

Pulse Code Modulation (PCM)

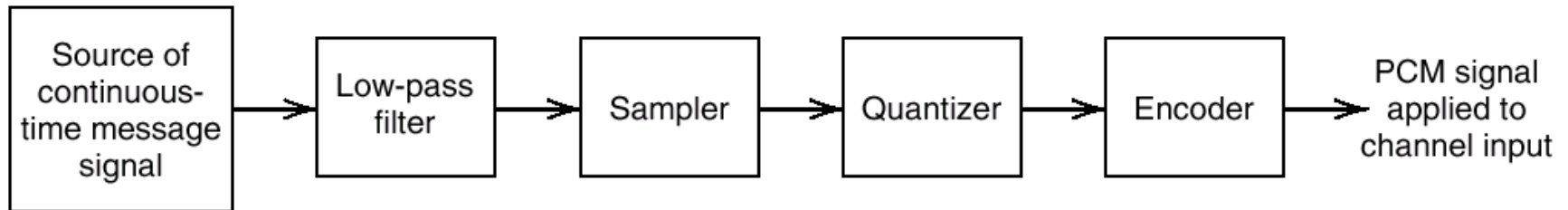
- Pulse code modulation (PCM) is produced by analog-to-digital conversion process. Quantized PAM
- As in the case of other pulse modulation techniques, the rate at which samples are taken and encoded must conform to the Nyquist sampling rate.
- The sampling rate must be greater than, twice the highest frequency in the analog signal,

$$f_s > 2f_A(\text{max})$$

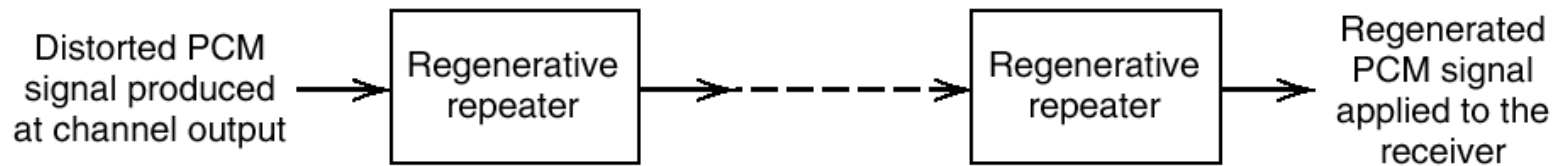
- Telegraph time-division multiplex (TDM) was conveyed as early as 1853, by the American inventor M.B. Farmer. The electrical engineer W.M. Miner, in 1903.
- PCM was invented by the British engineer Alec Reeves in 1937 in France.
- It was not until about the middle of 1943 that the Bell Labs people became aware of the use of PCM binary coding as already proposed by Alec Reeves.



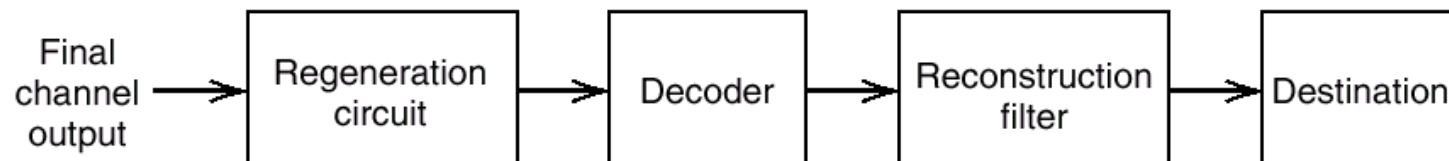
Pulse Code Modulation



(a) Transmitter



(b) Transmission path

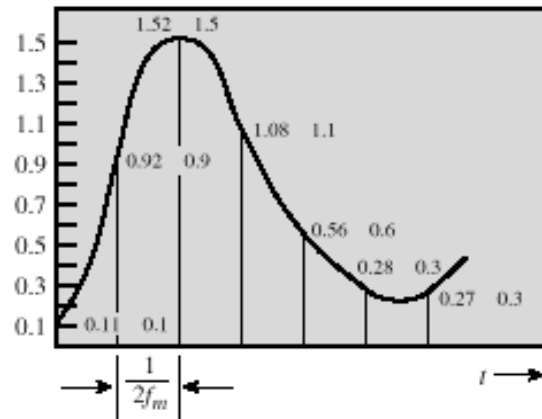


(c) Receiver

Figure The basic elements of a PCM system.



Encoding



(a)

Digit	Binary Equivalent	PCM waveform
0	0000	—
1	0001	—
2	0010	—
3	0011	—
4	0100	—
5	0101	—
6	0110	—
7	0111	—

Digit	Binary Equivalent	PCM waveform
8	1000	—
9	1001	—
10	1010	—
11	1011	—
12	1100	—
13	1101	—
14	1110	—
15	1111	—

(b)



Virtues, Limitations and Modifications of PCM

Advantages of PCM

1. Robustness to noise and interference
2. Efficient regeneration
3. Efficient SNR and bandwidth trade-off
4. Uniform format
5. Ease add and drop
6. Secure

DS0: a basic digital signaling rate of 64 kbit/s. To carry a typical phone call, the audio sound is digitized at an 8 kHz sample rate using 8-bit pulse-code modulation. 4K baseband, $8 \times 6 + 1.8$ dB

