

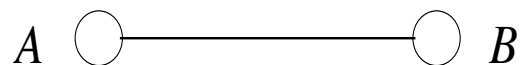
## FUNDAMENTALS OF INFORMATION TRANSMISSION

→ applies to both wired and wireless networks

→ special wireless features discussed later

### **Sending bits using physical signals**

Simplest case: hosts  $A$  and  $B$  are connected by point-to-point link



→ e.g.,  $A$  wants to send bits 011001 to  $B$

Choices for physical signals

- sound waves: air pressure changes
- underwater sonar: water pressure changes
- light: electromagnetic waves
- what else?

Preferred mode for data communication:

→ electromagnetic (EM) waves

→ why: it's fast (SOL) and other nice properties

→ but has not-so-good-properties too

What is an electromagnetic wave?

→ in principle: a complicated question involving quantum mechanics

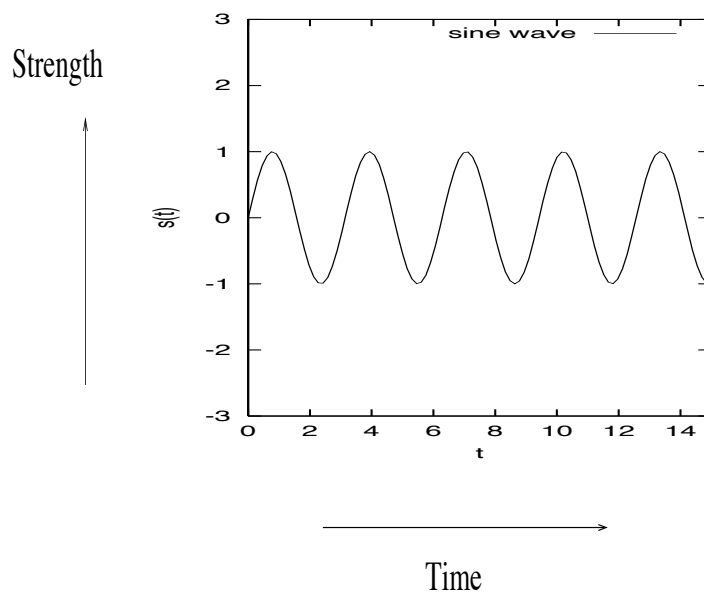
→ still part of physics and engineering research

In today's systems: only straightforward EM features are exploited

View EM as a “physical object” which has a strength (i.e., “loudness”) that may vary over time.

In its purest form, the strength (or magnitude, amplitude, power, energy) varies in a regular fashion.

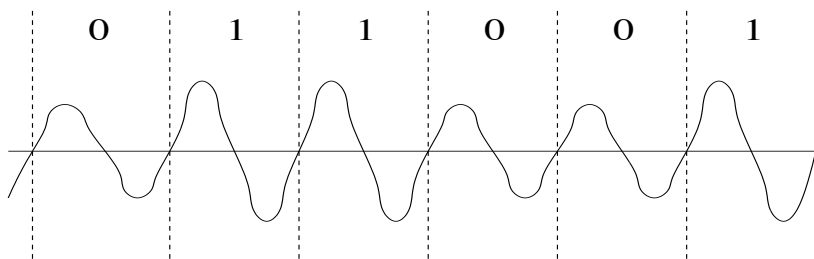
→ i.e., oscillating sine curve



Back to original problem:  $A$  wants to send  $B$  six bits  
011001

→ how do sine waves help?

