DSP First Lab 09: Encoding and Decoding Touch-Tone Signals

¹**Pre-Lab and Warm-Up:** You should read at least the Pre-Lab and Warm-up sections of this lab assignment and go over all exercises in the Pre-Lab section before going to your assigned lab session.

Verification: The Warm-up section of each lab must be completed **during your assigned Lab time** and the steps marked *Instructor Verification* must also be signed off **during the lab time**. One of the laboratory instructors must verify the appropriate steps by signing on the **Instructor Verification** line. When you have completed a step that requires verification, simply demonstrate the step to the TA or instructor. Turn in the completed verification sheet to your TA when you leave the lab.

Lab Report: It is only necessary to turn in a report on Section 4 with graphs and explanations. You are asked to **label** the axes of your plots and include a title for every plot. In order to keep track of plots, include your plot *inlined* within your report. If you are unsure about what is expected, ask the TA who will grade your report.

1 Introduction

This lab introduces a practical application where sinusoidal signals are used to transmit information: a touch-tone dialer. Bandpass FIR filters can be used to extract the information encoded in the waveforms. The goal of this lab is to design and implement bandpass FIR filters in LabVIEW, and to do the decoding automatically. In the experiments of this lab, you will use FIR filter and convolution VIs to implement filters and the freqz VI to obtain the filter's frequency response. As a result, you should learn how to characterize a filter by knowing how it reacts to different frequency components in the input.

1.1 Review

In a previous lab, you learned about both L-Point Average and Nulling Filters. Another very important FIR filter is known as the Band-Pass Filter (BPF). For the rest of the lab, you will learn how to design these filters and how to use them to do certain tasks for you. One practical example is

learn how to design these filters and how to use them to do certain tasks for you. One practical example is the dual tone multiple frequency (DTMF) signals used to dial a telephone. Read the following Background section before coming to the lab to speed up the sign-off process in the lab.

1.2 Background: Telephone Touch Tone Dialing

Telephone touch-tone²² pads generate dual tone multiple frequency (DTMF) signals to dial a telephone. When any key is pressed, the sinusoids of the corresponding row and column ³frequencies (in Fig. 1) are generated and summed, hence dual tone. As an example, pressing the 5 key generates a signal containing the sum of the two tones at 770 Hz and 1336 Hz together. The frequencies in Fig. 1 were chosen (by the design engineers) to avoid harmonics. No frequency is an integer multiple of another, the difference between any two frequencies does not equal any of the frequencies, and the sum of any two frequencies

² Touch Tone is a registered trademark

³ More information can be found at: http://www.genave.com/dtmf.htm, or search for "DTMF" on the Internet.

does not equal any of the frequencies.³ This makes it easier to detect exactly which tones are present in the dialed signal in the presence of non-linear line distortions.

FREQS	1209 Hz	1336 Hz	1477 Hz	1633 Hz
697 Hz	1	2	3	А
770 Hz	4	5	6	В
852 Hz	7	8	9	С
941 Hz	*	0	#	D

Figure 1: Extended DTMF encoding table for Touch Tone dialing. When any key is pressed the tones of the corresponding column and row are generated and summed. Keys A-D (in the fourth column) are not implemented on commercial and household telephone sets, but are used in some military and other signaling applications.

1.3 DTMF Decoding

There are several steps to decoding a DTMF signal:

1. Divide the time signal into short time segments representing individual key presses.

2. Filter the individual segments to extract the possible frequency components. Bandpass filters can be used to isolate the sinusoidal components.

3. Determine which two frequency components are present in each time segment by measuring the size of the output signal from all of the bandpass filters.

4. Determine which key was pressed, 0–9, A–D, *, or # by converting frequency pairs back into key names according to Fig. 1.

It is possible to decode DTMF signals using a simple FIR filter bank. The filter bank in Fig. 2 consists of eight bandpass filters which each pass only one of the eight possible DTMF frequencies. The input signal for all the filters is the same DTMF signal.

