

FUNDAMENTALS OF INFORMATION TRANSMISSION

Bits, information, and signals

Elementary operation of communication: send bits or information as *signal* on physical medium from *A* to *B*.

- physical media—copper wire, optical fiber, air/space
- signals—voltage and currents, light pulses, radio waves, microwaves
 - electromagnetic wave
 - aka “light”
 - Einstein was intrigued by it
 - engineering aspect: well-understood
 - other aspects of light remain a mystery (physics) even today (2007)

Other types of signal:

- smoke signals (cowboy movies)
- sound (acoustic waves)
- other?

All signals of practical interest have one thing in common:

→ signal *strength*

Ex.:

- light: brightness (or intensity)
- sound: loudness (or volume)

→ signal strength can be measured

→ e.g., dB for sound

Another common feature of signals:

- signal strength can *vary over time*
- now: quiet, 1 sec later: loud, 2 secs later: loud
- use it to send 3 bits: how?
- what's the throughput (bps)?
- is it a good solution?

What else can one do to increase throughput?

Is there a way to do much better?

- yes
- at the heart of today's high-speed networks
- wireless networks: for free!
- the main goal of the following discussion

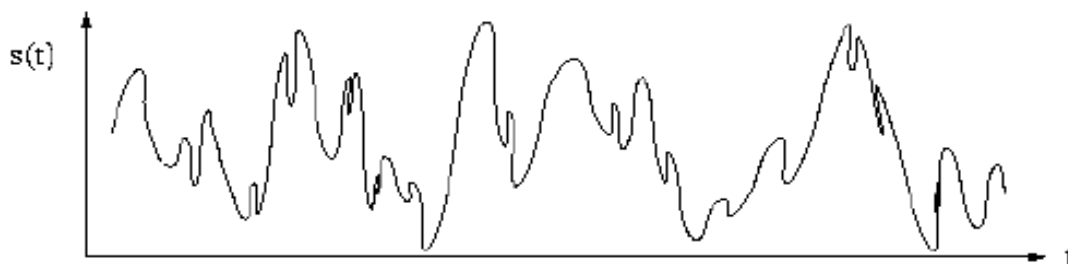
Recap: signal has

- strength
- and signal strength can vary over time
 - computer networks: light (electromagnetic waves)

Denote signal as $s(t)$ where:

- t : time (discrete or continuous)
- $s(t)$: indicates signal strength at time t
 - also called magnitude or amplitude

Cartoon picture of some signal $s(t)$:

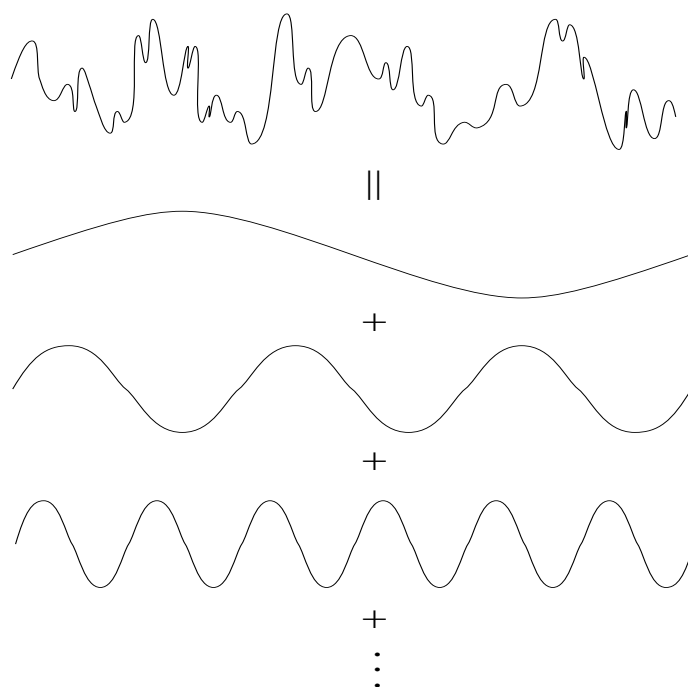


The most important feature of signals: *complicated looking signals are just sums of very simple signals*

