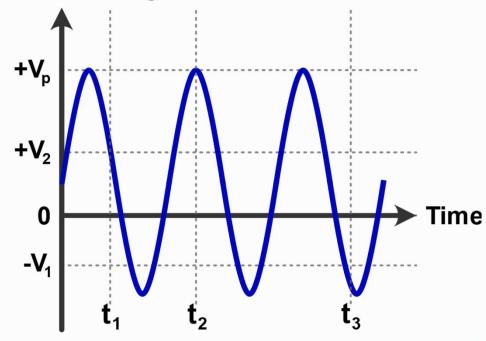


Electronic Signals

- Every signal is expressed in two dimensions:
 - Level (amplitude)
 - Time
- Could be a voltage, current, charge, etc.

Level, Amplitentel, Magnitude



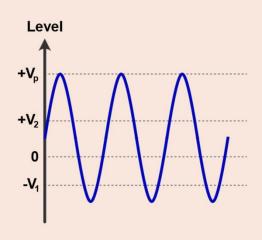


Analog vs. Digital Signals

Analog (continuous-level)



11:48:57:XX:XX:XX...

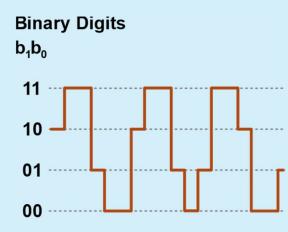


- Can take any value
- Real-world signals
 - Sound, light, image, biomedical, waves
 - Sensors and actuators

Digital (discrete-level)



10:26

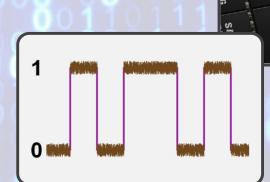


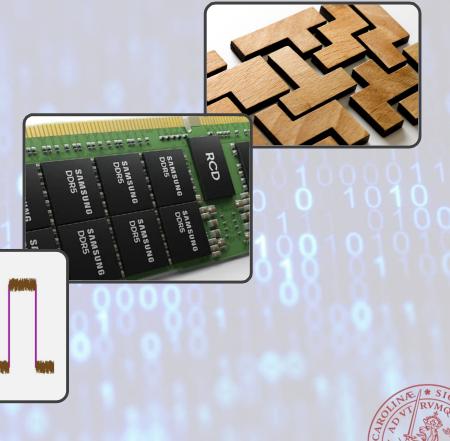
- Only takes specific levels
- Represented by binary digits (0 and 1)
- Boolean algebra
- Computational systems



Computers are Digital

- Modular design
- Automated synthesis, hardware design language (HDL)
- Ease of data storage and transmission
- Noise and leakage immunity
- Integration with software
- Reconfigurability
- Scalability

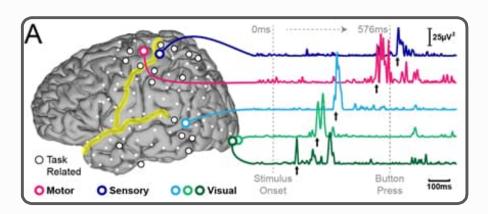




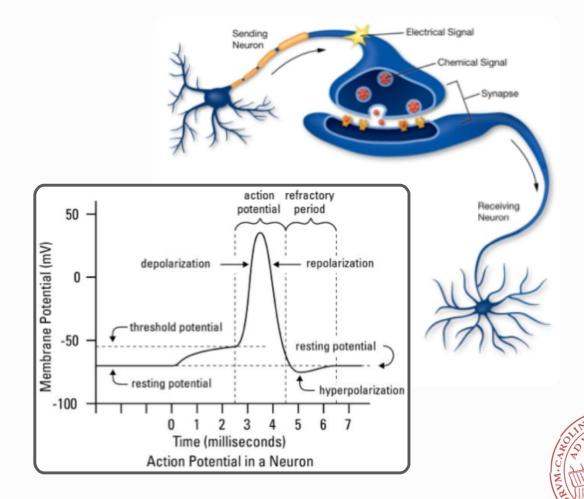
Slide 3

But the Real World is Analog

Biopotential signals

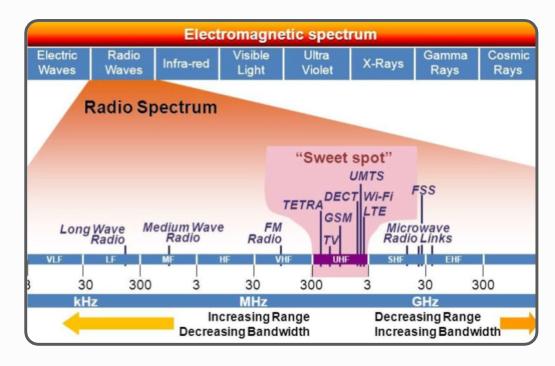


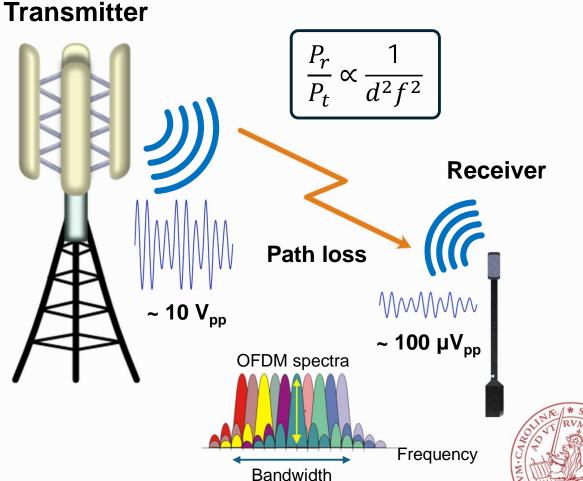
Signal	Frequency (Hz)	Dynamic Range
EEG	0.5 - 100	2 μV – 100 μV
ERG	0.2 - 200	$0.5~\mu V - 1~mV$
ECG	0.05 - 100	1 mV – 10 mV
EMG	2 – 500	50 μV – 5 mV



But the Real World is Analog

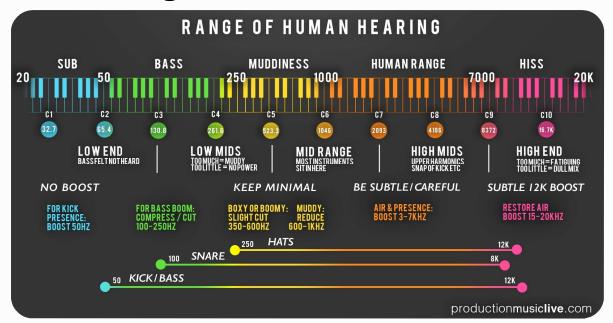
- Biopotential signals
- Telecommunication signals

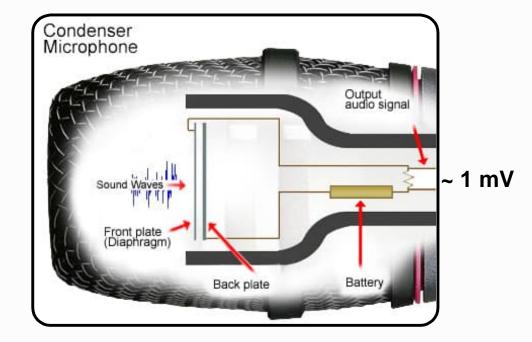




But the Real World is Analog

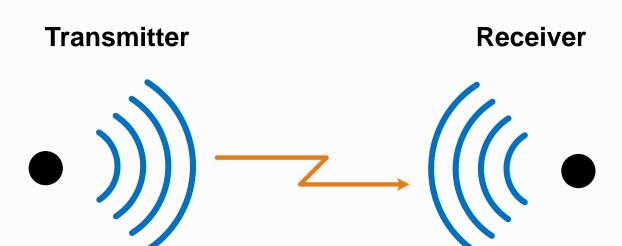
- Biopotential signals
- Telecommunication signals
- Audio signals





