

Introduction to Communications and IOT

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1 Introduction

1.1 What a Signal is

- It's a Quantitative Representation of Information
- The most basic representation of a signal is in the form of a graph (t on X-axis and $f(t)$ on Y-axis)

1.2 Types of Communication

1.2.1 Wired / Wireless

1. Wired:

- Via Coaxial cables or Fibre-Optic Cables

2. Wireless:

- Via Electromagnetic waves or rays

1.2.2 Unidirectional / Bidirectional

1. Simplex:

- One-way
- Eg. Broadcast, FM

2. Half-Duplex:

- Two-way, but only one direction at a time
- Eg. walkie-talkie

3. Duplex:

- Two-way, and both directions are simultaneously possible

1.2.3 Analogue / Digital

1. Analog:

- Both t and $f(t)$ are continuous

2. Digital:

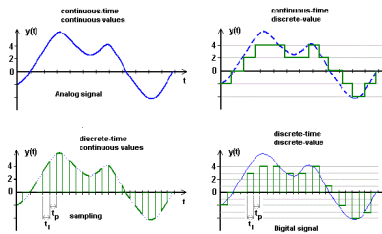
- Both t and $f(t)$ are discrete

3. Continuous-Time:

- t is continuous, but $f(t)$ is discrete

4. Discrete-Time:

- t is discrete and $f(t)$ is continuous



1.2.4 Transmission Technique

Before knowing this, you must know what bandwidth is:

Bandwidth:

- Range of frequencies a signal operates.
- In other words:

$$\text{Bandwidth} = (\text{Highest Frequency of the Wave/Signal}) - (\text{Lowest Frequency of the Wave/Signal})$$

- *Fast, irregular variations in frequency \propto Bandwidth*

Aspect	Baseband	Broadband
Signal Transmission	Single signal over the medium	Multiple signals transmitted simultaneously
Frequency Range	Narrower (few MHz)	Wider (MHz to GHz range)
Bandwidth	Low, used by one signal only	High, used by multiple signals at once
Transmission Method	No modulation, direct signal transmission	Modulation and multiplexing used
Applications	Local area networks (LANs)	Internet, TV, multimedia, long-distance communication

2 Characteristics of a Signal

2.1 Standard Notation of a Standard Sinusoidal Signal

- For a graph where X-axis = θ and Y-axis = $\sin(\theta)$, the measure of input is θ .
- To actually measure a signal against time, X-axis = t (time) and Y-axis = $\sin(\theta)$
- Here's what we do for that: $\sin(\theta + \phi) = \sin(\omega t + \phi)$

2.2 Angular Frequency

- ω = Angular Frequency/Velocity
- $= \frac{\text{Angle}}{\text{Time}}$
- $= \frac{2\pi}{T}$

2.3 Frequency

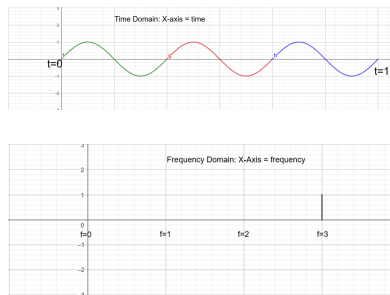
- $f = \frac{1}{T}$
- So, $\omega = \frac{2\pi}{T}$ can also be written as $\omega = 2\pi f$

2.4 Phase

- θ or ωt is the X-coordinate.
- Phase ϕ is added to the X-coordinate, so the wave shifts to the left by ϕ
- In a way, it's an offset to a wave. (Check <https://www.geogebra.org/m/rzzqtx6q> for some Visualization)
- For example, if a sine wave is offset by $\frac{1}{6}th$ of a cycle, then the phase would be $\frac{1}{6} * 360^\circ \Rightarrow \text{Phase} = 60^\circ$

