

Analog and Digital communication

Modulation:

Process of change in characteristic of signal with respect to change in the original message signal

Amplitude Modulation:

A process of change in amplitude of carrier signal with respect to original message signal (or) modulation signal

Voltage Distribution:

Modulating $\rightarrow E_m \sin(2\pi F_m t)$

$$V_{am}(t) = [E_c + E_m \sin(2\pi f_m t)]$$

$$E_m = m F_c$$

$$E_c + m E_c \cdot \sin(2\pi F_m t) (\sin 2\pi F_c t)$$

$$[1 + m \sin(2\pi F_m t)] E_c (\sin 2\pi F_c t)$$

$$= E_c (\sin 2\pi F_c t) - \frac{E_c m}{2} \cos(2\pi F_c + F_m t)$$

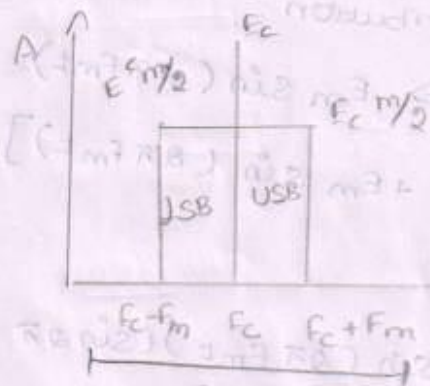
$$+ \frac{E_c m}{2} \cos(2\pi F_c - F_m t)$$

Frequency Spectrum and Bandwidth

Modulation of known a coefficient of modulation. The amount of change in the amplitude present in the AM wave.

Modulation Index, defined as the ratio of the amplitude of modulating signal carrier

$$m = \frac{E_m}{E_c}$$



$$BW \text{ (Band width)} = 2F_m (\text{max})$$

Percentage Modulation

The percentage change in the amplitude of the output wave is called Percentage Modulation.

$$M = m \times 100$$

critical / under / over modulation

$$m = 1$$

$$m < 1$$

$$m > 1$$

$$E_c = E_m$$

$$E_c > E_m$$

$$E_c < E_m$$

$$100\%$$

$$50\%$$

$$V_{\min} = 0$$

$$V_{\max} = 2E_c$$

Power Distribution:

$$P = \frac{V^2}{R}$$

where V refers to voltage

R resistance

$$P_c = \frac{(RMS)^2}{R}$$

$$RMS = \frac{E_c}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$\frac{\left(\frac{E_c}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2}{R} = \frac{E_c^2}{2R} = P_c$$

Side Band:

$$P_{USB} - P_{LSB} = \frac{(AMP)^2}{2R}$$

$$= \frac{\left(\frac{mE_c}{2}\right)^2}{2R}$$

$$= \frac{(mE_c)^2}{8R}$$

$$= \frac{m^2 E_c^2}{8R}$$

$$\text{Sub } P_c = \frac{E_c^2}{2R}$$

$$= \frac{m^2 P_c}{4}$$

$$P_{AM} = P_c + P_{USB} + P_{LSB}$$

$$= P_c + \frac{2m^2 P_c}{4}$$

$$P_{AM} = P_c \left[1 + \frac{m^2}{2} \right]$$

Analog and Digital Communication

Unit-I : Fundamentals of Analog Communication :

* Introduction :

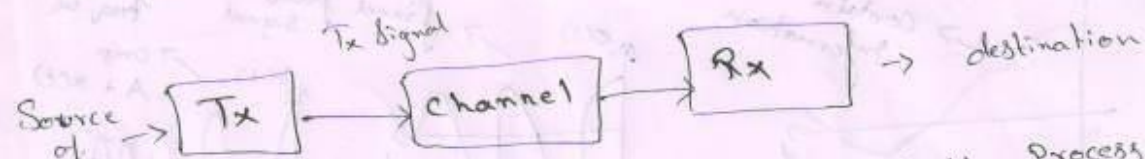
Need of Communication System \Rightarrow to transmit information

* Bearing Signal refers as Baseband Signal.
 \hookrightarrow Baseband is used the band of frequencies of the signal from the source.

* Transmitting technique $\begin{cases} \text{Analog} \\ \text{Digital} \end{cases}$

* Analog communication \Rightarrow Used the continuous signal to transmit the data [voice, image, video etc]

* Simple Communication System :



Communication is nothing but the process of transmission of information from one pt to another.

* **Modulation:** The Process of changing the characteristic of the carrier signal w.r to the instantaneous change in the original msg signal.

* **Types of Modulation**

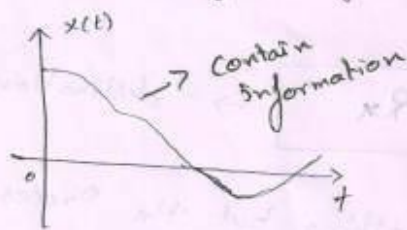
- Analog \Rightarrow Sinusoidal wave used as carrier
- Pulse \Rightarrow Periodic sequence of rectangular pulses
- Digital

* **Need of Modulation:**

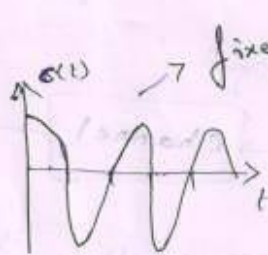
- \rightarrow low freq or audio signal are translated to higher freq. \rightarrow Small wavelength
- \rightarrow To remove interference.
- \rightarrow Reduction of noise.

* **Principle of AM:**

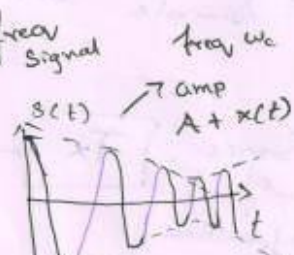
- \rightarrow It is one of the continuous-wave modulation system.
- \rightarrow The process of changing the amplitude of carrier wave w.r to original signal.



a) modulating Sg



b) carrier Sg



c) modulated Signal

$A \rightarrow$ max amplitude of the carrier wave.

$\omega_c \rightarrow$ carrier freq

Note: Freq + Phase [constant]

Amplitude is varied.

$$s(t) = x(t) \cdot \cos \omega_c t + A \cos \omega_c t$$
$$= [A + x(t)] \cos \omega_c t$$

* AM Envelope:

\Rightarrow Fig 3 AM wave time-varying amplitude
Called Envelope of AM wave

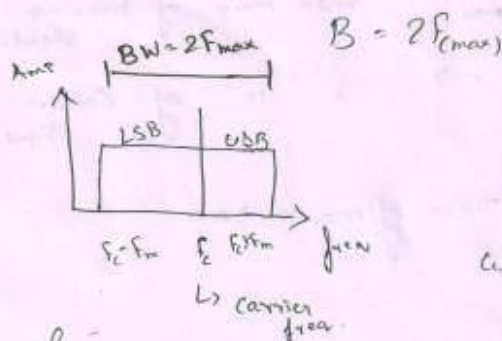
\rightarrow Envelope of the modulated signal Shape
is same as the baseband signal.

$$S = [A + x(t)] \cos \omega_c t \quad E(t) \Rightarrow \text{envelope of AM}$$

$$E(t) = A + x(t) \quad \rightarrow \text{baseband signal is recovered by envelope.}$$

* Frequency Spectrum and bandwidth:

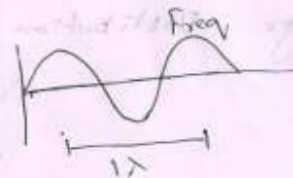
\Rightarrow Bandwidth defined as twice that of the highest modulating freq (f_{max})



$$f_{freq} = 300 \text{ kHz to } 3 \text{ MHz}$$

$$f_c - f_{max} \rightarrow \text{diff of freq}$$

$$f_c + f_{max} \rightarrow \text{sum of freq}$$



$$x(t) \cos \omega_c t = x(t) \left[\frac{1}{2} e^{j\omega_c t} + \frac{1}{2} e^{-j\omega_c t} \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} x(t) e^{j\omega_c t} + \frac{1}{2} x(t) e^{-j\omega_c t}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} [x(\omega - \omega_c) + x(\omega + \omega_c)]$$

* Angle Modulation : $\begin{cases} \text{freq modulation} \\ \text{phase modulation} \end{cases}$
 \rightarrow freq or phase of the carrier signal is varied acc w.r to msg signal, keeping amp const.
 \rightarrow (P) Phase angle is varied.

Carrier signal $\Rightarrow m(t) = V_c \cos [\omega_c t + \theta(t)]$

* Application: Radio broadcasting, cellular radio, satellite comm, microwave comm.

* Phase modulation:-

\rightarrow Phase angle ϕ is varied w.r to modulating signal $x(t)$.

$$x(t) = A \cos (\omega_m t + \theta_0)$$

$$\phi = \omega_c t + \theta_0 \Rightarrow \phi = \omega_c t$$

$$\phi_i = \omega_c t + k_p \cdot x(t)$$

$k_p \rightarrow$ Phase Sensitivity

$$S(t) = A \cos \phi_i \rightarrow \begin{matrix} \text{radians/volt} \\ \text{Phase modulated wave} \end{matrix}$$

$$S(t) = A \cos [\omega_c t + k_p \cdot x(t)]$$

* Frequency modulation:

→ ω_i (instantaneous freq) varied with a msg signal $x(t)$. $\omega_c \rightarrow$ unmodulated carrier freq.

Expression: fall

$$\omega_i = \omega_c + k_f \cdot x(t)$$

Q. $c(t) = A \cos(\omega_c t + \phi_0)$

$$c(t) = A \cos \phi$$

$k_f \rightarrow$ frequency sensitivity

\rightarrow Hz/volt

Freq of modulated wave

$$S(t) = A \cos \phi_i$$

\Rightarrow

A constant.

ϕ changed.

$$\phi = \omega_c t + \phi_0$$

diff $\Rightarrow \frac{d\phi}{dt} = \omega_c$ or $\phi = \int \omega_c dt$

So $\phi_i = \int \omega_i dt$

$$\phi_i = \int [\omega_c + k_f x(t)] dt$$

(from 1st eqn)

$$= \omega_c t + k_f \int x(t) dt$$

$$S(t) = A \cos \left[\omega_c t + k_f \int x(t) dt \right]$$

* Frequency modulation:

→ ω_i (instantaneous freq) varied with a msg signal $x(t)$. ω_c → unmodulated carrier freq.

Expression:

$$\omega_i = \omega_c + k_f \cdot x(t)$$

$$c(t) = A \cos(\omega_c t + \phi_0)$$

$$c(t) = A \cos \phi$$

k_f → frequency sensitivity

→ Hz/volt.

Freq of modulated wave

$S(t) = A \cos \phi_i$ ⇒ A constant.
 ϕ changed.

$$\phi = \omega_c t + \phi_0$$

$$\text{diff} \Rightarrow \frac{d\phi}{dt} = \omega_c \quad \text{or} \quad \phi = \int \omega_c dt$$

$$\phi_i = \int [\omega_c + k_f x(t)] dt$$

(From 1st eqn)

$$= \omega_c t + k_f \int x(t) dt$$

$$\text{So } \phi_i = \int \omega_i dt$$

$$S(t) = A \cos \left[\omega_c t + k_f \int x(t) dt \right]$$

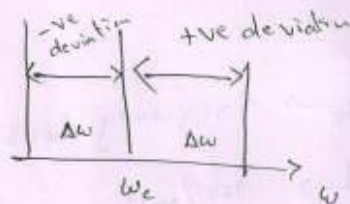
* Frequency deviation:

→ max change of instantaneous freq (ω_i) from Avg freq

$$\omega_i = \omega_c + k_f \cdot x(t)$$

$\Delta\omega \rightarrow$ max freq deviation.

$$\Delta\omega = |k_f \cdot x(t)|_{\max}$$



Note:

PM is often known as indirect FM

because PM \rightarrow amt of Phase shift is varied in ω_c (carrier freq) change

PM \rightarrow Phase angle varies linearly with $x(t)$ (baseband sig)

FM \rightarrow " " " " integral of $x(t)$

Performance Table:

| FM | PM |
|---|---|
| * $S(t) = V_c \sin[\omega_c t + m_f \sin \omega_m t]$ | * $S(t) = V_c \sin[\omega_c t + m_p \cos \omega_m t]$ |
| * Noise immunity better than AM + PM | * Better than AM |
| * SNR is better than PM | * worse than FM |
| * FM widely used | * In mobile system |

* AM

* Envelope of AM wave is dependent of $x(t)$

* Zero crossing Perfect regularly

Angle modulation

* Envelope is constant

* it differs.

$$\text{Bandwidth of FM} = 2 [\Delta F + f_m]$$

↳ depend of modulation index & signal freq

→ angle modulated wave sets of side bands, it has wider BW

* low index → $m < 1$

* medium " → $(1 < m < 10)$

* high " → $(m > 10)$

ΔF → Peak freq deviation

f_m → modulating freq

* According to Carson's Rule :

a) low modulating index $f_m \gg \Delta F$

$$B = 2 f_m \text{ Hz}$$

b) for high modulating index

$$B = 2 \Delta F \text{ Hz}$$

* Deviation Ratio :-

$$DR = \frac{\Delta f_{\max}}{f_m(\max)}$$

$\Delta f \rightarrow$ max Peak freq deviation (Hz)

$f_{\max} \rightarrow$ max modulating signal freq (Hz)

Types of FM :-

- Narrow band FM (k_f is small)
- Wide band FM (k_f is large)

Modulation index of FM :-

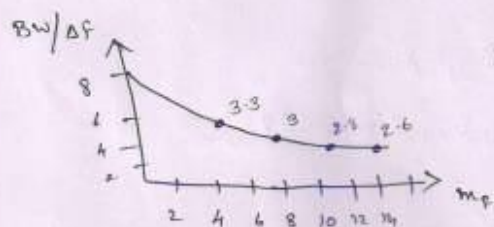
$$m_f = \frac{\text{freq deviation}}{\text{modulating freq}} = \frac{\Delta \omega}{\omega_m} = \frac{k_f V_m}{\omega_m}$$

Bandwidth:

\rightarrow depend on modulation index (m_f)

$m_f \uparrow \Rightarrow$ BW also \uparrow

Universal curve: \rightarrow Schwartz determined graph for BW of FM



It shows variation of the BW B
normalised with respect to Δf
against m_f

$$B.W = 2(\Delta \omega + \omega_m) \quad ; \quad m_f = \frac{\Delta \omega}{\omega_m}$$

$$B.W = 2(m_f \cdot \omega_m + \omega_m) = 2(1 + m_f) \omega_m$$

Carson's rule:-

1) $\Delta\omega \ll \omega_m$ i.e. $m_f \ll 1 \Rightarrow$ narrow band FM
 $BW \approx 2\omega_m$

2) $\Delta\omega \gg \omega_m$ i.e. $m_f \gg 1 \Rightarrow$ wideband FM
 $BW = 2(m_f)\omega_m$
But $m_f\omega_m = \Delta\omega$
 $B.W \approx 2\Delta\omega$

Note:

* AM is called linear type of modulation
→ because there is no intermodulation (or)
Cross-Product Sideband

Phase modulation : Analytic View:

- PM deviation in carrier freq ω_c is linearly proportional to baseband freq ω_m
- FM deviation is independent.

SSB- Single Side Band

Need of Modulation

Noise Calculation

Noise factor denoted by F
Noise factor F of an amplifier or any other networks is defined as ratio of available S/N Power ratios at the input to the available S/N Power at the output.

$$\frac{P_{si}}{P_{Ni}} \times \frac{P_{No}}{P_{so}}$$

$\therefore S/N$ - signal to the noise (unitless)

Power Noise figure:

If the noise factor expressed in decibel (unit) is known as Noise figure for circuit

$$\text{Noise Figure} = 10 \log |F|$$

Noise Temperature:

The available noise power is directly proportional to temperature and it is independent of value of resistance. This power specify in terms of temperature is called Noise Temperature. Noise due to the several amplifiers in cascade

Evaluation & description of SSB

Technique :-

[∴ SSB - single side Band]

In DSB the carrier frequency is occur there are In order to decrease the carrier we are going to SSB.

Advantage of SSB

- * Conserves Bandwidth
- * Power requirement is reduced
- * Noise at the receiver circuit is reduced
- * Fading effect is absent

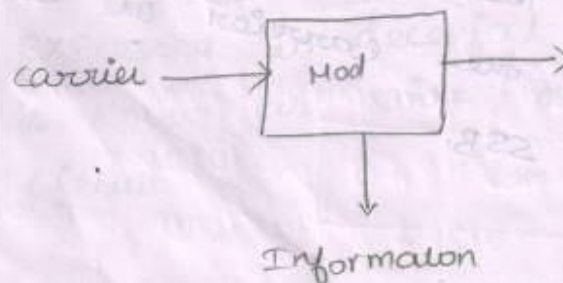
Fading effect:

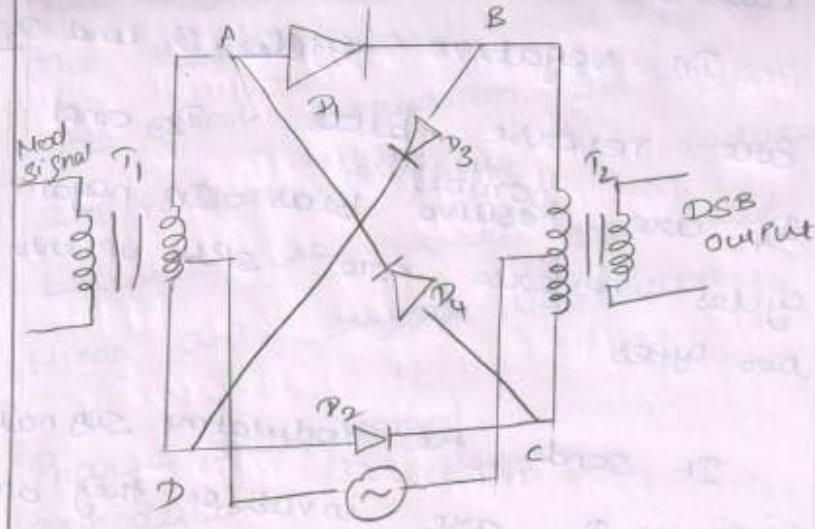
Three Side Bands are interference at that point is called fading effect.

