

# **UESTC 3018 - Communication Systems and Principles**

Lecture 18 — From Bits to Symbols, Baseband to Passband

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# From Last Time

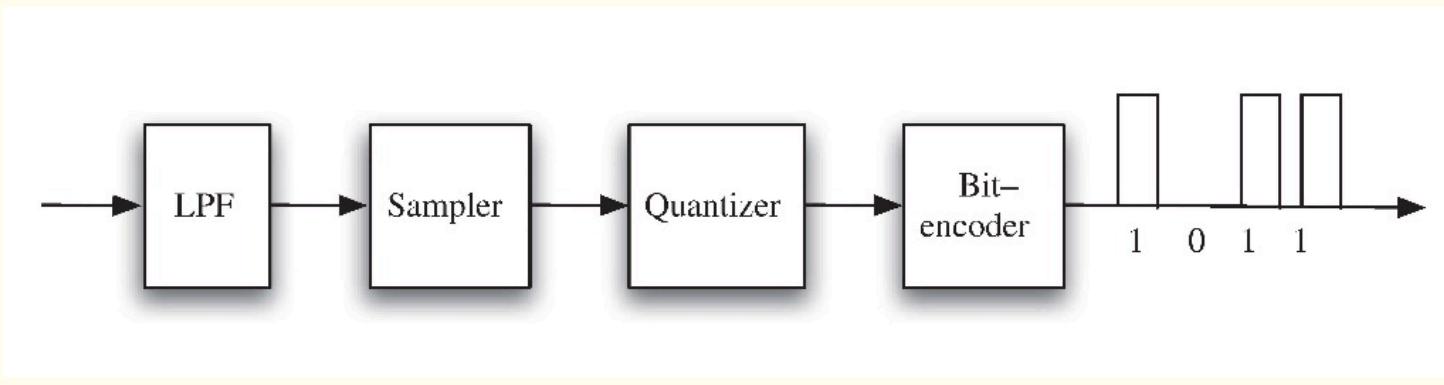


- Quantisation

# Today's Lecture

JUL  
17

- Line Coding
- Pulse Code Modulation
- Delta Modulation
- Inter-Symbol Interference



# Baseband Transmission

# Encoding & Line Coding

- We have a logical sequence: 1 0 1 1 0 .
- A wire (medium) doesn't understand (digital) logic; it only understands **voltage**.

**Line Coding** is the mapping of logical bits to physical waveforms.

## Key Design Goals

1. **Synchronisation** The receiver needs to recover the clock.
2. **Bandwidth Efficiency**: Fit more data in less Hz.
3. **DC Balance**: Ideally zero DC (transformers block DC).

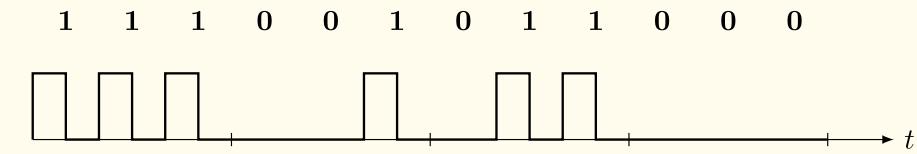
# Line Coding Schemes (RZ)

Scheme	Signal Levels	Features
On-Off (RZ)	$V, 0$	High $V$ for half bit, then 0. Simple, clear transitions, requires more bandwidth.
Polar (RZ)	$+V, 0, -V$	$+V$ for half bit (1), $-V$ for half bit (0). Eliminates DC component, good synchronisation.
Bipolar (RZ)	$+V, 0, -V$	Alternates between $+V$ and $-V$ for 1s. No DC component, good error detection.

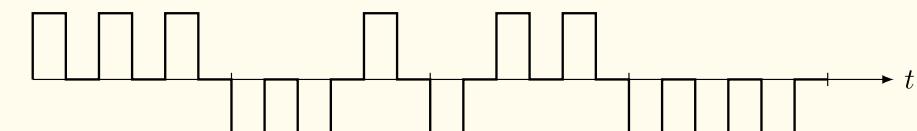
# Common Line Codes

## 1. NRZ (Non-Return to Zero)

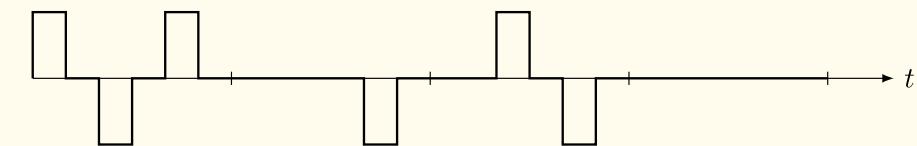
- $1 = +V$ ,  $0 = -V$ .
- 😊 Simple, low bandwidth.
- 😟 Long strings of 1s cause loss of sync (DC buildup).



