

***High Speed Communication Circuits and Systems***  
***Lecture 19***  
***Basics of Wireless Communication***

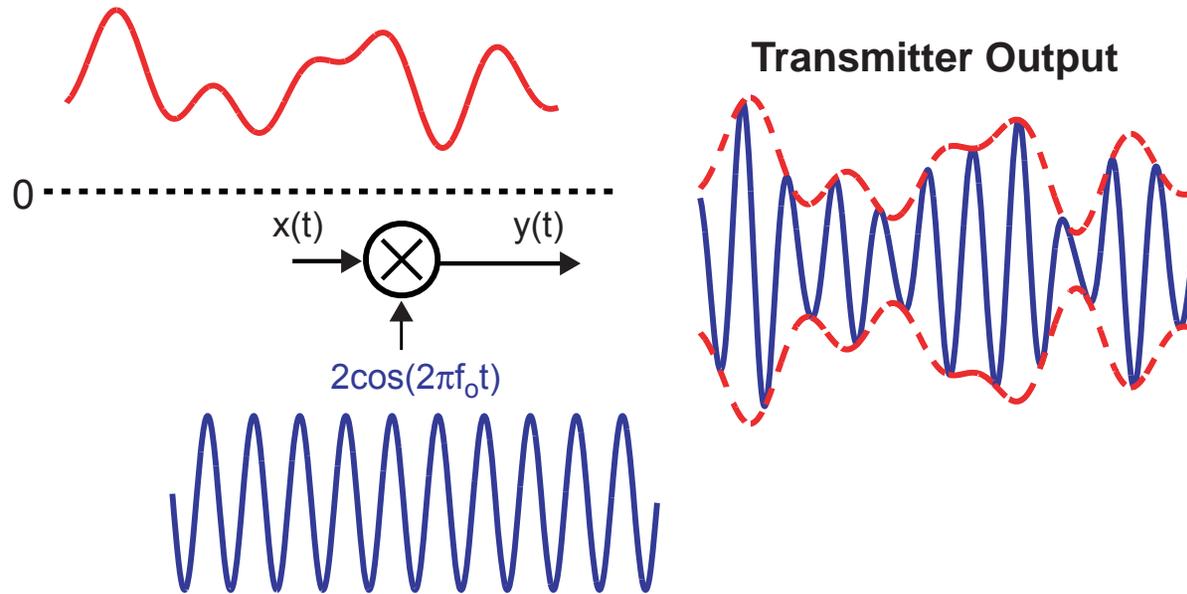
**Michael H. Perrott**

**April 16, 2004**

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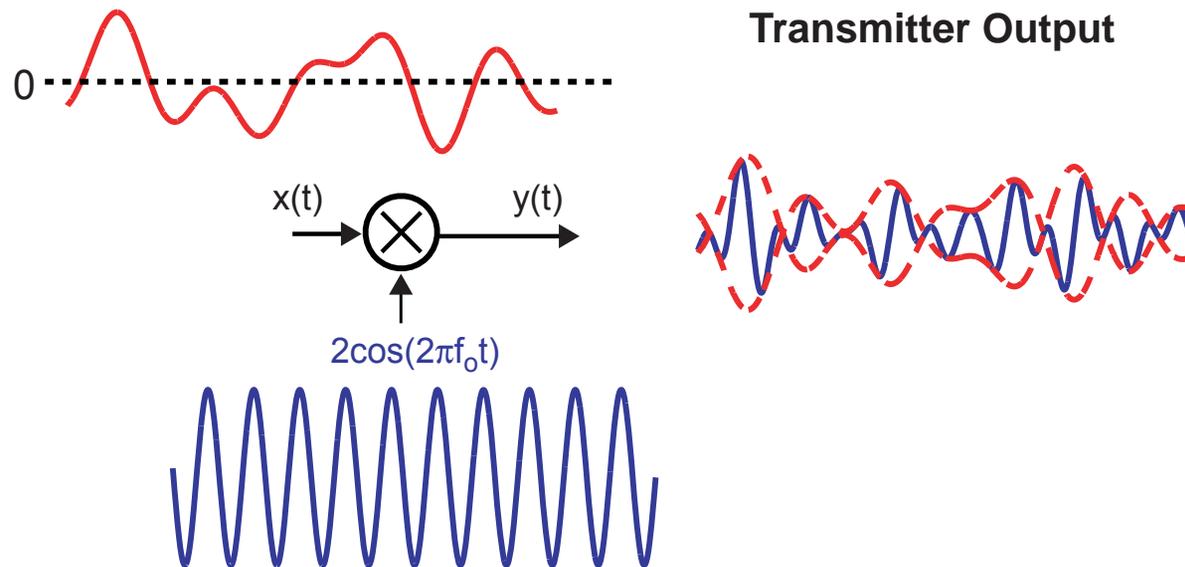
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# Amplitude Modulation (Transmitter)



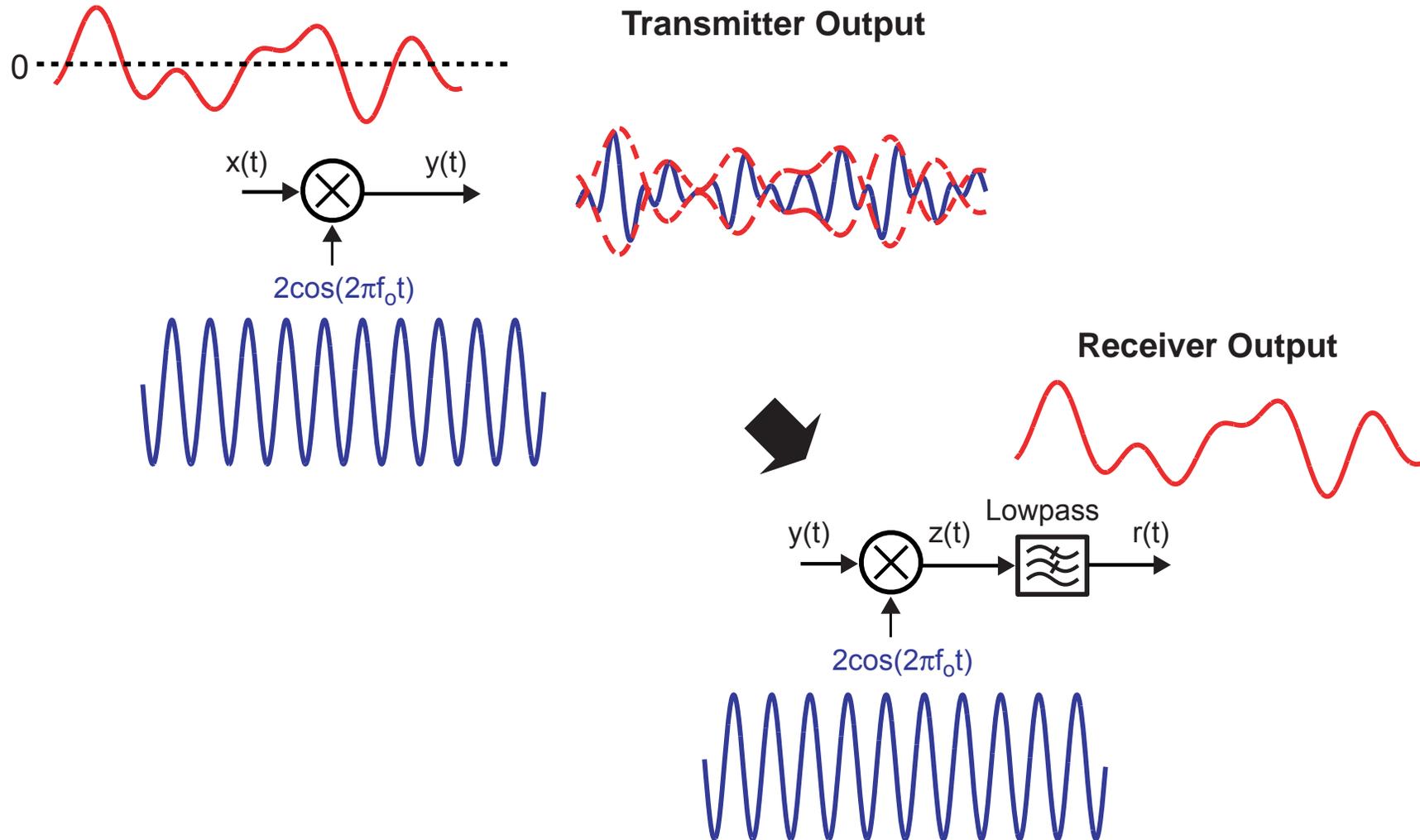
- Vary the amplitude of a sine wave at carrier frequency  $f_0$  according to a baseband modulation signal
- DC component of baseband modulation signal influences transmit signal and receiver possibilities
  - DC value greater than signal amplitude shown above
    - Allows simple envelope detector for receiver
    - Creates spurious tone at carrier frequency (wasted power)

# Impact of Zero DC Value



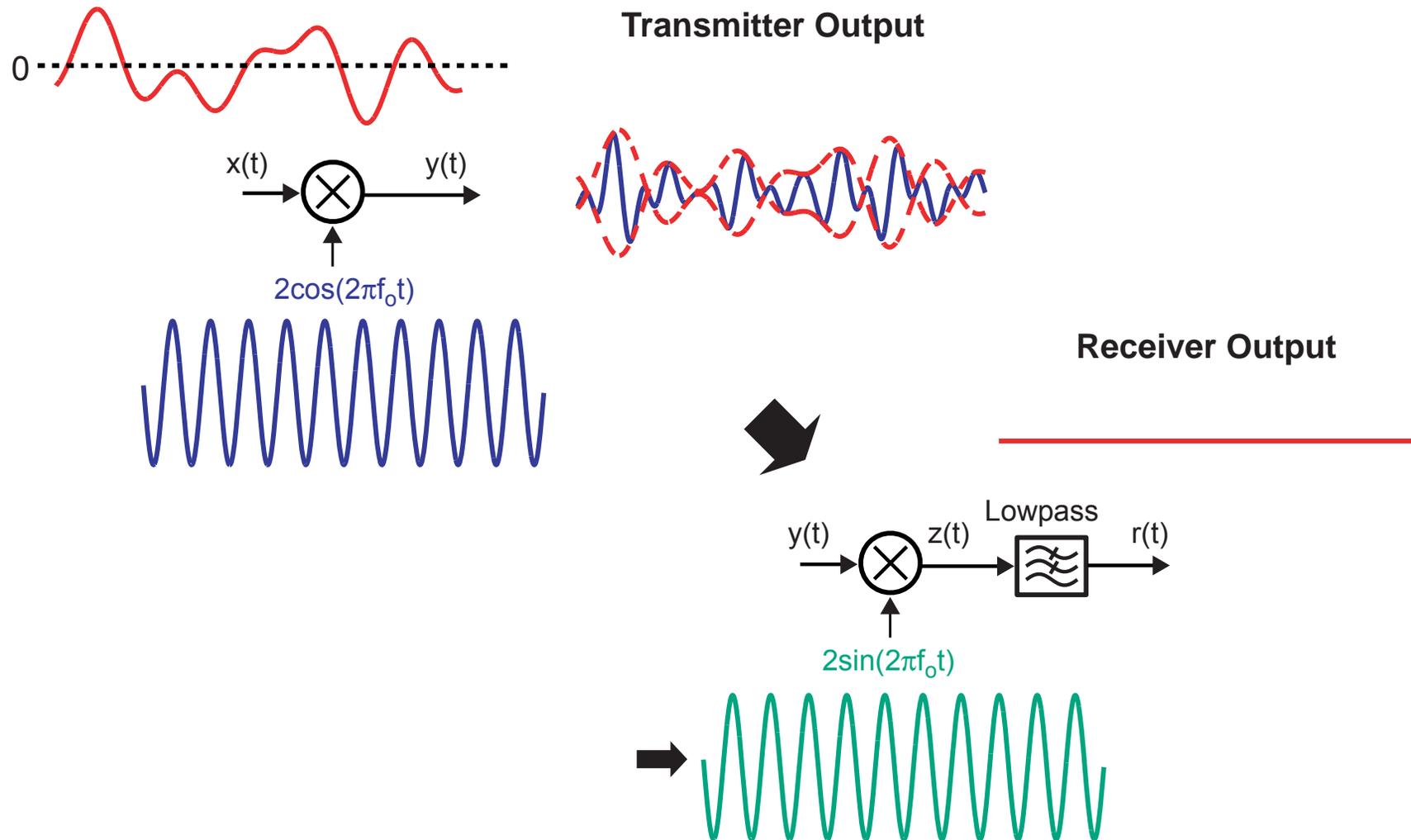
- **Envelope of modulated sine wave no longer corresponds directly to the baseband signal**
  - Envelope instead follows the absolute value of the baseband waveform
  - Envelope detector can no longer be used for receiver
- **The good news: less transmit power required for same transmitter SNR (compared to nonzero DC value)**

# Accompanying Receiver (Coherent Detection)



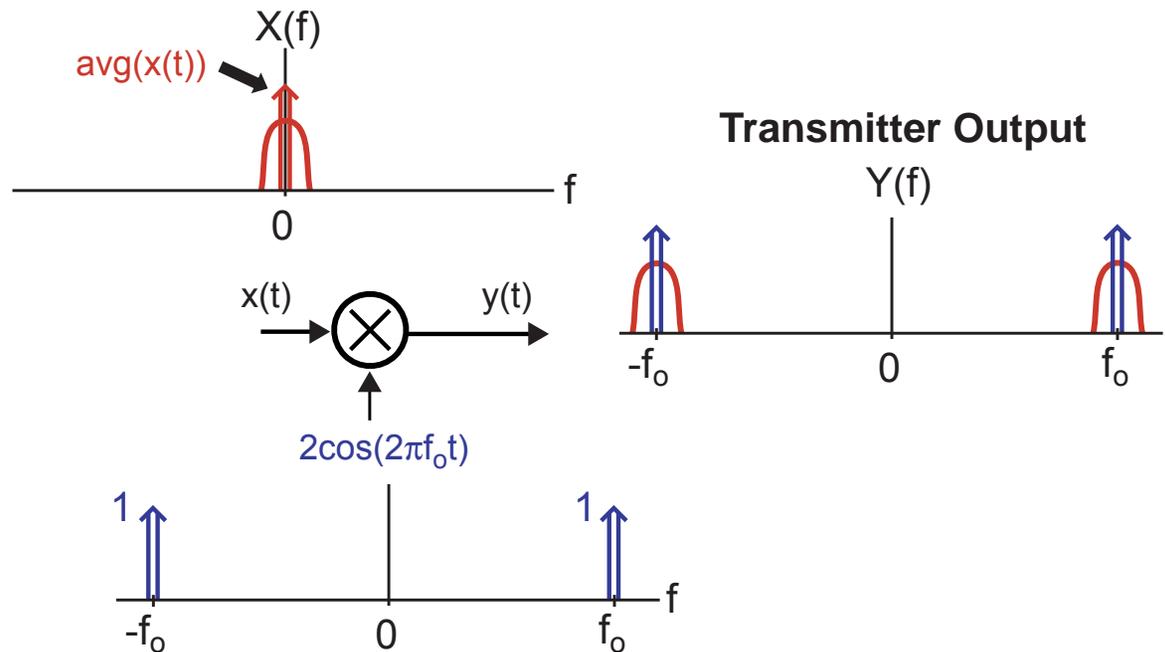
- Works regardless of DC value of baseband signal
- Requires receiver local oscillator to be accurately aligned in phase and frequency to carrier sine wave

