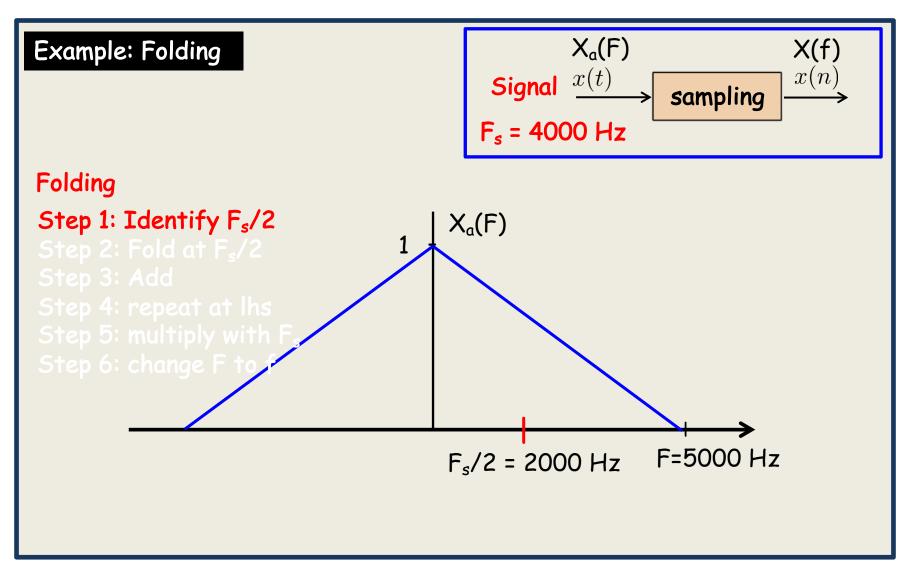


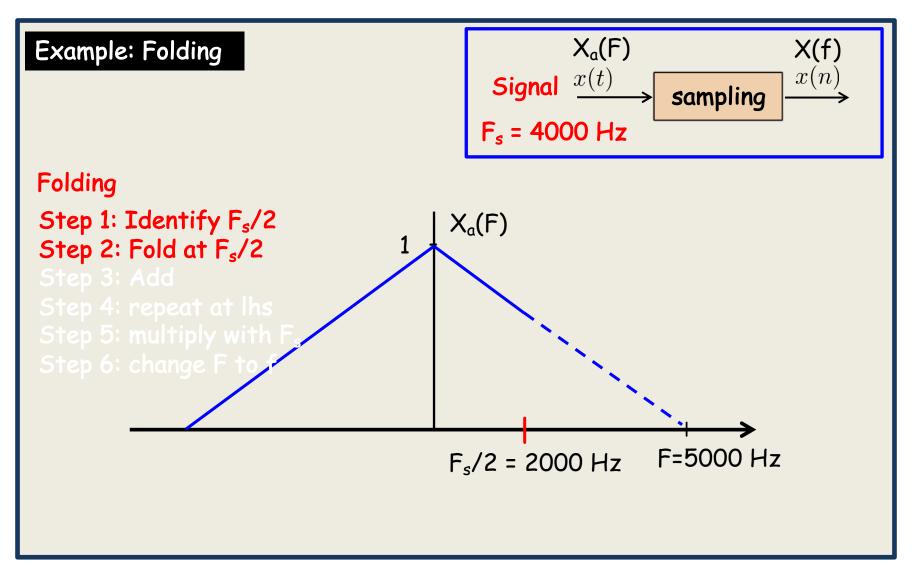
Key step is to understand what X(f) looks like in terms of $X_a(F)$

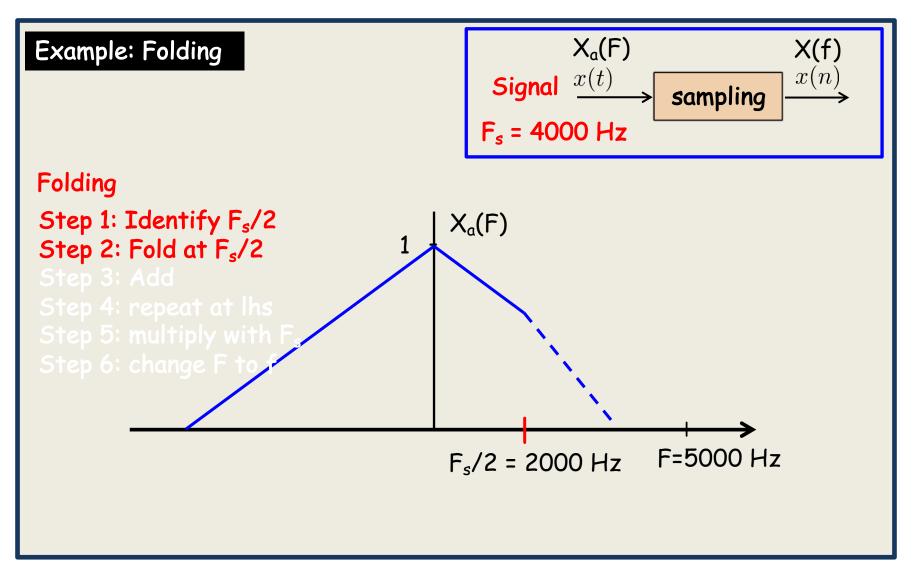
$$X(f) = F_{\rm s} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} X_a((f-k)F_{\rm s})$$

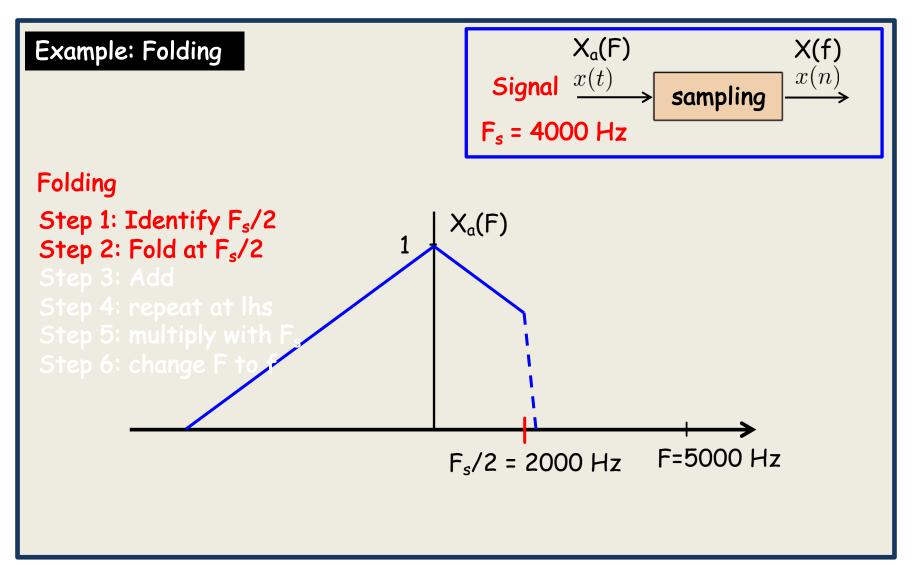
If sampling is to sparse, there is aliasing.

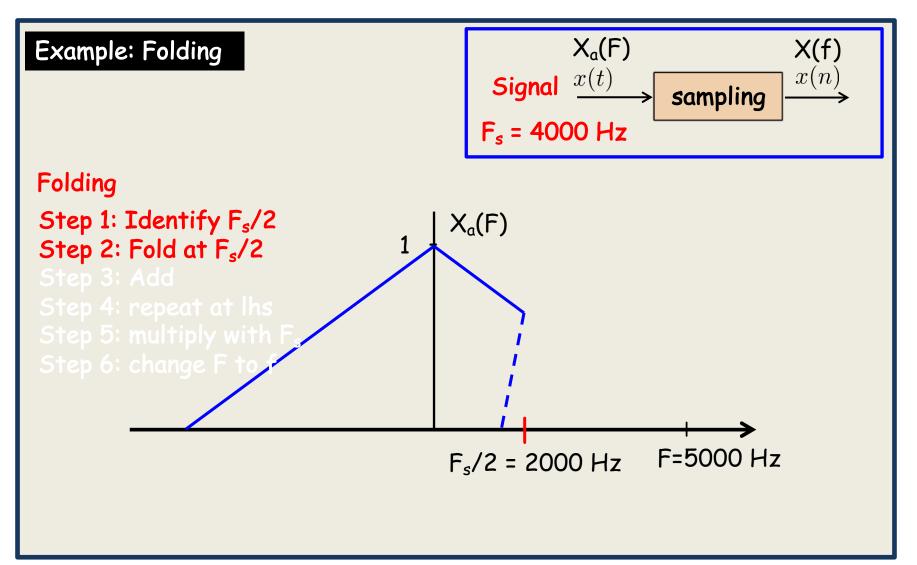
We find X(f) by the "folding technique"

