

## Pulse Analog Modulation:-

the basis of a pulse modulation system is the sampling process, whereby a continuous time <sup>analog signal</sup> can be converted into a corresponding sequence of samples that may or may not be uniformly spaced in time. The converted signal is called discrete-time-sampling signal. Generally samples are taken to be uniformly spaced in time. This is called uniform sampling which leads to simpler design and simpler algorithm for discrete-time signals. So, a continuous curve can be adequately described by sampling points. So, we can transmit only the sample values as they occur instead of sending the signal continuously. This is the importance of sampling that is used in pulse modulation.

The difference b/w pulse modulation and continuous modulation is that in continuous time modulation, some parameters of a carrier wave is varied continuously in accordance with the modulating signal. On the other hand in, pulse modulation, some parameters of each pulse is varied by a particular sample value of the message. There are two types of pulse modulation

techniques-

- i) Pulse analog modulation
  - ii) Pulse digital modulation (Pulse-code-modulation)
- Pulse analog modulation is discrete in time due to sampling, but some

characteristic feature of each pulse (amplitude-duration and <sup>or</sup> position) is varied in continuous manner in accordance with the sample value of the msg. In PCM, a discrete-time or discrete-amplitude representation is used for signal. This is achieved through sampling, quantizing and coding of an analog signal.

Advantages of pulse modulation over continuous wave modulation-

- i) Pulse duration is short,  $\rightarrow$  power saving
- ii) Off time can be utilized for sending another message on time sharing basis. Such multiplexing is known as Time-Division-Multiplexing (TDM).

Practical A signal can be reconstructed from the sampled values only if the samples are taken at a specified rate, known as Nyquist rate.

Practical Sampling - Ideal sampling cannot be achieved in practice. There are some differences b/w ideal and practical sampling.

- i) Practically sampled signals contain finite amplitude and duration rather than pulses
- ii) Practical reconstruction filters are never ideal filters.

There are two types of sampling. Natural sampling and flat-top sampling.



Natural Sampling— In natural sampling, the sampled signal consists of a sequence of pulses of varying amplitude whose tops are not flat but follow the msg waveform to be sampled.

Let  $g(t) \rightarrow$  analog signal  
 $s(t) \rightarrow$  sampling signal  
 of amp.  $A$  & duration  $T$ .  
 Time period of pulses  $\rightarrow T_s$ .

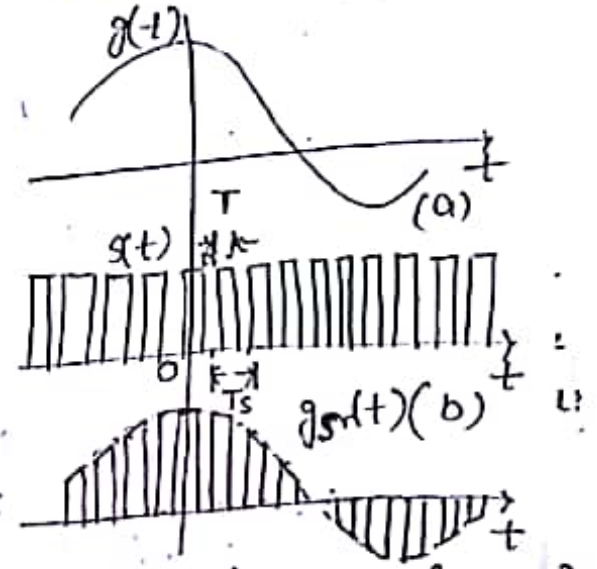


Fig. 1.2 The signal (a)  
 (b) The sampling sig.  
 (c) Sampled & signal  
 v/s time.

sampled signal can be written as  $g_{sn}(t) = g(t) s(t)$ .  
 Sampled signal consists of pulses with varying amplitude, whose tops are not flat but follow the analog signal  $g(t)$ .  
 With natural sampling, as with instantaneous sampling, a signal sampled at the Nyquist rate may be reconstructed exactly by passing the signal through ideal low-pass filter, with cut-off freq<sup>n</sup> at  $\omega$ , where  $\omega$  is highest freq<sup>n</sup> component present in  $g(t)$ .

The natural sampled signal  $g_{sn}(t)$  given by  $g_{sn}(t) = g(t) s(t)$  ----- (1)

$s(t)$  is a periodic signal and may be expressed in the form of natural sampling complex Fourier Series as—

$$s(t) = \frac{AT}{T_s} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \text{sinc}\left(\frac{nT}{T_s}\right) \exp\left(\frac{j2\pi n t}{T_s}\right) \dots (2)$$

From eqn (1) + (2) we get,

$$g_{sn}(t) = \frac{AT}{T_s} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \text{sinc}\left(\frac{nT}{T_s}\right) \exp\left(\frac{j2\pi n t}{T_s}\right) g(t) \quad \dots (3)$$

Taking Fourier transform both sides we get

$$G_{sn}(f) = \frac{AT}{T_s} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \text{sinc}\left(\frac{nT}{T_s}\right) G\left(f - \frac{n}{T_s}\right) \quad \dots (1)$$

where  $G_{sn}(f) = F[g_{sn}(t)]$  and  $G(f) = F[g(t)]$

### Flat-top sampling

In flat-top sampling pulses of the sampled signals have constt. amplitudes. This constant value of amp. is established by the sample value of the signal at some point within the interval. The signal  $g(t)$  is sampled instantaneously by ideal sampling at a rate  $\frac{1}{T_s}$ , but the duration of each sample is lengthened for a time  $T$ .

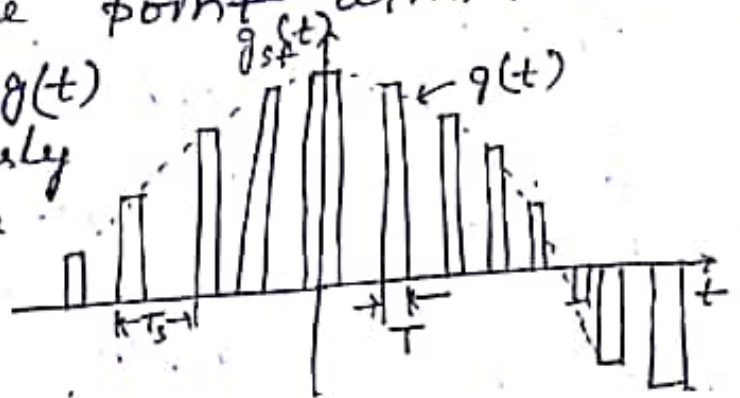


Fig: Flat-top sampling

BW of transmission is inversely proportional to pulse duration, this type of sampling will reduce the bandwidth requirement for transmission.

$$g_{st} = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} g(nT_s) h(t - nT_s) \quad \dots (5)$$

