



Page NO.

1. 1 to 35 – Mid Term
2. 36 to 69- Final Term
3. 70 to 89 – Class Lecture

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25th BATCH

COMPUTER AND COMMUNICATION ENGINEERING

International Islamic University Chittagong

COURSE CODE: CCE-3611

COURSE TITLE: Digital Communication

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Lecturer

Computer and Communication Engineering

Digital COMMUNICATION

Starts from the next page

CCF-3611

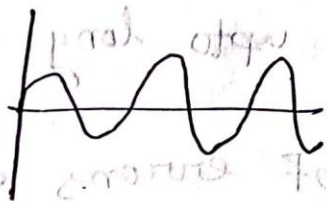


(Digital Communication)

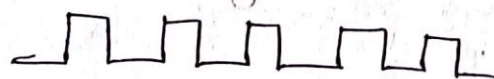
The necessity of Digitization

In conventional methods of communication

used analog signals for long distance communications. which is the reason for signal losses such as distortion, noise interference & other losses such as security breach. To overcome this problem we used digitization method for signal. which is consist of 0 & 1. which means voltage low & voltage HIGH respectively. It is



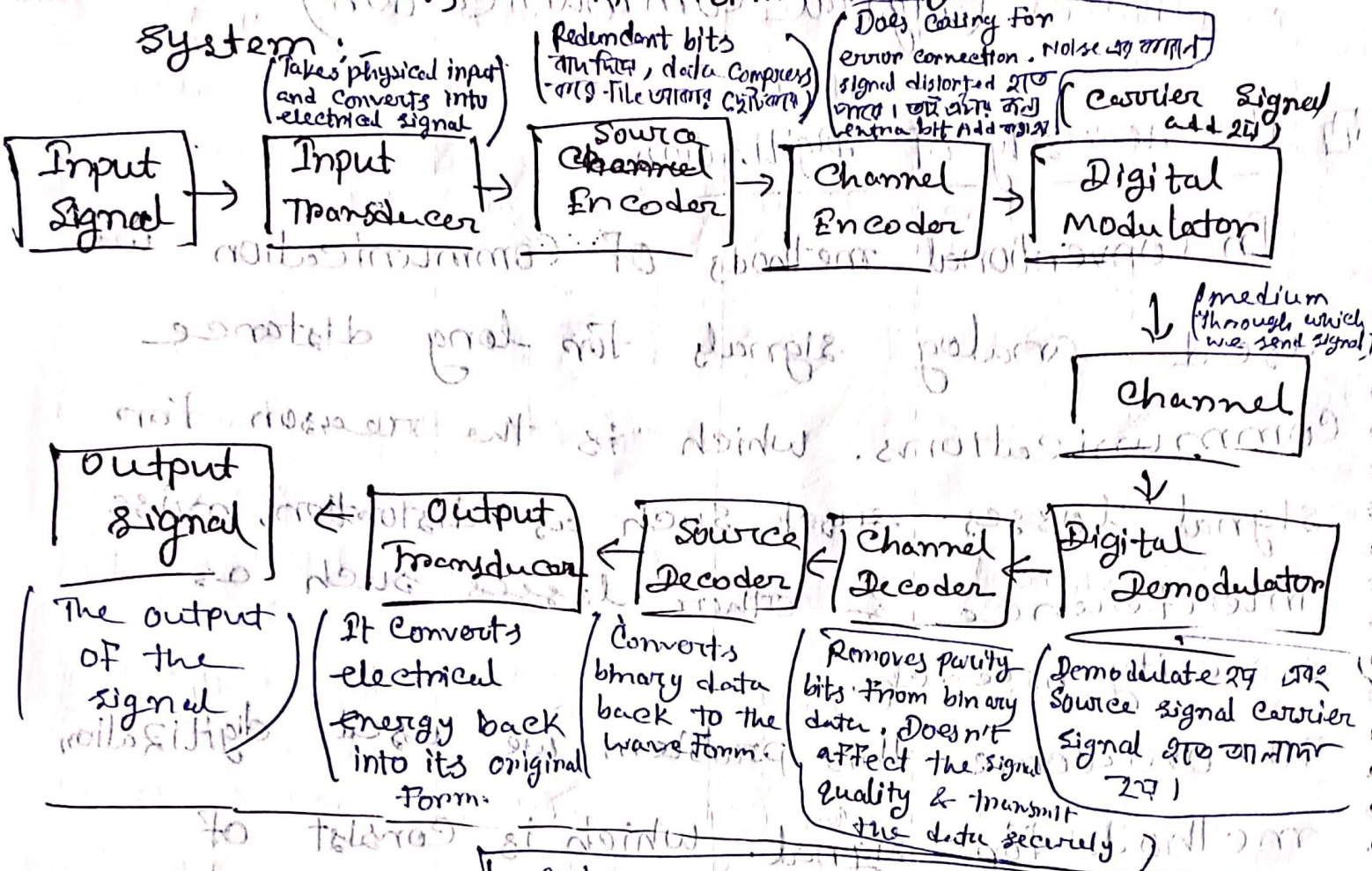
(Analog signal)



(Digital signal)

Elements of Digital Communication :-

The elements which form a digital communication system:



Advantages of Digital Communication

- Fast, more accurate & more reliable than analog communication.
- Can be quickly transmitted upto long distances.
- The detection & correction of errors is easy.
- Allows easy removal of noise, cross-talk or any interference in the signal.
- Not that expensive for advance tech.
- Transmission speed of signal is HIGH.
- Facilitates video & audio conferencing, Allow quick meetings & discussion with several people.

Disadvantages of Digital Communication:-

⇒ High power consumption:-

Consumes high power due to the requirement of greater number of components, high bandwidth and high transmission speed.

⇒ High transmission bandwidth:-

Requires HIGH transmission bandwidth to transmit the signals at HIGH speed.

⇒ HIGH power loss:-

The power loss in here is higher than analog communication due to the high processing speed and hardware components.

Digital vs. Analog

Digital Communication

① uses digital signals with discrete values for transmitting data represented in the form of two binary digits 0 & 1.

② It represents one bit at a time.

③ The noise immunity is good.

Analog Communication

① uses analog signals for transmitting data.

② It represents continuous values at a time.

③ It is poor in noise immunity.

Digital Communication

Analog Communication

1 Error probability is Low.

1 Error probability is HIGH

2 The digital Com. system uses an encoder & decoder to convert the information into bits & vice-versa

2 It can't

3 More Flexible

3 Less Flexible

4 HIGH Cost

4 Low Cost

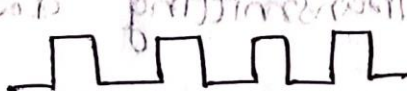
5 power Consumption is Low.

5 power Consumption is HIGH.

6 Data transmission is more accurate

6 Less accurate

7 Square wave



7 ~~Bit~~ Represented by sine wave or cosine wave

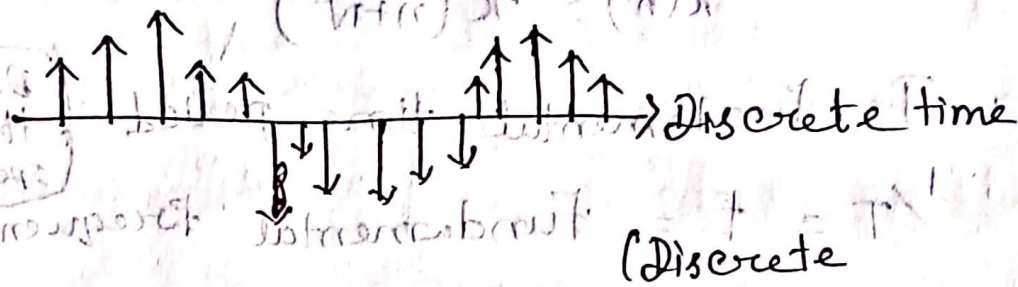
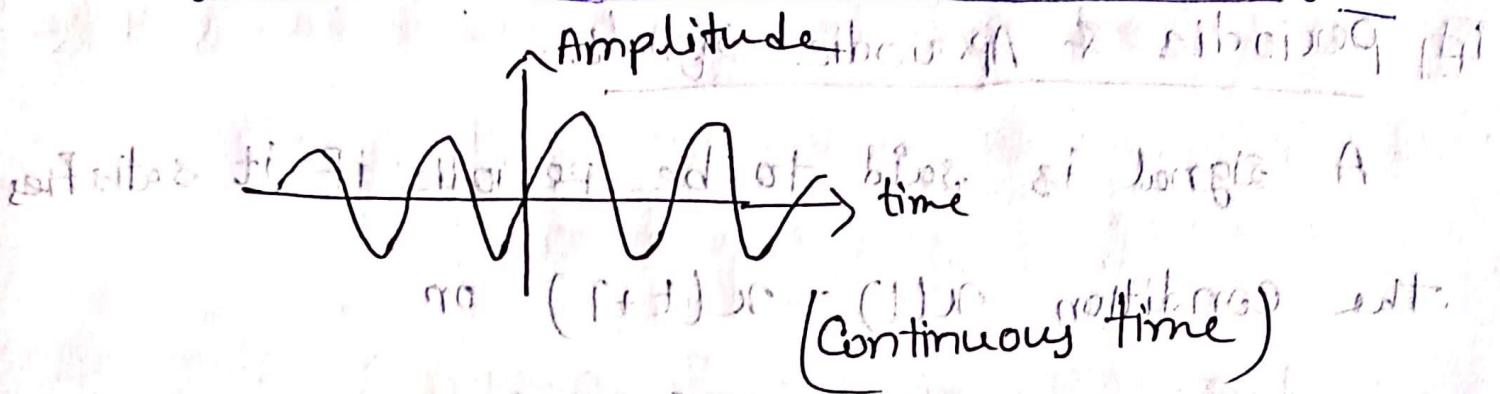
8 Example:-

clock signals

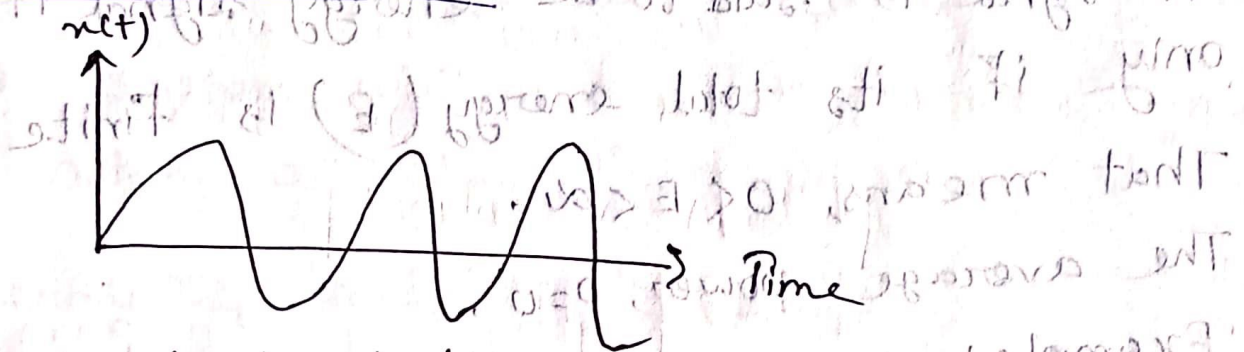
8 Example:-

Audio signals, speech signals, sound waves

Continuous Time and Discrete Time Signals:-

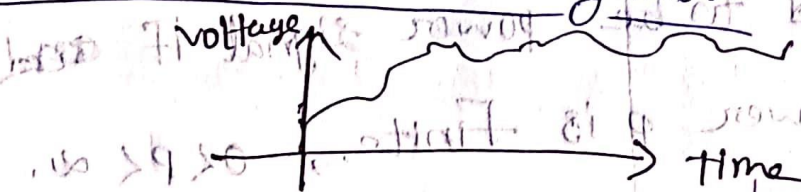


Deterministic Signals:-



=> A signal is deterministic if there is no uncertainty with respect to its value at any instant of time. It can be defined by a mathematical formula.

Non deterministic Signals:-



These signals are random in nature. It can't be described by any mathematical formula. They

are modelled in probabilistic term.

Periodic & Aperiodic signals:-

A signal is said to be periodic if it satisfies the condition $x(t) = x(t+T)$ or

$$x(n) = x(n+N)$$

where, $T =$ Fundamental time period

$1/T = f =$ Fundamental frequency.

Does not repeat itself after a specific interval of time

Energy Signal:-

A signal is said to be energy signal if & only if its total energy (E) is finite

That means, $0 < E < \infty$.

The average power, $p = 0$.

Example:- The Non-periodic signal

$$\text{Energy, } E = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2(t) dt$$

Power Signal:-

A signal is said to be power signal if its average power p is finite, $0 < p < \infty$.

For a power signal, the total Energy $E = \infty$

Example: The periodic signal.

$$\text{power } P = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T x^2(t) dt$$

Spectral Density

spectral:- A Group of set up frequencies.

So, The spectral Density of signal stands for the distribution of the signal's energy or power in the frequency domain.

Importance:- When considering filtering in communication system while evaluating the signal & noise at the filter output.

⊛ Energy spectral density (ESD)

or power spectral density (PSD) is used in the evaluation.

Power Spectral Density

It is defined as the distribution of energy of the signal per unit bandwidth.

It is denoted by $\Psi(f)$

$$\Psi(f) = \frac{\text{Energy}}{\text{Unit Bandwidth}} = \frac{E_{\text{total}}}{\Delta f}$$

~~$$\Psi(f) = |x(f)|^2 = |x(\omega)|^2$$~~

According to Parseval's theorem, the energy of $x(t)$:-

$$E_x = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2(t) dt$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x(f)|^2 df$$

Therefore: $E_x = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Psi_x(f) \cdot df$

So, the energy spectral density is symmetrical in frequency about origin & total energy of the signal, can be expressed as:-

$$E_x = 2 \int_0^{\infty} \Psi(f) df$$

If it is autocorrelation for an energy signal
 $E_{\omega}(\text{ESD})$ from a Fourier Transform:

autocorrelation $R_{xx}(z) \xleftrightarrow{\text{FT}} \psi(f)$ or $\psi(\omega)$

power Density Spectral
(PSD)

Sign PSD Function $G_{xx}(f)$ of the periodic signal $x(t)$ is a real, even & nonnegative function of frequency that gives the distribution of the power of $x(t)$ in the frequency domain.

→ PSD is represented as:

$$G_{xx}(f) = \sum |c_n|^2 \delta(f - n f_0)$$

→ whereas the average power of a periodic signal $x(t)$ is represented as:-

$$P_{av} = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_{-T_0/2}^{T_0/2} x^2(t) dt = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |c_n|^2$$

→ Using PSD, the average normalized power of a real-valued signal is represented as

$$P_n = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} G_n(f) df = 2 \int_0^{\infty} G_n(f) df$$

Signal Transmission Through Linear System

⇒ The response of the system for an impulse is called as impulse response in the system.

This is represented as $h(t)$ or $h(\omega)$

$$x(t) \rightarrow \boxed{h(t)} \rightarrow y(t)$$

So, $y(t) = h(t)$ when $x(t) = \delta(t)$

$$y(\omega) = x(\omega) \cdot H(\omega)$$

$$\therefore H(\omega) = \frac{y(\omega)}{x(\omega)}$$

So, impulse response, $F^{-1}[H(\omega)] = h(t)$

It is a transfer function of a system.

Question!
Example!

A transfer function of a system

is given so what may be the impulse response?

Ans 1 - $H(s) \Leftarrow$ will be given -

$$\mathcal{L}^{-1}[H(s)] = h(t)$$

or, $F^{-1}[H(\omega)] = h(t) \Rightarrow$ Solve Formula

Transfer function of LTI system

LTI:- Linear Time Invariant

The frequency-domain output signal $Y(F)$ is obtained by taking the Fourier transform.

$$Y(F) = X(F) \cdot H(F)$$

* Frequency transfer function, on the frequency response a is defined as:-

$$H(F) = \frac{Y(F)}{X(F)}$$

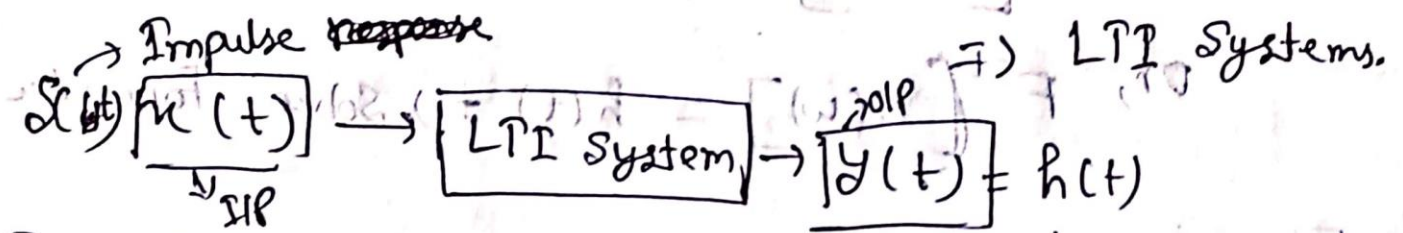
$$H(F) = |H(F)| e^{j\theta(F)}$$

* The phase response is defined as:-

$$\theta(F) = \tan^{-1} \frac{\text{Im}\{H(F)\}}{\text{Re}\{H(F)\}}$$

Understanding! -

Linear System + Time Invariant System



Transfer Function is defined as the ratio of Laplace transform of o/p to the Laplace transform of input when all the initial conditions are assumed to be zero.

Distortionless Transmission

\rightarrow Must have some time delay and different amplitude than the input. There is no distortion. Must have the same shape as input.

For ideal distortion less transmission:-

\rightarrow Output signal in time domain:- $y(t) = Kx(t - t_0)$

\rightarrow Output signal in frequency domain:-

$$Y(F) = KX(F)e^{-j2\pi Ft_0}$$

\rightarrow System Transfer Function:-

$$H(F) = Ke^{-j2\pi Ft_0}$$

Autocorrelation

Correlation is a process of matching to a delayed version

→ Matching of a signal with a delayed version of itself.

Autocorrelation of an Energy signal:

Energy signal $x(t)$:

$$R_x(\tau) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) \cdot x(t+\tau) dt \quad [-\infty < \tau < \infty]$$

→ τ unit time is signal or copy shift τ or $R_x(\tau)$

→ $R_x(\tau)$ time lag function

→ variable τ → parameter search, scan or lag

→ τ function of τ waveform or shifted copy.

① $R_x(\tau) = R_x(-\tau)$ → [Symmetrical in τ about zero]

② $R_x(\tau) \leq R_x(0)$ for all τ [Maximum value origin is 24]

③ $R_x(\tau) \leftrightarrow \Psi_x(f)$ [Autocorrelation and ESD Fourier Transform pair]

④ $R_x(0) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2(t) dt$ [value at the origin is signal or energy]

Autocorrelation of a periodic (power) signal:-

Function of a real valued power signal $x(t)$ is defined as:-

$$R_x(\tau) = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} x(t) x(t+\tau) dt \quad [-\alpha < \tau < \alpha]$$

When, $x(t)$ = periodic with T_0 then,

$$R_x(\tau) = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_{-T_0/2}^{T_0/2} x(t) x(t+\tau) dt \quad [-\alpha < \tau < \alpha]$$

\Rightarrow properties:-

(i) $R_x(\tau) = R_x(-\tau)$ [Symmetrical in τ about zero]

(ii) $R_x(\tau) \leq R_x(0)$ For all τ
[Maximum value occurs at the origin]

(iii) $R_x(\tau) \leftrightarrow G_x(f)$ [Autocorrelation \leftrightarrow PSD
Fourier transform pair]

(iv) $R_x(0) = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_{-T_0/2}^{T_0/2} x^2(t) dt$ [Origin value =
The average power of the signal]

Random process

→ Random process $(X(A, t) \Rightarrow$ two variables

Event A

→ Each of the sample function can be generated & regarded as the output of a different noise generator.

Example:-

Specific event $\rightarrow A_j \rightarrow X(A_j, t_j)$

Time $\rightarrow t_j$

but, $t_j = t_k$

So, $X(A_j, t_k)$

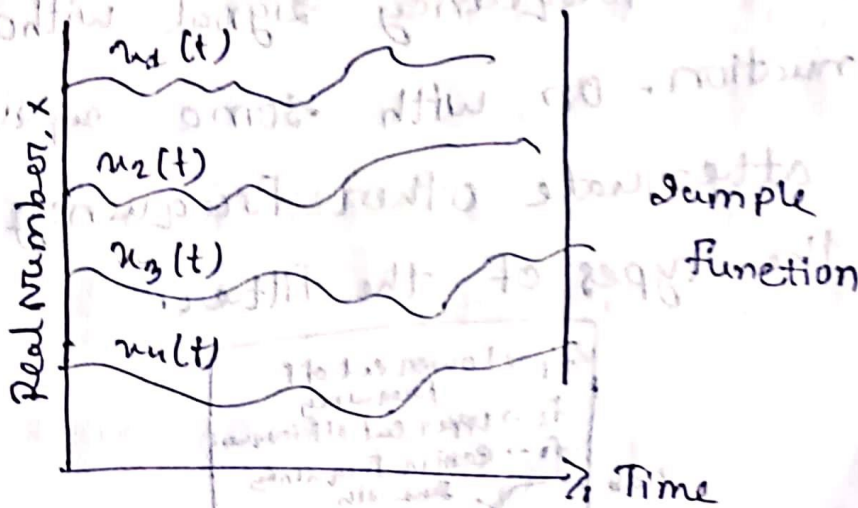


Fig: - Random noise process

Principle features of PSD functions:-

1] $G_{xx}(f) \geq 0$ [Always real valued]

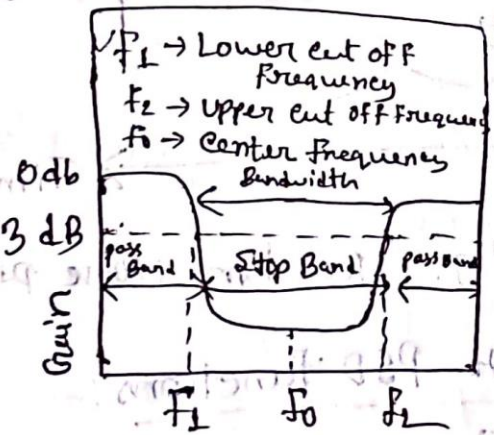
2) $G_m(F) = G_m(-F)$ [For $x(t)$ real-valued]

3) $G_m(F) \leftrightarrow R_x(\tau)$ [PSD & a auto correlation form a Fourier Transform pair]

4) $P_{avg} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} G_m(F) \cdot dF$ [Relation of Power & PSD]

Filtering

- Also known as a Frequency selective signal circuit.
- Used for filtering out some of the input signals on the basis of their frequencies.
- It passes frequency signal without attenuation or with some amplification and attenuate other frequency depending on the types of the filter.



Passband :-

→ Attenuation ছাড়া যে Frequency সুরমা Filter এ
এর মধ্যে যায়।

→ The passband may have some gain depending
on the configuration of the circuit.

STOPband :-

→ Frequencies of the input that are blocked or
attenuated in the filter.

→ -3dB gain is considered for the first order
filter

→ 2nd order filter has -6dB gain, which
decreases with the order of the filter.

Cutoff frequency :-

The passband & stopband are distinguished from
each other by the cutoff frequency or corner
frequency.

→ The output signal's frequency is 70.7% of
the input signal's voltage. It is also known as

-3dB frequency. As -3dB represents half power
of the input signal.

Lower Cutoff Frequency:-

→ The gain of the filter is -3db and it is denoted by F_1

⇒ Bandpass filter ~~at~~ point F_1 & F_2 frequency pass ~~through~~ Band Stop Filter block ~~not~~ pass.

Upper Cutoff Frequency:-

At which the output power is reduced by $\frac{1}{2}$ of the input signal power. It is denoted by F_2 .

Bandpass Filter does not allow frequency after this point.

Center Frequency, F_0 :-

Frequency lies at the center of the passband

or stopband is called Center Frequency.

It lies between lower & upper cutoff frequency.

