

# BLM2041 Signals and Systems

## Syllabus

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# Information Systems:

# **Fundamentals**

# DEFINITION(S) OF SYSTEM

A **system** can be broadly defined as an integrated set of elements that accomplish a defined objective.

People from different engineering disciplines have different perspectives of what a "system" is.

For example,

software engineers often refer to an integrated set of computer programs as a "system"

electrical engineers might refer to complex integrated circuits or an integrated set of electrical units as a "system"

As can be seen, "system" depends on one's perspective, and the "integrated set of elements that accomplish a defined objective" is an appropriate definition.

# Definition(s) of system

- A system is an assembly of parts where:
  - The parts or components are connected together in an organized way.
  - The parts or components are affected by being in the system (and are changed by leaving it).
  - The assembly does something.
  - The assembly has been identified by a person as being of special interest.
- Any arrangement which involves the handling, processing or manipulation of resources of whatever type can be represented as a system.
- Some definitions on online dictionaries
  - <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/System>
  - <http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/systems>
  - <http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/system.html>

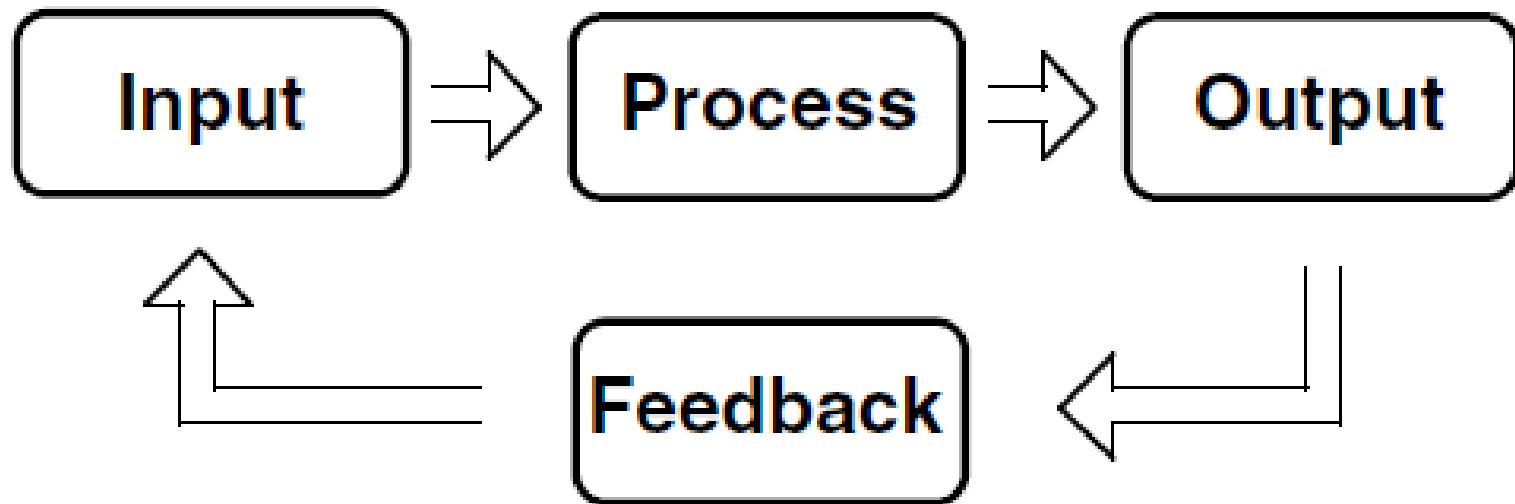
# Definition(s) of system

- A **system** is defined as multiple parts working together for a common purpose or goal.
- Systems can be large and complex
  - such as the air traffic control system or our global telecommunication network.
- Small devices can also be considered as systems
  - such as a pocket calculator, alarm clock, or 10-speed bicycle.

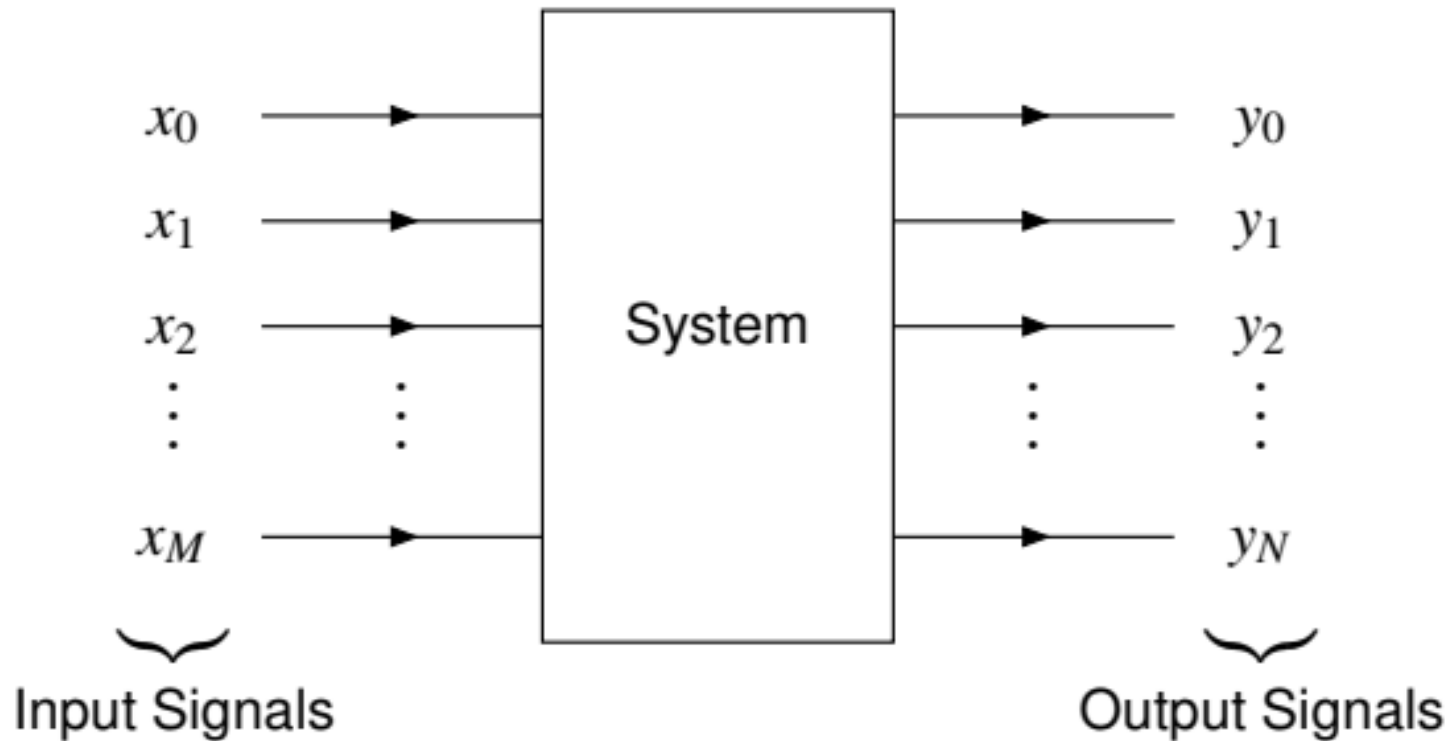
# Definition(s) of system

- Systems have **inputs**, **processes**, and **outputs**.
- When **feedback** (direct or indirect) is involved, that component is also important to the operation of the system.
- To explain all this, systems are usually explained using a **model**.
- A **model** helps to illustrate the major elements and their relationship, as illustrated in the next slide

