



Digital Communications I: Modulation and Coding Course



Term 3 – 2008
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Lecture 2

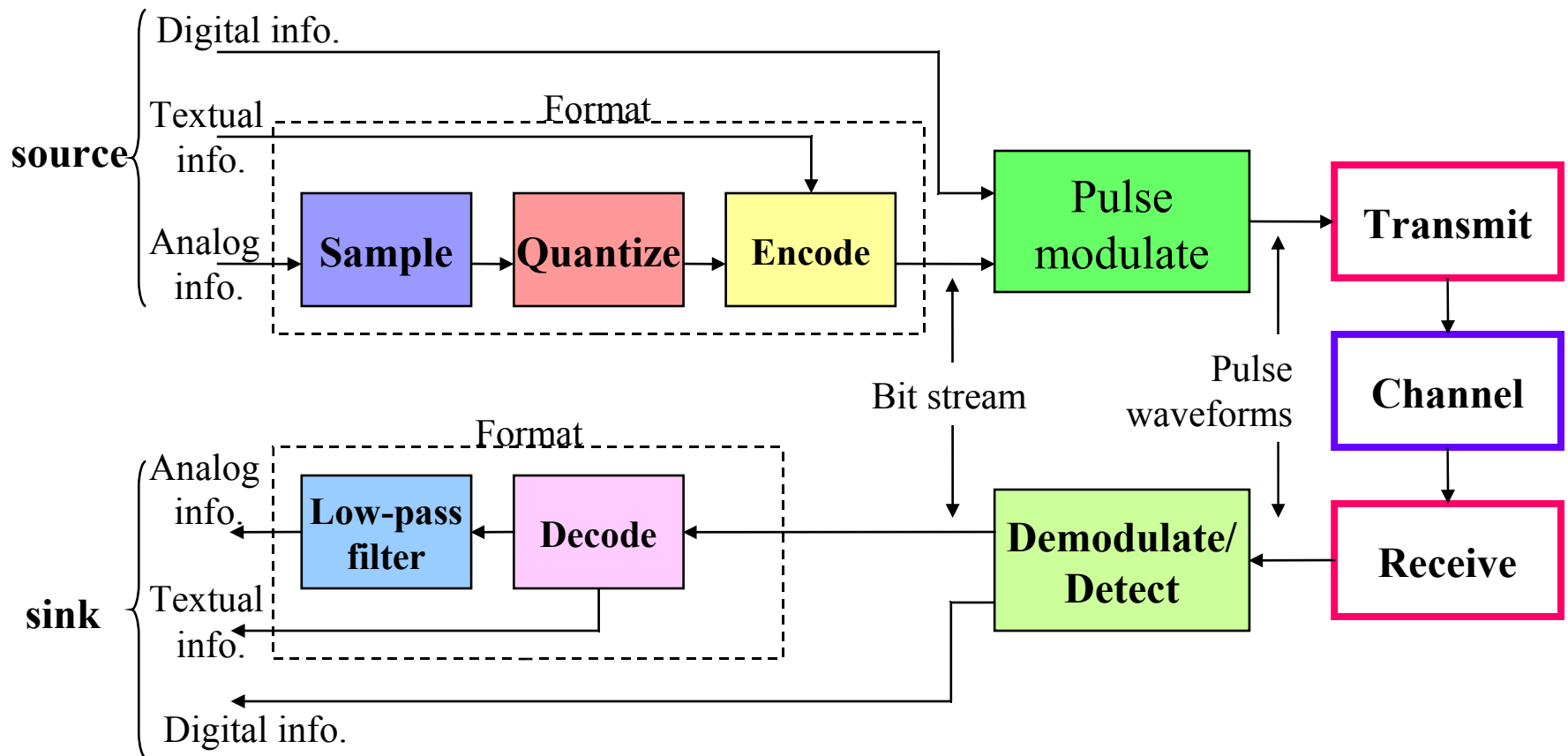
Last time, we talked about:

- Important features of digital communication systems
- Some basic concepts and definitions such as signal classification, spectral density, random process, linear systems and signal bandwidth.

