

Guided Tour

The book has **three Parts**, namely

- I: Introduction to Digital Communication
- II: Baseband Systems
- III: Bandpass Systems

Part I

Introduction to Digital Communication

- Introduction
- Signals and Systems: Some Fundamental Concepts

Part II

Baseband Systems

- Baseband Transmission Techniques: Formatting
- Baseband Transmission Techniques: Coding
- Baseband Reception Techniques

Part III

Bandpass Systems

- Bandpass Signal Transmission
- Bandpass Signal Reception

Example 2.22 For the sinusoidal wave with random phase defined in Example 2.15,

- (a) Find the time average of $x(\theta, t)$.
- (b) Is the process ergodic in mean?

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_x(T) &= \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T A \cos(\omega_0 t + \theta) dt \\ &= A \frac{\sin \omega_0 T}{\omega_0 T} \cos \theta \\ \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \mu_x(T) &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

So, the time average of $x(\theta, t)$ is zero.

- (b) The limit of $\mu_x(T)$ is independent of T and constant and (the limit of) its variance, is also zero. Previously we had seen in Example 2.15, that its ensemble mean μ_X is zero. So, we see that the process $x(\theta, t)$ satisfies Eq. 2.132. Also in Example 2.18, we had seen that the process is WSS. So, the process $x(\theta, t)$ can be said to be ergodic in mean.

Example 2.23 Check for the ergodicity in mean of the sinusoidal wave with random phase pdf given by Example 2.19.

We had already seen in Example 2.19 that the process is not wide-senses stationary. So, it cannot be ergodic. To underscore this we mention that in Example 2.19 the ensemble mean μ_X of the process was found to be $\frac{2\sqrt{2}A}{\pi} \cos \omega_0 t$. The time average does not depend on pdf. So, it is same as the time-average of Example 2.22 whose value is zero. So, we see that the time-average of Example 2.22 whose value is zero is not equal to the ensemble average, we reconfirm our conclusion that the process is not ergodic in mean.

To elaborate the concept of ergodicity with the help of the mean and autocorrelation obtained by noting the particular receiver over sufficiently long time of observation, autocorrelation calculated from the noise voltages simulated at identical receivers at any instant of time, if the noise voltages are ergodic in mean and autocorrelation, then our requirement is satisfied.

It is difficult to test whether a process is ergodic in mean and autocorrelation. Nevertheless, in practice, we mainly require the mean and autocorrelation of the process to characterise it. These are mean and autocorrelation of the process. If the process is ergodic in mean and autocorrelation, then our requirement is satisfied. The sample function's time average satisfies Eq. 2.132.

Interspersed within the text are **Solved Examples**. These will help the students in better understanding the concepts learned in the preceding sections

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Problems

- 6.1 A voice-band telephone channel passes the frequencies in the band from 300 Hz to 3.3 kHz. It is desired to design a modem that transmits at a symbol rate of 2.4 ksymbols/sec, with the objective of achieving 9.6 kbps. Select an appropriate QAM signal constellation, carrier frequency and the roll-off factor of a pulse with a raised cosine spectrum that utilises the entire frequency band. Sketch the spectrum of the transmitted signal pulse and indicate the important frequencies.
- 6.2 (a) In a MSK signal, the initial state for the phase is either 0 or π radian. Determine the terminal phase state for the following four input pairs of input data corresponding to each initial state phase:
 - (a) 00
 - (b) 01
 - (c) 10
 - (d) 11
- (b) A partial response MSK has a pulse given by

$$g(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{4T} & 0 \leq t \leq 2T \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
 - (a) Draw the phase tree
 - (b) Draw the state trellis
 - (c) Draw the state diagram
- 6.3 (a) Calculate the minimum required bandwidth for a noncoherently detected orthogonal binary FSK system. The symbol duration is 0.1 ms.

Chapter end **Problems** are carefully designed to ensure that the students can practice the theory learnt in the chapters on their own

A comprehensive **Bibliography** at the end of every chapter gives the list of other related titles for those interested. The **Further Reading** section just above it will serve to guide the readers to the Books of their interest.

waveform, then the SNR requirement per bit is 20 unit, whereas if the waveform was 1024-ary, the SNR per bit is 2 unit only. Why should we have to go through such a roundabout computational manipulations to find a metric that represents a figure of merit? Why not describe the metric in terms of an energy related parameter at the bit level? E_b/η or γ_b foots the bill. It is the ratio of the bit energy of the digital signal waveform to the power spectral density of channel noise. We have already shown in Eq. 5.170 that it is SNR times a conversion factor for analog bandwidth to digital bit transmission rate. But a doubt persists whether γ_b is dimensionless like SNR, because its numerator and denominator do not look like same category of physical quantity; one is energy, the other is PSD. To verify the units of γ_b , we write

$$\gamma_b = \frac{E_b}{\eta} = \frac{[\text{Joule}]}{[\text{Watt}/\text{Hz}]} = \frac{[\text{Watt} - \text{s}]}{[\text{Watt} - \text{s}]}$$

So, γ_b also is a dimensionless quantity. Thus we see that γ_b clearly satisfies all the conceptual requirements demanded from a figure-of-merit of a digital system. Hence, γ_b , and not SNR, is used as a figure-of-merit when the detectors of different digital receivers are compared.

