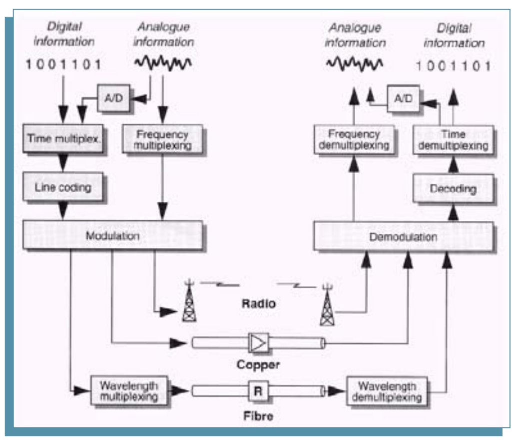
S-72.1140 Transmission Methods in Telecommunication Systems (5 cr)

Transmission Channels

Agenda today

- Characterizing channels
  - linearity
  - non-linearity
  - time-variability
- Measuring channels
- Overview to some channels
  - wired channels
    - coaxial cables
    - twisted cables
  - wireless cellular channel
    - large-scale path loss
    - small scale modeling, e.g
      - delay spread
      - coherence bandwidth
      - Doppler spread



Analog and digital transmission in various channels [8]

Communication channels and medium

- A **physical medium** is an inherent part of a communications system
  – Wires (copper, optical fibers) , wireless radio spectra
- Communications systems include **electronic or optical devices** that are part of the transmission path followed by a signal
  – Equalizers, amplifiers, signal conditioners (regenerators)
  – Medium determines **only part** of channels behavior. The other part is determined how transmitter and receiver are connected to the medium and what is transmitted in the channel
  – Therefore, by telecommunication channel we refer to the <u>**combined** end-to-end physical medium</u> and attached devices
- Often the concept "**filter**" models a channel. This is due to the fact that all telecommunication channels can be always modeled as filters. Their parameters can be
  – deterministic
  – random
  – time variable
  – linear/non-linear

Selecting the medium/media

- What is **amount of traffic** to be distributed?
- What is the **cost** we can afford?
- What is the **interference** environment?
- Is mechanical **robustness** adequate?
- Point-to-point or **networking** usage?
- Capability to transfer **power** (for instance for repeaters)?
- Often the first selection is done between
  – Wired
  – Wireless
- Often one can consider if **digital** or **analog** message is to be transmitted
  – analog PSTN takes 300-3400 kHz
  – digital PCM takes 64 kbit/s
  – digital, encoded GSM speech only 13 kbit/s
  – what is the adequate compression level?

Guided and unguided medium

- Medium convoys message by electromagnetic waves
  - wireless/wired (medium)
  - baseband/carrier wave (transmission band)
  - digital/analog (message format)
- In free space information propagates at $v=c/\sqrt{\varepsilon}, \lambda = v/f_0$
- In transmission lines, coaxial cables and waveguides the channel output power decreases exponentially with distance, yielding loss

$$L = 1/g = P_{in}/P_{out} = 10^{\alpha d/10}$$

$$L_{dB} \triangleq -10\log(g) = 10\log_{10}(10^{\alpha d/10}) = \alpha d$$

$$\begin{cases} \alpha : \text{attenuation} \\ g : \text{gain} \\ d : \text{transmission distance} \end{cases}$$

- Generally, in radio transmission, free-space loss is

$$L = \left(\frac{4\pi d}{\lambda}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{4\pi f d}{c}\right)^2 \Rightarrow L_{dB} = 92.4 + 20\log_{10} f_{GHz} + 20\log_{10} d_{km}$$

- In addition, with directive antennas having transmitter & receiver gains g_T and g_R, output power can still be increased:

$$P_{out} = \frac{g_T g_R}{L} P_{in}$$

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Guided and unguided medium … summary

Transmission medium	Frequency	Loss (dB/km)
Twisted-wire pair (16 gauge)	10 kHz	2
Coaxial cable	100 kHz	1
Fiber-optic cable	400 THz	0.25