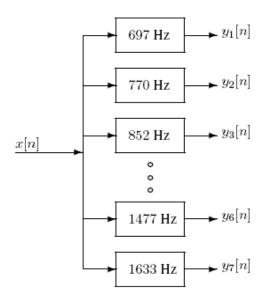


Figure 2: Filter bank consisting of bandpass filters (BPFs) which pass frequencies corresponding to the eight DTMF component frequencies listed in Fig. 1. The number is each box is the center frequency of the BPF.

Here is how the system should work: When the input to the filter bank is a DTMF signal, the outputs from two of the bandpass filters (BPFs) should be larger than the rest. If we detect (or measure) which two outputs are the large ones, then we know the two corresponding frequencies. These frequencies are then used as row and column pointers to determine the key from the DTMF code. A good measure of the output levels is the peak value at the filter outputs, because when the BPF is working properly it should pass only one sinusoidal signal and the *peak value* would be the amplitude of the sinusoid passed by the filter. More discussion of the detection problem can be found in Section 4.

2 Pre-lab

2.1 Signal Concatenation

In a previous lab, a very long music signal was created by joining together many sinusoids. When two signals were played one after the other, the composite signal was created by the operation of concatenation. In MathScript, this can be done by making each signal a row vector, and then using the matrix building notation as follows:

xx = [xx, xxnew];

where xxnew is the sub-signal being appended. The length of the new signal is equal to the sum of the lengths of the two signals xx and xxnew. A third signal could be added later on by concatenating it to xx. In LabVIEW, we can use the "Append Signals" express VI to attach waveforms to each other. If we are only dealing with arrays, we can build an array using two preexisting arrays.

2.1.1 Comment on Efficiency

In LabVIEW, the efficient of concatenation depends on the type of loop used. However, in general, when we append a waveform in a loop(xx = [xx, xxnew]), this becomes an inefficient procedure if the signal length gets to be very large. The reason is that LabVIEW must re-allocate the memory space for xx every time a new sub-signal is appended via concatenation. If the length xx were being extended from 400,000 to 401,000, then a clean section of memory consisting of 401,000 elements would have to be allocated followed by a copy of the existing 400,000 signal elements and finally the append would be done. This is clearly inefficient, but would not be noticed for short signals.

An alternative is to pre-allocate storage for the complete signal vector, but this can only be done if the final signal length is known ahead of time. Additionally, if a for loop is used with auto-indexing enabled, LabVIEW will do this automatically.

2.1.2 Encoding from a Table

Explain how the following program uses frequency information stored in a table to generate a long signal via concatenation. Determine the size of the table and all of its entries, and then state the playing order of the frequencies. Determine the total length of the signal played by the soundsc function. How many samples and how many seconds?

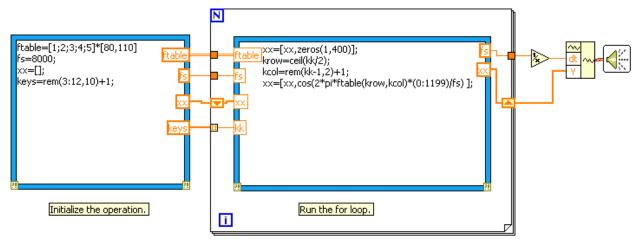


Figure 3: LabVIEW code to encode from a table

Note: we have used a combination of MathScript and LabVIEW graphical methods in this example. When you are writing programs in the future, think about how you can use the strengths of each method to write the best code possible.

2.2 Overlay Plotting

Sometimes it is convenient to overlay information in a LabVIEW graph for comparison. We can use the Merge Signals VI to do this. Demonstrate that you can do an overlay by building the following example.

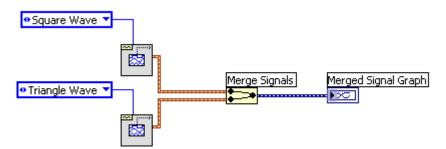


Figure 4: Overlaying signals in LabVIEW using the Merge Signals VI.

