Digital Communications I: Modulation and Coding Course

Spring – 2015 Jeffrey N. Denenberg

Lecture 2: Formatting and Baseband Modulation

In our first two Lectures, we talked about:

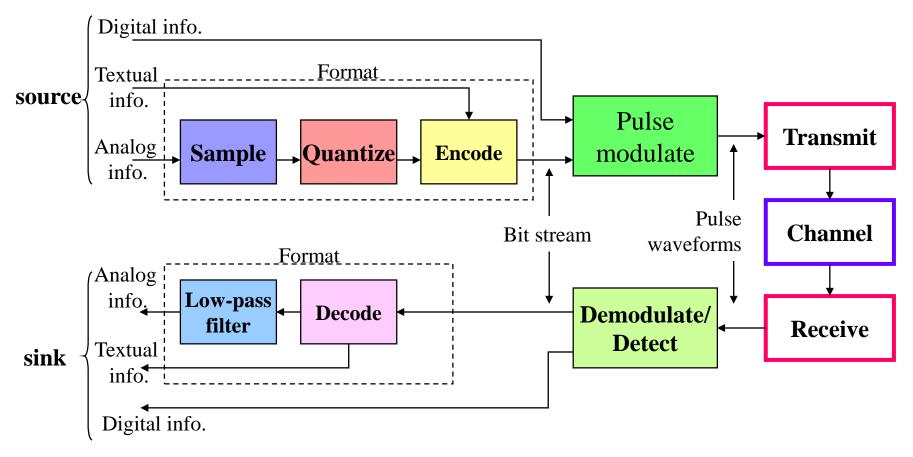
- Important features of digital communication systems
- Some basic concepts/definitions:
 - Signal classification,
 - Fourier Series/Transform,
 - Spectral density,
 - Random processes,
 - Linear systems and
 - Signal bandwidth.

Today, we are going to talk about:

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

Formatting and transmission of baseband signal

A Digital Communication System

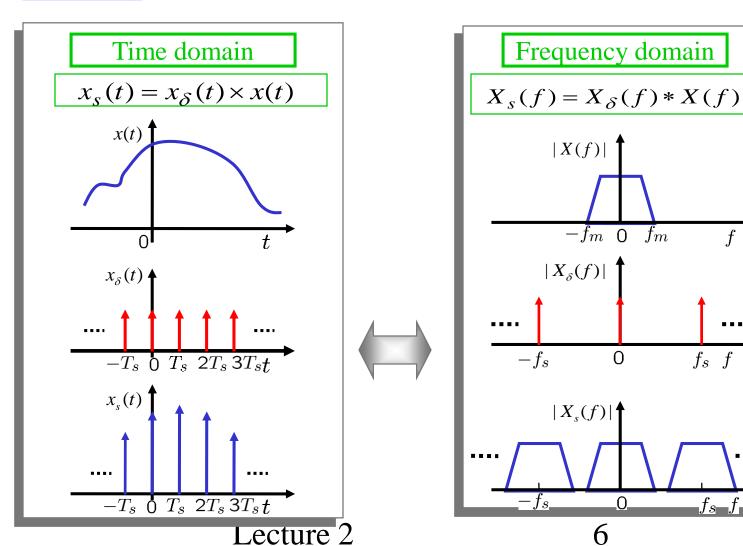


Format analog signals

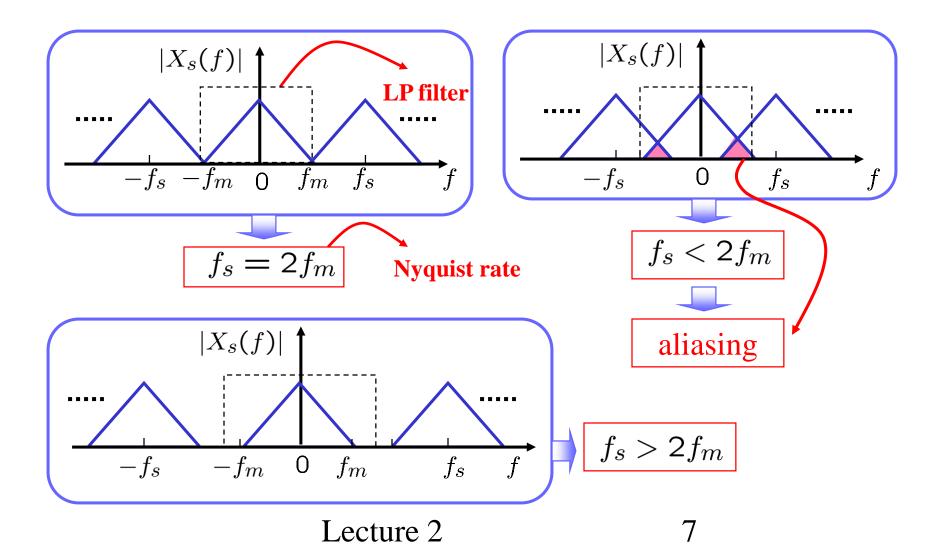
- To transform an analog waveform into a form that is compatible with a digital communication system, the following steps are taken:
 - Sampling See my notes on <u>Sampling</u>
 - Quantization and encoding
 - Baseband transmission

Sampling

See my notes on <u>Fourier Series</u>, <u>Fourier Transform</u> and <u>Sampling</u>



Aliasing effect



Sampling theorem



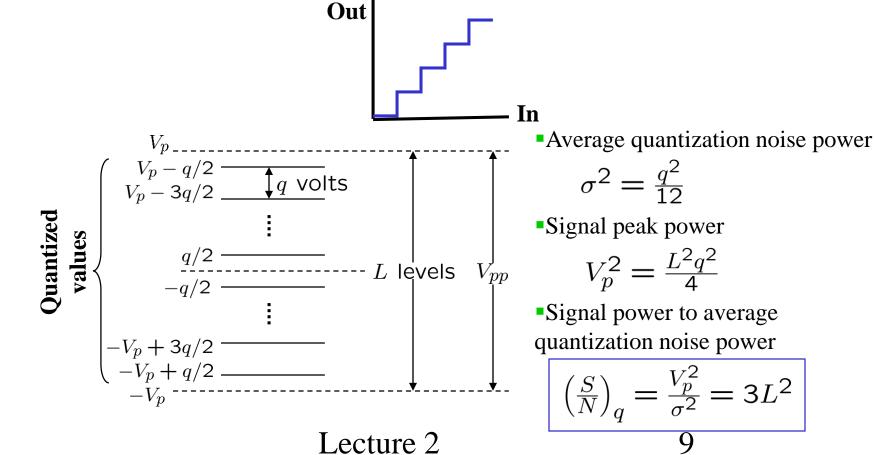
■ Sampling theorem: A band-limited signal with no spectral components beyond f_m , can be uniquely determined by values sampled at uniform intervals of

