

# **Chapter 4**

## **Digital Transmission**

## 4-1 DIGITAL-TO-DIGITAL CONVERSION

In this section, we see how we can represent digital data by using digital signals. The conversion involves three techniques: **line coding**, **block coding**, and **scrambling**. Line coding is always needed; block coding and scrambling may or may not be needed.

### Topics discussed in this section:

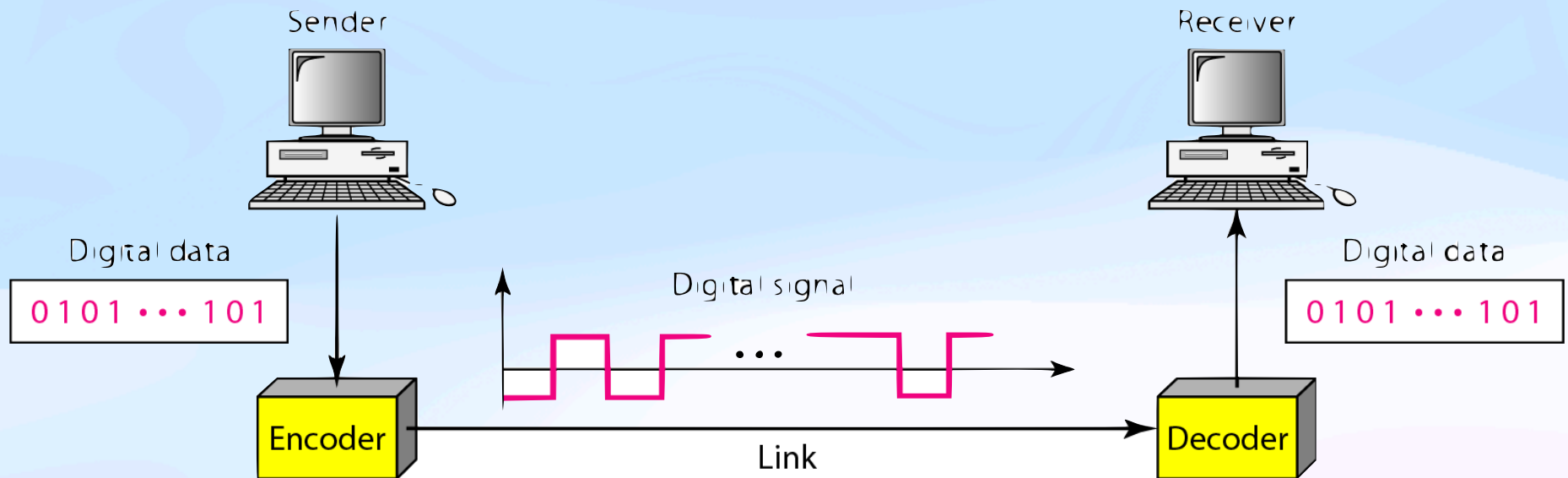
Line Coding

Line Coding Schemes

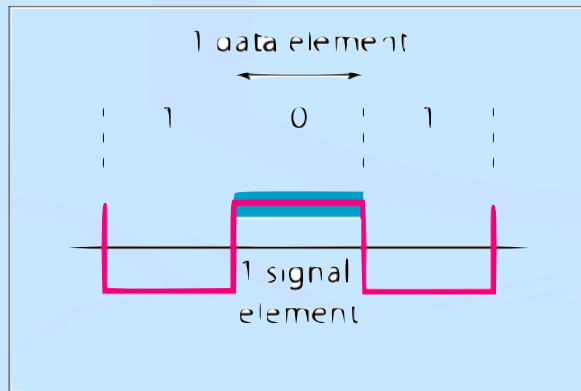
Block Coding

Scrambling

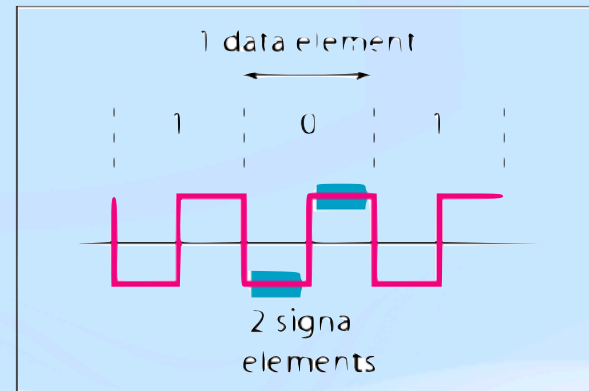
## Figure 4.1 Line coding and decoding



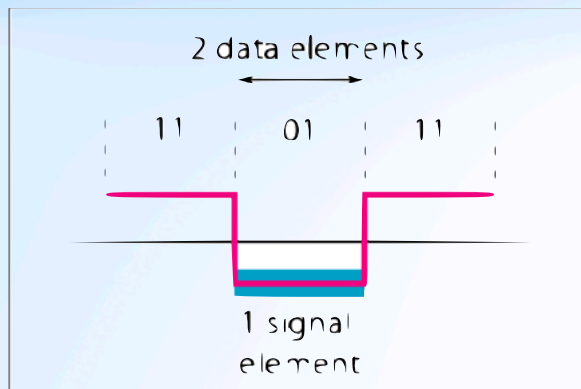
## Figure 4.2 Signal element versus data element



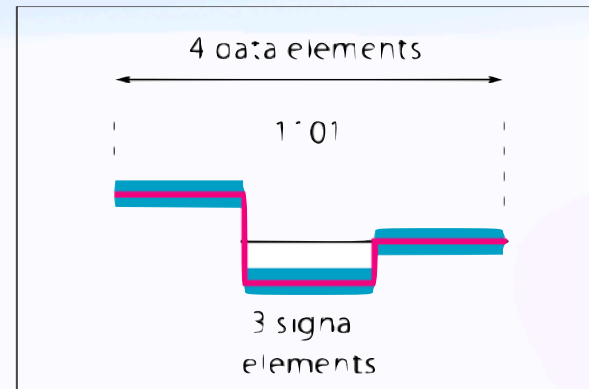
a. One data element per one signal element ( $r = 1$ )



b. One data element per two signal elements ( $r = \frac{1}{2}$ )



c. Two data elements per one signal element ( $r = 2$ )



d. Four data elements per three signal elements ( $r = \frac{4}{3}$ )



## Example 4.1

Signal Rate: No. of signal elements sent in 1s and its unit is baud  $S = c \times N \times \frac{1}{r}$

**Baud rate determines the required bandwidth for a digital signal.**

A signal is carrying data in which one data element is encoded as one signal element (  $r = 1$ ). If the bit rate is 100 kbps, what is the average value of the baud rate if  $c$  is between 0 and 1?

### Solution

*We assume that the average value of  $c$  is  $1/2$  . The baud rate is then*

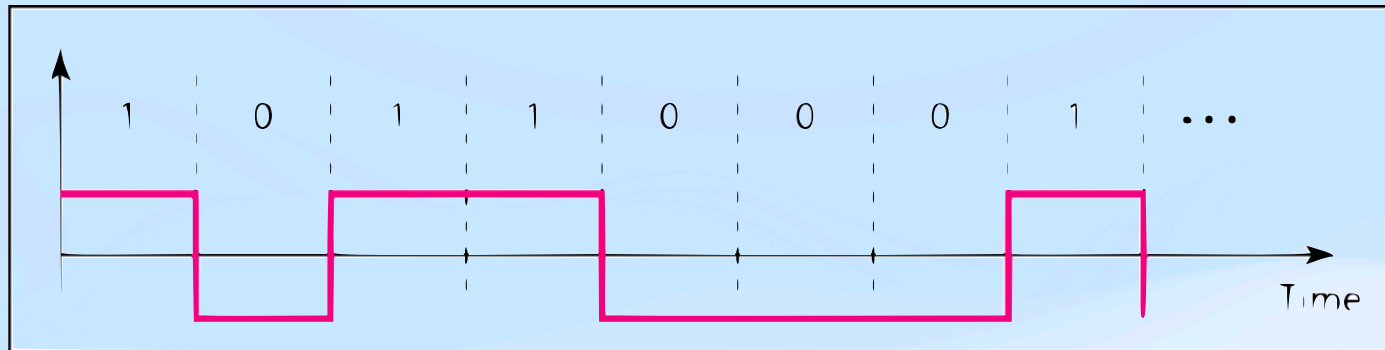
$$S = c \times N \times \frac{1}{r} = \frac{1}{2} \times 100,000 \times \frac{1}{1} = 50,000 = 50 \text{ kbaud}$$



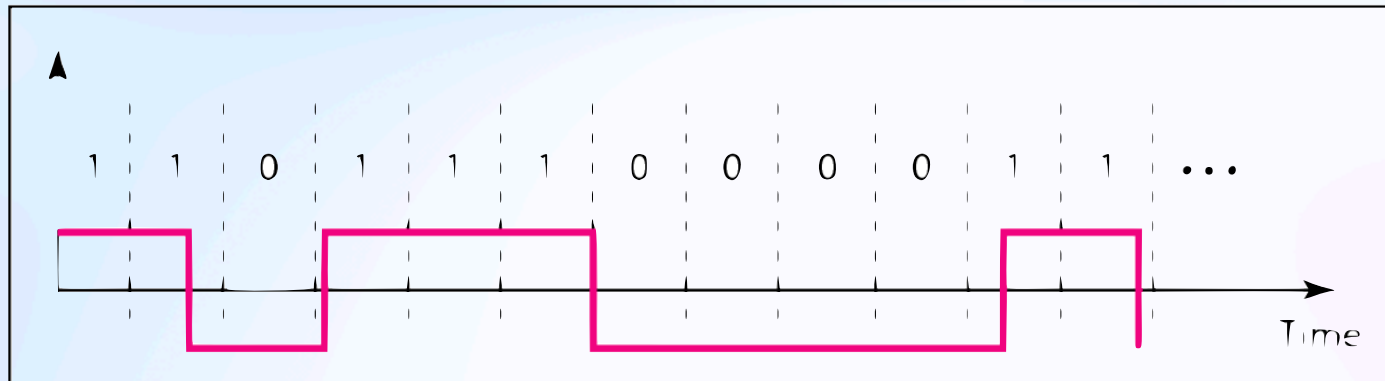
## Note

**Although the actual bandwidth of a digital signal is infinite, the effective bandwidth is finite.**

## Figure 4.3 Effect of lack of synchronization



a. Sent



b. Received



## Example 4.3

In a digital transmission, the receiver clock is 0.1 percent faster than the sender clock. How many extra bits per second does the receiver receive if the data rate is 1 kbps? How many if the data rate is 1 Mbps?

### Solution

*At 1 kbps, the receiver receives 1001 bps instead of 1000 bps.*

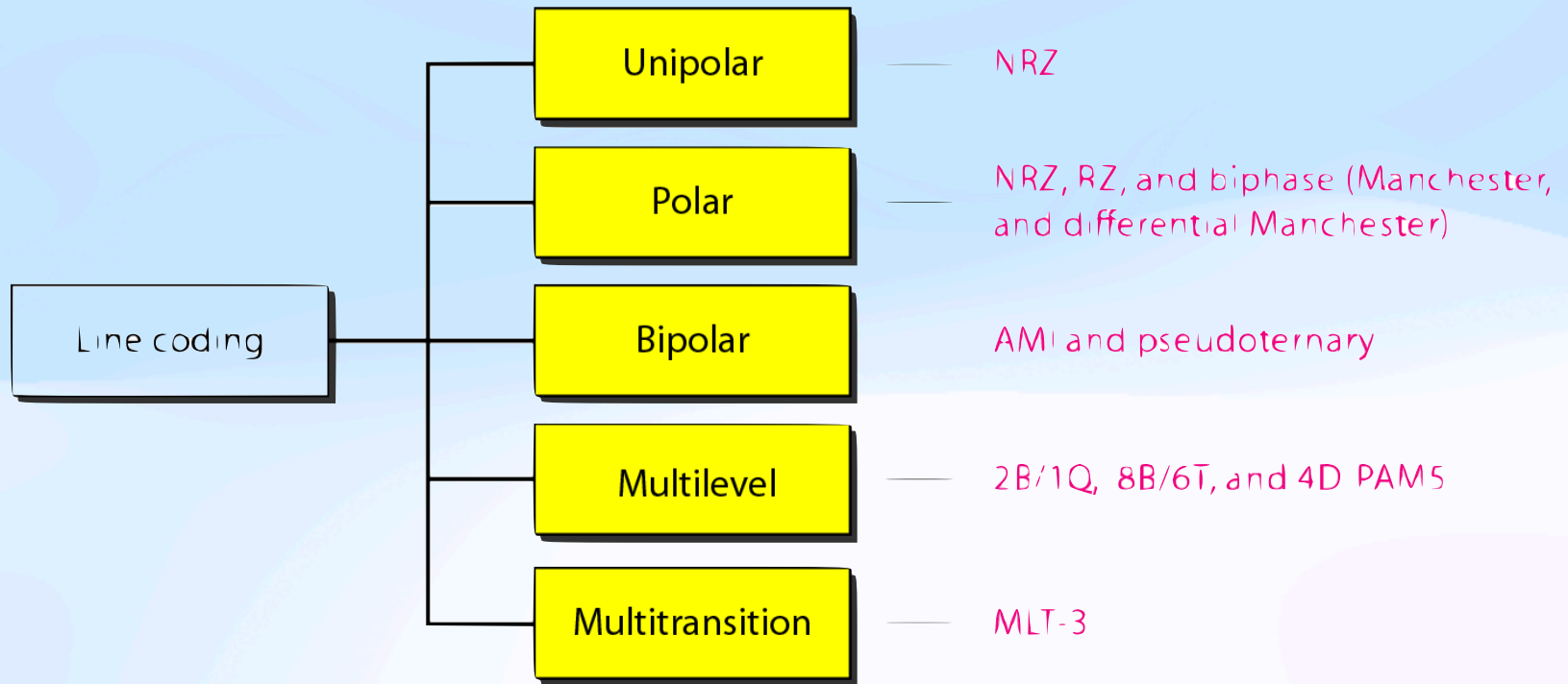
1000 bits sent	1001 bits received	1 extra bps
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**At 1 Mbps, the receiver receives 1,001,000 bps instead of 1,000,000 bps.**

