

# Analog to Digital Conversion

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# Overview

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- 2 Sampling
- 3 Quantization
- 4 Encoding
- 5 Pulse Code Modulation
- 6 Source Coding

# Analog to Digital Conversion

# Analog to Digital Conversion

- ✓ In **sampling**, a **discrete-time continuous-value signal** from an **analog signal** is obtained.
- ✓ In **quantization**, a **discrete-time discrete-amplitude signal** from a **discrete-time continuous-value signal** is obtained.
- ✓ In **encoding**, a **sequence of bits** is assigned to different quantized values of a **discrete-time discrete-amplitude signal**.

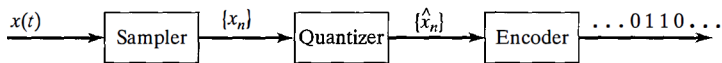


Figure: Block diagram of **analog to digital converter**.

# Sampling

# Nyquist Sampling

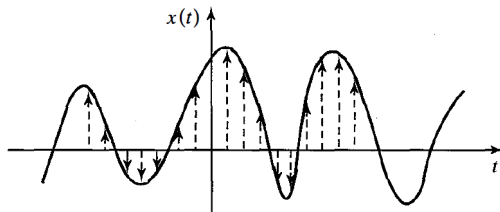


Figure: Nyquist sampling of a signal.

# Nyquist Sampling

## Theorem (Sampling Theorem)

Let the signal  $x(t)$  have a bandwidth  $W$ , i.e., let  $X(f) = 0$  for  $|f| \geq W$ . Let  $x(t)$  be sampled at multiples of some basic sampling interval  $T_s$ , where  $T_s \leq \frac{1}{2W}$ , to yield the sequence  $x_\delta(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(nT_s)\delta(t - nT_s)$ . Then it is possible to reconstruct the original signal  $x(t)$  from the samples values by the reconstruction formula

$$\begin{aligned} x(t) &= h(t) * x_\delta(t) = 2W' T_s \text{sinc}(2W't) * x_\delta(t) \\ &= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} 2W' T_s x(nT_s) \text{sinc}[2W'(t - nT_s)] \end{aligned}$$

, where  $W'$  is any arbitrary number satisfying the condition  $W \leq W' \leq \frac{1}{T_s} - W$ .

# Nyquist Sampling

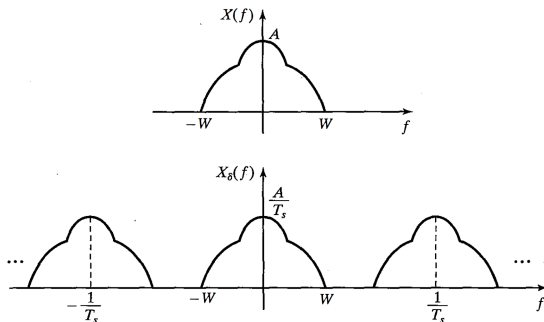


Figure: Frequency-domain representation of the **nyquist sampled signal**.

$$x_\delta(t) = x(t) \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t - nT_s) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(nT_s) \delta(t - nT_s)$$

$$X_\delta(f) = X(f) * \frac{1}{T_s} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta\left(f - \frac{n}{T_s}\right) = \frac{1}{T_s} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} X\left(f - \frac{n}{T_s}\right)$$

$$H(f) = T_s \Pi\left(\frac{f}{2W'}\right) \Rightarrow X(f) = X_\delta(f)H(f) \Rightarrow x(t) = x_\delta(t) * h(t)$$



# Zero-Order Hold Sampling

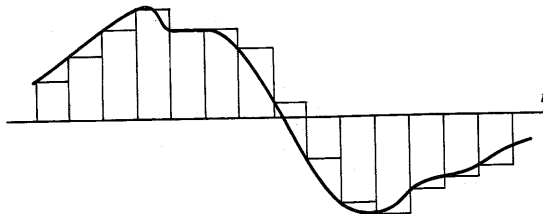


Figure: Flat-top sampling (zero-order hold sampling, sample and hold) of a signal.

