Operations on Finite-Length Sequences

- Consider the length-N sequence x[n] defined for $0 \le n \le N-1$
- Its sample values are equal to zero for n < 0 and $n \ge N$
- A time-reversal operation on x[n] will result in a length-N sequence x[-n] defined for $-(N-1) \le n \le 0$

Operations on Finite-Length Sequences

- Likewise, a linear time-shift of x[n] by integer-valued M will result in a length-N sequence x[n+M] no longer defined for $0 \le n \le N-1$
- Similarly, a convolution sum of two length-N sequences defined for $0 \le n \le N-1$ will result in a sequence of length 2M+1 defined for $0 \le n \le 2N-2$

Operations on Finite-Length Sequences

• Thus we need to define new type of timereversal and time-shifting operations, and also new type of convolution operation for length-N sequences defined for $0 \le n \le N-1$ so that the resultant length-N sequences are also are in the range $0 \le n \le N-1$

Modulo Operation

- The time-reversal operation on a finite-length sequence is obtained using the modulo operation
- Let 0,1,...,N-1 be a set of N positive integers and let m be any integer
- The integer r obtained by evaluating M modulo N

is called the residue

Modulo Operation

- The residue r is an integer with a value between 0 and N-1
- The modulo operation is denoted by the notation $\langle m \rangle_N = m \mod N$
- If we let $r = \langle m \rangle_N$ then $r = m + \ell N$ where ℓ is a positive or negative integer chosen to make $m + \ell N$ an integer between 0 and N-1

Modulo Operation

• Example – For N = 7 and m = 25, we have $r = 25 + 7\ell = 25 - 7 \times 3 = 4$

Thus,
$$\langle 25 \rangle_7 = 4$$

• Example – For N = 7 and m = -15, we get

$$r = -15 + 7\ell = -15 + 7 \times 3 = 6$$

Thus,
$$\langle -15 \rangle_7 = 6$$

Circular Time-Reversal Operation

- The circular time-reversal version $\{y[n]\}$ of a length-N sequence $\{x[n]\}$ defined for $0 \le n \le N-1$ is given by $\{y[n]\} = \{x[\langle -n \rangle_N]\}$
- Example Consider

$${x[n]} = {x[0], x[1], x[2], x[3], x[4]}$$

Its circular time-reversed version is given

by
$$\{y[n]\} = \{x[\langle -n \rangle_5]\}$$

= $\{x[0], x[4], x[3], x[2], x[1]\}$

- The time shifting operation for a finitelength sequence, called circular shift operation, is defined using the modulo operation
- Let x[n] be a length-N sequence defined for $0 \le n \le N-1$
- Its circularly shifted version $x_c[n]$, shifted n_o by samples, is given by

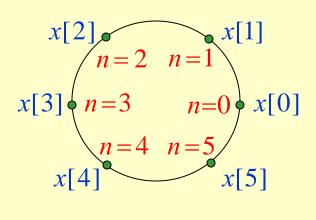
$$x_c[n] = x[\langle n - n_o \rangle_N]$$

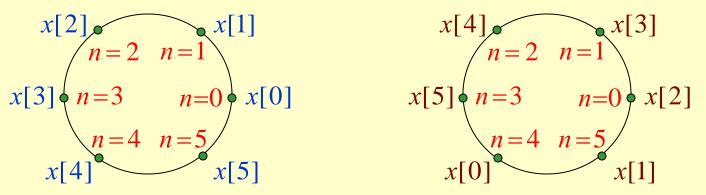
$$x_c[n] = x[\langle n - n_o \rangle_N]$$

- $x_c[n]$ is also a length-N sequence defined for $0 \le n \le N-1$
- For $n_o > 0$ (right circular shift), the above equation implies

$$x_{c}[n] = \begin{cases} x[n - n_{o}], & \text{for } n_{o} \le n \le N - 1\\ x[N - n_{o} + n], & \text{for } 0 \le n < n_{o} \end{cases}$$

