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(a) A general expression for a time varying radio signal can be of the form :-

$$f(t) = A \cdot \cos(\omega_0 t + \phi_0) \text{ where}$$

A = Amplitude - $\omega_0 = 2\pi f_0$ where f_0 represents the frequency.
 ϕ_0 = Initial phase.

For amplitude modulation, A may be varied by an expression of the form :- $(1 + m \cos \omega_m t)$ where m is the modulation depth ($0 \leq m \leq 1$) and $\omega_m = 2\pi f_m$, where f_m is the modulating frequency. Thus the expression becomes :-

$$f(t) = A(1 + m \cos \omega_m t) \cdot \cos(\omega_0 t + \phi)$$

or, more typically : $f(t) = A(1 + m \cos \omega_m t) \cdot \cos \omega_0 t$
 where $\omega_0 = \omega$ = carrier frequency.

For frequency modulation, the term ω may be replaced by : $\omega \rightarrow (\omega_0 + \omega(t))$ or similar where ω_0 is the carrier frequency and $\omega(t)$ is a time-varying frequency related to the modulation ~~frequency~~ ^{function} of the form :-

$$\omega(t) = K_f f_m(t) \text{ so the full expression can be of the form: } (K_f \text{ is a constant}).$$

$$f(t) = A \cos([\omega_0 + K_f f_m(t)]t + \phi)$$

$$\text{or } f(t) = A \cdot \cos([\omega_0 + K_f f_m(t)]t).$$

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for phase modulation, the term ϕ is modified by a term involving the modulating frequency :-

$$f(t) = A \cos(\omega t + \phi(t))$$

$$\text{If } \phi(t) = K_{\phi} f_m(t) + \phi_0 \quad \begin{matrix} (K_{\phi} \text{ is a constant}) \\ (f_m(t) \text{ is modulating function}) \end{matrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow f(t) = A \cos(\omega t + K_{\phi} f_m(t) + \phi_0)$$

$$\text{Usually } f(t) = A \cos(\omega t + K_{\phi} \cdot f_m(t)).$$

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(b) Audio signal is in a range 250 Hz \rightarrow 4 KHz.

Carrier is 170 MHz. Audio is ± 2 volts. Carrier is 5 volts, peak-to-peak.

$$\text{Hence, if } f(t) = A (1 + m \cos \omega_m t) \cdot \cos \omega_c t.$$

$$A = 2.5 \text{ volts. } m = (4/5) = \left(\frac{A_m}{A}\right) \text{ where}$$

A_m is the modulating signal amplitude.

$$\Rightarrow f(t) = 2.5 (1 + 0.8 \cos \omega_m t) \cdot \cos \omega_c t.$$

$$\text{where } \omega_m = 2\pi f_m$$

$$250 \leq f_m \leq 4 \text{ KHz}$$

$$\text{and } \omega_c = 2\pi f_0; f_0 = 170 \text{ MHz}$$

To find the various powers, the original expression for $f(t)$ must be examined :-

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$$f(t) = A(1 + m \cos \omega_m t) \cos \omega_c t.$$

Expanding this gives :-

$$f(t) = A \cdot \cos \omega_c t + A \cdot m \cdot \cos \omega_m t \cdot \cos \omega_c t.$$

Using an identity : $\cos \theta_1 \cdot \cos \theta_2 = \frac{1}{2}(\cos(\theta_1 + \theta_2) + \cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2))$

gives : $f(t) = A \cos \omega_c t + \left(\frac{Am}{2}\right)(\cos(\omega_m + \omega_c)t + \cos(\omega_c - \omega_m)t)$

Where $(\omega_m + \omega_c)$ represents the upper sideband and
 $(\omega_c - \omega_m)$ " " lower " "

To determine power :-

Power in carrier component (referred to 1 Ω)

$= (V_{RMS})^2$ where V_{RMS} is the RMS value of the carrier component voltage :

$$= \left(\frac{A^2}{2}\right) = \left(\frac{2.5^2}{2}\right) = \left(\frac{6.25}{2}\right) = \underline{\underline{3.125}}$$

In a 50 Ω load \rightarrow power = $\frac{(V_{RMS})^2}{50} = \frac{3.125}{50}$
 $= \underline{\underline{62.5 \mu W}}$

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Power in each sideband in 1Ω is :-

$$(V_{RMS})^2 \text{ where } V_{RMS} = \left(\frac{\text{Peak amplitude}}{\sqrt{2}} \right)$$

as before for calculation of the carrier component,

As the audio is ± 2 volts, peak = 2 volts AC.

$$V_{RMS} = \left(\frac{2}{\sqrt{2}} \right) = \sqrt{2} \text{ volts.}$$

$$\Rightarrow (V_{RMS})^2 = 2$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{power in } 50\Omega \text{ is } \left(\frac{2}{50} \right) = \underline{\underline{40 \text{ mW}}}$$

Both sidebands are equal as well.