$$x_p(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(nT_s)p(t - nT_s) = x_{\delta}(t) * p(t)$$

$$X_p(f) = X_{\delta}(f)P(f), \quad P_{eq}(f) = \frac{Ke^{-j2\pi ft_d}}{P(f)} \Rightarrow X_p(f)P_{eq}(f) = X_{\delta}(f)Ke^{-j2\pi ft_d}$$

$$X_p(f)P_{eq}(f)H(f) = X(f)Ke^{-j2\pi ft_d} \Rightarrow Kx(t - t_d) = x_p(t) * h(t) * p_{eq}(t) = x_p(t) * h_p(t)$$

# Aliasing

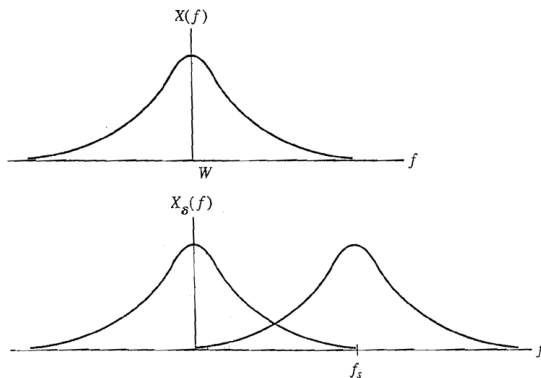


Figure: Aliasing in sampling.

✗ The unlimited bandwidth of messages creates **aliasing**.

# Anti-aliasing

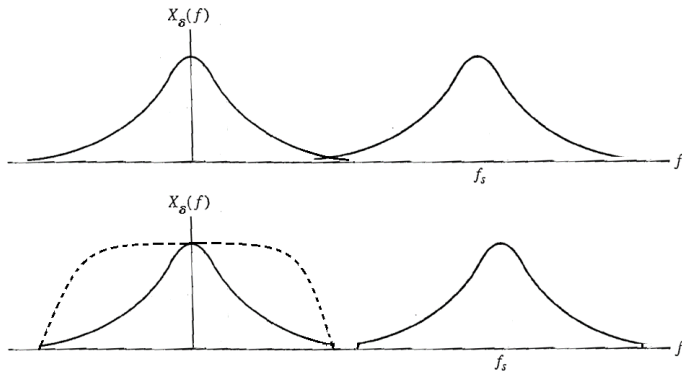


Figure: Anti-aliasing techniques in sampling.

- ✓ Increase sampling frequency and/or use **anti-aliasing filter** to mitigate aliasing effect.

# Quantization

## Theorem (Quantization)

*Quantization is a function defined as*

$$Q(x) = \hat{x}_i : x \in \mathbb{R}_i$$

*where the sets  $\mathbb{R}_i$  partition the set of real numbers  $\mathbb{R}$ .*

## Definition (Signal to Quantization Noise Ratio)

If the random variable  $X$  is quantized to  $Q(X)$ , the signal to quantization noise ratio is defined as

$$\text{SQNR} = \frac{E\{X^2\}}{E\{(X - Q(X))^2\}}$$

# Uniform Quantization

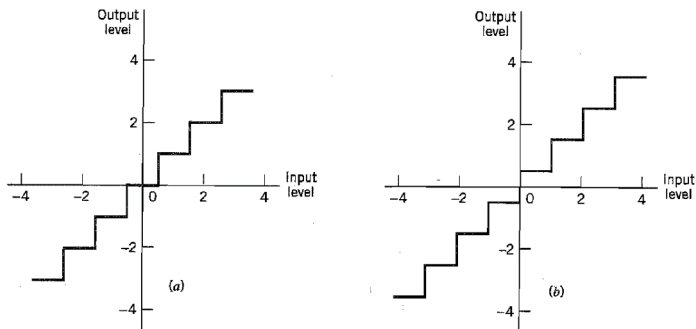


Figure: Two types of **uniform** quantization. (a) **midtread** and (b) **midrise**.

# Nonuniform Quantization

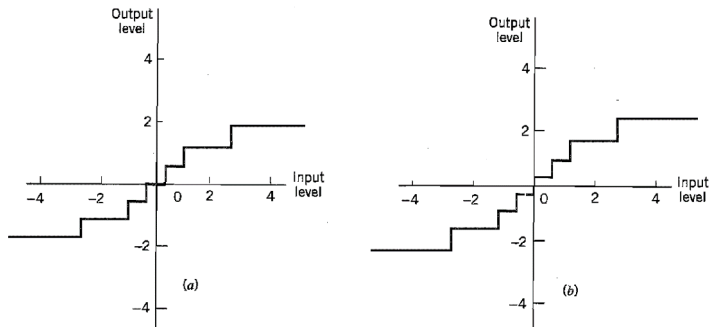


Figure: Two instances of **nonuniform** quantization.

