

# Equalization techniques

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# Motivation

# Intersymbol Interference

- A digital communication system requires transmit and receive filters.

$$x[k] = x\left(\frac{kT}{M} + \tau\right) = \sum_{i=-\infty}^{\infty} s[i] h\left(\frac{kT}{M} + \tau - iT\right) + v[k]$$

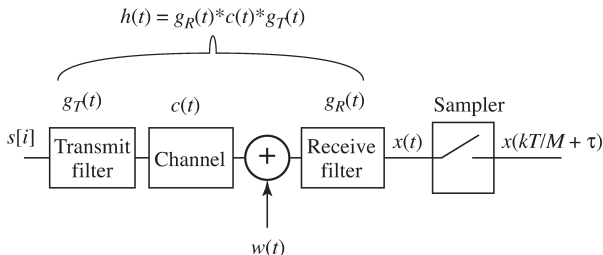


Figure 1: Digital communication system model<sup>a</sup>.

<sup>a</sup>Source <http://cnx.org/content/m46053/latest/>

# Intersymbol Interference

- Transmit filter shapes transmitted signal to meet spectral requirements.
- Receive filter accomplishes two roles:
  - ▶ Recover the symbol sent (by shaping the signal before sampling).
  - ▶ Limit the noise effect (its bandwidth imposes the *noise bandwidth*).
- This is achieved when  $h_T(t) = g_T(t) * c(t)$  and  $g_R(t)$  constitute a matched filter pair.

$$g_R(t) = h_T(T - t)$$

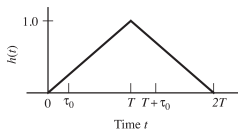


Figure 2: Overall response to a  $g_T(t) * c(t)$  with rectangular form and  $g_R(t)$  its matched filter.

# Intersymbol Interference

- When a system is designed according to the matched filter criterion, there is no *intersymbol interference* (ISI).
  - ▶ When sampling at the correct instant, with period  $T$ , we get back  $s[i]$ .
  - ▶ At these instants, the  $h(t)$  response left from the other symbols is zero.
- Problems:
  - ▶ A situation like the one mentioned before ( $h_T(t)$  rectangular) requires infinite bandwidth.
  - ▶  $c(t)$  will always be a *bandlimited channel*.
  - ▶ The channel can be time varying (e.g. wireless channels).
- All this could lead to intersymbol interference.
  - ▶ Tails from other symbols' responses overlap at the sampling instants.
  - ▶ System gets *memory*.
  - ▶ The performance of the system (BER) degrades.
  - ▶ System gets more sensitive to synchronization and timing errors.

# Intersymbol Interference

- An *eye diagram* is a periodic depiction of a digital waveform.
  - It helps to visualize the behavior of the system, presence of ISI, etc.

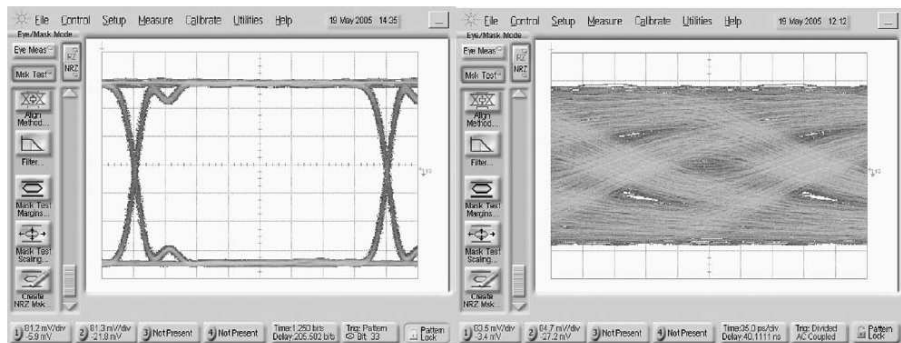


Figure 3: Left: eye diagram of the signal sent. Right: received signal with high ISI (source: Agilent Technologies).

# Intersymbol Interference

- The eye diagram provides information about working margins.
  - ▶ Synchronization.
  - ▶ Noise resistance.

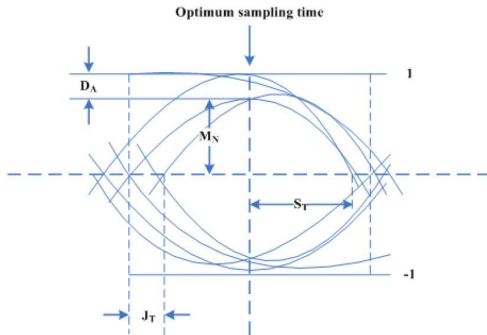


Figure 4: Eye diagram structure (source: <http://cnx.org/content>).