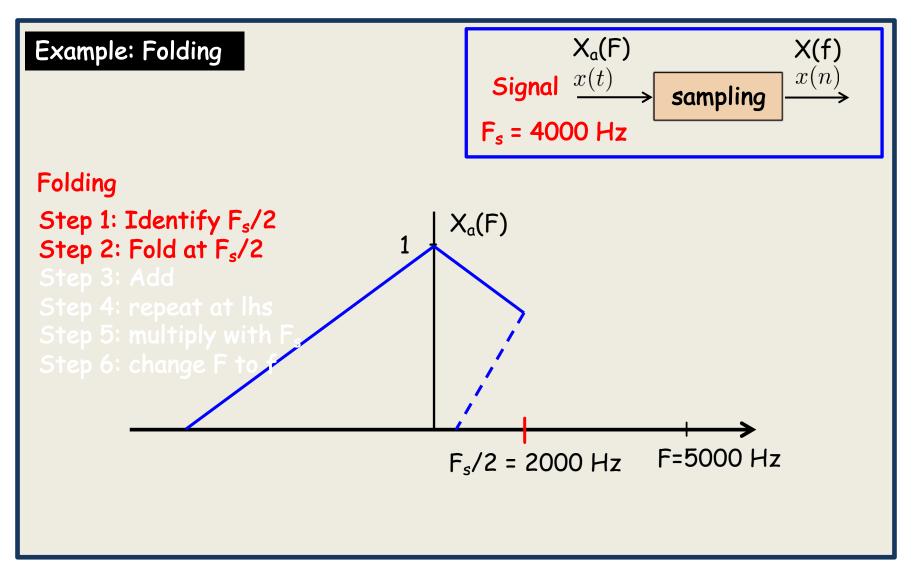


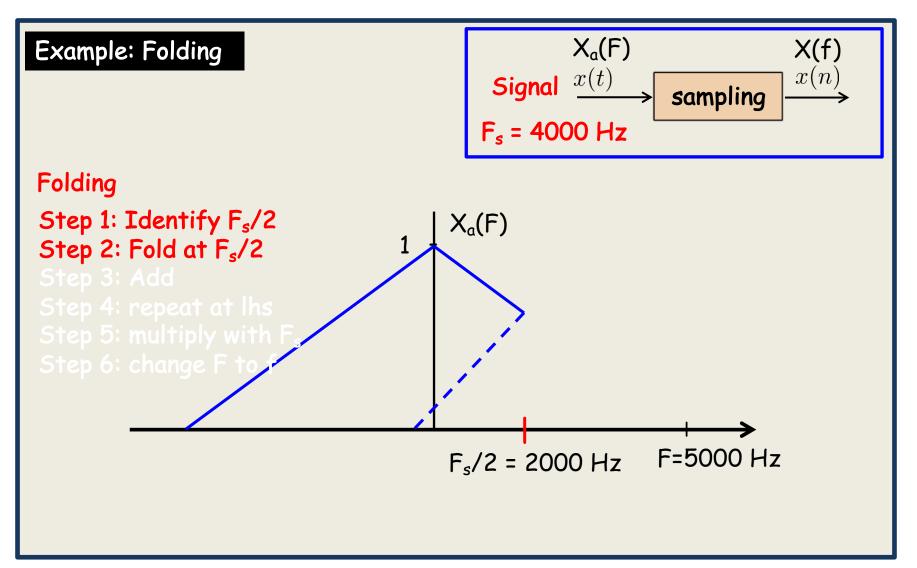


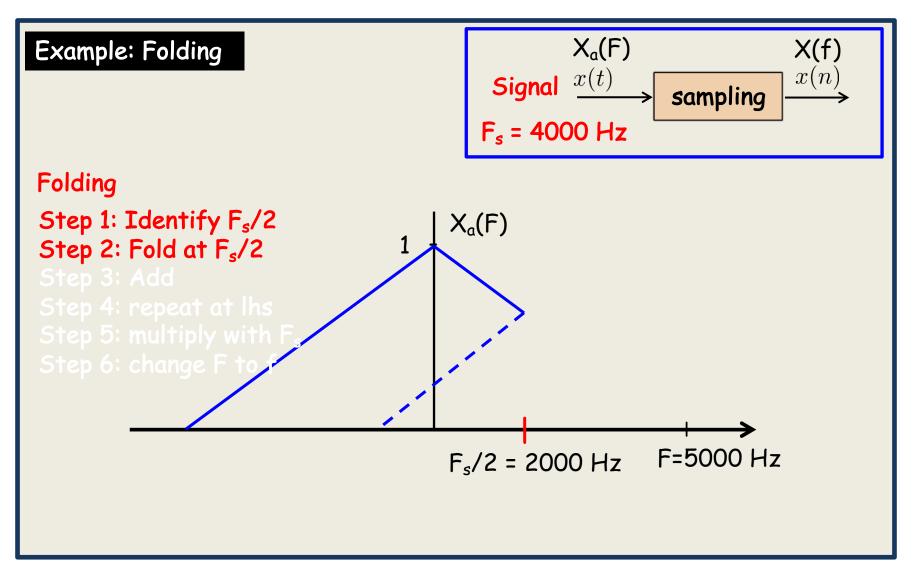


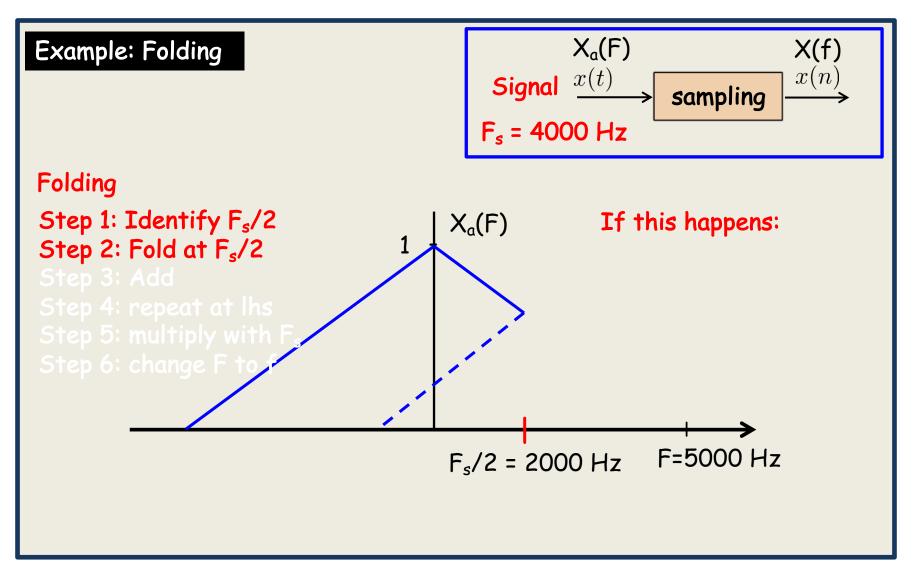


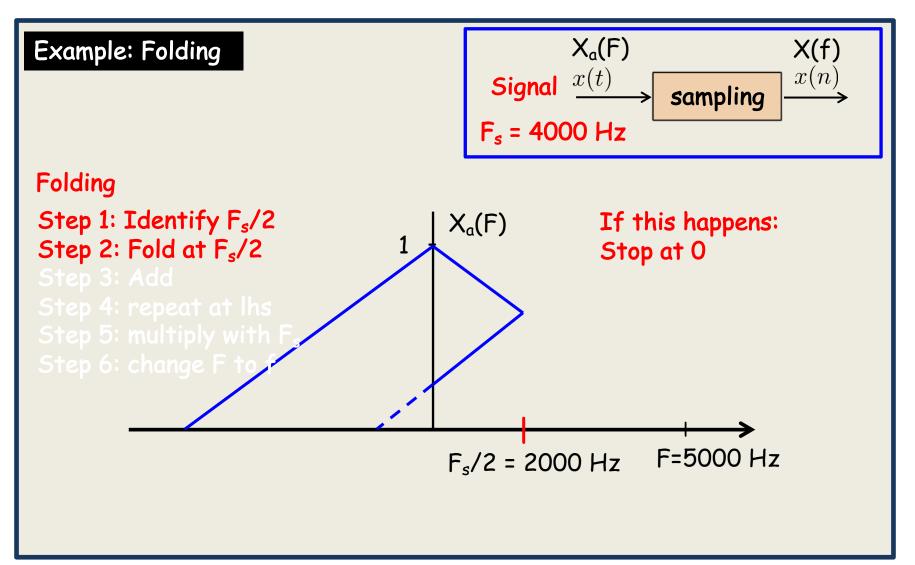


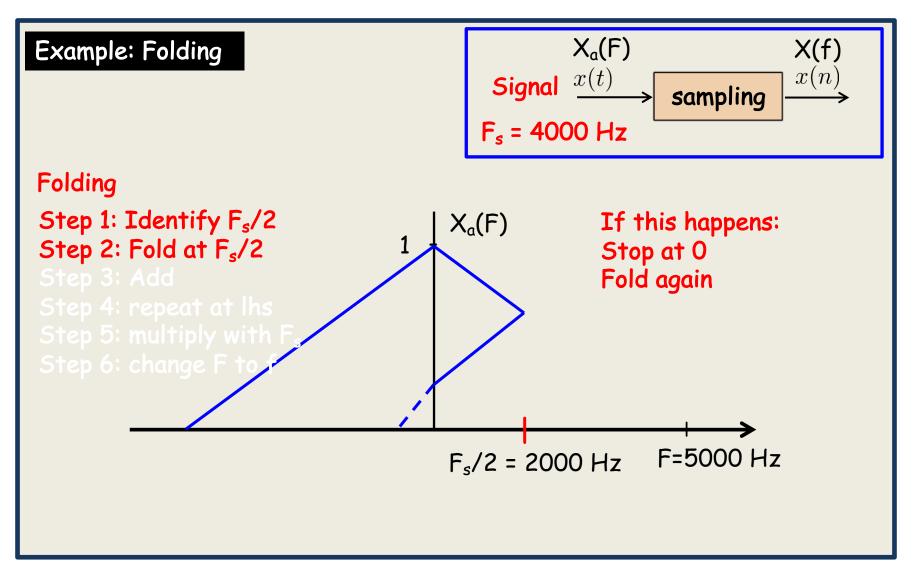


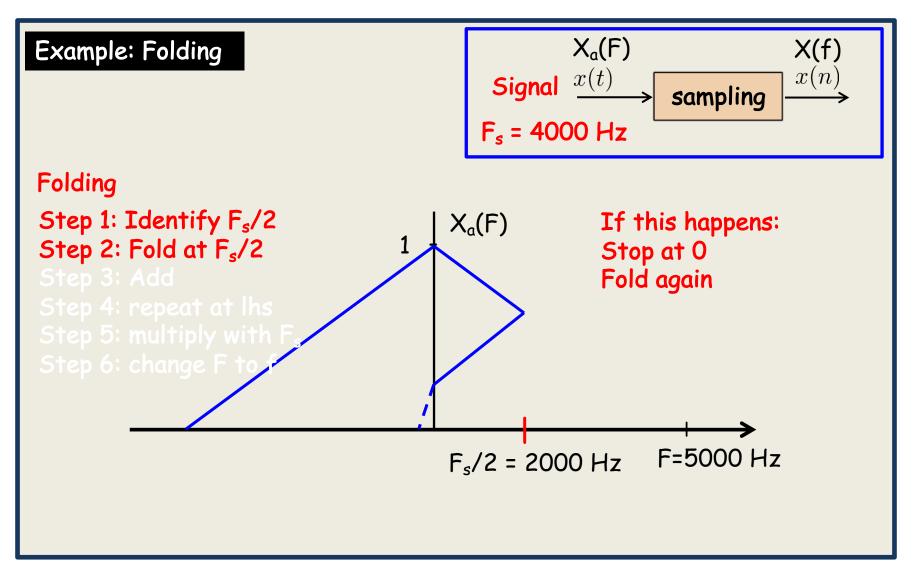


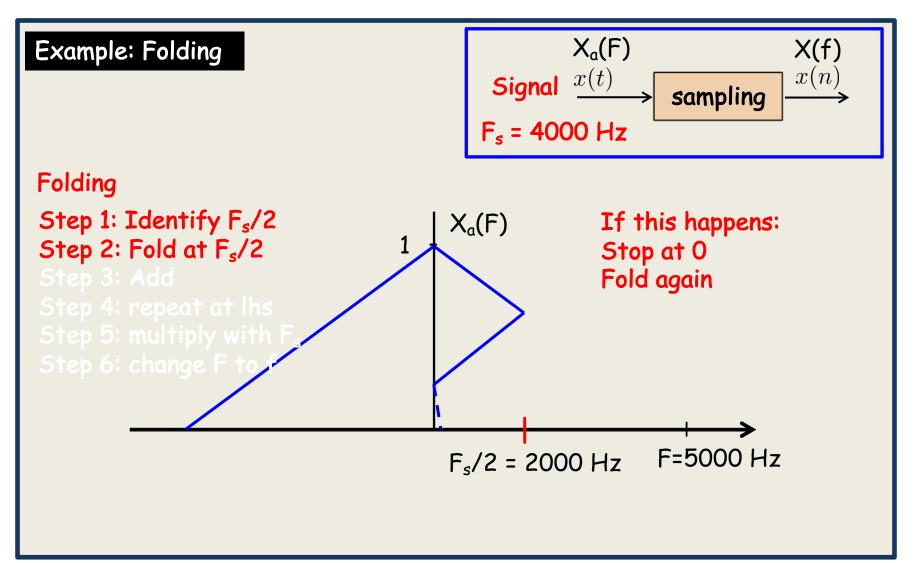


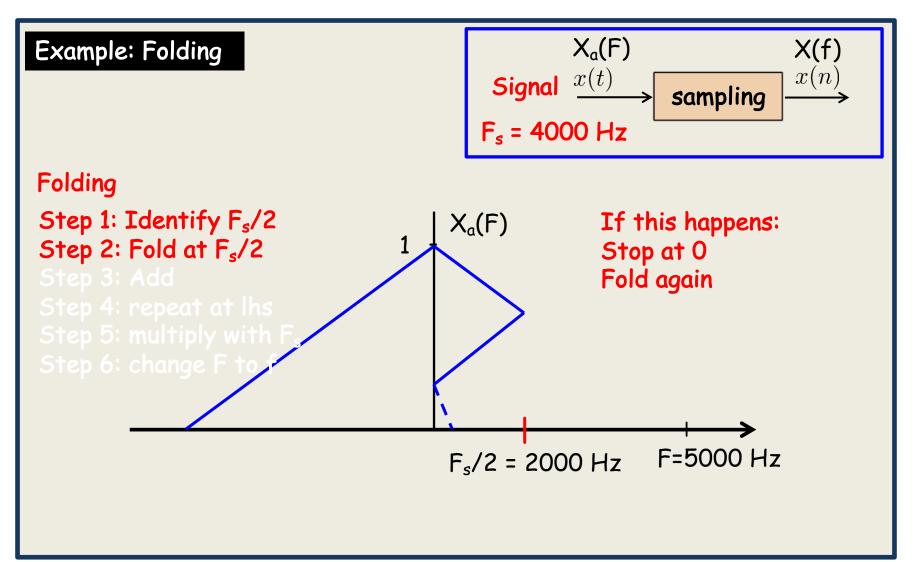


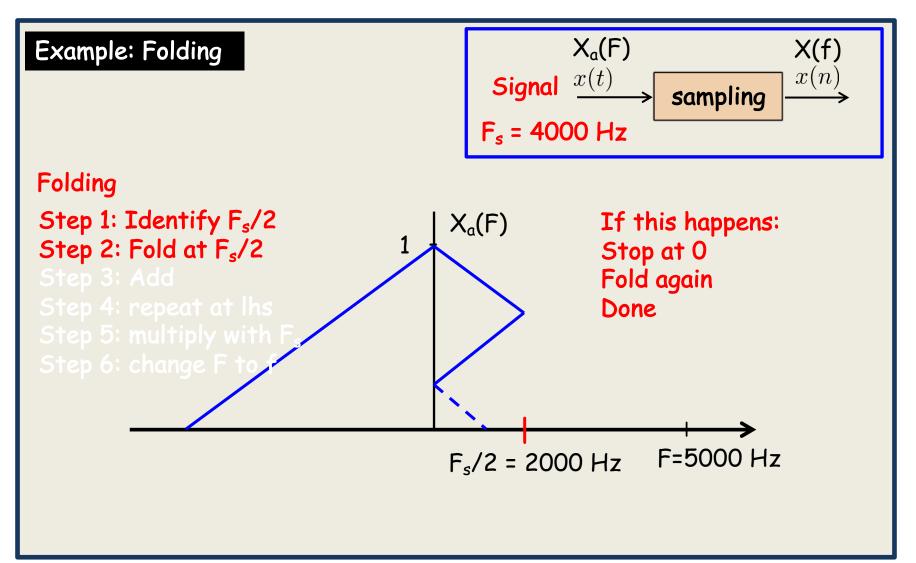


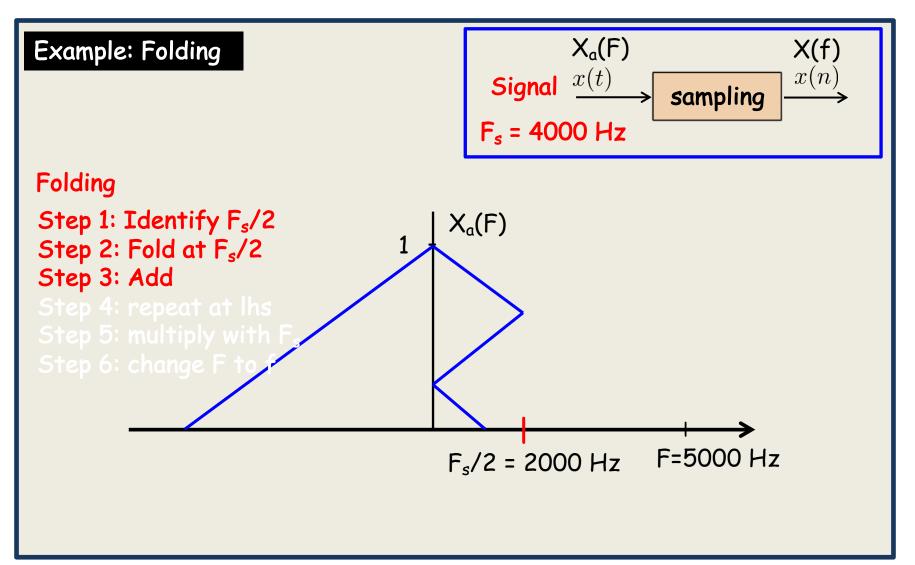


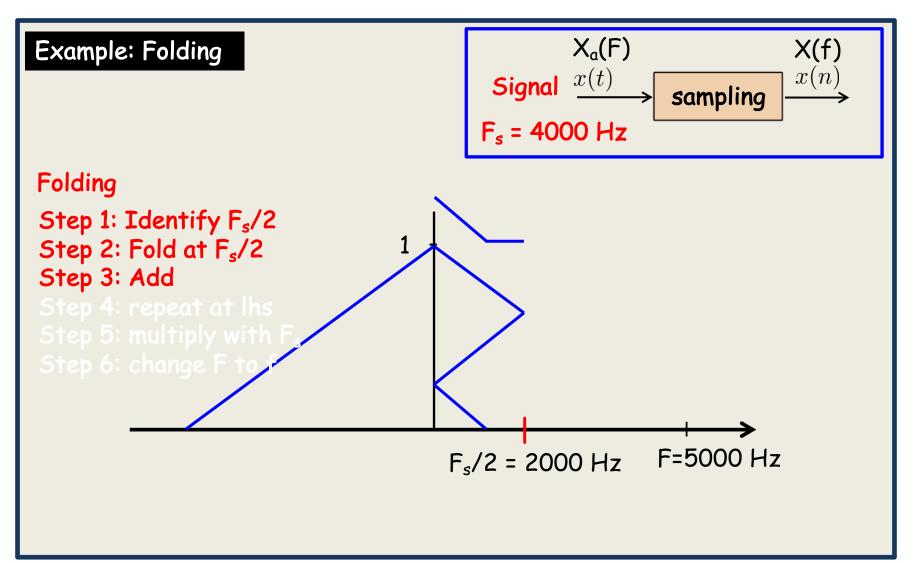


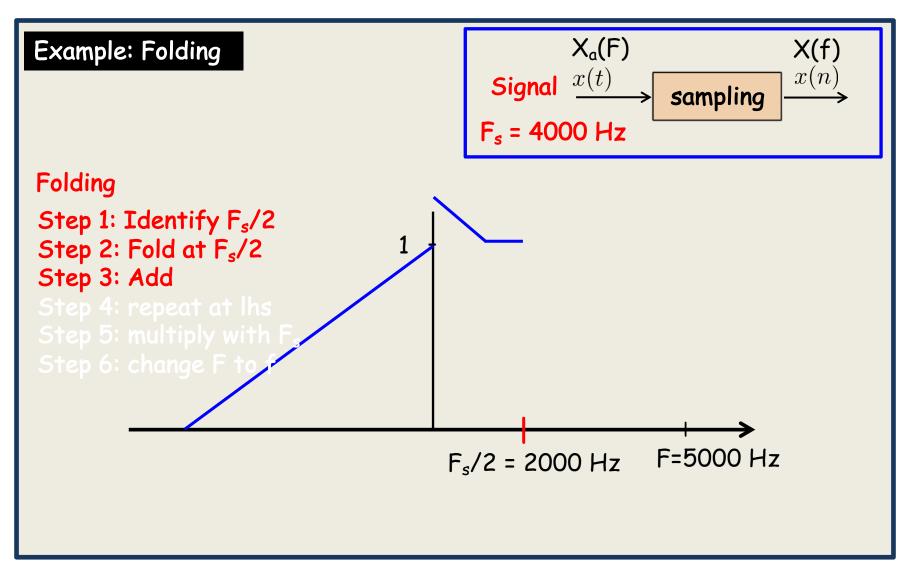


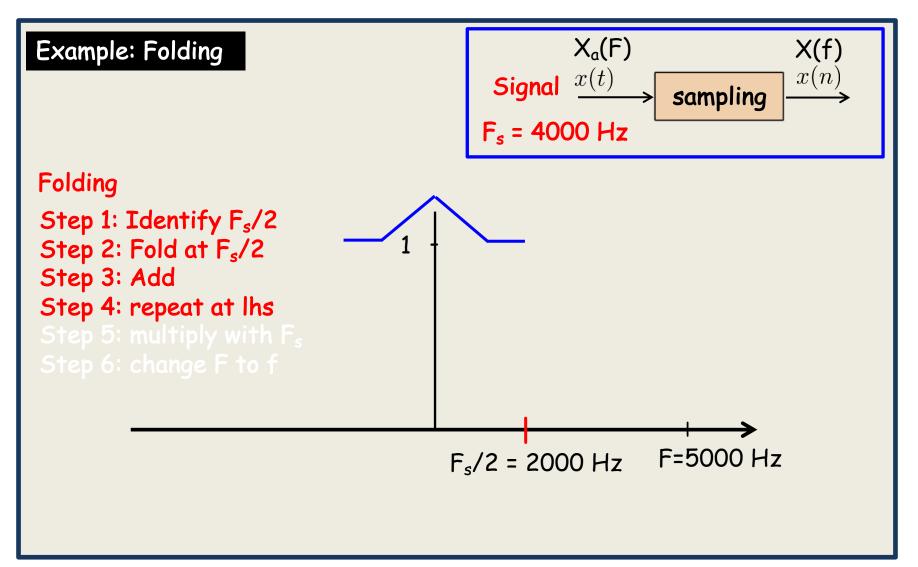


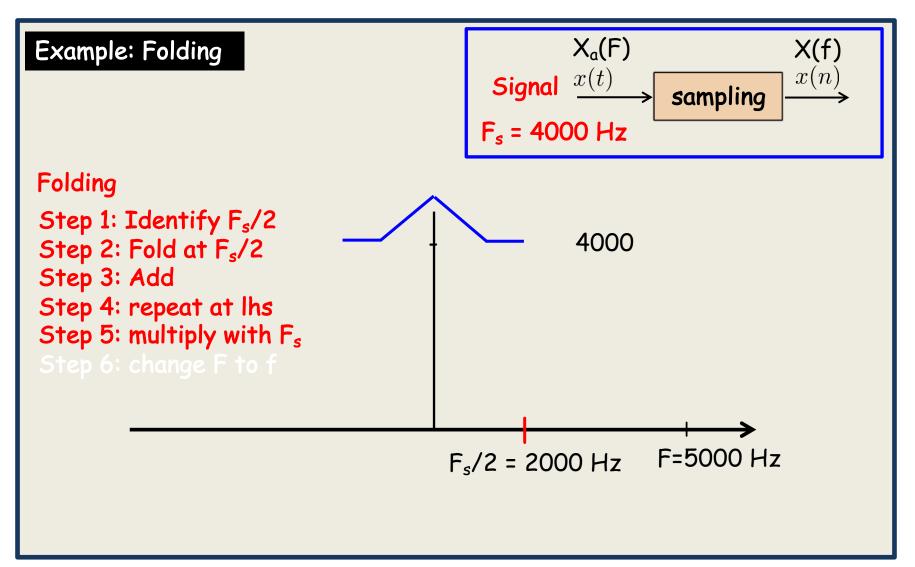


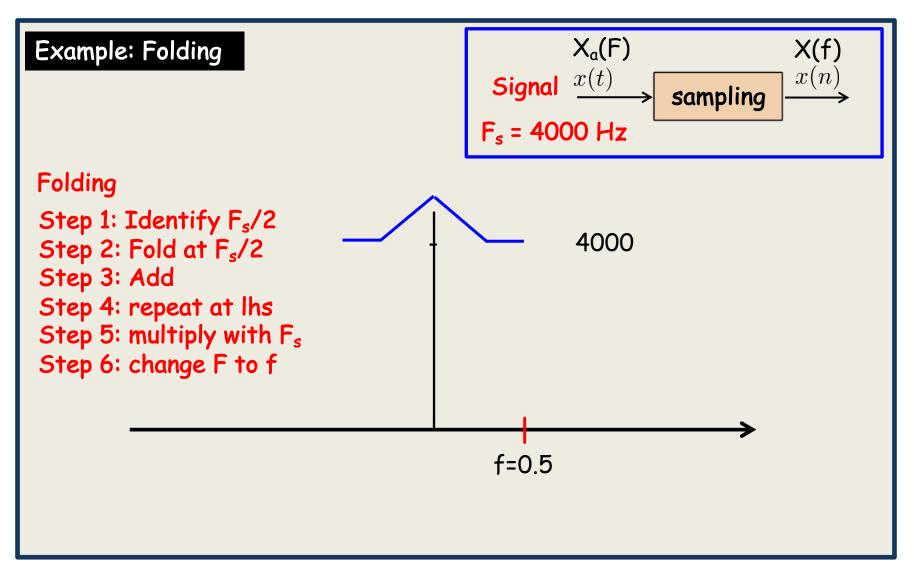


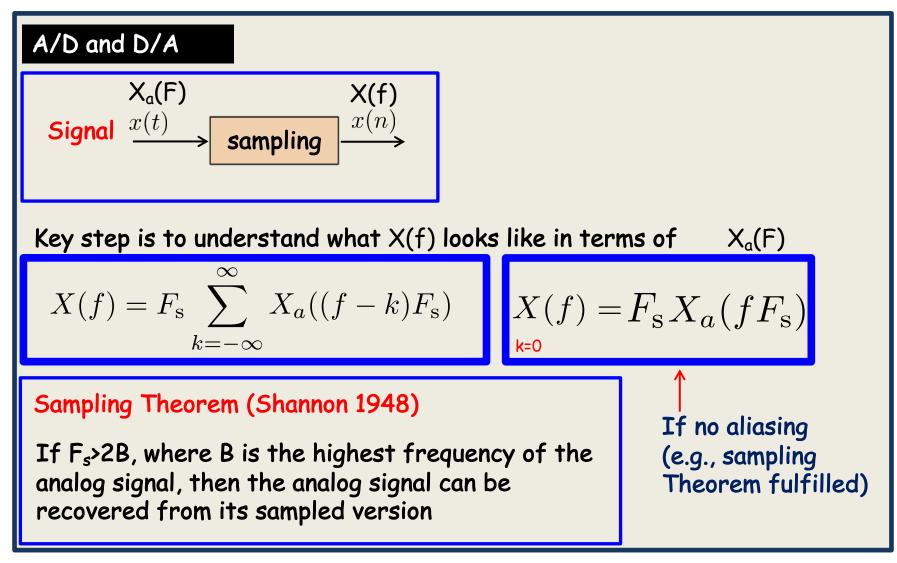




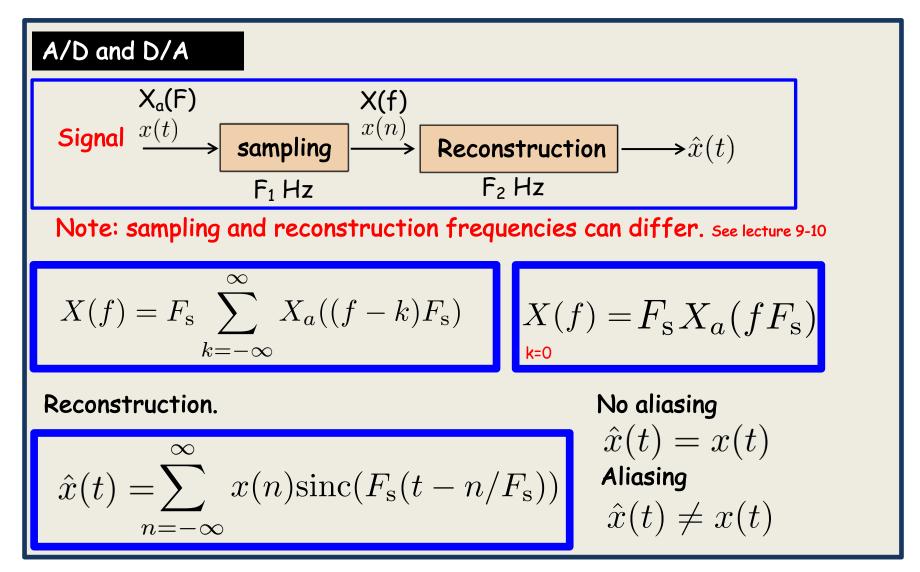


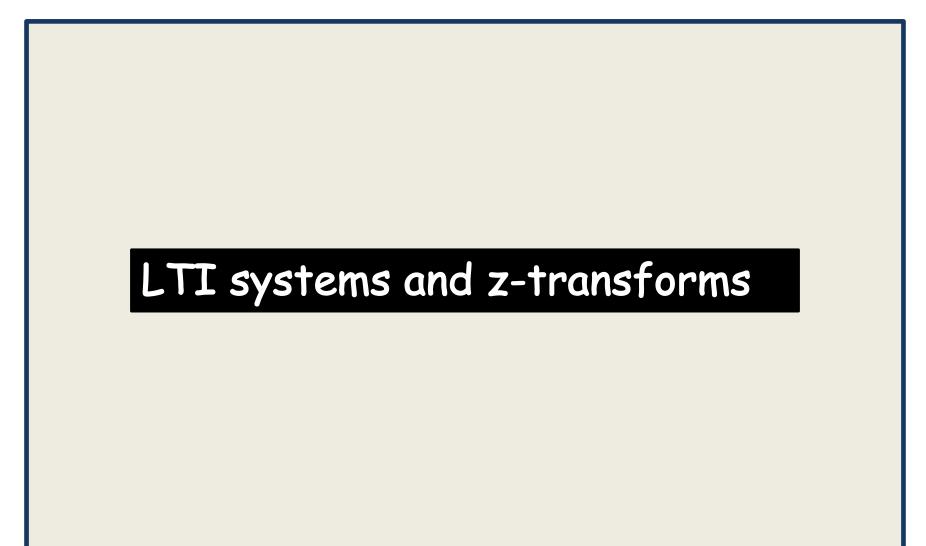


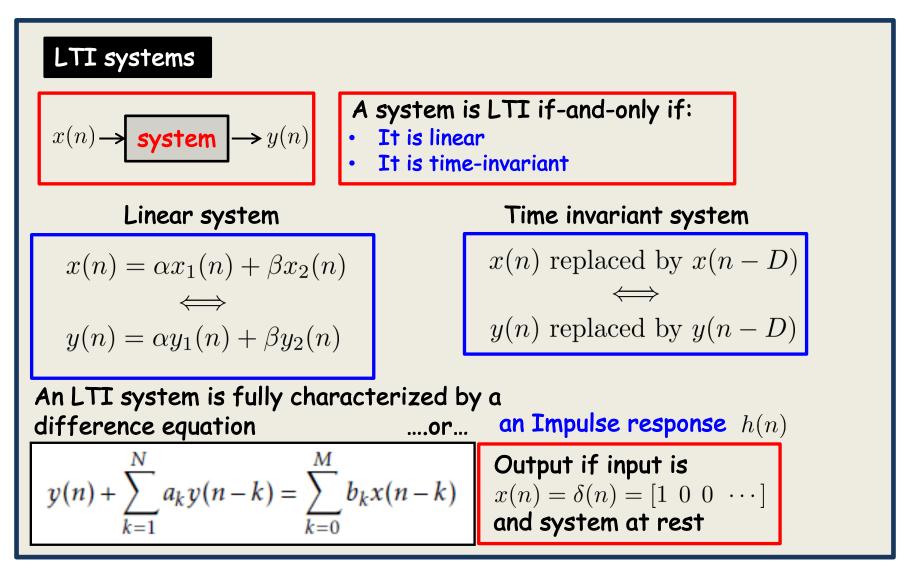


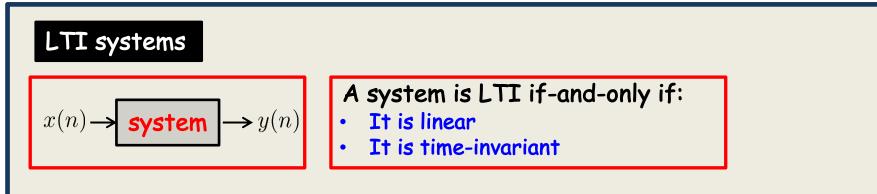


If aliasing: In general not possible to revocer x(t) from x(n)







