

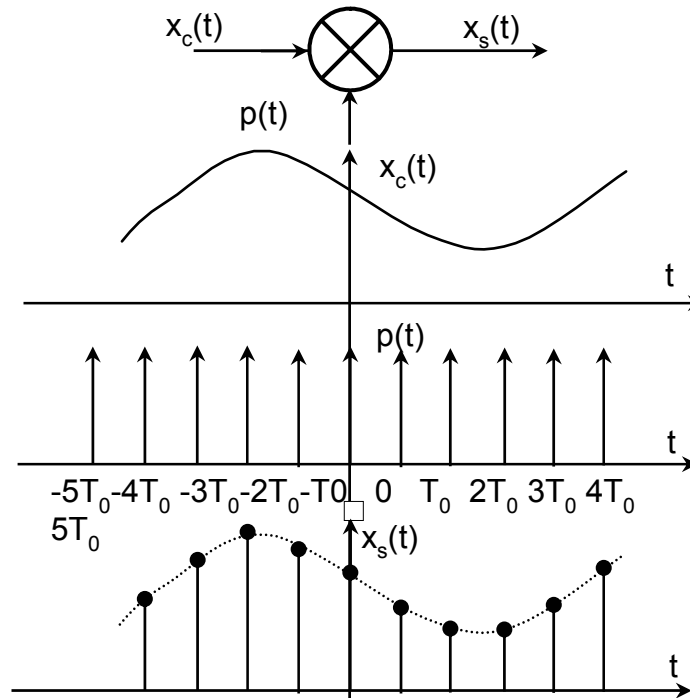
# SAMPLING AND RECONSTRUCTION OF SIGNALS

The sampling theorem states that to reconstruct any analog signal from its samples, the sampling frequency  $\omega_0$  must be at least twice the signal's maximum frequency  $\omega_m$ :

$$\omega_0 \geq 2\omega_m$$

Sampling is a presentation of the continuous-time signal  $x_c(t)$  by a series of samples  $x[nT_0]$ .

Consider a signal  $x_s(t)$  defined as the product of two signals:  $x_c(t)$ -is an original signal and  $p(t)$  -is a periodic impulse train or Dirac distribution.



$$x_s(t) = x_c(t)p(t)$$

$$p(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{+\infty} \delta(t - kT_0)$$

$$x_s(t) = x_c(t)p(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{+\infty} x_c(t)\delta(t - kT_0) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{+\infty} x_c(kT_0)\delta(t - kT_0)$$

The spectrum of the Dirac distribution  $p(t)$  is itself a periodic train.

$$P(\omega) = \frac{2\pi}{T_0} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{+\infty} \delta(\omega - k\omega_0)$$

The spectrum  $X_s(\omega)$  of the output signal  $x_s(t)$

$$X_s(\omega) = \frac{1}{2\pi} [X_c(\omega) * P(\omega)] = \frac{1}{T_0} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{+\infty} X_c(\omega - k\omega_0)$$

The spectrum of the signals are shown in Figure 5.2; where  $X_c(\omega)$  is arbitrary.  
The distance between two adjacent replicated spectra is called a guard band