# A systems model

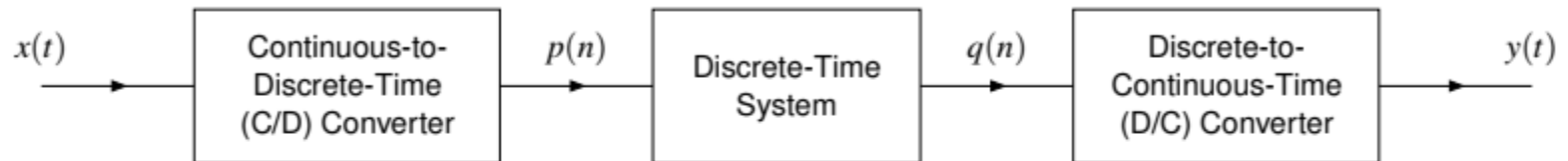


# A systems model

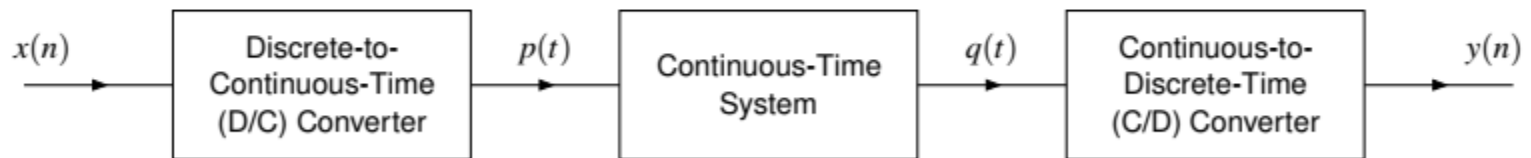




# Signal Processing System

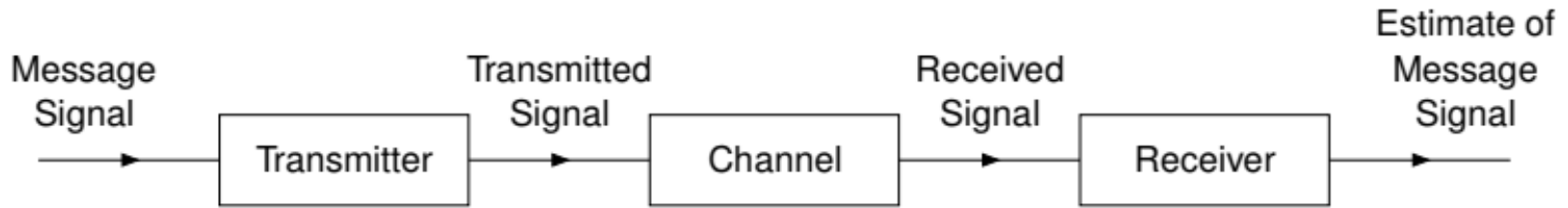


Processing a Continuous-Time Signal With a Discrete-Time System

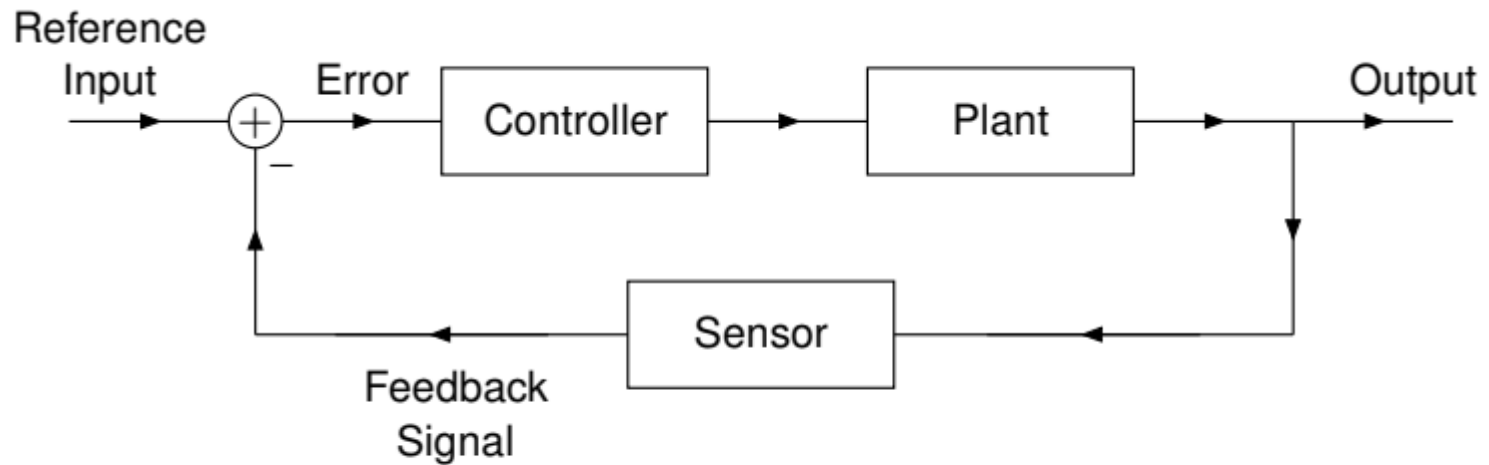


Processing a Discrete-Time Signal With a Continuous-Time System

# Communication & Control Systems



General Structure of a Communication System

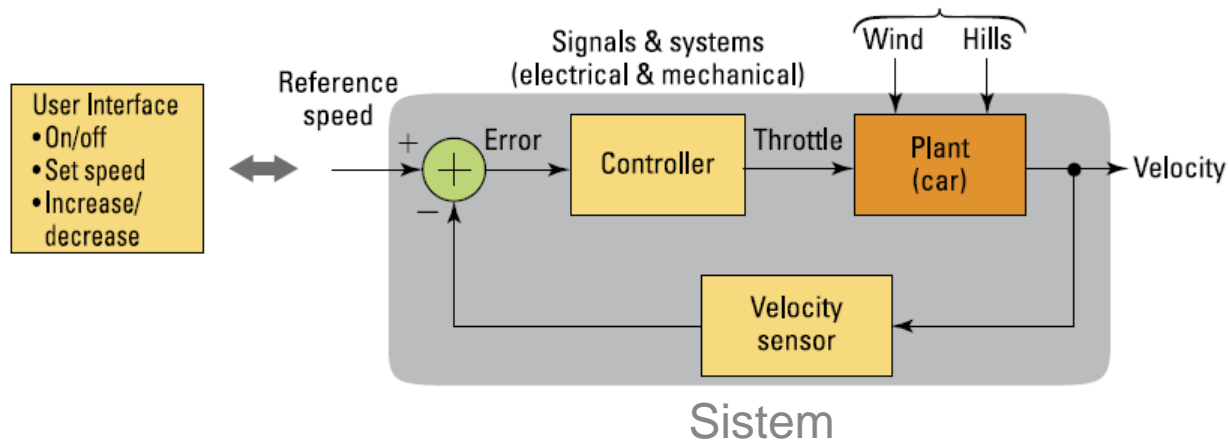


General Structure of a Feedback Control System

# Arabalardaki Hız Sabitleme Sistemi

Giriş işareti: Referans hız, rüzgar ve yokuş olma durumu

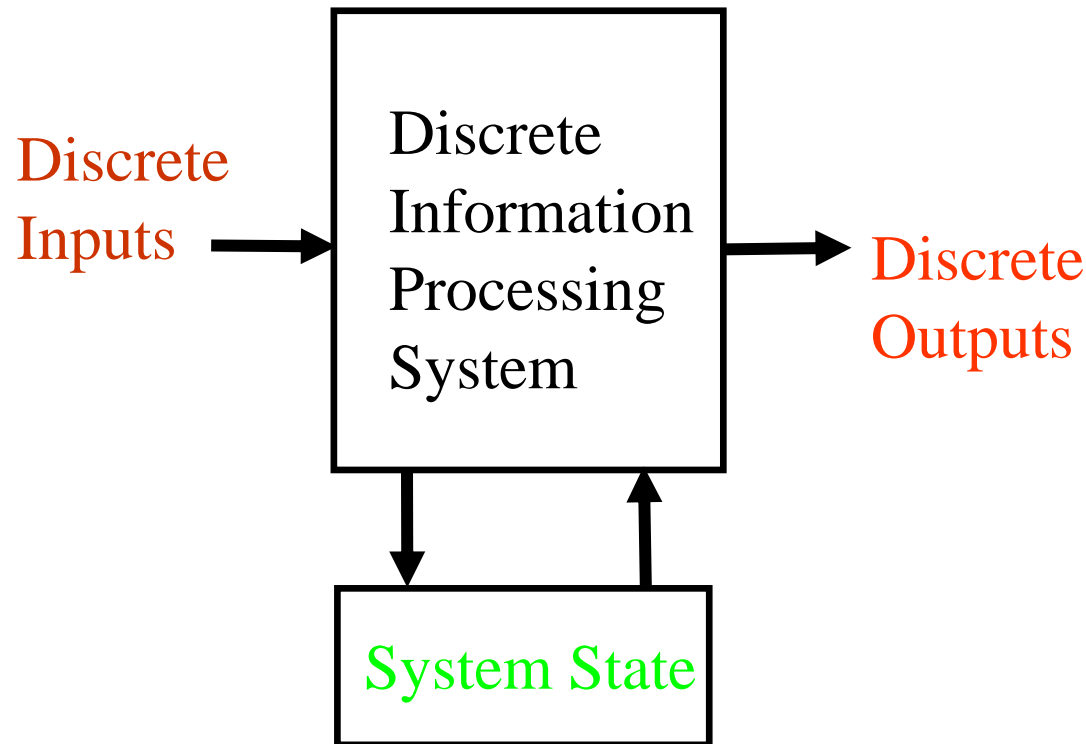
Çıkış işareti: Arabanın hızı



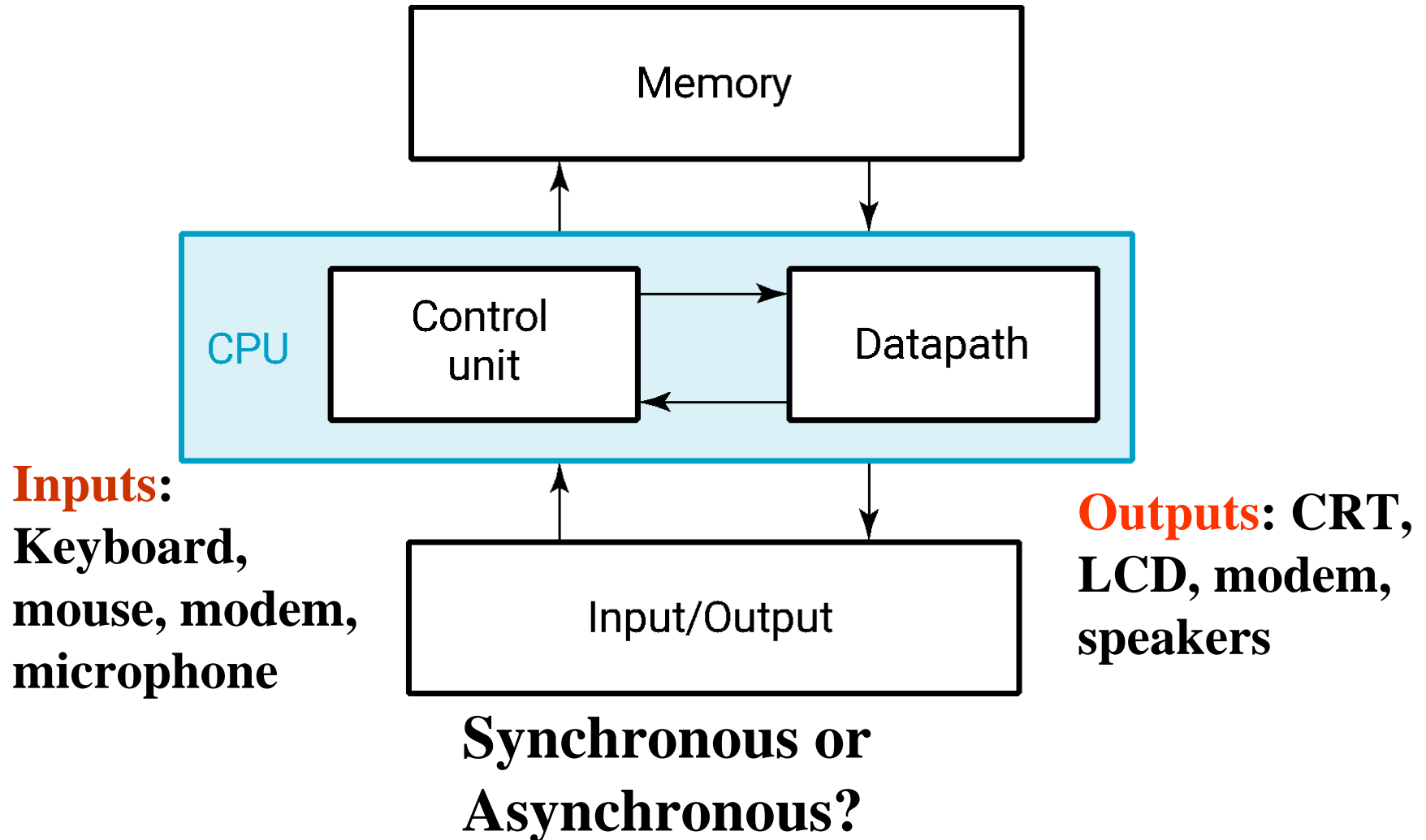
Ref: *Signals and Systems for Dummies*

# Digital System

- Takes a set of discrete information (inputs) and discrete internal information (system state) and generates a set of discrete information (outputs).



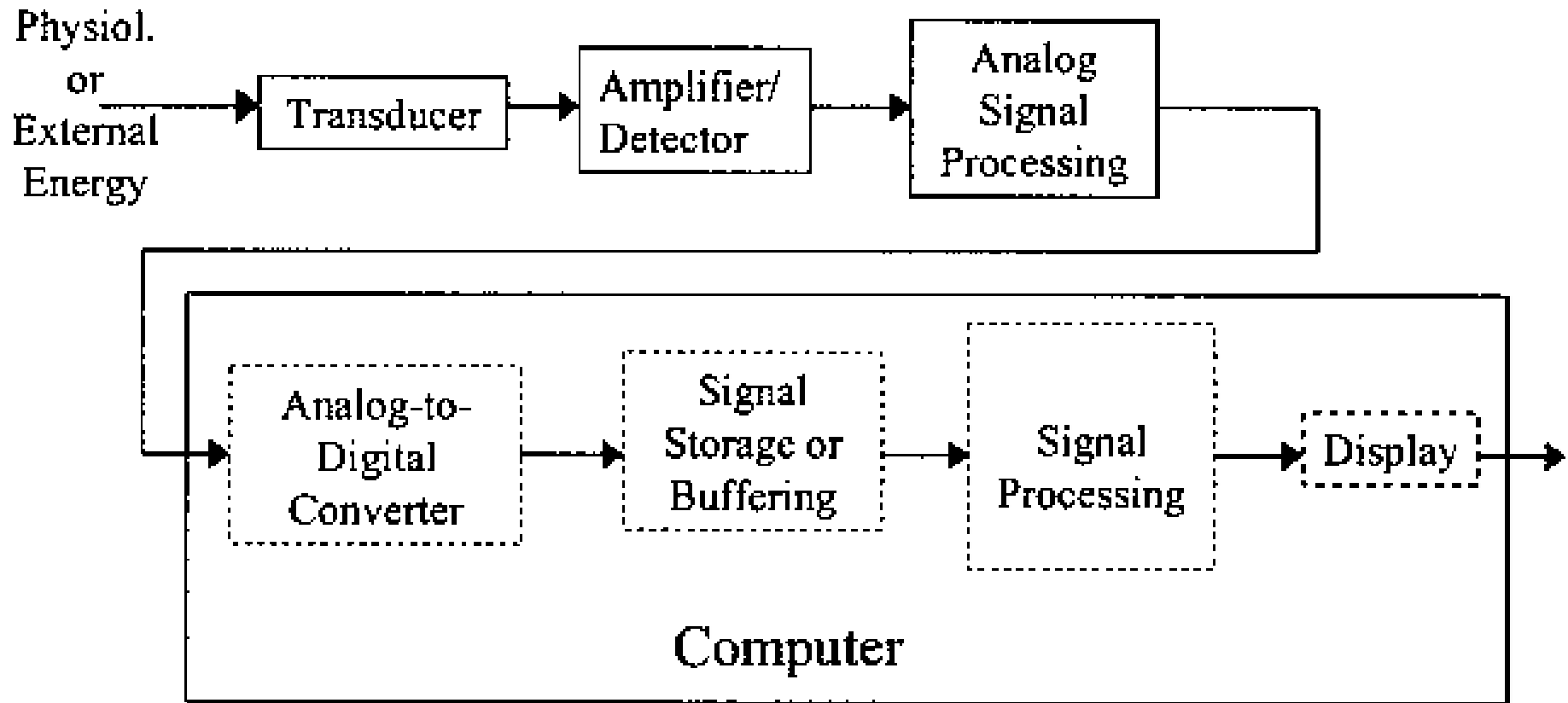
# A Digital Computer Example



# Signal

- **An information variable represented by physical quantity.**
- **For digital systems, the variable takes on discrete values.**
- **Two level, or binary values are the most prevalent values in digital systems.**
- **Binary values are represented abstractly by:**
  - **digits 0 and 1**
  - **words (symbols) False (F) and True (T)**
  - **words (symbols) Low (L) and High (H)**
  - **and words On and Off.**
- **Binary values are represented by values or ranges of values of physical quantities**

# A typical measurement system



# Transducers

- A “transducer” is a device that converts energy from one form to another.
- In signal processing applications, the purpose of energy conversion is to transfer information, not to transform energy.
- In physiological measurement systems, transducers may be
  - input transducers (or sensors)
    - they convert a non-electrical energy into an electrical signal.
    - for example, a microphone.
  - output transducers (or actuators)
    - they convert an electrical signal into a non-electrical energy.
    - For example, a speaker.



