

2.2) NOISE IN DSB-SC RECEIVERS

➤ A DSB-SC signal is given by
 $s(t) = m(t)c(t)$ ①

where,

$m(t)$ = message signal and let us assume that the message signal power is 'P' watts
 $c(t) = A_c \cos 2\pi f_c t$ = carrier signal and

the power of the carrier signal is $\frac{A_c^2}{2}$

Hence,

$$s(t) = A_c m(t) \cos 2\pi f_c t \quad ②$$

➤ The combination $s(t) + w(t)$ is applied to a bandpass filter, the BPF is actually a narrow- BPF such that $f_c \gg B_T$,

➤ After passing from BPF, wideband noise $w(t)$ gets converted into narrowband noise $n(t)$

➤ The filtered signal $x(t)$ available for demodulation is defined by

$$\begin{aligned} x(t) &= s(t) + n(t) \\ x(t) &= A_c m(t) \cos 2\pi f_c t + n(t) \end{aligned} \quad ③$$

➤ The power of the noise $n(t)$ is given by $N_o W$, where W is the bandwidth of message signal

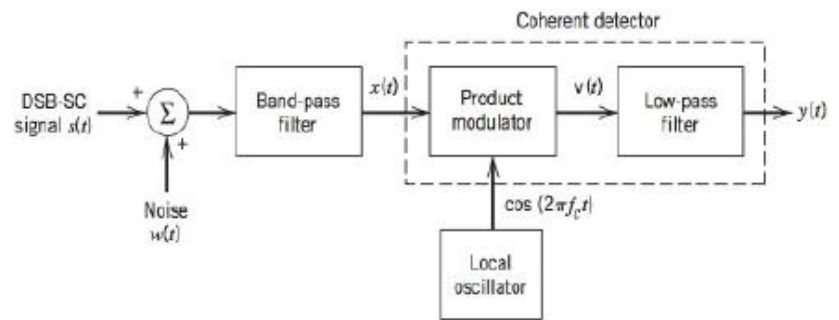
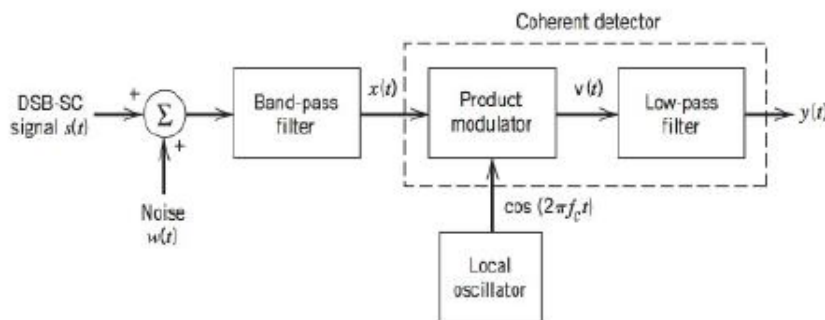


Fig. Model of DSB-SC receiver using coherent detection.

➤ we define the *channel signal-to-noise ratio*,
 $(SNR)_c = \frac{\text{average power of the modulated signal}}{\text{the average power of noise in the message bandwidth}}$

$$(SNR)_c = \frac{\frac{A_c^2 P}{2}}{N_o W} = \frac{A_c^2 P}{2N_o W} \quad ④$$



In the coherent detector the incoming signal $x(t)$ is multiplied by the locally generated carrier signal to produce $v(t)$ which is given by

$$\Rightarrow v(t) = x(t) \cos 2\pi f_c t$$

$$\Rightarrow v(t) = (s(t) + n(t)) \cos 2\pi f_c t \quad ⑤$$

$$\because n(t) = n_I(t) \cos 2\pi f_c t - n_Q(t) \sin 2\pi f_c t \quad ⑥$$

$$\Rightarrow v(t) = (A_c m(t) \cos 2\pi f_c t + n_I(t) \cos 2\pi f_c t - n_Q(t) \cos 2\pi f_c t) \cos 2\pi f_c t \quad ⑦$$

After passing from a LPF, all the higher frequency terms will be eliminated, the output is given by

$$y(t) = \frac{A_c m(t)}{2} + \frac{n_I(t)}{2} \quad \text{Demodulated Signal} \quad \text{Noise} \quad ⑧$$