Some wired channel loss parameters

- Wireless: easy deployment, radio spectra sets capacity limit. Attenuation as function of distance d follows $d^{n(f)}$, $n(f)$=2..5=n*

$$A_{wireless} = A_0 + n\log_{10} d\,[\text{dB}] \quad \text{(fixed frequency)}$$

- Wired: more capacity by setting extra wires (may be complex, costly, time consuming). Attenuation as function of frequency follows $10^{k(f)d}$, where $k(f)$ is the attenuation parameter (α), yielding

$$A_{wired} = k(f)d\,[\text{dB}]$$

- Therefore, in general, wireless systems may maintain signal energy longer that wired systems. However, actual received power depends greatly on actual channel parameters.

*for cellular channel frequency is fixed, n>>2

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Channels parameters

- Characterized by
  - attenuation[dB/km], transfer function
  - impedance[Ω], matching
  - bandwidth[Hz], data rate
- Transmission **impairments** change channel's effective properties
  - system internal/external **interference**
    - cross-talk - leakage power[dB] from other users
    - channel may introduce inter-symbolic interference (ISI)
    - channel may absorb interference from other sources
    - wideband noise [W/Hz]
  - **distortion**, linear (uncompensated transfer function)/nonlinear (non-linearity in circuit elements)
- Channel parameters are a function of frequency, transmission length, temperature ...

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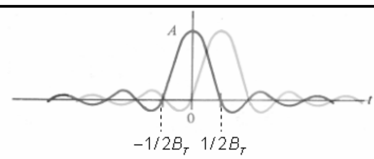
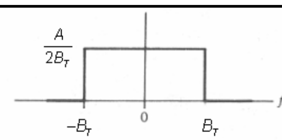
Data rate limits





- Data rate depends on: <u>channel bandwidth, the number of levels in transmitted signal and channel SNR (received signal power)</u>
- For an L level signal with theoretical sinc-pulse signaling transmitted maximum rate is (Nyqvist rate)

$$r = 2B_T = r_b / n = r_b / \log_2(L) \Rightarrow r_b = 2B_T \log_2(L), L = 2^n$$

- There is absolute maximum of information capacity that can be transmitted in a channel we discussed earlier, namely Shannon's channel capacity: $C = B\log_2(1+SNR)$
- Example: A transmission channel has the bandwidth $B_T = 1$ MHz and SNR = 63. Find the appropriate bit rate and number of signal levels. Solution: Theoretical maximum bit rate is

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

In practice, a smaller bit rate can be achieved. Assume

$$r_b \approx 4\text{Mbps}=2\text{B}_\text{T}\log(L) \Rightarrow \underline{L=4}$$

r: symbol rate, r_b: bit rate

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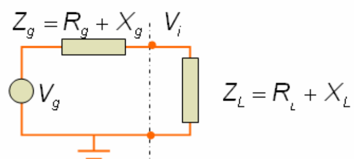
Measuring channels

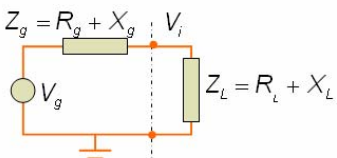
- Parameters of greater interest are transfer function and impedance. **Transfer function** can be measured by
  - launching **white noise** (in the frequency range to be measured) to the channel (frequency response)
  - Launching **impulse to the channel** (theoretical). In practice, short, limited amplitude pulse will do (impulse response)
  - Launching **sweeping tone(s)** to the channel (frequency response)
- **Impedance** can be measured by measuring voltage across the load in the input/output port:

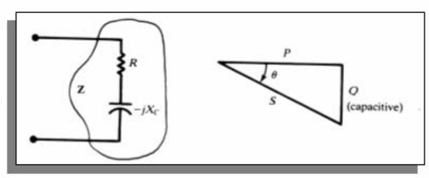
$$\frac{V_g}{V_i} = \frac{Z_g + Z_L}{Z_L} \quad \Rightarrow Z_L = \frac{V_i Z_g}{V_g - V_i}$$



