Imperial College London

Lecture 4

Sampling

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Lecture 4 Slide 1

In this lecture, we will examine two important topics in signal processing:

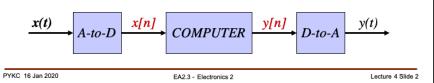
- 1. Sampling the process of converting a continuous time signal to discrete time signal, in order for computers to process the data digitally.
- Aliasing the phenomenon where because of too low a sampling frequency, the original signal get corrupted by higher frequency components – something known as spectral folding.

Continuous time vs Discrete time

- · Continuous time system
 - Good for analogue & general understanding
 - Appropriate mostly to analogue electronic systems



- Electronics are increasingly digital
 - E.g. mobile phones are all digital, TV broadcast is will be 100% digital in UK
 - We use digital ASIC chips, FPGAs and microprocessors to implement systems and to process signals
 - Signals are converted to numbers, processed, and converted back

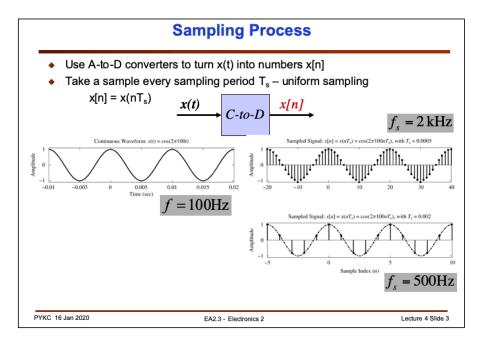


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We have looked at ADC, DAC, and quantization in Lecture 1, and in the DE1.3 module last year. The essence of this slide is to remind you that we sample the data (discrete time) and quantise the samples (discrete voltage steps) using the ADC converter. We turn digital samples back to analogue voltages using a DAC.

Not that the notation for continuous time and discrete time is different:

$$x(t) \rightarrow x[n]$$



Again you should be familiar with the sampling process already. The important point to note here is that we currently only consider UNIFORM SAMPLING, meaning that we take a sample of the signal x(t) at regular intervals of period Ts, where 1/Ts = sampling frequency.

It is possible to perform non-uniform sampling. However, the maths for that is really complicated. Therefore practical electronic systems always use uniform sampling.

The next important point is to ask the question: HOW OFTEN DO WE NEED TO TAKE SAMPLES? Obviously if we take infinite number of sample, we get back the continuous time signal, and it is clearly wasteful. Sampling very infrequently is also obviously bad – we will miss important features in the signal, and therefore loose information.

Remember from an earlier lecture and from last year, you have been told an important principle:

- **1. Sampling**, done properly, will NOT destroy information. That is, you can always get back the original signal with no loss of information.
- Quantization will almost always destroy information. It introduces errors, known as quantisation noise, that cannot be avoided.

The first statement is only true if sampling is done properly in the sense that you have retained enough samples of the original signals. "How much is enough?" is therefore an important question that requires a precise and definitive answer.

Sampling Theorem

- Bridge between continuous-time and discrete-time
- Tell us HOW OFTEN WE MUST SAMPLE in order not to loose any information

Sampling Theorem

A continuous-time signal x(t) with frequencies no higher than f_{max} (Hz) can be reconstructed EXACTLY from its samples $x[n] = x(nT_s)$, if the samples are taken at a rate $f_s = 1/T_s$ that is greater than $2f_{max}$.

- For example, the sinewave on previous slide is 100 Hz. We need to sample this at higher than 200 Hz (i.e. 200 samples per second) in order NOT to loose any data, i.e. to be able to reconstruct the 100 Hz sinewave exactly.
- fmax refers to the maximum frequency component in the signal that has significant energy.
- Consequence of violating sampling theorem is corruption of the signal in digital form.

