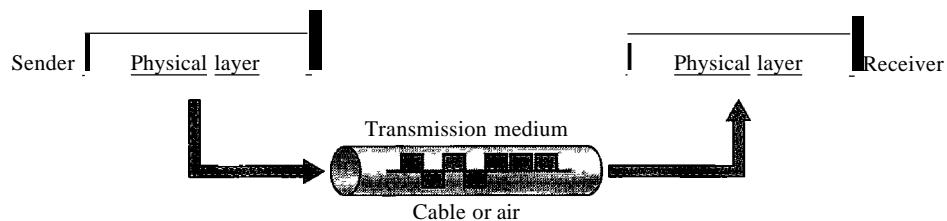


CHAPTER 7

Transmission Media

We discussed many issues related to the physical layer in Chapters 3 through 6. In this chapter, we discuss transmission media. Transmission media are actually located below the physical layer and are directly controlled by the physical layer. You could say that transmission media belong to layer zero. Figure 7.1 shows the position of transmission media in relation to the physical layer.

Figure 7.1 *Transmission medium and physical layer*



A transmission **medium** can be broadly defined as anything that can carry information from a source to a destination. For example, the transmission medium for two people having a dinner conversation is the air. The air can also be used to convey the message in a smoke signal or semaphore. For a written message, the transmission medium might be a mail carrier, a truck, or an airplane.

In data communications the definition of the information and the transmission medium is more specific. The transmission medium is usually free space, metallic cable, or fiber-optic cable. The information is usually a signal that is the result of a conversion of data from another form.

The use of long-distance communication using electric signals started with the invention of the telegraph by Morse in the 19th century. Communication by telegraph was slow and dependent on a metallic medium.

Extending the range of the human voice became possible when the telephone was invented in 1869. Telephone communication at that time also needed a metallic medium to carry the electric signals that were the result of a conversion from the human voice.

The communication was, however, unreliable due to the poor quality of the wires. The lines were often noisy and the technology was unsophisticated.

Wireless communication started in 1895 when Hertz was able to send high-frequency signals. Later, Marconi devised a method to send telegraph-type messages over the Atlantic Ocean.

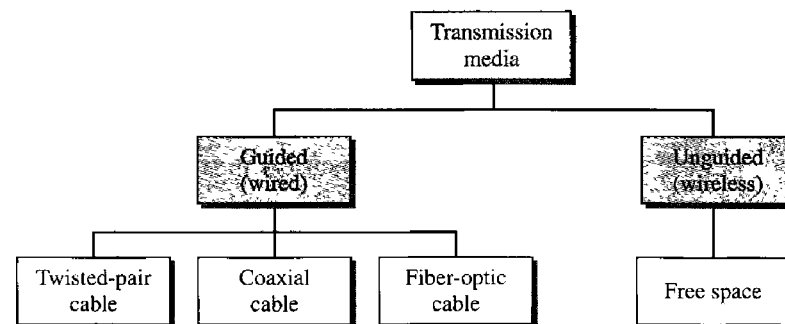
We have come a long way. Better metallic media have been invented (twisted-pair and coaxial cables, for example). The use of optical fibers has increased the data rate incredibly. Free space (air, vacuum, and water) is used more efficiently, in part due to the technologies (such as modulation and multiplexing) discussed in the previous chapters.

As discussed in Chapter 3, computers and other telecommunication devices use signals to represent data. These signals are transmitted from one device to another in the form of electromagnetic energy, which is propagated through transmission media.

Electromagnetic energy, a combination of electric and magnetic fields vibrating in relation to each other, includes power, radio waves, infrared light, visible light, ultraviolet light, and X, gamma, and cosmic rays. Each of these constitutes a portion of the electromagnetic spectrum. Not all portions of the spectrum are currently usable for telecommunications, however. The media to harness those that are usable are also limited to a few types.

In telecommunications, transmission media can be divided into two broad categories: guided and unguided. Guided media include twisted-pair cable, coaxial cable, and fiber-optic cable. Unguided medium is free space. Figure 7.2 shows this taxonomy.

Figure 7.2 *Classes of transmission media*



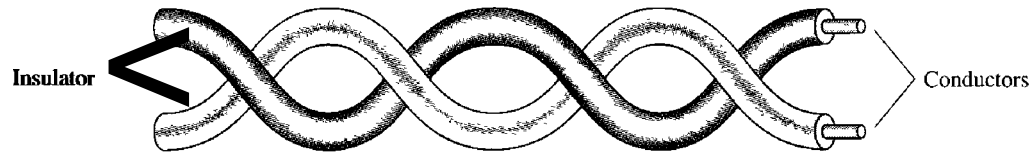
7.1 GUIDED MEDIA

Guided media, which are those that provide a conduit from one device to another, include twisted-pair cable, coaxial cable, and fiber-optic cable. A signal traveling along any of these media is directed and contained by the physical limits of the medium. Twisted-pair and coaxial cable use metallic (copper) conductors that accept and transport signals in the form of electric current. Optical fiber is a cable that accepts and transports signals in the form of light.

Twisted-Pair Cable

A twisted pair consists of two conductors (normally copper), each with its own plastic insulation, twisted together, as shown in Figure 7.3.

Figure 7.3 *Twisted-pair cable*



One of the wires is used to carry signals to the receiver, and the other is used only as a ground reference. The receiver uses the difference between the two.

In addition to the signal sent by the sender on one of the wires, interference (noise) and crosstalk may affect both wires and create unwanted signals.

If the two wires are parallel, the effect of these unwanted signals is not the same in both wires because they are at different locations relative to the noise or crosstalk sources (e.g., one is closer and the other is farther). This results in a difference at the receiver. By twisting the pairs, a balance is maintained. For example, suppose in one twist, one wire is closer to the noise source and the other is farther; in the next twist, the reverse is true. Twisting makes it probable that both wires are equally affected by external influences (noise or crosstalk). This means that the receiver, which calculates the difference between the two, receives no unwanted signals. The unwanted signals are mostly canceled out. From the above discussion, it is clear that the number of twists per unit of length (e.g., inch) has some effect on the quality of the cable.

Unshielded Versus Shielded Twisted-Pair Cable

The most common twisted-pair cable used in communications is referred to as unshielded twisted-pair (UTP). IBM has also produced a version of twisted-pair cable for its use called shielded twisted-pair (STP). STP cable has a metal foil or braided-mesh covering that encases each pair of insulated conductors. Although metal casing improves the quality of cable by preventing the penetration of noise or crosstalk, it is bulkier and more expensive. Figure 7.4 shows the difference between UTP and STP. Our discussion focuses primarily on UTP because STP is seldom used outside of IBM.

