

King Fahd University of Petroleum & Minerals Computer Engineering Dept

**COE 342 – Data and Computer
Communications**

Term 021

Dr. Ashraf S. Hasan Mahmoud

Rm 22-144

Ext. 1724

Email: ashraf@ccse.kfupm.edu.sa

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Lecture Contents

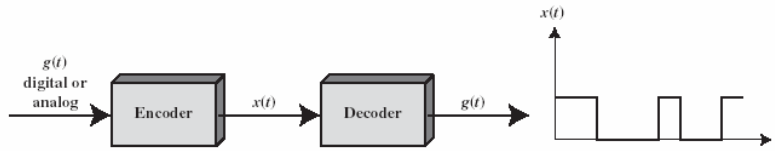
1. Background
2. Digital Data, Digital Signals
3. Digital Data, Analog Signals
4. Analog Data, Digital Signals
5. Analog Data, Analog Signals
6. Spread Spectrum

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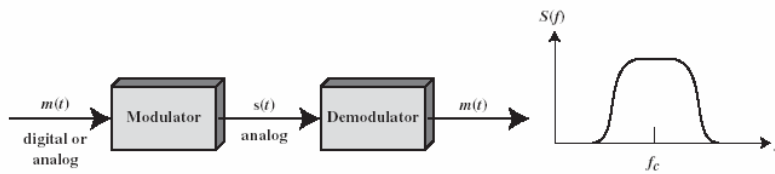
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Background



(a) Encoding onto a digital signal



(b) Modulation onto an analog signal

Background - Digital Signaling

- **Data source $g(t)$**
 - Analog source – voice
 - Digital source – computer data (file)
- **ENCODED** – to match medium characteristics and optimize transmission – Result is $x(t)$
- **Note that $x(t)$ is digital (discrete voltage levels)**

Background – Analog Signaling

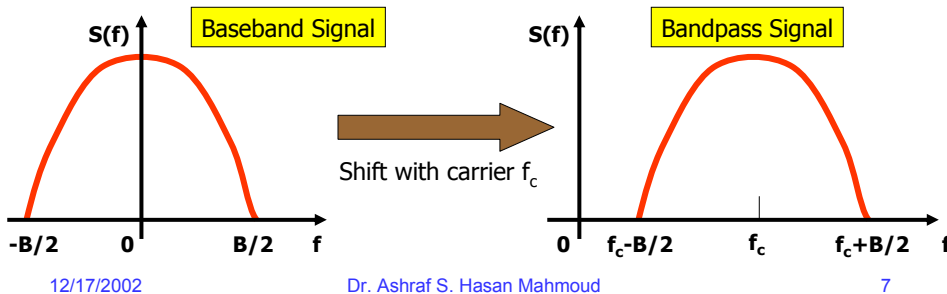
- **Data source $m(t)$**
 - Analog source – voice
 - Digital source – computer data (file)
- **MODULATED:**
 - We need a carrier signal: continuous-time constant frequency signal (f_c) {i.e. $A \cos(2\pi f_c t + \phi)$ or $A \sin(2\pi f_c t + \phi)$ }
 - Frequency of carrier is chosen to match transmission characteristic of medium
 - **Modulation: Encoding source data onto carrier:**
 - Manipulating frequency – phase – Amplitude – or a combination of these elements
 - Process of encoding is chosen to optimize transmission

Background – Analog Signaling (2)

- Note that $s(t)$ is analog (continuous voltage levels)
- Bandwidth of $s(t)$ is usually centered around f_c
- $s(t)$ is a *bandlimited* or *bandpass* signal:
 - Finite bandwidth at or around f_c

Background – Baseband vs. Bandpass Signals

- **Baseband Signal:**
 - Spectrum not centered around non zero frequency
 - May have a DC component
- **Bandpass Signal:**
 - Does not have a DC component
 - Finite bandwidth around or at f_c

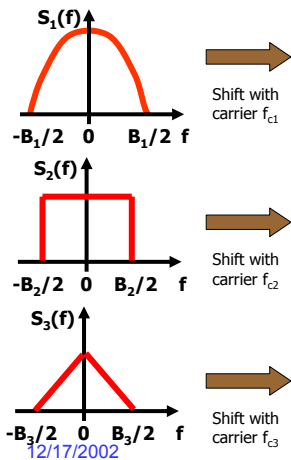


Background

- **Digital Data, Digital Signaling:**
 - Less complex/expensive than digital-to-analog modulation equipment
- **Analog Data, Digital Signaling:**
 - Conversion of analog data to digital allows the use of modern digital tx and switching technology
- **Digital Data, Analog Signaling:**
 - Some transmission media can *ONLY* propagate analog signals – such as fiber optics and unguided
- **Analog Data, Analog Signaling:**
 - Analog data can be transmitted as baseband signals cheaply
 - Shifting bandwidth of baseband signals to occupy another portion of spectrum – different signals share same medium using frequency division multiplexing

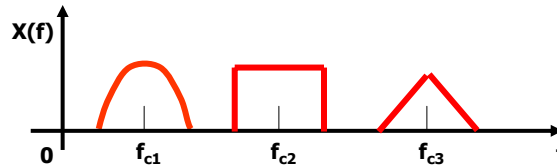
Frequency Division Multiplexing

- Will be visited again in Chapter 8



$$x(t) = s_1(t) \times \cos(2\pi f_{c1}t) + s_2(t) \times \cos(2\pi f_{c2}t) + s_3(t) \times \cos(2\pi f_{c3}t)$$

- $x(t)$ is transmitted on the media
- The three spectra are not overlapping if f_{c1} , f_{c2} , and f_{c3} are chosen appropriately
- Original composite signals $s_1(t)$, $s_2(t)$, and $s_3(t)$ can be recovered using bandpass filters with appropriate bandwidths centered at f_{c1} , f_{c2} , and f_{c3} , respectively.



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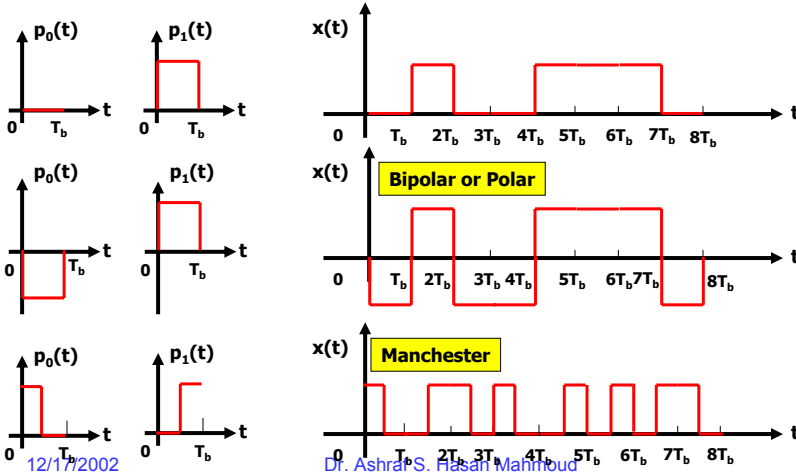
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Signal Elements or Pulses

- Unit of transmission – repeated to form the overall signal
- *Shape* of pulse determines the bandwidth of the transmitted signal
- Digital data is mapped or encoded to the different pulses or units of transmission

Signal Elements or Pulses

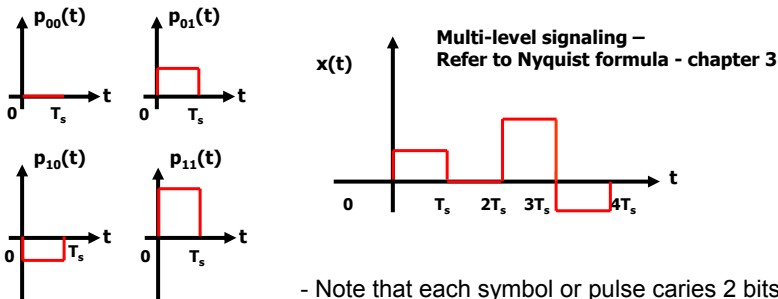
Definitions of Pulses Encoded Signal: 0 1 0 0 1 1 1 0