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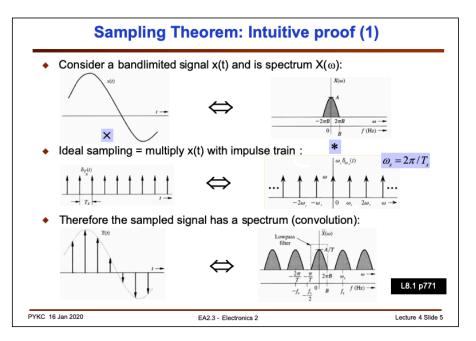
Sampling Theorem (sometimes also known as the Shannon Theorem or the Nyquist Theorem) provides the answer. It states that if the original signal has a MAXIMUM frequency component at f_{max} , then we MUST sample at 2 x f_{max} or higher in order NOT to loose information.

Simply put,

Sampling frequency fs ≥ 2 fmax

What if you ignore this rule and sample the signal too infrequently? You will corrupt the signal by introducing spurious signals through a phenomenon known as "aliasing". We will consider aliasing later and in the Lab.

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We can mathematically prove what happens to a signal when we sample it in both the time domain and the frequency domain, hence derive the sampling theorem.

Here is a non-mathematical way of proving the same thing using only what has been covered in this course so far, and in an intuitive, pictorial way.

Let us consider an original continuous time (CT) signal x(t). Assume that its energy is limited to frequency of $\pm B$ Hz.

If we sample x(t) at a frequency fs, where fs = 1/Ts and Ts is the sampling period, we get the bottom left waveform, which is the result fo multiplying x(t) with the sampling impulse train as shown here.

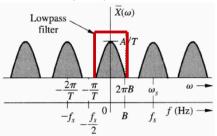
It will be shown in later lectures one very important principle:

MULTIPLYING TWO SIGNALS IN THE TIME DOMAIN IS EQUIVALENT TO CONVOLUTING THEIR SPECTRA IN THE FREQUENCY DOMAIN

The effect of **convoluting** the spectrum of the sampling impulse train with the original signal spectrum $X(\omega)$ is to **replicate** the shape of $X(\omega)$ wherever there is an impulse in the frequency spectrum as shown in the bottom right figure. Why this is the case is not important at the moment. For now, just accept this as a fact.

Sampling Theorem: Intuitive proof (2)

 Therefore, to reconstruct the original signal x(t), we can use an ideal lowpass filter on the sampled spectrum:



 This is only possible if the shaded parts do not overlap. This means that fs must be more than TWICE that of B.

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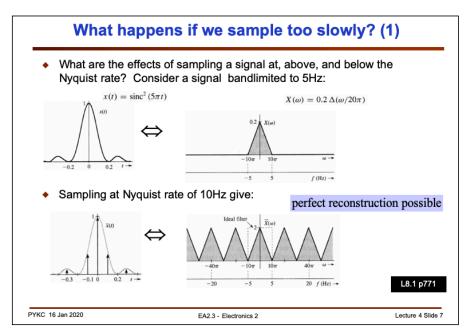
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Note that from this spectral diagram, you can see that the original signal x(t) is represented by the main shape in the spectral domain around frequency = 0. Sampling add all the other "spurious" parts to the spectrum, which were not found in the original spectrum.

There are two implications:

- 1. The first is that, if we apply a filter to the sampled signal, and extract the main spectral components within the RED rectangle in the frequency domain, we can recover the original signal with no loss of information. Here we show that the filtering process is a lowpass filter, where we only retain frequency components within ±B Hz, and remove all other high frequency components. This is known as "reconstruction".
- 2. In order to have perfect reconstruction, the neighbouring spectral contents MUST NOT overlap with the main spectrum. This is only guaranteed if fs ≥ 2B – which is the sampling theorem itself! (That is, we must sample the signal at a rate higher than twice that of the signal bandwidth.)

