
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

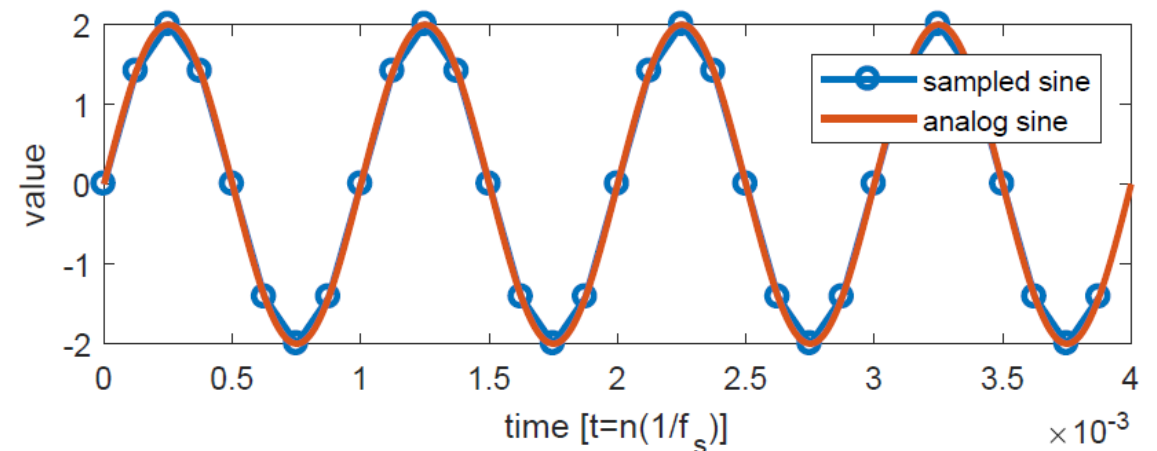
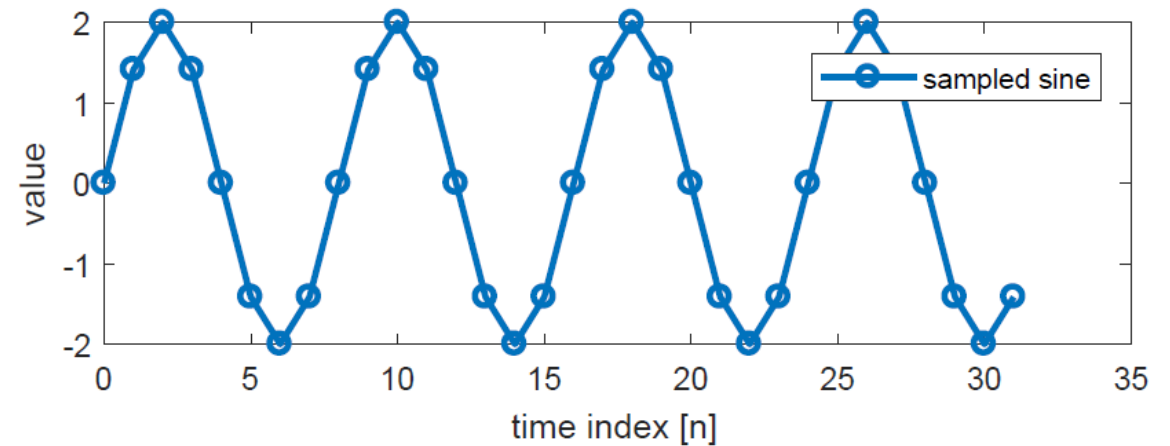
Table 2.1

| Variable | Units | Relationships | Ranges |
|----------|-----------------|---|-----------------------------|
| Ω | rads/sec | $\Omega = 2\pi f$ | $-\infty < \Omega < \infty$ |
| f | cycles/sec (Hz) | $f = \frac{\Omega}{2\pi} = \frac{\omega f_s}{2\pi}$ | $-\infty < f < \infty$ |
| ω | 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 π or definition over a 2π interval
 - Consider $e^{j(\omega+2\pi k)}$

