





Signals

- ► Signal = a measurable quantity which varies in time, space or some other variable
- Examples:
 - ▶ a voltage which varies in time (1D voltage signal)
 - sound pressure which varies in time (sound signal)
 - intensity of light which varies across a photo (2D image)
- Represented as a mathematical function, e.g. v(t).

Off Topic

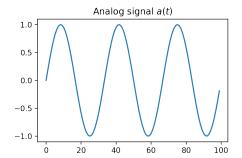
- ► Glossary:
 - "e.g." = "exampli gratia" (lat.) = "for example" (eng.) = "de exemplu" (rom.)
 - "i.e." = "id est" (lat) = "that is" (eng.) = "adică" (rom.)

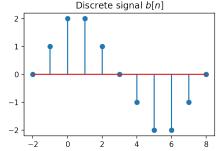
Signal dimension

- ▶ Unidimensional (1D) signal = a function of a single variable
 - **Example:** a voltage signal v(t) only varies in time.
- ► Multidimensional (2D, 3D ... M-D) signal = a function of a multiple variables
 - Example: intensity of a grayscale image I(x, y) across the surface of a photo
- ▶ In these lectures we consider only 1D signals, but the theory is similar

Continuous and discrete signals

- Continuous (analog) signal = function of a continuous variable
 - ▶ Signal has a value for possible value of the variable in the defined range
 - ▶ The variable may be defined only in a certain range (e.g. $t \in [0, 100]$), but it is a compact range
- ▶ Discrete signal = function of a discrete variable
 - Signal has values only at certain discrete values (samples)
 - Indexed with natural numbers: x[-1], x[0], x[1] etc.
 - Outside the samples, the signal is not defined





Notation

- We use the following notation throughout these lectures
- ► Continuous signal
 - ► Has **round parantheses**, e.g. $x_a(t)$
 - Sometimes has the a subscript
 - ► The variable is usually t (time)
 - \triangleright x(2.3) = the value of the signal a(t) at t = 2.3
- Discrete signal
 - ► Has **square brackets**, e.g. x[n]
 - ightharpoonup The variables are denoted as n or k (suggest natural numbers)
 - \triangleright x[3] =the value of the signal x[n] for n = 3
 - \triangleright x[1.5] = does not exist

Signals with continuous and discrete values

- ▶ The signal values can be continuous or discrete
 - Example: signal values stored as 8-bit or 16-bit values
- On digital systems, signals always have discrete values due to finite number precision

Discrete frequency

- A signal is **periodic** if the values repeat themselves after a certain time (**period**)
- Frequency = inverse of period
- ▶ Pulsation $\omega = 2 * \pi * frequency$
- Continuous signals:
 - Periodic: $x_a(t) = x(t+T)$
 - T is usually measured in seconds (or some other unit)
 - $F = \frac{1}{T}$ is measured in Hz $= \frac{1}{s}$ (Hertz)
- Discrete signals:
 - Periodic: x[n] = x[n + N]
 - N has no unit, because it is just a number
 - $f = \frac{1}{N}$ has no unit also

Domain of existence of frequency

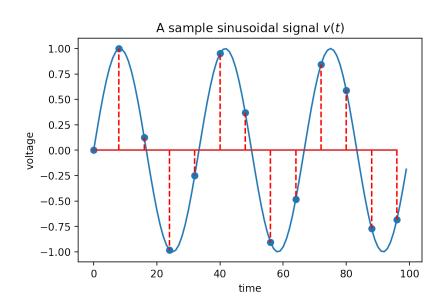
- Continuous signals
 - ▶ Period T can be as small as possible $T \rightarrow 0$
 - ▶ Therefore F could go up to ∞
- Discrete signals
 - ▶ Smallest period is N = 2 (excluding N = 1, constant signals)
 - ► Largest possible frequency is $f_{max} = \frac{1}{2}$
 - Consequence of using natural numbers to index the samples (x[0], x[1], x[2]...), without any physical unit attached
- ► For mathematical reasons: we will consider negative frequencies as well (remember SCS)
 - they mirror the positive frequencies.

I.2. Sampling

Sampling

- ► Taking the values from an analog signal at certain discrete moments of time, usually periodic
- ightharpoonup Distance between two samples = sampling period T_s
- ▶ Sampling frequency $F_s = \frac{1}{T_s}$
- ► Why sampling?
 - ► Converts continuous signals to discrete
 - Processing of continuous signals is expensive
 - Processing of discrete signals is cheap (digital devices)
 - Sometimes nothing is lost due to sampling

Graphical example



Sampling equation

▶ Sampling of the continuous signal x_a :

$$x[n] = x_a(n \cdot T_s)$$

The *n*-th value of the discrete signal x[n] is the value of the analog signal $x_a(t)$ taken after *n* sampling periods, at $t = n \cdot T_s$

Sampling of harmonic signals

Let's sample a cosine: $x_a(t) = cos(2\pi Ft)$

$$x[n] = x_a(nT_s)$$

$$= cos(2\pi F nT_s)$$

$$= cos(2\pi F n \frac{1}{F_s})$$

$$= cos(2\pi \frac{F}{F_s} n)$$

- Sampling a continuous cosine (or sine) produces a discrete cosine (or sine)
- ► The discrete frequency is $f = \frac{F}{F_s}$

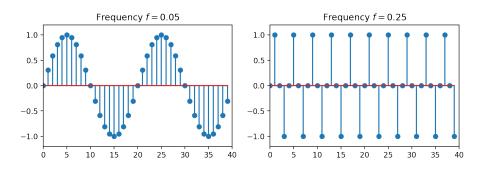
Discrete frequency is relative

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

- Discrete frequency should be understood as relative to the sampling frequency
 - $f = \frac{1}{4}$ means "coming from an analog frequency F which was $\frac{1}{4}$ of the sampling frequency"
 - ightharpoonup f = 0.1 means "one tenth of the sampling frequency", and so on

False friends

Note: A discrete sinusoidal signal might not *look* sinosoidal, when its frequency is high (close to $\frac{1}{2}$).