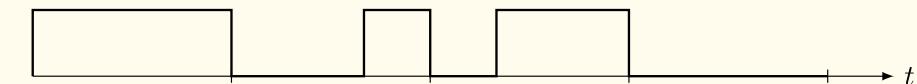
(a) Unipolar RZ



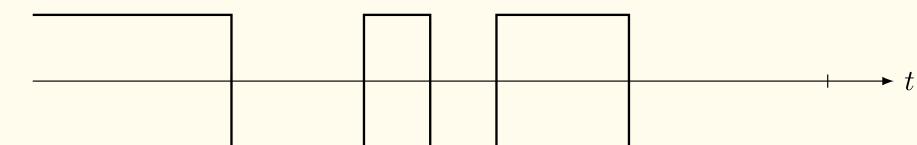
(b) Polar RZ



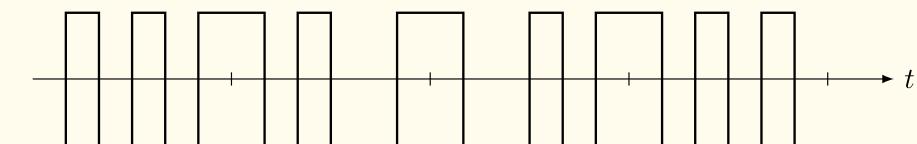
(c) Bipolar RZ



(d) Unipolar NRZ



(e) Polar NRZ



(f) Manchester (IEEE 802.3)

## 2. Manchester Encoding

- $1 = \text{High} \rightarrow \text{Low}$ ;  $0 = \text{Low} \rightarrow \text{High}$ .
- 😊 Guaranteed transition every bit (Great Sync).
- 😟 Uses 2x Bandwidth.

# The Bandwidth of Line Codes

To understand bandwidth, we look at the **Power Spectral Density (PSD)**. This depends on two things:

1. The Shape of the Pulse ( $P(f)$ ):

- A sharp square pulse has a wide frequency spread.

2. The Pattern of the Bits ( $R_k$ ):

- Do 1s and 0s follow a pattern, or are they random?

$$S(f) = \underbrace{\frac{1}{T_b} |P(f)|^2}_{\text{Shape}} \times \underbrace{\sum R_k e^{-j\cdots}}_{\text{Pattern}}$$

# For Random Data ...

In real data (compressed audio/video), bits are random (like coin flips).

1. No Patterns ( $R_k = 0$ ):

- Knowing bit  $N$  tells us nothing about bit  $N + 1$ .
- Because there is no pattern, the complex sum  $\sum(\dots)$  vanishes!

1. Average Power ( $\sigma^2 \rightarrow A^2$ ):

- For a signal swinging between  $+A$  and  $-A$ , the "Variance" is just the amplitude squared.
- Variance = Power =  $A^2$ .

