## **BLM2041 Signals and Systems**

#### **Syllabus**

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# Information Systems:

## **Fundamentals**

#### **DEFINITION(S) OF SYSTEM**

A system can be broadly defined as an integrated set of elements that accomplish a defined objective.

People from different engineering disciplines have different perspectives of what a "system" is.

#### For example,

software engineers often refer to an integrated set of computer programs as a "system"

electrical engineers might refer to complex integrated circuits or an integrated set of electrical units as a "system"

As can be seen, "system" depends on one's perspective, and the "integrated set of elements that accomplish a defined objective" is an appropriate definition.

### **Definition(s) of system**

- A system is an assembly of parts where:
  - The parts or components are connected together in an organized way.
  - The parts or components are affected by being in the system (and are changed by leaving it).
  - The assembly does something.
  - The assembly has been identified by a person as being of special interest.
- Any arrangement which involves the handling, processing or manipulation of resources of whatever type can be represented as a system.
- Some definitions on online dictionaries
  - http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/System
  - http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/systems
  - http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/system.html

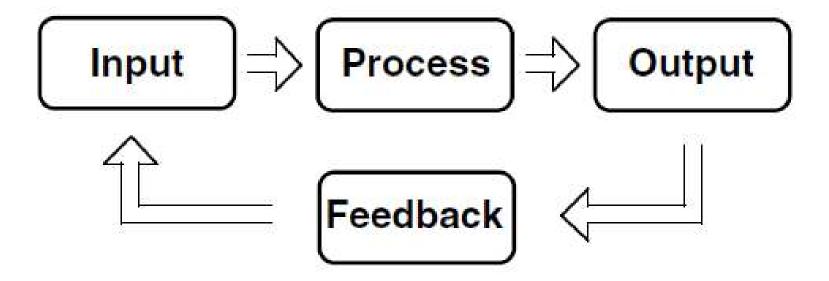
### **Definition(s) of system**

- A system is defined as multiple parts working together for a common purpose or goal.
- Systems can be large and complex
  - such as the air traffic control system or our global telecommunication network.
- Small devices can also be considered as systems
  - such as a pocket calculator, alarm clock, or 10speed bicycle.

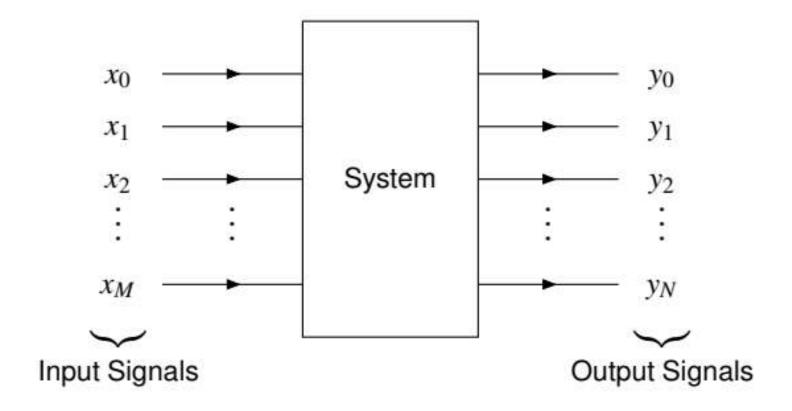
### **Definition(s) of system**

- Systems have inputs, processes, and outputs.
- When feedback (direct or indirect) is involved, that component is also important to the operation of the system.
- To explain all this, systems are usually explained using a model.
- A model helps to illustrate the major elements and their relationship, as illustrated in the next slide