Examples of Digital Signaling

Signal Elements or Pulses

Pluses Definitions Encoded Signal: 0 1 0 0 1 1 1 0

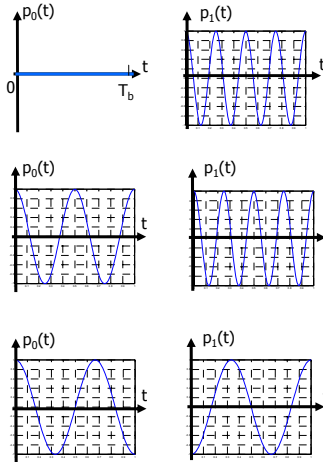


- Note that each symbol or pulse carries 2 bits
- Symbol duration is $T_s = 2T_b$
- Bit rate R equal to $1/T_b$
- Symbol rate or *baud rate* R_s equal to $1/T_s \rightarrow R = 2R_s$
- In general to encode n bits per pulse, you need 2^n pulses

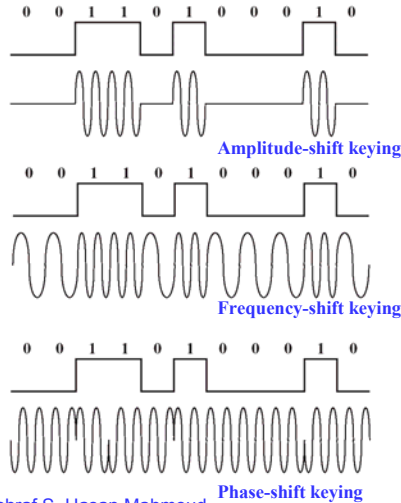
Example of Digital Signaling

Signal Elements or Pulses

Definitions of Pulses



Encoded Signal:



Example of Analog Signaling

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Digital Data – Digital Signals

- **Digital signal:** sequence of discrete, discontinuous voltage pulses
- **Digital data (bits) are encoded (or mapped) into signal elements**
- **Baud-rate:** number of signal elements per second
- **Mark – Space = 1 – 0**
- **Communication Tasks – Receiver must have:**
 - Transmission elements timings
 - Pulse voltage level (to know whether it is 0 or 1 for example) – Rx samples at bit times to find voltage level

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Key Data Transmission Terms

| Term | Units | Definition |
|-----------------------------------|---|---|
| Data element | Bits | A single binary one or zero |
| Data rate | Bits per second (bps) | The rate at which data elements are transmitted |
| Signal element | Digital: a voltage pulse of constant amplitude. Analog: a pulse of constant frequency, phase, and amplitude. | That part of a signal that occupies the shortest interval of a signaling code |
| Signaling rate or modulation rate | Signal elements per second (baud) | The rate at which signal elements are transmitted |

How to Overcome Impairments?

- **Faults in detection of received signal register as BIT ERROR RATE at receiver – BER**
 - **A good communication channel has small or zero BER**
- **Factors:**
 - **SNR or E_b/N_0**
 - **Data bit rate**
 - **Channel/system bandwidth**
 - **Encoding of data bits into signal elements**
- **Encoding scheme also affects bandwidth of signal**

Digital Signal Encoding Formats

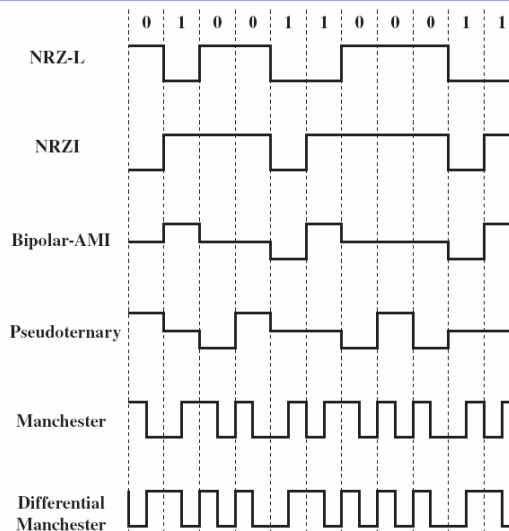
- **Nonreturn to Zero-Level (NRZ-L)**
 - 0 = high level
 - 1 = low level
- **Nonreturn to Zero Inverted (NRZI)**
 - 0 = no transition at beginning of interval
 - 1 = transition at beginning of interval
- **Bipolar-AMI**
 - 0 = no line signal
 - 1 = +ve or -ve level; alternating successive ones
- **Pseudoternary**
 - 0 = +ve or -ve level; alternating for successive ones
 - 1 = no line signal
- **Manchester**
 - 0 = transition from high to low in middle of interval
 - 1 = transition from low to high in middle of interval
- **Differential Manchester: Always transition in middle of interval**
 - 0 = transition at beginning of interval
 - 1 = no transition at beginning of interval
- **Bipolar with 8 Zeros Substitution (B8ZS): same as bipolar AMI, except that any string of 8 zeros is replaced by a string with two code violations**
- **High Density bipolar-3 Zeros (HDB3): same as bipolar AMI, except that any string of 8 zeros is replaced by a string with one code violation**

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Digital Signal Encoding Formats



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How to Evaluate Encoding Schemes?

- **Signal spectrum:**(remember this is dependent on pulse shape)
 - Lack of high frequency component → lesser BW – signal does not required large BW - desirable
 - Lack of DC component - desirable
- **Clocking (Synchronization):**
 - Rxer needs to determine bit timing
 - Provide clock signal at receiver – EXPENSIVE
 - Derive clock signal from incoming signal
 - E.g. Differentiating a Manchester encoded signal results in the clock signal!

How to Evaluate Encoding Schemes? (2)

- **Error detection:**
 - Capability built into physical layer encoding – e.g. for pseudoternary successive ones have opposite signs
 - More sophisticated error detection and correction codes are used (Chapter 7)
- **Signal interference and noise immunity**
 - Certain codes are superior than others in the presence of noise and interference (i.e. give lower BER for same SNR or E_b/N_o)
- **Cost and complexity:**
 - Not a major factor compared to the rest of factors
 - In general, the higher the data rate the more expensive the hardware is

Nonreturn to Zero (NRZ)

- **Nonreturn to Zero – Level (NRZ-L):**
 - Binary 0 – constant +ve level
 - Binary 1 – constant -ve level
- **Nonreturn to Zero – Invert on Ones (NRZI):**
 - Binary 0 – no transition at beginning of bit interval
 - Binary 1 – transition at beginning of bit interval
 - NRZI is an example of *differential encoding*:
 - If bit is equal to 1, bit encoding is opposite to previous bit
 - **Benefits of differential encoding**

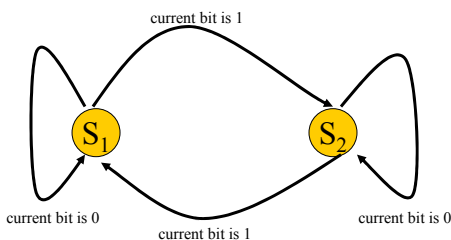
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Nonreturn to Zero (NRZ) (2)

- **Differential encoding – Involved memory (similar to sequential circuit design)**
- **Best represented using a state machine**



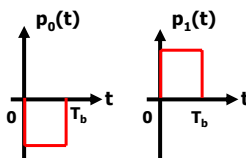
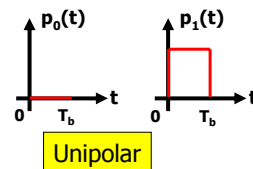
S_1 : output constant -ve level for T_b
 S_2 : output constant +ve level for T_b

Nonreturn to Zero – Invert on Ones

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- **NO MEMORY**
For RZ or NRZ-L



