

---

# EE482: DSP APPLICATIONS

## CH2 DSP FUNDAMENTALS

# DIGITAL SIGNALS AND SYSTEMS

## CHAPTER 2.1

# ELEMENTARY DIGITAL SIGNALS

- Digital signal
  - $x(n) \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}$
  - Deterministic – expressed mathematically (e.g. sinusoid)
  - Random – cannot be described exactly by equations (e.g. noise, speech)
- Unit impulse (Kronecker delta)
  - $\delta(n) = \begin{cases} 1, & n = 0 \\ 0, & n \neq 0 \end{cases}$
  - Basic building block of all digital signals
- Unit step
  - $u(n) = \begin{cases} 1, & n \geq 0 \\ 0, & n < 0 \end{cases} = \sum_{k=-\infty}^n \delta(k)$

# SINUSOIDAL SIGNALS

- Continuous

- $x(t) = A \sin(\Omega t + \phi) = A \sin(2\pi f t + \phi)$

- Sampled

- $x(n) = A \sin(\Omega n T + \phi) = A \sin(2\pi f n T + \phi)$

- $\Omega = 2\pi f$

- $x(n) = A \sin(\omega n + \phi) = A \sin(F\pi n + \phi)$

- $\omega = \Omega T$

# RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN FREQ VARIABLES

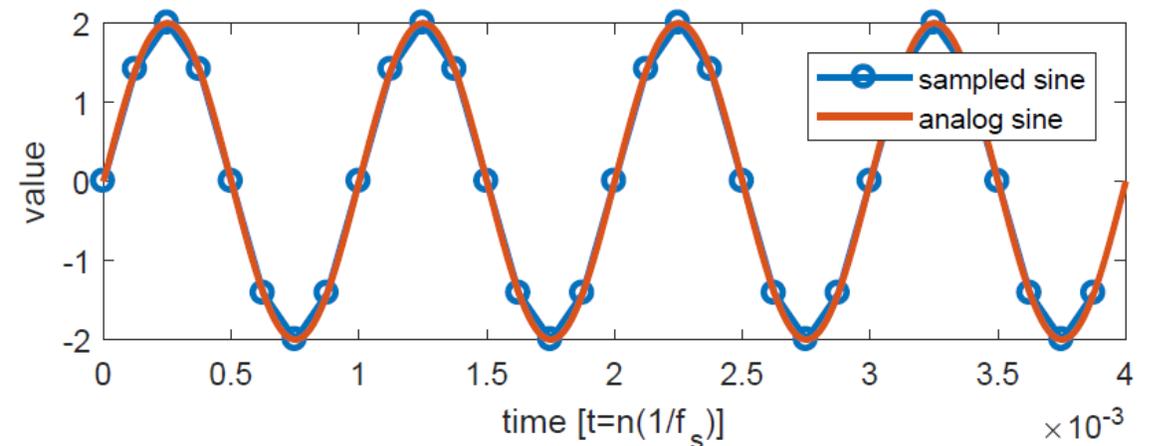
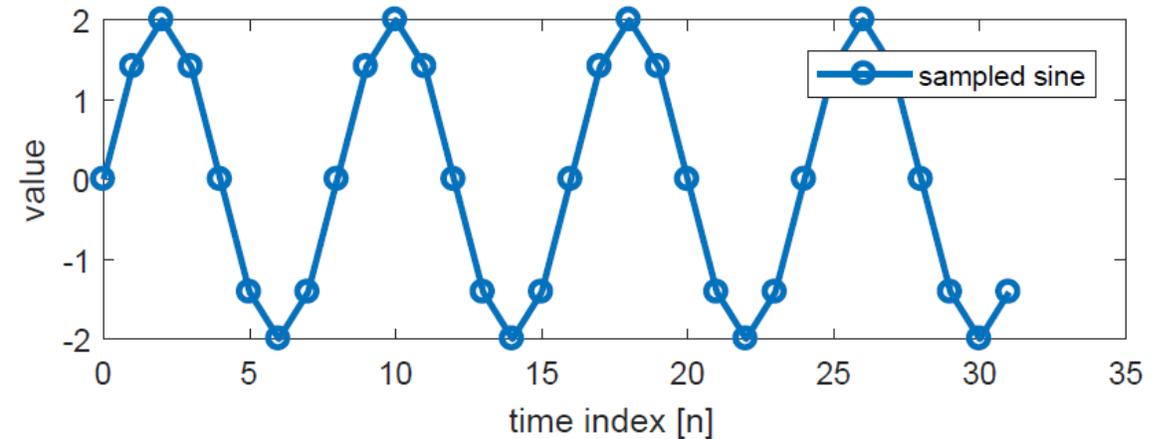
Table 2.1