- **Transfer characteristics** of nonlinear channels can be deducted from generated extra frequency components (we will discuss this soon with non-linearity)

Impedance matching



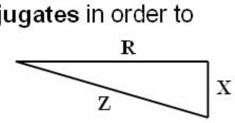


Example: a capacitive loading impedance; What is the respective, optimum generator impedance Z_g?

$$\frac{V_g}{V_i} = \frac{Z_g + Z_L}{Z_L}, P_L = V_i I_i \cos\theta$$

$$\cos\theta = R_{tot} / Z_{tot} = R_{tot} / \sqrt{R_{tot}^2 + X_{tot}^2}, X_{tot} = X_g + X_L, R_{tot} = R_L + R_g$$

- Often (as with coaxial cables) channel interfaces must be impedance matched to maximize power transfer and to avoid power reflections
- In applying power to a transmission channel (or a circuit) source and loading impedances must be **complex conjugates** in order to maximize power dissipated in the load
- **Perfect match** means efficiency of 50%
- Setting impedances Z_g and Z_L to fulfill this condition is called **impedance matching**



Impedance triangle

Linear channels [1]

- *Linear channels* have the output that is input signal multiplied by a constant and delayed by a finite delay: $y(t)=Kx(t-t_d)$

$$Y(f)=\mathcal{F}\left[y(t)\right]=\underbrace{K\exp(-j\omega t_d)}_{H(f)}X(f)$$

due to the fact that system output is also $Y(f)=H(f)X(f)$

- Therefore, for linear systems $|H(f)|=|K|, \arg H(f)=-2\pi f t_d$
- Linear distortion can be
  - amplitude distortion: $|H(f)|\neq|K|$
  - delay distortion: $\arg H(f)\neq -2\pi t_d f$
- Solving above gives **phase delay**, defined by

$$t_d(f)=-\arg H(f)/(2\pi f)$$

- It describes the phase delay experienced by each frequency component
- In **distortionless channel** *all Fourier-components retain their relative phase positions while propagating in channel*

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Nonlinear channels[1]

- System non-linearity means that its transfer characteristic is nonlinear
- For non-linear channels output is $y(t)=a_1x(t)+a_2x^2(t)+a_3x^3(t)+$
Assume sinusoidal input $x(t)=\cos\omega_0 t$, then

$$y(t)=\left(\frac{a_2}{2}+\frac{3a_4}{8}...\right)+\left(a_1+\frac{3a_3}{4}...\right)\cos\omega_0 t++\left(\frac{a_2}{2}+\frac{a_4}{4}...\right)\cos 2\omega_0 t+...$$

$$y(t)=D_0+D_1\cos(\omega_0 t)+D_2\cos(2\omega_0 t)...$$

where D_n:s are the distortion coefficients

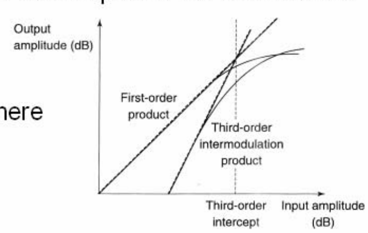
- *n*:rth-order distortion [%] is determined with respect of the fundamental frequency: $D_n[\%]=(D_n/D_1)x100\%$
- Assume that the input is

$$y(t)=\cos\omega_c t+A\cos(\omega_c+\omega_d)t$$

3rd order intercept [1,p.55] occurs* where

$$A=4a_1/(3a_3)$$

- This is easy to measure and is used to characterize nonlinear systems



3:rd order intercept [1]

*See the prove in the supplementary material (A. Burr: Modulation and Coding)

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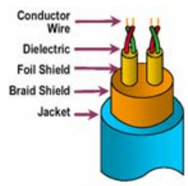
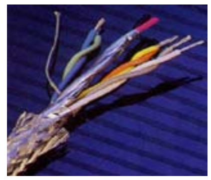
Wireline channels: Twisted pair

- Comes in two flavors: Shielded (STP) / Unshielded (UTP)



structure



STP-cable

•larger attenuation
•higher rates
•more expensive

UTP-cable

•more sensitive to interference
•easy to install and work with
•example: 10BaseT Ethernet

