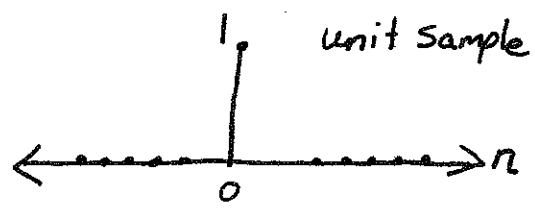


## 2.1

Basic Sequence:

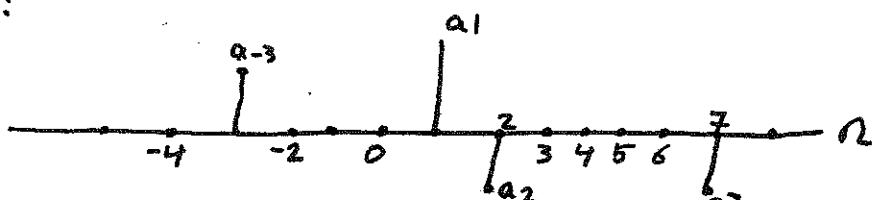
① The Unit Sample Sequence

$$\delta[n] = \begin{cases} 0, & n \neq 0 \\ 1, & n=0 \end{cases}$$



Called discrete time impulse or only impulse.

Any arbitrary sequence can be represented as sum of scaled, delayed impulse. For example the sequence  $p[n]$  in the following figure :



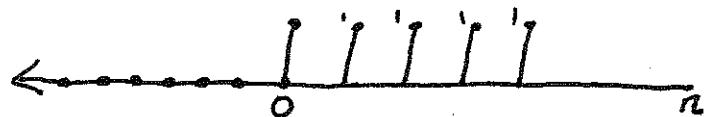
$$p[n] = a_3 \delta[n+3] + a_1 \delta[n-1] + a_2 \delta[n-2] + a_7 \delta[n-7].$$

More generally, any sequence can be expressed as:

$$x[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x[k] \delta[n-k].$$

② The Unit step Sequence is given by

$$u[n] = \begin{cases} 1, & n \geq 0 \\ 0, & n < 0 \end{cases}$$



$$u[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^n \delta[k] \rightarrow \text{The Value of unit step } s \& g, \text{ at (time) index } n$$

is equal to the accumulated sum of the Value

at Index  $n$  and all previous Values of the Impulse Sequence.

\* An alternative representation of unite step in terms of the impulse is sum of delayed impulses. (non-Zero values are all unity).

$$u[n] = \delta[n] + \delta[n-1] + \delta[n-2] + \dots$$

$$u[n] = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \delta[n-k]$$

conversely, The impulse sequence can

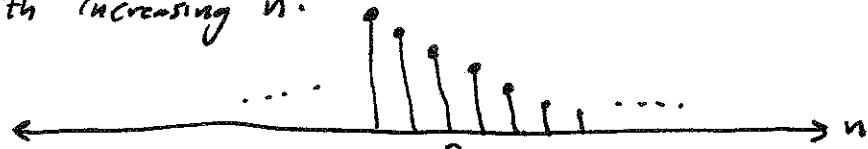
be expressed as first backward difference of the unit step sequence:  $\delta[n] = u[n] - u[n-1]$

(3) exponential sequences (important for representing and analyzing linear time-invariant (LTI) discrete-time systems).

$$x[n] = A \alpha^n$$

If  $A$  and  $\alpha$  are real numbers, then sequence is real.

\* if  $0 < \alpha < 1$  and  $A$  is positive, then sequence values are positive and decrease with increasing  $n$ .



\* For  $-1 < \alpha < 0$ , the seq. values alternate in sign, But decrease in magnitude with increasing  $n$ . If  $|\alpha| > 1$ , then the seq. grows in magnitude as  $n$  increases.

#### Example: Combining Basic Sequences

we want an exponential sequence that is zero for  $n < 0$ ,

$$x[n] = \begin{cases} A \alpha^n, & n \geq 0 \\ 0, & n < 0 \end{cases}$$

A much simpler expression is  $x[n] = A \alpha^n u[n]$ .

(4) Sinusoidal Sequences:

$$x[n] = A \cos(\omega_0 n + \phi)$$

↑ Amplitude      ↑ Freq.      ↑ phase shift

Where,  $A$  and  $\phi$  are real constants.



$$\omega_0 = \frac{\pi}{4}$$

$$\phi = -\frac{\pi}{8}$$

\* The exponential sequence  $Ax^n$  with complex  $x$  has real and imaginary parts that are exponentially weighted sinusoids.

$$\text{if } x = |x|e^{j\omega_0} \text{ and } A = |A|e^{j\phi},$$

the sequence  $Ax^n$  can be expressed in any of the following forms:

$$\begin{aligned} x[n] &= Ax^n = |A|e^{j\phi} |x|^n e^{j\omega_0 n} \\ &= |A| |x|^n e^{j\omega_0 n} \\ &= |A| |x|^n e^{j(\omega_0 n + \phi)} \\ &= |A| |x|^n \cos(\omega_0 n + \phi) + j |A| |x|^n \sin(\omega_0 n + \phi) \end{aligned}$$

reminder:  
 $e^{jx} = \cos(x) + j \sin(x)$

\* If  $|x| > 1 \rightarrow$  Sequence oscillates with an exponentially growing envelope.

If  $|x| < 1 \rightarrow$  seq. oscillates with an exponentially decaying envelope.

→ As a simple example, consider  $\omega_0 = \pi$ .

When  ~~$|x| > 1$~~   $|x| = 1$ , the sequence is referred to as a "Complex exponential Seq.".

$$x[n] = |A|e^{j(\omega_0 n + \phi)} = |A| \cos(\omega_0 n + \phi) + j |A| \sin(\omega_0 n + \phi) \quad (1)$$

\* That is the real and imaginary parts of  $e^{j\omega_0 n}$  vary sinusoidally with  $n$ .

\* By analogy with continuous-time case,  $\omega_0 \rightarrow$  called frequency  
 $\phi \rightarrow$  phase

$n \rightarrow$  dimensionless Integer  $\Rightarrow \omega_0$  is in radians.

OR we can specify the unit of  $\omega_0$  to be radians per sample and unit of ( $n$ ) to be samples.

\* The fact that  $n$  is always integer in eq. (4) leads to some important differences between the properties of continuous-time and discrete-time complex exponential sequences and sinusoids sequences.

An important difference (sinusoids) is seen when we consider a frequency  $(\omega_0 + 2\pi)$ . In this case:

$$\begin{aligned} x[n] &= A e^{j(\omega_0 + 2\pi)n} \\ &= A e^{j\omega_0 n} e^{j2\pi n} \end{aligned}$$

So, complex exponential sequences with frequencies  $(\omega_0 + 2\pi r)$ ,  $r$  is integer, are indistinguishable from one another. (Same for sinusoids).

$$\begin{aligned} x[n] &= A \cos((\omega_0 + 2\pi r)n + \phi) \\ &= A \cos(\omega_0 n + \phi). \end{aligned}$$

\* So, we conclude that when discussing complex exponential signals  $x[n] = A e^{j\omega_0 n}$  or real sinusoidal signals

$x[n] = A \cos(\omega_0 n + \phi)$ , we need only consider frequencies in an interval of length  $2\pi$ , such as  $-\pi \leq \omega_0 \leq \pi$  or  $0 \leq \omega_0 \leq 2\pi$ .

\* Another important difference between Continuous-time (CT) and Discrete-time (DT) is in their periodicity.

— In CT Case, complex exponential and sinusoids are both periodic with period equal to  $2\pi/f$  ( $T = \frac{2\pi}{f}$ ).

— In DT Case, a periodic sequence is a sequence for which  $x[n] = x[n+N]$ , for all  $n$ .

Where, the period  $N$  is necessarily an integer.