Categories

The Electronic Industries Association (EIA) has developed standards to classify unshielded twisted-pair cable into seven categories. Categories are determined by cable quality, with 1 as the lowest and 7 as the highest. Each EIA category is suitable for specific uses. Table 7.1 shows these categories.

Connectors

The most common UTP connector is RJ45 (RJ stands for registered jack), as shown in Figure 7.5. The RJ45 is a keyed connector, meaning the connector can be inserted in only one way.

Figure 7.4 UTP and STP cables

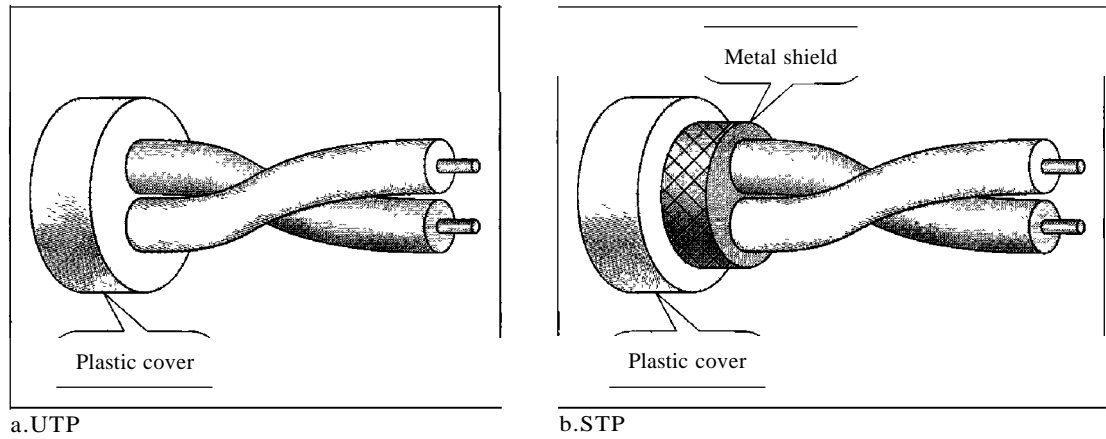


Table 7.1 Categories of unshielded twisted-pair cables

Category	Specification	Data Rate (Mbps)	Use
1	Unshielded twisted-pair used in telephone	< 0.1	Telephone
2	Unshielded twisted-pair originally used in T-lines	2	T-lines
3	Improved CAT 2 used in LANs	10	LANs
4	Improved CAT 3 used in Token Ring networks	20	LANs
5	Cable wire is normally 24 AWG with a jacket and outside sheath	100	LANs
SE	An extension to category 5 that includes extra features to minimize the crosstalk and electromagnetic interference	125	LANs
6	A new category with matched components coming from the same manufacturer. The cable must be tested at a 200-Mbps data rate.	200	LANs
7	Sometimes called SSTP (shielded screen twisted-pair). Each pair is individually wrapped in a helical metallic foil followed by a metallic foil shield in addition to the outside sheath. The shield decreases the effect of crosstalk: and increases the data rate.	600	LANs

Performance

One way to measure the performance of twisted-pair cable is to compare attenuation versus frequency and distance. A twisted-pair cable can pass a wide range of frequencies. However, Figure 7.6 shows that with increasing frequency, the attenuation, measured in decibels per kilometer (dB/km), sharply increases with frequencies above 100 kHz. Note that *gauge* is a measure of the thickness of the wire.

Figure 7.5 UTP connector

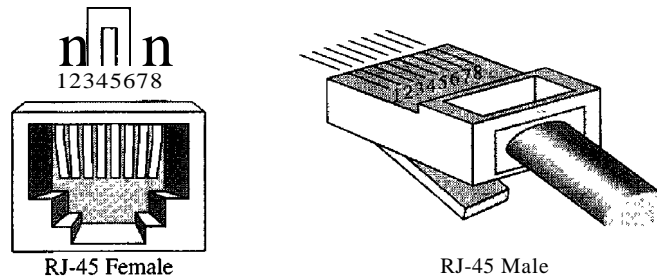
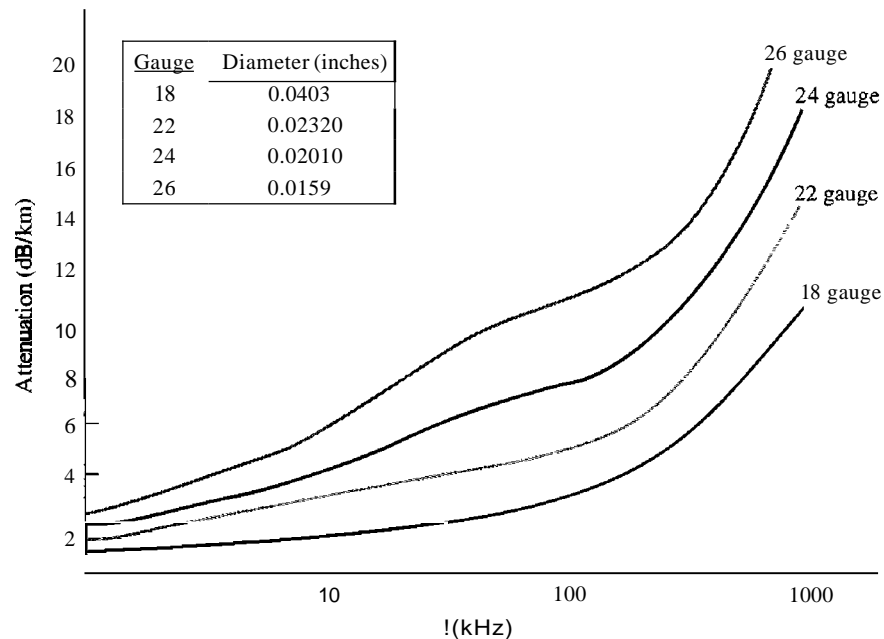


Figure 7.6 UTP performance



Applications

Twisted-pair cables are used in telephone lines to provide voice and data channels. The local loop—the line that connects subscribers to the central telephone office—commonly consists of unshielded twisted-pair cables. We discuss telephone networks in Chapter 9.

The DSL lines that are used by the telephone companies to provide high-data-rate connections also use the high-bandwidth capability of unshielded twisted-pair cables. We discuss DSL technology in Chapter 9.

