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§ 2.1 Discrete-Time Signals

2.1.1 Time-Domain Representation

- Discrete time signals $\{x[n]\}$ —represented as <u>sequences</u> with <u>argument</u> n being an integer in the range $-\infty \le n \le \infty$
- Discrete-time signal represented by $\{x[n]\}$
- The nth sample value of sequence {x[n]} is also denoted as x[n]
- values of argument n—defined only for integer and undefined for non-integer values of n

Often the braces are ignored to denote a sequence if there is no ambiguity.

$$\{x[n]\}=x[n]$$

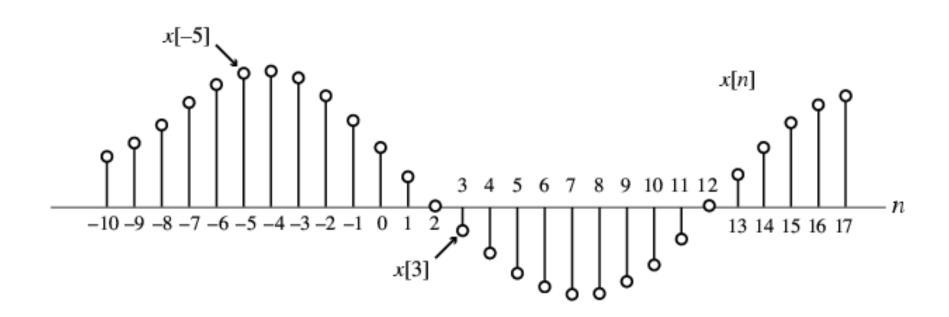
 Discrete-time signal may also be written as a sequence of numbers inside braces:

$${x[n]}={\dots, -0.2, 2.2, 1.1, 0.2, -3.7, 2.9, \dots}$$

- The arrow is placed under the sample at time index n = 0
- In the above, x[-1] = -0.2, x[0] = 2.2, x[1] = 1.1, etc.

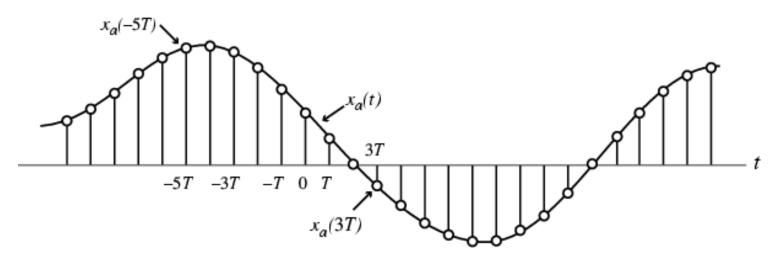
Vector form
$$x[n] = [x[0] \ x[1] \ ... \ x[N-1]]^{T}$$

Graphical representation of a discrete-time signal with real-valued samples is as shown below:





In some applications, a discrete-time sequence $\{x[n]\}$ may be generated by periodically sampling a continuous-time signal $x_a(t)$ at uniform intervals of time.



■ Here, *n-th* sample is given by

$$x[n] = x_a(t) \mid_{t=nT} = x_a(nT), n = ..., -2, -1, 0, 1, ...$$



 $\{x[n]\}\$ is a real sequence, if the *n*-th sample x[n] is real for all values of *n*. Otherwise, $\{x[n]\}$ is a complex sequence

- A complex sequence $\{x[n]\}$ can be written as $\{x[n]\}=\{x_{re}[n]\}+j\{x_{im}[n]\}$ where x_{re} and x_{im} are the real and imaginary parts of x[n]
- The complex conjugate sequence of $\{x[n]\}$ is given by $\{x^*[n]\}=\{x_{re}[n]\}$ $j\{x_{im}[n]\}$



Example - $\{x[n]\}=\{\cos 0.25n\}$ is a real sequence $\{y[n]\}=\{e^{j0.3n}\}$ is a complex sequence

We can write

$$\{y[n]\} = \{\cos 0.3n + j\sin 0.3n\}$$

$$= \{y_{re}[n]\} + j\{y_{im}[n]\}$$
where
$$\{y_{re}[n]\} = \{\cos 0.3n\}$$

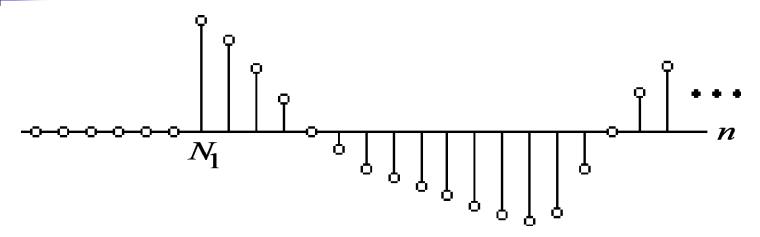
$$\{y_{im}[n]\} = \{\sin 0.3n\}$$



- A discrete-time signal may be a finite-length or an infinite-length sequence
- Finite-length (also called finite-duration or finite-extent) sequence is defined only for a finite time interval: $N_1 \le n \le N_2$ where $-\infty < N_1$ and $N_2 < \infty$ with $N_1 \le N_2$
- Length or duration of the above finite-length sequence is $N = N_2 N_1 + 1$

Zero-padding—append with zero-valued samples.





A right-sided sequence

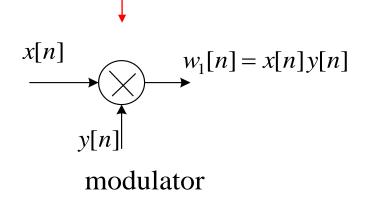
• If $N_1 \ge 0$, a right-sided sequence is called a causal sequence

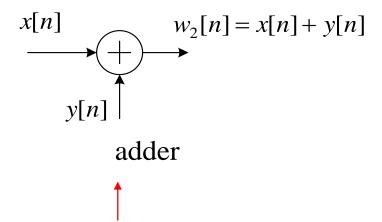
2.1.2 The Basic Operations On Sequences



1. Elementary Operations

Modulator (product or windowing)

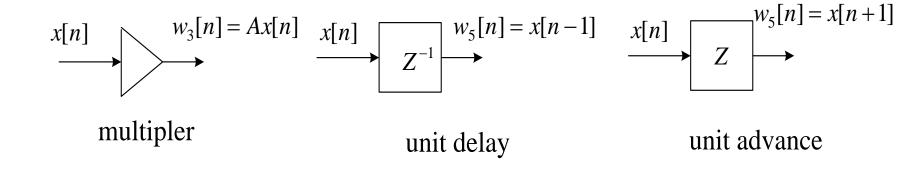




Adder (sum)

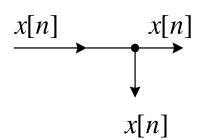
Multiplier

Time-shifting



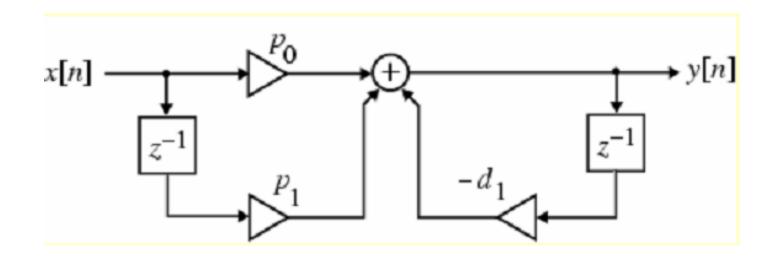
Time-reversal (folding operation) x[-n]

Pick-off node





Combination of Elementary Operations





2. Scaling in time-domain (Sampling rate alteration)

Up-sampling

$$x_u[n] = \begin{cases} x[n/L], n = 0, \pm 1L, \pm 2L, \dots \\ 0, otherwise \end{cases}$$

