

# **Lecture 02**

# **Network Fundamentals**

CS433 – Wireless Protocols for IoT  
Branden Ghena – Spring 2026

Some slides borrowed from: Peter Steenkiste (CMU),  
Christian Poellabauer (Notre Dame)

Materials in collaboration with  
Pat Pannuto (UCSD) and Brad Campbell (UVA)

# Administrivia

- Let me know if you don't have access to something
- Hw: Background out now
  - Due Thursday
- First lab this Friday: Wireshark
  - Individual lab just playing around with Wireshark
  - Location: Frances Searle 3220 at 11:00 AM
- Temporary office hours
  - 1:00-3:50 PM on Wednesday (04/08)
  - Tech L368 (my office)
  - I hope to have a full schedule next week

# Today's Goals

- Introduce OSI layer model of communication
- Provide background on Internet layering
- Overview of concerns for the Physical layer
  - Speak the “lingo” of wireless communication
  - Present technology aspects that we will return to in specific protocols

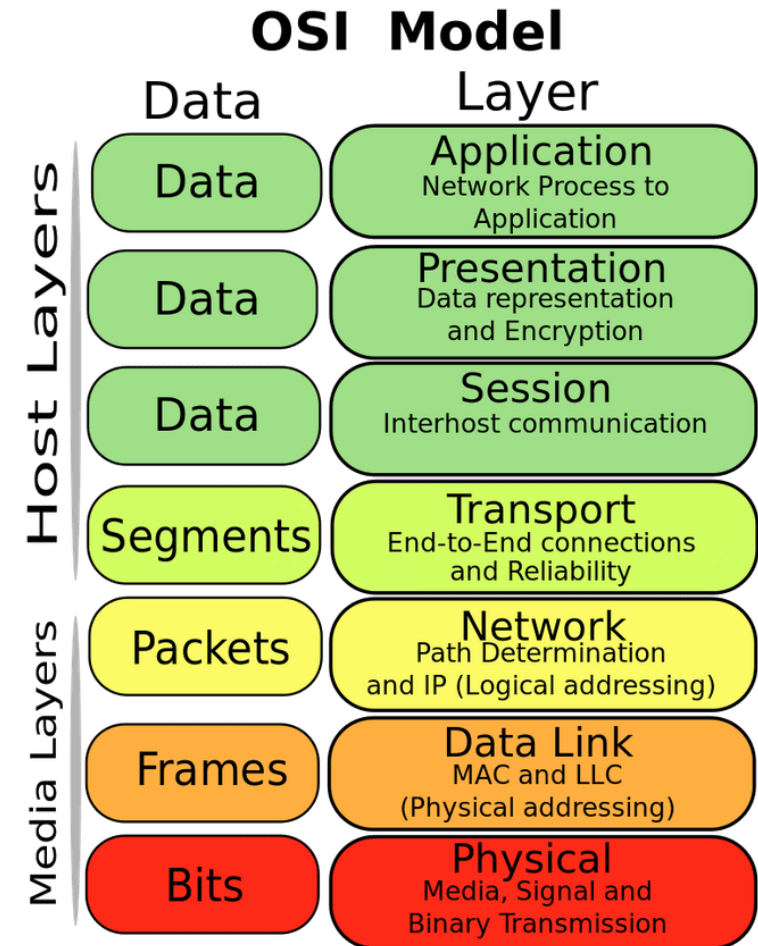
# Outline

- **OSI Layers**
- Internet Architecture (Upper Layers)
- Physical Layer
  - Overview
  - Signal Strength
  - Signal Frequency and Bandwidth
  - Signal Modulation

# OSI model of communication layers

- Transport
  - Sending data between applications
  - TCP and UDP
- Network
  - Sending data between networked computers
  - IP
- Data Link
  - Sending collections of bits
  - Ethernet, WiFi
- Physical
  - Sending individual bits
  - Ethernet, WiFi

Open Systems Interconnection (OSI)

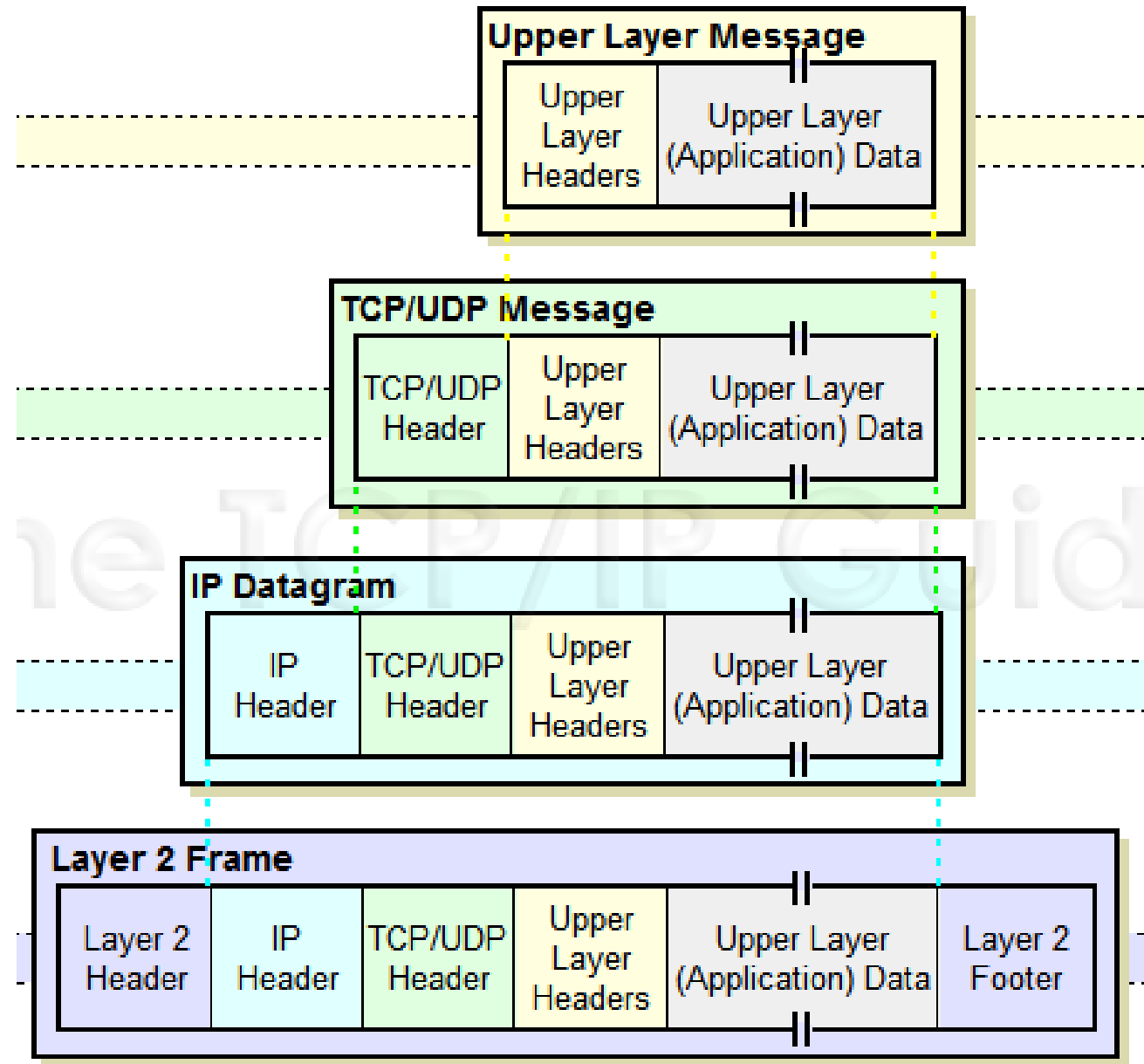


# Where does this class focus?

- Transport
    - Sending data between applications
    - TCP and UDP
  - Network
    - Sending data between networked computers
    - IP
  - Data Link
    - Sending collections of bits
    - Ethernet, WiFi
  - Physical
    - Sending individual bits
    - Ethernet, WiFi
- 
- CS domain  
CS340, CS440
- This course!
- EE domain  
EE307, EE378, EE380

# Protocols are “layered”

- Headers for each layer of communication wrap data
  - Data is wrapped with header for the network to make a packet
    - i.e., bytes are added to the start/end of it
  - Packet is wrapped with header for the link to make a frame
- Upper-layer packet is the payload for the lower-layer packet



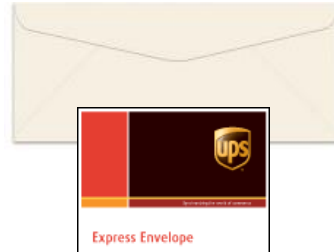
# Analogy: Sending a letter

## Application:

Purpose/type of letter



**Transport:**  
Carrier service



Named recipient



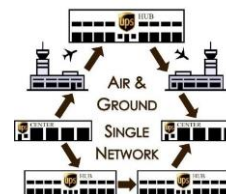
**Network:**  
Street Address



Courier



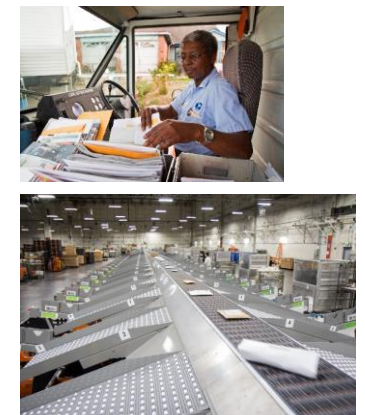
Mailing/shipping infrastructure



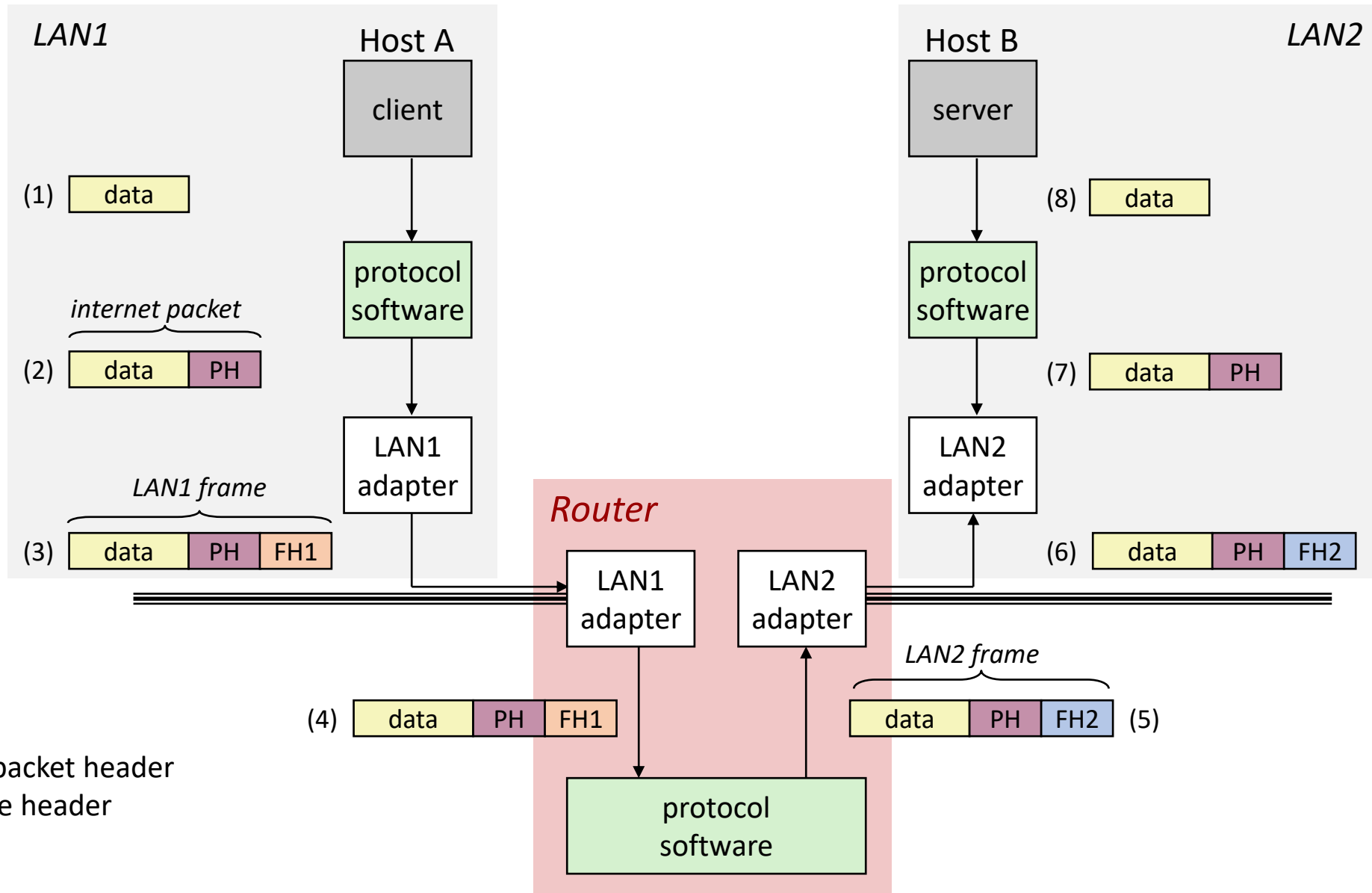
**Link:**  
Transfer to post office



**Physical:**  
Moving tangible object

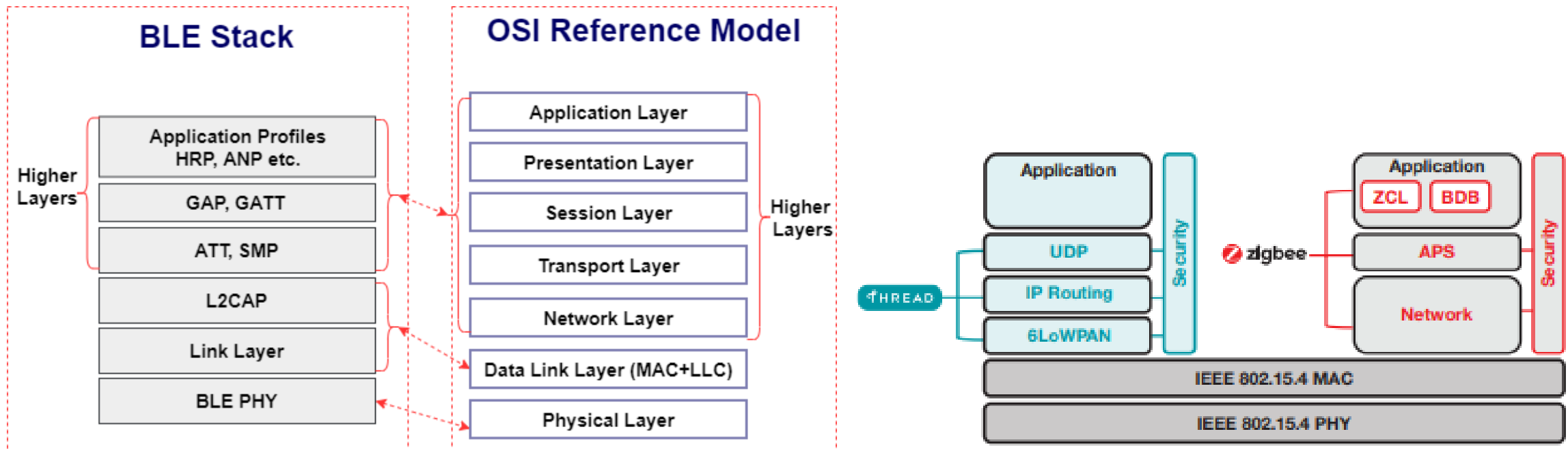


# Transmitting data between networks

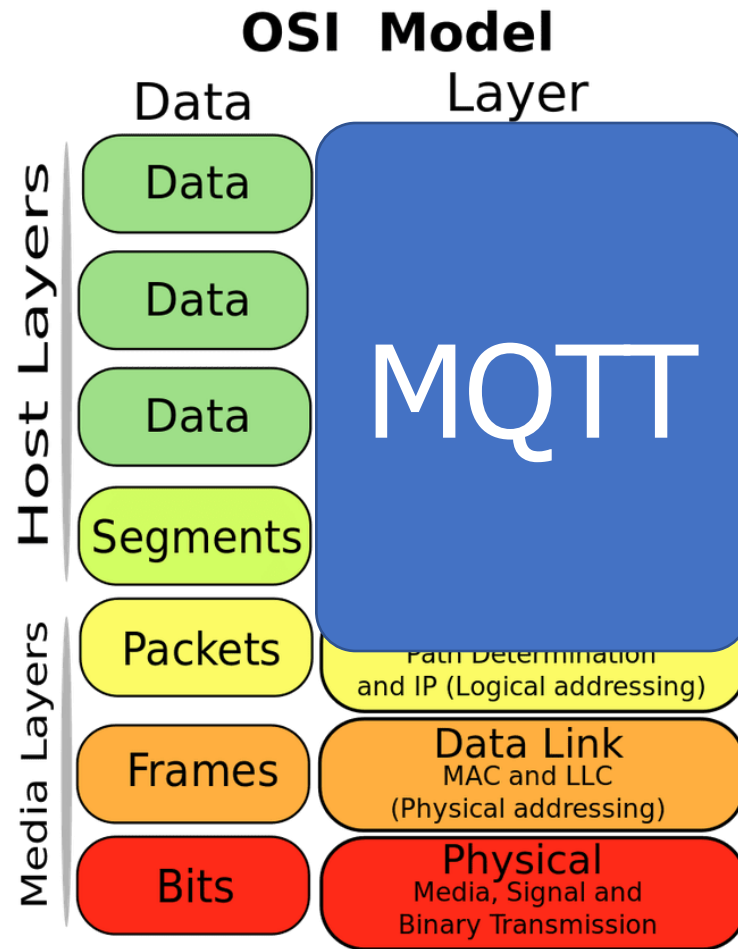


# Model does not equal reality

- Wireless protocols don't always split between layers cleanly
  - Usually explain parts of physical, data link, and possibly upper layers
- Model still helps conceptualize stack-up though
  - Layering of some type still occurs