# Impact of Phase Misalignment in Receiver Local Oscillator



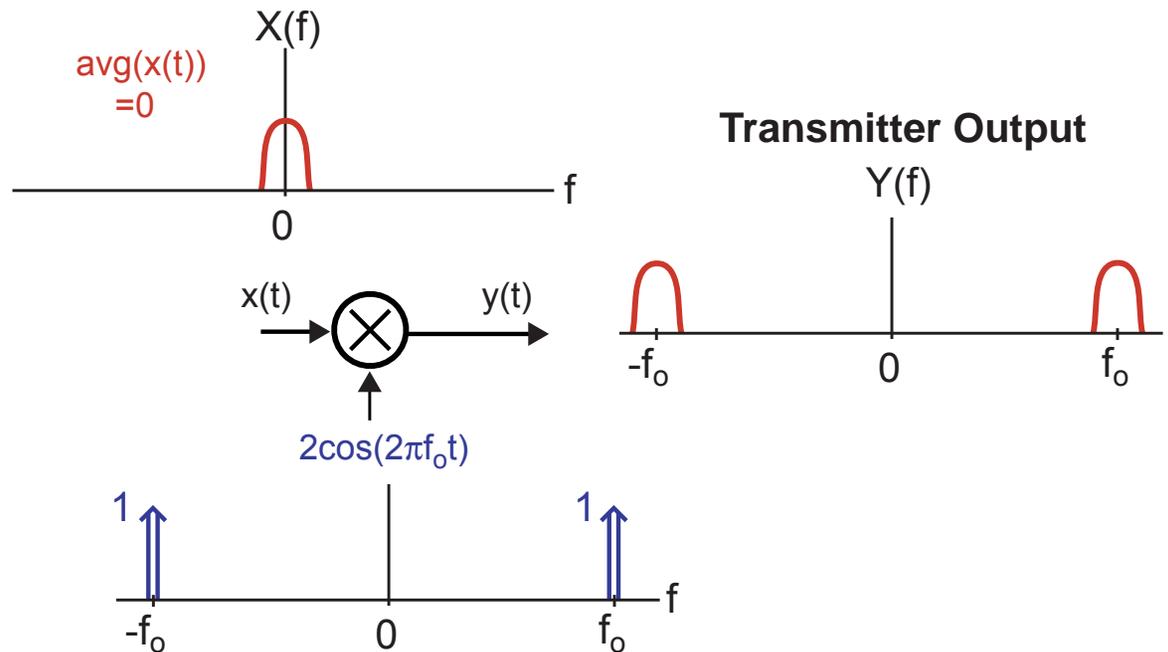
- Worst case is when receiver LO and carrier frequency are phase shifted 90 degrees with respect to each other
  - Desired baseband signal is not recovered

# Frequency Domain View of AM Transmitter



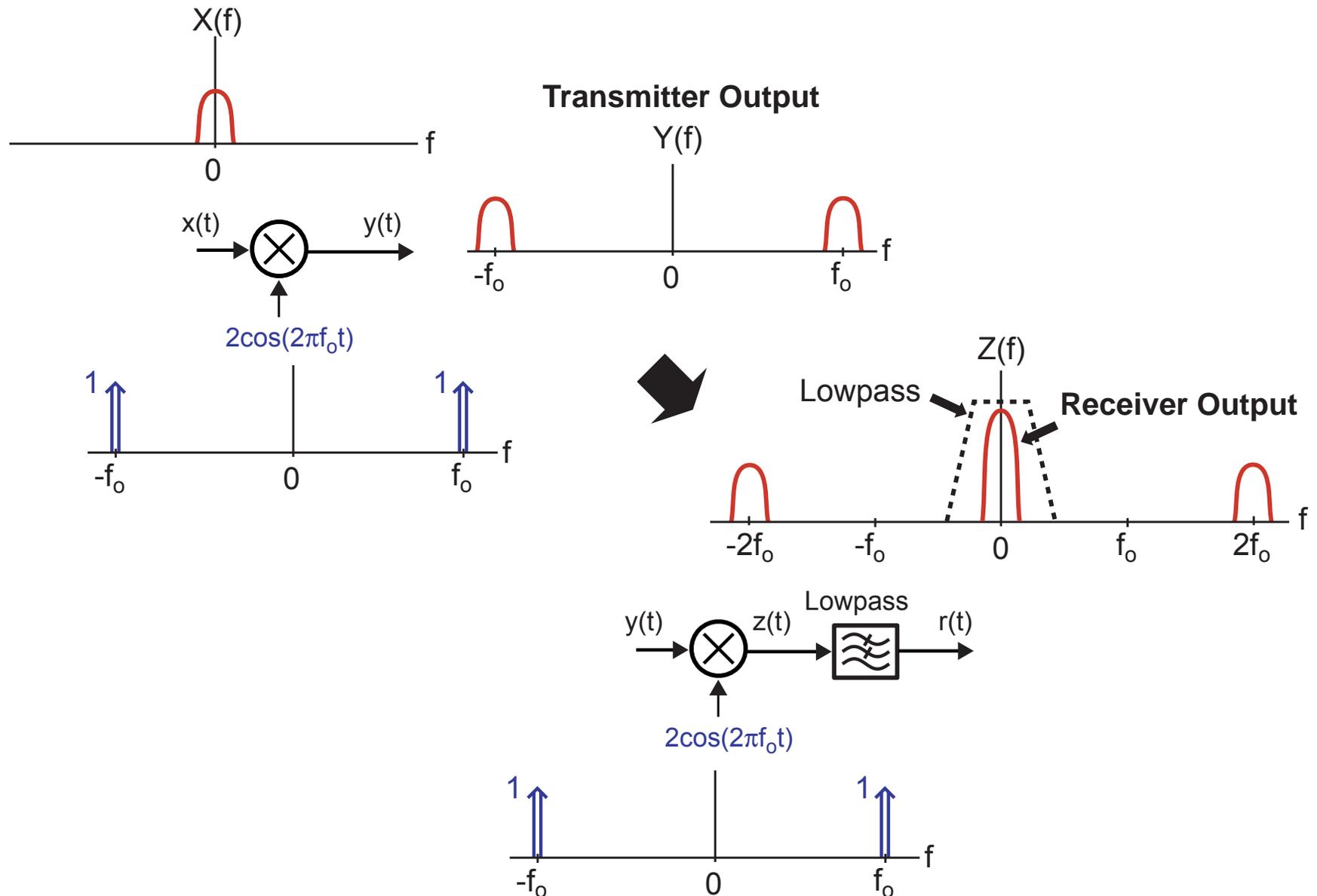
- **Baseband signal is assumed to have a nonzero DC component in above diagram**
  - Causes impulse to appear at DC in baseband signal
  - Transmitter output has an impulse at the carrier frequency
    - For coherent detection, does not provide key information about information in baseband signal, and therefore is a waste of power

# Impact of Having Zero DC Value for Baseband Signal

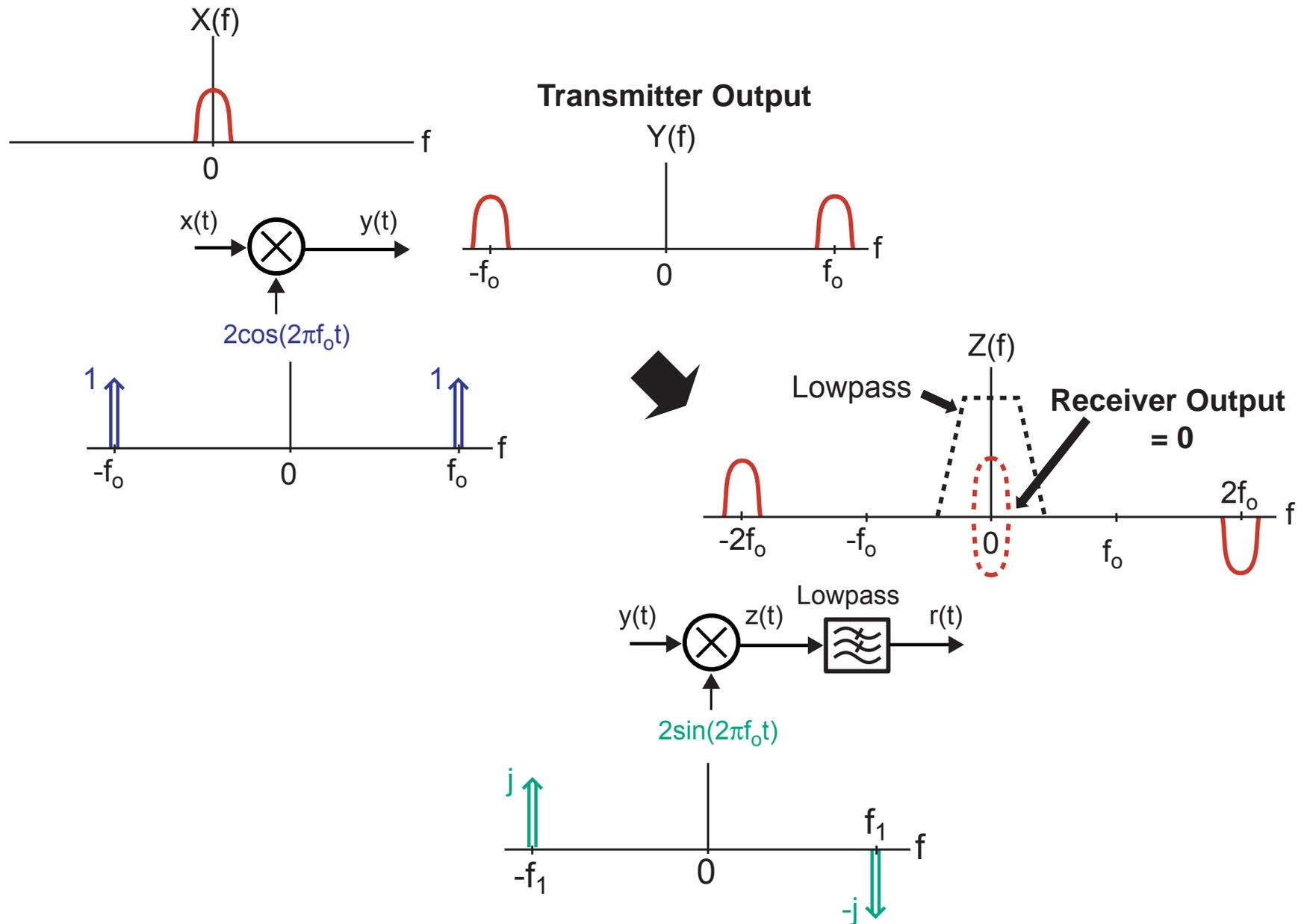


- **Impulse in DC portion of baseband signal is now gone**
  - **Transmitter output now is now free from having an impulse at the carrier frequency (for ideal implementation)**

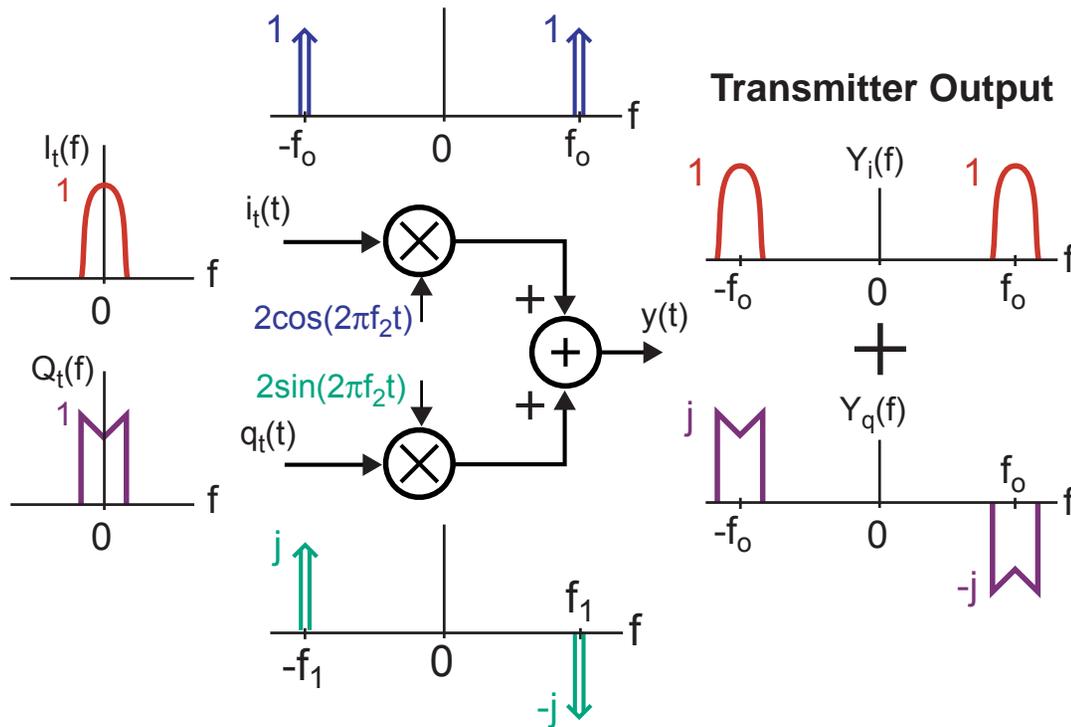
# Frequency Domain View of AM Receiver (Coherent)



# Impact of 90 Degree Phase Misalignment

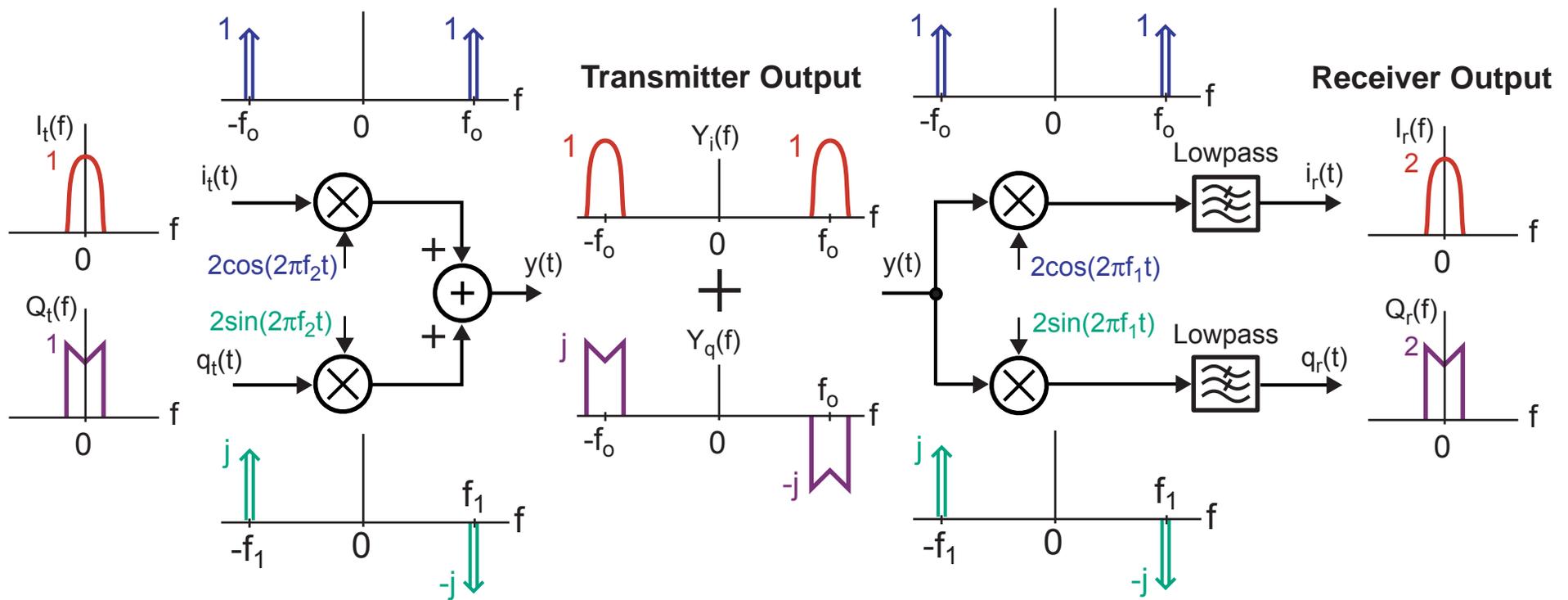


# Quadrature Modulation



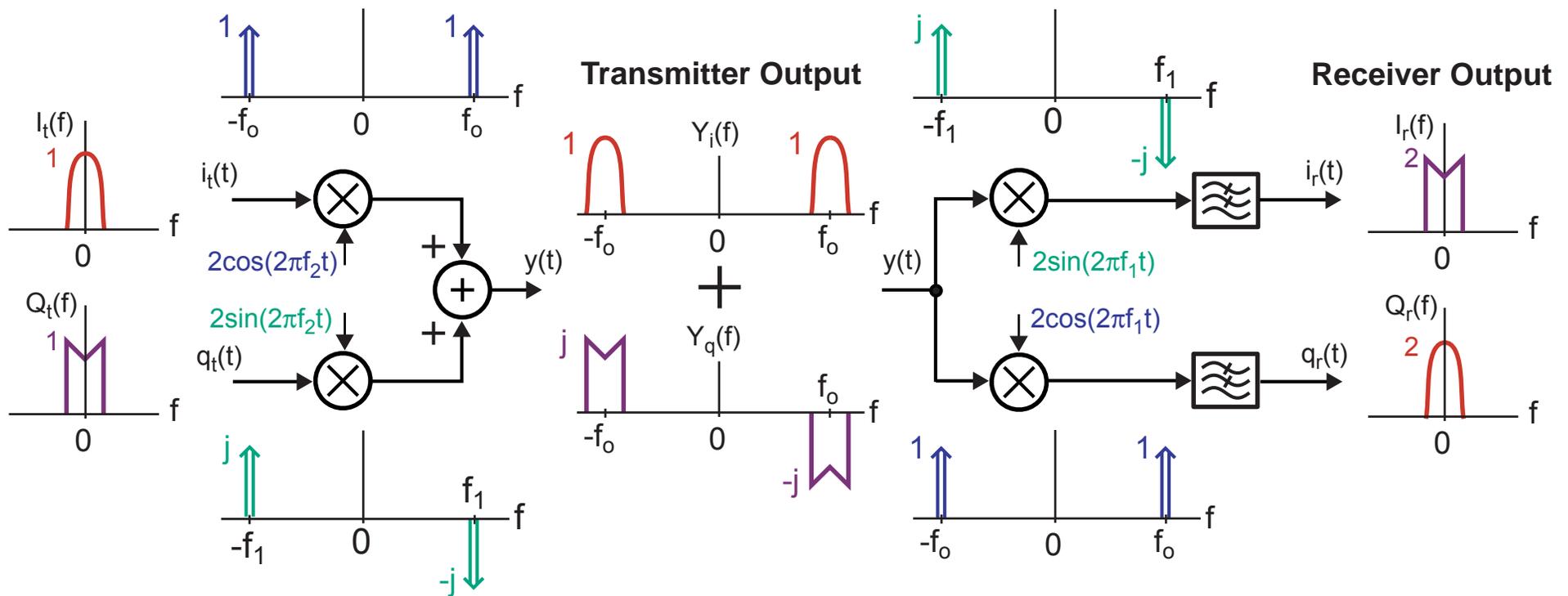
- Takes advantage of coherent receiver's sensitivity to phase alignment with transmitter local oscillator
  - We essentially have two orthogonal transmission channels (I and Q) available to us
  - Transmit two independent baseband signals (I and Q) onto two sine waves in quadrature at transmitter

