: Entscheidungsgehalt

Worten, wie viele mal muss ich zwischen Rechts / Links im Baum entscheiden, bis ich das Zeichen erreicht habe.

• $p(x_k)$ entspricht der Auftrittswahrscheinlichkeit des Zeichen x_k

$$I(x_k) = \log_2(\frac{1}{p(x_k)})[bit]$$
(16)

$$= -\log_2(p(x_k))[bit] \tag{17}$$

Entropie

Als Entropie bezeichnet man den mittleren Informationsgehalt einer Quelle. Entropie beschreibt wie viele Entscheidungen die Qulle / Senke im Mittel pro Zeichen treffen muss. Ist also nichts anderes als der Mittelwert über den Informationsgehalt.

- $p(x_k)$: Die Wahrscheinlichkeit des Zeichen x_k
- $I(x_k)$: Der Informationsgehalt des Zeichen x_k

$$H(X) = \sum_{k=1}^{N} p(x_k) \cdot I(x_k)$$
 (18)

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{N} p(x_k) \cdot (-1) \log_2(p(x_k))$$
 (19)

Redundanz der Quelle

Wenn die Auftrittswahrscheinlichkeit aller Zeichen gleich ist, ist der Informationsgehalt am grössten, bzw. die Redundanz am kleinsten. Die Redundanz der Quelle ist die Differenz ziwchen Entscheidungsgehalt und der Entropie.

- H₀ ist der Entscheidungsgehalt
- H(X) ist die Entropie

$$R_Q = H_0 - H(X) \tag{20}$$

Kleinste Redundanz

Annahme: alle Zeichen sind gleich wahrscheinlich (a,b,c,d). Dann würde sich ein Baum wie in 4 in aufspannen. Dieser ist der selbe wie im Entscheidungsgehalt. Folglich wird $R_Q = x - x = 0$ gerechnet.

Codewortlänge

Die tatsächlie Codewortlänge muss eine Ganzzahl sein, weil man keine Halbenbits übertragen kann. Die Codewortänge für ein Zeichen lässt sich wie folgt berechnen:

• $I(x_k)$ entspricht dem Informationsgehalt.

$$L(x_k) = \lceil I(x_k) \rceil \tag{21}$$

$$= \lceil \log_2(\frac{1}{p(x_k)}) \rceil \tag{22}$$

$$= \left\lceil -\log_2(p(x_k))\right\rceil \tag{23}$$

Entropie eines Codes

Die Entropie des Codes entspricht dem Mittelwert der Codewortlänge: Redunanz des Codes:

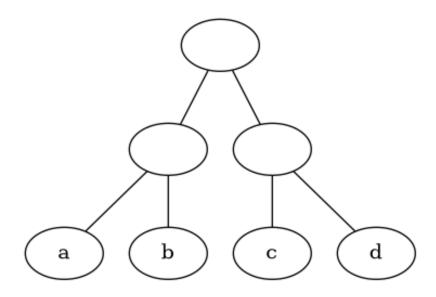


Figure 4: Tree mit gleichmässiger Auftrittswahrscheinlichkeit

• $L(x_k)$ enspricht der Codewortlänge

$$L = H_C(X) = \sum_{k=1}^{N} p(x_k) \cdot L(x_k) \left[\frac{\text{bit}}{\text{Zeichen}}\right]$$
 (24)

Shannonsches Codierungstheorem

Für jede beliebige Binärcodierung mit Präfixeigenschaft ist die mittlere Codewortlänge nicht kleiner als die Entropie:

$$H(X) \le L(X) \tag{25}$$

Für jede beliebige Quelle kann eine Binärcodierung gefunden werden, so dass die folgende Ungleichung gilt:

$$H(X) \le L(X) \le H(X) + 1 \tag{26}$$

Redundanz des Codes

- $L(x_k)$ entspricht der Codewortlänge
- H(X) entspricht der Entropie

$$R_C = L - H(X) \tag{27}$$

Quelle ohne Gedächnis

Bei einer Quelle ohne Gedächnis ist die Auftritswahrscheinlichkeit eines Zeichen unabhängig davon, welche Zeichen zuvor generiert wurde. Die mittlere Entropie einer Quelle ohne Gedächtnis ist stets grösser oder gleich der Entropie einer Quelle mit Gedächtnis.