Disadvantage

Complex & tuning circuits

To suppression of carrier with the use of Base Modulation





T_1 - Input transformer

T_2 - Output transformer

D_1, D_2, D_3, D_4 - Diode.

In positive cycles D_1 and D_2 are forward bias. they are split up into two equal and opposite so they are cancel each other. In forward Bias the power will be produced. In D_3 and D_4 are reverse bias. In carrier signal it

Case 2:

In negative cycles D_1 and D_3 are reverse bias. D_2 and D_4 are ^{forward} positive bias. In negative cycles reverse are split up in two types:

It sends the Modulating signal. D_3 and D_4 are invariables they direct connect with output.

To suppress the side band there are two types they are

- * filter method

- * Phase shift method



The Base Modulator is suppressed the carrier and then go side Band suppression. In that suppression α value is reduced because we use Balanced Mixer and crystal oscillator.

Phase Shift Method :
Demodulation :

The process of extracting the information signal from the modulated signal

Narrow Band FM wide Band FM

In Narrow Band FM
modulation Index
less than 1

modulation Index
is greater
than 10

In Narrow Band, B
Band width is
 $BW = 2F_{max}$

In wide Band
 $WB = 2(\beta + F_{max})$

Advantage of Angle Modulation:
Noise Immunity is high

There is an improvement in signal to noise ratio power utilisation is efficient.

Capture effect is high

Disadvantage:

PM FM requires more Band width.

Circuit complexity and cost is high.

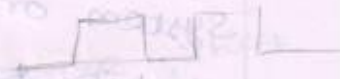
Need of Modulation

It is used to reduce the noise

Unit II

Digital Modulation (Discrete data)

high frequency analog carrier wave is modulated with respect to the low frequency digital information signal.
(Digital Radio)



- * Amplitude Shift Keying
- * Frequency Shift Keying
- * Phase Shift Keying
- * Quadratic Amplitude Modulation

(QAM)

Application of Digital Modulation:

Relatively low speed voice
Band communication Modems

High speed data transmission
System such as Digital subscriber
line (DSL)

Digital microwave and
microwave satellite communication

cellular telephone are
personal communication system

Definition for Bit Rate:

Information capacity of
system or else simply the no
of bit transmitted during
one second and expressed as
Bit Per Second [BPS]

Bit:

The most basic digital system
used to represent the
information is the binary digit
(or) bit

Baud rate

It is also change the rate
of change of signal after
encoding and modulation
occurs.

$$\text{Baud rate} = \frac{1}{t_s}$$

t_s - Time of one signal in element
Unit - Seconds

Baud rate is otherwise is called as Symbol rate, Transmission rate and modulation rate.

Binary system:

eg: BPSK - Binary Phase Shift Key. In this system bit rate is equal to ~~modulation~~ Baudrate

High level system:

BPS - Bit per second. is also Greater than the Baud rate.

Information capacity

It is denoted as I

$$I \propto B_w \times t$$

Band width Increases at the same time Information capacity is also Increases. It is also known Hartley's Law

$$I = B \log_2 (1 + \frac{S}{N})$$

This Theorem is known as
Shanon ratio

$\frac{S}{N}$ - signal to noise ratio (un)

B - Bandwidth (Hz)

In \log_{10} The formula is

$$I = 3.32 B \log_{10} (1 + \frac{S}{N})$$

M Aray encoding :

$$M = 2^n$$

M Aray encoding represents
digit that corresponds to new
of condition, level, or combina
are possible for a given nu
of binary.

$$N = \log_2 M$$

N - Number of bits

Nyquist Bandwidths Equation

$$F_b = 2BW$$

F_b - Information capacity (or)
Channel capacity.

M - Number of condition.

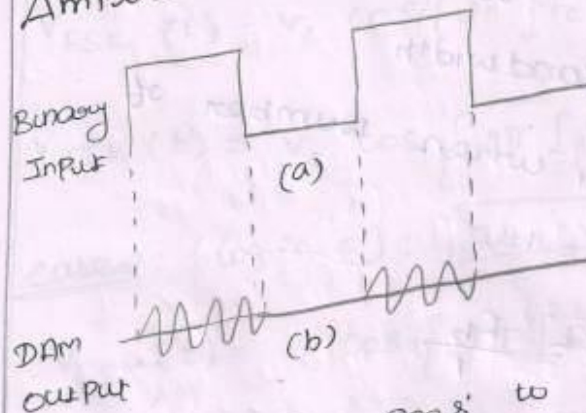
$$F_b = 2 B \log_2 M$$

$$B = \frac{F_b}{\log_2 M}$$

B - Band width.

$$B = \frac{F_b}{N}$$

Amplitude Shift Key:



Input signal goes to Binary
Binary means 0's & 1's. ASK
is a special form of
Amplitude Modulation. There are
two logic 0 & 1

$$V_{ask}(t) = [1 + V_m(t)] \left[\frac{A}{2} \cos(\omega_c t) \right]$$

Case 1:

$$\begin{aligned} V_{ask}(t) &= [1+1] \left[\frac{A}{2} \cos(\omega_c t) \right] \\ &= 2 \frac{A}{2} \cos(\omega_c t) \\ &= A \cos \omega_c t \end{aligned}$$

Case 2: (logic 0)

$$\begin{aligned} V_{ask}(t) &= [1-1] \left[\frac{A}{2} \cos(\omega_c t) \right] \\ &= 0 \left[\frac{A}{2} \cos(\omega_c t) \right] \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Bit Rate is equal to the Nyquist Bandwidth

Bandwidth when number of bit (N) = 1

$$B = \frac{F_b}{1}$$

$$\boxed{B = F_b}$$

Frequency Shift Key:

$$V_{FSK}(t) = V_c \cos \left\{ 2\pi [F_c + V_m(t) \Delta F] t \right\}$$

ΔF - Frequency deviation

$V_m(t)$ - Information signal

F_c - Frequency carrier

Frequency Shift Key is frequency carrier is change with respect to the information signal.

Case 1: (logic 1) Sub $V_m(t) = 1$

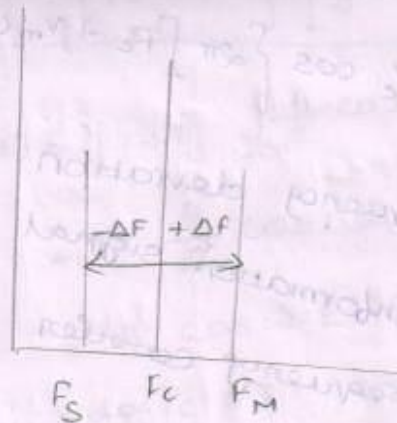
$$V_{FSK}(t) = V_c \cos \left\{ 2\pi [F_c + 1 \Delta F] t \right\}$$

$$V_{FSK}(t) = V_c \cos \left\{ 2\pi [F_c + \Delta F] t \right\}$$

Case 2: (logic 0): Sub $V_m(t) = -1$

$$V_{FSK}(t) = V_c \cos \left\{ 2\pi [F_c - 1 \Delta F] t \right\}$$

$$V_{FSK}(t) = V_c \cos \left\{ 2\pi [F_c - \Delta F] t \right\}$$



F_m = Mark frequency

F_s = Space frequency

Frequency Deviation

$$\Delta f = \frac{|F_m - F_s|}{2} \text{ (Hz)}$$

Unit = Hz

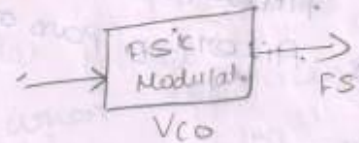
$$B = |(F_s - F_b) + (F_m - F_b)|$$

$$B = |F_s - F_m| + 2F_b$$

$$B = 2 |\Delta f + F_b|$$

Transmitter

VCO - Voltage control oscillator



Truth Table

| I/P | O/P |
|---------|-------|
| logic 1 | F_m |
| logic 0 | F_s |

When logic 1 is then the output is F_m and the input is logic 0 output is F_s

FSK Receiver :

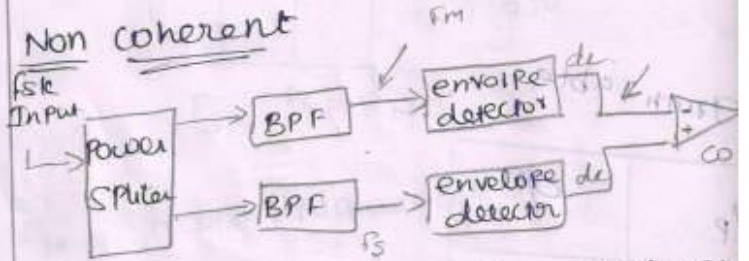
Three types of Receiver

- * Non Coherent
- * Coherent
- * PLL (Phase Lock Loop)

There are three types of filter

- High Pass filter (It pass only high frequency)
- Low Pass filter (It pass only low frequency)
- Band Pass filter (It pass only specific range of frequency)

Non coherent



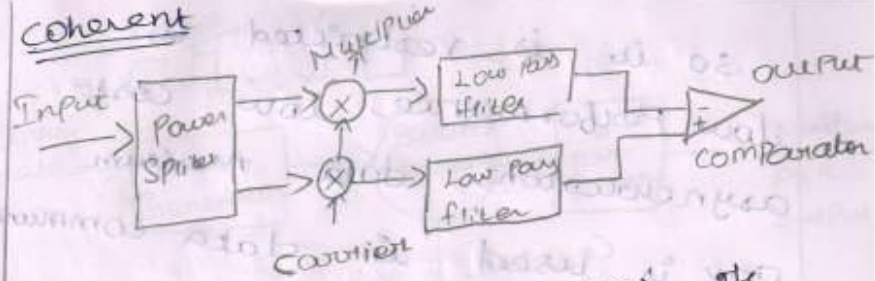
Envelope detector is estimator of power estimation.

BPF - It allows specific range of frequency.

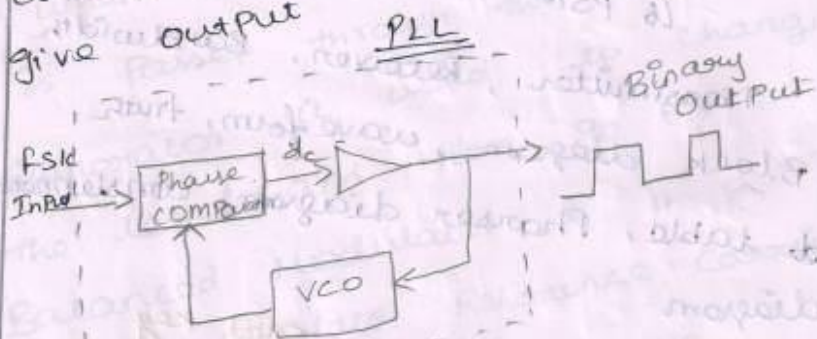
Power - compare two power and gives output.

Because no frequency is in demodulation process that is synchronized either in phase or frequency or both with the incoming FSK signal.

Coherent



when the input gives the power splitter split into two and the ~~car~~ carrier signal is multiplied and then go low pass filter the comparator analysis low frequency then give output



▷ → amplifier.

Demodulate using dc error

Voltage
Disadvantage
Other

name of FSK is Binary FSK. Poor error performance compare to the PSK, QAM

so it is restricted to low performance, low cost asynchronous data medium. PSK is used in data communication over analog, voice band telephone line.

Phase Shift Key:

BPSK

QPSK

8PSK

16PSK

Transmitter, Receiver, Bandwidth

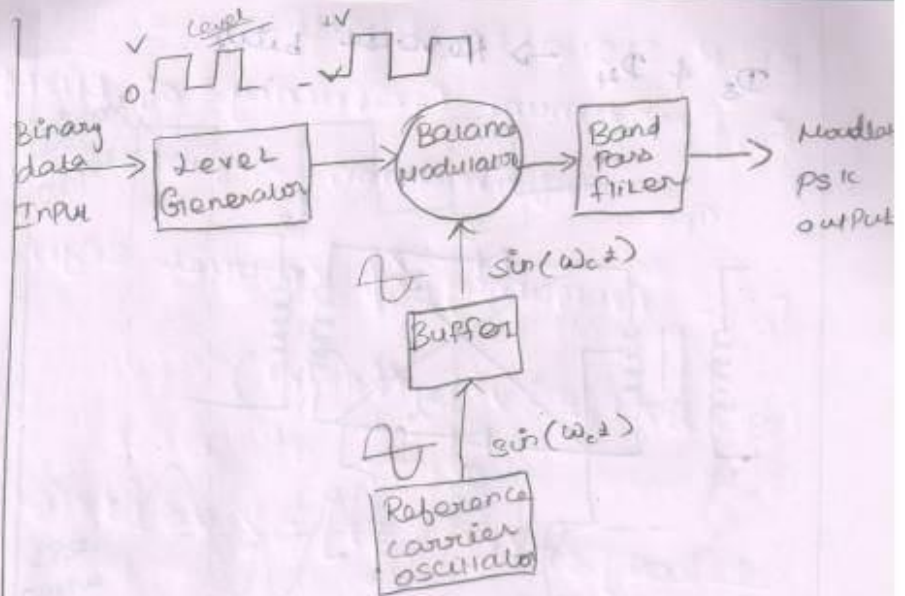
Block diagram, waveform, truth table, Phasor diagram, constellation diagram.

BPSK - Binary Phase Shift Key

$N=1$

$M=2$

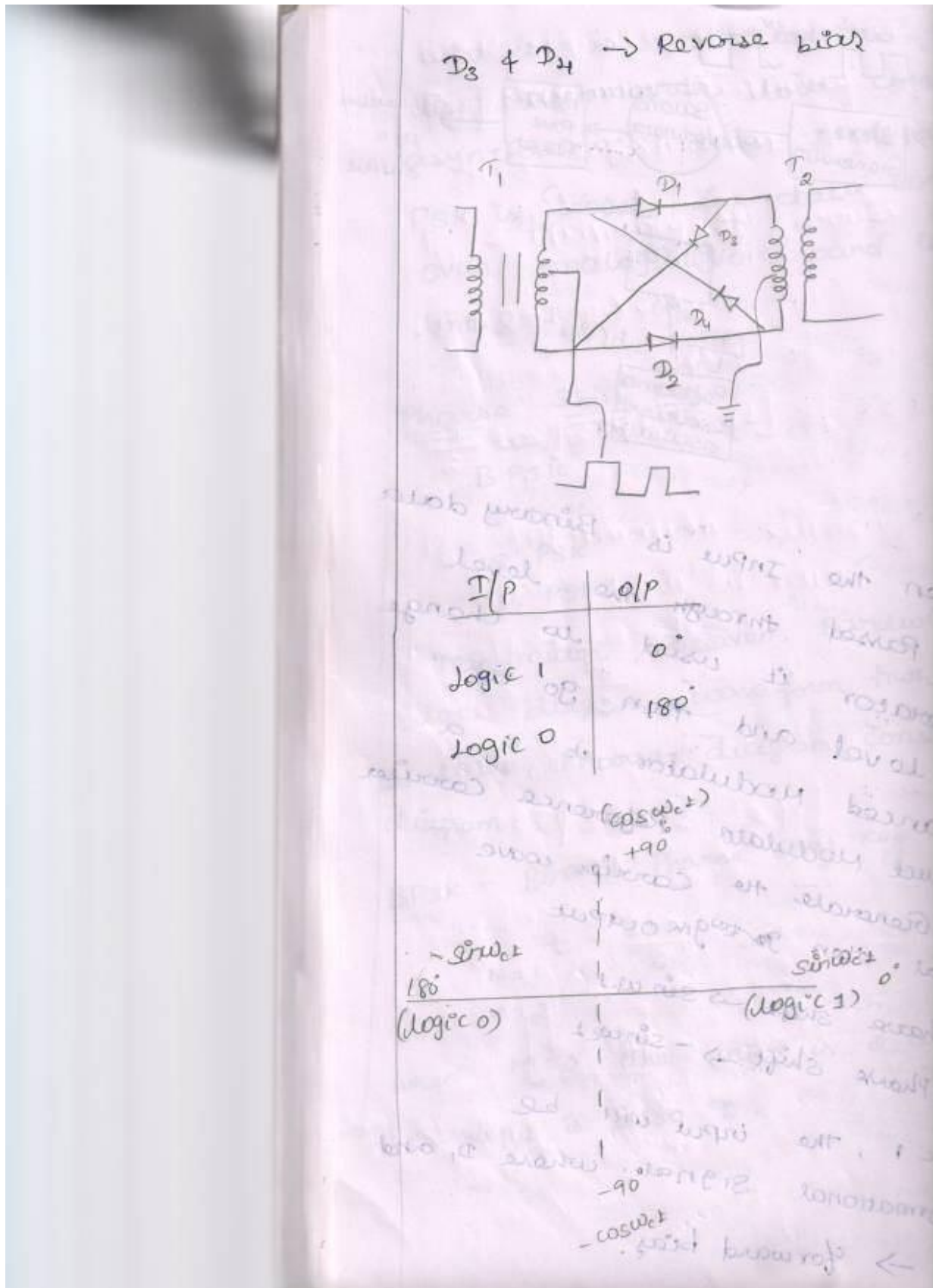
When $M=2$ The input is 2 and the output is also 2.

