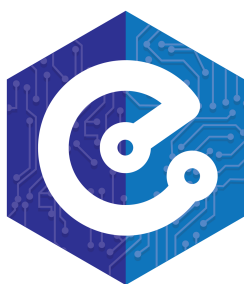


# Digital Signal Processing

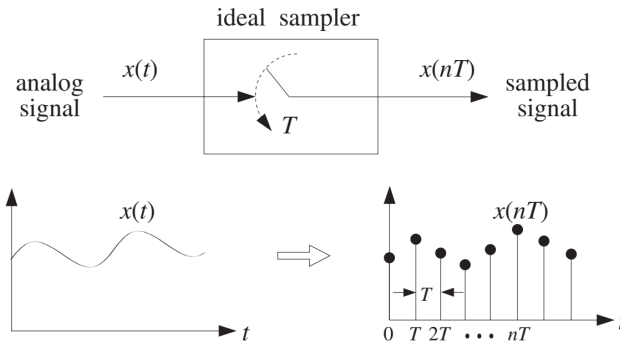


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**Contents**

**Sampling** is to convert a continuous time signal into a discrete time signal. The analog signal is periodically measured at every  $T$  seconds.



$$x(n) \equiv x(nT) = x(t = nT), \quad n = \dots -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

- $T$ : sampling interval or sampling period (second);
- $F_s = 1/T$ : sampling rate or frequency (samples/second or Hz)

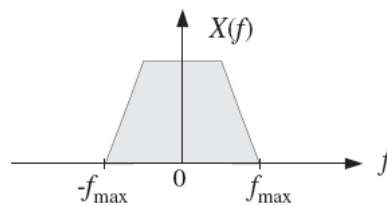
**Aliasing of Sinusoids** In general, the sampling of a continuous-time sinusoidal signal  $x(t) = A \cos(2\pi F_0 t + \theta)$  at a sampling rate  $F_s = 1/T$  results in a discrete-time signal  $x(n)$ .

The sinusoids  $x_k(t) = A \cos(2\pi F_k t + \theta)$  is sampled at  $F_s$ , resulting in a discrete time signal  $x_k(n)$ .

If  $F_k = F_0 + kF_s, k = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$ , then  $x(n) = x_k(n)$ .

**Sampling Theorem** For accurate representation of a signal  $x(t)$  by its time samples  $x(nT)$ , two conditions must be met:

- 1) The signal  $x(t)$  must be band-limited, i.e., its frequency spectrum must be limited to  $F_{\max}$ .
- 2) The sampling rate  $F_s$  must be chosen at least twice the maximum frequency  $F_{\max}$ .  $F_s \geq 2F_{\max}$ 
  - $F_s = 2F_{\max}$  is called Nyquist rate.
  - $F_s/2$  is called Nyquist frequency.
  - $[-F_s/2, F_s/2]$  is Nyquist interval.



**Figure 1:** Typical band-limited spectrum

### Practical antialiasing prefilter

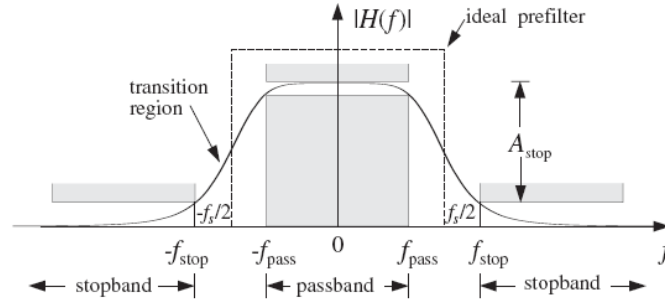
- A lowpass filter: Passband  $[-F_{\text{pass}}, F_{\text{pass}}]$  is the frequency range of interest for the application ( $F_{\max} = F_{\text{pass}}$ ).
- The stopband frequency  $F_{\text{stop}}$  and the minimum stopband attenuation  $A_{\text{stop}}$  dB must be chosen appropriately to minimize the aliasing effects.
- The Nyquist frequency  $F_s/2$  is in the middle of transition region.

$$F_s = F_{\text{pass}} + F_{\text{stop}}$$

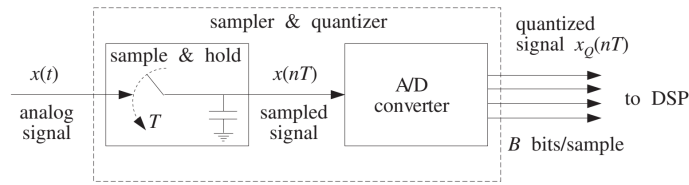
- The attenuation of the filter in decibels is defined as (where  $f_0$  is a convenient reference frequency, typically taken to be at DC for a lowpass filter):

$$A(F) = -2 \log_{10} \left| \frac{H(F)}{H(F_0)} \right| \quad (dB)$$

- $\alpha_{10} = A(10F) - A(F)$  (**dB/decade**): the increase in attenuation when  $F$  is changed by a factor of ten.
- $\alpha_2 = A(2F) - A(F)$  (**dB/octave**): the increase in attenuation when  $F$  is changed by a factor of two.