3 Time Domain vs Frequency Domain

In both cases, Y-Axis = *Amplitude*. Only X-Axis changes



4 Odd Signals vs Even Signals

- **Odd Signals/Functions:** $y(-x) = -y(x)$
- **Even Signals/Functions:** $y(-x) = y(x)$
- Even functions are called even probably because of the exponents they contain (even numbers). Hence even if you input negative numbers, the even exponents turn them into positive numbers. It's probably the same thing with odd functions too (odd exponents preserve sign, so if you input negative numbers, the output is negative too)
- Even functions show reflectional symmetry
 - Symmetrical about the y-axis i.e. $y(-x)$ is just the mirror image of $y(x)$ about y-axis
 - In other words, you only flip the signs of the x-coordinates
- Odd functions show rotational symmetry
 - you rotate the $y(x)$ about the origin to get $y(-x)$.
 - In other words, you flip the signs of both x and y coordinates

5 Some Common Signals

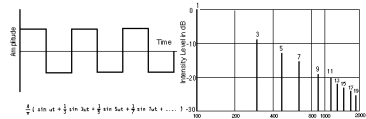
- The GeoGebra plots were made with the help of a simple Python program. I made a string that consists of the first 50 or 100 terms of each of the equations and fed that into GeoGebra.
- For example, the triangle wave sequence was given by:

```
str = f'cos(1)'
for i in range(3,100,2):
    str += f'+cos({i}*x )/{i*i} '
print(str)
```

5.1 Square Wave

- Given by

$$\frac{4}{\pi}(\sin(\omega t) + \frac{\sin(3 * \omega t)}{3} + \frac{\sin(5 * \omega t)}{5} + \frac{\sin(7 * \omega t)}{7} + \dots)$$

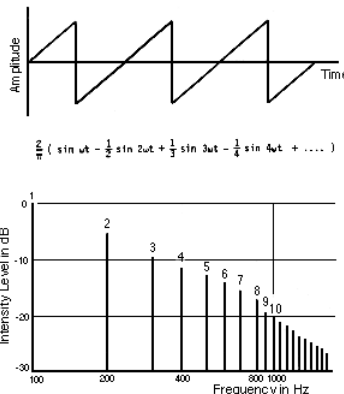


- Click [here](#) to view in GeoGebra
- To make something like this in MATLAB
 - Add as many “Sine Wave” Blocks from Simulink/Sources, and the amplitudes of each of them will be $1, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{5}, \frac{1}{7}$, etc.
 - Connect them all to an “Add” block, and connect that block to a “Time Scope”

5.2 Sawtooth Wave

- Given by

$$\frac{2}{\pi}(\sin(\omega t) - \frac{\sin(2 * \omega t)}{2} + \frac{\sin(3 * \omega t)}{3} - \frac{\sin(4 * \omega t)}{4} + \frac{\sin(5 * \omega t)}{5} - \frac{\sin(6 * \omega t)}{6} + \frac{\sin(7 * \omega t)}{7} + \dots)$$

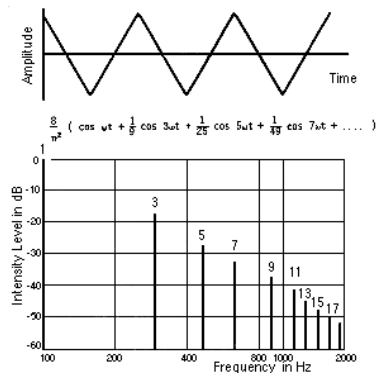


- Click [here](#) to view in GeoGebra

5.3 Triangle Wave

- Given by

$$\frac{8}{\pi^2}(\cos(\omega t) + \frac{\cos(3 * \omega t)}{3^2} + \frac{\cos(5 * \omega t)}{5^2} + \frac{\cos(7 * \omega t)}{7^2} + \dots)$$



- [Click here to view in GeoGebra](#)

6 Energy and Power of a Signal

6.1 Prerequisite knowledge

- Let's assume we have a sinusoidal voltage and current
- $P = \frac{V^2}{R} = I^2 R$
- This means that the power of a signal is some **constant** times **voltage squared** or **current squared**
- Let us have a general signal $x(t)$ which can either be sinusoidal voltage or sinusoidal current

$$x(t) = V \text{ or } x(t) = I$$

- So Instantaneous Power = $P = (x(t))^2$

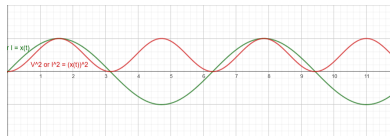


Figure 1: Green Curve showing V or I and the Red Curve showing P

6.2 Energy

- Energy = Power * time
- But the above formula is only applicable for discrete values.
- So the energy of a signal would be the area of the Power-Time Graph

