

Physical Layer – Part 2

Data Encoding Techniques



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Analog and Digital Transmissions

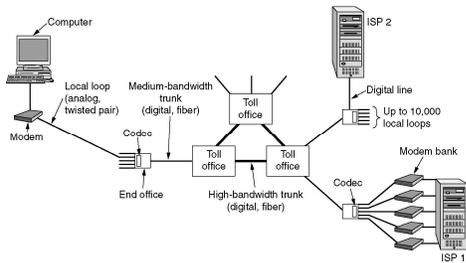


Figure 2-23. The use of both analog and digital transmissions for a computer to computer call. Conversion is done by the modems and codecs.



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Data Encoding Techniques

- Digital Data, Analog Signals [**modem**]
- Digital Data, Digital Signals [**wired LAN**]
- Analog Data, Digital Signals [**codec**]
 - Frequency Division Multiplexing (FDM)
 - Wave Division Multiplexing (WDM) [**fiber**]
 - Time Division Multiplexing (TDM)
 - Pulse Code Modulation (PCM) [**T1**]
 - Delta Modulation



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Digital Data, Analog Signals

[Example – modem]

- Basis for analog signaling is a continuous, constant-frequency signal known as the *carrier frequency*.
- Digital data is encoded by modulating one of the three characteristics of the carrier: amplitude, frequency, or phase or some combination of these.

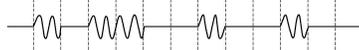


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A binary signal (a)



Amplitude modulation (b)



Frequency modulation (c)



Phase modulation (d)

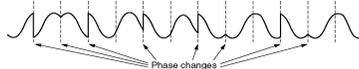


Figure 2-24.



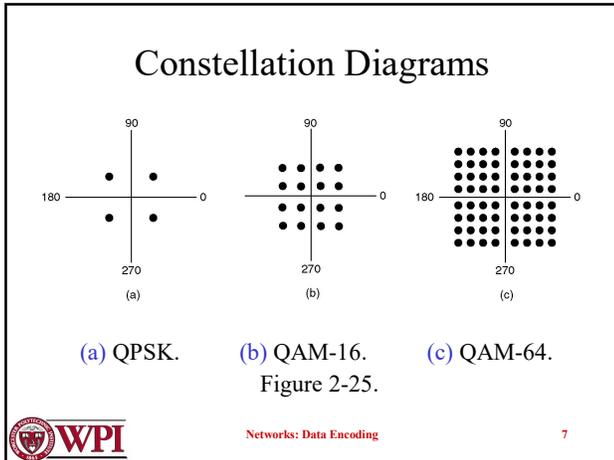
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Modems

- All advanced modems use a *combination of modulation techniques* to transmit multiple bits per baud.
- Multiple amplitude and multiple phase shifts are combined to transmit several bits per symbol.
- **QPSK (Quadrature Phase Shift Keying)** uses multiple phase shifts per symbol.
- **Modems** actually use **Quadrature Amplitude Modulation (QAM)**.
- These concepts are explained using constellation points where a point determines a specific amplitude and phase.



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Digital Data, Digital Signals

[the technique used in a number of LANs]

- Digital signal – is a sequence of discrete, discontinuous voltage pulses.
- Bit duration :: the time it takes for the transmitter to emit the bit.
- Issues
 - Bit timing
 - Recovery from signal
 - Noise immunity

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NRZ (Non-Return-to-Zero) Codes

Uses two different voltage levels (one positive and one negative) as the signal elements for the two binary digits.

NRZ-L (Non-Return-to-Zero-Level)
The voltage is constant during the bit interval.

1 ⇔ negative voltage

0 ⇔ positive voltage

NRZ-L is used for short distances between terminal and modem or terminal and computer.

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NRZ (Non-Return-to-Zero) Codes

NRZ-I (Non-Return-to-Zero-Invirt on ones)

The voltage is constant during the bit interval.

1 ⇔ existence of a *signal transition* at the beginning of the bit time
(either a low-to-high or a high-to-low transition)

0 ⇔ **no signal transition** at the beginning of the bit time

NRZI is a *differential encoding* (i.e., the signal is decoded by comparing the polarity of adjacent signal elements.)



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Bi –Phase Codes

Bi- phase codes – require at least one transition per bit time and may have as many as two transitions.

→ the maximum modulation rate is twice that of NRZ
→ greater transmission bandwidth is required.

Advantages:

Synchronization – with a predictable transition per bit time the receiver can “synch” on the transition [**self-clocking**].

No d.c. component

Error detection – the absence of an expected transition can be used to detect errors.



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Manchester encoding

- There is **always** a mid-bit transition (which is used as a clocking mechanism).
- The **direction** of the mid-bit transition represents the digital data.

