EC744 Wireless Communication Fall 2008

Mohamed Essam Khedr

Department of Electronics and Communications

Wireless Communication Fading Modulation

Syllabus

• Tentatively

What is modulation

- \bullet **Modulation** is the process of encoding information from ^a message source in ^a manner suitable for transmission
- It involves translating a **baseband** message signal to a **bandpass** signal at frequencies that are very high compared to the baseband frequency.
- Baseband signal is called *modulating* signal
- Bandpass signal is called *modulated* signal

Baseband and Carrier Communication

Baseband:

−

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- − Describes signals and systems whose range of frequencies is measured from 0 to ^a maximum bandwidth or highest signal frequency
- − Voice: Telephone 0-3.5KHz; CD 0-22.05KHz
- − Video: Analog TV 4.5MHz, TV channel is 0-6MHz. Digital, depending on the size, movement, frames per second, …
- − Example: wire, coaxial cable, optical fiber, PCM phone
- Carrier Communication:
	- − **Carrier**: ^a waveform (usually sinusoidal) that is modulated to represen^t the information to be <u>transmitted</u>. This carrier wave is usually of much higher <u>frequency</u> than the modulating (baseband) signal.
	- − Modulation: is the process of varying ^a *carrier signal* in order to use that signal to convey <u>information</u>.

Modulation Techniques

- Modulation can be done by varying the
	- –Amplitude
	- Phase, or
	- –Frequency

of a high frequency carrier in accordance with the amplitude of the message signal.

 Demodulation is the inverse operation: *extracting the baseband message from the carrier* so that it may be processed at the receiver.

Goal of Modulation Techniques

- Modulation is difficult task given the hostile mobile radio \bullet channels
	- Small-scale fading and multipath conditions.
- The goal of a modulation scheme is:
	- Transport the message signal through the radio channel with best possible quality
	- Occupy least amount of <u>radio (RF) spectrum</u>.

Frequency versus Amplitude Modulation

- Amplitude Modulation (AM)
	- Changes the amplitude of the carrier signal according to the amplitude of the message signal
	- All info is carried in the amplitude of the carrier
	- There is a linear relationship between the received signal <u>quality</u> and received signal <u>power</u>.
	- AM systems usually occupy less bandwidth then FM systems.
	- AM carrier signal has time-varying envelope.

AM Broadcasting

- \bullet History
- Frequency
	- –Long wave: 153-270kHz
	- Medium wave: 520-1,710kHz, AM radio
	- –Short wave: 2,300-26,100kHz, long distance, SSB, VOA
- Limitation
	- –Susceptibility to atmospheric interference
	- Lower-fidelity sound, news and talk radio

Vestigial Sideband (VSB)

• VSB is ^a compromise between DSB and SSB. To produce SSB signal from DSB signal ideal filters should be used to split the spectrum in the middle so that the bandwidth of bandpass signal is reduced by one half. In VSB system one sideband and ^a vestige of other sideband are transmitted together. The resulting signal has ^a bandwidth > the bandwidth of the modulating (baseband) signal but < the DSB signal bandwidth.

QAM

- \bullet • AM signal BANDWIDTH: AM signal bandwidth is twice the bandwidth of the modulating signal. A 5kHz signal requires 10kHz bandwidth for AM transmission. If the carrier frequency is 1000 kHz, the AM signal spectrum is in the frequency range of 995kHz to 1005 kHz.
- \bullet QUADRARTURE AMPLITUDE MODULATION is ^a scheme that allows two signals to be transmitted over the same frequency range.
- Equations
- Coherent in frequency and phase. Expensive
- \bullet TV for analog
- Most modems

Angle Modulation

- Angle of the carrier is varied according to the amplitude of the modulating baseband signal.
- Two classes of angle modulation techniques:
	- – Frequency Modulation
		- Instantaneous frequency of the carrier signal is varied linearly with message signal m(t)
	- Phase Modulation
		- The phase θ (t) of the carrier signal is varied linearly with the message signal m(t).