Nonreturn to Zero - Level

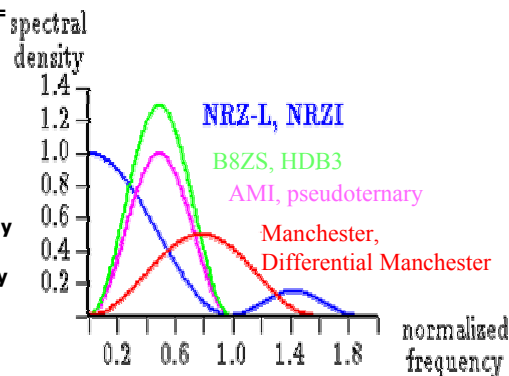
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Spectrum Characteristics of NRZ

- Most of the energy in NRZ and NRZI signals is between DC and half of bit rate
 - For example: When $R = 9600$ b/s or $T_b = 0.104$ msec, most of energy of the signal is between 0 Hz and 4800 Hz
- Main limitations of NRZ:
 1. presence of DC component
 2. lack of synchronization capability
 - Consider the case of a long string of ones or zeros:
 - One constant voltage level for long duration ($\gg T_b$) – may cause drift in clock synchronization
- Applications:
 - Digital magnetic recording
 - Generally not used for signal transmission

Spectrum Characteristics of NRZ and Other Encoding Schemes

- Note the x-axis: normalized frequency (f/R)
 - E.g. value equal to 1.2, means $f = 1.2 R$
- Schemes NRZ-L and NRZI have DC component
- Schemes B8ZS, HDB3, AMI, pseudoternary, Manchester and differential Manchester have no DC component
- NRZ-L, NRZI, B8ZS, HDB3, AMI, and pseudoternary have negligible energy beyond $f = R$
- B8ZS, HDB3, AMI, and pseudoternary have their energy concentrated around $f = R/2$
- Manchester and differential Manchester has significant energy concentration beyond $f = R$ (because of the per bit transitions!)



Multilevel Binary – Bipolar - AMI

- **Family of codes that uses more than two signal levels**
- **Bipolar-AMI:**
 - **Binary 0 – no signal level**
 - **Binary 1 – +ve or -ve level; alternating**
- **Advantages of Bipolar-AMI:**
 - **Synch: long string of 1s is not a problem – but a long string of 0s is**
 - **No net DC component**
 - **Smaller BW compared to NRZ**
 - **Alternating pulses – simple error detection (no two consecutive ones can have same polarity)**

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Multilevel Binary – Pseudoternary

- **Pseudoternary:**
 - **Binary 0 – +ve or -ve level; alternating**
 - **Binary 1 – no signal level**
- **Same advantages as bipolar-AMI**
- **To provide clock synch info:**
 - **Insert additional bits to force transition – used in ISDN for low bit rate connections – results in increased bit rate**
 - **Can not be used for already high bit rate connections – expensive**
 - **Use SCRAMBLING**

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NRZ V.S. Multilevel Binary

- **Spectrum:**
 - NRZ has DC component
 - Multilevel binary does not have DC component – smaller bandwidth
- **Synch:**
 - NRZ: long strings of 1s AND 0s present a problem
 - Multilevel binary: long strings of 1s for bipolar-AMI or long strings of 0s for pseudoternary present a problem

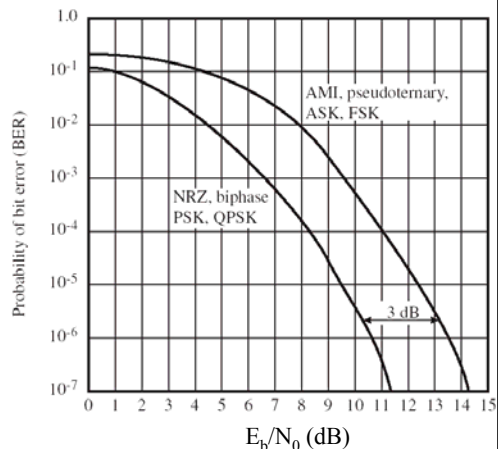
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NRZ V.S. Multilevel Binary (2)

- **Efficiency:**
 - NRZ: two symbols – one for 0 and the other for 1 – i.e. $\log_2 2 = 1$ information bit per symbol
 - Multilevel binary: three symbols – one for 0 and two for 1 (or the reverse for pseudoternary) – i.e. $\log_2 3 = 1.58$ information bits per symbol
 - NRZ is more efficient – requires 3 dB less ($1/2$) signal power to give same BER as Multilevel



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Biphase Encoding

- **Manchester: transition at the middle of each bit**
 - Binary 0 – high to low transition in the middle
 - Binary 1 – low to high transition in the middle
- **Differential Manchester: transition at the middle of each bit**
 - Binary 0 – transition at beginning of interval
 - Binary 1 – no transition at beginning of interval
- **THERE IS ALWAYS a TRANSION at midbit – This provides the needed clock signal**
- **Biphase schemes require at least on transition per bit interval and sometimes two transitions per bit interval → Generate signal with higher frequency components compared to NRZ for same rate!!**

Advantages of Biphase Encoding

- **Synchronization:**
 - There is a predictable transition during each bit time
 - To derive clock signal – differentiate biphase signal
 - Biphase = Self clocking codes
- **No DC component**
- **Error Detection:**
 - A transition must happen at mid bit – if not present → ERROR
- **Applications:**
 - Manchester coding: IEEE 802.3 coaxial cable and TP CSMA/CD bus LANs
 - Differential Manchester: IEEE 802.5 token ring LANs on STP

Modulation Rate

- **Modulation (Baud) Rate - D:** number of symbols or signal elements transmitted per second
- **Data (or bit) Rate - R:** number of bits transmitted per second
- **$D = R/b$** – where **b** is number of bits per symbol

Refer to slide number 12

Transitions Per Bit Time

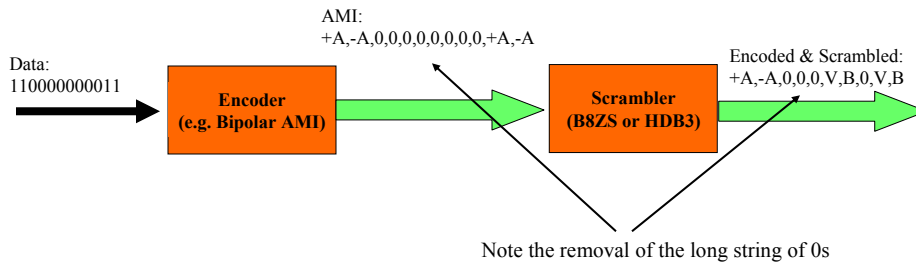
- **The more transitions per bit time, the greater is the required bandwidth of the encoding scheme**

| Encoding | Minimum | 10101010... | Maximum |
|-------------------------|------------------|-------------|--------------------|
| NRZ-L | 0 (all 0s or 1s) | 1.0 | 1.0 |
| NRZI | 0 (all 0s) | 0.5 | 1.0 (all 1s) |
| Bipolar-AMI | 0 (all 0s) | 1.0 | 1.0 |
| Pseudoternary | 0 (all 1s) | 1.0 | 1.0 |
| Manchester | 1.0 (10101...) | 1.0 | 2.0 (all 0s or 1s) |
| Differential Manchester | 1.0 (all 1s) | 1.5 | 2.0 (all 0s) |

Note that Manchester and differential Manchester encoding have the maximum number of transitions per bit time – This is the reason, their spectrum have significant components for f/R greater than 1.0 (refer to slide 24)

Scrambling Techniques

- **Want to achieve:**
 - **No DC component** → media
 - **No long sequence of zero-level signals** → clocking/Synch
 - **No reduction in data rate** → capacity
 - **Error-detection capability** → reliability



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Bipolar with 8-Zeros Substitution (B8ZS)

- **Substitution Rules:**
 - If an octet of all zeros occurs and the last voltage pulse preceding the this octet was +ve, then the 8 zeros of the octet are encoded as 000+-0-+
 - If an octet of all zeros occurs and the last voltage pulse preceding the this octet was -ve, then the 8 zeros of the octet are encoded as 000-+0+-
- **Cause two code violations (signal patterns that are not allowed in AMI)**
- **Unlikely to be caused by noise**
- **Recognized by receiver and interpreted as 8 zeros**

