Duplexing, Modulation

Duplexing

Full-Duplex and Half-Duplex

If the same channel is used for communication in both directions at the same time it is called Full Duplex. If it is used in one direction at a time is called Half Duplex. If it is only ever used in one direction it is called Simplex.

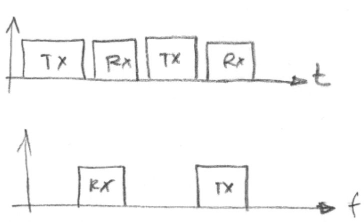
Exercise 1: Is a phone call half-duplex, full-duplex or simplex? How about a radio broadcast? A typical taxi dispatch radio?

TDD, FDD

Full Duplex can be implemented in three different ways:

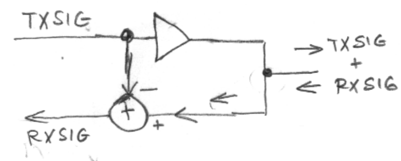
TDD - Time Division Duplexing: the two directions alternate in time, for example each end alternately transmits for 100ms and receives for 100ms.

FDD - Frequency Division Duplexing: the channel is split into two frequency ranges and one range is used in each direction. For example the upper half of the channel is used in one direction and the lower half in the other direction. The receivers use filters called "duplexers" that filter out the transmitted signal and allow through only the signal from the remote end.



A third alternative, is to do full duplex at the same time on the same frequency. This requires circuits capable of separating out the signals propagating in the two directions. One type of circuit that can do this is called a directional coupler or hybrid. Separating the two directions can also be done completely (or partially) using digital techniques. This is sometimes called an active duplexer.

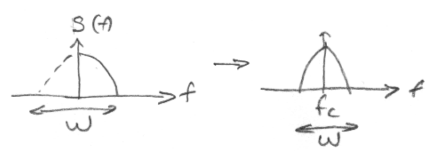
This method has the advantage that the full bandwidth can be used in both directions simultaneously.



Modulation

The purpose of modulation is to shift the spectrum of the baseband signal to a higher frequency so it can pass through a bandpass channel.

For example, in AM broadcasting a baseband audio signal is shifted to a higher frequency for example, to a carrier frequency of approximately 1 MHz, so it can be transmitted by an antenna and propagate to radio receivers



Another example is a TV video signal that is shifted to a frequency of several hundred MHz for transmission over a co-ax cable. Different channels are shifted to different frequencies. This allows multiple TV signals to be carried on the same cable without interfering with each other.

The circuit or function that generates the modulated signal is called a modulator. The corresponding reverse operation at the receiver is called demodulator. Often both functions are included in one piece of equipment called a "modem" (for MOdulator-DEModulator)

Analog vs Digital Modulation

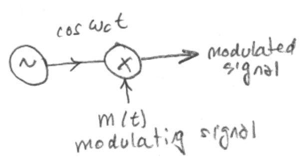
Analog modulation modulates the carrier with an analog baseband signal. The receiver recovers the analog signal. Examples are AM and FM audio broadcasting.

Digital modulation modulates the carrier with an digital baseband signal. The receiver recovers the digital data (bits). Almost all communication systems have switched to digital modulation (cellular, TV, ...). We will study only digital modulation.

PSK and QAM Modulation

There are dozens of different types of modulation. We will only look at some of the simplest and most common examples.

The simplest type of modulator simply multiplies a sinusoidal carrier with the baseband signal.



The modulated signal is

$$s(t) = m(t)\cos(\omega_c t)$$

where the carrier is $\cos(\omega_c t)$ where $\omega_c = 2\pi f_c$ is the frequency of the carrier signal and $m(t)$ is the modulating signal.

If the baseband signal has values 0 and 1 then the modulation is called on-off-keying (OOK) or Amplitude Shift Keying (ASK). This is used only for the very simplest applications (e.g. remote controls).

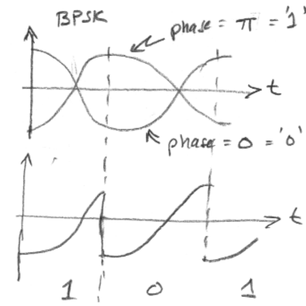
Exercise 2: Draw the waveform of an OOK (ASK) signal. Show the periods of the carrier and the modulating signal.

QAM

If the baseband signal has values ± 1 then the modulation invert the polarity of the signal. This is equivalent to shifting the phase of the signal by 180 degrees since:

$$\cos(\theta + \pi) = -\cos(\theta)$$

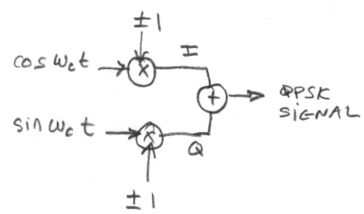
For this reason this type of modulation is usually called BPSK (binary phase shift keying).



We can also vary the phase of the signal by other amounts. For example, we can use phase shifts of 0, 90, 180 and 270 degrees to transmit 4 different phases.

The transmitter can encode 2 bits if there are four possible phases. This type of modulation is called QPSK (quadrature PSK).

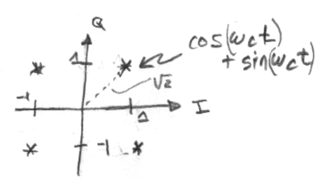
Note that in this case the modulating signal is complex with values $e^{j0}, e^{j\pi/2}, e^{j\pi}, e^{j3\pi/2}$. This type of modulator is implemented as two separate real signals modulating two real carriers that are orthogonal (90 degree phase difference). One is called the in-phase (I) component and the other is called the quadrature (Q) component.



