

Signal Encoding

CSG 250

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Rajmohan Rajaraman

Reasons for Choosing Encoding Techniques

- ❑ Digital data, digital signal
 - o Equipment less complex and expensive than digital-to-analog modulation equipment
- ❑ Analog data, digital signal
 - o Permits use of modern digital transmission and switching equipment

Reasons for Choosing Encoding Techniques

- ❑ Digital data, analog signal
 - o Some transmission media will only propagate analog signals
 - o E.g., unguided media
- ❑ Analog data, analog signal
 - o Analog data in electrical form can be transmitted easily and cheaply
 - o Done with voice transmission over voice-grade lines

Signal Encoding Criteria

- ❑ What determines how successful a receiver will be in interpreting an incoming signal?
 - o Signal-to-noise ratio
 - o Data rate
 - o Bandwidth
- ❑ An increase in data rate increases bit error rate
- ❑ An increase in SNR decreases bit error rate
- ❑ An increase in bandwidth allows an increase in data rate

Comparing Encoding Schemes

❑ Signal spectrum

- o With lack of high-frequency components, less bandwidth required
 - Spectral efficiency (also called bandwidth efficiency)
- o With no dc component, ac coupling via transformer possible
- o Transfer function of a channel is worse near band edges

❑ Clocking

- o Ease of determining beginning and end of each bit position

Comparing Encoding Schemes

- ❑ Signal interference and noise immunity
 - Performance in the presence of noise
 - Power efficiency
- ❑ Cost and complexity
 - The higher the signal rate to achieve a given data rate, the greater the cost

Digital Data to Analog Signals

- ❑ Amplitude-shift keying (ASK)
 - o Amplitude difference of carrier frequency
- ❑ Frequency-shift keying (FSK)
 - o Frequency difference near carrier frequency
- ❑ Phase-shift keying (PSK)
 - o Phase of carrier signal shifted