Die Verbundswahrscheinlichkeit ist für zwei Zeichen x_i und y_k :

$$p(x_i, y_k) = p(x_i) \cdot p(y_k) \tag{28}$$

Gedächnisbehaftete Quelle

Eine Quelle mit Gedächnis merkt sich, welches Zeichen bereits generiert wurde. Dadurch ist dich Verbundswahrscheinlichkeit wie folgt definiert:

$$p(x_i, y_k) = p(x_i) \cdot p(y_k) \tag{29}$$

Die Verbundsentropie ist wie folgt:

$$H(X,Y) = H(X) + H(X|Y) \tag{30}$$

Die mittlere Entropie einer Quelle ohne Gedächtnis ist stets grösser oder gleich der Entropie einer Quelle mit Gedächtnis.

Verbundsentropie

$$H(X,Y) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} p(x_i, y_k) \cdot -\log_2(p(x_i, y_k))$$
 (31)

$$H(X,Y) = H(X) + H(Y|X)$$
 (32)

Präfixfreier Code

Kein Codewort des Codes ist Präfix eines anderen Codewortes. Anders ausgedrückt darf kein Codewort den Beginn eines anderen Codewortes darstellen. Ein Code zum Beispiel mit den Codewörtern $\{0, 10, 11\}$ erfüllt die Präfix-Eigenschaft, während hingegen der Code mit den Codewörtern $\{0, 01, 10\}$ sie nicht erfüllt, da "0" Präfix von "01" ist.

- Wikipedia, 2022

Typen Source Encoder

In the information theory exists two types

- data compressor
 - lossless (verlustfrei)
 - lossy (verlustbehaftet)
- encryption
 - symmetric
 - asymmetric

Verlustfreie Kompression

The goal of a compression is make the data transfer and storing as efficient as possible. This is achieved with reducing the redundancy and remove not used elements.

A good compression algorithm has a:

- high encode / decode speed
- low requirements for hardware

There exists two kind of lossless compression:

- static procedure (adaptive): character of the data used
- dynamic procedure: character of the data is **not** used. In a worst case scenario the data are bigger with compression

Huffman Code

Procedure:

1. sort the symbols after possibility of occurrence

2. repeat

- (a) sum up the possibilities of the two least possible symbols
- (b) the less possible symbol got the 1 the other the 0
- (c) this two counts now as one symbol
- (d) repeat this until only every symbols is processed

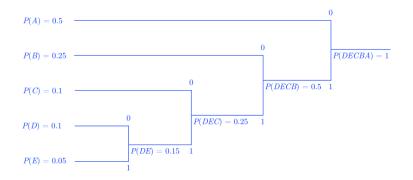


Figure 5: Hufman Example

Lauflängenkodierung

The Run Length Encoding RLE (de. Lauflängenkodierung) is a Lossless compression. If a symbol occurs more than one in a row then the number of repetition is prefix with the character appended.

This compression is very interesting for binary because the transmission is always just a repetition of 0 and 1. First both parts has to agree with witch number the transfer starts. After that only the number of 0 or 1 is transmitted

0000 0111 => 5 3

Lempel-Ziv Algorithmus

During the encoding (runtime) a code book is created on the fly. If a pattern is already transmitted only the reference to this pattern is transmitted.

Der zu komprimierende Code hat wiederkehrende Mustr oder PHrasen, nur die codierten Phrasen müssen übertragen werden. Währende des Durchlaufens der Daten wird ein ständig wachsender Baum erzeugt. Baum dient als Wörterbuch. Knoten dienen als Referenz.