The power of the demodulated signal

$$\frac{A_c m(t)}{2} \text{ is } \frac{A_c^2 P}{4}$$

The power of the noise

$$\frac{n_I(t)}{2} \text{ is } \frac{N_o W}{2}$$

➤ The *output signal-to-noise ratio*,
 $(SNR)_o = \frac{\text{demodulated message signal}}{\text{the average power of the noise}}$
 measured at the receiver output.

$$(SNR)_o = \frac{\frac{A_c^2 P}{4}}{\frac{N_o W}{2}}$$

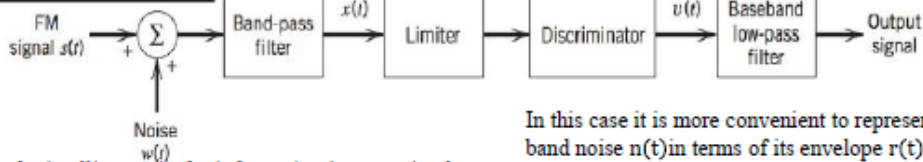
$$(SNR)_o = \frac{A_c^2 P}{2N_o W} \quad ⑨$$

Finally we need to find out 'Figure of Merit' of DSB-SC as

$$FOM = \frac{(SNR)_o}{(SNR)_c}$$

$$FOM = 1$$

2.5) NOISE IN FM RECEIVERS



In an FM system the intelligence in the information is transmitted by variations of the instantaneous frequency of a sinusoidal carrier wave, and its amplitude is maintained constant. Therefore, any variations of the carrier amplitude at the receiver input must result from noise or interference

The amplitude *limiter*, following the bandpass filter in the receiver model, is used to remove amplitude variations by clipping the modulated wave at the filter output

The incoming FM signal $s(t)$ is defined by

$$s(t) = A_c \cos\left(2\pi f_c t + 2\pi k_f \int_0^t m(t) dt\right) \quad (1)$$

$$\text{let, } \theta(t) = 2\pi k_f \int_0^t m(t) dt \quad (2)$$

$$\text{So, } s(t) = A_c \cos(2\pi f_c t + \theta(t)) \quad (3)$$

average power of the modulated signal is $\frac{A_c^2}{2}$

In this case it is more convenient to represent the narrow band noise $n(t)$ in terms of its envelope $r(t)$ and phase $\psi(t)$, as shown by

$$n(t) = r(t)(\cos 2\pi f_c t + \psi(t)) \quad (4)$$

➤ The filtered signal $x(t)$ available for demodulation is defined by

$$x(t) = s(t) + n(t)$$

$$x(t) = A_c \cos(2\pi f_c t + \theta(t)) + r(t)(\cos 2\pi f_c t + \psi(t)) \quad (5)$$

The envelope of $x(t)$ is of no interest to us, because any envelope variations at the bandpass output are removed by the limiter

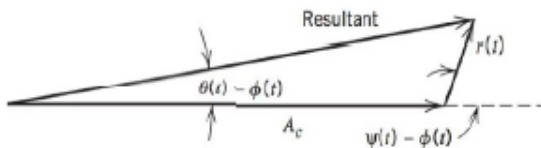
➤ The power of the noise $n(t)$ is given by $N_o W$, where W is the bandwidth of message signal

➤ we define the *channel signal-to-noise ratio*, average power of the modulated signal

$$(SNR)_c = \frac{\text{the average power of the modulated signal}}{\text{the average power of noise in the message bandwidth}}$$

$$(SNR)_c = \frac{\frac{A_c^2}{2}}{N_o W} = \frac{A_c^2}{2N_o W} \quad (6)$$

The phase $\theta(t)$ of the resultant phasor representing $x(t)$ is obtained directly from Figure



$$\theta(t) = \theta(t) + \tan^{-1} \left\{ \frac{r(t) \sin(\psi(t) - \theta(t))}{A_c + r(t) \cos(\psi(t) - \theta(t))} \right\} \quad (7)$$

We assume that the *carrier-to-noise ratio* measured at the discriminator input is large compared with unity, hence we can ignore noise component when compared with signal amplitude at the denominator

$$\theta(t) = \theta(t) + \frac{r(t) \sin(\psi(t) - \theta(t))}{A_c} \quad (8)$$

$$\theta(t) = 2\pi k_f \int_0^t m(t) dt + \frac{r(t) \sin(\psi(t) - \theta(t))}{A_c}$$