# Layering for IoT (joke) (kind of)



MQTT is a  
publish/subscribe  
message broker

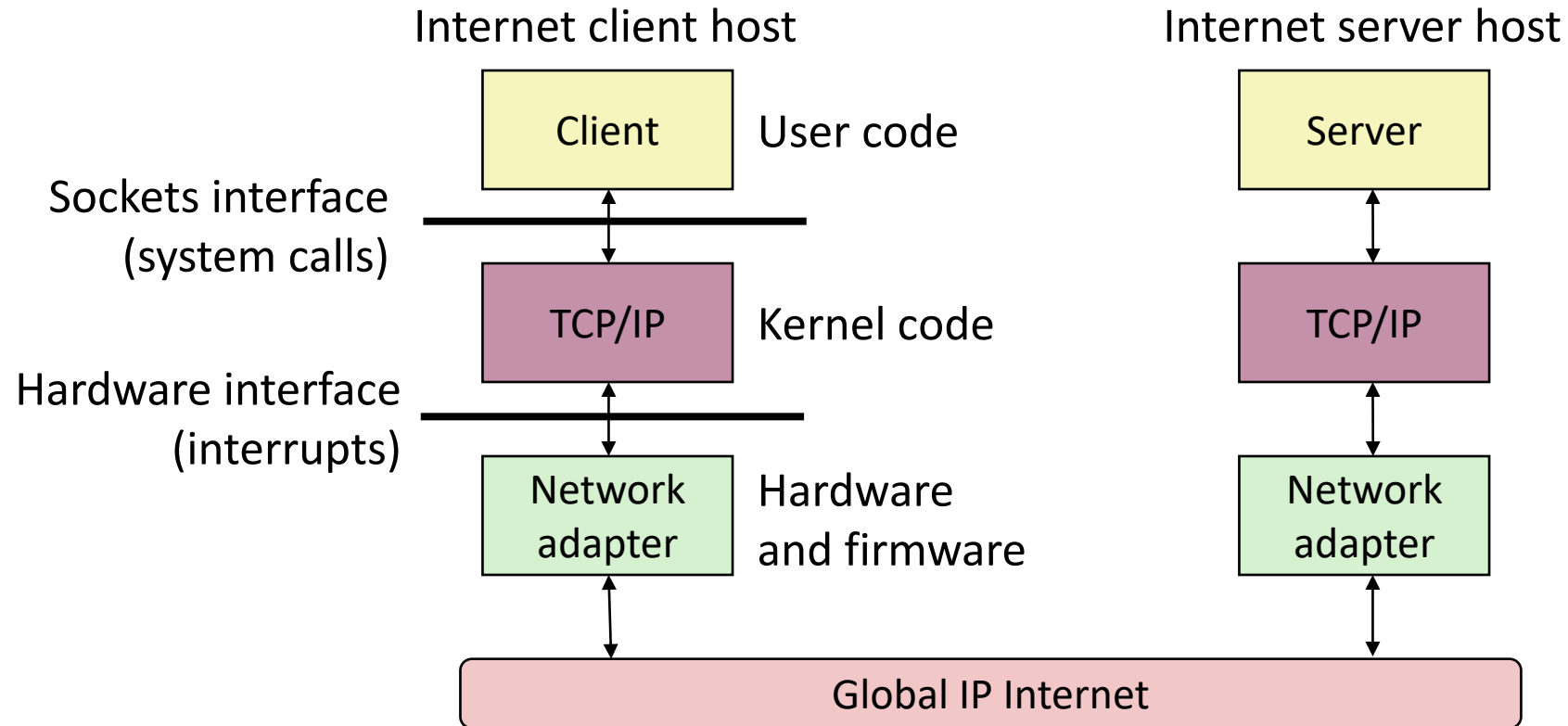
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- **Internet Architecture (Upper Layers)**
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# The global Internet

- Most famous example of an internet (uppercase to distinguish)
- Based on the TCP/IP protocol family
  - **IP** (Internet Protocol)
    - Provides a *naming scheme* and unreliable *delivery of packets* from **host-to-host**
  - **UDP** (Unreliable Datagram Protocol)
    - Uses IP to provide *unreliable data delivery* from **process-to-process**
  - **TCP** (Transmission Control Protocol)
    - Uses IP to provide *reliable data delivery* from **process-to-process**
- Accessed via a mix of Unix file I/O and the **sockets** interface

# Hardware and software organization of an Internet application



# A programmer's view of the internet

1. Hosts are mapped to a set of 32-bit **IP addresses**
  - 129.105.5.212
2. The set of IP addresses is mapped to a set of identifiers called Internet **domain names**
  - 129.105.5.212 is mapped to moore.wot.eecs.northwestern.edu
3. A process on one Internet host can communicate with a process on another Internet host over a **connection**

# 1. IP addresses

- 32-bit identifier for a computer on the Internet
- By convention, each byte in a 32-bit IP address is represented by its decimal value and separated by a period
  - IP address:  $0x816905D4 = 129.105.7.212$
- Each computer you want to access needs a unique IP address
  - Blocks of IP addresses are owned by various network operators and distributed to computers on their networks
    - For servers, these need to be long-term consistent
    - For clients, they can be short-term leases

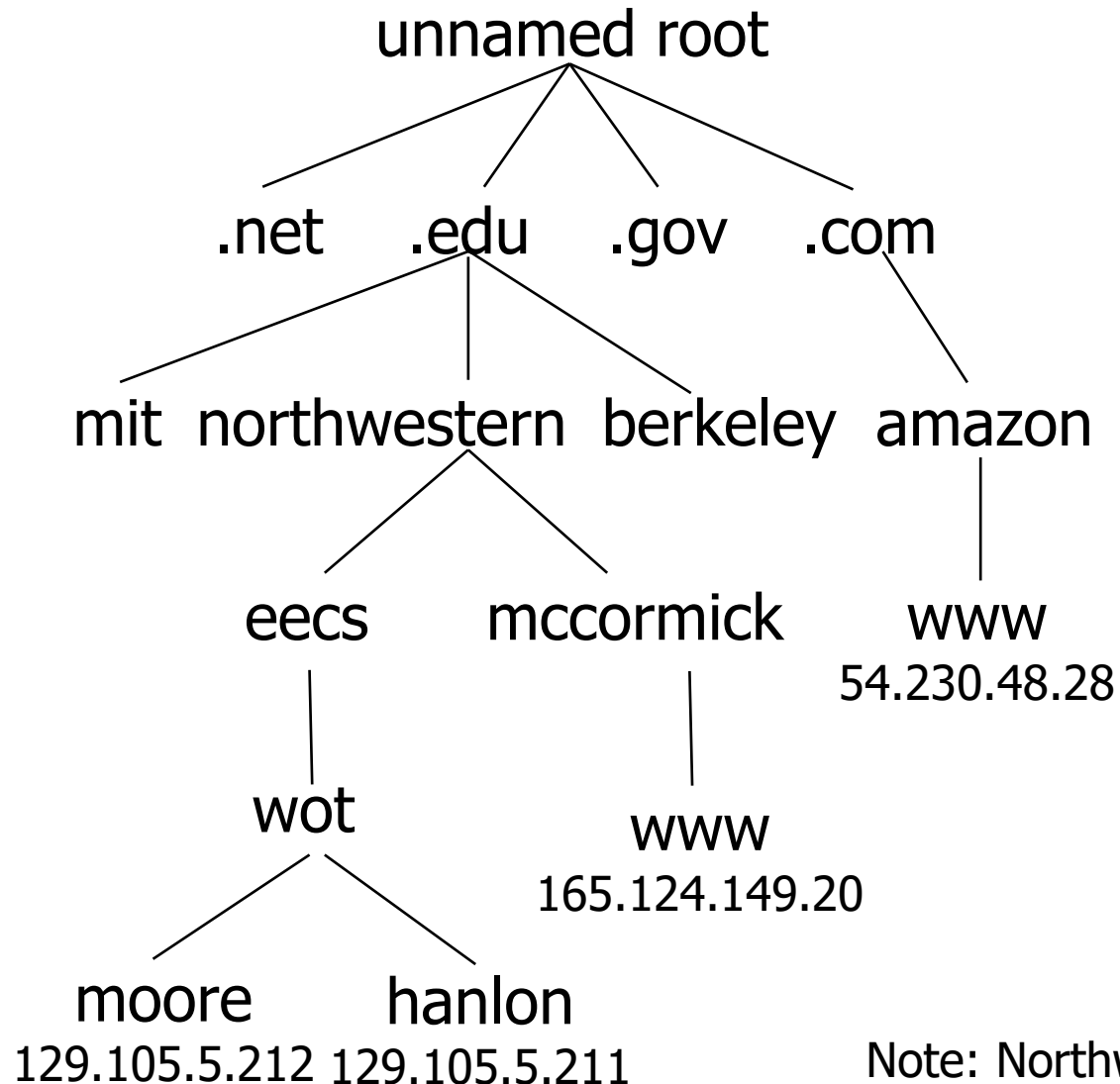
# Northwestern IPv4 ranges

- Format: `ip.addr/NUM`
- **NUM** is the number of meaningful bits, from the most-significant bit
  - 129.105.0.0/16 means the most-significant 16 bits are meaningful  
i.e., 129.105.x.x
- Remaining bits can be used for unique addresses
  - $2^{(32-\text{NUM})}$  machines

## Public IPv4 Address Ranges

| Network          | Description                                                          |
|------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 129.105.0.0/16   | Northwestern Administrative Mainly - Evanston                        |
| 165.124.0.0/16   | Northwestern Administrative Evanston and Chicago                     |
| 165.124.188.0/22 | Northwestern-Qatar1, all others (except NU-Qatar2) on main NU campus |
| 165.124.236.0/22 | Northwestern-Qatar2, all others (except NU-Qatar1) on main NU campus |
| 192.5.143.0/24   | Peering point to point links, various other usage                    |
| 192.26.86.0/24   | ABF Rubloff 4th floor                                                |
| 192.26.87.0/24   | Starlight mgmt network                                               |
| 192.31.155.0/24  | Northwestern Affiliate                                               |
| 192.31.253.0/24  | Utility                                                              |
| 199.74.64.0/18   | Northwestern dorms                                                   |
| 199.249.165.0/24 | Northwestern Affiliate                                               |
| 199.249.166.0/24 | Northwestern Affiliate                                               |
| 199.249.167.0/24 | Northwestern Affiliate                                               |
| 199.249.168.0/24 | Northwestern Affiliate                                               |

## 2. Internet domain names



Top-level domain names

Second-level domain names

Third-level domain names  
and onwards...

Note: Northwestern owns 129.105.0.0/16 and 165.124.0.0/16

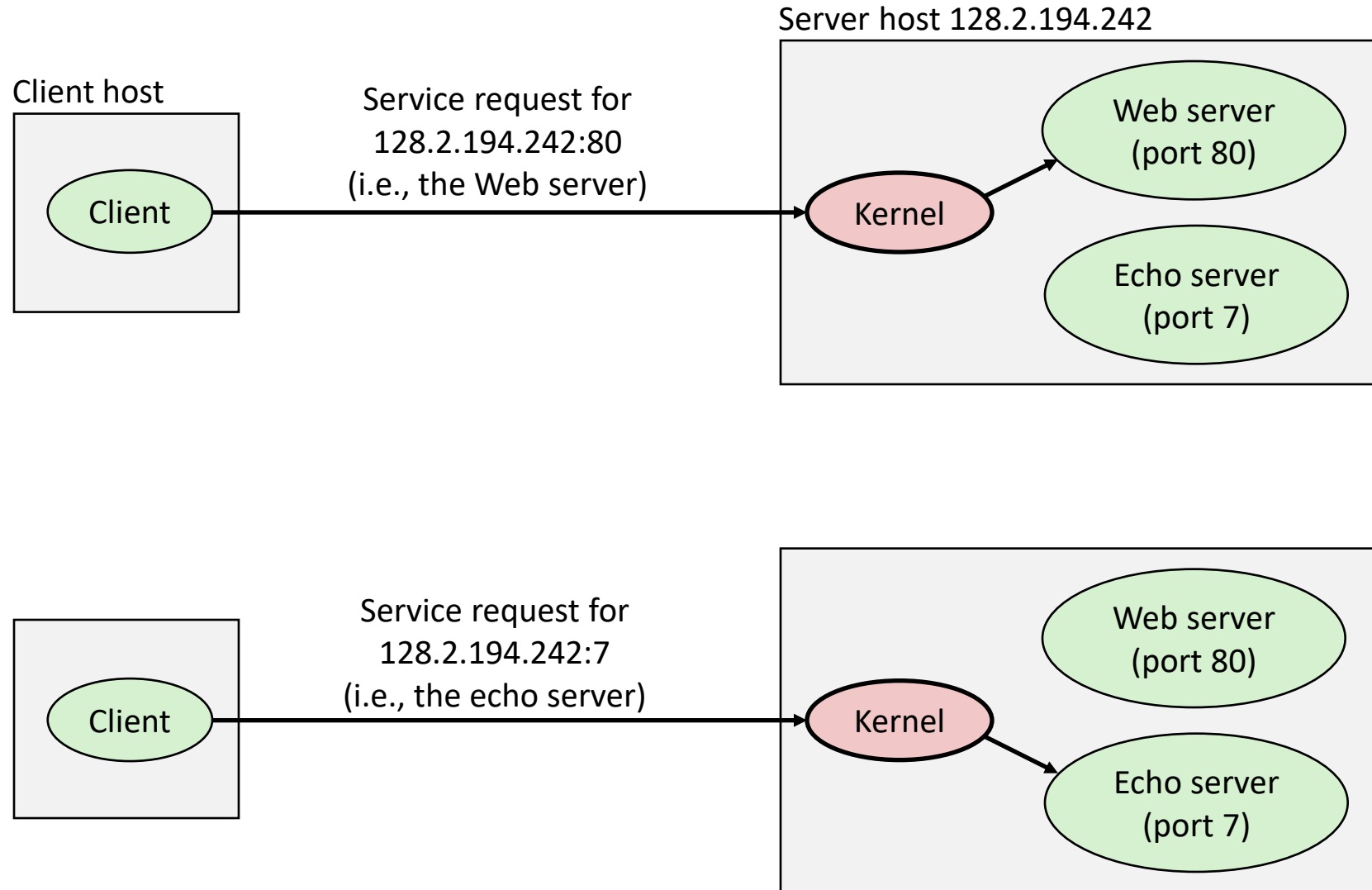
# Domain Naming System (DNS)

- The Internet maintains a mapping between IP addresses and domain names in a huge worldwide distributed database called **DNS**
- Conceptually, programmers can view the DNS database as a collection of millions of **host entries**
  - Each host entry defines the mapping between a set of domain names and IP addresses
- A special name: **localhost**
  - Refers back to the computer being used (IP address 127.0.0.1)

### 3. Internet connections

- A socket is an endpoint of a connection
  - Socket address is an **IPAddress:port** pair
    - IP address identifies the computer
    - Port identifies the process on the computer
- Clients and servers communicate by sending streams of bytes over **connections**. Most connections are:
  - Point-to-point: connects a pair of processes.
  - Full-duplex: data can flow in both directions at the same time,
  - [TCP adds] Reliable: stream of bytes sent by the source is eventually received by the destination in the same order it was sent.