# Intersymbol Interference

- In channels where ISI cannot be avoided:
  - ▶  $g_T(t)$  and  $g_R(t)$  are designed as matched pairs.
  - ▶ The effect of  $c(t)$  is counteracted by means of an *equalizer*.

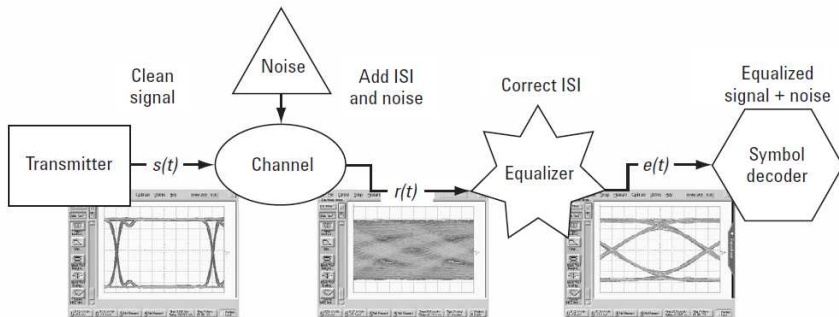


Figure 5: Communication model with equalization (source: Agilent Technologies).

# Intersymbol Interference

- Condition for no ISI:

$$\sum_{i=-\infty}^{\infty} H\left(f + \frac{i}{T}\right) = \text{constant}$$

- The ideal case with the smallest bandwidth possible is the *Nyquist channel*.
  - It is not feasible.
  - Real transmission requires higher bandwidth.

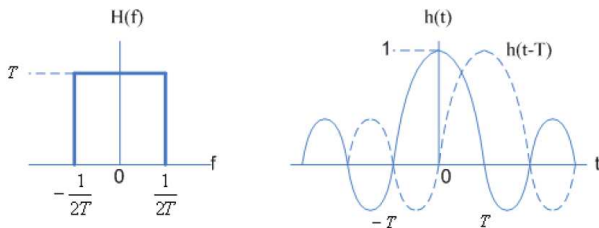


Figure 6: Nyquist channel (source: <http://cnx.org/content>).

# Intersymbol Interference

- Regardless of ISI, the role of transmit filter is important to fit the transmitted spectrum into the appropriate spectral mask.
  - ▶ This requires the usage of longer duration waveforms.
  - ▶ The spectral occupancy reduction helps in reducing ISI.
  - ▶ It allows transmission with controlled co-channel interference.

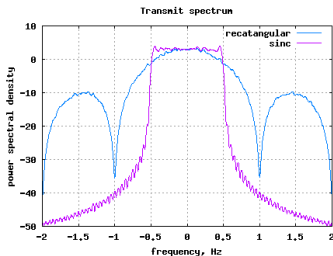


Figure 7: Effect of transmit pulse shaping (source: <http://www.dsblog.com>).

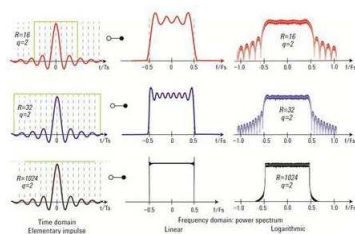


Figure 8: Different pulse shapes (source: <http://www.lightwaveonline.com>).

# Intersymbol Interference

- $g_T(t)$  and  $g_R(t)$  are often implemented as *root-raised cosine* (RRC) pairs.
  - ▶ They provide feasible waveforms (unlike rectangular ones).
  - ▶ The bandwidth required is managed by means of a design parameter.
  - ▶ If  $c(t) = a \cdot \delta(t - \tau_0)$  ( $a \in \mathbb{C}$ ) within the transmission bandwidth  $\rightarrow$  no ISI, optimal TX/RX pair.

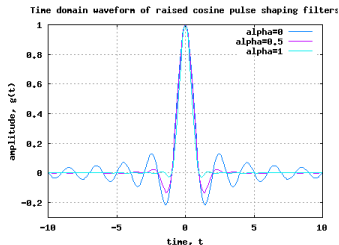


Figure 9: Raised cosine time waveforms (source: <http://www.dsblog.com>).

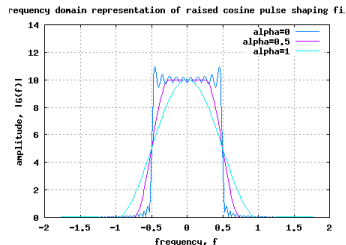


Figure 10: Raised cosine spectra (source: <http://www.dsblog.com>).

# Intersymbol Interference

- Nevertheless, do not forget channels and systems are not ideal!
  - ▶ Some amount of ISI will be present, along with other undesirable effects.
  - ▶ In wideband high-speed modern digital communications, some degree of equalization is mandatory to get appropriate performances.

