



Instituto Superior Politécnico de Viseu  
**Escola Superior de Tecnologia de Viseu**  
Curso de Engenharia de Sistemas e Informática

# Processamento Digital de Sinal

Aula 1,2

4.º Ano – 2.º Semestre

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Departamento de Informática

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## Programa:

1. Introdução ao Processamento Digital de Sinal
2. Representação e Análise de Sinais
3. Estruturas e Projecto de Filtros FIR e IIR
4. Processamento de Imagem
5. Processadores Digitais de Sinal

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## Bibliografia:

### Processamento Digital de Sinal:

- Sanjit K. Mitra, “**Digital Signal Processing** – A computer based approach”, McGraw Hill, 1998  
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- Roman Kuc, “**Introduction to Digital Signal Processing**”, McGraw Hill, 1988.  
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- Johnny R. Johnson, “**Introduction to Digital Signal Processing**”, Prentice-Hall, 1989.  
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- G. Proakis, G. Manolakis, “**Digital Signal Processing – Principles, Algorithms Applications**”, 3ª Ed, P-Hall, 1996.  
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- James V. Candy, “**Signal Processing – The modern Approach**”, McGraw-Hill, 1988  
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- Mark J. T., Russel M., “**Introduction to DSP – A computer Laboratory Textbook**”, John Wiley & Sons, 1992.  
Cota: 621.391 SMI INT
- James H. McClellan e outros, “**Computer-Based Exercises - Signal Proc. Using Matlab 5**”, Prentice-Hall, 1998.  
Cota: 621.391 MCC COM

### Processamento Digital de Imagem:

- Rafael C. Gonzalez & Richard E. Woods, “**Digital Image Processing**”, Prentice Hall, 2ª Ed., 2002.  
Cota: 681.5 GON DIG.
- I. Pittas H. McClellan e outros, “**Digital Image Processing Algorithms and Applications**”, John Wiley & Sons, 2000.  
Cota: 621.391 PIT.
- William K. Pratt, “**Digital image processing**”, John Wiley, 2ª Ed, 1991.  
Cota: 681.5 PRA DIG
- Bernd Jähne, “**Digital image processing : concepts, algorithms, and scientific applications**”, Springer, 1997.  
Cota: 681.5 JAH

## Avaliação:

A avaliação é composta pela componente teórica e componente prática ponderadas da seguinte forma:

$$\text{Classificação Final} = 80\% * \text{Frequência ou exame} + 20\% * \text{Prática}$$

O acesso ao exame não está condicionado embora não tenha função de melhoria, ou seja, se o aluno entregar a prova de exame, será essa a classificação a utilizar no cálculo da média final independentemente da nota da prova de frequência obtida.

A avaliação prática é constituída por trabalhos laboratoriais a executar em MATLAB

# 1. Introdução ao Processamento Digital de Sinal

## • Aspectos Gerais

- O que é Processamento de um Sinal?
- Perspectiva Histórica
- Vantagens e Desvantagens
- Digital vs Analógico
- Ferramentas
- Aplicações
- Exemplo

## • Sinais

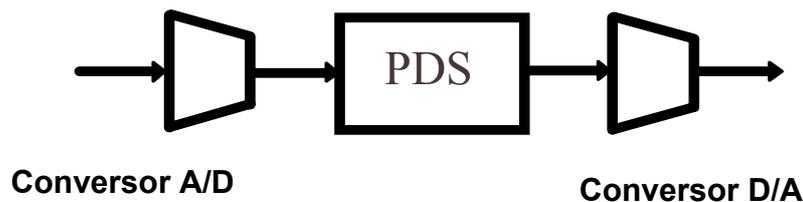
- Aquisição e Processamento dum Sinal
- Tipos de Sinais:
  - Contínuos e Discretos - Periódicos e Não Periódicos
  - Sinais Analógicos e Digitais
- Processamento no Tempo
- Processamento na Frequência

## • Conversão A/D

- Teorema da Amostragem
- Parâmetros dum ADC
- Formatos digitais

## Aspectos Gerais: O que é o Processamento Digital de Sinal?

- Diz-se processamento **digital** de sinal porque normalmente decorre da realização de um sistema discreto que implica, normalmente, a digitalização das amostras dos seus sinais de entrada e de saída.



## Aspectos Gerais: Perspectiva Histórica

- **Modelos matemáticos básicos dos sinais e sistemas contínuos (século XIX):**
  - Transformada de Fourier (1822), por Jean Baptiste Joseph Fourier (1768 – 1830).
  - Transformada de Laplace, por Pierre Simon- Marquês de Laplace (1748- ...).
  - Transformada de Z, por De Moivre em 1730.
- **Advento dos computadores digitais (anos 40) - nascimento de PDS como disciplina.**
- **Anos 50, por Shannon, Bode e Linville: primeiros a equacionar a utilização de computadores de sinal em PDS.**
- **Anos 60, por Kaiser: importantes contribuições para a análise e a síntese de filtros digitais.**
- **1965, a transformada rápida de Fourier (FFT) foi “descoberta” por Cooley e Tukey.**
- **1975, publicação dos livros:**
  - A. V. Oppenheim, R. W. Schafer, *Digital Signal Processing*.
  - L. R. Rabiner, B. Gold, *Theory and Application of Digital Signal Processing*.
  - Marcam o nascimento de PDS como disciplina sendo os autores dos livros considerados como sendo os seus verdadeiros criadores.

## Aspectos Gerais: Vantagens e Desvantagens

- **Vantagens**
  - Integrável
  - Flexibilidade
  - Repetibilidade
  - Precisão
  - Processamento de alta complexidade
- **Desvantagens**
  - Requer A/D e D/A
  - Requer filtros de anti-aliasing e reconstrução
  - Limitado em frequência
  - Ruído de quantização

# Aspectos Gerais: Processamento Digital vs Processamento Analógico

## Digital Signal Processing (DSPing)

### Vantagens

- *More flexible.*
- *Often easier system upgrade.*
- *Data easily stored.*
- *Better control over accuracy requirements.*
- *Reproducibility.*

### Limitações

- *A/D & signal processors speed: wide-band signals still difficult to treat (real-time systems).*
- *Finite word-length effect.*
- *Obsolescence (analog electronics has it, too!).*

# Aspectos Gerais: Objectivo e Ferramentas

## Aplicações

- Predicting a system's output.
- Implementing a certain processing task.
- Studying a certain signal.

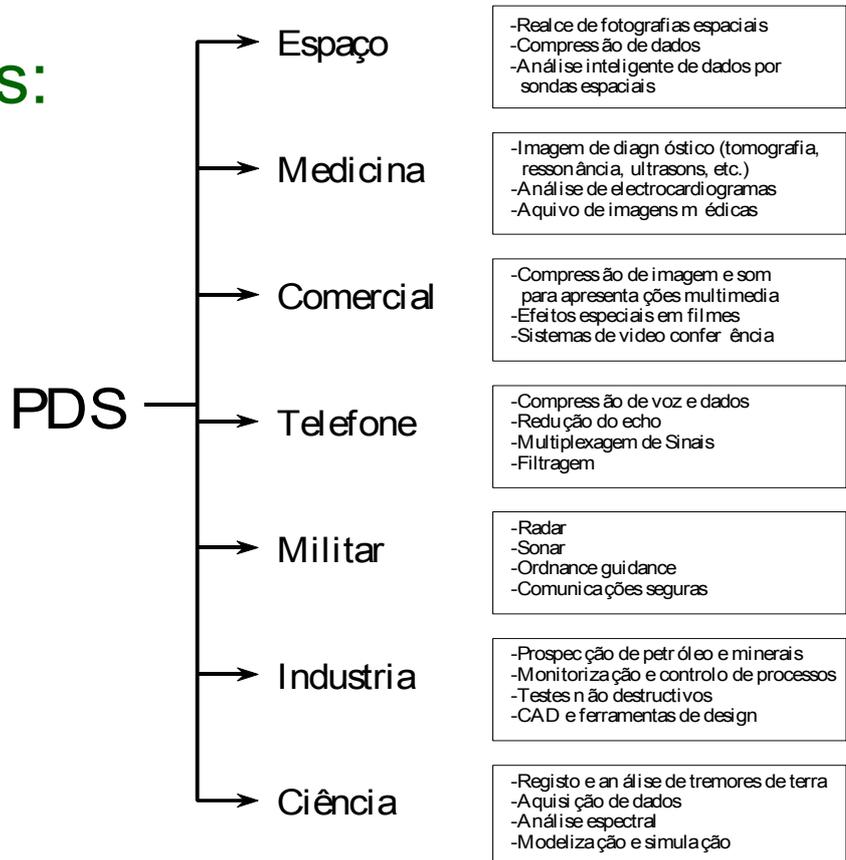
## Hardware

- General purpose processors (GPP),  $\mu$ -controllers.
  - Digital Signal Processors (DSP).
  - Programmable logic ( PLD, FPGA ).
- } Fast } real time  
} Faster } DSPing

## Software

- Programming languages: Pascal, C / C++ ...
- "High level" languages: **Matlab**, Mathcad, Mathematica...
- Dedicated tools (ex: filter design s/w packages).

