



NORTHWESTERN
UNIVERSITY

EECS 369: Introduction to Sensor Networks

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Week2: Overview of Communication and Networking – PartI





Electromagnetic Signals – time domain

- # Strength of the signal (at space) = Function of time
- # Can also be expressed as a function of frequency
 - Signal consists of components of different frequencies
- # Analog signal - signal intensity varies in a smooth fashion over time
 - No breaks or discontinuities in the signal
- # Digital signal - signal intensity maintains a constant level for some period of time and then changes to another constant level
- # Periodic signal - analog or digital signal pattern that repeats over time
 - $s(t + T) = s(t)$
 - where T is the period of the signal



Electromagnetic Signals – time domain

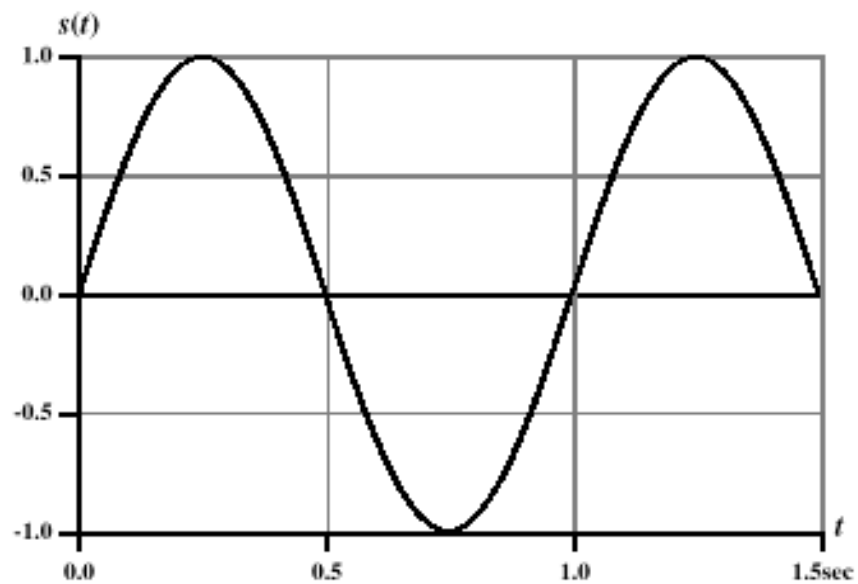
- # Aperiodic signal - analog or digital signal pattern that doesn't repeat over time
- # Peak amplitude (A) - maximum value or strength of the signal over time (e.g., measured in volts)
- # Frequency (f)
 - Rate, in cycles per second, or Hertz (Hz) at which the signal repeats
- # Period (T) - amount of time it takes for one repetition of the signal
 - $T = 1/f$
- # Phase (ϕ) - measure of the relative position in time within a single period of a signal
- # Wavelength (λ) - distance occupied by a single cycle of the signal
 - Or, the distance between two points of corresponding phase of two consecutive cycles



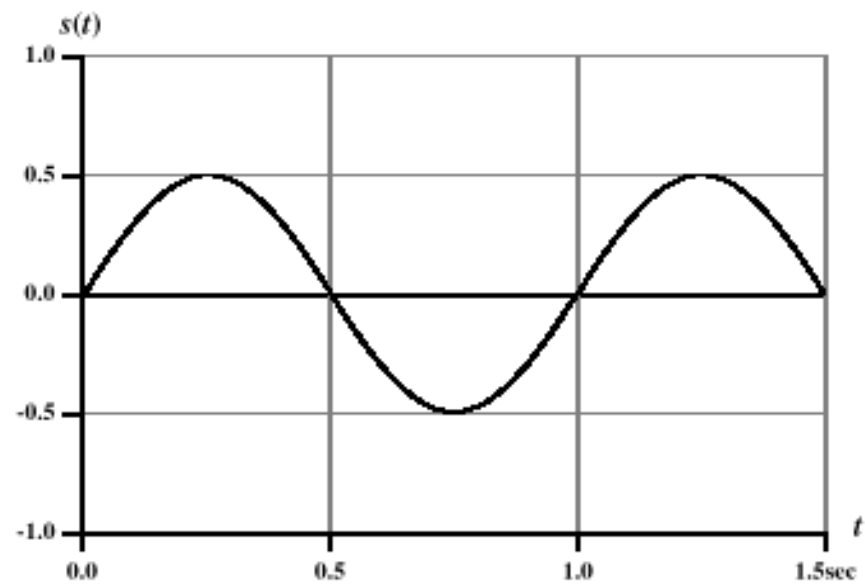
Electromagnetic Signals – time domain (sine-waves)

- # General sine wave
 - $s(t) = A \sin(2\pi ft + \phi)$
- # One can vary each of the three parameters in the definition
 - (a) $A = 1, f = 1 \text{ Hz}, \phi = 0$; thus $T = 1 \text{ s}$
 - (b) Reduced peak amplitude; $A=0.5$
 - (c) Increased frequency; $f = 2$, thus $T = 1/2$
 - (d) Phase shift; $\phi = \pi/4$ radians (45 degrees)
- # note: 2π radians = $360^\circ = 1$ period

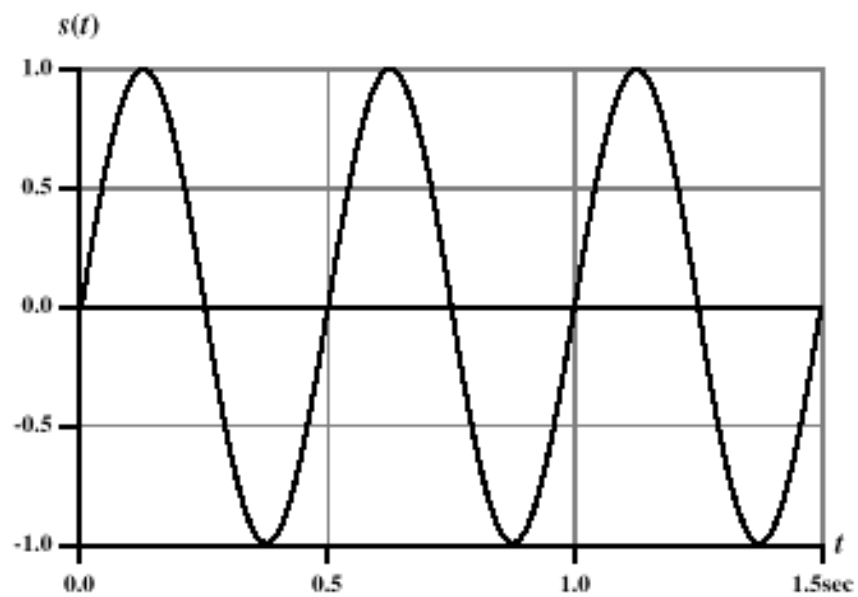
- # When the horizontal axis is *time*, graphs show value of a signal at a given point in *space* as a function of *time*
- # With the horizontal axis in *space*, graphs show value of a signal at a given point in *time* as a function of *distance*
 - At a particular instant of time, the intensity of the signal varies as a function of distance from the source



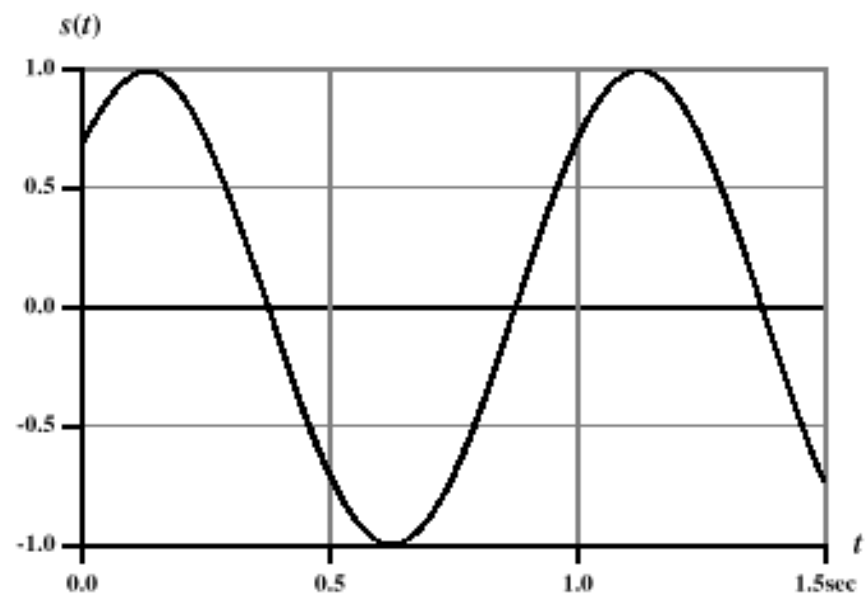
(a) $A = 1, f = 1, \phi = 0$



(b) $A = 0.5, f = 1, \phi = 0$



(c) $A = 1, f = 2, \phi = 0$



(d) $A = 1, f = 1, \phi = \pi/4$

Figure 2.3 $s(t) = A \sin (2 ft + \phi)$



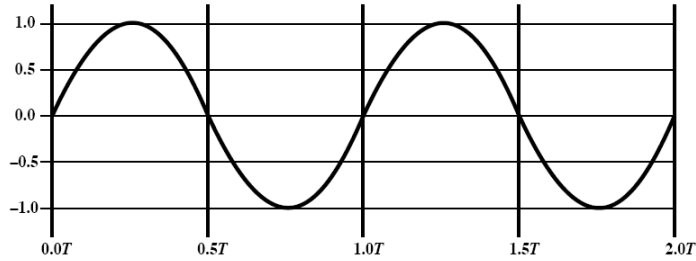
Electromagnetic signals: frequency-domain

- # **Fundamental frequency** – the one of which all other frequency components of a signal are integer multiples of
- # **Spectrum** - range of frequencies that a signal contains
- # **Absolute bandwidth** - width of the spectrum of a signal
- # **Effective bandwidth** (or just bandwidth) - narrow band of frequencies that most of the signal's energy is contained in

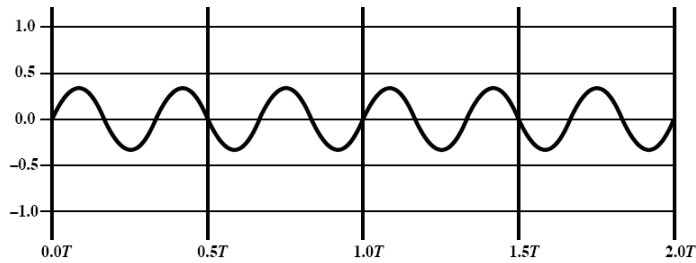
- # Any (including electromagnetic) signal can be shown to consist of a collection of periodic analog signals (sine waves) at different amplitudes, frequencies, and phases (Note: aperiodic signals have a **continuum** of frequencies in their spectrum...)
- # Key mathematical tool: **Fourier Transform**



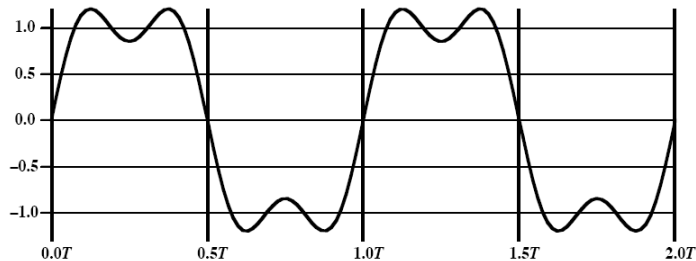
Electromagnetic signals – time vs. frequency