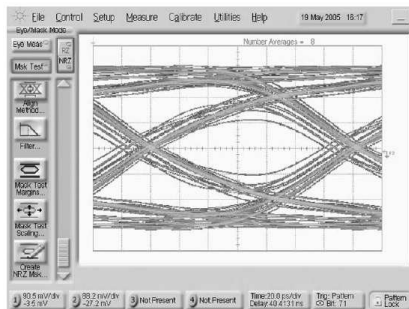


Figure 11: An average system with residual ISI (source: Agilent Technologies).

# Intersymbol Interference

- Equalization is as well about compensating other effects that distort the received data constellation.
  - ▶ Observe the rotation and warping in the figure.
  - ▶ In many cases, de-rotating and compensating linear and nonlinear effects require knowledge about  $c(t)$ .
  - ▶ In bandpass transmission, eye diagrams and compensation should heed I and Q channels.

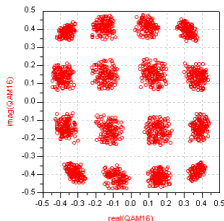


Figure 12: 16-QAM distorted constellation (source: Agilent Technologies).

# Equalization strategies

# Equalization strategies

- System model for equalization.

- ▶ It is valid both for baseband and bandpass transmission.
- ▶ In bandpass systems, equalization is performed over I and Q channels.

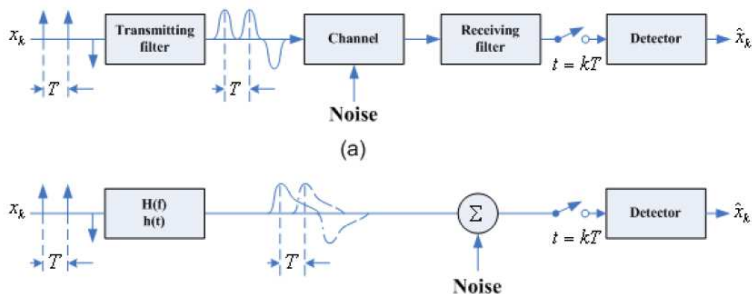


Figure 13: System model (source: <http://cnx.org/content>).



# Equalization strategies

- The natural way to compensate  $H(f)$  would be to invert it:  $H^{-1}(f)$ .
- This strategy has some drawbacks:
  - ▶ Enhances noise where signal is greatly attenuated (noise has to be taken into account!).
  - ▶ Could lead to instabilities (implementation is an important issue!).

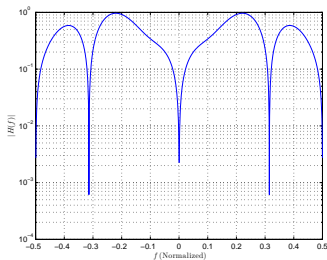


Figure 14: Channel example.

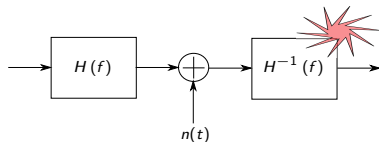


Figure 15: Equalization scheme.

# Equalization strategies

- Equalization should take care of:
  - ▶ Removing ISI.
  - ▶ While ensuring a maximum SNR.
  - ▶ And allowing a feasible implementation.
- Remember:  $H(f) = G_R(f) C(f) G_T(f)$ .
  - ▶  $G_T(f)$  and  $G_R(f)$  are matched filter pairs (e.g. RRC filters).
  - ▶ Equalization can be done by estimating the properties of  $H(f)$  (**non-blind equalization**: channel identification), or just by resorting to the properties of the data carrying signals (**blind equalization**: matching TX/RX data).

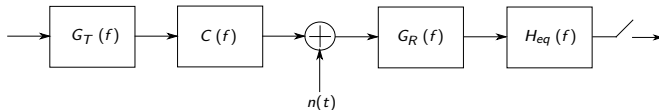


Figure 16: A system with a linear equalizer.

# Equalization strategies

- Apart from the blind / non-blind classification, equalizers can be classified into:
  - ▶ Linear equalizers ( $H_{eq}(f)$ ).
    - Zero forcing equalizer (ZFE).
    - Minimum mean square error (MMSE) equalizer.
  - ▶ Non-linear equalizers.
    - Decision-feedback equalizer (DFE).
    - Maximum likelihood sequence estimation (MLSE).
- Depending on the treatment of the received symbols, the equalizers can be classified into:
  - ▶ Symbol-by-symbol (SBS): each symbol is equalized separately and then used for decision (linear equalizers and DFE are of this kind).
    - Easier to implement, but not optimal to remove all the memory effects.
  - ▶ Sequence estimators (SE): a sequence of symbols is equalized as a block (MLSE is of this kind).
    - Optimal when considering all the memory in the channel, but complex, and even unfeasible as memory grows.

