

## Analog Signals

### Music 171: Fundamentals of Digital Audio

Tamara Smyth, trsmyth@ucsd.edu  
Department of Music,  
University of California, San Diego (UCSD)

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- A **signal**, of which a sinusoid is only one example, is a set, or sequence of numbers.
- The term “analog” refers to the fact that it is “analogous” of the signal it represents.
- A “real-world” signal is captured using a microphone which has a diaphragm that is pushed back and forth according to the compression and rarefaction of the sounding pressure waveform.



Figure 1: The electrical signal used to represent the pressure variations of a sound wave is an analog signal.

- The microphone transforms this displacement into a time-varying voltage—an analog electrical signal.

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Music 171: Fundamentals of Digital Audio

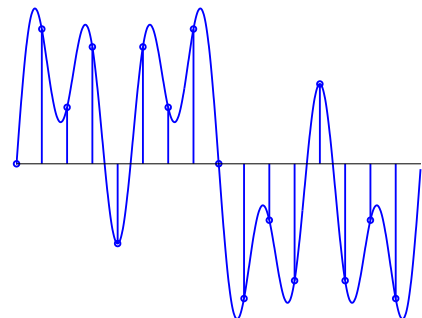
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## Continuous-Time Signals

- Analog signals are *continuous* in time.
- A **continuous-time** signal is an *infinite* and *uncountable* sequence of numbers, as are the possible values each number can have.
  - between a start and end time, there are infinite possible values for time  $t$  and the waveform’s instantaneous amplitude  $x(t)$ .
- A continuous signal cannot be stored, or processed, in a computer since it would require infinite data.
- Analog signals must be *discretized* (*digitized*) to produce a finite set of numbers for computer use.

## Discrete-Time, Digital Signals

- When analog signals are brought into a computer, they must be made *discrete* (finite and countable).
- A **discrete-time signal** is a *finite* sequence of numbers, with finite possible values for each number.
  - number values are limited by how many bits are used to represent them (*bit depth*);
  - can be stored on a digital storage medium.



- **Sampling:** the process of taking individual values of a continuous-time signal (at regular time intervals).

## Analog to Digital Conversion

- The process by which an analog signal is digitized is called *analog-to-digital* or “a-to-d” conversion
- **analog-to-digital converter (ADC)**: the device that discretizes (digitizes) an analog signal.
- The ADC must accomplish two (2) tasks:
  1. **sampling**:
    - taking values (samples) at regular time intervals;
  2. **quantization**:
    - assign a number to the value (using limited computer bits).

## Sampling

- **Sampling**: process of taking values (samples) of the analog waveform at regularly spaced time intervals.

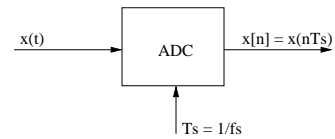


Figure 2: The ideal analog-to-digital converter.

- **Sampling Rate**: number of samples taken per second (Hz);
  - $f_s = 48$  kHz (professional studio)
  - $f_s = 44.1$  kHz (CD)
  - $f_s = 32$  kHz (broadcasting)
- **Sampling Period**: time interval (in seconds) between samples:

$$T_s = 1/f_s \text{ seconds.}$$

## Sampled Sinusoids

- Sampling corresponds to transforming the continuous time variable  $t$  into a set of discrete times that are integer  $n$  multiples of the sampling period  $T_s$ :

$$t \longrightarrow nT_s.$$

- Integer  $n$  corresponds to the *index* in the sequence.
- **Continuous sinusoid**:

$$x(t) = A \sin(\omega t + \phi).$$

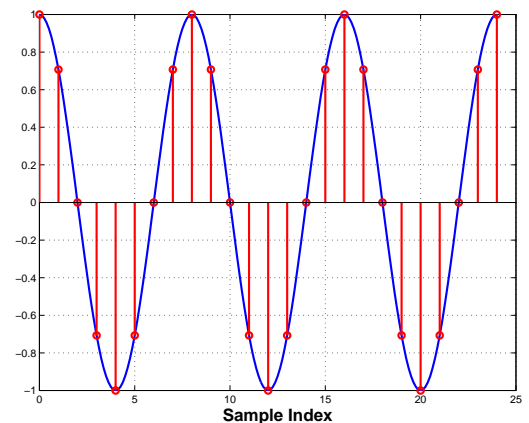
- **Discrete sinusoid**

$$x(n) = A \sin(\omega nT_s + \phi),$$

a sequence of numbers that may be indexed by  $n$ .