1 ⇔ **low-to-high** transition

0 ⇔ **high-to-low** transition

Textbooks disagree on this definition!!

Consequently, there may be a second transition at the beginning of the bit interval.

Used in 802.3 baseband coaxial cable and CSMA/CD twisted pair.



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Differential Manchester encoding

- mid-bit transition is **ONLY** for clocking.

1 ⇔ **absence** of transition at the beginning of the bit interval

0 ⇔ **presence** of transition at the beginning of the bit interval

Differential Manchester is both differential and bi-phase.
 Note – the coding is the opposite convention from NRZI.

Used in 802.5 (token ring) with twisted pair.

* Modulation rate for Manchester and Differential Manchester is **twice** the data rate → inefficient encoding for long-distance applications.



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Bi-Polar Encoding

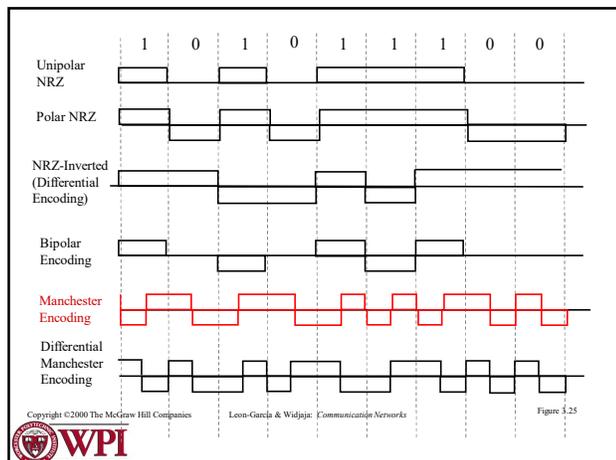
1 ⇔ **alternating** +1/2 , -1/2 voltage

0 ⇔ **0** voltage

- Has the same issues as NRZI for a long string of 0's.
- A systemic problem with polar is the polarity can be backwards.



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Analog Data, Digital Signals

[Example – PCM (Pulse Code Modulation)]

The most common technique for using digital signals to encode analog data is PCM.

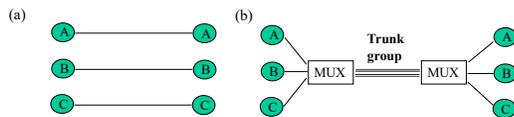
*Example: To transfer analog voice signals off a local loop to digital end office within the phone system, one uses a **codec**.*

Because voice data limited to frequencies below 4000 HZ, a codec makes 8000 samples/sec. (i.e., 125 microsec/sample).



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Multiplexing



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Leon-Garcia & Widjaja: Communication Networks

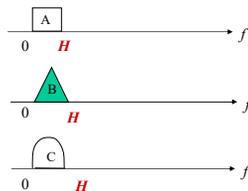
Figure 4.1



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Frequency-division Multiplexing

(a) Individual signals occupy H Hz



(b) Combined signal fits into channel bandwidth



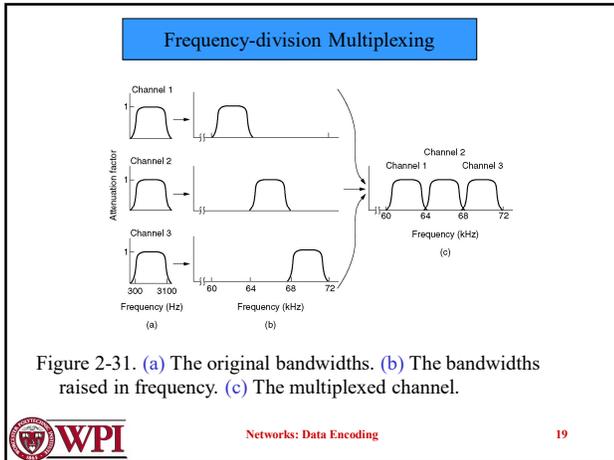
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Leon-Garcia & Widjaja: Communication Networks