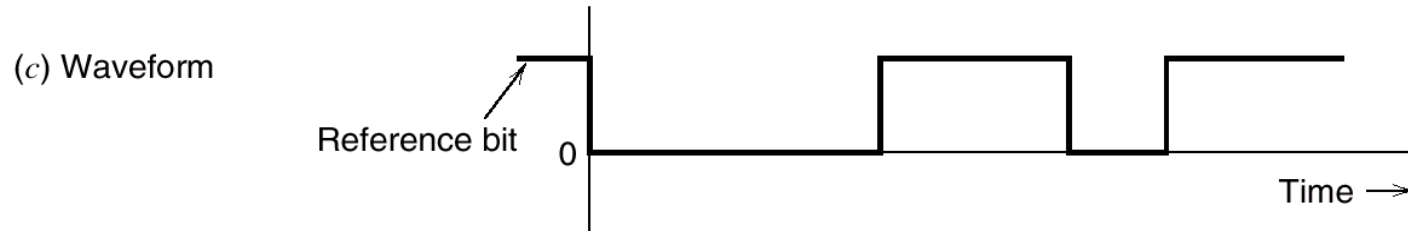


Differential Encoding

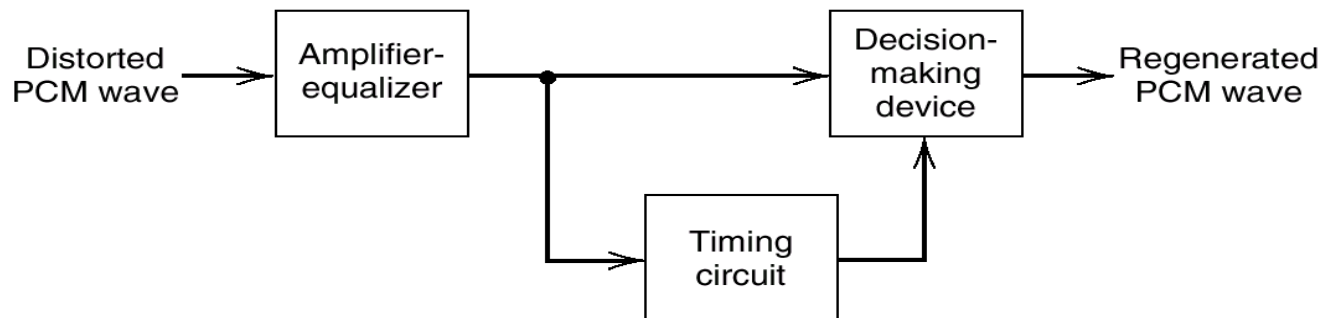
- Encode information in terms of signal transition; a transition is used to designate Symbol 0

(a) Original binary data 1 1 1 0 1 1 0 1

(b) Differentially encoded data 1 0 0 0 1 1 0 1 1



Regeneration (reamplification, retiming, reshaping)



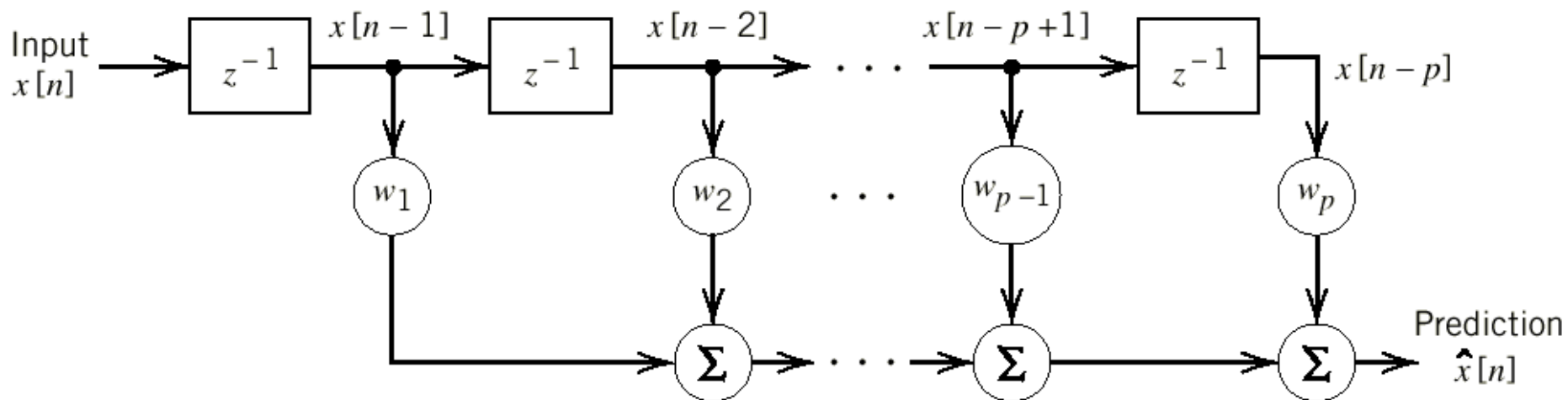
3dB performance loss, easier decoder



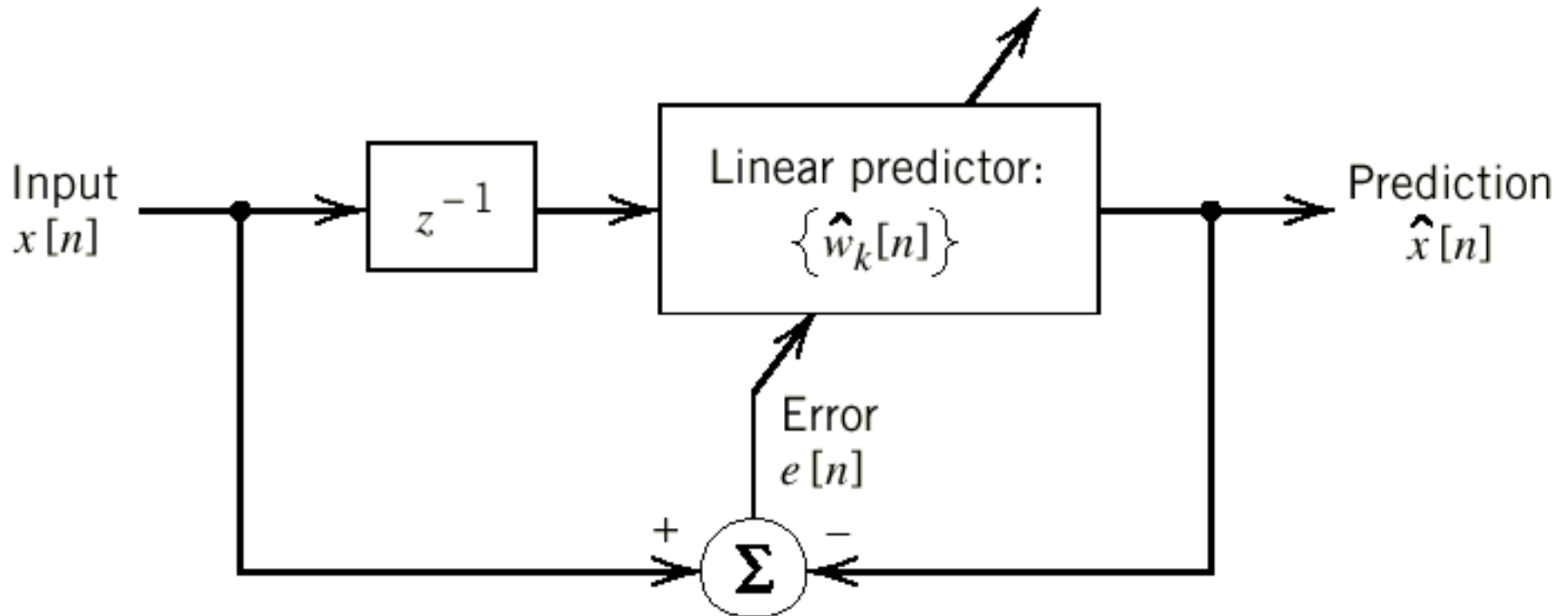
Linear Prediction Coding (LPC)

