DPCM and Delta Modulation

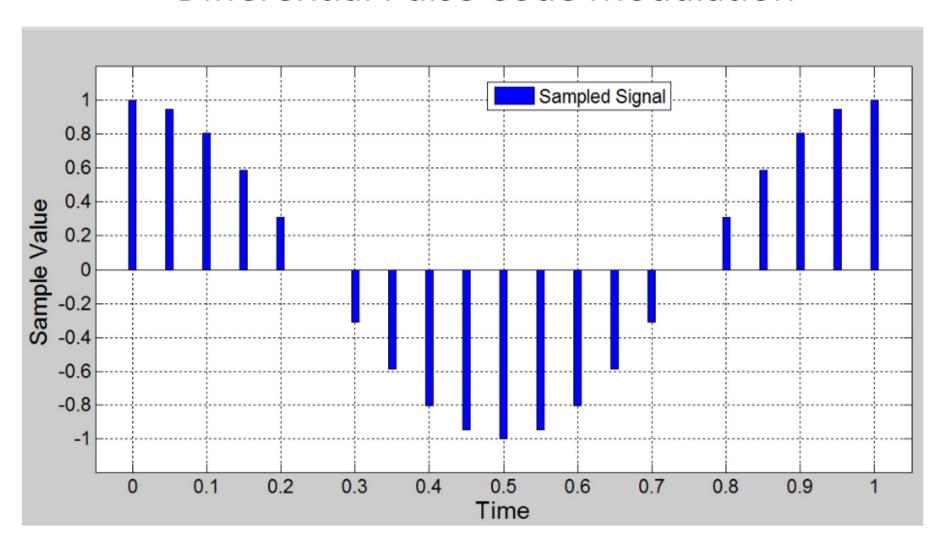
Differential Pulse Code Modulation

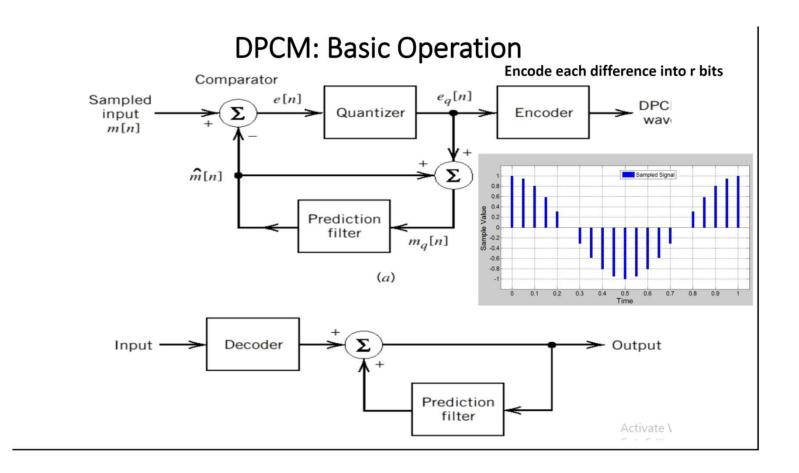
- The quantizers, that we studied so far, are memoryless, in the sense that
 quantization is done on a sample-by-sample basis. Each sample is quantized and
 encoded into n binary digits, regardless of any correlation with other samples.
- A differential pulse-code modulation (DPCM) quantizer quantizes the difference between a sample and a predicted value of that sample. Here, correlation between successive samples is utilized.
- The prediction is based, in general, on past m samples of the signal. If successive samples are highly correlated, the predictor output will be very close to the next sample value, and hence the prediction error will be small.
- An error with a small variance further means that fewer bits (r<n) are needed to represent the error.
- At the receiver, a predictor similar to the one used at the transmitter is used to reconstruct the original waveform

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Differential Pulse Code Modulation





DPCM: Linear Prediction Filter

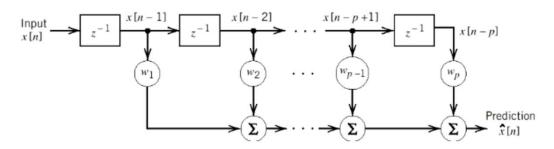
It is a discrete-time, finite-duration impulse response filter (FIR), which consists of three blocks:

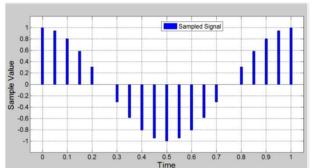
- 1. Set of p (p: prediction order) unit-delay elements (z^{-1})
- 2. Set of multipliers with coefficients $w_1, w_2, \dots w_p$
- 3. Set of adders (Σ)

This filter expresses the predicted value of the sample at time (nT_s) as a linear combination of the past p samples of the signal.