# Ports are used to identify services to the kernel



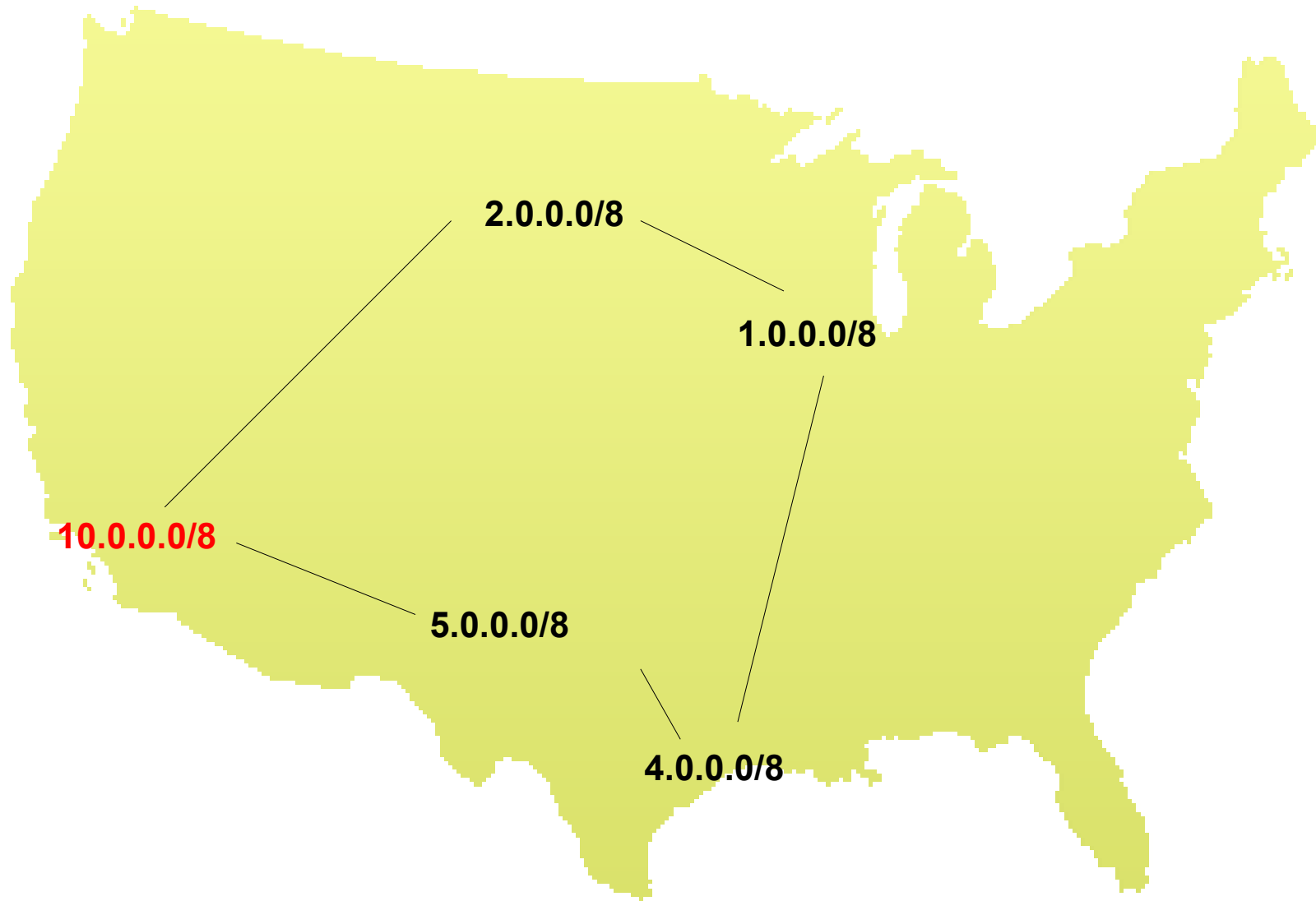
# How does the Internet handle routing packets?

- Network layer (IP)
  - Describes computer-to-computer connection
    - Packets from my computer <---> Google server
- Link layer (Ethernet)
  - Describes individual links
    - Packets from my computer <---> my router
- **Routing**
  - Using link-layer building blocks to get packets from one IP to another

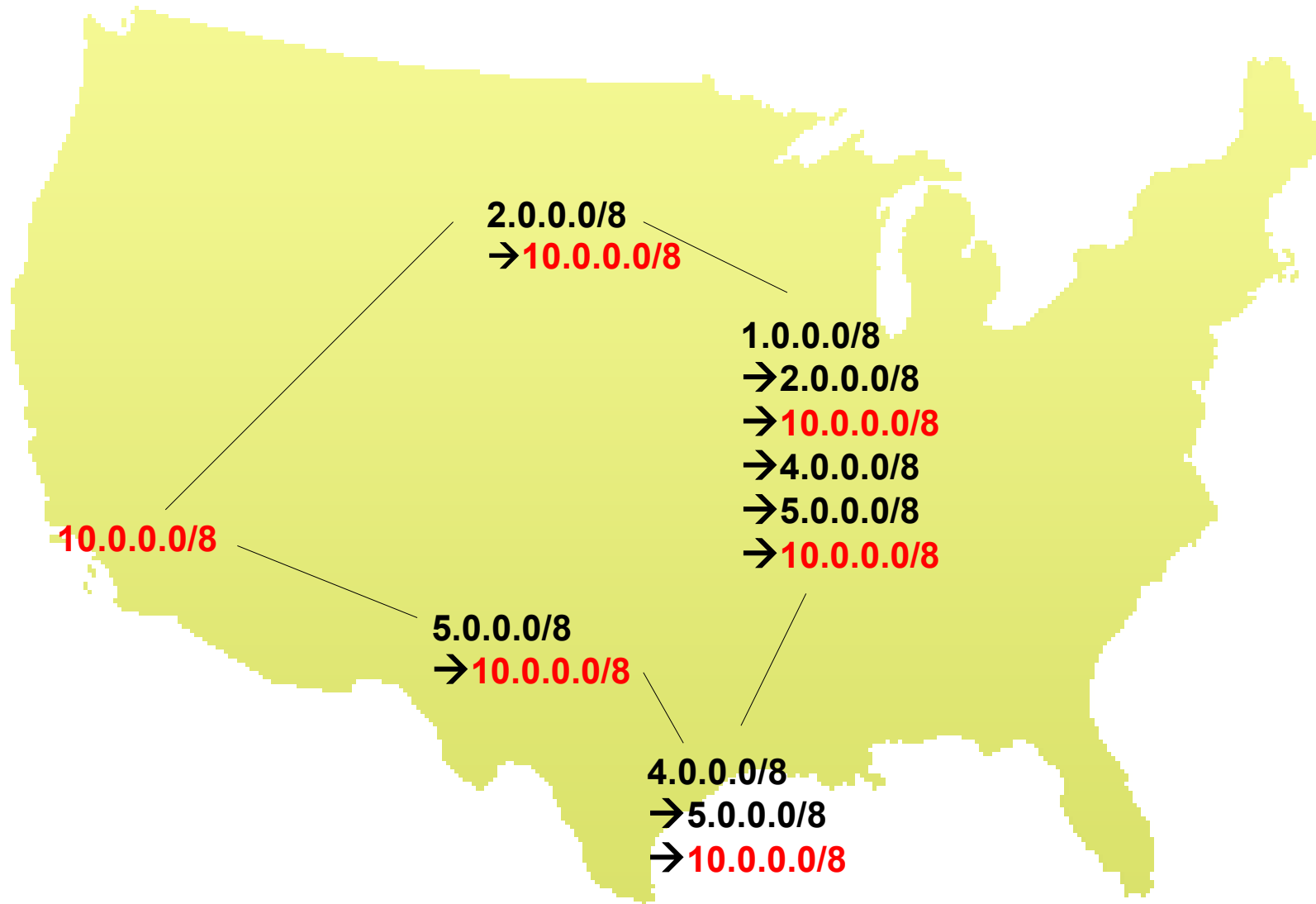
# Assigning and finding IP address ranges

- In general, network operators don't change that often
- Solution:
  - Tie IP addresses to network operators
  - Assign computers IPs as they join networks
- Key Point:
  - Networks "own" a block of IP address space
  - "The Internet" is a network of networks

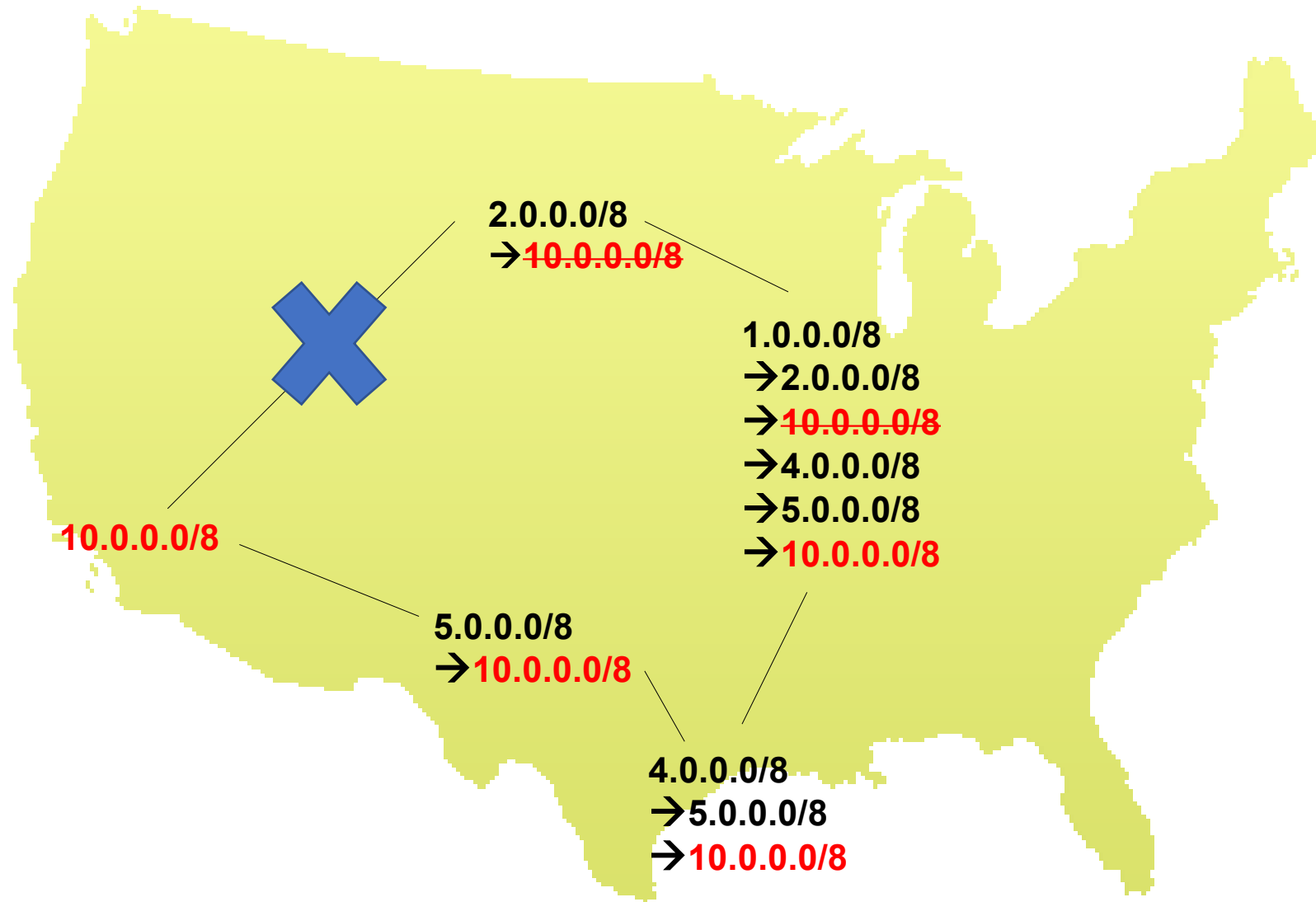
# Routing



# Routing



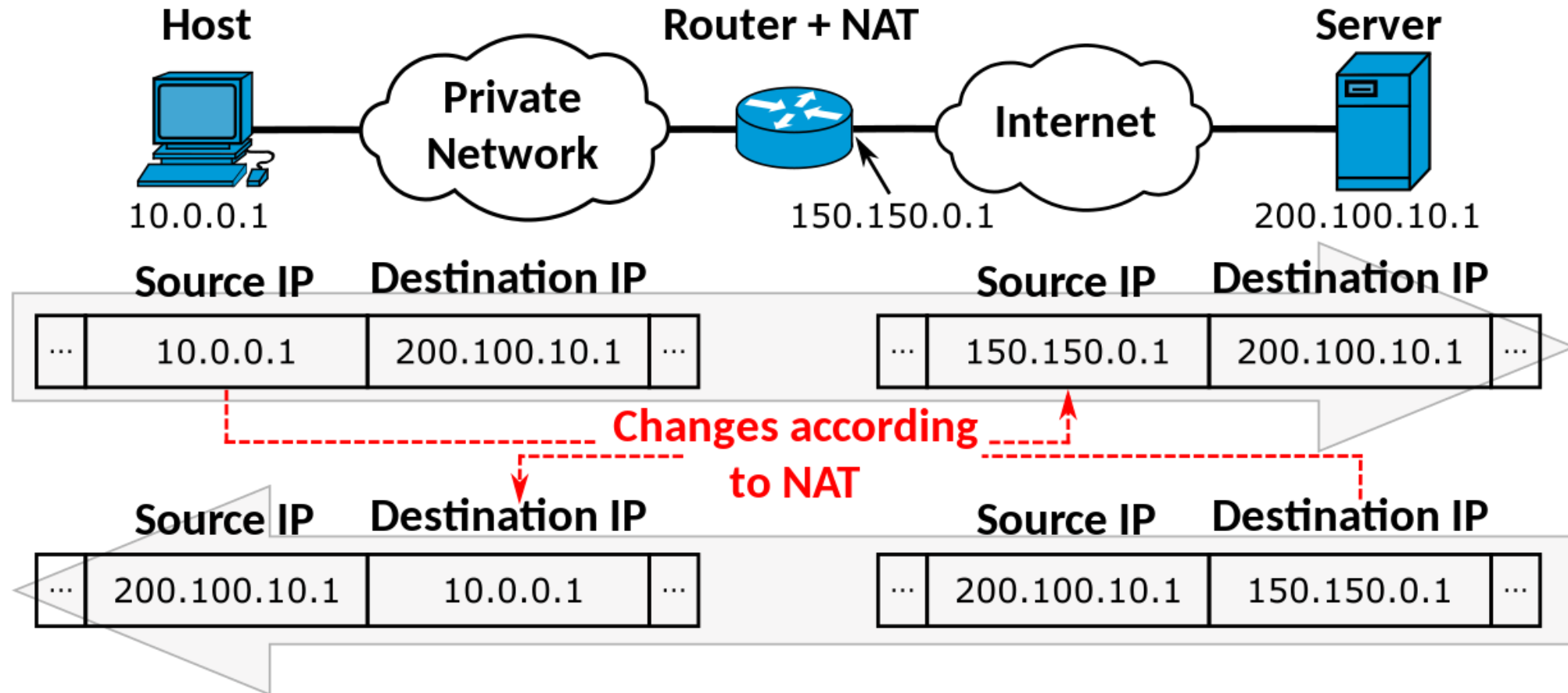
# Routing Adaptation



# Identifying your computer?

- Every network card has its own MAC address
  - IPs are (somewhat) dynamic, "owned" by local networks
  - MACs are hardware and static, "owned" by specific computers
    - Manufacturers own blocks of MACs, "spend" them each time they make a device
- "Connecting" to a network
  - Your computer leases an IP from the local network
  - Only the local router knows your MAC, everyone else sees your IP
- Actually, with NAT, you probably have a private IP address
  - This is how we make 32-bit addresses sufficient for the whole Internet

# Network Address Translation (NAT)



- [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Network\\_address\\_translation](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Network_address_translation)



# Break + Thinking

- What are the steps for viewing a website?