Consider a finite-duration impulse response (FIR) discrete-time filter which consists of three blocks :

1. Set of p (p : **prediction order**) unit-delay elements (z^{-1})
2. Set of multipliers with coefficients w_1, w_2, \dots, w_p
3. Set of adders (Σ)



Reduce the sampling rate

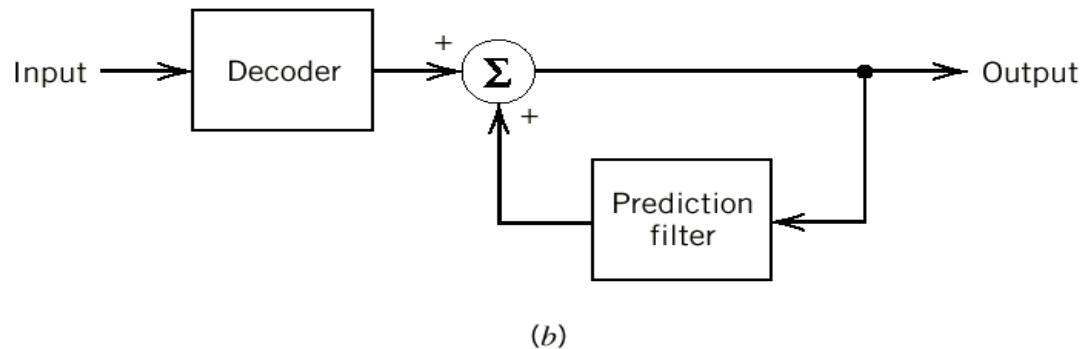
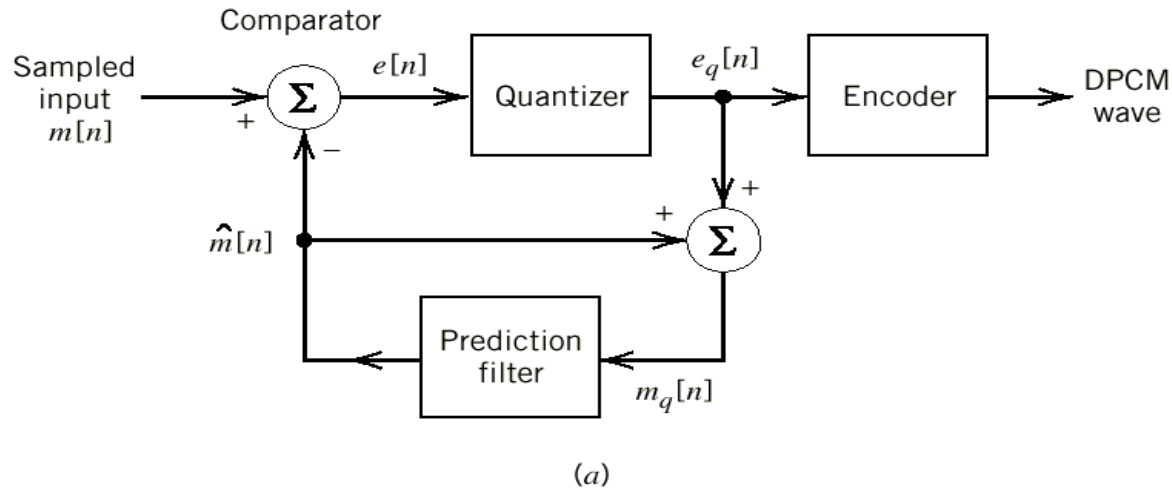


Block diagram illustrating the linear adaptive prediction process.



Differential Pulse-Code Modulation (DPCM)

Usually **PCM** has the sampling rate higher than the **Nyquist rate**. The encode signal contains redundant information. **DPCM** can efficiently remove this redundancy. 32 Kbps for PCM Quality



Processing Gain

The $(\text{SNR})_o$ of the DPCM system is

$$(\text{SNR})_o = \frac{\sigma_M^2}{\sigma_Q^2}$$

where σ_M^2 and σ_Q^2 are variances of $m[n]$ ($E[m[n]] = 0$) and $q[n]$

$$\begin{aligned}(\text{SNR})_o &= \left(\frac{\sigma_M^2}{\sigma_E^2}\right) \left(\frac{\sigma_E^2}{\sigma_Q^2}\right) \\ &= G_p (\text{SNR})_Q\end{aligned}$$

where σ_E^2 is the variance of the prediction error
and the signal - to - quantization noise ratio is

$$(\text{SNR})_Q = \frac{\sigma_E^2}{\sigma_Q^2}$$

Processing Gain, $G_p = \frac{\sigma_M^2}{\sigma_E^2}$

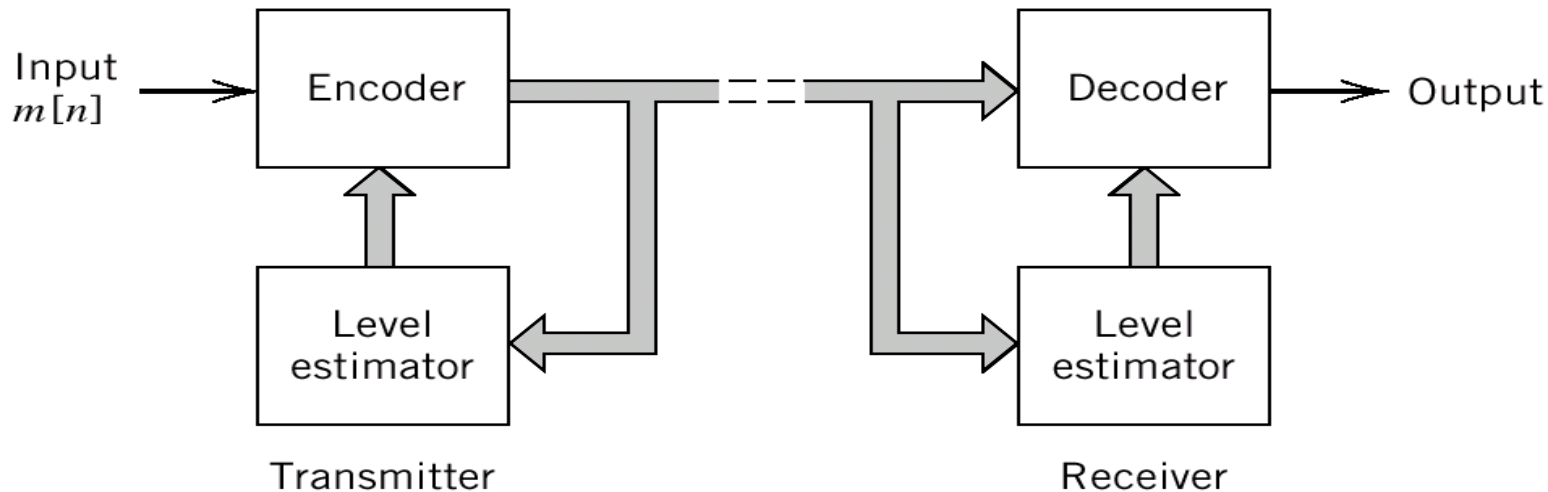
Design a prediction filter to maximize G_p (minimize σ_E^2)