Your merged signal front panel should look something like this. You can change the name of each plot by clicking on its name in the top-right corner.

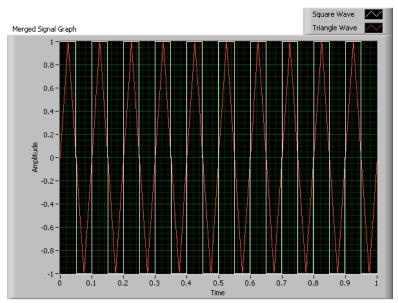


Figure 5: The result of the above block diagram. Now we can see two signals on the same plot for comparison purposes.

3 Warm-up: DTMF Synthesis

3.1 DTMF Dial Function

Write a function to implement a DTMF dialer based on the frequency table defined in Fig. 1. A skeleton is given in Fig. 6. In this warm-up, you must complete the dialing code.

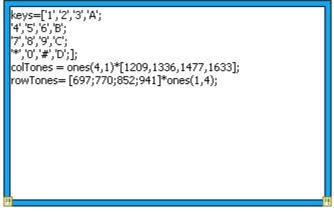


Figure 6: Starter for the DTMF Dialer function.

The basic code in the MathScript node must be supplemented by LabVIEW elements to complete this function so that it implements the following:

1. The input to the function is a vector of characters, each one being equal to one of the key names on the telephone. The variable, keys, in the node contains the key names in a 4×4 array that corresponds exactly to the keyboard layout in Fig. 1.

2. The output should be a vector of samples with sampling rate $f_s = 8000$ Hz containing the DTMF tones, one tone pair per key. Remember that each DTMF signal is the sum of a pair of (equal amplitude) sinusoidal signals. The duration of each tone pair should be exactly 0.20 sec., and a silence, about 0.05 sec. long, should separate the DTMF tone pairs. These times can be declared as fixed code. (You do not need to make them variable in your function.)

3. The frequency information is given as two 4×4 arrays (colTones and rowTones): one contains the column frequencies, the other has the row frequencies. You can translate a key such as the 6 key into the correct location in these 4×4 matrices by using MathScript's find function or the search 1D array VI in the DSP First Toolkit. For example, the key 6 is in row 2 and column 3, so we would generate sinusoids with frequencies equal to colTones(2,3) and rowTones(2,3).

To convert a key name to its corresponding row-column indices, consider the following example:

[ii,jj] = find('3'==dtmf.keys)

You can also use "search all in 1D array.vi". Also, consult the code in Section 2.1 above and modify it for 4×4 tables.

4. You should implement error checking so that an illegitimate key name is rejected. Your function should create the appropriate tone sequence to dial an arbitrary phone number. When played through a telephone handset, the output of your function will be able to dial the phone. You could use specgram.vi to check your work.

Instructor Verification (separate page)

3.2 Simple Bandpass Filter Design

The *L*-point averaging filter is a lowpass filter. Its passband width is controlled by *L*, being inversely proportional to *L*. It is also possible to create a filter whose passband is centered around some frequency other than zero. One simple way to do this is to define the impulse response of an *L*-point FIR as:

$$h[n] = \beta \cos(\hat{w}_c n), \qquad 0 \le n < L$$

where *L* is the filter length, and \hat{w}_c is the center frequency that defines the frequency location of the passband. For example, we pick $\hat{w}_c = 0.2\pi$ if we want the peak of the filter's passband to be centered at 0.2π . Also, it is possible to choose β so that the maximum value of the frequency response magnitude will be one. The bandwidth of the bandpass filter is controlled by *L*; the larger the value of *L*, the narrower the bandwidth. This particular filter is also discussed in the section on useful filters in Chapter 7 of DSP First.