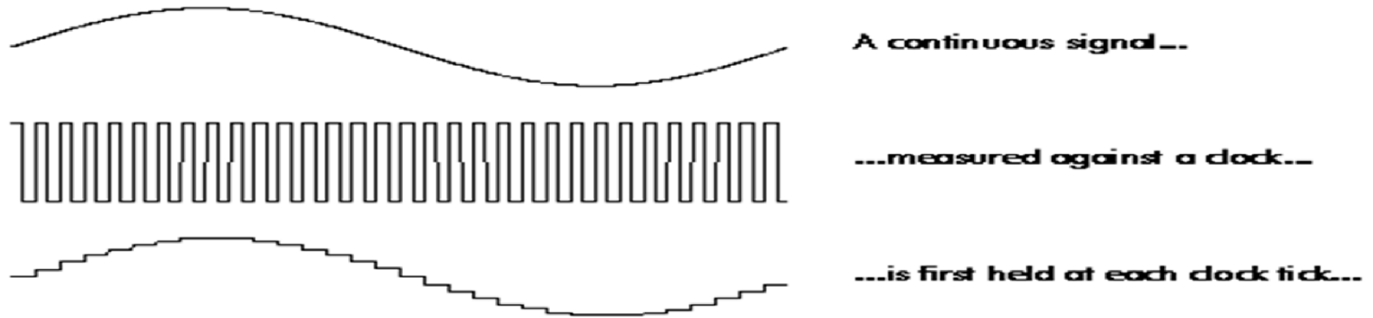
# Analogue signal

- The analogue signal
  - a continuous variable defined with infinite precision

is converted to a discrete sequence of measured values which are represented digitally
- Information is lost in converting from analogue to digital, due to:
  - inaccuracies in the measurement
  - uncertainty in timing
  - limits on the duration of the measurement
- These effects are called quantisation errors

# Digital signal

- The continuous analogue signal has to be held before it can be sampled



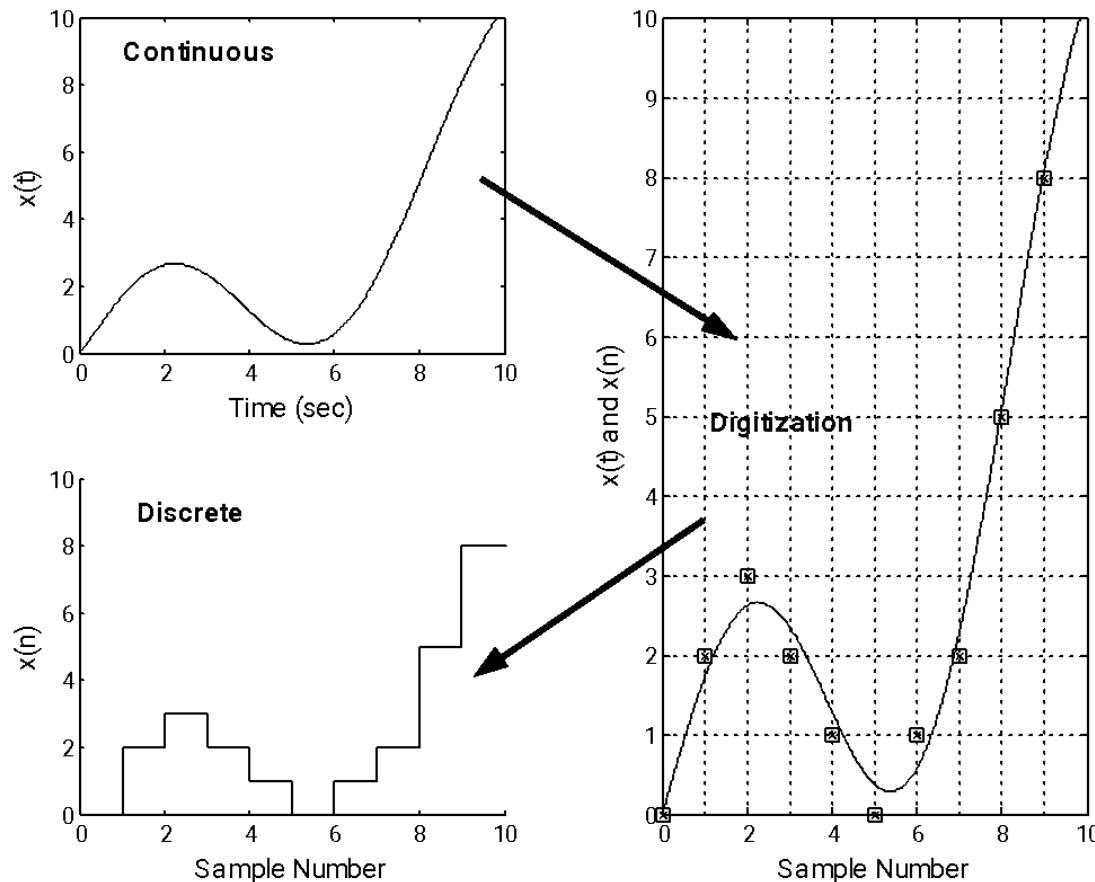
- Otherwise, the signal would be changing during the measurement
- Only after it has been held can the signal be measured, and the measurement converted to a digital value



# Signal Encoding: Analog-to Digital Conversion

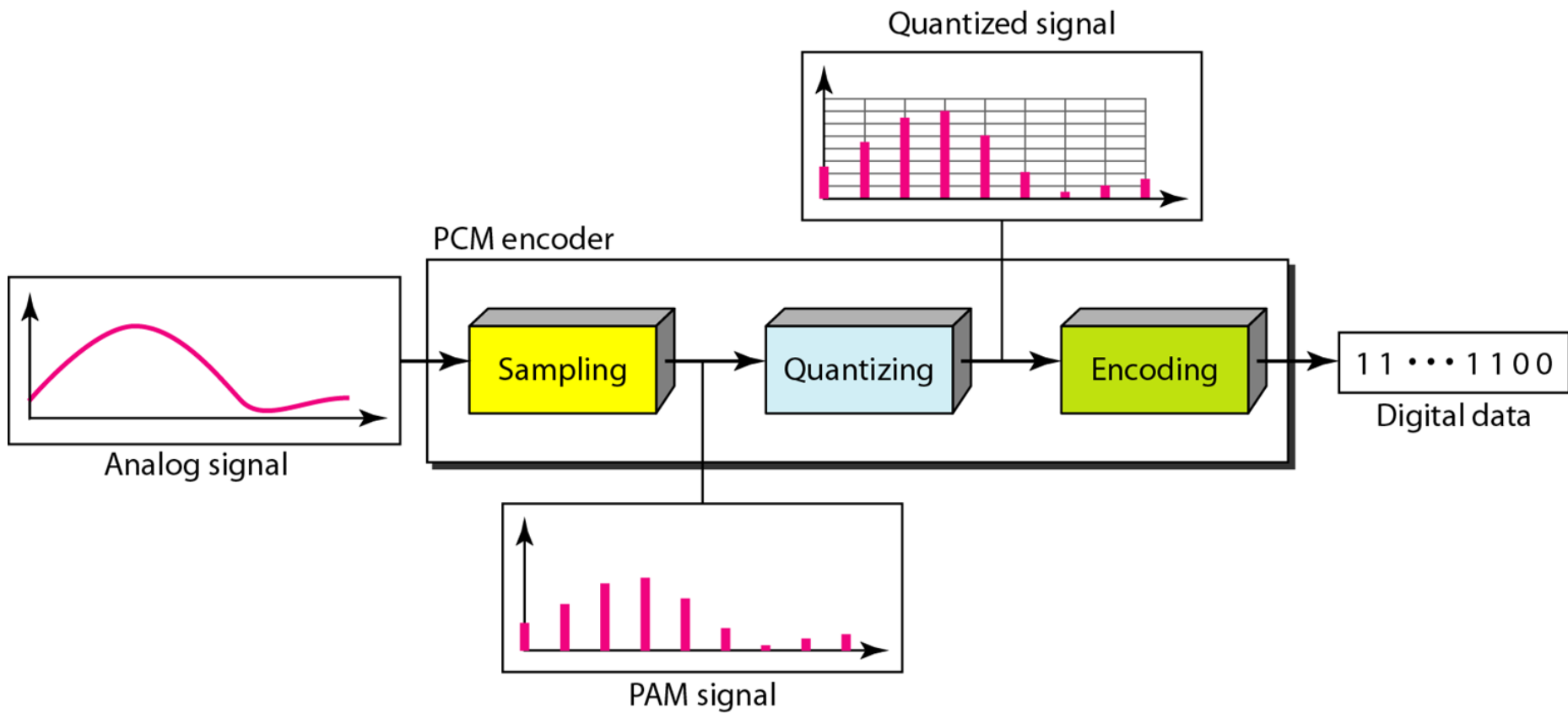
Continuous (analog) signal  $\longleftrightarrow$  Discrete signal

$x(t) = f(t) \longleftrightarrow$  Analog to digital conversion  $\longleftrightarrow x[n] = x[1], x[2], x[3], \dots x[n]$



# Analog-to Digital Conversion

- ADC consists of four steps to digitize an analog signal:
  1. Filtering
  2. Sampling
  3. Quantization
  4. Binary encoding
- Before we sample, we have to filter the signal to limit the maximum frequency of the signal as it affects the sampling rate.
- Filtering should ensure that we do not distort the signal, ie remove high frequency components that affect the signal shape.