(a) $\sin(2\pi ft)$



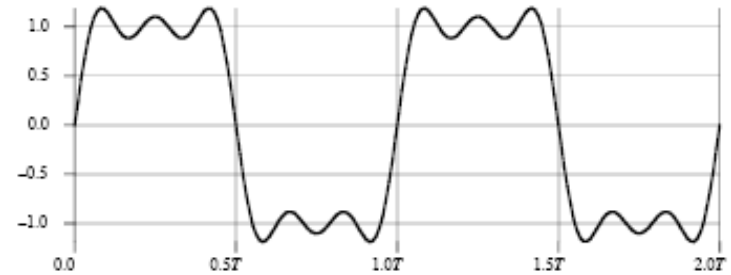
(b) $(1/3) \sin(2\pi(3f)t)$



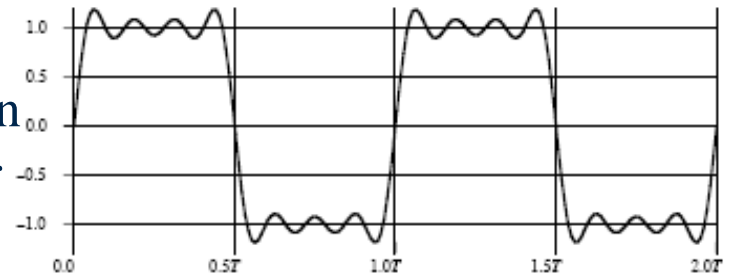
(c) $(4/\pi) [\sin(2\pi ft) + (1/3) \sin(2\pi(3f)t)]$



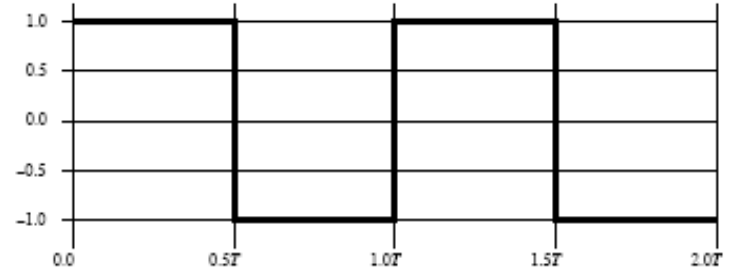
Illustration of Fourier Theorem



(a) $(4/\pi) [\sin(2\pi ft) + (1/3) \sin(2\pi(3f)t) + (1/5) \sin(2\pi(5f)t)]$



(b) $(4/\pi) [\sin(2\pi ft) + (1/3) \sin(2\pi(3f)t) + (1/5) \sin(2\pi(5f)t) + (1/7) \sin(2\pi(7f)t)]$



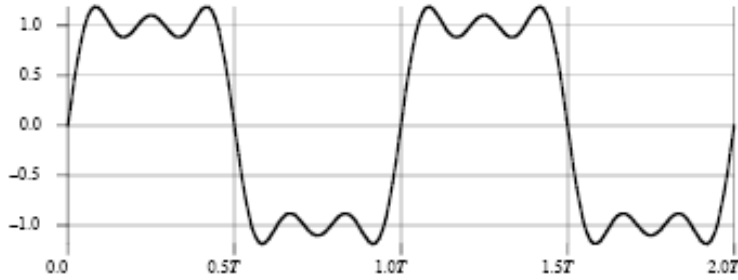
(c) $(4/\pi) \sum (1/k) \sin(2\pi(kf)t)$, for k odd

Adding different frequencies

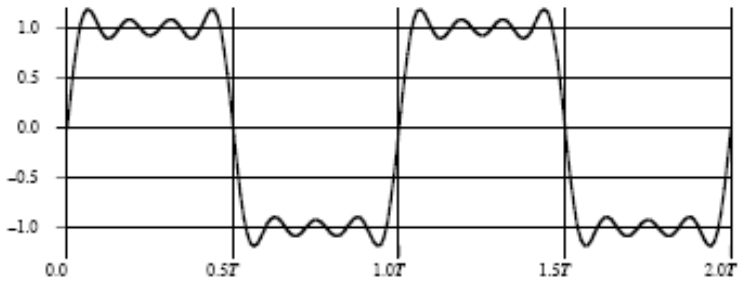
Approximating periodic signal With sine waves...



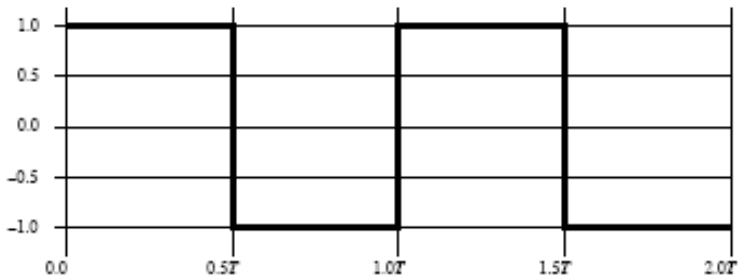
Electromagnetic signals – Fourier, spectra, bandwidth



(a) $(4/\pi) [\sin(2\pi ft) + (1/3) \sin(2\pi(3f)t) + (1/5) \sin(2\pi(5f)t)]$



(b) $(4/\pi) [\sin(2\pi ft) + (1/3) \sin(2\pi(3f)t) + (1/5) \sin(2\pi(5f)t) + (1/7) \sin(2\pi(7f)t)]$



(c) $(4/\pi) \sum (1/k) \sin(2\pi(kf)t)$, for k odd

Fundamental: f
 Spectrum: $\{f, 3f, 5f\}$
 Bandwidth: $[5f - f] = 4f$

Fundamental: f
 Spectrum: $\{f, 3f, 5f, 7f\}$
 Bandwidth: $[7f - f] = 6f$

Fundamental: f
 Spectrum: $\{f, 3f, 5f, 7f, 9f, 11f, \dots\}$
 Bandwidth: infinite...

NOTE: power = $F(\text{amplitude}) \Rightarrow$ most of the useful "information" contained in a "narrow" bandwidth



Electromagnetic signals – Fourier, spectra, bandwidth...

(Example:) Approximate the square wave of “0” and “1” with 3 sin-waves;
Assume that the main frequency is $f = 1\text{MHz}$;

Then:

- the bandwidth of the signal is $5f - f = 4f = 4\text{MHz}$.

Now, for $f = 1\text{MHz}$, the period is $t = 1/f = 10^{-6}\text{sec}$. To get a “feeling” about the capacity of a channel transmitting such signal, assume that this represents an alternating-bit-sequence: e.g., “1” or “0” occurs every half-period, which is, a new bit every $T/2 = 0.5\mu\text{s}$. Then:

- the speed of transmission (data rate) is $2 \times 10^6\text{bps} = 2\text{Mbps}$, for a channel with bandwidth of 4MHz with a fundamental frequency of 1MHz

Conclusions:

- Greater bandwidth => greater information-carrying capacity;
- A digital signal (even periodic!) will have infinite bandwidth;
- The system will limit the “useful” bandwidth (cost!)
- Any limit of the bandwidth will distort the signal...



Data, Signals, Communication...

- # **Data** - entities that convey meaning, or information
 - # **Analog**
 - Video
 - Audio
 - # **Digital**
 - Text
 - Integers
- # **Signals** - electric or electromagnetic representations of data
- # **Transmission** - communication of the data via the propagation and processing of the corresponding signals



Analog vs. Digital Signals

D G T L
I I A

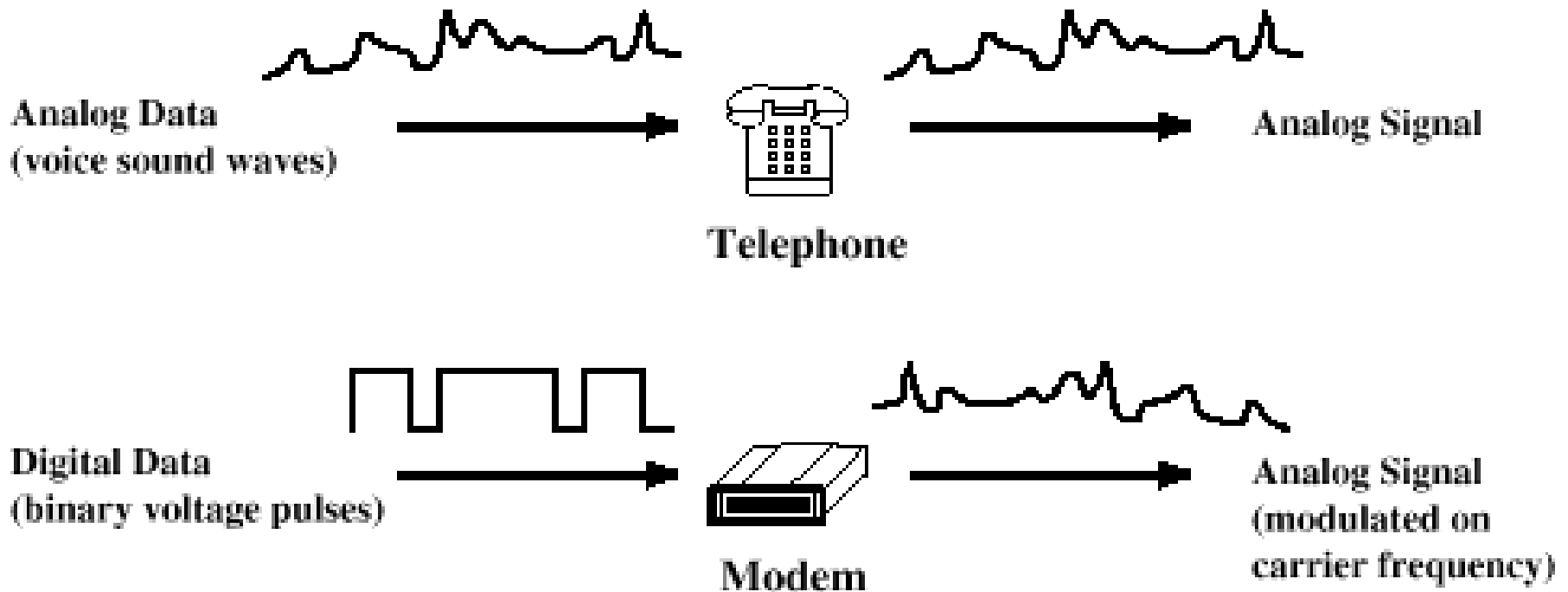
Analog

- # A continuously varying electromagnetic wave that may be propagated over a variety of media, depending on frequency
- # Examples of media:
 - Copper wire media (twisted pair and coaxial cable)
 - Fiber optic cable
 - Atmosphere or space propagation
- # Analog signals can propagate analog and digital data

- # A sequence of voltage pulses that may be transmitted over a copper wire medium
- # Generally cheaper than analog signaling
- # Less susceptible to noise interference
- # Suffer more from attenuation
- # Digital signals can propagate analog and digital data