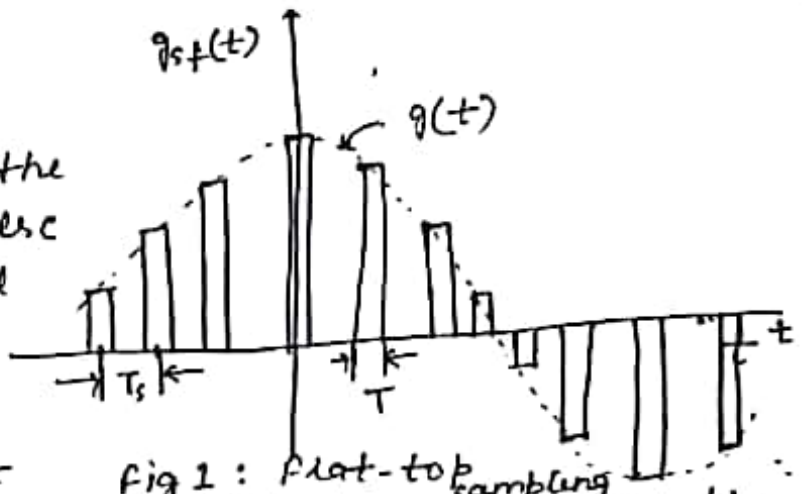
where  $h(t)$  is rectangular pulse of unit amplitude, given by

$$h(t) = \begin{cases} 1, & 0 < t < T \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad \dots (6)$$



## Flat-top sampling

In a flat-top sampling, the amplitude of each pulse in the sampled signal is kept constant over the duration  $T$ . This sampling can be best



understood from ideal sampling. Consider the situation in which the signal  $g(t)$  is sampled instantaneously for a time  $T$ . (Fig. 1). Since the bandwidth of transmission is inversely proportional to pulse duration, this type of sampling will reduce the bandwidth requirement for  $g(t)$ .

The flat-top sampled signal can be written as

$$g_{st}(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} g(nT_s) h(t - nT_s) \quad \dots \dots \dots (i)$$

where  $h(t)$  is a rectangular pulse of unit amplitude, given by

$$h(t) = 1, \quad 0 \leq t \leq T$$

$$= 0, \quad \text{otherwise.} \quad \dots \dots \dots (ii)$$

Further, the ideal sampled version of  $g(t)$  is

$$g_s(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} g(nT_s) \delta(t - nT_s) \quad \dots \dots \dots (iii)$$

convolving  $g_s(t)$  with  $h(t)$  defined in eq(ii), we get

$$g_s(t) * h(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g_s(\tau) h(t - \tau) d\tau$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} g(nT_s) \delta(\tau - nT_s) h(t - \tau) d\tau$$

$$= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} g(nT_s) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(\tau - nT_s) h(t - \tau) d\tau \quad \dots \dots (iv)$$

(i)

Using shifting property of delta function, we obtain from eqn (iv).

$$g_s(t) * h(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} g(nT_s) h(t - nT_s) \quad \dots \dots \dots (v)$$

Comparing eqn (i) with eqn (v), we get that the flat-top sampled signal is equivalent to the convolution of ideal sampled signal  $g(t)$  and the pulse signal  $h(t)$ . Thus

$$g_{sf}(t) = g_s(t) * h(t) \quad \dots \dots \dots (vi)$$

Taking Fourier transforms on both sides, we get

$$G_{sf}(f) = G_s(f) H(f) \quad \dots \dots \dots (vii)$$

where  $G_{sf}(f)$ ,  $G_s(f)$  and  $H(f)$  are the Fourier transforms of the flat-top sampled signal  $g_{sf}(t)$ , ideal sampled signal  $g_s(t)$  and the pulse signal  $h(t)$  respectively.

Since Fourier transform of an ideal-sampled signal is given by

$$G_s(f) = \frac{1}{T_s} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} G_1\left(f - \frac{n}{T_s}\right) \quad \dots \dots \dots (viii)$$

Substituting this eqn in eqn (vii), we get

$$G_{sf}(f) = \frac{1}{T_s} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} G_1\left(f - \frac{n}{T_s}\right) H(f) \quad \dots \dots \dots (ix)$$

Suppose that  $g(t)$  is strictly band-limited signal and the sampling rate  $\frac{1}{T_s}$  is greater than Nyquist rate. If the sampled signal  $g_{sf}(t)$  is passed

ii) (9)

through a low-pass reconstruction filter the spectrum of the resulting filter o/p will be  $G(f)H(f)$ . This is equivalent to passing original signal through a low-pass filter of transfer function  $H(f)$ .

from eqn (ii), we have

$$H(f) = T \operatorname{sinc}(fT) e^{-j\pi fT} \dots (X)$$

Hence we find that by using flat-top sampling we have introduced amplitude distortion as well as delay lengthening the samples is called aperture effect.

The amplitude and delay distortion can be corrected by an equalizer in reconstruction filter. Ideally the amplitude response of the equalizer is given by

$$\frac{1}{|H_{eq}(f)|} = \frac{1}{T \operatorname{sinc}(fT)}$$

... (xi)



The ideal sampled version of  $g(t)$  is

$$g_s(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} g(nT_s) \delta(t - nT_s) \quad (7)$$

Convoluting  $g_s(t)$  by  $h(t)$ , defined in eqn(6), we get

$$\begin{aligned} g_s(t) * h(t) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g_s(\tau) h(t - \tau) d\tau \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} g(nT_s) \delta(\tau - nT_s) h(t - \tau) d\tau \\ &= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} g(nT_s) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(\tau - nT_s) h(t - \tau) d\tau \quad \text{--- (8)} \end{aligned}$$

Using the shift property of delta function, we get from eqn(8)

$$g_s(t) * h(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} g(nT_s) h(t - nT_s) \quad \text{--- (9)}$$

$$\text{Thus } g_{sf} = g_s(t) * h(t) \quad \text{--- (10)}$$

Taking Fourier transform, we get

$$G_{sf}(f) = G_s(f) H(f) \quad \text{--- (11)}$$

$$\begin{aligned} G_s(f) &= G(f) * \frac{1}{T_s} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta\left(f - \frac{n}{T_s}\right) \\ G_{sf}(f) &= \frac{1}{T_s} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} G\left(f - \frac{n}{T_s}\right) H(f) \quad \text{--- (12)} \end{aligned}$$

↓  
F.T of ideal sampled signal.

$$G_{sf}(f) = \frac{1}{T_s} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} G\left(f - \frac{n}{T_s}\right) H(f) \quad \text{--- (13)}$$

$$H(f) = T \text{sinc}(fT) e(-j\pi fT) \quad \text{--- (14)}$$

By using flat-top sampling we have introduced amplitude distortion as well as a delay of  $T/2$ . This distortion

(5)



caused by lengthening the samples. called 'aperture effect' and can be corrected by an equalizer in cascade with the low-pass reconstruction filter.