1,000,000 bits sent	1,001,000 bits received	1000 extra bps
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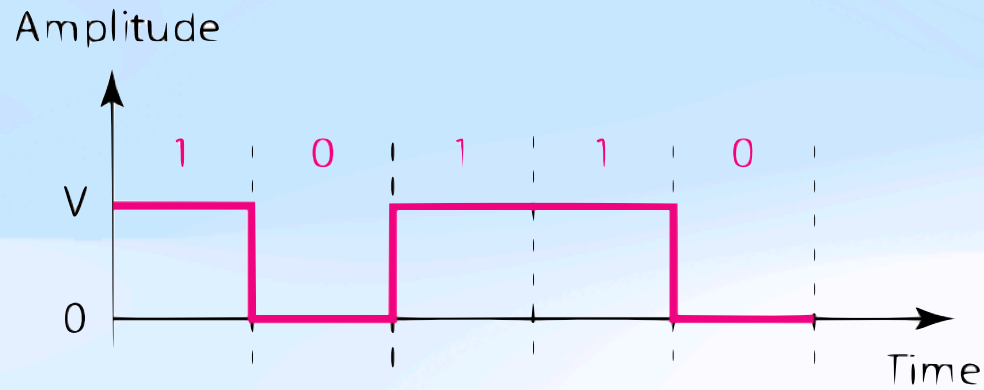
## Figure 4.4 Line coding schemes



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**Figure 4.5** Unipolar NRZ scheme

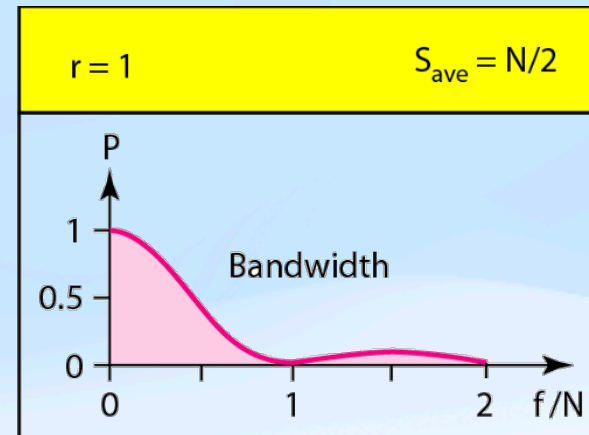
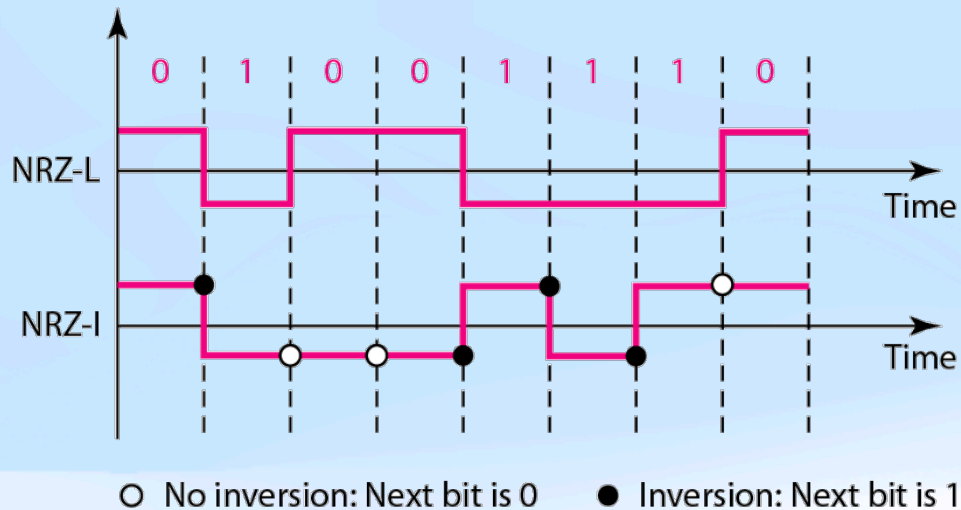
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$$\frac{1}{2}V^2 + \frac{1}{2}(0)^2 = \frac{1}{2}V^2$$

Normalized power

## Figure 4.6 Polar NRZ-L and NRZ-I schemes



The vertical axis shows the power density (the power for each 1 Hz of bandwidth); the horizontal axis shows the frequency. The bandwidth reveals a very serious problem for this type of encoding. The value of the power density is very high around frequencies close to zero. This means that there are DC components that carry a high level of energy. As a matter of fact, most of the energy is concentrated in frequencies between 0 and  $N/2$ . This means that although the average of the signal rate is  $N/2$ , the energy is not distributed evenly between the two halves.



## Note

**In NRZ-L the level of the voltage determines the value of the bit.**

**In NRZ-I the inversion or the lack of inversion determines the value of the bit.**



## Note

**NRZ-L and NRZ-I both have an average signal rate of  $N/2$  Bd.**



## Note

**NRZ-L and NRZ-I both have a DC component problem.**



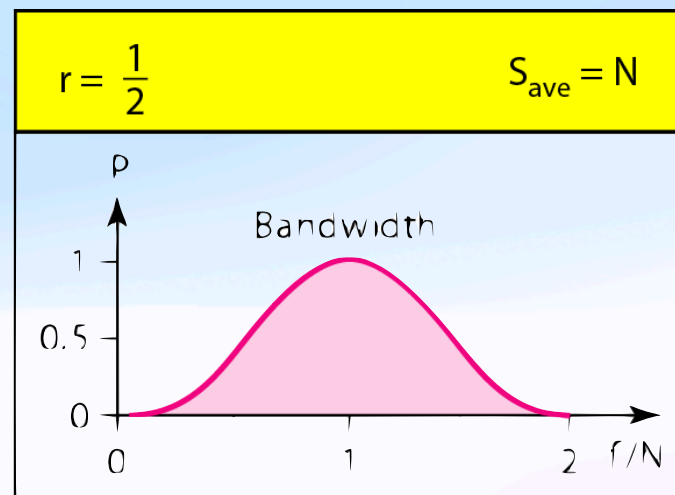
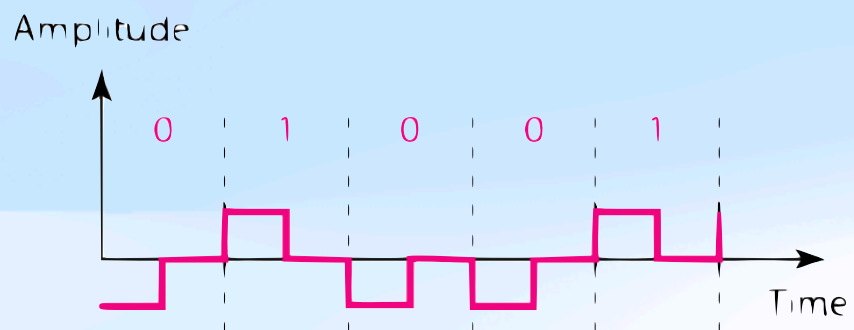
## Example 4.4

**A system is using NRZ-I to transfer 10-Mbps data. What are the average signal rate and minimum bandwidth?**

### **Solution**

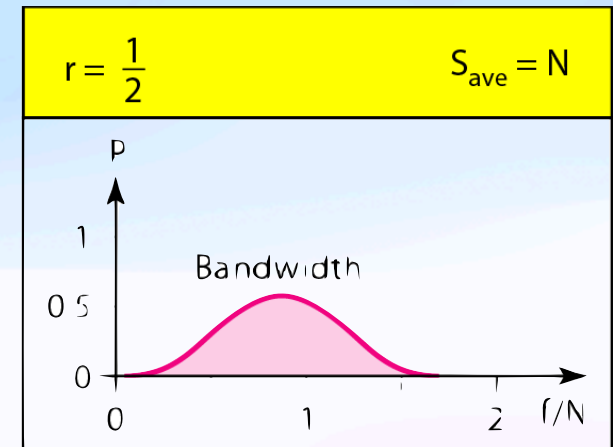
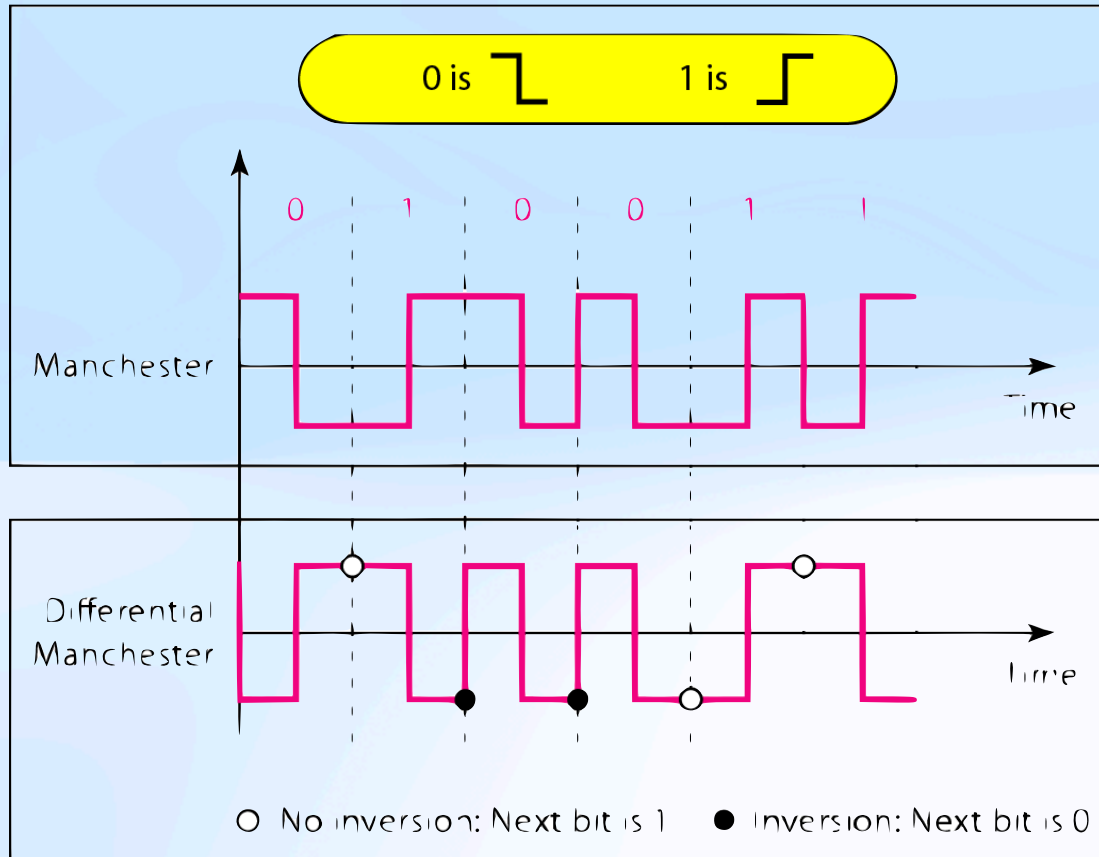
*The average signal rate is  $S = N/2 = 500$  kbaud. The minimum bandwidth for this average baud rate is  $B_{min} = S = 500$  kHz.*

**Figure 4.7** Polar RZ scheme





**Figure 4.8** Polar biphas: Manchester and differential Manchester schemes





## Note

**In Manchester and differential Manchester encoding, the transition at the middle of the bit is used for synchronization.**



## Note

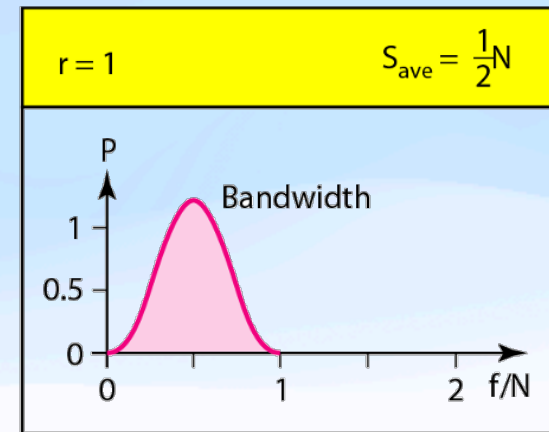
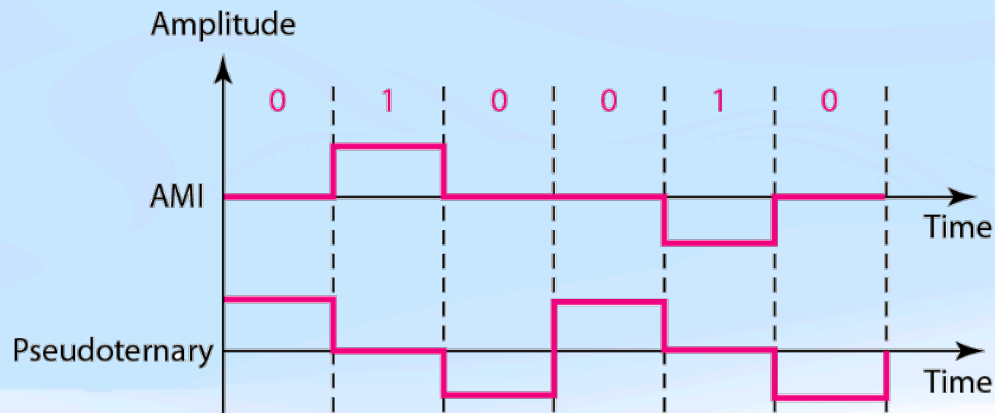
**The minimum bandwidth of Manchester and differential Manchester is 2 times that of NRZ.**



## Note

**In bipolar encoding, we use three levels: positive, zero, and negative.**

**Figure 4.9** Bipolar schemes: AMI and pseudoternary





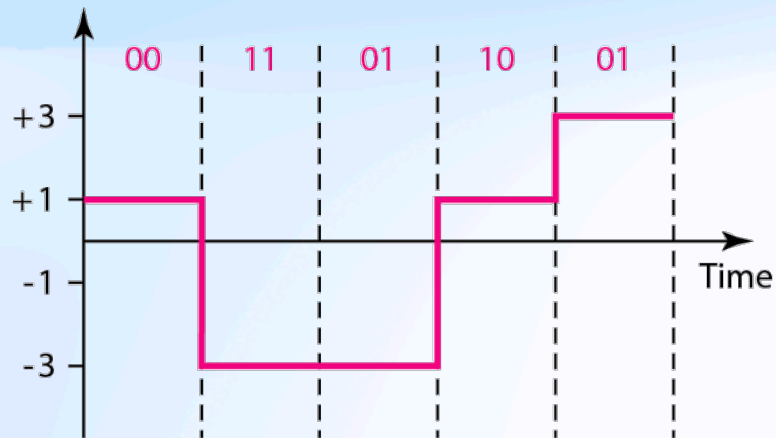
## Note

In  $mBnL$  schemes, a pattern of  $m$  data elements is encoded as a pattern of  $n$  signal elements in which  $2^m \leq L^n$ .