- Twisting reduces interference, and crosstalk (antenna-behavior)
- Applications
  - Connects **data** and especially **PSTN local loop** analog links (Intra-building telephone from wiring closet to desktop)
  - In old installations, **loading coils** added to improve quality in 3 kHz band, resulting more attenuation at higher frequencies (ADSL)
  - **STP** used especially in **high-speed transmission** as in token ring-networks

Twisted pair - UTP categories in LANs

- **Category 1**: mainly used to **carry voice** (telephone wiring prior to 1980). Not certified to carry data of any type.
- **Category 2**: used to carry data at rates up to 4 Mbps. Popular in older Token-passing ring LANs using **4 Mbps** specs (IEEE 802.5). Rated bandwidth BW = 1 MHz.
- **Category 3**: known as voice grade. Used primarily in older **Ethernet 10base-T* LANs** (IEEE 802.3). Certified to carry **10 Mbps** data. BW= 16 MHz. 3-4 twists/feet.
- **Category 4**: primarily used for token-based or 10 Base-T. BW = 20 MHz.
- **Category 5**: most popular Ethernet cabling category. Capable of carrying data at rates up to **100 Mbps** (**Fast Ethernet,** IEEE 802.3u) and used for 100 base-T and 10 base-T networks. Rated BW = **100 MHz**. 3-4 twists/inch.

***100 m / CAT 3 cables**

Unshielded and shielded twisted pairs attenuation compared

- Electronic Industries Association has specified in EIA-568-A twisted pairs for different applications.

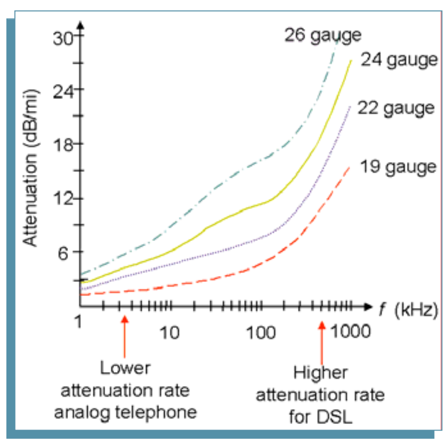
	Attenuation (dB per 100 m)			Near-end crosstalk (dB)		
Frequency (MHz)	Category 3 UTP	Category 5 UTP	150 Ω STP	Category 3 UTP	Category 5 UTP	150 Ω STP
1	2.6	2.0	1.1	41	62	58
4	5.6	4.1	2.2	32	53	58
16	13.1	8.2	4.4	23	44	50.4
25	—	10.4	6.2	—	32	47.5
100	—	22.0	12.3	—	—	38.5
300	—	—	21.4	—	—	31.3

Twisted pair - application examples [6]

- Comes in different wire thickness, e.g. 0.016 inch (24 gauge)
- The longer the cable, the smaller the bandwidth