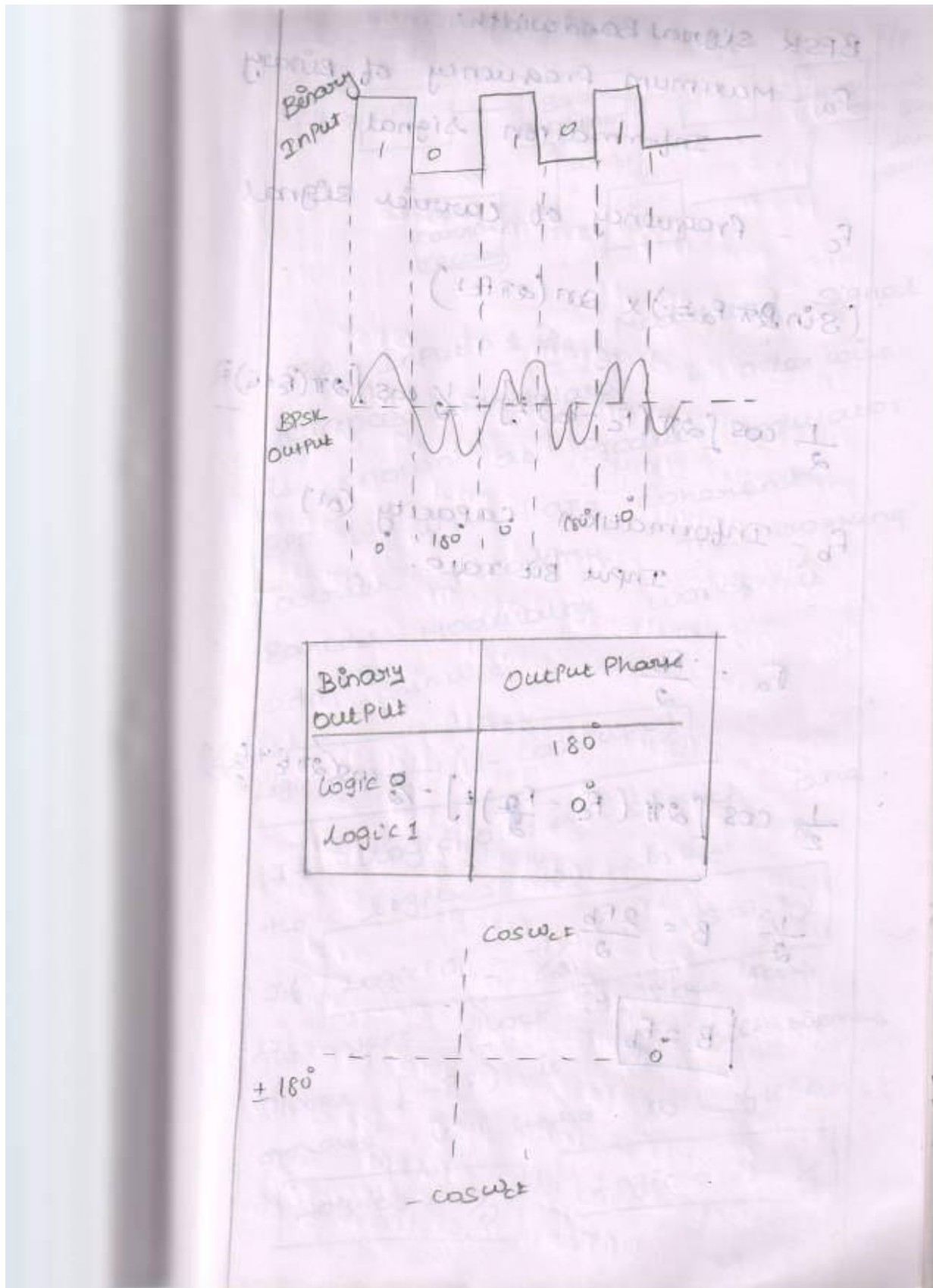


When the Input is Binary data is passed through the level Generator it used to change the level and then go to Balanced Modulator it is a Product Modulator Reference Carrier to Generate the Carrier wave Signal then give output

0° Phase shift $\rightarrow \sin \omega_c t$
 180° Phase shift $\rightarrow -\sin \omega_c t$

logic 1, the input will be Informational Signal, where D_1 and $D_2 \rightarrow$ forward bias.





BPSK signal Bandwidth:

F_a - Maximum frequency of
Information signal

F_c - frequency of carrier

$$(\sin 2\pi F_a t) \times \sin(2\pi F_c t)$$

$$\frac{1}{2} \cos [2\pi (F_c - F_a) t] - \frac{1}{2} \cos [2\pi (F_c + F_a) t]$$

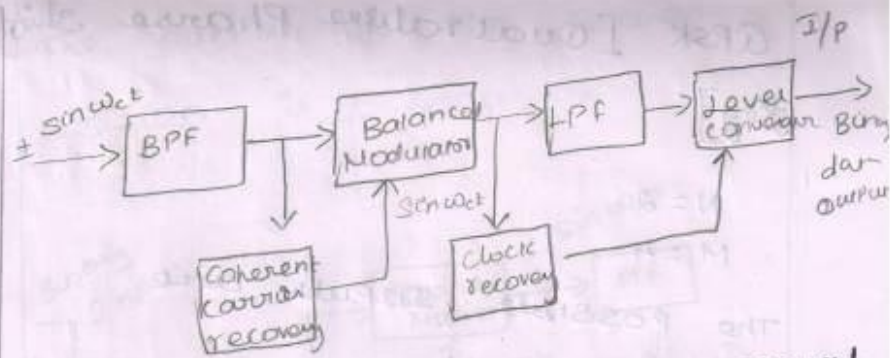
F_b - Information capacity (Input Bit rate).

$$F_a = \frac{F_b}{2}$$

$$\frac{1}{2} \cos [2\pi (F_c - \frac{F_b}{2}) t] - \frac{1}{2} \cos [2\pi (F_c + \frac{F_b}{2}) t]$$

$$\frac{1}{2} B = \frac{2F_b}{2}$$

$$\boxed{B = F_b}$$



The Input is Modulated signal
Balanced Modulator is otherwise
is known as Product Modulator.
BPF is input are coherent
carrier recovery the working
Balanced Modulator works is
add two $\sin \omega_c t$

$$\text{Logic 1} = \frac{1}{2} (1 - \cos 2\omega_c t)$$

If logic 0 is $-\sin \omega_c t$ and
the logic 1 is $\sin \omega_c t$ &

$$\text{If Logic 0} = -\frac{1}{2} (1 - \cos \omega_c t)$$

The Next Block is Low Pass
filter [LPF] it is filter works
on the is used to filter.

$$\text{Logic 1} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\text{Logic 0} = -\frac{1}{2}$$

QPSK [Quadrature Phase Shift Key]

$$N = 2$$

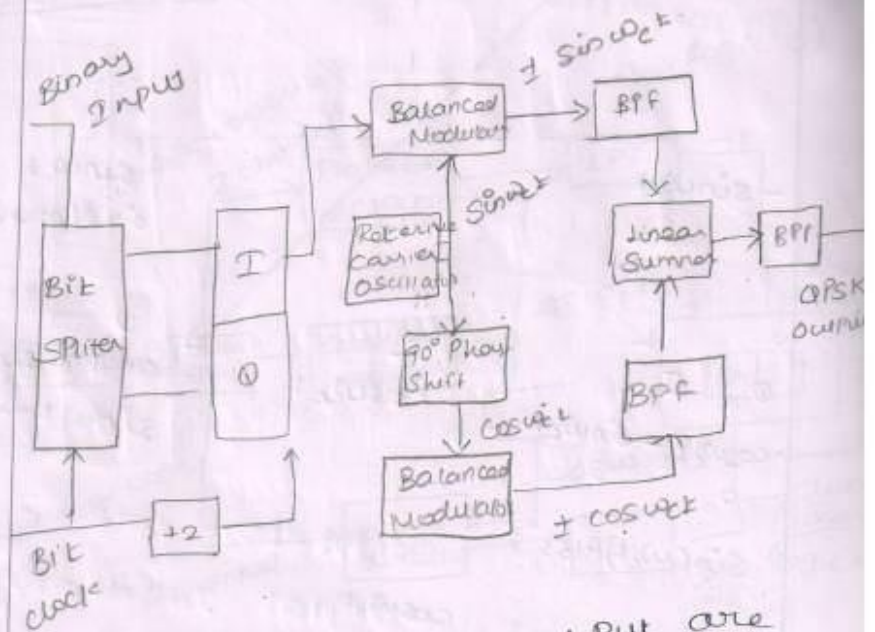
$$M = 4$$

The possible inputs are
00, 01, 10, 11

In Block diagram of QPSK
upper position is I channel
and the lower position is
Q-channel. I-channel is
Inphase channel. Q-channel
is 90° outside of the carrier
is called Q-channel.

In Block diagram of QPSK
the Balanced Modulator
two input one input is
user given (Binary input)
and the other
input Reference carrier osc
gives It gives $\sin \omega_c t$ and
the lower position is $\cos \omega_c t$
Phase angle so 90° phase
shift add and then $\sin \omega_c t$
 $\cos \omega_c t$ and the output is
of the upper position \pm

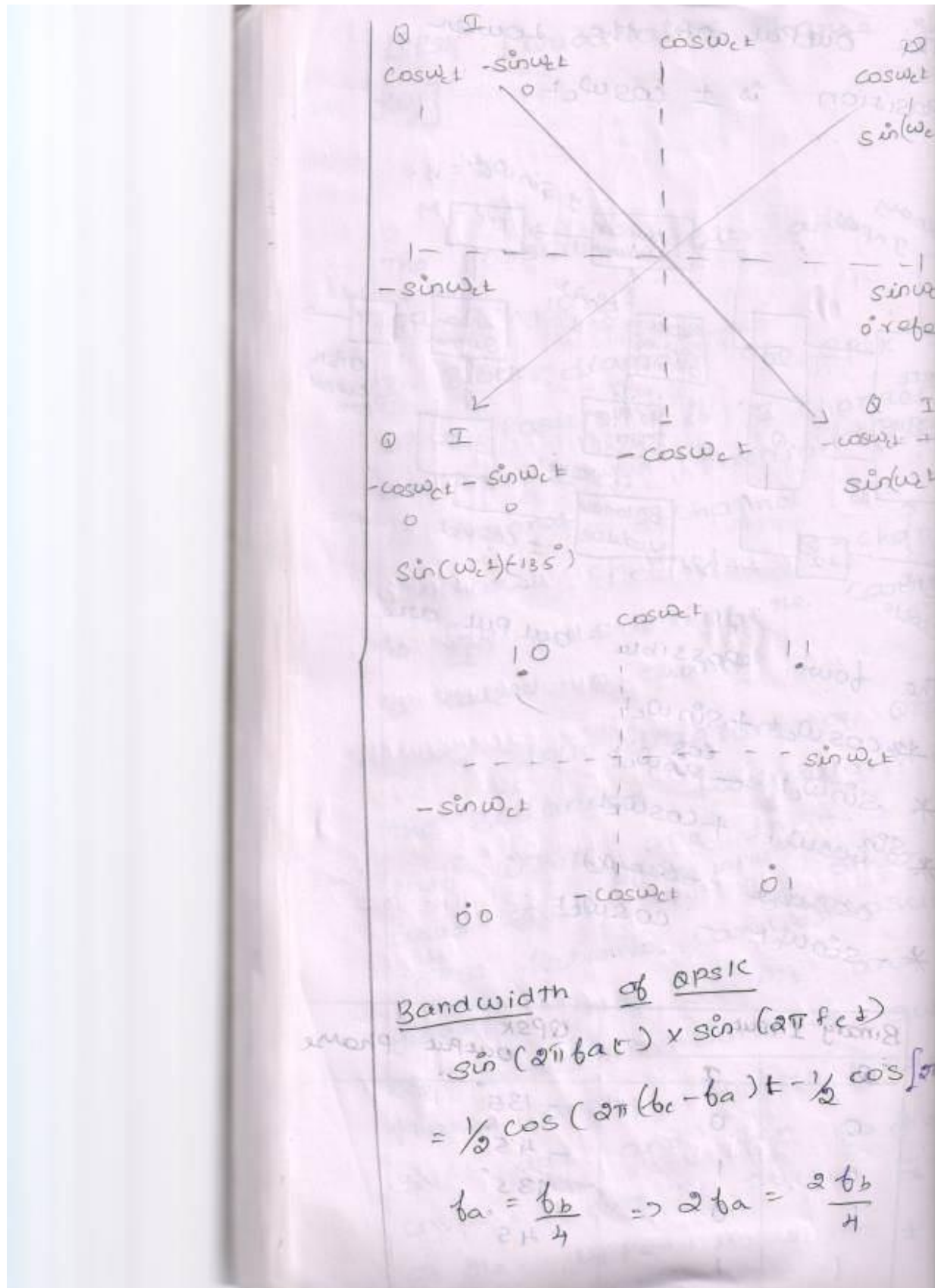
The output of the lower position is $\pm \cos \omega_c t$.



The four possible output are

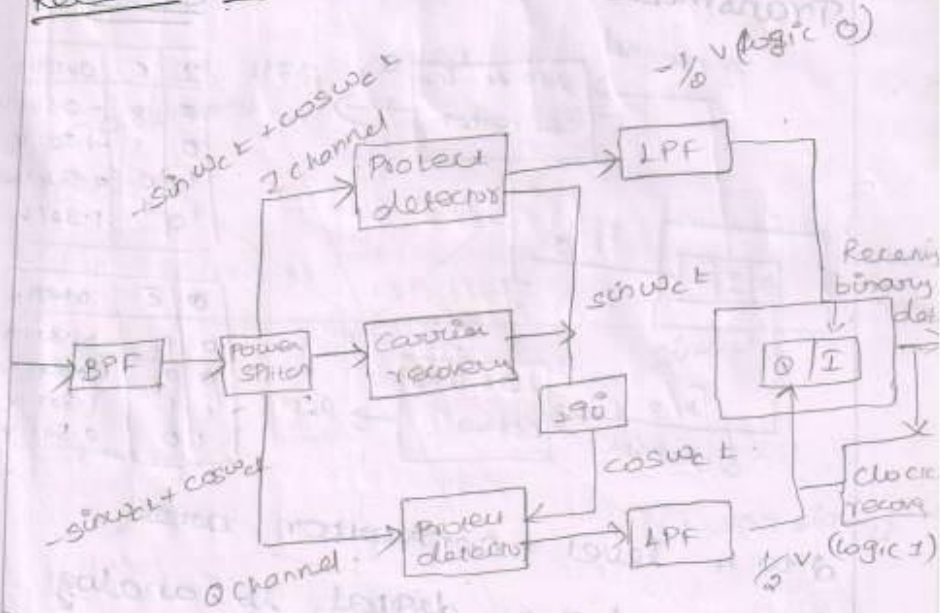
- * $\cos \omega_c t + \sin \omega_c t$
- * $\sin \omega_c t - \cos \omega_c t$
- * $\sin \omega_c t + \cos \omega_c t$
- * $-\sin \omega_c t - \cos \omega_c t$

| Binary Input | | QPSK output phase |
|--------------|---|-------------------|
| Q | I | |
| 0 | 0 | -135° |
| 0 | 1 | -45° |
| 1 | 0 | 135° |
| 1 | 1 | 45° |



$$B = \frac{b_b}{2}$$

Receiver of QPSK:



$$I = \{-\sin \omega_c t + \cos \omega_c t\} \{\sin \omega_c t\}$$

$$= -\sin^2 \omega_c t + (\cos \omega_c t)(\sin \omega_c t)$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2}(1 - \cos 2\omega_c t) + \frac{1}{2} \sin(\omega_c + \omega_c)t$$

$$+ \frac{1}{2} \sin(\omega_c - \omega_c)t$$

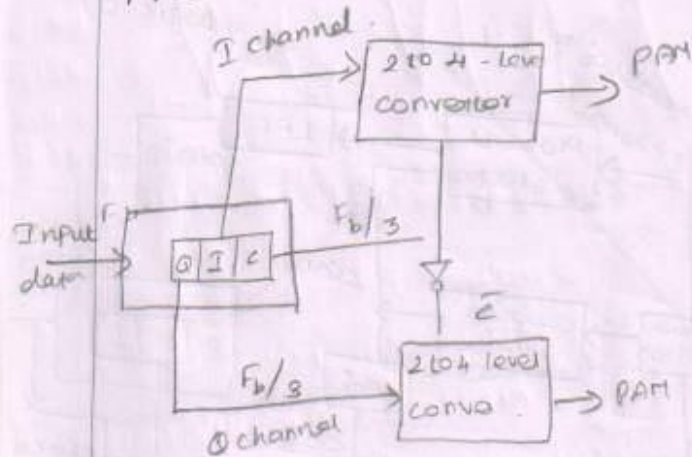
$$= -\frac{1}{2} V \text{ logic } 0$$

$Q = \{-\sin \omega_c t + \cos \omega_c t\} (\cos \omega_c t)$
 unwanted expression are filter
 The expression is

$$Q = \frac{1}{2} V \text{ logic } 1$$

8 PSK :

Transmitter Block :



Out

| I | C |
|---|---|
| 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 |

| E | C |
|---|---|
| 0 | 1 |
| 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 |

2 to 4 level converter are parallel input digital to analog converter [DAC]. In transmitter end DAC. In receiver end ADC [Analog to digital].