# Accompanying Receiver



- **Demodulate using two sine waves in quadrature at receiver**
  - **Must align receiver LO signals in frequency and phase to transmitter LO signals**
    - Proper alignment allows I and Q signals to be recovered as shown

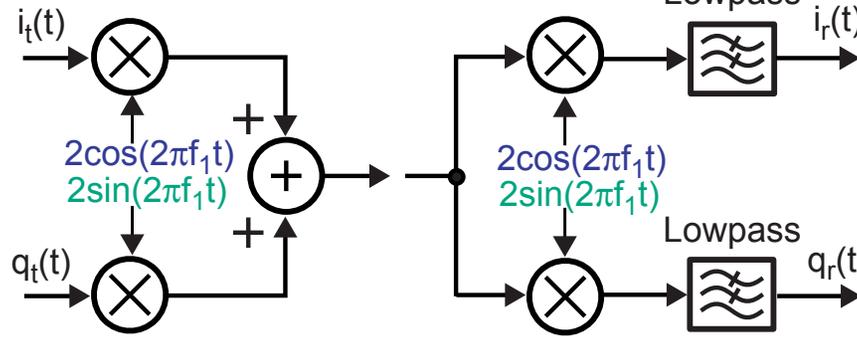
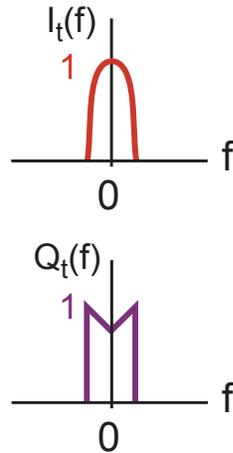
# Impact of 90 Degree Phase Misalignment



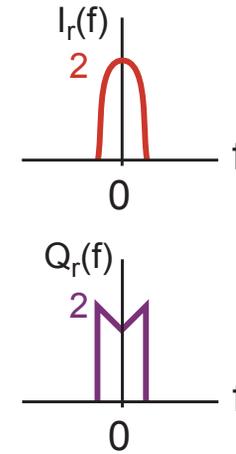
- I and Q channels are swapped at receiver if its LO signal is 90 degrees out of phase with transmitter
  - However, no information is lost!
  - Can use baseband signal processing to extract I/Q signals despite phase offset between transmitter and receiver

# Simplified View

Baseband Input

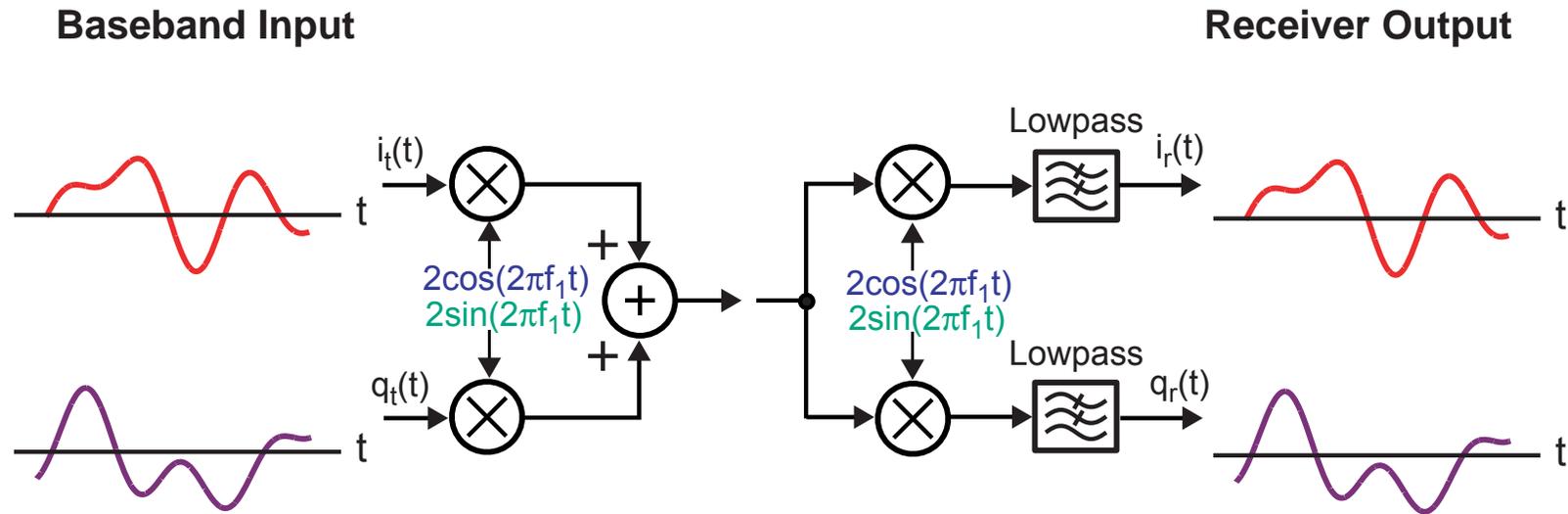


Receiver Output



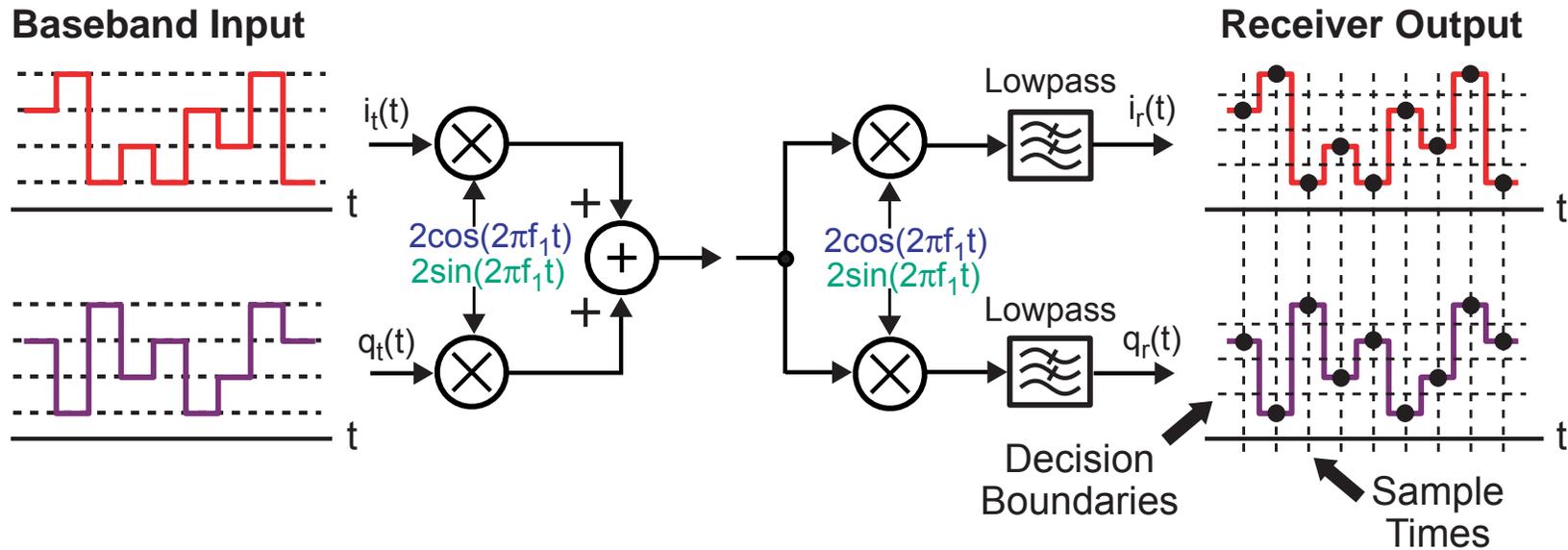
- For discussion to follow, assume that
  - Transmitter and receiver phases are aligned
  - Lowpass filters in receiver are ideal
  - Transmit and receive I/Q signals are the same except for scale factor
- In reality
  - RF channel adds distortion, causes fading
  - Signal processing in baseband DSP used to correct problems

# Analog Modulation



- I/Q signals take on a continuous range of values (as viewed in the time domain)
- Used for AM/FM radios, television (non-HDTV), and the first cell phones
- Newer systems typically employ digital modulation instead

# Digital Modulation



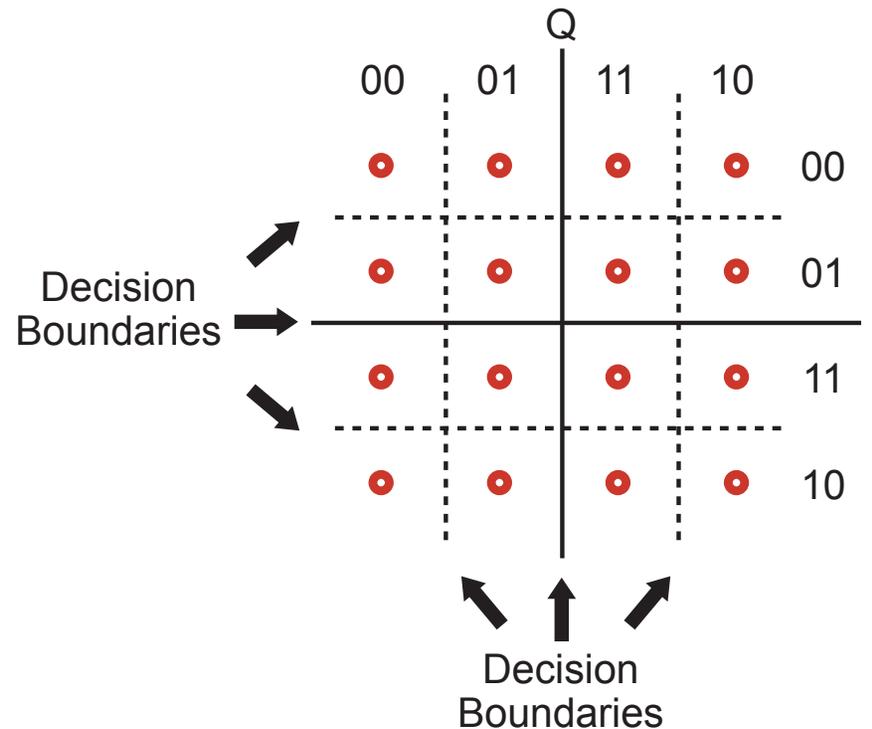
- **I/Q signals take on discrete values at discrete time instants corresponding to digital data**
  - Receiver samples I/Q channels
    - Uses decision boundaries to evaluate value of data at each time instant
- **I/Q signals may be binary or multi-bit**
  - Multi-bit shown above

# ***Advantages of Digital Modulation***

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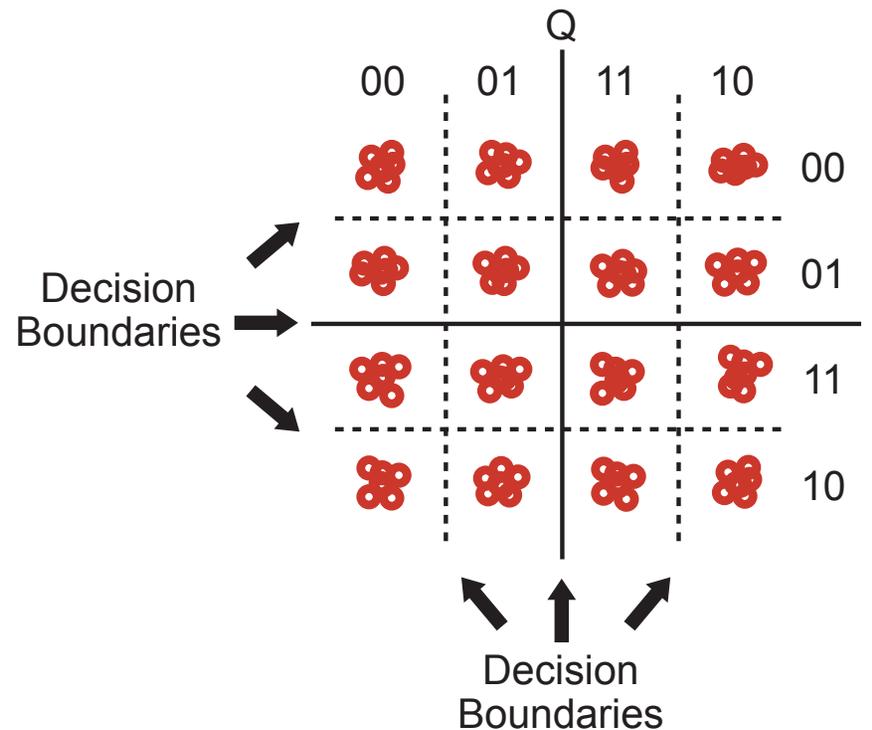
- **Allows information to be “packetized”**
  - Can compress information in time and efficiently send as packets through network
  - In contrast, analog modulation requires “circuit-switched” connections that are continuously available
    - Inefficient use of radio channel if there is “dead time” in information flow
- **Allows error correction to be achieved**
  - Less sensitivity to radio channel imperfections
- **Enables compression of information**
  - More efficient use of channel
- **Supports a wide variety of information content**
  - Voice, text and email messages, video can all be represented as digital bit streams

# Constellation Diagram



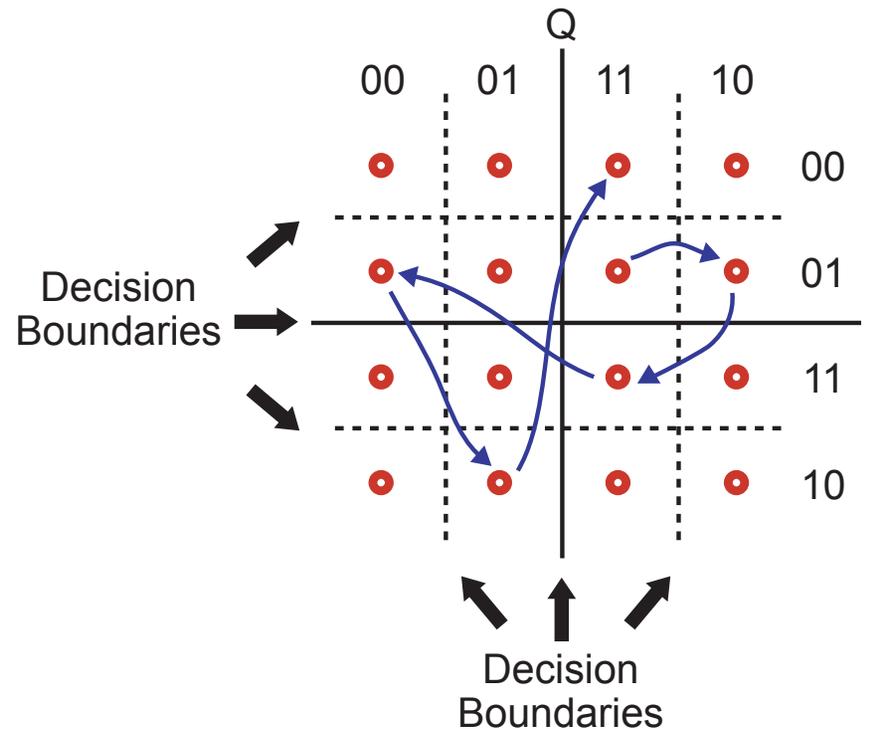
- We can view I/Q values at sample instants on a two-dimensional coordinate system
- Decision boundaries mark up regions corresponding to different data values
- Gray coding used to minimize number of bit errors that occur if wrong decision is made due to noise