The algorithms needs:

- a search buffer (the already encoded symbols)
- a look-ahead buffer (shows the next symbols to encode)
- if a sequence of symbols in the look-ahead buffer and the search buffer are equal
 - then a code consisting of position and length and stored
 - else the code is stored as in the look-ahead buffer.

search buffer	Look-ahead buffer	coding
	sir_sid_eastman	(0,0,"s")
S	ir_sid_eastman	(0,0,"i")
si	r_sid_eastman	(0,0,"r")
sir	_sid_eastman	(0,0,"_")
sir_	sid_eastman	(4,2,"d")
sir_sid	_eastman	(4,1, "e)

Figure 6: Lempel-Ziv Example

Transposition Cipher

In a transposition cipher every symbol stays the same (no substitution used). Only the order of the symbols is changed. A simple example is shown below:

The clear text "Hello my World" is inserted in a table by row:

Η	${ m E}$	$_{ m L}$	$_{\rm L}$
Ο	Μ	Y	W
Ο	\mathbf{R}	\mathbf{L}	D

and now read the text by column: HOOEMRLYLLWD

DES

DES is a symmetric key algorithm and was long the standard for data encryption. Today it is not safe anymore because of its short key length (max. 56 bits) and therefore should not be used anymore.

Inverse einer Zahl

In math a number x is called the inverse of y when $x \cdot y = 1$. In general this is the case when $y = x^{-1}$. Interesting is when modulo is used. Because now you can multiple a with $b \neq a^{-1}$ to get -1

$$a \cdot b \mod c \equiv 1$$
 (33)

Euler Function

The Euler function returns for a given n the amount of part-unrelated (de: teilerfremd) numbers n. The symbol for the Euler function is Φ The Euler function is difficult to calculate except for prime numbers: Be n a prime number

$$\Phi(n) = n - 1\Phi(5) = 5 - 1 = 4 \tag{34}$$

The result of $\phi(p \cdot q)$ where p and q are prime is:

$$\Phi(p \cdot q) = \Phi(p) \cdot \Phi(q) \tag{35}$$

$$= (p-1) \cdot (q-1) \tag{36}$$

Euler Theorem

For two part-unrelated numbers a < b applies the following:

$$a^{\Phi(b)} \mod b \equiv 1 \tag{37}$$

 $\Phi(b)$ is called Eulers function.

Euler Function & Theorem

If you combine Euler's Function with his theorem you can say something like this: If $b = p \cdot q$ where p and q are prime then:

$$a^{\Phi(b)} \mod b \equiv$$
 (38)

$$a^{\Phi(p \cdot q)} \mod (p \cdot q) \equiv$$
 (39)

$$a^{(p-1)\cdot(q-1)} \mod(p \cdot q) \equiv 1 \tag{40}$$

RSA Parameters

1. Choose p and q

- (a) $n = p_1 \cdot p_2$
- (b) n is public, p, q private
- 2. Calculate $\Phi(n)$
- 3. Choose e
 - e has to be part-unrelated to $\Phi(n)$ and $1 < e < \Phi(n)$
 - in reality often 3 or 65537
- 4. Calculate the inverse from e resulting in d
 - For Example with the Extended Euclidean algorithm

Be m the message. Then to encrypt: $c = m^e \mod n$. Do decrypt c to m: $m = c^d \mod n$.

Channel Matrix

Die Kanalmatrix beschreibt wie Wahrscheinlich es ist, dass man y erhält, wenn x gesendet wurde. p und q geben an, wie wahrscheinlich es ist, dass ein Fehler auftritt.

$$\begin{bmatrix} p(y_1) \\ p(y_2) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} p(x_1) \cdot p(y_1|x_1) + p(x_2) \cdot p(y_1|x_2) \\ p(x_1) \cdot p(y_2|x_1) + p(x_2) \cdot p(y_2|x_2) \end{bmatrix}$$
(42)

Maximum Likelihood

How high is the possibility that I receive y_1 when x_1 is sent. The cell with the highest value in a column (y-value) is maximum likelihood the x-value which was sent.