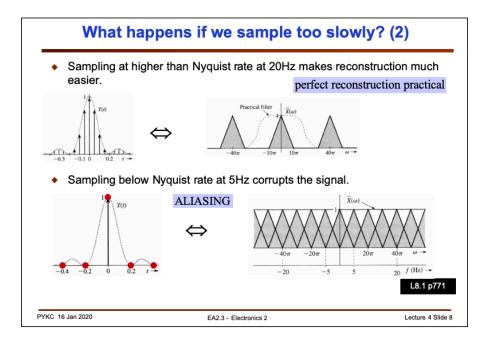
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Let us take another look at what happens if we sample too infrequently. Let us consider a concrete example of a band limited signal, where all signal energy is within 5Hz. The spectrum of the signal is as show here – a triangular spectrum between \pm 5Hz.

If we sample the signal at 10Hz, we obtain a series of impulses on the bottom left. Using what we know so far, we can predict that the spectrum of the sampled version of the original signal is as shown here.

Now we can get back the original spectrum if we apply a perfect reconstruction filter that eliminates ALL frequency components outside $\pm B$ Hz as shown.



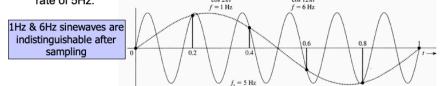
If we sample at higher than 10 Hz, then the effect is to push apart the triangles as shown, with gaps between them in the frequency spectrum. This makes reconstruction much easier – we can use a lowpass filter that is easy and economical to implement as shown. This is NORMALLY what is being done. We usually sample the signal with $fs \ge 4 \times fmax$ as shown here in order to make reconstruction easy.

However, if we sample the original signal at 5Hz,we will miss all the details and only see an impulse at t=0. This is because the spectral shapes now overlap each other AND corrupt the signal in a way that there is NO WAY BACK! Indeed, we see the the result is a spectrum that is constant at all frequency – the spectrum of an impulse at t=0!

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• Consider what happens when a 1Hz and a 6Hz sinewave is sampled at a rate of 5Hz.



 In general, if a sinusoid of frequency f Hz is sampled at fs samples/sec, then sampled version would appear as samples of a continuous-time sinusoid of frequency |f_a|in the band 0 to fs/2, where:

$$|f_a| = |f \pm mf_s|$$
 where $|f_a| \le \frac{f_s}{2}$, m is an integer

 In other words, the 6Hz sinusoid is FOLDED to 1Hz after being sampled at 5Hz.

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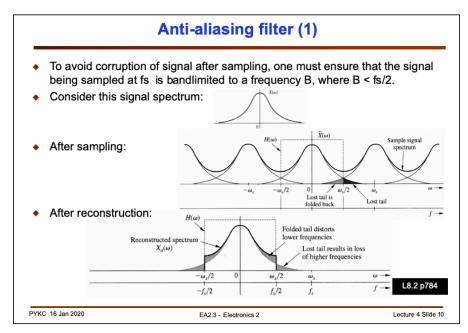
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This phenomenon is known as **aliasing** – which is a fancy term to describe the spectral folding effect of under-sampling.

Consider two sinusoidal signals, one at 1Hz and another at 6Hz. If the signal is sampled at a rate of 5Hz, we will GET EXACTLY THE SAME sample values for both signals. In other words, we CANNOT tell whether the original signal is at 1Hz or is at 6Hz. After sampling, they both yield the same sampled values.

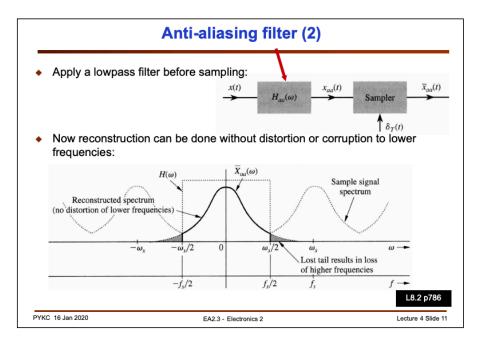
In other words, if we sample a sinusoid at frequency fa using sampling frequency of fs, any frequencies components $f = fa \pm mfs$ will appear as fa after sampling. So 6Hz, 11Hz, 16Hz will all appears to be a 1Hz sinusoid after sampling – we cannot tell them apart!