The equation for the modulated signal is:

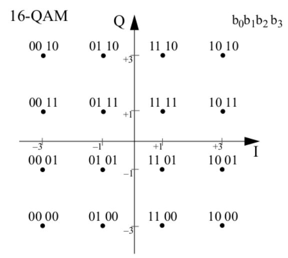
$$s(t) = \pm 1\cos(\omega_c t) + \pm 1\sin(\omega_c t)$$

We can draw the possible I and Q amplitudes on a 2-D plane. This is called a constellation diagram. It is a phasor diagram showing the carrier magnitude and phase of each for each possible modulation value.



Exercise 3: Label the other three points in the constellation diagram with the equation of the signal that corresponds to that point.

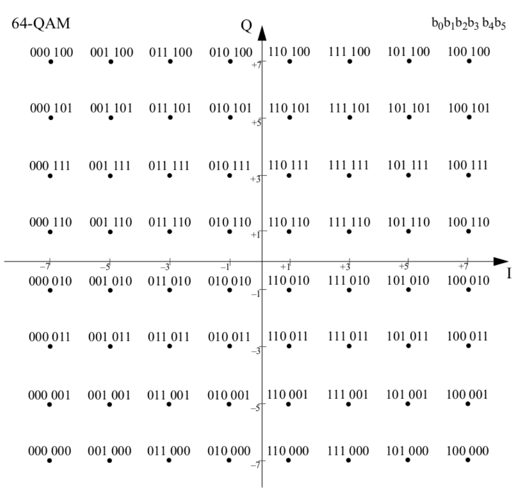
Instead of just changing the phase of the carrier, we can change the amplitudes of the I and Q components. For example if we multiply the I and Q components by +/-1 or +/-3 (total of 4 levels) we can transmit 16 different possible waveforms (4 different I amplitudes and 4 different Q amplitudes). This allows us to transmit 4 bits per symbol. This is called 16-QAM. This is the constellation:



where each point is labelled with the bits that are transmitted if that symbol (a carrier with the given I and Q amplitudes) is transmitted.

M-ary Modulation

In general if we can transmit M distinct signals (symbols) we can can encode $\log_2(M)$ bits. This is called M-ary modulation. For example $64 - QAM$ can encode 6 bits per symbol using a 64-point (8×8) constellation. The following diagram shows the 64-QAM constellation used for the 802.11 WLAN standard:



The constellation points can also be arranged in a circle. This corresponds to changing only the phase of the signal while leaving the amplitude fixed. We can, for example have 8 phases (called 8-PSK) and transmit 3 bits per symbol.

Exercise 4: Draw the constellation for 8-PSK.

Spectra of Modulated Signals

Multiplying the the baseband signal by a carrier shifts the spectrum of the modulating signal from zero (DC) to the carrier frequency. Instead of being centered at zero the spectrum of the modulating signal is now centered around the carrier frequency.

The bandwidth of the modulated signal is double the baseband bandwidth because the negative portion of the spectrum is also shifted to the carrier frequency.

However we can transmit twice as much data: the real and imaginary components can be modulated independently.

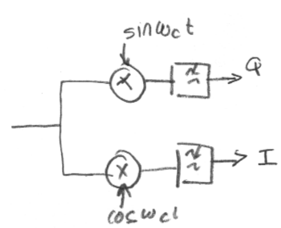
ISI

The Nyquist criteria for no-ISI are the same as for baseband channels, but apply to the I and Q separately.

Exercise 5: If the I and Q modulating signals have symbol rates of 2 MHz, what is the minimum bandwidth of the I and Q channels so that there is no ISI? What would be the bandwidth of the modulated (RF) signal? What are the spectral efficiencies (symbols/second/Hz) of the baseband and of the modulated signals?

Demodulation of QAM

By multiplying the received signal by I and Q carriers and low-pass filtering we can recover the transmitted I and Q components.



The receiver has to recover the phase of the carrier to accurately set the I and Q phases. This can be done, for example, by transmitting a preamble that has a known phase.

FSK, MSK, GMSK

We can also vary the frequency of the signal. This type of modulation is called Frequency Shift Keying (FSK). It cannot be represented on a phasor diagram because the carrier phase is constantly changing (it would be an arc on a circle).

Typically there are only two frequencies. The frequency deviation is the difference between the two frequencies. The bandwidth of the FSK signal increases with increasing frequency deviation and also with increasing frequency of the modulating signal.

A variant of FSK where the frequency shift is equal to half of the bit rate is called minimum shift keying (MSK). For example, if the symbol rate was 1kHz the two frequencies would differ by 500Hz. This makes the two signals orthogonal and simplifies the design of the receiver.

A variant of MSK where the modulating signal is filtered by a filter with a Gaussian impulse response is called GMSK (Gaussian MSK). The advantage of GMSK is that it has a low sidelobe levels so it is often used for channelized RF systems such as GSM (2G cellular) and DECT (European digital cordless phone).

Gray Coding

Constellations are usually *gray coded*. This means that the bits corresponding to adjacent points in the constellation differ by only one bit. Since errors between adjacent points are the most likely, gray coding minimizes the bit error rate. The 16-QAM and 64-QAM constellations shown above are gray-coded.

Exercise 6: Assign gray-coded values to the 8-PSK constellation.