$$B_g = \omega_0 - 2\omega_m$$

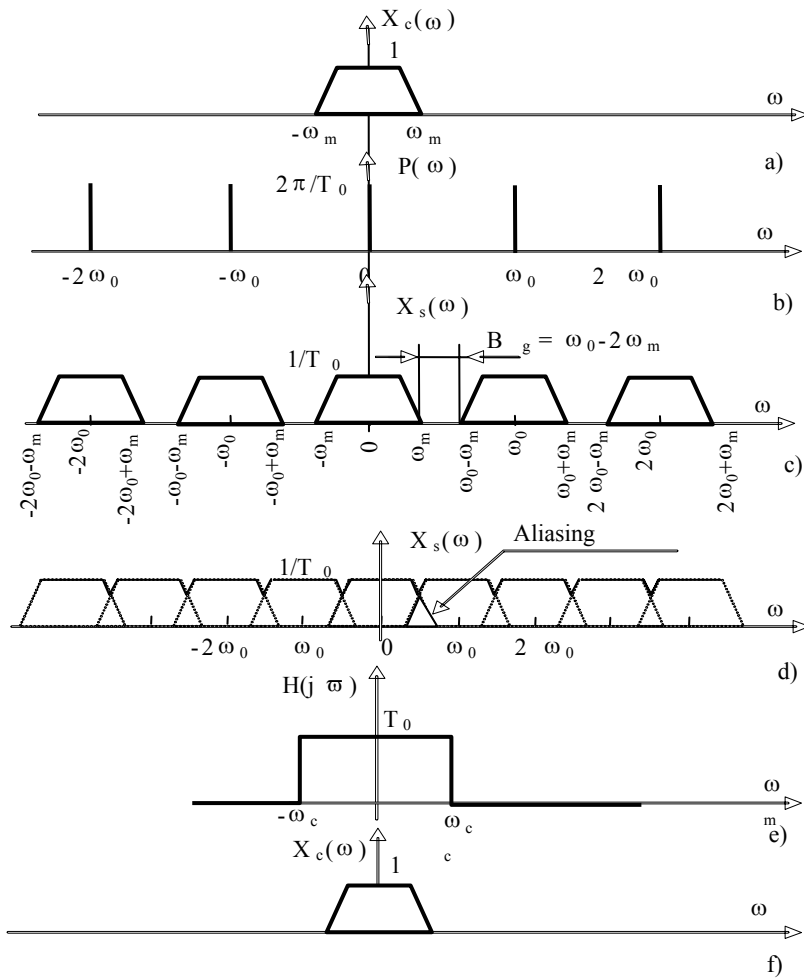


Figure 5.2

Example 5.1 A band limited signal has a bandwidth equal to 200 Hz. What sampling rate should be used to guarantee a guard band of 100 Hz.

Solution:  $F_m=200$  Hz;  $B_g=100$  Hz.  $B_g = F_0 - 2F_m$ ;  $100 = F_0 - 2 \times 200$ ;  $F_0 = 300$  Hz.

**The following three cases present practical interest:**

**Under sampling:**  $\omega_0 < 2\omega_m$

**Nyquist rate:**  $\omega_0 = 2\omega_m$

**Over sampling:**  $\omega_0 > 2\omega_m$

From Figure 5.2 it is evident that when  $\omega_0 - \omega_m > \omega_m$  or  $\omega_0 > 2\omega_m$  the spectrum of  $X_s(\omega)$  don't overlap (see Figure 5.2 (c)). and consequently it can be recovered from its samples with ideal low-pass filter having a frequency response  $H(j\omega)$  (see Figure 5.2 (e)). If  $\omega_0 > 2\omega_m$ , output of the filter corresponds to  $X_c(\omega)$  (see Figure 5.2 (f)). If  $\omega_0 > 2\omega_m$  does not hold, i.e  $\omega_0 < 2\omega_m$  the spectrum  $X_s(\omega)$  overlap (see Figure 5.2 (d)) and  $x_c(t)$  is not recoverable by low pass filtering because of side-band distortion. This high frequency distortion is called an aliasing.

## Reconstruction of a Bandlimited Signal From Its Samples

According to the sampling theorem, samples of a continuous-time band limited signal taken frequently enough are sufficient to represent the signal exactly in the sense that the signal can be recovered from the samples. Impulse train modulation provides a convenient means for understanding the process of reconstructing the continuous-time bandlimited signal from its samples.

If the conditions of the sampling theorem are met and if the modulated impulse train is filtered by an appropriate low-pass filter, then the Fourier transform of the filter output will be identical to the Fourier transform of the original continuous-time signal  $x_c(t)$ , and thus the output of the filter will be  $x_c^*(t)$ . If  $x_c(nT_0)$  is the input to an ideal low-pass continuous time filter with frequency response  $H_r(j\omega)$  and impulse response  $h_r(t)$ , then the output of the filter will be

$$x_c^*(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x_c[nT_0] h_r[t - nT_0] \quad (5.1)$$

A block diagram representation of this signal reconstruction process is shown in Figure 5.3.