$$p(Y|X) = \begin{bmatrix} 0.6 & 0.2 & 0.2 \\ 0.2 & 0.2 & 0.6 \\ 0.3 & 0.2 & 0.5 \end{bmatrix}$$
 (43)

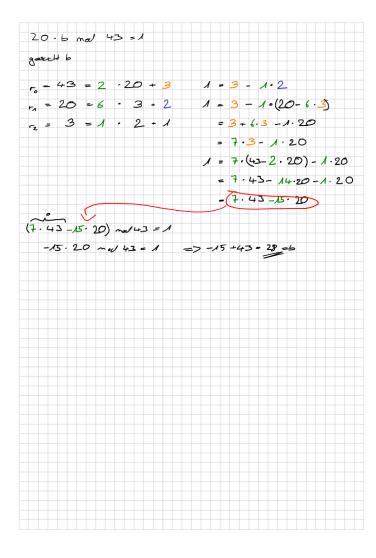


Figure 7: RSA nach Rinkel

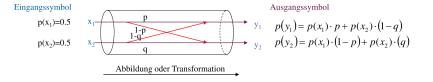


Figure 8: Channel Matrix Model

When I got a y_1 (first column in 43) then it probably x_1 was sent. When I got a y_3 then probably a x_2 was sent. And to cover all possible x values the y_2 is mapped to x_2 .

Mutual Information / Transinformation

Mutual information describes how much two random variables correlate. The higher the more they correlate (1 total correlation, 0 no correlation).

In the context of information transfer over a channel the mutual information describes also how big the flow is which I can transfer without errors. Transiformation (T) ist der Informationsfluss, den ich fehlerfrei über einen gestörten Kanal übertragen kann.

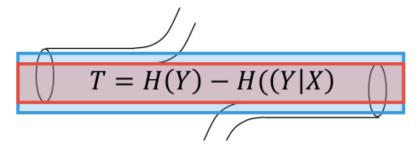


Figure 9: Transinformation / Mutual Information

$$H(Y|X) = -\sum_{i}^{n} \sum_{j}^{n} p(x_i) \cdot p(y_j|x_i) \cdot \log_2(p(y_j|x_i))$$
 (44)

$$T = H(Y) - H(Y|X) = H(X) - H(X|Y)$$
(45)

Wie ändert die Kanalmatrix die Transinformation

Ein nicht gestörter Kanal (Einheitsmatrix) überträgt den mittleren Informationsgehalt. Transinformation wird nur durch die Quelle bestimmt. Verändert sich die Entropie der Quelle, ändert sich die Transinformation. Nimmt die Fehlerwahrscheinlichkeit zu, nimmt die Transinformation ab. Sind in der Kanalmatrix alle Positionen gleich besetzt, wird die Transinformation T=0.

Coderaum

The Code space is a set of code words / code points.

Hamming Distance

When one code word is given the Hamming Distance (h) describes how many positions have to change until a new valid code word is reached.

- Number of reliable detectable errors (46)
- Number of reliable correctable errors (47)

$$e^* = h - 1 \tag{46}$$

$$e = \begin{cases} \frac{h-2}{2} & \text{if h is even} \\ \frac{h-1}{2} & \text{if h is odd} \end{cases}$$
 (47)

Korrigierkugel

The correction sphere has a radius of e: the number of reliable correctable errors. The center of a correction sphere is always a valid code word. If you receive a invalid code word and this code word is inside of the sphere then it will be changed to the center / valid code word.

Perfecter Code / Dichtgepackter Code

A code space is called a perfect code when every code word (valid or invalid) is in a correction circle.