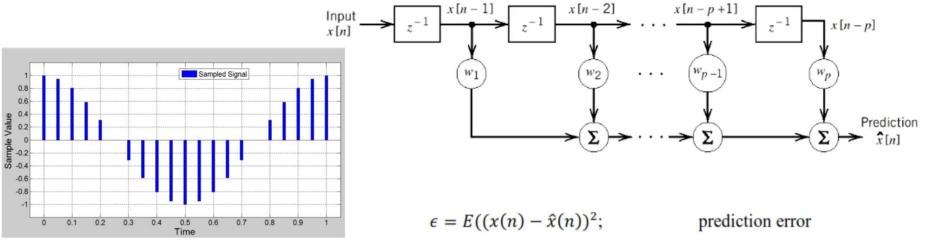
$$\hat{x}(n) = w_1 x(n-1) + w_2 x(n-2) + \dots + w_n x(n-p)$$

The coefficients $w_1, w_2, ..., w_p$ are chosen so as to minimize the mean square error $E(x(n) - \hat{x}(n))^2$.





DPCM: Linear Prediction Filter



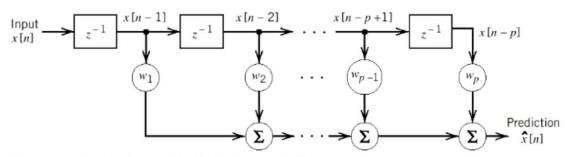
Substituting $\hat{x}(n) = w_1 x(n-1) + w_2 x(n-2) + \dots + w_p x(n-p)$, the prediction error becomes:

$$\epsilon = E((x(n) - w_1x(n-1) + w_2x(n-2) + \dots + w_px(n-p))^2$$

Expanding ϵ and taking expectation of all terms, we get:

$$\epsilon = E(x(n)^2) - 2\sum_{i=1}^p w_i E[x(n)x(n-i)] + \sum_{i=1}^p \sum_{j=1}^p w_i w_j \ E[x(n-i)x(n-j)]$$

DPCM: Linear Prediction Filter



Recognize that: $R_x(i) = E[x(n)x(n-i)]$ is the autocorrelation function of x(t).

Differentiating ϵ with respect to w_i , setting the derivative to zero, and solving, we get (assuming p=3)