Wasted power is that transmitted in the carrier as it is not related to the modulating function i.e.

62.5 mW. The whole power transmitted is the sum of (carrier power + power in both sidebands)

$$\therefore \text{ratio is } \frac{62.5 \text{ mW}}{(62.5 + 40 + 40) \text{ mW}} = \underline{\underline{0.439}}$$

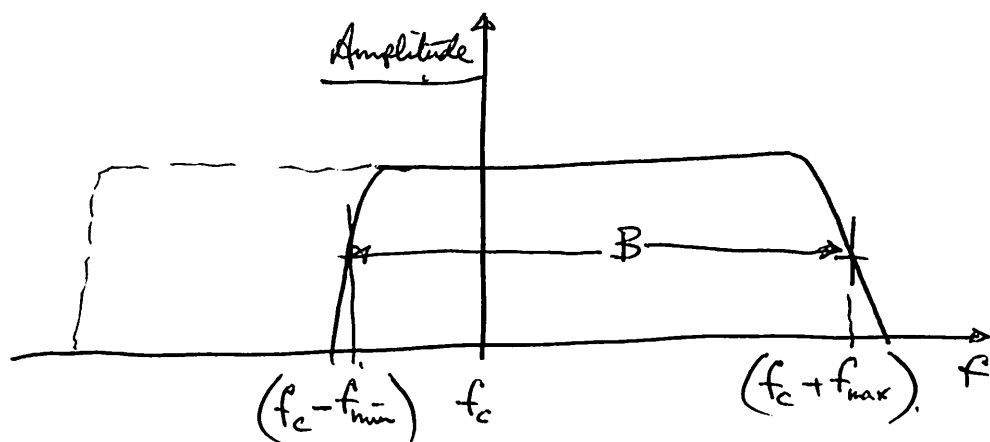
(c) VSB means "Vestigial Sideband" and refers to the technique of filtering a double sideband signal

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— to give only a vestige of one of the sidebands, to reduce the bandwidth used :-



$f_c = \text{Carrier frequency}$ ~~Disturbance~~

$$f_{\min} < f_{\max}$$

If $f_{\min} \leq f_{\max}$ but not zero, some carrier is still transmitted but the overall bandwidth ($f_{\max} + f_{\min}$) is still less than the full AM bandwidth $2f_{\max}$. The other advantage of the method is that the signal can still be detected using an AM detector, which is quite simple to implement. This is why it has been used in a popular consumer application, analogue T.V., because it makes the receiver cheaper (or it used to in the days of valve technology — not so much nowadays). In comparison, SSB requires a balanced mixer, phase locked local oscillator (ideally) in order to be detected properly. However, SSB requires even less bandwidth & is more power efficient.

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(a) Shot noise is caused by random processes of conduction in an active device, or random processes of generation of electronic signals due to active devices. Typical devices which generate shot noise include :-

- (1) Bipolar transistors.
- (2) Diodes.
- (3) Field Effect Transistors.
- (4) Vacuum tube devices.
- (5) Photodiodes.
- (6) Phototransistors (etc).

The formula relating the noise current in a device and the shot noise associated with it is given by:-

$$\bar{i}_s^2 = 2q I_s \Delta f \quad \text{where } q = \text{charge on electron.}$$

$$I_s = \text{signal current}$$

$$\Delta f = \text{Bandwidth of channel/measurement.}$$

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(b) For thermal noise : $\bar{i}^2 = 4KTG \Delta f = \frac{4KT}{R} \Delta f$

Alternatively, this can be regarded as a voltage given by

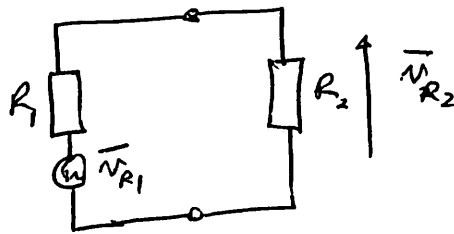
$$\bar{v}^2 = \bar{i}^2 \cdot R^2 = \left(\frac{4KT \cdot \Delta f}{R} \right) R^2 = \underline{4KTR \cdot \Delta f}$$

$$\text{or } \bar{v} = \sqrt{4KTR \Delta f}$$

$K = \text{Boltzmann's constant.}$
 $T = \text{Absolute temperature}$
 $\Delta f = \text{Bandwidth}$

