

# Digital Signal Processing Introduction

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**CPSC 501: Advanced Programming Techniques  
Winter 2025**

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# Signals

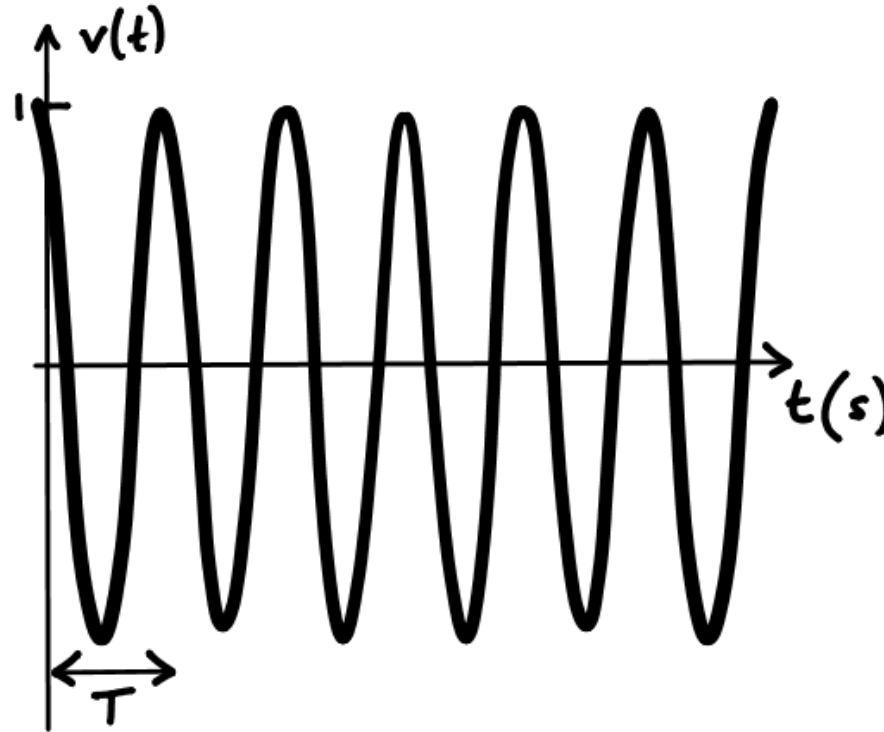
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How to we get a signal

# Analog Signal

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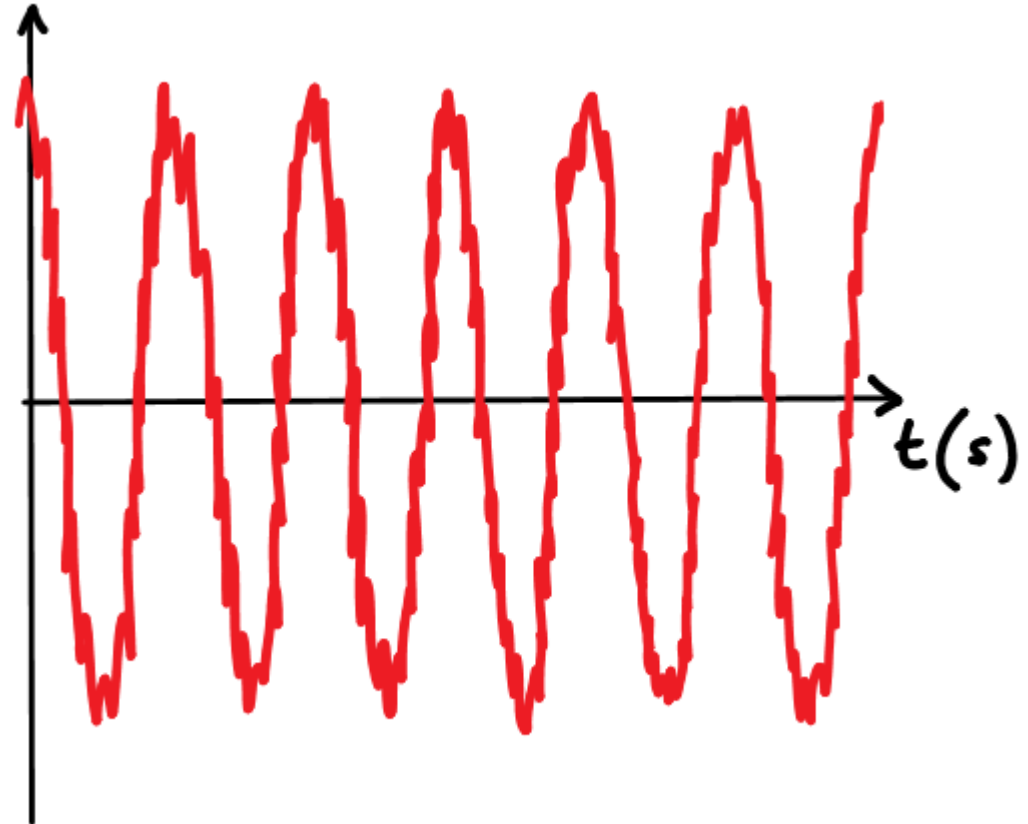
- Analog signal. This signal  $v(t)=\cos(2\pi ft)$  could be a perfect analog recording of a pure tone of frequency  $f=1$  Hz.
- The period  $T=1/f$  is the duration of one full oscillation.



# Noisy Signal

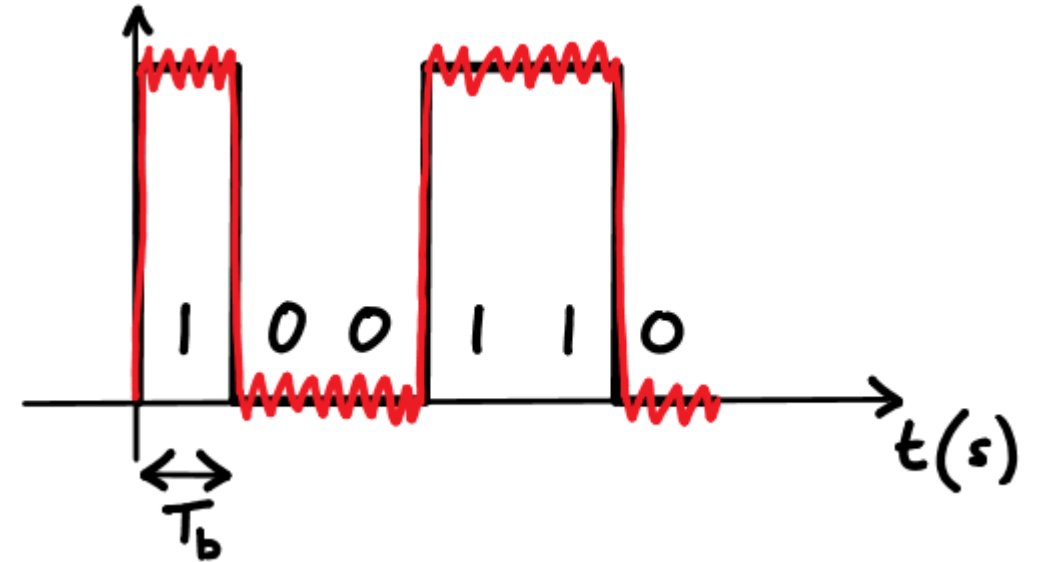
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- Noisy analog signal. Noise degrades the sinusoidal signal.
- It is often impossible to recover the original signal exactly from the noisy version



# Digital Signal

- Analog transmission of a digital signal.
- Consider a digital signal 100110 converted to an analog signal for radio transmission.
- The received signal suffers from noise, but given sufficient bit duration  $T_b$ , it is still easy to read off the original sequence 100110 perfectly.