# Break + Thinking

- What are the steps for viewing a website?
  1. You enter a domain name for the website
  2. Computer looks up domain name to get IP Address
  3. Computer sends request to IP\_address:80
  4. Computer gets back data, which it renders into a website

# ALL the layers

- A 'famous' interview question
  - "What happens when you type google.com into your browser's address bar and press enter?"
  - <https://github.com/alex/what-happens-when>
    - 12 pages worth of material
      - Keyboard events
      - Parsing URL
      - DNS lookup
      - Opening socket
      - HTTP protocol
      - HTML parsing
      - GPU rendering

# Outline

- OSI Layers
- Internet Architecture (Upper Layers)
- **Physical Layer**
  - **Overview**
  - Signal Strength
  - Signal Frequency and Bandwidth
  - Signal Modulation

# Physical Layer

- How bits are transmitted
  - Wireless makes this entirely different from wired cases
- Important considerations
  - Signal strength
  - Modulation
  - Frequency

# Why use wireless?

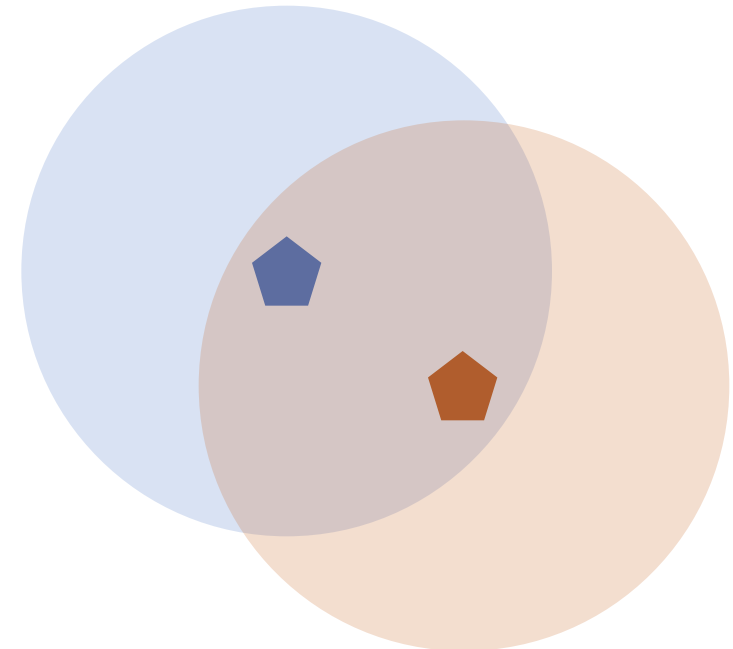
- There are no wires!
- No need to install and maintain wires
  - Reduces cost
  - Simplifies deployment – place devices wherever makes sense
- Supports mobile users
  - Move around office, campus, city
  - Move devices around home

# What is hard about wireless?

- There are no wires!
- Wired networks are constant, reliable, and physically isolated
  - Ethernet has the same throughput minute-to-minute
  - Bits sent through Ethernet or USB are (usually) received
- Wireless networks are variable, error-prone, and shared
  - WiFi throughput changes based on location and walls
  - Signals from nearby devices interfere with your signals
  - Individual bits might flip or never be heard at all

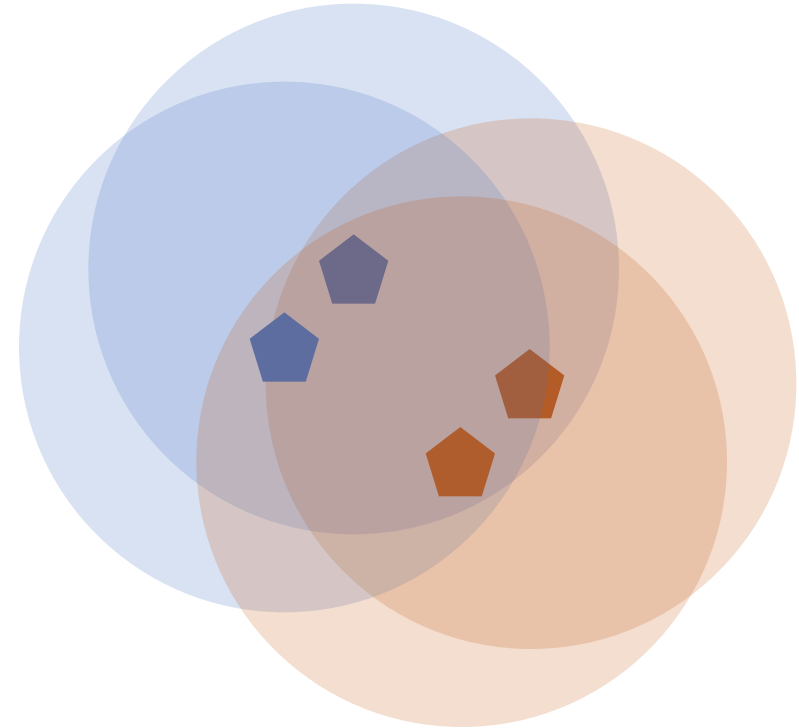
# Wireless is a shared medium

- Wired communication has signals confined to a conductor
  - Copper or fiber
  - Guides energy to destination
  - Protects signal from interference
- Wireless communication is inherently broadcast
  - Energy is distributed in space
  - Signals must compete with other signals in same frequency band



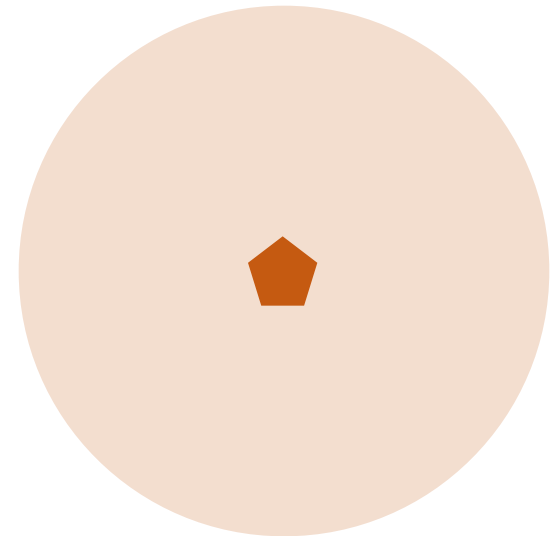
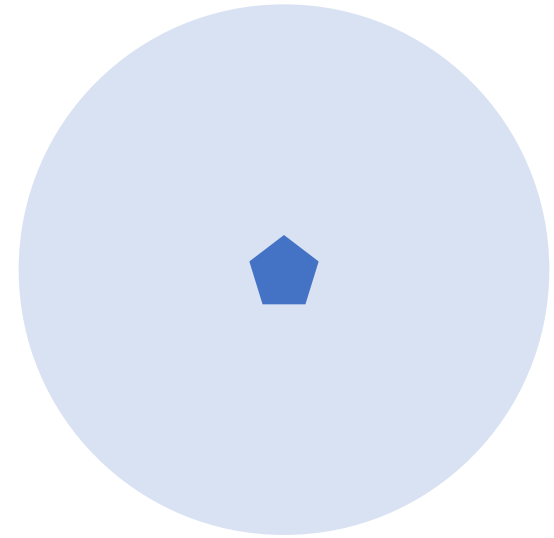
# Increasing network capacity is challenging

- Wired networks just add more wires
  - Buses are many signals in parallel to send more data
- Wireless networks are harder
  - Adding more links just increases interference
  - Need to expand to different frequencies



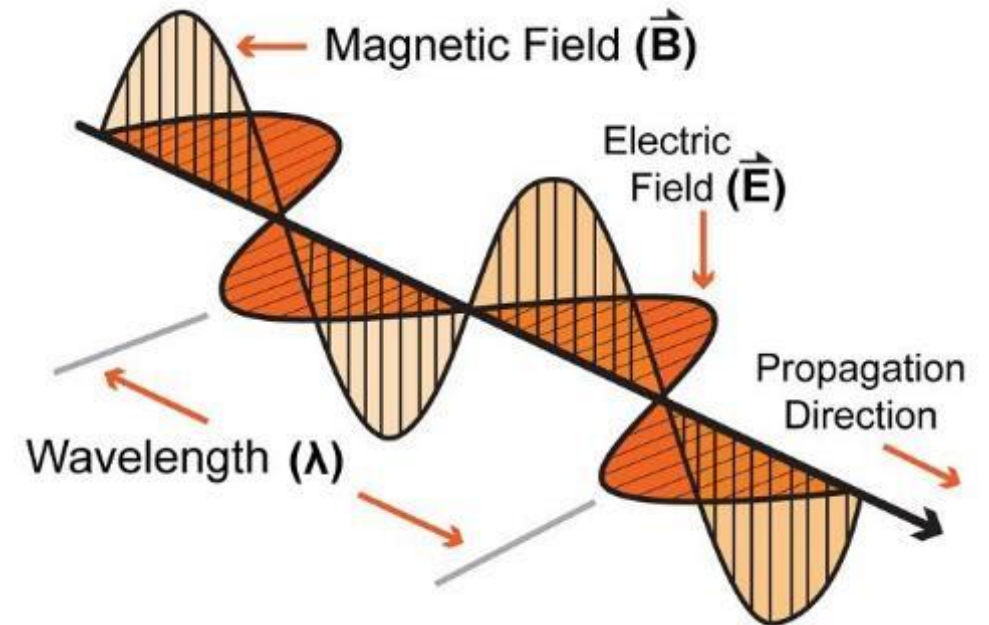
# Model of RF communication

- Energy that radiates spherically from an antenna
- Attenuation with distance
  - Density of energy reduces over time, distance
  - Signal strength is reduced, errors go up
- Two key features
  - Error rates depend on distance
  - Spatial reuse of frequencies



# Signal qualities

1. Signal strength
  - The amount of energy transmitted/received
2. Signal frequency and bandwidth
  - Which "channel" the signal is sent on
3. Signal modulation
  - How data is encoded in the signal



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# Signal qualities

## 1. Signal strength

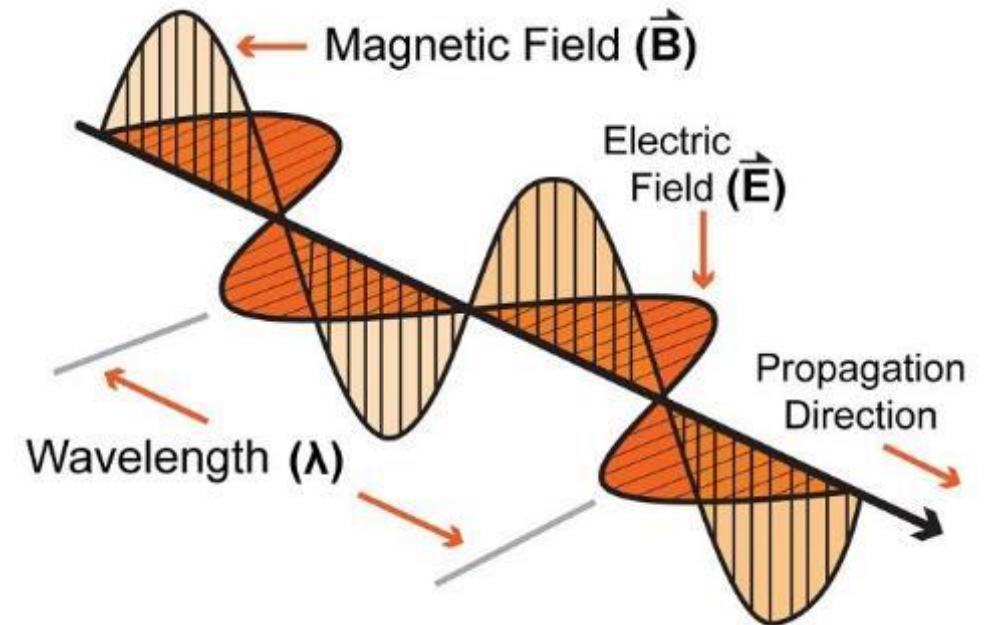
- The amount of energy transmitted/received

## 2. Signal frequency and bandwidth

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# Signal strength is measured in decibels

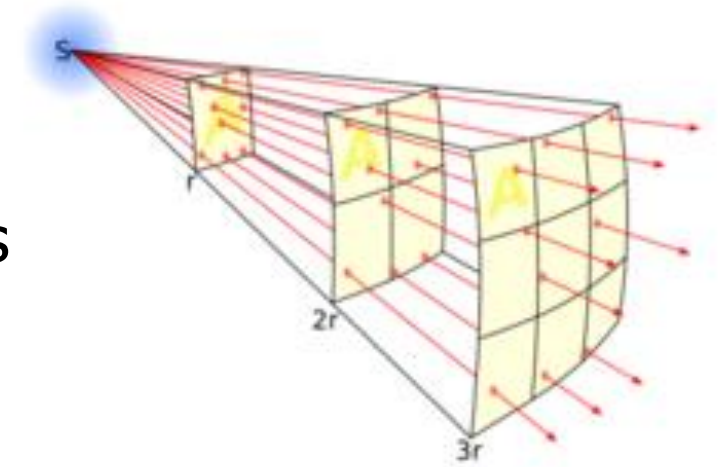
- Power is measured in Watts or dBw or dBm
  - $Power_{dBw} = 10 * \log_{10}(Power_{Watts})$
  - $Power_{dBm} = 10 * \log_{10}(Power_{milliwatts})$
- dBm is most relevant to the IoT domain
  - 0 dBm equals 1 mW transmit power
  - Example
    - Max BLE transmit power for nRF52840: 8 dBm (6.31 mW)
    - Min BLE receive sensitivity for nRF52840: -95 dBm (316.2 fW)
- Rule of thumb: +3 dB is double the power

# Signal strength varies significantly across technologies

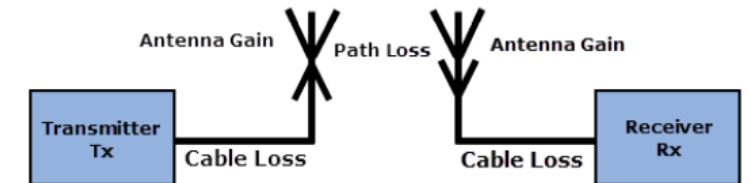
- Bluetooth Low Energy (local area)
  - nRF52840 transmit power: 8 dBm (6.31 mW)
  - nRF52840 receive sensitivity: -95 dBm (316.2 fW)
- LoRa (wide area)
  - SX127X LoRa transmit power: 20 dBm (100 mW)
  - SX127X LoRa receive sensitivity: -148 dBm (1.6 attoWatt)

# Propagation degrades RF signals

- Attenuation in free space
  - Signals get weaker as they travel over long distances
  - Signal spreads out → Free Space Path Loss (FSPL)

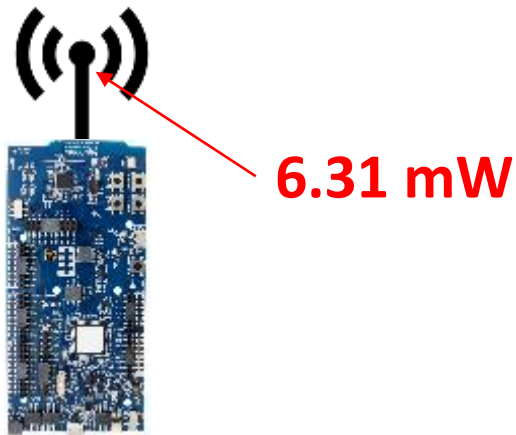


$$FSPL = 20 \log_{10}(d) + 20 \log_{10}(f) + 20 \log_{10}\left(\frac{4\pi}{c}\right) - G_t - G_r$$



# Some intuitions for signal propagation, power, gain, etc

- We will use the nrf52840 in lab:
  - Max BLE transmit power for nRF52840: 8 dBm (6.31 mW)
  - Min BLE receive sensitivity for nRF52840: -95 dBm (316.2 fW)



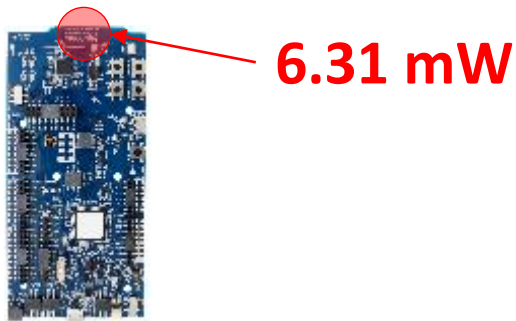
# Wait, where is the antenna??