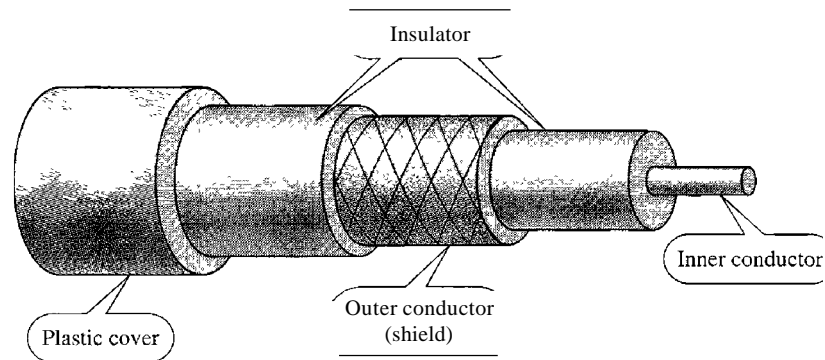
Local-area networks, such as IOBase-T and IOBase-T, also use twisted-pair cables. We discuss these networks in Chapter 13.

Coaxial Cable

Coaxial cable (or *coax*) carries signals of higher frequency ranges than those in twisted-pair cable, in part because the two media are constructed quite differently. Instead of

having two wires, coax has a central core conductor of solid or stranded wire (usually copper) enclosed in an insulating sheath, which is, in turn, encased in an outer conductor of metal foil, braid, or a combination of the two. The outer metallic wrapping serves both as a shield against noise and as the second conductor, which completes the circuit. This outer conductor is also enclosed in an insulating sheath, and the whole cable is protected by a plastic cover (see Figure 7.7).

Figure 7.7 Coaxial cable



Coaxial Cable Standards

Coaxial cables are categorized by their radio government (RG) ratings. Each RG number denotes a unique set of physical specifications, including the wire gauge of the inner conductor, the thickness and type of the inner insulator, the construction of the shield, and the size and type of the outer casing. Each cable defined by an RG rating is adapted for a specialized function, as shown in Table 7.2.

Table 7.2 Categories of coaxial cables

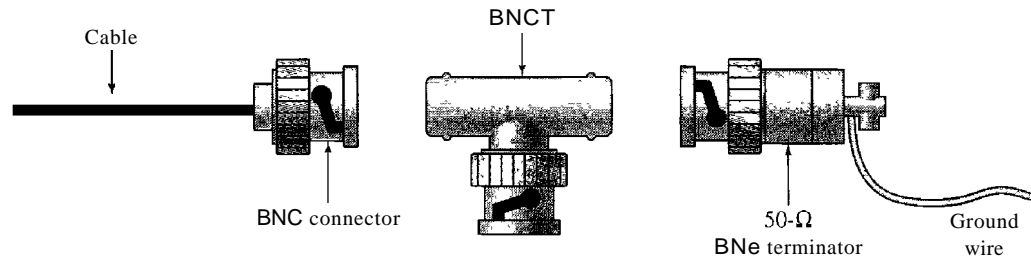
Category	Impedance	Use
RG-59	75 Ω	Cable TV
RG-58	50 Ω	Thin Ethernet
RG-11	50 Ω	Thick Ethernet

Coaxial Cable Connectors

To connect coaxial cable to devices, we need coaxial connectors. The most common type of connector used today is the Bayonet-Neill-Concelman (BNC), connector. Figure 7.8 shows three popular types of these connectors: the BNC connector, the BNC T connector, and the BNC terminator.

The BNC connector is used to connect the end of the cable to a device, such as a TV set. The BNC T connector is used in Ethernet networks (see Chapter 13) to branch out to a connection to a computer or other device. The BNC terminator is used at the end of the cable to prevent the reflection of the signal.

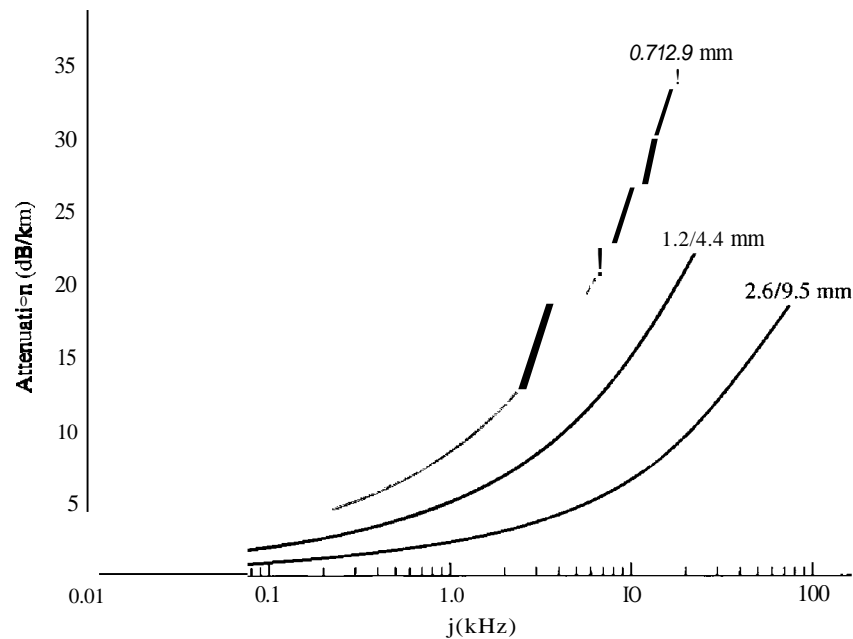
Figure 7.8 BNC connectors



Performance

As we did with twisted-pair cables, we can measure the performance of a coaxial cable. We notice in Figure 7.9 that the attenuation is much higher in coaxial cables than in twisted-pair cable. In other words, although coaxial cable has a much higher bandwidth, the signal weakens rapidly and requires the frequent use of repeaters.

Figure 7.9 Coaxial cable performance



Applications

Coaxial cable was widely used in analog telephone networks where a single coaxial network could carry 10,000 voice signals. Later it was used in digital telephone networks where a single coaxial cable could carry digital data up to 600 Mbps. However, coaxial cable in telephone networks has largely been replaced today with fiber-optic cable.

Cable TV networks (see Chapter 9) also use coaxial cables. In the traditional cable TV network, the entire network used coaxial cable. Later, however, cable TV providers

replaced most of the media with fiber-optic cable; hybrid networks use coaxial cable only at the network boundaries, near the consumer premises. Cable TV uses RG-59 coaxial cable.

