Universidade Federal do Pará

Campus Universitário de Castanhal

Faculdade de Computação

Comunicações Digitais

Aula 6

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Na aula de hoje

- Sampling and Analog-to-Digital Conversion
- Sampling Theorem
- Signal Reconstruction from Uniform Samples
- Practical Issues in Signal Sampling and Reconstruction
- The Treachery of Aliasing
- Advantages of Digital Communication



Sampling and Analog-to-Digital Conversion

- Analog signals can be digitized through sampling and quantization.
- This analog-to-digital (A/D) conversion sets the foundation of modern digital communication systems.

- In the A/D converter the sampling rate must be large enough to permit the analog signal to be reconstructed from the samples with sufficient accuracy.
- The **sampling theorem** is the basis for determining the proper sampling rate for a given signal.



• A signal g(t) whose spectrum is band-limited to B Hz, that is,

$$G(f) = 0$$
 for $|f| > B$

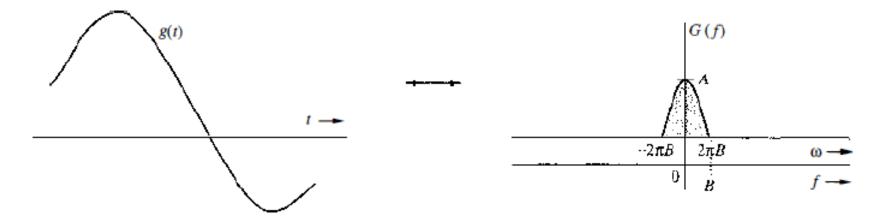
can be reconstructed exactly (without any error) from its discrete time samples taken uniformly at a rate of R samples per second.

• The condition is that R > 2*B

• In other words, the minimum sampling frequency for perfect signal recover is $f_s = 2*B$ Hz.

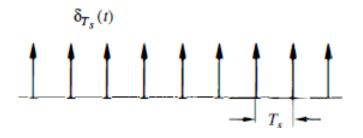


• Consider a signal g(t) whose spectrum is band-limited to B Hz.

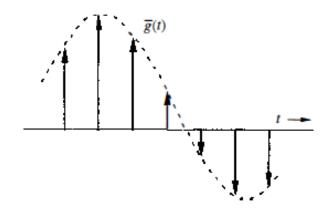


- Sampling g(t) at a rate of f_s Hz means that we take f_s uniform samples per second.
- This uniform sampling can be accomplished by multiplying g(t) by an impulse train δ_{Ts} (t) consisting of unit impulses repeating periodically every T_s seconds, where $T_s=1\,/\,f_s$





• This results in the sampled signal $\bar{g}(t)$.



- \bullet The sampled signal consists of impulses spaced every T_s seconds (the sampling interval).
- The *n*th impulse, located at $t = n T_s$, has a strength $g(nT_s)$ which is the value of g(t) at $t = nT_s$.



• Thus, the relationship between the sampled signal $\bar{g}(t)$ and the original analog signal g(t) is:

$$\overline{g}(t) = g(t)\delta_{T_s}(t) = \sum_n g(nT_s)\delta(t - nT_s)$$

• Because the impulse train δ_{T_s} (t) is a periodic signal of period T_s , it can be expressed as an exponential Fourier series, as:

$$\delta_{T_s}(t) = \frac{1}{T_s} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{jn\omega_s t}$$
 $\omega_s = \frac{2\pi}{T_s} = 2\pi f_s$

• Therefore:

$$\overline{g}(t) = g(t)\delta_{T_s}(t)$$

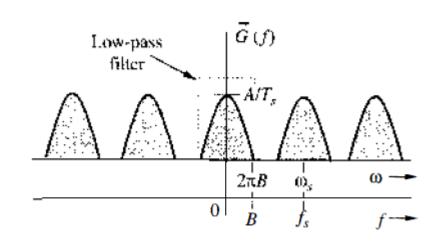
$$= \frac{1}{T_s} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} g(t)e^{jn2\pi f_s t}$$



- To find $\bar{G}(f)$, the Fourier transform of $\bar{g}(t)$, we take the Fourier transform of the summation.
- Based on the frequency-shifting property, the transform of the nth term is shifted by nf $_s$. Therefore:

$$\overline{G}(f) = \frac{1}{T_s} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} G(f - nf_s)$$

• This means that the spectrum $\bar{G}(f)$ consists of G(f), scaled by a constant $1/T_s$, repeating periodically with period $f_s = 1 / T_s$ Hz





- Can g(t) be reconstructed from $\bar{g}(t)$ without any loss or distortion?
- If we are to reconstruct g(t) from $\bar{g}(t)$, equivalently in the frequency domain we should be able to recover G(f) from $\bar{G}(f)$.
- Perfect recovery is possible if there is no overlap among the replicas in $\bar{G}(f)$.
- This requires: $f_s > 2B$ (Nyquist frequency)
- Therefore: $T_s < \frac{1}{2B}$ (Nyquist interval)
- As long as the sampling frequency f_s is greater than twice the signal bandwidth B (in hertz), $\bar{G}(f)$ will consist of nonoverlapping repetitions of G(f).
- When this is true, g(t) can be recovered from its samples $\bar{g}(t)$ by passing $\bar{g}(t)$ through an ideal low-pass filter of bandwidth B Hz.