- This little strip of metal is the actual antenna
  - Receiver only recovers the part of the signal that hits its antenna (“aperture”)



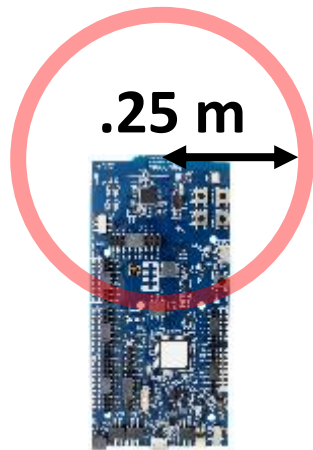
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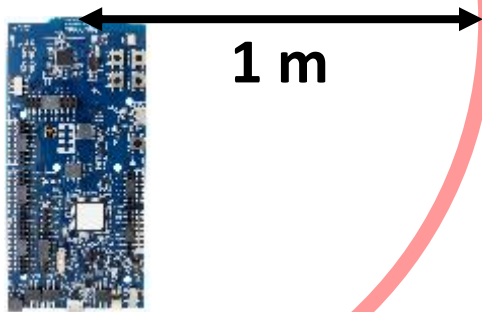
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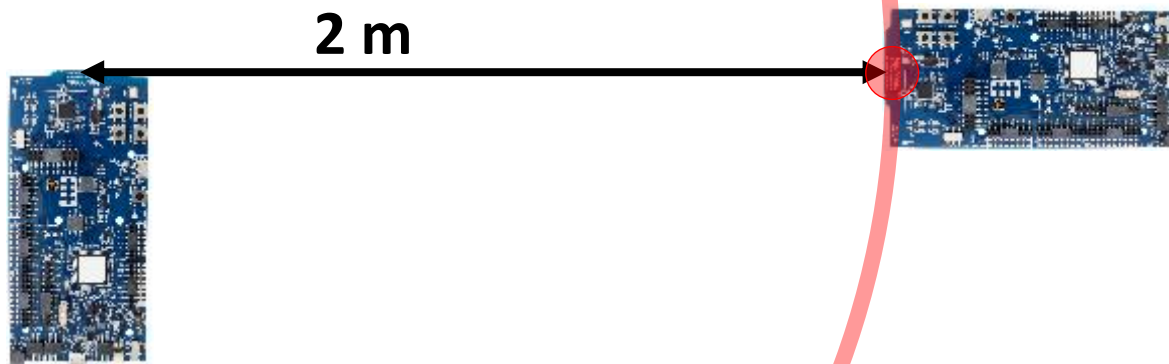
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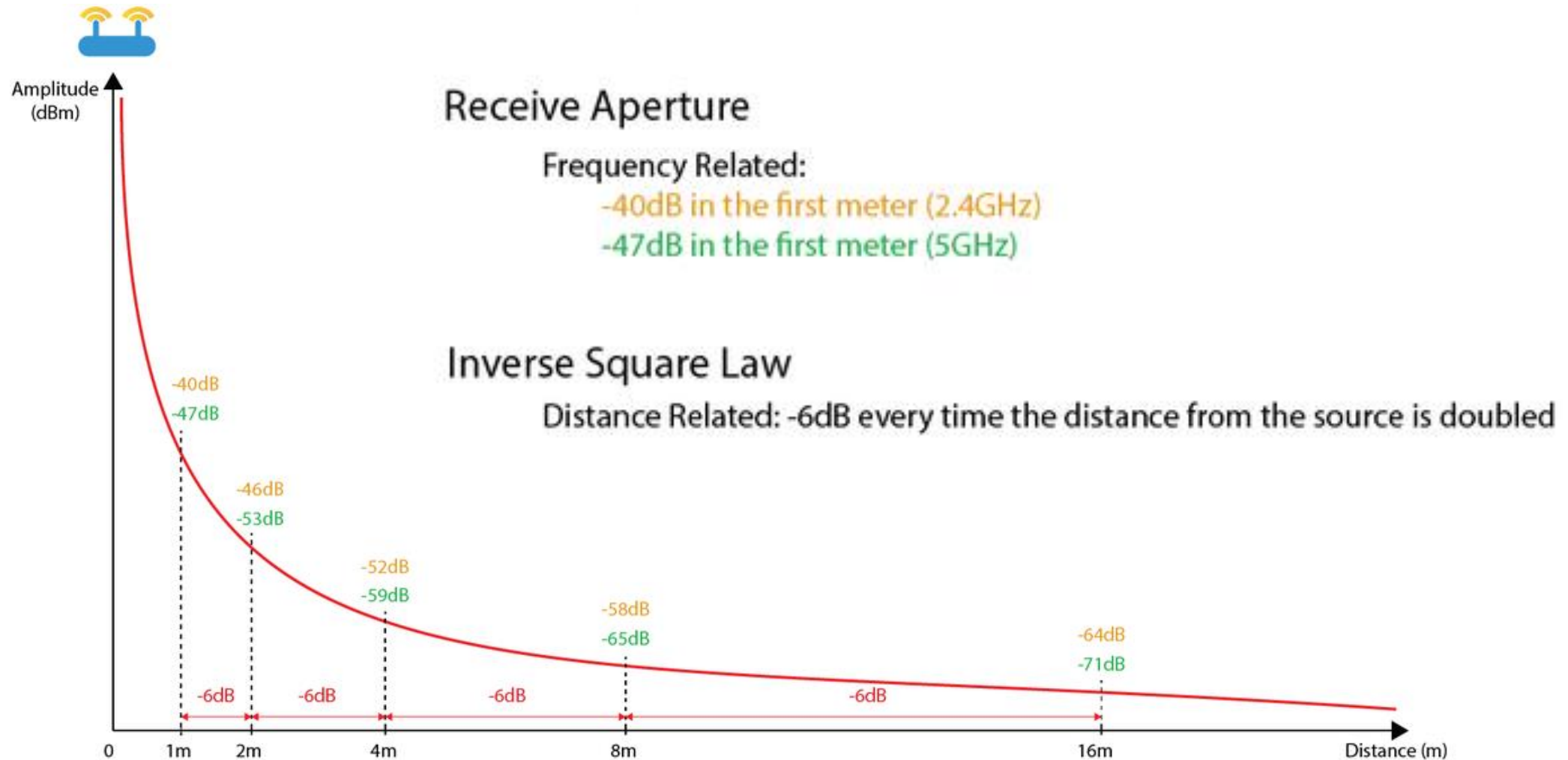


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# Free-Space Path Loss Model



# Okay.. So what's the limit?

- We will use the nrf52840 in lab:
  - Max BLE transmit power for nRF52840: 8 dBm (6.31 mW)
  - Min BLE receive sensitivity for nRF52840: -95 dBm (316.2 fW)
- $8 \text{ dBm} - -95 \text{ dBm} = 103 \text{ dB}$  link margin
- With Free Space Path Loss model:
  - 103 dB corresponds to 1400 meter range!
  - Can anyone get 1.4 km on their Bluetooth headphones?

# Propagation is *one thing* that degrades RF signals

- Attenuation in free space
  - Signals get weaker as they travel over long distances
  - Signal spreads out -> free space path loss
- Important: distance is NOT the only signal strength loss
  - Free space path loss calculation will not give you accurate range for a signal
- Obstacles can weaken signal through absorption or reflection
  - Precise quantitative details are in the EE domain
  - We'll use examples to develop qualitative instincts in this class

# ITU model for Indoor Attenuation

$$L = 20 \log_{10} f + N \log_{10} d + P_f(n) - 28$$

where,

$L$  = the total path loss. Unit: decibel (dB).

$f$  = Frequency of transmission. Unit: megahertz(MHz).

$d$  = Distance. Unit: meter (m).

$N$  = The distance power loss coefficient.

$n$  = Number of floors between the transmitter and receiver.

$P_f(n)$  = the floor loss penetration factor.

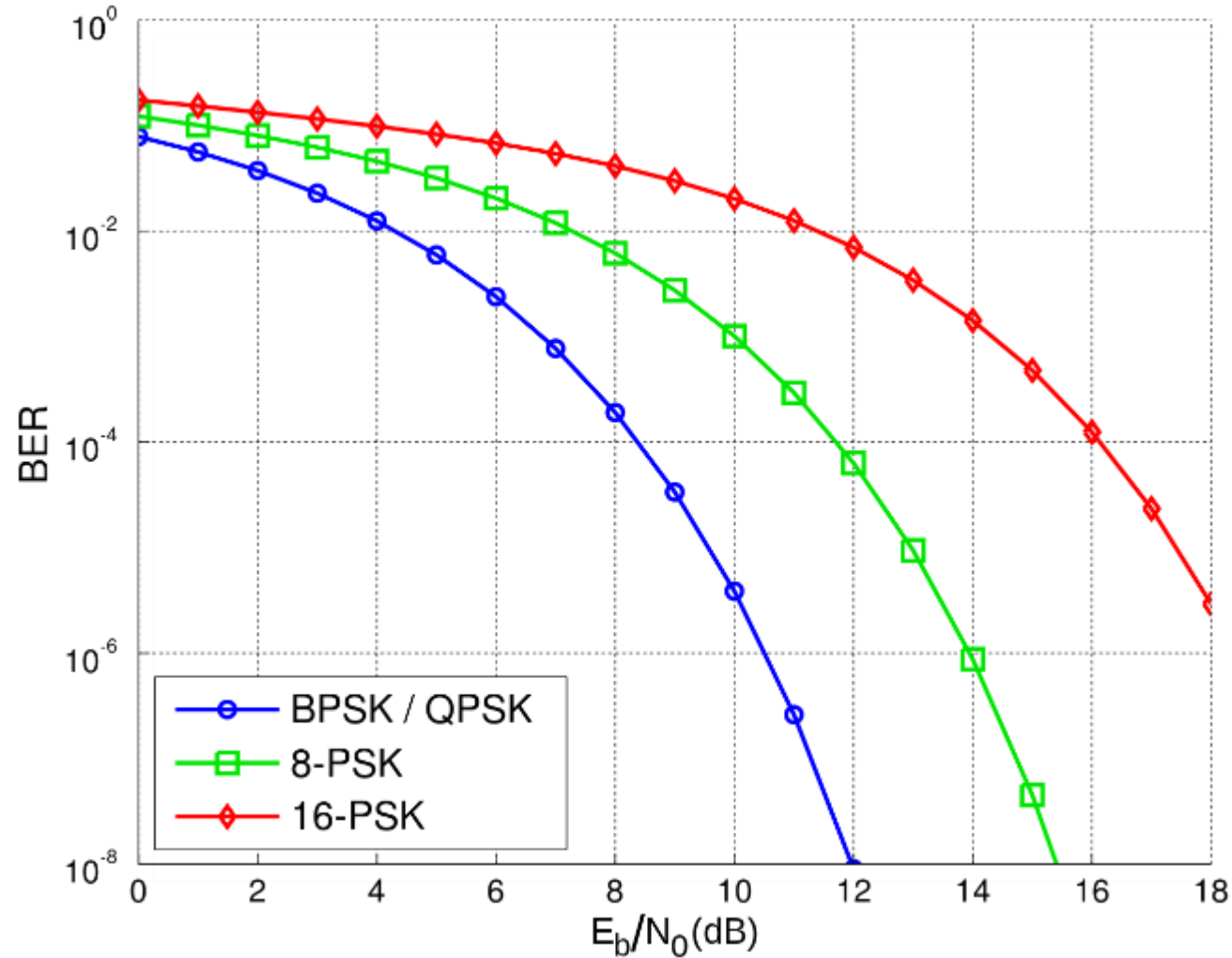
- Models like this are ~~more trustworthy~~ *less bad* than Free-Space Path Loss
  - [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/ITU\\_model\\_for\\_indoor\\_attenuation](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/ITU_model_for_indoor_attenuation)

# Lower received energy increases error rates

More Errors



Less Errors



BER:  
Bit Error Rate

Odds that a  
transmitted bit  
will be  
received  
incorrectly

Less Energy  
Received



More Energy  
Received

# Big Idea: many RF factors are interconnected

- Energy, Distance, Throughput, and Reliability are all interconnected in communication
- Protocols make choices of some and get the results on the others
- To get more distance, choose one or more:
  - Increase energy
  - Communicate slower
  - Accept a higher error rate

# Break + Say hi to your neighbors

- Things to share
  - Name
  - Major
  - One of the following
    - Favorite Candy
    - Favorite Pokemon
    - Favorite Emoji

# Break + Say hi to your neighbors

- Things to share
  - Name -Branden
  - Major -EE, CE, and CS
  - One of the following
    - Favorite Candy - Twix
    - Favorite Pokemon - Eevee
    - Favorite Emoji - 🍌

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# Signal qualities

## 1. Signal strength

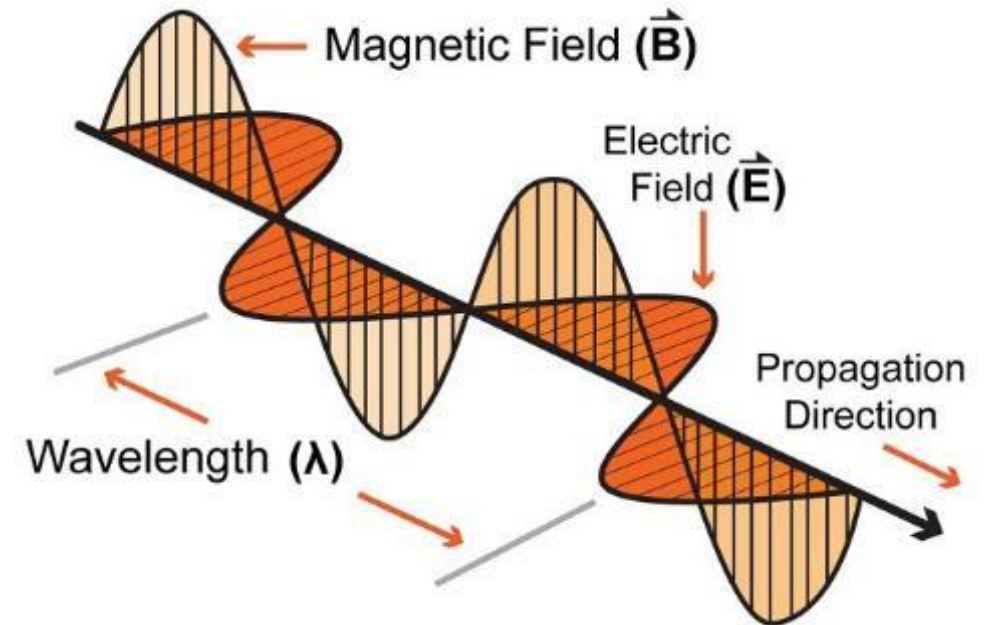
- The amount of energy transmitted/received

