

DATA AND SIGNALS



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



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



Data can be analog or digital.

Analog data are continuous and take continuous values.

Digital data have discrete states and take discrete values.

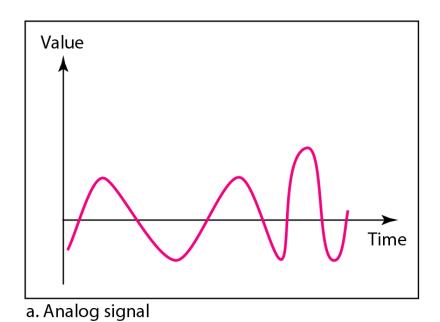


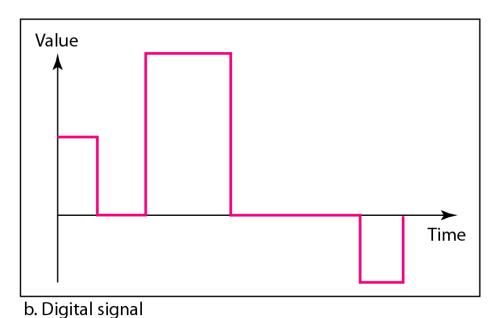
Signals can be analog or digital.

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



Comparison of analog and digital signals







Periodic and Non Periodic

- A periodic signal completes a pattern within a measurable time frame, called a period, and repeats that pattern over subsequent identical periods.
- The completion of one full pattern is called as a **cycle**.
- A **non-periodic signal** changes without exhibiting a pattern or a cycle.

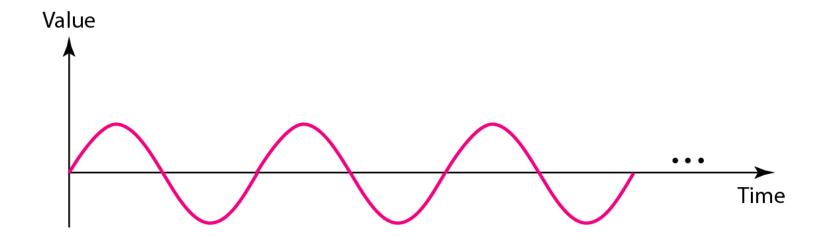


In data communications, we commonly use periodic analog signals and nonperiodic digital signals.

Periodic analog signals can be classified as simple or composite.



Figure A sine wave





A sine wave is represented by:

Peak Amplitude

Frequency

Phase

Wavelength



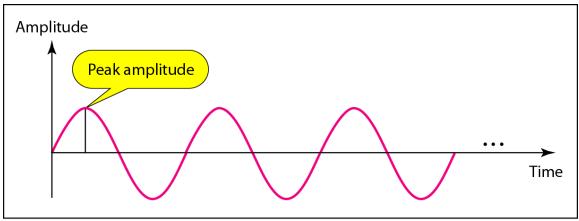
Peak Amplitude

The peak amplitude of a signal is the absolute value of its highest intensity, proportional to energy it carries.

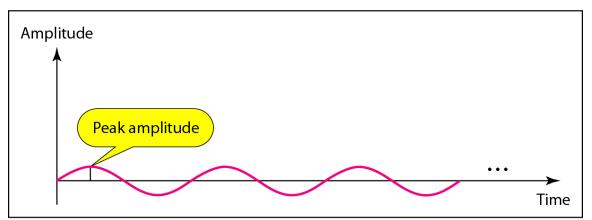
Measured in volts.



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





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



Period and Frequency

- Period refers to amount of time, in seconds, a signal takes to complete one cycle.
- Frequency refers to the number of periods in 1 second.

 Period is expressed in seconds and frequency is expressed in hertz (Hz)



Frequency and period are the inverse of each other.

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



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.



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

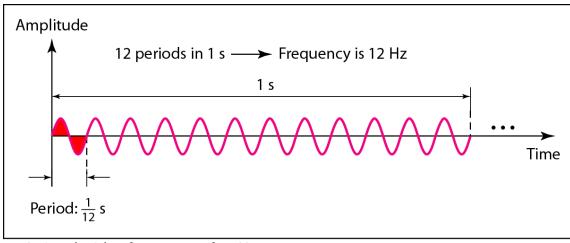
If a signal changes instantaneously, its frequency is infinite.