- The process of reconstructing a continuous time signal g(t) from its samples is also known as **interpolation**.
- Assuming that uniform sampling above the Nyquist rate preserves all the signal information, passing the sampled signal through an ideal low-pass filter of bandwidth B Hz will reconstruct the original message.
- The sampled signal contains a component $(1/T_s)*g(t)$, and to recover g(t) the sampled signal must be sent through an ideal low-pass filter of badwidth B Hz and gain T_s
- Transfer function of such a filter:

$$H(f) = T_s \Pi\left(\frac{\omega}{4\pi B}\right) = T_s \Pi\left(\frac{f}{2B}\right)$$



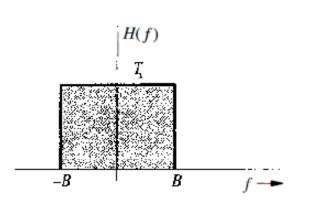
• Ideal Reconstruction:

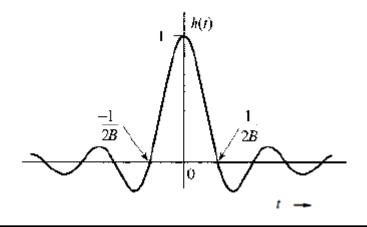
• The inverse Fourier transform of the reconstruction filter leads to:

$$h(t) = 2BT_{s} \operatorname{sinc}(2\pi Bt)$$

• Assuming the use of Nyquist sampling rate, that is, $2BT_s = 1$:

$$h(t) = \operatorname{sinc}(2\pi Bt)$$

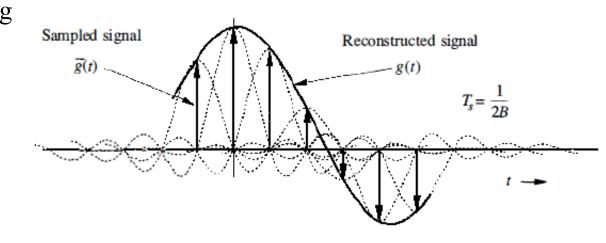






• Ideal Reconstruction:

- h(t) = 0 at all Nyquist sampling instants $(t = \pm n/2B)$ except t = 0.
- When the sampled signal $\bar{g}(t)$ is applied at the input of this filter, the output is g(t).
- Each sample in $\bar{g}(t)$, being an impulse, generates a sinc pulse of height equal to the strength of the sample





• Ideal Reconstruction:

- Addition of the sinc pulses generated by all the samples results in g(t).
- The kth sample of the input g(t) is the impulse $g(kT_s)\delta(t-kT_s)$.
- The filter output of this impulse is $g(kT_s)h(t-kT_s)$.
- Hence, the filter output to $\bar{g}(t)$, which is g(t), can now be expressed as a sum:

$$g(t) = \sum_{k} g(kT_s)h(t - kT_s)$$

$$= \sum_{k} g(kT_s) \operatorname{sinc} [2\pi B(t - kT_s)]$$

$$= \sum_{k} g(kT_s) \operatorname{sinc} (2\pi Bt - k\pi)$$



Practical Issues in Signal Sampling and Reconstruction

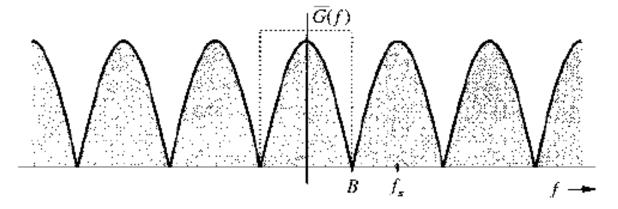
- If a signal is sampled at the Nyquist rate $f_s = 2B$ Hz, the spectrum $\bar{G}(f)$ consists of repetitions of G(f) without any gap between successive cycles.
- To recover g(t) from $\bar{g}(t)$, we need to pass the sampled signal $\bar{g}(t)$ through an ideal low-pass filter.
- However, an ideal low-pass filter is noncausal and unrealizable!
- It comes from the infinitely long nature of the sinc reconstruction pulse.
- A practical solution to this problem is to sample the signal at a rate **higher than** the Nyquist rate ($f_s > 2B$ or $\omega_s > 4\pi B$).
- This yields $\bar{G}(f)$, consisting of repetitions of G(f) with a finite band gap between successive cycles.