# Aspectos Gerais: Aplicações



# Aspectos Gerais: Aplicações (2)

- **Aplicações do processamento de sinais**
  - **Telecomunicações**
    - Radar
    - Compressão de sinais
    - ...
  - **Som**
    - Reconhecimento da fala
    - Síntese de fala
    - Musica [composição e tratamento]
    - ...
  - **Imagem**
    - Tomografia
    - Detecção de movimento
    - ...
  - **Medicina**
    - Electrocardigrafia
    - Electromiografia
    - Electroencefalografia
    - ...

# Aspectos Gerais: Exemplo dum Sistema de PDS

## Esquema Geral

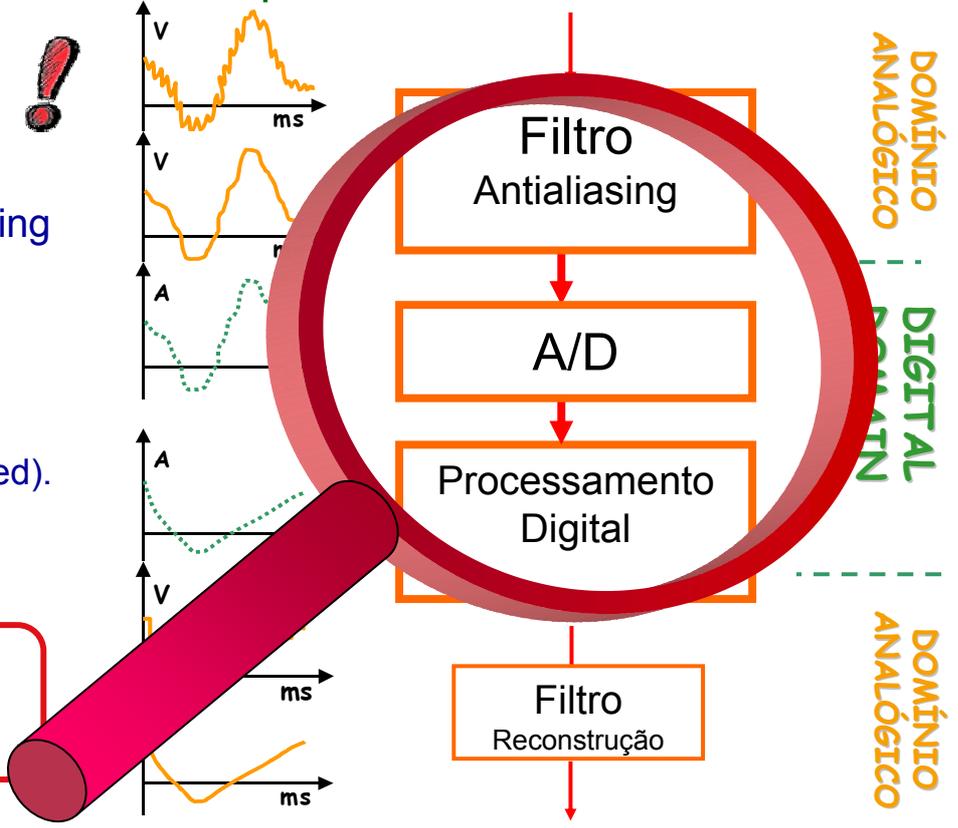
Sometimes steps missing

- Filtro + A/D

(ex: economics);

- D/A + filtro

(ex: digital output wanted).



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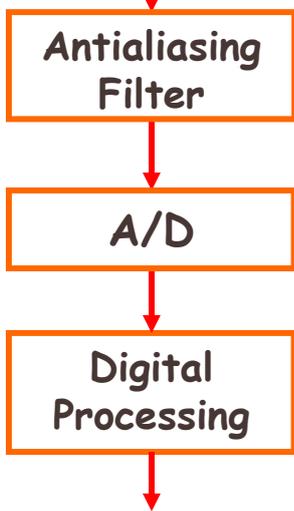


# Aspectos Gerais: Exemplo dum Sistema de PDS (2)

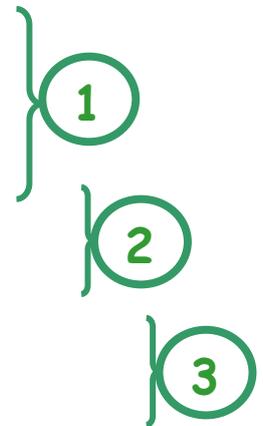
ANALOG INPUT



KEY DECISION POINTS:  
Analysis bandwidth, Dynamic range



- Pass / stop bands.
- Taxa de Amostragem.
- No. de bits. Parâmetros.
- Formato Digital



What to use for processing?  
See slide "DSPing aim & tools"

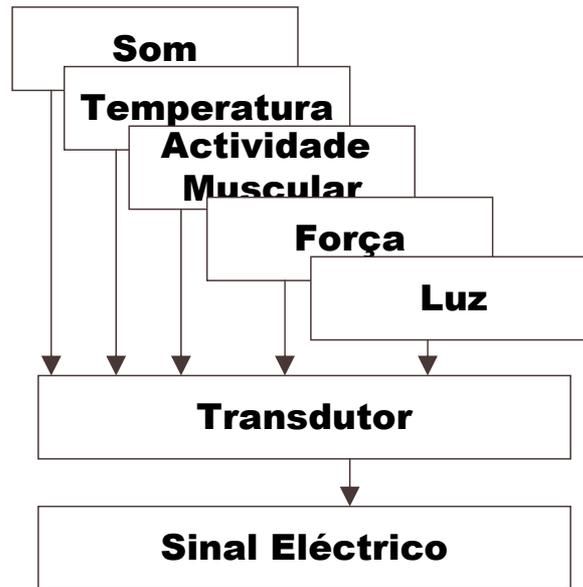
DIGITAL OUTPUT

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# Sinais: Aquisição e Processamento de um sinal

- Sinal físico

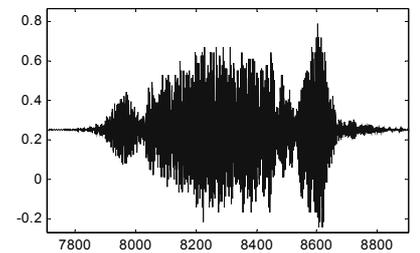
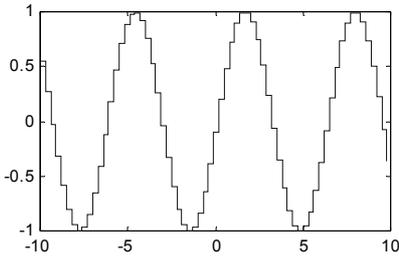
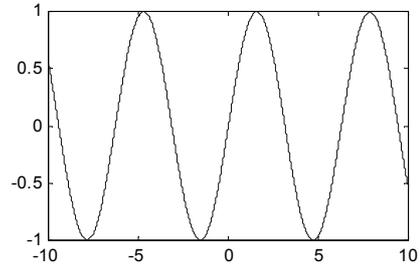
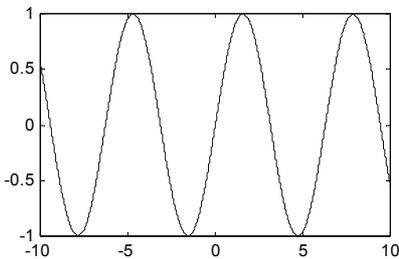


