

$$\begin{aligned}
 I(x; y) &= H(y) - H(y/x) \\
 &= 0.97095 - 0.12451 \\
 &= 0.12451 \text{ bits.}
 \end{aligned}$$

The uncertainty about y about 0.12451

Module - 3.

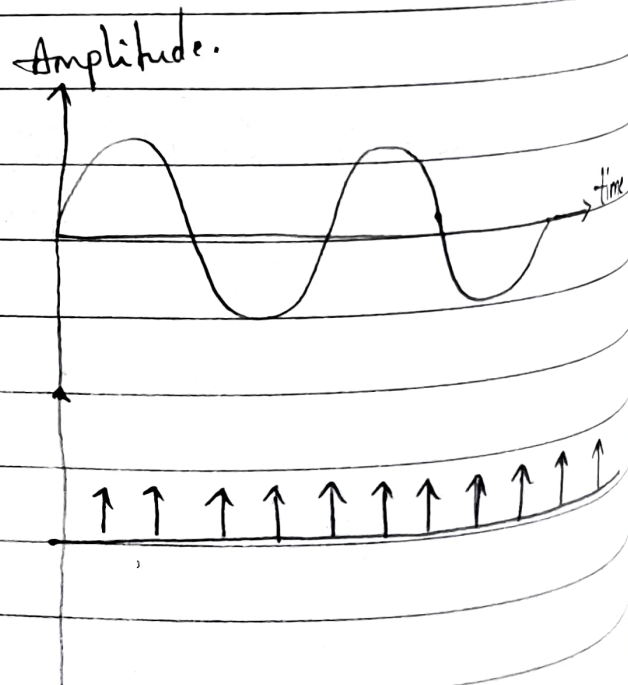
PCM - Pulse Code Modulation.

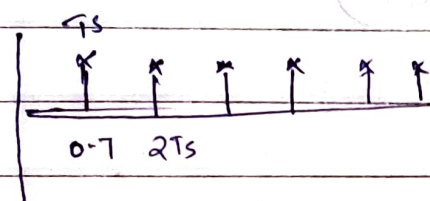
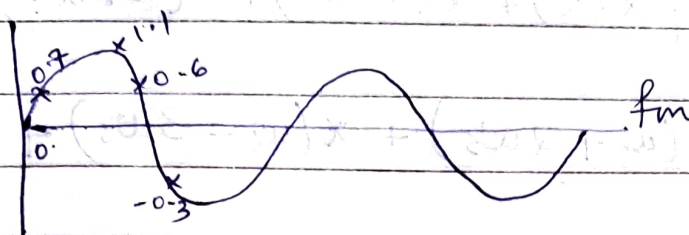
DPCM - Differentiated Pulse Code Modulation.

Delta Modulation.

Analog Signal.

1. Sampling.
 2. Quantization.
 3. Coding.
- Digital Signal.





Sampling Sgnl.

$$f_N = f_s = 2f_m.$$

Sampling Theorem.

A continuous-time signal may be completely represented in its samples & recovered back if the sampling freq is $f_s \geq f_m$.

$$g(t) = x(t) \delta T_s(t) \quad \rightarrow (1)$$

$$\delta T_s(t) = \frac{1}{T_s} [1 + 2\cos \omega_s t + 2\cos 2\omega_s t + 2\cos 3\omega_s t + \dots] \quad \rightarrow (2)$$

$$\omega_s = 2\pi f_s$$

Sub (2) in (1).

$$g(t) = \frac{1}{T_s} x(t) + 2x(t) \cos \omega_s t + 2x(t) \cos 2\omega_s t + 2x(t) \cos 3\omega_s t + \dots$$

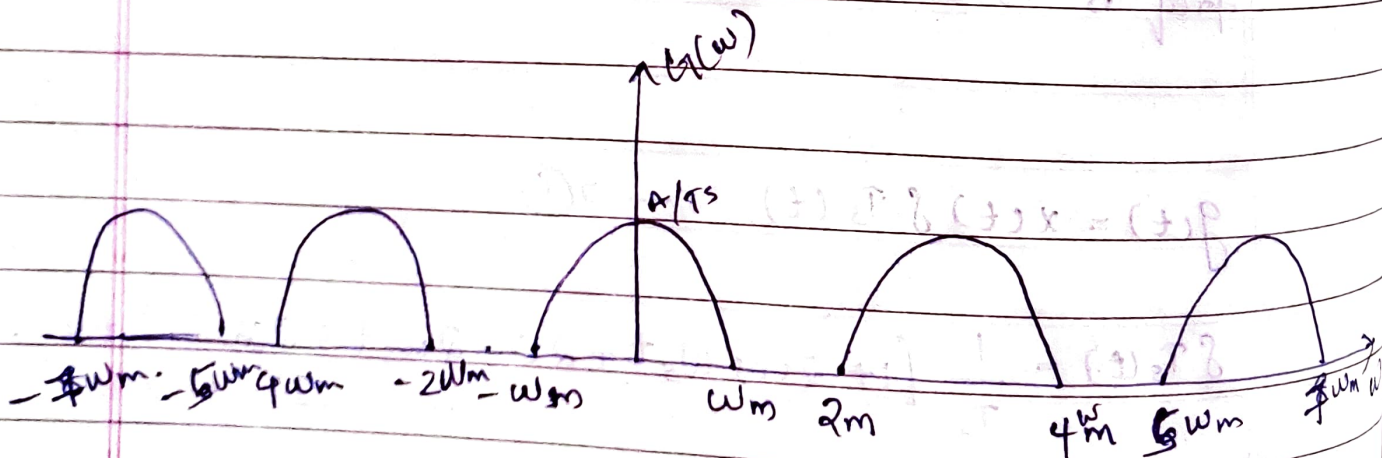
$$G(\omega) = \frac{1}{T_s} \left[x(\omega) + x(\omega - \omega_s) + x(\omega + \omega_s) + x(\omega - 2\omega_s) + x(\omega + 2\omega_s) + x(\omega - 3\omega_s) + x(\omega + 3\omega_s) + \dots \right]$$

$$G(\omega) = \frac{1}{T_s} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(\omega - n\omega_s)$$

