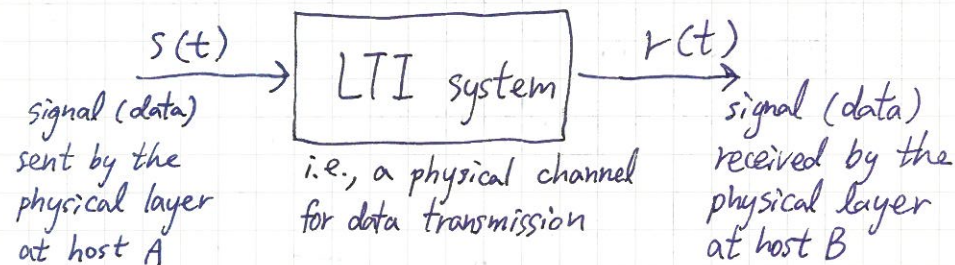


Note for lecture 02:



Goal: to have $r(t) = s(t)$,
i.e., to have host B correctly receive the data sent by host A.

Challenges:

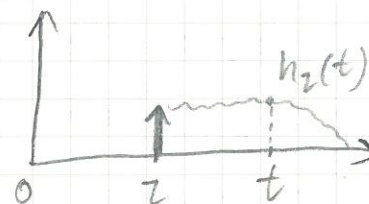
- ① intersymbol interference (Sec. 2.2.1)
- ② a channel may distort signal (its frequency response; Sec. 2.2.2)

Analysis: 1° $s(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} s(\tau) \cdot \delta(t-\tau) d\tau$
where $\delta(t-\tau) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } t=\tau \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

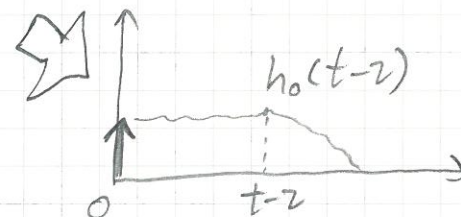
$$r(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} s(\tau) \cdot h_2(t) d\tau$$

where $h_2(t)$ is the response of the unit impulse at time τ

P_1 P_2



in fact, $h_2(t) = h_0(t-\tau)$
 \therefore time-invariant property



Let $h(t) = h_0(t)$, we can rewrite $r(t)$ to be

$$r(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} s(\tau) \cdot h(t-\tau) d\tau \quad \text{Eq. (2.1)}$$

(interpretation: $r(t)$ is the superposition of responses of all previous inputs!)

2° Now consider a common type of signal

$$s(t) = e^{j2\pi f t}$$

using Eq. (2.1), we have

$$r(t) = H(f) \cdot e^{j2\pi f t}$$

where

$$H(f) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(\tau) \cdot e^{-j2\pi f \tau} d\tau$$

Follow the derivation outlined in Sec 2.2-2, we have

$$R(f) = H(f) \cdot S(f)$$

So, if we can get rid of $H(f)$ we can achieve our goal, since $R(f) = S(f)$ implies $r(t) = s(t)$.

→ We may add an additional filter of frequency response $H^{-1}(f)$ to the channel and get $H'(f) = H^{-1}(f) \cdot H(f) = 1$, making $R(f) = S(f)$.

The above analysis also gives us insight regarding what frequency range should be used by signal $s(t)$. For example, consider $h(t) = \alpha e^{-\alpha t}$ for a channel.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } H(f) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \alpha e^{-\alpha z} e^{-j2\pi f z} dz \\ &= \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + j2\pi f} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} f \ll 1 \text{ gives } H(f) \approx 1 \\ f \gg 1 \text{ gives } H(f) \approx \frac{1}{f} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

This corresponds to our observation that with a lower frequency (i.e., longer interval in between), we will have less intersymbol interference, and vice versa.

P₃ P₄

The sampling theorem (Sec. 2.2.3) offers another look at the signal rate.

Motivation to modulation:

Many real-world channels are bandpass channels, i.e., $|H(f)|$ is significantly nonzero only within some frequency band $f_1 \leq f \leq f_2$. To reduce signal distortion, we may multiply the signal by a sinusoidal carrier, say $\cos(2\pi f_0 t)$, to make the modulated signal fall within the desirable frequency band.

Then we send the modulated signal $s(t) \cdot \cos(2\pi f_0 t)$ over the channel. The receiving side of the channel may obtain $r(t) \approx s(t)$ by the following demodulation:

1° multiply $s(t) \cos(2\pi f_0 t)$ by another $\cos(2\pi f_0 t)$, giving $r(t) = s(t) \cdot \cos^2(2\pi f_0 t)$

$$= \frac{1}{2} s(t) + \frac{1}{2} (s(t) \cdot \cos(4\pi f_0 t))$$

by applying the Double-angle formulae

$$\cos^2 \theta = \frac{1 + \cos 2\theta}{2}$$

2° filter out the high-frequency component $\frac{1}{2}(sct) \cdot \cos(4\pi f_0 t)$ using, e.g., a low-pass filter.

Summary (Take-home messages):

- (1) It is nontrivial to send data over a physical channel and have it correctly received at the other end of the channel.
- (2) In the layered network architecture, physical channel "can be regarded simply as unreliable bit pipes by the higher layers." (Sec. 2.2.9)
- (3) Therefore, we must do error detection (and possibly error correction) at the higher layers. We will cover this topic next week in lecture 03 !