

# EEE336 Signal Processing and Digital Filtering

## Lecture 14 FIR Filters Design

### Lect\_14\_1 Simple FIR Filters

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Room EE322

# Simple FIR filter

- Two-point ( $M=1 \rightarrow 1^{\text{st}}$  order) moving average filter

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

$$H_0(z) = \frac{1}{2} (1 + z^{-1}) = \frac{z+1}{2z}$$

- Notice that  $H(z)$  has a zero at  $z=-1$ , and a pole at  $z=0$ .
  - Remember: for stable systems (and FIR filters are always stable), the frequency response can be obtained by substituting  $z=e^{j\omega}$

$$H(\omega) = H(e^{j\omega}) = H(z)|_{z=e^{j\omega}} = \frac{z+1}{2z} \Big|_{z=e^{j\omega}} = \frac{e^{j\omega} + 1}{2e^{j\omega}}$$

- The zero at  $\omega=\pi$  (suppress high frequency components  $\pi$ ), coupled with the pole at  $z=0$ , makes this a lowpass filter

# Simple FIR filter

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

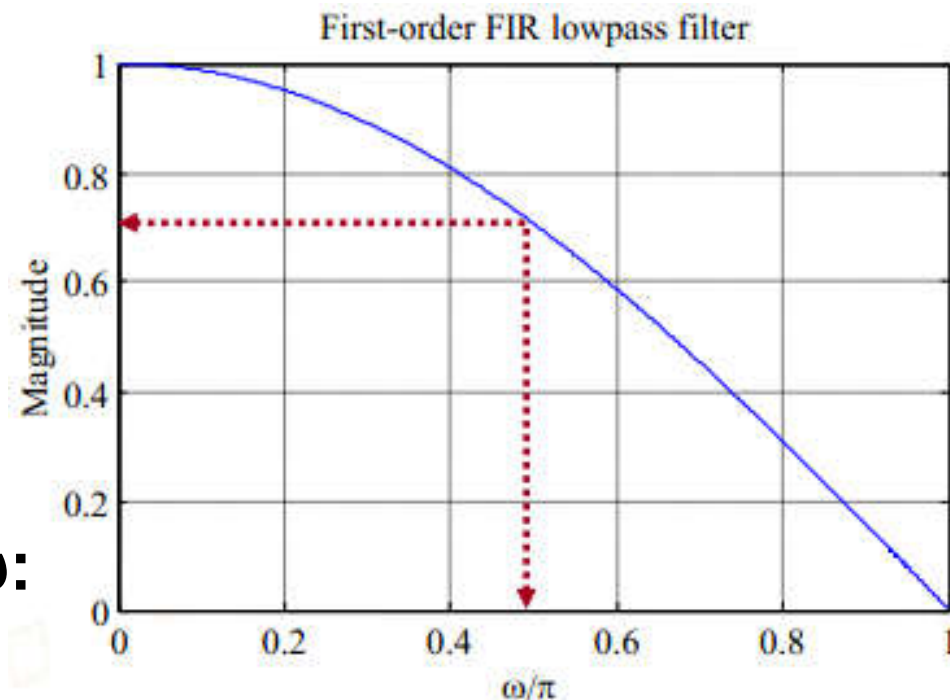
**Monotonically decreasing**  
**=> a low pass filter**

**System Gain at some frequency  $\omega$ :**

$$|H(\omega)| = \cos(\omega/2)$$

The frequency  $\omega_c$  at which  $|H(\omega_c)| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} |H(0)|$  is of special interest:  
**3-dB cutoff frequency**

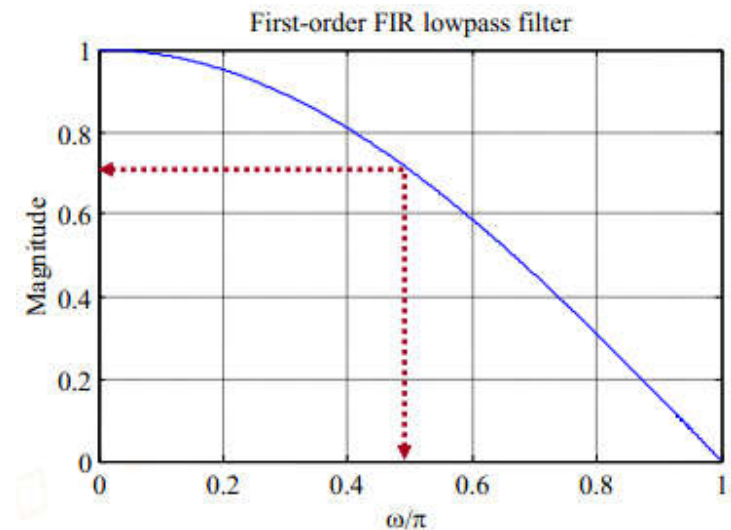
$$20 \log_{10} |H(\omega)| \Big|_{\omega=\omega_c} = 20 \log_{10} |H(0)| - 20 \log_{10} (\sqrt{2}) = 0 - 0.30103 \cong -3.0 \text{ dB}$$



# Simple FIR filter

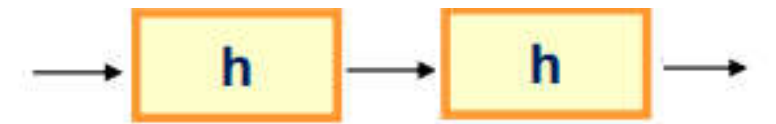
- For realizable filters, the cut-off frequency is the frequency at which the system gain reaches its 0.707 multiple of its peak value.
- This gain represents the frequency at which the signal power is half of its peak power!
- For a lowpass filter, the gain at the cut-off frequency is 3dB less than its gain at zero frequency (or 0.707 of its zero frequency amplitude, or half the power of its power at zero frequency).
- For the first order filter, this occurs at  $\omega_c = \pi/2$

$$\begin{aligned} |H(\omega_c)|^2 &= \cos^2(\omega_c / 2) = 1/2 \\ \Rightarrow \cos(\omega_c / 2) &= 1/\sqrt{2} \quad \Rightarrow \omega_c = \pi/2 \end{aligned}$$

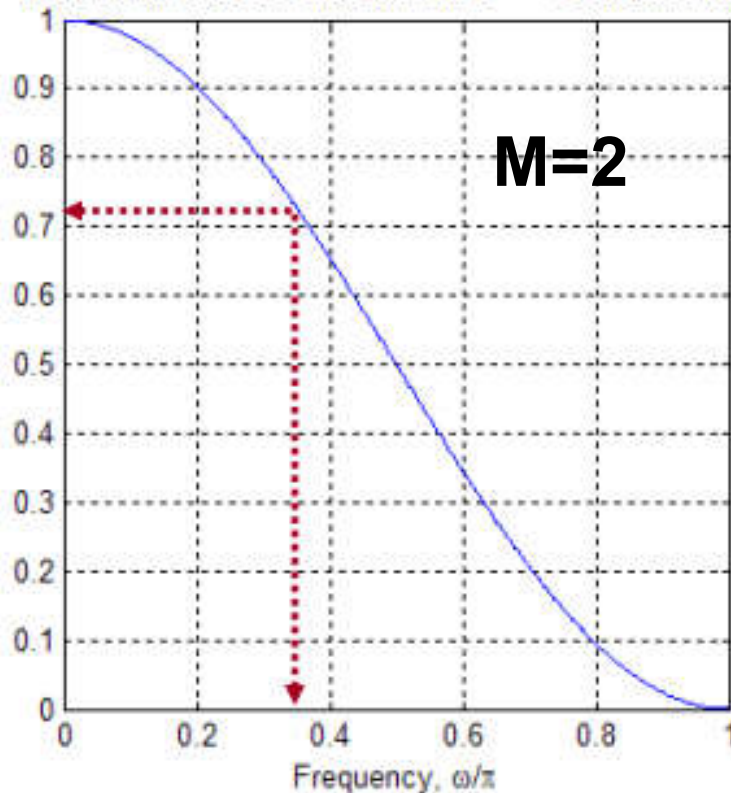


# Cascaded FIR Filters

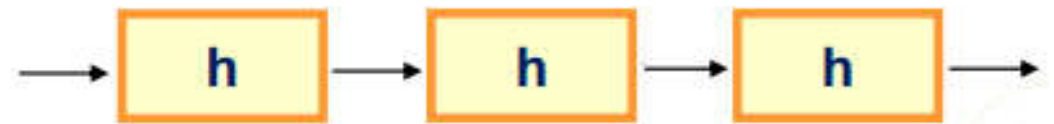
$$H(z) = \left( \frac{1}{2} (1 + z^{-1}) \right)^M \Rightarrow |H(\omega)| = \cos^M(\omega / 2) \Rightarrow \omega_c = 2 \cos^{-1} \left( 2^{-1/2M} \right)$$



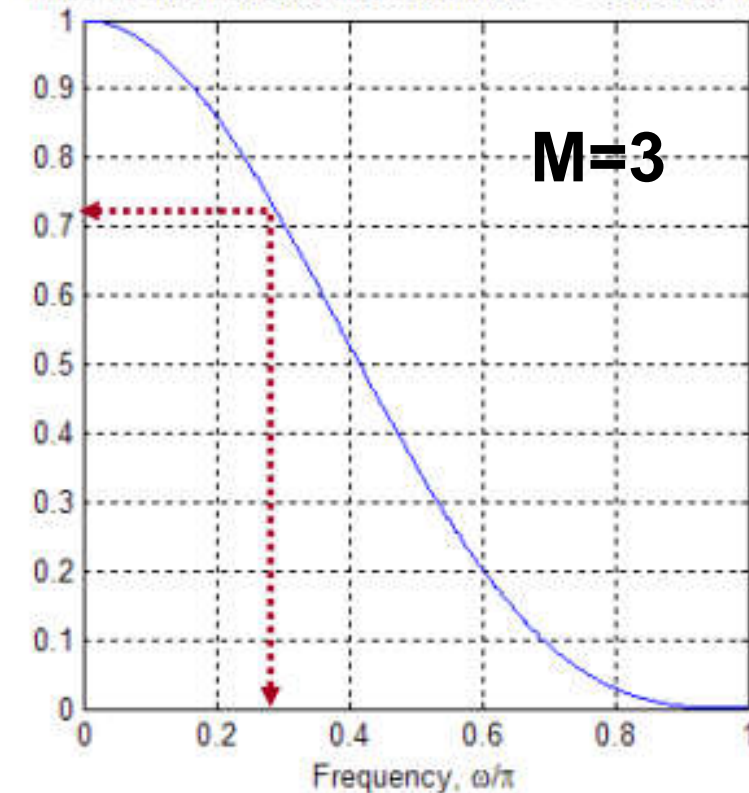
Two section cascade first order MAF ==> 2nd order MAF



$$\omega_c = 2 \cos^{-1} \left( 2^{-1/4} \right) = 1.144 = 0.364\pi$$



Three section cascade first order MAF ==> 3rd order MAF



$$\omega_c = 2 \cos^{-1} \left( 2^{-1/6} \right) = 0.943 = 0.3\pi$$

# Example

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- If we want a LPF with a cutoff frequency of  $0.2\pi$ , what order filter do we need? What linear frequency does this correspond to (with the sampling frequency of 3kHz)?

# Simple FIR Highpass Filters

- The simplest highpass filter is obtained from the lowpass filter by replacing  $z$  with  $-z$  resulting in a transfer function

$$H_1(z) = \frac{1}{2}(1 - z^{-1}) = \frac{z-1}{2z}$$

- Notice that  $H_1(z)$  has a zero at  $z=1$ , and a pole at  $z=0$ .

- The frequency response is

$$H_1(\omega) = je^{-j\omega/2} \sin(\omega / 2) = e^{-(j\omega/2 - \pi/2)} \sin(\omega / 2)$$

- Therefore, the frequency response has a zero at  $\omega=0$ , corresponding to  $z=1$ .
- The zero at  $\omega=0$  (suppress low frequency components 0), makes this a highpass filter



# Cascaded FIR Highpass Filters

- A higher-order highpass filter

$$H_1(z) = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{n=0}^{M-1} (-1)^n z^{-n}$$

is obtained by replacing  $z$  with  $-z$  in the transfer function of a moving average filter

- When  $M$  is odd number

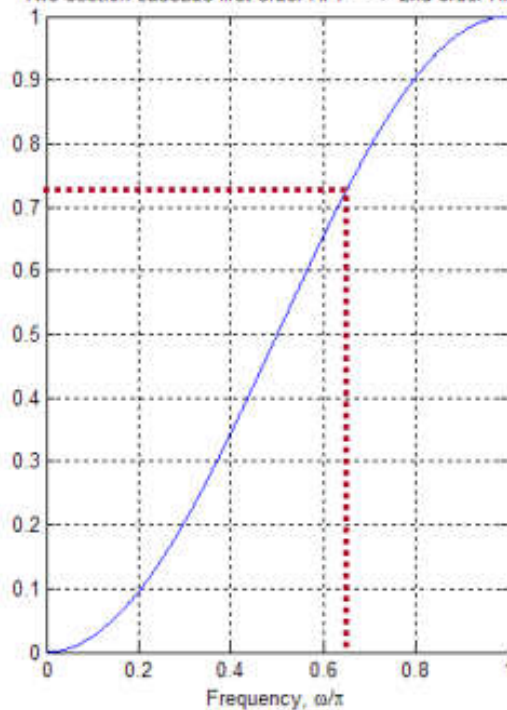
$$H_1(z) = -\frac{z^M + 1}{M[z^{M-1}(z + 1)]}$$

- When  $M$  is even number

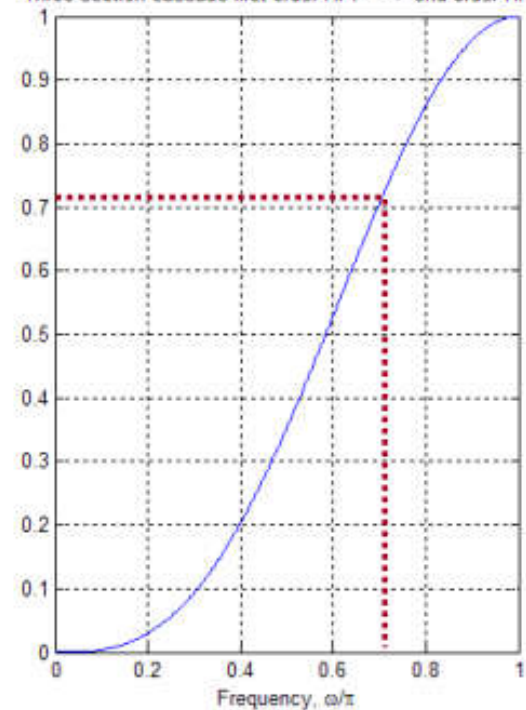
$$H_1(z) = -\frac{z^M - 1}{M[z^{M-1}(z + 1)]}$$