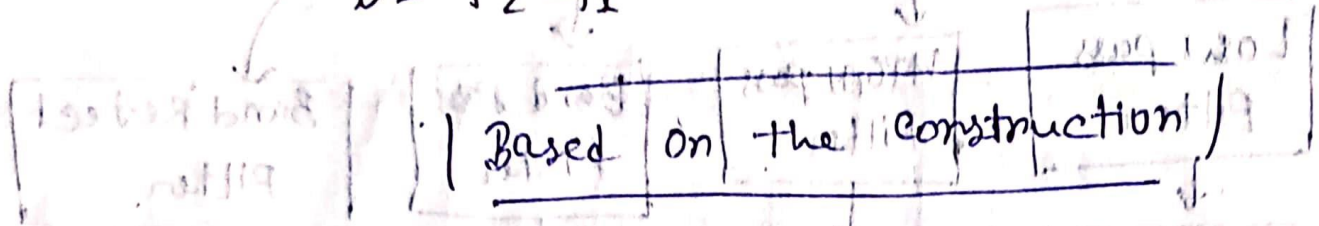
$$F_0 = \frac{F_1 + F_2}{2}$$

Bandwidth:-

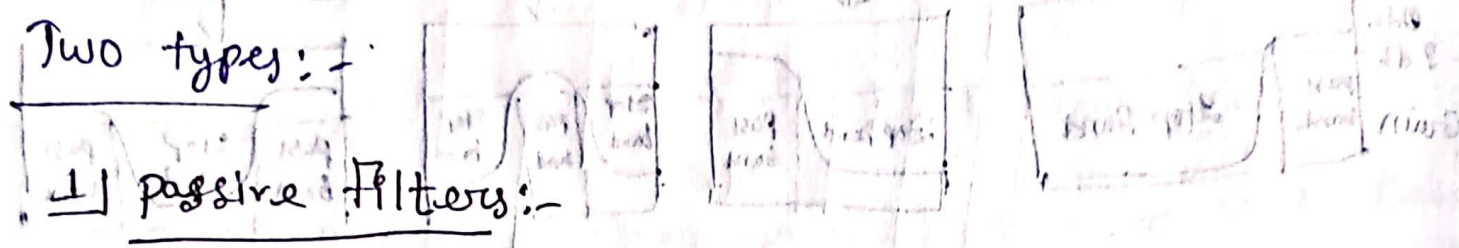
→ Frequencies that are passed without any attenuation, or the frequencies that are attenuated.

→ Frequencies before (low pass) & after (High pass) cutoff is called bandwidth.

$$B = f_2 - f_1$$



Two types:-



1) passive Filters:-

→ Made up of passive components like resistors, capacitors, inductors.

→ NO need of any external source of energy.

→ NO voltage gain.

→ Output voltage less than Input voltage.

2) Active Filters:-

→ Made up of active components, operational amplifiers, transistors, etc.

→ They need external source of power.

→ Gives high voltage gain, used to amplify weak input signals,

0db
Gain

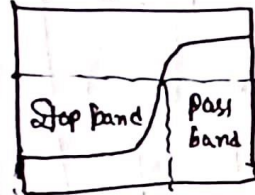
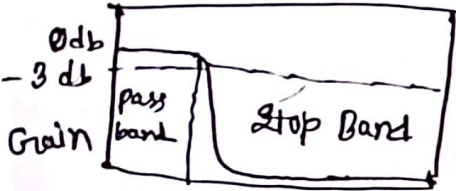
Input Signal

Low pass
Filter

HIGH pass
Filter

Band pass
Filter

Band Reject
Filter



Frequency

Low pass Filter:

- Allow low-frequency without any Attenuation.
- Reject High-frequency signals.
- Have reactive component, varies with input frequency.
- Either the voltage gets decreased or increased for these components.
- Frequency $<$ cutoff frequency [passed]
- Frequency $>$ cutoff frequency [blocked]

High pass Filter:-

→ High frequency pass, without attenuation

→ Frequency $<$ cutoff frequency [blocked]

→ Frequency $>$ cutoff frequency [passed]

Band pass Filter:-

⇒ Allow a specific band of frequencies

⇒ Blocks any other frequencies, higher or lower than passband

⇒ Have two cutoff frequencies

→ lower
→ upper

⇒ Known pass band frequencies [passed]

⇒ Combined of low & High pass filter together will provide a bandpass filter.

→ Both low & High frequency [Blocked]

Band Reject Filter:-

⇒ Allows both low & High frequency

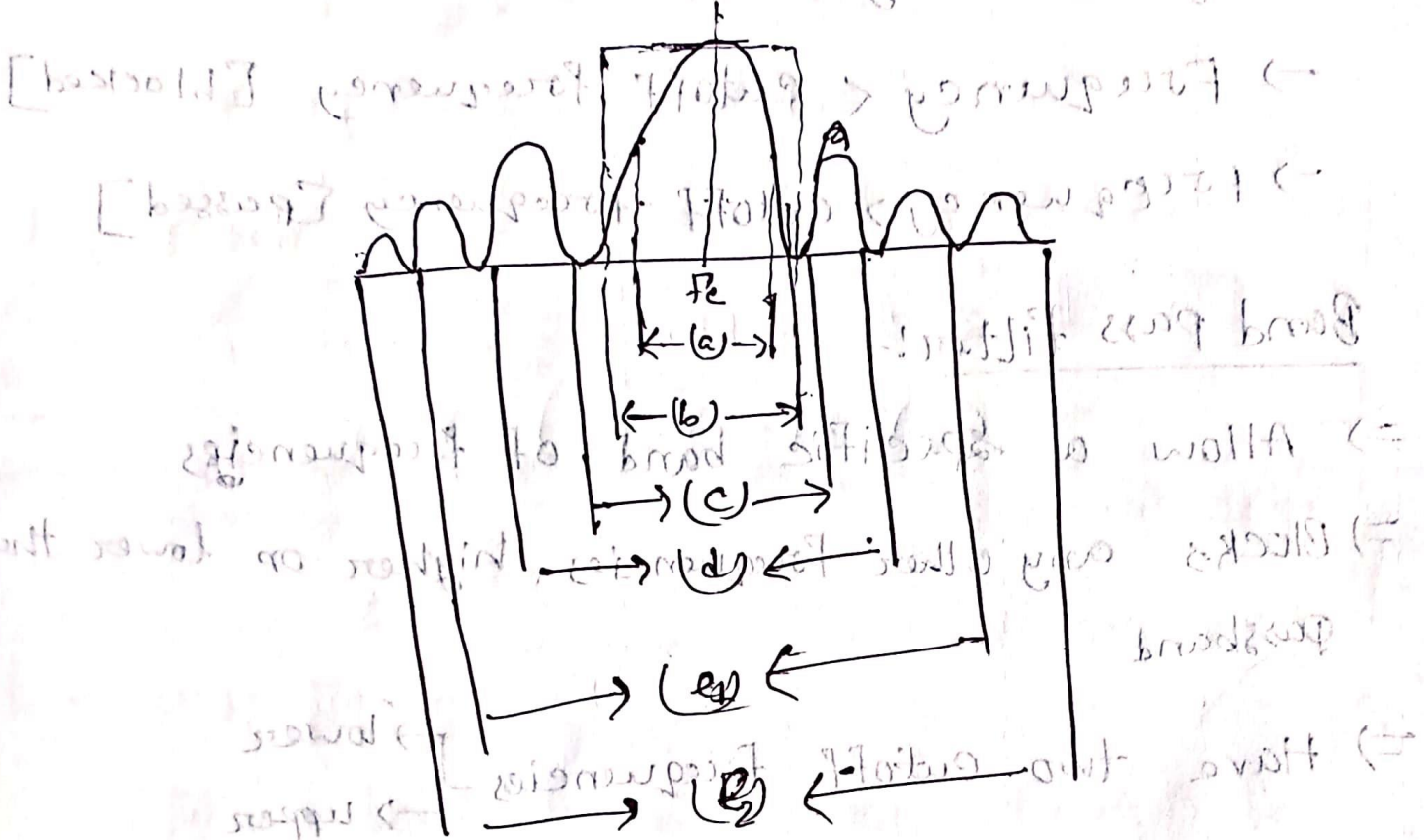
⇒ Reject fined band frequency

→ Have lower & higher cutoff frequencies.

→ Any signal in between lower & higher will be rejected.

The Bandwidth Dilemma

High pass filter pass without attenuation



Free passband & flat passband
 Filter passband
 Allow a certain band of frequencies
 Blocks any other frequencies or lower than
 Passband
 Have two cutoff frequencies

Fig: BDF

- (a) → Half power
- (b) → noise equivalent
- (c) → Null to Null
- (d) → 99% power
- (e₁) → Bounded PSD 35dB
- (e₂) → Bounded PSD 50dB

Sampling

⇒ Sampling: The process of measuring the instantaneous values of Continuous-time signal in a discrete form.

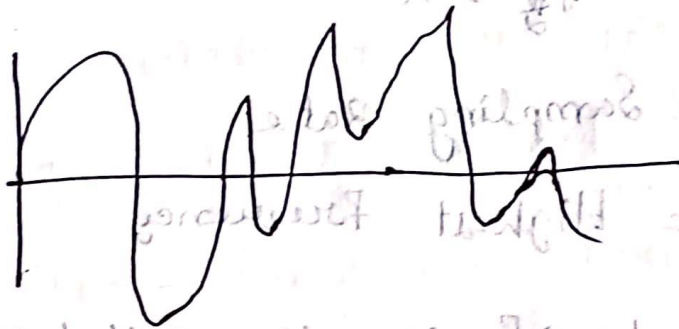
→ A piece of data taken from whole data.

→ Source generated → Digitalized having 1s & 0s.

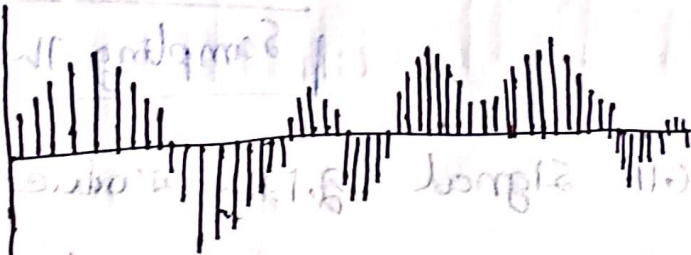
→ IF low → 0

High → 1

Continuous:-



Digitalized:-



Sampling Rate:-

$$\text{Sampling Frequency} = \frac{1}{T_s} = F_s$$

⇒ Sampling Frequency can be called as Sampling Rate.

⇒ Sampling Rate denotes the number of samples taken per second.

⇒ The sampling should be like the data in the message signal should neither be lost nor it should get over-sampled

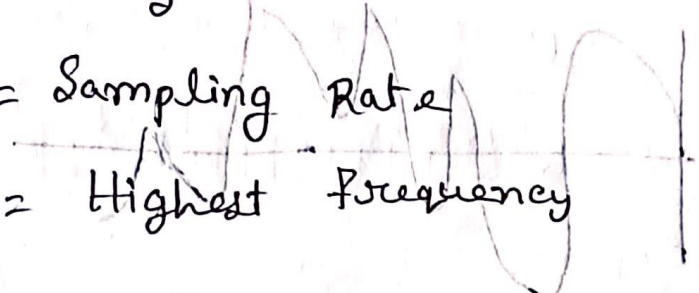
Nyquist Rate:

The sampling rate should be twice the highest frequency.

$$f_s = 2w$$

f_s = Sampling Rate

w = Highest Frequency



→ The rate of sampling called as Nyquist rate

→

Sampling Theorem

⇒ কোনো signal প্রদান করে তবে

যদি f_s signal এর sampling rate f_s হয়

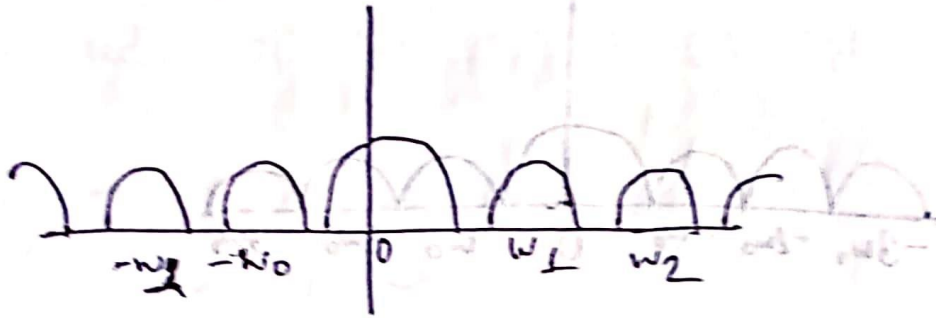
f_s হলে সর্বোচ্চ frequency w এর নিচে

⇒ Band limited signal non-zero between

$-w$ & w Hertz

$$x(f) = 0 \text{ for } |f| > w$$

\Rightarrow If a signal is sampled above Nyquist rate then a signal can be recovered.
 \Rightarrow If it is lower can't be recovered.



\Rightarrow If we do Fourier transform of the signal $x_s(t)$ here, the information is reproduced without any loss. There is no aliasing up & hence recovery is possible.

$$X_s(\omega) = \frac{1}{T_0} \sum X(\omega - n\omega_0)$$

$T_0 =$ Sampling period

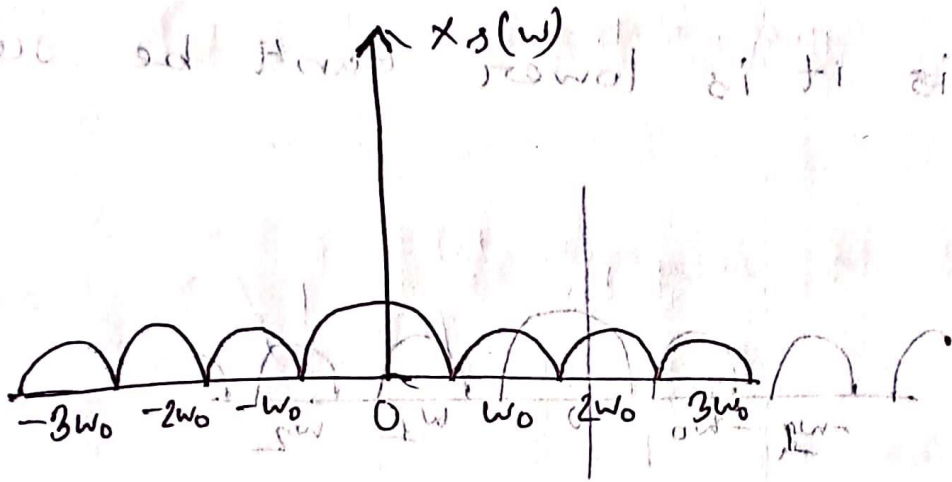
$$\omega_0 = \frac{2\pi}{T_0}$$



When we do the sampling with frequency

$2w_0$

without any loss

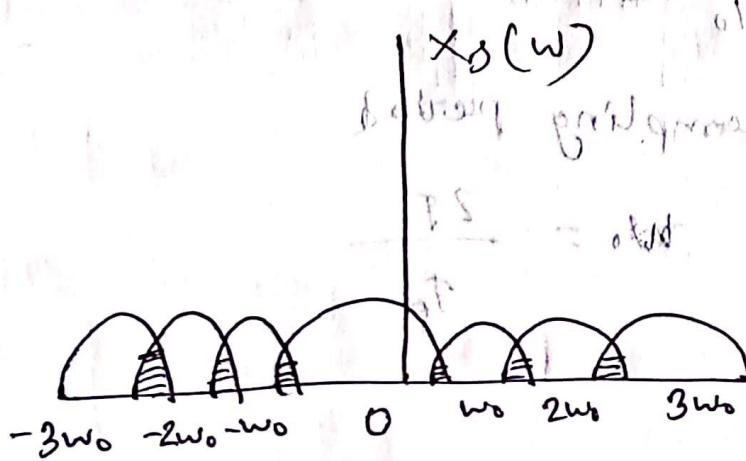


F_s = Sampling frequency

$w =$ Highest Frequency

\Rightarrow As it is seen the frequency is replaced without any loss.

But if $F_s < 2w$

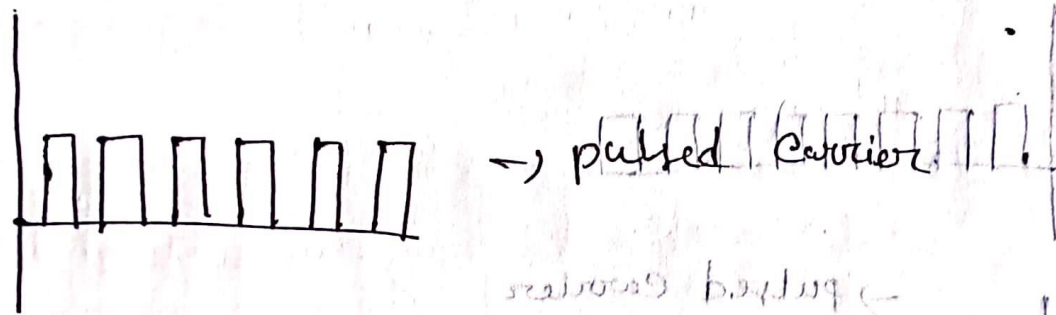
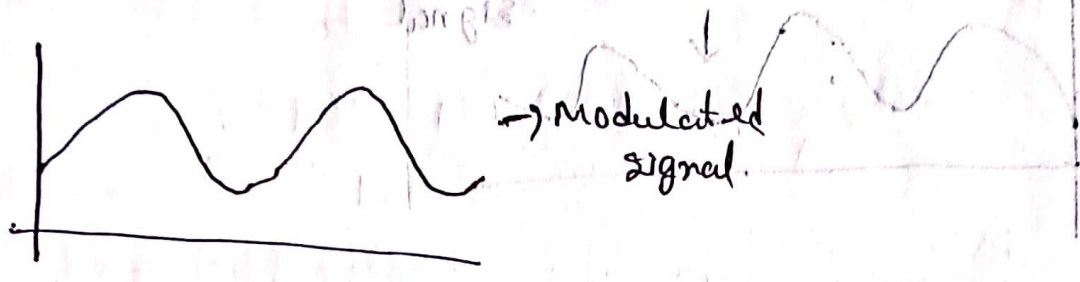


Pulse Modulation

PAM, PWM, PPM

PAM:- Pulse Amplitude Modulation.

⇒ Carrier signal gets changed according to the amplitude of the message signal.



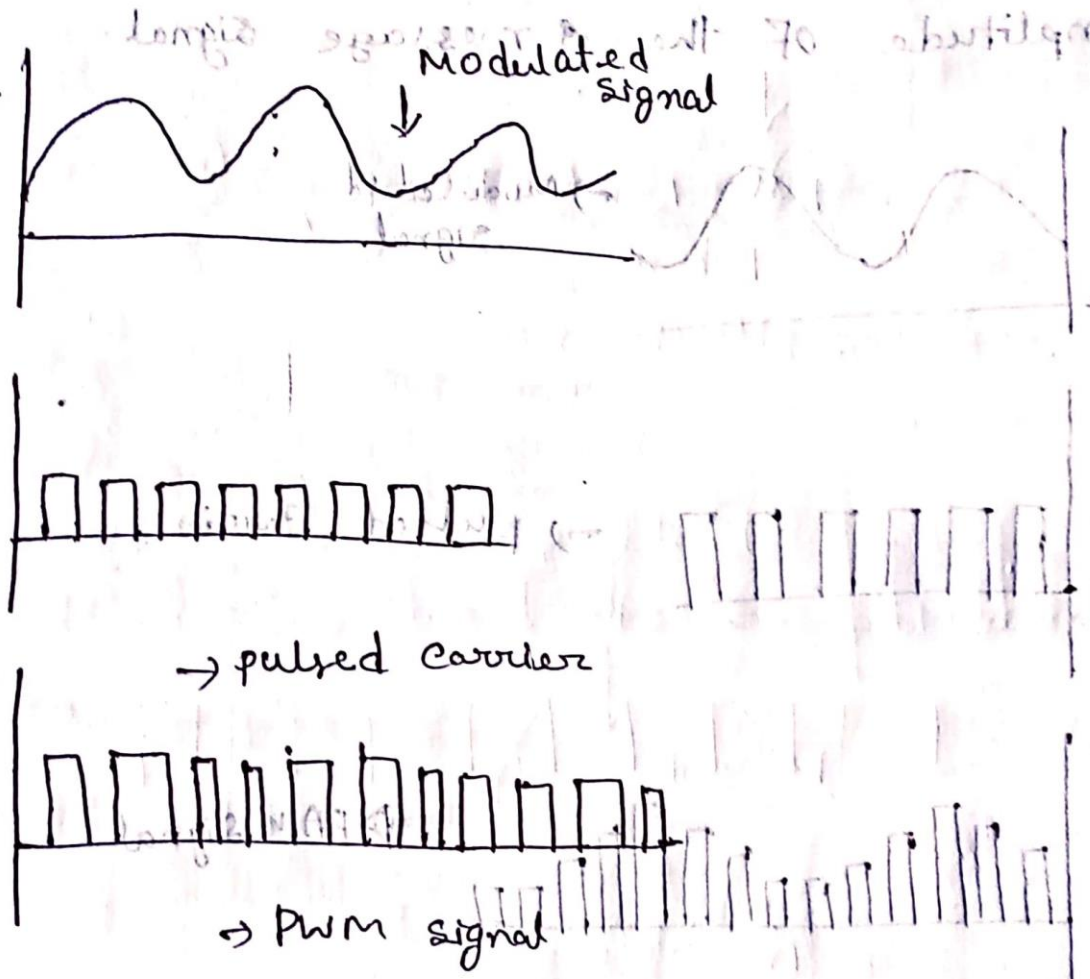
⇒ pulse ^{carrier} vary \propto modulated signal.

→ It pulse train rather than continuous wave signal.

PWM:- (pulse width Modulation)

=> we change the width of the pulse here

according to the pulse width Modulation
Signal.



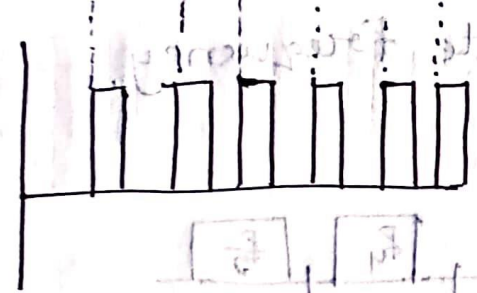
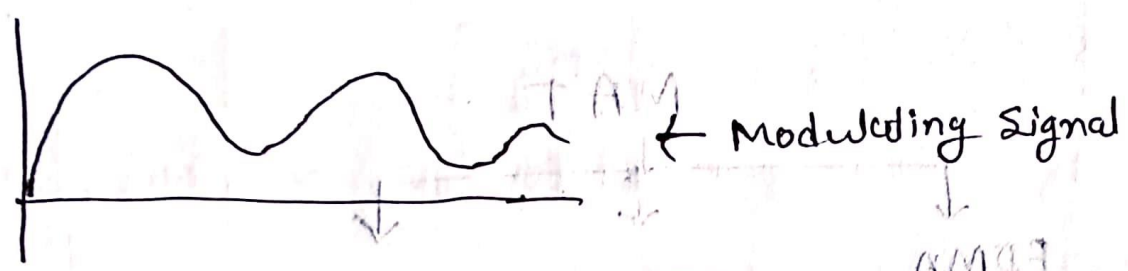
=> Amplitude Constant

=> Width varying

=> By the variation in the width, the frequency of the pulses in the PWM shows variation.