CASE - 1 $[\omega_s > 2\omega_m]$

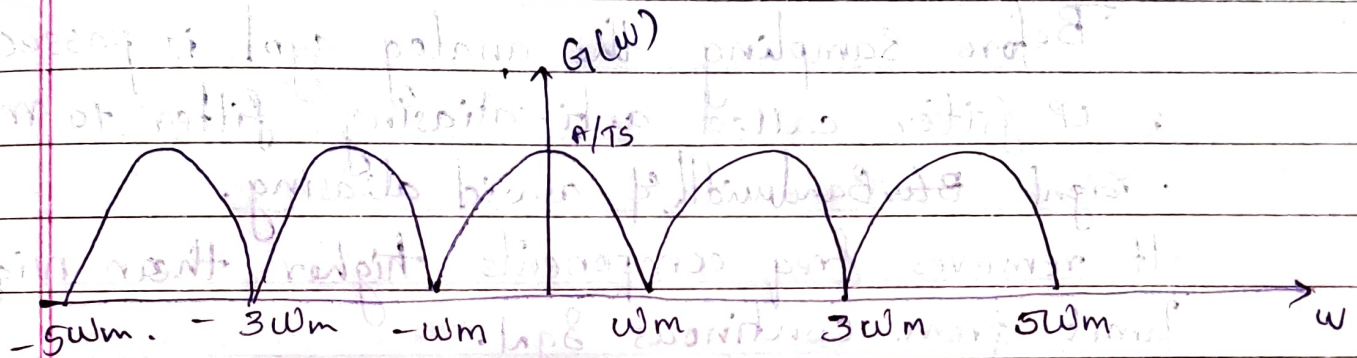
Eg:- $\omega_s = 3\omega_m$.

$$G(\omega) = \frac{1}{T_s} \left[x(\omega) + x(\omega - 3\omega_m) + x(\omega + 3\omega_m) + x(\omega - 6\omega_m) + x(\omega + 6\omega_m) + \dots \right]$$



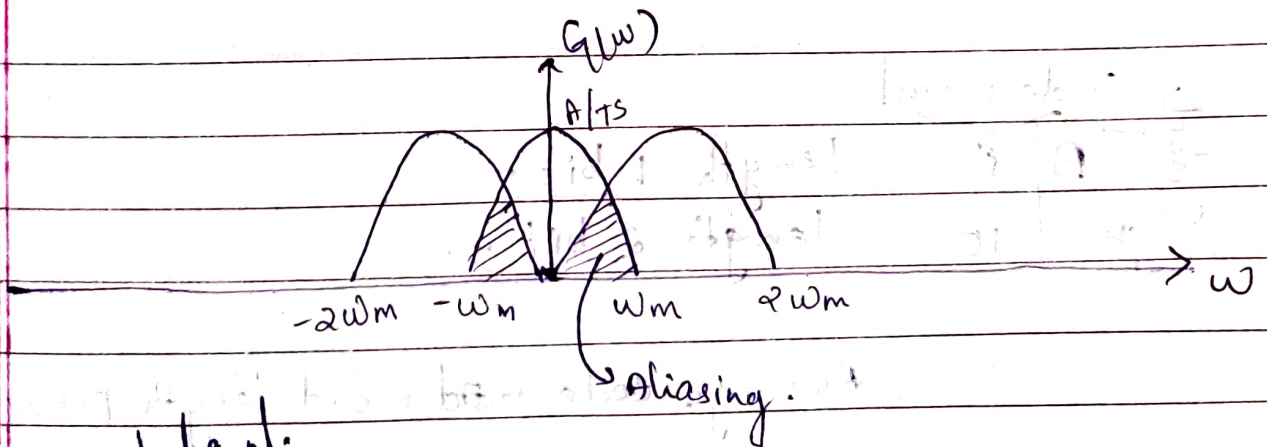
CASE - 2 $[\omega_s = 2\omega_m]$

$$G(\omega) = 1/T_s \left[x(\omega) + x(\omega - 2\omega_m) + x(\omega + 2\omega_m) + x(\omega - 4\omega_m) + x(\omega + 4\omega_m) + \dots \right]$$

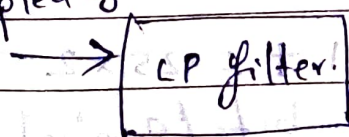


CASE - 3 $[\omega_s < 2\omega_m]$
 $(\omega_s = \omega_m)$

$$G(\omega) = 1/T_s \left[x(\omega) + x(\omega - \omega_m) + x(\omega + \omega_m) + x(\omega - 2\omega_m) + x(\omega + 2\omega_m) + \dots \right]$$



Sampled Sgnl.



msg Sgnl.

Reconstruction filter.

→ Aliasing is the overlapping of adjacent components when the sampling freq $f_s < 2f_m$.

PRE-Filtering [Anti-Aliasing filter]

Before sampling the analog signal is passed through a LP filter called anti-aliasing filter to restrict

• Signal Bandwidth & avoid aliasing.

It removes freq components higher than Nyquist limit from continuous signal.

Source Coding

Source

→ Symbols { A, B, C, ...
1, 2, 3, ...

Code word

Symbol

A	1
B	10

length 1 bit.

length 2 bit.

Average code word length per Symbol

$$L = 0.75 \times 1 + 0.25 \times 2$$

$$= 1.25 \text{ bits/symbol.}$$

→ Aliasing is the overlapping of adjacent components when the sampling freq $f_s < 2f_m$.

PRE-Filtering [Anti-Aliasing filter]

Before sampling the analog signal is passed through a LP filter called anti-aliasing filter to restrict

Signal Bandwidth & avoid aliasing.

It removes freq components higher than Nyquist limit from continuous signal.

Source Coding

Source → Symbols { A, B, C, ...
1, 2, 3, ...

Symbol	Code word	length
A	1	length 1 bit.
B	10	length 2 bit.

Average code word length per Symbol

$$L = 0.75 \times 1 + 0.25 \times 2$$

$$= 1.25 \text{ bits/symbol.}$$

- In source coding each source symbol [like a letter, digit or signal sample] is assigned a code word [a seq. of bits]. Some symbols may have shorter code words [if they occur often] & some may have longer code words [if they occur rarely] if the source symbols are $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$
- each symbol x_i has probability P_i
- Each symbol is assigned a code length l_i (in bits)
- Then avg code word length per symbol

$$L = \sum_{i=1}^n P_i l_i$$

- Entropy $H(x)$ is the min possible avg no. of bits per symbol needed to represent a source.