Two section cascade first order HPF ==> 2nd order HPF



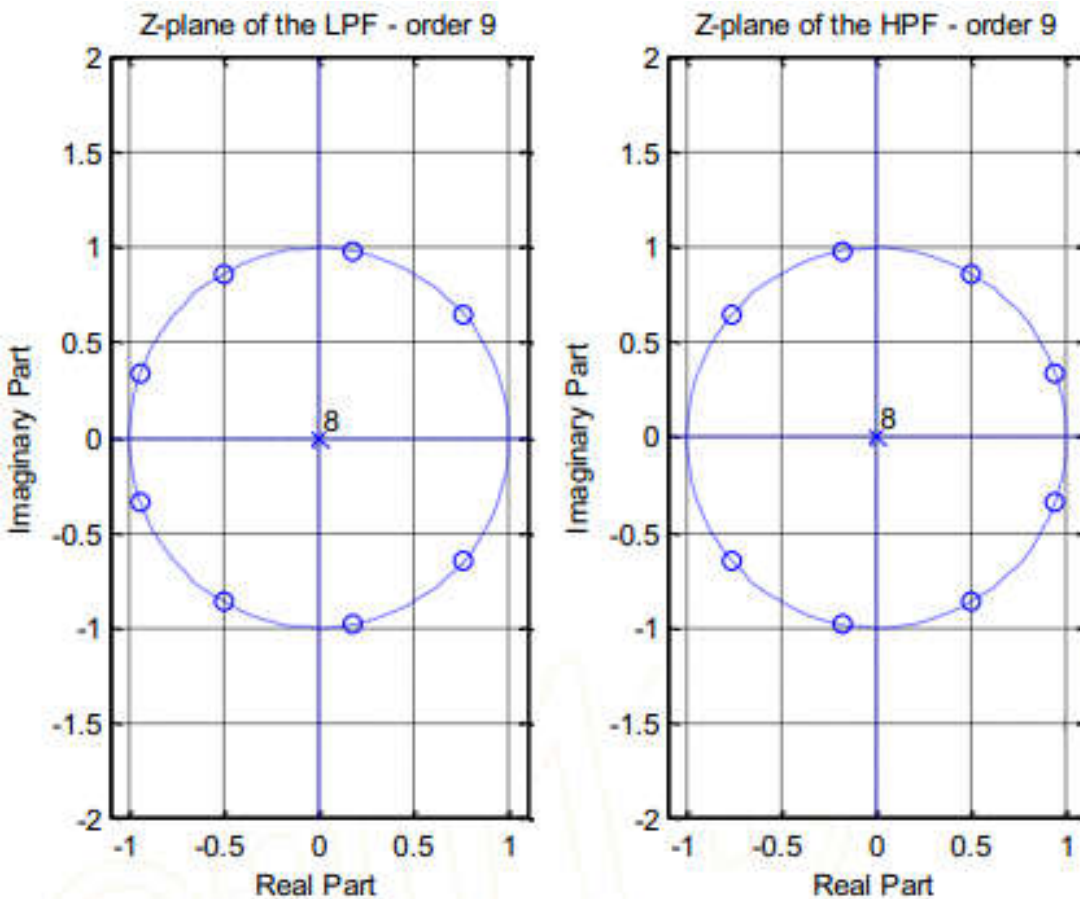
Three section cascade first order HPF ==> 3rd order HPF



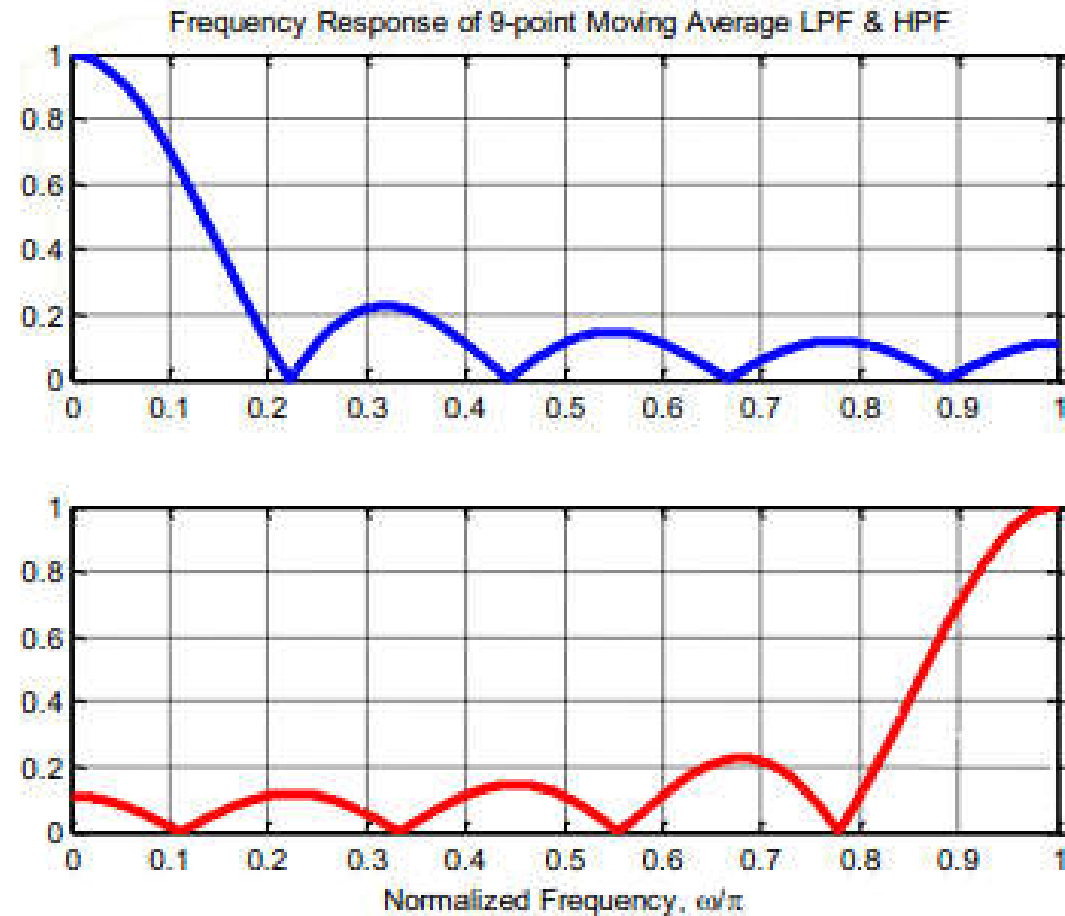


# Cascaded FIR Highpass Filters

## Zero and poles in z-plane



## Frequency responses



# 14\_1 Wrap Up

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- So far we have seen several basic filter architectures:
  - Impulse response based: FIR & IIR
  - Magnitude response based: LPF, HPF, BPF and BSF, allpass
  - Phase response based: zero-phase, linear phase, non-linear phase
- FIR examples
  - 1<sup>st</sup> order Moving Average Filter (MAF) – lowpass
  - 1<sup>st</sup> order highpass by replacing “z” with “-z” in MAF
  - High order FIR by cascading
- How to design a filter with specific desired passband and stopband characteristics?

# EEE336 Signal Processing and Digital Filtering

## Lecture 14 FIR Filters Design

### Lect\_14\_2 Specification and Design by Truncation

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# *Fundamental Requirements*

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- For a practical system:
  - Real coefficients;
  - Stable
  - Causal
  - Lowest order  $M$ ;
  - Linear phase

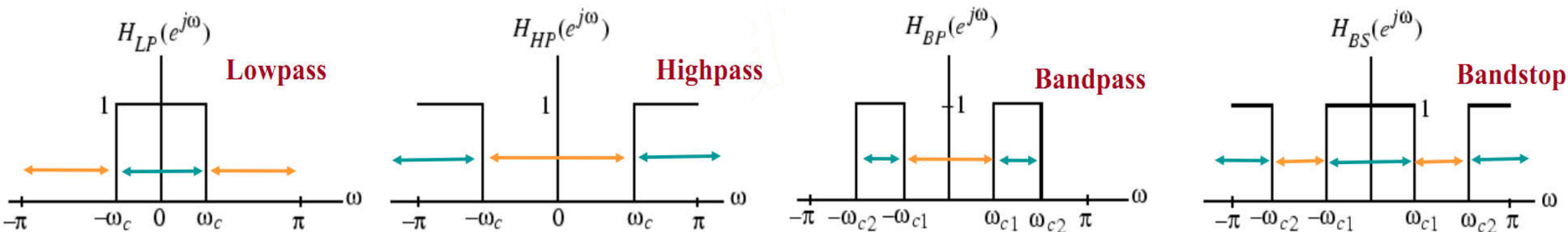
# Fundamental Requirements

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- The following must be taken into consideration in making filter selection:
  - $H(z)$  satisfying the frequency response specifications must be causal and stable (*poles inside the unit circle, ROC includes the unit circle,  $h[n]$  is right-sided*).
  - If the filter is FIR, then  $H(z)$  is a polynomial in  $z^{-1}$  with real coefficients:
    - If linear phase is desired, the filter coefficients  $h[n]$  must satisfy symmetry constraints:  $h[n] = \pm h[M - n]$ ;
    - For computational efficiency, the minimum filter order  $M$  that satisfies design criteria must be used.
  - If the filter is IIR, the  $H(z)$  is a real rational function of  $z^{-1}$ , so:
    - Stability must be ensured;
    - Minimum  $(M, N)$  that satisfies the design criteria must be used.

# FIR Filter Design

- Objective: Obtain a **realizable** transfer function  $H(z)$  approximating a desired frequency response.
  - Typically magnitude (and sometimes phase) response of the desired filter is specified



- Since the ideal filters cannot be realized, we need to relax (i.e., smooth) the sharp filter characteristics in the passband and stopband by providing *acceptable tolerances*

# Filter Specifications

- $|H(e^{j\omega})| \approx 1$ , with an error  $\pm \delta_p$  in the passband:

$$1 - \delta_p \leq |H(\omega)| \leq 1 + \delta_p, \quad |\omega| \leq \omega_p$$

- $|H(e^{j\omega})| \approx 0$ , with an error  $\delta_s$  in the stopband:

$$|H(\omega)| \leq \delta_s, \quad \omega_s \leq |\omega| \leq \pi$$

$\omega_p$  – passband edge frequency

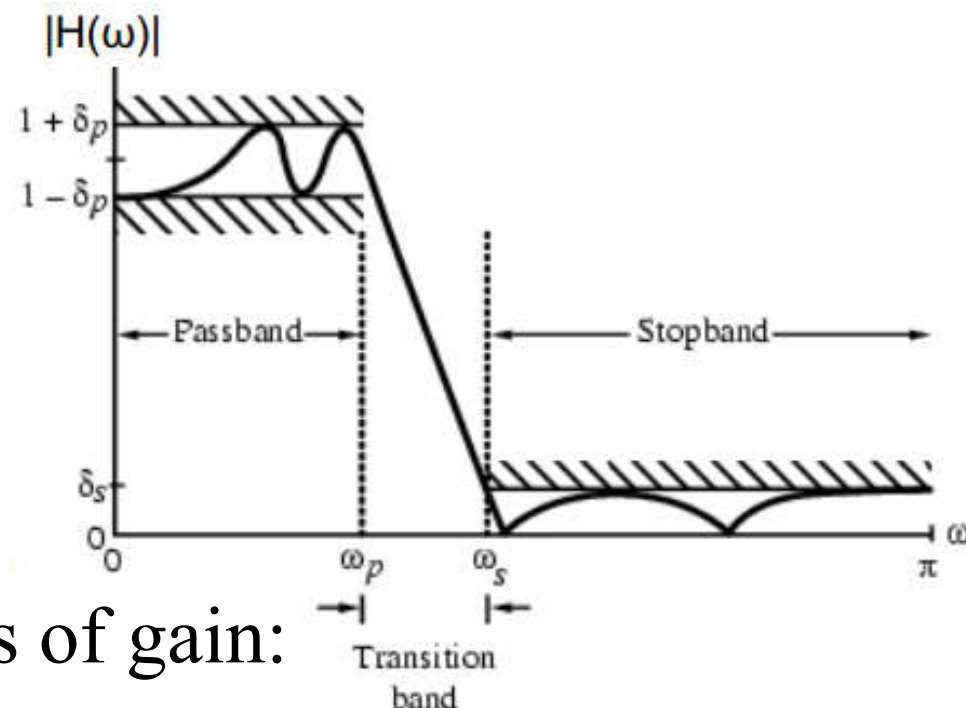
$\omega_s$  – stopband edge frequency

$\delta_p$  - peak ripple value in the passband

$\delta_s$  - peak ripple value in the stopband

- Filter specifications are often given in decibels, in terms of loss of gain:

$$G(\omega) = -20 \log_{10} |H(e^{j\omega})|$$





# Cut-off frequency in Digital Domain

- In general, filter specifications are given in Hz, but most digital filters are designed in normalized frequencies, where  $2\pi < \omega < 2\pi$ .
- Then, the normalized passband and stopband edge frequencies can be obtained from linear frequencies as follows:
  - $f_p$ : linear pass band edge frequency
  - $\omega_p$ : normalized (angular) pass band edge frequency
  - $f_s$ : linear stop band edge frequency
  - $\omega_s$ : normalized (angular) stop band edge frequency
  - $f_t$ : sampling frequency
  - $T$ : sampling period
- E.g. If the sampling frequency is  $f_t = 10\text{kHz}$ , and we want  $f_p = 3\text{kHz}$  and  $f_s = 4\text{kHz}$ , find  $\omega_p$  and  $\omega_s$ .

$$\omega_p = \frac{2\pi f_p}{f_t} = 2\pi f_p T$$

$$\omega_s = \frac{2\pi f_s}{f_t} = 2\pi f_s T$$

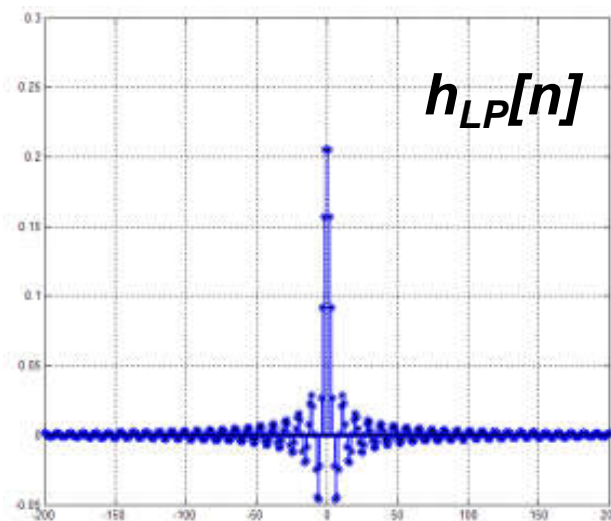
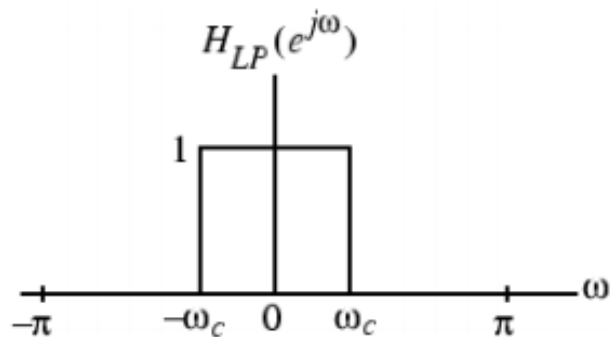


# FIR Filter Design

- Start with the ideal lowpass filter

$$H_{LP}(\omega) = \begin{cases} 1, & 0 \leq |\omega| \leq \omega_c \\ 0, & \omega_c \leq |\omega| \leq \pi \end{cases} \longleftrightarrow h_{LP}[n] = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\omega_c}^{\omega_c} 1 \cdot e^{j\omega n} d\omega$$
$$= \frac{\sin \omega_c n}{\pi n} = \frac{\omega_c}{\pi} \text{sinc } \omega_c n, -\infty < n < \infty$$

- Two problems with this filter:
  - infinitely long
  - non-causal



# Least Integral-squared Error Design of FIR Filters

- Let  $H_d(e^{j\omega})$  denote the desired (ideal) frequency response, then  $h_d[n]$  is the corresponding impulse response.
  - Two problems of the desired filter: infinitely long and non-causal;
- The objective of filter design is to find a finite-duration impulse response sequence  $h_t[n]$  of length  $2M+1$  whose DTFT  $H_t(e^{j\omega})$  approximates the desired DTFT  $H_d(e^{j\omega})$  in some sense.

$$H_d(\omega)$$

$$H_t(\omega)$$

$$h_d(\omega)$$

$$h_t(\omega)$$

- One commonly used approximation criterion is to minimize the integral-squared error  $\Phi$ :

$$\Phi = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \left| H_t(e^{j\omega}) - H_d(e^{j\omega}) \right|^2 d\omega$$

# Least Integral-squared Error Design of FIR Filters

- Using Parseval's relation, we can get:

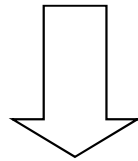
$$\begin{aligned}\Phi &= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |h_t[n] - h_d[n]|^2 \\ &= \sum_{n=-M}^M |h_t[n] - h_d[n]|^2 + \sum_{n=-\infty}^{-M-1} h_d^2[n] + \sum_{n=M+1}^{\infty} h_d^2[n]\end{aligned}$$

- It is evident that  $\Phi$  is minimum when
$$h_t[n] = h_d[n] \text{ for } -M \leq n \leq M$$
- Or, in other words, the best finite-length approximation to the ideal infinite-length impulse response in the mean-square error sense is simply obtained by **truncation**.