Attenuation

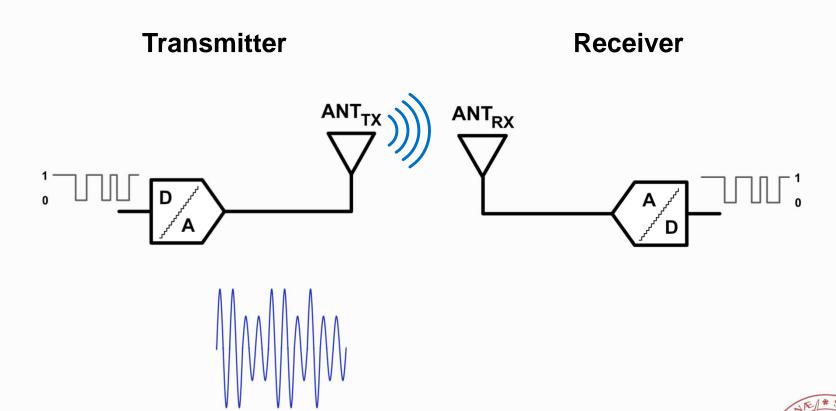
Path loss





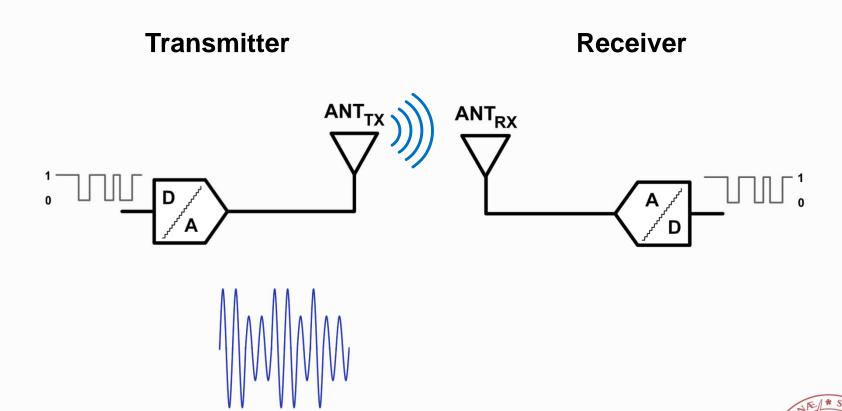
Attenuation

Path loss



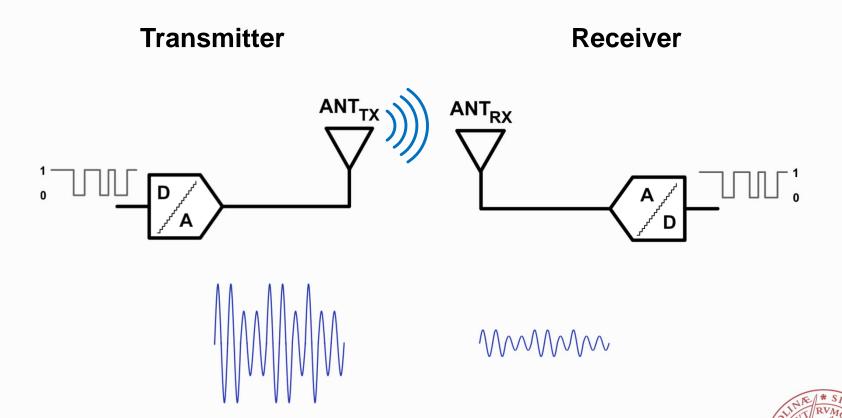
Attenuation

Path loss



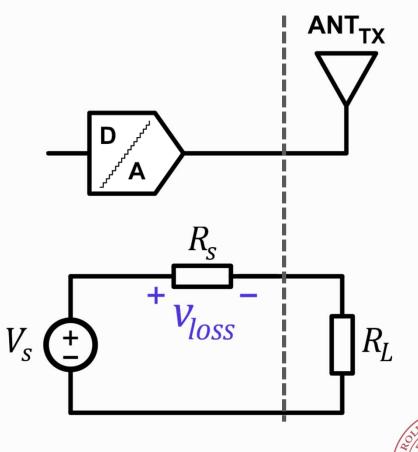
Attenuation

Path loss



Attenuation

- Path loss
- Power loss on the internal impedances

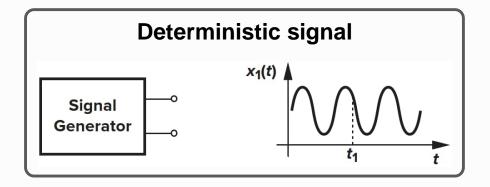


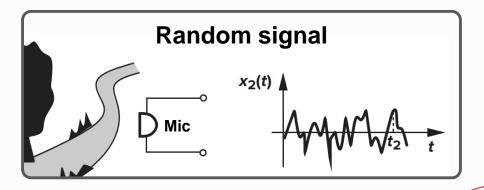
Attenuation

- Path loss
- Power loss on the internal impedances

Noise

Random, stochastic process, unpredictable



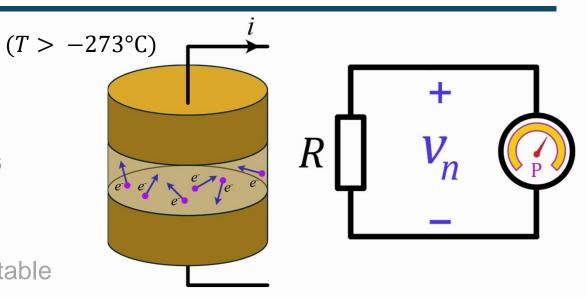


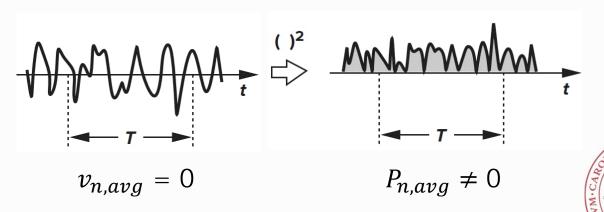
Attenuation

- Path loss
- Power loss on the internal impedances

Noise

- Random, stochastic process, unpredictable
- Johnson-Nyquist (thermal) noise





Attenuation

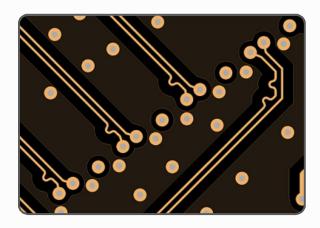
- Path loss
- Power loss on the internal impedances

Noise

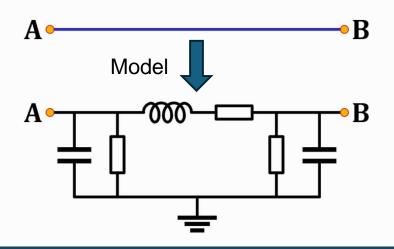
- Random, stochastic process, unpredictable
- Johnson–Nyquist (thermal) noise

Uncertainties and Variations

- Length of wires
- Twist and bending in cables
- Parasitic elements and mismatch
- Model deviations