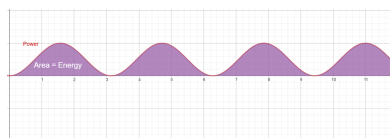


Figure 2: Area under the Red Curve

$$Energy = \int P dt = \int_{-\frac{T}{2}}^{\frac{T}{2}} (x(t))^2 dt$$

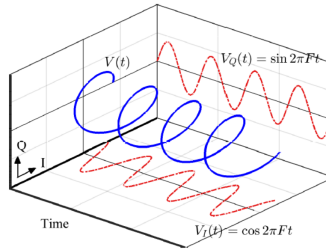
- The limits are actually from 0 to T , but having them from $-\frac{T}{2}$ to $\frac{T}{2}$ simplifies calculations.

6.3 Power

- Power is just $\frac{Energy}{Time}$.
- $Power = \frac{\int_{-\frac{T}{2}}^{\frac{T}{2}} (x(t))^2 dt}{T}$

7 Complex Sinusoids

- **In phase:** Two signals are said to be in phase if they have phase difference 0
- **Quadrature:** Two signals are said to be in quadrature if they have a phase difference 90
- A complex sinusoid is given as $\cos(\theta) + j\sin(\theta)$
- Now $\cos(\theta)$ is taken to be on the *Inphase – Time* plane, and $\sin(\theta)$ is taken to be on the *Quadrature – Time* plane
- This results in a helical structure.



- Number of rotations about the *time* axis, per unit time, is the frequency of the complex sinusoid.
- Anti-Clockwise rotation means Positive frequency, so clockwise rotation means negative frequency

8 Sampling

8.1 What it is

- Converting a continuous time signal into a discrete time signal by taking samples of the signals at discrete time intervals
- Say we have a continuous sinusoidal signal:

$$s(t) = A\cos(2\pi Ft + \phi)$$

- In its discrete form, instead of a parameter t , you'd have parameters n and T_s :

$$s[n] = A\cos(2\pi F n T_s + \phi)$$

or

$$s[n] = A\cos(2\pi F \frac{n}{F_s} + \phi)$$

Here, $T_s = \text{SamplingTimePeriod}$ and $F_s = \text{SamplingFrequency}$

8.2 Sampling Theorem or Nyquist Theorem

- F_s is the number of samples taken per second i.e. the **sampling rate**. Likewise, T_s is the time taken to record one sample
- If F_s is too less, you won't be able to capture the wave correctly. You'll end up over-simplifying the wave.
- This is called **aliasing**, and it's where high-frequency components appear as low-frequency components because of insufficient sampling rate.
- Nyquist Theorem states that:

$$F_s \geq 2B$$

where B is the highest bandwidth present in the signal

Another way of saying this would be:

$$B \leq \frac{F_s}{2}$$

9 Filters

9.1 Analog Filters

1. Low Pass Filters:

- Keeps frequencies below a cutoff, and cuts off everything after it
- It's used for smoothening images
- Helps removing aliasing effect, as instead of increasing sampling frequency (it has to be at least double the highest frequency), you could cut off all the higher frequencies and then sample.

2. High Pass Filters:

- Keeps frequencies after a cutoff, and cuts off everything below it
- It's used for sharpening images
- Helps in removing noise (blurriness, caused due to low frequency signals)

3. Band Pass Filters: Keeps frequencies inside a range (above a lower cutoff, and below a higher cutoff), and cuts off everything outside

4. Band Reject/Stop Filters: Keeps frequencies outside a range, and cuts off everything inside

9.2 Digital Filters

- They're mathematical algorithms used on discrete time signals
- Before knowing this, you must know about impulse signals:
 - **Impulse Signal** $\delta[n]$:
 - $\delta[n] = 1$ if $n = 0$, and $\delta[n] = 0$ for any other value of n
 - This function is used for representing frequencies in digital signals
 - **Impulse Response** $h[n]$: Output of a system, if the input is an impulse signal.