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The available noise power from a resistance R is that which it would deliver to another resistance R according to the maximum power transfer theorem:-



Resistances R_1 and R_2 deliver equal thermal noise to each other - if $R_1 = R_2$. In terms of voltage \bar{v}_{R_2} due to noise source \bar{v}_{R_1} :-

$$\bar{v}_{R_2} = \left(\frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2} \right) \bar{v}_{R_1} = \frac{\bar{v}_{R_1}}{2}$$

$$\therefore \bar{v}_{R_2} = \frac{\sqrt{4KT R_1 \Delta f}}{2} \quad \text{or} \quad \bar{v}_{R_2}^2 = \left(\frac{4KT R_1 \Delta f}{4} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \bar{v}_{R_2}^2 = KT R_1 \Delta f$$

\therefore Noise power delivered to R_2 due to R_1

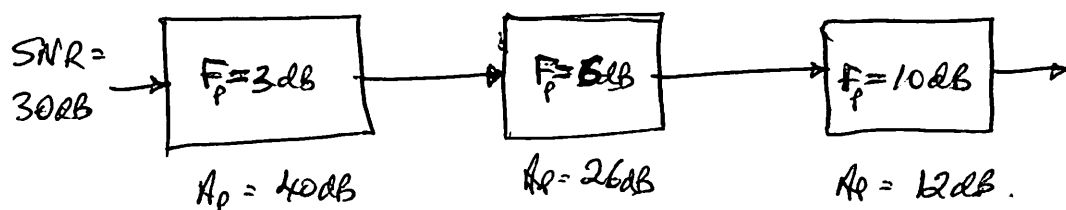
$$= \left(\frac{\bar{v}_{R_2}^2}{R_2} \right) = \frac{KT R_1 \Delta f}{R_2} = \underline{\underline{KT \Delta f}}$$

$KT \Delta f$ is the available noise power

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(c)



To determine the overall noise figure, the noise figure of each stage must be calculated from :-

$$F_p(\text{as a ratio}) = 10^{(F_p/10)} \quad \text{where } F_p \text{ is in dB.}$$

$$\therefore \text{For the first stage} \rightarrow 3 \text{ dB} \equiv 10^{3/10} = \times 2.$$

$$\text{--- second " } \rightarrow 6 \text{ dB} \equiv 10^{6/10} = \times 4$$

$$\text{--- third " } \rightarrow 10 \text{ dB} \equiv 10^{10/10} = \times 10.$$

\therefore Using the standard Friis formula :-

$$F = F_1 + \left(\frac{F_2 - 1}{G_1} \right) + \frac{(F_3 - 1)}{G_1 G_2}$$

gives the noise figure, as a ratio, for the whole chain.

The gains need to be calculated as numerical ratios also :-

$$G_1 = 40 \text{ dB} \equiv 10^{(40/10)} = 10^4$$

$$G_2 = 26 \text{ dB} \equiv 10^{(26/10)} = 4 \times 10^2 = 400$$

$$G_3 = 12 \text{ dB} \equiv 10^{(12/10)} = 16$$

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Thus the overall noise figure is: -

$$F = 2 + \left(\frac{4-1}{10^4} \right) + \left(\frac{10-1}{10^4 \cdot 400} \right)$$

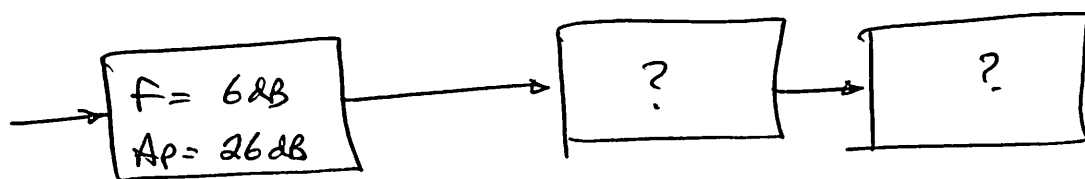
$$\begin{array}{r} 2.000000000000 \\ .0003 \\ .00000225 \\ \hline \end{array} = 2 + (3 \times 10^{-4}) + \left(\frac{9}{4} \times 10^{-6} \right)$$

$$= \underline{\underline{2.00030225}} \approx \underline{\underline{3 \text{ dB (approx)}}}$$

\therefore The SNR at the output is given by: -

$$\text{SNR}_o(\text{dB}) = \text{SNR}_i - F(\text{dB}) = \underline{\underline{27 \text{ dB}}}$$