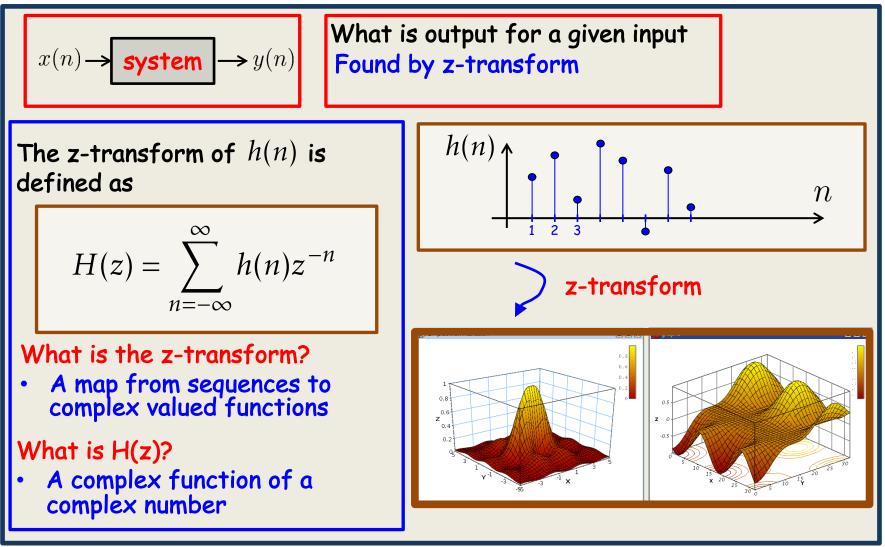


Assume that we turn on the circuit at n=0

System at rest if $y(-k) = 0, \ 1 \le k \le N$

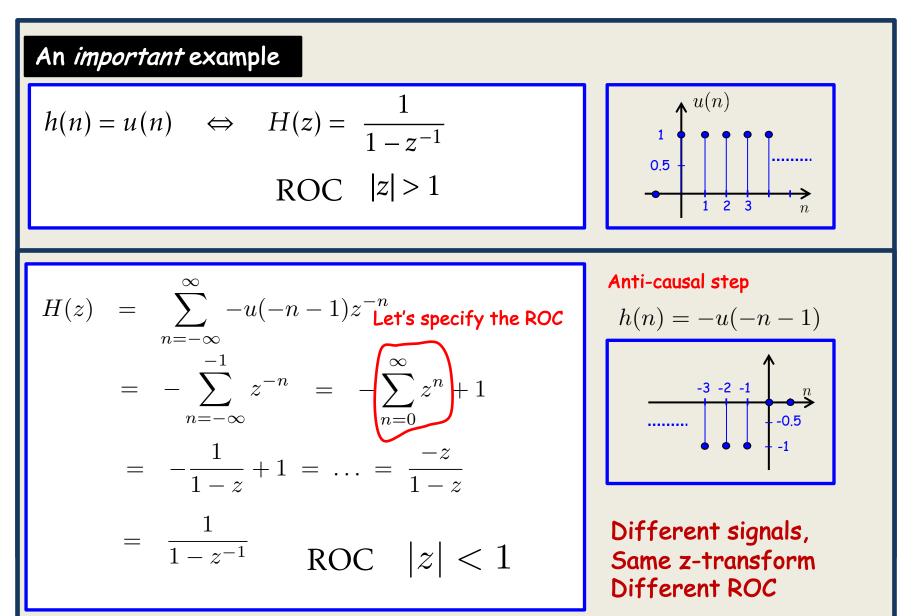
Not at rest if (has initial conditions) $\exists k, 1 \leq k \leq N, : y(-k) \neq 0$

An LTI system is fully characterized by a
difference equationan Impulse responseh(n) $y(n) + \sum_{k=1}^{N} a_k y(n-k) = \sum_{k=0}^{M} b_k x(n-k)$ Output if input is
 $x(n) = \delta(n) = [1 \ 0 \ 0 \ \cdots]$
and system at rest



If we want to plot H(z), we need 2 plots, one for the real part, one for the imaginary

Z-transforms are not meant for "plotting and obtaining insights"



EITF75, z-transform

Convention

If we are given an X(z), and assume that the signal x(n) is causal, then we can be sloppy with the ROC

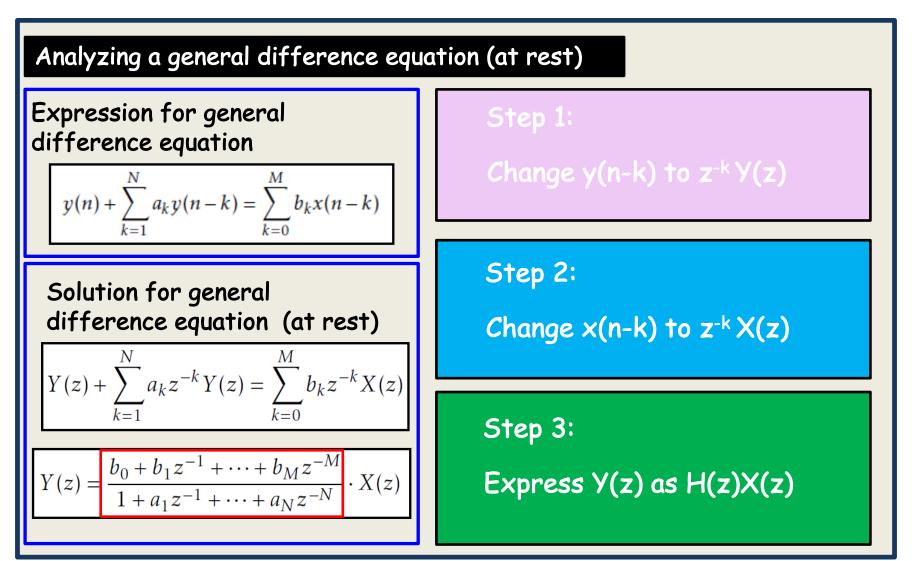
There are many x(n) for the same X(z), and the ROC specifies the particular one. However, there is only one that is causal.