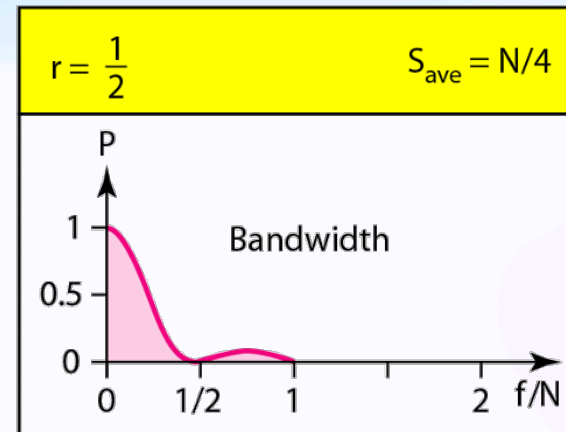
## Figure 4.10 Multilevel: 2B1Q scheme

	Previous level: positive	Previous level: negative
Next bits	Next level	Next level
00	+1	-1
01	+3	-3
10	-1	+1
11	-3	+3

Transition table



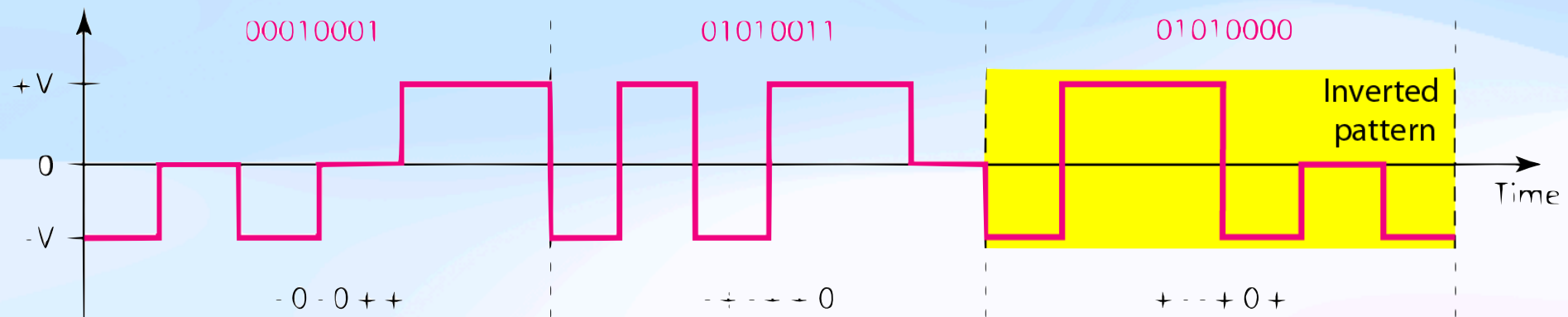
Assuming positive original level



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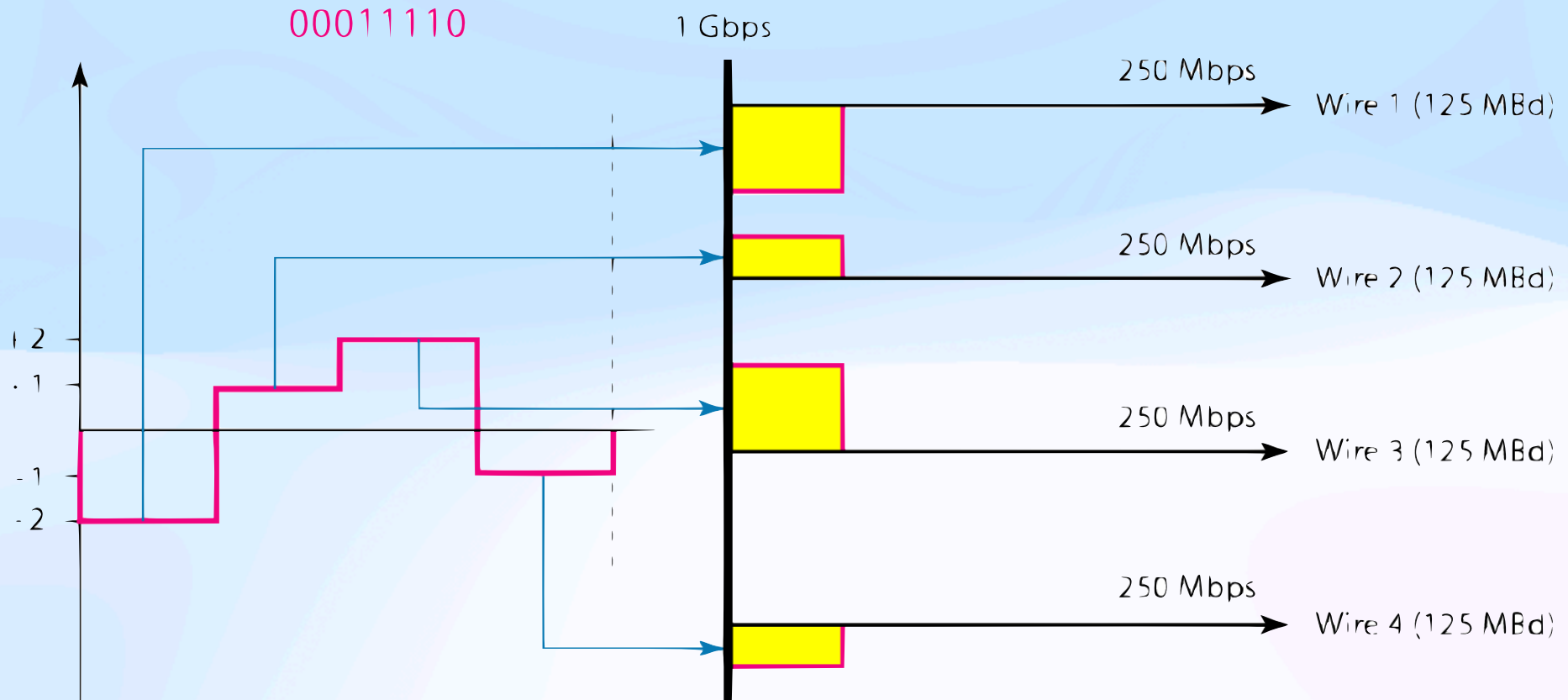
**Figure 4.11** Multilevel: 8B6T scheme

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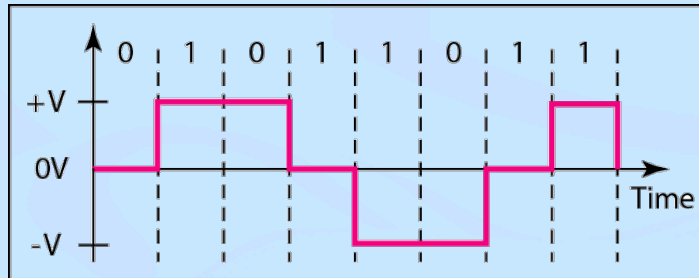




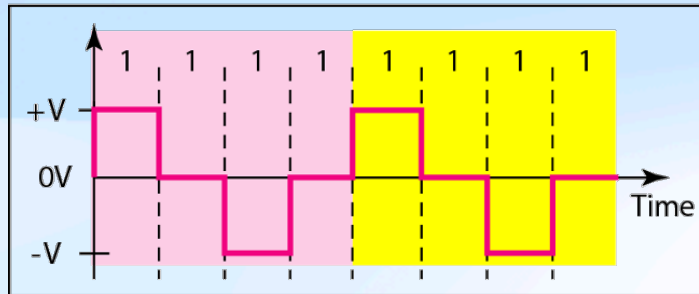
**Figure 4.12** Multilevel: 4D-PAM5 scheme



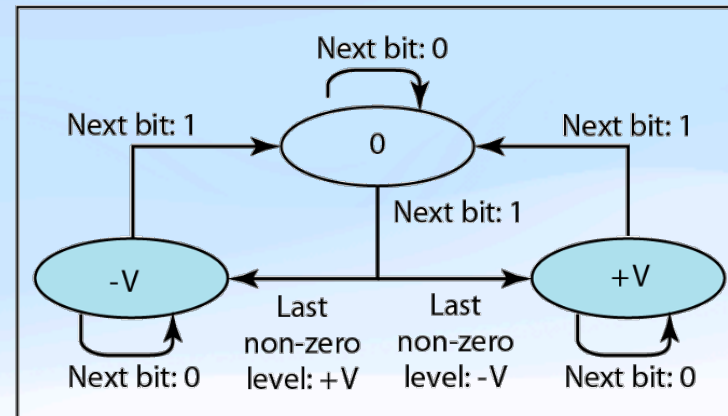
## Figure 4.13 Multitransition: MLT-3 scheme



a. Typical case



b. Worse case



c. Transition states

1. If the next bit is 0, there is no transition.
2. If the next bit is 1 and the current level is not 0, the next level is 0.
3. If the next bit is 1 and the current level is 0, the next level is the opposite of the last nonzero level.

**Table 4.1 Summary of line coding schemes**

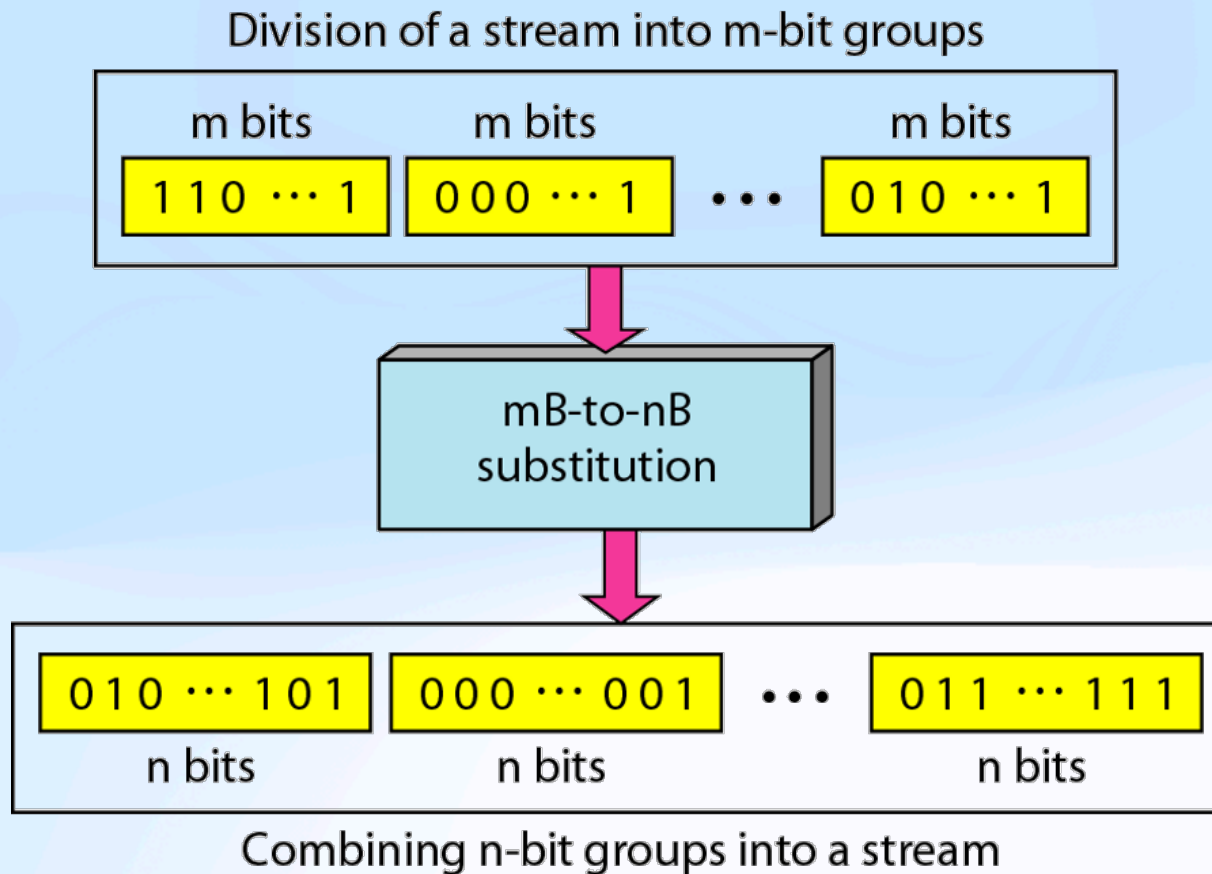
<i>Category</i>	<i>Scheme</i>	<i>Bandwidth (average)</i>	<i>Characteristics</i>
Unipolar	NRZ	$B = N/2$	Costly, no self-synchronization if long 0s or 1s, DC
Unipolar	NRZ-L	$B = N/2$	No self-synchronization if long 0s or 1s, DC
	NRZ-I	$B = N/2$	No self-synchronization for long 0s, DC
	Biphase	$B = N$	Self-synchronization, no DC, high bandwidth
Bipolar	AMI	$B = N/2$	No self-synchronization for long 0s, DC
Multilevel	2B1Q	$B = N/4$	No self-synchronization for long same double bits
	8B6T	$B = 3N/4$	Self-synchronization, no DC
	4D-PAM5	$B = N/8$	Self-synchronization, no DC
Multiline	MLT-3	$B = N/3$	No self-synchronization for long 0s