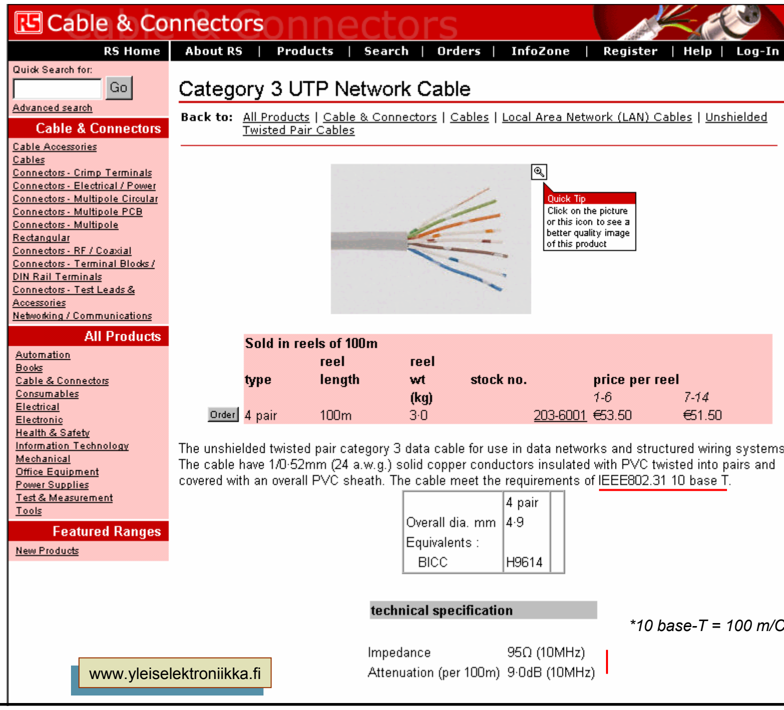
Standard	Data Rate	Distance
DS-1	1.544 Mbps	18,000 feet, 5.5 km
DS-2	6.312 Mbps	12,000 feet, 3.7 km
1/4 STS-1	12.960 Mbps	4500 feet, 1.4 km
1/2 STS-1	25.920 Mbps	3000 feet, 0.9 km
STS-1	51.840 Mbps	1000 feet, 300 m

Data rates & distances for 24-gauge twisted pair



Twisted cable attenuations

DS-1,DS2: Digital Signal 1,2
Synchronous Digital Hierarchy (SDH) levels
STS-1: Synchronous Transport Signal level-1, Synchronous Optical Network's (SONET) physical level signal



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Category 3 UTP Network Cable

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Quick Tip: Click on the picture or this icon to see a better quality image of this product

Sold in reels of 100m

	type	reel length	reel wt (kg)	stock no.	price per reel 1-6	7-14
Order	4 pair	100m	3·0	203-6001	€53.50	€51.50

The unshielded twisted pair category 3 data cable for use in data networks and structured wiring systems. The cable have 1/0·52mm (24 a.w.g.) solid copper conductors insulated with PVC twisted into pairs and covered with an overall PVC sheath. The cable meet the requirements of IEEE802.31 10 base T.

	4 pair
Overall dia. mm	4·9
Equivalents :	
BICC	H9614

technical specification

Impedance	95Ω (10MHz)
Attenuation (per 100m)	9·0dB (10MHz)

*10 base-T = 100 m/CAT 3 cables

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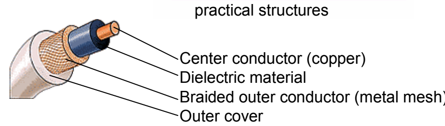
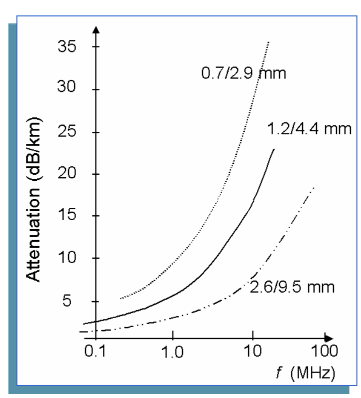
Wireline channels: Coaxial cables


practical structures

- Mechanics
  - Cylindrical braided outer conductor surrounds insulated inner wire conductor
- Properties
  - Well shielded structure -> immunity to external noise
  - High bandwidth, up to Ghz-range (distance/model)
- Applications
  - CATV (Cable TV networks)
  - Ethernet LANs
  - Earlier a backbone of PSTN