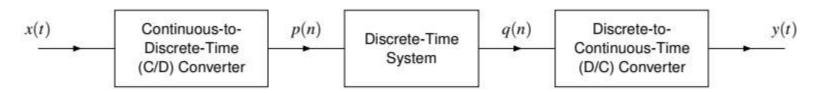
## A systems model



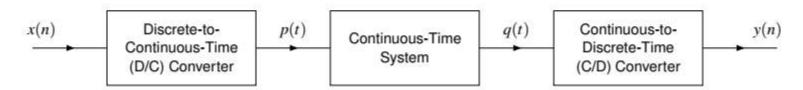
## A systems model



#### **Signal Processing System**

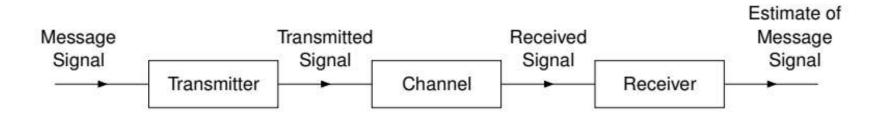


Processing a Continuous-Time Signal With a Discrete-Time System

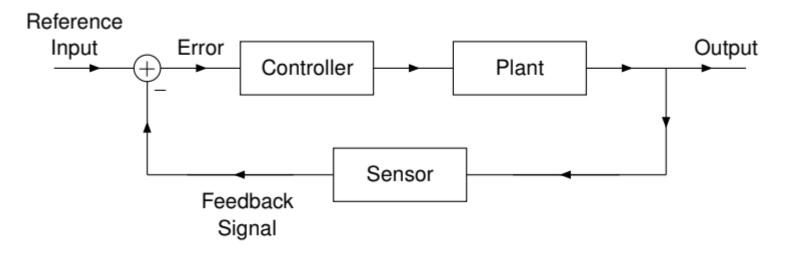


Processing a Discrete-Time Signal With a Continuous-Time System

## **Communication & Control Systems**



General Structure of a Communication System

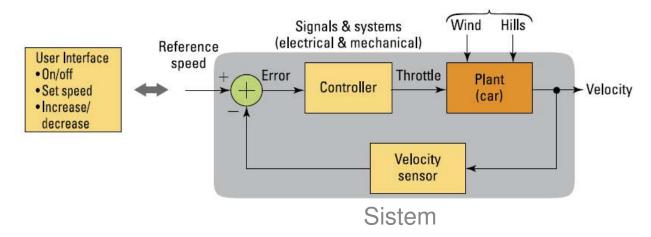


General Structure of a Feedback Control System

#### Arabalardaki Hız Sabitleme Sistemi

Giriş işareti: Referans hız, rüzgar ve yokuş olma durumu

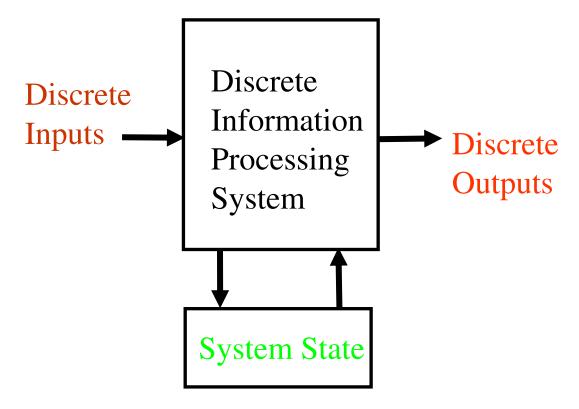
Çıkış işareti: Arabanın hızı



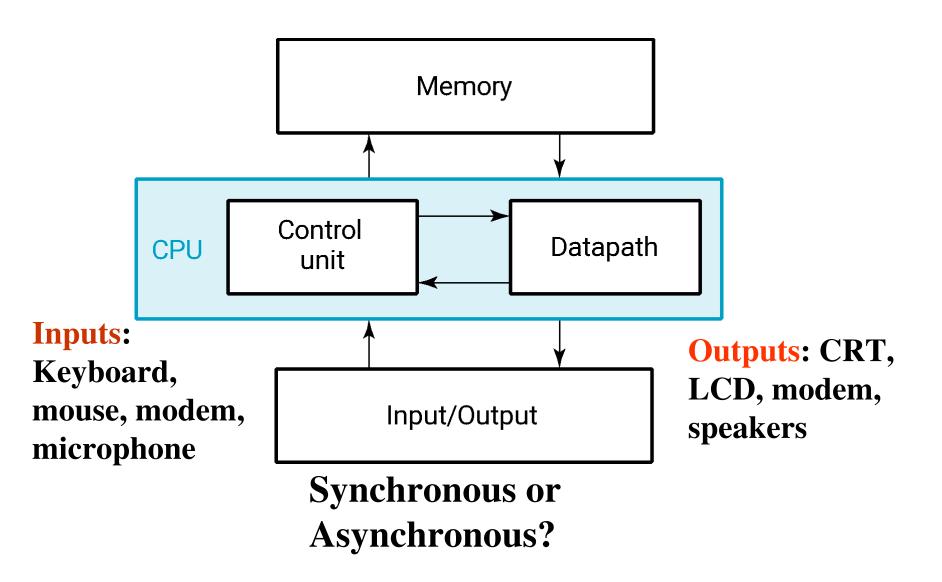
Ref: Signals and Systems for Dummies

## **Digital System**

 Takes a set of discrete information (<u>inputs</u>) and discrete internal information (<u>system state</u>) and generates a set of discrete information (<u>outputs</u>).