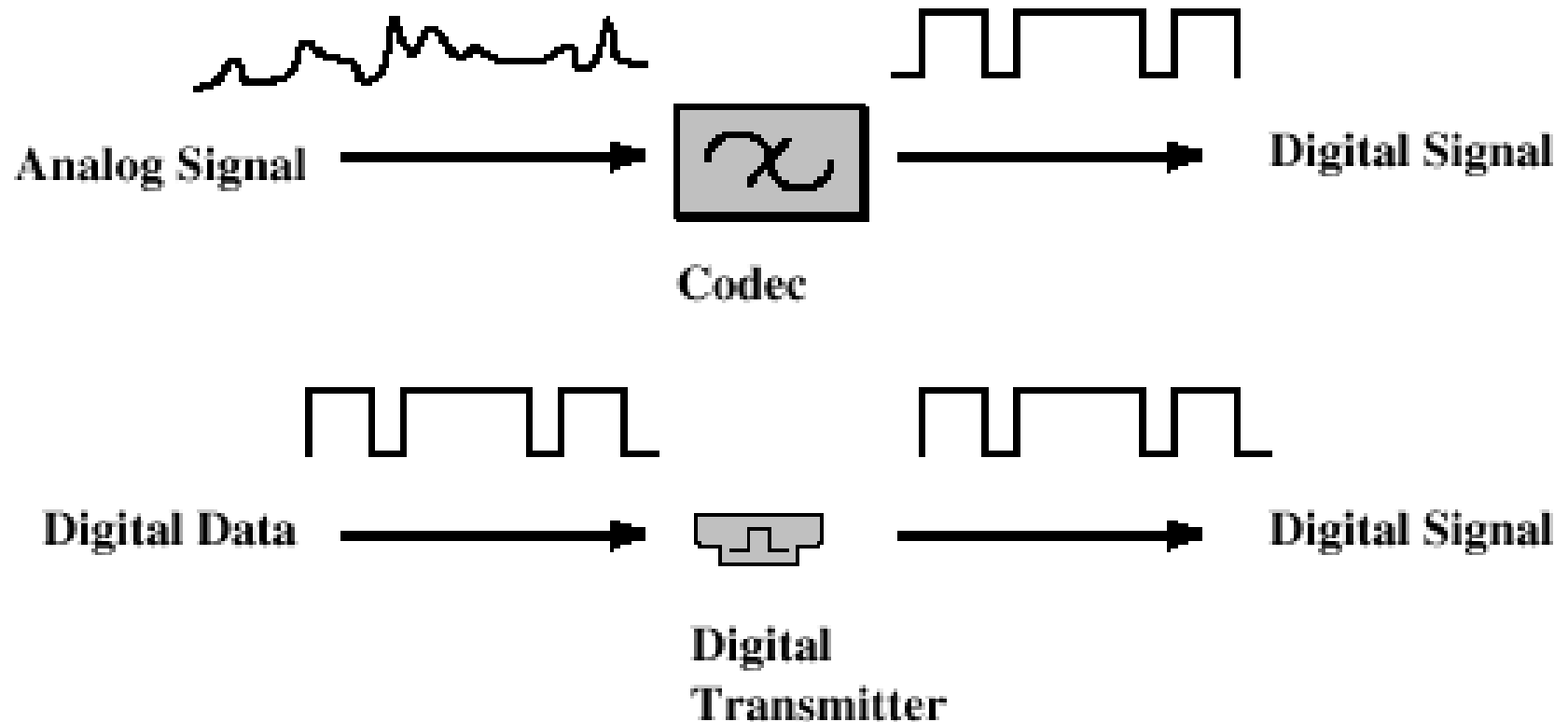
Analog Signaling

Analog Signals: Represent data with continuously varying electromagnetic wave



Digital Signaling

Digital Signals: Represent data with sequence of voltage pulses





Choosing (Data, Signal) Combinations

- # **Digital data, digital signal**
 - Equipment for encoding is less expensive than digital-to-analog equipment
- # **Analog data, digital signal**
 - Conversion permits use of modern digital transmission and switching equipment
- # **Digital data, analog signal**
 - Some transmission media will only propagate analog signals
 - Examples include optical fiber and satellite
- # **Analog data, analog signal**
 - Analog data easily converted to analog signal



Analog Transmission

- # Transmit analog signals without regard to content
- # Attenuation limits length of transmission link
- # Cascaded amplifiers boost signal's energy for longer distances but cause distortion
 - Analog data can tolerate distortion
 - Introduces errors in digital data



Digital Transmission

- ❏ Concerned with the content of the signal
- ❏ Attenuation endangers integrity of data
- ❏ Digital Signal
 - Repeaters achieve greater distance
 - Repeaters recover the signal and retransmit
- ❏ Analog signal carrying digital data
 - Retransmission device recovers the digital data from analog signal
 - Generates new, clean analog signal



Digital Channel Capacity

- ❏ Impairments, such as noise, limit data rate that can be achieved
- ❏ For digital data, to what extent do impairments limit data rate?
- ❏ Channel Capacity – the maximum rate at which data can be transmitted over a given communication path, or channel, under given conditions
- ❏ Data rate - rate at which data can be communicated (bps)
- ❏ Bandwidth - the bandwidth of the transmitted signal as constrained by the transmitter and the nature of the transmission medium (Hertz)



Multi-level improvements: Nyquist Bandwidth

- # Noise - average level of noise over the communications path
- # Error rate - rate at which errors occur
 - Error = transmit 1 and receive 0; transmit 0 and receive 1

- # Recall the Example: for binary signals (two voltage levels)
 - $C = 2B$
- # Can be improved with multilevel signaling:
 - $C = 2B \log_2 M$
 - M = number of discrete signal or voltage levels

In the context of the previous example, all other things being equal, if we have 8 different voltage levels, than the capacity of the channel would increase to 6 Mbps...



Noise Impact: Signal-to-Noise Ratio

- # Ratio of the power in a signal to the power contained in the noise that's present at a particular point in the transmission
- # Typically measured at a receiver
- # Signal-to-noise ratio (SNR, or S/N)

$$(SNR)_{dB} = 10 \log_{10} \frac{\text{signal power}}{\text{noise power}}$$

- # A high SNR means a high-quality signal, low number of required intermediate repeaters
- # SNR sets upper bound on achievable data rate, theoretically (Shannon):

$$C = B \log_2 (1 + SNR)$$

In practice, only much lower rates achieved:

- Formula assumes white noise (thermal noise), e.g., impulse noise is not accounted for
- Attenuation distortion or delay distortion not accounted for



Realistic Channel (Nyquist + Shannon)

Example:

- Assume: spectrum of a channel between 3 MHz and 4 MHz ;
 $\text{SNR}_{\text{dB}} = 24 \text{ dB}$. Then:

$$B = 4 \text{ MHz} - 3 \text{ MHz} = 1 \text{ MHz}$$

$$\text{SNR}_{\text{dB}} = 24 \text{ dB} = 10 \log_{10}(\text{SNR})$$

$$\text{SNR} = 251$$

- Using Shannon's formula

$$C = 10^6 \times \log_2(1 + 251) \approx 10^6 \times 8 = 8 \text{ Mbps}$$

- This can be achieved with:
different signaling levels

$$C = 2B \log_2 M$$

$$8 \times 10^6 = 2 \times (10^6) \times \log_2 M$$

$$4 = \log_2 M$$

$$M = 16$$



Types of Transmission Media

- ✦ **Transmission Medium** = Physical path between transmitter and receiver
- ✦ **Guided Media** = Waves are guided along a solid medium
 - E.g., copper twisted pair, copper coaxial cable, optical fiber
- ✦ **Unguided Media** = Provides means of transmission but does not guide electromagnetic signals
 - Usually referred to as wireless transmission
 - E.g., atmosphere, outer space
 - Transmission AND Reception done by an antenna (directional/omnidirectional)



General Frequency Ranges

802.11b;Bluetooth -> 2.4GHz
802.11a -> 5GHz

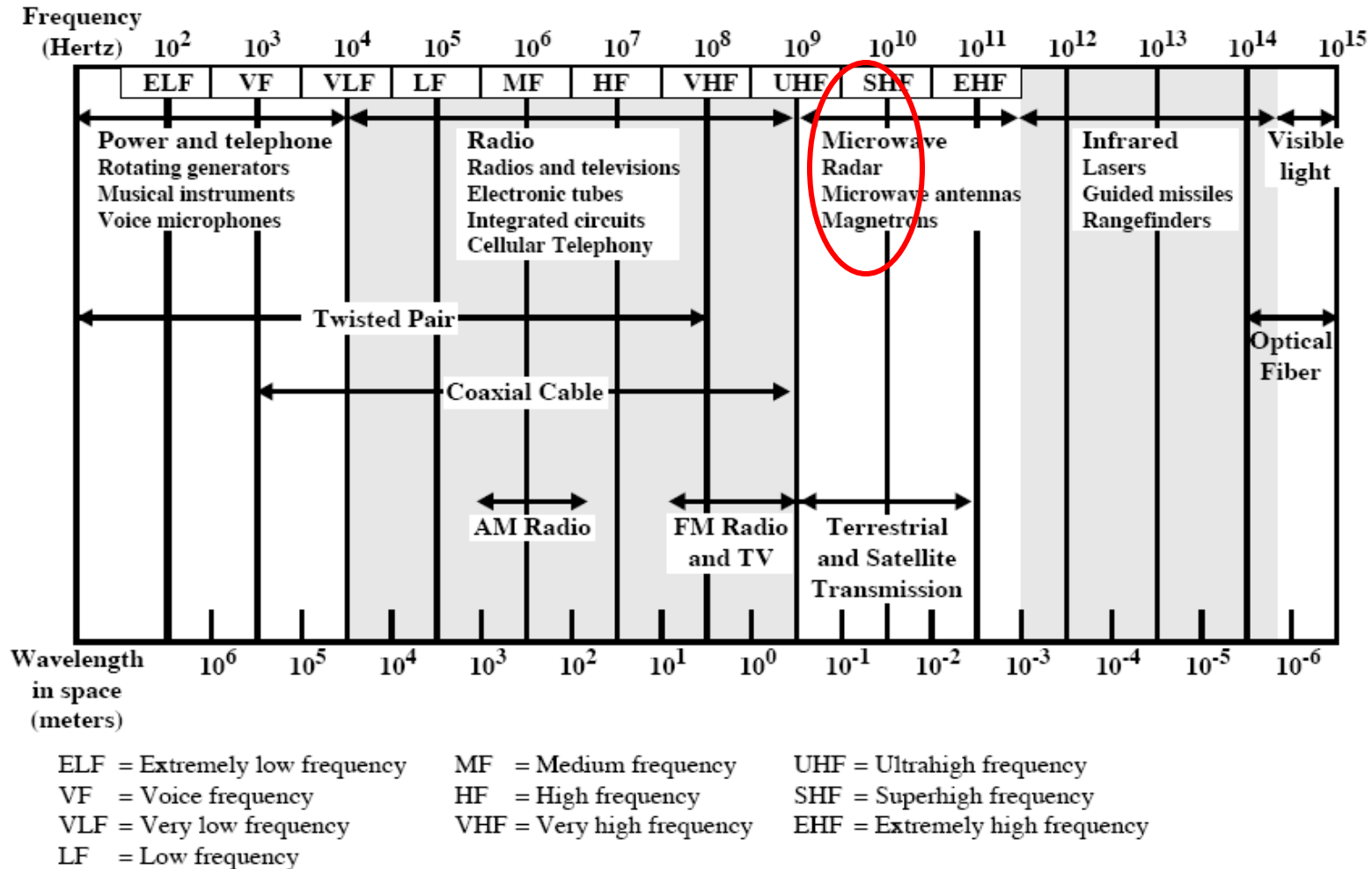
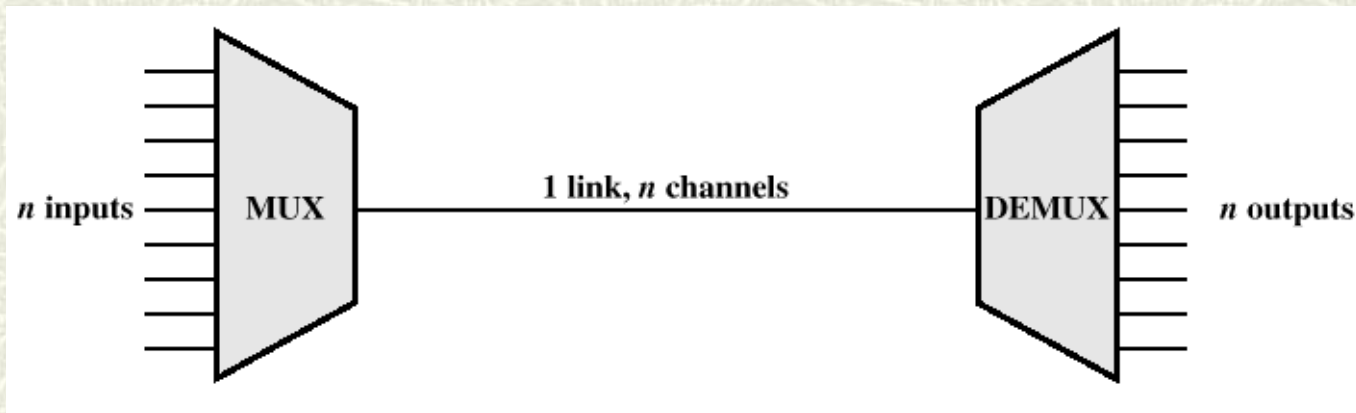