# Impact of Noise on Constellation Diagram



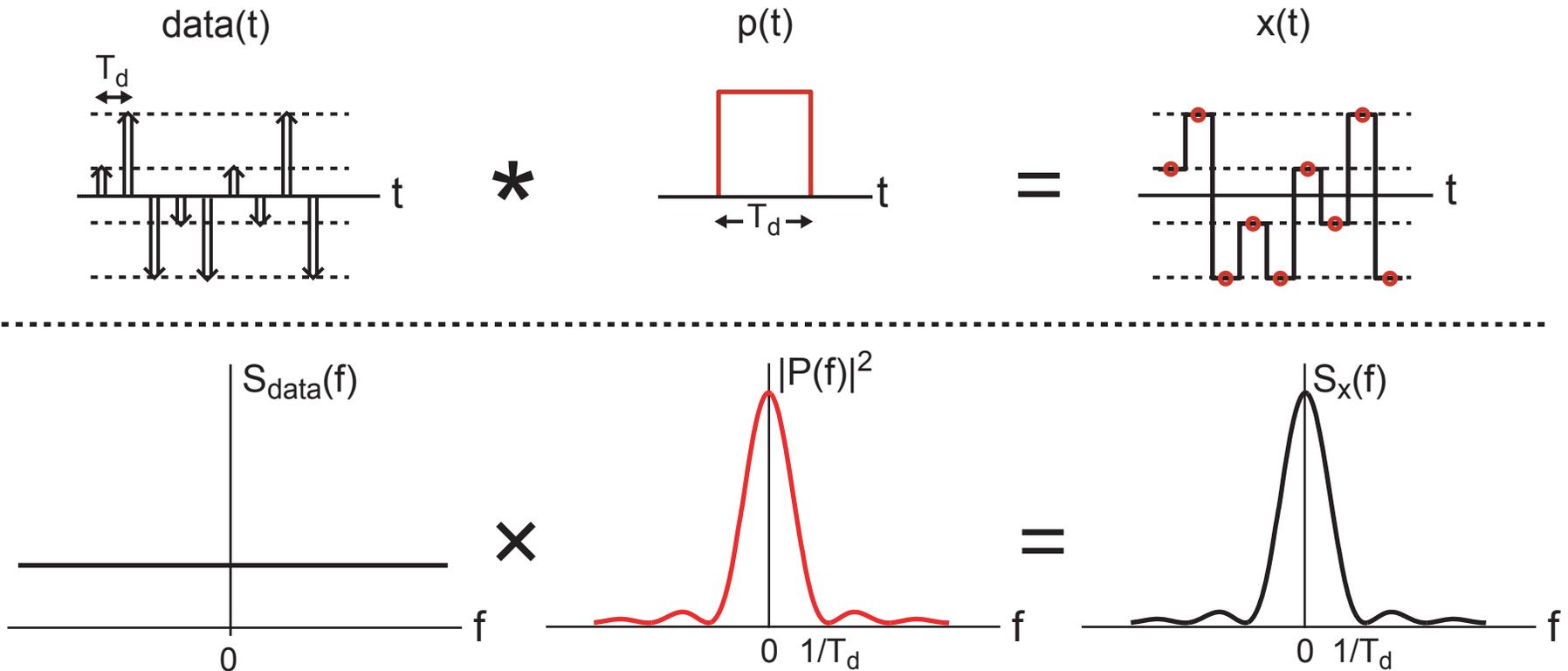
- **Sampled data values no longer land in exact same location across all sample instants**
- **Decision boundaries remain fixed**
- **Significant noise causes bit errors to be made**

# Transition Behavior Between Constellation Points



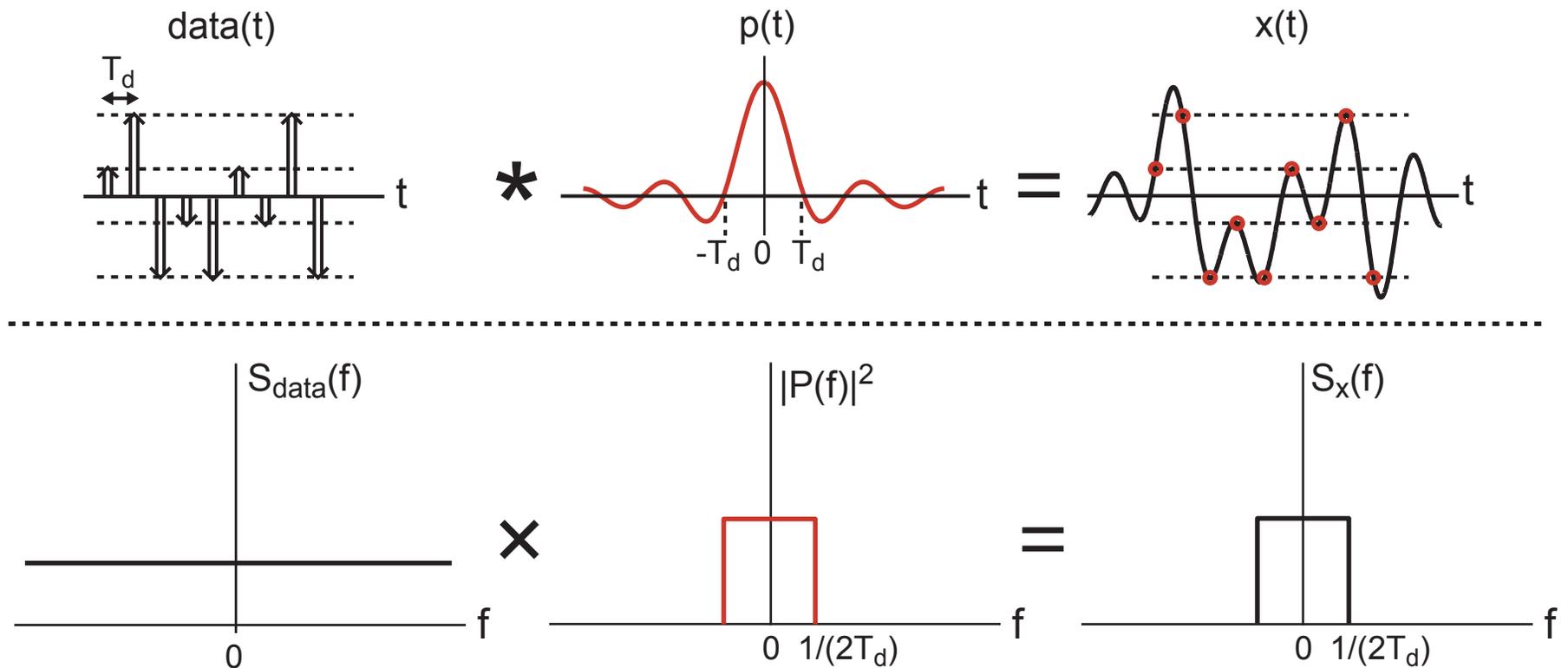
- Constellation diagrams provide us with a snapshot of I/Q signals at sample instants
- Transition behavior between sample points depends on modulation scheme and transmit filter

# Choosing an Appropriate Transmit Filter



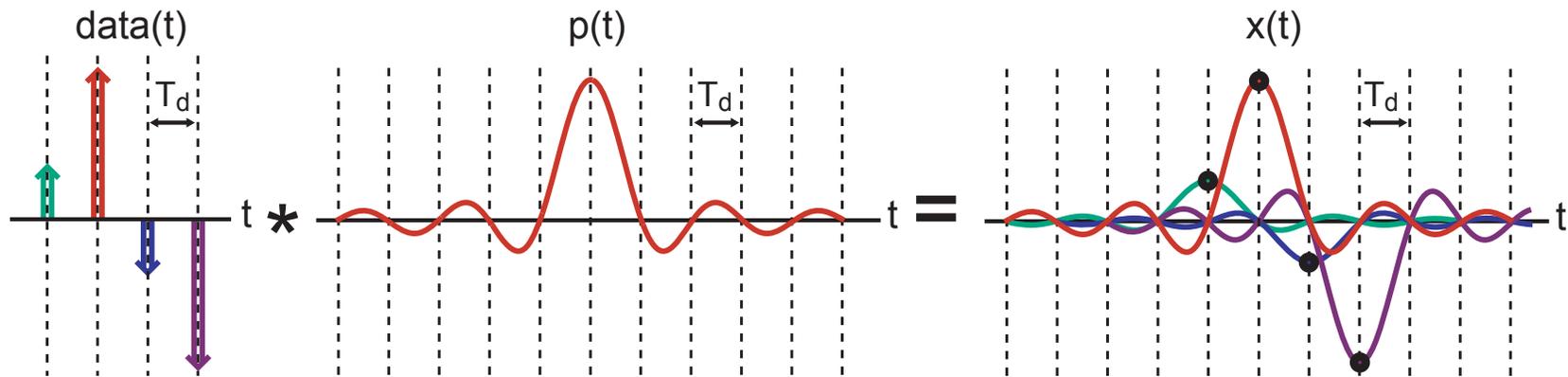
- **Transmit filter,  $p(t)$ , convolved with data symbols that are viewed as impulses**
  - Example so far:  $p(t)$  is a square pulse
- **Output spectrum of transmitter corresponds to square of transmit filter (assuming data has white spectrum)**
  - Want good spectral efficiency (i.e. narrow spectrum)

# Highest Spectral Efficiency with Brick-wall Lowpass



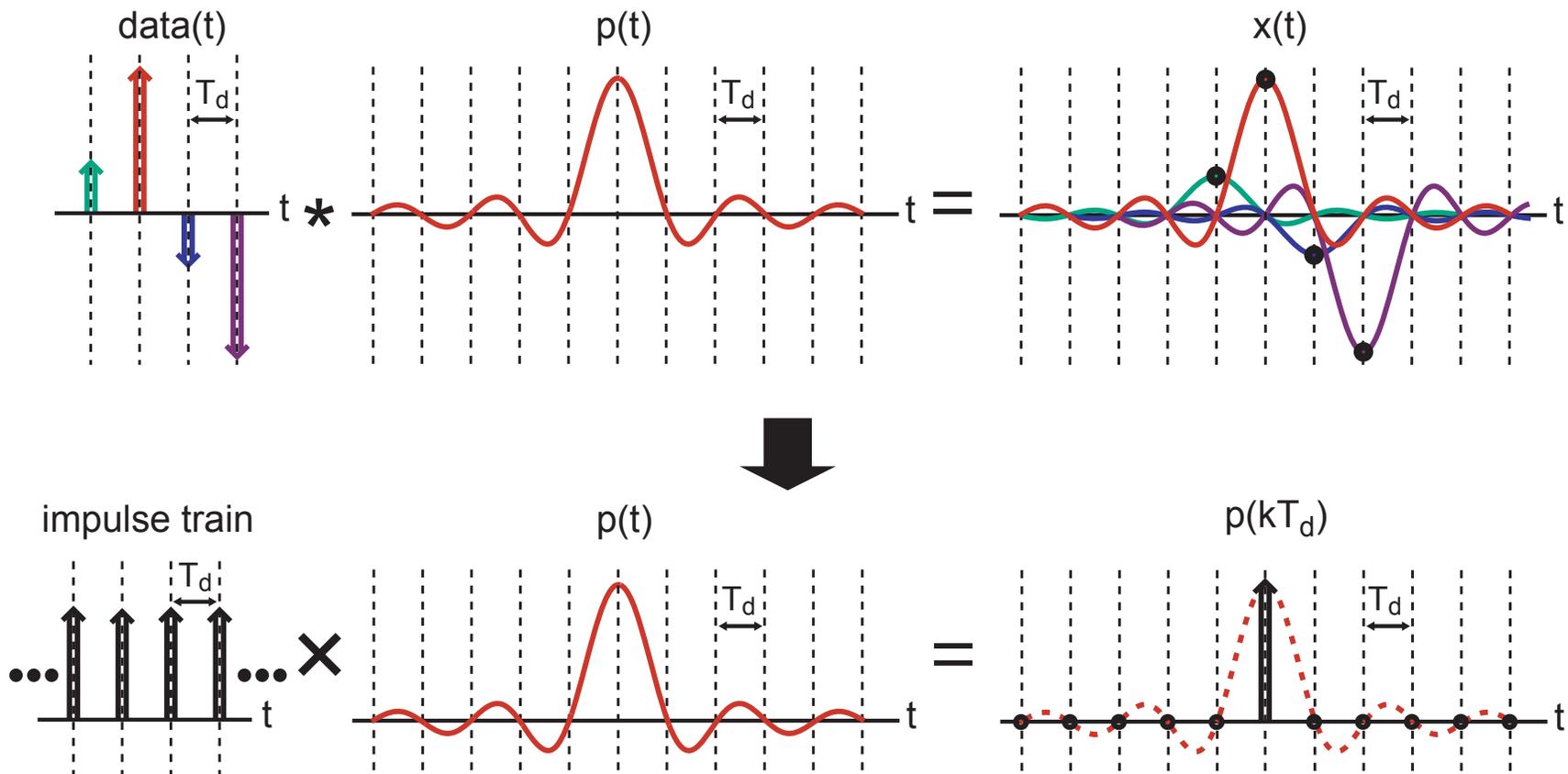
- **Use a sinc function for transmit filter**
  - Corresponds to ideal lowpass in frequency domain
- **Issues**
  - Nonrealizable in practice
  - Sampling offset causes significant intersymbol interference

# Requirement for Transmit Filter to Avoid ISI



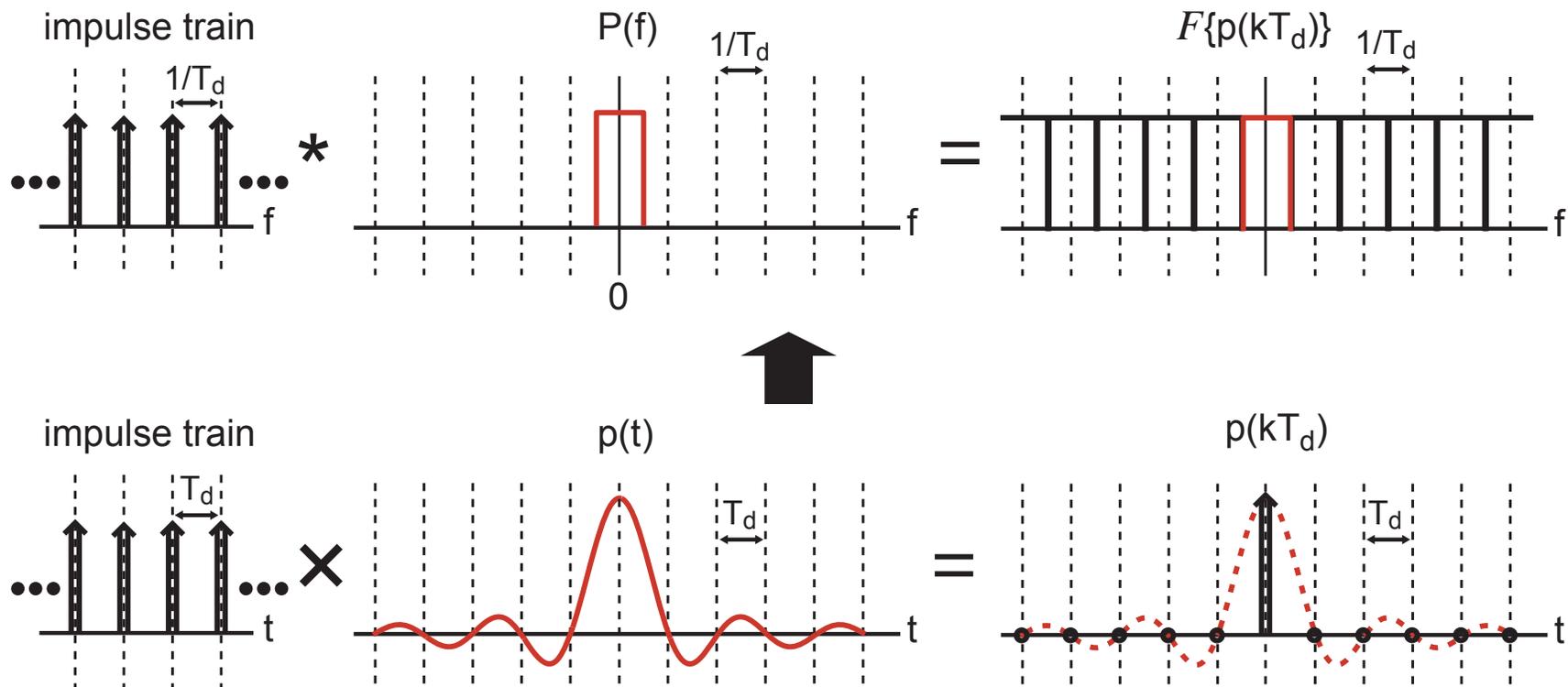
- Time samples of transmit filter (spaced  $T_d$  apart) must be nonzero at only one sample time instant
  - Sinc function satisfies this criterion if we have no offset in the sample times
- Intersymbol interference (ISI) occurs otherwise
- Example: look at result of convolving  $p(t)$  with 4 impulses
  - With zero sampling offset,  $x(kT_d)$  correspond to associated impulse areas