Angle Modulation

FREQUENCY MODULATION

$$
S_{FM}(t) = A_c \cos(2\pi f_c t + \theta(t)) = A_c \cos \left[2\pi f_c t + 2\pi k_f \int_{-\infty}^{t} m(x) dx \right]
$$

 k_{f} is the frequency deviation constant (kHz/V)

If modulation signal is a sinusoid of amplitude $\mathsf{A}_\mathsf{m}^{} ,$ frequency $\mathsf{f}_\mathsf{m}^{} .$

$$
S_{FM}(t) = A_c \cos(2\pi f_c t + \frac{k_f A_m}{f_m} \sin(2\pi f_m t))
$$

PHASE MODULATION

$$
S_{PM}(t) = A_c \cos[2\pi f_c t + k_{\theta} m(t)]
$$

 k_{Θ} is the phase deviation constant

TV broadcasting

- \bullet fm=15KHz, $\Delta f=25$ KHz, $\beta=5/3$, B=2(fm+ Δf)=80kHz
- Center $f_c+4.5MHz$

Comparison of modulation systems

† Unless direct-coupled.

‡ With electronic DC restoration.

 $\S b \geq 2$.

I Deemphasis not included.

Satellite Radio

WorldSpace outside US, XM Radio and Sirius in North America

Geometric Representation of Modulation Signal

- Digital Modulation involves
	- – Choosing ^a particular signal waveform for transmission for ^a particular symbol or signal
	- For M possible signals, the set of all signal waveforms are:

 ${S} = \{ S_1(t), S_2(t), \ldots, S_M(t) \}$

- For binary modulation, each bit is mapped to ^a signal from ^a set of signal set S that has two signals
- We can view the elements of S as points in vector space

Geometric Representation of Modulation Signal

- Vector space
	- – We can represented the elements of S as linear combination of <u>basis signals.</u>
	- –The number of basis signals are the dimension of the vector space.
	- –Basis signals are orthogonal to each-other.
	- –Each basis is normalized to have unit energy:

$$
s_i(t) = \sum_{j=1}^{N} s_{ij} \phi_j(t)
$$

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi_i(t) \phi_j(t) dt = 0
$$

$$
E = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi_i^2(t) dt = 1
$$

 $\phi_i(t)$ is the *i*th basis signal.

Example

$$
s_1(t) = \sqrt{\frac{2E_b}{T_b}} \cos(2\pi f_c t) \quad 0 \le t \le T_b
$$
\n
$$
s_2(t) = -\sqrt{\frac{2E_b}{T_b}} \cos(2\pi f_c t) \quad 0 \le t \le T_b
$$
\n
$$
\phi_1(t) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{T_b}} \cos(2\pi f_c t)
$$
\nThe basis signal\n
$$
S = \left\{\sqrt{E_b} \phi_1(t), -\sqrt{E_b} \phi_1(t)\right\}
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\nThe basis signal\n
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S = \left\{\sqrt{E_b} \phi_2(t), -\sqrt{E_b} \phi_2(t)\right\}
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Constellation Diagram

- Properties of Modulation Scheme can be inferred from Constellation Diagram
	- – Bandwidth occupied by the modulation increases as the dimension of the modulated signal increases
	- – Bandwidth occupied by the modulation decreases as the signal points per dimension increases (getting more dense)
	- – Probability of bit error is proportional to the distance between the closest points in the constellation.
		- \bullet Bit error decreases as the distance increases (sparse).

Concept of ^a constellation diagram

Linear Modulation Techniques

- Classify digital modulation techniques as:
	- $-$ Linear
		- \bullet The amplitude of the transmitted signal varies linearly with the <u>modulating digital signal</u>, m(t).
		- \bullet They usually do not have constant envelope.
		- \bullet More spectral efficient.
		- Poor power efficiency
		- ◆ Example: BPSK, QPSK.
	- Non-linear

Binary Phase Shift Keying

- Use alternative sine wave phase to encode bits
	- –Phases are separated by 180 degrees.
	- –Simple to implement, inefficient use of bandwidth.
	- –Very robust, used extensively in satellite communication.