## Question 1

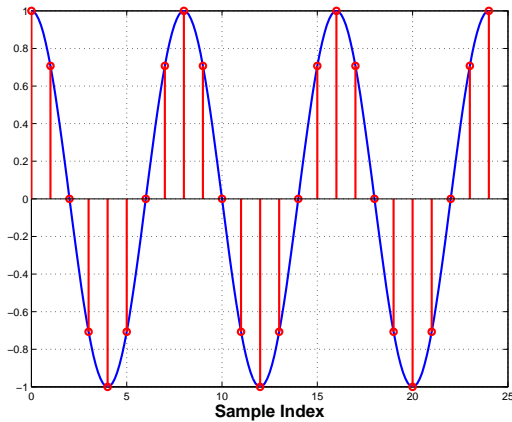
- If the following sinusoid was sampled at  $f_s = 16$  Hz,
  - what is the **duration** of the signal shown?



- What would the duration be if  $f_s = 32$ ?

## Answer 1

- If  $f_s = 16$ , what is the **duration** shown?



- The **sampling period** (time between samples) is

$$T_s = 1/16 \text{ s.}$$

Since 24 samples are shown, the **duration** is

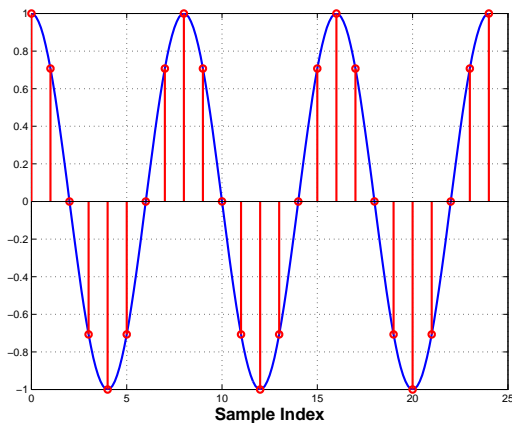
$$24 \times T_s = \frac{24}{16} = \frac{3}{2} = 1.5 \text{ s.}$$

- If  $f_s = 32$ , the **duration** is shorter:

$$24 \times T_s = \frac{24}{32} = \frac{3}{4} = .75 \text{ s.}$$

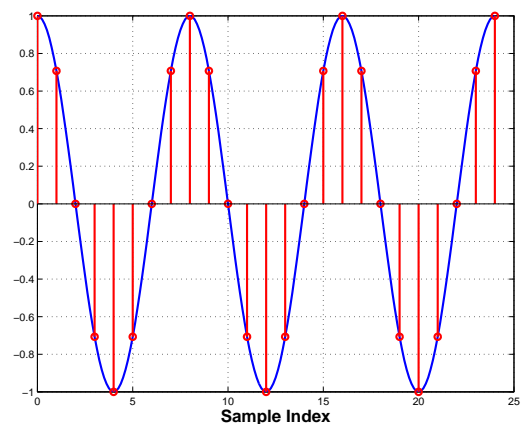
## Question 2

- If the following sinusoid was sampled at  $f_s = 16$  Hz,  
– what is the **frequency** of the sinusoid?



## Answer 2 (Method 1)

- If  $f_s = 16$ , what is the **frequency** of the sinusoid?

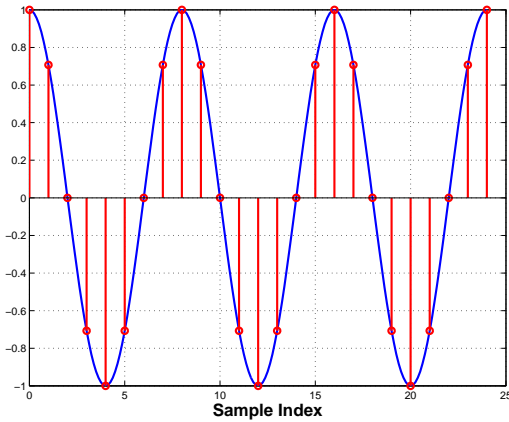


- **Method 1:**

- 16 samples corresponds to 1 second,
- there are 2 cycles in 1 second (after 16 samples),
- the **frequency** is 2 Hz.