Figure 2.10 Electromagnetic Spectrum for Telecommunications



Multiplexing in Communication

- Capacity of transmission medium usually exceeds capacity required for transmission of a single signal
- Multiplexing - carrying multiple signals on a single medium
 - More efficient use of transmission medium



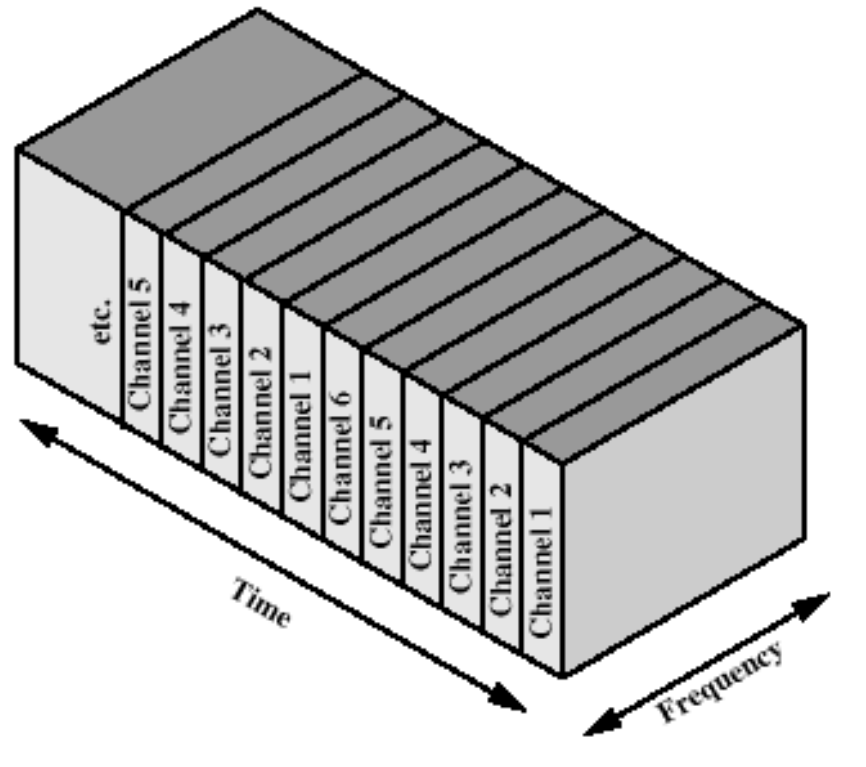
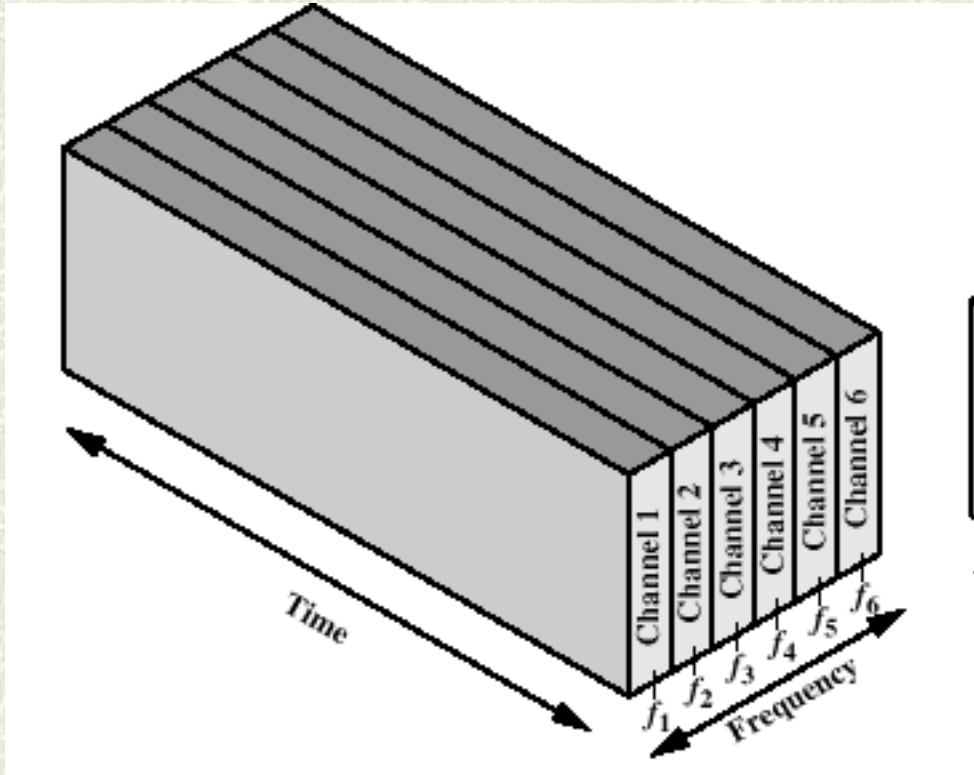


Why Multiplexing...(FDM vs. TDM)

- # Cost per kbps of transmission facility declines with an increase in the data rate
 - # Cost of transmission and receiving equipment declines with increased data rate
 - # Most individual data communicating devices require relatively modest data rate support
-
- # Frequency-division multiplexing (FDM)
 - Takes advantage of the fact that the useful bandwidth of the medium exceeds the required bandwidth of a given signal
 - # Time-division multiplexing (TDM)
 - Takes advantage of the fact that the achievable bit rate of the medium exceeds the required data rate of a digital signal



FDM vs. TDM





Transmission – Signal Encoding Criteria

- # What determines how successful a receiver will be in interpreting an incoming signal?
 - Signal-to-noise ratio
 - Data rate
 - Bandwidth
- # An increase in data rate increases bit error rate
- # An increase in SNR decreases bit error rate
- # An increase in bandwidth allows an increase in data rate
- # **Signal interference and noise immunity**
 - **Performance in the presence of noise**
- # **Cost and complexity**
 - **The higher the signal rate to achieve a given data rate, the greater the cost**
- # **Signal spectrum**
 - **With lack of high-frequency components, less bandwidth required**
 - **With no dc component, ac coupling via transformer possible**
 - **Transfer function of a channel is worse near band edges**
- # **Clocking**
 - **Ease of determining beginning and end of each bit position**



Transmission – Digital-to-Analog Encoding

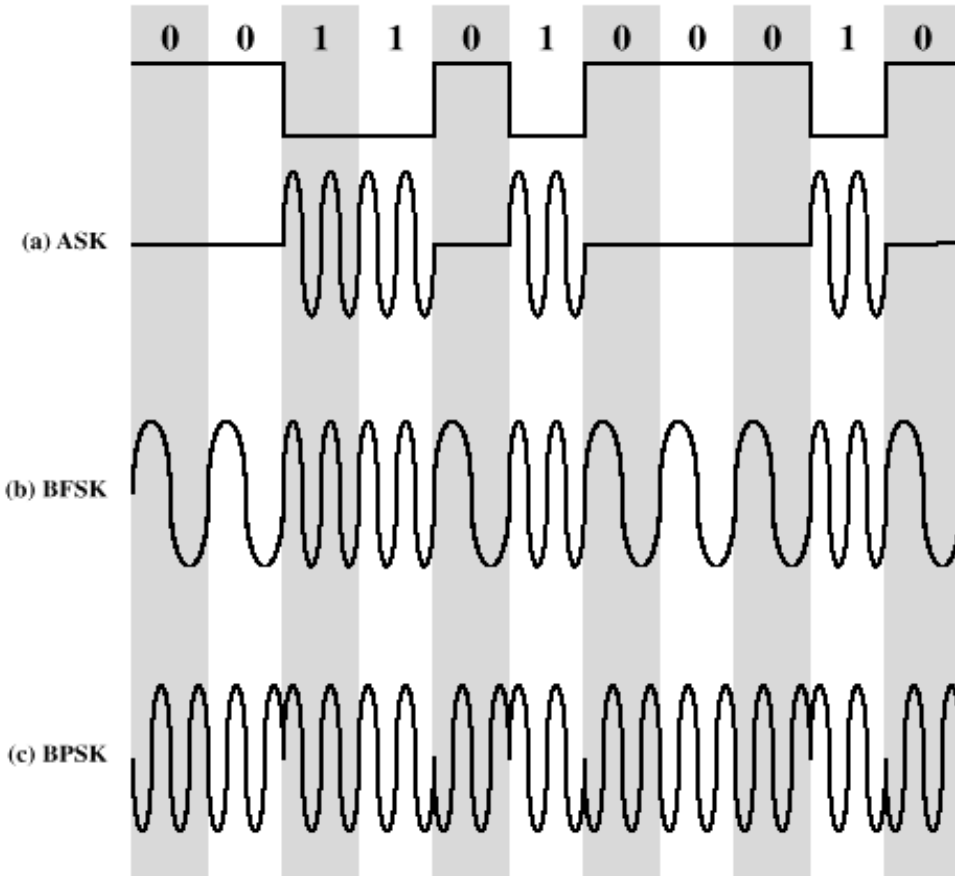


Figure 6.2 Modulation of Analog Signals for Digital Data

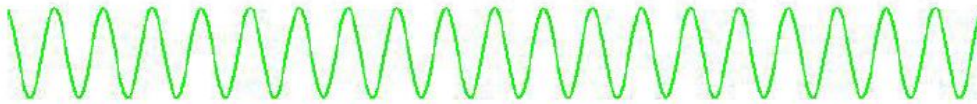
-Can have *multiple* frequency shift key (MFSK)

-Can combine ASK and PSK to obtain QAM (Quadrature Amplitude modulation), enabling two different signals to be sent on one carrier frequency



Transmission – Analog-to-Analog Encoding

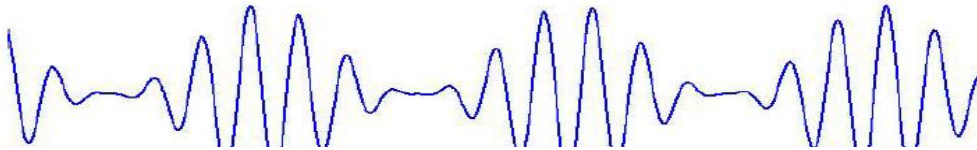
Carrier



Information signal



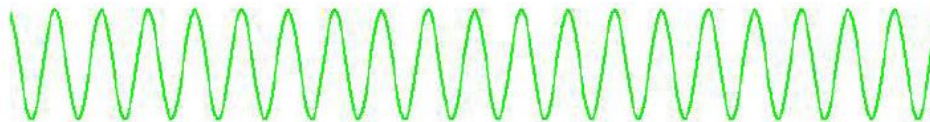
Amplitude Modulation (AM)



Carrier frequency needs to be much higher, to “minimize” the propagation losses

NOTE: modulation enables FDM...