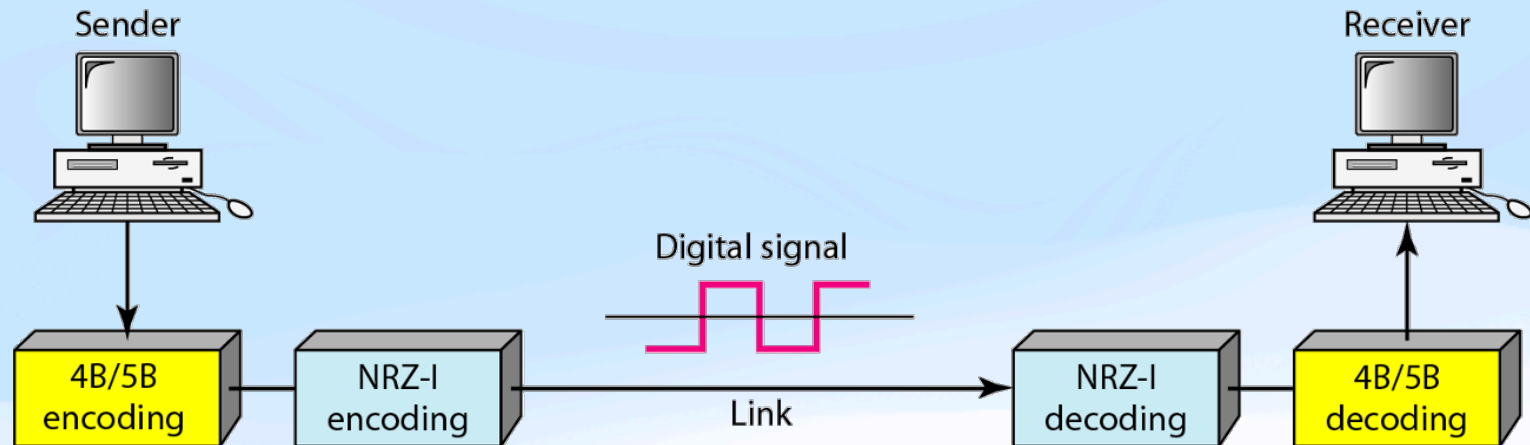
## Note

**Block coding is normally referred to as  $mB/nB$  coding;  
it replaces each  $m$ -bit group with an  
 $n$ -bit group.**

## Figure 4.14 Block coding concept



**Figure 4.15** Using block coding 4B/5B with NRZ-I line coding scheme



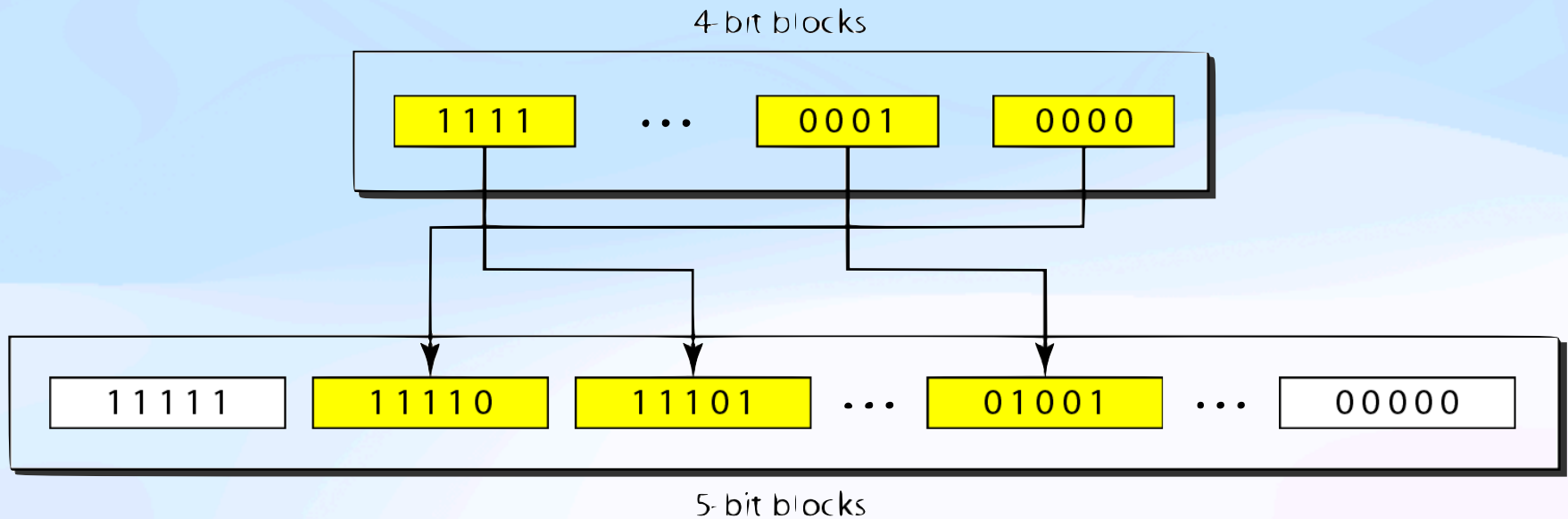
**Table 4.2 4B/5B mapping codes**

<i>Data Sequence</i>	<i>Encoded Sequence</i>	<i>Control Sequence</i>	<i>Encoded Sequence</i>
0000	11110	Q (Quiet)	00000
0001	01001	I (Idle)	11111
0010	10100	H (Halt)	00100
0011	10101	J (Start delimiter)	11000
0100	01010	K (Start delimiter)	10001
0101	01011	T (End delimiter)	01101
0110	01110	S (Set)	11001
0111	01111	R (Reset)	00111
1000	10010		
1001	10011		
1010	10110		
1011	10111		
1100	11010		
1101	11011		
1110	11100		
1111	11101		

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**Figure 4.16** Substitution in 4B/5B block coding

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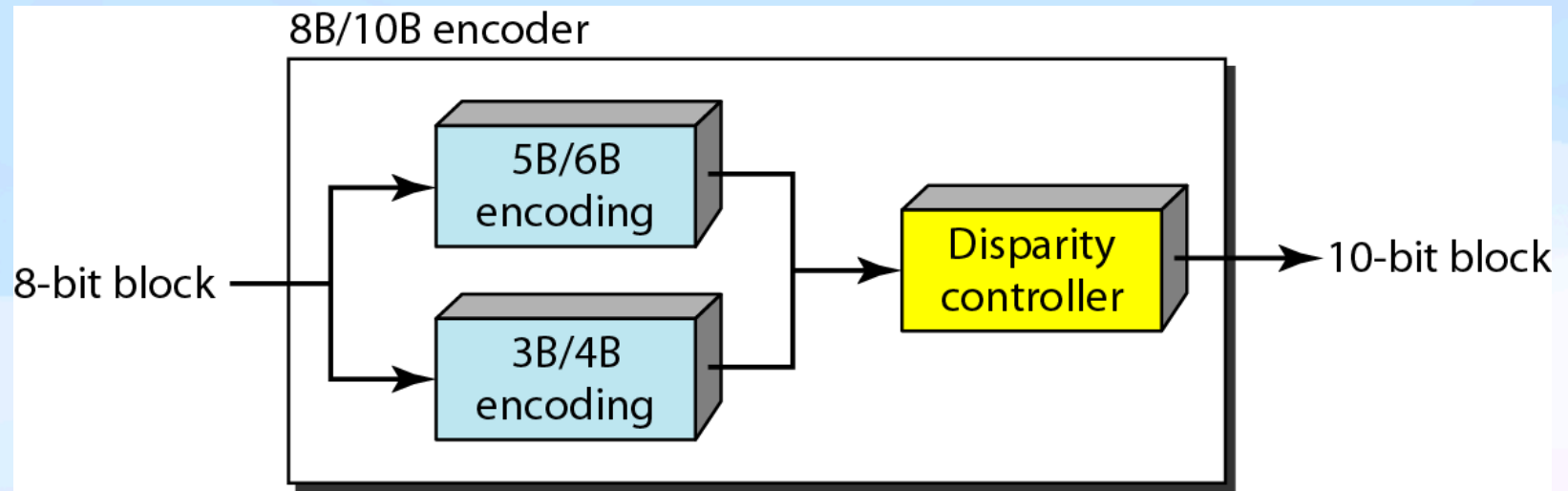
## Example 4.5

**We need to send data at a 1-Mbps rate. What is the minimum required bandwidth, using a combination of 4B/5B and NRZ-I or Manchester coding?**

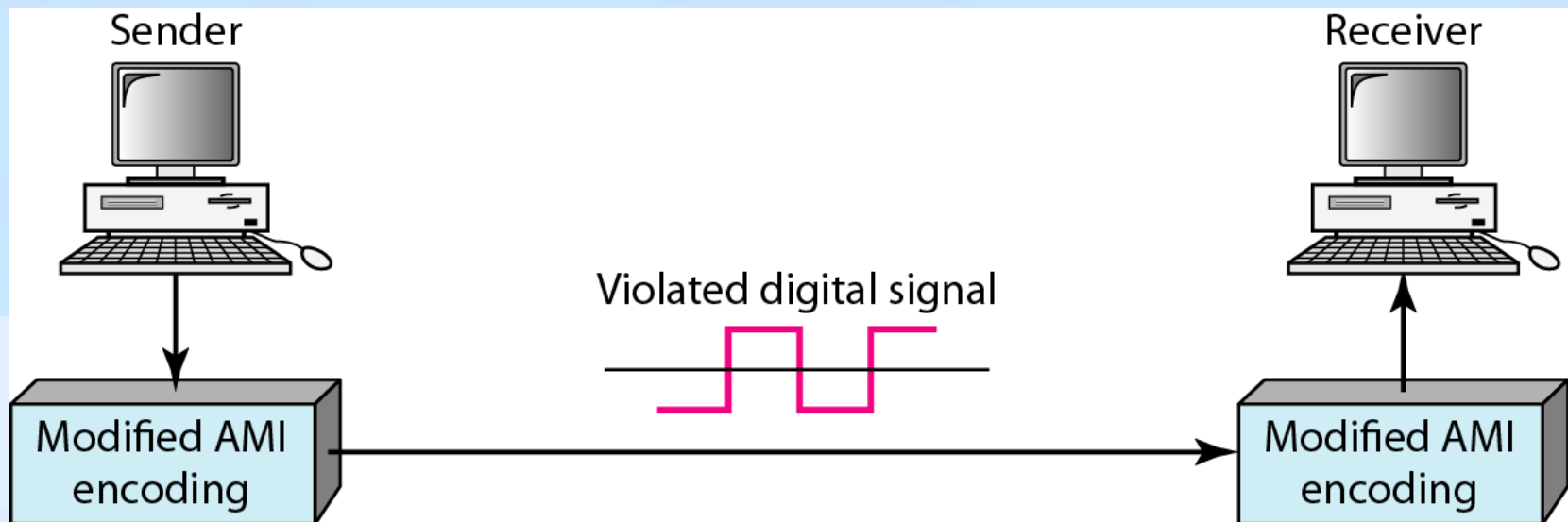
### **Solution**

*First 4B/5B block coding increases the bit rate to 1.25 Mbps. The minimum bandwidth using NRZ-I is  $N/2$  or 625 kHz. The Manchester scheme needs a minimum bandwidth of 1 MHz. The first choice needs a lower bandwidth, but has a DC component problem; the second choice needs a higher bandwidth, but does not have a DC component problem.*