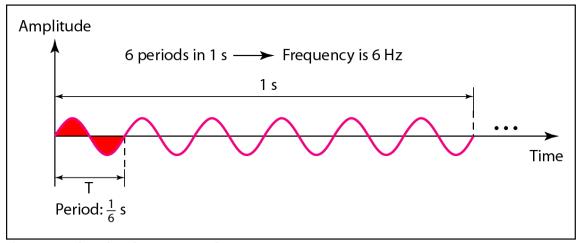
Table Units of period and frequency

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)	$10^{-9} \mathrm{s}$	Gigahertz (GHz)	10 ⁹ Hz
Picoseconds (ps)	10^{-12} s	Terahertz (THz)	10 ¹² Hz

Figure 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





The power we use at home has a frequency of 60 Hz. Determined the period of this sine wave?





Express a period of 100 ms in microseconds.





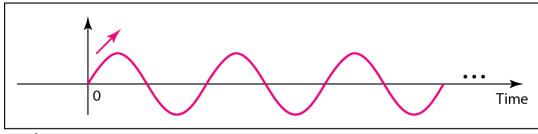
The period of a signal is 100 ms. What is its frequency in kilohertz?

Solution

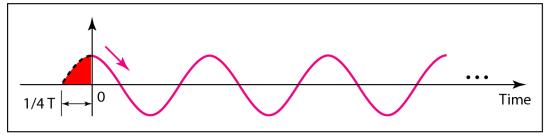


Phase describes the position of the waveform relative to time 0.

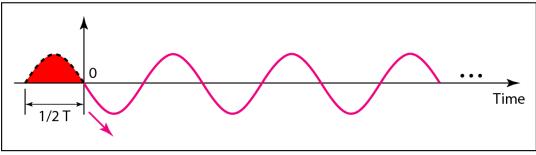
Figure Three sine waves with the same amplitude and frequency, but different phases



a. 0 degrees



b. 90 degrees



c. 180 degrees

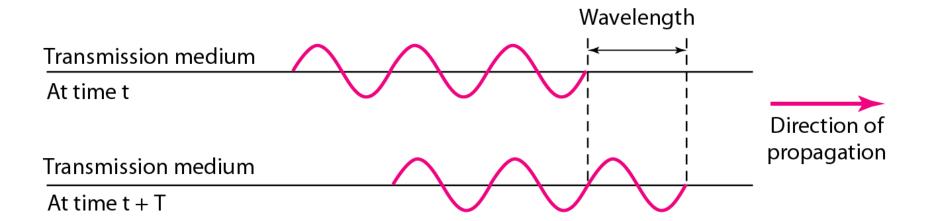




A sine wave with value 1/6 cycle with respect to time 0. What is its phase in degrees and radians?



Figure Wavelength and period

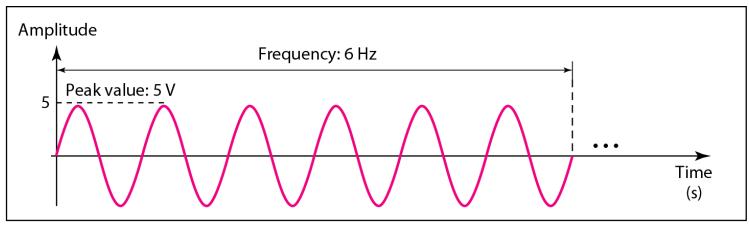




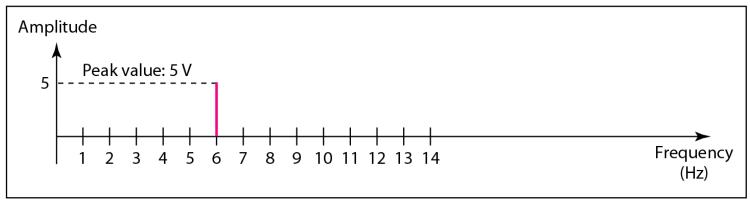
Wavelength

- Wavelength is the distance a signal can travel in one period.
- Wavelength= propagation speed* periodOr
- Wavelength= propagation speed/ frequency

Figure 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)



