

INTRODUCTION TO EECS II DIGITAL COMMUNICATION SYSTEMS

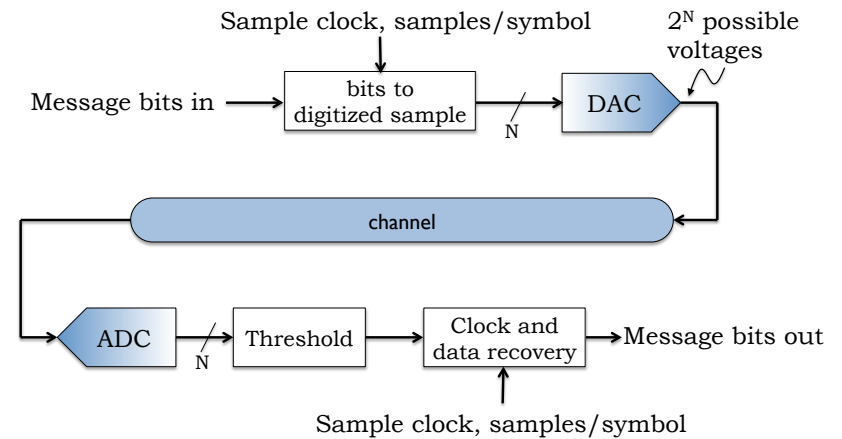
6.02 Spring 2011 Lecture #3

- Analog woes, the digital abstraction
- Basic digital recipes for sending information

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Lecture 3, Slide #1

Diagram of a Communication Channel



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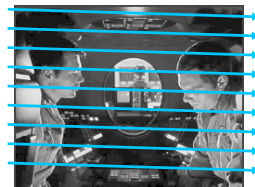
Lecture 3, Slide #2

Representing information with voltage

Representation of each point (x, y) on a B&W Picture:

0 volts: BLACK
1 volt: WHITE
0.37 volts: 37% Gray
etc.

Representation of a picture:
Scan points in some prescribed
raster order... generate voltage
waveform



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Lecture 3, Slide #3

System Building Blocks

- First let's introduce some processing blocks:



$v \rightarrow \text{Copy} \rightarrow v$



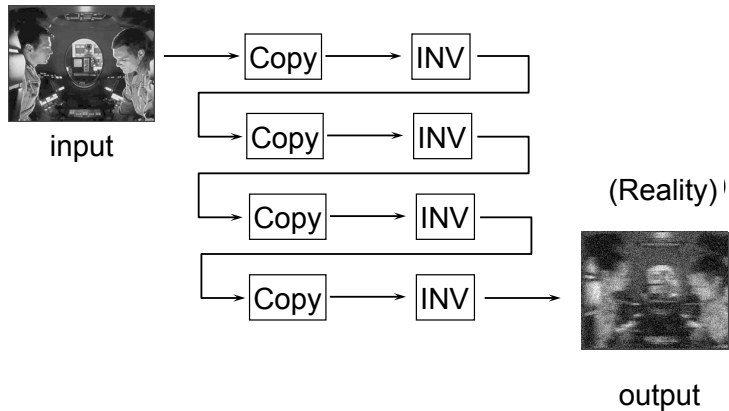
$v \rightarrow \text{INV} \rightarrow 1-v$



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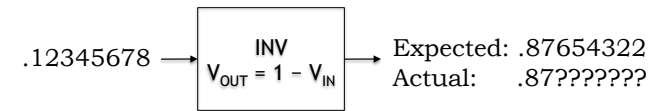
Let's build a system!