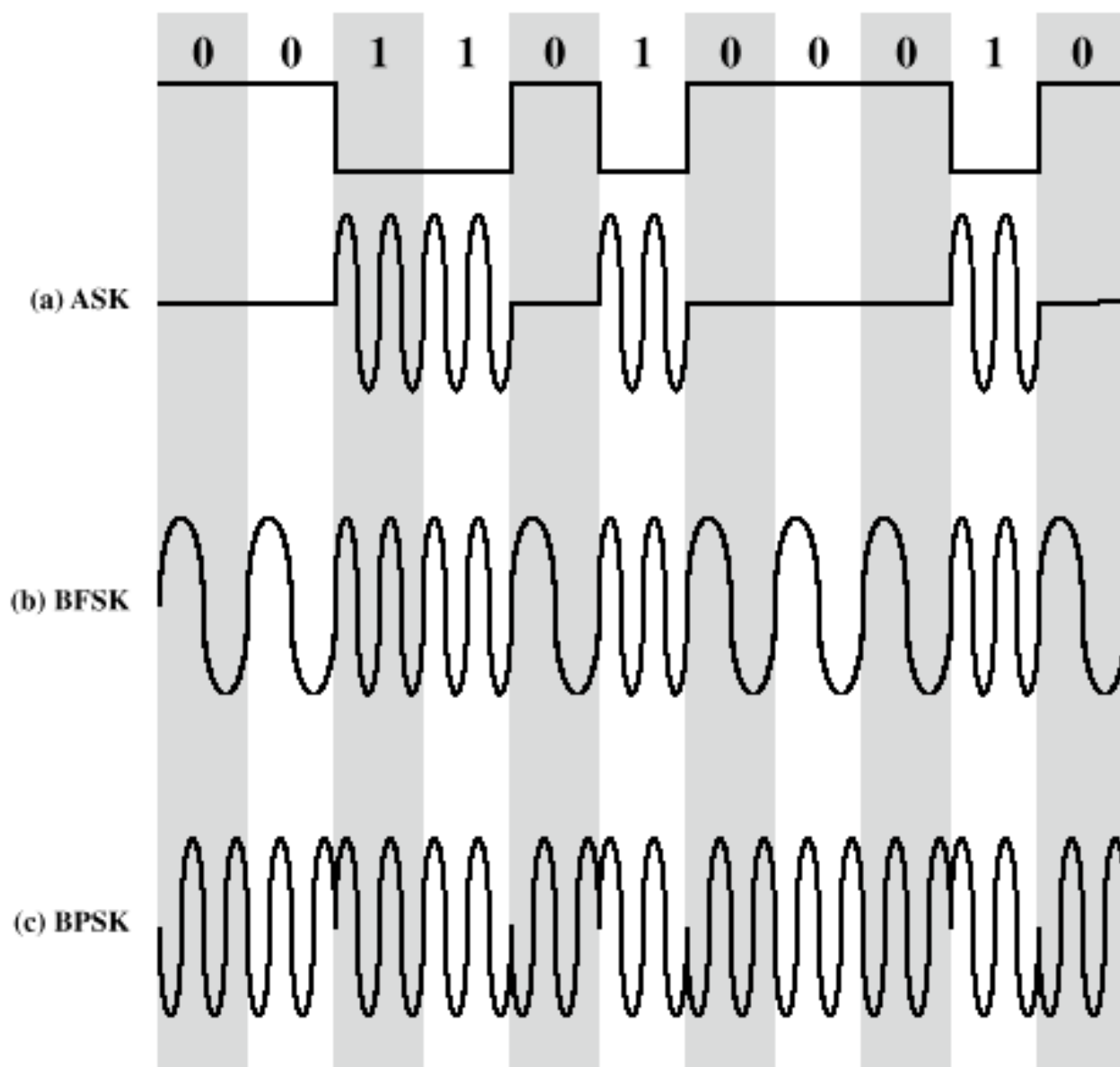


Figure 6.2 Modulation of Analog Signals for Digital Data

Amplitude-Shift Keying

- ❑ One binary digit represented by presence of carrier, at constant amplitude
- ❑ Other binary digit represented by absence of carrier

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

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

Amplitude-Shift Keying

- ❑ Relatively inexpensive to implement
- ❑ Inefficient modulation technique since it is much more susceptible to noise
 - o Atmospheric and impulse noises tend to cause rapid fluctuations in amplitude
- ❑ Linear modulation technique
 - o Good spectral efficiency
 - o Low power efficiency
- ❑ Used for carrying digital data over optical fiber

Binary Frequency-Shift Keying (BFSK)

- ❑ Two binary digits represented by two different frequencies near the carrier frequency

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

- where f_1 and f_2 are offset from carrier frequency f_c by equal but opposite amounts

Frequency-Shift Keying (FSK)

- ❑ Less susceptible to error than ASK
- ❑ Used for high-frequency (3 to 30 MHz) radio transmission
- ❑ Can be used at higher frequencies on LANs that use coaxial cable
- ❑ Amplitude of the carrier wave is constant
 - o Power-efficient

Multiple Frequency-Shift Keying (MFSK)

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

$$s_i(t) = A \cos 2\pi f_i t \quad 1 \leq i \leq M$$

- $f_i = f_c + (2i - 1 - M)f_d$
- f_c = the carrier frequency
- f_d = the difference frequency
- M = number of different signal elements = 2^L
- L = number of bits per signal element

Multiple Frequency-Shift Keying (MFSK)

- ❑ To match data rate of input bit stream, each output signal element is held for:

$$T_s = LT \text{ seconds}$$

- where T is the bit period (data rate = $1/T$)

- ❑ So, one signal element encodes L bits

Multiple Frequency-Shift Keying (MFSK)

□ Total bandwidth required

$$2Mf_d$$

□ Minimum frequency separation required

$$2f_d = 1/T_s$$

□ Therefore, modulator requires a bandwidth of

$$W_d = 2L/LT = M/T_s$$

Multiple Frequency-Shift Keying (MFSK)