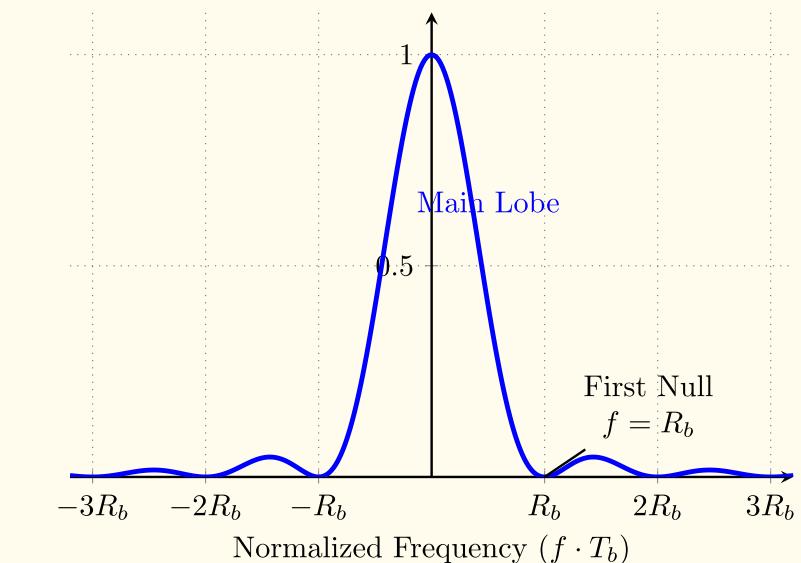
# Derivation: NRZ Bandwidth

For NRZ, we use a rectangular pulse.

- Pulse Shape:  $P(f) = T_b \text{sinc}(fT_b)$
- Pattern: Random ( $R_k = 0$ , sum disappears).

The PSD becomes just the Pulse Shape squared  
× Power:

$$S_{NRZ}(f) = A^2 T_b \text{sinc}^2(fT_b)$$



## Observation

- The first null is at  $f = R_b$ .
- Most power is packed in the low frequencies

# Manchester Bandwidth

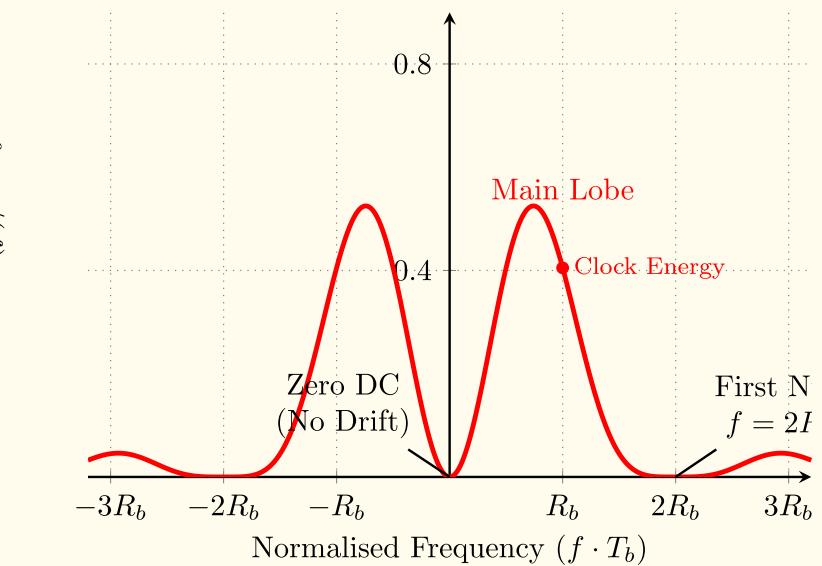
Manchester uses a "split" pulse ( $+V$  then  $-V$ ).

$$P(f) = T_b \text{sinc} \left( \frac{fT_b}{2} \right) \sin \left( \frac{\pi fT_b}{2} \right)$$

$$S_{Manc}(f) = A^2 T_b \text{sinc}^2 \left( \frac{fT_b}{2} \right) \sin^2 \left( \frac{\pi fT_b}{2} \right)$$

## Observation

1.  $\sin(0) = 0 \rightarrow \text{Zero DC.}$
2. The null is pushed to  $f = 2/T_b = 2R_b$ .
3. Manchester requires 2x Bandwidth.



# Pulse Code Modulation (PCM)

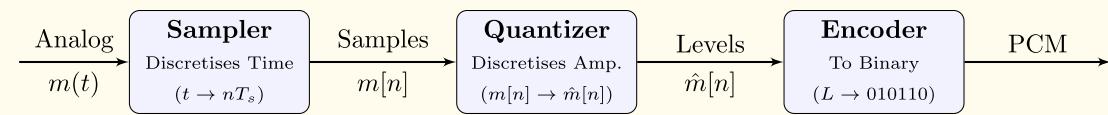
PCM is the standard for uncompressed digital audio (CDs etc).

- Bit Rate ( $R_b$ ):

$$R_b = n \times f_s$$

- Dynamic Range (SQNR):

$$\text{SQNR}_{dB} \approx 4.8 + 6n$$



# PCM Bandwidth

Digital signals require significantly more bandwidth than the original analog signal.