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Lecture 3, Slide #5

Analog Woes



The actual value of V_{OUT} depends on many factors:

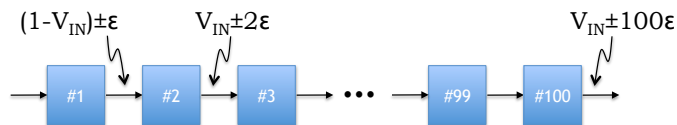
- Manufacturing tolerance of internal components
- Environmental factors (temp, power supply voltage)
- External influences (EM effects that affect voltages)
- How long we're willing to wait
- How much we're willing to spend

Truth in advertising: $V_{OUT} = (1 - V_{IN}) \pm \epsilon$ If we call it ϵ maybe it'll seem small ☺

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Lecture 3, Slide #6

Analog Errors Accumulate



- If, say, $\epsilon = 1\%$, then result might be 100% off (urk!)
- Accumulation is good for money, bad for errors
- As system builders we want to guarantee output without having to worry about exact internal details
 - Bound number of processing stages in series OR
 - Figure out a way to eliminate errors at each processing stage. So how do we know *which part of the signal is message and which is error?*

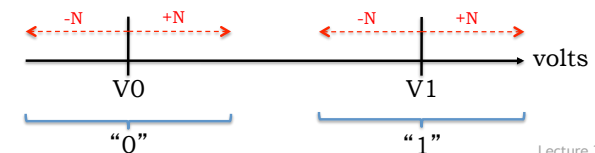
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Lecture 3, Slide #7

Digital Signaling: Transmitting

To ensure we can distinguish signal from noise, we'll encode information using a fixed set of discrete values. For example, in a **binary signaling scheme** we would use two voltages (V_0 and V_1) to represent the two binary values "0" and "1".

- voltages near V_0 would be interpreted as representing "0"
- voltages near V_1 would be interpreted as representing "1"
- if we would like our encoding to work reliably with up to $\pm N$ volts of noise, then we can space V_0 and V_1 far enough apart so that even noisy signals are interpreted correctly

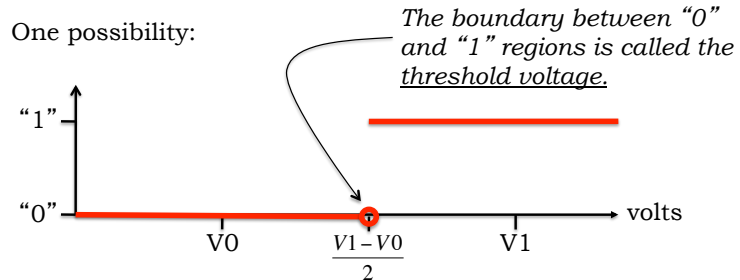


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Lecture 3, Slide #8

Digital Signaling: Receiving

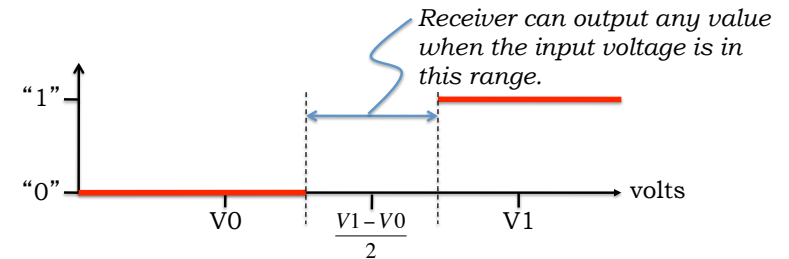
We can specify the behavior of the receiver with a graph that shows how incoming voltages are mapped to “0” and “1”.



It would be hard to build a receiver that met this specification since it’s very expensive and time consuming to accurately measure voltages (e.g., those near the threshold voltage).

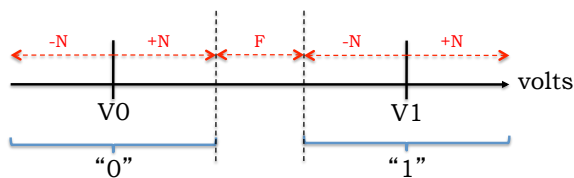
We Need a “Forbidden Zone”

We need to change our specification to include a “forbidden zone” where there is *no mapping* between the continuous input voltage and the discrete output:



Now the specification has some “elbow room” which allows for manufacturing and environmental differences from receiver to receiver.