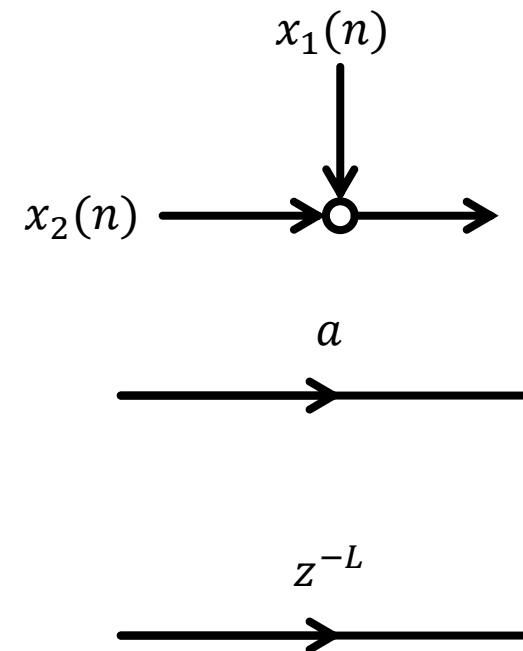
EXAMPLE 2.1

- $A=2$; $f=1000$; $f_s = 8000$;
- $n=0:31$;
- $w = 2*\pi*f/f_s$;
- $x = A*\sin(w*n)$;
- $h=figure$;
- `%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/f_s),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)



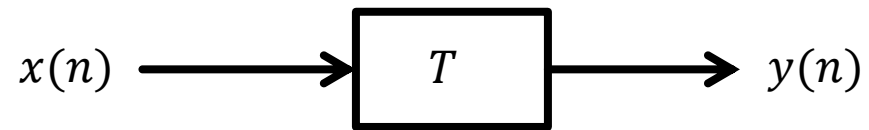
Multiplication in z domain

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

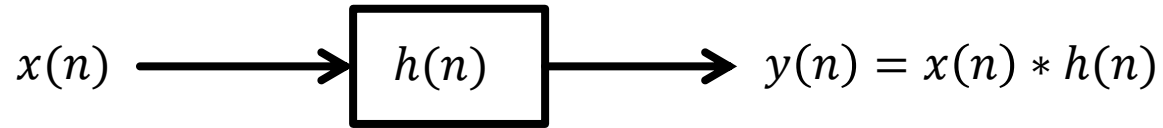
- $\mathcal{Z}\{x(n - k)\} = z^{-k}X(z)$