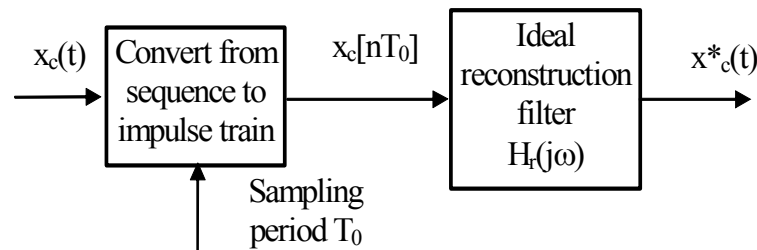


Figure 5.3

$$H(\omega) = \begin{cases} T_0 & \text{if } |\omega| < \omega_c \\ 0 & \text{if } |\omega| > \omega_c \end{cases}$$

$$h_r(t) = \frac{T_0}{2\pi} \int_{-\omega_c}^{\omega_c} e^{j\omega t} d\omega = \frac{T_0}{2\pi} \frac{1}{jt} [e^{j\omega t}]_{-\omega_c}^{\omega_c} =$$

$$= \frac{T_0}{\pi t} \frac{e^{j\omega_c t} + e^{-j\omega_c t}}{2j} = \frac{\sin \pi t / T_0}{\pi t / T_0}$$

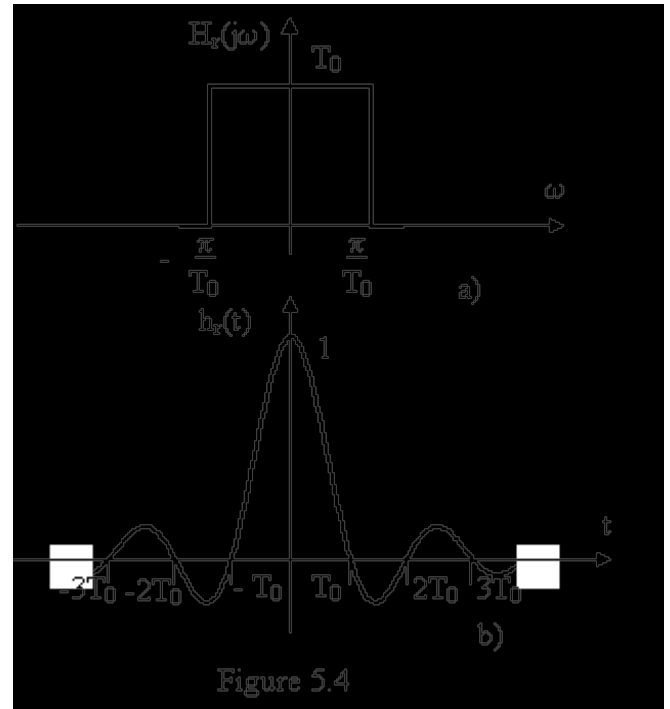
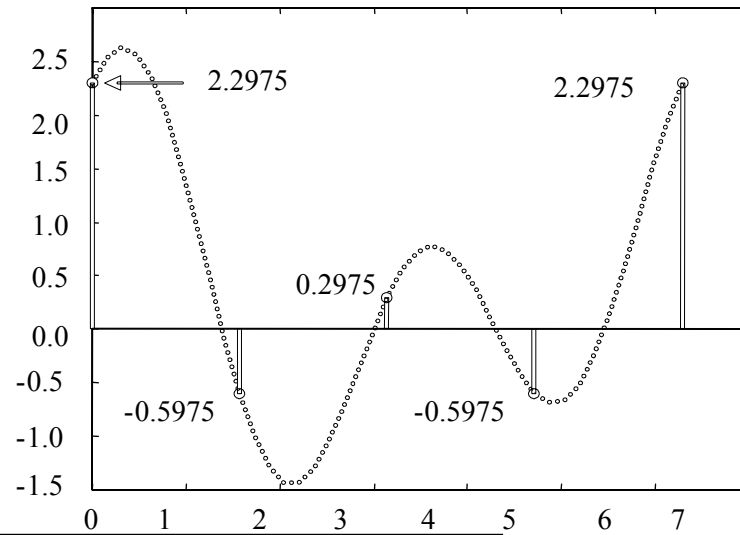


