

A/B

- 1.) a) Equalisers are designed to minimize the inter symbol interference (ISI) present at the slicer in the receiver of a baseband digital communication system. Their purpose is to compensate for unknown or varying channels while not increasing the noise too much in order to improve the bit error rate (BER) at the receiver output.

#### Zero forcing equalizer

Is a linear sampled data (digital) filter which attempts to convert the sampled pulse response  $P(z)$  at the equalizer input into a discrete delta function at the equalizer output, i.e., ... 1, 0, 0, ... To achieve this the equalizer response is given by  $H_E(z) = 1/P(z)$ . If  $P(z)$  is FIR, then  $H_E(z)$  will be IIR, which can cause stability problems. Consequently,  $H_E(z)$  is often approximated by an FIR filter which may be designed to force a finite number of zeros around the wanted pulse. Zero forcing equalizers can suffer from significant noise magnification if  $P(z)$  has nulls in its spectrum  $P(e^{j\omega T})$ .

#### Decision feedback equalizer

Essentially a modified IIR equalizer where the slicer is moved inside the feedback filter. Thus ISI in the channel response is cancelled by feeding back delayed decisions from the slicer with appropriate weightings. This is a non-linear filter and its main advantage is the elimination of noise on the fed back decisions. Consequently there is no noise magnification and an improvement in the BER compared with a conventional IIR based equalizer. However at high noise levels we can no longer assume that the fed back decisions are correct and so ISI is no longer cancelled correctly, leading to more decision errors. Consequently an error burst occurs which will last until the correct data is re-established in the feedback registers. This degrades performance, but it is still usually better than a zero forcing equalizer.

30%

[6]

(b) The pulse response is  $p_0 = 1$ ,  $p_1 = 0.2$ ,  $p_2 = -0.1$   
and the ZF constraint is  $y_0 = 1$ ,  $y_1 = 0$ ,  $y_2 = 0$

In general,

$$y_n = p_n b_0 + p_{n-1} b_1 + p_{n-2} b_2 + \dots + p_{n-q} b_q$$

where  $b_0 \dots b_q$  are the filter coefficients.

The FIR filter has  $q+1$  coefficients, i.e.,

$$q+1 = 3 \quad \therefore q = 2$$

$$y_n = p_n b_0 + p_{n-1} b_1 + p_{n-2} b_2 \quad |$$

$$n=0 \quad y_0 = p_0 b_0 \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$n=1 \quad y_1 = p_1 b_0 + p_0 b_1 \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$n=2 \quad y_2 = p_2 b_0 + p_1 b_1 + p_0 b_2 \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

$$\text{From (1)} \quad 1 = 1 \times b_0 \quad \therefore \underline{b_0 = 1} \quad |$$

$$\text{From (2)} \quad 0 = 0.2 \times 1 + 1 \times b_1 \quad \therefore \underline{b_1 = -0.2} \quad |$$

$$\text{From (3)} \quad 0 = (-0.1 \times 1) + (0.2 \times -0.2) + 1 \times b_2$$

$$\therefore \underline{b_2 = 0.14}$$

<sup>1206</sup>  
[4]

(c)(i) Need to calculate the values of the residuals at the equaliser output.

$$n=3 \quad y_3 = p_2 b_1 + p_1 b_2$$

$$y_3 = (-0.1 \times -0.2) + (0.2 \times 0.14)$$

$$\underline{y_3 = 0.048}$$

$$n=4 \quad y_4 = p_2 b_2$$

$$y_4 = -0.1 \times 0.14$$

$$\underline{y_4 = -0.014}$$

For a polar binary scheme the worst-case 'eye opening' is  $1 - 0.048 - 0.014 = 0.938$

↑ one other '0' contributing      ↑ one other '1' contributing

So total eye opening,  $h = 2 \times 0.938$   
 $h = 1.876$

Now need to find the noise variance,

$$\sigma_w = \sigma_v \sqrt{b_0^2 + b_1^2 + b_2^2}$$

$$\sigma_w = 0.3 \sqrt{1^2 + (-0.2)^2 + (0.14)^2}$$

$$\sigma_w = 0.3 \times 1.0294$$

$$\sigma_w = \underline{\underline{0.3088 V}}$$

So, worst case equalized error rate (BER) is

$$P_e = Q\left(\frac{h}{2\sigma_w}\right) = Q\left(\frac{1.876}{2 \times 0.3088}\right)$$

$$P_e = Q(3.038) = \underline{\underline{1.19 \times 10^{-3}}}$$

Without equalizer,

$$\text{minimum '1' eye opening} = 1 - 0.2 - 0.1$$

$\uparrow$  other  $\uparrow$  other (1)  
 '0' contributing contributing

$$= 0.7$$

minimum total eye opening,  $h = 2 \times 0.7$

$$h = 1.4$$

$$\therefore P_e = Q\left(\frac{1.4}{2 \times 0.3}\right) = Q(2.33) = \underline{\underline{9.93 \times 10^{-3}}}$$