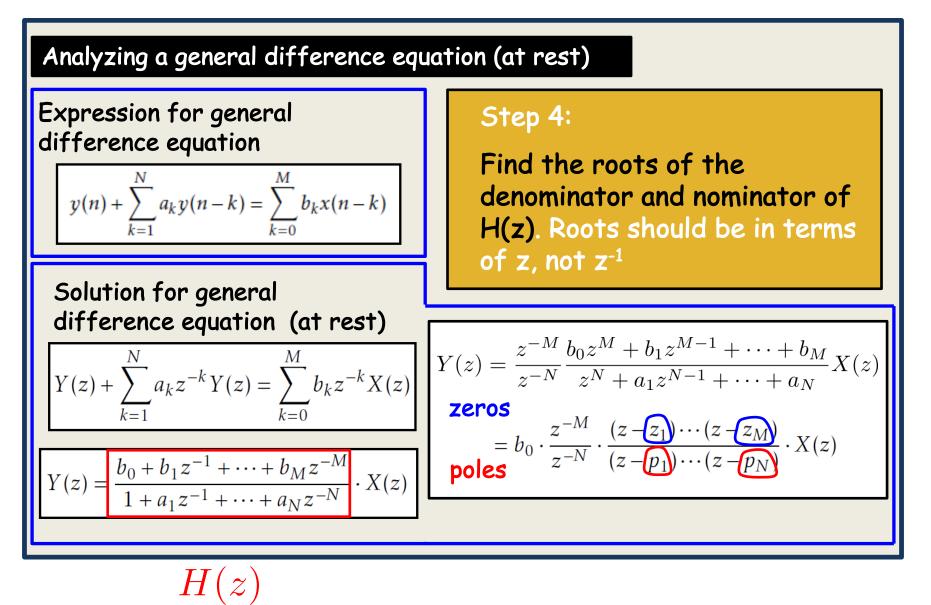
$$x(n) \rightarrow system \rightarrow y(n)$$

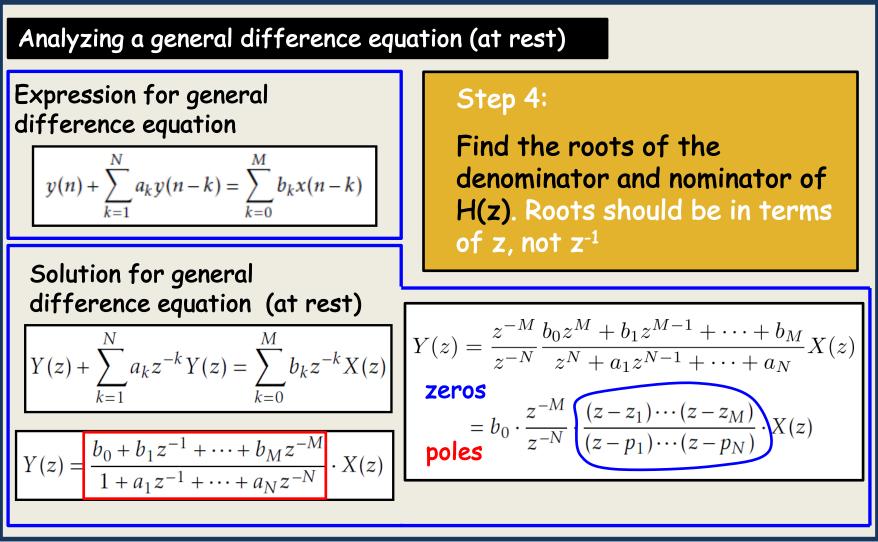
What is output for a given input Found by z-transform

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



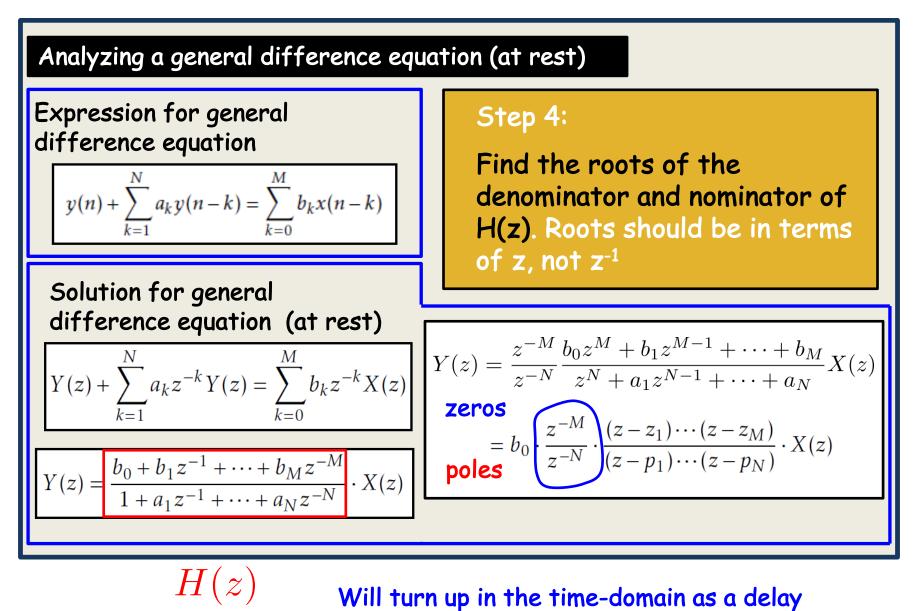
H(z)



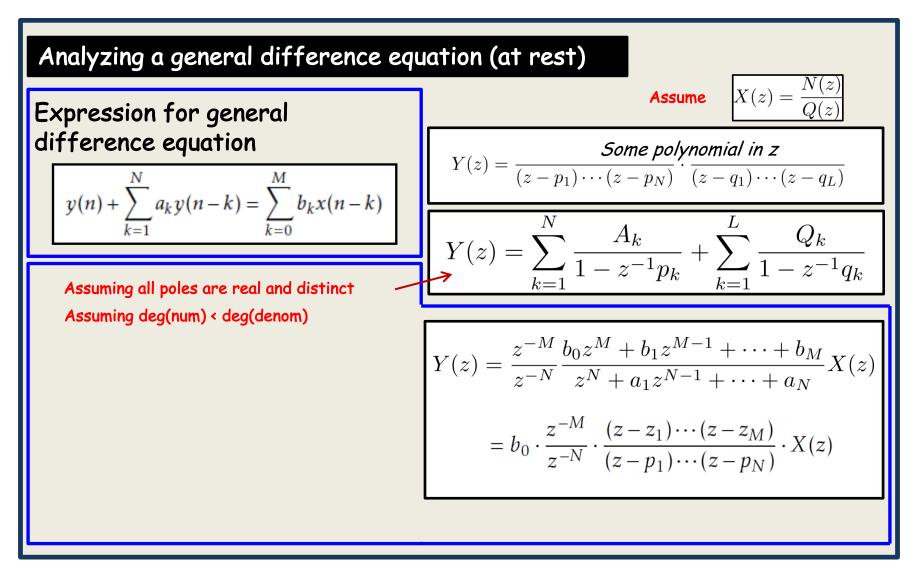


H(z)

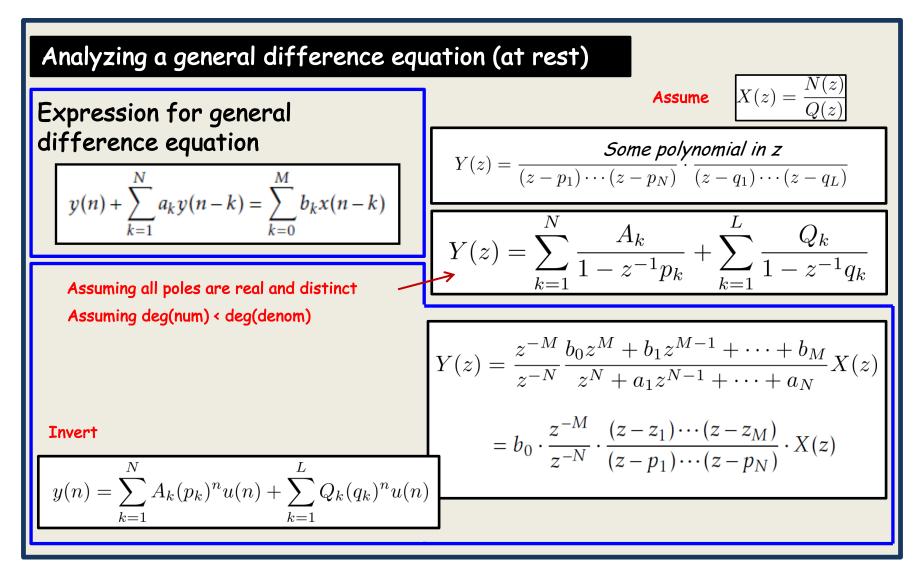
If degree of numerator >= degree of denominator. Perform polynomial division



(can be negative delay)

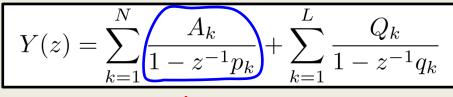


Perform partial fraction expansion



Analyzing a general difference equation (at rest)

Expression for general difference equation



This...

...generates that

$$y(n) = \sum_{k=1}^{N} A_k(p_k)^n u(n) + \sum_{k=1}^{L} Q_k(q_k)^n u(n)$$

Analyzing a general difference equation (at rest) $X(z) = \frac{N(z)}{Q(z)}$ Assume Important: To get stable output, all poles must be inside $Y(z) = \frac{\text{Some polynomial in } z}{(z - p_1) \cdots (z - p_N)} \cdot \frac{(z - q_1) \cdots (z - q_L)}{(z - q_1) \cdots (z - q_L)}$ the unit circle $Y(z) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{A_k}{1 - z^{-1} p_k} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{Q_k}{1 - z^{-1} q_k}$ Important: poles in H(z) and in X(z) determines the output structure: "You can never get a term in $Y(z) = \frac{z^{-M}}{z^{-N}} \frac{b_0 z^M + b_1 z^{M-1} + \dots + b_M}{z^N + a_1 z^{N-1} + \dots + a_M} X(z)$ y(n) that doesn't exist in either X(z) or H(z)'' $= b_0 \cdot \frac{z^{-N}}{z^{-N}} \cdot \frac{(z-z_1)\cdots(z-z_M)}{(z-p_1)\cdots(z-p_N)} \cdot X(z)$ $y(n) = \sum_{k=1}^{N} A_k (p_k)^n u(n) + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} Q_k (q_k)^n u(n)$

A complex conjugated pair of poles

$$h(n) = r^n \cdot \sin(\omega n)u(n)$$
 $h(n) = r^n \cdot \cos(\omega n)u(n)$

$$H(z) = \frac{r\sin(\omega)z^{-1}}{1 - 2r\cos(\omega)z^{-1} + r^2 z^{-2}} \qquad H(z) = \frac{1 - r\cos(\omega)z^{-1}}{1 - 2r\cos(\omega)z^{-1} + r^2 z^{-2}}$$

Polar coordinates: r is "length" and w is angle of the pole. To get stable output: r<1 (poles inside the unit circle)

Example

Quite messy to invert a mixture of the two above: Make sure you know how to do that.

Invert
$$H(z) = z^{-1} \cdot \frac{1 - z^{-1}}{1 - 1.27z^{-1} + 0.81z^{-2}}$$

Systems not at rest

 ∞ Use the one-sided z-transform $X^+(z) = \sum x(n) z^{-n}$ n=0

Systems not at rest

Use the one-sided z-transform

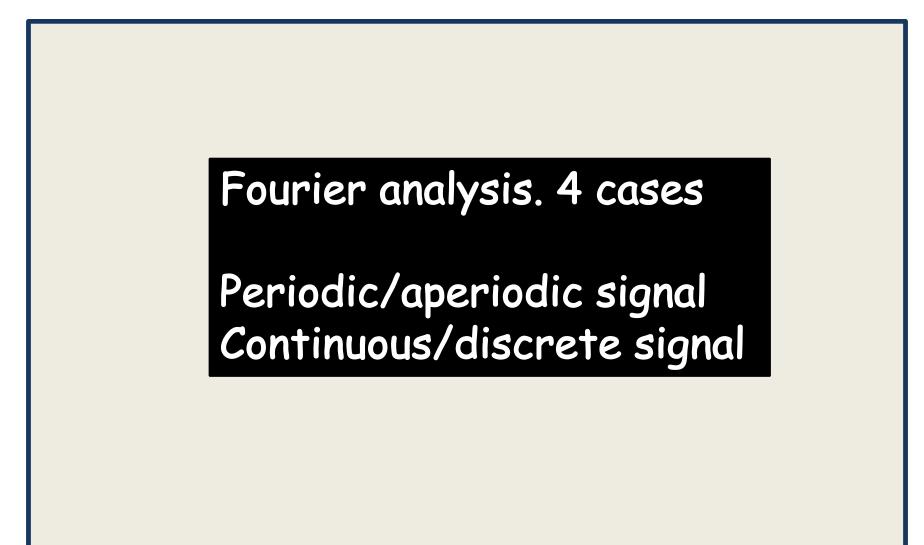
$$X^{+}(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x(n) z^{-n}$$

End result: The solution at rest + contribution from initial conditions

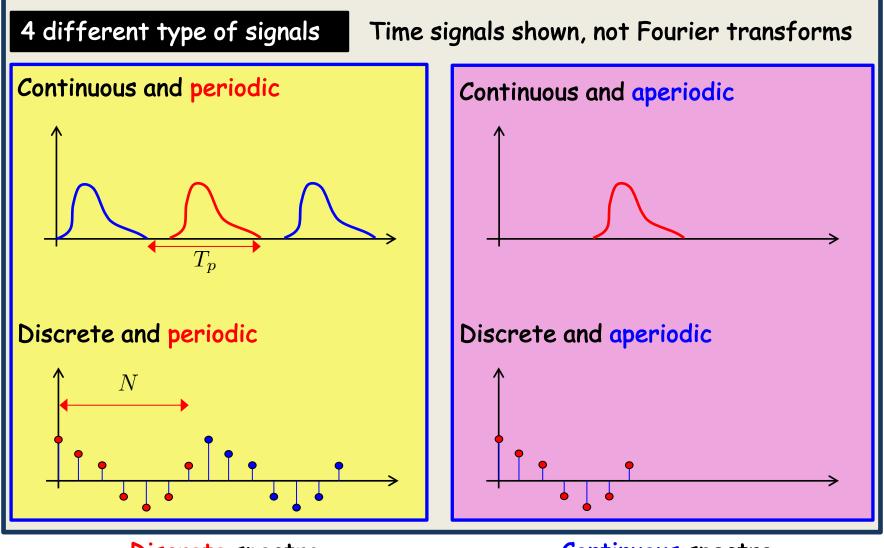
$$Y(z) = H(z)X(z) + \frac{N_0(z)}{A(z)} = \frac{B(z)}{A(z)}X(z) + \frac{N_0(z)}{A(z)}$$

$$N_0(z) = -\sum_{k=1}^N a_k z^{-k} \sum_{n=1}^k y(-n) z^n$$

N: highest power of z^{-1} in A(z)