Variable	Units	Relationships	Ranges
$\Omega$	rads/sec	$\Omega = 2\pi f$	$-\infty < \Omega < \infty$
$f$	cycles/sec (Hz)	$f = \frac{\Omega}{2\pi} = \frac{\omega f_s}{2\pi}$	$-\infty < f < \infty$
$\omega$	rads/sample	$\omega = \Omega T = \frac{2\pi f}{f_s}$	$-\pi \leq \omega \leq \pi$
$F$	cycles/sample	$F = \frac{f}{f_s/2} = \frac{\omega}{2}$	$-1 \leq F \leq 1$

- Normalized frequency measures
- Note: max frequency for  $\pi$  or definition over a  $2\pi$  interval
  - Consider  $e^{j(\omega+2\pi k)}$

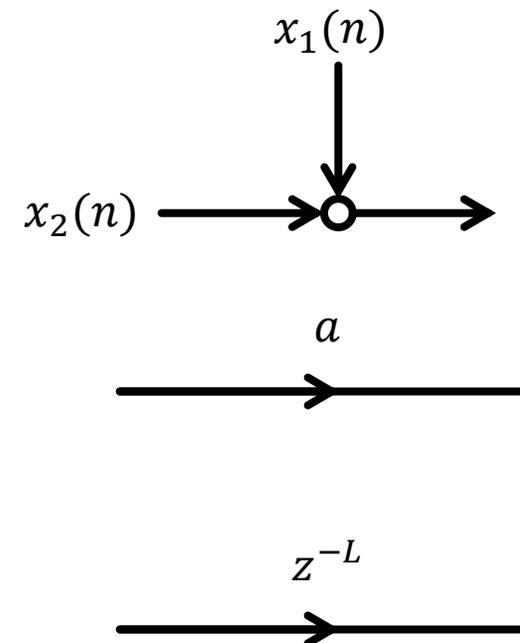
# EXAMPLE 2.1

- $A=2$ ;  $f=1000$ ;  $f_s = 8000$ ;
- $n=0:31$ ;
- $w = 2*\pi*f/fs$ ;
- $x = A*\sin(w*n)$ ;
- $h=figure$ ;
- `%plot sampled sine`
- `subplot(2,1,1)`
- `plot(n,x,'-o','linewidth',2);`
- `xlabel('time index [n]'); ylabel('value'); legend('sampled sine')`
- `%plot analog sine`
- `subplot(2,1,2)`
- `t=0:1e-5:4e-3;`
- `plot(n*(1/fs),x,'-o','linewidth',2);`
- `hold all;`
- `plot(t, A*sin(2*pi*f*t), 'linewidth',2);`
- `xlabel('time [t=n(1/f_s)]'); ylabel('value'); legend('sampled sine', 'analog sine')`



# BLOCK DIAGRAM REPRESENTATION

- Processing accomplished with 3 basic operations
- Addition
  - $y(n) = x_1(n) + x_2(n)$
- Multiplication
  - $y(n) = ax(n)$
- Time shift (delay)
  - $y(n) = x(n - L)$
  - Multiple delays can be implemented with a shift register (first-in, first-out buffer)(tapped delay line)



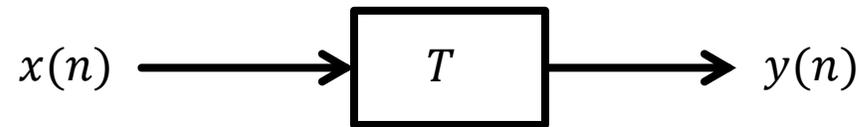
Multiplication in z domain

# SYSTEM CONCEPTS

CHAPTER 2.2

# SYSTEMS

- Generic system



- Linearity

- Additive and homogeneity (scaling) properties
- $T\{ax_1(n) + bx_2(n)\} = ay_1(n) + by_2(n)$

- Time invariance

- Shift in input causes corresponding shift in output
- $y(n - n_0) = T\{x(n - n_0)\}$
- To test, check if  $y_1(n) = y_2(n)$ 
  - $y_1(n) = y(n - n_0)$ 
    - Replace  $n$  by  $n_0$
  - $y_2(n) = T\{x(n - n_0)\} = T\{g(n)\}$ 
    - Response of system to shifted input

# LTI SYSTEMS

- Impulse response



- Output of LTI system  $y(n) = h(n)$  to input  $x(n) = \delta(n)$

- Convolution

- Input-output relationship of LTI system

$$y(n) = x(n) * h(n) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x(k)h(n-k) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} h(k)x(n-k)$$