9.2.1 Finite Impulse Response (FIR)

1. What it is

- Output depends only on current and past input
- Output does NOT depend on past output

$$y[n] = \sum_{i=0}^M b_i x[n-i]$$

where $y[n]$ = output of filter, $x[n]$ = input signal, b_i = filter coefficients, M = filter order = number of taps

- Eg. $y[n] = 0.25x[n] + 0.5x[n-1] + 0.25x[n-2]$
 - This is called a 3-tap FIR Filter
 - The impulse response for this filter would be
 - * $h[n] = [y[0], y[1], y[2], y[3], \dots, y[n]]$
 - * $h[n] = [0.25, 0.5, 0.25, 0, 0, 0, \dots]$

2. Characteristics

- Stable (Phase response is linear, and can be good for image/audio processing)
- Phase Accurate
- Computationally expensive
- Impulse response decays to 0

9.2.2 Infinite Impulse Response (IIR)

1. What is is

- Output depends on past input AND past output i.e. it uses **feedback**.

$$y[n] = \sum_{i=0}^N a_i y[n-i] + \sum_{i=0}^M b_i x[n-i]$$

Here, it's just whatever FIR was, but you're also doing the same thing for the previous **outputs** too.

2. Characteristics

- If order is low, frequency cutoffs will be sharp (Phase response is non-linear) (Can be good for real-time communication)
- Computationally efficient (you'll need less parameters)
- Can cause phase distortion
- Impulse response never decays to 0 (hence, it's infinite)

9.2.3 How to design FIR filter

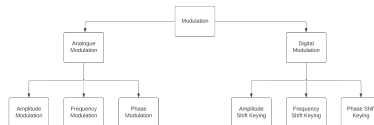
1. Device Specifications:
 - Choose what filter you want (low pass, high pass, band width, band reject)
 - Performance criteria
2. Select Design Method
 - Windowing method
 - Sampling Method
3. Calculate Coefficients
4. Analyse Frequency response
5. Implement the filter

9.2.4 How to design IIR Filter

1. Device Specifications
2. Select Prototype filter
3. Transform to Digital Domain
4. Calculate Coefficients
5. Analyse Frequency Response
6. Implement the filter

10 Modulation

$$BaseSignal/Message + CarrierSignal = ModulatedSignal$$



10.1 Why we need Modulation

10.1.1 To reduce the size of antennna

- Message signals have low frequency
- When we use something like amplitude modulation, you're using a higher frequency wave (the carrier wave) to transmit the message
- When frequency increases, the length of the antenna decreases:

$$L \propto \lambda \text{ and } \lambda = \frac{c}{f}$$

10.1.2 To reduce interference

- When a signal gets disrupted due to noise or other waves, it's called interference
- When we use modulation, you're sending a message using another frequency band, which avoids collision with waves using one frequency band.

10.1.3 To improve SNR

$$SNR = \text{Signal to noise ratio} = \frac{Power_{Signal}}{Power_{Noise}}$$

10.2 Amplitude Modulation (AM)

- Amplitude of carrier signal is changed
- Say the message signal is:

$$m(t) = A_m \sin(2\pi f_m t)$$

And the original carrier signal is:

$$c(t) = A_c \sin(2\pi f_c t)$$

- The modulated signal i.e. the new carrier signal is

$$s(t) = (A_c + A_m \sin(2\pi f_m t)) \sin(2\pi f_c t)$$

- Another standard notation for this is obtained by taking A_c out common

$$s(t) = A_c \left(1 + \frac{A_m}{A_c} \sin(2\pi f_m t) \right) \sin(2\pi f_c t)$$

$$s(t) = \left(1 + \frac{A_m}{A_c} \sin(2\pi f_m t) \right) * A_c \sin(2\pi f_c t)$$

$$s(t) = (1 + \mu \sin(2\pi f_m t)) * A_c \sin(2\pi f_c t)$$

Where μ is the modulation index (described in the next section)