\* If we test this condition for DT sinusoid, then

$$A \cos(\omega_0 n + \phi) = A \cos(\omega_0 n + \omega_0 N + \phi)$$

Which requires that:

$$\omega_0 N = 2\pi k, \quad k \text{ is an Integer}$$

\* Something for complex exponential seq.  $C e^{j\omega_0 n}$   $\Rightarrow$  periodicity with period  $N$ . requires:

$$e^{j\omega_0(n+N)} = e^{j\omega_0 n} \quad \text{which is true}$$

only for  $\omega_0 N = 2\pi k$ .

\* Consequently, Complex exponential and Sinusoidal sequences are not necessarily periodic in  $(n)$  with period  $(\frac{2\pi}{\omega_0})$ , and depending on the value of  $\omega_0$  maynot be periodic at all.

**Example:** Periodic and Aperiodic DT Seq.

Set  $x_1(n) = \cos(\pi n/4)$ , this signal has a period of  $N=8$ . To show this:

$$x(n+8) = \cos(\pi(n+8)/4) = \cos(\pi n/4 + 2\pi) = \cos(\pi n/4) = x(n).$$

$\therefore$  Thus satisfying the definition of DT periodic signal.

$$\downarrow T = \frac{2\pi}{f} \quad (\text{Not necessarily true in DT}).$$

Set  $x_2(n) = \cos(\frac{3\pi n}{8})$  has a higher frequency than  $x_1(n)$ .

However,  $x_2(n)$  is not periodic with period 8, since

$$x_2(n+8) = \cos(3\pi(n+8)/8) = \cos(3\pi n/8 + 3\pi) = -x_2(n)$$

$x_2(n)$  has a period of  $N=16$ , thus increasing freq. from  $\omega_0 = \frac{2\pi}{8}$  to  $\omega_0 = \frac{3\pi}{8}$  also increase the period of the signal.

\* This occurs because DT signals are defined only for integer indices ( $n$ ).

\* The integer restriction on ( $n$ ) causes some sinusoidal signals not to be periodic at all. For example, there is no integer  $N$  such that the signal  $x_3(n) = \cos(n)$  satisfies

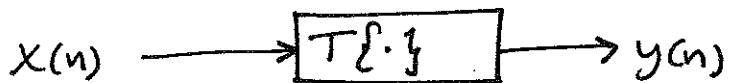
$$x_3(n+N) = x_3(n) \text{ for all } n.$$

\* High and low frequencies are different for CT and DT. Sinusoidal signals and complex exponential signals.

- For CT sinusoidal signal  $x(t) = A \cos(\omega_0 t + \phi)$ , as  $\omega_0$  increases,  $x(t)$  oscillates more rapidly. For DT sinusoidal signal  $x[n] = A \cos(\omega_0 n + \phi)$ , as  $\omega_0$  increases from  $\omega_0 = 0$  towards  $\omega_0 = \pi$ ,  $x[n]$  oscillates more and more rapidly. However, as  $\omega_0$  increases from  $\omega_0 = \pi$  towards  $\omega_0 = 2\pi$ ,  $x[n]$  oscillation becomes slower. Because of the periodicity in  $\omega_0$  of sinusoidal and complex exp. sequences,  $\omega_0 = 2\pi$  is indistinguishable from freq.  $\omega_0 = 0$ , and more generally, frequencies around  $\omega_0 = 2\pi$  are indistinguishable from frequencies around  $\omega_0 = 0$ .

\* As a consequence, for sinusoidal and complex exp. signals values of  $\omega_0$  in the vicinity of  $\omega_0 = 2\pi k$  for any integer  $k$  are typically referred to as low frequencies (slow oscillation), while values of  $\omega_0$  in the vicinity of  $\omega_0 = (\pi + 2\pi k)$  for any integer  $k$  are referred to as high frequencies (rapid oscillation).

## 2.2 Discrete-Time Systems



$$y(n) = T\{x(n)\}, \quad T \rightarrow \text{System Transformation}$$

$$x(n) \longrightarrow y(n)$$

\* Special Cases :

\* linear

\* Shift-Invariant (or Time-Invariant)

CT  $\rightarrow$  LTI, DT  $\rightarrow$  LSI or LTI

linearity:

$$\text{If } x_1(n) \longrightarrow y_1(n)$$

$$\text{and } x_2(n) \longrightarrow y_2(n)$$

$$\text{Then, } a x_1(n) + b x_2(n) \longrightarrow a y_1(n) + b y_2(n)$$

\* linear combination of inputs produces the same linear combination of the corresponding outputs.

$$\sum a_k x_k(n) \Rightarrow \sum a_k y_k(n)$$

Shift-Invariant (or Time-Invariant)

$$x(n) \longrightarrow y(n)$$

$$x(n-n_0) \longrightarrow y(n-n_0).$$

If we shift the input seq. in  $x(n)$ , we also shift output seq. in  $y(n)$  (same amount of shift).

e.g.

(Unit Sample)  $\delta(n) \longrightarrow h(n)$  (called unit sample response)  
 $\delta(n-k) \longrightarrow h(n-k)$

$$x(n) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x(k) \delta(n-k)$$

Linearity      Time-Invariant

$$y(n) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x(k) h(n-k)$$

by property of LTI.

**key Result** For LTI systems, the response of an arbitrary system can be determined by knowing the response of unit sample, we can construct  $y(n)$ .

This referred to Convolution Sum

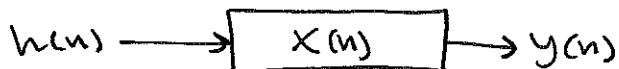
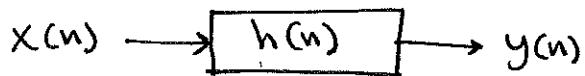
$$y(n) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x(k) h(n-k)$$

$$n-k = r, k = n-r$$

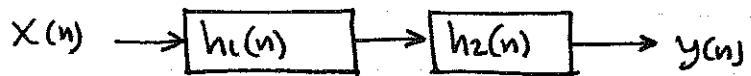
$$y(n) = \sum_r x(n-r) h(r)$$

⇒ This means that the system doesn't particularly care what we call input to the system and what we call the unit sample response of the system. ⇒ Convolution is commutative

i.e.  $y(n) = x(n) * h(n)$       → Convolve  
 $= h(n) * x(n)$



This implies that in LTI Cascade System, the order of the cascaded systems is not important.



System response is  $h_1(n) * h_2(n)$



Sys. response is  $h_2(n) * h_1(n) = h_1(n) * h_2(n)$

Example: Ideal delay system

$$y(n) = \alpha e(n - n_d), -\infty < n < \infty$$

$n_d \rightarrow$  Constant positive Integer, called the delay of the sys.  
i.e. Shifts the input seq. to the right by  $n_d$  samples.

If  $n_d$  is fixed negative integer  $\Rightarrow$  Shifts input sequence to the left by  $|n_d|$  samples, corresponding to a time advance.

Example: Moving average

$$\begin{aligned} y(n) &= \frac{1}{M_1 + M_2 + 1} \sum_{k=-M_1}^{M_2} x[n-k] \\ &= \frac{1}{M_1 + M_2 + 1} \left\{ x[n+M_1] + x[n+M_1-1] + \dots + x[n] + \right. \\ &\quad \left. x[n-1] + \dots + x[n-M_2] \right\} \end{aligned}$$

\* For  $M_1 = 0, M_2 = 5$

$$y(7) = \frac{1}{6} [x(7) + x(6) + x(5) + x(4) + x(3) + x(2)]$$

$$y(8) = \frac{1}{6} [x(8) + x(7) + x(5) + x(4) + x(3)]$$

## \* Memoryless Systems:

A system is referred to as memoryless if the output  $y[n]$  at every value of  $n$  depends only on the input  $x[n]$  at the same value of  $n$ .

Example:  $y[n] = (x[n])^2$ , for each value of  $n$ .  
This is memoryless system.

⇒ What is about Ideal Delay system? Moving average system?

⇒ When are they memoryless?

$$(n_d = 0 \text{ and } M_1 = M_2 = 0)$$

Example: Linear system "Accumulator System"

$$y[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^n x[k]$$

\* Output at time  $(n)$  is the sum of the present and all past input samples. ⇒ Accumulator sys. is a linear system!