Today, we are going to talk about:

- The first important step in any DCS:
 - Transforming the information source to a form compatible with a digital system

Formatting and transmission of baseband signal



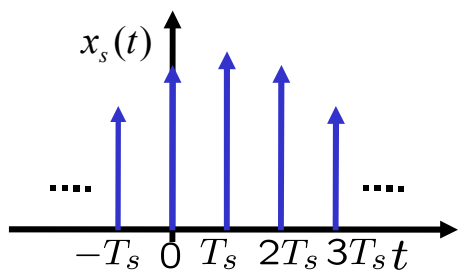
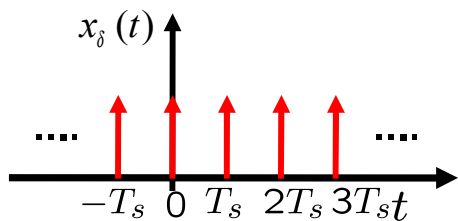
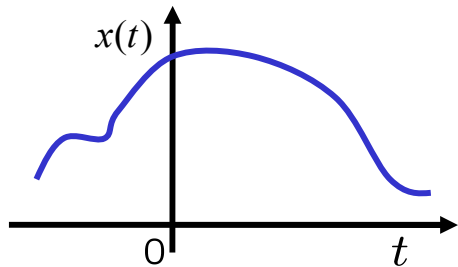
Format analog signals

- To transform an analog waveform into a form that is compatible with a digital communication system, the following steps are taken:
 1. Sampling
 2. Quantization and encoding
 3. Baseband transmission

Sampling

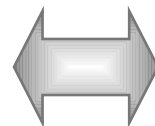
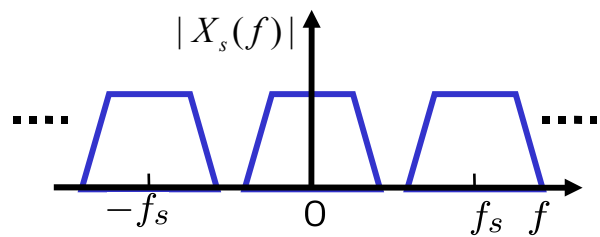
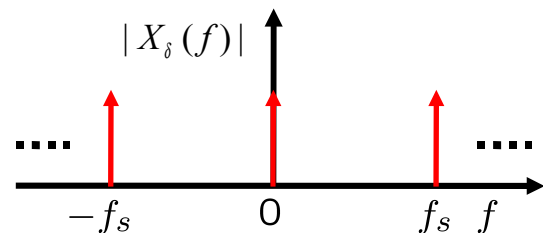
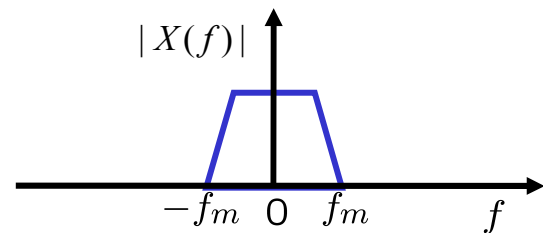
Time domain