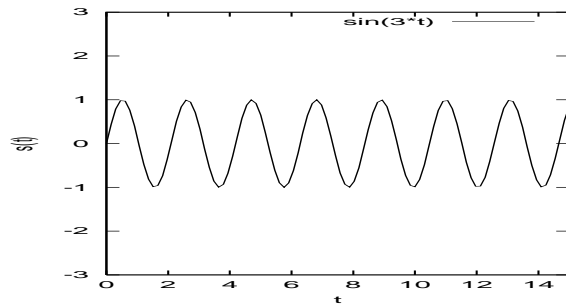
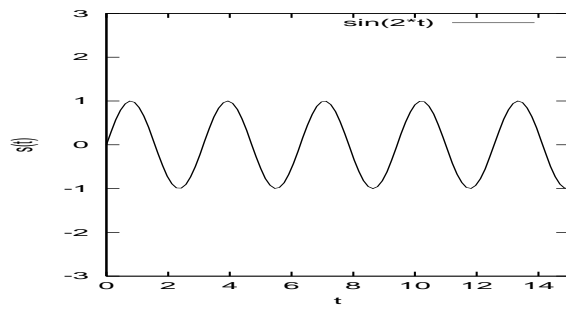
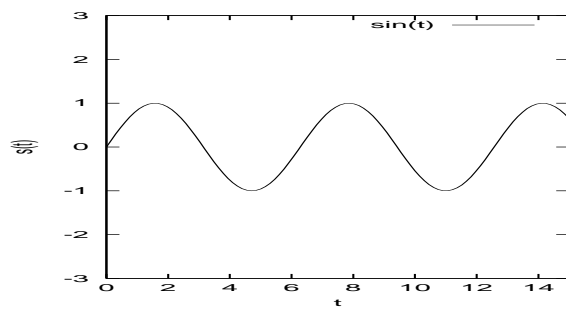
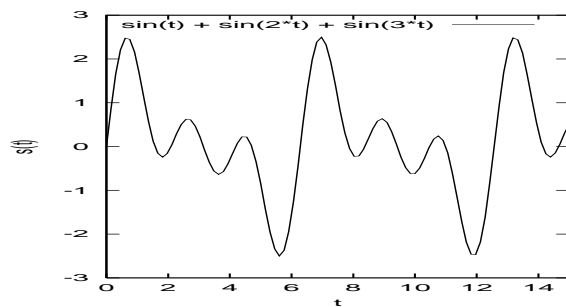
→ simple signals: waves

→ sine curve (why “simple”?)

Cartoon picture of this “decomposition” principle:



Real example:



Other examples (man-made & nature):





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Periodic Table

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The periodic table is color-coded by groups: Group 1 (blue), Group 2 (orange), Groups 3-10 (purple), Group 11 (green), Group 12 (red), Groups 13-18 (yellow). The lanthanide and actinide series are shown below the main table.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
H 1.008												B 10.81	C 12.01	N 14.01	O 16.00	F 18.99	He 4.00	
Li 6.94	Be 9.01											Al 26.98	Si 28.09	P 30.97	S 32.06	Cl 35.45	Ar 39.95	
Na 22.99	Mg 24.31											Zn 65.38	Ga 69.72	Ge 72.64	As 74.92	Se 78.96	Br 79.90	Kr 83.80
K 39.10	Ca 40.08	Sc 44.96	Ti 47.88	V 50.94	Cr 52.00	Mn 54.94	Fe 55.85	Co 58.93	Ni 58.71	Cu 63.55	Zn 65.38	Ga 69.72	Ge 72.64	As 74.92	Se 78.96	Br 79.90	Kr 83.80	Rb 85.47
Rb 85.47	Sr 87.62	Y 88.91	Zr 91.22	Nb 92.91	Mo 95.94	Tc 98.91	Ru 101.07	Rh 102.91	Pd 106.42	Ag 107.87	Cd 112.41	In 114.82	Sn 118.71	Sb 121.76	Te 127.60	I 126.91	Xe 131.29	Cs 132.91
Fr 223.02	Ra 226.03	Ac 227.03	Th 232.04	Pa 231.04	U 238.03	Np 237.05	Pu 244.06	Am 243.06	Cm 247.07	Bk 247.07	Cf 251.08	Es 252.08	Fm 257.09	Mn 258.10	Lr 260.11			

Lanthanides: La (138.91), Ce (140.12), Pr (140.91), Nd (144.24), Pm (144.91), Sm (150.36), Eu (151.96), Gd (157.25), Tb (158.93), Dy (162.50), Ho (164.93), Er (167.26), Tm (168.93), Yb (173.05), Lu (174.97)

Actinides: Ac (227.03), Th (232.04), Pa (231.04), U (238.03), Np (237.05), Pu (244.06), Am (243.06), Cm (247.07), Bk (247.07), Cf (251.08), Es (252.08), Fm (257.09), Mn (258.10), Lr (260.11)

→ pretty much everything obeys this principle

→ what about 2-D image?

Question: why is this the case?

A connection to linear algebra . . .

Actually, linear algebra comes to the rescue.

- yes, there was a reason for studying linear algebra
- university is a good place after all
- where is my linear algebra textbook?

