

FREQUENCY SHIFT KEYING DEMODULATORS FOR
LOW-POWER FPGA APPLICATIONS

by

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Abstract

Low-power systems implemented on Field Programmable Gate Arrays (FPGA) have become more practical with advancements leading to decreases in FPGA power consumption, physical size, and cost. In systems that may need to operate for an extended time independent of a central power source, low-power FPGA's are now a reasonable option. Combined with research into energy harvesting solutions, a FPGA-based system could operate independently indefinitely and be cost effective.

Four simple demodulator designs were implemented on a FPGA to test and compare the performance and power consumption of each. The demodulators were a Counter that tracked the length of the input signal period, a One-Shot that counted the input edges over time, a Phase-Frequency Detector (PFD), and a PFD with preprocessing on the input signal to mitigate distortion introduced by the 1-bit subsampling.

The designs demodulated a binary frequency shift keying (BFSK) signal using 10.69MHz and 10.71MHz as the input frequencies and a 1kHz data rate. The signal was 1-bit subsampled at 75kHz to provide the demodulators with a signal containing 15kHz and 35kHz. The design size, power consumption, and error performance of each demodulator were compared. At the frequencies and data rate used, the Counter and One-Shot are the most energy efficient by a significant margin over the PFDs. The error performance was nearly equal for all four. As the BFSK baseband frequencies and especially the data rate are increased, the PFD options are expected to be the better options as the Counter and One-Shot may not react quickly enough.

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Chapter 1 - Introduction

This research was accomplished through an Experimental Program to Stimulate Competitive Research (EPSCoR) grant partnering Kansas State University (KSU) with the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA). Part of the project research focused on developing an intra-suit, wireless sensor network to collect the vital sign data of an astronaut performing an extravehicular activity (EVA) and transmit the data back to the spacecraft. As part of the wireless sensor network, each of the vital sign sensors would communicate through a wireless radio link to an in-suit central radio with a microcontroller unit (MCU) for data processing. The MCU would collect, compress, and transmit the data to the spacecraft for analysis. Wireless sensors need a battery that can last several hours or an energy harvesting system to replenish the energy consumed. To increase the power source lifetime, the sensors, radio, and MCU need to use minimal power when active and when the system is asleep.

Transmitting and receiving signals in low-power systems required investigation of techniques that would conserve power in each part of the system. Using a digital system would allow for reduced power consumption, reasonable noise immunity, and flexible implementation options [1]. At a high level, a communication system requires two parts, a transmitter and a receiver. The transmitter modulates the input signal and transmits the data using the decided frequencies and bandwidth. The receiver demodulates the data from the input signal and provides the system MCU with the raw demodulated data. This thesis focused on low-power demodulation design options to recover Frequency Shift Keying (FSK) modulated data.

A primary objective was to reduce the power consumption of the FSK demodulator. Four demodulator designs were investigated and compared. The demodulators were implemented digitally and tested using a Microsemi flash-based, Igloo nano Field Programmable Gate Array (FPGA). FPGAs have gained popularity as technological developments allowed FPGAs with higher capacity, smaller physical size, and lower cost. The size, power consumption, and further potential development of each design were compared. An advantage to using the Igloo nano FPGA family was that the power consumption was shown to be nearly proportional to the size of the digital design implemented on the FPGA [2].

Frequency Shift Keying

The data in the system will be modulated using Binary Frequency Shift Keying (BFSK). BFSK modulation uses two frequencies; the higher frequency (f_H) is transmitted to represent when the data is a 1 and the lower frequency (f_L) is transmitted when the data is a zero. An example of a BFSK signal is shown in Figure 1-1. As the BFSK waveform changes between f_H and f_L , the frequency change will be detected and the demodulated data at the bottom of Figure 1-1 will be produced by the digital demodulator on the FPGA.

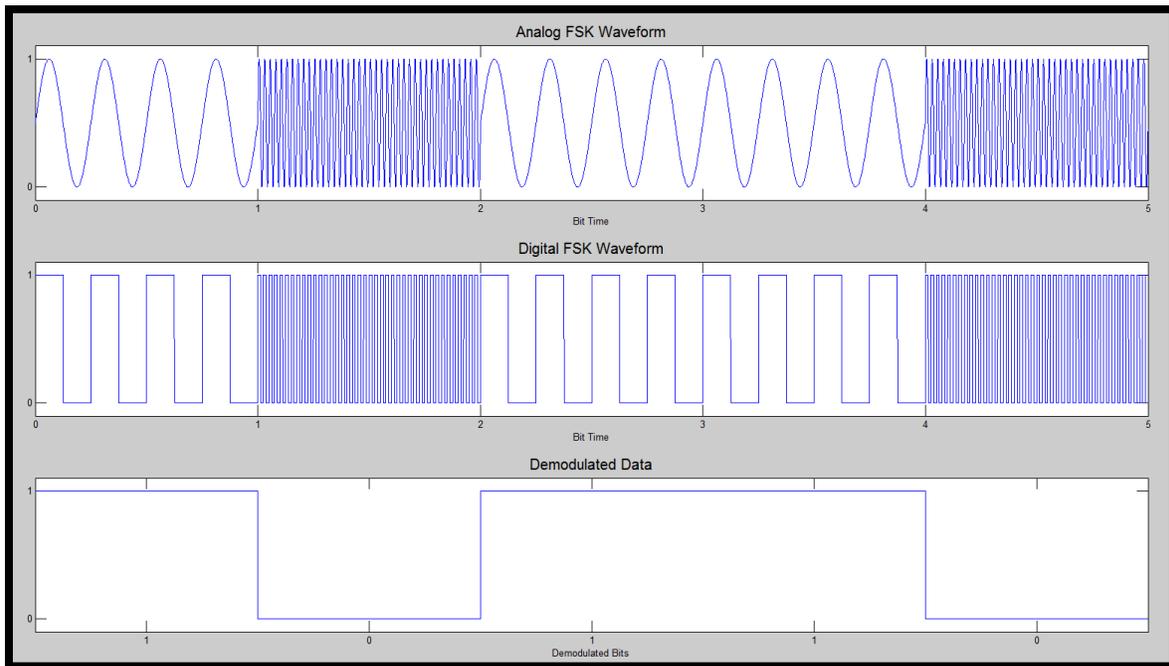


Figure 1-1. BFSK and Demodulated Waveforms

The frequencies and bandwidth used vary depending on the FSK system. The transmitted signal frequencies, f_H and f_L , have a defined frequency separation (Δf). To demodulate the data, the receiver detects when each frequency is transmitted. Δf must be large enough so the demodulator can distinguish f_H and f_L , but the Δf should be minimized to reduce the bandwidth required because it will affect the signal power needed [1]. Higher-order Multiple-FSK (MFSK) modulations are also used. MFSK uses 2^N different frequencies to transmit N bits of information at a time. The main advantage of high-order FSK systems is higher data rates can be used, so data can be transmitted quicker. The main disadvantages are a larger bandwidth and

more power are required and the demodulation is more complex. The work in this paper will focus only on BFSK demodulation.

Demodulation Methods

FSK modulated signals can be demodulated in several ways. Common techniques include coherent and non-coherent detection methods that use filtering and comparators to determine the frequency received. A phase-locked loop (PLL) could also be used. A PLL can track the input frequency changes, but the PLL complexity may be excessive for a low power application since BFSK demodulation only needs to distinguish between two frequencies. These common methods, though proven and effective, require more power and increased design space on the FPGA than some simpler demodulators, so other demodulation solutions were pursued. The four methods investigated were a Counter, a One-Shot edge detector, a Phase Frequency Detector (PFD), and a PFD with a pre-processor. Each method is introduced below and discussed in more detail in chapter 3.

The Counter was used as a period detector. The frequency of each BFSK frequency, f_H and f_L , will be significantly different similarly the period length, T_H and T_L , of each BFSK input will be significantly different. The Counter measures the period length by counting the number of clock cycles during the period of the input. The counter value will rise and fall with the input period length. A threshold value will be set between the expected values for a T_H and T_L , and the input will be demodulated to a 1 or 0 based on the counter value relative to the threshold.

The One-Shot demodulator detects the edges of the input signal. The signal is demodulated by detecting when more or fewer edges are present over a time period. More edges indicate a higher frequency which is used to determine when the input is f_H or f_L . This demodulator will output a pulse with each edge detected. The length of the generated pulse is T_H , so the pulse output for a f_H input will be constantly high. When the input is f_L , the output will be a pulse train where the duty cycle (D) can be found with equation 1.1. The output will be filtered to find the average value of the signal. The output during f_H will be at or near the maximum value, and the output during f_L will be near D. A threshold will be set between the

expected values. The actual value being above or below the threshold will determine if the input is demodulated to a 1 or 0.

$$D = T_H / (T_L - T_H) \quad (1.1)$$

The PFD uses a digital circuit represented in Figure 1-2. This circuit is commonly used as part of digital PLL circuits to track the input frequency as it changes [3, 4]. A PLL uses a PFD to provide a measure of the difference between the D flip-flops (DFF) inputs. A PLL will adjust the Reference Frequency using feedback to match the input of the other DFF. A BFSK demodulator only needs to determine which of two possible input frequencies are present, so the operation was simplified and the feedback removed. Using a constant Reference Frequency set between the two BFSK frequencies, the PFD can detect whether the BFSK Input is higher or lower than the Reference Frequency.

The PFD produces UP and DOWN output pulses based on the time difference of the input rising edges. UP and DOWN outputs pulses are used to indicate if the BFSK Input frequency is higher or lower than the Reference Frequency. The outputs can be filtered and then combined by subtracting DOWN from UP. A threshold will be set between the values expected when the BFSK Input is f_H and f_L . Comparing the combined output with the threshold will determine if the input is demodulated to a 1 or 0. Figure 1-3 shows example input and outputs for a PFD [5].

The PFD with preprocessing uses the same circuit in Figure 1-2. The preprocessing was added because distortion that can occur with the sampling method used. The distortion causes the input to have some jitter. The jitter is predictable based on the input frequency and the sample frequency. The preprocessing uses period detection, binomial filtering, and a numerically controlled oscillator (NCO) to reduce the distortion and generate a new signal that is used as the BFSK Input.

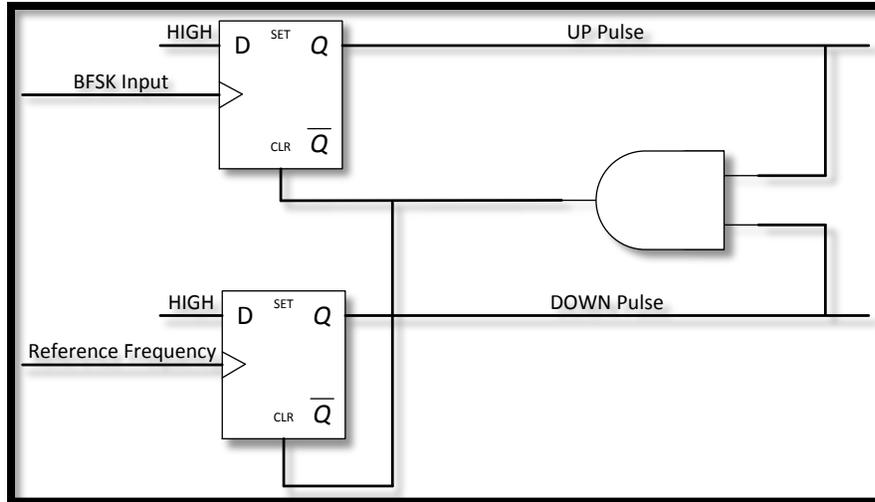


Figure 1-2. Phase-Frequency Detector Circuit Model

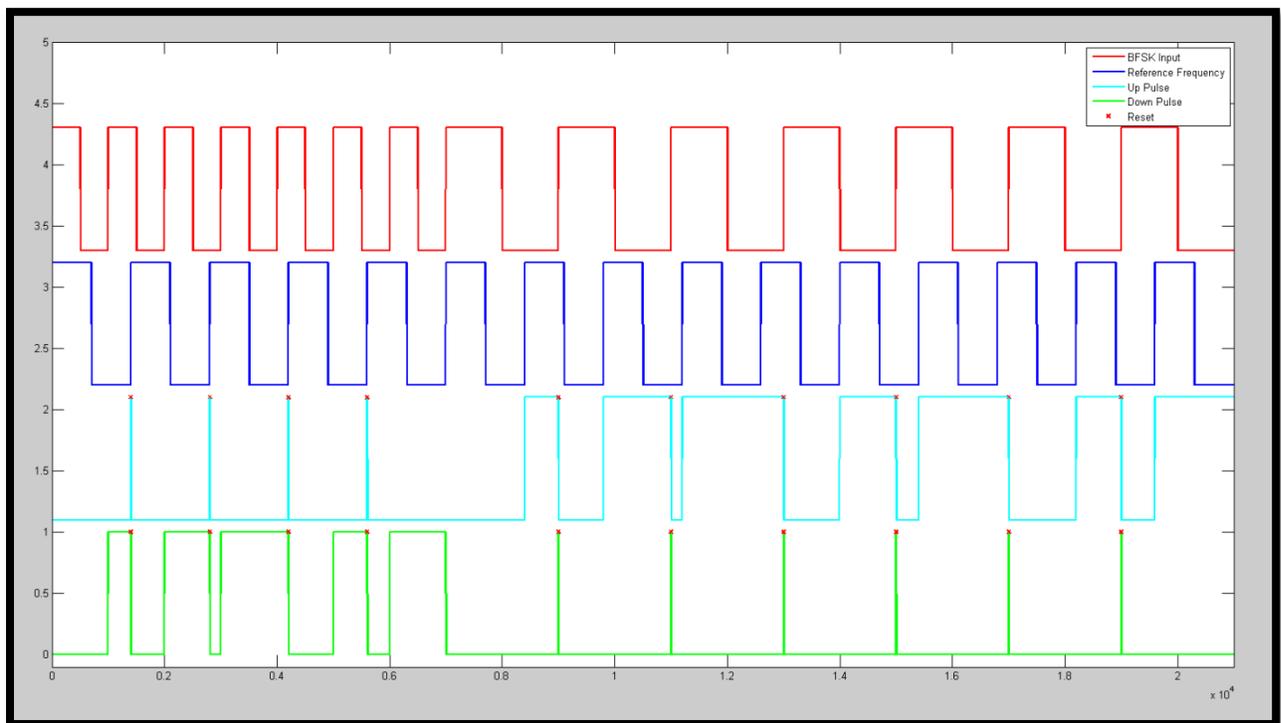


Figure 1-3. Example PFD Inputs and Outputs

Chapter 2 - Sampling

When a signal is sampled correctly, the original frequency information can be recovered from the set of samples. The forms of equation 2.1 show the Nyquist sampling theorem specifies the sample frequency (f_s) must be at least twice the bandwidth (BW) of the sampled signal to preserve the information in the original signal (f_{in}) similarly a sample must be taken at least at the Nyquist sample interval, (T_s).

$$f_s \geq 2 * BW \quad (2.1a)$$

$$T_s \leq \frac{1}{2BW} \quad (2.1b)$$

To maintain the actual frequencies in f_{in} , it must be sampled at twice the maximum frequency (f_m) present in the signal.

$$f_s \geq 2 * f_m \quad (2.1c)$$

Figure 2-1 shows the result of a signal being sampled at several different rates and examples of recovered waveforms based on those sample rates. The graphs show an input signal (blue), sample points (red circles), and the recovered waveform from the samples (red). Figure 2-1a (top left) used 8 samples per cycle, $f_s = 8 * f_m$, and the samples preserved the signal frequency and shape. Figure 2-1c (bottom left) used 0.9 samples per cycle, $f_s = 0.9 * f_m$. Too few samples were taken to preserve the frequency, so the output is an aliased frequency. The original frequency and alias are related through f_s , so if the alias and f_s are known, the original frequency may be determined.

Figures 2-1b (top right) and 2-1d (bottom right), both display what can happen if the minimum rate of two samples per cycle is used, $f_s = 2 * f_m$. If the samples are taken when the waveform is at its peak, the samples can recover the signal frequency and some of the shape. The samples could just as likely be taken when the signal is at the zero crossings. The recovered signal would be a dc value where no frequency or shape information could be successfully recovered. These examples illustrate why the theoretical minimum number of samples per cycle is two, but practically the number of samples taken per cycle should be greater than two and preferably several times higher when feasible.

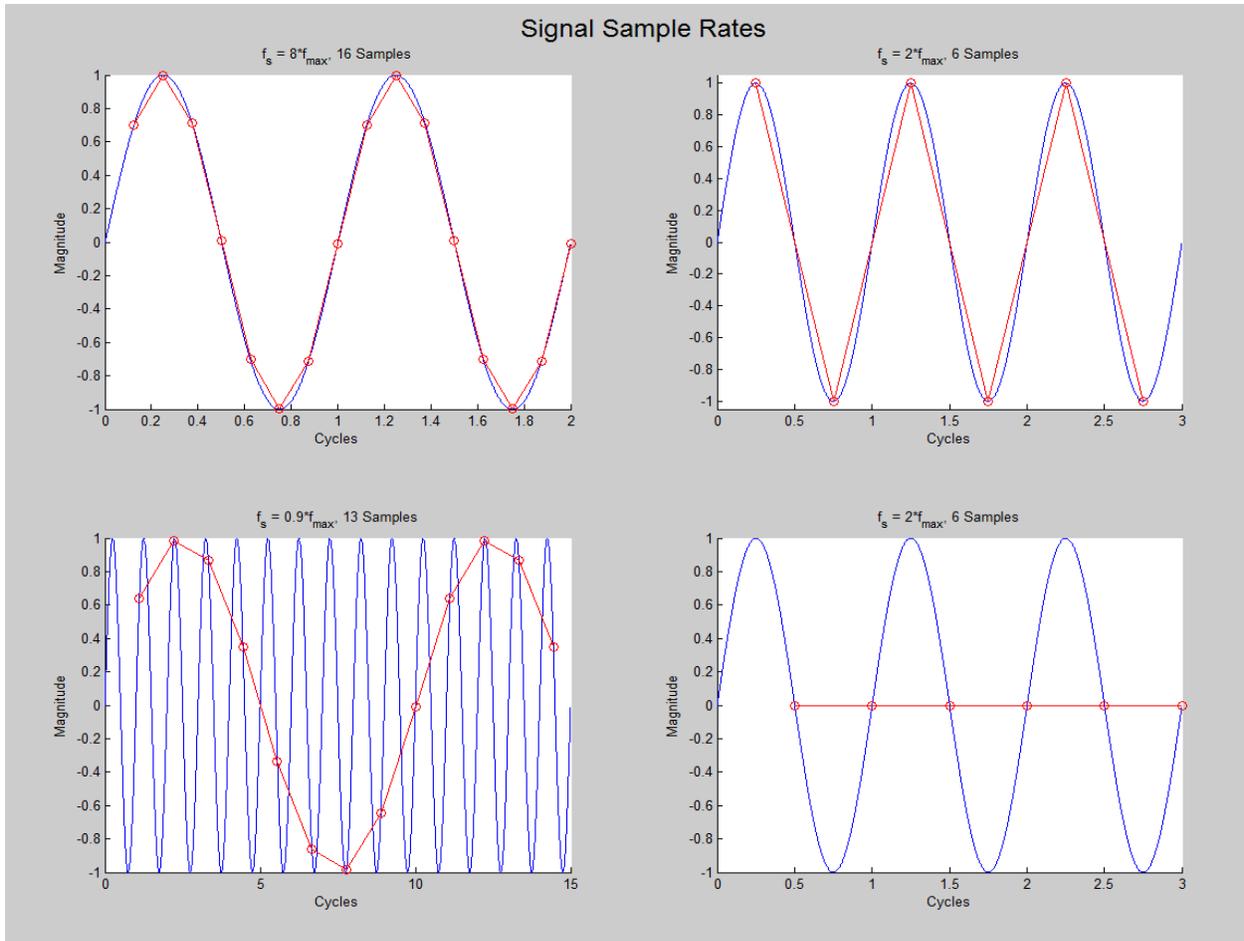


Figure 2-1 (a-d). Signal Sample Rates

Equation 2.1a implies that a signal reconstructed from a set of samples can use only frequencies from 0Hz up to $\frac{1}{2}f_s$. Because equation 2.1a specifies BW not f_m , the reconstructed signal may not always appear the same as the original. Aliasing may occur but the information can still be preserved. If the low end of the signal BW is located anywhere other than 0Hz, then the Nyquist rate still applies, but the recovered signal may be represented with frequencies that are not identical to the original frequencies in $f(t)$. To avoid aliasing, the f_s could be increased to meet equation 2.1c. The same process would be used to recover the information from the samples, but the sample frequency may need to be increased to a value that is not practical or possible in the system.