50%  
(8)

b) (ii) ~~if the data is equiprobable~~ there are 4 possible eye opening values for the equalized system, specifically

$$h_1 = (1 - 0.048 - 0.014) \times 2 = \text{original } 1.876$$

$$h_2 = (1 - 0.048 + 0.014) \times 2 = 1.932$$

$$h_3 = (1 + 0.048 - 0.014) \times 2 = 2.068$$

$$h_4 = (1 + 0.048 + 0.014) \times 2 = 2.124$$

Assuming equiprobable data the expected case BER performance is,

$$P_{\text{exp}} = 0.25 \left[ Q\left(\frac{1.876}{0.6176}\right) + Q\left(\frac{1.932}{0.6176}\right) + Q\left(\frac{2.068}{0.6176}\right) + Q\left(\frac{2.124}{0.6176}\right) \right]$$

$$P_{\text{exp}} = 0.25 \left[ Q(3.038) + Q(3.128) + Q(3.348) + Q(3.44) \right]$$

$$P_{\text{exp}} = 0.25 \left[ 1.19 \times 10^{-3} + 8.82 \times 10^{-4} + 6.7 \times 10^{-4} + 2.91 \times 10^{-4} \right]$$

$$= \underline{7.58 \times 10^{-4}}$$

(2)

(c) DFE will remove all ISI with no noise enhancement.

Effect of error propagation is ignored.

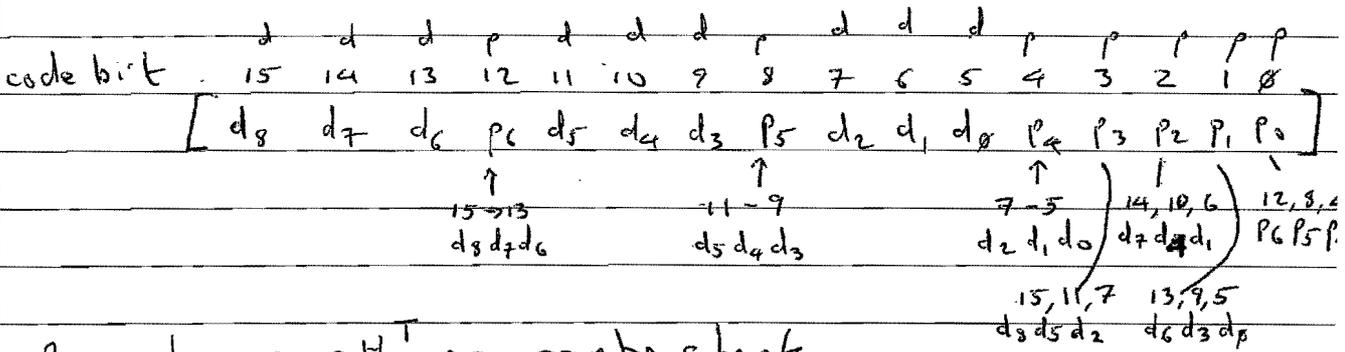
$\therefore$  eye opening,  $h = 2$

$$\text{BER} = Q\left(\frac{2}{2 \times 0.3}\right) = Q(3.33) = \underline{4.35 \times 10^{-4}}$$

(3)

(1b)

2) a) This is the structure of each codeword for code C.



Remember  $s = cH^T$  so parity check

H has dimensions  $(n-k) \times n = (16-9) \times 16 = 7 \times 16$

∴

		15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
	p <sub>6</sub>	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	p <sub>5</sub>	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
H =	p <sub>4</sub>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
	p <sub>3</sub>	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
	p <sub>2</sub>	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
	p <sub>1</sub>	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0
	p <sub>0</sub>	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1

We can now write down the Generator matrix  $G$ , where  $c = dG$ .  
 $G$  has dimension  $(k \times n)$ , i.e.  $(9 \times 16)$

data word  $[d_8, d_7, d_6, d_5, d_4, d_3, d_2, d_1, d_0]$

	15	14	13	12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
$G =$	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1

code bit  $c_i$

$c_0$  is a parity bit ( $p_0$ ) given by code bits

$c_{12}, c_8$  and  $c_4$ , i.e.,  $p_6, p_5$ , and  $p_4$

$p_6$  is given by  $d_8, d_7, d_6$

$p_5$  is given by  $d_5, d_4, d_3$

$p_4$  is given by  $d_2, d_1, d_0$

i.e., to calc  $p_0$  we need to do an even parity check on all the data bits in a data word ( $d_8 \dots d_0$ ), hence the all 1's final column of  $G$ .