## Answer 2 (Method 2)

- If  $f_s = 16$ , what is the **frequency** of the sinusoid?



- **Method 2:** the **period** of the sinusoid is

$$T = 8 \times T_s = \frac{8}{16} = \frac{1}{2},$$

and the **frequency** is

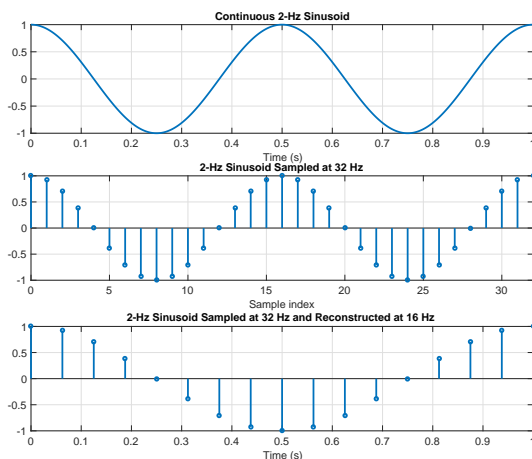
$$f = \frac{1}{T} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{2}} = 2 \text{ Hz.}$$

- If  $f_s = 32$ , then the **frequency is higher:**

$$f = \frac{1}{T} = \frac{32}{8} = 4 \text{ Hz.}$$

## Sampling and Reconstruction

- Once  $x(t)$  is sampled to produce  $x(n)$ , *time scale information is lost*.
- $x(n)$  may represent a number of possible waveforms.



- Reconstructing at half the sampling rate ( $F_s/2$ ) will double the time between samples ( $2/F_s$ ), making the sinusoid **twice as long** and **halving the frequency**.

## Importance of Knowing Sampling Rate

- If the signal is digitized and reconstructed *using the same sampling rate*, the frequency and duration will be preserved.
- If reconstruction is done *using a different sampling rate*, the **time interval between samples changes** resulting in a change in
  - overall signal **duration**,
  - time to complete one cycle (**period**) and thus sounding **frequency**.

### Question 3

- A 220-Hz sinusoid is sampled at  $f_{s1} = 44100$ . It is then played on an audio system having a different sampling rate of  $f_{s2} = 22050$  Hz.
  - At what **frequency** will the sinusoid sound?

### Answer 3

- If a 220-Hz sinusoid sampled at  $f_{s1} = 44100$  Hz is played back at  $f_{s2} = 22050$  Hz ( $f_{s1}/2$ ), then the
  - **period** between the samples will be twice as long:

$$T_{s2} = \frac{1}{f_{s2}} = \frac{1}{22050} = \frac{2}{44100} = \frac{2}{f_{s1}},$$

- and the **period** of oscillation will double:

$$T_2 = 2T_1 = \frac{2}{f_1} = \frac{2}{220} \text{ s},$$

- and the corresponding **frequency** will be halved (sound an octave lower):

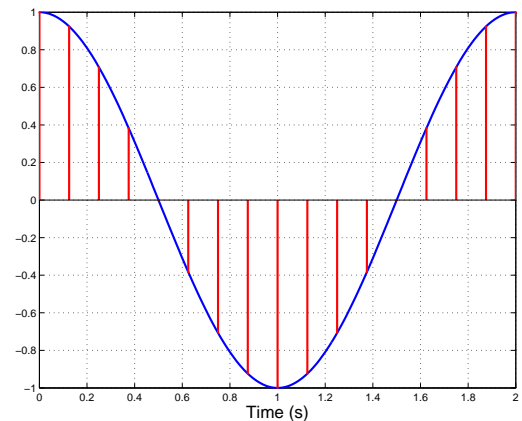
$$f_2 = \frac{1}{T_2} = \frac{220}{2} = 110 \text{ Hz}.$$