Aliasing can be used intentionally while still preserving the frequency relationships in $f(t)$. When $BW \leq f_m$, the signal information can be preserved despite the original frequencies being lost. When the bandwidth does not start at 0Hz, equations 2.1a and 2.1c are no longer equal because f_m is greater than the BW. As f_m increases, equation 2.1c may not be practical, so subsampling may be utilized. For the signals in Figure 2-2, the same f_s could be used, but if f_m is used for both, the signal on the right would need f_s to be six times higher. In a low power system, the higher f_s would use more power and require more resources to analyze.

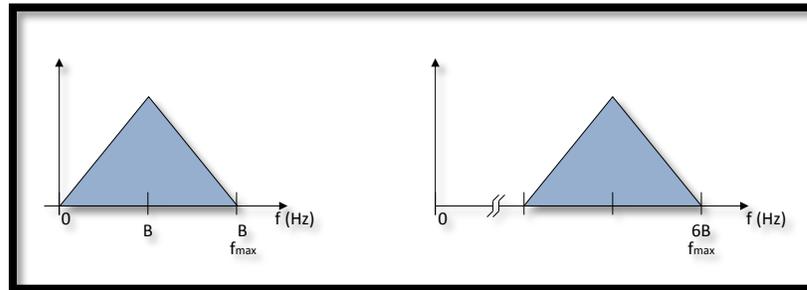


Figure 2-2. Signal Bandwidth Position

Subsampling

Subsampling, also called under-sampling, harmonic sampling, band-pass sampling, or super-Nyquist sampling is a technique that uses aliasing intentionally to convert high frequency signals to baseband [6]. Intentionally aliasing a signal will not allow the original signal frequencies to be reconstructed from just the samples; however, the information contained in the signal can still be preserved. As long as equation 2.1a holds, the aliased components maintain the signal information through alias frequencies. If f_s is chosen correctly, two components separated by a frequency difference (f_{diff}) in the original spectrum will maintain the same f_{diff} after sampling, aliasing, and signal reconstruction [7].

The choice of f_s requires some additional planning. In addition to equation 2.1a, f_s must be chosen so that no two frequencies in the sampled signal have the same alias frequency. If multiple frequencies in the sampled band do have the same alias, there is no way to distinguish which frequency produced the alias, so the reconstructed signal is corrupted. If any part of the signal bandwidth lies on a multiple of $f_s/2$, then part of the band will overlap and some

frequencies will have the same alias [8]. A simple way to find whether any frequencies will share an alias is to divide the maximum and minimum frequencies in the signal by $f_s/2$, as shown in equation 2.2. If the integer part of the quotients are equal, then none of the signal bandwidth lies on a multiple of $f_s/2$.

$$\text{floor}\left(\frac{f_{max}}{f_s/2}\right) = \text{floor}\left(\frac{f_{min}}{f_s/2}\right) \quad (2.2)$$

Figure 2-3 shows two signals prior to sampling. After sampling and reconstruction, both bands produced aliases using the same frequencies. Sampling parameters must be chosen to avoid alias overlap or the original signal must be filtered to remove the unwanted components in the original signal. An aliasing diagram can be used to visualize this concept. As shown in Figure 2-3c, an aliasing diagram is a graph of the frequency domain, but instead of extending frequency axis continuously to the right, the graph extends to $f_s/2$ after which the x-axis is folded back on itself and placed below. The axis continues from right to left from $f_s/2$ to f_s . The graph is cut and placed below again and continues from left to right from f_s to $3f_s/2$ and the frequency-axis continues with an “S” shaped pattern [9].

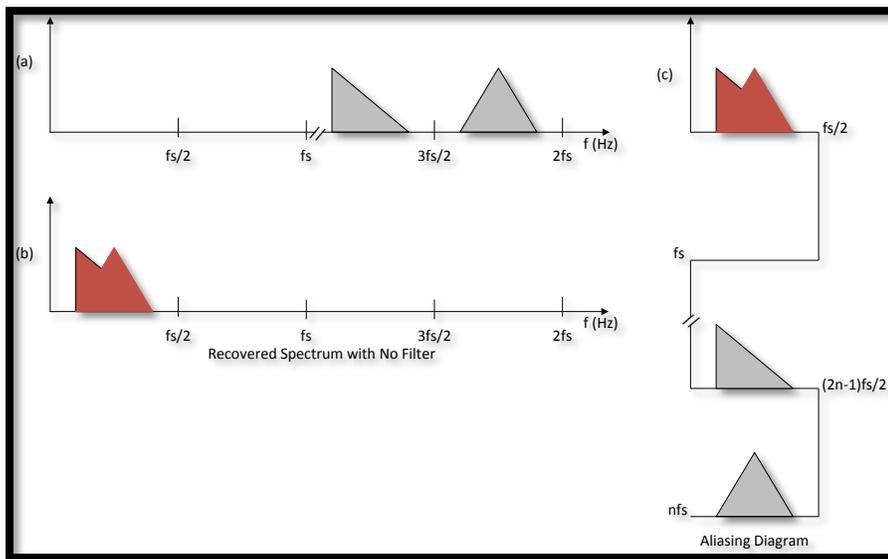


Figure 2-3. Aliasing Diagram Showing Alias Overlap

The alias of a signal is related to the original signal through f_s . Another form of a frequency alias is given by equations 2.2, 2.3, and 2.4 below [10]. In the equations, f_a is the

aliased frequency, f_{in} is the input signal frequency being sampled, f_s is the sampling frequency, and W is an integer which is selected so that f_a is minimized. W can be found by taking the ratio of f_{in}/f_s and rounding to the nearest integer. R represents the fractional remainder rounded off to make W an integer.

$$f_a(W) = |f_{in} - Wf_s| \quad (2.2)$$

$$W + R = f_{in}/f_s \quad (2.3)$$

$$f_a = R * f_s \quad (R \leq 0.5) \quad (2.4a)$$

$$f_a = (1 - R) * f_s \quad (R > 0.5) \quad (2.4b)$$

For example, if $f_{in} = 10.7\text{MHz}$ and $f_s = 500\text{kHz}$, $f_{in}/f_s = 21.4$, then $W = 21$ and $R = 0.4 = 2/5$. The alias frequency can be found using equation 2.2. $f_a = |10.7\text{MHz} - 21 * 500\text{kHz}| = 200\text{kHz}$.

If present, undesired signals outside of the desired spectrum may alias to the same frequency as part of the desired spectrum. Any signal above $f_s/2$ will be aliased to some frequency in the range of the reconstructed signal spectrum, from 0Hz to $f_s/2$. If undesired signals are not accounted for, the reconstructed signal could be corrupted by the alias of an undesired signal. Theoretically an infinite number of frequencies could alias to the same frequency. Though an infinite number of those frequencies will likely not appear in the system, some may be present. The aliased frequency will be a copy of the original frequency that is shifted down by a multiple of f_s . The multiple is represented by W in equation 2.3. There is an f_{in} for each value of W that will result in the same alias frequency. One frequency on each level of the aliasing diagram in Figure 2-3 would alias to one of the reconstructed alias frequencies. The f_{in} values that have the same alias are spaced by f_s in the original signal. This is one reason why subsampling must be done carefully. Using equation 2.2, the values of f_{in} that alias to the same frequency can be found. If $f_a = 200\text{kHz}$ and $f_s = 500\text{kHz}$, different values of f_{in} with the same alias can be found by plugging in values for W . Choosing example W values of 1, 5, 10, 15, and 25, f_{in} components of 700kHz, 2.7MHz, 5.2MHz, 7.7MHz, and 12.7MHz respectively, all will alias to 200kHz when f_s is 500kHz.

Depending on where undesired signals appear in the frequency spectrum, the choice of f_s may lead to undesired signals being aliased on top of the desired signal spectrum when it is sampled and aliased. Figure 2-4 shows a spectrum and the effect of aliasing on that spectrum. The gray triangle represents the desired signal to be sampled. The other signals, f_1 , f_2 , and f_3 represent undesired signals. When the spectrum is sub-sampled at f_s , f_1 is aliased on top of the desired signal alias.

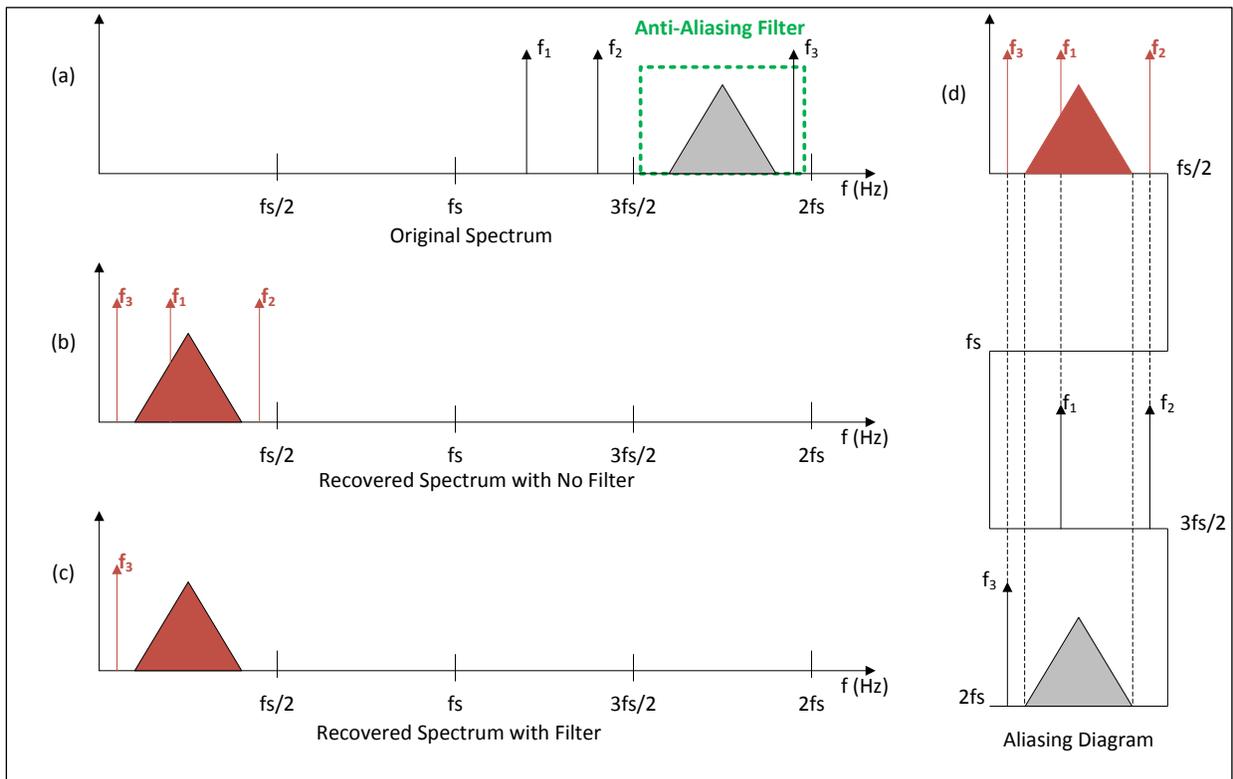


Figure 2-4 (a-d). Frequency Domain
Original Spectrum (Top), Recovered Spectrum With No Filter (Middle), Recovered Spectrum Using a Filter (Bottom) and Aliasing Diagram (Right)

One way to combat undesired signals from aliasing to the same frequency as a desired signal is to attenuate the undesired signals before the sampling occurs. An anti-aliasing filter can be used to pass the desired signal and attenuate the undesired signals. The anti-aliasing filter will attenuate undesired signals prior to sampling to prevent them from corrupting the desired spectrum. An attenuated portion of the undesired signals will still be present and can alias on top

of the desired spectrum, but the filter should attenuate the signal enough so that the power of any undesired signals is insignificant compared to the power of the desired signals.

Ideally a brick-wall filter with a bandwidth that perfectly matched the desired signal spectrum bandwidth would be used to attenuate all signals outside the desired spectrum. Since a brick-wall filter is impossible in practice, equation 2.5 can be used as a 1st order constraint. The filter needs to be wide enough to pass the whole desired spectrum, but not wider than the spectrum that will be reconstructed. Because the signal reconstructed from the samples can only represent frequencies from 0Hz to $f_s/2$, the anti-aliasing filter BW should not pass a spectrum any wider than what the samples can represent. If the filter BW is less than $f_s/2$, no undesired signals will alias to the same frequency as the desired signal spectrum without being filtered first. Other signals may pass through the filter, but none that will corrupt the desired signal. Figure 2.4c shows that f_3 was within the filter BW and passed through the filter, but f_3 does not overlap with any of the desired signal, so the reconstructed data is not corrupted. The filter bandwidth also needs to be close to centered about the desired signal spectrum. Just as the desired signal spectrum should not cross a multiple of $f_s/2$, the filter spectrum should not either.

$$BW_{signal} \leq BW_{filter} \leq f_s/2 \quad (2.5)$$

In practice the filter does not need to have a very sharp roll-off if f_s is chosen to be greater than $2 \cdot BW$. As f_s gets larger than $2 \cdot BW$, the filter cutoff can be relaxed more because the spectrum of the reconstructed signal is larger, which allows for a more gradual roll-off. A steep roll-off is still desired, but the size and cost of a filter generally increase with the steepness of its roll-off.

1-bit Sampling Distortion

1-bit sampling uses a comparator to determine whether the input is above or below a threshold and records a 1 or 0 depending on the comparison result. The major advantage of using 1-bit sampling are that it can be implemented easily using low complexity and low-power circuitry in a digital system. Because the data recorded only uses one bit per sample, the shape of the original signal will be lost due to quantization, but the frequency can be preserved. A

signal transmitting data using BFSK can work well with 1-bit sampling since the data is transmitted using changes in frequency. The signal to be sampled will be centered at 10.7MHz and provided by a radio frequency integrated circuit (RFIC) designed at Kansas State University [11].

The ratio of input frequency to the sample frequency indicates how often a sample is taken. Using the values from the previous aliasing example, $f_{in}/f_s = \frac{10.7MHz}{500kHz} = 21.4$, one sample will be taken every 21.4 cycles of the input. Using equation 2.3 and 2.4, $W = 21$, $R = 0.4$, and $f_a = 200kHz$. The R value can be used to find the alias frequency. The aliasing diagram in Figure 2-4 shows visually where a frequency will alias. The W value in the ratio represents how many levels down on the diagram that f_{in} is, and R represents the position of the frequency on the level. As R gets closer to 0, the alias frequency decreases, and as R gets closer to its maximum value of 0.5, the alias frequency increases. This happens because R represents the phase shift between each sample taken. With this example there are 21.4 cycles of the input signal between each sample. If the first sample is taken at the rising edge of a signal or 0° phase, the next would be 21.4 cycles later at $0.4 * 360^\circ = 144^\circ$. The subsequent samples would also shift in phase by 40% of a cycles or 144° . Using a sine wave as an example, the sample will be a 1 if taken when the phase is from $0^\circ - 180^\circ$ and a 0 if taken from $180^\circ - 360^\circ$. Regardless of the number of whole cycles skipped between samples, the phase shift, represented by R, is the same. A larger change in phase between samples means the value of the sampled value will change more often, so the alias frequency will be higher.

A problem that arises when using 1-bit sampling is the waveform reconstructed from the samples usually will not have a 50% duty cycle or a consistent period. The single bit in the samples at the given sample rate does not always provide enough resolution for the samples to perfectly reconstruct every frequency from 0Hz to $f_s/2$. The sample is either a 1 or 0 and only indicates whether the cycle was on the top half or bottom half of the cycle when that sample was taken. The input may have been right at a peak, a zero-crossing, or anywhere in between. When undersampling and using one-bit sampling like this, the samples can rarely reconstruct a waveform to perfectly match the expected alias frequency. The frequency can still be reproduced, but the waveform will be reconstructed using a combination of the closest frequency

above and closest frequency below the expected alias. The reconstructed signal will alternate between the two frequencies with a repeating pattern. The average frequency over the full pattern will be the expected alias frequency. The reconstructed wave will have a distorted appearance because of the frequency changing back and forth. The distortion is related to the ratio, R , from equation 2.4a.

R is similar to the inverse of the sample rate. If R , the ratio of the input frequency to the sampling frequency, has a remainder of 0.42, then a sample will be taken every 0.42 cycles, or there will be $1/R = 2.38$ samples per cycle. The number of samples per cycle is not an integer, so there may be either two or three samples taken during a single cycle in this case depending on the phase of the first sample. If an inconsistent number of samples are used to reconstruct each cycle in the waveform, the reconstructed cycles will necessarily have inconsistent period lengths and therefore an inconsistent frequency. Some cycles will have a longer or shorter period by one sample, but the period lengths in the waveform will follow a repeating pattern. Since the frequency cannot be represented in a single cycle, the reconstructed waveform produces a pattern using long and short periods, or a higher and lower frequency that will average out to the expected frequency over a complete pattern. If $R = 0.42$, there are 2.38 samples per cycle, so 38% of the input cycles will be sampled three times and the remaining 62% of the cycles will only be sampled two times. The rational form of R , seen in equation 2.6, can be used to find the number of cycles (N) and the number of samples (M) in the whole pattern. $N/M = 42/100 = 21/50$, so there will be 21 cycles made of 50 samples in the repeating pattern that is formed. Not all frequencies will require that many samples or cycles for a pattern. Some patterns require only two samples, but some patterns require hundreds of samples to complete a pattern.

$$R = N/M \quad (2.6)$$

$$R - 1 = (1 - N)/M \quad (2.7)$$

The alias frequency and both the frequencies that will be averaged to get the alias frequency can be determined using the same ratio. From equation 2.4, the alias will be R times $f_s/2$. When rounded up or down, the inverse of R indicates the number of samples that will be used to reconstruct the long or short periods of the waveform respectively. The sample frequency divided by those rounded values of R give the frequencies produced. For example, if

the input was 54.2kHz with a 10kHz sample rate, $R = 0.42 = N/M = 21/50$. The alias frequency would be $0.42 * 10\text{kHz} = 4.2\text{kHz}$. There would be two or three samples per period, so $f_L = f_s/3 = 3.33\text{kHz}$ and $f_H = f_s/2 = 5\text{kHz}$.

The following example with Figure 2-5a-d illustrates what happens when 1-bit distortion occurs. When the number of samples per cycle is inconsistent, the waveform periods get lengthened and shortened as more and fewer samples are used in a given cycle. An additional sample in a cycle causes the waveform to stay high or low for another sample time interval. The samples will be taken in time intervals that are multiples of R . Using $R = 0.4 = N/M = 2/5$, the pattern will be two cycles long and have five samples. Because 1-bit sampling is used, samples with a decimal value of 0.5 or above are ones and samples with a decimal value below 0.5 are zeros. Assume that the sampling starts with the beginning of the first cycle at time 0.0s and 0° . The sample times in terms of cycles will be $R = 0.4, 0.8, 1.2, 1.6, 2.0, \dots$. The integer portion of the terms are ignored, and the samples are converted to a 1 or 0 based on the range they are in. The sampled result will repeat the five-sample pattern: 0-1-0-1-0. The sampled waveform pattern will average out to be the correct frequency using equation 2.4. The average period when taken over the full pattern is equal the expected period based on equation 2.4a.

Figure 2-5 below shows an input signal sampled at two different rates and the reconstructed waveforms. Fig 2-5a and 2-5c show the original signal with the sample points marked for $f_s = 0.4\text{MHz}$ and $f_s = 0.5\text{MHz}$ on the input signal. Figure 2-5b and 2-5d show the respective reconstructed, aliased waveforms. The different sample rates show how the aliased output can be a consistent frequency or a combination of two frequencies.