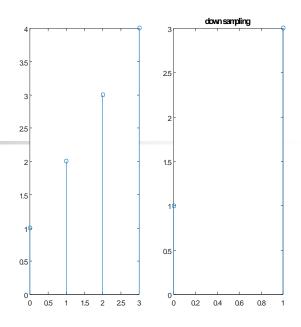
Down-sampling

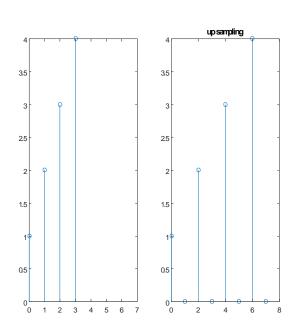
$$x_d[n] = x[nM]$$



MATLAB Codes

```
close all;
x = [1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 4];
y = downsample(x, 2);
subplot (1, 2, 1); stem ([1:4]-1, x);
subplot(1,2,2);xlim([0,3]);stem(
[1:2]-1,y);
title('down sampling');
x = [1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 4];
y = upsample(x, 2);
figure
subplot(1,2,1); stem([1:4]-
1, x); xlim([0,7]);
subplot (1, 2, 2); stem ([1:8]-1, y);
title('up sampling');
```





2.1.3 Classification of Sequences



1. Classification based on Symmetry

Conjugate-symmetry sequence

$$x*[n]=x[-n]$$

real x[n]--even

Conjugate-antisymmetry sequence

$$x*[n]=-x[-n]$$

real x[n]--odd

If $\{x[n]\}$ is a real sequence, what is $\{x[n]\}$ called?



x[n] is complex sequence,

Conjugate-symmetry part

$$x_{cs}[n] = \frac{1}{2} \{x[n] + x^*[-n]\}$$

Conjugate-antisymmetry part

$$x_{as}[n] = \frac{1}{2} \{x[n] - x^*[-n]\}$$

Example 2.5 A length-7 sequence(n:[-3,3]): $\{g[n]\}=\{0,1+j4,-2+j3,4-j2,-5-j6,-j2,3\}$

$${g[n]}={0, 1+j4, -2+j3, 4-j2, -5-j6, -j2, 3}$$



$$\{g_{cs}[n]\}=\{1.5, 0.5+j3, -3.5+j4.5, 4, -3.5-j4.5, 0.5-j3, 1.5\}$$

$$\{g_{ca}[n]\}=\{-1.5, 0.5+j, 1.5-j1.5, -j2, -1.5-j1.5, -0.5+j, 1.5\}$$

$${g[n]}={0, 1+j4, -2+j3, 4-j2, -5-j6, -j2, 3}$$

$$\{g^*[n]\}=\{0, 1-j4, -2-j3, 4+j2, -5+j6, j2, 3\}$$

$$\{g^*[-n]\}=\{3,j2,-5+j6,4+j2,-2-j3,1-j4,0\}$$

$$\{g_{cs}[n]\}=\{1.5, 0.5+j3, -3.5+j4.5, 4, -3.5-j4.5, 0.5-j3, 1.5\}$$

$$\{g_{ca}[n]\}=\{-1.5, 0.5+j, 1.5-j1.5, -j2, -1.5-j1.5, -0.5+j, 1.5\}$$

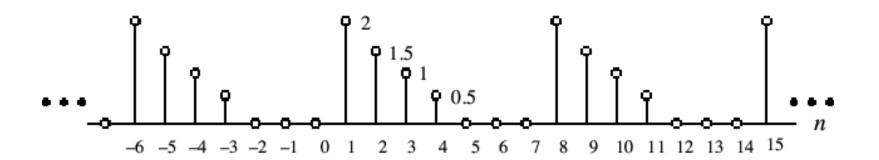
2. Classification of Sequences based on periodicity



•A sequence satisfying the periodicity condition is called an periodic sequence

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x[n] = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x[n+kN]$$

•Example



Adding two periodic sequences with different periods



$$\tilde{y}[n] = \tilde{x_a}[n] + \tilde{x_b}[n]$$

$$N_a$$

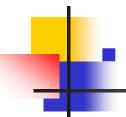
period
$$N = \frac{N_a N_b}{GCD(N_a, N_b)}$$

GCD()---greatest common divisor

example
$$f[n] = \cos \frac{\pi}{8} n + \frac{1}{2} \sin \frac{\pi}{6} n$$

Its period is 48 which is the GCD of 16 and 12.

3. Classification of Sequences Energy and Power Signals



Total energy of a sequence x[n] is defined by

$$\mathcal{E}_{\mathbf{x}} = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |x[n]|^2$$

- An infinite length sequence with finite sample values may or may not have finite energy
- A finite length sequence with finite sample values has finite energy



The average power of an aperiodic sequence is defined by

$$P_{X} = \lim_{K \to \infty} \frac{1}{2K+1} \sum_{n=-K}^{K} |x[n]|^{2}$$

•Define the energy of a sequence x[n] over a finite interval $-K \le n \le K$ as

$$\mathcal{E}_{x,K} = \sum_{n=-K}^{K} |x[n]|^2$$



- An infinite energy signal with finite average power is called a power signal <u>Example</u> - A periodic sequence which has a finite average power but infinite energy
- A finite energy signal with zero average power is called an energy signal
 Example A finite-length sequence which has finite energy but zero average power



<u>Example</u> - Consider the causal sequence defined by

$$x[n] = \begin{cases} 3(-1)^n, & n \ge 0 \\ 0, & n < 0 \end{cases}$$

- Note: x[n] has infinite energy
- Its average power is given by

$$P_{x} = \lim_{K \to \infty} \frac{1}{2K+1} \left(9 \sum_{n=0}^{K} 1 \right) = \lim_{K \to \infty} \frac{9(K+1)}{2K+1} = 4.5$$

4. Classification of Sequences bounded, absolutely summable and squaresummable

• A sequence $\{x[n]\}$ is said to be bounded if

$$|x[n]| \leq B_x < \infty$$

• **Example** - The sequence $\{x[n]\}=\{\cos(0.3\pi n)\}$ is a bounded sequence as

$$|x[n]| = |\cos 0.3\pi n| \le 1$$

A sequence x[n] is said to be absolutely summable if

$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |x[n]| < \infty$$

• **Example** - The sequence

$$y[n] = \begin{cases} 0.3^n, & n \ge 0 \\ 0, & n < 0 \end{cases}$$

is an absolutely summable sequence as

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left| 0.3^n \right| = \frac{1}{1 - 0.3} = 1.42857 < \infty$$



A sequence x[n] is said to be squaresummable if

$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |x[n]|^2 < \infty$$

• **Example** - The sequence

$$h[n] = \frac{\sin 0.4n}{\pi n}$$

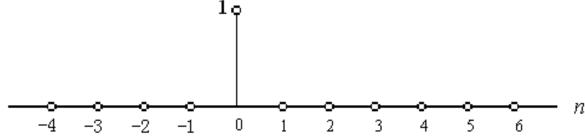
is square-summable but not absolutely summable

2.2 Typical Sequences and Representation

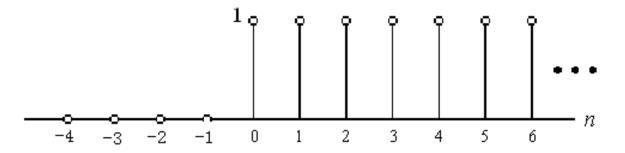


2.2.1 Basic Sequences

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



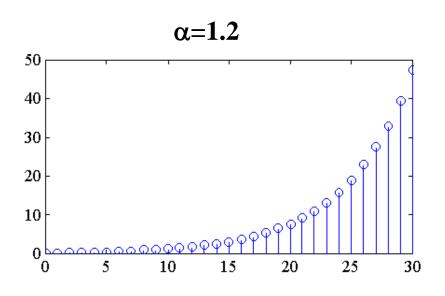
• Unit step sequence
$$\mu[n] = \begin{cases} 1, & n \ge 0 \\ 0, & n < 0 \end{cases}$$

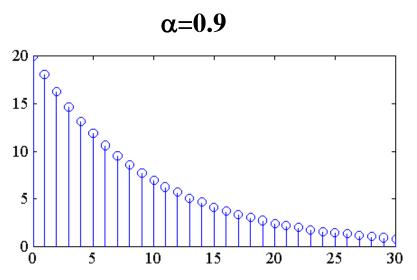


Exponential sequence



when A and α are real numbers.





when A and α are complex numbers.

