

ECE 145B / 218B, notes set 1: Radio Architectures & Modulation Formats

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Material Covered Last Term: 145a / 218a

Real vs. ideal passive elements

Ideal transmission lines

Real transmission line : loss, modes, radiation

Broadband amplifier design : lumped and distributed

Impedance tuning and Smith Charts

Signal flow graphs → gain analysis

Power gains.

Reactively tuned amplifier designs

Introduction to noise

Introduction to power amplifiers.

145b / 218b Outline (1)

Radio transmitters and receivers

available radio spectrum

spectra of analog voice, digitally - coded signals

need for frequency conversion : modulation and de - modulation

modulation formats : AM & DSB, QAM digital, (FM)

receiver architectures : TRF and superheterodyne receivers.

transceiver block diagrams

Frequency conversion I

working efficiently with trig. functions.

I/Q signal plane representations.

signal multiplication, sum and difference frequencies. Mixers

Frequency coversion in receivers

Receiver image response. Adjacent Channel Interference

Introduction to receiver frequency plans.

Generation of distortion products

Weak distortion : power series description. Harmonic and intermodulation distortion

2nd - order and 3rd - order intercepts,

Distortion in recievers, intermodulation products

145b / 218b Outline (2)

Receiver designs

frequency plans and gain distributions

aggregate noise floor, aggregate IP3.

receiver sensitivity, receiver dynamic range

Mixer design (circuit - level)

passive & active, balanced and unbalanced

image responses and nonlinearities

Low - noise amplifiers

noise : math, noise models, circuit noise analysis

reactively - tuned LNA design

Power amplifiers

loadlines, amplifier classes, maximum power, efficiency

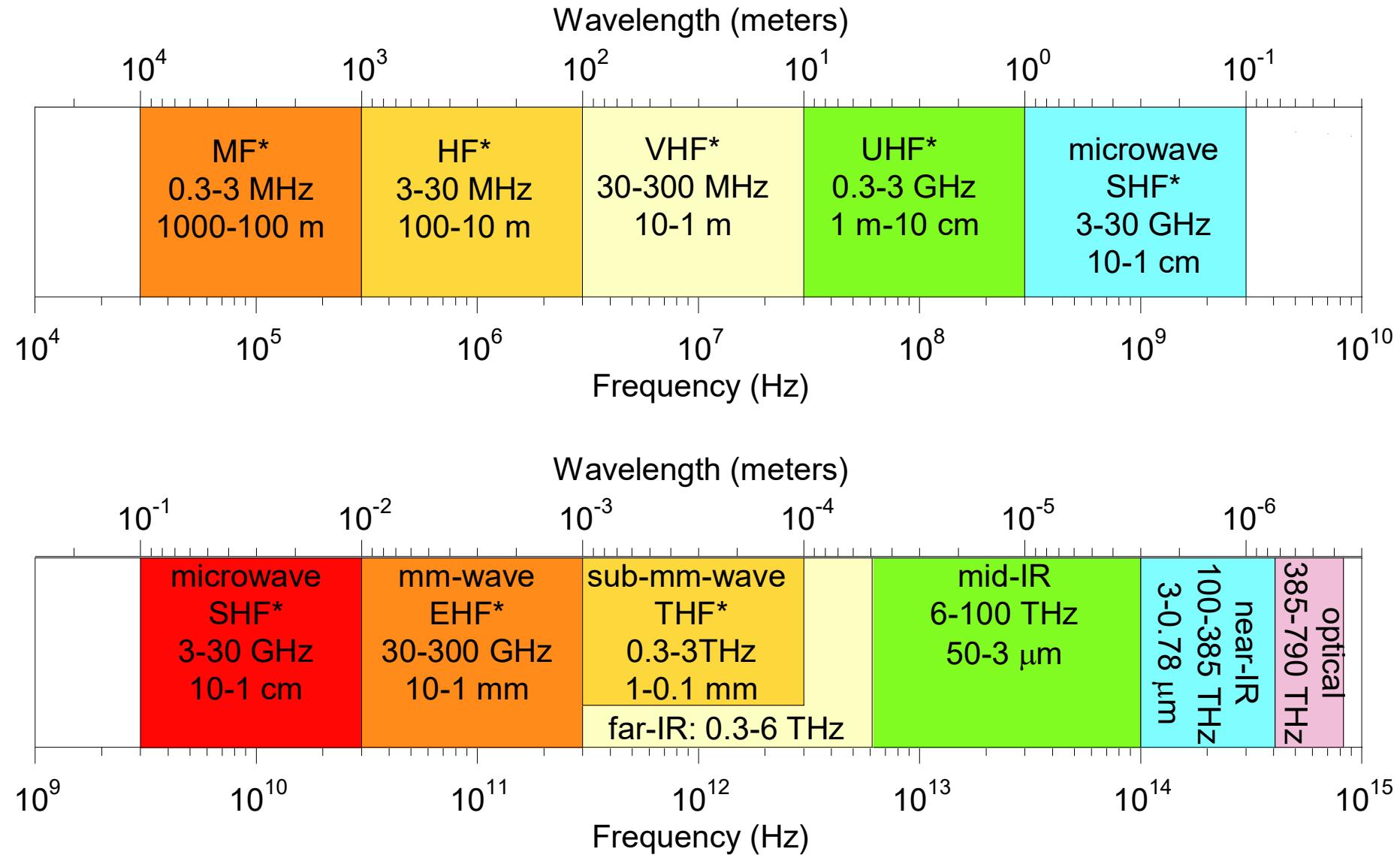
power combining : trees, transformers, baluns

Oscillators

Phase lock loops and frequency synthesis

Radio Waves, Propagation, and Antennas

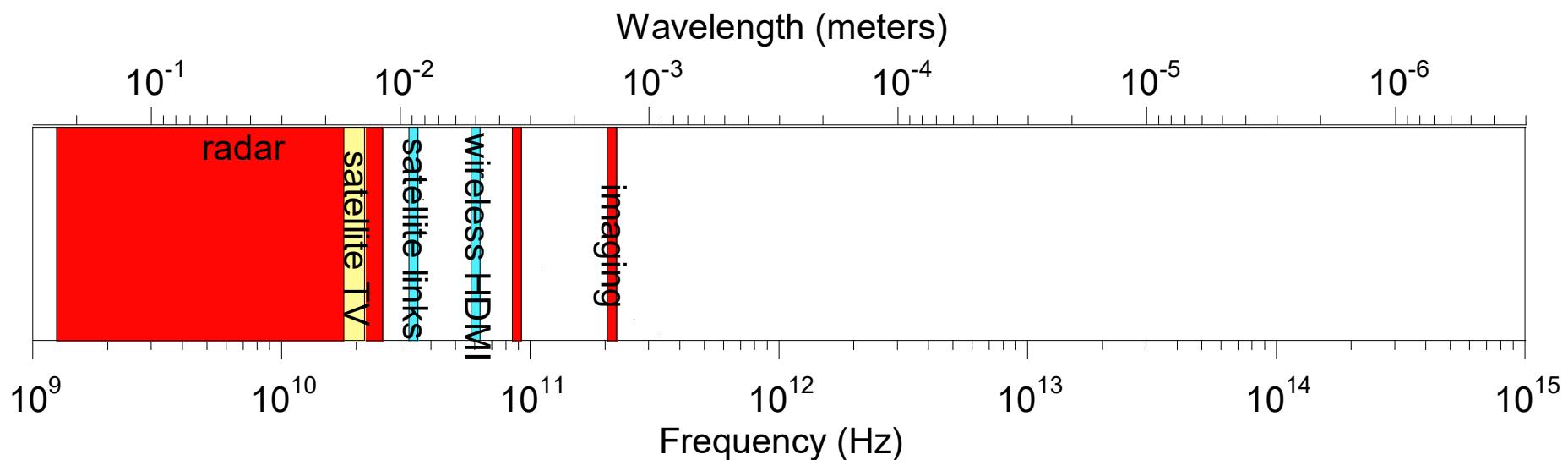
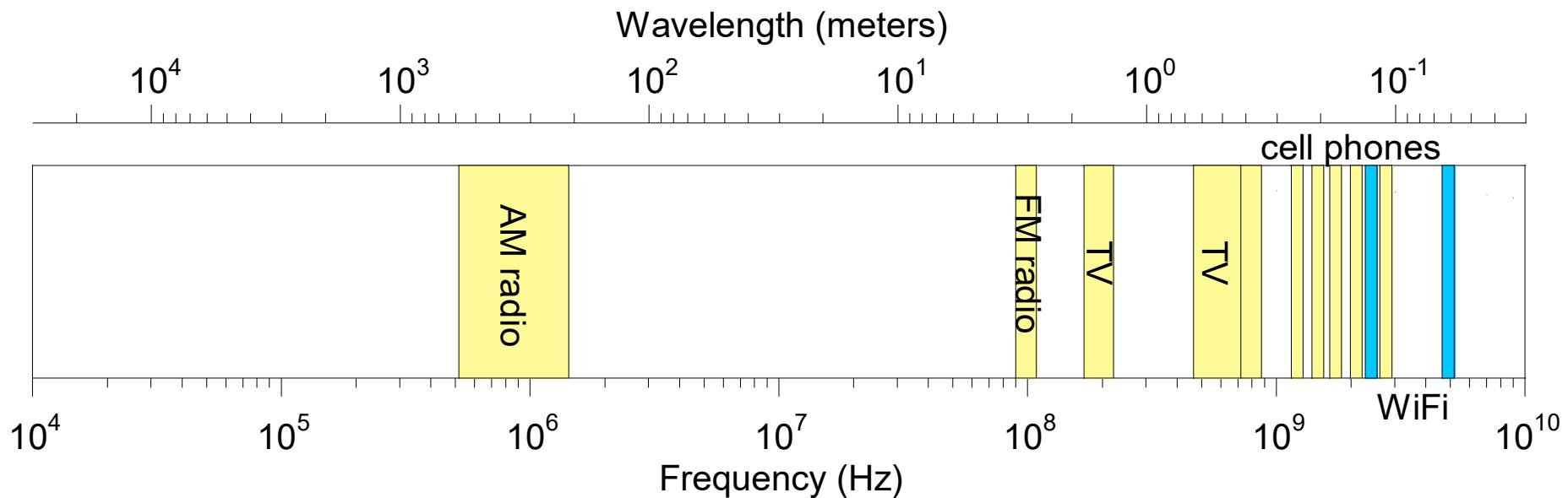
The Radio Spectrum



*ITU band designations

** IR bands as per ISO 20473

Frequencies of a Few Services (Rough #s)



Choice of Transmission Frequency

Government frequency allocation.

Atmospheric attenuation : good weather and bad.

Required antenna size.

Ease of blocking beam.

Curvature of the earth

Atmospheric Attenuation

Fair-weather:

$$\alpha < 5 \text{ dB/km DC-300 GHz}$$

Rain at 50-100 mm/hr. (10^{-4} to 10^{-5} probability):

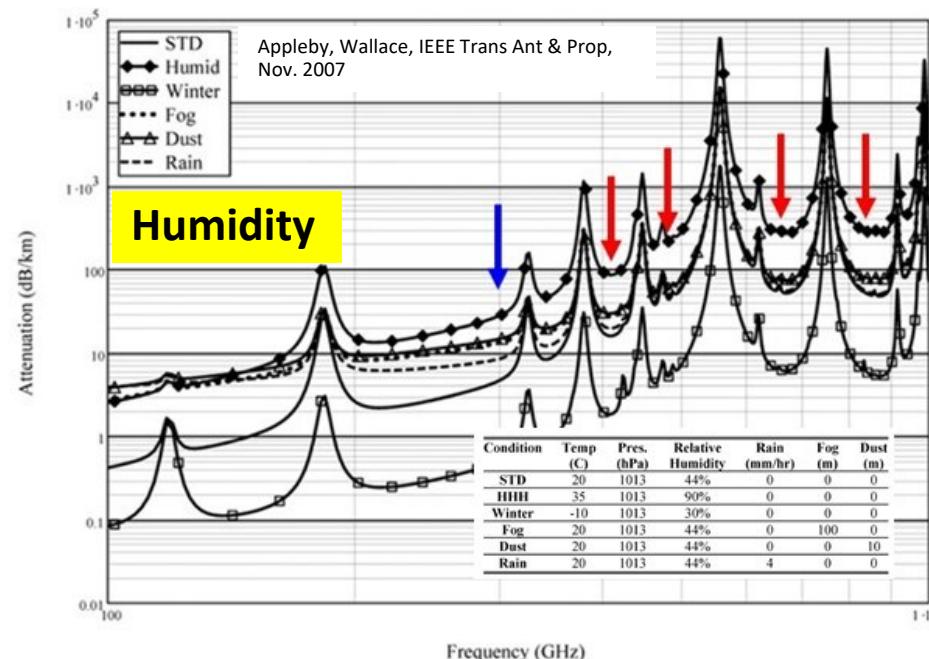
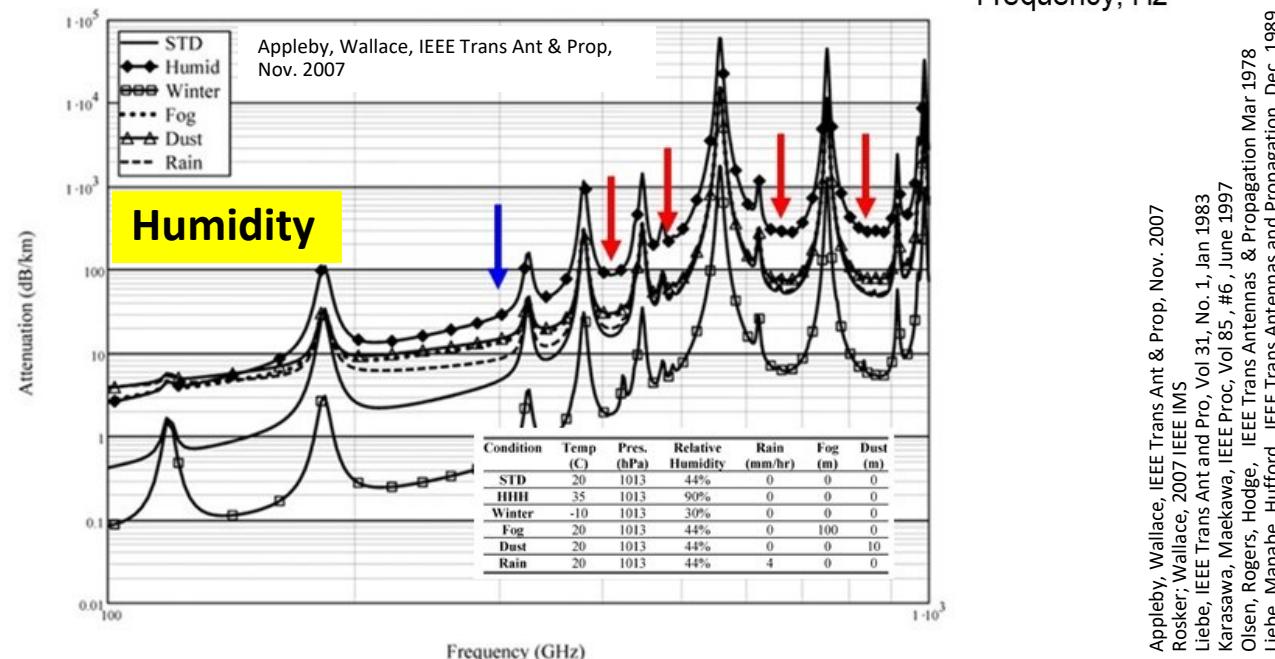
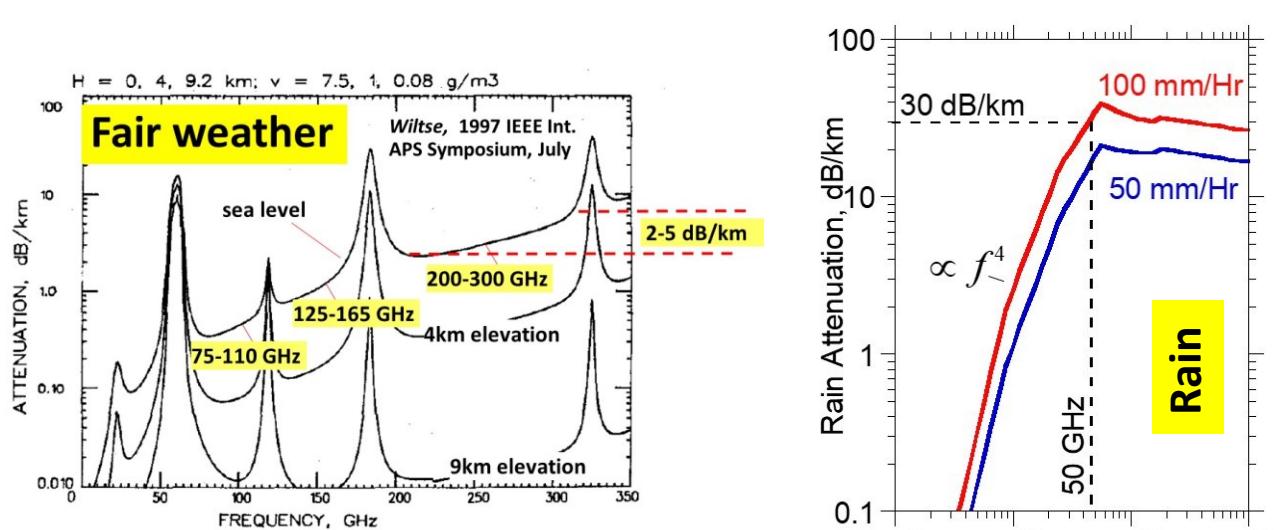
$$\alpha \approx \begin{cases} \propto f^4 & < 50 \text{ GHz} \\ 20 - 30 \text{ dB/km} & > 50 \text{ GHz} \end{cases}$$

90% Humidity (35 C, 95 F):

$$\alpha \approx \begin{cases} 15 \text{ dB/km} & 200 \text{ GHz} \\ 30 \text{ dB/km} & 300 \text{ GHz} \\ > 100 \text{ dB/km} & 360 \text{ GHz-10 THz} \end{cases}$$