# Sampling

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- A continuous signal may be sampled
  - i.e. measured periodically at small intervals of time, and converted into a series of numbers (samples)
    - Such a series is a digital signal
- An **analog-to-digital converter** does the sampling
  - E.g. Sampling an audio signal

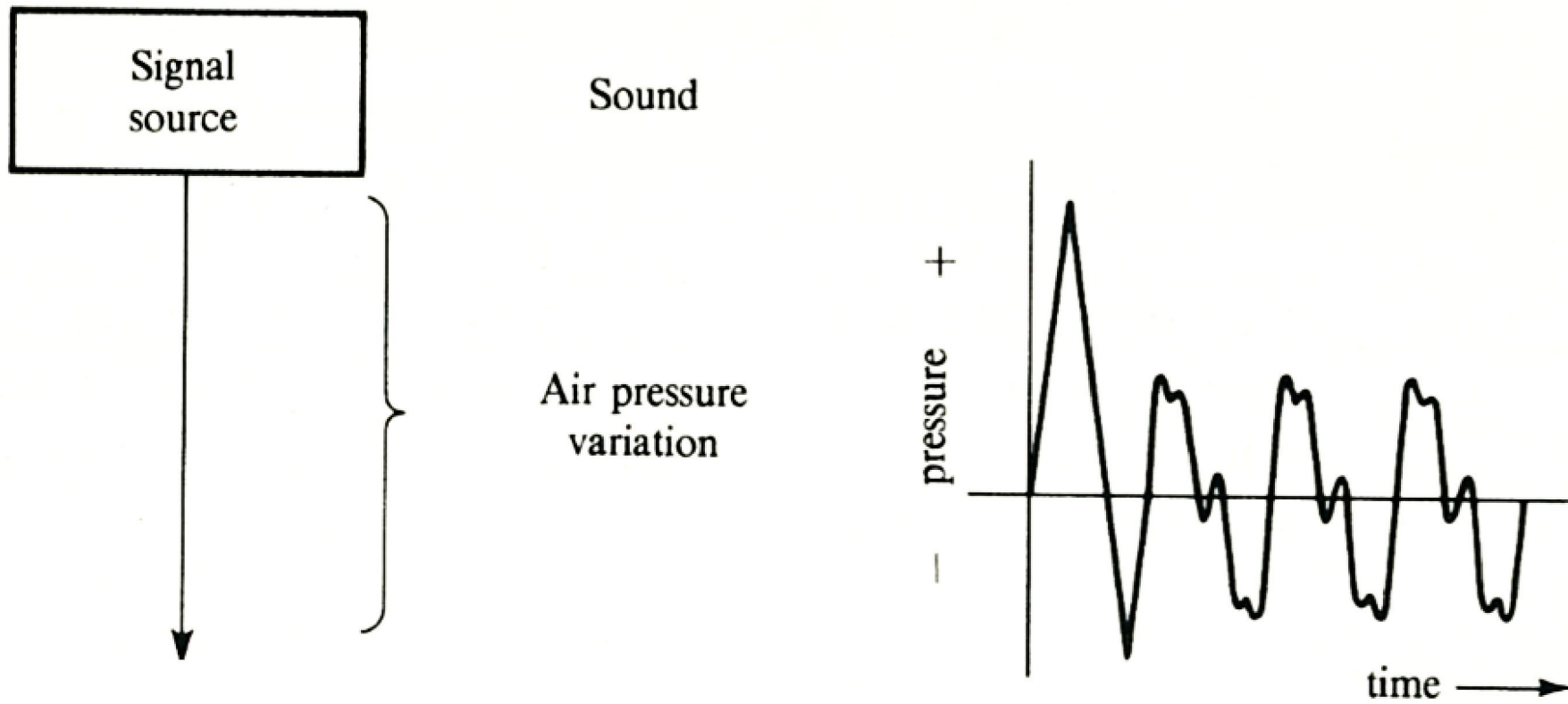
# From Voice to Bits



How to we get a signal

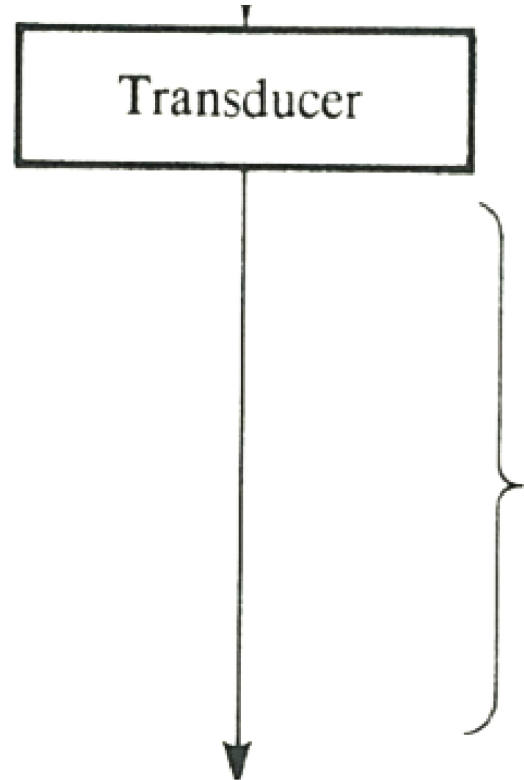
# Original Signal

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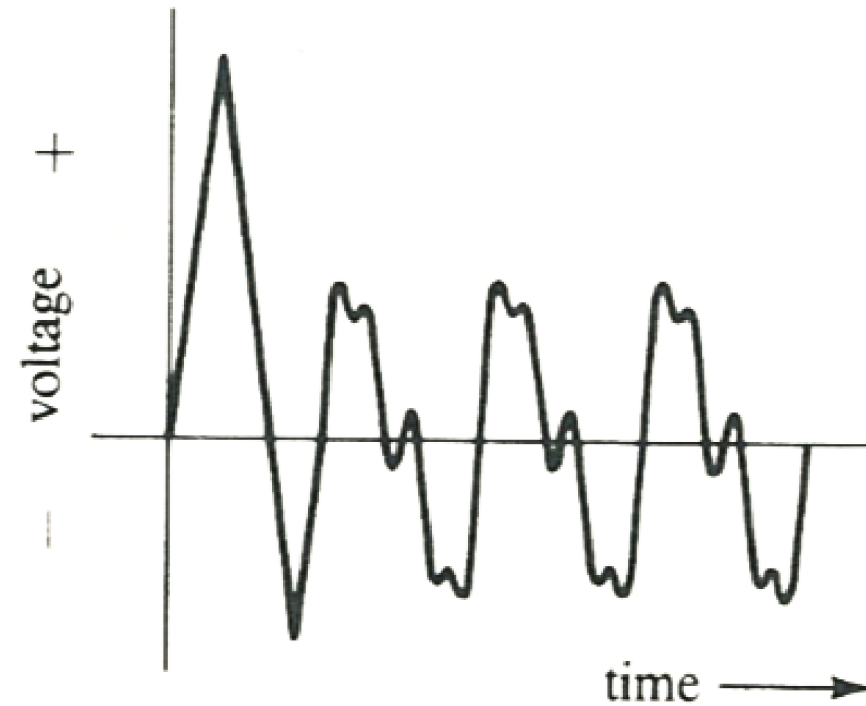