Where, $\theta(t) = 2\pi k_f \int_0^t m(t) dt$

The discriminator output, which is basically a differentiator to detect slope is given by is therefore

$$v(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{d\theta(t)}{dt} \quad (9)$$

$$v(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{d\{2\pi k_f \int_0^t m(t) dt\}}{dt} + \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{d\left\{\frac{r(t) \sin(\psi(t) - \theta(t))}{A_c}\right\}}{dt}$$

$$v(t) = k_f m(t) + n_d(t) \quad (10)$$

Where, $n_d(t)$ = additive noise = $\frac{1}{2\pi A_c} \frac{d\{r(t) \sin(\psi(t) - \theta(t))\}}{dt}$

Average signal power in $v(t)$ is $k_f^2 P$

assume that the phase difference $\psi(t) - \theta(t)$ is also uniformly distributed over 2π radians. If such an assumption were true, then the noise $n_d(t)$ at the discriminator output would be independent of the modulating signal and would depend only on the characteristics of the carrier and narrowband noise

$$n_d(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi A_c} \frac{d\{r(t) \sin(\psi(t))\}}{dt} \quad (11)$$

$$n_d(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi A_c} \frac{d\{n_Q(t)\}}{dt} \quad \because n_Q(t) = r(t) \sin(\psi(t))$$

$$n_d(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi A_c} \frac{d\{n_Q(t)\}}{dt} \quad (12)$$

$$N_d(f) = \frac{1}{2\pi A_c} \downarrow_{\text{F.T.}} j2\pi f N_Q(f)$$

$$N_d(f) = \frac{jf}{A_c} N_Q(f) \quad (13)$$

The input and output PSD can be related as
o/p PSD = |H(f)|² i/p PSD

$$S_{Nd}(f) = \left| \frac{jf}{A_c} \right|^2 S_{Nq}(f)$$

$$S_{Nd}(f) = \frac{f^2}{A_c^2} S_{Nq}(f) \quad (13)$$

The quadrature component $n_Q(t)$ of the narrowband noise $n(t)$ will have the ideal low-pass characteristic shown in

$$S_{No}(f) = \begin{cases} \frac{f^2}{A_c} N_0 & ; |f| \leq W \\ 0 & ; \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

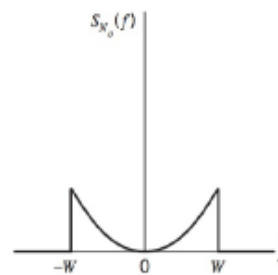


Fig. Power spectral density of noise $n_Q(t)$ at receiver output.

Average power of output noise = $\frac{N_0}{A_c} \int_{-W}^W f^2 dw$

$$= \frac{2N_0W^3}{3A_c^2}$$

➤ The output signal-to-noise ratio, average power of the demodulated message signal

$$(SNR)_o = \frac{\text{demodulated message signal}}{\text{the average power of the noise}}$$

$$(SNR)_o = \frac{3A_c^2 k_f^2 P}{2N_0 W^3} \quad (14)$$

FOM of FM receiver is given by

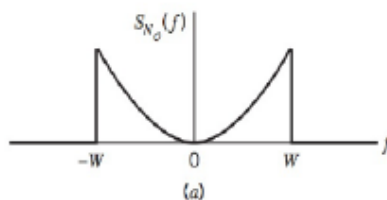
$$FOM = \frac{(SNR)_o}{(SNR)_c}$$

$$FOM = \frac{3A_c^2 k_f^2 P}{2N_0 W^3} \cdot \frac{A_c^2}{2N_0 W} = \frac{3k_f^2 P}{W^2} \quad (15)$$

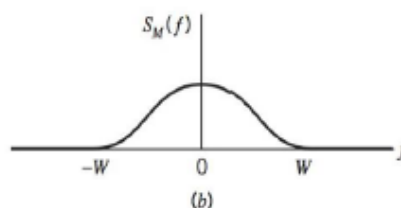
3) (iii) Pre emphasis and (iv) Deemphasis

➤ The power spectral density of output noise is given by

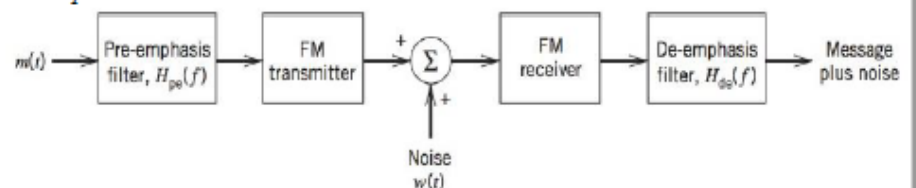
$$S_{No}(f) = \begin{cases} \frac{f^2}{A_c} N_0 & ; |f| \leq B_T = W \\ 0 & ; \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (1)$$