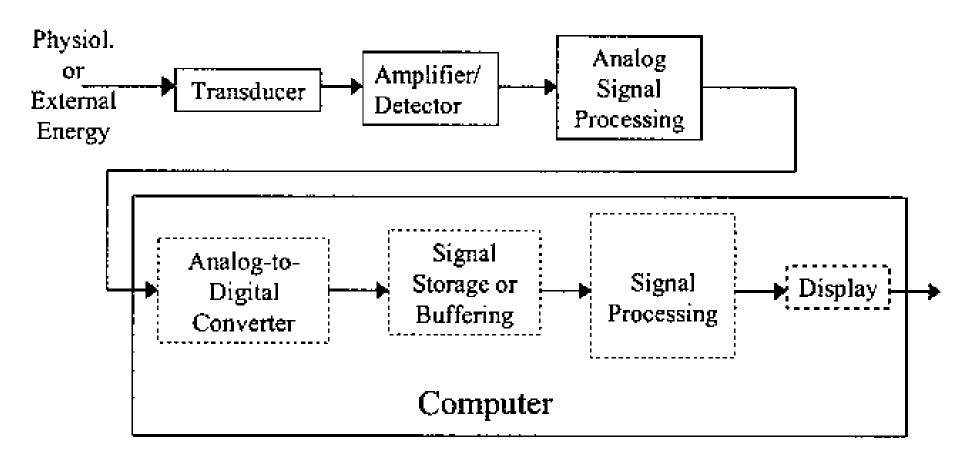
### A Digital Computer Example



## Signal

- An information variable represented by physical quantity.
- For digital systems, the variable takes on discrete values.
- Two level, or binary values are the most prevalent values in digital systems.
- Binary values are represented abstractly by:
  - digits 0 and 1
  - words (symbols) False (F) and True (T)
  - words (symbols) Low (L) and High (H)
  - and words On and Off.
- Binary values are represented by values or ranges of values of physical quantities

#### A typical measurement system



#### **Transducers**

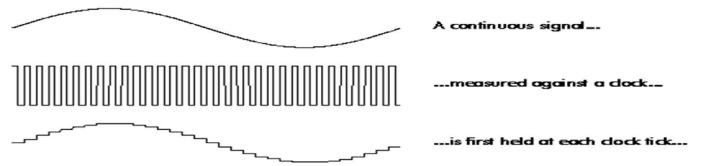
- A "transducer" is a device that converts energy from one form to another.
- In signal processing applications, the purpose of energy conversion is to transfer information, not to transform energy.
- In physiological measurement systems, transducers may be
  - input transducers (or sensors)
    - they convert a non-electrical energy into an electrical signal.
    - for example, a microphone.
  - output transducers (or actuators)
    - they convert an electrical signal into a non-electrical energy.
    - For example, a speaker.

### Analogue signal

- The analogue signal
  - a continuous variable defined with infinite precision
  - is converted to a discrete sequence of measured values which are represented digitally
- Information is lost in converting from analogue to digital, due to:
  - inaccuracies in the measurement
  - uncertainty in timing
  - limits on the duration of the measurement
- These effects are called quantisation errors

## Digital signal

• The continuous analogue signal has to be held before it can be sampled

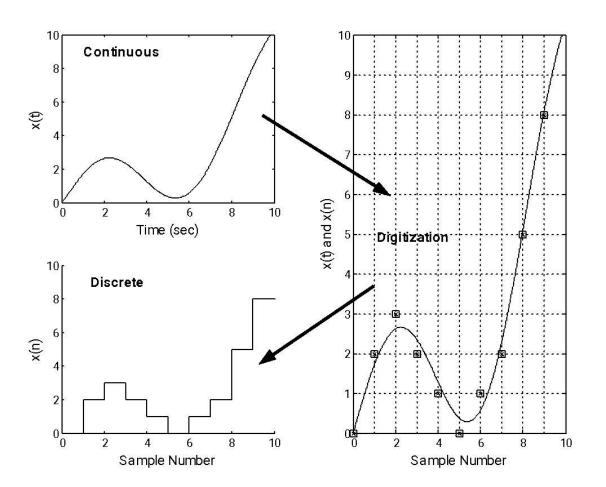


- Otherwise, the signal would be changing during the measurement
- Only after it has been held can the signal be measured, and the measurement converted to a digital value