Adaptive Differential Pulse-Code Modulation (ADPCM)

Need for coding speech at low bit rates , we have two aims in mind:

1. Remove redundancies from the speech signal as far as possible.
2. Assign the available bits in a perceptually efficient manner.

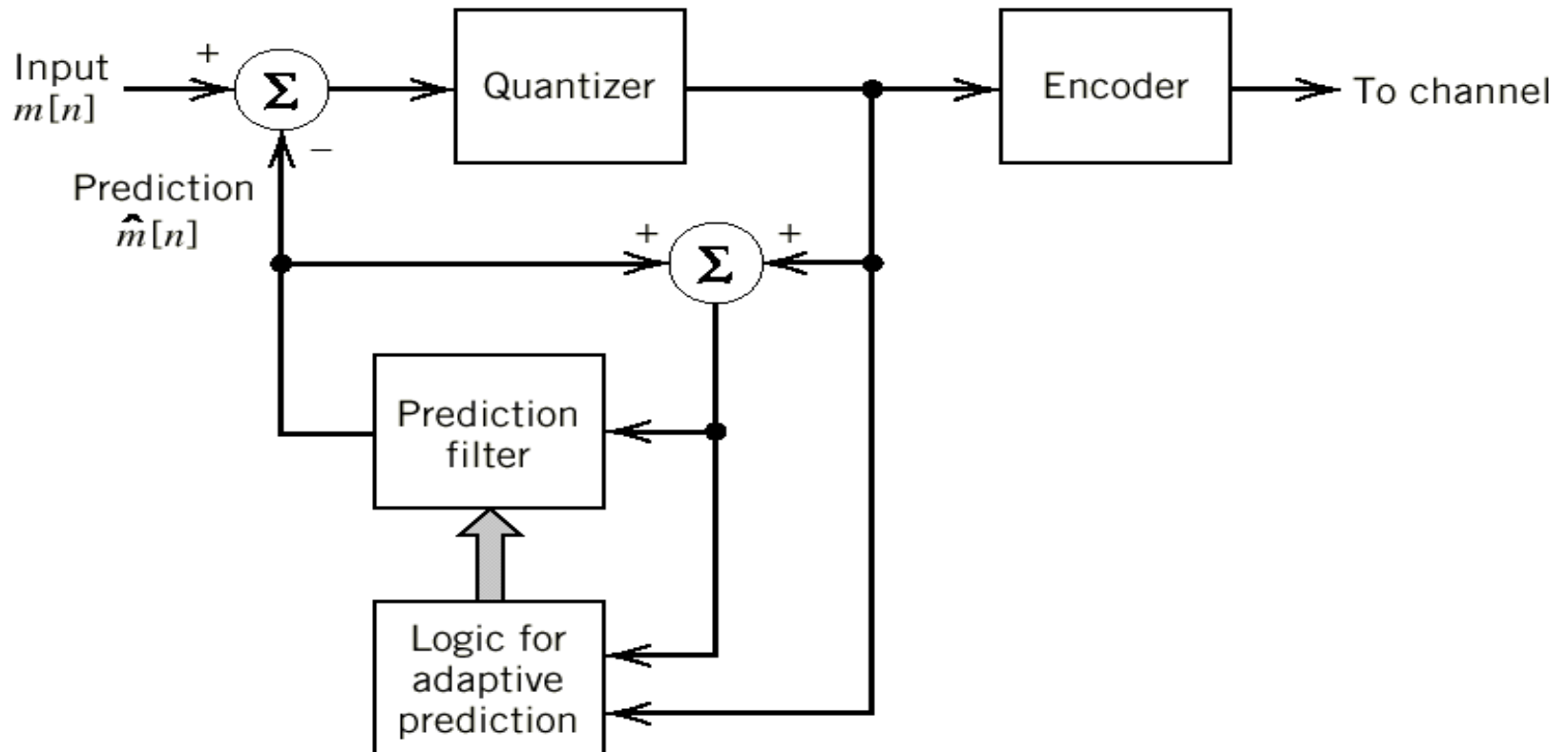


Adaptive quantization with backward estimation (AQB).



ADPCM

8-16 kbps with the same quality of PCM



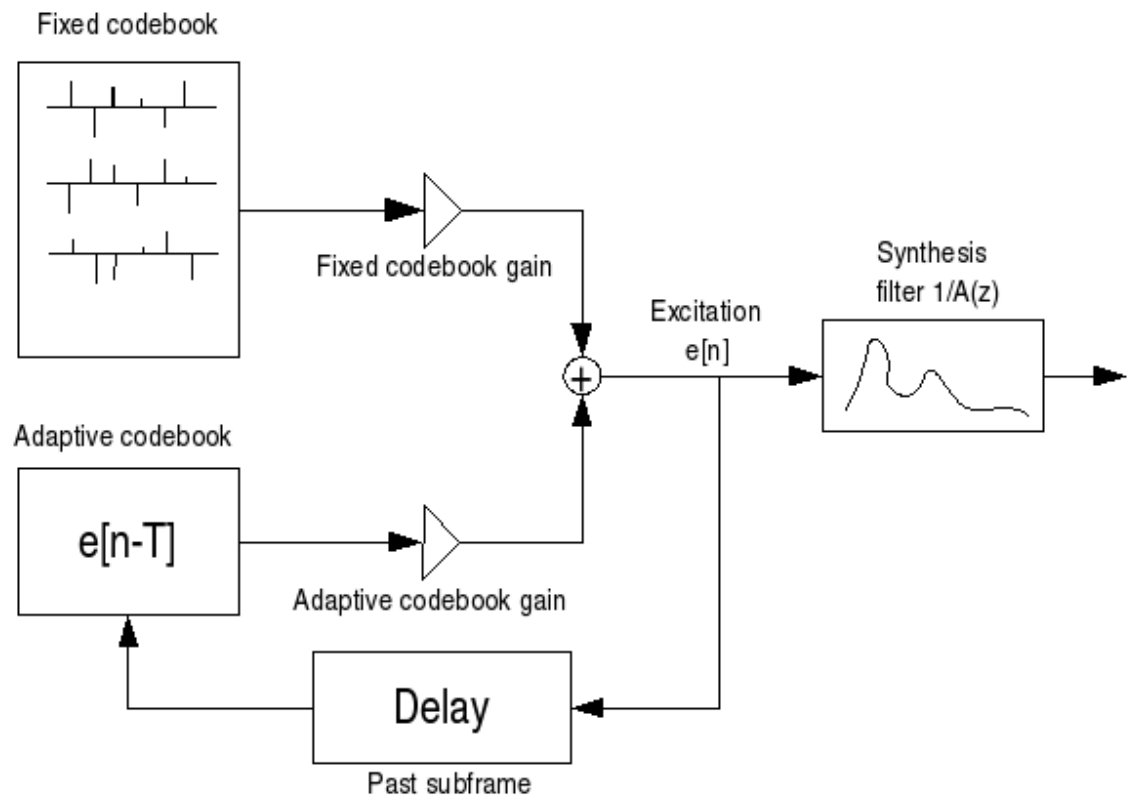
Adaptive prediction with backward estimation (APB).