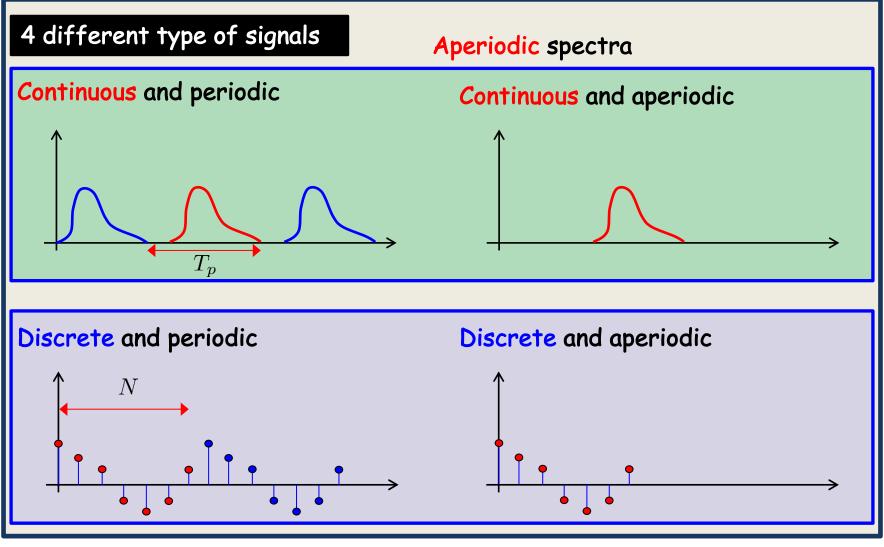
EITF75, Fourier transforms



Discrete spectra

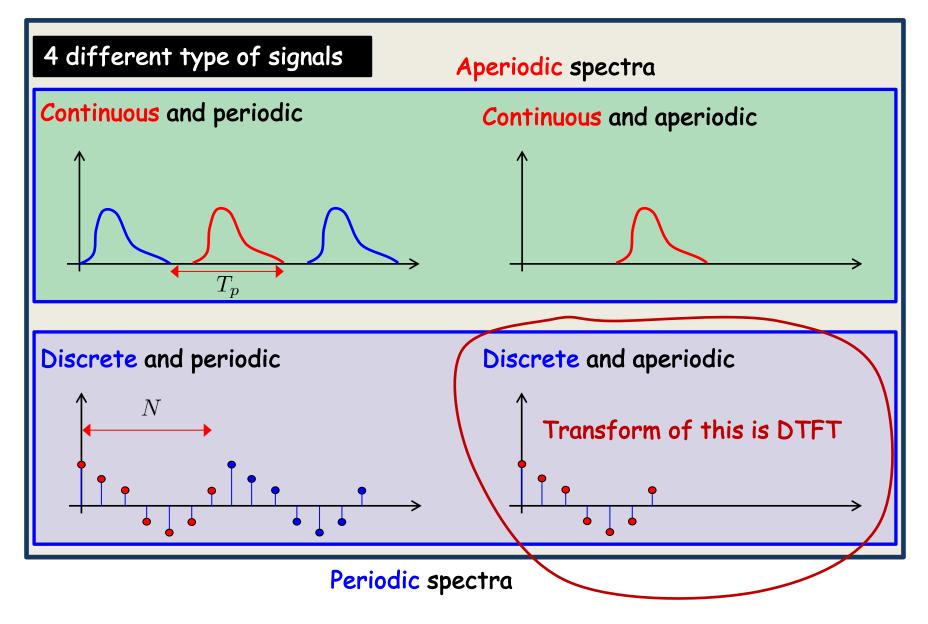
Continuous spectra

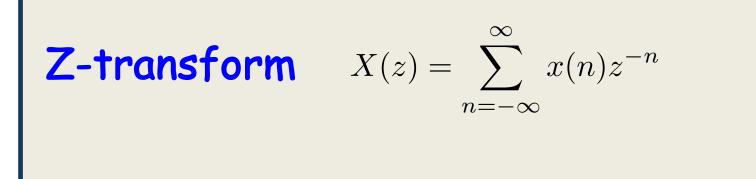
EITF75, Fourier transforms



Periodic spectra

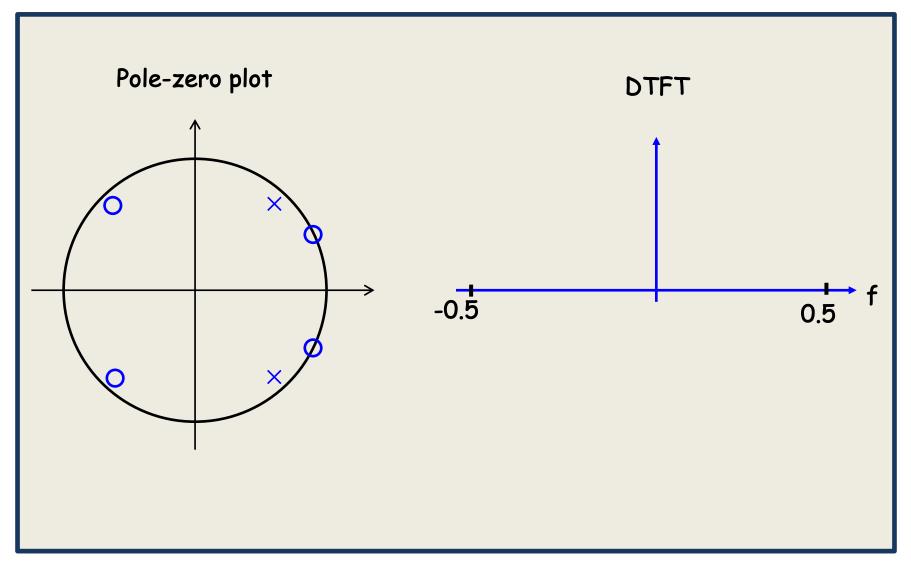
EITF75, Fourier transforms



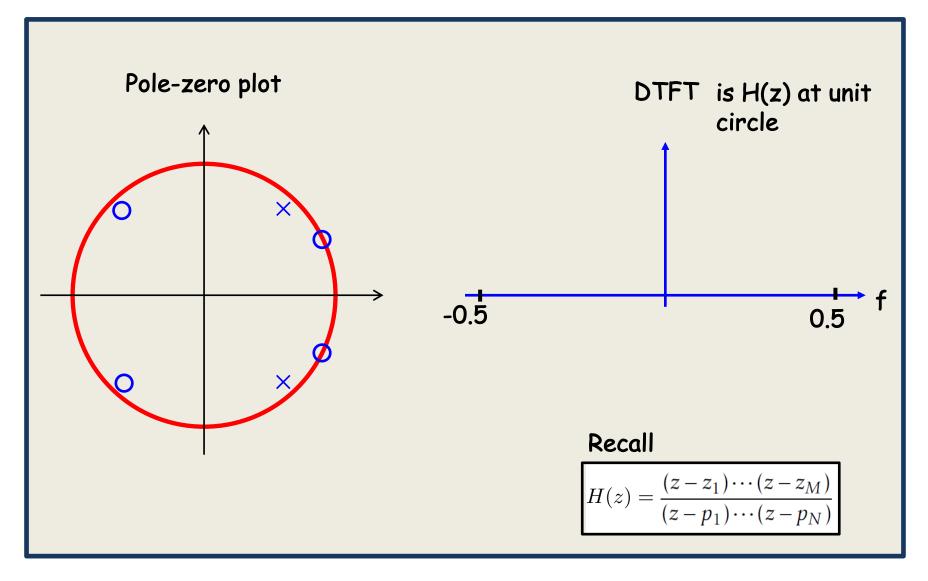


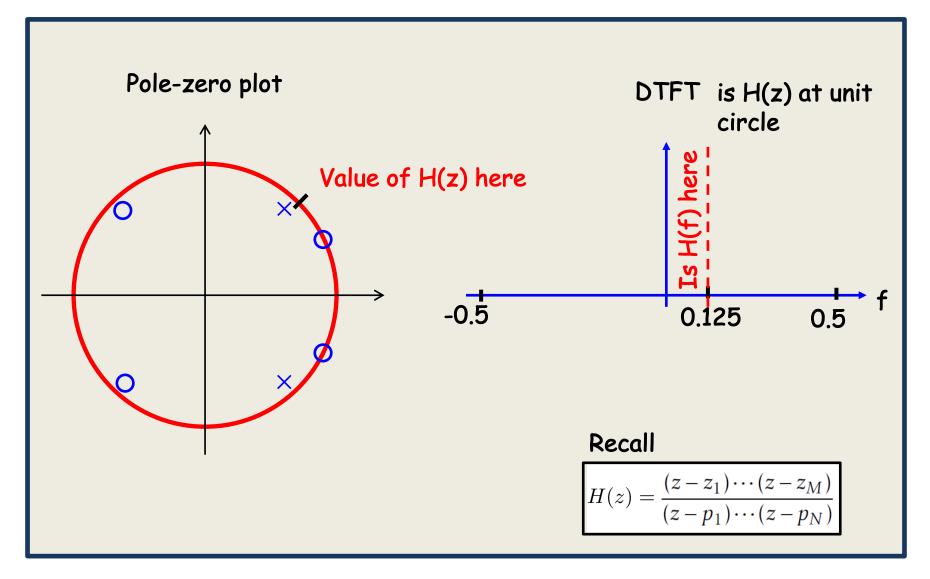
DTFT (discrete time Fourier transform) $X(f) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(n) \exp(-i2\pi nf)$ $= X(z|z = \exp(i2\pi f))$

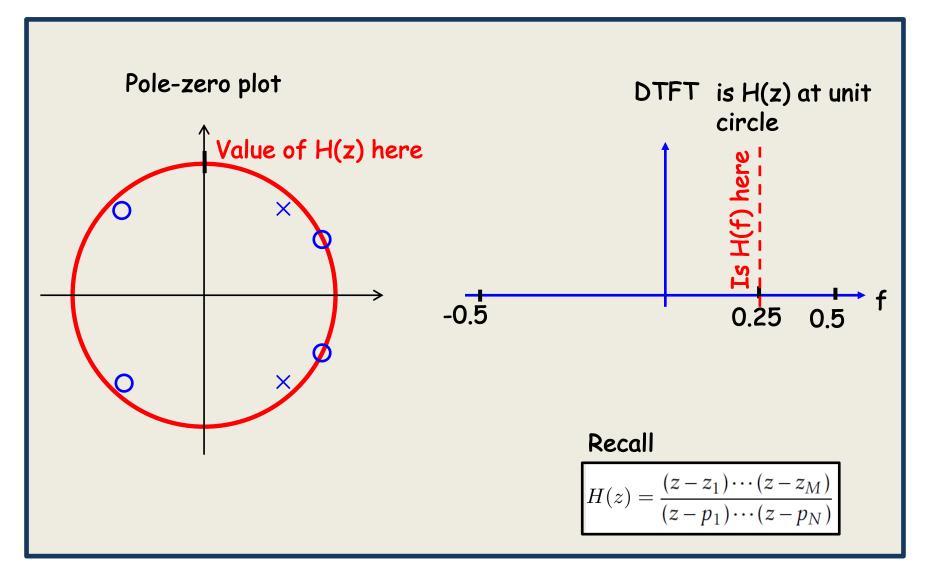
Important: DTFT is z-transform evaluated at unit circle

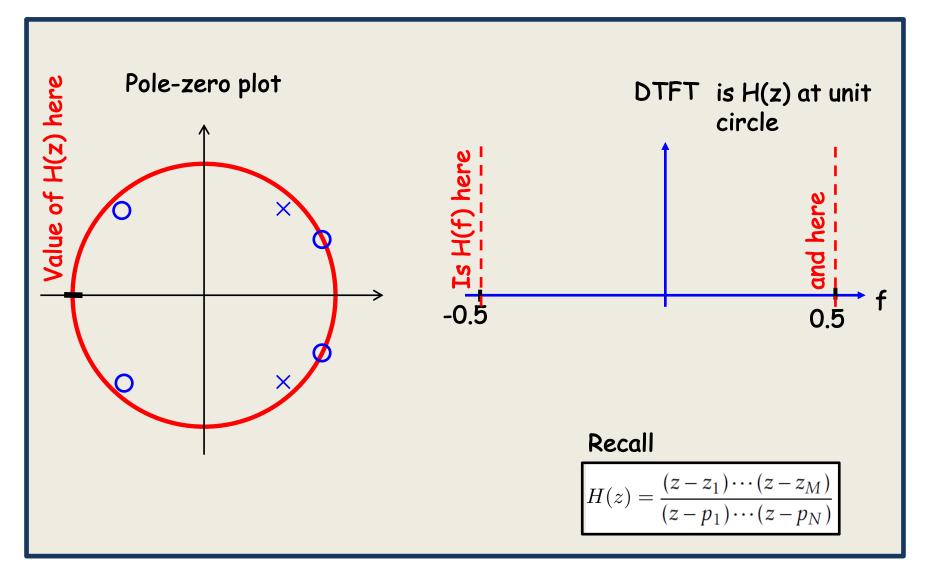


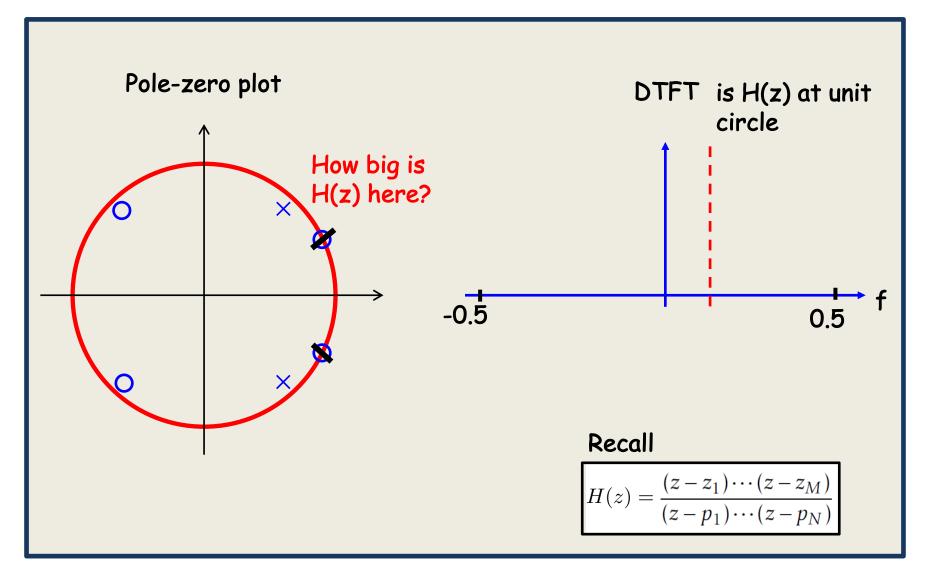
Book makes a big deal out of this. But quite easy....