## Example (SQNR)

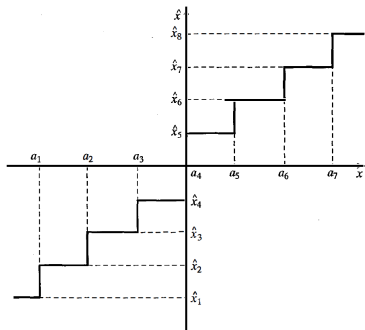
The source  $X(t)$  is a stationary Gaussian source with mean zero and power spectral density  $S_x(f) = 2 \Pi(f/200)$ . The source is sampled at the Nyquist rate and each sample is quantized using an eight-level quantizer with  $a_1 = -60$ ,  $a_2 = -40$ ,  $a_3 = -20$ ,  $a_4 = 0$ ,  $a_5 = 20$ ,  $a_6 = 40$ ,  $a_7 = 60$ , and  $\hat{x}_1 = -70$ ,  $\hat{x}_2 = -50$ ,  $\hat{x}_3 = -30$ ,  $\hat{x}_4 = -10$ ,  $\hat{x}_5 = 10$ ,  $\hat{x}_6 = 30$ ,  $\hat{x}_7 = 50$ ,  $\hat{x}_7 = 70$ . The SQNR for this quantization is  $11.98 \equiv 10.78$  dB.



# Quantization Performance

## Example (SQNR (cont.))

The source  $X(t)$  is a stationary Gaussian source with mean zero and power spectral density  $S_x(f) = 2 \Pi(f/200)$ . The source is sampled at the Nyquist rate and each sample is quantized using an eight-level quantizer. The SQNR for this quantization is  $11.98 \equiv 10.78$  dB.



## Example (SQNR (cont.))

The source  $X(t)$  is a stationary Gaussian source with mean zero and power spectral density  $S_X(f) = 2 \Pi(f/200)$ . The source is sampled at the Nyquist rate and each sample is quantized using an eight-level quantizer. The SQNR for this quantization is  $11.98 \equiv 10.78$  dB.

$$E\{X^2\} = \sigma^2 = R_X(0) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S_X(f) df = 400$$

$$E\{(X - Q(X))^2\} = \int_{-\infty}^{a_1} (x - \hat{x}_1)^2 f_X(x) dx + \sum_{i=2}^7 \int_{a_{i-1}}^{a_i} (x - \hat{x}_i)^2 f_X(x) dx \\ + \int_{a_7}^{\infty} (x - \hat{x}_8)^2 f_X(x) dx = 33.38, f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{800\pi}} \exp(-x^2/800)$$

$$\text{SQNR} = \frac{400}{33.38} = 11.98$$

# Encoding

## Statement (Encoding)

*In encoding, a unique sequence of  $\nu$  bits is assigned to each  $N = 2^\nu$  quantization level.*

# Natural Binary Coding and Gray Coding

Quantization Level	Level Order	NBC Code	Gray Code
$\hat{x}_1$	0	0000	0000
$\hat{x}_2$	1	0001	0010
$\hat{x}_3$	2	0010	0011
$\hat{x}_4$	3	0011	0001
$\hat{x}_5$	4	0100	0101
$\hat{x}_6$	5	0101	0100
$\hat{x}_7$	6	0110	0110
$\hat{x}_8$	7	0111	0111
$\hat{x}_9$	8	1000	1111
$\hat{x}_{10}$	9	1001	1110
$\hat{x}_{11}$	10	1010	1100
$\hat{x}_{12}$	11	1011	1101
$\hat{x}_{13}$	12	1100	1001
$\hat{x}_{14}$	13	1101	1000
$\hat{x}_{15}$	14	1110	1010
$\hat{x}_{16}$	15	1111	1011

Table: NBC and gray codes for 16-level quantization.