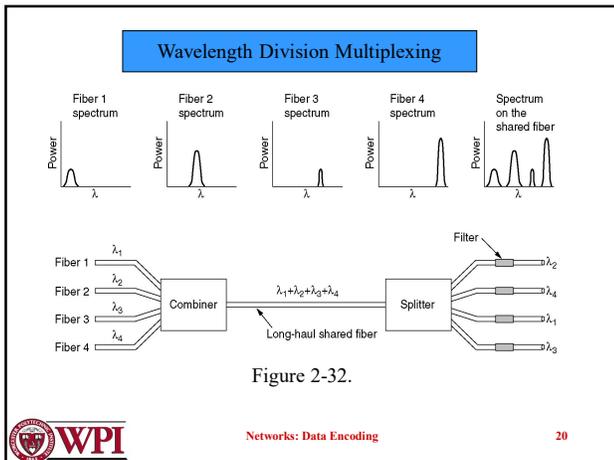
Figure 4.2



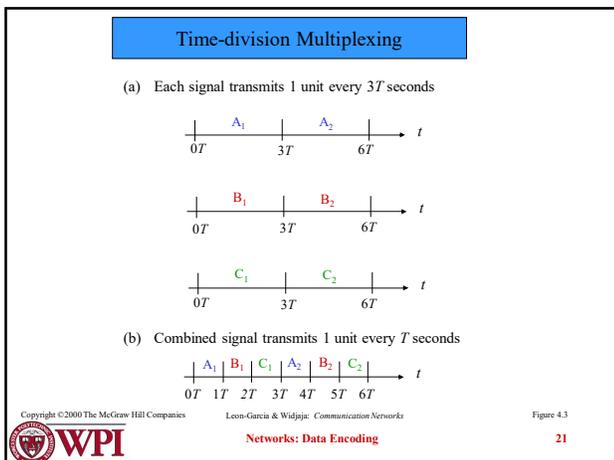
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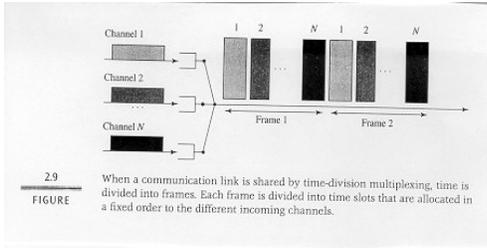


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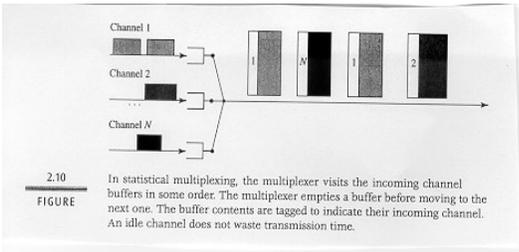
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Time-division Multiplexing



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Statistical Multiplexing - Concentrator



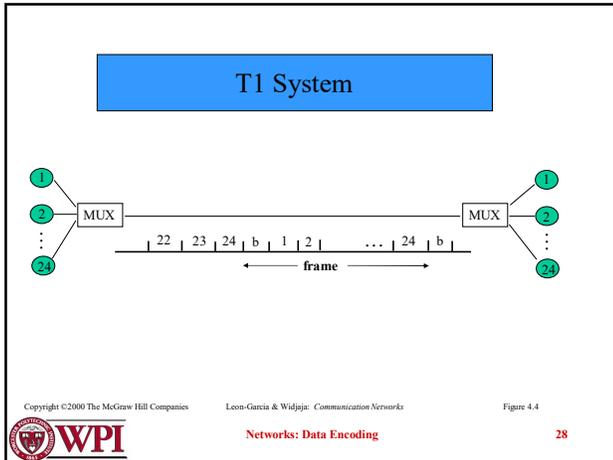
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Pulse Code Modulation (PCM)

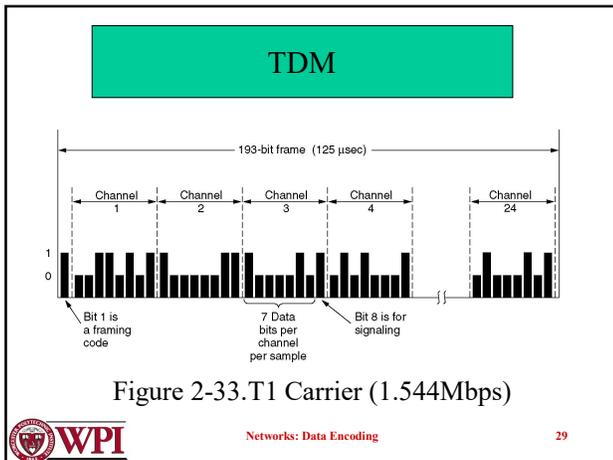
- Analog signal is sampled.
- Converted to discrete-time continuous-amplitude signal (Pulse Amplitude Modulation)
- Pulses are *quantized* and assigned a digital value.
 - A 7-bit sample allows 128 quantizing levels.



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Delta Modulation (DM)

- The basic idea in *delta modulation* is to approximate the derivative of analog signal rather than its amplitude.
- The analog data is approximated by a staircase function that moves up or down by one quantization level at each sampling time. → output of DM is a [single bit](#).
- PCM preferred because of better SNR characteristics.

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