

ABSTRACT

For the past decade or so, automotive entertainment subsystem architectures have evolved from a cassette deck, an amplifier and a set of speakers to meet customer demand for more entertainment options. As demand increased, automotive entertainment subsystems had room for new features by allowing for more integration of analog audio and digital control. The new digital control can be implemented via subsystems via a low speed bus that is embedded into the entertainment subsystem components, allowing remote control of many features. New features were typically implemented in the entertainment subsystem by packaging functional modules. Examples of these modules are cellular entertainment, cellular navigation (CDJ), rear-seat entertainment, and satellite navigation. Radio System (S-DARS) receiver modules, along with its associated display and hardware, are shown in a block diagram of typical entertainment subsystem. This paper discusses alternatives to the current architecture and entertainment subsystem via low speed bus and analog audio. Moreover, the paper discusses how to cover future multimedia and internet technologies.

INTRODUCTION

Recently, great achievements have been made in information, communication, entertainment, and safety and security products. Modern automotive Transport Systems (ITS) services, such as navigation, are appearing on the market. As drivers process information, navigation systems help them operate vehicles more safely and efficiently.

As a consequence, our cars will be equipped with more with digital systems that are capable of exchanging information. Whenever a car is on the road, a number of them will always be present in the locations of the car. A transport system that is capable of exchanging information with other cars is a key to the future of transportation.

features by allowing for the vertical integration of analog audio and adding a digital control. Despite the digital nature of most of the new added modules and the introduction of Digital Signal Processor (DSP) within the mobile multimedia system, the vertical integration of audio and its transport remained analog.

The Current mobile architecture with its analog transport has the following limitations:

- Analog transport complicates the subsystem interconnects, decreases reliability, adds weight and cost. Two twisted pairs are required for cabin media, one twisted pair is required for voice module, one twisted pair is required for cellular phone module, one twisted pair is required for navigation module, 3-5 wires are required for low speed multiplex scheme and synchronization. Additionally, two more twisted pairs are required for an optional media player such as CDJ. In the case of rear seat entertainment, more wires or coaxial cables are required for video. The number of wires or coaxial cables required for video applications is proportional to the number of rear seat occupants. Moreover, these wires require wide connectors with more pins at the analog power amplifier's input connector.
- The module level expansion strategy and vertical integration of analog audio resulted in a closed architecture with limited expansion path. The number of pins available at the power amplifier's input connector bounded the expansion path. In addition,

the new subsystem had a short life and is not compatible with the digital trending of future entertainment features such as digital audio, digital video, Digital Audio Broadcast (DAB) and next generation of compact disc technology, Digital Versatile Disc (DVD).

- The module level expansion strategy and vertical integration of analog audio resulted in costly subsystem architecture. Often, modules added to the subsystem exhibited wasteful redundant hardware resources in order to achieve compatibility with an analog architecture. An example of this hardware wastefulness is the addition of a digital-to-analog converter to the output of CDJ or CD player to achieve compatibility with analog integration and processing. Moreover, the hardware resources available for each module are for that modules' own use and can't be shared with other subsystem's modules. This will add cost to each module and will contribute to the overall cost of the subsystem.

Presently, the module level expansion strategy and vertical integration of analog audio has reached its upper integration limit for an HMI, AM-FM tuner, voice, cellular phone, CDJ, a media player, Steering Wheel Control (SWC), a Rear Integrated Control Panel (RICP) and navigation. The implementation of such a subsystem requires seven modules and a minimum of 31 wires. A saving of one module and four wires is possible if a media, HMI, tuner, and power amplifier is packaged in one module. However, a complicated heat dissipation