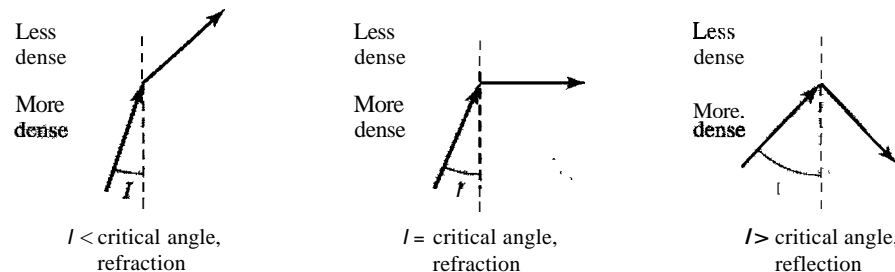
Another common application of coaxial cable is in traditional Ethernet LANs (see Chapter 13). Because of its high bandwidth, and consequently high data rate, coaxial cable was chosen for digital transmission in early Ethernet LANs. The 10Base-2, or Thin Ethernet, uses RG-58 coaxial cable with BNC connectors to transmit data at 10 Mbps with a range of 185 m. The 10Base5, or Thick Ethernet, uses RG-11 (thick coaxial cable) to transmit 10 Mbps with a range of 5000 m. Thick Ethernet has specialized connectors.

Fiber-Optic Cable

A fiber-optic cable is made of glass or plastic and transmits signals in the form of light. To understand optical fiber, we first need to explore several aspects of the nature of light.

Light travels in a straight line as long as it is moving through a single uniform substance. If a ray of light traveling through one substance suddenly enters another substance (of a different density), the ray changes direction. Figure 7.10 shows how a ray of light changes direction when going from a more dense to a less dense substance.

Figure 7.10 *Bending of light ray*

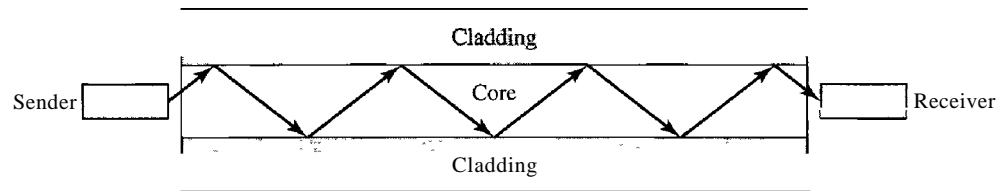
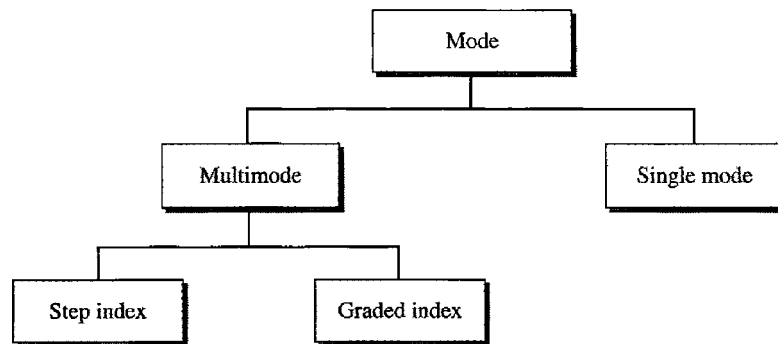


As the figure shows, if the angle of incidence I (the angle the ray makes with the line perpendicular to the interface between the two substances) is less than the critical angle, the ray refracts and moves closer to the surface. If the angle of incidence is equal to the critical angle, the light bends along the interface. If the angle is greater than the critical angle, the ray reflects (makes a turn) and travels again in the denser substance. Note that the critical angle is a property of the substance, and its value differs from one substance to another.

Optical fibers use reflection to guide light through a channel. A glass or plastic core is surrounded by a cladding of less dense glass or plastic. The difference in density of the two materials must be such that a beam of light moving through the core is reflected off the cladding instead of being refracted into it. See Figure 7.11.

Propagation Modes

Current technology supports two modes (multimode and single mode) for propagating light along optical channels, each requiring fiber with different physical characteristics. Multimode can be implemented in two forms: step-index or graded-index (see Figure 7.12).

Figure 7.11 *Optical fiber*Figure 7.12 *Propagation modes*

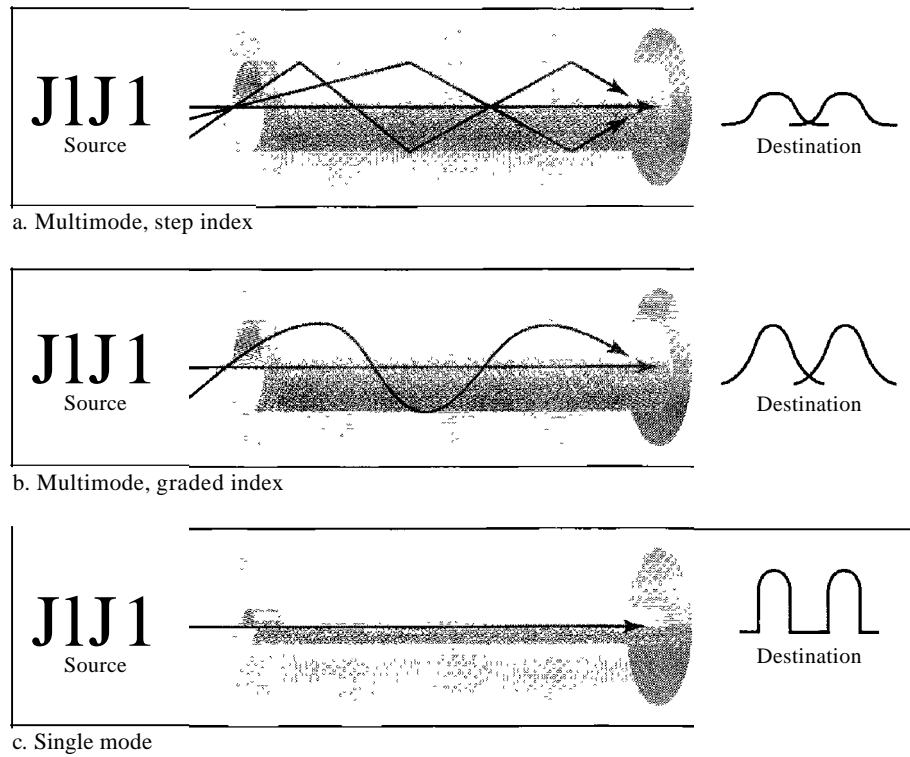
Multimode Multimode is so named because multiple beams from a light source move through the core in different paths. How these beams move within the cable depends on the structure of the core, as shown in Figure 7.13.

In multimode step-index fiber, the density of the core remains constant from the center to the edges. A beam of light moves through this constant density in a straight line until it reaches the interface of the core and the cladding. At the interface, there is an abrupt change due to a lower density; this alters the angle of the beam's motion. The term *step index* refers to the suddenness of this change, which contributes to the distortion of the signal as it passes through the fiber.