By expressing

$$\alpha = e^{(\sigma_0 + j\omega_0)}, A = |A|e^{j\phi}$$

we can rewrite

$$x[n] = |A|e^{\sigma_0 n} e^{j(\omega_0 n + \phi)}$$

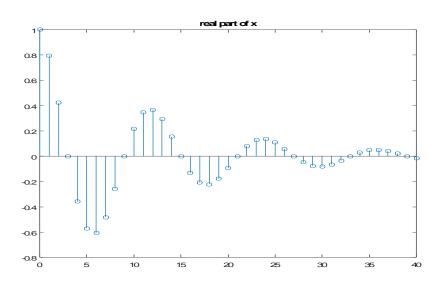
And
$$x[n] = x_{re}[n] + jx_{im}[n]$$

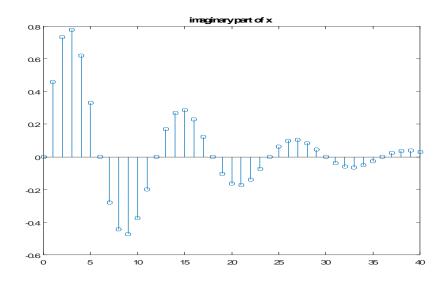
Then,
$$x_{re}[n] = |A|e^{\sigma_0 n} \cos(\omega_0 n + \phi)$$

 $x_{im}[n] = |A|e^{\sigma_0 n} \sin(\omega_0 n + \phi)$

Example

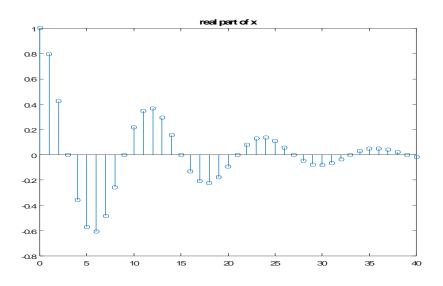
$$x[n] = \exp(-\frac{1}{12} + j\frac{\pi}{6})n$$

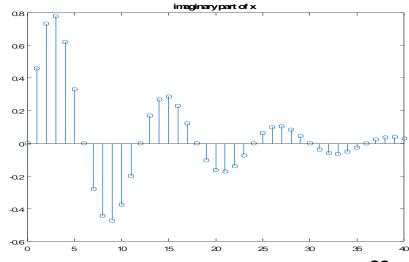




Example

```
close all;
n = 0:40;
x = exp((-1/12+j*pi/6)*n);
stem(n, real(x)); title('real part of x');
figure
stem(n, imag(x)); title('imaginary part of x');
```





The Complex Exponential Sequence



$$e^{j\omega_0 n} = \cos \omega_0 n + j \sin \omega_0 n$$

Real sinusoidal sequence

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

where A is the amplitude, ω_0 is the angular frequency, and φ is the phase of x[n]

It is periodic if $\omega_0 = \frac{2\pi}{N}r$, where N and r must be integer number $(\omega_0 / 2\pi \text{ must be arational number})$.

Why?

How to determine the fundamental period?

To verify the above fact, consider

$$x_1[n] = \cos(\omega_0 n + \varphi)$$

$$x_2[n] = \cos[\omega_0 (n+N) + \varphi]$$

Now

$$x_2[n] = \cos(\omega_0(n+N) + \varphi)$$

 $= \cos(\omega_0 n + \varphi)\cos\omega_0 N - \sin(\omega_0 n + \varphi)\sin\omega_0 N$ which will be equal to $\cos(\omega_0 n + \varphi) = x_1[n]$ only if $\sin\omega_0 N = 0$ and $\cos\omega_0 N = 1$.

These two conditions are met if and only if $\omega_0 N = 2\pi m$ or $2\pi/\omega_0 = N/m$.

where N and m are positive integers.

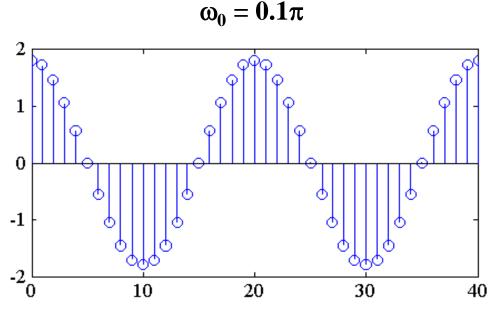
Smallest value of N satisfying $\omega_0 N = 2\pi m$ is the *fundamental period* of the sequence.

- If $2\pi/\omega_0$ is not an rational number, the sequence is aperiodic
- **Example** $x[n] = \sin(3n + \varphi)$ is an aperiodic sequence.

 $y[n]=\cos(0.1\pi n)$ is a periodic sequence.

Hence
$$N=2\pi r/\omega 0$$

= 20 for $r=1$



Because
$$e^{j\omega_0 n} = e^{j(\omega_0 + 2k\pi)n}$$

(k is integer), the discrete sinusoidal signal has the highest angular frequency $\pm \pi$. For example,

$$g_1[n] = \cos(0.6\pi n)$$

$$g_2[n] = \cos(1.4\pi n)$$

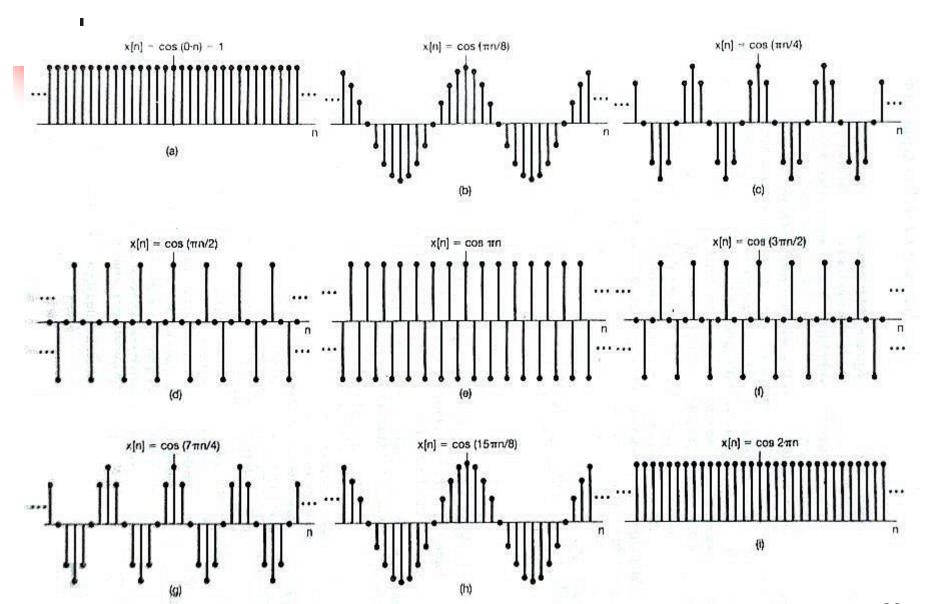
$$g_3[n] = \cos(2.6\pi n)$$

Observation

$$g_2[n] = \cos(1.4\pi n) = \cos((2\pi - 0.6\pi)n) = \cos(0.6\pi n)$$

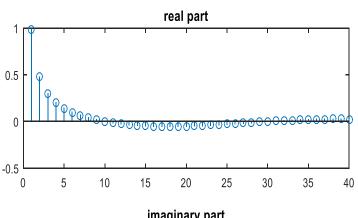
$$g_3[n] = \cos(2.6\pi n) = \cos((2\pi + 0.6\pi)n) = \cos(0.6\pi n)$$

Periodicity Properties



2.2.2 Sequence Generation Using MATLAB

Read and Exercise!



```
imaginary part

0.2

0.1

0.1

0.5

10

15

20

25

30

35

40
```

```
N = 40;
n = 0:N;
K = 1./n;
c = pi/20*i;
x = K.*exp(c*n);
subplot(2,1,1);
stem(n, real(x)); title('real
part');
subplot(2,1,2);
stem(n,imag(x));title('imagi
nary part');
```

2.2.3 Representation of an Arbitrary Sequence

 An arbitrary sequence can be represented in the time-domain as a weighted sum of some basic sequence and its delayed (advanced) versions