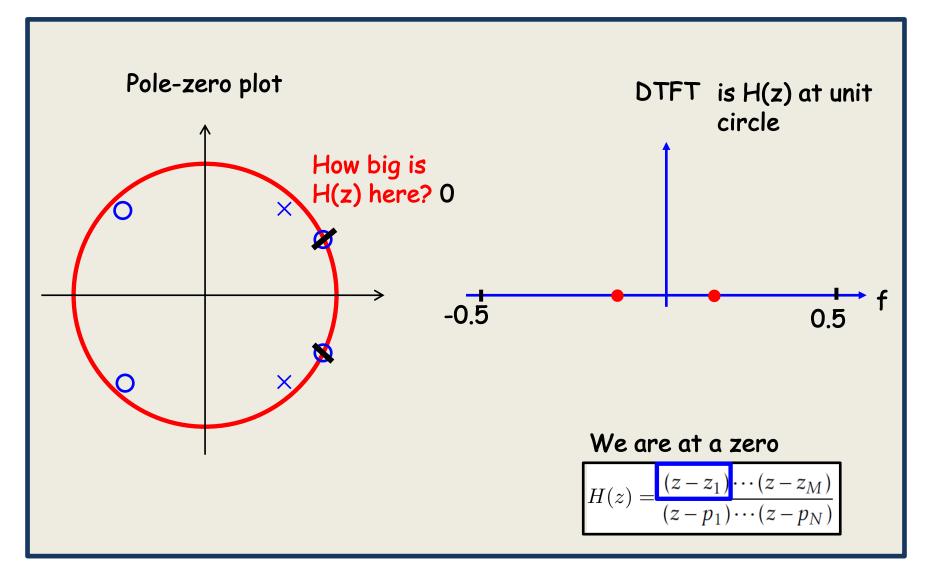


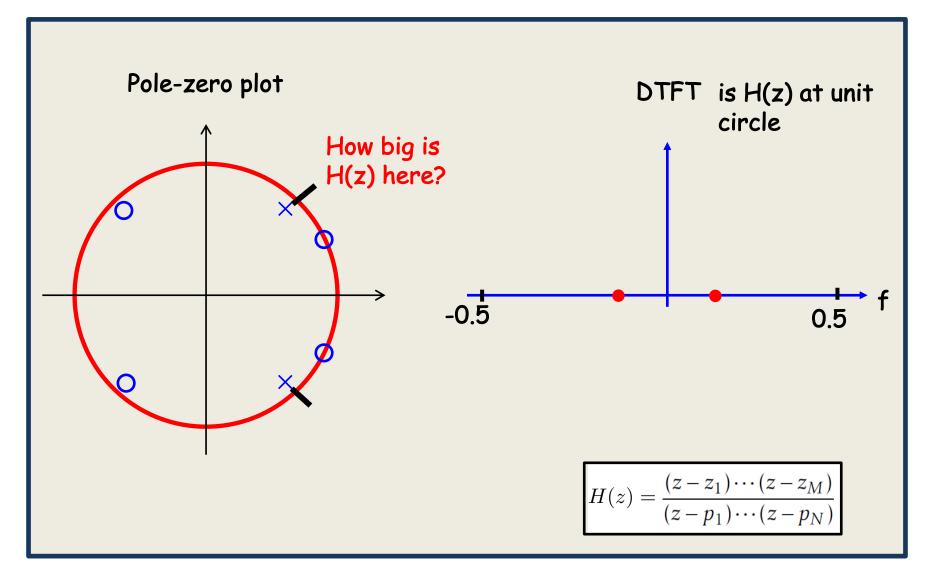


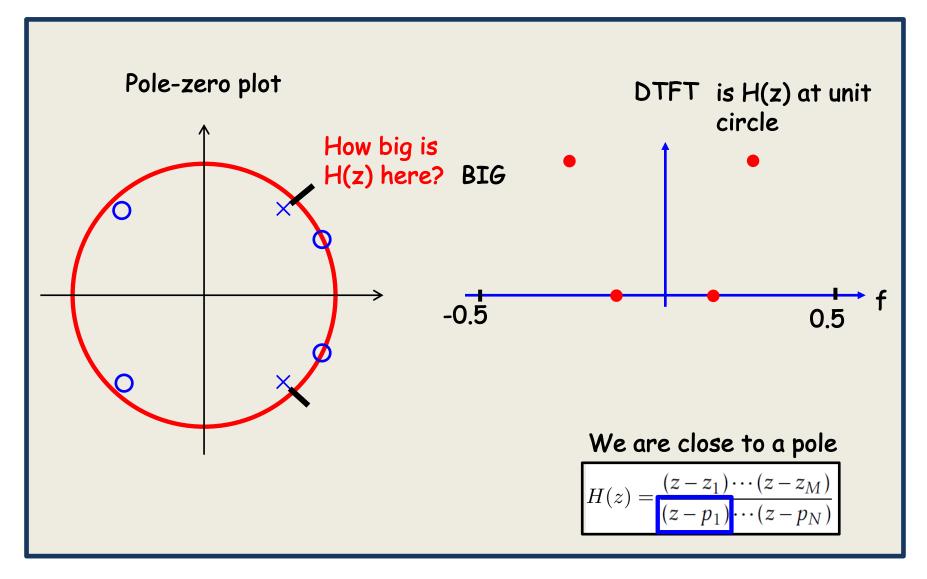


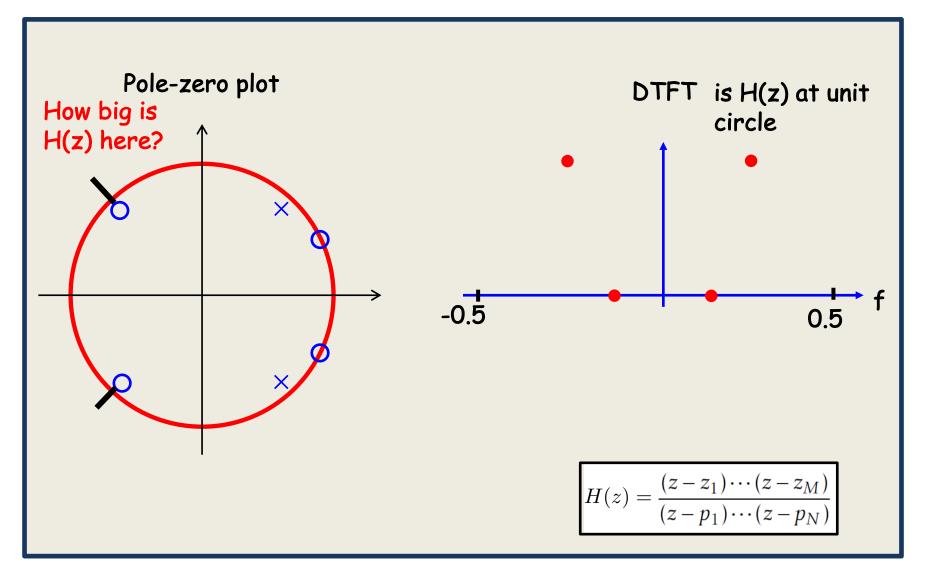


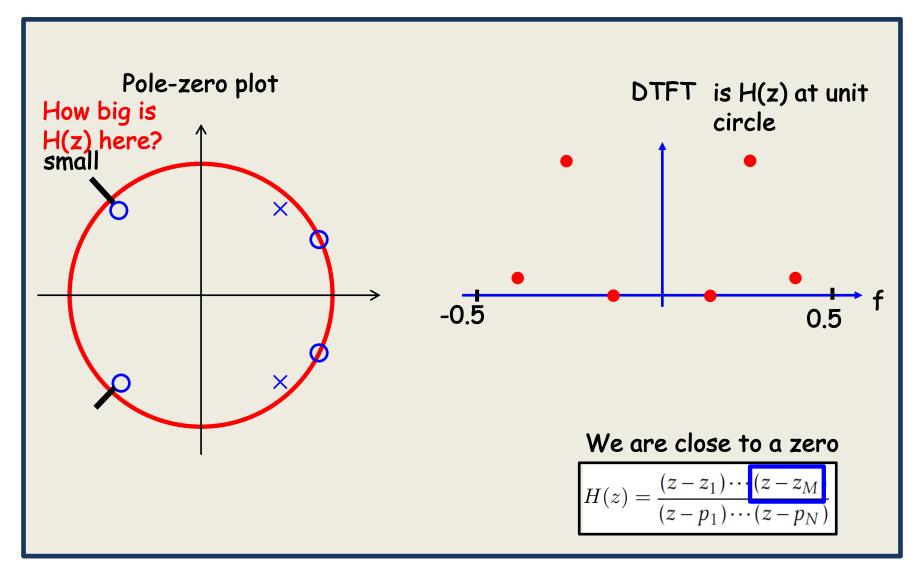


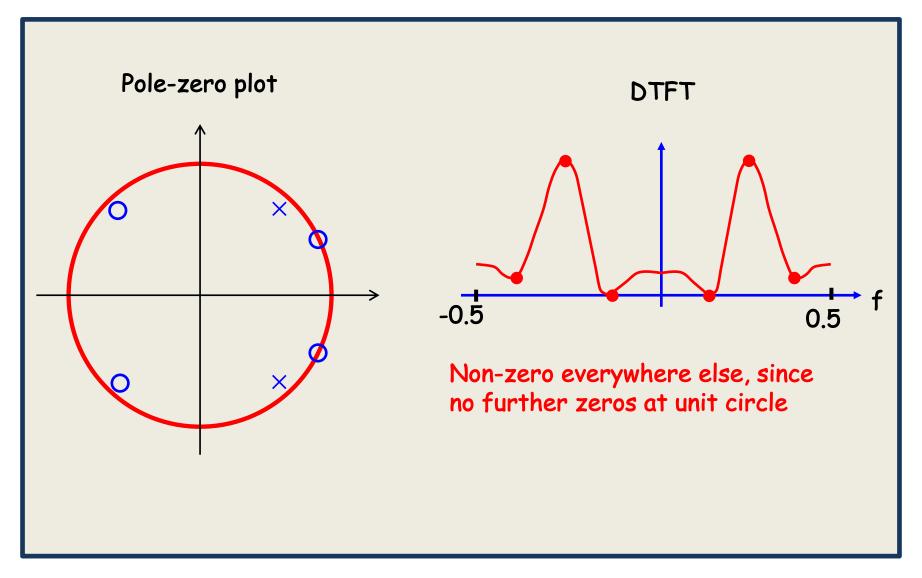


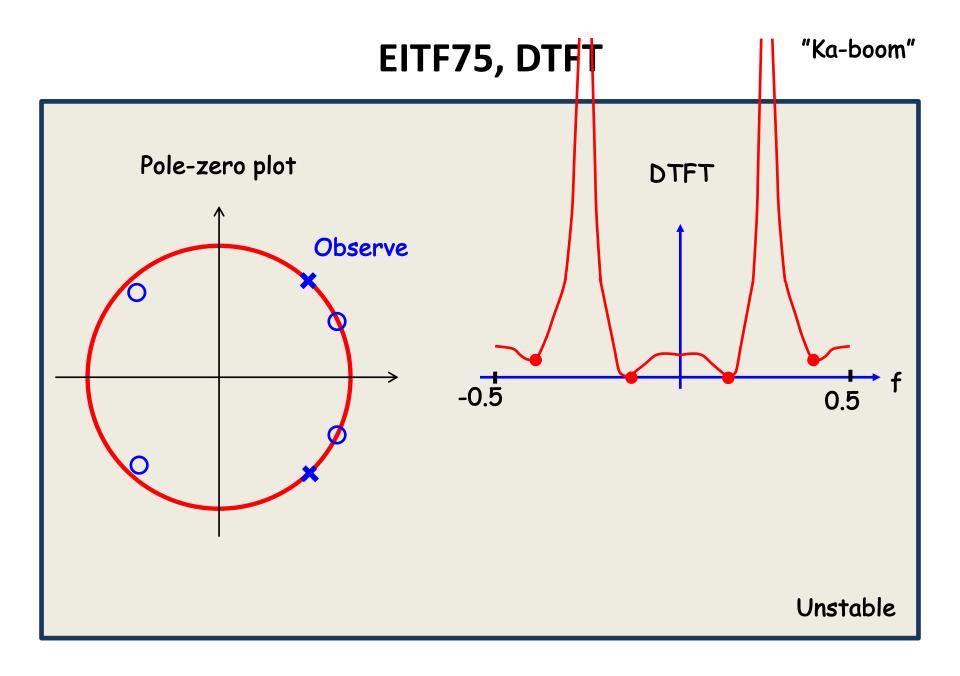


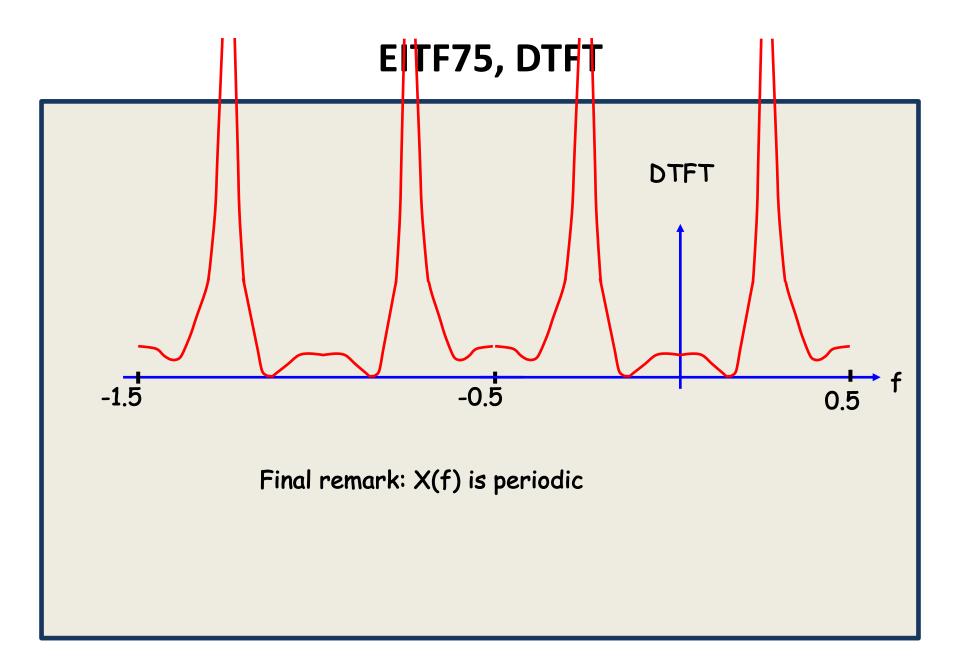










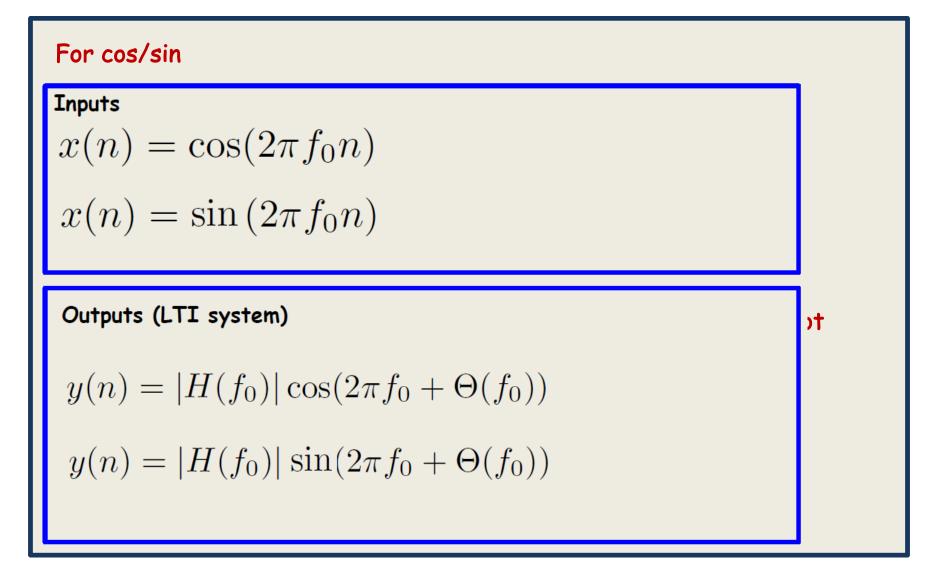


For stable h(n) $H(f) = H(e^{i2\pi f})$

For input $x(n) = \exp(i2\pi f_0 n)$

We get the output $y(n) = H(f_0) \exp(i 2\pi f_0 n)$

Important: An LTI system cannot create frequencies not present in the input signal



Assume oscillating input, but turned on at n=0

$$x(n) = \cos(\omega_0 n) \cdot u(n) \quad \omega_0 = \frac{2\pi}{16}$$

Steady state solution (i.e., y(n) at big n) is the same as before. At small n, there is a transient behavior.

$$Y(z) = H(z)X(z) = \frac{B(z)}{A(z)}X(z)$$

= $\frac{B(z)}{A(z)}\frac{1 - \cos(\omega_0)z^{-1}}{1 - 2\cos(\omega_0)z^{-1} + z^{-2}}$
= $\sum_{n=1}^{N}\frac{A_n}{1 - p_n z^{-1}} + \frac{X_1 + X_2 z^{-1}}{1 - 2\cos(\omega_0)z^{-1} + z^{-2}}$

Transient (if all poles inside unit circle)