$$x_s(t) = x_\delta(t) \times x(t)$$

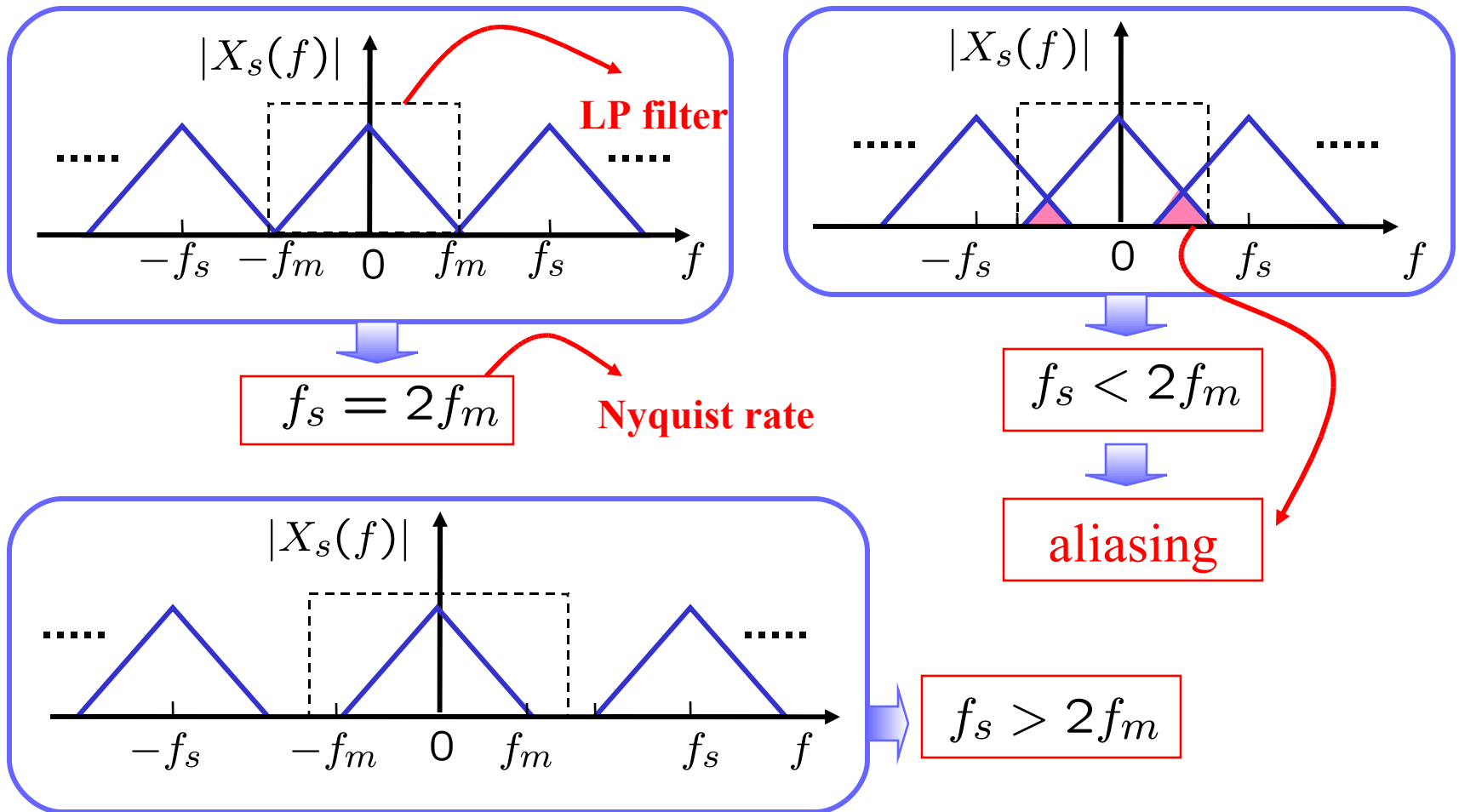


Frequency domain

$$X_s(f) = X_\delta(f) * X(f)$$



Aliasing effect



Sampling theorem



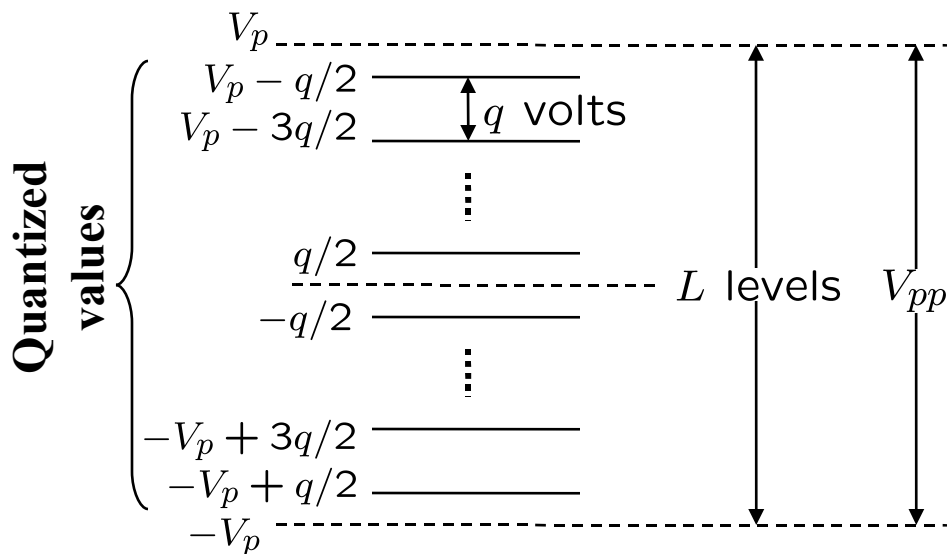
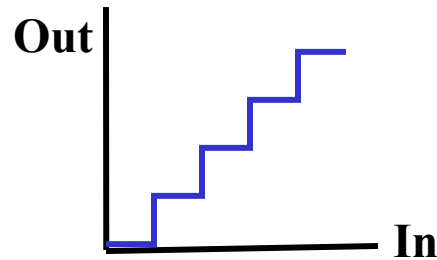
- **Sampling theorem:** A bandlimited signal with no spectral components beyond f_m , can be uniquely determined by values sampled at uniform intervals of

$$T_s \leq \frac{1}{2f_m}$$

- The sampling rate, $f_s = \frac{1}{T_s} = 2f_m$ is called **Nyquist rate**.