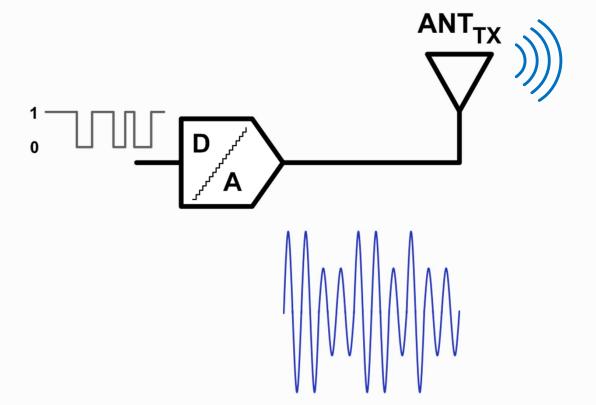


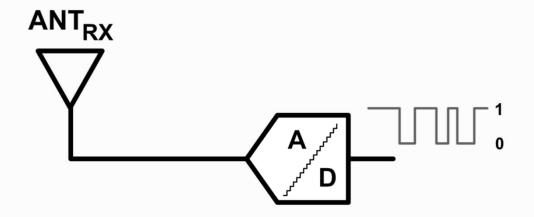




Transmitter

Receiver



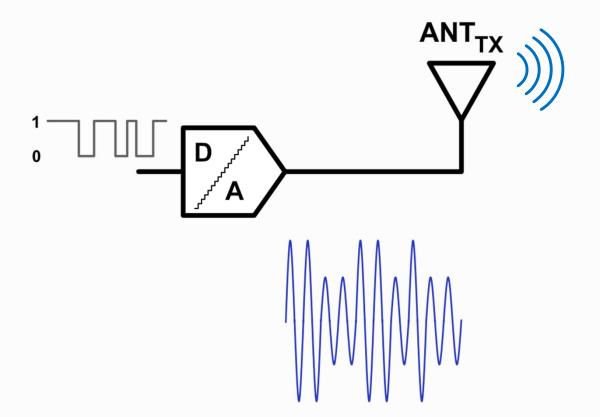


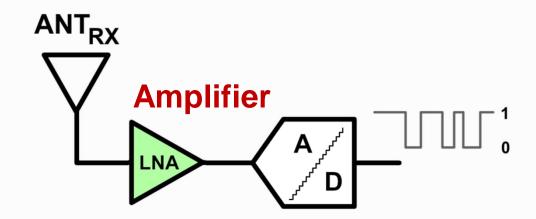


Amplification: Boosting the Signal's Power

Transmitter

Receiver



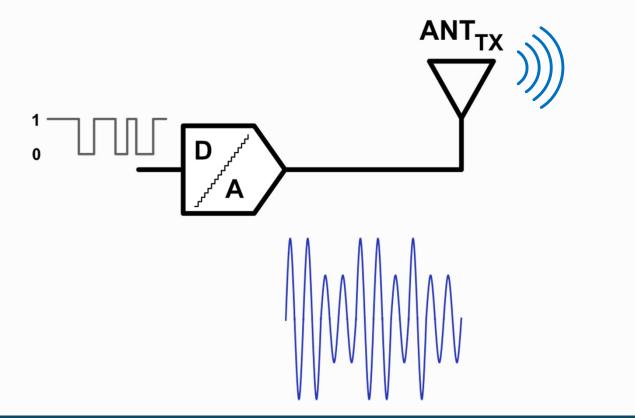


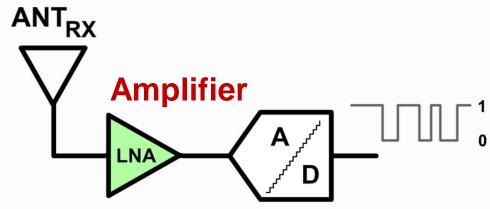


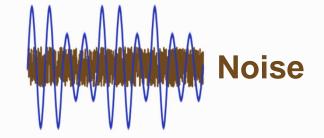
Amplification: Boosting the Signal's Power

Transmitter

Receiver

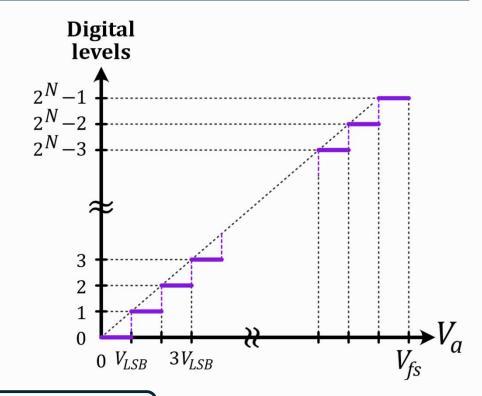






Quantization: Translation from Analog to Digital

- Mapping analog intervals to digital levels
- Precision depends on the number of digits (resolution)
- In an *N*-bit binary quantizer:
 - Analog signal (V_a) varies from 0 to V_{fs}
 - For quantizers supporting negative values: $V_a \in \left[-V_{fs}/2, +V_{fs}/2\right]$
 - Number of digital levels: 2^N
 - Lowest significant bit corresponds to:

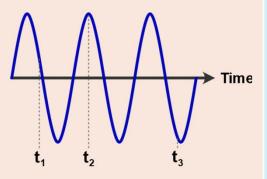


$$V_{LSB} = \frac{V_{fs}}{2^N - 1}$$

Continuous-Time (CT) vs. Discrete-Time (DT)

CT signals

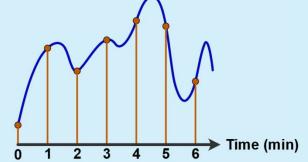




- Change dynamically at any instant
- x(t) can be defined for any $t \in \mathbb{R}$
- All real-world signals
- Too volatile to be processed!

DT signals





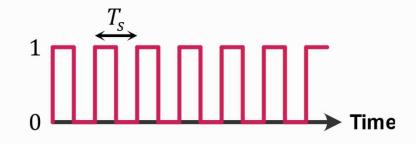
Refresh time:

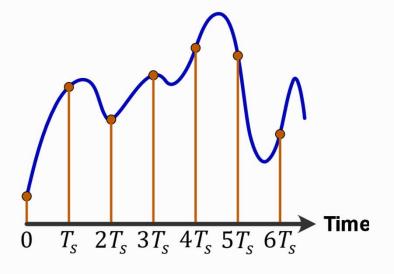
- Change only at certain times
- x[n] can be defined for any $n \in \mathbb{Z}$
- Sampled version of CT signals
- Commonly, equal sampling intervals

* SIGNAL WANTER TO THE TOTAL OF THE TOTAL OF

Sampling: Translation from CT to DT

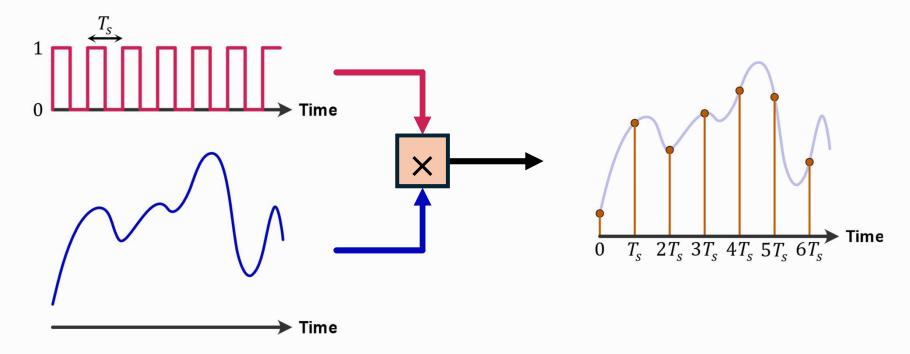
- Uniform sampling: a periodic signal is used to sample CT signals and hold their corresponding DT signals.
- Sampling period: T_s
- Sampling frequency: $f_S = 1/T_S$
- Therefore, the k-th sample (x[k]) corresponds to the value of the CT signal at $t = kT_s$.





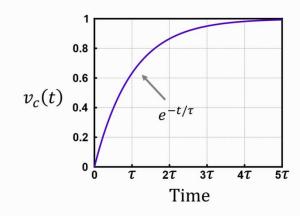
Pause and Ponder 1

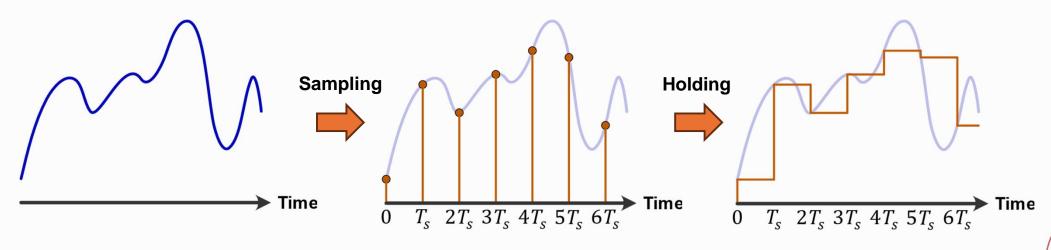
 What mathematical operation should be used to implement sampling?