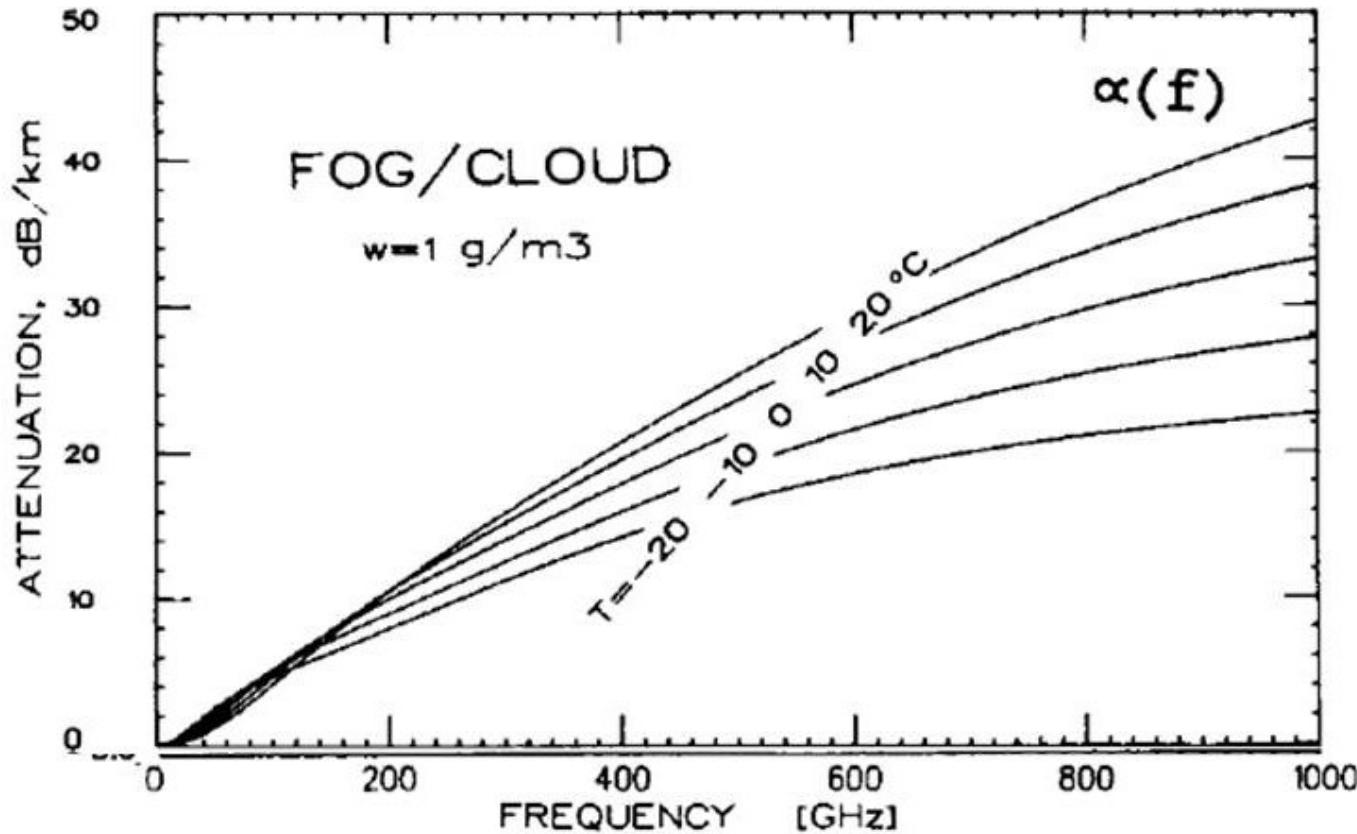
Overall worst-case (10^{-4} to 10^{-5} probability):

$$\alpha \approx \begin{cases} \propto f^4 & < 50 \text{ GHz} \\ 20 - 30 \text{ dB/km} & 50 - 300 \text{ GHz} \\ > 100 \text{ dB/km} & 360 \text{ GHz-10 THz} \end{cases}$$



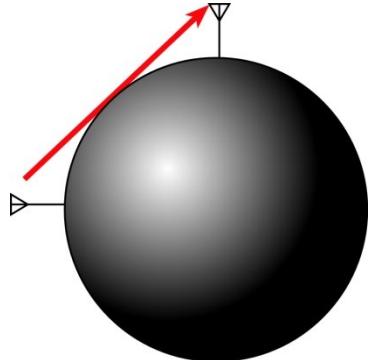
Appleby, Wallace, IEEE Trans Ant & Prop, Nov. 2007
Rosker, Wallace, 2007 IEEE IMS
Liebe, IEEE Trans Ant and Prop, Vol 31, No. 1, Jan 1983
Karasawa, Maekawa, IEEE Proc., Vol 85, #6, June 1997
Olsen, Rogers, Hodges, IEEE Trans Antennas & Propagation Mar 1978
Liebe, Manabe, Hufford, IEEE Trans Antennas and Propagation, Dec. 1989

Propagation: Fog



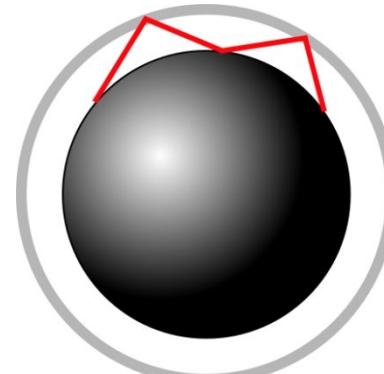
Extreme Fog ($1\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)
 $\sim(25 \text{ dB/km}) \times (\text{frequency}/500 \text{ GHz})$

Curvature of the earth, reflection from the ionosphere



Long - range radio transmission is limited by the curvature of the earth.

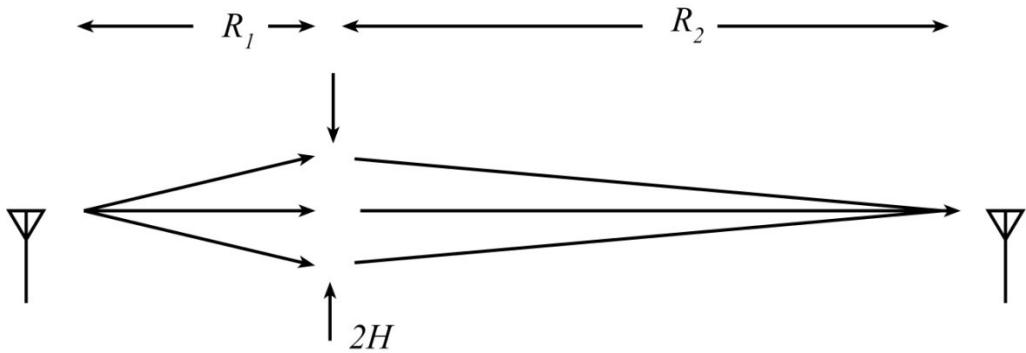
Reflection from the ionosphere enables long - range transmission



This requires frequencies below the electron plasma resonance frequency, of order 10 MHz in the ionosphere

Intercontinental radio requires satellites or low - frequency carriers (Marconi)

Fresnel Zone: Where the Radio Beam Carries The Signal



Paths add (almost) in - phase if difference in path lengths is less than $\lambda / 4$.

$$\sqrt{R_1^2 + H^2} + \sqrt{R_2^2 + H^2} - (R_1 + R_2) < \lambda / 4.$$

Let us assume $R_1 \ll R_2$ and $H \ll R_1$

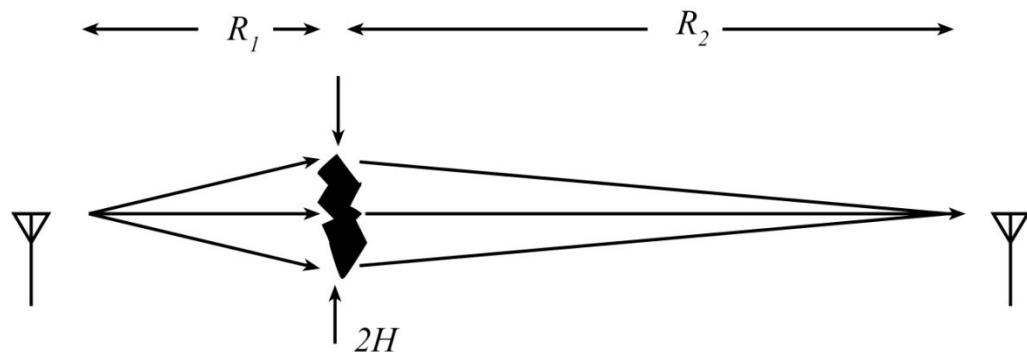
$$\begin{aligned} \sqrt{R_1^2 + H^2} + \sqrt{R_2^2 + H^2} - (R_1 + R_2) &= R_1 \sqrt{1 + H^2 / R_1^2} + R_2 \sqrt{1 + H^2 / R_2^2} - (R_1 + R_2) \\ &\approx R_1(1 + H^2 / 2R_1^2) + R_2(1 + H^2 / 2R_2^2) - (R_1 + R_2) \\ &= H^2 / 2R_1 + H^2 / 2R_2 \approx H^2 / 2R_1 \end{aligned}$$

$$\rightarrow H = \sqrt{R_1 \lambda / 2}$$

The beam between antennas is carried in an area $A = \pi H^2 = \pi R_1 \lambda / 2$.

This is called the (first) Fresnel Zone.

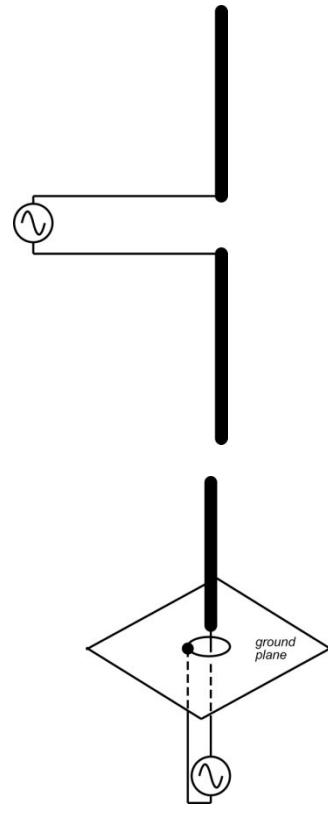
Fresnel Zone: Where the Radio Beam Carries The Signal



Still assuming $R_1 \ll R_2$ and $H \ll R_1$,
an object of diameter $H = \sqrt{R_1 \lambda / 2}$ hence area $A = \pi R_1 \lambda / 2$.
will block most of the power in the beam.

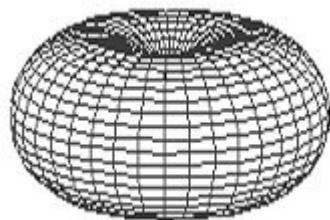
Longer wavelength (lower - frequency) signals
are less likely to be blocked.

Nearly Isotropic Antennas



Dipole antenna : radiates effectively when length is $\sim \lambda/2$

Antenna can be reduced 2:1 in length
by using wide ground plane.
"quarter - wave antenna"



radiation pattern is isotropic in vertical plane,
and varies as $\sim \cos(\theta)$ in vertical plane

Directional Antennas



Yagi - Uda

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Two_meter_yagi.jpg

log - periodic



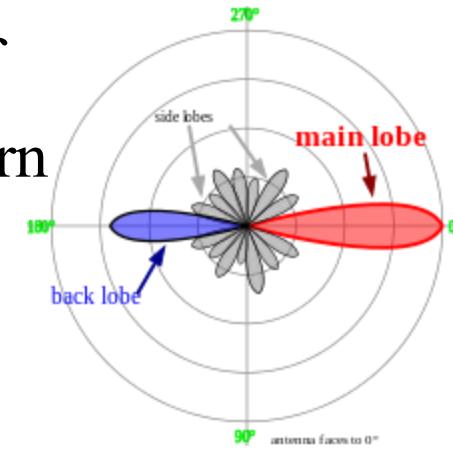
http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Log-periodic_antenna



parabolic
reflector

<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:SuperDISH121.jpg>

Typical plot of
radiation pattern

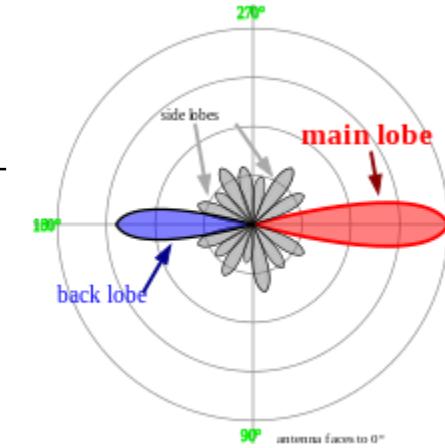


http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Radiation_pattern

Antenna Directivity

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Radiation_pattern

$$\text{directivity} = \frac{\text{peak intensity radiated}}{\text{radiated intensity of isotropic antenna}}$$



$$\begin{aligned} \text{directivity} &\approx \frac{\text{solid angle of a sphere}}{\text{angular beamwidth (solid angle) in steradians}} \\ &= \frac{4\pi}{\text{angular beamwidth (solid angle) in steradians}} \end{aligned}$$

Simple half - wave dipole antennas have a directivity of 1.64.

**Received
Signal Strength**

Friis Transmission Formula

$$\left(\frac{P_{received}}{P_{transmitted}} \right) = \left(\frac{D_t D_r}{16\pi^2} \right) \left(\frac{\lambda^2}{R^2} \right) e^{-\alpha R}$$

$$D = \frac{4\pi A}{\lambda^2}$$

D = antenna directivity

A = antenna effective aperture area

R = transmission range

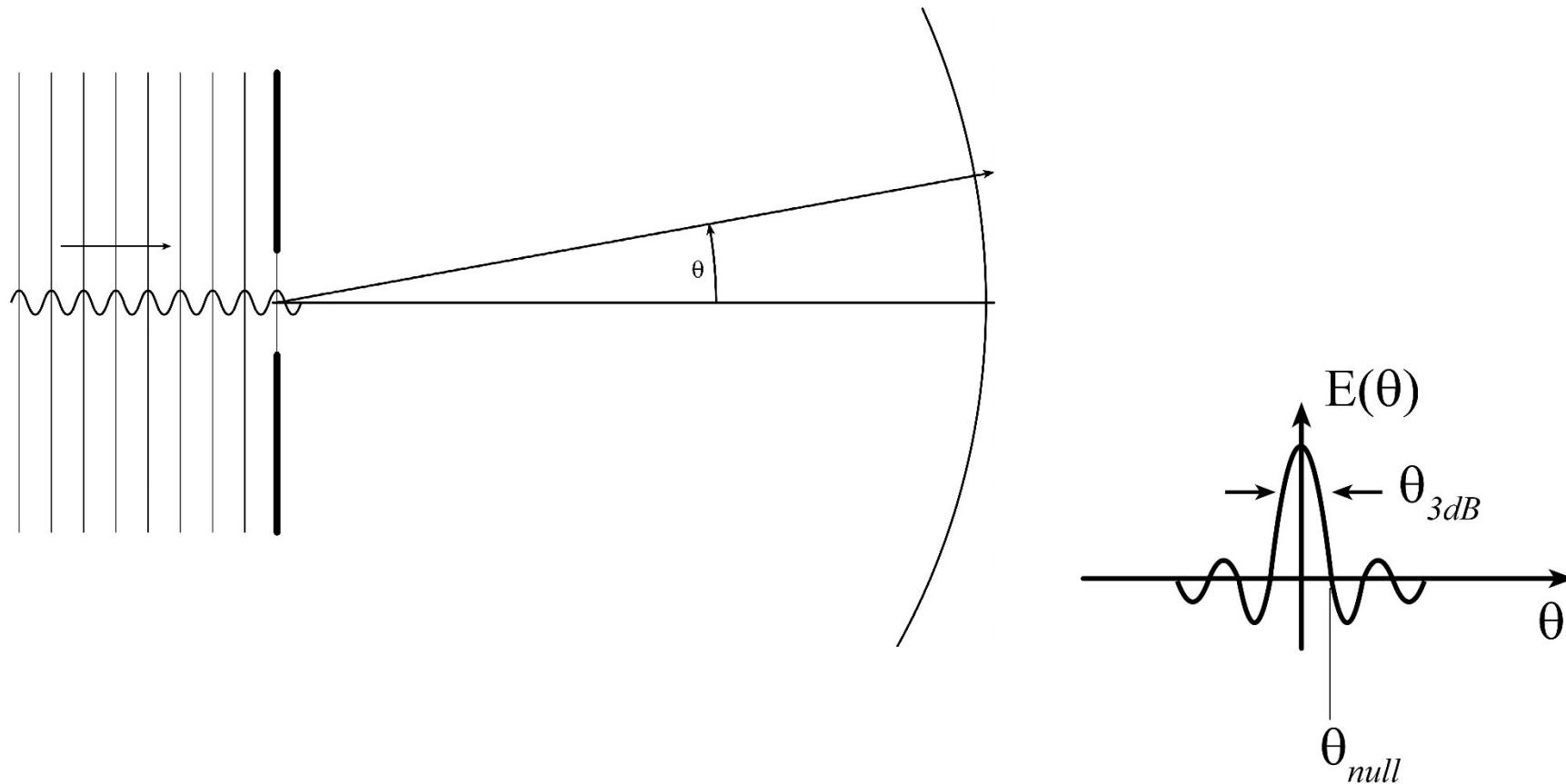
α = atmospheric attenuation

Ignores many factors :
scattering from terrain
curvature of the planet
objects in the beam path
multipath propagation...

Where do these relationships come from ?