# Analog Signal: Via Transducer

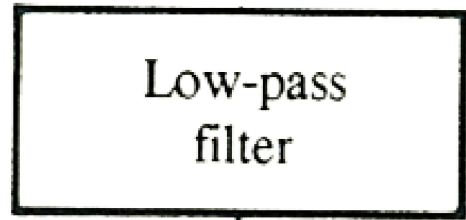


Microphone

Electrical analog  
to pressure  
variations

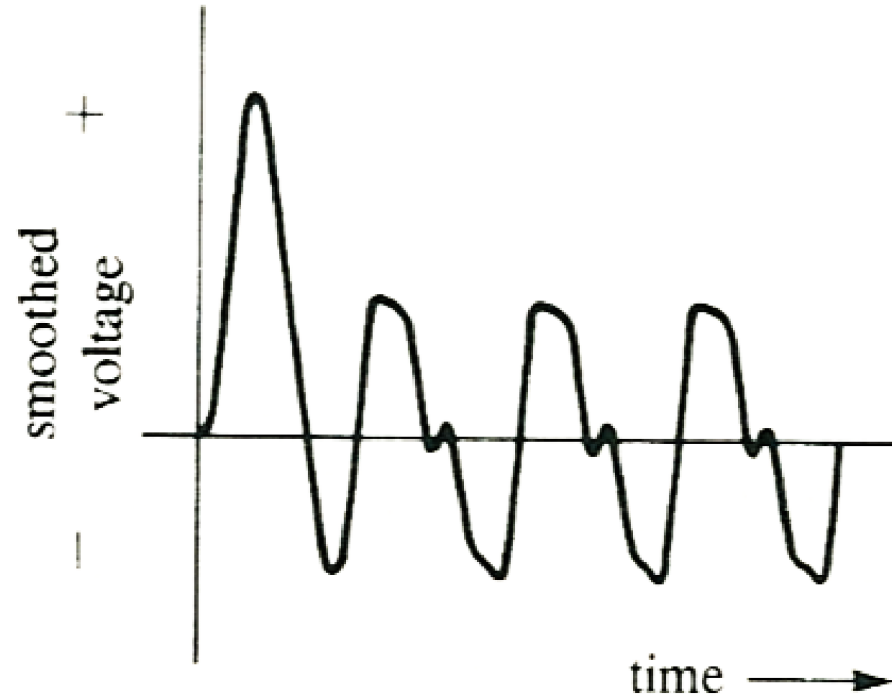


# Analog Signal Cleaning

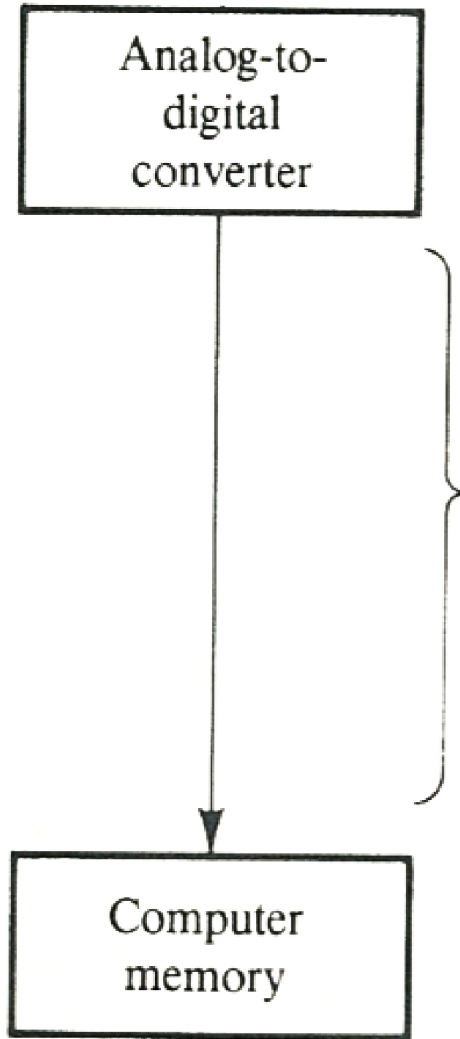


Removes frequency components  $\geq R/2$  Hz

Band-limited analog waveform



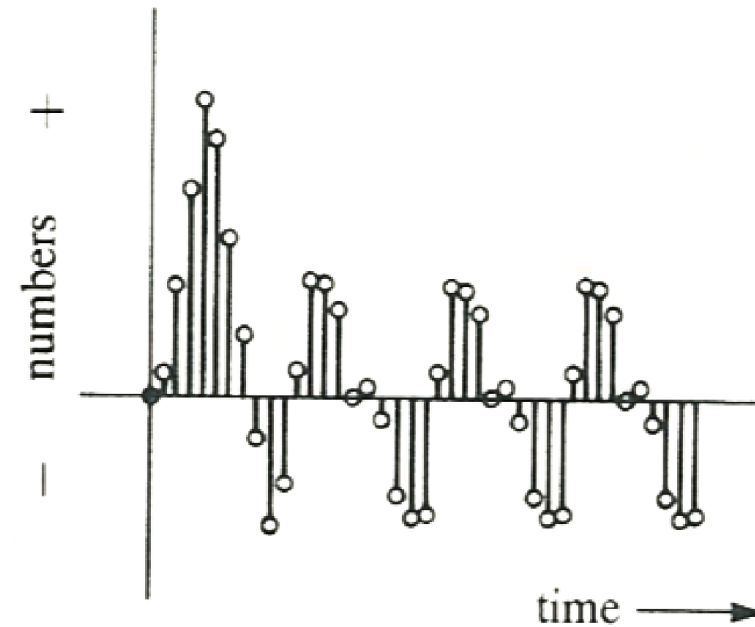
# Analog to Digital



Samples at  $R$  Hz  
and quantizes to  
 $B$  bits

Stores complete  
representation as  
sequence of  
binary numbers

Discrete repre-  
sentation of  
band-limited  
analog wave-  
form (digital  
signal)