Proof:

Let  $x_1[n]$  and  $x_2[n]$  are two arbitrary inputs to the system.  
So, their corresponding outputs:

$$y_1[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^n x_1[k], \quad y_2[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^n x_2[k]$$

⇒ When the input  $x_3[n] = ax_1[n] + bx_2[n]$ , the superposition principle requires that  $y_3[n] = ay_1[n] + by_2[n]$  for all possible choices of  $a$  and  $b$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow y_3(n) &= \sum_{k=-\infty}^n x_3[k] \\ &= \sum_{k=-\infty}^n (ax_1(k) + bx_2(k)) \\ &= a \sum_{k=-\infty}^n x_1(k) + b \sum_{k=-\infty}^n x_2(k) \\ &= ay_1(n) + by_2(n) \end{aligned}$$

Example: A nonlinear system

$$w[n] = \log_{10}(|x(n)|)$$

This system is nonlinear ?? prove?

\* To prove this we only need to find one counterexample.

$$x_1[n] = 1, x_2[n] = 10$$

$$\Rightarrow w_1[n] = 0, w_2[n] = 1$$

Now, since  $x_2[n] = 10 x_1[n]$  if system is linear, it must be that  $w_2[n] = 10 w_1[n]$ . Since this is not true for this set of inputs and outputs so the system is not linear.

\* Is Accumulator System,  $y(n) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^n x(k)$ , a Time-Invariant sys.?

Proof: Set  $x_1[n] = 2e^{j(n-n_0)}$ . To show shift-invariant, we solve for both  $y(n-n_0)$  and  $y_1(n)$  and compare them.

$$y[n-n_0] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{n-n_0} x(k)$$

$$\begin{aligned} y_1(n) &= \sum_{k=-\infty}^n x_1(k) \\ &= \sum_{k=-\infty}^n x[k-n_0] \end{aligned}$$

Substituting change of variables  $k_1 = k - n_0$  into the summation gives

$$y_1[n] = \sum_{k_1=-\infty}^{n-n_0} x[k_1] = y(n-n_0)$$

∴ Thus Accumulator is a Time-Invariant System.

Example: "Compressor System" Not Time-Invariant System.

$$y(n) = x[Mn], -\infty < n < \infty$$

with M a positive Integer. It discards  $(M-1)$  samples out of M

Let  $y_1(n) \rightarrow x_1(n) = X[n - n_0]$

In order for system to be Time-Invariant, the output of the system when the input is  $x_1(n)$  must be equal to  $y(n-n_0)$

$$y_1(n) = X_1(Mn) = X(Mn - n_0)$$

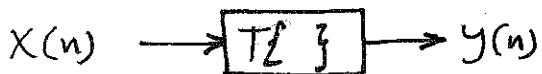
$\Rightarrow$  Delaying  $y(n)$  by  $n_0$  samples yields:

$$y(n-n_0) = X(M(n-n_0))$$

Comparing these two outputs, we see  $y(n-n_0) \neq y_1(n)$  for all  $M$  and  $n_0$ , therefore this system is not Time-Invariant.

\* Alternatively, we can prove this by finding one Counterexample.  
When  $M=2$ ,  $X(n) = \delta(n)$ , and  $X_1(n) = \delta(n-1)$ .  
For this choices of inputs and  $M$ ,  $y(n) = \delta(n)$ , but  $y_1(n) = 0$ .  
thus,  $y_1(n) \neq y(n-1)$  for this system.

\* Two Additional Constraints: Causality and Stability.



General:  $y(n) = T[\sum x[n]]$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{LTI: } y(n) &= \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x(k) h(n-k) \\ &= \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} h(k) x(n-k) \rightarrow \text{Convolution Sum} \end{aligned}$$

\* Stability: [Bounded-Input Bounded-Output (BIBO)].

general: If  $x(n)$  bounded, i.e.  $|x(n)| < B_x < \infty$ , all ( $n$ )  
then,  $y(n)$  is bounded i.e.  $|y(n)| < B_y < \infty$  all ( $n$ )

LTI:  $\sum_{k=-\infty}^{+\infty} |h(k)| < \infty$  (absolutely summable).

e.g.:  $h(n) = 2^n u(n) \rightarrow$  Unstable

$h(n) = (\frac{1}{2})^n u(n) \rightarrow$  Stable.

\* Causality:  $y(n)$  for  $n=n_1$  depends on  $x(n)$  only for  $n \leq n_1$   
 (non-anticipative system).

for LTI:  $h(n) = 0$ ,  $n < 0$

e.g:  $h(n) = 2^n u(-n)$   $\rightarrow$  non-zero for negative  $n$ .  
 Non-Causal System, stable.

e.g 2: Forward difference system

$$y(n) = x(n+1) - x(n)$$

This system is not causal, since the current value of the output depends on a future value of input.

Set  $x_1(n) = \delta(n-1)$  and  $x_2(n) = 0 \Rightarrow$   
 $y_1(n) = \delta(n) - \delta(n-1)$  and  $y_2(n) = 0$ .

Note that  $x_1(n) = x_2(n)$  for  $n \leq 0$ , so  $y_1(n) = y_2(n)$  for  $n \leq 0$   
 which is not for  $n=0$ .

$\Rightarrow$  Thus, by this counterexample, this system is not causal.

### Simple Interconnection Schemes:

\* Two common schemes are used to develop complex LTI system from simple LTI systems.

#### A Cascade Connection



(Commutative property of Convolution)

$$h(n) = h_1(n) * h_2(n) = h_2(n) * h_1(n).$$

\* Cascade of stable systems is stable, likewise the cascade of passive (lossless) systems is also passive (lossless).

\* An application of Cascade Connection scheme is developing of an Inverse System. If two LTI Cascade Systems are such that  $h_1(n) * h_2(n) = \delta(n)$ , then  $h_2(n)$  is the inverse of  $h_1(n)$ , and vice versa. So, if the input to the cascaded system is  $x(n)$ , its output is also  $x(n)$ .

Example: The impulse response of the DT accumulator is the unit step sequence  $u(n)$ . Therefore, the inverse system must satisfy the condition

$$u(n) * h_2(n) = \delta(n)$$

$$h_2(n) = 0 \text{ for } n < 0 \text{ and}$$

$$h_2(n) = 1, \sum_{l=0}^n h_2(l) = 0, n \geq 1$$

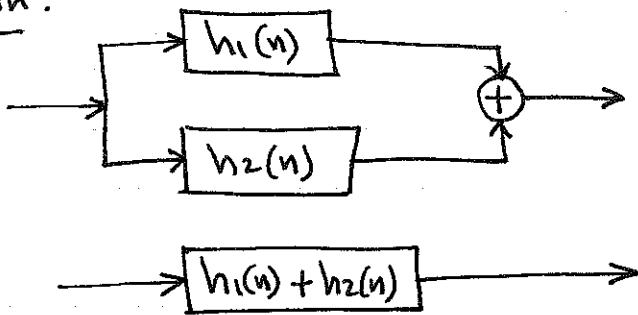
As a result:  $h_2(n) = -1$ , and  $h_2(n) = 0, n \geq 2$

Thus, the impulse response of the inverse system is given by

$$h_2(n) = \delta(n) - \delta(n-1)$$

which is called a backward difference system.

## 2 Parallel Connection:



$$h(n) = h_1(n) + h_2(n).$$

\* Parallel of Stable Systems is stable. However, the Parallel of Passive (Lossless) Systems may or may not be Passive (Lossless).

the pair  $y(n)$  is shifted by  $L$  samples with respect to the reference seq.  $x(n)$  to the right for positive values of  $L$  and shifted by  $L$  samples to the left for negative values of  $L$ .