#### Signal Encoding: Analog-to Digital Conversion

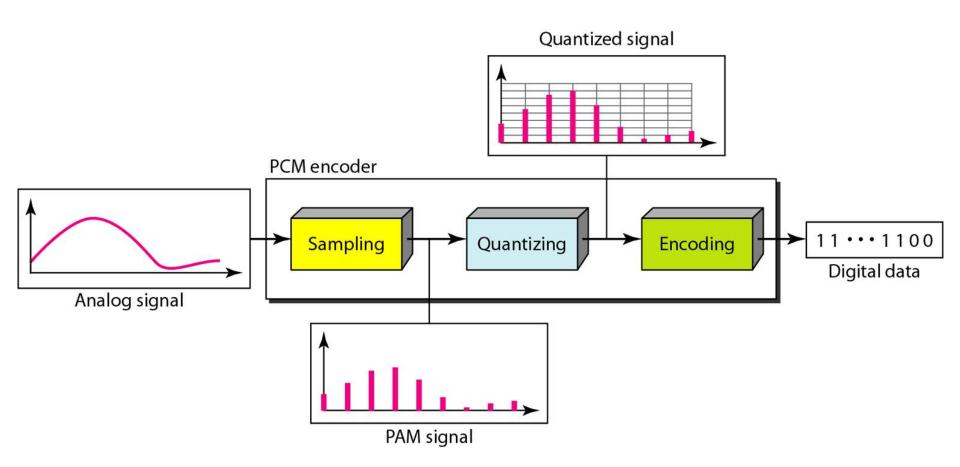
Continuous (analog) signal ←→ Discrete signal

 $x(t) = f(t) \leftrightarrow \text{Analog to digital conversion} \leftrightarrow x[n] = x[1], x[2], x[3], ... x[n]$ 



#### **Analog-to Digital Conversion**

- ADC consists of four steps to digitize an analog signal:
  - 1. Filtering
  - 2. Sampling
  - 3. Quantization
  - 4. Binary encoding
- Before we sample, we have to filter the signal to limit the maximum frequency of the signal as it affects the sampling rate.
- Filtering should ensure that we do not distort the signal, ie remove high frequency components that affect the signal shape.

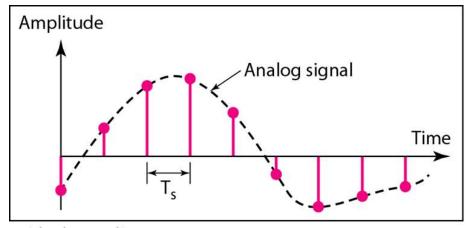


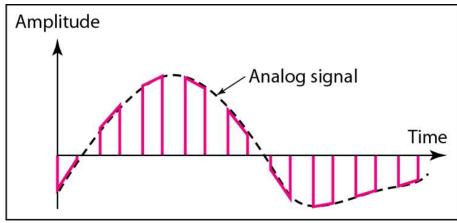
## Sampling

- The sampling results in a discrete set of digital numbers that represent measurements of the signal
  - usually taken at equal intervals of time
- Sampling takes place after the hold
  - The hold circuit must be fast enough that the signal is not changing during the time the circuit is acquiring the signal value
- We don't know what we don't measure
- In the process of measuring the signal, some information is lost

## Sampling

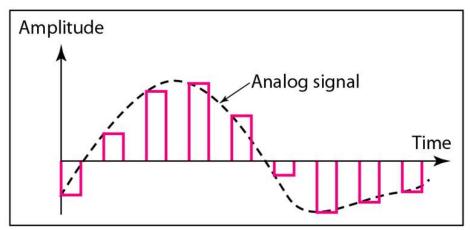
- Analog signal is sampled every T<sub>S</sub> secs.
- $T_s$  is referred to as the sampling interval.
- $f_s = 1/T_s$  is called the sampling rate or sampling frequency.
- There are 3 sampling methods:
  - Ideal an impulse at each sampling instant
  - Natural a pulse of short width with varying amplitude
  - Flattop sample and hold, like natural but with single amplitude value
- The process is referred to as pulse amplitude modulation PAM and the outcome is a signal with analog (non integer) values





