

# Ve 216: Introduction to Signals and Systems

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Based on Lecture Notes by Prof. Jeffrey A. Fessler

# Outline



## 7. Sampling

- Introduction
- FT of impulse-train sampled signals (7.1)
- Sampling Theorem
- Aliasing (7.3)
- Reconstruction via interpolation (7.2)
- Realistic non-impulse sampling (7.1.2)
- Discrete-time Fourier transform (DTFT) (5.1)
- Summary

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# Applications of the FT

- In chapter 4 we covered all of the **fundamental mathematical properties** of the FT which are used in EE.
- These properties are not just “interesting math;” they are the **theoretical foundation** of how just about everything involving signals work, from AM radios to digital TVs to PC sound cards etc.
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- Now (at last!) we can begin to use the **FT tools** to understand the basic principles behind some of these **applications**.

# Overview

- **Filtering** (used universally)  
convolution property
- **Sampling** (A/D converters in sound cards)  
FT of sampled signals
- **Modulation** (AM radio, digital comm (modems))  
modulation property
- ...

# Sampling theorem

**skip** : 7.4, 7.5

- In fact, whereas the preceding mathematics is circa 1800 due to Fourier.
- The Nyquist-Shannon sampling theorem was a breakthrough in the 20th century, discovered by Nyquist and Shannon (a UM alumnus who is the father of information theory!). They proved that a signal can be perfectly reconstructed from sampling if the signal's highest frequency is half (or less) of the sampling rate.



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# Compressive sensing

The **compressive sensing theorem** (also known as compressed sensing, compressive sampling, or sparse sampling) was proposed around 2004 by Candes, Tao and Donoho.

They proved that given knowledge about a signal's sparsity (*Picture*), the signal may be reconstructed with even fewer samples than the Nyquist-Shannon theorem requires.

# Compressive sensing

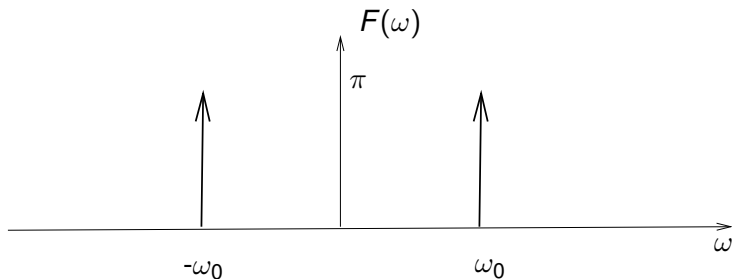
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# Sparsity

$\cos(\omega_0 t)$  is sparse in the frequency domain.

$$\cos(\omega_0 t) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} \pi\delta(\omega - \omega_0) + \pi\delta(\omega + \omega_0)$$



# "single-pixel camera"

## TED 2013- The Single Pixel Camera

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=y-jIzuHBJTo>

- The new digital image/video camera directly acquires random projections of a scene without first collecting the pixels/voxels.
- The camera architecture employs a digital micromirror array to optically calculate linear projections of the scene onto pseudorandom binary patterns.
- Its key hallmark is its ability to obtain an image or video with a single detection element (the "single pixel") while measuring the scene fewer times than the number of pixels/voxels.

# Review of utility of unit impulse functions (1)

The simplification provided by the Dirac delta function has helped us in analyzing **LTI systems** like filters. It will also help us analyze **sampling**, even though again it is an idealization of real sampling circuits.

## Property

- **Sifting property** holds when  $x(t)$  is continuous at  $t_0$ :

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) \delta(t - t_0) dt = x(t_0).$$

- **sampling property** holds when  $x(t)$  is continuous at  $t_0$ :

$$x(t) \delta(t - t_0) = x(t_0) \delta(t - t_0).$$

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# Review of utility of unit impulse functions (2)

## Property

- ① *unit area property*  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t - t_0) dt = 1$  for any  $t_0$
- ② *scaling property*  $\delta(at + b) = \frac{1}{|a|} \delta(t + b/a)$  for  $a \neq 0$ .
- ③ *symmetry property*  $\delta(t) = \delta(-t)$
- ④ *support property*  $\delta(t - t_0) = 0$  for  $t \neq t_0$
- ⑤ *relationships with unit step function*:  $\delta(t) = \frac{d}{dt} u(t)$ ,  
 $u(t) = \int_{-\infty}^t \delta(\tau) d\tau$

# Review of utility of unit impulse functions (3)

## Property

- 1  $x(t) * \delta(t) = x(t)$
- 2  $x(t) * \delta(t - t_0) = x(t - t_0)$  **delay property!**
- 3  $\delta(t - t_0) * \delta(t - t_1) = \delta(t - t_0 - t_1)$
- 4  $\delta(t) \rightarrow \boxed{LTI} \rightarrow h(t)$
- 5 If  $y(t) = x(t) * h(t)$ , then  $x(t - t_0) * h(t - t_1) = y(t - t_0 - t_1)$ .

# Overview of DSP



The above configuration is frequently used, but not the only option.

- Often the output of the DSP is “information” rather than a signal, such as in a speech recognition system, or a radar target tracking system.
- Often (discrete-time) signals are generated digitally (like in MATLAB assignments), and then the sound or image command converts the digital representation into a continuous-time signal (audio or video) using the computers peripherals (sound card or video monitor).

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# Why DSP?

Question

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### *Why DSP?*

- *DSP is everywhere* due in large part to the dramatic development of digital technology over the past few decades. It hardly needs a motivating introduction these days: modems, cell phones, computer sound cards, digital video.
- It is *inexpensive*, *lightweight*, *programmable* and *easily reproducible*.