utilize strength/amplitude to represent 1's and 0's



→ large amplitude: 1

→ small amplitude: 0

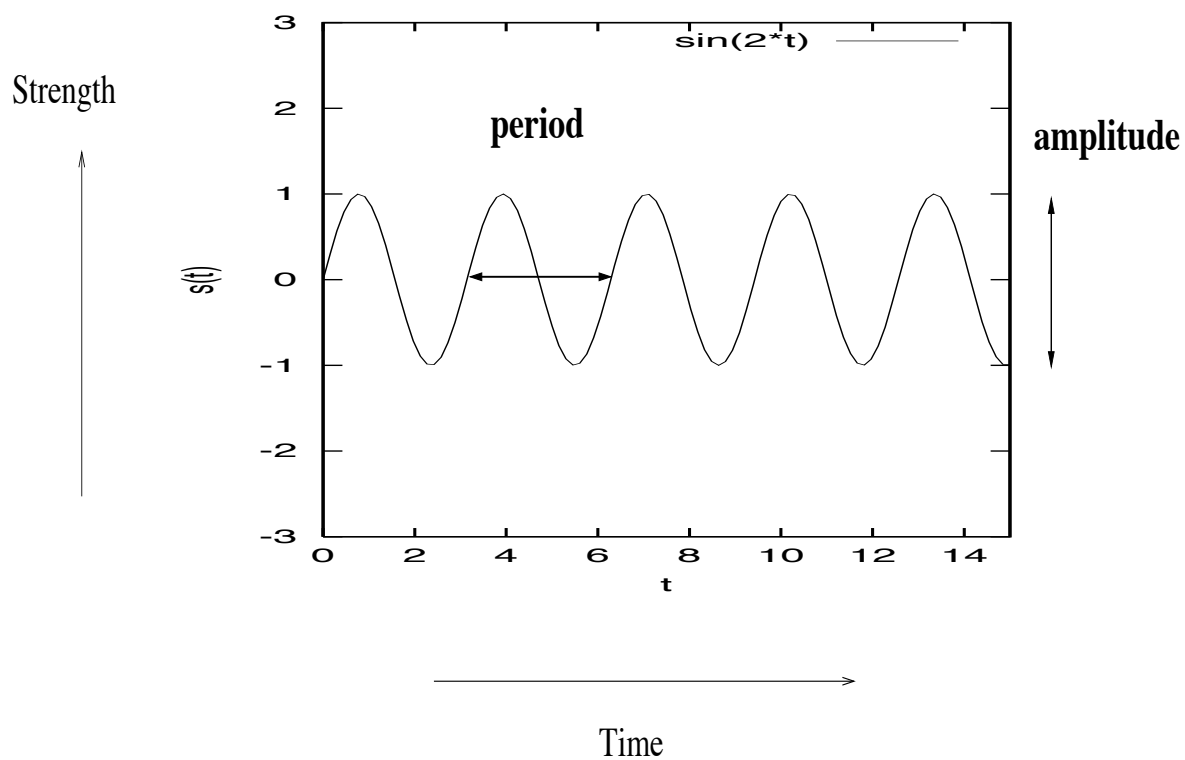
Method called amplitude modulation (AM)

→ i.e., manipulate/modulate amplitude to send bits

→ same concept as AM radio

→ difference?

Three key features of EM:



→ period (also called cycle):  $T$

→ amplitude

→ phase: i.e., shift in time

How many periods can we squeeze in per second?

→ frequency:  $1/T$

→ e.g., if period is 1 msec then frequency is 1000 cycles/sec

→ unit called Hertz (Hz)

Another unit: length (m)

In networks, often frequency is used to describe EM in place of period

→ one reason: allows easy translation to bandwidth (bps)

→ bps is of primary importance

Example: using AM to transmit bits from  $A$  to  $B$

→ bandwidth (bps) of point-to-point link

→ if frequency is 1 Hz then bandwidth 1 bps

→ if 1 MHz then 1 Mbps

→ if 1 GHz then 1 Gbps

→ if 1 THz then 1 Tbps

Networking problem solved! (Not quite.)

Before discussing if networking problem is solved

→ how to improve bps of AM system with tweaks

→ can we get 2 bps from 1 Hz frequency?

Issues with just increasing frequency:

One: increasing frequency requires increase in clock rate and processing speed

→ higher cost

Two: wireless propagation

→ above 10 GHz requires line-of-sight (LOS)

→ complications due to multi-path propagation

Three: multi-user communication

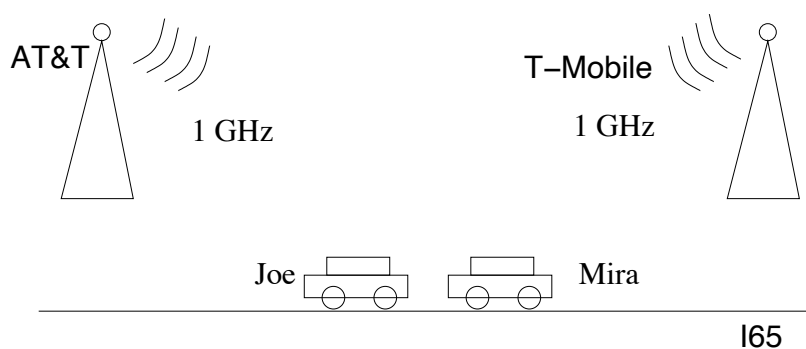
→ not just point-to-point links connecting two parties

→ key networking problem



## Problem of multi-user communication

### Example one: interference



Joe receives bits from AT&T's cell tower, Mira from T-Mobile.

→ but: Joe also hears T-Mobile's signal, Mira hears AT&T's signal

→ what specifically does Joe's smartphone hear?