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

$$0.5$$

$$-4$$

$$-3$$

$$-2$$

$$-1$$

$$0.75$$

$$0.75$$

$$0.75$$

$$0.75$$

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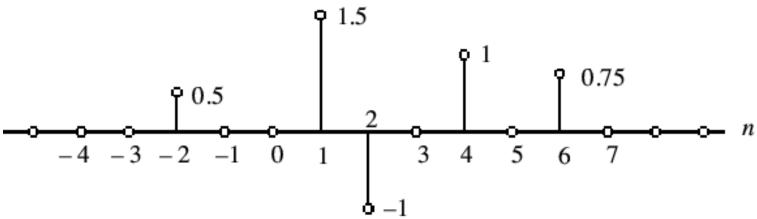
$$0.75$$

$$0.75$$

40

Example



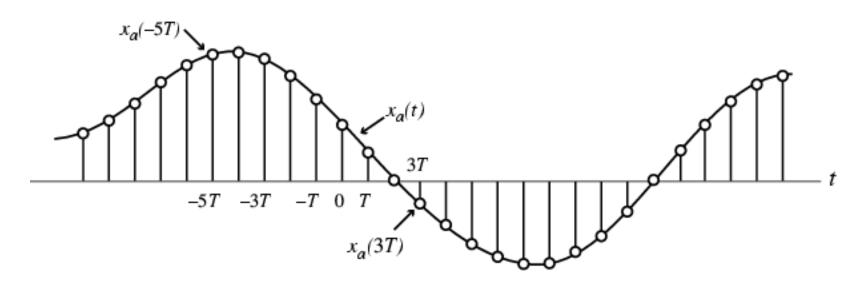


$$x[n] = 0.5 \delta[n+2] + 1.5 \delta[n-1] - \delta[n-2] + \delta[n-4] + 0.75 \delta[n-6]$$

2.3 The Sampling Process

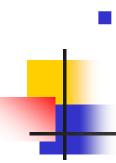


Often, a discrete-time sequence x[n] is developed by uniformly sampling a continuous-time signal $x_a(t)$ as indicated below



The relation between the two signals is

$$x[n]=x_a(t)|_{t=nT}=x_a(nT), n=..., -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, ...$$



Time variable t of x_a(t) is related to the time variable n of x[n] only at discrete-time instants t_n given by

$$t_n = nT = n/F_T = 2\pi n/\Omega_T$$

with F_T =1/T denoting the sampling frequency and Ω_T = $2\pi F_T$ denoting the sampling angular frequency.

Consider the continuous-time signal

$$x(t) = A\cos(2\pi f_o t + \phi) = A\cos(\Omega_o t + \phi)$$

The corresponding discrete-time signal is

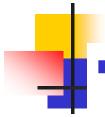
$$x[n] = A\cos(\Omega_o nT + \phi) = A\cos(\frac{2\pi\Omega_o}{\Omega_T}n + \phi)$$
$$= A\cos(\omega_o n + \phi)$$

where

$$\omega_o = 2\pi \Omega_o / \Omega_T = \Omega_o T$$

is the normalized digital angular frequency of x[n]

If the unit of sampling period *T* is in seconds



- The unit of normalized digital angular frequency ω_0 is radians/sample.
- The unit of analog frequency f_0 is hertz (Hz) (cycles/second)
- The unit of analog angular frequency Ω_0 is radians/second
- The unit of sampling frequency f_T is samples/second
- So, the unit of normalized digital angular frequency ω_0 is radians/sample

■ The three continuous-time signals



$$g_2(t) = \cos(14\pi t)$$

$$g_3(t) = \cos(26\pi t)$$

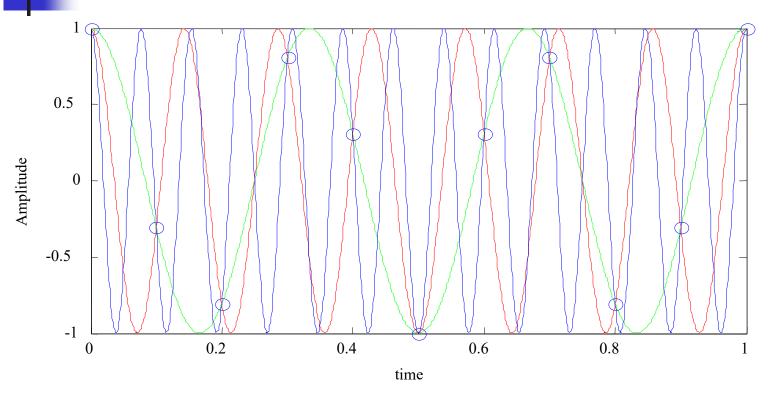
of frequencies 3 Hz, 7 Hz, and 13 Hz, are sampled at a sampling rate of 10 Hz, i.e. with T = 0.1 sec. generating the three sequences

$$g_1[n] = \cos(0.6\pi n)$$

$$g_2[n] = \cos(1.4\pi n)$$

$$g_3[n] = \cos(2.6\pi n)$$

Plots of these sequences (shown with circles) and their parent time functions are shown below:



• Note that each sequence has exactly the same sample value for any given *n*. Why?



This fact can also be verified by observing that

$$g_2[n] = \cos(1.4\pi n) = \cos((2\pi - 0.6\pi)n) = \cos(0.6\pi n)$$

 $g_3[n] = \cos(2.6\pi n) = \cos((2\pi + 0.6\pi)n) = \cos(0.6\pi n)$

 As a result, all three sequences are identical and it is difficult to associate a unique continuous-time function with each of these sequences.



The above phenomenon of a continuoustime signal of higher frequency acquiring the identity of a sinusoidal sequence of lower frequency after sampling is called aliasing.

Recall

$$\omega_0 = 2\pi\Omega_0/\Omega_T$$

Thus if $\Omega_T > 2\Omega_0$, then ω_0 of the discrete-time signal obtained by sampling the parent continuous-time sinusoidal signal will be in the range $-\pi < \omega < \pi$ Conclusion: No aliasing



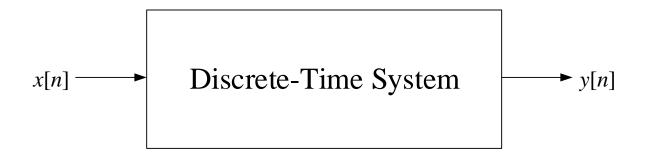
• On the other hand, if $\Omega_T < 2\Omega_0$, the normalized digital angular frequency will foldover into a lower digital frequency

 $\omega_0 = (2\pi\Omega_0/\Omega_T)_{2\pi}$ in the range $-\pi < \omega < \pi$ because of aliasing. (e.g., $\cos(1.4\pi n)$)

• Hence, to prevent aliasing, the sampling frequency Ω_T should be greater than 2 times the frequency Ω_0 of the sinusoidal signal being sampled. (Sampling Theorem)

2.4 Discrete-Time Systems

- 4
- Linear System
- Shift-Invariant System
- Causal System
- Stable System
- Passive and Lossless Systems



§ 2.4.1 Linear Discrete-Time Systems

■ Definition - If $y_1[n]$ is the output due to an input $x_1[n]$, and $y_1[n]$ is the an input $x_2[n]$ then for an input

$$x[n] = ax_1[n] + bx_2[n]$$

the output is given by

$$y[n] = ay_1[n] + by_2[n]$$

- Above property must hold for any arbitrary constants a and b and for all possible inputs $x_1[n]$ and $x_2[n]$.
- Hence, the above system is linear.

§ 2.2.2 Shift-Invariant System



• For a shift-invariant system, if $y_1[n]$ is the response to an input $x_1[n]$, then the response to an input

$$x[n] = x_1[n - n_0]$$

is simply

$$y[n] = y_1[n - n_0]$$

where n_0 is any positive or negative integer.



- The above relation must hold for any arbitrary input and its corresponding output
- The above property is called timeinvariance property, or shift-invariant property

Linear Time-Invariant system

- Linear Time-Invariant (LTI) System —
 A system satisfying both the linearity and the time-invariance property
- LTI systems are mathematically easy to analyze and characterize, and consequently, easy to design
- Highly useful signal processing algorithms have been developed utilizing this class of systems over the last several decades

Generally, The math model of a LTI system is a linear difference equation with constant coefficients, as following form:

$$\sum_{k=0}^{N} d_k y[n-k] = \sum_{k=0}^{M} p_k x[n-k]$$

Note: Up-sampling

$$y[n] = \begin{cases} x[n/L], n = 0, \pm 1L, \pm 2L, \dots \\ 0, otherwise \end{cases}$$

is a time-varying system, so does Down-sampling.