The trivial solution for the problem of signal aliases having inconsistent periods would be to make sure that any frequencies used have a remainder where $N = 1$ or $1-N = 1$ so that no extra processing was required to extract the actual alias frequencies. If possible that would be great, but non-idealities in a real systems cause frequencies to not always be perfectly generated, transmitted, or received, so the received signal may drift up or down in frequency from what is expected even if the system is setup carefully. The most straight forward way to get the true alias frequency or at least get close to it is to average the periods over a number of cycles. The

best method would be to match the number of cycles in an alias pattern with the number of cycles averaged, but that is not always practical especially as full patterns can be lengthy, and non-ideal signals have extra error introduced through jitter, frequency drift, and noise.

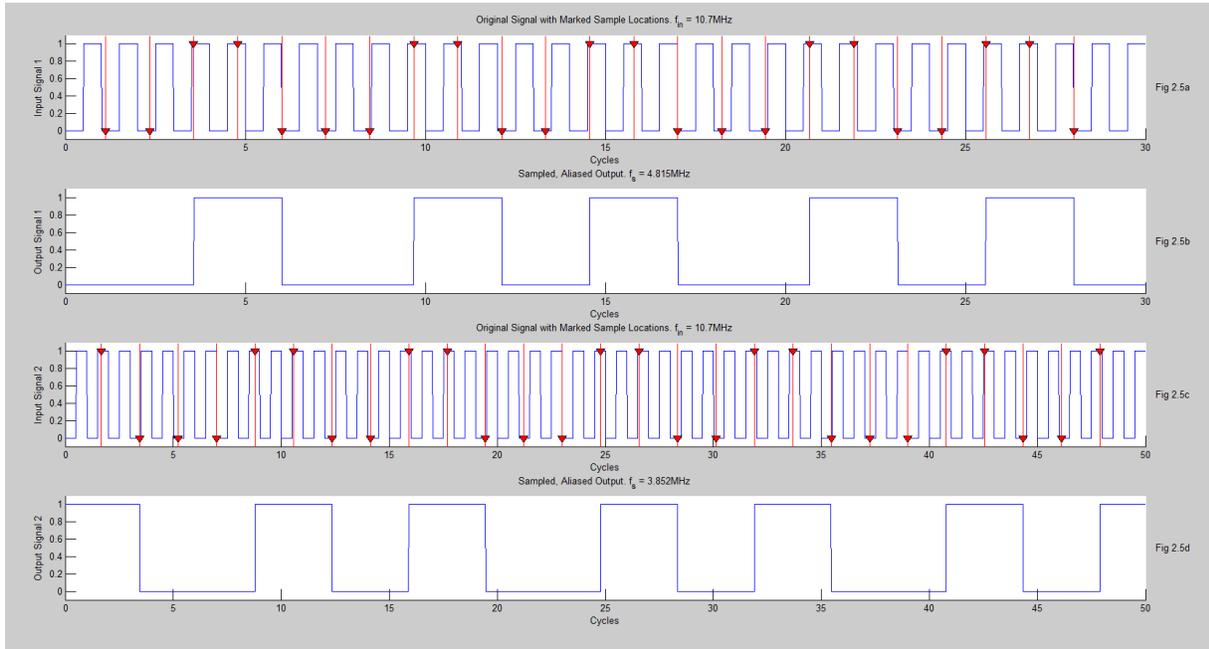


Figure 2-5 (a-d). 1-bit Sampling Distortion Examples

Averaging

The most apparent solution to reduce the problems caused by the 1-bit sampling distortion is to take the average over several periods of the sampled waveform to get more accurate values for the period and frequency. The problem with averaging is that the length of the patterns representing different frequencies varies. Using, $R = N/M$, M samples are needed to complete the N cycles in a pattern. Another way to look at it is R^{-1} cycles are needed complete the pattern. If R^{-1} is not an integer, then the first multiple of R^{-1} that is an integer indicates how many cycles need to be averaged to find the period. A signal can require anywhere from one to hundreds of cycles or more to complete waveform pattern. No matter how many cycles are averaged, the result will not be perfect for most frequencies, but averaging can still be a significant help and give a good approximation to the actual alias frequency.

A whole pattern may not be needed to get a good estimate of a signal period. Though a fraction like $N/M = 5001/10000$ technically requires 5001 cycles to be averaged to find the exact average, the fraction is close to $1/2$ which needs no averaging. For most patterns, a practical middle ground can be found. Most long patterns look very similar to a shorter pattern. A shorter averaging window can be used which will reduce the overall effect of the distortion and give a close estimate to the actual value. Figure 2-6 below shows the pattern for a frequency with $R=17/100$. The figure used samples per period vs total samples to show the inconsistent period length. The expected average of the samples (red) and the 3-period moving average (green) are shown.

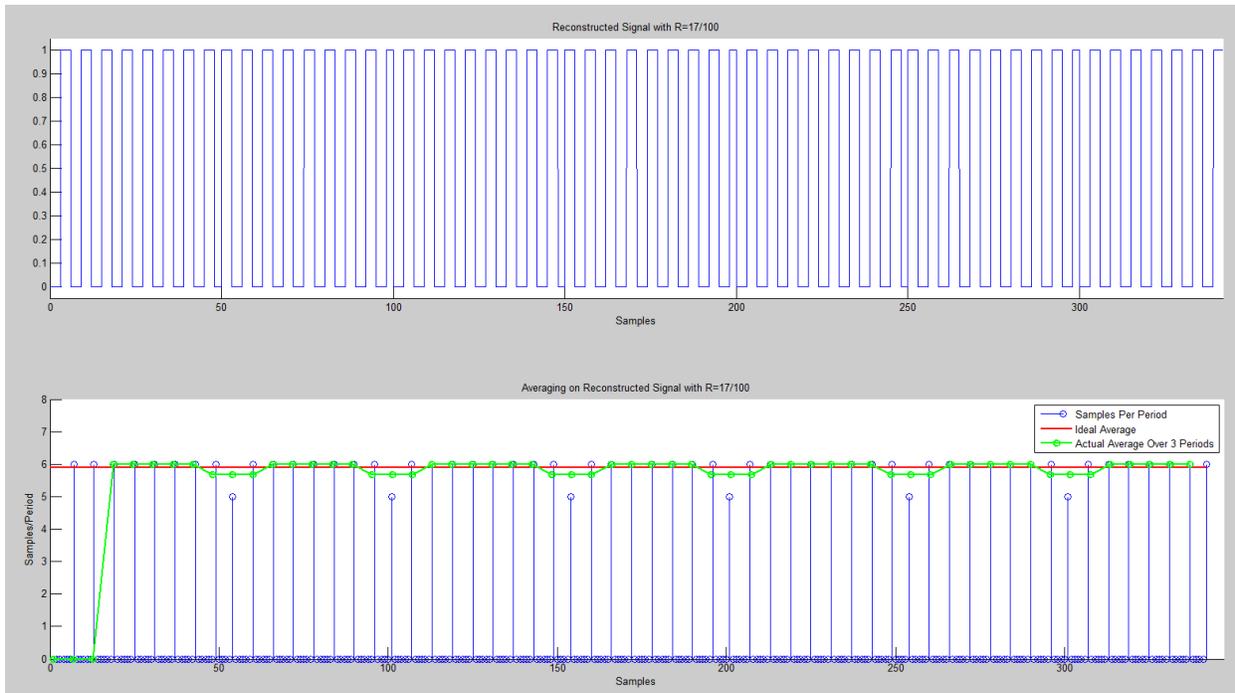


Figure 2-6. Period Averaging Example, $R = 17/100$

The error between the reconstructed signal and the expected average can be measured for each period and accumulated using the mean squared error (MSE). The effect of averaging to reduce the error will be tested for different R values. The error values will be checked for R values from $1/100$ to $50/100$ in steps of $1/100$. R values above 0.5 produce duplicate, mirrored values and are not shown. Figure 2-7 shows the accumulated MSE over 1000 samples with no averaging. Figure 2-8 shows the accumulated MSE over 1000 samples after a length of 8

periods have been averaged. Note the scale of Figure 2-7 has a maximum of 0.25 and Figure 2-8 has a maximum of 4×10^{-3} , so there is a large reduction in MSE.

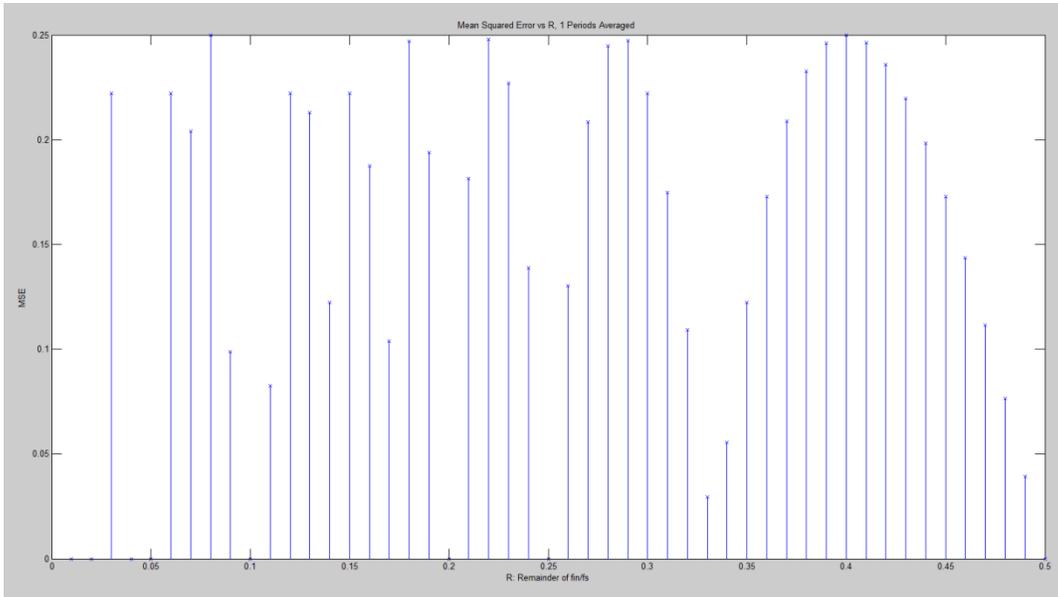


Figure 2-7. MSE with No Averaging

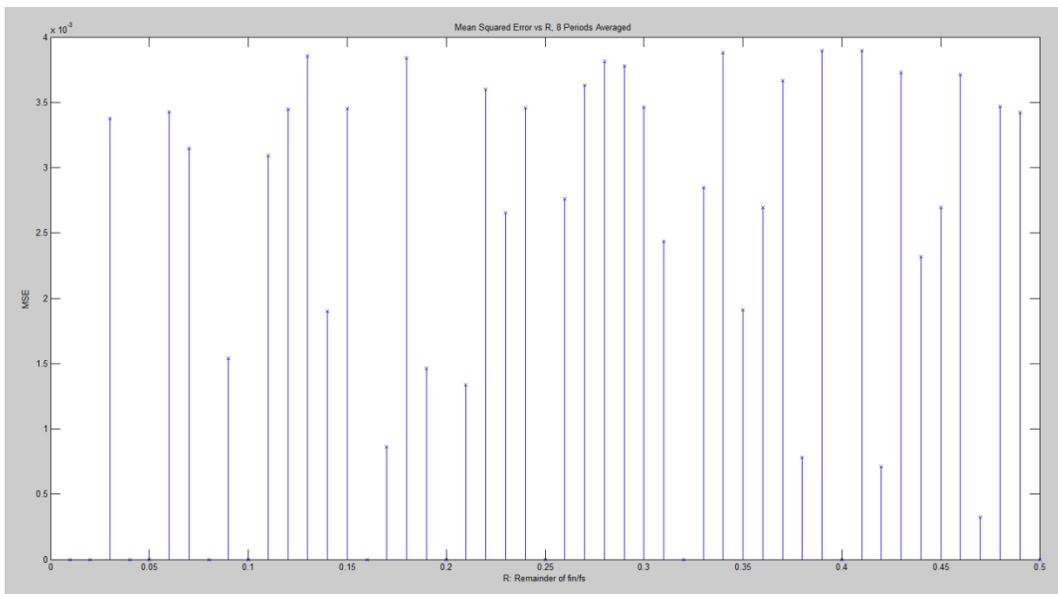


Figure 2-8. MSE with Averaging 8 Periods

The error measures the difference in the number of samples used per cycle and the expected. The averaging decreases the error by nearly a factor of 60 in the worst cases and significantly more in other cases. There is not a particular range of R values that appears suitable

to focus on aliasing signals to that area. Some particular values are better than others, but the averaging helps no matter where in the spectrum the signal is aliased. Averaging over a larger number of cycles would reduce the error even more. The easiest averaging choice for digital systems would be a power of two because the divide operation can be implemented in a hardware design language (HDL) easily using a shift operator if the divide is a power of two.

Chapter 3 - Demodulator Design

The signal demodulation will occur after the 1-bit sampling has occurred. The BFSK frequencies will be in the kHz range after the sampling and waveform reconstruction. This will allow the demodulators to run at a lower clock frequency contributing to power conservation in the digital design. To reduce the effects of 1-bit sampling distortion, accumulating over multiple periods, using a moving average filter, or binomial average filter were explored as possible solutions for each demodulator [12]. Each of the demodulators were tested using parameters taken from [13]. The IF f_h, f_l BFSK frequencies were 10.71MHz and 10.69MHz with a 1kbps data rate. After 1-bit sampling at 75kHz, the baseband f_h, f_l BFSK frequencies used at the input to the demodulators were 35kHz and 15kHz.

Counter

The counter demodulator uses a counter to measure the time between positive edges of the input signal, f_{in} . If the period of the BFSK frequencies can be counted, measured, and distinguished from each other, then the data in f_{in} can be demodulated. The number of clock cycles between the positive edges of f_{in} measure the period, T_{in} . The clock used for the count is the input clock driving the FPGA demodulator module. The counter output signal can be represented using equation 3.1. As the input changes between f_H and f_L , the value of N_{count} produces a pseudo-square wave that mimics the values modulated data. The value of N_{count} is inversely proportional to the input frequency. The output from the counter will need to be an actual digital signal, so the output will be created by comparing the N_{count} waveform to a threshold value. When N_{count} is above or below the threshold, the output will be demodulated to a 1 or 0 respectively.

$$N_{count} = f_{clk}/f_{in} \quad (3.1)$$

The counter demodulator would benefit from the FPGA clock running at a high frequency. More clock cycles per f_{in} cycle allows higher count values and a larger difference between N_{count} for f_L and f_H . The value N_{count} can also be increased by accruing the count over multiple cycles of f_{in} . N_{count} is accumulated over several periods to reduce the effects of the 1-bit distortion. The accumulation required additional registers in the HDL design, and the output would be delayed, but the output would have more consistent and clearly defined data transitions. Using a count accumulated over multiple cycles also helps increase the difference between the values for each BFSK frequency.

The HDL counter design consists of two blocks, the edge detector and the counter with accumulator. The counter increments on every system clock edge. The edge detector detects the edges of the input signal and prompts the counter to output the current value and start a new count. N_{count} is the sum of the most recent four count values.

The counter demodulator signal can be seen in Figure 3-1. The figure shows four signals. From top to bottom, the signals are 1MHz FPGA clock (green), FSK input signal (red) using $f_L = 15\text{kHz}$ and $f_H = 35\text{kHz}$, N_{count} (blue), binary output (blue). N_{count} is accumulated over four cycles, so the expected values using equation 3.1 are 114 and 266. The N_{count} values are typically one lower than expected because the clock and signal are not in sync, so the clock cycle at the beginning of a f_{in} cycle is usually not captured. The actual values seen in the simulation are 110 and 262. The threshold is set midway between the values, 186. The binary output in Figure 3-1 is converted to 1's and 0's based on the comparison of N_{count} with the threshold. The output does not perfectly reflect the input signal. The N_{count} waveform requires a transition time and the waveform shortens the time that represents f_L . Both of these occur because the counter uses the length of the input cycle to perform operations. Because f_L has a longer cycle, the transitions from f_H to f_L are slower. The threshold is also reached slower meaning the transitions take more time, so the time that the output can be interpreted as a 1 or 0 is reduced. The bit decision will still be determined by taking a sample in the middle of the bit period, so the demodulator will still function as intended, but the timing gets delayed slightly. This problem is increased as the ratio of the data rate to f_L is increased. If a bit is held for a shorter time, then the

transition time becomes more significant. The simulation in Figure 3-1 does not include 1-bit distortion. The inputs are ideal 15kHz and 35kHz signals.

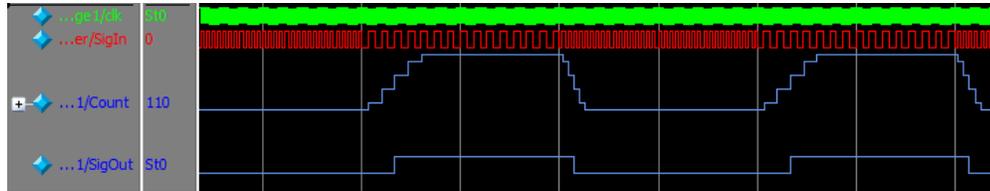


Figure 3-1. Counter Demodulator Simulation

One-Shot

The One-Shot demodulator detects the signal edges of an FSK input signal [13]. The number of edges over a period of time is proportional to the frequency of the signal. Over a set period of time, the number of edges can be used to detect whether the FSK input is f_H or f_L . The number of edges over a period of time can be counted and the result viewed as a pseudo-analog value that is proportional to the input data.

When an edge is detected on the input, the demodulator produces a pulse. The length of the pulse is designed to be the same length as a period of f_H . With the input at f_H , the output pulses will run together producing a constant value until the input changes to f_L . When the input is f_L , the edges will occur less often. The produced pulses remain the same length and occur at every positive edge as before. Since there are fewer edges, and those edges are more spread out, the average value of the output when the input is f_L will be lower.

The average value of the output pulses over a time interval can be used to demodulate the input. The average values taken from the output pulses give a pseudo-analog waveform that represents the data modulated in the input. The waveform can be converted back to a binary signal by finding an appropriate threshold value and comparing it to against the One-Shot output. The result indicates when the signal should be demodulated to a 1 or 0.

The HDL design uses three blocks. One module detects the edges of the input BFSK signal. Another produces a pulse for each edge detected. The last module averages the pulsed signal to make the pseudo-analog waveform and then the bit decision based on the threshold to

demodulate the waveform to a 1 or 0. The output can then be put into a bit-sync module. The clock running at the bit rate can be synced with the data. The middle of the bit period can be found, and the data can be sampled to produce the final demodulated output.

Simulated signals from the One-shot demodulator are shown in Figure 3-2. From top to bottom the signals in the figure are the system clock (green), FSK input (blue), edge detector output (blue), output pulse (red), averaged pulse (light green), binary output (yellow). As a scale reference, the yellow vertical bar on the right edge of the figure intersects the averaged pulse waveform near the median value, 950. The simulation in Figure 3-2 does not include 1-bit distortion. The inputs are ideal 15kHz and 35kHz signals.

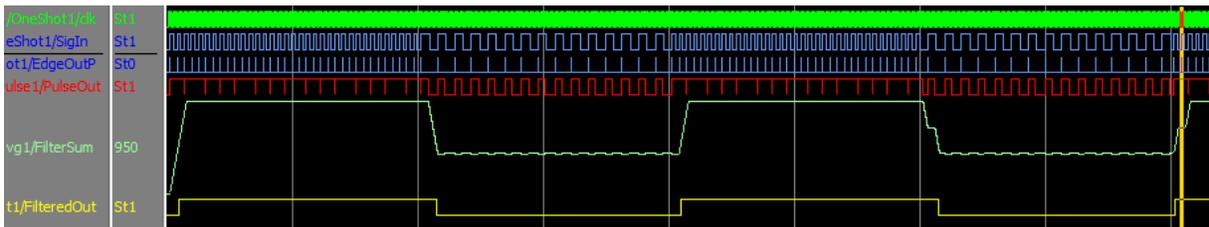


Figure 3-2. One-Shot Simulation

Phase-Frequency Detector

The PFD demodulator is built around the PFD design shown in Figure 3-3. The PFD uses two DFFs and one AND gate. The inputs to both DFFs are tied to logic high. In the figure, the upper DFF clock is tied to the BFSK input and the lower DFF to a constant Reference Frequency, f_{ref} . The f_{ref} is generated by the FPGA for the PFD and set between the BFSK frequencies. f_{ref} is 25kHz for the demodulator comparison. The outputs from the PFD are UP and DOWN. The PFD outputs produce pulses that indicate whether the BFSK Input to the upper DFF is at a higher or lower frequency than f_{ref} though only one of the outputs produces outputs at a time.