# GENERAL DIFFERENCE EQUATION SYSTEMS

$$\sum_{k=0}^M a_k y(n-k) = \sum_{k=0}^{L-1} b_k x(n-k)$$

$$y(n) = \sum_{k=0}^{L-1} b_k x(n-k) - \sum_{k=1}^M a_k y(n-k)$$

- Infinite impulse response (IIR)
  - $h(n)$  non-zero as  $n \rightarrow \infty$
- Finite impulse response (FIR)
  - $h(n)$  defined over finite set of  $n$
  - Special case of above with  $a_k = 0$
  - This system only has zeroes and poles at  $z = 0$
- Causality
  - Output only depends on previous input
  - $h(n) = 0, \quad n < 0$
- Stability (BIBO)
  - $\sum |h(n)| < \infty$
  - Absolutely summable

# Z-TRANSFORM

- Very useful computational tool for studying digital systems

- Definition 
$$X(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(n)z^{-n}$$

$$z = re^{j\theta}$$

← Complex variable

- Has associated region of convergence (ROC)
    - Values of  $z$  where summation converges
- Useful summation formulas

$$\sum_{n=0}^N \alpha^n = \frac{1 - \alpha^{N+1}}{1 - \alpha}$$

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \alpha^n = \frac{1}{1 - \alpha} \longleftarrow |\alpha| < 1$$

# Z-TRANSFORM PROPERTIES

- Linearity

- $\mathcal{Z}\{ax_1(n) + bx_2(n)\} = aX_1(z) + bX_2(z)$

- Time shift

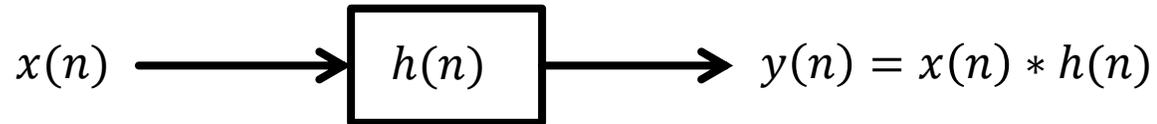
- $\mathcal{Z}\{x(n - k)\} = z^{-k}X(z)$

- Convolution

- $x(n) = x_1(n) * x_2(n) \rightarrow X(z) = X_1(z)X_2(z)$

- $\text{ROC} = R_{x_1} \cap R_{x_2}$

# TRANSFER FUNCTIONS



- Note: convolution in time is multiplication in Z-domain

- $Y(z) = X(z)H(z)$

- $H(z) = \frac{Y(z)}{X(z)}$

- General polynomial form from difference equation

- Take Z-transform of both sides of general diff eq

$$H(z) = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^{L-1} b_k z^{-k}}{1 + \sum_{k=1}^M a_k z^{-k}}$$

# POLES AND ZEROS

$$H(z) = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^{L-1} b_k z^{-k}}{1 + \sum_{k=1}^M a_k z^{-k}} \longrightarrow H(z) = b_0 \frac{\prod_{k=1}^{L-1} (z - z_k)}{\prod_{k=1}^M (z - p_k)} = b_0 \frac{(z - z_1)(z - z_2) \dots}{(z - p_1)(z - p_2) \dots}$$

## ■ Zeros

- Roots of the numerator polynomial
- Locations in z-plane that make output zero

## ■ Poles

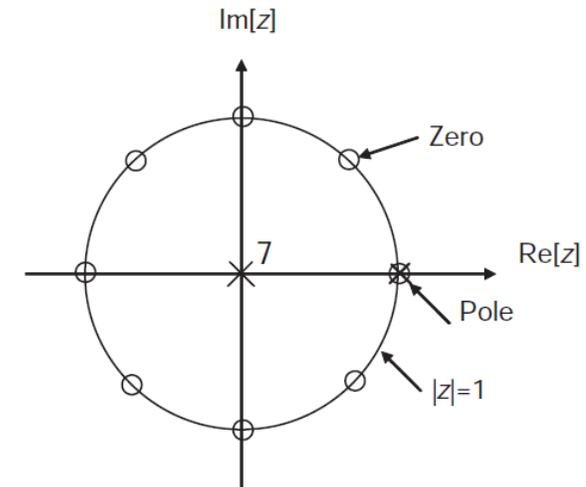
- Roots of the denominator polynomial
- Locations in z-plane that make output infinity (unstable)
  - System is considered unstable if the ROC doesn't contain the unit circle (no DTFT exists)
  - Causal system  $\rightarrow$  poles should be inside unit circle

# EXAMPLE 2.10

- $H(z) = \frac{1}{L} \left[ \frac{1-z^{-L}}{1-z^{-1}} \right]$ 
  - Notice this is a polynomial in  $z^{-1}$
- Convert to polynomial in  $z$  to get all poles and zeros
- $H(z) = \frac{1}{L} \left[ \frac{z^L-1}{z^L-z^{L-1}} \right] = \frac{1}{L} \left[ \frac{z^L-1}{z^{L-1}(z-1)} \right]$ 
  - Poles
    - $(z-1) = 0 \rightarrow z = 1$
    - $z^{L-1} = 0 \rightarrow L-1$  poles at  $z = 0$
  - Zeros
    - $z^L - 1 = 0 \rightarrow z_l = e^{j\left(\frac{2\pi}{L}\right)l}$
    - $L$  zeros even spaced around unit circle