Figure 5.4

```

» t=0:2*pi/40:2*pi;
» s=0.35+sin(t+pi/2)+
1.34*sin(2*t+pi/4);
» plot(t,s)
»hold on
» t=0:2*pi/4:2*pi;
» s=0.35+sin(t+pi/2)+
1.34*sin(2*t+pi/4);
» stem(t,s,'fill','k')

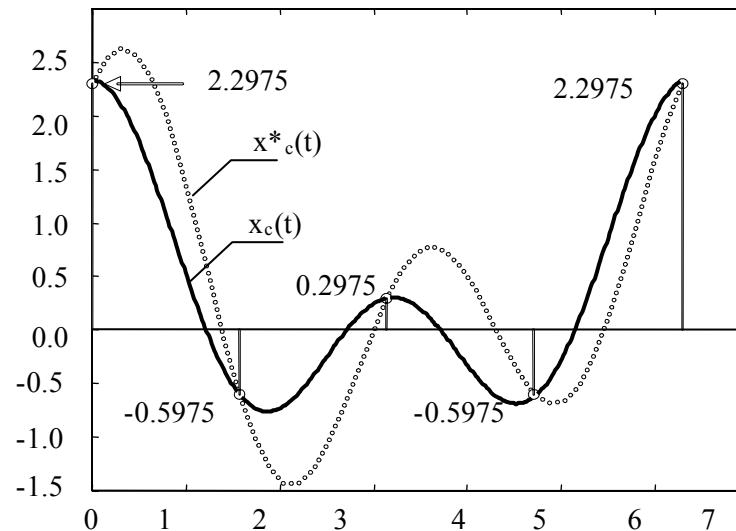
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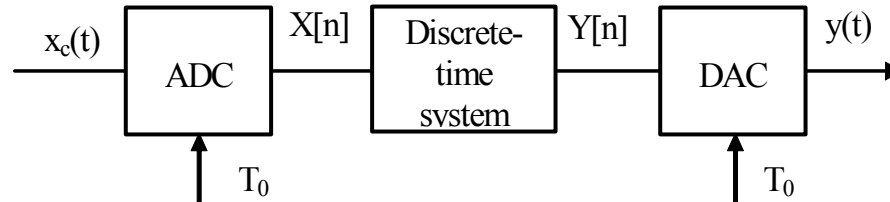
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» sxms t k
» x1=sin(2*(t -(4*k*pi/2)))/(2*(t -(4*k*pi/2))); z1=sxmsum(x1,k, -2,2);
» x2=sin(2*(t -(4*k+1)*pi/2))/(2*(t -(4*k+1)*pi/2)); z2=sxmsum(x2,k, -2,2);
» x3=sin(2*(t -(4*k+2)*pi/2))/(2*(t -(4*k+2)*pi/2)); z3=sxmsum(x3,k, -2,2);
» x3=sin(2*(t -(4*k+3)*pi/2))/(2*(t -(4*k+3)*pi/2)); z4=sxmsum(x3,k, -2,2);
» x3=sin(2*(t -(4*k+4)*pi/2))/(2*(t -(4*k+4)*pi/2)); z5=sxmsum(x3,k, -2,2);
» x*c=2.2975*z1 -0.5975*z2+0.2975*z3 -0.5975*z4; ezplot(x*c,[0 2*pi])

```



A major application of discrete-time systems is the processing of continuous-time signals. This is accomplished by a system of the general form depicted in Figure 5.8



ADC- Analog-to-digital converter; DAC- Digital –to-analog converter

## Sampling Interval and Lagrange Approximation

Interpolation means to estimate a missing function value by taking weighted average values at neighboring points.