# Least Integral-squared Error Design of FIR Filters

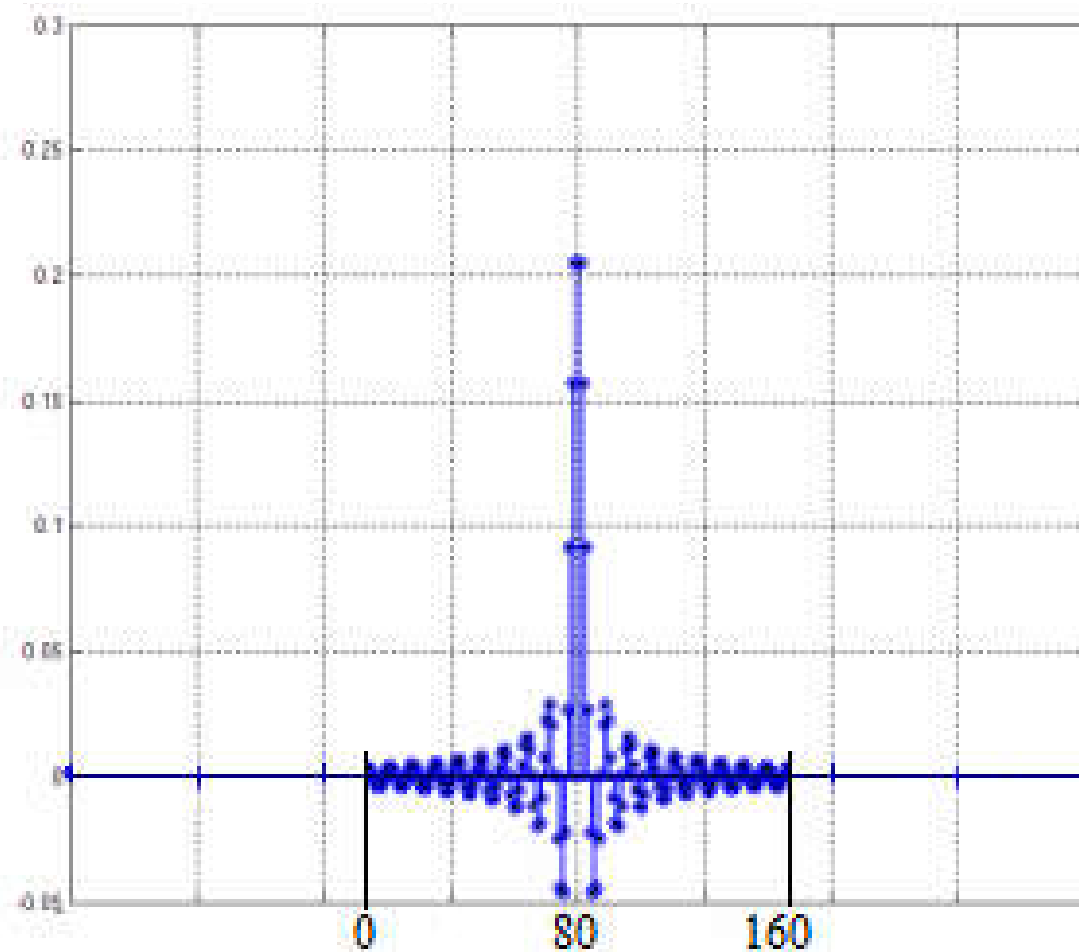
$$h_d[n] = \frac{\sin(\omega_c n)}{\pi n}, \quad -\infty < n < \infty$$

**Unrealizable!**



$$h_t[n] = \begin{cases} \frac{\sin(\omega_c (n - M/2))}{\pi (n - M/2)}, & 0 \leq n \leq 2M, n \neq M \\ \frac{\omega_c}{\pi}, & n = \frac{M}{2} \end{cases}$$

**Realizable!**

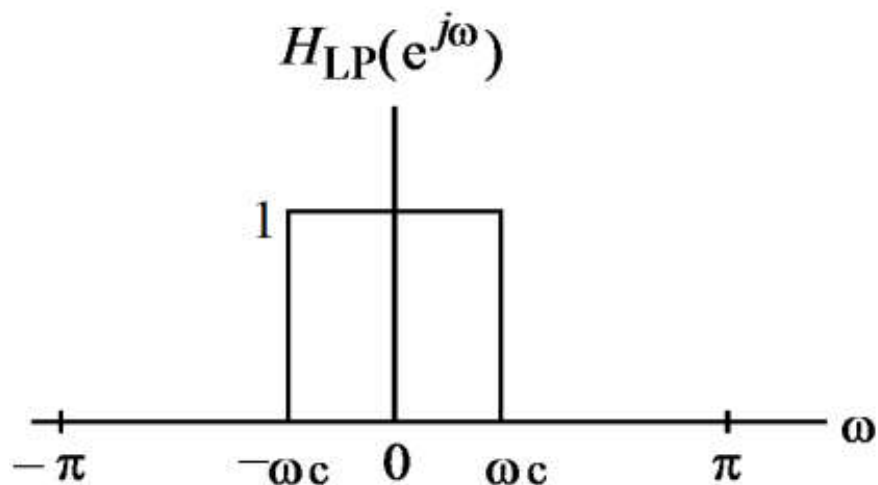


# FIR Filter Design

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- This is the basic, straightforward approach to FIR filter design:
  - Step 1: Start with an ideal filter that meets the design criteria, say a filter  $H_d(\omega)$
  - Step 2: Take the inverse DTFT of this  $H_d(\omega)$  to obtain  $h_d[n]$ .
    - This  $h_d[n]$  will be double infinitely long, and non-causal  $\rightarrow$  unrealizable
  - Step 3: Truncate using a window, say a rectangle, so that  $2M+1$  coefficients of  $h_d[n]$  are retained, and all the others are discarded.
    - We now have a finite length (order  $2M$ ) filter,  $h_t[n]$ , however, it is still non-causal
  - Step 4: Shift the truncated  $h_t[n]$  to the right (i.e., delay) by  $M$  samples, so that the first sample now occurs at  $n=0$ .
    - The resulting impulse response,  $h_t[n-M]$  is a causal, stable, FIR filter, which has an almost identical magnitude response and a phase factor of  $e^{-j\omega M}$  compared to the original filter, due to delay introduced.

# LPF



**Unrealizable!**

$$h_{LP}[n] = \frac{\sin(\omega_c n)}{\pi n}, \quad -\infty < n < \infty$$



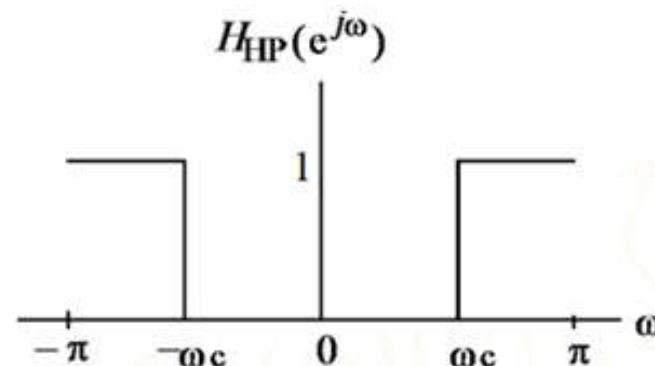
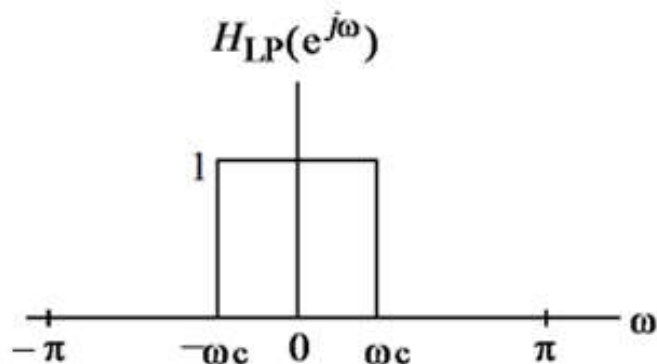
**Realizable!**

Notice: lengths of the impulse responses in the following 3 pages are  $M+1$ .

$$h_{LP}[n] = \begin{cases} \frac{\sin(\omega_c (n - M/2))}{\pi (n - M/2)}, & 0 \leq n \leq M, \quad n \neq \frac{M}{2} \\ \frac{\omega_c}{\pi}, & n = \frac{M}{2} \end{cases}$$



# From LPF to HPF



$$h_{LP}[n] = \begin{cases} \frac{\sin(\omega_c(n - M/2))}{\pi(n - M/2)}, & 0 < n < M, \quad n \neq \frac{M}{2} \\ \frac{\omega_c}{\pi}, & n = \frac{M}{2} \end{cases}$$

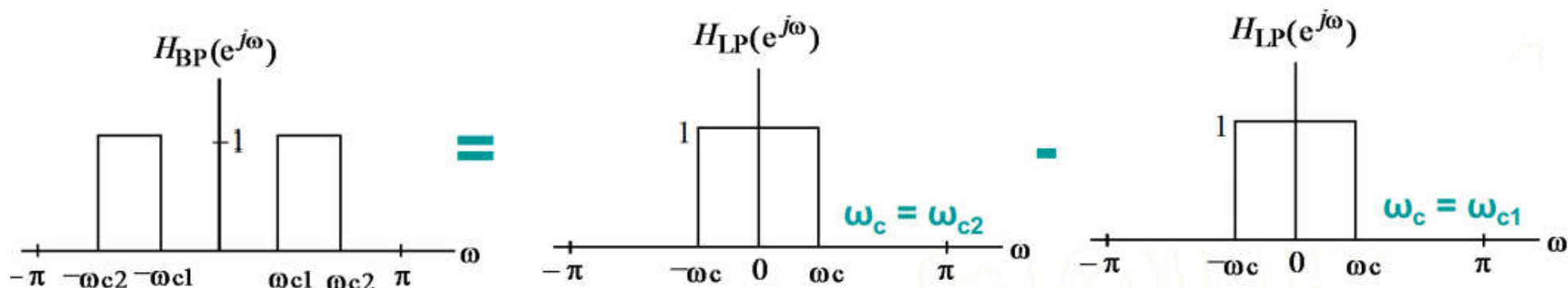
$$H_{HP}(\omega) = 1 - H_{LP}(\omega)$$



$$h_{HP}[n] = \delta[n] - h_{LP}[n]$$

$$h_{HP}[n] = \begin{cases} -\frac{\sin(\omega_c(n - M/2))}{\pi(n - M/2)}, & 0 < n < M, \quad n \neq \frac{M}{2} \\ 1 - \frac{\omega_c}{\pi}, & n = \frac{M}{2} \end{cases}$$

# BPF / BSF



$$H_{BP}(\omega) = H_{LP1}(\omega) - H_{LP2}(\omega) \quad h_{BP}[n] = h_{LP1}[n] - h_{LP2}[n]$$

$$h_{BP}[n] = \begin{cases} \frac{\sin(\omega_{c2}(n-M/2))}{\pi(n-M/2)} - \frac{\sin(\omega_{c1}(n-M/2))}{\pi(n-M/2)}, & 0 < n < M, n \neq \frac{M}{2} \\ \frac{\omega_{c2}}{\pi} - \frac{\omega_{c1}}{\pi}, & n = \frac{M}{2} \end{cases}$$

Similarly,

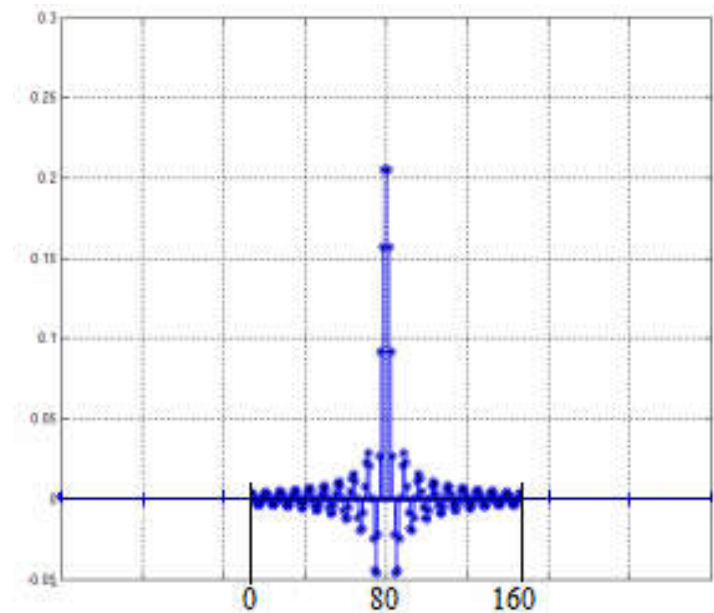
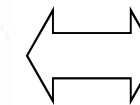
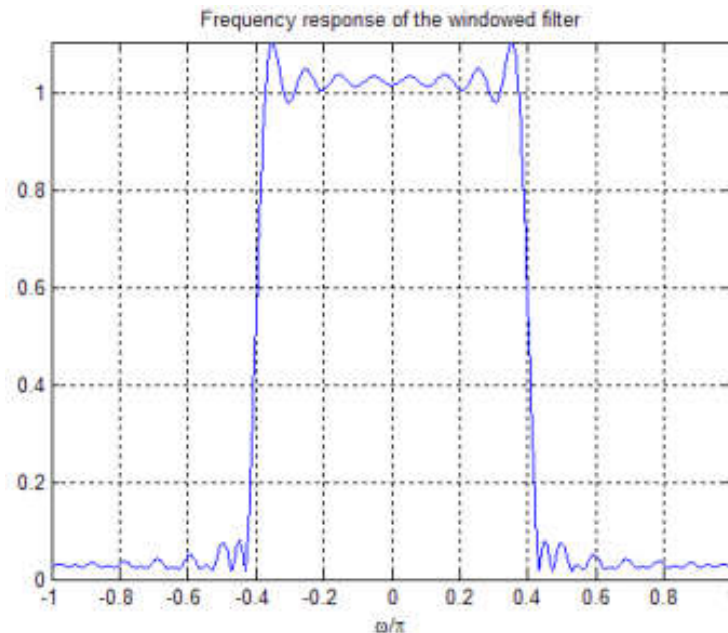
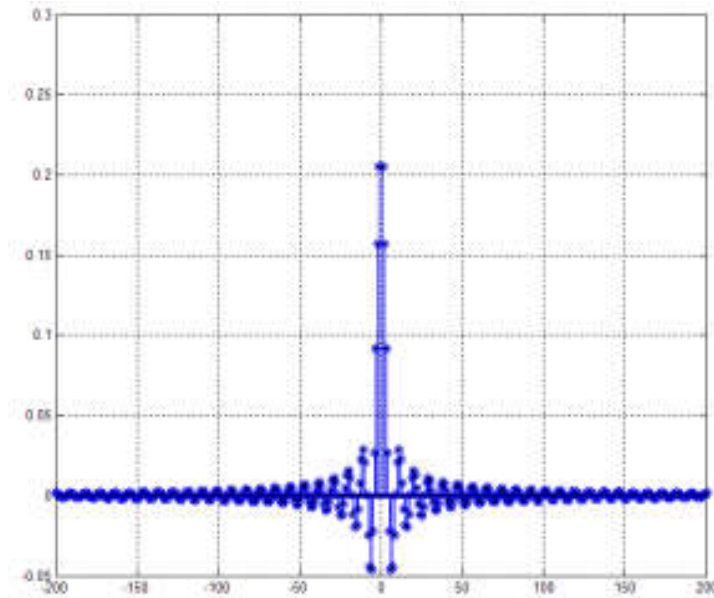
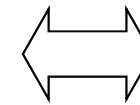
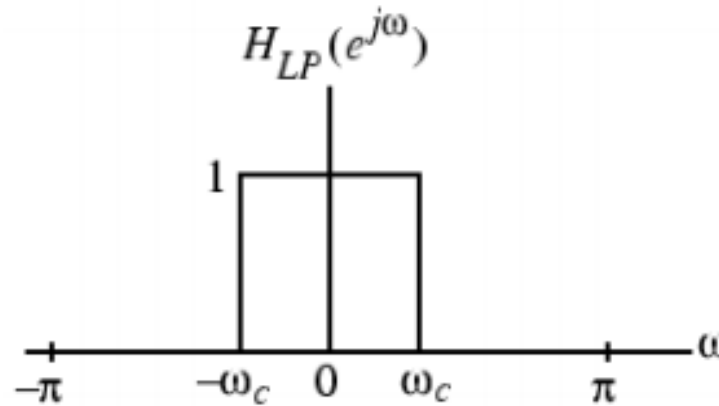
$$H_{BS}(\omega) = 1 - H_{BP}(\omega) \quad \longleftrightarrow \quad h_{BS}[n] = \delta[n] - h_{BP}[n]$$