- In some cases, instead of adding 1 to $\mu \sin(2\pi f_m t)$, a larger number is added. This is allowed as all you're doing is shifting the entire function up or down ($y(x) + \text{some constant}$)

10.2.1 Modulation Index (m)

$$m = \mu = \frac{\text{Amplitude of Message Signal}}{\text{Amplitude of Carrier Signal}} = \frac{A_m}{A_c}$$

- If $m < 1 \Rightarrow$ Under Modulated (Not Using full bandwidth)
- If $m = 1 \Rightarrow$ Uses full bandwidth and is 100% Modulated
- If $m > 1 \Rightarrow$ Over Modulated, causes distortion

10.2.2 Side Band

- We already know that $s(t) = (A_c + A_m \cos(2\pi f_m t)) \cos(2\pi f_c t)$
- $s(t) = A_c \cos(2\pi f_c t) + A_m \cos(2\pi f_m t) \cos(2\pi f_c t)$ (Multiply the $\cos(2\pi f_c t)$ term inside)
- $s(t) = A_c \cos 2\pi f_c t + \frac{A_m}{2} \cos 2\pi t(f_c - f_m) + \frac{A_m}{2} \cos 2\pi t(f_c + f_m)$ ($\cos A \cos B = \frac{\cos(A-B)}{2} + \frac{\cos(A+B)}{2}$)
- $f_c + f_m = \text{upper band}$
- $f_c - f_m = \text{lower band}$

10.2.3 Bandwidth

$$\text{Band width} = (\text{upper band}) - (\text{lower band}) = 2f_m$$

10.2.4 Power of AM

- We know that

$$s(t) = A_c \cos(2\pi f) + \frac{A_m}{2} \cos 2\pi t(f_c - f_m) + \frac{A_m}{2} \cos 2\pi t(f_c + f_m)$$

- Power of a sinusoidal signal is $\frac{A^2}{2}$, and here there are 3 sinusoidal signals.
- Total Power = $\frac{A_c^2}{2} + \frac{(\frac{A_m}{2})^2}{2} + \frac{(\frac{A_m}{2})^2}{2}$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Power} &= \frac{A_c^2}{2} + 2 \frac{(\frac{A_m}{2})^2}{2} \\ &= \frac{A_c^2}{2} + \left(\frac{A_m}{2}\right)^2 \\ &= \frac{A_c^2}{2} + \frac{A_m^2}{4} \\ &= \frac{A_c^2}{2} + \frac{mA_c^2}{4} \end{aligned}$$

$$m = \frac{A_m}{A_c} \Rightarrow A_m = mA_c$$

- Taking $\frac{A_c^2}{2}$ common,

$$= \frac{A_c^2}{2} \left(1 + \frac{m^2}{2}\right)$$

$$\text{Power}_{AM} = \text{Power}_{Carrier} \left(1 + \frac{m^2}{2}\right) = \text{Power}_{Carrier} + 2 * \text{Power}_{1\text{Sideband}}$$

10.2.5 Example

A carrier signal with a frequency of 1 MHz and amplitude of 10V is amplitude modulated by a sinusoidal message signal with frequency 10 kHz and amplitude 5V. Calculate:

1. The modulation index m .

$$m = \frac{5}{10} = 0.5$$

2. The carrier power P_c .

$$P_c = \frac{A_c^2}{2} = \frac{10^2}{2} = 50W$$

3. The sideband power P_{SB} .

$$P_{SB} = \left(\frac{A_m}{2}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{5}{2}\right)^2 = 6.25$$

4. The total transmitted power P_t .

$$P_t = P_c\left(1 + \frac{m^2}{2}\right) = 50\left(1 + \frac{0.5^2}{2}\right) = 56.25$$

5. The bandwidth of AM.

$$Bandwidth = 2f_m = 2 * 10 = 20kHz$$

10.3 AM Demodulation

10.3.1 Synchronous/ Coherent demodulation

- Multiply received signal with a sine wave of same frequency and phase
- You basically use the modulated signal as the message signal, perform AM on it again, now use a low-pass filter to get back the original wave
- This is accurate, but not as cost-efficient as non-coherent demodulation