## ■ Matlab

- `fvtool([1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 -1], [1 -1]);`



**Figure 2.12** Pole-zero diagram of the moving-averaging filter,  $L=8$

# FREQUENCY RESPONSE

- Discrete-time Fourier transform (DTFT)

$$H(\omega) = H(z)|_{z=e^{j\omega}} = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} h(n)e^{-j\omega n}$$

- Evaluate transfer function along the unit circle  $|z| = |e^{j\omega}|$

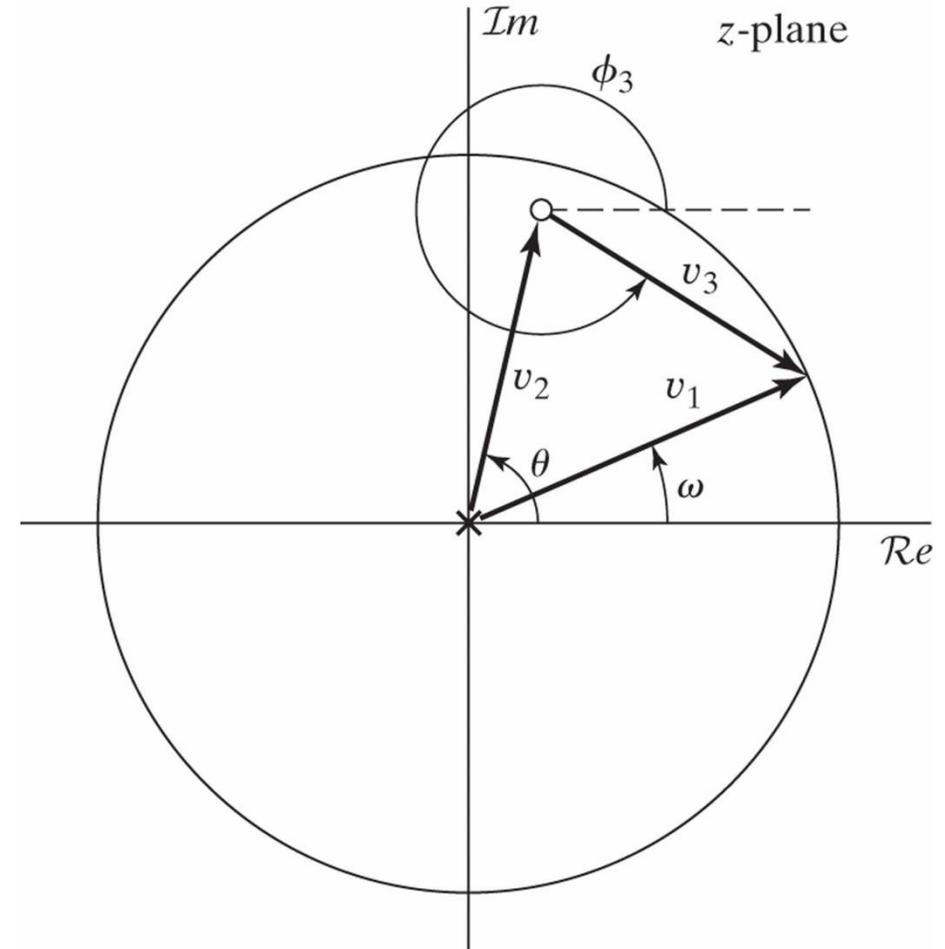
$$H(\omega) = |H(\omega)|e^{\angle H(\omega)}$$

$$|H(\omega)| = \sqrt{H(\omega)H^*(\omega)} \quad \angle H(\omega) = \arctan\left(\frac{\text{Im } H(\omega)}{\text{Re } H(\omega)}\right)$$

- Frequency response is periodic in  $2\pi$  interval and symmetric
  - Only  $[0, \pi]$  interval is required for evaluation

# GRAPHICAL DTFT INTERPRETATION

- Poles
  - $|H(\omega)|$  gets larger closer to  $\theta$
- Zeros
  - $|H(\omega)|$  gets smaller closer to  $\theta$
  
- What does a highpass filter look like?
  
- What does a lowpass filter look like?