5.6 FURTHER READING

Many times the students are not clear about the sources of noise in communication systems. We recommend two papers by Johnson [1] and Nyquist [2]. For mathematical treatment of random noise in presence of a deterministic signal [3], [4] and [5] can be read.

Readers interested to go deeper in the theory of matched filters can see the papers [6], [8] and [14].

Various pulse shaping techniques based on the second criterion of Nyquist can be looked into [9], [13], [15] and [19]. For further discussion on Nyquist's third criterion read the material present in [12] and [22]. For advanced discussion on adaptive equalisation techniques, the papers [18], [20] and [21] are highly recommended.

A tutorial on various synchronisation techniques used in digital communication receiver can be

franks [17].
papers by Arthurs et al [7] and Forney [11] for a discussion on the
on process.

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Cyclic Codes Among the error correcting linear block codes, only the single error correcting ones are easy to design and no systematic procedure exists for codes correcting more than one error. Cyclic codes are a subclass of linear block codes, that have got a fair amount of mathematical structure and hence can be systematised for correcting higher number of errors. Also, for cyclic codes, encoding and syndrome calculations are easily implemented by shift registers. So, we impose an additional constraint on the linear code for the purpose of defining cyclic codes.

Definition 4.9 A code C is cyclic if

- (i) C is a linear code
- (ii) any cyclic shift of a codeword is also a codeword.

If C is a (n, k) cyclic code, then $C^{(i)}$ is the code obtained by shifting the codeword cyclically i places to the left, i.e.

$$C^{(i)} = (c_{i+1}, c_{i+2}, \dots, c_n, c_1, c_2, \dots, c_i)$$

Cyclic codes can be described in a polynomial form. Thus, a codeword of C can be expressed as a $(n - 1)$ degree polynomial,

$$c(x) = c_1x^{n-1} + c_2x^{n-2} + \dots + c_n \tag{4.24}$$

The coefficients of the polynomial are binary valued and obeys modulo-2 arithmetic. Similarly, the code polynomial for the code $C^{(i)}$ is

$$c^{(i)}(x) = c_{i+1}x^{n-1} + c_{i+2}x^{n-2} + \dots + c_nx^i + c_1x^{i-1} + \dots + c_i \tag{4.25}$$

One very interesting property of the cyclic code polynomials is,

Property V When $x^i c(x)$ is divided by $x^n + 1$, the remainder is $c^{(i)}(x)$.

We can verify this property as follows:

for $i = 1, x c(x) = c_1x^n + c_2x^{n-1} + \dots + c_nx$

$$\begin{array}{r} c_1 \\ x^n + 1 \overline{) c_1x^n + c_2x^{n-1} + \dots + c_nx} \\ \underline{c_1x^n + c_1} \\ c_2x^{n-1} + c_3x^{n-2} + \dots + c_nx + c_1 \leftarrow \text{rem} \end{array}$$

The remainder is clearly $c^{(1)}(x)$. We now introduce an important theorem

Other features include **Definitions, Laws, Properties and Relations** that will further aid the readers in their study. These are set off in shaded boxes to provide easy referencing for the students.

Throughout the book various **Theorems** are given in the relevant sections for students' reference.

However due to Eq. 2.22 we need only $2BT_0$ real coefficients to describe $s(t)$. The coefficients C_n actually depend on the shape of $s(t)$ over the time interval T_0 . The formal statement of this relation is called Dimensionality Theorem.

Theorem 2.1 (Dimensionality Theorem)

A real waveform can be completely specified by N independent pieces of information where N is given by

$$N = 2BT_0 \tag{2.25}$$

N is called the dimension of the waveform in signal space. Here B is the bandwidth of the signal and T_0 is the time over which the signal waveform is being described. So, following the theorem, one can represent the signal $s(t)$ by N finite number of basis functions.

$$s(t) = \sum_{k=1}^N s_k \psi_k(t) \quad 0 \leq t \leq T_0 \tag{2.26}$$

where $\{s_k\}$ and $\{\psi_k\}$ are the digital data set and basis set respectively of the signal $s(t)$.

Note that N sample values do not necessarily have to be periodic samples of the waveform. They only need to be independent basis coefficients. Also, the theorem, though derived by considering Fourier basis, can be proved for any basis set.