\* The ordering of subscripts  $xy$  specifies that  $x(n)$  is the reference sequence that remains fixed in time. Whereas,  $y(n)$  is being shifted with respect to  $x(n)$

$$\begin{aligned} R_{yx}(L) &= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} y(n) x(n-L) \\ &= \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} y(m+L) x(m) = R_{xy}(-L) \end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $R_{yx}(L)$  is obtained by time-reversing the sequence  $R_{xy}(L)$ . The autocorrelation sequence of  $x(n)$  is

$$R_{xx}(L) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(n) x(n-L)$$

Note that  $R_{xx}(0) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x^2(n) = E_x$ , the energy of signal  $x(n)$ ,

also, note that  $R_{xx}(L) = R_{xx}(-L)$ , implying that  $R_{xx}(L)$  is an even function for real  $x(n)$ .

\* Expression for cross-correlation looks very similar to that of the convolution. This similarity is much clearer if we re-write  $R_{xy}(L)$  as

$$R_{xy}(L) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(n)y(-L-n) = x(L) * y(-L)$$

Thus, cross-correlation of sequence  $x(n)$  with reference sequence  $y(n)$  can be computed by processing  $x(n)$  with an LTI DT system of impulse response  $y(-n)$ . Likewise, the autocorrelation of  $x(n)$  can be determined by passing it through an LTI DT system of impulse response  $x(-n)$ .

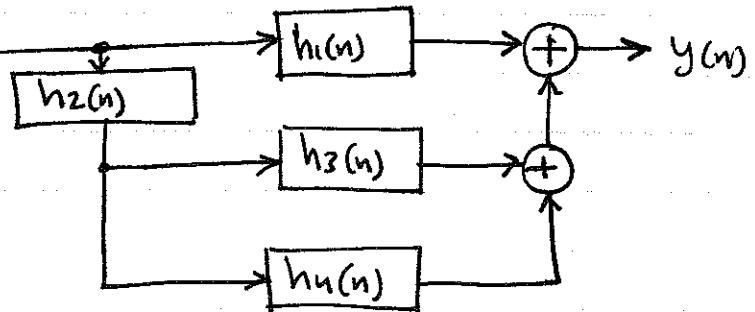
Example: Consider a DT system

Where,  $h_1(n) = \delta(n) + \frac{1}{2}\delta(n-1)$

$$h_2(n) = \frac{1}{2}\delta(n) - \frac{1}{4}\delta(n-1)$$

$$h_3(n) = 2\delta(n)$$

$$h_4(n) = -2\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n u(n).$$



The overall impulse response  $h(n)$  is given by :

$$\begin{aligned} h(n) &= h_1(n) + h_2(n) * (h_3(n) + h_4(n)) \\ &= h_1(n) + h_2(n) * h_3(n) + h_2(n) * h_4(n). \end{aligned}$$

Now,

$$\begin{aligned} h_2(n) * h_3(n) &= \left(\frac{1}{2}\delta(n) - \frac{1}{4}\delta(n-1)\right) * (2\delta(n)) \\ &= \delta(n) - \frac{1}{2}\delta(n-1) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} h_2(n) * h_4(n) &= \left(\frac{1}{2}\delta(n) - \frac{1}{4}\delta(n-1)\right) * \left(-2\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n u(n)\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n u(n) + \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n-1} u(n-1) \\ &= -\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n u(n) + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n u(n-1) \\ &= -\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n \delta(n) = -\delta(n) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} h(n) &= \delta(n) + \frac{1}{2}\delta(n-1) + \delta(n) - \frac{1}{2}\delta(n-1) - \delta(n) \\ &= \delta(n) \end{aligned}$$

### \* Correlation of Signals:

A measure of similarity between a pair of signals,  $x(n)$  and  $y(n)$  is given by cross-correlation sequence  $R_{xy}(L)$  defined by:

$$R_{xy}(L) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(n)y(n-L), \quad L = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$$

The parameter  $L$  called lag, indicates the time-shift between

## \* Properties of Autocorrelation and Cross-Correlation sequences:

Suppose we have two finite-energy sequences  $X(n)$  and  $y(n)$ . Now the energy of the combined sequence  $aX(n) + y(n-L)$  is also finite and non-negative that is :

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} (aX(n) + y(n-L))^2 &= a^2 \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} X^2(n) + 2a \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} X(n)y(n-L) + \\ &\quad + \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} y^2(n-L) \\ &= a^2 R_{XX}(0) + 2a R_{XY}(L) + R_{YY}(0) \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

Where,  $R_{XX}(0) = \sigma_x^2 > 0$  and  $R_{YY}(0) = \sigma_y^2 > 0$  are energies of  $X(n)$  and  $y(n)$ . The previous eq. can be written as:

$$[a \ 1] \begin{bmatrix} R_{XX}(0) & R_{XY}(L) \\ R_{XY}(L) & R_{YY}(0) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \geq 0$$

for any finite value of  $a$  or in other words, the matrix is positive semi-definite. This implies

$$R_{XX}(0)R_{YY}(0) - R_{XY}^2(L) \geq 0$$

or equivalently,

$$|R_{XY}(L)| \leq \sqrt{R_{XX}(0)R_{YY}(0)} = \sqrt{\sigma_x \sigma_y}$$

This inequality provides an upper bound for the cross-correlation sequence samples. If we set  $y(n) = X(n) \Rightarrow$

$$|R_{XX}(L)| \leq R_{XX}(0) = \sigma_x^2$$

\*This is a significant result that at zero lag (i.e.  $L=0$ ), the sample value of the autocorrelation sequence has its maximum value.

## Computing Auto-Correlation and Cross-Correlation Using MATLAB

$R_{xy}(L) = \text{conv}(x, \text{fliplr}(y))$ ; or  $R_{xy}(L) = \text{xcorr}(x, y)$ ;

$R_{xx}(L) = \text{xcorr}(x)$ ;

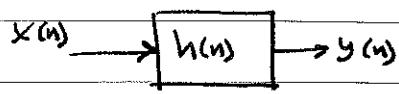
### Normalized Forms of Correlation:

$$\rho_{xx}(L) = \frac{R_{xx}(L)}{R_{xx}(0)}, \quad |\rho_{xx}(L)| \leq 1$$

$$\rho_{xy}(L) = \frac{R_{xy}(L)}{\sqrt{R_{xx}(0) R_{yy}(0)}}. \quad |\rho_{xy}(L)| \leq 1$$

## 2.3 Linear Time-Invariant Systems:

$$y(n) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x(k)h(n-k)$$



$$x(n) = \delta(n) \rightarrow h(n) \rightarrow y(n) = h(n)$$

$$y(n) = x(n) * h(n).$$

### \* Computation of the Convolution Sum:

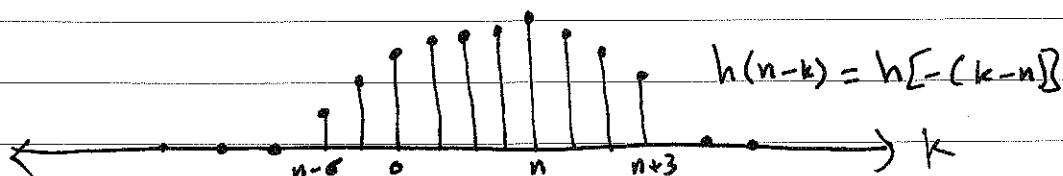
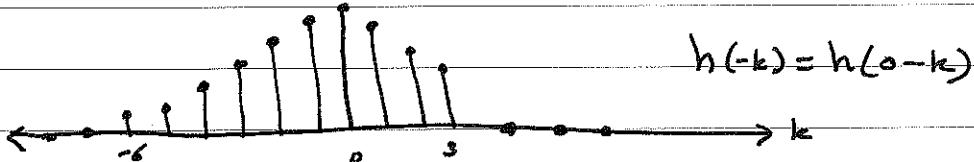
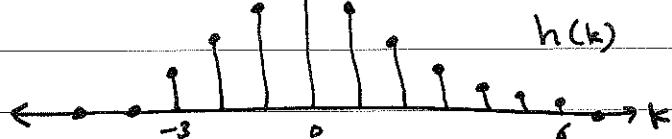
output at  $n$ :

$\uparrow$   
 $y(n)$  is obtained by multiplying input sequence  $X(k)$  by a sequence  $h(n-k)$ ,  $-\infty < k < \infty$ , and then for any fixed value of  $n$ , summing all the values of the products  $x(k) h(n-k)$ ,  $k$  counting index in the summation. Therefore, this computation should be done for all values of  $n$ . i.e.  $y(n)$ ,  $-\infty < n < \infty$ .