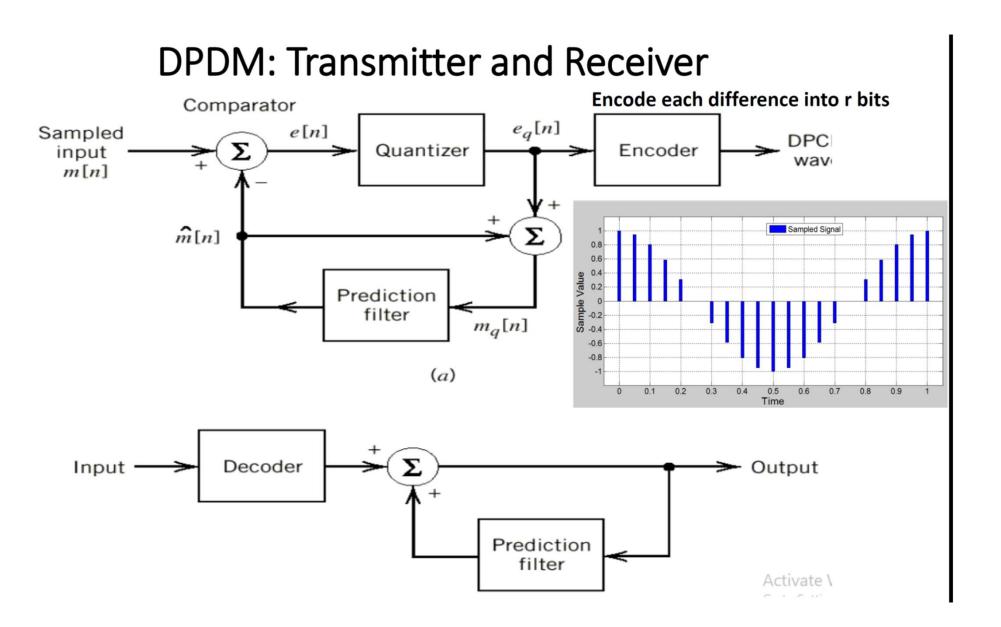
$$\begin{bmatrix} R_{x}(0) & R_{x}(1) & R_{x}(2) \\ R_{x}(-1) & R_{x}(0) & R_{x}(1) \\ R_{x}(-2) & R_{x}(-1) & R_{x}(0) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} w_{1} \\ w_{2} \\ w_{3} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} R_{x}(1) \\ R_{x}(2) \\ R_{x}(3) \end{bmatrix} \qquad R(1) = R(T_{S})$$

$$R(2) = R(2T_{S})$$

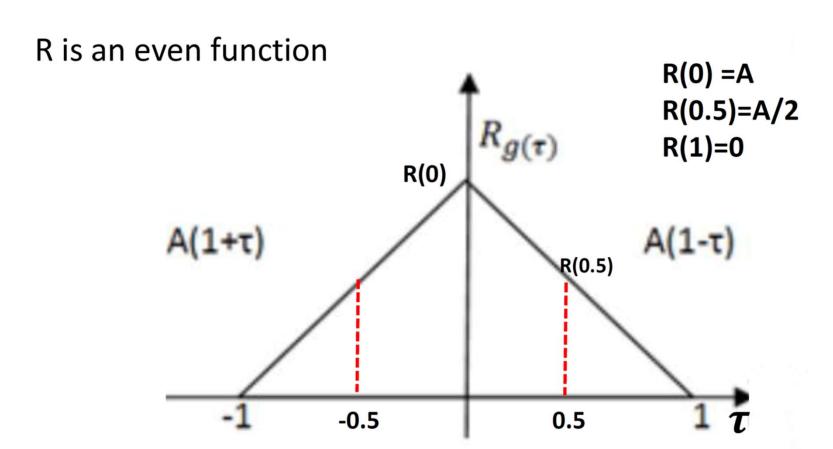
If p=1, the above equation reduces to

$$w_1 = R_x(1)/R_x(0)$$

Note that:
$$R_x(-1) = R_x(1)$$
, $R_x(-2) = R_x(2)$, $R_x(1) = R_x(T_s)$, $R_x(2) = R_x(2T_s)$, $R_x(3) = R_x(3T_s)$.



DPCM: Autocorrelation Function



DPCM: Concluding Summary

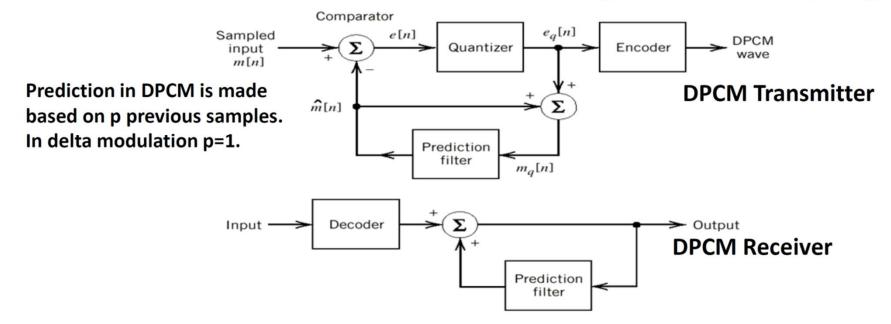
Sample Sample Estimate of Sample

At transmitter:

- Samples are known
- Estimate is known since estimate is a linear function of the samples.
- Transmit
- Difference= Sample Estimate
- At receiver:
 - Receive Difference
 - Construct Estimate
- Sample = Estimate + Difference

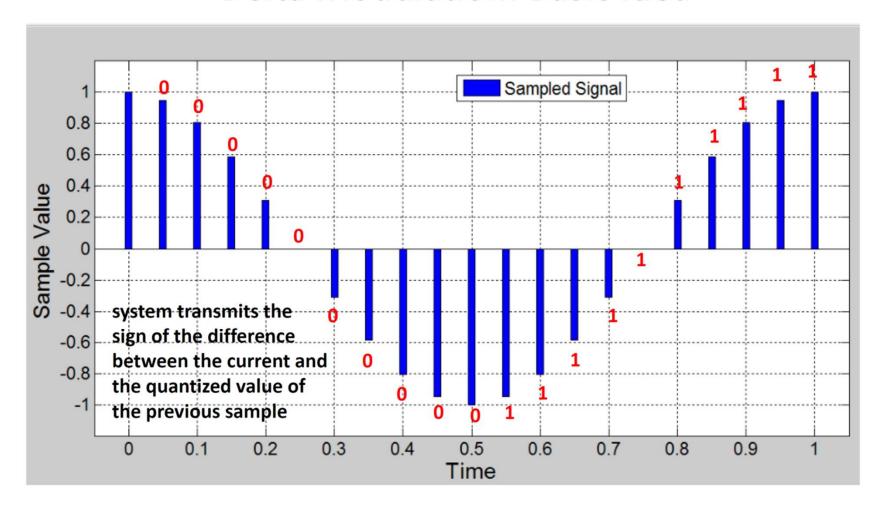
Delta Modulation

- Remark: Before you attend this lecture, please attend the previous one on DPCM.
- Delta modulation (DM), is a special case of Differential Pulse Code Modulation (DPCM).
- The order of the prediction filter in delta modulation is p=1 and represents only the
 quantized value of the previous sample. The number of quantization levels is two.
- In this scheme, the system transmits the sign of the difference between the current sample and the quantized value of the previous sample. The sign is represented by a single bit.





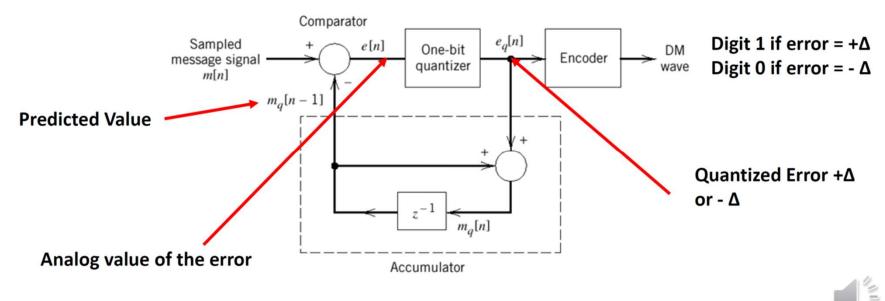
Delta Modulation: Basic Idea





Delta Modulation: The Transmitter Side

- The transmitter side consists of the comparator, the one bit quantizer, the encoder, and the accumulator.
- The accumulator (an integrator) adds the new quantized difference ($+\Delta$ or $-\Delta$) to the old predicted value to generate the new predicted value.
- The output of the predictor is a staircase approximation of the message signal.



Delta Modulation: The Transmitter Side

Let $m[n] = m(nT_s)$, $n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2,...$