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

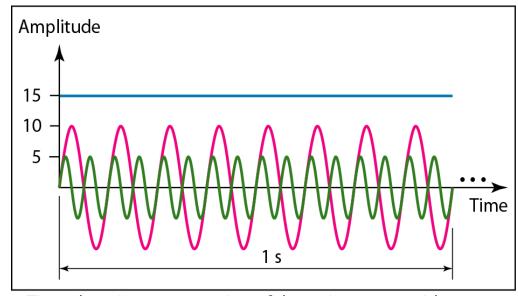




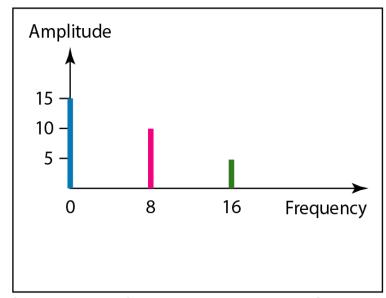
The frequency domain is more compact and useful when we are dealing with more than one sine wave. For example, Figure 3.8 shows three sine waves, each with different amplitude and frequency. All can be represented by three spikes in the frequency domain.



Figure 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



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.



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



Figure 3.9 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 A composite periodic signal

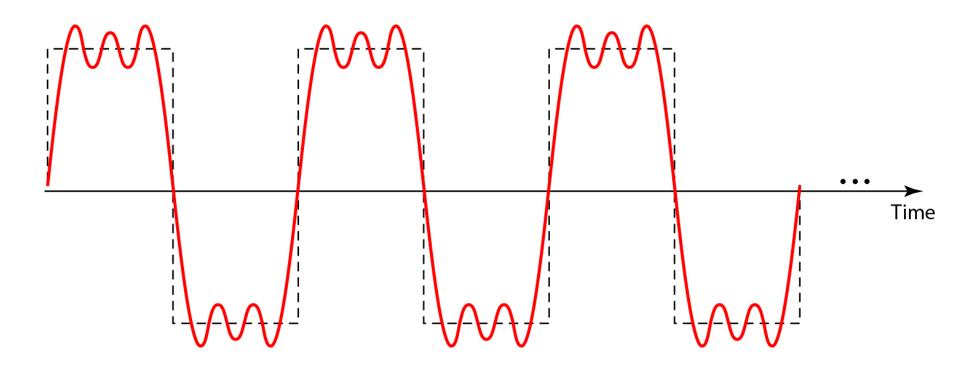
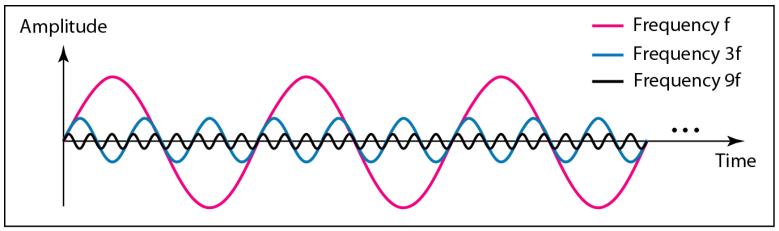
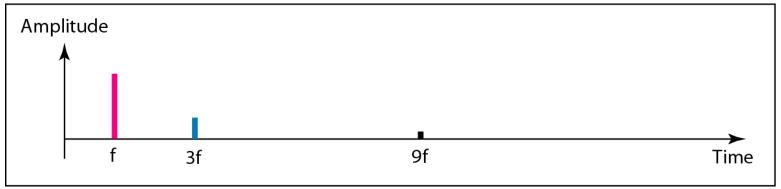




Figure Decomposition of a composite periodic signal in the time and frequency domains



a. Time-domain decomposition of a composite signal



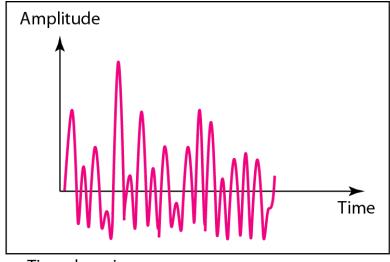
b. Frequency-domain decomposition of the composite signal



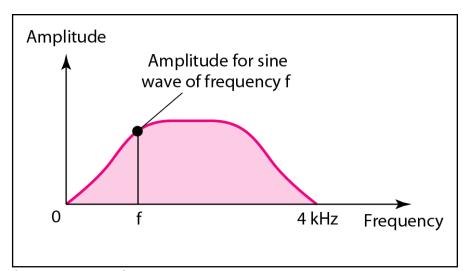
Figure 3.11 shows a nonperiodic composite signal. It can be the signal created by a microphone or a telephone set when a word or two is pronounced. In this case, the composite signal cannot be periodic, because that implies that we are repeating the same word or words with exactly the same tone.