Simple signals (sine waves): building blocks of more complicated signals

Analogous to “basis” in linear algebra

other elements (vectors) can be expressed as sums of simple elements (basis vectors)

Ex.: in 3-D

→ $\{(1, 0, 0), (0, 1, 0), (0, 0, 1)\}$ form a basis

→ $(7, 2, 4) = 7 \cdot (1, 0, 0) + 2 \cdot (0, 1, 0) + 4 \cdot (0, 0, 1)$

→ coefficients: 7, 2, 4

→ more precisely: *bases may have to be multiplied*

→ called linear combination

Coefficients are *very* important:

→ even have special name: spectrum

Note: bases need not be $\{(1, 0, 0), (0, 1, 0), (0, 0, 1)\}$

→ $\{(2, 0, 0), (0, 4, 0), (0, 0, 5)\}$ is fine too

→ what's the spectrum of $(7, 2, 4)$?

→ is $\{(11, 6, 3), (2, 500, 7), (31, 44, 1)\}$ valid basis?

→ in general, to qualify as a basis ...

→ how many elements in a basis set?

Is there anything special about the basis set

$\{(1, 0, 0), (0, 1, 0), (0, 0, 1)\}$?

Yes, $\{(1, 0, 0), (0, 1, 0), (0, 0, 1)\}$ is orthogonal:

$$\longrightarrow (1, 0, 0) \circ (0, 1, 0) = 0$$

$$\longrightarrow (1, 0, 0) \circ (0, 0, 1) = 0$$

$$\longrightarrow (0, 1, 0) \circ (0, 0, 1) = 0$$

where “ \circ ” is the dot product

$$(x_1, x_2, x_3) \circ (y_1, y_2, y_3) = x_1y_1 + x_2y_2 + x_3y_3$$

Furthermore,

$$\longrightarrow (1, 0, 0) \circ (1, 0, 0) = 1$$

$$\longrightarrow (0, 1, 0) \circ (0, 1, 0) = 1$$

$$\longrightarrow (0, 0, 1) \circ (0, 0, 1) = 1$$

OK, so what’s the big deal?

\longrightarrow why is orthogonality relevant

Allows us to calculate coefficients of basis

→ algorithm for finding spectrum

Given basis set $\{(1, 0, 0), (0, 1, 0), (0, 0, 1)\}$

→ $(7, 2, 4) = 7 \cdot (1, 0, 0) + 2 \cdot (0, 1, 0) + 4 \cdot (0, 0, 1)$

→ spectrum: 7, 2, 4

→ “reading off”: cheating!

→ what is the general principle?

To compute spectrum of $(1, 0, 0)$ for $(7, 2, 4)$:

→ take dot product: $(7, 2, 4) \circ (1, 0, 0) = 7$

→ why does it work?

Since $(7, 2, 4) = 7 \cdot (1, 0, 0) + 2 \cdot (0, 1, 0) + 4 \cdot (0, 0, 1)$,

we have

$$\begin{aligned} (7, 2, 4) \circ (1, 0, 0) &= [7 \cdot (1, 0, 0) + 2 \cdot (0, 1, 0) + 4 \cdot (0, 0, 1)] \circ (1, 0, 0) \\ &= 7 \cdot (1, 0, 0) \circ (1, 0, 0) \\ &\quad + 2 \cdot (0, 1, 0) \circ (1, 0, 0) \\ &\quad + 4 \cdot (0, 0, 1) \circ (1, 0, 0) \\ &= 7 \cdot 1 + 2 \cdot 0 + 4 \cdot 0 \\ &= 7 \end{aligned}$$

Note: works for *any* orthonormal basis

$$\{(x_1, x_2, x_3), (y_1, y_2, y_3), (z_1, z_2, z_3)\}$$

Vector spaces:

- finite dimensional

→ e.g., 7-dimensional: $(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5, x_6, x_7)$

→ subject of linear algebra

- infinite dimensional: signal $s(t)$

→ e.g., infinite number of components (x_1, x_2, \dots)

→ or continuously varies with t

→ infinite number of bases

→ bad news: cannot use linear algebra in either case

→ good news: same basic principles

Why is knowing the coefficients (spectrum) important?

Two reasons:

- allows us to transmit bits faster
 - the foundation of today's *high-speed* networks
- makes life a little easier

First reason: Allows us to transmit bits faster

How?