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High-Density Bipolar-3 Zeros (HDB3)

- **Substitution Rules:**
- **Cause two code violations (signal patterns that are not allowed in AMI)**
- **Unlikely to be caused by noise**
- **Recognized by receiver and interpreted as 8 zeros**

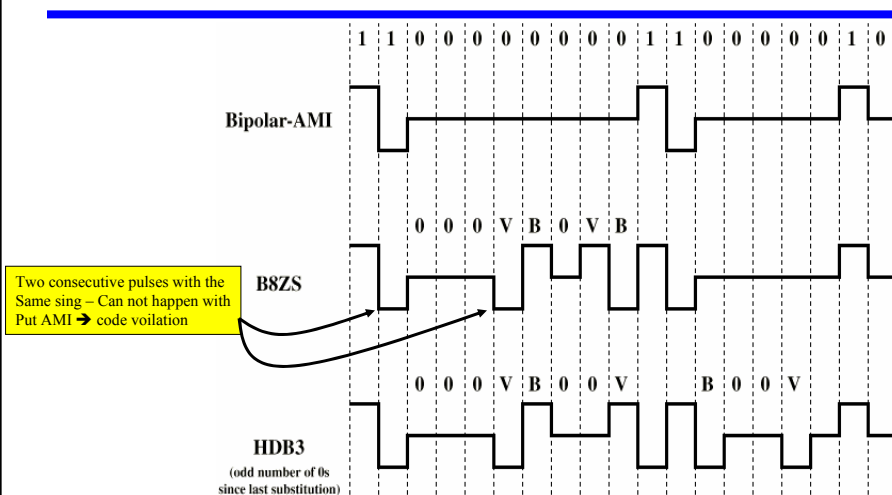
| Polarity of Preceding Pulse | Number of Bipolar Pulses (Ones) since Last Substitution | |
|-----------------------------|---|------|
| | Odd | Even |
| - | 000- | +00+ |
| + | 000+ | -00- |

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B8ZS and HDB3



Two consecutive pulses with the Same sing – Can not happen with Put AMI → code violation

B = Valid bipolar signal
V = Bipolar violation

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Digital Data – Analog Signals

- **Digital data (bits) transmitted using analog signals:**
 - E.g. computer-modem-PSTN
- **Subscriber-to-PSTN connection designed to carry analog (voice) signal from 300 Hz to 3400 Hz**
- **56K Modem – encodes data and generates a signal occupying the same range for voice signals → one line - one signal**
- **DSL Modem – encodes data and generates signal occupying higher range than that usually occupied by voice → one line – two signals**

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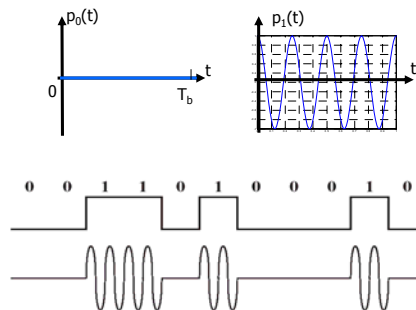
Encoding Techniques – Amplitude Shift Keying (ASK)

- **Analog pulses (signal elements) used are:**

$$s(t) = \begin{cases} A \cos(2\pi f_c t) & \text{bit} = 1 \\ 0 & \text{bit} = 0 \end{cases}$$

- **Spectrum of overall signal is centered around f_c**

- **Application: on voice-grade lines used up to 1200 bps**



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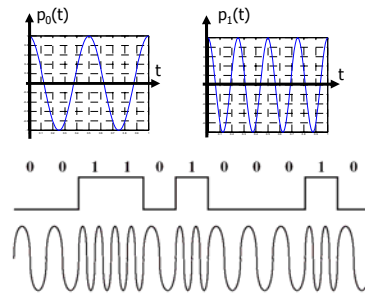
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Encoding Techniques – Frequency Shift Keying (FSK)

- Analog pulses (signal elements) used are:

$$s(t) = \begin{cases} A \cos(2\pi f_1 t) & \text{bit} = 1 \\ A \cos(2\pi f_2 t) & \text{bit} = 0 \end{cases}$$

- Spectrum of overall signal is centered around f_1 and f_2



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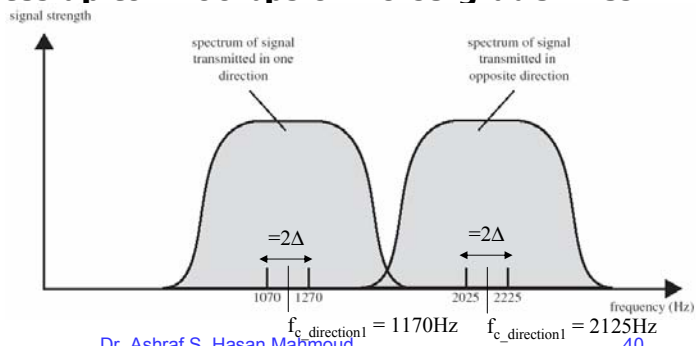
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Encoding Techniques – Frequency Shift Keying (FSK) (2)

- **Application: full duplex**
 - Direction 1: $f_1 = 1070$ Hz, $f_2 = 1270$ Hz
 - Direction 2: $f_1 = 2025$ Hz, $f_2 = 2225$ Hz
- **Less susceptible to errors (compared to ASK) – used for rates up to 1200 bps on voice-grade lines**

- Also used for high frequency (3 to 30 MHz) radio transmission
- LANs – coaxial cables



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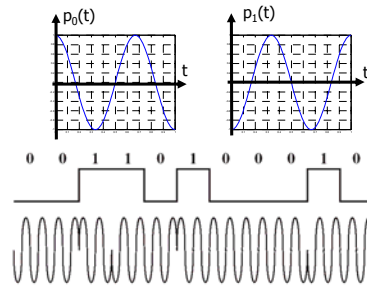
Encoding Techniques – Phase Shift Keying (PSK)

- Analog pulses (signal elements) used are:

$$s(t) = \begin{cases} A \cos(2\pi f_c t + \pi) & \text{bit} = 1 \\ A \cos(2\pi f_c t) & \text{bit} = 0 \end{cases}$$

- Spectrum of overall signal is centered around f_c

- Example of 2-phase system



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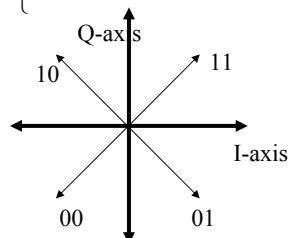
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Encoding Techniques – Quadrature Phase Shift Keying (QPSK)

- Analog pulses (signal elements) used are:

- Example of 4-phase system
- Each signal element carries 2 bits
- One can extend this scheme to obtain: 8PSK for example
- One can use ASK together with PSK to get more signal elements – e.g. 9600 kb/s modem uses 12 phase angles four of which have two amplitude values

$$s(t) = \begin{cases} A \cos(2\pi f_c t + \pi / 4) & \text{bits} = 11 \\ A \cos(2\pi f_c t + 3\pi / 4) & \text{bits} = 10 \\ A \cos(2\pi f_c t + 5\pi / 4) & \text{bits} = 00 \\ A \cos(2\pi f_c t + 7\pi / 4) & \text{bits} = 01 \end{cases}$$



Signal Constellation for QPSK

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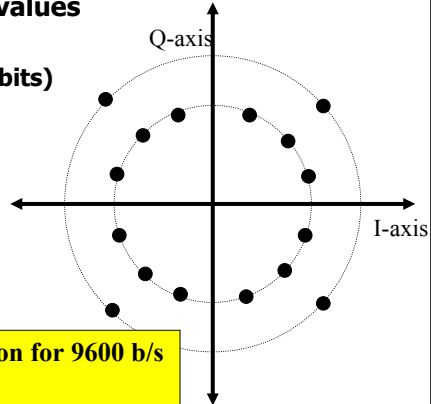
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Encoding Techniques – Quadrature Phase Shift Keying (QPSK) (2)