# Equalization strategies

- The time varying characteristics of the channel lead to:
  - ▶ Non-adaptive equalizers, ideal when the channel is static.
    - This does not mean that the system does not follow a previous *acquisition* step (with the help of known sequences or channel identification).
  - ▶ Adaptive equalizers, ideal when the channel is time varying.
    - Apart from the *acquisition* initial setup, the system performs *tracking*, continuously updating the equalizer parameters.
    - The DFE is inherently an adaptive equalizer.
    - Linear equalizers are easily modified as adaptive variants: LMS (least mean squares) filter, RLS (recursive least squares) filter.

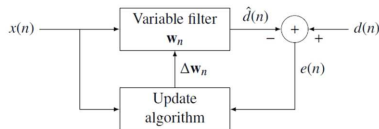


Figure 17: Adaptive equalization based on linear equalizers (source: Wikipedia).

# Linear equalizers

# Linear equalizers

- The linear equalizers are simple to implement and:
  - ▶ Rely on the principle of inverting  $H(f)$ .
  - ▶ Cancel ISI at the cost of possibly enhancing noise (ZFE), or provide a tradeoff between noise enhancement and ISI removal (MMSE).
- In non-blind mode,  $H(f)$  is estimated by feeding an impulse.
  - ▶ Equalization is performed digitally, so  $h[n]$  is what usually matters.
- In blind mode, the system uses known training sequences.
- $h_{eq}[n]$  is implemented as a FIR (finite impulse response) filter.

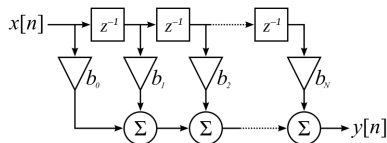


Figure 18: FIR transversal filter (source: Wikipedia).

# Linear equalizers

- The ZFE tries to force the non-ISI condition:

$$\sum_{i=-\infty}^{\infty} H_0 \left( f + \frac{i}{T} \right) = \text{constant}$$

- Where  $H_0(f) = H(f) H_{eq}(f)$ .
- In the discrete-time domain, this translates into:

$$h_0(nT) = h_0[n] = \delta[n]$$

- We *force* an overall response with *zeros* when  $n \neq 0$ .
- When the filter length  $N + 1$  is large enough,  $h_0(t) \approx \delta(t)$  and ISI is perfectly compensated.
- In practice, the number of FIR coefficients are limited to a given target channel response length, and some residual ISI remains.
- The time-domain implementation helps to counteract instability problems of frequency-based domain.

# Linear equalizers

- ZFE  $\{b_i\}_{i=0}^N$  coefficients are calculated with very simple matrix algebra.
- Once we know the impulse response  $h[n]$ , for  $n = -N, \dots, N$ ,  $N$  even, the non-ISI condition results in:

$$\sum_{i=0}^N b_i h \left[ m - \left( i - \frac{N}{2} \right) \right] = \delta[m], m = -\frac{N}{2}, \dots, \frac{N}{2}$$

- In matrix form:

$$\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{b} \rightarrow \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{H}^{-1}\mathbf{v}$$

- Where  $\mathbf{v}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  are length  $N+1$  vectors:

$$\mathbf{v} = (0 \cdots 0 1 0 \cdots 0)^T$$

$$\mathbf{b} = (b_0 \cdots b_N)^T$$

- $\mathbf{H}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  contain generally complex numbers.

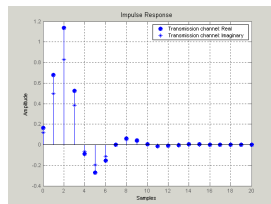


Figure 19: Channel impulse response.



# Linear equalizers

- $\mathbf{H} ((N + 1) \times (N + 1))$  is built from the impulse response as:

$$\mathbf{H} = \begin{pmatrix} h[0] & \cdots & h\left[-\frac{N}{2}\right] & \cdots & h[-N] \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ h\left[\frac{N}{2}\right] & \cdots & h[0] & \cdots & h\left[-\frac{N}{2}\right] \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ h[N] & \cdots & h\left[\frac{N}{2}\right] & \cdots & h[0] \end{pmatrix}$$

- First of all,  $\mathbf{H}^{-1}$  is calculated numerically.
- The vector of FIR coefficients corresponding to the zero-forcing solution,  $\mathbf{b}_{zf} \rightarrow h_{eq}[n]$ , would be given by the central column of  $\mathbf{H}^{-1}$ .
- The non-ISI condition is met for output values up to  $\frac{N}{2}$  samples at both sides of the center of the impulse response.
- The ZFE filter works reasonably well if the impulse response coefficients for  $n < -\frac{N}{2}$  and  $n > \frac{N}{2}$  are very low.