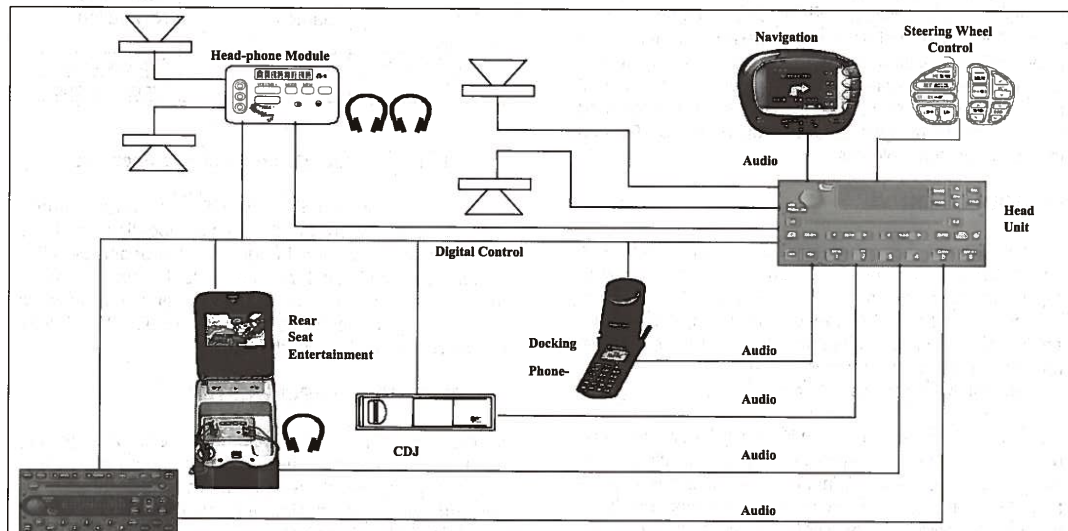


Figure 1.0: A Block Diagram of A Typical Entertainment System

and overall power management s the success of such integration, a performance.

REQUIREMENTS FOR NEW TRA

Vehicles are running out of the r house new modules. Interconnec and costs are ever increasing. discussion of both system and fu for a new transport:

- Open Standard: the new trans standard to ensure that all v product manufacturers have standard and to the market.
- Minimal Standard: the new tra be extensible and capable o technologies and different ph impact on application software to the protocol, such as is u model of Open System Inter shall be used.
- The new transport shall multiplexing of data, control, the same media. In addition, d open system architecture; a r anytime during the vehicle's lif existing node's connector. transport enables the natural t from one ever increasing another without exhibited hardware resources such as D and Analog-to-Digital (ADC) co
- Safety & Security: the new tra environment into which devi unplugged, and operated in a which does not threaten the in the devices that are being use shall include suitable secu involving the exchange of mo information.
- Manufacturability: the new devices and software shall implement and integrate. specifications and unambiguous of manufacture helps to assur the standard and contributes the manufactured items.
- Ease of Use: the addition or re be easy enough for a consu task with little or no expert ass

accommodate evolving technologies and new applications. A layered approach to the protocol is required to guarantee minimum impact on existing designs as new physical layers and new applications are developed.

- Security and Authentication Services: The new transport protocol shall provide security and authentication services for access to vehicle functions. It is anticipated that additional services will require additional security measures to accommodate applications or transactions that require billing, authentication, confidentiality, confirmation, non-repudiation, etc.
- Bit Error Rate: the bit error rate shall be less than 1×10^{-9} . Applications requiring better than this shall be able to implement appropriate measures at higher layers of the protocol.
- Time-Critical Delivery of Packets- Deterministic Latency: Some applications may require that messages be transmitted within a given time period. The new transport shall be deterministic and it shall be possible to determine the maximum latency for any message in a given system configuration
- Private Message Service: Equipment manufacturers wish to be able to develop applications that span their own suite of products and provide competitive functions and features not achievable when products from different manufacturers are interconnected. The new transport protocol shall support the implementation of private messages that will allow such applications to be developed.
- Power Loading: the new transport gateway shall make power available for all devices connected to the new transport system. The total operating current drain of all devices connected to the new transport shall not exceed the capacity of the gateway unless power is routed directly to the device from another source or the device is self-powered (e.g., internal batteries).
- Internetworking: it is anticipated that wireless access to and from the Internet will be required for many devices attached to the new transport system. The new protocol shall not preclude the future implementation of internetworking services across multiple gateways or bridges between the new transport and other subnets such as Intelligent Transportation Data Bus (IDB).
- Explicit Device Addressability: it shall be possible to send a message from a device to a specific other device. It shall be possible for the sender to determine and use the desired recipient's unique

address to deliver this message and all other devices shall ignore it.

- Broadcast Messages: it shall be possible for an application to generate a broadcast message to all devices connected to the new transport without having to address each one explicitly. A broadcast message may or may not require acknowledgment or confirmation of delivery. For example, an application may require confirmation (acknowledgment) that at least one receiving device capable of acting on the message has received the message.
- Consumer-Friendly Device Connection (No Special Tools Required): in most cases, it shall be possible for a consumer to install new transport nodes with common hand tools. There will be cases where professional installation may be required, but this should be the exception, not the rule.
- Wake/Sleep: any node shall have the ability to wake up the new transport system or put it to sleep. It shall be possible to wake up the nodes by sending a wake-up message, such as a pager. It shall be possible to put any node and all connected devices back to sleep with a sleep message. Absence of message traffic on the new transport for more than 30 minutes shall cause the new transport and all attached devices to go to sleep.
- Priority Sensitive Flow (Isochronous): consumer electronics devices such as video games, DVD and MP3 players, Dolby AC-3 audio components, etc., may require support for high speed isochronous data communications (i.e., data packets delivered at a guaranteed rate in a guaranteed order).
- Data Types: The new transport protocol shall allow any data type (ASCII, binary, bulk, etc.) to be transmitted in a message without need for any special escape characters or other similar artifacts added by the application.
- Fair Access to the new transport system: no single device shall be allowed to monopolize the new transport system.
- Message Priority Flagging: the new transport protocol shall provide a means to specify that the current message is a high or normal priority message. The protocol simply provides a mechanism to identify the message as a high priority message. It is up to the device manufacturer to determine whether support is provided and up to the application software to determine what action is to be taken when a high priority message is received or presented for transmission.