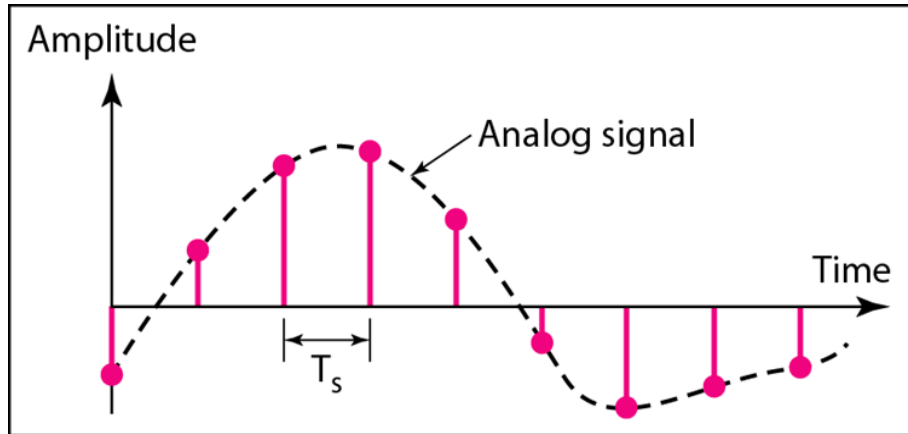


# Sampling

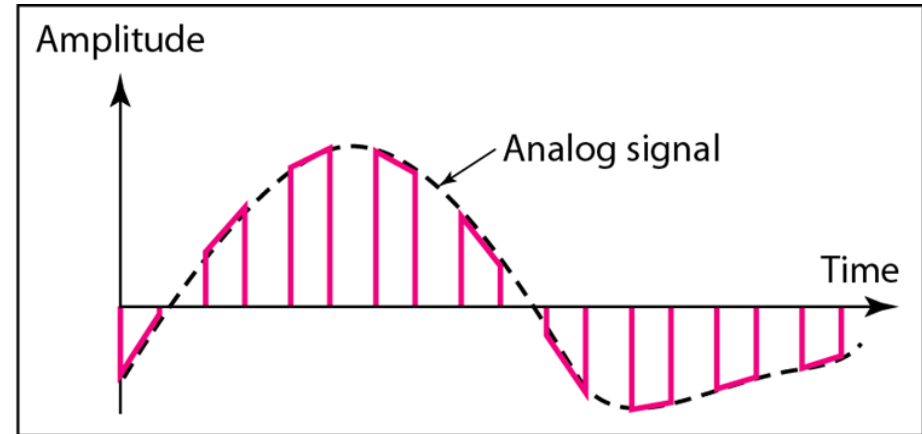
- The sampling results in a discrete set of digital numbers that represent measurements of the signal
  - usually taken at equal intervals of time
- Sampling takes place after the hold
  - The hold circuit must be fast enough that the signal is not changing during the time the circuit is acquiring the signal value
- We don't know what we don't measure
- In the process of measuring the signal, some information is lost

# Sampling

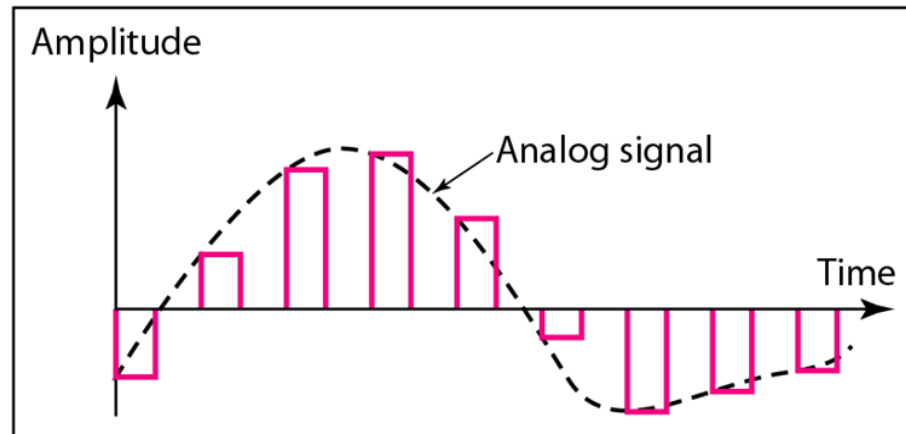
- Analog signal is sampled every  $T_s$  secs.
- $T_s$  is referred to as the sampling interval.
- $f_s = 1/T_s$  is called the sampling rate or sampling frequency.
- There are 3 sampling methods:
  - Ideal - an impulse at each sampling instant
  - Natural - a pulse of short width with varying amplitude
  - Flat top - sample and hold, like natural but with single amplitude value
- The process is referred to as pulse amplitude modulation PAM and the outcome is a signal with analog (non integer) values



a. Ideal sampling



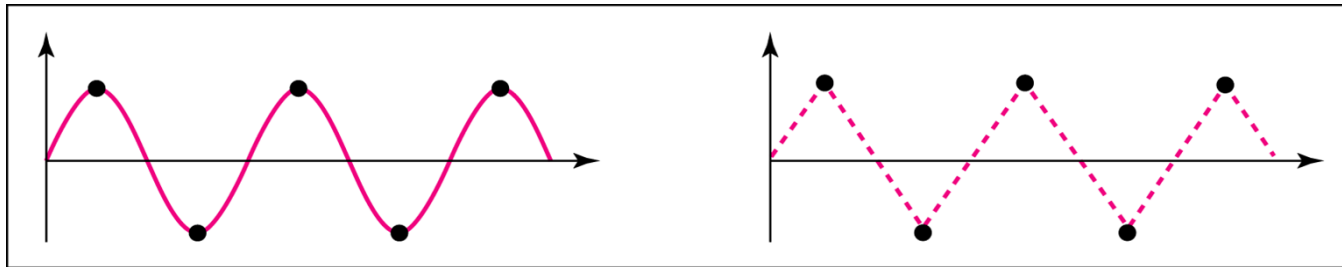
b. Natural sampling



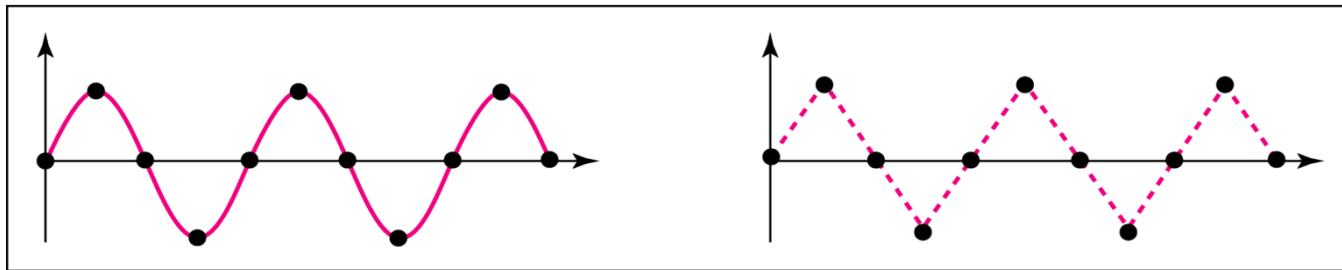
c. Flat-top sampling



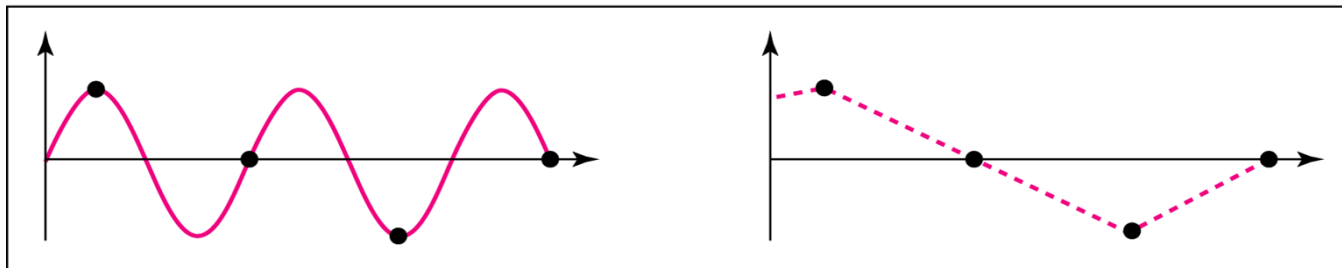
# Recovery of a sampled sine wave for different sampling rates



