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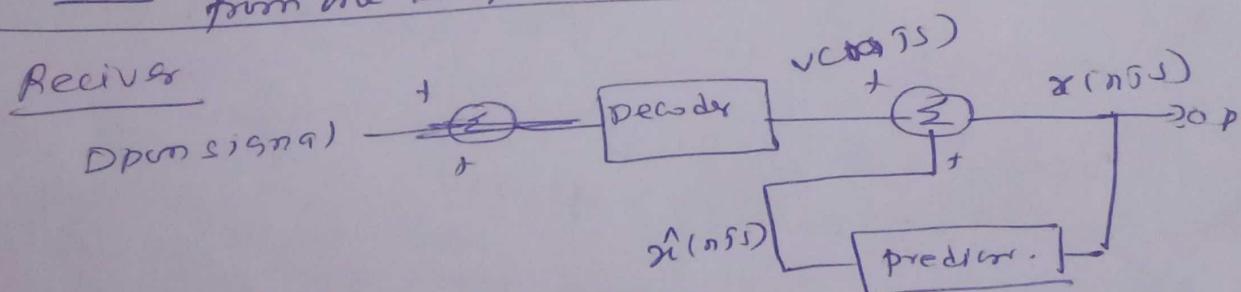
Why DPCM? Convert analog signal into digital signal in which analog signal is sampled and then difference between the actual value and its predicted value (predicted value is based on previous samples) is quantized and then encoded forming a digital value.

why DPCM? In PCM, successive samples

It represents a quantized version of $x(nT)$. Therefore, the quantized sample $u(nT)$ at the prediction filter input differs from the original I/P $x(nT)$ by quantization error $e(nT)$.

Note: In PCM scheme, the successive samples are carrying same information with small difference when these samples are encoded by standard PCM, the resulting encoded signal contains redundant information (highly correlated it means similarity).

Defn: Redundancy: For the signal which do not change rapidly from one sample to next sample.



The quantized error signal $v(nT)$ is reconstructed from the incoming binary signal by a decoder block

$$x(nT) = v(nT) + \hat{x}(nT)$$

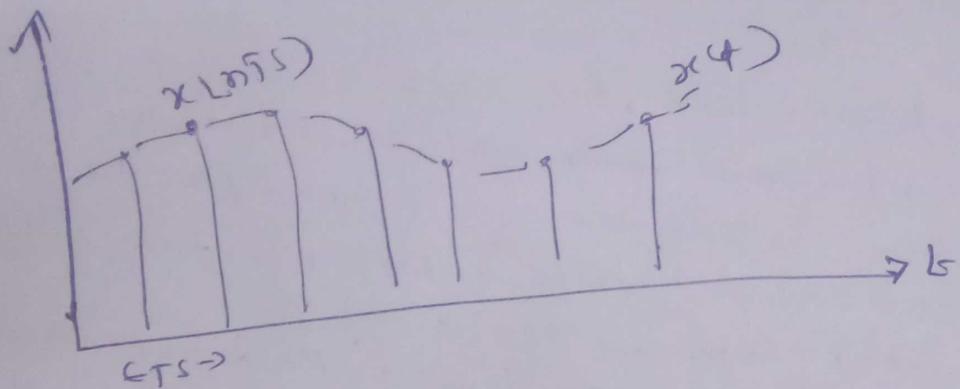
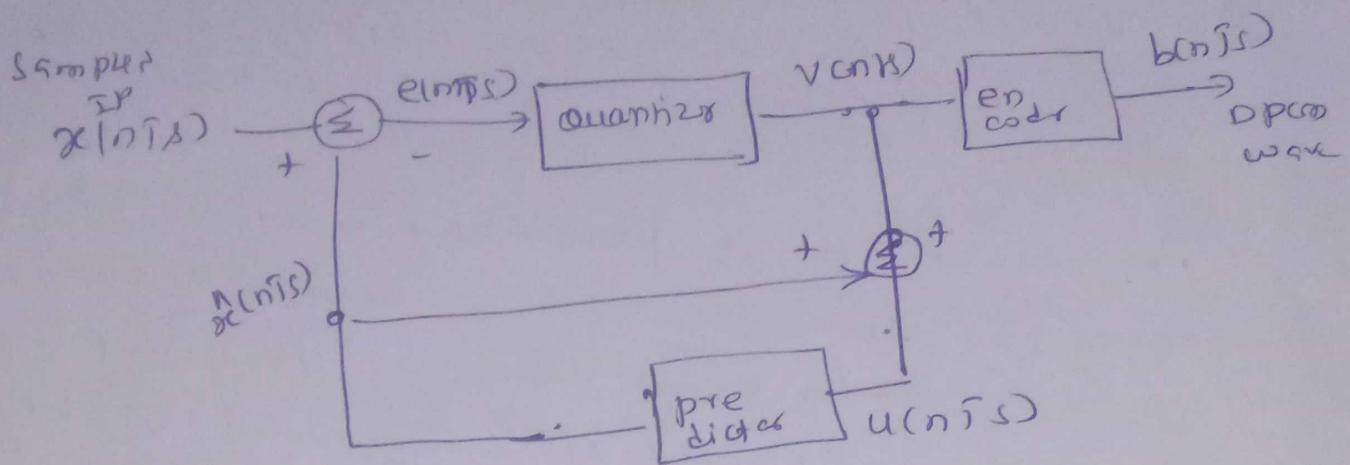
$$x(nT) = e(nT) + q(nT) + \hat{x}(nT) \quad (5)$$

Using equation 5, and (6) becomes

$$x(nT) = \hat{x}(nT) + e(nT)$$

The received signal is not only contains original signal but also contains quantized error $q(nT)$.

DPCM: The difference between amplitude of two successive samples is transmitted rather than actual sample.



$$e(nTs) = x(nTs) - \hat{x}(nTs) \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$\begin{aligned} v(nTs) &= Q[e(nTs)] \\ &= e(nTs) + q(nTs) \end{aligned} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$q(nTs) \rightarrow$ Quantization error

The quantizer output $v(nTs)$ is added to the predicted value $\hat{x}(nTs)$ to produce the prediction filter output.

$$u(nTs) = \hat{x}(nTs) + v(nTs). \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

Sub (2) in (3)

$$u(nTs) = \hat{x}(nTs) + e(nTs) + q(nTs)$$

Then, using equation (1)

$$x(nTs) = \hat{x}(nTs) + e(nTs)$$

$$\text{then } \boxed{u(nTs) = x(nTs) + q(nTs)} \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

The output signal to quantization noise ratio of a signal coder is defined as

$$(\text{SNR})_o = \frac{\sigma_x^2}{\sigma_o^2}$$

Where σ_x^2 is variance of the original signal $x(n)$ assumed to be zero mean. and σ_o^2 is the variance of the quantization error $q(n)$. we may rewrite the equation as

$$(\text{SNR})_o = \left(\frac{\sigma_x^2}{\sigma_{\epsilon}^2} \right) \left(\frac{\sigma_{\epsilon}^2}{\sigma_o^2} \right)$$

$$= G_p (\text{SNR})_p.$$

Where $(\text{SNR})_p$ is the prediction error to quantization noise ratio, defined by

$$(\text{SNR})_p = \frac{\sigma_{\epsilon}^2}{\sigma_o^2}$$

G_p is the prediction gain produced by the differential quantization, defined by

$$G_p = \frac{\sigma_x^2}{\sigma_{\epsilon}^2}$$

The quantity G_p , ~~where~~^{when} greater than unity, represents the gain in signal to noise ratio that is due to the dpcm scheme.

Conclusion For given base band signal, the variance

σ_x^2 is fixed. so that G_p is maximized by reducing σ_{ϵ}^2 of the prediction error $e(n)$

So with our goal to design a predictor to minimize the error is satisfied.

Advantages and Disadvantages of DPM

Advantages :

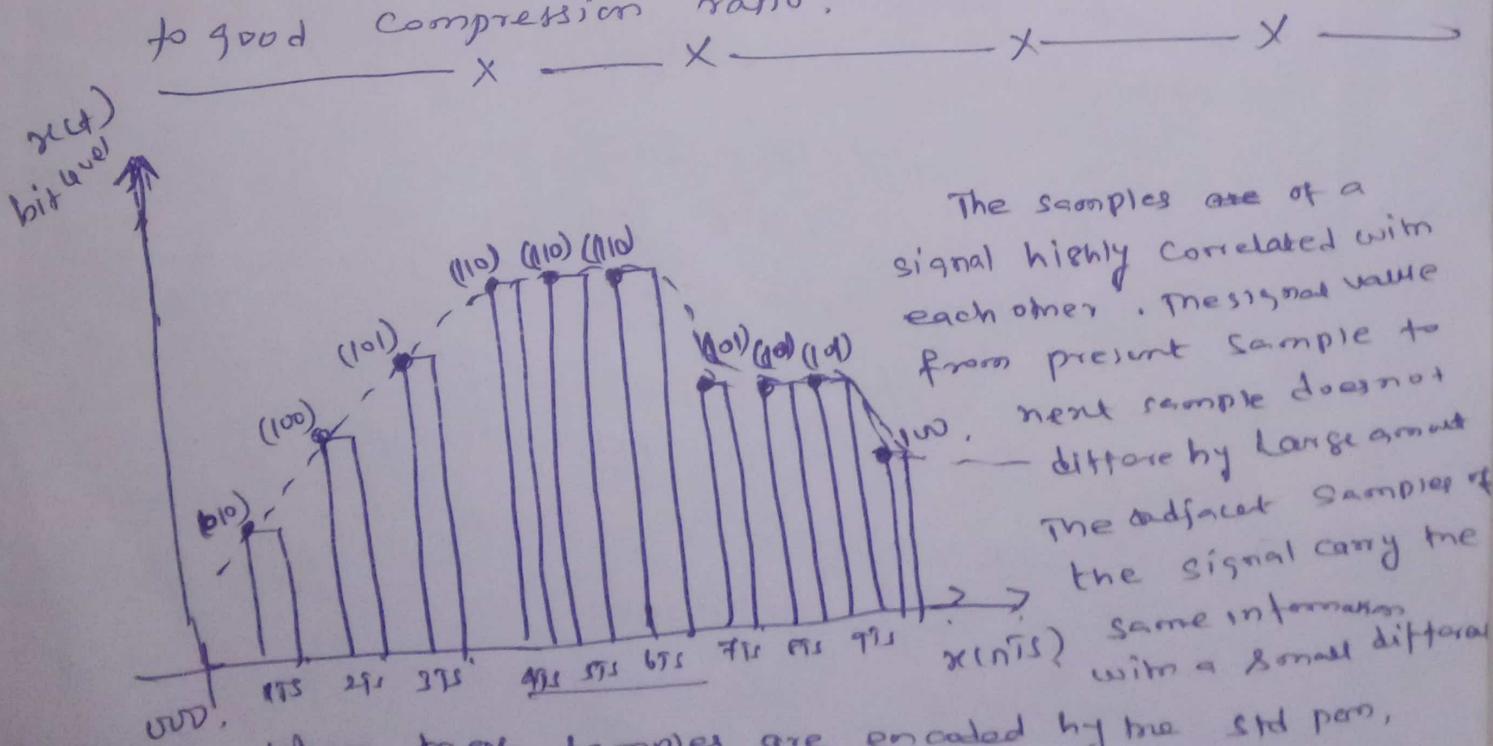
- 1) only a small difference voltage is to be quantized and encoded. This will need less number of quantization levels and hence less number of bits to represent them.
 - 2) The signaling rate and bandwidth of DPCM output will be less than PCM.

Disadvantages:

- (i) Need predictor circuit to be used which is very complex.
 - (ii) practical usage is limited.

Applications:

Applications:
Mainly used in image compression. The DPCM finds the correlation between successive samples leads to good compression ratio.



When more samples are encoded by the std pos, resulting encoded signal contain some redundant information of bits. The above figure 495, 575, 691 encoded to same value of (110)

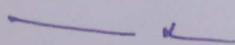
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But three samples (4Ts, 5Ts and 6Ts) are carrying the same information means redundant.

Let consider 9Ts and 10Ts

(101, 100) \rightarrow the difference between the two samples only due to the last bit and first two bits are redundant. Since do not change,

In order to process this redundant information and have a better design and OIP to take a predicted sampled value.



Delta modulation

In PCM system, multiple bit codes are required to represent the sample values and all these bits have to transmit. Hence the signaling rate and transmission channel Bandwidth of PCM system is very high. To overcome this problem Delta modulation is used.

Definition: The delta modulation, is a one bit (or two level) version of DPCM. In this scheme only a single bit is transmitted which simply indicates whether the present sample is larger or smaller than the previous sample. This reduces its signaling rate and bandwidth requirement to a great extent compare with PCM.

Illustration of delta modulation



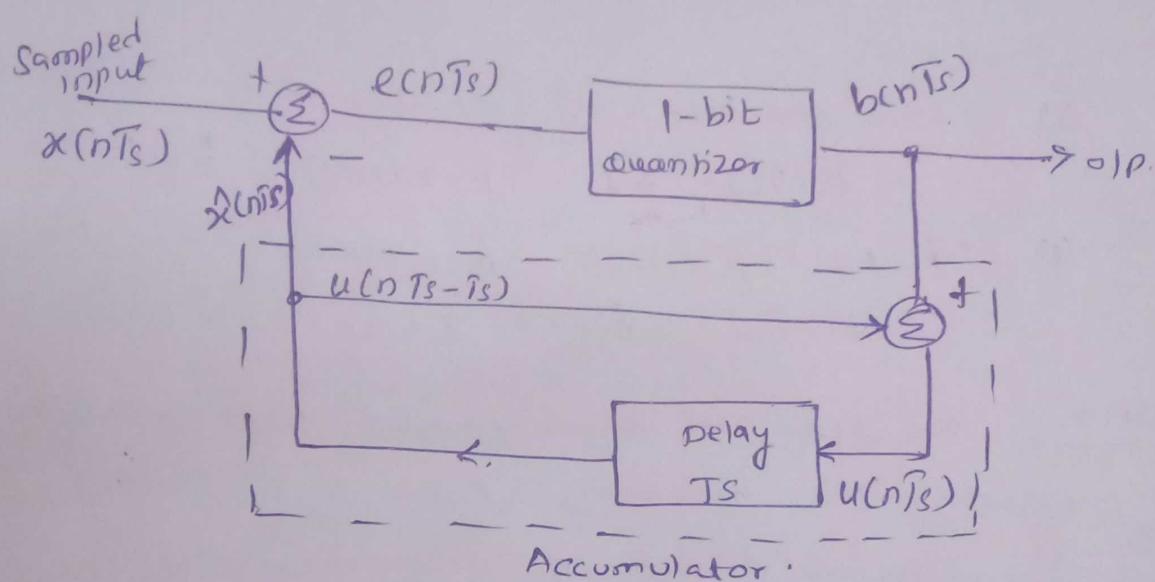
- * DM provides a staircase approximation to the oversampled version of an input base band signal, as shown in above figure.
- * In DM present sample is compared with previous sample value and indicate whether the amplitude is increased or decreased is transmitted.

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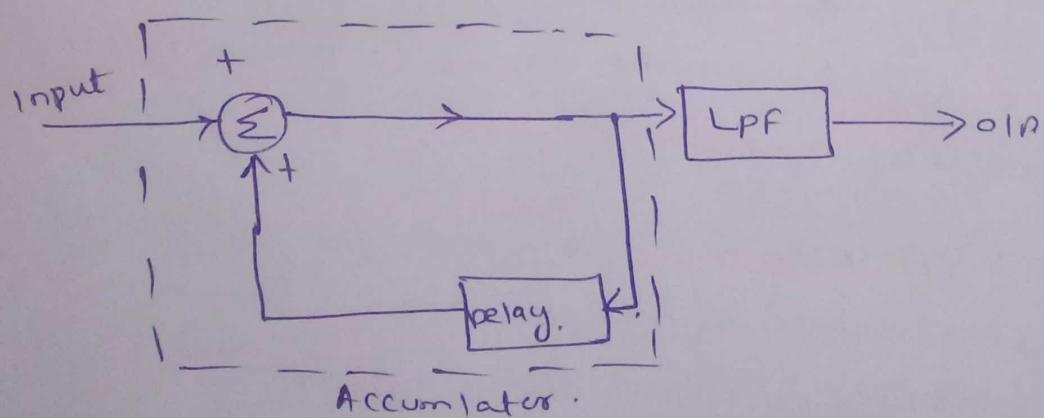
As the step size is fixed, the levels $+f$ and $-f$ are used to represent the difference between the input signal $x(nT_s)$ and the staircase.

- * If the difference is positive, then the approximated signal is increased by $+f$.
- * If the difference is negative, then the approximated signal is decreased by $-f$.

Delta modulator:



Delta Demodulator



At Transmitter

$$\begin{aligned} e(nT_s) &= x(nT_s) - \hat{x}(nT_s) \\ &= x(nT_s) - u(nT_s - Ts) \end{aligned}$$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \hat{x}(nT_s) &= \\ u(nT_s - Ts) &= \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (1)$$

$$b(nT_s) = \delta \operatorname{sgn}[e(nT_s)] \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

and $u(nT_s) = u(nT_s - T_s) + b(nT_s) \quad \text{--- (3)}$

Where T_s is the sampling period

$e(nT_s)$ is a prediction error representing the difference between the present sample value $x(nT_s)$ of the input signal and the latest approximation to it namely $\hat{x}(nT_s) = u(nT_s - T_s)$

$$u(nT_s) = u[nT_s - T_s] + [\pm \delta] \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

From equation (4).

(1) If the step size is $+\delta$, binary '1' is transmitted.
 $b(nT_s) = +\delta$: if $x(nT_s) > \hat{x}(nT_s)$

(2) If the step size is $-\delta$, binary '0' is transmitted
 $b(nT_s) = -\delta$, if $x(nT_s) < \hat{x}(nT_s)$.

At Receiver: The staircase approximation $u(t)$ is reconstructed by passing the incoming sequence of positive and negative pulses through an accumulator.

The out-of-band quantization noise in the high frequency staircase waveform $u(t)$ is rejected by LPF with a bandwidth equal to the original signal bandwidth.

Features: (1) A one bit codeword for the output, which ^{transmits from} eliminates the need for word framing.
(2) Simplicity of design for both transmitter and receiver.

Advantages over PCM

- (1) Low signaling rate and low transmission channel B_w because only one bit is transmitted per sample
- (2) Simplicity in design for both transmitter and receiver

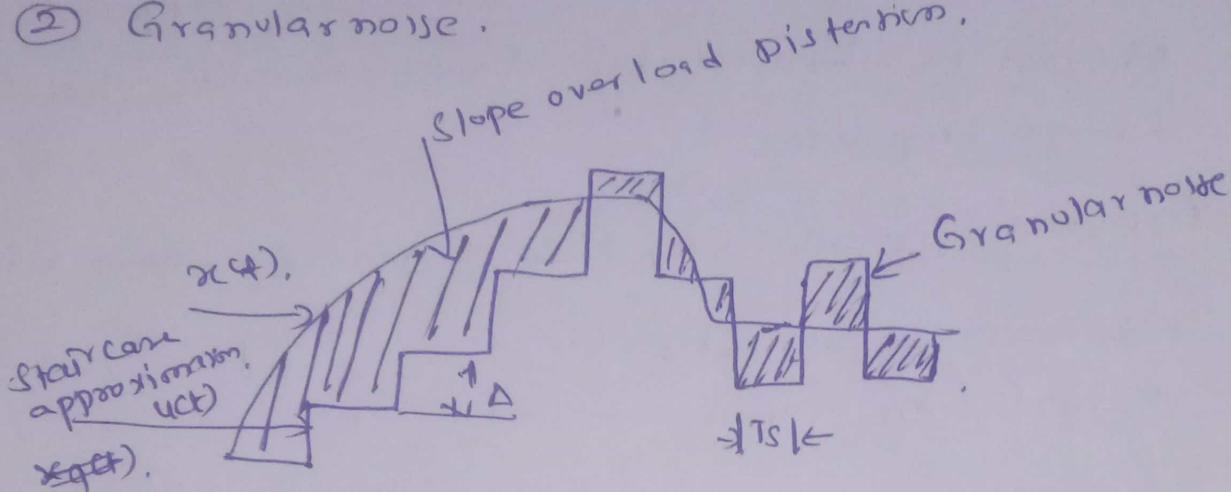
DM.

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Quantization noise (Distortion in DM system) or error

① Slope overload distortion

② Granular noise.



Slope overload distortion:

If the slope of the analog signal $x(t)$ is much higher than that of its staircase approximation $u(t)$ over a long distance duration then $x_q(t)$ will not able to follow $x(t)$. The difference between $x(t)$ and $x_q(t)$ is called slope overload distortion.

$$x_q(t) = \frac{\Delta}{T_s} = \Delta f_s.$$

Elimination

- ① Filtering the signal to limit the maximum rate of change
- ② increasing step size Δ
- ③ increasing Sampling rate(f_s)

However increasing Δ , the granular noise increases and if f_s is increased, signalling rate and BW requirement is also increased.

Best way: to reduce slope overload error is to detect the over load condition and increase the step size when overloading occurs i.e detected.

Granular noise

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It occurs when very small variations in the input signal, the staircase approximated signal is changed by large amount because of large step size.

To Reduce: Smaller step size required ~~whereas~~ whereas large step size are prepared for minimizing the slope overload error.

Conclusion: We need to have a larger step size to accommodate a wide dynamic range, whereas a small step size is required for accurate representation of relatively lower level signals. It is clear that choice of the optimum ^{step} size that minimizes the mean square value of quantization error in a linear delay modulator will be the result of a compromise between slope overload distortion and granular noise.

SNR

$$SNR_{0,\max} = \frac{P_{\max}}{W T_s (8^2 / 3)}$$

$$SNR_{0,\max} = \frac{3}{8 \pi^2 W f_0^2 T_s^3}$$

$$\begin{aligned} P_{\max} &= \\ &\frac{g_0^2}{2} \\ &= 8^2 \\ &\frac{8^2}{8 \pi^2 f_0^2 T_s^2} \end{aligned}$$

The above equation shows that, under the assumption of no slope-overload distortion, the maximum output signal to noise ratio of a delay modulator is proportional to the sampling rate cubed. This, therefore, indicates a 9dB improvement with doubling of the sampling rate.

Adaptive Delta modulation - II -

Why ADAM (or) What is Adaptive Delta modulation?

The performance of a delta modulator can be improved significantly by making the step size of the modulator as a time varying form i.e. the step size of the modulator is increased, when the input varying rapidly and step size of the modulator decreased, when the input is varying slowly. Then, the system which uses the above laid technique for reducing the quantization errors is called Adaptive Delta modulation system.

Block diagram:

In practical implementation of system, the step size $\Delta(nT_s)$ or $\delta(nT_s)$ is constrained to lie between minimum and maximum values. In particular, we write

$$\delta_{\min} \leq \delta(nT_s) \leq \delta_{\max}.$$

The upper limit, δ_{\max} , controls the amount of slope-caused distortion. The lower limit, δ_{\min} , controls the amount of idle channel noise.

Inside these limits the adaption rule for $\delta(nT_s)$ is expressed in the general form

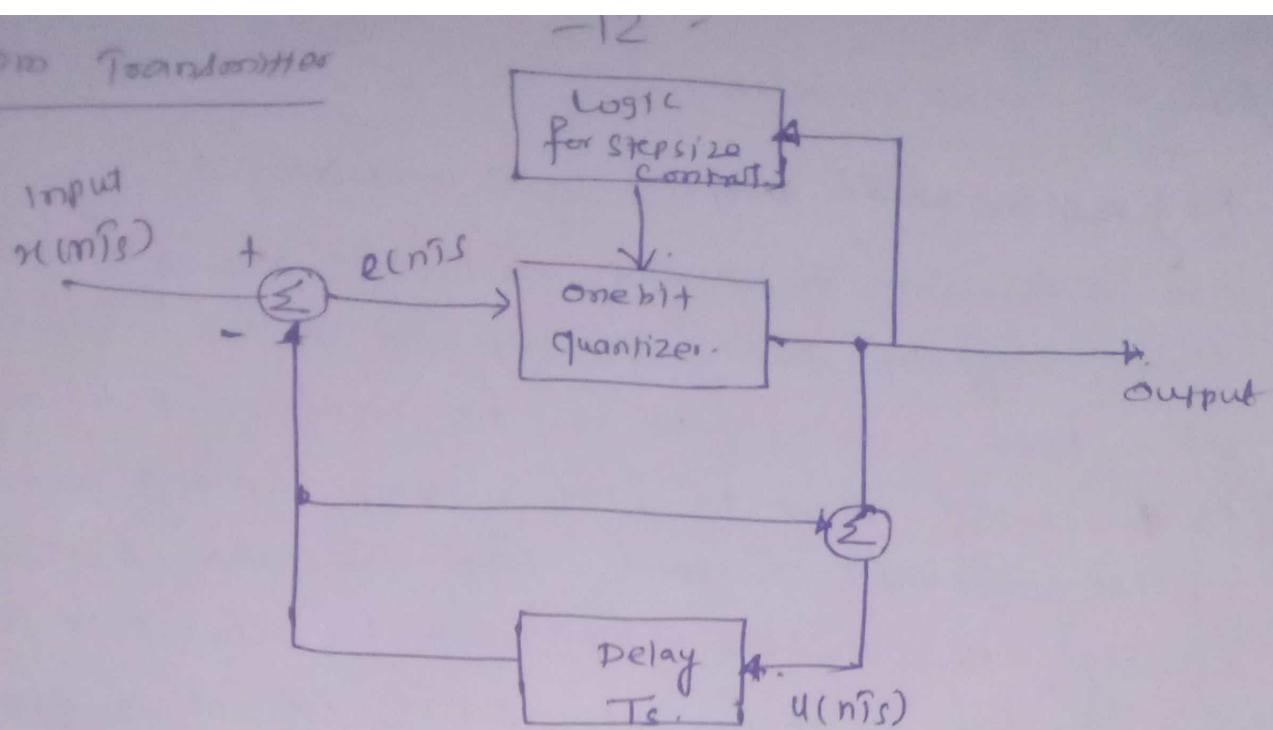
$$f(nT_s) = g(nT_s) f(nT_s - T_s)$$

Where $g(nT_s)$ depends on the present binary output $b(nT_s)$ of the Delta modulator and the 'm' previous values $b(nT_s - T_s) \dots b(nT_s - mT_s)$. The algorithm is initiated with a starting step size $\delta_{start} = \delta_{\min}$.

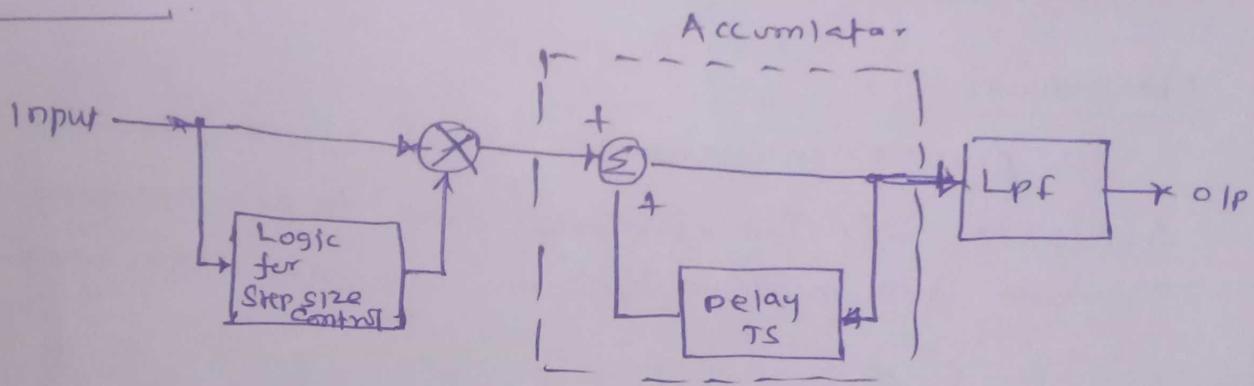
$$g(nT_s) = \begin{cases} K & \text{if } b(nT_s) = b(nT_s - T_s) \\ K' & \text{if } b(nT_s) \neq b(nT_s - T_s) \end{cases}$$

This adaption algorithm is called a constant factor ADAM with 1 bit memory.

Amd Transmitter



Amd Receiver



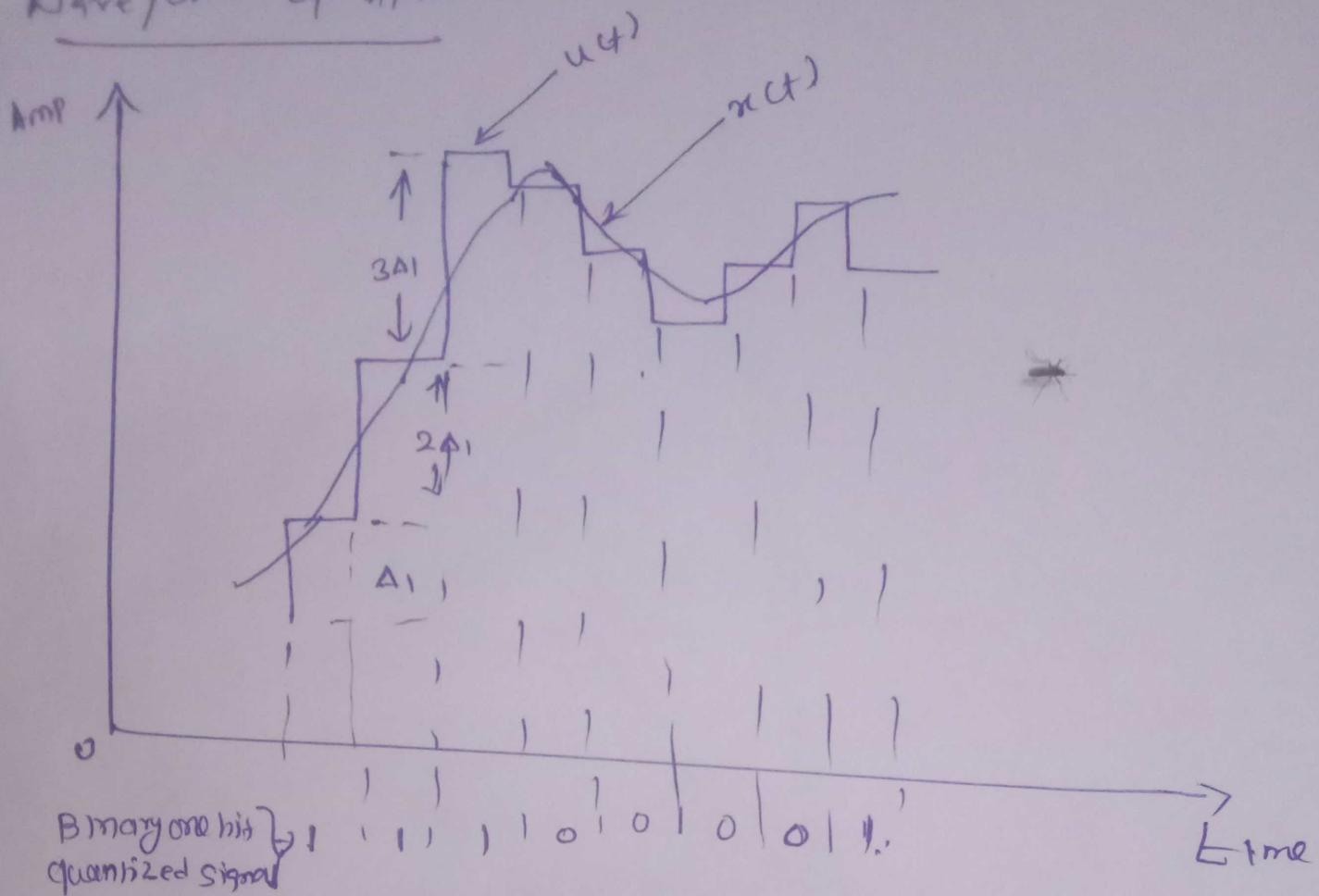
At Transmitter: Depending upon the ^{output of} one bit quantizer, the step size is increased or decreased according to a specified logic

- * When the onebit quantizer output is High (ie 1), the step size may be increased.
- * When the onebit quantizer output is Low (ie 0), the step size may be decreased.

At Receiver:

The Accumulator block generate a staircase waveform depending on the input applied it. Then the original signal is reconstructed from the staircase waveform using LPF which allows maximum frequency of the message signal remaining high frequency will be attenuated.

Waveform of APM



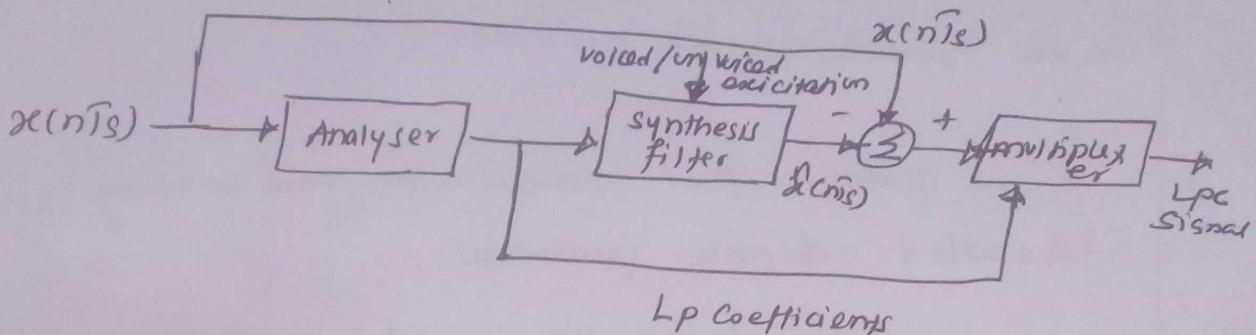
Advantages of APM over PM.

- 1) The SNR is better than PM because of slope overload distortion and granular noise is reduced.
- 2) wide dynamic range due to variable stepsize
- 3) Better utilization of BW.
- 4) Low Signaling Rate.
- 5) Simplicity Design in Txer and Rxver.
- 6) Very good noise immunity.

Application : speech and image processing.

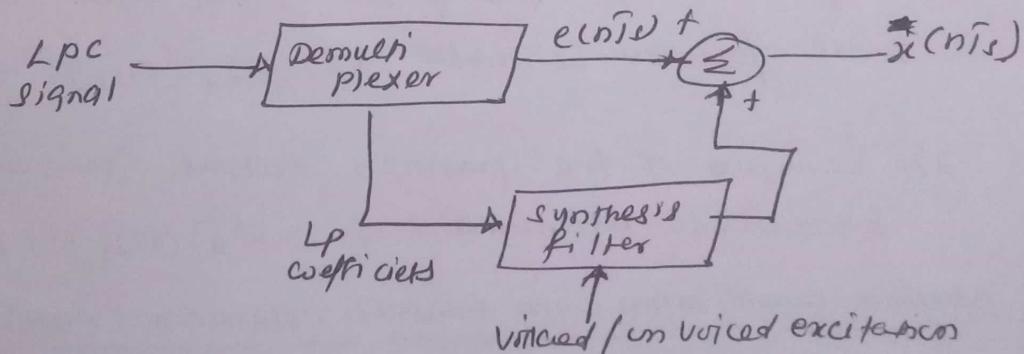
Linear predictive Coding [LPC]

LPC Transmitter



$x(n̄s)$ is speech signal (digitized version). It is applied to the analyser. The analyser analyse the LP coefficients for the synthesis filter. Based on those LP coefficients, the synthesis filter reconstructs the speech signal $\hat{x}(n̄s)$. The reconstructed signal $\hat{x}(n̄s)$ and the original signal $x(n̄s)$ are compared and the error $e(n̄s)$ is obtained. The LP coefficients and error signal is multiplexed and transmitted.

LPC Receiver (Decoder)



LPC signal applied to the Demultiplexer. It separate the filter parameters and error signal $e(n̄s)$. LP coefficients are given to the synthesis filter. Output of filter added to error signal and gives a $\hat{x}(n̄s)$. This produce the bit rate of about 3 to 8 kbit/sec.

16 ADPCM: Adaptive differential PCM

What is ADPCM? A digital coding scheme that uses both adaptive quantization and adaptive prediction is called adaptive differential PCM. It is used to code speech at 32 kb/s/sec.

The quantizer that operates with time varying step size $\Delta(nT_s)$ is called adaptive quantization.

Time varying step size $\Delta(nT_s)$

$T_s \rightarrow$ is the sampling period.

The step size of quantizer depends on variance of the input signal, then we write.

$$\boxed{\Delta(nT_s) = \phi \hat{\sigma}_{\alpha}(nT_s)}$$

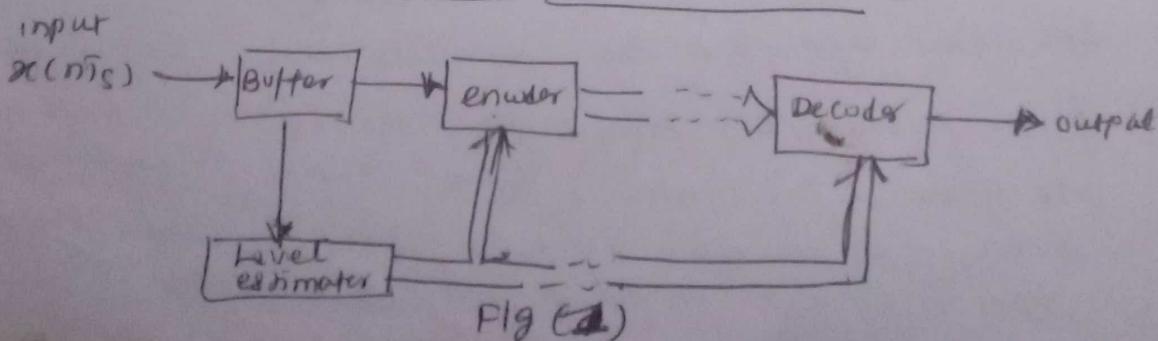
step size
at instant T_s estimate of the standard deviation
 $\hat{\sigma}_{\alpha}(nT_s)$ [ie $\hat{\sigma}_n^2$]

To proceed with the ~~at~~ application of above equation we may compute the estimate $\hat{\sigma}_{\alpha}(nT_s)$ in one of two ways.

1) unquantized samples of the input signal are used to derive forward estimates of $\hat{\sigma}_{\alpha}(nT_s)$ in Fig(1)

2). Samples of the quantizer output are used to derive backward estimates of $\hat{\sigma}_{\alpha}(nT_s)$ in Fig(2)

Adaptive Quantization with Forward estimation (AQF)



Adaptive quantization with backward estimation

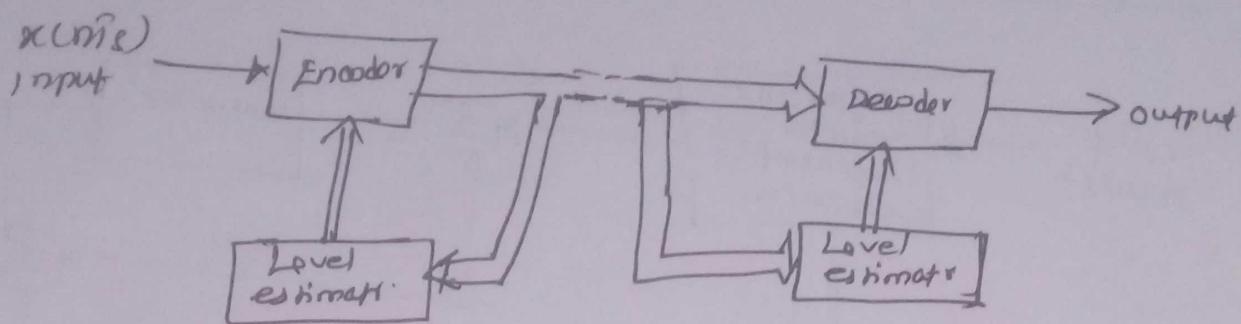


Fig (2)

From Fig(1) : The unquantized samples are stored in the buffer . From these samples an estimate $\hat{\sigma}_x(n̄iε)$ of standard deviation is obtained from $\hat{\sigma}(n̄iε)$. This estimate is independent of quantizing noise. So we find that the step size $\Delta(n̄iε)$ is obtained from AQB is more reliable than that from AOF.

Problems encountered in AOF: 1) Level transmission {5 to 6 bits per step size
sample required}

2) Buffering, processing delay.

The above said problems are avoided by AQB ie Fig (2)

From Fig (2): Recent history of the quantizer output to extract information for the computation of the step size $\Delta(n̄iε)$. So AQB usually preferred than AOF practice. because of no buffering delay.

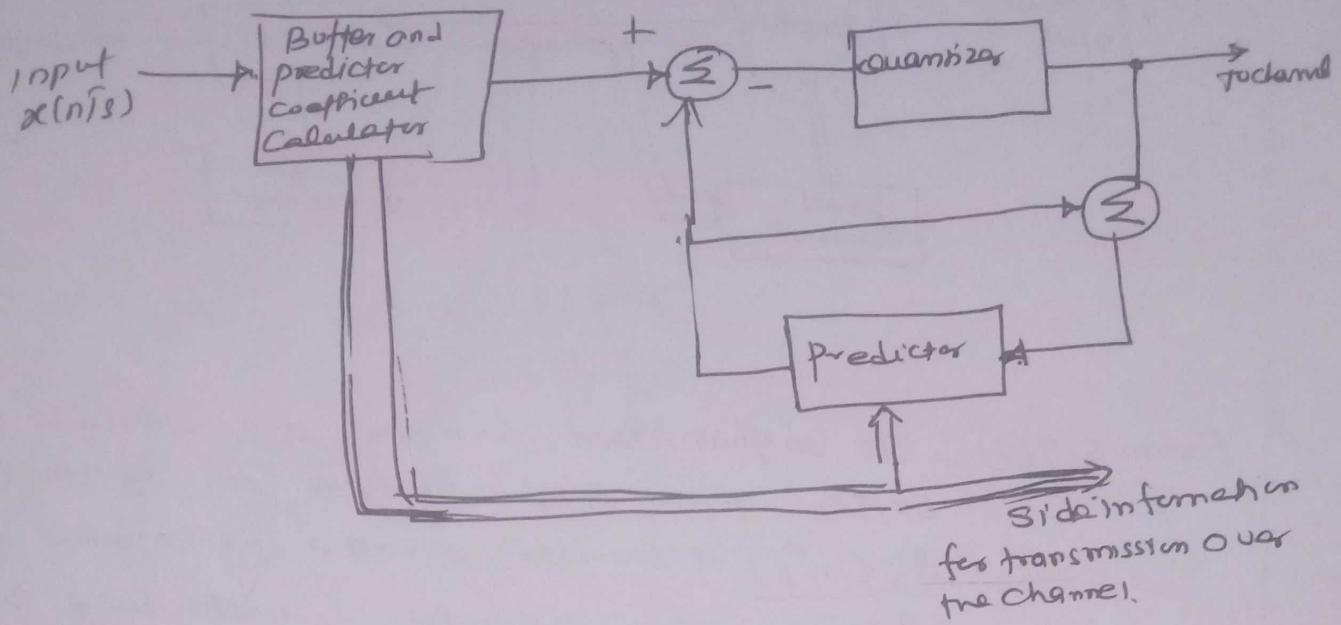
Adaptive prediction with forward estimation

As with adaptive quantization , there are two schemes for performing adaptive prediction.