A second type of fiber, called multimode graded-index fiber, decreases this distortion of the signal through the cable. The word *index* here refers to the index of refraction. As we saw above, the index of refraction is related to density. A graded-index fiber, therefore, is one with varying densities. Density is highest at the center of the core and decreases gradually to its lowest at the edge. Figure 7.13 shows the impact of this variable density on the propagation of light beams.

Single-Mode Single-mode uses step-index fiber and a highly focused source of light that limits beams to a small range of angles, all close to the horizontal. The single-mode fiber itself is manufactured with a much smaller diameter than that of multimode fiber, and with substantially lower density (index of refraction). The decrease in density results in a critical angle that is close enough to 90° to make the propagation of beams almost horizontal. In this case, propagation of different beams is almost identical, and delays are negligible. All the beams arrive at the destination "together" and can be recombined with little distortion to the signal (see Figure 7.13).

Figure 7.13 Modes



Fiber Sizes

Optical fibers are defined by the ratio of the diameter of their core to the diameter of their cladding, both expressed in micrometers. The common sizes are shown in Table 7.3. Note that the last size listed is for single-mode only.

Table 7.3 Fiber types

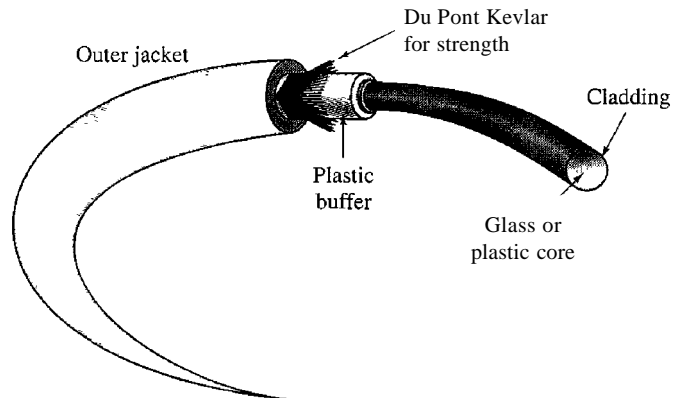
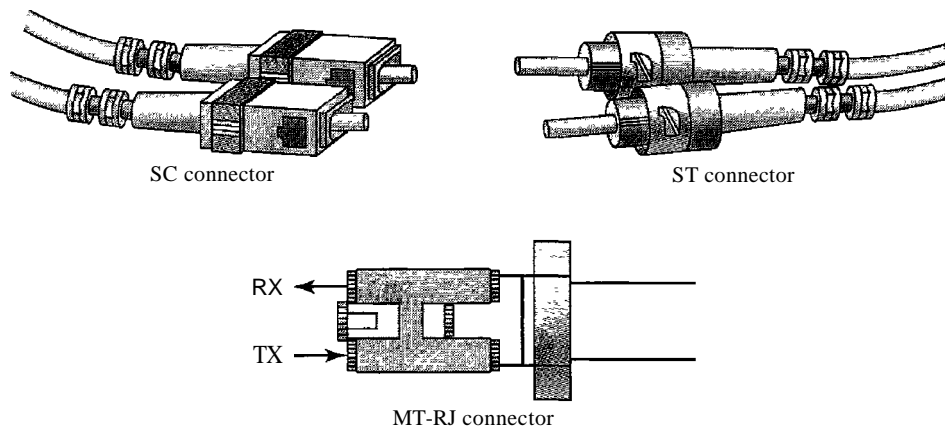
Type	Core (μm)	Cladding (μm)	Mode
50/125	50.0	125	Multimode, graded index
62.5/125	62.5	125	Multimode, graded index
100/125	100.0	125	Multimode, graded index
7/125	7.0	125	Single mode

Cable Composition

Figure 7.14 shows the composition of a typical fiber-optic cable. The outer jacket is made of either PVC or Teflon. Inside the jacket are Kevlar strands to strengthen the cable. Kevlar is a strong material used in the fabrication of bulletproof vests. Below the Kevlar is another plastic coating to cushion the fiber. The fiber is at the center of the cable, and it consists of cladding and core.

Fiber-Optic Cable Connectors

There are three types of connectors for fiber-optic cables, as shown in Figure 7.15.

Figure 7.14 *Fiber construction***Figure 7.15** *Fiber-optic cable connectors*

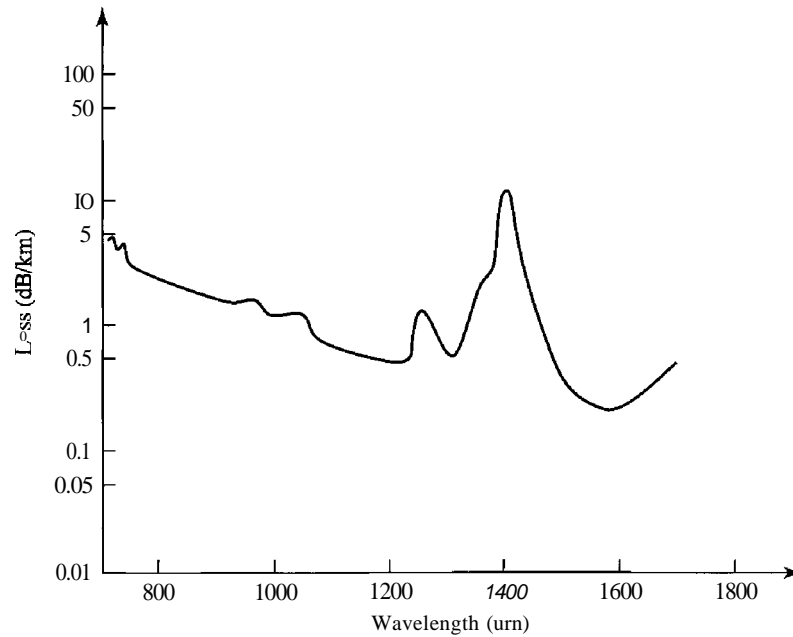
The **subscriber channel (SC) connector** is used for cable TV. It uses a push/pull locking system. The **straight-tip (ST) connector** is used for connecting cable to networking devices. It uses a bayonet locking system and is more reliable than SC. **MT-RJ** is a connector that is the same size as RJ45.

Performance

The plot of attenuation versus wavelength in Figure 7.16 shows a very interesting phenomenon in fiber-optic cable. Attenuation is flatter than in the case of twisted-pair cable and coaxial cable. The performance is such that we need fewer (actually 10 times less) repeaters when we use fiber-optic cable.

Applications

Fiber-optic cable is often found in backbone networks because its wide bandwidth is cost-effective. Today, with wavelength-division multiplexing (WDM), we can transfer

Figure 7.16 *Optical fiber performance*

data at a rate of 1600 Gbps. The SONET network that we discuss in Chapter 17 provides such a backbone.