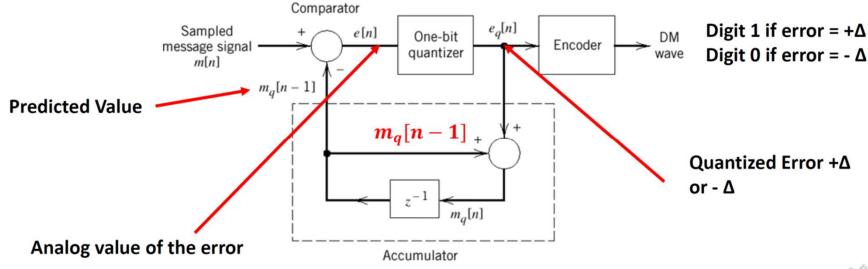
where T_s is the sampling period and $m(nT_s)$ is a sample of m(t). The error signal is

$$e[n] = m[n] - m_q[n-1]$$

 $e_q[n] = \Delta \operatorname{sgn}(e[n])$; quantized error

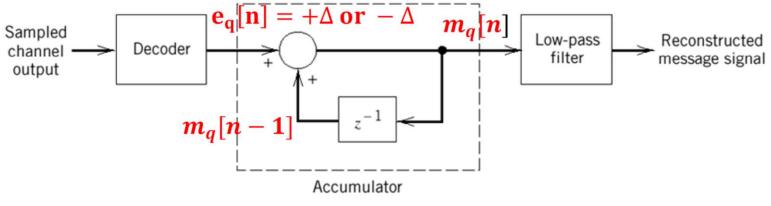
$$m_q[n] = m_q[n-1] + e_q[n]$$

where $m_q[n]$ is the quantizer output $e_q[n]$ is the quantized version of e[n], and Δ is the step size



Delta Modulation: The Receiver Part

- The receiver part consists of the decoder, the accumulator, and a low pass filter.
- The decoder interprets a zero as $-\Delta$ and one as $+\Delta$. These deltas represent the differences between current and previous samples.
- The accumulator regenerates the predicted staircase signal.
- The low pass filter smoothens the predicted signal by removing high frequency components.
- The reconstructed signal $m_q(t)$ is the same as the predicted signal used at the transmitter side



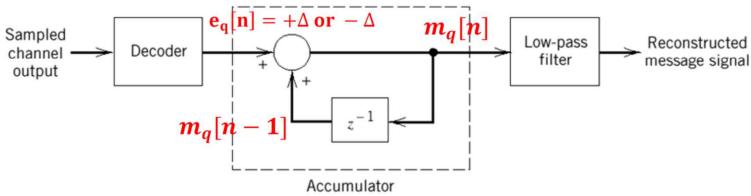
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Delta Modulation: The Receiver Part

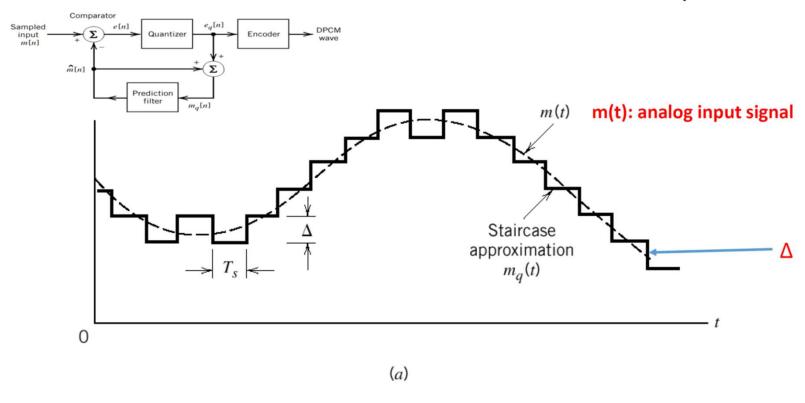
$$m_{q}[n] = m_{q}[n-1] + e_{q}[n]$$

$$\Rightarrow m_{q}[n] = \Delta \sum_{i=1}^{n} \operatorname{sgn}(e[i])$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} e_{q}[i]$$



Delta Modulation: Basic Operation

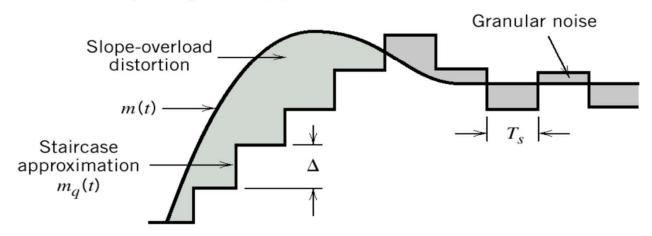


Binary sequence at modulator 0 0 1 0 1 1 1 1 1 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 output