### Sampling in Practice II

- In the Beatles track “In My Life” (1:28) there is a Baroque-style piano solo composed and played by George Martin:
  - **piano solo**
- Problem:** George Martin’s couldn’t play fast enough
- Solution:**
  - play an octave lower and at half tempo
  - record at 1/2 sampling rate (or “speed” if analog),
  - play back at twice the rate at which it was recorded.
- Effect:** The distortion creates a sort of harpsichord sound at the regular tempo and pitch. Why?
- Listen to how the original sound regains a piano quality when played at 1/2 the sampling rate:
  - **piano solo at 1/2 sampling rate**
- Note: Beatles recordings were actually analog, but the same principles apply!

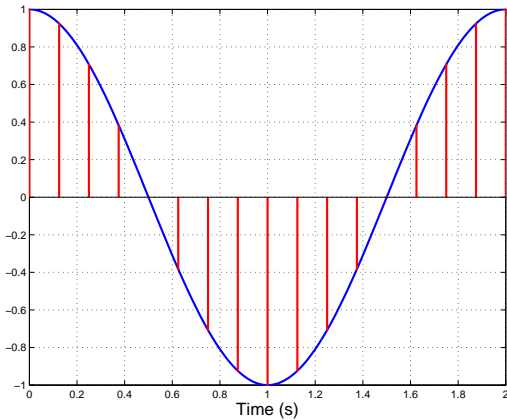
### Question 4

- What is the **sampling rate** and **frequency** of the following sinusoid?



## Answer 4

- Give the sinusoid's **sampling rate** and **frequency**.



- The period is 2 seconds (or, there is 1/2 cycle after 1 second) and the **frequency** is 1/2 Hz.
- The sinusoid has 8 samples in 1 second and thus the **sampling rate** is  $f_s = 8$  Hz.
- The period has 16 samples and is thus  $16 \times 1/8 = 2$  seconds long. The frequency is thus .5 Hz.

## Implications of Sampling

- Is a sampled sequence only an approximation of the original?
- Is it possible to *perfectly* reconstruct a sampled signal?
- Will anything less than an infinite sampling rate introduce error?
- How frequently must we sample in order to “faithfully” reproduce an analog waveform?

## Nyquist Sampling Theorem

- The **Nyquist Sampling Theorem** states that:

A bandlimited continuous-time signal can be sampled and perfectly reconstructed from its samples if the waveform is sampled over twice as fast as it's highest frequency component.

- **Nyquist limit**: the highest frequency component that can be accurately represented:

$$f_{\max} < f_s/2.$$

- **Nyquist frequency**: sampling rate required to accurately represent up to  $f_{\max}$ :

$$f_s > 2f_{\max}.$$

- **No information is lost** if sampling above  $2f_{\max}$ .
- **No information is gained** by sampling much faster than  $2f_{\max}$ .
- Is  $f_s = 44,100$  Hz (CD-quality) enough?

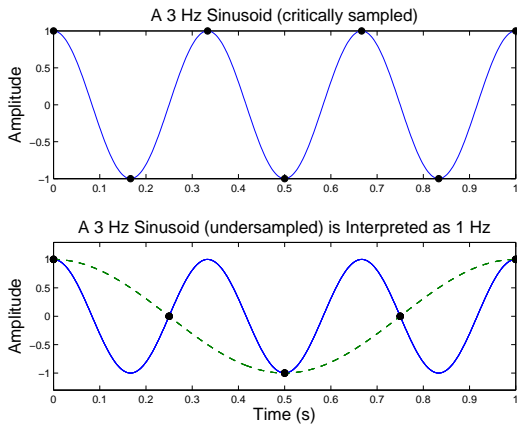
## Digital Audio System



- **Low-pass filter (left)**:
  - prevents components with frequency  $> f_s/2$  from entering the ADC.
- **COMPUTER**:
  - sound storage/processing;
  - processing may introduce components with frequencies  $> f_s/2$ .
- **Low-pass filter (right)**:
  - defines audible bandwidth up to  $f_s/2$ ;
  - **does not** prevent introduction of components with frequency  $> f_s/2$  (“damage” already done)!
- What happens when frequencies exceed  $f_s/2$ ?