Digital Signaling: Final Specification



Engineering tradeoffs when choosing F , the width in volts of the forbidden zone:

Smaller F : allows larger N (better noise tolerance), but receiver is more expensive to build (tighter manufacturing and environmental tolerances).

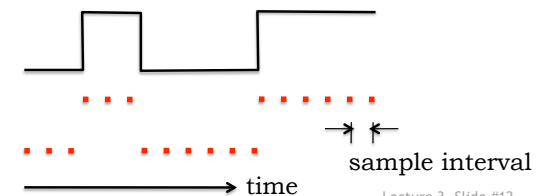
Larger F : less noise tolerance, but cheaper, faster receivers.

Digital Signaling in 6.02

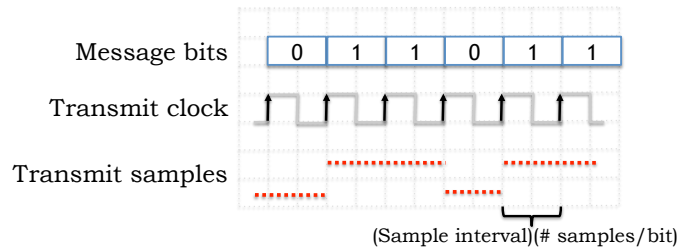
- In 6.02 we’ll represent voltage waveforms using sequences of voltage samples
 - Sample rate specifies the number of samples/second and hence the time interval between samples, e.g., 4×10^6 samples/second (4 Msps) means the time interval between samples is $.25 \times 10^{-6}$ seconds (250ns).
 - Each transmission of a single bit (“0” or “1”) will entail sending some number of consecutive voltage samples (V_0 or V_1 volts); we’ll choose an appropriate number of samples/bit in each application. Goal: smaller is better!

Continuous time

Discrete time



Transmitting Information

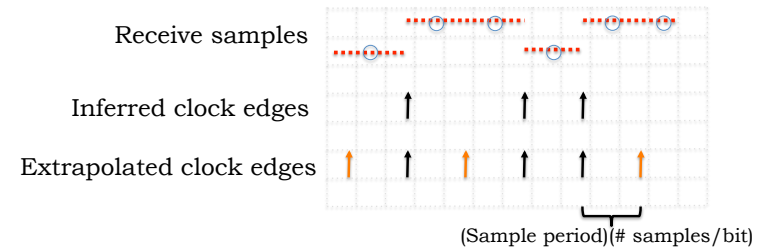


- Periodic events are timed by a clock signal
 - Sample period is controlled by the sample clock
 - Transmit clock is a submultiple of the sample clock
- Can receiver do its job if we only send samples and not the transmit clock?
 - Save a wire and the power needed to drive clock signal

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Lecture 3, Slide #13

Clock Recovery @ Receiver



- Receiver can infer presence of clock edge every time there's a transition in the received samples.
- Using sample period, extrapolate remaining edges
 - Now know first and last sample for each bit
- Choose “middle” sample to determine message bit

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Lecture 3, Slide #14

Two Issues for Recitation

- Don't want receiver to extrapolate over too long an interval
 - Differences in xmit & rcv clock periods will eventually cause receiver to mis-sample the incoming waveform
 - Fix: ensure transitions every so often, even if transmitting all 0's or all 1's (key idea: recoding)
- If recovered message bit stream represents, say, 8-bit blocks of ASCII characters, how does receiver determine where the blocks start?
 - Need out-of-band information about block starts
 - Fix: use special bit sequences to periodically synchronize receiver's notion of block boundaries. These sync sequences must be unique (i.e., distinguishable from ordinary message traffic).

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Lecture 3, Slide #15

Summary

- Analog signaling has issues
 - Real-world circuits & channels introduce errors
 - Errors accumulate at each processing step
- Digital Abstraction
 - Convention for analog signaling that lets us distinguish message from errors; restore signal at each step
 - Noise margins and forbidden zones
 - Recover digital data by comparing against threshold
- Receiver design
 - We don't send xmit clock, receiver does clock recovery
 - Determine bit from samples in “middle” of bit cell

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Lecture 3, Slide #16