Passive and Lossless Systems



A discrete-time system is defined to be passive if, for every finite-energy input x[n], the output y[n] has, at most, the same energy, i.e.

$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |y[n]|^2 \le \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |x[n]|^2 < \infty$$

 For a lossless system, the above inequality is satisfied with an equal sign for every input

2.5 Analysis of LTI Systems In Time-Domain (2.5-2.8)

- 2.5.1 Time-Domain Characterization of LTI Discrete-Time System
- Input-Output Relationship A consequence of the linear, time-invariance property is that an LTI discrete-time system is completely characterized by its impulse response
- Knowing the impulse response one can compute the output of the system for any arbitrary input



- The response of a discrete-time system to a unit sample sequence $\{\delta[n]\}$ is called the unit impulse response or simply, the impulse response, and is denoted by $\{h[n]\}$
- The response of a discrete-time system to a unit step sequence $\{\mu[n]\}$ is called the unit step response or simply, the step response, and is denoted by $\{s[n]\}$

Some Examples

Example - The impulse response of the system

$$y[n]=a_1x[n]+a_2x[n-1]+a_3x[n-2]+a_4x[n-3]$$
 is obtained by setting $x[n]=\delta[n]$ resulting in

$$h[n] = a_1 \delta[n] + a_2 \delta[n-1] + a_3 \delta[n-2] + a_4 \delta[n-3]$$

 The impulse response is thus a finitelength sequence of length 4 given by

$${h[n]} = {a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}}$$

Example - The impulse response of the discrete-time accumulator

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

is obtained by setting $x[n] = \delta[n]$ resulting in

$$h[n] = \sum_{\ell=-\infty}^{n} \delta[\ell] = \mu[n]$$

• Example - The impulse response {h[n]} of the factor-of-2 interpolator

$$y[n] = x_u[n] + \frac{1}{2}(x_u[n-1] + x_u[n+1])$$

is obtained by setting $x_u[n] = \delta[n]$ and is given by

$$h[n] = \delta[n] + \frac{1}{2}(\delta[n-1] + \delta[n+1])$$

• The impulse response is thus a finitelength sequence of length 3:

$$\{h[n]\} = \{0.5, 1 0.5\}$$

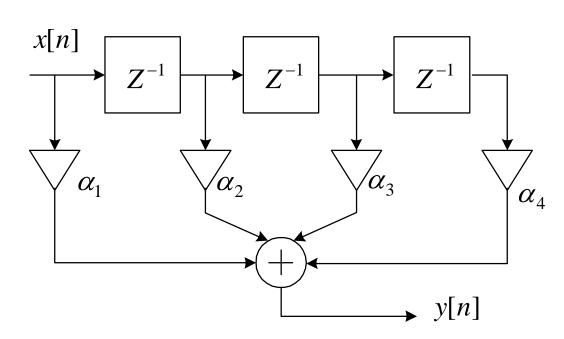
Classification of LTI Systems based on h[n]

- 1. Input-Output Relationship; Impulse Response;
- 2. FIR And IIR System (recursive and non-recursive)

Example

non-recursive

(FIR)

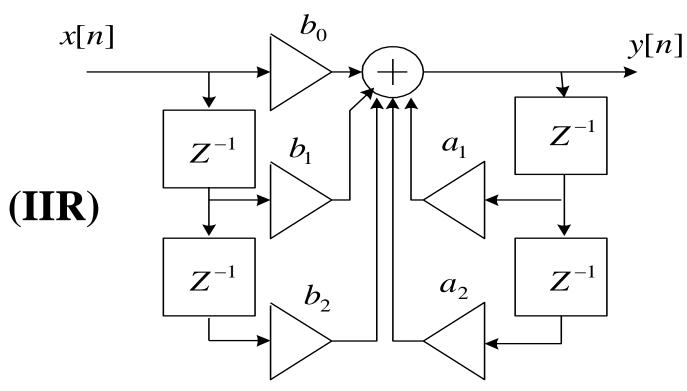


$$y[n] = \alpha_1 x[n] + \alpha_2 x[n-1] + \alpha_3 x[n-2] + \alpha_4 x[n-3]$$



Example

recursive



$$y[n] = b_0 x[n] + b_1 x[n-1] + b_2 x[n-2] + a_1 y[n-1] + a_2 y[n-2]$$



<u>Example</u> - The familiar numerical integration formulas that are used to numerically solve integrals of the form

$$y(t) = \int_{0}^{t} x(\tau) d\tau$$

can be shown to be characterized by linear constant coefficient difference equations, and hence, are examples of IIR systems

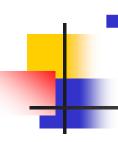


If we divide the interval of integration into n equal parts of length T, then the previous integral can be rewritten as

$$y(nT) = y\left[(n-1)T\right] + \int_{(n-1)T}^{nT} x(\tau)d\tau$$

where we have set t = nT and used the notation

$$y(nT) = \int_{0}^{nT} x(\tau)d\tau$$



Using the trapezoidal method we can write

$$\int_{0}^{nT} x(\tau) d\tau = \frac{T}{2} \{ x((n-1)T) + x(nT) \}$$

$$(n-1)T$$

Hence, a numerical representation of the definite integral is given by

$$y(nT) = y((n-1)T) + \frac{T}{2} \{x((n-1)T) + x(nT)\}$$

- Let y[n] = y(nT) and x[n] = x(nT) with y(0)=0
- Then

$$y(nT) = y((n-1)T) + \frac{T}{2} \{x((n-1)T) + x(nT)\}$$

reduces to

$$y[n] = y[n-1] + \frac{T}{2} \{x[n] + x[n-1]\}$$

which is recognized as the difference equation representation of a first-order IIR discrete-time system.

Use the basic operations to represent the system!

2.5.2 Convolution Sum

- Let h[n] denote the impulse response of a LTI discrete-time system
- **Compute its output** y[n] for the input:

$$x[n] = 0.5\delta[n+2] + 1.5\delta[n-1] - \delta[n-2] + 0.75\delta[n-5]$$

• As the system is linear, we can compute its outputs for each member of the input separately and add the individual outputs to determine y[n]

Likewise, as the system is linear

Input

output

$$0.5\delta[n+2] \to 0.5h[n+2]$$

$$1.5\delta[n-1] \to 1.5h[n-1]$$

$$-\delta[n-2] \to -h[n-2]$$

$$0.75\delta[n-5] \to 0.75h[n-5]$$

Hence because of the linearity property we get

$$y[n] = 0.5h[n+2] + 1.5h[n-1]$$
$$-h[n-2] + 0.75h[n-5]$$



Now, any arbitrary input sequence x[n] can be expressed as a linear combination of delayed and advanced unit sample sequences in the form

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

• The response of the LTI system to an input $x[k]\delta[n-k]$ will be x[k]h[n-k]

•

Hence, the response y[n] to an input

$$x[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x[k] \delta[n-k]$$
 (2.73a)

will be

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

which can be alternately written as

$$y[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n-k]h[k]$$
 (2.73b)

Convolution Sum



The summation

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

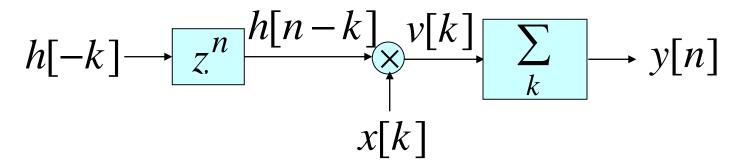
is called the convolution sum of the sequences x[n] and h[n] and represented compactly as

$$y[n] = x[n] \circledast h[n]$$

Convolution Sum



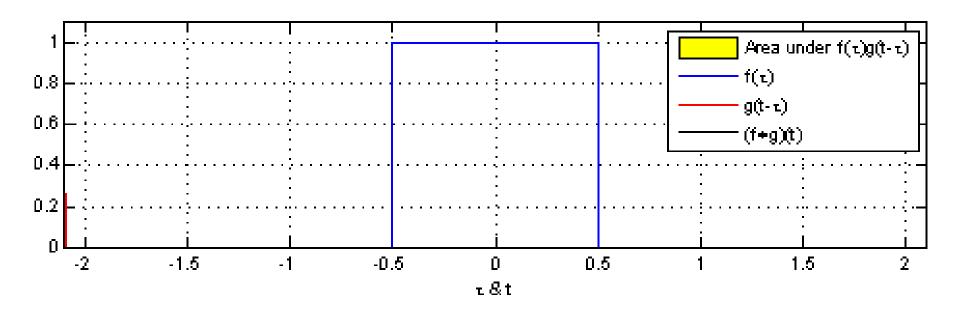
Schematic Representation



- The computation of an output sample using the convolution sum is simply a sum of products.
- Involves fairly simple operations such as additions, multiplications, and delays.