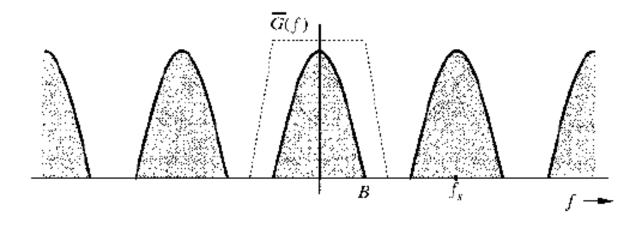


Practical Issues in Signal Sampling and Reconstruction

• We can now recover G(f) from $\bar{G}(f)$ by using a low-pass filter with a gradual

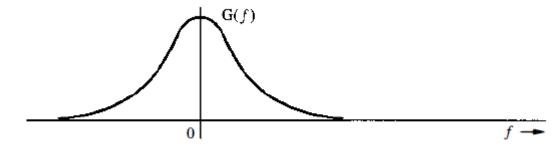
cutoff characteristic.







- There is another fundamental practical difficulty in reconstructing a signal from its samples.
- The sampling theorem was proved on the assumption that the signal g(t) is band-limited.
- All practical signals are **time-limited!!**
- A signal cannot be time-limited and band-limited simultaneously.

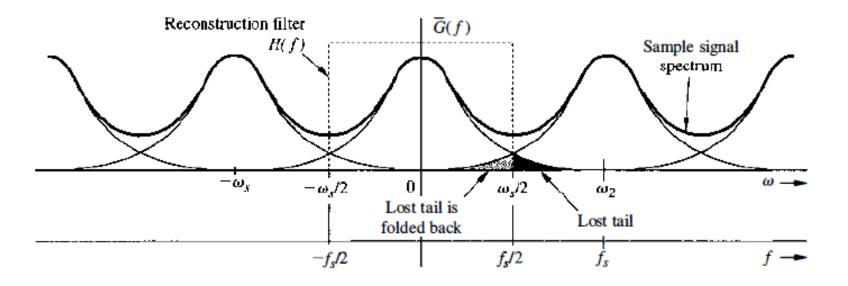


• Clearly, all practical signals, which are necessarily time-limited, are non-band-limited, they have infinite bandwidth.



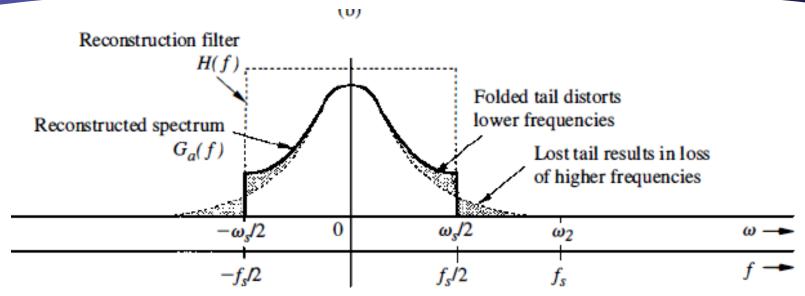
- The spectrum $\bar{G}(f)$ consists of overlapping cycles of G(f) repeating every f_s Hz (the sampling frequency).
- Because of the infinite bandwidth in this case, the spectral overlap is unavoidable, regardless of the sampling rate.
- Sampling at a higher rate reduces but does not eliminate overlapping between repeating spectral cycles.
- Because of the overlapping tails, $\bar{G}(f)$ no longer has complete information about G(f), and it is no longer possible, to recover g(t) exactly from the sampled signal $\bar{g}(t)$.





- If the sampled signal is passed through an ideal low-pass filter of cutoff frequency $f_s/2$ Hz, the output is not G(f) but $G_a(f)$.
- $G_a(f)$ is a version of G(f) distorted as a result of two separate causes:
- The loss of the tail of G(f) beyond $|f| > f_s/2$ Hz.
- The reappearance of this tail inverted or folded back onto the spectrum.





- The spectra cross at frequency $f_s/2=1$ / $2T_s$ Hz, which is called the **folding frequency**.
- The spectrum may be viewed as if the lost tail is folding back onto itself at the folding frequency.
- The components of frequencies above $f_s/2$ reappear as components of frequencies below $f_s/2$.