# Sinais: Aquisição e Processamento de um sinal (2)



# Sinais: Tipos

- Contínuo
- Discreto
- Periódico
- Não Periódico



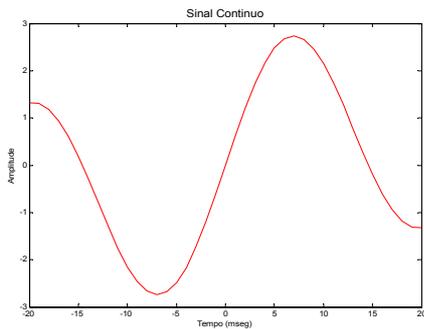
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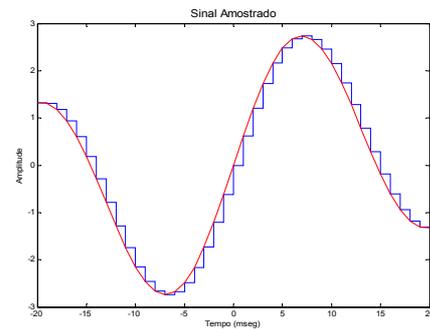
# Sinais: Sinais e Sistemas Discretos

- Notação:  $x[n] \rightarrow$  Discreto  $x(t) \rightarrow$  Contínuo

Sinal Contínuo  $x(t)$



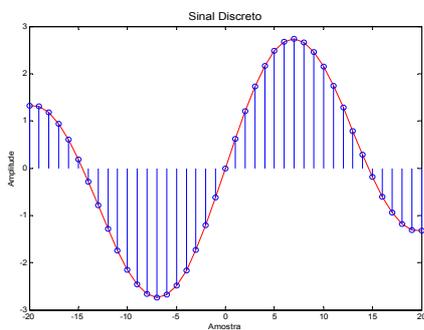
Sinal Amostrado  $x_a(t)$



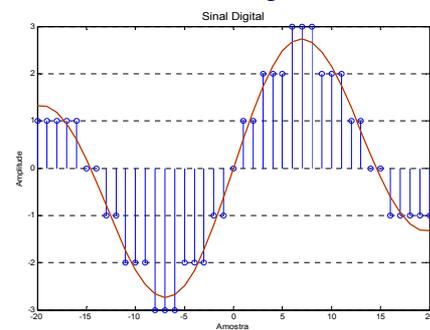
Sinal Discreto  $x[n]=x(n.T)$

$n \in \mathbb{Z}$

Sinal Digital  $x_q[n]$



$n(\text{amostras})$



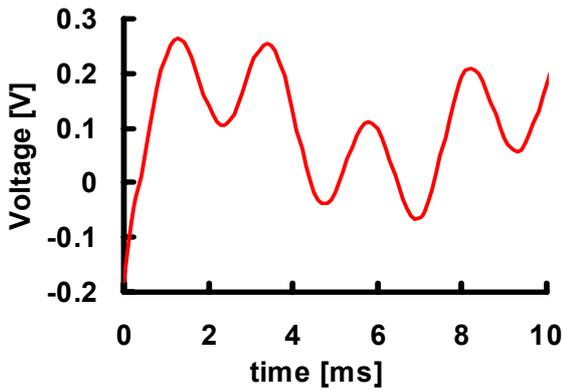
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# Sinais: analógicos & digitais

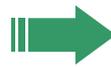
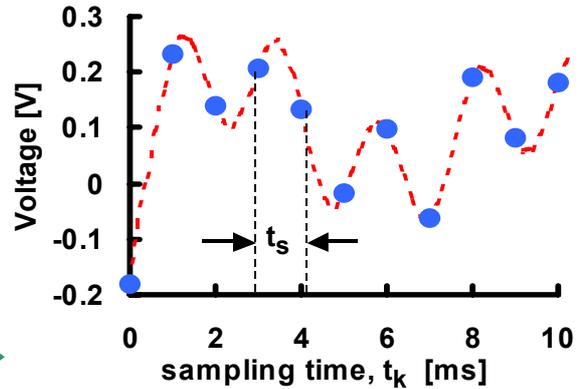
## Analógico

Continuous function  $V$  of continuous variable  $t$  (time, space etc) :  $V(t)$ .



## Digital

Discrete function  $V_k$  of discrete sampling variable  $t_k$ , with  $k =$  integer:  $V_k = V(t_k)$ .

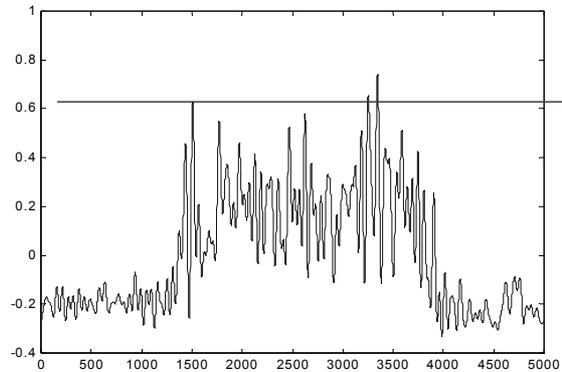
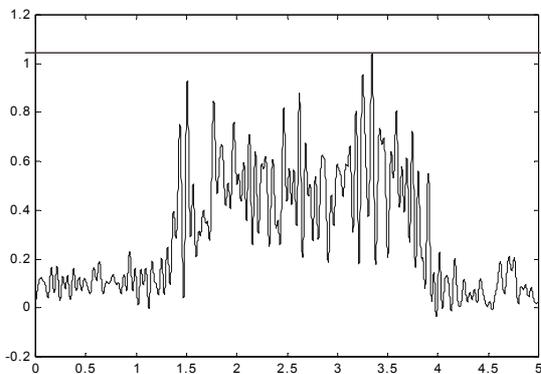


Uniform (periodic) sampling.  
Sampling frequency  $f_s = 1/t_s$

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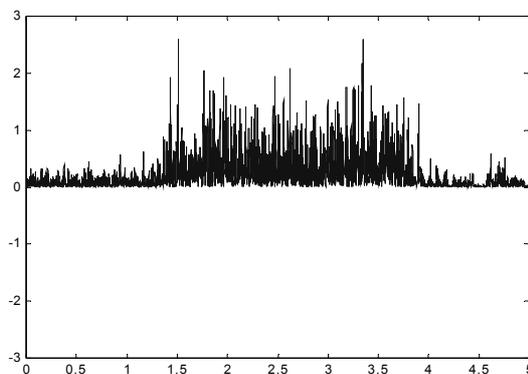
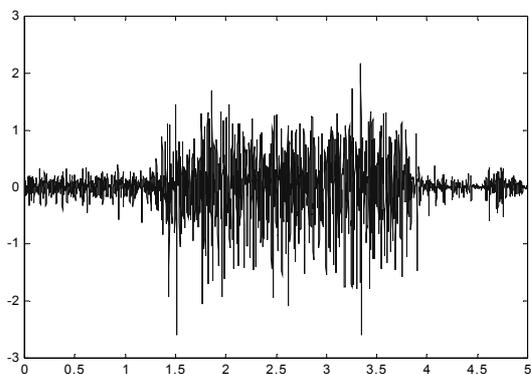
# Processamento no Tempo: Remoção da média



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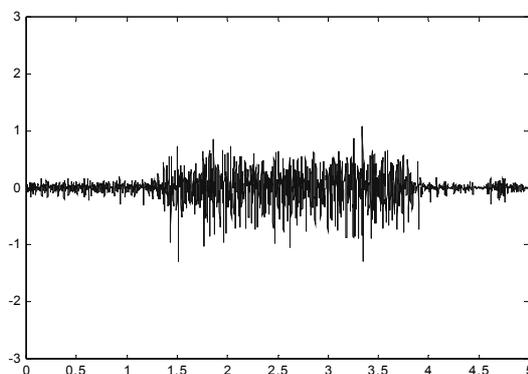
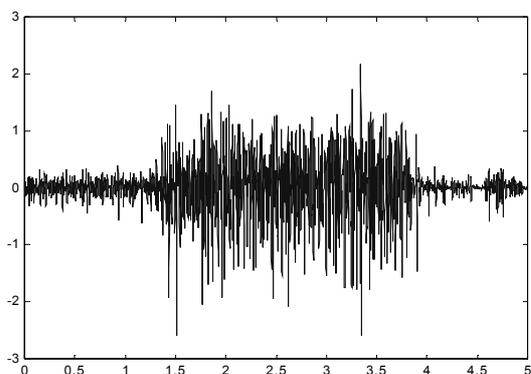
# Processamento no Tempo: Rectificação