The general form of Lagrange approximation passing true  $N+1$  points  $(t_0, x_0), \dots, (t_n, x_n)$  is defined as

$$P_{N,K}(x) = \sum_{K=0}^N x_K L_{N,K}(t)$$

Where  $L_{N,K}(x)$  are called Lagrange coefficient polynomials.

$$L_{N,K}(t) = \frac{(t - t_0) \dots (t - t_{K-1})(t - t_{K+1}) \dots (t - t_N)}{(t_K - t_0) \dots (t_K - t_{K-1})(t_K - t_{K+1}) \dots (t_K - t_N)} \quad (5.4)$$



The Lagrange polynomial passing through the 2 points  $(t_1, x_1)$  and  $(t_2, x_2)$  is linear interpolation

$$P_1(x) = \sum_{K=0}^1 x_K L_{1,K}(t) = x_0 L_{1,0}(t) + x_1 L_{1,1}(t) \quad (5.5)$$

$$L_{1,0}(t) = \frac{t - t_1}{t_0 - t_1}; \quad L_{1,1}(t) = \frac{t - t_0}{t_1 - t_0}$$

The Lagrange parabolic interpolating polynomial passing through 3 points  $(t_0, x_0)$ ,  $(t_1, x_1)$  and  $(t_2, x_2)$  is

$$P_2(t) = \sum_{K=0}^2 x_K L_{2,K}(t)$$

$$L_{2,0}(t) = \frac{(t - t_1)(t - t_2)}{(t_0 - t_1)(t_0 - t_2)} \quad L_{2,1}(t) = \frac{(t - t_0)(t - t_2)}{(t_1 - t_0)(t_1 - t_2)} \quad L_{2,2}(t) = \frac{(t - t_0)(t - t_1)}{(t_2 - t_0)(t_2 - t_1)}$$

For equally spaced nodes with  $t_0=0$ ,  $t_1=1$  and  $t_2=2$

$$L_{2,0}(t) = \frac{(t-1)(t-2)}{2}; \quad L_{2,1}(t) = -t(t-2); \quad L_{2,2}(t) = \frac{t(t-1)}{2}$$

$$P_2(t) = y_0 \frac{(t-1)(t-2)}{2} - y_1 t(t-2) + y_2 \frac{t(t-1)}{2}$$

Error of approximation

$$\varepsilon(t) = x_c(t) - P_{N,K}(t)$$

Sampling intervals  $T_0$  for  $N=0; 1; 2$  are defined as following.

$N=0$  – staircase approximation see (Figure 5.13)

$$T_0 = \frac{\varepsilon}{M_1}; \quad (5.7)$$

$N=1$  – Linear interpolation (see Figure 5.14)

$$T_1 = \sqrt{\frac{8\varepsilon}{M_2}}; \quad M_2 = |x''(t)| \quad (5.8)$$

$N=2$  – Parabolic interpolation

$$T_2 = \sqrt[3]{\frac{15,6}{M_3}}; \quad M_3 = |x'''(t)| \quad (5.9)$$

where  $M_1, M_2$  and  $M_3$  are the 1<sup>st</sup>, 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> order derivatives absolute values.