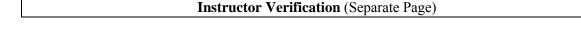
a) Generate a bandpass filter that will pass a frequency component at $\hat{w} = 0.2\pi$. Make the filter length (*L*) equal to 51. Figure out the value of β so that the maximum value of the frequency

response magnitude will be one. Make a plot of the frequency response magnitude and phase. Hint: use MATLAB's freqz()function to calculate these values.

b) The passband of the BPF filter is defined by the region of the frequency response where $|H(e^{j\hat{w}})|$ is close to its maximum value of one. Typically, the passband width is defined as the length of the frequency region where $|H(e^{j\hat{w}})|$ is greater than $1/\sqrt{2} = 0.707$. Note: you can use MATLAB's find function to locate those frequencies where the magnitude satisfies $|H(e^{j\hat{w}})| \ge 0.707$ (similar to Fig. 7). Use the plot of the frequency response for the length of the length-51 bandpass filter from part (a) to determine the passband width.

Instructor Verification (Separate Page)

c) If the sampling rate is fs = 8000 Hz, determine the analog frequency components that will be passed by this bandpass filter. Use the passband width and also the center frequency of the BPF to make this calculation.



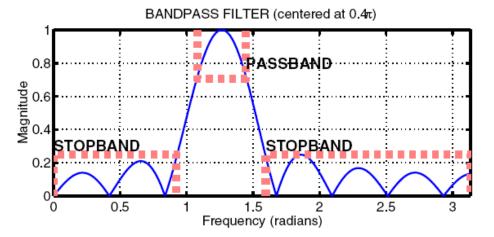


Figure 7: The frequency response of an FIR bandpass is shown with its passband and stopband regions.

4 Lab Exercises: DTMF Decoding

A DTMF decoding system needs two pieces: a set of bandpass filters (BPF) to isolate individual frequency components, and a detector to determine whether or not a given component is present. The detector must "score" each BPF output and determine which two frequencies are most likely to be contained in the DTMF tone. In a practical system where noise and interference are also present, this scoring process is a crucial part of the system design, but we will only work with noise-free signals to understand the basic functionality in the decoding system.

To make the whole system work, you will have to write three VIs: dtmfrun, dtmfscore and dtmfdesign. An additional VI called dtmfcut can be downloaded from the 'LabVIEW Files' link. The main file should be named dtmfrun.vi. It will call dtmfdesign.vi, dtmfcut.vi, and dtmfscore.vi. The following sections discuss how to create or complete these functions.

4.1 Simple Bandpass Filter Design: dtmfdesign.vi

center frequencies	This VI should return a matrix (L by length(fb)) where each column contains the impulse response of a BPF, one for each frequency in fb.	BPF impulse response
filter length	It should take the following inputs: vector of center frequencies, length of FIR bandpass filters, and sampling frequency.	
Ísamp DBL∳	Each BPF must be scaled so that its frequency response has a maximum magnitude equal to one.	

Figure 8: Skeleton of the dtmfdesign VI . Complete this VI with additional functions.

- a) Devise a strategy for picking the constant β so that the maximum value of the frequency response will be equal to one. Write the method that will do this scaling operation in general. There are two approaches here:
 - a. *Mathematical:* derive a formula for β from the formula for the frequency response of the BPF. Then use LabVIEW to evaluate this closed-form expression for β .
 - b. *Numerical:* let LabVIEW measure the peak value of the unscaled frequency response, and then compute β to scale the peak to be one.
- b) Complete the VI dtmfdesign.vi which is described in Fig. 8. This function should produce all eight bandpass filters needed for the DTMF filter bank system. Store the filters in the columns of the matrix hh whose size is $L \times 8$.
- c) The rest of this section describes how you can exhibit that you have designed a correct set of BPFs. In particular, you should justify how to choose L, the length of the filters. When you have completed your filter design function, you should run the L = 40 and L = 80 cases, and then you should determine empirically the minimum length L so that the frequency response will satisfy the specifications on passband width and stopband rejection given in part (f) below.
- d) Generate the eight (scaled) bandpass filters with L = 40 and $f_s = 8000$. Plot the magnitude of the frequency responses all together on one plot (the range $0 \le \hat{\omega} \le \pi$ is sufficient because $|H(e^{j\hat{w}})|$ is symmetric). Indicate the locations of each of the eight DTMF frequencies (697, 770, 852, 941, 1209, 1336, 1477, and 1633 Hz) on this plot to illustrate whether or not the passbands are narrow enough to separate the DTMF frequency components. Hint: use the overlay methods that you learned in the warm-up.