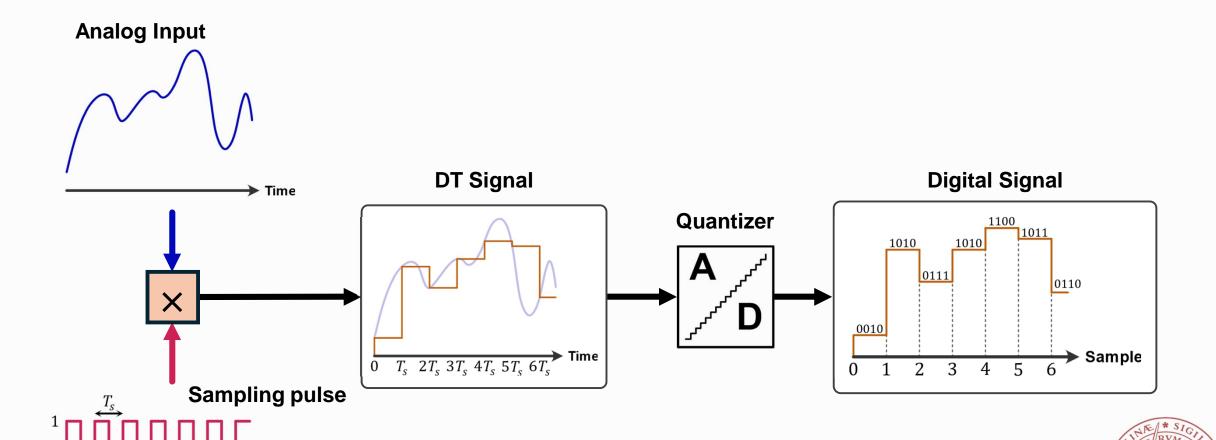
Pause and Ponder 2

 Considering the delay in signal processing systems, is it enough to sample signals at certain instants?

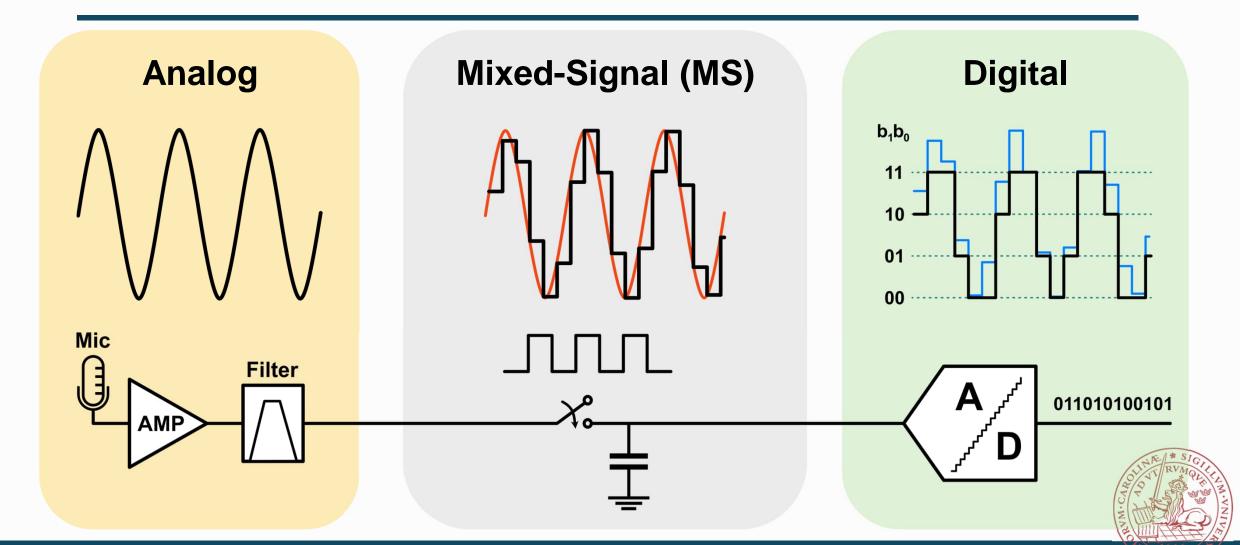




Data Conversion: Sampling + Quantization



Electronics: Amplify + Sample + Quantize + Process



Logarithmic Scale (Decibel)

- General definition: $|H(j\omega)|_{dB} = 20 \log_{10} |H(j\omega)|$
- $H(j\omega)$ can be a voltage gain, power gain, or any other type of transfer functions.
- Always represents a ratio → dB is unitless
- Useful for presenting wide-range quantities
- Can refer to a signal level in relation to a reference level:

dBV: $20 \log_{10} \left(\frac{V_m}{1 \text{ V}} \right)$ **dBm:** $10 \log_{10} \left(\frac{P}{1 \text{ mW}} \right)$

Voltage gain

$ H(\mathrm{j}\omega) $	$ H(\mathrm{j}\omega) _{\mathrm{dB}}$
10^{n}	$20n\mathrm{dB}$
10	$20\mathrm{dB}$
$\sqrt{2}$	$\approx 3\mathrm{dB}$
1	$0\mathrm{dB}$
$1/\sqrt{2}$	$\approx -3 \mathrm{dB}$
0.1	$-20\mathrm{dB}$
10^{-n}	$-20n\mathrm{dB}$

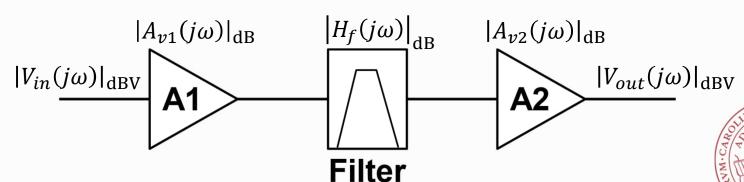
Why dB?

Compact representation of wide-range signals and physical quantities

	Quantity	Linear scale	dB scale
	The sun's radiated power	4×10 ²⁷ W	306 dBm
ŀ	Typical FM transmitter output power	100 kW	80 dBm
	Typical mobile phone output power	0.5 W	27 dBm
	Received power from GPS satellite	2×10 ⁻¹⁶ W	-127 dBm
	Cosmic background radiation in 1 kHz window	4×10 ⁻²¹ W	-174 dBm

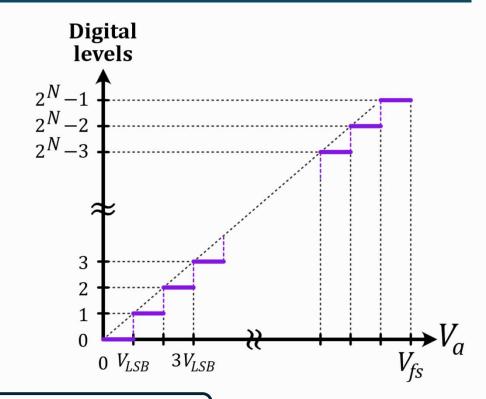
$$|V_{out}(j\omega)|_{dBV} = |V_{in}(j\omega)|_{dBV} + |A_{v1}(j\omega)|_{dB} + |H_f(j\omega)|_{dB} + |A_{v2}(j\omega)|_{dB}$$