\* key is to understand how to form  $h(n-k)$  markers.

$$h(n-k) = h(-(k-n))$$

Example:



Two Steps:

1. Reflect  $h(k)$  about the origin to obtain  $h[-k]$ .

2. Shifting the origin of the reflected sequence to  $k=n$ .

~~Show slides~~

$$\text{Example: } h(n) = u(n) - u(n-N) = \begin{cases} 1, & 0 \leq n \leq N-1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$X(n) = a^n U(n)$$

$$\text{Find } y(n) = x(n) * h(n) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x(k) h(n-k) \text{ (slides)}$$

$y(n) = 0$  for  $n < 0$

for  $0 \leq n \leq N-1$

$$x(k)h[n-k] = a^k$$

$$y(n) = \sum_{k=0}^n a^k, \text{ for } 0 \leq n \leq N-1$$

$$\sum_{k=N_1}^{N_2} a^k = \frac{a^{N_1} - a^{N_2+1}}{1-a}, \quad N_2 \geq N_1.$$

geometric series.

So,

$$y(n) = \frac{1-a^{n+1}}{1-a}, \quad 0 \leq n \leq N-1$$

$$x(k)h(n-k) = a^k, \quad n-N+1 \leq k \leq n$$

$$\Rightarrow y(n) = \sum_{k=n-N+1}^n a^k, \quad \text{for } N-1 < n$$

$$y(n) = \frac{a^{n-N+1} - a^{n+1}}{1-a}$$

$$y(n) = a^{n-N+1} \left( \frac{1-a^n}{1-a} \right).$$

Thus,

$$y(n) = \begin{cases} 0, & n < 0 \\ \frac{1-a^{n+1}}{1-a}, & 0 \leq n \leq N-1 \\ a^{n-N+1} \left( \frac{1-a^n}{1-a} \right), & N-1 < n \end{cases}$$

\* Tabular Method for Computing discrete convolution:

Finite-discrete sequence:  $y[n] = x[n] * g[n]$

$$x[n] = \{x[0], x[1], x[2], x[3], x[4]\}, \text{Length} = 5$$

$$g[n] = \{g[0], g[1], g[2], g[3]\}, \text{length} = 4$$

<u>n:</u>	0	1	2	3	4			
$x[n]$	$x[0]$	$x[1]$	$x[2]$	$x[3]$	$x[4]$			
$g[n]$	$g[0]$	$g[1]$	$g[2]$	$g[3]$				
$x[0]g[0]$	$x[0]g[0]$	$x[1]g[0]$	$x[2]g[0]$	$x[3]g[0]$	$x[4]g[0]$			
$\sum$	$x[0]g[1]$	$x[1]g[1]$	$x[2]g[1]$	$x[3]g[1]$	$x[4]g[1]$			
	$-$	$-$	$-$	$-$	$-$			
	$x[0]g[2]$	$x[1]g[2]$	$x[2]g[2]$	$x[3]g[2]$	$x[4]g[2]$			
	$-$	$-$	$-$	$-$	$-$			
	$x[0]g[3]$	$x[1]g[3]$	$x[2]g[3]$	$x[3]g[3]$	$x[4]g[3]$			
$\sum y[n]$	$y[0]$	$y[1]$	$y[2]$	$y[3]$	$y[4]$	$y[5]$	$y[6]$	$y[7]$

\* length of  $y[n]$  ( $x[n] * g[n]$ ) = length of  $x[n]$  + length of  $g[n]$  - 1  
 $= 5 + 4 - 1 = 8$

\* Example: Consider the following two finite-length sequences,

$$x[n] = \{ \underset{n=0}{\overset{\uparrow}{-2}}, 0, 1, -1, 3 \} \text{ and } h[n] = \{ \underset{n=0}{\overset{\uparrow}{1}}, 2, 0, -1 \}$$

Find  $y[n] = x[n] * h[n]$  ?

\* Using Tabular Method

<u>n:</u>	0	1	2	3	4			
$x[n]$ :	-2	0	1	-1	3			
$h[n]$ :	1	2	0	-1				
	-2	0	1	-1	3			
$\sum$	-	-4	0	2	-2	6		
	-	-	0	0	0	0		
	-	-	-	2	0	-1	1	-3
$y[n]$ :	$\{ -2, -4, 0, 2, -2, 6, - \}$							

\* Tabular method can also be used to evaluate convolution sums of two finite-length two-sided sequences:

Example 1

$$g(n) = \{3, -2, 4\}$$

$$h(n) = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} 4 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{array} \right. \quad \uparrow \quad n=0$$

Solution:

$$\begin{array}{r} g(n): & 3 & -2 & 4 \\ \hline h(n): & 4 & 2 & -1 \\ & -3 & 2 & -4 \\ & 6 & -4 & 8 \\ \hline & 12 & -8 & 16 \\ \hline & 12 & -20 & 9 & 10 & -4 \end{array}$$

$$\text{So, } y(n) = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} 12, -2, 9, 10, -4 \\ \uparrow \\ n=0 \end{array} \right\}, -1 \leq n \leq 3$$

\* For Infinite Sequences:  $x(n) = \alpha^n u(n)$ ,  $h(n) = \beta^n u(n)$ ,  $|\alpha| < 1$ ,  $|\beta| < 1$

$$\begin{aligned} y(n) &= x(n) * h(n) \\ &= (\beta^n u(n)) * (\alpha^n u(n)) \end{aligned}$$

$$y(n) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x(k) h(n-k) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \alpha^k \beta^{n-k}$$

$$y(n) = \beta^n \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{\alpha}{\beta}\right)^k = \frac{\beta^n}{1 - \frac{\alpha}{\beta}} = \left(\frac{1}{\beta - \alpha}\right) \beta^n, \quad n \geq 0$$

## Section 2.5

### Linear Constant-Coefficient Difference Equations (LCCDE):

$N^{\text{th}}$  order system  $\sum_{k=0}^N a_k y(n-k) = \sum_{r=0}^M b_r x(n-r)$

$\underbrace{\qquad\qquad\qquad}_{\text{constants}}$

order = no. of delays in output sequence.

\* IF  $N=0$ ,  $a_0=1$

$$\Rightarrow y(n) = \sum_{r=0}^M b_r x(n-r) \rightarrow \text{This eq. is identical to Convolution Sum.}$$

$$h(n) = \begin{cases} b_n, & n=0, 1, \dots, M \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

\* IF  $N \neq 0$ , and still  $a_0=1$

$$y(n) = \sum_{r=0}^M b_r x(n-r) - \sum_{k=1}^N a_k y(n-k)$$

past  $k$  outputs to calculate  $y(n)$ .

In this case, we need an initial conditions.

\* First Order

$$y(n) - a y(n-1) = x(n)$$

Set  $x(n) = \delta(n)$

Initial Cond.: Assume  $y(n)=0$ ,  $n<0 \rightarrow$  Same condition for Causality.

$$\Rightarrow y(n) = \delta(n) + a y(n-1)$$

$$y(-1) = 0 \rightarrow \text{Initial Condition}$$

$$y(0) = 1$$

$$y(1) = a$$

$$y(2) = a^2$$

: if  $|a| < 1 \Rightarrow$  Stable System.

\* Assume  $x(n) = \delta(n)$  and  $y(n) = 0$  for  $n > 0$  (corresponds to non-causal sys.)

$$y(n-1) = a[y(n) - \delta(n)]$$

$$n=2 \Rightarrow y(1) = 0$$

$$n=1 \Rightarrow y(0) = 0$$

$$n=0 \Rightarrow y(-1) = -a$$

$$n=-1 \Rightarrow y(-2) = -a^2$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \\ \\ \\ \end{array} \right\} -a^n u(-n-1)$$

$|a| < 1$  Unstable.