# Gibbs Phenomenon

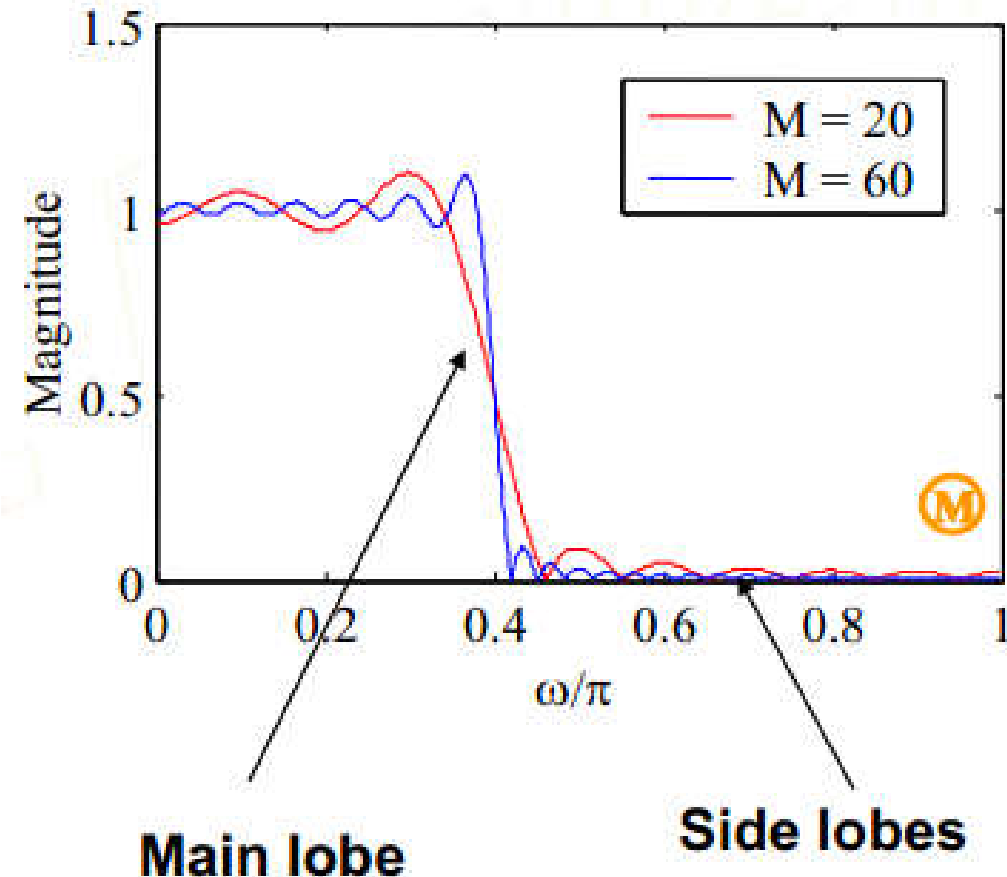
**However...**

Truncating the impulse response of an ideal filter to obtain a realizable filter, creates oscillatory behaviour in the frequency domain.



# Gibbs Phenomenon

- Observe the following:
  - As  $M \uparrow$ , the number of ripples  $\uparrow$ . However, ripple widths  $\downarrow$
  - The height of the largest ripples remain constant, regardless of the filter length
  - As  $M \uparrow$ , the height of all other ripples  $\downarrow$
  - The transition band gets narrower as  $M \uparrow$ , that is, the drop-off becomes sharper
  - Similar oscillatory behaviour can be seen in all types of truncated filters



# Gibbs Phenomenon

- The Gibbs phenomenon is a result of windowing operation.
  - Multiplying the ideal filter's impulse response with a rectangular window function is equivalent to convolving the underlying frequency response with a sinc

$$h_t[n] = h_d[n] \cdot w[n] \Leftrightarrow H_t(\omega) = H_d(\omega) * W(\omega)$$

Truncated filter impulse response      Desired filter impulse response      Windowing function

- We want  $H_t(\omega)$  to be as close as possible to  $H_d(\omega)$ , which can only be possible if the  $W(\omega) = \delta(\omega) \rightarrow \delta[n] = 1$ , an infinite window.
- Examining the windowing process in the frequency domain:
  - To find the frequency response after windowing we need to perform the periodic continuous convolution:

$$H_w(e^{j\omega}) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} H_d(e^{j\phi}) W(e^{j(\omega-\phi)}) d\phi$$