Method I

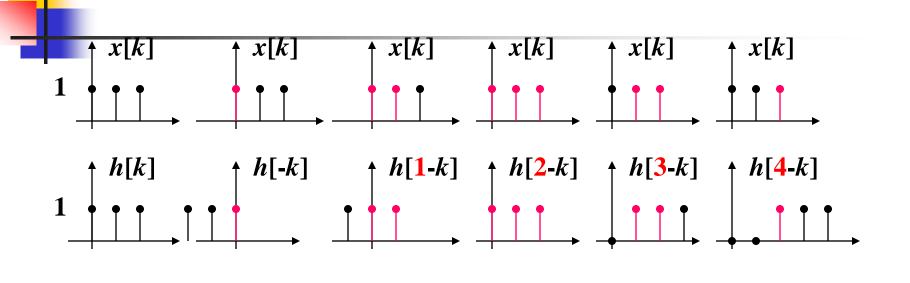


Example: Develop the sequence y[n] generated by the convolution of the sequences x[n] and h[n]:

$$x[n] = h[n] = \delta[n] + \delta[n-1] + \delta[n-2]$$

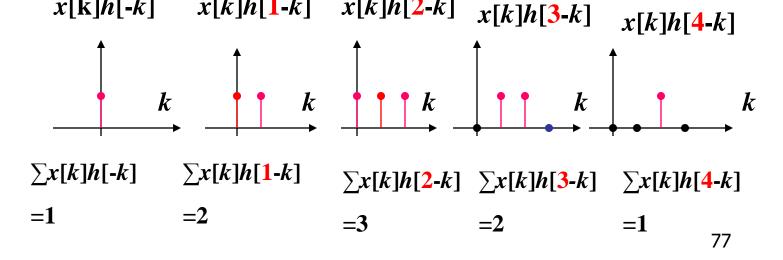
$$y[n] = x[n] \circledast h[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x[k]h[n-k]$$

$x[n] = h[n] = \delta[n] + \delta[n-1] + \delta[n-2]$



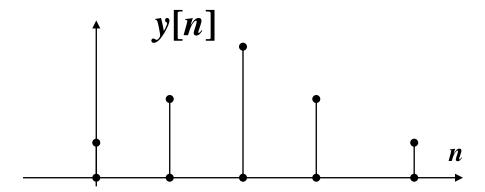
x[k]h[1-k]

x[k]h[-k]



x[k]h[2-k]





$$y[n] = \delta[n] + 2\delta[n-1] + 3\delta[n-2] + 2\delta[n-3] + \delta[n-4]$$

• In general, if the lengths of the two sequences being convolved are M and N, then the sequence generated by the convolution is of length M+N-1

Method II: In tabular form,

$${x[n]}={3 -2 4}, {h[n]}={4 2 -1}$$

$$x[n]$$
: 3 -2 4 $h[n]$: 4 2 -1

$$4 \times 3$$
 $4 \times (-2)$ 4×4
 2×3 $2 \times (-2)$ 2×4
 -1×3 $-1 \times (-2)$ -1×4

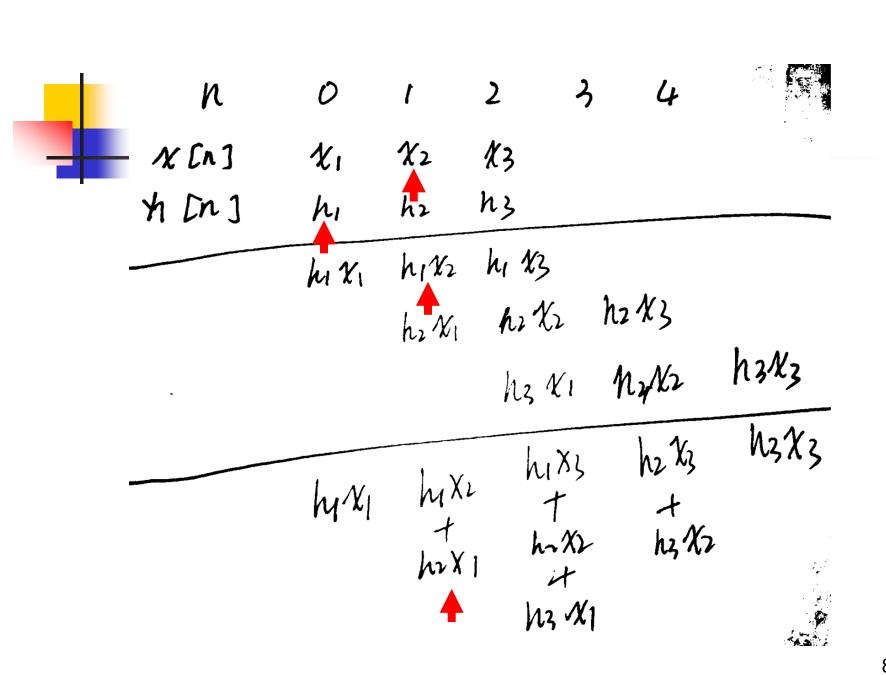
$${y[n]}={12}$$



9

10

-4}



Method III:



Example - $x[n] = (1/2)^{n-2}\mu[n-2]$

$$h[n] = \mu[n+2]$$

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

$$=\sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{k-2} \mu[k-2] \mu[(n-k)+2]$$

$$= \sum_{k=2}^{n+2} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{k-2} = \frac{\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2-2} - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n+2-2+1}}{1 - \frac{1}{2}}$$

$$= [2 - (\frac{1}{2})^n] \mu[n]$$

Method IV:



Convolution Sum Using MATLAB

- The M-file conv implements the convolution sum of two finite-length sequences
- If a=[-2 0 1 -1 3]
 b=[1 2 0 -1]
 then conv(a,b) yields
 [-2 -4 1 3 1 5 1 -3]



Example The Impulse response of system:

$$y[n] + 0.7y[n-1] - 0.45y[n-2] - 0.6y[n-3] = 0.8x[n] - 0.44x[n-1] + 0.36x[n-2] + 0.02x[n-3]$$

Is wanted. Compute the output when input is

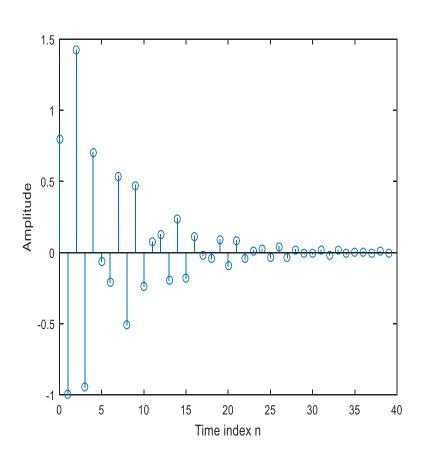
$$x[n] = \{1 \ 2 \ 0.5 \ 0.4\}$$

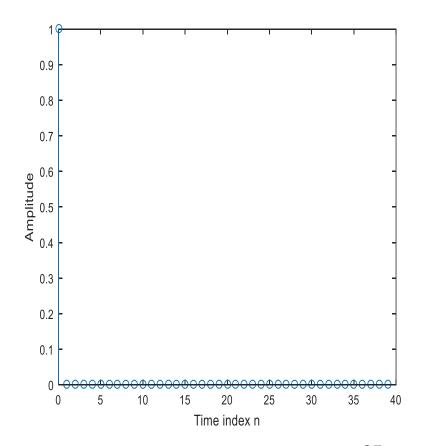
The MATLAB program of changing input

```
% Example 2.37 change input
% Illustration of Impulse Response Computation
% N = input('Desired impulse response length = ');
% p = input('Type in the vector p =');
% d = input('Type in the vector d =');
N = 40;
p = [0.8 - 0.44 \ 0.36 \ 0.02];
d = [1 \ 0.7 \ -0.45 \ -0.6];
x = [1 zeros(1, N-1)]; % x = [1 2 0.5 0.4 zeros(1, N-4)];
%unit impulse
y = filter(p,d,x);
figure(1);
k = 0:1:N-1;
stem(k, y)
xlabel('Time index n'); ylabel('Amplitude')
figure(2);
k = 0:1:N-1;
stem(k,x)
xlabel('Time index n'); ylabel('Amplitude')
```