# DISCRETE FOURIER TRANSFORM

- Notice the DTFT is a continuous function of  $\omega$ 
  - Requires an infinite number of samples to compute (infinite sum)
- DFT is a sampled version of the DTFT
  - Samples are taken at  $N$  equally spaced frequencies along unit circle
    - $\omega_k = \frac{2\pi k}{N}$ ,  $k = 0, 1, \dots, N - 1$

$$X(k) = X(\omega)|_{\omega=\frac{2\pi k}{N}} = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n)e^{-j\frac{2\pi k}{N}n}$$

- $n$  – time index
- $k$  – frequency index

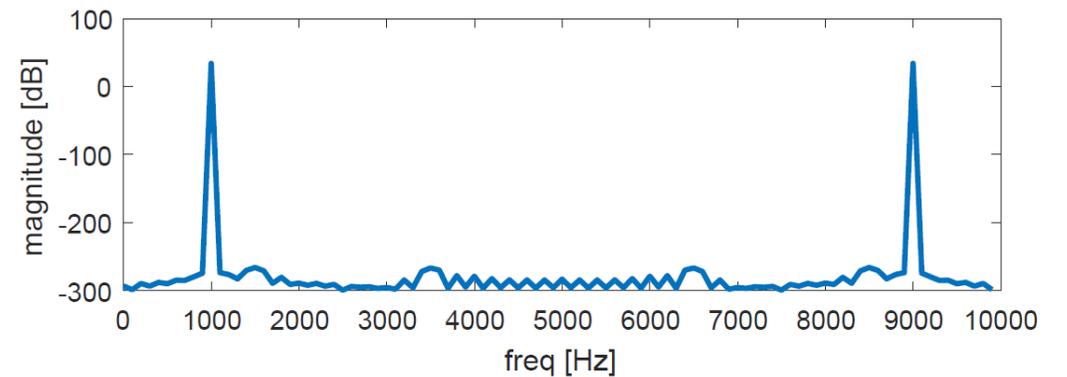
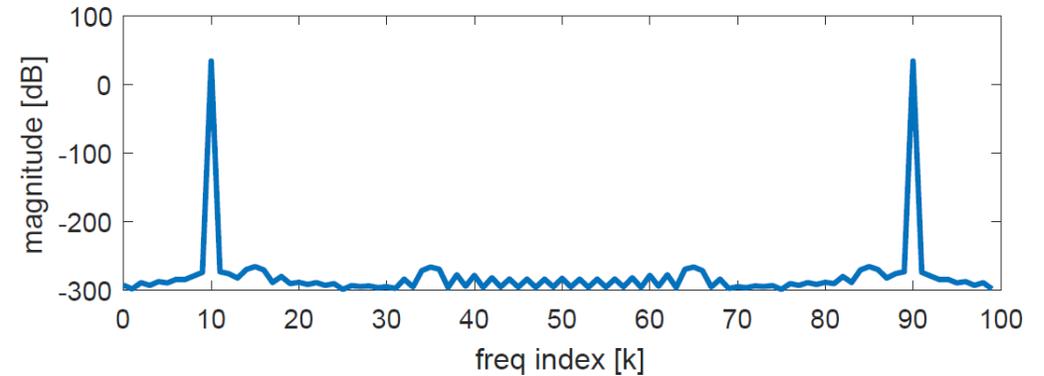
# DFT IMPLEMENTATION

$$X(k) = X(\omega)|_{\omega=\frac{2\pi k}{N}} = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n)e^{-j\frac{2\pi k}{N}n}$$

- DFT can be computed very efficiently with the fast Fourier transform (FFT)
- Frequency resolution of DFT
  - $\Delta_{\omega} = \frac{2\pi}{N}$ ,  $\Delta_f = \frac{f_s}{N}$
- Analog frequency mapping
  - $f_k = k\Delta_f = \frac{kf_s}{N}$ ,  $k = 0, 1, \dots, N - 1$
  - Nyquist frequency  $\frac{f_s}{2}$  corresponds to  $k = \frac{N}{2}$