# Sampling Analog Signals

- A computer cannot store every value of a **continuous-time signal**  $x(t)$ .
- At most a computer can store **a finite array** of values, such as the values of the signal  $x(t)$  at a finite collection of time instants.
- A **sampler** converts a CT signal into a **discrete-time signal**.



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# Periodic sampling

## Definition

Ideal **periodic sampling** or **uniform sampling** is defined by

$$x[n] = x(nT_s), \quad n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$$

- $T_s$  is the **sampling period** or **sampling interval**.
- $\omega_s/2\pi = 1/T_s$  is called the **sampling rate** or the **sampling frequency**, e.g. 44.1kHz for audio CD

Note that  $x[n]$  is not a CT signal!

# Periodic sampling

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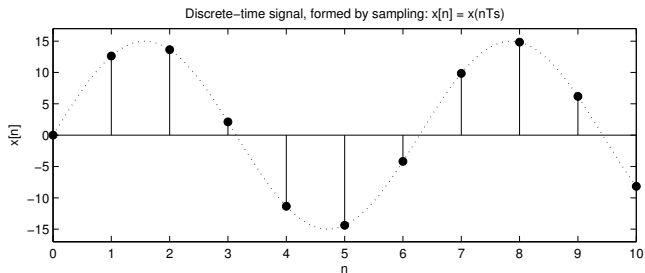
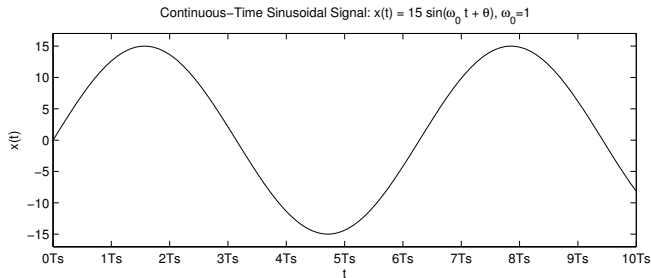
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# CT signal and sampled values



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# Impulse functions

Since we are dealing with CT signals in this class, it is convenient to create a CT signal from the samples, rather than just using  $x[n]$ .

## Question

*How to represent sampling in the time domain?*

We will do this with **impulse functions**.

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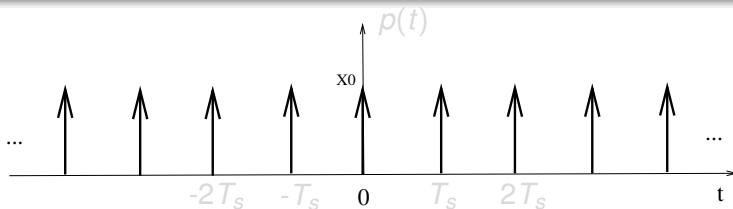
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# Ideal sampling function

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The impulse train is sometimes called the **Dirac comb** signal or **ideal sampling function**:

$$p(t) \triangleq \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t - nT_s)$$

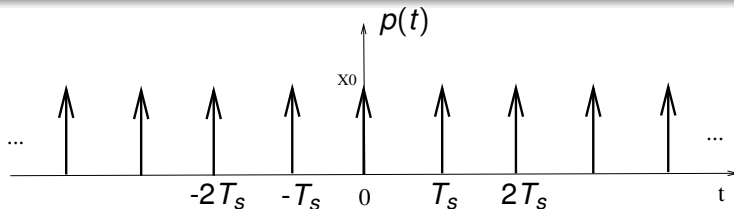


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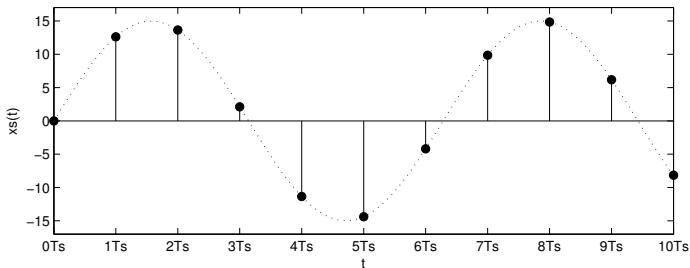


# Impulse-train sampling

Suppose we have a CT signal  $x(t)$  and we imagine multiplying it by  $p(t)$ , to form a new “sampled” signal

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

Note that  $x_s(t)$  depends **only** on the original values of  $x(t)$  at times  $nT_s$ . (This is why we call the above property the **sampling property** of the impulse function.)

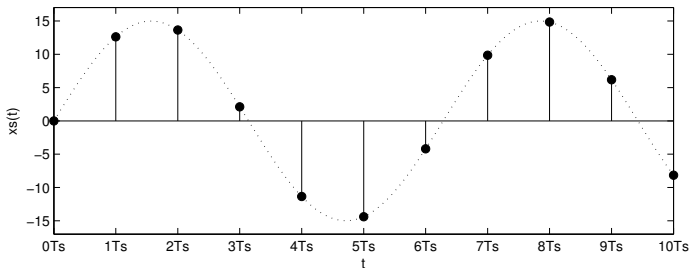


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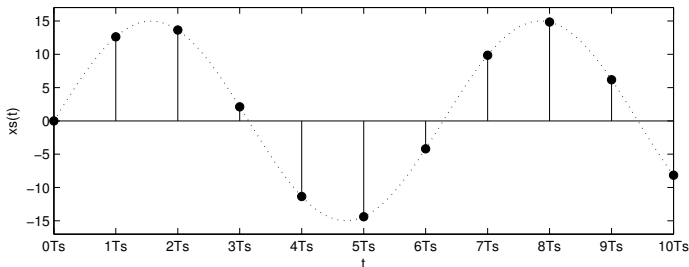