# Linear equalizers

- Example for baseband transmission: provide ZFE with 5 taps.

$$\mathbf{h} = \left( 0.01 \quad -0.02 \quad 0.05 \quad -0.1 \quad 0.2 \quad 1.0 \quad 0.15 \quad -0.15 \quad 0.05 \quad -0.02 \quad 0.005 \right)^T$$

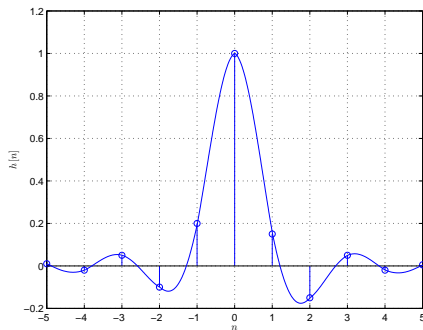


Figure 20: Measured impulse response.

# Linear equalizers

- Build  $\mathbf{H}$  matrix:

$$\mathbf{H} = \begin{pmatrix} 1.0 & 0.2 & -0.1 & 0.05 & -0.02 \\ 0.15 & 1.0 & 0.2 & -0.1 & 0.05 \\ -0.15 & 0.15 & 1.0 & 0.2 & -0.1 \\ 0.05 & -0.15 & 0.15 & 1.0 & 0.2 \\ -0.02 & 0.05 & -0.15 & 0.15 & 1.0 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Get inverse:

$$\mathbf{H}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1.0774 & -0.2682 & 0.1932 & -0.1314 & 0.0806 \\ -0.2266 & 1.1272 & -0.2983 & 0.2034 & -0.1314 \\ 0.2326 & -0.2737 & 1.1517 & -0.2983 & 0.1932 \\ -0.1405 & 0.2516 & -0.2737 & 1.1272 & -0.2682 \\ 0.0888 & -0.1405 & 0.2326 & -0.2266 & 1.0774 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Filter coefficients for  $h_{eq}[n]$ :

$$\mathbf{b}_{zf} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.1932 & -0.2983 & 1.1517 & -0.2737 & 0.2326 \end{pmatrix}^T$$

# Linear equalizers

- The overall impulse response  $h_0[n] = h[n] * h_{eq}[n]$  is:

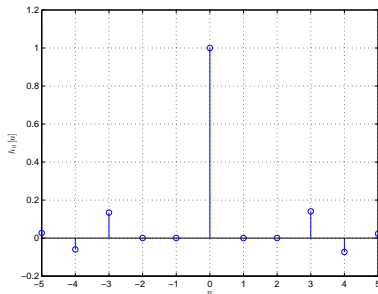


Figure 21: Overall impulse response.

- Observe how not all the ISI is compensated: the non-zero tails for  $n > 2$ ,  $n < -2$  take still significant large values.

# Linear equalizers

- Results in spectrum:

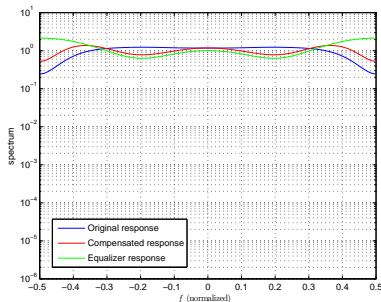


Figure 22: Overall impulse response.

- Observe how, for a usual lowpass impulse response  $h[n]$ , high frequency noise is actually enhanced.

# Linear equalizers

- ZFE strategy suffers from the noise-enhancing issue.
  - ▶ The strategy relies on a perfect estimation of  $h[n]$ .
  - ▶ The noise has not been taken into account at all.
- A ZFE is not very useful in wireless channel.
  - ▶ Wireless channels suffer from frequency-selective fades.
  - ▶ They pose a challenge to keep up pace with channel identification.
- MMSE tries to reach a tradeoff between noise and ISI effects.

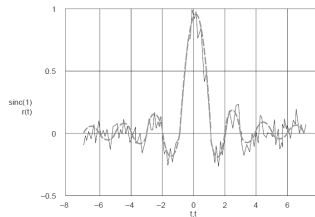


Figure 23: Noise effects in channel impulse response (source: Texas Instruments).

# Linear equalizers

- A transversal FIR filter can equalize the worst-case ISI only when the peak distortion is small<sup>1</sup>.
  - ▶ In presence of noise, the peak distortion grows.
- The MMSE gives the filter coefficients to keep a minimum mean square error between the output of the equalizer and the desired signal.
  - ▶ The MMSE equalizer requires training sequences ( $d(t)$ ).
  - ▶  $y(t)$  and  $v(t)$  are signals affected by noise.