Figure The time and frequency domains of a nonperiodic signal



a. Time domain



b. Frequency domain

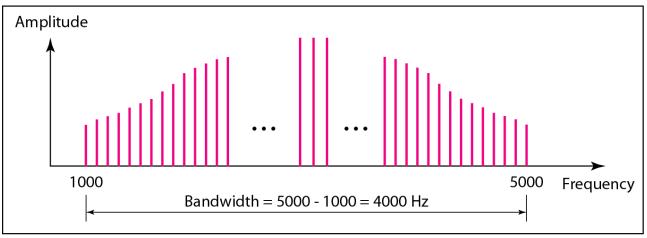


Note

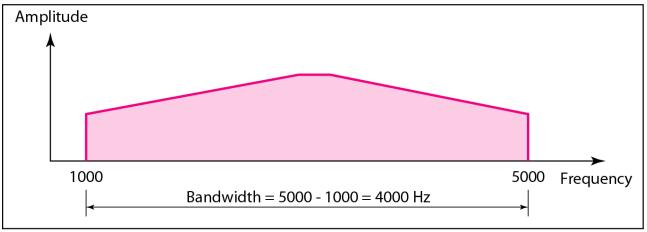
The bandwidth of a composite signal is the difference between the highest and the lowest frequencies contained in that signal.



Figure The bandwidth of periodic and nonperiodic composite signals



a. Bandwidth of a periodic signal



b. Bandwidth of a nonperiodic signal



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.

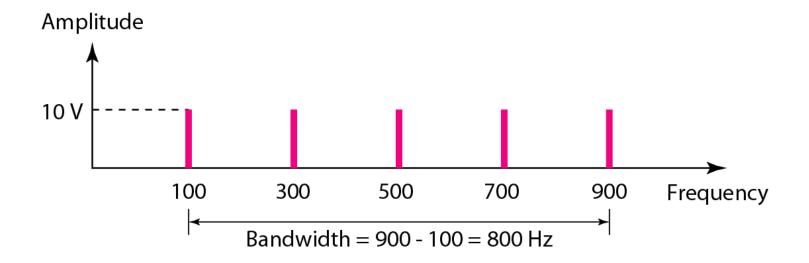
Solution

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 The bandwidth for Example 3.10





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.

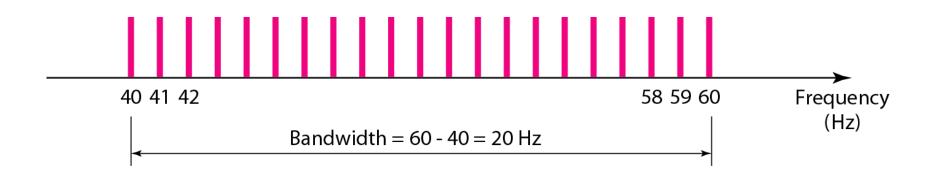
Solution

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

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



Figure The bandwidth for Example 3.11







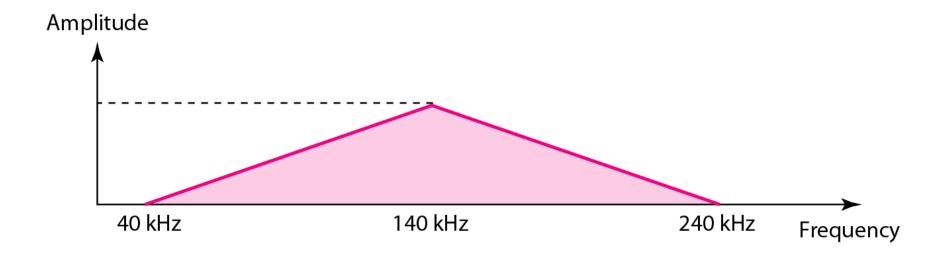
A nonperiodic composite signal has a bandwidth of 200 kHz, with a middle frequency of 140 kHz and peak amplitude of 20 V. The two extreme frequencies have an amplitude of 0. Draw the frequency domain of the signal.

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.