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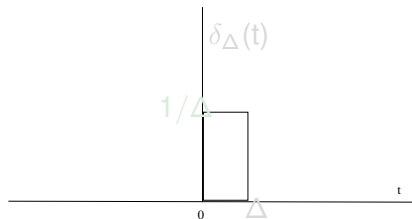
# Practical sampling

Note: real systems (e.g. A/D converters) do not actually use impulse functions to sample a signal. This is a **convenient mathematical idealization** of a sampling circuit.

$$x(t) \rightarrow \boxed{\text{switch: } \text{rect}(t/\Delta - 1/2)} \rightarrow \boxed{\text{amplifier } 1/\Delta} \rightarrow x_s(t)$$

Practical impulse function

$$\delta(t) = \lim_{\Delta \rightarrow 0} \delta_{\Delta}(t) = \lim_{\Delta \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\Delta} \text{rect}\left(\frac{t}{\Delta} - \frac{1}{2}\right)$$



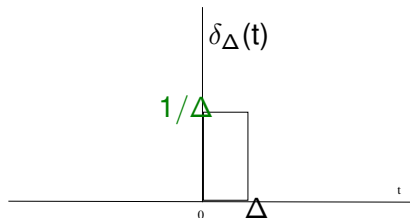
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# Spectrum of the sampled signal (1)

## Question

*But how does the **spectrum** of the sampled signal  $x_s(t)$  relate to the spectrum of the original signal  $x(t)$ ? In other words, what happens in the frequency domain when we sample a CT signal?*

This is extremely important for understanding how digital filtering works!

# Spectrum of the sampled signal (1)

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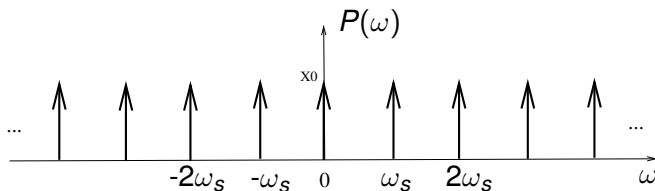
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# FT of impulse train

Recall FT of periodic signals (Chap. 3, p. 125)

$$p(t) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} P(\omega) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{2\pi}{T_s} \delta(\omega - k\omega_s)$$



# Spectrum of the sampled signal (2)

By **time-domain multiplication** property:

$$\begin{aligned} X_s(\omega) &= \frac{1}{2\pi} X(\omega) * P(\omega) = \frac{1}{2\pi} X(\omega) * \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{2\pi}{T_s} \delta(\omega - k\omega_s) \\ &= \boxed{\frac{1}{T_s} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} X(\omega - k\omega_s)} \end{aligned}$$

which is **a sum of shifted replicates** of the spectrum.  
**(Picture)**(MIT, Lecture 16-2)

# Spectrum of the sampled signal (2)

Sampling in the time domain causes replication in the frequency domain.

## Question

*What is the dual of this statement?*

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*Signals whose spectra are “sampled”, i.e. line spectra, are periodic in the time domain.*

# Example (1)

## Example

Consider the signal  $x(t) = \text{sinc}^2(t)$ . What happens when we sample it?

We have seen earlier that

$$x(t) = \text{sinc}^2(t) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} X(\omega) = \text{rect}\left(\frac{\omega}{2\pi}\right) * \text{rect}\left(\frac{\omega}{2\pi}\right) = \text{tri}\left(\frac{\omega}{2\pi}\right)$$

*(Picture)*(MIT, Lecture 16.2)

## Definition

A **bandlimited signal** is one whose spectrum is nonzero only over **finite interval**.

In this case  $-\omega_{\max}$  to  $\omega_{\max}$ , where  $\omega_{\max} = \pi$ .



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# Example (2)

If we sample  $x(t)$  at a sampling frequency  $\omega_s$ ,

$$x_s(t) = x(t)p(t) = \text{sinc}^2(nT_s) \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t - nT_s),$$

then from above

$$X_s(\omega) = \frac{1}{T_s} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} X(\omega - k\omega_s) = \boxed{\frac{1}{T_s} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \text{tri}\left(\frac{\omega - k\omega_s}{2\pi}\right)}.$$

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## Example (3)

**(Picture)**(MIT, Lecture 16.2) with no overlap

Question

*when is this picture correct?*

Question

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*when is this picture correct?*

When  $\omega_s - \omega_{\max} > \omega_{\max}$ , i.e.  $\omega_s > 2\omega_{\max}$ .

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## Example (3)

**(Picture)**(MIT, Lecture 16.2) with no overlap

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*when is this picture correct?*

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Question

*What happens if sampling rate is too low?*

Overlap of the spectral replicates, call **aliasing** occurs.

**(Picture)**(MIT, Lecture 16.3) with overlap

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# Recover $x(t)$

## Question

*How can we choose sampling frequency  $\omega_s$  so that we can **recover**  $x(t)$  from its samples  $x(nT_s)$ ?*

# Sampling theorem

## Theorem

### **Sampling theorem**

Let  $x(t)$  is a **band-limited signal** with  $X(\omega) = 0$  for  $|\omega| > \omega_{\max}$ .  
Then  $x(t)$  is uniquely determined by its samples  $x[n] = x(nT_s)$ ,  
 $n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$ , if

$$\omega_s > 2\omega_{\max}$$

where

$$\omega_s = \frac{2\pi}{T_s}$$

Given these samples, we can reconstruct  $x(t)$  by generating a periodic impulse train in which successive impulses have amplitudes that are successive sample values. This impulse train is then processed through an ideal lowpass filter with gain  $T_s$  and cutoff frequency greater than  $\omega_{\max}$  and less than  $\omega_s - \omega_{\max}$ . The resulting output signal will exactly equal to  $x(t)$ .