Quantization

- Amplitude quantizing: Mapping samples of a continuous amplitude waveform to a finite set of amplitudes.



- Average quantization noise power

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{q^2}{12}$$

- Signal peak power

$$V_p^2 = \frac{L^2 q^2}{4}$$

- Signal power to average quantization noise power

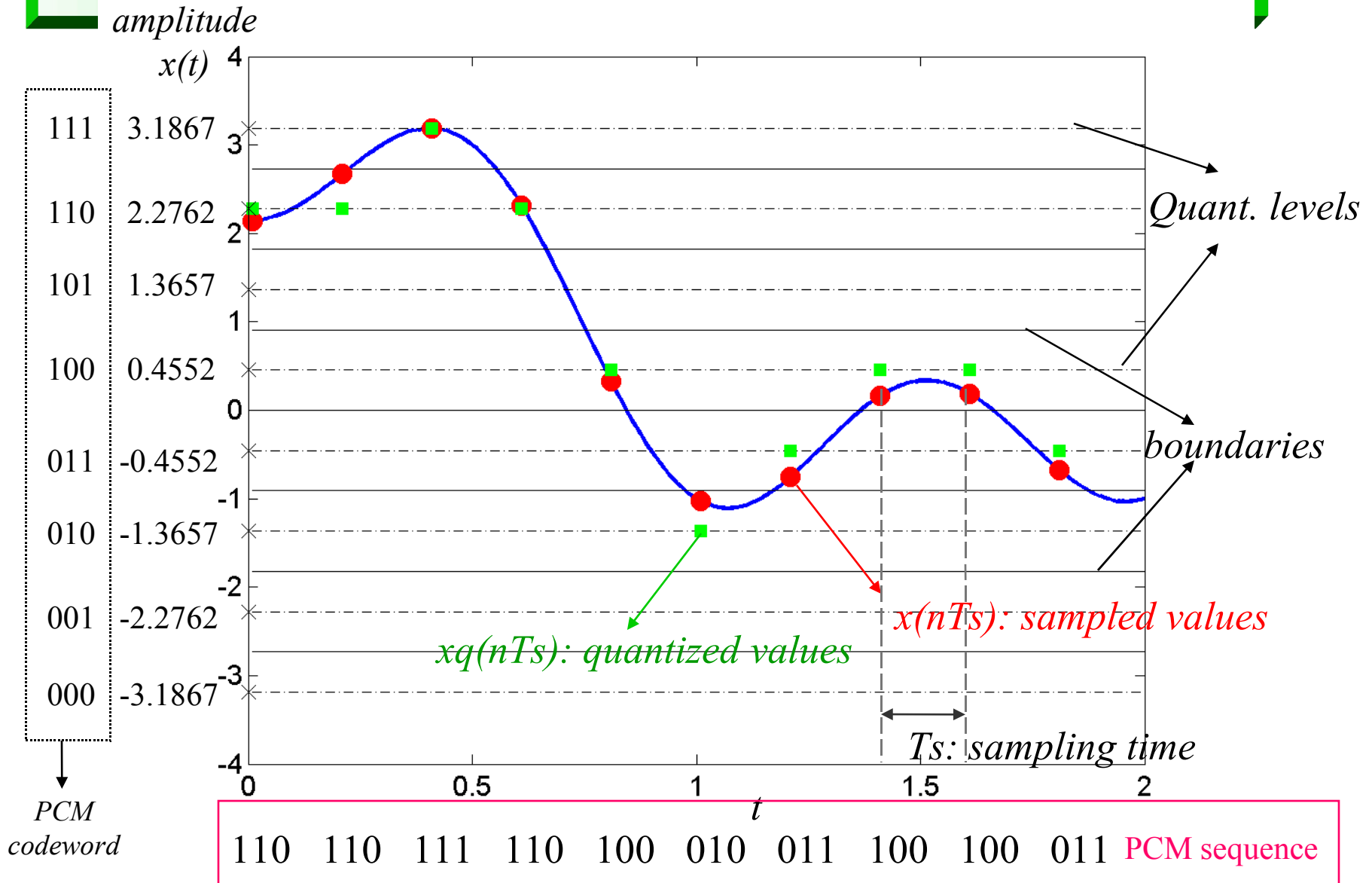
$$\left(\frac{S}{N}\right)_q = \frac{V_p^2}{\sigma^2} = 3L^2$$

Encoding (PCM)