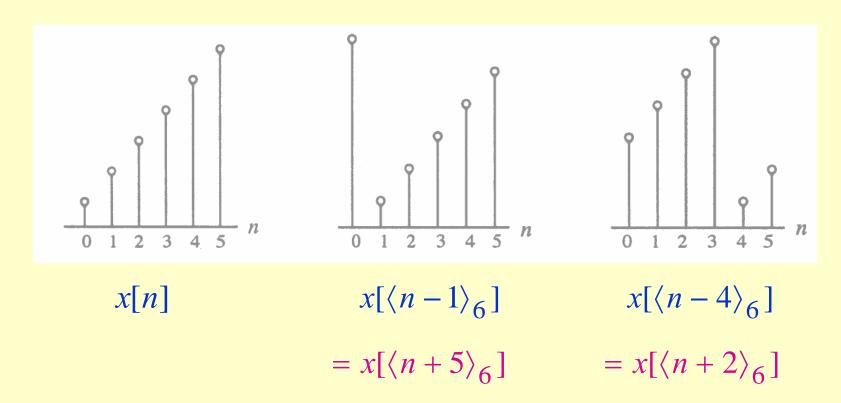
• If the length-N sequence is displayed on a circle at N equally spaced points, then the circular shift operation can be viewed as a clockwise or anti-clockwise rotation of the sequence by n_o sample spacings as shown on the next slide





$$x[\langle n-4\rangle_6] = x[\langle n+2\rangle_6]$$

• Illustration of the concept of a circular shift



- As can be seen from the previous figure, a right circular shift by n_o is equivalent to a left circular shift by $N n_o$ sample periods
- A circular shift by an integer number n_o greater than N is equivalent to a circular shift by $\langle n_o \rangle_N$

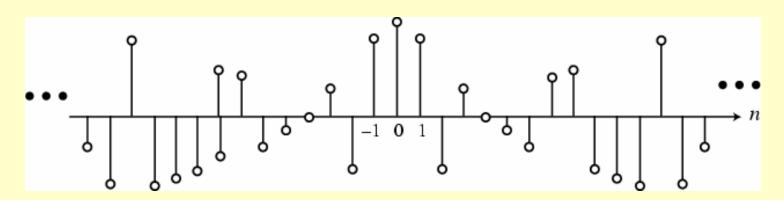
Classification of Sequences

- There are several types of classification
- One classification is in terms of the number of samples defining the sequence
- Another classification is based on its symmetry with respect to time index n = 0
- Other classifications in terms of its other properties, such as periodicity, summability, energy and power

• Conjugate-symmetric sequence:

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

If x[n] is real, then it is an even sequence

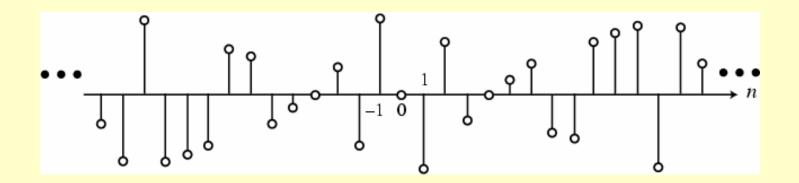


An even sequence

• Conjugate-antisymmetric sequence:

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

If x[n] is real, then it is an **odd sequence**



An odd sequence

- It follows from the definition that for a conjugate-symmetric sequence $\{x[n]\}$, x[0] must be a real number
- Likewise, it follows from the definition that for a conjugate anti-symmetric sequence $\{y[n]\}, y[0]$ must be an imaginary number
- From the above, it also follows that for an odd sequence $\{w[n]\}$, w[0] = 0