- Convolution

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

- $\text{ROC} = R_{x1} \cap R_{x2}$

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]);`

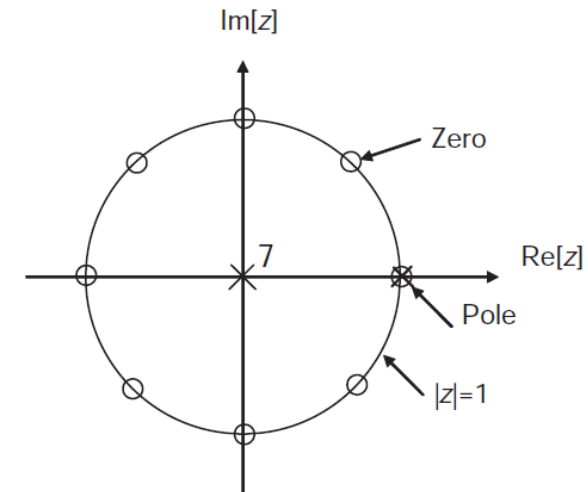


Figure 2.12 Pole-zero diagram of the moving-averaging filter, $L = 8$

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 $|z| = |e^{j\omega}|$

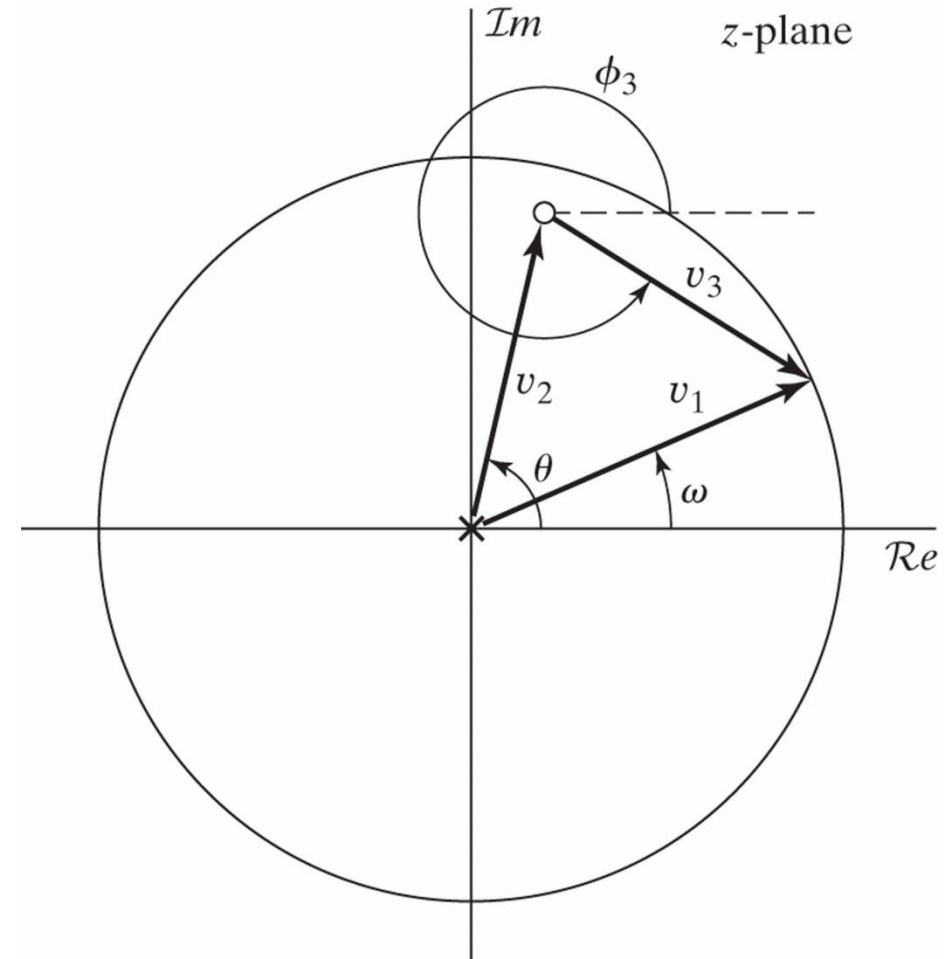
$$H(\omega) = |H(\omega)|e^{\angle H(\omega)}$$

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

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

GRAPHICAL DTFT INTERPRETATION

- Poles
 - $|H(\omega)|$ gets larger closer to θ
- Zeros
 - $|H(\omega)|$ gets smaller closer to θ
- 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 ω
 - 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

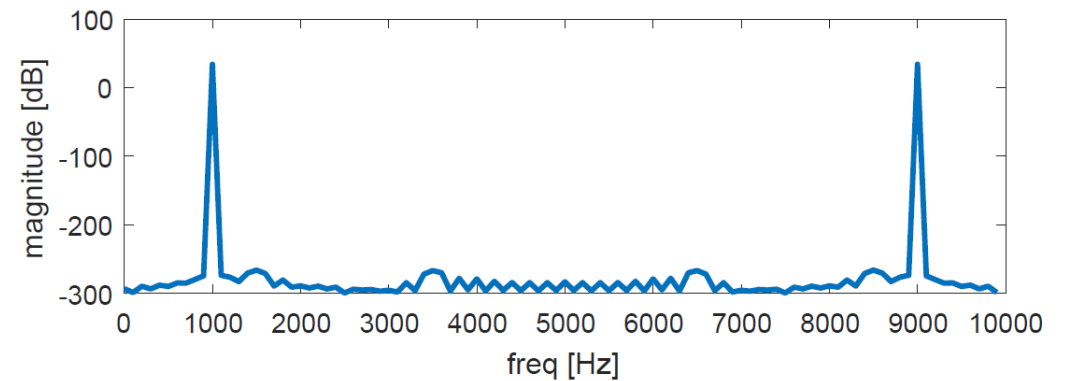
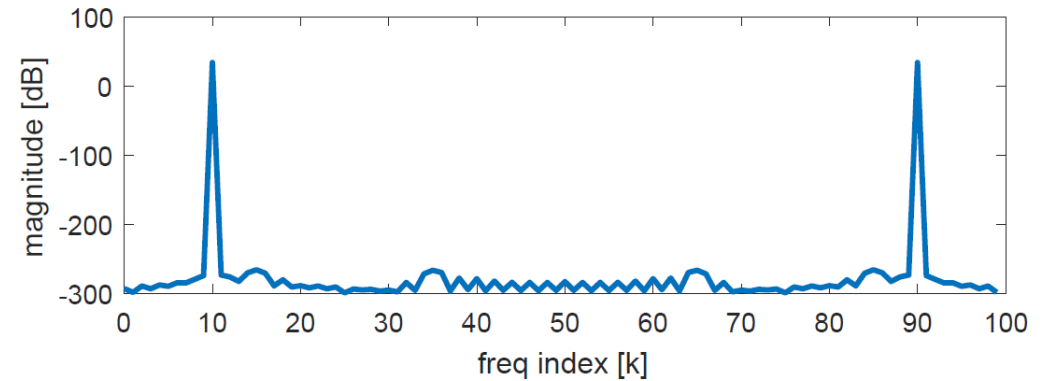
DFT IMPLEMENTATION