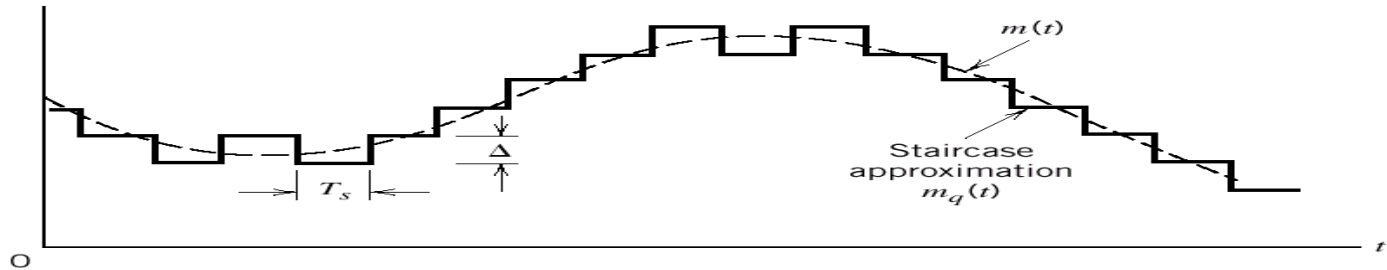
Coded Excited Linear Prediction (CELP)

- Currently the most widely used speech coding algorithm
 - Code books
 - Vector Quantization
 - <8kbps
 - Compared to CD
- 44.1 k sampling
16 bits quantization
705.6 kbps

100 times difference



Delta Modulation (DM)



(a)

Binary
sequence
at modulator
output

0 0 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0

(b)

Let $m[n] = m(nT_s)$, $n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$

where T_s is the sampling period and $m(nT_s)$ is a sample of $m(t)$.

The error signal is

$$e[n] = m[n] - m_q[n-1]$$

$$e_q[n] = \Delta \operatorname{sgn}(e[n])$$

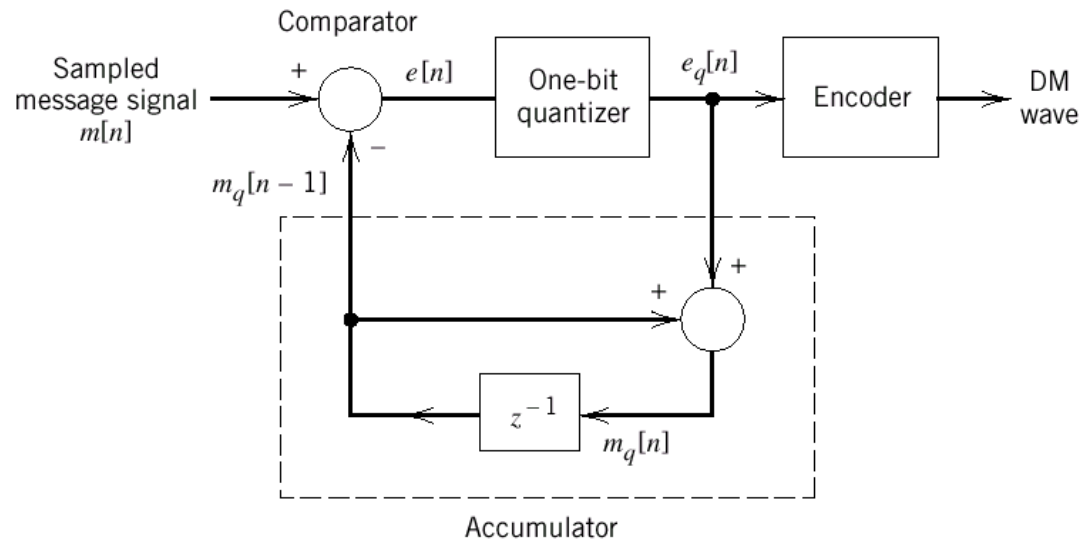
$$m_q[n] = m_q[n-1] + e_q[n]$$

where $m_q[n]$ is the quantizer output, $e_q[n]$ is

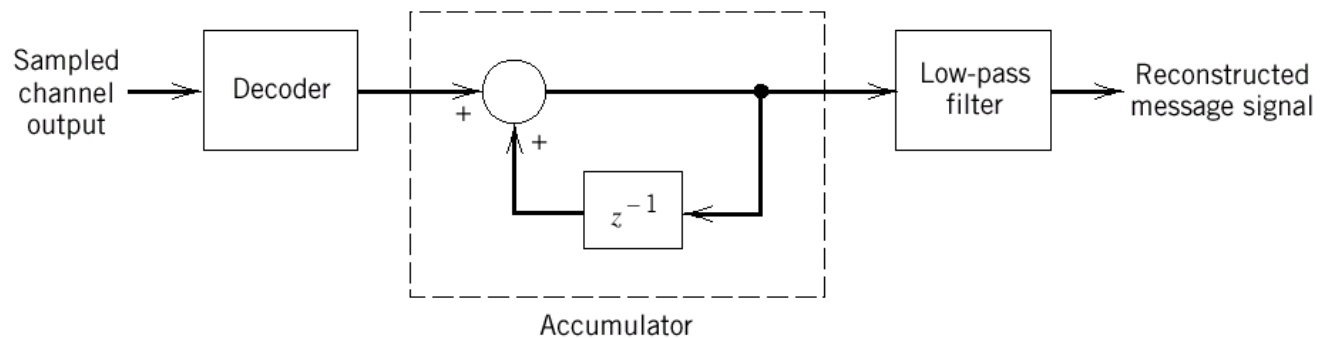
the quantized version of $e[n]$, and Δ is the step size



DM System: Transmitter and Receiver.