- One can extend this scheme to obtain: 8PSK for example
- One can use ASK together with PSK to get more signal elements – e.g. 9600 kb/s modem uses 12 phase angles four of which have higher amplitude values
 - For this example: $b = 4$
(i.e. every signal element carries 4 bits)

- In general:
 $D = R/b = \log_2 L$
 where D: modulation rate or baud rate
 R: data rate, bps
 L: # of signal levels
 b: # of bits per signal element



Signal Constellation for 9600 b/s modem standard

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Performance - Bandwidth

- Signal (ASK, PSK, FSK, etc) BW depend on:

- Definition of BW
- Filtering technique

- r – depends on filtering technique ($0 < r < 1$)
- For FSK: $\Delta f = f_2 - f_c = f_c - f_1$

| Encoding Scheme | BW (Signal Spectrum) |
|-----------------|----------------------------|
| ASK | $B_T = (1+r)R$ |
| PSK | $B_T = (1+r)R$ |
| FSK | $B_T = 2\Delta f + (1+r)R$ |

- For multi-level PSK

$$B_T = (1+r)D = (1+r)R/b = (1+r)/\log_2 L \times R$$

- R/B_T = data rate to transmission bandwidth \rightarrow **Bandwidth Efficiency**

- The higher this number the more efficient the scheme is (i.e. less number of Hzs is required to transmit the bits)

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Performance – Bit Error Rate (BER)

This formula is valid for D/R = b = 1 (1 symbol = 1 bit)

- In presence of noise and in terms of BER: PSK and QPSK are 3 dB better than ASK And FSK

- Recall that E_b/N_0 is equal to

$$\frac{E_b}{N_0} = \frac{S/R}{N/B_T} = \frac{S}{N} \times \frac{B_T}{R} = \text{SNR} \times \frac{1}{\text{BW efficiency}}$$

- Hence, one can decrease BER (i.e. increase E_b/N_0) by either increasing SNR, increasing the transmission bandwidth (B_T), or reducing the data rate (R)

- For multi-level signaling – Replace R with D

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Performance – Example

- What is the bandwidth efficiency for FSK, ASK, PSK, and QPSK for a BER of 10^{-7} on a channel with SNR = 12 dB

- Solution

Bandwidth efficiency = R/B_T

$$E_b/N_0 = \text{SNR} / (R/B_T) \text{ or } (E_b/N_0)_{\text{dB}} = \text{SNR}_{\text{dB}} - (R/B_T)_{\text{dB}}$$

$$\text{Therefore, } (R/B_T)_{\text{dB}} = \text{SNR}_{\text{dB}} - (E_b/N_0)_{\text{dB}} = 12 - (E_b/N_0)_{\text{dB}}$$

Using the BER curves (slide 28):

(for ASK & FSK) BER = $10^{-7} \rightarrow (E_b/N_0)_{\text{dB}} = 14.2$ dB

Hence, $(R/B_T)_{\text{dB}} = 12 - 14.2 = -2.2$ dB, or $R/B_T = 0.6$

(for PSK) BER = $10^{-7} \rightarrow (E_b/N_0)_{\text{dB}} = 11.2$ dB

Hence, $(R/B_T)_{\text{dB}} = 12 - 11.2 = 0.8$ dB, or $R/B_T = 1.2$

(for QPSK) same curve as PSK $\rightarrow (E_b/N_0)_{\text{dB}} = 11.2$ dB

Hence, $(D/B_T)_{\text{dB}} = 12 - 11.2 = 0.8$ dB, or $D/B_T = 1.2$ and $R/B_T = 2.4$ (since $D = R/2$ for QPSK)

BW Efficiency: 0.6 \rightarrow 1.2 \rightarrow 2.4

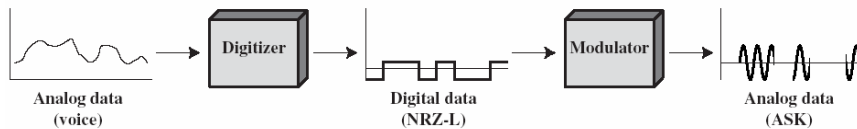
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Analog Data – Digital Signal

- Analog Data is “Digitized” i.e converted to digital
- Once in digital form:
 - Use Digital signaling (NRZ-L, etc)
 - Use Analog Signaling (ASK, FSK, etc) – Shown in figure below
- CODEC: Device for converting analog data to digital for transmission – and for recovering original analog data



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CODEC Procedures

- Two main procedures are used in CODECs:
 1. Pulse Code Modulation (PCM)
 2. Delta Modulation

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Pulse Code Modulation (PCM)

- A scheme for digitizing ANALOG data
- For flash animation of PCM procedure click [HERE](#)
- Procedure:
 - **SAMPLING:** Analog signal is sampled (The rate of sampling SHOULD BE greater than twice the highest frequency – refer to the sampling theorem) → Result: Analog Samples
 - **QUANTIZATION:** Analog samples are mapped to discrete levels and each level is given a binary code → Result: binary word for each sample
 - Example: if we decide to use 256 discrete levels, then every level will have 8-bit word – correspondingly, every analog sample will be translated into 8 bits

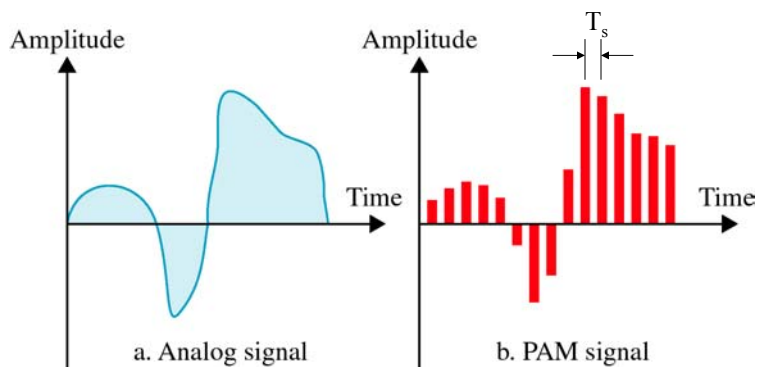
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Pulse Amplitude Modulation (PAM)

- Sampling Frequency, $f_s = 2Xf_m$
- Sampling Time, $T_s = 1/f_s = 1/(2Xf_m)$



Pulse Amplitude Modulation (PAM)

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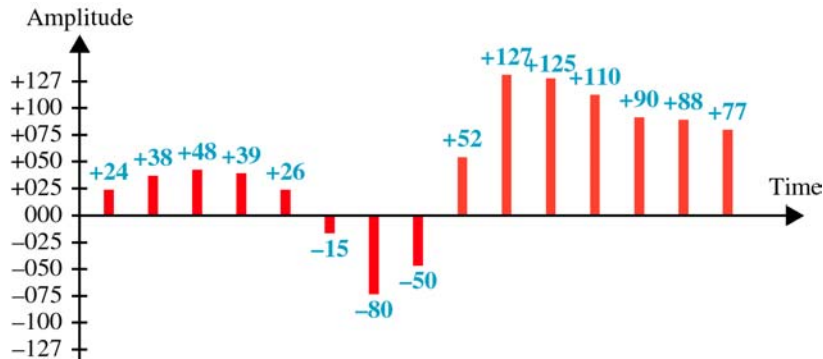
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Figure from package by Forouzan

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Quantization

- Analog samples are **ROUNDED** to **DISCRETE** levels (finite number of levels)
- For N bits per word \rightarrow we have 2^N levels



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Figure from package by Forouzan

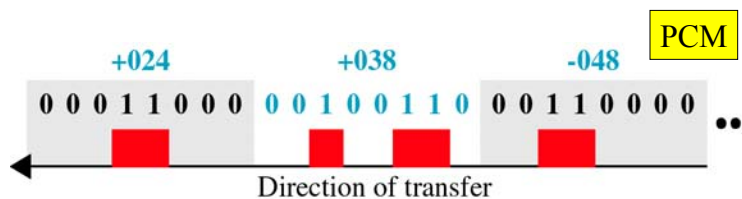
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Quantization – PCM