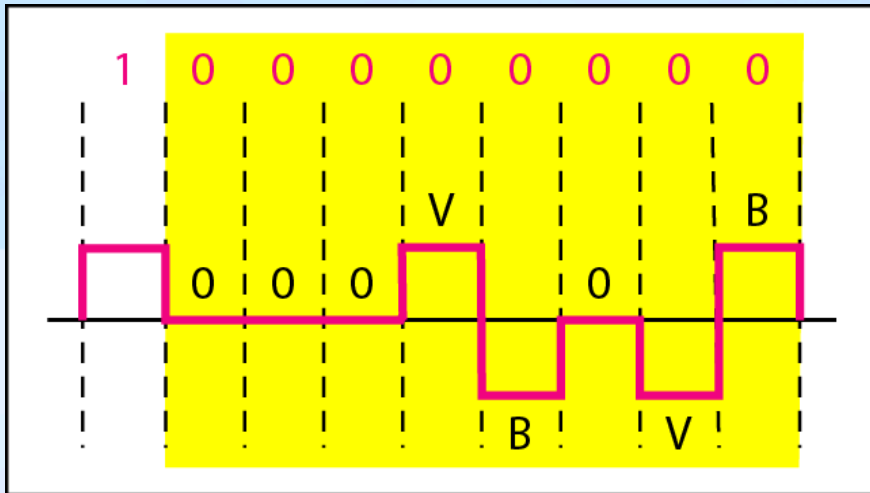
**Figure 4.17** 8B/10B block encoding



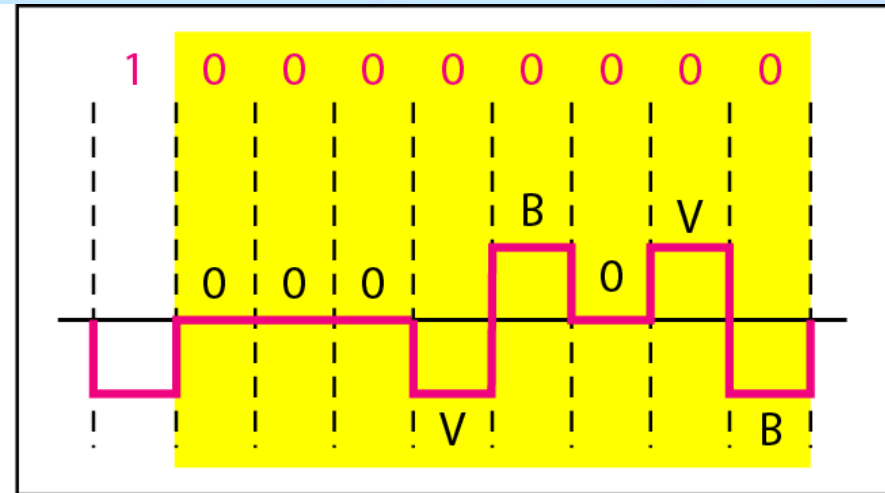
**Figure 4.18** AMI used with scrambling



## Figure 4.19 Two cases of B8ZS scrambling technique



a. Previous level is positive.



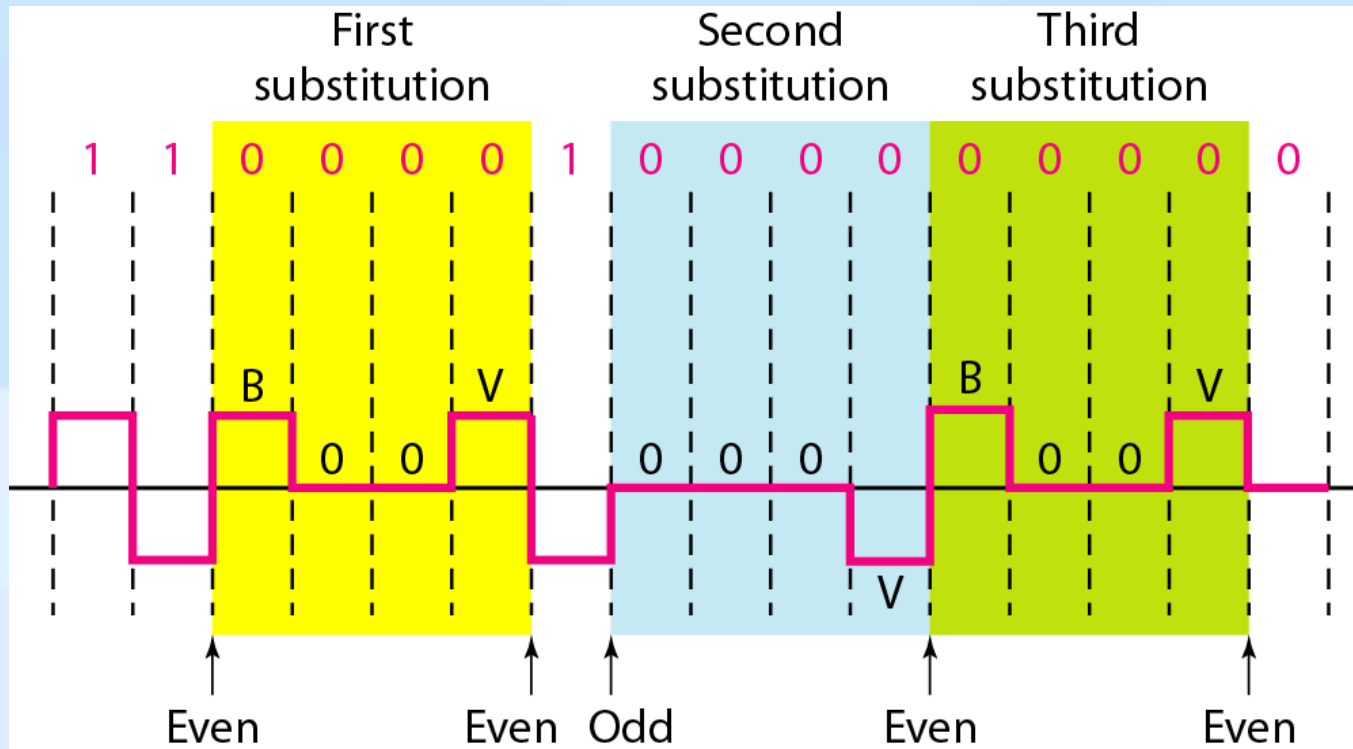
b. Previous level is negative.



## Note

**B8ZS substitutes eight consecutive zeros with 000VB0VB.**

**Figure 4.20** Different situations in HDB3 scrambling technique





## Note

**HDB3 substitutes four consecutive zeros with 000V or B00V depending on the number of nonzero pulses after the last substitution.**

## 4-2 ANALOG-TO-DIGITAL CONVERSION

We have seen in Chapter 3 that a digital signal is superior to an analog signal. The tendency today is to change an analog signal to digital data. In this section we describe two techniques, **pulse code modulation** and **delta modulation**.

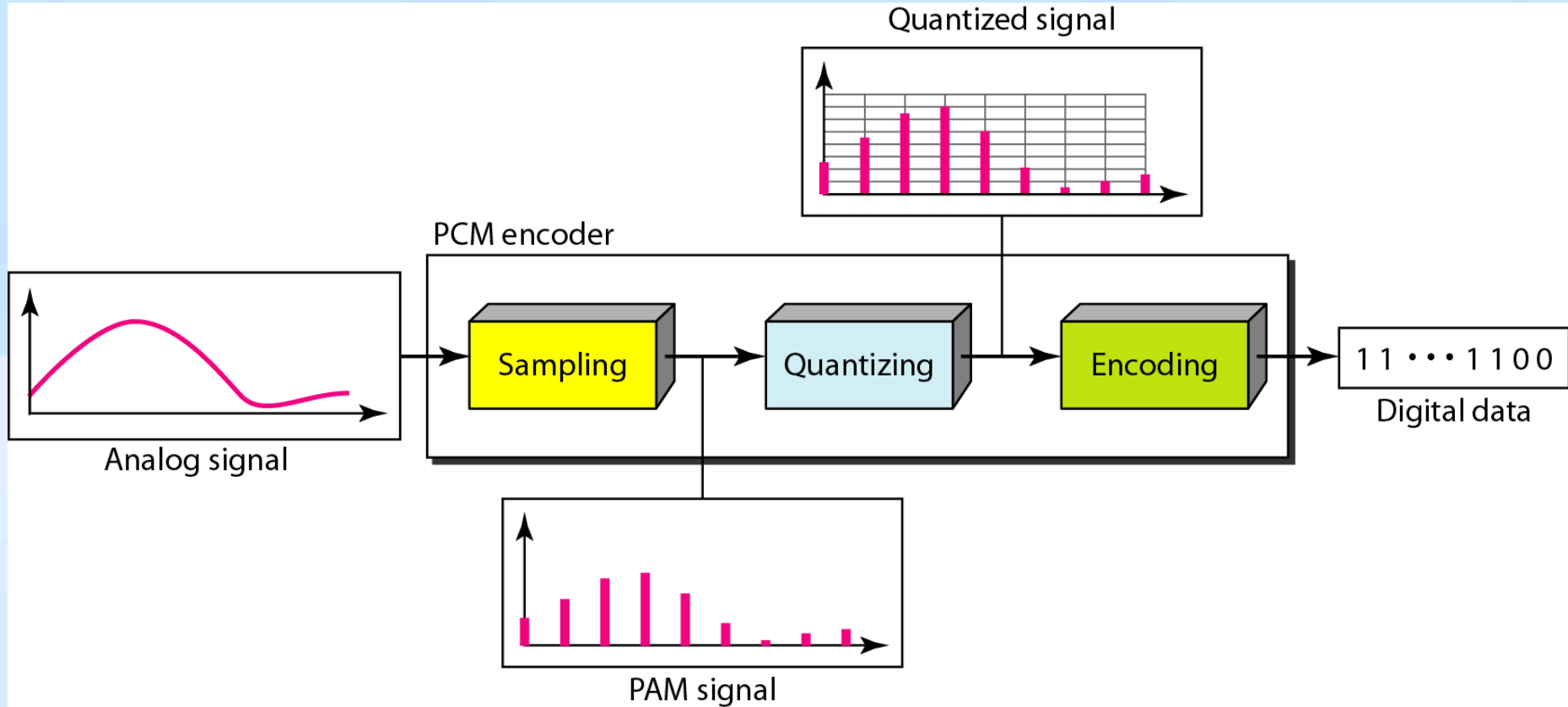
Topics discussed in this section:

**Pulse Code Modulation (PCM)**

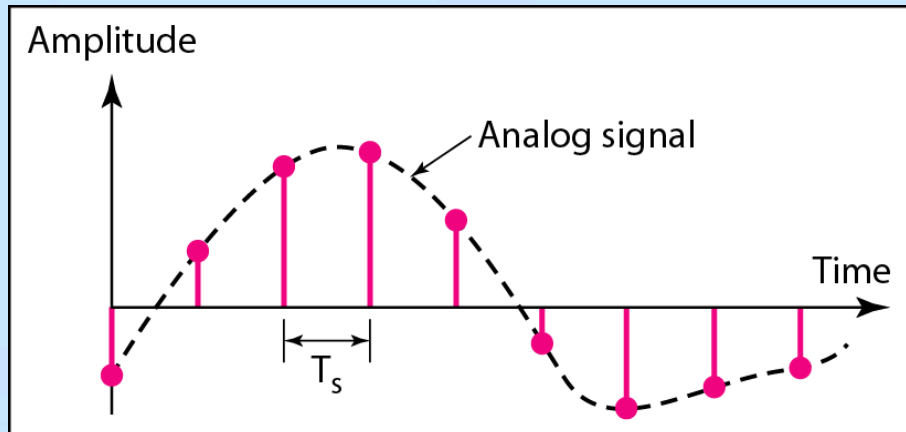
**Delta Modulation (DM)**



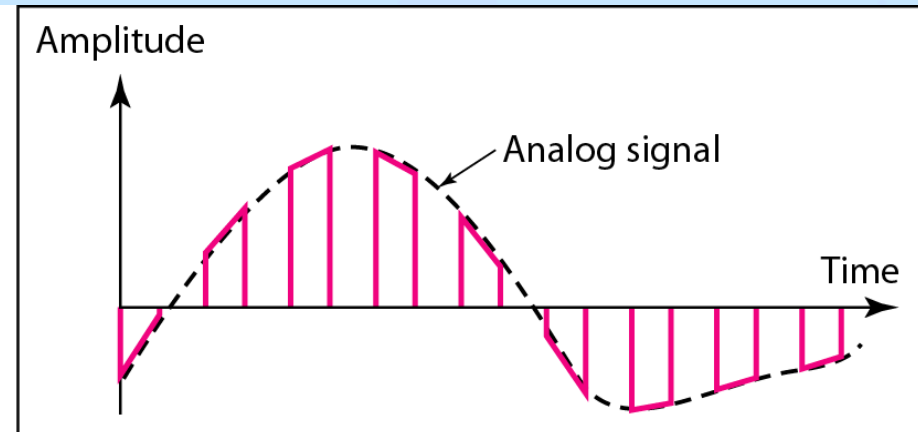
**Figure 4.21** Components of PCM encoder