Joe's device hears the sum of the two signals.

→ property of electromagnetic waves

→ i.e., superposition

Since what Joe's smartphone hears is not what AT&T cell tower sent

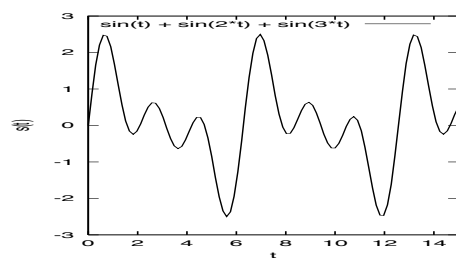
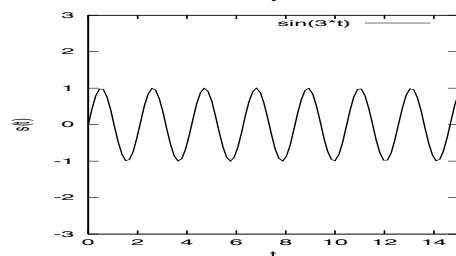
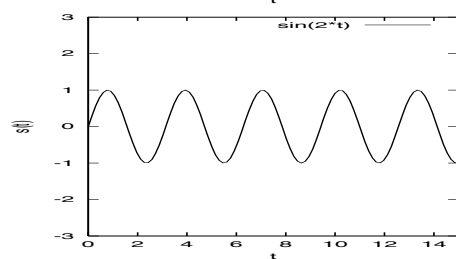
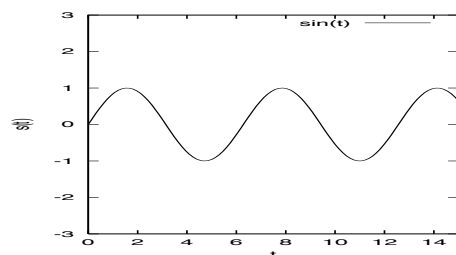
→ distorted signal may cause confusion

→ called interference

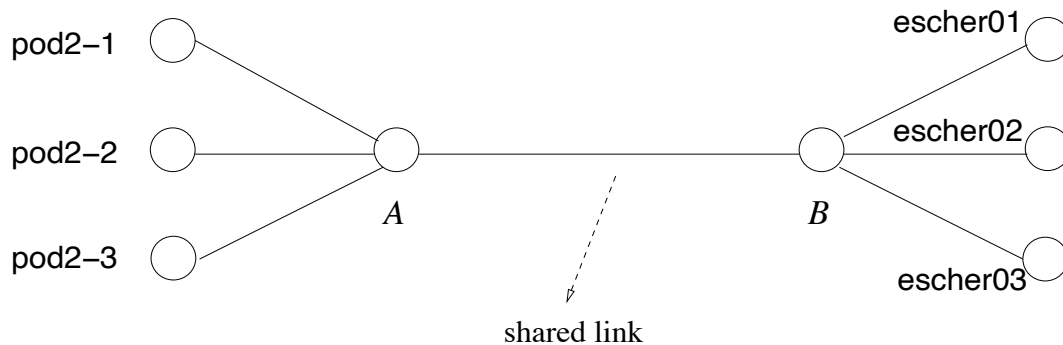
→ figuring out what bits were sent may fail

→ not good

Superposition of three sine waves:



## Example two: multiplexing



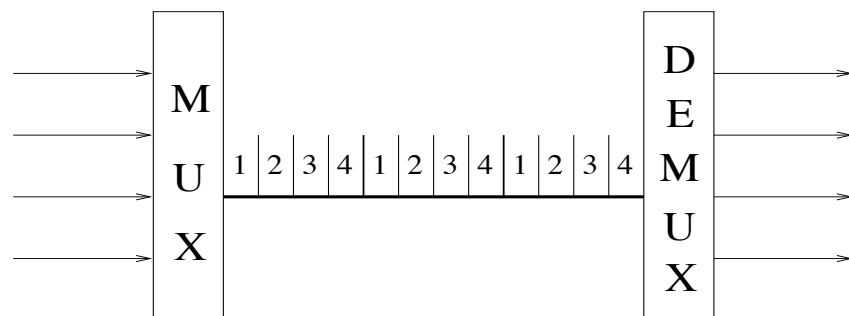
- LWSN B148/HAAS G56 machines:  $A$  and  $B$  are Ethernet switches
- bits from pod2-1 to escher01 share the point-to-point link with bits from pod2-2 to escher02
- $A$  and  $B$  are routers/switches that forward multiple traffic streams

Approach based on AM method of sending bits using sine waves:

→ time-division multiplexing (TDM)

Ex.: four bit streams sharing same link

→ reserve time slots for each bit stream



→ user 1 gets slots 1, 5, 9, etc.