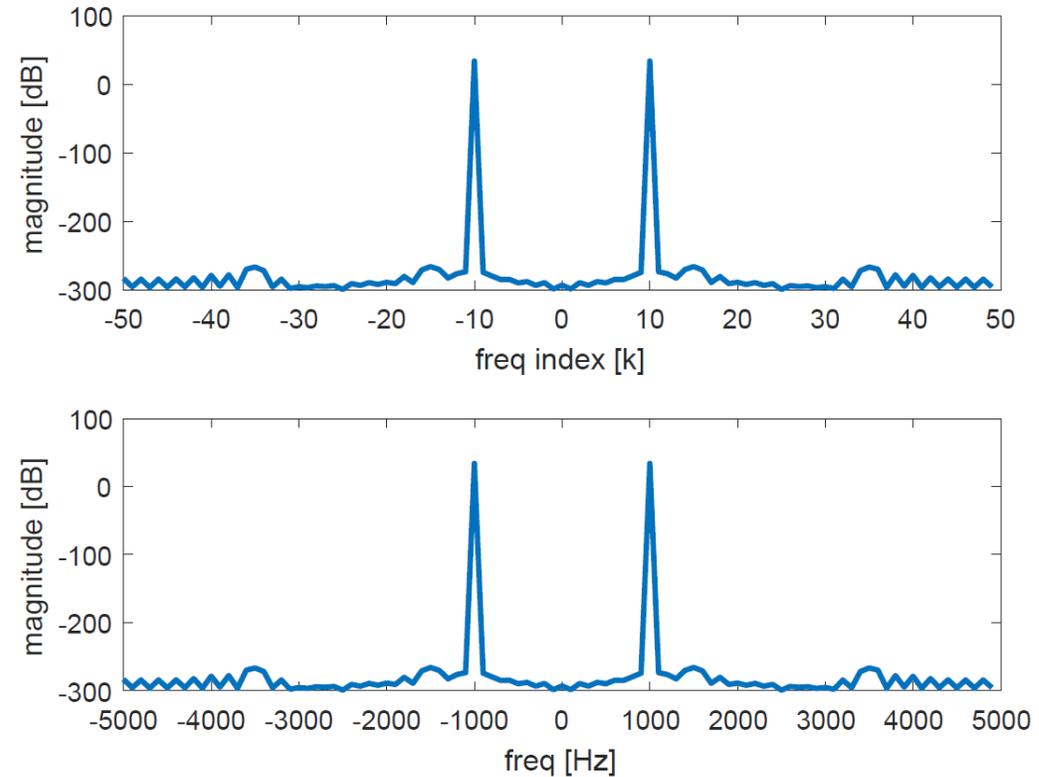
# EXAMPLE 2.16

- `N = 100; A = 1; f=1000; fs = 10000;`
- `n=0:N-1;`
- `w = 2*pi*f/fs;`
- 
- `x = sin(w*n);`
- `X = fft(x);`
- `K = length(X);`
- 
- `h=figure;`
- `subplot(2,1,1)`
- `plot(0:K-1, 20*log10(abs(X)), 'linewidth', 2);`
- `xlabel('freq index [k]'); ylabel('magnitude [dB]');`
- `subplot(2,1,2)`
- `%convert index to freq`
- `f = (0:K-1) * fs/N;`
- `plot(f, 20*log10(abs(X)), 'linewidth', 2);`
- `xlabel('freq [Hz]'); ylabel('magnitude [dB]');`



# EXAMPLE 2.16 – SHIFTED FREQUENCIES

- `ind = -K/2:K/2-1;`
- `Xs = fftshift(X)`
- `h=figure;`
- `subplot(2,1,1)`
- `plot(ind, 20*log10(abs(Xs)), 'linewidth', 2);`
- `xlabel('freq index [k]');`
- `ylabel('magnitude [dB]');`
- `subplot(2,1,2)`
- `%convert index to freq`
- `f = ind * fs/N;`
- `plot(f, 20*log10(abs(Xs)), 'linewidth', 2);`
- `xlabel('freq [Hz]');`
- `ylabel('magnitude [dB]');`
- 



# INTRO TO RANDOM VARIABLES

CHAPTER 2.3

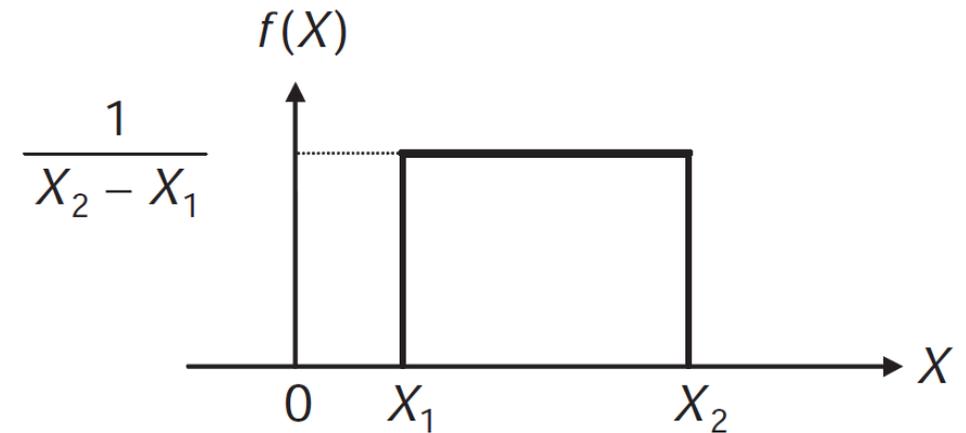
# RANDOM VARIABLES

- Function that maps from a sample space to a real value
  - $x: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ 
    - $x$  – random variable (does not have a value)
    - $S$  – sample space
- Cumulative distribution function (CDF)
  - $F(X) = P(x \leq X)$ 
    - E.g. probability  $\{x \leq X\}$
- Probability density function (PDF)
  - $f(X) = \frac{dF(X)}{dX}$ 
    - $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(X)dX = 1$
    - $P(X_1 < x \leq X_2) = F(X_2) - F(X_1)$ 

$$P(X_1 < x \leq X_2) = \int_{X_1}^{X_2} f(X)dX$$
- Probability mass function (PMF)
  - For discrete  $x$ , takes values  $X_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots$
  - $p_i = P(x = X_i)$