3M Shanon's Source Coding Theorem

For a discrete memory less source with entropy $H(x)$, it is possible to encode the o/p of the source into binary digits such that the avg. code word length per symbol L satisfy

$$H(x) \leq L \leq H(x) + 1$$

ie, No source can be encoded with an avg. code word length ~~th~~ less than its entropy.

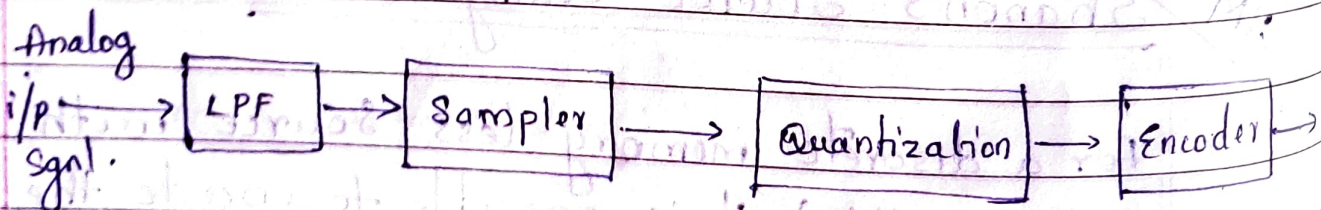
Source Coding Theorem II

Shanon's Noiseless

For a discrete memory less source with entropy $H(x)$ if the source code is encoded with rate $R \geq H(x)$ bit/symbol. Then it is possible to encode & decode with arbitrarily small probab. with error by choosing sufficiently long code words [large block length].

In short entropy $H(x)$ is the min compression rate achievable without loss of infor.

Pulse Code Modulation. PCM



It is a method to digitally represent digital signal. It is the most common technique for converting an analog signal (like, voice, music, sensor data) into

digital form, so that it can be processed, stored or transmitted by digital systems.

The block diagram of PCM transmitter is shown in fig.

1. Low Pass Filter.

- Removes freq. above the max msg sgnl freq. ' f_m '
- Prevents aliasing during sampling.

2. Sampler

- Takes discrete values (samples) from the continuous time analog sgnl at uniform time intervals.
- Sampling convert the continuous time i/p sgnl into discrete time sgnl.
- To avoid loss of information, the sampling freq ' f_s '
 $f_s \geq 2f_m$
where f_m - max freq. of continuous time sgnl.

3. Quantizer

- Each sampled value is mapped to nearest quantisation level.
- The range of the sgnl is divided into L levels.
(uniform or Non-uniform)
- Each sample is rounded (approximated)
- Introducing a quantisation error (Quantisation noise)

- If we use 'n' bits per sample, then no. of quantisation level $L = 2^n$
Eg :- 8 bits = 256 (2^8) quantisation

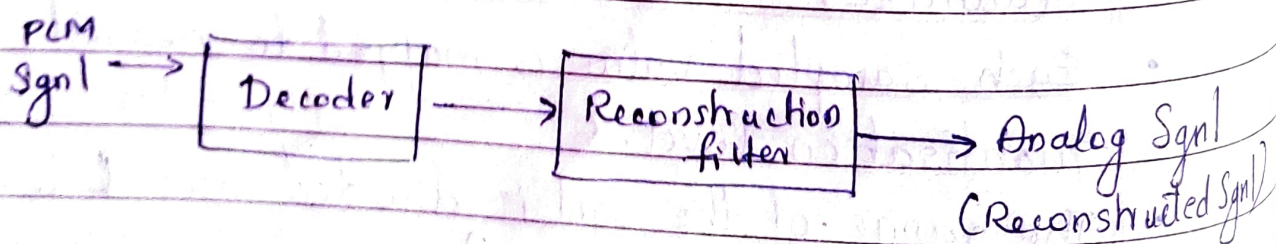
4. Encoder

- each quantised level is assigned a binary code. These binary no. form the PCM digital signal.
- The no. of bits per sample (n) decides the resolution (fidelity of reconstruction) & bit rate

5. Transmission

The stream of binary codes is transmitted as a seq of electric pulse, light pulse (fiber optics) or radio waves.

PCM - Receiver



1. Decoding.

Binary Code $\rightarrow$ Quantization Signal Levels.

2. Reconstruction

It is a LPF that smoothen the staircase like quantised signal back to a continuous time analog wave form.

Bit Rate of PCM

The total bitrate required for PCM is

$$R_b = n \times f_s$$

$n \rightarrow$ no. of bits/sample

$f_s \rightarrow$ Sampling freq

Eg :- For voice (bandwidth = 4 kHz)

$$f_s = 8 \text{ kHz (8000 Hz)}$$

$$n = 8 \text{ bit/sample}$$

$$\begin{aligned} R_b &= 8 \times 8000 = 64000 \text{ bit per sec} \\ &= 64 \text{ kbps} \end{aligned}$$

Advantages of PCM.

1. High Noise Immunity.
2. Easy to store, process & Multiplex
3. Process Compactable with digital systems & Encryption
4. Standardized [used in telephone, CD, DVD, digital audio]

Disadvantages of PCM

1. Require higher bandwidth compare to analog transmission.
2. More complex circuitry.
3. Quantization introduce distortion/noise.

Applications

1. Digital Telephone [standard 64 kbps voice channels]
2. Audio CD, DVDs, blue-ray disc
3. Satelight & Space Communication.
4. Video & image transmission.
5. Data transmission in computer network.

1. A PCM system uses a uniform quantizer followed by an 8 bit encoder. If the bitrate of the system is 108 bps. Then what is the max bandwidth of the lowpass msg sgnl for which the system operates satisfactorily.

$$R_b = 108 \text{ bps} \quad R_b = n f_s, n = 8 \text{ bits.}$$

$$= 108 = 8 \times f_s$$

$$f_s = \frac{108}{8} = 13.5 \text{ samples/sec.}$$

Nyquist Criteria

$$f_s \geq 2f_m$$

$$f_m \leq \frac{f_s}{2}$$

for satisfactory operation the max msg sgnl bandwidth must be $\leq$ half of the sampling rate.

$$f_m \leq \frac{13.5}{2} \leq \underline{\underline{6.75 \text{ Hz}}}$$

$\therefore$ The max bandwidth of LP msg sgnl is 6.75 Hz.

Waveform Coding.

Continuous time sgnl $\longrightarrow$ Digital.
(Analog)

It is a source coding technique used in digital communication system, where the goal is to represent a continuous time sgnl (waveform) in digital form, so that it can be efficiently transmitted or stored.