- e) Repeat the previous part with L = 80 and $f_s = 8000$. The width of the passband is supposed to vary inversely with the filter length L. Explain whether or not that is true by comparing the length 80 and length 40 cases.
- f) As help for the previous parts, recall the following definitions: The passband of the BPF filter is defined by the region of \hat{w} where $|H(e^{j\hat{w}})|$ is close to one. Typically, the passband width is defined as the length of the frequency region where $|H(e^{j\hat{w}})|$ is greater than $1/\sqrt{2} = 0.707$.
- g) The stopband of the BPF filter is defined by the region of $\widehat{\omega}$ where $|H(e^{j\hat{w}})|$ is close to zero. In this case, it is reasonable to define the stopband as the region where $|H(e^{j\hat{w}})|$ is less than 0.25.

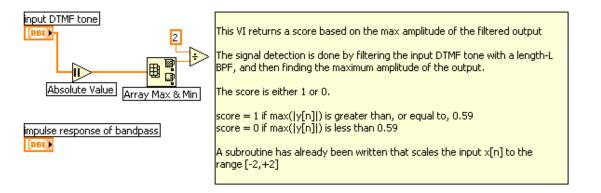
Filter Design Specifications: For each of the eight BPFs, choose L so that only one frequency lies within the passband of the BPF and all other DTMF frequencies lie in the stopband.

Zoom in to show the frequency response over the frequency domain where the DTMF frequencies lie. You can zoom in on a chart or graph by right-clicking on the indicator and navigating to **Visible Items » Graph Palette** and enabling this feature. This will allow you to zoom in using the now enabled magnifying glass tool. Comment on the selectivity of the bandpass filters, i.e., use the frequency response to explain how the filter passes one component while rejecting the others. Is each filter's passband narrow enough so that only one frequency component lies in the passband and the others are in the stopband? Since the same value of L is used for all the filters, which filter drives the problem? In other words, for which center frequency is it hardest to meet the specifications for the chosen value of L?

4.2 A Scoring Function: dtmfscore.vi

The final objective is decoding—a process that requires a binary decision on the presence or absence of the individual tones. In order to make the signal detection an automated process, we need a score function that rates the different possibilities.

a) Complete the dtmfscore VI based on the skeleton given in Fig. 9. The input signal to the dtmfscore function must be a short segment from the DTMF signal. The task of breaking up the signal so that each short segment corresponds to one key is done by the dtmfcut VI prior to calling dtmfscore.





b) Use the following rule for scoring: the score equals one when $\max_n |y_i[n] \ge 0.59$; otherwise, it is zero. The signal yi[n] is the output of the i-*th* BPF

score

DBL

- c) Prior to filtering and scoring, make sure that the input signal x[n] is normalized to the range [-2, +2]. With this scaling the two sinusoids that make up x[n] should each have amplitudes of approximately 1.0.5 Therefore the scoring threshold of 0.59 corresponds to a 59% level for detecting the presence of one sinusoid.
- d) The scoring rule above depends on proper scaling of the frequency response of the bandpass filters. Explain why the maximum value of the magnitude for $|H(e^{i\pi})|$ must be equal to one for each filter. Consider the fact that both sinusoids in the DTMF tone will experience a known gain (or attenuation) through the bandpass filter, so the amplitude of the output can be predicted if we control both the frequency response and the amplitude of the input.
- e) When debugging your program it might be useful to have a plot command inside the dtmfscore VI. If you plot the first 200–500 points of the filtered output, you should be able to see two cases: either y[n] is a strong sinusoid with an amplitude close to one (when the filter is matched to one of the component frequencies), or y[n] is relatively small when the filter passband and input signal frequency are mismatched.