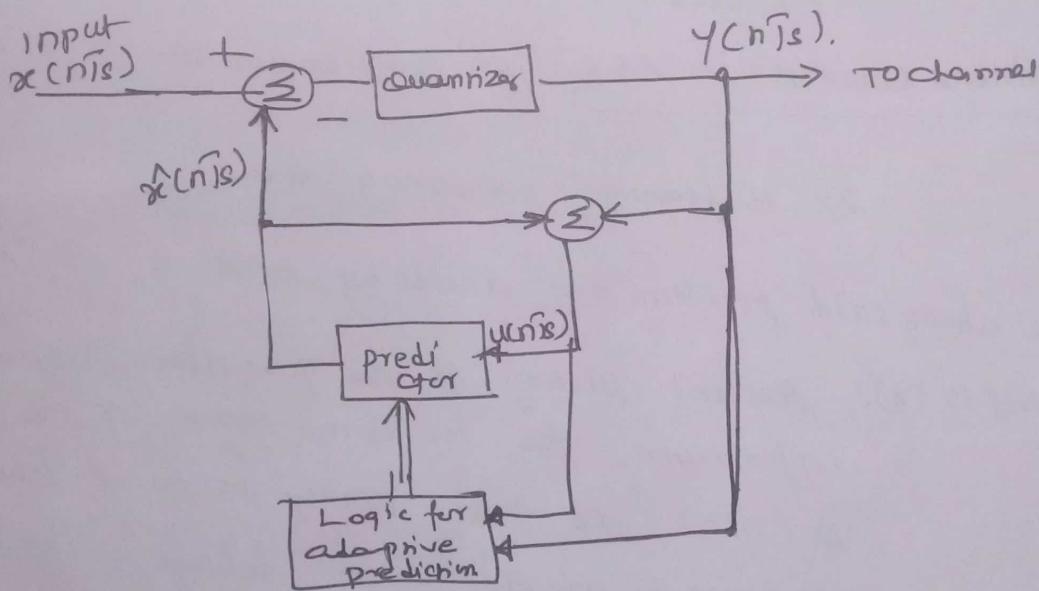
1) Adaptive prediction with forward estimation (APP), in which unquantized samples of the input signal are used to derive estimates of the predictor coefficients.

2) Adaptive prediction with backward estimation (APB), in which samples of the quantizer output and the prediction error are used to derive estimates of the predictor coefficients.

1) Adaptive prediction with forward estimation



2) Adaptive prediction with Backward estimation



$$u(n)s = \hat{x}(n)s + y(n)s$$

$\hat{x}(n)s$ is the prediction of the speech input sample $x(n)s$

$$y(n)s = u(n)s - \hat{x}(n)s$$

$u(n)s$ - representing a sample value of the predictor input
 $\hat{x}(n)s$ - " " " " predictor output

$y(n)s \rightarrow 0$.

Line codes :

-1-

Let we know channel capacity of a Gaussian channel is given as

$$C = B \log_2 \left[1 + \frac{S}{N} \right] \text{ bits/sec.}$$

From above equation channel capacity depends on two factors

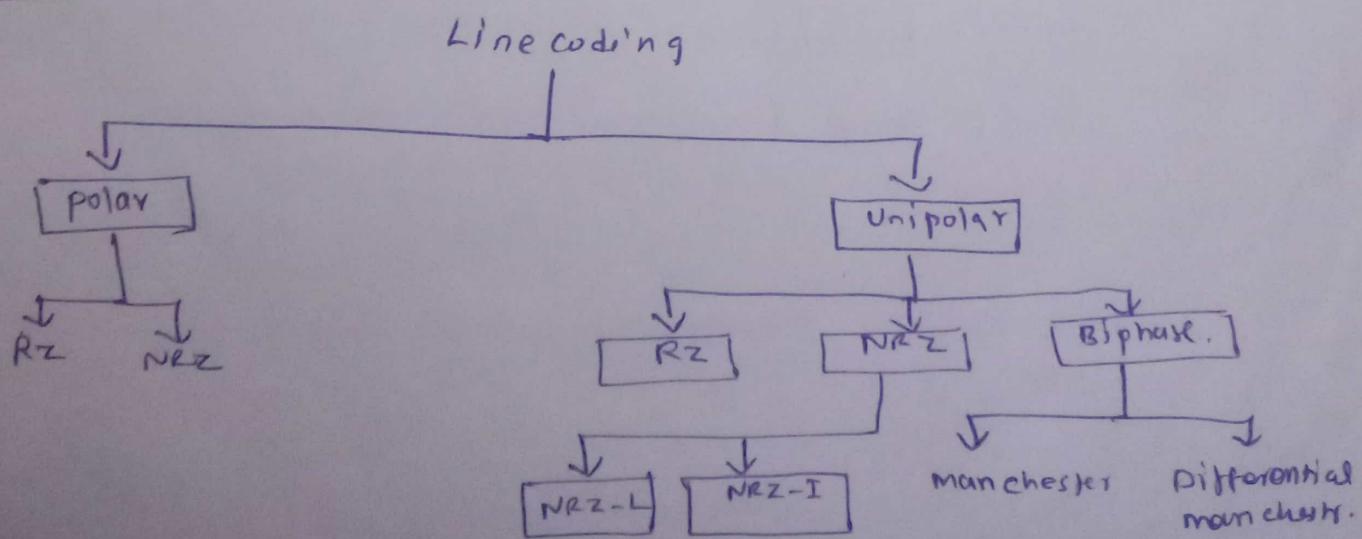
- 1) Bandwidth of the channel (B)
- 2) Signal to noise ratio (S/N)

The encoding technique which follows the channel capacity theorem is called as Bandwidth (Bw) - SNR trade off code. This code is also called as line encoding or line coding.

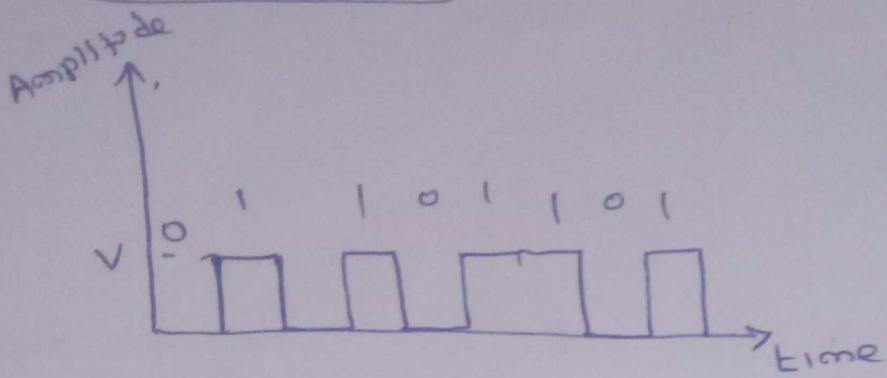
The line coding is used for converting a binary information sequence into a digital signal.

The wave form pattern of voltage or current used to represent the 1s and 0s of a digital signal on a transmission link is called line coding.

Types :



unipolar Representation



1s are encoded as positive voltage ($+0.75V$) and
0s are encoded as no zero voltage ($0V$).

problems in unipolar

- 1) DC component
- 2) synchronization.

Polar encoding

- 1) It eliminates the residual DC component but still a small DC residual present.
- 2) When the digital encoding is symmetrical around 0 volts, it's called a polar code.
- 3) It has two levels (positive and negative) of amplitude. It reduces the power required to transmit the signal by one-half compared with unipolar.
- 4) polar line encoding has the same synchronization problem as unipolar line encode. If there is a long string of 1s or 0s the receiving oscillator may drift and become unchirnnized.

Unipolar RZ

$x(t) = \begin{cases} V & \text{for } 0 \leq t \leq T_{b/2} \\ 0 & \text{for } T_{b/2} \leq t \leq T_b \end{cases}$

For symbol '0'
 $x(t)=0 \text{ for } 0 \leq t \leq T_b$

unipolar NRZ

if symbol '1' is Txed

$$x(t)=A \text{ for } 0 \leq t \leq T_b$$

if '0' is Txed

$$x(t)=0 \text{ for } 0 \leq t \leq T_b$$

polar RZ

if symbol '1' is Txed

$$x(t)=\begin{cases} +V & \text{for } 0 \leq t \leq T_{b/2} \\ 0 & \text{for } T_{b/2} \leq t \leq T_b \end{cases}$$

if symbol '0' is Txed

$$x(t)=\begin{cases} -V & \text{for } 0 \leq t \leq T_{b/2} \\ 0 & \text{for } T_{b/2} \leq t \leq T_b \end{cases}$$

polar NRZ

if symbol '1' is Txed

$$x(t)=+V/2 \text{ for } 0 \leq t \leq T_b$$

if symbol '0' is Txed

$$x(t)=-V/2 \text{ for } 0 \leq t \leq T_b$$

$$x(t)=0 \text{ for } T_b/2 \leq t \leq T_b$$

Manchester Encodings

The transition at the middle of the bit is used.

> Negative to +ve rep '1'
 positive to -ve rep '0'

transition is
 in the bit

Bipolar NRZ:

- 1) pulse does not return to zero on its own. If the symbol '0' is to be transmitted, then pulse becomes zero.
- 2) since there is no separation between the pulses, the receiver needs synchronization to detect bipolar NRZ pulses.
- 3) Energy of the pulses is more
- 4) Unipolar format has some DC value, this DC value does not carry any information.

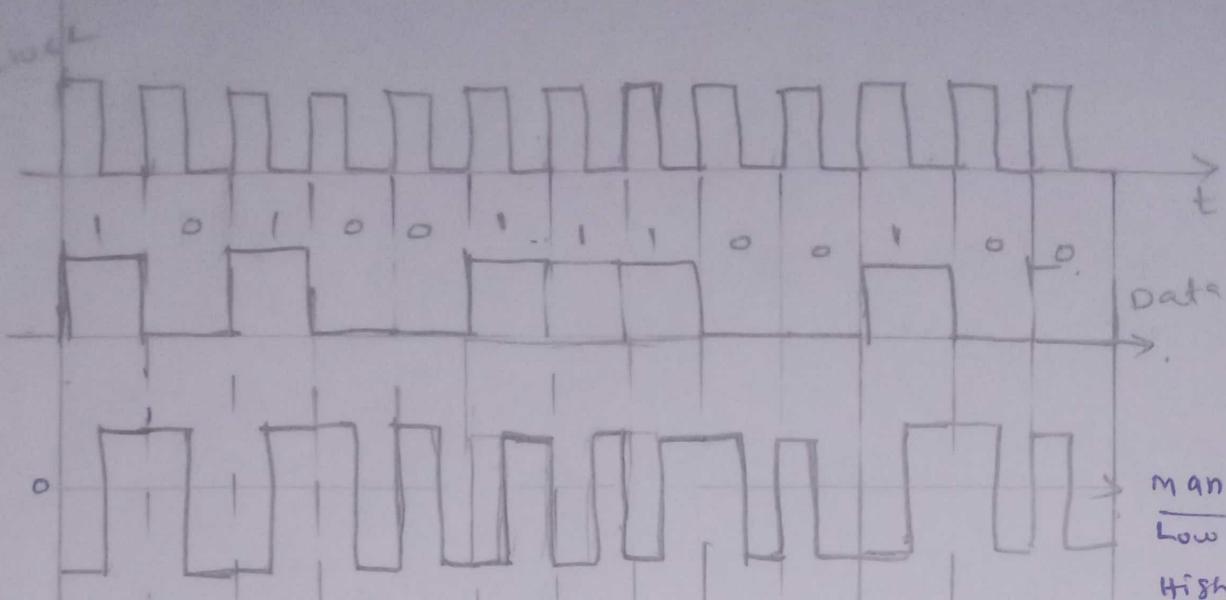
polar RZ format: symbol '1' is represented by positive voltage polarity and symbol '0' represented by negative voltage polarity. — In RZ format, the pulse is fixed only to half duration.

polar NRZ format: symbol '1' is represented by +ve polarity and symbol '0' is represented by negative polarity. These polarities are maintained over the complete pulse duration. ~~for polar NRZ~~

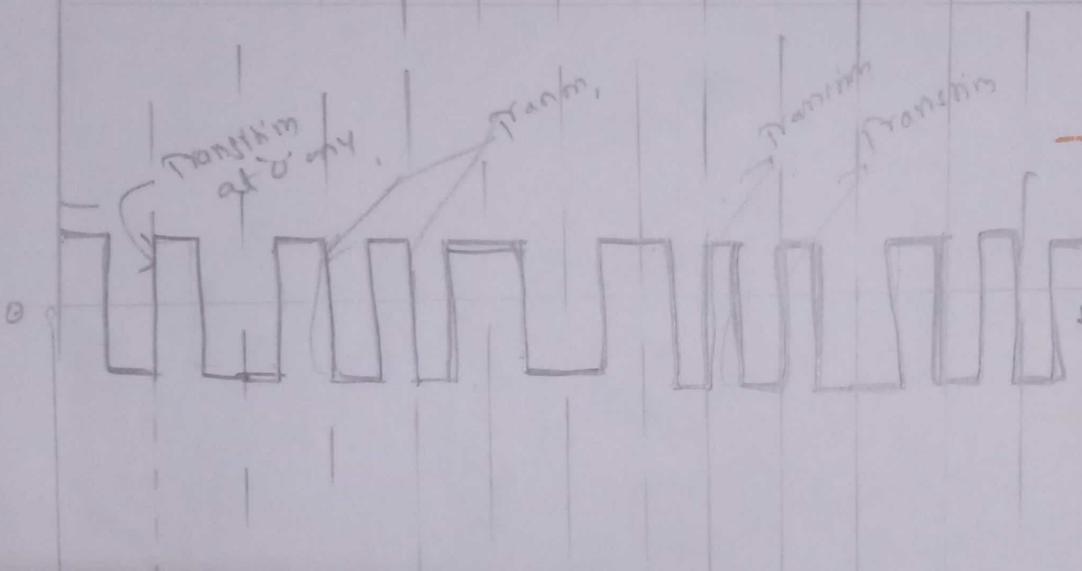
Bipolar NRZ-L:

- 1) Binary bit '1' is represented by positive voltage and bit '0' is represented by negative voltage level
- 2) If the date bit streams contain continuous 0's or 1's then receiver receives a continuous constant voltage
- 3) It is difficult to identify the total number of bits transmitted by the sender, clock synchronization is required to identify the total number of bits to be transmitted.

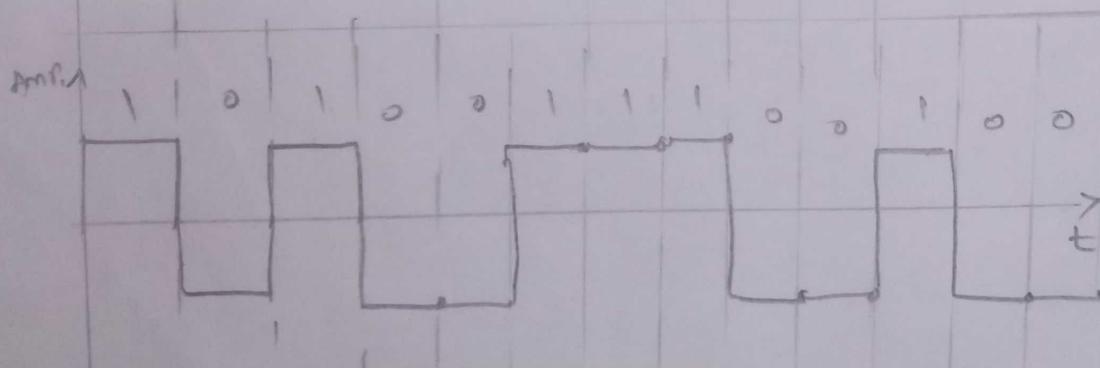
Solve for: Data (00110101)



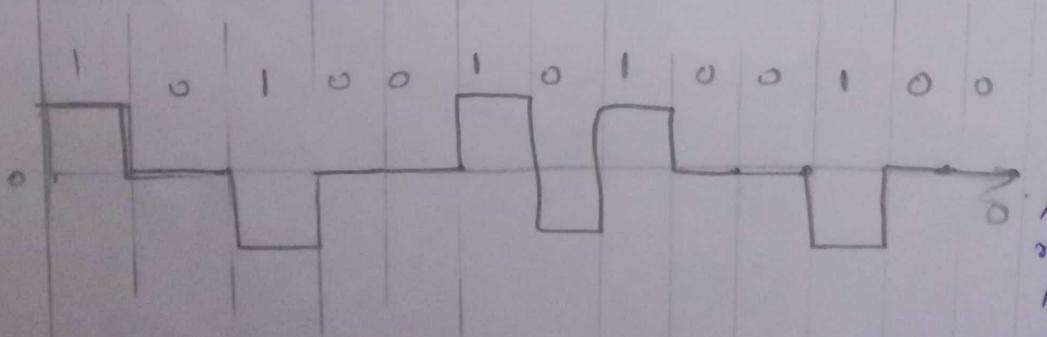
Manchester
Low to High - 1
High to Low - 0



Transitions at middle of the bit
Data representation is mapped as per bit start time instead
No transition at start of a bit period rep as 1
Transition at start of a bit period, rep as 0



Bipolar NRZ-Level
Binary 1 is represented by positive Logic and bit 0 is represented by negative voltage level



Bipolar - Alternate mark inversion (AMI)
A net zero voltage represents binary 0, binary 1 represented by alternating +ve and -ve voltage.

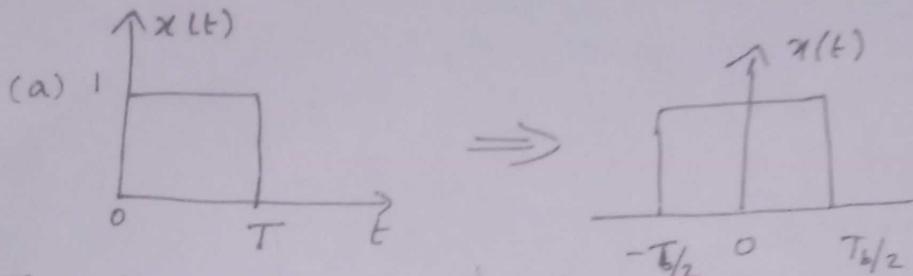
PSD OF NRZ UNIPOLAR LINE CODING

Step 1 : Find the Fourier transform of NRZ pulse $x(t)$

Step 2 : Find the auto-correlation of unipolar $R_A(n)$

Step 3 : Calculate PSD based on $X(f)$ and $R_A(n)$

Unipolar NRZ



The basic formula for FT is

$$X(f) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-j2\pi ft} dt$$

Applying Fourier transform,

$$\begin{aligned} X(f) &= \int_{-\frac{T_b}{2}}^{\frac{T_b}{2}} (1) e^{-j2\pi ft} dt \\ &= \left[\frac{e^{-j2\pi f t}}{-j2\pi f} \right]_{-\frac{T_b}{2}}^{\frac{T_b}{2}} \\ &= \frac{e^{-j\frac{2\pi f T_b}{2}} - e^{+j\frac{2\pi f T_b}{2}}}{-j2\pi f} \end{aligned}$$

$$= \frac{e^{j\pi f T_b} - e^{-j\pi f T_b}}{j2\pi f}$$

$$= \frac{[e^{j\pi f T_b} - e^{-j\pi f T_b}]_{f=T_b}}{j2\pi f T_b}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 a &= \frac{\sin \pi f T_b}{\pi f T_b} \times T_b \\
 &= T_b \operatorname{sinc}(f T_b) \\
 X(f) &= T_b \operatorname{sinc}(f T_b)
 \end{aligned}
 \quad \left| \begin{array}{l} \text{since} \\ \operatorname{sinc} \theta = \frac{e^{j\theta} - e^{-j\theta}}{2j} \\ \operatorname{sinc} \theta = \frac{\sin \theta}{\theta} \\ \frac{\sin \theta}{\theta} = \frac{\sin(\pi x)}{\pi x} \end{array} \right.$$

Step 2

For auto correlation $R_A(n)$

$$\text{W.K.T for unipolar, } A_L = \begin{cases} a & \text{for bit '1'} \\ 0 & \text{for bit '0'} \end{cases}$$

Probability of A_L for large sequence

$$P(A_L = 0) = P(A_L = 1) = 1/2$$

Now auto correlation, [Average Auto Correlation function]

$$R_A[n] = E[A_L A_{L-n}]$$

↳ estimation with current &
shifted version.

i) for $n=0$, we may write

$$R_A(n) = E[A_L \cdot A_{L+0}]$$

$$R_A(n) = E[A_L^2] \dots$$

Estimation for

$$\text{continuous fn, } E[x^2] = \int x^2 f(x) dx$$

$$\text{discrete fn, } E[x^2] = \sum x^2 p(x)$$

bit	A_L	A_L^2	$P(A_L^2)$
0	0	0	1/2
1	a	a^2	1/2
$\therefore E[x^2] = E[A_L^2] =$		$\xrightarrow{(0^2)P(A_L=0)+(a^2)P(A_L=a)}$	
		$= 0 + \frac{a^2}{2}$	

$$R_A = E[x^2] = \frac{a^2}{2}$$

$$\boxed{R_A = \frac{a^2}{2}} \quad \text{for } n=0.$$

ii) for $n \neq 0$, The product $A_L A_{L-n}$ has four possible values such as 0, 0, 0 and a^2

bit	A_L	A_{L-n}	$A_L A_{L-n}$	P
00	0	0	0	1/4
01	0	a	0	1/4
10	a	0	0	1/4
11	a	a	a^2	1/4

$$E[x^2] = E[A_L A_{L-n}]$$

$$R_{A_L A_{L-n}} = \sum A_L A_{L-n} P(x)$$

$$R_{A_L A_{L-n}} = 0(1/4) + 0(1/4) + 0(1/4) + a^2(1/4)$$

$$\therefore \boxed{R_{A_L A_{L-n}} = \frac{a^2}{4}} \quad n \neq 0.$$

∴ Autocorrelation function $R_A(n)$ can be expressed as

$$R_A(n) = \begin{cases} a^2/2 & , \text{ for } n=0 \\ a^2/4 & , \text{ for } n \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

Step 3

To find PSD, apply $X(f)$ and $R_A(n)$ to Wiener Khintchine equation.

Power spectral
density of discrete
PAM signal

$$P(f) = \frac{1}{T_b} |X(f)|^2 \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} R_A(n) e^{-j2\pi f n T_b}$$

$$= \frac{1}{T_b} (T_b^2 \text{sinc}^2(f T_b)) \left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} R_A(n) e^{-j2\pi f n T_b} \right]$$

$$+ \sum_{\substack{n=-\infty \\ n \neq 0}}^{\infty} R_A(n) e^{-j2\pi f n T_b} \right]$$

$$= \frac{T_b^2}{T_b} \text{sinc}^2(f T_b) \left[\frac{a^2}{2} e^0 + \sum_{\substack{n=-\infty \\ n \neq 0}}^{\infty} \frac{a^2}{4} e^{-j2\pi f n T_b} \right]$$

$$= T_b \text{sinc}^2(f T_b) \left[\frac{a^2}{2} + \frac{a^2}{4} \sum_{\substack{n=-\infty \\ n \neq 0}}^{\infty} e^{-j2\pi f n T_b} \right]$$

$$= \frac{T_b a^2}{2} \text{sinc}^2(f T_b) + \frac{a^2}{4} T_b \text{sinc}^2(f T_b) \sum_{\substack{n=-\infty \\ n \neq 0}}^{\infty} e^{-j2\pi f n T_b}$$

$$= \frac{a^2}{2} T_b \text{sinc}^2(f T_b) + \frac{a^2}{4} T_b \text{sinc}^2(f T_b) \left[\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-j2\pi f n T_b} - 1 \right]$$

(removing $n \neq 0$ term)
subtract 1

$$= \frac{a^2}{2} T_b \text{sinc}^2(f T_b) - \frac{a^2}{4} T_b \text{sinc}^2(f T_b)$$

$$+ \frac{a^2}{4} T_b \text{sinc}^2(f T_b) \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-j2\pi f n T_b}$$

$$\text{P4)} = \frac{a^2}{4} T_b \text{sinc}^2(f T_b) + \frac{a^2}{4} T_b \text{sinc}^2(f T_b) \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-j2\pi f n T_b}$$

Using Poisson's formula,

$$\text{i.e. } \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-j2\pi f n T_b} = \frac{1}{T_b} \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(f - \frac{m}{T_b})$$

$\delta(f) \rightarrow$
Dirac
Delta function
at $f=0$

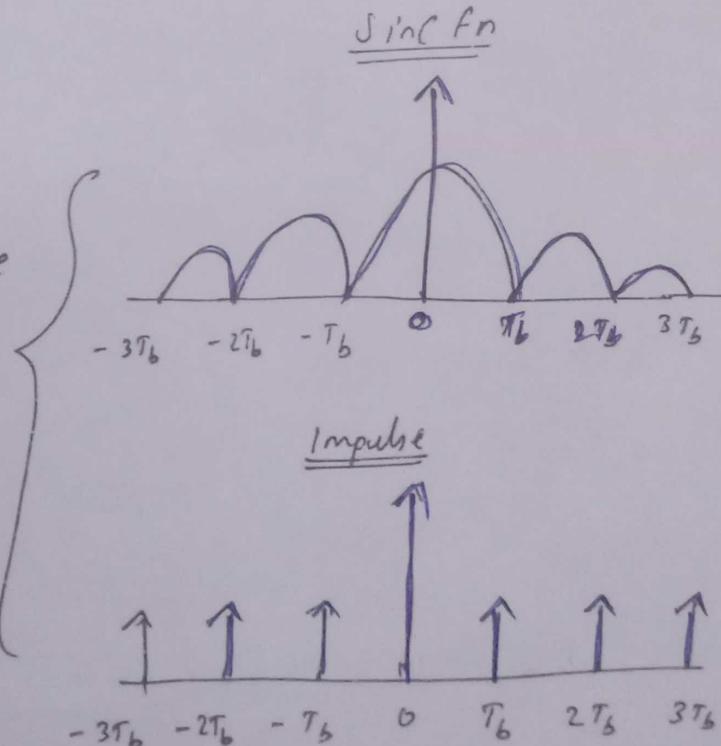
so PSD will be

$$P(f) = \frac{a^2 T_b}{4} \operatorname{sinc}^2(f T_b) + \frac{a^2 T_b}{4} \left[\sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(f - \frac{m}{T_b}) \right]$$

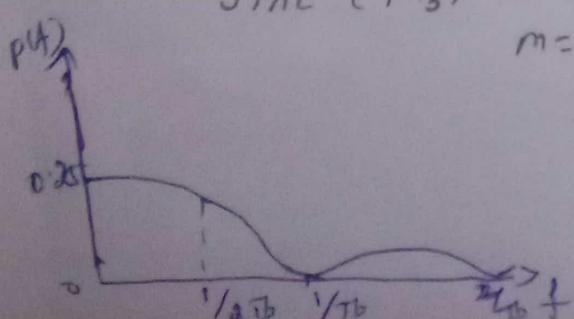
$$= \frac{a^2 T_b}{4} \operatorname{sinc}^2(f T_b) + \frac{a^2}{4} \operatorname{sinc}^2(f T_b) \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(f - \frac{m}{T_b})$$

2

Multiplying both
sinc and impulse
function
result in 0 at
null terms.



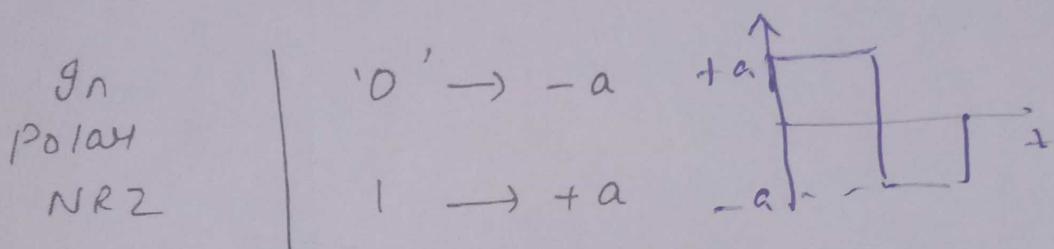
$$\text{so } \operatorname{sinc}^2(f T_b) \times \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(f - \frac{m}{T_b}) = \delta(f)$$



$$P(f) = \frac{a^2 T_b}{4} \sin^2(f T_b) + \frac{a^2}{4} \delta(f)$$

The second term ' $\frac{a^2}{4} \delta(f)$ ' is an DC component and it leads to distortion in signal.

Power spectral density of polar NRZ



Inr to PSD of unipolar, FT8 auto correlation has to be calculated.

$$\xrightarrow{\text{W.K.T}} X(f) = T_b \operatorname{sinc}(f T_b) \quad (\text{from FT8 Unipolar})$$

For polar,

$$A_L = \begin{cases} +a & , \text{ for '1'} \\ -a & , \text{ for '0'} \end{cases}$$

Auto Correlation

$$R_A(n) = E[A_L \cdot A_{L-n}]$$

For $n=0$,

$$R_A(0) = E[A_L \cdot A_L] = E[A_L^2]$$

	A_L	A_L^2	Prob
1	a	a^2	$1/2$
0	$-a$	a^2	$1/2$

$$R_A(0) = \sum A_L^2 P(x)$$

$$= a^2 (1/2) + a^2 (1/2)$$

$$\boxed{R_A(0) = a^2} \quad \text{for } n=0$$

ii) for $n \neq 0$

$$R_A(n) = E[A_L \cdot A_{L-n}]$$

A_L	A_{L-n}	$A_L \cdot A_{L-n}$	Prob	bit
$-a$	$-a$	$+a^2$	$1/4$	00
$-a$	a	$-a^2$	$1/4$	01
a	$-a$	$-a^2$	$1/4$	10
a	a	$+a^2$	$1/4$	11

$$R_A(n) = a^2 (1/4) + (-a^2)(1/4) + (-a^2)(1/4) + a^2 (1/4)$$

$$\boxed{R_A(n) = 0} \quad \text{for } n \neq 0.$$

∴ Auto correlation

$$R_A = \begin{cases} a^2, & n=0 \\ 0, & n \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

Now PSD

$$P(f) = \frac{1}{T_b} |x(f)|^2 \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} R_A(n) e^{-j2\pi f n T_b}$$

waveform has small DC value. It contains most of the power for most of the power for DC to bit rate ($\frac{1}{T_b}$)

$$\frac{1}{T_b} \left[\pi T_b \operatorname{sinc}(f T_b) \right]^2 \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} R_A(n) e^{-j 2\pi f n T_b}$$

$$= \pi T_b \operatorname{sinc}^2(f T_b) \left\{ \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} R_A(n) e^{-j 2\pi f n T_b} + \sum_{n=-\infty, n \neq 0}^{\infty} R_A(n) e^{-j 2\pi f n T_b} \right\}$$

$$= \pi T_b \operatorname{sinc}^2(f T_b) \left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} R_A(n) e^{-j 2\pi f n T_b} + 0 \right]$$

$$= \pi T_b \operatorname{sinc}^2(f T_b) [a^2 \cdot e^0 + 0]$$

$$\boxed{P(f) = a^2 \pi T_b \operatorname{sinc}^2(f T_b)}$$

(-) PSD of NRZ bipolar format

Step 1 : FT of NRZ (Pseudo binary code)

$$X(f) = \pi T_b \operatorname{sinc}(f T_b)$$

for bipolar format, NRZ

$$A_L = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for symbol '0'} \\ +a & \\ -a & \text{for symbol '1'} \end{cases}$$

Auto Correlation

$$R_A(n) = E[A_L \cdot A_{L-n}]$$

i) for $n=0$, $R_A = E[A_L \cdot A_L]$

$$= E[A_L^2]$$

A_L	A_L^2	Prob
for $0 \leftarrow 0$	$\frac{0}{a^2}$	$\frac{1/2}{1/4}$
for i	$\begin{bmatrix} a \\ -a \end{bmatrix}$	$a^2 \quad \frac{1/4}{1/4}$

$$\begin{aligned}
 R_A(0) &= 0(1/2) + a^2(1/4) \\
 &\quad + a^2(1/4) \\
 &= \frac{a^2}{2}
 \end{aligned}$$

(ii) for $n=1$,

	A_L	A_{L-1}	$A_L A_{L-1}$	Prob
00	0	0	0	1/4
01	0	$\pm a$	0	1/4
10	$\pm a$	0	0	1/4
11	$\begin{bmatrix} \pm a & \pm a \end{bmatrix}$			
	$\begin{cases} -a \\ +a \end{cases}$	$\begin{cases} +a \\ -a \end{cases}$	$-a^2$	1/8
	$\begin{cases} +a \\ -a \end{cases}$	$\begin{cases} -a \\ +a \end{cases}$	$-a^2$	1/8

$$\begin{aligned}
 R_A &= 0(1/4) + 0(1/4) + 0(1/4) \\
 &\quad - a^2(1/8) - a^2(1/8)
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\boxed{R_A(1) = -\frac{a^2}{4}}$$

(iii) for $n>1$

	A_L	A_{L-n}	$A_L A_{L-n}$	Prob
00	0	0	0	1/4
01	0	$\pm a$	0	1/4
10	$\pm a$	0	0	1/4

$$11 \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{cccc} +a & +a & a^2 & 1/16 \\ -a & +a & -a^2 & 1/16 \\ +a & -a & -a^2 & 1/16 \\ -a & -a & a^2 & 1/16 \end{array} \right.$$

$$R_A = 0(1/4) + 0(1/4) + 0(1/4) \\ + a^2(1/16) - a^2(1/16) - a^2(\frac{1}{16}) \\ + a^2(\frac{1}{16})$$

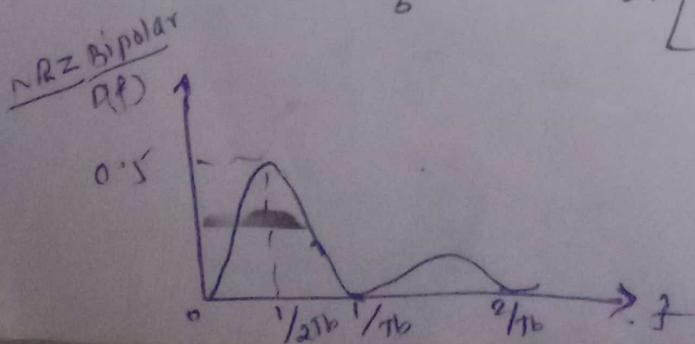
~~Answer~~

$$\boxed{R_A = 0} \quad \text{for } n > 1$$

$$\therefore R_A = \begin{cases} a^2/2, & n=0 \\ -a^2/4, & n=\pm 1 \\ 0, & \text{for } n \geq 2 \end{cases}$$

NOW PSD

$$P(f) = \frac{1}{T_b} |X(f)|^2 \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} R_A(n) e^{-j2\pi f n T_b} \\ = T_b \operatorname{sinc}^2(f T_b) \left[R_A(0) + R_A(1) e^{-j2\pi f T_b} \right. \\ \left. + R_A(-1) e^{-j2\pi f T_b} \right. \\ \left. + R_A(n \geq 2) e^{-j2\pi f n T_b} \right] \\ = T_b \operatorname{sinc}^2(f T_b) \left[R_A(0) + \left(\frac{-a^2}{4} \right) \left(e^{-j2\pi f T_b} + e^{j2\pi f T_b} \right) \right]$$



Peak power at $\frac{1}{2T_b}$

Scanned with CamScanner

$$= T_b \operatorname{sinc}^2(fT_b) \left[\frac{a^2}{2} - \frac{a^2}{2} \left(\frac{e^{-j2\pi f T_b} + e^{+j2\pi f T_b}}{2} \right) \right]$$

$$= T_b \operatorname{sinc}^2(fT_b) \left[\frac{a^2}{2} \right] \left[1 - \cos(2\pi f T_b) \right]$$

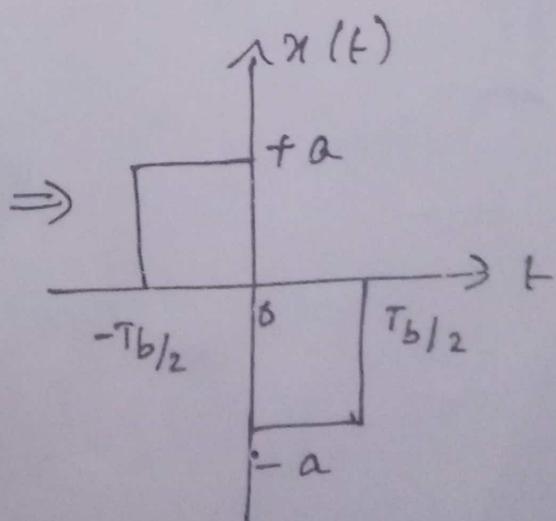
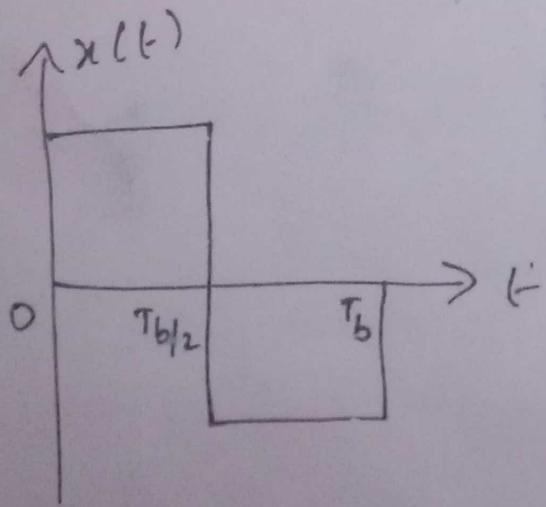
Since $\cos \theta = \frac{e^{j\theta} + e^{-j\theta}}{2}$

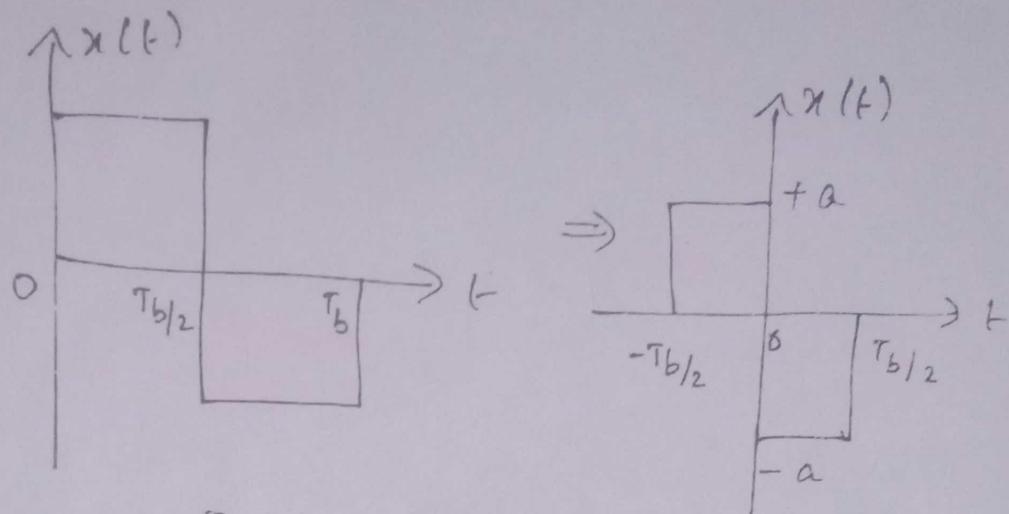
$$= T_b \operatorname{sinc}^2(fT_b) \cdot \frac{a^2}{2} \left[1 - \cos(2\pi f T_b) \right]$$

$$= \frac{a^2 T_b \operatorname{sinc}^2(fT_b)}{2} \left[2 \sin^2(\pi f T_b) \right]$$

$P(f) = a^2 T_b \operatorname{sinc}^2(fT_b) \cdot \sin^2(\pi f T_b)$

PSD of Manchester polar





Step 1

$$x(f) = \int_{-T_b/2}^0 (1) e^{-j2\pi f t} dt + \int_0^{T_b/2} (-1) e^{-j2\pi f t} dt$$

$$= \left[\frac{e^{-j2\pi f t}}{-j2\pi f} \right]_{-T_b/2}^0 + \left[\frac{-e^{-j2\pi f t}}{-j2\pi f} \right]_0^{T_b/2}$$

$$= \frac{e^0 - e^{-j2\pi f(-\frac{T_b}{2})}}{-j2\pi f} + \frac{-e^{-j2\pi f(\frac{T_b}{2})} + e^0}{-j2\pi f}$$

$$= \frac{1}{-j2\pi f} \left\{ 1 - e^{+j\pi f T_b} - e^{-j\pi f T_b} + 1 \right\}$$

$$= \frac{1}{-j2\pi f} \left[2 - e^{+j\pi f T_b} - e^{-j\pi f T_b} \right]$$

$$= -\frac{1}{j\pi f} \left[1 - \left(\frac{e^{j\pi f T_b} + e^{-j\pi f T_b}}{2} \right) \right]$$

$$= -\frac{1}{j\pi f} \left[1 - \cos(\pi f T_b) \right]$$

$$= -\frac{2 \sin^2(\frac{\pi f T_b}{2})}{j\pi f}$$

$$= -(-j)2 \frac{\sin^2(\frac{\pi f T_b}{2})}{\pi f}$$

$$= \frac{j T_b \sin \frac{\pi f T_b}{2}}{\frac{\pi f}{2} T_b} \sin \frac{\pi f T_b}{2}$$

$$\boxed{X(f) = j T_b \operatorname{sinc}\left(\frac{f T_b}{2}\right) \cdot \sin \frac{\pi f T_b}{2}}$$

Auto Correlation

$$R_A(n) = \begin{cases} a^2 & , n=0 \\ 0 & , n \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

PSD

$$P(f) = \frac{1}{T_b} |x(f)|^2 \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} R_A(n) e^{-j2\pi f n T_b}$$

$$= \frac{1}{T_b} |x(f)|^2 \left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} + \sum_{n=-\infty, n \neq 0}^{\infty} \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{T_b} |x(f)|^2 \left[\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} R_A(n) e^{-j2\pi f n T_b} + 0 \right]$$

Since $R_A(n)=0$
for $n \neq 0$

$$= \frac{1}{T_b} T_b^2 \text{sinc}^2\left(\frac{f T_b}{2}\right) \sin^2\left(\frac{\pi f T_b}{2}\right) [a^2 \cdot e^0]$$

$$P(f) = T_b a^2 \text{sinc}^2\left(\frac{f T_b}{2}\right) \sin^2\left(\frac{\pi f T_b}{2}\right)$$

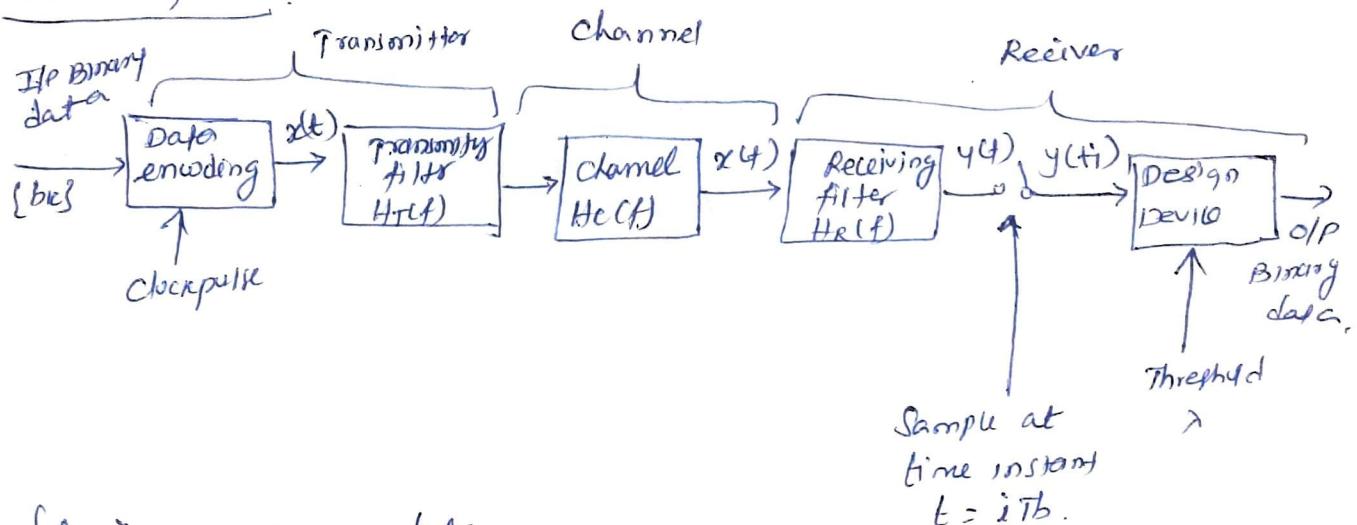
Unit - III

- I -

Base band transmission

The signals are transmitted without any modulation over the channel in baseband transmission.