(a)



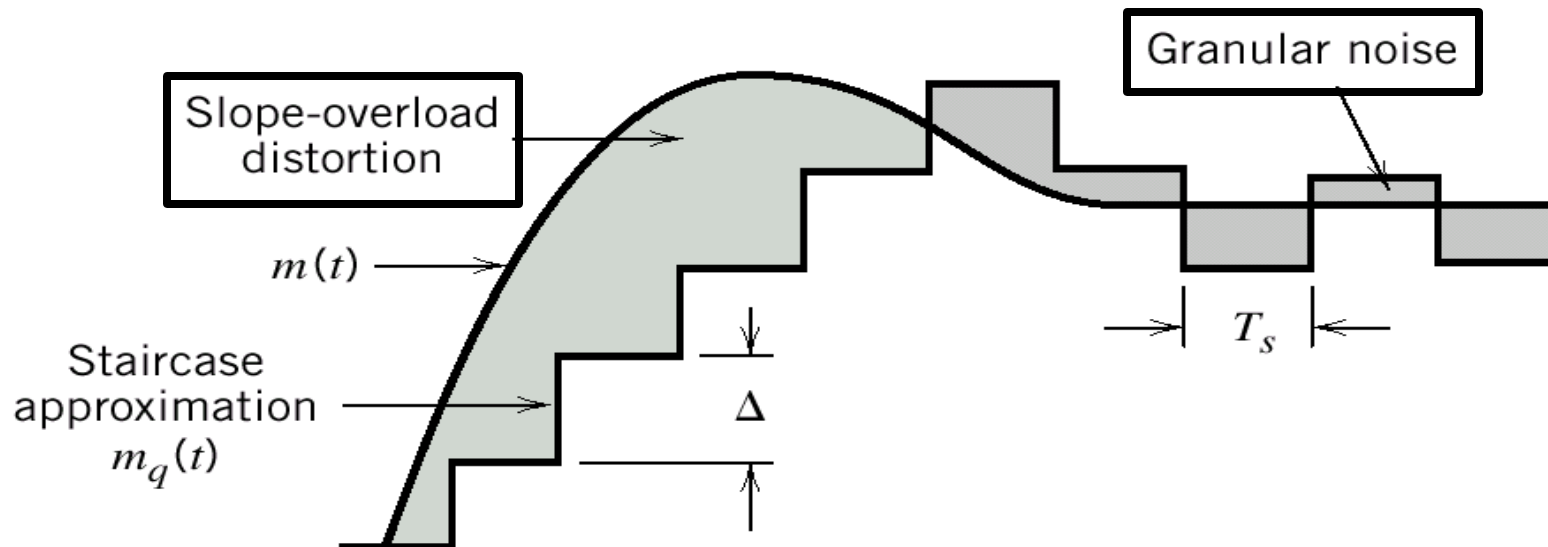
(b)



Slope overload distortion and granular noise

The modulator consists of a comparator, a quantizer, and an accumulator. The output of the accumulator is

$$\begin{aligned} m_q[n] &= \Delta \sum_{i=1}^n \text{sgn}(e[i]) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n e_q[i] \end{aligned}$$



Slope Overload Distortion and Granular Noise

Denote the quantization error by $q[n]$,

$$m_q[n] = m[n] - q[n]$$

We have

$$e[n] = m[n] - m[n-1] - q[n-1]$$

Except for $q[n-1]$, the quantizer input is a first backward difference of the input signal (**differentiator**)

To avoid slope-overload distortion, we require

$$\text{(slope)} \quad \frac{\Delta}{T_s} \geq \max \left| \frac{dm(t)}{dt} \right|$$

On the other hand, granular noise occurs when step size Δ is too large relative to the local slope of $m(t)$.



Delta-Sigma modulation (sigma-delta modulation)

The $\Delta - \Sigma$ modulation which has an **integrator** can relieve the draw back of delta modulation (**differentiator**)

Beneficial effects of using integrator:

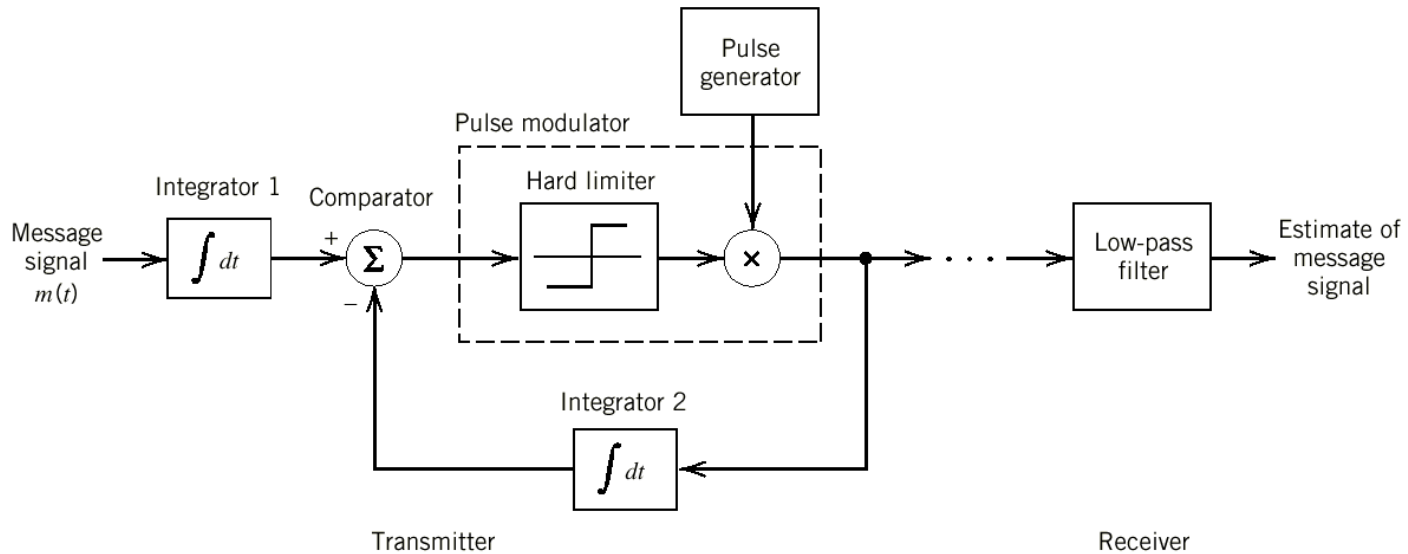
1. Pre-emphasize the low-frequency content
2. Increase correlation between adjacent samples
(reduce the variance of the error signal at the quantizer input)
3. Simplify receiver design

Because the transmitter has an integrator , the receiver consists simply of a low-pass filter.