10.3.2 Asynchronous/ Non-Coherent demodulation aka. Envelope Detector

- Doesn't need frequency or phase matching
- Uses diode, resistor, capacitor
- It's very cost-efficient, but not as accurate as coherent demodulation
- Envelope Detector:
 - During positive half cycle, capacitor and diode charges
 - During negative half cycle, capacitor discharges
 - Because the capacitor repeatedly charges and discharges, the recovered signal has a small amount of ripple on it.
 - Diagonal Distortion: If the time constant is too slow, distortion happens, the charging-discharging happens for too long, and it can't detect changes in modulating signal

10.4 Frequency Modulation (FM)

- We change frequency of carrier signal

$$s(t) = A_c \cos(2\pi f_c t + \beta \sin(2\pi f_m t))$$

where

- $\beta = \frac{\Delta f}{f_m}$
- $\Delta f = \text{Frequency Deviation} = K_f * A_m = \frac{f_{max} - f_{min}}{2}$
- $K_f = \text{Frequency Sensitivity}$

- The more the value of Δf is, the better it will be noise-resistant

10.4.1 Bandwidth

- Bandwidth of FM is given by Carson's rule:

$$\text{Bandwidth} = 2(\Delta f + f_m)$$

$$\text{Bandwidth} = f_{max} - f_{min} + 2f_m$$

10.4.2 Classification based on modulation index

1. Narrow Band Frequency Modulation

$$\beta < 1$$

- Frequency deviation is small
- Used in voice communication, walkie-talkies

2. Wide Band Frequency Modulation

$$\beta > 1$$

- Frequency deviation is large
- Used in FM Broadcasting

10.4.3 Power in FM

- This is just the power of a regular sinusoidal signal

$$P = \frac{A_c^2}{2}$$

10.4.4 AM vs FM

AM	FM
Larger Range	Shorter Range
Lower Sound Quality	Better Sound Quality
Prone to distortion from electrical equipment	Not really

$$SNR_{FM} = (1 + \beta^2) SNR_{AM}$$

where SNR stands for Signal-to-noise

$$SNR = \frac{P_{Signal}}{P_{Noise}}$$

10.4.5 Example

A 100 MHz carrier is frequency modulated by a 5 kHz signal. The maximum frequency deviation is 75 kHz. Calculate:

1. The modulation index β .

$$\beta = \frac{\Delta f}{f_m} = \frac{75}{5} = 15$$

2. The bandwidth of FM using Carson's Rule.

$$2(\Delta f + f_m) = 2(75 + 5) = 160 \text{ kHz}$$

10.5 Phase Modulation

$$s(t) = A_c \cos(2\pi f_c t + k_p A_m \cos(2\pi f_m t))$$

where $k_p = \text{PhaseSensitivityConstant} = \frac{\text{Number of phase changes}}{\text{Amplitude}}$

10.5.1 Modulation Index

$$\beta = k_p A_m$$

- In FM, β depends on both frequency and amplitude
- But in PM, β depends on only amplitude.

10.5.2 Bandwidth

$$\text{Bandwidth} = 2(\beta + f_m)$$

10.5.3 FM vs PM

FM	PM
Needs wider bandwidth	Needs narrower bandwidth
depends on frequency deviation	depends on rate of phase shift
needs complex circuitry	easy to implement, but you need good timing

10.5.4 Example

A phase modulator has a phase sensitivity constant of 5 radians/volt. The modulating signal has a maximum amplitude of 3V and a maximum frequency of 4 kHz. Calculate:

1. The modulation index β .

$$\beta = k_p A_m = 5 * 3 = 15$$

2. The bandwidth of PM using Carson's Rule.

$$2(\beta + f_m) = 2(15 + 4) = 38 \text{ kHz}$$

10.6 Digital Modulation

10.6.1 Basics

- This is when the message signal is digital.