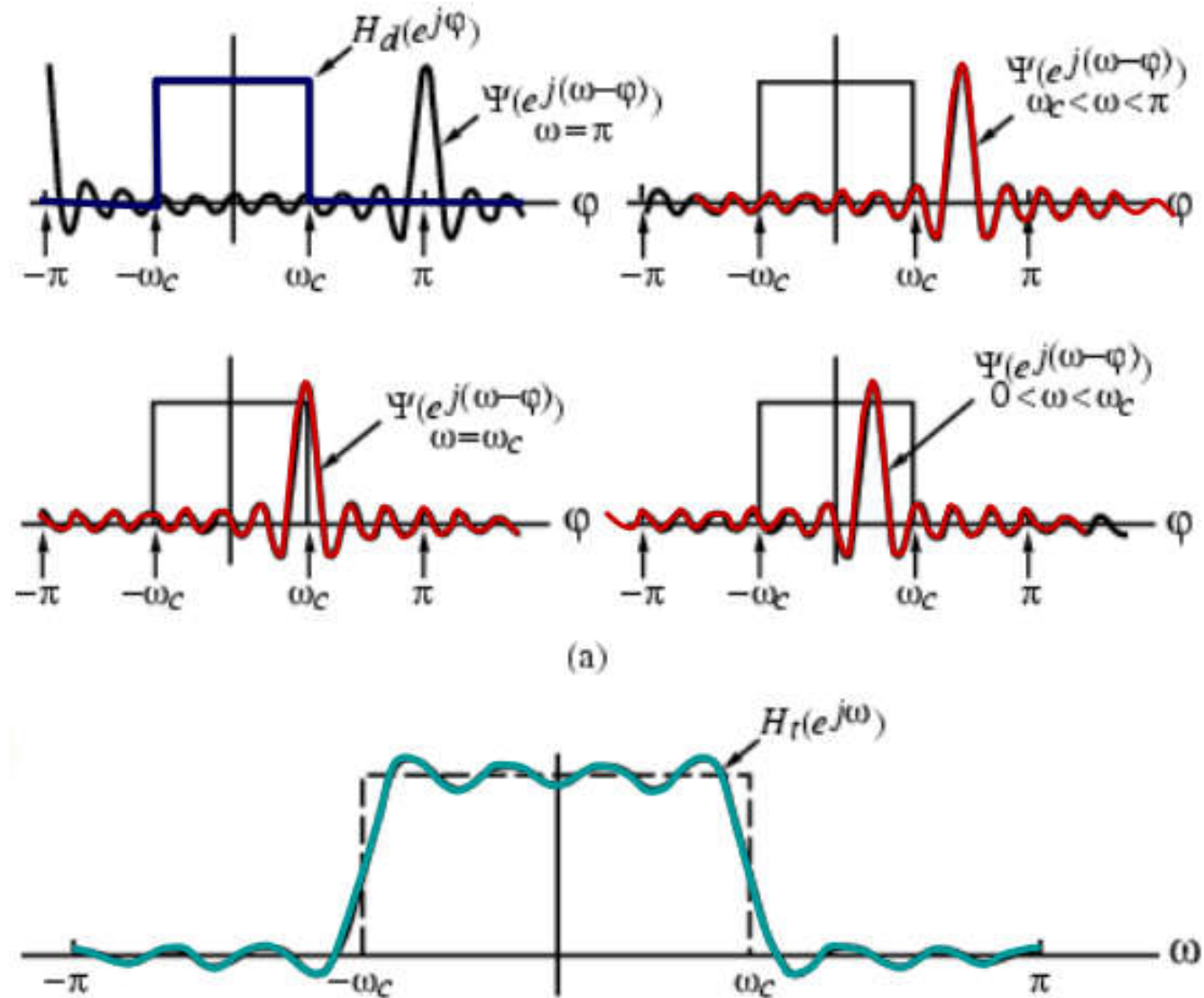


# Gibbs Phenomenon

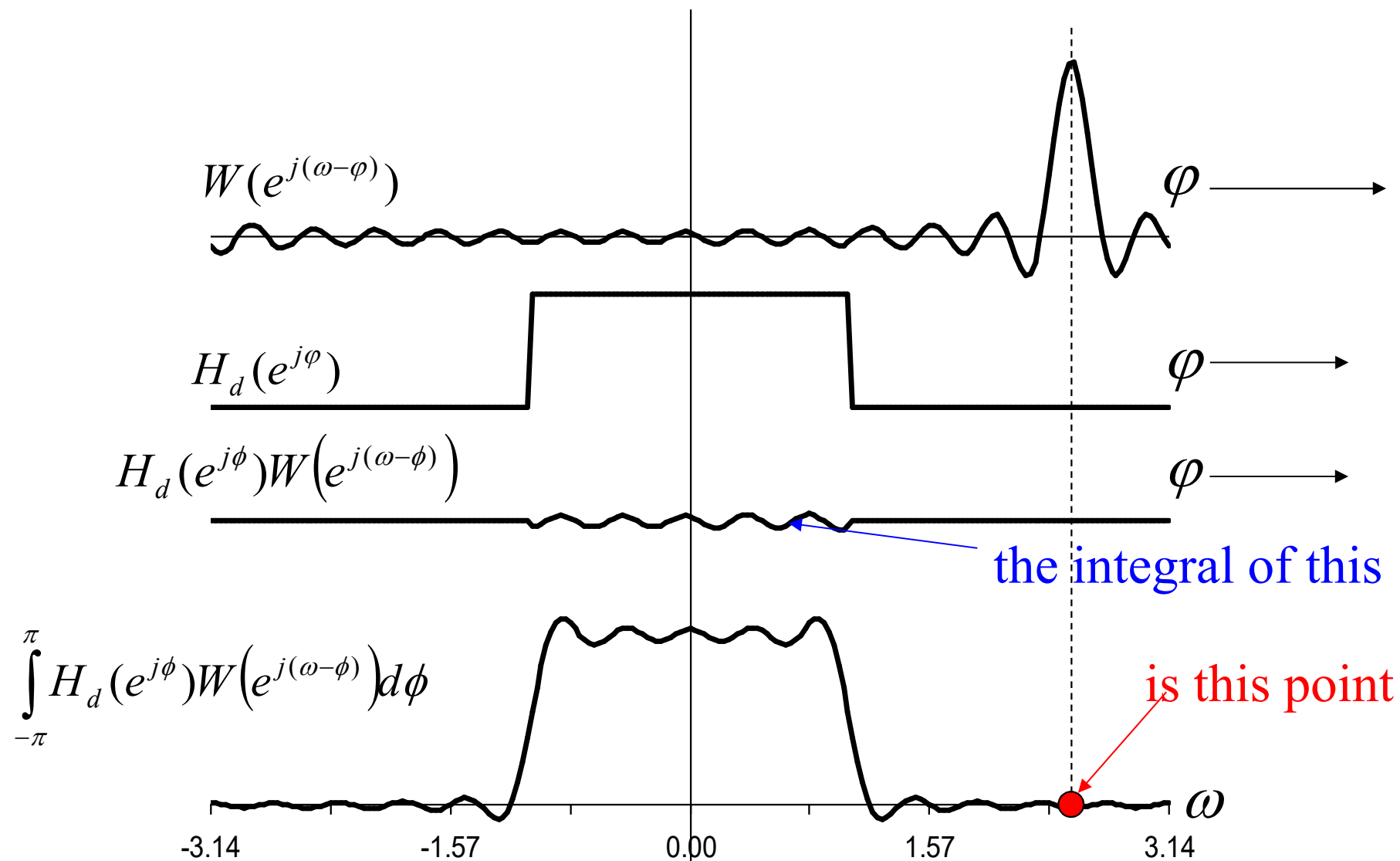
$H_d$ : Ideal filter frequency response

$\Psi$ : Rectangular window frequency response

$H_t$ : Truncated filter's frequency response

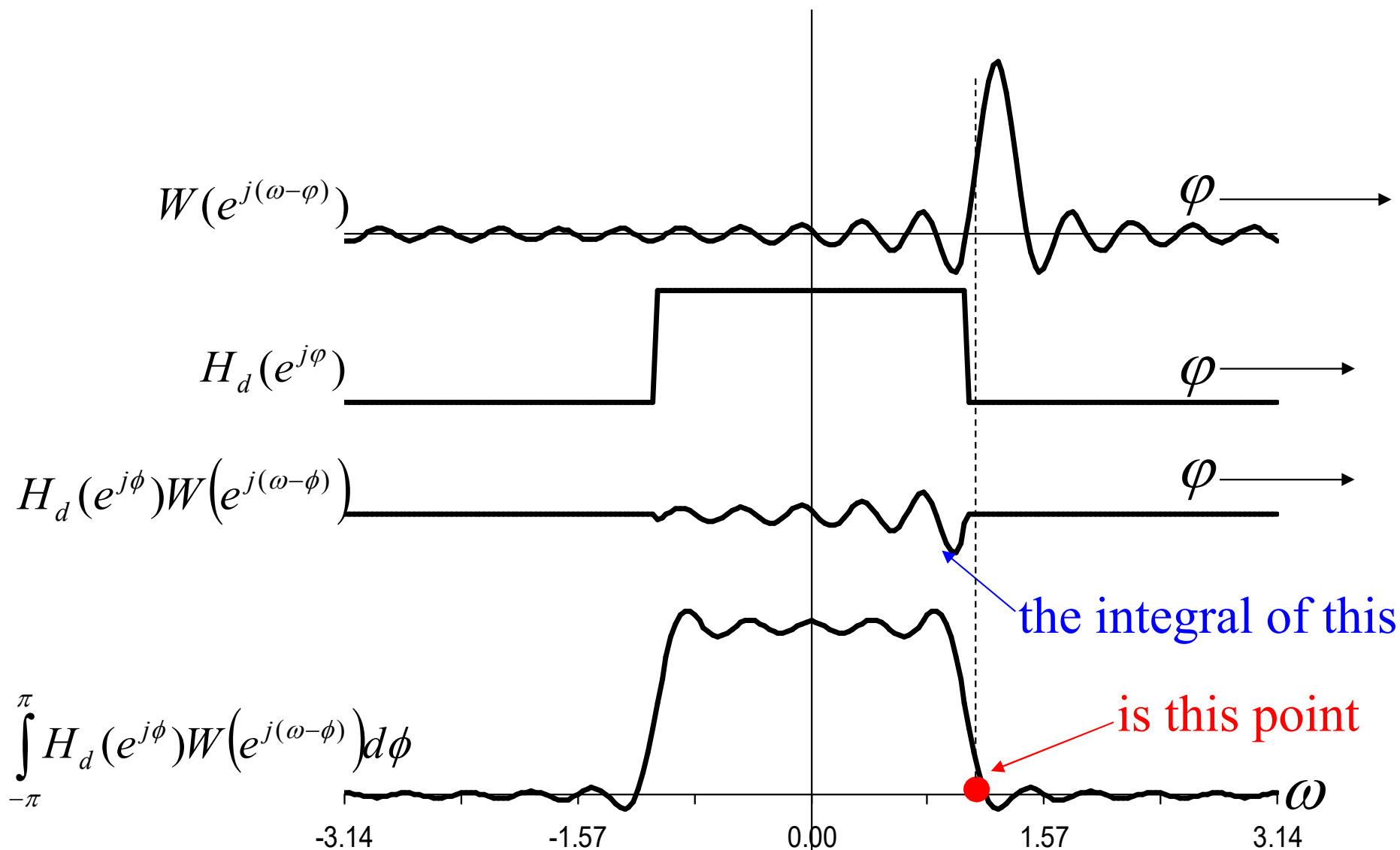


# The integral for $\omega=2.5$

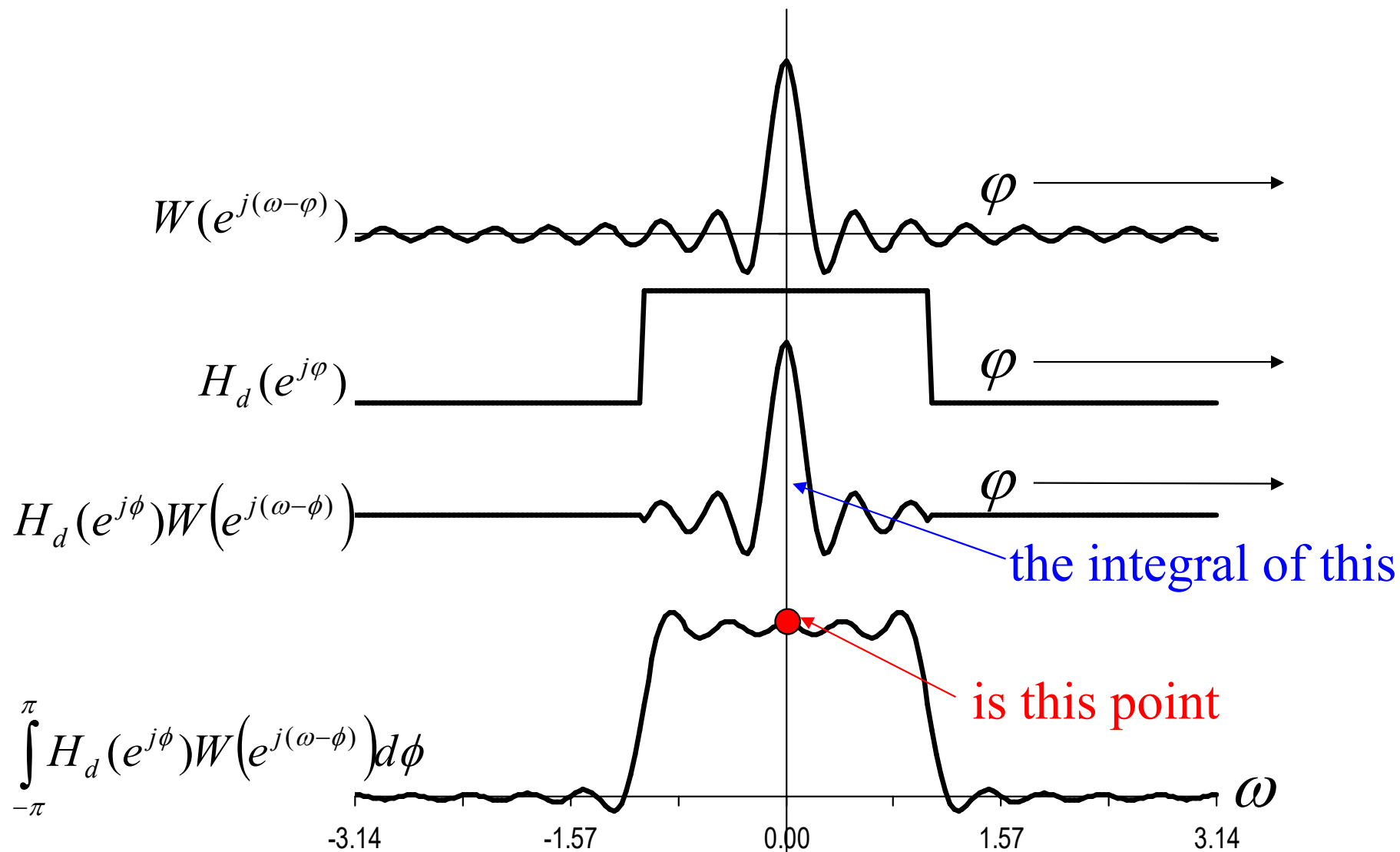




# The integral for $\omega=1.25$

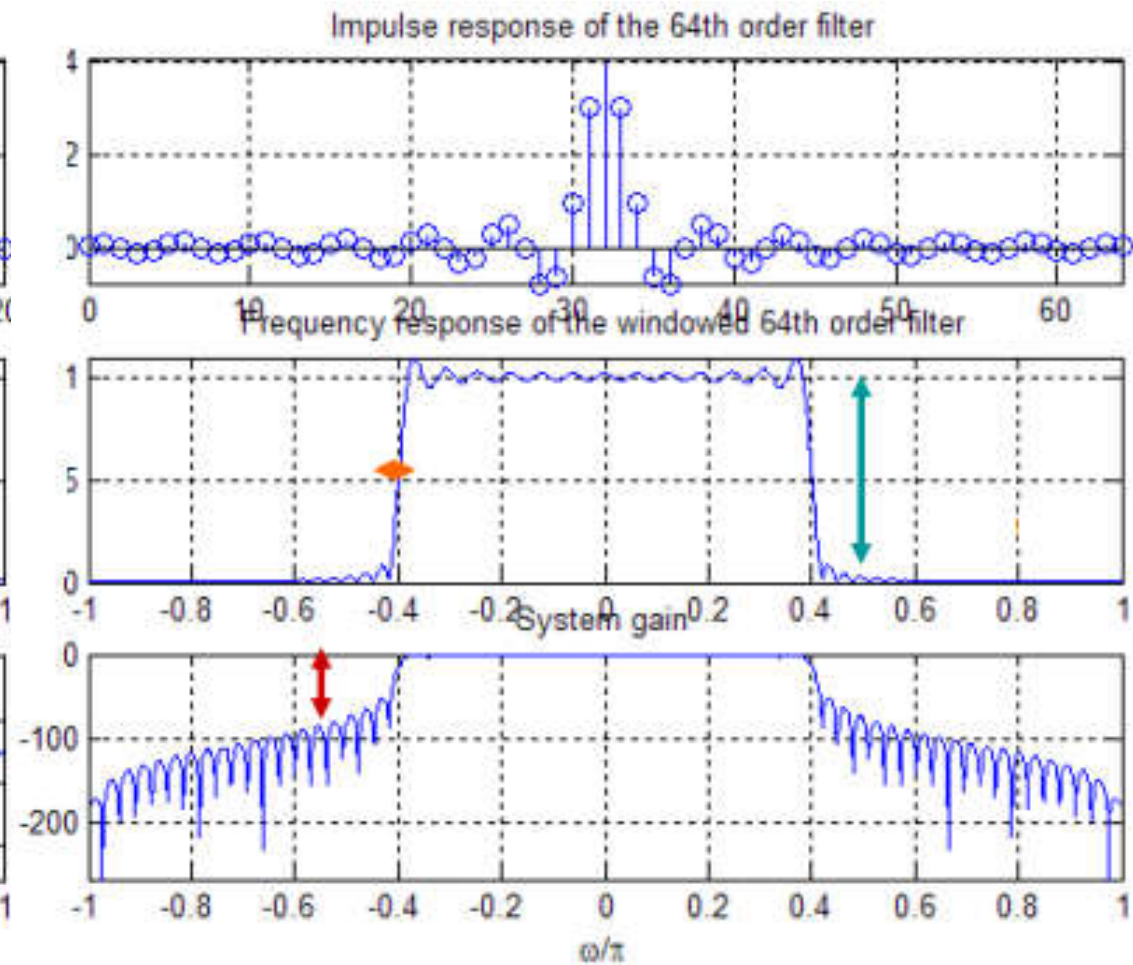
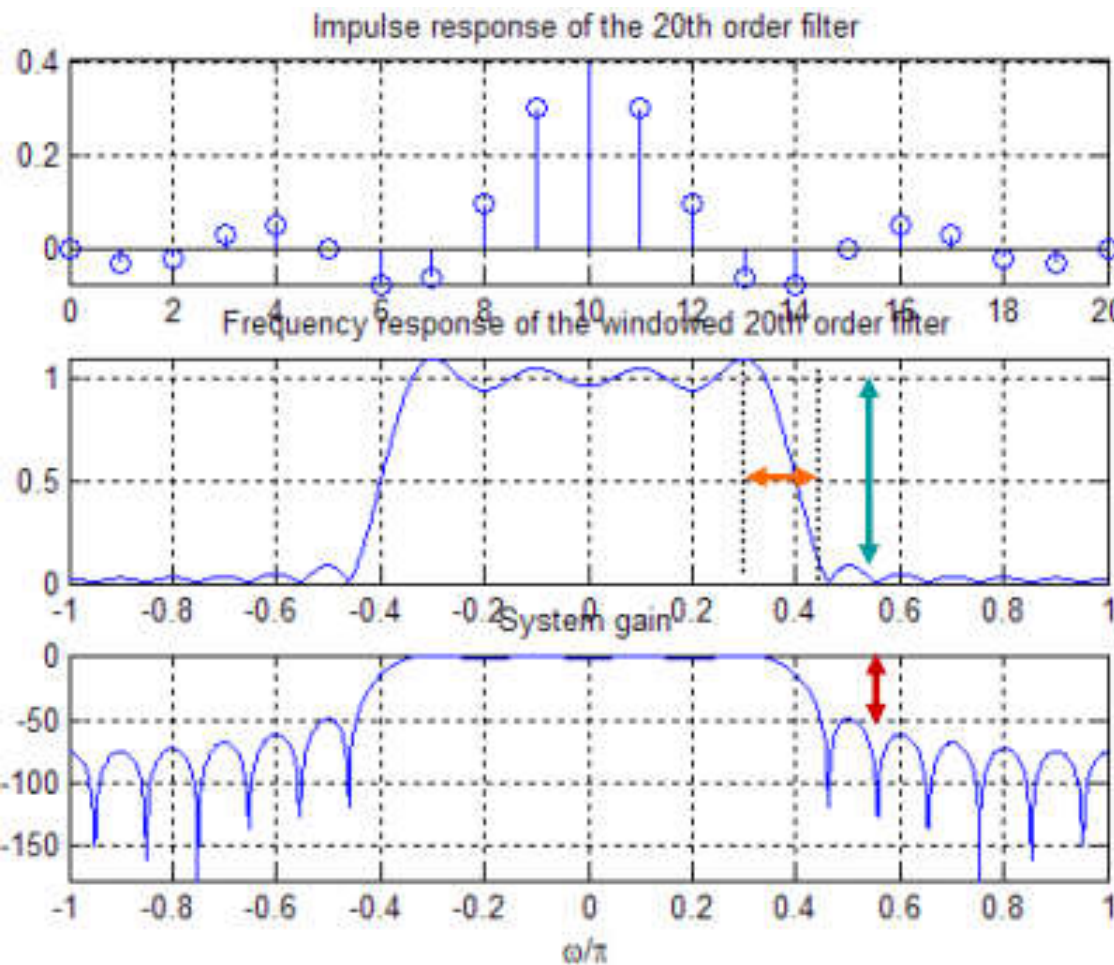


# The integral for $\omega=0$



**M=20**

**M=64**



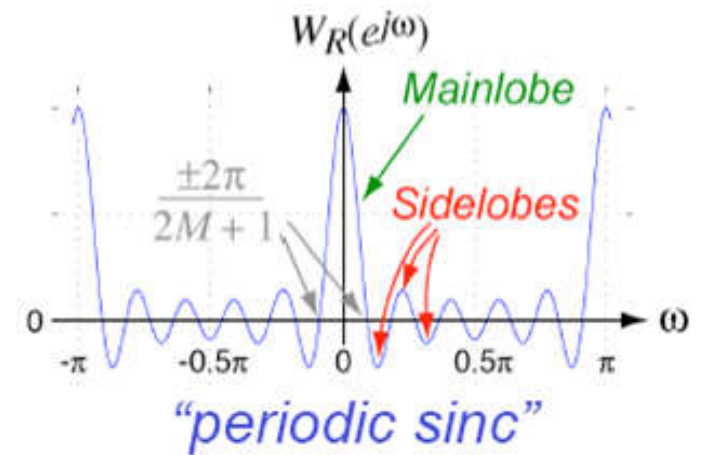
↔ Transition band / main lobe width

↑ Stopband attenuation

↕ In dB

# Gibbs Phenomenon Summary

- Rectangular window has an abrupt transition to zero outside the range  $-M \leq n \leq M$ , which results in Gibbs phenomenon;
  - Mainlobe width determines transition band width ( $\propto 1/M$ )
  - Sidelobe height determines ripples near transition (constant, about 11%)
- Gibbs phenomenon can be reduced either:
  - Using a window that tapers smoothly to zero at each end, or
  - Providing a smooth transition from passband to stopband in the magnitude specifications.



## 14\_2 Wrap up

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- Fundamental requirements
- Specifications
- Least Integral-Square Error Design
- LPF Design by Truncation (rectangular window)
- From LPF to HPF, BPF and BSF
- Gibbs Phenomenon

# EEE336 Signal Processing and Digital Filtering

## Lecture 14 FIR Filters Design

### Lect\_14\_3 Window Method

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# FIR Filter Design using window

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- Here's what we want:
    - Quick drop off -> Narrow transition band
      - Narrow main lobe
      - Increased stopband attenuation
  - } **Conflicting requirements**
  - Reduce the height of the side-lobe which causes the ripples
  - Reduce Gibb's phenomenon (ringing effects, all ripples)
  - Minimize the order of the filter.
- Gibb's phenomenon can be reduced (but not eliminated) by using a *smoother window* that gently tapers off to zero, rather than the brick wall behaviour of the rectangular filter.
    - Several window functions are available, which usually trade-off main-lobe width and stopband attenuation.



# Commonly Used Windows

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- Several window functions are available, which usually trade-off main-lobe width and stopband attenuation.
  - Rectangular window has the narrowest main-lobe width, but poor side-lobe attenuation.
  - Tapered window causes the height of the sidelobes to diminish, with a corresponding increase in the main lobe width resulting in a wider transition at the cutoff frequency.