→ user 2 gets slots 2, 6, 10, etc.

→ router *A*: acts as multiplexer (MUX) or combiner

→ router *B*: acts as demultiplexer (DEMUX) or splitter

TDM, or TDMA (time-division multiple access) when emphasizing multiple users, is popular in cellular systems and traditional landline telephone systems.

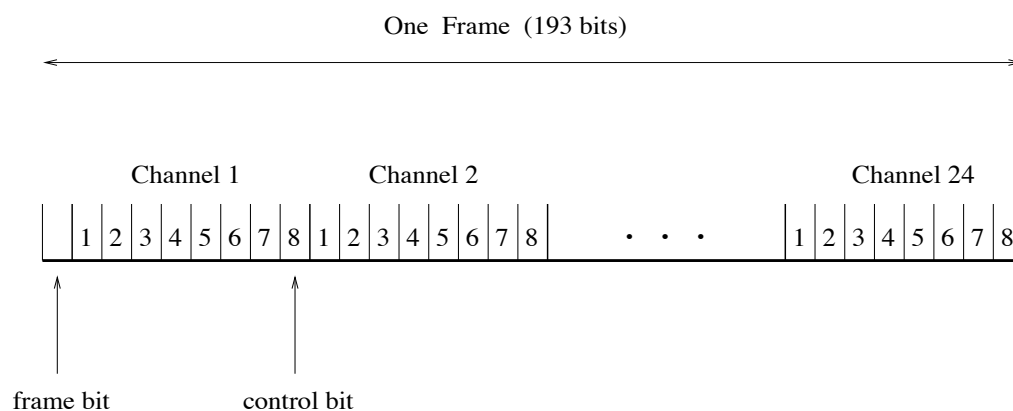
→ e.g., both AT&T and T-Mobile use TDMA

→ 4G/LTE and 5G: OFDMA

Real-world TDMA example from wired world:

→ T1 carrier (1.544 Mbps)

→ goal: support 24 simultaneous users (“channels”)



Specs of T1 carrier:

- 24 channels (i.e., users)
- time slot: 8-bit block (each user sends 8 consecutive bits)
- $24 \times 8 = 192$  bits of payload
- plus 1 control bit: total 193 bits in a frame (unit of packaged data)
- squeeze 8000 frames into 1 second time interval  
→ frame duration:  $125 \mu\text{sec}$
- bandwidth (bps):  $8000 \times 193 = 1.544 \text{ Mbps}$

At one time, popular service sold by ISPs (mainly to companies)

- 20+ years back, Purdue leased about 6–7 T1 lines for the entire WL campus
- next level T3 line: 44.736 Mbps
- T1 line is still in use today . . .
- today: a single subscriber can get 1000 Mbps nominal download speed
- “true” 4G (aka 5G) cellular: 1 Gbps download speed



TDMA is an important multi-user link transmission technology

- works well if frequency is managed by central authority: e.g., single provider
- complications if frequency is shared by multiple providers: interference

What we want: multiple information lanes where multiple bit streams can be transmitted simultaneously

- what modern high-speed networks do
- use multiple frequencies
- e.g., 1 GHz and 2 GHz for two parallel lanes

How does using multiple frequencies for multiple lanes work?

- classical method
- improvements: our goal
- modern broadband networks

Roadmap:

- start with CDMA
  - coding methods to send parallel bit streams
  - conceptual basis for analog methods
- move on to FDMA
  - use analog signals (sinusoid) to send parallel bit streams
- OFDM based multiple access
  - extend FDMA to squeeze in many parallel bit streams

Linear algebra approach for sending multiple bit streams.

Example: three users Alice, Bob, Mira

→ simplest case: cell tower wants to send each user 1 bit

→ not use TDMA

Assign each user a 3-D vector: called code

→  $(1,0,0)$  for Alice

→  $(0,1,0)$  for Bob

→  $(0,0,1)$  for Mira

To send bit value 1 to Alice, 0 to Bob, 1 to Mira:

→ broadcast vector  $(1,0,1)$  to everyone

→ trivial: not much gained

Allow negative values:

→ send  $(1,-1,1)$ : 1 means 1, -1 means 0

In general: positive value means 1, negative value means 0

Consider assigning Alice, Bob, Mira code vectors:

→ Alice:  $(1,-2,1)$

→ Bob:  $(3,5,7)$

→ Mira:  $(19,4,-11)$

The code vectors are stored on their smart phones.