1. Bit Rate

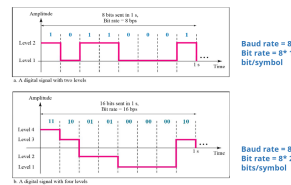
$$\text{BitRate} = \text{NumberofBitspersecond} = \frac{\text{Numberofbits}}{\text{Time}}$$

2. Baud Rate

$$\text{BaudRate} = \text{NumberofSymbolsperSecond} = \frac{\text{NumberofSymbols}}{\text{Time}}$$

- A symbol is a combination of bits, which represents 1 change of state.

$$\text{BitRate} = f_b = \text{BaudRate} * \text{NumberofBitsPerSymbol}$$



- Given the number of levels n , the number of bits in each level would be $\log_2(n)$

10.6.2 Pulse Code Modulation (PCM)

- It's the process of converting analog waves into digital signals
- The 3 main processes are sampling, quantization and encoding

1. Sampling

- You use Nyquist theorem

2. Quantization

- Each sample value is approximated to the nearest discrete value

3. Encoding

$$\text{BitRate} = \text{SamplingRate} * \text{Numberofbitspersample}$$

eg. Example: A telephone system uses 8-bit PCM with a sampling rate of 8 kHz. Find bit rate.

$$\text{BitRate} = 8000 * 8 = 64000\text{bps} = 64\text{kbps}$$

10.6.3 Amplitude Shift Keying

- You're still multiplying two waves: message and carrier.
- But there's a catch: The carrier signal is still analogue (some sort of sinusoidal wave), but the message signal is digital. At a given point of time, it's either 0 or 1.
- So the modulated signal becomes:

$$s(t) = \{ A_c \cos(2\pi f_c t), \text{if bit} = 1, \text{if bit} = 0$$

1. Bandwidth

$$\text{Bandwidth} = 2f_b$$

where f_b is the bit rate

- In AM, it was $2f_m$, where f_m was the message frequency.
- Digital message frequency is what we call bit rate.

2. Power

$$\text{Power} = \frac{A_c^2}{2}$$

3. Properties

- Easy to implement
- Works with existing AM systems
- Highly sensitive to noise
 - 0 bit means no power transmission, and so at low amplitudes, noise makes it very uncertain whether it's a 0, or it's a 1.
- Used in Optical Fiber Communication and RFID (Radio Frequency Identification)

10.6.4 Frequency Shift Keying

$$\text{Carrier Frequency} = \{ f_1, \text{if Message bit} = 1, f_0, \text{if Message bit} = 0$$

Hence,

$$s(t) = \{ A_c \cos(2\pi f_1 t), \text{if bit} = 1, A_c \cos(2\pi f_0 t), \text{if bit} = 0$$

1. Bandwidth

$$f_1 - f_0 + 2f_b$$

2. Properties

- More noise-resistant than ASK
- Used in low-power applications
- Requires larger bandwidth
- Complex to implement
- Used in Bluetooth and RFID

10.6.5 Phase Shift Keying

- Every binary number represents one phase i.e. an angle

o

$$NumberofPhases = 2^{Numberofbits}$$

or

$$Numberofbits = \log_2(NumberofPhases)$$

1. Binary Phase Shift Keying (BPSK) There is only 1 bit, hence there are 2^1 phases: 0^0 or 180^0

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

where:

$$\theta = \{0, \text{for bit } 0, 180, \text{for bit } 1\}$$

- (a) Power and Bandwidth

$$Power = \frac{A_c^2}{2}$$

$$Bandwidth = 2f_b$$

- (b) Properties

- Immune to noise, as phase changes are very distinct
- Used in deep-space communication due to its robustness
- Very slow, as the number of bits per second is only 1.
- It needs coherent demodulation

2. Quadrature Phase Shift Keying (QPSK)

- There are 2 bits, hence there are $2^2 = 4$ phases: $0^0, 90^0, 180^0, 270^0$

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

where:

$$\theta = \{0, \text{for bit } 00, 90, \text{for bit } 01, 180, \text{for bit } 10, 270, \text{for bit } 11\}$$