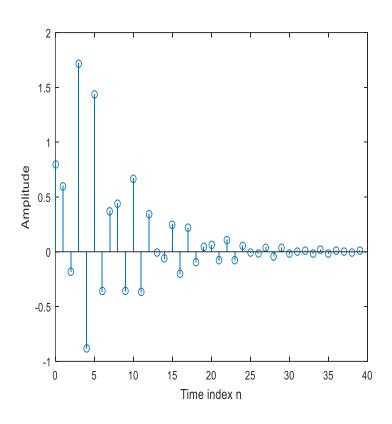
Impulse response

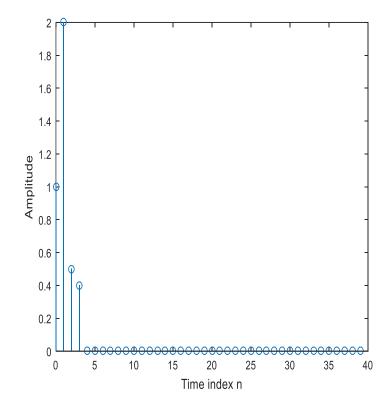


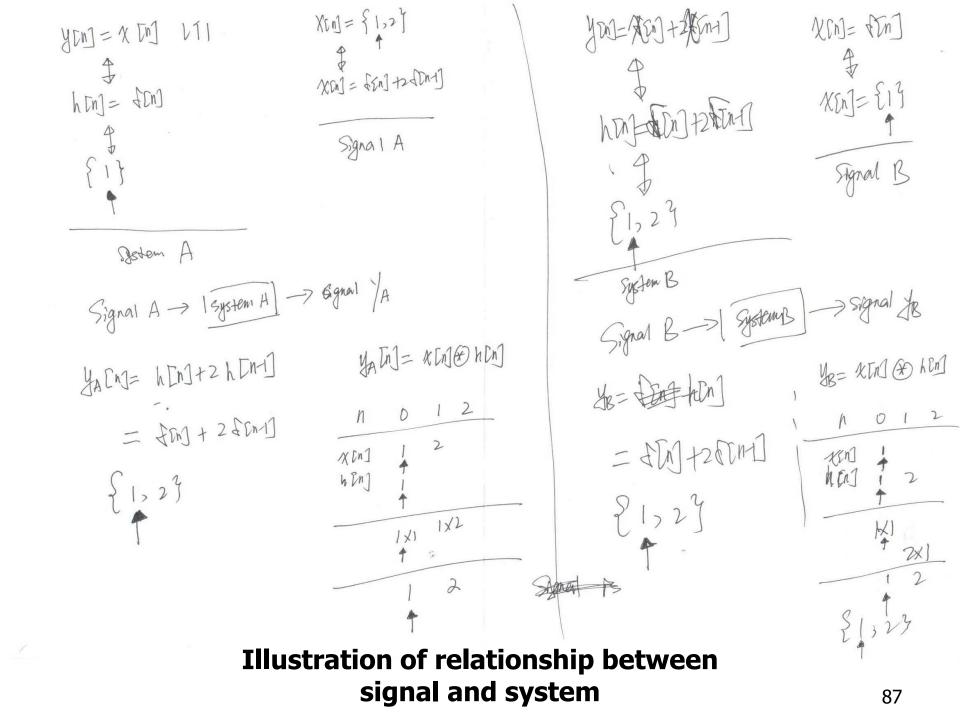




Input response







2.5.3 Simple Interconnection Schemes



Commutative property :

$$x[n] \circledast h[n] = h[n] \circledast x[n]$$

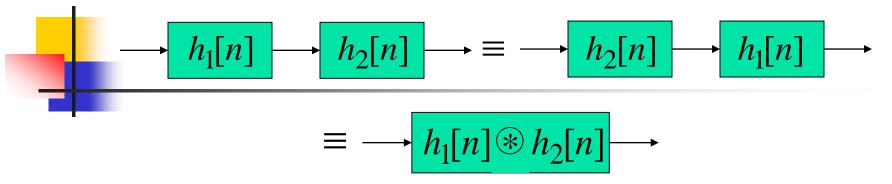
Associative property :

$$(x[n] \circledast h[n]) \circledast y[n] = x[n] \circledast (h[n] \circledast y[n])$$

Distributive property :

$$x[n] \circledast (h[n] + y[n]) = x[n] \circledast h[n] + x[n] \circledast y[n]$$

Cascade Connection



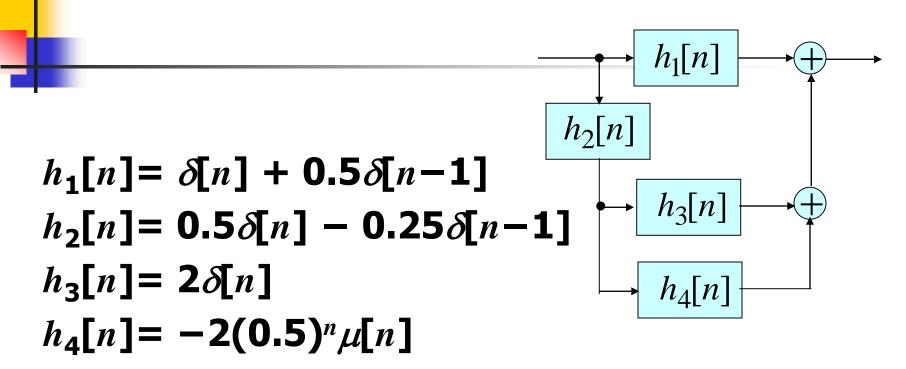
$$h[n] = h_1[n] \circledast h_2[n]$$

Parallel Connection

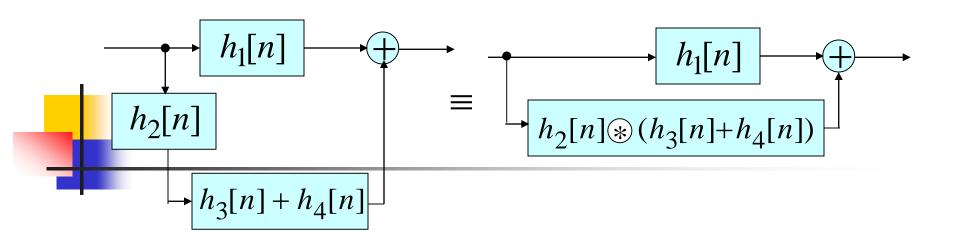
$$\begin{array}{c} h_1[n] \\ h_2[n] \end{array} = \begin{array}{c} h_1[n] + h_2[n] \\ \end{array}$$

$$h[n] = h_1[n] + h_2[n]$$

Consider the discrete-time system where



Simplifying the block-diagram we obtain



$$\equiv \longrightarrow h_1[n] + h_2[n] \circledast (h_3[n] + h_4[n]) \longrightarrow$$

$$h[n] = h_1[n] + h_2[n] \circledast (h_3[n] + h_4[n])$$

= $h_1[n] + h_2[n] \circledast h_3[n] + h_2[n] \circledast h_4[n]$

Now,

$$h_2[n] \circledast h_3[n] = (\frac{1}{2}\delta[n] - \frac{1}{4}\delta[n-1]) \circledast 2\delta[n]$$
$$= \delta[n] - \frac{1}{2}\delta[n-1]$$

$$h_{2}[n] * h_{4}[n] = \left(\frac{1}{2}\delta[n] - \frac{1}{4}\delta[n-1]\right) * \left(-2\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n}\mu[n]\right)$$

$$= -\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n}\mu[n] + \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n-1}\mu[n-1]$$

$$= -\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n}\mu[n] + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n}\mu[n-1]$$

$$= -\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n}\delta[n] = -\delta[n]$$