a. Nyquist rate sampling:  $f_s = 2 f$



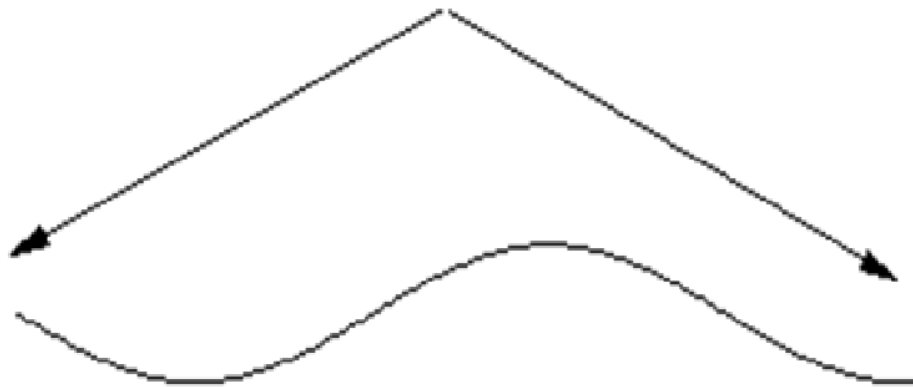
b. Oversampling:  $f_s = 4 f$



c. Undersampling:  $f_s = f$

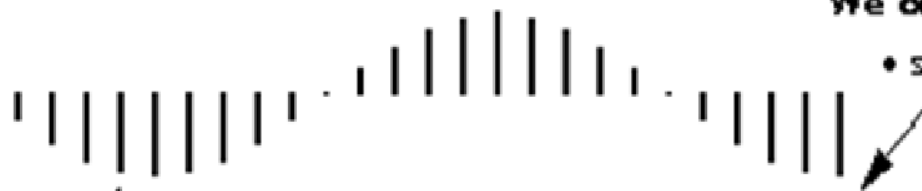
**We only measure for a certain length of time**

- so we miss slow changes



**We only measure to a certain accuracy**

- so we miss small changes

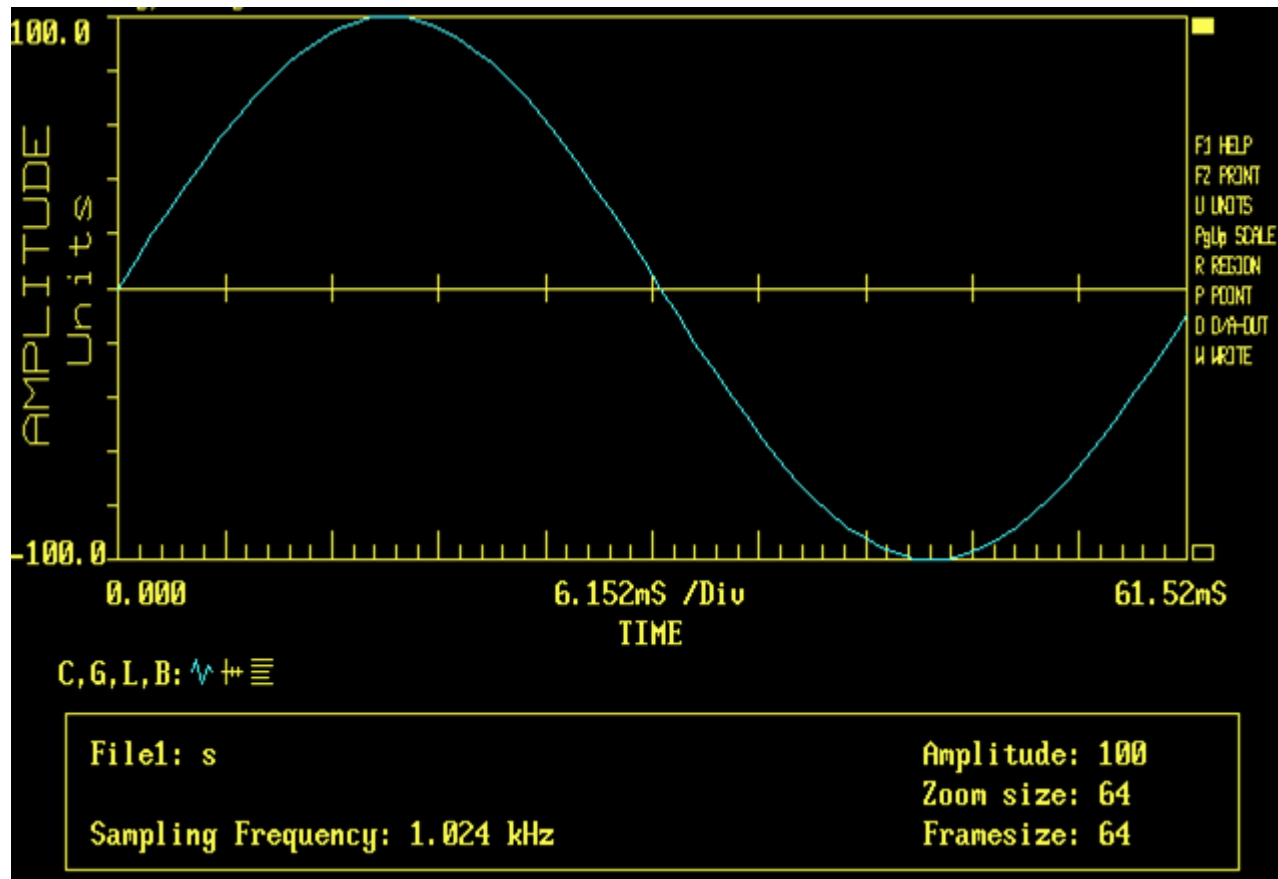


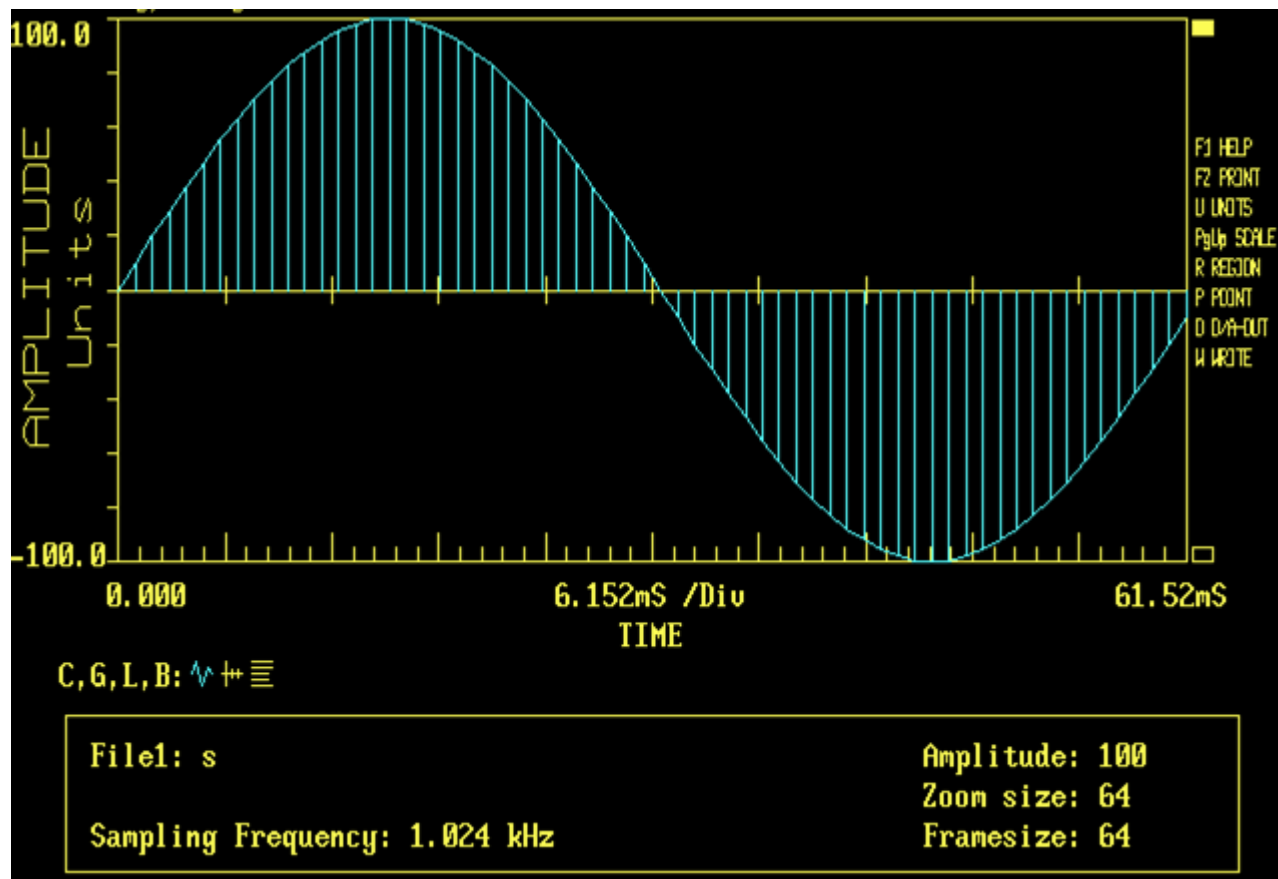
**We only measure the signal at intervals**