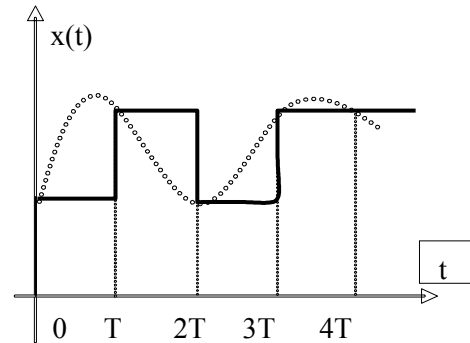


Figure 5.13

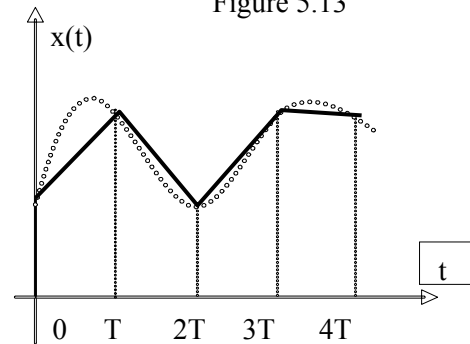


Figure 5.14

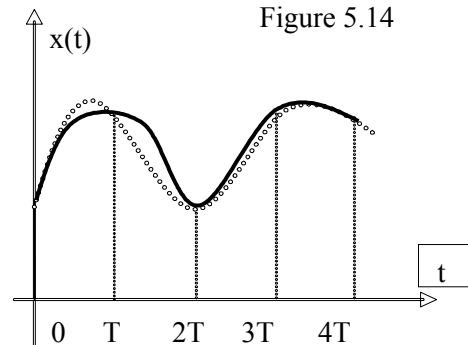


Figure 5.15

Example 5.4. Using the Matlab files perform staircase and linear approximation of  $y=\sin(t)$  for  $t = 0: 2\pi$ .

In Figure 5.16 are shown staircase (a) and linear (b) interpolations of the sinusoidal signal using the Matlab files.

```
» t=0:pi/100:2*pi; y=sin(t); plot(t,y,'k'); hold on  
» t=0:pi/4:2*pi; y=sin(t); stem(t,y,'k','fill'); hold on  
» stairs(t,y) set(gca,'xtick',[0 pi/4 pi/2 3pi/4 pi 5pi/4 6pi/4 7pi/4 2pi])  
» t=0:2*pi/100:2*pi; y=sin(t); ti=0:pi/4:2*pi; yi=interp1(t,y,ti); plot(t,y,ti,yi)
```

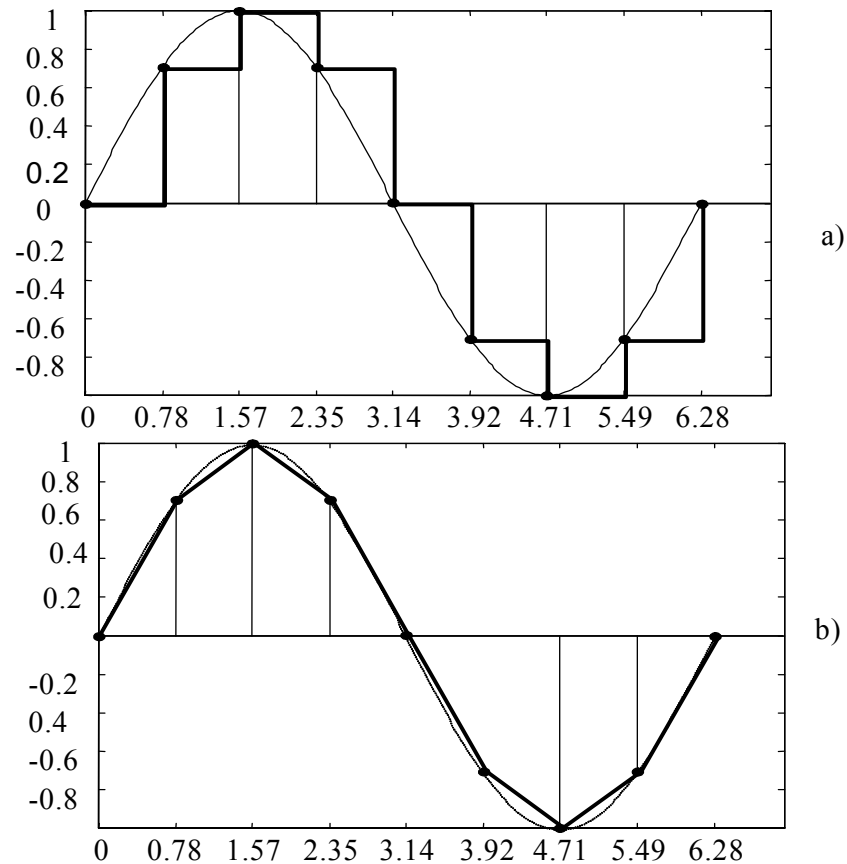


Figure 5.16