- N -bit word is then generated for every sample

| | | | | | |
|------|----------|------|----------|------|----------|
| +024 | 00011000 | -015 | 10001111 | +125 | 01111101 |
| +038 | 00100110 | -080 | 11010000 | +110 | 01101110 |
| +048 | 00110000 | -050 | 10110010 | +090 | 01011010 |
| +039 | 00100111 | +052 | 00110110 | +088 | 01011000 |
| +026 | 00011010 | +127 | 01111111 | +077 | 01001101 |

Sign bit
+ is 0 - is 1



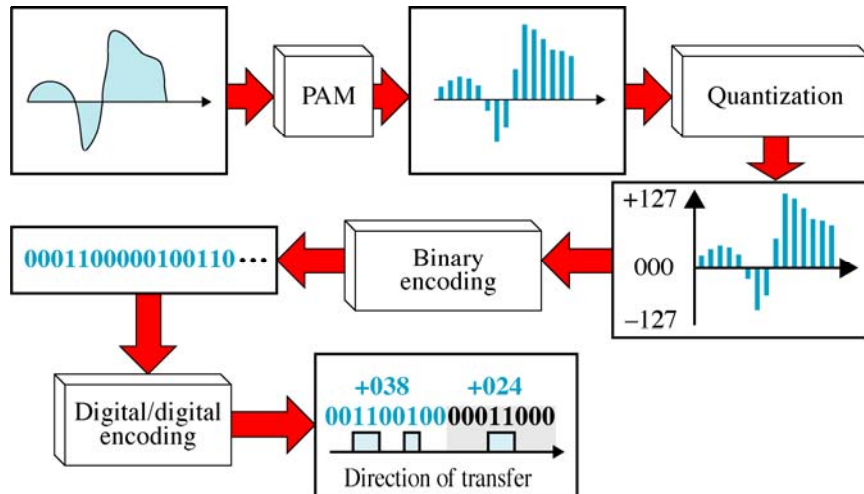
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PCM – overall picture



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Pulse Code Modulation - SNR

- SNR is given by

$$\text{SNR} = 6.02n + 1.76 \text{ dB}$$

Where n is the number of bits per word/sample

- Assumes uniform distribution of signal level
- Errors: difference between quantized samples and original analog samples → QUANTIZATION NOISE
- Thermal noise is NOT accounted for
- NOTE:
 - As number of bits is increased (less rounding errors), SNR increases by 6 dB every extra bit

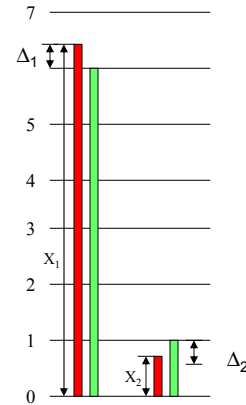
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Pulse Code Modulation – Linear vs. Nonlinear Encoding

- **Linear quantization: equally spaced levels**
 → magnitude of quantization error is same for large amplitude samples and small amplitude samples >> low signal levels are more affected by quantization errors
- **Solution:** to increase “resolution” in the low signal level region →
 - increase total number of levels OR
 - use companding function before quantization
- **For shown figure:**
 - Relative error for X_2 is much greater than that for X_1
 - Relative error is equal to Δ (quantization error) divided by original signal level

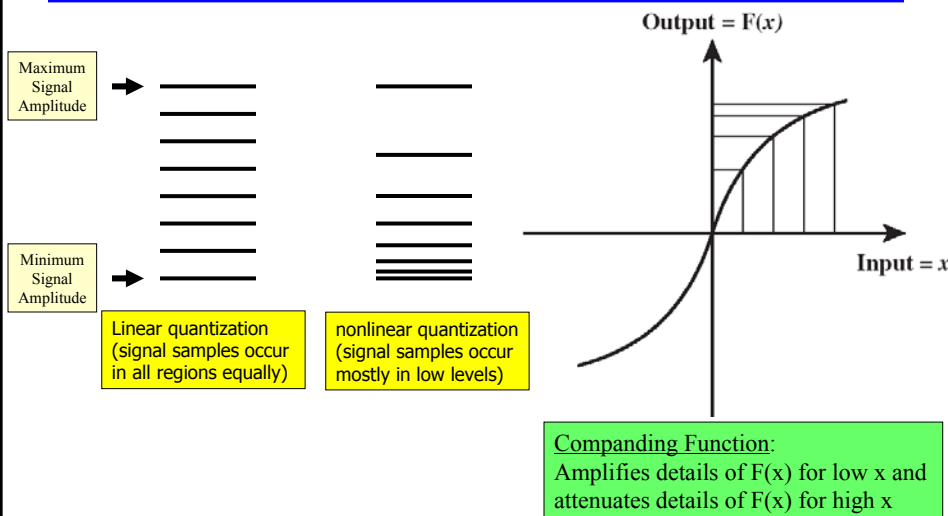


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Pulse Code Modulation – Linear vs. Nonlinear Encoding (2)



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Example: Problem 5-19

5-19: Consider an audio signal with spectral components in the range of 300 to 3000 Hz. Assuming a sampling rate of 7000 samples per second will be used to generate the PCM signal.

- a) For SNR = 30 dB, what is the number of uniform quantization levels needed?**
- b) What data rate is required?**

Example: Problem 5-19 - Solution

a) $(\text{SNR})_{\text{dB}} = 6.02 n + 1.76 = 30 \text{ dB}$

$n = (30 - 1.76)/6.02 = 4.69$

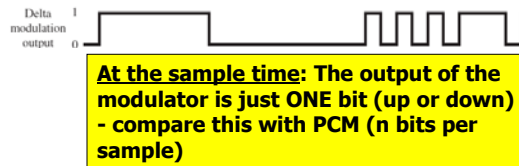
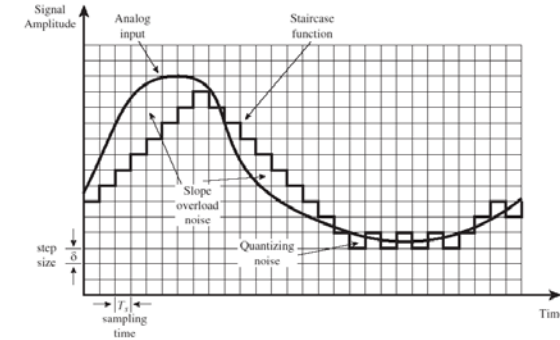
Rounded off, $n = 5$ bits

This yields $2^5 = 32$ quantization levels

b) $R = 7000 \text{ samples/s} \times 5 \text{ bits/sample} = 35 \text{ Kbps}$

Sigma-Delta Modulation

- Approximates the signal by a staircase function that moves up or down one quantization level (δ) every step (sampling time T_s)
- Transition up or down occurs at sampling instant
- **Slope overload:** function increasing/decreasing at a rate faster than δ/T_s – staircase function can not catch up with original signal
- We still have **quantization noise** – rounding of original signal level



At the sample time: The output of the modulator is just ONE bit (up or down) - compare this with PCM (n bits per sample)

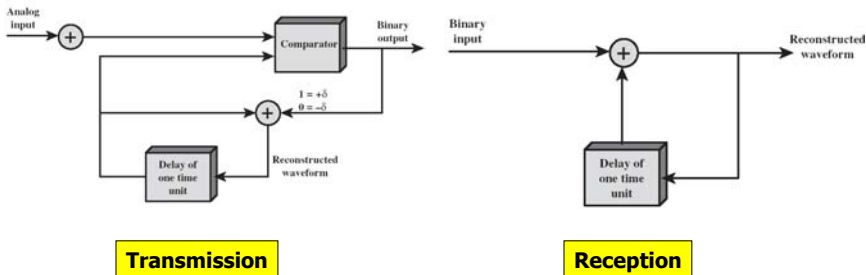
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COMPRESSION