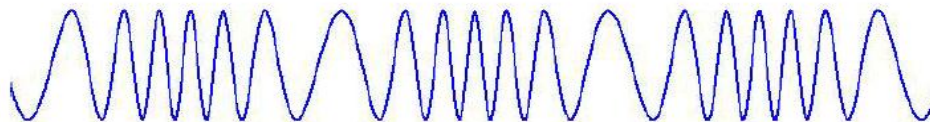
Carrier



Information signal



Frequency Modulation (FM)

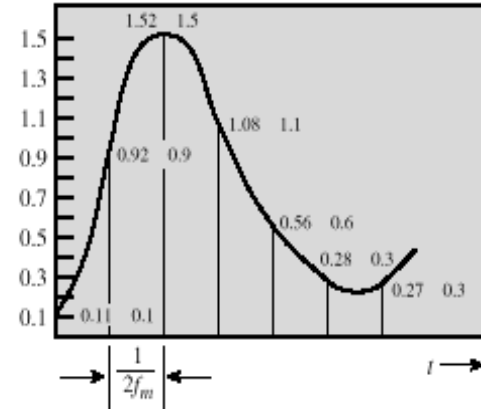




Transmission – Analog-to-Digital Encoding

1. PCM (Pulse-Code Modulation)

- ✦ Based on the sampling theorem
- ✦ Each analog sample is assigned a binary code
 - Analog samples are referred to as pulse amplitude modulation (PAM) samples
- ✦ The digital signal consists of block of n bits, where each n -bit number is the amplitude of a PCM pulse



(a)

Digit	Binary Equivalent	PCM waveform
0	0000	—
1	0001	—
2	0010	—
3	0011	—
4	0100	—
5	0101	—
6	0110	—
7	0111	—

Digit	Binary Equivalent	PCM waveform
8	1000	—
9	1001	—
10	1010	—
11	1011	—
12	1100	—
13	1101	—
14	1110	—
15	1111	—

(b)



Transmission – Analog-to-Digital Encoding

2. DM (Delta Modulation)

Analog input is approximated by staircase function

- Moves up or down by one quantization level (δ) at each sampling interval

The bit stream approximates derivative of analog signal (rather than amplitude)

- 1 is generated if function goes up
- 0 otherwise

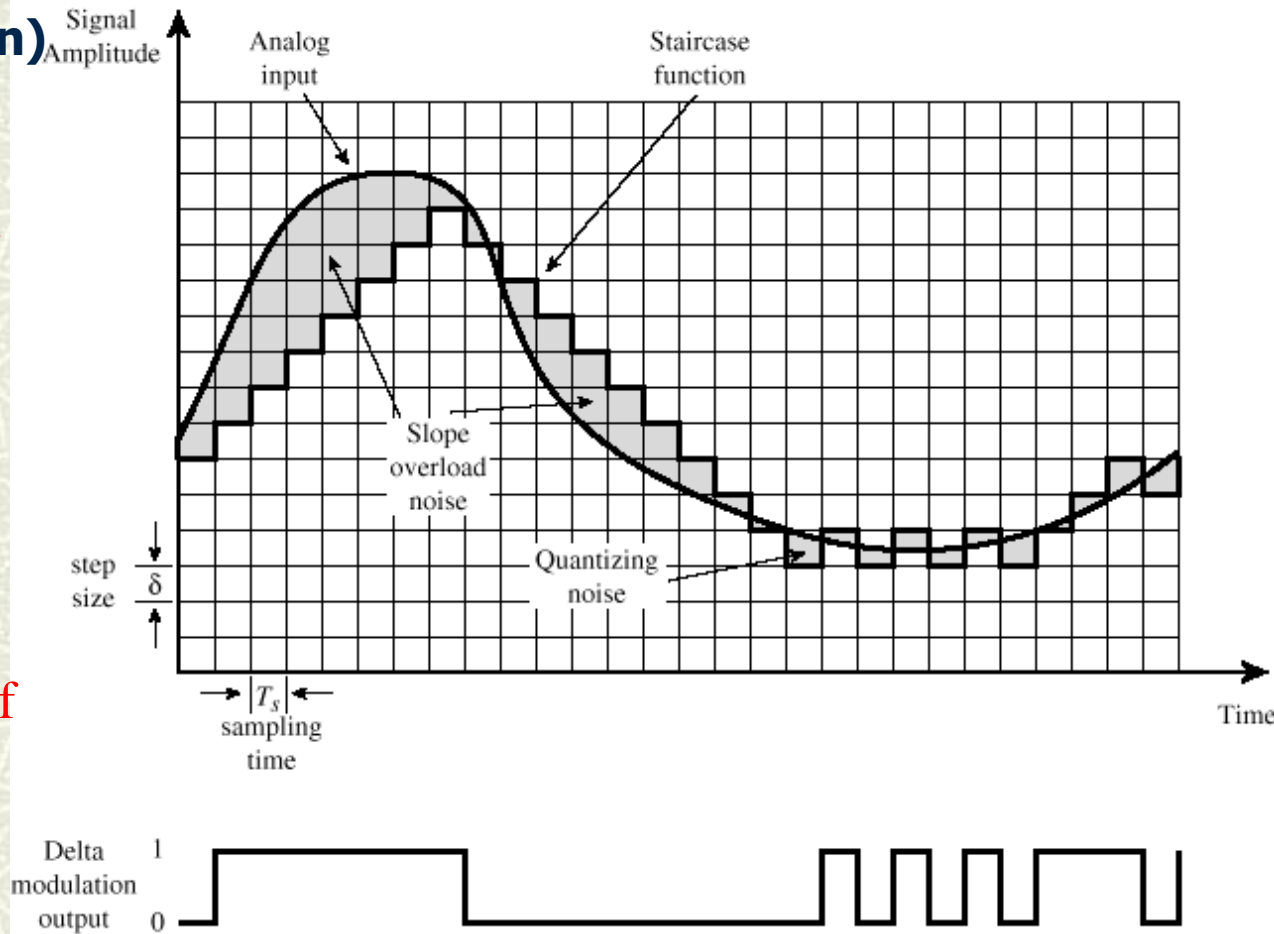


Figure 6.18 Example of Delta Modulation



Transmission – Analog-to-Digital Encoding

NOTE:

- # Accuracy improved by increasing sampling rate
 - However, this increases the data rate
- # Advantage of DM over PCM is the simplicity of its implementation
- # Two important parameters
 - Size of step assigned to each binary digit (δ)
 - Sampling rate
- # Growth in popularity of digital techniques for sending analog data
 - Repeaters are used instead of amplifiers
 - No additive noise
 - TDM is used instead of FDM
 - No intermodulation noise
 - Conversion to digital signaling allows use of more efficient digital switching techniques



Transmission – Spread-Spectrum Encoding

- # Input is fed into a channel encoder
 - Produces analog signal with narrow bandwidth
- # Signal is further modulated using sequence of digits
 - Spreading code or spreading sequence
 - Generated by pseudonoise, or pseudo-random number generator
- # Effect of modulation is to increase bandwidth of signal to be transmitted

- # On receiving end, digit sequence is used to demodulate the spread spectrum signal
- # Signal is fed into a channel decoder to recover data

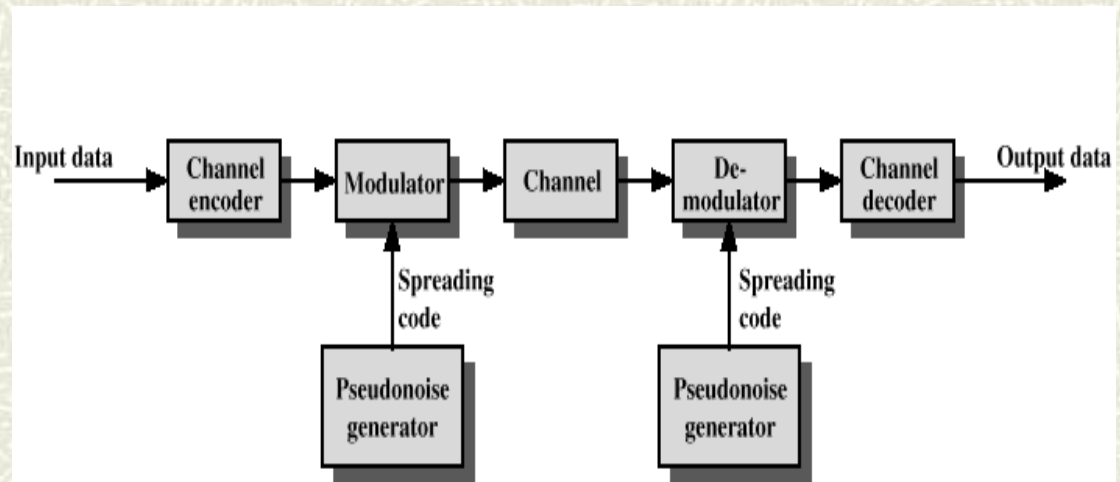


Figure 7.1 General Model of Spread Spectrum Digital Communication System



Transmission – Spread-Spectrum Encoding

- # What can be gained from apparent waste of spectrum?
 - Immunity from various kinds of noise and multipath distortion
 - Can be used for hiding and encrypting signals
 - Several users can independently use the same higher bandwidth with very little interference

Channel sequence dictated by spreading code; Receiver, hopping between frequencies in synchronization with transmitter, picks up message...

- Advantages: Eavesdroppers hear only unintelligible blips

Attempts to jam signal on one frequency succeed only at knocking out a few bits

- # Signal is broadcast over seemingly random series of radio frequencies
 - A number of channels allocated for the FH signal
 - Width of each channel corresponds to bandwidth of input signal
- # Signal hops from frequency to frequency at fixed intervals
 - Transmitter operates in one channel at a time
 - Bits are transmitted using some encoding scheme
 - At each successive interval, a new carrier frequency is selected