Instead of transmitting the original analog sgnl, waveform coding samples it, quantizes the samples into discrete values & then encodes them to binary form.

The process aims to preserve the essential shape (waveform) of the sgnl, by reducing the amount of data.

3 Main Steps in Waveform Coding :-

- 1) Sampling
- 2) Quantization
- 3) Encoding.

Quantization is the process of approximating a continuous amplitude sgnl into discrete amplitude sgnl.

→ It is a key step PCM after Sampling.

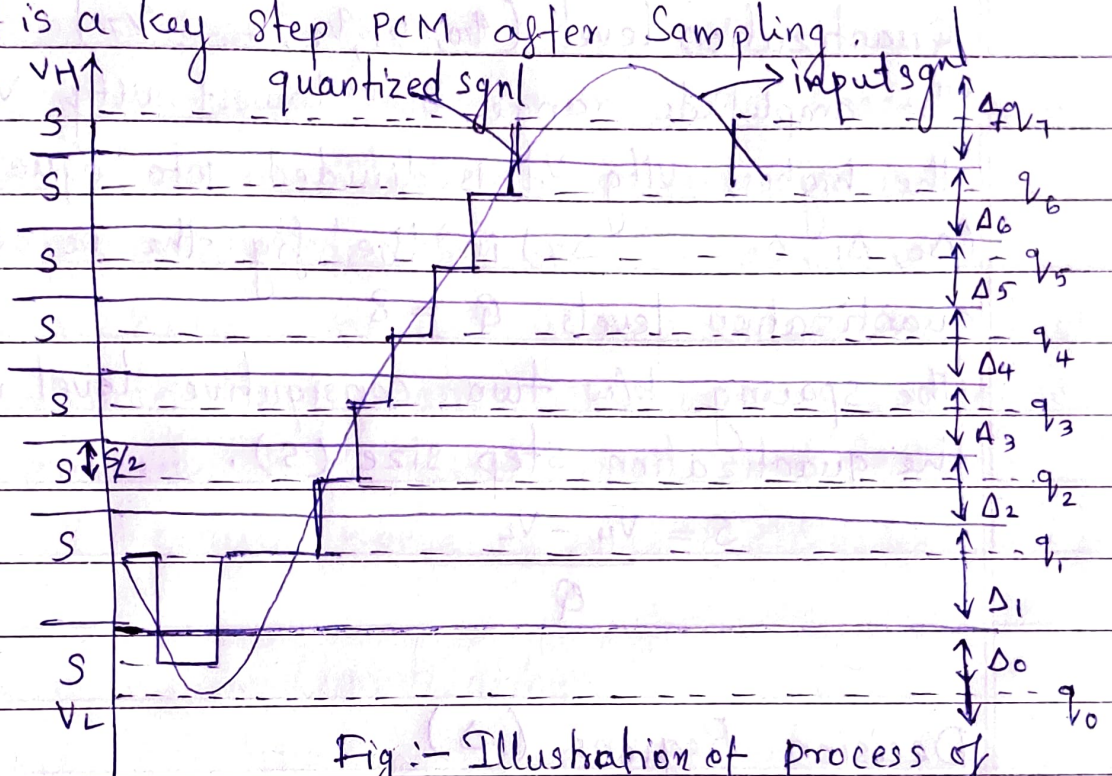


Fig:- Illustration of process of quantization.

$$S = \frac{V_H - V_L}{\text{No. of quantisation level.}}$$

i/p signal $x(t)$ is the continuous time, continuous amplitude signal, it varies smoothly with time.

Quantized signal $x_q(t)$

The i/p signal $x(t)$ is approximated to the nearest quantization level shown as horizontal steps (in the fig). Instead of true amplitude value, the quantized signal now takes only a finite set of levels $q_0, q_1, q_2, \dots, q_7$.

Quantization level ($q_0, q_1, q_2, \dots, q_7$)

The amplitude range b/w lowest vltg V_L & the highest vltg V_H is divided into equal intervals ($\Delta_0, \Delta_1, \Delta_2, \dots, \Delta_7$) in the fig the no. of quantization levels $Q = 8$

The spacing b/w two consecutive level is called the quantization step size (S).

$$S = \frac{V_H - V_L}{Q}$$

Decision Regions (Δ)

Each interval ($\Delta_0, \Delta_1, \dots, \Delta_7$) is a region where any i/p value gets mapped into the same quantization level.

Eg:- If $x(t)$ falls inside Δ_3 it is rounded into level q_3 .

Quantization Noise (Error)

The shaded diff between the original sig $x(t)$ & quantized version $x_q(t)$ is the quantization error. This is the error due to rounding.

Smaller step size S meets lesser error.

Increasing the no. of levels Q reduces this error but require more bits for coding.

Uniform Quantization

The quantization levels are equally spaced across the entire amplitude range. Step size is same for all i/p amplitudes for signals like speech or audio which have to more low amp. values than high amplitude values, as, uniform quantisation produces high quantization error for weak signal (because noise is more noticeable there)

Non Uniform Quantization.

Here quantization values are not equally spaced, small step size for low amplitude (to reduce quantization error) & large step size for high amplitudes (where noise is less noticeable).

Companding.

Companding = Compressing + Expanding.

~~At transmitt~~ At the Transmitter, the amplitude of the i/p signal is compressed [large amp. are reduced more than small amplitudes]. At the receiver the signal is expanded back to its original form

Significants of Comparators.

- Improve Sgnl to quantisation noise ratio.
- In uniform quantisation low amplitudes suffer from high quantisation noise—companding reduces this effect by allocating more quantisation levels to weaker Sgnls & fewer to stronger levels.
- Efficient use of bits.
- Reduces Quantisation error. for low level Sgnls.
- Maintains dynamic range.

$$\text{dynamic range} = \frac{\text{max possible Sgnl amp}}{\text{min detectable Sgnl amp}}$$

it indicates how well a system can handle both very weak & very strong Sgnls

Common Companding Law

- 1). μ -law : used in Northamerica & Japan.
- 2). A-law : used in Europe & India

μ -Law Companding (mp-law) Nonuniform Quantization Technique

- It is a companding technique used to mainly in PCM system. It compresses the dynamic range of analog signals before quantization & transmission. & then expands them back at receiver.
- The goal is to improve the signal to quantisation noise ratio, especially for weak signals like speech

Compression Law (at transmitter)

The i/p signal amplitude x is compressed using the μ -law formula.

$$y = \frac{\ln \left(1 + \mu \frac{|x|}{x_{\max}} \right)}{\ln(1 + \mu)} \cdot \text{Sgn}(x)$$

$x \rightarrow$ i/p signal amplitude.

