Lab 5 Sampling and Reconstruction

Objective

- Learn to convert an analog signal to a discrete-time sequence via sampling.
- Be able to reconstruct an analog signal from a discrete-time sequence.
- Understand the conditions when a sampled signal can uniquely represent its analog counterpart.

Content

Sampling

For continuous-time signal processing, we can also convert it to discrete-time signal processing through sampling, which is also in line with the working mode of a computer. To make sure that the sampled signal can represent the original signal, the signal should be sampled at a sufficient rate determined by the sampling theorem. In this case, we can restore the original signal from the sampled signal.

Nyquist Sampling Theorem

If a signal is band limited and its samples are taken at a sufficient rate, then the samples uniquely specify the signal and the signal can be reconstructed from those samples. This is known as the Nyquist sampling theorem.

When a real signal x(t) is sampled in the time domain, the sampled signal can be represented as:

$$x_s(t) = x(t)\delta_T(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(nT)\delta(t-nT)$$

Since the impulse $\delta_T(t)$ is a periodic signal of period T, it can be expressed as a trigonometric Fourier series as follows (Fourier series expansion is discussed in Fourier Analysis).

$$\delta_T(t) = \frac{1}{T} [1 + 2\cos\omega_s t + 2\cos 2\omega_s t + 2\cos 3\omega_s t + \cdots] \qquad \omega_s = \frac{2\pi}{T} = 2\pi f_s$$

Therefor

$$x_s(t) = x(t)\delta_T(t) = \frac{1}{T}[x(t) + 2x(t)\cos\omega_s t + 2x(t)\cos 2\omega_s t + 2x(t)\cos 3\omega_s t + \cdots]$$

According to the characteristics of Fourier theory, transform $x_s(t)$ in the time domain into $X_s(\omega)$ in frequency domain term by term as listed in Table 1.

Table 1 Fourier Transform of Sampled Signal

Time Domain	Frequency Domain
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$\mathbf{x}(t)$	$X(\omega)$
$2x(t)\cos\omega_{s}t$	$X(\omega + \omega_s) + X(\omega - \omega_s)$
$2x(t)\cos 2\omega_{s}t$	$X(\omega + 2\omega_s) + X(\omega - 2\omega_s)$
$2x(t)\cos 3\omega_{s}t$	$X(\omega + 3\omega_s) + X(\omega - 3\omega_s)$

From the table, it is easy to find out that the spectrum $X_S(\omega)$ consists of $X(\omega)$ repeating periodically with period ω_S . Therefor $X_S(\omega)$ can be expressed as follows:

$$X_{S}(\omega) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} X(\omega - n\omega_{S})$$

To reconstruct x(t) from $x_s(t)$, it is necessary to be able to recover $X(\omega)$ from $X_s(\omega)$, which requires that there is no overlap between consecutive $X_s(\omega)$. Figure 1 shows $X_s(\omega)$, from which it is easy to find that as long as the sampling frequency ω_s is greater than twice the signal bandwidth ω_b , $X_s(\omega)$ will not contain any overlap of $X(\omega)$. In this case x(t) can be recovered from its samples $x_s(t)$. $2\omega_b$ is called the Nyquist rate and ω_s must exceed it in order to avoid aliasing.

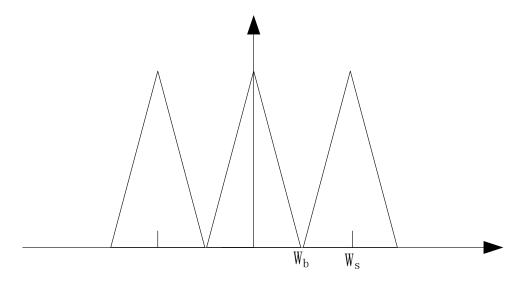


Figure 1 Nyquist frequency

Sampling of Non Band Limited Signal

In most cases, x(t) may not be bandlimited. At this moment an anti-aliasing filter is needed. An anti-aliasing filter is a filter that is used before a signal sampler, to restrict the bandwidth of a signal to approximately satisfy the sampling theorem. The aim of the filter is to eliminate the frequency components beyond $f_s/2$ from x(t) before sampling x(t). Usually the relationship between the cutoff frequency of anti-aliasing filter f_c and the sample rate f_s is as follows:

$$f_c = \frac{f_s}{2.56}$$

Function filter(b,a,x) can help to build an anti-aliasing filter. There are many kinds of filters. Here

we take the moving-average filter and Butterworth filter as examples. Other kinds of filters will be discussed in Digital Signal Processing in detail.