Some cable TV companies use a combination of optical fiber and coaxial cable, thus creating a hybrid network. Optical fiber provides the backbone structure while coaxial cable provides the connection to the user premises. This is a cost-effective configuration since the narrow bandwidth requirement at the user end does not justify the use of optical fiber.

Local-area networks such as 100Base-FX network (Fast Ethernet) and 1000Base-X also use fiber-optic cable.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Optical Fiber

Advantages Fiber-optic cable has several advantages over metallic cable (twisted-pair or coaxial).

- D** Higher bandwidth. Fiber-optic cable can support dramatically higher bandwidths (and hence data rates) than either twisted-pair or coaxial cable. Currently, data rates and bandwidth utilization over fiber-optic cable are limited not by the medium but by the signal generation and reception technology available.
- D** Less signal attenuation. Fiber-optic transmission distance is significantly greater than that of other guided media. A signal can run for 50 km without requiring regeneration. We need repeaters every 5 km for coaxial or twisted-pair cable.
- D** Immunity to electromagnetic interference. Electromagnetic noise cannot affect fiber-optic cables.
- O** Resistance to corrosive materials. Glass is more resistant to corrosive materials than copper.

- Light weight. Fiber-optic cables are much lighter than copper cables.
- Greater immunity to tapping. Fiber-optic cables are more immune to tapping than copper cables. Copper cables create antenna effects that can easily be tapped.

Disadvantages There are some disadvantages in the use of optical fiber.

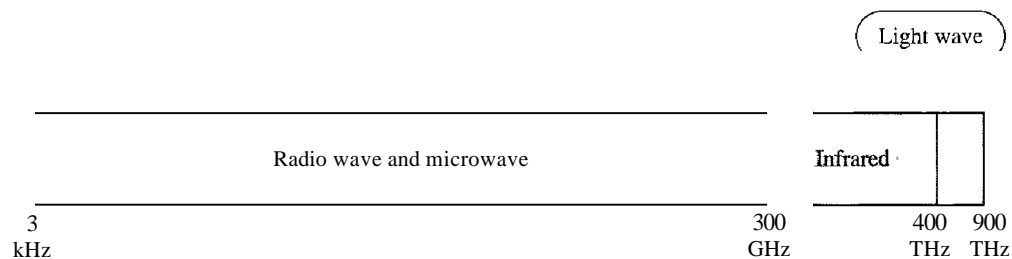
- Installation and maintenance. Fiber-optic cable is a relatively new technology. Its installation and maintenance require expertise that is not yet available everywhere.
- Unidirectional light propagation. Propagation of light is unidirectional. If we need bidirectional communication, two fibers are needed.
- Cost. The cable and the interfaces are relatively more expensive than those of other guided media. If the demand for bandwidth is not high, often the use of optical fiber cannot be justified.

7.2 UNGUIDED MEDIA: WIRELESS

Unguided media transport electromagnetic waves without using a physical conductor. This type of communication is often referred to as wireless communication. Signals are normally broadcast through free space and thus are available to anyone who has a device capable of receiving them.

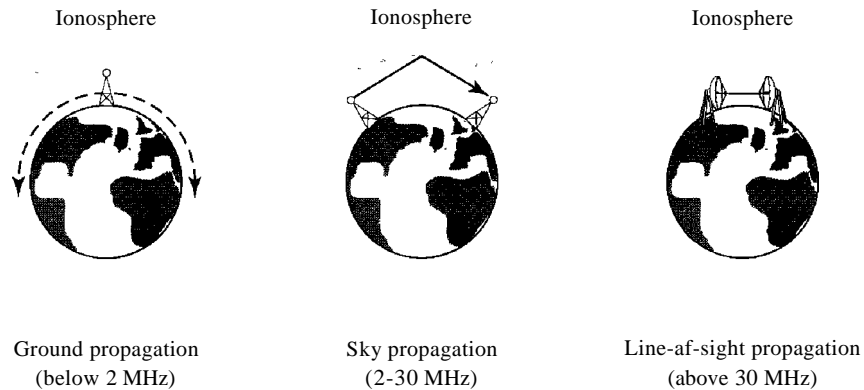
Figure 7.17 shows the part of the electromagnetic spectrum, ranging from 3 kHz to 900 THz, used for wireless communication.

Figure 7.17 *Electromagnetic spectrum for wireless communication*



Unguided signals can travel from the source to destination in several ways: ground propagation, sky propagation, and line-of-sight propagation, as shown in Figure 7.18.

In ground propagation, radio waves travel through the lowest portion of the atmosphere, hugging the earth. These low-frequency signals emanate in all directions from the transmitting antenna and follow the curvature of the planet. Distance depends on the amount of power in the signal: The greater the power, the greater the distance. In sky propagation, higher-frequency radio waves radiate upward into the ionosphere (the layer of atmosphere where particles exist as ions) where they are reflected back to earth. This type of transmission allows for greater distances with lower output power. In line-of-sight propagation, very high-frequency signals are transmitted in straight lines directly from antenna to antenna. Antennas must be directional, facing each other,

Figure 7.18 Propagation methods

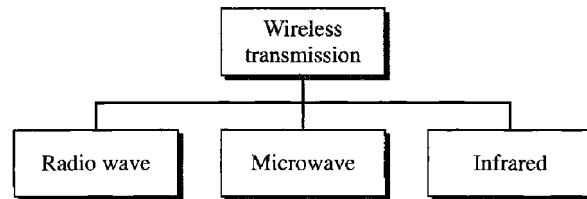
and either tall enough or close enough together not to be affected by the curvature of the earth. Line-of-sight propagation is tricky because radio transmissions cannot be completely focused.

The section of the electromagnetic spectrum defined as radio waves and microwaves is divided into eight ranges, called *bands*, each regulated by government authorities. These bands are rated from *very low frequency* (VLF) to *extremely high frequency* (EHF). Table 7.4 lists these bands, their ranges, propagation methods, and some applications.

Table 7.4 Bands

<i>Band</i>	<i>Range</i>	<i>Propagation</i>	<i>Application</i>
VLF (very low frequency)	3-30 kHz	Ground	Long-range radio navigation
LF (low frequency)	30-300 kHz	Ground	Radio beacons and navigational locators
MF (middle frequency)	300 kHz-3 MHz	Sky	AM radio
HF (high frequency)	3-30 MHz	Sky	Citizens band (CB), ship/aircraft communication
VHF (very high frequency)	30-300 MHz	Sky and line-of-sight	VHF TV, FM radio
UHF (ultrahigh frequency)	300 MHz-3 GHz	Line-of-sight	UHF TV, cellular phones, paging, satellite
SHF (superhigh frequency)	3-30 GHz	Line-of-sight	Satellite communication
EHF (extremely high frequency)	30-300 GHz	Line-of-sight	Radar, satellite

We can divide wireless transmission into three broad groups: radio waves, microwaves, and infrared waves. See Figure 7.19.