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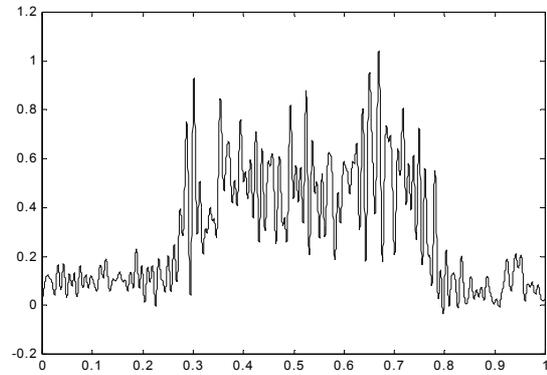
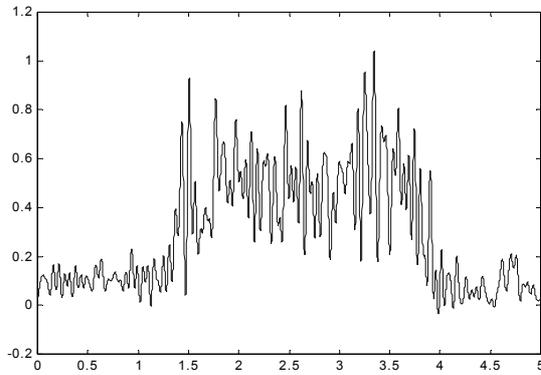
# Processamento no Tempo: Amplificação



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# Processamento no Tempo: Normalização no tempo

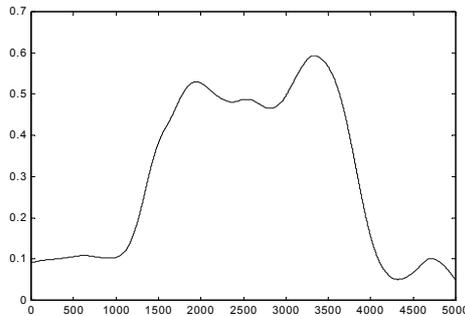


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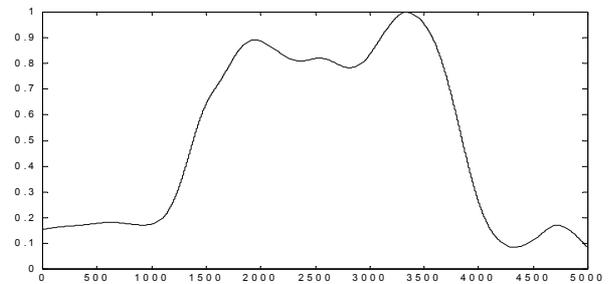


# Processamento no Tempo - Normalização na amplitude

$$y = \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}$$



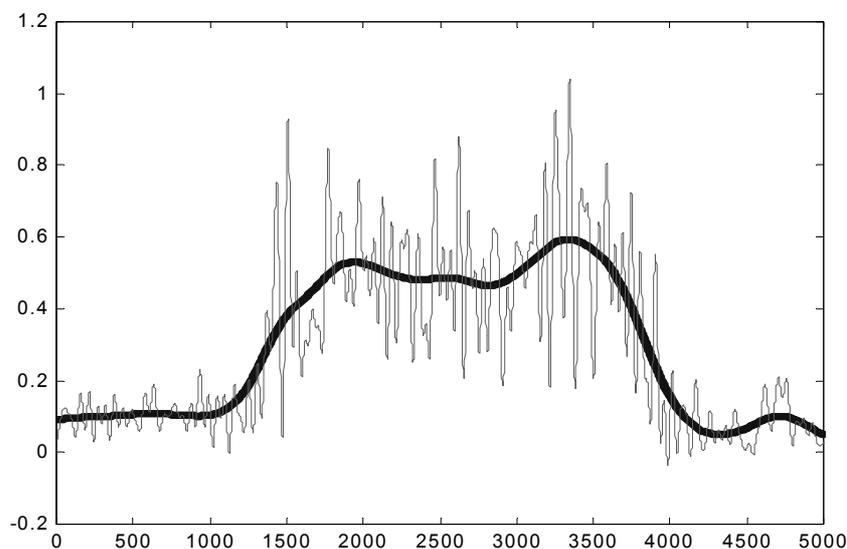
$$y = \frac{x}{\max(x)}$$



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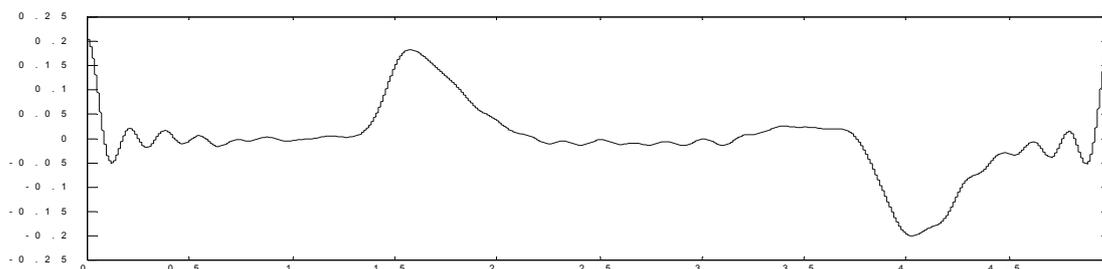
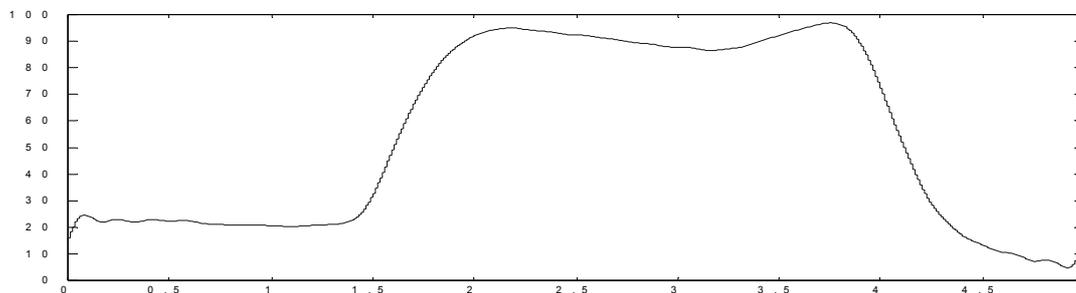
# Processamento no Tempo - Suavização (smoothing)



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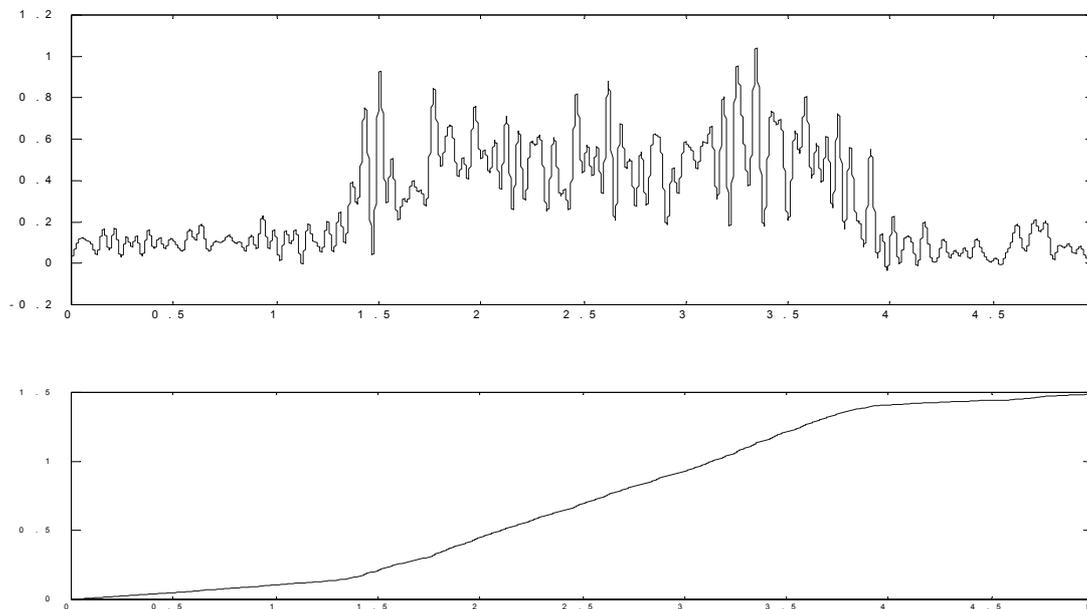
# Processamento no Tempo - Derivar