The output pulses timing and duration depend on the spacing between the rising edges of the inputs. On each DFF clock edge, the input is passed to the output. When both the UP and DOWN lines are high, the AND gate output goes high resetting the DFF outputs. Both remain

outputs remain low until an input has a rising edge. Because the outputs depend on the timing of the inputs, the UP and DOWN pulses have an inconsistent pattern, but the output pulse trends show the frequency relationship between f_{ref} and the BFSK Input frequency.

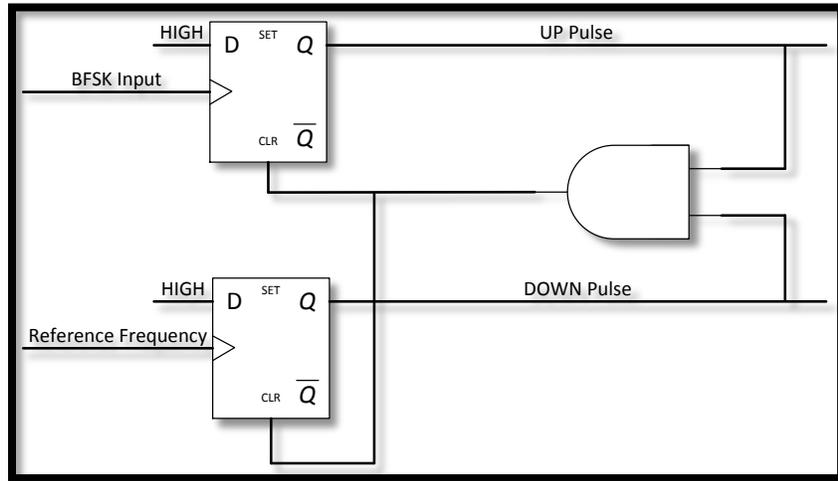


Figure 3-3. Phase-Frequency Detector Circuit Model

The general parameters of the output pulses can be determined using the periods of the inputs. The maximum output pulse is the T_L minus one clock cycle (T_{Clk}), equation 3.2. The minimum pulse is the difference between T_L and T_H , equation 3.3. The difference in pulse length from one pulse to the next is defined as the Shift and the same as the minimum pulse length, equation 3.4.

$$T_{Max} = T_L - T_{Clk} \quad (3.2)$$

$$T_{Min} = T_L - T_H \quad (3.3)$$

$$Shift = T_{Min} \quad (3.4)$$

If T_L and T_H are close in length, the output pulse length will slowly increase from T_{Min} to T_{Max} similar to the top trace (green) in Figure 3-4. Those output pulses are more difficult to average usefully because all the similarly sized pulses are grouped together. The output will show a similar increase even with averaging several pulses. If there is a larger difference between T_L and T_H , the pulse lengths vary more, and different pulses lengths get interleaved like in Figure 3-5. Both figures show that the pulses have a repeating pattern. Both figures repeat the pattern twice.

The length of a full pulse pattern is the least common multiple of the two period lengths, equation 3.5. Outputs like in Figure 3-5 have subpatterns that make up the full pattern. The subpattern refers to the pulses that increase in size before overflowing and starting with a shorter pulse. The subpatterns in Figure 3-5 are three, two, and two pulses long then the full pattern repeats. The number of pulses in a subpattern is given by equation 3.6, and the number of subpatterns in full pattern is given by equation 3.7. Averaging over an output that has subpatterns gives a more even output since consecutive pulse lengths vary more.

$$N_{FullPatternPulses} = LCM(T_L, T_H) \quad (3.5)$$

$$N_{SubPatternPulses} = Floor(T_{Max} - 1st\ Pulse / T_{Min}) \quad (3.6)$$

$$N_{SubPatterns} = (T_L / (T_L - T_H)) \quad (3.7)$$

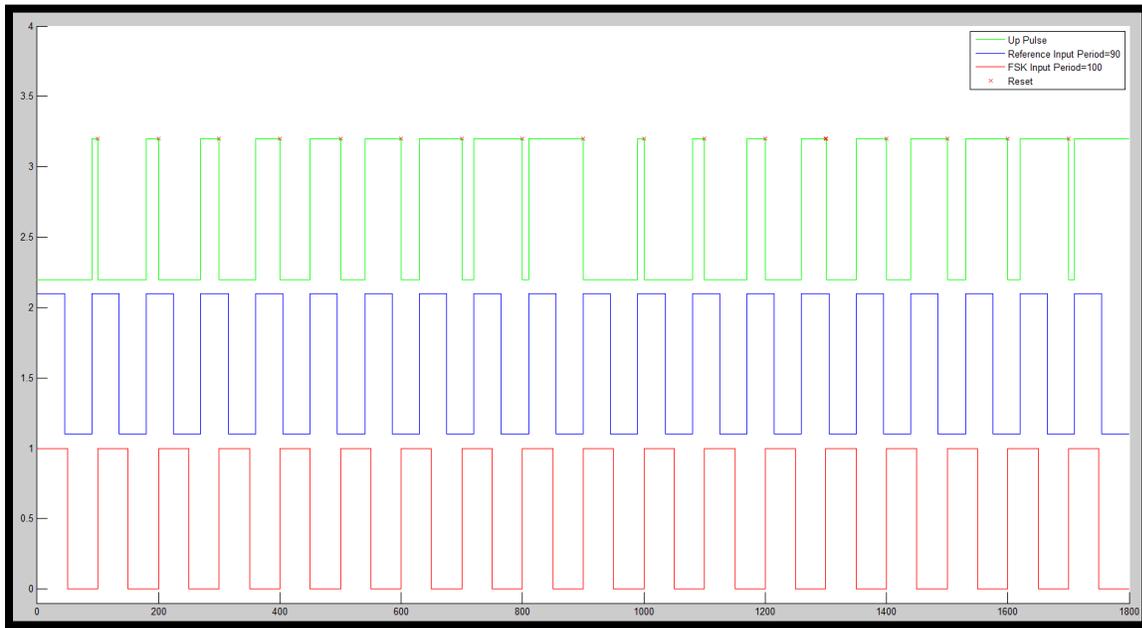


Figure 3-4. PFD Pulses

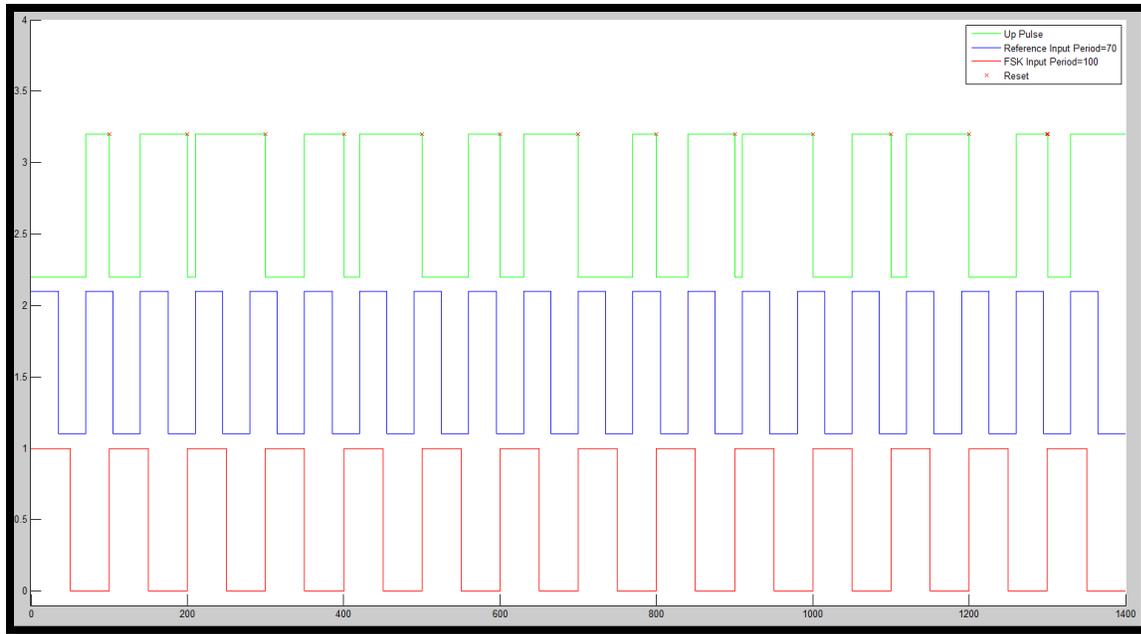


Figure 3-5. PFD Pulse Subpatterns

Once the output pulses are formed, the relationship between the BFSK and f_{ref} should be visually apparent. A filter averages and smooths the output pulses. The averaging operation will be performed on the UP and DOWN pulses separately. The outputs are near inverses and the values from both show when the BFSK value is higher or lower than the f_{ref} . Only one output produces pulses at a time, so one of the outputs will be a constant value of zero. If DOWN is subtracted from UP, the result produces values that show an even larger difference between values that represent the BFSK input frequencies than they do separately. A threshold value will be set for the combined output to determine when to demodulate the output to a 1 or 0.

The HDL design uses modules for a clock divider, the PFD, and an averaging module. The clock divider is used to establish f_{ref} . The FPGA clock is divided to a frequency that is half way between f_H and f_L . The PFD code implements the circuit in Figure 3-3. Separate Verilog always blocks are used for the DFFs, so each can perform operations on the appropriate input signal edge. On a positive edge of the input signal, the output register is set high. A wire defined as the AND of both DFF outputs is used to reset the DFF outputs. On the negative edge of the reset signal, both DFF outputs are set low. The averaging module uses registers and a counter. The register of size N holds the last N outputs bit values. The register acts as a FIFO to

shift the bits in and out. The counter increments when a 1 is shifted in and decrements if a 1 is shifted out to keep a running count of the number of 1's over the most recent n bits. The simulated output used $N = 1000$.

Simulated PFD signals are shown in Figure 3-6 below. From the top down, the signals are the 20MHz system clock (green), FSK input (red), reference frequency (red), PFD UP output (blue), PFD DOWN output (blue), filtered UP (green), filtered DOWN (green), Sum (green), output (yellow). The frequencies of 35kHz, 15kHz, and 25kHz are used for f_H , f_L , and f_{ref} respectively with a 1kHz data rate. The UP and DOWN signals were generated to be ideal. 1-bit sampling distortion was not included. UP and DOWN were filtered using moving average filters. The signal Sum is UP minus DOWN. The output is determined using a threshold of zero for Sum. For reference, the vertical yellow marker on the right of the figure intersects Sum at a value of zero.

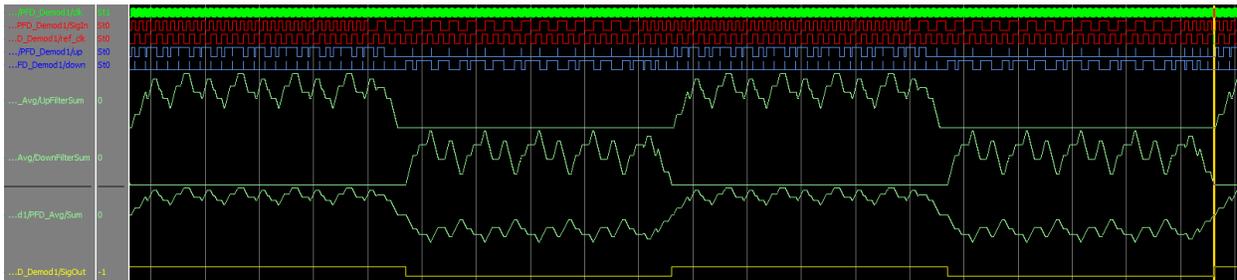


Figure 3-6. PFD Demodulator Simulation

Phase Frequency Detector with Preprocessor

The PFD used here is the same as the PFD demodulator described in the previous section. The preprocessor used on the PFD input can correct some of the distortion introduced by the 1-bit sampling. The waveform reconstructed from the 1-bit sampling function may have varying period lengths as described in Chapter 2. The preprocessor will reduce the period length variations prior to the PFD input. The preprocessor uses period detection, filtering, and a numerically controlled oscillator (NCO) to produce a new signal with more uniform period lengths. The period detector counts the number of clock cycles between edges to measure the length of the input signal period. The counts between the edges are filtered using a binomial

filter to provide a more consistent output frequency [12]. The NCO generates a new waveform using the filtered value to set the period length. The block diagram of the preprocessor is shown below in Figure 3-7. All three of the blocks in the preprocessor can be implemented in hardware using few resources on a FPGA.

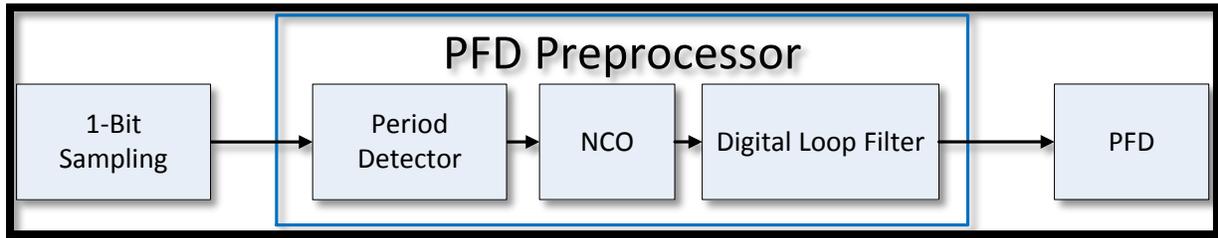


Figure 3-7. PFD Preprocessor

The HDL design uses modules for each of the pre-processor blocks. The period detector is similar to the Counter demodulator without the accumulator. A binomial filter is used to average the pulse lengths and provide a value to the NCO. The NCO produces a new BFSK input that is passed to the PFD.

The PFD outputs are based on the location of the input edges, so the output pulses are inconsistent with the theoretical pattern when the input has variation. The processed input waveform provides a more consistent frequency to the PFD input allowing the outputs to produce the expected pulses. Figure 3-8 below shows the output from the processed input

From the top down, the signals are the 1kHz bit clock, BFSK input with 1-bit distortion, processed BFSK waveform, Period Detector output, and the output from the PFD. The same frequencies of 35kHz, 15kHz, and 25kHz are used for f_H , f_L , and f_{ref} , but f_H and f_L were generated to represent the 1-bit distortion expected.

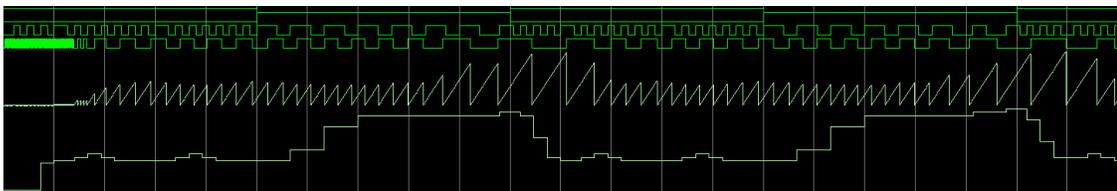


Figure 3-8. PFD Preprocessor

Chapter 4 - Demodulator Comparison Tests

Power Consumption

Power consumption on the Microsemi Igloo FPGA's are directly related to the size of the design and the frequencies used in the design [2, 14]. Amsler shows the power consumption trends almost linearly with both parameters. Libero, the Microsemi Integrated Development Environment (IDE), allows the size of the design to be viewed after the files are compiled and the layout run. The layout was optimized in Libero minimize timing and power consumption. The estimated power usage can be viewed with the Smart Power feature in Libero. The Smart Power calculations are typically slightly low compared to observed power, but the values do provide a good approximation [2]. Smart Power also gives an approximate battery life based on a given battery size for the design. The battery life does not always follow with the size of the design. The actual power usage will vary based on several factor including, the exact FPGA used, the voltages used on the FPGA, and the clock frequencies used to run each module. These values do provide a good means of comparison of the demodulator designs because all power approximations will use the same factors except for the demodulator design.

Size of Design

The size of the design can be measured within Smart Power. The design size of the AGLN250 FPGA on the development board used for this project can be measured by the number of flip-flops (FF) used. The AGLN250 has 6144. The FPGA uses components other than FFs, but the number of FFs used provides a good indicator of design size.

A simpler design can lead to a smaller design. The Counter was the simplest design discussed in this paper and produced the smallest FPGA design. The Counter used 356 of 6144 FFs. The simplicity and size are the greatest advantages to the Counter. The downside of the design is that its functionality is very dependent on the clock frequency. The design can be slowed, but the reaction time of the Counter will also be slowed meaning it will not work at higher data rates. As expected, the more complicated designs required increased FPGA resources to implement. The One-Shot, PFD, and PFD with preprocessor used 269, 2574, 3066 FFs respectively.

Power

Ultimately, the power consumption and battery life are the most important factors. Design size and frequency contribute to the power, but the primary figure of merit must be power consumption. Using as little power as possible and extending battery life is the most important factor. The battery life calculations were found using Smart Power assuming a 100mAh battery. The power and battery life for each demodulator are shown in Table 4-1.

Demodulator	Power (mW)	Design Size (FFs)	Active Time (hr) per 100mAh Battery
Counter	0.30	356	398
One-Shot	0.54	269	222
PFD	6.10	2574	19.7
PFD w/preproc	6.69	3066	17.9

Table 4-1. Demodulator Power Consumption

Again, these values do not exactly reflect how the demodulators will perform on any given system. The power measurements are approximations made with several assumptions, but because these values were all found using the same set-up, the measurements can be useful for comparing the demodulators.

Error Analysis

The demodulator performance in a system must also be evaluated when noise is present together with the signal. The noise performance was evaluated using random input data. Errors are projected on top of the data. The errors invert the input causing the BFSK signal to use the incorrect frequency. A random number of errors, from 1 to 5, with random lengths, up to T_b were projected onto the input. The total of the errors covered between 0.1% and 10% of the input. The induced error inverted the logic level of the input causing the opposite IF BFSK frequency to be used. The outputs of the demodulators were checked to see how many of the errant bit decision were made by each demodulator compared to the error free input. MATLAB was used to simulate 10,000 inputs with errors. The outputs were plotted with the error percent on the x-axis and the number of errors in the demodulated output on the y-axis. To better view

the data, box plots were used to show the distribution of the output data. Figures 4-1 through 4-4 show the box plots of each demodulator.