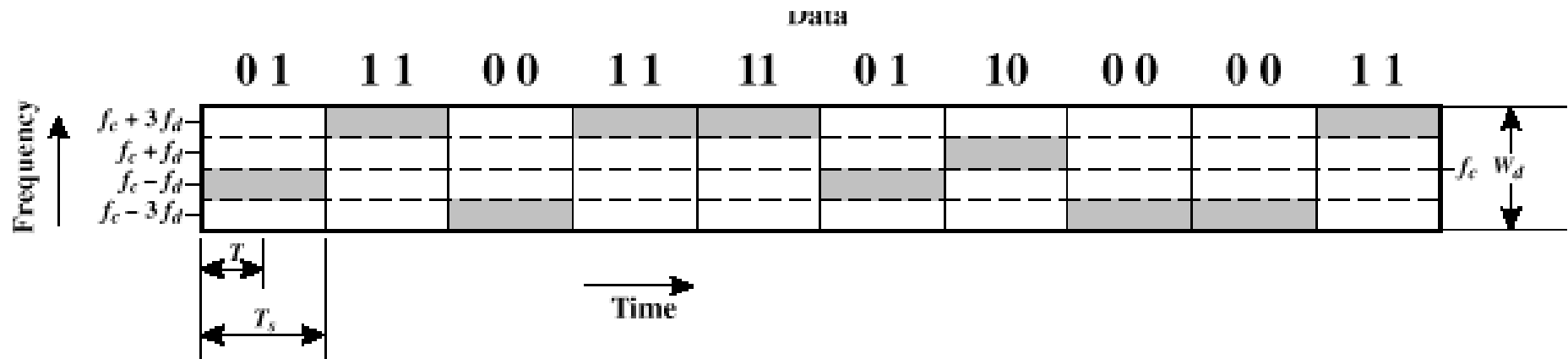


Figure 6.4 MFSK Frequency Use ($M = 4$)

Phase-Shift Keying (PSK)

□ Two-level PSK (BPSK)

- o Uses two phases to represent binary digits

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

- o Linear modulation technique

Phase-Shift Keying (PSK)

□ Differential PSK (DPSK)

- o Phase shift with reference to previous bit
 - Binary 0 – signal burst of same phase as previous signal burst
 - Binary 1 – signal burst of opposite phase to previous signal burst

Phase-Shift Keying (PSK)

□ Four-level PSK (QPSK)

- o Each element represents more than one bit

$$s(t) = \begin{cases} A \cos\left(2\pi f_c t + \frac{\pi}{4}\right) & 11 \\ A \cos\left(2\pi f_c t + \frac{3\pi}{4}\right) & 01 \\ A \cos\left(2\pi f_c t - \frac{3\pi}{4}\right) & 00 \\ A \cos\left(2\pi f_c t - \frac{\pi}{4}\right) & 10 \end{cases}$$

Phase-Shift Keying (PSK)

❑ Multilevel PSK

- o Using multiple phase angles with each angle having more than one amplitude, multiple signals elements can be achieved

$$D = \frac{R}{L} = \frac{R}{\log_2 M}$$

- D = modulation rate, baud
- R = data rate, bps
- M = number of different signal elements = 2^L
- L = number of bits per signal element

Performance

□ Bandwidth of modulated signal (B_T)

- ASK, PSK $B_T = (1+r)R$
- FSK $B_T = 2DF + (1+r)R$

- R = bit rate
- $0 < r < 1$; related to how signal is filtered
- $DF = f_2 - f_c = f_c - f_1$

Performance

□ Bandwidth of modulated signal (B_T)

○ MPSK
$$B_T = \left(\frac{1+r}{L} \right) R = \left(\frac{1+r}{\log_2 M} \right) R$$

○ MFSK
$$B_T = \left(\frac{(1+r)M}{\log_2 M} \right) R$$

- L = number of bits encoded per signal element
- M = number of different signal elements

Quadrature Amplitude Modulation

- QAM is a combination of ASK and PSK
 - o Two different signals sent simultaneously on the same carrier frequency