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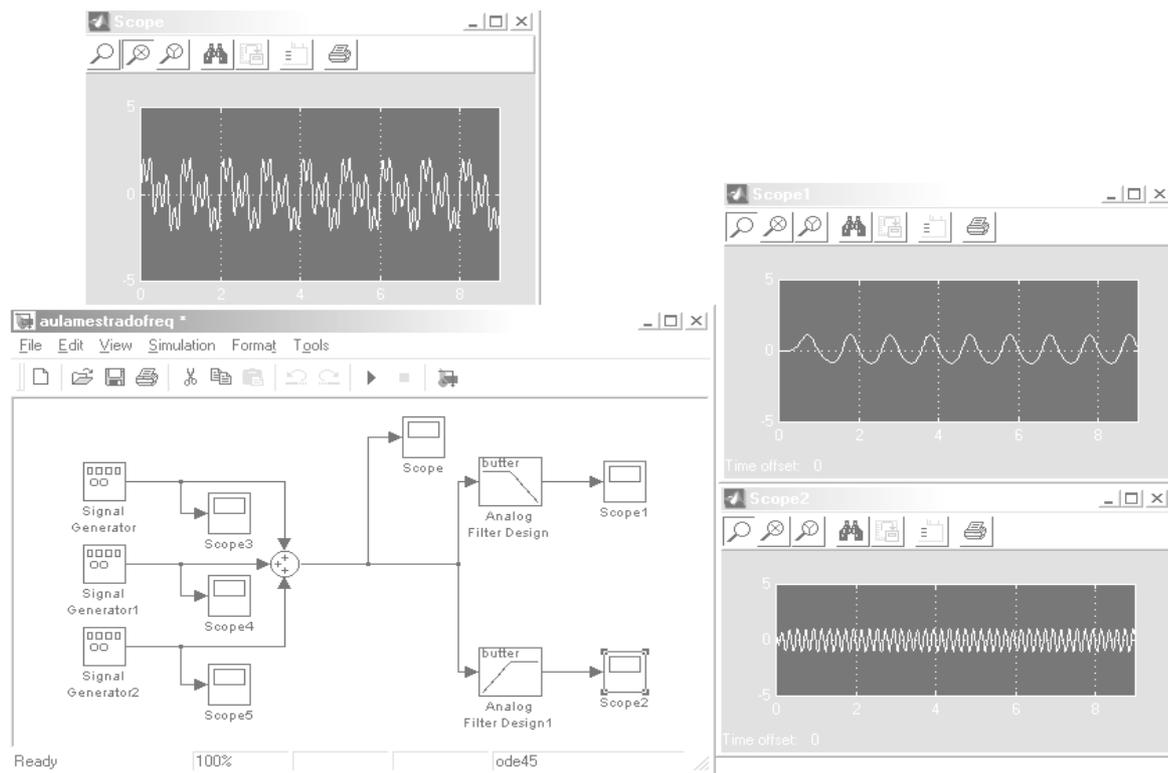
# Processamento no Tempo - Integrar



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# Processamento na Frequência - Filtragem



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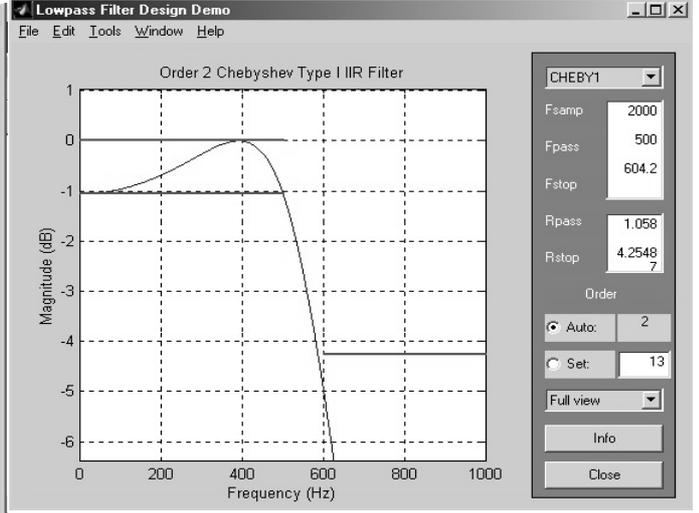
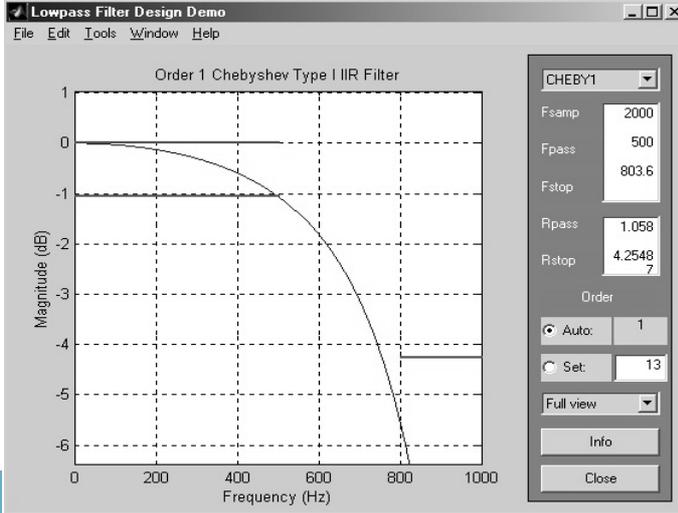
# Processamento na Frequência - Ordem de um filtro

- 1ª Ordem

–  $F_{pass} = 500 \text{ Hz}$

- 2ª Ordem

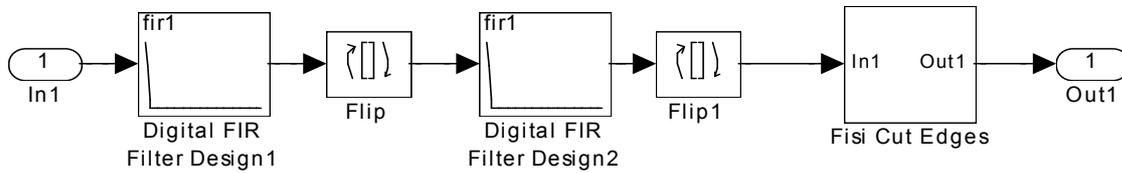
–  $F_{pass} = 500 \text{ Hz}$



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# Processamento na Frequência - Filtro sem atraso



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## Conversão A/D: Teorema da Amostragem

How fast must we sample \* a continuous signal to preserve its info content?

Ex: train wheels in a movie.

25 frames (=samples) per second.

Train starts → wheels 'go' clockwise.

Train accelerates → wheels 'go' counter-clockwise.



### Porquê?

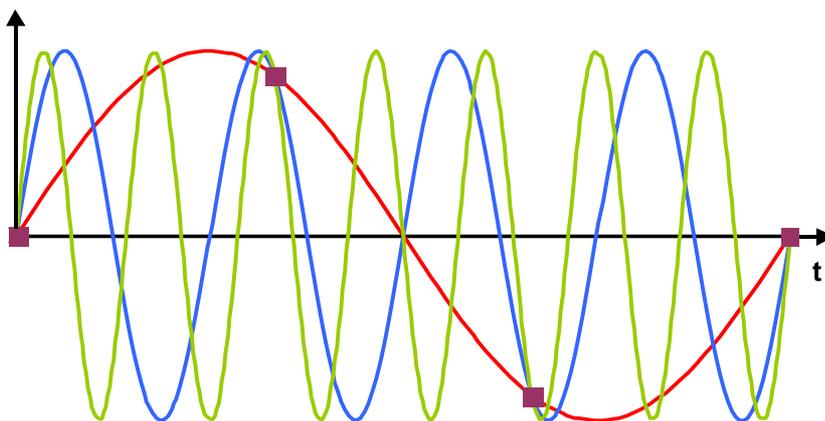
Frequency misidentification due to low sampling frequency.