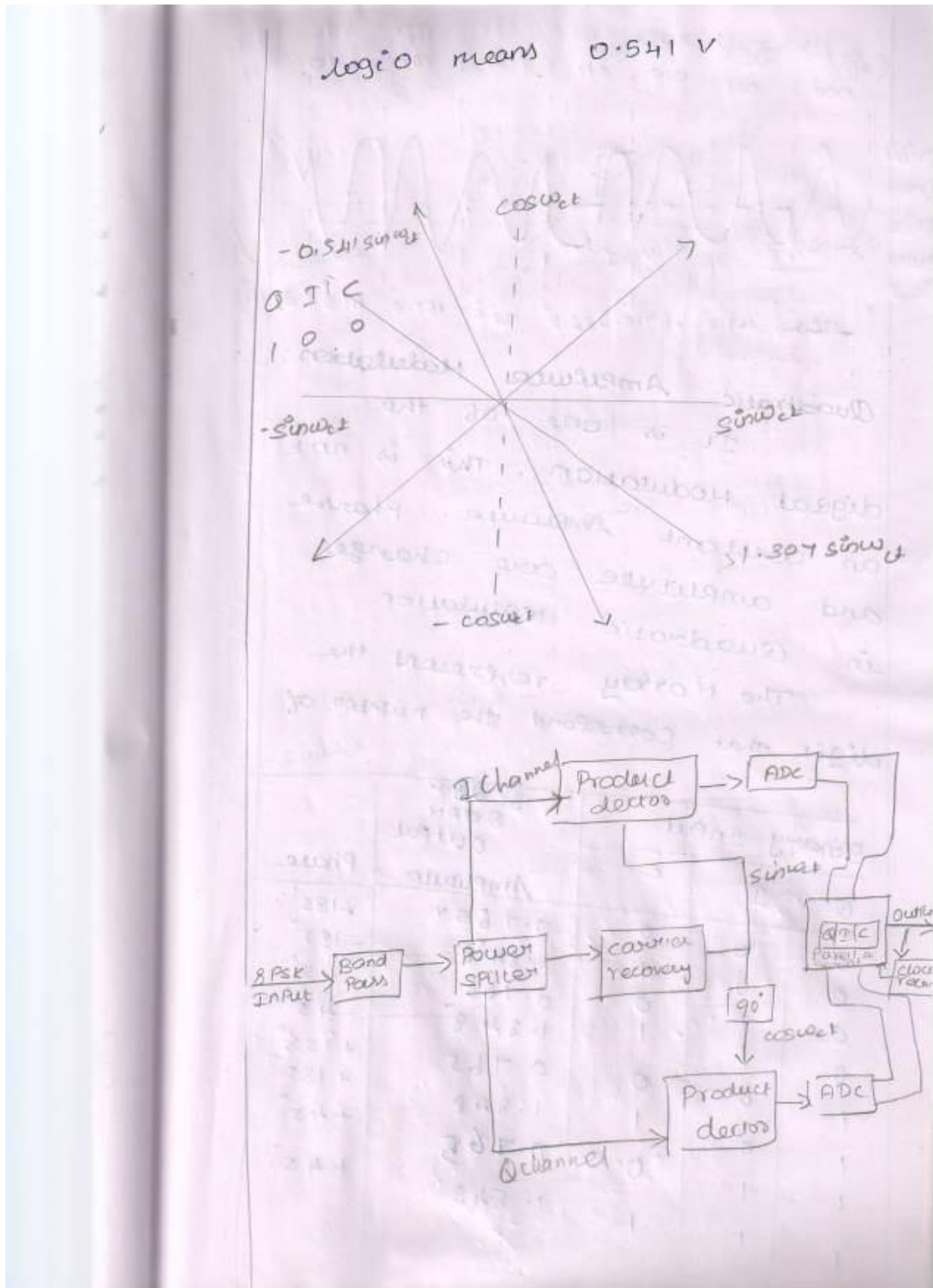
I or C bit determines the Polarity of the output analog signal.

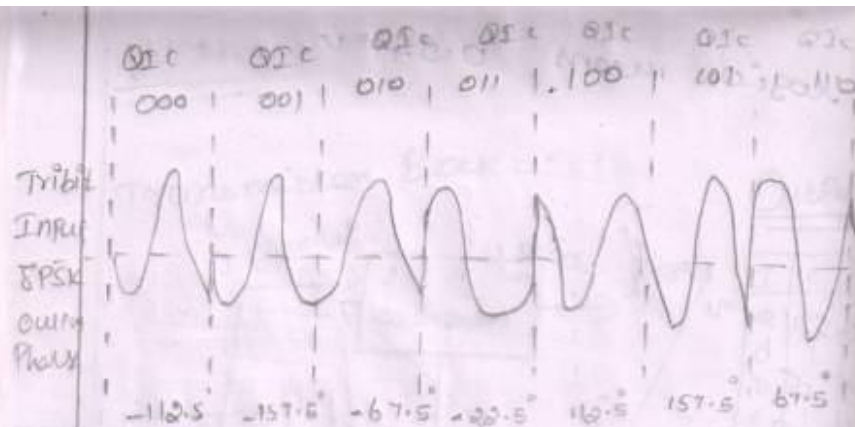
logic 1 \rightarrow + Volt

logic 0 \rightarrow - Volt

E or \bar{E} determine magnitude

logic 1 means 1.307 V



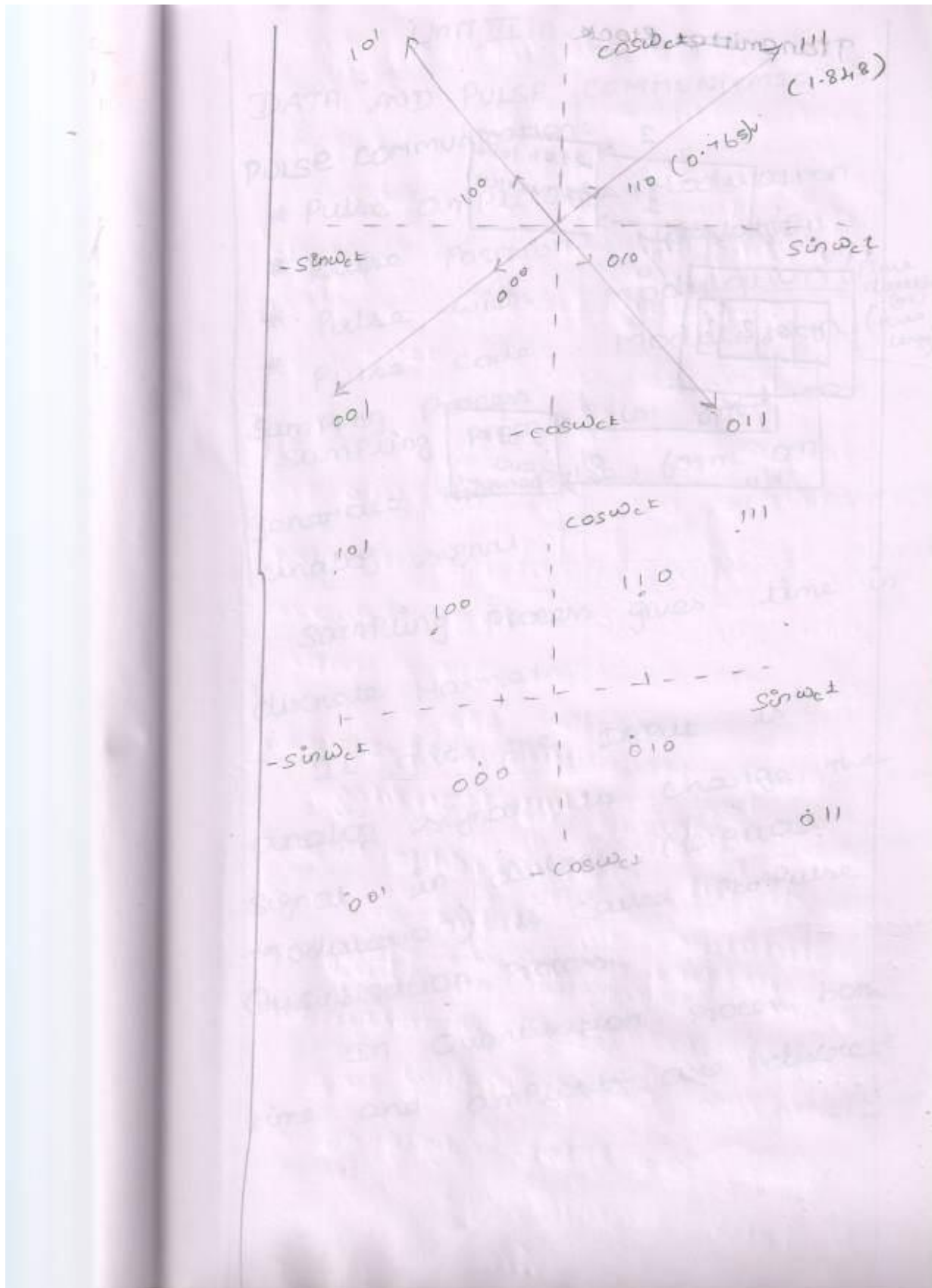


Quadrature Amplitude Modulation

It is one of the digital modulation. This is not an constant Amplitude. Phase and amplitude are change in Quadratic modulation

The M array represent the digit that correspond the number of

| Binary Input | | | QAM Output | Phase |
|--------------|---|---|------------|-------|
| Q | I | C | Amplitude | |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.765V | -135° |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 1.848 | -135° |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0.765 | -45° |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | 1.848 | -45° |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 0.765 | +135° |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 1.848 | +135° |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 0.765 | +45° |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | 0.765 | +45° |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1.848 | |



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UNIT III

DATA AND PULSE COMMUNICATION

PULSE COMMUNICATION:

- * Pulse amplitude Modulation.
- * Pulse position Modulation.
- * Pulse width Modulation (Pulse duration) (Pulse length)
- * Pulse code Modulation

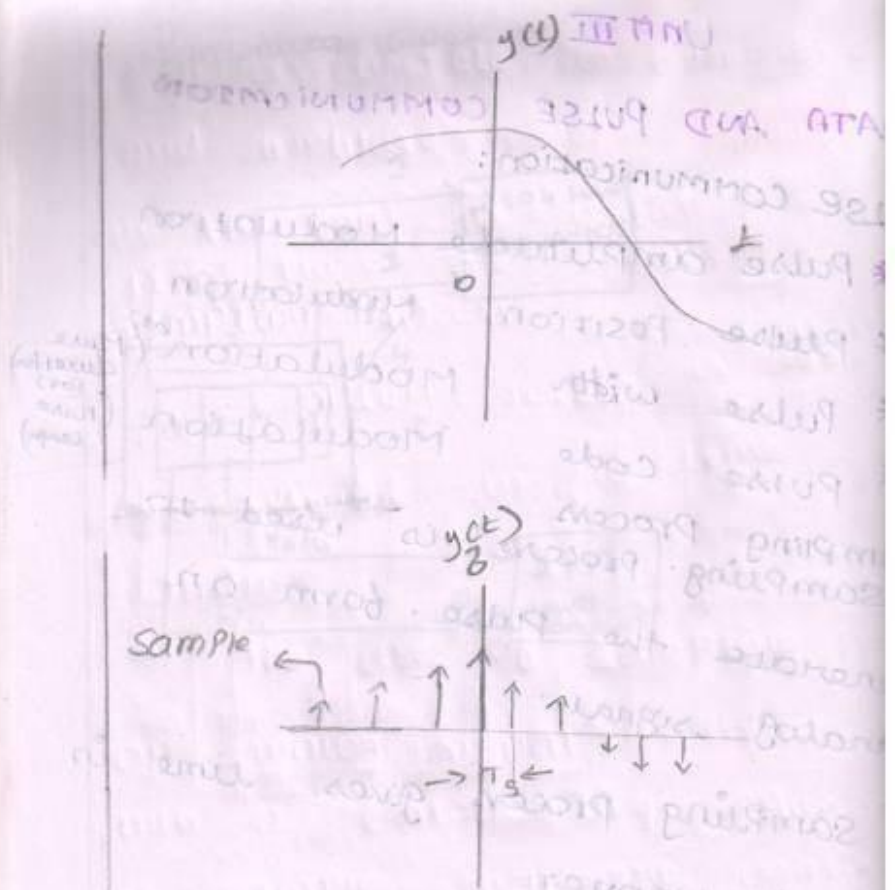
Sampling Process
Sampling process is used to

generate the pulse form an analog signal.

Sampling process gives time in discrete manner.

It gives the input is analog signal to change the signal in discrete (Digital Modulation) is called Rho Pulse Quantisation process.

In Quantisation process both time and amplitude are discrete



Pulse Modulation represents the transition from Analog to digital Communication. Pulse modulation is defined as the process in which some parameter of the carrier wave varies in accordance with the message signal. There are two types of Pulse Modulation.

* Analog Pulse Modulation

* Digital Pulse Modulation

Analog Pulse Modulation

In Analog Pulse Modulation

is periodic pulse train is used as the carrier wave and some characteristic features of

each pulse is varied in a continuous manner in accordance with the corresponding

sample value of message signal

Analog Modulation \rightarrow PAM

In analog Pulse Modulation

information is transition based

in analog form but transmission takes in discrete time.

Digital Pulse Modulation

In digital pulse

modulation the message signal

is represented in a form

that is discrete in both time and amplitude thereby permitting its transition in digital form.
PCM - Pulse Code Modulation

Sampling Process

Sampling Process is used to describe in the time domain.

The use of sampling of an analog signal is converted into a corresponding sequence of samples that are used at space uniform in time.

T_s - sampling period

$\frac{1}{T_s}$ - sampling rate (samples/sec)

Sampling Theorem states the process of uniformly sampling a continuous time signal of finite energy $x(t)$ in a periodic spectrum with the period equal to

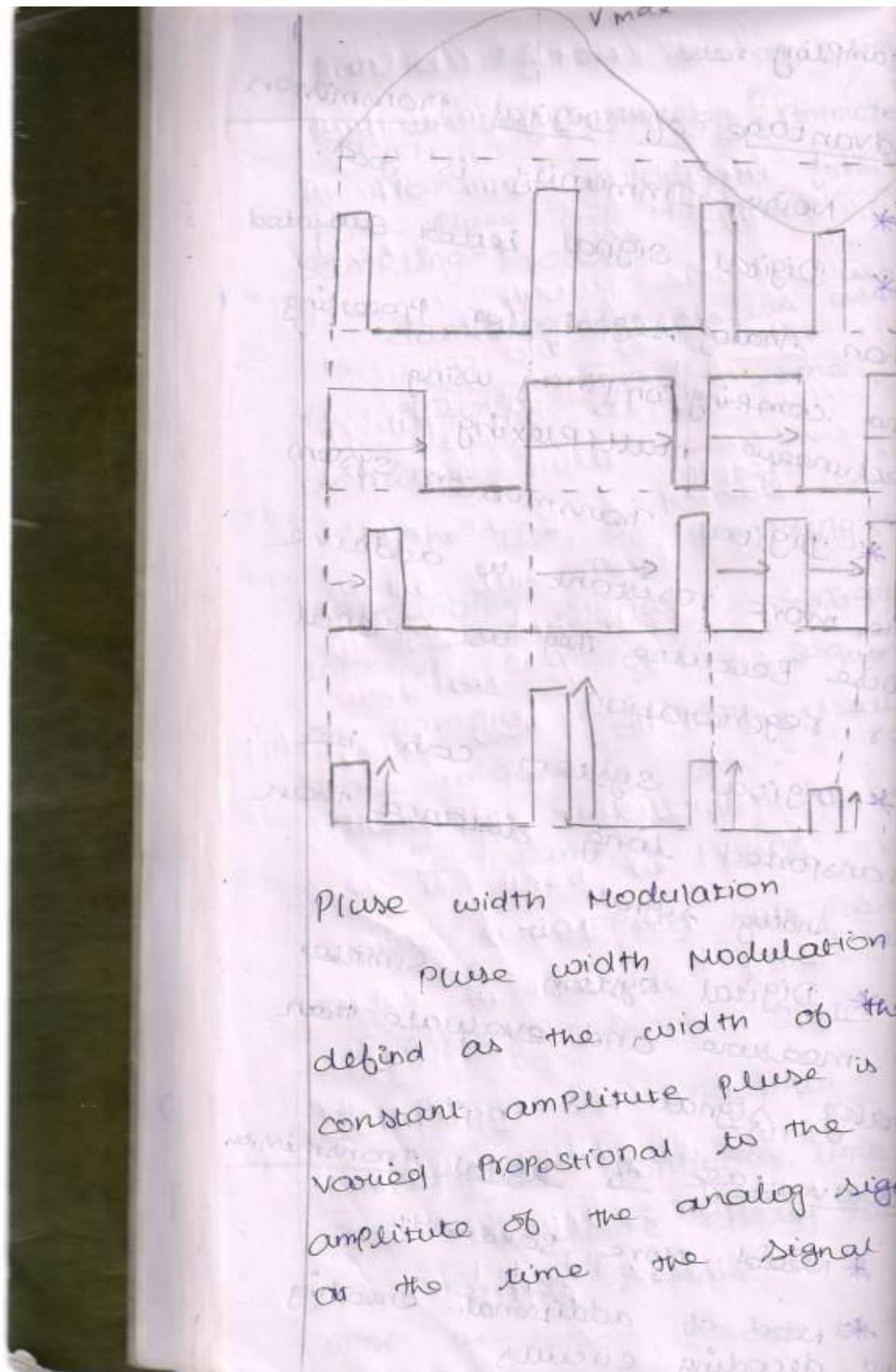
sampling rate

Advantage of Digital Transmission

- * Noise Immunity is good.
- * Digital signal better suited than Analog signal for processing and combining using technique multiplexing
- * Digital transmission system are more resistant to additive noise because they use signal for regeneration.
- * Digital system can be transported long distance than the Analog signal.
- * Digital system is simpler to measure and evaluate than analog signal.

Disadvantage of Digital Transmission

- * Need more Bandwidth
- * Need of additional encoding and decoding circuits



Sampled.

