1B Paper 6: Communications Handout 1: Introduction, Signals, and Channels

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Course Information

- Seven lectures, Wednesdays 11-12 & Mondays 10-11
- Two examples papers (8 and 9), and two examples classes (Friday 4 March at 11am in LR3, Fri 29 April at 11am in LR4)
- Lecture notes will be posted on Moodle: https://www.vle.cam.ac.uk
- Questions and feedback via email (rv285) or after lecture

Topics

- Signals and Channels
- Analogue Modulation (AM, FM)
- Digitisation of Analogue Signals (sampling recap and quantisation)
- Digital Signals and Modulation
- A brief introduction to Channel Coding
- Multiple Access

References:

- S. Haykin and M. Moher, Introduction to Analog & Digital Communications 2nd Ed., John Wiley & Sons, 2007
- R. G. Gallager, Principles of Digital Communications, Cambridge University Press, 2008

A Brief History

Analogue Communications

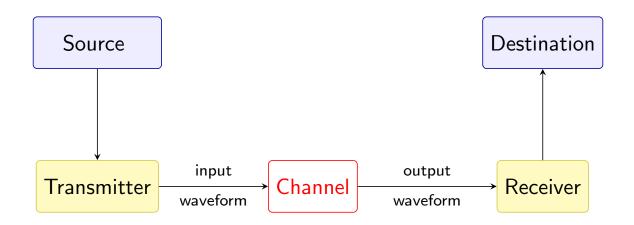
- Radio: AM since early 1900s, FM patented in 1930s
- BBC broadcast analogue TV from 1936-2012

Modern Digital Communications

- Mobile Communications: GSM (1991) \rightarrow 3G \rightarrow 4G LTE
- Wi-Fi, first deployed in 1997, Bluetooth in '98
- Asymmetric Digital Subscriber Line (ADSL), up to 4Mbit/s, appeared early 2000
- Digital Video Broadcasting (DVB), first broadcast ever in the UK, in 1998. Since 2012, all broadcast TV in the UK is digital

The Basic Idea

Communication: The process of delivering information from an information source to a destination through a communication channel.



More generally, we could have multiple sources delivering information to multiple destinations through a common channel

Block Diagram Components

- Source of information: May be analogue (voice, music, video), or digital (e.g., e-mail, any file on your computer)
- Transmitter: translates the information into a signal suitable for transmission over the channel
- Channel: medium used to transmit the signal to the receiver
 - E.g., optical fibre, wireless channel, magnetic recording...
 - May distort transmitted signal, e.g., add noise or attenuate it
- Receiver: reconstructs the source of information from the received signal
- Destination: for whom the information is intended

Key Signal Properties

Two properties of signals that are important for communication:

- 1. Power
- 2. Bandwidth

Let us define these terms and understand why they are relevant.

Signal Energy

The energy of a signal x(t) is defined as

$$E_x = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x(t)|^2 dt$$

If $X(\omega)$ is the Fourier transform of x(t), recall Parseval's theorem:

$$E_{x} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x(t)|^{2} dt = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |X(\omega)|^{2} d\omega = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |X(f)|^{2} df$$

- $\omega = 2\pi f$ is the frequency in radians, f is frequency in Hz
- |X(f)|² is the energy spectral density
 Can think of |X(f)|²df as the energy of the signal in the frequency band [f, f + df]

Signal Power

For a signal x(t) whose energy is infinite, the power is defined as

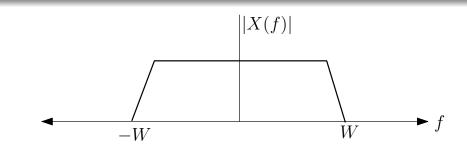
$$P_x = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} |x(t)|^2 dt$$

Why is signal power important?

- We are usually concerned about energy of the transmitted signal per unit time, i.e., *transmit power*
- Lower transmit power implies longer battery life for your smartphone
- But lower transmit power also makes signal harder to detect at the receiver in the presence of noise!
- Need clever Tx + Rx designs that make judicious use of available transmit power

Bandwidth

The bandwidth of a signal is roughly the range of frequencies over which its spectrum (Fourier transform) is non-zero.



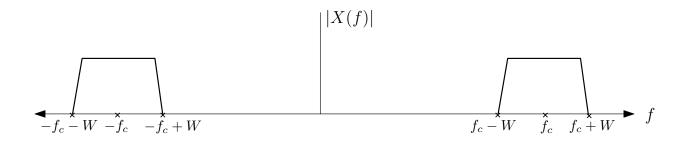
- For real signals, bandwidth measured as the range of positive frequencies as |X(f)| is symmetric around 0
 (as X(f) = X*(-f) for real x(t))
- In communications, signal bandwidth typically specified in Hz

A signal is called *low-pass* or *baseband* if its spectral content is centred around f = 0.