## 2. Signal frequency and bandwidth

- Which “channel” the signal is sent on

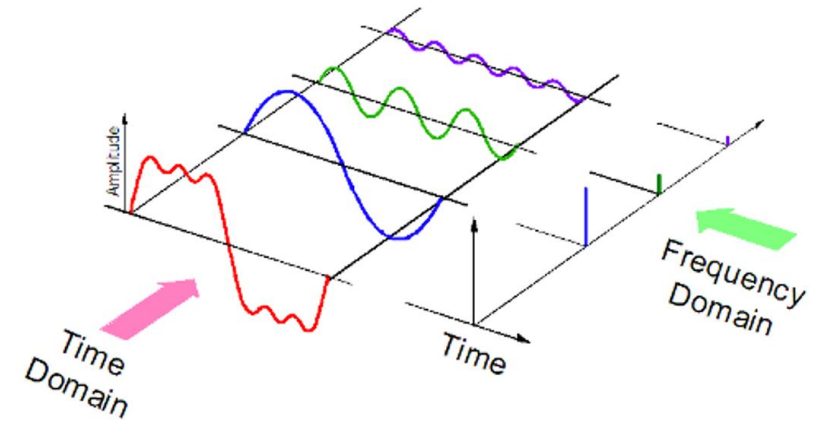
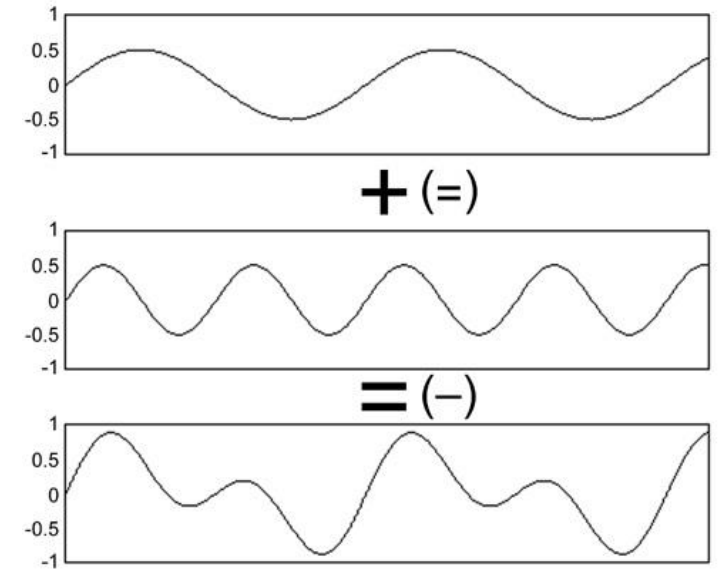
## 3. Signal modulation

- How data is encoded in the signal



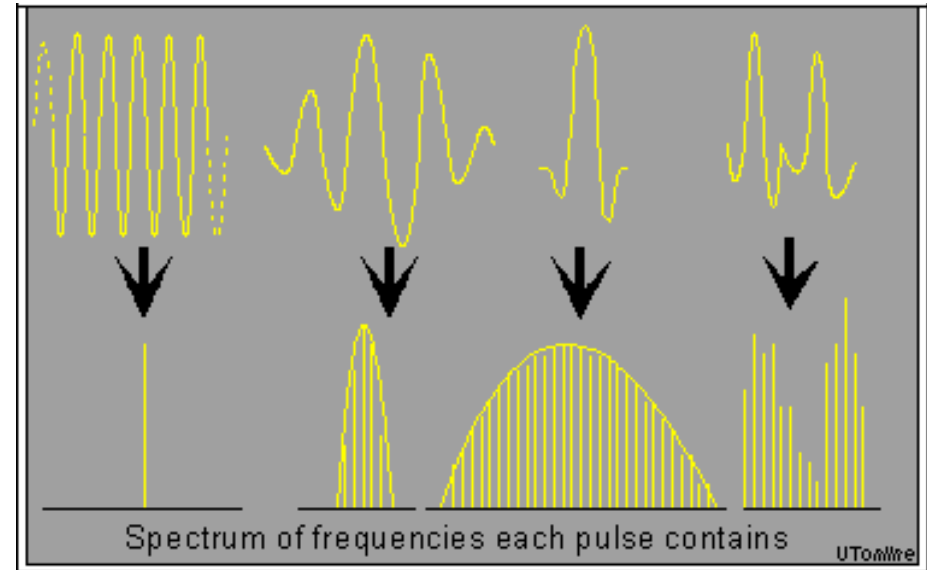
# Sum of sinusoids can be reversed

- RF signals are fundamentally sinusoids of electromagnetic energy
- Sinusoids at different frequencies can be combined and pulled apart again later
  - Particularly, it's relatively easy for hardware to determine if there's energy present on a given frequency
  - Although very close frequencies might be difficult to disentangle



# Complex waveforms have a center frequency and a width

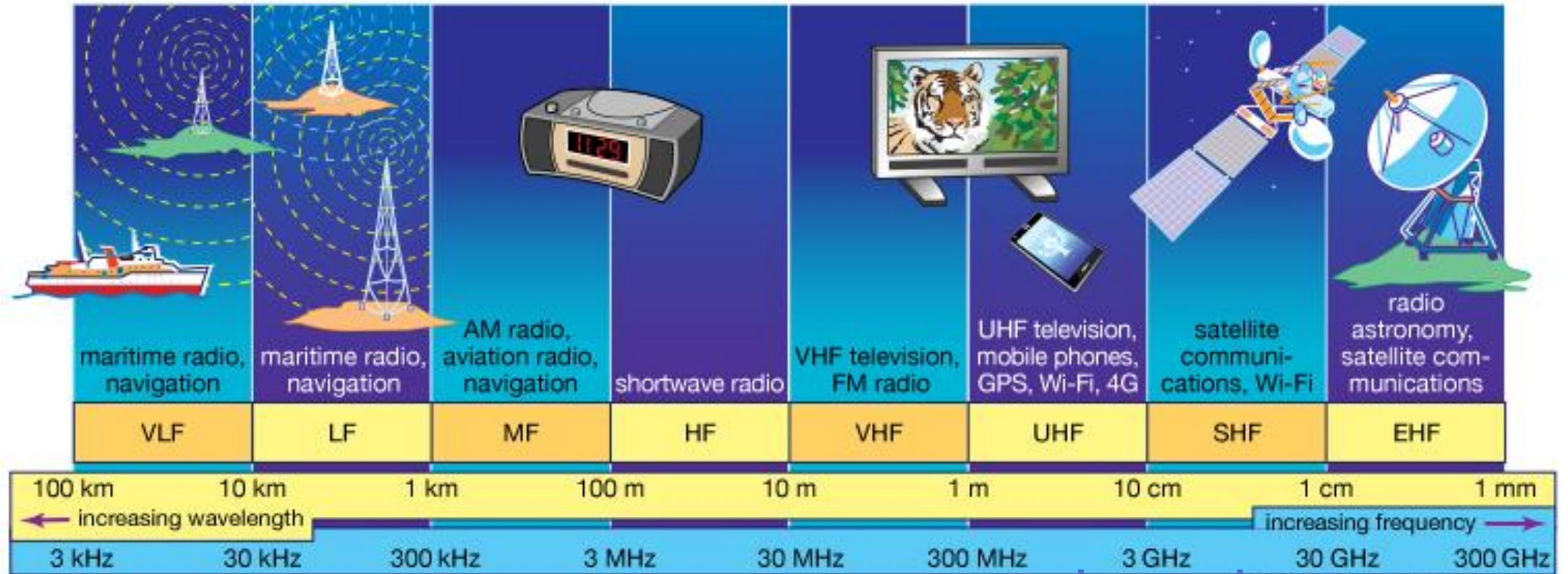
- A pure sinusoid is energy at exactly one frequency
- A messy sinusoid with data layered on top of it has nearby energy
  - There's a center of the signal energy
  - Plus some amount of width, which depends on how complicated the data layered on top is



# How do radio stations work?

- FM radio in cars is a good example of frequencies
  - All of FM radio has an allocation of 87.5 to 108.0 MHz
  - Each station takes has up to  $\sim 200$  kHz of bandwidth
- First station is 87.7 MHz  $\pm 100$  kHz
  - Ranges from 87.6 to 87.8
- Second station is 87.9 MHz  $\pm 100$  kHz
  - Ranges from 87.8 to 88.0
- What if they overlapped? They interfere with each other
  - You'd possibly hear both. Or get junk data that's neither.

# RF communication frequencies

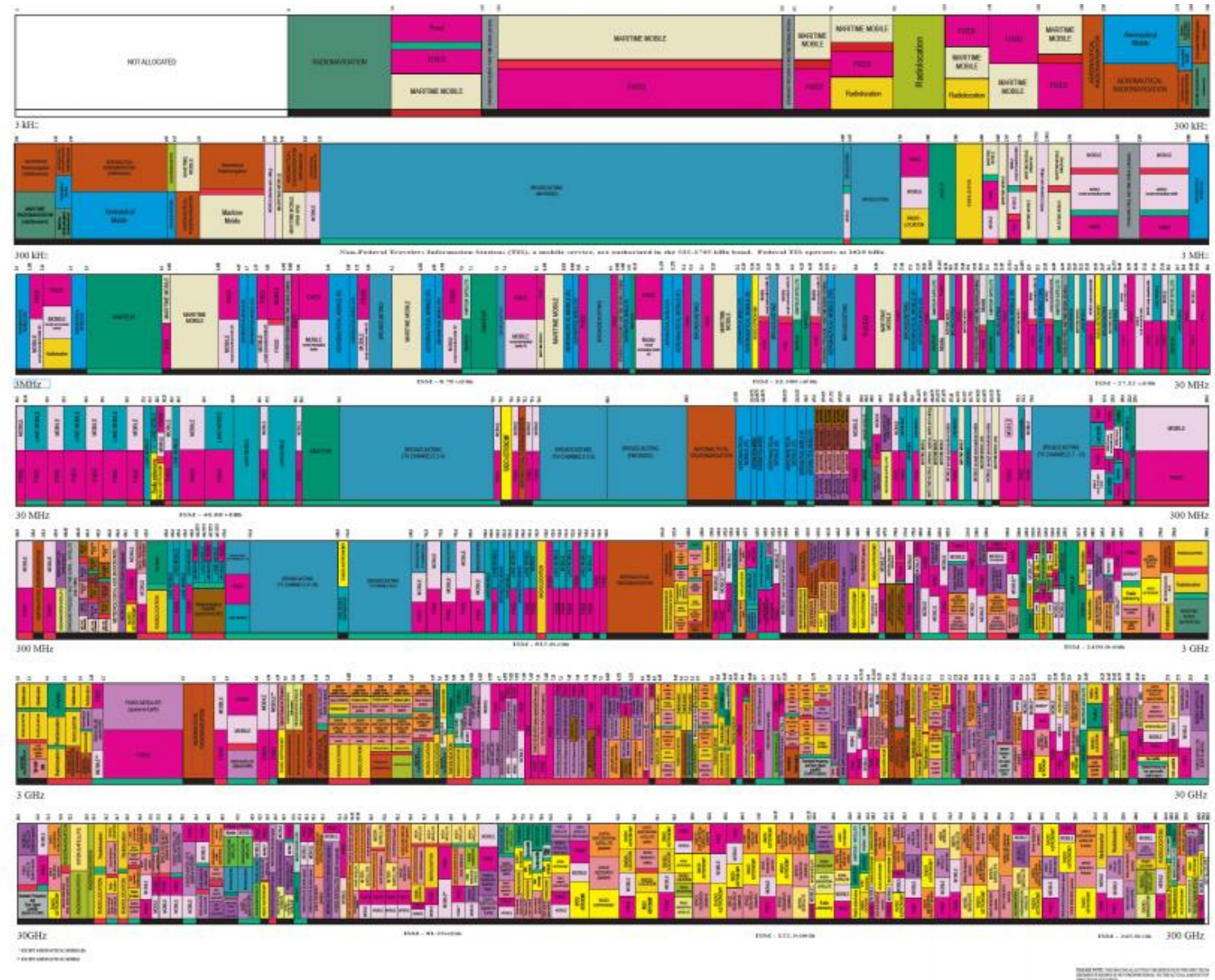


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**IoT focus**

# Wireless spectrum is allocated to specific uses

## UNITED STATES FREQUENCY ALLOCATIONS THE RADIO SPECTRUM

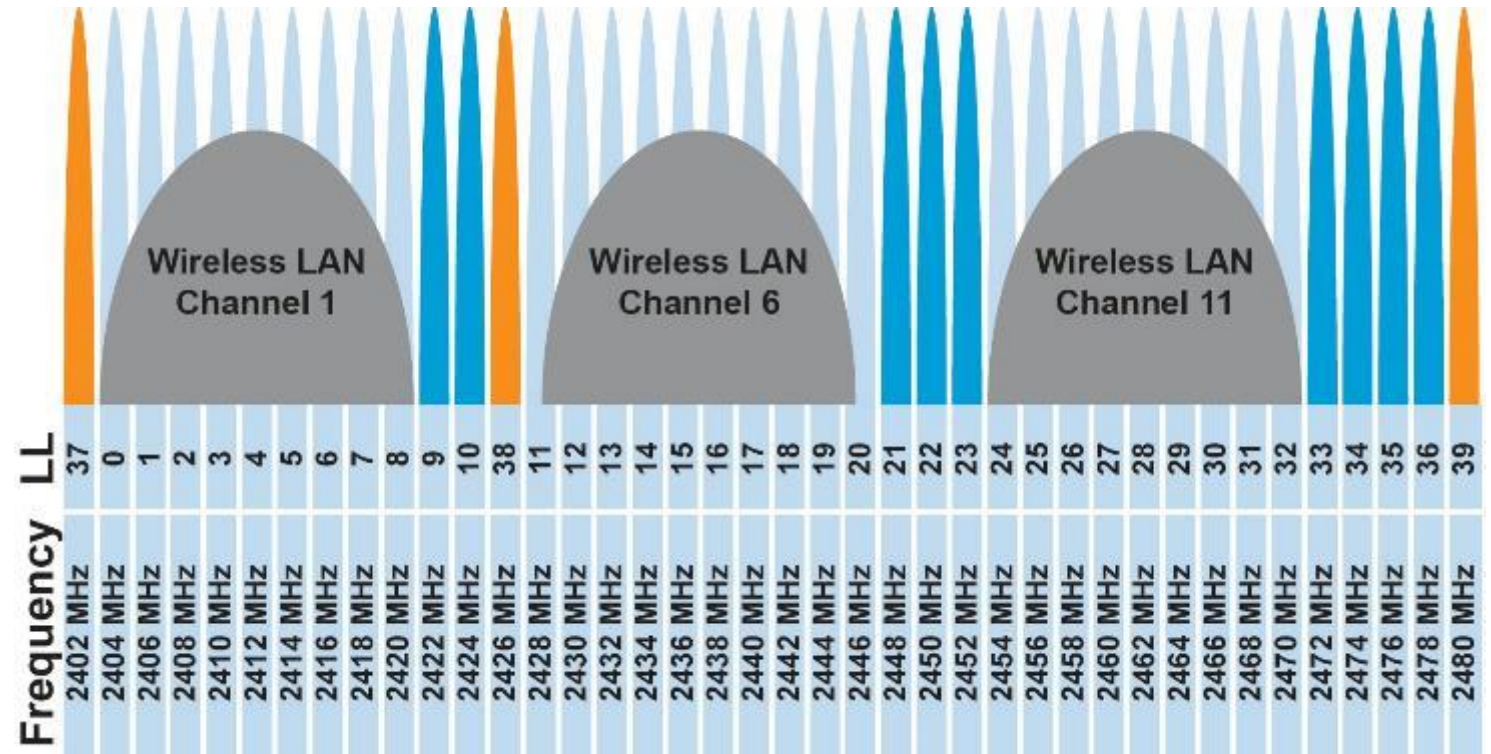


# 433 MHz Band

- Amateur radio (ham radio) was provided with specific frequencies to use
  - There are quite a few:  
[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Amateur\\_radio\\_frequency\\_allocations](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Amateur_radio_frequency_allocations)
- 433 MHz is within one of these bands in the US but globally is set aside as its own thing
  - Designated for low-power devices
  - Unlicensed use
  - Vehicle key-less entry devices, garage door openers, weather stations
    - Some IoT protocols use it as well! LoRa for example