Sampling theorem (Nyquist-Shannon)

If a signal that has maximum frequency F_{max} is sampled with a a sampling frequency

$$F_s \geq 2F_{max}$$
,

then it can be perfectly reconstructed from its samples using the formula:

$$x_a(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} x[n] \cdot \frac{\sin(\pi(F_s t - n))}{\pi(F_s t - n)}.$$

Comments on the sampling theorem

- ▶ All the information in the original signal is contained in the samples, provided the sampling frequency is high enough
- ▶ We can process discrete samples instead of the original analog signals
- ▶ Sampling with $F_s \ge 2F_{max}$ makes the discrete frequency smaller than 1/2

$$f = \frac{F}{F_s} \le \frac{F_{max}}{F_s} \le \frac{1}{2}$$

- http://www.dictionary.com/browse/alias:
 - "alias": a false name used to conceal one's identity; an assumed name
- What happens when the sampling frequency is not high enough?
- Every discrete frequency f outside the interval $f \notin [-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}]$ is **identical** (an "alias") with a frequency from this interval $f_{alias} \in [-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}]$
- Proof: at blackboard
 - Consider $x[n] = cos(2\pi fn), f \notin [-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}]$
 - We can always add/subtract $2\pi n$ since cos() is periodical, with no change
 - ► This means increasing/reducing f by 1
 - Thus we can always end up a frequency $f_{alias} \in [-1/2, 1/2]$ (up to a sign change)

► Frequency **folding**: if f exceeds the limit $\frac{1}{2}$ with ϵ , it aliases a frequency below $\frac{1}{2}$ with ϵ , symmetrically

$$\cos(2\pi(\frac{1}{2}+\epsilon)n)=\cos(2\pi(\frac{1}{2}-\epsilon)n)$$

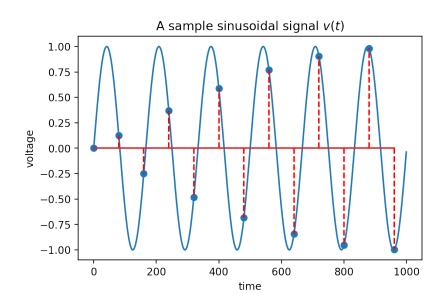
$$\sin(2\pi(\frac{1}{2}+\epsilon)n) = -\sin(2\pi(\frac{1}{2}-\epsilon)n)$$

Equivalently:

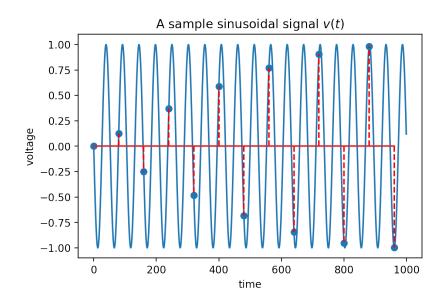
- ▶ If an analog frequency F exceeds the limit $\frac{F_s}{2}$ with some ϵ , it produces the same samples (alias) as another analog frequency smaller than $\frac{F_s}{2}$ with ϵ , symmetrically
- Example: F = 1000Hz sampled with $F_s = 1600Hz$ aliases $F_{alias} = 600Hz$.

- Aliasing only affects digital signals, caused by sampling
- ▶ Sampling with $F_s \ge 2F_{max}$ ensures $f \le \frac{1}{2}$, so no aliasing

Aliasing example - low frequency signal



Aliasing example - high frequency signal, same samples



The problem of aliasing

- Sampling different signals leads to exactly same samples
- How to know from what signal did the samples come from? Impossible.
- ▶ Better remove from the signal the frequencies larger than $\frac{F_s}{2}$, otherwise they will create a false frequency and bring confusion
- Anti-alias filter: a low-pass filter situated before a sampling circuit, rejecting all frequencies $F > \frac{F_s}{2}$ from the signal before sampling
 - Standard practice in the design of processing systems

Signal reconstruction from samples

▶ A discrete frequency $f \in \left[-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right]$ will be reconstructed as follows:

$$x_r(t) = x[\frac{t}{T_s}] = x[t \cdot F_s]$$

- lackbox For a discrete frequency outside the $\left[-\frac{1}{2},\frac{1}{2}\right]$ interval
 - ▶ Reconstruction of the original frequency is impossible
 - ► The frequency is replaced with the aliased frequency f' from the interval $\left[-\frac{1}{2},\frac{1}{2}\right]$
- lacktriangle Reconstruction always produces signals with frequencies in $\left[-rac{Fs}{2},rac{Fs}{2}
 ight]$
- Only signals sampled according to the sampling theorem will be reconstructed identically

Signal quantization and coding

- ▶ In practice, the values of the samples are rounded to fixed levels, e.g. 8-bit, 16-bit values.
- ► This "rounding" is known as quantization
- The "rounding error" is known as quantization error
- Converting the value in binary form is known as coding

A/D and D/A conversion

- ► Sampling + quantization + coding is usually done by an **Analog to Digital Converter (ADC)**
 - ► It takes an analog signal and produces a sequence of binary-coded values
- Reconstructing an analog signal from numeric samples is done by a Digital to Analog Converter (DAC)
 - Usually reconstruction is not based on sampling theorem equation, which is too complex, but with simpler empiric approaches.