Sampling: independent variable (ex: time) continuous → discrete.

Quantisation: dependent variable (ex: voltage) continuous → discrete.

Here we'll talk about uniform sampling.

## Conversão A/D: Teorema da Amostragem (2)



$$\text{— } s(t) = \sin(2\pi f_0 t)$$

$$\text{■ } s(t) @ f_s$$

$$f_0 = 1 \text{ Hz}, f_s = 3 \text{ Hz}$$

$$\text{— } s_1(t) = \sin(8\pi f_0 t)$$

$$\text{— } s_2(t) = \sin(14\pi f_0 t)$$

$s(t) @ f_s$  represents exactly all sine-waves  $s_k(t)$  defined by:

$$s_k(t) = \sin(2\pi(f_0 + k f_s)t), \quad |k| \in \mathbb{N}$$

## Conversão A/D: Teorema da Amostragem (3)

**Theo\***

A signal  $s(t)$  with maximum frequency  $f_{MAX}$  can be recovered if sampled at frequency  $f_s > 2 f_{MAX}$ .

\* Multiple proposers: Whittaker(s), Nyquist, Shannon, Kotel'nikov.

**Naming gets confusing !**

Nyquist frequency (rate)  $f_N = 2 f_{MAX}$  or  $f_{MAX}$  or  $f_{S,MIN}$  or  $f_{S,MIN}/2$

Example

$$s(t) = 3 \cdot \underbrace{\cos(50 \pi t)}_{F_1} + 10 \cdot \underbrace{\sin(300 \pi t)}_{F_2} - \underbrace{\cos(100 \pi t)}_{F_3}$$

$$F_1 = 25 \text{ Hz}, F_2 = 150 \text{ Hz}, F_3 = 50 \text{ Hz}$$

$f_{MAX}$

Condition on  $f_s$ ?

$$f_s > 300 \text{ Hz}$$

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## Conversão A/D: Teorema da Amostragem - Domínio da Frequência

- **Tempo & Frequência:** two complementary signal descriptions. Signals seen as "projected" onto time or frequency domains.



**Example**

**Ear** + brain act as frequency analyser: audio spectrum split into many narrow bands low power sounds detected out of loud background.

- **Bandwidth:** indicates rate of change of a signal. High bandwidth  $\Rightarrow$  signal changes fast.

**Atenção:** formal description makes use of "negative" frequencies !

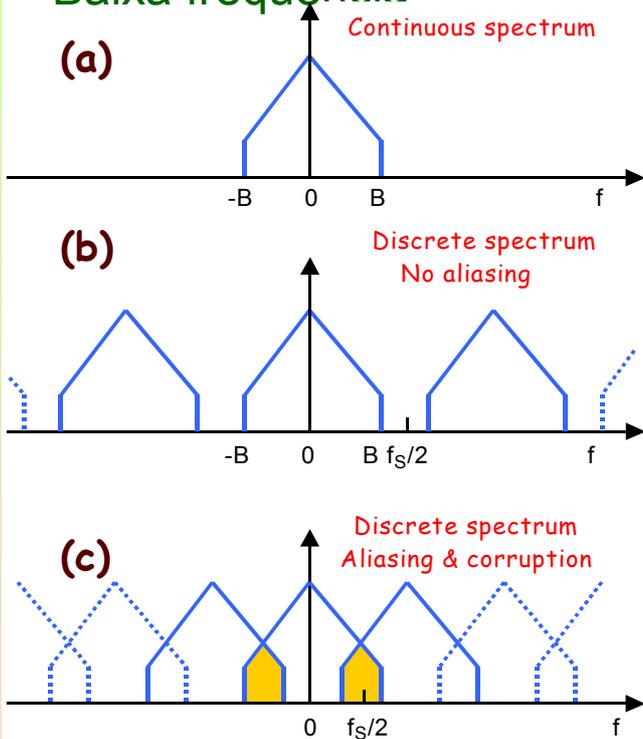
minus 50 Hz??



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# Conversão A/D: Teorema da Amostragem – Sinais de Baixa frequência



(a) Band-limited signal: frequencies in  $[-B, B]$  ( $f_{MAX} = B$ ).

(b) Time sampling  $\rightarrow$  frequency repetition.  
 $f_s > 2B \rightarrow$  no aliasing.

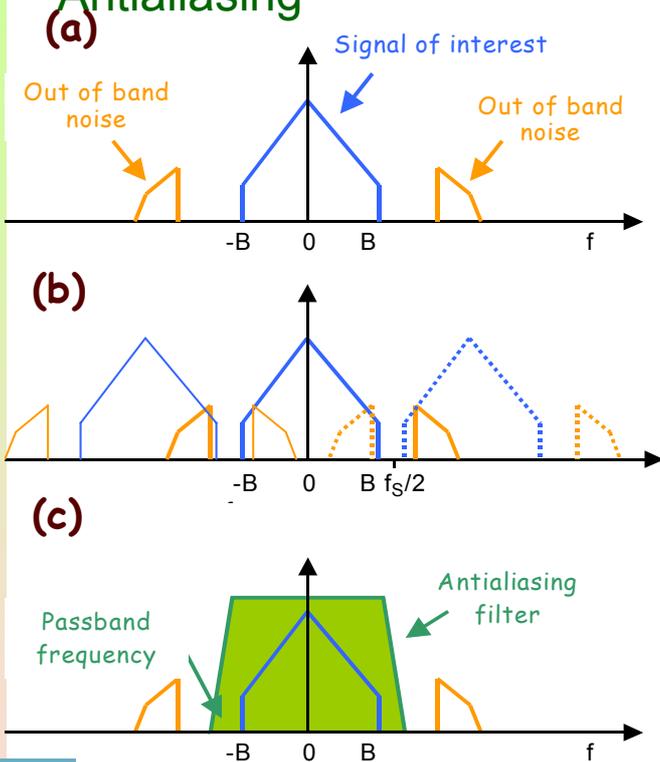
(c)  $f_s \leq 2B \rightarrow$  **aliasing!**

Aliasing: signal ambiguity in frequency domain

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# Conversão A/D: Teorema da Amostragem – Filtro Antialiasing



(a),(b) Out-of-band noise can alias into band of interest. Filter it before!

### (c) Antialiasing filter

**Passband:** depends on bandwidth of interest.

**Attenuation  $A_{MIN}$ :** depends on

- ADC resolution ( number of bits  $N$ ).
- Out-of-band noise magnitude.

$$A_{MIN, dB} \sim 6.02 N + 1.76$$

Other parameters: ripple, stopband frequency...

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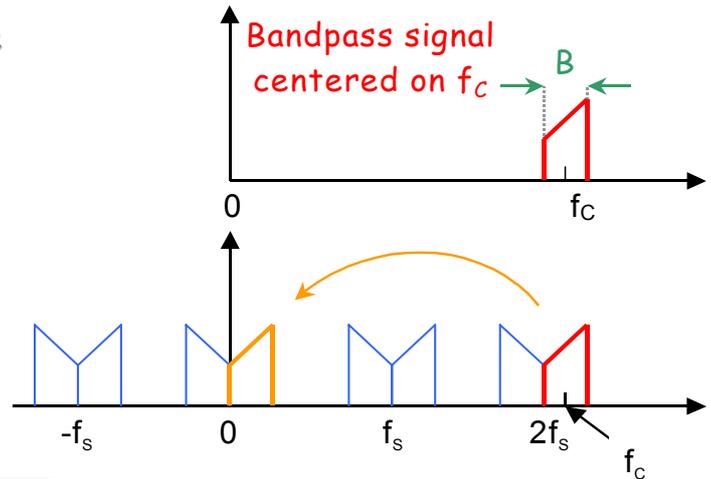


## Conversão A/D: Teorema da Amostragem - Under-sampling

Using spectral replications to reduce sampling frequency  $f_s$  req'ments.

$$\frac{2 \cdot f_c + B}{m+1} \leq f_s \leq \frac{2 \cdot f_c - B}{m}$$

$m \in \mathbb{N}$  selected so that  $f_s > 2B$



### Example

$f_c = 20$  MHz,  $B = 5$  MHz

Without under-sampling  $f_s > 40$  MHz.