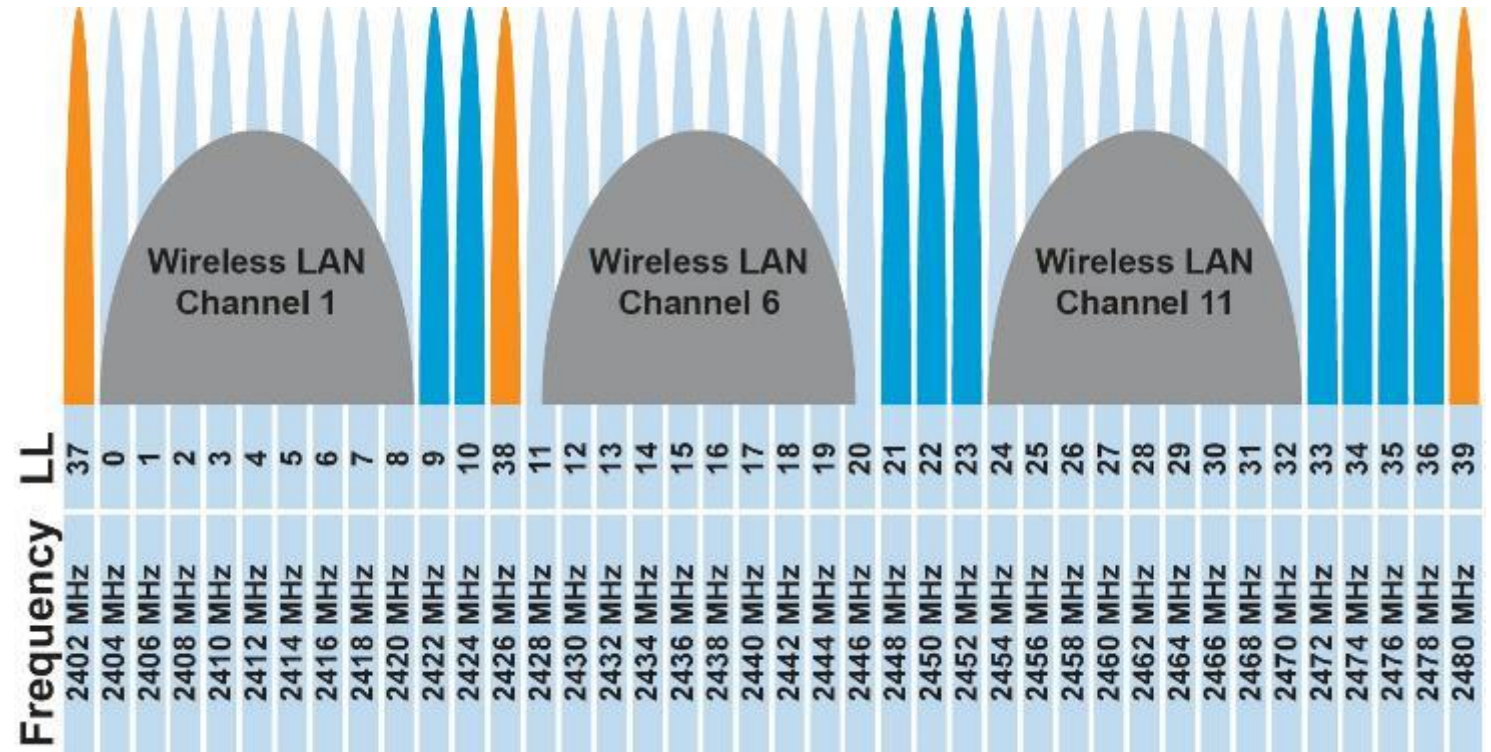
# Unlicensed bands are where IoT thrives

- 902 MHz – 928 MHz
  - LPWANs
- 2.4 GHz to 2.5 GHz
  - WiFi, BLE, Thread
- 5 GHz
  - Faster WiFi



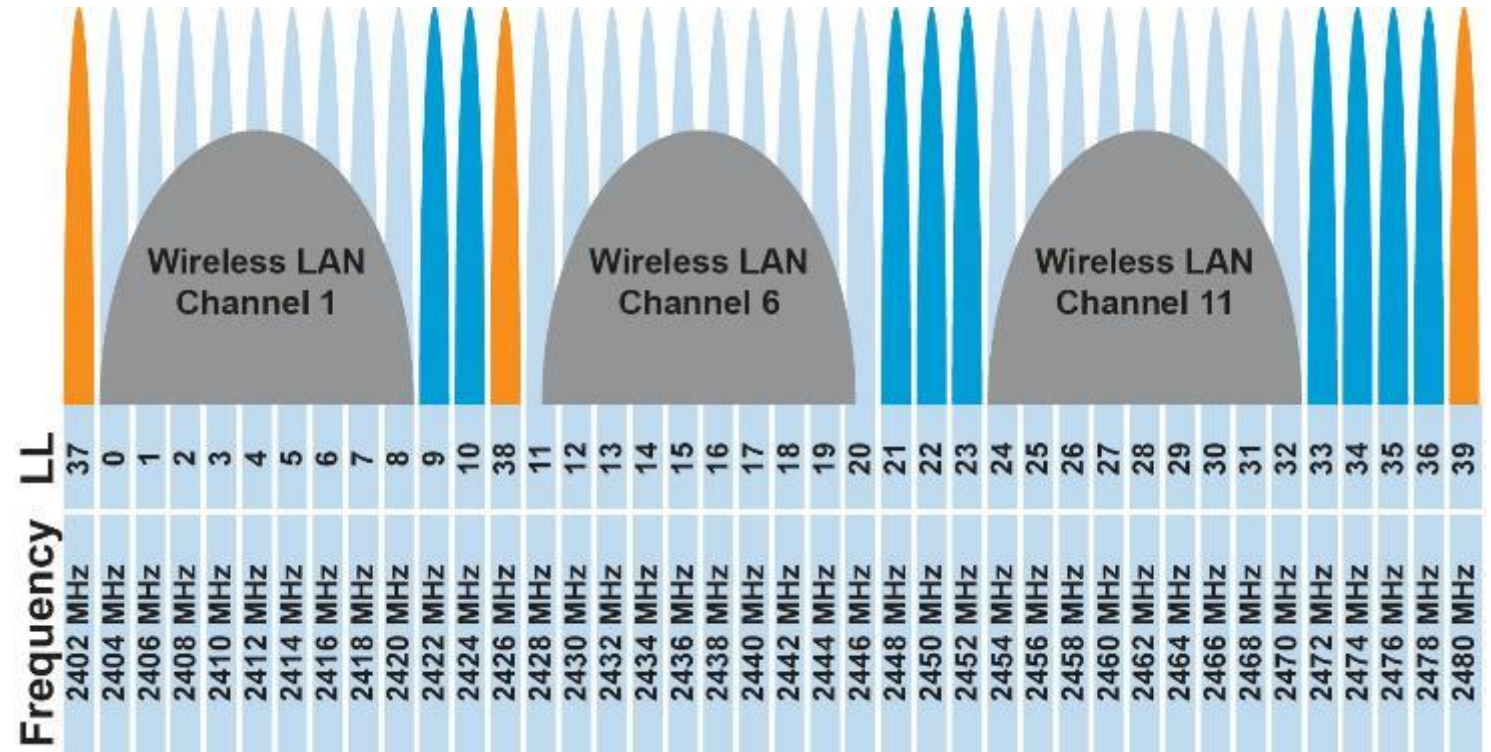
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  - **Why?**



# Unlicensed bands are where IoT thrives

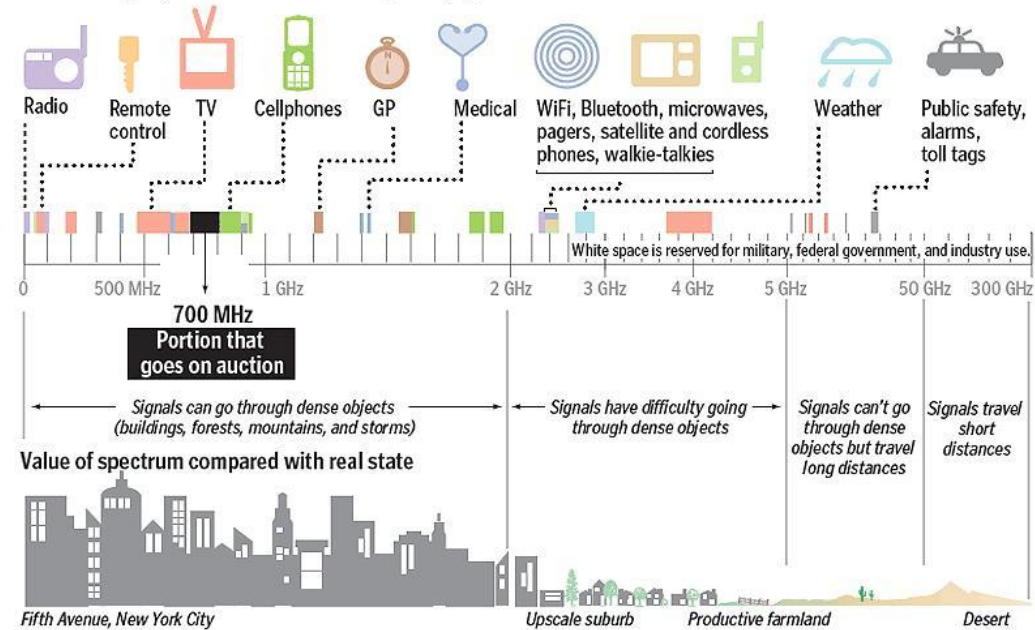
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  - WiFi, BLE, Thread
- 5 GHz
  - Faster WiFi
- Cellular uses licensed bands at great cost
  - **Why? No interference from other users**



# Wireless spectrum is limited...and valuable

- FCC auctions blocks in US
- August 2020
  - 70 MHz in 3.5 GHz spectrum
  - \$4.6 billion
- February 2021
  - 300 MHz in 3.7-9 GHz spectrum
  - \$81 billion

Some everyday uses of the radio frequency spectrum



SOURCE: New America Foundation; FCC

JOAN McLAUGHLIN/GLOBE STAFF



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**For Immediate Release**

**FCC CONCLUDES FIRST 5G MID-BAND SPECTRUM AUCTION**  
*3.5 GHz Spectrum Will Promote Innovation and Advance U.S. Leadership in 5G*

WIRELESS

## T-Mobile pays \$304M to fill in holes in its 2.5 GHz spectrum

By Linda Hardesty · Sep 1, 2022 5:39pm

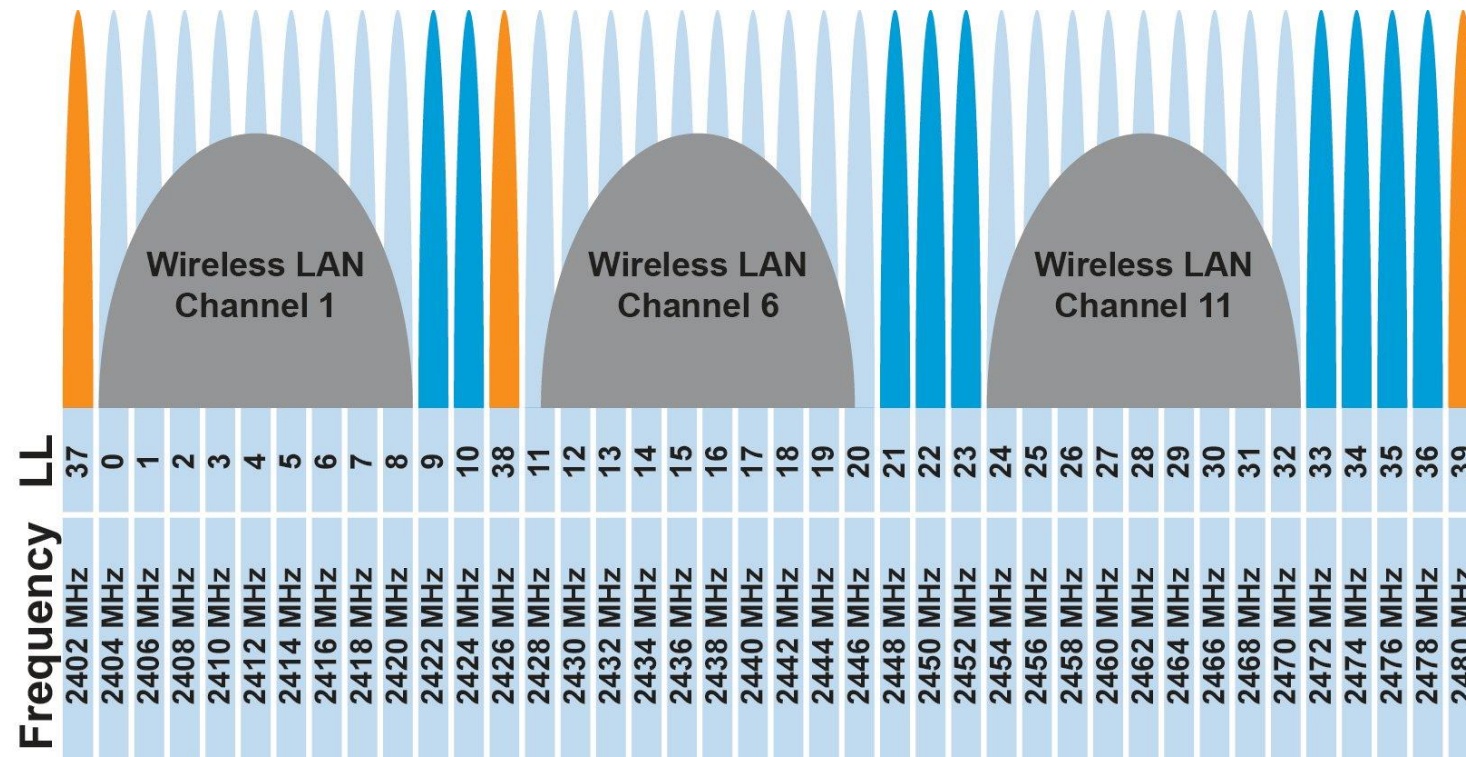
T-Mobile

2.5 GHz

spectrum auction

<https://www.fiercewireless.com/wireless/t-mobile-pays-304m-fill-holes-its-25-ghz-spectrum>