Transmission – Spread-Spectrum Encoding

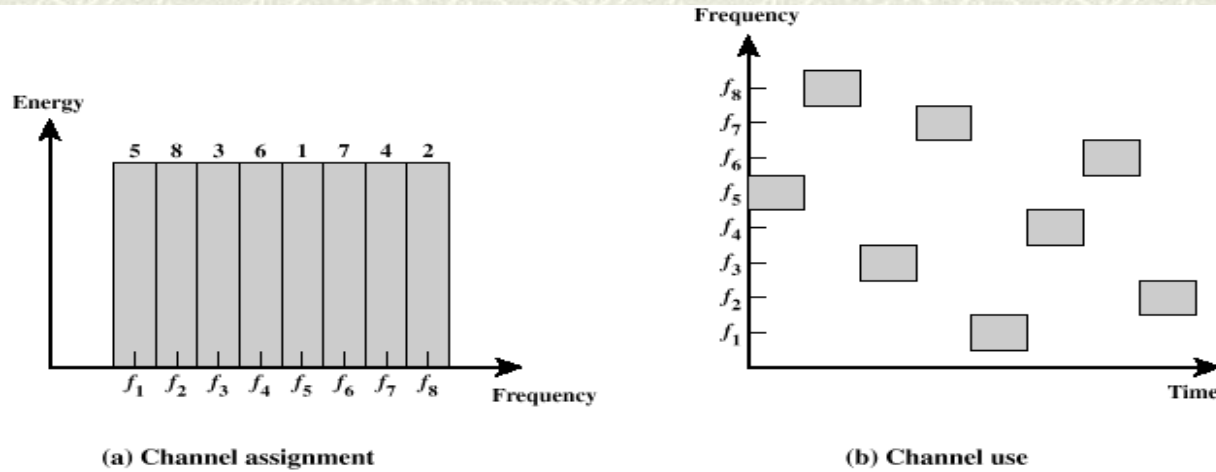


Figure 7.2 Frequency Hopping Example

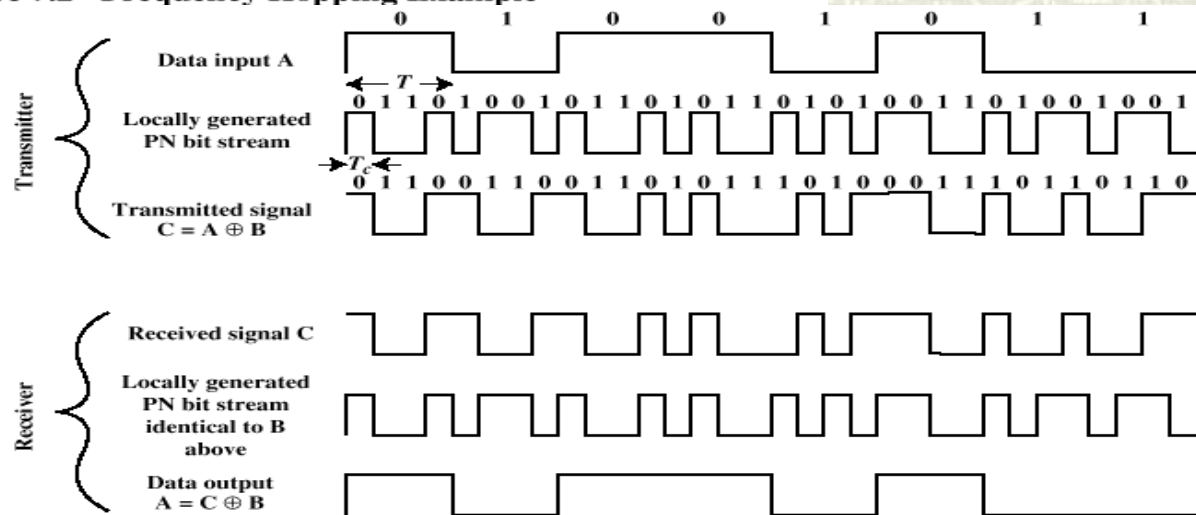


Figure 7.6 Example of Direct Sequence Spread Spectrum



Antennas and Signal Propagation

- # An antenna is an electrical conductor or system of conductors
 - Transmission - radiates electromagnetic energy into space
 - Reception - collects electromagnetic energy from space
- # In two-way communication, the same antenna can be used for transmission and reception
- # Radiation pattern
 - Graphical representation of radiation properties of an antenna
 - Depicted as two-dimensional cross section
- # Beam width (or half-power beam width)
 - Measure of directivity of antenna
- # Reception pattern
 - Receiving antenna's equivalent to radiation pattern



Antennas and Signal Propagation

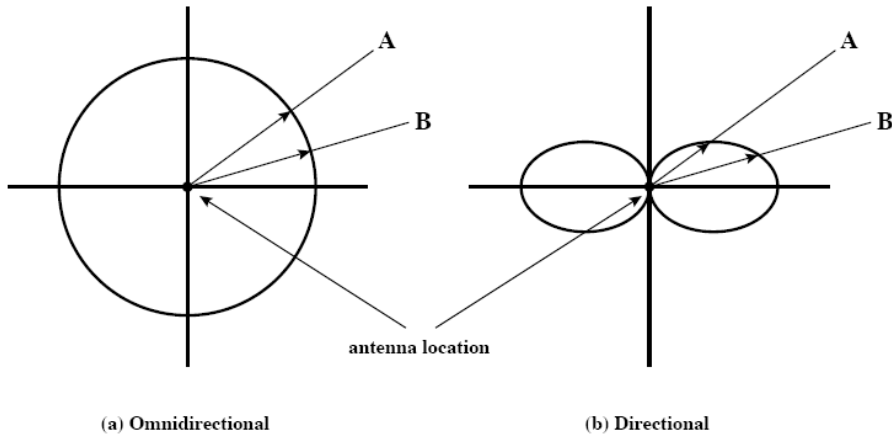
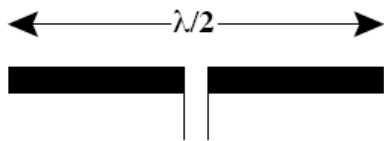
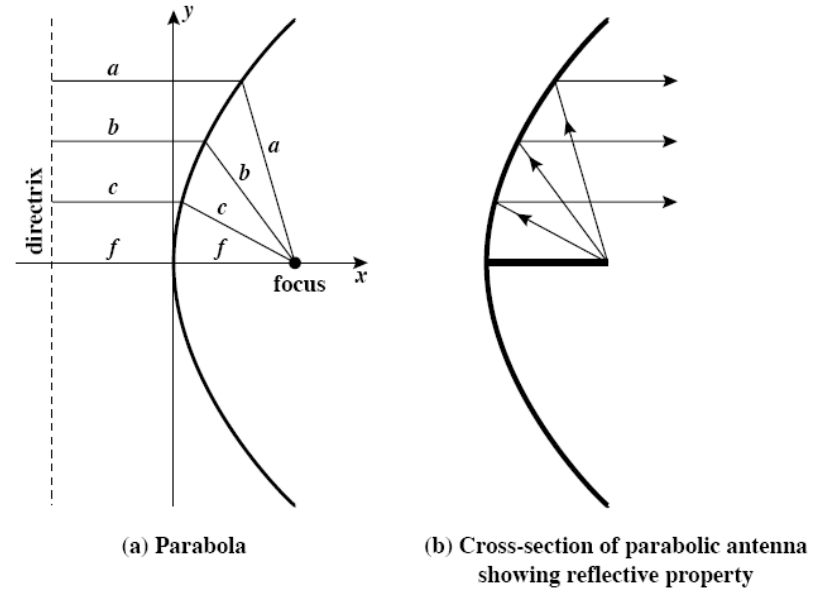
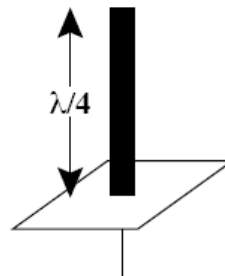


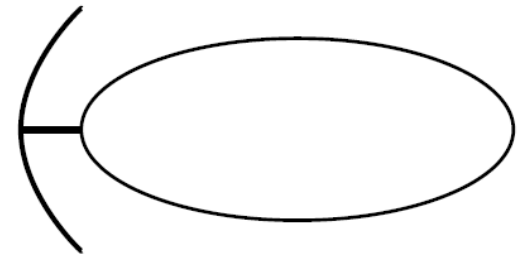
Figure 5.1 Idealized Radiation Patterns



(a) Half-wave dipole

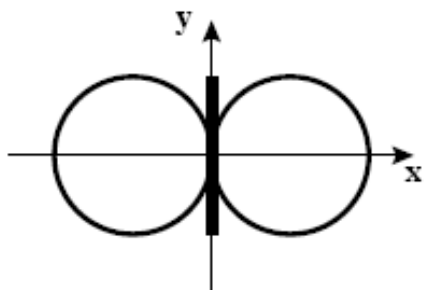


(b) Quarter-wave antenna

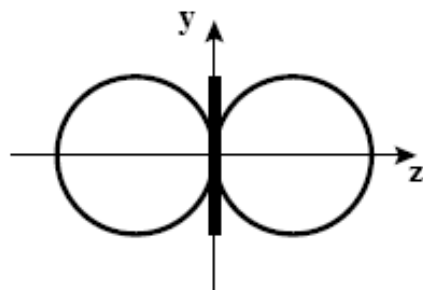




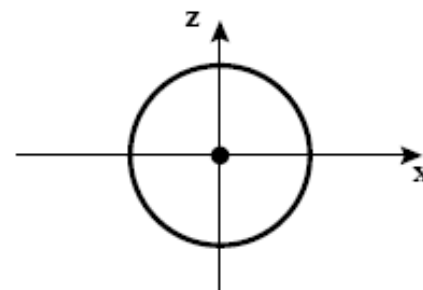
Antennas: Radiation Patterns



Side view (xy-plane)

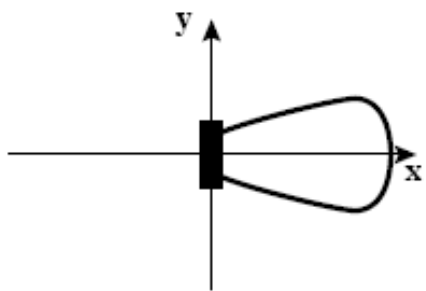


Side view (zy-plane)

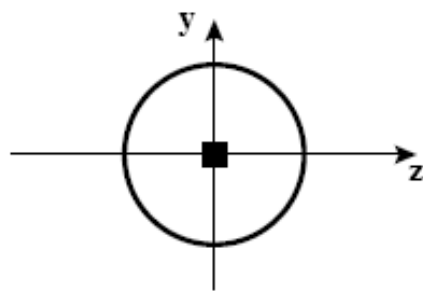


Top view (xz-plane)

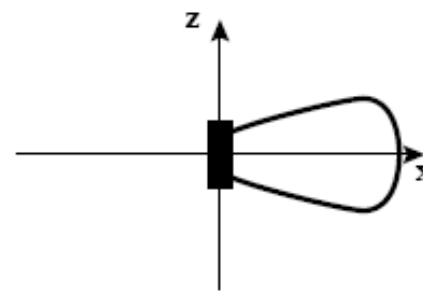
(a) Simple dipole



Side view (xy-plane)



Side view (zy-plane)



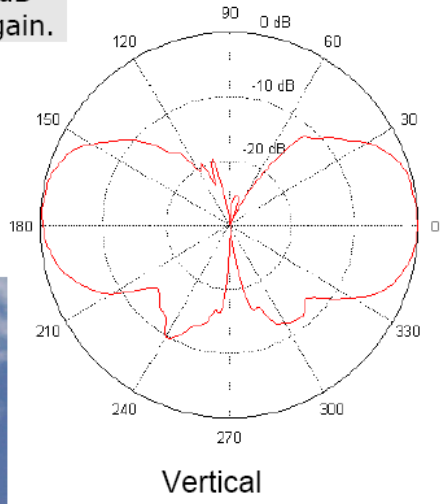
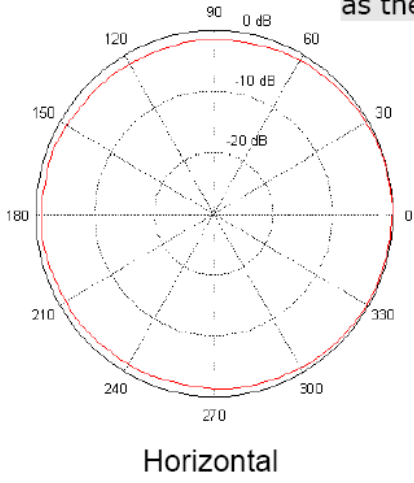
Top view (xz-plane)

(b) Directed antenna

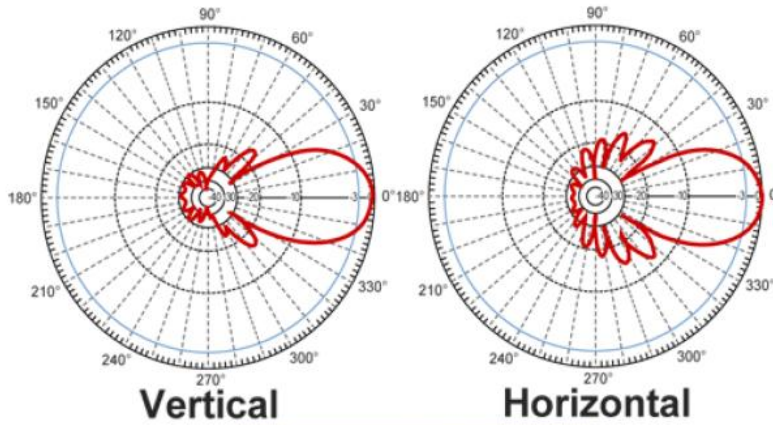


Antennas: Radiation Patterns

Scale shown in dB,
normalized to 0 dB
as the maximum gain.