## Frequency Response of LTI systems

\* if input to LTI sys. is a complex exponential, Then the output is also complex exponential ( $e^{j\omega n}$ )  $\rightarrow$  called "eigen function"

$$y(n) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} h(k) x(n-k)$$

$$\text{Let } x(n) = e^{j\omega n}$$

$$\Rightarrow y(n) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} h(k) e^{j\omega(n-k)}$$

$$= e^{j\omega n} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} h(k) e^{-j\omega k}$$

$$e^{j\omega n - j\omega k}$$

$\rightarrow$  doesn't depend on  $(n)$

$$\text{So, } y(n) = H(e^{j\omega}) e^{j\omega n}$$

$$H(e^{j\omega})$$

So, it is just number!

$e^{j\omega n}$   $\rightarrow$  is eigen function for LTI system.

$$H(e^{j\omega}) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} h(n) e^{-j\omega n}$$

$\triangleq$  Frequency Response of LTI system.

\* Why Freq. Response is important?

$\Rightarrow$  Easily obtained directly from Unit sample Response.

$\Rightarrow$  Allows us to obtain the response of system to sinusoidal excitation. Arbitrary sequence can be represented as linear combination of complex exponential or sinusoidal sequences.

\* Sinusoidal Response:

$$\begin{aligned} x(n) &= A \cos(\omega_0 n + \phi) \\ &= \frac{A}{2} e^{j\phi} e^{j\omega_0 n} + \frac{A}{2} e^{-j\phi} e^{-j\omega_0 n} \end{aligned}$$

$$H(e^{j\omega_0}) = |H(e^{j\omega_0})| e^{j\theta(\omega_0)}$$

$$y(n) = A |H(e^{j\omega_0})| \cdot \cos(\omega_0 n + \phi + \theta)$$

Example:  $y(n) = \alpha y(n-1) + x(n)$

Causal:  $h(n) = \alpha^n u(n), 0 < \alpha < 1$  (stable)

$$H(e^{j\omega}) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \alpha^n u(n) e^{-j\omega n}$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (\alpha e^{-j\omega})^n = \frac{1}{1 - \alpha e^{-j\omega}}$$

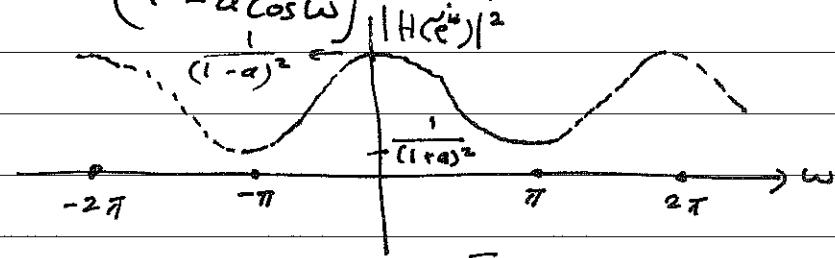
$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \alpha^n = \frac{1}{1-\alpha}, 0 < \alpha < 1$$

Sum of geometric series.

$$|H(e^{j\omega})|^2 = \frac{1}{1 - \alpha e^{j\omega}} \cdot \frac{1}{1 - \alpha e^{-j\omega}} \quad (\text{square of magnitude})$$

$$= \frac{1}{1 + \alpha^2 - 2\alpha \cos \omega}$$

$$\angle H(e^{j\omega}) = \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{-\alpha \sin \omega}{1 - \alpha \cos \omega} \right) \quad (\text{phase-shift}).$$



\* Both  $| \cdot |$  and  $\angle \cdot$  are periodic [ $-\pi$  to  $\pi$ ].

Properties of Frequency Response:

① Function of Continuous Variable  $\omega \rightarrow$  change Continuously

② Periodic function of  $\omega$ ; period =  $2\pi$

Why periodic?  $\Rightarrow e^{j(\omega+2\pi k)n} = e^{j\omega n} e^{j2\pi kn} \quad k, n \text{ integers}$

\* Generalization of Frequency Response is Fourier Transform

## Fourier Transform for DT

Freq. Response

$$e^{j\omega n} \rightarrow H(e^{j\omega}) e^{j\omega n}$$

$$H(e^{j\omega}) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} h(n) e^{-j\omega n} \Rightarrow \text{Fourier Series.}$$

↓ Unit Sample Response  
of the System.

$\omega \rightarrow$  Continuous Variable.

$n \rightarrow$  discrete Variable.

$$h(n) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} H(e^{j\omega}) e^{j\omega n} d\omega$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \left\{ \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} h(k) e^{-j\omega k} \right\} e^{j\omega n} d\omega$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \sum_k h(k) \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{j\omega(n-k)} d\omega$$

$$n \neq k, \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{j\omega(n-k)} d\omega = 0$$

$$n = k, \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} = 2\pi$$

$$\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{j\omega(n-k)} d\omega = \frac{\sin \pi(n-k)}{\pi(n-k)}$$

$$\begin{cases} 1, & n=k \\ 0, & n \neq k \end{cases}$$

$$= \delta(n-k)$$

$$= \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} h(k) \delta(n-k) = h(n).$$

## Fourier Transform :

$$X(e^{j\omega}) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(n) e^{-j\omega n}$$

$$x(n) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} X(e^{j\omega}) e^{j\omega n} d\omega$$

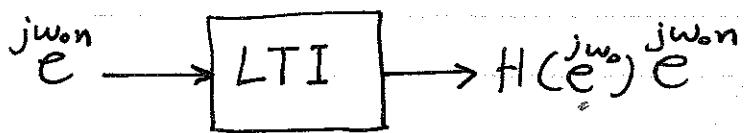
Example Ideal Low-pass Filter

$$H_{LP}(e^{j\omega}) = \begin{cases} 1, & |\omega| < \omega_c \\ 0, & \omega_c \leq |\omega| \leq 2\pi \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{aligned} h(n) &= \frac{1}{2\pi j n} (e^{j\omega_c n} - e^{-j\omega_c n}) \\ &= \frac{\sin \omega_c n}{\pi n} \quad (\text{non-causal}). \end{aligned}$$

\* Convolution Property:

$$x(n) * y(n) \longleftrightarrow X(e^{j\omega}) Y(e^{j\omega})$$



\* linear system

$$\sum_k A_k e^{j\omega_k n} \longrightarrow \sum_k A_k H(e^{j\omega_k}) e^{j\omega_k n} \quad \text{--- --- } \otimes$$

\* arbitrary input

$$x(n) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} X(e^{j\omega}) e^{j\omega n} d\omega$$

(\*) This is a linear combination of complex exponentials of the input. So what is the output?

Output:  $\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} X(e^{j\omega}) H(e^{j\omega}) e^{j\omega n} d\omega = y(n).$

key property of LTI system:

$$Y(e^{j\omega}) = X(e^{j\omega}) H(e^{j\omega})$$

This justifies Convolution property  $y(n) = x(n) * h(n)$ .