➤ The power spectral density of a typical message source; audio and video signals typically have spectra of this form, shown in figure (b),



- Near the cut-off frequency noise becomes more dominant compared to message signal, obviously SNR will go down.
- A more satisfactory approach to the efficient utilization of the allowed frequency band is based on the use of *pre-emphasis* in the transmitter and *de-emphasis* in the receiver



- In this method, we artificially emphasize the high-frequency components of the message signal prior to modulation in the transmitter
- Then, at the discriminator output in the receiver, we perform the inverse operation by de-emphasizing the high-frequency components, so as to restore the original signal-power distribution of the message
- In order to produce an undistorted version of the original message at the receiver output, the pre-emphasis filter in the transmitter and the de-emphasis filter in the receiver must ideally have transfer functions that are the inverse of each other.

$$H_{de}(f) = \frac{1}{H_{pe}(f)} \quad (2)$$

➤ Simple pre-emphasis filter that emphasizes high frequencies and is commonly used in practice is defined by the transfer function

$$H_{pe}(f) = 1 + \frac{jf}{f_0} \quad (3)$$

Hence,

$$H_{de}(f) = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{jf}{f_0}} \quad (4)$$

Average output noise power

$$\begin{aligned} \text{with de-emphasis} &= |H_{de}(f)|^2 \int_{-W}^W S_{N_0}(f) df \\ &= \frac{N_0}{A_c^2} \int_{-W}^W |H_{de}(f)|^2 f^2 df \quad (5) \end{aligned}$$

The improvement in output signal-to-noise ratio produced by the use of pre-emphasis in the transmitter and de-emphasis in the receiver is defined by

$$I = \frac{\text{average output noise power without pre-emphasis and de-emphasis}}{\text{average output noise power with pre-emphasis and de-emphasis}}$$

$$I = \frac{\frac{2N_0W^3}{3A_c^2}}{\frac{N_0}{A_c^2} \int_{-W}^W |H_{de}(f)|^2 f^2 df} = \frac{2W^3}{3 \int_{-W}^W |H_{de}(f)|^2 f^2 df}$$

$$I = \frac{2W^3}{3 \int_{-W}^W |H_{de}(f)|^2 f^2 df}$$

$$I = \frac{2W^3}{3 \int_{-W}^W \left| \frac{1}{1 + \frac{jf}{f_0}} \right|^2 f^2 df}$$

$$I = \frac{2W^3}{3 \left[\left(\frac{W}{f_0} \right) + \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{W}{f_0} \right) \right]}$$

(7)

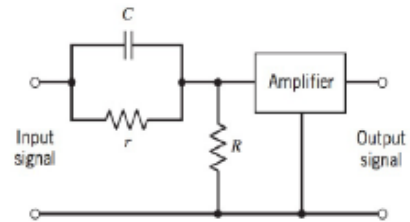


Fig.(c) Pre-emphasis filter

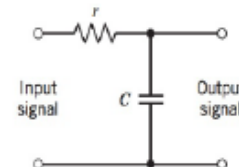
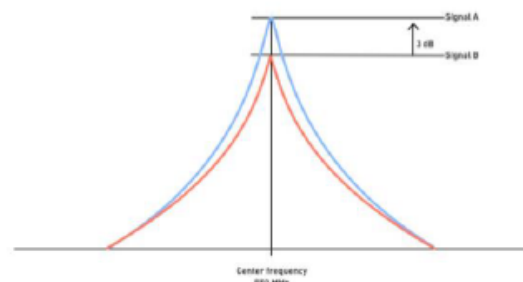


Fig.(d) de-emphasis filter

i) Capture effect

2.6) CAPTURE EFFECT

- In a radio receiver, the capture effect, or FM capture effect, is a phenomenon associated with FM reception in which only the stronger of two signals at, or near, the same frequency or channel will be demodulated.
- The capture effect is defined as the complete suppression of the weaker signal at the receiver's limiter (if present) where the weaker signal is not amplified, but attenuated.
- When both signals are nearly equal in strength, or are fading independently, the receiver may switch from one to the other and exhibit picket fencing.
- The capture effect can occur at the signal limiter, or in the demodulation stage.
- Some types of radio receiver circuits have a stronger capture effect than others. The measurement of how well a receiver can reject a second signal on the same frequency is called the capture ratio for a specific receiver.
- It is measured as the lowest ratio of the power of two signals that will result in the suppression of the smaller signal.