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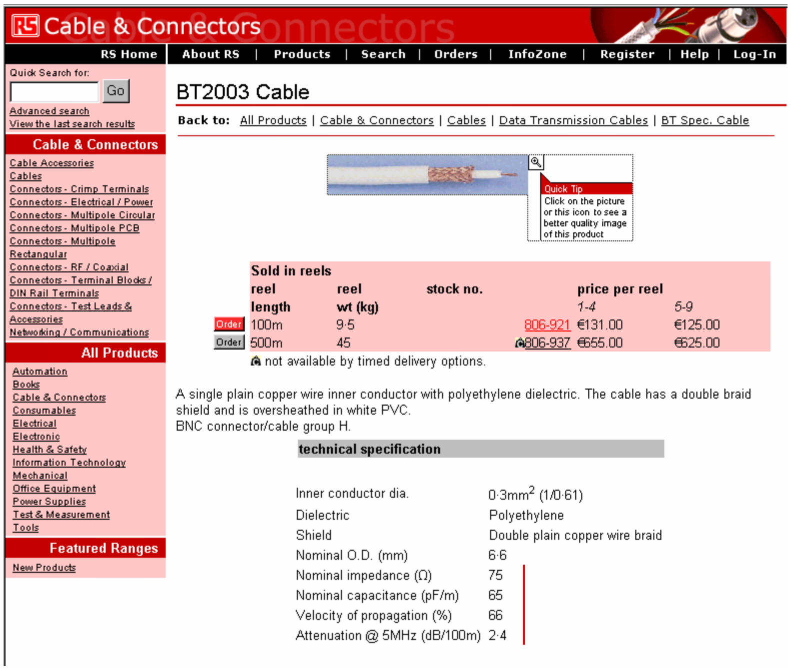

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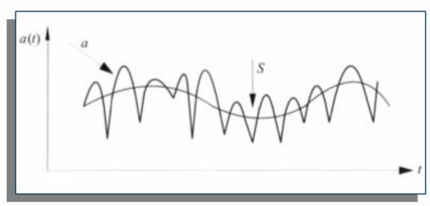
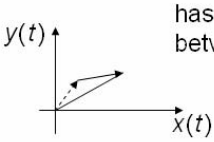
Slow (S) and fast fading (a) in cellular channel



Fluctuation of received power in cellular channel [4]



Rayleigh/Rice fading

$$x_r(t) = x(t) + jy(t) = a(t)\exp j\phi(t)$$

- Received power fluctuations can be modeled to consist of:
  - **Shadow fading**, *slow rate*, local averaged signal power component has a Gaussian distribution (in dB) (Caused by larger obstacles between TX and RX)

$$p(S) = \frac{1}{\sigma_S\sqrt{2\pi}}\exp\left(-\frac{(S-S_0)^2}{2\sigma_S^2}\right)$$

$$S_0 = C/r^{\alpha}, \alpha = 2...5 \text{ (global, average power)}$$

  - **Rayleigh/Rice fading**, *high rate component* due to various sources of multipath. Rayleigh distribution (non-line of sight paths) is defined as $p(a) = \frac{a}{\sigma^2}\exp\left(-a^2/2a^2\right), E[a^2] = 2\sigma^2$
  - *high rate* **Doppler shifts**

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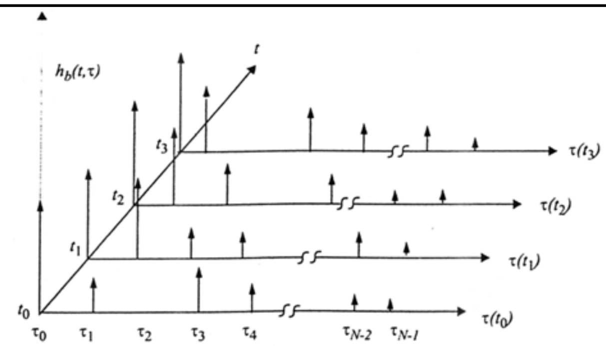
Wideband Channel Impulse Response [7]



- The time variable channel impulse response is

$$h_b(t,\tau) = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} a_i(t,\tau)\exp(j2\pi f_c \tau_i(t) + \phi(t,\tau))\delta(\tau - \tau_i(t))$$

- For **time invariant channels** each impulse response is the same or has the same statistics and then

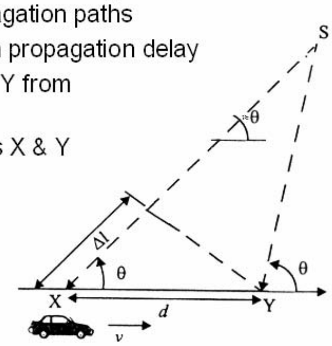
$$h(\tau) = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} a_i \exp(-j\theta_i)\delta(\tau - \tau_i)$$