Symmetry Properties:

$x(n)$  is real

$$X(e^{j\omega}) = X^*(-e^{-j\omega}) \quad \text{Conjugate symmetric}$$

$$X(e^{j\omega}) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(n) e^{-j\omega n}$$

$$X(e^{j\omega}) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(n) e^{jn\omega}$$

$$\begin{aligned} X^*(e^{-j\omega}) &= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x^*(n) e^{-jn\omega}, \quad x(n) \text{ is real} \Rightarrow x^*(n) = x(n). \\ &= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(n) e^{-jn\omega} \end{aligned}$$

F.T. is conjugate symmetric function

$$X(e^{j\omega}) = X_R(e^{j\omega}) + j X_I(e^{j\omega})$$

$$X^*(e^{-j\omega}) = X_R(e^{-j\omega}) - j X_I(e^{-j\omega})$$

So,  $X_R(e^{j\omega}) = X_R(e^{-j\omega}) \Rightarrow X_R(e^{j\omega})$  is even function  
 $\Rightarrow$  real part of  $X(e^{j\omega})$  is the same if  $\omega$  is replaced by  $-\omega \Rightarrow$  even

$$X_I(e^{j\omega}) = -X_I(e^{-j\omega}) \Rightarrow X_I(e^{j\omega})$$
 is odd function

$|X(e^{j\omega})|$  is even function of  $\omega$  } periodic functions  
 $\angle X(e^{j\omega})$  is odd } - - -

Example: We have seen that the Fourier Transform (FT) of the real sequence  $x(n) = a^n u(n)$  is

$$X(e^{j\omega}) = \frac{1}{1 - ae^{j\omega}}, \text{ if } |a| < 1$$

Then, from the properties of complex numbers,

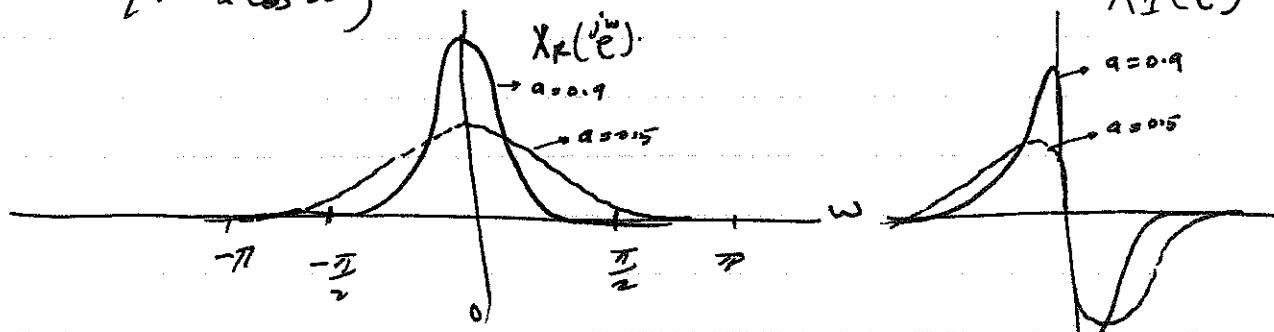
$$X(e^{j\omega}) = \frac{1}{1 - ae^{-j\omega}} = X^*(e^{-j\omega})$$

$$X_R(e^{j\omega}) = \frac{1 - a \cos \omega}{1 + a^2 - 2a \cos \omega} = X_R(e^{-j\omega}) \quad (\text{even}).$$

$$X_I(e^{j\omega}) = \frac{-a \sin \omega}{1 + a^2 - 2a \cos \omega} = -X_I(e^{-j\omega}) \quad (\text{odd}).$$

$$|X(e^{j\omega})| = \frac{1}{(1+a^2-2a\cos\omega)^{1/2}} = |X(e^{-j\omega})|$$

$$\angle X(e^{j\omega}) = \tan^{-1} \left[ \frac{-a \sin \omega}{1 - a \cos \omega} \right] = -\angle X(e^{-j\omega})$$



### Fourier Transform Theorems:

$X(e^{j\omega}) = \mathcal{F}\{x(n)\}$ ,  $\mathcal{F}\{\cdot\}$  is Fourier Transform.

$$x(n) = \mathcal{F}^{-1}\{X(e^{j\omega})\}$$

$$x(n) \xleftrightarrow{\text{F.T.}} X(e^{j\omega})$$

A. Linearity: if  $x_1(n) \xleftrightarrow{\text{F}} X_1(e^{j\omega})$

and  $x_2(n) \xleftrightarrow{\text{F}} X_2(e^{j\omega})$

then,

$$a x_1(n) + b x_2(n) \xleftrightarrow{\text{F}} a X_1(e^{j\omega}) + b X_2(e^{j\omega})$$

B. Time shifting and Frequency shifting:

If  $x(n) \xleftrightarrow{\text{F}} X(e^{j\omega})$

then,  $x(n-n_0) \xleftrightarrow{\text{F}} e^{-jn_0\omega} X(e^{j\omega})$

$$e^{j\omega n_0} x(n) \xleftrightarrow{\text{F}} X(e^{j(\omega - \omega_0)})$$

C. Time Reversal:

If  $x(n) \xleftrightarrow{\text{F}} X(e^{j\omega})$

then, if sequence  $x(n)$  is time reversed

$$x(-n) \xleftrightarrow{\text{F}} X(e^{-j\omega})$$

If  $x(n)$  is real, then

$$x(-n) \xleftarrow{F} X^*(j\omega)$$

(4) Differential in freq.

$$nx(n) \xleftarrow{F} j \frac{\partial X(j\omega)}{\partial \omega}$$

(5) Parseval's theorem:

$$x(n) \xleftarrow{F} X(j\omega)$$

then,

$$(\text{energy}) E = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |x(n)|^2 = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |X(j\omega)|^2 d\omega$$

function  $|X(j\omega)|^2$  is called the Energy Density Spectrum (EDS)

EDS determines how energy is distributed in the frequency domain.

(6) Convolution Theorem:

$$\text{if } x(n) \xleftarrow{F} X(j\omega)$$

$$\text{and } h(n) \xleftarrow{F} H(j\omega)$$

and if

$$y(n) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x(k) h(n-k) = x(n) * h(n).$$

Then,

$$Y(j\omega) = X(j\omega) + H(j\omega)$$

(7) Modulation OR Windowing Theorem:

$$\text{if } x(n) \xleftarrow{F} X(j\omega)$$

$$\text{and } w(n) \xleftarrow{F} W(j\omega)$$

$$\text{and if } y(n) = x(n)w(n)$$

then,

$$Y(j\omega) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} X(j\theta) W(e^{j(\omega-\theta)}) d\theta$$

$$* \delta(n-n_d) \xleftarrow{F} e^{-jn_w \omega}$$

If  $h(n) = \delta(n-n_d)$ ; then  $y(n) = x(n) * \delta(n-n_d) = x(n-n_d)$

Therefore,  $H(j\omega) = e^{-jn_w \omega}$  and  $Y(j\omega) = e^{-jn_w \omega} X(j\omega)$

Recall also that if  $x(n) = e^{jn_w n}$   $\Rightarrow$  then  $y(n) = H(j\omega) e^{jn_w n}$ .

Example: suppose that

$$X(e^{j\omega}) = \frac{1}{(1-a e^{-j\omega})(1-b e^{-j\omega})}$$

$$\Rightarrow X(e^{j\omega}) = \frac{a/(a-b)}{1-a e^{-j\omega}} - \frac{b/(a-b)}{1-b e^{-j\omega}}$$

$$\Rightarrow x(n) = \left(\frac{a}{a-b}\right) a^n u(n) - \left(\frac{b}{a-b}\right) b^n u(n)$$

Example: The Frequency Response of high-pass filter with delay is

$$H(e^{j\omega}) = \begin{cases} e^{-j\omega n_d}, & \omega_c < |\omega| < \pi \\ 0, & |\omega| < \omega_c \end{cases}$$

$$\Rightarrow H(e^{j\omega}) = e^{-j\omega n_d} (1 - H_{hp}(e^{j\omega})) = e^{-j\omega n_d} - e^{-j\omega n_d} H_{hp}(e^{j\omega})$$

Where,

$H_{hp}(e^{j\omega})$  is periodic with period  $2\pi$ , and

$$H_{hp}(e^{j\omega}) = \begin{cases} 1, & |\omega| < \omega_c \\ 0, & \omega_c < |\omega| < \pi \end{cases}$$

$$\Rightarrow h(n) = \delta(n-n_d) - r(n-n_d)$$

$$= \delta(n-n_d) - \frac{\sin \omega_c(n-n_d)}{\pi(n-n_d)}$$

Example: Impulse Response for difference equation.