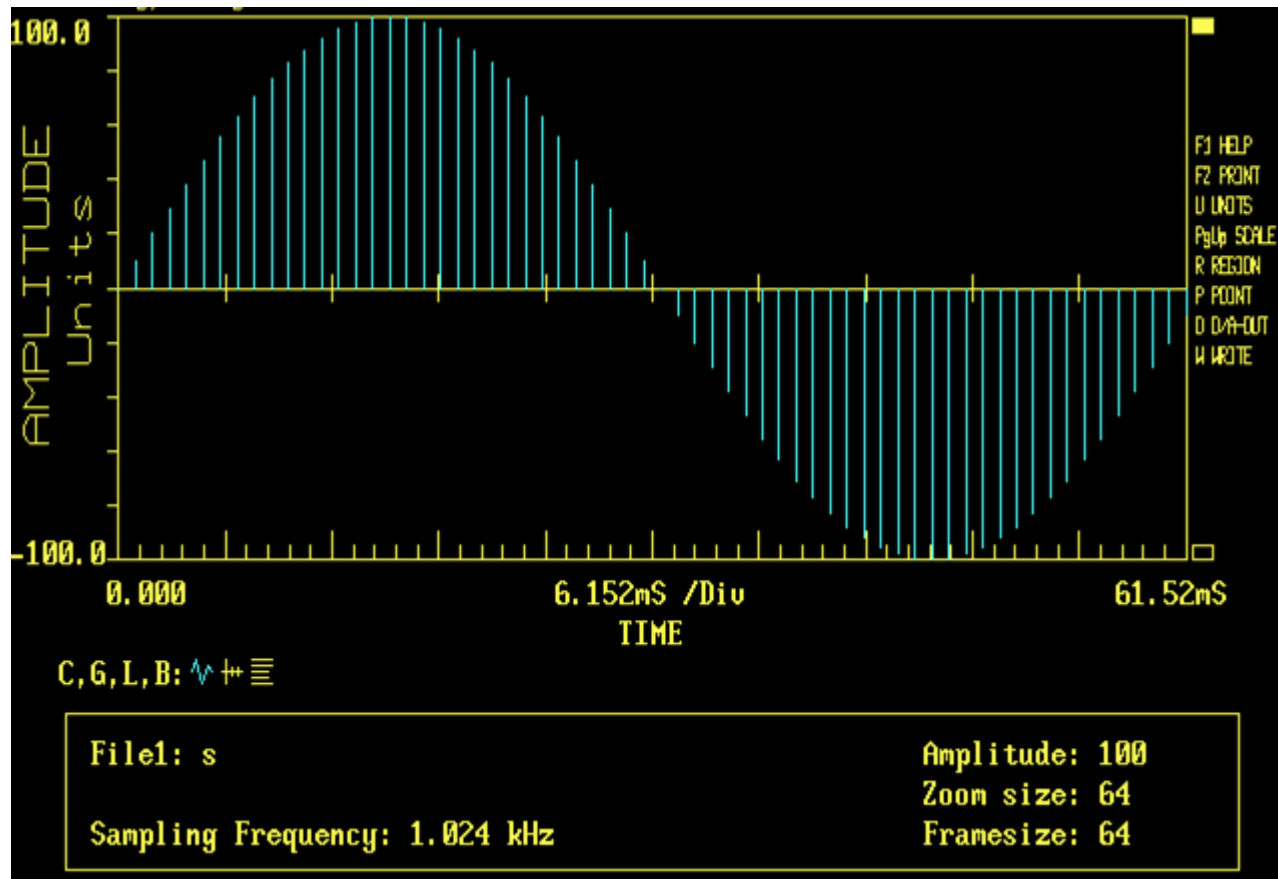
- so we miss fast changes

**There may be slight errors in the clock**

- so we have some timing uncertainty





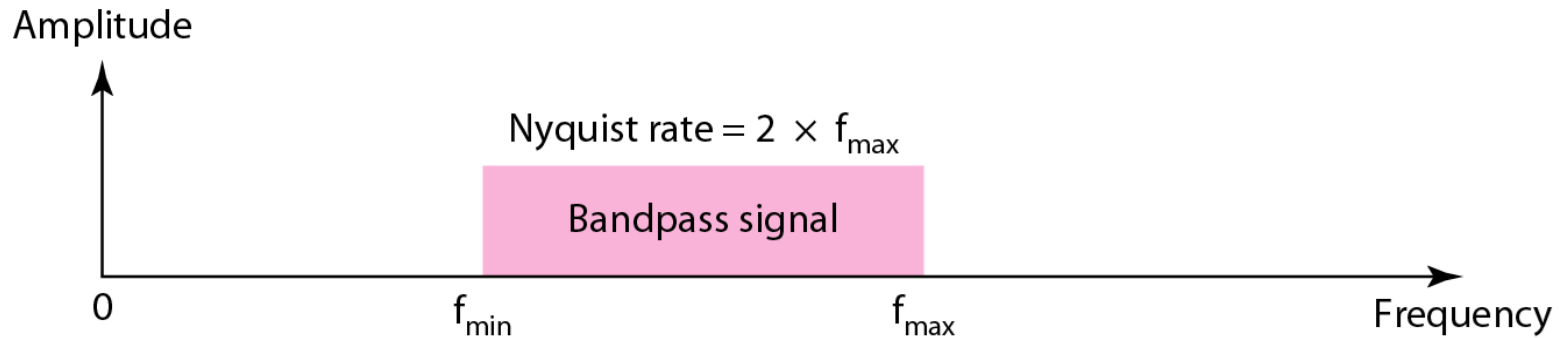
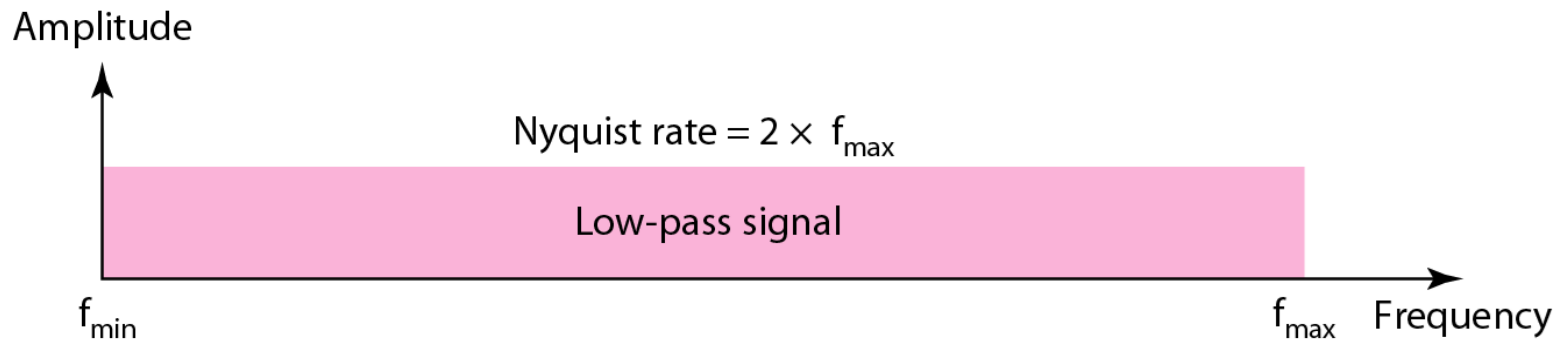


# Sampling Theorem

$$F_s \geq 2f_m$$

**According to the Nyquist theorem, the sampling rate must be at least 2 times the highest frequency contained in the signal.**

# Nyquist sampling rate for low-pass and bandpass signals



# Quantization

- Sampling results in a series of pulses of varying amplitude values ranging between two limits: a min and a max.
- The amplitude values are infinite between the two limits.
- We need to map the *infinite* amplitude values onto a finite set of known values.
- This is achieved by dividing the distance between min and max into **L zones**, each of **height  $\Delta$** .

$$\Delta = (\max - \min)/L$$



# Quantization Levels

- The midpoint of each zone is assigned a value from 0 to  $L-1$  (resulting in  $L$  values)
- Each sample falling in a zone is then approximated to the value of the midpoint.