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

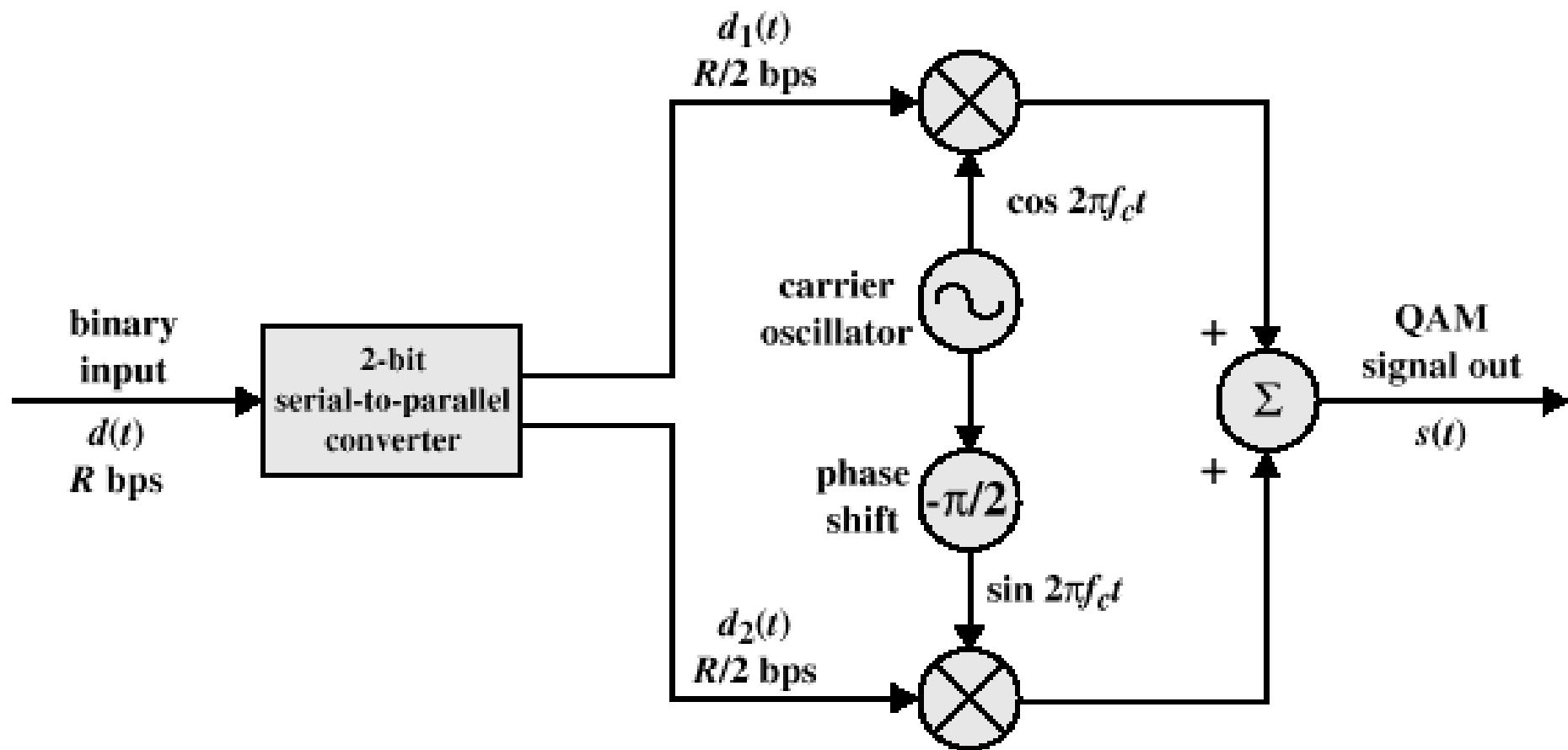


Figure 6.10 QAM Modulator

Analog Data to Analog Signal

❑ Modulation of digital data

- o When only analog transmission facilities are available, digital to analog conversion required

❑ Modulation of analog data

- o A higher frequency may be needed for effective transmission
- o Modulation permits frequency division multiplexing