PPM:- (pulse position Modulation)

→ Technique where position of the pulses is changed ^{by} ~~with~~ modulating signal

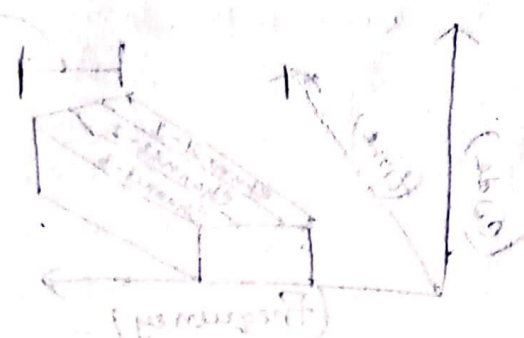


LOWERS TO

→ no timing problem, receiver high performance

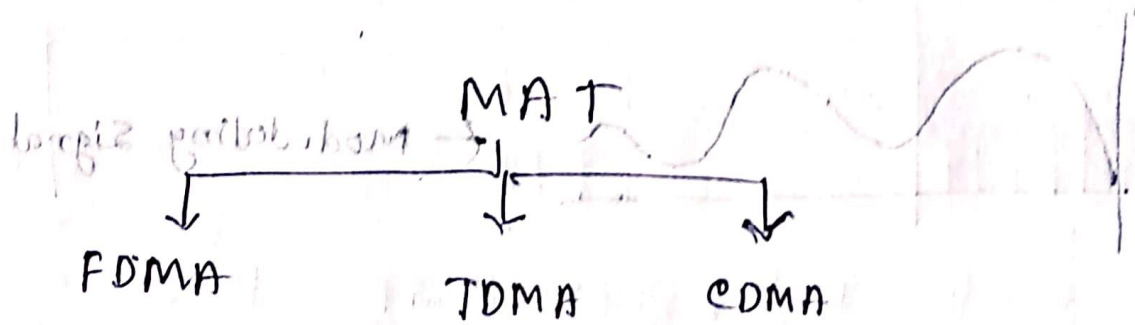
→ If not use → the channel is left idle

→ Overall channel bandwidth



Multiple Access Technique

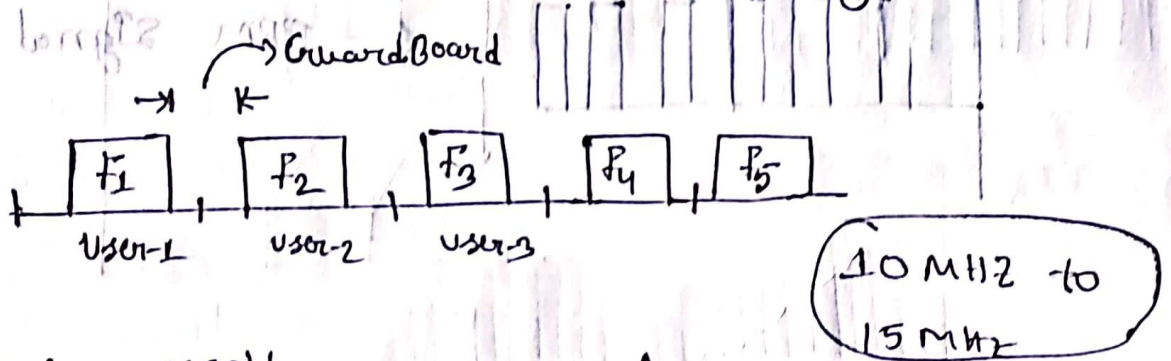
- ⇒ Techniques that
- ⇒ Allows many users to share simultaneously a finite number radio spectrum.



FDMA :- Frequency Division Multiple Access.

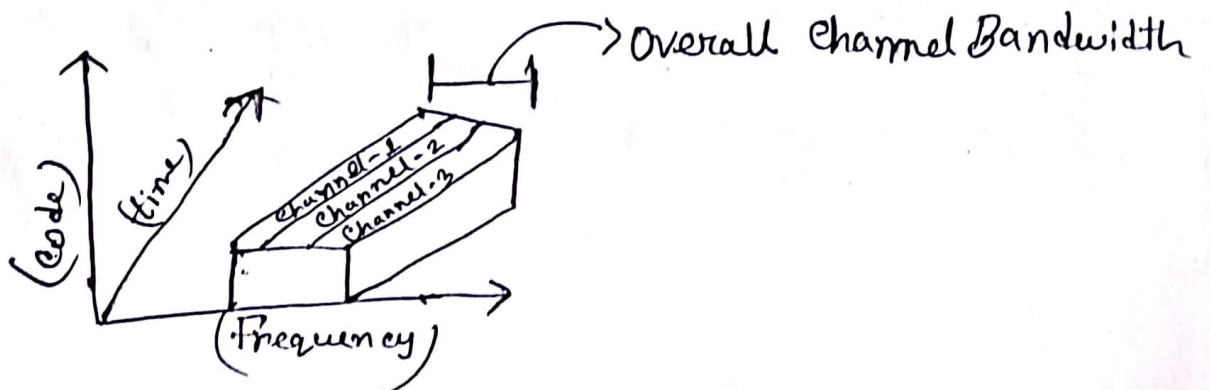
→ One user → one channel

→ Each user on a separate frequency.



⇒ NO timing problem, requires high performing filters.

⇒ IF not use → The channel is left idle.



⇒ Requires RF Filtering to minimize adjacent channel interference

⇒ Efficient only for small number of stations.

parameter of time slot and frequency slot

TDMA

⇒ Time Division Multiple Access

⇒ Used by a user for a fixed amount of time.

⇒ Systems digital in nature

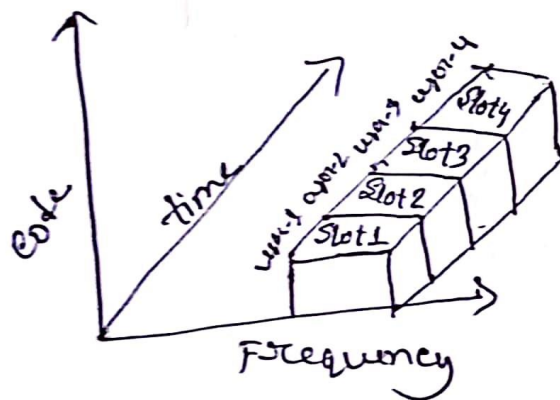
⇒ There must be synchronization so clock is used

⇒ Tx & Rx must have to aware of this clock

⇒ Single carrier frequency with multiple users

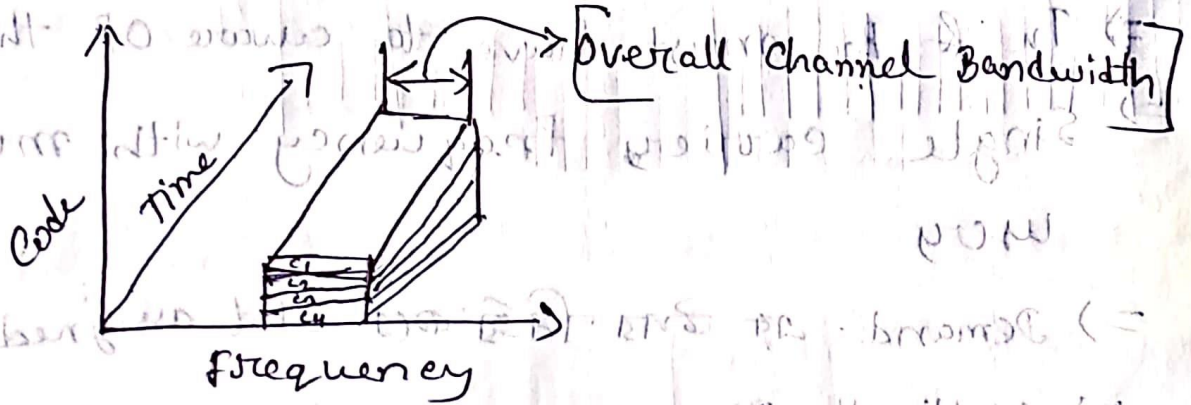
⇒ Demand of user is slot assigned.

⇒ Multipath, Distortions & each user has predetermined time slot.



CDMA

- => Code Division Multiple Access
- => NO restriction on time and Frequency.
- => Users are not separated by time & Frequency slot rather than by code.
- => Receives the signal \rightarrow Decode it \rightarrow Recovers the original data
- => The Coded data signal must be higher than the bandwidth of the original data signal.

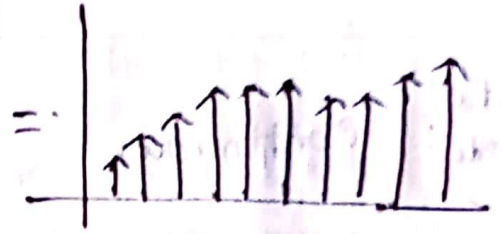
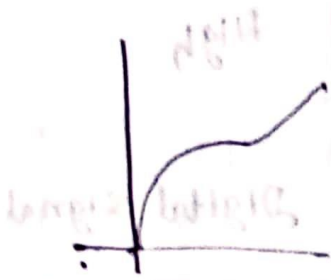


Comparison

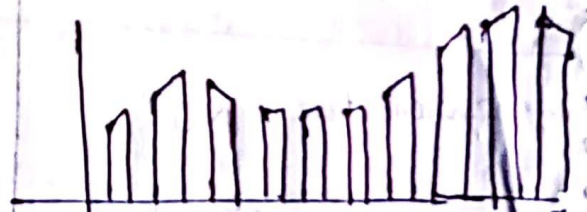
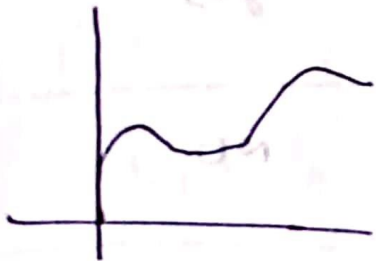
	FDMA	TDMA	CDMA
Data Rate :-	Low	medium	High
Data Mode :-	Continuous	Digital in burst	Digital signal
Cost :-	High	Low	Installation High operation Low
Code word :-	NO	NO	yes
Synchronization :-	NO	yes	NO
Technique :-	Sharing of overall bandwidth	Sharing of time	Sharing of time & frequency both

Sampling

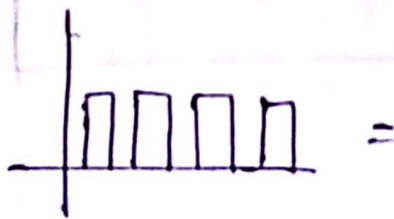
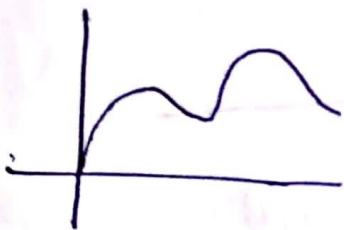
Ideal Sampling



Natural Sampling



Top Flat - Top





**KEEP
CALM
ITS TIME FOR THE
FINAL
EXAM**

DCOM

(Final) part - 02

DM Receiver / Delta Demodulator

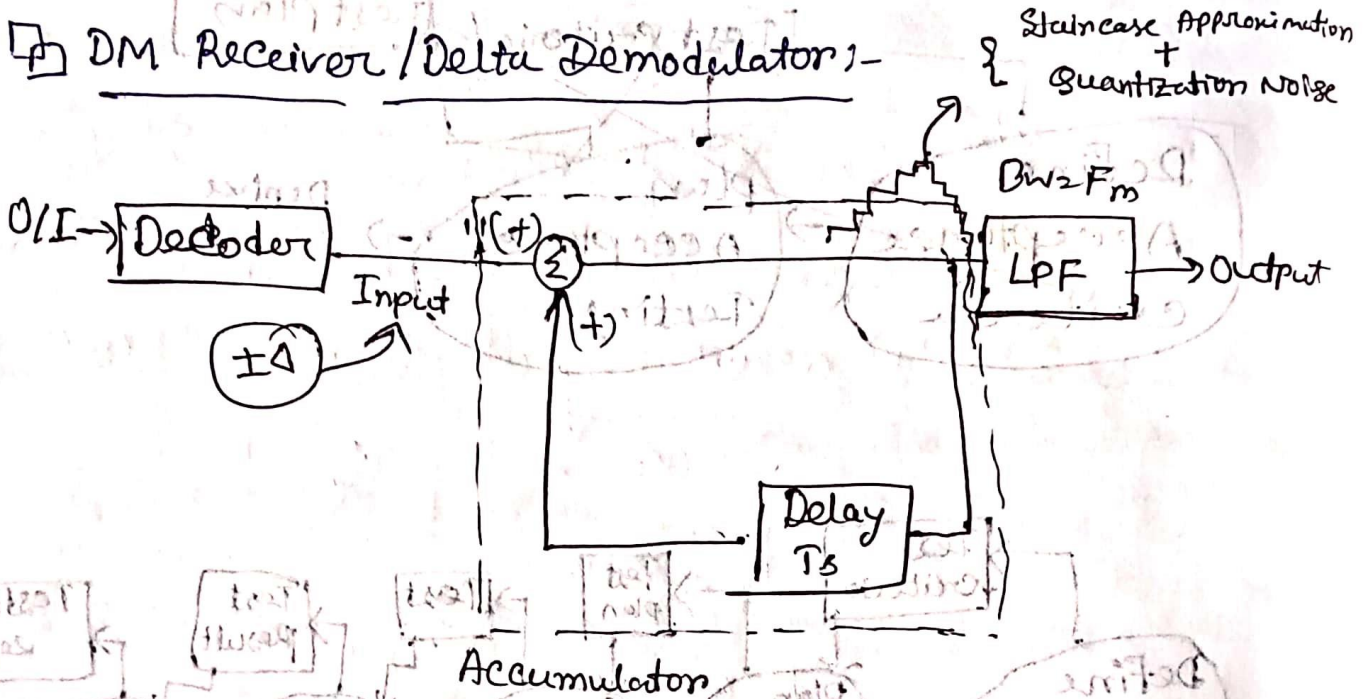


Fig: - DM receiver / Delta Demodulator

Advantage:

- (1) Low signaling rate
- (2) Low Bw
- (3) Less complicated to implemented than PCM.

Disadvantages:

- (1) Distortion (Slop overlap & Granular)

Quantization Noise in DM signal:-

→ Slope overload distortion

→ Granular Noise



Fig:- Quantization Noise

(i) Slope overload distortion:

If slope of $x(t)$ is much higher than $\hat{x}(t)$ over a long duration then $\hat{x}(t)$ can't follow $x(t)$.

Difference between $x(t)$ & $\hat{x}(t)$ is called slope overload error.

⊗ why slope of staircase $[\hat{x}(t)]$ is less?

⇒ Because step size is small. So to reduce error, increase step size or increase frequency.

$$\text{Slope} = \frac{\Delta}{T_s} = \Delta \cdot F_s$$

Granular Noise

When input signal $x(t)$ is relatively constant in amplitude but $\hat{x}(t)$ is bouncing up-down then the difference between $x(t)$ & $\hat{x}(t)$ is called granular noise.

(+) In order to reduce the noise the step size should be increased.

Problem & its solve:-

→ If step size is increased the granular noise will be increased too.

→ If step size is decreased then the slope overload distortion will be increased.

And in Delta Modulation step size is not a variable.

→ So a system is adapted if it is called

Adaptive Delta Modulation (ADM).

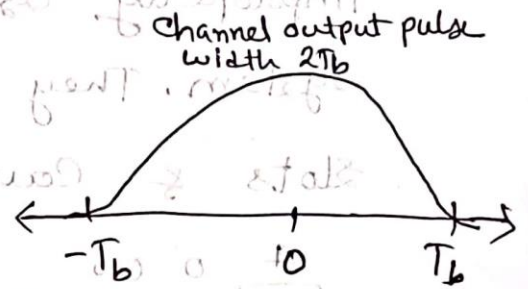
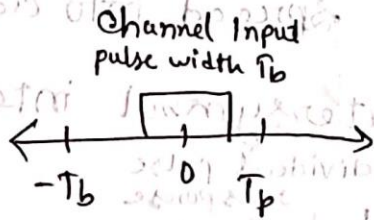
$$\sigma \cdot \Delta = \frac{\Delta}{\Delta T} = \text{slope}$$

Intersymbol Interference (ISI)

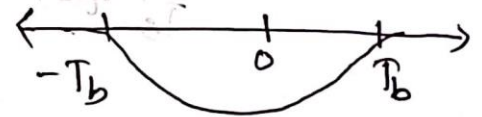
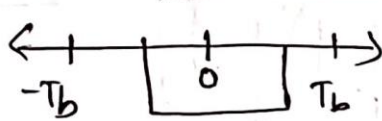
ISI occurs when a pulse spreads out in such a way that it interferes with adjacent pulses at the sample instant.

Example: - $1T_b$ input $2T_b$ output $2T_b$

Data-1:

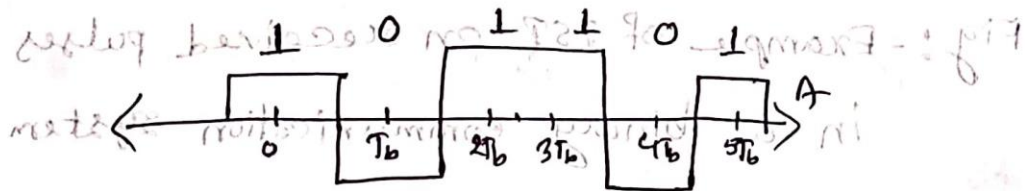


Data-0:



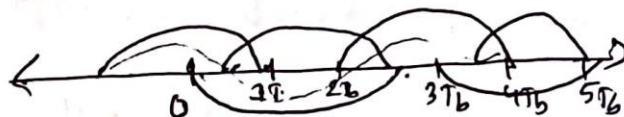
For the input data stream:

1 0 1 1 0 1

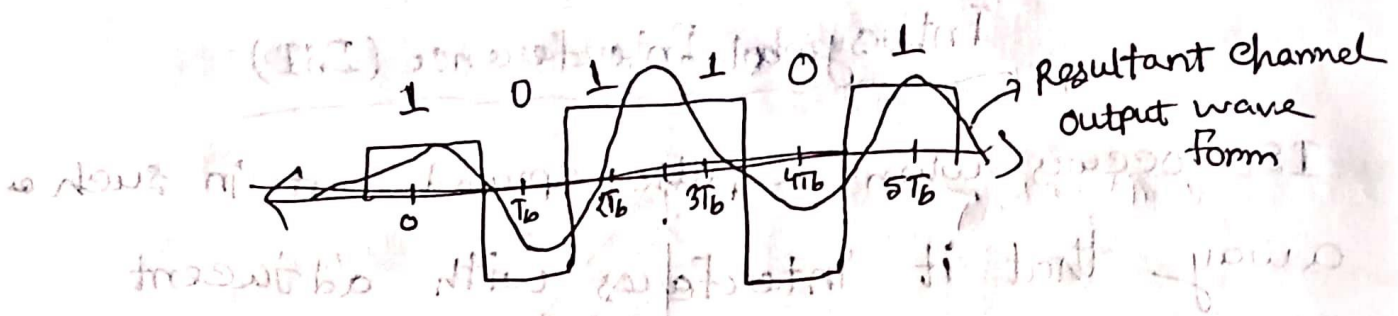


(0 1 1 0 1) Digital Pulse

Output is the superposition of each bit:-



$2T_b$ $2T_b$ duration



For example
 If the rectangular multilevel pulses are filled improperly as they pass through a communication system. They will spread into adjacent time slots & cause intersymbol interference.

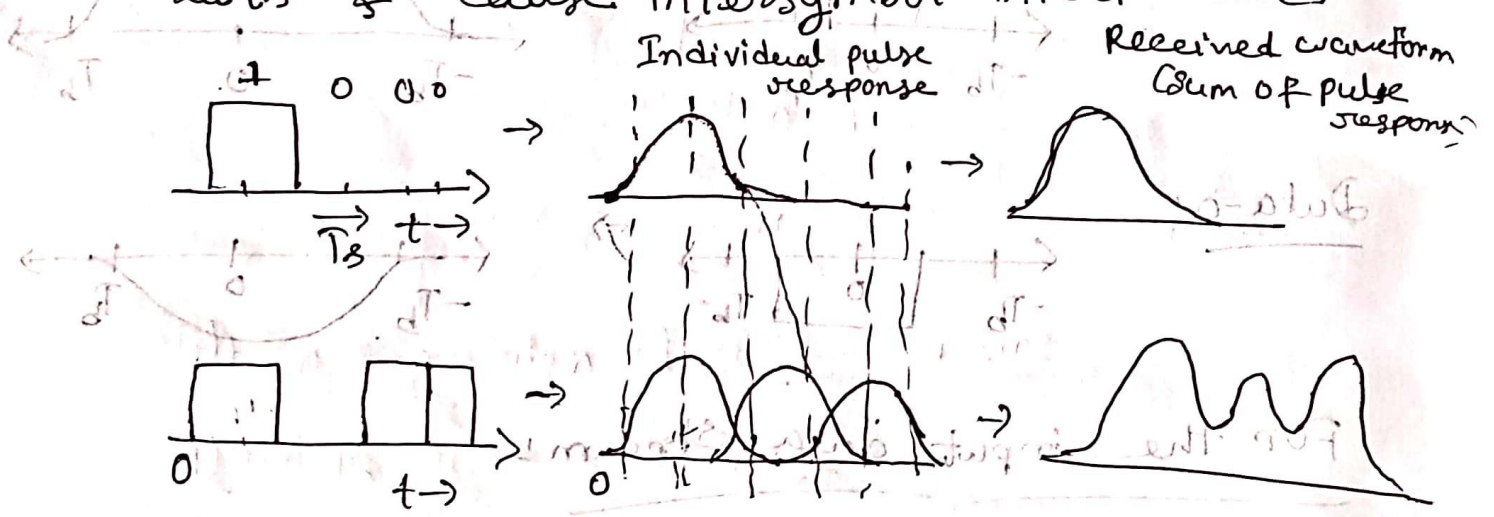
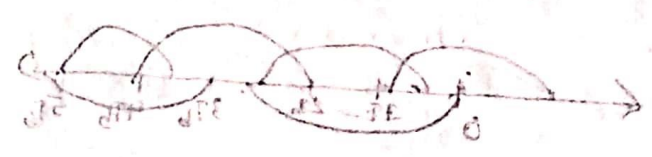


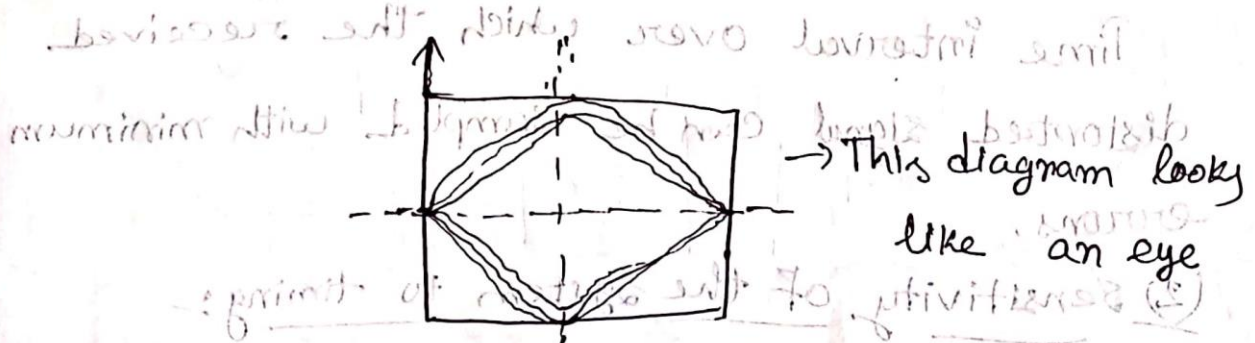
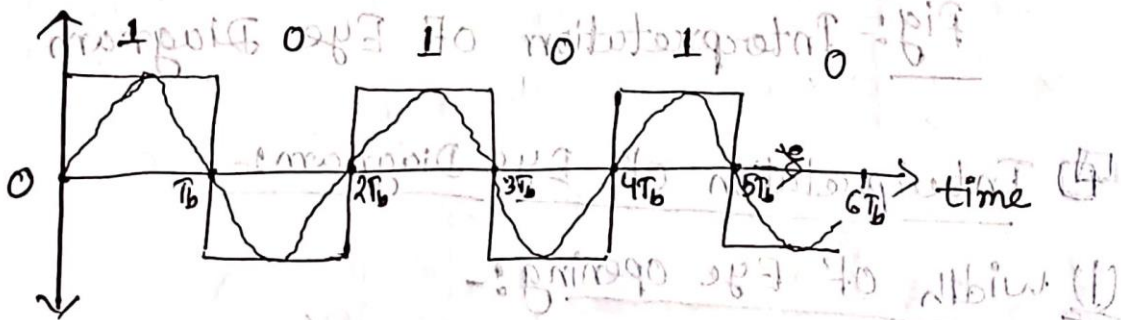
Fig: - Example of ISI on received pulses in a binary communication system



Eye Diagram

- Summarises the effect of ISI by showing the responses of 0's & 1's.
- Eye Diagram is generated by overlaying the plots of the received signal for every symbol time.
- Looks like eye. So it is eye diagram.