## Undersampling

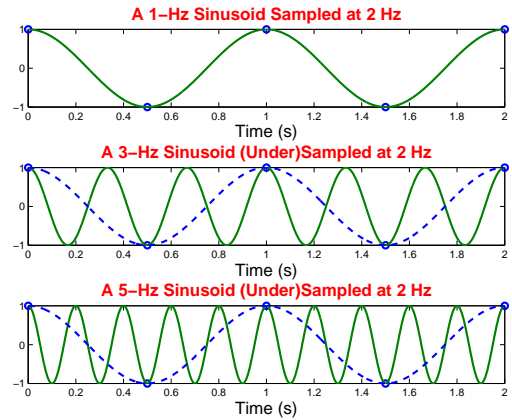
- If a signal is undersampled, it will be interpreted as the **alias** lying in the permitted range ( $f < f_s/2$ );



- Undersampling a 3-Hz sinusoid at  $f_s = 4$  causes its frequency to be interpreted as 1 Hz.

## What is an Alias?

- Discrete sinusoids have infinite aliases but it is the one lowest in frequency ( $< f_s/2$ ) that will sound.



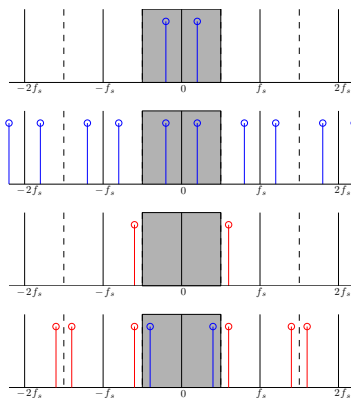
- Infinite sinusoids (with frequencies  $f_0 \pm lf_s$ ) will produce the same sample values as the sinusoid at  $f_0$ .

- **Challenge:** show by proving the following equality:  

$$A \cos(2\pi f_0 n T_s + \phi) = A \cos(2\pi (f_0 \pm lf_s) n T_s + \phi),$$

## Aliasing / Folding over

- **Top 2 plots (blue):** sinusoid has (infinite) aliases, but its frequency does not exceed  $f_s/2$ —GREAT!



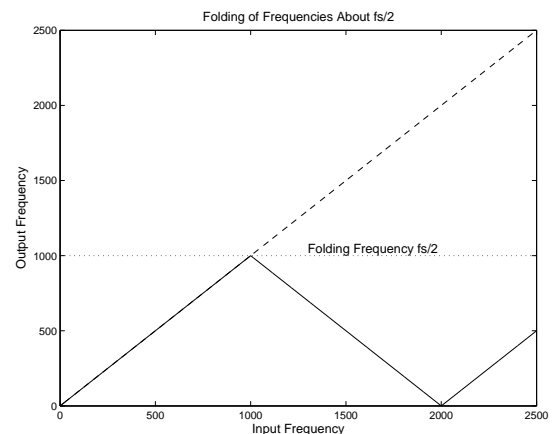
- **Bottom 2 plots (red):** sinusoid with frequency  $> f_s/2$  will have a negative frequency component with an alias in the sounding bandwidth (shaded).

## Folding Frequency (Nyquist Limit)

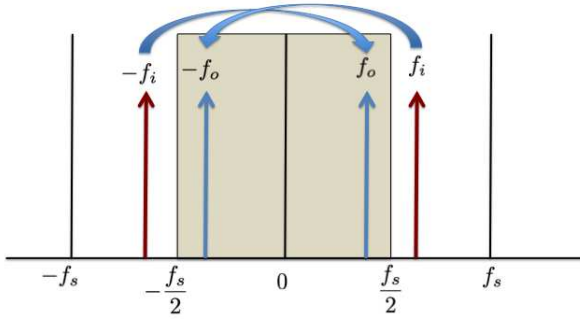
- Let  $f_{in}$  be the input signal and  $f_{out}$  be the signal at the output (after the lowpass filter).
- If  $f_{in}$  is less than the Nyquist limit ( $f_s/2$ )

$$f_{out} = f_{in},$$

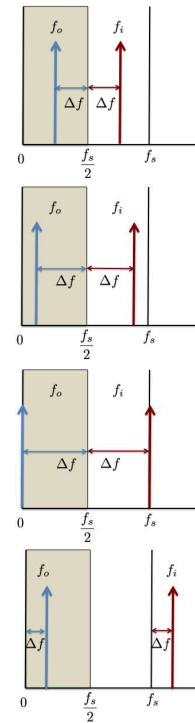
otherwise there is a folding over  $f_s/2$ .