4.3 DTMF Decode Function: dtmfrun.vi

The DTMF decoding function, dtmfrun, must use information from dtmfscore to determine which key was pressed based on an input DTMF tone. The skeleton of this function in Fig. 10 includes the help comments.

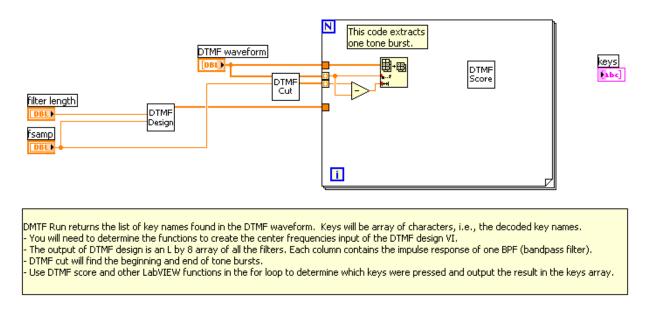


Figure 10: Skeleton of dtmfrun.vi. Complete the for loop in this function with additional functions including the DTMF score VI you built in section 4.2.

The DTMF run VI works as follows: first, it designs the eight bandpass filters that are needed, then it breaks the input signal down into individual segments. For each segment, it will have to call the user-written DTMF score function to score the different BPF outputs and then determine the key for that segment. The final output is the list of decoded keys. You must add the logic to decide which key is present.

The input signal to the dtmfscore function must be a short segment from the DTMF signal. The task of breaking up the signal so that each segment corresponds to one key is done with the DTMF cut function which is called from DTMF run. The score returned from the score function must be either a 1 or a 0 for each frequency. Then the decoding works as follows: If exactly one row frequency and one column frequency are scored as 1's, then a unique key is identified and the decoding is probably successful. In this case, you can determine the key by using the row and column index. It is possible that there might be an error in scoring if too many or too few frequencies are scored as 1's. In this case, you should return an error indicator (perhaps by setting the key equal to -1). There are several ways to write the run function, but you should avoid excessive use of case structures to test all 16 cases. You may be able to use "search all in 1D array.vi" to help you out.

4.4 Telephone Numbers

The dial and run functions can be used to test the entire DTMF system as shown in Fig. 11.

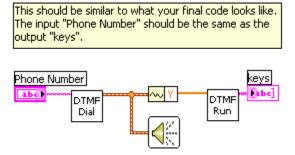


Figure 11: Testing the DTMF system.

It is also essential to have short pauses in between the tone pairs so that dtmfcut can parse out the individual signal segments. If you are presenting this project in a lab report, demonstrate a working version of your programs by running it on the following phone number:

407*89132#BADC

In addition, make a spectrogram of the signal from the DTMF dial VI to illustrate the presence of the dual tones.

4.5 Demo

When you submit your lab report, you must demonstrate your work to your TA. Have your code and files ready for the demo. You should call dtmfrun.vi for a signal provided by your TA. The output should be the decoded telephone number. The evaluation criteria are shown at the end of the verification sheet.

Lab 09 INSTRUCTOR VERIFICATION PAGE

For each verification, be prepared to explain your answer and respond to other related questions that the lab TA's or professors might ask. Turn this page in at the end of your lab period.

Name:	Date of Lab:
Part 3.1 Complete the dialing function dtmfc	lial.vi.
Verified:	Date/Time:
Part 3.2(b): Measure the passband width of t	he BPF.
Verified:	Date/Time:
Part 3.2(c) Determine the analog frequency or range of frequencies.	components passed by the BPF when $f_s = 8000$ Hz. Give the
Verified:	Date/Time:
DTMF D	ecoding Evaluation

Does the designed DTMF decoder decode the telephone numbers correctly for the following values of L?

L = 111 All Numbers Most None

L=Student's Length All Numbers_____ Most____ None____