- The bandwidth of the baseband signal above is W
- E.g., audio signals are baseband with bandwidth \approx 20 kHz Voice signals in telephone systems have bandwidth \approx 4 kHz

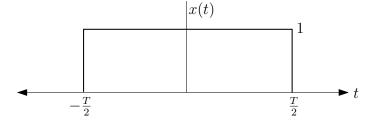
Passband signals

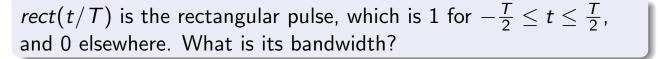
A signal is said to be *passband* if its spectral content is centred around $\pm f_c$, where $f_c \gg 0$

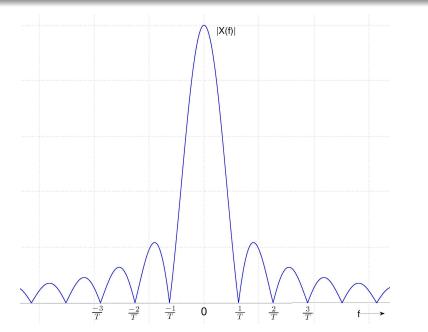


The bandwidth of this passband signal is 2W Examples of passband signals:

- AM (Amplitude-modulated) radio signals have bandwidth pprox 10 kHz around $f_c pprox$ 1 MHz
- Transmitted signals in a WiFi network have bandwidth \approx 20 MHz around $f_c\approx$ 2.4 GHz







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Bandwidth – A sensible definition?

Many real-world signals are time-limited

 \Rightarrow These *will not* be strictly limited in frequency

The absolute bandwidth of rect(t/T) is ∞ .

Other, more practical, definitions of bandwidth:

- 1. 90% bandwidth: The range of frequencies which contain 90% of the energy of the spectrum
- 2. 3-dB bandwidth: The range of frequencies which contain 50% of the energy of the spectrum
- 3. *Null-to-null* bandwidth: The width of the "main lobe" of the spectrum for the rect signal
- The "main-lobe" bandwidth of rect(t/T) is $\frac{1}{T}$
- If we also include one side-lobe, bandwidth of rect(t/T) is $\frac{2}{T}$

Thus, bandwidth is a measure of the *extent of significant spectral content* of the signal

Bandwidth is a scarce resource, especially in mobile (cellular) communication:

- Wireless bandwidth licensed and regulated by OFCOM
- A company has to buy a slice of spectrum, say few tens of MHz around $f_c \approx 2$ GHz, and restrict its transmitted signals to *within* the spectrum
- Passband 4G spectrum of few tens of MHz auctioned for hundreds of millions of \pounds to telecom companies!

Wired channels such as telephone lines and USB cables act like linear systems or *filters*:

- Their transfer function is roughly flat over a band of frequencies [-W, W] around 0, and then attenuates to 0 for higher frequencies.
- Therefore, transmitted signals need to be bandlimited to W

In both wired and wireless communication, need good $\mathsf{Tx} + \mathsf{Rx}$ designs that make optimal use of available bandwidth

Communication Channels

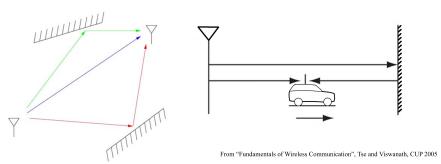
What is a channel?

The medium used to transmit the signal from transmitter to receiver.

- Introduces attenuation and noise
- So the received signal is a faded and noisy version of what the transmitter sent
- Noise and attenuation can cause errors at the receiver



Some Real-world Channels



1. Mobile Wireless Channel:

- There is distortion of the signal caused by multipath propagation and mobility
- Exact type of distortion depends on the signal bandwidth

2. Optical Fibre Channel:

- Very large BW, cheap production, low attenuation
- Cons: dispersion of optical pulses, expensive regenerators reqd.
- Used in the core of the internet, for long-distance communication networks

3. Electrical Wire Channel:

• Twisted pair cables (e.g., Ethernet) have limited bandwidth, high attenuation; Cheap, used for short distances

Modelling a channel

KEY Q: How to model a channel ?

Channels are often modelled as *linear systems* with additive noise:

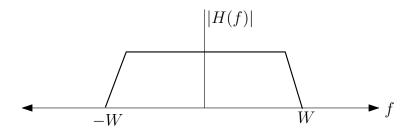
Channel output y(t) generated from input x(t) as

$$y(t) = h(t) * x(t) + n(t)$$

In frequency domain:

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Y(f) = H(f)X(f) + N(f)
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For example, the frequency response of a telephone wire may look like:



Additive Noise Channel

If the input is restricted to the band where the channel H(f) is flat, then the channel is

$$Y(f) = X(f) + N(f)$$

or

$$y(t) = x(t) + n(t)$$

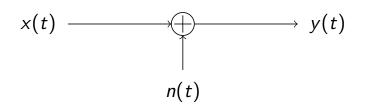
This is a very popular and useful model. What about n(t)?

n(t) is thermal noise at the Rx:

- Thermal noise is the noise generated by the thermal agitation of electrons inside an electrical conductor
- Happens regardless of the applied voltage
- All receivers (WiFi, mobile phone, AM, FM,...) generate thermal noise

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Additive Gaussian Noise



Thermal noise n(t) is modelled as a *Gaussian* random process:

- At each time t, n(t) is a Gaussian random variable
- A rigorous description requires knowledge of random processes (in 3F1)
- The additive Gaussian noise channel is the workhorse of communication theory: good model for many real-world communication systems
- Channels whose frequency response H(f) is not flat are important in practice, but outside the scope of this course

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In the remainder of the course:

- we will learn how to design both analogue & digital communication schemes (Tx + Rx)
- keeping in mind power and bandwidth constraints
- we'll then study how noise affects the performance of these schemes