- The capture effect occurs with very low ratios between a signal of interest and a competing FM signal. This ratio depends on the receiver type and quality, but a separation of 3-4 dB is needed between two signals for the receiver to "lock on" to one instead of the other.

(ii) Threshold effect

2.7) FM THRESHOLD EFFECT

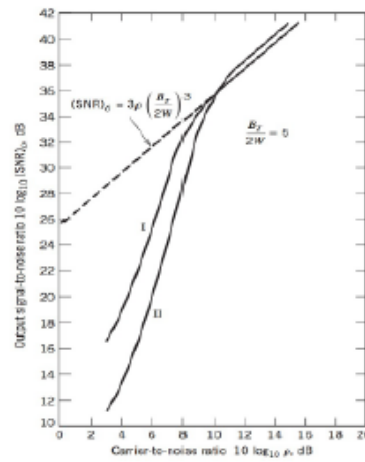
- An important aspect of analog FM systems is FM threshold effect. In FM systems where the signal level is well above noise received carrier-to-noise ratio then below FOM expression is valid

$$FOM = \frac{3k_f^2 P}{W^2} \quad (1)$$

- The expression however does not apply when the carrier-to-noise ratio decreases below a certain point. Below this critical point the signal-to-noise ratio decreases significantly, this is known as the FM threshold effect
- Below the FM threshold point the noise signal (whose amplitude and phase are randomly varying), may instantaneously have an amplitude greater than that of the wanted signal.
- When this happens the noise will produce a sudden change in the phase of the FM demodulator output. In an audio system this sudden phase change makes a "click".
- To characterize threshold performance, let the carrier-to-noise ratio be defined by

$$\rho = \frac{A_c^2}{N_0 B_T} \Rightarrow \rho = \frac{A_c^2}{2N_0 B_T} \quad (2)$$

- As ρ is decreased, the average number of clicks per unit time increases. When this number becomes appreciably large, the threshold is said to occur.



- In most practical cases of interest if the carrier-to-noise ratio ρ is equal to or greater than 20, equivalently, 13 dB. Thus, using Eq. (2) we find that the loss of message at the discriminator output is negligible if

$$\frac{A_c^2}{2N_0 B_T} \geq 20$$

or, equivalently, if the average transmitted power $\frac{A_c^2}{2}$ satisfies the condition

$$\frac{A_c^2}{2} \geq 20N_0 B_T$$

4)

Pulse Code Modulation (PCM)

In PCM, a message signal is represented by a sequence of coded pulse, which is accomplished by representing the signal in discrete form in both time and amplitude.

The basic elements of PCM system consist of

- 1) At Transmitter
 - (i) Sampler
 - (ii) Quantizer
 - (iii) Encoder.
- 2) In channel
 - (i) Set of Regenerative repeaters.
- 3) At Receiver
 - (i) Regeneration circuit
 - (ii) Decoder
 - (iii) Reconstruction filter

The block diagram representing basic element of a PCM system

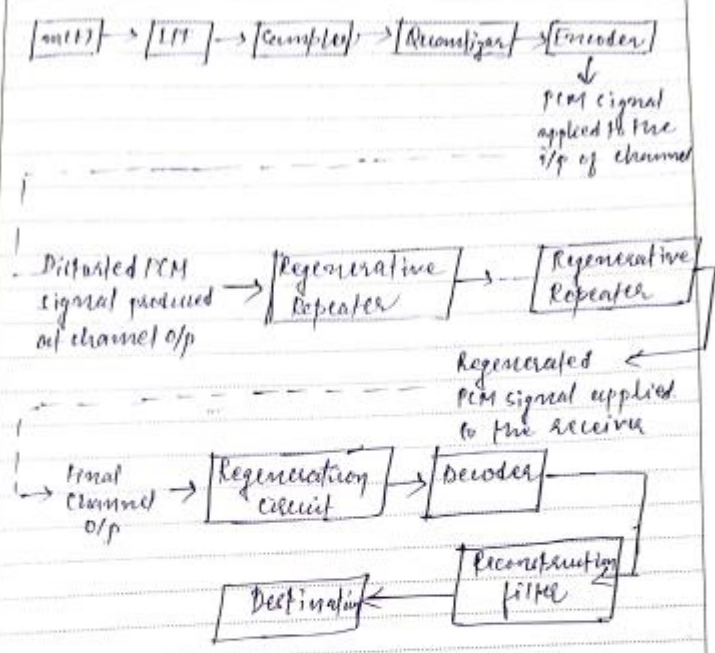
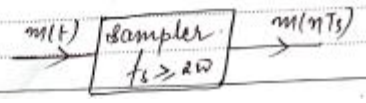


fig. Basic Elements of PCM System.