Easier gain calculation in multiple stage cascade systems



Quantization: Translation from Analog to Digital

- Mapping analog intervals to digital levels
- Precision depends on the number of digits (resolution)
- In an *N*-bit binary quantizer:
 - Analog signal (V_a) varies from 0 to V_{fs}
 - For quantizers supporting negative values: $V_a \in \left[-V_{fs}/2, +V_{fs}/2\right]$
 - Number of digital levels: 2^N
 - Lowest significant bit corresponds to:



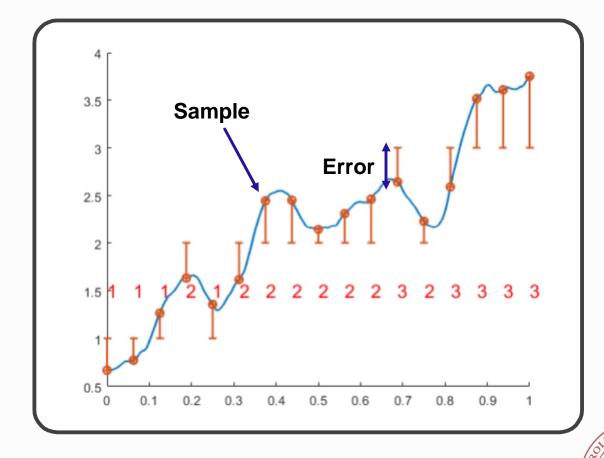
$$\Delta = V_{LSB} = \frac{V_{fs}}{2^N - 1}$$

Quantization: Example 1

- 2-bit quantizer (N = 2)
- Number of discrete levels: $2^2 = 4$

$$\bullet \ \Delta = V_{LSB} = \frac{V_{fS}}{2^2 - 1} = \frac{V_{fS}}{3}$$

- each sample Rounded to the closest integer
- Loss of information

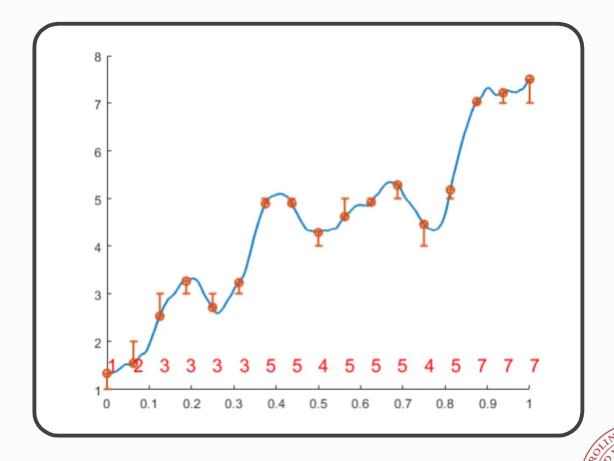


Quantization: Example 2

- 3-bit quantizer (N = 3)
- Number of discrete levels: $2^3 = 8$

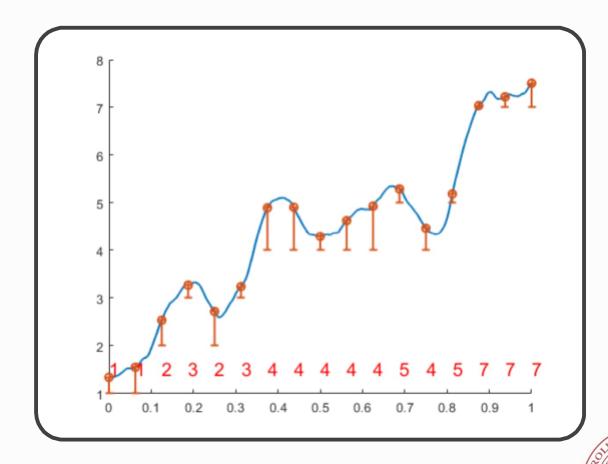
$$\bullet \ \Delta = V_{LSB} = \frac{V_{fS}}{2^3 - 1} = \frac{V_{fS}}{7}$$

- Rounds each sample to the closest integer
- Lower loss of information
 - Smaller quantization error (V_{err})

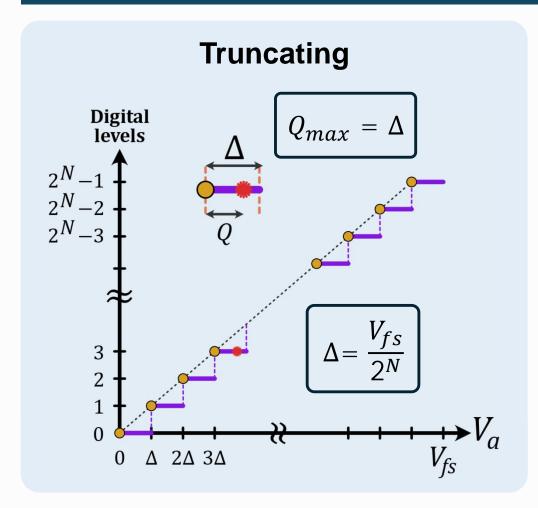


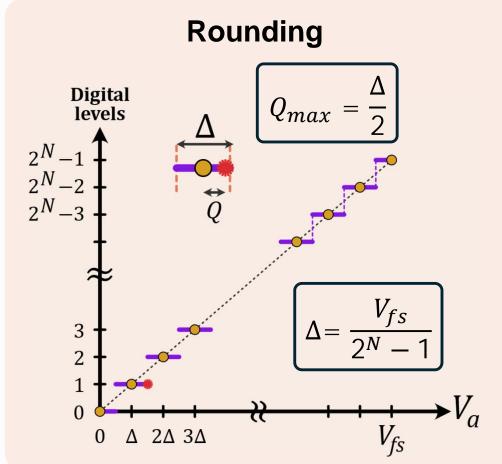
Truncating or Rounding?

- Truncating 3-bit quantizer
- Degradation of signal quality
- Quantization error depends on:
 - Number of bits (V_{LSB})
 - · Rounding method
- Truncation:
 - Remove the decimals
 - $|V_{err}| \le V_{LSB}$
- Rounding (previous slide):
 - $|V_{err}| \le V_{LSB}/2$



Truncating or Rounding?



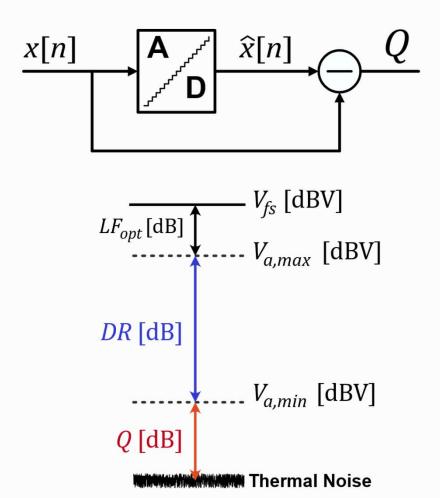


Quantization Noise (Error), Q

- This is not a real noise!
- However, has an effect like noise
 - Limits the dynamic range (DR) of data converters
- **DR:** Maximum range of analog signal that can be converted precisely.

$$DR = V_{a,max}[dBV] - V_{a,min}[dBV]$$

- *V_{a,max}*: Limited by nonlinearities
- V_{a,min}: Limited by quantization error and thermal noise



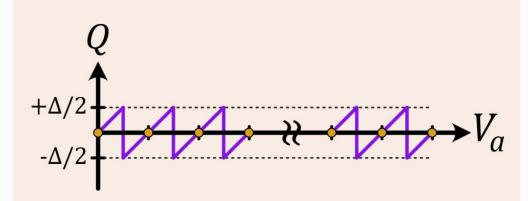


Quantization Noise

Truncating

Average Power:
$$P_Q = \frac{1}{\Delta} \int_0^{\Delta} Q^2 dV_a = \frac{\Delta^2}{3}$$

Rounding



Average Power:
$$P_Q = \frac{1}{\Delta} \int_0^{\Delta} Q^2 dV_a = \frac{\Delta^2}{12}$$

Rounding results in 6 dB lower quantization noise.