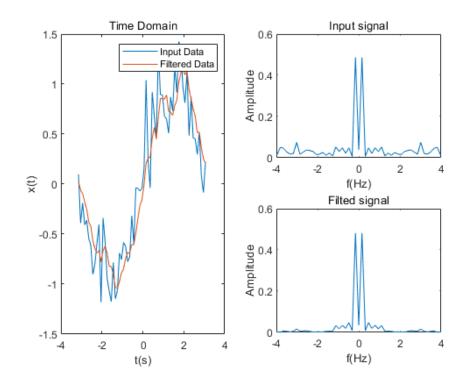
Moving-average filter

A moving-average filter slides a window of length **windowSize** along the data, computing averages of the data contained in each window. The following difference equation defines a moving-average filter of a vector x:

$$y(n) = \frac{1}{windowSize}(x(n) + x(n-1) + \dots + x(n - (windowSize - 1)))$$

An example of a moving-average filter with windowSize=5 is given below.

```
% signal with noisy
clf;clear;
ds = 0.1;
Fs = 1/ds;
t = -pi:ds:pi;
x = \sin(t) + 0.25* \operatorname{randn}(\operatorname{size}(t));
N = length(x);
% set the filter
windowSize = 5;
b = (1/windowSize)*ones(1,windowSize);
a = 1;
% show the result in time domain
y = filter(b,a,x);
subplot(2,2,[1 3]);
plot(t,x); hold on;
plot(t,y); legend('Input Data','Filtered Data');
xlabel('t(s)');ylabel("x(t)");title('Time Domain')
% show the result in frequency domain
f = (-floor(N/2):floor(N/2))*Fs/N;
X = fftshift(fft(x))/N;
subplot(2,2,2); plot(f,abs(X)); axis([-4 4 0 0.6])
xlabel('f(Hz)');ylabel('Amplitude');title('Input signal');
Y = fftshift(fft(y))/N;
subplot(2,2,4); plot(f,abs(Y));axis([-4 4 0 0.6])
xlabel('f(Hz)');ylabel('Amplitude');title('Filted signal');
```



Butterworth filter

Function **butter** is used to design a Butterworth filter. Details are as follows:

[b, a]=butter(N,Wn) designs an Nth order lowpass digital Butterworth filter and returns the filter coefficients in vectors **b** (numerator) and **a** (denominator). The cutoff frequency Wn must be

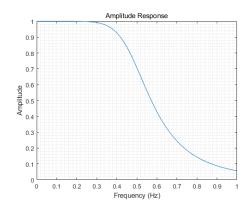
0.0<Wn<1.0, with 1.0 corresponding to half the sample rate. That means $w_n = \frac{f_c}{f_s/2}$, f_c is the cutoff

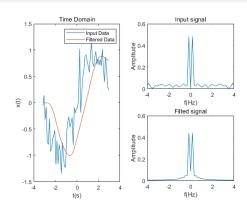
frequency of the filter and f_s is the sampling frequency.

After getting the filter coefficients with function **butter**, filter the input data with function **filter**. Here is an example:

```
% signal with noisy
% signal with noisy
clf; clear;
ds = 0.1;
fs = 1/ds;
t = -pi:ds:pi-ds;
x = sin(t)+0.25*randn(size(t));
fc = 0.5; % cutoff frequency
% set the filter
[b,a] = butter(4,fc/(fs/2));
[H w] = freqz(b,a);
plot(w/pi*fs/2,abs(H)); % the unit of the horizontal axis is *pi rad/sample
```

```
xlim([0 1]);grid minor;title('Amplitude Response');
xlabel('Frequency (Hz)'); ylabel('Amplitude');
% show the result in time domain
y = filter(b,a,x);
subplot(2,2,[1 3]);
plot(t,x); hold on;
plot(t,y); legend('Input Data','Filtered Data');
xlabel('t(s)');ylabel("x(t)");title('Time Domain')
% show the result in frequency domain
N = length(x);
f = (-N/2:N/2-1)*fs/N;
Fx = fftshift(fft(x))/N;
subplot(2,2,2); plot(f,abs(Fx));axis([-4 4 0 0.6]);
xlabel('f(Hz)');ylabel('Amplitude');title('Input signal');
Fy = fftshift(fft(y))/N;
subplot(2,2,4); plot(f,abs(Fy));axis([-4 4 0 0.6]);
xlabel('f(Hz)');ylabel('Amplitude');title('Filted signal');
```





Reconstruction

A band limited signal x(t) can be reconstructed from its samples. To reconstruct the signal, pass the sampled signal through an ideal low pass filter with the bandwidth of ω_c , where ω_c should satisfy: $\omega_b < \omega_c < \omega_s - \omega_b$. The transfer function of the filter is expressed as follows:

$$H(\omega) = \begin{cases} T, & -\omega_c < \omega < \omega_c \\ 0, & otherwise \end{cases}$$

The relationship is displayed in Figure 2.