# UNIFORM RANDOM VARIABLE

- Variable takes on value in a range with equal probability
- $f(X) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{X_2 - X_1} & X_1 \leq x \leq X_2 \\ 0 & \textit{else} \end{cases}$
- Be sure you can calculate mean and variance
- Be aware that the book is a little sloppy in notation
  - RV  $x$  vs  $X$



**Figure 2.17** The uniform density function

# STATISTICS OF RANDOM VARIABLES

- Expected value (mean)
  - $m_x = E[x]$  expectation operator
    - $m_x = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} Xf(X)dX$       continuous
    - $m_x = \sum_i X_i p_i$       discrete
  
- Can be can computed with `mean.m` and `var.m`
  - Read help for info on finite sample versions
  
- Variance (spread around mean)
  - $\sigma_x^2 = E[(x - m_x)^2] = E[x^2] - m_x^2$
  - Continuous
    - $\sigma_x^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (X - m_x)^2 f(X)dX$
  - Discrete
    - $\sigma_x^2 = \sum_i p_i (X_i - m_x)^2$
  - For  $m_x = 0$ ,
    - $\sigma_x^2 = E[x^2] = P_x$ 
      - Second moment, power

# FIXED-POINT REPRESENTATION AND QUANTIZATION EFFECTS

CHAPTER 2.4



# FIXED-POINT NUMERICAL EFFECTS

- Fractional numbers are represented in 2's complement with  $B = M + 1$  bits

- $x = b_0.b_1b_2 \dots b_{M-1}b_M$

Diagram illustrating the bit representation of a fixed-point number  $x = b_0.b_1b_2 \dots b_{M-1}b_M$ . The bits are labeled as follows:

- $b_0$ : sign bit
- Binary point (between  $b_0$  and  $b_1$ )
- $b_{M-1}$ : msb (most significant bit)
- $b_M$ : lsb (least significant bit)

- $b_0 = \begin{cases} 0 & x \geq 0 \text{ positive} \\ 1 & x < 0 \text{ negative} \end{cases}$

- Value =  $-b_0 + \sum_{m=1}^M b_m 2^{-m}$

- $-1 \leq x \leq (1 - 2^{-M})$

- Unbalanced range with more negative than positive numbers

# GENERAL FRACTIONAL FORMAT $Q_{n.m}$

- $x = b_0 b_1 b_2 \dots b_n \cdot b_1 b_2 \dots b_M$

- Q format
  - $Q_{n.m} = Q_{\#integer.\#fraction}$
  - Larger  $n$  increases dynamic range but at cost of reduced precision (smallest fractional resolution)
  - $b_0$  is not counted as part of integer just as a sign-bit