Signal-to-Noise Ratio (SNR)

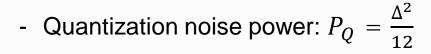
The ratio of signal power to noise power

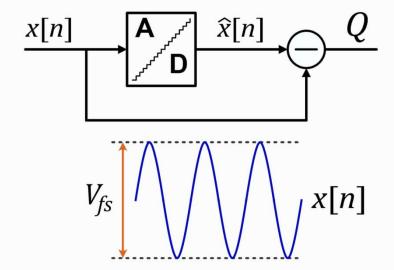
$$SNR = \frac{P_{sig}}{P_N}$$

$$SNR[dB] = 10 \log_{10} SNR$$

- A measure of conversion accuracy
- In an ideal *N*-bit quantizer:
 - Full-scale sinusoidal input signal: $V_{sig,pp} = V_{fs}$

- Signal power:
$$P_{sig} = \frac{(V_{sig,pp}/2)^2}{2} = \frac{V_{fs}^2}{8} = \frac{(2^N - 1)^2 \Delta^2}{8}$$





$$SNR = \frac{P_{sig}}{P_Q} = \frac{3}{2}(2^N - 1)^2$$

 $SNR[dB] \cong 6.02 \times N + 1.76 dB$

Signal-to-Noise Ratio (SNR)

- Each additional bit of resolution → 6 dB higher SNR
- Example:

•
$$N = 8$$

•
$$V_{fs} = 2^8 - 1 = 255$$

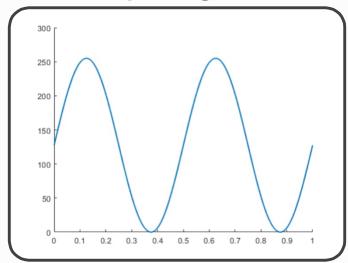
•
$$P_{sig} = 8128$$

•
$$P_0 = 0.083$$

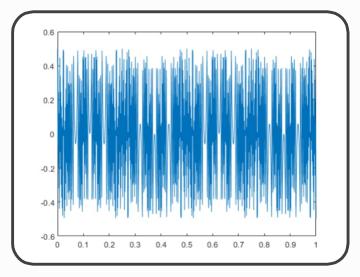
•
$$SNR = \frac{P_{sig}}{P_Q} \cong 9.8 \times 10^4$$

• $SNR[dB] \cong 50 \text{ dB}$

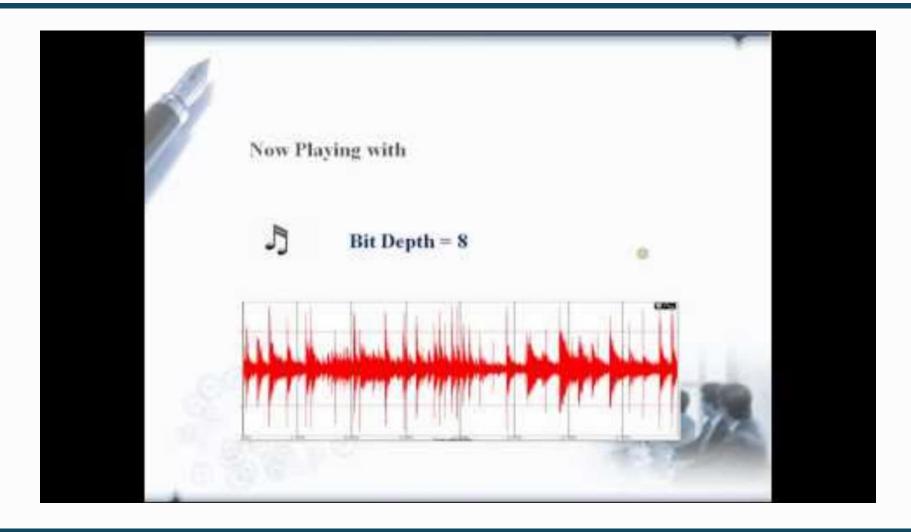
Input signal



Quantization noise



Audio Demonstration of Quantization Noise



Effective Number of Bits (ENOB)

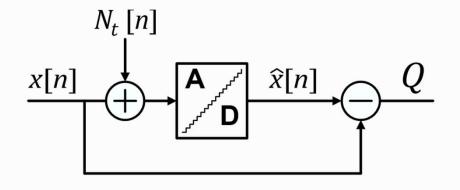
- In practice, electronic quantizer adds thermal noise (N_t) to analog samples.
- Thermal noise is added to quantization noise.

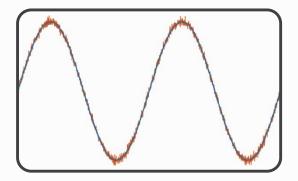
$$N_{tot}[n] = N_t[n] + Q[n]$$

Degraded SNR compared to ideal quantizer

$$SNR = \frac{P_{sig}}{P_{N,t} + P_Q}$$

 ENOB: practical achievable resolution of a quantizer including thermal noise and other imperfections:





$$ENOB \triangleq \frac{SNR[dB] - 1.76 dB}{6.02}$$



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Transfer function of an Ideal Quantizer

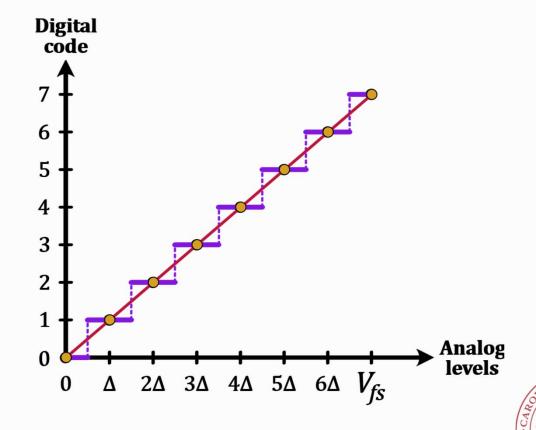
• A linear function that relates analog levels (V_a) to digital codes (D)

$$D = G(V_a - V_{a0})$$

• In an ideal quantizer:

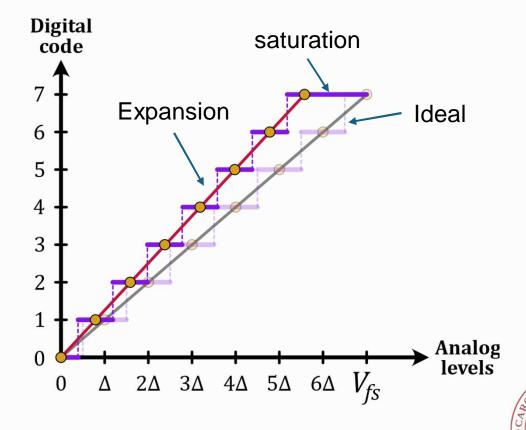
$$G = \frac{1}{\Delta}$$

$$V_{a0} = 0$$
Gain Offset



Quantization Non-idealities – Gain Error

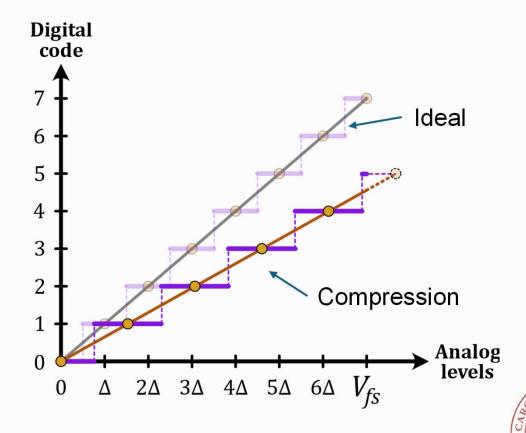
- Smaller or larger effective $V_{LSB} = \Delta$
- Gain Expansion ($G_{meas} > G_{ideal}$):
 - Saturation in the end
 - Part of full-scale range is lost
 - Limits the dynamic range