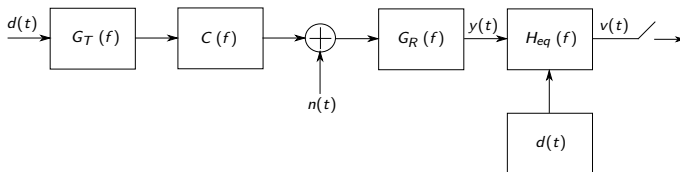


Figure 24: MMSE setup.

<sup>1</sup>Peak distortion: magnitude of the difference between the output of the channel and the desired signal

# Linear equalizers

- MMSE criterion can be read as

$$\epsilon = \text{E} \left[ (v(t) - d(t))^2 \right]$$

- Where

$$v(t) = y(t) * h_{eq}(t) = \sum_{n=0}^N b_n y(t - nT)$$

- The minimization parameters are the *filter coefficients*, according to

$$\frac{\partial \epsilon}{\partial b_m} = 0 = 2\text{E} \left[ (v(t) - d(t)) \frac{\partial v(t)}{\partial b_m} \right]$$

$$m = 0, \dots, N, N \text{ even}$$

- Where it has been taken into account the linearity of the operators  $\text{E}[\cdot]$  and  $\frac{\partial}{\partial x}$ , and the fact that the expected value is taken over the noise distribution, independently of the filter coefficients.



# Linear equalizers

- The previous expressions lead to the next *orthogonality condition*.
  - ▶ The error sequence between the output of the equalizer and the desired signal, and the received data sequence should be *statistically orthogonal*.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[(v(t) - d(t))y(t - mT)] &= R_{yv}(mT) - R_{yd}(mT) = 0 \\ m &= 0, \dots, N \end{aligned}$$

$$R_{yv}(mT) = \mathbb{E}[y(t)v(t + mT)]$$

$$R_{yd}(mT) = \mathbb{E}[y(t)d(t + mT)]$$

- All random processes involved are considered *widesense stationary* (wss processes) and *jointly wss*.
  - ▶ A process is wss when its mean and covariance do not vary with time.
  - ▶ Two random processes  $A$  and  $B$  are *jointly wss* when they are wss and their crosscorrelation only depends on the time difference.

$$R_{AB}(t, \tau) = R_{AB}(t - \tau)$$

# Linear equalizers

- $R_{yv}(mT)$  can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} R_{yv}(mT) &= E[y(t)v(t+mT)] = \\ &= E\left[y(t) \sum_{n=0}^N b_n y(t+(m-n)T)\right] = \sum_{n=0}^N b_n R_y((m-n)T) \\ &\quad m = 0, \dots, N \end{aligned}$$

- Where  $R_y(\tau)$  is the autocorrelation of  $y(t)$ .
- This set of equations can be written in vector-matrix form as

$$\mathbf{R}_y \mathbf{b}_{\text{MMSE}} = \mathbf{R}_{yd}$$

- They are known as the *Wiener-Hopf equations*.
- The filter coefficients can be finally calculated as

$$\mathbf{b}_{\text{MMSE}} = \mathbf{R}_y^{-1} \mathbf{R}_{yd}$$

# Linear equalizers

- $\mathbf{R}_y$   $((N + 1) \times (N + 1))$  is built from the autocorrelation of  $y(t)$  as:

$$\mathbf{R}_y = \begin{pmatrix} R_y(0) & \cdots & R_y\left(-\frac{N}{2}T\right) & \cdots & R_y(-NT) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ R_y\left(-\frac{N}{2}T\right) & \cdots & R_y(0) & \cdots & R_y\left(-\frac{N}{2}T\right) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ R_y(NT) & \cdots & R_y\left(\frac{N}{2}T\right) & \cdots & R_y(0) \end{pmatrix}$$

- In case the signals are real,  $R_y(t) = R_y(-t)$  and the matrix is symmetric.
- The vector  $\mathbf{R}_{yd}$  is given as:

$$\mathbf{R}_{yd} = \left( R_{yd}\left(-\frac{N}{2}T\right) \quad \cdots \quad R_{yd}(0) \quad \cdots \quad R_{yd}\left(\frac{N}{2}T\right) \right)^T$$