Figure 7.19 *Wireless transmission waves*

Radio Waves

Although there is no clear-cut demarcation between radio waves and microwaves, electromagnetic waves ranging in frequencies between 3 kHz and 1 GHz are normally called radio waves; waves ranging in frequencies between 1 and 300 GHz are called microwaves. However, the behavior of the waves, rather than the frequencies, is a better criterion for classification.

Radio waves, for the most part, are omnidirectional. When an antenna transmits radio waves, they are propagated in all directions. This means that the sending and receiving antennas do not have to be aligned. A sending antenna sends waves that can be received by any receiving antenna. The omnidirectional property has a disadvantage, too. The radio waves transmitted by one antenna are susceptible to interference by another antenna that may send signals using the same frequency or band.

Radio waves, particularly those waves that propagate in the sky mode, can travel long distances. This makes radio waves a good candidate for long-distance broadcasting such as AM radio.

Radio waves, particularly those of low and medium frequencies, can penetrate walls. This characteristic can be both an advantage and a disadvantage. It is an advantage because, for example, an AM radio can receive signals inside a building. It is a disadvantage because we cannot isolate a communication to just inside or outside a building. The radio wave band is relatively narrow, just under 1 GHz, compared to the microwave band. When this band is divided into subbands, the subbands are also narrow, leading to a low data rate for digital communications.

Almost the entire band is regulated by authorities (e.g., the FCC in the United States). Using any part of the band requires permission from the authorities.

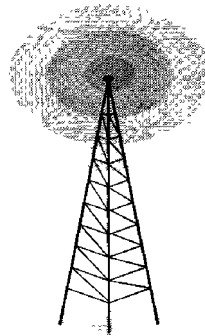
Omnidirectional Antenna

Radio waves use omnidirectional antennas that send out signals in all directions. Based on the wavelength, strength, and the purpose of transmission, we can have several types of antennas. Figure 7.20 shows an omnidirectional antenna.

Applications

The omnidirectional characteristics of radio waves make them useful for multicasting, in which there is one sender but many receivers. AM and FM radio, television, maritime radio, cordless phones, and paging are examples of multicasting.

 Figure 7.20 *Omnidirectional antenna*



Radio waves are used for multicast communications, such as radio and television, and paging systems.

Microwaves

Electromagnetic waves having frequencies between 1 and 300 GHz are called microwaves.

Microwaves are unidirectional. When an antenna transmits microwave waves, they can be narrowly focused. This means that the sending and receiving antennas need to be aligned. The unidirectional property has an obvious advantage. A pair of antennas can be aligned without interfering with another pair of aligned antennas. The following describes some characteristics of microwave propagation:

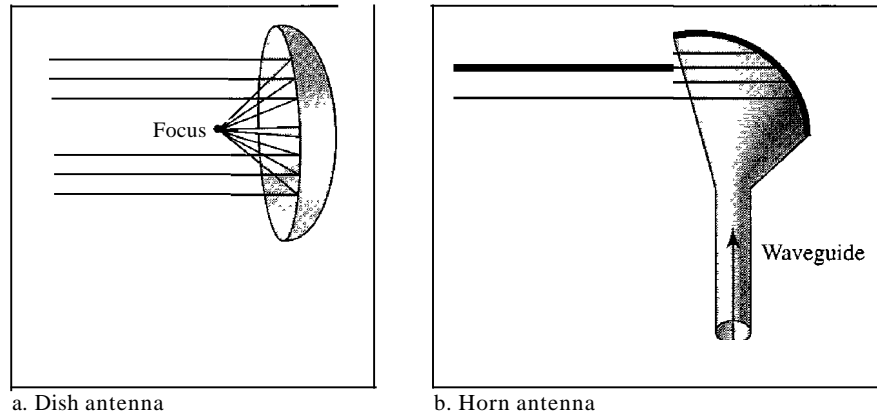
- Microwave propagation is line-of-sight. Since the towers with the mounted antennas need to be in direct sight of each other, towers that are far apart need to be very tall. The curvature of the earth as well as other blocking obstacles do not allow two short towers to communicate by using microwaves. Repeaters are often needed for long-distance communication.
- Very high-frequency microwaves cannot penetrate walls. This characteristic can be a disadvantage if receivers are inside buildings.
- The microwave band is relatively wide, almost 299 GHz. Therefore wider subbands can be assigned, and a high data rate is possible
- Use of certain portions of the band requires permission from authorities.

Unidirectional Antenna

Microwaves need unidirectional antennas that send out signals in one direction. Two types of antennas are used for microwave communications: the parabolic dish and the horn (see Figure 7.21).

A parabolic dish antenna is based on the geometry of a parabola: Every line parallel to the line of symmetry (line of sight) reflects off the curve at angles such that all the lines intersect in a common point called the focus. The parabolic dish works as a

Figure 7.21 Unidirectional antennas



funnel, catching a wide range of waves and directing them to a common point. In this way, more of the signal is recovered than would be possible with a single-point receiver.

Outgoing transmissions are broadcast through a horn aimed at the dish. The microwaves hit the dish and are deflected outward in a reversal of the receipt path.

A horn antenna looks like a gigantic scoop. Outgoing transmissions are broadcast up a stem (resembling a handle) and deflected outward in a series of narrow parallel beams by the curved head. Received transmissions are collected by the scooped shape of the horn, in a manner similar to the parabolic dish, and are deflected down into the stem.

Applications

Microwaves, due to their unidirectional properties, are very useful when unicast (one-to-one) communication is needed between the sender and the receiver. They are used in cellular phones (Chapter 16), satellite networks (Chapter 16), and wireless LANs (Chapter 14).

Microwaves are used for unicast communication such as cellular telephones, satellite networks, and wireless LANs.

Infrared

Infrared waves, with frequencies from 300 GHz to 400 THz (wavelengths from 1 mm to 770 nm), can be used for short-range communication. Infrared waves, having high frequencies, cannot penetrate walls. This advantageous characteristic prevents interference between one system and another; a short-range communication system in one room cannot be affected by another system in the next room. When we use our infrared remote control, we do not interfere with the use of the remote by our neighbors. However, this same characteristic makes infrared signals useless for long-range communication. In addition, we cannot use infrared waves outside a building because the sun's rays contain infrared waves that can interfere with the communication.