$x_{\max} \rightarrow$ max amplitude of i/p signal.

$y \rightarrow$ Compressed signal

$\mu \rightarrow$ Compression parameter ($\mu = 255$),

$\text{Sgn}(x) \rightarrow$ Preserves the sign of i/p (+/-)

Expansion Law (at receiver)

At the receiver the compressed signal is expanded back using the formula

$$x = \text{sgn}(y) \cdot X_{\max} \cdot \frac{(1+\mu)^{|y|} - 1}{\mu}$$

- ① For a non-uniform μ -law quantizer compute quantized value of a signal that is normalised to 0.75 with $\mu = 255$

Let, $X_{\max} = 1$

$x = 0.75$

$\mu = 255$

$\text{sgn}(x) = +1$, Since i/p is +ve.

$y = ?$

$$y = \frac{\ln \left(1 + \mu \cdot \frac{|x|}{X_{\max}} \right)}{\ln(1+\mu)} \cdot \text{sgn}(x)$$

$$= \frac{\ln \left(1 + 255 \times 0.75 \right)}{\ln(1+255)} \times 1$$

$$= \frac{5.257}{5.545} = \underline{\underline{0.948}}$$

for a normalized i/p $x = 0.75$, $\mu = 255$ the μ -law quantized value is 0.948.

- ② Expand the compressed value back & show it recovers the original.

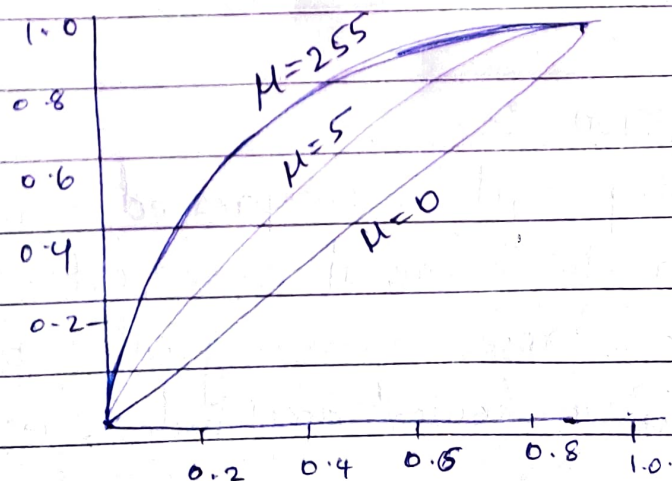
$$x = \text{Sgn}(y) \cdot X_{\max} \cdot \frac{(1 + \mu)^{|y|}}{\mu}$$

$$= 1 \times 1 \times \frac{(1 + 255)^{0.948}}{255}$$

$$= \frac{256 - 1}{255} \Rightarrow \frac{192.25 - 1}{255}$$

$$= \frac{191.25}{255} = 0.75$$

μ -law Compressor characteristics.



→ It is used in pulse code modulation.

Application :-

→ μ law companding is a non-uniform quantisation technique that applies logarithmic compression before quantisation & expansion after reception, giving better SNR (Sgnl to noise) for low amplitude sgnl & efficient use of quantisation levels. Larger the value of μ , results in larger compression of o/p to i/p with higher amplitudes. It is widely used in digital telephone (PCM system, G711 std).

Recent digital syst uses 8 bit PCM with $\mu=255$

A-law Companding

It is a form of companding, involves both compression & expansion.

Compression :-

The analog sgnl is compressed using a non-linear transfer fn before it is converted into a digital sgnl. This process gives a greater proportional emphasis to lower amplitude sgnls. The formula for

The formula for A-law compression for normalised i/p 'x' is

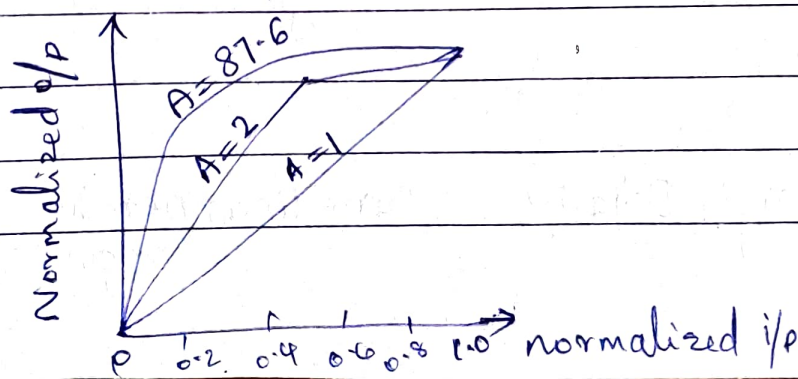
$$y = \begin{cases} \frac{A|x|}{1 + \ln(A)}, & \text{if } 0 \leq |x| \leq \frac{1}{A} \\ \frac{1 + \ln(A|x|)}{1 + \ln(A)}, & \text{if } \frac{1}{A} < |x| \leq 1 \end{cases}$$

where, A = Compression parameter.
its typical value is 87.6

Expansion :-

At the receiving end an inverse fn is applied to the digital signal to expand it back to its original dynamic range restoring the signal with minimal loss of information.

A-law Compressor Characteristics.



Application :-

A-law companding is essential for pulse code Modulation System in digital telephony. It allows for the efficient encoding of a wide dynamic range of speech signals into a smaller no. of bits, typically converting a 12 or 13-bit linear signal to an 8-bit non-linear digital signal. This reduction in bit depth is a key reason for the widespread use of 64 Kbps in digital voice communication, which is a standard data range for a single voice channel.

Features

A-law

 μ -law.

Region of use

Europe & rest of the world

North America / Japan

Compression parameter

 $A = 87.6$ $\mu = 255$

Primary Difference

Slightly better signal to noise ratio than μ -law for higher amplitude signals

Slightly larger dynamic range than A-law at the expense of lower SNR for small signals.

Origin Behavior

Curve linear near the origin

Curve is logarithmic near the origin.

- ① Determine the stepsize (Δ) of a DM if the i/p is $10 \cos(2000\pi t)$ & Sampling size is 50000 samples per sec.