 Any complex sequence can be expressed as a sum of its conjugate-symmetric part and its conjugate-antisymmetric part:

$$x[n] = x_{cs}[n] + x_{ca}[n]$$

where

$$x_{CS}[n] = \frac{1}{2}(x[n] + x * [-n])$$

$$x_{ca}[n] = \frac{1}{2}(x[n] - x * [-n])$$

 As indicated in the previous slide, computation of conjugate-symmetric and conjugate anti-symmetric parts of a sequence involves conjugation, timereversal, addition, and multiplication operations

• The decomposition of a finite-length sequence into a sum of conjugate-symmetric and conjugate anti-symmetric sequences is possible if the parent sequence is an odd sequence defined for a symmetric interval, i.e.,

 $-M \le n \le M$

• Example - Consider the length-7 sequence defined for $-3 \le n \le 3$:

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

• Its conjugate sequence is then given by $\{g * [n]\} = \{0, 1-j4, -2-j3, 4+j2, -5+j6, j2, 3\}$

• The time-reversed version of the above is

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

• Therefore
$$\{g_{cs}[n]\} = \frac{1}{2} \{g[n] + g*[-n]\}$$

= $\{1.5, 0.5 + j3, -3.5 + j4.5, 4, -3.5 - j4.5, 0.5 - j3, 1.5\}$

• Likewise
$$\{g_{ca}[n]\} = \frac{1}{2}\{g[n] - g*[-n]\}$$

=
$$\{-1.5, 0.5+j, 1.5-j1.5, -j2, -1.5-j1.5, -0.5-j, 1.5\}$$

• It can be easily verified that $g_{cs}[n] = g_{cs}^*[-n]$ and $g_{ca}[n] = -g_{ca}^*[-n]$

 Any real sequence can be expressed as a sum of its even part and its odd part:

$$x[n] = x_{ev}[n] + x_{od}[n]$$

where

$$x_{ev}[n] = \frac{1}{2}(x[n] + x[-n])$$

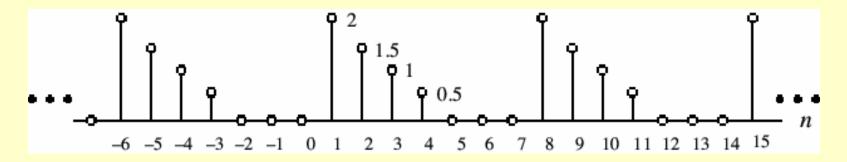
$$x_{od}[n] = \frac{1}{2}(x[n] - x[-n])$$

Classification of Sequences Based on Periodicity

- A sequence $\tilde{x}[n]$ satisfying $\tilde{x}[n] = \tilde{x}[n+kN]$ is called a **periodic sequence** with a **period** N where N is a positive integer and k is any integer
- Smallest value of N satisfying $\tilde{x}[n] = \tilde{x}[n + kN]$ is called the **fundamental period**

Classification of Sequences Based on Periodicity

• Example -



• A sequence not satisfying the periodicity condition is called an **aperiodic sequence**

Classification of Sequences Based on Periodicity

• If $\tilde{x}_a[n]$ and $\tilde{x}_b[n]$ are two periodic sequences with fundamental periods N_a and N_b , respectively, then the sequence

$$\widetilde{y}[n] = \widetilde{x}_a[n] + \widetilde{x}_b[n]$$

is a periodic sequence with a fundamental period N given by

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

Classification of Sequences Based on Periodicity

• If $\tilde{x}_a[n]$ and $\tilde{x}_b[n]$ are two periodic sequences with fundamental periods N_a and N_b , respectively, then the sequence

$$\widetilde{y}[n] = \widetilde{x}_a[n] \cdot \widetilde{x}_b[n]$$

is a periodic sequence with a fundamental period N given by

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

• 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

• Example – The infinite-length sequence

$$x[n] = \begin{cases} 1/n, & n \ge 1, \\ 0, & n \le 0, \end{cases}$$

has an energy equal to

$$\mathcal{E}_{x} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (1/n)^{2}$$

which converges to $\pi^2/6$, indicating that x[n] has finite energy

• Example – The infinite-length sequence

$$y[n] = \begin{cases} 1/\sqrt{n}, & n \ge 1, \\ 0, & n \le 0, \end{cases}$$

has an energy equal to

$$\mathcal{E}_{y} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (1/n)$$

which does not converge indicating that y[n] has infinite 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