How to get Eye Diagram:-



⊗ Eye opening shows ISI.

⊗ Higher the ~~ISI~~ opening, lower the ISI.

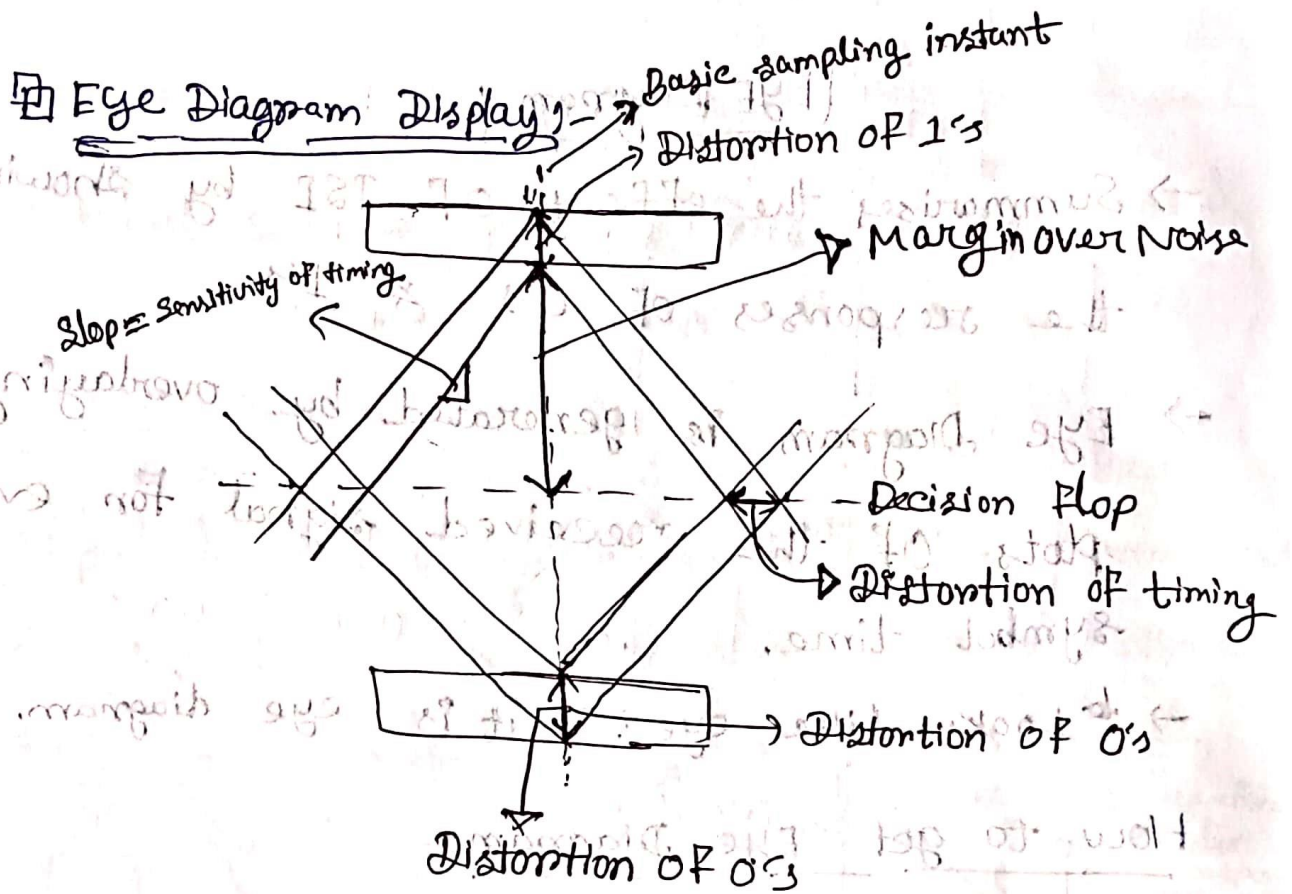


Fig:- Interpretation of Eye Diagram

Interpretation of Eye Diagrams

(1) Width of Eye opening:-

Time interval over which the received distorted signal can be sampled with minimum errors.

(2) Sensitivity of the system to timing:-

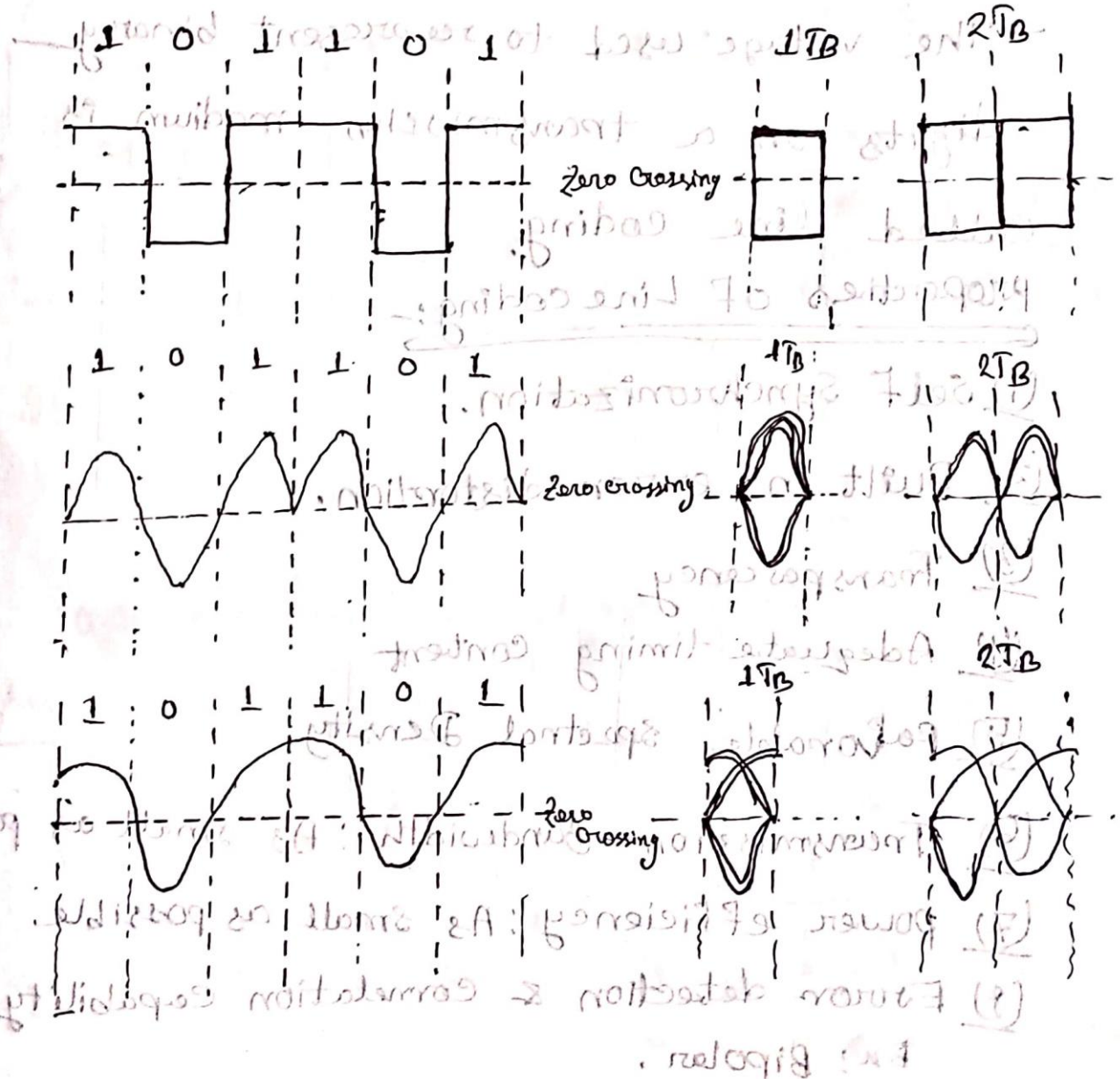
Rate of closure of eye pattern when the sampling time is varied.

3) Margin over noise:

Height of eye opening for specified sampling time.

Draw the eye pattern Form:- ("Draw the eye pattern for the given ----")

(a) 101101



Line coding

Q) What is Line coding? Write the properties of line coding?

=> Special coding system choose to allow transmission to take place in a communication system.

→ The voltage used to represent binary

digits on a transmission medium is called line coding.

Properties of Line coding:-

(1) Self synchronization.

(2) Built in error distortion.

(3) Transparency

(4) Adequate timing content

(5) Reasonable spectral density

(6) Transmission Bandwidth: As small as possible.

(7) power efficiency: As small as possible

(8) Error detection & correlation capability

Ex: Bipolar.

RZ: - Return to Zero (1 TB period, where 0 is returned)

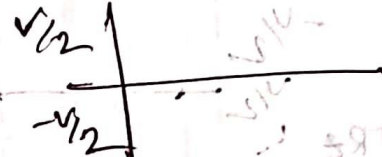


NRZ: Full TB period এর জন্য 1 থাকবে, তাই Half TB 1 Half TB 0 (RZ) প্রকাশ থাকবে না। মা RZ এ থাকে।

1 0 1 0



Unipolar, polar

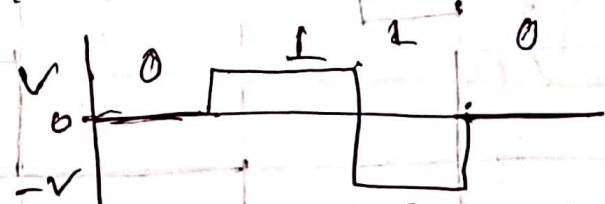


polar → $+V/2$ & $-V/2$ ⇒ অর্থাৎ, 0 এর জন্য পোলারিটি থাকবে ($-V/2$)

Unipolar → V & 0

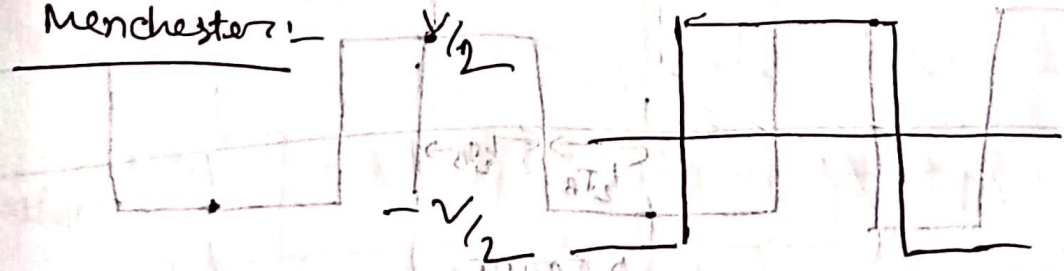


Bipolar → $+V$, 0 , $-V$



(0 এর জন্য NO sequence, 1 এর জন্য sequence)

Manchester:



যদি 0 থাকে তবে $-V/2$ to $+V/2$ তে যাবে
 1 " " $+V/2$ to $-V/2$ তে যাবে $1/2$ TB period

Unipolar, polar, Bipolar, Manchester

(RZ & NRZ)

1 1 0 1 0

Unipolar RZ

Unipolar NRZ

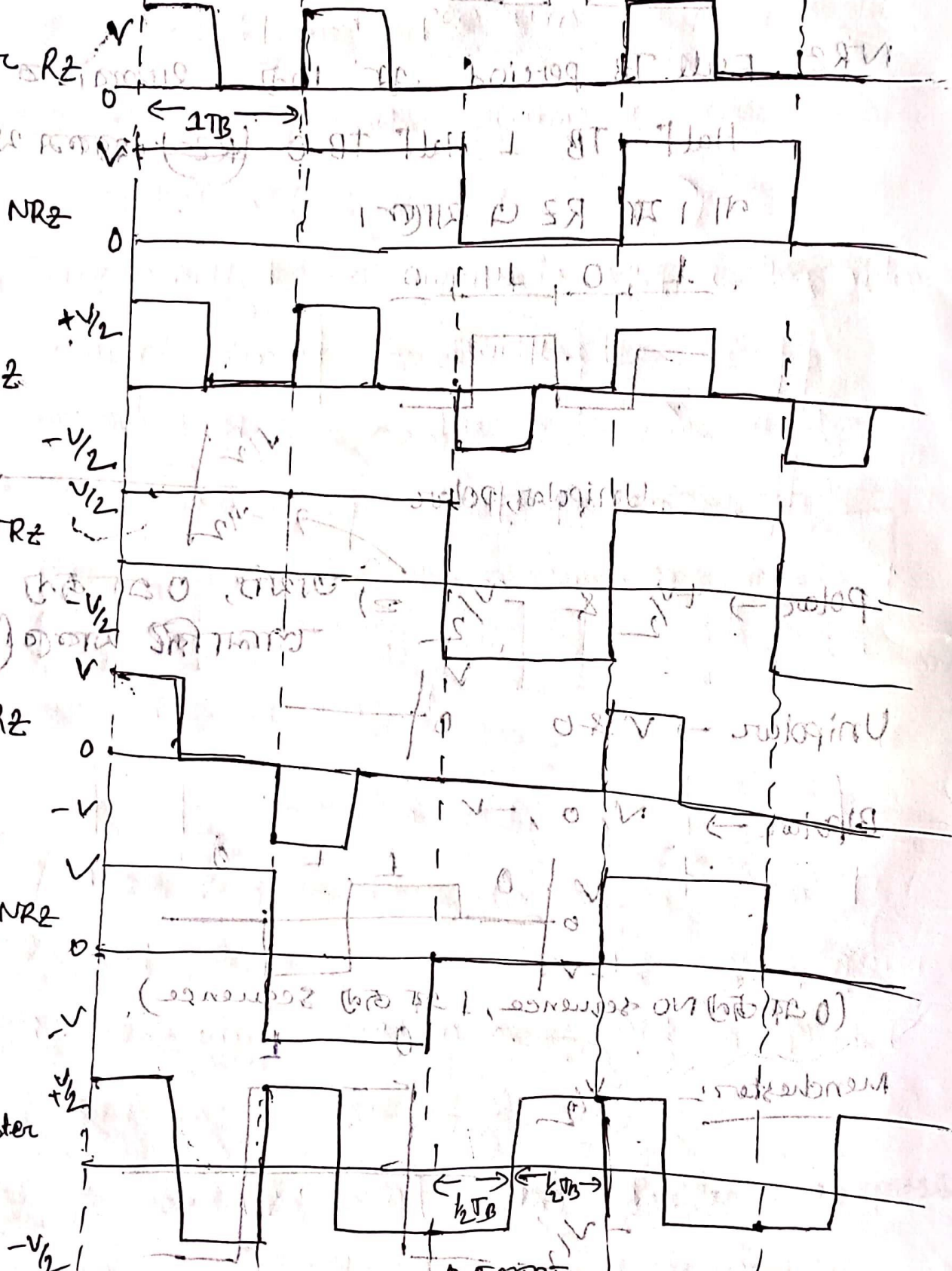
Polar RZ

Polar NRZ

Bipolar RZ

Bipolar NRZ

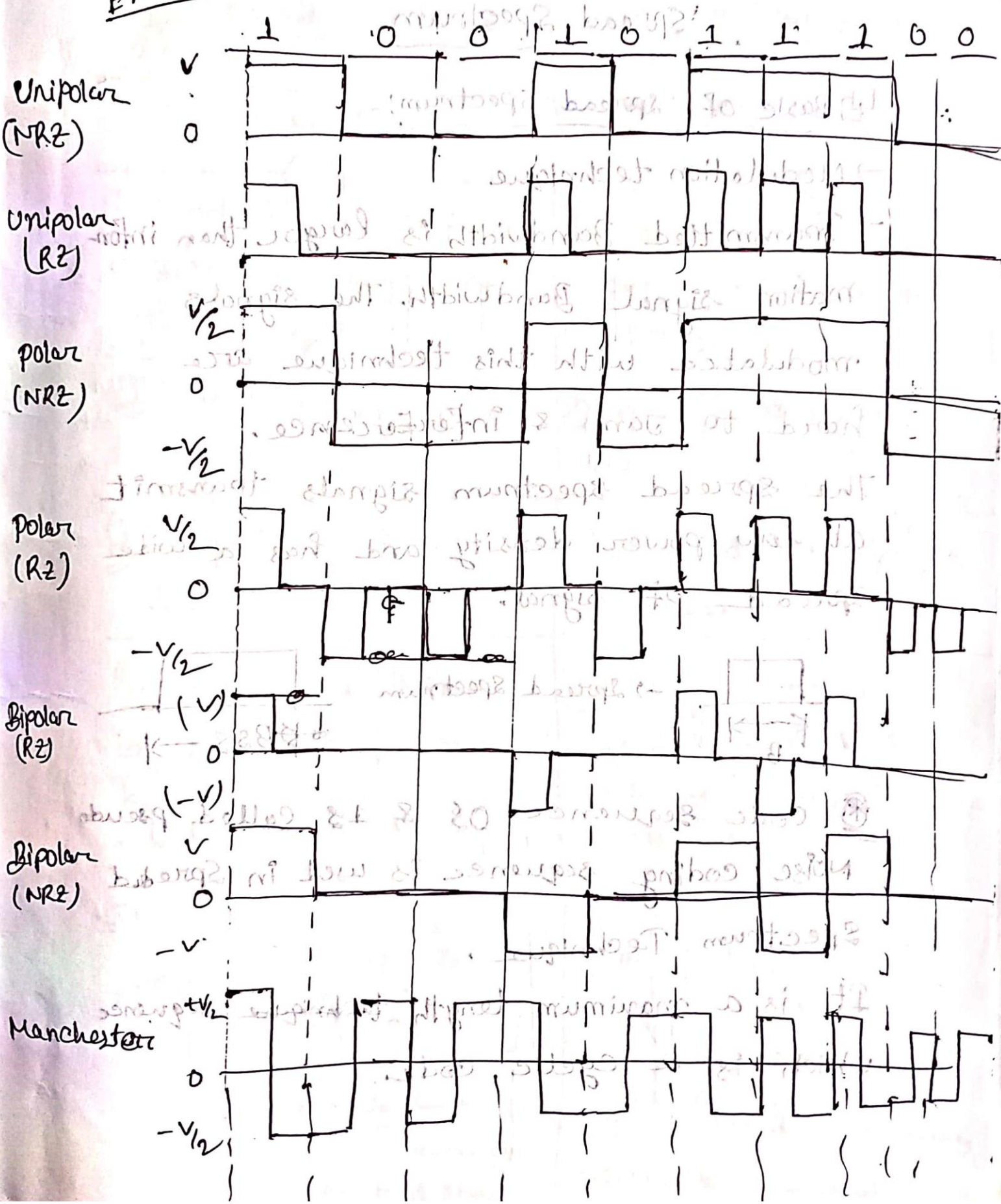
Manchester



1 2 3 4 5
 $+V/2$ to $-V/2$
 $1/2 TB$ period

0 2 3 4 5
 $-V/2$ to $+V/2$
 $1/2 TB$ period

Ex-02 Binary Data



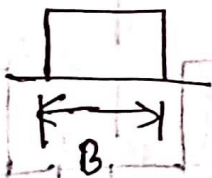
Spread Spectrum

Basic of spread spectrum

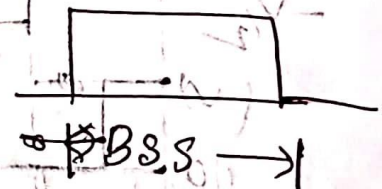
→ Modulation technique

→ Transmitted Bandwidth is larger than information signal Bandwidth. The signals modulated with this technique are hard to Jam & interference.

The spread spectrum signals transmit at low power density and has a wide spread of signal.



→ Spread Spectrum



⊗ Code sequence of 0's & 1's called pseudo noise coding sequence is used in Spread Spectrum Technique.

It is a maximum length technique sequence which is a cyclic code.

Narrow Band vs Spread-Spectrum Signals:-

Narrow Band

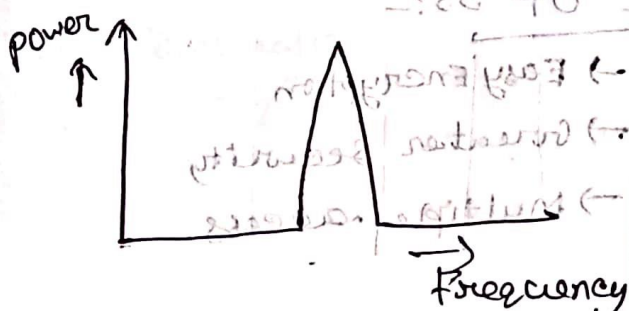
① Band of signals occupy a narrow range of frequencies.

② power density is high.

③ Spread of energy is low.

④ Though the signal is good but it can be jammed.

⑤



→ Narrow band signal

Spread-Spectrum Signals

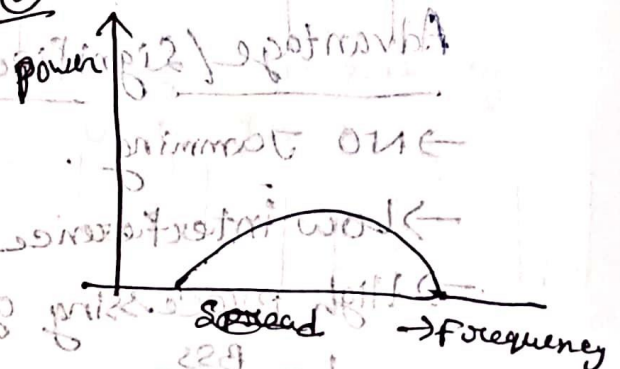
① Band of signals occupy a wide range of frequencies

② power density is low.

③ Spread of energy is wide.

④ The spectrum signals are highly resistant to interference or jamming.