Ans - To find Δ ?

Condition to avoid slope overload distortion

$$\left| \frac{dx(t)}{dt} \right|_{\max} \leq \frac{\Delta}{T_s} \leq f_s \longrightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

Given, $x(t) = 10 \cos(2000\pi t)$

$f_s = 50000$

$$\frac{dx(t)}{dt} = 10 \times (-2000\pi) \sin(2000\pi t)$$

$$= -20000\pi \sin(2000\pi t)$$

$$\left| \frac{dx(t)}{dt} \right|_{\max} = \underline{\underline{20000\pi}}$$

Sub it in eqn $\textcircled{1}$

$$20000\pi \leq \Delta f_s$$

$$\frac{20000\pi}{f_s} \leq \Delta$$

$$\frac{20000}{50000} = \frac{1.256}{1} \pi \leq \Delta$$

min stepsize must be $\underline{\underline{1.256}}$ V to avoid slope overload distortion.

- ② The i/p to the DM is a sinusoidal signal whose freq. varies from 500 to 5000 Hz, Sampling rate is 4 times the nyquist rate. The signal peak amplitude is 1V. Determine the step size. when the sampling freq is 1000 Hz

To avoid stp overload distortion

$$\left| \frac{dx(t)}{dt} \right|_{\max} \leq \frac{\Delta}{T_s} \rightarrow (1)$$

$$f_m = 5000 \text{ Hz}$$

$$\text{peak amplitude} = 1 \text{ V}$$

$$x(t) = A \cos 2\pi f_m t \rightarrow \text{Sine Sgnl.}$$

$$\frac{dx(t)}{dt} = -A \times (2\pi f_m) \cdot \sin(2\pi f_m t)$$

$$\left| \frac{dx(t)}{dt} \right|_{\max} = A \cdot 2\pi f_m \rightarrow (2)$$

Sub (2) in (1)

$$A \cdot 2\pi f_m \leq \frac{\Delta}{T_s} \Rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{l} \Delta \geq 2\pi A f_m T_s \\ \Delta \geq 2\pi A \frac{f_m}{T_s} \end{array} \right]$$

$$g_n; A = 1 \text{ V}$$

$$f_m = 5000 \text{ Hz}$$

$$f_s = 1000 \text{ Hz}$$

Sub these in eqn ③

$$\Delta \geq \frac{2\pi A f_m}{f_s} = \frac{2\pi \times 5000}{1000}$$

$$\Delta \geq \underline{\underline{10\pi}}$$

$$\Delta \geq \underline{\underline{31.4 \text{ V}}}$$

$$g_n; f_s = 4 f_N$$

$$f_N = 2 f_m$$

$$= 8 f_m$$

$$= 8 \times 5000$$

$$= 40000$$

$$\Delta \geq \frac{2\pi \times 1 \times 5000}{40000}$$

$$\Delta \geq \frac{1}{4} \pi$$

$$\Delta \geq \underline{\underline{0.7854 \text{ V}}}$$

In case I $\Delta \geq 31.4 \text{ V}$ which is larger than signal peak value (1V), And it is not practical. It indicates that with $f_s = 1000 \text{ Hz}$, you cannot follow a 5000 Hz component without severe slope overload.

- ③ A DM with a fixed stepsize 0.75 V is given a Sinesoidal msg sgnl, if the sampling freq is 30 times the nyquist rate determine the max permissible amplitude of msg sgnl if slope overload is to be avoided.

To avoid slope overload distortion $\left| \frac{dx(t)}{dt} \right|_{\max} \leq \frac{\Delta}{T_s} \rightarrow (1)$

$$x(t) = A \cos(2\pi f_m t)$$

$$\left| \frac{dx(t)}{dt} \right|_{\max} = A 2\pi f_m \rightarrow (2)$$

Sub (2) in (1) $\Rightarrow A 2\pi f_m \leq \frac{\Delta}{T_s} \mid A \leq \frac{\Delta f_s}{2\pi f_m}$

gn ; $\Delta \cong 0.75 \text{ V}$

$$\begin{aligned} f_s &= 30 f_m \\ &= 30 \times 2 f_m \\ &= 60 f_m \end{aligned}$$

$$A \leq \frac{\Delta f_s}{2\pi f_m} = \frac{0.75 \times 60 f_m}{2\pi f_m}$$

$$A \leq 7.16 \text{ V}$$

Therefore max permissible amplitude $A_{\max} = 7.16 \text{ V}$.

11.27. DELTA MODULATION

The delta modulator, often denoted Δ modulator, is a process that embeds a low resolution A-to-D converter in a sampled data feedback loop that operates at rates far in excess of the signal's required Nyquist rate.

The motivation for using Delta modulation technique is our awareness that in the conversion process, speed is less expensive than precision, and that by being clever one can use faster signal processing to obtain higher precision.

(i) Reason to use Delta Modulation

We have observed in PCM that it transmits all the bits which are used to code a sample. Hence, signaling rate and transmission channel bandwidth are quite large in PCM. To overcome this problem, Delta Modulation is used.

(ii) Working Principle

Delta modulation transmits only one bit per sample. Here, the present sample value is compared with the previous sample value and this result whether the amplitude is increased or decreased is transmitted. Input signal $x(t)$ is approximated to step signal by the delta modulator. This step size is kept fixed. The difference between the input signal $x(t)$ and staircase approximated signal is confined to two levels, i.e., $+\Delta$ and $-\Delta$. Now, if the difference is positive, then approximated signal is increased by one step, i.e., ' Δ '. If the difference is negative, then approximated signal is reduced by ' Δ '.

When the step is reduced, '0' is transmitted and if the step is increased, '1' is transmitted. Hence, for each sample, only one binary bit is transmitted. Figure 11.27 shows the analog signal $x(t)$ and its staircase approximated signal by the delta modulator.