Elektronik, EITA10, 2025 Data Conversion Slide 39

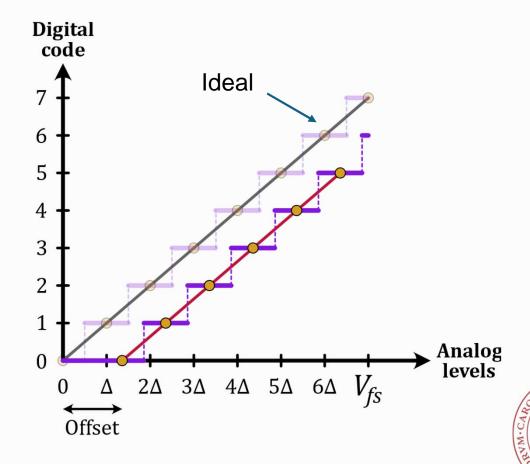
Quantization Non-idealities – Gain Error

- Smaller or larger effective $V_{LSB} = \Delta$
- Gain Expansion ($G_{meas} > G_{ideal}$):
 - Saturation in the end
 - Part of full-scale range is lost
 - Limits the dynamic range
- Gain Compression ($G_{meas} < G_{ideal}$):
 - Unused digital code (6 and 7 here)
 - Lower effective bits → larger Q
 - Lower SNR



Quantization Non-idealities – Offset Error

- Interval for the first digital code (0) is stretched.
- $\Delta_0 > V_{LSB}$
- Normally can be corrected in digital domain.
- Requires rigorous measurement and modeling



Pause and Ponder 3

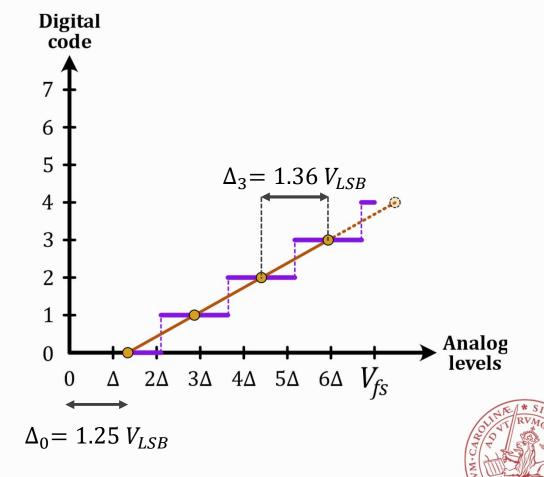
 After 100 rounds of measurements, we have plotted this transfer function for an ADC. Find offset and gain error.

$$D = G(V_a - V_{a0})$$

$$V_{a0} = \Delta_0 = 1.25 V_{LSB}$$

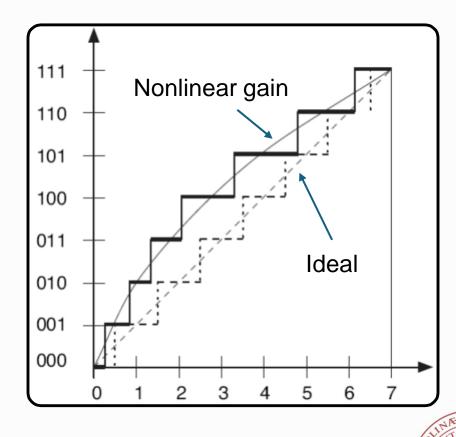
$$G = \frac{1}{\Delta_3} = 0.73 \frac{1}{V_{LSB}}$$

 $G < 1 \rightarrow Compression$



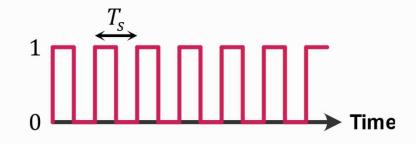
Quantization Non-idealities – Nonlinearity

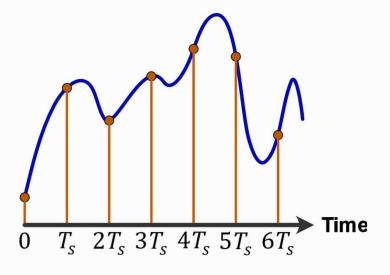
- Nonlinearities of switches, capacitors, and resistors.
- Uneven intervals $(\Delta_i \neq \Delta_i)$
- Generates distortion in digital spectrum
 - Harmonics
 - Inter-mixing of signals
- Degrades DR



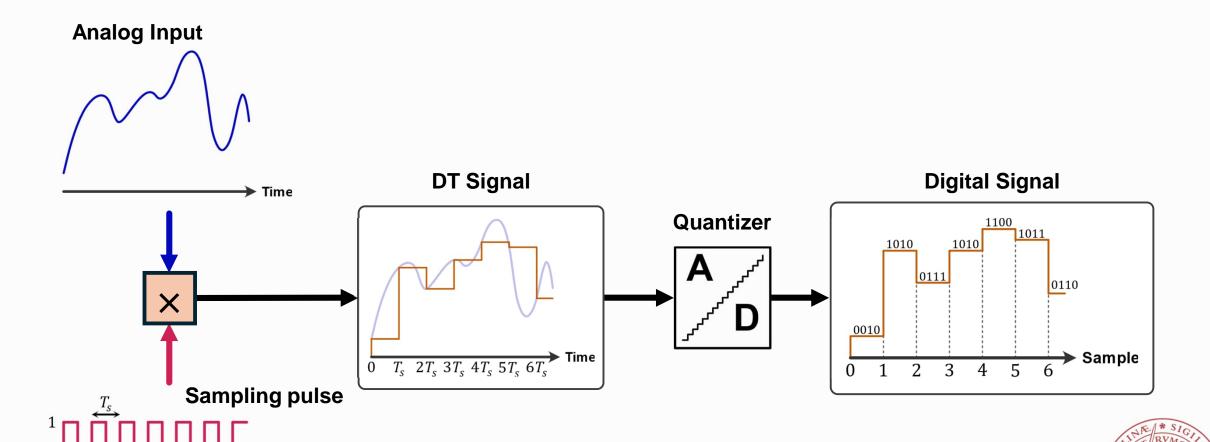
Sampling: Translation from CT to DT

- Uniform sampling: a periodic signal is used to sample CT signals and hold their corresponding DT signals.
- Sampling period: T_s
- Sampling frequency: $f_S = 1/T_S$
- Therefore, the k-th sample (x[k]) corresponds to the value of the CT signal at $t = kT_s$.





Data Conversion: Sampling + Quantization



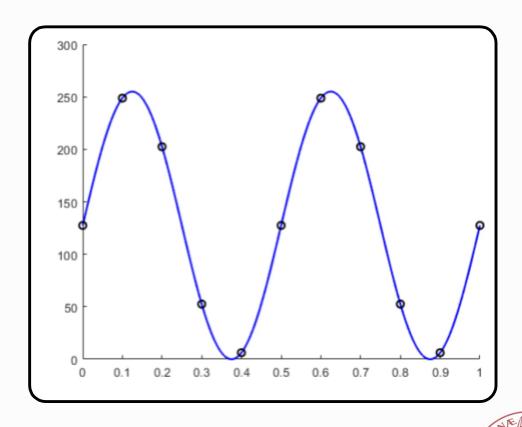
How Fast Should We Sample a Signal?

- Depends on the maximum frequency of interest in the signal spectrum (f_{sig})
- Fourier transform of a signal determines f_{sig}
- In this example:

•
$$f_S = 10$$

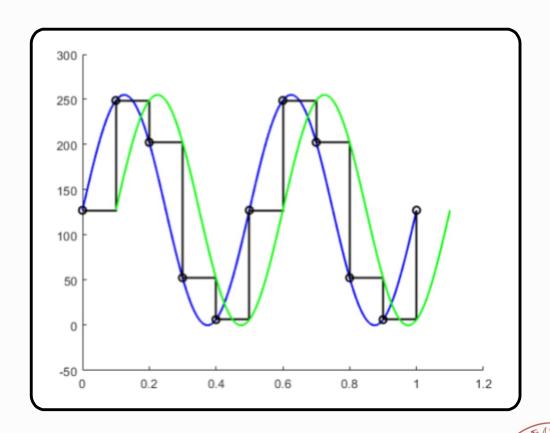
•
$$f_{sig} = 2$$

• $f_s > 2 \times f_{sig}$, seems OK!