Applications

The infrared band, almost 400 THz, has an excellent potential for data transmission. Such a wide bandwidth can be used to transmit digital data with a very high data rate. The *Infrared Data Association* (IrDA), an association for sponsoring the use of infrared waves, has established standards for using these signals for communication between devices such as keyboards, mice, PCs, and printers. For example, some manufacturers provide a special port called the IrDA port that allows a wireless keyboard to communicate with a PC. The standard originally defined a data rate of 75 kbps for a distance up to 8 m. The recent standard defines a data rate of 4 Mbps.

Infrared signals defined by IrDA transmit through line of sight; the IrDA port on the keyboard needs to point to the PC for transmission to occur.

Infrared signals can be used for short-range communication
in a closed area using line-of-sight propagation.

7.3 RECOMMENDED READING

For more details about subjects discussed in this chapter, we recommend the following books. The items in brackets [...] refer to the reference list at the end of the text.

Books

Transmission media is discussed in Section 3.8 of [GW04], Chapter 4 of [Sta04], Section 2.2 and 2.3 of [Tan03]. [SSS05] gives a full coverage of transmission media.

7.4 KEY TERMS

angle of incidence	IrDA port
Bayone-Neil-Concelman (BNC) connector	line-of-sight propagation
cladding	microwave
coaxial cable	MT-RJ
core	multimode graded-index fiber
critical angle	multimode step-index fiber
electromagnetic spectrum	omnidirectional antenna
fiber-optic cable	optical fiber
gauge	parabolic dish antenna
ground propagation	Radio Government (RG) number
guided media	radio wave
horn antenna	reflection
infrared wave	refraction
	RJ45

shielded twisted-pair (STP)	twisted-pair cable
single-mode fiber	unguided medium
sky propagation	unidirectional antenna
straight-tip (ST) connector	unshielded twisted-pair (UTP)
subscriber channel (SC) connector	wireless communication
transmission medium	

7.5 SUMMARY

- O Transmission media lie below the physical layer.
- D A guided medium provides a physical conduit from one device to another. Twisted-pair cable, coaxial cable, and optical fiber are the most popular types of guided media.
- D Twisted-pair cable consists of two insulated copper wires twisted together. Twisted-pair cable is used for voice and data communications.
- D Coaxial cable consists of a central conductor and a shield. Coaxial cable can carry signals of higher frequency ranges than twisted-pair cable. Coaxial cable is used in cable TV networks and traditional Ethernet LANs.
- O Fiber-optic cables are composed of a glass or plastic inner core surrounded by cladding, all encased in an outside jacket. Fiber-optic cables carry data signals in the form of light. The signal is propagated along the inner core by reflection. Fiber-optic transmission is becoming increasingly popular due to its noise resistance, low attenuation, and high-bandwidth capabilities. Fiber-optic cable is used in backbone networks, cable TV networks, and Fast Ethernet networks.
- D Unguided media (free space) transport electromagnetic waves without the use of a physical conductor.
- O Wireless data are transmitted through ground propagation, sky propagation, and line-of-sight propagation. Wireless waves can be classified as radio waves, microwaves, or infrared waves. Radio waves are omnidirectional; microwaves are unidirectional. Microwaves are used for cellular phone, satellite, and wireless LAN communications.
- D Infrared waves are used for short-range communications such as those between a PC and a peripheral device. It can also be used for indoor LANs.

7.6 PRACTICE SET

Review Questions

1. What is the position of the transmission media in the OSI or the Internet model?
2. Name the two major categories of transmission media.
3. How do guided media differ from unguided media?
4. What are the three major classes of guided media?
5. What is the significance of the twisting in twisted-pair cable?

6. What is refraction? What is reflection?
7. What is the purpose of cladding in an optical fiber?
8. Name the advantages of optical fiber over twisted-pair and coaxial cable.
9. How does sky propagation differ from line-of-sight propagation?
10. What is the difference between omnidirectional waves and unidirectional waves?

Exercises

11. Using Figure 7.6, tabulate the attenuation (in dB) of a 18-gauge UTP for the indicated frequencies and distances.

Table 7.5 Attenuation/or 18-gauge UTP

<i>Distance</i>	<i>dB at 1 KHz</i>	<i>dRat 10KHz</i>	<i>dB at 100 KHz</i>
1 Km			
10Km			
15 Km			
20Km			

12. Use the result of Exercise 11 to infer that the bandwidth of a UTP cable decreases with an increase in distance.
13. **If** the power at the beginning of a 1 Km 18-gauge UTP is 200 mw, what is the power at the end for frequencies 1 KHz, 10 KHz, and 100 KHz? Use the result of Exercise 11.
14. Using Figure 7.9, tabulate the attenuation (in dB) of a 2.6/9.5 mm coaxial cable for the indicated frequencies and distances.

Table 7.6 Attenuation/or 2.6/9.5 mm coaxial cable

<i>Distance</i>	<i>dB at 1 KHz</i>	<i>dB at 10 KHz</i>	<i>dB at 100KHz</i>
1 Km			
10Km			
15Km			
20Km			

15. Use the result of Exercise 14 to infer that the bandwidth of a coaxial cable decreases with the increase in distance.
16. **If** the power at the beginning of a 1 Km 2.6/9.5 mm coaxial cable is 200 mw, what is the power at the end for frequencies 1 KHz, 10KHz, and 100 KHz? Use the result of Exercise 14.
17. Calculate the bandwidth of the light for the following wavelength ranges (assume a propagation speed of 2×10^8 m):
 - a. 1000 to 1200 nm
 - b. 1000 to 1400 nm

18. The horizontal axes in Figure 7.6 and 7.9 represent frequencies. The horizontal axis in Figure 7.16 represents wavelength. Can you explain the reason? If the propagation speed in an optical fiber is 2×10^8 m/s, can you change the units in the horizontal axis to frequency? Should the vertical-axis units be changed too? Should the curve be changed too?
19. Using Figure 7.16, tabulate the attenuation (in dB) of an optical fiber for the indicated wavelength and distances.

Table 7.7 Attenuation for optical fiber

<i>Distance</i>	<i>dB at 800 nm</i>	<i>dB at 1000 nm</i>	<i>dB at 1200 nm</i>
1 Km			
10 Km			
15 Km			
20 Km			

20. A light signal is travelling through a fiber. What is the delay in the signal if the length of the fiber-optic cable is 10 m, 100 m, and 1 Km (assume a propagation speed of 2×10^8 m/s)?
21. A beam of light moves from one medium to another medium with less density. The critical angle is 60° . Do we have refraction or reflection for each of the following incident angles? Show the bending of the light ray in each case.
- 40°
 - 60°
 - 80°