# Derive Nyquist Condition for Avoiding ISI (Step 1)



- Consider multiplying  $p(t)$  by impulse train with period  $T_d$ 
  - ▀ Resulting signal must be a single impulse in order to avoid ISI (same argument as in previous slide)

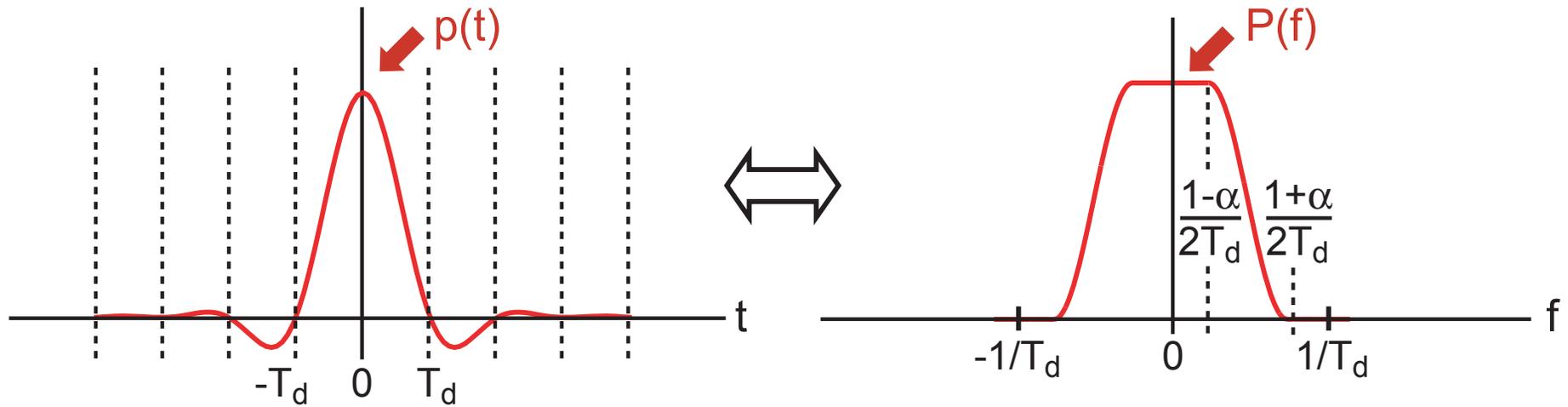
## Derive Nyquist Condition for Avoiding ISI (Step 2)



- In frequency domain, the Fourier transform of sampled  $p(t)$  must be flat to avoid ISI
  - We see this in two ways for above example
    - Fourier transform of an impulse is flat
    - Convolution of  $P(f)$  with impulse train in frequency is flat

# A More Practical Transmit Filter

- Raised-cosine filter is quite popular in many applications



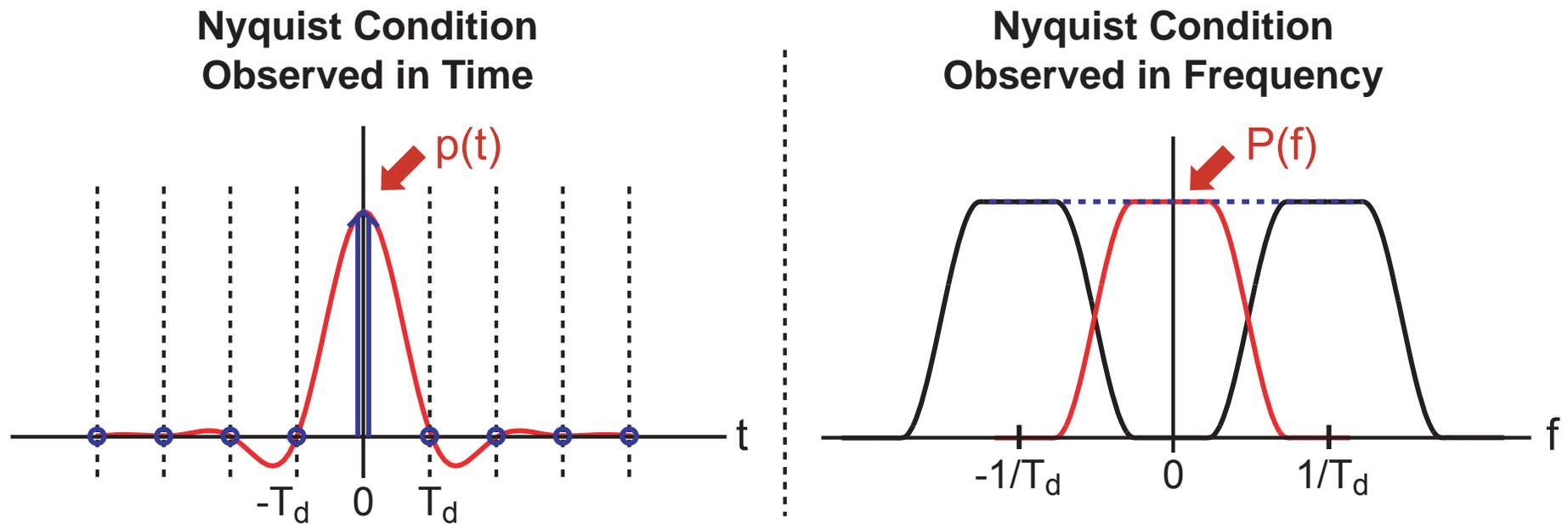
$$p(t) = \frac{\sin(\pi t/T_d)}{\pi t/T_d} \frac{\cos(\pi \alpha t/T_d)}{1 - 4\alpha^2 t^2/T_d^2}$$

- Transition band in frequency set by “rolloff” factor,  $\alpha$

possible range:  $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$  (typical setting:  $0.3 \leq \alpha \leq 0.5$ )

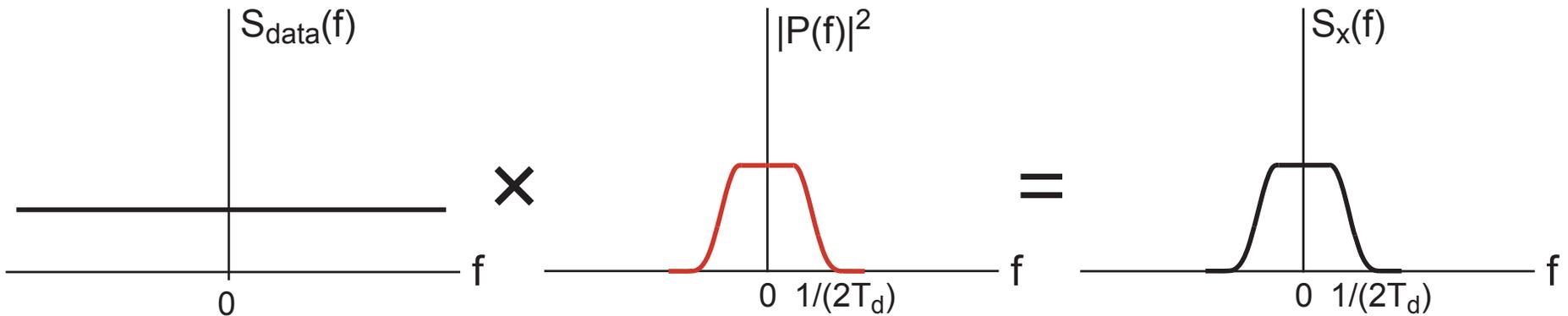
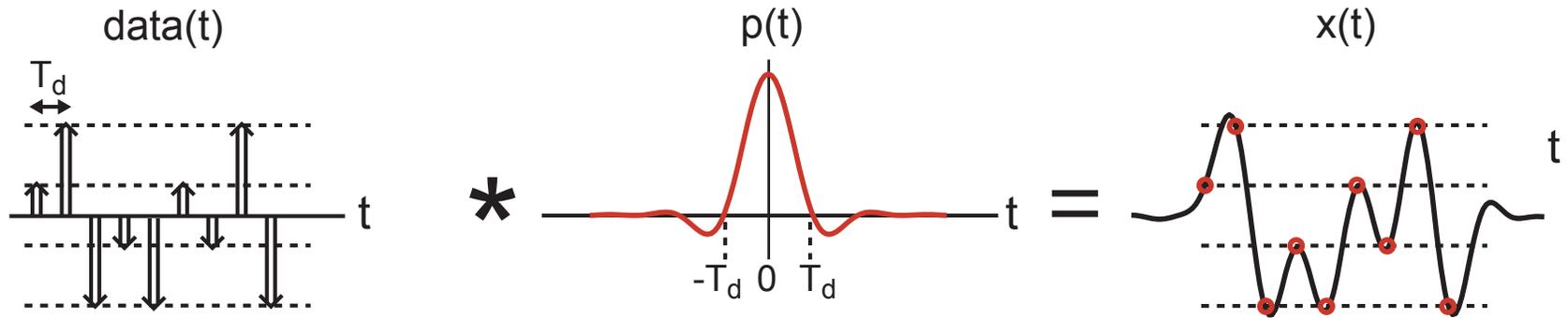
- Rolloff factor = 0:  $P(f)$  becomes a brick-wall filter
- Rolloff factor = 1:  $P(f)$  looks nearly like a triangle
- Rolloff factor = 0.5: shown above

# Raised-Cosine Filter Satisfies Nyquist Condition



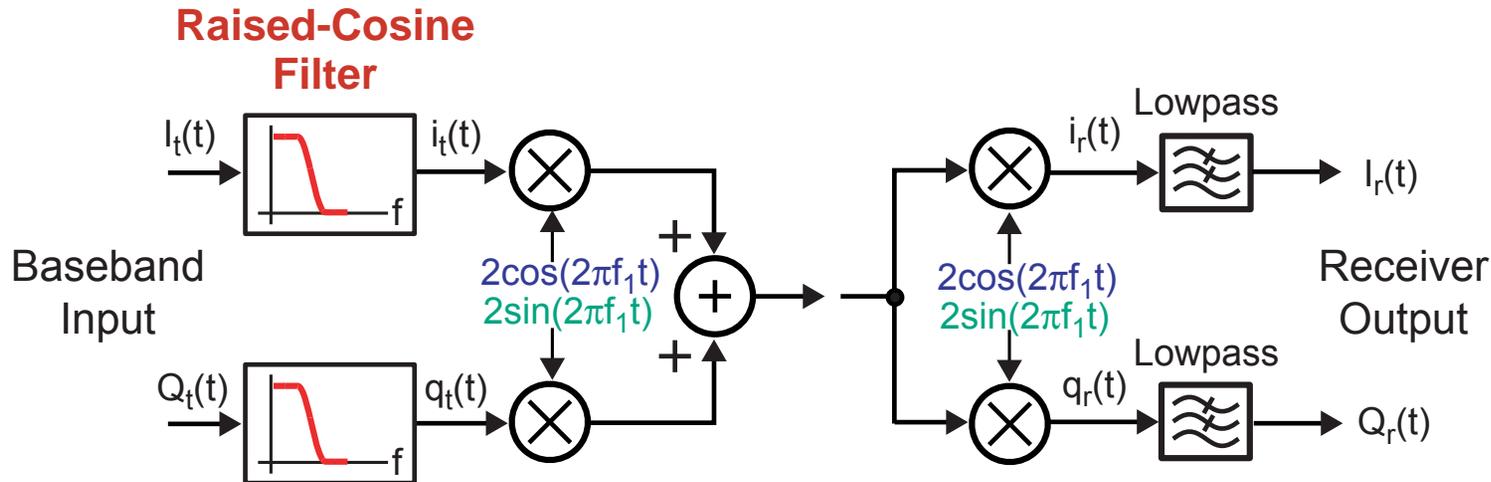
- **In time**
  - $p(kT_d) = 0$  for all  $k$  not equal to 0
- **In frequency**
  - Fourier transform of  $p(kT_d)$  is flat
  - Alternatively: Addition of shifted  $P(f)$  centered about  $k/T_d$  leads to flat Fourier transform (as shown above)

# Spectral Efficiency With Raised-Cosine Filter



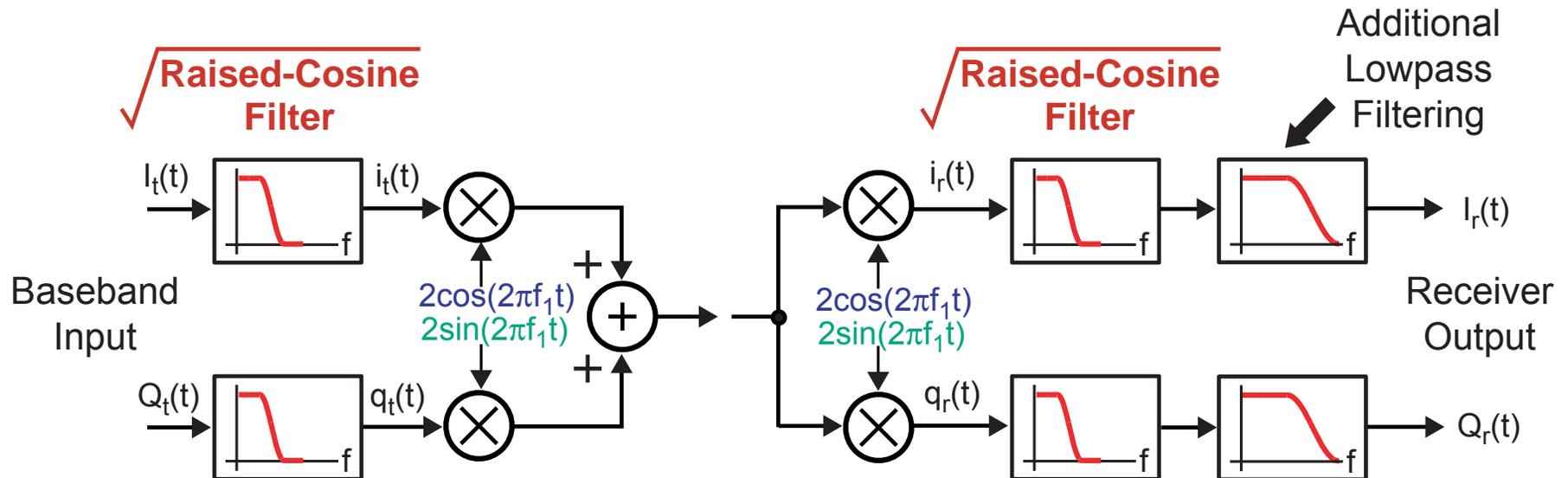
- More efficient than when  $p(t)$  is a square pulse
- Less efficient than brick-wall lowpass
  - But implementation is much more practical
- Note: Raised-cosine  $P(f)$  often “split” between transmitter and receiver

# Receiver Filter: ISI Versus Noise Performance



- **Conflicting requirements for receiver lowpass**
  - Low bandwidth desirable to remove receiver noise and to reject high frequency components of mixer output
  - High bandwidth desirable to minimize ISI at receiver output