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

Then

$$P_{x} = \lim_{K \to \infty} \frac{1}{2K+1} \mathcal{E}_{x.K}$$

• The average power of a periodic sequence $\tilde{x}[n]$ with a period N is given by

$$P_{x} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \left| \widetilde{x}[n] \right|^{2}$$

• The average power of an infinite-length sequence may be finite or infinite

• Example - 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

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

- An infinite energy signal with finite average power is called a **power signal**
 - Example 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

Other Types of Classifications

• A sequence x[n] is said to be **bounded** if

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

• Example - The sequence $x[n] = \cos 0.3\pi n$ is a bounded sequence as

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

Other Types of Classifications

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

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

Other Types of Classifications

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

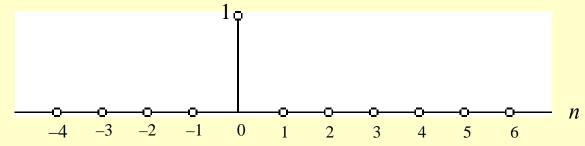
$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |x[n]|^2 < \infty$$

• Example - The sequence

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

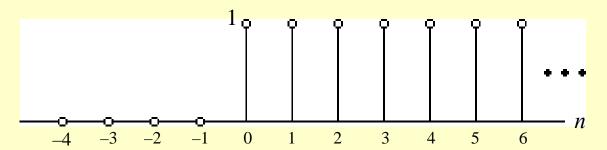
is square-summable but not absolutely summable

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



• Unit step sequence -

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

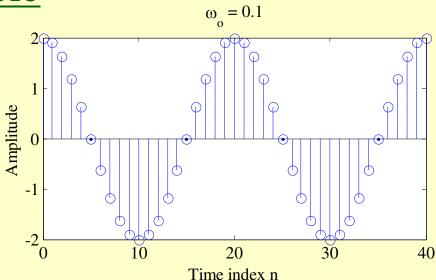


Real sinusoidal sequence -

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

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

Example -



Exponential sequence -

$$x[n] = A\alpha^n, -\infty < n < \infty$$

where A and α are real or complex numbers

• If we write $\alpha = e^{(\sigma_o + j\omega_o)}$, $A = |A|e^{j\phi}$, then we can express

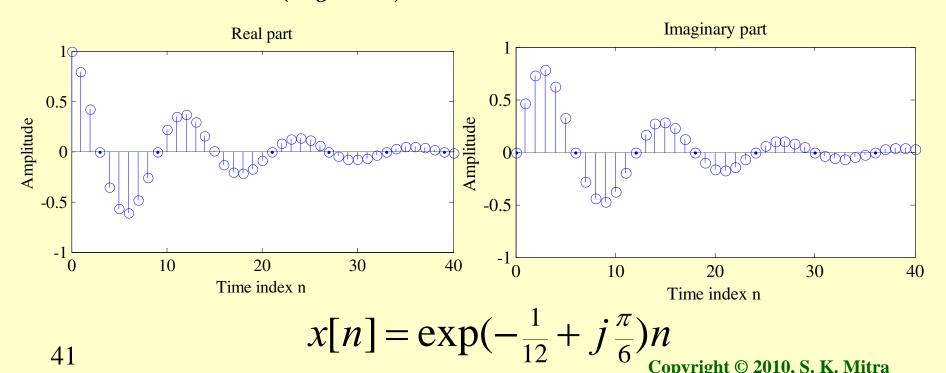
$$x[n] = |A|e^{j\phi}e^{(\sigma_o + j\omega_o)n} = x_{re}[n] + jx_{im}[n],$$