### Quantization of Signal - $m(t), m_q(t)$

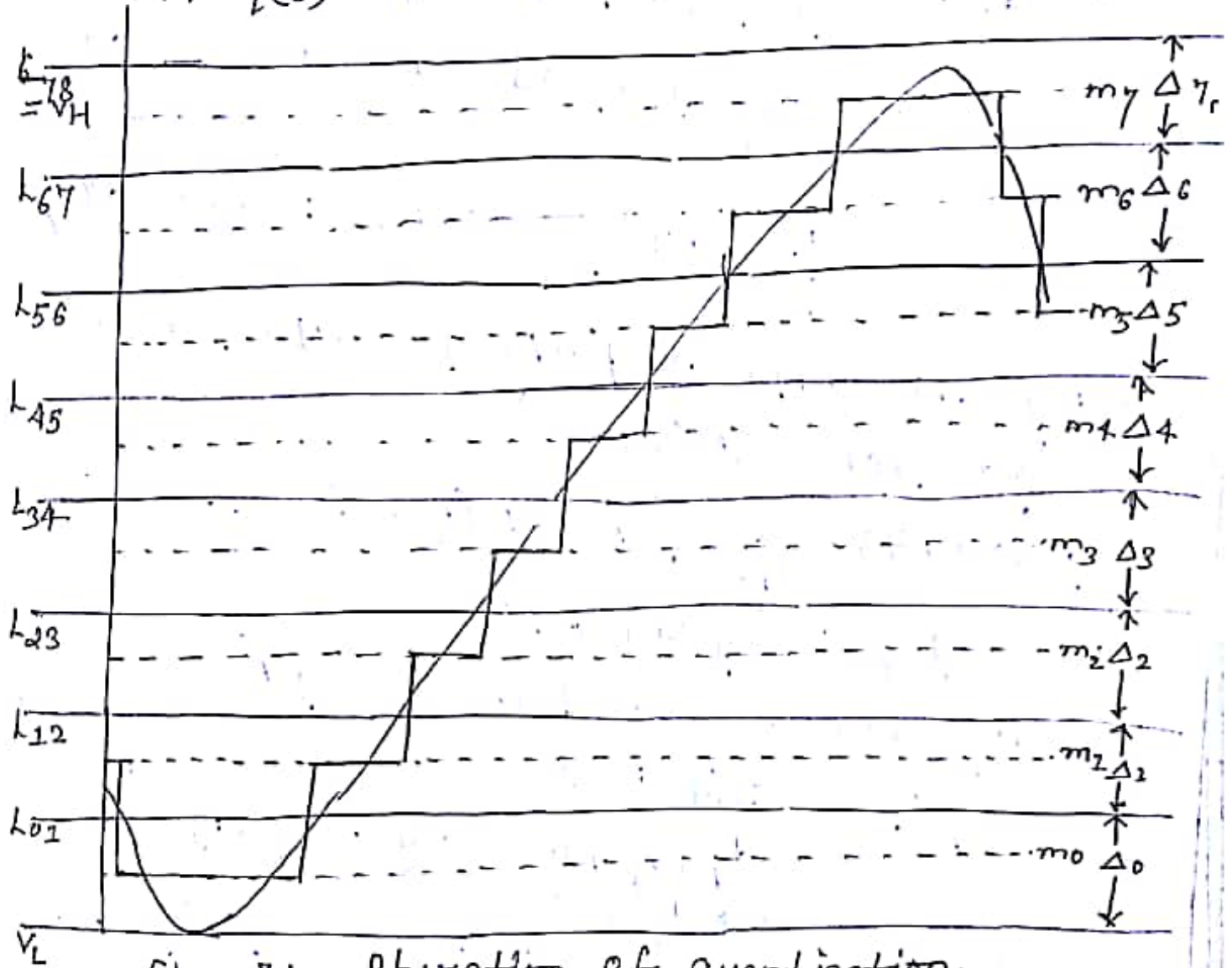


Fig: The operation of quantization -  
and quantised

Let sampled signal be  $m_q(t)$ , which is an approximation of  $m(t)$ .  $m_q(t)$  has a great merit that it is, in large measure separable from additive noise.

The operation of quantization is shown in <sup>above</sup> fig. ; signal  $m(t)$  is confined to range  $V_L$  to  $V_H$ . We have divided this total range into  $M$  equal intervals (6) 2)

having step size  $S = \frac{V_H - V_L}{M}$ . In this example we have taken  $M = 8$ . The centre of each of these steps we can locate. Quantization levels  $m_0, m_1, \dots, m_7$ . The quantized signal  $m_q(t)$  is generated in following way - whenever  $m(t)$  is in the range  $\Delta_0$ , the signal  $m_q(t)$  maintains the quant level  $m_0$ . Similarly for  $\Delta_1$  and so on. Thus the signal  $m_q(t)$  will at all times be found at one of the levels,  $m_0, \dots, m_7$ . The transition in  $m_q(t)$  from  $m_q(t) = m_0$  to  $m_q(t) = m_1$  is made abruptly, when  $m(t)$  passes the transition level  $L_{01}$ , which is midway between  $m_0$  &  $m_1$  and so on. We can also that at every instant of time,  $m_q(t)$ , has the value of quantization level to which  $m(t)$  is closest. Then the signal  $m_q(t)$  does not change at all with time or it makes a "quantum" jump to step size  $S$ . Each quantization level between  $V_H$  to  $V_L$  is separated by  $S$ , but the separation of  $V_H$  &  $V_L$ , from its nearest quantization level is only  $S/2$ . Also, at every instant of time, the quantization error  $(m(t) - m_q(t))$  has a magnitude which is equal to or less than  $S/2$ . So, the quantized signal is approximation of original signal & quality improves.



when number of levels is increased, step size decreases. 256 levels can be used to obtain the quality of commercial color TV, while 64 levels give only fairly good color TV performance.

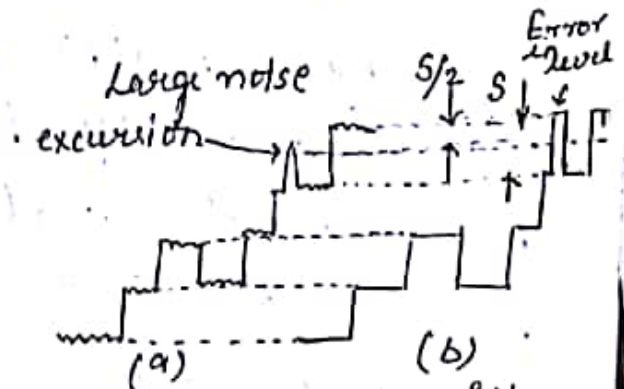
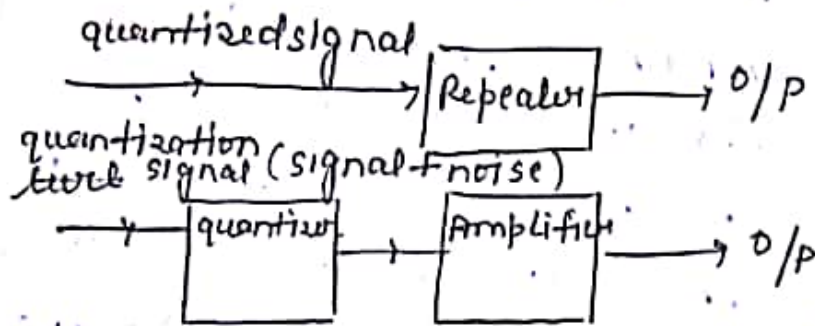


Fig: (a) A quantized signal with added noise

As shown in adjacent figure, the quantizer O/P is the level to which the i/p is closest. Therefore, as long as the noise has an instantaneous amp. less than  $S/2$ , the noise will not appear at the O/P. One instance in which noise does exceed  $S/2$  is indicated in the figure, and, correspondingly, an error in the level occurs.