⑤



→ Spread spectrum signal

Block Diagram of Spread Spectrum:-

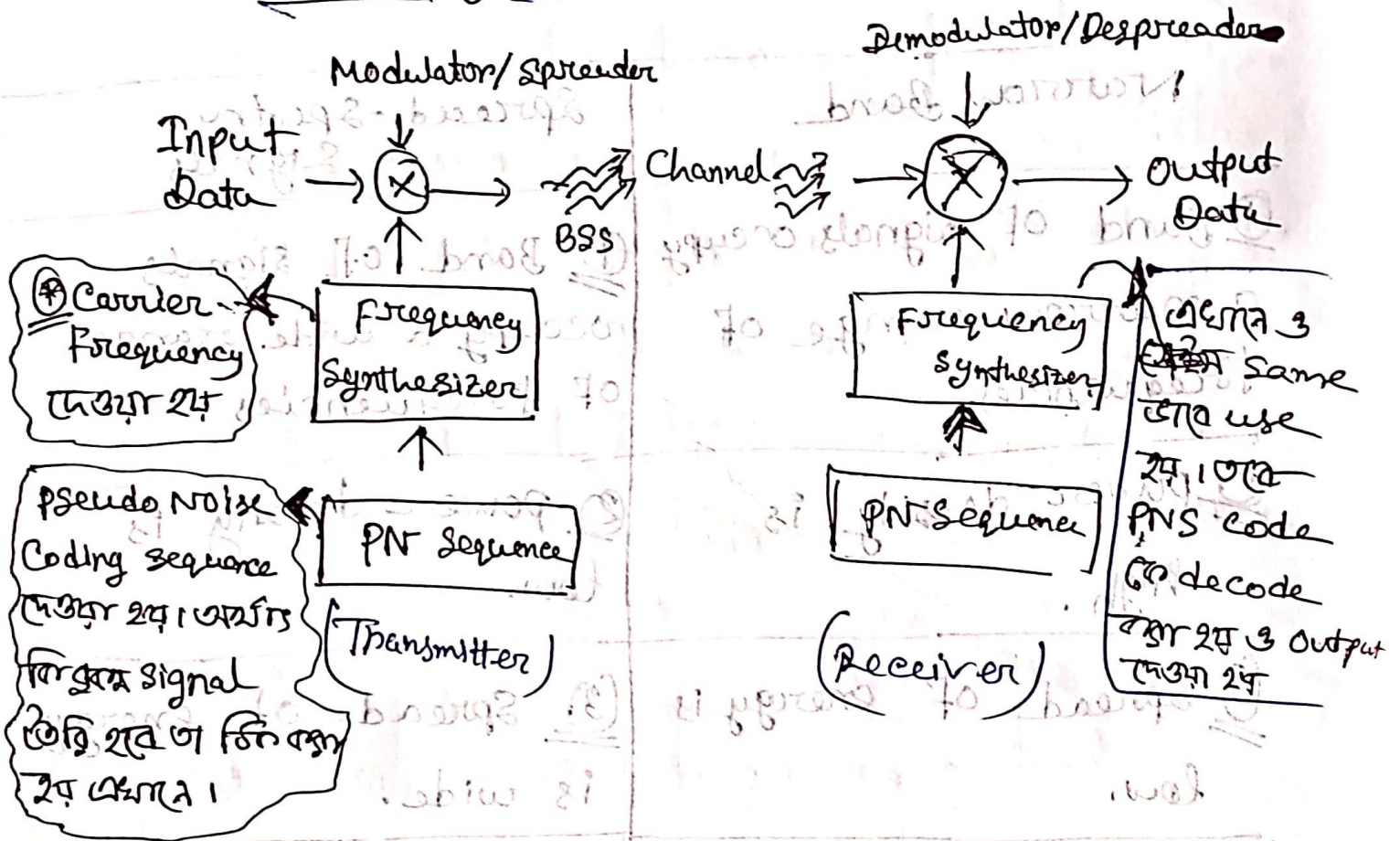


Fig 1- Spread Spectrum

⇒ Double PNS Unauthorize

On third party interruption

works for security purpose

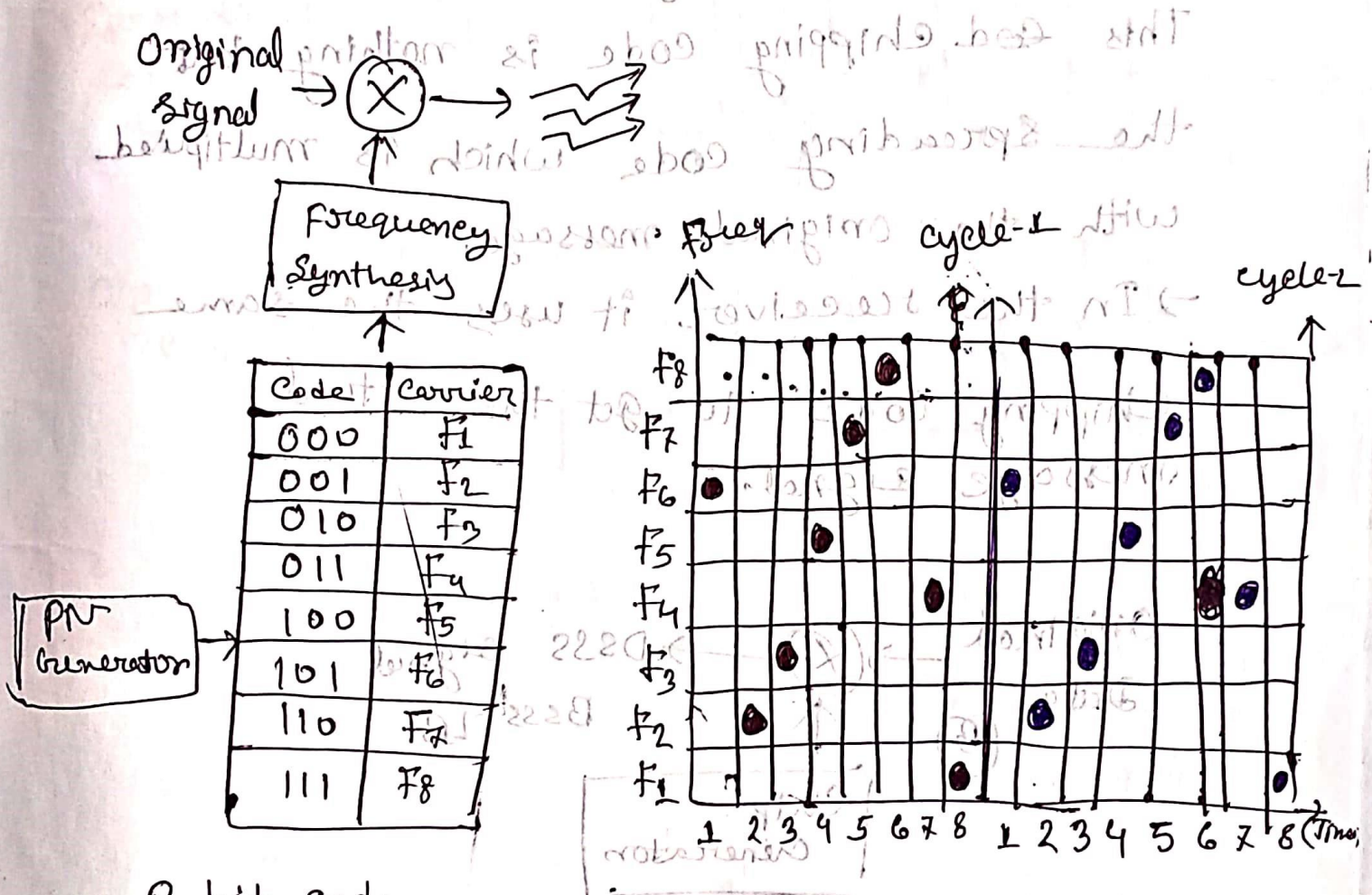
Advantage/Significance of SS:-

- | | |
|------------------------|--------------------|
| → NO Jamming | → Easy Encryption |
| → Low interference | → Greater security |
| → High processing gain | → Multiple access |

$$L = \frac{BSS}{B}$$

Frequency Hopping Spread Spectrum (FHSS):-

→ Mode to change frequency than one to another in a specified time interval, which called frequency hopping.



3 bit code
Total combination
= $2^3 = 8$

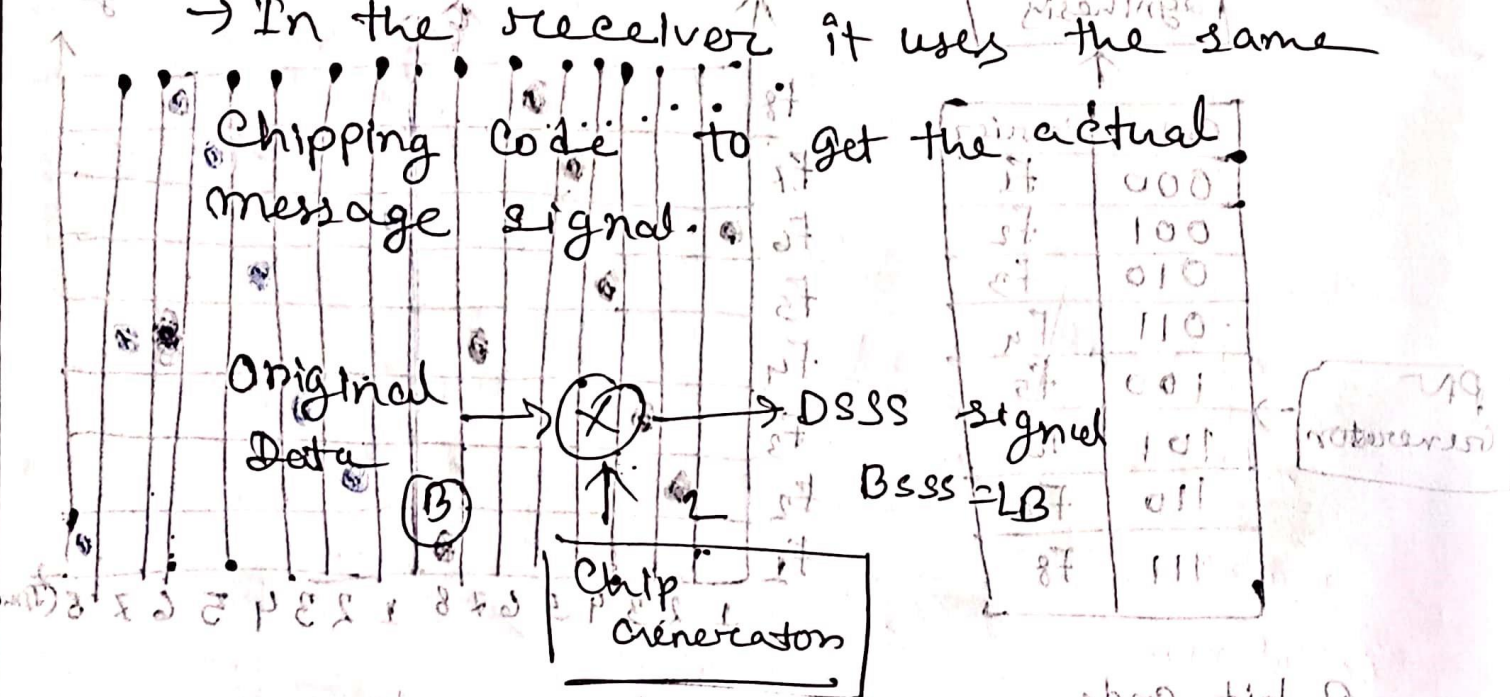
→ Changing frequency with time

(A) Direct Sequence Spread Spectrum (DSSS):-

→ Using DSSS when someone sends data, each & every bit of the user data is multiplied by a secret code called as chipping code.

This ~~cod~~ chipping code is nothing but the spreading code which is multiplied with the original message.

→ In the receiver it uses the same Chipping Code to get the actual message signal.

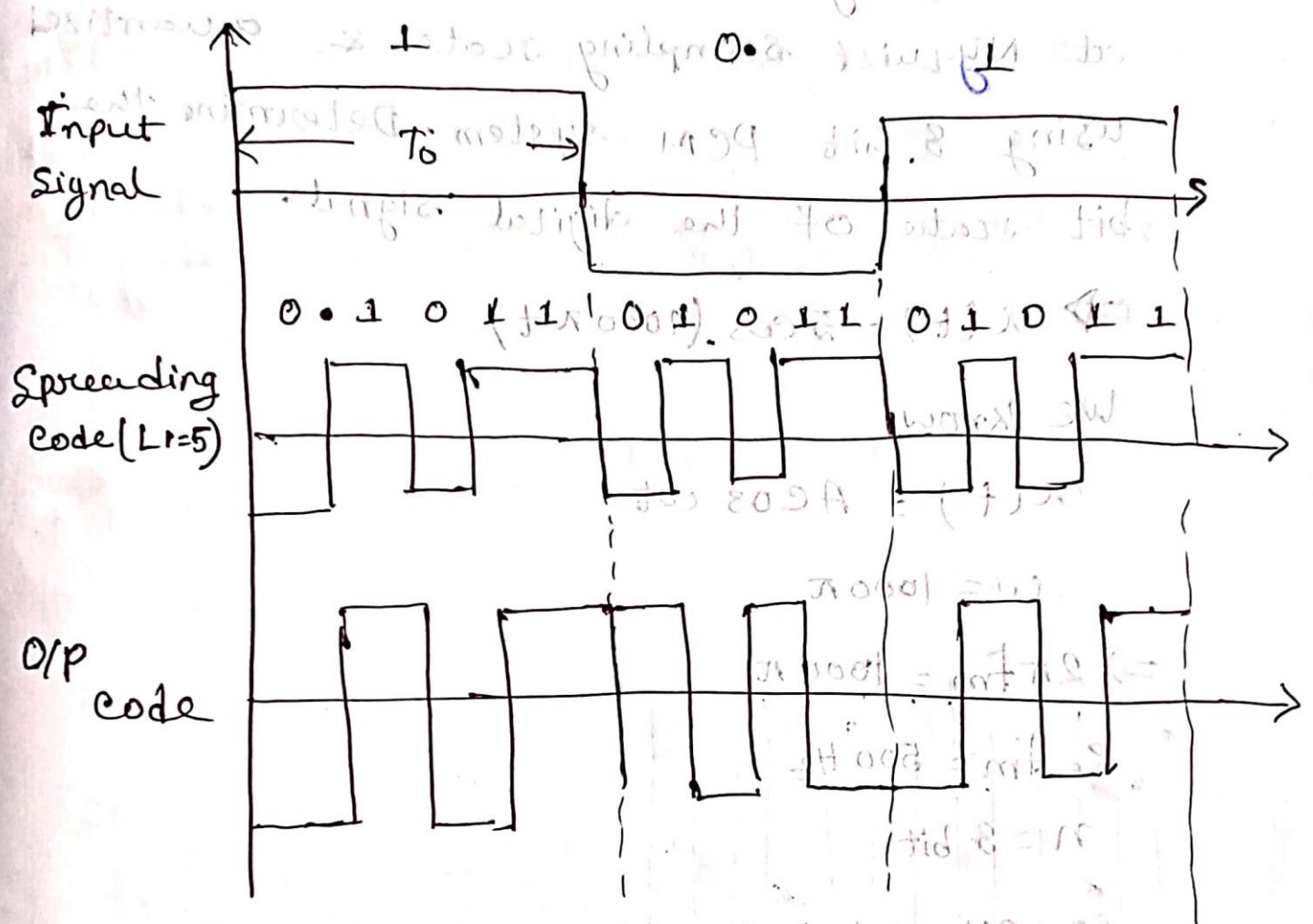


→ Spreading time with

3 bit code
total spreading time
 $B_{dss} =$

(1/1/14)

Waveform of DSSS: Spreading code = 01011



$T_0 = \text{Bit Time period}$
 $T_c = \text{Chip Time period}$
 $T_c = T_0 \times L$
 $T_c = T_0 \times 5$
 $T_c = 5 T_0$

Math

$\omega = 2\pi f_m$

Ex-01: A signal $x(t) = 5 \cos(1000\pi t)$ is sampled at Nyquist sampling rate & quantized using 8 bit PCM system. Determine the bit rate of the digital signal.

$\Rightarrow x(t) = 5 \cos(1000\pi t)$

We know,
 $x(t) = A \cos \omega t$

$\omega = 1000\pi$
 $\Rightarrow 2\pi f_m = 1000\pi$
 $\therefore f_m = 500 \text{ Hz}$

$n = 8 \text{ bit}$

So, Bit rate/ signalling rate, $R_b = n F_s$

$= n \times 2 f_m$
 $= 8 \times 2 \times 500$
 $= 8000 \text{ bits/s}$

(Ans)

2) A PCM-TDM system multiplexes 10 band limited

voice channel (300 (3400) Hz) & uses a 256 level quantizers. If the signal is sampled at a rate

of $17 \frac{11}{17}$ % higher than the Nyquist rate

then what'll be the max energy bandwidth of the transmission channel?

⇒ $L = 256 = 2^8$
 $\therefore n = 8$

We know, $R_b = nF_s$

So,

$$F_s = 2f_m + \frac{17 \frac{11}{17}}{17} \% \text{ of } 2f_m$$

$$= (2 \times 3400) + 17 \frac{11}{17} \% (2 \times 3400)$$

~~$$= 6800 + 748$$~~

~~$$= 7548 \text{ Hz}$$~~

$$= 6800 + 17.65\% \times 6800$$

$$= 6800 + 0.1765 \times 6800$$

$$= 6800 + 1200$$

$$= 8000 = 8 \text{ kHz}$$

Maximum energy bandwidth of one channel = $8 \times 8 = 64 \text{ kbits/s}$

$$= 64 \times 10 \text{ kbits/s} \\ = 640 \text{ kbits/s}$$

03. What should be the minimum sampling frequency to successfully reconstruct the signal $x(t) = \sin(100\pi t) + \sin(200\pi t)$? IF 4096 levels are used to encode the sampled signal then what will be the bit rate of the system?

⇒ Here,

$$\sin \omega t = \sin 200\pi t$$

$$\omega = 200\pi$$

$$\therefore 2\pi f_m t = 200\pi t$$

$$\Rightarrow f_m = 100 \text{ Hz}$$

$$\text{Here, } L = 4096 = 2^{12}$$

$$\therefore n = 12$$

We know,

$$f_s = 2 \cdot f_m = 2 \times 100 = 200 \text{ Hz}$$

$$R_b = n f_s = 12 \times 200 = 2400 \text{ bits/s}$$

4) Three analog signals having bandwidths of 1200 Hz, 600 Hz & 600 Hz are sampled at their Nyquist rate, encoded with 12 bit words, and time division multiplexed. Find the bit rate for the multiplexed signal.

~~Bandwidth of multiplexed signal, $f_m = 1$ kHz~~

⇒ We know,

bit rate, $R_b = n f_s$ ($1200 + 600 + 600$) = m kHz

$n = 12$ bit words ($1200 + 600 + 600$) = m kHz = 2400 Hz

$f_s = 2 f_m =$ (2×2400) = 4800 Hz

Here, $f_m = (1200 + 600 + 600) \text{ Hz} = 2400 \text{ Hz}$

∴ $2 f_m = 2 \times 2400 = 4800 \text{ Hz}$

$R_b = n f_s = 12 \times 4800 = 57600 \text{ bit/s}$

5) Two analog signals of 200 kHz & 300 kHz

are sampled at their Nyquist rates

encoded using PCM & 512 level binary

code & multiplexed. Find the output bit

rate

$$\Rightarrow L = 512 = 2^9$$

$$\therefore n = 9$$

$$f_m = (200 + 300) = 500 \text{ kHz}$$

$$\therefore f_s = 2f_m = 1000 \text{ kHz}$$

$$R_b = n f_s$$

$$= 9 \times (200 + 300) = 9 \times 500 = 4500 \text{ kbit/s}$$

$$= 9000 \text{ bit/s}$$

$$= 9 \text{ Mbps}$$

$$= 9 \times 10^6 \text{ bit/s}$$

$$= 9 \times 10^6 \text{ bit/s}$$

$$= 9 \text{ Mbps}$$

Q In PCM, total number of quantization level is 256, highest frequency is 4 kHz and sampling frequency is 12.5% of Nyquist frequency. Find the bit rate.

⇒ We know,

$$R_b = nF_s$$

Here, $L = 256 = 2^8$

∴ $n = 8$

So,

Frequency, $F_m = 4 \text{ kHz}$

∴ $F_s = 2F_m + 12.5\%$ of $2F_m$

$$= 2 \times 4 + 12.5\% (2 \times 4)$$

$$= 8 + 1$$

$$= 9 \text{ kHz}$$

∴ $R_b = 8 \times 9 = 72 \text{ kbits/s}$

Ans

(7) An analog signal having a bandwidth of 8 kHz is converted to PCM signal using sampling

at a rate 50% above Nyquist rate.

The samples are quantized into 1024 levels. Determine the bit rate of the system.

⇒ We know,

$$\text{Bit rate, } R_b = n f_s$$

$$L = 1024 = 2^{10}$$

$$n = 10$$

$$\text{So, } f_m = 8 \text{ kHz}$$

We know,

$$f_s = 2f_m + 50\% \text{ of } 2f_m$$

$$= (2 \times 8) + 50\% (2 \times 8)$$

$$= 16 + 8$$

$$= 24 \text{ kHz}$$

$$\therefore R_b = n f_s = 10 \times 24 = 240 \text{ Kbit/s}$$

Ans

Q1. Two analog signals, having bandwidth 500 Hz & 200 Hz, are sampled at 20% higher than Nyquist rates. encoded with 8 bit words and time division multiplexed. Find the bit rate of the multiplexed signal.

⇒ We know,

$$\text{The bit rate, } R_b = n F_s$$

$$n = 8$$

$$F_m = 500 + 200 = 700 \text{ Hz}$$

$$F_s = 2F_m + 20\% \text{ of } 2F_m$$

$$= \cancel{700} + 20\% \times 700 = 1400 + 20\% \times 1400$$

$$= \cancel{700 + 1400}$$

$$= 840$$

$$\therefore R_b =$$

$$\cancel{8 \times 840} = 8 \times 1680$$

$$= 13440 \text{ (kbit/s)}$$

(Ans)

Q1) A signal has two frequency component of 3 kHz & 4 kHz. If the sampling frequency is 25% higher than Nyquist rate and it is coded into 512 level to make PCM signal, what is the bit rate of the signal?

⇒ We know,

$$\text{bit rate } R_b = n \cdot F_s$$

Here, $L = 512 = 2^9$

$$\therefore n = 9$$

$$F_m = (3 + 4) = 7 \text{ kHz}$$

$$F_s = 2F_m + 25\% \text{ of } 2F_m$$

$$= (2 \times 7) + 25\% \text{ of } (2 \times 7)$$

$$= (14 + 3.5) = 17.5$$

$$= 17.5 \text{ kHz}$$

$$\therefore R_b = 9 \times 17.5 = 157.5 \text{ kbit/s}$$

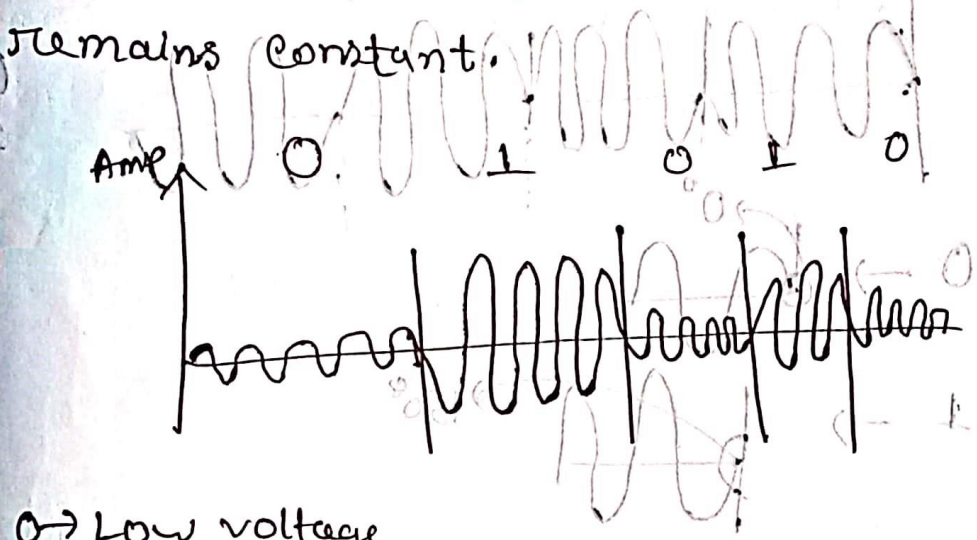
(Ans)

WIM

ASK, PSK, FSK, DPSK, QPSK

ASK (Amplitude Shift Keying):

The strength of the carrier signal is varied to represent a binary 1 or 0. Frequency & phase remains constant.