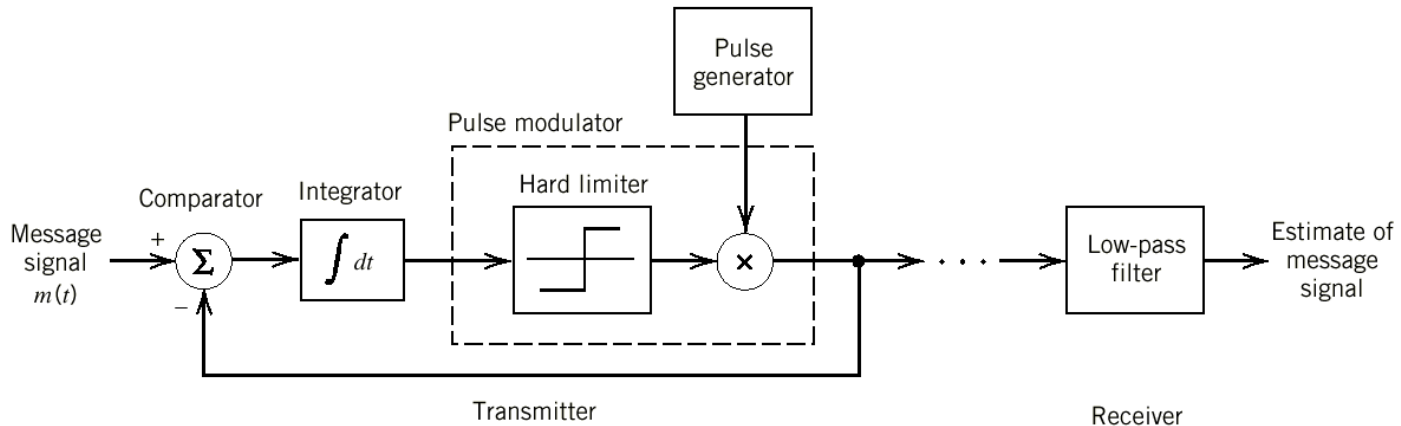
(The differentiator in the conventional DM receiver is cancelled by the integrator)



delta-sigma modulation system.



(a)



(b)



Two Types of Errors

- Round off error
- Detection error
- Variance of sum of the independent random variables is equal to the sum of the variances of the independent random variables.
- The final error energy is equal to the sum of error energy for two types of errors
- Round off error in PCM

$$\sigma_q^2 = \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{m_p}{L} \right)^2$$



Mean Square Error in PCM

- If transmit 1101 (13), but receive 0101 (5), error is 8
- Error in different location produces different MSE

$$\varepsilon_i = (2^{-i})(2m_p)$$

- Overall error probability

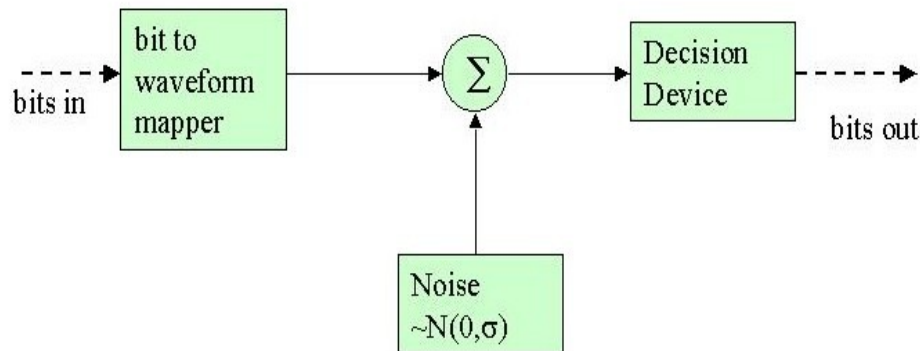
$$MSE = \sum_{i=1}^n \varepsilon_i^2 P_e(\varepsilon_i) = P_e \sum_{i=1}^n \varepsilon_i^2 = \frac{4m_p^2 P_e (2^{2n} - 1)}{3(2^{2n})}$$

- Gray coding: if one bit occur, the error is minimized.



Bit Errors in PCM Systems

BER Simulation Model



Simplest case is Additive White Gaussian Noise for baseband PCM scheme -- see the analysis for this case. For signal levels of $+A$ and $-A$ we get

$$p_e = Q(A/\sigma)$$

Notes

- $Q(A/\sigma)$ represents the area under one tail of the normal pdf
- $(A/\sigma)^2$ represents the Signal to Noise (SNR) ratio
- Our analysis has neglected the effects of transmit and receive filters - it can be shown that the same results apply when filters with the correct response are used.