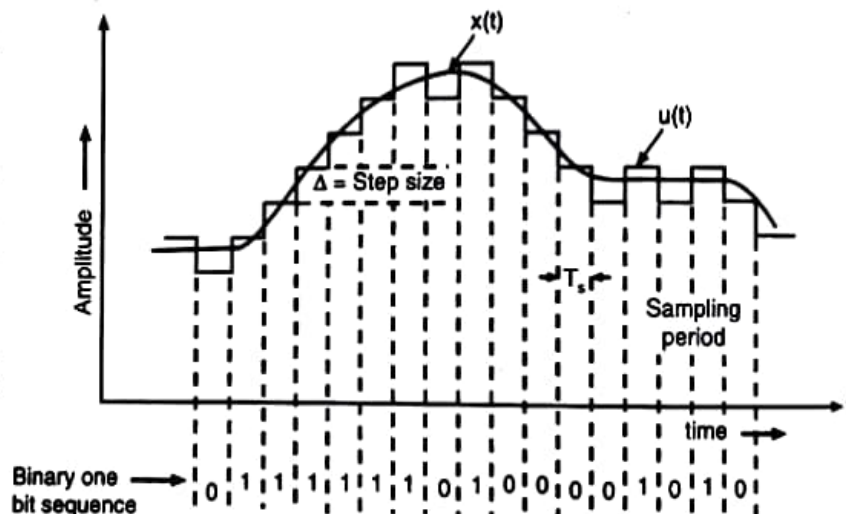


Fig. 11.27. Delta modulation waveform

(iii) Mathematical Expressions

Thus, the principle of delta modulation can be explained with the help of few equations as under:
The error between the sampled value of $x(t)$ and last approximated sample is given as,

$$e(nT_s) = x(nT_s) - \hat{x}(nT_s) \quad \dots(11.55)$$

where

$e(nT_s)$ = error at present sample

$x(nT_s)$ = sampled signal of $x(t)$

$\hat{x}(nT_s)$ = last sample approximation of the staircase waveform.

If we assume $u(nT_s)$ as the present sample approximation of staircase output,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{then, } u[(n-1)T_s] &= \hat{x}(nT_s) \\ &= \text{last sample approximation of staircase waveform} \end{aligned} \quad \dots(11.56)$$

Let us define a quantity $b(nT_s)$ in such a way that,

$$b(nT_s) = \Delta \operatorname{sgn} [e(nT_s)] \quad \dots(11.57)$$

This means that depending on the sign of error $e(nT_s)$, the sign of step size Δ is decided. In other words, we can write

$$b(nT_s) = \begin{cases} +\Delta & \text{if } x(nT_s) \geq \hat{x}(nT_s) \\ -\Delta & \text{if } x(nT_s) < \hat{x}(nT_s) \end{cases} \quad \dots(11.58)$$

Also, If $b(nT_s) = +\Delta$ then a binary '1' is transmitted
 and if $b(nT_s) = -\Delta$ then a binary '0' is transmitted.
 Here, T_s = Sampling interval.

(iv) Transmitter Part

Figure 11.28 (a) shows the transmitter (i.e., generation of Delta Modulated signal).

The summer in the accumulator adds quantizer output ($\pm \Delta$) with the previous sample approximation. This gives present sample approximation. i.e.,

$$u(nT_s) = u(nT_s - T_s) + [\pm \Delta]$$

$$\text{or } u(nT_s) = u[(n-1)T_s] + b(nT_s) \quad \dots(11.59)$$

The previous sample approximation $u[(n-1)T_s]$ is restored by delaying one sample period T_s . The sampled input signal $x(nT_s)$ and staircase approximated signal $\hat{x}(nT_s)$ are subtracted to get error signal $e(nT_s)$.

Thus, depending on the sign of $e(nT_s)$, one bit quantizer generates an output of $+\Delta$ or $-\Delta$. If the step size is $+\Delta$, then binary '1' is transmitted and if it is $-\Delta$, then binary '0' is transmitted.

(v) Receiver Part

At the receiver end, shown in figure 11.28 (b), the accumulator and low-pass filter (LPF) are used. The accumulator generates the staircase approximated signal output and is delayed by one sampling period T_s . It is then added to the input signal. If input is binary '1' then it adds $+\Delta$ step to the previous output (which is delayed). If input is binary '0' then one step ' Δ ' is subtracted from the delayed signal. Also, the low-pass filter has the cutoff frequency equal to highest frequency in $x(t)$. This low-pass filter smoothens the staircase signal to reconstruct original message signal $x(t)$.

11.27.1. Advantages of Delta Modulation: Salient Features of Delta Modulation*

The delta modulation has certain advantages over PCM as under:

- Since, the delta modulation transmits only one bit for one sample, therefore the signaling rate and transmission channel bandwidth is quite small for delta modulation compared to PCM.
- The transmitter and receiver implementation is very much simple for delta modulation. There is no analog to digital converter required in delta modulation.

11.27.2. Drawbacks of Delta Modulation**

The delta modulation has two major drawbacks as under:

- Slope overload distortion,
- Granular or idle noise

Now, let us discuss these two drawbacks in detail.

DO YOU KNOW?

Delta modulation transmits only one bit per sample, indicating whether the signal level is increasing or decreasing, but it needs a higher sampling rate than PCM for equivalent results.

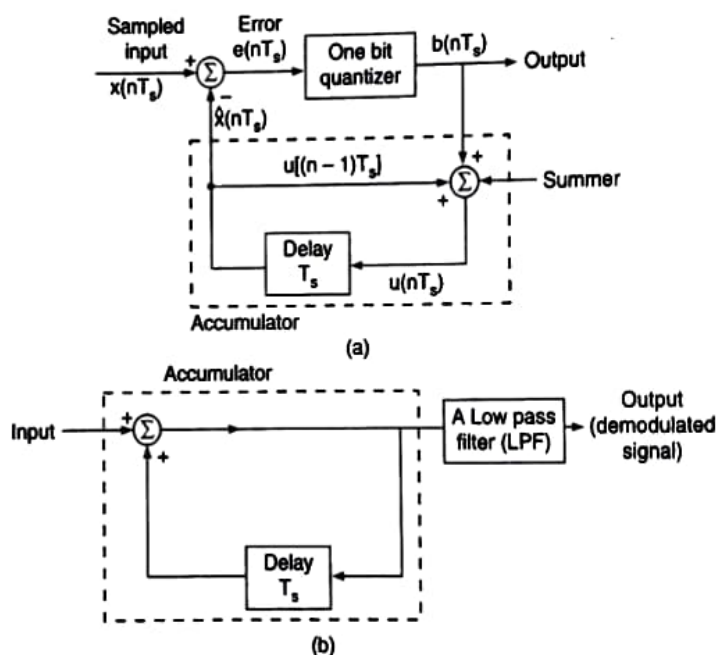


Fig. 11.28. (a) A Delta modulation transmitter
(b) A Delta modulation receiver

* As a matter of fact, digital signals come from a variety of sources. Some sources such as computers are inherently digital. Some sources are analog, but are converted into digital form by a variety of techniques such as PCM and delta modulation (DM).