# And back again

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# Sampling and Quantization

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- A **digital-to-analog converter** converts the digital signal back into an analog signal



# Sampling

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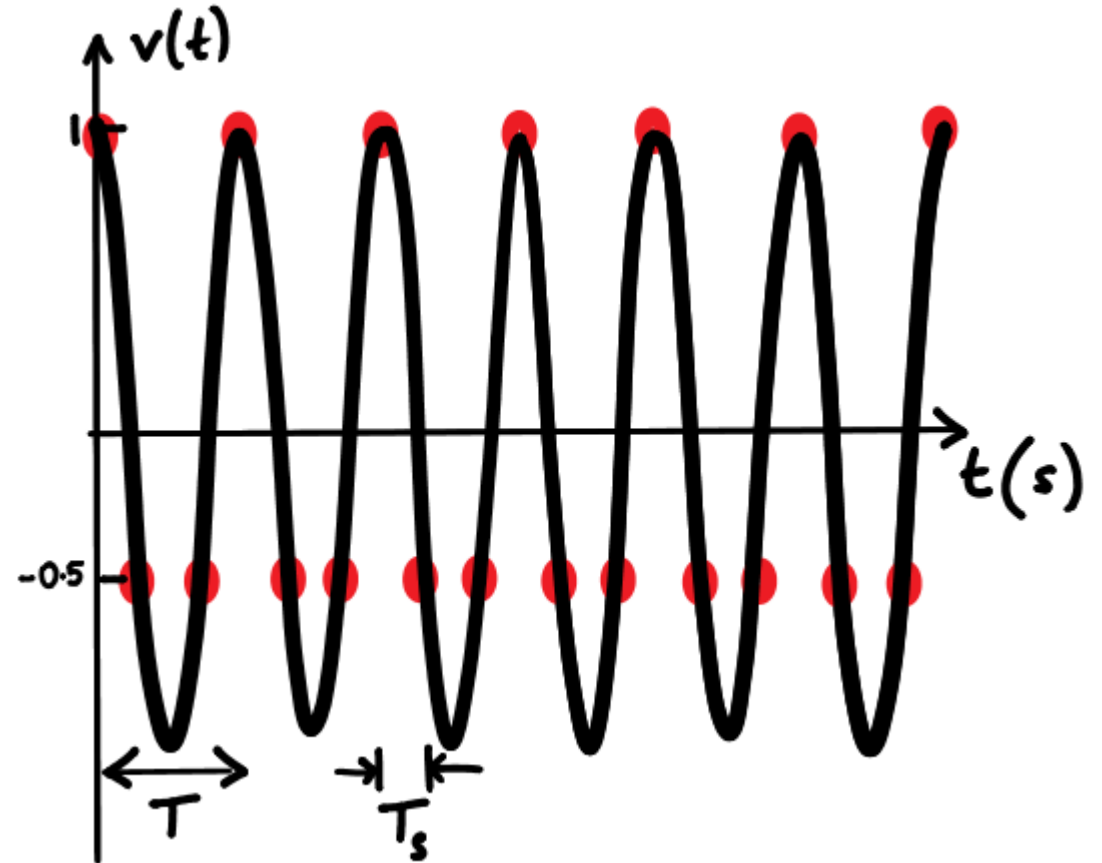
# Sampling

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- Sampling is the process of recording an analog signal at regular discrete moments of time.
- The sampling rate  $f_s$  is the number of samples per second.
- The time interval between samples is called the sampling interval  $T_s = \frac{1}{f_s}$ .

# Original signal

- The signal  $v(t)=\cos(2\pi ft)$  is sampled uniformly with 3 sampling intervals within each signal period  $T$ .
- Therefore, the sampling interval  $T/3$  and the sampling rate  $3f$ .
- Notice that there are three samples in every signal period  $T$ .





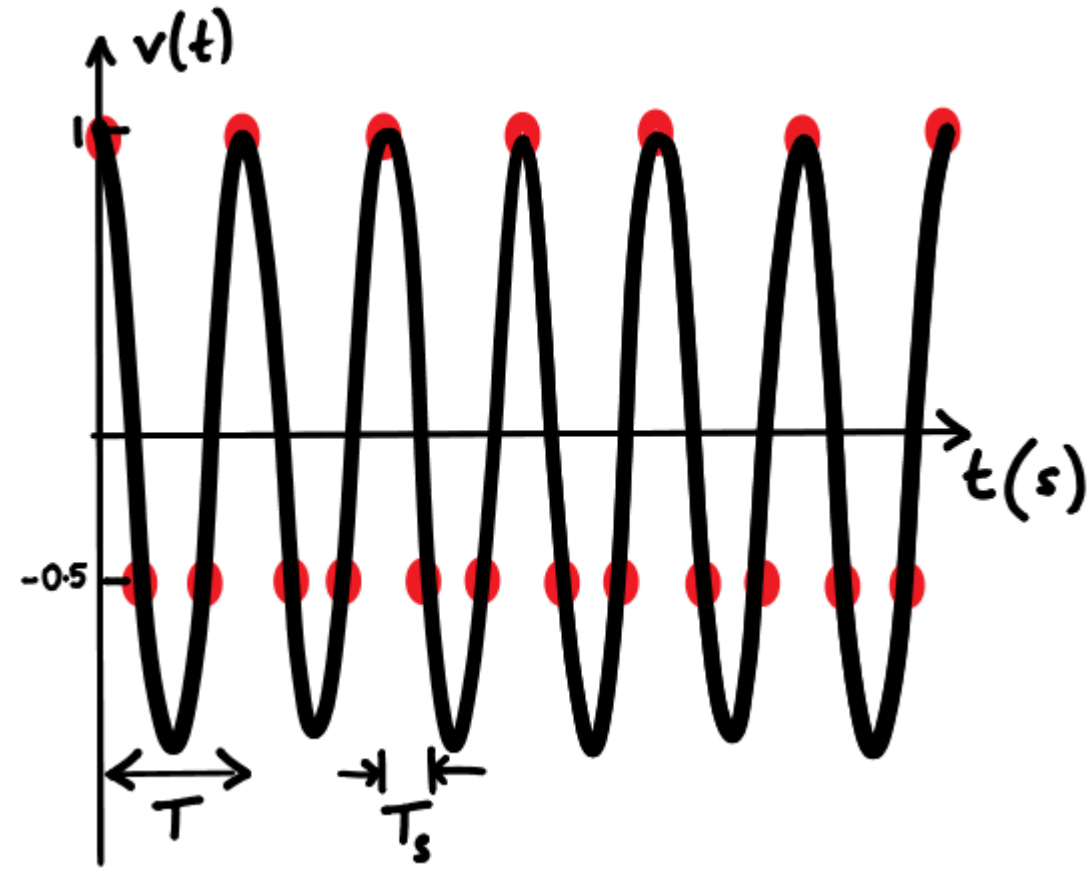
# Sample points

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- To express the samples of the analog signal  $x(t)$ , we will use the notation  $x[n]$  for example
  - integer values of  $n$  index the samples
- Typically, the  $n=0$  sample is taken from  $t=0$
- Consequently, the  $n=1$  sample must come from the  $t = T_s$  time point, exactly one sampling interval later; and so on.
- sequence of samples can be written as
$$x[0] = x(0), x[1] = x(T_s), x[2] = x(2T_s), \dots$$