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

- 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 $k = \frac{N}{2}$

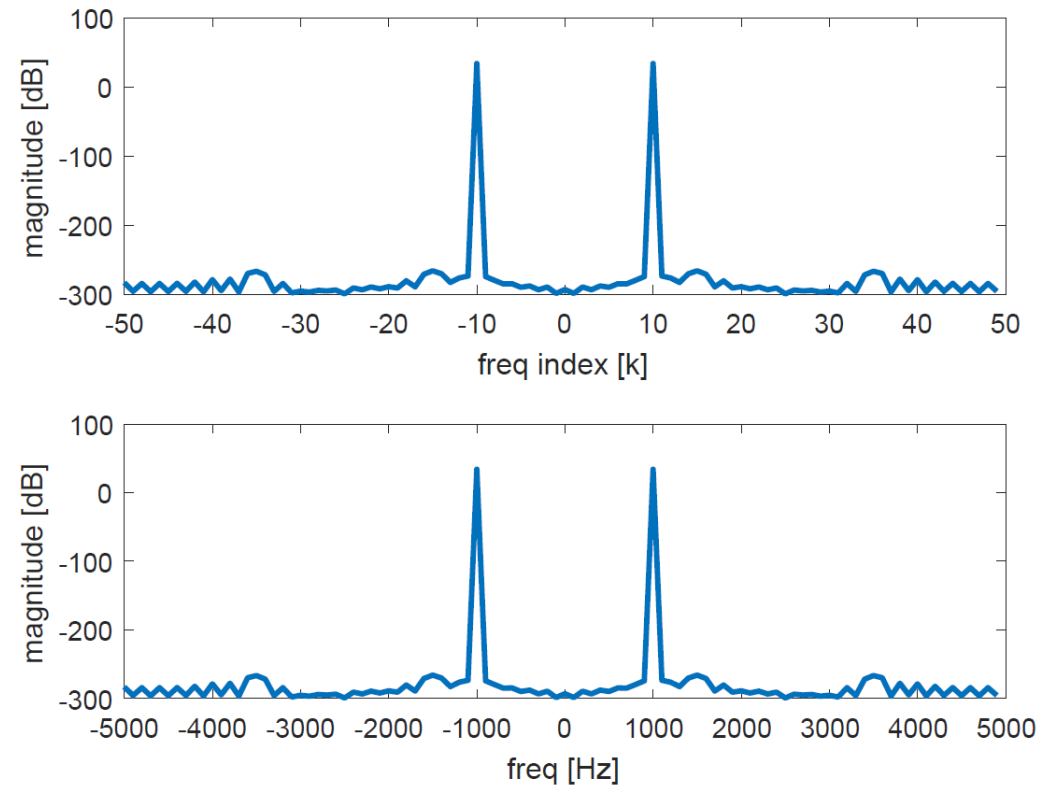
EXAMPLE 2.16

- `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
- $$f(X) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{X_2 - X_1} & X_1 \leq x \leq X_2 \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$
- Be sure you can calculate mean and variance
- Be aware that the book is a little sloppy in notation
 - RV x vs X