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Sigma-Delta Modulation(2)



- Ways to improve over Delta Modulation:
 - Adaptive step delta modulation

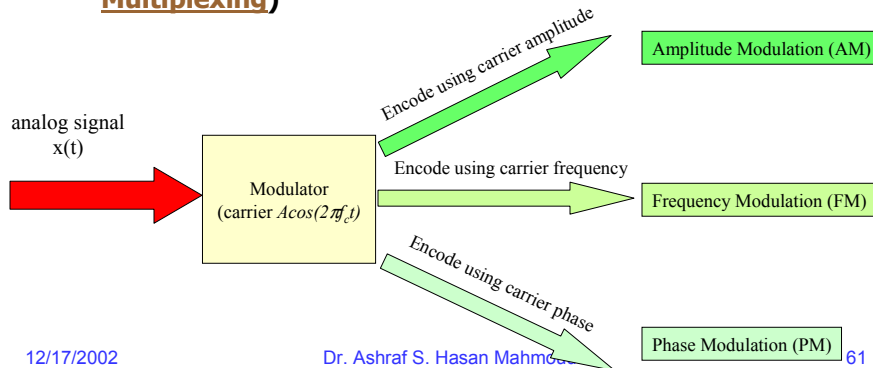
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Analog Data – Analog Signals

- Two principle reasons for analog modulation of analog signals:
 - High frequency may be more effective for transmission
 - Use of FDM (refer to [slide 9: Frequency Division Multiplexing](#))



Amplitude Modulation (AM)

- Simplest form of modulation:

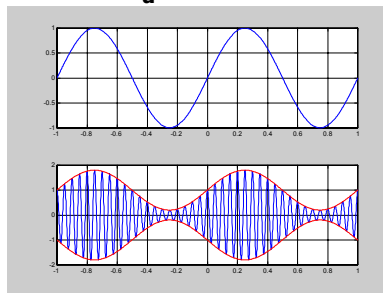
$$s(t) = [1 + n_a x(t)] \cos(2\pi f_c t)$$

where $\cos(2\pi f_c t)$ is the carrier

$x(t)$ is the input signal (carrying data)

n_a is modulation index (control parameter)

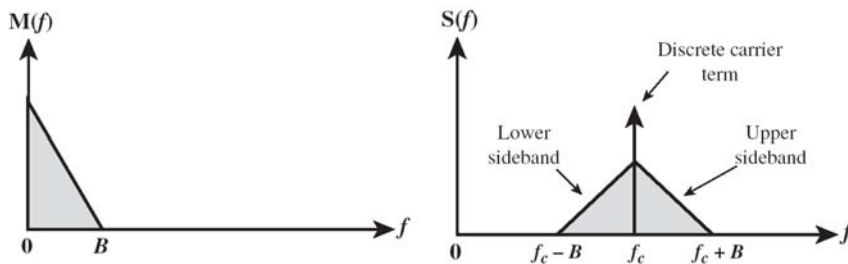
$$m(t) = n_a x(t)$$



Information is "the envelope" of the overall signal $s(t)$
 To preserve the envelope n_a should be < 1 ; for $n_a > 1$,
 The envelope crosses the x-axis (info is lost)

Bandwidth of AM signal

- $S(t)$ has a double sided spectrum function centered around f_c – in addition to the carrier itself → Double sideband transmitted carrier (DSBTC)
- If B is the bandwidth of $x(t)$, the required transmission bandwidth for the AM signal is $B_T = 2B$



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Power of AM signal

- Total signal power: $P_t = P_c(1+n_a^2/2)$, where P_c is the transmitted power in carrier
- $s(t)$ contains extra info: the carrier itself – removal of carrier (i.e $s(t) = m(t)\cos(2\pi f_c t)$) is referred to as double sideband suppressed carrier (DSBSC)
- DSBSC signal has same BW as DSBTC
- Carrier info is useful in helping receiver lock to exact frequency and phase of carrier

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Frequency Modulation (FM)

- Simplest form of modulation:

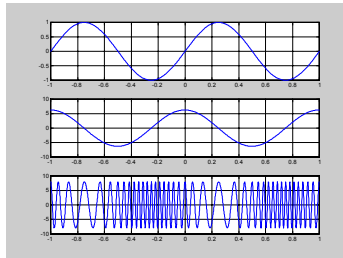
$$s(t) = A_c \cos(2\pi f_c t + \phi(t))$$

$$\phi'(t) = n_f m(t)$$

where A_c/f_c are the amplitude/frequency of carrier

$m(t)$ is the input signal (carrying data)

n_f is frequency modulation index (control parameter)



Instantaneous frequency of $s(t)$, $f_i(t)$, is equal to $f_c + n_f m(t)/(2\pi)$

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Bandwidth/Power of FM signal

- If B is the bandwidth of $m(t)$, the required transmission bandwidth for the FM signal is

$$B_T = 2(1+\beta)B$$

$$\beta = \Delta F/B = n_f A_m/(2\pi B)$$

- ΔF is the peak deviation around f_c , A_m is the maximum amplitude of $m(t)$. Note $\Delta F = n_f A_m/(2\pi)$
- Note B_T for PM signal is greater than that of AM signal
- Power of FM signal: $A_c^2/2$

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Phase Modulation (PM)

- Simplest form of modulation:

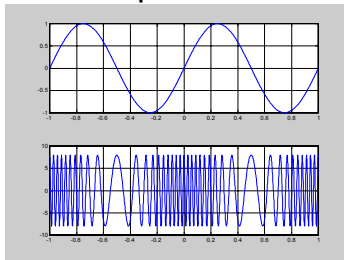
$$s(t) = A_c \cos(2\pi f_c t + \phi(t))$$

$$\phi(t) = n_p m(t)$$

where A_c/f_c are the amplitude/frequency of carrier

$m(t)$ is the input signal (carrying data)

n_p is phase modulation index (control parameter)



Instantaneous phase of $s(t)$, $\phi(t)$, is equal to $n_p m(t)$

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Bandwidth/Power of PM signal

- If B is the bandwidth of $m(t)$, the required transmission bandwidth for the FM signal is

$$B_T = 2(1+\beta)B$$

$$\beta = n_p A_m$$

- Note B_T for PM signal is greater than that of AM signal
- Power of PM signal: $A_c^2/2$

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Example: Problem 5-23

- Consider the angle modulation signal

$$s(t) = 10 \cos(10^8\pi t + 5\sin(2\pi(10^3)t))$$

Find the maximum phase deviation and the maximum frequency deviation

Solution:

$$s(t) = A_c \cos[2\pi f_c t + \phi(t)] = 10 \cos [(10^8)\pi t + 5 \sin(2\pi(10^3)t)]$$

Therefore,

$$\phi(t) = 5 \sin 2\pi(10^3)t,$$

and the maximum phase deviation is 5 radians.

For frequency deviation, recognize that the change in frequency is determined by the derivative of the phase:

$$\phi'(t) = 5 (2\pi) (10^3) \cos [2\pi(10^3)t]$$

which yields a frequency deviation of $\Delta f = 1/(2\pi)[5(2\pi)$

$$(10^3)] = 5 \text{ kHz}$$

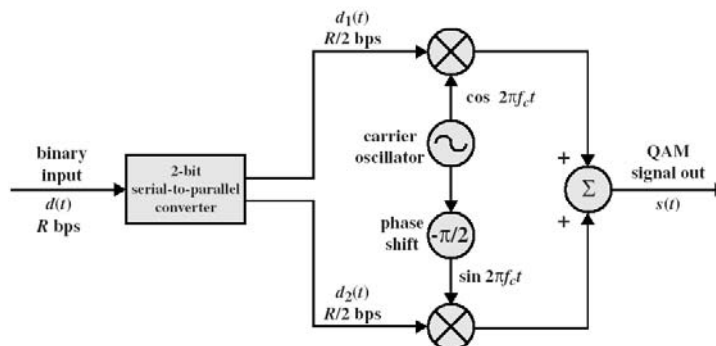
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Quadrature Amplitude Modulation (QAM)

- QAM

$$s(t) = d_1(t) \cos(2\pi f_c t) + d_2(t) \sin(2\pi f_c t)$$



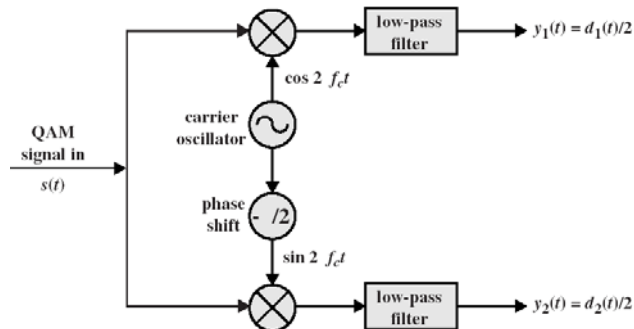
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Example: Problem 5-10

5-10. The figure below shows the QAM demodulator corresponding to the to the QAM modulator shown in previous slide. Show that this arrangement DOES recover the two signals $d_1(t)$ and $d_2(t)$, which can be combined to recover the original signal.