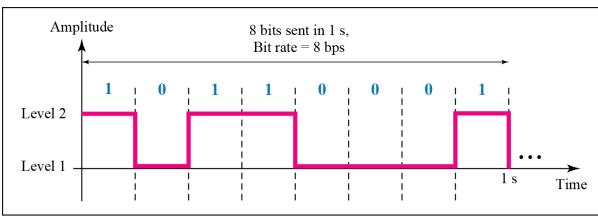
Figure The bandwidth for Example 3.12



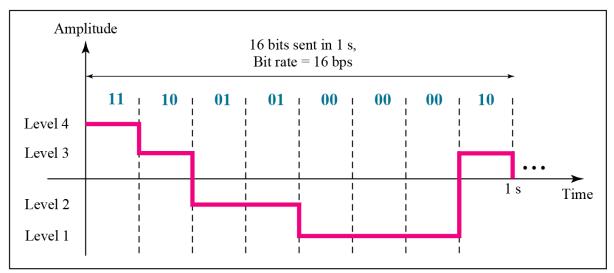
In addition to being represented by an analog signal, information can also be represented by a digital signal. For example, a 1 can be encoded as a positive voltage and a 0 as zero voltage. A digital signal can have more than two levels. In this case, we can send more than 1 bit for each level.



Figure 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



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

Number of bits per level = $log_2 8 = 3$

Each signal level is represented by 3 bits.





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.



Bit Rate

- Most Digital Signals are non-periodic. Therefore, period and frequency are not appropriate characteristics.
- Bit rate is used.
- Bit rate is number of bits sent in 1s. Expressed in bps.



Assume we need to download text documents at the rate of 100 pages per minute. 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, the bit rate is

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



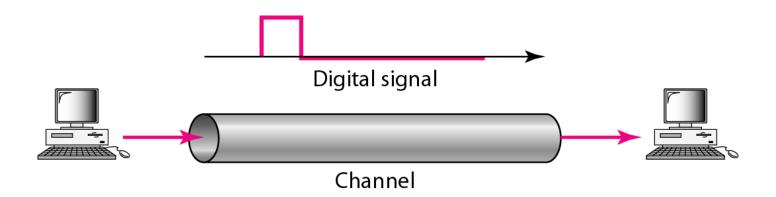
Bit Length

 Bit length is distance one bit occupies on transmission medium.

Bit length= propagation speed* bit duration



Figure Baseband transmission



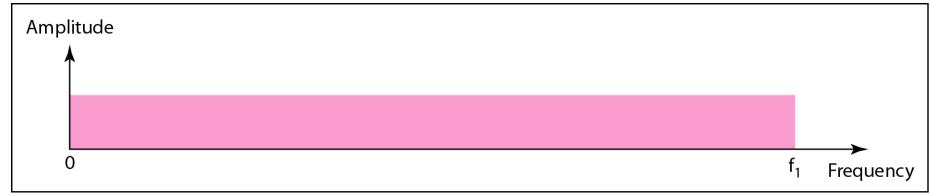


Note

A digital signal is a composite analog signal with an infinite bandwidth.



Figure Bandwidths of two low-pass channels



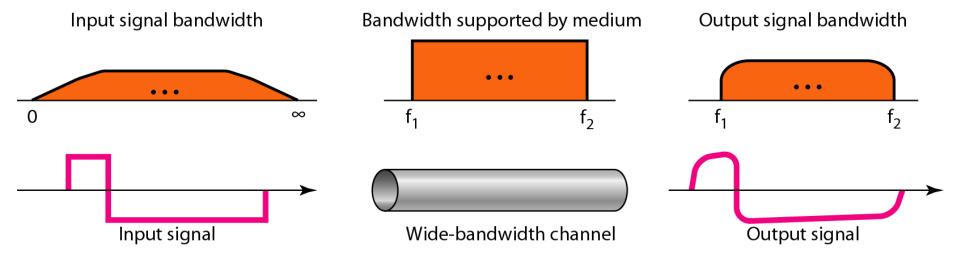
a. Low-pass channel, wide bandwidth



b. Low-pass channel, narrow bandwidth



Figure Baseband transmission using a dedicated medium





Note

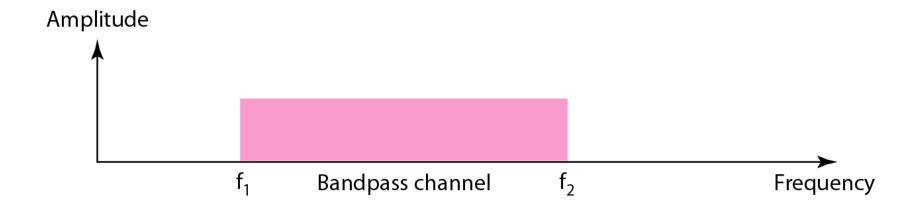
Baseband transmission of a digital signal that preserves the shape of the digital signal is possible only if we have a low-pass channel with an infinite or very wide bandwidth.