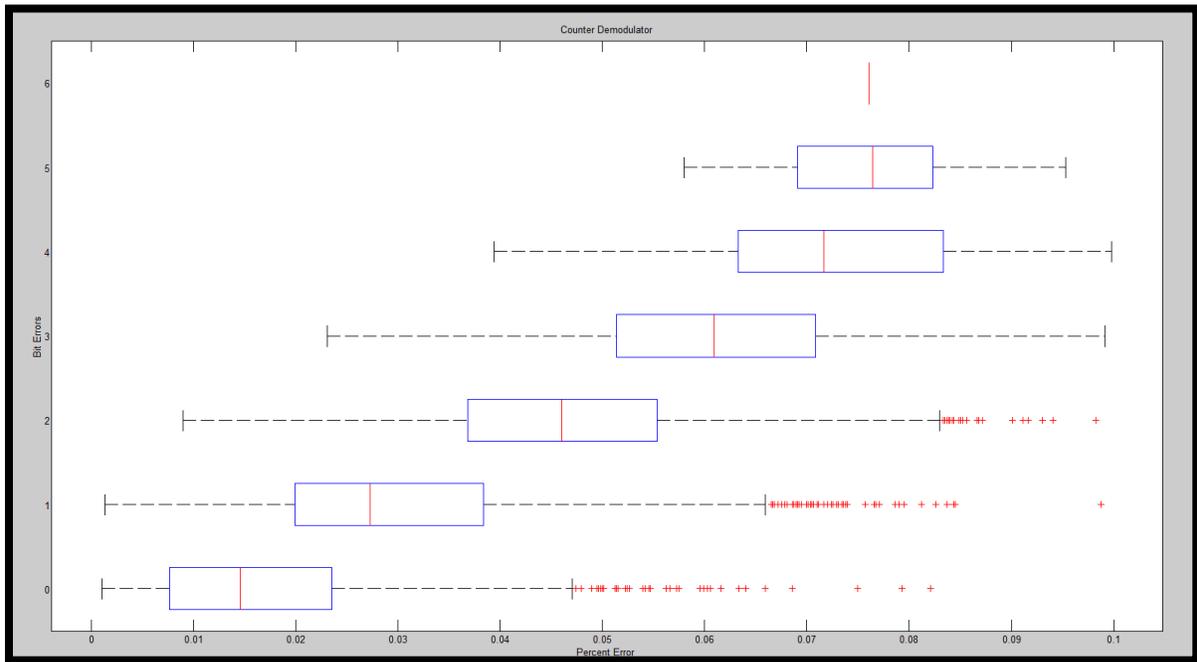


Figure 4-1. Counter Error Simulation Results

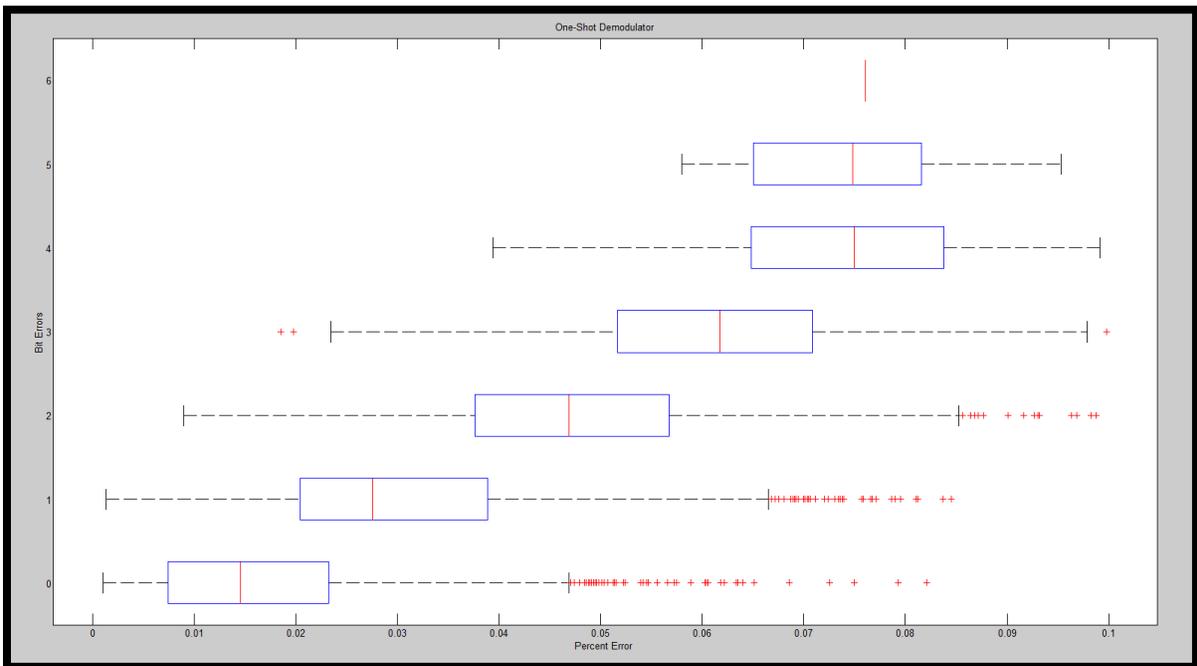


Figure 4-2. One-Shot Error Simulation Results

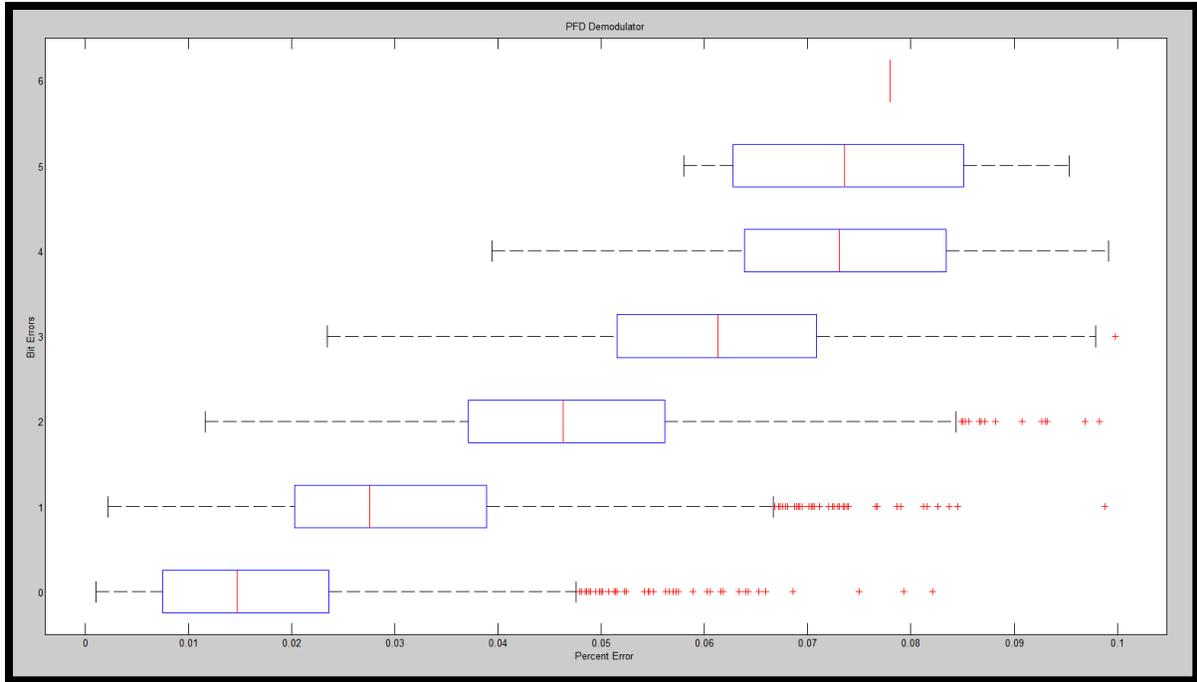


Figure 4-3. PFD Error Simulation Results

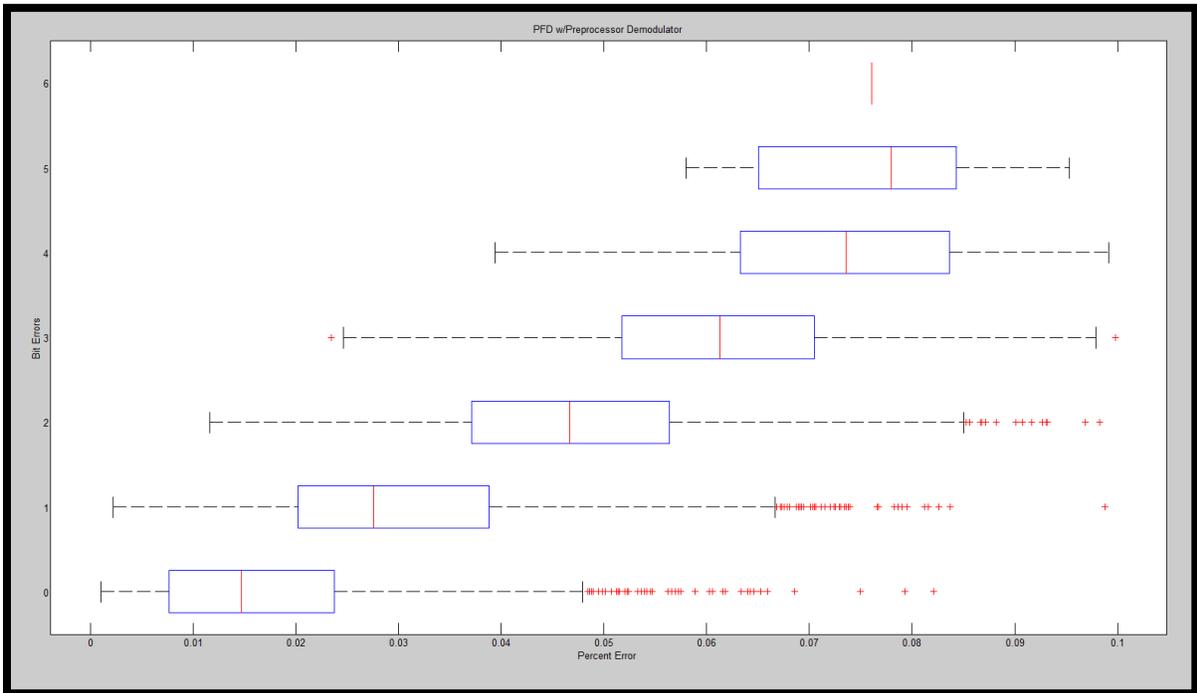


Figure 4-4. PFD with Preprocessor Error Simulation Results

Each of the demodulators has very similar error box plots. The total number of errors over the 10,000 simulations was accumulated for each demodulator. Those results are shown in Table 4-2 below. From this error analysis, all of the demodulators are nearly equivalent for this setup of f_H , f_L , f_s , and T_b .

Demodulator	Total Simulation Errors
Counter	13576
One-Shot	13295
Phase-Frequency Detector	13384
Phase Frequency Detector w/Preprocessor	13365

Table 4-2 Error Simulation Results

Eye Diagram

As a first order test to compare the noise added by each of the demodulators, an eye diagram for each is shown below in Figure 4-5.

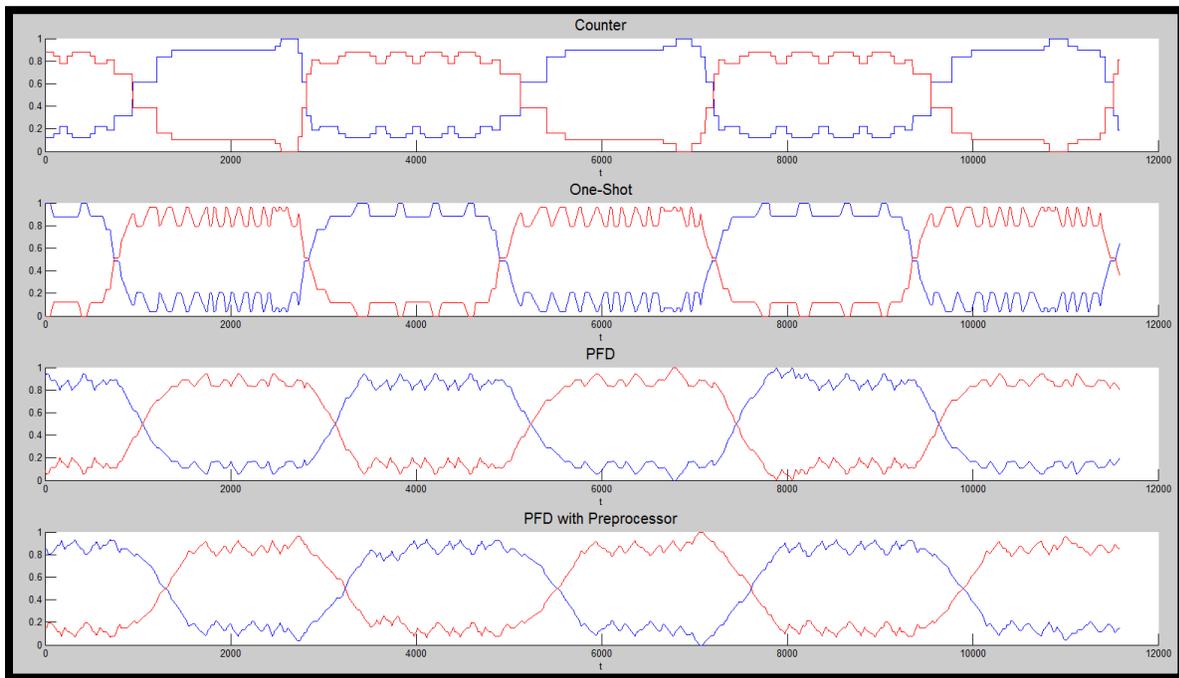


Figure 4-5. Demodulator Eye Diagrams

The waveform data was pulled from simulations in ModelSim with the results scaled and plotted in MATLAB. Each of the plots was scaled to make the minimum zero and maximum one for easy comparison. Each of the eye diagrams showed similar results for the maximum low value, approximately 0.2, and minimum high value, approximately 0.8. These were first order simulations. The ripple in the waveforms could be reduced if picking the inputs frequencies to provide the demodulator inputs with closer to ideal inputs, but the case used in the simulation provides a representative case for when input are not picked specifically for demodulator performance. Overall, the noise in each of the demodulators appears to be about equal.

Chapter 5 - Conclusions and Future Work

Low-power designs will continue to gain opportunities for use with FPGAs as the technology progresses. The BFSK demodulators investigated were all demonstrated to be viable options for a low-power FPGA-based system. The best one for a particular design would depend on the system requirements. For the NASA EPSCoR project using the demodulators as part of a network of body sensors, the PFD with preprocessor showed the highest ceiling for usefulness based on power consumption, and transition time between input changes. As the bit rate and BFSK frequencies were increased, the PFD with preprocessor would be expected to outperform the other demodulators. If a low bit rate was used in the final system, the Counter or One-Shot would be the best options.

While the performance of all the demodulators is tied to the BFSK Input frequencies and the frequency separation, the counter is the most limited. The Counter allows for a very simple and small design, but the design is limited based on the number of clock cycles counted between edges. Averaging over several periods helps, but that also adds delay and increases transition time. The Counter does use the least power, so if the Counter were to meet system requirements, the Counter would be an obvious choice. The One-Shot is similar in that enough edges have to accumulate before the output can develop into a 1 or 0. The Counter and One-Shot will be slower with lower frequencies and have more defined outputs with larger frequency separation.

The PFD, with or without the preprocessing, is also dependent on the input frequencies, but as soon as an edge occurs, an output pulse is started. The output still needs to be filtered, but less transition time in the PFD is needed before changing between UP and DOWN output pulses. Once the BFSK input changes, the output pulse reflect the change.

If the frequencies out of the 1-bit sampling could be picked to optimize the BFSK input into the PFD, the performance could increase and the preprocessor may not be needed. With the right frequencies, the averaging could be reduced or eliminated, the transition time could be reduced, and the ripple in the output pulses could be reduced. Those improvements would lead to higher data rate capability, less delay, decrease in design size, and decreased power consumption.

This study was mainly comparing the demodulator designs, but several steps could be taken to minimize the power consumption once a design is selected. Reducing every register to the bare minimum size would reduce the static and dynamic power usage. Synthesis of the HDL design should remove unneeded parts or registers, but changing the design directly would be cleaner and less ambiguous if a question of logic operation were to arise. Reducing every clock rate as much as possible would be the next step. Internal clocks could likely be reduced with no harmful effect on the demodulated output. Writing efficient code to perform operations in parallel could be another option to reduce time and power. The HDL designs all used non-blocking statements which may take more time resulting in more power usage. Every bit of improvement helps when considering low-power designs especially when the power may rely solely on an energy harvesting solution.

The input frequency could even be manipulated in a different way. There are several frequencies that are important to the design. The clock frequency will play a large part in how much power the design uses and also the data rate that the design can demodulate. The BFSK frequencies will play a part in the bandwidth of the signal, the ease of demodulating the under-sampled signal, and influence the maximum data rate that can be used. The data rate, R_b , must be a much lower frequency than f_L . In order to detect the frequency, several cycles of f_L must be present for the demodulator to measure. If f_L was 20kHz and the data rate was 10kHz, f_L would

only have time for two cycles before the BFSK Input would change back to f_H . That is not enough for the demodulators to make a good measurement. A first order rule of thumb could be for the data rate to be an order of magnitude lower than f_L .

One option to get around the requirement $f_L \gg R_b$ could be to choose the sample frequency so f_L is very close to 0Hz. The subsampled BFSK signal would use a f_L near 0Hz and f_H near the frequency separation, $2\Delta f$. The signal would then appear to be similar to modulated using On-Off Keying (OOK).

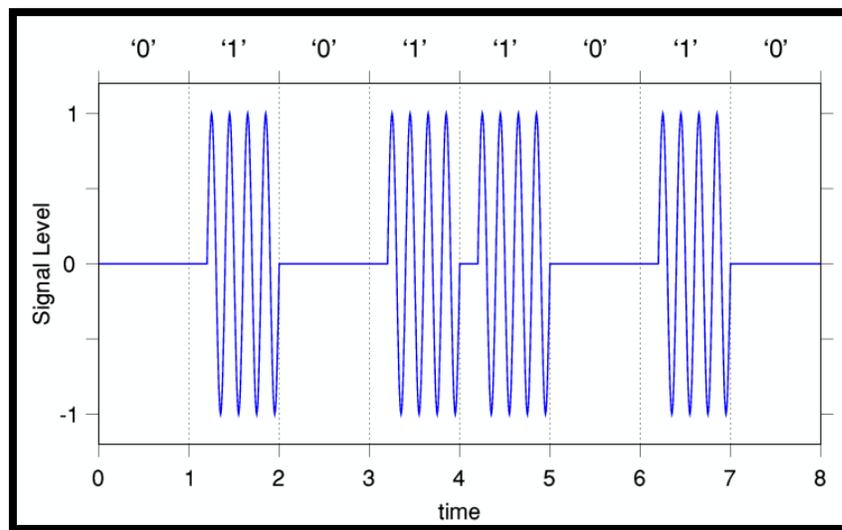


Figure 5-1. OOK Waveform [15]

The demodulator in this case would need to detect when the signal is present and when it is not. A low pass filter is commonly used for OOK demodulation. Any of the demodulators investigated in this paper would also work. One of the main advantages to using BFSK frequencies that could alias to make an pseudo-OOK signal is that the data rate could potentially be larger than f_L . The requirement would change to $f_H \gg R_b$. Lower BFSK frequencies could also be used, so a lower clock frequency could run the demodulator leading to lower power consumption. The 1-bit distortion may be less of a concern too. Averaging the signal after 1-bit sampling would still be desirable, so f_H would be more consistent, f_L would not be of much concern as long as it was still close to 0Hz.

The clock frequency used in the design will not need to be as high as the board clock in most cases. The frequency needed will depend partly on the FSK frequencies used and the data rate. The Counter may need to be run with a faster clock for the design to work better. The One-Shot and PFD may be able to run on a slower clock.

Regardless of the frequencies or the type of demodulator used, low-power systems implemented on Field Programmable Gate Arrays (FPGA) have become more practical with advancements leading to decreases in FPGA cost, power consumption, and physical size. In systems that may need to operate for an extended time independent from a central power source, low-power FPGA's are a reasonable option. Combined with research into energy harvesting solutions, a FPGA-based system could operate independently indefinitely.