# Sufficient condition

- The **sampling theorem** is a **sufficient** condition, not a necessary condition, for recovering  $x(t)$  from its uniformly spaced samples.
- If we have some additional **prior information** about the signal, then it may be possible (but usually difficult) to recover  $x(t)$  .

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# Recovering $x(t)$ from $x_s(t)$ (1)

If  $x(t)$  is bandlimited and sampled at or above the **Nyquist rate** of  $2\omega_{\max}$ , then there is no overlap of the spectral replicated and (theoretically) we can recover  $x(t)$  from  $x_s(t)$  by an **ideal lowpass filter**.

---

Specifically, from the examples we see that

$$X_s(\omega) = \frac{1}{T_s} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} X(\omega - k\omega_s)$$

$$X(\omega) = T_s \text{rect}\left(\frac{\omega}{2\omega_c}\right) X_s(\omega) = H(\omega) X_s(\omega)$$

# Recovering $x(t)$ from $x_s(t)$ (1)

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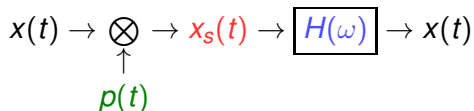
# Recovering $x(t)$ from $x_s(t)$ (2)

so to recover  $x(t)$  from  $x_s(t)$ , we need a filter with frequency response

$$H(\omega) = T_s \operatorname{rect}\left(\frac{\omega}{2\omega_c}\right), \text{ where } \omega_{\max} < \omega_c < \omega_s - \omega_{\max}.$$

Usually  $\omega_c = \omega_s/2 = \omega_{\max}$ .  
(**Picture**)(MIT, Lecture 16.4)

# Recovering $x(t)$ from $x_s(t)$ (3)

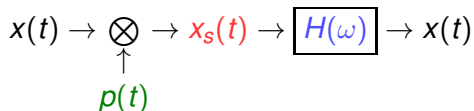


By the convolution property of the FT, the **impulse** response of that filter is

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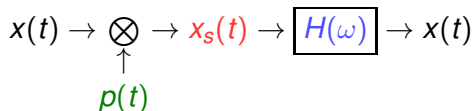


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# Example (1)

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Why do CD's sample at 44.1kHz?

- *The human ear can only hear up to **20kHz**, so even though a given musical instrument could in fact produce signal components above 20kHz, those components are **irrelevant** (to humans).*
- *So we can safely remove them by **lowpass filtering**.*
- *That filtering produces a (nearly) **bandlimited** signal, so the required sampling rate is  $2 \cdot 20\text{kHz} = \mathbf{40\text{kHz}}$ .*

## Example (2)

### Example

But why 44.1kHz rather than 40kHz then?



## Example (2)

### Example

But why 44.1kHz rather than 40kHz then?

*So that there is room for a **transition band** in the lowpass filters (both anti-alias filter and reconstruction filter).*

# Outline



## 7. Sampling

- Introduction
- FT of impulse-train sampled signals (7.1)
- Sampling Theorem
- **Aliasing (7.3)**
- Reconstruction via interpolation (7.2)
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# Aliasing

## Definition

The phenomenon, wherein an erroneous signal is recovered from sampled data because the sampling frequency was too low, is called **aliasing**.

## Example

Illustration of **aliasing** when sampling sinusoids. Suppose

$$x(t) = \cos(4\pi t) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} \pi[\delta(\omega - 4\pi) + \delta(\omega + 4\pi)]$$

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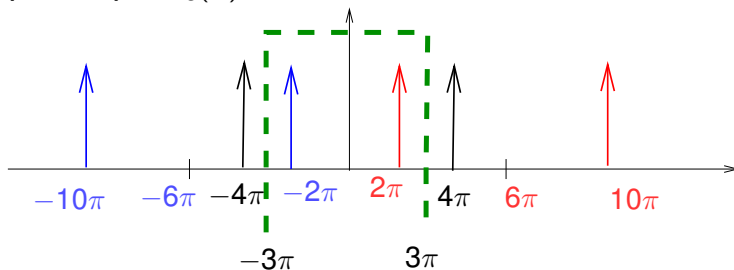
$$\omega_{\max} = 4\pi$$

$$\omega_s = 6\pi < 2\omega_{\max} = 8\pi$$

*So this is under-sampling and there is aliasing.*

# Illustration of aliasing (2)

**(Picture)** of  $X_s(\omega)$

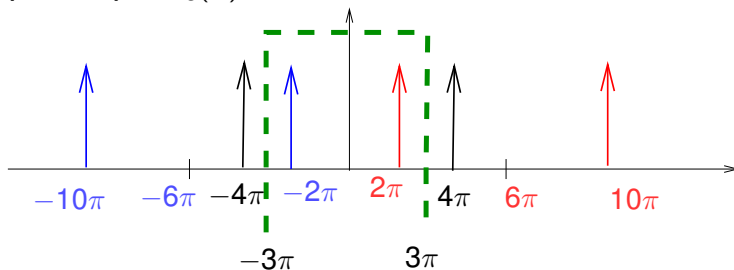


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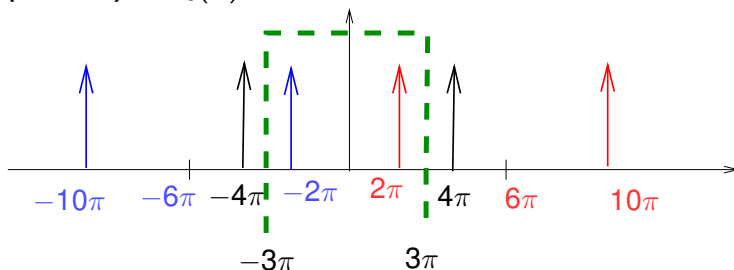
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**(Picture)** of  $X_s(\omega)$



## Question

What signal will come out of lowpass filter  $\text{rect}\left(\frac{\omega}{6\pi}\right)$ ?

$$\tilde{x}(t) = \cos(2\pi t)$$

So input frequency was  $4\pi$ , but output was only  $2\pi$ .