Bartlett window:  $w[n] = 1 - \frac{|n|}{M+1}, \quad -M \leq n \leq M$  **Based on length 2M+1**

Hanning window:  $w[n] = \frac{1}{2} \left[ 1 + \cos \left( \frac{2\pi n}{2M+1} \right) \right], \quad -M \leq n \leq M$

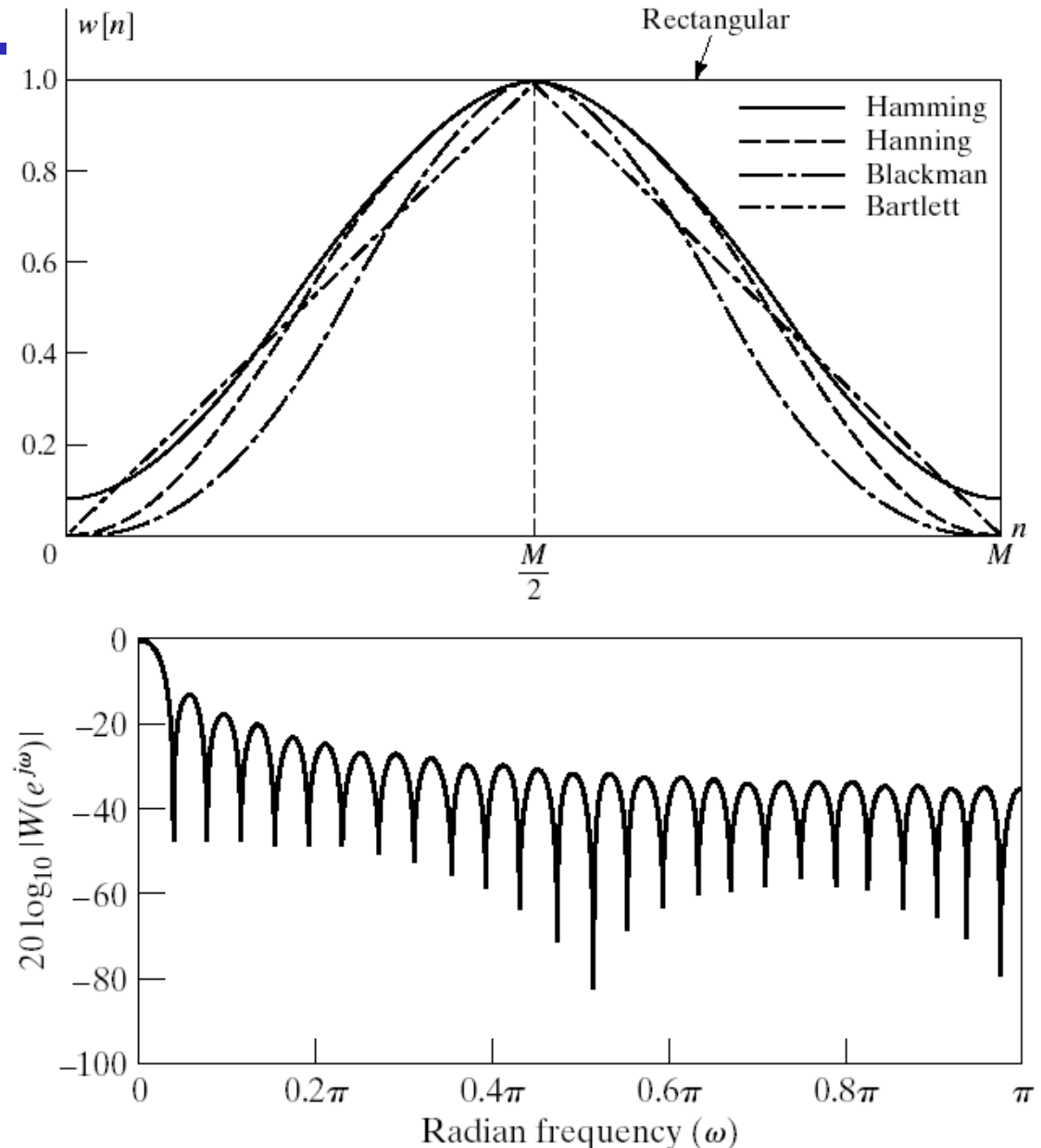
Hamming window:  $w[n] = 0.54 + 0.46 \cos \left( \frac{2\pi n}{2M+1} \right), \quad -M \leq n \leq M$

Blackman window:  $w[n] = 0.42 + 0.5 \cos \left( \frac{2\pi n}{2M+1} \right) + 0.08 \cos \left( \frac{4\pi n}{2M+1} \right), \quad -M \leq n \leq M$

# Rectangular Window

- Narrowest main lobe
  - $4\pi/(M+1)$
  - Sharpest transitions at discontinuities in frequency
- Large side lobes
  - -13 dB
  - Large oscillation around discontinuities
- Simplest window possible

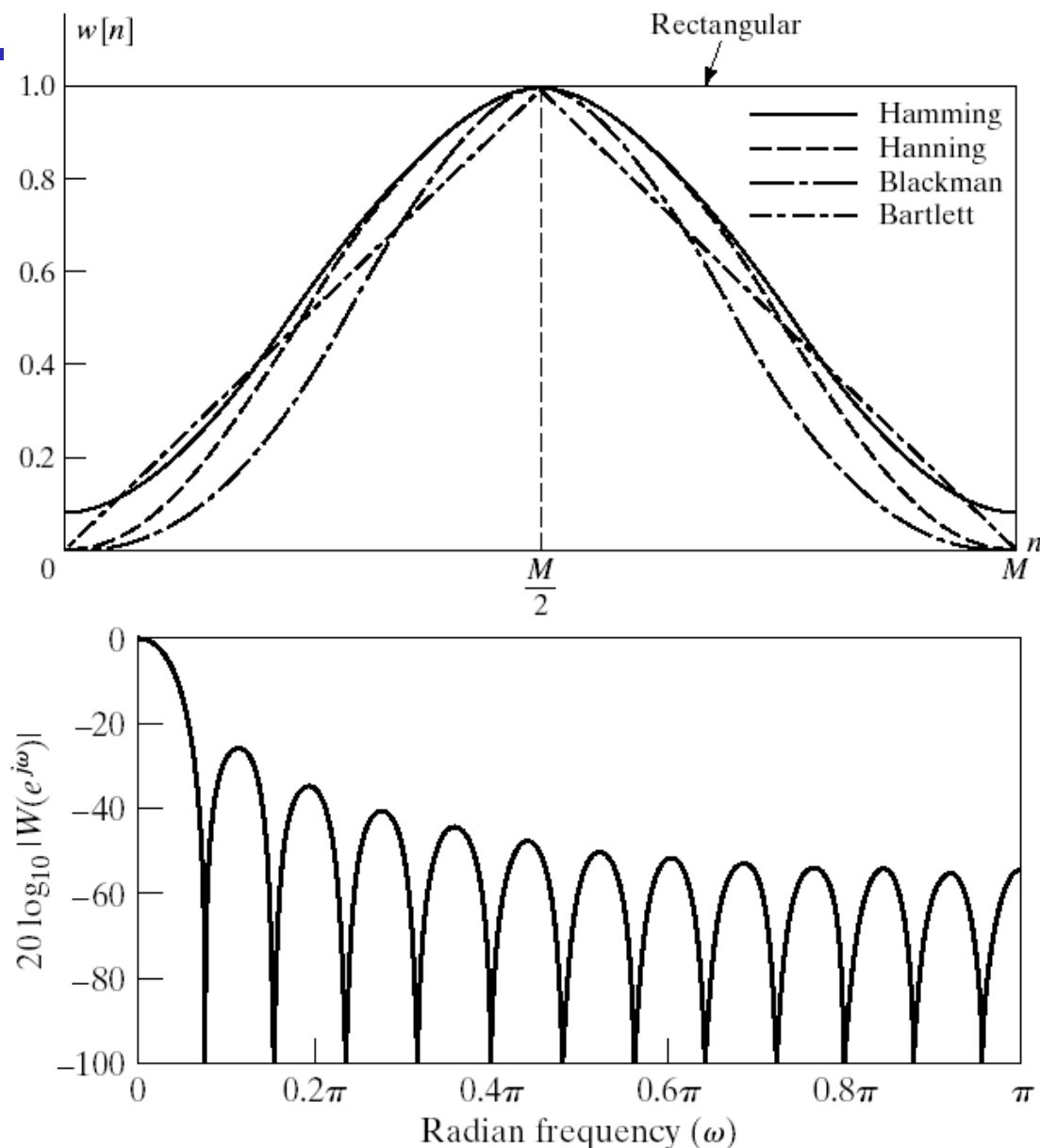
$$w[n] = \begin{cases} 1 & 0 \leq n \leq M \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$



# Bartlett (Triangular) Window

- Medium main lobe
  - $8\pi/M$
- Side lobes
  - -25 dB
- Hamming window performs better
- Simple equation

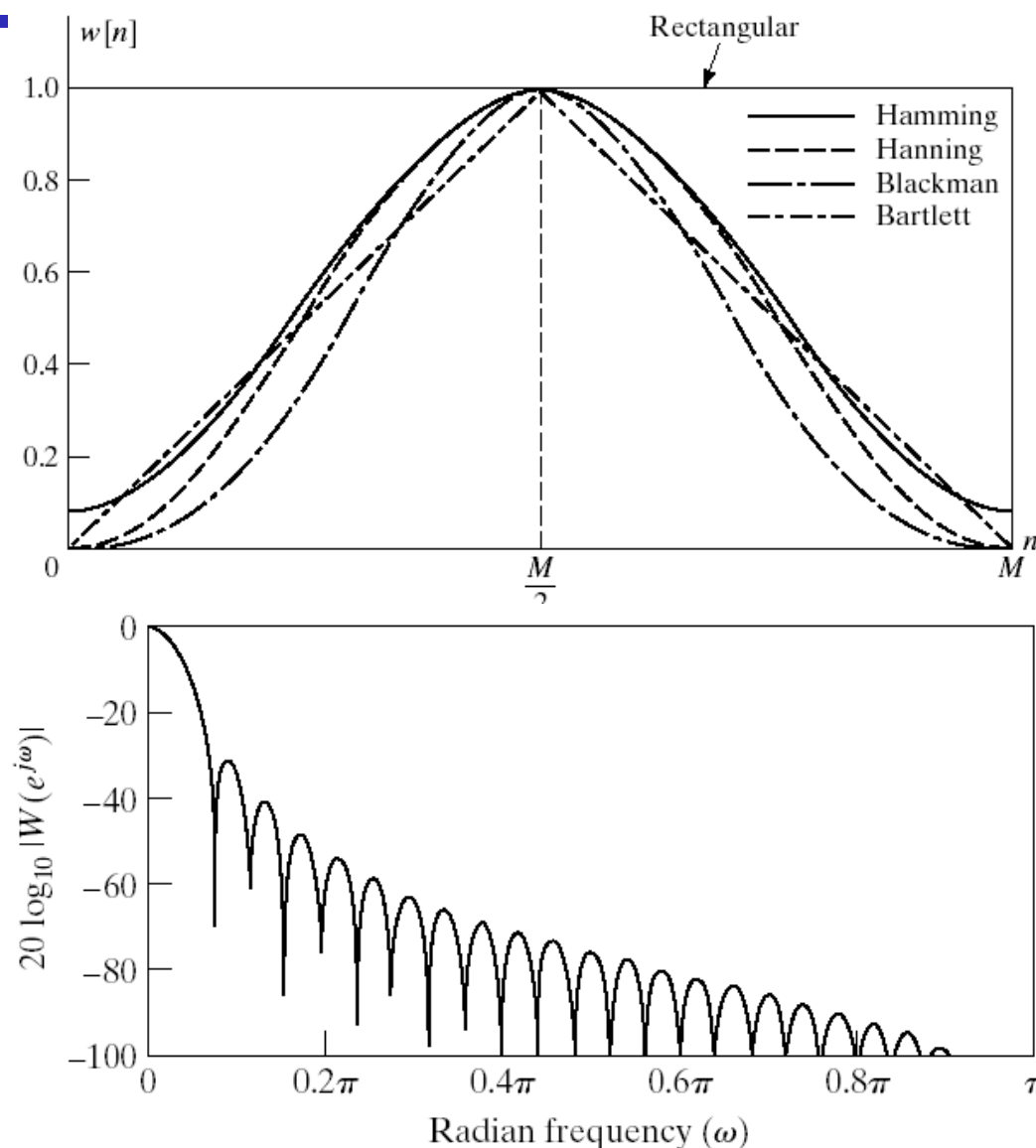
$$w[n] = \begin{cases} 2n/M & 0 \leq n \leq M/2 \\ 2 - 2n/M & M/2 \leq n \leq M \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$



# Hanning Window

- Medium main lobe
  - $8\pi/M$
- Side lobes
  - -31 dB
- Hamming window performs better
- Same complexity as Hamming

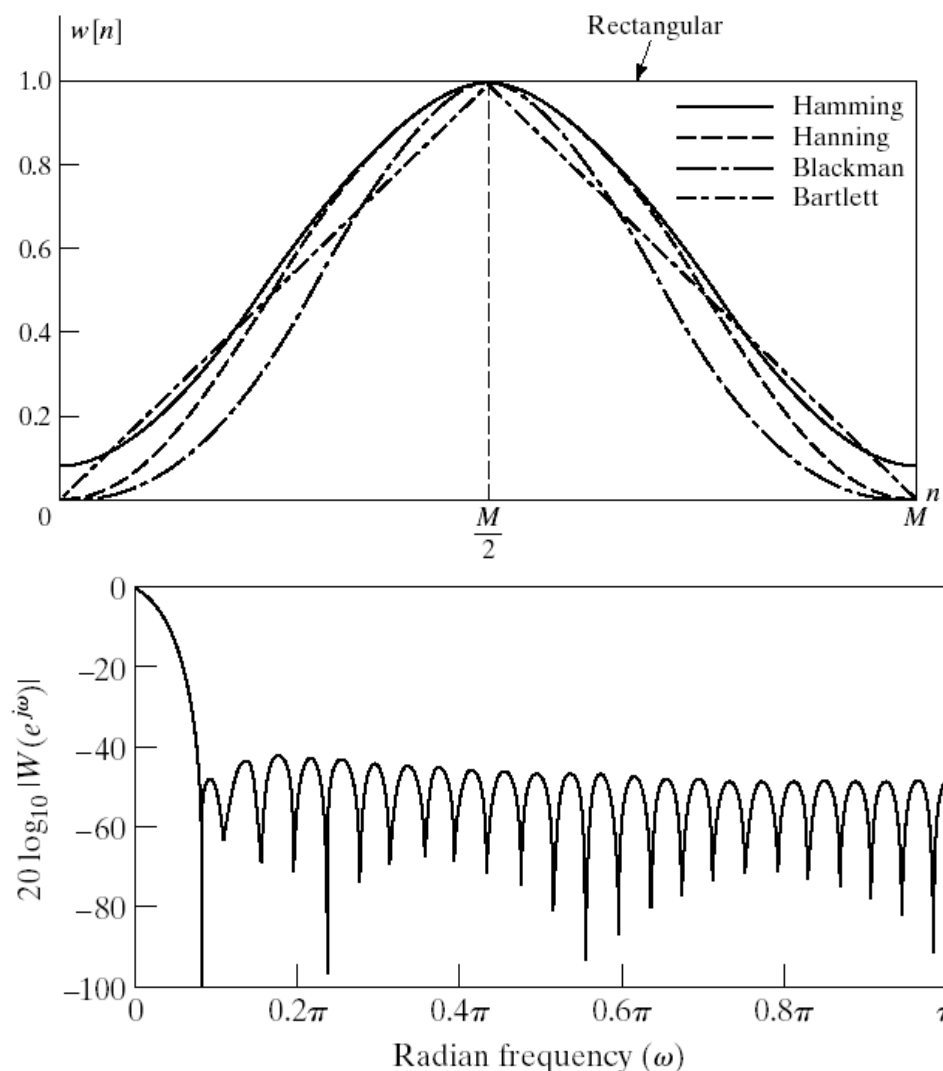
$$w[n] = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \left[ 1 - \cos\left(\frac{2\pi n}{M}\right) \right] & 0 \leq n \leq M \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$



# Hamming Window

- Medium main lobe
  - $8\pi/M$
- Good side lobes
  - -41 dB
- Simpler than Blackman