(b) - the signal after requantization. One instance is recorded in which the noise level is so large that an error results.

So, the method of signal quantization. the effect of additive noise can be significantly reduced.

### Reducing the Probability of Error -

- i) By decreasing the spacing of the repeaters
- ii) By increasing the step size.

small amplitude of the perturbation

iii) Increasing step size results in an increased discrepancy b/w true signal and the quantized signal  $m_q(t)$ . The difference  $m(t) - m_q(t)$  can be regarded as a noise and is called 'quantization noise'. The quantized signal is not perfect replica of original signal due to errors caused by additive noise and quantization noise.

### Quantization Error:—

Mean square quantization error may be written as  $\bar{e}^2 = \int_{m_1 - s/2}^{m_1 + s/2} f(m) (m - m_1)^2 dm$

+ ..... upto M levels.

where;  $f(m)dm$  be the the prob probability that  $m(t)$  lies in the voltage range  $m - dm/2$  to  $m + dm/2$

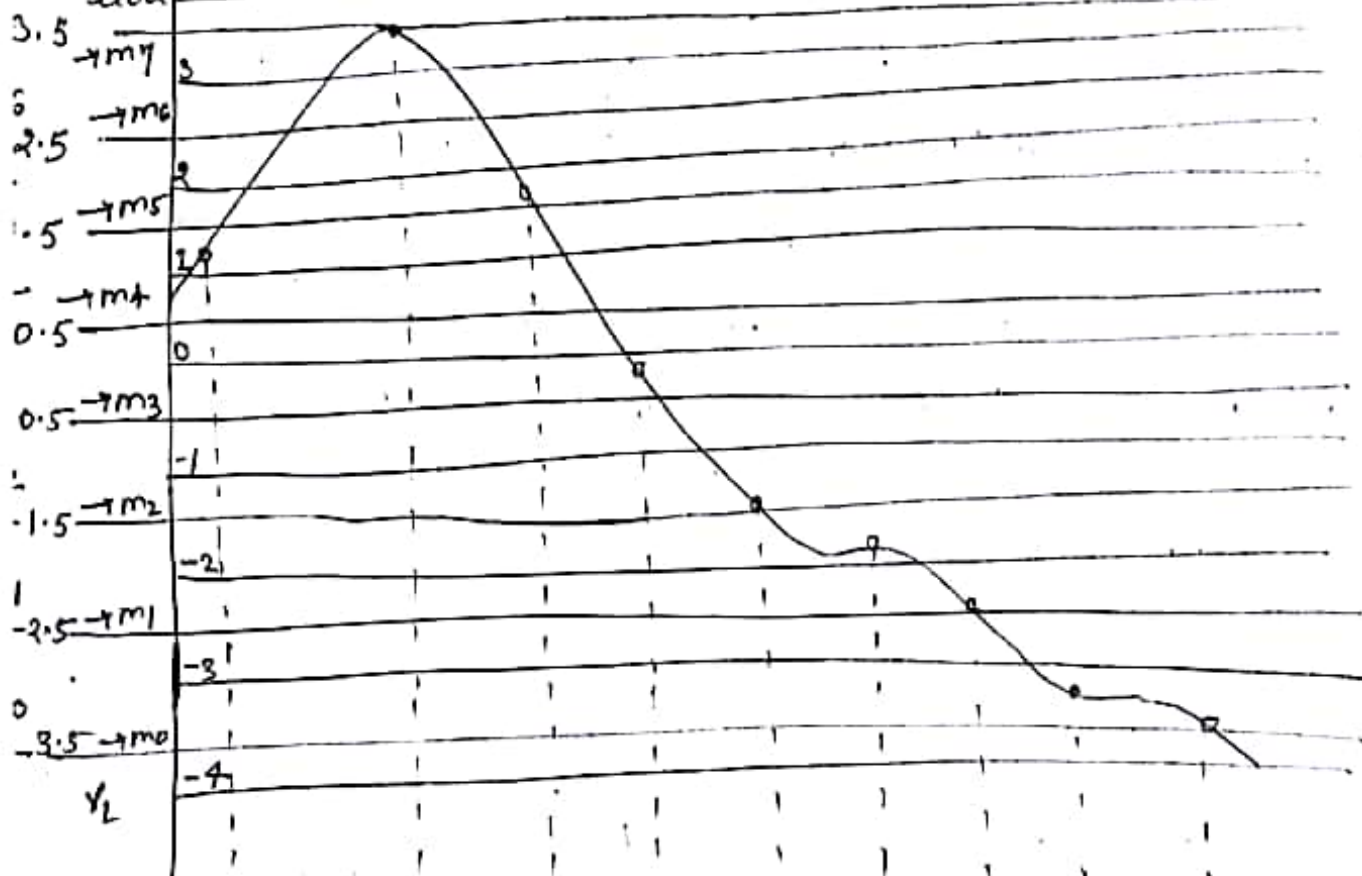
Now solving eqn of  $\bar{e}^2$  we get,

$$\boxed{\bar{e}^2 = s^2/12}$$

Comparing:—



code no.   
 Pulse-Code Modulation -   
 Quantization, volts   
 level  $V_H$



Sample value

Nearest quantization level

Code Number

Binary representation

Fig: A message signal is regularly sampled. Quantization levels are indicated. For each sample and quantized value is given and its binary representation is indicated.