**Most of the
antennas do NOT
operate equally-well
in all directions...**





Antennas and Propagation

■ Antenna gain

- Power output, in a particular direction, compared to that produced in any direction by a perfect omnidirectional antenna (isotropic antenna)

■ Effective area

- Related to physical size and shape of antenna

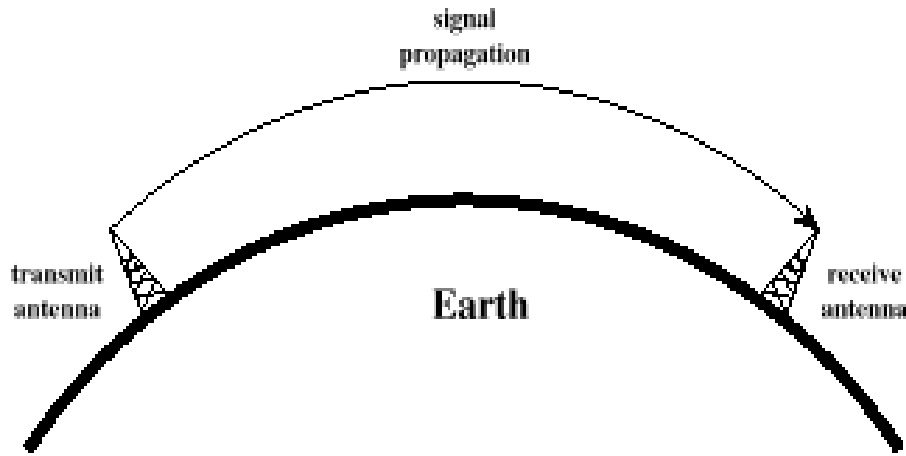
■ Relationship between antenna gain and effective area

$$G = \frac{4\pi A_e}{\lambda^2} = \frac{4\pi f^2 A_e}{c^2}$$

- G = antenna gain
- A_e = effective area
- f = carrier frequency
- c = speed of light ($\approx 3 \times 10^8$ m/s)
- λ = carrier wavelength



Antennas and Propagation

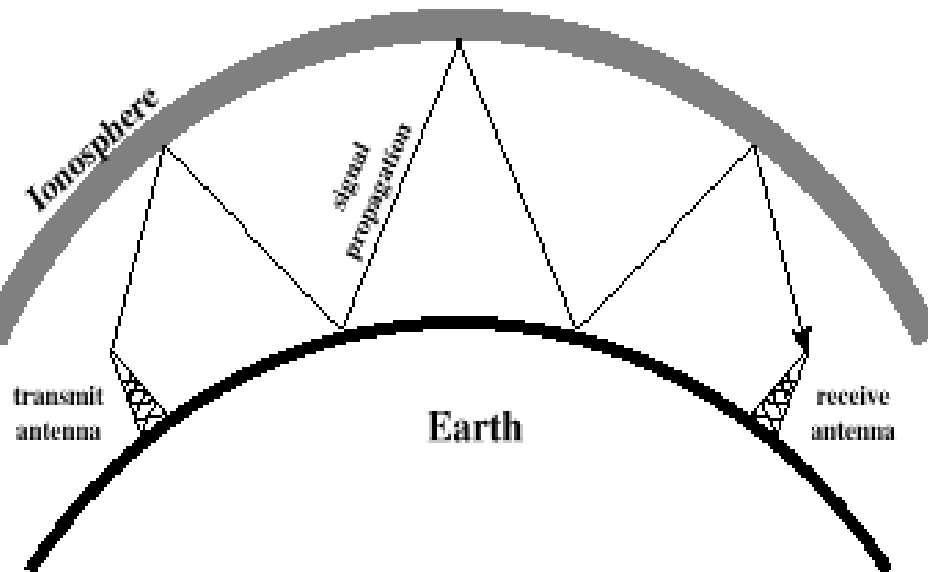


Ground-wave propagation:

- ⌘ Follows contour of the earth
- ⌘ Can Propagate considerable distances
- ⌘ Frequencies up to 2 MHz
- ⌘ Example
 - AM radio

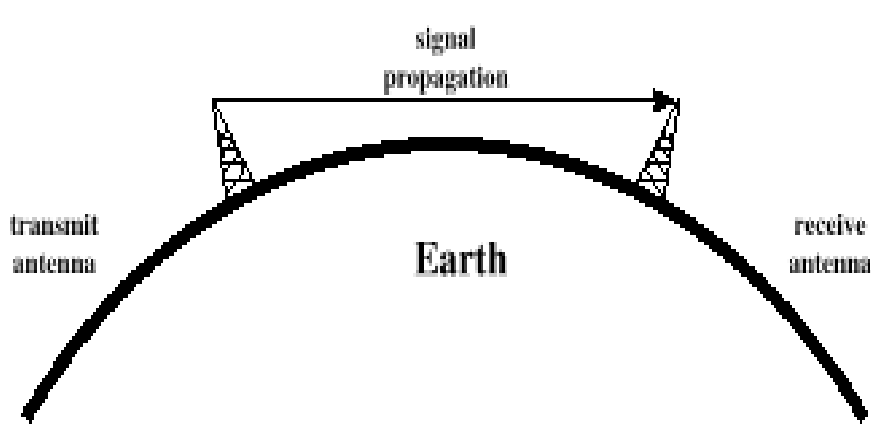
Sky-Wave Propagation

- ⌘ Signal reflected from ionized layer of atmosphere back down to earth
- ⌘ Signal can travel a number of hops, back and forth between ionosphere and earth's surface (1000's of Km)
- ⌘ Reflection effect caused by refraction
- ⌘ Examples
 - Amateur radio
 - CB radio





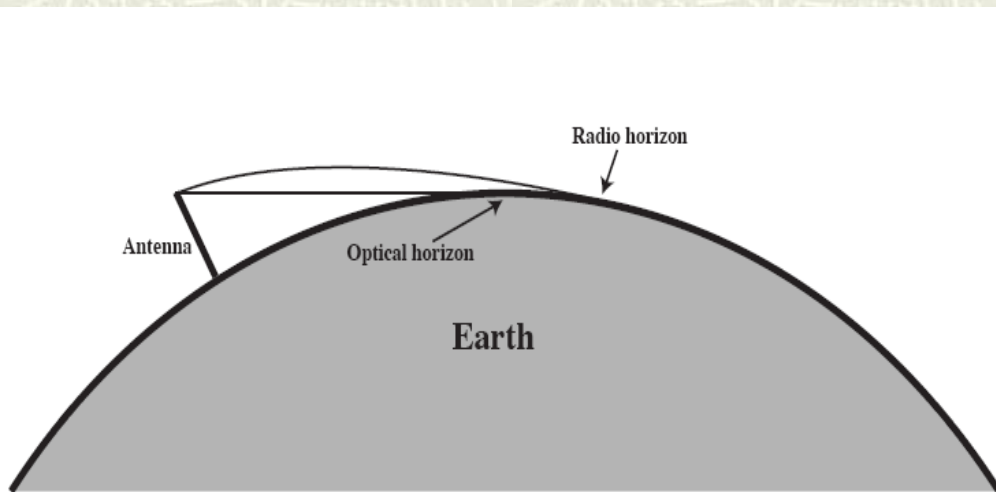
Antennas and Propagation: Line-Of-Sight (LOS)



- Transmitting and receiving antennas must be within line of sight
 - Satellite communication – signal above 30 MHz not reflected by ionosphere
 - Ground communication – antennas within *effective* line of site due to refraction

- Refraction – bending of microwaves by the atmosphere

- Velocity of electromagnetic wave is a function of the density of the medium
- When wave changes medium, speed changes
- Wave bends at the boundary between mediums



$$3.57 \left(\sqrt{Kh_1} + \sqrt{Kh_2} \right)$$

$$K = 4/3$$

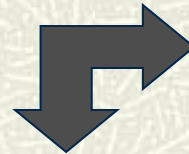


Antennas: Reality-Check...

- # Attenuation and attenuation distortion
- # Free space loss
- # Noise
- # Atmospheric absorption
- # Multipath
- # Refraction
- # Thermal noise



- # Strength of signal falls off with distance over transmission medium
- # Attenuation factors for unguided media:
 - Received signal must have sufficient strength so that circuitry in the receiver can interpret the signal
 - Signal must maintain a level sufficiently higher than noise to be received without error
 - Attenuation is greater at higher frequencies, causing distortion



$$\frac{P_t}{P_r} = \frac{(4\pi d)^2}{\lambda^2} = \frac{(4\pi f d)^2}{c^2}$$



Antennas: Reality-Check...

- ⌘ Thermal noise due to agitation of electrons
- ⌘ Present in all electronic devices and transmission media
- ⌘ Cannot be eliminated
- ⌘ Function of temperature
- ⌘ Particularly significant for satellite communication

NOTE: independent of frequency
⇒ For a bandwidth “B”, just multiply the RHS of the equation

- ⌘ Amount of thermal noise to be found in a bandwidth of 1Hz in any device or conductor is:

$$N_0 = kT \text{ (W/Hz)}$$

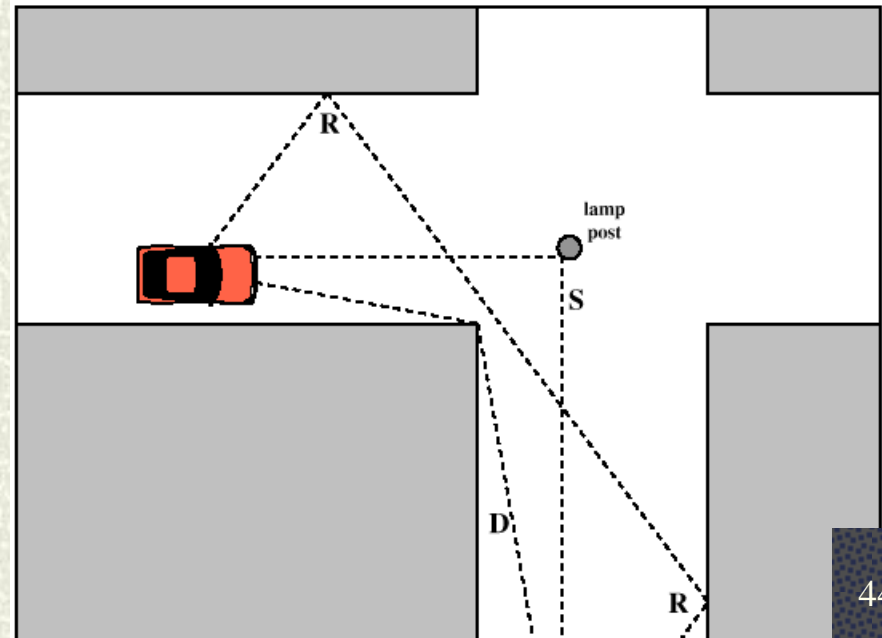
- N_0 = noise power density in watts per 1 Hz of bandwidth
- k = Boltzmann's constant = 1.3803×10^{-23} J/K
- T = temperature, in kelvins (absolute temperature)



Antennas: Reality-Check...

- # Intermodulation noise – occurs if signals with different frequencies share the same medium
 - Interference caused by a signal produced at a frequency that is the sum or difference of original frequencies
- # Crosstalk – unwanted coupling between signal paths
- # Impulse noise – irregular pulses or noise spikes
 - Short duration and of relatively high amplitude
 - Caused by external electromagnetic disturbances, or faults and flaws in the communications system

- # Atmospheric absorption – water vapor and oxygen contribute to attenuation
- # Multipath – obstacles reflect signals so that multiple copies with varying delays are received
- # Refraction – bending of radio waves as they propagate through the atmosphere





Antennas: Reality-Check...