4

[8]

- b) Even parity check on code bits 3-1 is given by,  
 $c_3$  ( $p_3$ ) which is even parity check of  $d_8, d_5, d_2$   
 $c_2$  ( $p_2$ ) " " " " " " "  $d_7, d_4, d_1$   
 $c_1$  ( $p_1$ ) " " " " " " "  $d_6, d_3, d_0$ .

So in this case  $c_0$  is given by an even parity check of  $d_0 \dots d_8$ , i.e., the same as that given by an even parity check of code bits  $c_2, c_3$  and  $c_4$ , (i.e.,  $p_6, p_5, p_4$ ). [2]

- c) The minimum distance of a code is equivalent to the minimum number of columns of  $H$  that sum to 0. For example -

By inspecting  $H$  it can be seen that summing columns 15, 14, 3 and 2 yields 0, i.e.,

$c_{15}$		$c_{14}$		$c_3$		$c_2$		
1		1		0		0		0
0		0		0		0		0
0		0		0		0		0
1	⊕	0	⊕	1	⊕	0	=	0
0		1		0		1		0
0		0		0		0		0
0		0		0		0		0

Thus ~~the~~  $d_{\min} = 4$ .

[3]

d) Syndrome detection.

Error syndrome  $s$  of a received codeword  $c_r$ ,

$$s = c_r H^T$$

If  $c_r$  is corrupted by the addition of an error vector  $e$ ,

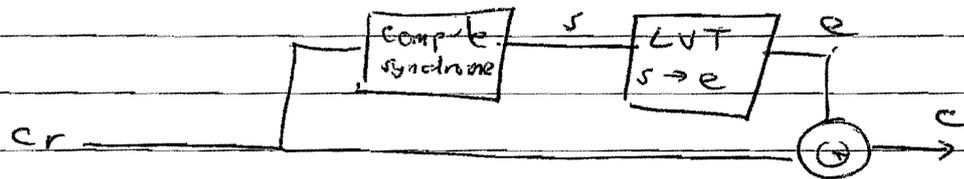
$$c_r = c + e$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} s &= (c + e) H^T \\ &= c H^T + e H^T \\ &= 0 + e H^T \end{aligned}$$

See syndrome depends only on the error.

For code  $C$ , each  $s$  corresponds to a unique error pattern hence decoding takes the form,



[3]

e) We can represent code C as follows,

$$\left[ \begin{array}{ccc|c} d_8 & d_7 & d_6 & p_6 \\ d_5 & d_4 & d_3 & p_5 \\ d_2 & d_1 & d_0 & p_4 \\ p_3 & p_2 & p_1 & p_0 \end{array} \right] \equiv \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|c} c_{15} & c_{14} & c_{13} & c_{12} \\ c_{11} & c_{10} & c_9 & c_8 \\ c_7 & c_6 & c_5 & c_4 \\ c_3 & c_2 & c_1 & c_0 \end{array} \right] \quad 2$$

A single bit error will cause a parity check error in the associated row and column thus identifying the bit in error. This bit must then be complemented to correct the error.

This approach is much less complicated than the syndrome based decoder.

[4]

$$Q3. (a) \quad p(t) = e^{j\phi_0} \sum_k b_k g(t - kT_b)$$

A real modulated signal is generated from a phasor waveform  $p(t)$  by

$$s(t) = \text{Re} [ p(t) e^{j\omega_c t} ]$$

where  $\omega_c$  is the carrier freq in rad/s. Hence

$$\begin{aligned} s(t) &= \text{Re} \left[ e^{j\phi_0} \sum_k b_k g(t - kT_b) e^{j\omega_c t} \right] \\ &= \left[ \sum_k b_k g(t - kT_b) \right] \cdot \cos(\omega_c t + \phi_0) \end{aligned}$$

$g(t)$  is positive, &  $b_k = \pm 1$ , & on the  $k^{\text{th}}$  bit period the waveform is  $\pm a_0 \cos(\omega_c t + \phi_0)$ .