- The *folding* occurs because of aliases of the negative frequency components.



## Foldover

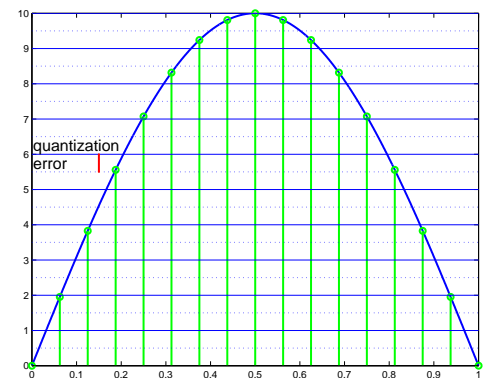


## Quantization

- Where sampling is the process of taking a sample at regular time intervals...
- **Quantization** is the process of assigning a value (from a finite number of possibilities) to the amplitude of the signal at a time sample.
- Computers use bits to store such data.
- The higher the number of bits used to represent a value, the greater the number of possible values and the more precise the sampled amplitude will be.
- With  $n$  bits,  $2^n$  possible values that can be represented.
- For CD quality audio, the number of bits is  $n = 16$ :
  - each sample can have  $2^{16} = 65,536$  possible values;
  - the highest possible amplitude is  $2^{15} = 32,768$ , (since audio signals are positive and negative).
- Does quantization introduce error?

## Quantization (linear)

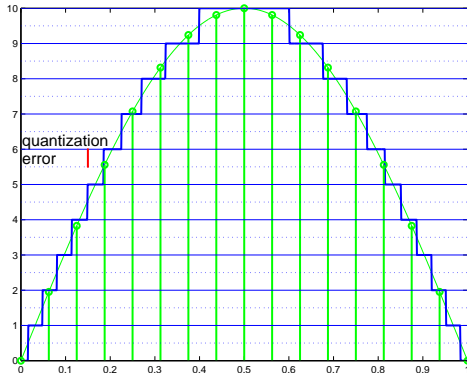
- The signal below has 11 possible values to which the instantaneous amplitude may be quantized.





## Quantization Error

- In a linear converter, when the actual sample value falls between these values (solid blue lines), it is quantized (or rounded) to the nearest value.



- This introduces a quantization error that will be uniformly distributed between 0 and 1/2 (error will never be greater than a factor of 1/2 the increment).

## Bit Depth

- Computers use bits to store sample values—the number of bits used is called the **bit depth**: the greater the bit depth,
  - the greater the number of possible values,
  - the more precise the sampled amplitude will be.
- With  $n$  bits,  $2^n$  possible values that can be represented.
  - for CD quality audio,  $n = 16$ ,
  - each sample can have  $2^{16} = 65,536$  possible values,
  - the highest possible amplitude is  $2^{15} = 32,768$ , (since audio signals are positive and negative).

## Signal to Quantization Error (SQNR)

- When noise is a result of quantization error, we determine its audibility using the signal-to-quantization-noise-ratio (SQNR), determined by the ratio of
  - the maximum amplitude ( $2^{n-1}$ ) to
  - the maximum quantization noise ( $1/2$  for a linear converter).
- To determine audibility, the SQNR is provided in decibels (dB):

$$\begin{aligned} 20 \log_{10} \left( \frac{2^{n-1}}{1/2} \right) \text{ dB} &= 20 \log_{10} (2^n) \text{ dB} \\ &= n \times 20 \log_{10}(2) \text{ dB} \\ &\approx n \times 6 \text{ dB} \\ &\approx 96 \text{ dB (for 16 bits)}. \end{aligned}$$