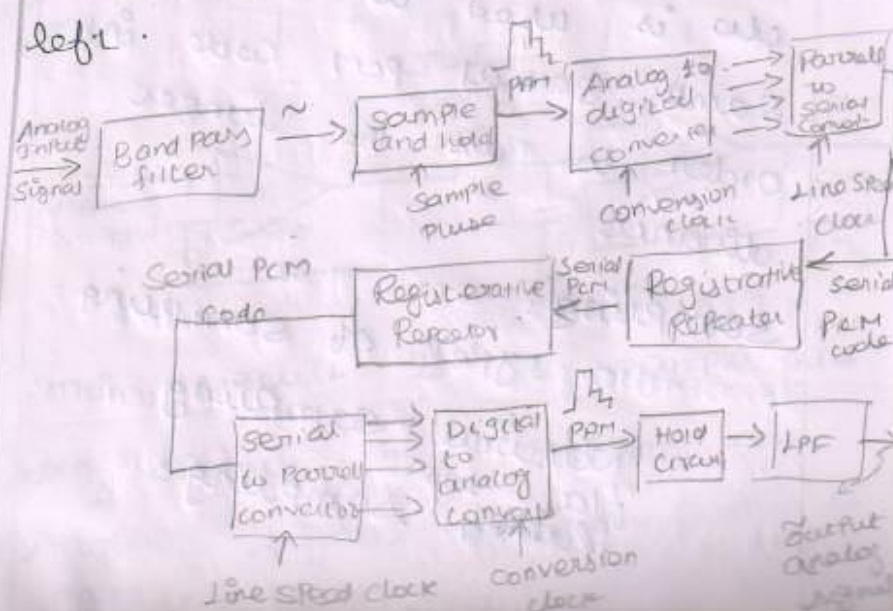
The maximum analog signal amplitude produces the width as ~~pulse~~ wider pulse

The minimum analog signal amplitude produce the width as narrow pulse

Pulse position

The highest amplitude sample produces as a pulse to the far right

lowest amplitude sample produces a pulse to the far left.

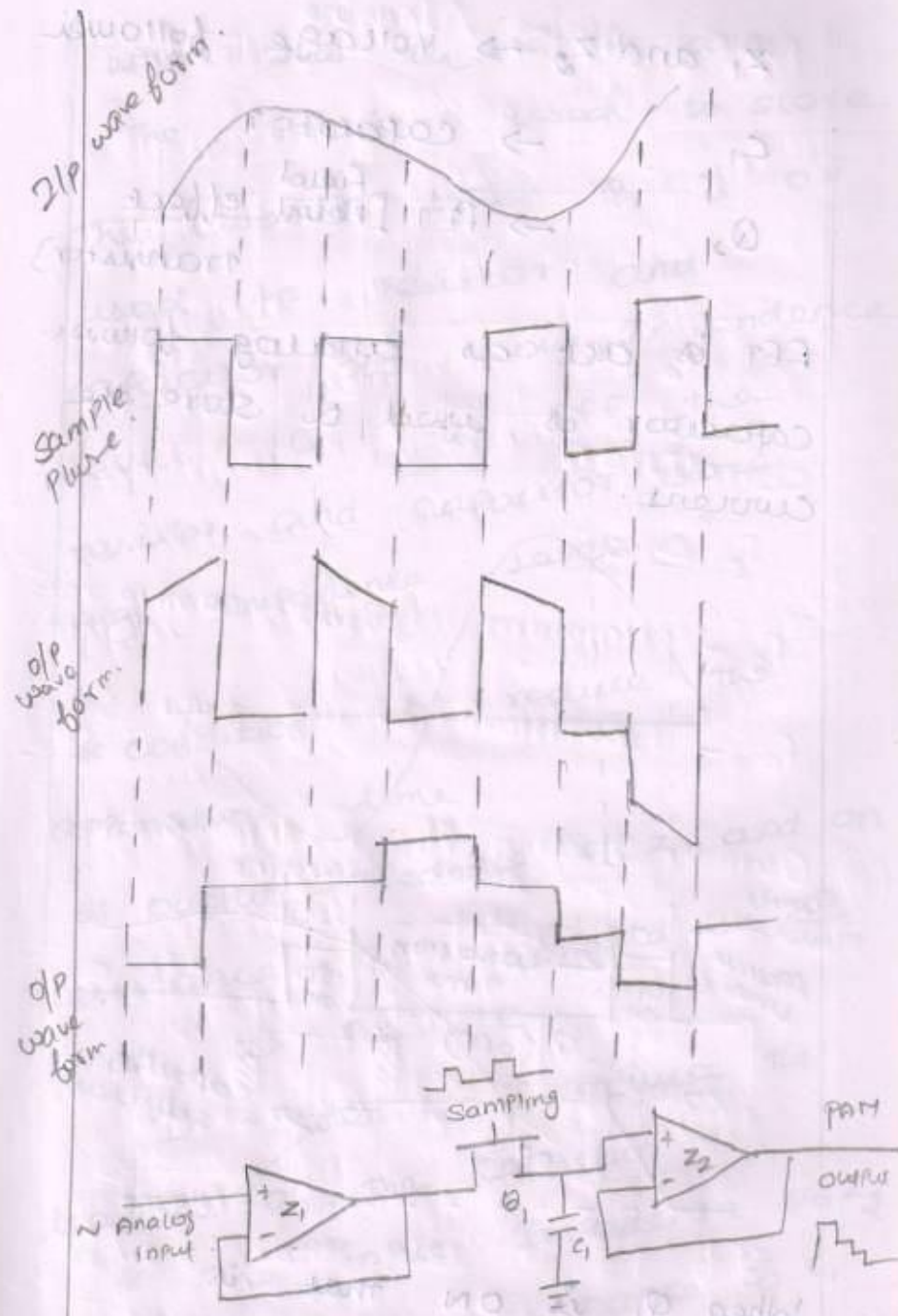


Band Pass filters are allow
Particular frequency and the
sample and hold are imple
Block. It gave two inputs
one is Analog sinwave, and
the other one is sample
Analog and digital conversion
give one input conversion
clock. It gives parallel output
So the line speed is input
in the parallel to serial
converter it is used to
serial code. Serial PCM code
Then The regenerative repeater
is used to repeat the
same serial PCM code in
order to pass the longer
distance

sampling:

Two types of sampling

Natural sampling
flat top sampling
~~flat top~~



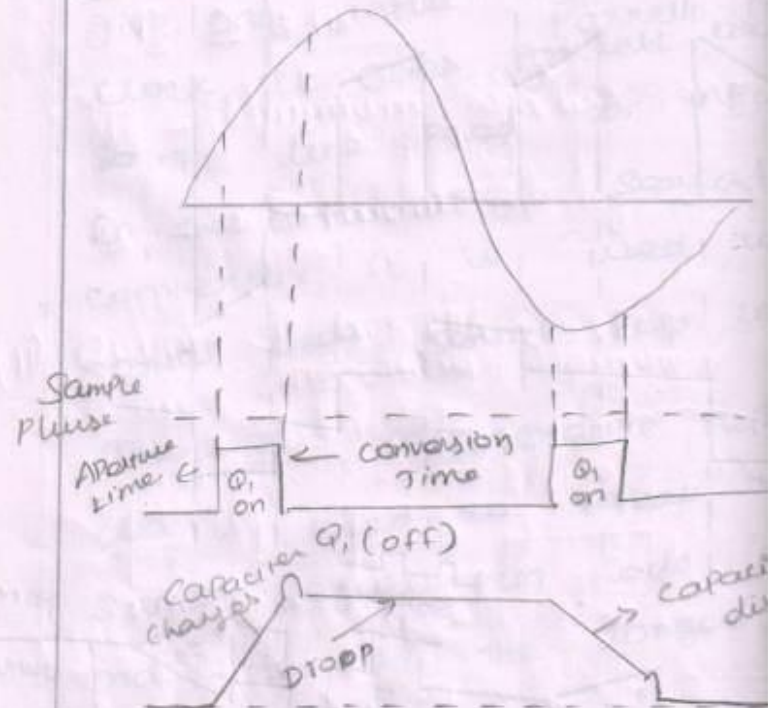
This circuit is a sample and hold circuit. The input was Analog signal Z_1 or output is

z_1 and $z_2 \rightarrow$ voltage for

$C_1 \rightarrow$ capacitor

$Q_1 \rightarrow$ FET [Field effect transistor]

FET is act as analog to capacitor is used to store current.



When Q_1 is ON that is denoted as Aperture time and when Q_1 is off that is denoted as Conversion time

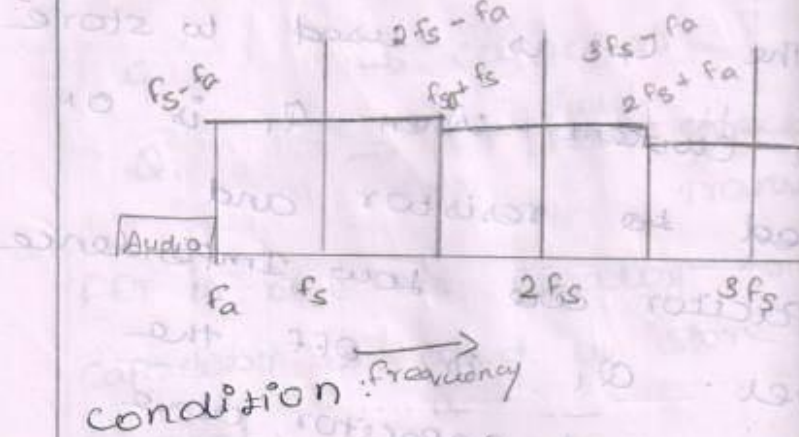
When the Q_1 and C_1 are used to store the current when Q_1 is ON used to resistor and capacitor are low Impedance level. Q_1 is OFF the resistor and capacitor are High Impedance level.

- * condition to reduce the apperature time
- * output Impedance of Z_1 and on resistance of Q_1 should be as small as possible.

In order to reduce the leakage of the capacitor :-

- * The input Impedance of Z_2 and the leakage resistance of C_1 as high as possible.

(i) Non-Aliasing

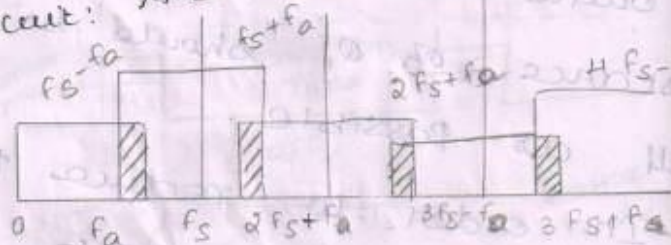


$$f_s \geq 2f_a$$

f_s - Minimum Nyquist sample

f_a - Maximum analog input

(ii) Output Spectrum of sample and hold circuit: Aliasing:



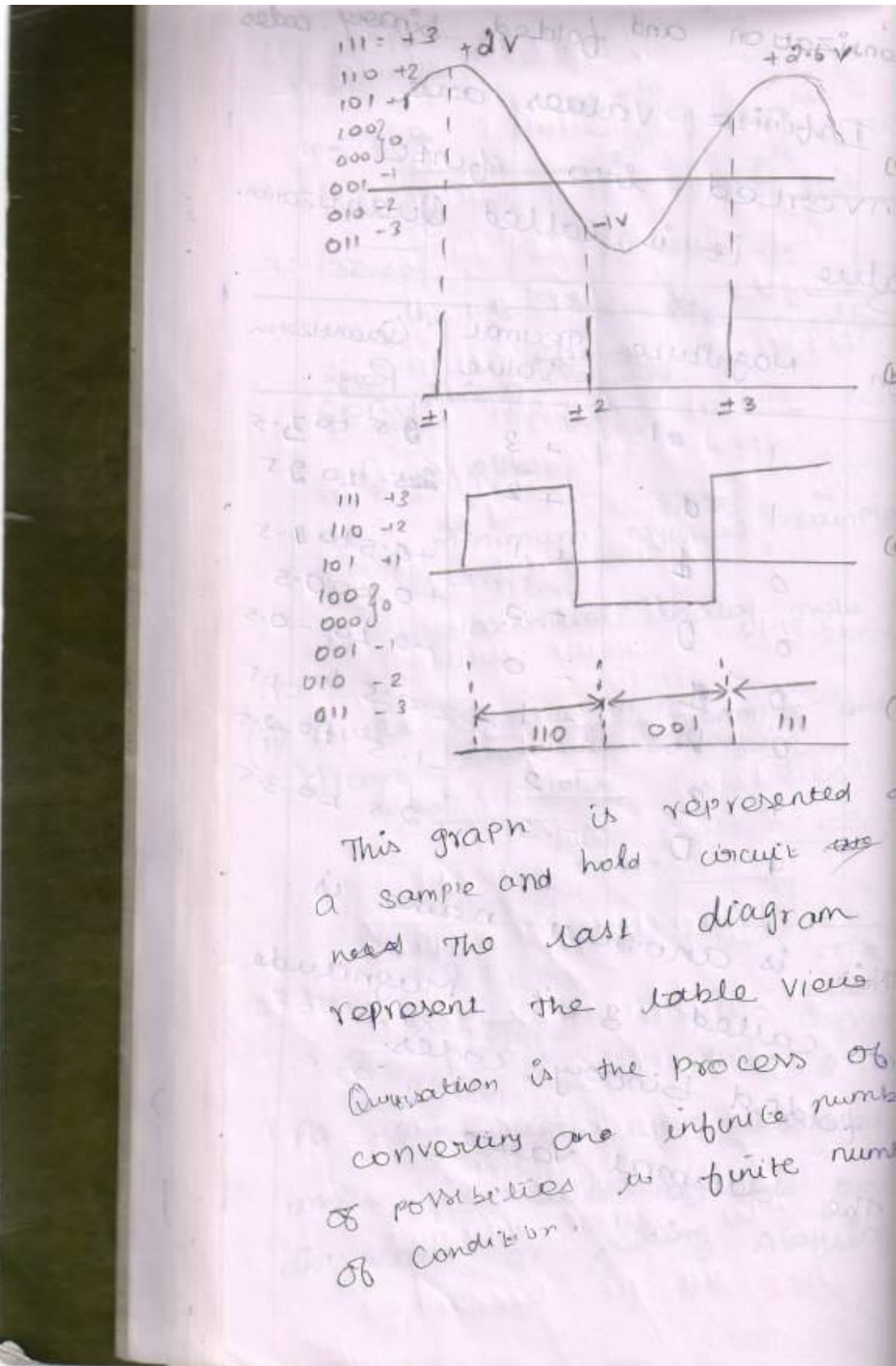
If f_s is less than $2f_a$, this signal gets distorted which is called as fold over distortion or Aliasing.

Quantization and folded binary codes

Infinite values are converted into finite value it is called Quantization.

| Sign | Magnitude | Decimal Value | Quantization Range |
|------|-----------|---------------|--------------------|
| 1 | 1 01 | + 3 | 2.5 to 3.5 |
| 1 | 1 0 | + 2 | 2.5 to 2.5 |
| 1 | 0 1 | + 1 | +0.5 to +0.5 |
| 1 | 0 0 | + 0 | +0 to +0.5 |
| 1 | 0 0 | - 0 | -0 to -0.5 |
| 0 | 0 1 | - 1 | -0.5 to -1.5 |
| 0 | 0 0 | - 2 | -1.5 to -2.5 |
| 0 | 1 1 | - 3 | -2.5 to -3.5 |
| 0 | 1 0 | | |

This is another name is also called 3 bit Magnitude or folded binary codes.
The decimal value



This graph is represented a sample and hold circuit ~~are~~ need. The last diagram represent the table view.

Quantisation is the process of converting one infinite number of possibilities to finite number of condition.

A magnitude difference between
disadjoint is called quantum
error.

5. It is also called resolution.

Any round off error in the
transistor in the signal are
reproduced when the code is
converted back to the
receiver. This error is
called quantisation error.

The folded PCM code's is
sample voltage/resolution

The quality of the PCM
signals can be improved using
a PCM codes with more
bits, reduce the magnitude of
quantum and improving the
resolution.

Dynamic Range:

The number of bits per sample can be analysed by dynamic range. So dynamic range is defined as the ratio of the largest possible magnitude to the smallest possible magnitude that can be decoded by a DAC in the receiver.

Dynamic range is denoted by DR.

$$DR = \frac{V_{\max}}{V_{\min}} \quad (\text{unitless})$$

V_{\min} → Resolution or Q

V_{\max} → Maximum value

DR → Dynamic Range

Dynamic range will be expressed in dB (decibels).

Error Analysis:-

Exception of the rate at which error ^{will} occurs is called
Probability of error $P[E]$

The system error performance is called bit Error Rate [BER]

Error Probability Error $P[E]$

It is means the probability of the error in the probability. It detects the error only assumption.

Error detection:

Redundancy checking

- * Vertical redundancy
- * check some longitudinal redundancy
- * cycling redundancy
- * longitudinal redundancy check

Vertical Redundancy checking:

when the input is passed in odd parity and the actual output is also called odd parity. when any 1's are change, error occur. it is called vertical Redundancy checking.

odd parity - No of 1's in odd.

even parity - No of 1's in even.

Advantage :

Not mostly No error.

It is also known as.

* Marking Parity

* NO Parity

* Ignored Parity.

Always same - Marking Pa

Always zero - Ignored Pa

No information - No Pa
Send.

check some :-

If the transmitter and receiver has a same bit error not occur.

If transmitter and receiver has a different bit error occur.

1) International standard organization
↓
(ISO)

2) ITU-T - International Telecommunication Union - Telecommunication

3) IEEE - Institute of electrical and electronics engineering

- 4) ANSI - American National Standards Institute
 - 5) EIA - Electronic Industries Association
 - 6) TIA - Telecommunication Industry Association
 - 7) IAB - Internet Architecture board.
 - 8) IETF - Internet engineering Task force
 - 9) IRTF - Internet Research Task force.
-

Longitudinal Redundancy checking:- (LRC)

* It generates a parity to determine the error it is called message parity.

* Longitudinal LRC, a XORing of character codes which gives the message.

* VRC - Vertical redundancy check
Extraordinary as XORing the bit
within a single character.

* The group of character that
contains a message is called
frame or Block of data.

* The bit sequence for the
LRC is called Block check
Sequence (BCS) or frame
check sequence.