Block diagram :



$\{b_k\}$ - I/P Binary data

$x(t) \rightarrow$ o/p of encoder pulse waveform

$$x(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} A_k g(t - kT_b) \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

T_b is the duration of each input binary bit

$g(t)$ is the shaping pulse.

and

$$A_k = \begin{cases} +a & \text{if } b_k = 1 \\ -a & \text{if } b_k = 0 \end{cases}$$

Let $H_T(f)$ is the combined transfer function of the Transmitting filter

$H_C(f)$ is the transfer function of the channel

$H_R(f)$ is the combined transfer function of the Receiving filter

$y(t)$ is the o/p of Receiving filter and it is noisy replica of the transmitted signal $x(t)$.

The signal $y(t)$ is sampled synchronously with the transmitter with sampling instants $\boxed{t = iT_b}$

The sampling instants are synchronous to the clock pulses at the transmitter.

The $y(t)$ is given to decision device and it compare the input signal with threshold ' γ '. o/p of decision device is

if $y(t_i) > \gamma$ select symbol '1' ————— (2)
 If $y(t_i) < \gamma$ select symbol '0'.

Intersymbol interference problem

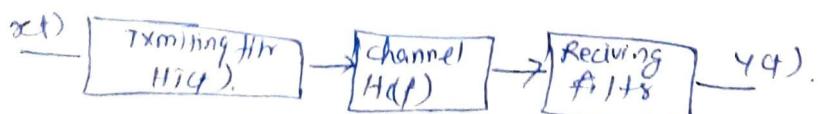
From Receiving filter o/p, $y(t)$ can be given in terms of $A_k g(t)$ as

$$y(t) = \mu \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} A_k g(t - kT_b) \quad \text{————— (3)}$$

μ - is the scaling factor

$g(t)$ is the shape different from that of $g(t)$,

From Block diagram, we can observe that $A_k g(t)$ is the signal applied to the input of cascade of transmitting filter, channel and receiving filter.



O/P of Cascade connection is

$$\mu A_k g(t)$$

Let Fourier Transform of $g(t)$ be $G(f)$.
and $p(t)$ be $P(f)$.

Then in Frequency domain we can write

$$\mu A_k p(f) = H(f) A_k G(f) \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

and

~~$$H(f) = H_T(f) H_C(f) H_R(f) \quad \text{--- (5)}$$~~

$H(f)$ is the combined transform function of Transmitting filter, Channel and Receiving filter [cascade connection].

Sub (5) in (4)

$$\mu A_k p(f) = H_T(f) H_C(f) H_R(f) A_k G(f)$$

$$\mu p(f) = H_T(f) H_C(f) H_R(f) G(f) \quad \text{--- (6)}$$

The Receiving filter output is sampled at $t_i = iT_b$.

From equation (3), at $t = iT_b$ we can write.

$$\begin{aligned} y(t_i) &= \mu \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} A_k p(iT_b - kT_b) \\ &= \mu \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} A_k p[(i-k)T_b] \quad \text{--- (7)} \end{aligned}$$

Sub $k=i$ and $k \neq i$ in equation (7) and
rearrange the above equation (7) and we get

$$y(t_i) = \underbrace{\mu A_i p(0)}_{\text{1st term}} + \mu \underbrace{\sum_{\substack{k=-\infty \\ k \neq i}}^{\infty} A_k p[(i-k)T_b]}_{\text{2nd term}} \quad \text{--- (8)}$$

First term represents the value of $y(t_i)$ when $i=k$,

$p(t)$ is normalized such that

$p(0)=1$, hence the above equation becomes

$$y(t_i) = \mu A_i + \sum_{\substack{k=-\infty \\ k \neq i}}^{\infty} A_k p[(i-k)T_b] \quad \text{--- (9)}$$

and $i = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \dots$

Conclusion :

- * The first term in above equation (9) is μA_i . It is the contribution of the i^{th} transmitted bit.
- * The second term represents the residual effect of all other bits transmitted before and ~~and~~ after sampling instant t_i .

Definition of ISI

The presence of outputs due to other bits (symbols) interfere with the output of required bit (symbol). This effect is called intersymbol interference.

Note: We have not considered the effect of channel noise, actually, channel noise and ISI both interfere the transmitted signal.

If the intersymbol interference is absent, then the second term will not be present in eqn (9)

$$y(t_i) = \mu A_i \quad \rightarrow 10$$

At $t = iT_b$, the correct bit is A_i . Observe that it is decoded correctly in absence of ISI. It is not possible to eliminate the second term (ISI) totally. So the ISI can be reduced by proper design of

pulse spectrum $G(f)$

transmit filter $H_T(f)$

receive filter $H_R(f)$

channel $H_C(f)$.

Definition of ISI

The presence of outputs due to other bits (symbols) interfere with the output of required bit (symbol). This effect is called Intersymbol Interference (ISI). Here note that we have not considered the effect of channel noise. Actually, channel noise and ISI both interfere the transmitted signal.

- If the intersymbol interference is absent, then the second term will not be present in equation (3.2.7) i.e.,

$$y(t_i) = \mu A_i \quad \dots (3.2.10)$$

At $t = i T_b$, the correct bit is A_i . Observe that it is decoded correctly in absence of ISI. It is not possible to eliminate the second term of equation (3.2.7) (and hence ISI) totally. The ISI can be reduced by proper design of pulse spectrum $G(f)$, transmit filter $H_T(f)$, receive filter $H_R(f)$ and the channel $H_C(f)$. We will discuss some of these issues in subsequent sections.

Review Questions

1. What do you understand by Intersymbol Interference (ISI) ?

AU : Dec.-05, Marks 6, May-09, Marks 4

2. Describe the baseband transmission system with a neat block diagram. AU : Dec.-09, Marks 16

3. Explain in detail M-ary base band system.

AU : May-10, Marks 10

4. Explain intersymbol interference (ISI). How it is avoided ?

3.3 Nyquist Criterion for Distortionless Transmission

AU : May-04, 05, 09, 11, 13, 14, Dec.-04, 05, 06

3.3.1 Nyquist Pulse Shaping Criterion

Time Domain Criterion

From equation (3.2.9) we know that the second term (summation) must be zero to eliminate effect of ISI. This is possible if the received pulse $p(t)$ is controlled such that,

$$p[(i-k)T_b] = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } i = k \\ 0 & \text{for } i \neq k \end{cases} \quad \dots (3.3.1)$$

If $p(t)$ satisfies the above condition, then we get a signal which is free from ISI. i.e.,

$$y(t_i) = \mu A_i$$

Hence equation (3.3.1) gives the condition for perfect reception in absence of noise. Equation (3.3.1) is the condition in time domain. This condition gives more useful criteria in frequency domain.

Digital Criterion in Frequency Domain

- Let $p(nT_b)$ represent the impulses at which $p(t)$ is sampled for decision. These samples are taken at the rate of T_b . Fourier spectrum of these impulses is given as

$$P_\delta(f) = f_b \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} P(f - nf_b) \quad \dots (3.3.2)$$

This means the spectrums of $p(t)$ are periodic with period f_b . Here note that the sampling frequency (instants) is f_b . Here $P_\delta(f)$ represents the spectrum of $p(nT_b)$ and $P(f)$ is the spectrum of $p(t)$.

- We can think of $p(nT_b)$ as the infinite length of impulses with period T_b , which are weighted with amplitudes of $p(t)$. i.e.,

$$p_\delta(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} p(nT_b) \delta(t - nT_b) \quad \dots (3.3.3)$$

- Fourier transform of $p_\delta(t)$ becomes,

$$P_\delta(f) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p_\delta(t) e^{-j2\pi ft} dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} p(nT_b) \delta(t - nT_b) \right] e^{-j2\pi ft} dt$$

- Let $n = i - k$ in above equation,

$$P_\delta(f) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} p[(i-k)T_b] \delta[t - (i-k)T_b] e^{-j2\pi ft} dt$$

- Now let us apply the condition of equation (3.3.1) to above equation,

$$P_\delta(f) = \begin{cases} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(0) \delta(t) e^{-j2\pi ft} dt & \text{for } i = k \\ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} 0 \delta(t) e^{-j2\pi ft} dt & \text{for } i \neq k \end{cases}$$

$$\therefore P_\delta(f) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(0) \delta(t) e^{-j2\pi ft} dt \quad \text{for } i = k = p(0) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t) e^{-j2\pi ft} dt$$

An integration in above equation is the Fourier transform of $\delta(t)$, which is 1. Hence,

$$P_\delta(f) = p(0) \quad \text{for } i = k \quad \dots (3.3.4)$$

by normalization of $p(0)$.

- Hence equation (3.2.2) becomes (with $P_\delta(f) = 1$),

$$1 = f_b \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} P(f - nf_b)$$

$$\text{or} \quad \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} P(f - nf_b) = \frac{1}{f_b} \quad \dots (3.3.5)$$

Since $\frac{1}{f_b} = T_b$,

$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} P(f - n f_b) = T_b$$

... (3.3.6)

This is the frequency domain condition for zero ISI. Above equation is called Nyquist pulse shaping criterion for baseband transmission.

3.3.2 Ideal Nyquist Channel (Ideal Solution to ISI)

- Spectrum of $p(t)$** : We will now derive the function $p(t)$ which confirms to Nyquist criterion and eliminates ISI. Equation 3.3.6 represents the spectrum which repeats with period f_b and it has amplitude of T_b . This spectrum is shown in Fig. 3.3.1. $P(f)$ shows the spectrum of the expected signal $p(t)$. It can be represented using *rect* function as,

$$P(f) = \frac{1}{f_b} \operatorname{rect}\left(\frac{f}{f_b}\right)$$

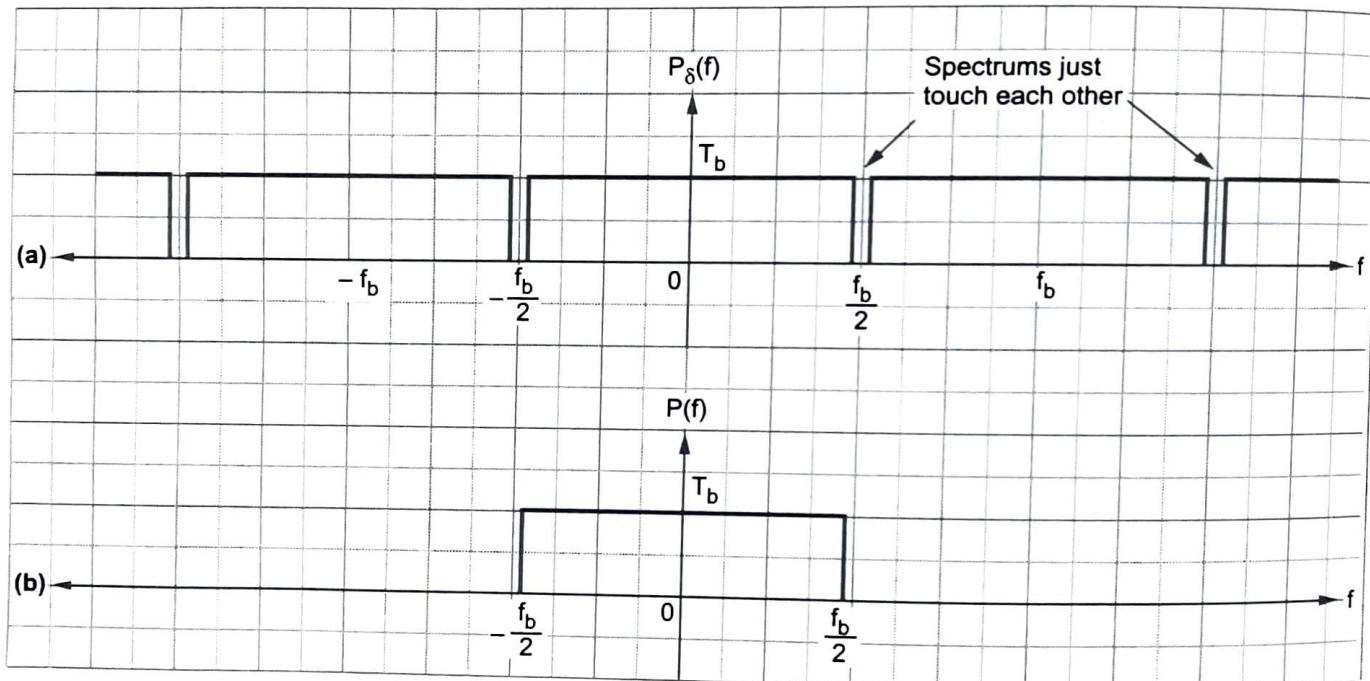


Fig. 3.3.1 (a) Spectrum of sampled signal

(b) Spectrum of $p(t)$

- To obtain $p(t)$ from spectrum** : Inverse fourier transform of above function can be obtained from standard fourier transform pairs as,

$$\operatorname{sinc}(f_b t) \xleftrightarrow{FT} \frac{1}{f_b} \operatorname{rect}\left(\frac{f}{f_b}\right)$$

i.e., $p(t) = \operatorname{sinc}(f_b t)$

The bandwidth of the pulse can be represented by $B_0 = \frac{f_b}{2}$. Then above equation becomes,

$$p(t) = \text{sinc}(2B_0 t)$$

... (3.3.7)

The sinc function can also be represented as,

$$p(t) = \frac{\sin(2\pi B_0 t)}{2\pi B_0} \quad \dots (3.3.8)$$

- **Nyquist bandwidth :** Here B_0 is called the Nyquist bandwidth. The Nyquist bandwidth is the minimum transmission bandwidth for zero ISI.
- Fig. 3.3.2 illustrates how sinc pulse produces zero ISI. Fig. 3.3.2 shows the three sinc pulses transmitted successively.

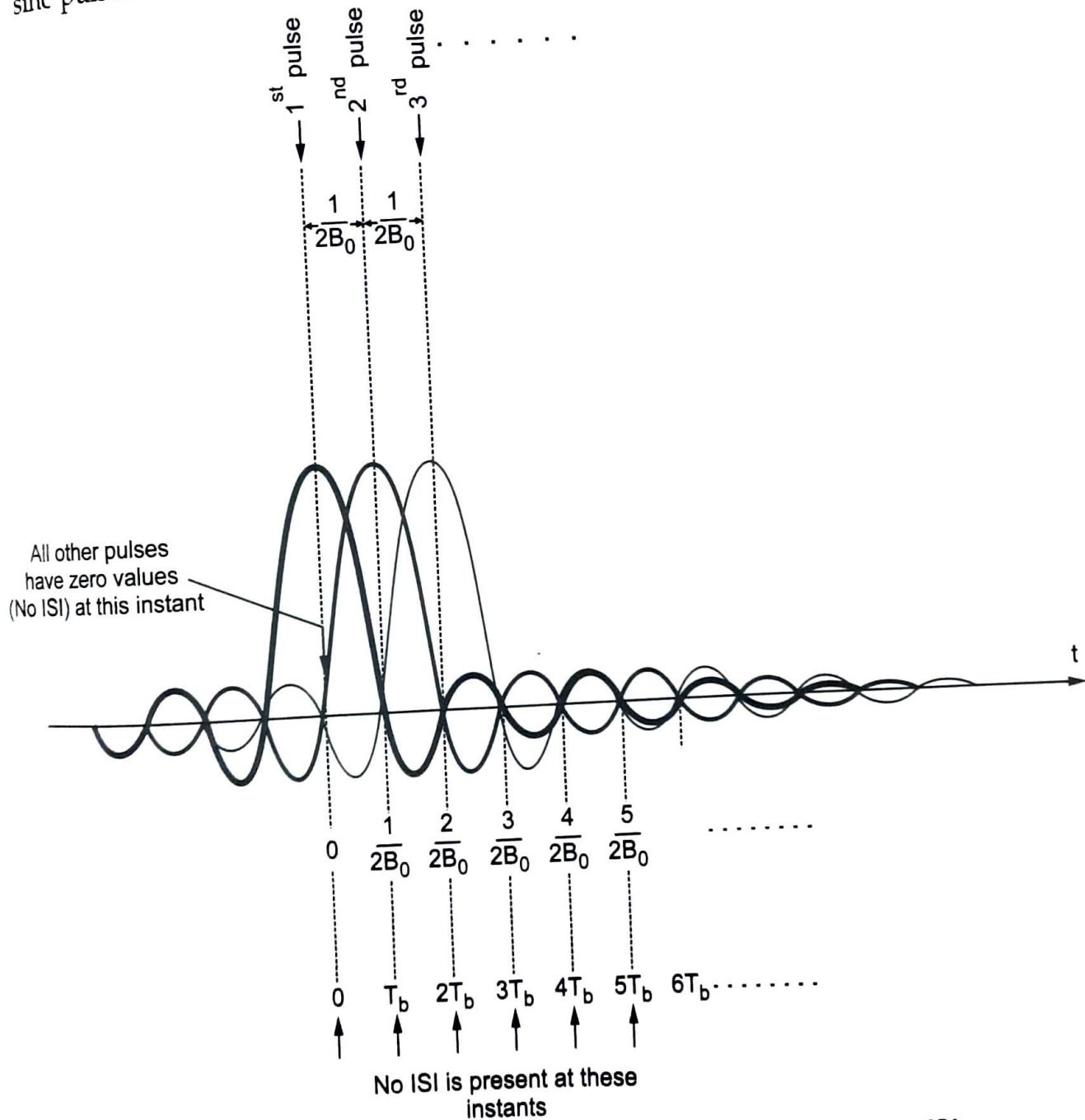


Fig. 3.3.2 Sinc pulse for baseband transmission produces zero ISI

One sinc pulse is transmitted for one bit. Hence the sinc pulses are transmitted at $t = 0, T_b, 2T_b, \dots$ and so on. In the figure, observe that at $t = 0$, all the sinc pulses have zero values except the transmitted pulse. Hence ISI will be zero if we sample the first pulse at $t = 0$. Similarly at $t = T_b$, the second pulse have nonzero value and all other pulses have zero values. Hence ISI will be zero if we sample the 2nd pulse at $t = T_b$. In general we can say that ISI will be zero if we sample the pulses at $t = 0, T_b, 2T_b, \dots$ and so on.

From Fig. 3.3.2, the Nyquist bandwidth B_0 is related to bit period T_b as,

$$\text{Bit period, } T_b = \frac{1}{2B_0} \quad \dots (3.3.9)$$

$$\text{Or Nyquist bandwidth, } B_0 = \frac{1}{2T_b} \quad \dots (3.3.10)$$

$$\text{Or } B_0 = \frac{\text{Bit rate}}{2} \quad \dots (3.3.11)$$

Thus Nyquist bandwidth is half the bit rate, $\frac{1}{T_b}$.

- Ideal sinc pulse physically not possible :**

Just now we have seen that sinc pulse is ideal for zero ISI in baseband transmission. Now let us see whether transmission of exact sinc pulse is physically possible. From equation (3.3.7), the sinc pulse is given as,

$$p(t) = \text{sinc}(2B_0 t)$$

The Fourier transform of the sinc function is given as,

$$P(f) = \frac{1}{2B_0} \text{rect}\left(\frac{f}{2B_0}\right) \quad \dots (3.3.12)$$

The 'rect' function indicates a rectangular pulse. This pulse is given as,

$$P(f) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2B_0} & \text{for } -B_0 < f \leq B_0 \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases} \quad \dots (3.3.13)$$

This pulse spectrum is shown in Fig. 3.3.3.

In the Fig. 3.3.3 observe that the frequency response of the sinc pulse is flat from $-B_0$ to $+B_0$ and zero elsewhere. There are abrupt transitions in the frequencies at $\pm B_0$. Such frequency spectrum is not physically

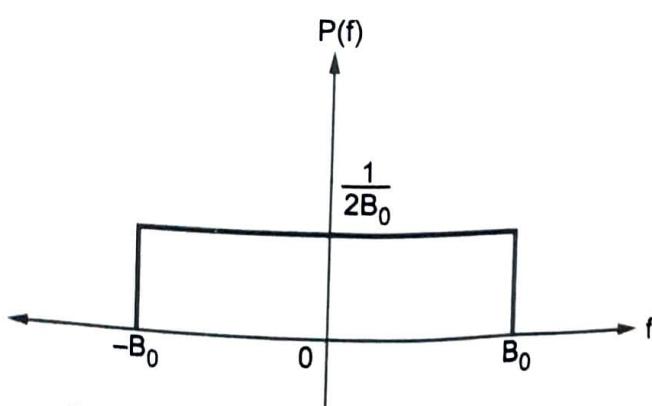


Fig. 3.3.3 Spectrum of the sinc pulse

Digital
realizable. Hence the ideal sinc pulse cannot be physically generated, even though it eliminates ISI completely.

- **Merits of Nyquist channel**

- i) It eliminates an ISI completely.
- ii) The method seems to be most easy.

- **Limitation of Nyquist channel**

- i) The transmission of exact sinc pulse is physically not possible.

3.3.3 Raised Cosine Channel

- **Raised cosine spectrum :** In the raised cosine spectrum, the frequency response $P(f)$ decreases towards zero gradually (That is there is no abrupt transition). The raised cosine spectrum is given as follows :

$$P(f) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2B_0} & \text{for } -f_1 < f < f_1 \\ \frac{1}{4B_0} \left\{ 1 + \cos \left[\frac{\pi(|f| - f_1)}{2B_0 - 2f_1} \right] \right\} & \text{for } f_1 < |f| < 2B_0 - f_1 \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases} \quad \dots (3.3.14)$$

In the above equation, the middle term represents gradual roll off from f_1 to $2B_0 - f_1$. The frequency f_1 and Nyquist bandwidth B_0 are related by the roll off factor. i.e.,

$$\text{Roll off factor, } \alpha = 1 - \frac{f_1}{B_0} \quad \dots (3.3.15)$$

- The frequency spectrum $P(f)$ is plotted in Fig. 3.3.4 for $\alpha = 0, 0.5$ and 1 . This spectrum is normalized on both the scales. Observe that at $\alpha = 0$, there is abrupt transition and it becomes ideal case discussed in previous section. As ' α ' increases the rolloff is slower.

- **Time domain pulse for raised cosine spectrum :** The inverse Fourier transform of the raised cosine spectrum of equation (3.3.14) gives time domain pulse $p(t)$. i.e.,

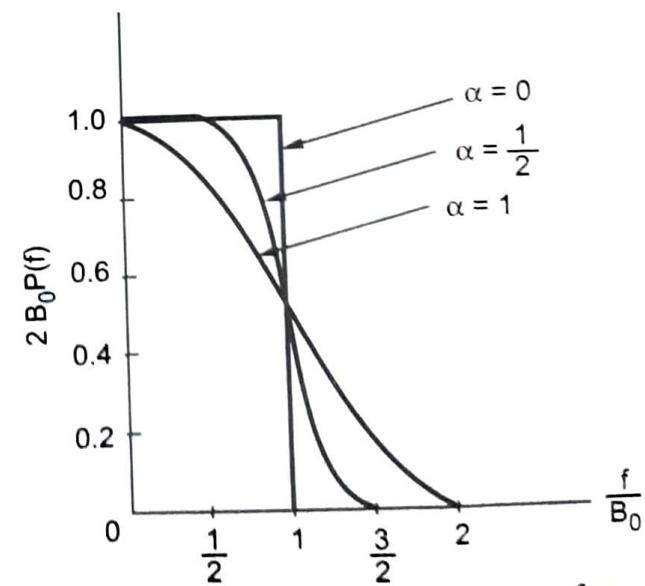


Fig. 3.3.4 Raised cosine spectrum for $\alpha = 0, 0.5$ and 1

$$p(t) = \text{sinc}(2B_0 t) \frac{\cos(2\pi\alpha B_0 t)}{1 - 16\alpha^2 B_0^2 t^2} \quad \dots (3.3.16)$$

Comments

- i) The above pulse function is the product of two functions. The first, i.e. $\text{sinc}(2B_0 t)$ is the sinc pulse. The second factor decreases as $1/|t|^2$.
- ii) Because of the second factor, the abrupt transitions in the frequency domain are avoided.
- iii) The first factor, i.e. sinc function makes $p(t)$ zero at the sampling instants of $t = 0, \pm \frac{1}{2B_0}, \pm \frac{2}{2B_0}, \dots$
That is $t = 0, \pm T_b, \pm 2T_b, \dots$ and so on.
- iv) Fig. 3.3.5 shows the pulse $p(t)$ for $\alpha = 0, 0.5$ and 1 . This pulse is normalized on both the scales. Observe that at $\alpha = 0$, it becomes sinc pulse. Also observe that the pulse becomes zero (for all values of α) at the sampling instants of $\pm T_b, \pm 2T_b, \dots$ Thus it is possible to eliminate ISI by using raised cosine spectrums.
- v) From equation (3.3.14) observe that the spectrum has nonzero values upto $2B_0 - f_1$.

- **Bandwidth required :** Hence the bandwidth required for raised cosine spectrum will be,

$$B = 2B_0 - f_1$$

Consider equation (3.3.15),

$$\alpha = 1 - \frac{f_1}{B_0}$$

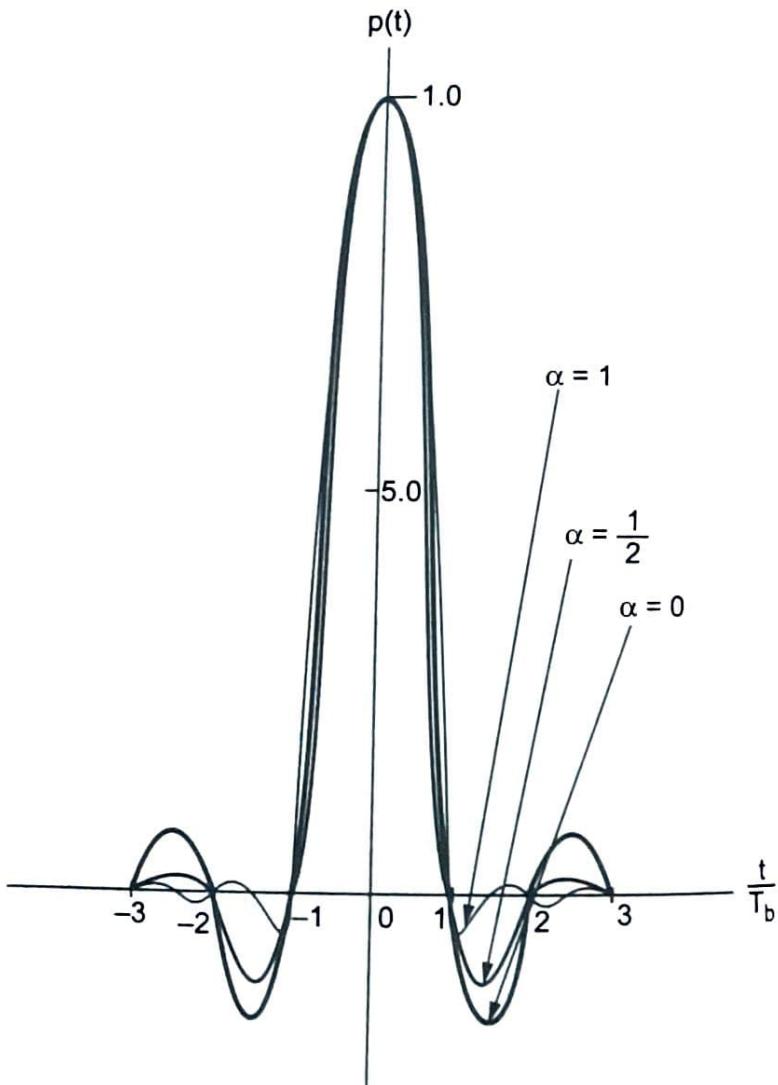


Fig. 3.3.5 Time response of raised cosine spectrum

$$\dots (3.3.17)$$

$$f_1 = B_0 - B_0 \alpha$$

Putting for f_1 in equation (3.3.17) we get,

$$B = 2B_0 - B_0 + B_0 \alpha$$

$$B = B_0(1+\alpha)$$

... (3.3.18)

For $\alpha = 0$, $B = B_0$, this is the case of ideal solution. As α increases, the bandwidth 'B' increases above Nyquist bandwidth. When $\alpha = 1$, $B = 2B_0$ i.e. the bandwidth required by the raised cosine spectrum is double of the Nyquist bandwidth.

Review Questions

1. Explain any one method of ISI control. AU : May-14, Marks 12
2. Explain Nyquist first criterion to minimize ISI. AU : May-13, Marks 16
3. Sketch the time response and frequency response of signal with raised cosine pulse spectrum. AU : May-04, Marks 8; Dec.-09, Marks 16
4. What is meant by the ideal Nyquist channel ? What are its merits and limitations ? AU : Dec.-04, Marks 8
5. Obtain an expression for Nyquist criterion for distortionless baseband transmission for zero intersymbol interference. AU : May-05, 12, Marks 6, May-09, Marks 8, Dec.-05, May-10, Marks 10
6. With necessary expressions, explain the practical difficulties encountered in ideal Nyquist channel and how are they overcome by raised cosine spectrum. AU : Dec.-06, Marks 5
7. Discuss on signal design for ISI elimination. AU : May-11, Marks 8
8. Explain how raised cosine spectrum reduces ISI.

3.4 Correlative Coding to Eliminate ISI

AU : May-12, Dec.-12, 15

- In the previous section we observed that raised cosine spectrum eliminates ISI at the cost of increased transmission bandwidth. From equation 3.3.17 it is clear that bit rate or signaling rate is $2B_0$ in ideal baseband transmission system. But such system is not physically realizable.
- Correlative level coding allows the signaling rate of $2B_0$ in the channel of bandwidth B_0 . This is made physically possible by allowing ISI in the transmitted signal in controlled manner. This ISI is known to the receiver. Hence effects of ISI are eliminated at the receiver.
- The correlative coding is implemented by duobinary signaling and modified duobinary signaling.

Correlative Coding to Eliminate ISI

Let we know that raised cosine spectrum eliminates ISI at the cost of increased transmission BW.

and $B = 2B_0 - f_1$. - [BW required for raise cosine spectrum]

$$\alpha = 1 - \frac{f_1}{B_0}$$

Signaling rate or bit rate is $2B_0$ in ideal base band transmission system. But such system is not physically reliable.

Correlative ^{level} coding allows the signaling rate of $2B_0$ in the channel of BW B_0 .

This is made physically possible by allowing ISI in the transmitted signal in controlled manner.

This ISI is known to the receiver. Hence effect of ISI is eliminated at the receiver.

The correlative coding is implemented by duobinary signaling and modified duobinary signaling.

Duobinary Encoding

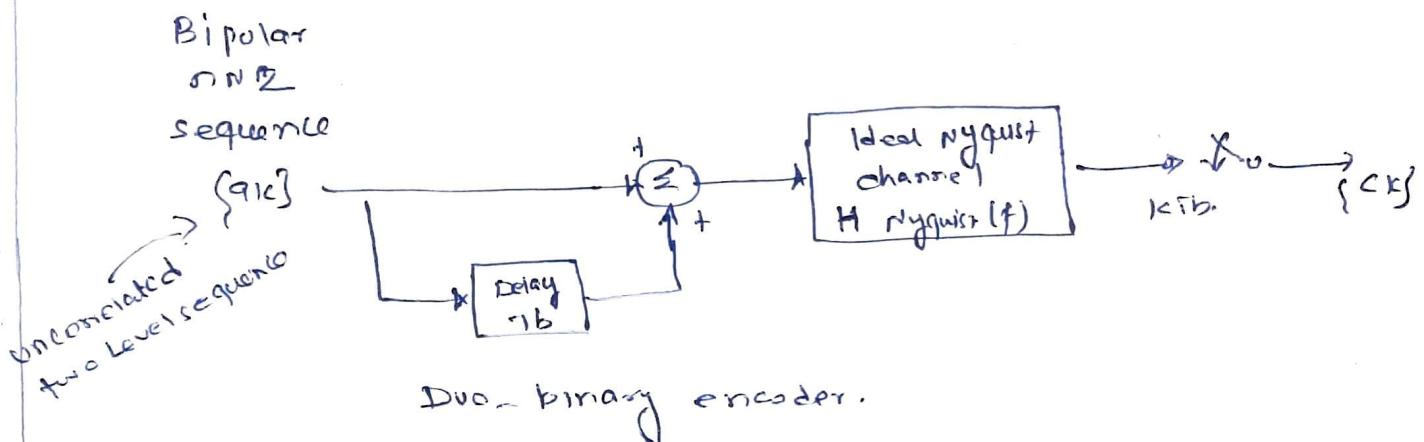
Duo binary encoding reduces the maximum freqy of the base band signal.

Duo \Rightarrow Double the transmission capacity of the binary system.

- Consider the I/P sequence $\{b_{ik}\}$, It contain 1 and 0
- Use of level shifter this sequence is converted into bipolar NRZ sequence $\{a_{ik}\}$.

$$\begin{aligned} a_{ik} &= +1 \text{ if } b_{ik} = 1 \\ a_{ik} &= -1 \text{ if } b_{ik} = 0. \end{aligned} \quad \left. \right\}$$

Encoder:



→ It accepts $\{a_{ik}\}$ and convert into three level signals ie -2, 0 and +2.

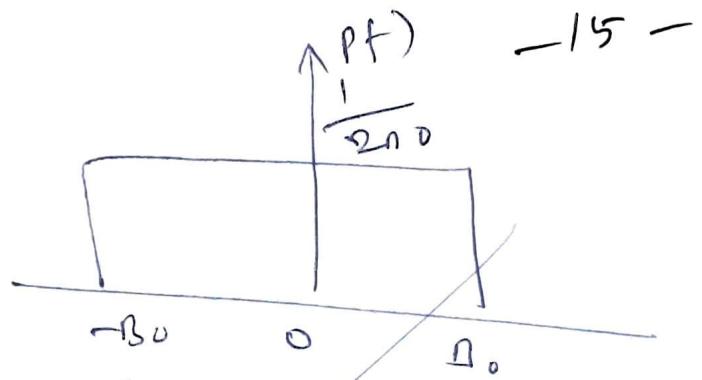
The O/P is expressed as

$$c_{ik} = a_{ik} + a_{ik-1}$$

→ ie it convert two level uncorrelated pulse into three level correlated sequence. This introduce ISI in the signal in the artificial manner to reduce free BW.

Reconstruction

Let \hat{a}_{ik} represents the estimate of a_{ik}
then $\hat{a}_{ik} = c_{ik} - \hat{a}_{ik-1}$



-15-

Design is for $-B_0 = D_0$ and zero error.

This is an abrupt form intro

This shows that if CIC is received with error, then CIC will have error. The error will propagate in the OIP sequence.

Draw Block: Error propagation taking place in the delay.

Frequency Response

Let delay element T_b in block diagram.

Frequency response of delay element is $e^{-j2\pi f T_b}$.

Hence frequency response of delay line filter will be

$$1 + e^{-j2\pi f T_b}$$

The delay line filter is connected in cascade with ideal Nyquist channel. Hence overall,

frequency response of the scheme will be

$$H(f) = \text{Nyquist}(f) [1 + e^{-j2\pi f T_b}]$$

Let rearrange the term in square bracket

$$\begin{aligned}
 H(f) &= H_{\text{Nyquist}}(f) \left[e^{-j\pi f T_b} \cdot e^{j\pi f T_b} + e^{-j\pi f T_b} \cdot e^{-j\pi f T_b} \right] \\
 &= H_{\text{Nyquist}}(f) \left[e^{j\pi f T_b} + e^{-j\pi f T_b} \right] e^{-j\pi f T_b} \\
 &= H_{\text{Nyquist}}(f) \underbrace{\cancel{e^{-j\pi f T_b}}}_{2 \cos(\pi f T_b)} \quad \longrightarrow \textcircled{1}
 \end{aligned}$$

Let we know that .

Spectrum of the sinc pulse.

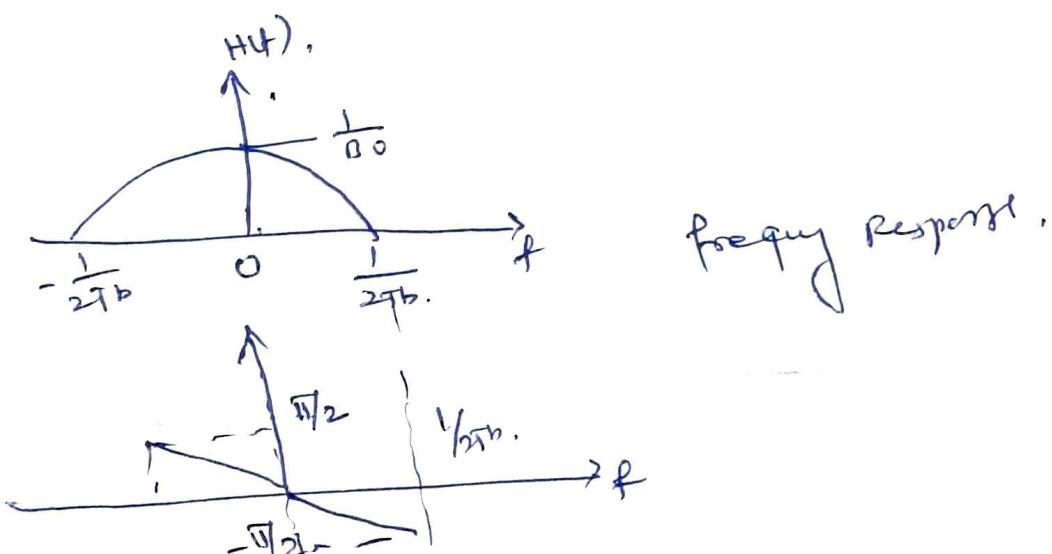
$$H_{\text{Nyquist}}(f) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2B_0} & \text{for } -B_0 \leq f \leq B_0 \\ 0 & \text{else.} \end{cases}$$

With above expression we can write above exp. ①

$$H(f) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{B_0} \cos(\pi f T_b) e^{-j\pi f T_b} & |f| \leq B_0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

$$\text{Here } |H(f)| = \frac{1}{B_0} \cos(\pi f T_b) \quad \text{for } |f| \leq B_0$$

$$\text{and } \angle H(f) = -\pi f T_b.$$

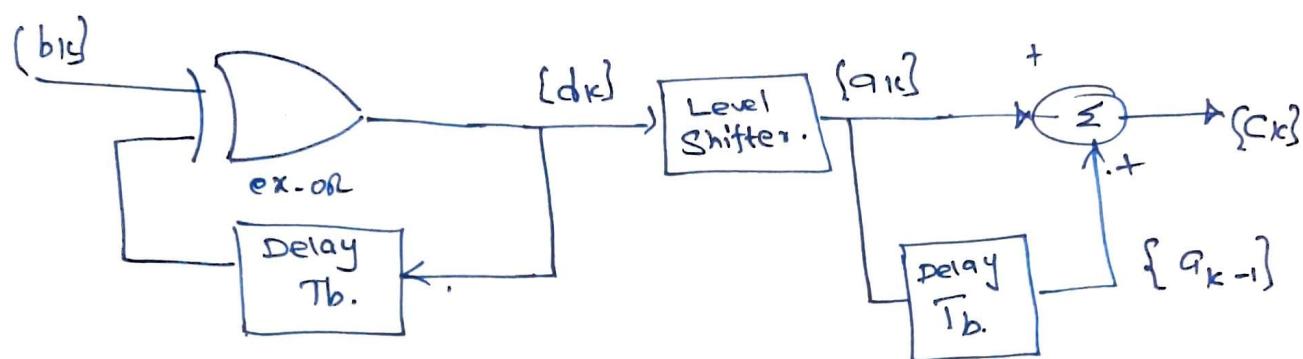


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Duo binary Encoder with Precoder [Differential encoder]

Precoder: Used to avoid error propagation to SLP.