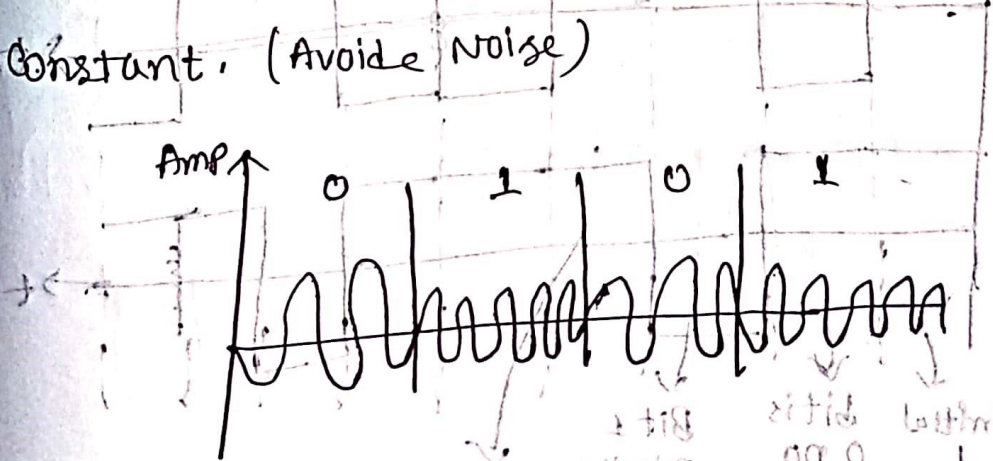


0 → Low voltage

1 → High voltage

FSK (Frequency Shift Keying):

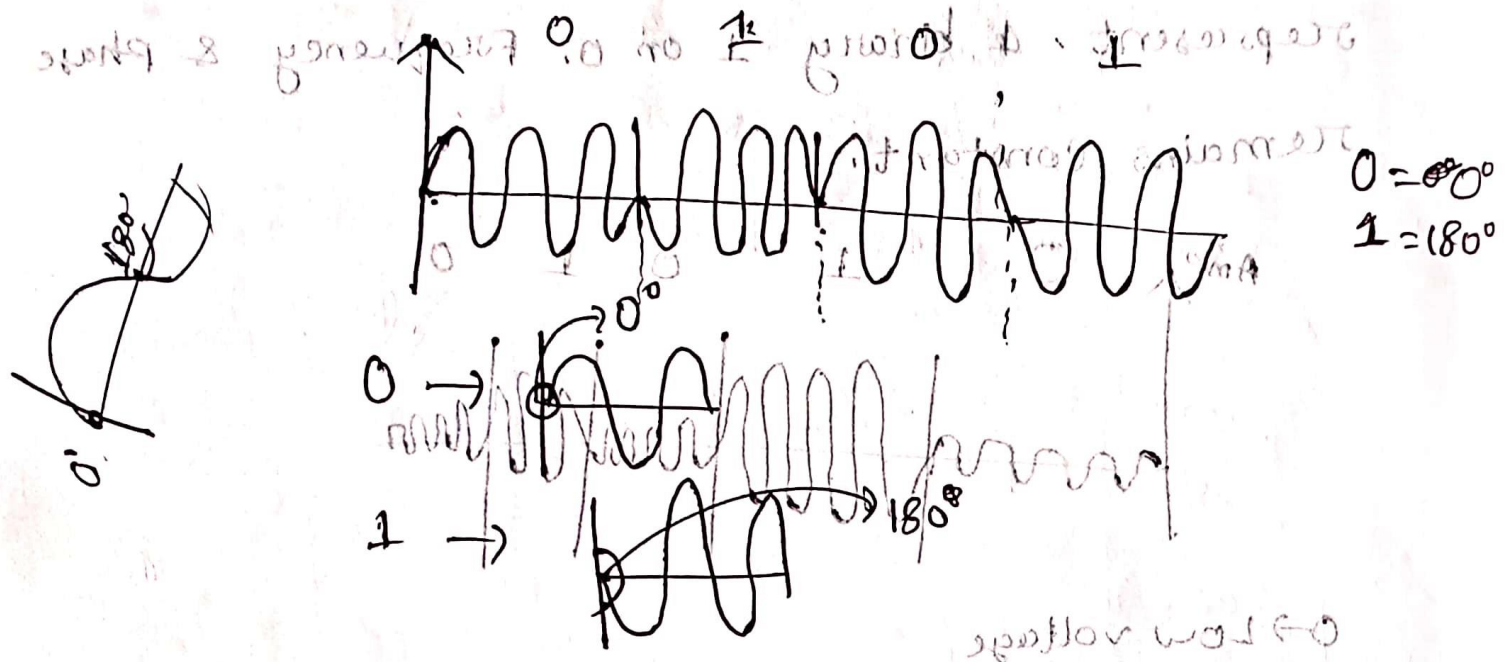
Frequency of the carrier signal is varied to represent binary 1 & 0. Amplitude & phase remains constant. (Avoids noise)



0 → High Frequency
1 → Low Frequency

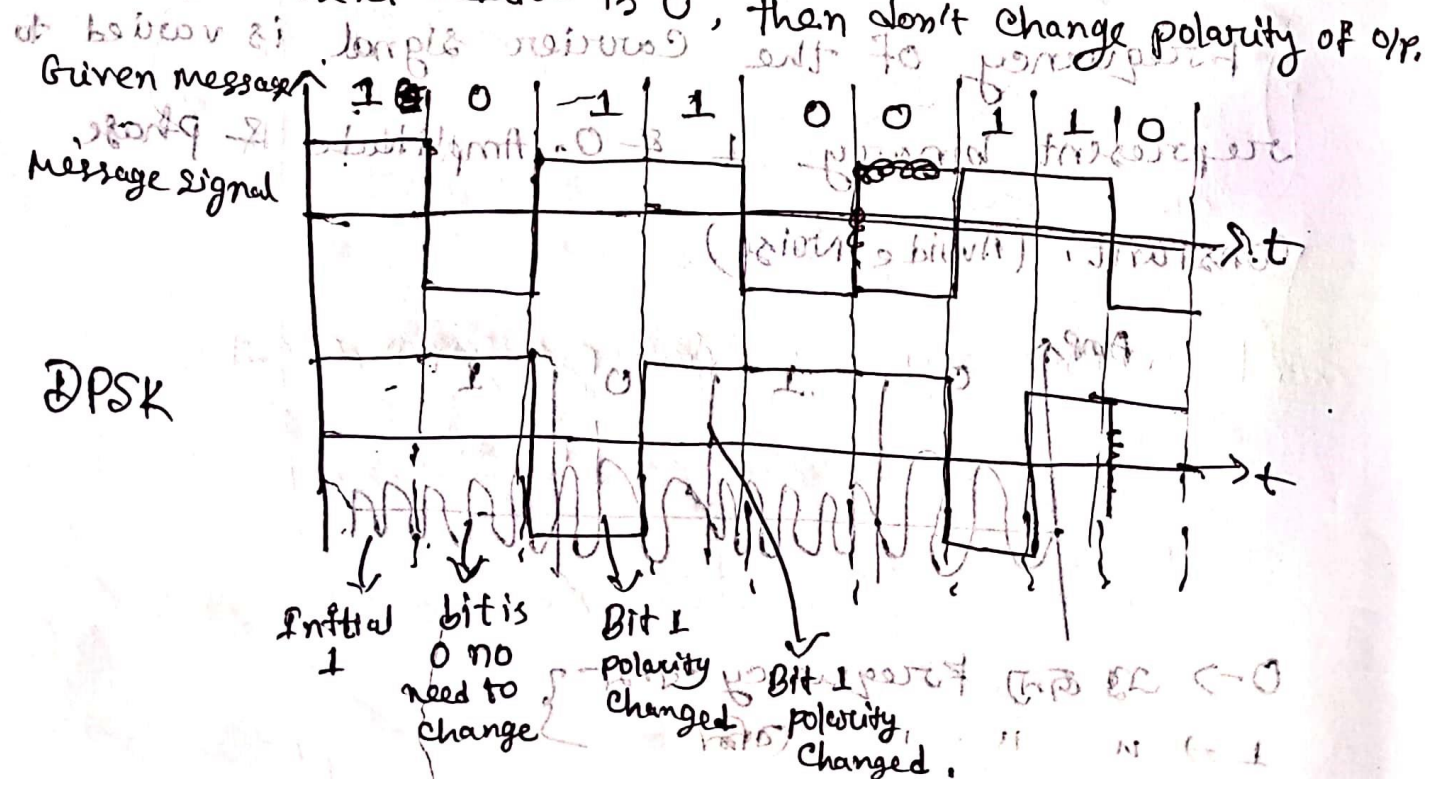
ASK, FSK, PSK, BPSK, QPSK

PSK → Phase is varied, Amplitude & Frequency of carrier is constant ($0^\circ, 90^\circ, 180^\circ$)



DPSK (Differential Phase Shift Keying)

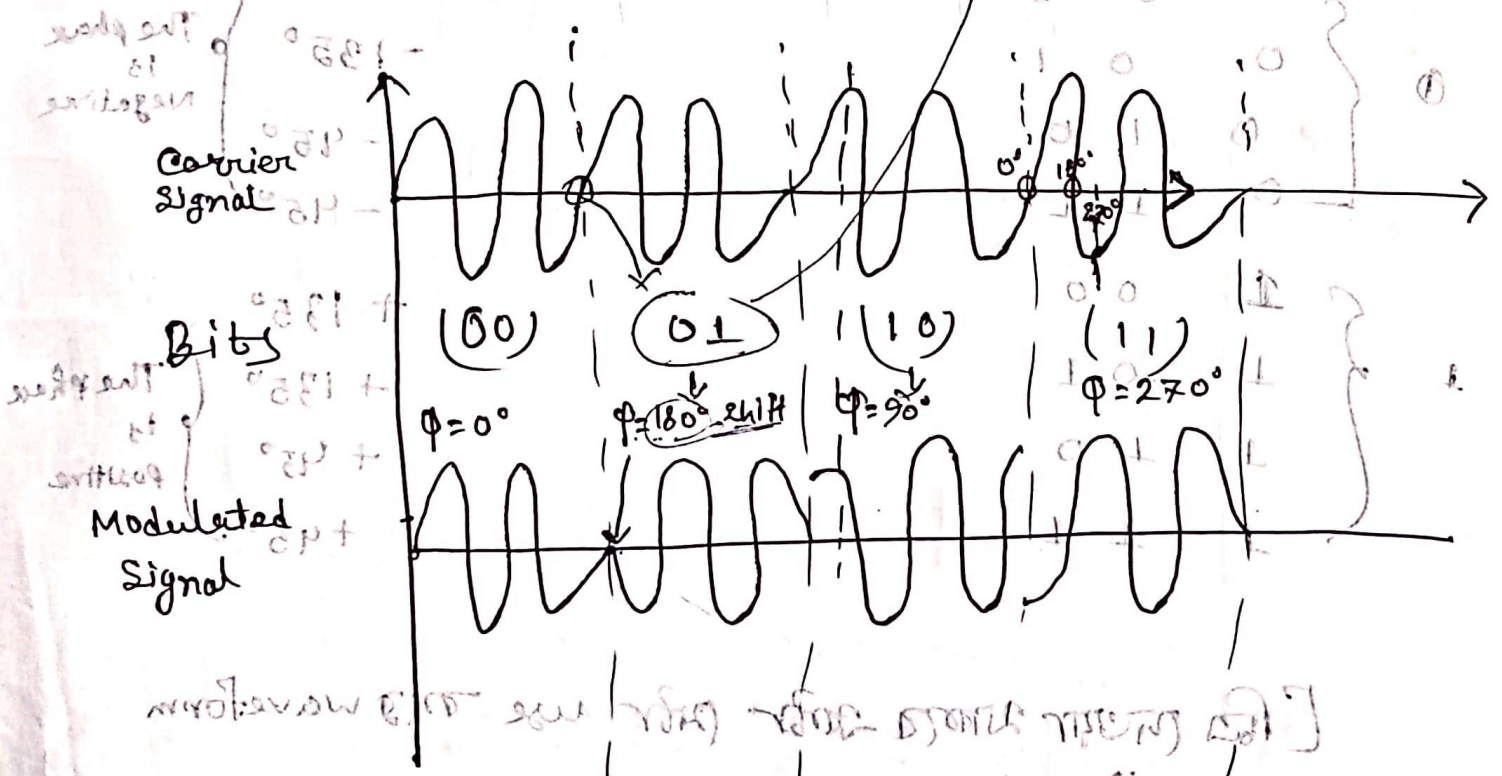
- IF next data is 1, then change polarity of o/p
- IF next data is 0, then don't change polarity of o/p



QPSK - A form of PSK where two bits are modulated at once. It selects 4 possible carrier phase shift $0^\circ, 90^\circ, 180^\circ, 270^\circ$.

bits $\rightarrow \phi$

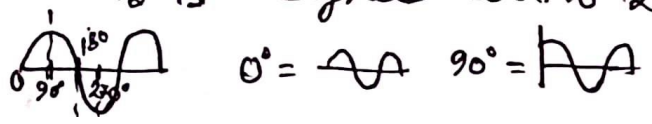
00	\rightarrow	0°
01	\rightarrow	180°
10	\rightarrow	90°
11	\rightarrow	270°



How to draw?

\Rightarrow Bit pair sequence (00, 01, 10, 11) sequence

degree count 2π



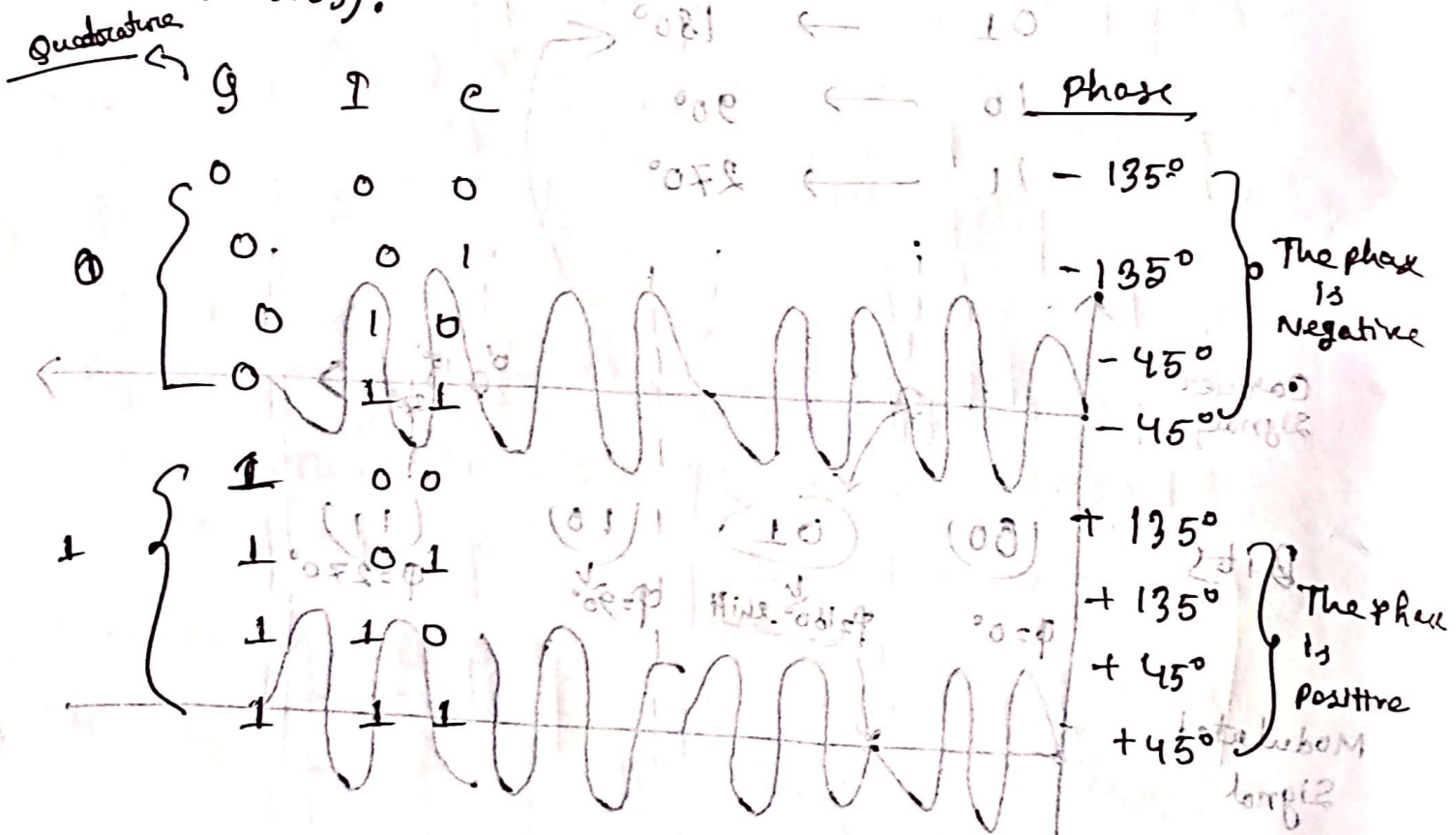
QAM 8-QAM

ASK + PSK = QAM

8-QAM — Bits per Symbol $\rightarrow 3$

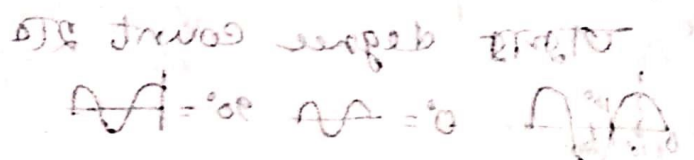
$2^3 = 8$

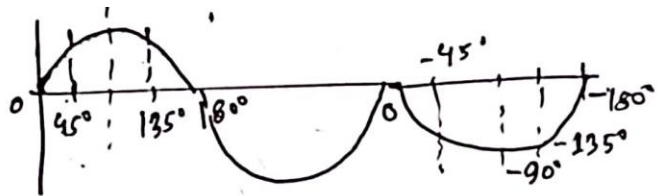
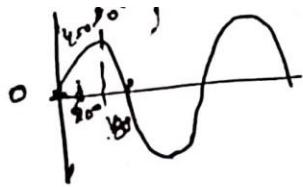
\Rightarrow 3 bits are combined together to form a symbol (tribits).



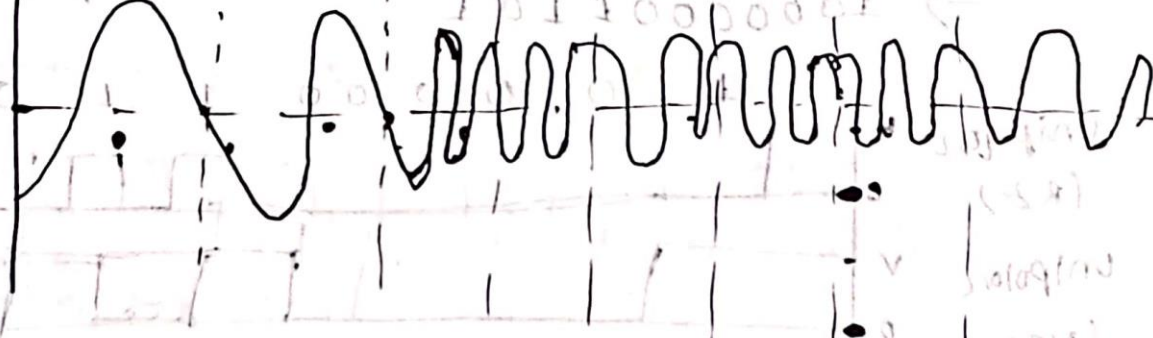
[In the above diagram we use the waveform diagram]

How to draw the bit stream (11, 01, 10, 00) \rightarrow

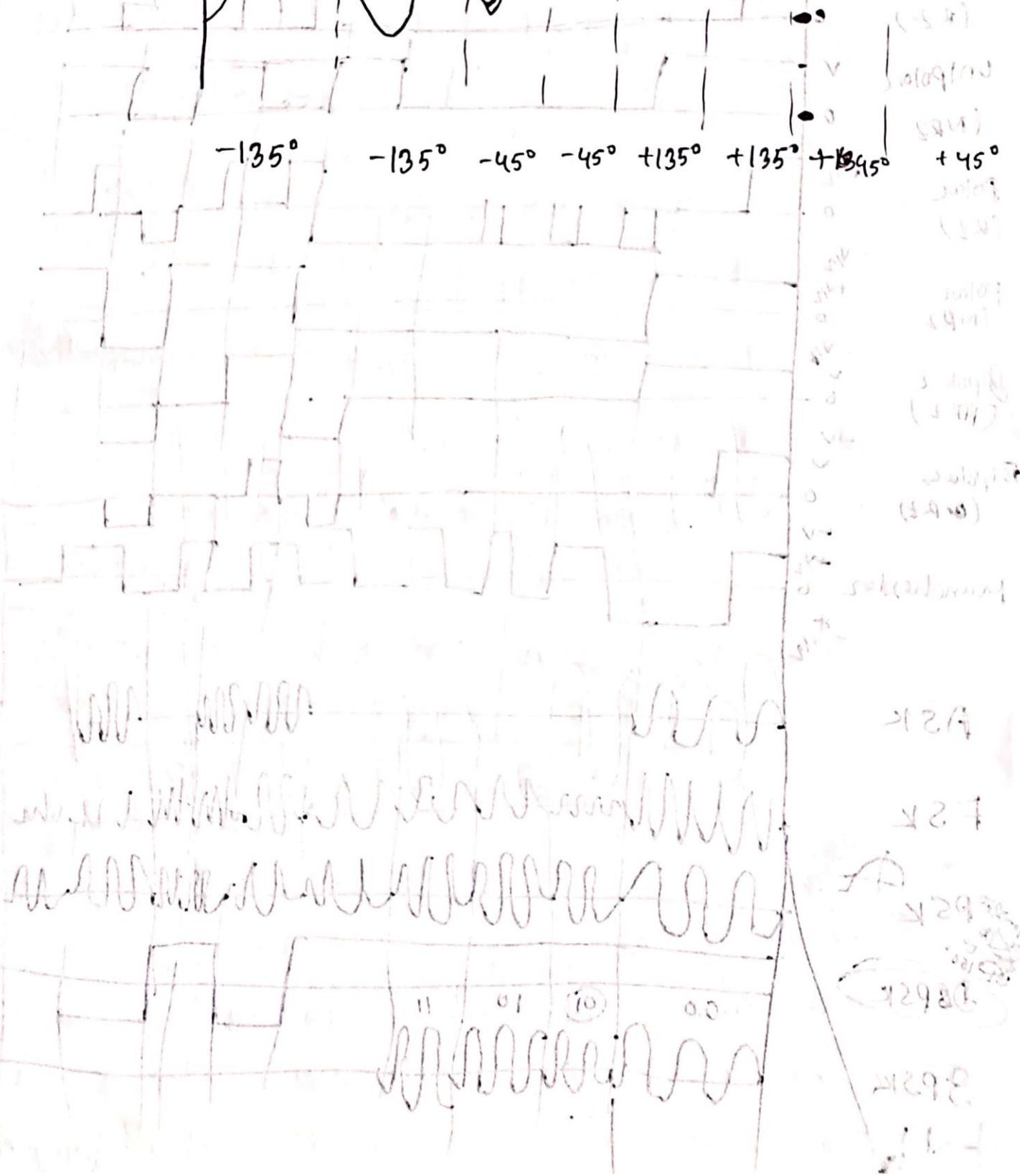


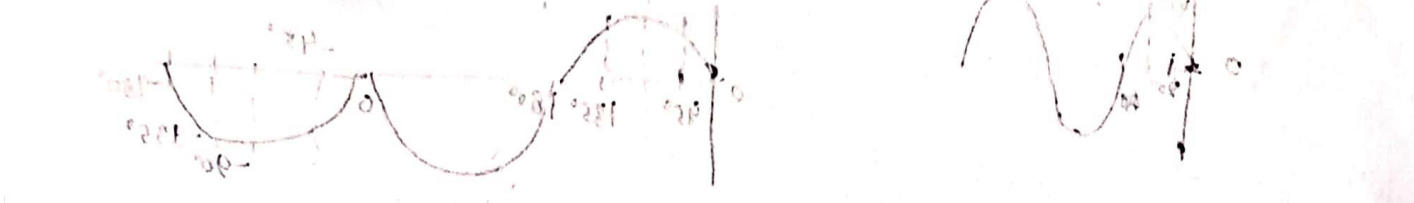


000, 001, 010, 011, 100, 101, 110, 111



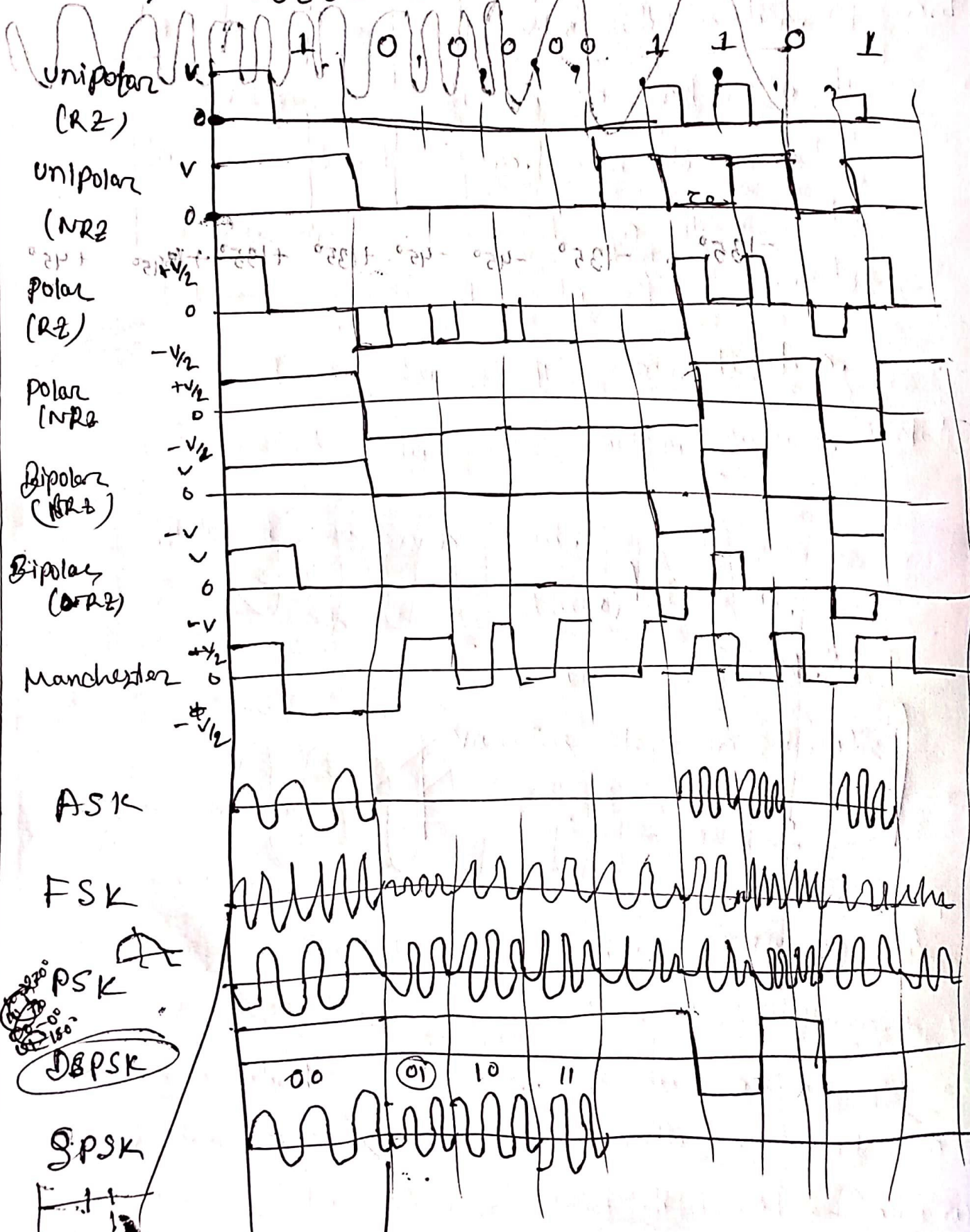
-135°, -135°, -45°, -45°, +135°, +135°, +135°, +45°





4037
10000001101

→ 10000001101



0-0°
1-180°

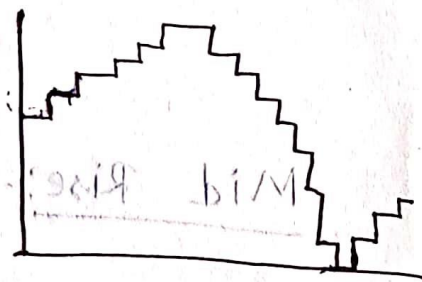
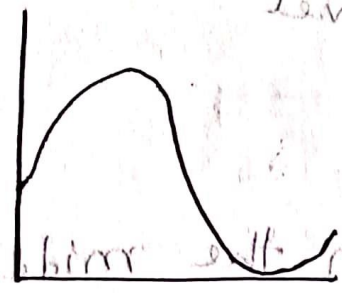
LECTURE

FINAL

Math

* Signal $x(t) = 5 \cos(1000\pi t)$, sampled at Nyquist sampling rate & quantized using 8 bit PCM system. Determine the bit rate of the digital signal.