↓ → BCS (or) FCS

Advantage:

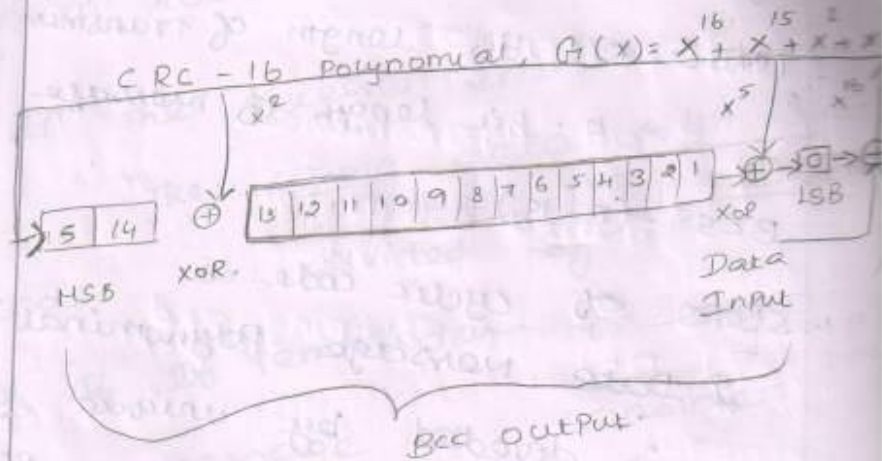
Multiple bit are error
can identify.

It is also passed through
long distance.

Disadvantage:

* It will not detect error
when an even number of

character as an error in same bit position.



$$\frac{G(x)}{P(x)} = Q(x) + R(x)$$

Cycling Redundancy checking:-

It can be otherwise XOR condition called as convolution coding. It can be able to detect the 99.99% transmission error CRC

| Truth | Table | Output |
|-------|-------|--------|
| 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 |

code is commonly called as CRC 16. 16 bits are used for the Block check sequence. CRC is considered as systematic

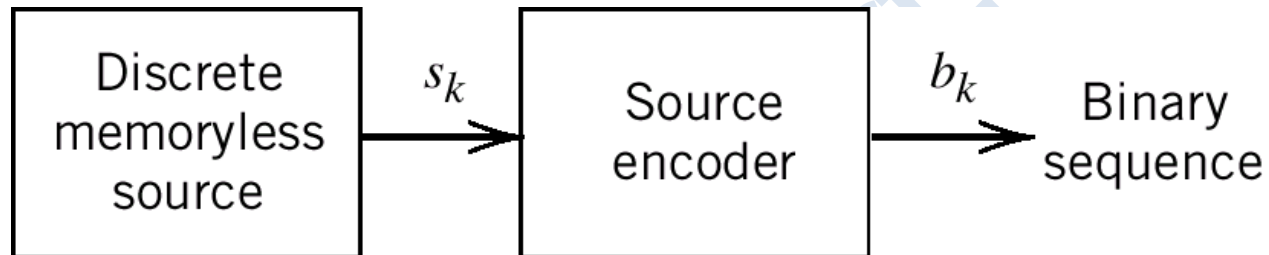
Unit-4

DIGITAL COMMUNICATION

Coding

Source Coding

Source encoding is the efficient representation of data generated by a source.

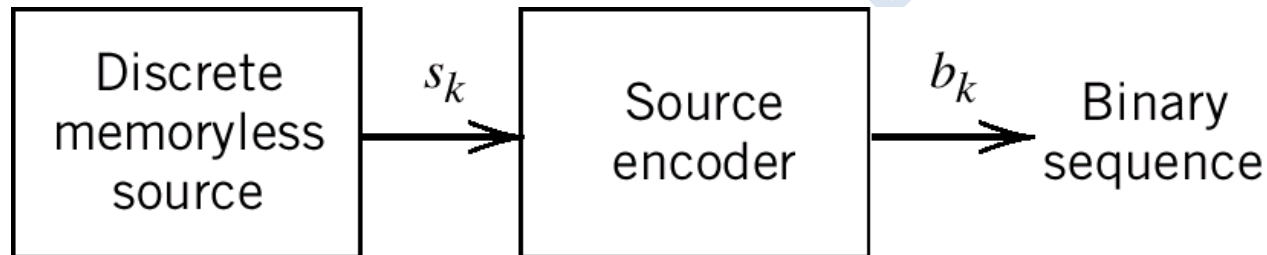


For an efficient source encoding, knowledge of the statistics of the source is required.

If some source symbols are more probable than others, we can assign short code words to frequent symbols and long code words to rare source symbols.

Source Coding

Consider a discrete source whose output of k different symbols s_k is converted by the source encoder into a block of 0s and 1s denoted by b_k



Assume that the k th symbol, s_k occurs with probability p_k , $k=0,1,\dots,K-1$. Let the binary code word assigned to symbol s_k have length l_k (in bits)

Therefore the average code-word length of the source encoder is given by

$$\bar{L} = \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} p_k l_k$$

Source Coding

Let L_{\min} denotes the minimum possible value of code-word length

The Coding efficiency of the source encoder is given by

$$\eta = \frac{L_{\min}}{\bar{L}}$$

Data Compaction

Data compaction is important because signals generated contain a significant amount of redundant info and waste communication resources during transmission.

For efficient transmission, the redundant info should be removed prior to transmission.

Data compaction is achieved by assigning short description to the most frequent outcomes of the source output and longer description to the less frequent ones.

Some source-coding schemes for data compaction:-

- Prefix coding
 - The Huffman Coding
 - The Lempel-Ziv Coding

Prefix Coding

A prefix code is a code in which no code word is the prefix of any other code word

Example: Consider the three source codes described below

| Source Symbol | Probability of Occurrence | Code I | Code II | Code III |
|---------------|---------------------------|--------|---------|----------|
| s_0 | 0.5 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| s_1 | 0.25 | 1 | 10 | 01 |
| s_2 | 0.125 | 00 | 110 | 011 |
| s_3 | 0.125 | 11 | 111 | 0111 |

Prefix Coding

| Source Symbol | Probability of Occurrence | Code I | Code II | Code III |
|---------------|---------------------------|--------|---------|----------|
| s_0 | 0.5 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| s_1 | 0.25 | 1 | 10 | 01 |
| s_2 | 0.125 | 00 | 110 | 011 |
| s_3 | 0.125 | 11 | 111 | 0111 |

Is Code I a prefix code?

It is NOT a prefix code since the bit 0, the code word for s_0 , is a prefix of 00, the code word for s_2 and the bit 1, the code word for s_1 , is a prefix of 11, the code word for s_3 .

Is Code II a prefix code?

Yes

A prefix code has the important property that it is always uniquely decodable

Is Code III a prefix code?

No

Prefix Coding - Example

| Source Symbol | Code I ✓ | Code II ✗ | Code III ✗ | Code IV ✓ |
|---------------|----------|-----------|------------|-----------|
| s_0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 00 |
| s_1 | 10 | 01 | 01 | 01 |
| s_2 | 110 | 001 | 011 | 10 |
| s_3 | 1110 | 0010 | 110 | 110 |
| s_4 | 1111 | 0011 | 111 | 111 |

Prefix code?

Huffman Coding – a type of prefix code

Basic idea : Assign to each symbol a sequence of bits roughly equal in length to the amount of information conveyed by the symbol.

Huffman encoding algorithm:

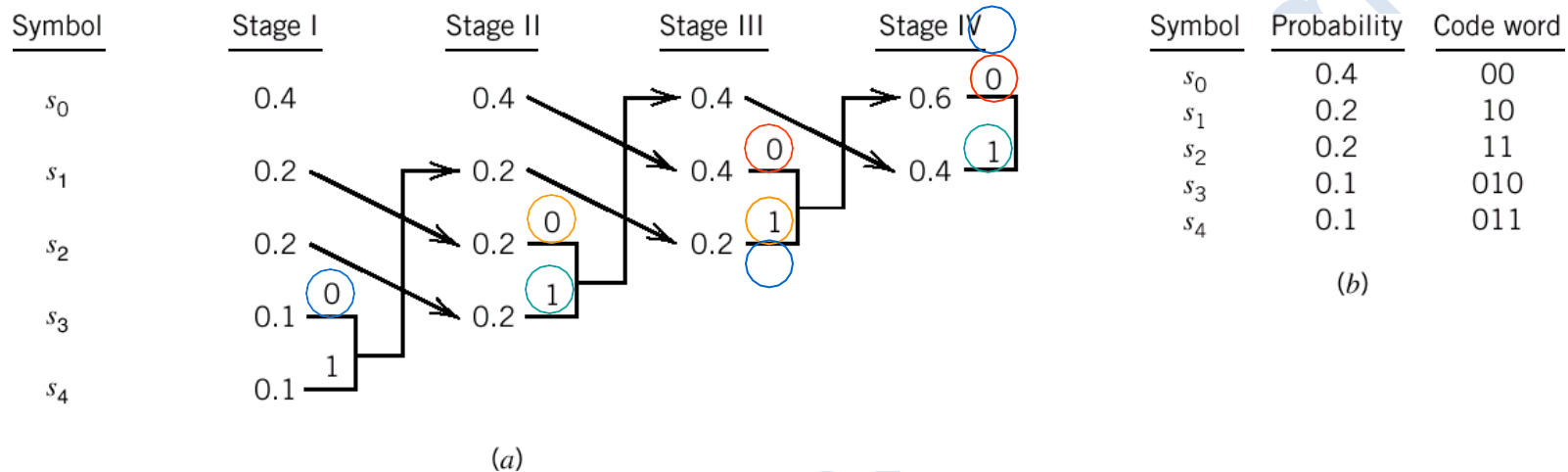
Step 1: The source symbols are listed in order of decreasing probability. The two source symbols of lowest probability are assigned a 0 and 1.

Step 2: These two source symbols are regarded as being combined into a new source symbol with probability equal to the sum of the two original probabilities. The probability of the new symbol is placed in the list in accordance with its value.

The procedure is repeated until we are left with a final list of symbols of only two for which a 0 and 1 are assigned.

The code for each source symbol is found by working backward and tracing the sequence of 0s and 1s assigned to that symbol as well as its successors.

Huffman Coding – Example



Step 1: The source symbols are listed in order of decreasing probability. The two source symbols of lowest probability are assigned a 0 and 1.

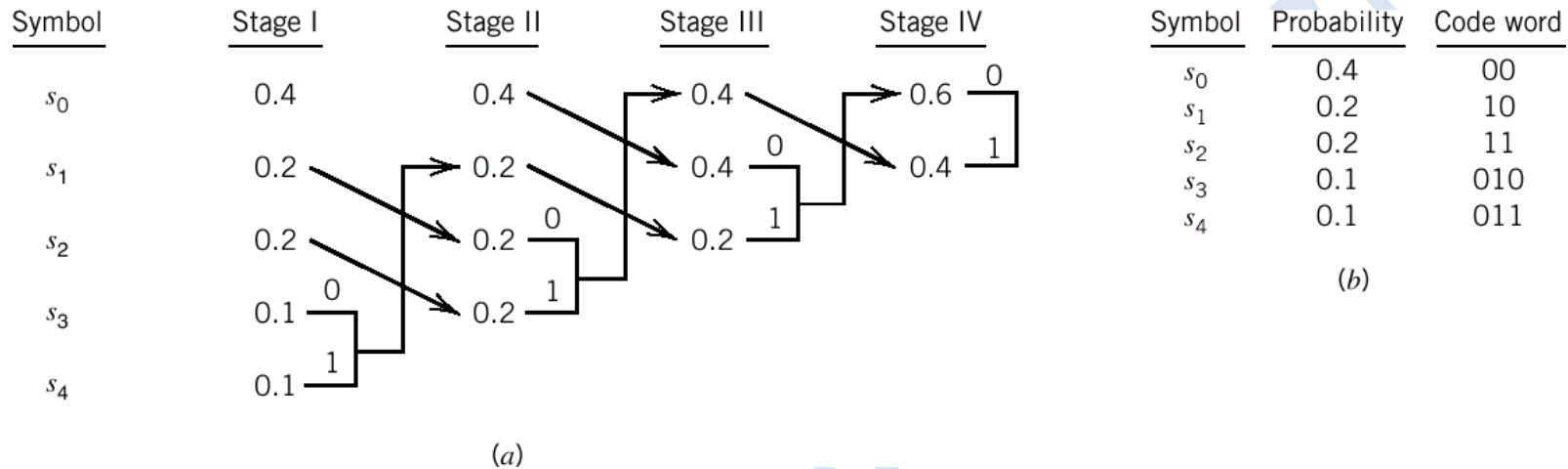
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Huffman Coding – Average Code Length



| Symbol | Probability | Code word |
|--------|-------------|-----------|
| s_0 | 0.4 | 00 |
| s_1 | 0.2 | 10 |
| s_2 | 0.2 | 11 |
| s_3 | 0.1 | 010 |
| s_4 | 0.1 | 011 |

(b)

$$\bar{L} = \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} p_k l_k$$

$$= 0.4(2) + 0.2(2) + 0.2(2) + 0.1(3) + 0.1(3)$$

$$= 2.2$$

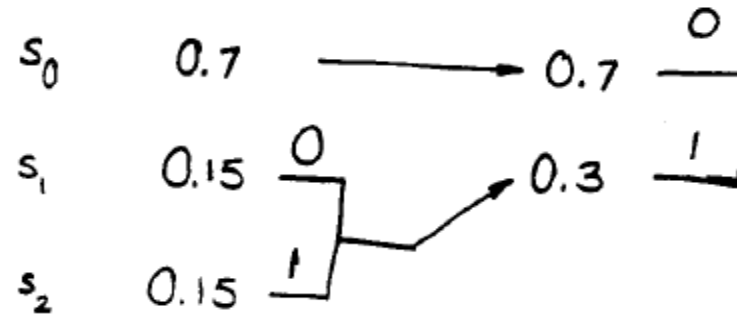
Huffman Coding – Exercise

| Symbol | S_0 | S_1 | S_2 |
|-------------|-------|-------|-------|
| Probability | 0.7 | 0.15 | 0.15 |

Compute the Huffman code.

What is the average code-word length?

Huffman Coding – Exercise



The Huffman code is therefore

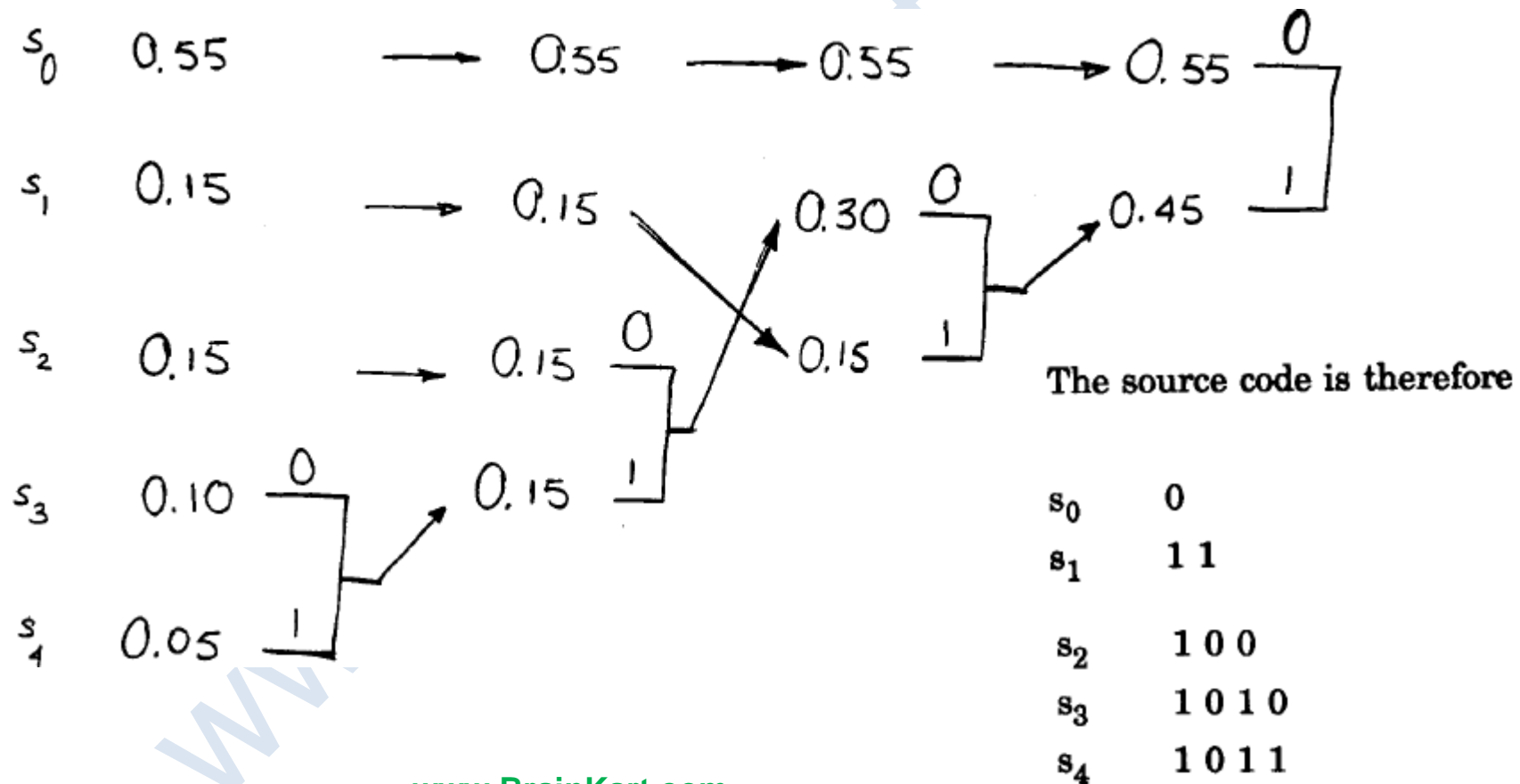
| | |
|-------|-----|
| s_0 | 0 |
| s_1 | 1 0 |
| s_2 | 1 1 |

The average code-word length is

$$\begin{aligned} L &= 0.7(1) + 0.15(2) + 0.15(2) \\ &= 1.3 \end{aligned}$$

Huffman Coding – Two variations

When the probability of the combined symbol is found to equal another probability in the list, we may proceed by placing the probability of the new symbol as high as possible or as low as possible.