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Example: Problem 5-10 - Solution

Solution:

$$s(t) = d_1(t)\cos(\omega_c t) + d_2(t)\sin(\omega_c t)$$

Use the following identities:

$$\cos(2\alpha) = 2\cos^2(\alpha) - 1; \sin^2(\alpha) = 2\sin(\alpha)\cos(\alpha)$$

For upper branch:

$$\begin{aligned} s(t) \times \cos(\omega_c t) &= d_1(t)\cos(2\omega_c t) + d_2(t)\sin(\omega_c t)\cos(\omega_c t) \\ &= (1/2)d_1(t) + (1/2)d_1(t)\cos(2\omega_c t) + (1/2)d_2(t)\sin(2\omega_c t) \end{aligned}$$

Use the following identities:

$$\cos(2\alpha) = 1 - 2\sin^2(\alpha); \sin^2(\alpha) = 2\sin(\alpha)\cos(\alpha)$$

For lower branch:

$$\begin{aligned} s(t) \times \sin(\omega_c t) &= d_1(t)\cos(\omega_c t)\sin(\omega_c t) + d_2(t)\sin(2\omega_c t) \\ &= (1/2)d_1(t)\sin(2\omega_c t) + (1/2)d_2(t) - (1/2)d_2(t)\cos(2\omega_c t) \end{aligned}$$

All terms at $2\omega_c$ are filtered out by the low-pass filter, yielding:

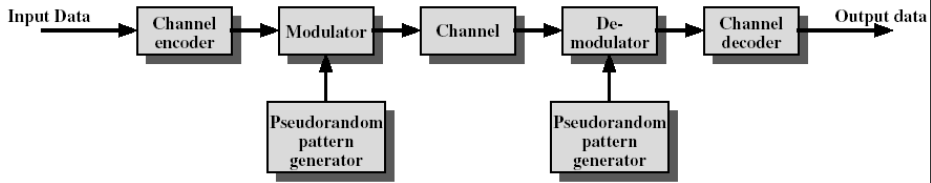
$$y_1(t) = (1/2)d_1(t); \quad y_2(t) = (1/2)d_2(t)$$

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Spread Spectrum

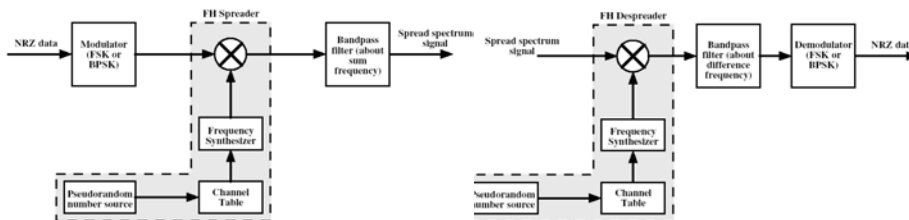


• Key Characteristics:

- Input data is encoded → NARROWBAND analog signal
- Further modulated using Pseudorandom numbers
 - This results in BROADBAND signal
- At receiver – exact same pseudorandom number are generated and used to demodulate signal
- The resulting narrowband signal is then decoded to retrieve original data

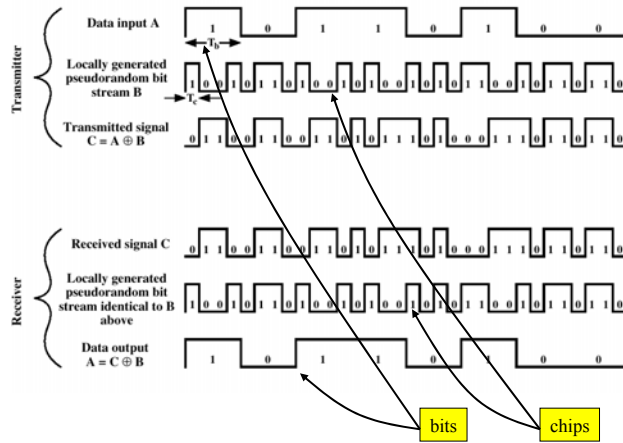
Spread Spectrum – Frequency Hopping

- The signal is transmitted over a *seemingly* random series of frequencies: jumping from one frequency to the next → HOPPING
- A receiver, hopping between frequencies and in SYNCHRONIZATION with transmitter, is able to demodulate and decode the original message



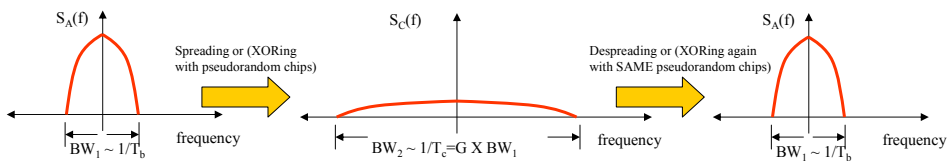
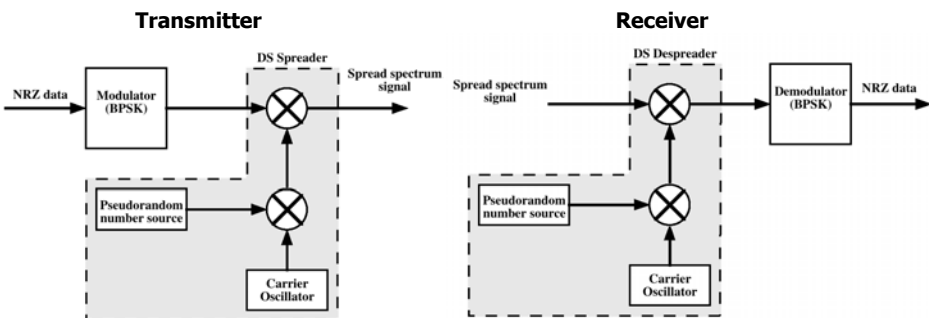
Spread Spectrum – Direct Sequence

- Data input A is "spread" or multiplied by pseudorandom chip stream B $\rightarrow T_b/T_c$ chips per bit
- $R_c = 1/T_c$, $R = 1/T_b$
- SPREADING GAIN (G) = T_b/T_c or R_c/R
- Intended receiver using SAME pseudorandom chips to recover original data
- Original data: A
- Transmitter forms: $C = A \oplus B$
- Receiver forms: $C \oplus B = (A \oplus B) \oplus B = A$
 $XOR\ 0 = A \rightarrow$ which is the original data



Remember (from COE-200) that $B \oplus B = 0$, and $A \oplus 0 = A$

Spread Spectrum – Direct Sequence (2)



Textbook Problems of INTEREST

- **Textbook Problems list: 5-4, 5-5, 5-6, 5-7, 5-8, 5-9, 5-10^s, 5-11, 5-12, 5-13, 5-14, 5-15, 5-18, 5-19^s, 5-20, 5-21, 5-22, 5-23^s, 5-24, 5-24, 5-25**
- **Homework Problems: 5-15, 5-19, 5-20, 5-24**