# Pulse Code Modulation

# PCM Transmitter

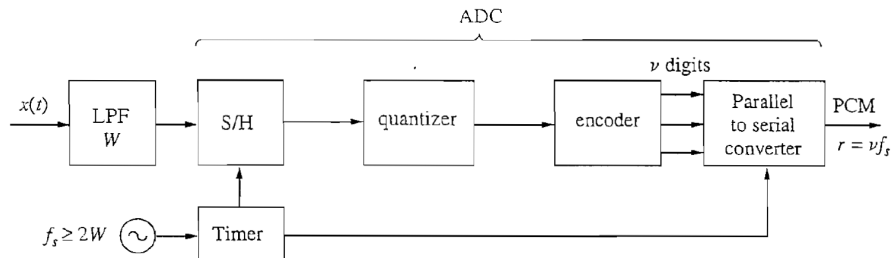


Figure: PCM transmitter.

- ✓ Output data rate is  $r = \nu f_s$  bit/s.

# PCM Receiver

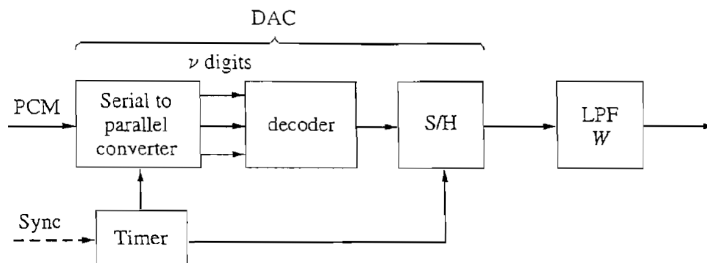


Figure: PCM receiver.



# PCM Waveform

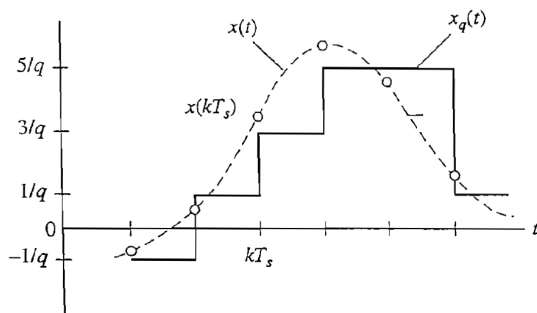


Figure: PCM waveform.

# Companding

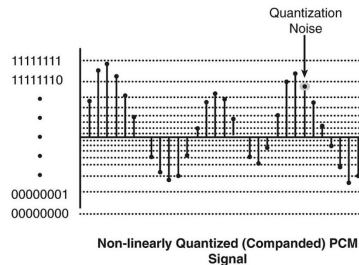
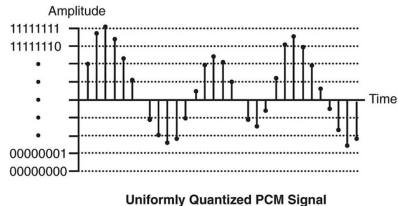
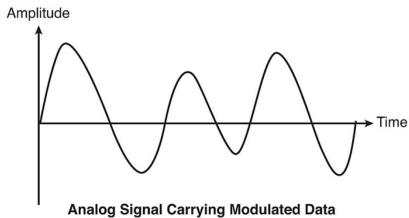


Figure: Uniformly-quantized and non-uniformly-quantized PCM signal.

# Companding

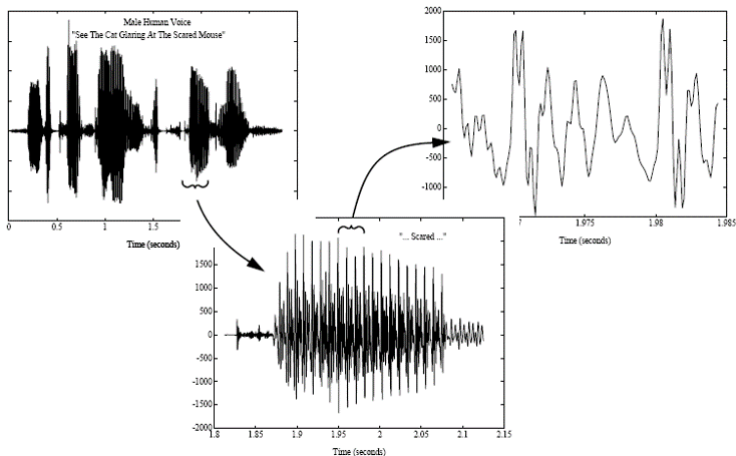
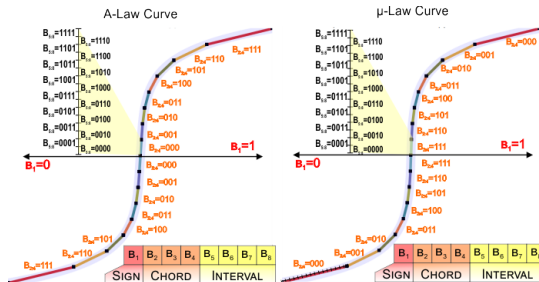


Figure: A sample of voice signal.