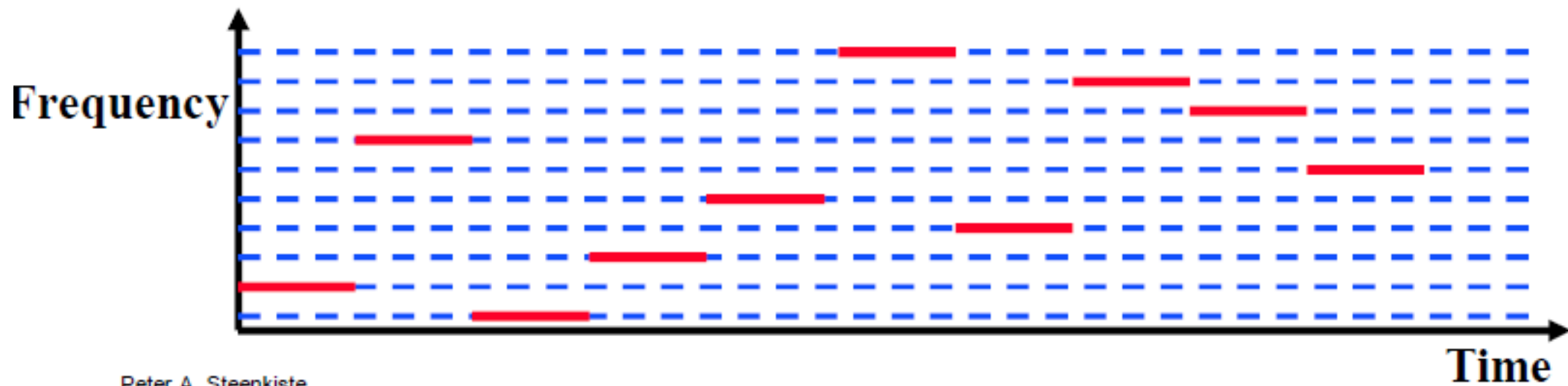
# Different technologies use spectrum in different ways



- How spectrum is used affects: cost (\$), robustness, throughput...
  - We will talk about how each technology uses spectrum, and implications
- This graphic shows how BLE and WiFi interoperate; more on this next week

# Frequency Hopping Spread Spectrum

- Transmitter hops through a sequence of transmit channels
  - Spend some “dwell time” on each channel before hopping again
  - Receiver must know the hopping pattern
- Avoid causing or receiving prolonged interference



Peter A. Steenkiste

## Sidebar: inventor of FHSS – Hedy Lamarr

- Actress, inventor, and all-around badass
  - Designed FHSS with George Antheil during WWII based on music ideas
  - Idea: torpedo control can't be easily jammed if it jumps around
- [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hedy\\_Lamarr#Inventing\\_career](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hedy_Lamarr#Inventing_career)

# Frequency and Data Rate

- Which can send data faster (more bits/second)?
  - Signal at 2 GHz frequency with 1 MHz of bandwidth
  - Signal at 20 GHz frequency with 1 MHz of bandwidth

# Frequency and Data Rate

- Which can send data faster (more bits/second)?
  - Signal at 2 GHz frequency with 1 MHz of bandwidth
  - Signal at 20 GHz frequency with 1 MHz of bandwidth
  - **They are identical!**
- Data rate is a function of bandwidth and power (not frequency)
  - Shannon-Hartley Theorem:  $C = B \log_2(1 + \frac{S}{N})$ 
    - C – channel capacity in bits per second
    - B – bandwidth
    - S/N – signal to noise ratio (measure of signal power)

# Frequency and Range

- Oof. This gets a little tricky
- Does frequency affect range: yes and no
  - Identical energy would mean identical range regardless of frequency
  - BUT
  - Lower frequencies use larger antennas
  - Larger antennas collect more energy
  - More energy allows for farther range
- Also, RF waves may or may not be affected by obstacles
  - Depends on wavelength (frequency) with obstacles much smaller than the wavelength having a minimal effect
    - Low frequencies can diffract around obstacles
  - Also depends on the materials of the obstacle

# Outline

- OSI Layers
- Internet Architecture (Upper Layers)
- **Physical Layer**
  - Overview
  - Signal Strength
  - Signal Frequency and Bandwidth
  - **Signal Modulation**

# Signal qualities

## 1. Signal strength

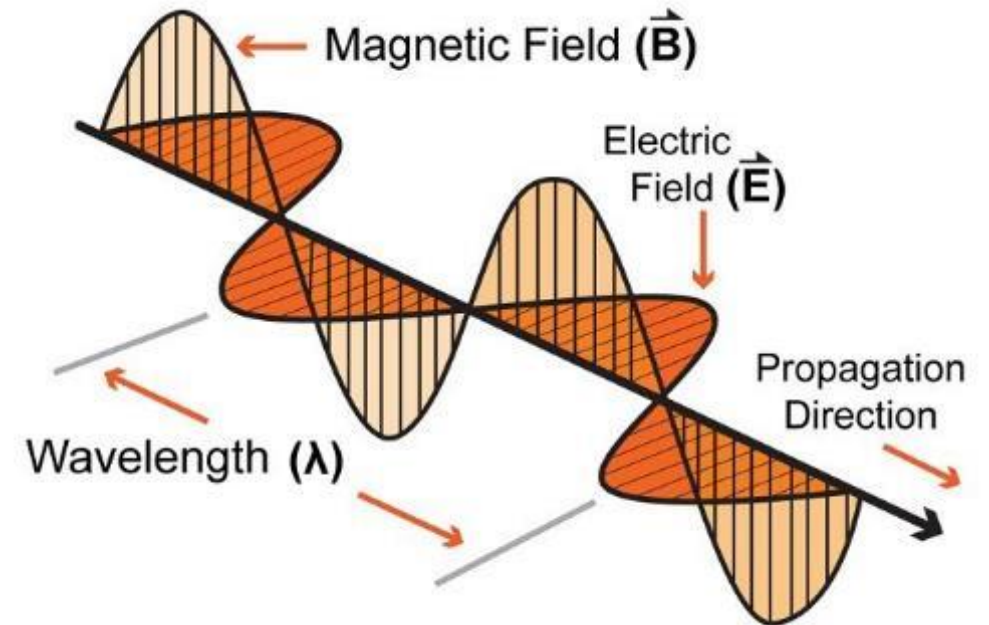
- The amount of energy transmitted/received

## 2. Signal frequency and bandwidth

- Which “channel” the signal is sent on

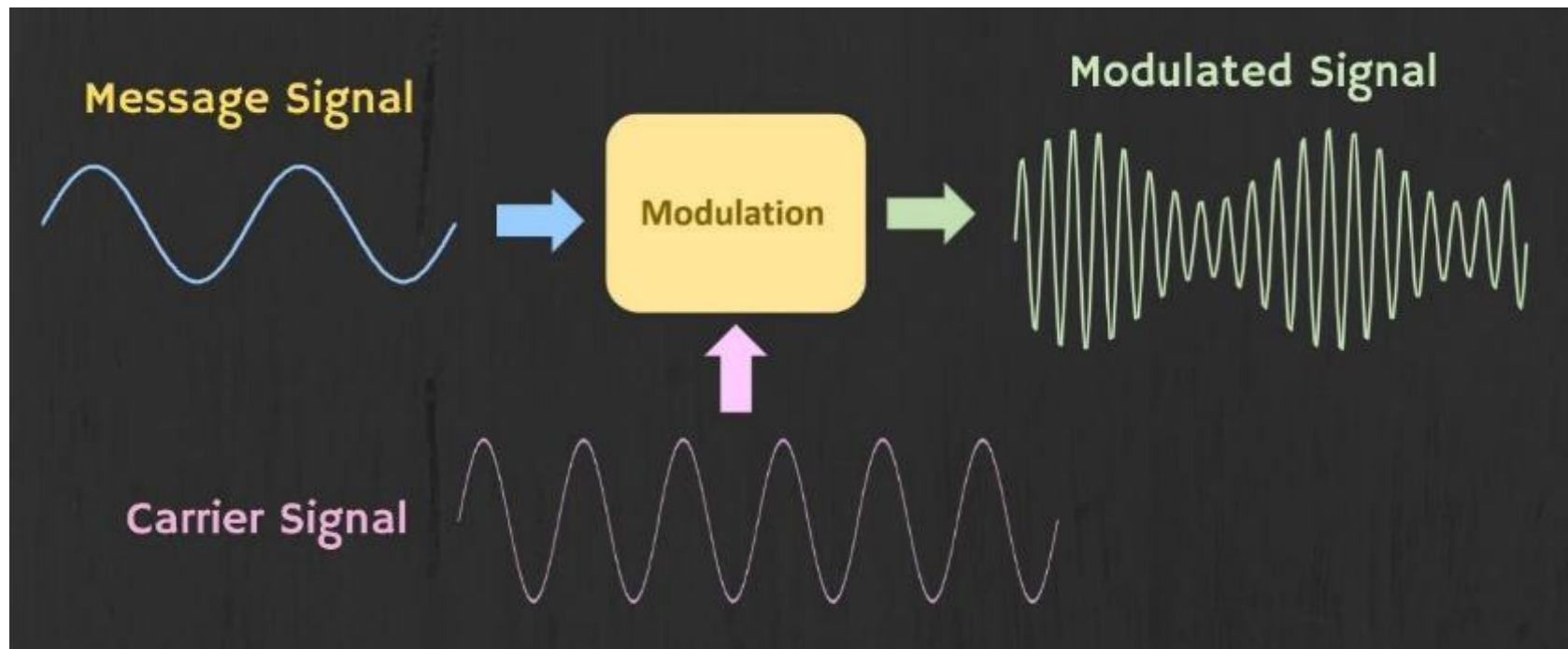
## 3. Signal modulation

- How data is encoded in the signal



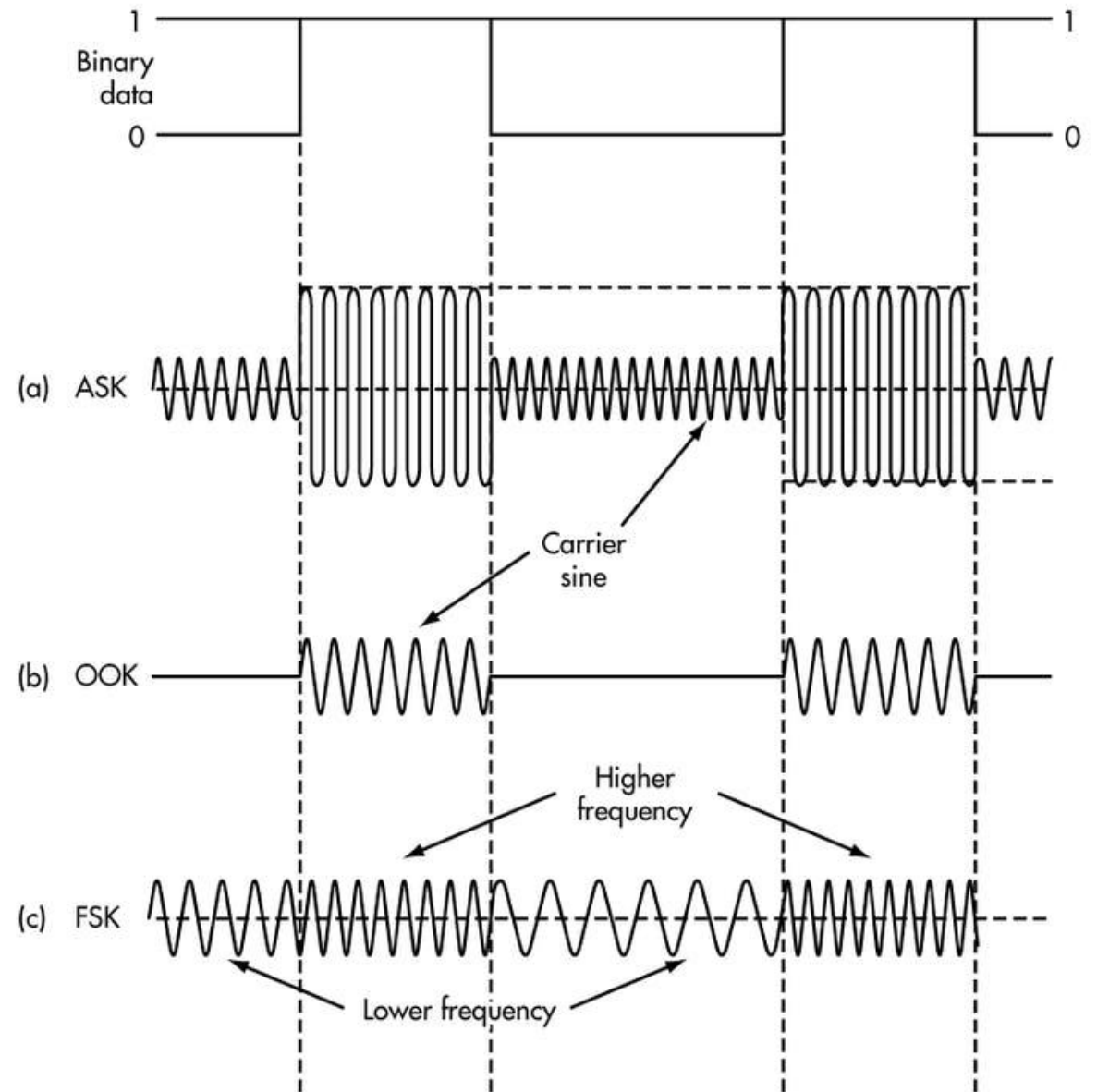
# Modulation

- Encoding signal data in an analog “carrier” signal
  - Carrier signal defines the frequency
  - Modulation scheme + data define bandwidth required



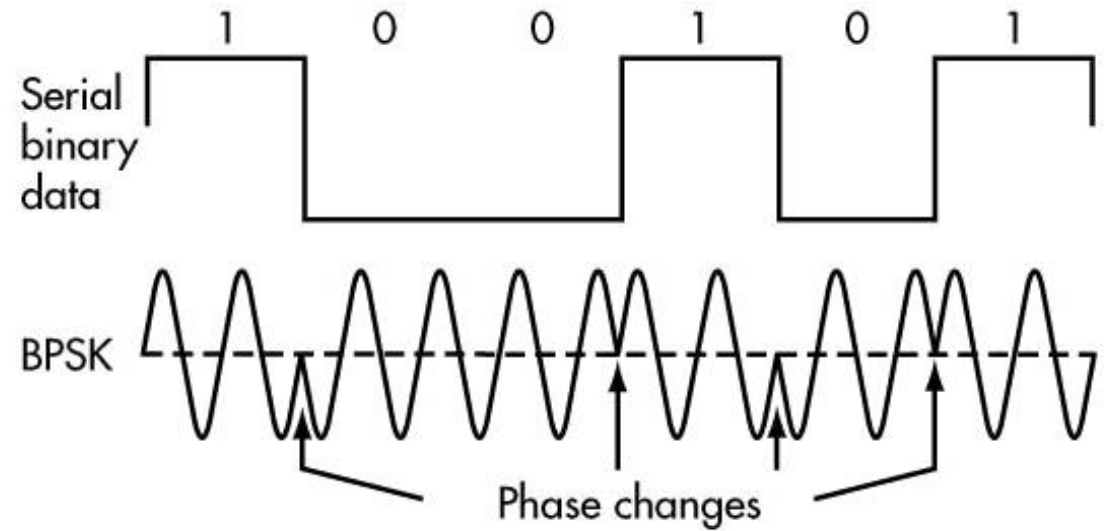
# Modulation types

- Encoding binary data on a signal
- Amplitude-shift Keying (ASK)
  - Modify amplitude of carrier signal
  - On-Off Keying (OOK) is an extreme example
- Frequency-shift Keying (FSK)
  - Modify frequency of carrier signal



# Modulation types

- Phase-shift keying (PSK)
  - Modify phase of carrier signal
  - Usually differential:  
the change signifies data
- More complicated possibilities exist
  - QAM (Quadrature Amplitude Modulation) combines amplitude and phase shift keying
    - Allows for more than one bit per “symbol”



# Modulation tradeoffs

- Various tradeoffs between different modulation schemes
  - Bandwidth requirements, transceiver hardware, immunity to noise, etc.
- ASK (amplitude) is simple but susceptible to noise
  - Noise exists in the real world
- FSK (frequency) is relatively simple and robust to noise, but uses more bandwidth
  - Bandwidth is limited, but still commonly used
- PSK (phase) energy efficient and robust, but more complex hardware
  - More expensive hardware, but very commonly used

# Break + Video

- Excellent explanation of modulation techniques:  
<https://youtu.be/0faCad2kKeg?si=kK6l0g63XGVPdut9&t=240>
  - Listen for 3.5 minutes until 7:30 in the video
- “How Cell Service Actually Works” by Wendover Productions

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