$\therefore$  The two carrier phases are  $\phi_0$  and  $\phi_0 + \pi$ , depending on the polarity of  $b_k$ .

$$\begin{aligned} (b) \quad r(t) &= p(t) + p_N(t) \\ &= p(t) + (n_1(t) + j n_2(t)) e^{j\phi_0} \\ &= e^{j\phi_0} \left[ \sum_k b_k g(t - kT_b) + n_1(t) + j n_2(t) \right] \\ y(k) &= G \int_{kT_b}^{(k+1)T_b} \text{Re} [ r(t) g(t - kT_b) ] e^{-j\phi_0} dt \\ &= G \int_{kT_b}^{(k+1)T_b} \text{Re} \left[ \sum_k b_k g(t - kT_b) + n_1(t) + j n_2(t) \right] g(t - kT_b) dt \end{aligned}$$

Q3. (b cont.)

$$= G \int_{kT_b}^{(k+1)T_b} \operatorname{Re} \left[ b_k a_0 + n_1(t) + j n_2(t) \right] a_0 dt$$

$$= G \int_{kT_b}^{(k+1)T_b} \left[ b_k a_0^2 + a_0 n_1(t) \right] dt$$

$$\therefore y(k) = G a_0 \left[ b_k a_0^2 + \int_{kT_b}^{(k+1)T_b} n_1(t) dt \right]$$

This only depends on  $n_1(t)$ , as  $n_2(t)$  disappears in the  $\operatorname{Re}[\cdot]$  operation on  $(n_1 + j n_2)$ .

(c) ~~This~~ The signal component is  $G a_0^2 b_k T_b$   
 & the noise component is  $G a_0 \int_{kT_b}^{(k+1)T_b} n_1(t) dt$ .

The two signal voltages will be  $\pm G a_0^2 T_b$ .

Using freq domain analysis, the noise voltage is

$$G \int_{kT_b}^{(k+1)T_b} g\left(t - \frac{1}{2}kT_b - kT_b\right) n_1(t) dt$$

$$= G \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} n_1(t) h\left((k+1)T_b - t\right) dt \quad \text{where } h(t) = g\left(T_b - t\right)$$

This is a convolution with a filter with impulse resp.  $h(t)$   
 so we use Parseval's theorem to analyse this in freq domain.

Q3 (c cont).

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Mean noise power from filter} &= G^2 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |N_1(\omega) H(\omega)|^2 d\omega \\ &= G^2 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |N_1(\omega)|^2 \cdot |H(\omega)|^2 d\omega \end{aligned}$$

But  $|N_1(\omega)|^2 = \frac{N_0}{2} \text{ watt/Hz} = \frac{N_0}{4\pi} \text{ watt/(rad/s)}$ ,  
since the noise power in  $P_N$  is split equally between  $n_1$  &  $n_2$ .

~~$\frac{N_0}{2} \text{ watt/Hz}$~~

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \text{Mean noise power from filter} &= \frac{G^2 N_0}{4\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |H(\omega)|^2 d\omega \\ &= \frac{G^2 N_0}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |h(t)|^2 dt \quad \text{by Parseval's theorem} \\ &= \frac{G^2 N_0}{2} \cdot a_0^2 T_b = \frac{G^2 N_0}{2} \cdot E_b \end{aligned}$$

since  $E_b = a_0^2 T_b$ , (the energy per bit in  $p(t)$ ).

$$\therefore \text{RMS noise voltage from } y(k), = \sqrt{\frac{G^2 N_0 E_b}{2}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \text{Signal/Noise voltage ratio} &= G a_0^2 T_b / \sqrt{\frac{G^2 N_0 E_b}{2}} \\ &= \frac{G E_b}{G \sqrt{\frac{N_0 E_b}{2}}} = \underline{\underline{\sqrt{\frac{2 E_b}{N_0}}}} \end{aligned}$$

Q3 (d) When ~~At each state~~ Gaussian noise is added to a signal of voltage  $\pm V$  at a detector, the probability of error, when the detection threshold is zero, is given by

$$\text{Prob of error} = Q\left(\frac{V}{\sigma}\right) \quad \text{where } Q(x) = \int_x^{\infty} f(u) \frac{du}{\sigma}$$

$\cdot f(u)$  is a unit variance, zero-mean, Gaussian pdf.

Hence in this case

$$\text{Prob of error} = Q\left(\sqrt{\frac{2E_b}{N_0}}\right) \quad \text{since } \frac{V}{\sigma} \text{ is the voltage SNR.}$$

There are standard approximation formulae or tables to allow  $Q(\cdot)$  to be easily calculated.

e) The probability of error for QPSK is also  $Q\left(\sqrt{\frac{2E_b}{N_0}}\right)$ , the same as for BPSK.