Plane Wave Incident on a Barrier

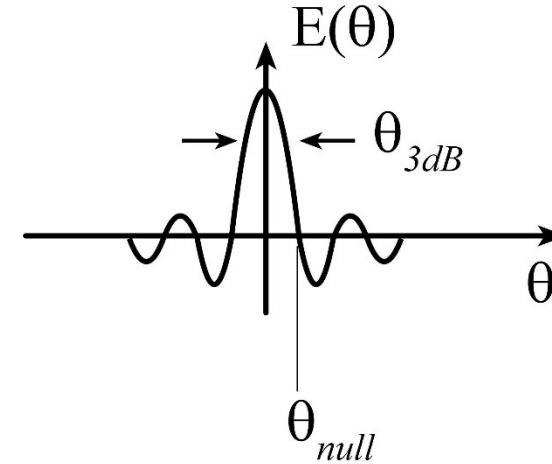
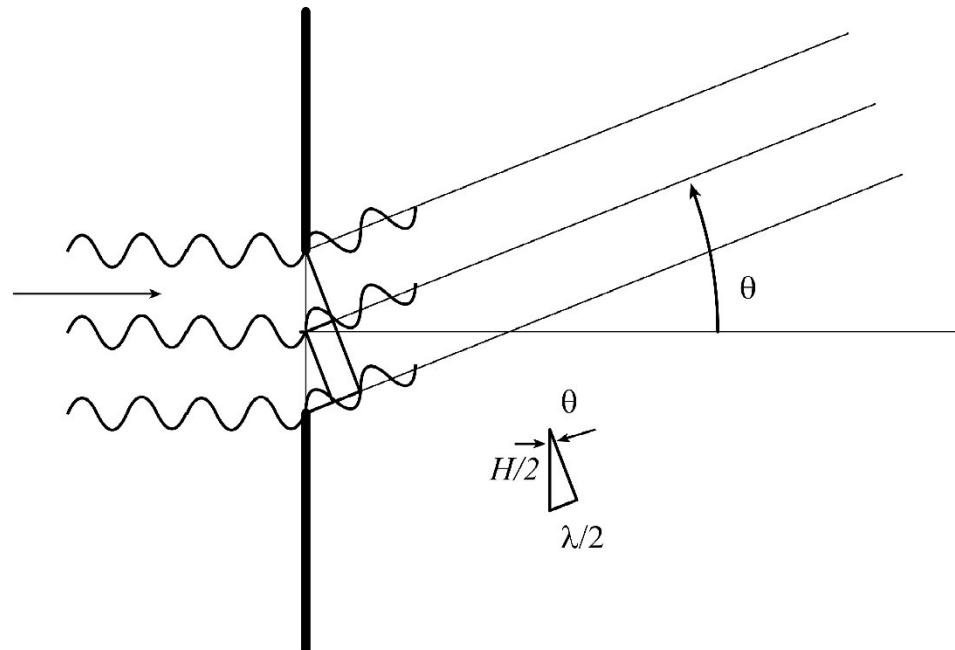
Plane wave incident on a barrier with an aperture :
....what is the far - field pattern ?



Angular beamwidth of an aperture

If $\lambda / H = \sin \theta$, then the top half of the aperture, of height H, will radiate 180° out - of - phase from the lower half.

$$\rightarrow \text{Null in beam} \rightarrow \theta_{\text{null}} = \sin^{-1}(\lambda / H)$$



Small angle approximation : $\sin \theta \cong \theta$, $\rightarrow \theta_{\text{null}} = \lambda / H$

Beamwidth at nulls $2\theta_{\text{null}} = 2\lambda / H$,

Rough guess at half - power beamwidth $\theta_{3dB} \approx \lambda / H$

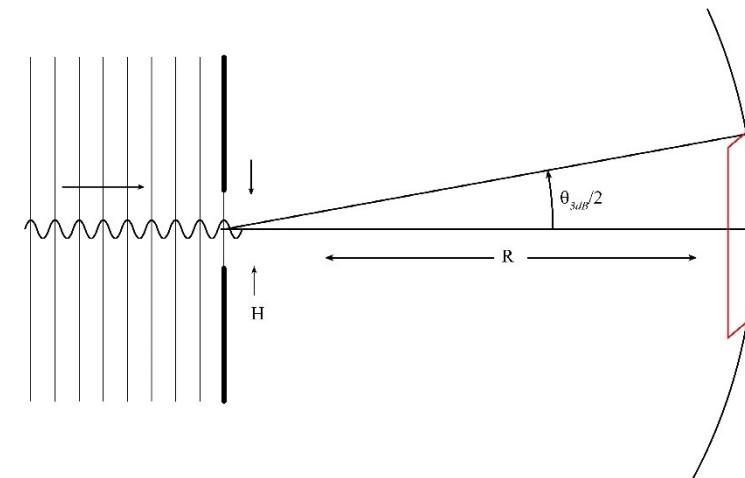
Directivity vs Area

We've just determined that if the aperture height is H
then the vertical half - power beamwidth $\theta_{3dB,vertical} \approx \lambda / H$

Similarly, if the aperture * width * is W
then the * horizontal * half - power beamwidth $\theta_{3dB,horizontal} \approx \lambda / W$

At a distance R , the aperture will illuminate (red rectangle)

$$\text{an area } A_{\text{illuminated}} = \theta_{3dB,horizontal} \theta_{3dB,vertical} \cdot R^2$$



Directivity vs Area

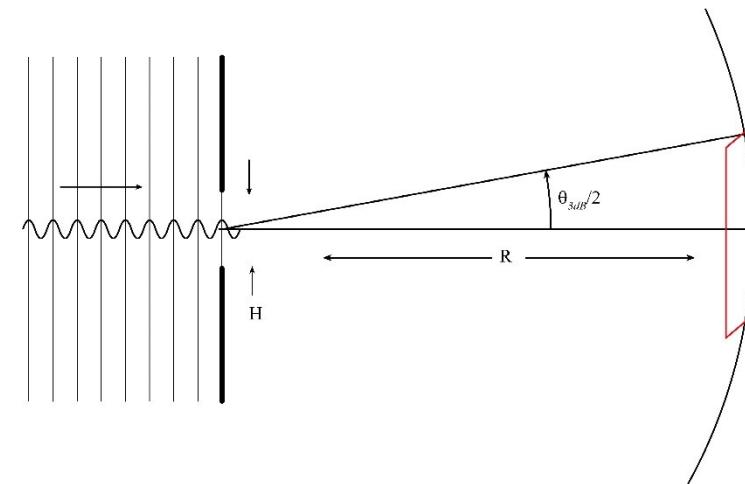
Area of a sphere of radius R : $A_{sphere} = 4\pi R^2$

Antenna directivity = $D \equiv A_{sphere} / A_{\text{illuminated}}$

$D = 4\pi / \theta_{3dB,\text{horizontal}} \theta_{3dB,\text{vertical}}$ (angles in radians)

But, $\theta_{3dB,\text{vertical}} \approx \lambda / H$, $\theta_{3dB,\text{horizontal}} \approx \lambda / W$

So: $D = 4\pi WH / \lambda^2 = 4\pi A / \lambda^2$ where A is the aperture area



Transmit vs receive antenna

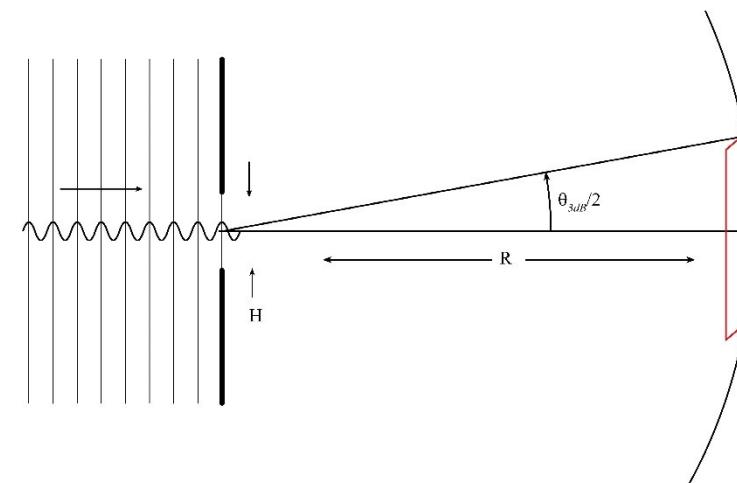
Transmitter aperture : height H_T , width W_T , area A_T , directivity D_t

Receiver aperture : height H_R , width W_R , area A_R , directivity D_R

For either :

$$D = 4\pi A / \lambda^2 = 4\pi / \theta_{3dB, horizontal} \theta_{3dB, vertical} \quad (\text{angles in radians})$$

$$\theta_{3dB, horizontal} \approx \lambda / W, \quad \theta_{3dB, vertical} \approx \lambda / H$$



Received power → Friis Transmission Formula

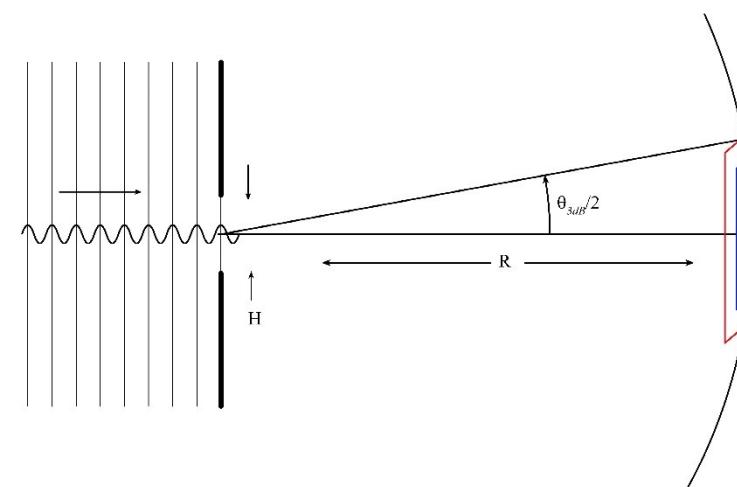
Red rectangle: area, at radius R , illuminated by transmitter

Blue rectangle: area of receiving antenna

$$\frac{P_{received}}{P_{transmitted}} = \frac{\text{receiver area}}{\text{illuminated area}} = \frac{A_R}{4\pi R^2 / D_t} = \frac{A_R D_t}{4\pi R^2}$$

But $D_t = 4\pi A_t / \lambda^2$ and $D_r = 4\pi A_r / \lambda^2$

$$\text{So: } \frac{P_{received}}{P_{transmitted}} = \frac{A_R A_t}{\lambda^2 R^2} = \frac{D_t D_r}{16\pi^2} \cdot \frac{\lambda^2}{R^2}$$



To summarize

$$\frac{P_{received}}{P_{transmitted}} = \frac{\text{receiver area}}{\text{illuminated area}} = \frac{A_R A_t}{\lambda^2 R^2} = \frac{D_t D_r}{16\pi^2} \cdot \frac{\lambda^2}{R^2}$$

$$D = \frac{4\pi A}{\lambda^2} \approx \frac{4\pi}{\theta_{3dB, horizontal} \theta_{3dB, horizontal}} \quad (\text{angles in radians})$$

$$D \approx \frac{41,000 \text{ degrees}^2}{\theta_{3dB, horizontal} \theta_{3dB, horizontal}} \quad (\text{angles in radians})$$

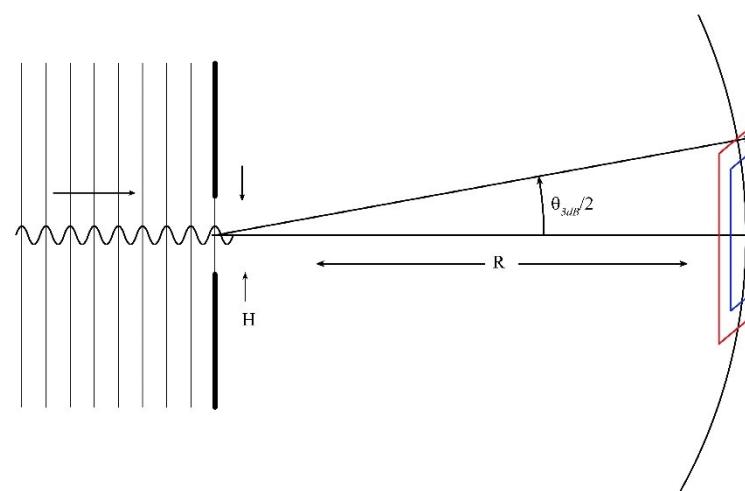
$$\theta_{3dB, horizontal} \approx \lambda / W, \quad \theta_{3dB, vertical} \approx \lambda / H$$

Ignores :

atmospheric loss

terrain scattering loss

beam blockage



Phased Arrays

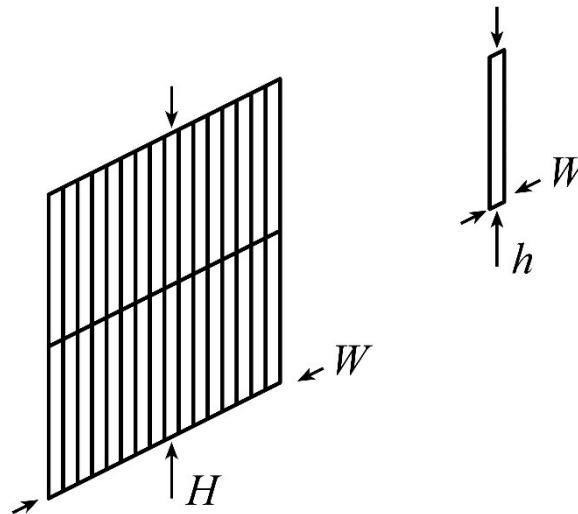
An array of antennas:

Take a small antenna :

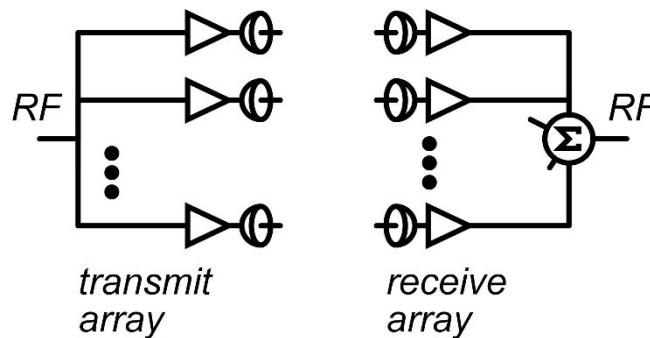
size h by w .

Make a large array of them :

overall size H by W .



Drive them in phase
on transmit, or on receive.
This is an *array antenna*



Vertical half - power beamwidth $\theta_{3dB,vertical} \approx \lambda / H$

Horizontal half - power beamwidth $\theta_{3dB,horizontal} \approx \lambda / W$

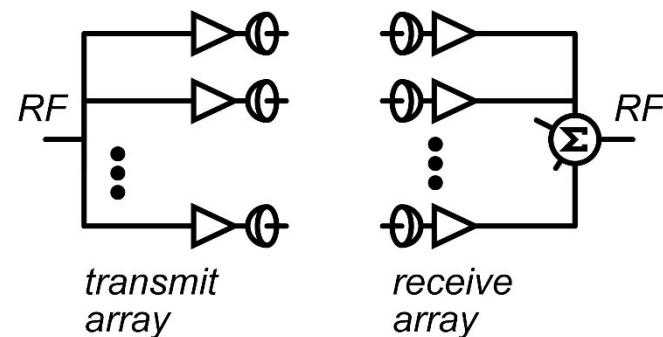
An array of antennas:

Picture of an example →

Note that the array is
aimed by *mechanical* steering



* Electronic * beamsteering
is also possible.



Beamwidth of antenna array: element phases

Drive the antennas in - phase :

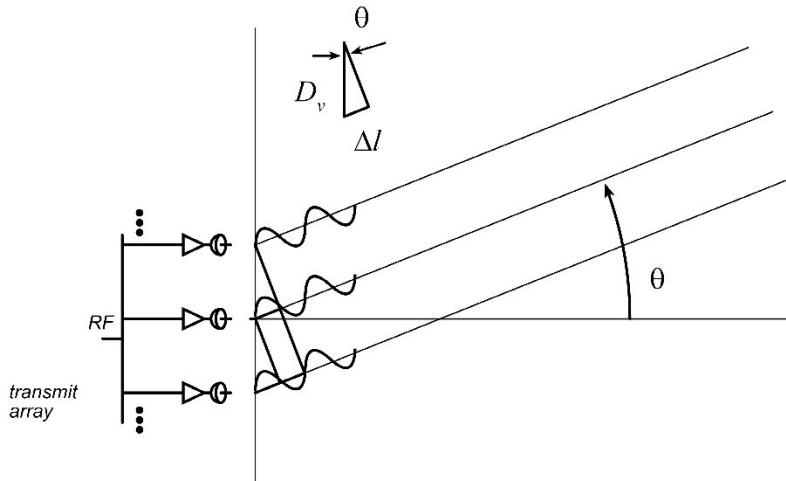
Physical angle θ .

Vertical element separation D_v .

Path length difference $\Delta l = D_v \sin \theta$

Time delay difference $\Delta \tau = (D_v / c) \sin \theta$

Electrical relative phase shift $\phi = 2\pi\Delta l / \lambda$.



If $\theta \neq 0$, signals do not add in - phase.

This is why angular beamwidth is λ / H , not λ / h

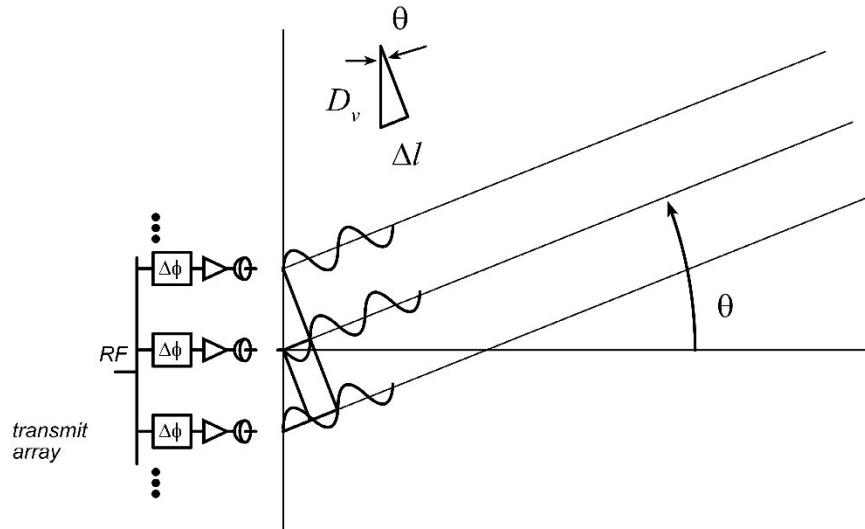
Electronic Beamsteering, a.k.a. phased array

Add phase - shifters :

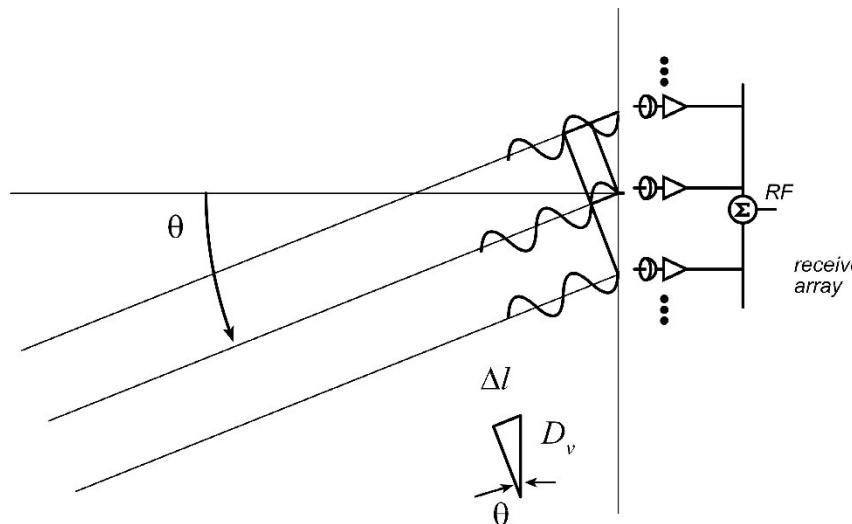
bring signals back into phase at physical angle θ .