- Analog Voice: 4 kHz.
- PCM Voice (8 bits, 8 kHz): 64 kbps.
- Minimum Transmission Bandwidth:

$$BW_{PCM} \geq \frac{1}{2}R_b = \frac{1}{2}n f_s$$

We trade Bandwidth for Noise Immunity and Regenerability.

# Delta Modulation (DM)

PCM sends the *absolute* value of every sample.

- 💡 Adjacent samples are usually similar (high correlation). Why send the whole value?
- Only transmit the change (slope) from the last sample.
- 1 bit per sample:
  - 1 : Signal went UP ( $+ \Delta$ ).
  - 0 : Signal went DOWN ( $- \Delta$ ).
- Extremely simple hardware (1-bit ADC).

# Inter-Symbol Interference (ISI)

Real channels act like Low Pass Filters. They "smear" pulses.

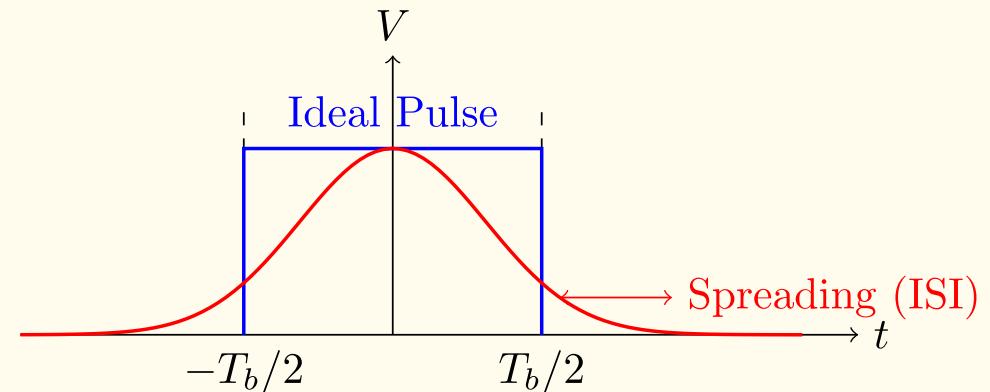
- The "tail" of one pulse spills into the next time slot.
- This is **ISI**. It ruins our ability to distinguish `1` from `0`.