- Example 2.25

- $x = 0100\ 1000\ 0001\ 1000b$   
 $= 0x4818$

- Q0.15

- $x = 2^{-1} + 2^{-4} + 2^{-11} + 2^{-12} = 0.56323$

- Q2.13

- $x = 2^1 + 2^{-2} + 2^{-9} + 2^{-10} = 2.25293$

- Q5.10

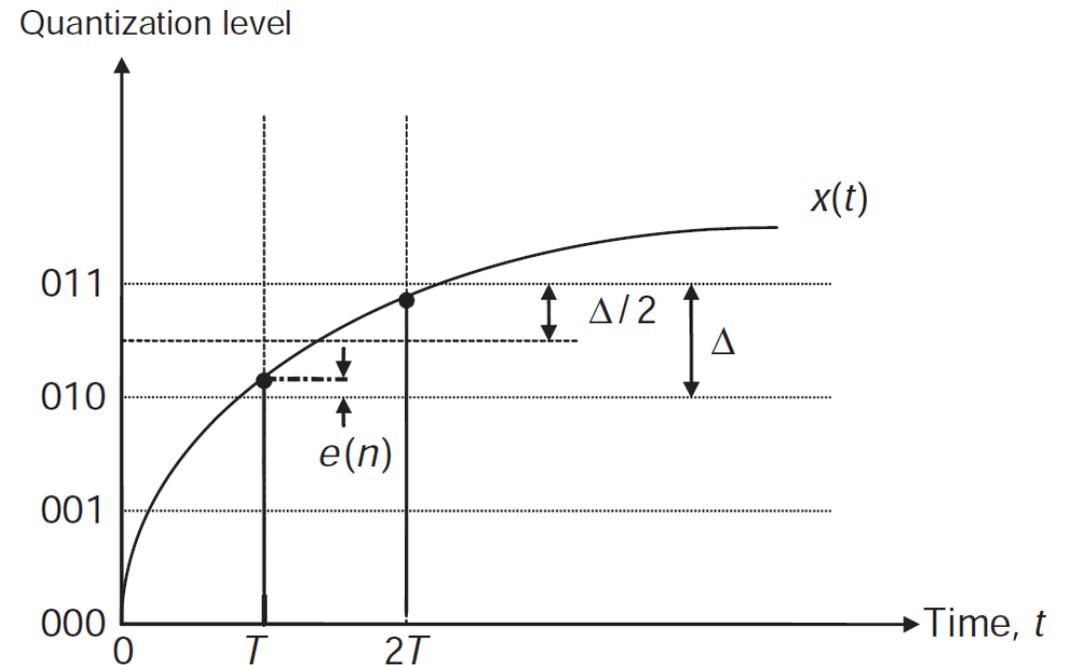
- $x = 2^4 + 2^1 + 2^{-6} + 2^{-7} = 18.02344$

# FINITE WORD LENGTH EFFECTS

1. Quantization errors
  - Signal quantization
  - Coefficient quantization
2. Arithmetic errors
  - Roundoff (truncation)
  - Overflow

# SIGNAL QUANTIZATION

- ADC conversion of sampled signals to fixed levels
- Using Q15 and  $B$  bits
  - Dynamic range  $-1 \leq x < 1$
  - Quantization step
    - $\Delta = \frac{2}{2^B} = 2^{-B+1} = 2^{-M}$
- Quantization error
  - $e(n) = x(n) - x_B(n)$ 
    - $x_B(n) = Q[x(n)]$
  - $|e(n)| \leq \frac{\Delta}{2} = 2^{-B}$  (rounding)
    - Error dependent on word length  $B$
    - More bits for better resolution, less error (noise)
- Signal to quantization noise (SQNR)
  - $SQNR = \frac{\sigma_x^2}{\sigma_e^2} = 3.2^{2B} \sigma_x^2$
  - $SQNR = 4.77 + 6.02B + 10 \log_{10} \sigma_x^2 \text{ dB}$



**Figure 2.21** Quantization process related to a 3-bit ADC

# COEFFICIENT QUANTIZATION

- Same error issues as for signals
- Results in movement of the locations of poles/zeros
  - Changes system function polynomials
  - Can lead to instability if poles go outside the unit circle
    - Generally, more a problem with IIR filters
- Can limit coefficient quantization effects by using lower-order filters
  - Use of cascade and parallel filter structures

# ROUND OFF NOISE

- A product must be represented in  $B$  bits by rounding (truncation)

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \blacksquare & y(n) = & \alpha x(n) \\ & \uparrow & \uparrow \quad \swarrow \\ & 2B \text{ bits} & B \text{ bits} \quad B \text{ bits} \end{array}$$

- Error model

$$\blacksquare y(n) = Q[\alpha x(n)] = \alpha x(n) + e(n)$$

- $e(n)$  is uniformly distributed zero mean noise (rounding)

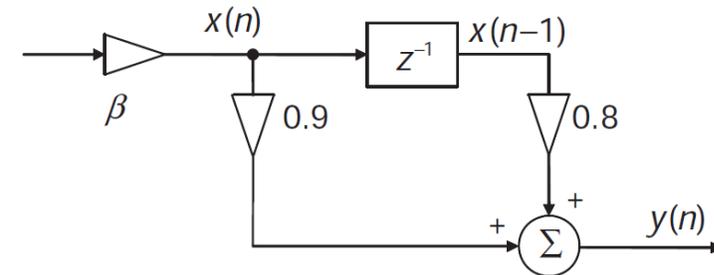
# OVERFLOW AND SOLUTIONS

CHAPTER 2.5



# OVERFLOW

- $y(n) = x_1(n) + x_2(n)$ 
  - $-1 \leq x_i(n) < 1$
  - $-1 \leq y(n) < 1$
- Overflow occurs when the sum cannot fit in the word container
- Signals need to be scaled to prevent overflow



**Figure 2.24** Block diagram of simple FIR filter with scaling factor  $\beta$

- Notice: this reduces the SQNR

- $SQNR = 10 \log_{10} \left( \frac{\beta^2 \sigma_x^2}{\sigma_e^2} \right)$

- $SQNR = 4.77 + 6.02B + 10 \log_{10} \sigma_x^2 + 20 \log_{10} \beta \text{ dB}$

$\underbrace{\hspace{10em}}$   
 Negative since  $\beta < 1$