Electrical relative phase shift $\phi = 2\pi\Delta l / \lambda$.

Path length difference $\Delta l = D_v \sin \theta$



Receiver phased array



Why phased arrays ?

Large aperture,
high directivity,
narrow beamwidth
strong received signal
interference and multipath immunity

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Phased_array



But, no need to
mechanically aim narrow beam.
(electronic beamsteering)



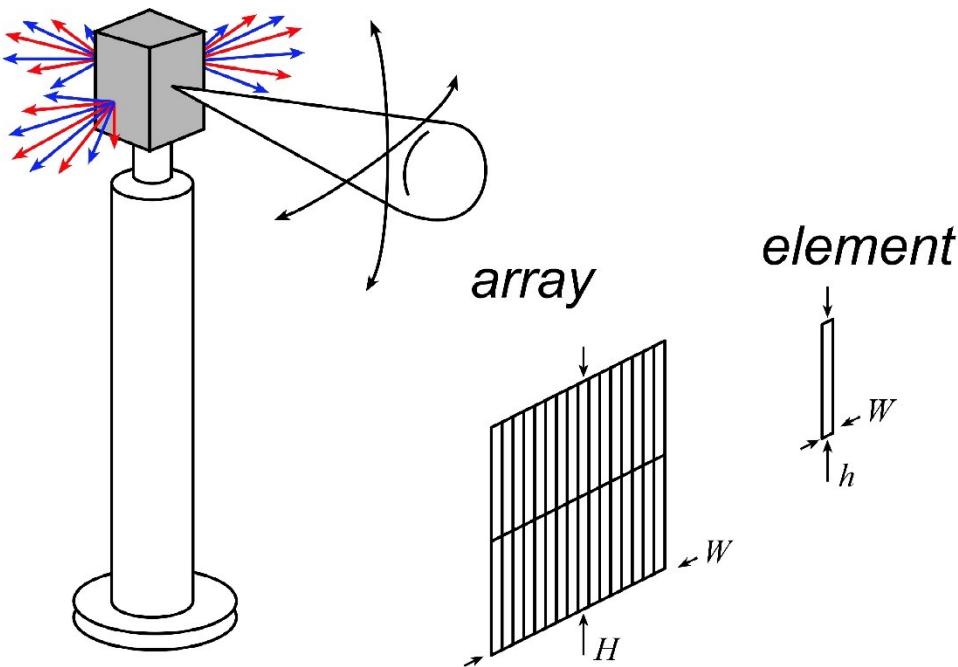
Antenna & array basics

Overall array sets beamwidth and gain

$$\text{horizontal beamwidth} \approx \frac{\lambda}{\text{array width}} \text{ (radians)}$$

$$\text{vertical beamwidth} \approx \frac{\lambda}{\text{array height}}$$

$$\text{Gain (directivity)} \approx \frac{4\pi \cdot \text{array area}}{\lambda^2}$$



Individual element sets maximum beamsteering range.

$$\text{horizontal steering} \approx \frac{\lambda}{\text{element width}} \text{ (radians)}$$

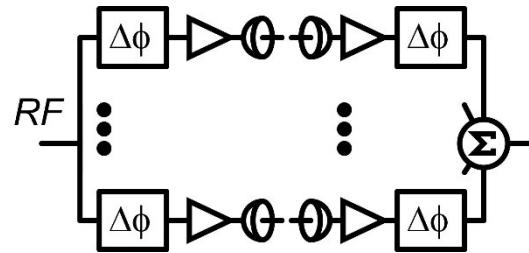
$$\text{vertical steering} \approx \frac{\lambda}{\text{element height}}$$

Formulas assume that array elements touch each other; if there are spaces, we must re - derive.

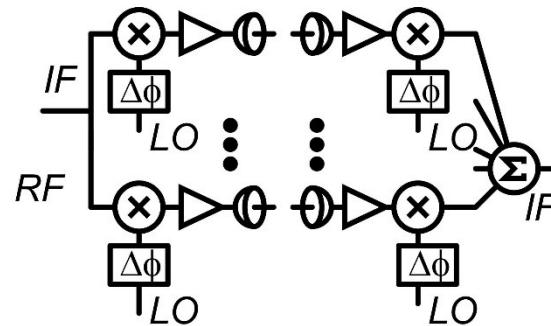
At large steering angle, projected array area diminishes, increasing beamwidth. Again, must re - derive.

Beamsteering electronics: Architectures

RF phase - shifting



LO phase - shifting



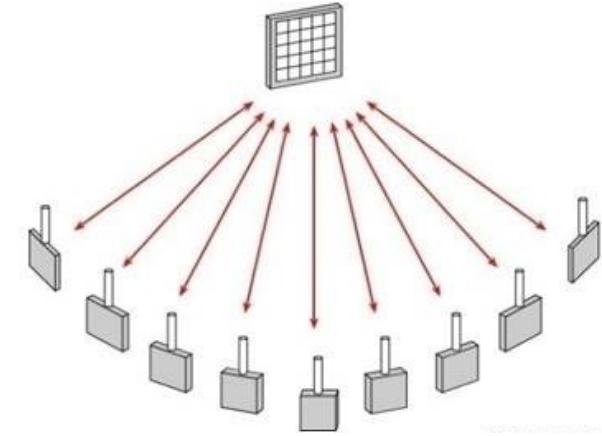
Beamsteering electronics: Architectures

multiple independent beams

each carrying different data

each independently aimed

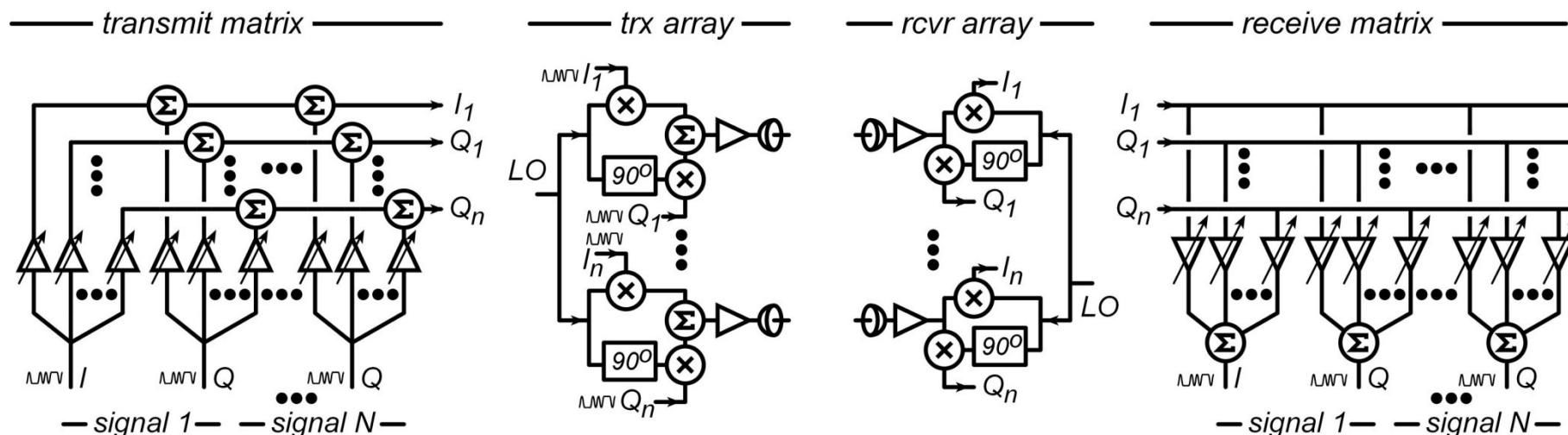
beams = # array elements



Hardware:

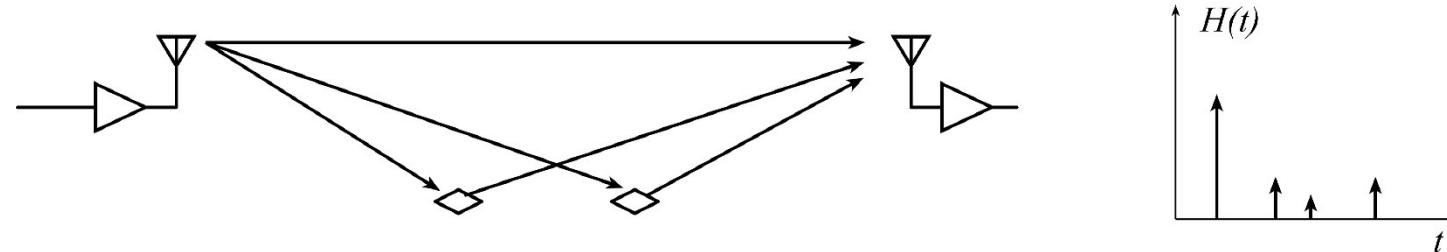
In effect, a separate phased array for each signal

Signal processing: matrix operations at baseband



MultiPath Propagation

Multipath Propagation



Given large angular beamwidth (low - directivity antennas)

Many objects in antenna beam pattern.

Many signal paths : "multi - path propagation"

Each path has different length, different delay.

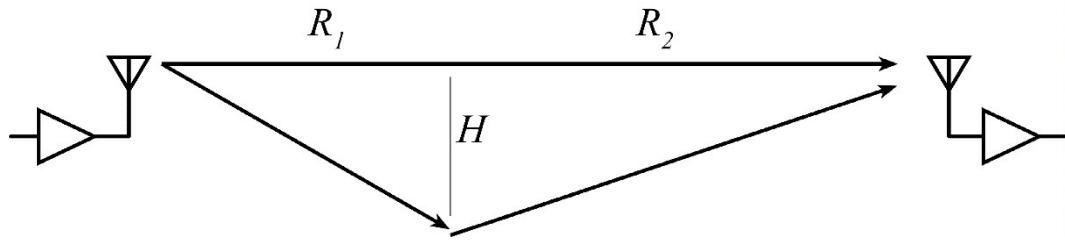
Reflecting surface boundary condition : possible phase shift.

Each path has different signal strength

 Directivity of antennas

 Strength of reflection

Multipath Propagation: Delay Spread



Line of sight (LOS) path : $R = R_1 + R_2$

Non - LOS (NLOS) path : $D = \sqrt{R_1^2 + H^2} + \sqrt{R_2^2 + H^2}$

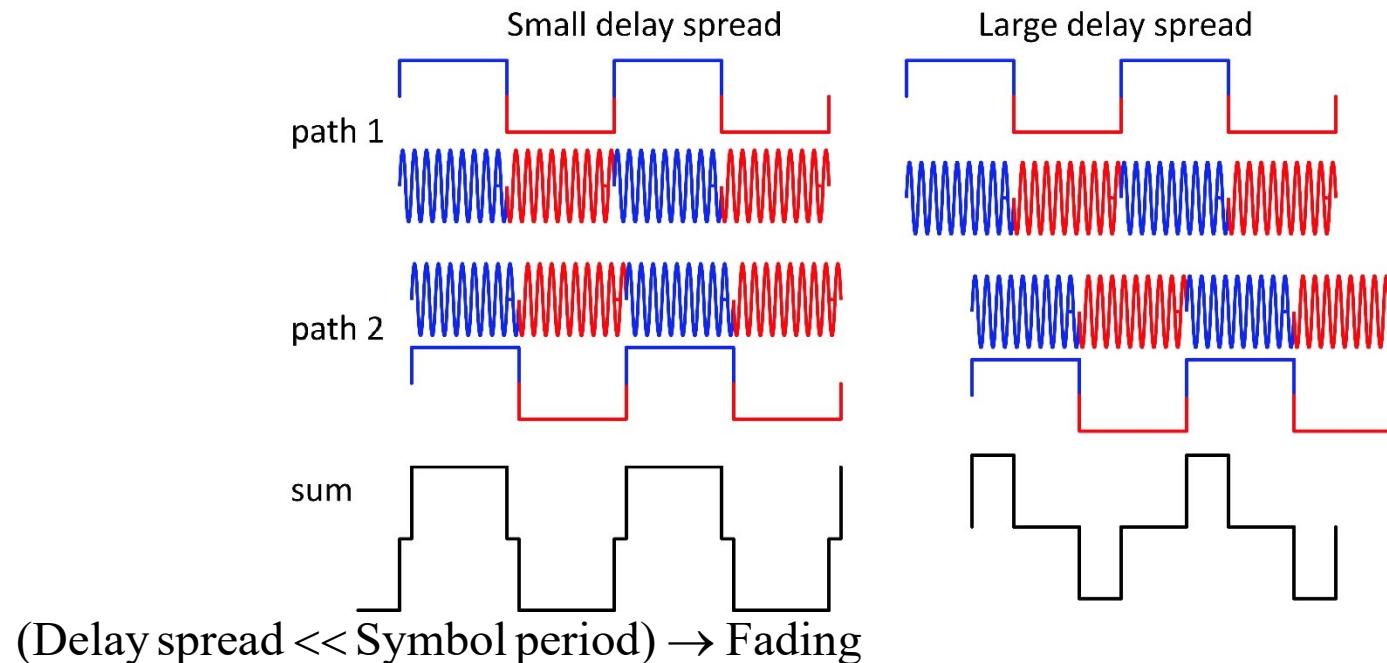
Low D_t, D_r : wide angles, use Pythagorus, above.

Large D_t, D_r : small angles, use small - angle approximation.

$$D \approx R_1 \left(1 + \frac{H^2}{2R_1^2} \right) + R_2 \left(1 + \frac{H^2}{2R_2^2} \right) = R + \frac{H^2}{2R_1} + \frac{H^2}{2R_2}$$

$$\rightarrow \text{Delay spread} = \tau = \frac{1}{c} \left(\frac{H^2}{2R_1} + \frac{H^2}{2R_2} \right)$$

Fading vs Intersymbol interference



LOS and NLOS signals arrive with symbol periods \sim aligned

Carriers are out of phase \rightarrow interference \rightarrow possibly very weak signal

fix : two receiving antennas at appropriate separation

(Delay spread > Symbol period) → Intersymbol interference

One bit period interferes with another

need adaptive equalizer in receiver

or use ODFM :longer symbol periods

**Signals to be
Transmitted**

Signals we might want to transmit by radio

Voice - quality sound transmission : 0.4 - 4 kHz

Range of human hearing (optimistic) : 20 Hz - 20 kHz

Uncompressed HDTV : about 1.5 Gb/sec

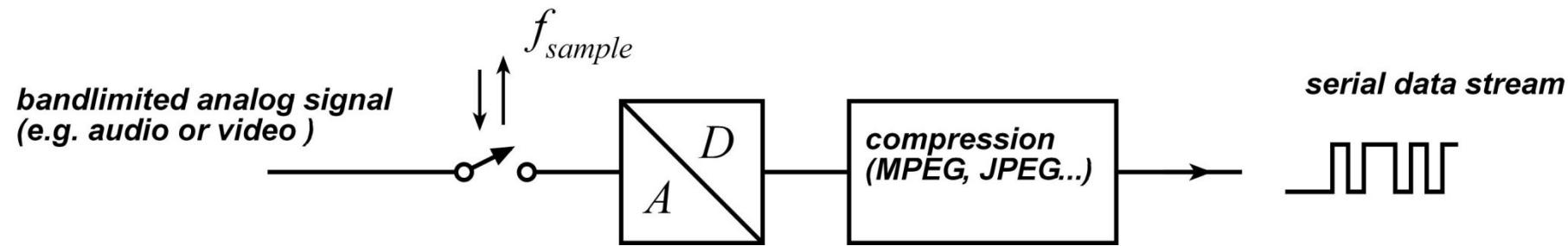
Compressed HDTV : about 15 Mb/s

WiFi : ~ 100 Mb/s

MP3 compressed audio : 32 - 320 kb/s

These signals must be translated in frequency
if we are to transmit them by radio waves.

Generation of Digital Data Streams

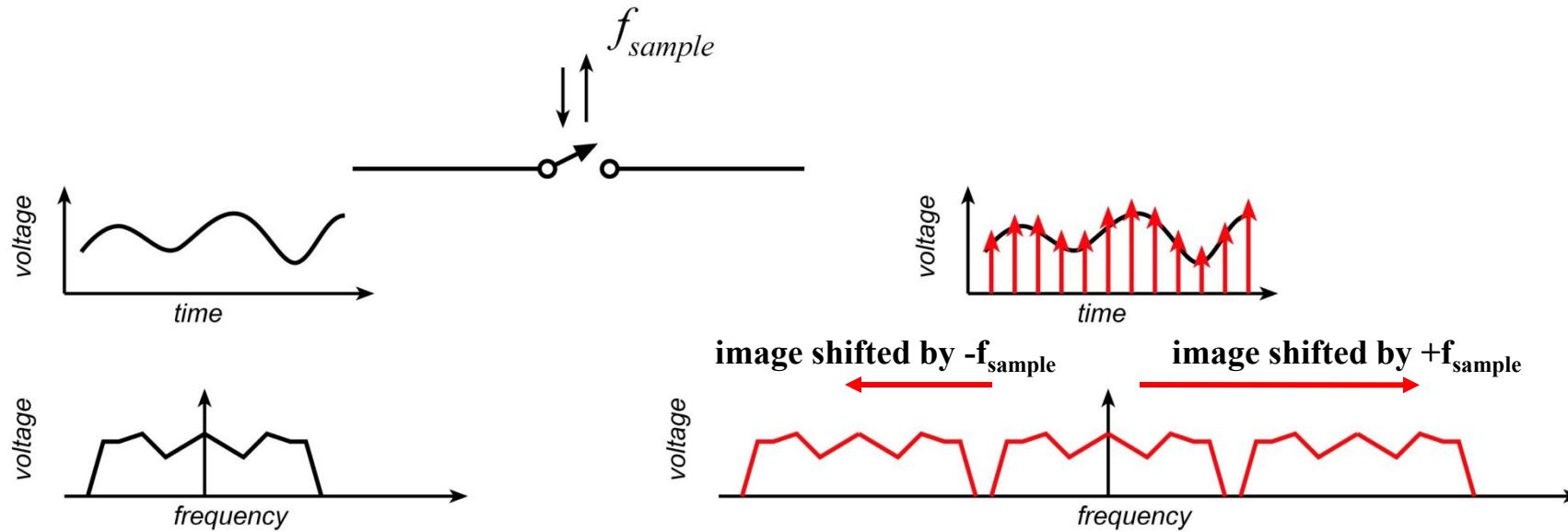


Samples must then be digitized with some # of bits resolution .