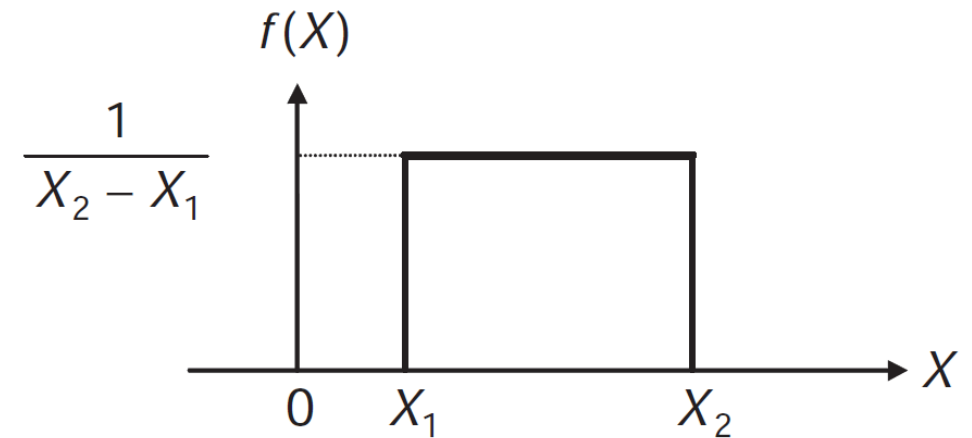


Figure 2.17 The uniform density function

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

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

sign bit binary point msb lsb

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

- 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
 - $Q_n.m = Q\#\text{integer}.\#\text{fraction}$
 - 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)
 - $SQNR = \frac{\sigma_x^2}{\sigma_e^2} = 3.2^{2B} \sigma_x^2$
 - $SQNR = 4.77 + 6.02B + 10 \log_{10} \sigma_x^2 \text{ dB}$

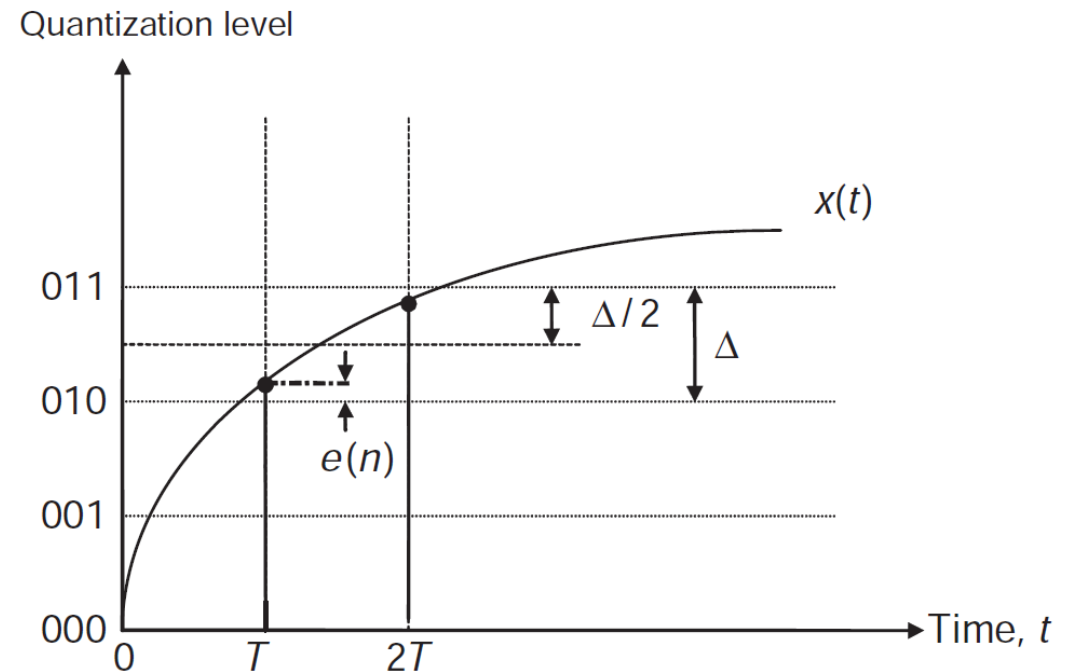


Figure 2.21 Quantization process related to a 3-bit ADC

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)

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

- 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

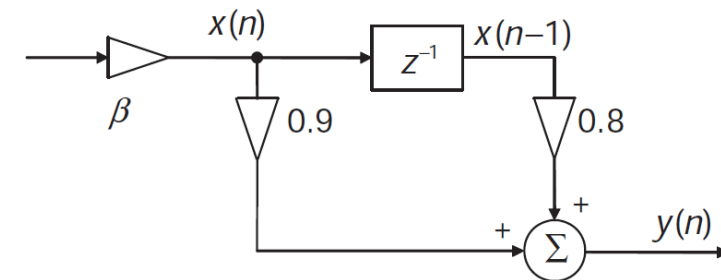


Figure 2.24 Block diagram of simple FIR filter with scaling factor β

- Notice: this reduces the SQNR
 - $SQNR = 10 \log_{10} \left(\frac{\beta^2 \sigma_x^2}{\sigma_e^2} \right)$
 - $SQNR = 4.77 + 6.02B + 10 \log_{10} \sigma_x^2 + \underbrace{20 \log_{10} \beta}_{\text{Negative since } \beta < 1} \text{ dB}$