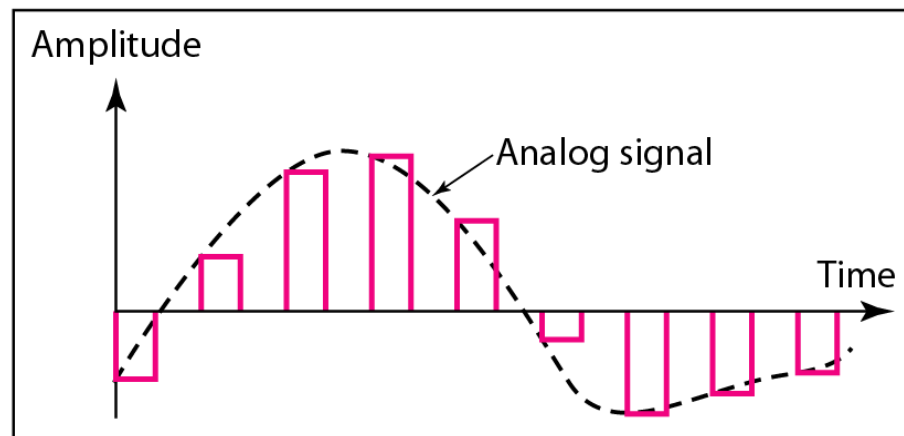
## Figure 4.22 Three different sampling methods for PCM



a. Ideal sampling



b. Natural sampling



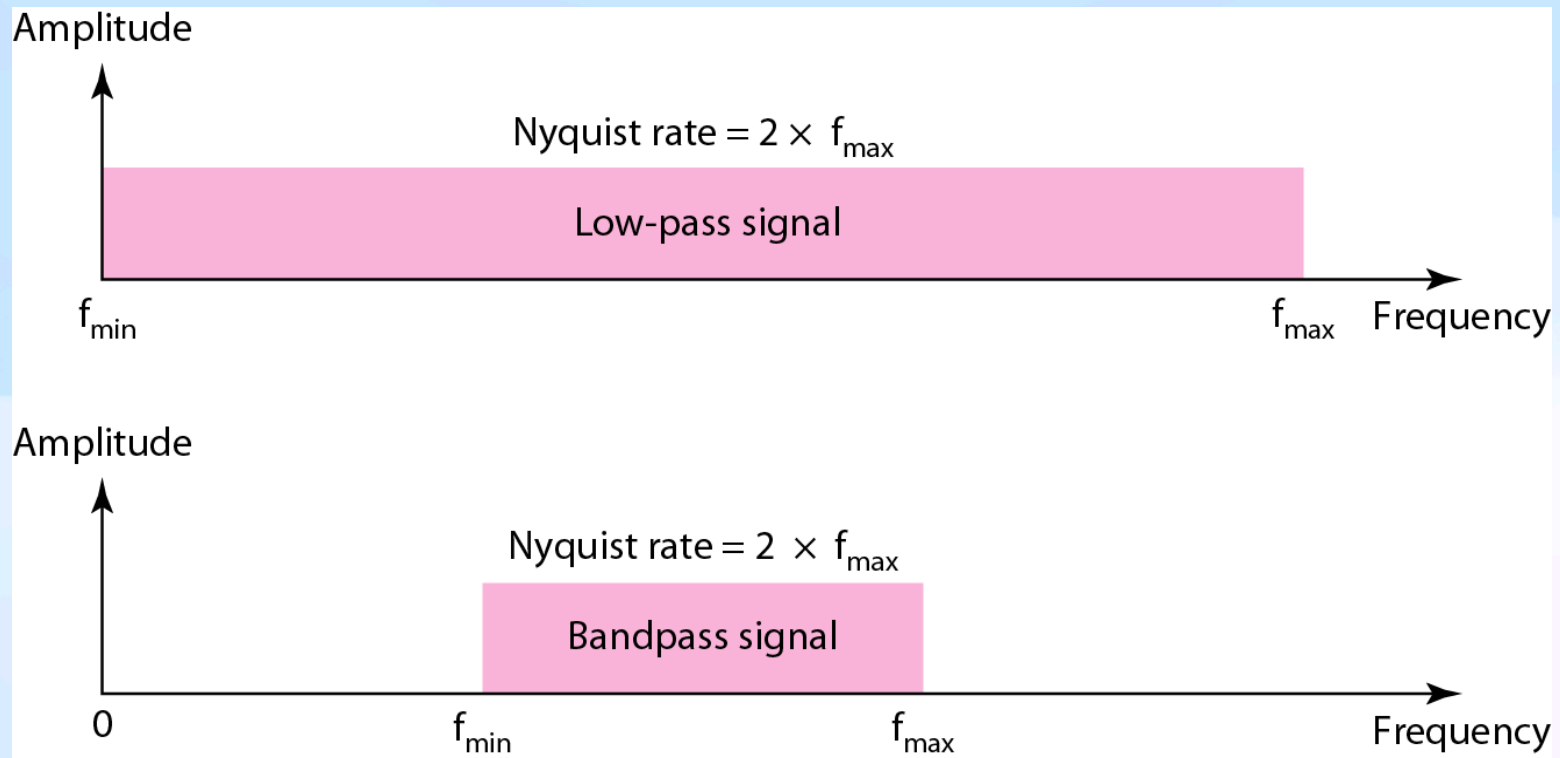
c. Flat-top sampling



## Note

**According to the Nyquist theorem, the sampling rate must be at least 2 times the highest frequency contained in the signal.**

**Figure 4.23** Nyquist sampling rate for low-pass and bandpass signals



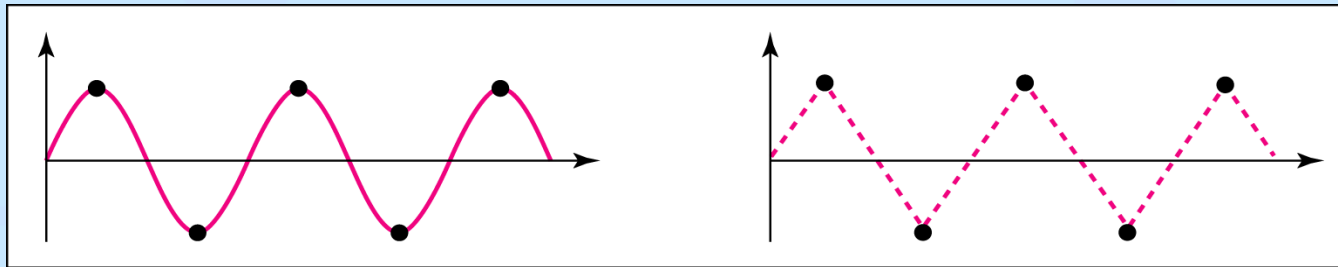


## Example 4.6

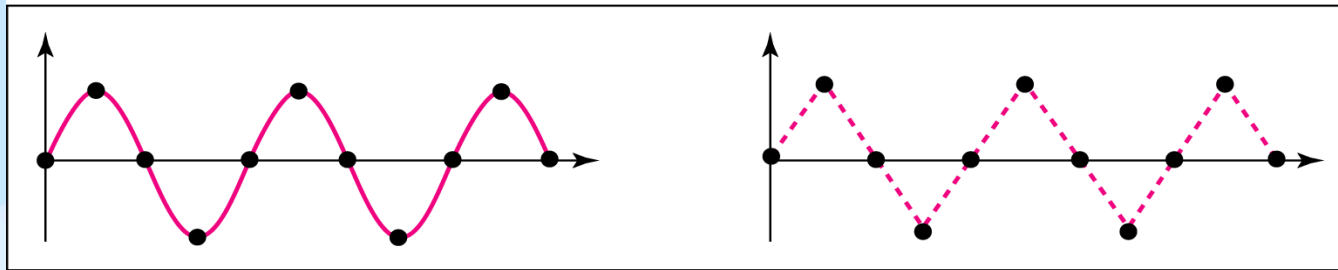
For an intuitive example of the Nyquist theorem, let us sample a simple sine wave at three sampling rates:  $f_s = 4f$  (2 times the Nyquist rate),  $f_s = 2f$  (Nyquist rate), and  $f_s = f$  (one-half the Nyquist rate). Figure 4.24 shows the sampling and the subsequent recovery of the signal.

It can be seen that sampling at the Nyquist rate can create a good approximation of the original sine wave (part a). Oversampling in part b can also create the same approximation, but it is redundant and unnecessary. Sampling below the

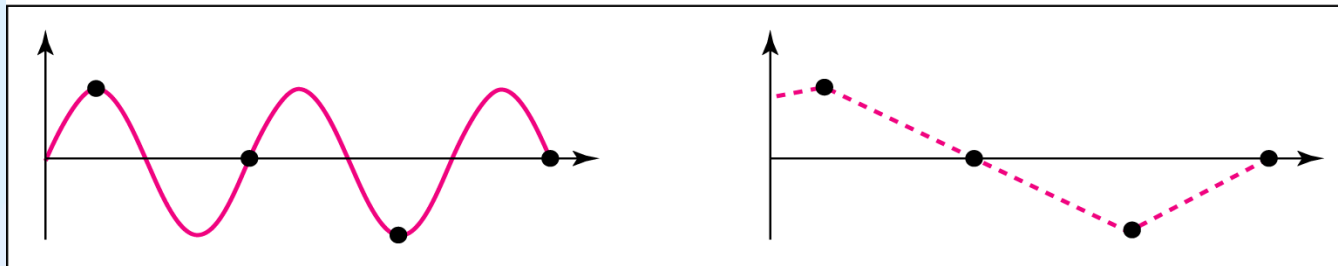
## Figure 4.24 Recovery of a sampled sine wave for different sampling rates



a. Nyquist rate sampling:  $f_s = 2f$



b. Oversampling:  $f_s = 4f$



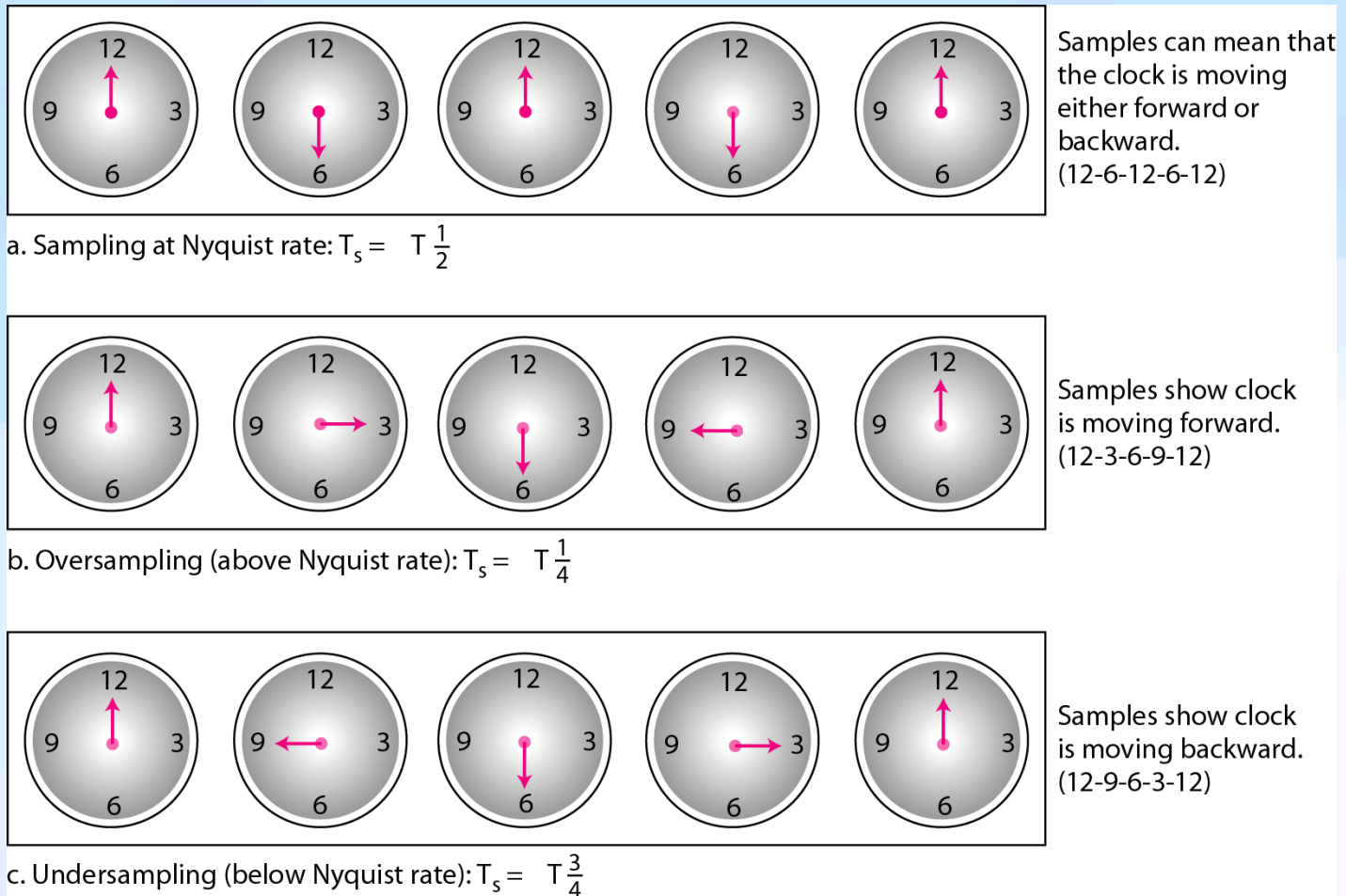
c. Undersampling:  $f_s = f$



## Example 4.7

**Consider the revolution of a hand of a clock. The second hand of a clock has a period of 60 s. According to the Nyquist theorem, we need to sample the hand every 30 s ( $T_s = T$  or  $f_s = 2f$ ). In Figure 4.25a, the sample points, in order, are 12, 6, 12, 6, 12, and 6. The receiver of the samples cannot tell if the clock is moving forward or backward. In part b, we sample at double the Nyquist rate (every 15 s). The sample points are 12, 3, 6, 9, and 12. The clock is moving forward. In part c, we sample below the Nyquist rate ( $T_s = T$  or  $f_s = f$ ). The sample points are 12, 9, 6, 3, and 12. Although the**

## Figure 4.25 Sampling of a clock with only one hand







## Example 4.8

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**An example related to Example 4.7 is the seemingly backward rotation of the wheels of a forward-moving car in a movie. This can be explained by under-sampling. A movie is filmed at 24 frames per second. If a wheel is rotating more than 12 times per second, the under-sampling creates the impression of a backward rotation.**