# Split Raised-Cosine Filter Between Transmitter/Receiver



- We know that passing data through raised-cosine filter does not cause additional ISI to be produced
  - Implement  $P(f)$  as cascade of two filters corresponding to square root of  $P(f)$

$$P(f) = \sqrt{P(f)}\sqrt{P(f)}$$

- Place one in transmitter, the other in receiver
- Use additional lowpass filtering in receiver to further reduce high frequency noise and mixer products

## ***Multiple Access Techniques***

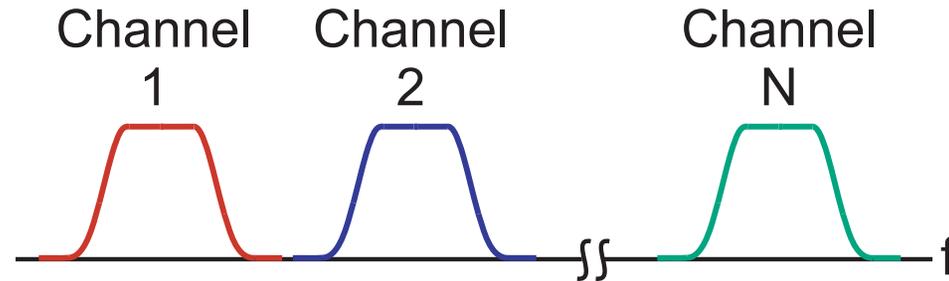
# *The Issue of Multiple Access*

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- **Want to allow communication between many different users**
- **Freespace spectrum is a shared resource**
  - **Must be partitioned between users**
- **Can partition in either time, frequency, or through “orthogonal coding” (or nearly orthogonal coding) of data signals**

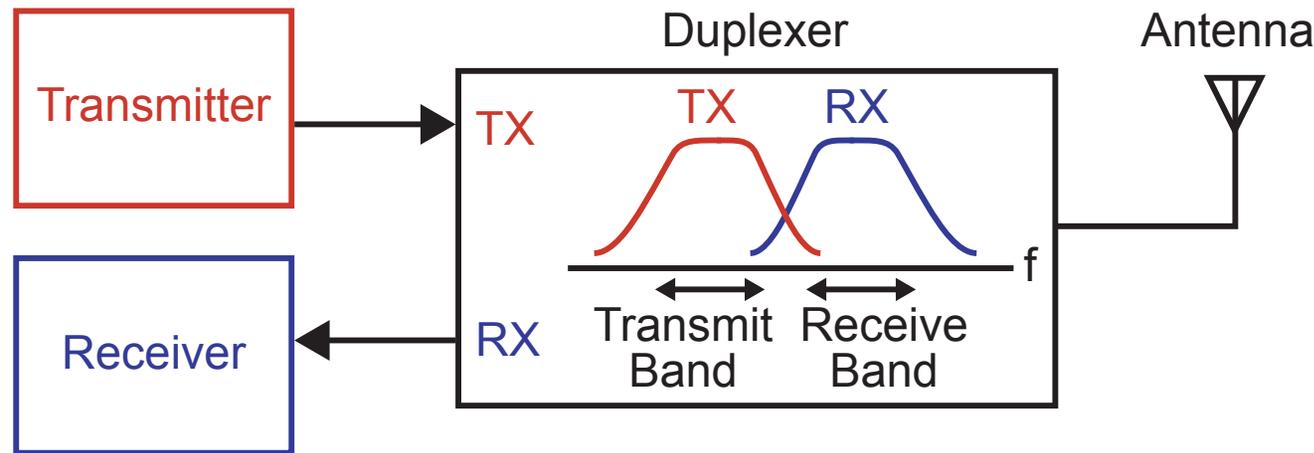
# Frequency-Division Multiple Access (FDMA)

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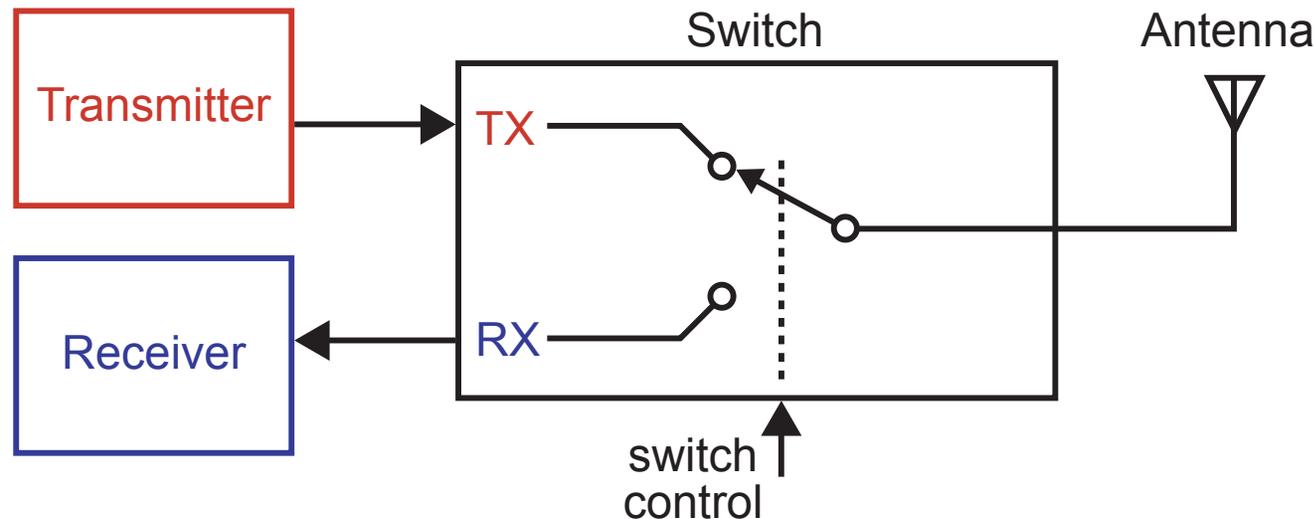
- Place users into different frequency channels
- Two different methods of dealing with transmit/receive of a given user
  - Frequency-division duplexing
  - Time-division duplexing

# Frequency-Division Duplexing



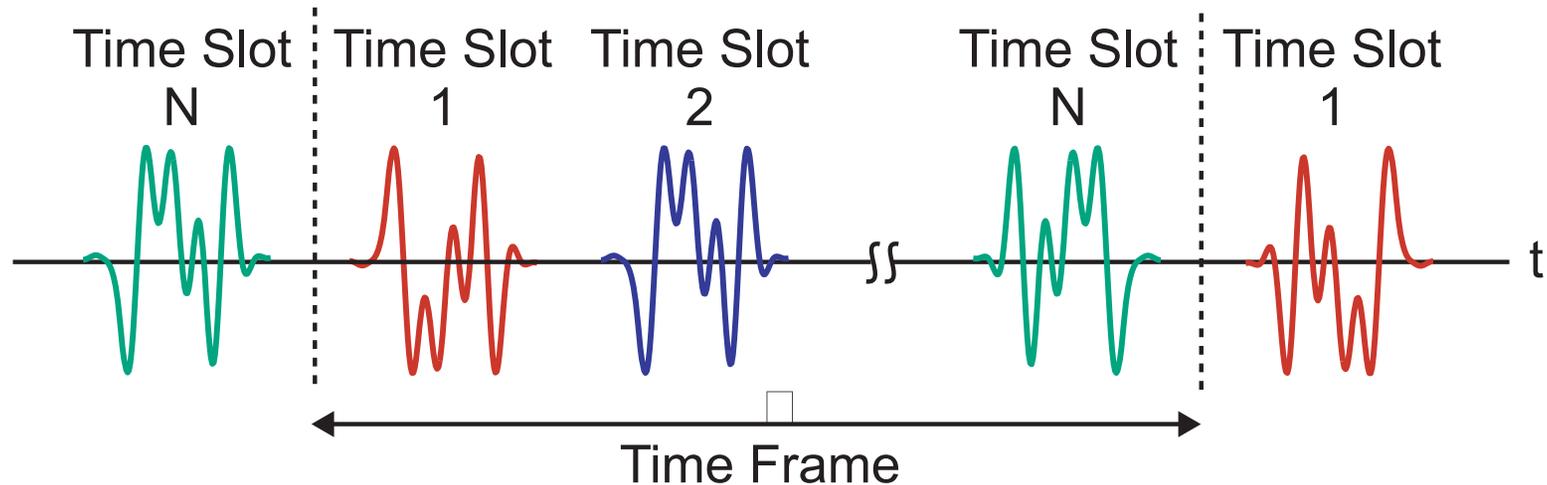
- **Separate frequency channels into transmit and receive bands**
- **Allows simultaneous transmission and reception**
  - Isolation of receiver from transmitter achieved with duplexer
  - Cannot communicate directly between users, only between handsets and base station
- **Advantage: isolates users**
- **Disadvantage: duplexer has high insertion loss (i.e. attenuates signals passing through it)**

# Time-Division Duplexing



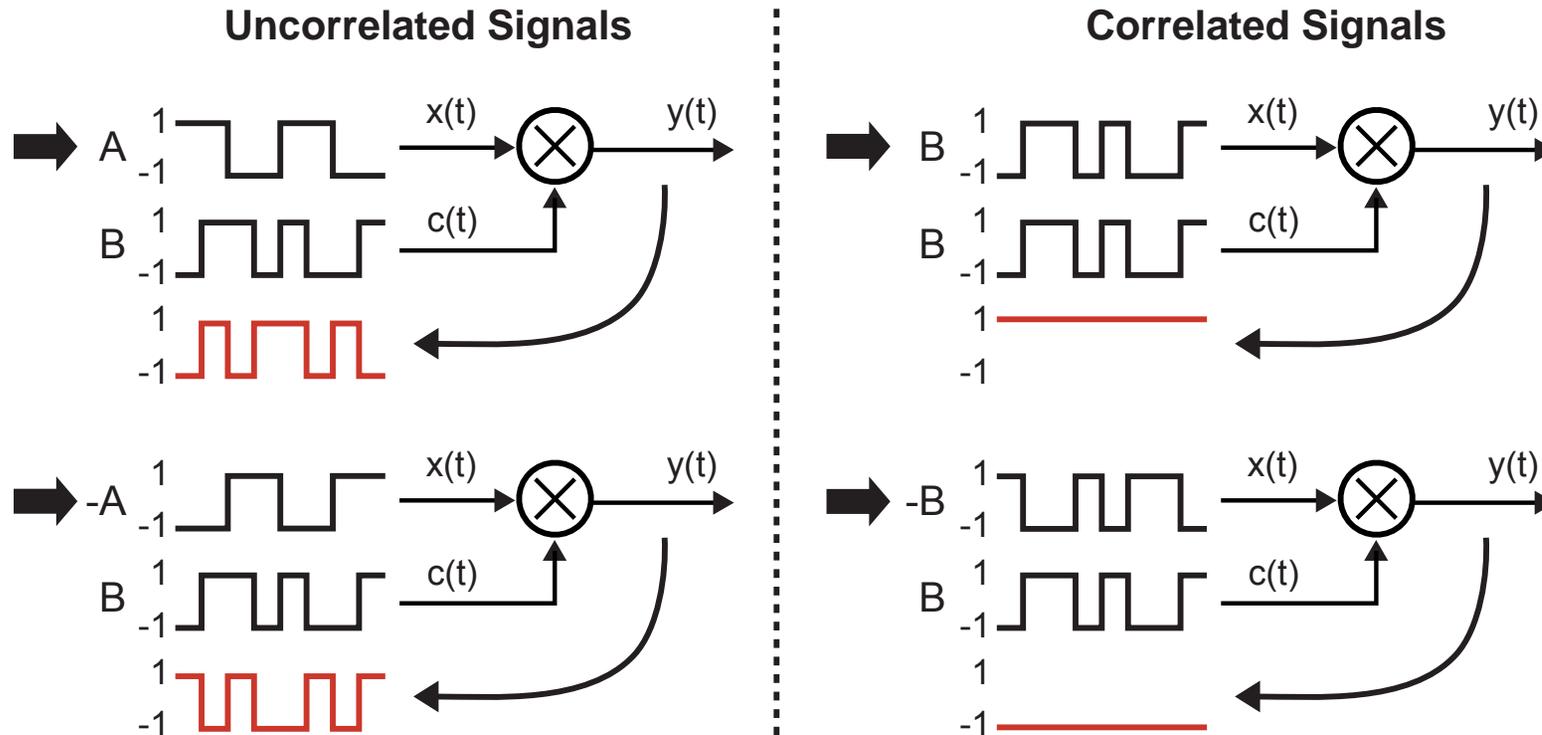
- Use any desired frequency channel for transmitter and receiver
- Send transmit and receive signals at different times
- Allows communication directly between users (not necessarily desirable)
- Advantage: switch has low insertion loss relative to duplexer
- Disadvantage: receiver more sensitive to transmitted signals from other users

# Time-Division Multiple Access (TDMA)



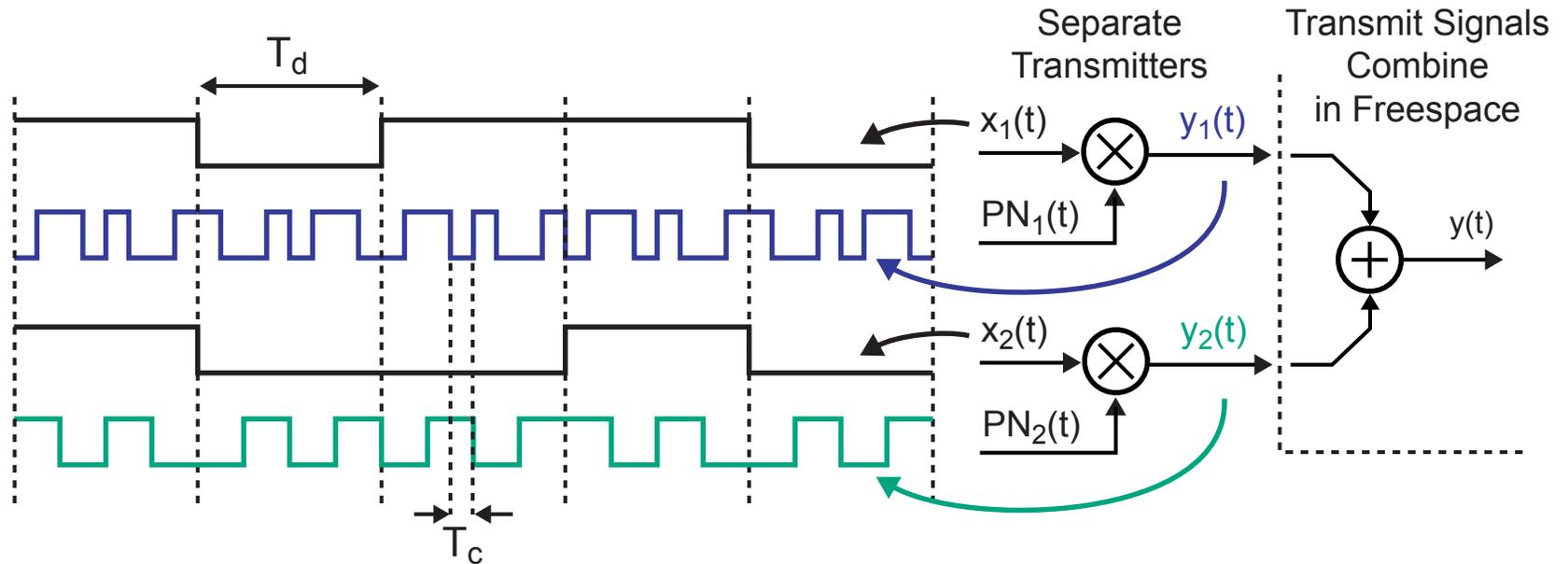
- **Place users into different time slots**
  - A given time slot repeats according to time frame period
- **Often combined with FDMA**
  - Allows many users to occupy the same frequency channel