** Since signal transmission inevitably is subjected to channel noise, such noise will be integrated and will accumulate at the receiver output, which is a highly undesirable phenomenon that is a major drawback of DM.

(i) Slope Overload Distortion

This distortion arises because of large dynamic range of the input signal.

As can be observed from figure 11.29, the rate of rise of input signal $x(t)$ is so high that the staircase signal cannot approximate it, the step size ' Δ ' becomes too small for staircase signal $u(t)$ to follow the step segment of $x(t)$. Hence, there is a large error between the staircase approximated signal and the original input signal $x(t)$. This error or noise is known as **slope overload distortion**. To reduce this error, the step size must be increased when slope of signal $x(t)$ is high. Since the step size of delta modulator remains fixed, its maximum or minimum slopes occur along straight lines. Therefore, this modulator is also known as **Linear Delta Modulator (LDM)**.

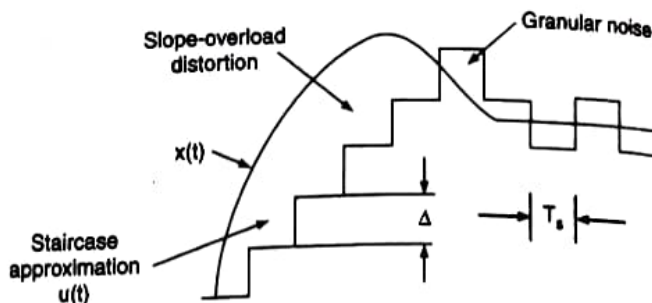


Fig. 11.29. Quantization errors in delta modulation

(ii) Granular or Idle Noise

Granular or Idle noise occurs when the step size is too large compared to small variations in the input signal. This means that for very small variations in the input signal, the staircase signal is changed by large amount (Δ) because of large step size. Figure 11.29 shows that when the input signal is almost flat, the staircase signal $u(t)$ keeps on oscillating by $\pm \Delta$ around the signal. The error between the input and approximated signal is called **granular noise**. The solution to this problem is to make step size small.

Important Point: Therefore, a large step size is required to accommodate wide dynamic range of the input signal (to reduce slope overload distortion) and small steps are required to reduce granular noise. In fact, Adaptive delta modulation is the modification to overcome these errors.

11.27.3. Bit Rate (i.e., Signaling Rate) of Delta Modulation*

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Delta modulation bit rate (r)} &= \text{Number of bits transmitted/second} \\ &= \text{Number of samples/sec} \times \text{Number of bits/sample} = f_s \times 1 = f_s \end{aligned}$$

Key Point: Therefore, the delta modulation bit rate is $(1/N)$ times the bit rate of a PCM system, where N is the number of bits per transmitted PCM codeword. Hence, we can say that the channel bandwidth for the Delta modulation system is reduced to a great extent as compared to that for the PCM system.

Illustrative Examples on Delta Modulation

EXAMPLE 11.13. Given a sine wave of frequency f_m and amplitude A_m applied to a delta modulator having step size Δ . Show that the slope overload distortion will occur if

$$A_m > \frac{\Delta}{2\pi f_m T_s}$$

here T_s is the sampling period.

Solution: Let us consider that the sine wave is represented as,

$$x(t) = A_m \sin(2\pi f_m t)$$

It may be noted that the slope of $x(t)$ will be maximum when derivative of $x(t)$ with respect to ' t ' will be maximum. The maximum slope of delta modulator may be given as,

$$\text{Maximum slope} = \frac{\text{Step size}}{\text{Sampling period}} = \frac{\Delta}{T_s} \quad \dots(i)$$

We know that slope overload distortion will take place if slope of sine wave is greater than slope of delta modulator i.e.,

$$\max \left| \frac{d}{dt} x(t) \right| > \frac{\Delta}{T_s}$$

* Delta modulation, in comparison to PCM (and DPCM), it is a very simple and inexpensive method of A/D conversion. A 1-bit codeword in DM makes word framing unnecessary at the transmitter and the receiver. In fact, this strategy allows us to use fewer bits per sample for encoding a baseband signal.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{or} \quad & \max \left| \frac{d}{dt} A_m \sin(2\pi f_m t) \right| > \frac{\Delta}{T_s} \\ \text{or} \quad & \max |A_m 2\pi f_m \cos(2\pi f_m t)| > \frac{\Delta}{T_s} \\ \text{or} \quad & A_m 2\pi f_m > \frac{\Delta}{T_s} \\ \text{or} \quad & A_m > \frac{\Delta}{2\pi f_m T_s} \quad \text{Hence Proved.} \end{aligned}$$

EXAMPLE 11.14. A delta modulator system is designed to operate at five times the Nyquist rate for a signal having a bandwidth equal to 3 kHz. Calculate the maximum amplitude of a 2 kHz input sinusoidal signal for which the delta modulator does not have slope overload. Given that the quantizing step size is 250 mV. Also, derive the formula that you use.

Solution: In last example, we have derived the relation for slope overload distortion which will occur if,

$$A_m > \frac{\Delta}{2\pi f_m T_s} \quad \dots(i)$$

Thus, slope overload will not occur if,

$$A_m \leq \frac{\Delta}{2\pi f_m T_s} \quad \dots(ii)$$

The maximum frequency in the signal is,

$$f_m = 3 \text{ kHz}$$

Hence, Nyquist rate = $2 f_m = 2 \times 3 \text{ kHz} = 6 \text{ kHz}$

Sampling frequency = 5 times Nyquist rate

or $f_s = 5 \times 6 \text{ kHz} = 30 \text{ kHz}$

Hence, sampling interval,

$$T_s = \frac{1}{f_s} = \frac{1}{30 \times 10^3} \text{ seconds.}$$

Given that step size $\Delta = 250 \text{ mV} = 250 \times 10^{-3} \text{ V} = 0.25 \text{ V}$

Again, Given that $f_m = 2 \text{ kHz} = 2 \times 10^3 \text{ Hz}$

Substituting all these values in equation (ii), we get

$$A_m \leq \frac{0.25}{2\pi \times 2 \times 10^3 \times \frac{1}{30 \times 10^3}}$$

Simplifying, we obtain $A_m \leq 0.6 \text{ volts}$ Ans.