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Appendix A – Hardware Design Language (HDL), Verilog Code

Counter

```
// Counter_all.v
/////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////
// Riley Harrington
// Kansas State University
// Electrical and Computer Engineering

// This file contains the modules used in the Counter BFSK
// demodulator.
// Modules:
// -Counter
// -Edge Detector
/////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////
`timescale 1ps / 1ps
// Counter Module
module Counter_all(clk, ar, SigIn, SigOut);
    // inputs
    input clk;
    input ar;
    input SigIn;
    // outputs
    output wire SigOut;
    // end module I/O
    // Parameters
    parameter CountSize = 20;
    parameter RegSize = 15;
    parameter Ref_clock = 2;

    // For a clock frequency of 20MHz and FSK frequencies of 15kHz and 35kHz,
    // the count value will be between 5333 for 15kHz and 2286 for 35kHz.
    // Those numbers are found by dividing the clock frequency by the FSK
    // frequency then multiplying the result by four since the four cycles are
    // accumulated before setting the value to Count.
    // 20MHz/15kHz = 1333.3 --> 1333.3*4=5333
    // 20MHz/35kHz = 571.43 --> 571.43*4=2286
    // The mid-point between the numbers is ~3800
    parameter Threshold = 180;//3800;
    // end parameters
    // Registers
    reg [20:0] OutputCount, CountUp;
    reg AvgOut;
    reg [RegSize-1:0] S4, S3, S23, S34, S123, S234, S1234, Sout;
    // end registers
    // Wires & assignments
    wire EdgeP, EdgeN;
    wire Edges;
    wire ref_clk;
    assign Edges = EdgeP || EdgeN;
    assign SigOut = (Sout > Threshold)? 1'b1:1'b0;
    // end wires
```

```

// Calls to other modules
EdgeDetect_Cnt Edge1 ( .clk(clk), .ar(ar), .SigIn(SigIn),
                      .EdgeOutP(EdgeP), .EdgeOutN(EdgeN) );

Clk_Div #(Ref_clock) RefClkDivider( .clk(clk), .ar(ar), .d_clk(ref_clk) );
// end module calls

always @(posedge ref_clk or negedge ar)
  if(~ar)
    begin
      // Initialize reg values to 0
      CountUp = {CountSize{1'b0}};
      OutputCount = {CountSize{1'b0}};
      S4 = {RegSize{1'b0}};
      S3 = {RegSize{1'b0}};
      S23 = {RegSize{1'b0}};
      S34 = {RegSize{1'b0}};
      S123 = {RegSize{1'b0}};
      S234 = {RegSize{1'b0}};
      S1234 = {RegSize{1'b0}};
      Sout = {RegSize{1'b0}};
    end
  else
    if(EdgeP)
      begin
        // bring in new sample & roll older values
        S3 = S4;
        S4 = CountUp;
        S23 = S34;
        S34 = S3 + S4;
        S123 = S234;
        S234 = S23 + S34;
        S1234 = S123 + S234;
        Sout = S1234 >> 4'd4;
        CountUp = {CountSize{1'b0}};
      end // end if EdgeP block
    else
      begin
        // If no edge, count number of clock cycles since last edge
        CountUp = CountUp + 1;

        //Go through output count
        if(OutputCount > Sout)
          begin
            // AvgOut = ~AvgOut;
            OutputCount = 10'b0;
          end
        else
          begin
            OutputCount = OutputCount + 1;
          end
      end // end EdgeP else block

endmodule // end "Counter"

```

One-Shot

```
// OneShotDemod.v
// Riley Harrington
// Kansas State Univesity

// This file will contain all modules used to run the 1-shot demodulator
// 1. Edgedetector which will indicate input positive edges
// 2. PulseOut which will output a pulse of a certain length after a positive
data edge
// 3. Moving Average Filter will smooth out the output from PulseOut and
// make a decision based on a threshold whether the data is a one or zero.
// 4. Bit-sync will sync to the output of the filter and then take a sample
at mid bit-period

// This module will provide all parameter values, input, wire, and outputs
needed
// for a complete demod that can be tested on a FPGA.
`timescale 100ps / 100ps

module OneShotDemod(clk, ar, SigIn, DemodOut);
    input clk;
    input ar;
    input SigIn;

    parameter FilterSize = 20;
    output wire DemodOut;

    // This parameter is used to determine how many clock cycles will be
    // in the time frame to check for edges
    parameter FilterLen = 20;

    // This parameter is used to determine how long the output pulse will last
    // Ideally the pulse will last the same time as a period of the higher
    // frequency used in the FSK.
    parameter PulseLen = 50;
    parameter Threshold = 1000;
    wire SigIn;
    wire EdgeOutP;
    wire PulseOut;
    wire DataOut;
    wire [FilterSize-1:0] AvgOut;
    assign DemodOut = (AvgOut > Threshold)? 1'b1:1'b0;

    always @(posedge clk or negedge ar)
        if(~ar)
            begin
                end
            else
                begin
                    end

    // Finds edges on input on SigIn
    EdgeDetect Edge1( .clk(clk), .ar(ar), .SigIn(SigIn), .EdgeOutP(EdgeOutP),
    .EdgeOutN() );

    // Takes output from EdgeDetect and outputs a pulse when an edge is found
```

```

    // Output pulse should be close to or the same as the number of clock
    // cycles in the period
    // of the higher frequency
    // Tclk = 1/20MHz = 5e-8, T1 = 1/35kHz = 2.857e-5 ->570
    OutputPulse #( .PulseLen(571), .PulseReg(12) )
        Pulse1( .clk(clk), .ar(ar), .SigIn(EdgeOutP), .PulseOut(PulseOut) );

    // Moving Average Filter
    // This should be set long enough to cover a full period of the longer FSK
    // frequency period
    MovingAvg #( .FilterLen(FilterLen), .FilterSize(FilterSize) ) //
        Avg1( .clk(clk), .ar(ar), .In(PulseOut), .Out(AvgOut) );

    // should have a reg long enough to count the number of clock cycles in a
    // data bit period
    BitSync #( .Divider(10000) )
        Sync1( .clk(clk), .ar(ar), .DataIn(FilteredOut), .DataOut(DataOut) );
endmodule

```

```

//////////////////////////////////// OutputPulse
// OutputPulse.v

```

```

// Riley Harrington
// Kansas State University

```

```

// This module will be used to Output a pulse
// The pulse will be put out when an input positive edge is found
// on the input. The pulse will last for a number of clock cycles
// indicated by the parameter PulseLen.

```

```

`timescale 100ps / 100ps

```

```

module OutputPulse(clk, ar, SigIn, PulseOut);

```

```

    input clk;
    input ar;
    input SigIn;
    output wire PulseOut;

```

```

    // Pulse Len determines how long the output pulse will be
    // Set this to be the length of the high FSK period.
    parameter PulseLen = 25;
    // Used to set register length.
    parameter PulseReg = 6;
    // This reg keeps track of the number of ones of the filter length.
    reg [PulseReg-1:0] Counter;
    wire EdgeOutP;
    assign EdgeOutP = SigIn;

```

```

    // Output assignment (Wire is asynchronous, but Counter changes on
    // posedge.)

```

```

    assign PulseOut = (Counter == 0)? 1'b0:1'b1;

```

```

    always @(posedge clk or negedge ar)
        if(~ar)
            begin
                Counter = {PulseReg{1'b0}};
            end

```

```

    end
  else
    begin
      if(EdgeOutP)
        begin
          Counter = PulseLen;
        end
      else
        begin
          // If Counter is at zero, no action (Counter=Counter), else
          decrement Counter
          Counter = (Counter == 0)? Counter:(Counter-1);
        end
      end
    end
  end
endmodule // end OutputPulse

```

Phase Frequency Detector

```

// PFD.v
// Riley Harrington
// Kansas State University

// Phase-Frequency Detector (PFD)
// PFD based on digital circuit using two D flip-flops and an AND gate
// with "UP" and "DOWN" outputs from DFFs. D inputs on both FFs are
// tied high. The Q output of the FFs will go HIGH at the next clk
// posedge after the input goes HIGH. The first output to go HIGH
// will remain HIGH until the other output also goes HIGH. When both
// outputs are HIGH, the AND gate will reset the FF outputs.
// The UP and DOWN outputs indicate whether the input signal frequency
// (InA) is higher or lower than the reference frequency (InB).

`timescale 100ps/100ps

module PFD(clk, ar, InA, InB, up, down);
  input clk;
  input ar;
  input InA;
  input InB;
  output reg up;
  output reg down;

  // DFF_Rst will reset both FFs if a reset is needed either
  // from the system level (~ar) or from the PFD, both inputs to the
  // AND gate being HIGH. In either case, the outputs, up and down,
  // will be set to their default, LOW.
  // **The AND gate is incorporated into this reset
  wire DFF_Rst;
  assign DFF_Rst = ( (up && down) || (~ar) )? 1'b0:1'b1;

  // This always block will take in the InA input signal.
  // The input will be transferred to the output on the
  // positive edge of clk. The output will be reset to
  // LOW when there is a system reset or the other output,

```

```

// (down) goes HIGH.
always @(posedge InA or negedge DFF_Rst)
    if(~DFF_Rst)
        begin
            up = 1'b0;
        end
    else
        begin
            up = 1'b1;
        end

// This always block will do the same as the above InA
// block except the input is from InB and the output
// is "down" not "up".
always @(posedge InB or negedge DFF_Rst)
    if(~DFF_Rst)
        begin
            down = 1'b0;
        end
    else
        begin
            down = 1'b1;
        end
endmodule

```

Phase Frequency Detector with Preprocessor

```

// PFD_preproc_all.v
// Riley Harrington
// Kansas State University

// Phase-Frequency Detector (PFD)
// PFD based on designs using two D-flip-flops and an AND gate
// with "UP" and "DOWN" outputs
// D inputs on both FFs are tied high.
// The Q output of the FF will go HIGH at the next the posedge of the clock
// after the input goes HIGH.
// That output will remain HIGH until the other output also goes HIGH.
// The AND gate will reset the FFs when both outputs are HIGH.
// The UP and DOWN outputs should indicate whether the input signal frequency
// (InA)
// is higher or lower than the reference frequency (InB).
`timescale 100ps/100ps

module PFD_preproc_all(clk, ar, SigIn, DemodOut);
    input clk;
    input ar;
    input SigIn;
    output wire DemodOut;
    // Parameters
    parameter Threshold = 1000;
    // Parameters for called modules
    parameter FilterLen = 1000;
    // The FilterSize register needs to be large enough to count up to the
    // value of
    // FilterLen, so the requirement is 2^FilterReg > FilterLen
    parameter FilterSize = 20;

```

```

parameter skipnum = 2;
parameter CountSize = 20;
parameter RegSize = 15;
// end parameters
// Registers
reg Up, Down;
// end registers
// Wires and Assignments
// DFF_Rst will reset both of the FFs if a reset is needed either
// from the system level (~ar) or from the PFD (both inputs to the
// AND gate being HIGH. In either case, the outputs, up and down,
// will be set to their LOW default value.
// **The AND gate is incorporated into this reset
wire DFF_Rst;
assign DFF_Rst = ( (Up && Down) || (~ar) )? 1'b0:1'b1;
wire Sample_clk;
wire BFSK_In;
wire TENMHz_clk;
wire BFSK_Ref;
wire BFSK_Baseband;
wire BFSK_Baseband_avg;
wire [FilterSize-1:0] UpAvg;
wire [FilterSize-1:0] DownAvg;
wire [FilterSize-1:0] UpDown;
assign DemodOut = (UpDown > Threshold)? 1'b1:1'b0;
assign UpDown = UpAvg - DownAvg;
// end wires

// Module calls
// Create PFD reference from 20MHz clock. BFSK are 15kHz & 25kHz, so
divide down to 25kHz.
Clk_Div #(399) RefClkDivider1 ( .clk_in(clk), .ar(ar), .clk_out(TENMHz_clk)
);
// Divide 20MHz system clock down to 10MHz for 1-bit Sampling
Clk_Div #(1) RefClkDivider2 ( .clk_in(clk), .ar(ar), .clk_out(BFSK_Ref) );
// 1-bit sample BFSK input to bring it down to a BFSK_baseband signal
OneBit_Sampling OneBitSample1 (.SampleClock(TENMHz_clk), .ar(ar),
.SigIn(SigIn), .SampledOut(BFSK_Baseband) );

// #(.CountSize(CountSize), .RegSize(RegSize))
Binomial_4thOrder BinAvg4( .clk(clk), .ar(ar), .SigIn(BFSK_Baseband),
.SigOut(BFSK_Baseband_avg) );
// MovingAvg Up output
MovingAvg //#(.FilterLen(FilterLen), .FilterSize(FilterSize),
.skipnum(skipnum))
PFDfiltAvgUp( .clk(clk), .ar(ar), .In(Up), .Out(UpAvg));
// MovingAvg Down Output
MovingAvg //#(.FilterLen(FilterLen), .FilterSize(FilterSize),
.skipnum(skipnum))
PFDfiltAvgDown( .clk(clk), .ar(ar), .In(Down), .Out(DownAvg));
// end module calls

// This always block will take in the InA input signal.
// The input will be transferred to the output on the
// positive edge of the clock. The output will
// be reset to LOW when either there is a system reset or
// the output, (down) from the other output goes HIGH.

```

```

always @(posedge BFSK_Baseband_avg or negedge DFF_Rst)
  if(~DFF_Rst)
    begin
      Up = 1'b0;
    end
  else
    begin
      Up = 1'b1;
    end

// This always block will do the same as the above
// except the input is from InB and the
// output is "down" not "up".
always @(posedge BFSK_Ref or negedge DFF_Rst)
  if(~DFF_Rst)
    begin
      Down = 1'b0;
    end
  else
    begin
      Down = 1'b1;
    end
endmodule

```

Supporting Modules

Edge Detector

```

//////////////////////////////////// EdgeDetect
// This module will take in an input signal and
// output a pulse when there is an edge detected.
// A parameter will specify when positive or negative
// edges or both are desired.

module EdgeDetect(clk, ar, SigIn, EdgeOutP, EdgeOutN);
  // inputs
  input clk;
  input ar;
  input SigIn;
  // outputs
  output wire EdgeOutP, EdgeOutN;
  // end I/O

  // EdgeIn will record the last two input bits.
  // These will be used to find when edges have occurred.
  reg [1:0] EdgeIn;

  // Wires & assignments
  assign EdgeOutP = (~EdgeIn[1] & EdgeIn[0])? 1'b1:1'b0;
  assign EdgeOutN = ( EdgeIn[1] &~EdgeIn[0])? 1'b1:1'b0;
  // end wire assignments

  always @(posedge clk or negedge ar)
    if(~ar)
      begin

```

```

        EdgeIn = 2'b0;
    end
else
    begin
        EdgeIn = {EdgeIn[0] ,SigIn};
    end // end always if-else block
endmodule // end "EdgeDetect"

```

Clock Divider

```

////////////////////////////////////Clock Divider
module Clk_Div(clk, ar, d_clk);
    input clk;
    input ar;

    output reg d_clk;

    parameter div = 1;
    parameter divsize = 2;
    reg [divsize-1:0] divreg;

    always @(posedge clk or negedge ar)
        if(~ar)
            begin
                d_clk = 1'b0;
                divreg = {divsize{1'b0}};
            end//reset block
        else
            begin
                divreg = divreg + 1; //increment count
                if (divreg > div) //check if count has reached divisor
                    begin
                        d_clk = ~d_clk; //if divisor reached, toggle d_clk
                        divreg = {divsize{1'b0}}; //and clear the divreg
                    end
            end
    end
endmodule //end clock divider

```

Bit Sync

```

//////////////////////////////////// BitSync
// BitSync.v
// Riley Harrington
// Kansas State University

// This module will have the following tasks
// 1. Produce a data clock signal at the same frequency as the data rate
//    -The data rate will be known.
// 2. Align the negative edge of the data clock with the edges of the data
// 3. Take a sample on the positive edge of the data clock. The sampled
value
//    will be transferred to the output at that time.

// This module will take a input signal bit stream, sync with the data, and
// sample the data in the middle of the bit periods.

```

```

// If there are multiple of the same bits in a row, no data transition will
// be detected, so the sample clock will not be aligned in that period.
// The negative edge will be lined up with the data edges and samples will be
// taken on the positive edges of the sample clock.
`timescale 100ps/100ps

// Data is independent.
// on system clock edges, check for data edges
// If data edge detected, align clock (reset)
// on data clock posedge, take sample
module BitSync(clk, ar, DataIn, DataOut);
    input clk;
    input ar;
    input DataIn;
    // output wire Sample; // probably doesn't need to be an output
    output wire DataOut;

    // SampledData will store the latest sample from the input.
    reg SampledData;
    // DataOut will reflect the latest sample from SampledData.
    assign DataOut = SampledData;
    // This reg will have the newest bit from the DataIn shifted in
    // It will be used to find when data edges occur
    reg [1:0] DataEdge;
    // Divider should divide the system clock to generate a clock
    // that is the same frequency as the data. (One cycle per data bit
period)
    parameter Divider = 99;
    wire DataClk;
    wire RstDataClk;
    assign RstDataClk = (DataEdge[1] != DataEdge[0])? 1'b0:1'b1;
    // This will produce a data clock. Once the clock is aligned with the
data, the
    // posedges, will indicate when to take a sample.
    Clk_Div #( .div(Divider) ) DataClock ( .clk(clk), .ar(RstDataClk),
.d_clk(DataClk) );

    // This takes the sample of DataIn and stores it in SampledData
    // The output DataOut is assigned to SampledData, so the output reflects
the
    // value of SampledData.
    always @(posedge DataClk or negedge ar)
        if(~ar)
            begin
                SampledData = 1'b0;
            end
        else
            begin
                SampledData = DataIn;
            end
            end

    // This is used to detect when an edge of DataIn occurs.
    // Those data edges are used to reset/align DataClk
    always @(posedge clk or negedge ar)
        begin
            if(!ar)
                begin

```

```

        DataEdge = 2'b11;
    end
else
    begin
        DataEdge = {DataEdge[0], DataIn};
    end
end
endmodule // end "BitSync"

```

Binomial Average Filter

```

// Binomial avg.v
// Riley Harrington
// Kansas State University
`timescale 1ps / 1ps

module Binomial_4thOrder(clk, ar, SigIn, SigOut);
    // inputs
    input clk;
    input ar;
    input SigIn;
    // outputs
    output wire SigOut;
    // end I/O
    // parameters
    parameter CountSize = 20;
    parameter RegSize = 15;
    // end parameters
    // registers
    reg [20:0] OutputCount, CountUp;
    reg AvgOut;
    reg [RegSize-1:0] S4, S3, S23, S34, S123, S234, S1234, Sout;
    // end regs
    // wires and assignments
    wire EdgeP, EdgeN;
    wire Edges;
    assign Edges = EdgeP || EdgeN;
    assign SigOut = AvgOut;
    //end wires

    // module calls
    EdgeDetect #(1) Edge1 ( .clk(clk), .ar(ar), .SigIn(SigIn),
        .EdgeOutP(EdgeP), .EdgeOutN(EdgeN) );

    //end calls

    always @(posedge clk or negedge ar)
        if(~ar)
            begin
                // Initialize reg values to 0
                CountUp = {CountSize{1'b0}};
                OutputCount = {CountSize{1'b0}};
                S4 = {RegSize{1'b0}};
                S3 = {RegSize{1'b0}};
                S23 = {RegSize{1'b0}};
                S34 = {RegSize{1'b0}};
            end

```

```

S123 = {RegSize{1'b0}};
S234 = {RegSize{1'b0}};
S1234 = {RegSize{1'b0}};
Sout = {RegSize{1'b0}};
AvgOut = 1'b0;
end
else
begin
if(EdgeP)
begin
// bring in new sample & roll older values
S3 = S4;
S4 = CountUp;
S23 = S34;
S34 = S3 + S4;
S123 = S234;
S234 = S23 + S34;
S1234 = S123 + S234;
Sout = S1234 >> 4'd4;
CountUp = {CountSize{1'b0}};
end
else
begin
// If no edge, count number of clock cycles since last edge
CountUp = CountUp + 1;
//Go through output count
if(OutputCount > Sout)
begin
AvgOut = ~AvgOut;
OutputCount = 10'b0;
end
else
begin
OutputCount = OutputCount + 1;
end
end
end
end
endmodule

```

Moving Average Filter

```

//////////////////////////////////// MovingAvg
// MovingAvg.v
// Riley Harrington
// Kansas State University

// This module separates a moving average filter into a separate module
// The module will add up the number of ones over a certain number of samples
// which is set by "FilterLen"

// SigIn has nearly constant pulses when the signal is at the higher FSK
frequency
// the signal will have intermittent pulses when the input is at the lower
FSK frequency.