where

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

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

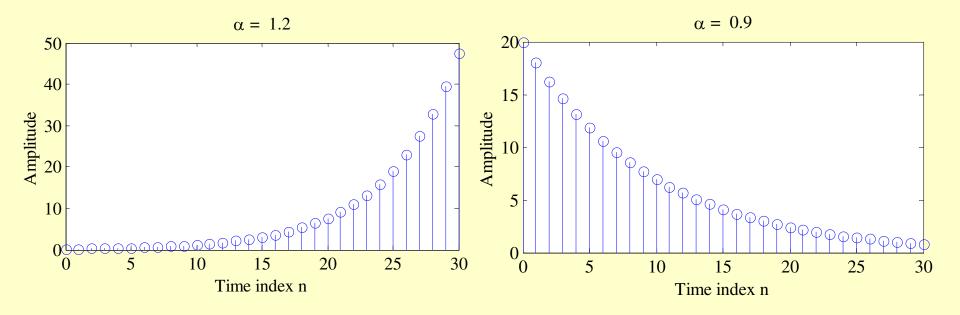
• $x_{re}[n]$ and $x_{im}[n]$ of a complex exponential sequence are real sinusoidal sequences with constant $(\sigma_o = 0)$, growing $(\sigma_o > 0)$, and decaying $(\sigma_o < 0)$ amplitudes for n > 0



Real exponential sequence -

$$x[n] = A\alpha^n, -\infty < n < \infty$$

where A and α are real numbers



- Sinusoidal sequence $A\cos(\omega_o n + \phi)$ and complex exponential sequence $B\exp(j\omega_o n)$ are periodic sequences of period N if $\omega_o N = 2\pi r$ where N and r are positive integers
- Smallest value of N satisfying $\omega_o N = 2\pi r$ is the **fundamental period** of the sequence
- To verify the above fact, consider

$$x_1[n] = \cos(\omega_o n + \phi)$$

$$x_2[n] = \cos(\omega_o (n+N) + \phi)$$

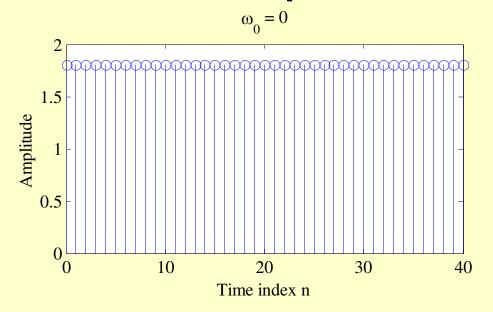
• Now $x_2[n] = \cos(\omega_o(n+N) + \phi)$ $= \cos(\omega_o n + \phi)\cos\omega_o N - \sin(\omega_o n + \phi)\sin\omega_o N$ which will be equal to $\cos(\omega_o n + \phi) = x_1[n]$ only if

$$\sin \omega_o N = 0$$
 and $\cos \omega_o N = 1$

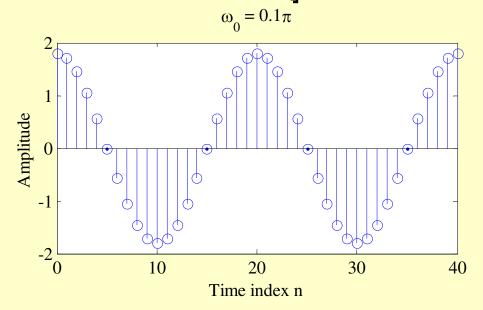
These two conditions are met if and only if

$$\omega_o N = 2\pi r$$
 or $\frac{2\pi}{\omega_o} = \frac{N}{r}$

- If $2\pi/\omega_o$ is a noninteger rational number, then the period will be a multiple of $2\pi/\omega_o$
- Otherwise, the sequence is aperiodic
- Example $x[n] = \sin(\sqrt{3}n + \phi)$ is an aperiodic sequence