## Example 4.9

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**Telephone companies digitize voice by assuming a maximum frequency of 4000 Hz. The sampling rate therefore is 8000 samples per second.**



## Example 4.10

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**A complex low-pass signal has a bandwidth of 200 kHz. What is the minimum sampling rate for this signal?**

### **Solution**

*The bandwidth of a low-pass signal is between 0 and  $f$ , where  $f$  is the maximum frequency in the signal. Therefore, we can sample this signal at 2 times the highest frequency (200 kHz). The sampling rate is therefore 400,000 samples per second.*



## Example 4.11

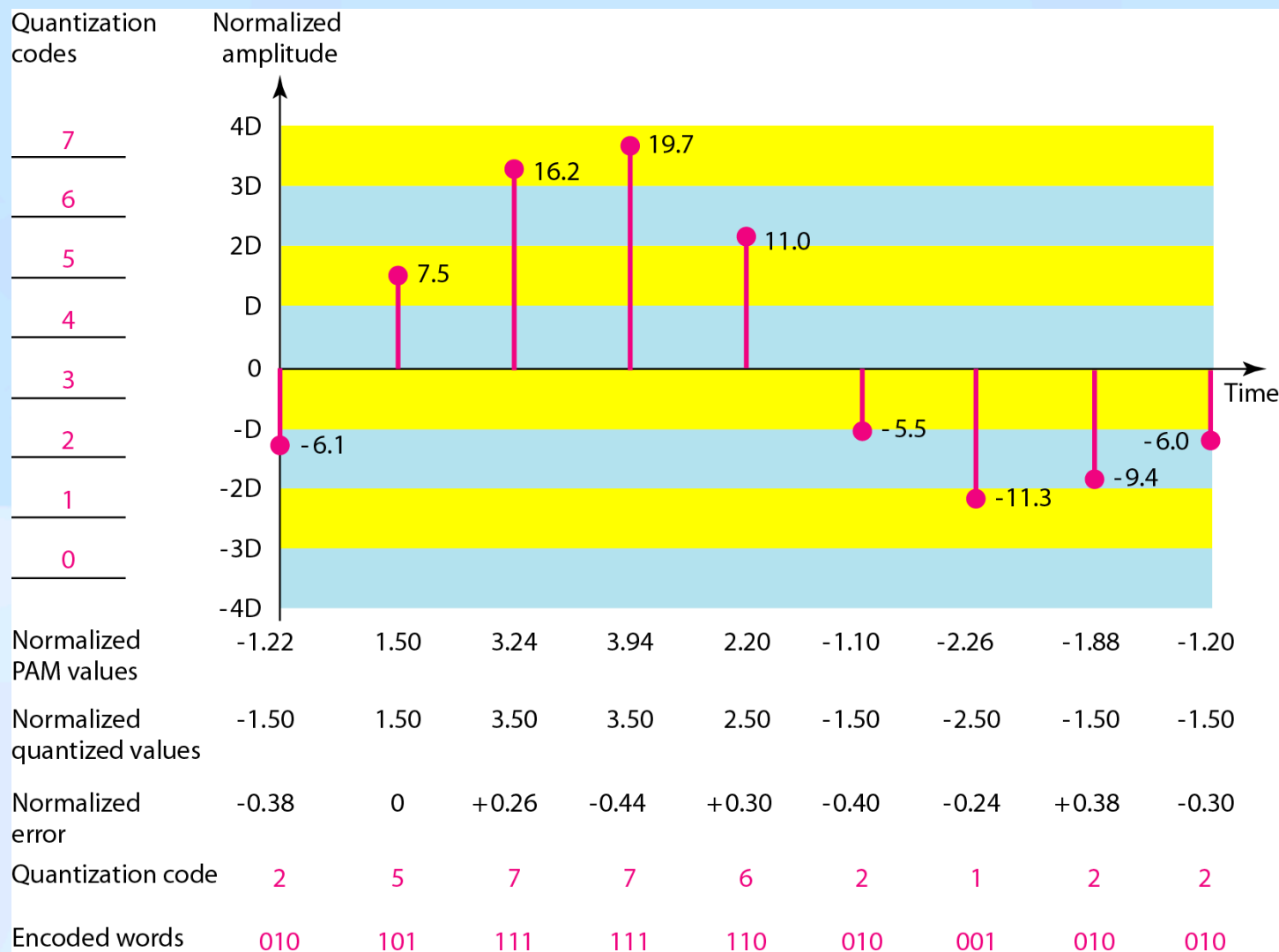
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**A complex bandpass signal has a bandwidth of 200 kHz. What is the minimum sampling rate for this signal?**

### **Solution**

*We cannot find the minimum sampling rate in this case because we do not know where the bandwidth starts or ends. We do not know the maximum frequency in the signal.*

# Figure 4.26 Quantization and encoding of a sampled signal





## Example 4.12

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**What is the SNR<sub>dB</sub> in the example of Figure 4.26?**

### **Solution**

*We can use the formula to find the quantization. We have eight levels and 3 bits per sample, so*

$$SNR_{dB} = 6.02(3) + 1.76 = 19.82 \text{ dB}$$

*Increasing the number of levels increases the SNR.*



## Example 4.13

**A telephone subscriber line must have an SNR<sub>dB</sub> above 40. What is the minimum number of bits per sample?**

### **Solution**

*We can calculate the number of bits as*

$$\text{SNR}_{\text{dB}} = 6.02n_b + 1.76 = 40 \quad \rightarrow \quad n = 6.35$$

**Telephone companies usually assign 7 or 8 bits per sample.**



## Example 4.14

**We want to digitize the human voice. What is the bit rate, assuming 8 bits per sample?**

### **Solution**

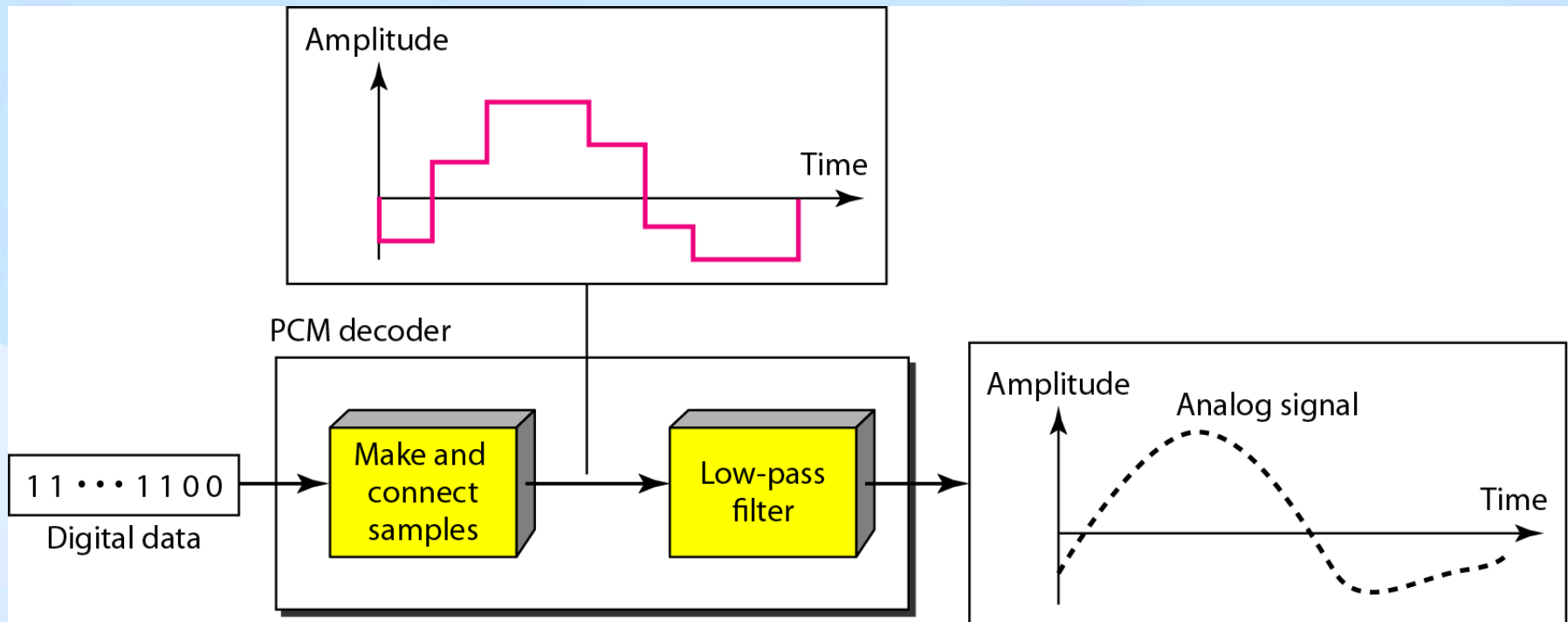
*The human voice normally contains frequencies from 0 to 4000 Hz. So the sampling rate and bit rate are calculated as follows:*

$$\text{Sampling rate} = 4000 \times 2 = 8000 \text{ samples/s}$$

$$\text{Bit rate} = 8000 \times 8 = 64,000 \text{ bps} = 64 \text{ kbps}$$



## Figure 4.27 Components of a PCM decoder





## Example 4.15

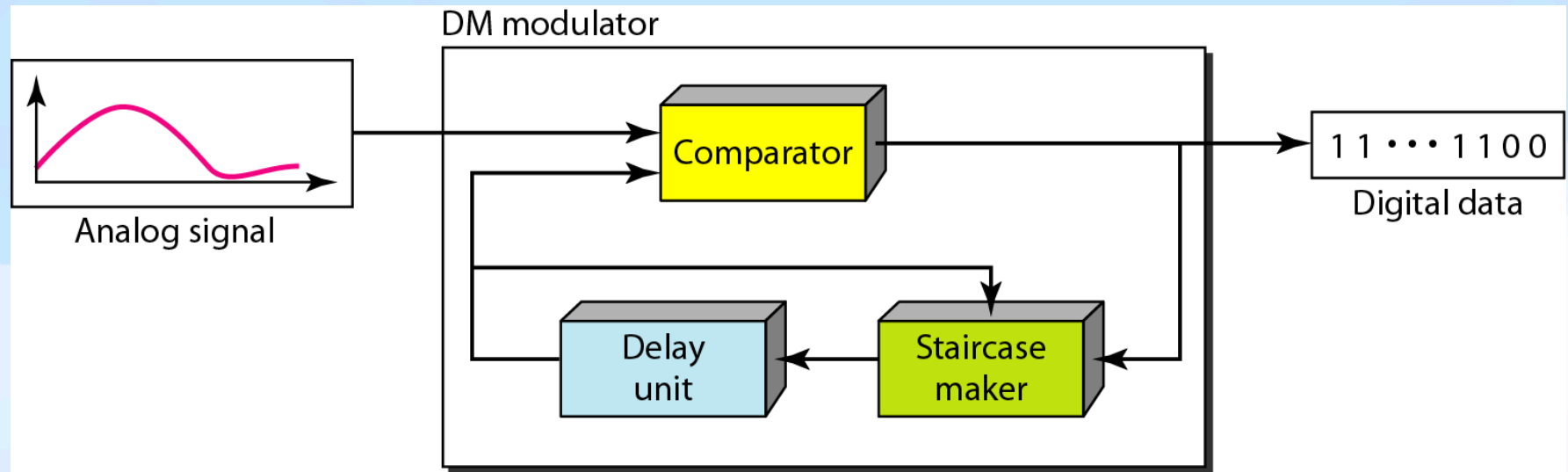
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**We have a low-pass analog signal of 4 kHz. If we send the analog signal, we need a channel with a minimum bandwidth of 4 kHz. If we digitize the signal and send 8 bits per sample, we need a channel with a minimum bandwidth of  $8 \times 4 \text{ kHz} = 32 \text{ kHz}$ .**

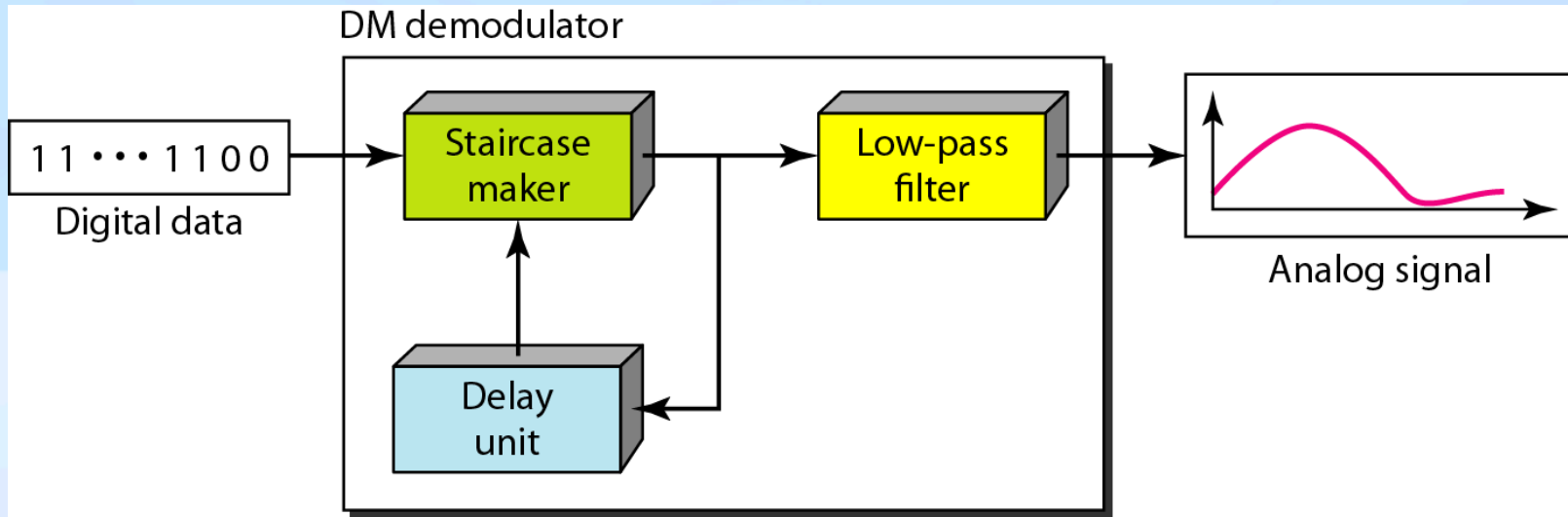
**Figure 4.28** The process of delta modulation