- Confirmation of Message D: device sending a message to be able to explicitly request confirmation of delivery of that message from

EXISTING PROTOCOLS: ETHERNET AND MOST

Fast Ethernet

Ethernet is a term commonly used to describe a family of network implementations that use twisted pair technology. Some early varieties include 10Base-2 and 10Base-5 which are bus-based and 'thick net' respectively. All nodes tap into a single cable. A later standard, 10Base-T, introduces the concept of a star topology. All nodes are connected directly to a central hub which simplifies cabling and reduces electrical signals.

A newer version of Ethernet, Gigabit Ethernet, operates at 10 times the speed of 100Base-TX per second. It has the same star topology and comes in a few different varieties including 100Base-TX, 100Base-FX, and 100Base-SX. The difference between these versions is the physical layer: electrical for TX and T4, and optical for FX and SX. Fast Ethernet will refer to the 100Base-TX.

Ethernet Topology

Thick net Ethernet uses a single cable for the network. Each node in the network taps the cable through what is called a T connector. In a bus environment, this cable could be run along the ceiling with taps dropping into each node. This works well except it is difficult to add new nodes and signal quality is sometimes difficult to maintain.

A Fast Ethernet uses a central repeater that connects directly to each node. This star topology provides good signal quality on the transmission line. A computer and the repeater to be connected to the network provides a relatively simple means of connection. A repeater has a number of ports for connecting a computer on the network. To add a new node, a wire is run from a free port on the repeater to the computer. If there are no free ports on the repeater, a hub (or switch) can be connected to the repeater to expand the network to virtually any number of nodes.

Ethernet Physical Layer

operates just like the coaxial cable in thick Ethernet. If two computers try to send messages at the same time, the messages collide.

An Ethernet switch divides the network into many collision domains. Each port on a switch is a different collision domain. For example, if one computer is connected to a port on an Ethernet switch, the collision domain consists of two nodes; the computer and the switch. If a port on a repeater is connected to a port on a switch, the collision domain consists of the switch and all computers connected to the repeater.

The switch has intelligence which learns the addresses of the computers connected to each port. When a message is received at one port, the destination address is determined and the message is sent out the appropriate port. Switches are typically much more efficient than repeaters. However, they cost more.

Ethernet Communication Mechanism

Information in Ethernet networks is communicated in packets. Each packet consists of a header, usable data and a checksum. The header contains information such as source and destination address, the length of usable data and possibly information about the message type. The checksum is a code sent at the end of the message so that the receiving node can determine if the packet was corrupted during transmission.

Since the header and checksum are only used to send the packet safely from the transmitting node to the receiving node, it is considered network overhead. It is not information usable by the application. In Fast Ethernet, this consumes 18 bytes. If you include the arbitration time, the total overhead is 38 bytes. In addition, the minimum usable data is 46 bytes per packet. Even if you only wish to send one byte, you still must send the 18-byte header, 46 bytes of data, and wait 20 bytes worth of time for the bus.

The efficiency of the network can be defined as the number of user data bytes per packet divided by the number of bytes in the packet plus the overhead of waiting for the bus. If only one byte of user data is sent per packet the efficiency is $1/(64+20) \times 100\% = 1.2\%$. Since the maximum user data per packet is 1500 bytes in 100BaseT, the theoretic maximum efficiency is $1500/(1518+20) \times 100\% = 97.5\%$.

The maximum efficiency is never achieved since many collisions will occur if there is a lot of activity on the bus. The effect on efficiency is difficult to predict.

Ethernet Audio Example

particular Wav file from the server can be played on the sound card in the following way. The client software on the PC manages a FIFO (First-In First-Out) which continually outputs audio data to the sound card. When the FIFO gets close to being empty, the client sends a message to the server to send more data. The server sends another packet to the client to fill the FIFO up again. As long as the server sends the new packet before the FIFO empties, audio can be heard. If the server responds slowly or the network is very busy, the packet may not arrive in time, the FIFO will empty and sounds will momentarily stop. This is unacceptable for most audio applications.