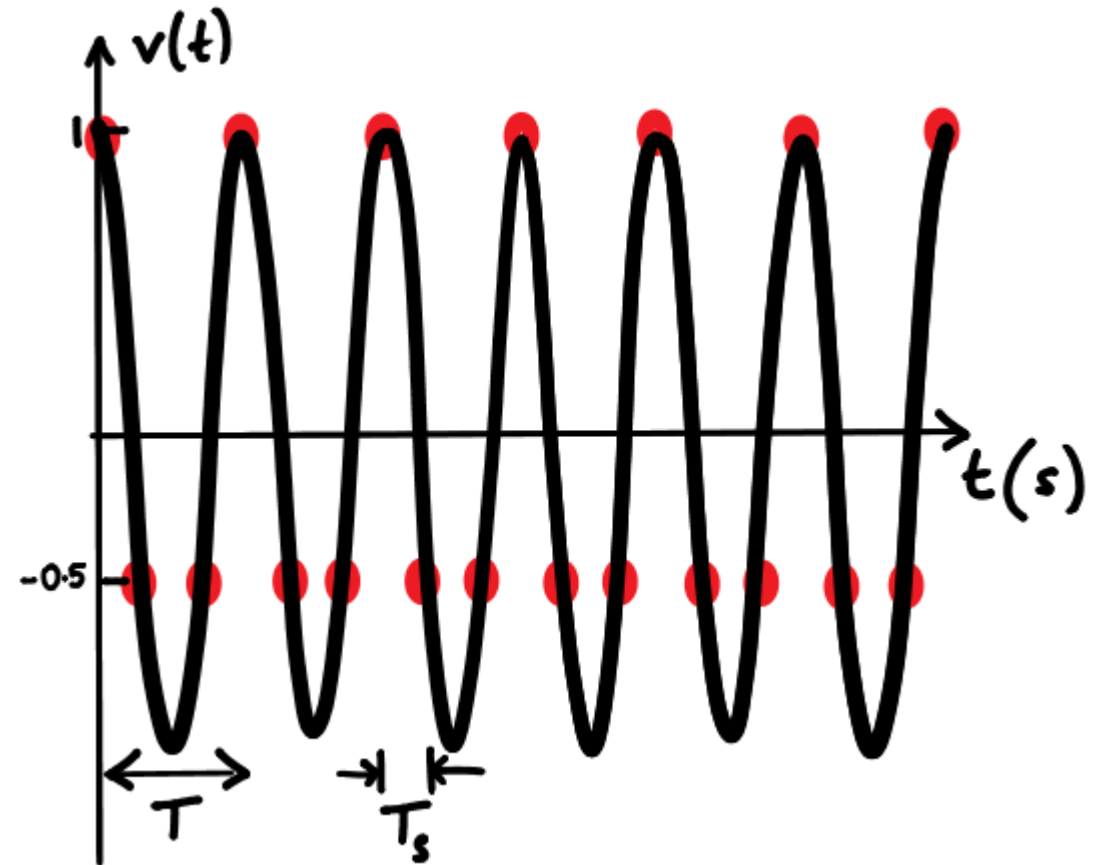
# Store sample: extracted from formula

- $x[n] = x(nT_s)$  for integer  $n$
- Our signal was
- $x(t) = \cos(2\pi ft)$
- $x[n] = \cos(2\pi fnT_s)$
- $x[n] = \cos(2\pi fn \frac{T}{3})$  with  $T_s = \frac{T}{3}$
- $x[n] = \cos(\frac{2\pi n}{3})$  as  $T = \frac{1}{f}$



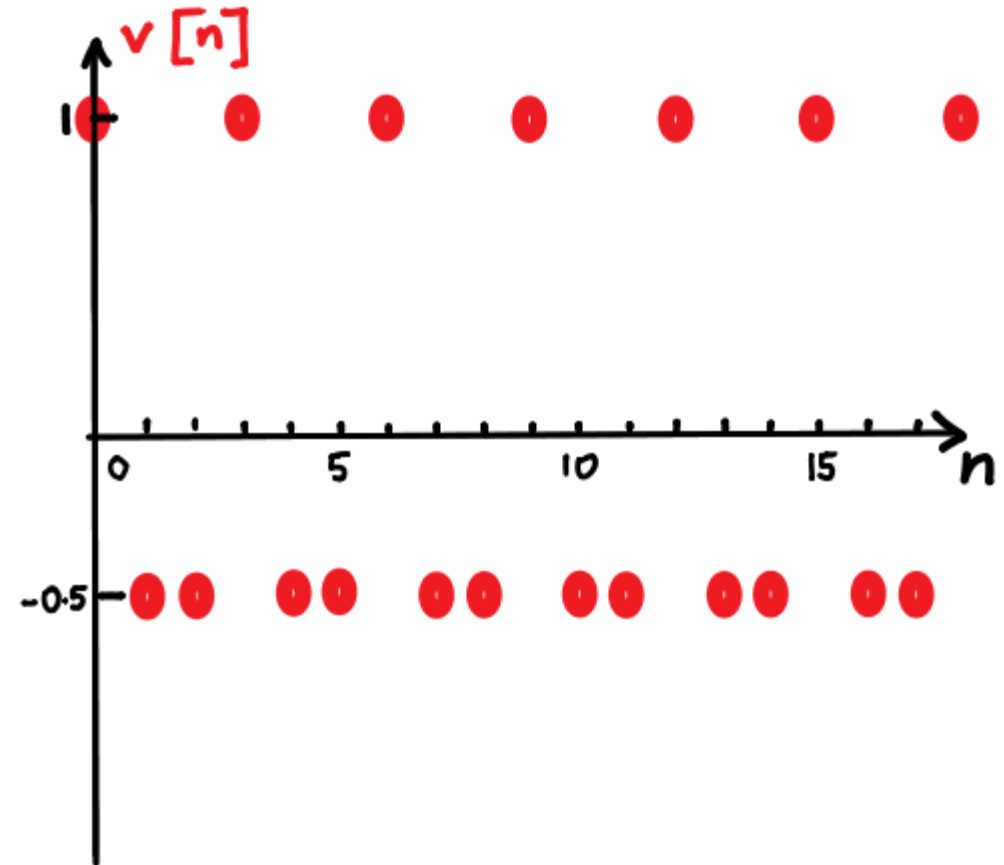
# Stored sample: if measured

- $x[n] = \cos\left(\frac{2\pi n}{3}\right)$
- $x[0] = \cos(0) = 1$
- $x[1] = \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{3}\right) = -0.5$
- $x[2] = \cos\left(\frac{4\pi}{3}\right) = -0.5$
- $x[3] = \cos(2\pi) = 1$