- n: The dimension of the code (number of all code words (CW) = 2^n , $n = 2^k 1$)
- m: the dimension of message (number of all valid $cw = 2^m$)
- k: the dimension of check positions (n = m + k)

then applies:

$$2^m \cdot \sum_{w=0}^e \binom{n}{w} \le 2^n \tag{48}$$

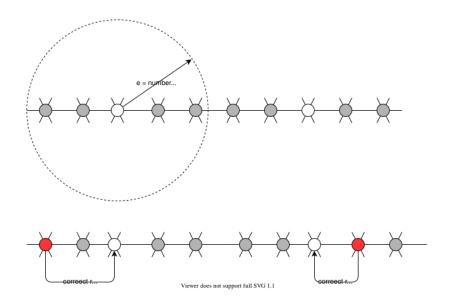


Figure 10: Korrigierkugel / Correction Sphere

- 2^m : Number of valid CW (or number correction circles)
- Σ : Number of CW per correction circle
- 2^n : Number of all CW

In the following case we call the code perfect:

$$2^m \cdot \sum_{w=0}^e \binom{n}{w} = 2^n \tag{49}$$

Haming Codes

Hamming Code is a family of error correcting codes. Every Hamming Codes has a Haming Distance of 3.

Hamming Codes can be built with either a generator matrix or with a Generator Polynom.

Generator Matrix Hamming Code

The generator matrix consists of two parts. The first indicates witch you need to pick for you calculation (this with 1). And the second part is the unit matrix which marks the control positions.

A generator matrix has two conditions:

- 1. every vector of the message part has to be different than the others
- 2. the equation 50 has to be fullfield

$$\sum_{i} x_i \cdot \vec{P_i} \equiv \vec{0} \mod 2 \tag{50}$$

An example of valid generator matrix is shown in 51

$$\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{bmatrix}$$
(51)

If only one bit is changed during transmission then the calculation of 50 is wrong. The result is the vector which has changed.

Generator Polynom Hamming Code

The generator matrix can be replaced with a polynom. This has the benefits that it is easier to calculate the control positions.

- k: Number of control positions
- n: Dimension of the code

Where $g_i = 0, 1$

$$G(u) = \sum_{i=0}^{k} g_i \cdot u^i \tag{52}$$

$$X(u) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} g_i \cdot u^i \tag{53}$$

If the code word polynom (53) can be divided by the generator polynom (52) mod 2 it is a valid code:

$$Q(u) = X(u)/G(u) \tag{54}$$

$$X(u)/G(u) \equiv Q(u) \mod 2 \equiv 0$$
 (55)

To verify if received message is correct divide the message through the generator polynom. If this is not 0 then an error is occurred.

$$\begin{cases} \text{No errors} & \text{if Message}/G(u) = 0\\ \text{Errors(s) occurred} & \text{if Message}/G(u) \neq 0 \end{cases}$$
 (56)

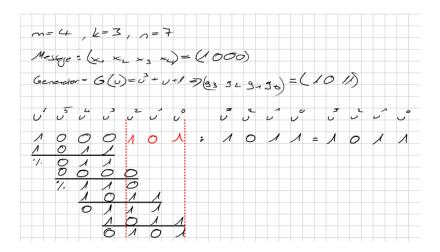


Figure 11: Generator Polynom Hamming Code

Build all valid codes

- 1. Get the Generator Polynom and k (k is grade of polynom)
- 2. calculate m
- 3. for all possible messages (every possible combination with m bits)
- 4. bring the message bits to 0 using the polynom (addition, see 11)

Zyklische Hamming Codes

Hamming distanz h=3. Generator polynom ist ein primitives polynom.

CRC / Abramson Code

Hammingdistanz h = 4. Werden durch die Multiplikation eines primitven Polynoms mit dem Term (1 + x) gebildete.

$$g(x) = p(x)(1+x) \mod 2 \tag{57}$$

$$g(x) = (1 + x + x^3)(1 + x) \mod 2$$
 (58)

$$g(x) = (1 + x + x^3 + x + x^2 + x^4) \mod 2 \tag{59}$$

$$g(x) = (1 + 2x + x^2 + x^3 + x^4) \mod 2$$
 (60)

$$g(x) = 1 + x^2 + x^3 + x^4 (61)$$

$$n = 2^{k-1} - 1 \tag{62}$$

Was ist ein Blockcode

Your data is grouped in blocks and then each block is encoded seperately. Block codes are easy to implement and have a hight error detection. But you have to build blocks. Therefore, streams are not possible to encode.