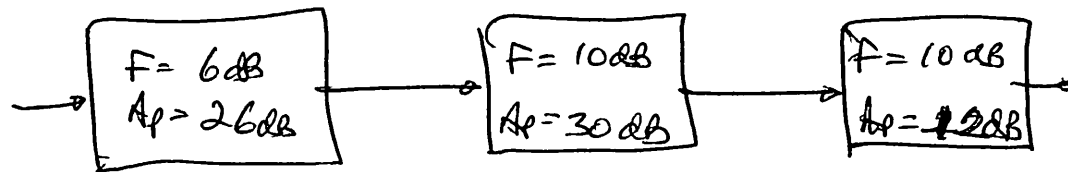
If the first stage became: - $F=10 \text{ dB}$ & $G=30 \text{ dB}$, then the order may have to be different. In general, the stages with the lowest noise figures should go first, with account taken of gain in feedback situations. The current second stage has a noise figure of 6 dB , so this should go first: -



The question is: which should be next - the stage with a gain of 30 dB and noise figure 10 dB , or

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one with a gain of 12 dB and noise figure 10 dB?
As they both have the same noise figure, then the one with the higher gain should go first :-



The overall noise figure is thus :-

$$\begin{aligned}
 F &= F_1 + \frac{(F_2 - 1)}{G_1} + \frac{(F_3 - 1)}{G_1 G_2} \\
 &= 4 + \frac{(10 - 1)}{1400} + \frac{(10 - 1)}{1400 \times 1000} \\
 &\quad \uparrow \text{Due to 2nd stage} \\
 &= 4 + 0.0225 + 0.0000225 \\
 &= \underline{\underline{4.023}}
 \end{aligned}$$

If the second and third stages were exchanged, the denominator of the third term would be ~~smaller~~ so that the third term would be larger.

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(25)

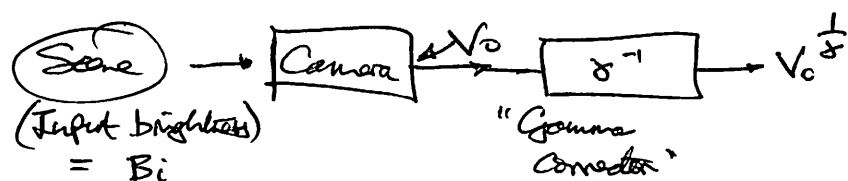
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(a) A standard analogue T.V. system employs gamma correction because originally it was designed to deliver pictures to cathode ray tube displays. These displays have a relationship between control voltage and displayed brightness of the form: -

$$\frac{(\text{Brightness})}{(\text{Output brightness})} = k V^\delta \quad \text{where } \delta \text{ lies between 2 and 3 typically.}$$

B_o

Therefore, to obtain overall linearity from camera input to display output requires predistortion of the signal from the camera before it is sent over the TV channel: -



If the signal is then applied to the T.V. display: -

$$B_o = k V^\delta = k (V_o^{\frac{1}{\delta}})^\delta = \underline{\underline{k V_o}}$$

$$\therefore B_o = k V_o \text{ (from camera)}$$

$$\text{If } V_o \text{ (from camera)} = K B_i \rightarrow B_i = \text{Input brightness}$$

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Then $B_o = kV_o = k(KB_i) = (kK)B_i$

k, K are constants, so if $(kK) = c$ then

$B_o = c \cdot B_i$ (Overall linearity)

~~(8/25)~~

This affects monochrome compatibility because a colour image is sent :-

$Y' = (l_1 R' + l_2 G' + l_3 B')$ where R' etc are the gamma corrected primary signals, and l_1 etc are the luminosity coefficients, and Y' the gamma corrected luminance.

In general $(Y')^\gamma \neq Y \rightarrow$ the true luminance
 $= \overbrace{(l_1 R + l_2 G + l_3 B)}$

except for greys. Therefore monochrome compatibility is lost when a gamma corrected luminance signal is generated

(8/25)

(b) : The true luminance is: $Y = 0.3(0.3) + 0.6(0.6) + 0.1(0.4)$
 $= 0.09 + 0.36 + 0.04 = \underline{\underline{0.29}}$

The transmitted luminance is $Y' = l_1 R' + l_2 G' + l_3 B'$

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$$Y' = 0.3R' + 0.6G' + 0.1B'$$

$$R' = (0.3)^{\frac{1}{2}} = 0.55 \quad G' = (0.6)^{\frac{1}{2}} = 0.77$$

$$B' = (0.4)^{\frac{1}{2}} = 0.63$$

$$\Rightarrow Y' = (0.3)(0.55) + (0.6)(0.77) + (0.1)(0.63) \\ = \underline{\underline{0.65}}$$