# Can we rebuild it?

- $x[n] = \cos\left(\frac{2\pi n}{3}\right)$
- $x[0] = \cos(0) = 1$
- $x[1] = \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{3}\right) = -0.5$
- $x[2] = \cos\left(\frac{4\pi}{3}\right) = -0.5$
- $x[3] = \cos(2\pi) = 1$



# Sampling rate

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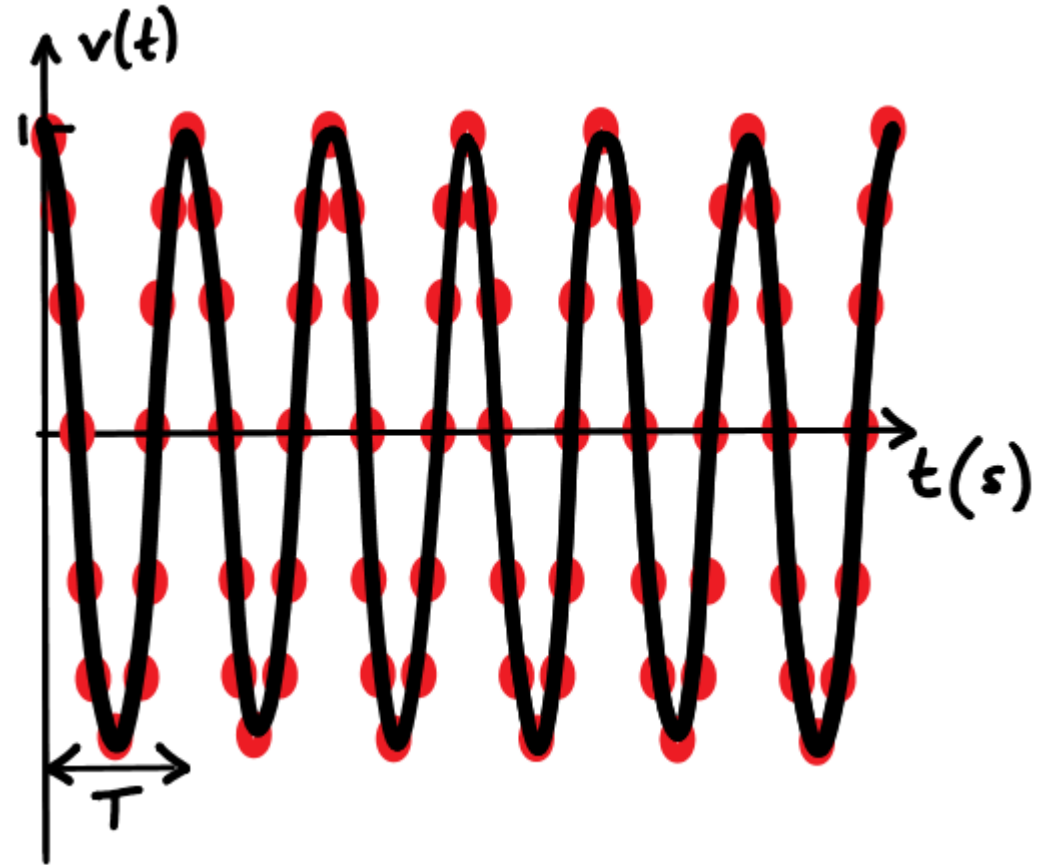
# Higher rate sampling

Sampling at a high rate.

The signal  $v(t)=\cos(2\pi ft)$  is sampled uniformly with 12 sampling intervals within each signal period  $T$ .

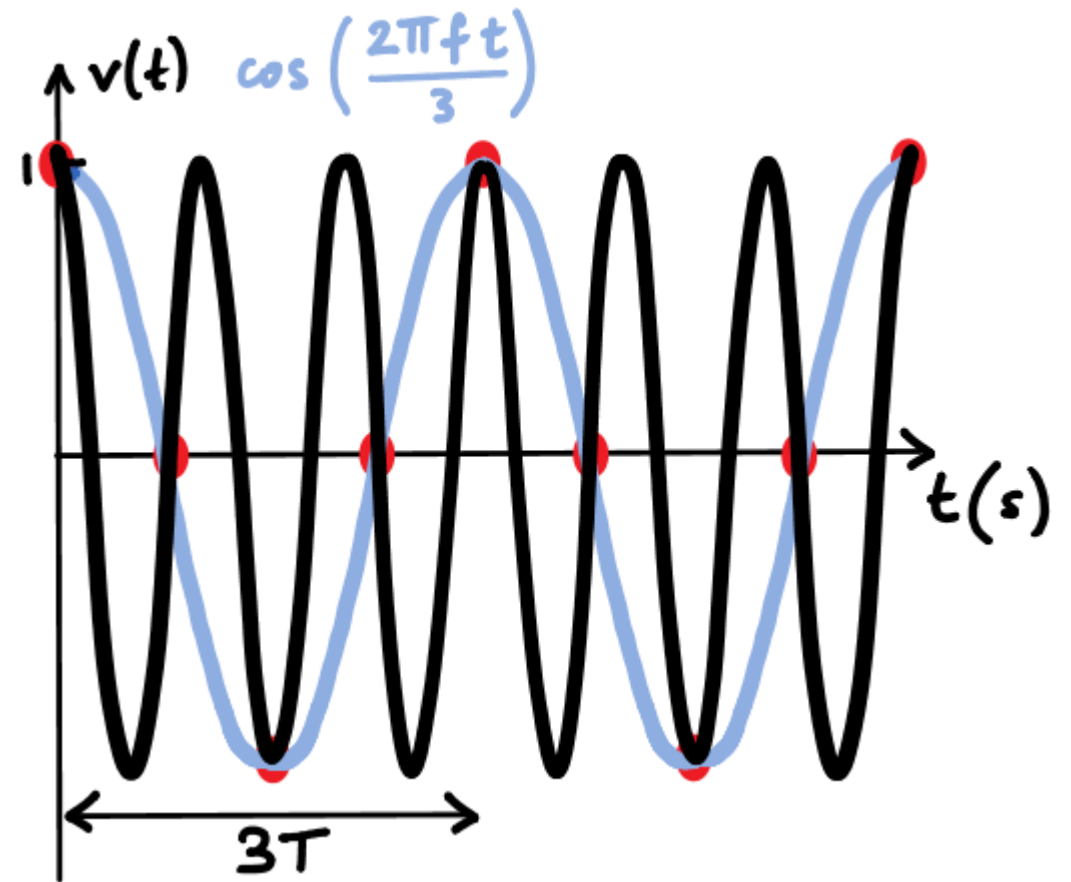
The sampling interval  $T_s = \frac{T}{12}$  and the sampling rate  $f_s = 12f$ .