With under-sampling  $f_s = 22.5$  MHz ( $m=1$ );  
 $= 17.5$  MHz ( $m=2$ );  $= 11.66$  MHz ( $m=3$ ).

### Advantages

- Slower ADCs / electronics needed.
- Simpler antialiasing filters.

## Conversão A/D: Teorema da Amostragem - Over-sampling

Oversampling : sampling at frequencies  $f_s \gg 2 f_{MAX}$  .

Over-sampling & averaging may improve ADC resolution

(  $\Rightarrow$  i.e. SNR)

$$f_{OS} = 4^w \cdot f_s$$

$f_{OS}$  = over-sampling frequency,  
 $w$  = additional bits required.

$\Rightarrow$  Each additional bit implies over-sampling by a factor of four.

### Caveat

It works for:

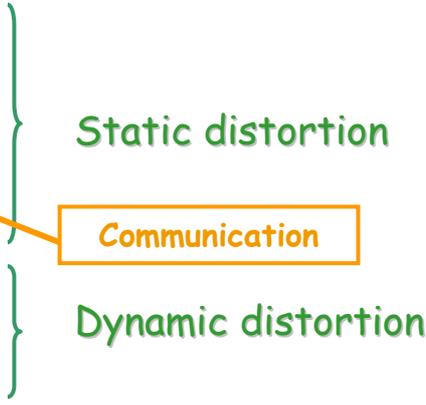
- **white noise** with amplitude sufficient to change the input signal randomly from sample to sample by at least LSB.
- Input that can take all values between two ADC bits.

# Conversão A/D: Parâmetros dum ADC

- ✓ 1. Number of bits N (~resolution)
- 2. Data throughput (~speed)
- ✓ 3. Signal-to-noise ratio (SNR)
- ✓ 4. Signal-to-noise-&-distortion rate (SINAD)
- ✓ 5. Effective Number of Bits (ENOB)
- 6. Spurious-free dynamic range (SFDR)
- 7. Integral non-linearity (INL)
- 8. Differential non-linearity (DNL)
- 9. ...

Different applications have different needs.

Radar systems



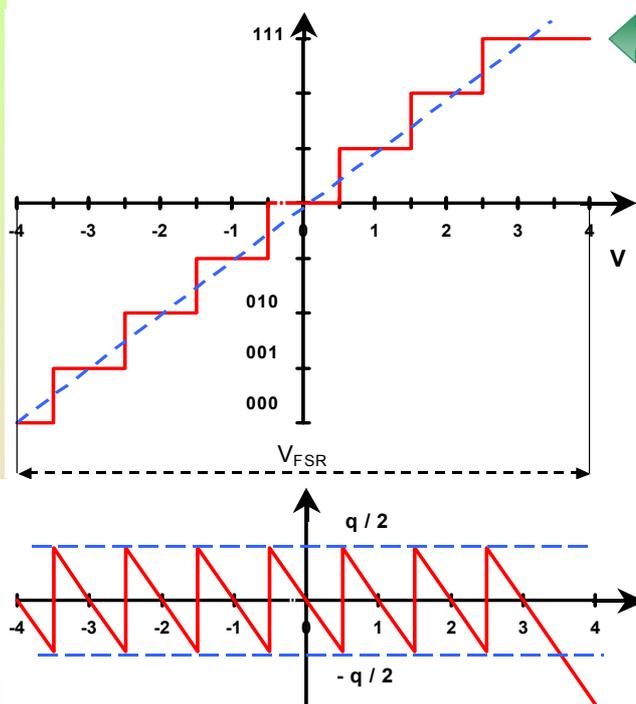
Imaging / video

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# Conversão A/D: Parâmetros dum ADC – N.º de bits N

Continuous input signal digitized into  $2^N$  levels.



Uniform, bipolar transfer function (N=3)

$$\text{Quantisation step } q = \frac{V_{FSR}}{2^N}$$

EX:  $V_{FSR} = 1V$ ,  $N = 12 \Rightarrow q = 244.1 \mu V$

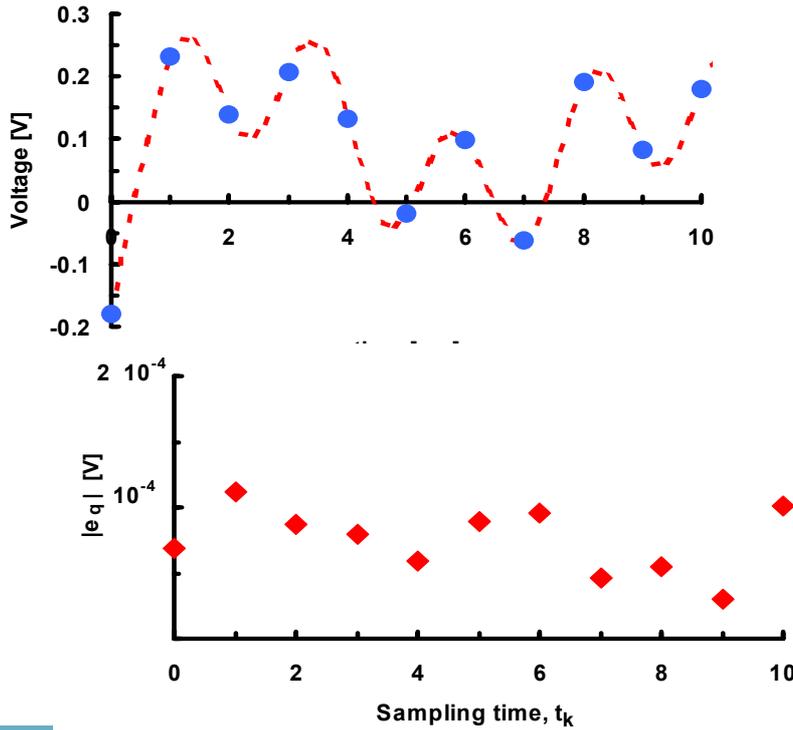
- LSB**
- Voltage (= q)
  - Scale factor (=  $1 / 2^N$ )
  - Percentage (=  $100 / 2^N$ )

Quantisation error

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# Conversão A/D: Parâmetros dum ADC – Erro de Quantização



- Quantisation Error  $e_q$  in  $[-0.5 q, +0.5 q]$ .
- $e_q$  limits ability to resolve small signal.
- Higher resolution means lower  $e_q$ .

QE for  
N = 12  
 $V_{FS} = 1$

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# Conversão A/D: Parâmetros dum ADC – SNR dum ADC ideal

$$\overline{\text{SNR}}_{\text{ideal}} = 20 \cdot \log_{10} \left( \frac{\text{RMS}(\text{input})}{\text{RMS}(e_q)} \right) \quad (1)$$

Also called SQNR  
(signal-to-quantisation-noise ratio)

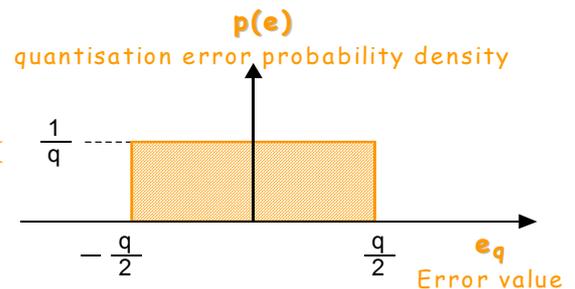
- Assumptions
- Ideal ADC: only quantisation error  $e_q$  ( $p(e)$  constant, no stuck bits...)
  - $e_q$  uncorrelated with signal.
  - ADC performance constant in time.

$$\text{RMS}(\text{input}) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \left( \frac{V_{FSR}}{2} \cdot \sin(\omega t) \right)^2 dt} = \frac{V_{FSR}}{2\sqrt{2}}$$



$$\text{Input}(t) = \frac{1}{2} V_{FSR} \sin(\omega t).$$

$$\text{RMS}(e_q) = \sqrt{\int_{-q/2}^{q/2} e_q^2 \cdot p(e_q) de_q} = \frac{q}{\sqrt{12}} = \frac{V_{FSR}}{2^N \cdot \sqrt{12}}$$



(sampling frequency  $f_s = 2 f_{MAX}$ )

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## Conversão A/D: Parâmetros dum ADC – SNR dum ADC ideal (2)

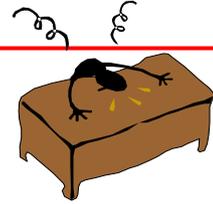
Substituting in (1) :

$$\overline{\text{SNR}}_{\text{ideal}} = 6.02 \cdot N + 1.76 \text{ [dB]} \quad (2)$$

One additional bit  $\rightarrow$  SNR increased by 6 dB

Real SNR lower because:

- Real signals have noise.
- Forcing input to full scale unwise.
- Real ADCs have additional noise (aperture jitter, non-linearities etc).