Huffman Coding – Two variations

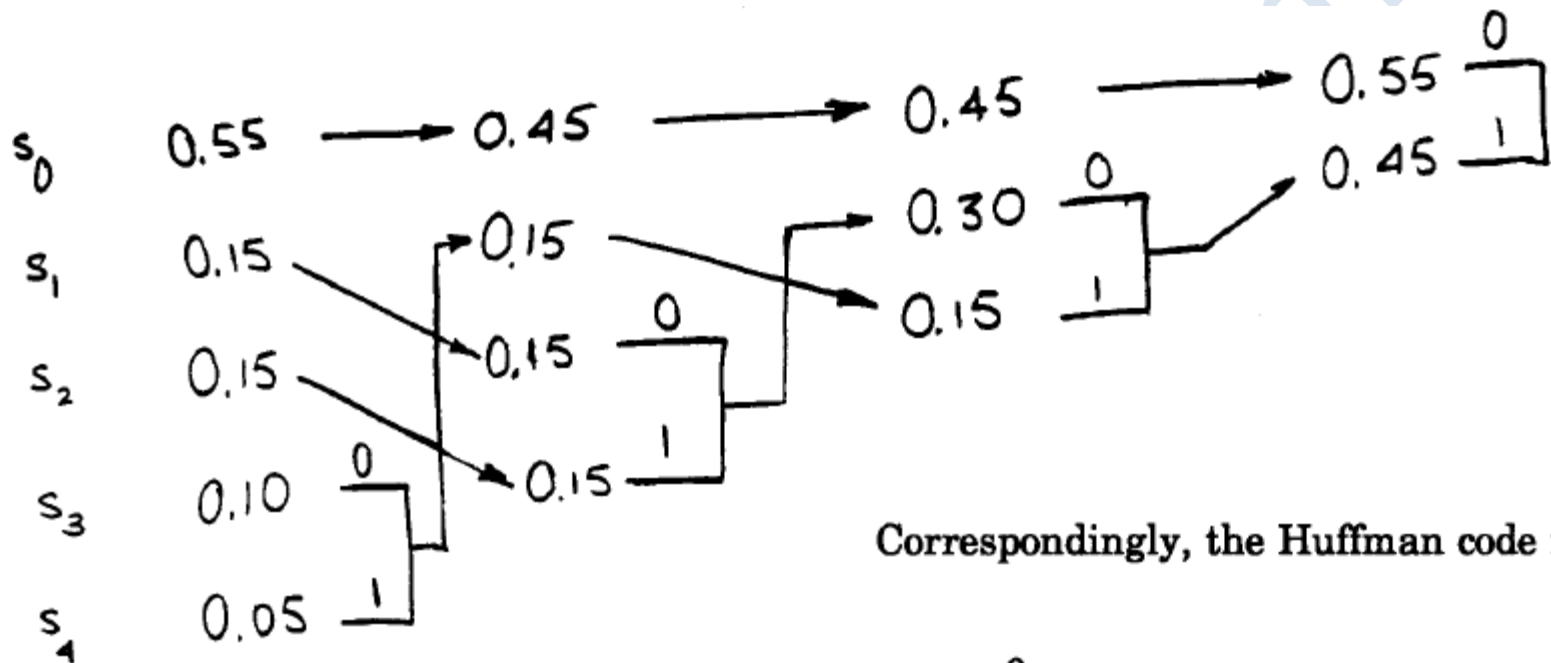
The average code-word length is therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{L} &= \sum_{k=0}^4 p_k l_k \\ &= 0.55(1) + 0.15(2) + 0.15(3) + 0.1(4) + 0.05(4) \\ &= 1.9 \end{aligned}$$

The variance of \bar{L} is

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma^2 &= \sum_{k=0}^4 p_k (l_k - \bar{L})^2 \\ &= 0.55(-0.9)^2 + 0.15(0.1)^2 + 0.15(1.1)^2 + 0.1(2.1)^2 + 0.05(2.1)^2 \\ &= 1.29 \end{aligned}$$

Huffman Coding – Two variations



Correspondingly, the Huffman code is

| | |
|-------|-------|
| s_0 | 0 |
| s_1 | 1 0 0 |
| s_2 | 1 0 1 |
| s_3 | 1 1 0 |
| s_4 | 1 1 1 |

Huffman Coding – Two variations

The average code-word length is

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{L} &= 0.55(1) + (0.15 + 0.15 + 0.1 + 0.05) (3) \\ &= 1.9 \end{aligned}$$

The variance of \bar{L} is

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma^2 &= 0.55(-0.9)^2 + (0.15 + 0.15 + 0.1 + 0.05) (1.1)^2 \\ &= 0.99 \end{aligned}$$

Which one to choose?

Huffman Coding – Exercise

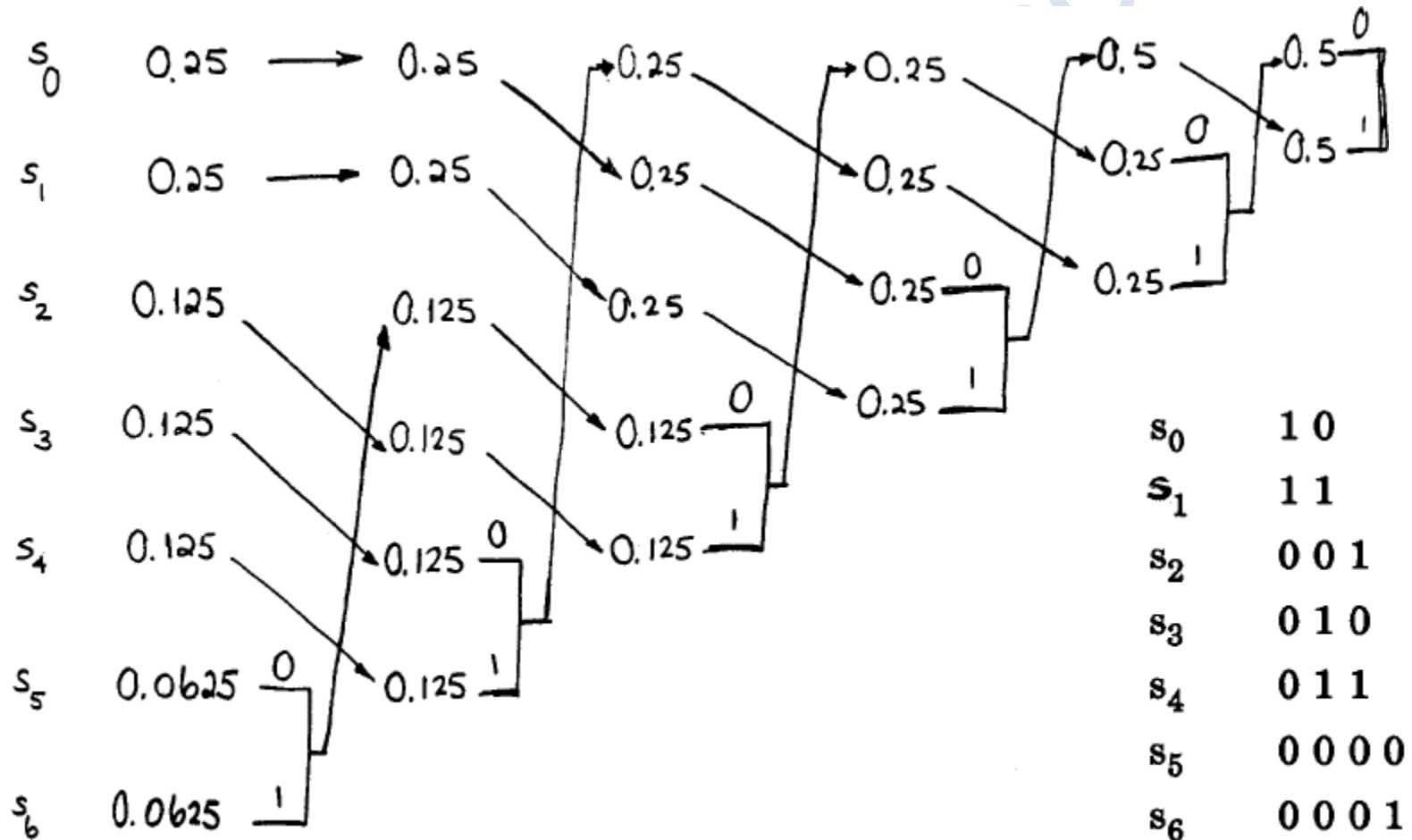
| Symbol | S_0 | S_1 | S_2 | S_3 | S_4 | S_5 | S_6 |
|-------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|--------|--------|
| Probability | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.125 | 0.125 | 0.125 | 0.0625 | 0.0625 |

Compute the Huffman code by placing the probability of the combined symbol as high as possible.

What is the average code-word length?

Huffman Coding – Exercise Answer

| Symbol | S_0 | S_1 | S_2 | S_3 | S_4 | S_5 | S_6 |
|-------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|--------|--------|
| Probability | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.125 | 0.125 | 0.125 | 0.0625 | 0.0625 |



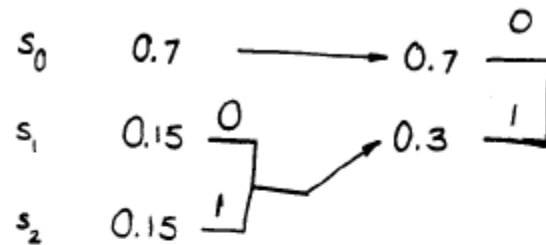
Huffman Coding – Exercise [Click Here](#) for Analog and Digital Communication full study material.

| | |
|-------|---------|
| s_0 | 1 0 |
| s_1 | 1 1 |
| s_2 | 0 0 1 |
| s_3 | 0 1 0 |
| s_4 | 0 1 1 |
| s_5 | 0 0 0 0 |
| s_6 | 0 0 0 1 |

The average code-word length is

$$\begin{aligned} L &= \sum_{k=0}^6 p_k l_k \\ &= 0.25(2)(2) + 0.125(3)(3) + 0.0625(4)(2) \\ &= 2.625 \end{aligned}$$

Huffman Coding – extended form



The Huffman code is therefore

| | |
|-------|-----|
| s_0 | 0 |
| s_1 | 1 0 |
| s_2 | 1 1 |

(b) for the extended source we have

Huffman Coding – extended form

| Symbol | s_0s_0 | s_0s_1 | s_0s_2 | s_1s_0 | s_2s_0 | s_1s_1 | s_1s_2 | s_2s_1 | s_2s_2 |
|-------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| Probability | 0.49 | 0.105 | 0.105 | 0.105 | 0.105 | 0.0225 | 0.0225 | 0.0225 | 0.0225 |

Applying the Huffman algorithm to the extended source, we obtain the following source code

| | |
|----------|-------------|
| s_0s_0 | 1 |
| s_0s_1 | 0 0 1 |
| s_0s_2 | 0 1 0 |
| s_1s_0 | 0 1 1 |
| s_2s_0 | 0 0 0 0 |
| s_1s_1 | 0 0 0 1 0 0 |
| s_1s_2 | 0 0 0 1 0 1 |
| s_2s_1 | 0 0 0 1 1 0 |
| s_2s_2 | 0 0 0 1 1 1 |

Lempel-Ziv Coding – a type of prefix code

Basic idea : Parse the source data stream into segments that are the shortest subsequences not encountered previously

Consider an input binary sequence 000101110010100101...

Assume that the binary symbols 0 and 1 are already stored

Subsequences stored 0,1

Data to be parsed 000101110010100101...

With symbols 0 and 1 already stored, the shortest subsequence encountered for the first time is 00, so

Tr

Lempel-Ziv Coding – a type of prefix code



Lempel-Ziv Coding – Exercise

Encode the following sequence using Lempel-Ziv algorithm assuming that 0 and 1 are already stored

11101001100010110100....

Lempel-Ziv Coding – Exercise Answer

Encode the following sequence using Lempel-Ziv algorithm assuming that 0 and 1 are already stored

11101001100010110100....

Initial step

Subsequences stored: 0

Data to be parsed: 1 1 1 0 1 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 0 ...

Step 1

Subsequences stored: 0, 1, 11

Data to be parsed: 1 0 1 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 0 ..

Step 2

Subsequences stored: 0, 1, 11, 10

Data to be parsed: 1 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 0

Lempel-Ziv Coding – Exercise Answer

Encode the following sequence using Lempel-Ziv algorithm assuming that 0 and 1 are already stored

11101001100010110100....

Step 3

Subsequences stored: 0, 1, 11, 10, 100

Data to be parsed: 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 0 ...

Step 4

Subsequences stored: 0, 1, 11, 10, 100, 110

Data to be parsed: 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 0 ...

Step 5

Subsequences stored: 0, 1, 11, 10, 100, 110, 00

Data to be parsed: 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 0

Lempel-Ziv Coding – Exercise Answer

Encode the following sequence using Lempel-Ziv algorithm assuming that 0 and 1 are already stored

11101001100010110100....

Step 6

Subsequences stored: 0, 1, 11, 10, 100, 110, 00, 101

Data to be parsed: 1 0 1 0 0 ...

Step 7

Subsequences stored: 0, 1, 11, 10, 100, 110, 00, 101, 1010

Data to be parsed: 0

Lempel-Ziv Coding – Exercise Answer

Encode the following sequence using Lempel-Ziv algorithm assuming that 0 and 1 are already stored

11101001100010110100....

| | | | | | | | | | |
|---------------------------|----|----|-----|-----|------|------|-----|------|------|
| Numerical positions | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| Subsequences | 0, | 1, | 11, | 10, | 100, | 110, | 00, | 101, | 1010 |
| Numerical representations | | | 22, | 21, | 41, | 31, | 11, | 42, | 81 |

Wireless Communication Systems

unit-5

Radio Communication

- *Radio or radio communication* means any transmission, emission, or reception of signs, signals, writing, images, sounds or intelligence of any nature by means of electromagnetic waves of frequencies lower than three thousand gigacycles per second (3000 GHz) propagated in space without artificial guide.
- Examples of radio communication systems:
 - Radio broadcasting.
 - TV broadcasting.
 - Satellite communication.
 - Mobile Cellular Telephony.
 - Wireless LAN.
 - Multimedia communication & Mobile Internet

History

- 1864: Maxwell describes radio wave mathematically
- 1888: Hertz generates radio waves
- 1890: Detection of radio waves
- 1896: Marconi makes the first radio transmission
- 1915: Radio tubes are invented
- 1948: Shannon's law
- 1948: Transistor
- 1960: Communication Satellites
- 1981: Cellular technology

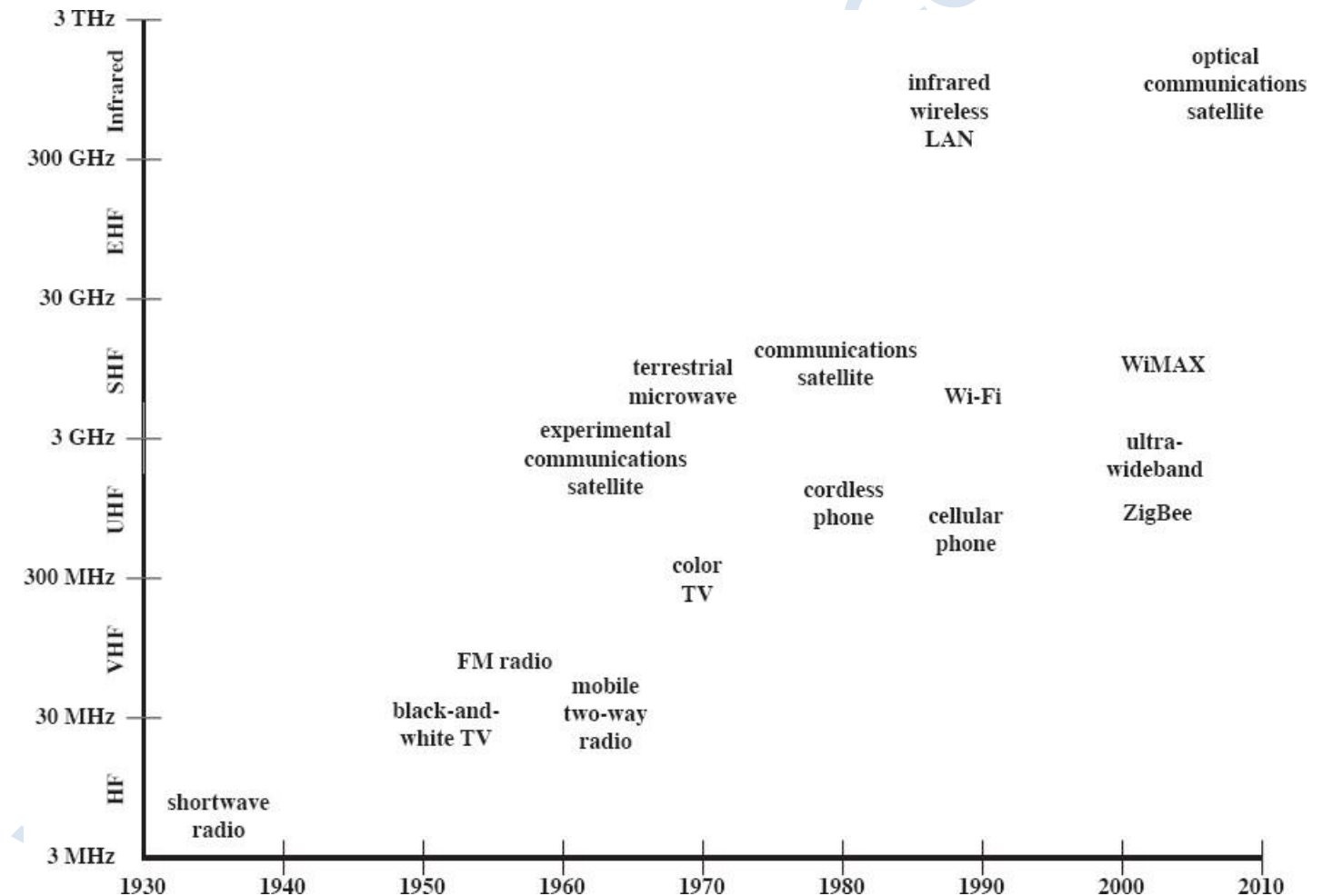
Classification of radio spectrum

| | | | |
|---|--------------|--------------|------|
| Frequency assignments up 60 GHz | 30-300 GHz | 10 -1 mm | EHF |
| Fixed services, Fixed statelite services, Mobile serivces, Remote sensing | 3-30 GHz | 10 -1 cm | SHF |
| Broadcasting TV, satelites, Personal telephone systems, radar systems, fixed and mobile satelite services | 300-3000 MHz | 100 -10 cm | UHF |
| Broadcasting, TV, FM, Mobile services for maritime, aeronautical and land, Wireless microphones, Meteor burst communicaiton | 30-300 MHz | 10 -1 m | VHF |
| Fixed point to point communication, Mobile maritime aeronautical, land services, military communication, amateur radio and broadcasting | 3-30 MHz | 100 -10 m | HF |
| AM broadcasting, naviation, radio beacons, distress frequencies. | 300-3000 KHz | 1000 -100 m | MF |
| Long distance communication (fixed and marite), Broadcasting, Naviagation, Radio beacons | 30-300 kHz | 10 -1 km | LF |
| Time and Frequency Normals, Navigation, Underwater Communication, Remote sensing under ground, Maritme telegraphy | 3-30 kHz | 100 -10 km | VLF |
| | 300-3000 Hz | 1000 -100 km | ELF |
| Application | Frequency | Wavelength | Term |