There is a trade off between FIFO size, the frequency of requests for more data and packet size. Since the large packets are more efficient than small packets (% overhead from header, etc), let's assume we will use the largest packet size; 1500 bytes of user data. If the audio sample rate is 48 kHz, and the audio is 16 bits/sample stereo, then we need an average of 192K bytes/second or 128 packets/sec. The overhead for the header, checksum and the required idle between packets is 38 bytes. Since the client software on the PC with the sound card must inform the server when the FIFO is nearly empty, there are another 84 bytes of overhead to send this message to the server.

The minimum total bandwidth required for one audio channel is:

$$1500 + 38 + 84 = 1622 \text{ bytes/packet}$$

$$1622 \text{ bytes/packet} * 128 \text{ packets/sec} = 207616 \text{ bytes/sec}$$

$$207616 \text{ bytes/sec} * 8 \text{ Bits/bytes} = 1.66 \text{ Mbit/sec}$$

Since the packet size in this example is the largest allowed by Fast Ethernet, the network overhead is small compared to the audio data throughput. The disadvantage of the large packet size is the buffer size requirement in the Client. It must be 1500 bytes deep plus more for handshaking. If the extra depth is not large enough for the network to guarantee another packet will arrive prior to the buffer emptying, a loss of audio quality may occur. If the buffer empties, the audio stops. In a Fast Ethernet, it is impossible to guarantee any bandwidth. If the network has lots of traffic, you may not even be able to get the 1.66 Mbit/sec average throughput that is required. More commonly, at times of high traffic the buffer may empty no matter how large it may be.

IEEE 1394

The IEEE 1394 specification is a hardware specification that defines the serial bus architecture that Apple computer initially named FireWire. It defines serial bus specific extensions to the Control and Status Register

(CSR) Architecture for Microcom adopted as ISO/IEC 13213 (ANSI/

This architecture defines a set of node architecture, address space types, Control and Status Register ROM format and content, mechanism to all nodes and inter nodes. IEEE 1394 specifies how serial bus can talk to each other, the protocols used to communicate be

IEEE 1394 is similar to Fast Ethernet is always communicated between multiple nodes try to send packets must arbitrate for the bus. The info headers, the packet sizes and the different. However, the fundame similar.

The most significant feature that (which Fast Ethernet does not) is for real time applications. The allocated isochronous bandwidth data to be communicated in packet intervals. This is an improvement. However, it will be shown that limitations.

The raw bit rate for IEEE 1394 is d between approximately 100, 200 Work is currently being done on an as well. Silicon is currently being both 100 and 200 Mbit. However, are now at 100 Mbit/sec which is the large installed base of 100Base currently under development as we

IEEE 1394 Physical Layer

The physical layer for IEEE 1394 twisted pair wire for signals and tw ground connected between each p of twisted pairs is called data and strobe. When one node begins to s Nonreturn-to-Zero (NRZ) data o transitions the strobe line only bet or 0's. Both sets of twisted pairs a node sends and receives data on t When neither node is sending data held in a high impedance state.

In contrast, the physical layer for of two sets of twisted pairs; c transmitting data and the other p This approach makes recover transmission line slightly more di 1394 since there is no strobe line

the same time, the transmitted data is corrupted, this condition is detected, and the nodes begin to arbitrate for the bus. Likewise, all nodes on an IEEE 1394 network have the same collision domain. Only one node can send a message at one time. If multiple nodes try to send messages at the same time, only one node will gain control of the bus.

In a Fast Ethernet, if a collision between two nodes occurs, both nodes will stop transmitting and wait a variable amount of time before another attempt. If they both happen to wait the same amount of time, another collision will occur. Mechanisms are built into the network to minimize the probability of nodes colliding more than once or twice.

An IEEE 1394 network operates differently. Nodes which are closer to the root node have a higher natural priority. When two nodes attempt to transmit at the same time, the node with the higher priority wins arbitration and control of the bus. In order to prevent higher priority nodes from monopolizing the bus a fairness interval is defined. During a fairness interval, all nodes are given the opportunity to send one message.

Unlike Fast Ethernet the arbitration mechanism in IEEE 1394 is deterministic. There is zero probability that nodes will collide many times before successfully sending a message. This is important for the delivery of real time data since any unpredicted delay, no matter how unlikely, may cause buffers to overflow or underflow. The arbitration process in IEEE 1394 consists of bus request/grant handshaking between child and parent nodes. A parent node is defined as the node on a 1394 cable which is closer to the root. The node which is further from the root, is called the child. If a child and a parent both request the bus at the same time, the parent will block the child's request and send its request to its parent. The request continues down the tree until it reaches the root node. The root node issues a bus grant which travels back up the tree to the node requesting control of the bus. Once a node receives a bus grant, it can begin sending a message.