- Here $\omega_o = 0$
- Hence period $N = \frac{2\pi r}{0} = 1$ for r = 0



• Here $\omega_o = 0.1\pi$

• Hence
$$N = \frac{2\pi r}{0.1\pi} = 20$$
 for $r = 1$

- Property 1 Consider $x[n] = \exp(j\omega_1 n)$ and $y[n] = \exp(j\omega_2 n)$ with $0 \le \omega_1 < \pi$ and $2\pi k \le \omega_2 < 2\pi(k+1)$ where k is any positive integer
- If $\omega_2 = \omega_1 + 2\pi k$, then x[n] = y[n]

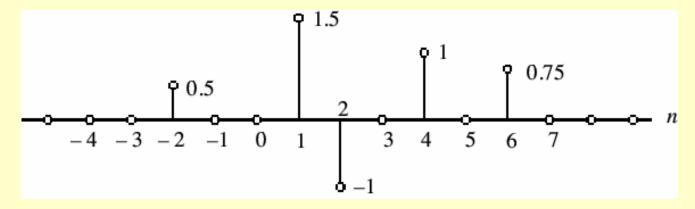
• Thus, x[n] and y[n] are indistinguishable

- Property 2 The frequency of oscillation of $A\cos(\omega_o n)$ increases as ω_o increases from 0 to π , and then decreases as ω_o increases from π to 2π
- Thus, frequencies in the neighborhood of $\omega=0$ are called **low frequencies**, whereas, frequencies in the neighborhood of $\omega=\pi$ are called **high frequencies**

• Because of Property 1, a frequency ω_o in the neighborhood of $\omega = 2\pi k$ is indistinguishable from a frequency $\omega_o - 2\pi k$ in the neighborhood of $\omega = 0$ and a frequency ω_o in the neighborhood of $\omega = \pi(2k+1)$ is indistinguishable from a frequency $\omega_o - \pi(2k+1)$ in the neighborhood of $\omega = \pi$

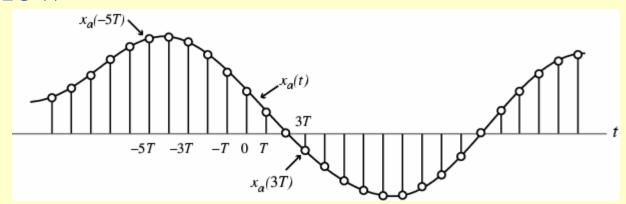
- Frequencies in the neighborhood of $\omega = 2\pi k$ are usually called **low frequencies**
- Frequencies in the neighborhood of $\omega = \pi (2k+1)$ are usually called **high** frequencies
- $v_1[n] = \cos(0.1\pi n) = \cos(1.9\pi n)$ is a low-frequency signal
- $v_2[n] = \cos(0.8\pi n) = \cos(1.2\pi n)$ is a high-frequency signal

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



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

• 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

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

• 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

$$t_n = nT = \frac{n}{F_T} = \frac{2\pi n}{\Omega_T}$$

with $F_T = 1/T$ denoting the sampling frequency and

 $\Omega_T = 2\pi F_T$ 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_o is radians/sample
- The unit of normalized analog angular frequency Ω_o is radians/second
- The unit of analog frequency f_o is hertz (Hz)