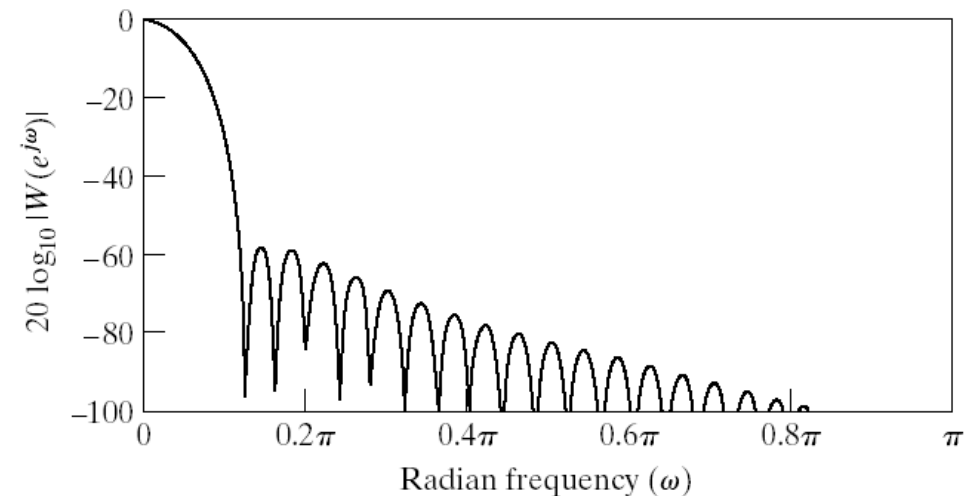
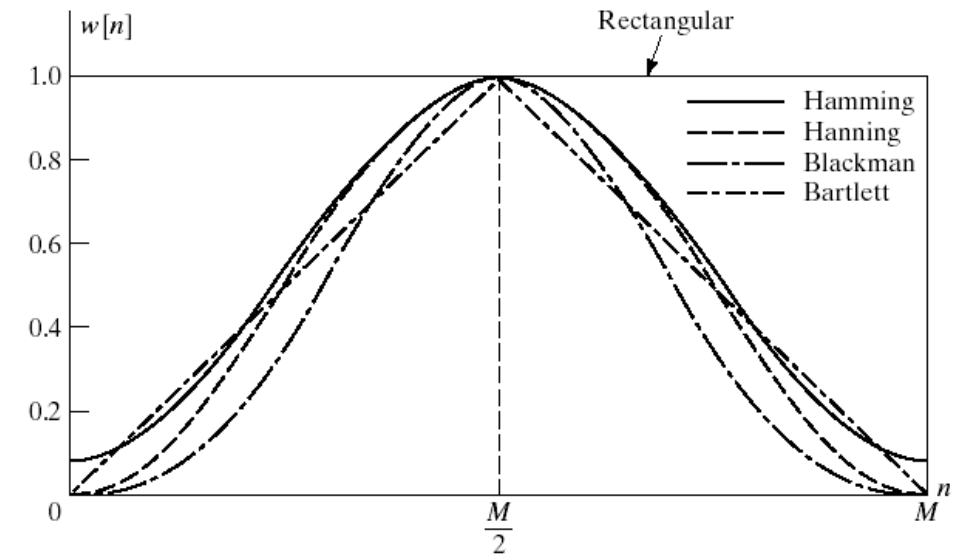
$$w[n] = \begin{cases} 0.54 - 0.46 \cos\left(\frac{2\pi n}{M}\right) & 0 \leq n \leq M \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$



# Blackman Window

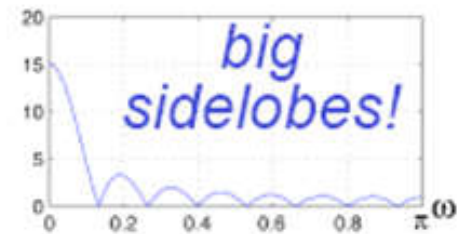
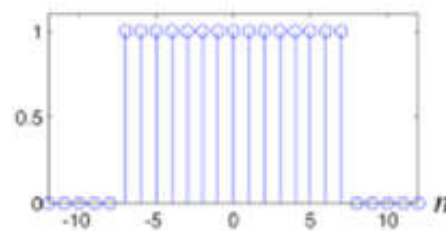
- Large main lobe
  - $12\pi/M$
- Very good side lobes
  - -57 dB
- Complex equation

$$w[n] = \begin{cases} 0.42 - 0.5 \cos\left(\frac{2\pi n}{M}\right) + 0.08 \cos\left(\frac{4\pi n}{M}\right) & 0 \leq n \leq M \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

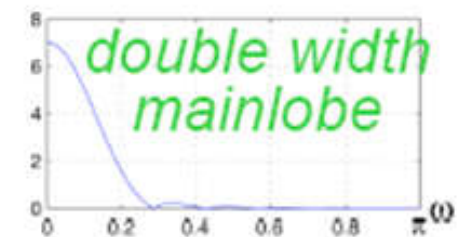
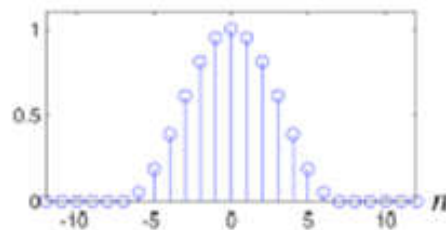


# Window Shapes of classic FIR filters

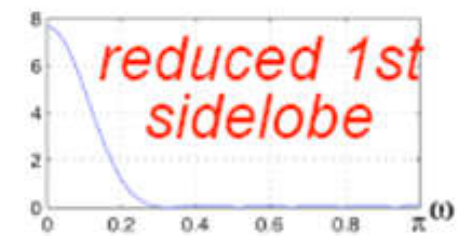
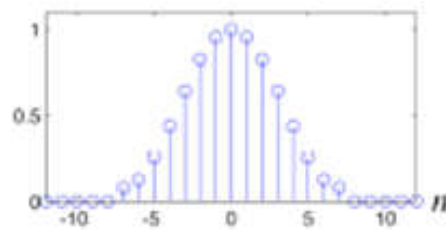
■ **Rectangular:**  
 $w[n] = 1 \quad -M \leq n \leq M$



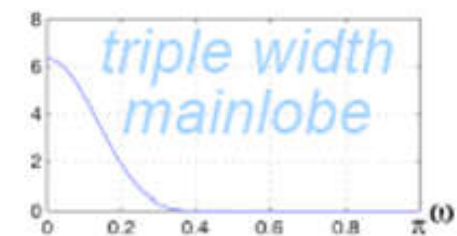
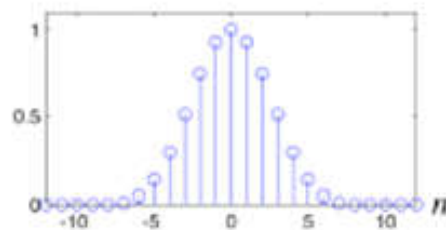
■ **Hann:**  
 $0.5 + 0.5 \cos(2\pi \frac{n}{2M+1})$



■ **Hamming:**  
 $0.54 + 0.46 \cos(2\pi \frac{n}{2M+1})$

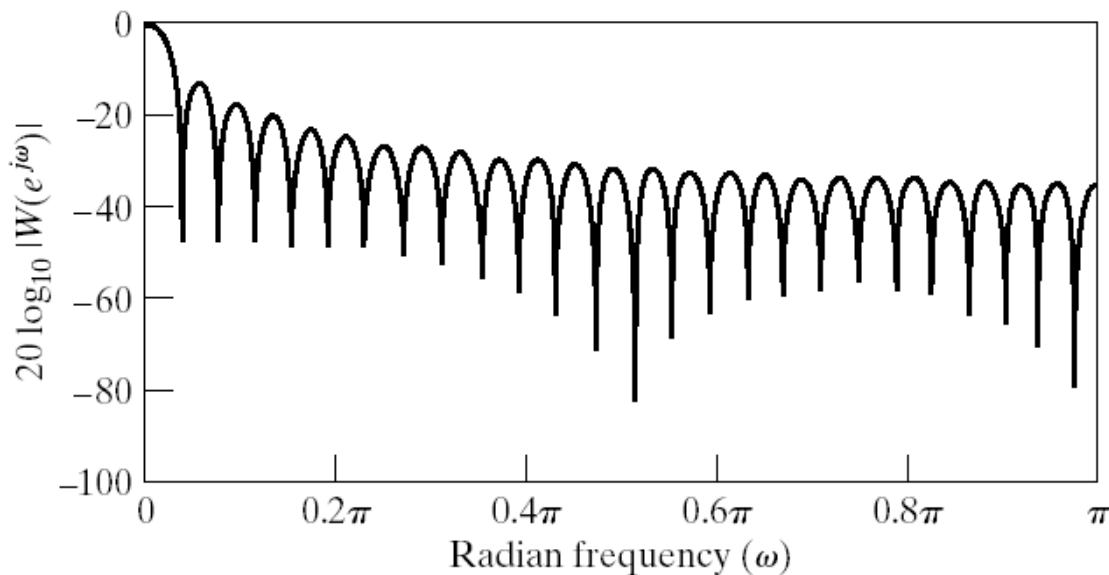


■ **Blackman:**  
 $0.42 + 0.46 \cos(2\pi \frac{n}{2M+1})$   
 $+ 0.08 \cos(2\pi \frac{2n}{2M+1})$