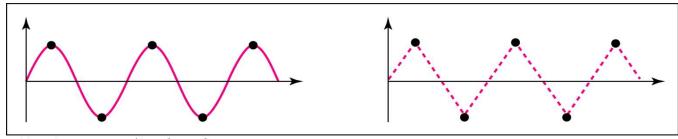
a. Ideal sampling

b. Natural sampling

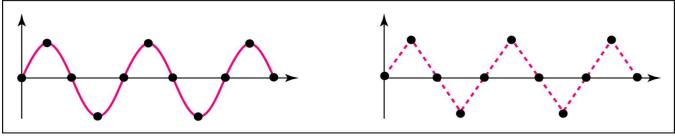


c. Flat-top sampling

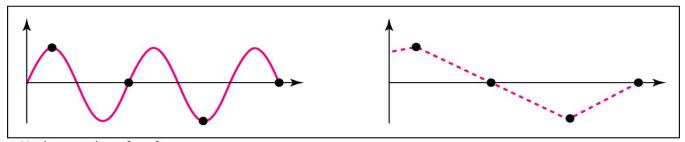
#### Recovery of a sampled sine wave for different sampling rates



a. Nyquist rate sampling:  $f_s = 2 f$ 



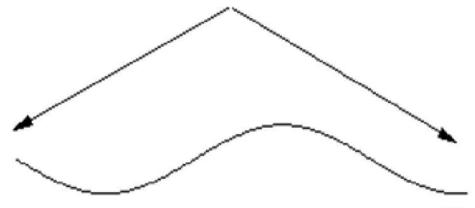
b. Oversampling:  $f_s = 4 f$ 



c. Undersampling:  $f_s = f$ 

#### We only measure for a certain length of time

• so we miss slow changes



We only measure to a certain accuracy

• so we miss small changes

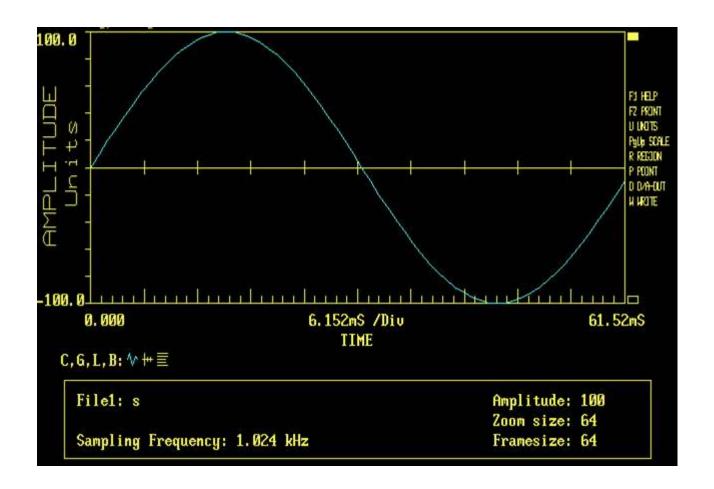
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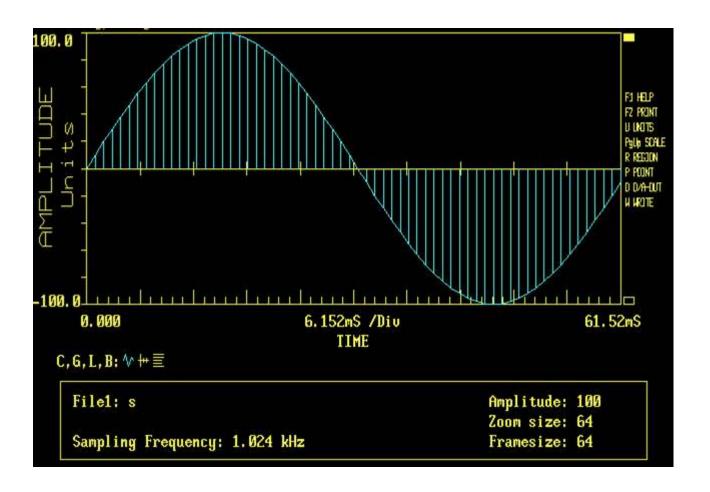
There may be slight errors in the dock