• The three continuous-time signals

$$g_1(t) = \cos(6\pi t)$$

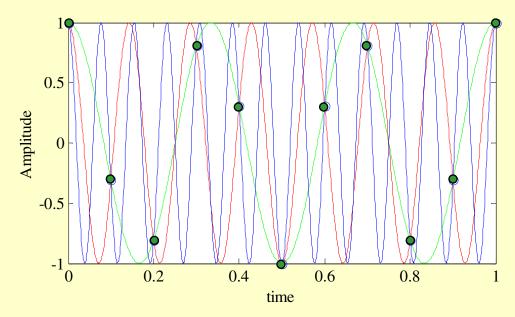
$$g_2(t) = \cos(14\pi t)$$

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

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*

• 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

- Since there are an infinite number of continuous-time signals that can lead to the same sequence when sampled periodically, additional conditions need to imposed so that the sequence $\{x[n]\} = \{x_a(nT)\}$ can uniquely represent the parent continuous-time signal $x_a(t)$
- In this case, $x_a(t)$ can be fully recovered from $\{x[n]\}$

• Example - Determine the discrete-time signal v[n] obtained by uniformly sampling at a sampling rate of 200 Hz the continuous-time signal

$$v_a(t) = 6\cos(60\pi t) + 3\sin(300\pi t) + 2\cos(340\pi t) + 4\cos(500\pi t) + 10\sin(660\pi t)$$

• Note: $v_a(t)$ is composed of 5 sinusoidal signals of frequencies 30 Hz, 150 Hz, 170 Hz, 250 Hz and 330 Hz

- The sampling period is $T = \frac{1}{200} = 0.005$ sec
- The generated discrete-time signal v[n] is thus given by

```
v[n] = 6\cos(0.3\pi n) + 3\sin(1.5\pi n) + 2\cos(1.7\pi n)
+ 4\cos(2.5\pi n) + 10\sin(3.3\pi n)
= 6\cos(0.3\pi n) + 3\sin((2\pi - 0.5\pi)n) + 2\cos((2\pi - 0.3\pi)n)
+ 4\cos((2\pi + 0.5\pi)n) + 10\sin((4\pi - 0.7\pi)n)
```

```
= 6\cos(0.3\pi n) - 3\sin(0.5\pi n) + 2\cos(0.3\pi n) + 4\cos(0.5\pi n)-10\sin(0.7\pi n)= 8\cos(0.3\pi n) + 5\cos(0.5\pi n + 0.6435) - 10\sin(0.7\pi n)
```

• Note: v[n] is composed of 3 discrete-time sinusoidal signals of normalized angular frequencies: 0.3π , 0.5π , and 0.7π

• Note: An identical discrete-time signal is also generated by uniformly sampling at a 200-Hz sampling rate the following continuous-time signals:

$$w_a(t) = 8\cos(60\pi t) + 5\cos(100\pi t + 0.6435) - 10\sin(140\pi t)$$

$$g_a(t) = 2\cos(60\pi t) + 4\cos(100\pi t) + 10\sin(260\pi t)$$

$$+ 6\cos(460\pi t) + 3\sin(700\pi t)$$

• Recall
$$\omega_o = \frac{2\pi\Omega_o}{\Omega_T}$$

- Thus if $\Omega_T > 2\Omega_o$, then the corresponding normalized digital angular frequency ω_o of the discrete-time signal obtained by sampling the parent continuous-time sinusoidal signal will be in the range $-\pi < \omega < \pi$
- No aliasing

- On the other hand, if $\Omega_T < 2\Omega_o$, the normalized digital angular frequency will foldover into a lower digital frequency $\omega_o = \langle 2\pi\Omega_o/\Omega_T\rangle_{2\pi}$ in the range $-\pi < \omega < \pi$ because of aliasing
- Hence, to prevent aliasing, the sampling frequency Ω_T should be greater than 2 times the frequency Ω_o of the sinusoidal signal being sampled

- Generalization: Consider an arbitrary continuous-time signal $x_a(t)$ composed of a weighted sum of a number of sinusoidal signals
- $x_a(t)$ can be represented uniquely by its sampled version $\{x[n]\}$ if the sampling frequency Ω_T is chosen to be greater than 2 times the highest frequency contained in $x_a(t)$

- The condition to be satisfied by the sampling frequency to prevent aliasing is called the **sampling theorem**
- A formal proof of this theorem will be presented later