Slope Overload Distortion and Granular Noise

- Slope overload distortion is due to the fact that the staircase approximation $m_q(t)$ can't follow closely the actual curve of the message signal m(t). In contrast to slope-overload distortion, granular noise occurs when Δ is too large relative to the local slope characteristics of m(t). granular noise is similar to quantization noise in PCM.
- It seems that a large Δ is needed for rapid variations of m(t) to reduce the slope-overload distortion and a small Δ is needed for slowly varying m(t) to reduce the granular noise. The optimum Δ can only be a compromise between the two cases.
- To satisfy both cases, an adaptive DM is needed, where the step size Δ can be adjusted in accordance with the input signal m(t) (not to be covered in this lecture)





Slope Overload

Slope overload occurs when the signal changes at a rate faster than that of the predicted signal. To avoid slope overload, we must have

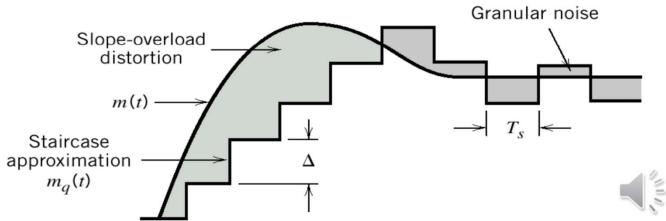
$$\frac{\Delta}{T_S} \ge max \left| \frac{dm(t)}{dt} \right|$$

When $m(t) = A_m \cos(2\pi f_m t)$, the condition for avoiding slope overload becomes

$$\frac{\Delta}{T_s} \ge 2\pi A_m f_m$$
; OR $\Delta \ge 2\pi T_s A_m f_m$

As we can see, slope overload depends on three factors:

- Sampling frequency (larger sampling, reduces the effect)
- Message amplitude (larger amplitude, increases the effect)
- Message frequency (larger message frequency, increases the effect



Adaptive Delta Modulation

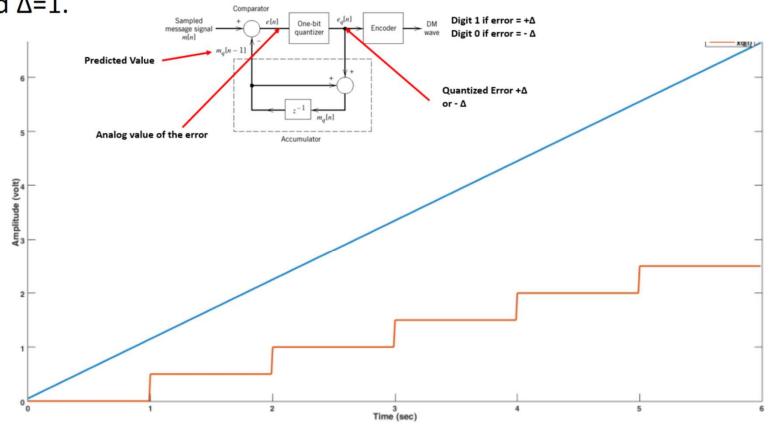
- The step size in delta modulation affects the quality of the transmitted waveform (slope overload or granular noise).
- A larger step-size is needed in the steep slope of modulating signal
- a smaller step size is needed where the message has a small slope
- In adaptive delta modulation, the step size is adjusted via a feedback control signal so as to reduce both slope overload and granular noise effects.
- ADM quantizes the difference between the value of the current sample and the predicted value of the next sample. It uses a variable step height to predict the next values, for the faithful reproduction of the fast varying values.



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Delta Modulation: Example

• Draw the output of the DM given that the input corresponds to x(t) = 1.1t + 0.05 when the input is sampled at t = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, ... and Δ =1.





Delta Demodulation: Example

• Reconstruct a staircase signal at the receiver side of a delta demodulator with Δ = 0.1V, when the received data sequence is 1 1 1 1 0 0 1 1 1 1 0 1 0 1 1 1.