*Actually* (2) needs correction factor depending on ratio between sampling freq & Nyquist freq. Processing gain due to oversampling.

## Conversão A/D: Parâmetros dum ADC – Reais

**SNR:** (sine\_in RMS)/(ADC out\_noise RMS), with  
out\_noise = output - (DC + first 5 input harmonics) output components.

**SINAD:** (sine\_in RMS)/(ADC out\_noise\_2 RMS), with  
out\_noise\_2 = output - (DC output component).

SNR and SINAD often confused in specs.

**ENOB:** N from (2) when setting SNR ideal = SINAD,  
i.e. ENOB = (SINAD – 1.76 dB) / 6.02.

$\rightarrow$  Actual number of bit available to an equivalent ideal ADC

**Example**

12-bit ADC chip, 68 dB SINAD in specs  $\rightarrow$  1-bit ideal ADC.

## Conversão A/D: Escolha do tipo de ADC

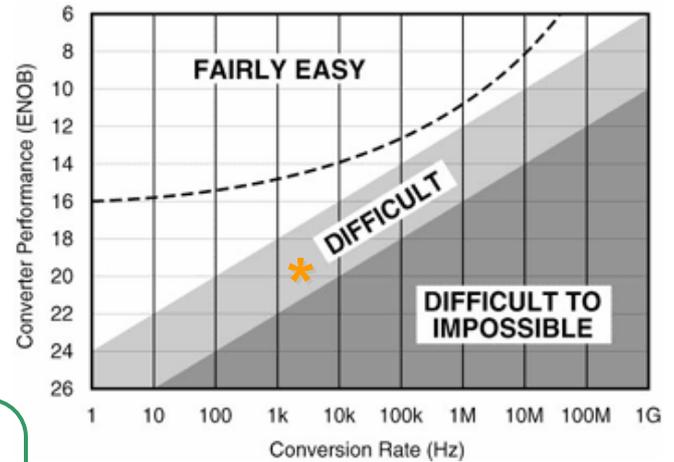
Speed & resolution:  
a tradeoff.

### High resolution (bit #)

- Higher cost & dissipation.
- Tailored onto DSP word width.

### High speed

- Large amount of data to store/analyse.
- Lower accuracy & input impedance.



\* **DIFFICULT** area moves down & right every year. Rule of thumb: 1 bit improvement every 3 years.

Oversampling & averaging (see )  
Dithering (= adding small random noise before quantisation).

} may increase SNR.



## Conversão A/D: Formatos Digitais

Positional number system with base  $b$ :

$$[\dots a_2 a_1 a_0 \cdot a_{-1} a_{-2} \dots]_b = \dots + a_2 b_2 + a_1 b_1 + a_0 b_0 + a_{-1} b_{-1} + a_{-2} b_{-2} + \dots$$

Integer part
Fractional part

Important bases: **10 (decimal)**, **2 (binary)**, 8 (octal), 16 (hexadecimal).

Early computers (ex: ENIAC) mainly base-10 machines. Mostly turned binary in the '50s.

### Benefits



- less complex arithmetic h/w;
- less storage space needed;
- simpler error analysis.



# Conversão A/D: Formatos Digitais - Aritmética Digital

Increasing number of applications requires decimal arithmetic. Ex: Banking, Financial Analysis.

## MAS

- Common decimal fractional numbers only approximated by binary numbers. Ex: 0.1 → infinite recurring binary fraction.
- Non-integer decimal arithmetic software emulation available *but* often too slow.



**IEEE 754, 1985:** binary floating point arithmetic standard specified  
**IEEE 854, 1987:** standard expanded to include decimal arithmetic.

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# Conversão A/D: Formatos Digitais – Binário de Virgula Fixa

Ex: 3-bit formats

Represent integer or fractional binary numbers.

Unsigned integer	Offset-Binary	Sign-Magnitude	Two's complement
7 111	4 111	3 011	3 011
6 110	3 110	2 010	2 010
5 101	2 101	1 001	1 001
4 100	1 100	0 000	0 000
3 011	0 011	0 100	-1 111
2 010	-1 010	-1 101	-2 110
1 001	-2 001	-2 110	-3 101
0 000	-3 000	-3 111	-4 100



Fractional point (DSPs)

Sign bit

NB: Constant gap between numbers.

Decimal equivalent

Binary representation

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# Conversão A/D: Formatos Digitais – Binário de Virgula Flutuante

**PROBLEM**

Wide variety of floating point hardware in '60s and '70s,  
 → different ranges, precision and rounded arithmetic.

William Kahan: "Reliable portable software was becoming more expensive to develop than anyone but AT&T and the Pentagon could afford".

## IEEE 754 standard

Formats & methods for binary floating-point arithmetic.

Definition of IEEE 754 standard between 1977 and 1985. *De facto* standard before 1985 !

Note: *NOT* the easiest h/w choice!

# Conversão A/D: Formatos Digitais – Binário de Virgula Flutuante (2)

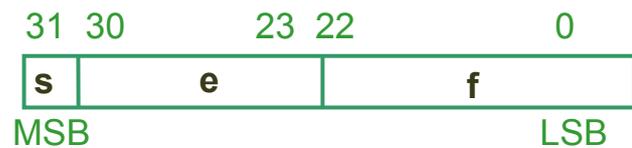
## IEEE 754 standard

### Precision

Single (32 bits)

Double (64 bits)

Double-extended ( ≥80 bits)



**e** = exponent, offset binary,  $-26 < e < 127$

**s** = sign, 0 = pos, 1 = neg

**f** = fractional part, sign magnitude + hidden bit

$$\text{Coded number } x = (-1)^s \cdot 2^e \cdot 1.f$$

Single precision range

$$\text{Max} = 3.4 \cdot 10^{38}$$

$$\text{Min} = 1.175 \cdot 10^{-38}$$

NB: Variable gap between numbers.

Large numbers → large gaps; small numbers → small gaps.

## Conversão A/D: Formatos Digitais – Efeitos do *Finite word-length*

**Overflow** : arises when arithmetic operation result has one too many bits to be represented in a certain format.

$$\text{Dynamic range}_{\text{dB}} = 20 \log_{10} \left[ \frac{\text{largest value}}{\text{smallest value}} \right] \begin{cases} \text{Fixed point} \sim 180 \text{ dB} \\ \text{Floating point} \sim 1500 \text{ dB} \end{cases}$$

High dynamic range  $\Rightarrow$  wide data set representation with no overflow.

NB: Different applications have different needs.  
Ex: telecomms: 50 dB; HiFi audio: 90 dB.



## Conversão A/D: Formatos Digitais – Efeitos do *Finite word-length (2)*

**Round-off**: error caused by rounding math calculation result to nearest quantisation level.



Big concern for real numbers.

### Example

0.1 not exactly represented (falls between two floating point numbers).

- *For integers* within  $\pm 16.8$  million range: single-precision floating point gives no round-off error.
- *Outside* that range, integers are missing: gaps between consecutive floating point numbers are larger than integers.

### Round-off error estimate:

*Relative error* = (floating - actual value)/actual value (depends on base).

The smaller the base, the tighter the error estimate.

