

# Part 01 - Introduction

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# 1 Basics

## 1.1 Signals, Systems, and Signal Processing

- Signal: Physical quantity that varies independent variable or variables
- System: Device that performs an operation on a signal
- Algorithm: Method or set of rules for implementing the system
- Signal Processing: Passing a signal through a system
- A/D Converter: Converting the signal from analog to digital
- D/A Converter: Converting the signal from digital to analog

## 1.2 Classification of Signals

- Multichannel and Multidimensional Signals
  - Multichannel Signals: Signal with one independent variable
  - Multidimensional Signals: Signal with multiple independent variables
- Continuous-Time Versus Discrete-Time Signals
  - Continuous-time Signals: Signal with every value of time
  - Discrete-time Signals: Signal with specific values of time
- Continuous-Valued Versus Discrete -Valued Signals
  - Continuous-valued Signals: Signal with continuous values
  - Discrete-valued Signals: Signal with discrete values
- Deterministic Versus Random Signals
  - Deterministic Signals: Signals that can be uniquely described
  - Random Signals: Signals evolve in an unpredictable manner

# 2 The Concept of Frequency in Continuous-Time and Discrete-Time Signals

We expect that the nature of time (continuous or discrete) would affect the nature of the frequency accordingly.

## 2.1 Continuous-Time Sinusoidal Signals

A simple harmonic oscillation:

$$x_a(t) = A \cos(\Omega t + \theta), -\infty < t < \infty$$

$A$  is the amplitude of sinuoid,  $\Omega$  is the frequency, and  $\theta$  is the phase in radians. Instead of  $\Omega$ , we often use the frequency  $F$  in cycles per second or hertz(Hz), where

$$\Omega = 2\pi F$$

The analog sinusoidal signal is characterized by the following properties:

- $x_a(t)$  is periodic if  $x_a(t + T_p) = x_a(t)$ , where  $T_p = 1/F$  is the fundamental period of the sinusoidal signal.
- Continuous-time sinusoidal signals with distinct frequencies are themselves distinct.
- Increasing the frequency  $F$  results in an increase in the rate of oscillation of the signal.

Corresponding complex exponential form

$$x_a(t) = Ae^{j(\Omega t + \theta)}$$

This can easily be seen by expressing these signals in terms of sinusoids using the Euler identity

$$e^{\pm j\phi} = \cos \phi \pm j \sin \phi$$

## 2.2 Discrete-Time Sinusoidal Signals

A discrete-time sinusoidal signal:

$$x(n) = A \cos(\omega n + \theta), -\infty < n < \infty$$

where  $n$  is an integer variable, called the sample number,  $A$  is the amplitude of the sinusoid,  $\omega$  is the frequency in radians per sample, and  $\theta$  is the phase in radians.

The discrete-time sinusoids are characterized by following properties:

- A discrete-time sinusoid is periodic only if its frequency  $f$  is a rational number.
- Discrete-time sinusoids whose frequencies are separated by an integer multiple of  $2\pi$  are identical.
- The highest rate of oscillation in a discrete-time sinusoid is attained when  $\omega = \pi$  (or  $\omega = -\pi$ ) or, equivalently,  $f = \frac{1}{2}$  (or  $f = -\frac{1}{2}$ ).

Usually, we choose the range  $0 \leq \omega \leq 2\pi$  or  $-\pi \leq \omega \leq \pi$  ( $0 \leq f \leq 1, -\frac{1}{2} \leq f \leq \frac{1}{2}$ ), which we call the *fundamental range*.

## 2.3 Harmonically Related Complex Exponentials

These are sets of periodic complex exponentials with fundamental frequencies that are multiples of a single positive frequency. We can construct a linear combination of harmonically related complex exponentials by adding continuous-time, harmonically related exponentials, which is called *Fourier series expansion*. For discrete-time,  $f_0 = 1/N$ , they are only  $N$  distinct periodic complex exponentials, this is called *Fourier series*.

### 3 Analog-to-Digital and Digital-to-Analog Conversion

We view A/D conversion as a three-step process: sampling, quantization and coding. The accuracy of D/A conversion depends on the quality of D/A conversion, a simple form of D/A conversion is called zero-order hold or staircase approximation. The sampling rate is sufficiently high to avoid the problem commonly called *aliasing*.

#### 3.1 Sampling of Analog Signals

We limit our discussion to *periodic* or *uniform sampling*,  $F_s = 1/T$  is called the *sampling rate* (hertz).  $F$  is frequency of analog signal, the frequency variables  $F$  and  $f$  are linearly related as

$$f = \frac{F}{F_s}$$

and  $f$  is also called *relative* or *normalized frequency*.

We observe that the fundamental difference between continuous-time and discrete-time signals is in their range of values of the frequency variable  $F$  and  $f$ , or  $\Omega$  and  $\omega$ .

$$F_{max} = \frac{F_s}{2} = \frac{1}{2T}$$
$$\Omega_{max} = \pi F_s = \frac{\pi}{T}$$

For example,  $F_2 = 10Hz$  is an alias of the frequency  $F_1 = 50Hz$  when  $F_s = 40Hz$ . The relationship is

$$F_k = F_0 + kF_s, \quad k = \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$$

$F_s/2$  is called *folding frequency*.

#### 3.2 The Sampling Theorem

$F_s$  is selected that

$$F_s > 2F_{max}$$

where  $F_{max}$  is the largest frequency component in the analog signal. The sampling rate  $F_N = 2B = 2F_{max}$  is called the *Nyquist rate*.

#### 3.3 Quantization of Continuous-Amplitude Signals

- Quantization: The process of converting a discrete-time continuous-amplitude signal into a digital signal by expressing each sample value as a finite number of digits
- Quantization Error: Difference between the quantized value and the actual sample value
- Quantization Level: Values allowed in the digital signal
- Quantization step size or resolution: Distance  $\delta$  between two successive quantization levels
- Two ways of quantization: Truncation and rounding

### 3.4 Quantization of Sinusoidal Signals

Sinusoids are used as test signals in A/D converters. If the sampling rate  $F_s$  satisfies the sampling theorem, quantization is the only error in the A/D conversion process. The quality of the output of the A/D converter is usually measured by the *signal – to – quantization noise ratio*( $SQNR$ ).

$$SQNR = \frac{P_x}{P_q} = \frac{3}{2} \cdot 2^{2b}$$

Expressed in decibels(dB), the SQNR is

$$SQNR(\text{dB}) = 10 \log_{10} SQNR = 1.76 + 6.02b$$

### 3.5 Coding of Quantized Samples

The number of bits required in the coder is the smallest integer greater than or equal to  $\log_2 L$ .