This spectral folding is known as aliaising.

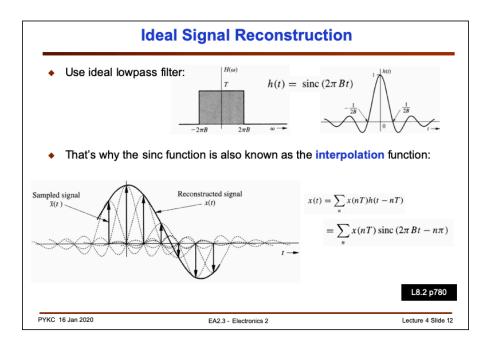


The consequence of this theorem is that, in order to avoid corruption of the information (signal), we MUST limit the bandwidth of the signal, BEFORE sampling taking place. In the diagram here, the original signal has very small energy at the tail of the spectrum as shown.

After sampling, the tail energy components (shaded part) get folder back to the main spectral region, and corrupts part of the signal.



In order to avoid such corrupt, we must always apply a lowpass filter to the continuous time signal BEFORE sampling is performed. This cuts off the energy beyond fs/2, and therefore avoid corrupting the original signal spectrum (and hence the original signal) because now there is NO aliasing or spectral folding.



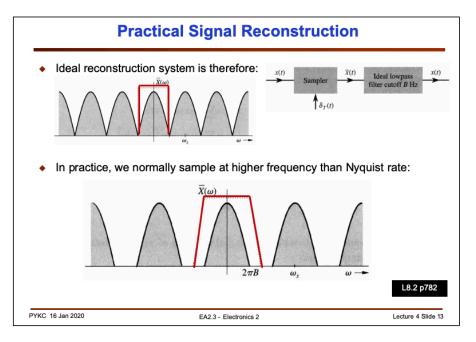
We have seen that we can get back the original continuous time signal x(t) from the sampled version by applying an ideal lowpass filter which as rectangular spectrum as shown. That is to say, we MULTIPLY the sampled signal spectrum with the rectangular filter, and the result is the spectrum of the original signal $X(\omega)$.

The time-domain version of the rectangular filter is a sinc function! Because of the spectral shape has abrupt edges (fast changes) in frequency, it results in the time domain equivalent having signals at large value of t (i.e. goes on forever).

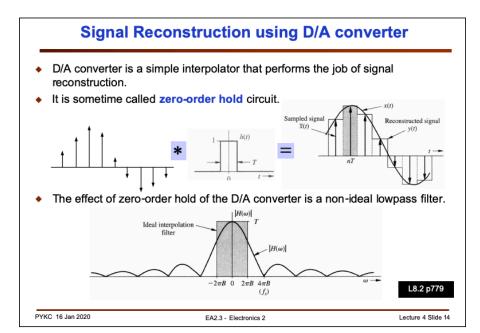
Here is another general principle: abrupt changes in time cause high frequency components in frequency domain; converse abrupt changes in frequency domain cause time domain signals that goes on for a long time (i.e. high time values).

The sinc function is also known as the interpolation function – we could use this to reconstruct (interpolate) the samples and get back the original signal. However, sinc function goes on forever – no very practical to use in real systems.

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So in practice, we DON'T use the sinc function for reconstruction. Instead we sample the signal at highest than Nyquist rate (i.e. fs >> 2 fmax), introducing the gaps, and therefore allow us to use much gentle filter with less abrupt changes in the spectral domain.



In real electronics, we use a DAC to perform the reconstruction of the continuous time signal from discrete signal samples. Without proving anything, what this does is to "convolve" the discrete signal samples with a pulse signal in the time domain. This is equivalent to multiplying (apply) a filter with a sinc function in the frequency domain as shown here. While this is NOT ideal (as shown in the rectangular filter), it is close. Further, it will leak some of the high frequency components (hence the output of a DAC is rugged). We can remove these by following the DAC with a simple RC type lowpass filter to get rid of those high frequencies.