Block diagram



from above diagram

$$d_k = b_k \oplus d_{k-1} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

i.e. $d_k = 1$ if either b_k or b_{k-1} is 1.

$d_k = 0$ otherwise.

The sequence $\{d_k\}$ is applied to the SLP of level shifter and we get output a_k i.e bipolar signal, given by

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{if } d_k = 1, a_k = 1 \\ \text{if } d_k = 0, a_k = -1 \end{array} \right\} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

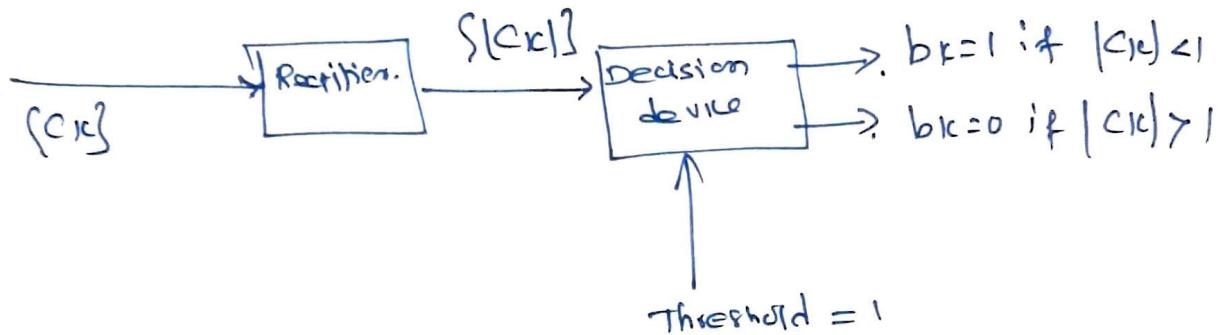
The sequence $\{a_k\}$ is then applied to duo binary encoder. The output c_k is.

$$c_k = a_k + a_{k-1} \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

the value of c_{ik} will be

$$\begin{aligned} c_k &= 0 \quad \text{if } b_k \text{ is 1} \\ &= \pm 2 \quad \text{if } b_k \text{ is 0.} \end{aligned} \quad \left. \right\} \quad (4)$$

Decoder



In decoder magnitude of c_{ik} is taken and compared with threshold '1' to take decision of b_k .

if $|c_{ik}| < 1$ take $b_k = 1$

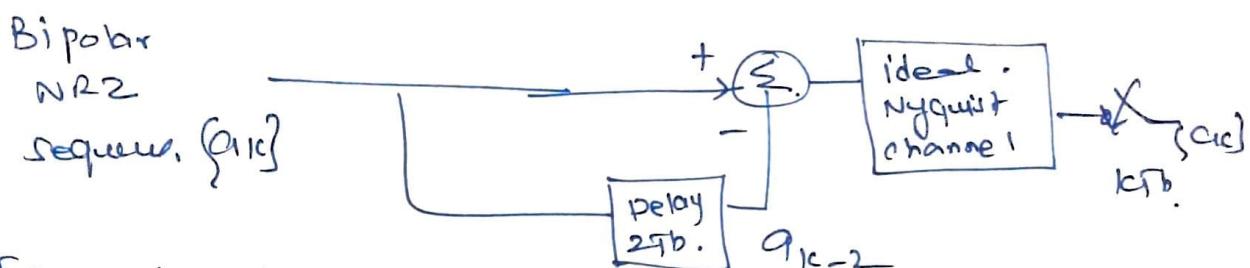
if $|c_{ik}| > 1$ take $b_k = 0$.

Here ' b_k ' depends on present value of ' c_{ik} ' previous value of the output not required. This shows there is no propagation of error in this system. compared to the binary system

Modified duo Binary encoding

The correlation is over two binary digits in modified duobinary encoding.

Encoder:



From above diagram.

$$\text{Let } c_k = a_{1c} - a_{1c-2} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Due to Bipolar NRZ sequence, the a_{1c} is ~~not~~ ± 1

$$\text{i.e. } a_{1c} = \pm 1,$$

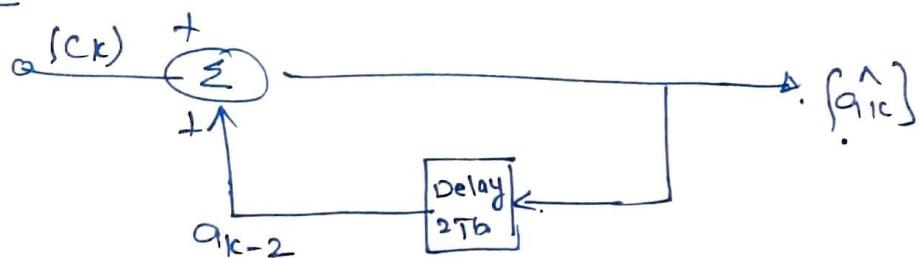
We get c_k as a correlated sequence of one of two three levels O/P's.

Let \hat{a}_{1c} is the estimate of a_{1c} .

then we can obtain

$$a_{1c}^{\hat{a}} = c_k + a_{1c-2}. \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

Decoder:



From equation (2) if c_k is error, \hat{a}_{1c} also error i.e. error is propagated.

freqy Response and impulse Response of modified
duobinary encoder

Let Delay element $2T_b$

The freqy response of delay element will be

$$1 - e^{-j2\pi f T_b}$$

The delay line filter is connected in cascade with channel. Hence total freqy response will be

$$H(f) = H_{Nyquist}(f) \left[1 - e^{-j2\pi f T_b} \right] \quad (1)$$

Rearranging the terms inside square bracket:

$$H(f) = H_{Ny}(f) \left[e^{j2\pi f T_b} \cdot e^{-j2\pi f T_b} \cdot -e^{-j2\pi f T_b} \cdot e^{-j2\pi f T_b} \right]$$

$$= H_{Ny}(f) \left[e^{j2\pi f T_b} - e^{-j2\pi f T_b} \right] \cdot e^{-j2\pi f T_b}$$

$$H(f) = H_{Ny}(f) \cdot 2j \sin(2\pi f T_b) \cdot e^{-j2\pi f T_b} \quad (2)$$

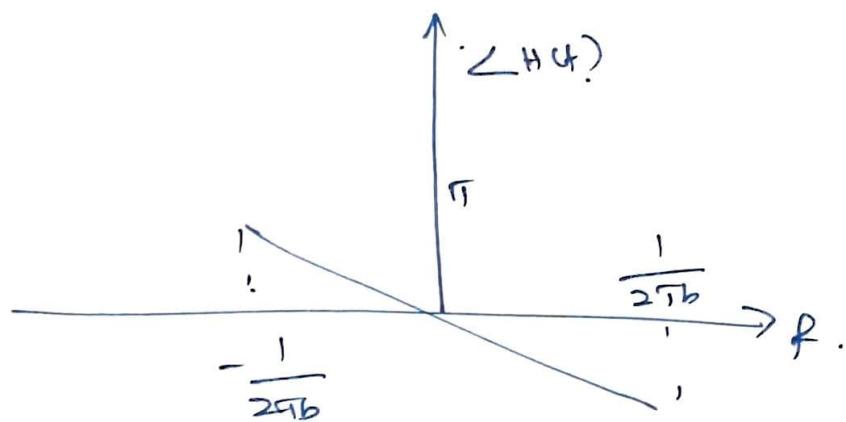
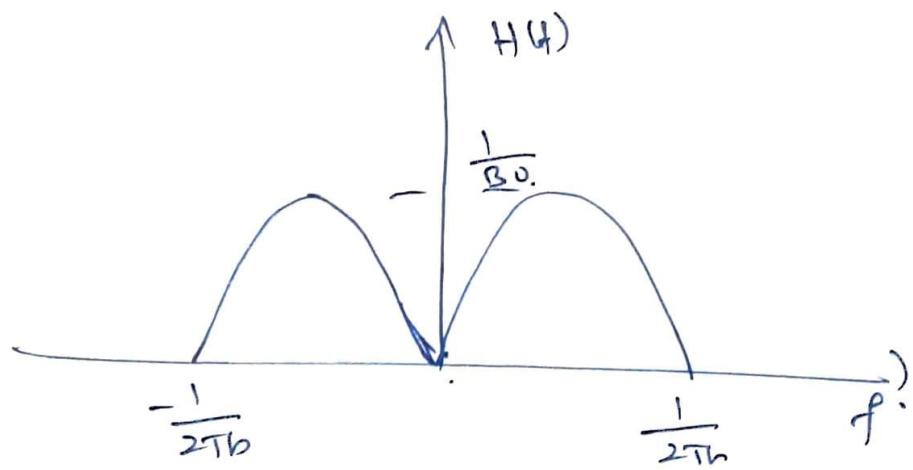
• Here $H_{Ny}(f) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2B_0} & \text{for } -B_0 \leq f \leq B_0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$ (3)

$$\therefore H(f) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{B_0} j \sin(2\pi f T_b) \cdot e^{-j2\pi f T_b} & \text{for } -B_0 \leq f \leq B_0 \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$
 (4)

or $|H(f)| = \frac{1}{B_0} \sin(2\pi f T_b) \text{ for } f \leq |B_0|$

and $\angle H(f) = -2\pi f T_b$

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Taking Inverse F-T of equation no ④ we get
impulse response.

$$h(t) \leftarrow \frac{2T_b^2 \sin(\pi t / T_b)}{\pi t (2T_b - t)}$$

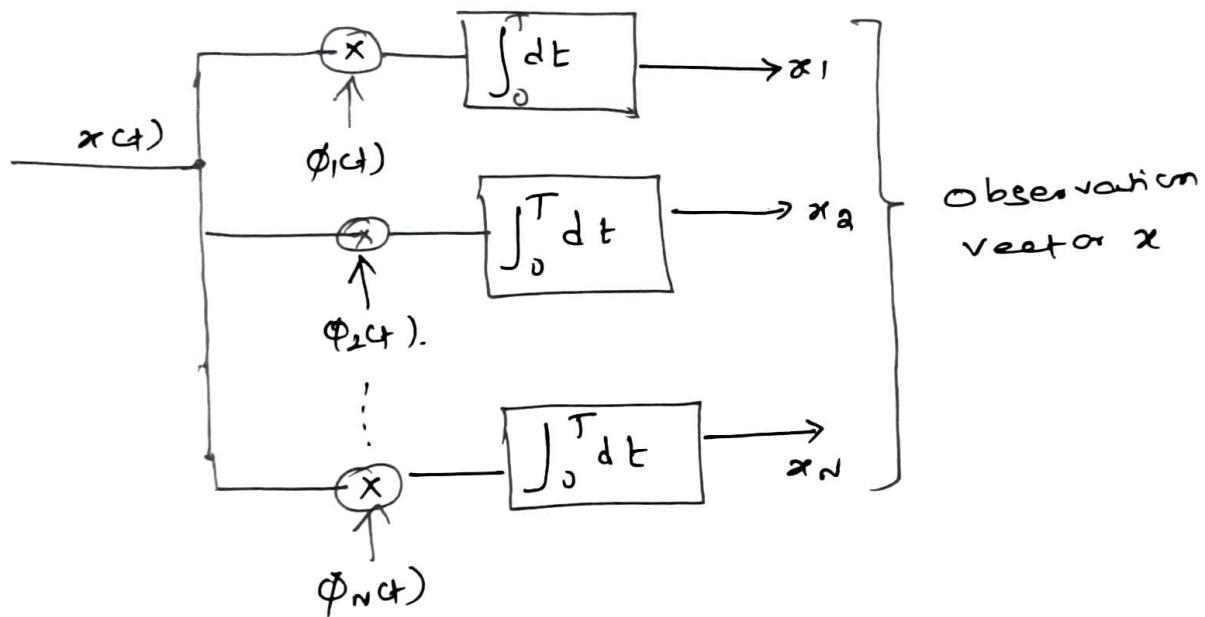
Correlation Receiver (Or) optimum Receiver.

What is optimum Receiver?

A Receiver is said to be optimum if it yields the minimum probability error. i.e. if designed to produce minimum probability error. called optimum Receiver

for an AWGN channel and transmitted signals $s_1(t), s_2(t) \dots s_m(t)$ are equally likely, the optimum receiver consists of two subsystems.

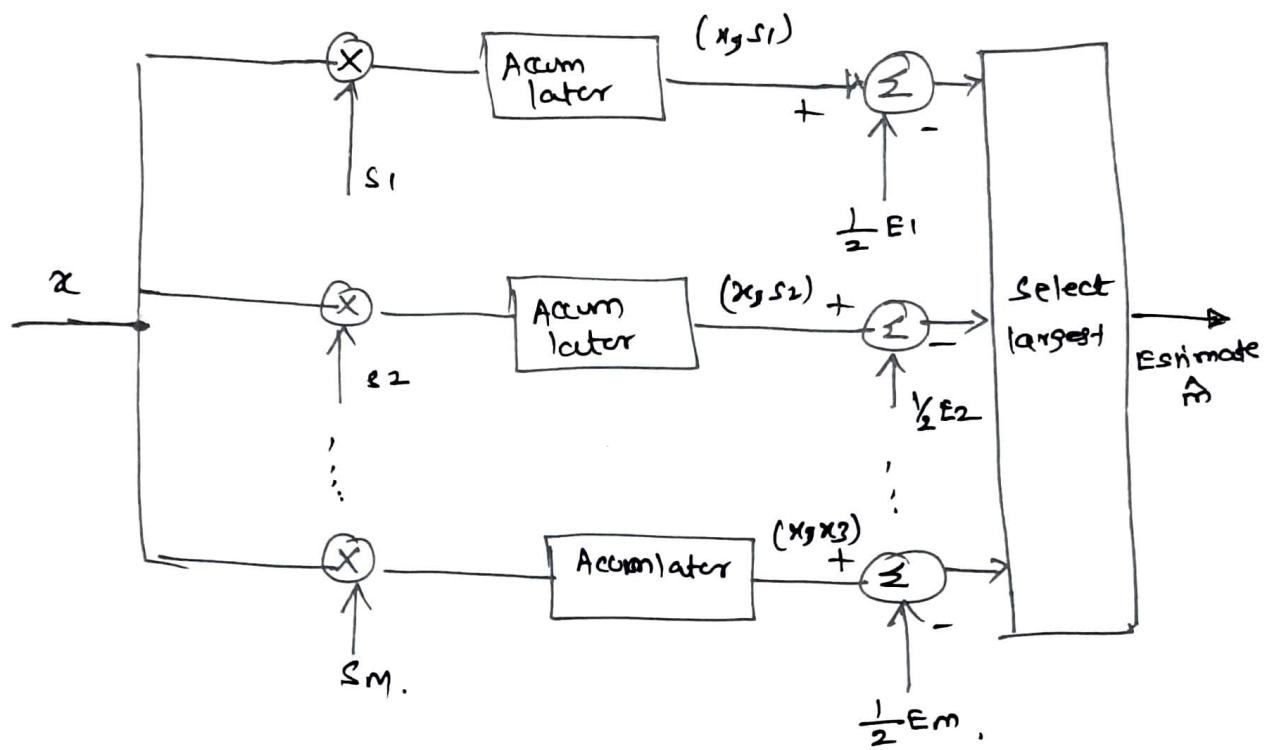
1. Detector part of Receiver



It consists of a bank of M product-integrators or correlators supplied with a corresponding set of coherent reference signal (or) Correlators supplied with a corresponding set of coherent reference signals or orthogonal basis function $\phi_1(t), \phi_2(t) \dots \phi_n(t)$ that are generated locally.

This bank of correlators operate on received signal $x(t), 0 \leq t \leq T$, produce the observation vector x .

2. Vector Receiver



It is implemented in the form of a maximum-likelihood detector.

I/P observation vector 'x' is applied to produce an estimate \hat{m} of the transmitted symbol m_i , $i=1,2 \dots M$, in a way that would minimize the average probability of symbol error.

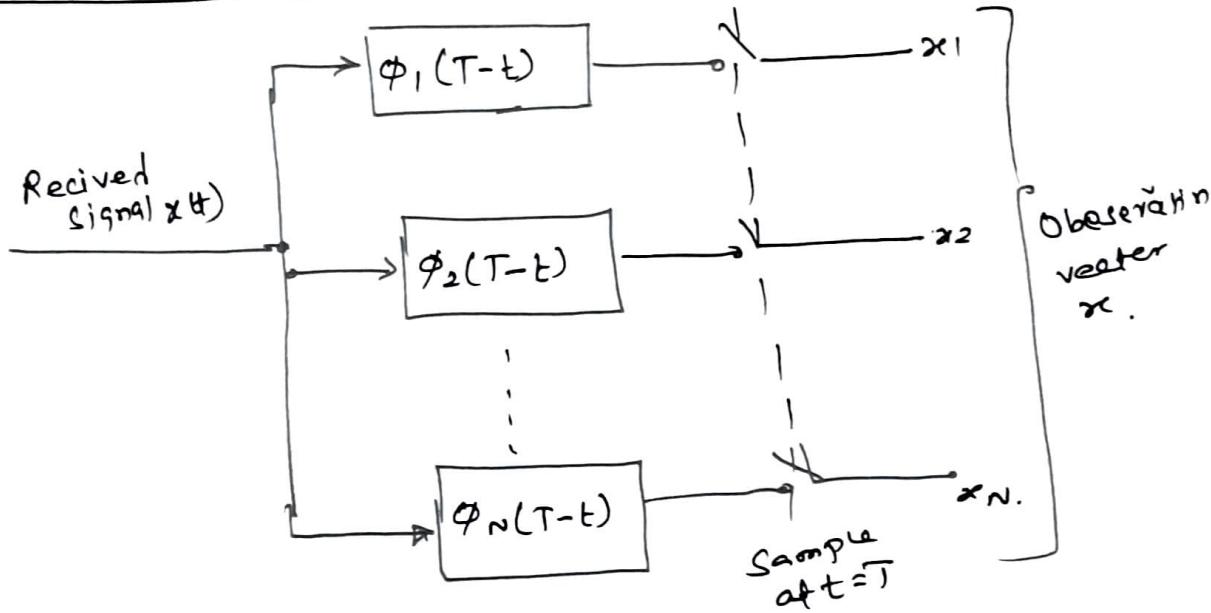
Input observation vector x is multiplied with M signal vectors $s_1, s_2 \dots s_M$. Then this two vectors summed in accumulator to produce set of inner products $\{(x, s_i)\}$, $i=1, 2 \dots M$.

Then the inner product summed with signal energies. Finally, the largest in the resulting set of numbers is selected, and a corresponding decision on the transmitted message is made.

Matched filter Receiver

If a filter generates an output to maximize the output peak power ratio to mean noise power within its frequency response then it is called a matched filter. It is the optimum linear filter used to increase the SNR in the presence of additive noise.

Receiver(Detector part)



NOTE:

Here the orthogonal basis functions $\phi_1(t)$, $\phi_2(t)$... $\phi_n(t)$ is assumed to zero outside the interval $0 \leq t \leq T$, the use of multipliers may be avoided.

Consider, a linear filter with impulse response $h_j(t)$.

$x(t)$ is a Received signal used as a input to detector.

$y_j(t)$ is a output

The $y_j(t)$ is defined by the convolution integral

$$y_j(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(j) h_j(t-j) dj \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Let we set impulse Response

$$h_j(t) = \phi_j(T-t)$$

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Then the Resulting filter output is

$$y_j(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(j) \phi_j(T-t+j) dj \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

Sampling this
output at time $t=T$, we get

$$y_j(T) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(j) \phi_j(j) dj \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

i.e. $y_j(T) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(j) \phi_j(T-T+j) dj$

$$y_j(T) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(j) \phi_j(j) dj \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

Since $\phi_j(T)$ is zero outside the interval $0 \leq t \leq T$, so
we get

$$y_j(T) = \int_0^T x(j) \phi_j(\tau) d\tau \quad \text{--- (5)}$$

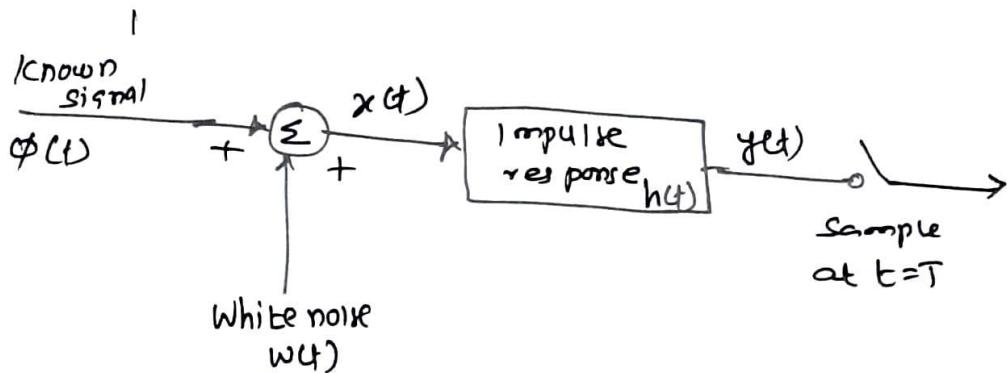
A filter whose impulse response is a time reversed
and delayed version of some signal $\phi_j(t)$, as in
equation (2), is said to be matched to $\phi_j(t)$. The
corresponding, the optimum based on two detector is
referred to as the matched filter Receiver.

For a matched filter operating in real time to be
physically realizable, it must be Causal
i.e. impulse response must be zero for negative time

$$\boxed{\phi_j(t) = 0 \quad t < 0}$$

From equation (2), the Causality Condition is
satisfied provided that the signal $\phi_j(t)$ is
zero outside the interval $0 \leq t \leq T$.

Maximization of output signal to noise Ratio [matched filter]



Consider a linear filter with impulse response $h(t)$

Known input signal $\phi(t)$

Additive noise component $w(t)$, zero mean and PSD of $N_0/2$

then

$$x(t) = \phi(t) + w(t) \quad 0 \leq t \leq T \quad \text{--- (6)}$$

$$y(t) = \underbrace{\phi_o(t)}_{\text{Signal}} + \underbrace{n(t)}_{\text{noise}} \quad \text{--- (7)}$$

$\phi_o(t) > n(t)$ is to have the filter make the instantaneous power in the output signal $\phi_o(t)$, measure at $t=T$, as large as possible compared with the average power of o/p noise $n(t)$.

The equivalent term ^{is} defined to maximize the output signal to noise ratio as

$$(SNR_o) = \frac{|\phi_o(T)|^2}{E[n^2(t)]} \quad \text{--- (8)}$$

Let $\Phi(f)$ is FT of known signal $\phi(t)$

$H(f)$ is the transfer function of the filter

FT of $\phi(t) \rightarrow \phi_o(t)$ equal to $H(f)\Phi(f)$. and $\phi_o(t)$ is itself given by the inverse FT

$$\phi_0(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H(f) \phi(f) \exp(j2\pi f t) df$$

$t = T$ then, we may write

$$|\phi_0(t)|^2 = \left| \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H(f) \phi(f) \exp(j2\pi f T) df \right|^2 \quad \textcircled{9}$$

Effect of noise

The noise $\overset{\text{signal}}{n(t)}$ is present on the filter output. Then

$$\frac{\text{PSD of noise}}{\text{o/p noise n(t)}} = S_N(f) = \frac{N_0}{2} |H(f)|^2 \quad \textcircled{10}$$

The average power of output noise is therefore

$$E[n^2(t)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S_N(f) df \quad \textcircled{11}$$

Sub \textcircled{10} in \textcircled{11}

$$E[n^2(t)] = \frac{N_0}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |H(f)|^2 df \quad \textcircled{12}$$

Sub equation \textcircled{9} and \textcircled{12} in equation \textcircled{8}

$$(SNR_0) = \frac{\left| \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H(f) \phi(f) \exp(j2\pi f T) df \right|^2}{\frac{N_0}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |H(f)|^2 df} \quad \textcircled{13}$$

Goal: Keeping $\phi(f)$ of the input signal fixed and using $H(f)$ we have to make $(SNR)_0$ is maximum. So we have to optimize.

To optimize, we take Schwarz's inequality to the numerator of equation \textcircled{13}, we may write

$$\left| \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H(f) \phi(f) \exp(j2\pi f T) df \right|^2 \leq \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |H(f)|^2 df \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\phi(f)|^2 df \quad \textcircled{14}$$

using the relation in equation ²⁸ equation (14), we may simplify the off signal to noise ratio as

$$(SNR)_0 \leq \frac{1}{N_0} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\phi(f)|^2 df \quad \rightarrow (15)$$

The RHS of equation (15) is uniquely defined by

1. The signal energy given by

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\phi(t)|^2 dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\phi(f)|^2 df$$

2. The noise power spectral density $N_0/2$

The RHS of equation (15) does not depend on $H(f)$. consequently, the output signal to noise ratio will be maximum when $H(f)$ is chosen so that the equality holds: that is

$$(SNR)_{0, \max} = \frac{1}{N_0} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\phi(f)|^2 df \quad \rightarrow (16)$$

For this condition, $H(f)$ assumes its optimum value denoted as $H_{opt}(f)$, and from Schwarz's inequality, except scaling factor,

$$H_{opt}(f) = \phi^*(f) \exp(-j2\pi f T) \quad \rightarrow (17)$$

Conclusion: $\phi^*(f)$ is complex conjugate of the FT of the I/P signal $\phi(t)$. without time delay factor $\exp(-j2\pi f T)$

$$H_{opt}(f) = \phi^*(f)$$

equation (17) shows the matched filter in frequency domain

Take inverse FT of $H_{opt}(f)$, to obtain the impulse response of the matched filter as

$$h_{opt}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi^*(f) \exp[-j2\pi f(T-t)] df$$

$$h_{opt}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(-f) \exp[-j2\pi f(T-t)] df$$

$h_{opt}(t) = \phi(T-t).$

$$\left| \begin{array}{l} \phi^*(f) = \phi(-f) \\ \text{for real valued signal.} \end{array} \right.$$

(18)

equation (18) shows the impulse response of the optimum filter is a time reversed and delayed version of the input signal $\phi(t)$: ie it matched to input signal.

From this we conclude, to maximize SNR is equivalent to minimization of the average probability of symbol error under two assumptions.

- ① The additive white Gaussian noise at the receiver input is stationary with Gaussian statistics
- 2) The a priori probabilities of the symbols emitted signal are known.

Advantages:

- ① This filter enhances the SNR by decreasing symbol errors.
- ② This filter has optimal performance and its computational cost is low.

Disadvantages:

Properties of matched filter - 30

1. The spectrum of the output signal of a matched filter with the matched signal as input is except for a time delay factor, proportional to the energy spectral density of the input signal.

$$\begin{aligned}\phi_0(t) &= H_{pt}(t) \phi(t) \\ &= \phi^*(t) \phi(t) \exp(-j2\pi f t) \\ &= |\phi(t)|^2 \exp(-j2\pi f t)\end{aligned}$$

2. The output signal of a matched filter is proportional to a shifted version of the autocorrelation function of the input signal to which the filter is matched.

$$\phi_0(t) = R\phi(t-\tau).$$

$$\phi_0(\tau) = R\phi(0) = E.$$

3. The output signal to noise ratio of a matched filter depends only on the ratio of the signal energy to the power spectral density of the white noise at the filter output.

4. Matched filter operation may be separated in two matching conditions

$$(1) \text{ Spectral phase matching. } \phi_0(t) \leq \phi_0(\tau) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\phi(f)| |H(f)|^2 dt$$

$$(2) \text{ Spectral Amplitude matching. } |H(f)| = |\phi(f)|.$$

 *

Equalization Techniques

Why do we need equalization in baseband / pulse transmission?

When the signal is passed through the channel, distortion is introduced in terms of (i) Amplitude (ii) delay. This distortion creates a problem of ISI. The detection of the signal also becomes difficult. This distortion can be compensated with the help of equalizers. Equalizers are basically filters which correct the channel distortion.

Types

- 1) Zero forcing equalizer
- 2) Adaptive equalizer.

Adaptive Equalization

What is the necessity of adaptive equalization? Explain modes of operation and Lms algorithm.

Necessity: Most of the channels are made up of individual links and the distortion induced depends upon

- 1) Transmission characteristics of individual links
- 2) No of links in the connection.

So the transmission characteristics keep on changing. Hence adaptive equalization is required.

Basic principle:

The filters adapt themselves to the dispersive effect of the channel i.e. the filter coefficients are changed continuously according to the received data and distortion in the data is reduced.

Types: prechannel equalizers used in transmitting side
it uses feedback to know about the ^{amount} distortion in the received data:

postchannel equalizer: It is used after the receiving filter, no feed back is required.

Structure of Adaptive equalizer :

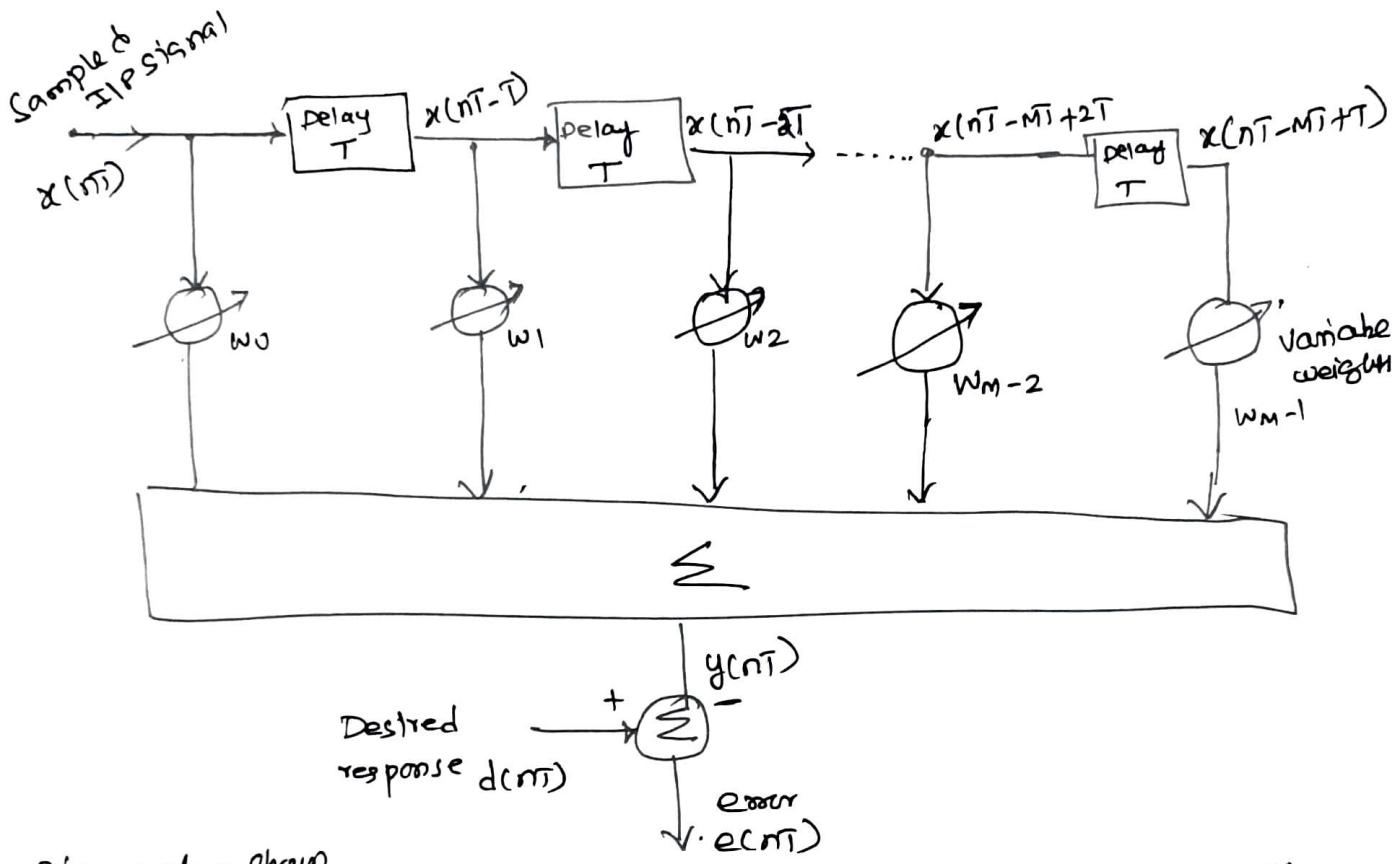


Figure above shows
It consists of tapped delay line filter. It consists of set of delay elements and variable multipliers.

$x(nT)$ - input

$y(nT)$ is O/P.

$$y(nT) = \sum_{i=0}^M w_i x(nT-iT)$$

$w_i \rightarrow$ adaptive filter coefficients.

Let $\{d(nT)\}$ is known sequence transmitted first, and also known to receiver.

The response sequence $y(nT)$ is observed, and the error sequence between the two sequences is calculated.

$$e(nT) = d(nT) - y(nT), \quad n=0, 1, \dots, N-1.$$

From equation, we know that there is no distortion in the channel.

example $b=0$

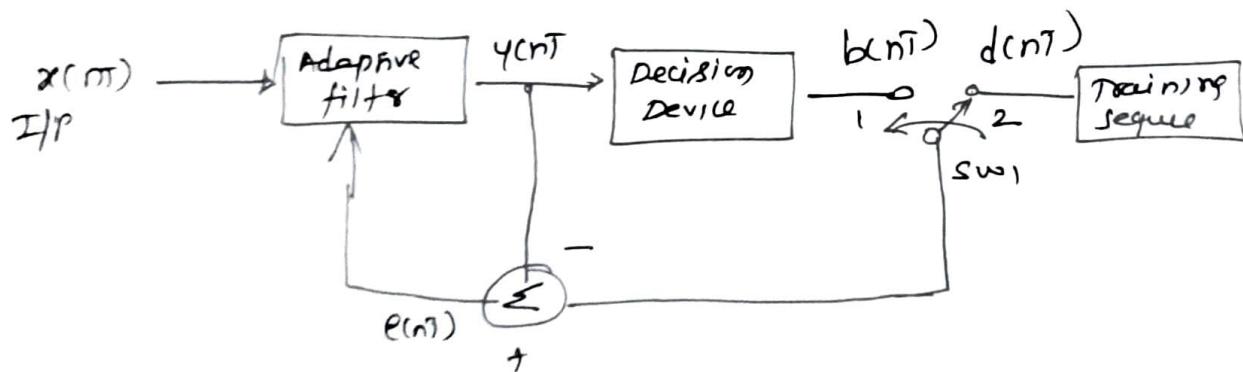
$$e(0T) = d(0T) - y(0T)$$

$$e(0T) = 0.$$

i.e $d(nT)$ and $y(nT)$ will be same producing zero error sequence. Then the weights of filter w_i are changed recursively such that error $e(nT)$ is minimized. There are standard algorithms to change weights of the filter recursively.

Operating modes

- 1) Training mode
- 2) Decision directed mode.



Training mode

When switch is in position 2, training sequence applied to equalizer [maximal length pseudo noise sequence (PN)]. It generates the synchronized version in the receiver. The training mode sets the coefficients of adaptive equalizer.

2) Decision delayed mode:

When switch is '1', it sets decision mode.

$$e(nT) = b(nT) - y(nT)$$

$b(nT)$ is the correct estimate of transmitted symbol.

$y(nT)$ is the output of adaptive equalizer.

Adaptive filter coefficients are adjusted continually such that error signal $e(nT)$ is minimized.

Least mean square [Lms] Algorithm.

Algorithm changes the tap weights of the adaptive filter recursively.

$$\hat{w}_i(nT+T) = \hat{w}_i(nT) + \mu e(nT) x(nT-iT)$$

$$i = 0, 1, \dots, M-1$$

$\hat{w}_i(nT)$ is the present estimate for tap 'i' at time nT

$\hat{w}_i(nT+T)$ is the updated estimate for tap 'i' at time $(n+1)T$

μ is the adaption constant

$x(nT-iT)$ is the filter input

$e(nT)$ is the error signal.

The parameter μ controls the amount of correction applied to the old estimate to produce updated estimate.

Ans. : In baseband binary PAM, symbols are transmitted one after another. These symbols are separated by sufficient time durations. The transmitter, channel and receiver acts as a filter to this baseband data. Because of the filtering characteristics, transmitted PAM pulses are spread in time. Let the transmitted waveform be represented as,

$$x(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} A_k g(t - kT_b)$$

Here A_k is the amplitude of k^{th} pulse.

And $g(t)$ is shaping pulse.

The output pulse at $t = i T_b$ can be expressed as,

$$y(t_i) = \mu A_i + \mu \sum_{\substack{k=-\infty \\ k \neq i}}^{\infty} A_k p[(i-k)T_b]$$

Here T_b is the bit duration and ' t_i ' indicates instant of i^{th} pulse. μA_i is the contribution of i^{th} transmitted bit. The second term in above equation occurs due to filtering nature of the transmitter receiver and channel. The second term represents the residual effect (time spread) of all other bits transmitted before and after t_i . This presence of outputs (second term) due to other bits (symbols) interfere with the output of required bit (symbol). This effect is called Intersymbol Interference (ISI).

Q.10 What are eye patterns ?

AU : Madras Univ., Nov.-97

OR

Draw an eye pattern and represent the ways in which it could be used to evaluate the performance a baseband pulse transmission system. AU : May-08

Ans. : Eye pattern is used to study the effect of ISI in baseband transmission. Fig. 3.5.2 shows an interpretation of eye pattern.

- i) Width of eye opening defines the interval overwhich the received wave can be sampled without error from ISI.
- ii) The sensitivity of the system to timing error is determined by the rate of closure of the eye as the sampling time is varied.
- iii) Height of the eye opening at sampling time is called margin over noise.

Q.11 How is eye pattern obtained on the CRO ?

AU : May-04, 09

Ans. : Eye pattern can be obtained on CRO by applying the signal to one of the input channels and giving an external trigger of $\frac{1}{T_b}$ Hz. This makes one sweep of beam equal to ' T_b ' seconds.

Q.12 What is the condition for zero inter symbol interference ?

AU : May-04, Dec.-07

Ans. : Zero ISI can be obtained if the transmitted pulse satisfies the following condition :

Time domain :

$$p[(i-k)T_b] = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } i=k \\ 0 & \text{for } i \neq k \end{cases}$$

Frequency domain

$$= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} p(f - n f_b) = T_b$$

Q.13 A TDM signal with bit time of 0.5 μs is to be transmitted using a channel with raised cosine roll off factor of 0.5. What is the bandwidth required ?

AU : Dec.-04

Ans. : $T_b = 0.5 \mu s$, $\alpha = 0.5$

$$B_0 = \frac{f_b}{2} = \frac{1}{2T_b} = \frac{1}{2 \times 0.5 \times 10^{-6}} = 1 \times 10^6$$

$$\therefore B = B_0(1+\alpha) = 1 \times 10^6(1+0.5) = 1.5 \times 10^6$$

Q.14 From the eye pattern, how is the best time for sampling determined AU : Dec.-04

Ans. : It is preferable to sample the instant at which eye is open widest. At this instant, the chances of error are minimum.

Q.15 What is the purpose of using an eye pattern ?

AU : Dec.-05, 12, 13, May-12

Ans. : Eye pattern can be used for :

- i) To determine an interval over which the received wave can be sampled without error due to ISI.
- ii) To determine the sensitivity of the system to timing error.
- iii) The margin over the noise is determined from eye pattern.

Q.16 Why do you need adaptive equalization in a switched telephone network AU : Dec.-05, 14

Ans. : In switched telephone network the distortion depends upon

- i) Transmission characteristics of individual links.
- ii) Number of links in connection.

Hence fixed pair of transmit and receive filters will not serve the equalization problem. The transmission characteristics keep on changing. Therefore adaptive equalization is used.

Q.17 What is an ideal Nyquist channel ?

AU : May-06, Dec.-09

Ans. : The ideal Nyquist channel uses sinc pulse for transmission . i.e.,

$$p(t) = \frac{\sin(2\pi B_0 t)}{2\pi B_0 t}$$

Such pulse have the spectrum of,

$$p(f) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2B_0} & \text{for } -B_0 < f \leq B_0 \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

Q.18 What is the use of "eye pattern" ?

AU : Dec.-06

Ans. : Refer section 3.5.

Q.19 Bring out the difference between carrier recovery and clock recovery. AU : Dec.-06

Ans. :

Sr. No.	Carrier recovery	Clock recovery
1.	Carrier is required for coherent detection at the receiver.	Clock is required to estimate correct bit timing at the receiver.
2.	M^{th} power loop, costas loop are used for carrier recovery.	Closed loop bit synchronizer, early-late synchronizer are used for clock recovery.

Q.20 Why do we need equalization in base band pulse transmission ?

AU : May-07, Dec.-08

Ans. : When the signal is passed through the channel, distortion is introduced in terms of i) Amplitude and ii) Delay. This distortion creates the problems of ISI. The detection of the signal also becomes difficult. This distortion can be compensated with the help of equalizers. Equalizers are basically filters which correct the channel distortion.

Q.21 Give the Nyquist criterion for zero ISI. Plot the impulse response of an ideal Nyquist channel.

AU : May-08, Dec.-11

Ans. : Refer answer of Q.12.

Impulse response is given as,

$$p(t) = \frac{\sin(2pB_0 t)}{2pB_0 t}$$

Fig. 3.8.5 shows the plot of above equation. (See Fig. 3.8.5 on next page)

Q.22 How does pulse shaping reduce inter symbol interference ?

AU : Dec.-10

- Ans.** : 1) The shape of the pulse is selected such that at the instant of detection, the interference due to all other symbols is zero. Fig. 3.3.2 illustrates such situation.
- 2) The effect of ISI is totally eliminates if signal is sampled at $T_b, 2T_b, 3T_b, \dots$ and so on.

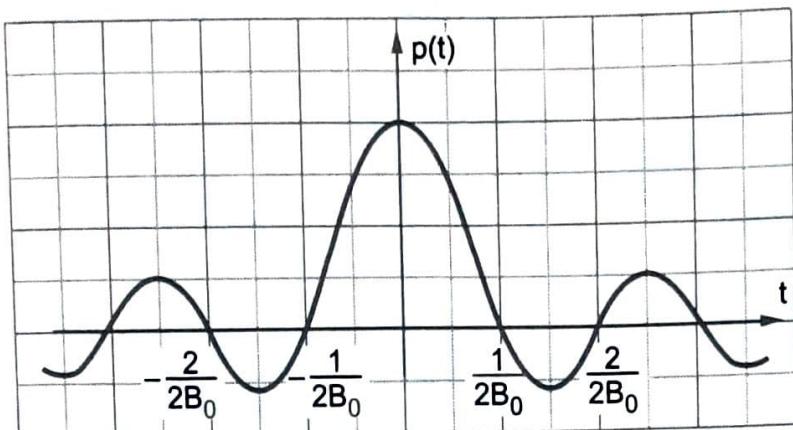


Fig. 3.8.5 Impulse response

Q.23 ISI cannot be avoided. Justify the statement.