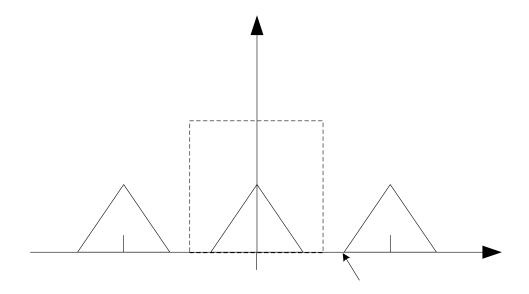


Figure 2 Relationship of $H(\omega)$ and $X'(\omega)$

So in the frequency domain:

$$X_R(\omega) = X_S(\omega) \cdot H(\omega)$$

Then in time domain:

$$x_r(t) = x_s(t) * h(t)$$

For simplicity, set ω_c as the average of ω_b and $(\omega_s - \omega_b)$, that is:

$$\omega_c = \frac{\omega_s}{2} = \frac{\pi}{T_s}$$

Then:

h(t)

$$=\frac{1}{2\pi}\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}H(\omega)e^{j\omega t}\,d\omega=\frac{1}{2\pi}\int_{-\pi/T_s}^{\pi/T_s}T_se^{j\omega t}\,d\omega=\frac{T_s}{2\pi}\cdot\frac{1}{jt}\cdot e^{j\omega t}\left|\begin{array}{c}\pi/T_s\\-\pi/T_s\end{array}=\frac{T_s}{\pi t}\sin\frac{\pi t}{T_s}=sinc\left(\frac{t}{T_s}\right)$$

Where

$$\operatorname{sinc}(\mu) = \frac{\sin(\pi\mu)}{\pi\mu}.$$

So

$$x_r(t) = x_s(t) * h(t) = \left(\sum_{n = -\infty}^{\infty} x(nT_s)\delta(t - nT_s)\right) * h(t)$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{n = -\infty}^{\infty} x(nT_s)\delta(\tau - nT_s)h(t - \tau) d\tau$$

$$= \sum_{n = -\infty}^{\infty} x(nT_s)h(t - nT_s) = \sum_{n = -\infty}^{\infty} x(nT_s)sinc\left(\frac{t - nT_s}{T_s}\right)$$

The interpolation formula can be verified at $t = k\Delta s$:

$$x_r(k\Delta s) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(nT_s) \operatorname{sinc} \frac{(k\Delta s - nT_s)}{T_s}$$

$$\operatorname{sinc}(k-n) = \frac{\sin((k-n)\pi)}{(k-n)\pi}$$

$$= \begin{cases} \lim_{m\to 0} \frac{\sin(m\pi)}{m\pi} = \lim_{m\to 0} \frac{\frac{d\sin(m\pi)}{dm}}{\frac{dm\pi}{dm}} = \lim_{m\to 0} \frac{\pi\cos(m\pi)}{\pi} = 1, \quad k = n \end{cases}$$

So $x_r(k\Delta s) = x(nT_s)$, which aligns with $x_r(t) = x(t)$.

An example of sampling and reconstruction is given below.

Eg: x_samples is the sampled signal, x_time is the sample time and Ts is the sample interval.

```
dr = 0.5;
% original signal
clear;clf;
ds = 0.1;t = 0:ds:20;
F1 = 0.1; F2 = 0.2;
x = \sin(2*pi*F1*t) + \sin(2*pi*F2*t);
x_size = length(x);
% sampling
s = 10;
          % sample rate = 1/ (ts*s)
Ts = ds*s;
x_samples = x(1:s:x_size); % gets samples of x.
x_time = (0:length(x_samples)-1)*Ts;
% Reconstruction Method 1: Follow the formula
x_recon=zeros(length(t),1);
for k=1:length(t)
   for n=1:length(x_samples)
       x_{recon(k)} = x_{recon(k)} + x_{samples(n)} * sinc(((k-1)*ds-(n-1)*ds))
1)*Ts)/Ts);
   end
end
% Reconstruction Method 2: Calculate sample by sample
x_recon = 0;
for n=1:length(x_samples)
   x_recon = x_recon+x_samples(n)*sinc((t-x_time(n))/Ts);
end
```