- Think of it this way: The left most bit corresponds to 90 and the right most bit corresponds to 180

	90	180
0	0	0
90	1	0
180	0	1
270	1	1

- (a) Power and Bandwidth

$$Power = \frac{A_c^2}{2}$$

$$Bandwidth = f_b$$

- (b) Properties

- QPSK is twice as fast as BPSK, because the data rate is two times larger (2 bits as opposed to 1)
- QPSK has higher noise sensitivity, as the phases aren't as distinct

3. Higher Order PSK

(a) 8-PSK:

- 8 Phases
- $\log_2(8) = 3$ bits

(b) 16-PSK:

- 16 Phases
- $\log_2(16) = 4$ bits

4. Quadrature Amplitude Modulation aka. IQ Modulation aka. Quadrature Carrier Multiplexing

- It's a combination of ASK and PSK i.e. both amplitude and phase is modulated.
- Consider two independent carrier waves $I(t)$ (inphase) and $Q(t)$ (quadrature). The transmitted signal is:

$$s(t) = I(t)\cos(2\pi f_c t) + Q(t)\sin(2\pi f_c t)$$

- 16-QAM basically means there are 16 waveforms/symbols. So the number of bits per symbol is $\log_2(16) = 4$.
- Wi-Fi 5 is basically 256-QAM, which means there are 256 symbols, and the number of bits per symbol is $\log_2(256) = 8$
- Wi-Fi 6 is 1024-QAM

11 Internet of Things

11.1 Layers of IoT

There are various representations of architectures

11.1.1 Basic Architecture

Layer	Layer Name	Description	Components
5	Business Layer (Optional)	System Management	Conversion of IoT into Business
4	Application Layer	Represents data graphically	Applications
3	Middleware Layer:	Process data and store it	Cloud Servers, Microcontrollers, and Edge Com
2	Network Layer	Transmits data	LoRaWAN, Fiber Optics, Wi-Fi, Bluetooth
1	Perception Layer	Gathers Data	Sensors and Actuators

11.1.2 CISCO 7 Layered Model

Layer	Layer Name	Basic Equivalent
7	Collaboration	Business Layer
6	Application	Application
5	Data Abstraction	Middleware Layer
4	Data Accumulation	
3	Edge Computing	
2	Connectivity	Network Layer
1	Physical Devices and Controllers	Perception Layer

11.2 IoT with respect to Cloud Services

- Gather
- Consolidate
- Connect
- Collect
- Assemble
- Manage
- Analyse

11.3 Components / Deployment Template of IoT

11.3.1 Device

- Sensing

11.3.2 Resource

- Software Components

11.3.3 Controller Service

- Requests and receives commands/data from application

11.3.4 Database

11.3.5 Web Service

- Link between IoT Device, Application, Database and Analysis Components

11.3.6 Analysis Component

11.3.7 Application

12 Levels of IoT

12.0.1 Level 1

- Single Device/Node senses, processes/analyses data and hosts the application
- Suitable for low cost

12.0.2 Level 2

- Single Device/Node senses, processes/analyses data locally, but stores data in the cloud
- Used when data is large, but analysing isn't computationally expensive

12.0.3 Level 3

- Single Device/Node senses data, but analyzing and storage happens on the cloud
- Used when both data is large, and analyzing is computationally expensive

12.0.4 Level 4

- Multiple Nodes do local analysis, and storage happens in the cloud
- Used when multiple nodes are required

12.0.5 Level 5

- Multiple end nodes senses or actuates, while multiple coordinator nodes collects data from end nodes, and sends them to the cloud for storage and analysis
- Used when wireless networks are required

12.0.6 Level 6

- Multiple nodes senses/actuates data and send them to the cloud for storage, analysis and visualization
- There's also a centralized controller, which controls all nodes

13 socket

	ReST-API	Websocket
What it is	- Representational State Transfer - Set of principles used to build APIs over HTTP	
Payload	High	Low
Direction	Unidirectional	Bidirectional
Use Case	For short lived, stateless communication	

14 Machine-to-Machine (M to M) interaction

15 Applications of IOT