# Illustration of aliasing (3)

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*Input signal was  $x(t) = \cos(4\pi t)$  with a frequency of  $4\pi$ , but output signal was  $\tilde{x}(t) = \cos(2\pi t)$  with a frequency of only  $2\pi$ . Does this violate “cosine in cosine out” property we have repeated all semester?*

Sinusoidal signals through (real) LTI systems:

$$x(t) = \cos(\omega t + \phi) \rightarrow \boxed{\text{LTI } h(t)} \rightarrow y(t) = |H(j\omega)| \cos(\omega t + \phi + \angle H(j\omega))$$

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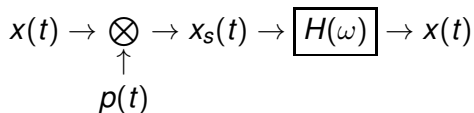
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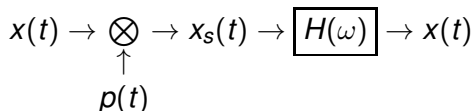


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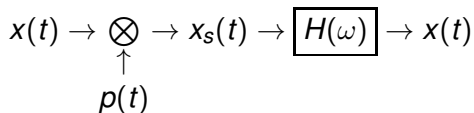


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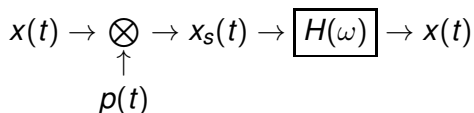


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*We know the lowpass filter sub-system is LTI. Not TI due to multiplying by  $p(t)$ .*

# Aliasing (1)

Aliasing demonstrated by under sampling of a sinusoid signal  
(**Vedio** MIT, *Lecture 16, 9:50-19:50min*)

It is important to understand that

- In sampling and reconstruction with an ideal lowpass filter, the reconstructed output will not be equal to the original input in the presence of **aliasing**, but **samples of the reconstructed output will always match the samples of the original signal**.
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- The human eye is an imperfect optical system. The pupil acts as a lowpass filter, So the optical image that is impinges on the retina is approximately a bandlimited signal.
- Dr. Harold Edgerton at MIT's Strobe Laboratory. Stroboscopy heavily exploits the concept of aliasing. (Vedio MIT, Lecture 16, 25:22-45:30m)
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# Frequency domain recovery

We have seen using the frequency domain that we can recover  $x(t)$  from the **impulse sampled version**  $x_s(t)$  by using an ideal lowpass filter:

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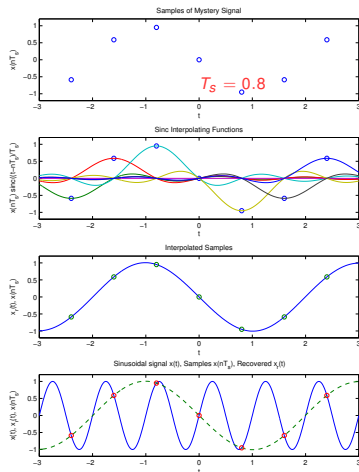
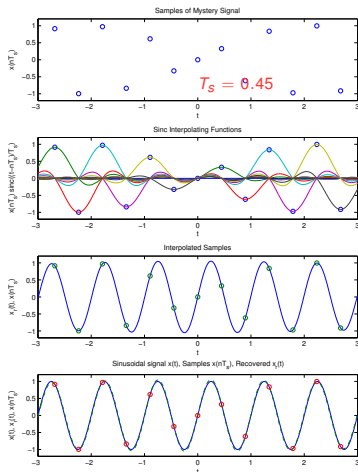
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Here are samples of two different signals, and their reconstructions using sinc interpolation.

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1 *No.*

2  $T_0 = 1 \implies T_s \leq T_0/2 = 0.5$  for *exact recovery*.

# Linear interpolation (1)

- In practice, the sinc interpolation formula is inconvenient because the sinc function has **infinite duration**.
- To save computation when using a computer for interpolation, one often simply uses **linear interpolation** (first-order hold), which essentially means “**connect the dots**” in the graph of  $(nT_s, x(nT_s))$  pairs.
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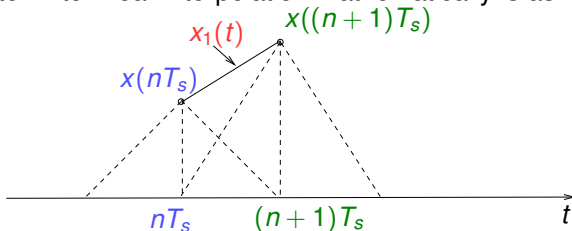
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- To save computation when using a computer for interpolation, one often simply uses **linear interpolation** (first-order hold), which essentially means “**connect the dots**” in the graph of  $(nT_s, x(nT_s))$  pairs.
- This is exactly what programs like **MATLAB** do when making **plots** of “**continuous**” functions like  $\sin(t)$  from a discrete array of  $t$  values.