# Companing



$$g(x) = \text{sgn}(x) \begin{cases} \frac{A|x|}{1+\ln(A)}, & |x| \leq \frac{1}{A} \\ \frac{1+\ln(A|x|)}{1+\ln(A)}, & |x| \geq \frac{1}{A} \end{cases}, \quad g(x) = \frac{\ln(1 + \mu|x|)}{\ln(1 + \mu)} \text{sgn}(x)$$

# Companing

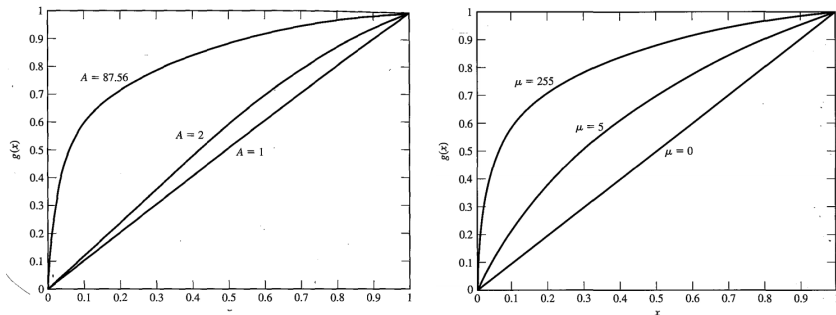


Figure: A-law and  $\mu$ -law companding.

$$g(x) = \text{sgn}(x) \begin{cases} \frac{A|x|}{1+\ln(A)}, & |x| \leq \frac{1}{A} \\ \frac{1+\ln(A|x|)}{1+\ln(A)}, & |x| \geq \frac{1}{A} \end{cases}, \quad g(x) = \frac{\ln(1+\mu|x|)}{\ln(1+\mu)} \text{sgn}(x)$$

# E1 Digital Voice Multiplexing

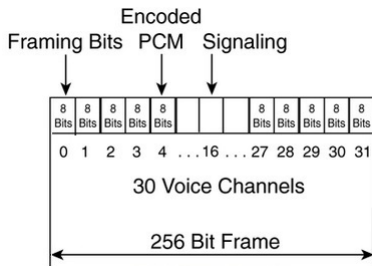


Figure: E1 frame.

- ✓ Each E1 frame carries 32 PCM channels with  $f_c = 8000$  Hz and  $\nu = 8$ , which results in a net rate of  $32 \times 8 \times 8000 \times 10^{-6} = 2.048$  Mb/s.

# E-carrier Multiplexing

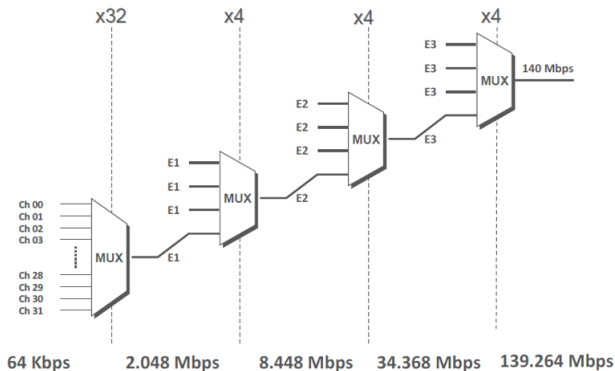


Figure: E-carrier digital multiplexing.

- ✓ Ex carrier carries  $32 \times 4^{x-1}$  PCM channels with  $f_c = 8000$  Hz and  $\nu = 8$ .
- ✓ Considering the overhead bits, Ex carriers provide rates of 2.048, 8.448, 34.368, 139.264 Mb/s.

# Source Coding



# Source Coding

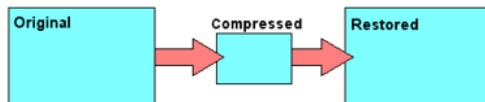


Figure: Source coding reduces the number of bits required to represent the message signal.