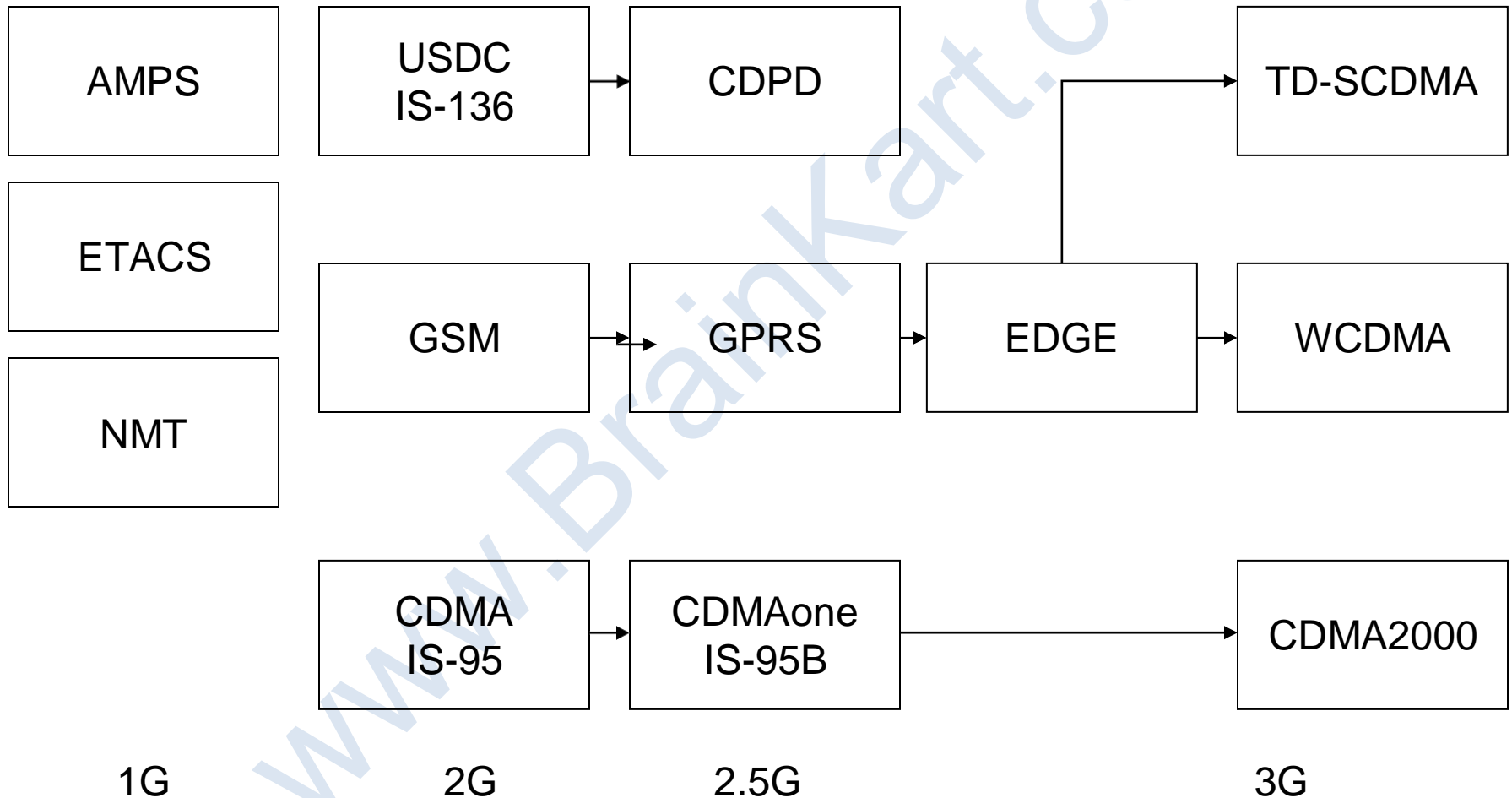
The Radio Spectrum

- The frequency spectrum is a shared resource.
- Radio propagation does not recognize geopolitical boundaries.
- International cooperation and regulations are required for an efficient use of the radio spectrum.
- The International Telecommunication Union (ITU) is an agency, within the UN, that takes care of this resource.
 - Frequency assignment.
 - Standardization.
 - Coordination and planning of the international telecommunication services.

Evolution of Wireless Systems



Evolution of Cellular Systems



LTE-Long Term Evolution

- High spectral efficiency
- Very low latency
- Support of variable bandwidth
- Simple protocol architecture
- Simple Architecture
- Compatibility and inter-working with earlier 3GPP Releases
- Inter-working with other systems, e.g. cdma2000
- FDD and TDD within a single radio access technology

Other Technologies

- WLAN
- Bluetooth
- Sensor networks (Zigbee and IEEE 802.15.4)

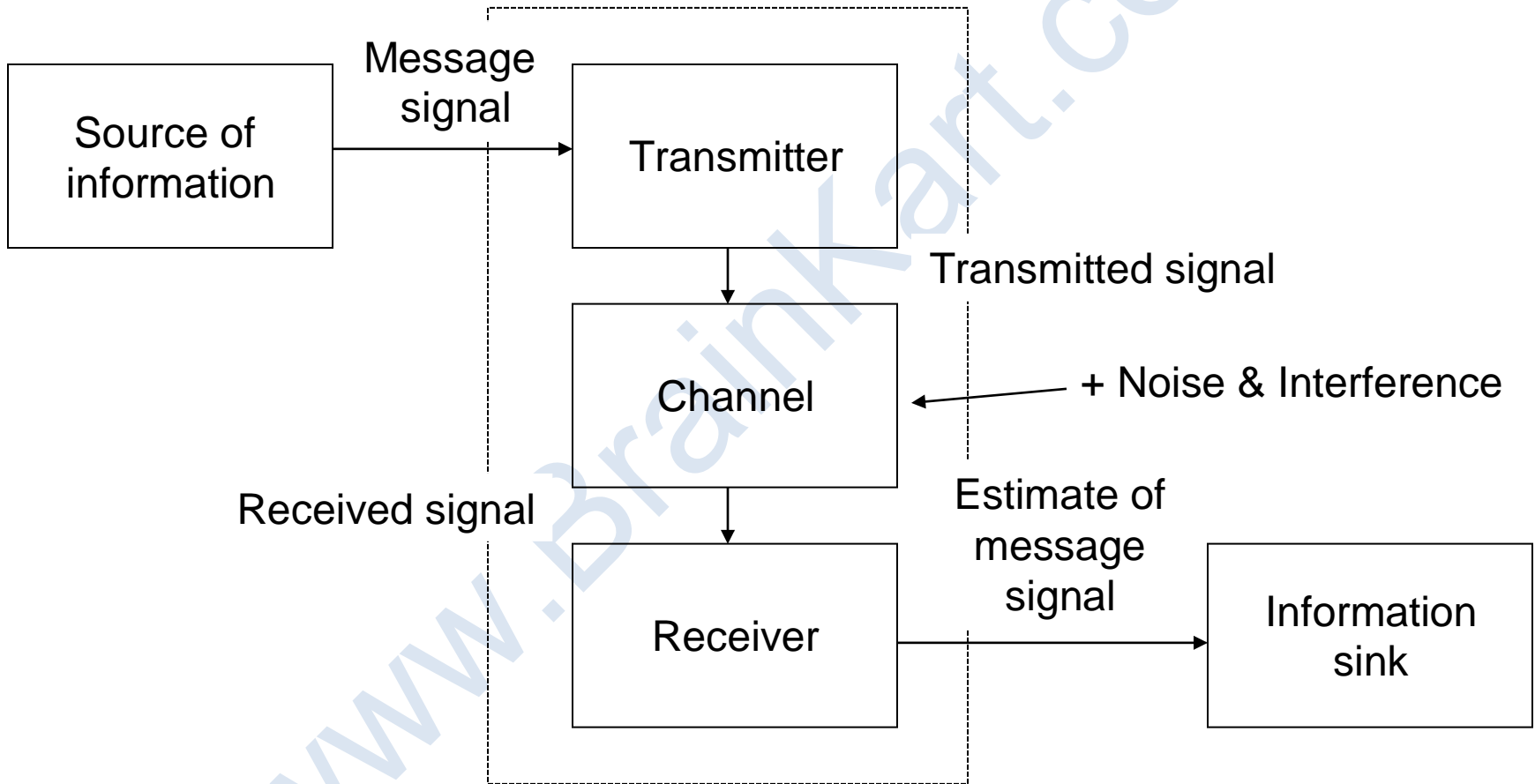
Radio Communication

- Three main problems:
 - The path loss
 - Noise
 - Sharing the radio spectrum

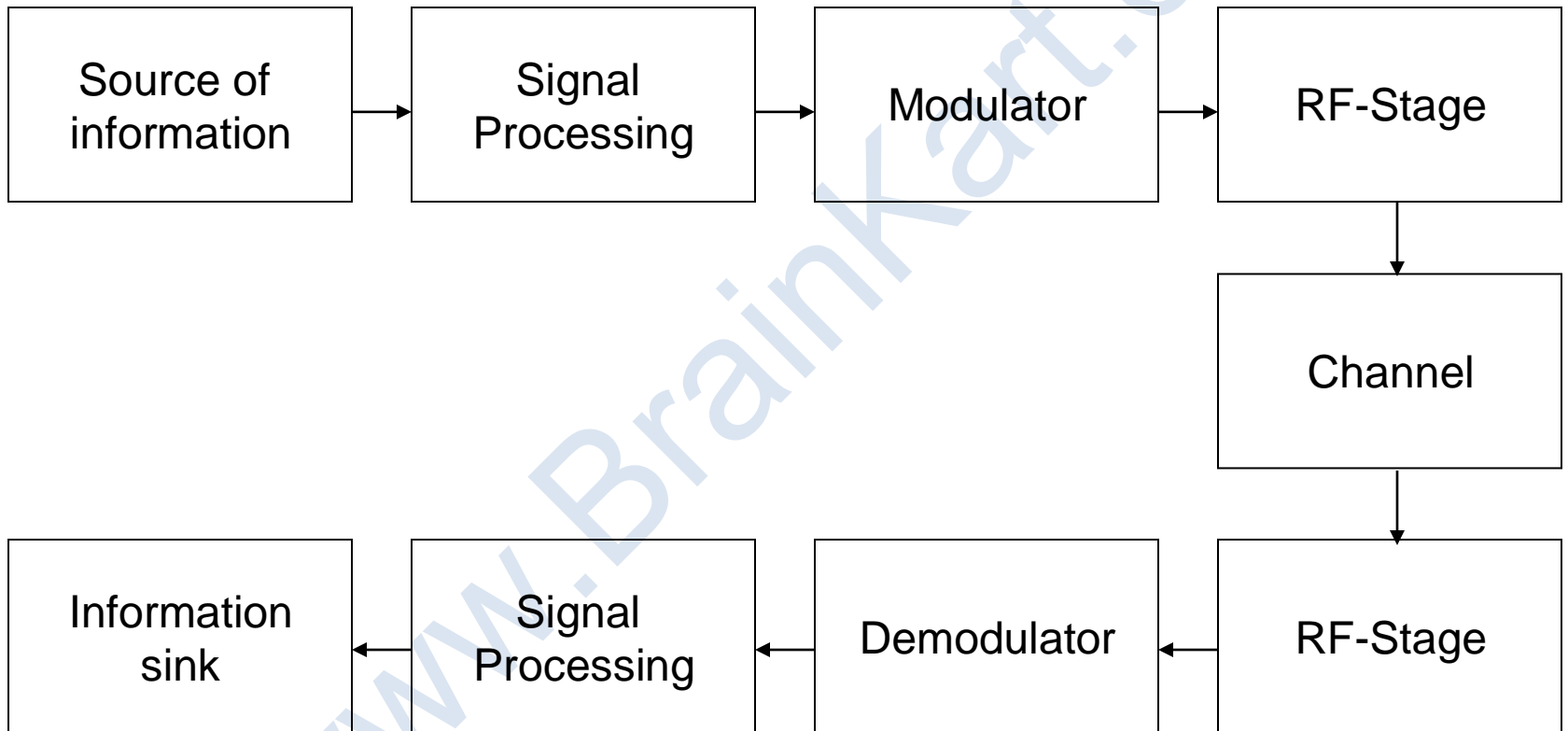
Challenges Today

- The Revenue Gap
 - Flat rate models for wireless broadband increase the demand for bandwidth but do not increase revenue.
 - Cost is roughly proportional to bandwidth
- Energy Consumption
 - Energy consumption of the ICT industry is roughly 2%
 - Communication is increasing rapidly
 - Energy cost is also increasing

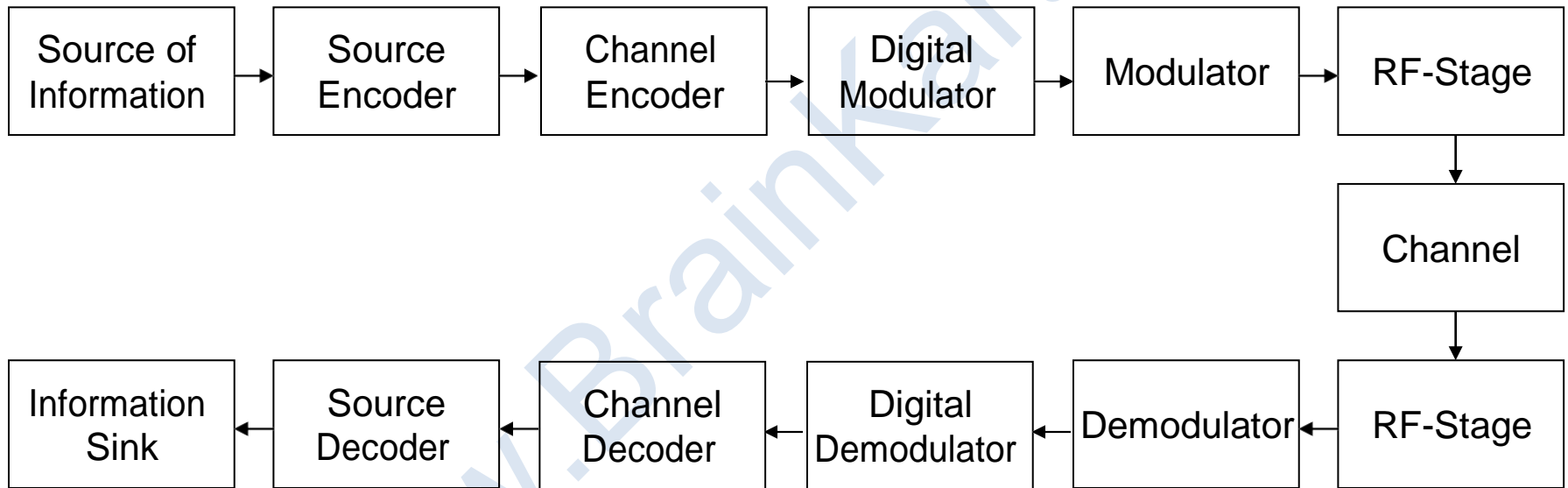
Communication Systems



Analog Communication System



Digital Communication System



decibels

- The *bel* is a logarithmic unit of power ratios. One *bel* corresponds to an increase of power by a factor of 10 relative to some reference power, P_{ref} .

$$P_{[bel]} = \log_{10} \left(\frac{P}{P_{ref}} \right)$$

- The bel is a large unit, so that decibel (dB) is almost always used:

$$P_{[dB]} = 10 \log_{10} \left(\frac{P}{P_{ref}} \right)$$

- The above equation may also be used to express a ratio of voltages (or field strengths) provided that they appear across the same impedance (or in a medium with the same wave impedance):

$$V_{[dB]} = 20 \log_{10} \left(\frac{V}{V_{ref}} \right)$$

decibels

| Unit | Reference Power | Application |
|--------------|---|--|
| dBW | 1 W | Absolute power |
| dBm | 1 mW | Absolute power $P [\text{dBW}] = P [\text{dBm}] - 30$ |
| dB μ V | 1 μ V | Absolute voltage, typically at the input terminals of a receiver |
| dB | any | Gain or loss of a network |
| dB μ V/m | 1 μ V/m | Electric field strength |
| dBi | Power radiated by and isotropic reference antenna | Gain of an antenna |
| dBd | Power radiated by a half-wave dipole | Gain of an antenna $0 \text{ dBd} = 2.15 \text{ dBi}$ |

CDMA

Frequency reuse

Large coverage

High spectrum capacity

High Privacy

Soft Handoff

Good Voice quality (using Voice Coding)

Perfect Power Control

Smooth migration to 3G