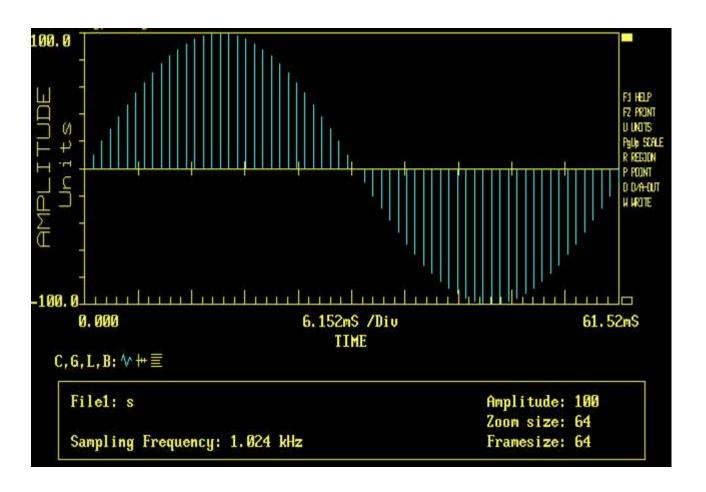
· so we have some timing uncertainty

We only measure the signal at intervals

• so we miss fast changes





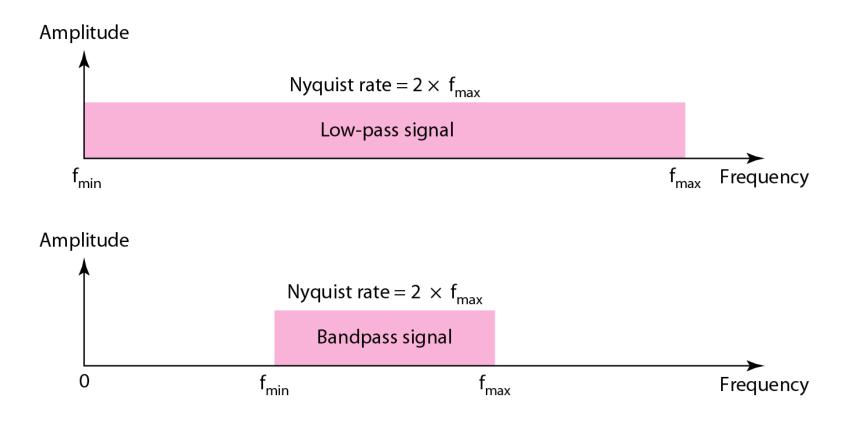


## **Sampling Theorem**

$$F_s \geq 2f_m$$

According to the Nyquist theorem, the sampling rate must be at least 2 times the highest frequency contained in the signal.

#### Nyquist sampling rate for low-pass and bandpass signals



#### Quantization

- Sampling results in a series of pulses of varying amplitude values ranging between two limits: a min and a max.
- The amplitude values are infinite between the two limits.
- We need to map the *infinite* amplitude values onto a finite set of known values.
- This is achieved by dividing the distance between min and max into L zones, each of height Δ.

$$\Delta = (\text{max - min})/L$$

#### **Quantization Levels**

- The midpoint of each zone is assigned a value from 0 to L-1 (resulting in L values)
- Each sample falling in a zone is then approximated to the value of the midpoint.

#### **Quantization Zones**

- Assume we have a voltage signal with amplitutes  $V_{min}$ =-20V and  $V_{max}$ =+20V.
- We want to use L=8 quantization levels.
- Zone width  $\Delta = (20 20)/8 = 5$
- The 8 zones are: -20 to -15, -15 to -10, -10 to -5, -5 to 0, 0 to +5, +5 to +10, +10 to +15, +15 to +20
- The midpoints are: -17.5, -12.5, -7.5, -2.5, 2.5, 7.5, 12.5, 17.5