**Ideal Pulse:**

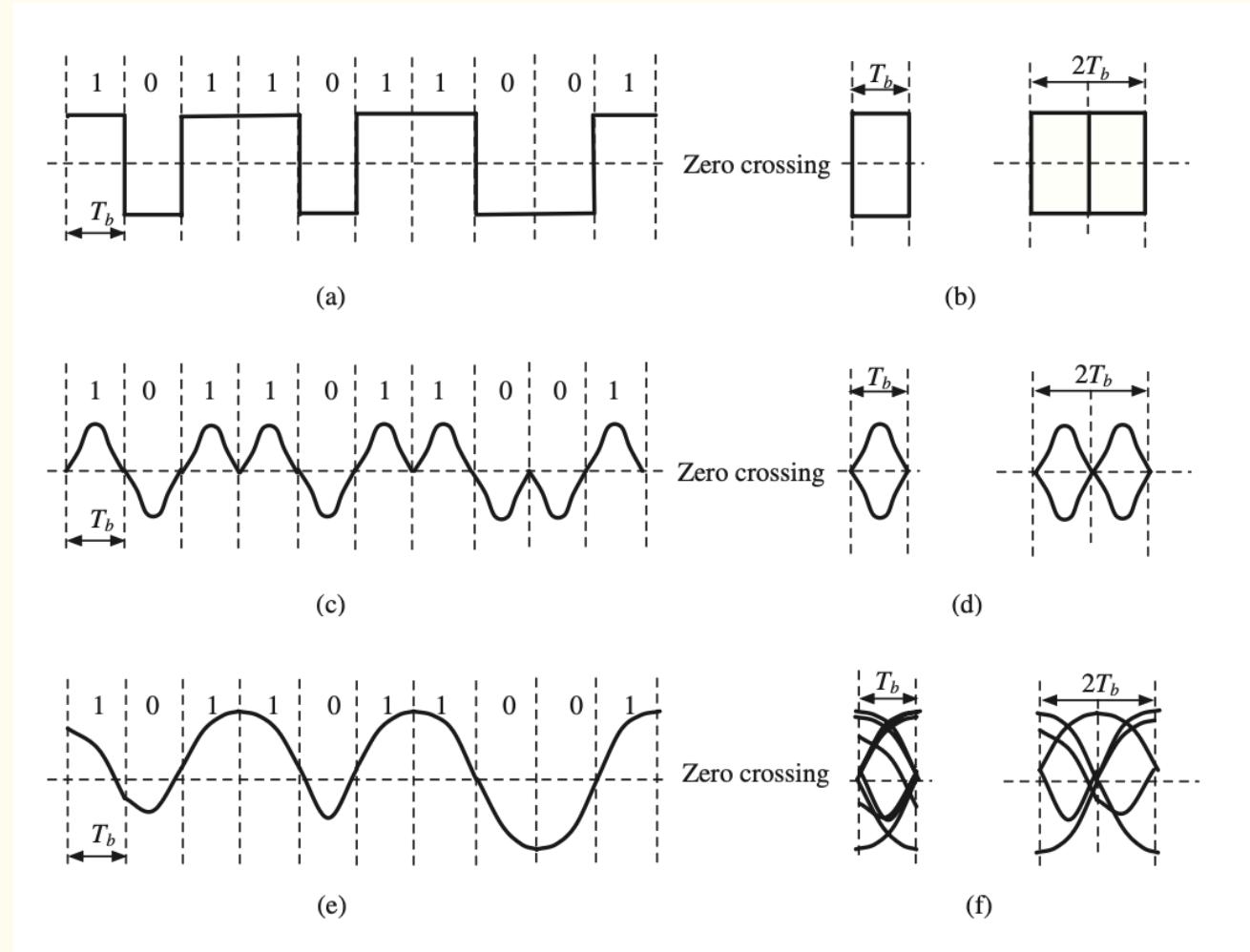
Square (Requires  $\infty$  Bandwidth).

**Real Pulse:**

Rounded and spread out.



# The Eye Diagram



# Visualising ISI: The Eye Diagram

If we overlay thousands of received bit periods on an oscilloscope, we get an **Eye Diagram**.

- Vertical Opening (Height): Noise Margin. How much noise can we tolerate?
- Horizontal Opening (Width): Jitter Margin. How sensitive is the timing?
- Closed Eye: The system has failed. ISI is dominant.

# The Nyquist Criterion

How do we eliminate ISI without infinite bandwidth?

**Nyquist's First Criterion:**

Find a pulse  $p(t)$  such that  $p(nT_b) = 0$  for all  $n \neq 0$ .

**The Sinc Pulse:**

$$p(t) = \text{sinc}\left(\frac{t}{T_b}\right)$$

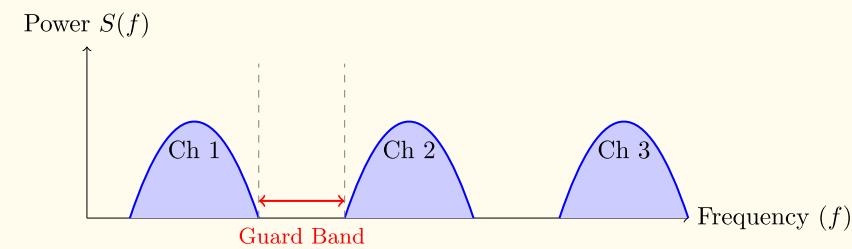
- Bandwidth =  $R_b/2$  (Minimum possible).
- Hard to generate, sensitive to timing errors.
- Raised Cosine Filter (Trade a little bandwidth for robustness).

# The Guard Band

Nyquist says we *can* transmit at  $B = R_b/2$ .

- We cannot build perfect "Brick Wall" filters to separate these signals.
- Real filters have a gradual "roll-off" (slope).
- If we pack channels too tightly, their "tails" overlap.
- Adjacent Channel Interference (ACI).

We deliberately leave unused spectrum between channels.



# Further Reading

- Sections 6.1 - 6.3, and 6.6  
Modern Digital and Analog Communication Systems, 5<sup>th</sup> Edition
- B P Lathi and Zhi Ding

## Get in touch

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