BPSK Virtue of pulse shaping

BPSK Coherent demodulator

Differential PSK encoding

- \bullet Differential BPSK
	- 0 = same phase as last signal element
	- $-1 = 180^{\circ}$ shift from last signal element

Table 6.1 Illustration of the Differential Encoding Process

DPSK modulation and demodulation

Figure 6.25 Block diagram of DPSK receiver.

Quadrature Phase Shift Keying

- \bullet Multilevel Modulation Technique: 2 bits per symbol
- \bullet More spectrally efficient, more complex receiver.
- \bullet Two times more bandwidth efficient than BPSK

4 different waveforms

QPSK Example

Figure 6.27 Power spectral density of a QPSK signal.

Figure 6.28 Block diagram of a QPSK transmitter.

QPSK receiver

Figure 6.29 Block diagram of a QPSK receiver.

Differential Coherent

• DBPSK
$$
P_b = \frac{1}{2}e^{-E_b/N_0}
$$

- 3dB loss
- QPSK BER, the same as BPSK

Offset QPSK waveforms

Figure 6.30 The time offset waveforms that are applied to the in-phase and quadrature arms of an OQPSK modulator. Notice that a half-symbol offset is used.

Offset OQPSK

- \bullet QPSK can have 180 degree jump, amplitude fluctuation
- By offsetting the timing of the odd and even bits by one bit-period, or half ^a symbol-period, the in-phase and quadrature components will never change at the same time.

Pi/4 QPSK signaling

 Q_k

 $\left(a\right)$

- \bullet 135 degree
- \bullet Non-coherent

detection

 Q_k

 (b)

Figure 6.31 Constellation diagram of a $\pi/4$ QPSK signal: (a) possible states for θ_k when $\theta_{k-1} = n\pi/4$; (b) possible states when $\theta_{k-1} = n\pi/2$; (c) all possible states.

Pi/4 QPSK transmitter

Figure 6.32 Generic $\pi/4$ QPSK transmitter.

I. Differential detection of pi/4 QPSK

Block diagram of a baseband differential detector [from [Feh91] @ IEEE]. Figure 6.33

Figure 6.35 FM discriminator detector for $\pi/4$ DQPSK demodulation.

Constant Envelope Modulation

- Amplitude of the carrier is constant, regardless of the variation in the modulating signal
	- Better immunity to fluctuations due to fading.
	- Better random noise immunity
	- Power efficient
- They occupy larger bandwidth

Frequency Shift Keying (FSK)

• The frequency of the carrier is changed according to the message state (high (1) or low (0)).

$$
s_1(t) = A\cos(2\pi f_c + 2\pi \Delta f)t \quad 0 \le t \le T_b \text{ (bit = 1)}
$$
\n
$$
s_2(t) = A\cos(2\pi f_c - 2\pi \Delta f)t \quad 0 \le t \le T_b \text{ (bit = 0)}
$$

Continues FSK $s(t) = A \cos(2 \pi f_c + \theta(t))$ Integral of m(x) is continues.

$$
s(t) = A\cos(2\pi f_c t + 2\pi k_f \int^t m(x)dx)
$$

 One frequency encodes ^a 0 while another frequency encodes ^a 1 (a form of frequency modulation) −∞

FSK Bandwidth

- Limiting factor: Physical capabilities of the carrier
- \bullet Not susceptible to noise as much as ASK

- Applications
	- On voice-grade lines, used up to 1200bps
	- Used for high-frequency (3 to 30 MHz) radio transmission
	- used at higher frequencies on LANs that use coaxial cable

Multiple Frequency-Shift Keying (MFSK)

- More than two frequencies are used
- More bandwidth efficient but more susceptible to error

$$
s_i(t) = A \cos 2\pi f_i t \quad 1 \le i \le M
$$
\n
$$
\bullet \text{ f}_i = \text{ f}_c + (2i - 1 - M)\text{ f}_d
$$
\n
$$
\bullet \text{ f}_c = \text{ the carrier frequency}
$$
\n
$$
\bullet \text{ f}_d = \text{ the difference frequency}
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$$
\bullet \text{ M} = \text{ number of different signal elements} = 2 \text{ L}
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\bullet \text{ L} = \text{ number of bits per signal element}
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Figure 6.36 Coherent detection of FSK signals.