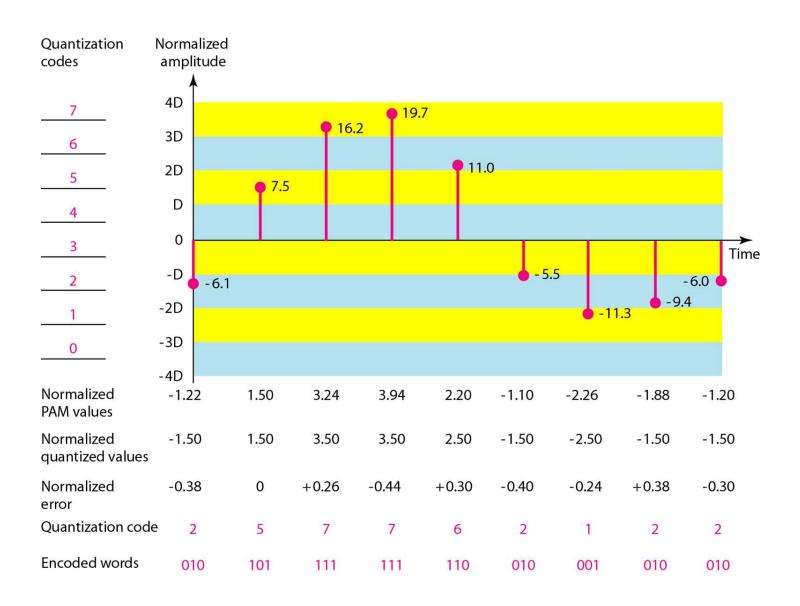
### **Assigning Codes to Zones**

- Each zone is then assigned a binary code.
- The number of bits required to encode the zones, or the number of bits per sample as it is commonly referred to, is obtained as follows:

$$n_b = \log_2 L$$

- Given our example,  $n_b = 3$
- The 8 zone (or level) codes are therefore: 000, 001, 010, 011, 100, 101, 110, and 111
- Assigning codes to zones:
  - 000 will refer to zone -20 to -15
  - 001 to zone -15 to -10, etc.

#### Quantization and encoding of a sampled signal



#### **Quantization Error**

- When a signal is quantized, we introduce an error
  - the coded signal is an approximation of the actual amplitude value.
- The difference between actual and coded value (midpoint) is referred to as the quantization error.
- The more zones, the smaller  $\Delta$ 
  - which results in smaller errors.
- BUT, the more zones the more bits required to encode the samples
  - higher bit rate

#### **Analog-to-digital Conversion**

**Example** An 12-bit analog-to-digital converter (ADC) advertises an accuracy of  $\pm$  the least significant bit (LSB). If the input range of the ADC is 0 to 10 volts, what is the accuracy of the ADC in analog volts?

#### Solution:

If the input range is 10 volts then the analog voltage represented by the LSB would be:

$$V_{LSB} = \frac{V_{\text{max}}}{2^{\text{Nu bits}}} = \frac{10}{2^{12}} = \frac{10}{4096} = .0024 \text{ volts}$$

Hence the accuracy would be ± 0.0024 volts.

#### Steps for digitization/reconstruction of a signal

- Band limiting (LPF)
- Sampling / Holding
- Quantization
- Coding

These are basic steps for A/D conversion

- D/A converter
- Sampling / Holding
- Image rejection

These are basic steps for reconstructing a sampled digital signal

# Digital data: end product of A/D conversion and related concepts

- Bit: least digital information, binary 1 or 0
- Nibble: 4 bits
- Byte: 8 bits, 2 nibbles
- Word: 16 bits, 2 bytes, 4 nibbles
- Some jargon:
  - integer, signed integer, long integer, 2s
     complement, hexadecimal, octal, floating point, etc.



#### **Example**

- Hertz = clock cycles per second (frequency)
  - -1MHz = 1,000,000Hz
  - Processor speeds are measured in MHz or GHz.
- Byte = a unit of storage
  - $1KB = 2^{10} = 1024$  Bytes
  - $1MB = 2^{20} = 1,048,576$  Bytes
  - Main memory (RAM) is measured in MB
  - Disk storage is measured in GB for small systems, TB for large systems.

## **Number of Bits Required**

• Given M elements to be represented by a binary code, the minimum number of bits, *n*, needed, satisfies the following relationships:

```
2^n \ge M > 2^{(n-1)}

n = \lfloor \log_2 M \rfloor where \lfloor x \rfloor, called the ceiling

function, is the integer greater than or equal to x.
```

- Example: How many bits are required to represent <u>decimal digits</u> with a binary code?
  - -4 bits are required  $(n = \log_2 9) = 4$

## **Number of Elements Represented**

- Given n digits in radix r, there are  $r^n$  distinct elements that can be represented.
- But, you can represent m elements,  $m < r^n$
- Examples:
  - You can represent 4 elements in radix r = 2 with n = 2 digits: (00, 01, 10, 11).
  - You can represent 4 elements in radix r = 2 with n = 4 digits: (0001, 0010, 0100, 1000).