Note

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

Broadband Transmission: Bandwidth of a bandpass channel



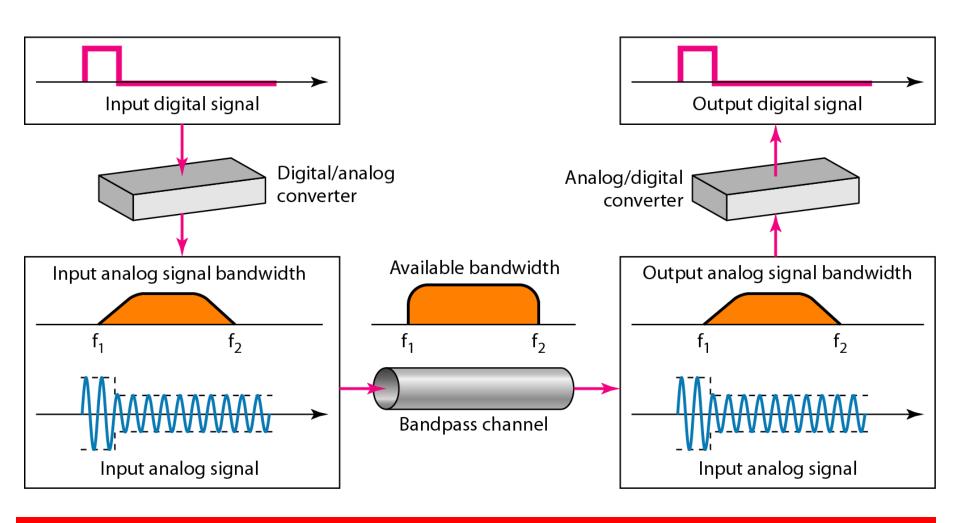


Note

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



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







example of broadband transmission using modulation is the sending of computer data through a telephone subscriber line, the line connecting a resident to the central telephone office. These lines are designed to carry voice with a limited bandwidth. The channel is considered a bandpass channel. We convert the digital signal from the computer to an analog signal, and send the analog signal. We can install two converters to change the digital signal to analog and vice versa at the receiving end. The converter, in this case, is called a modem

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 may reduce the reliability of the system.



Noiseless Channel: Nyquist Bit Rate

Bit Rate= 2 * bandwidth * log₂ L



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

BitRate = $2 \times 3000 \times \log_2 2 = 6000$ bps



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

BitRate = $2 \times 3000 \times \log_2 4 = 12,000$ bps



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:

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

 $\log_2 L = 6.625$ $L = 2^{6.625} = 98.7$ 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.



Noisy Channel: Shannon Capacity

Capacity = Bandwidth * log₂(1+SNR)



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

$$C = B \log_2 (1 + SNR) = B \log_2 (1 + 0) = B \log_2 1 = B \times 0 = 0$$

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.



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.





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

$$SNR_{dB} = 10 \log_{10} SNR$$
 \longrightarrow $SNR = 10^{SNR_{dB}/10}$ \longrightarrow $SNR = 10^{3.6} = 3981$ $C = B \log_2 (1 + SNR) = 2 \times 10^6 \times \log_2 3982 = 24 \text{ Mbps}$

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

$$C = B \times \frac{\text{SNR}_{\text{dB}}}{3}$$

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

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

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.

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



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.

 $4 \text{ Mbps} = 2 \times 1 \text{ MHz} \times \log_2 L \longrightarrow L = 4$



Note

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

One important issue in networking is the performance of the network—how good is it?.

Topics discussed in this section:

Bandwidth

Throughput

Latency (Delay)

Bandwidth-Delay Product



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.





If the telephone company improves the quality of the line and increases the bandwidth to 8 kHz, we can send 112,000 bps by using the same technology



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

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

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



Latency (Delay)

Latency= Propagation Time+ transmission time + queuing time+ processing delay



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

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.





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:





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

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





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.





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

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.