Quantization



Representation Levels:- The discrete amplitudes of the quantized output are called as representation levels or reconstruction levels.

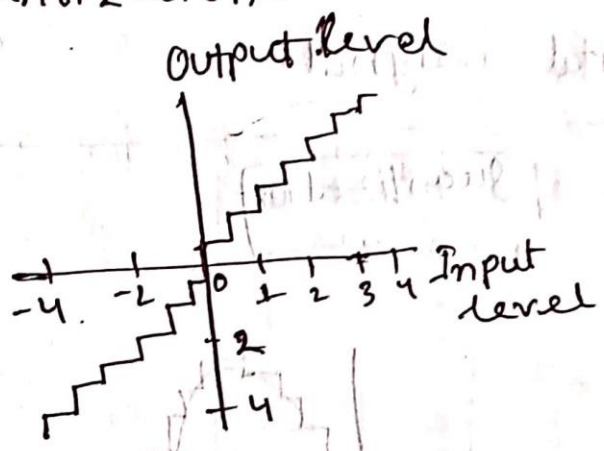
Quantum / Step-Size:- The spacing between the two adjacent ~~representations~~ representation levels is called a quantum or step size.

Types of Quantization! - nonUniform quantization levels are unequal.

2 types :- Uniform! - Quantization level are uniform spaced

Uniform or Mid Rise Quantization:-

The type of Quantization in which the quantization levels are uniformly spaced is called uniform quantization.



Mid Rise:- The origin lies in the middle of a rising part of the stair case like graph.

The quantization levels in this type are even in number.

Mid-tread Quantization:-

The type of quantization in which the quantized levels are uniformly spaced is termed as a uniform quantization.

The type of quantization in which the quantization levels are unequal & mostly the relation between them is logarithmic, is termed as non-uniform quantization.

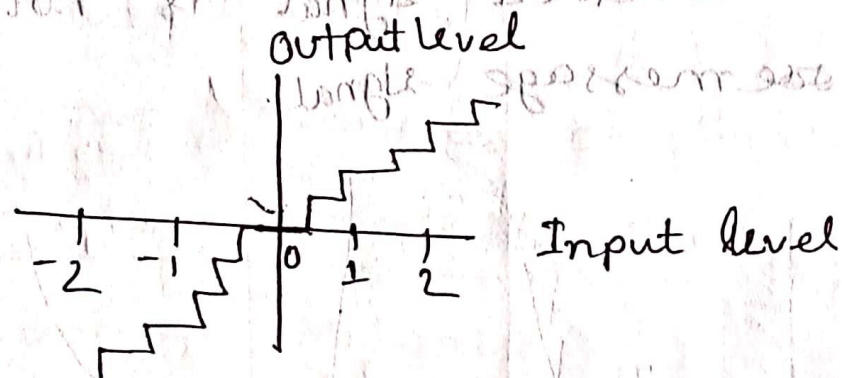


Fig:- Mid-tread type uniform Quantization

Mid Tread:-

The type is so called because the origin lies in the middle of a tread of the staircase like graph. The quantization levels in this type are odd in number.

Both mid-rise & mid-tread type of uniform quantizers are symmetric about the origin.

Quantization Error

The difference in the input value and the quantized value of the signal is known as the quantization error.

If The quantization signal = $m_q(t)$

Message signal = $m(t)$

So, Quantization error, $e = m(t) - m_q(t)$

That means received signal is not equal to the message signal

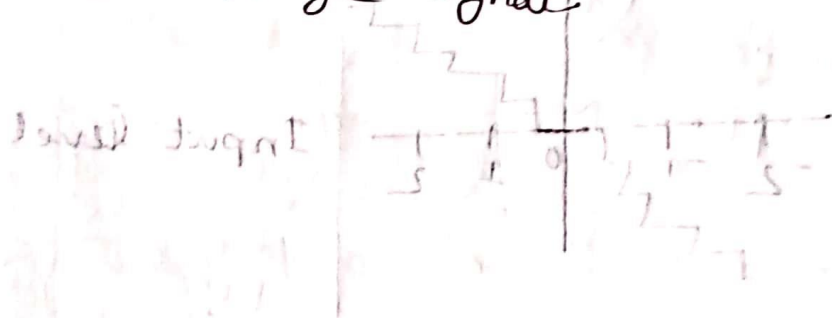


Fig. 1.1 Mid-tread type quantization

Mid-tread:

The error is so called because the original signal for the middle of a frame of the signal is not like a frame. The quantization level is odd in number.

Both mid-tread & mid-trap type of quantization are symmetric about the origin.

Companing

Compressing + Expanding = Comanding

That means it does both.

It's non-linear technique. AT PCM use 24 noise reduce error.

That means, it compresses the data at the transmitter & expands the same data at the receiver.

There are two techniques of this :-

(1) A - Law Comanding Technique :-

It is used when Mid-rise.

The techniques :-

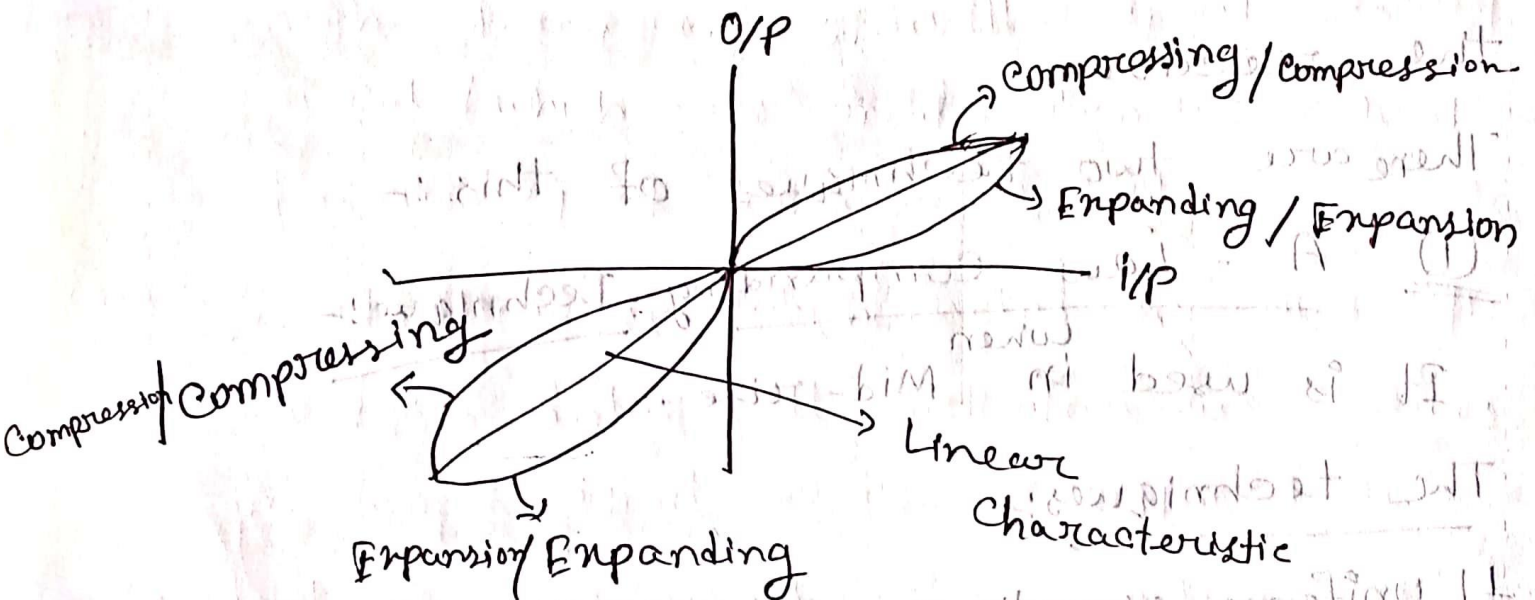
- 1) Uniform quantization is achieved at $A=1$, where the characteristic curve is linear and no compression is done.
- 2) A-law has mid-rise at the origin, यदि 0 पर Non-Zero value है।
- 3) Used for PCM telephone systems.

μ -law Companding Technique

- 1) Uniform quantization is achieved at $\mu=0$ where the characteristic curve is linear and no compression is done.
- 2) μ -law mid-tread at the origin.

शुद्ध उत्तर value 0.

- 3) It is used in speech & music signals.



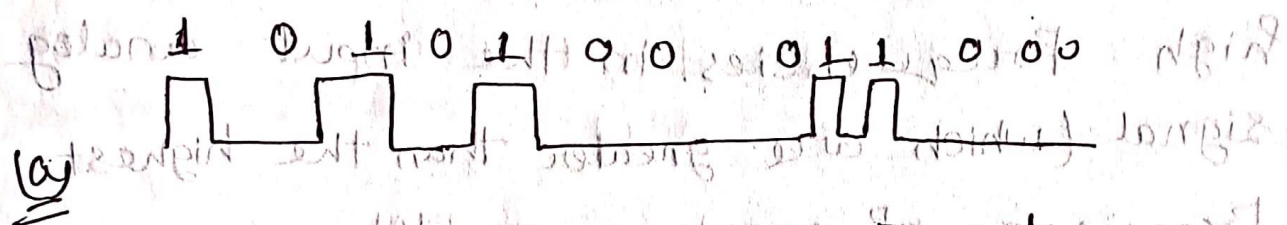
pulse Code Modulation (PCM)

Converts an analog input signal to the digital signal, which is a combination of the binary

sequence created from the binary digits 0 & 1.

PCM wave is series of digits.

Electrical representation of PCM:-



0 = indicates absence of pulse
presence of "1" indicates

Basic Elements of PCM System:-

The transmitter section of PCM circuit consists of sampling, quantizing & encoding.

In the receiver section the regeneration of impaired signal happens. Most important parts are Quantizer, decoder, Reconstruction Filter.

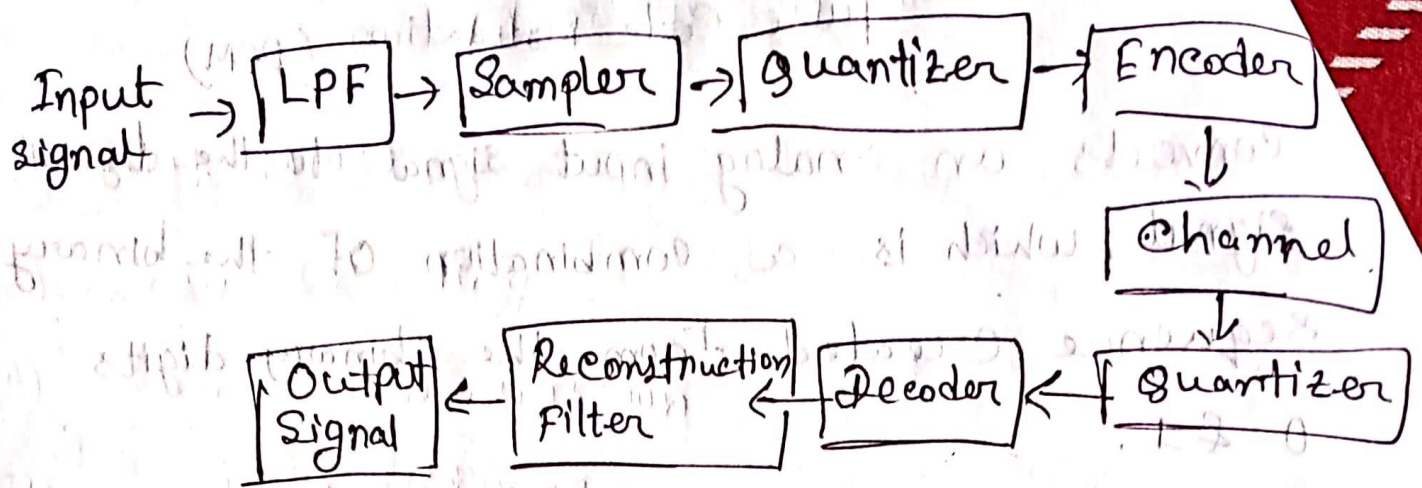


Fig: Basic element of PCM system.

LPF: - Low pass filter. It eliminates all kinds of high frequencies in the input analog signal (which are greater than the highest frequency of message signal).

Sampler! - Technique which helps to collect the sample data at instantaneous values of message signal. So to reconstruct the original message signal, the sampling rate must be greater than twice the highest frequency component w .

Quantizer! - Reduce the excessive bits, It reduces the redundant bits and compressed the value.

Encoder! - It does the digitization. It designates each quantized level by a binary code.

Communication Channel:-

A medium between transmitter & receiver.
Transmits a PCM signal from the transmitter to receiver.

Also includes a repeater that can regenerate the signal, improve signal strength & reduce noise.

Regenerative Repeater:-

It increases the signal strength & reduces noise effects. It compensates the signal loss & reconstruct the signal & also increase its strength.

Decoder:- It reconstructs pulse coded waveform to reproduce the original signal.

Reconstruction Filter:-

After digital to analog conversion, a low-pass filter is employed, which is called as the reconstruction filter to get back the original signal. PCM circuit digitizes the given analog signal, codes it then samples it & then transmit it to in an analog signal. The whole process is repeated in reverse way to get the original signal.

Advantages of PCM

- ① High Noise
- ② Easy Encoding
- ③ Secure Transmission
- ④ Easy Multiplexing
- ⑤ High efficiency
- ⑥ Use of repeaters
- ⑦ Data storage (The digital data can be stored easily)

Disadvantage of PCM:

- ① Complex process
- ② Large Bandwidth
- ③ Quantization Noise:

Bandwidth of PCM signal

Let the quantizer uses N bits number of binary digits to represent each level.


Number of levels that can be represented by N digit will be L .

$$L = 2^N$$

$N=3$ then total number of levels will be

$$L = 2^3 = 8$$

Number bits per second is called signalling rate of PCM which is denoted by r .

$$r = Nf_s \text{ bits/sec}$$


Bandwidth needed for PCM transmission will be half of the signalling rate.

Transmission bandwidth of PCM:-

$$BT \geq \frac{1}{2} r$$

$$\Rightarrow BT \geq \frac{1}{2} Nf_s$$

$$\Rightarrow BT \geq \frac{1}{2} N \cdot \omega$$

Differential pulse coded Modulation

DPCM is a signal encoder that uses the basis of pulse code modulation (PCM). কিন্তু বাড়তি কিছু

functionalities added করে signal এর sampling এর উপর predict করে।

→ Input Analog or digital হতে পারে। যদি Input Continuous Time Analog Signal হয় তাহলে এটা প্রথম Sampled হতে হবে। তাহলে DPCM encoder এর Input discrete Time signal হয়।

→ DPCM Receiver Decoder & prediction Filter গুলি থাকে।

→ Noise বা মাঝে Encoded Receiver input, encoded transmitter output এর সমান হবে।

Why used? (কিছু bit এর difference নেই)

→ Reduce redundancy of digital signal

→ If redundancy is reduced then the overall bitrate will decrease & number of bits required to transmit one sample will also reduce.

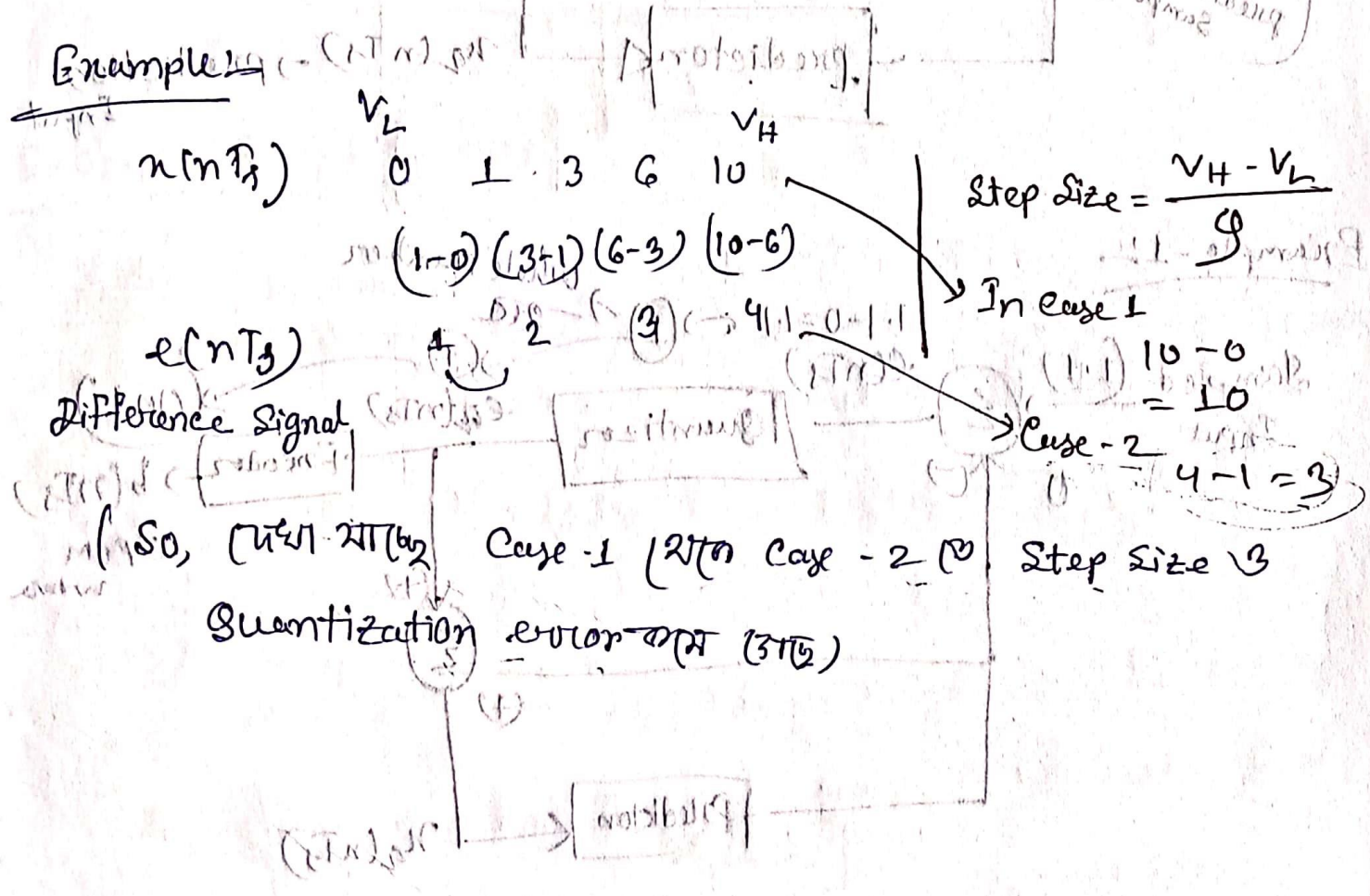
→ DPCM works on the principle of prediction.

→ ADPCM is a variant of DPCM that varies

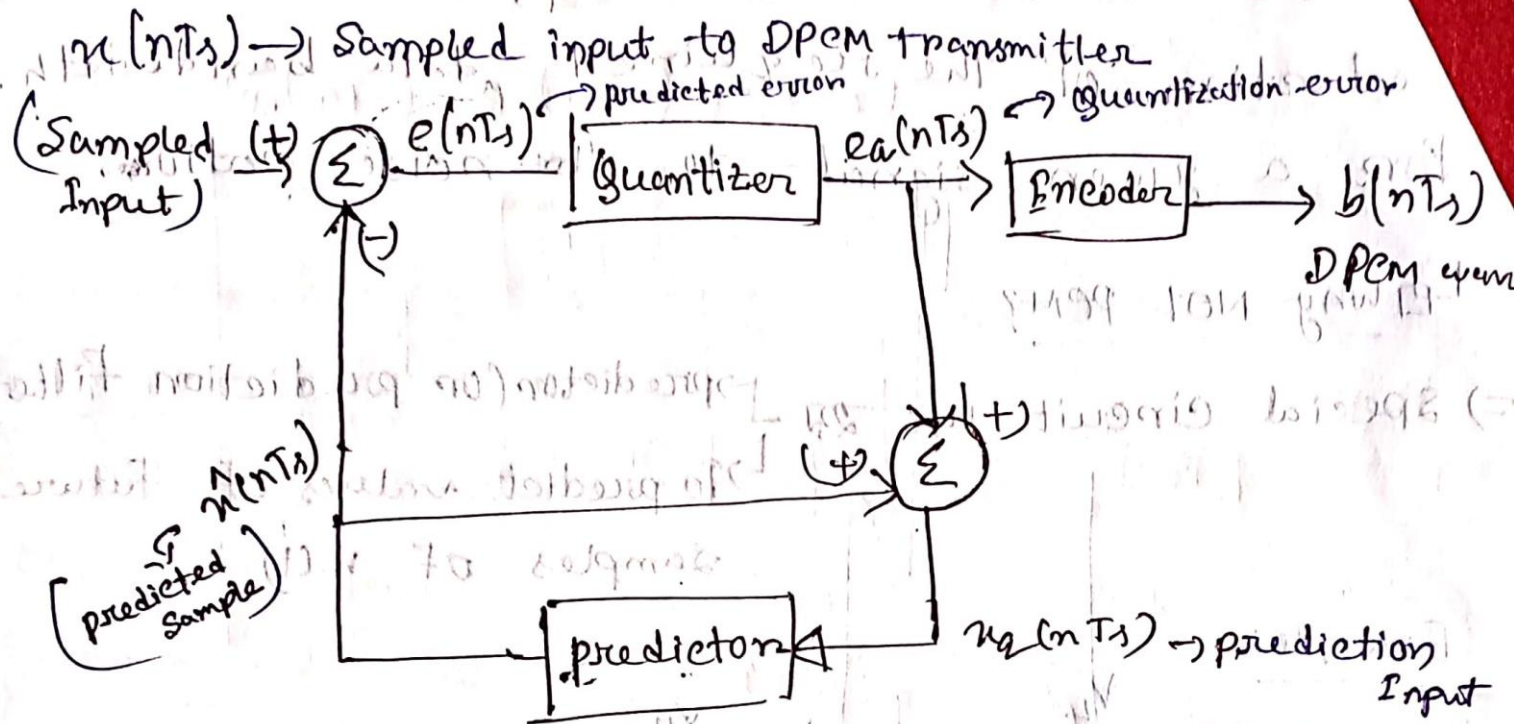
the size of quantization step, to allow further reduction of the required data bandwidth. For a given signal - to - noise ratio.