$$y(n) - \frac{1}{2}y(n-1) = x(n) - \frac{1}{4}x(n-1)$$

Let's set  $x(n) = \delta(n)$ , with  $h(n)$  denoting the impulse response

$$\Rightarrow h(n) - \frac{1}{2}h(n-1) = \delta(n) - \frac{1}{4}\delta(n-1)$$

Applying F.T. on both sides:

$$H(e^{j\omega}) - \frac{1}{2}e^{-j\omega} H(e^{j\omega}) = 1 - \frac{1}{4}e^{-j\omega}$$

$$H(e^{j\omega}) = \frac{1 - \frac{1}{4}e^{-j\omega}}{1 - \frac{1}{2}e^{-j\omega}}$$

To get  $h(n)$ , we take Inverse F.T. of  $H(e^{j\omega})$

## \* Fourier Transform Pairs

### Sequence

1.  $\delta(n)$
2.  $\delta(n-n_0)$
3. 1 ( $-\infty < n < \infty$ )
4.  $a^n u(n)$  ( $|a| < 1$ )
5.  $u(n)$
6.  $(n+1) a^n u(n)$  ( $|a| < 1$ )
7.  $\frac{r^n \sin w_p(n+1)}{\sin w_p} u(n)$ , ( $|r| <$ )
8.  $\frac{\sin w_n n}{\pi n}$
9.  $x(n) = \begin{cases} 1, & 0 \leq n \leq M \\ 0, & \text{Otherwise} \end{cases}$
10.  $e^{jw_0 n}$
11.  $\cos(w_0 n + \phi)$

### Fourier Transform

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \frac{1}{e^{-jw_0}} \\
 & \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} 2\pi \delta(\omega + 2\pi k) \\
 & \frac{1}{1 - a^{-j\omega}} \\
 & \frac{1}{1 - e^{-j\omega}} + \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \pi \delta(\omega + 2\pi k) \\
 & \frac{1}{(1 - a^{-j\omega})^2} \\
 & \frac{1}{1 - 2r \cos w_p \frac{-j\omega}{e^{-j\omega} + r^2 e^{j2\omega}}} \\
 & X(e^{j\omega}) = \begin{cases} 1, & |\omega| < w_p \\ 0, & w_p < |\omega| < \pi \end{cases} \\
 & \frac{\sin[\omega(M+1)/2]}{\sin(\omega/2)} e^{-j\omega M/2} \\
 & \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} 2\pi \delta(\omega - \omega_0 + 2\pi k) \\
 & \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \left[ \frac{j\phi}{\pi} e^{-j\omega} \delta(\omega - \omega_0 + 2\pi k) + \frac{-j\phi}{\pi} e^{j\omega} \delta(\omega + \omega_0 + 2\pi k) \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

Example: Find F.T. of  $x(n) = a^n u(n-5)$ ?

Let  $x_1(n) = a^n u(n) \Rightarrow X_1(e^{j\omega}) = \frac{1}{1 - a^{-j\omega}}$   
To obtain  $x(n)$  from  $x_1(n)$ , we first delay  $x_1(n)$  by 5 samples, i.e.

$$x_2(n) = x_1(n-5) \Rightarrow X_2(e^{j\omega}) = e^{-j5\omega} X_1(e^{j\omega}), \text{ so}$$

$$X_2(e^{j\omega}) = \frac{e^{-j\omega}}{1 - a^{-j\omega}}$$

In order to get  $x(n)$  from  $x_2(n)$ , we need to multiply by a constant  $a^5$ .  
i.e.  $x(n) = a^5 x_2(n)$ .

$$X(e^{j\omega}) = \frac{a^5 e^{-j\omega}}{1 - a^{-j\omega}}$$

$$H(e^{j\omega}) = \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{2}e^{-j\omega}} - \frac{\frac{1}{4}e^{-j\omega}}{1 - \frac{1}{2}e^{-j\omega}}$$

$$\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n u(n) \xrightarrow{F} \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{2}e^{-j\omega}}$$

$$\left(-\frac{1}{4}\right)\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n-1} u(n-1) \xrightarrow{F} \frac{\frac{1}{4}e^{-j\omega}}{1 - \frac{1}{2}e^{-j\omega}}$$

So,  $h(n) = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n u(n) - \left(-\frac{1}{4}\right)\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n-1} u(n-1)$

\* Condition for Fourier Transform:

\* condition for the convergence of infinite sum.

$$\begin{aligned} |X(e^{j\omega})| &= \left| \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(n) e^{-j\omega n} \right| \\ &\leq \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |x(n)| |e^{-j\omega n}| \\ &\leq \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |x(n)| < \infty \end{aligned}$$

If  $x(n)$  is absolutely summable, then its Fourier transform exists.

Summary of DT Systems Properties:

$$x(n) \xrightarrow{H} y(n)$$

$$x_k(n) \xrightarrow{H} y_k(n)$$

Linearity:

$$\sum_k c_k x_k(n) \xrightarrow{H} \sum_k c_k y_k(n)$$

Time-Invariance:  $x(n-n_0) \xrightarrow{H} y(n-n_0)$

Stability:  $|x(n)| \leq M_x < \infty \xrightarrow{H} |y(n)| \leq M_y < \infty$

Causality:  $x(n) = 0 \text{ for } n < n_0 \xrightarrow{H} y(n) = 0 \text{ for } n < n_0$

## Summary of Convolution Properties:

Identity:  $x(n) * \delta(n) = x(n)$

Delay:  $x(n) * \delta(n-n_0) = x(n-n_0)$

Commutative:  $x(n) * h(n) = h(n) * x(n)$

Associative:  $(x(n) * h_1(n)) * h_2(n) = x(n) * (h_1(n) * h_2(n))$

Distributive:  $x(n) * (h_1(n) + h_2(n)) = x(n) * h_1(n) + x(n) * h_2(n)$

## Response of LTI Systems to some test sequences:

■ Impulse:  $x(n) = \delta(n) \xrightarrow{H} y(n) = h(n)$  (Impulse Response)

■ Step:  $x(n) = u(n) \xrightarrow{H} y(n) = s(n) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} h(k)$  (Step Response)

■ Exponential:  $x(n) = a^n, \text{ all } n \xrightarrow{H} y(n) = H(a) a^n, \text{ all } n$

■ Complex Sinusoidal:  $x(n) = e^{j\omega n}, \text{ all } n \xrightarrow{H} y(n) = H(e^{j\omega}) e^{j\omega n}, \text{ all } n$

## Numerical Computation of Convolution:

$$y(n) = x(n) * h(n)$$

e.g. Length of  $x(n) = 6$ , Length of  $h(n) = 3$

Matrix Convolution:

$$\begin{bmatrix} y(0) \\ y(1) \\ y(2) \\ y(3) \\ y(4) \\ y(5) \\ y(6) \\ y(7) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x(0) & 0 & 0 \\ x(1) & x(0) & 0 \\ x(2) & x(1) & x(0) \\ x(3) & x(2) & x(1) \\ x(4) & x(3) & x(2) \\ x(5) & x(4) & x(3) \\ 0 & x(5) & x(4) \\ 0 & 0 & x(5) \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} h(0) \\ h(1) \\ h(2) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$y = \text{Convmtx}(x, N+M-1) * h$$

## Computation Difference Equation &

$$y = \text{filter}(b, a, x);$$

$$b = [b_0 \ b_1 \ b_2 \dots \ b_M]$$

$$a = [1 \ a_1 \ a_2 \ \dots \ a_N]$$

$$x = [x(1) \ x(2) \ \dots \ x(L)] = [x(0) \ x(1) \ x(2) \ \dots \ x(L-1)]$$

$$y = [y(0) \ y(1) \ \dots \ y(L)] = [y(0) \ y(1) \ \dots \ y(L-1)]$$

$$y(n) + \sum_{k=1}^N a_k y(n-k) = \sum_{k=0}^M b_k x(n-k)$$

### Matlab Functions:

- `stem(x);`
- `plot(x);`
- `conv(x,y); Convolution`
- `Rxy = conv(x, flipr(y)); Cross-Correlation using Convolution Function`
- `Rxy = Xcorr(x,y); cross-Correlation`
- `Rxx = Xcorr(x); Auto-Correlation`