This is because half of the signal power appears on each ~~carrier~~ of the two quadrature carriers of QPSK, but the symbol period is also doubled, so the energy per bit on each subcarrier is the same as for the overall QPSK signal. The noise is independent of modulation.

$E_b/N_0$  remains the same for BPSK and QPSK. QPSK can be demodulated as 2 separate BPSK signals.

Q4. (a) The Power Spectral Density  $P(\omega)$  is the Fourier Transform of the autocorrelation function,  $r_{bb}(z)$ .

The signal spectrum  $S(\omega)$  is the spectrum  $P(\omega)$ , shifted up by  $\omega_c$  & down by  $-\omega_c$ , where  $\omega_c$  is the carrier frequency & the shifted down spectrum is negated in freq & conjugated.

$$\text{Hence } S(\omega) = \frac{1}{2} [P(\omega - \omega_c) + P^*(-(\omega + \omega_c))]$$

(b) The autocorrelation function of a modulated multi-level signal is derived from the discrete ACF of the symbols:  $R(L) = E(S_k \cdot S_{k-L})$

If  $S_k$  and  $S_{k-L}$  are uncorrelated and zero-mean when  $L \neq 0$ , then  $E(S_k \cdot S_{k-L}) = 0$  when  $L \neq 0$ .

When  $L=0$ ,  $E(S_k \cdot S_{k-L}) = E(S_k^2) = E_s$ , the energy per symbol.

$$\text{Hence } R(L) = \begin{cases} E_s & \text{for } L=0 \\ 0 & \text{for } L \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

Q4 (b-cont.)

The autocorrelation func. of the stream of data impulses  $b(t) = \sum_k s_k \delta(t - kT_s)$  is

$$r_{bb}(\tau) = \frac{1}{T_s} \sum_L R(L) \delta(t - kT_s) = \frac{1}{T_s} \cdot E_s \delta(\tau)$$

The Power Spectrum of  $b(t)$  is then

$$\therefore |B(\omega)|^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} r_{bb}(\tau) e^{-j\omega\tau} d\tau = \frac{E_s}{T_s}$$

We want the <sup>power</sup>spectrum of  $p(t) = \sum_k s_k g(t - kT_s)$

where  $g(t)$  is a rectangular pulse of duration  $T_s$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore |P(\omega)|^2 &= |B(\omega)|^2 |G(\omega)|^2 = \frac{E_s}{T_s} \cdot a_0^2 T_s^2 \text{sinc}^2\left(\frac{\omega T_s}{2}\right) \\ &= E_s \cdot a_0^2 T_s \text{sinc}^2\left(\frac{\omega T_s}{2}\right) \end{aligned}$$

Hence the bandwidth of the  $\text{sinc}^2$  function depends only on  $\frac{1}{T_s}$  (the symbol rate) and not on the number of modulation levels.

(c) In a  $M^2$ -QAM system there are 2 <sup>quadrature</sup> subcarriers, each conveying  $\log_2 M$  bits per transmitted symbol, using  $M$ -level amplitude modulation (with zero mean).  
Hence  $T_s = 2 \cdot \log_2 M \cdot T_b$ , where  $T_b$  is the bit period of the data stream.

Q4 (c - cont.)

Given the  $\text{sinc}^2\left(\frac{\omega T_s}{2}\right)$  term in the expression for  $|P(\omega)|^2$  in part (b), the main lobe will extend from

$$\frac{\omega T_s}{2} = -\pi \quad \text{to} \quad \frac{\omega T_s}{2} = +\pi.$$

ie from  $f = -\frac{2\pi}{T_s} \cdot \frac{1}{2\pi} = -\frac{1}{T_s}$  to  $f = +\frac{1}{T_s}$  Hz.

$\therefore$  Width of main lobe =  $\frac{2}{T_s}$  Hz =  $\frac{1}{(\log_2 M) \cdot T_B}$

(d) As  $M$  increases, then the bandwidth reduces in proportion to  $\frac{1}{\log_2 M}$ . This reduces quite quickly at first, ~~but~~ for  $M=2, 4, 8$  but rapidly becomes slower as  $M$  increases.

On the other hand the resilience to noise reduces quickly as  $M$  increases since the distance between constellation state is proportional to  $\sqrt{E_s/M}$ .

Hence small  $M$  (eg  $\approx M=2$  for QPSK) are used where bandwidth can be relatively wide, but ~~the~~ resilience to noise is very important (eg Digital Audio Broadcasting to vehicles), whereas larger  $M$  (eg  $M=8$  giving 64-QAM) are used where bandwidth must be ~~reduced~~ minimised & where noise can be reduced by high-gain directional antennae (eg. Digital TV to homes.).