(10)  
(6)

(2)

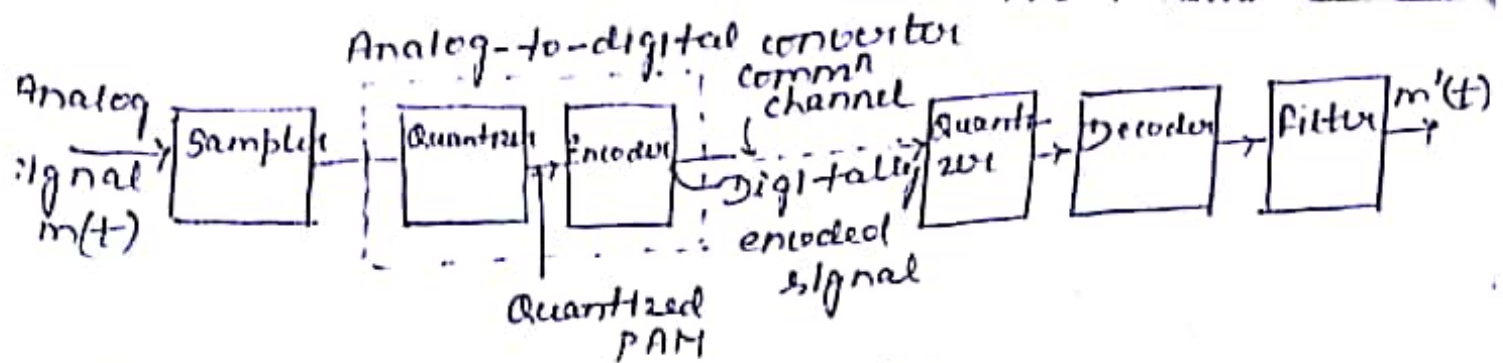


Fig: PCM communication system

### Advantages of Pulse code Modulation:-

- i) PCM will have low noise addition and data loss is also very low.
- ii) we can repeat the exact txed signal at the Rx. This is called repeatability. And we can transmit the signal with any distortion loss also.
- iii) PCM is used in music play back CD's and also used in DVD for data storing, whose sampling rate is much higher.
- iv) PCM can be used in storing data.
- v) Multiplexing of signal can also be done using PCM.
- vi) PCM requires larger BW.
- vii) PCM permits the use of pulse regeneration

### Disadvantages of PCM:-

- i) specialized circuitry is required for transmitting and also for quantizing the samples at same ~~fixed~~ quantized levels. For encoding using PCM, we need to have complex and special circuitry.
- ii) PCM receivers are cost effective, compared to other receivers.
- iii) Developing PCM is bit complicated and checking the transmission quality is also difficult & takes more time.
- iv) Large BW is required for PCM, when compared to BW used by the normal (11)



analog signals to transmit data.

- v) channel BW should be more for digital encoding.
- vi) PCM systems are complicated when compared to analog mod<sup>n</sup> methods and other systems.
- vii) Decoding also needs special equipment's and they are also too complex.

### Applications:-

- i) In telecommunication systems, air traffic control systems etc.
- ii) PCM is used in compressing the data, that is why it is used in storing data in optical disks like DVD, CD etc. PCM is also used in database management systems.
- iii) PCM is used in mobile phones, normal telephones etc.
- iv) Remote controlled cars, planes, trains etc use pulse code modulation.

Analog Pulse Mod<sup>n</sup> :- Pulse modulation consists samples of modulating signal, and these sample values directly modulate a periodic pulse train with one pulse for each sample.

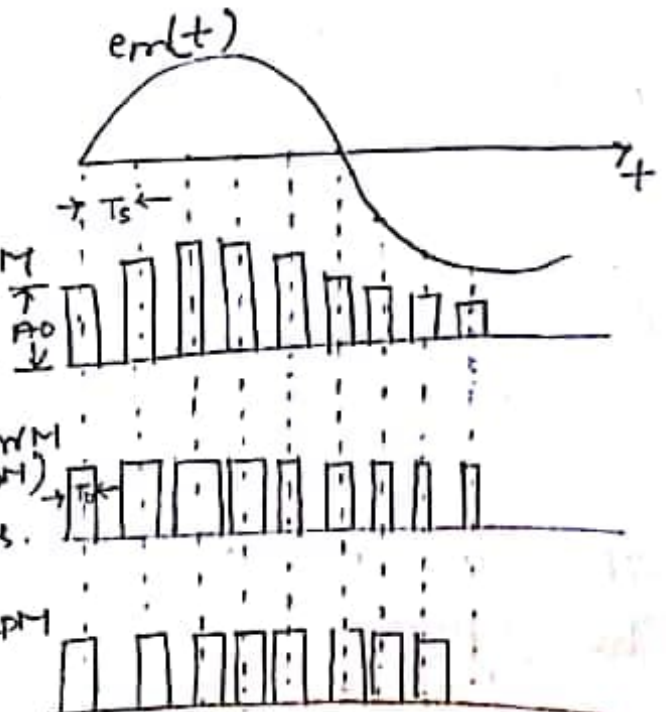
Three types of analog pulse mod<sup>n</sup> schemes-

- i) Pulse amplitude mod<sup>n</sup> (PAM)
- ii) Pulse width mod<sup>n</sup> (PWM) or PDM
- iii) Pulse position mod<sup>n</sup> (PPM)

There are some analogies b/w analog pulse mod<sup>n</sup> & CW mod<sup>n</sup>. In PAM, the message information (in the form of sample values) is conveyed by the (12)

Amplitude of the PAM wave. In PDM and PPM, the message is conveyed by a time parameter. This is analogous to exponential mod<sup>n</sup> (angle mod<sup>n</sup>) in which instantaneous frequency or phase (also time parameters) is varied in accordance with the msg signal.

Pulse mod<sup>n</sup> should not be considered as mod<sup>n</sup> in the usual sense. Some points <sup>should</sup> be considered while designing pulse mod<sup>n</sup> systems —



i) Rich in d.c. components and low-freq<sup>n</sup> components. Direct transmission is very difficult.

ii) Overlapping of pulses should be avoided during trn.

iii) PM waves need

reconstruction of the signal through the extraction of the sample values and low-pass filtration.

Fig: Types of pulse analog mod<sup>n</sup>.

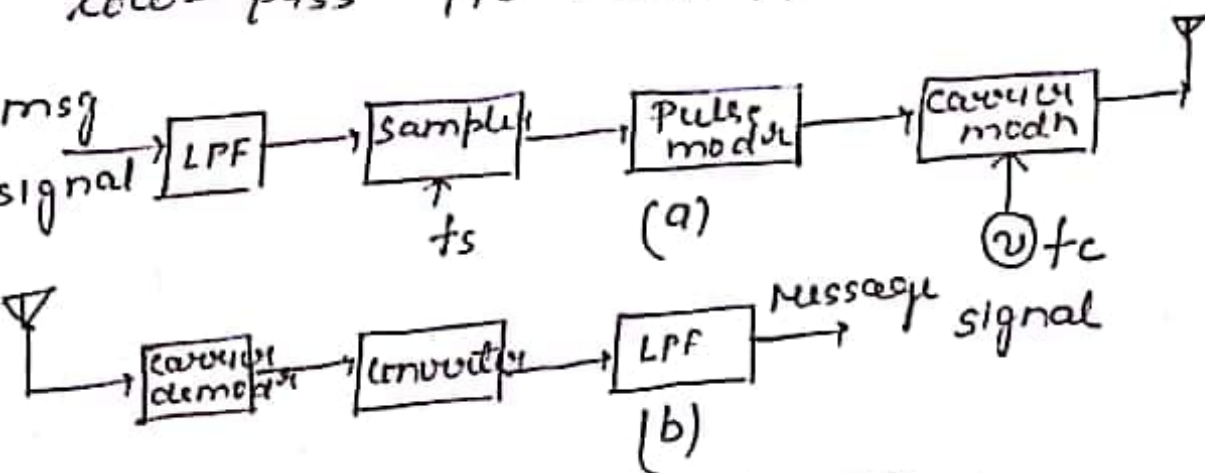


Fig: pulse mod<sup>n</sup> comm<sup>n</sup> systems  
a) Tx (b) RX



## Pulse - Amplitude Modulation (PAM)

Mathematically, a PAM signal may be represented as.

$$s(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} [1 + k_a e_m(nT_s)] g(t - nT_s)$$

$e_m(nT_s) \rightarrow$   $n$ th sample of msg signal  $e_m(t)$ .  $T_s \rightarrow$  sampling period,  $k_a \rightarrow$  amplitude sensitivity,  $g(t) \rightarrow$  pulse train.