If one wants to store a bandlimited digital signal and wants to reconstruct the signal at a later time over a T_0 second interval, then at least N points should be stored. So, dimensionality theorem helps to calculate the storage space required to store a digital signal.

Another important application of the dimensionality theorem is to estimate the bandwidth of a digital signal. A digital signal is represented by N points which are transmitted over an interval of T_0 second. So, the symbol rate R_s is

$$R_s = \frac{N}{T_0} = \frac{2BT_0}{T_0} = 2B$$

So, the bandwidth of the digital signal is

$$B = \frac{R_s}{2} \tag{2.27}$$

This is actually a lower bound of the bandwidth of digital signal. If the signal is represented in terms of $\sin x/x$ basis set, then only this lower limit is achieved. But $\sin x/x$ is an analog signal. So, the lowest bandwidth of the digital data is achieved only when the basis functions are occupying the least spectrum in frequency (no sharp corners and bends in time domain). For other basis set, the bandwidth is more than this lowest value. Specifically, for rectangular pulse basis, the bandwidth equals the symbol rate. Sometimes, the symbol rate R_s is also represented as D (Baud rate). So, in general, we may state that the bandwidth of digital signal or data is given by,

$$B \geq \frac{D}{2} \tag{2.28}$$

Here we want to emphasise a difference between bandwidth and symbol rate of a digital signal. Bandwidth is the significant spectral width of the signal that contains the most important properties of

Figures are used extensively to illustrate the key concepts and methods

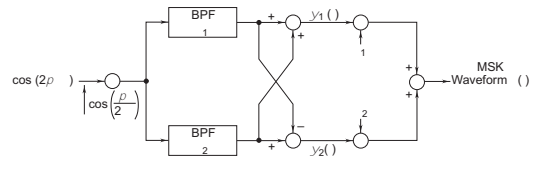


Fig. 6.24 MSK Modulator

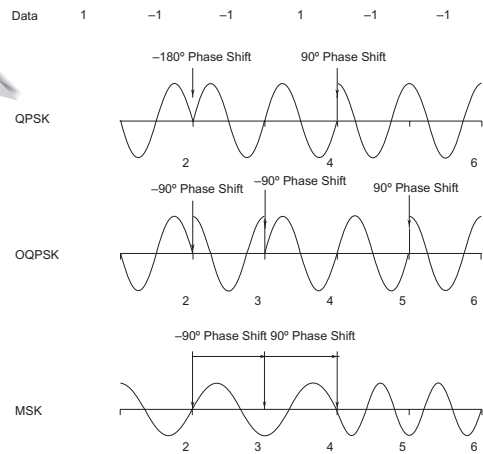


Fig. 6.25 Comparison of Waveforms for QPSK, OQPSK and MSK

m contains phase jumps of $\pm 90^\circ$ that may occur as often as every T_s seconds. On a QPSK signal contains phase jumps of either $\pm 180^\circ$ or $\pm 90^\circ$ every $2T_s$ seconds.

List of Abbreviations

ADF	Adaptive Prediction with Forward Estimation	CELP	Code-Excited Linear Prediction
ADM	Adaptive Delta Modulator	CPFSK	Continuous Phase Frequency Shift Keying
ADPMC	Adaptive Differential Pulse Coded Modulation	CPM	Continuous Phase Modulation
ADSL	Asynchronous Digital Subscribers Line	CRC	Cyclic Redundancy Check
AGC	Automatic Gain Control	CVSDM	Continuously Variable Slope Delta Modulation
AM	Amplitude Modulation	CVSDM	Continuously Variable Slope Delta Modulation
APB	Adaptive Prediction with Backward Estimation	DAT	Digital Audio Tape
AQB	Adaptive Quantisation with Backward Estimation	DBV	Digital Video Broadcast
AQF	Adaptive Quantisation with Forward Estimation	DCT	Discrete Cosine Transform
ASBC	Adaptive Subband Coding	DFE	Decision Feedback Equaliser
ASK	Amplitude Shift Keying	DFT	Discrete Fourier Transform
AWGN	Additive White Gaussian Noise	DM	Delta Modulator
BBC	British Broadcasting Corporation	DMS	Discrete Memoryless Source
BCH	Bore-Chaudhuri-Hocquenghem	DPCM	Differential Pulse Code Modulation
BEC	Binary Erasure Channel	DPSK	Differential Phase Shift Keying
BER	Bit Error Rate	DQPSK	Differential Quadrature Phase Shift Keying
BPSK	Binary Phase Shift Keying	DSL	Digital Subscribers Line
BSC	Binary Symmetric Channel	DTE	Data Terminal Equipment
CC	Convolutional Code	ECC	Error Correction Codes
CCITT	Consultative Committee on International Telegraphy and Telephony	FDM	Frequency Division Multiplexing
CD	Compact Disk	FDMA	Frequency Division Multiple Access
CDMA	Code Division Multiple Access	FM	Frequency Modulation
		FSK	Frequency Shift Keying
		GIF	Graphic Interchange Format
		GMSK	Gaussian Minimum Shift Keying
		GRN	Gaussian Random Noise