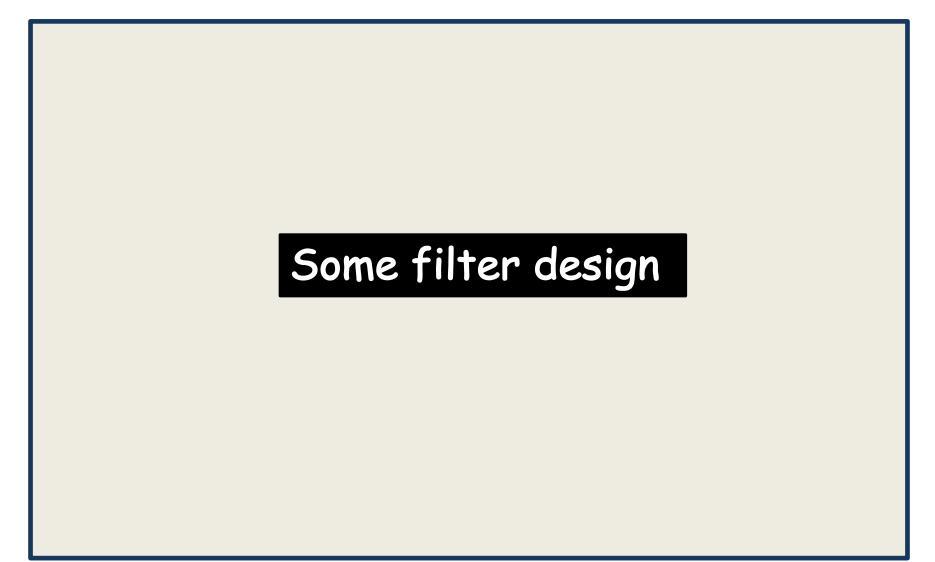
Steady state (same as for infinite cos)

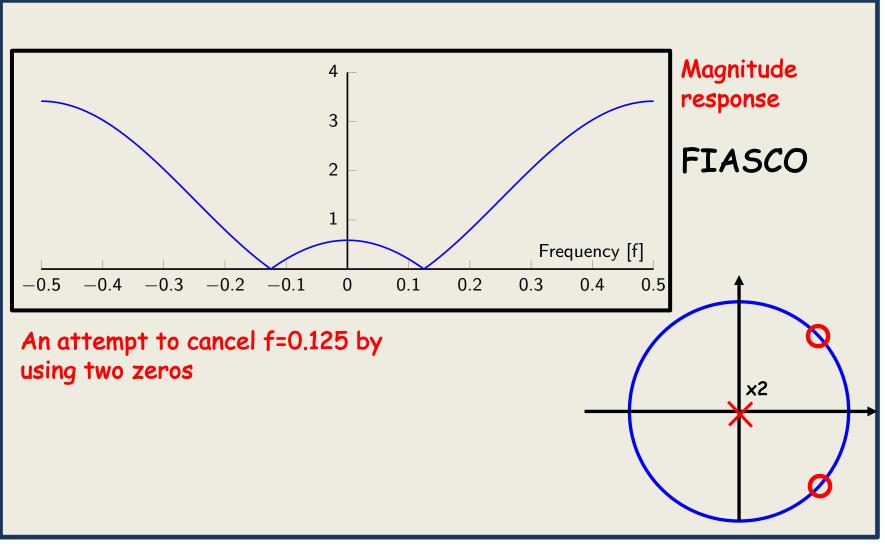
Parseval's formula

$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(n)y^*(n) = \int_{-0.5}^{0.5} X(f)Y^*(f) \mathrm{d}f$$

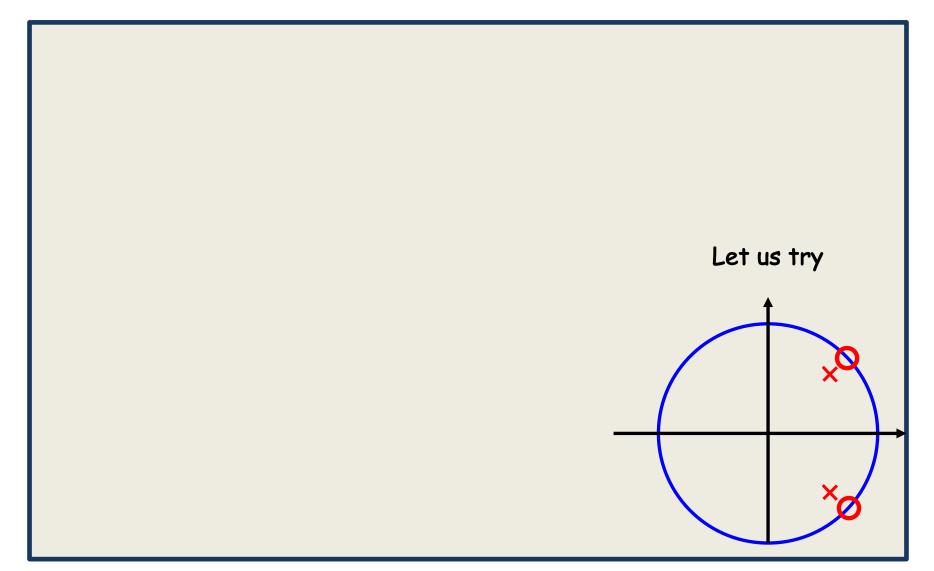
Special case: y(n) = x(n)

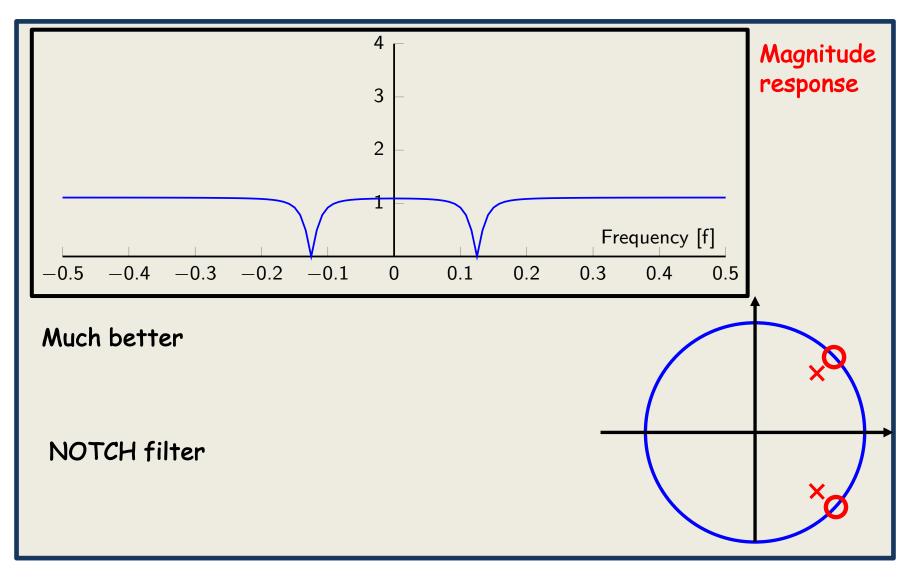
$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |x(n)|^2 = \int_{-0.5}^{0.5} |X(f)|^2 \mathrm{d}f$$





 $h(n) = \{ \underline{1} - 2\cos(w_0) = 1 \}$





FIR filters with linear phase

Linear phase is desirable since it delays all frequencies equally much

Linear phase is defined as

$$\Theta(\omega) = \kappa \omega + \pi \ell$$

Whenever there is a phase jump with π , this should be seen as a magnitude response that is negative

$$h(n) = h(-n)$$
 Symmetry around n=0. Not causal

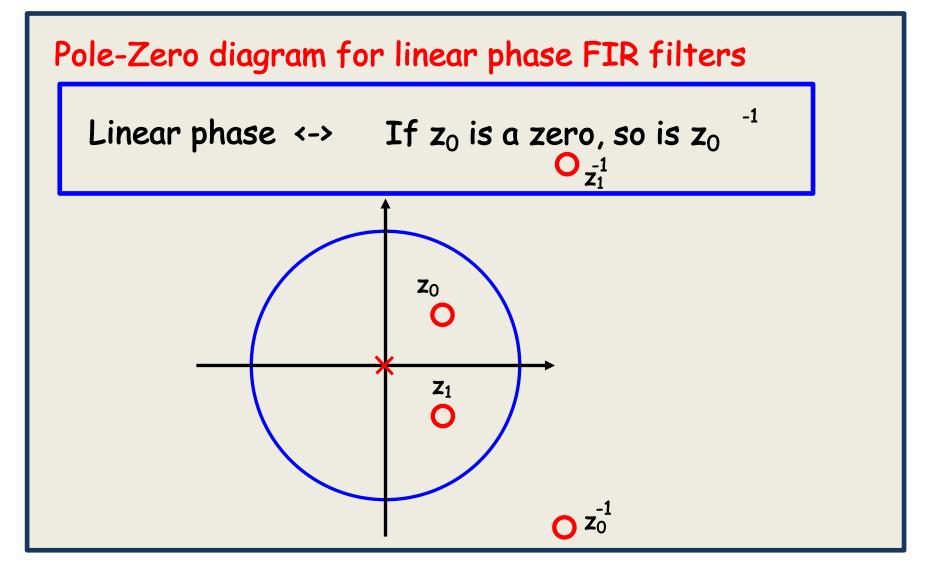
$$h(n) = h(N - n)$$
 Symmetry around n=(N-1)/2.

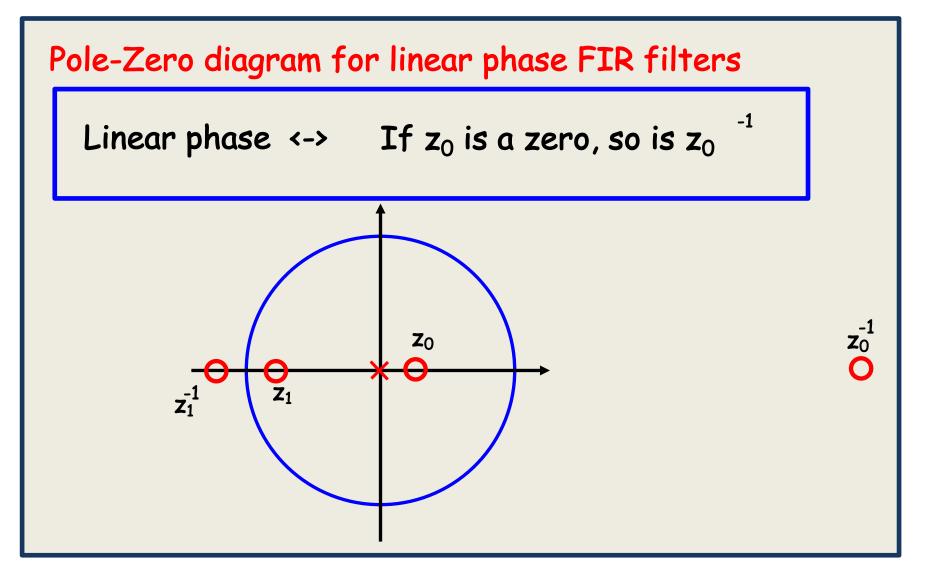
h(n) = -h(N - n) Anti-symmetry around n=(N-1)/2.

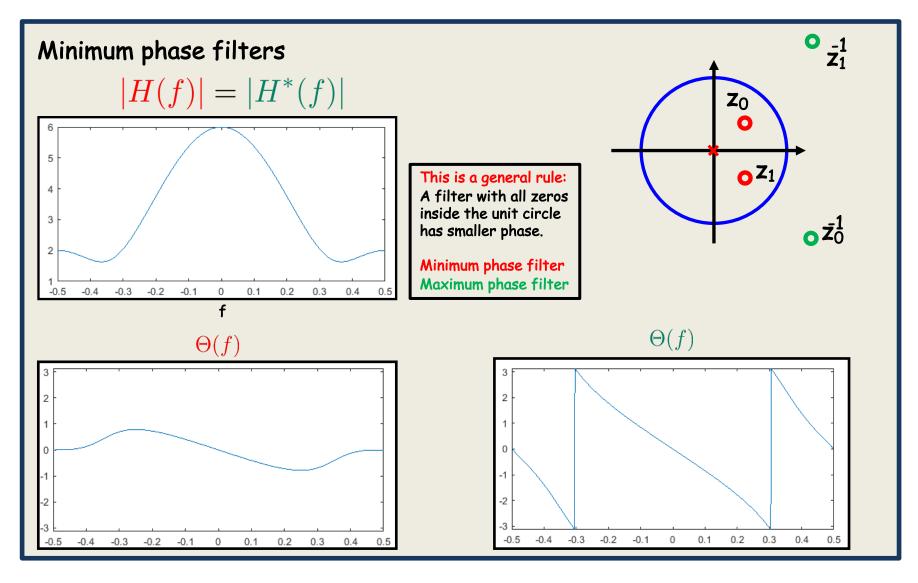
Three types of linear phase filters

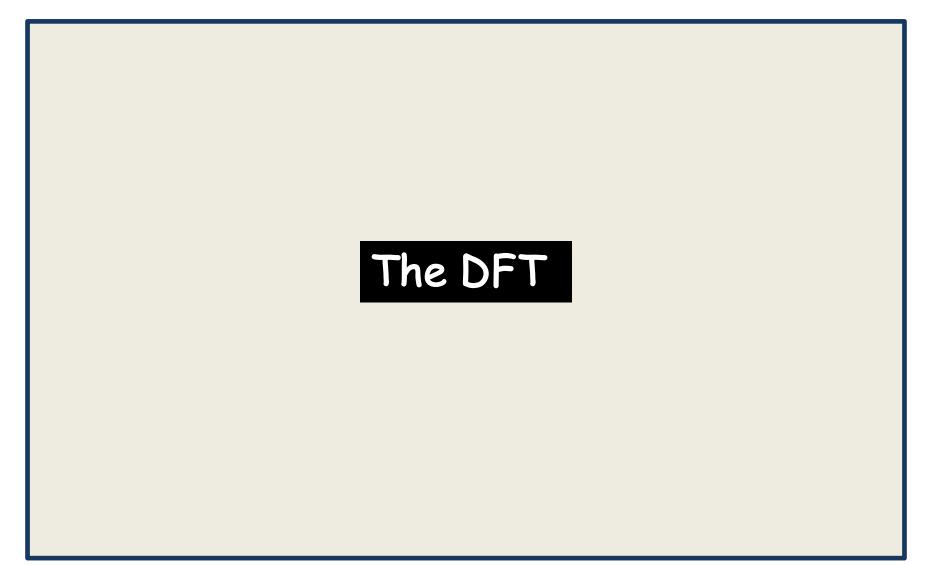
Example TYPE 1

 $h(n) = \left\{ \begin{array}{cccc} 1 & 2 & \underline{3} & 2 & 1 \end{array} \right\} \qquad H(z) = 1 + 2z^{-1} + 3z^{-2} + 2z^{-3} + z^{-4}$



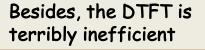


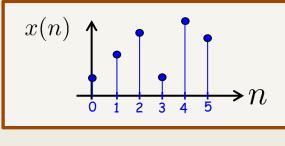




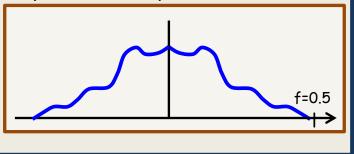
Background and motivation for yet another transform

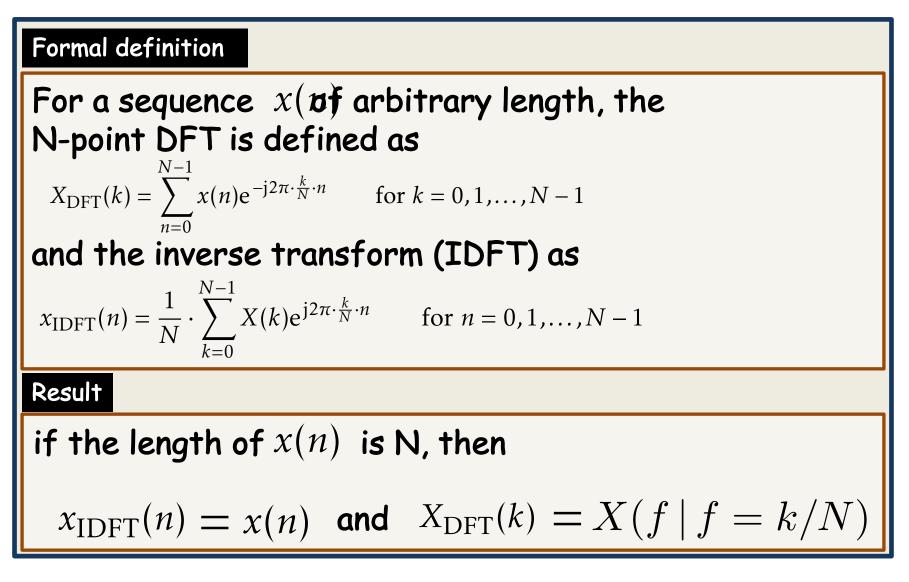
The discrete Fourier Transform (DFT) in one sentence: A Fourier version of x(n) with 6 numbers