- ✓ Source coder **compresses** the **bits** representing a message signal at the cost of quality reduction.
- ✓ Source coder creates **computational complexity** and may reduce the **quality** of the restored signal.
- ✓ In source coding, **variable-length encoders** are usually used.

# Compression

## LOSSLESS



## LOSSY

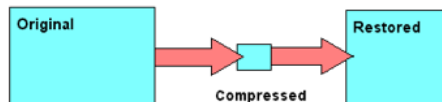


Figure: Lossless and lossy signal compression.

- ✓ In **lossless compression**, the source decoder recovers the exact original bit pattern.
- ✓ In **lossy compression**, the source decoder approximately replicate the original bit pattern.
- ✓ **Type of message** signal impacts the compression.

Voice signal can be compressed to reduce its bit rate using

- ① **Waveform** source encoders
  - ① Delta Modulation (**DM**)
  - ② Sigma-Delta Modulation (**SDM**)
  - ③ Pulse Code Modulation (**PCM**)
  - ④ Differential PCM (**DPCM**)
  - ⑤ Adaptive DPCM (**ADPCM**)
- ② **Model-based** source encoders
  - ① Linear Predictive Coding (**LPC**)

# Delta Modulation

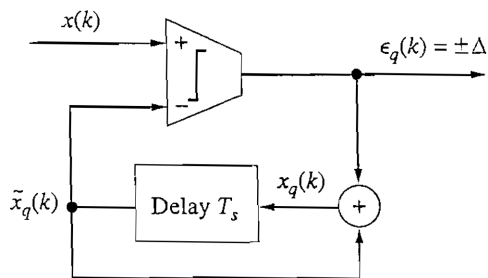


Figure: Delta transmitter sends the derivative of the input signal.

- ✓ Output data rate is  $r = f_s$  bit/s.

# Delta Modulation

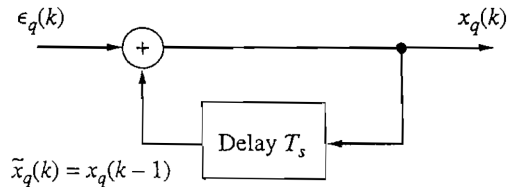


Figure: Delta receiver calculates the integral of the input signal.

# Delta Modulation

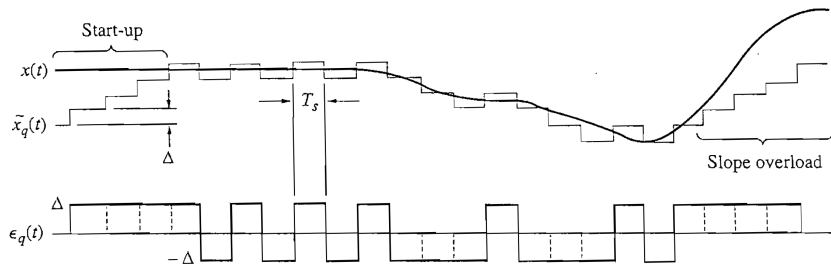
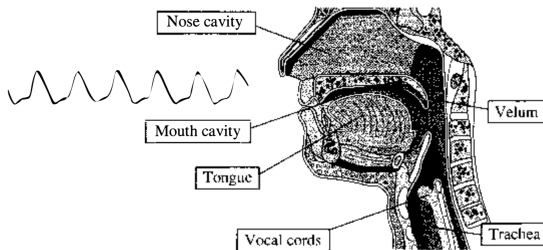


Figure: Delta waveform.

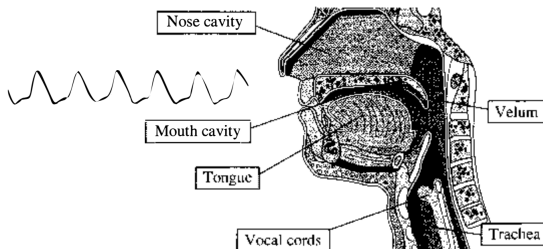
- ✓ Voice signal samples are **highly correlated** and do not change drastically from one sample to the next.
- ✓ If  $m[k]$  is the  $k$ th sample, instead of transmitting  $m[k]$ , the **difference**  $d[k] = m[k] - m[k - 1]$  can be transmitted.
- ✓ At the receiver, knowing  $d[k]$  and the previous sample value  $m[k - 1]$ , we can reconstruct  $m[k]$ .
- ✓ The signal  $d[k]$  has a much smaller amplitude range. Therefore, the number of quantization levels required for its transmission reduces from 8 bits per sample to **4 bits per sample**.
- ✓ Using this technique, voice signal rate can be reduced to **32 kbps**.