# Quantization Zones

- Assume we have a voltage signal with amplitudes  $V_{\min} = -20\text{V}$  and  $V_{\max} = +20\text{V}$ .
- We want to use  $L=8$  quantization levels.
- Zone width  $\Delta = (20 - -20)/8 = 5$
- The 8 zones are: -20 to -15, -15 to -10, -10 to -5, -5 to 0, 0 to +5, +5 to +10, +10 to +15, +15 to +20
- The midpoints are: -17.5, -12.5, -7.5, -2.5, 2.5, 7.5, 12.5, 17.5

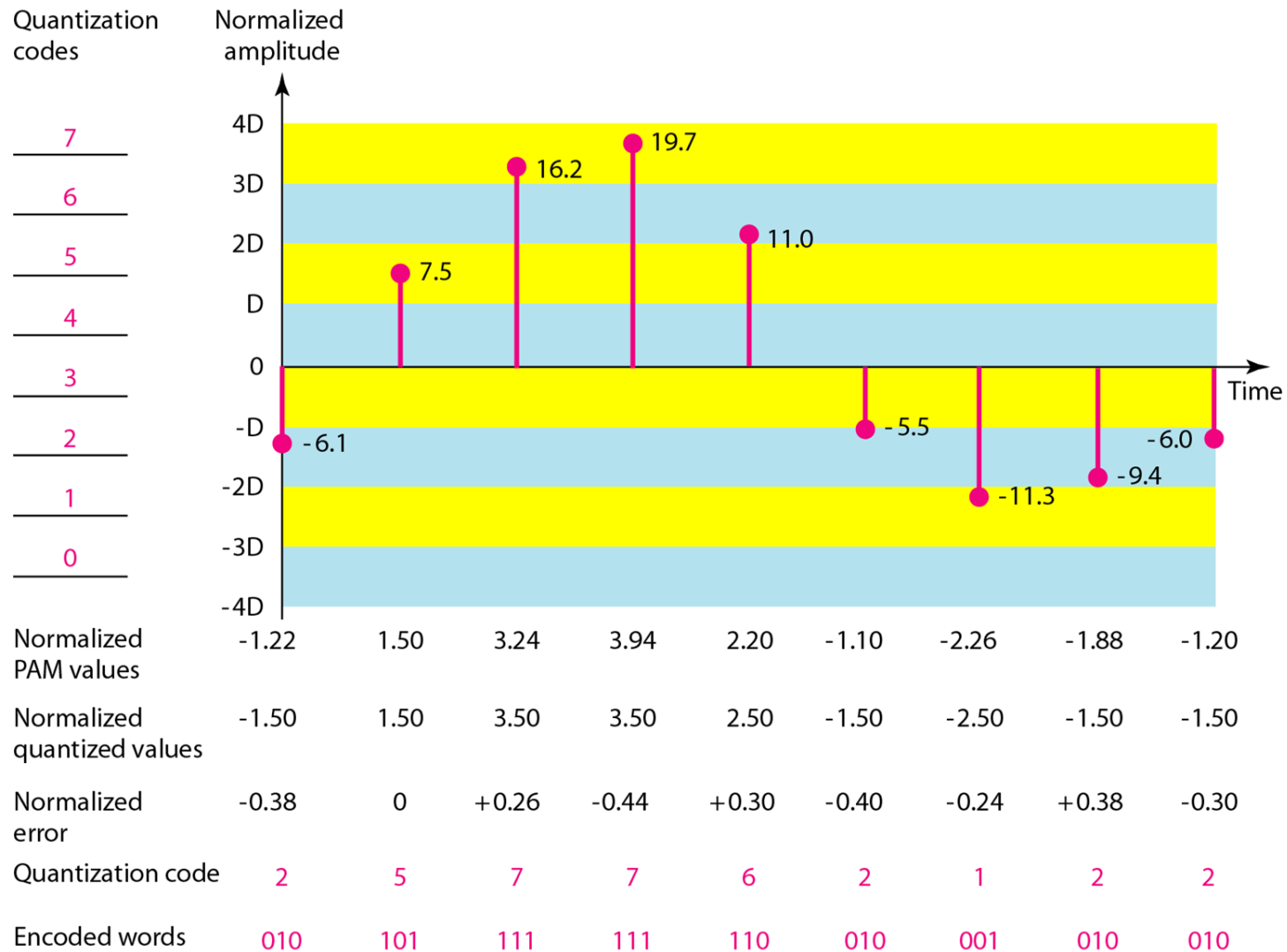
# Assigning Codes to Zones

- Each zone is then assigned a binary code.
- The number of bits required to encode the zones, or the number of bits per sample as it is commonly referred to, is obtained as follows:

$$n_b = \log_2 L$$

- Given our example,  $n_b = 3$
- The 8 zone (or level) codes are therefore: 000, 001, 010, 011, 100, 101, 110, and 111
- Assigning codes to zones:
  - 000 will refer to zone -20 to -15
  - 001 to zone -15 to -10, etc.

# Quantization and encoding of a sampled signal



# Quantization Error

- When a signal is quantized, we introduce an error
  - the coded signal is an approximation of the actual amplitude value.
- The difference between actual and coded value (midpoint) is referred to as the quantization error.
- The more zones, the smaller  $\Delta$ 
  - which results in smaller errors.
- BUT, the more zones the more bits required to encode the samples
  - higher bit rate

# Analog-to-digital Conversion

**Example** An 12-bit analog-to-digital converter (ADC) advertises an accuracy of  $\pm$  the least significant bit (LSB). If the input range of the ADC is 0 to 10 volts, what is the accuracy of the ADC in analog volts?

Solution:

If the input range is 10 volts then the analog voltage represented by the LSB would be:

$$V_{LSB} = \frac{V_{\max}}{2^{\text{N u b i t s}}} = \frac{10}{2^{12}} = \frac{10}{4096} = .0024 \text{ volts}$$

Hence the accuracy would be  $\pm 0.0024$  volts.

# Steps for digitization/reconstruction of a signal

- Band limiting (LPF)
- Sampling / Holding
- Quantization
- Coding

*These are basic steps for  
A/D conversion*

- D/A converter
- Sampling / Holding
- Image rejection

*These are basic steps for  
reconstructing a  
sampled digital signal*

# Digital data: end product of A/D conversion and related concepts

- Bit: least digital information, binary 1 or 0
- Nibble: 4 bits
- Byte: 8 bits, 2 nibbles
- Word: 16 bits, 2 bytes, 4 nibbles
- Some jargon:
  - integer, signed integer, long integer, 2s complement, hexadecimal, octal, floating point, etc.





# Example

- Hertz = clock cycles per second (frequency)
  - 1MHz = 1,000,000Hz
  - Processor speeds are measured in MHz or GHz.
- Byte = a unit of storage
  - 1KB =  $2^{10}$  = 1024 Bytes
  - 1MB =  $2^{20}$  = 1,048,576 Bytes
  - Main memory (RAM) is measured in MB
  - Disk storage is measured in GB for small systems, TB for large systems.

# Number of Bits Required

- Given  $M$  elements to be represented by a binary code, the minimum number of bits,  $n$ , needed, satisfies the following relationships:

$$2^n \geq M > 2^{(n-1)}$$
$$n = \lceil \log_2 M \rceil \text{ where } \lceil x \rceil, \text{ called the } \textit{ceiling function}, \text{ is the integer greater than or equal to } x.$$

- Example: How many bits are required to represent decimal digits with a binary code?
  - 4 bits are required ( $n = \lceil \log_2 9 \rceil = 4$ )

# Number of Elements Represented

- Given  $n$  digits in radix  $r$ , there are  $r^n$  distinct elements that can be represented.
- But, you can represent  $m$  elements,  $m < r^n$
- Examples:
  - You can represent 4 elements in radix  $r = 2$  with  $n = 2$  digits: (00, 01, 10, 11).
  - You can represent 4 elements in radix  $r = 2$  with  $n = 4$  digits: (0001, 0010, 0100, 1000).