For a single polarity PAM,

$1 + k_a e_m(nT_s) > 0$ , for all  $n$ . The sampling rate  $1/T_s$  must be equal to or greater than the highest frequency component in the msg signal.

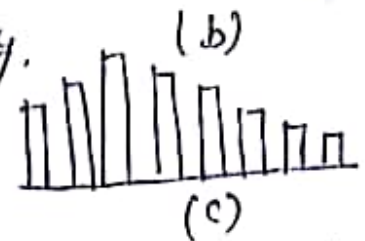
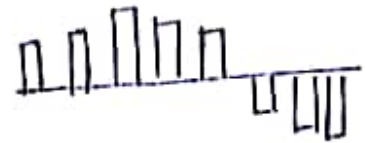
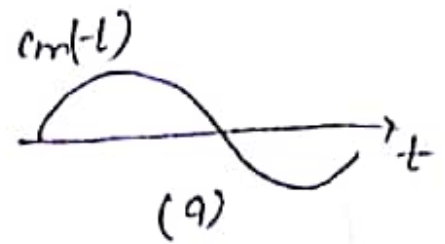


Fig: Pulse-Amp. Modn

- a) Msg signal
- b) Double polarity PAM
- c) Single polarity PAM.

### Generation 1-

The signal to be converted to PAM is applied to one input of AND gate. Pulses at the sampling frequency are applied to the other input of AND gate to open the gate during the desired time interval. The o/p of gate then consists of pulses at sampling rate, equal in amp. to the signal voltage at each time instant. The pulses are then pass through pulse-shaping n/w to convert into flat-top pulses.

### Demodulation -

The PAM signal can be demodulated by a low-pass filter with a cut-off frequency

(1/4)

just large enough to accommodate the highest frequency component of the msg. signal  $\omega_m(t)$ . Cut-off frequency should be such so that it can sampling frequency ripples may be easily removed. The aperture effect (amplitude distortion) may be removed by using equalizers.

Noise performance of PAM is not good, in comparison to base band Tx. It finds application in message processing for TDM and in the study of sophisticated pulse mod'n tech.

### Applications-

- i) Ethernet comm'n
- ii) Used for photo biology, which is study for photosynthesis.
- iii) Used as electronic driver for LED lighting.
- iv) Used in many microcontrollers for generating the control signals. etc.

### Pulse-Time Modulation (PTM)

In PTM, first signal is sampled, but the pulses indicating sample amplitude themselves all have a constant amplitude. One of the timing characteristics <sup>(either width or position)</sup> of the pulses is ~~varying~~ <sup>varied</sup> in accordance with the sampled signal amp. at that instant of time.

### Pulse-width Mod'n (PWM)

This type of pulse time mod'n is also called pulse duration (PDM) or pulse length (PLM). In PWM, the amp of msg signal are



used to vary the duration of the individual pulses. The pulse width may be varied by varying the time of occurrence of leading edge, the trailing edge or both edges of pulses in accordance with the sampled value of the modulating signal.

### Generation:-

The msg and pulse train are added and the combination is applied to a slicer, which has the property, that its output is zero, whenever the input is below the slicing level and is constant, when input exceeds the slicing level. The value of each pulse is dictated by the value of the msg wave at the time of occurrence of trailing edge.

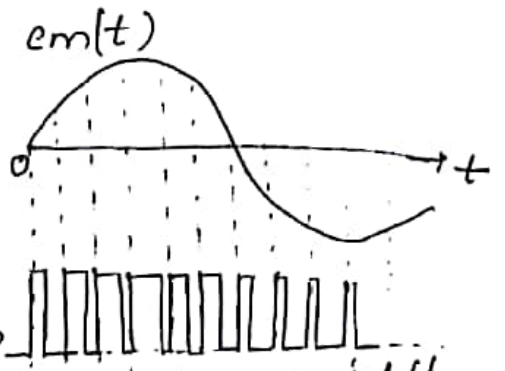


Fig.: Pulse width mod

PWM can also be generated by using either a coupled monostable multivibrator, which has an excellent voltage-to-time converter, since its gate width is dependent on the voltage to which the capacitor is charged.

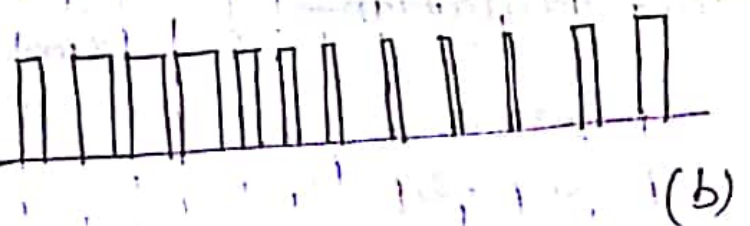
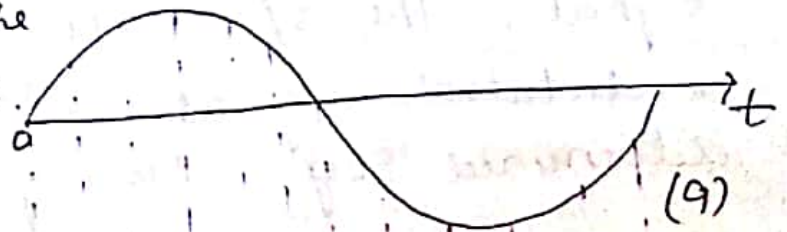
A series of rectangular pulse with varying width can be obtained, if the applied voltage can be varied in accordance with a modulating voltage.

Demodulation:- From PWM, signal can be recovered using a low-pass filter. Some distortion may present after reconstruction, due to cross modulation products that fall in the signal band.

## Pulse-Position Modn (PPM)

It is a modified version of PWM. In PWM, long pulse expend considerable amount of power during the pulse while bearing no additional information. In PPM unused power is subtracted from the PWM, to get more efficient pulse modn. In PPM, the position of a pulse relative to its unmodulated time of occurrence is varied in accordance with the msg signal.

In PWM, the locations of leading edges of the pulses are kept ~~fixed~~ <sup>fixed</sup>, whereas those of trailing edges are made to vary according to modulating signal.