# Linear interpolation (2)

One way to write linear interpolation mathematically is as follows



For  $nT_s \leq t < (n+1)T_s$ , the value  $x_1(t)$  along the straight line is given from the equation

$$x_1(t) = x(nT_s) + \frac{x((n+1)T_s) - x(nT_s)}{(n+1)T_s - nT_s}(t - nT_s)$$

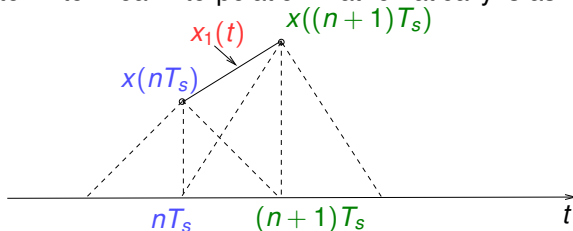
(Point-slope form of line equations  $x(t) - x(t_1) = m(t - t_1)$ )

$$= \left[ \left(1 - \frac{t - nT_s}{T_s}\right)x(nT_s) + \frac{t - nT_s}{T_s}x((n+1)T_s) \right]$$

(The MATLAB function `interp1` does this operation.)

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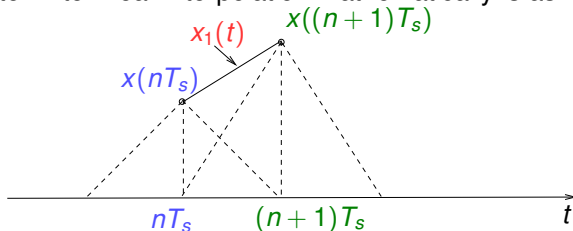
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# Linear interpolation (3)

More conveniently, we can express the linear interpolation process using convolution with a triangle function (Video MIT, Lecture 17, 22:00min)

$$\begin{aligned}
 x_1(t) &= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(nT_s) \operatorname{tri}\left(\frac{t - nT_s}{T_s}\right) \\
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 &= \operatorname{tri}\left(\frac{t}{T_s}\right) * x_s(t)
 \end{aligned}$$

The **impulse response** of the linear interpolation filter is

$$h_1(t) = \operatorname{tri}(t/T_s) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} H_1(\omega) = T_s \operatorname{sinc}^2\left(\frac{T_s \omega}{2\pi}\right) = T_s \operatorname{sinc}^2\left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_s}\right).$$

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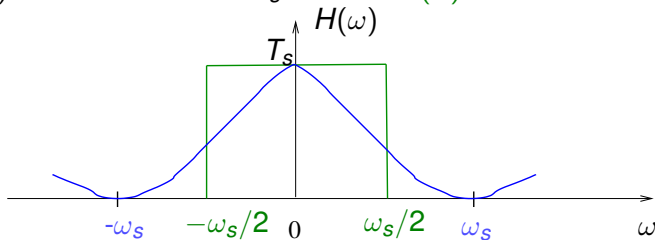
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# Linear interpolation (4)

$$H_1(\omega) = T_s \text{sinc}^2\left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_s}\right)$$

$H_1(\omega)$  with first zero at  $\pm\omega_s$  vs **ideal**  $H(\omega)$  with cutoff at  $\pm\omega_s/2$ .



# Linear interpolation (5)

Thus in the **frequency domain** we have

$$\begin{aligned} X_1(\omega) &= T_s \operatorname{sinc}^2\left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_s}\right) X_s(\omega) \\ &= T_s \operatorname{sinc}^2\left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_s}\right) \left[ \frac{1}{T_s} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} X(\omega - k\omega_s) \right] \\ &= \boxed{\sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \operatorname{sinc}^2\left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_s}\right) X(\omega - k\omega_s)} \end{aligned}$$

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# Zero-order hold interpolation

The **zero-order hold** ( **nearest neighbor interpolation** ) system samples  $x(t)$  at a given instant and holds that value until the next instant at which a sample is taken (MIT, Lecture 17.2).

$$x(t) \rightarrow \bigotimes \rightarrow x_s(t) \rightarrow \boxed{h_2(t)} \rightarrow x_2(t)$$

$\uparrow$   
 $p(t)$

The **impulse response** of the zero-order hold filter is (MIT, Lecture 17.4) (Video, MIT, Lecture 17, 18:30min):

$$\boxed{h_2(t) = \text{rect}\left(\frac{t}{T_s} - \frac{1}{2}\right)}$$

$$h_2(t) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} \boxed{H_2(\omega) = T_s \text{sinc}\left(\frac{\omega T_s}{2\pi}\right) e^{-j\omega T_s/2} = T_s \text{sinc}\left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_s}\right) e^{-j\omega T_s/2}}$$

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# Zero-order hold interpolation: example (1)

## Example

How to recover  $x(t)$  from  $x_2(t)$ ?

$$x(t) \rightarrow \begin{array}{c} \otimes \\ \uparrow \\ p(t) \end{array} \rightarrow x_s(t) \rightarrow \boxed{h_2(t)} \rightarrow x_2(t) \rightarrow \boxed{?} \rightarrow x(t).$$



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Need *inverse filter*.

$$H_{2,i}(\omega) = \frac{H(\omega)}{H_2(\omega)} = H(\omega) \frac{e^{j\omega T_s/2}}{T_s \operatorname{sinc}\left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_s}\right)} = \operatorname{rect}\left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_s}\right) \frac{e^{j\omega T_s/2}}{\operatorname{sinc}\left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_s}\right)}$$