AU : May-13

Ans. : When the pulse $p(t)$ is transmitted across the channel, the output $y(t)$ is given as,

$$y(t_i) = \underbrace{\mu A_i}_{i^{th} \text{ bit}} + \underbrace{\mu \sum_{\substack{k=-\infty \\ k \neq i}}^{\infty} A_k p[(i-k)T_b]}_{\text{Residual effect}}$$

Here $i = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3$

Here note that at any i^{th} instant, the residual effect of all other bits transmitted before and after the sampling instant t_i is present. This residual effect forms ISI and it cannot be totally avoided.



UNIT 4 - I -
Digital modulation Techniques

Digital modulation provides more information capacity, high data security, quicker system availability with great quality communication. Hence, digital modulation techniques have a greater demand, for their capacity to convey larger amounts of data than analog one.

Modulation schemes are

1) ASK - Amplitude shift keying

2) FSK - Frequency shift keying

3) PSK - Phase shift keying

4) QAM = Quadrature amplitude modulation.

$$V(t) = V \sin (2\pi \cdot f t + \theta) \quad (1)$$

↓
 ASK ↓
 FSK ↓
 PSK
 ↗ QAM

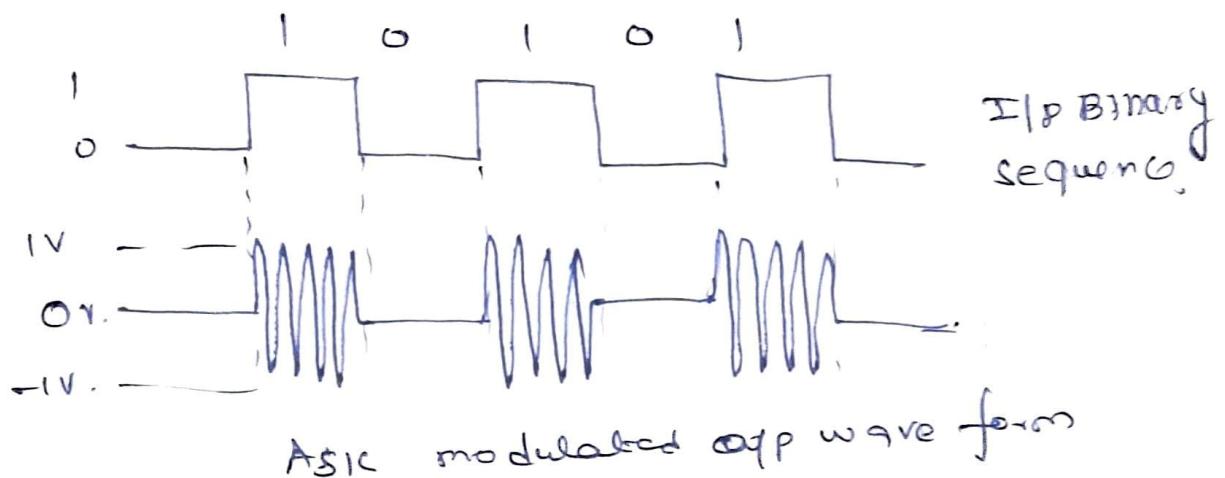
From equation (1) Amplitude of the carrier is varied proportional to the modulating signal is called ASK.

If frequency of the carrier is varied proportional to the modulating signal is called FSK.

If phase of the carrier is varied proportional to the information signal is called PSK.

If both Amplitude and phase is varied proportional to the information signal is called QAM.

D ASK : Amplitude Shift Keying.



The input Binary signal is modulated. It gives zero value for Low input (ie '0') and ~~High~~ it gives the carrier output for High input (ie '1').

Mathematically we can represented by [general expression]

$$V_{ASK}(t) = [1 + V_m(t)] \left[\frac{A}{2} \cos(\omega_c t) \right]$$

↓ ↓ ↓
 Amp shift keying Input signal Analog Carrier
 wave. frequency
 Unmodulated carrier
 Amplitude

Now $V_m(t) = 1$

$$\begin{aligned} V_{ASK}(t) &= [1 + 1] \left[\frac{A}{2} \cos(\omega_c t) \right] \\ &= [2 \cdot \frac{A}{2} \cos(\omega_c t)] \end{aligned}$$

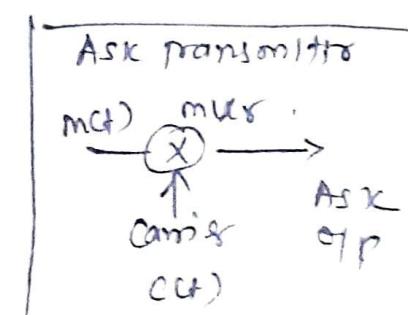
$V_{ASK}(t) = A \cos(\omega_c t)$ ie It contains only carrier with amplitude 'A'

If $V_m(t) = 0$

$$\begin{aligned} V_{ASK}(t) &= 0 \left[\frac{A}{2} \cos(\omega_c t) \right] \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

ie opp contains Zero value.

It also called as on-off keying.



UNIT - 4 - DIGITAL MODULATION SCHEME

Geometric representation of signals. Generation, detection, PSD & BER of Coherent BPSK, BFSK, QPSK - QAM - Carrier synchronization - structure of Non-coherent receivers - Principle of DPSK

Digital modulation:

→ The binary input is baseband modulated to get the waveform.

→ This baseband signal is used to modulate the tx'd carrier. Similar to analog modulation, the amplitude, frequency or phase of the carrier signal is varied as per the binary input.

(i) Signal Space analysis:

Consider an msg source with M symbols $\{m_1, m_2, \dots, m_M\}$ which emits one symbol for every T seconds.

The probability of occurrence p_1, p_2, \dots, p_M are known and assumed to be equiprobable.

$$P_i = \frac{1}{M} \quad \text{for } i = 1, 2, \dots, M$$

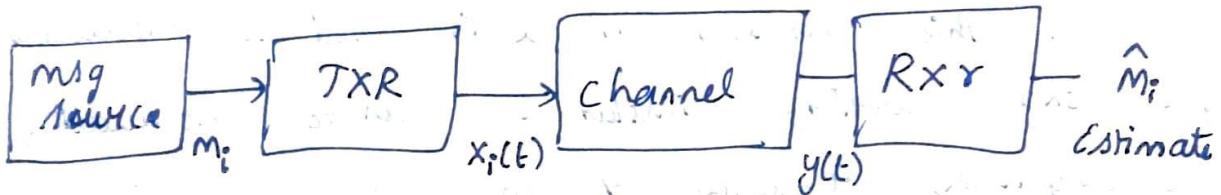
The tx'r codes each signal into an distinct signal $x_i(t)$.

$$\boxed{\text{Energy } (E_i) = \int_0^T x_i^{(2)}(t) dt}, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, M$$

The channel is assumed to be

(i) Linear : The bandwidth of the channel is large enough to accommodate the tx'd signal $x_i(t)$ without any distortion.

(ii) AWGN noise : The channel is said to have noise $n(t)$ as additive white gaussian noise with zero mean ($M=0$) and variance $(\frac{N_0}{2})$.



The rx'd signal

$$y(t) = x_i(t) + n(t), \quad \begin{cases} 0 \leq t \leq T \\ i=1, 2, 3, \dots M \end{cases}$$

Geometric representation of signals

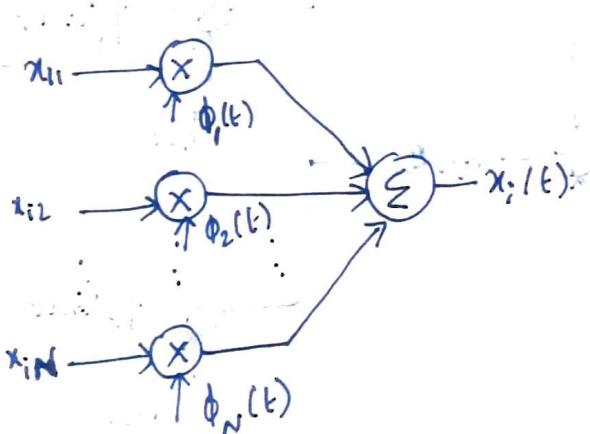
- A set of M energy signals can be represented as a linear combination of N orthonormal basis functions.
- The no of orthonormal basis functions are always less than or equal to no of possible energy signals.
i.e $N \leq M$.

Consider a set of real-valued signals
 $x_1(t), x_2(t), \dots, x_M(t)$ each of duration T sec
 Then the i^{th} signal can be represented as

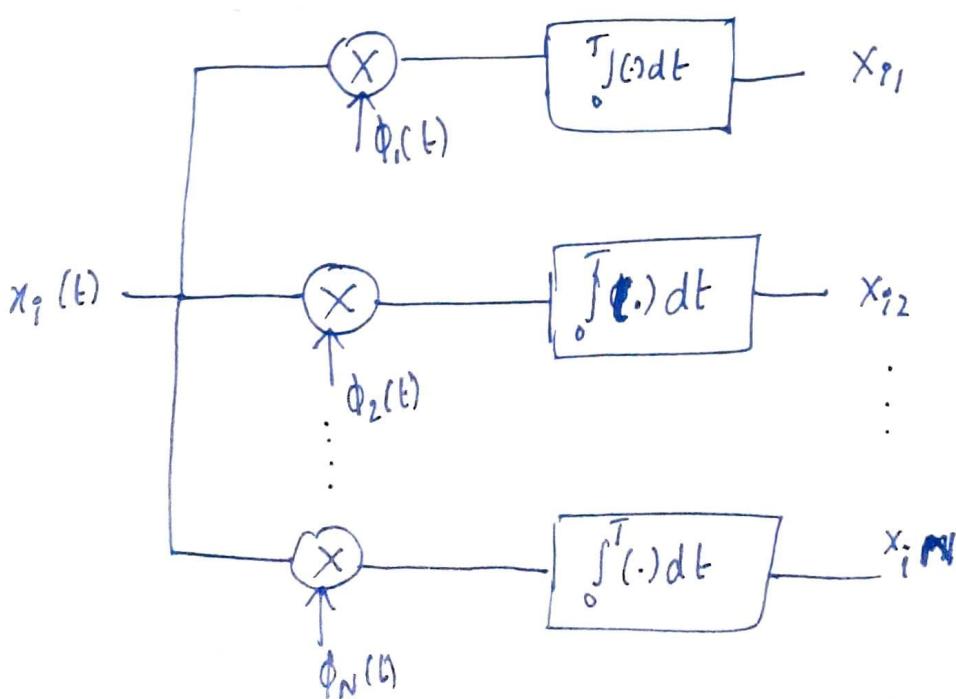
$$x_i(t) = \sum_{j=1}^N x_{ij} \phi_j(t) \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, M$$

$$\text{where } x_{ij} = \int_0^T x_i(t) \phi_j(t) dt \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, M \\ j = 1, 2, \dots, N$$

Based on these eqns., the synthesizer & analyzer can be constructed.

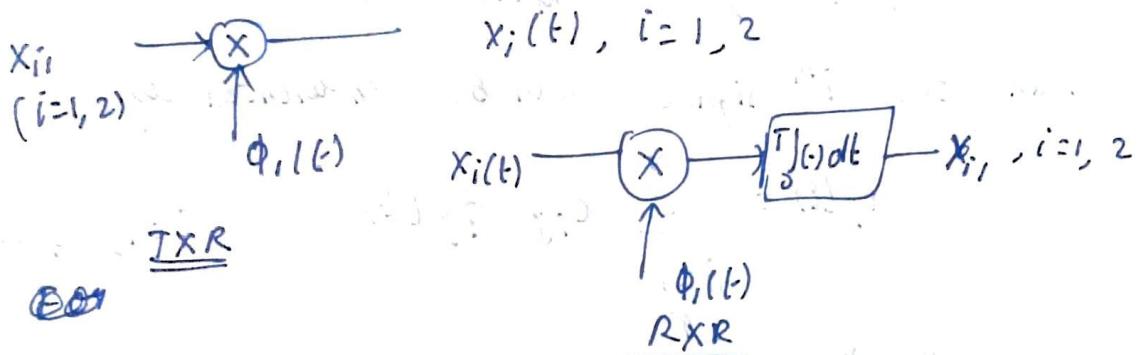


Synthesizer

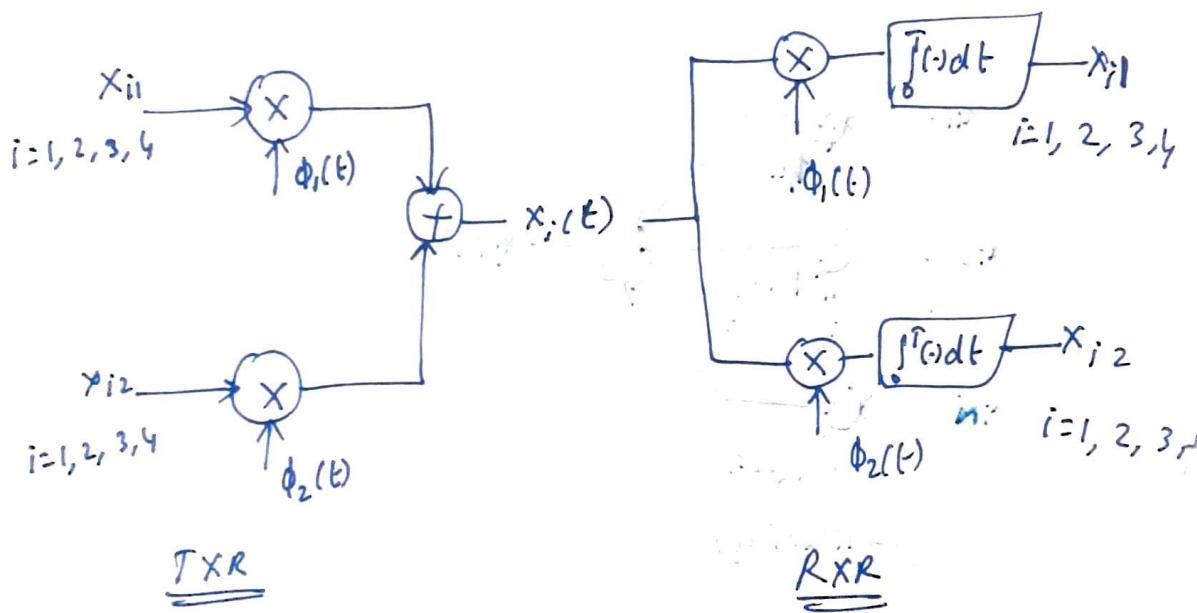


Analyzer

For BPSK modulation, $M=2$, $N=1$



For QPSK, $N=2$, $M=4$



(3)

GIRAM - SCHMIDT ORTHOGONALIZATION PROCEDURE

Consider a set of M energy signals
 $x_1(t), x_2(t), \dots, x_M(t)$.

The first basis function

$$\phi_1(t) = \frac{x_1(t)}{\sqrt{E_1}} \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

$E_1 \rightarrow$ energy of the signal $x_1(t)$

$$\text{so } x_1(t) = \sqrt{E_1} \phi_1(t) \rightarrow \textcircled{2}$$

W.K.T $x_p(t) = \sum_{j=1}^N x_{pj} \phi_j(t)$

Consider $N = 1$,

$$x_1(t) = x_{11} \phi_1(t) \rightarrow \textcircled{3}$$

Comparing \textcircled{2} & \textcircled{3},

$x_{11} = \sqrt{E_1}$ is the co-efficient

To define other basis fn, a new intermediate function is introduced.

$$g_i(t) = x_i(t) - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} x_{ij} \phi_j(t) \rightarrow \textcircled{4}$$

where $x_{ij} = \int_0^T x_i(t) \phi_j(t) dt, i = 1, 2, \dots, i-1$

$$\phi_i(t) = \frac{g_i(t)}{\sqrt{\int_0^T g_i^2(t) dt}}, i = 2 \dots n$$

Second basis function,

$$g_2(t) = x_2(t) - \sum_{j=1}^i x_{2j} \phi_j(t)$$
$$= x_2(t) - x_{21} \phi_1(t)$$

so the

basis fn; $\phi_2(t) = g_2(t)$

$$\sqrt{\int_0^T g_2^2(t) dt}$$

$$\int_0^T g_2^2(t) dt = \int_0^T [x_2(t) - x_{21} \phi_1(t)]^2 dt$$
$$= \int_0^T x_2^2(t) dt + \int_0^T x_{21}^2 \phi_1^2(t) dt$$
$$- 2 \int_0^T x_2(t) x_{21} \phi_1(t) dt$$

$$= E_2 + x_{21}^2 \int_0^T \phi_1^2(t) dt - 2 x_{21} \int_0^T x_2(t) \phi_1(t) dt$$

$$= E_2 + x_{21}^2 - 2 x_{21}^2 \quad (\text{since } \int_0^T x_{ij} = \int_0^T \phi_j(t) dt)$$

so $\int_0^T g_2^2(t) dt = E_2 - x_{21}^2$

Now $\phi_2(t) = g_2(t)$

$$\sqrt{E_2 - x_{21}^2}$$

$$\frac{x_2(t) - x_{21} \phi_1(t)}{\sqrt{E_2 - x_{21}^2}}$$

(4)

$$\phi_2^2(t) = \frac{g_2^2(t)}{\int_0^T g_2^2(t) dt}$$

$$\int_0^T \phi_2^2(t) dt = \frac{\int_0^T g_2^2(t) dt}{\int_0^T g_2^2(t) dt} = 1$$

so $\phi_1(t)$ & $\phi_2(t)$ are orthogonal.

$$\int_0^T \phi_1(t) \phi_2(t) dt = \int_0^T \frac{x_2(t) - x_{21} \phi_1(t)}{\sqrt{E_2 - x_{21}^2}} \phi_1(t) dt$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{E_2 - x_{21}^2}} \int_0^T x_2(t) \phi_1(t) - \int_0^T x_{21} \phi_1^2(t) dt$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{E_2 - x_{21}^2}} [x_{21} - x_{21}(1)]$$

$$\int_0^T \phi_1(t) \phi_2(t) dt = 0$$

Hence $\phi_1(t)$ & $\phi_2(t)$ are orthogonal.

DIGITAL MODULATION - Types

Cohescent: In this modulation, the local carrier generated at rxr is phase locked with the txr. This carrier phase information at the ~~coherentes~~ rxr is used by matched filters to detect the data.

Non-coherent: The demodulators operate without knowledge of the phase information of the txr.

1. Binary shift keying (BSK)
 - (a) BPSK
 - (b) BASK or OOK
 - (c) BFSK
2. Quadrature phase shift keying (QPSK)
3. QAM (quadrature Amp. mod)
4. DPSK (Differential ~~polar~~ phase shift keying)

(c) COHERENT BINARY PHASE SHIFT KEYING

(5)

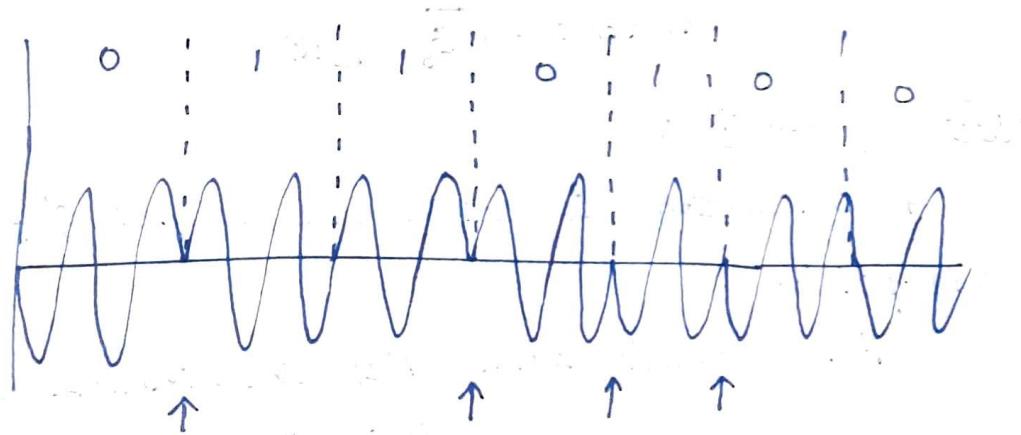
→ In the BPSK modulation, the input digital data 0 or 1 is directly converted to the phase of 0 & π respectively.

→ The pair of signals $x_1(t)$ and $x_2(t)$ are used to represent binary symbols 1 and 0. They are defined by

$$x_1(t) = A \cos(2\pi f_c t) \quad 0 \leq t \leq T_b \text{ for '1'}$$

$$x_2(t) = A \cos(2\pi f_c t + \pi) = -A \cos(2\pi f_c t) \quad 0 \leq t \leq T_b \text{ for '0'}$$

where A is the max. amplitude of the tx'd signal
 f_c is the carrier frequency.



BPSK waveform

Generally the amplitudes are represented as energy signals.

$$\text{Energy per bit } (E_b) = \int_0^{T_b} |x_1|^2(t) dt$$

$$= A^2 \int_0^{T_b} \cos^2 2\pi f_c t dt$$

$$= \frac{A^2}{2} \int_0^{T_b} (1 + \cos 4\pi f_c t) dt$$

$$\therefore \cos^2 \theta = \frac{1 + \cos 2\theta}{2}$$

$$E_b = \frac{A^2 T_b}{2} \Rightarrow A = \sqrt{\frac{2 E_b}{T_b}}$$

$T_b \rightarrow$ bit duration.

$$\text{Now } x_1(t) = \sqrt{\frac{2 E_b}{T_b}} \cos 2\pi f_c t$$

$$x_2(t) = -\sqrt{\frac{2 E_b}{T_b}} \cos 2\pi f_c t$$

It is clear that BPSK uses only one basis fn:

$$\phi_1(t) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{T_b}} \cos 2\pi f_c t$$

Representing the BPSK signals in terms of basic fn gives,

$$x_1(t) = \sqrt{E_b} \phi_1(t)$$

$$x_2(t) = -\sqrt{E_b} \phi_1(t)$$

BPSK Constellation:

→ Constellation is nothing but the set of possible msg points.

For Coherent BPSK, $N=1$ (one dimensional) and $M=2$ (two msg points).

→ To identify the possible msg points, the following operation is performed.

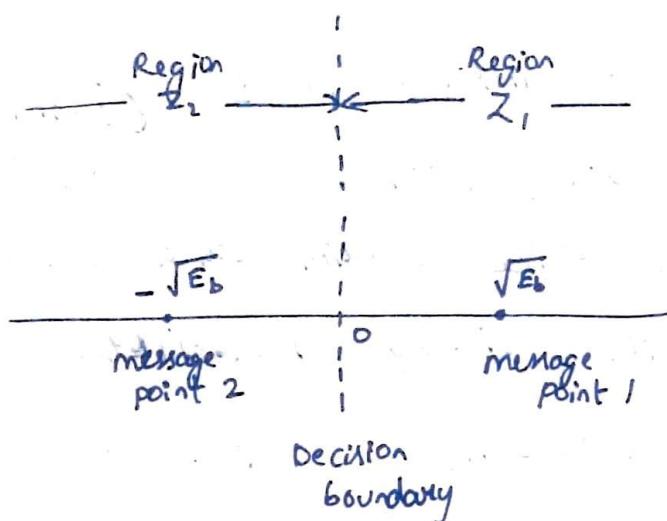
$$x_{11} = \int_0^{T_b} x_1(t) \phi_1(t) dt$$

$$= \sqrt{E_b} \int_0^{T_b} \phi_1^2(t) dt$$

$$= \sqrt{E_b}$$

$$x_{21} = \int_0^{T_b} x_2(t) \phi_1(t) dt = -\sqrt{E_b} \int_0^{T_b} \phi_1^2(t) dt$$

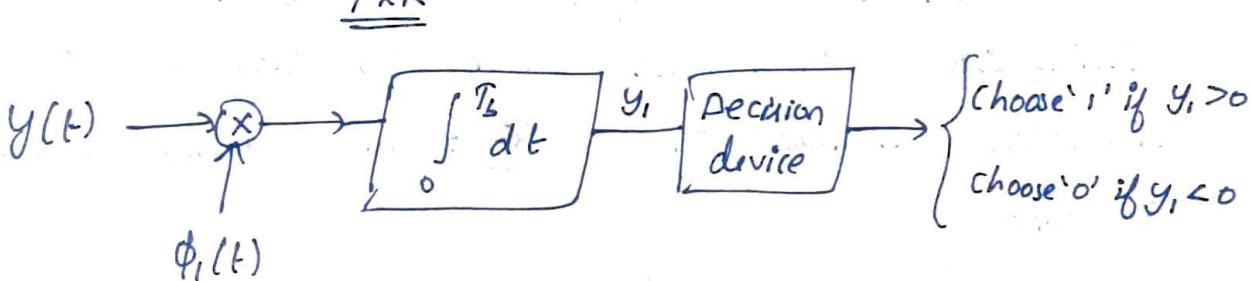
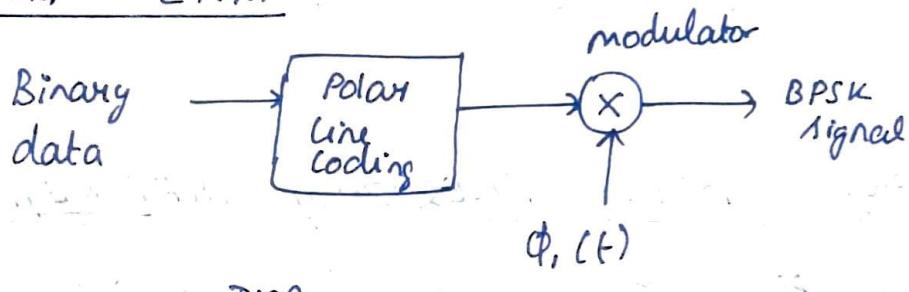
$$= -\sqrt{E_b}$$



Signal space diagram

since there are only 2 msg points, the decision boundary is the mid point of the line joining 2 msg points.

BPSK TXR RXR



→ Convert the binary data to polar signal

$$\text{Bit '1'} \rightarrow \sqrt{E_b}; \text{ Bit '0'} \rightarrow -\sqrt{E_b}$$

→ Multiply the polar signal with basis function to get BPSK signal as

$$x_1(t) = \sqrt{E_b} \phi_1(t); x_2(t) = -\sqrt{E_b} \phi_2(t)$$

→ The rxd signal is passed through the correlator to obtain the observation.

$$y_1 = \int_0^{T_b} y(t) \cdot \phi_1(t) dt$$

The observation is compared with threshold to decide txd bits

Probability of Bit Error Analysis

① BPSK

For BER analysis, consider AWGN channel. i.e. zero mean & $\sigma^2 = N_0/2$

The rx'd sgl is given by

$$y(t) = \begin{cases} x_1(t) + n(t) & \text{for symbol '1'} \\ x_2(t) + n(t) & \text{for symbol '0'} \end{cases} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Observation scalar \rightarrow (rx'd signal \times basis fn)

$$y_1(t) = \int_0^{T_b} y(t) \cdot \phi_1(t) dt \quad \begin{matrix} \text{sent into} \\ \text{integrator} \end{matrix} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$y_1 = \begin{cases} \sqrt{E_b} + n & \text{for '1'} \\ -\sqrt{E_b} + n & \text{for '0'} \end{cases} \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

Mean of observation vector,

$$E(y_1) = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{E_b} & \text{for '1'} \\ -\sqrt{E_b} & \text{for '0'} \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

Since $E[n] = 0$.

Variance of observation vector

$$E[(y_1 - E(y_1))^2] = \sigma^2 = \frac{N_0}{2} \quad \text{--- (5)}$$

for both symbols '0' & '1'

(12)

The Probability density function (pdf) of Gaussian random variable is given by

$$f_x(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} \quad (6)$$

The likelihood function when symbol '0' is transmitted

$$f_{y_1}(y_1|0) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\frac{N_0}{2}}} \exp\left[-\frac{(y_1 + \sqrt{E_b})^2}{2\frac{N_0}{2}}\right] \quad (7)$$

$\mu = -\sqrt{E_b}$
 $y = y_1$

$$\text{Substituting } \sigma^2 = \frac{N_0}{2}, E(y_1) = -\sqrt{E_b}$$

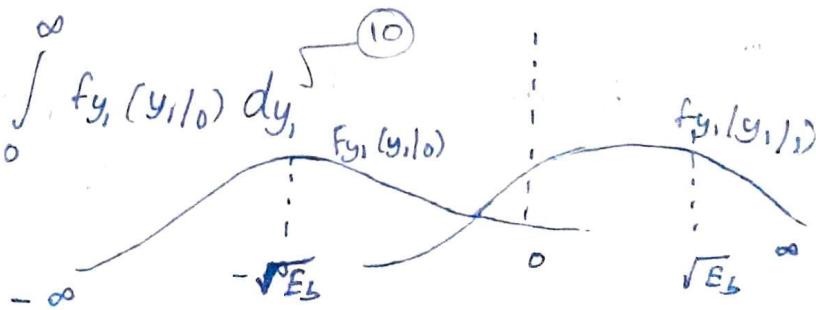
$$f_{y_1}(y_1|0) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi N_0}} \exp\left[-\frac{(y_1 + \sqrt{E_b})^2}{N_0}\right] \quad (8)$$

similarly likelihood for symbol '1' is

$$f_{y_1}(y_1|1) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi N_0}} \exp\left[-\frac{(y_1 - \sqrt{E_b})^2}{N_0}\right] \quad (9)$$

The first type of error occurs when the observation value falls between $0 < y_1 < \infty$ for symbol '0'.

$$P_e(0) = \int_0^\infty f_{y_1}(y_1|0) dy_1 \quad (10)$$



Sub ⑦ in ⑩

$$\therefore P_e(0) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi N_0}} \int_0^\infty \exp \left[-\frac{1}{N_0} (y_1 + \sqrt{E_b})^2 \right] dy_1 \quad \text{--- ⑪}$$

Consider $\frac{1}{\sqrt{N_0}} (y_1 + \sqrt{E_b}) = z$,

$$\text{then } dz = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N_0}} dy_1$$

$$\Rightarrow \therefore dy_1 = \sqrt{N_0} dz$$

$$\begin{aligned} y_1 &= 0, \\ \Rightarrow z &= \sqrt{\frac{E_b}{N_0}} \\ y_1 &\rightarrow \infty, z \rightarrow \infty \end{aligned}$$

Sub z value and dy_1 value in equation ⑪ and change the limit value.

$$\text{Now } P_e(0) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi N_0}} \int_{\sqrt{\frac{E_b}{N_0}}}^\infty \exp(-z^2) (\sqrt{N_0} dz)$$

$$\begin{aligned} P_e(0) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{\sqrt{\frac{E_b}{N_0}}}^\infty \exp(-z^2) dz \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{\sqrt{\frac{E_b}{N_0}}}^\infty \exp(-z^2) dz \quad \text{--- ⑫} \end{aligned}$$

The probability of error P_e is represented in

terms of complementary error function

$$\text{erfc}(x) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_x^\infty \exp(-z^2) dz \quad \text{--- ⑬}$$

Rewrite the equation ⑫, we get

$$P_e(0) = \frac{1}{2} \text{erfc}\left(\sqrt{\frac{E_b}{N_0}}\right)$$

$$x = \sqrt{\frac{E_b}{N_0}}$$

$$\boxed{P_e(0) = \frac{1}{2} \text{erfc}\left(\sqrt{\frac{E_b}{N_0}}\right)}$$

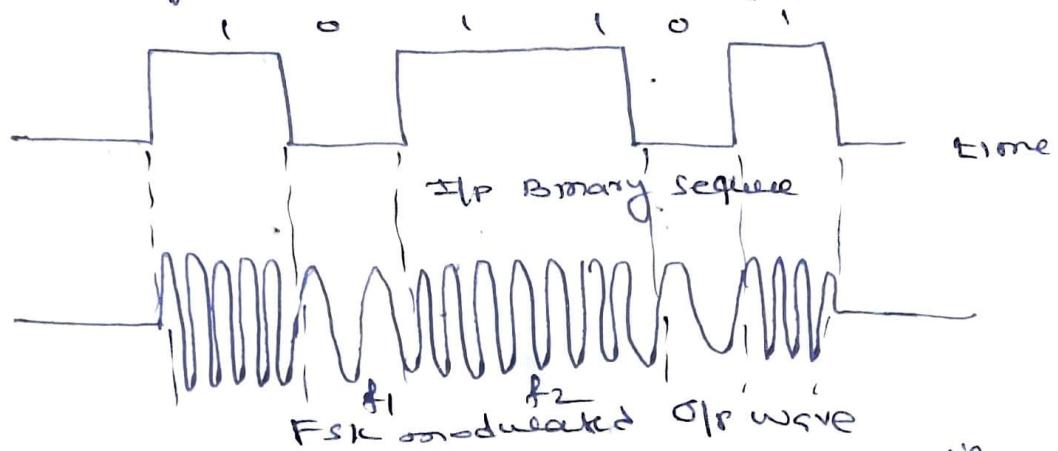
likly

$$P_e(1) = \frac{1}{2} \text{erfc}\left(\sqrt{\frac{E_b}{N_0}}\right)$$

$$\text{So } P_e = \frac{P_e(0) + P_e(1)}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \text{erfc}\left(\sqrt{\frac{E_b}{N_0}}\right)$$

Binary FSK. [BFSK]

FSK is the digital modulation technique in which the frequency of the carrier signal varies according to the modulating input i.e. input binary sequence.



The output of a FSK modulated wave is high frequency for a binary High input and is low in frequency for a binary Low input. The binary 1's and 0's are called mark and space frequencies.

The general expression for FSK is

$$V_{FSK}(t) = V_c \cos [2\pi [f_c + v_m(t) \Delta f] t] \quad (1)$$

↓ ↓ ↓
 Carrier Amplitude Analog carrier freq. peak
 Binary I.D. shift in the airfrequency.

Here modulating signal is a normalized Binary waveform

so we take logic 1 = +1

logic 0 = -1

if $v_m(t) = +1$

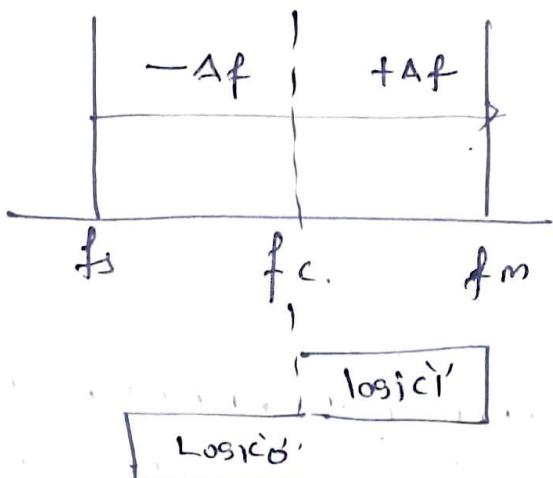
$$V_{FSK}(t) = V_c \cos \{ 2\pi (f_c + \Delta f) t \} \quad (2)$$

if $v_m(t) = -1$

$$V_{FSK}(t) = V_c \cos \{ 2\pi (f_c - \Delta f) t \} \quad (3)$$

From above equation ② and ③, the centre frequency f_c is shifted i.e. deviated upward down in the frequency domain by the binary input signal is

below



FSK in frequency domain

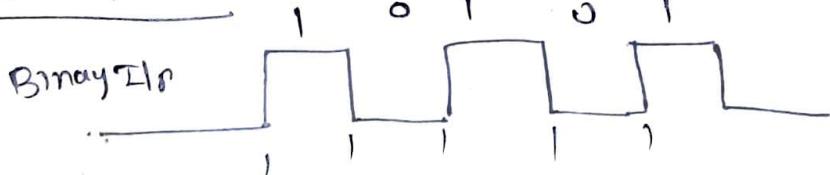
Frequency deviation is expressed mathematically as

$$f = |f_m - f_s| / 2$$

f = frequency deviation (Hz)

$|f_m - f_s| \rightarrow$ difference between the mark and space frequency (Hz)

FSK in time domain



$f_s \rightarrow$ space frequency

$f_m \rightarrow$ mark frequency

Minimum BW of FSK $B = |(f_s - f_m)| + 2f_b$

$$\text{Minimum Nyquist BW} = B = 2(f + f_b)$$

$f_s - f_m \rightarrow$ frequency Deviation in Hz
 $f_b = \text{Input bit rate (bps)}$

Determine the (a) peak frequency Deviations (b) minimum Bandwidth, and (c) band for a binary FSK signal with a mark frequency of 49 kHz, a space frequency of 51 kHz, and an input bit rate of 2 kbps.

(a) peak frequency deviation is determined by.

$$f = \frac{|f_m - f_s|}{2}$$
$$= \frac{|49 - 51|}{2} = 1 \text{ kHz.}$$

(b) minimum BW.

$$B = 2(f + f_b)$$
$$= 2(100 + 2000) = 6 \text{ kHz}$$

(c) For FSK, N=1, and the baud is determined by

$$\text{baud } 2000/1 = 2000/1$$

— x —

BINARY AMPLITUDE SHIFT KEYING

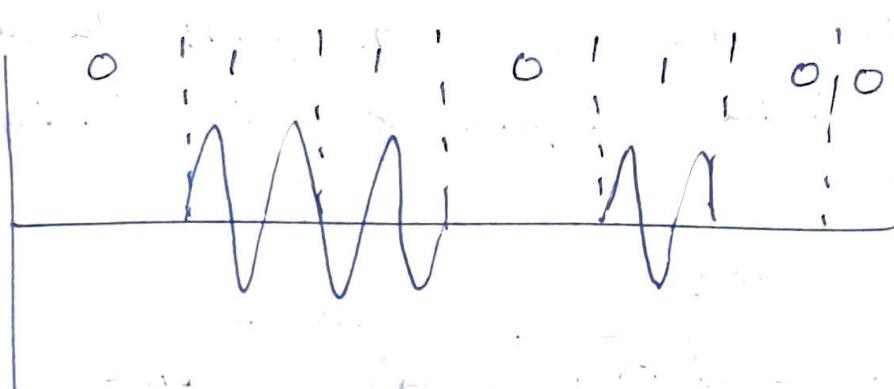
just for
2 marks

(ON-OFF keying) (OOK)

The amplitude of the carrier takes 2 values 'A' and '0' based on the binary symbol.

$$x_1(t) = A \cos 2\pi f_c t \quad \text{for '1'}$$

$$x_2(t) = 0 \quad \text{for '0'}$$



COHERENT BINARY FREQUENCY SHIFT KEYING (BFSK)

→ In BFSK, the symbols '0' and '1' are distinguished from each other by using one of two sinusoidal signals that differ in frequency by a fixed amount.

→ The tx'd BFSK signal is given by

$$x_i(t) = \sqrt{\frac{2E_b}{T_b}} \cos 2\pi f_i t, \quad 0 \leq t \leq T_b$$

When M=2, i=1, 2

$$f_i = \frac{w_c + p}{T_b}$$

Representing the BFSK signal in terms of basis function,

$$x_i(t) = \sqrt{E_b} \sqrt{\frac{2}{T_b}} \cos 2\pi f_i t \quad (\text{for symbol } i)$$

$$= \sqrt{E_b} \phi_i(t)$$

$$\text{where } \phi_i(t) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{T_b}} \cos 2\pi f_i t$$

is the basis fn

Willy $x_2(t) = \sqrt{E_b} \sqrt{\frac{2}{T_b}} \cos 2\pi f_2 t$ for symbol 0

$$x_2(t) = \sqrt{E_b} \phi_2(t)$$

$$\phi_2(t) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{T_b}} \cos 2\pi f_2 t \text{ is the second basis } f_2$$

BFSK Constellation: Here $N=2, M=2$.

$$x_{ij} = \int_0^{T_b} x_i(t) \phi_j(t) dt \quad i=1, j=1, 2$$

$i=1, j=1$

$$\begin{aligned} x_{11} &= \int_0^{T_b} x_1(t) \phi_1(t) dt \\ &= \int_0^{T_b} \sqrt{E_b} \phi_1^2(t) dt = \sqrt{E_b} \end{aligned}$$

$i=1, j=2$

$$\begin{aligned} x_{12} &= \int_0^{T_b} x_1(t) \phi_2(t) dt = \int_0^{T_b} \sqrt{E_b} \phi_2(t) \phi_1(t) dt \\ &= \sqrt{E_b} \int_0^{T_b} \phi_1(t) \phi_2(t) dt \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

since $\phi_1(t)\phi_2(t) = 0$.