- A uniform linear quantizer is called Pulse Code Modulation (PCM).
- Pulse code modulation (PCM): Encoding the quantized signals into a digital word (**PCM word** or codeword).
 - Each quantized sample is digitally encoded into an l bits codeword where L is the number of quantization levels and

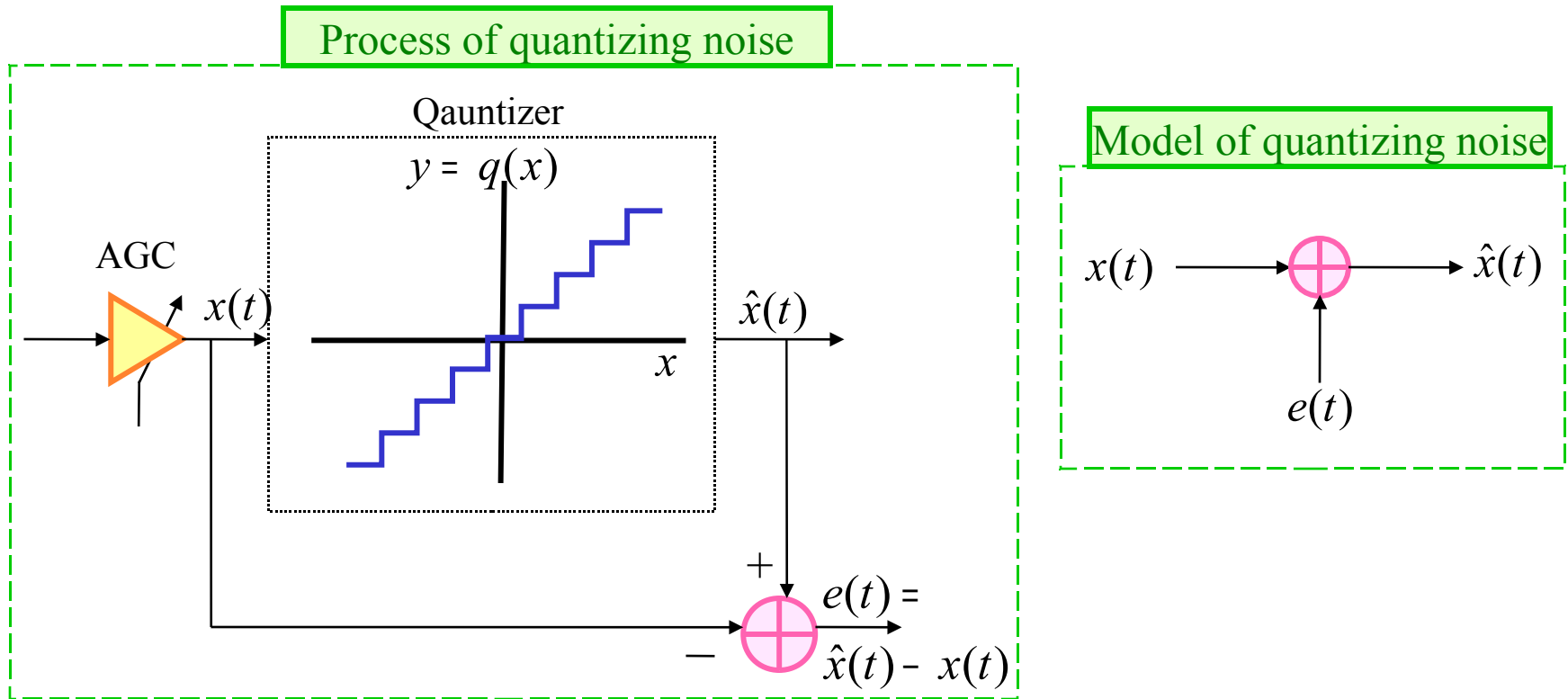
$$l = \log_2 L$$

Quantization example



Quantization error

- Quantizing error: The difference between the input and output of a quantizer $\Rightarrow e(t) = \hat{x}(t) - x(t)$



Quantization error ...