The original signal  $x(t)$  can be recovered from the samples by connecting them together smoothly.



# Lower rate sampling

In contrast, if a sinusoidal signal is sampled with a low sampling rate, the samples may be too infrequent to recover the original signal.



# Best sample rate

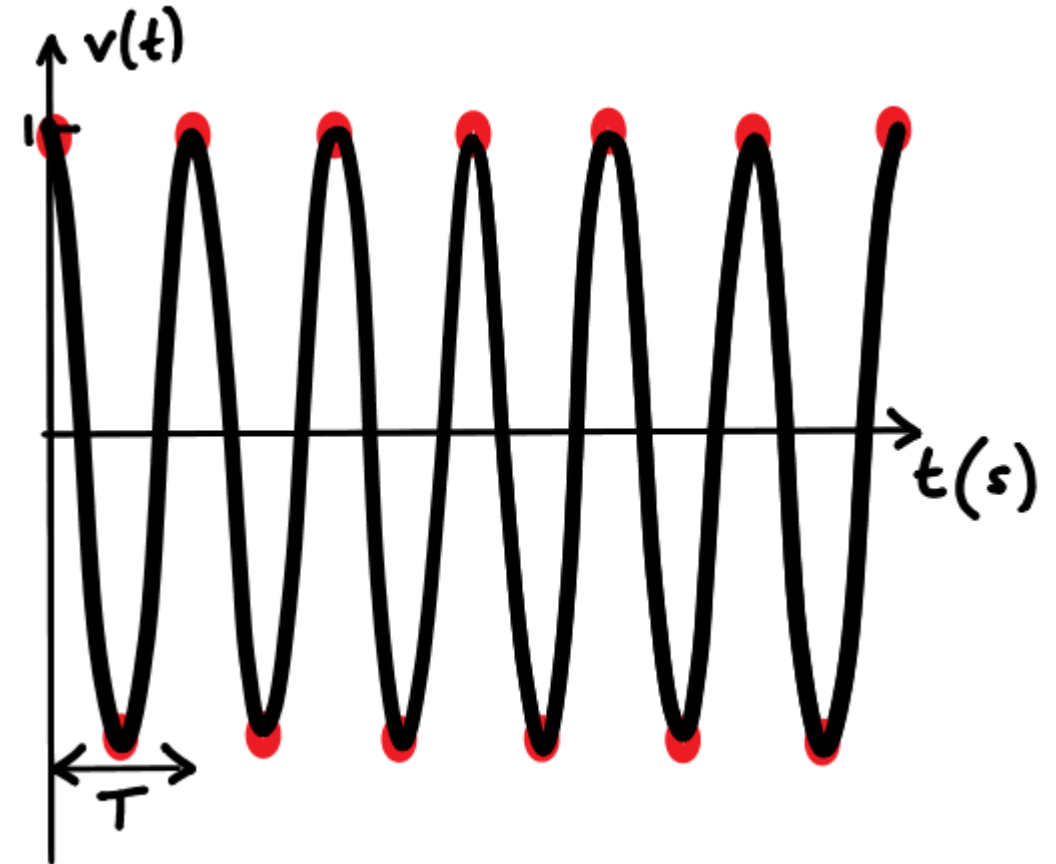
Sampling a cosine at  $f_s = 2f$ .

The signal  $v(t) = \cos(2\pi ft)$  is sampled uniformly with 2 sampling intervals within each signal period  $T$ .

sampling interval  $T_s = \frac{T}{2}$  and the sampling rate  $f_s = 2f$ .

sample at every peak/trough of the sinusoid, there is no lower frequency sinusoid that fits these samples.

$x(t)$  can be recovered exactly from the samples by ideal low pass filtering.

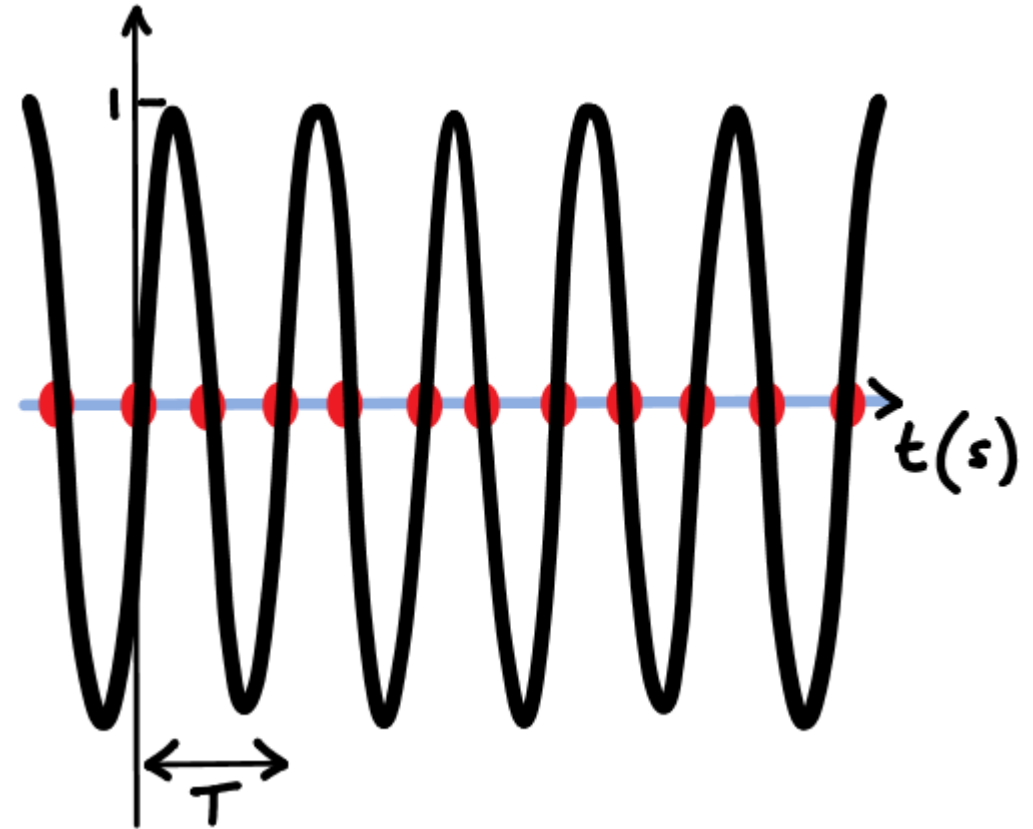




# Worst case sample rate

The signal  $\sin(2\pi ft)$  is sampled uniformly with 2 sampling intervals within each signal period  $T$ .

Since all the samples are at the zero crossings, ideal low pass filtering produces a zero signal instead of recovering the sinusoid.



# So how do we decide sample rate

# Nyquist-Shannon theorem

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## The Nyquist-Shannon sampling theorem

The sampling rate for exact recovery of a signal composed of a sum of sinusoids is larger than twice the maximum frequency of the signal.