**Figure 4.29** Delta modulation components



**Figure 4.30** Delta demodulation components



## 4-3 TRANSMISSION MODES

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

**Topics discussed in this section:**

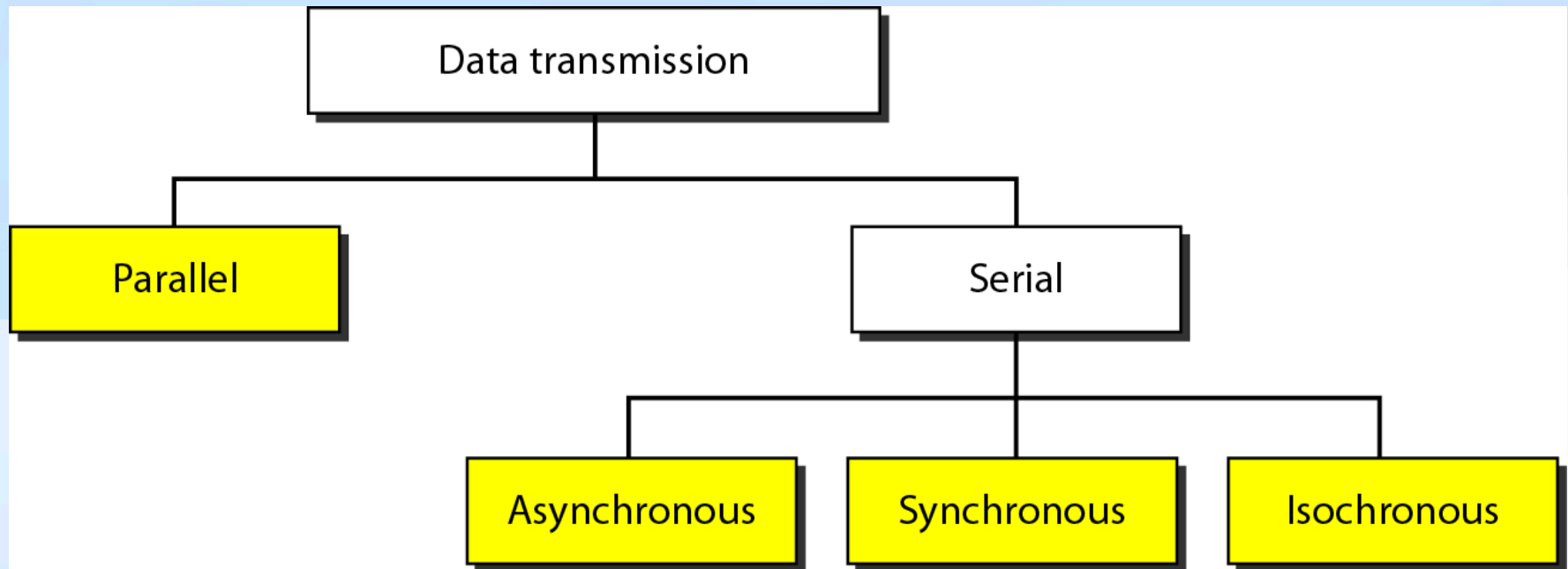
**Parallel Transmission**

**Serial Transmission**

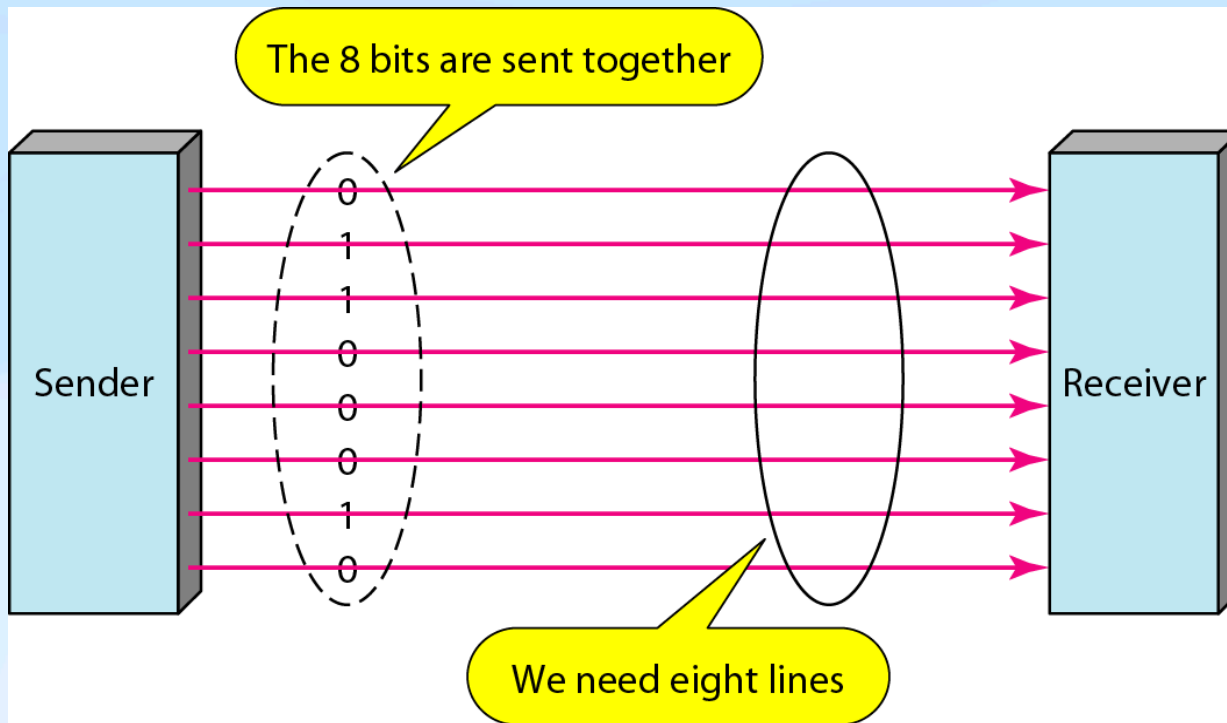
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**Figure 4.31** Data transmission and modes

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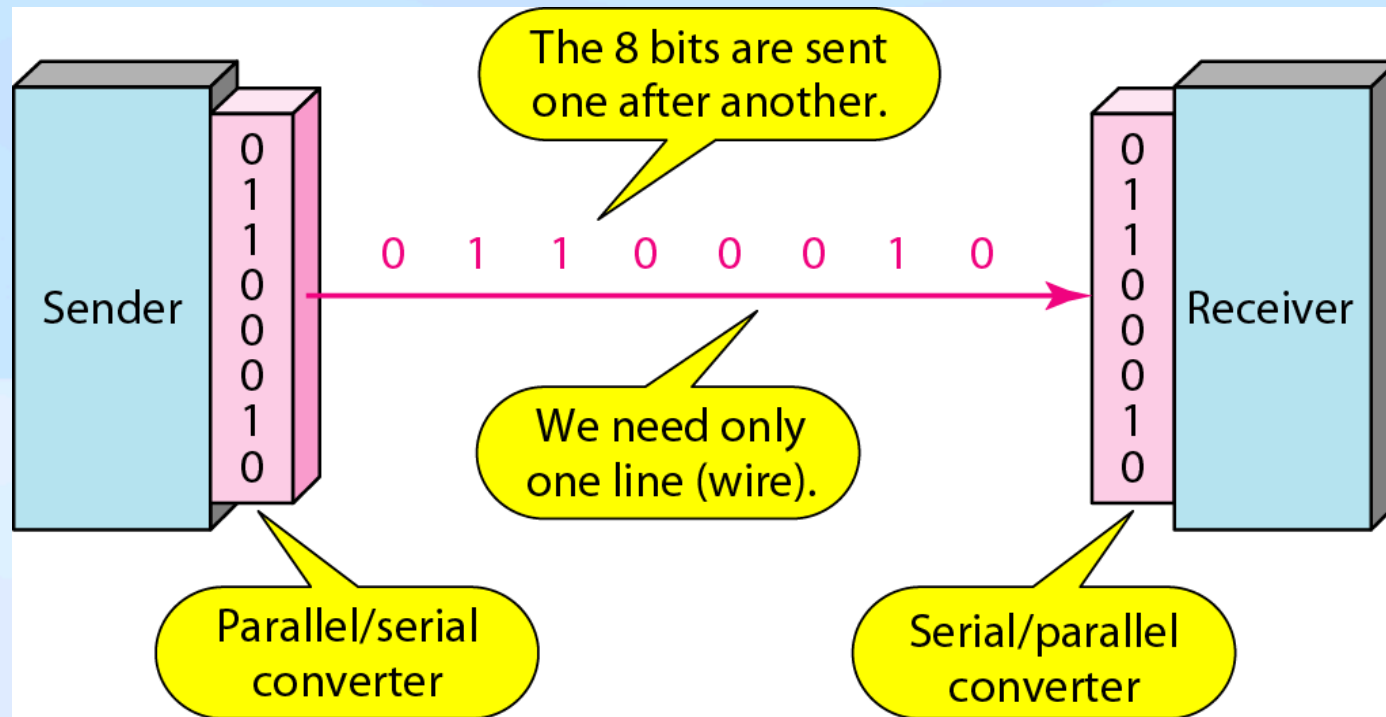


**Figure 4.32** Parallel transmission





**Figure 4.33** Serial transmission





## Note

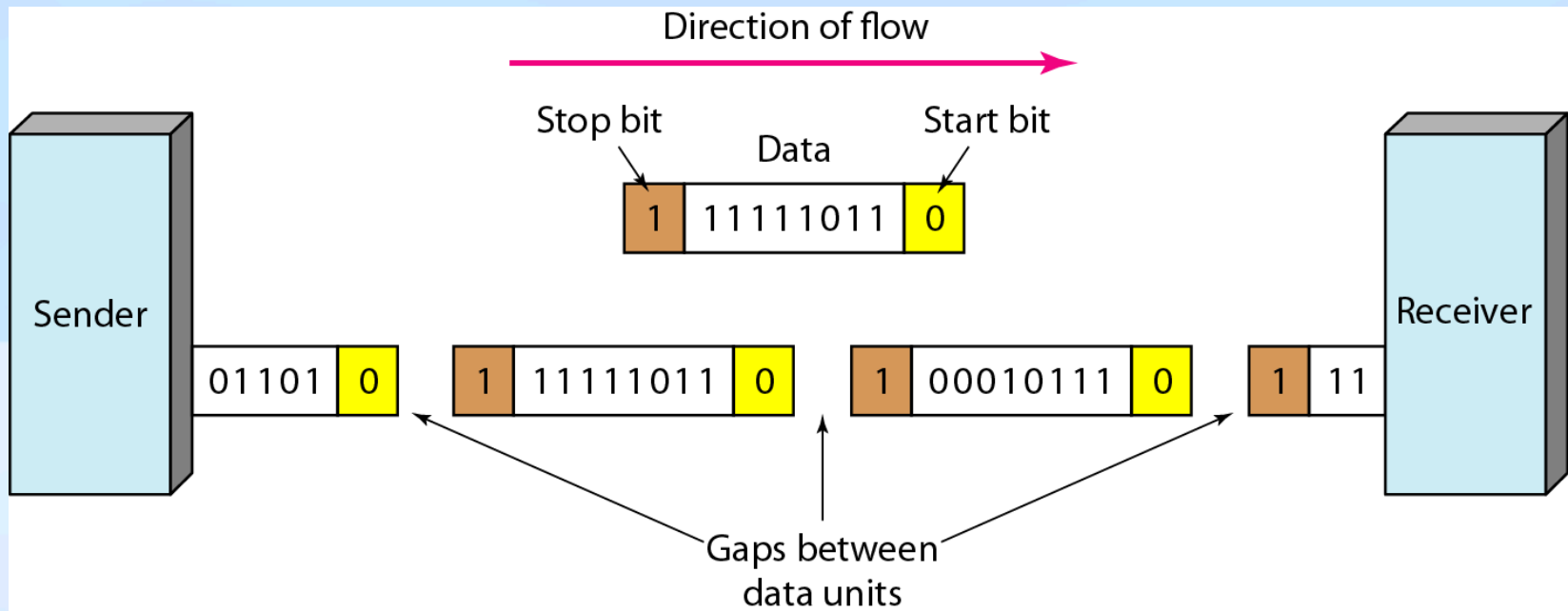
**In asynchronous transmission, we send 1 start bit (0) at the beginning and 1 or more stop bits (1s) at the end of each byte. There may be a gap between each byte.**



## Note

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

**Figure 4.34 Asynchronous transmission**





## Note

**In synchronous transmission, we send bits one after another without start or stop bits or gaps. It is the responsibility of the receiver to group the bits.**

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**Figure 4.35 Synchronous transmission**

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