**Figure:** Human **speech production** mechanism. Human speech is produced by the joint interaction of lungs, vocal cords, mouth cavity, and the nose cavity.

- ✓ **Voiced sounds** are those made while the vocal cords are vibrating like the vowel “a” and the consonant “g”.
- ✓ **Unvoiced sounds** are made while the vocal cords are not vibrating like the consonant “k”.
- ✓ The vibrating vocal cords interrupt the air stream and produce the so-called **pitch impulses**.





**Figure:** Human **speech production** mechanism. Human speech is produced by the joint interaction of lungs, vocal cords, mouth cavity, and the nose cavity.

- ✓ For **voiced sound**, the **pitch impulses** stimulate the air in the **vocal tract** (mouth and nasal cavities).
- ✓ For **unvoiced sounds**, the excitation comes directly from the **air flow** and can be considered as a **broadband noise**.
- ✓ Vocal cavities form resonators with characteristic resonance frequencies.

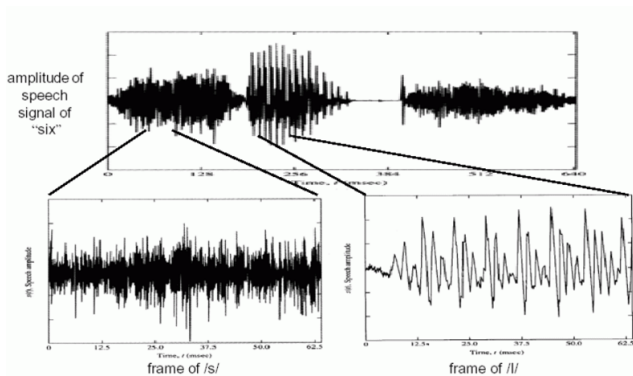


Figure: Speech signal of the word “six”.

✓ **Vocal tract** can be approximately modeled by a simple linear digital filter with an all-pole transfer function of

$$H(z) = \frac{g}{A(z)} = \frac{g}{1 - \sum_{i=1}^p a_i z^{-i}}$$

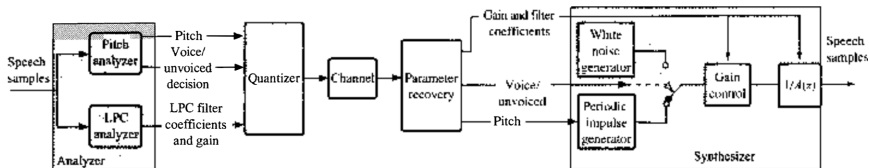


Figure: Analysis and synthesis of voice signals in an LPC encoder and decoder.

- ✓ The model-based vocoders analyze the voice signals segment by segment to determine the best-fitting speech model parameters.
- ✓ After speech analysis, the transmitter sends the necessary speech model parameters for each voice segment to the receiver.
- ✓ The receiver then uses the parameters for the speech model to set up a voice synthesizer to regenerate the respective voice segments.

Pitch Period	Voiced/Unvoiced	Gain $g$	10 LP Filter Parameters, bits/coefficient			
			$r_1 - r_4$	$r_5 - r_8$	$r_9$	$r_{10}$
			5 bits	4 bits	3 bits	2 bits
6 bits	1 bit	5 bits	5 bits	<i>Not used</i>		Voiced
						Unvoiced

Figure: Quantization bit allocation in LPC-10 vocoder.

- ✓ In the LPC-10 vocoder, the speech is sampled at 8 kHz.
- ✓ A total of 180 samples (22.5 ms) form an LPC frame for transmission.
- ✓ Each LPC frame requires between 32 (unvoiced) and 53 (voiced) bits.
- ✓ Adding frame control bits results in an average coded stream of 54 bits per speech frame, or an overall rate of 2.4 kbps.

- ✓ **NTSC** video signal has a bandwidth of around **4.2 MHz**. Sampling and quantization of this signal results in a stream of **45-120 Mbps**.
- ✓ **Raw uncompressed HDTV** signal requires **800 Mbps**. Compression is very important for proper delivery of video over communication networks.
- ✓ Motion Picture Experts Group (**MPEG**) is an important standardization group for video compression.