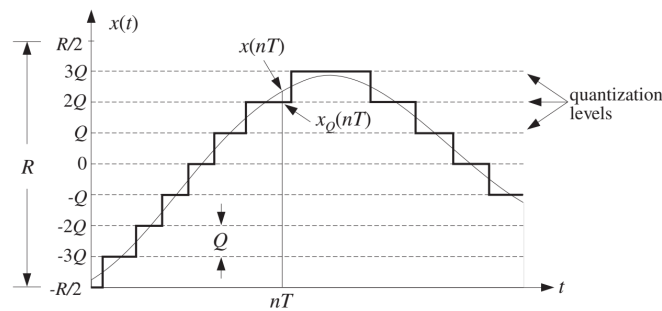
**Quantization process** The quantized sample  $x_Q(nT)$  is represented by **B bit**, which can take  $2^B$  possible



**Figure 2:** Analog to digital conversion

values.

An A/D is characterized by a **full-scale range R** which is divided into  $2^B$  quantization levels. Typical values of  $R$  in practice are between 1-10 volts.



**Figure 3:** Signal quantization

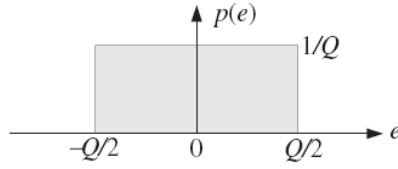
Quantizer resolution or quantization width (step):  $Q = \frac{R}{2^B}$

- A **bipolar** ADC:  $-\frac{R}{2} < x_Q(nT) < \frac{R}{2}$
- A **unipolar** ADC:  $0 < x_Q(nT) < R$

Quantization by **rounding**: replace each value  $x(nT)$  by the **nearest** quantization level.

Quantization by **truncation**: replace each value  $x(nT)$  by its **below nearest** quantization level.

Quantization error:  $e(nT) = x_Q(nT) - x(nT)$ . Consider rounding quantization:  $-\frac{Q}{2} < e < \frac{Q}{2}$



**Figure 4:** Uniform probability density of quantization error

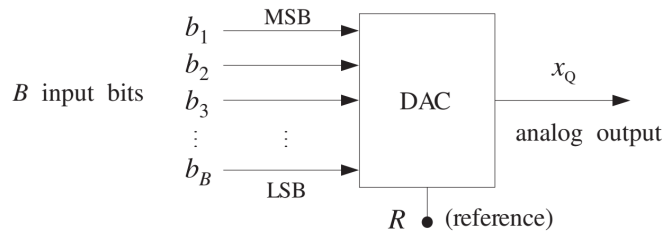
Root-mean-square (rms) error:  $e_{rms} = \sigma_q = \sqrt{e^2} = \frac{Q}{\sqrt{12}}$

R and Q are the ranges of the signal and quantization noise, then the **signal to noise ratio (SNR)** or **dynamic range** of the quantizer is defined as

$$SNR_{dB} = 10 \log_{10} \left( \frac{\sigma_x^2}{\sigma_q^2} \right) = 20 \log_{10} \left( \frac{R}{Q} \right) = 20 \log_{10}(2^B) = 6B \text{ dB}$$

which is referred to as **6 dB bit rule**.

### *Digital to Analog Converters (DACs)*



**Figure 5:** B-bit D/A converter

Vector B input bits:  $b = [b_1, b_2, \dots, b_B]$ . Note that  $b_B$  is the least significant bit (LSB) while  $b_1$  is the most significant bit (MSB).

For unipolar signal,  $x_Q \in [0, R)$ ; for bipolar  $x_Q \in [-R/2, R/2)$ .