Cell tower transmits via broadcast:  $(17,-3,-17)$

→ ignore how the cell tower transmits  $(17, -3, -17)$  using electromagnetic waves

→ upon receiving  $(17, -3, -17)$ , how does Alice know what bit was sent?

Solution: Alice calculates dot product of received vector  $(17, -3, -17)$  with her code vector  $(1, -2, 1)$ .

Definition of dot product: Given two 3D vectors  $x = (x_1, x_2, x_3)$  and  $y = (y_1, y_2, y_3)$ , their dot (or inner) product is

$$x \circ y = x_1y_1 + x_2y_2 + x_3y_3$$

Hence, for Alice:

$$(17, -3, -17) \circ (1, -2, 1) = 17 + 6 - 17 = 6 > 0$$

→ positive means bit 1

$$\text{Bob: } (17, -3, -17) \circ (3, 5, 7) = 51 - 15 - 119 = -83 < 0$$

→ negative means bit 0

$$\text{Mira: } (17, -3, -17) \circ (19, 4, -11) = 323 - 12 + 187 = 498 > 0$$

→ positive means bit 1

Why does this work?

→ what is special about  $(1, -2, 1)$ ,  $(3, 5, 7)$ ,  $(19, 4, -11)$

→ where did  $(17, -3, -17)$  come from

The three code vectors are orthogonal:  $x \circ y = 0$

$$\rightarrow (1, -2, 1) \circ (3, 5, 7) = 3 - 10 + 7 = 0$$

$$\rightarrow (1, -2, 1) \circ (19, 4, -11) = 19 - 8 - 11 = 0$$

$$\rightarrow (3, 5, 7) \circ (19, 4, -11) = 57 + 20 - 77 = 0$$

The cell tower wants to send 1 to Alice, 0 to Bob, 1 to Mira.

The cell tower computed  $(17, -3, 17)$  to broadcast via:

$$\begin{aligned} (+1) \cdot (1, -2, 1) + (-1) \cdot (3, 5, 7) + (+1) \cdot (19, 4, -11) \\ = (17, -3, 17) \end{aligned}$$

When Alice performs dot product of received vector  $(17, -3, -17)$  with her code vector  $(1, -2, 1)$ , it is equivalent to

$$\{(+1) \cdot (1, -2, 1) + (-1) \cdot (3, 5, 7) + (+1) \cdot (19, 4, -11)\} \circ (1, -2, 1)$$

By orthogonality, the second and third terms vanish and what is left is

$$\rightarrow (+1)(1, -2, 1) \circ (1, -2, 1) = 1 + 4 + 1 = 6 > 0$$

$\rightarrow$  taking the dot product with oneself is always positive



For Bob:

$$\rightarrow (17, -3, -17) \circ (3, 5, 7) = 51 - 15 - 119 = -83 < 0$$

$\rightarrow$  negative means bit 0

For Mira:

$$\rightarrow (17, -3, -17) \circ (19, 4, -11) = 323 - 12 + 187 = 498 > 0$$

If we wanted the dot product for Alice to yield 1, Bob -1, Mira, 1, what can we do?

Why might we not want the result to be 1, -1, 1 but 6, -83, 498?

Thus in CDMA (code division multiple access) using algebra, we hide the bits in the coefficients of the code vectors.

- in TDMA we divide time to transmit multiple bits in time slots
- in CDMA, we “divide” code to transmit multiple bits as coefficients
- coefficients are called spectrum

In CDMA, coding is used to encode multiple bits before transmission using electromagnetic waves occurs.

- e.g., Verizon, Sprint use CDMA
- if code vectors are chosen to be random, then additional feature of security

In general: to communicate  $n$  bits belonging to  $n$  users

- Assign  $n$  orthogonal code vectors in  $n$ -dimensional vector space

$$\rightarrow \mathbf{x}^1, \mathbf{x}^2, \dots, \mathbf{x}^n$$

- To encode  $n$  data bits  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$  (+1 for 1, -1 for 0), compute

$$\rightarrow \mathbf{z} = a_1\mathbf{x}^1 + a_2\mathbf{x}^2 + \dots + a_n\mathbf{x}^n$$

$\rightarrow \mathbf{z}$  is an  $n$ -dimensional vector that hides  $n$  bits in its coefficients (spectra)

$\rightarrow$  convert  $\mathbf{z}$  into analog signal and transmit to all receivers

- To decode user  $i$ 'th bit  $a_i$ , receiver computes dot product

$$\rightarrow \mathbf{z} \circ \mathbf{x}^i = a_i(\mathbf{x}^i \circ \mathbf{x}^i)$$

$\rightarrow$  by orthogonality