# Linear equalizers

- Note the similarities with the process followed with the ZFE strategy.
  - ▶ We calculate a matrix depending on the channel response, and a vector depending on the expected response.
  - ▶ The matrix is inverted and we get a solution.
- Note that the matrices and vectors have now *statistical* meaning.
- Note that the algebra is more involved.
- Note that the process is *blind* in nature, since we do not explicitly identify the channel, and solely rely on the properties of the data signals.
- The minimum mean square error we arrive at is given by:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \epsilon_{\min} &= \text{E} [|d(t)|^2] - \mathbf{R}_{yd}^T \mathbf{b}_{\text{MMSE}} = \\
 &= R_d(0) - \mathbf{R}_{yd}^T \mathbf{R}_y^{-1} \mathbf{R}_{yd}
 \end{aligned}$$

# Linear equalizers

- Example for baseband transmission: provide an MMSE equalizer with 3 coefficients for a multipath channel with two paths.
- Hypothesis:
  - ▶  $y(t) = Ad(t) + bAd(t - T_m) + w(t)$ , where  $w(t) = n(t) * g_R(t)$  and  $d(t - T_m)$  is the multipath trajectory.
  - ▶  $n(t)$  is AWGN with power spectral density  $N_0/2$ .
  - ▶  $d(t)$  is a random binary sequence with  $R_d(\tau) = \Lambda(\tau/T)$ , where  $\Lambda(\cdot)$  is the triangle function.
  - ▶  $w(t)$  has lowpass spectrum with 3dB cutoff frequency  $f_c = 1/T$ 

$$S_w(f) = \frac{N_0/2}{1+(f/f_c)^2}.$$
  - ▶ In this example, symbol period and delay coincide,  $T = T_m$ .
  - ▶ Results will be given as a function of  $E_b/N_0 = A^2 T/N_0$  and  $b$ .

# Linear equalizers

- $R_y(\tau)$  can be calculated as

$$\begin{aligned} R_y(\tau) &= \mathbb{E}[y(t)y(t+\tau)] = \\ &= (1+b^2)A^2R_d(\tau) + R_w(\tau) + bA^2(R_d(\tau-T) + R_d(\tau+T)) \end{aligned}$$

- Where

$$\begin{aligned} R_d(\tau) &= \mathbb{E}[d(t)d(t+\tau)] = \Lambda(\tau/T) \\ R_w(\tau) &= \mathbb{F}^{-1}(S_w(f)) = \frac{\pi N_0}{2T} \exp\left(-\frac{2\pi|\tau|}{T}\right) \end{aligned}$$

- $\mathbf{R}_{yd}$  is calculated as

$$\begin{aligned} R_{yd}(\tau) &= \mathbb{E}[y(t)d(t+\tau)] = \\ &= AR_d(\tau) + bAR_d(T+\tau), \tau = 0, \pm T \end{aligned}$$

- And then

$$\mathbf{R}_{yd} = \begin{pmatrix} bA & A & 0 \end{pmatrix}^T$$

# Linear equalizers

- Matrix  $\mathbf{R}_y$  is calculated as

$$\mathbf{R}_y = \begin{pmatrix} (1+b)^2 \frac{E_b}{N_0} + \frac{\pi}{2} & b \frac{E_b}{N_0} + \frac{\pi}{2} \exp(-2\pi) & \frac{\pi}{2} \exp(-4\pi) \\ b \frac{E_b}{N_0} + \frac{\pi}{2} \exp(-2\pi) & (1+b)^2 \frac{E_b}{N_0} + \frac{\pi}{2} & b \frac{E_b}{N_0} + \frac{\pi}{2} \exp(-2\pi) \\ \frac{\pi}{2} \exp(-4\pi) & b \frac{E_b}{N_0} + \frac{\pi}{2} \exp(-2\pi) & (1+b)^2 \frac{E_b}{N_0} + \frac{\pi}{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

- If we consider  $A = 1.0$ ,  $b = 0.1$  and  $E_b/N_0 = 10\text{dB}$ , then

$$\begin{pmatrix} 11.671 & 1.003 & 5.5 \cdot 10^{-6} \\ 1.003 & 11.671 & 1.003 \\ 5.5 \cdot 10^{-6} & 1.003 & 11.671 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} b_0 \\ b_1 \\ b_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.1 \\ 1.0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Finally,  $\mathbf{b}_{\text{MMSE}} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.0116 & 0.8622 & -0.0741 \end{pmatrix}^T$
- Note that the problem has been solved semi-analitically, because we assumed a given channel.
- In real applications, the correlations are calculated numerically, without prior assumptions on the channel shape.

# Linear equalizers

- The overall impulse response  $h_0[n] = h[n] * h_{eq}[n]$  is:

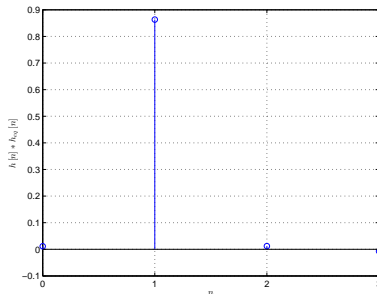


Figure 25: Overall impulse response.