The colour difference signals are :-

$$(B' - Y') \text{ and } (R' - Y')$$

$$(B' - Y') = (0.63 - 0.65) = \underline{\underline{-0.02}}$$

$$(R' - Y') = (0.55 - 0.65) = \underline{\underline{-0.10}}$$

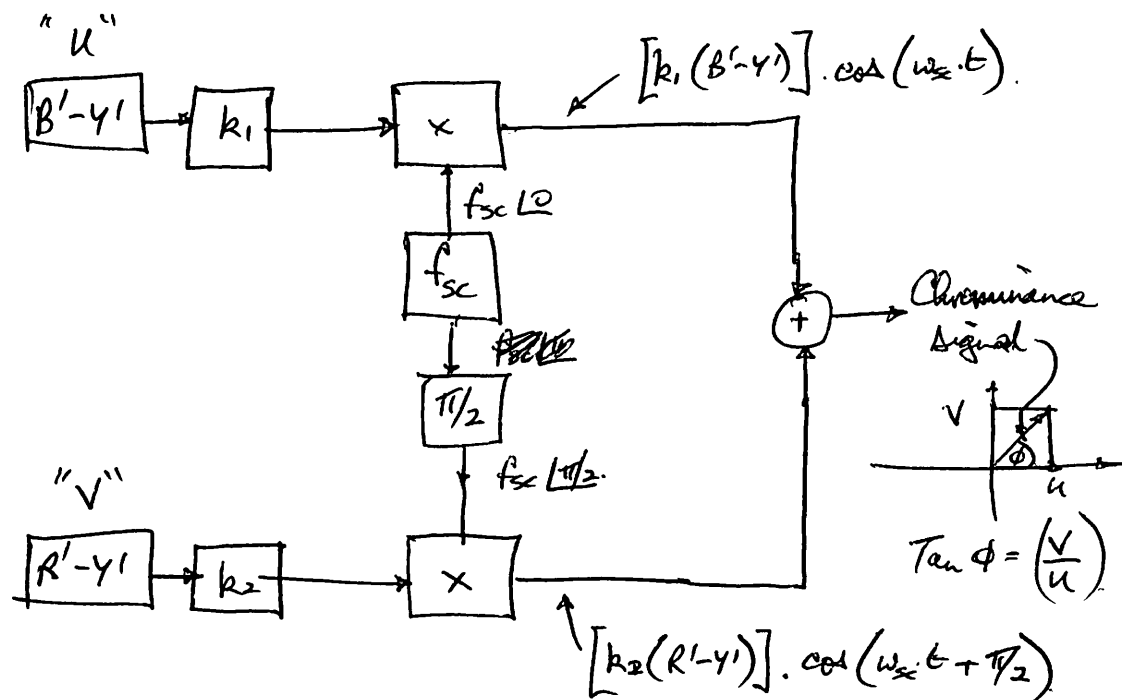
The luminance on a monochrome display is :-

$$Y = (Y')^2 = (0.65)^2 = \underline{\underline{0.42}}$$

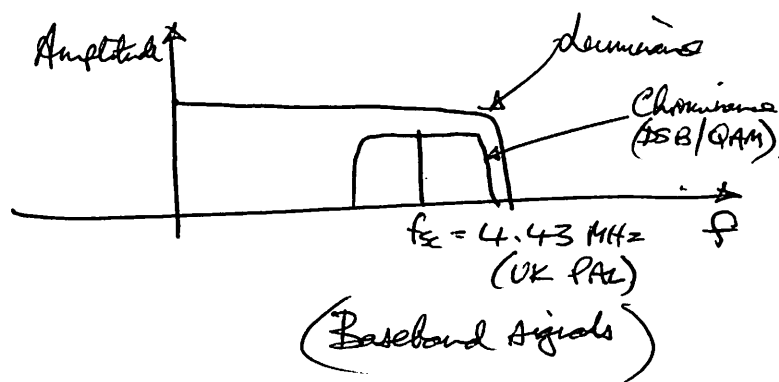
$\left(\frac{10}{25}\right)$

(c). The chrominance signals are transmitted using quadrature amplitude modulation of a subcarrier. The frequency of the subcarrier is chosen to minimise interference with harmonics of line frequency. The QAM system involves two balanced modulators and each colour difference signal is weighted before it is used to modulate its own subcarrier as follows:

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The chrominance signals ~~occupy~~ occupy spectrum as follows:



The chrominance signal is a suppressed carrier signal & so disappears when $(R'-Y') = (B'-Y') = 0 = (G'-Y')$ for greys, white & black.

They are ~~deleted~~ using a colour subcarrier of the correct phase ~~and~~ and two balanced demodulators, the subcarrier being sent as a reference on each line (UK PAL).

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(25)