A **List of Abbreviations** at the beginning of the book will be helpful to the students for quick referencing

Appendix

A

Q and Error Functions

A.1 Q FUNCTION

Q function is defined in Eq. 2.69 and reproduced here for convenience.

$$Q(z) = \int_z^\infty \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{u^2}{2}} du \quad (A.1)$$

The Q-function is bounded by two analytical expressions as follows:

$$\left(1 - \frac{1}{z^2}\right) \frac{1}{z\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-z^2/2} \leq Q(z) \leq \frac{1}{z\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{z^2}{2}\right) \quad (A.2)$$

So, it is apparent that for larger values of z, Q-function can be approximated by any of these expressions as the error committed becomes insignificant. Usually these analytic approximations are used for z greater than 3.

A tabulation of the Q-function upto z = 3.9 is given in Table A.1 and in Fig. A.1.

A.2 THE ERROR FUNCTIONS

The error function erf is defined as,

$$\text{erf}(z) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^z e^{-\frac{u^2}{2}} du$$

and the complementary error function erfc is defined as,

$$\text{erfc}(z) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_z^\infty e^{-\frac{u^2}{2}} du$$

Three **Appendices** at the end of the book, namely

A: Q and error Functions

B: Continuous Phase Modulation (CPM)

C: Decision-Directed Carrier Recovery provide additional information to the readers of the book

Appendix

B

Continuous Phase Modulation (CPM)

B.1 REPRESENTATION

CPFSK signals defined by Eqs 6.60 and 6.61 is a special case of a more general signal set called CPM signal in which the phase of the modulated waveform is given by [14] (Chapter 6).

$$\phi(t; a) = 2\pi \sum_{k=0}^n a_k h_k q(t - kT_s), \quad nT_s \leq t \leq (n+1)T_s \quad (B.1)$$

where $\{a_k\}$ is the sequence of M-ary information symbols, selected from the alphabet $\pm 1, \pm 3, \dots, \pm(M-1)$; $\{h_k\}$ is a sequence of modulation indices and $q(t)$ is some normalised waveform shape obtained by integrating the basic pulse $f(t)$.

When $h_k = h$ for all k, the modulation index is constant. If the modulation index varies from one symbol to another, the CPM signal is called VCPM. The modulation index is made to vary in a cyclic manner through a set of modulation indices.

The waveform $q(t)$ is the integral of the pulse $f(t)$.

$$q(t) = \int_0^t f(u) du$$

If $f(t) = 0$ for $t > T_s$, the CPM waveform is called *partial response* CPM. The pulse shapes are shown in Figs B.1 and B.2. It is clear that the CPM signal can be generated by choosing different pulse shapes and the alphabet size M.

Unlike other modulated waveforms like ASK and PSK, the continuous-phase waveform cannot be represented as a sum of sinusoids. The phase of the continuous-phase modulated wave

Appendix

C

Decision-Directed Carrier Recovery

Let us begin by estimating an unknown parameter β associated with a received noisy signal,

$$r(t) = g(t, \beta) + n(t) \quad (C.1)$$

where $n(t)$ is the AWGN noise having a PSD $n/2$. We can represent the signal $r(t)$ in terms of its N-dimensional basis set and write,

$$r(t) = \sum_k r_k \Psi_k(t) = \sum_k [g_k(\beta) + n_k] \Psi_k(t) \quad (C.2)$$

So, the sample values of $r(t)$ are r_k and given by $r_k = g_k + n_k$. The unconditional pdf of the random vector R is,

$$p_R = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \right)^N \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{k=1}^N |r_k|^2 \right] \quad (C.3)$$

Also, the expectation of the conditional event $r_k|\beta$ is $E[r_k|\beta] = g_k(\beta)$. With this statistics, we can write the joint pdf of the conditional event $r_k|\beta$

$$p_{R|\beta} = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \right)^N \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{k=1}^N |r_k - g_k(\beta)|^2 \right] \quad (C.4)$$

We are interested in finding the value of β that maximises the conditional probability. To find this value, we could differentiate the conditional probability directly or, equivalently, we could form the likelihood ratio,

$$\frac{p_{R|\beta}}{p_R} = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \exp \left[\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{k=1}^N [r_k^2 g_k(\beta) + r_k g_k^* - |g_k(\beta)|^2] \right] \quad (C.5)$$