If the digital stream contains redundancy,
data rates can be reduced by compression. (information theory)

→ JPG, MPG, MP3,...

Recall the Sampling Theorem



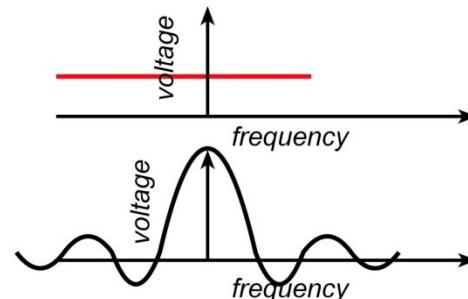
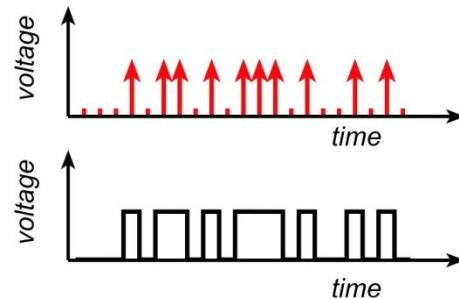
To avoid spectral aliasing, a signal of bandwidth limited

to $(-f_{sig}, +f_{sig})$ must be sampled at a rate $f_{sample} > 2f_{sig}$.

Bandlimiting of digital data streams (1)



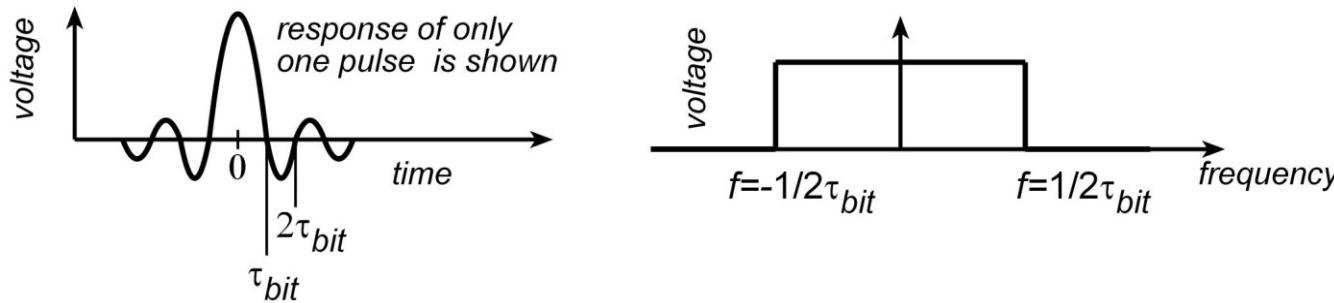
Filtering a digital signal rounds the waveform and reduces the signal bandwidth



A train of impulses has a flat spectrum

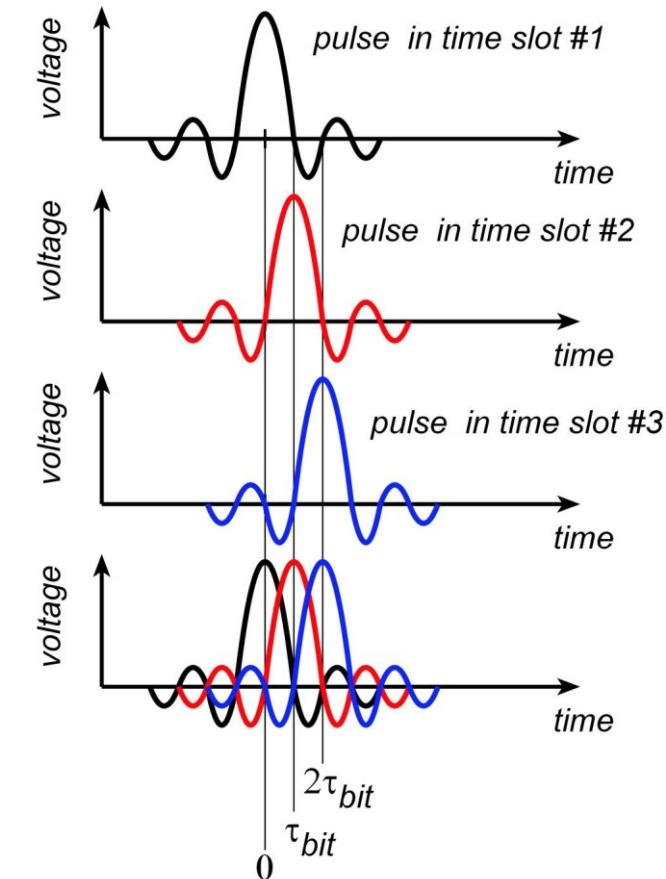
A rectangular pulse train has
spectrum = $\sin(\omega\tau_{bit}/2)/(\omega\tau_{bit}/2)$

Bandlimiting of digital data streams (2)



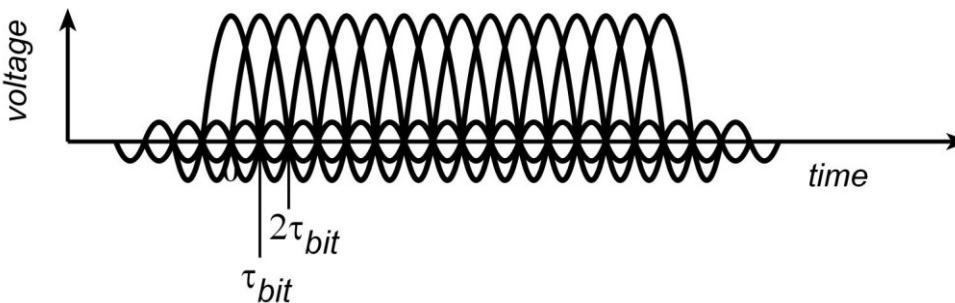
If the data stream is brick - wall filtered to bandwidth ($f = -1/2\tau_{bit}, f = +1/2\tau_{bit}$), then each data pulse has a shape $\sin(\pi t / \tau_{bit}) / (\pi t / \tau_{bit})$.

The function $\sin(\pi t / \tau_{bit}) / (\pi t / \tau_{bit})$ is zero for $t = 2\tau_{bit}, 3\tau_{bit}, 4\tau_{bit}$, etc., so there is zero intersymbol interference (ISI) between successive bits in the data stream.



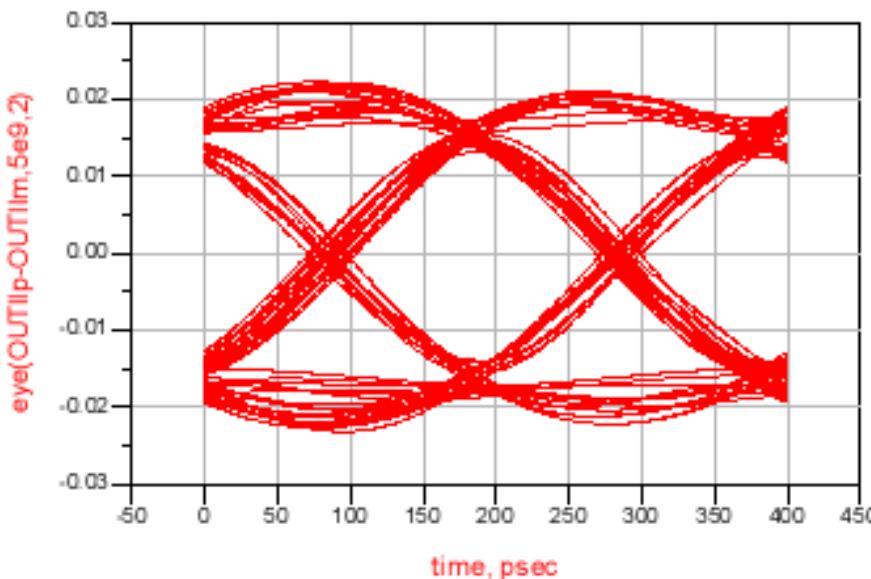
Bandlimiting of digital data streams (3)

Overall digital waveform is a sum of these pulses. This is hard to draw.



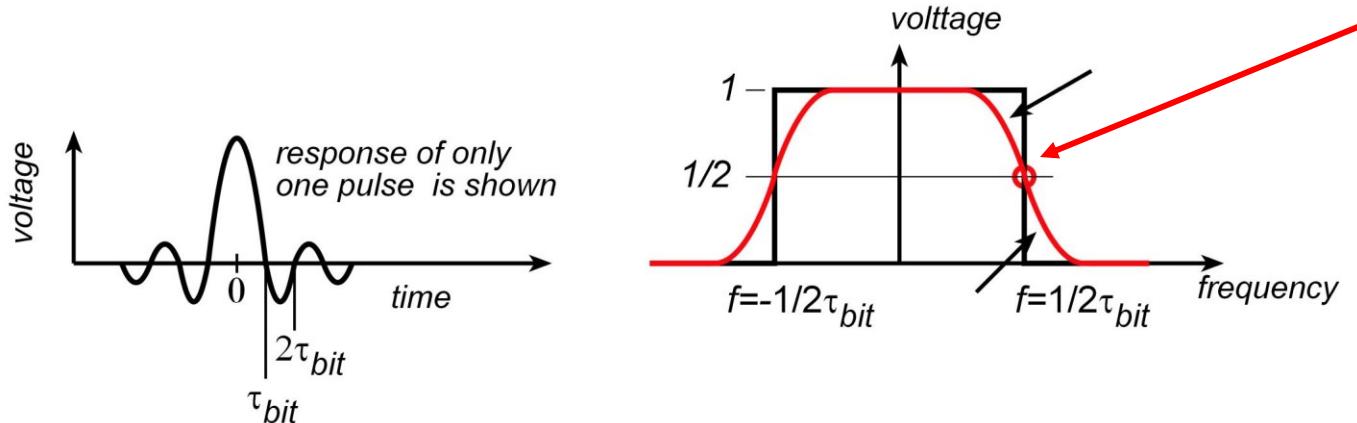
Here is what the waveform looks like.

This is an eye pattern.
Trajectory is drawn repeatedly
for all possible data sequences.

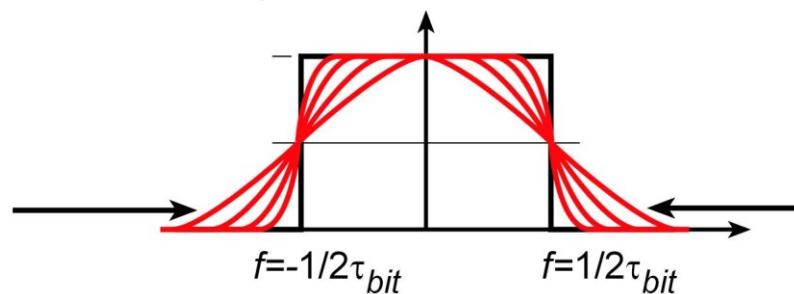


Bandlimiting of digital data streams (4)

Nyquist's vestigal sideband theorem (NOT his sampling theorem) :



If the spectrum is symmetric with a 180 degree ration about the indicated point, then the intersymbol interference will be zero.



Minimum bandwidth is $(-1/2\tau_{bit}, +1/2\tau_{bit})$

→ minimum total bandwidth is equal to the +/- (1/2) the bit rate.

Typical filters are broader,

→ typical required bandwidth somewhat greater than +/- (1/2) the bit rate.

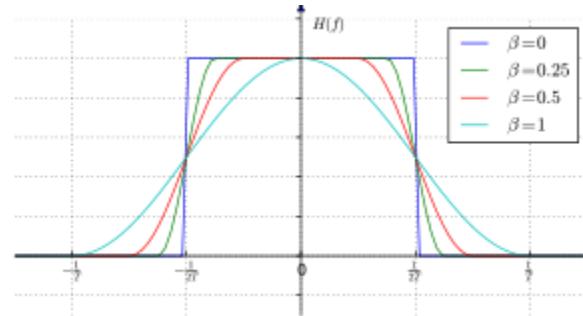
Pulses with Raised Cosine Spectra : From Wikipedia.

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Raised-cosine_filter

The Raised - cosine pulse waveform is a mathematical idealization of a family of zero - ISI signals. These are used in approximating real transmission systems

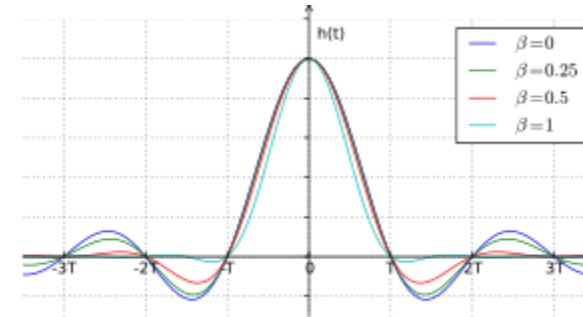
Fourier Transform of pulse

$$H(f) = \begin{cases} T, & |f| \leq \frac{1-\beta}{2T} \\ \frac{T}{2} \left[1 + \cos \left(\frac{\pi T}{\beta} \left[|f| - \frac{1-\beta}{2T} \right] \right) \right], & \frac{1-\beta}{2T} < |f| \leq \frac{1+\beta}{2T} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



Time waveform of pulse

$$h(t) = \operatorname{sinc}\left(\frac{t}{T}\right) \frac{\cos\left(\frac{\pi\beta t}{T}\right)}{1 - \frac{4\beta^2 t^2}{T^2}}$$

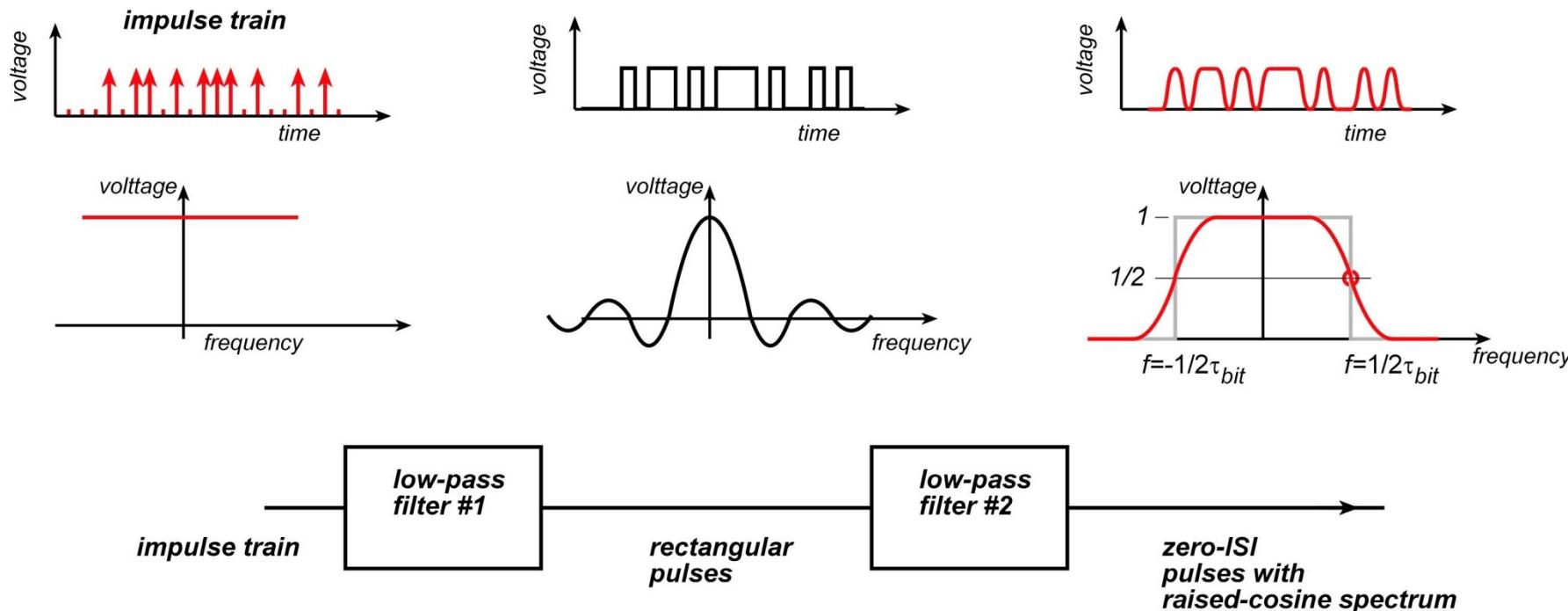


As β varies from 0 to 1, the frequency range of the baseband digital signal will vary from $(-1/2\tau_{bit}, +1/2\tau_{bit})$, i.e. $(-f_{bit}/2, +f_{bit}/2)$, for $\beta = 0$, to $(-1/\tau_{bit}, +1/\tau_{bit})$ i.e. $(-f_{bit}, +f_{bit})$, for $\beta = 1$.

Pulses with Raised Cosine Spectra: Filters

It is the *filtered pulse* which must have the raised - cosine spectrum $H(f)$.