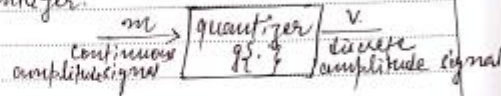
Sampling :- The incoming message signal is sampled with a train of narrow rectangular pulses so as to closely approximate instantaneous sampling. In order for proper reconstruction of signal at the Rx the sampling rate (f_s) must be chosen greater than 2ω .
 $f_s \geq 2(\text{Msg. freq.})$



Quantization

The sampled signal is then quantized, to provide new representation of signal, that is discrete both in time and amplitude. Quantization can be uniform quantization (midrise/mid-tread), where step-size is same for all levels, or it can be a non-uniform quantization, where we can do compression using μ -compression law and A -compression law, and then applying signal to quantizer.

$$v = q\{m\}$$



Encoding:-

After sampling and quantization, the next step is of encoding, which is nothing but representing these set of discrete values as a particular arrangement known as encoding coding.

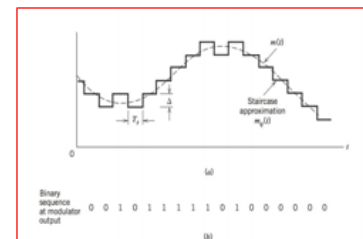
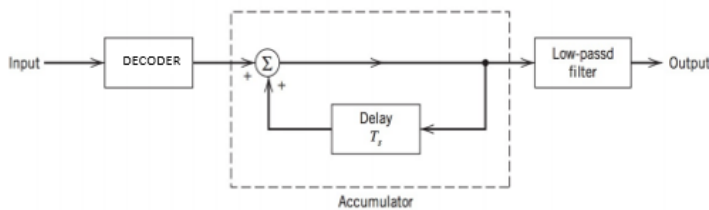
for eg. Binary coding involving two-symbols 0 and 1.

If sampling is done at 2 bits per sample then no. of possible level are $2^R \Rightarrow 2^2 = 4$, since $R = 2$ bits/sample

make
Main purpose of encoding is to transmitted signal more robust to noise, interference and other degradation.

5)

DM(D/A) decoder



$$m_q(nT_s) = m_q(nT_s - T_s) + e_q(nT_s)$$

$$m_q(nT_s) = \Delta \sum_{i=1}^n \text{sgn}[e(iT_s)]$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n e_q(iT_s)$$

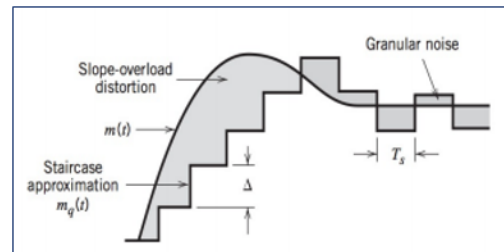
- Staircase approximation $m_q(t)$ is reconstructed by passing the sequence of positive and negative pulses, produced at the decoder output, through an accumulator in a manner similar to that used in the transmitter.
- The out-of-band quantization noise in the high-frequency staircase waveform $m_q(t)$ is rejected by passing it through a low-pass filter.

Quantization error in DM

- Slope overload distortion

$$m_q(nT_s) = m(nT_s) + q(nT_s)$$

$$e(nT_s) = m(nT_s) - m(nT_s - T_s) - q(nT_s - T_s)$$



- In order for the sequence of samples $m_q(nT_s)$ to increase as fast as the input sequence of samples $m(nT_s)$ in a region of maximum slope of $m(t)$, we require that the condition

$$\frac{\Delta}{T_s} \geq \max \left| \frac{dm(t)}{dt} \right|$$

Note

- Slope overload:
 - If the step-size Δ is too small for the staircase approximation $m_q(t)$ to follow a steep segment of the input waveform $m(t)$, with the result that $m_q(t)$ falls behind $m(t)$, this condition is called slope overload.
 - The resulting quantization error is called slope-overload distortion
- Granular noise
 - the step-size Δ is too large relative to the local slope characteristics of the input waveform $m(t)$
 - the staircase approximation $m_q(t)$ hunts around a relatively flat segment of the input waveform.
- There is a need to have a large step-size to accommodate a wide dynamic range, whereas a small step-size is required for the accurate representation of relatively low-level signals.
- To improve performance, we need to make the delta modulator adaptive
 - the step-size is made to vary in accordance with the input signal.