$i=2, j=1$

$$\begin{aligned} x_{21} &= \int_0^{T_b} x_2(t) \phi_1(t) dt = \int_0^{T_b} \sqrt{E_b} \phi_2(t) \phi_1(t) dt \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

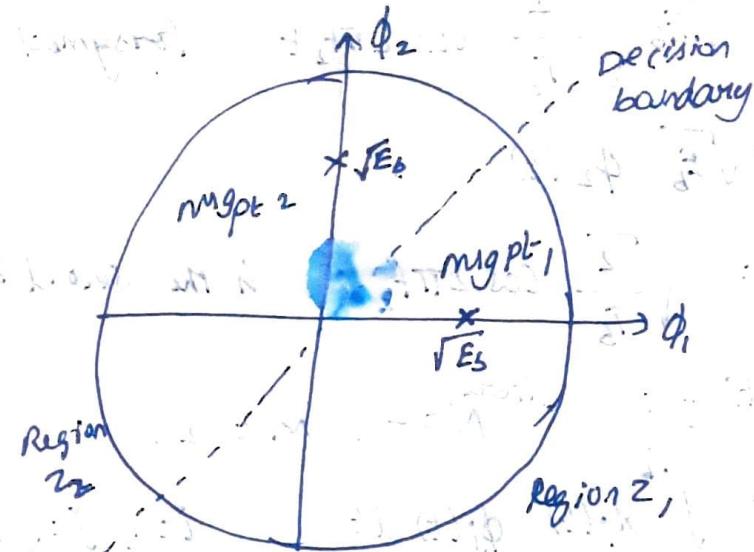
$i=2, j=2$

$$\begin{aligned} x_{22} &= \int_0^{T_b} x_2(t) \phi_2(t) dt = \int_0^{T_b} \sqrt{E_b} \phi_2^2(t) dt \\ &= \sqrt{E_b} \end{aligned}$$

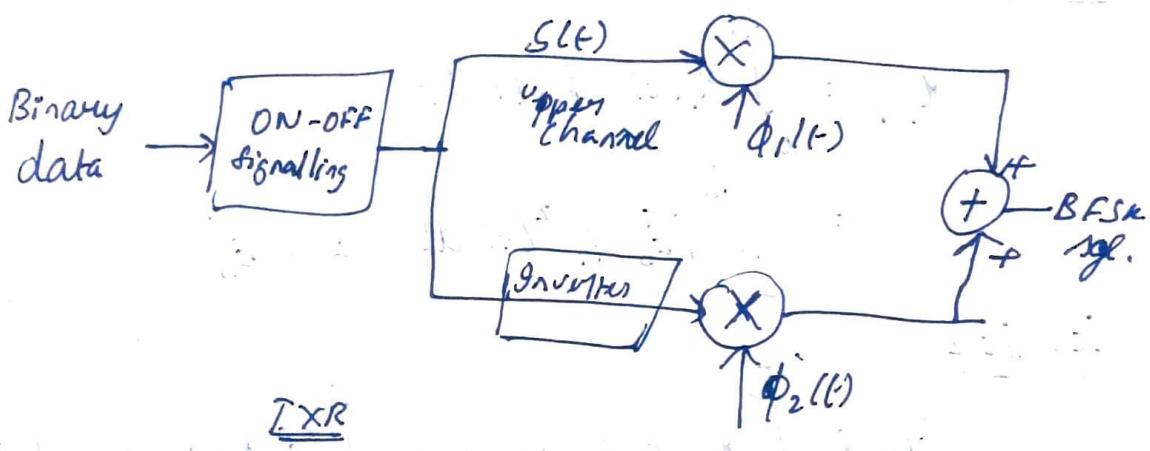
The signal points are given by vectors $x_1 = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{E_b} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

and $x_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \sqrt{E_b} \end{bmatrix}$

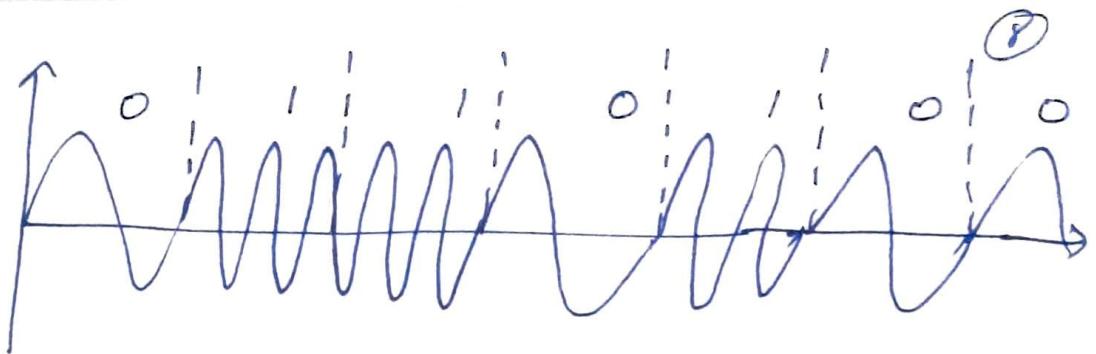
BFSK Constellation



BFSK Generation

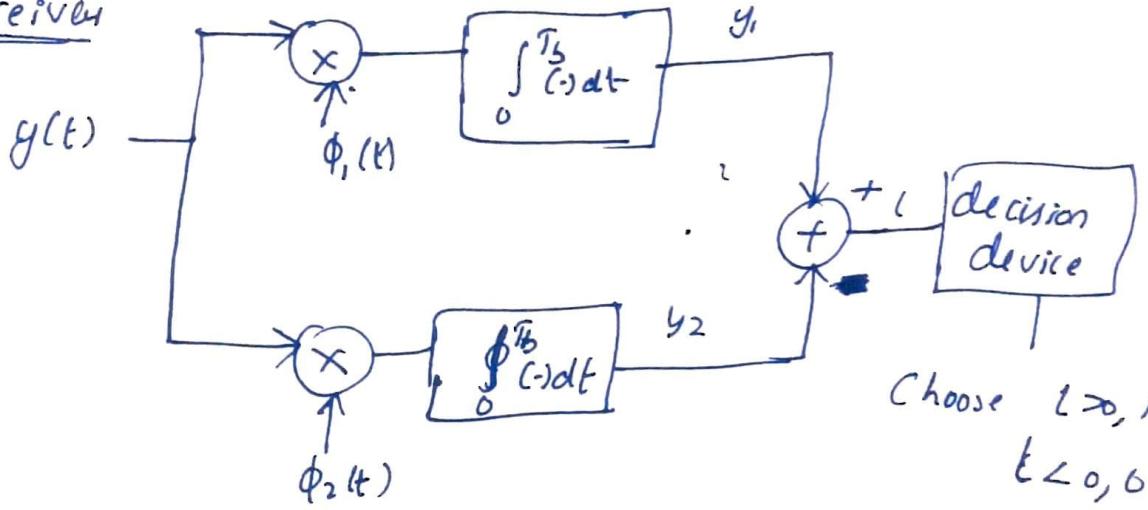


- The binary data is line coded using unipolar
 $1 \rightarrow \sqrt{E_b}$
 $0 \rightarrow 0$.
- Multiply $s(t)$ with 1st basis function $\phi_1(t)$ in upper channel.
- $s(t)$ is inverted in lower channel & multiplied with second basis fn.
- Adding upper and lower channel will produce BFSK signal.
- The rxed signal is given as ip to upper & lower correlators. The difference is obtained and if $I > 0$, bit '1' else bit '0' is obtained.



Waveform - BFSK

Receiver



→

(9)

Differential Phase Shift Keying (DPSK)

→ Non-coherent version of PSK.

i.e. It does not require any reference signal at the rxr from txr.

→ This is achieved by combining 2 operations at the txr, namely:

1. Differential encoding of input binary signal
2. Phase shift keying.

So Differential encoding + PSK → DPSK.

→ For txning symbol '1', we leave the phase of the current signal waveform unchanged and to txd '0', we advance the phase by 180° .

'1' → phase unchanged

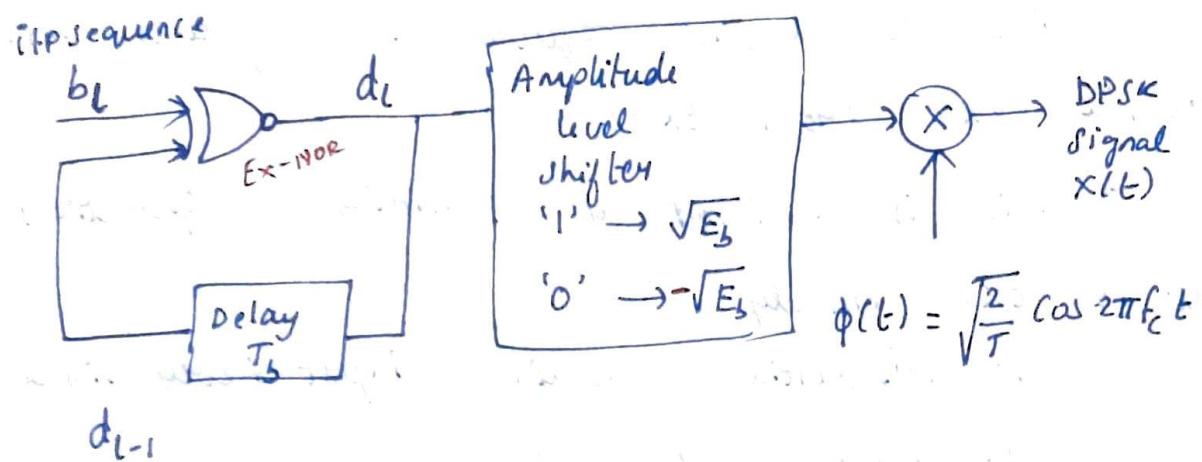
'0' → phase advanced by 180° .

→ The rxr is enabled with storage capacity, so it can measure the relative phase difference between the waveform rxed. during 2 successive bit intervals.

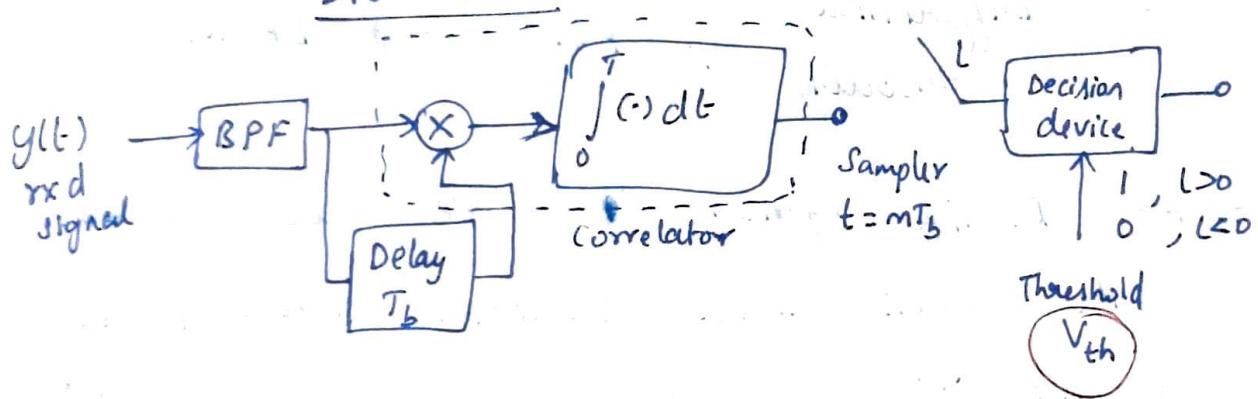
→ The unknown phase θ in the rx signal is slowly varied so that the phase difference b/w

the signals rxd in two successive bit intervals will be independent of θ .

DPSK - txr



DPSK Rxr



→ The I/p bits are differentially encoded using Ex-NOR operation.

Differentially encoded output is

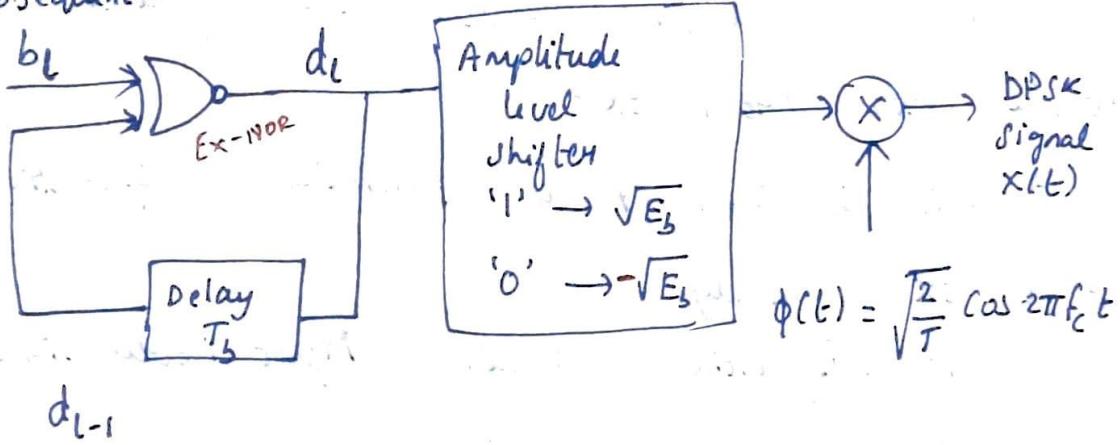
$$d_l = \overline{b_l \oplus d_{l-1}}$$

These bits are used to modulate the carrier with phase angles 0 & π radians.

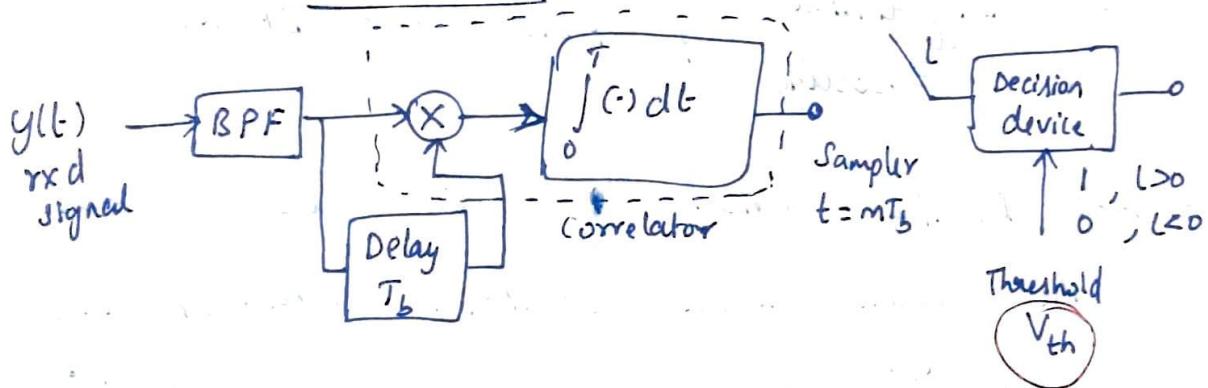
the signals rxd in two successive bit intervals will be independent of ϕ .

DPSK - txr

i/p sequence



DPSK Rxr



→ The i/p bits are differentially encoded using

Ex-NOR operation.

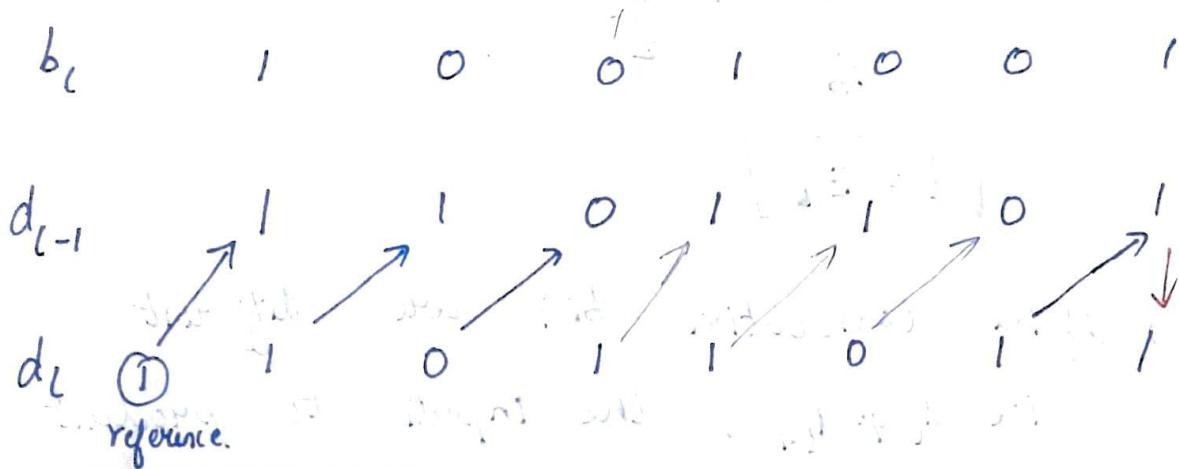
differentially encoded output is

$$d_l = \overline{b_l \oplus d_{l-1}}$$

These bits are used to modulate the carrier with phase angles $0 \pm \pi$ radians.

DPSK Signal generation

(10)



TxD. phase is generated by this method
 phase (φ) 0 0 π 0 0 π 0 0

→ The rx'd. signal is bandpass filtered to limit the noise component.

→ If the consecutive bits are same ($d_l = d_{l-1}$) then the inputs to product modulator are inphase

$$\sqrt{\frac{2E_b}{T_b}} \cos(2\pi f_c t + \phi) \cdot \sqrt{\frac{2E_b}{T_b}} \cos(2\pi f_c t + \phi)$$

$$= \frac{2E_b}{T_b} \cos^2(2\pi f_c t + \phi)$$

The integrator o/p at $t = T_b$ is

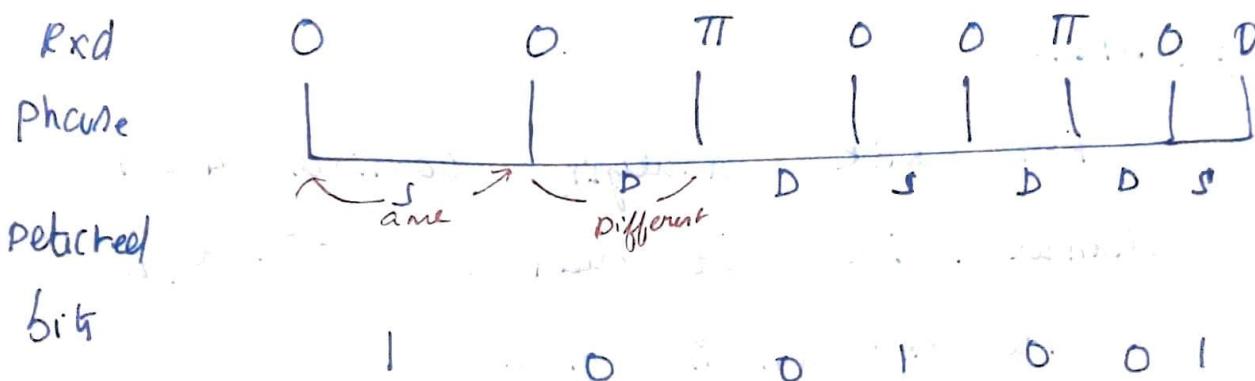
$$\int_0^{T_b} \frac{2E_b}{T_b} \cos^2(2\pi f_c t + \phi) dt$$

$$= \frac{2E_b}{T_b} \int_0^{T_b} \frac{1 + \cos 2(2\pi f_c t + \phi)}{2} dt$$

$$\cos^2 \theta = \frac{1 + \cos 2\theta}{2}$$

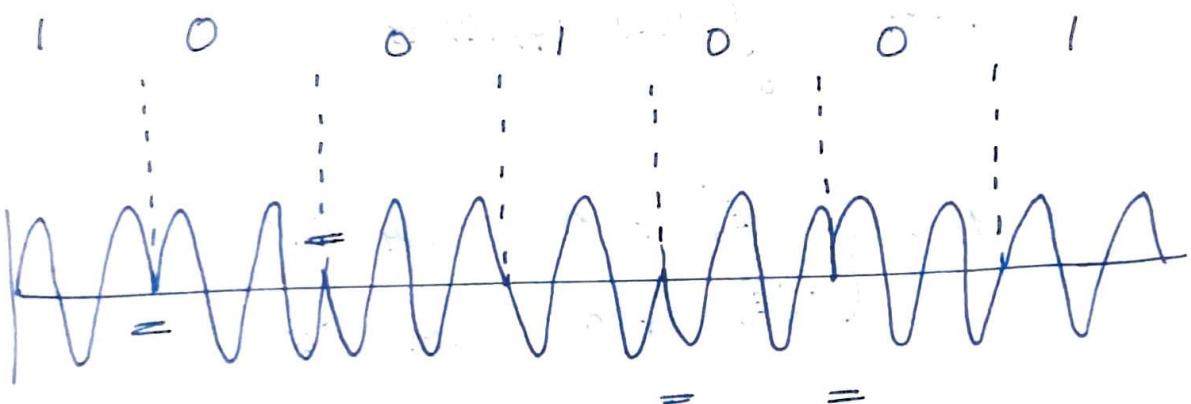
(11)

The detected sequence is obtained by



DPSK waveform

Undergoes a phase change when '0' is sent.



Avg Probability of error,

$$P_e = \frac{P_{e(0)} + P_{e(1)}}{2}$$

$$P_e = \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{erfc} \left(\frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{E_b}{N_0}} \right)$$

③ BFSK BER analysis

Assuming to be AWGN channel with N_{00} ,

$\sigma^2 = \frac{N_0}{2}$, the rx'd signal is

$$y(t) = \begin{cases} x_1(t) + n(t) & \text{for symbol 1} \\ x_2(t) + n(t) & \text{for symbol 0} \end{cases}$$

Observation vector

$$y = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{where } y_1 = \int_0^{T_b} y(t) \phi_1(t) dt$$

$$y_2 = \int_0^{T_b} y(t) \phi_2(t) dt$$

When symbol 1 is tx'd, observation vector is

$$y_1 = \int_0^{T_b} [x_1(t) + n(t)] \phi_1(t) dt$$

$$= \int_0^{T_b} x_1(t) \phi_1(t) dt + \int_0^{T_b} n(t) \phi_1(t) dt$$

$$= \int_0^{T_b} \sqrt{E_b} \phi_1^2(t) dt + n_1$$

$$= \sqrt{E_b} + n_1$$

$$y_2 = \int_0^{T_b} [x_1(t) + n(t)] \phi_2(t) dt$$

$$= \int_0^{T_b} x_1(t) \phi_2(t) dt + \int_0^{T_b} n(t) \phi_2(t) dt$$

$$= \int_0^{T_b} \sqrt{E_b} \phi_1(t) \phi_2(t) + n$$

$$y_2 = 0 + n \quad \text{if } \phi_1(t) = \phi_2(t)$$

$$\therefore y = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{E_b} + n \\ n \end{bmatrix}$$

Now we can prove the observation scalar form

$$\text{as } P[y] = \begin{bmatrix} n \\ \sqrt{E_b} + n \end{bmatrix}$$

In the BFSK rxr, the rxd signal is given as

flip to both upper & lower correlators and the difference (L) is obtained if it is greater than 0 , txd bit ~~is~~ '1' and if not '0'

$$\text{So } L = y_1 - y_2$$

$$E[L|1] = E[(y_1|1) - (y_2|1)]$$

$$E[L|1] = E[\sqrt{E_b} + n - n] = \sqrt{E_b}$$

The conditional mean of the random variable L
under the condition that symbol o was tx'd is given
by

$$E[L|o] = E[(y_1|o) - (y_2|o)]$$

$$= E[n - (\sqrt{E_b} + n)]$$

$$\boxed{E[L|o] = -\sqrt{E_b}}$$

(15)

The random variables y_1 & y_2 are statistically independent with variances $\frac{N_0}{2}$. Then the variance of random variable L is

$$\text{Var}[L] = \text{Var}[y_1] + \text{Var}[y_2] = \frac{N_0}{2} + \frac{N_0}{2} = N_0.$$

When symbol ' o ' is tx'd, cpdf $f_L(l|o)$ of random variable L is given by

$$f_L(l|o) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi N_0}} e^{-\frac{(l+\sqrt{E_b})^2}{2N_0}}$$

Prob. of error, $P_e(o) = P(L > o)$ when symbol ' o ' was sent

$$= \int_o^{\infty} f_L(l|o) dl$$

$$= \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi N_0}} \exp -\frac{(l+\sqrt{E_b})^2}{2N_0} dl$$

Let we take $\frac{l+\sqrt{E_b}}{\sqrt{2N_0}} = z$, $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} l=0 \Rightarrow z = \sqrt{\frac{E_b}{2N_0}} \\ l=\infty \Rightarrow z = \infty \end{array} \right.$

$$dz = \frac{dl}{\sqrt{2N_0}}$$

$$P_e(o) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi N_0}} \int_{\frac{-\sqrt{E_b}}{\sqrt{2N_0}}}^{\infty} e^{-z^2} \cdot \sqrt{2N_0} dz$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{\frac{-\sqrt{E_b}}{\sqrt{2N_0}}}^{\infty} e^{-z^2} dz$$

This is the Complimentary error fn,

$$P_e(0) = \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{erfc}\left(\sqrt{\frac{E_b}{2N_0}}\right)$$

likly

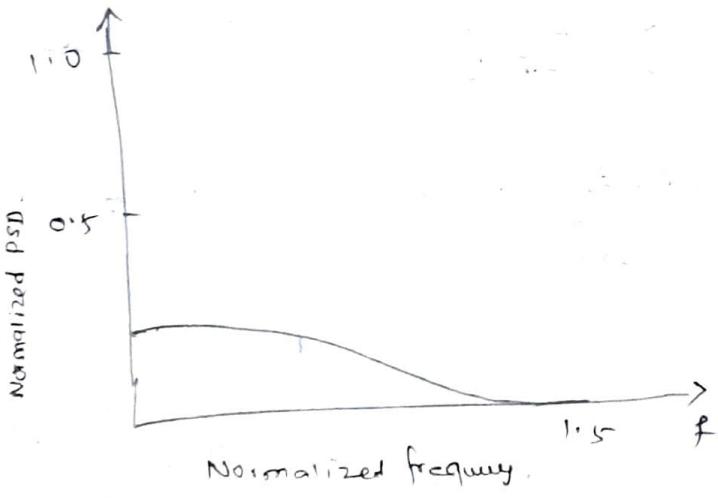
$$P_e(1) = \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{erfc}\left(\sqrt{\frac{E_b}{2N_0}}\right)$$

Avg. prob. of error is

$$P_e = \frac{P_e(0) + P_e(1)}{2}$$

$$P_e = \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{erfc}\left(\sqrt{\frac{E_b}{2N_0}}\right)$$

PSD of FSIC



(c) Coherent Quadrature phase shift keying (QPSK)

In QPSK, the phase of transmitted carrier takes one of the four equally spaced values such as $\pi/4$, $3\pi/4$, $5\pi/4$, $7\pi/4$ and so on.

The tx'd QPSK signal is given by

$$x_i(t) = \sqrt{\frac{2E}{T}} \cos \left[2\pi f_c t + (2i-1) \frac{\pi}{4} \right]$$

$T \rightarrow$ Symbol duration

$E \rightarrow$ Symbol Energy

Sub

$$x_1(t) = \sqrt{\frac{2E}{T}} \cos \left[2\pi f_c t + \frac{\pi}{4} \right]$$

$$x_2(t) = \sqrt{\frac{2E}{T}} \cos \left[2\pi f_c t + \frac{3\pi}{4} \right]$$

$$x_3(t) = \sqrt{\frac{2E}{T}} \cos \left[2\pi f_c t + \frac{5\pi}{4} \right]$$

$$x_4(t) = \sqrt{\frac{2E}{T}} \cos \left[2\pi f_c t + \frac{7\pi}{4} \right]$$

$$x_i(t) = \sqrt{\frac{2E}{T}} \cos 2\pi f_c t \cos(2i-1)\frac{\pi}{4}$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{2E}{T}} \sin 2\pi f_c t \sin(2i-1)\frac{\pi}{4}$$

$\begin{aligned} &\cos A \cos B \\ &- \sin A \sin B \\ &= \cos(A+B) \end{aligned}$

$i = 1, 2, 3, 4$

$$= \sqrt{E} \cos(2i-1)\frac{\pi}{4} \sqrt{\frac{2}{T}} \cos 2\pi f_c t + \sqrt{E} \sin(2i-1)\frac{\pi}{4}$$

$$= x(t) = \sqrt{E} \cos(2i-1)\frac{\pi}{4} \cos(\omega_1 t) - \sqrt{E} \sin(2i-1)\frac{\pi}{4} \sin(\omega_2 t).$$

$$\text{where } \phi_1(t) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{T}} \cos 2\pi f_{c,t} t$$

$$\text{and } \phi_2(t) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{T}} \sin 2\pi f_{c,t} t$$

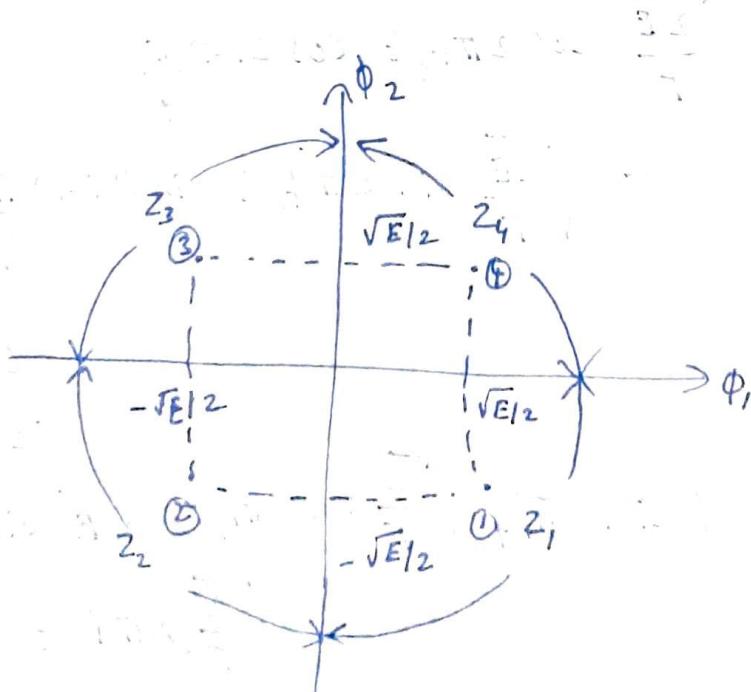
Constellation (Polar is better here)

There are 4 msg points and the corresponding signal vectors are

$$x_i = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{E} \cos(2i-1)\pi/4 \\ -\sqrt{E} \sin(2i-1)\pi/4 \end{bmatrix}, i=1, 2, 3, 4$$

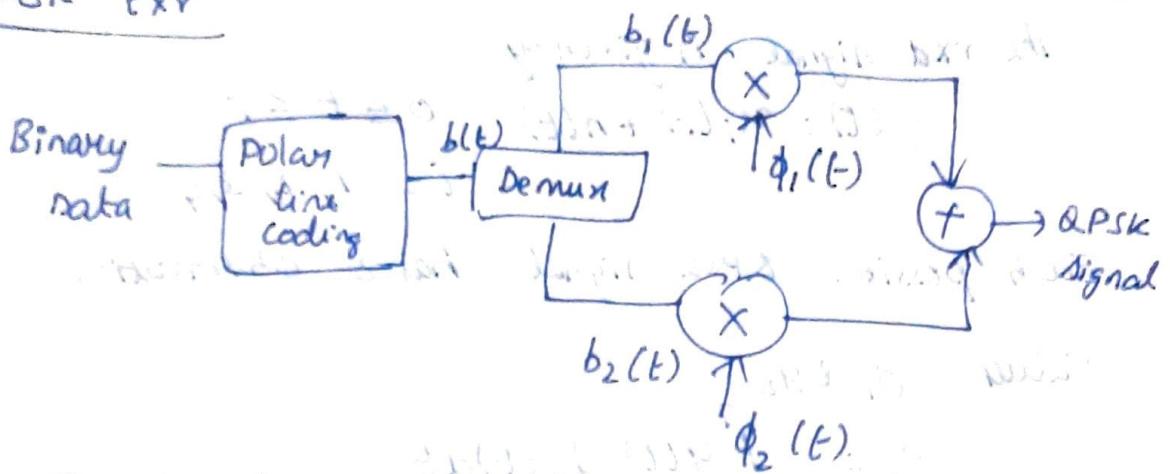
By substituting values $i = 1, 2, 3, 4$

di Bits	Carrier	Msg Co-ordinates
1 0	$\pi/4$	$x_{i1} + \sqrt{E}/2, x_{i2} - \sqrt{E}/2$
0 0	$3\pi/4$	$-x_{i1} - \sqrt{E}/2, -x_{i2} - \sqrt{E}/2$
0 1	$5\pi/4$	$-x_{i1} - \sqrt{E}/2, x_{i2} + \sqrt{E}/2$
1 1	$7\pi/4$	$x_{i1} + \sqrt{E}/2, x_{i2} + \sqrt{E}/2$



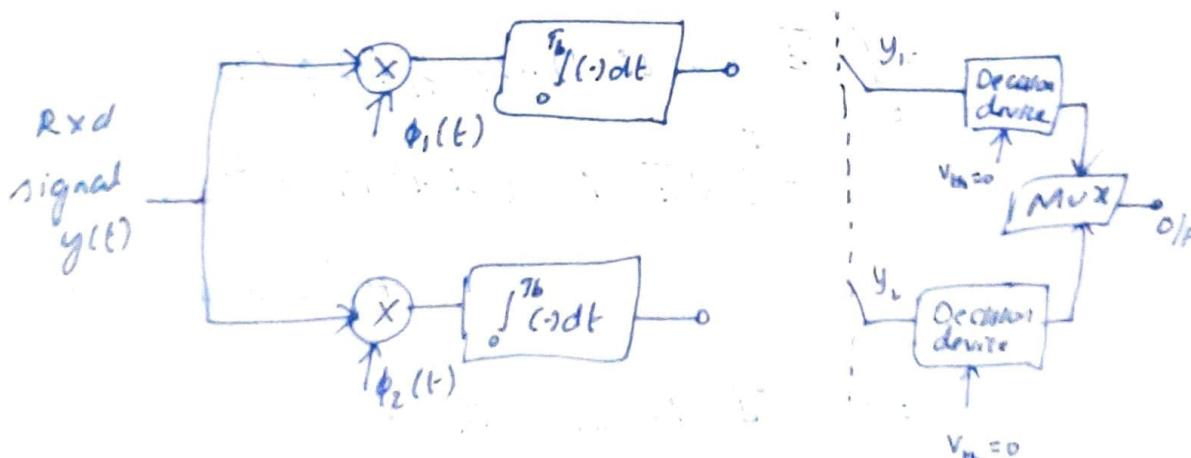
QPSK Space Signal Dgm.

QPSK txr



- Input binary data is polar line coded to get $b_1(t)$ and $b_2(t)$.
- Using demux, polar signal is divided into 2 waves one with odd bits and the other one with even bits.
- These two waves are separately BPSK modulated using corresponding basis functions.
- Addition of two BPSK results in QPSK wave.

QPSK Rxr



- The rx signal is passed through the correlators in upper and lower channels. The correlator outputs are sampled and the samples are compared with the threshold which gives inphase & quadrature bits. These bits are combined which gives the rx bit sequence back.

BER analysis (QPSK)

The rx'd signal is given by

$$y(t) = x_i(t) + n(t) \quad \text{and} \quad 0 \leq t \leq T$$

$$\text{where } i = 1, 2, 3, 4$$

Each possible QPSK signal has 2 observations

values y_1 & y_2

$$y_1 = \int_0^T y(t) \phi_1(t) dt$$

$$= \int_0^T [x_i(t) + n(t)] \phi_1(t) dt$$

$$\rightarrow \text{this is } \int_0^T x_i(t) \phi_1(t) dt + \int_0^T n(t) \phi_1(t) dt$$

$$= \sqrt{E} \cos((2i-1)\pi/4) \phi_1^2(t) dt - \sqrt{E} \sin((2i-1)\pi/4) \phi_1(t) \phi_2(t) dt + n_1$$

$$y_1 = \sqrt{E} \cos((2i-1)\pi/4) + n_1$$

$$y_2 = \int_0^T y(t) \phi_2(t) dt = \int_0^T [(x_i(t) + n(t))] \phi_2(t) dt$$

$$= \int_0^T \sqrt{E} \cos((2i-1)\pi/4) \phi_1(t) \phi_2(t) dt$$

$$- \int_0^T \sqrt{E} \sin((2i-1)\pi/4) \phi_2^2(t) dt + n_2$$

$$+ \int_0^T n(t) \phi_2(t) dt$$

$$= 0 - \sqrt{E} \sin((2i-1)\pi/4) + n_2$$

$$\therefore \text{Now, } y_2 = -\sqrt{E} \sin((2i-1)\pi/4) + n_2$$

Observation Vector is formed as follows

$$y = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{E} \cos((2i-1)\pi/4) + n_1 \\ -\sqrt{E} \sin((2i-1)\pi/4) + n_2 \end{bmatrix}_{i=1, 2, 3, 4}$$

Mean

$$E(y_1) = \sqrt{E} \cos((2i-1)\pi/4) + E(n)$$

$$\Rightarrow \sqrt{E} \cos((2i-1)\pi/4) \quad | E(n)=0$$

$$E(y_2) = -\sqrt{E} \sin((2i-1)\pi/4) + E(n)$$

$$= -\sqrt{E} \sin((2i-1)\pi/4), i=1, 2, 3, 4$$

Variance of $y_{1,2} N_0$

Assume $x_4(t)$ is debit 11. For correct decision, observation values y_1 and y_2 should be greater than 0.

$$\text{Prob. of correct decision} = P(y_1 > 0) \cdot P(y_2 > 0)$$

$$P_c = \int_0^\infty \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi N_0}} \exp\left[-\frac{(y_1 - \sqrt{E}/2)^2}{N_0}\right] dy_1$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_0^\infty \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi N_0}} \exp\left[-\frac{(y_2 - \sqrt{E}/2)^2}{N_0}\right] dy_2$$

$$\text{Let } \frac{y_1 - \sqrt{E}/2}{\sqrt{N_0}} = \frac{y_2 - \sqrt{E}/2}{\sqrt{N_0}} = z$$

Changing variables of integration from y_1 & y_2 to z

$$y_1 = 0 \rightarrow z = -\sqrt{E}/2\sqrt{N_0}$$

$$y_1 = \infty \rightarrow z = \infty$$

$$\frac{dy_1}{\sqrt{N_0}} = dz \Rightarrow dy_1 = \sqrt{N_0} dz$$

$$P_c = \int_{-\sqrt{\frac{E}{2N_0}}}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi N_0}} e^{-z^2} dz$$

(approx. value)

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi N_0}} \int_{-\sqrt{\frac{E}{2N_0}}}^{\infty} e^{-z^2} dz$$

(approx. value)

Ansatz \rightarrow Integration by parts

II

Consider term I, i.e., $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} e^{-z^2} dz$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} e^{-z^2} dz = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-z^2} dz$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2N_0}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-z^2} dz$$

and we know $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-z^2} dz = \sqrt{\pi}$

$$\therefore \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} e^{-z^2} dz = \sqrt{\pi}$$

$$\therefore \text{erfc}(x) = \frac{1}{2} \left[2 - \text{erfc}\left(\frac{x}{\sqrt{2N_0}}\right) \right]$$

$$\text{erfc}(-x) = 2 - \text{erfc}(x)$$

$$P_c = \left(1 - \frac{1}{2} \text{erfc}\left(\frac{\sqrt{E}}{\sqrt{2N_0}}\right) \right)^2$$

- Prob. of error is

$$P_e = 1 - P_c = 1 - \left(1 - \frac{1}{2} \text{erfc}\left(\frac{\sqrt{E}}{\sqrt{2N_0}}\right) \right)^2$$

$$= 1 - \left(1 - \frac{1}{2} \text{erfc}^2\left(\frac{\sqrt{E}}{\sqrt{2N_0}}\right) - \text{erfc}\left(\frac{\sqrt{E}}{\sqrt{2N_0}}\right) \right)^2$$

$$= 1 - \left(\frac{1}{4} \text{erfc}^2\left(\frac{\sqrt{E}}{\sqrt{2N_0}}\right) + \text{erfc}\left(\frac{\sqrt{E}}{\sqrt{2N_0}}\right) \right)^2$$

$$= 1 - \frac{1}{4} \text{erfc}^2\left(\frac{\sqrt{E}}{\sqrt{2N_0}}\right) - \text{erfc}\left(\frac{\sqrt{E}}{\sqrt{2N_0}}\right)$$

$$P_e = \text{erfc}\left(\frac{\sqrt{E}}{\sqrt{2N_0}}\right) - \frac{1}{4} \text{erfc}^2\left(\frac{\sqrt{E}}{\sqrt{2N_0}}\right)$$

$$\text{approx. } P_e \approx \text{erfc}\left(\frac{\sqrt{E}}{\sqrt{2N_0}}\right)$$

$$F = 2E_b$$

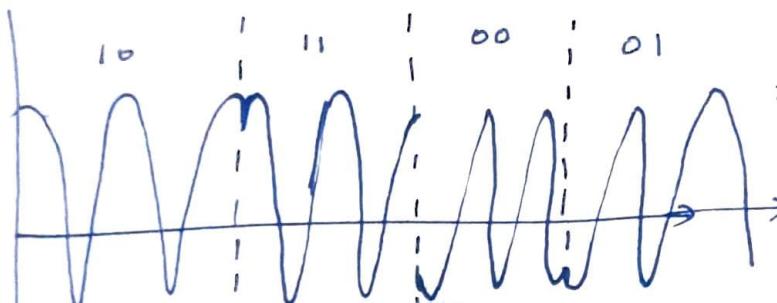
$$P_e \simeq \operatorname{erfc} \sqrt{\frac{2E_b}{2N_0}}$$

$$P_e^{\text{QPSK}} \simeq \operatorname{erfc} \sqrt{\frac{E_b}{N_0}}$$

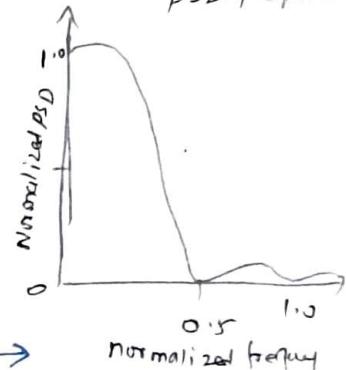
With Gray coding used, bit error rate of QPSK signal is

$$\text{BER} = \frac{P_e^{\text{QPSK}}}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{erfc} \sqrt{\frac{E_b}{N_0}}$$

QPSK waveform



PSD of QPSK -



QUADRATURE AMPLITUDE MODULATION (QAM)

→ QAM is a form of modulation, used for modulating data signals onto a carrier used for radio communication.

→ It is the combination of ASK & PSK.

→ QAM uses 2 carriers for modulation, which are separated by 90° degrees. The resultant signals are summed together and it consist of both amplitude and phase variations. Hence it is considered as a combination of amplitude & phase modulation.

Generation of QAM:

(20)

In a QAM signal, it uses two carriers each having the frequency and different phase by 90° .

One signal is called as I-inphase which is a sine wave and the other is called as Q - quadrature which is a cosine wave.

The block diagram used to generate the QAM signal is shown in the figure,

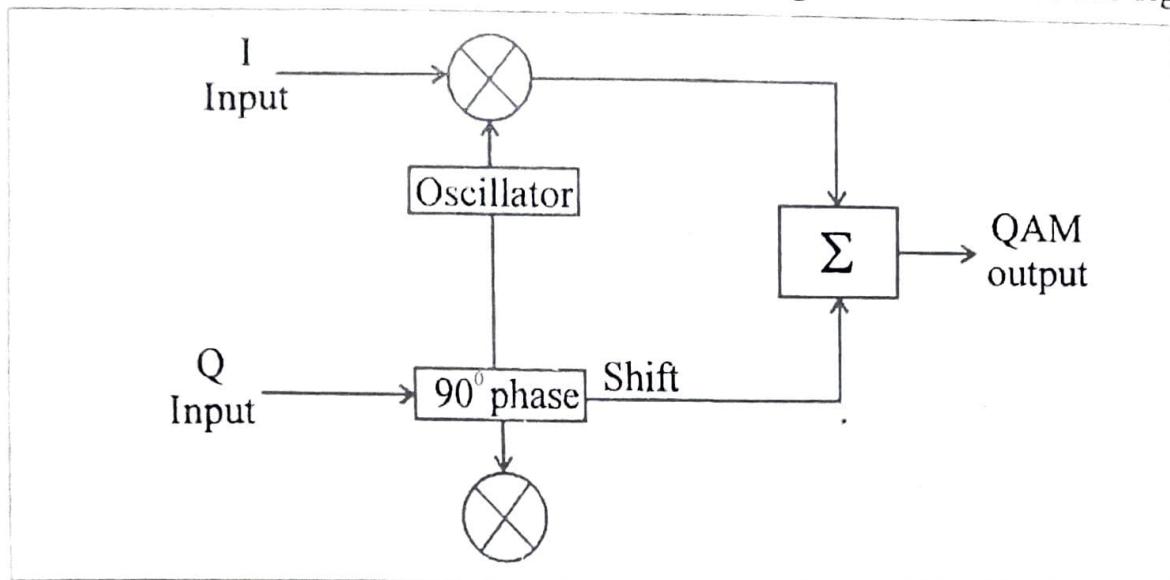


Fig. 4.28 Basic QAM Modulator

There are two carrier signals used with a 90° phase shift between them. The two input message signals are given at one of the inputs to the mixer. The other input to the mixer is the carrier signal. First mixer receives the carrier with 0° phase shift and the second mixer receives the carrier with 90° phase shift.