# Channel Partitioning Using (Nearly) “Orthogonal Coding”



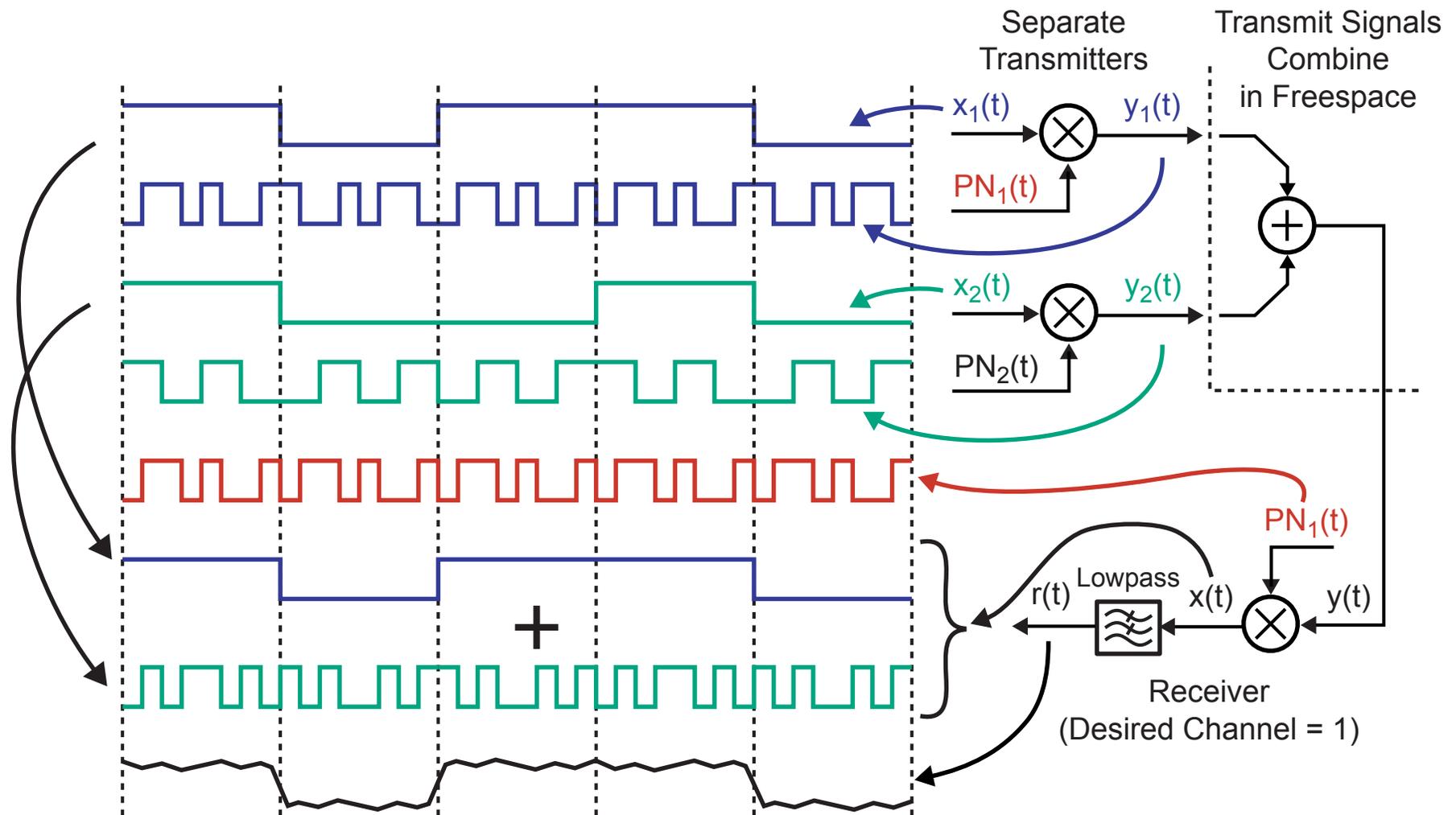
- **Consider two correlation cases**
  - **Two independent random Bernoulli sequences**
    - Result is a random Bernoulli sequence
  - **Same Bernoulli sequence**
    - Result is 1 or -1, depending on relative polarity

# Code-Division Multiple Access (CDMA)



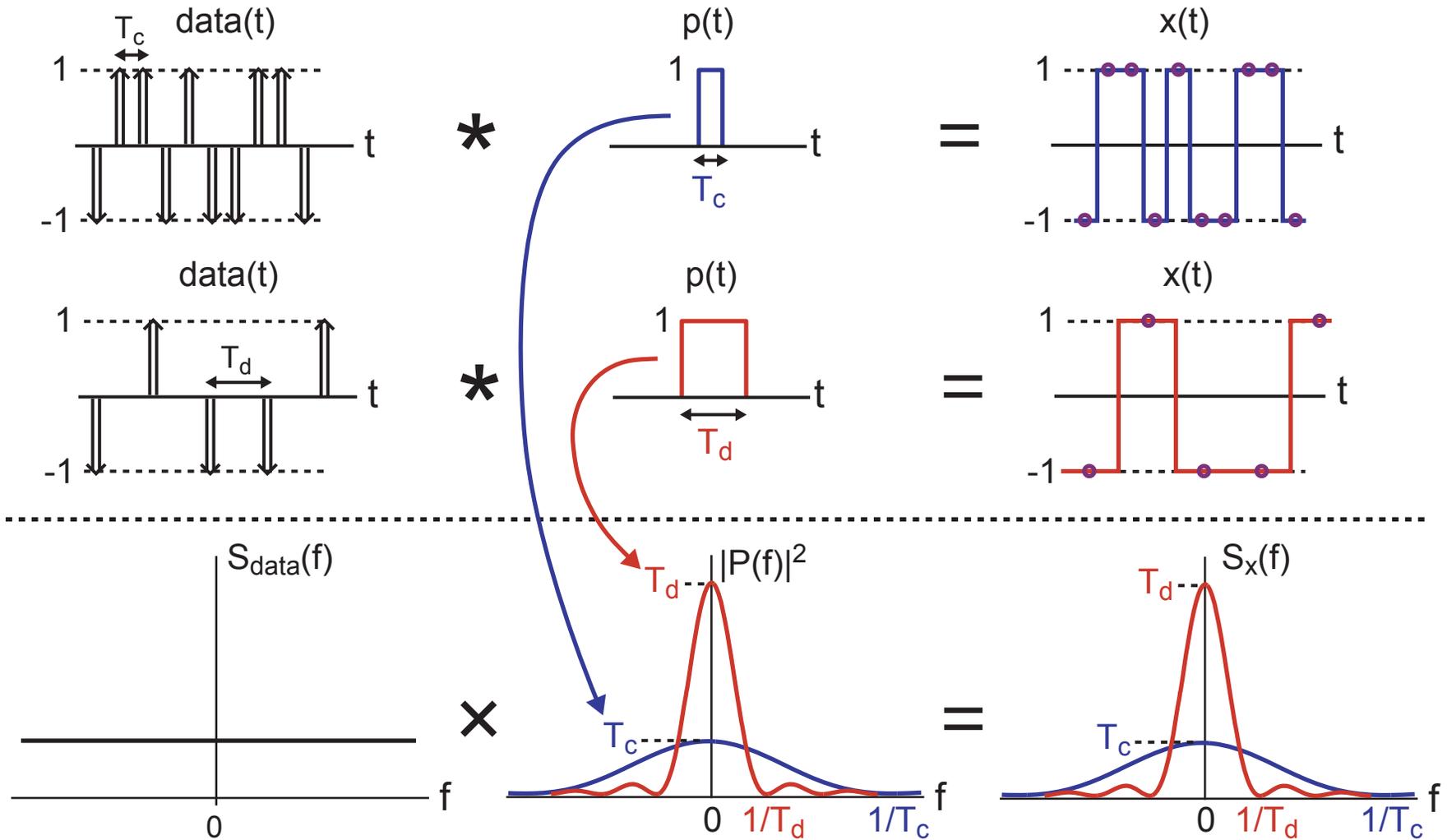
- Assign a unique code sequence to each transmitter
- Data values are encoded in transmitter output stream by varying the polarity of the transmitter code sequence
  - Each pulse in data sequence has period  $T_d$ 
    - Individual pulses represent binary data values
  - Each pulse in code sequence has period  $T_c$ 
    - Individual pulses are called “chips”

# Receiver Selects Desired Transmitter Through Its Code



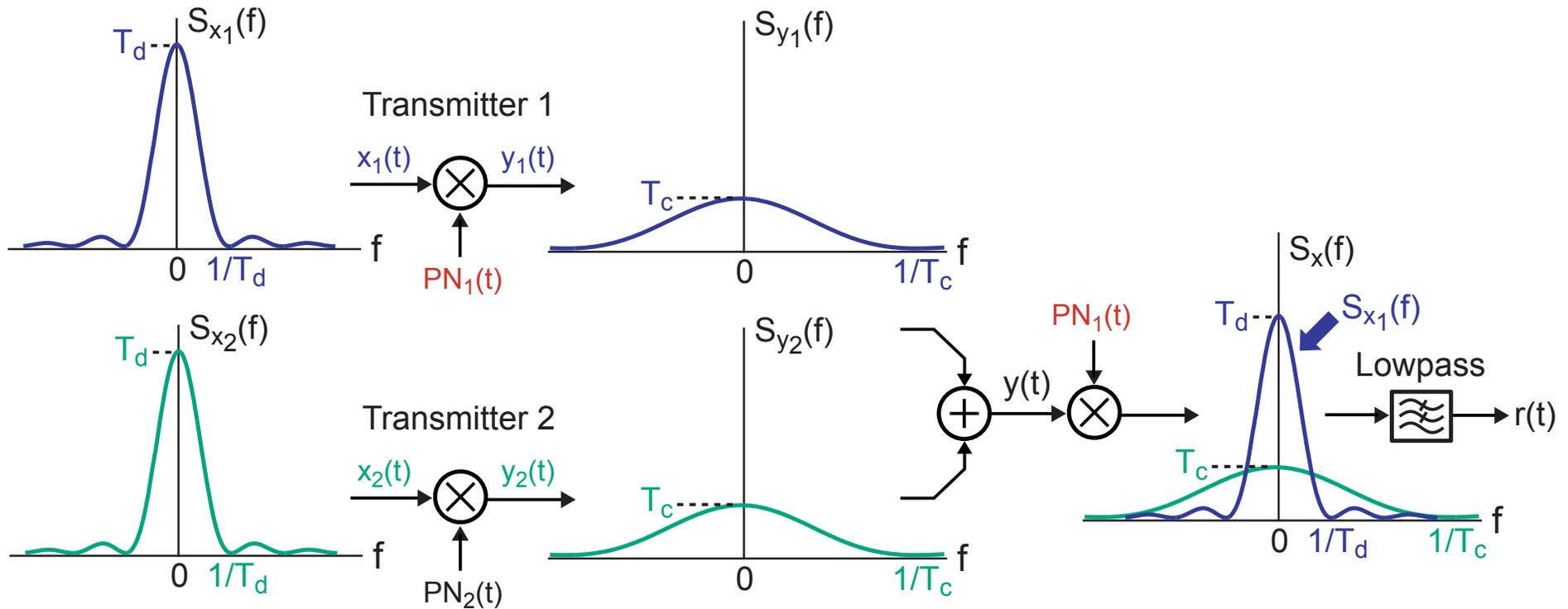
- Receiver correlates its input with desired transmitter code
  - Data from desired transmitter restored
  - Data from other transmitter(s) remains randomized

# Frequency Domain View of Chip Vs Data Sequences



- Data and chip sequences operate on different time scales
  - Associated spectra have different width and height

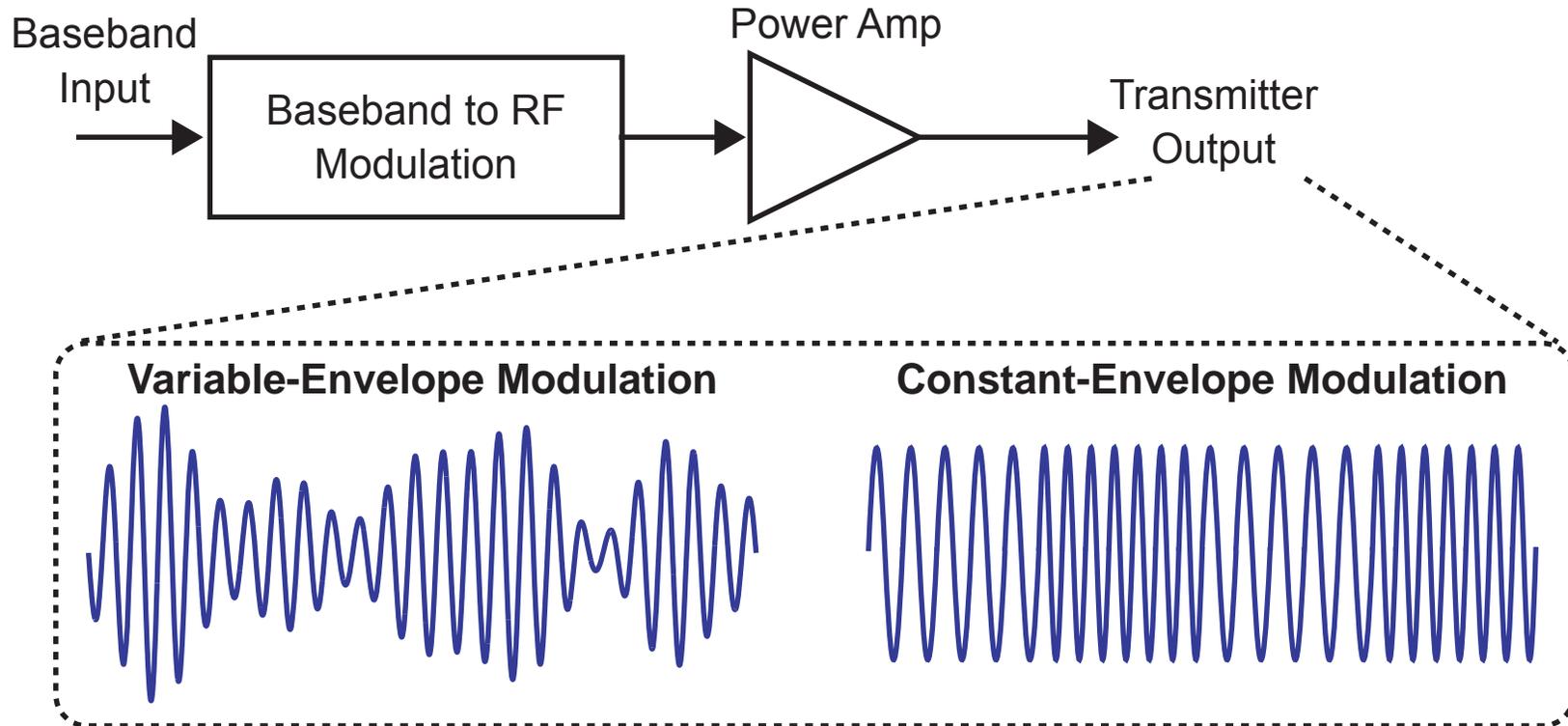
# Frequency Domain View of CDMA



- **CDMA transmitters broaden data spectra by encoding it onto chip sequences**
- **CDMA receiver correlates with desired transmitter code**
  - Spectra of desired channel reverts to its original width
  - Spectra of undesired channel remains broad
    - Can be “mostly” filtered out by lowpass