- Quantizing error:
 - **Granular or linear errors** happen for inputs within the dynamic range of quantizer
 - **Saturation errors** happen for inputs outside the dynamic range of quantizer
 - Saturation errors are larger than linear errors
 - Saturation errors can be avoided by proper tuning of AGC
- Quantization noise variance:

$$\sigma_q^2 = \mathbf{E}\{[x - q(x)]^2\} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^2(x)p(x)dx = \sigma_{\text{Lin}}^2 + \sigma_{\text{Sat}}^2$$

$$\sigma_{\text{Lin}}^2 = 2 \sum_{l=0}^{L/2-1} \frac{q_l^2}{12} p(x_l) q_l \quad \text{Uniform } q \rightarrow \quad \sigma_{\text{Lin}}^2 = \frac{q^2}{12}$$

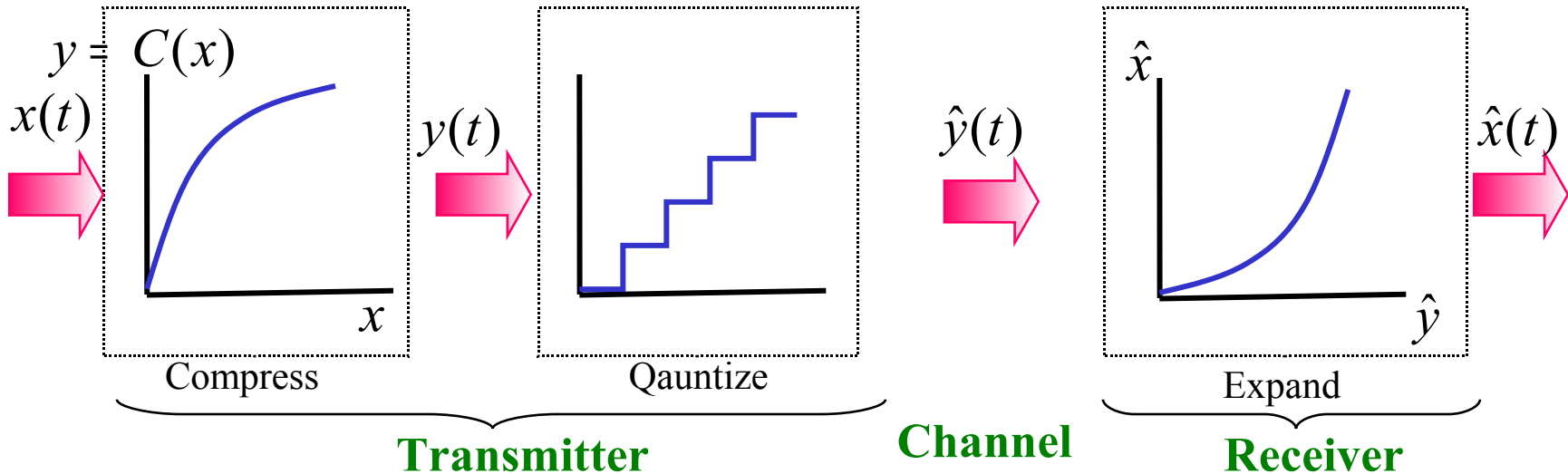
Uniform and non-uniform quant.

- Uniform (linear) quantizing:
 - No assumption about amplitude statistics and correlation properties of the input.
 - Not using the user-related specifications
 - Robust to small changes in input statistic by not finely tuned to a specific set of input parameters
 - Simple implementation
- Application of linear quantizer:
 - Signal processing, graphic and display applications, process control applications
- Non-uniform quantizing:
 - Using the input statistics to tune quantizer parameters
 - Larger SNR than uniform quantizing with same number of levels
 - Non-uniform intervals in the dynamic range with same quantization noise variance
- Application of non-uniform quantizer:
 - Commonly used for speech

Non-uniform quantization

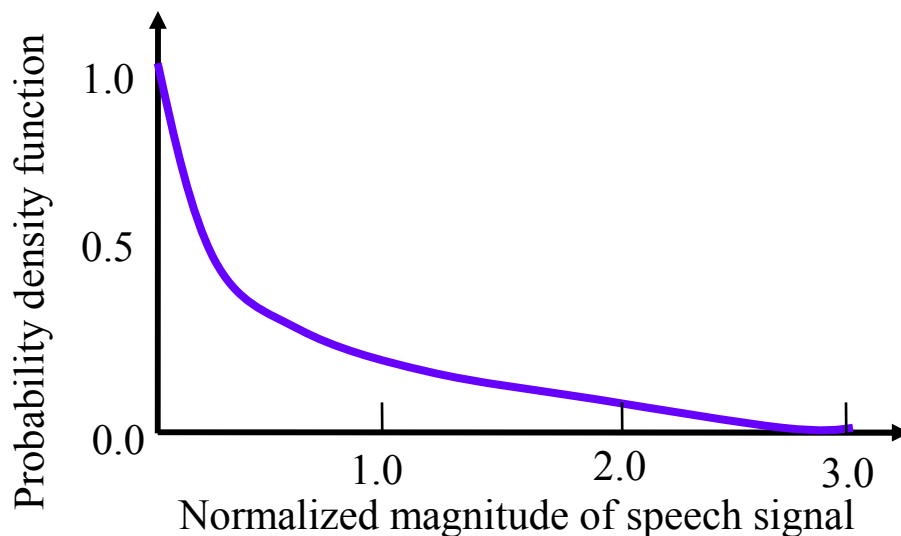
- It is achieved by uniformly quantizing the “compressed” signal.
- At the receiver, an inverse compression characteristic, called “expansion” is employed to avoid signal distortion.