Noncoherent FSK

Block diagram of noncoherent FSK receiver. Figure 6.37

Block diagram of an MSK transmitter. Note that $m_l(t)$ and $m_Q(t)$ are offset by T_b . Figure 6.39

Figure 6.40 Block diagram of an MSK receiver.

Figure 6.38 Power spectral density of MSK signals as compared to QPSK and OQPSK signals.

Figure 6.41 Power spectral density of a GMSK signal [from [Mur81] © IEEE].

Simple GMSK modulation and demodulation

Block diagram of a GMSK transmitter using direct FM generation. Figure 6.42

 $Figure 6.43 Block c$

Pulse Shaped M-PSK

Figure 6.46 M-ary PSK power spectral density, for $M = 8$, 16 (PSD for both rectangular and raised cosine filtered pulses are shown for fixed R_b).

QAM – Quadrature Amplitude Modulation

- \bullet **Modulation technique used in the cable/video networking world**
- \bullet **Instead of ^a single signal change representing only 1 bps – multiple bits can be represented buy ^a single signal change**
- \bullet **Combination of phase shifting and amplitude shifting (8 phases, 2 amplitudes)**

QAM

- QAM
	- – As an example of QAM, 12 different phases are combined with two different amplitudes
	- – Since only 4 phase angles have 2 different amplitudes, there are ^a total of 16 combinations
	- – With 16 signal combinations, each baud equals 4 bits of information $(2 \wedge 4 = 16)$
	- Combine ASK and PSK such that each signal corresponds to multiple bits
	- –More phases than amplitudes
	- – Minimum bandwidth requirement same as ASK or PSK

16-QAM Signal Constellation

Figure 6.47 Constellation diagram of an M-ary QAM ($M = 16$) signal set.

QAM vs. MFSK

M		16	64	256	1024	4096
η_B			\sim 3			
E_b/N_o for BER = 10^{-6}	10.5	15	18.5	-24	28	33.5

Table 6.5 Bandwidth and Power Efficiency of QAM [Zie92]

Table 6.6 Bandwidth and Power Efficiency of Coherent M-ary FSK [Zie92]

M		4	8	16	32	64
η_B	0.4°		0.57 0.55 0.42 0.29			0.18
E_b/N_o for BER = 10^{-6}	13.5 10.8 9.3 8.2				7.5	6.9

Comparison of Digital Modulation

bits/s/Hz vs. E_b / for Probability of Error = 10^{-5} taken from "Principle of Communication Systems" Taub & Schilling, page 482

. This graph shows that bandwidth efficiency is traded off against power efficiency.

MFSK is power efficient, but not bandwidth efficient.

MPSK and QAM are bandwidth efficient but not power efficient.

 \bullet Mobile radio systems are bandwidth limited, therefore PSK is more suited.

Modulation Summary

- Phase Shift Keying is often used, as it provides a highly bandwidth efficient modulation scheme.
- QPSK, modulation is very robust, but requires some form of linear amplification. OQPSK and **p**/4-QPSK can be implemented, and reduce the envelope variations of the signal.
- High level M-ary schemes (such as 64-QAM) are very bandwidth efficient, but more susceptible to noise and require linear amplification.
- Constant envelope schemes (such as GMSK) can be employed since an efficient, non-linear amplifier can be used.
- Coherent reception provides better performance than differential, but requires ^a more complex receiver.