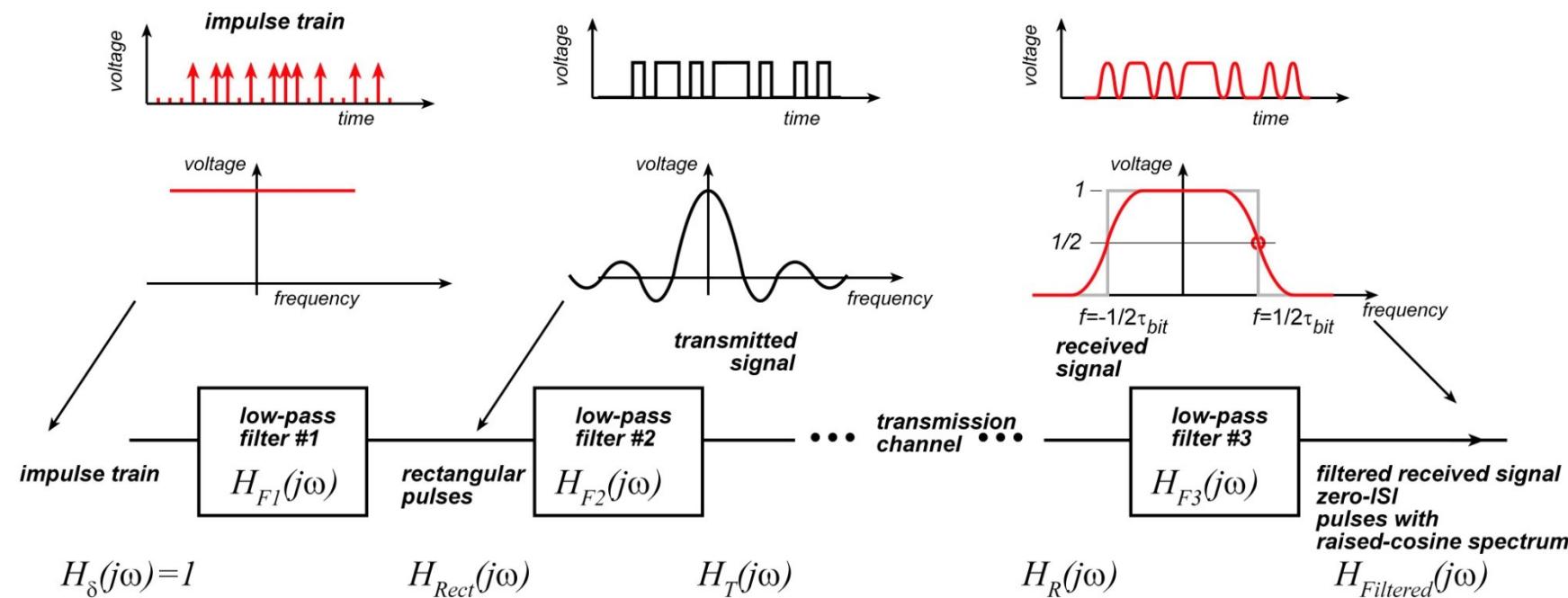
Since a rectangular pulse already has a $\sin(\omega\tau_{bit}/2)/(\omega\tau_{bit}/2)$ spectrum, the channel filter (#2) must have transfer function $H(f) \cdot (\omega\tau_{bit}/2)/\sin(\omega\tau_{bit}/2)$



Of course, real digital circuits produce rectangular pulses, not impulses, so the first filter is not present in real hardware.

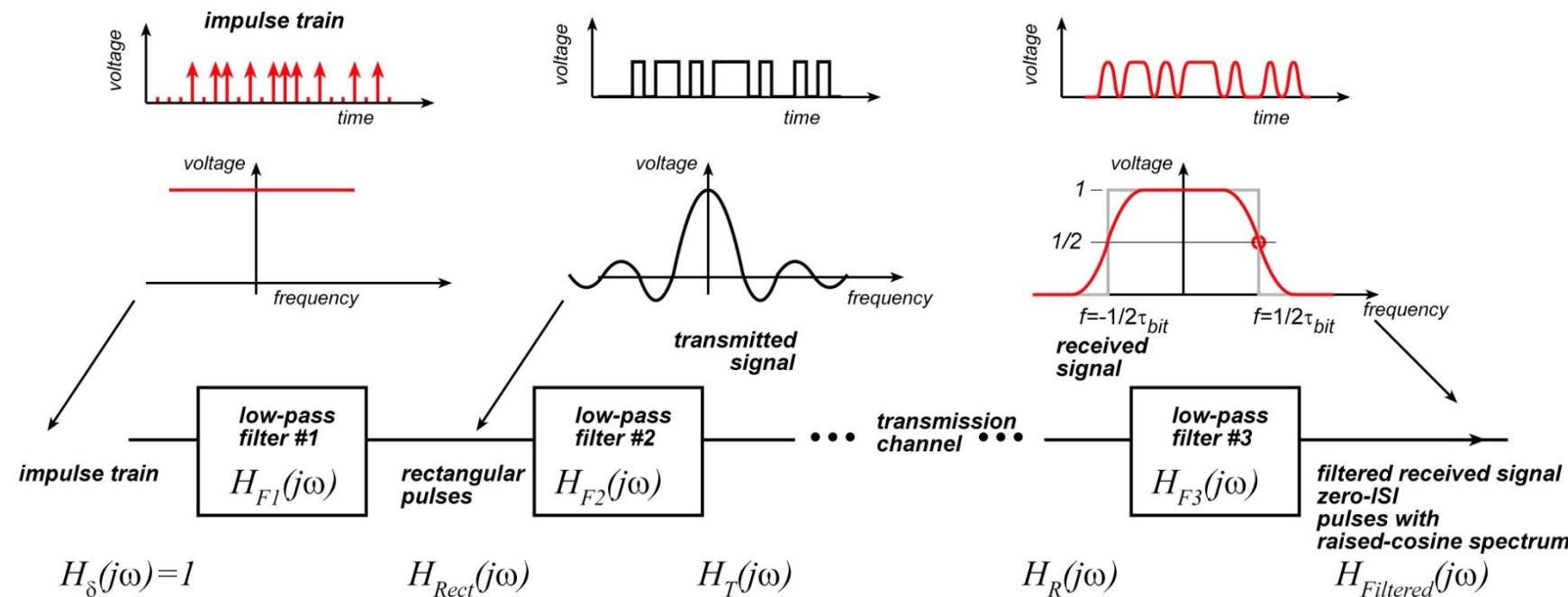
Root Raised Cosine Spectra in Transmission Links

In a radio link, we must bandlimit the transmitter to stay within the allowed frequency band. We must further bandlimit the receiver so as to limit receiver noise. The final received signal must also have zero ISI; must meet Nyquist criterion.



This is accomplished using *root - raised - cosine * filters.

Root Raised Cosine Spectra in Transmission Links



$H_{filtered}(j\omega)$ is a raised - cosine function :

$$H_{filtered}(j\omega) = H_{RC}(j\omega)$$

Choose a *root - raised - cosine * spectrum for the transmitt ed signal :

$$H_T(j\omega) = \sqrt{H_{RC}(j\omega)}$$

The receive filter must then also have root - raised - cosine frequency response :

$$H_{F3}(j\omega) = \sqrt{H_{RC}(j\omega)}$$

Given that it is driven by rectangula r pulses, the transmitt er filter response is :

$$H_{F2}(j\omega) = H_T(j\omega) / H_{rect}(j\omega) = \left(\sqrt{H_{RC}(j\omega)} \right) (\omega \tau_{bit} / 2) / \sin(\omega \tau_{bit} / 2)$$

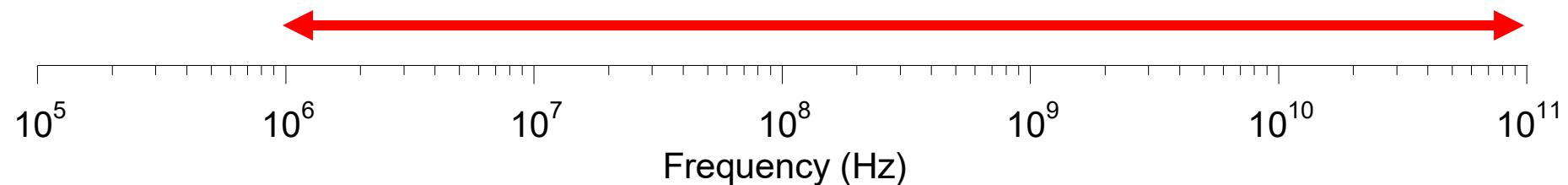
Modulation and Frequency Conversion

Frequency Conversion / Modulation

Depending on β , the data stream has a baseband spectrum between $(\text{DC} - f_{bit}/2)$ to $(\text{DC} + f_{bit})$.



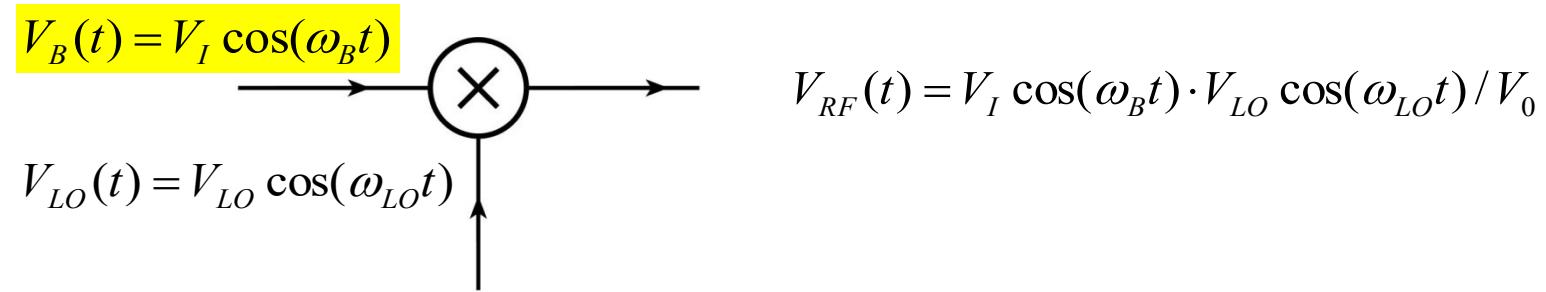
We transmit the signal using radio frequencies between perhaps few MHz to 100 GHz.



To do this, we must impose our signal on the high-frequency carrier.

This is called modulation ; it is done by mixing (multiplication).

Mixing = Multiplication



We must learn to work with trig. functions efficiently.

$$e^{j\theta} = \cos(\theta) + j \sin(\theta) \rightarrow 2 \cdot \cos(\theta) = e^{j\theta} + e^{-j\theta} \text{ and } 2j \cdot \sin(\theta) = e^{j\theta} - e^{-j\theta}$$

$$2 \cdot \cos(\omega_B t) = e^{j\omega_B t} + e^{-j\omega_B t} = z_B^1 + z_B^{-1}$$

$$2 \cdot \cos(\omega_{LO} t) = e^{j\omega_{LO} t} + e^{-j\omega_{LO} t} = z_{LO}^1 + z_{LO}^{-1}$$

so

$$\begin{aligned}
 4 \cdot \cos(\omega_B t) \cdot \cos(\omega_{LO} t) &= (z_B^1 + z_B^{-1})(z_{LO}^1 + z_{LO}^{-1}) \\
 &= z_B^1 z_{LO}^1 + z_{LO}^1 z_B^{-1} + z_B^1 z_{LO}^{-1} + z_B^{-1} z_{LO}^{-1} \\
 &= e^{j\omega_B t} e^{j\omega_{LO} t} + e^{j\omega_{LO} t} e^{-j\omega_B t} + e^{j\omega_B t} e^{-j\omega_{LO} t} + e^{-j\omega_B t} e^{-j\omega_{LO} t} \\
 &= (e^{j\omega_B t} e^{j\omega_{LO} t} + e^{-j\omega_B t} e^{-j\omega_{LO} t}) + (e^{j\omega_{LO} t} e^{-j\omega_B t} - e^{j\omega_B t} e^{-j\omega_{LO} t}) \\
 &= 2 \cdot \cos((\omega_{LO} + \omega_B)t) + 2 \cdot \cos((\omega_{LO} - \omega_B)t)
 \end{aligned}$$

Mixing = Multiplication

$$V_B(t) = V_I \cos(\omega_B t)$$

$$V_{LO}(t) = V_{LO} \cos(\omega_{LO} t)$$

$$V_{RF}(t) = V_I \cos(\omega_B t) \cdot V_{RF} \cos(\omega_{LO} t) / V_0$$

$$= (V_I V_{RF} / 2V_0) \cdot \cos((\omega_{LO} + \omega_B)t) + (V_I V_{RF} / 2V_0) \cdot \cos((\omega_{LO} - \omega_B)t)$$

By a similar calculation...

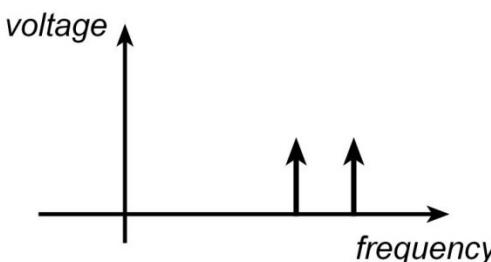
$$V_B(t) = V_Q \sin(\omega_B t)$$

$$V_{LO}(t) = V_{LO} \cos(\omega_{LO} t)$$

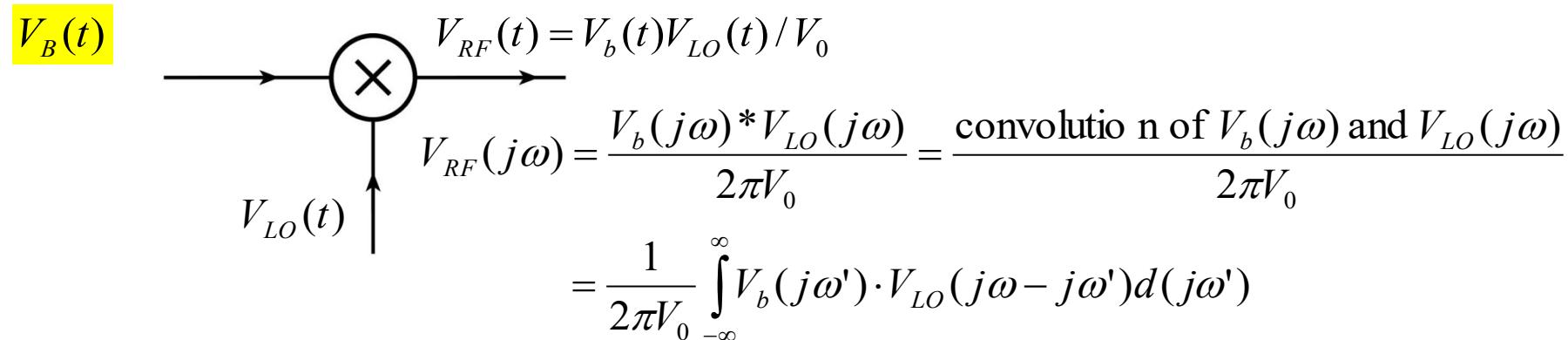
$$V_{RF}(t) = V_Q \sin(\omega_B t) \cdot V_{LO} \cos(\omega_{LO} t) / V_0$$

$$= (V_Q V_{LO} / 2V_0) \sin((\omega_{LO} + \omega_B)t) - (V_Q V_{LO} / 2V_0) \cdot \sin((\omega_{LO} - \omega_B)t)$$

Multiplication generates sum and difference frequencies



Mixing → Convolution of Spectra

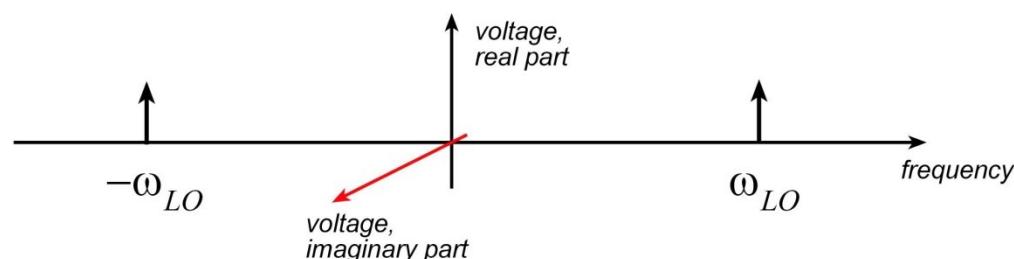


Spectrum of the Local Oscillator

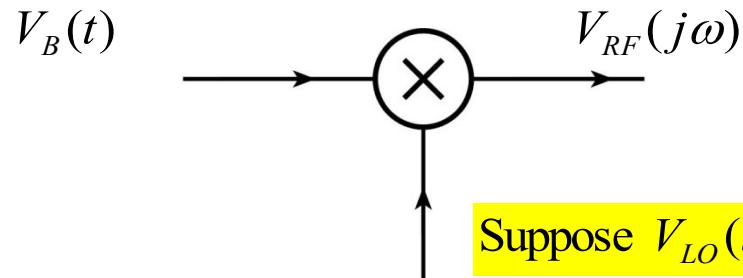
Suppose $V_{LO}(t) = V_{LO} \cos(\omega_{LO} t) = (V_{LO} / 2)e^{j\omega_{LO}t} + (V_{LO} / 2)e^{-j\omega_{LO}t}$

Recall that $e^{j\omega_{LO}t} \leftrightarrow 2\pi\delta(\omega - \omega_{LO})$

So $V_{LO}(j\omega) = (\pi V_{LO})\delta(\omega - \omega_{LO}) + (\pi V_{LO})\delta(\omega + \omega_{LO})$

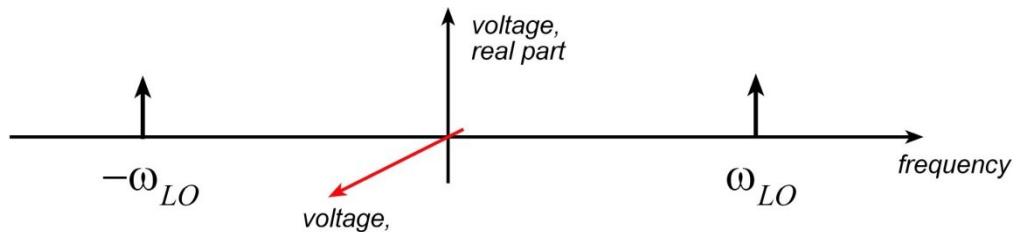


Mixing with cosine ("I") local oscillator

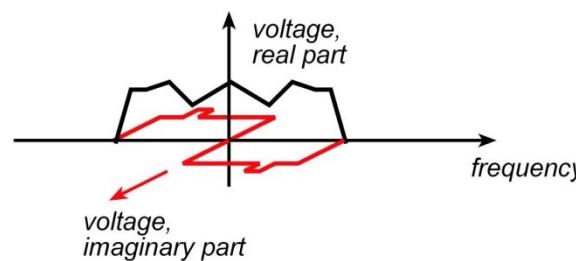


Suppose $V_{LO}(t) = V_{LO} \cos(\omega_{LO} t)$

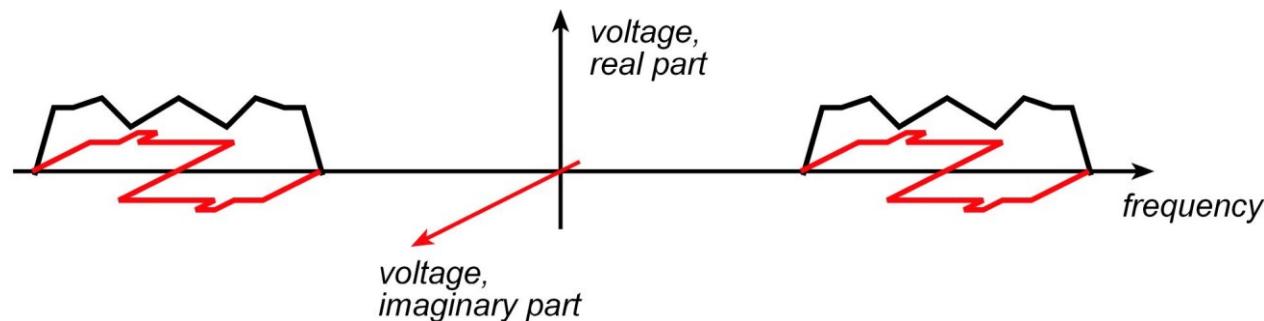
Local oscillator spectrum



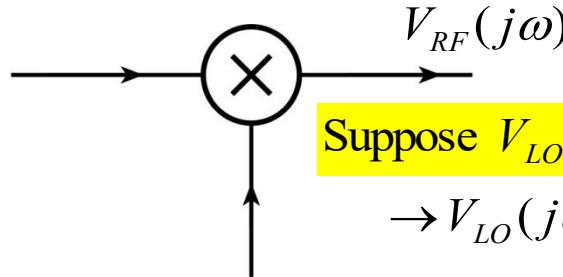
Baseband signal spectrum
(note real, imaginary parts)