```

```

// PFD_MovingAvg.v is the same as MovingAvg. with an extra input and
registers to handle
// a moving average operation on two signals at once. One of the resulting
Sum values
// is subtracted from the other to combine them into one signal. This worked
well for
// the particular situation this module was needed for where only one output
was desired.
`timescale 100ps / 100ps

module MovingAvg(clk, ar, In, Out);
    // PARAMETERS or #define sections
    ///////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////
    // FilterLen is the length of the filter. FilterLen of bits will be summed
    // to provide the moving average.
    // It is easier to make this a power of two, so the divide needed for the
    // average can use logical shift operation.
    parameter FilterLen = 64;
    // The FilterSize register needs to be large enough to count up to the
value of
    // FilterLen, so the requirement is 2^FilterReg > FilterLen
    parameter FilterSize = 7;
    // END PARAMETERS
    ///////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////
    // I/O
    ///////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////
    input clk;
    input ar;
    input In;
    output wire [FilterSize-1:0] Out;
    // End I/O
    ///////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////
    // REGISTERS
    ///////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////
    // This register will hold the bits that will be summed
    reg [FilterLen-1:0] FilterReg;
    // This register will sum the values in the FilterReg.
    // This reg will need to be large enough to count up to the length of
FilterLen
    // 2^FilterReg > FilterLen
    reg [FilterSize-1:0] FilterSum;
    reg [FilterSize-1:0] skip;
    parameter skipnum = 2;
    // END REGISTERS
    ///////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////////

    //assign Out = (FilterSum[FilterSize-1] == 0)? 1'b1:1'b0;
assign Out = FilterSum;

always @(posedge clk or negedge ar)
    if(~ar)
        begin
            // Reset the registers to all zeros on a reset
            FilterReg = {FilterLen{1'b0}};
            FilterSum = {FilterSize{1'b0}};
            skip = {FilterSize{1'b0}};
        end

```

```

else
  begin
    // Four situations can happen
    // 1. A zero is shifted in and a zero is shifted out
    // 2. A one is shifted in and a one is shifted out
    //    No change needed for either case
    // 3. A one is shifted in and a zero is shifted out
    //    One is to be added to the sum
    // 4. A zero is shifted in and a one is shifted out
    //    One is to be subtracted from the sum

    // If data bits going in and out are different
    // then if SigIn is one add one to the sum
    // else (if SigIn is zero) subtract one
    // else (if the original condition is zero) the
    // bits going in and out are equal, so no change to the sum
    if(skip == skipnum)
      begin
        FilterSum = (FilterReg[FilterLen-1] ^ In)?
          ( (In == 1)? (FilterSum +1):(FilterSum -1) ) :
FilterSum;
        // Shift new data into FilterReg and shift old data out
        FilterReg = {FilterReg[FilterLen-2:0], In};
        skip = {FilterSize{1'b0}};
      end
    else
      begin
        FilterSum = FilterSum;
        skip = skip + 1;
      end

    // Ideally the FilterSum value will equal the size of FilterReg
    // when the lower of the FSK frequencies is at the input. When
    // the higher FSK freq is at the input, it should be considerably
    // less.

    // FilterReg Size GUIDE:
    // Overall the register needs to be long enough so that the
accumulation
    // developed from the pulses using the lower and higher FSK freqs can
be
    // distinguished from one another. A logical size would be enough to
    // cover the period of the lower FSK frequency. The pulse should be
high
    // all or nearly all the time when the higher FSK frequency is
present, so
    // the size constraint can be based more on the lower FSK freq.
    // Example for f_low = 15kHz, f_high = 35kHz and f_clk = 20MHz.
    // -First find the number of clock pulses per each FSK freq period.
    // 571 for f_high and 1333 for f_low
    // The pulse should last for the whole period of f_high, 571 clk
pulses.
    // The pulse would have the same length when f_low is present, so for
a 1333
    // length reg, all (1333 out of 1333) samples would be high for
f_high while

```

```

        // 571 out of 1333 would be high for f_low. 1333 vs 571 would be the
values
        // output from FilterSum that would be used to determine whether a
One or Zero
        // should be output. The average, 952, is a good 1st order threshold
value.
        end
endmodule // end MovingAvg

```

Appendix B – MATLAB Code

Counter

```

%% Counter operation is performed within the Testbed

```

One-Shot

```

%% One-Shot operation is performed within the Testbed

```

Phase Frequency Detector

```

function [ Up, Down, Reset] = PFD_Sim( f_ref, f_in )
%% PFD_check Summary of this function goes here

%% Error Checks

% Check length of the input waveforms. Report error is lengths differ.
if length(f_ref) ~= length(f_in)
    msg = ['Error f_ref (', num2str(length(f_ref)), ') and f_in ( ' ...
        , num2str(length(f_in)), ') are not the same length.'];
    error(msg)
end

% End Error Checks

%%
[x, f_ref_PosEdge, z] = FindEdges(f_ref);
[u, f_in_PosEdge, w] = FindEdges(f_in);

% need to consider f_ref, f_in, Up, Down, Reset

% Reset Changes:
% -Check current value. If High, set low. If low check for Up=Down=1
% -Check Up and Down to see if it should be set high
% When reset goes high, it should be high for 1 clock cycle.
% Up and Down are set Low immediately if Reset is High
Len_Waveform = length(f_ref);

```

```

Up    = zeros(1, Len_Waveform);
Down  = zeros(1, Len_Waveform);
Reset = zeros(1, Len_Waveform);

%% Find pulses
for ii = 2:Len_Waveform
    % Reset
    if(Reset(ii-1) == 1)
        Up(ii) = 0;
        Down(ii) = 0;

        %added
        Reset(ii) = 0;
    else
        Up(ii) = Up(ii-1);
        Down(ii) = Down(ii-1);
    end
    % End Reset

    % Up/Down Edges
    if(f_ref_PosEdge(ii) == 1)
        Up(ii) = 1;
    else
        %Up(ii) = Up(ii-1);
    end

    if(f_in_PosEdge(ii) == 1)
        Down(ii) = 1;
    else
        %Down(ii) = Down(ii-1);
    end
    % End Up/Down Edges

    % Recheck Reset
    if(Up(ii) == 1 && Down(ii) == 1)
        Reset(ii) = 1;
    end
end

% Up Changes
% if Up is currently High, keep it High
% -if f_ref pos edge, set Up High

% Down Changes

%% Plots

% [xUp, yUp] = stairs(Up);
% [xDown, yDown] = stairs(Down);
% [xReset, yReset] = stairs(Reset);
%
% hold on; figure(1); clf;
% plot(xUp, yUp*.8, 'g'); hold on;
%
```

```

%
% plot(xDown, yDown, 'b'); hold on;
%
%
% plot(xReset, yReset, 'rx'); hold on;
%
% axis([-1 (length(Up)+1) -0.1 1.1]);

% End Plots

% % Initialize output vectors
% Up = zeros(1, length(r_ref) +1);
% Down = zeros(1, length(r_ref) +1);
% Reset = zeros(1, length(r_ref) +1);
%
% % RisingEdge_f_ref =

```

Phase Frequency Detector with Preprocessor

```

%% Test PFD w/ preprocessor operation is performed within the Testbed and
calling the PFD_Sim function.

```

Test Bed

```

function [] = Testbed_DemodErrorAnalysis()
% b=a;
%% %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
% Riley Harrington
% Kansas State University
%%
% Testbed to test error performance of BFSK demodulators
% Testbed will call other modules to:
% -create a bit stream with errors from 1-5% of the total
% --bit stream shall simulate 10.7MHz +/- delta_f
% -1-bit undersample the bit stream to "mix" it down to baseband
% -pass the sampled waveform into the demodulators
%%

clear all;
ClearCommandWindow = 0;
if (ClearCommandWindow == 1)
    clc;
end

%% Load Previous Data
% Establish variables
ErrorPercentAll = [];
CounterErrorNumAll = [];
OneShotErrorNumAll = [];

```

```

PFDErrorNumAll      = [];
PFD_c_ErrorNumAll  = [];
TotalErrorNumAll    = [];
FileName = 'D:\Google Drive\1A_Thesis\MATLAB_Files\DemodErrorData_3.mat';
load(FileName, 'ErrorPercentAll', 'TotalErrorNumAll',
'CounterErrorNumAll',...
      'OneShotErrorNumAll', 'PFDErrorNumAll', 'PFD_c_ErrorNumAll' );

%% Variables %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
plot_error = 0;
display_vals = 0;
Error_percent = 0;
Max_error = 0.10;
Min_error = 0.001;
Impulse_noise_freq = 0;
error_stream = [];
Bit_Stream = [];
Bit_Stream_Original = [];
NumBits = 24;

f1 = 10.69e6; %10.69MHz
f2 = 10.71e6; %10.71MHz
SampleFrequency = 75e3; %75kHz

% expand waveform
Resolution = 1000;

%% Call modules %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%

% %%% Add Loop here to run x error simulations? Or make this file a
% function and call it from outside?
error_tries = 0;
stop = 0;

% Bit Stream Generation
% Call to adapted version of Charles Carlson's Frame_Sync code
% Check if Error percent
while(stop == 0)
    [Error_percent, Impulse_noise_freq, error_stream, Bit_Stream, ...
    Bit_Stream_Original ] = Frame_Sync_Sim_BitInput( );
    %display(Error_percent);
    error_tries = error_tries + 1;
    if(Error_percent >= Min_error && Error_percent <= Max_error)
        stop = 1;
    end
end

% display(Error_percent);
% Check percentage of error in waveform
% Throw away if error is outside of specified min/max

% Find the Matlab resolution of the data input
SamplesPerBit = length(Bit_Stream_Original)/NumBits;

```

```

Bit_Stream_x = (NumBits/length(Bit_Stream)) : ...
              (NumBits/length(Bit_Stream)):NumBits;

%% 1-Bit sample IF BFSK %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
% The original plan was to create a IF signal with high resolution that
% would be undersampled just like what would happen on the FPGA, but the
% size of the arrays needed was higher than my 32-bit version of MATLAB
% would create. Instead the baseband samples were created directly using
% the known IF and fs frequencies.

% a = Bit_Stream;
% b = repmat(a, Resolution, 1);
% c = reshape(b, 1, (length(b)*Resolution));
% figure(3); clf; plot(c);
% c_len = length(c);
% axis([0 c_len -0.1 1.1]);

%% Generate Baseband BFSK samples based on IF BFSK %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
% Edge detection is used to find the high and low bits in the input data.
% That info will be used to find when the BFSK IF would be f1 or f2. The
% baseband samples will be created using that information.
% Bit_Stream start and end times appear to slide back and forth a bit to
% fit the errors correctly. Frame_Sync code performs that shifting.
[ AllEdges, ~ , ~ ] = FindEdges( Bit_Stream );

% EdgeIndices provides the indices of each edge in AllEdges.
EdgeIndices = find(AllEdges > 0.1);
% PulseLengths provides the lengths of each pulse in AllEdges
PulseLengths = [EdgeIndices length(AllEdges)] - [0 EdgeIndices];
% NumPulses provides the number of pulses in the input data.
NumPulses = length(PulseLengths);
% PulseSizes provides a scaled length relative to a single bit time, Tb.
PulseSizes = PulseLengths/(length(Bit_Stream)/24);

%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
% Create BFSK baseband pulses for PulseSizes lengths.
% The UnderSample function provides the samples that would be recorded for
% a given input frequency and sample frequency. This assumes the input and
% sample frequencies both start a T_0 at 0 degrees. The output provides an
% array of the samples and a ratio of the input to sample frequency. The
% middle output gives the whole number portion and the last output gives
% the decimal remainder portion of the ratio. Thw W and R values are not
% needed in this script. The output array provides a single complete
% pattern based on the inputs. A final output needs to be compiled using
% this output.
[ f1_Samples, ~, ~ ] = UnderSample( f1, SampleFrequency );
[ f2_Samples, ~, ~ ] = UnderSample( f2, SampleFrequency );
% f1_Samples = f1_Samples(1:75);
% f2_Samples = f2_Samples(1:75);
f2_clean = [1 0];
f3_Samples = RepeatArray(f2_clean, 38);

% Compile baseband samples using for loop
% Loop will determine the time that a IF frequency would be present and

```

```

% compile the appropriate baseband samples for that pulse then repeat for
% rest of the pulses.
% BaseBandPulse provides the 1-bit sampled output.

% Initialize variables
BaseBandPulse = [];
PulseA = [];
PulseB = [];
a=0;
b=0;
for ii = 1:NumPulses
    if(mod(ii,2) < 1)
        Bits = f2_Samples;
        Bits_clean = f2_Samples;
        a=a+1;
    else
        Bits = f1_Samples;
        Bits_clean = f3_Samples;
        b=b+1;
    end

    whole = floor(PulseSizes(ii));
    fraction = mod(PulseSizes(ii), 1);
    PulseA = repmat(Bits, 1, whole);
    PulseAc = repmat(Bits_clean, 1, whole);

    fraction_bits = fraction*length(f1_Samples);
    rnd_bits = round(fraction_bits);
    PulseB = Bits(1:rnd_bits);
    PulseBc = Bits_clean(1:rnd_bits);

    if(ii < 1.1)
        BaseBandPulse = [PulseA PulseB];
        BaseBandClean = [PulseAc PulseBc];
    else
        BaseBandPulse = [BaseBandPulse PulseA PulseB];
        BaseBandClean = [BaseBandClean PulseAc PulseBc];
    end
%     BaseBandPulse = [BaseBandPulse PulseA PulseB];
end

%% Test Counter %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
% Get the edges of the BaseBand BFSK input
[ BaseBandAllEdges , BaseBandRisingEdges, ~ ] = FindEdges( BaseBandPulse );

% An extra check because BaseBandAllEdges was an element too long once
BaseBandAllEdges = BaseBandAllEdges(1:length(BaseBandRisingEdges));

% BaseBandIndices provides the indices of all the eds locations
BaseBandIndices = find(BaseBandRisingEdges > 0.1);
% BaseBandPulseLengths provides the length of each pulse
BaseBandPulseLengths = [BaseBandIndices length(BaseBandRisingEdges)] - [0
BaseBandIndices];
% BaseBandIndices has one added since the last pulse is not accounted for

```

```

BaseBandIndices = [BaseBandIndices length(BaseBandRisingEdges)];
% CounterPulseInfo provies the lengths of the pulses at the location where
% the pulse occurs.
CounterPulseInfo = zeros(1, length(BaseBandRisingEdges));
CounterPulseInfo(BaseBandIndices) = BaseBandPulseLengths;
% ReplaceZeros replaces all the zeros in the array with the value of the
% element before it. That operation is repeated until no zeros remain.
% The OutputPlotArray can be used to plot the Counter demod output waveform
% with no averaging
[ CounterPlotArray ] = ReplaceZeros( CounterPulseInfo );

% Counter Averaging %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
% Average over 4 pulses
len_BBPL = length(BaseBandPulseLengths+1);
% BBPL_Avg2 provides the average over 2 elements of BaseBandPulseLengths
BBPL_Avg2 = BaseBandPulseLengths(1:len_BBPL-1) +
BaseBandPulseLengths(2:len_BBPL);
% The last element gets cut off, so the first element is repeated and added
% to the front of the array. This is done is the later averages as well.
BBPL_Avg2 = [ BBPL_Avg2(1) BBPL_Avg2 ];
% BBPL_Avg4 provides the average over 2 elements of BBPL_Avg2.
BBPL_Avg4 = BBPL_Avg2(1:len_BBPL-1) + BBPL_Avg2(2:len_BBPL);
BBPL_Avg4 = [ BBPL_Avg4(1) BBPL_Avg4 ];
% BBPL_Avg8 provides the average over 2 elements of BBPL_Avg4.
BBPL_Avg8 = BBPL_Avg4(1:len_BBPL-1) + BBPL_Avg4(2:len_BBPL);
BBPL_Avg8 = [ BBPL_Avg8(1) BBPL_Avg8 ];
Avg8_Output = zeros(1, length(BaseBandPulse));
Avg8_Output(BaseBandIndices) = BBPL_Avg8;

% A threshold value was approximated between the low and high values on the
% plot.
Avg_Threshold = 30;
% CounterPulseInfo does not maintain the spacing of the pulses, so the
% array needs to be spaces properly again. A new array needs to be created
% that is the correct size. BaseBandPulse is the correct size.
Avg_Output = zeros(1, length(BaseBandPulse)); %CounterPulseInfo;
% The elements at the Indices of BaseBandIndices will be repalces with the
% elments of BBPL_Avg8. (BaseBandIndices and BBPL_Avg8 must be equal sizes)
Avg_Output(BaseBandIndices) = BBPL_Avg8;
% ReplaceZeros replaces all the zeros in the array with the value of the
% element before it. That operation is repeated until no zeros remain.
% Avg_Output_NoZeros can be used to plot the averaged Counter value.
[ Avg_Output_NoZeros ] = ReplaceZeros( Avg_Output );
% Counter_FinalOutput provides a binary output using the Avg_Threshold as
% the value to determine what a 1 and 0 is.
Counter_FinalOutput = (Avg_Output_NoZeros > Avg_Threshold)*...
max(Avg_Output_NoZeros);

% x values for plots
BaseBandPulse_x = (NumBits/length(BaseBandPulse)) : ...
(NumBits/length(BaseBandPulse)):NumBits;
BBPL_x = (NumBits/length(BBPL_Avg2)):(NumBits/length(BBPL_Avg2)):NumBits;

% Plot-able:
% Averaged Counter Output array: plot(BaseBandPulse_x, CounterFinalOutput)
% Times for Bit decisions:

```

```

%% Find Bit Decision Times
% There is an offset at the beginning, so the decision times cannot be
% set purely on Tb because the start time of the actual data will vary.
% The edge of the first pulse will be detected and the bit decision times
% will be set from that edge. The size of the offset can vary, so an extra
% sample time will be generated. It will be cutoff later if it is not
% needed.
BitDecisionTimes = (EdgeIndices(1)+SamplesPerBit/2) : SamplesPerBit : ...
    SamplesPerBit*(NumBits+1);
% There are two bits that are both zeros before the first pulse made by a
% 1, so two samples that match the times of the preceeding zeros.
Bit_InitialZeroTimes = [ (BitDecisionTimes(1)-SamplesPerBit*2)...
    (BitDecisionTimes(1)-SamplesPerBit*1) ];
% Zero times are added to the front of the BitDecisionTimes
BitDecisionTimes = [Bit_InitialZeroTimes BitDecisionTimes];
% Only first 24 Decision times are used since there are 24 input data bits.
BitDecisionTimes = BitDecisionTimes(1:24);
% If the last BitTime goes past the allotted time, set it equal to a value
% near the end. (Not sure if this problem is fixed anyway)
if( BitDecisionTimes(24) > length(Bit_Stream) )
    BitDecisionTimes(24) = length(Bit_Stream)-5;
end

%% Find Counter Bit Decision Times %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%

% Scale BitDecisionTimes from times that match Bit_Stream_Original to times
% that match Counter_FinalOutput.
% BitDecisionTimes has 3840 long because it comes from Frame_Sync and
% Counter_FinalOutput is 1824 long because it is the result of
% undersampling, so the samples times for Counter_FinalOutput need to be
% scaled from 3840(max) to 1824(max).
ScaledBitDecisionTimes = round(BitDecisionTimes/length(Bit_Stream_x)*...
    length(Counter_FinalOutput));

% The values of Counter_FinalOutput at the indices of
% ScaledBitDecisionTimes are used as the final demodulated outputs from the
% Counter demodulator.
CounterBits_Out = Counter_FinalOutput(ScaledBitDecisionTimes)/...
    max(Counter_FinalOutput);

%% Test One-shot %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
% Start with BaseBandPulse but some of the counter arrays can be reused,
% edge locations and edge
% BaseBandRisingEdges will be used.
% [ OneShot_Avg ] = MovingSum( BaseBandRisingEdges, 10 );
[ OneShot_Avg ] = MovingSum( BaseBandAllEdges, 10 );
[ OneShot_Avg2 ] = MovingSum( OneShot_Avg, 10 );
OneShot_Threshold = 75;
OneShot_Out = OneShot_Avg2 < OneShot_Threshold;
OneShotBits_Out = OneShot_Out(ScaledBitDecisionTimes);

%% Test PFD