Faltungscodes / Convolutional Codes

With Convolutional codes streaming data (code block length not known) can be encoded. This kind of code is often used in the mobile network. Convolutional codes do not need any block synchronization.

How does Convolutional Codes work

A Convolutional codes has storage cells for the previous send bits. The highets bits in the generator polynom tells you how many Storage Cells you have. The bit from the past is xor-ed with the current one.

In the figure 12 the upper way is the g_1 and the lower g_2 . If a bit was used it shift one further to the storage cell.

The Generator Polynom can be read from the diagram:

- $g_1(x) = 1 + x^2$: The upper way
- $g_2(x) = 1 + x + x^2$: The bottom way

The number of tails bits are the same as the number of storage cells. The encoder in figure 12 has two storage cells. Therefore two tailbits are needed.

Table 1: Output for input 100 $g_1(x_i)$ $g_2(x_i)$ 11 01 11 0 00

00

0

State Machine for Convolutional Codes

A Convolutional Code can also be represented as a State Machine Diagram. For an example see figure 13. The Generator Polynom $g_1(x)$ and $g_2(x)$ are as follows:

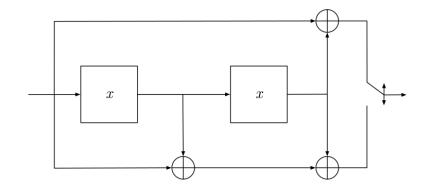


Figure 12: Faltungscode Encoder

- $g_1(x) = 1 + x^2$ $g_2(x) = 1 + x + x^2$
- 1. Find the numbers of Storage cells n
- 2. Calculate the number of state $m=2^n$
- 3. Build the table (2)
- 4. Build from table the State Machine Diagram / DFA

Γ			f States fo	
State	Input	Cells	Output	Next State
S_0	0	0 0	0 0	S_0
S_0	1	0 0	1 1	S_2
S_1	0	0 1	1 1	S_0
S_1	1	0 1	0 0	S_2
S_2	0	1 0	0 1	S_1
S_2	1	1 0	1 0	S_3
S_3	0	1 1	1 0	S_1
S_3	1	1 1	0 1	S_3

Trellis Diagram

To visualize how the convolutional code is encoded over time the trellis diagram is suitable. Each state of the state machine is only used once

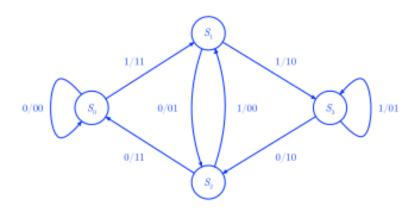


Figure 13: Convolutional Code as State Machine Diagram

per CPU clock. And the transition goes to the next state in the next CPU clock.

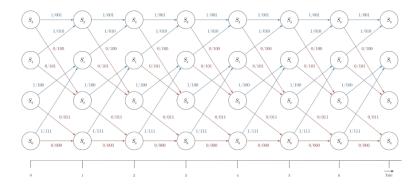


Figure 14: Trellis diagram

Decode Convolutional Codes

To decode a Convolutional Code you try to find the cheapest way throug the trellis diagram. You start at the Starting State (S_0) . You compare each code word part with the possible transitions. The transition which needs the fewest changes is used.

Block Code Rate

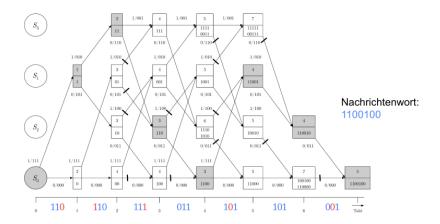


Figure 15: Decoding a Convolutional Code

• m: Encoding Storage

• R: Block code rate

• x: Encoded Bits

$$R = \frac{encodededbits}{sentbits} \tag{63}$$

$$=\frac{x}{2\cdot(x+m)}\tag{64}$$

In 64 the 2 is needed because for each input bit two output bits are generated. The m is required because you need to send m tail bits to clear the storage.

