

Basics of Signal Analysis: Signals, Sampling, Noise

Alessandro Tomassini

MRC Cognition and Brain Sciences Unit Alessandro.Tomassini@mrc-cbu.cam.ac.uk **SIGNAL:** [...]"is a function that conveys information about the behaviour or attributes of some phenomenon"[...]

In the physical world, any quantity exhibiting variation in time or variation in space (such as an image) is potentially a signal that might provide information on the status of a physical system, or convey a message between observers, among other possibilities. (Wikipedia)



Sampling: is the conversion of a continuous signal (brain activation in time & space, 2D images etc) to a sequence of discrete sample (discretisation)

Why does it matter? :

- Digital signal processing can only handle discrete numbers (finite precision)

-Sampling can provide the information necessary for the intended analysis while at the same time allow for efficient processing



Basic Concepts

It is usually most convenient to sample **equidistantly**, i.e. neighbouring samples have the same distance to each no matter at what point of the sample they are

Sampling Rate/Frequency: How densely do we take samples? For example: 100 samples per second -> 100 samples/s -> 100 Hz 10 samples per centimetre -> 10 samples/cm 100 samples ("pixels") per square centimetre -> 100 samples/cm2

Sampling Interval/Distance: How far apart are the samples (in time, space etc.)? 100 Hz -> (1/100)*1s = 0.01 s = 10 ms 10 samples/cm -> (1/10)*1 cm = 0.1 cm = 1mm 100 samples/cm2 = (1/100)*1 cm2 = 0.01 cm2 = (0.1*0.1) cm2 = 1 mm2

Sampling range: What are the maximum/minimum values we can sample?

Resolution/precision: Range divided by depth For example: Range +/- 10 μ V, 8 bit sampling depth => 20/256 \approx 0.08 μ V









Sampling Frequency is crucial

Let's define a sinusoidal signal with frequency 1Hz:



$Y = A \cos(\omega t + \varphi) \rightarrow A \cos(2\pi f t + \varphi)$

A: amplitude $\omega = 2\pi f$, # of cycles per unit time ϕ : size of the phase shift

% I do not like floating figures... set(0,'DefaultFigureWindowStyle','docked');

```
% let's generate a sinusoidal signal
tWin = 5;%temporal window
t = 0:0.0001:tWin;
Phi = 0; f = 1;%Hz
signal= cos(2*pi*f*t+Phi);
figure
hold on;grid on;
plot(t,signal,'b','linewidth',2);
```

Down-sampling can lead to Aliasing (i.e. distorted discrete signal)

Aliasing: artefact that results when the discrete signal (reconstructed from samples) differs from the original continuous signal.

Signal frequency = 1Hz / Sampling frequency = 1Hz





Source: Imgur.com

Down-sampling can lead to Aliasing (i.e. distorted discrete signal)

Signal frequency = 1Hz / Sampling frequency = 1.25Hz





Source: Imgur.com

Fs = 1.25; %sampling frequency ts = 0:1/Fs:tWin;

SampAlias= cos(2*pi*f*ts); %samples
plot(ts,SampAlias,'ko','linewidth',2,'MarkerFaceColor','r');

AliasF = abs(floor(Fs/f)*Fs-f); %calculate aliased frequency ASignal=cos(2*pi*AliasF*t);% calculate aliased signal plot(t,ASignal,'r','linewidth',2);





Nyquist - Shannon Sampling Theorem

- If you sample a signal with a sampling rate of X Hz, make sure the signal doesn't contain frequencies above X/2 Hz
- **Nyquist Frequency**: half of the sampling rate of a discrete signal
- The <u>largest</u> frequency in the signal should be <u>smaller</u> than the Nyquist Frequency

Sampling frequency = 2Hz; Nyquist Frequency = 1Hz



Examples

fMRI

Typically sampled every 2 seconds (0.5 Hz with TR = 2s)

Nyquist Frequency = Fsamp/2 = 0.25 Hz

EEG/MEG Typically sampled every 2 msec (500Hz)

Nyquist Frequency = 250 Hz (NB: well above the highest freq band) Gamma 30 - 100-



Hemodynamic Response Function (HRF)

Noise & Error propagation

Noise is a general term for alterations that a signal may suffer because of :

- Inaccuracies of measurement equipment
- Interference from artefact sources
- Modelling errors



lx = length(signal); noise = 0.1*randn(1,lx); Figure; plot(t,noise);

```
nSignal = noise+signal;
plot(t,nSignal,'b','linewidth',2)
grid on;box on;
xlabel('time (sec)');ylabel('amplitude (a.u.)')
```

Noise & Error propagation

Any transformation of the data will be affected by noise, and may amplify it

For example: Subtracting/adding data sets with equal variance doubles the variance



```
Nvalues = -70:70;
S_mean = 0;
S_sd1 = 20;S_sd2 = 30;
Signal1 = normpdf(Nvalues,S_mean,S_sd1);
Signal2 = normpdf(Nvalues,S_mean,S_sd2);
```

figure; bar([1 2 3],[var(Signal1),var (Signal2),var (Signal1+Signal2)]) set(gca,'XTickLabel',{'Noise1','Noise2','N1+N2'}) Title('Standard deviation')

Noise & Error propagation

If the operation is more complex (e.g. derivative), the effect of noise will probably be more complex.

subplot(1,2,1)
plot(diff(signal));
title('clean signal');

subplot(1,2,2)
plot(diff(nSignal));
title('noisy signal')

Data Quality: Signal-to-Noise Ratio (SNR)

Signal-to-Noise ratio: compare the level of "signal" to the level of "noise".

Common definition for SNR:

Divide power (variance) of signal by power (variance) of noise

$$SNR = \frac{P_{Signal}}{P_{Noise}}$$

Other definitions possible:

Divide amplitude of signal by standard deviation of noise

Divide root-mean-square (RMS) of signal by RMS of noise

Decibels:
$$SNR_{dB} = 10 \log_{10} \frac{P_{Signal}}{P_{Noise}} = P_{Signal,dB} - P_{Noise,dB}$$

Data Quality: Signal-to-Noise Ratio (SNR)

 $SNR = \frac{P(var)Signal}{P(var)Noise}$



lx = length(signal); noise_low = 0.1*randn(1,lx); noise_high = 0.8*randn(1,lx);

```
SNR1 = var(signal)/var(noise_low);
SNR2 = var(signal)/var(noise_high);
```

```
figure;
subplot(2,2,1);plot(t,signal+noise_low);title('low');
subplot(2,2,2);plot(t,signal+noise_high);title('high');
```

subplot(2,2,3);bar([SNR1,SNR2]);set(gca,'XTickLabel',{'SNR1','SNR2'}); ylabel('SNR (a.u.)')

The End...