The modulated signals by the two mixers are given to a summer. The resultant signals are summed and then processed for transmission.

$$I = A \cdot \cos \theta \quad (\text{Inphase signal})$$

$$Q = A \cdot \sin \theta \quad (\text{Quadrature signal}).$$

Detection of QAM:

The detection of the QAM signal at the receiver is shown in the figure.

The transmitted signal are given as a input to the splitter. This will split the signal into two and are applied to the mixers.

One half of the signal is applied with inphase local oscillator and demodulated.

The other half is applied with quadrature oscillator signal and demodulated.

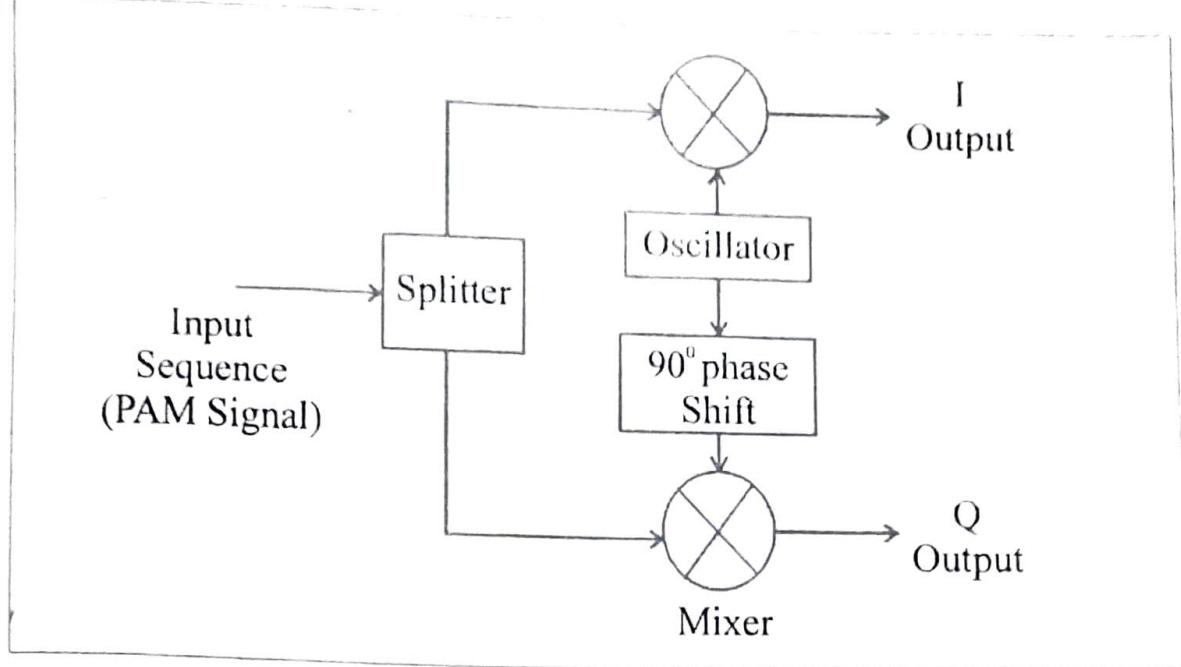


Fig. 4.29 QAM Demodulation

The demodulation circuitry includes the circuitry for carrier recovery. For this purpose usually phase locked loop is used.

Signal space diagram of QAM :

The QAM is considered as the two pulse amplitude signals on quadrature carriers. The first rectangular QAM is usually 16 - QAM and it is represented in the figure.

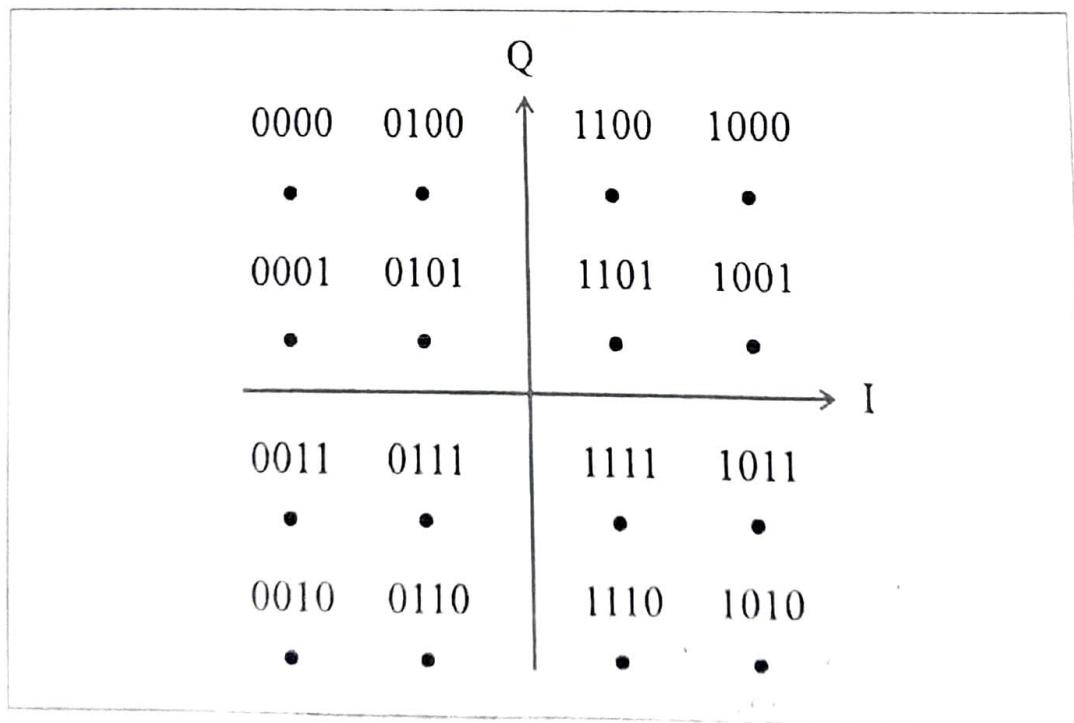


Fig. 4.30 Signal Space Diagram of QAM

Formula summary for the Bit error rate of different digital modulation schemes

S.No	modulation type	BER
1.	Coherent BPSK	$\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{erfc} \left(\sqrt{\frac{E_b}{N_o}} \right)$
2.	Coherent BFSK	$\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{erfc} \left[\sqrt{\frac{E_b}{2N_o}} \right]$
3.	DPSK	$\frac{1}{2} \exp \left(-\frac{E_b}{N_o} \right)$
4.	Non coherent BFSK	$\frac{1}{2} \exp(-E_b / 2N_o)$
5.	Coherent QPSK & coherent MSK	$\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{erfc} \sqrt{\frac{E_b}{N_o}}$

4.10 SYNCHRONIZATION :

If any two event occur simultaneously then the two sequence of events are said to be 'synchronous'. The process of making any situation synchronous and maintaining it in this condition is called 'synchronization'.

In digital modulation techniques, there are two modes of synchronization.

1. Carrier synchronization
2. Symbol synchronization

4.10.1 Carrier Synchronization:

During the coherent type of detection the knowledge about frequency and the phase of the carrier is important. The estimation of both the frequency and phase of the carrier is called carrier synchronization.

The carrier synchronization at the receiver can be achieved by the way of modulating the message signal onto the carrier in a way that the power spectrum contains a discrete component at the carrier frequency.

Phase locked loop (PLL) can be used at the receiver to track this component.

A phase locked loop consist of a voltage controlled oscillator (VCO), filter, and a multiplier connected by the way of negative feedback system.

Some time there is also possibility of absence of the DC component in the power spectrum of the message signal. In that case the receiver use a technique called "suppressed carrier-tracking loop" to provide the carrier reference.

The following figure is the example or method of carrier synchronization with the consideration of the impulse is available at the carrier frequency.

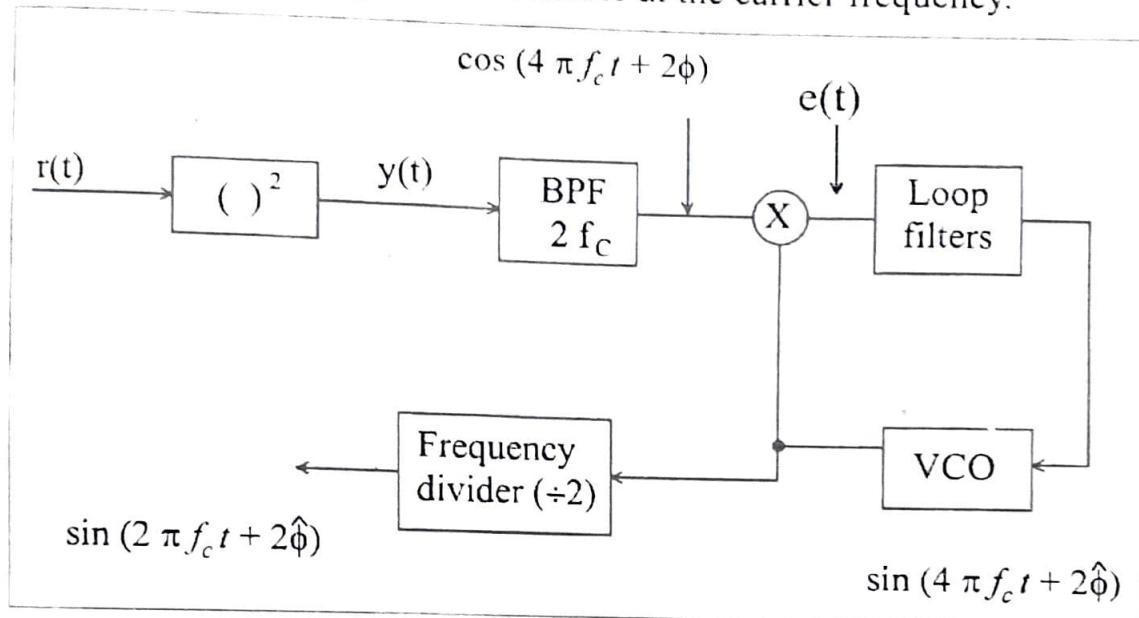


Fig. 4.31 Carrier Recovery

The impulse present in the carrier signal can be recovered with the help of phase – locked – loop (PLL).

In the modern way of digital communication system the presence of carrier is considered as wastage of energy. Therefore the suppressed carrier systems are employed. In these type systems two ways are adopted for the carrier recovery at the receiver.

1. Data aided synchronization
2. Non – data aided synchronization

1. Data aided synchronization :-

In this method along with the input information a special signal is also sent which is called as pilot signal. This pilot signal is nothing but the unmodulated carrier.

The disadvantages of the systems are,

1. As the pilot signal is transmitted in each frame, the throughput of the system will be reduced.
2. Because of the transmission of power signals the power efficiency is also decreases.

2. Non data – aided synchronisation:-

In this method pilot signal is not used. The receiver recreates the carrier by extracting necessary information from the received signal itself.

The main disadvantage in this system is,

1. Increase in time taken for synchronization of the carrier.

At the receiver side two different approaches are used for the recreation of carrier,

- a) Forward acting carrier recovery
- b) Decision directed carrier recovery.

The forward acting carrier recovery method is presented here in detail,

The noise contained received waveform is assumed as $r(t)$.

$$r(t) = s(t) + n(t)$$

where,

$s(t)$ – signal

$n(t)$ – noise

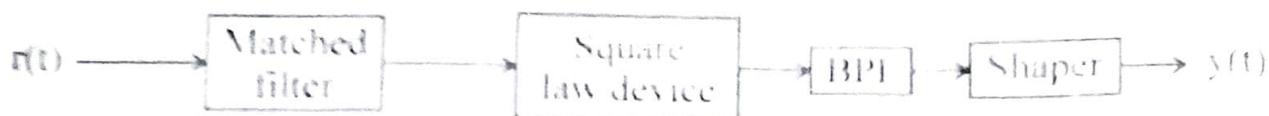
the $s(t)$ can be written as,

$$s(t) = A(t) \cdot \cos(2\pi f_c t + \phi) \quad \dots (4.102)$$

If we passed the received signal directly onto the low pass (or) band pass, it will average the signal and it doesn't contain any phase (or) frequency component. So, it is sent to a squaring device before filtering. The square of the signal component is,

$$s^2(t) = \frac{1}{2} A^2(t) + \frac{1}{2} A^2(t) \cdot \cos(4\pi f_c t + 2\phi) \quad \dots (4.103)$$

One of the example of such type of synchronizer is shown in the following Figure.



In the above example the matched filter output is a triangular waveform and it is given to a square law device.

The square law device rectifies the signal and the resulting signal has the frequency that is equal to the transmitted signal frequency.

The Fourier component can be separated by a BPF tuned to the frequency $f_0 = R_s$. This is further shaped by a saturating amplifier. Now the receiver can able to recover the clock which is used in the transmitter.

2. Closed loop symbol synchronization:

In this method, the clock can be generated on comparative measurements.

This method is more accurate but it is costly and complex in design.

The following figure shows the method of early late gate synchronizer.

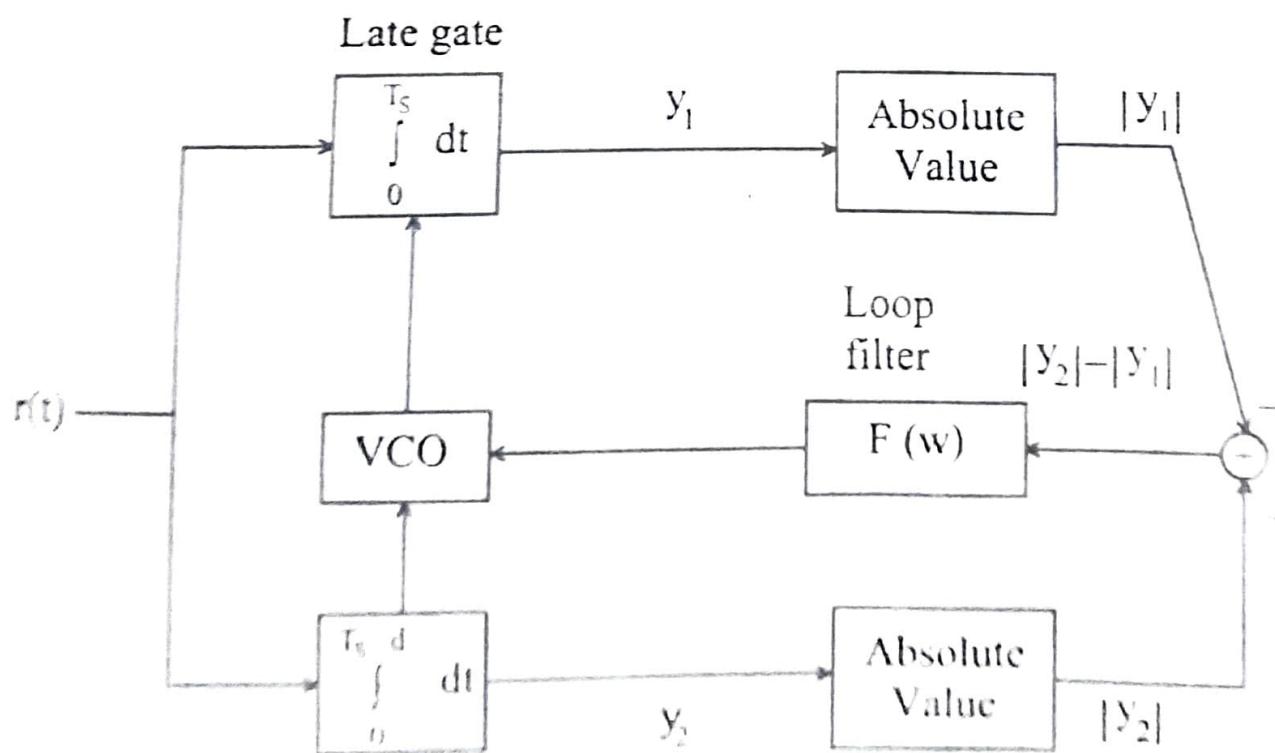


Fig. 32 Early - Late Gate Synchroniser

This is given to a band pass filter. The BPF produce the average (or) expected value of the signal

$$E[s^2(t)] = \frac{1}{2} E[A^2(t)] + \frac{1}{2} E\left[\frac{1}{2} E[A^2(t)] \cdot \cos(4\pi f_c t + 2\phi)\right] \dots (4.104)$$

The spectral component at $2f_c$ has sufficient power, so the band pass filter is tuned to $2f_c$.

Then it is filtered by loop filter and the output is given to the VCO. The feedback circuit locks the phase of the carrier. The output of the VCO is frequency divided to generate the phase locked carrier. This is the carrier used for the demodulation of the received signal $r(t)$.

4.10.2 Symbol Synchronization:

“During the demodulation it is also necessary for the receiver to know about the instant of modulation time. That is, the starting and finishing times of the symbols. The estimation of these times is called clock recovery (or) symbol synchronization”.

The symbol synchronization can be processed along side of the carrier recovery or it can be processed first. There are many approaches to accomplish the clock recovery.

Case (i): A clock can be transmitted along with the message signal in a multiplexed form. At the receiver, the clock is extracted by some filtering methods.

Case (ii): First extracting the clock by using non coherent detector. Then the carrier is recovered by the output in each clocked interval.

A symbol synchronizer can able to generate a square wave of frequency, which is equal to the transmitted frequency and the zero crossing coincide with the signals transitions.

This can be done by two ways

1. Open loop synchronization
2. Closed loop synchronization

I. Open loop symbol synchronization:-

It performs direct operations on the incoming data.

This type of synchrosers generate a frequency component at the symbol rate, with the help of a filter & non linear devices.

This type of synchronisation can be performed on the received signal by two separate integration over two different portions of the symbol interval.

The first integration (early gate) begins for $(T_s - d)$ time where d is the delay between two integrators. Usually d is less than T_s .

The second integrator (Late gate) starts its integration ' d ' times after the first integration.

The difference in the absolute value of these two values is the measure of symbol timing error.

It is then feed back to the loops timing reference for correction. The operation can be best understood by the following timing diagram.

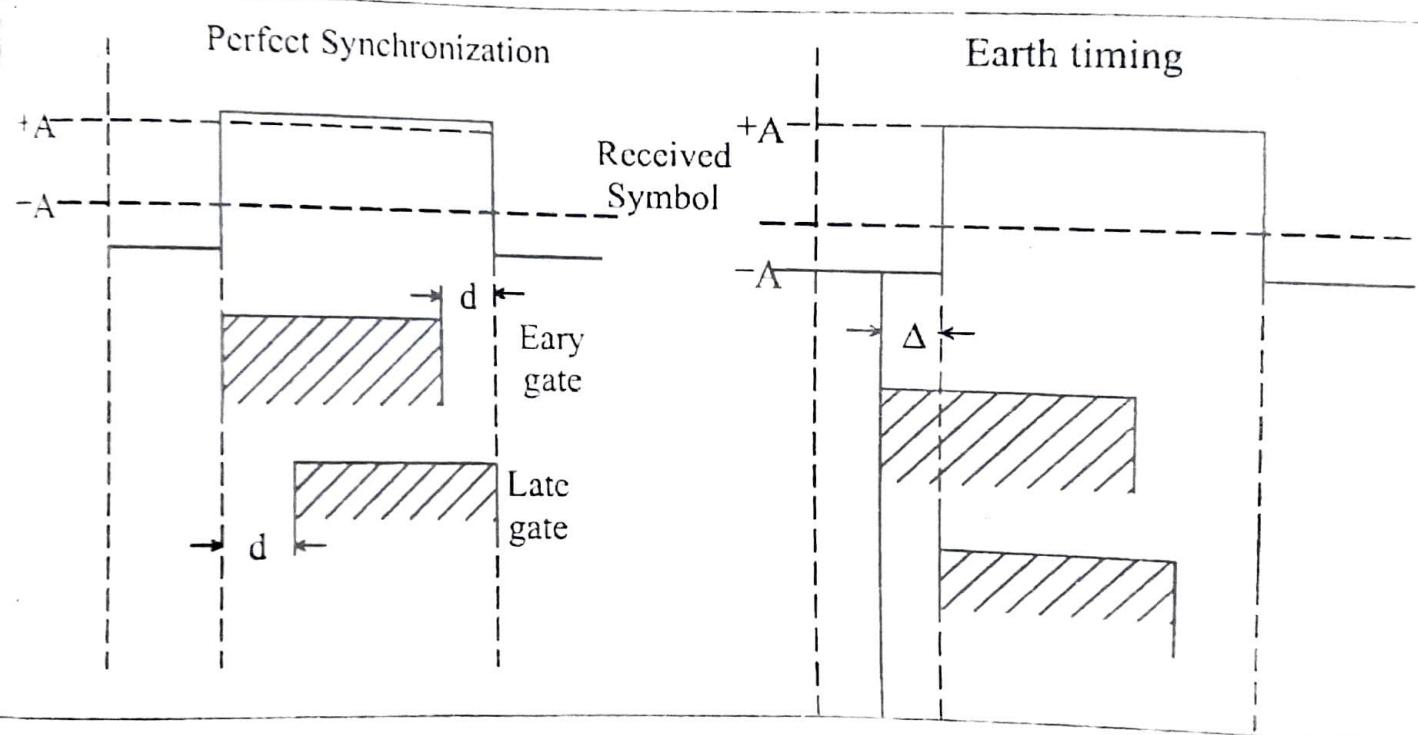


Fig. 4.33 Timing Diagram – Early Late Gate Synchronizer

During the perfect synchronisation both the gates are within the symbol interval. Therefore the receiver is in time synchronisation with the transmitted signals.

During the early clock timing with the interval Δ , the early gate falls on the previous bit interval and the difference is $-2\Delta A$. A is the amplitude of the signal.

This error signal lower the VCO voltage and as a consequence VCO output frequency is also lowered. So that the clock timing falls in line with the incoming signal.

If the receiver timing been late, then the error will be positive and VCO frequency increased towards that of the incoming signal.

In practical circuits the two gates are not identical there will be a presence of some offset. This is not considered in normal symbol sequence. But for long symbol, it may arise problems.

The solution is incorporating transparency in the line codes.

Comparison of the digital modulation schemes by Error Performance.

S.No	Type of Modulation	Transmission Bandwidth	Coherent detection	Non coherent detection
1	BASK	R	$\frac{1}{2} er f_c \sqrt{\frac{E}{4N_0}}$	-
2	BPSK	R	$\frac{1}{2} er f_c \sqrt{\frac{E}{N_0}}$	-
3	BFSK $(2\Delta f = f_2 - f_1)$	$2\Delta F + R$	$\frac{1}{2} er f_c \sqrt{\frac{E_b}{2N_0}}$	$\frac{1}{2} e^{-(1/2)} (E_b / N_0)$
4	DPSK	R	-	$\frac{1}{2} e^{(-E_b / N_0)}$
5	QPSK	1.5 R	$\frac{1}{2} er f_c \sqrt{\frac{E_b}{N_0}}$	-

Problems with Solutions :

1. In a BFSK system a bit rate of 3 Kbps is used. If the lower frequency signal is 10 KHz, find higher frequency signal of minimum if minimum separation is used between the two signals.

Solution:

$$f_b = 3 \text{ Kbps} \quad f_L = 10 \text{ KHz}$$

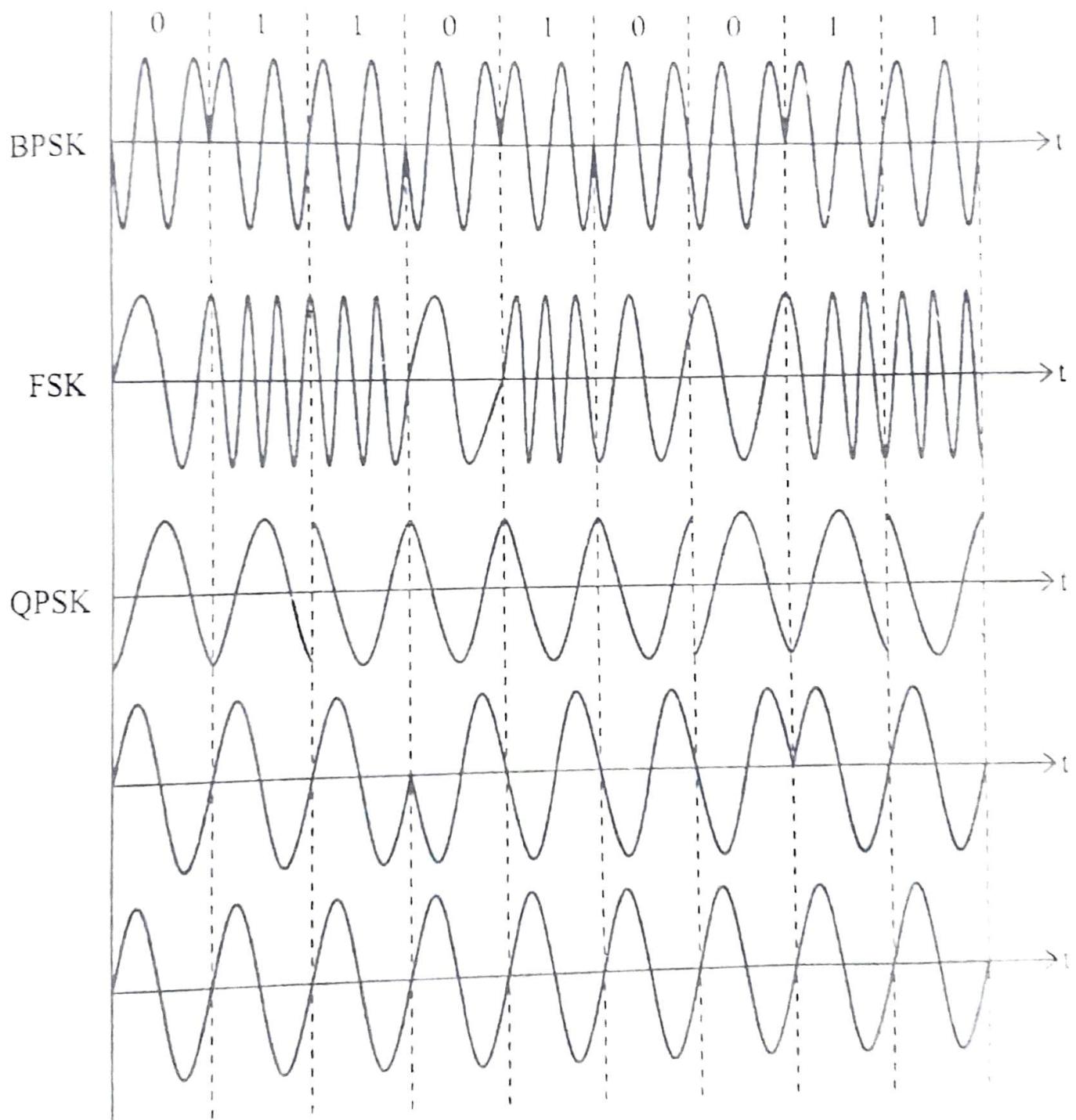
Minimum separation between f_L and f_H is $2f_b$

$$\text{QPSK} \quad f_{B1} = f_1 = 2f_b$$

$$f_{B1} = 2f_b + f_1$$

$$= 2(\text{Kbps}) + 10\text{ KHz} = 16\text{ KHz}$$

2. For the bit stream of 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 1 plot the waveforms of i) BPSK ii) FSK ($f_{B1} = 2f_b, f_1 = f_b$) iii) QPSK



3. Given that amplitude of input at coherent optional receiver is 10 mv and frequency 1 MHZ. The signal is corrupted with white noise of PSD 10^{-9} W/HZ. The data rate is 10^4 bits/sec. Find probability of error.
 $[erfc(1.01) = 0.1531, erfc(1.11) = 0.1164, erfc(1.22) = 0.0844]$

Solution:

$$A = 10 \times 10^{-3} \text{ V}$$

$$r_b = 10^4 \text{ bits/sec} \quad T_b = \frac{1}{r_b} = \frac{1}{10^4}$$

$$\frac{N_o}{2} = 10^{-9} \quad N_o = 2 \times 10^{-9}$$

$$E = \frac{A^2}{2} \cdot T_b = \frac{(10 \times 10^{-3})^2}{2} \times \frac{1}{10^4} = 5 \times 10^{-9} \text{ J}$$

For binary orthogonal coherent FSK,

$$p_e = \frac{1}{2} erfc \sqrt{\frac{0.5E}{N_o}} = \frac{1}{2} erfc \sqrt{\frac{0.5 \times 5 \times 10^{-9}}{2 \times 10^{-9}}}$$

$$p_e = \frac{1}{2} erfc(1.25) = \frac{1}{2} \times 0.0844 = 0.0422$$

For binary orthogonal coherent FSK,

4. Binary data is transmitted over a microwave link at a rate of 10^6 bits/sec and the PSD of noise at the receiver input is 0^{-10} watts/Hz. Find the average carrier power required to maintain an average probability of error $p_e \leq 10^{-4}$ for coherent Binary FSK. What is the required channel Bandwidth?

$$[erfc(2.8) = 0.9998, erfc(2.5) = 0.9959]$$

Energy of one bit.

(26)

$$E = P T_b$$

$$P = \frac{E}{T_b} = \frac{3 \times 10^{-9}}{1/10^6} = 3 \times 10^{-9} \times 10^6$$
$$= 3 \text{ mW}$$

$$\text{Channel Bandwidth } B_T = \frac{1}{T_b} = 10^6 \text{ bits/sec} = 1 \text{ MHz}$$

5. Determine the minimum bandwidth for a BPSK modulator with a carrier frequency of 40 MHz and an input bit rate of 500 kbps.

Solution :

$$f_b = 500 \text{ kbps} = 500 \text{ KHz}$$

$$\text{BW} = 2 f_b = 2 \times 500 \text{ KHz} = 1 \text{ MHz}.$$

6. For a BPSM modulator with a carrier frequency of 70 MHz and an input bit rate of 10 Mbps, draw the spectrum of output signal and determine the minimum Nyquist bandwidth.

Solution :

$$f_b = 10 \text{ Mbps} = 10 \times 10^6 \text{ Hz}$$

$$\text{Minimum Nyquist Bandwidth} = 2 f_b = 2 \times 10 \times 10^6$$
$$= 20 \text{ MHz}$$

7. Binary data is transmitted using PSK at a rate 2 Mbps over RF link having bandwidth of 2 MHz. Find signal power required at receiver input so that error probability is less than or equal to 10^{-4} . Assume noise PSD to be 10^{-10} watt/Hz. $|Q(3.71)| = 10^{-4}$

Solution :

$$f_b = 2 \times 10^6 \quad T_b = \frac{1}{f_b} = \frac{1}{2 \times 10^6}$$

$$P_e = 10^{-4}, \quad \frac{N_0}{2} = 10^{-10} \text{ W/Hz}$$

$$Q(3.71) = 10^{-4}$$

Solution:

$$\text{Data Rate} = \frac{1}{T_b} = 10^6 \text{ bits/sec}$$

$$[\text{PSD}]_{\text{Noise}} = \frac{N_o}{2} = 10^{-10} \text{ watts/Hz}$$

$$p_e \leq 10^{-4}$$

Error probability of coherent binary FSK.

$$p_e = \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{erfc} \sqrt{\frac{0.5E}{N_o}}$$

$$10^4 = \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{erfc} \sqrt{\frac{0.5E}{N_o}}$$

$$\operatorname{erfc} \sqrt{\frac{0.5E}{N_o}} = 2 \times 10^{-4}$$

$$1 - \operatorname{erfc} \sqrt{\frac{0.5E}{N_o}} = 1 - 2 \times 10^{-4} = 0.9998$$

$$\sqrt{\frac{0.5E}{N_o}} = 2.8$$

$$\frac{0.5E}{N_o} = (2.8)^2 = 7.84$$

$$\frac{N_o}{2} = 10^{-10}$$

$$N_o = 2 \times 10^{-10}$$

$$\frac{0.5E}{2 \times 10^{-10}} = 7.84$$

$$E = \frac{7.84 \times 2 \times 10^{-10}}{0.5} = 3 \times 10^{-9} \times 10^6$$

for BPSK error probability is given as,

$$P_e = Q \sqrt{\frac{2E}{N_o}}$$

$$10^{-4} = Q \sqrt{\frac{2E}{N_o}}$$

$$\text{Since } Q(3.71) = 10^{-4}, \sqrt{\frac{2E}{N_o}} = 3.71$$

$$\frac{2E}{N_o} = (3.71)^2$$

$$E = (3.71)^2 \times \frac{N_o}{2} = (3.71)^2 \times 10^{-10}$$

$$\therefore pT_b = (3.71)^2 \times 10^{-10} \quad E = pT_b$$

$$p = \frac{(3.71)^2 \times 10^{-10}}{T_b}$$

$$= \frac{(3.71)^2 \times 10^{-10}}{T_b} = (3.71)^2 \times 10^{-10} \times 2 \times 10^6$$

$$= 2.753 \text{ mW}$$

8. Find the bit error probability for a BPSK system with bit rate of 1 Mbps. The received waveforms $s_1(t) = -A \cos \omega_0 t$ and $s_2(t) = +A \cos \omega_0 t$ are coherently detected with a matched filter. The value of A is 10 mV. Assume that noise power spectral density $N_o = 10^{-11} \text{ W/Hz}$ and that signal power and energy per bit are normalized relative to 1Ω load [$Q(3.16) = 0.0008$]

Solution:

$$r_b = 1 \times 10^6 \cdot T_b = \frac{1}{r_b} = \frac{1}{1 \times 10^6}$$

$$A = 10 \text{ mV} = 10 \times 10^{-3} \text{ V}$$

$$N_o = 10^{-11} \text{ W/Hz}$$

$$E_b = \frac{1}{2} A^2 T_b = \frac{1}{2} \times (0.01)^2 \times \frac{1}{1 \times 10^6}$$

$$= 5 \times 10^{-11} J$$

$$\frac{E_b}{N_0} = \frac{5 \times 10^{-11}}{10^{-11}} = 5$$

$$p_e = Q \sqrt{\frac{2E_b}{N_0}} = Q \sqrt{2 \times 5} = Q(3.16)$$

$$= 0.0008 = 8 \times 10^{-4}$$

9. In a digital CW communication system, the bit rate of NRZ data stream is 1 Mbps and carrier frequency of 100 MHz complete the symbol rate of transmission and bandwidth requirement of channel for i) BPSK system ii) QPSK system iii) Comment in result

Given:

$$f_b = 1 \text{ Mbps}, f_c = 100 \text{ MHz}$$

i) BPSK:

$$\text{symbol Rate} = \frac{1}{T_s} = \frac{1}{T_b} = f_b = 1 \text{ Mbps}$$

$$\text{Bandwidth} = 2 \times f_b = 2 \times 1 \text{ Mbps}$$

$$= 2 \text{ MHz}$$

(ii) QPSK

$$\text{For QPSK symbol Rate} = \frac{1}{T_s} = \frac{1}{2T_b} = \frac{f_b}{2}$$

$$= \frac{1 \text{ Mbps}}{2}$$

$$= 500 \text{ Kbps}$$

$$\text{Bandwidth BW} = f_b = 1 \text{ MHz}$$

(iii) comment on result:

Bandwidth required by QPSK is half compared to BPSK.

Symbol rate of QPSK is also half compared to BPSK

10. A QPSK signal is received at the input of a coherent optimal receiver with amplitude 1 mV and frequency 2 MHz. The signal is corrupted with white noise of PSD 10^{-11} W/Hz. If the data rate 10^4 bits/sec is find
 p_e [Q(2.23) = 0.0129]

Solution:

$$A = 1 \text{ mV} = 1 \times 10^{-3} \text{ V}$$

$$\frac{N_o}{2} = 10^{-11} \text{ W/Hz} \Rightarrow r_b = \frac{1}{T_b} = 10^4 \text{ bps}$$

$$E_b = \frac{1}{2} A^2 T_b = \frac{1}{2} [1 \times 10^{-3}]^2 \times \frac{1}{10^4} = 5 \times 10^{-11}$$

$$\frac{E_b}{N_o} = \frac{5 \times 10^{-11}}{2 \times 10^{-11}} = 2.5$$

i) QPSK

$$\begin{aligned} p_e &= 2Q\sqrt{\frac{2E_b}{N_o}} = 2Q\sqrt{2 \times 2.5} = 2Q(2.23) \\ &= 2 \times 0.0129 \\ &= 0.0258 \end{aligned}$$

11. A binary frequency shift keying system employs two signaling frequencies f_1 and f_2 . The lower frequency f_1 is 1200 Hz and signaling rate is 500 baud calculate f_2 .

For BFSK,

$$f_b = 500 \text{ Hz}$$

$$\text{FM modulation index } \frac{|f_m - f_s|}{f_b} = h = 1$$

$$|f_m - f_s| = f_b$$

Since

$$f_s = f_1 = 1200 \text{ Hz}$$

$$f_m - 1200 = 500$$

$$f_m = 1700 \text{ Hz}$$

4.9.2015 UNIT-II - ERROR CONTROL CODING

The physical medium through which the messages are transmitted are called channels. The channels are prone to different kind of noises such as lightning, human error, equipment defects, etc. In digital communication system the information transmitted from one end to another depends on,

- * Transmitted Signal Power (E_b)

- * Channel Bandwidth

In digital communication systems, there is a limit to value of E_b/N_0 , where N_0 is the noise spectral density. Error control coding is needed to achieve good data quality at the receiver with a limit on E_b/N_0 (SNR). They are useful for accurate transfer of information.

Some of ECC (Error control codes) add redundancy in the form of extra symbols to a message prior to transmission.

Advantages of ECC:

- * Reduces the required E_b/N_0 for a fixed bit error rate
- * Reduces the transmitted power where E_b/N_0 is low.
- * Reduces the size of the antenna for radio communication

- * Reduces the hardware cost.

Disadvantages of ECC:

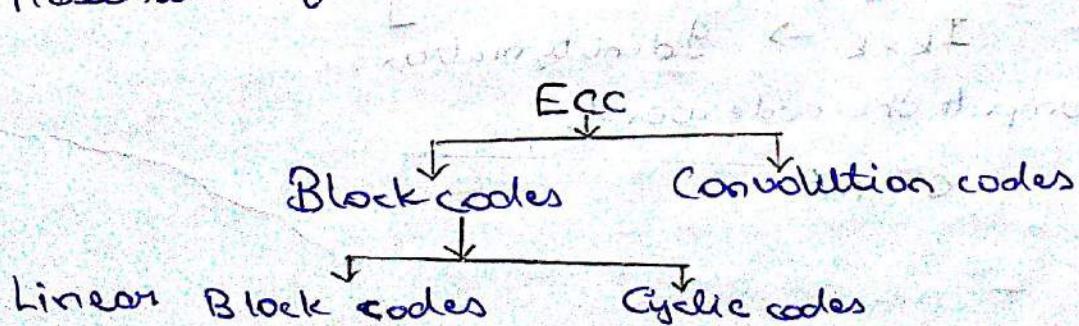
- * Addition of redundancy increases the transmission bandwidth.
- * Increases the complexity in implementation of decoder.

Channel Coding:

ECC is used to achieve error performance which include considerations of bandwidth & system complexity. Since these ECC's are used to overcome the effects of noise in the channel, the encoding procedure is called channel coding.

Objectives of ECC:

- * Capacity to rectify more errors.
- * Fast & efficient encoding of message.
- * Fast & efficient decoding of message.
- * Maximum information rate.



Block codes:

The channel encoder accepts information from the source encoder in successive k -bit blocks. For each block, $n-k$ redundant bits are added which are algebraically related

in the k^{th} message bit, thereby, producing an overall n -bit encoded block of 'n'. The n -bit code is called as channel code word. $n = \underline{\text{length of the code word}}$. The channel encoder produces the bits at the rate of R_o ,

$$R_o = \left(\frac{n}{k}\right) R_s$$

R_s = Bit rate of the source.

Code rate, $R = \frac{k}{n}$

Algorithm for Encoding:

Step 1: Write the message vector $m_{1 \times k}$ (matrix whose columns are message bits)

Step 2: Compute the parity matrix $P_{k \times n-k}$

Step 3: Compute the generator matrix.

$$G = \begin{bmatrix} P_{k \times n-k} & I_{k \times k} \end{bmatrix}$$

$I_{k \times k} \rightarrow$ Identity matrix.

Step 4: Compute the code word,

$$C = mG$$

Algorithm for decoding:

Step 1: Compute Parity check matrix.

$$H_{n-k \times n} = \left[I_{(n-k) \times (n-k)} \mid P_{(n-k) \times n}^T \right]$$

Step 2: Let the received data be 'r'.

Step 3: Compute the Syndrome, $S = r H^T$

Step 4: Construct the decoding table.

Step 5: Find the error pattern 'e'.

Step 6: Correct the error by adding the error pattern with the received vector.

length of codeword (n)
length of message bits (k)
 $\rightarrow n = k + r$

1. Construct a $(7, 4)$ Linear Block code having the parity information as, $b_0 = m_0 + m_1 + m_2$; $b_1 = m_0 + m_2 + m_3$; $b_2 = m_1 + m_2 + m_3$.

Find the code of word for the message vector, $m = 1110 \rightarrow$
correct the error that has occurred in C_5 position.

Solu:

The no. of message bits = $k = 4$.

The length of the code word, $n = 7$.

The no. of parity bits = $n - k$

$$\begin{aligned} &= 7 - 4 \\ &= 3 \end{aligned}$$

Bits that we add
are called parity bits.