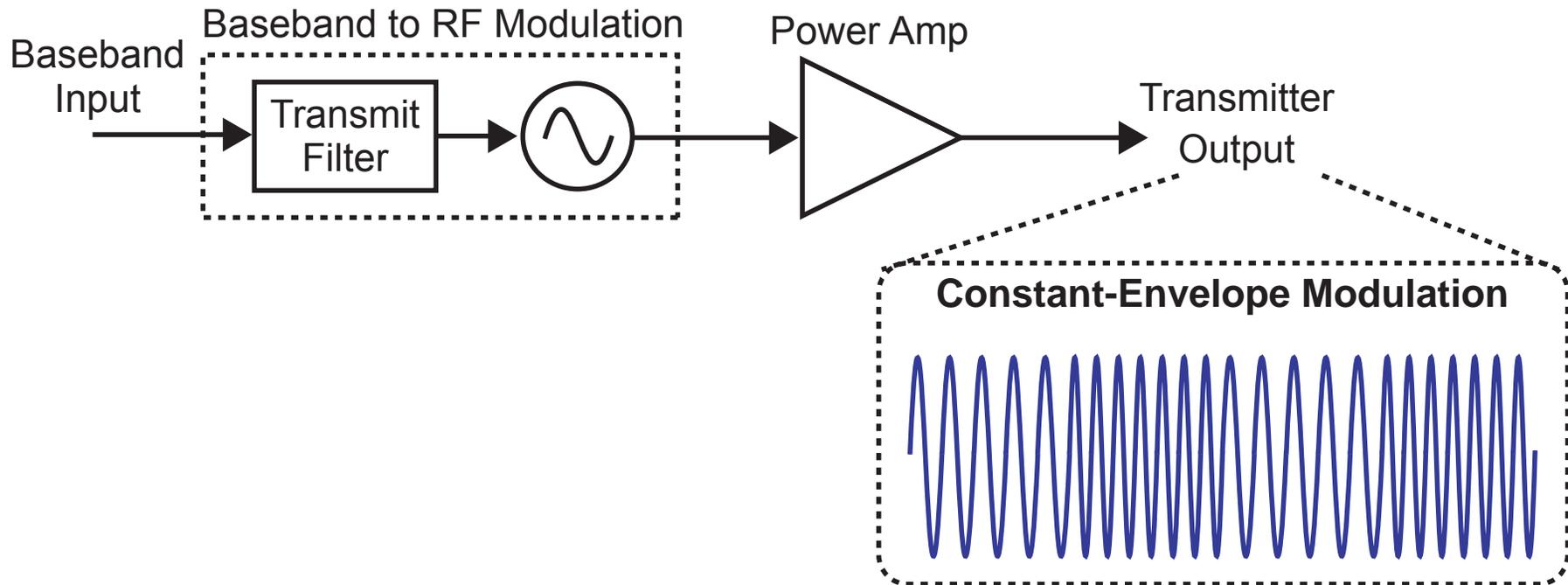
# ***Constant Envelope Modulation***

# The Issue of Power Efficiency



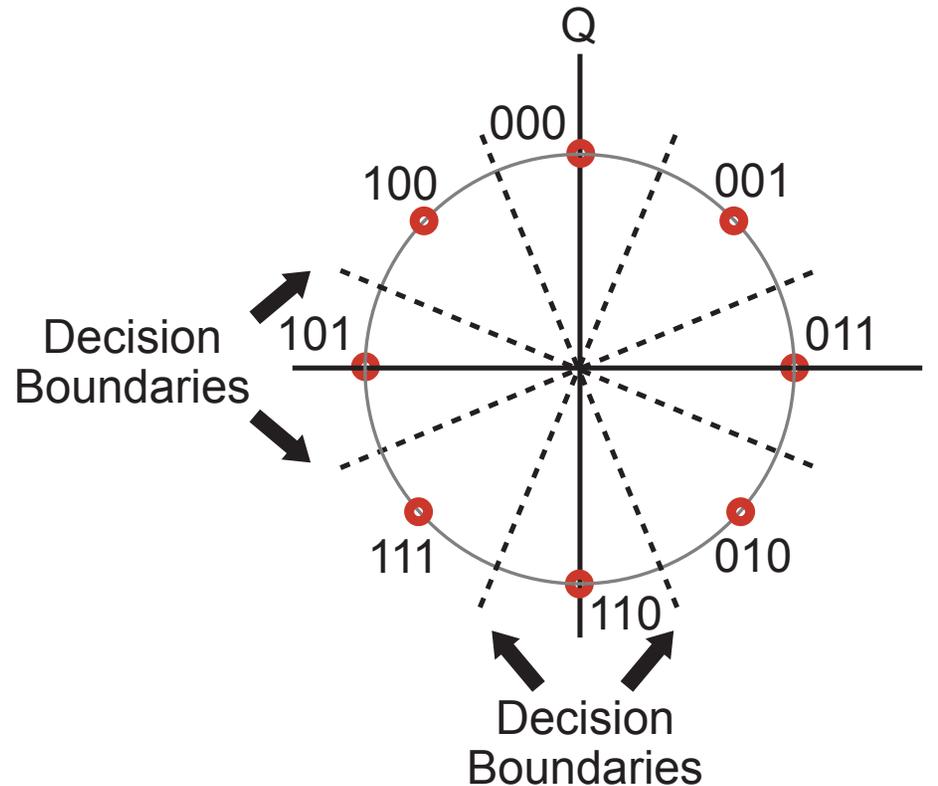
- **Power amp dominates power consumption for many wireless systems**
  - Linear power amps more power consuming than nonlinear ones
- **Constant-envelope modulation allows nonlinear power amp**
  - Lower power consumption possible

# Simplified Implementation for Constant-Envelope



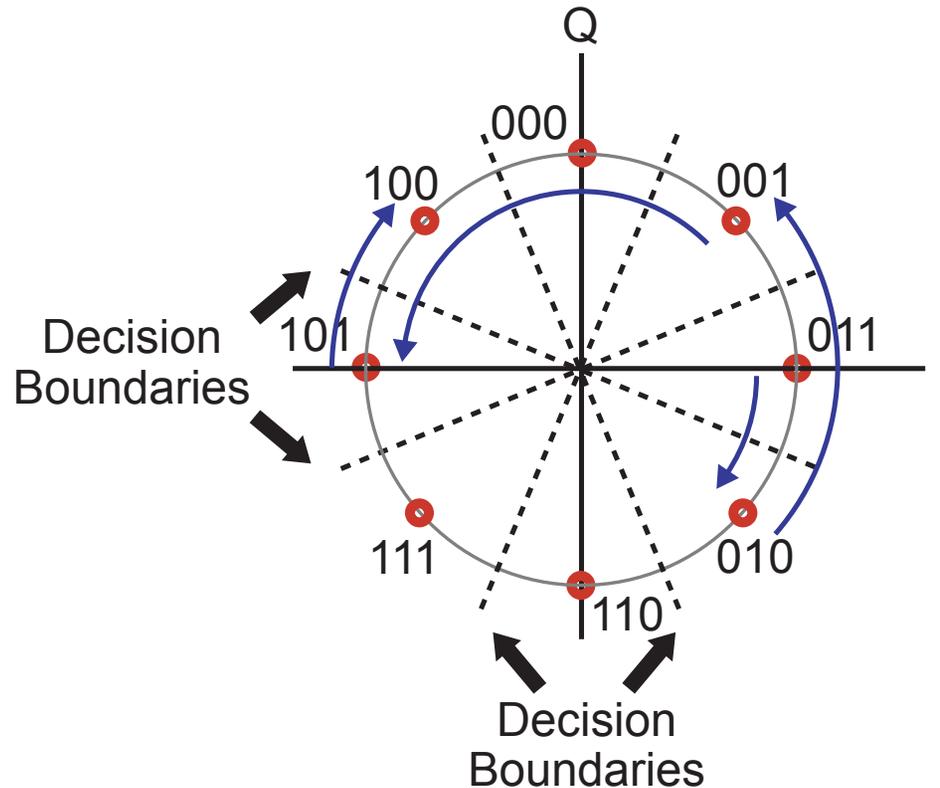
- **Constant-envelope modulation limited to phase and frequency modulation methods**
- **Can achieve both phase and frequency modulation with ideal VCO**
  - Use as model for analysis purposes
  - Note: phase modulation nearly impossible with practical VCO

# Example Constellation Diagram for Phase Modulation



- **I/Q signals must always combine such that amplitude remains constant**
  - Limits constellation points to a circle in I/Q plane
  - Draw decision boundaries about different phase regions

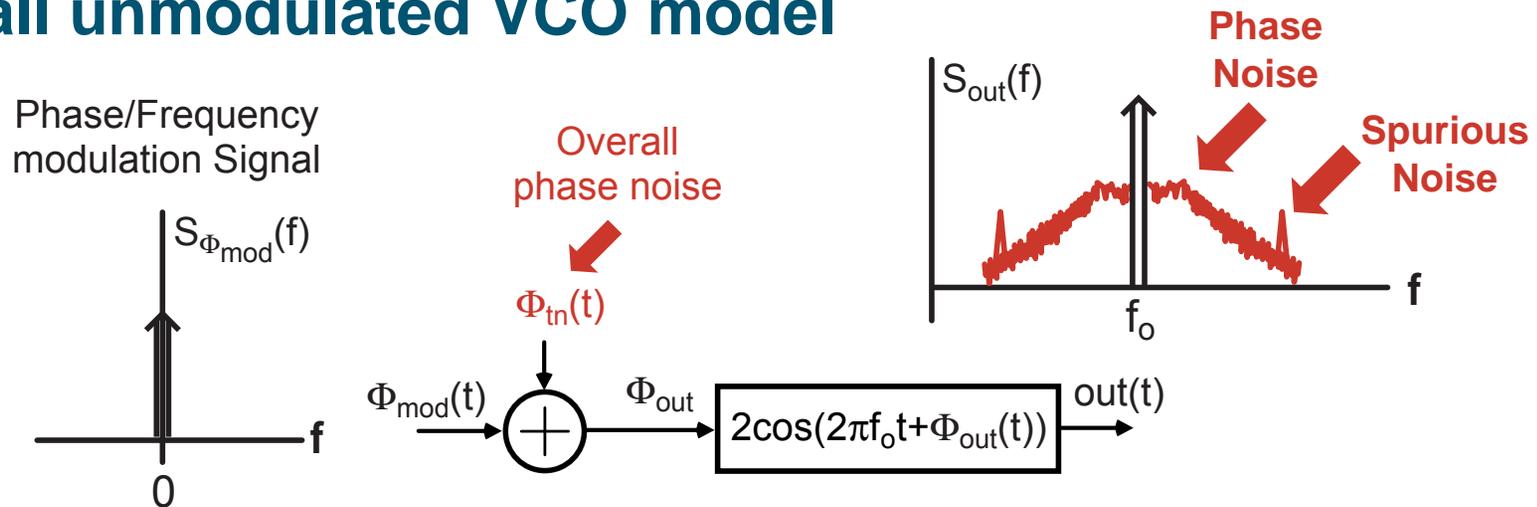
# Transitioning Between Constellation Points



- **Constant-envelope requirement forces transitions to allow occur along circle that constellation points sit on**
  - I/Q filtering cannot be done independently!
  - Significantly impacts output spectrum

# Modeling The Impact of VCO Phase Modulation

## ■ Recall unmodulated VCO model



## ■ Relationship between sine wave output and instantaneous phase

$$out(t) = 2 \cos(2\pi f_o t + \Phi_{out}(t))$$

## ■ Impact of modulation

- Same as examined with VCO/PLL modeling, but now we consider  $\Phi_{out}(t)$  as sum of *modulation* and noise components

$$\Phi_{out}(t) = \Phi_{mod}(t) + \Phi_{tn}(t)$$

# Relationship Between Sine Wave Output and its Phase

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- **Key relationship (note we have dropped the factor of 2)**

$$out(t) = \cos(2\pi f_{ot} + \Phi_{mod}(t) + \Phi_{tn}(t))$$

- **Using a familiar trigonometric identity**

$$out(t) = \cos(2\pi f_{ot} + \Phi_{mod}(t)) \cos(\Phi_{tn}(t)) \\ - \sin(2\pi f_{ot} + \Phi_{mod}(t)) \sin(\Phi_{tn}(t))$$

- **Approximation given  $|\Phi_{tn}(t)| \ll 1$**

$$out(t) \approx \cos(2\pi f_{ot} + \Phi_{mod}(t)) \\ - \sin(2\pi f_{ot} + \Phi_{mod}(t)) \Phi_{tn}(t)$$

# Relationship Between Output and Phase Spectra

- **Approximation from previous slide**

$$\begin{aligned} out(t) \approx & \cos(2\pi f_{ot} + \Phi_{mod}(t)) \\ & - \sin(2\pi f_{ot} + \Phi_{mod}(t))\Phi_{tn}(t) \end{aligned}$$

- **Autocorrelation (assume modulation signal independent of noise)**

$$\begin{aligned} R\{out(t)\} = & R\{\cos(2\pi f_{ot} + \Phi_{mod}(t))\} \\ & + R\{\sin(2\pi f_{ot} + \Phi_{mod}(t))\}R\{\Phi_{tn}(t)\} \end{aligned}$$

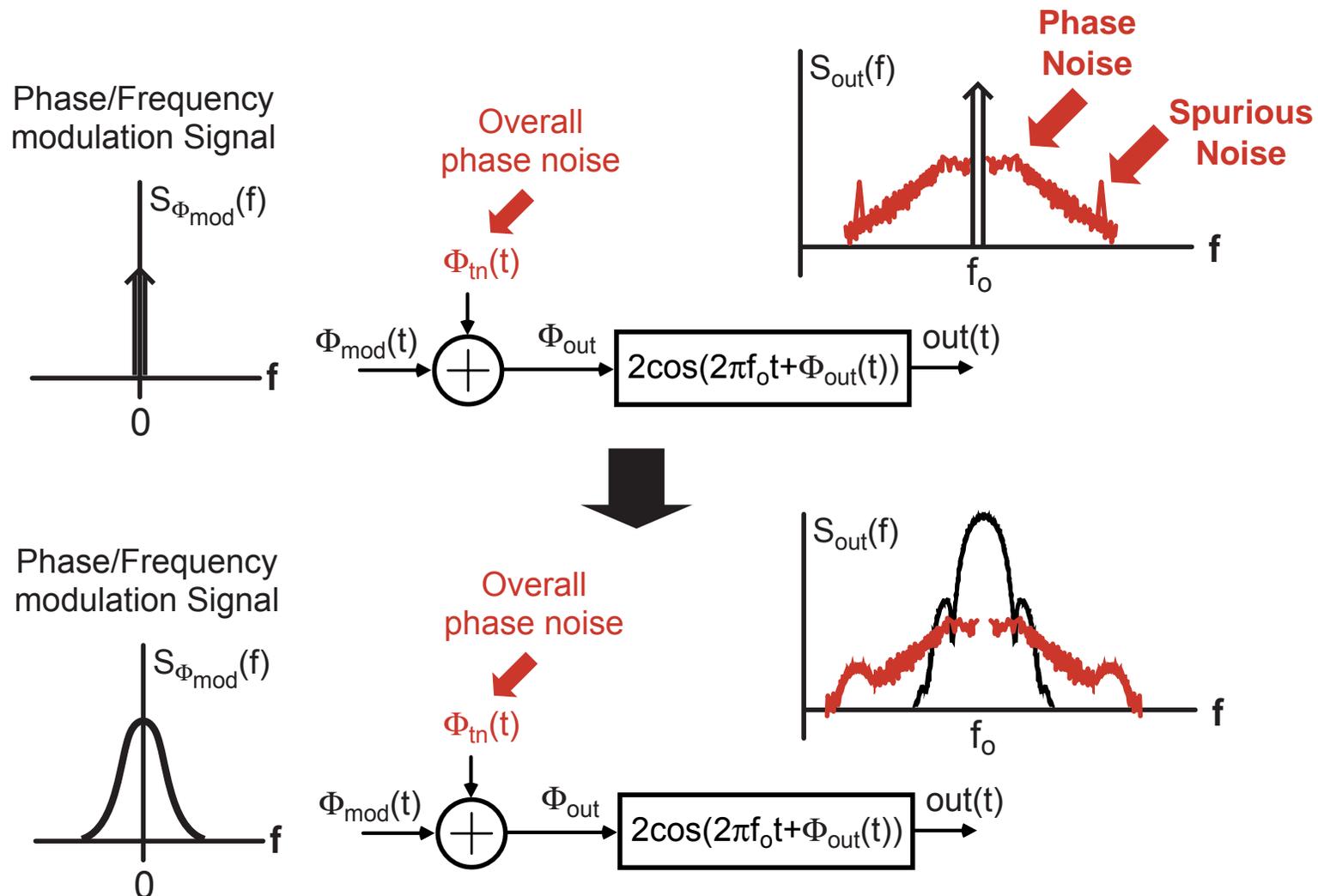
- **Output spectral density (Fourier transform of autocorrelation)**

$$S_{out}(f) = S_{out_m}(f) + S_{out_m}(f) * S_{\Phi_{tn}}(f)$$

- **Where \* represents convolution and**

$$S_{out_m}(f) = S\{\cos(2\pi f_{ot} + \Phi_{mod}(t))\}, \quad S_{\Phi_{tn}}(f) = S\{\Phi_{tn}(t)\}$$

# Impact of Phase Modulation on the Output Spectrum



- Spectrum of output is distorted compared to  $S_{\Phi_{\text{mod}}}(f)$
- Spurs converted to phase noise

# I/Q Model for Phase Modulation

$$S_{out_m}(f) = S\{\cos(2\pi f_o t + \Phi_{mod}(t))\}$$

- Applying trigonometric identity

$$S_{out}(t) = S\{\cos(2\pi f_o t) \cos(\Phi_{mod}(t)) - \sin(2\pi f_o t) \sin(\Phi_{mod}(t))\}$$

- Can view as I/Q modulation

- I/Q components are coupled and related nonlinearly to  $\Phi_{mod}(t)$