The position of the trailing edges thus depend on pulse width which is determined by signal amp. at that instant. So, it

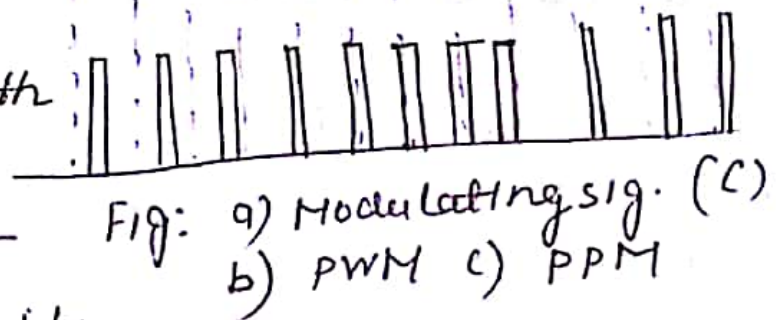


Fig: a) Modulating sig. (c)  
b) PWM c) PPM

can be said that the position of the trailing edges of PWM pulses are PPM <sup>modulated</sup> ~~least~~. The method of obtaining PPM from PWM is thus accomplished by getting rid of the leading edges and bodies of the PWM pulses. This pulses have time displacement proportional to the instantaneous value of msg signal. (17)



### Generation -

The simplest method of generating PPM from PWM wave is to use a monostable multivibrator which has one stable-state and one quasi-stable state. The MSV can be triggered from stable to quasi-stable state by externally applied pulses. The period of quasi-stable state is determined by timing circuit of the device, chosen by the designer. If any ~~MSV~~ MSV is triggered by trailing edges of PWM signal, the o/p will be a pulse position modulated signal, whose timing can be determined by timing ckt of the multivibrator.

### Demodulation -

For demodulation, <sup>PPM</sup> ~~PWM~~ is first converted into ~~PPM~~ PWM, with the help of a flip-flop or ~~monostable~~ multivibrator. One input of MV is ~~One o/p is of PPM is tri~~ trigger pulses from a local generator, which is synchronized by trigger pulses from the tx. These triggers are used to switch OFF one of the stages of the FF. The PPM pulses are fed to the other base of the FF and switch that stage ON. The period of time during which this particular stage is OFF depends on the time difference b/w two triggers, so that resulting pulse has a width that depends on the time displacement of each individual PPM pulses. The resulting (18)

PWM is then demodulated.

Pulse modn has major advantage that it may use the increased BW consumed by pulses to obtain an improvement in noise performance.

Thus PTM is much more superior, from this angle to PAM. The generation of PTM signals has become extremely simplified with the availability of LIC.



Digital Modn :- Many communication system falls into three categories: BW efficient, power efficient, or cost efficient.  
 BW efficiency  $\rightarrow$  describes the ability of a modulation scheme to accommodate the data within a limited BW.  
 Power efficiency  $\rightarrow$  describes the ability of the system to reliably send information at the lowest practical power level.  
 The parameters to be optimized depends on the demands of the particular system.

Why Digital Modulation? To move to Digital Modulation provides more information capacity, compatibility with digital data sources, higher data security, better quality communications, and quicker system availability.

Modulation - process of converting digital data or a low-pass analog to band-pass (higher-frequency) analog signal.

Digital to Analog Modn - process of changing one of the characteristic of an analog signal (typically a sine wave) based on information in a digital signal.

Sine wave is defined by 3 characteristics (amp, freq & phase). Digital data (binary 0 or 1) can be represented by varying any one of these. This modn is used to transmit digital data over telephone wire (modem).

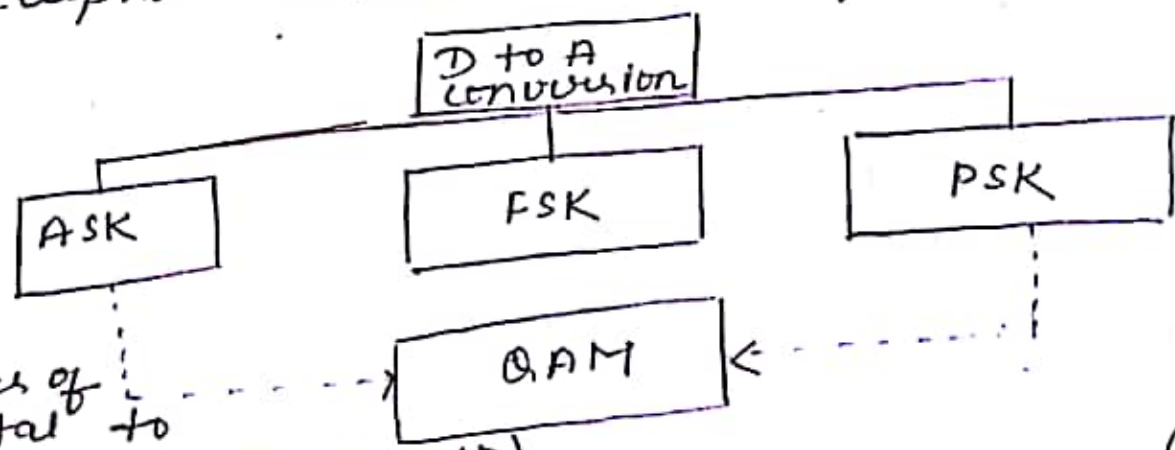


Fig: Digital to Analog conversion (Modn)

In digital communications, the modn process corresponds switching or keying the amp. frequ or phase of a sinusoidal <sup>carrier</sup> signal acc. according to incoming digital data.

ASK: strength of carrier signal is varied to represent binary 1 or 0.  
 • both frequ & phase remains const, while amp. changes.  
 • commonly, one of the amplitudes is zero.

$$s(t) = \begin{cases} A_0 \cos(2\pi f_c t) & , \text{ binary 0} \\ A_1 \cos(2\pi f_c t) & , \text{ binary 1} \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{cases} s(t) = A \cos 2\pi f_c t \\ \frac{A^2}{2} = \frac{E}{T_b} \\ \Rightarrow A = \sqrt{\frac{2E}{T_b}} \end{cases}$$

Modn  
 "1"  $\rightarrow s_1(t) = \sqrt{\frac{2E}{T_b}} \cos 2\pi f_c t$

"0"  $\rightarrow s_2(t) = 0 \quad ; 0 \leq t \leq T_b$

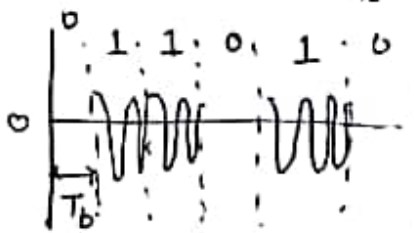


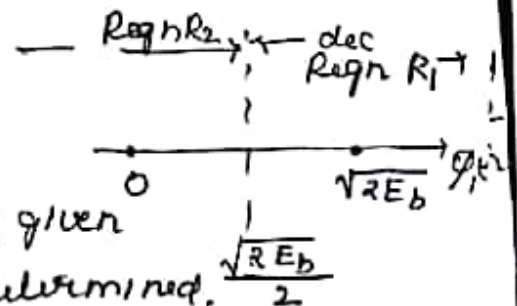
Fig: On-Off signaling

Average energy per bit

$$E_b = \frac{E}{2} \quad \text{i.e. } E = 2E_b$$

Decision Rgn.

demodn only the presence or absence of a sinusoid in a given time interval needs to be determined.