Doppler bandwidth

- Multipath created small-scale fading effects
  - rapid changes in **signal strength** due to movement and/or time
  - **random frequency modulation** due to Doppler shifts on different multipath propagation paths
  - **time dispersion** due to multipath propagation delay
- The difference in path lengths to X & Y from source S is $\Delta l = d\cos\theta = v\Delta t\cos\theta$
- The phase change between locations X & Y is then

$$\Delta\phi = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}\Delta l = \frac{2\pi v \Delta t}{\lambda}\cos\theta$$

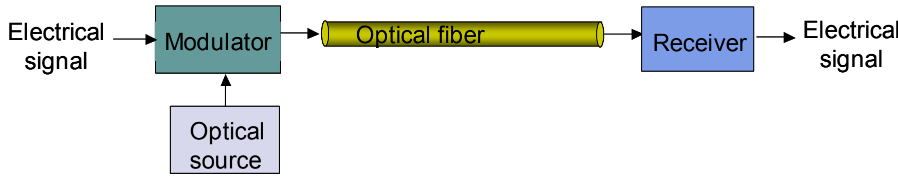
$$f_d = \frac{1}{2\pi}\frac{\Delta\phi}{\Delta t} \overset{*}{=} \frac{v}{\lambda}\cos\theta$$



Doppler effect [7]

*Angular frequency is the derivative of angular phase - Will be discussed in details with frequency modulation

Optical Fiber



- Light sources (lasers, LEDs) generate pulses of light that are transmitted on optical fiber
  - Very long distances (>1000 km)
  - Very high speeds (>40 Gbps/wavelength)
  - Nearly error-free (BER of 10^{-15})
- Profound influence on network architecture
  - Dominates long distance transmission
  - Distance less of a cost factor in communications
  - Plentiful bandwidth for new services

ref [6]

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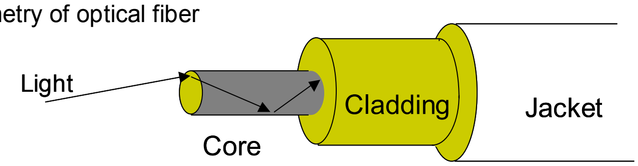
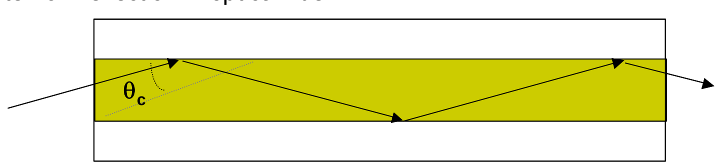
Transmission in Optical Fiber

Geometry of optical fiber



Total Internal Reflection in optical fiber



- Very fine glass cylindrical core surrounded by concentric layer of glass (cladding)
- Core has higher index of refraction than cladding
- Light rays incident at less than critical angle θ_c is completely reflected back into the core

ref [6]

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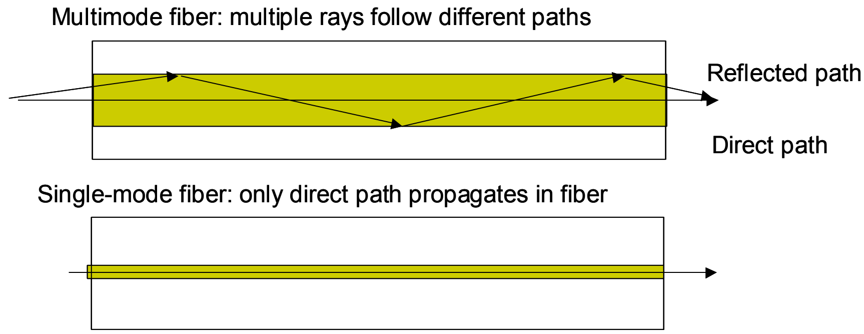
Multimode & Single-mode Fiber