Therefore,

$$h[n] = \delta[n] + \frac{1}{2}\delta[n-1] + \delta[n] - \frac{1}{2}\delta[n-1] - \delta[n] = \delta[n]$$



2.5.4 Classification of LTI Discrete-Time Systems

Based on Impulse Response Length -

If the impulse response h[n] is of finite length, i.e.,

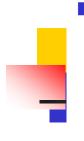
h[n] = 0 for $n < N_1, N_2 < n$ and $N_1 < N_2$ then it is known as a Finite Impulse Response (FIR) discrete-time system

The convolution sum description here is

$$y[n] = \sum_{k=N_1}^{N_2} h[k] x[n-k]$$



- The output y[n] of an FIR LTI discretetime system can be computed directly from the convolution sum as it is a finite sum of products
- Examples of FIR LTI discrete-time systems are the moving-average system and the linear interpolators



- If the impulse response is of infinite length, then it is known as an Infinite Impulse Response (IIR) discrete-time system
- The class of IIR systems we are concerned with in this course are characterized by <u>linear constant coefficient difference</u> <u>equations</u>

$$\sum_{k=0}^{N} d_k y[n-k] = \sum_{k=0}^{M} p_k x[n-k]$$

Stability in terms of impulse response

A stable system:

h[n] is absolutely summable.

$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |h[n]| < \infty$$

Causality in terms of impulse response

A causal system:

$$h[n] = 0, n < 0$$



Example consider a LTI system shown as below:

$$h[n] = \alpha^n \mu[n]$$

For this system

$$S = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |\alpha^n| \mu[n] = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |\alpha|^n = \frac{1}{1-|\alpha|} \quad if |\alpha| < 1$$

So ,if $|\alpha| < 1$, above system is stable. Otherwise, the system is not stable.



2.6 Finite-Dimension LTI Discrete- Time Systems

$$\sum_{k=0}^{N} d_k y[n-k] = \sum_{k=0}^{M} p_k x[n-k]$$

order = max(N, M)

Total response
$$y[n] = y_{zi}[n] + y_{zs}[n]$$

$$y_{zi}[n]$$
 $y_{zs}[n]$

Zero-Input response

Zero-state response



Zero-input response and zero-state response

$$y[n] = y_{zi}[n] + y_{zs}[n]$$

Here, the zero-input response $y_{zi}[n]$ is obtained by solving the equation by setting the input x[n] = 0, the zero-state response $y_{zs}[n]$ is obtained by solving the equation by applying the specified input with all initial conditions set to zero.



Zero-Input response: $y_{zi}[n]$

homogeneneous equation

$$\sum_{k=0}^{N} d_k y[n-k] = 0$$

homogeneous solution (同类解,相似解)

$$y_h[n] = d_0 \lambda^n + d_1 \lambda_1^{n-1} + d_2 \lambda_2^{n-2} + \dots + d_N \lambda_N^{n-N}$$

Eigen root: $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \ldots, \lambda_N$

Zero-Input response: *Coefficient?*

$$y_{zi}[n] = d_0 \lambda^n + d_1 \lambda_1^{n-1} + d_2 \lambda_2^{n-2} + \dots + d_N \lambda_N^{n-N}, \quad n \ge 0$$

Example Known the difference equation as bellow:

$$y[n] + y[n-1] - 6y[n-2] = x[n]$$

For a step input $x[n] = 8\mu[n]$ and with initial conditions y[-1] = 1 and y[-2] = -1, the total response y[n] are wanted.

First, determine the *eigen value* of the difference equation.

Setting x[n] = 0 and $y[n] = \lambda^n$ in the difference equation we arrive at



$$\lambda^{n} + \lambda^{n-1} - 6\lambda^{n-2} = \lambda^{n-2}(\lambda^{2} + \lambda^{1} - 6)$$
$$= \lambda^{n-2}(\lambda + 3)(\lambda - 2) = 0$$

And hence its eigen value (roots) are:

$$\lambda_1 = -3, \quad \lambda_2 = 2$$

Therefore we can get the *zero input response* as below:

$$y_{zi}[n] = \alpha_1(-3)^n + \alpha_2(2)^n$$

4

Zero input response

 \bullet α_1 and α_2 can be determined by

$$\begin{cases} y_{zi}[0] = \alpha_1(-3)^0 + \alpha_2(2)^0 = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 \\ = -y[-1] + 6y[-2] = -7 \end{cases}$$
$$\begin{cases} y_{zi}[1] = \alpha_1(-3)^1 + \alpha_2(2)^1 = -3\alpha_1 + 2\alpha_2 \\ = -y[0] + 6y[-1] = 13 \end{cases}$$

$$\alpha_1 = -5.4, \qquad \alpha_2 = -1.6$$

$$y_{zi}[n] = -5.4(-3)^n - 1.6(2)^n$$

Zero state response

Complementary solution:
$$y_c[n] = \alpha_1(-3)^n + \alpha_2(2)^n$$

Particular solution:
$$y_p[n] = \beta \rightarrow \beta = -2, n \ge 0$$

Zero-state solution:

$$y_{zs}[n] = \alpha_1(-3)^n + \alpha_2(2)^n - 2$$

Zero all initial conditions:

$$\begin{cases} y[-1] = 0 \\ y[-2] = 0 \end{cases} or \begin{cases} y[0] = x[0] = 8 \\ y[1] = x[1] - y[0] = 0 \\ y[1] = x[1] - y[0] = 0 \end{cases}$$



Zero state response

$$y_{zs}[n] = 3.6(-3)^n + 6.4(2)^n - 2$$

The zero-state response is determined by

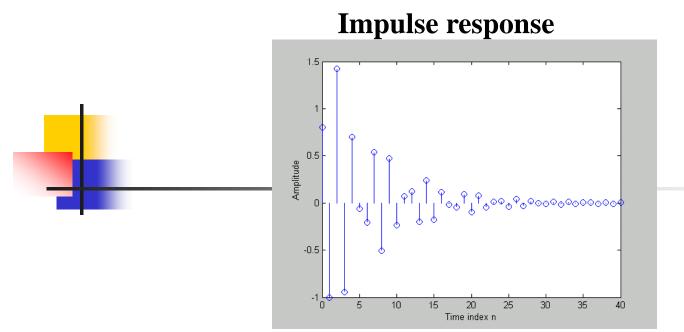
$$y_{zs}[n] = x[n] \circledast h[n]$$

Read Section 4.6 by yourself!!

The MATLAB program of changing input

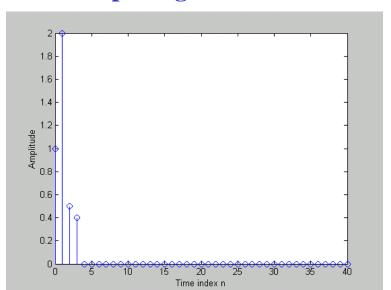
% Example 2.37 change input

```
% Illustration of Impulse Response Computation
N = input('Desired impulse response length = ');
p = input('Type in the vector p =');
d = input('Type in the vector d =');
% x = [1 zeros(1,N-4)]; impulse
x = [1 \ 2 \ 0.5 \ 0.4 \ zeros(1,N-4)];
y = filter(p,d,x);
figure(1);
k = 0:1:N-1;
stem(k,y)
xlabel('Time index n'); ylabel('Amplitude')
figure(2);
k = 0:1:N-1;
stem(k,x)
xlabel('Time index n'); ylabel('Amplitude')
```

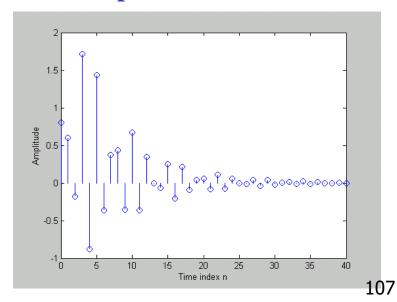


By changing the input signal ,we get response of the same system.

Input signal



response





Key points of Ch.2

- 1. Sequences in Common use
- 2. The Basic Operations On Sequences
- 3. Linear Time-Invariant System
 - Impulse and Step Responses
 - Convolution Sum
 - Generating sequences and analyzing system by MATLAB



Thanks!