Modulation Techniques

- ❑ Amplitude modulation (AM)
- ❑ Angle modulation
 - o Frequency modulation (FM)
 - o Phase modulation (PM)

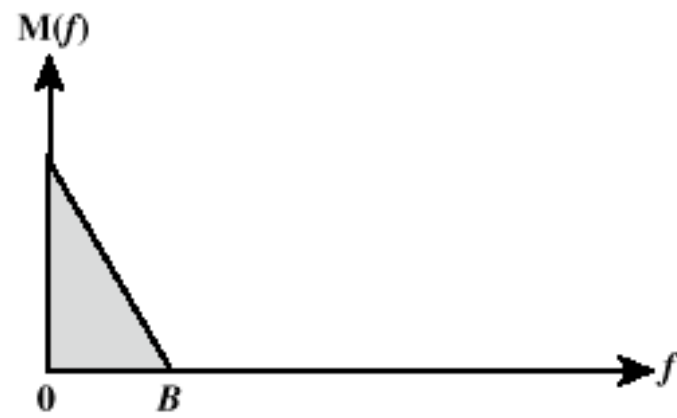
Amplitude Modulation

□ Amplitude Modulation

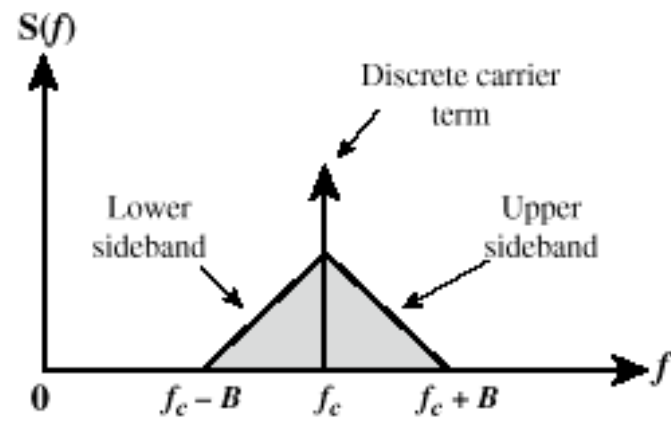
$$s(t) = [1 + n_a x(t)] \cos 2\pi f_c t$$

- $\cos 2\pi f_c t$ = carrier
- $x(t)$ = input signal
- n_a = modulation index (< 1)
 - Ratio of amplitude of input signal to carrier

o Double sideband transmitted carrier (DSBTC)



(a) Spectrum of modulating signal



(b) Spectrum of AM signal with carrier at f_c

Figure 6.12 Spectrum of an AM Signal

Amplitude Modulation

□ Transmitted power

$$P_t = P_c \left(1 + \frac{n_a^2}{2} \right)$$

- P_t = total transmitted power in $s(t)$
- P_c = transmitted power in carrier

Single Sideband (SSB)

- ❑ Variant of AM is single sideband (SSB)
 - o Sends only one sideband
 - o Eliminates other sideband and carrier
- ❑ Advantages
 - o Only half the bandwidth is required
 - o Less power is required
- ❑ Disadvantages
 - o Poor performance in fading channels

Angle Modulation

□ Angle modulation

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

□ Phase modulation

o Phase is proportional to modulating signal

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

- n_p = phase modulation index

Angle Modulation

□ Frequency modulation

- o Derivative of the phase is proportional to modulating signal

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

- n_f = frequency modulation index

Angle Modulation

- ❑ Compared to AM, FM and PM result in a signal whose bandwidth:
 - o is also centered at f_c
 - o but has a magnitude that is much different
- ❑ Thus, FM and PM require greater bandwidth than AM

Angle Modulation

□ Carson's rule

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

where

$$\beta = \begin{cases} n_p A_m & \text{for PM} \\ \frac{\Delta F}{B} = \frac{n_f A_m}{2\pi B} & \text{for FM} \end{cases}$$