The time that it takes to arbitrate for the bus depends on the size of the network. A bus request from a node at the end of a number of branches must propagate down the tree to the root and back up the tree to the requesting node. Information must be sent down all other branches to prevent any other node from driving the bus (through a bus request), until the granted message is sent. The total arbitration delay for a network with N hops (from parent to child or child to parent) between the furthest two nodes, is about $N \times 80\text{ns}$ in a 100 Mbit IEEE 1394 network.

While Ethernet treats all packet data the same, IEEE 1394 provides different types of packets. The primary packet types are asynchronous and isochronous. Asynchronous packets are functionally equivalent to Ethernet packets. Isochronous packets are only available in IEEE 1394, and provide guaranteed bandwidth to time critical applications.

IEEE 1394 Asynchronous Packets

An asynchronous packet consists of a header, a header checksum, user data and a user data checksum. The header contains information such as source address, destination address, message length, message type, etc. The size of the header and the checksums is typically 24 bytes long. The user data can be up to 512 bytes long in a 1394 network operating at 100 Mbit/sec.

When a particular node receives a message, an acknowledgement signal is automatically sent back to the sending node. If the sending node does not receive an acknowledgement signal within a specified time, it will try to re-send it a specified number of times.

The total time required for sending a minimum size message consists of the arbitration time, the time to send the packet, the time to wait for an acknowledgement, the time for the acknowledgement message and a sub-action gap time. The sub-action gap time is the time required by a node to wait after the bus is idle before it can issue a bus request. The sub-action gap time is required to ensure that no node will issue a bus request before the previous acknowledgement is received.

The total time for a one byte message in a large network (16 hops) running at 100 Mbit is about 1.4 μsec for arbitration, 2.2 μsec to send the message (28 bytes * 8 bits/byte * 10ns), and 5.6 μsec for acknowledge and sub-action gap. The total time is about 9.2 μsec . This means the efficiency is about $80\text{ ns} / 9.2\ \mu\text{sec} \times 100\%$ or 0.9%. The total time to send a maximum size message (512 bytes) is about 50 μsec with an efficiency of about 85%.

IEEE 1394 Isochronous Packets

The most significant improvement of IEEE 1394 over Ethernet for real time audio, video and voice applications is 1394's isochronous channels which provide guaranteed bandwidth to applications. When an application is allocated an isochronous channel, it is guaranteed to be able to send isochronous packets at regular intervals to any other nodes in the network. Each node in the network has a counter which defines these regular intervals. The Isochronous Resource Manager sends a message periodically to synchronize the counters in all nodes.

The Isochronous Resource Manager is a counter which is clocked by a local 24.576 MHz oscillator up to 3072. When the counter reaches a value, the Isochronous Resource Manager broadcasts a message to all the nodes on the bus to reset their local counters. The time between synchronization messages is 24.576 μsec .

After the synchronization message is received, nodes can begin to send their packets. After all isochronous packets have been sent, then nodes that have packets to send can send their asynchronous packets are allowed to send their packets between the 8 kHz sync messages. The maximum time that can be allocated to a node is 100 μsec . This ensures that the bus is always available for some asynchronous traffic.

IEEE 1394 Audio Example

The concept of an isochronous channel is a problem illustrated in the packet diagram for communicating audio over Fast Ethernet. The channel that is allocated isochronous bandwidth can be able to send a packet even if the channel is described in the Fast Ethernet standard. Due to congestion on the network, some audio data packets are guaranteed to be delayed. It is intended that handshaking is necessary. These are required to ensure that an example since the server needs to be able to communicate in the PC with the sound card is not possible.

To send 16 bit stereo audio data at 48 kHz over an isochronous channel requires 16 bytes per isochronous packet. This is 192k bytes/sec / 8k packets/sec = 24 packets/sec.

48 kHz * 2 bytes/sample * 2 channels = 192k bytes/sec

The header for an isochronous packet consists of 4 bytes which specify the length of the packet (2 bytes), the channel number, and the packet's checksum for just the header. The header consumes another 4 bytes. In total, the header and checksum overhead is 8 bytes.

Additional overhead comes in the form of the gap time between packets and the time to send symbols. The gap time and symbols consume a fixed time equivalent to the time to transmit about 3 bytes in 100 μsec . The arbitration time depends on the size of the network. In a large network that has 16 nodes, the arbitration time is about 1.28 μsec .

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