- **MPEG-1:** Used for VCR-quality video and storage on video CD at a data rate of **1.5 Mbps**. MPEG-1 decoders are available on most computers.
- **MPEG-2:** Supports diverse video coding applications for transmissions ranging in quality from VCR to HDTV. It offers **50:1 compression** of raw video. MPEG-2 is a highly popular format used in DVD, HDTV, terrestrial digital video broadcasting (DVB-T), and digital video broadcasting by satellite (DVB-S).
- **MPEG-4:** Provides multimedia (audio, visual, or audiovisual) content streaming over different bandwidths including Internet. MPEG-4 is supported by Microsoft Windows Media Player, Real Networks, and Apple's Quicktime and iPod. MPEG-4 is converged with an ITU-T standard known as **H.264**.

MPEG video compression is based on two main mechanisms of

- **Temporal** or **interframe compression** by predicting interframe motion and removing interframe redundancy.
- **Spatial** or **intraframe compression**, which forms a block identifier for a group of pixels having the same characteristics (color, intensity, etc.). For each frame, only the block identifier is transmitted.

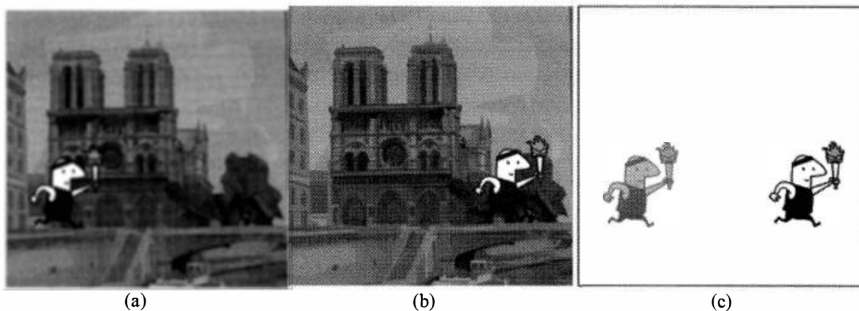
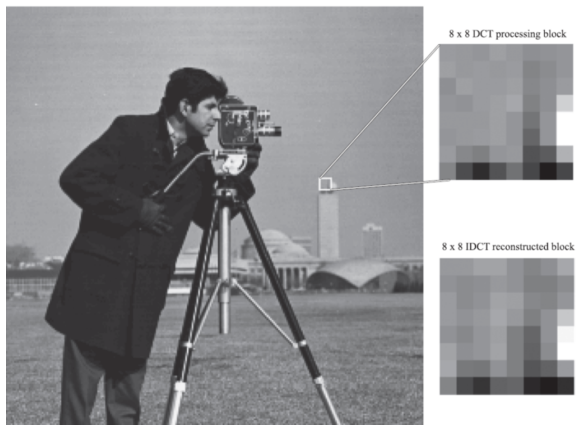


Figure: Motion estimation and compensation. (a) Frame 1. (b) Frame 2. (c) The residual image between frames 1 and 2.





**Figure:** The famous cameraman image, a highlighted  $8 \times 8$  block for compression and the correspondingly reconstructed block at the decoder after **DCT compression**.

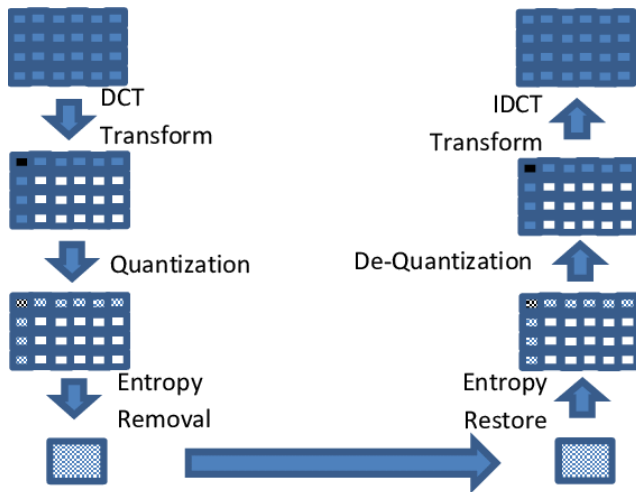


Figure: DCT compression.

# The End