RF signal spectrum



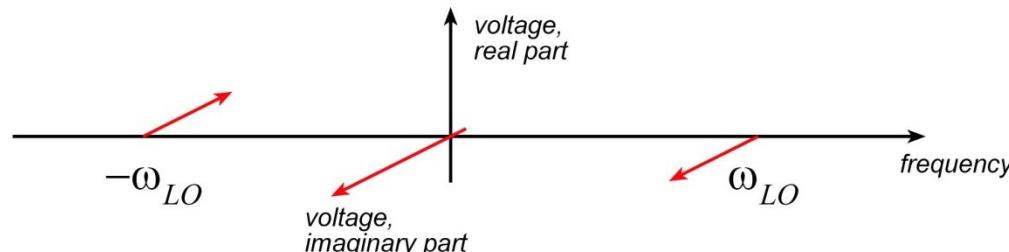
Mixing with sine ("Q") local oscillator

 $V_B(t)$  $V_{RF}(j\omega)$

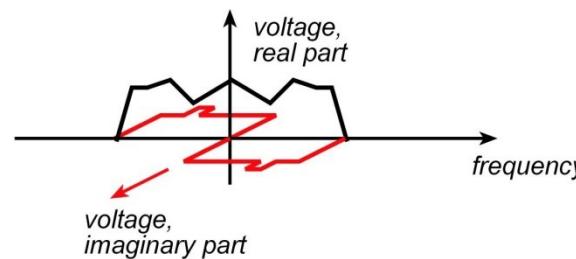
Suppose $V_{LO}(t) = V_{LO} \sin(\omega_{LO} t)$

$$\rightarrow V_{LO}(j\omega) = (-j\pi V_{LO})\delta(\omega - \omega_{LO}) + (j\pi V_{LO})\delta(\omega + \omega_{LO})$$

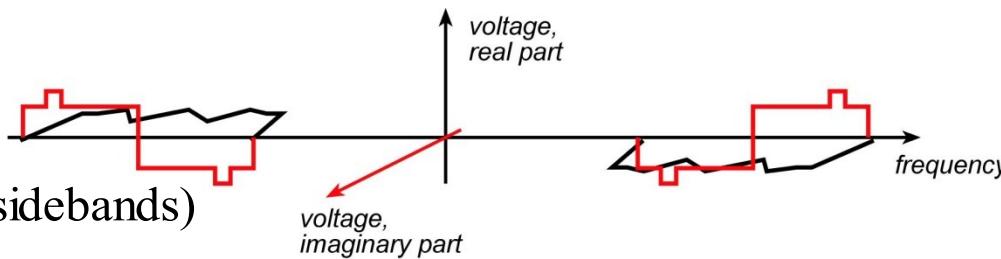
Local oscillator spectrum



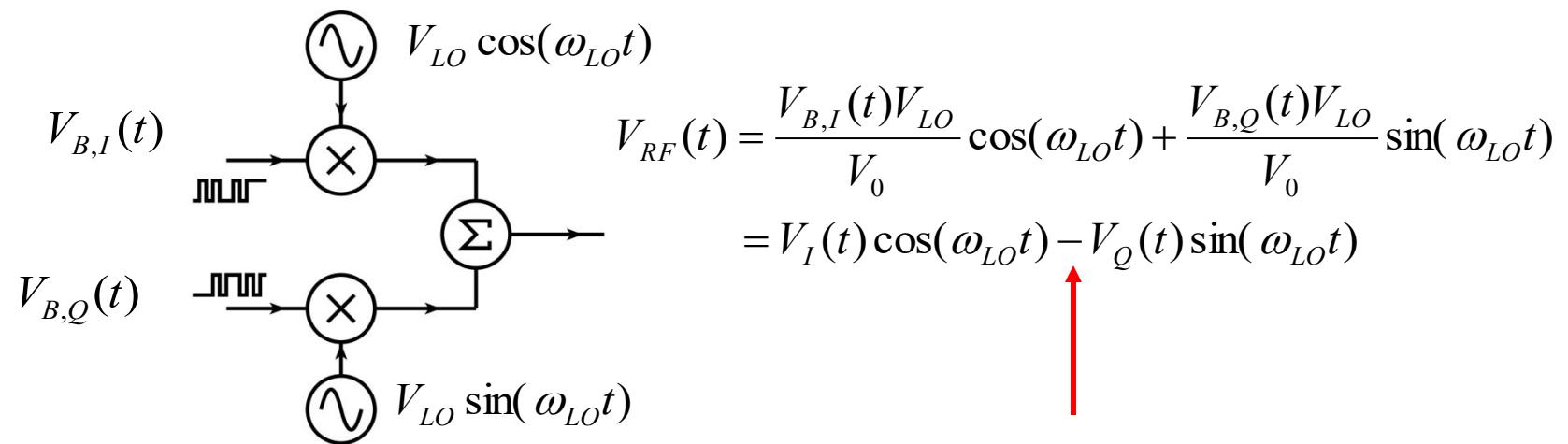
Baseband signal spectrum
(note real, imaginary parts)



RF signal spectrum
(note the flipped phase of the sidebands)



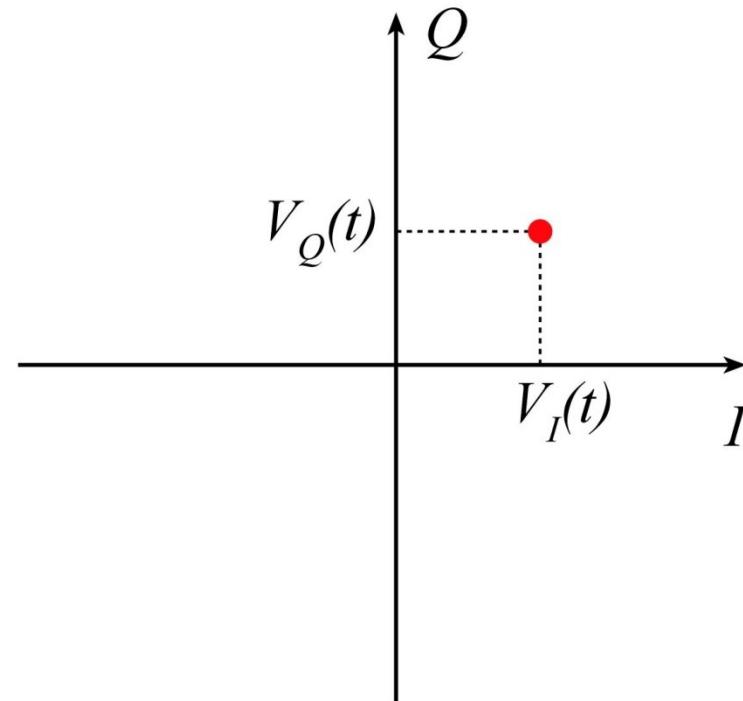
IQ Modulation



$V_{B,I}(t)$ and $V_{B,Q}(t)$ are independent, synchronized data streams

IQ Signal Representation

$$V_{RF}(t) = \operatorname{Re} \left\{ (V_I(t) + jV_Q(t)) \cdot e^{j\omega_{LO}t} \right\} = V_I(t) \cos(\omega_{LO}t) - V_Q(t) \sin(\omega_{LO}t)$$



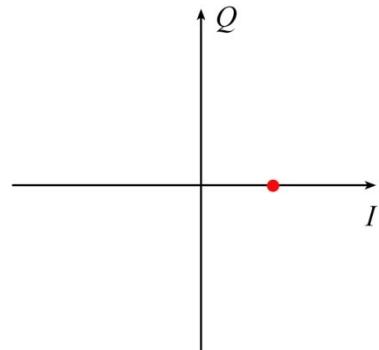
Signal is represented as a point in a plane

IQ Signal Representation

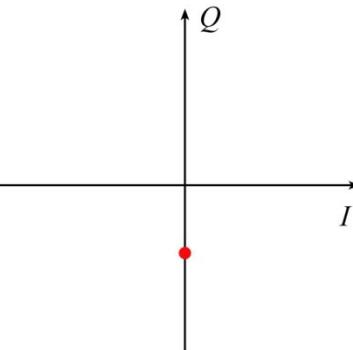
$$V_{RF}(t) = V_I(t) \cdot \cos(\omega_{LO}t) - V_Q(t) \cdot \sin(\omega_{LO}t)$$

↑

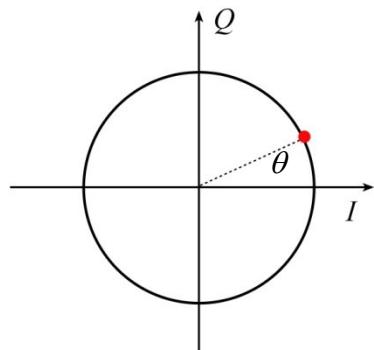
cosine wave



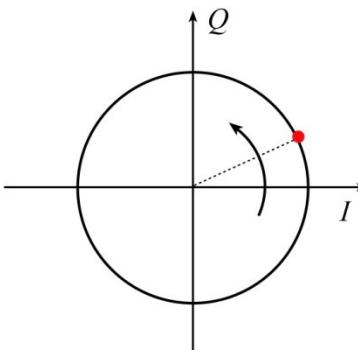
sine wave



$$\cos(\omega_{LO}t + \theta)$$

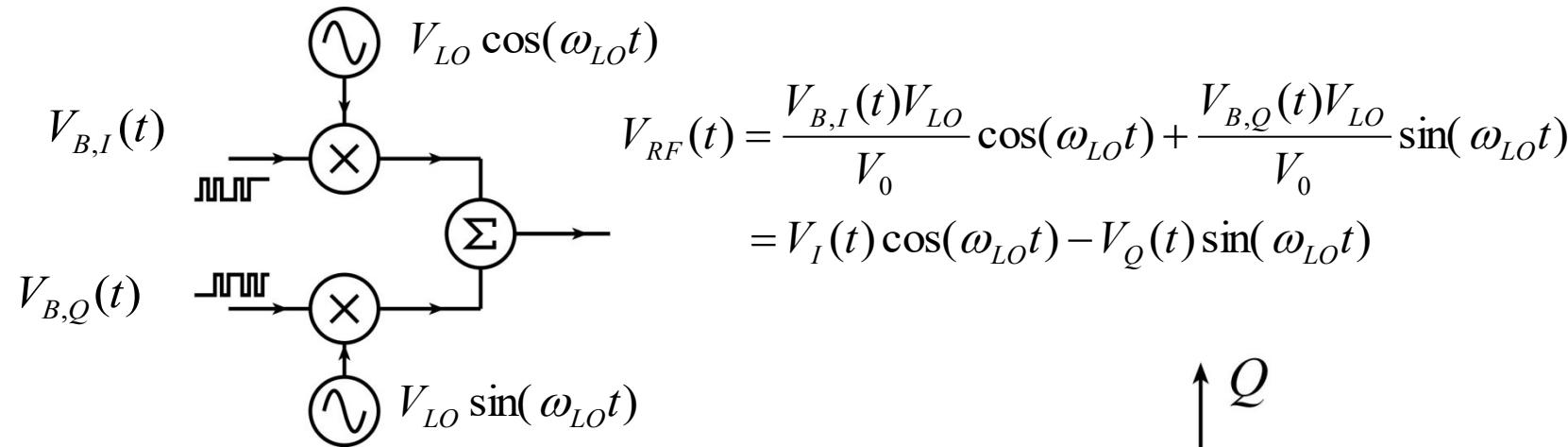


$$\cos(\omega_{LO}t + \Delta\omega t)$$

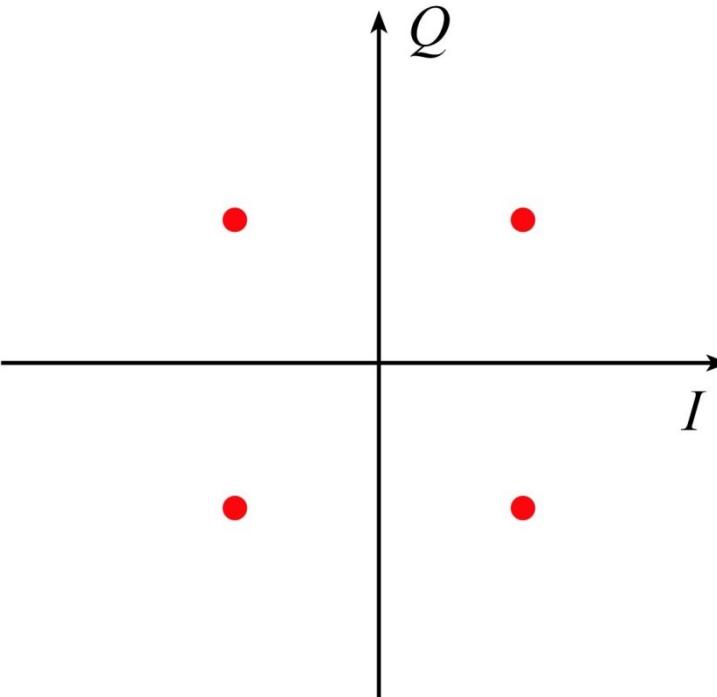


spins counter-clockwise at
angular frequency $\Delta\omega$

Quadrature Phase Shift Keying (QPSK)

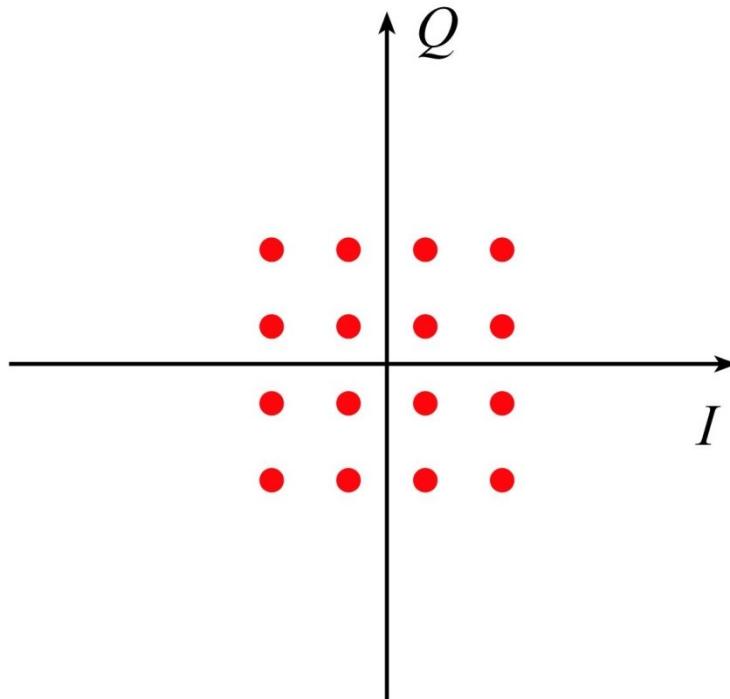
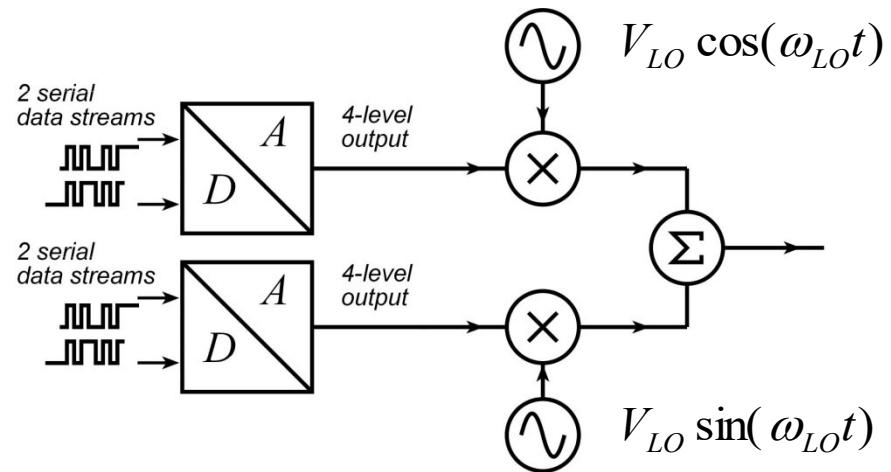


$V_{B,I}(t)$ and $V_{B,Q}(t)$ are binary sequences



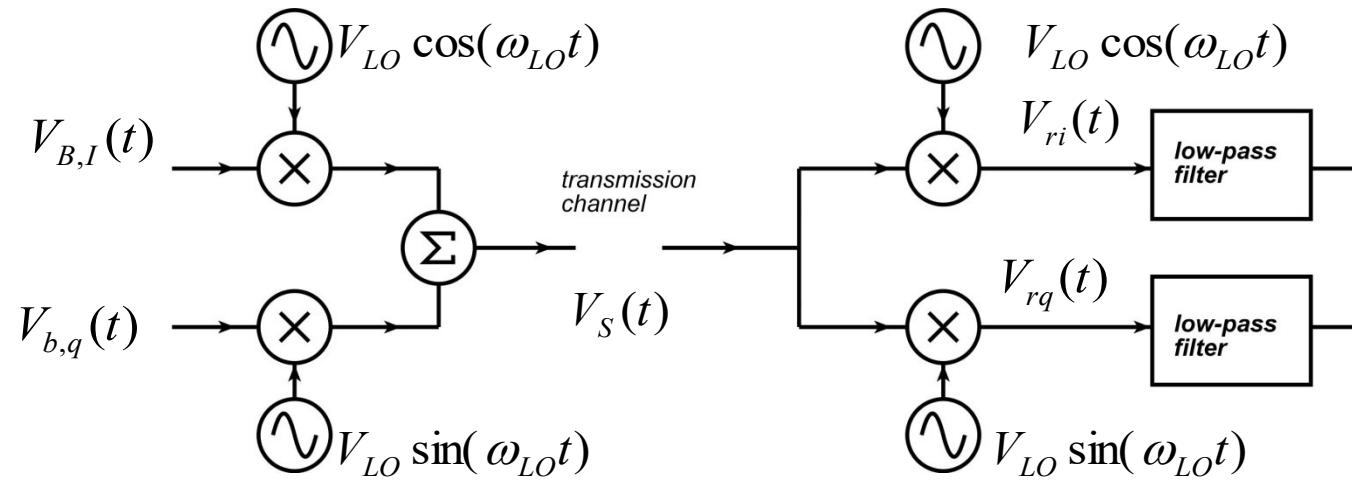
Also known (less often) as 4-QAM

16-Quadrature Amplitude Modulation (16-QAM)



There is also 64-QAM, 256-QAM, etc.