Why NOT PCM?

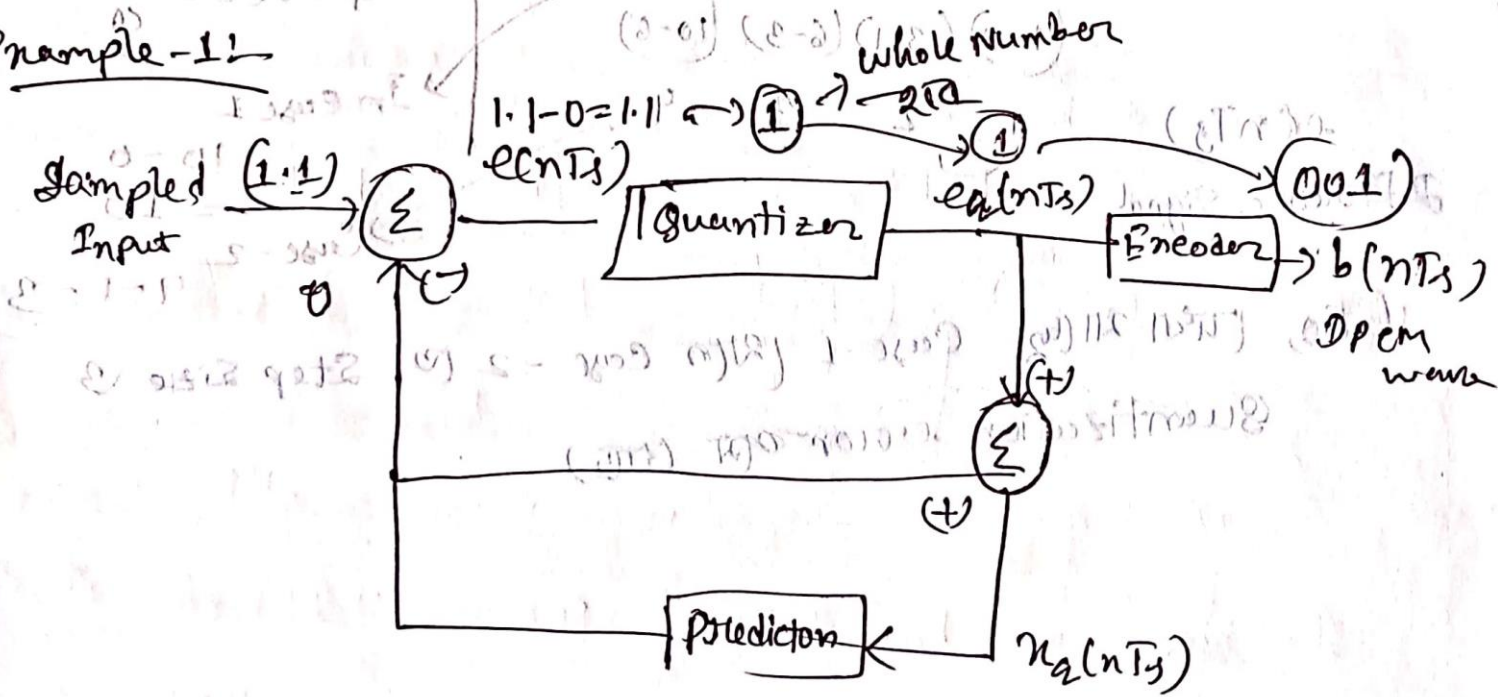
=> special circuit use 2π predictor (or prediction filter) to predict values of future samples of $x(t)$



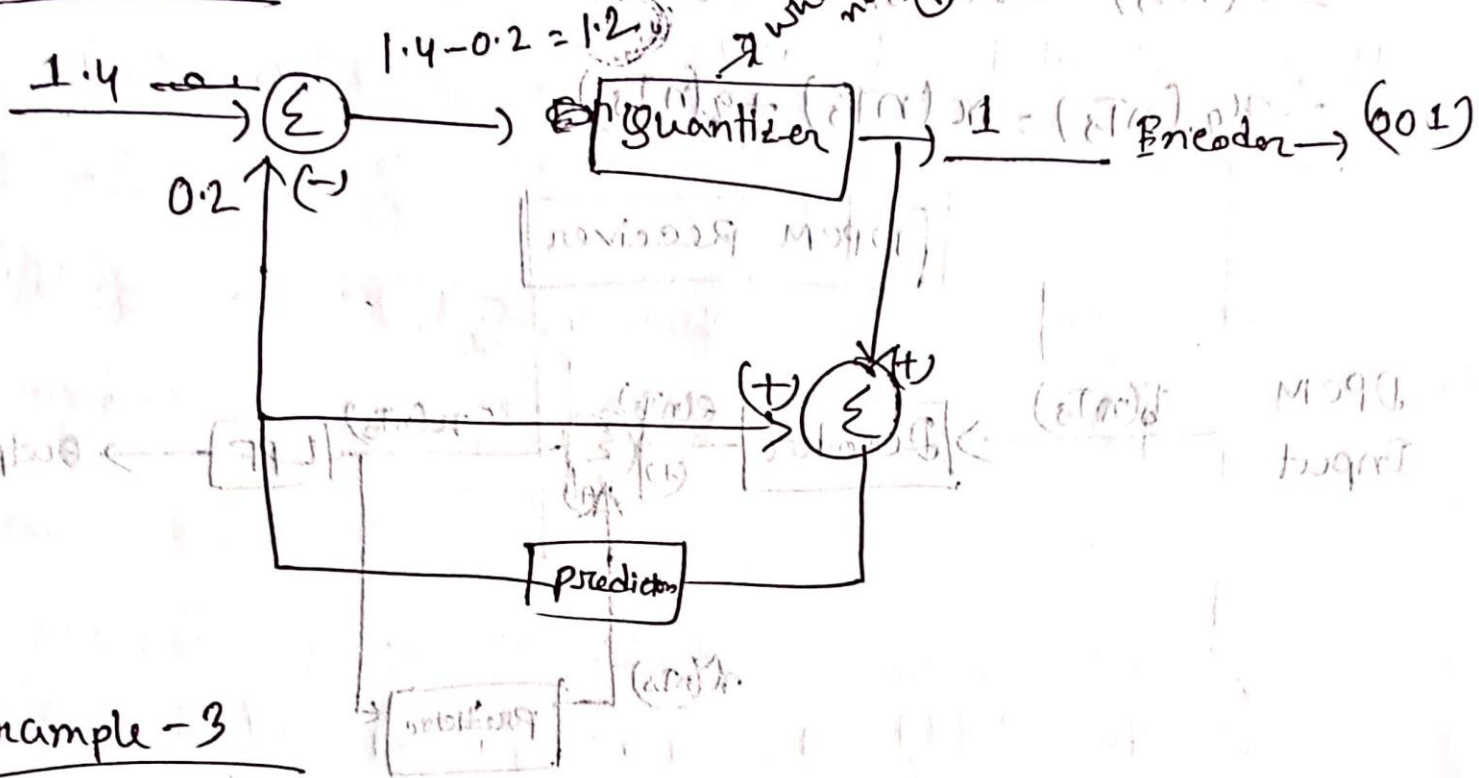
DPDM Transmitter



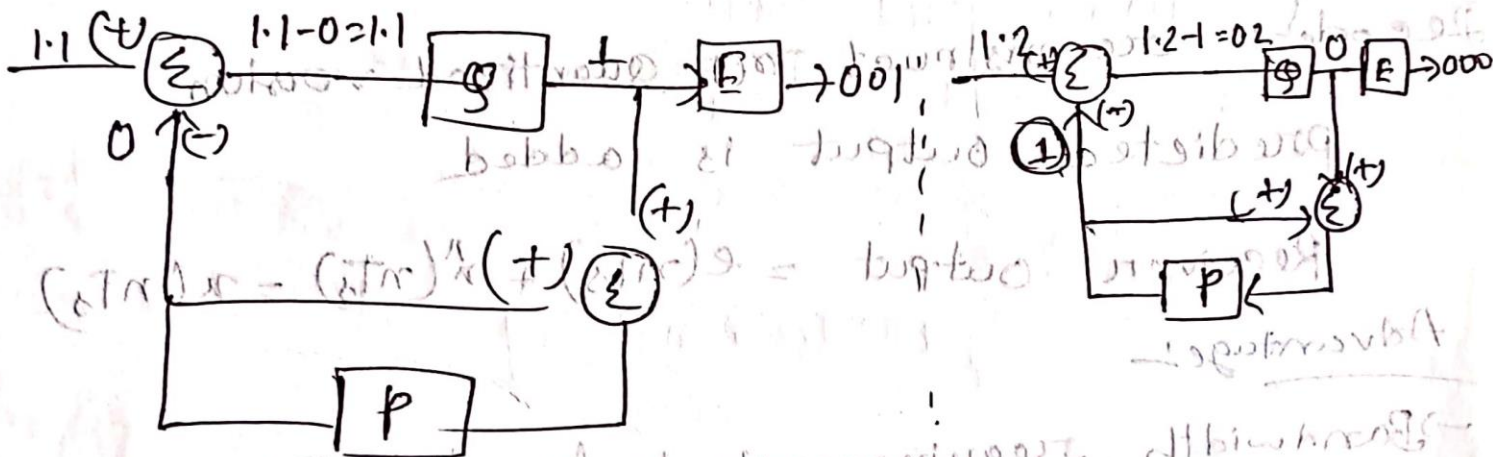
Example - 11



Example - 2



Example - 3



001000

$$e(nT_s) = \{u(nT_s) - \hat{n}(nT_s)\}$$

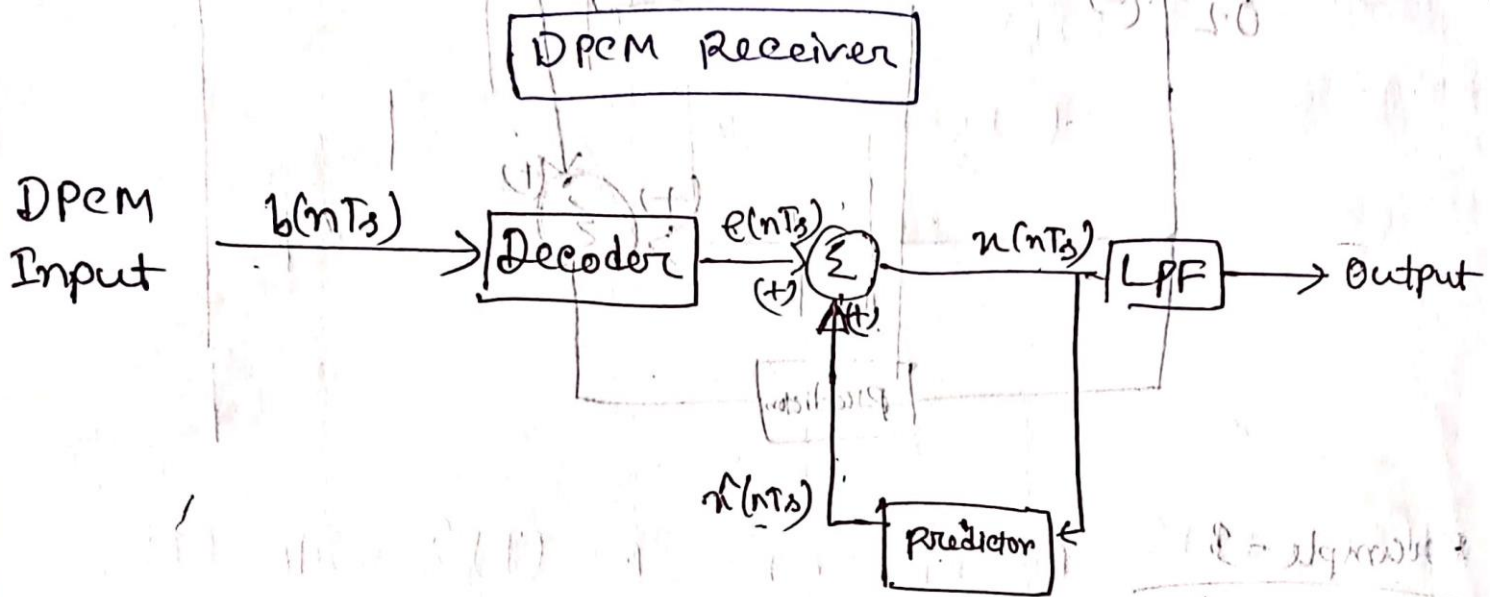
$$e_q(nT_s) = \{e(nT_s) + q(nT_s)\} \text{ --- Quantization output}$$

$$n_r(nT_s) = e_q(nT_s) + \hat{n}(nT_s) \text{ --- output of adder}$$

$$= e(nT_s) + q(nT_s) + \hat{n}(nT_s)$$

$$= e(nT_s) + q(nT_s) + u(nT_s) - e(nT_s) - q(nT_s)$$

$$(100) \hat{u}_q(nT_s) = u(nT_s) + q(nT_s)$$



Decoder reconstructs $u(nT_s)$ quantized version
 predicted output is added
 Receiver output = $e(nT_s) + \hat{u}(nT_s) = u(nT_s)$

Advantages:

- Bandwidth requirement is less than PCM
- Quantization error is reduced because of predictor

→ Bits are reduced

Applications:

- speech
- Image
- Audio Compression

Application

Application

Delta Modulation!

PCM - n digit b number of binary per quantized sample n transmit হয়।

যদি কারণে Bandwidth বেশি লাগে। এটা এলো মুক্তি পেতে Delta Modulation use করা হয়।

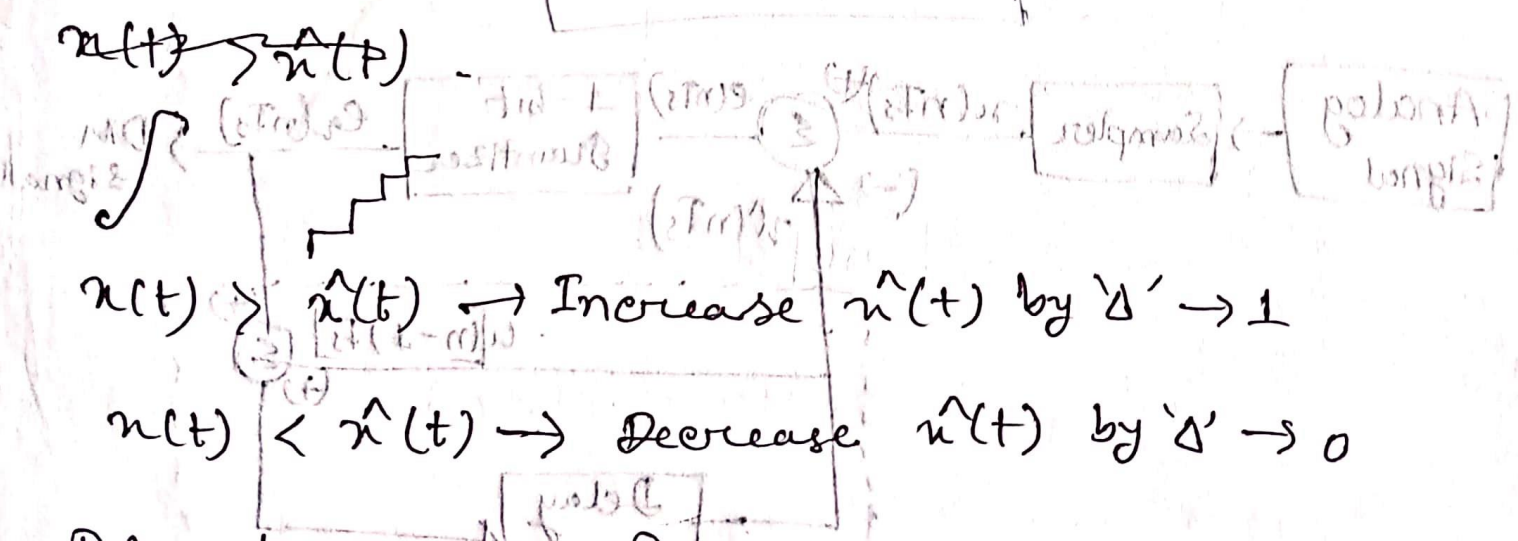
Concept:

এখানে 1 bit per sample instead of n bit

$$Bw = n F_s$$

$$= 1 \cdot F_s \Rightarrow F_s$$

$x(t)$ এর সাথে $\hat{x}(t)$ এর Comparison হয়। তার ফলাফল result টা transmit হয়।



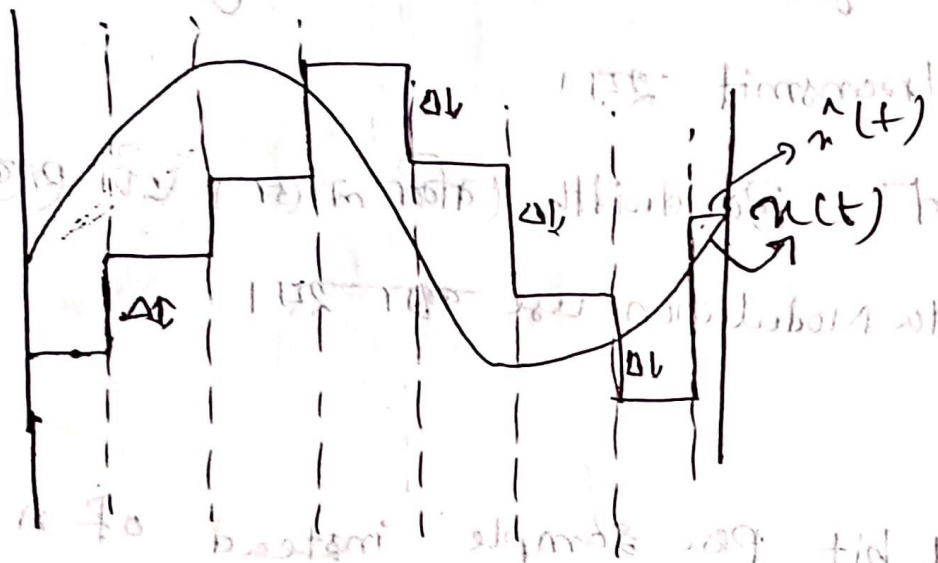
$x(t) > \hat{x}(t) \rightarrow$ Increase $\hat{x}(t)$ by ' Δ ' $\rightarrow 1$

$x(t) < \hat{x}(t) \rightarrow$ Decrease $\hat{x}(t)$ by ' Δ ' $\rightarrow 0$

D.M output = 1 হয় যদি staircase signal $+\Delta$ হয়

D.M output = 0 হয় " " " " $-\Delta$ হয়

... of digital ...



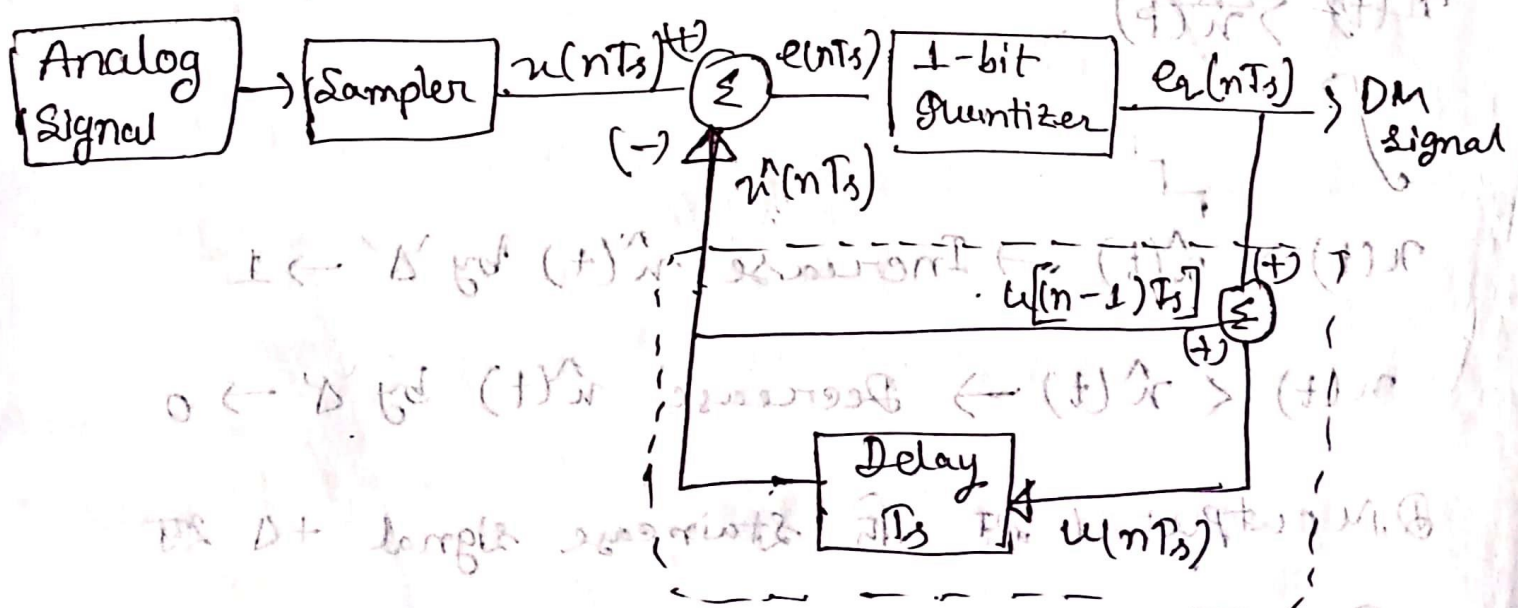
যদি $u(t)$ যদি $\hat{u}(t)$ এর উদার থাকে তবে $\hat{u}(t)$ প্রতিবন্ধ

Δ পরিমিত উদার উঠবে।

আর যদি $\hat{u}(t)$ নিচ থাকে।

কম Bit দিয়ে same info পায়ে এতে DM এর ক্ষমতা

DM Transmitter



working:-

① $x(nT_s)$ and staircase approximated $\hat{x}(nT_s)$ are subtracted to get error signal $e(nT_s)$

$$e(nT_s) = x(nT_s) - \hat{x}(nT_s)$$

↑
present
sample
value of $x(nT_s)$

↑
⊖ Approximated
value $\hat{x}(nT_s)$

IF ~~$x(nT_s) > \hat{x}(nT_s)$~~ $x(nT_s) > \hat{x}(nT_s) \rightarrow$ error positive $\rightarrow +\Delta$

$x(nT_s) < \hat{x}(nT_s) \rightarrow$ error negative $\rightarrow -\Delta$

Depending upon sign of $e(nT_s)$, 1 bit quantizer generates $+\Delta$ or $-\Delta$ (1 or 0)