- Observe how now we do not force zeros.



# Linear equalizers

- Results in spectrum:

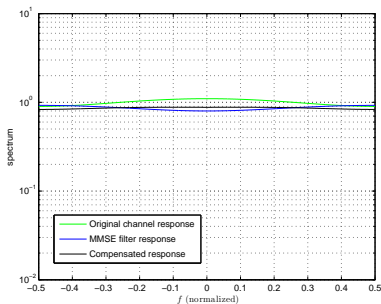


Figure 26: Overall impulse response.

- Observe how now high frequency noise is not enhanced as in ZFE.

# Nonlinear equalizers

# Nonlinear equalizers

- Linear equalizers are simple to implement, but they have severe limitations in wireless channels.
  - Linear equalizers are not good in compensating for the appearance of spectral zeros.
- The *decision feedback equalizer* (DFE) can help in counteracting these effects.

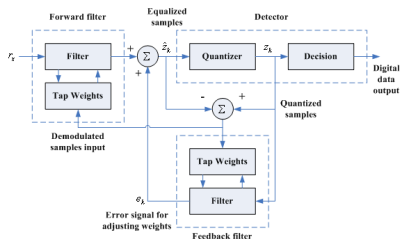


Figure 27: Structure of a DFE (source: <http://cnx.org/content>).

# Nonlinear equalizers

- The DFE works by first estimating the ISI indirectly, in the feedback path.
- The ISI affected signal is reconstructed by using previously decided symbols, and the result is subtracted from the output of the feedforward part of the equalizer.
  - ▶ This feedforward part is responsible for compensating the remaining ISI.
- The estimated error is used to calculate the forward filter and the feedback filter coefficients.
  - ▶ They can be jointly estimated with a minimum mean square error strategy.
- Advantages
  - ▶ The system works better in presence of spectral nulls, because the channel is not inverted.
  - ▶ It is inherently adaptive.
- Drawbacks
  - ▶ When a symbol is incorrectly decided, this error propagates during some symbol periods, depending on the memory of the system.

# Nonlinear equalizers

- A *maximum likelihood sequence estimation* (MLSE) equalizer works over different principles.
  - ▶ The channel is considered as a system with memory described by a *trellis*.
  - ▶ The state of the system is built by considering the number of successive symbols matching the length of the channel response.
  - ▶ The symbols at the input of the channel drive the transitions.

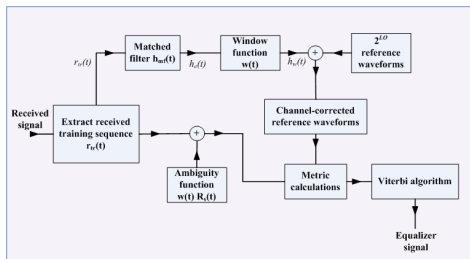


Figure 28: MLSE equalizer structure for GSM (source: <http://cnx.org/content>).

# Nonlinear equalizers

- The MLSE equalizer requires training sequences, as in the case of the DFE or the MMSE.
- It has to build metrics that indicate the likelihood of a possible transition over the trellis.
- The optimal algorithm to implement the MLSE criterion is the *Viterbi algorithm*.
- Advantages
  - ▶ It is optimal from the sequence estimation point of view.
  - ▶ It can provide the lowest frame error rate.
- Disadvantages
  - ▶ It is difficult to implement.
  - ▶ It becomes quickly unfeasible when the channel memory grows.
  - ▶ The sequence has to be buffered in blocks, adding delay to the operation of the system.

# Nonlinear equalizers

- Equalizers comparative example: BER results drawn with the help of the MATLAB(R) *eqberdemo.m* demo.

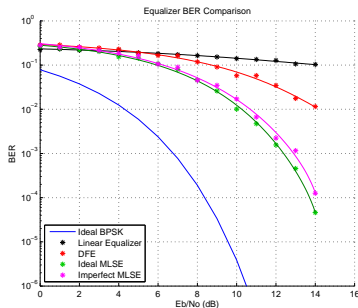


Figure 29: BER comparison for different linear and nonlinear equalizers.

- Observe the important differences in performance.

# Conclusions



# Conclusions

- Equalization is a process implemented at the RX that is mandatory for almost any modern digital communication system.
- There is a variety of equalization strategies and possible implementations.
  - ▶ Adaptive, blind, linear, and so on.
- It is not a closed field, and it is subject to ongoing research and improvements.
- There is not an all-powerful equalization technique, it all depends on the kind of channel, HW availability, target performance, tolerable delay, and so on.
- Equalizers are not left alone: FEC systems can also contribute to the compensation of residual ISI effects.