Demodulation



$$V_S(t) = (V_{B,I}(t)V_{LO}/V_0)\cos(\omega_{LO}t) + (V_{B,Q}(t)V_{LO}/V_0)\sin(\omega_{LO}t)$$

$$\begin{aligned} V_{ri}(t) &= (V_S(t)V_{LO}/V_0)\cos(\omega_{LO}t) \\ &= V_{B,I}(t)(V_{LO}/V_0)^2 \cos^2(\omega_{LO}t) + V_{B,Q}(t)(V_{LO}/V_0)^2 \sin(\omega_{LO}t) \cos(\omega_{LO}t) \\ &= V_{B,I}(t)\left(V_{LO}^2/2V_0^2\right) + \cancel{V_{B,I}(t)(V_{LO}^2/2V_0^2)\cos(2\omega_{LO}t)} + \cancel{V_{B,Q}(t)(V_{LO}/V_0)^2 \sin(2\omega_{LO}t)} \end{aligned}$$

removed by LPF

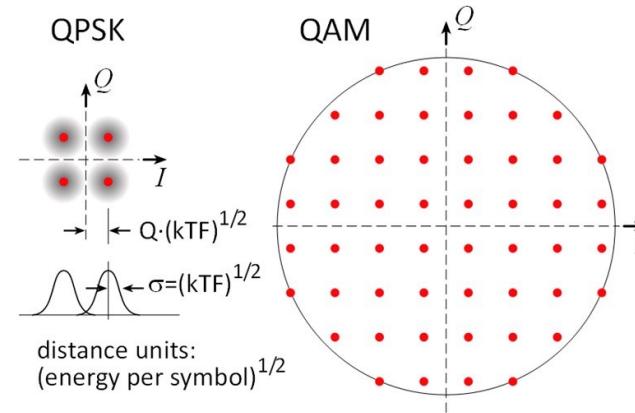
Similarly, $V_{rq}(t) = V_{B,Q}(t)\left(V_{LO}^2/2V_0^2\right) + \text{term at } 2\omega_{LO}$.

1-Page Radio Link Summary

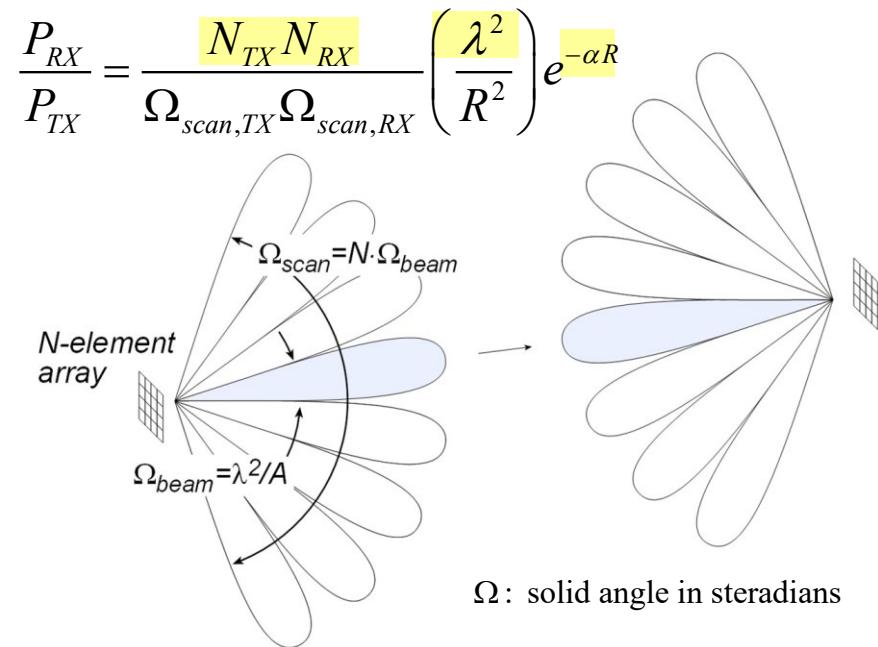
Minimum received power increases exponentially with spectral efficiency.

$$\bar{P}_{RX,min} \approx \begin{cases} Q^2 kTF \cdot (\text{bit rate}) & \text{QPSK} \\ Q^2 kTF \cdot (\text{bit rate}) \cdot \frac{2}{\pi} \cdot \frac{2 \text{ bits/sec/Hz}}{\text{bits/sec/Hz}} & \text{QAM} \end{cases}$$

($Q \approx 3$ for 10^{-3} bit error rate)

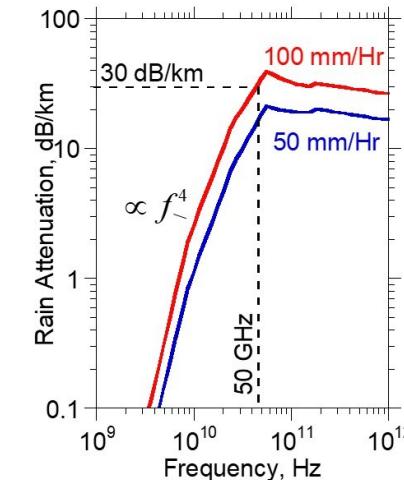


Propagation losses increase $\propto f^2$, given fixed angular scan range \rightarrow need large N .

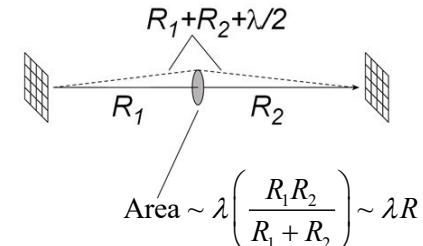


Worst-case atmospheric losses ($\sim 10^{-5}$ probability):

$$\alpha \approx \begin{cases} \infty f^4 & < 50 \text{ GHz} \\ 20 - 30 \text{ dB/km} & 50 - 300 \text{ GHz} \\ > 100 \text{ dB/km} & 360 \text{ GHz-10 THz} \end{cases}$$

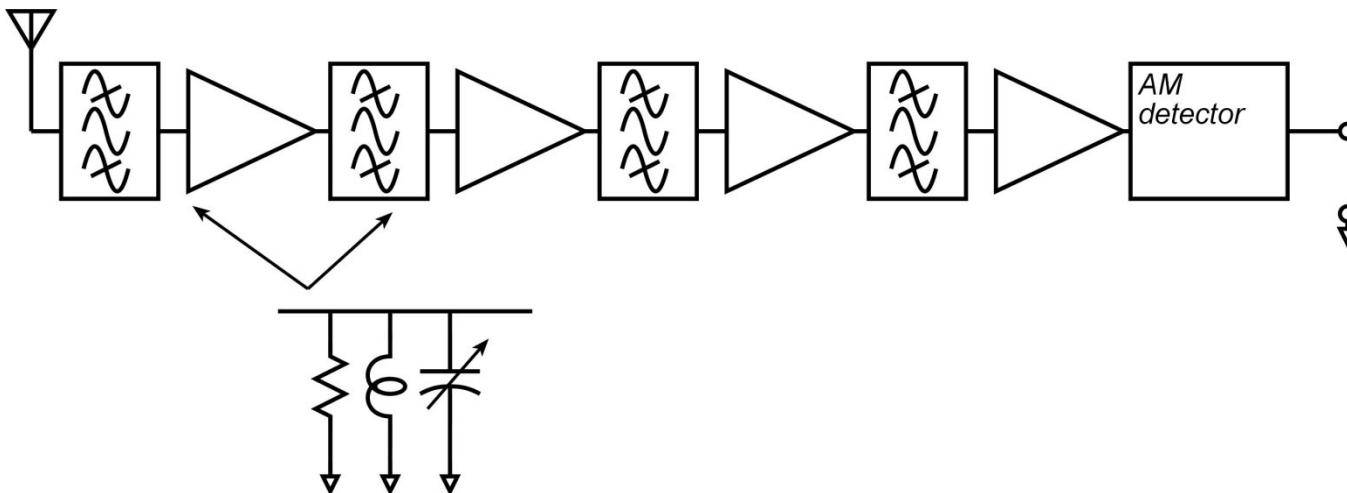


Object of area $\sim \lambda R$ will block beam.
Higher frequencies \rightarrow more easily blocked.



Receiver Tuning

Early (1910's) Receiver: Tuned Radio Frequency

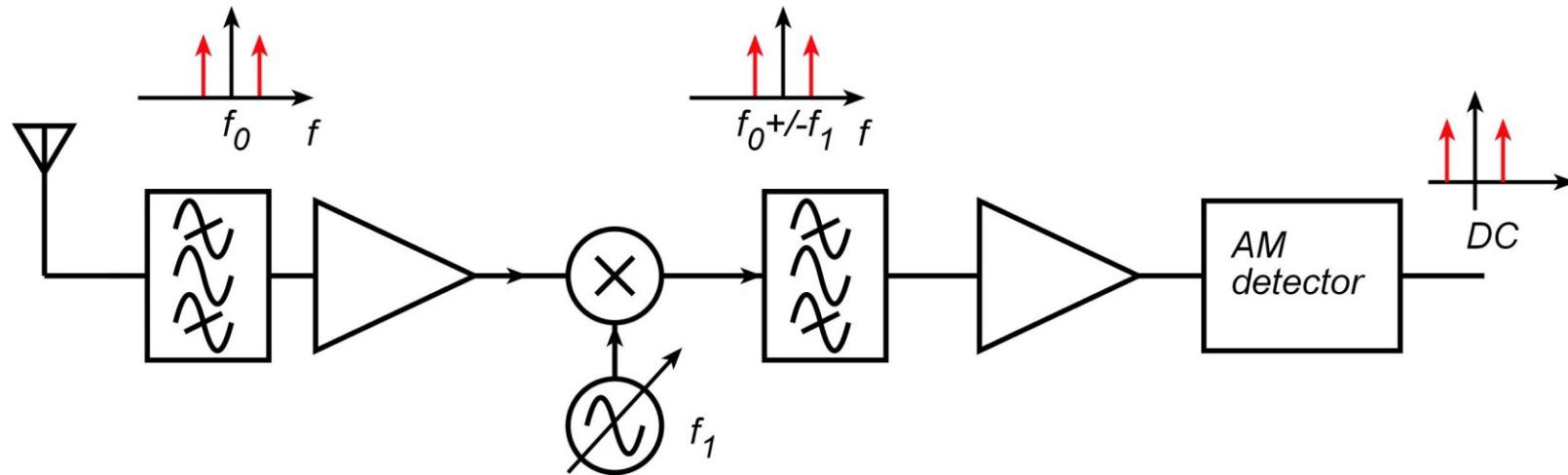


A single LC filter is has too broad a bandwidth to separate stations

Multiple cascaded filters → narrower tuning bandwidth.

Problem: Mechanical tracking of multiple filters during tuning.

Superheterodyne Receiver (Amstrong, 1918)



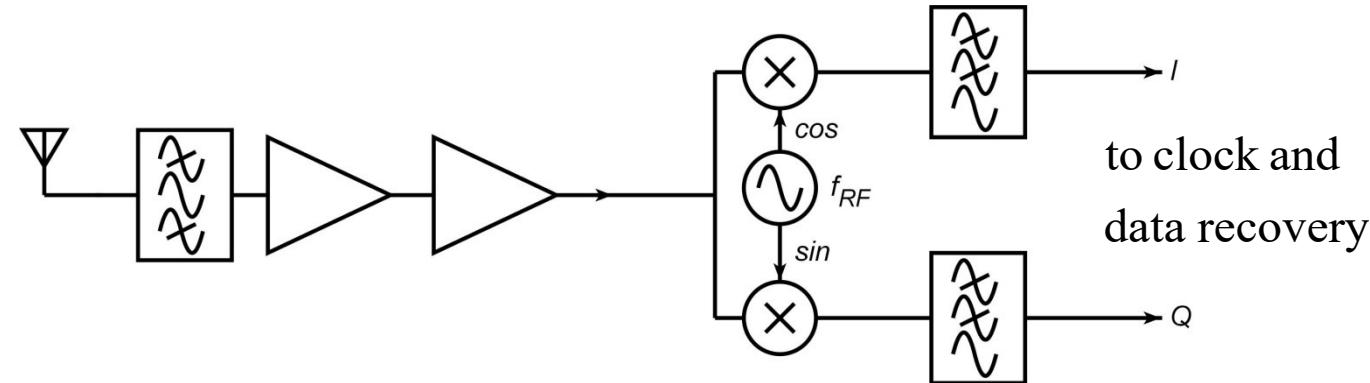
Received radio signal is converted to an intermediate frequency before detection.

Received signal frequency is tuned by varying the LO frequency.
Sharp fixed - tuned IF filters are used for channel selection.

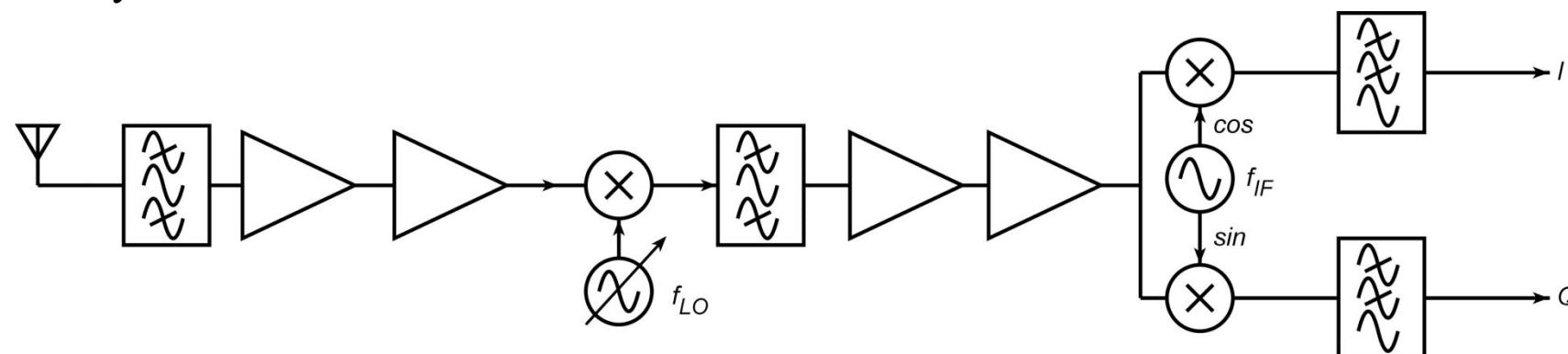
Overall Block Diagrams

QAM/QPSK receiver

Direct conversion

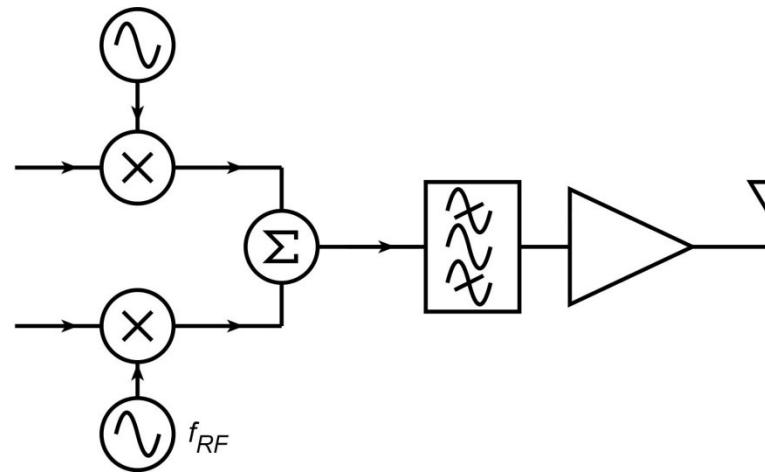


Superheterodyne

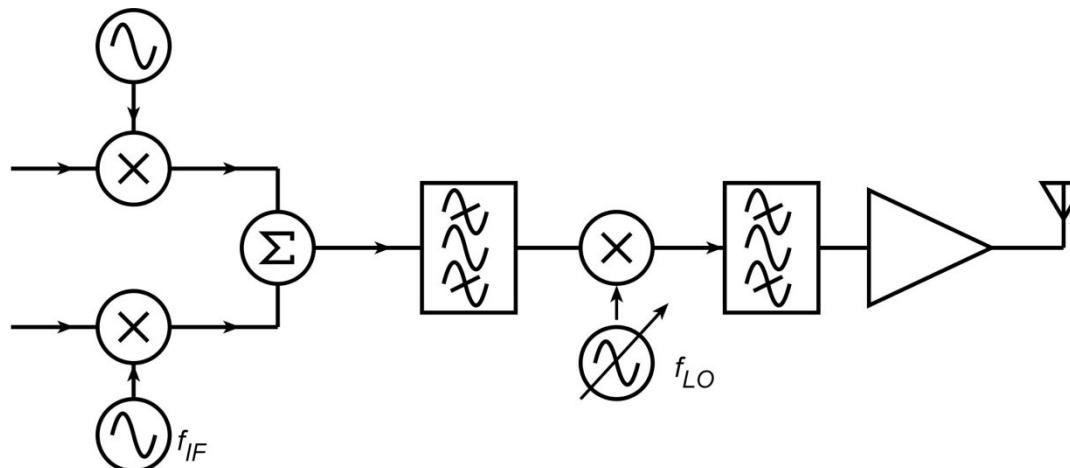


QAM/QPSK Transmitter

Direct conversion



Superheterodyne



What are the design issues ?

Receiver sensitivity

noise contribution of each block, total noise

Frequency conversion

operation of mixers, image responses, necessary filters

Spurious responses leading to interference between other radios

third-order intercepts

receiver frequency plans, receiver gain distribution

Oscillators

design, phase noise

PLLs and frequency synthesis

Power amplifier design

Supplemental Material

Derivations