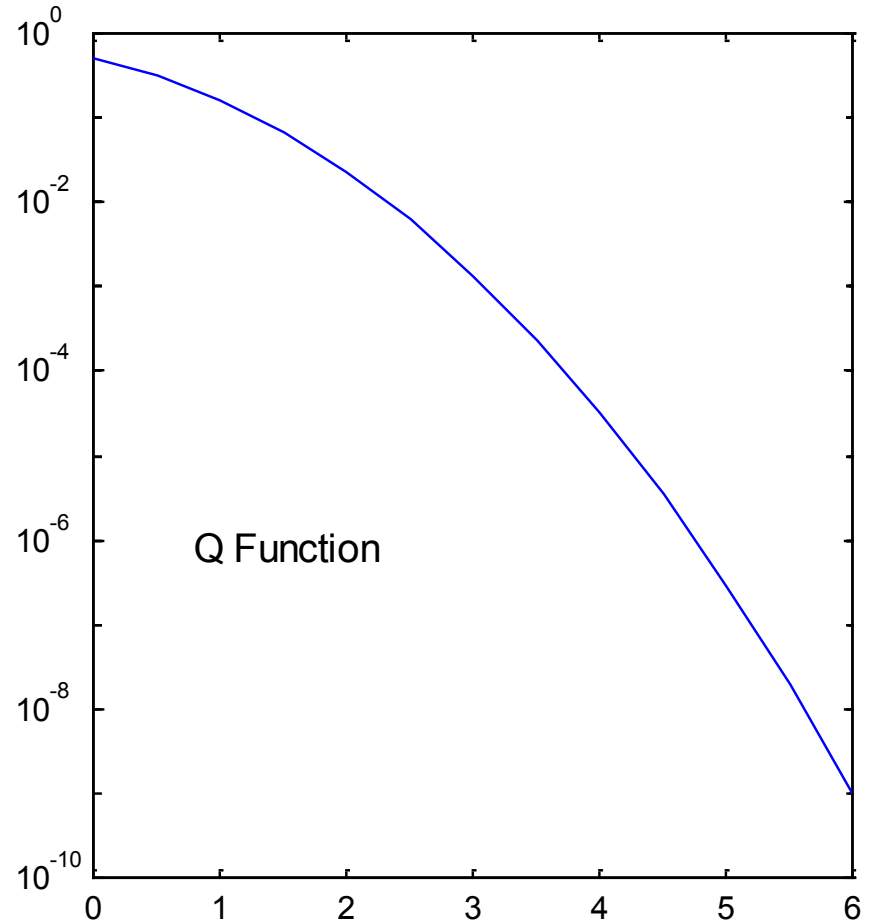


Q Function

- For Q function:
 - The remain of cdf of Gaussian distribution
 - Physical meaning
 - Equation

$$P_e = Q(\sqrt{\gamma})$$

- Matlab: erfc
 - $y = Q(x)$
 - $y = 0.5 * \text{erfc}(x/\text{sqrt}(2));$
- Note how rapidly $Q(x)$ decreases as x increases - this leads to the threshold characteristic of digital communication systems



SNR vs. γ

$$\frac{S_0}{N_0} = \frac{3(2^{2n})}{1 + 4(2^{2n} - 1)Q(\sqrt{\gamma/n_0})} \left(\frac{\bar{m}^2}{m_p^2} \right)$$

- Threshold
- Saturation
 - slightly better than ADC
- Exchange of SNR for bandwidth is much more efficient than in angle modulation
- Repeaters



Time-Division Multiplexing

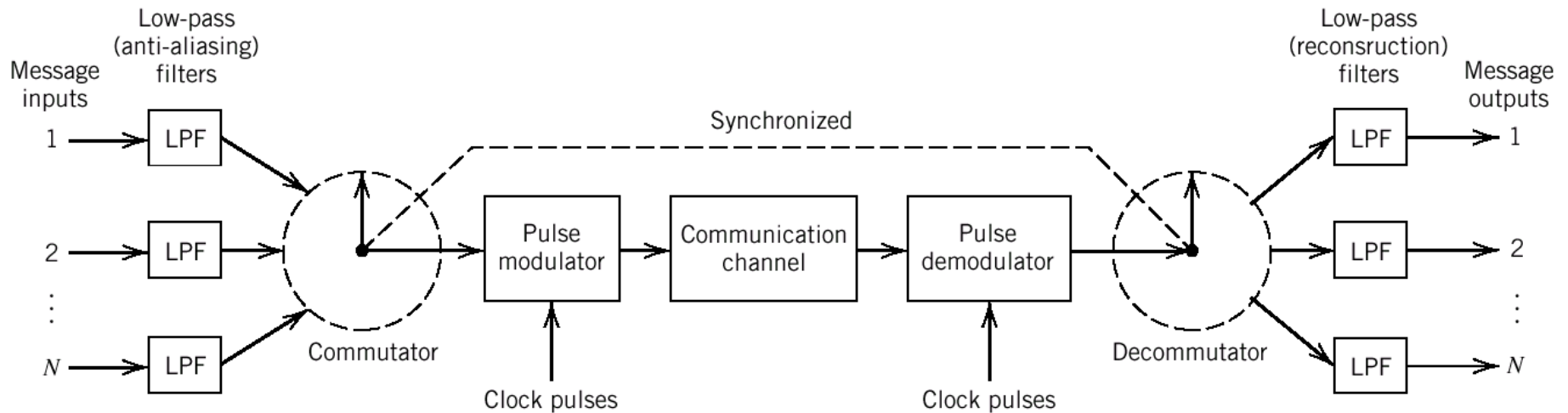
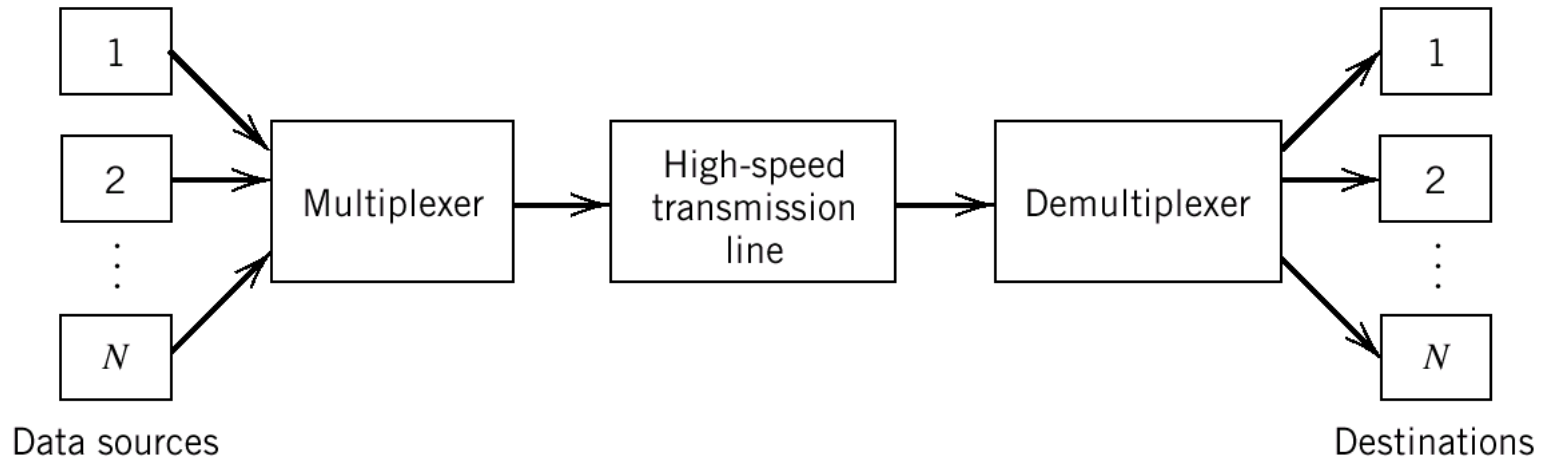


Figure Block diagram of TDM system.