compression+expansion \Rightarrow companding



Statistics of speech amplitudes

- In speech, weak signals are more frequent than strong ones.



- Using equal step sizes (uniform quantizer) gives low $\left(\frac{S}{N}\right)_q$ for weak signals and high $\left(\frac{S}{N}\right)_q$ for strong signals.
 - Adjusting the step size of the quantizer by taking into account the speech statistics improves the SNR for the input range.

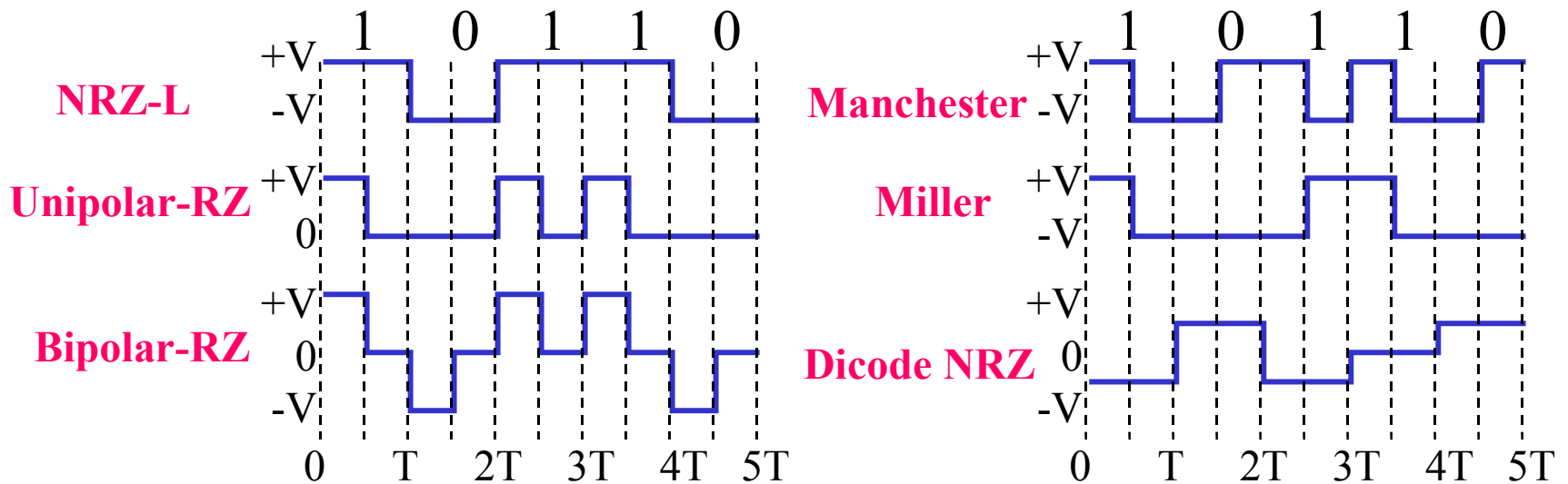
Baseband transmission

- To transmit information through physical channels, PCM sequences (codewords) are transformed to pulses (waveforms).
 - Each waveform carries a **symbol** from a set of size M .
 - Each transmit symbol represents $k = \log_2 M$ bits of the PCM words.
 - PCM waveforms (line codes) are used for binary symbols ($M=2$).
 - M-ary pulse modulation are used for non-binary symbols ($M>2$).