Adv - simplicity

Disadv - very susceptible to noise interference.

app - used to transmit digital data over optical fiber.

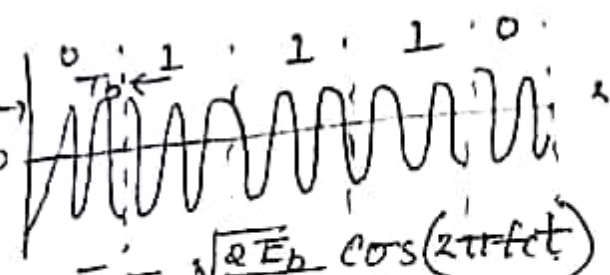


# Binary Phase-Shift Keying - (BPSK)

• Modn

$$"1" \rightarrow S_1(t) = \sqrt{\frac{2E_b}{T_b}} \cos(2\pi f_c t)$$

$$"0" \rightarrow S_2(t) = \sqrt{\frac{2E_b}{T_b}} \cos(2\pi f_c t + \pi)$$



$0 \leq t < T_b$ ;  $T_b$  bit duration  
 $f_c$ : carrier freq chosen to be  $n_c/T_b$  for some fixed integer  $n_c$  or,  $f_c \gg 1/T_b$ .

$E_b$ : Transmitted signal energy per bit;

$$\int_0^{T_b} S_1^2 dt = \int_0^{T_b} S_2^2 dt = E_b$$

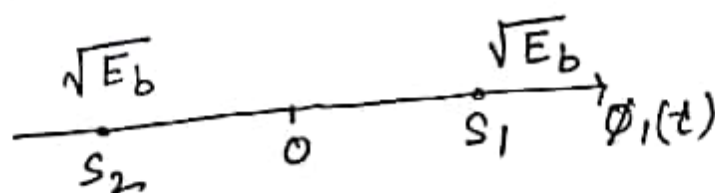
• The pair of signals differ only in a  $180^\circ$ -degree phase shift.

• There is one basis fn -

$$\phi_1(t) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{T_b}} \cos(2\pi f_c t) \text{ as with } 0 \leq t < T_b.$$

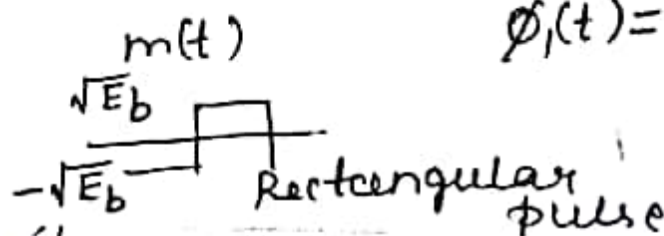
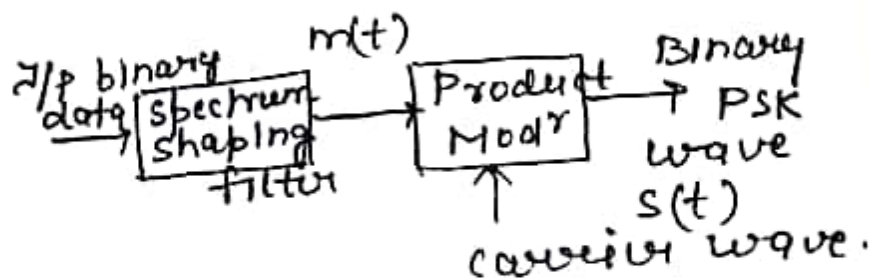
$$\text{Then } S_1(t) = \sqrt{E_b} \phi_1(t) \text{ and } S_2(t) = -\sqrt{E_b} \phi_1(t)$$

• A binary PSK system is characterised by a signal space, that is one dimn (i.e.  $N=1$ ) and has two msg points. (i.e.  $M=2$ )



$$d_{12} = 2\sqrt{E_b}$$

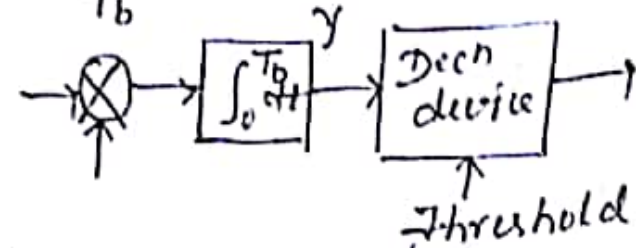
BPSK - Tx



$$\phi_1(t) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{F_b}} \cos(2\pi f_c t)$$

## BPSK-RX

$$r(t) = \sqrt{\frac{2E_b}{T_b}} \cos(2\pi f_c t + \theta) + n(t)$$



{ say 1, if threshold is exceeded  
say 0, otherwise

demod

detector

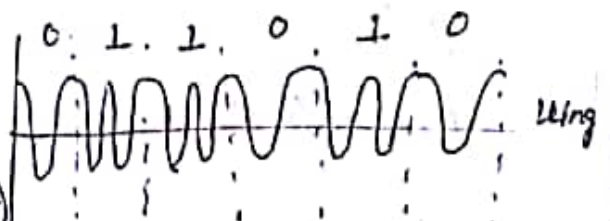
- $\theta$  is carrier-phase offset, due to propagation delay or oscillators at tx and Rx, are not synchronous.
- The detection is coherent in the sense of:
  - Phase synchronization
  - Timing synchronization.

## Binary FSK

### Mod

$$\text{"1"} \rightarrow s_1(t) = \sqrt{\frac{2E_b}{T_b}} \cos(2\pi f_1 t)$$

$$\text{"0"} \rightarrow s_2(t) = \sqrt{\frac{2E_b}{T_b}} \cos(2\pi f_2 t) \quad ; \quad 0 \leq t < T_b$$



$\therefore E_b$  transmitted signal energy per bit.

$f_1$ : txed freqn with separation  $\Delta f = f_1 - f_0$   
 $\Delta f$  is selected so that  $s_1(t)$  and  $s_2(t)$  are orthogonal, i.e.  $\int_0^{T_b} s_1(t) s_2(t) dt = 0$

### Signal space for BFSK

Two orthogonal basis fns are required.

$$\phi_1(t) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{T_b}} \cos(2\pi f_1 t) \quad ; \quad 0 \leq t < T_b \quad ; \quad s_1(t) = \sqrt{E_b} \phi_1(t)$$

$$\phi_2(t) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{T_b}} \cos(2\pi f_2 t) \quad ; \quad 0 \leq t < T \quad ; \quad s_2(t) = \sqrt{E_b} \phi_2(t)$$

signal space representation

(1)

(18)