- **Unipolar natural binary**  $x_Q = R(b_1 2^{-1} + b_2 2^{-2} + \dots + b_B 2^{-B}) = Qm$  where m is the integer whose binary representation is  $b = [b_1, b_2, \dots, b_B]$ .

$$m = b_1 2^{B-1} + b_2 2^{B-2} + \dots + b_B 2^0$$

- **Bipolar offset binary**: obtained by shifting the  $x_Q$  of unipolar natural binary converter by half-scale  $R/2$ :

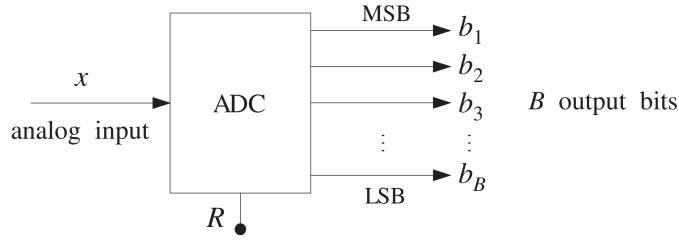
$$x_Q = R(b_1 2^{-1} + b_2 2^{-2} + \dots + b_B 2^{-B}) - \frac{R}{2} = Qm - \frac{R}{2}$$

- **Two's complement code**: obtained from the offset binary code by complementing the most significant bit, i.e., replacing  $b_1$  by  $\bar{b}_1 = 1 - b_1$ .

$$x_Q = R(\bar{b}_1 2^{-1} + b_2 2^{-2} + \dots + b_B 2^{-B}) - \frac{R}{2}$$

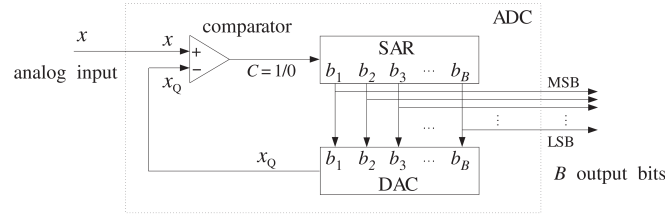
### *A/D converters*

A/D converters quantize an analog value x so that is is represented by B bits  $b = [b_1, b_2, \dots, b_B]$



**Figure 6:** B-bit A/D converter

One of the most popular converters is the successive approximation A/D converter



**Figure 7:** Successive approximation A/D converter

After B tests, the **successive approximation register (SAR)** will hold the correct bit vector  $\mathbf{b}$ .

❖ Successive approximation algorithm

*for each  $x$  to be converted, do:*  
*initialize  $\mathbf{b} = [0, 0, \dots, 0]$*   
*for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, B$  do:*  
 *$b_i = 1$*   
 *$x_Q = \text{dac}(\mathbf{b}, B, R)$*   
 *$b_i = u(x - x_Q)$*

Truncation quantization

*for each  $x$  to be converted, do:*  
 *$y = x + Q/2$*   
*initialize  $\mathbf{b} = [0, 0, \dots, 0]$*   
*for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, B$  do:*  
 *$b_i = 1$*   
 *$x_Q = \text{dac}(\mathbf{b}, B, R)$*   
 *$b_i = u(y - x_Q)$*

Rounding quantization

where the unit-step function is defined by

$$u(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

*for each  $x$  to be converted, do:*  
 *$y = x + Q/2$*   
*initialize  $\mathbf{b} = [0, 0, \dots, 0]$*   
 *$b_1 = 1 - u(y)$*   
*for  $i = 2, 3, \dots, B$  do:*  
 *$b_i = 1$*   
 *$x_Q = \text{dac}(\mathbf{b}, B, R)$*   
 *$b_i = u(y - x_Q)$*

Two's complement

$b_1b_2b_3b_4$	natural binary		offset binary		2's C
	$m$	$x_Q = Qm$	$m'$	$x_Q = Qm'$	$b_1b_2b_3b_4$
—	16	10.000	8	5.000	—
1 1 1 1	15	9.375	7	4.375	0 1 1 1
1 1 1 0	14	8.750	6	3.750	0 1 1 0
1 1 0 1	13	8.125	5	3.125	0 1 0 1
1 1 0 0	12	7.500	4	2.500	0 1 0 0
1 0 1 1	11	6.875	3	1.875	0 0 1 1
1 0 1 0	10	6.250	2	1.250	0 0 1 0
1 0 0 1	9	5.625	1	0.625	0 0 0 1
1 0 0 0	8	5.000	0	0.000	0 0 0 0
0 1 1 1	7	4.375	-1	-0.625	1 1 1 1
0 1 1 0	6	3.750	-2	-1.250	1 1 1 0
0 1 0 1	5	3.125	-3	-1.875	1 1 0 1
0 1 0 0	4	2.500	-4	-2.500	1 1 0 0
0 0 1 1	3	1.875	-5	-3.125	1 0 1 1
0 0 1 0	2	1.250	-6	-3.750	1 0 1 0
0 0 0 1	1	0.625	-7	-4.375	1 0 0 1
0 0 0 0	0	0.000	-8	-5.000	1 0 0 0

**Figure 8:** Converter codes for  $B = 4$  bits,  $R = 10$  volts