(textbook, Figure 7.8, p. 522)

# Interpolations

## 1 Sinc interpolation (Ideal interpolation filter)

$$h(t) = \frac{\omega_c T_s}{\pi} \operatorname{sinc}\left(\frac{\omega_c t}{\pi}\right) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} H(\omega) = T_s \operatorname{rect}\left(\frac{\omega}{2\omega_c}\right)$$

## 2 Linear interpolation (first-order hold filter)

$$h_1(t) = \operatorname{tri}(t/T_s) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} H_1(\omega) = T_s \operatorname{sinc}^2\left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_s}\right)$$

## 3 Nearest neighbor interpolation (zero-order hold filter)

$$h_2(t) = \operatorname{rect}\left(\frac{t}{T_s} - \frac{1}{2}\right) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} H_2(\omega) = T_s \operatorname{sinc}\left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_s}\right) e^{-j\omega T_s/2}$$

$H(\omega)$  (**Picture**) MIT, Lecture 17.5

Image sampling and reconstruction example (Video: MIT  
Lecture 17, 28:30m)

# Outline



## 7. Sampling

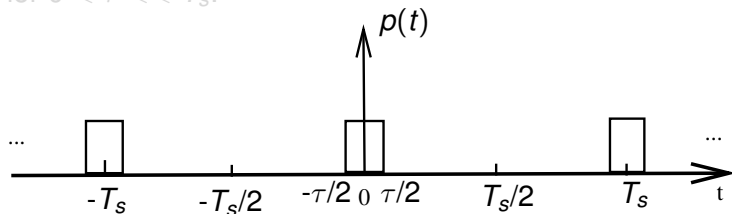
- Introduction
- FT of impulse-train sampled signals (7.1)
- Sampling Theorem
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- Reconstruction via interpolation (7.2)
- **Realistic non-impulse sampling (7.1.2)**
- Discrete-time Fourier transform (DTFT) (5.1)
- Summary

# Realistic non-impulse sampling (1)

- Real A/D converters do not use **ideal impulse functions**, since a finite time-interval of the signal must be measured for each sample so some nonzero current can flow.
- We can model sampling more realistically by considering, for example, **rectangular pulse trains** with a **small duty cycle**.

$$p(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \text{rect}\left(\frac{t - nT_s}{\tau}\right)$$

for  $0 < \tau \ll T_s$ .

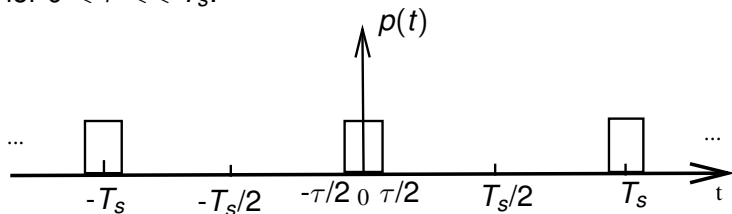


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## Realistic non-impulse sampling (2)

Let  $p(t)$  denote such a **pulse train**, or for that matter, **any periodic signal**, with period  $T_s$ , the sampling frequency. By **Fourier series**, we know that

$$p(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} c_k e^{jk\omega_s t}, \quad c_k = \frac{1}{T_s} \int_{-T_s/2}^{-T_s/2} p(t) e^{-jk\omega_s t} dt.$$

### Question

*Suppose we “sample” a signal  $x(t)$  by multiplying by  $p(t)$  to form  $x_s(t) = x(t)p(t)$ . What is the spectrum of  $x_s(t)$ ?*

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# Realistic non-impulse sampling (3)

$$x_s(t) = x(t)p(t) = x(t) \left[ \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} c_k e^{jk\omega_s t} \right] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} c_k \left[ x(t) e^{jk\omega_s t} \right]$$

so by the *frequency-shift property* of the FT:

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# Realistic non-impulse sampling: example (1)

## Example

if  $p(t)$  is the **impulse train**,

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

then

$$c_k = 1/T_s, \quad (\text{derived previously as FS example})$$

so

$$X_s(\omega) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} c_k X(\omega - k\omega_s) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{T_s} X(\omega - k\omega_s)$$

which is identical to our earlier formula!

# Realistic non-impulse sampling: example (2)

## Example

$X(\omega)$  has a triangular spectrum

$$X(\omega) = \text{tri}\left(\frac{\omega}{\omega_1}\right).$$

$p(t)$  is a rectangular pulse train with period  $T_s$  and width  $\tau$  per cycle, and amplitude  $1/\tau$ . Find the spectrum of the sampled signal

$$x_s(t) = x(t)p(t).$$

# Realistic non-impulse sampling: example (3)

*From the FS table*

$$c_k = \frac{1}{T_s} \operatorname{sinc}\left(\frac{k\tau\omega_s}{2\pi}\right)$$

so

$$\begin{aligned} X_s(\omega) &= \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{T_s} \operatorname{sinc}\left(\frac{\tau k\omega_s}{2\pi}\right) X(\omega - k\omega_s) \\ &= \boxed{\sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{T_s} \operatorname{sinc}\left(\frac{\tau k\omega_s}{2\pi}\right) \operatorname{tri}\left(\frac{\omega - k\omega_s}{\omega_1}\right)} \end{aligned}$$

*with each replicate scaled down by corresponding  $c_k$ .*

# Outline

1

## 7. Sampling

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- Sampling Theorem
- Aliasing (7.3)
- Reconstruction via interpolation (7.2)
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# Computing the FT (1)