Impulse Response

The Impulse Response is the output of a system (for example an encoder) with a brief input signal. In numbers this would be 1000...

Detect Number of Storage Cells

Using a Impulse Response you can detect how many storage cells are used in the convolutional code. The 1 which is send must be cleared from all storage cells. Therefore, the same number of 0 are sent as storage cells.

Was ist das Basisband

Baseband is the range of frequencies occupied by a signal that has not been modulated to other frequencies. The frequency is unchanged.

Line Coding TODO!!

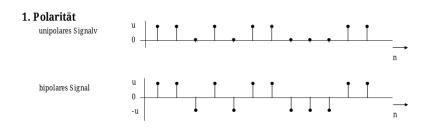
Requirements Line Coding

- Synchronisation of the clock / phase at the receiver After a long period of 1 you have to known how many 1 are sent
- Avoiding direct current components (Gleichstromkomponenten)
- Resistance to interference

Classification Line Coding

Line codes can be classified using two properties:

- 1. polarity (0 to u / -u to u)
- 2. impuls form (Return to Zero / No Return to Zero)



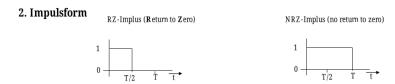


Figure 16: Line Code Classification

NR.Z

- NRZ: 1 Hight, 0 Low
- NRZ-M: 1 change polarity (mark)
- NRZ-S: 0 change polarity (space)

Manchester Code

The Manchester Code (see figure 17) has no direct current (Gleichstrom) but requireds the double amount of bandwith. The Manchester Code by IEEE has the following convention:

- the 0 is represented as a high-low signal sequence
- the 1 is represented as a low-high signal sequence

IEEE is used by Rinkel.

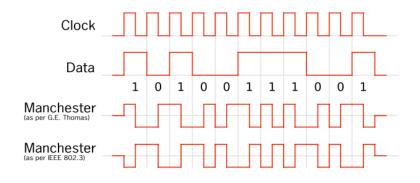


Figure 17: Machester Code

AMI Code

The AMI Code uses the following convention:

- the 0 is represented as a 0 level
- the 1 is represented as an alternating level change of pos. and neg.

After a long sequence of 0 it is difficult for the receiver to know how many zeros actually were send.

Parameter of a signal

A signal consists of two parameters:

- 1. amplitude
- 2. period length / frequency (Period Length vs. Frequency)

What are dB?

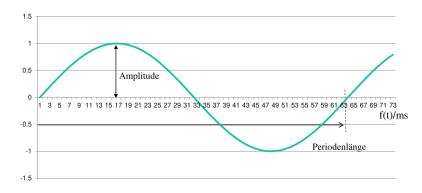


Figure 18: A Signal

Bel describes the ratio between two values. For example the strength of an output and input signal.

$$S_{Bel} = \log_{10}(\frac{S_{out}}{S_{in}}) \tag{65}$$

The dezibel is more common than bel.

$$S_{dezibel} = 10 \cdot \log_{10}(\frac{S_{out}}{S_{in}}) \tag{66}$$

Example

$$s_2 = 20, \, s_1 = 10 \tag{67}$$

$$\log_{10}(\frac{s_2}{s_1})\tag{68}$$

$$=\log_{10}(\frac{20}{10})\tag{69}$$

$$= 0.301 Bel \approx 3dB \tag{70}$$

Harmonische Schwingungen / Harmonic Oscillations

Harmonic Oscillations are oscillations which does not have any sudden changes. For example sine / cosine are harmonic.

In our world, all things consist of sine and cosine waves.

Week 09 / 10 Signal Abtasten

Je öfter abgetaste, desto genauer ist das Signal:

- um es fehlerfrei zu erhalte, muss man mit min. der doppelten Frequezn als das signal abgetastet werden
- Mensch hört ca. 20 22kHz

Wie viele bits verwenden wir für die quantisierung des signals? Je mehr bits desto genauer. Aber das signal wird **nie** rund. Es ist immer kantig