PCM waveforms

■ PCM waveforms category:

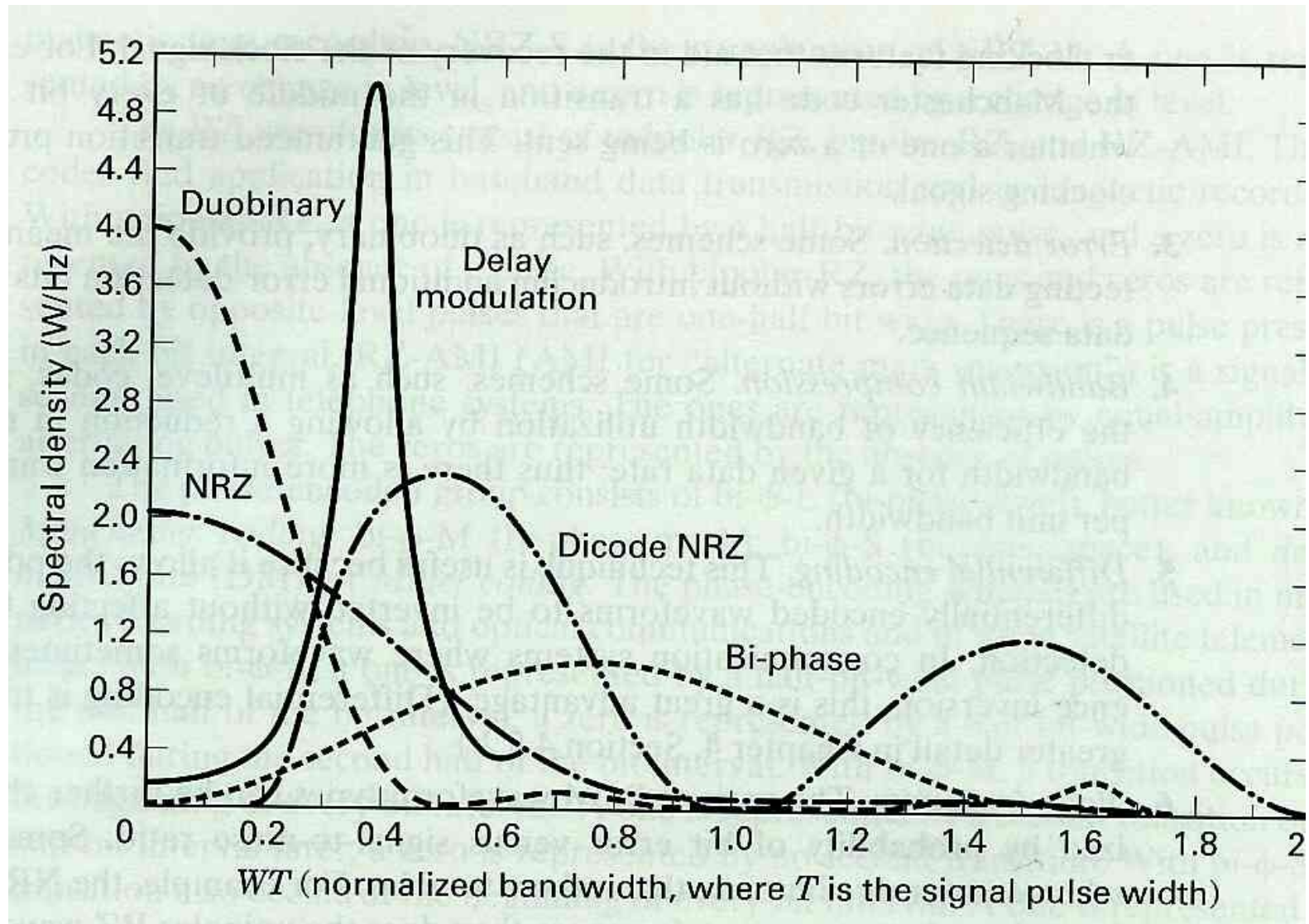
- Nonreturn-to-zero (NRZ)
- Return-to-zero (RZ)
- Phase encoded
- Multilevel binary



PCM waveforms ...

- Criteria for comparing and selecting PCM waveforms:
 - Spectral characteristics (power spectral density and bandwidth efficiency)
 - Bit synchronization capability
 - Error detection capability
 - Interference and noise immunity
 - Implementation cost and complexity

Spectra of PCM waveforms



M-ary pulse modulation

- M-ary pulse modulations category:
 - M-ary pulse-amplitude modulation (PAM)
 - M-ary pulse-position modulation (PPM)
 - M-ary pulse-duration modulation (PDM)
- M-ary PAM is a multi-level signaling where each symbol takes one of the M allowable amplitude levels, each representing $k = \log_2 M$ bits of PCM words.
- For a given data rate, M-ary PAM ($M > 2$) requires less bandwidth than binary PCM.
- For a given average pulse power, binary PCM is easier to detect than M-ary PAM ($M > 2$).

PAM example