## Question

*How does a spectrum analyzer work?*

- We have seen that a **band-limited** signal can be reconstructed from its **samples** (provided sampling rate is high enough).
- If we can find the original signal from its samples, then we should also be able to find the **FT of the signal** from its samples.
- We find the original signal from its sample by **sinc interpolation**:

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# Computing the FT (2)

$$\text{sinc}\left(\frac{t}{T_s}\right) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} T_s \text{rect}\left(\frac{T_s \omega}{2\pi}\right)$$

by the **time-shift** property of the FT:

$$\text{sinc}\left(\frac{t - nT_s}{T_s}\right) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} e^{-j\omega nT_s} T_s \text{rect}\left(\frac{T_s \omega}{2\pi}\right)$$

Thus by **linearity** of the FT:

$$\begin{aligned} x(t) &\xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} X(\omega) \\ \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(nT_s) \text{sinc}\left(\frac{t - nT_s}{T_s}\right) &\xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} \boxed{\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(nT_s) e^{-j\omega nT_s} T_s \text{rect}\left(\frac{T_s \omega}{2\pi}\right)} \end{aligned}$$

# DTFT

## Definition

The **discrete-time Fourier transform (DTFT)** of the sequence  $x[n] = x(nT_s)$ ,  $n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$  is defined as follows:

$$X(\Omega) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n]e^{-j\Omega n}, \quad (\text{analysis equation}).$$

The **inverse DTFT** is

$$x[n] = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{2\pi} X(\Omega)e^{j\Omega n}d\Omega, \quad (\text{synthesis equation}).$$

# DTFT and FT

$$X(\Omega) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n] e^{-j\Omega n}$$

$$X(\omega) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(nT_s) e^{-j\omega n T_s} T_s \text{rect}\left(\frac{T_s \omega}{2\pi}\right)$$

Then the FT of the continuous-time signal  $x(t)$  is related to the DTFT of the discrete-time signal  $x[n]$  as follows:

$$X(\omega) = \begin{cases} T_s X(\Omega)|_{\Omega=\omega T_s}, & |\omega| < \omega_s/2 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

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# Periodic DTFT

## Question

*Show the fact that the DTFT is **periodic** with period  $2\pi$ .*

# Proof

$$\begin{aligned}X(\Omega + 2\pi) &= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n]e^{-j(\Omega+2\pi)n} \\&= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n]e^{-j\Omega n} \underbrace{e^{j2\pi n}}_1 \\&= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n]e^{-j\Omega n} = X(\Omega).\end{aligned}$$

*This fact is closely related to the fact that  $X_s(\omega)$  is periodic.*



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# DTFT and FT pairs

DTFT pair:

$$X(\Omega) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n] e^{-j\Omega n}, \quad x[n] = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{2\pi} X(\Omega) e^{j\Omega n} d\Omega$$

FT pair

$$X(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-j\omega t} dt, \quad x(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X(\omega) e^{j\omega t} d\omega$$

$$x[n] = x(nT_s), \quad \Omega = \omega T_s$$

# Digital spectrum analyzer

## Question

*How does a **digital** spectrum analyzer work?*

- A continuous-time signal  $x(t)$  is first filtered with an **anti-alias filter** so that it is **bandlimited** to  $\omega_{\max} = \omega_s/2$ , where  $\omega_s$  is the sampling frequency of the A/D chip in the spectrum analyzer.
- Then the signal is sampled at the rate  $\omega_s$ , and the discrete-time sequence  $x[n] = x(nT_s)$  is stored in **digital memory** for  $n = 0, \dots, N-1$ , for some **finite** number of samples  $N$ .
- Then the **DTFT** formula for  $X(\Omega)$  above is computed digitally, with the following **modifications**.

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# DTFT modifications

$$\text{DTFT: } X(\Omega) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n]e^{-j\Omega n}$$

- 1 The infinite sum is replaced by a sum from 0 to  $N - 1$ , since only a finite number of signal samples can be stored.
- 2 The DTFT  $X(\Omega)$  is never computed for all values of  $\Omega$ , since a computer can only store a finite set of values. Since  $X(\Omega)$  is periodic with period  $2\pi$ , typically only the values

$$\Omega = k\frac{2\pi}{N}, \quad k = 0, \dots, N - 1$$

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# DFT

For this choice we write

$$c[k] = X(\Omega)|_{\Omega=k2\pi/N} = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x[n]e^{-j2\pi kn/N},$$

which is known as the **discrete Fourier transform** or **DFT**, since both **time** and **frequency** are **discrete** indices.

## FFT

DFT pair:

$$X[k] = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x[n] e^{-j2\pi kn/N}, \quad k = 0, \dots, N-1$$

$$x[n] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} X_k e^{j2\pi kn/N}, \quad n = 0, \dots, N-1$$

- In software, the DFT is evaluated using the **fast Fourier transform** or **FFT**, which is the `fft` routine in MATLAB.
- The FFT and DFT are the **same** mathematically; the FFT is just a **fast algorithm** for computing the DFT coefficients.

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# Outline



## 7. Sampling

- Introduction
- FT of impulse-train sampled signals (7.1)
- Sampling Theorem
- Aliasing (7.3)
- Reconstruction via interpolation (7.2)
- Realistic non-impulse sampling (7.1.2)
- Discrete-time Fourier transform (DTFT) (5.1)
- **Summary**

# Summary

- DSP, A/D conversion
- impulse train sampling, sampling theorem
- Nyquist sampling rate
- lowpass reconstruction
- sinc interpolation
- linear interpolation (first order hold)
- nearest neighbor interpolation (zero order hold)
- non-impulse sampling
- FT vs DTFT vs DFT vs FFT