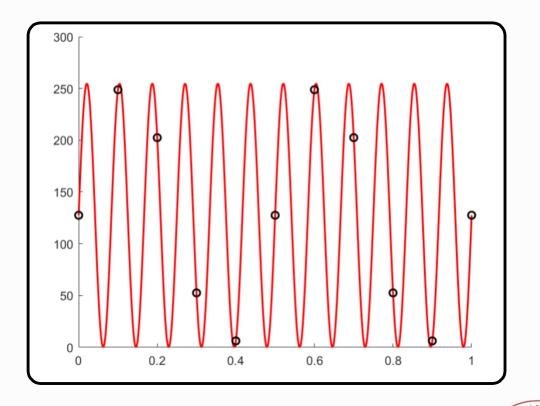
Signal Reconstruction

- The sampled signal is restored by interpolation.
- A filter takes average of samples and fill time intervals.
- Requires enough samples per second to reconstruct the signal with acceptable accuracy.



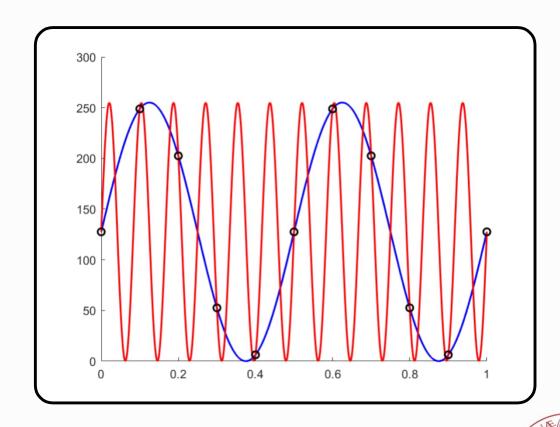
Undersampling

- $f_s < 2 \times f_{sig}$
- Misses rapid changes
- The signal might have several extreme values between two sample points
- Cannot be reconstructed



Aliasing

- Signals at different frequencies sampled by the same f_s , lead to the same sample points.
- We cannot differentiate them after sampling.
- Example:
 - $f_s = 10$
 - $f_{blue} = 2, f_{red} = 12$



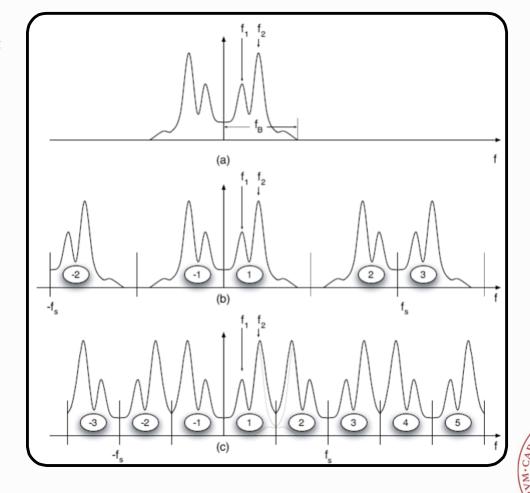
Aliasing

• In general aliased signals of a specific signal located at f_{sig} , exist at:

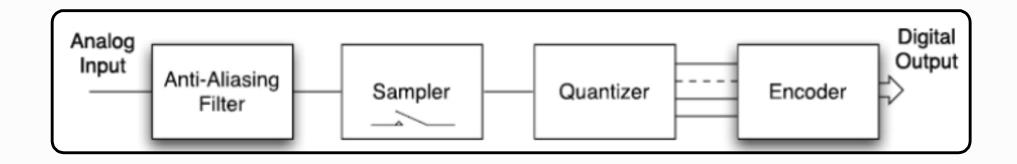
$$f_n = n \times f_s \pm f_{sig}$$

 Meaning, each signal itself repeats in spectrum as an image (copy) at:

$$f_{im} = n \times f_s \pm f_{sig}$$



Anti-aliasing Filter

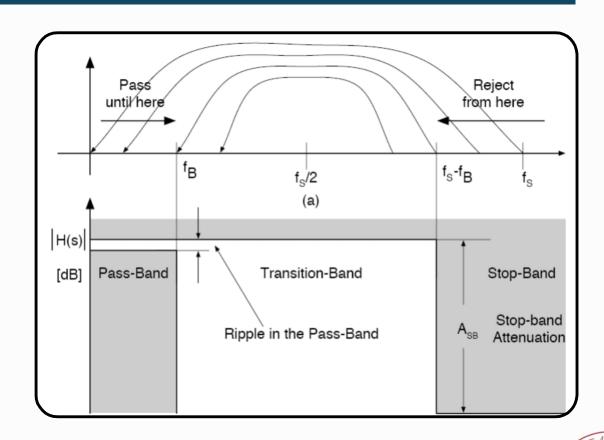


- Must reject interference signals at $f > f_s f_{sig}$
 - Folded down into the spectrum of the useful signal
 - Cannot be performed digitally after sampling → analog filter is necessary
 - Disturbances with $f_B < f < f_s f_B$ can be digitally filtered

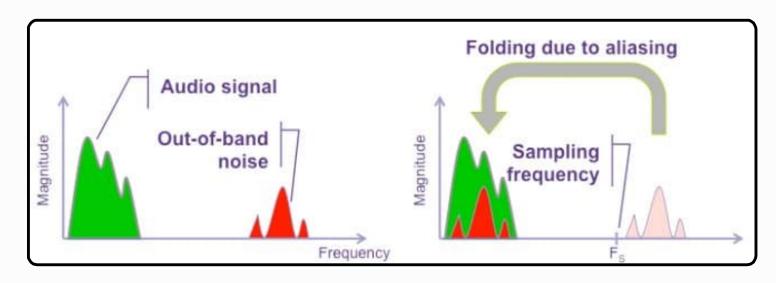


Anti-aliasing Filter

- Desired signal
 - Weak, low-power
 - $-f < f_B$
- Disorders that folds down
 - For frequencies $f_{\text{mirror}} < f_B$
 - $-f \ge f_s f_B$
 - Attenuated at least by A_{SB}
- Steep filter
 - Higher order



Noise Folding and Oversampling



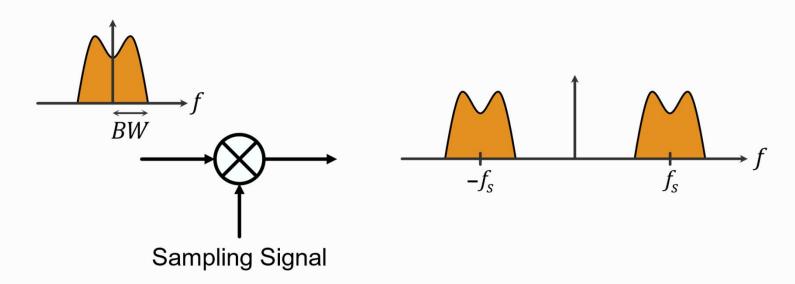
Noise also folded back

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 Sampling at higher frequency leads to less folding into the band of interest.

Frequency Representation of Sampling

- In Fourier domain, multiplication is turned into convolution.
- Simply, shift by $\pm kf_s$ in frequency $(k \in \mathbb{Z})$
- Copies of signal spectrum is shifted both upwards and downwards.



How Fast Should We Sample a Signal?

- Collision between copies of the signal spectrum is not allowed.
- The sampled signal would be undetectable if the copies overlap.
- Nyquist rate (minimum required f_s):

$$f_{Nyquist} = f_{s,min} = 2 \times BW$$