Two steps:

- Step 1: Encode bit in the coefficient
 - coefficient 1: bit 1
 - coefficient 0: bit 0
 - spectrum is important because it hides the bit
 - not much to it (step 2 is the interesting one)

- Step 2: To increase bps k -fold
 - say from 1 bps to 100 bps if $k = 100$
 - use k -dimensional orthonormal basis vectors
 - call them $\mathbf{x}^1, \mathbf{x}^2, \dots, \mathbf{x}^k$
 - call k data bits: a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k
 - to be sent *simultaneously* (hence k -fold faster!)
 - sender prepares $\mathbf{z} = a_1\mathbf{x}^1 + a_2\mathbf{x}^2 + \dots + a_k\mathbf{x}^k$
 - \mathbf{z} is another k -dimensional vector (“scrambled”)
 - sender transmits \mathbf{z} in one step

 - receiver gets \mathbf{z}
 - to recover first bit a_1 , calculates $\mathbf{z} \circ \mathbf{x}^1$
 - we established: $\mathbf{z} \circ \mathbf{x}^1 = a_1$
 - in parallel: do the same for $\mathbf{z} \circ \mathbf{x}^i = a_i$

Powerful technique.

→ courtesy of linear algebra

What if we wanted to add security?

→ e.g., protect against eavesdropping?

The above linear algebra method (of course, simplified) is used by some cellular providers (e.g., Sprint) to carry k customer calls simultaneously

→ called CDMA

→ note: all voice calls are digital (transmit bits)

Second reason: makes life a little easier

- broader implications than computer networks
- laid back attitude
- don't sweat the little things
- in science & engineering jargon: let's approximate!

Focus on what's *important*.

Take $(7, 2, 4)$.

- which building block is most important?
- $(1, 0, 0)$ since it's multiplied by 7
- least important: $(0, 1, 0)$

From an approximation angle

- $(7, 2, 4)$ kind of looks like $(7, 0, 0)$
- $(7, 0, 4)$ is pretty close
- $(7, 2, 4)$ is 100% accurate

An aside:

In science & engineering: we almost never deal with exact things. (The same is true in mathematics.)

→ many times hard

→ most of the time: unnecessary

→ i.e., approximate answer is good enough

Thus science & engineering is about *managed* inaccuracy.

Some examples.

Ex.: computer science

- compression: JPEG, MPEG are all lossy
 - disk space forces us to approximate
 - luckily human eye or ear does the same
- caching: memory hierarchy
 - cache \mapsto RAM \mapsto disk
 - cache contains approximation of memory
 - memory contains approximation of disk
 - luckily it works
 - because programs obey locality-of-reference
- many more

Back to continuous signals $s(t)$.

In high-speed networks, we do not use finite dimensional vectors but continuous signals.

- instead of vectors, sine curves
- basis set is now comprised of sine curves
- an infinite number of them
- linear algebra concepts carry over

Specifically: $s(t)$ is viewed as the integral (i.e., sum)

$$s(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S(\omega) e^{i\omega t} d\omega$$

- signal $s(t)$ is a linear combination of the $e^{i\omega t}$
- recall: $e^{i\omega t} = \cos \omega t + i \sin \omega t$
- building block: sine curve
- basically: weighted sum of sine curves
- $S(\omega)$: coefficient of basis elements
- like a_i in $\mathbf{z} = a_1 \mathbf{x}^1 + a_2 \mathbf{x}^2 + \dots + a_k \mathbf{x}^k$
- note similarity: $\mathbf{z}(t) = \sum_{i=1}^k a_i \mathbf{x}^i(t)$
- called Fourier expansion

ω : cycles per second (Hz)

→ $\omega = 1/T$ where T is the period

→ called frequency

For the same reasons as before, coefficient $S(\omega)$ (i.e., spectrum) is important:

- allows us to transmit bits faster
 - high-speed simultaneous transmission
- makes life a little easier
 - approximation

Need to know how to compute $S(\omega)$

→ similar to dot product $\mathbf{z} \circ \mathbf{x}^i$ to get a_i

Formula to compute $S(\omega)$:

$$S(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} s(t)e^{-i\omega t} dt.$$

→ called Fourier transform

→ does it look like a “dot product”?

Note: $a_i = \mathbf{z} \circ \mathbf{x}^i$

→ keep in mind: dot product is sum of products

To send k bits simultaneously:

- pick k different frequencies $\omega_1, \omega_2, \dots, \omega_k$
 - in place of vectors $\mathbf{x}^1, \mathbf{x}^2, \dots, \mathbf{x}^k$
 - ω_i called carrier frequency
- encode k bits as high/low (e.g., 1 or 0) of the $S(\omega_i)$'s
- sender prepares $s(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S(\omega) e^{i\omega t} d\omega$
- sender transmits “scrambled” signal $s(t)$
- receiver gets $s(t)$
- receiver, in parallel, recovers i 'th bit by computing Fourier transform $S(\omega_i) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} s(t) e^{-i\omega_i t} dt$

- recall: bits cannot travel faster than SOL
- high-speed networks: parallel lanes
- different carrier frequencies ω_i : role of lanes
- more frequencies, more parallel transmission
- also called broadband networks