```

```

% Reference frequency will be 25kHz, half way between the baseband BRSK
% frequencies, 15kHz and 35kHz. The program has 76 samples per Tb though
% there should be 75. The timing of 25kHz makes it so there should be one
% cycle every 3 MATLAB samples, so [1 0 0] will be repeated 608 times to
% match the length of BaseBandPulse and create a reference frequency array
% that can be used as an input to the PFD.

f_ref_period = [1 0 0];
f_ref_repetition = floor(length(BaseBandPulse)/length(f_ref_period));
f_ref = repmat(f_ref_period, 1, f_ref_repetition);
diff = length(BaseBandPulse) - length(f_ref);
if(diff > 0)
    f_ref = [f_ref zeros(1,diff)];
end

PFD_Threshold = 2;
[Up, Down, Reset] = PFD_Sim(f_ref, BaseBandPulse );
[ Up_Avg10 ] = MovingSum( Up, 10 );
[ Down_Avg10 ] = MovingSum( Down, 10 );
PFD_Out = (Up_Avg10-Down_Avg10) > PFD_Threshold;
PFD_Bits_Out = PFD_Out(ScaledBitDecisionTimes);

%% Test PFD w/ proprocessor
% redo some operations for BaseBandPulse (now BaseBandClean)
[Up_c, Down_c, Reset_c] = PFD_Sim(f_ref, BaseBandClean );
[ Up_c_Avg10 ] = MovingSum( Up_c, 10 );
[ Down_c_Avg10 ] = MovingSum( Down_c, 10 );
PFD_c_Out = (Up_c_Avg10-Down_c_Avg10) > PFD_Threshold;
PFD_c_Bits_Out = PFD_c_Out(ScaledBitDecisionTimes);

%% Analysis %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
% Need to record the error info and the output info for the demod with and
% without the averaging. Error info should include each of the parameters
% just in case that data could be useful.
% Input error percentage, number of errors in demodulated output, durations
% of each error?, placement of each error? Percent error for sure...
OriginalBits = Bit_Stream_Original(BitDecisionTimes);

% Find the errors added in the signal at bit decision times
BitStreamBits = Bit_Stream(BitDecisionTimes);

% Calculate Error %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
CounterErrorNum = sum(xor(OriginalBits, CounterBits_Out));
OneShotErrorNum = sum(xor(OriginalBits, OneShotBits_Out));
PFDErrorNum = sum(xor(OriginalBits, PFD_Bits_Out));
PFD_c_ErrorNum = sum(xor(OriginalBits, PFD_c_Bits_Out));
TotalErrorNum = sum(xor(OriginalBits, BitStreamBits));

%% Display Values
if(display_vals == 1)
    display(Error_percent);
    % display(Impulse_noise_freq);
    display(CounterErrorNum);
    display(OneShotErrorNum);
    display(PFDErrorNum);

```

```

display(PFD_c_ErrorNum);
display(TotalErrorNum);

end

%% Save Variables %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
% FileName = 'D:\Google Drive\1A_Thesis\MATLAB_Files\DemodErrorData_2.mat';
ErrorPercentAll = [ErrorPercentAll Error_percent ];
CounterErrorNumAll = [CounterErrorNumAll CounterErrorNum ];
OneShotErrorNumAll = [OneShotErrorNumAll OneShotErrorNum ];
PFDErrorNumAll = [PFDErrorNumAll PFDErrorNum ];
PFD_c_ErrorNumAll = [PFD_c_ErrorNumAll PFD_c_ErrorNum ];
TotalErrorNumAll = [TotalErrorNumAll TotalErrorNum ];

save(FileName, 'ErrorPercentAll', 'TotalErrorNumAll',
'CounterErrorNumAll',...
'OneShotErrorNumAll', 'PFDErrorNumAll', 'PFD_c_ErrorNumAll' );

%% Plots
%% Use the stair function for any plots in the paper *****

if(plot_error == 1)
% plot error stream, bit stream, and bit stream with errors
figure(1); clf; hold on;
plot(Bit_Stream_x, Bit_Stream, 'b');
plot(Bit_Stream_x, Bit_Stream_Original+1.1, 'r');
plot(Bit_Stream_x, error_stream + 2.2);
plot_len1 = length(Bit_Stream);
plot(BitDecisionTimes/length(Bit_Stream_x)*24, ...
ones(1, length(BitDecisionTimes)), 'rx');
axis([0 NumBits -0.1 3.3]);

% plot baseband BFSK
figure(3); clf; hold on;
plot(BaseBandPulse_x, BaseBandPulse + 1.1, 'b');
plot(Bit_Stream_x, Bit_Stream, 'b');
plot_len3 = length(BaseBandPulse);
axis([0 NumBits -0.1 2.2]);

% plot Counter
figure(4); clf; hold on;

subplot(5,1,1); hold on;
plot(BBPL_x, BaseBandPulseLengths);
axis([0 NumBits -0.1 max(BaseBandPulseLengths+1)]);

subplot(5,1,2); hold on;
plot(BBPL_x, BBPL_Avg2);
axis([0 NumBits -0.1 max(BBPL_Avg2+1)]);

subplot(5,1,3); hold on;
plot(BBPL_x, BBPL_Avg4);
axis([0 NumBits -0.1 max(BBPL_Avg4+1)]);

subplot(5,1,4); hold on;

```

```

plot(BaseBandPulse_x, Avg8_Output);
axis([0 NumBits -0.1 max(BBPL_Avg8+1)]);

subplot(5,1,5); hold on
plot(BaseBandPulse_x, Avg_Output);
plot(BaseBandPulse_x, Avg_Output_NoZeros, 'g--');
plot(BaseBandPulse_x, Counter_FinalOutput, 'r');
plot(BitDecisionTimes/length(Bit_Stream_x)*24, ...
      ones(1, length(BitDecisionTimes))*max(Counter_FinalOutput), 'ro');
axis([0 NumBits -0.1 max(Avg_Output+2.1)]);

% plot Counter Outline
figure(6); clf; hold on;
plot(BaseBandPulse_x, CounterPulseInfo, 'b');
plot(BaseBandPulse_x, CounterPlotArray, 'r');
plot(BitDecisionTimes/length(Bit_Stream_x)*24, ...
      ones(1, length(BitDecisionTimes))*max(CounterPlotArray), 'gx');
axis([0 NumBits -0.1 (max(CounterPlotArray) + 1)]);

% plot One-Shot
figure(7); clf; hold on;
subplot(2,1,1);
plot(BaseBandPulse_x, OneShot_Avg2, 'b');
axis([0 NumBits (min(OneShot_Avg2) - 1) (max(OneShot_Avg2) + 1)]);
subplot(2,1,2); hold on;
plot(BaseBandPulse_x, OneShot_Out, 'b');
plot(BitDecisionTimes/length(Bit_Stream_x)*24, ...
      ones(1, length(BitDecisionTimes)), 'gx');
%   plot(OneShotBits_Out
axis([0 NumBits -0.1 1.1]);

% plot PFD
figure(8); clf; hold on;
subplot(3,1,1); hold on;
plot(BaseBandPulse_x, Up_Avg10 + (max(Down_Avg10)+1.1));
plot(BaseBandPulse_x, Down_Avg10);
axis([0 NumBits -0.1 2*(max(Down_Avg10)+1.1)]);
subplot(3,1,2); hold on;
plot(BaseBandPulse_x, Up_Avg10-Down_Avg10);
axis([0 NumBits -1*(max(Down_Avg10)+1.1) (max(Down_Avg10)+1.1)]);
subplot(3,1,3); hold on;
plot(BaseBandPulse_x, PFD_Out, 'b');
plot(BitDecisionTimes/length(Bit_Stream_x)*24, ...
      ones(1, length(BitDecisionTimes)), 'gx');
axis([0 NumBits -0.1 1.1]);

% plot PFD w/preprocessing
figure(9); clf; hold on;
plot(BaseBandPulse_x, BaseBandPulse + 2.2, 'b');
plot(BaseBandPulse_x, BaseBandClean + 1.1, 'b');
plot(Bit_Stream_x, Bit_Stream, 'b')
plot_len3 = length(BaseBandPulse);
axis([0 NumBits -0.1 3.3]);

figure(10); clf; hold on;
subplot(3,1,1); hold on;

```

```

plot(BaseBandPulse_x, Up_c_Avg10 + (max(Down_c_Avg10)+1.1));
plot(BaseBandPulse_x, Down_c_Avg10);
axis([0 NumBits -0.1 2*(max(Down_c_Avg10)+1.1)]);
subplot(3,1,2); hold on;
plot(BaseBandPulse_x, Up_c_Avg10-Down_c_Avg10);
axis([0 NumBits -1*(max(Down_c_Avg10)+1.1) (max(Down_c_Avg10)+1.1)]);
subplot(3,1,3); hold on;
plot(BaseBandPulse_x, PFD_c_Out, 'b');
plot(BitDecisionTimes/length(Bit_Stream_x)*24,...
      ones(1, length(BitDecisionTimes)), 'gx');
axis([0 NumBits -0.1 1.1]);

end

% End Function
End

```

Supporting Modules

Error Generation

```

function [ Error_percent, Impulse_noise_freq , error_stream, Bit_Stream,
Bit_Stream_Original ] = Frame_Sync_Sim_BitInput( )

%Charles Carlson
%System to simulate Correlation Frame Sync Performance
%Oct 7th 2014
%Updated on October 28th, to have impulse noise only effect SW
% clear all
%
% ** This version of the code was adapted to fit the needs for Riley
% Harrington's FSK demodulator error testing. **
% Comments were added and some unneeded code was removed by Harrington
% for this version.
%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
%System Parameters
Oversampling_ratio = 16;           % 16 Samples per bit
DataRate = 20000;                 % Datarate = 20k
BitTime = 1/DataRate;            % BitTime = 50us
SamplingRate = Oversampling_ratio*DataRate; % fs = 320k
SampleTime = 1/SamplingRate;     % Ts = 3.125us
TotalBits = 24;                  % 24 Bits in each frame sent
TotalTime = (TotalBits*BitTime); % 24*50us = 1.2ms
DataPoints = TotalTime/SampleTime; % 1.2ms/3.125us = 384
SNR_dB = 0;                       % Only variable use is commented out
Resolution = 10;                  % number of Matlab points per sample
% Number of MATLAB samples per bit = Oversampling_ratio*Resolution = 160
% Min lenght of an "error" is the size of Resolution, 10.
Max_Impulses = 5; % max number of noise impulses
%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
%Number of simulations
run = 1;                          % Number of runs per simulation

```

```

Sync_array = zeros(1,run); % Used to record if noisy data synced correctly
False_Sync_array = zeros(1,run); % Used to record if data synced when it
shouldn't have

%% For Loop executes code to simulate each "run"
for run_index = 1:run
    Synchronization = 0; %Indicates if received frame has synced
    False_sync = 0;      %Indicates if frame synced at incorrect time

    %Need Bit Stream to start at random time, can range from 0 to Bit_Time
    %Finds random time to to start bit stream, so stream will not
    %necessarily start at the beginning of the simulated bit time. BitTime
    %is 50us, so the stream will start between 0us and 50us
    data_start = rand(1)*BitTime;
    %The start time needs to be coerced to the nearest resolution
    %available. For initial to get set properly, the start time
    %(data_start) would need to be divided by the SampleTime.
    %To account for resolution, the result needs to be multiplied by the
    %resolution (10).
    initial = round(data_start/SampleTime * Resolution);
    %Matlab is 1 indexed and the line above has the possibility of being a
    %zero, so increase value by one
    initial = initial+1;

    %Setup time and data vectors
    %Initialize vector to fit size of Matlab bits needed
    Bit_Stream = zeros(1,Resolution*DataPoints);
    i = 1;
    k = 1;
    % generate random vector that will be used for testing on this run
    r_v = round(rand(1,8));
    %8 zero bits added on front

    %% Frame Options

    % Demods will be tested with Ethernet frame, so others frames were
    % removed (saved at bottom of file)
    % demods could just use a totally random vector as long as the input
    % and output are known and compared.

    %Ethernet 10101011
    % Changing 8th bit to always be the same as 7th bit.
    % With the shifting that happens, the 8th bit can be too narrow to
    % effectively detect which throws off the error check.
    r_v(8) = r_v(7);

    Frame_bits = [0 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 1 r_v(1) r_v(2) r_v(3)...
        r_v(4) r_v(5) r_v(6) r_v(7) r_v(8)];

    Initial_Frame_bits = Frame_bits;
    %Initial_Frame_bits = [0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0];
    %used for correlation
    %random_bits = round(rand(1,TotalBits-16));

```

```

%% Section for adding noise
%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
%Section for adding noise
%Add either impulse noise or gaussian, channel noise based on BFSK

%probability of bit error for BFSK
%   SNR = 10.^(SNR_dB./10);
%   Pe = 0.5*erfc(sqrt(SNR./2));
%   %only effect frame word
%   for t = 9:16
%       r = rand(1);
%       if(r < Pe)
%           Frame_bits(t) = -1*Frame_bits(t)+1;
%       end
%   end
%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%Impulse noise section
% Determine (randomly) how many pulses will be generated. Up to
% Max_Impulses (5)
Impulse_noise_freq = round(rand(1)*Max_Impulses); %How many
% Determine (randomly) how long each pulse will be. Up to a full
% BitTime (50us -> 16 samples per bit -> 160 Matlab bits)
Impulse_noise_duration = rand(1, Impulse_noise_freq)*BitTime; %How long
is each one
% Determine (randomly) where the noise will occur
% The random position is multiplied by (TotalTime-8*BitTime) because
% the first 8 bits in the frame are all zeros. The sync doesn't start
% until the next 8 bits, so the result is also offset by 8 BitTimes so
% the noise occurs in places where it means something.
Impulse_occurance = rand(1,Impulse_noise_freq)*(TotalTime-8*BitTime) +
8*BitTime; %Where do they occur within SW
%   Impulse_occurance = rand(1,Impulse_noise_freq)*(TotalTime-4*BitTime) +
4*BitTime;

% Need to start and end the noise on an actual bit time, so this
% coerces the data to use the bit times nearest the random values.
% Each element needs to be rounded so matrix multiply is used here
% though I'm not sure it needs to be since the vector is being
% divided by a scalar.
Bit_Stream_occurance_index =
round(Impulse_occurance./(SampleTime/Resolution));

% in case the index computed is 0, change to 1 (because Matlab is
% 1-indexed. A zero here would cause an error
Bit_Stream_occurance_index(Bit_Stream_occurance_index == 0) = 1;
% As with other places, round this so it starts/ends on a bit time
Bit_Stream_length_index =
round(Impulse_noise_duration./(SampleTime/Resolution));

%% Check if noise impulse(s) will go past the end of the data.
% If so, move it back, so it occurs at the very end
% For each noise impulse
%   if the end point of the noise is past the end of the data
%       move the noise back so that it occurs on the end of the last bit
%   end
% end
for t = 1:Impulse_noise_freq

```

```

        if(Bit_Stream_occurance_index(t)+Bit_Stream_length_index(t) >
Resolution*DataPoints)
            Bit_Stream_length_index(t) = Resolution*DataPoints -
Bit_Stream_occurance_index(t);
        end
    end

%%
%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
% Stop variables are used to find the stop bits in the sync frame
% ^ I think??
stop1 = 0;
stop2 = 0;

%Setup Bit Stream
% data start is close to starting at zero, so the end needs to happen
% at Time minus 1
% some of this could likely be done without loops
for Time_array = data_start:(SampleTime/Resolution):(TotalTime-
SampleTime/Resolution)
    % if the array isn't past all the sync bits and into the actual
    % data, set Bit_Stream to the initial bit (zero).
    if(Time_array < (BitTime+data_start))
        Bit_Stream(initial+i) = Frame_bits(1);
    end

    % Does this run for the last bit?
    for k = 1:TotalBits-1
        if(k < 24) % 24 could be replaced w/TotalBits variable?
            % There are only 24 frame bits and that's hard coded, so I
            % don't know what this does?
            if(Time_array >= k*BitTime+data_start)
                Bit_Stream(initial+i) = Frame_bits(k+1);
            end
        end
    end

    %for testing results
    if(Time_array >= 15*BitTime+data_start && stop1 == 0)
        Correct_sync_start = (initial+i);
        stop1 = 1;
    end
    if(Time_array >= 16*BitTime+data_start && stop2 == 0)
        Correct_sync_stop = (initial+i);
        stop2 = 1;
    end

    %%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
    i = i + 1;
end
Bit_Stream = Bit_Stream(1:Resolution*DataPoints);
Time_array = 0:(SampleTime/Resolution):(TotalTime-
(SampleTime/Resolution));
%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
%Add impulse noise
% adding a variable to save wavefrom w/o impulse noise
Bit_Stream_Original = Bit_Stream;

```

```

    for t = 1:Impulse_noise_freq
Bit_Stream(Bit_Stream_occurance_index(t):Bit_Stream_occurance_index(t)+Bit_Stream_length_index(t)) =...
-
1*Bit_Stream(Bit_Stream_occurance_index(t):Bit_Stream_occurance_index(t)+Bit_Stream_length_index(t))+1;
    end

    % Sometimes the last bit in the array would be different for no good
    % reason, so this will set the last bit equal to the 2nd to last bit
    Bit_Stream_Original(length(Bit_Stream_Original)-1) =
Bit_Stream_Original(length(Bit_Stream_Original)-1);
    Bit_Stream(length(Bit_Stream_Original)) =
Bit_Stream(length(Bit_Stream_Original)-1);

end
Failed_Sync_count = sum(Sync_array(1,:) == 0);
False_Sync_count = sum(False_Sync_array);

%% Changed code
    %Changed line below to line above, so it made more sense to me
    %initial = round(data_start/(SampleTime/Resolution));
%%

error_stream = xor(Bit_Stream, Bit_Stream_Original);
%display(Impulse_noise_freq);
% Multiply by 2/3 because the error only occurs on the last 16 bits, and
% never on the first 8 bits.
Error_percent = sum(error_stream)/length(error_stream)*(2/3);

end

```

Find Edges

```

function [ AllEdges, Rising, Falling ] = FindEdges( Waveform )
%% FindEdges Summary of this function goes here

% Find Edges
Full = [Waveform 0] - [0 Waveform];
% Find Rising Edges
Rising = Full(1:(length(Full)-1)) > 0;
% Find Falling Edges
Falling = Full(1:(length(Full)-1)) < 0;

%AllEdges = AllEdges(1:length(AllEdges)-1);
AllEdges = Rising | Falling;

end

```

Subsampling

```
function [ Samples_out, W, R ] = UnderSample( f_in, f_s )
%%
% Riley Harrington
% Kansas State University

% If the input is constant for a period of time and the first sample is
% acquired to give the first value (initial condition?), then the rest of
% the sample values should be easy to simulate

%% Test Values; Comment out when using file as function
% f_s = 75e3; %75kHz % Sample Frequency
% f_in = 10.71e6; % Input Frequency

T_s = 1/f_s; % Sample Period
T_in = 1/f_in; % Input Period
DataPeriod = 1e-3; %0.1ms

%% Pattern Info
W = floor(f_in/f_s);
R = mod((f_in/f_s), 1);

SampleTimes = 0:T_s:DataPeriod;
Samples = R:R:(length(SampleTimes)*R);
Samples_R = mod(Samples, 1);
IntStep1 = Samples_R>0.999;
Samples_R_OnesRemoved = abs(Samples_R - IntStep1);
Samples_R_OnesRemoved_Rounded = round(Samples_R_OnesRemoved);
Samples_out = Samples_R_OnesRemoved_Rounded;
```

Replace Zeros

```
function [ OutputArray ] = ReplaceZeros( InputArray )
%%
% Riley Harrington
% Kansas State University
%%

% InputArray = [1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 5 0 0 0 1 2 0 0 0 7 0 3 3 3 0 0 1 0 0];
IntArray = InputArray;

ArrayZerosIndices = find(IntArray < 0.1);
ArrayZerosRemaining = length(ArrayZerosIndices);

while(ArrayZerosRemaining > 0)
    IntArray(ArrayZerosIndices) = IntArray(ArrayZerosIndices - 1);

    % Update Loop Index
    ArrayZerosIndices = find(IntArray < 0.1);
    ArrayZerosRemaining = length(ArrayZerosIndices);
end
```

```
end
```

```
OutputArray = IntArray;
```

```
end
```

Repeat Elements

```
function [ NewArray ] = RepeatElements( Array, N )
%%
% Riley Harrington
% Kansas State University
%%
% Test Inputs
% Array = [1 2 3 4 5];
% N = 4;
% to repeat whole array, used b = repmat(Array, 1, N);

b = repmat(Array, N, 1);
NewArray = reshape(b, 1, length(Array)*N);
end
```

Averaging Filter

```
function [ OutputArray ] = MovingSum( InputArray, N )
%%
% Riley Harrington
% Kansas State University
%%
% Function description
%%

%% Test Inputs
% InputArray = [1 1 0 0 1 0 1 0 1 3 1 0 ];
% N = 4;
%%

TempArray = InputArray;
for ii = 1:N
    [TempArray] = MoveSum(InputArray, TempArray, ii);

end
% [OutputArray] = MoveSum(InputArray);
OutputArray = TempArray;

end

function [OutputArray] = MoveSum(InputArray, TempArray, N)

% Check Array length
```

```
if(length(InputArray) <= N)
    OutputArray = [];
else
    NewArray      = InputArray( 1 : length(InputArray) - N ) + ...
                   TempArray( (1+N) : length(TempArray) );
    % Add the first element to the front, so the Input and Output arrays
    % have the same length.
    OutputArray = [NewArray(1:N) NewArray];
end
end
```