This rate is called the Nyquist sampling rate  $f_{Nyquist}$

# Terminology reminder

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- Sampling is the process of recording an analog signal at regular discrete moments of time.
- The sampling rate  $f_s$  is the number of samples per second.
- The time interval between samples is called the sampling interval  $T_s = \frac{1}{f_s}$ .

# Theroem basics

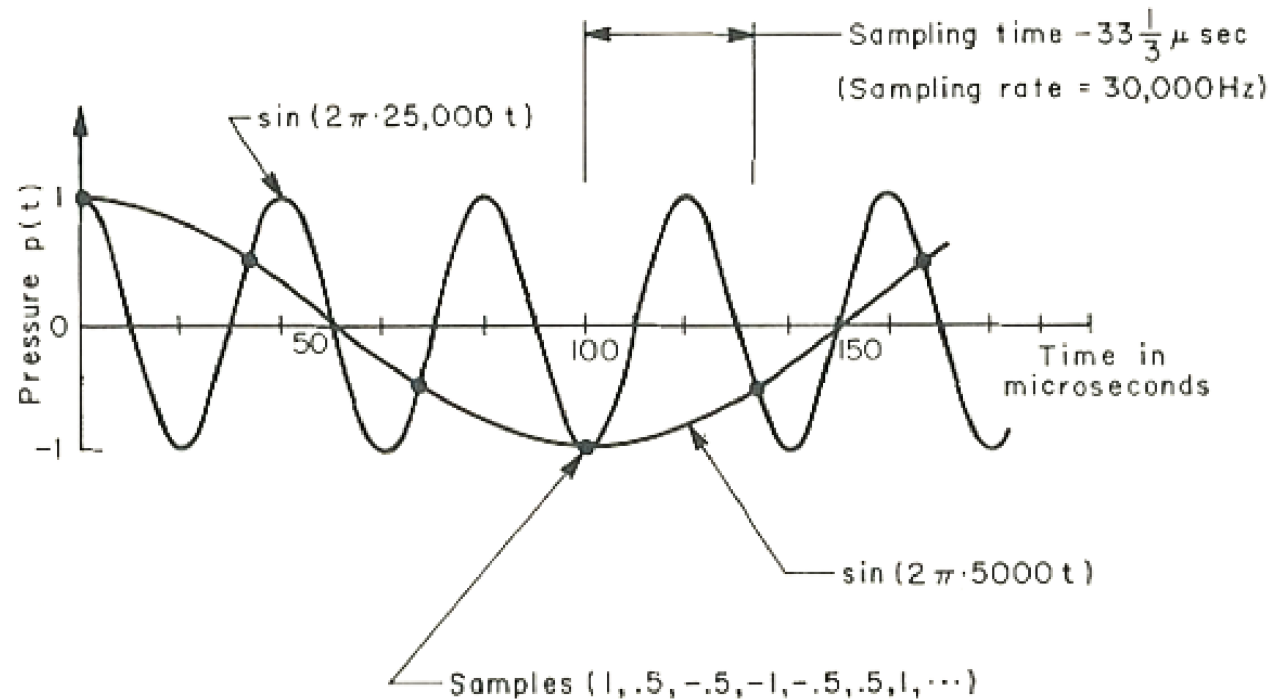
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- The sampling theorem:
  - **The sampling frequency must be greater than twice the bandwidth of the signal in order to recreate it perfectly**
    - $f_h < R/2$ , where  $f_h$  is the frequency of the highest component of the signal, and  $R$  is the sampling rate
  - If you sample at too low a rate, **aliasing** or **foldover distortion** results

# Details

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# Sampling and Quantization



**Fig. 5.** Example of high-frequency (25,000 Hz) and foldover frequency (5000 Hz) resulting from low sampling rate (30,000 Hz).

# Sampling and Quantization

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- The frequency of the alias is calculated with:

$$F_a = \left| F - \frac{(k + 1)R}{2} \right|, \quad \frac{kR}{2} \leq F \leq \frac{(k + 2)R}{2} \quad (1.1)$$

where

$F_a$  is the “apparent” frequency in Hz,

$F$  is the actual frequency in Hz,

$R$  is the sampling rate in Hz (samples per second), and

$k$  is any *odd* integer which satisfies the inequality.



# Example

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- The frequency of the alias is calculated with:

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$R$  is the sampling rate in Hz (samples per second), and

$k$  is any *odd* integer which satisfies the inequality.

- If  $F = 25000$  Hz, and  $R = 30000$  Hz

## Example (cont'd)

---

- The frequency of the alias is calculated with:
  - If  $F = 25000$  Hz, and  $R = 30000$  Hz

- $$\frac{kR}{2} \leq F \leq \frac{(k+2)R}{2}$$

- $$\frac{k*30000}{2} \leq 25000 \leq \frac{(k+2)*30000}{2}$$

- $$k * 30000 \leq 50000 \leq (k + 2) * 30000$$

- $$k \leq 5/3 \leq (k + 2)$$

- $$k \leq 5/3 \leq (k + 2)$$

## Example (cont'd)

---

- The frequency of the alias is calculated with:
  - If  $F = 25000$  Hz, and  $R = 30000$  Hz
    - $k \leq 5/3 \leq (k + 2)$
    - $k \leq 1.6666 \dots \leq (k + 2)$
    - $1 \leq 1.6666 \dots \leq 3$  when  $k = 1$

## Example (cont'd)

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- The frequency of the alias is calculated with:
  - If  $F = 25000$  Hz, and  $R = 30000$  Hz, then  $k = 1$
  - $1 \leq 1.6666 \dots \leq 3$  when  $k = 1$
  - $F_a = \left| F - \frac{(k+1)R}{2} \right|$
  - $F_a = \left| 30000 - \frac{(2)20000}{2} \right|$
  - $F_a = 5000$

# Low-pass filtering

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- To avoid aliasing, the signal is low-pass filtered before A/D conversion, eliminating any frequency components above  $R/2$

# More information

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# Some rates used

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- Common audio sample rates:
  - CD: 44.1 kHz
    - Note: range of human hearing is 20 Hz to 20 kHz
- Pro audio: 48 kHz, 96 kHz, 192 kHz
- Speech codecs: 8000 Hz
- Apple lossless (maximum 384 kHz)
- Streaming music 44.1 kHz (some of this limit is contractual)

# Digital form?

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- The A/D converter quantizes the instantaneous amplitude of each sample
  - i.e. represents it using N-bit binary number
    - Normally a signed integer
  - The more bits the better, to improve the signal-to-noise ratio
    - E.g. 16 bits gives SNR of about 96 dB



# Common sample bit sizes

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- Common sample sizes:
  - CD/Stream: 16-bit
  - Pro audio (subscriber streams): 20-bit, 24-bit
  - Speech codecs: 8-bit, 12-bit

# Onward to ... spectral analysis.

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