- Multimode: Thicker core, shorter reach
  - Rays on different paths interfere causing dispersion & limiting bit rate
- Single mode: Very thin core supports only one mode (path)
  - More expensive lasers, but achieves very high speeds

ref [6]

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Optical Fiber Properties

Advantages

- ***Very low attenuation***
- ***Noise immunity***
- ***Extremely high bandwidth***
- Security: Very difficult to tap without breaking
- No corrosion
- More compact & lighter than copper wire

Disadvantages

- New types of optical signal impairments & dispersion
  - Polarization dependence
  - Wavelength dependence
- Limited bend radius
  - If physical arc of cable too high, light lost or won't reflect
  - Will break
- Difficult to splice
- Mechanical vibration becomes signal noise

ref [6]

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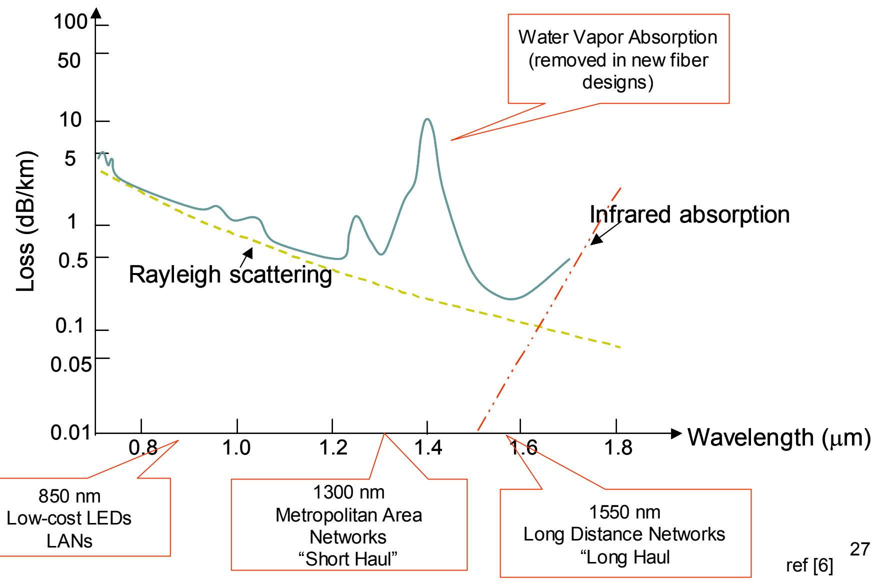
Very Low Attenuation



ref [6]

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Huge Available Bandwidth

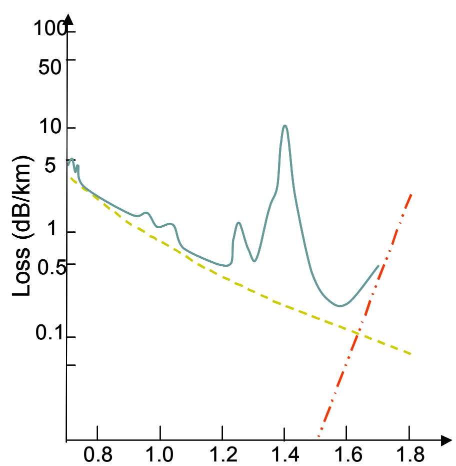
- Optical range from λ_1 to $\lambda_1 + \Delta\lambda$ contains bandwidth

$$B = f_1 - f_2 = \frac{v}{\lambda_1} - \frac{v}{\lambda_1 + \Delta\lambda}$$

$$= \frac{v}{\lambda_1}\left\{\frac{\Delta\lambda / \lambda_1}{1 + \Delta\lambda / \lambda 1}\right\} \approx \frac{v\,\Delta\lambda}{\lambda_1^2}$$

- Example: λ_1 = 1450 nm
  $\lambda_1 + \Delta\lambda$ =1650 nm:

$$B = \frac{2(10^8)\text{m/s } 200\text{nm}}{(1450 \text{ nm})^2} \approx 19 \text{ THz}$$



ref [6]

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References

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