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

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

Quantization

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

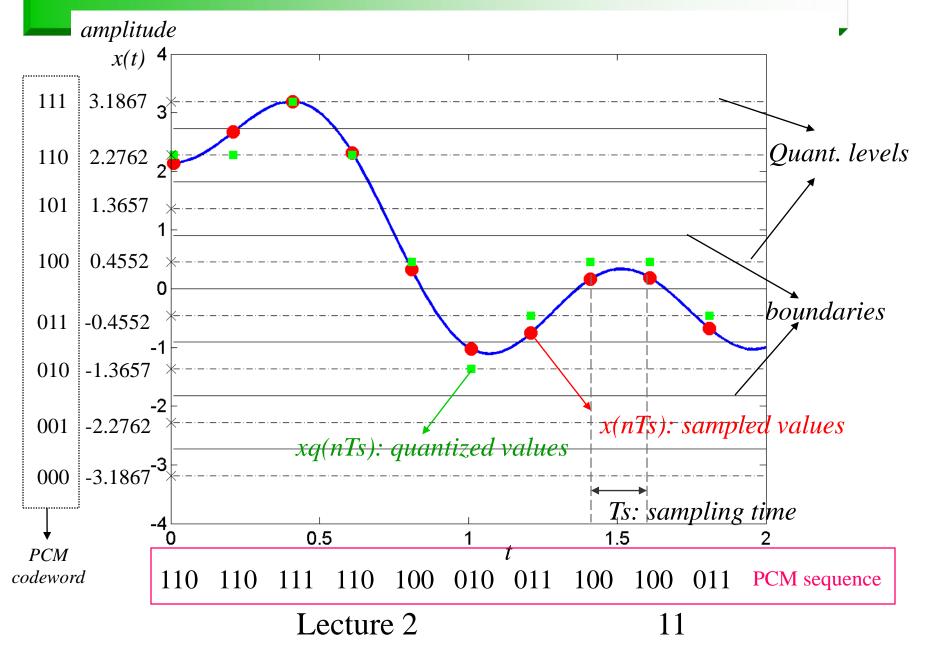


Encoding (PCM)

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

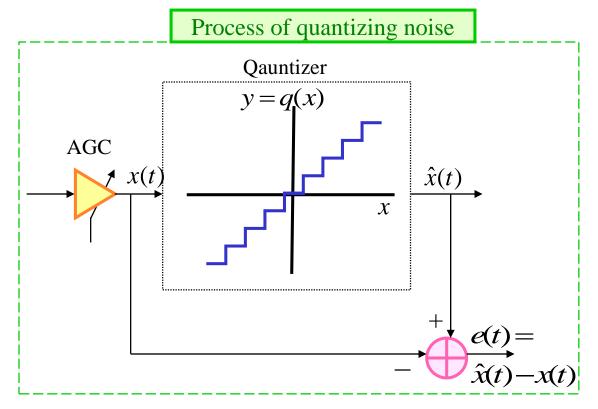
$$l = \log_2 L$$

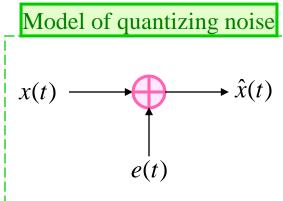
Quantization example



Quantization error

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





The Noise Model is an approximation!

Quantization error ...

- Quantizing error:
 - Granular or linear errors happen for inputs within the dynamic range of quantizer
 - Saturation errors happen for inputs outside the dynamic range of quantizer
 - Saturation errors are larger than linear errors (AKA as "Overflow" or "Clipping")
 - Saturation errors can be avoided by proper tuning of AGC
 - Saturation errors need to be handled by Overflow Detection!
- Quantization noise variance:

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

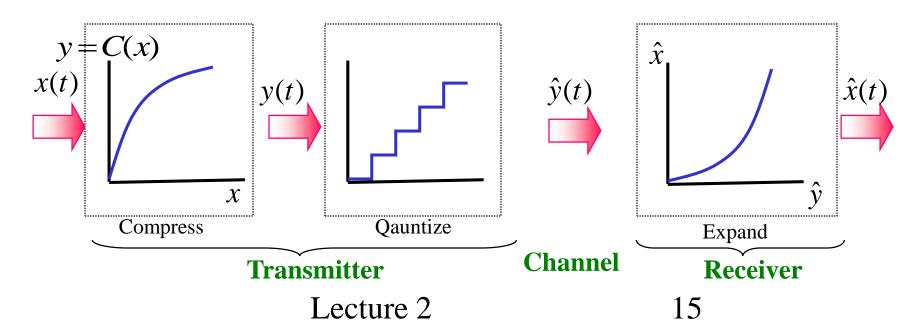
$$\sigma_{\text{Lin}}^2 = 2 \sum_{l=0}^{L/2-1} \frac{q_l^2}{12} p(x_l) q_l$$
 Uniform q. $\sigma_{\text{Lin}}^2 = \frac{q^2}{12}$

Uniform and non-uniform quant.