- # Multiple copies of a signal may arrive at different phases
 - If phases add destructively, the signal level relative to noise declines, making detection more difficult
- # Intersymbol interference (ISI)
 - One or more delayed copies of a pulse may arrive at the same time as the primary pulse for a subsequent bit

Dealing with “Reality”:

- # Transmitter adds error-correcting code to data block
 - Code is a function of the data bits
- # Receiver calculates error-correcting code from incoming data bits
 - If calculated code matches incoming code, no error occurred
 - If error-correcting codes don't match, receiver attempts to determine bits in error and correct

...plus, some sophisticated signal-processing algorithms to deal with intersymbol interference



Satellite Communication

- # Earth Stations – antenna systems on or near earth
- # Uplink – transmission from an earth station to a satellite
- # Downlink – transmission from a satellite to an earth station
- # Transponder – electronics in the satellite that convert uplink signals to downlink signals
- # Coverage area
 - Global, regional, national
- # Service type
 - Fixed service satellite (FSS)
 - Broadcast service satellite (BSS)
 - Mobile service satellite (MSS)
- # General usage
 - Commercial, military, amateur, experimental
- # Circular or elliptical orbit
 - Circular with center at earth's center
 - Elliptical with one foci at earth's center
- # Orbit around earth in different planes
 - Equatorial orbit above earth's equator
 - Polar orbit passes over both poles
 - Other orbits referred to as inclined orbits
- # Altitude of satellites
 - Geostationary orbit (GEO)
 - Medium earth orbit (MEO)
 - Low earth orbit (LEO)



Satellites...

GEO:

- # Advantages of the the GEO orbit
 - No problem with frequency changes
 - Tracking of the satellite is simplified
 - High coverage area
- # Disadvantages of the GEO orbit
 - Weak signal after traveling over 35,000 km
 - Polar regions are poorly served
 - Signal sending delay is substantial

- LEO:**
- # Circular/slightly elliptical orbit under 2000 km
 - # Orbit period ranges from 1.5 to 2 hours
 - # Diameter of coverage is about 8000 km
 - # Round-trip signal propagation delay less than 20 ms
 - # Maximum satellite visible time up to 20 min
 - # System must cope with large Doppler shifts
 - # Atmospheric drag results in orbital deterioration

- Little LEOs: Frequencies below 1 GHz ; 5MHz of Bandwidth; Data rates up to 10 kbps...

Aimed at paging, tracking, and low-rate messaging

-Big LEOs: Frequencies above 1 GHz; Support data rates up to a few megabits per sec; Offer same services as little LEOs in addition to voice and positioning services



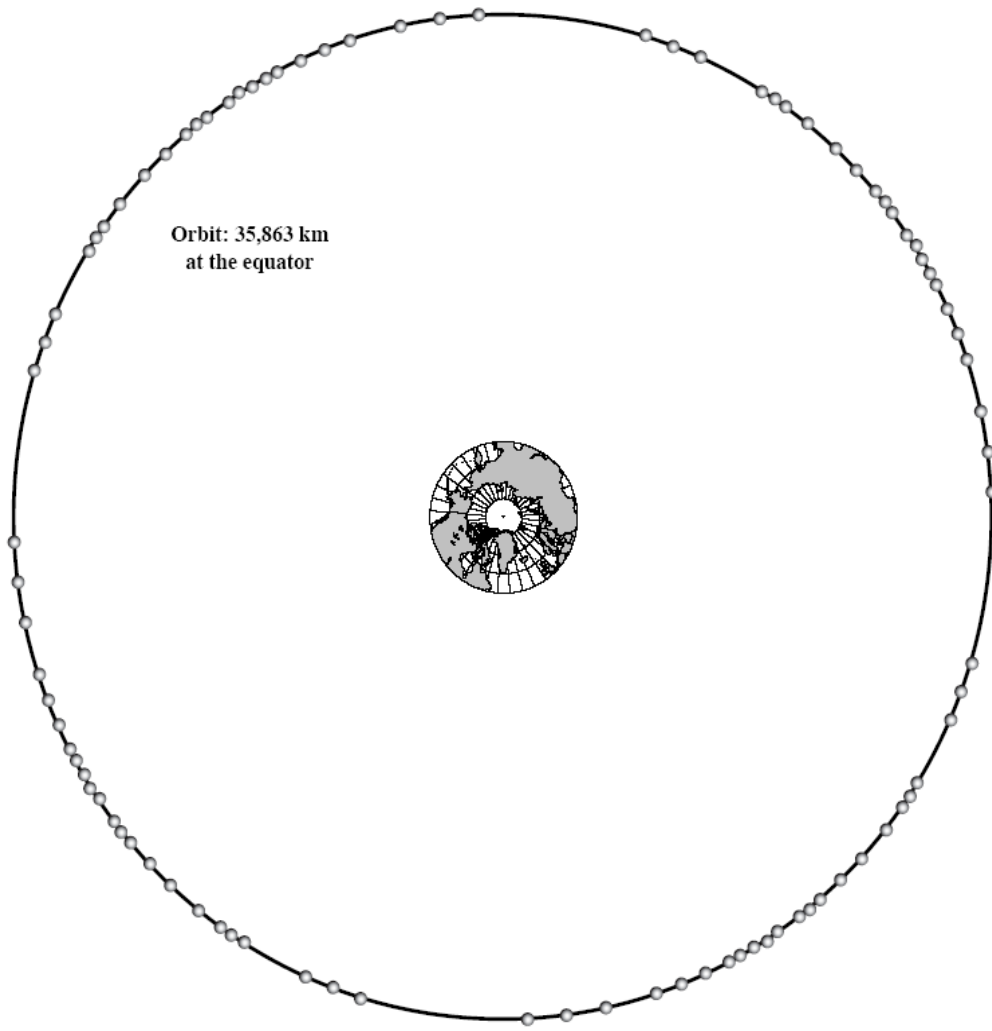
Satellites...

- ✦ Circular orbit at an altitude in the range of 5000 to 12,000 km
- ✦ Orbit period of 6 hours
- MEO:** ✦ Diameter of coverage is 10,000 to 15,000 km
- ✦ Round trip signal propagation delay less than 50 ms
- ✦ Maximum satellite visible time is a few hours

Band	Frequency Range	Total Bandwidth	General Application
L	1 to 2 GHz	1 GHz	Mobile satellite service (MSS)
S	2 to 4 GHz	2 GHz	MSS, NASA, deep space research
C	4 to 8 GHz	4 GHz	Fixed satellite service (FSS)
X	8 to 12.5 GHz	4.5 GHz	FSS military, terrestrial earth exploration, and meteorological satellites
Ku	12.5 to 18 GHz	5.5 GHz	FSS, broadcast satellite service (BSS)
K	18 to 26.5 GHz	8.5 GHz	BSS, FSS
Ka	26.5 to 40 GHz	13.5 GHz	FSS



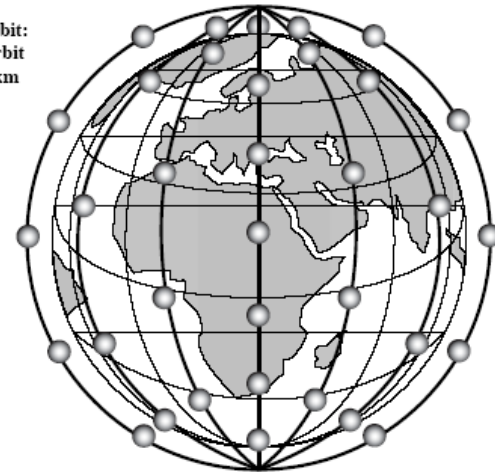
Satellites...



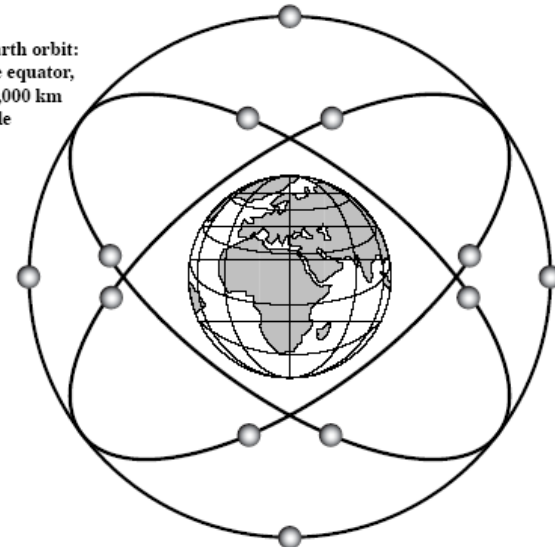
Orbit: 35,863 km at the equator

○ = satellite

(a) Low earth orbit: often in polar orbit at 500 to 1500 km altitude



(b) Medium earth orbit: inclined to the equator, at 5000 to 18,000 km altitude





Satellites and Networking

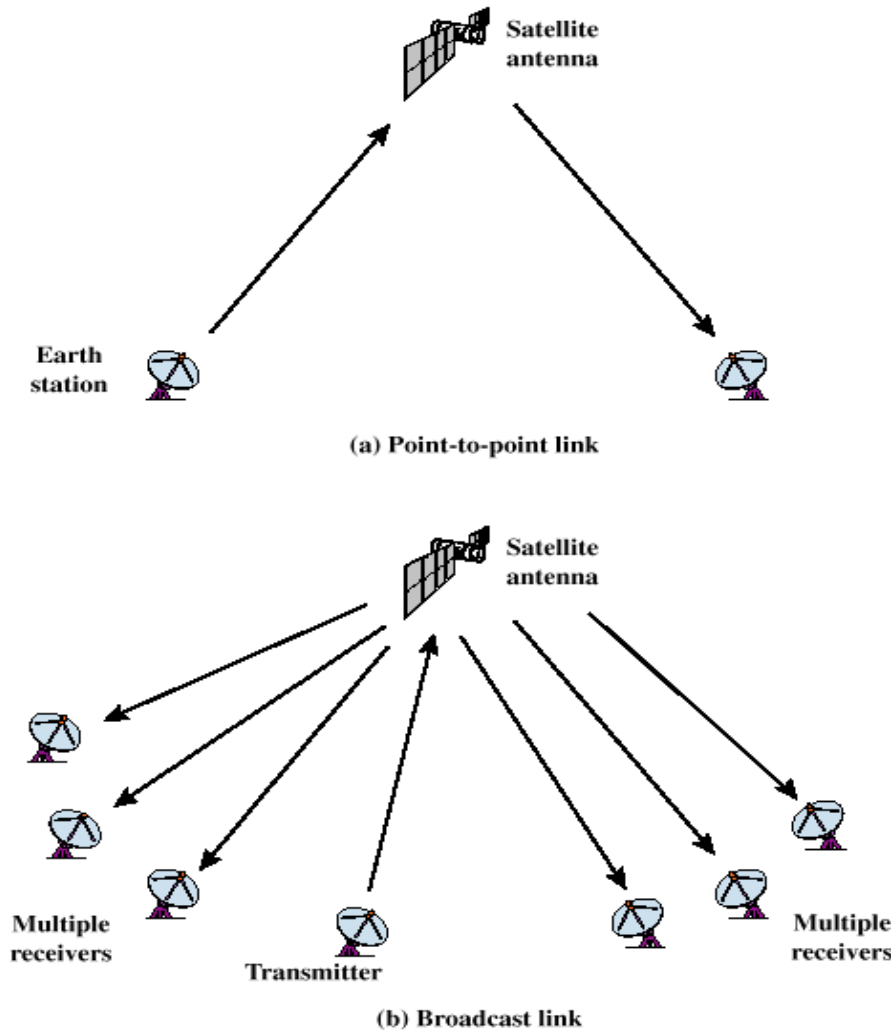


Figure 9.8 Satellite Communication Configurations

Capacity Management Schemes:

- Frequency division multiple access (FDMA)
- Time division multiple access (TDMA)
- Code division multiple access (CDMA)

Example (FDMA):

- 1200 voice-frequency (VF) voice channels
- One 50-Mbps data stream
- 16 channels of 1.544 Mbps each
- 400 channels of 64 kbps each
- 600 channels of 40 kbps each
- One analog video signal
- Six to nine digital video signals



Satellites and Networking...