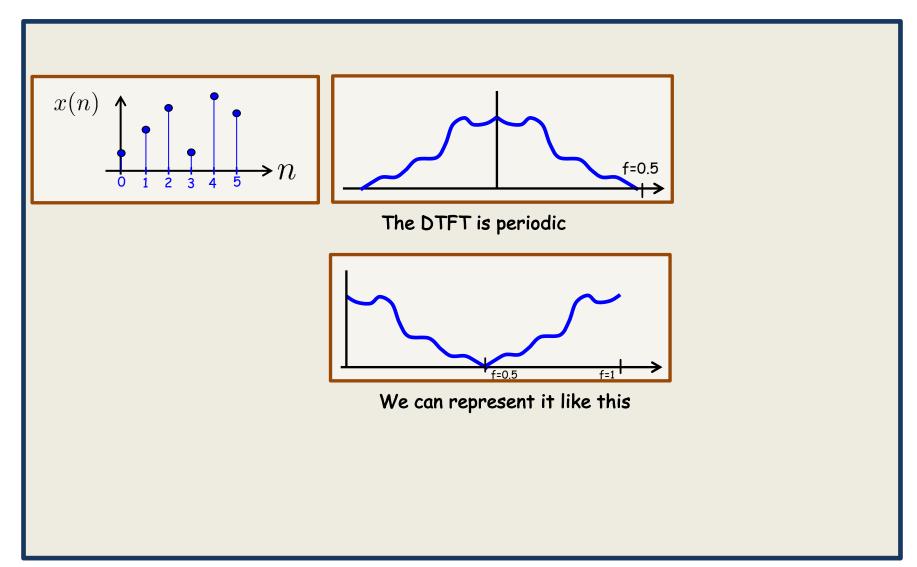


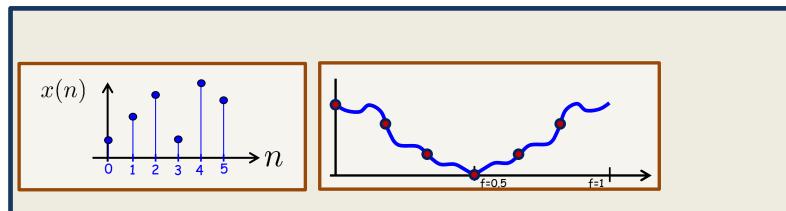


These 6 numbers, are in the frequency domain represened by a continuous curve ! It should be possible to Fourier represent x(n) by 6 numbers as well





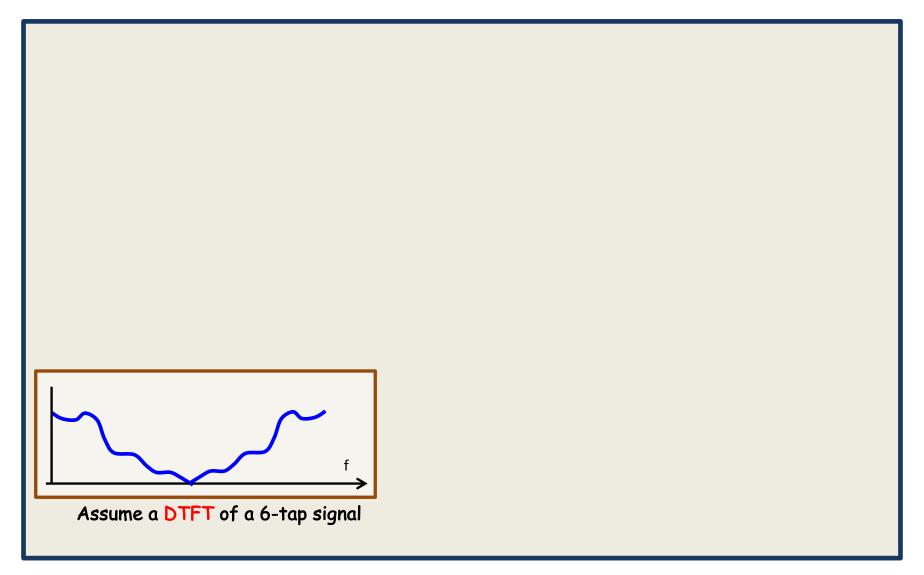


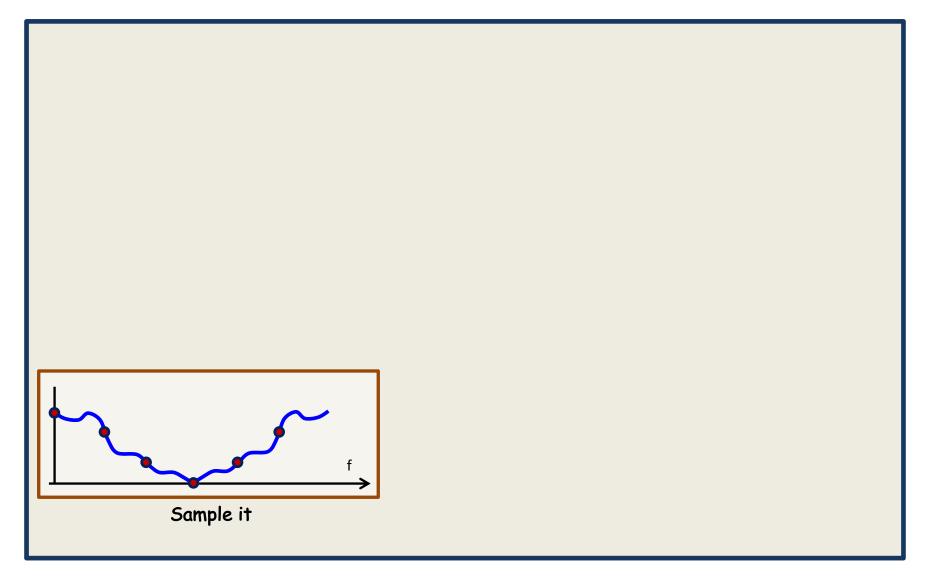


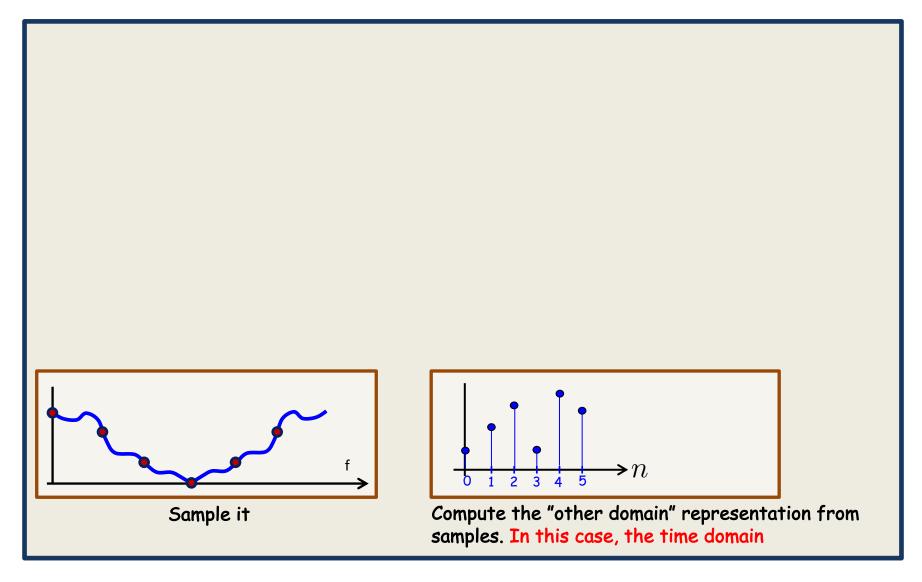
A 6-point DFT would compute the samples of the DTFT

This is sufficient to represent x(n)

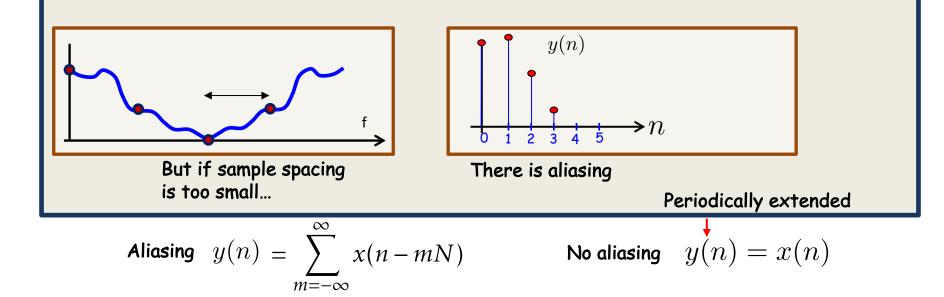
Important: The DFT size must be at least as long as the signal, otherwise there is a loss (aliasing in time)

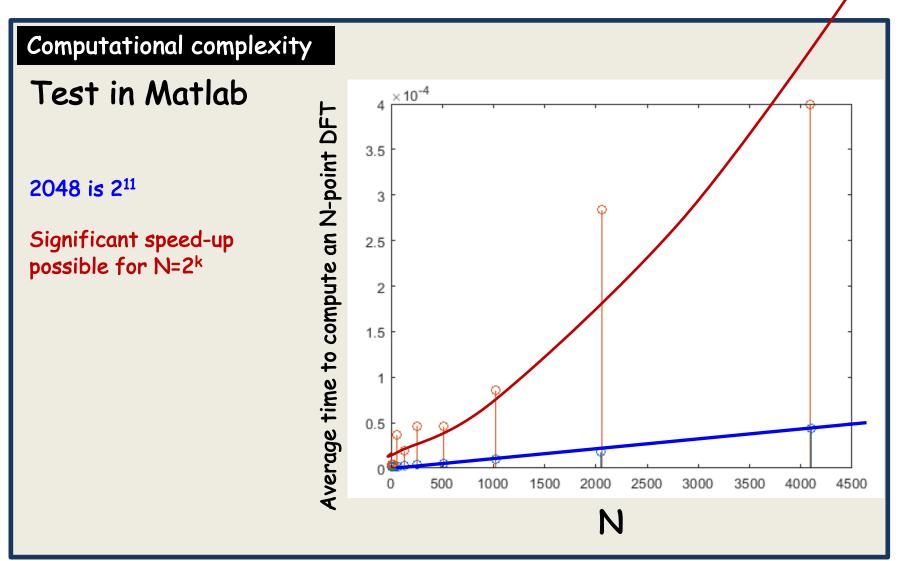






The time-aliasing only occurs if we are not careful with the DFT size. If it is equal or larger than the length of the signal, there is no time-aliasing





Computational complexity

FFT not included in course, but good to know about

Cooley and Tukey 1965

Fast Fourier transform (FFT)

Method known to, and used by, Gauss in 1805

If $N=2^{k}$, then $N \log_{2}(N)$ complexity to compute

$$X_{\rm DFT}(k) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) e^{-j2\pi \cdot \frac{k}{N} \cdot n} \qquad \text{for } k = 0, 1, \dots, N-1$$

Made possible by some algebraic manipulations and tricks.

The importance of the FFT cannot be underestimated. WIFI and 4G, etc could not been implemented without the FFT

For a computer,

- 1. It can avoid the continuous DTFT
- 2. It can compute the DFT extremely fast

Properties

For DTFTs, we have

$$\begin{aligned} x(n) \star y(n) &\leftrightarrow X(f) Y(f) \\ x(n) &\leftrightarrow X(f) \qquad x(n-n_0) \leftrightarrow X(f) e^{-i2\pi f n_0} \end{aligned}$$

For DFTs, we have

$$x_1(n) \otimes x_2(n) \leftrightarrow X(k)Y(k)$$
$$x(n - n_0 \mod N) \leftrightarrow X(k)e^{-i2\pi k n_0/N}$$
where $x_1(n) \otimes x_2(n) = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} x_1(k)x_2(n - k \mod N)$

Circular convolution

Example

Linear convolution computed via DFTs

Given: Two length N sequences, x(n), y(n)

Task: Compute their linear convolution by using DFT and its inverse IDFT

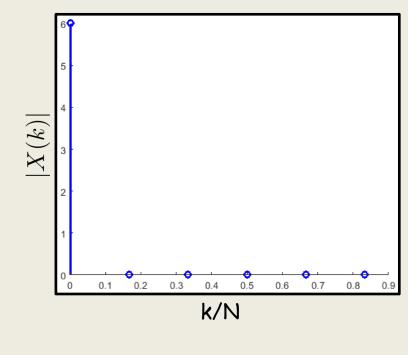
>> $x=[1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 4];$ This is the result, But >> y=[2 2 1 1]; >> vL=conv(x,v) not computed via DFT vL = 6 11 17 13 7 4 2 >> xp=[1 2 3 4 0 0 0 0]; >> yp=[2 2 1 1 0 0 0 0]; >> yL=ifft(fft(xp).*fft(yp)) vL = 2.0000 6.0000 11.0000 17.0000 13.0000 7.0000 4.0000 -0.0000

Still a circular convolution carried out, but due to zero-padding, it behaves linear.

More examples: Resolution increase

$x(n) = \{1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ \}$

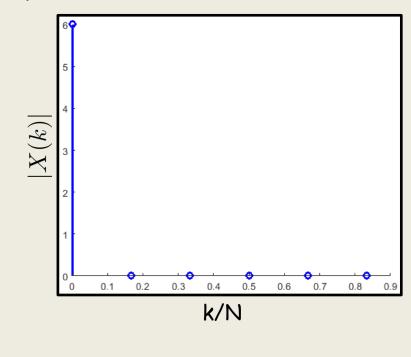
Compute DFT (N=6)



More examples: Resolution increase

$x(n) = \{1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0\}$

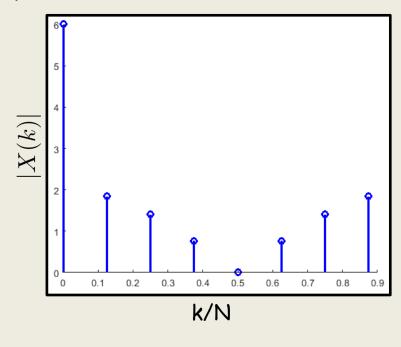
Compute DFT (N=8)



More examples: Resolution increase

$x(n) = \{1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0\}$

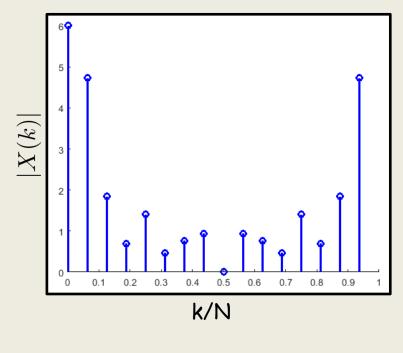
Compute DFT (N=8)



More examples: Resolution increase

 $x(n) = \{1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \cdots \cdots \}$

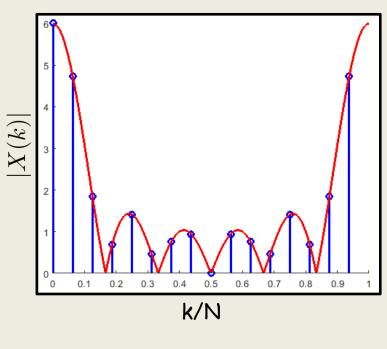
Compute DFT (N=16)



More examples: Resolution increase

 $x(n) = \{1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \cdots \cdots \}$

Compute DFT (N=16)



What is this line?

DFT size larger-or-equal to the length of x(n)

Therefore, DFT samples of **DTFT**