• This tail inversion known as spectral folding or aliasing.

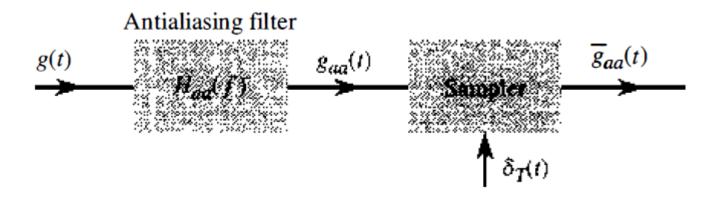
• During aliasing, not only are we losing all the components of frequencies above the folding frequency $f_s/2$ Hz, but these very components reappear (aliased) as lower frequency components.

• Such aliasing destroys the integrity of the frequency components below the folding frequency $f_s/2$.



• The Antialiasing Filter:

- The antialiasing filter eliminate (suppress) all the frequency components beyond the folding frequency $f_s/2 = 1/2T_s$ Hz from g (t) **before sampling** g(t).
- Such suppression of higher frequencies can be accomplished by an ideal low-pass filter of cutoff $f_s/2$ Hz.





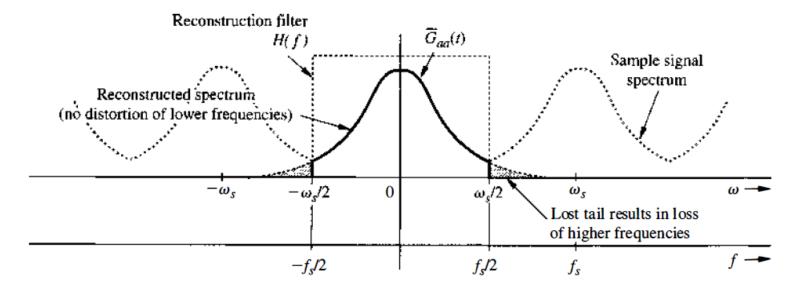
• The Antialiasing Filter:

- An antialiasing filter essentially band-limits the signal g(t) to $f_s/2$ Hz.
- We lose only the components beyond the folding frequency $f_s/2$ Hz.
- These suppressed components now cannot reappear, corrupting the components of frequencies below the folding frequency.
- The use of an antialiasing filter results in the reconstructed signal spectrum $G_{aa}(f) = G(f)$ for $|f| < f_s/2$.
- Although we lost the spectrum beyond $f_s/2$ Hz, the spectrum for all the frequencies below $f_s/2$ remains intact.



• The Antialiasing Filter:

• The effective aliasing distortion is cut in half owing to elimination of folding.



• The antialiasing filter, being an ideal filter, is unrealizable. In practice we use a steep-cutoff filter, which leaves a sharply attenuated residual spectrum beyond the folding frequency $f_s/2$.



Advantages of Digital Communication

- Digital communication, which can withstand channel noise and distortion much better than analog.
- Viability of regenerative repeaters in the former. In an analog communication system, a message signal becomes progressively weaker as it travels along the channel. Amplification enhances the signal and the noise by the same proportion.
- Digital hardware implementation is flexible.
- Digital signals can be coded to yield extremely low error rates and high fidelity.
- Reproduction with digital messages can be extremely reliable without deterioration.
- It is easier and more efficient to multiplex several digital signals.



Comments on Logarithmic Units

- Logarithmic units and logarithmic scales are very convenient when a variable has a **large dynamic range**. This is the case of frequency variables or SNRs.
- A logarithmic unit for the power ratio is the decibel (dB), defined as 10 *log10 (power ratio).
- Thus, an SNR is x dB, where: $x = 10 \log_{10} \frac{S}{N}$
- We use dB to express power gain or loss over a certain transmission medium.
- If over a certain cable the signal power is attenuated by a factor of 15, the cable gain is:

$$G = 10 \log_{10} \frac{1}{15} = -11.76 \, \mathrm{dB}$$

or the cable attenuation (loss) is 11.76 dB.



Comments on Logarithmic Units

- Although the decibel is a measure of power ratios, it is often used as a measure of power itself.
- 100 watt may be considered to be a power ratio of 100 with respect to 1 watt power, and is expressed in units of dBW:

$$P_{\text{dBW}} = 10 \log_{10} 100 = 20 \text{ dBW}$$

- Thus, 100 watt power is 20 dBW.
- Similarly, power measured with respect to 1 mW power is dBm.
- For instance, 100 watt power is:

$$P_{\text{dBm}} = 10 \log \frac{100 \text{ W}}{1 \text{ mW}} = 50 \text{ dBm}$$