□ The formula for FM becomes

$$B_T = 2\Delta F + 2B$$

Analog Data to Digital Signal

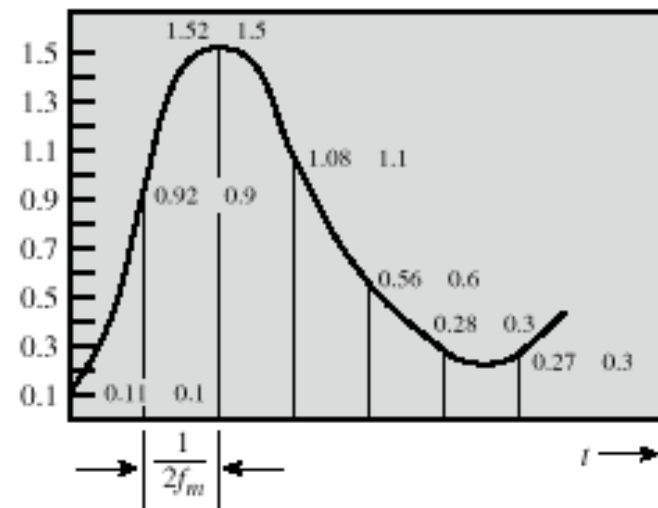
- ❑ Digitization: Often analog data are converted to digital form
- ❑ Once analog data have been converted to digital signals, the digital data:
 - o can be transmitted using NRZ-L
 - o can be encoded as a digital signal using a code other than NRZ-L
 - o can be converted to an analog signal, using previously discussed techniques

Analog data to digital signal

- ❑ Pulse code modulation (PCM)
- ❑ Delta modulation (DM)

Pulse Code Modulation

- ❑ Based on the sampling theorem
- ❑ Each analog sample is assigned a binary code
 - o Analog samples are referred to as pulse amplitude modulation (PAM) samples
- ❑ The digital signal consists of block of n bits, where each n -bit number is the amplitude of a PCM pulse



(a)

Digit	Binary Equivalent	PCM waveform
0	0000	High level
1	0001	High level, then low level
2	0010	High level, then low level, then high level
3	0011	High level, then low level, then high level, then low level
4	0100	High level, then low level, then high level, then low level, then high level
5	0101	High level, then low level, then high level, then low level, then high level, then low level
6	0110	High level, then low level, then high level, then low level, then high level, then low level, then high level
7	0111	High level, then low level, then high level, then low level, then high level, then low level, then high level, then low level

Digit	Binary Equivalent	PCM waveform
8	1000	Low level, then high level
9	1001	Low level, then high level, then low level
10	1010	Low level, then high level, then low level, then high level
11	1011	Low level, then high level, then low level, then high level, then low level
12	1100	Low level, then high level, then low level, then high level, then low level, then high level
13	1101	Low level, then high level, then low level, then high level, then low level, then high level, then low level
14	1110	Low level, then high level, then low level, then high level, then low level, then high level, then low level, then high level
15	1111	Low level, then high level, then low level, then high level, then low level, then high level, then low level, then high level, then low level

(b)

Figure 6.15 Pulse-Code Modulation

Pulse Code Modulation

- ❑ By quantizing the PAM pulse, original signal is only approximated
- ❑ Leads to quantizing noise
- ❑ Signal-to-noise ratio for quantizing noise

$$\text{SNR}_{\text{dB}} = 20 \log 2^n + 1.76 \text{ dB} = 6.02n + 1.76 \text{ dB}$$

- ❑ Thus, each additional bit increases SNR by 6 dB, or a factor of 4

Delta Modulation

- ❑ Analog input is approximated by staircase function
 - o Moves up or down by one quantization level (δ) at each sampling interval
- ❑ The bit stream approximates derivative of analog signal (rather than amplitude)
 - o 1 is generated if function goes up
 - o 0 otherwise