Encoding:

1) $m_{4 \times 1} = [1 \ 11 \ 0]_{1 \times 4}$

2) Parity matrix:

$$P_{k \times n-k} = P_{4 \times 3} = \begin{matrix} b_0 & b_1 & b_2 \\ m_0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ m_1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ m_2 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ m_3 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{matrix}_{4 \times 3}$$

3) Generator matrix:

$$G = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}_{4 \times 7}$$

i) $C = mG$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}_{1 \times 4} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}_{4 \times 7}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 \oplus 1 \oplus 1 \oplus 0 & 1 \oplus 0 \oplus 1 \oplus 0 & 0 \oplus 1 \oplus 1 \oplus 0 & 1 \oplus 0 \oplus 0 \\ 0 \oplus 1 \oplus 0 \oplus 0 & 0 \oplus 0 \oplus 1 \oplus 0 & 0 \oplus 0 \oplus 0 \oplus 0 \end{bmatrix}_{4 \times 7}$$

$$C = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} G & c_1 & c_2 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{Parity bits}} \quad \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} c_3 & c_4 & c_5 & c_6 \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{Message bits}}$$

Due to the channel noise, the error has occurred at c_5^{th} position. \therefore The received vector,

$$r = [1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ \underline{0} \ 0]$$

[error: 1 is changed to 0]

Decoding: 1) $r = [1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0]$

$$H = \left[I_{3 \times 3} \mid P_{3 \times 4}^T \right]$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$S = r H^T$$

$$S = [1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0]_{1 \times 7}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}_{7 \times 3}$$

$$S = [1 \oplus 0 \oplus 0 \oplus 1 \oplus 1 \oplus 0 \oplus 0 \oplus 0 \oplus 0 \oplus 1 \oplus 0 \oplus 0 \oplus 0 \oplus 0 \oplus 1 \oplus 0 \oplus 0 \oplus 0]$$

$$S = [1 \ 1 \ 1]_{1 \times 3}$$

Decoding table:

Syndrome	Error patterns	Syndrome = H ^T
0 0 0	0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	
1 0 0	1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	
0 1 0	0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0	
0 0 1	0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0	
1 1 0	0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0	
1 0 1	0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0	
1 1 1	0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0	
0 1 1	0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0	

$S \leftarrow$

$$\Rightarrow e = 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0$$

5) The error pattern,

$$e = 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0$$

6) $c = r + e$

$$r = 1 0 0 1 1 0 0$$

$$e = 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0$$

$$c = \begin{array}{r} 1 0 0 1 1 0 0 \\ (+) 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 \\ \hline 1 0 0 1 1 1 0 \end{array} \rightarrow c$$

∴ we have received the original data transmitted

$$c = 1 0 0 1 1 1 0$$

Hamming distance:

It is defined as no. of locations in which the elements of two code vectors differ. It is represented by $d(m, v)$.

$$m = [1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0]$$

$$v = [0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0]$$

$$\therefore d(m, v) = 2$$

Hamming weight:

It is defined as no. of non-zero elements in a code vector - It is denoted as w_m .

Minimum Hamming distance, "d_{min}" is the smallest Hamming weight of all the non-zero code vectors.

The total no. of 1's.

$$m = [1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0]$$

\Rightarrow Hamming weight $w_m = 3$.

$$v = [0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0]$$

$$w_m = 3$$

Find the minimum Hamming weight among the following.

$$m = [1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1] = 5$$

$$v = [0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1] = 4$$

$$v = [1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0] = 3$$

$$c = [0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0] = 0$$

For finding the minimum Hamming weight the non-zero code vector, which contain non-zero element should only we consider,

$$d_{\min} = 3$$

Syndrome & its properties.

A syndrome ' s ' is defined as a $1 \times n-k$ for a (n,k) linear block code. It contains the information about the error pattern and is used for error detection & correction. It is calculated by the formula,

$$s = r H^T$$

where, r - received vector.

H^T - parity check matrix

If $s \neq 0$, then $r \neq c$ and says that error has occurred.

$s = 0$, $r = c$, and says that no error has occurred.

Property 1: The syndrome depends only on the error pattern and not on the transmitted code word.

We know that,

$$c = m b$$

$$r = c + e$$

$$s = r H^T$$

$$s = (c + e) H^T$$

$$s = c H^T + e H^T$$

$$s = m b H^T + e H^T$$

As per linear block code technique (LBC), $m b H^T = 0$

$$\therefore s = e H^T$$

Property 2:

All the error patterns that differ by a code word have the same syndrome.

Proof: Let $e_i = e + c_i$

c_i = new error pattern

we know that, $s = e_i H^T$ from property - I,

$$\begin{aligned}
 g &= (e + c_i) H^T \\
 &= e H^T + c_i H^T \\
 &= e H^T + m_i G_i H^T \\
 \text{By LBC, } G_i H^T &= 0 \\
 \therefore g &= e H^T
 \end{aligned}$$

i) All the linear block codes satisfy the condition, $G_i^T H = H^T G_{i,0}$

o) Closure Property:

States that sum of any two code words is a code word.

Consider a (6,3) LBC, with a parity check matrix $H = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

Find the generator matrix and all possible code words

Solu:

The length of code word, $n = 6$

The no. of message bits, $K = 3$

The no. of parity bits, $n - K = 6 - 3 = 3$

As the no. of message bits is 3, the possible message vectors are,

$$m = 2^3 = 8$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 m &= 000 \\
 &001 \\
 &010 \\
 &011 \\
 &100 \\
 &101 \\
 &110 \\
 &111
 \end{aligned}$$

$$H_{3 \times 7} = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} I_{3 \times 3} & P^T_{3 \times 4} \end{array} \right]$$

$$H = \begin{bmatrix} P & I \\ \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$P^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

To find generator matrix:

$$\begin{aligned} G &= [P_{k \times m_k}; I_{k \times k}] \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Note:

From the parity check matrix, H , it is clear that, $P^T \otimes P$ are the same. \therefore The parity check matrix G , will be same. If message contains all zeros then the code words are also all zeros.

To find code words:

$$C = m \times 4$$

$$c_1 = [0 \ 0 \ 1] \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{matrix} 001 \\ 011 \\ 011 \\ 000 \\ 010 \\ 001 \end{matrix}$$

$$= [1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1]$$

$$c_2 = [0 \ 1 \ 0] \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{matrix} 100 \\ 000 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 000 \\ 100 \end{matrix}$$

$$= [0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0]$$

$$c_3 = [0 \ 1 \ 1] \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{matrix} 000 \\ 000 \\ 000 \\ 000 \\ 000 \\ 000 \end{matrix}$$

$$= [1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1]$$

$$c_4 = [1 \ 0 \ 0] \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{matrix} 100 \\ 000 \\ 100 \\ 100 \\ 000 \\ 100 \end{matrix}$$

$$= [0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1]$$

$$c_5 = [101] \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= [0 1 0 1 0 1]$$

$$c_6 = [110] \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= [1 1 0 1 1 0]$$

$$c_7 = [111] \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= [0 0 1 1 1 1]$$

To find syndrome:

Consider, $c_7 \neq c_5$ bit in it

$$S = rH^T$$

$$= [0 0 1 1 1 0] \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$S = [0 \ 0 \ 1]_{1 \times 3}$$

$$c_7 = [0 0 1 1 1]$$

c_5 th bit of c_7

$$\Rightarrow r = [0 0 1 1 1 0]$$

Decoding table:

Syndrome	Error Pattern
0 0 0	0 0 0 0 0 0
1 0 1	1 0 0 0 0 0
0 1 1	0 1 0 0 0 0
1 1 1	0 0 1 0 0 0
1 0 0	0 0 0 1 0 0
0 1 0	0 0 0 0 1 0
0 0 1	0 0 0 0 0 1

$$e = 000001$$

$$e = r + e$$

$$\begin{array}{r} c = \begin{array}{r} 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0 \\ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \\ \hline 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \end{array} \end{array} \rightarrow r$$
$$\rightarrow e$$
$$= c_7$$

$$\therefore c_7 = 001111$$

\therefore We received the original signal transmitted.

Cyclic Codes:

It is a code in which "cyclic shift" of a code word produces another code word.

Advantages of cyclic codes:

Easy to encode

They possess a well-defined mathematical structure, thereby, providing an efficient decoding scheme.

Properties:

Linear Property:

The sum of any two code words is also a code word.

Cyclic property:

The cyclic shift of a code word is also a code word (i.e.)
Consider a (n, k) block code having a code word $\{c_0, c_1, \dots, c_{n-1}\}$.
It is said to be cyclic if $\{c_{n-1}, c_0, c_1, \dots, c_{n-2}\}, \{c_{n-2}, c_{n-1}, \dots, c_0\}$
is also a code word.

Representation of a codeword as polynomial:

$$c_x = c_0 + c_1 x + \dots + c_{n-1} x^{n-1}$$

Advantages of representing a code word as polynomial:

- These are algebraic codes, hence the algebraic operations such as addition, subtraction, multiplication & division are very simple.
- The position of the bits are represented with the help of powers of x in a polynomial (i.e.) $x^{n-1} \rightarrow \text{MSB}$; $x^0 \rightarrow \text{LSB}$.

Message Bit as polynomial:

$$m(x) = m_0 + m_1 x + m_2 x^2 + \dots + m_{k-1} x^{k-1}$$

Parity bit as polynomial:

$$b(x) = b_0 + b_1 x + \dots + b_{n-k-1}$$

$$\therefore C(x) = b(x) + x^{n-k} m(x)$$

Generator Polynomial: $[G_i(x)]$

It is a polynomial of degree $(n-k)$, which is a factor of

$$x^n + 1$$

$$G_i(x) = 1 + \sum_{i=1}^{n-k-1} g_i x^i + x^{n-k}$$

$$g_i = 0 \text{ or } 1$$

Generator matrix: $[G_{i,k+n}]$

The generator matrix is constructed using 'k' polynomials (i.e.), $g(x), xg(x), \dots, x^{k-1}g(x)$

$$G_{i,k+n} = \begin{bmatrix} g(x) \\ xg(x) \\ \vdots \\ x^{k-1}g(x) \end{bmatrix}$$

Parity check polynomial:

$$h(x) = 1 + \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} n_i x^i + x^k$$

$n_i = 0 \text{ or } 1$

Parity check matrix:

$$H_n - k \times n$$

This matrix is constructed using $(n-k)$ polynomials where, the polynomials are,

$$x^k h(x^{-1}), x^{k+1} h(x^{-1}), \dots, x^{n-1} h(x^{-1})$$

These are used as rows in matrix represented as shown,

$$\begin{bmatrix} x^k h(x^{-1}) \\ \vdots \\ x^{n-1} h(x^{-1}) \end{bmatrix}$$

Encoding Algorithm for Cyclic Codes:

Step 1: Factorize $x^n + 1$ into irreducible polynomials of degree 1.

Step 2: Find the primitive polynomial of degree n . If it satisfies the condition, $n = 2^m - 1$

Step 3: Assign one of the primitive polynomial as generator polynomial, $g(x)$.

Step 4: Assign the other remaining polynomials as parity check polynomial as, $h(x)$.

Step 5: Write the message polynomial, $m(x)$

Step 6: Find the product of $m(x) \cdot x^{n-k}$

Step 7: Divide $m(x) \cdot x^{(n-k)}$ by $g(x)$.

$$m(x) \cdot x^{(n-k)} / g(x)$$

Step 8: Assign the remainder as $b(x)$

Step 9: Find the code polynomial,

$$G(x) = b(x) + x^{n-k} \cdot m(x)$$

- 1) Find the code word for the message 1001 by constructing a (7,4) cyclic code. (Do this for generator poly)

Solu:

$$n=7$$

$$k=4$$

$$x^7 + 1$$

$$= 3 \cdot x^7 + 1$$

$\overbrace{\quad}^{m=1}$ $\overbrace{\quad}^{m=3}$ $\overbrace{\quad}^{m=3} \rightarrow \text{degree}$

$$= (1+x) (1+x+x^3) (1+x^2+x^3)$$

$$n=2^m - 1$$

for, $m=1$:

$$n = 2^1 - 1 = 2 - 1 = 1 \neq 7 \neq n$$

$\therefore (1+x)$ is not primitive,

$$\text{for } m=3, \quad n = 2^3 - 1 = 8 - 1 = 7 = n$$

$\therefore 1+x+x^3$ is primitive polynomial.

Similarly,

$1+x^2+x^3$, is also a primitive polynomial.

$$\text{as, } 2^m - 1 = 2^3 - 1 = 7 = n$$

$$3) \quad g(x) = 1+x+x^3 \quad (\text{Select the one with lower order})$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 4) \quad h(x) &= (1+x)(1+x^2+x^3) \\
 &= 1+x^2+x^3+x+x^3+x^4 \\
 &= 1+x+x^2+2x^3+x^4
 \end{aligned}$$

Neglect $2x^3$, since the coefficients of x should be either 1 or 0.

$$\therefore h(x) = 1+x+x^2+x^4.$$

$$5) \quad m = 1001$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \therefore m &= 1 \times x^0 + 0 \times x^1 + 0 \times x^2 + 1 \times x^3 \\
 &= 1+x^3
 \end{aligned}$$

$$6) \quad m(x) \cdot x^{n-k}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= (1+x^3) \cdot x^{(7-4)} = (1+x^3)(x^3) \\
 &= x^3 + x^6
 \end{aligned}$$

$$7) \quad m(x)(x^{n-k}) / g(x)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \frac{x^3 + x^6}{1+x+x^3} \\
 &\quad \boxed{\begin{array}{r}
 x^3 - x \\
 \hline
 x^3 + x^6 \\
 x^3 + x^6 + x^4 \\
 \hline
 -x^4 \\
 \hline
 \frac{1}{(+)} x^4 \quad \frac{-x^2}{(+)} -x \\
 \hline
 x^2 + x
 \end{array}}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$8) \quad b(x) = x^2 - x$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 9) \quad c(x) &= b(x) + m(x)(x^{n-k}) \\
 &= x + x^2 + x^3 + x^6 \\
 &\therefore c(x) = (0\ 111001)
 \end{aligned}$$

Find the generator matrix and parity check matrix for the above problem.

Solu:

Generator matrix:

$$\begin{bmatrix} g(x) \\ xg(x) \\ x^2 g(x) \\ x^3 g(x) \\ \vdots \\ x^{k-1} g(x) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1+x+x^3 \\ x+x^2+x^4 \\ x^2+x^3+x^5 \\ x^3+x^4+x^6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} g(x) \\ xg(x) \\ x^2 g(x) \\ x^3 g(x) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$G = \left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc|c} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

Since we did not get the identity matrix

\therefore The generator matrix is not systematic.

Decoding of Cyclic codes:

The code word $(c_0, c_1, \dots, c_{n-1})$ is transmitted over a noisy channel which results in received word $(r_0, r_1, \dots, r_{n-1})$. This received word can be represented as a polynomial

$$r(x) = r_0 + r_1 x + \dots + r_{n-1} x^{n-1}$$

$$\frac{r(x)}{g(x)} = q_r(x) + \frac{s(x)}{g(x)}$$

$$r(x) = q_r(x)g(x) + s(x)$$

where, $s(x) \rightarrow$ remainder of syndrome.

Find the parts check matrix for the above problem.

Solu:

$$H(x) = \begin{bmatrix} x^k h(x^{-1}) \\ x^{k+1} h(x^{-1}) \\ \vdots \\ x^{n-1} h(x^{-1}) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} [n=7] \\ [k=3] \\ [n-k=4] \end{aligned}$$

We know that,

$$h(x) = 1 + x + x^2 + x^4 \quad (\text{from previous problem})$$

$$h(x^{-1}) = \left(1 + \frac{1}{x} + \frac{1}{x^2} + \frac{1}{x^4} \right)$$

$$= \frac{x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + 1}{x^4}$$

Now we have

$$x \cdot x^{-1} H(x) =$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x & x^4 \\ x^4 & \frac{(x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + 1)}{x^4} \\ x^5 & \frac{(x^7 + x^6 + x^5 + 1)}{x^7} \\ x^6 & \frac{(x^8 + x^7 + x^6 + 1)}{x^8} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + 1 \\ x^7 + x^6 + x^5 + 1 \\ x^8 + x^7 + x^6 + 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

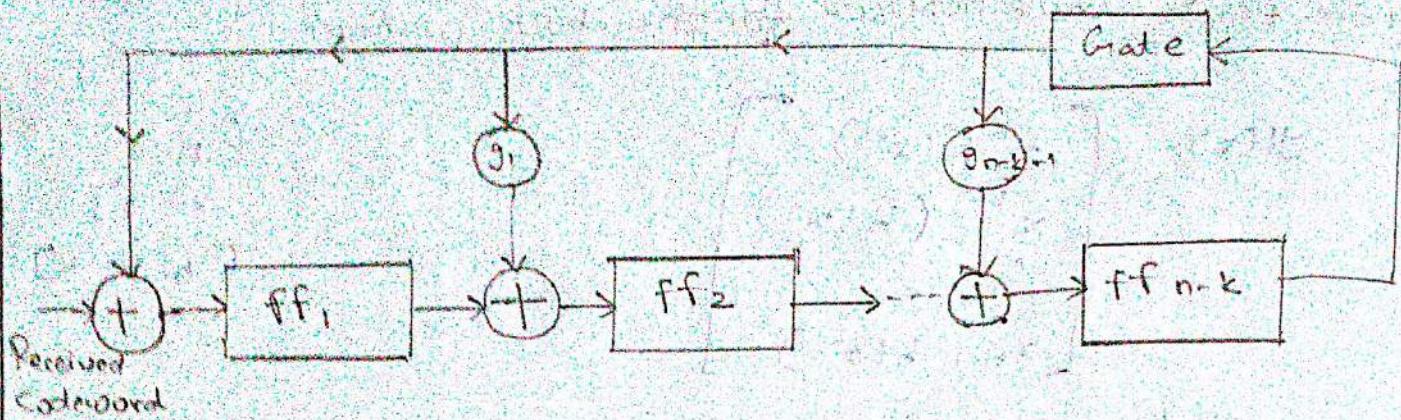
$$\therefore H(x) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = H(x) \begin{bmatrix} I_{3 \times 3} & P \\ & I_{n-k} \end{bmatrix}$$

\therefore $H(x)$ is not systematic

Structure of decoder:

No. of flip flops = $n-k$

No. of modulo-2 = $n-k-1$



Find the syndrome using syndrome calculator & decode the cyclic code $(7, 4)$

Soln:

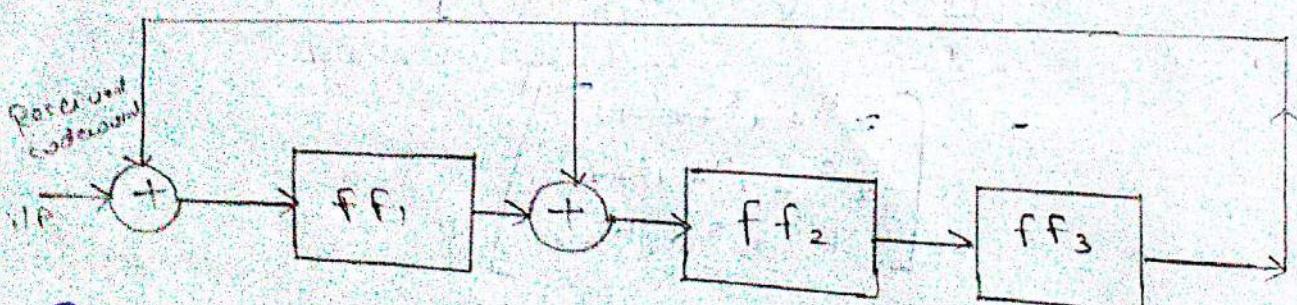
for $(7, 4)$

No: of flip flops = $7 - 4 = 3$

No: of adders = $7 - 4 + 1 = 2$

Modulo-2 adders- Adders performing Ex-or operation

- 1) adder
- 2) flip flop
- 3) Last flip flop
McMillen logic
1st adder.



Syndrome Calculator:

I/P	I/P to ff1 O/P of ff3 + I/P	I/P to ff2 O/P of ff3 + O/P of ff1	I/P to ff3 O/P of ff2 + O/P of ff1
0	0	0	0
1	$1 \oplus 0 = 1$	$0 \oplus 0 = 0$	0
0	$0 \oplus 0 = 0$	$1 \oplus 0 = 1$	0
0	$0 \oplus 0 = 0$	$0 \oplus 0 = 0$	1
0	$0 \oplus 1 = 1$	$1 \oplus 0 = 1$	0
1	$0 \oplus 1 = 1$	$0 \oplus 1 = 1$	1
1	$1 \oplus 1 = 0$	$1 \oplus 1 = 0$	1
0	$1 \oplus 0 = 1$	$1 \oplus 0 = 1$	0

1st assume
from LSB of the
codeword

I/P → previous I/P
→ add with previous
I/P

Code word: 0111001

If C₃ is error,

X = 0110001

$$G = [1 \ 0]$$

$$H^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Symbol	Error pattern
000	0 000000
101	1 000000
010	01 00000
101	0010000
110	0001000
111	0000100
011	0000010
001	0000001

$$r = 0110001$$

$$(+) e = \frac{0001000}{011001}$$

Properties of syndrome in cyclic codes:

- 1) The syndrome of the received word polynomial is also the syndrome of the corresponding error polynomial.
- 2) The syndrome of the received word polynomial $f_{rc}(x)$, is the syndrome for cyclic shifted received word polynomial.
- 3) The syndrome polynomial is identical to the error polynomial assuming that the errors are confined to $n-k$ positions into

Convolution codes

Given the generator sequence $G_1 = 1+x^2$, $G_2 = 1+x+x^2$. And the message bits at 10101. Find the code word with the help of encoder diagram.

Solu:

$$G_1 = 1x^0 + 0x^1 + x^2 = \{1, 0, 1\}$$

$$G_2 = 1x^0 + 1x^1 + x^2 = \{1, 1, 1\}$$

$k=3$

Convert the generator sequence G_1, G_2 into bit format.
(coined the coefficients of the polynomial given above)

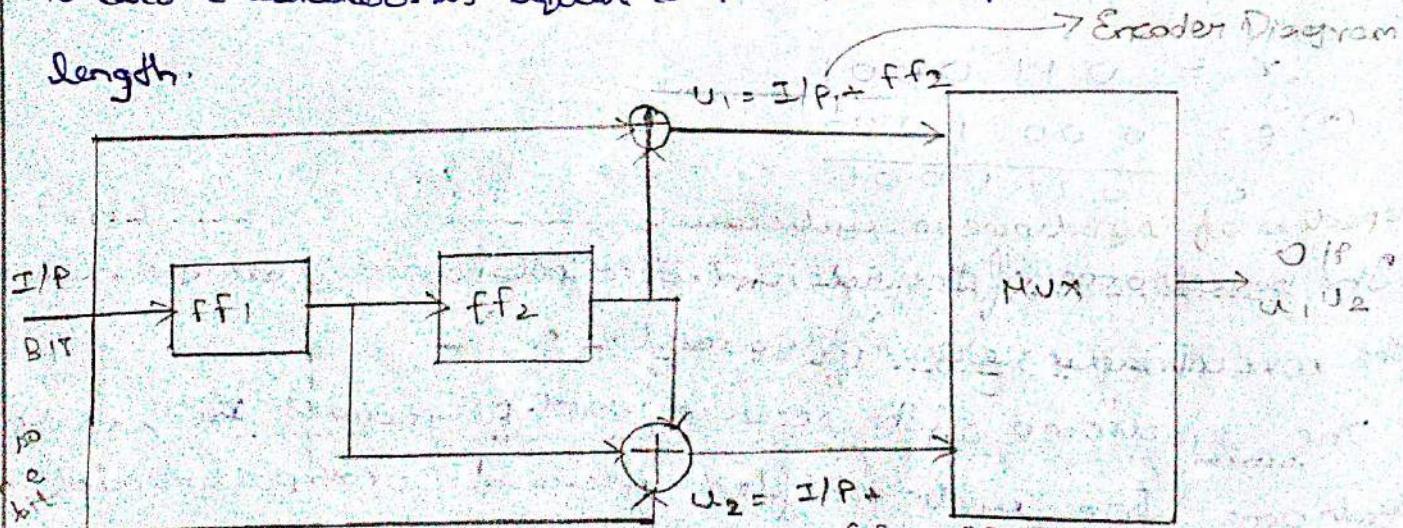
$$G_1 = \{1, 0, 1\}$$

No. of adders: $k-1$

$$G_2 = \{1, 1, 1\}$$

Constraint Length $= 3 = k$

To draw the encoder diagram flip flop, modulo-2 adder & multiplexer is required. The no. of flip flop & no. of modulo-2 adders is equal to $k-1$, where k is the constraint length.



$$G_1 = \{1, 0, 1\}$$

State Table:

Message bits (I/P)	8 state		U_1	U_2	Mux O/P	
	ff1	ff2	$I/P + FF_1$	$I/P + FF_1 + FF_2$	U_1	U_2
Initial	0	0	$1 \oplus 0 = 1$	$1 \oplus 0 \oplus 0 = 1$	1	1
1 → 0	1	0	$0 \oplus 0 = 0$	$0 \oplus 0 \oplus 1 = 1$	0	1
0 → 1	0	1	$1 \oplus 1 = 0$	$1 \oplus 0 \oplus 1 = 0$	0	0
1 → 1	1	1	$0 \oplus 0 = 0$	$0 \oplus 0 \oplus 1 = 1$	0	1
0 → 0	0	0	$1 \oplus 0 = 0$	$1 \oplus 0 \oplus 0 = 0$	0	0

Previous values

General representation

$$G_1 = \{1, 0, 1\}$$

$$I/P, ff_1, ff_2 \Rightarrow U_1 = I/P + ff_1$$

$$G_2 = \{1, 1, 1\}$$

$$I/P, ff_1, ff_2 \Rightarrow U_2 = I/P + ff_2$$

$$\therefore \text{Codeword} = \{00, 01, 00, 01, 00\}$$

In order to find the code word using a "code tree or Trellis", the state table that defines all the possibilities of the i/p & the states should be calculated.

2. Find the codeword for message 10101 having $G_1 = 1 + x^2 + x^4$
 $G_2 = 1 + x + x^2$ using code tree or trellis.

Solu:

Since the convolutional code for a single bit is a d-bit there are four possibilities for a single bit. (00, 01, 10, 11). Each of these states are assigned a variable as,

$$a \rightarrow 00$$

$$b \rightarrow 01$$

$$c \rightarrow 10$$

$$d \rightarrow 11$$

State Table:

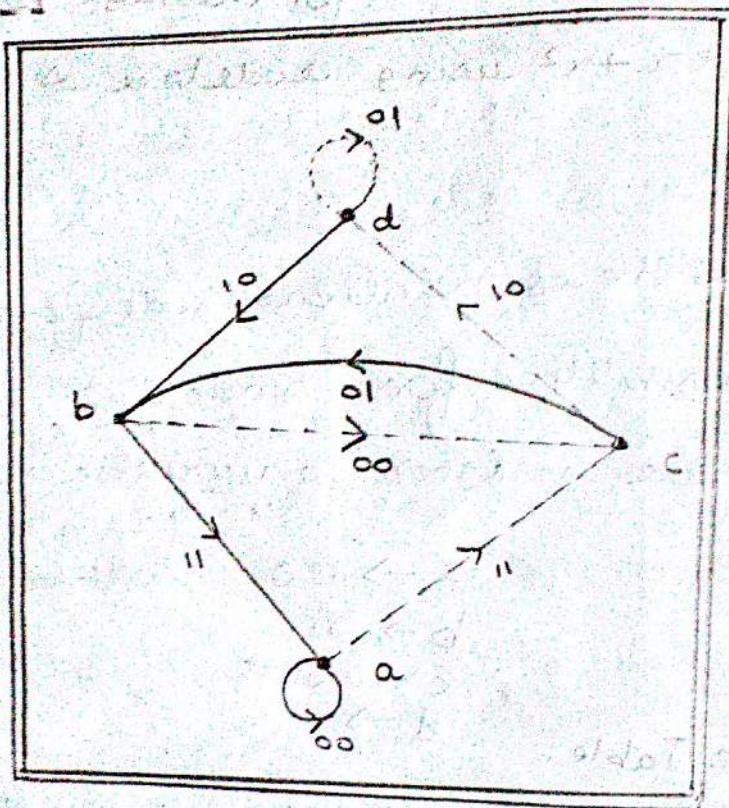
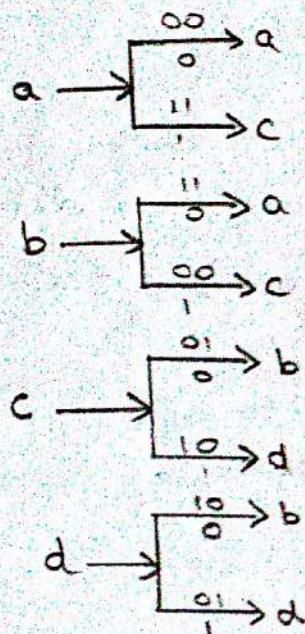
Message bit	Present state		Next state		Output	
	ff_1	ff_2	ff_1	ff_2	$i/p + ff_2$	$i/p + ff_1 + ff_2$
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Ex-0 ₂	1	0	0	1	0-c	1
Ex-0 ₁	0	1	0	0	0-a	1
1	0	1	b	1	0-c	0
0	1	0	0	1-b	0	1
1	1	0	c	1	1-d	1
0	1	1	a	0	1-b	1
1	1	1	y	1	1-d	0

State Diagram:

Consider 'a' to be as your initial state. If your initial bit is zero then draw a bold line to next state if the initial bit is one draw a dotted line to next state.

Message bit is 0 —

Message bit is 1 - - -



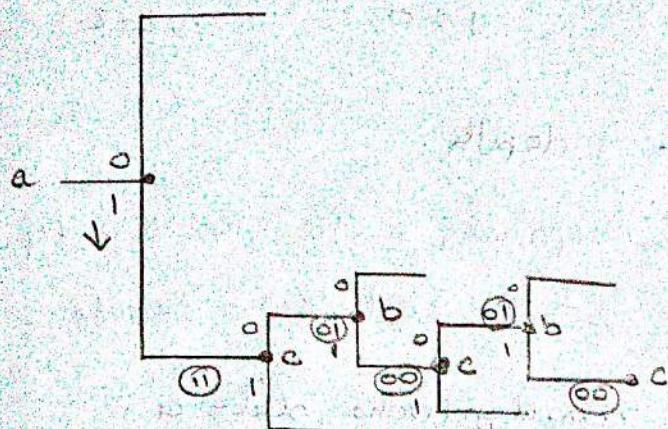
Code tree:

Start with a initial state 00 → the two possibilities of message 0's & 1's and representation using bifurcation.

(e) when (MSB) is '0' the upper part of the tree is only division, similarly when the message is '1' the lower part of the tree is only division. And the O/P for each transition of state is written on the line connecting the 2 states.

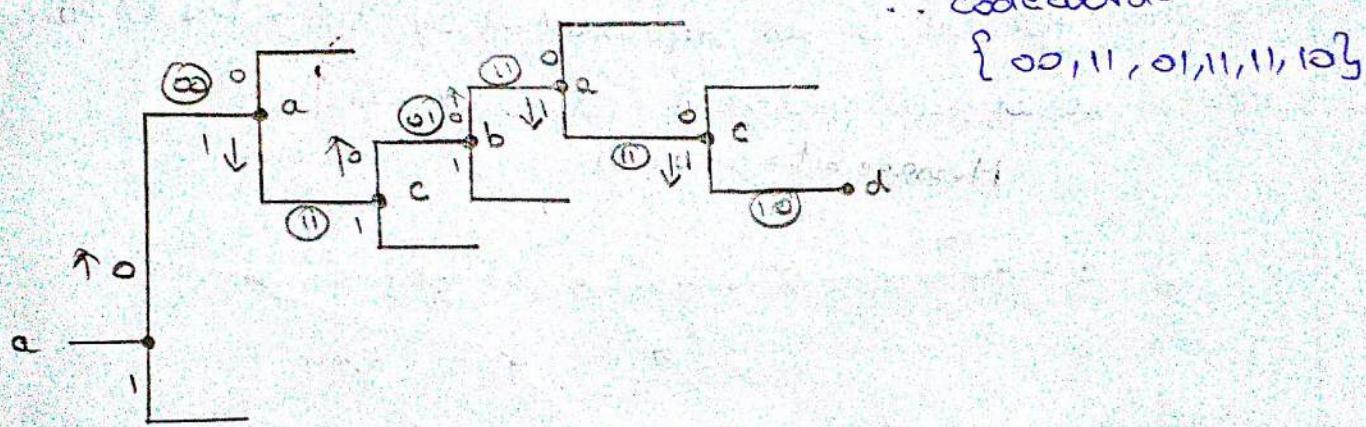
For 16-Mark complete this Code tree.

Message = 10101



∴ Codeword = {11, 01, 00, 01, 00}

3. Draw a code tree for message 010011



Trellis:

It is another method to find the codeword for convolutional code. A trellis is a tree like structure with merging branches. A code branch produced by i/p message '0' is drawn as a solid line. A code branch produced by i/p message '1' is drawn as dashed line.

A trellis is a more instructive structure than a code tree. It brings out explicitly that the convolutional encoder is a finite state machine. The trellis contains ' $L+K$ ' levels where ' L ' is the length of the incoming message.

and k' - constraint length of code.

The levels of trellis are, $j = 0, 1, \dots, L+k-1$

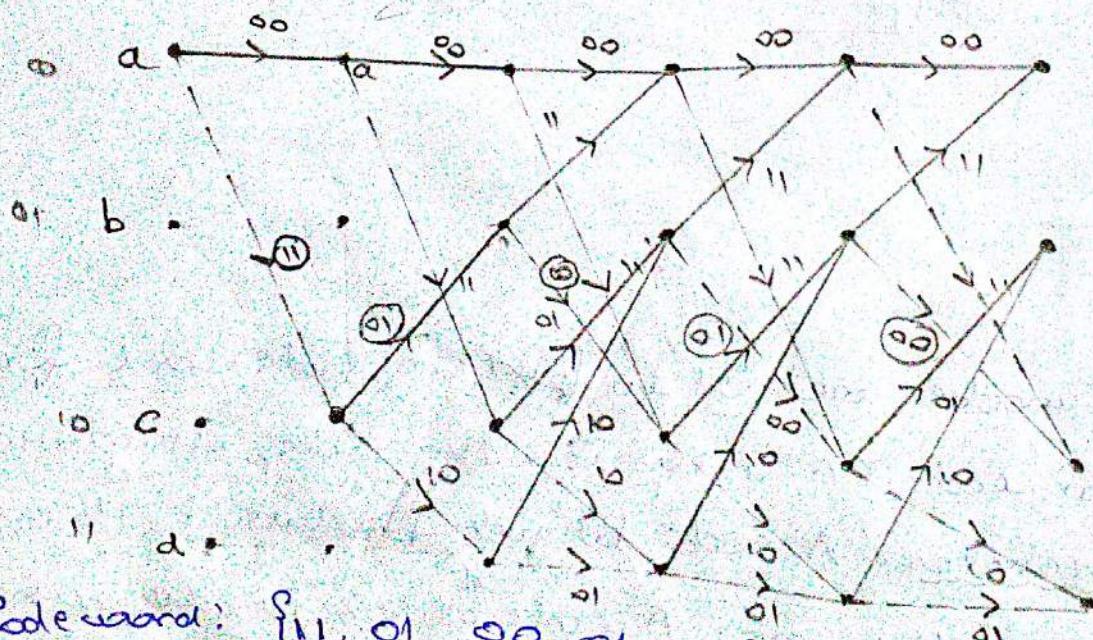
The level j is referred as depth.

The first $k-1$ levels corresponds to the encoders departure from the initial stage 'a' to the last ' $k-1$ ' levels, corresponds to the encoders transition to the state 'a'.

All the states of the encoder are labelled as a, b, c, d.

The left nodes represents the current state & right node represents next state. A transition from one state to another for i/o '0' is represented by "solid branch" for a i/o '1' it is represented as "dashed line".

Message bit = 10101



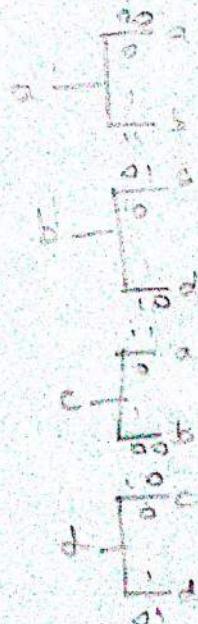
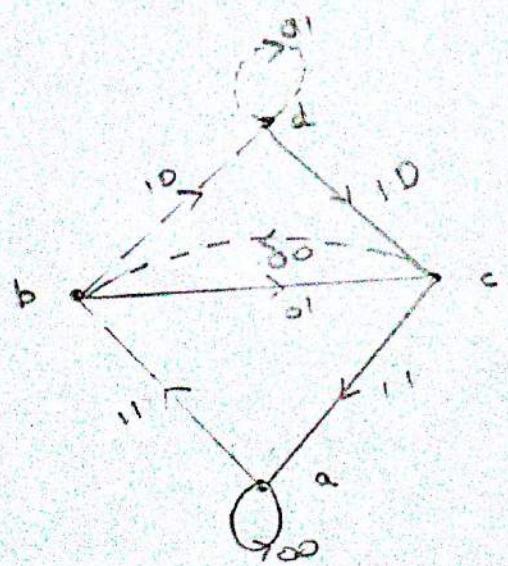
Code word: {11, 01, 00, 01, 00} \rightarrow Message = 10101

Code word: {11, 10, 10, 00, 01} \rightarrow Message = 11010

Construct a state table, state diagram, code tree, trellis for
 $a \rightarrow 00$, $b \rightarrow 10$, $c \rightarrow 01$, $d \rightarrow 11$. Find codeword for
message 1011.

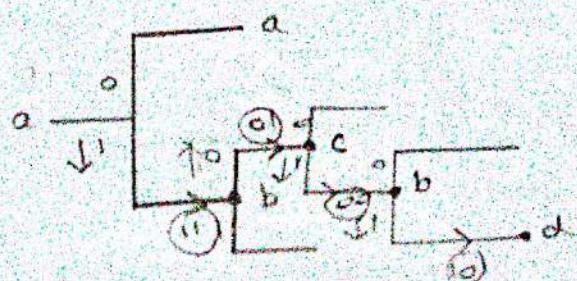
Message bits	Present state		Next state		Output	
	ff ₁	ff ₂	ff ₁	ff ₂	i/p + ff ₂	i/p + ff ₁ + ff ₂
0	0	0	0	0-a	0	0
1	0	0	1	0-b	1	1
0	1	0	0	1-c	0	1
1	1	0	1	1-d	1	0
0	0	1	0	0-a	1	1
1	0	1	1	0-b	0	0
0	1	1	0	1-c	1	0
1	1	1	1	1-d	0	1

State Diagram:

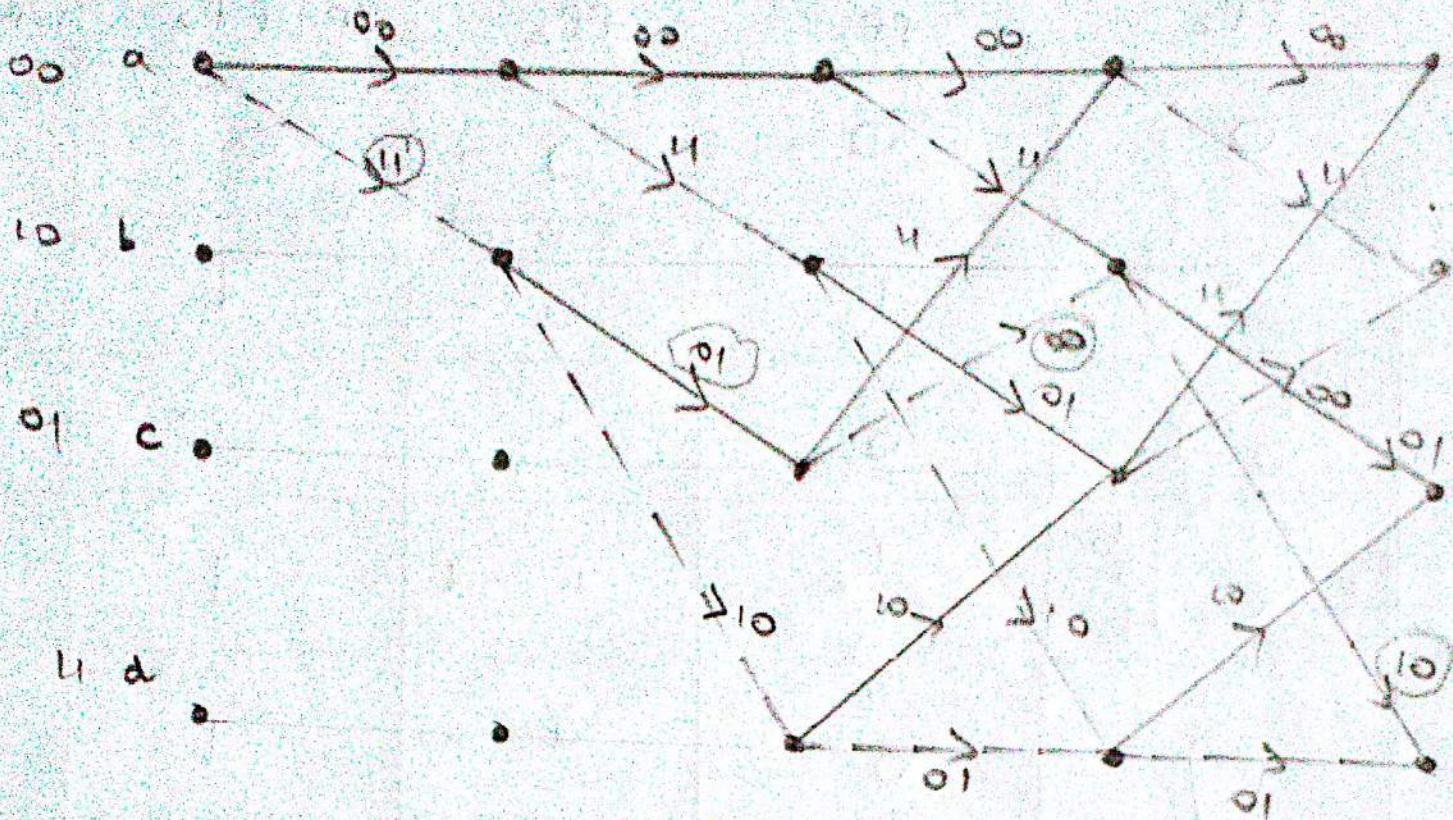


Code tree: Message: 1011

∴ Codeword = {11, 01, 00, 10}



Trellis:



$$\therefore \text{Codeword} = \{11, 01, 00, 10\}$$