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

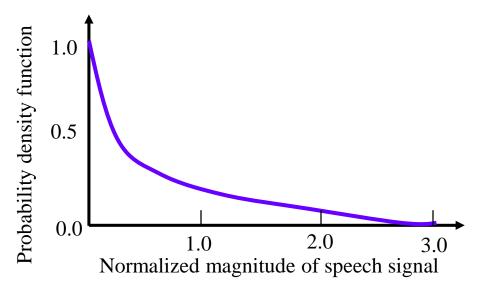
Non-uniform quantization

- It is achieved by uniformly quantizing the "compressed" signal. (actually, modern A/D converters use Uniform quantizing at 12-13 bits and compand digitally)
- At the receiver, an inverse compression characteristic, called "expansion" is employed to avoid signal distortion.



Statistics of speech amplitudes

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



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

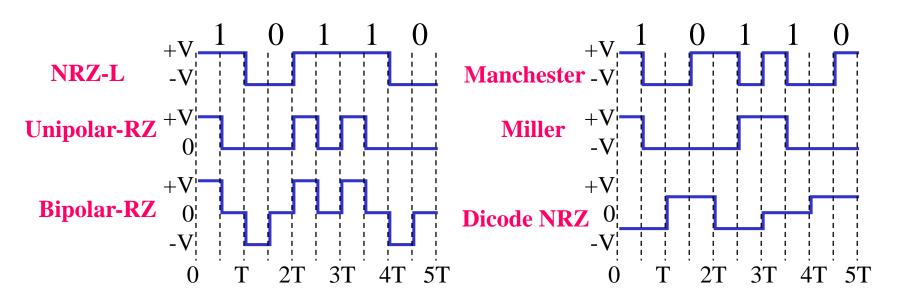
Baseband transmission

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

PCM waveforms

- PCM waveforms category:
 - Nonreturn-to-zero (NRZ)
 - Return-to-zero (RZ)

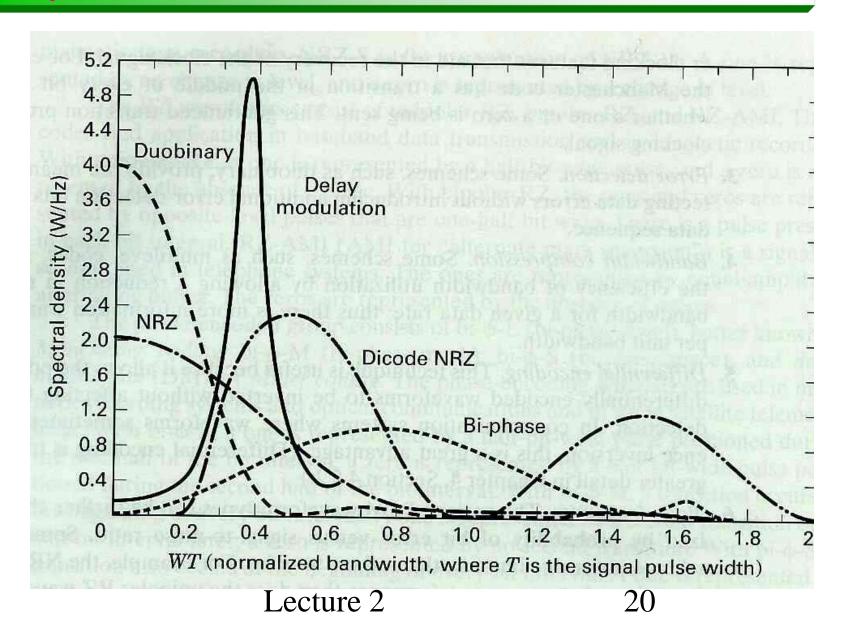
- Phase encoded
- Multilevel binary



PCM waveforms ...

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

Spectra of PCM waveforms



M-ary pulse modulation

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

PAM example