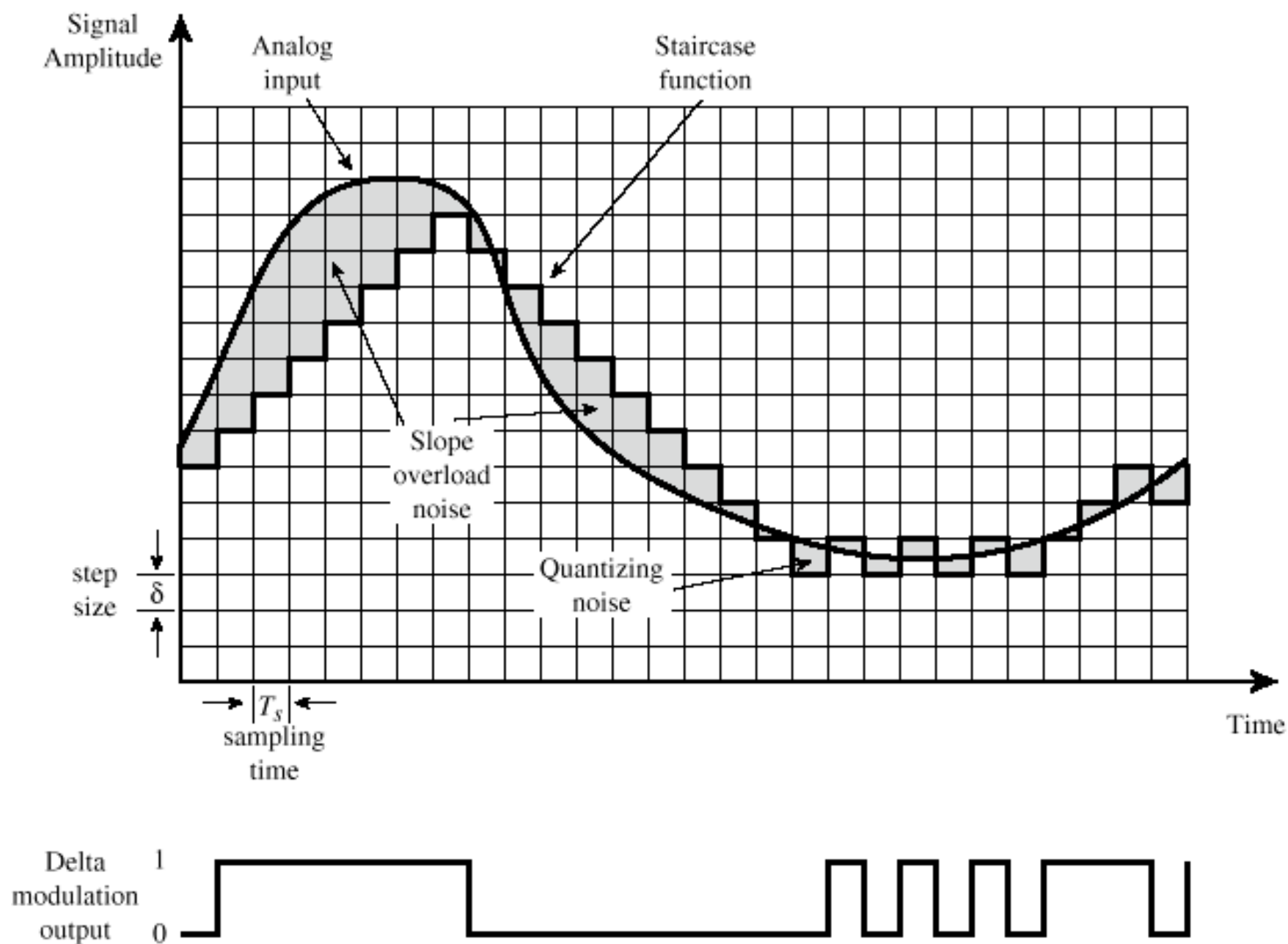


Figure 6.18 Example of Delta Modulation

Delta Modulation

- ❑ Two important parameters
 - o Size of step assigned to each binary digit (δ)
 - o Sampling rate
- ❑ Accuracy improved by increasing sampling rate
 - o However, this increases the data rate
- ❑ Advantage of DM over PCM is the simplicity of its implementation