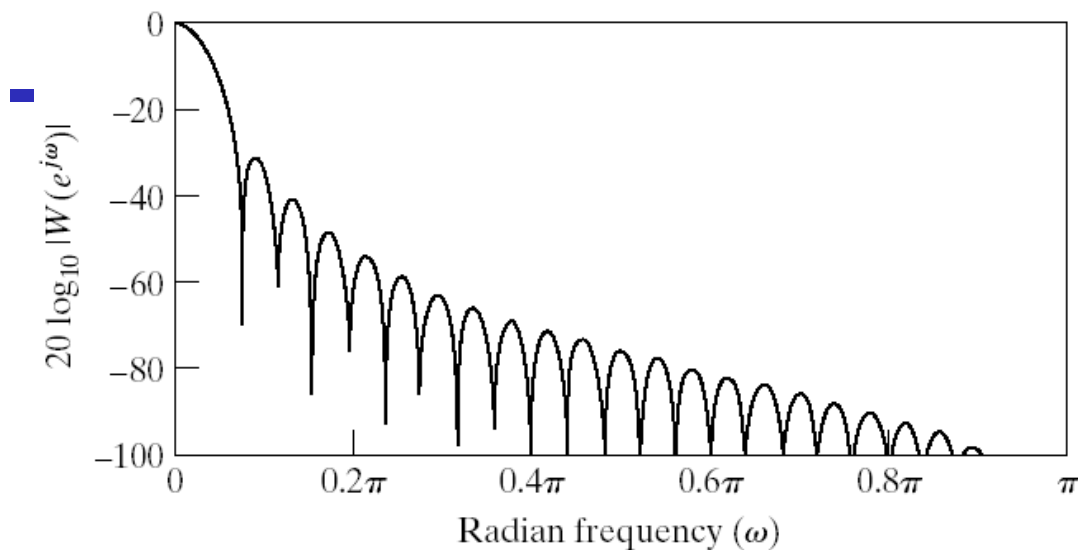




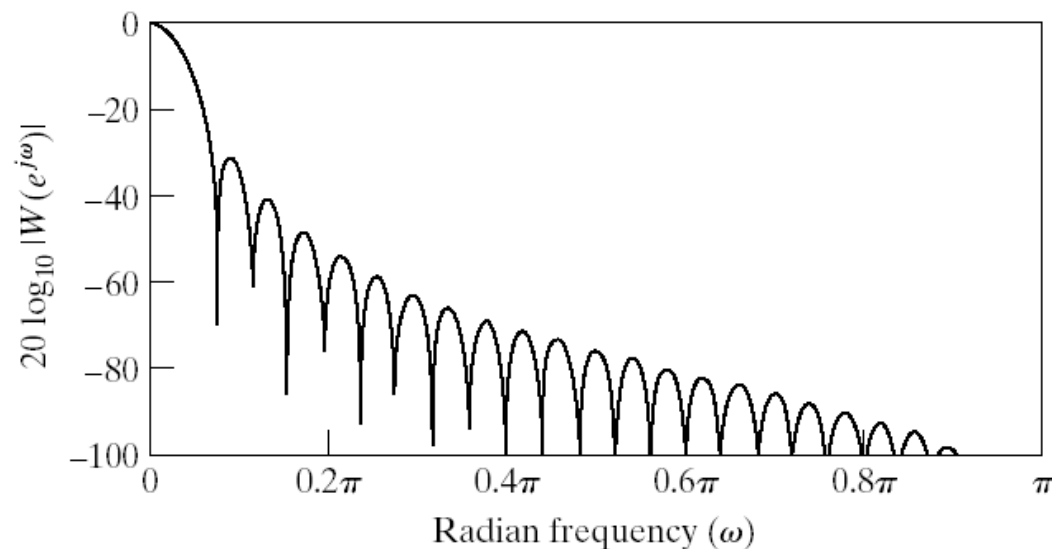
### Rectangular window



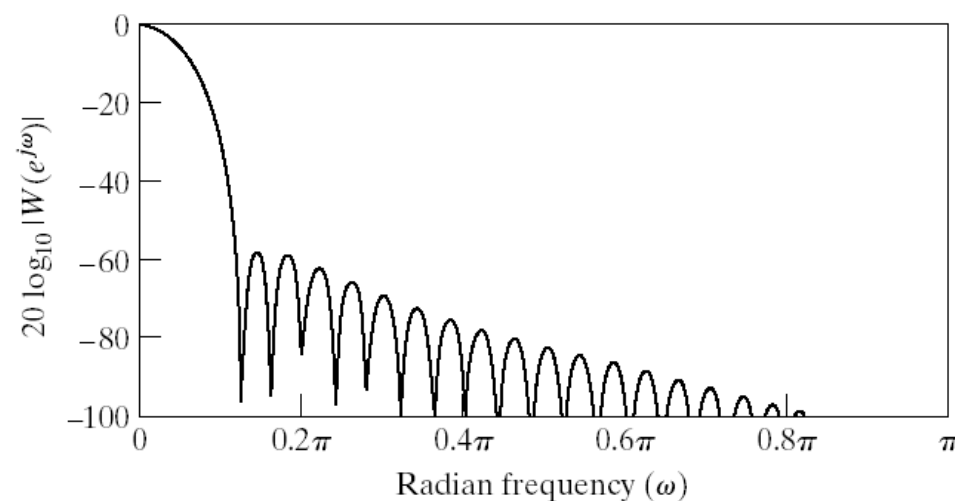
### Bartlett window



### Hanning window

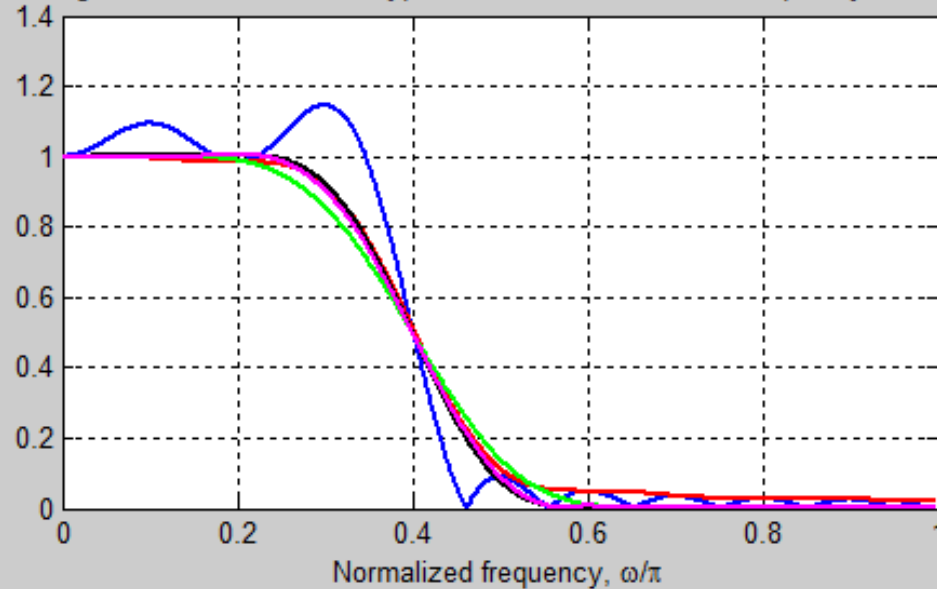


### Blackman window

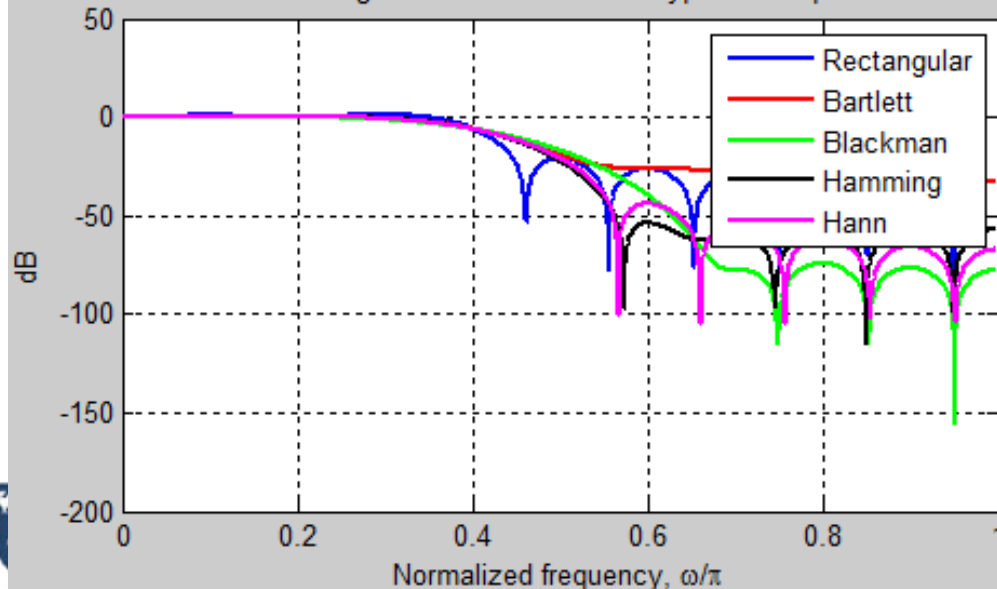


# *A LPF using the commonly used windows*

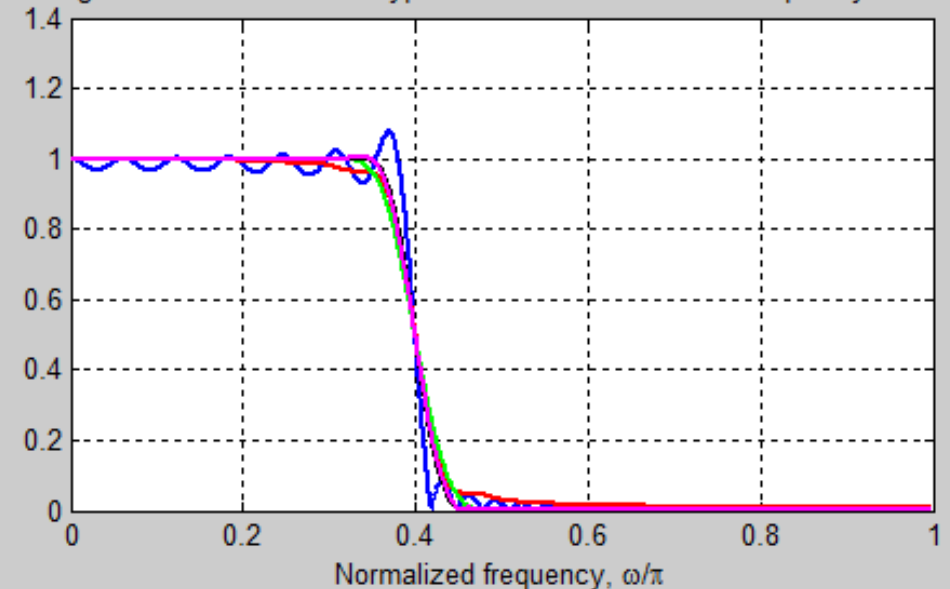
LPF design with different window types. Filter order: 20 Cutoff frequency:  $0.4\pi$  radians



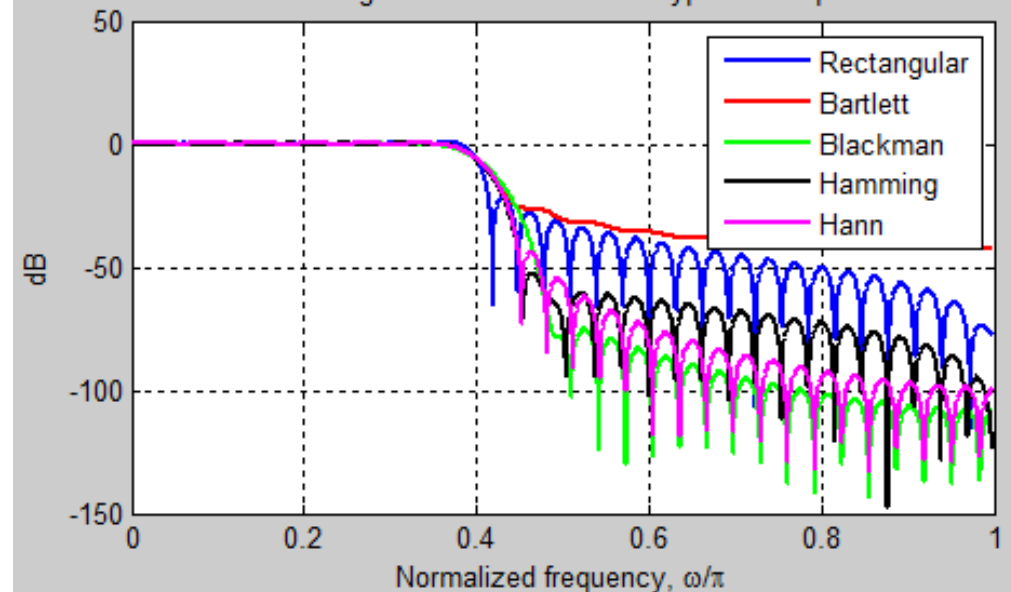
LPF design with different window types -Gain plots



LPF design with different window types. Filter order: 64 Cutoff frequency:  $0.4\pi$  radians



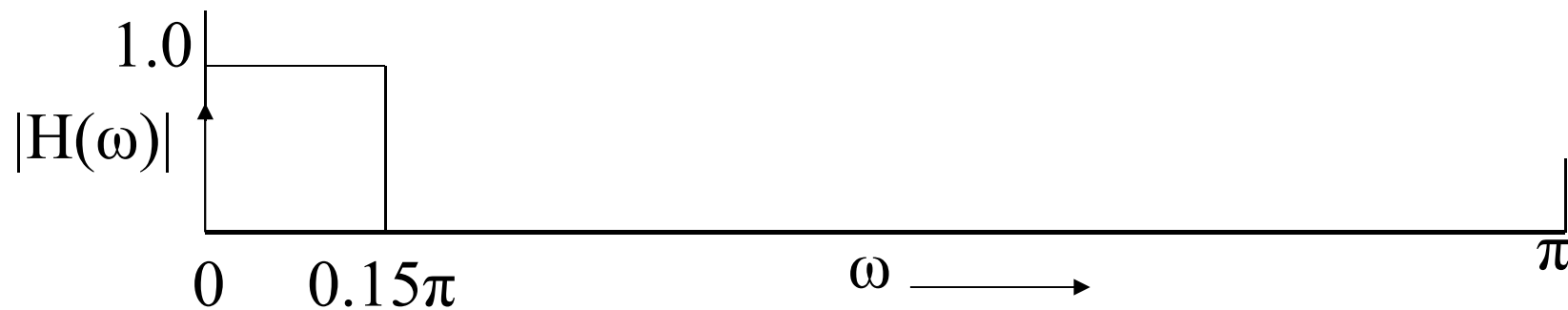
LPF design with different window types -Gain plots



## Example - Windowed Filter Design

- Design a 25-point low pass filter with cut-off at 600 Hz for a sampling rate of 8000 Hz. Stop band ripples to be less than -40 dB.
- Solve:
  - A Hamming Window will meet this specification.
  - First calculate  $\omega_c$  in radians/sample:

$$\omega_c = \frac{600}{4000} \pi = 0.15\pi$$



## Example - Windowed Filter Design (cont.)

- Step 1: Find unwindowed impulse response:

$$h_d[n] = \frac{\omega_c}{\pi} \text{sinc}(n\omega_c) = \frac{1}{n\pi} \sin(0.15n\pi)$$

- Step 2: Find window samples for  $-12 \leq n \leq 12$ :

$$w[n] = 0.54 + 0.46 \cos \frac{2n\pi}{24} = 0.54 + 0.46 \cos \frac{n\pi}{12}$$

- Step 3: Apply window (multiply in TD):

$$h_w[n] = \frac{1}{n\pi} \sin(0.15n\pi) \left[ 0.54 + 0.46 \cos \frac{n\pi}{12} \right]$$

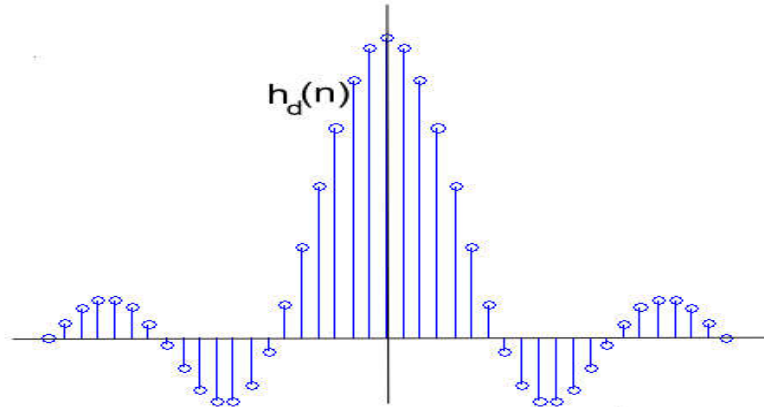
- Step 4: Make causal (shift to right):

$$h[n] = h_w[n - 12] \quad n = 0, 2, 3, \dots, 24.$$

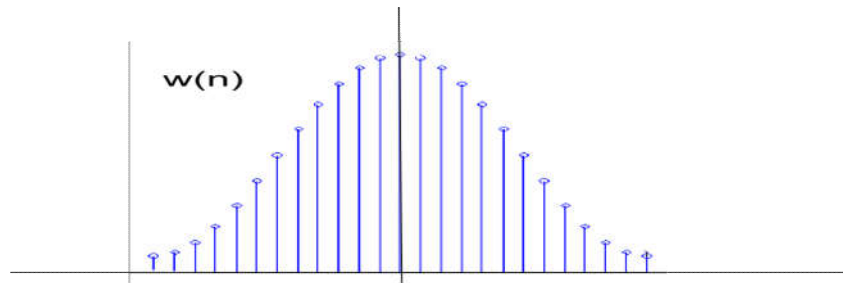


# Example - Windowed Filter Design (cont.)

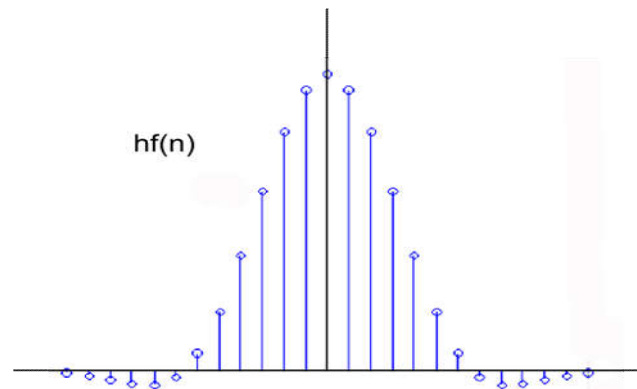
- Unwindowed



- Window

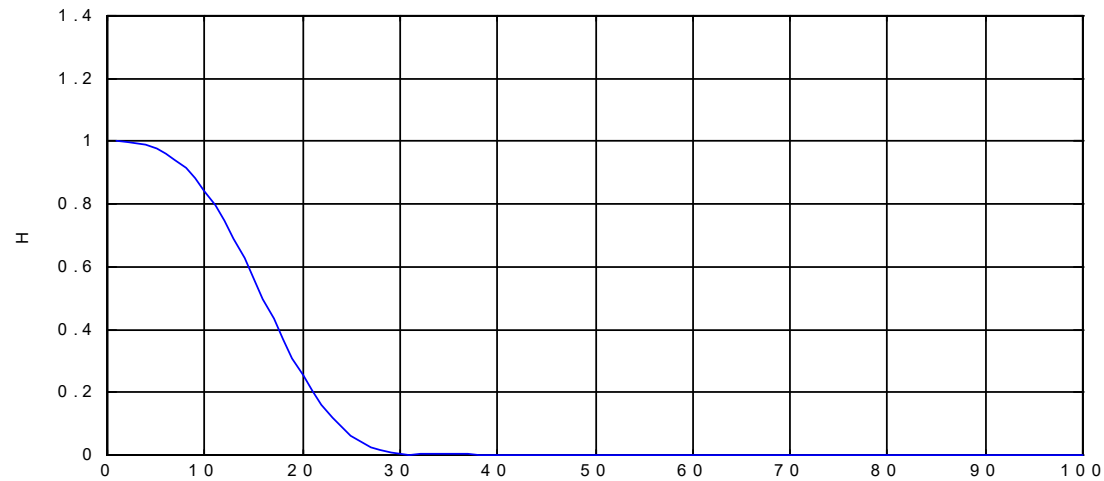


- Final tap weights  
(before time-shifting)

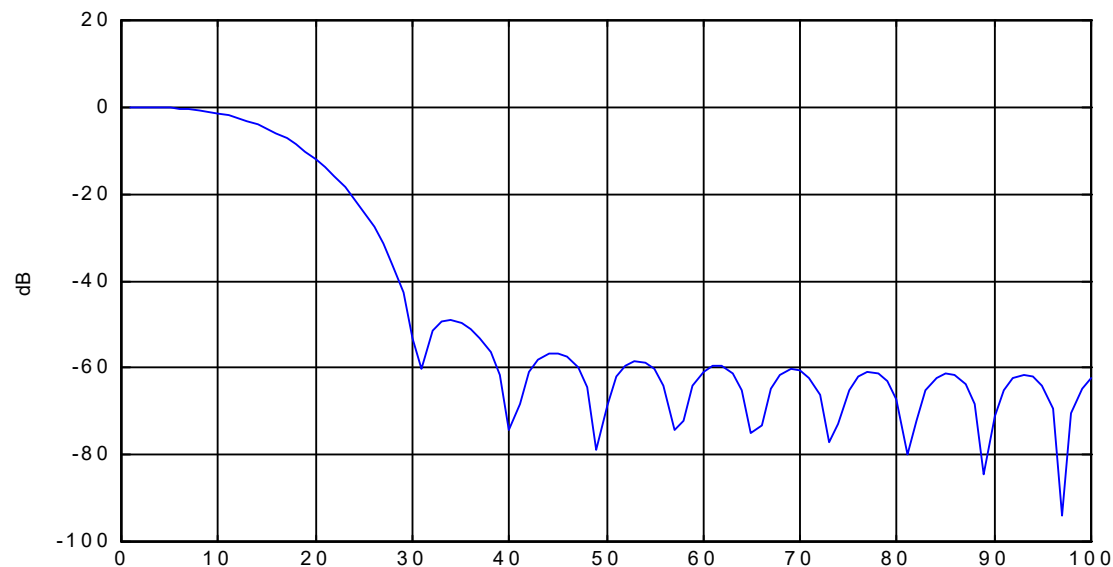


# Example - Windowed Filter Design (cont.)

- Gain

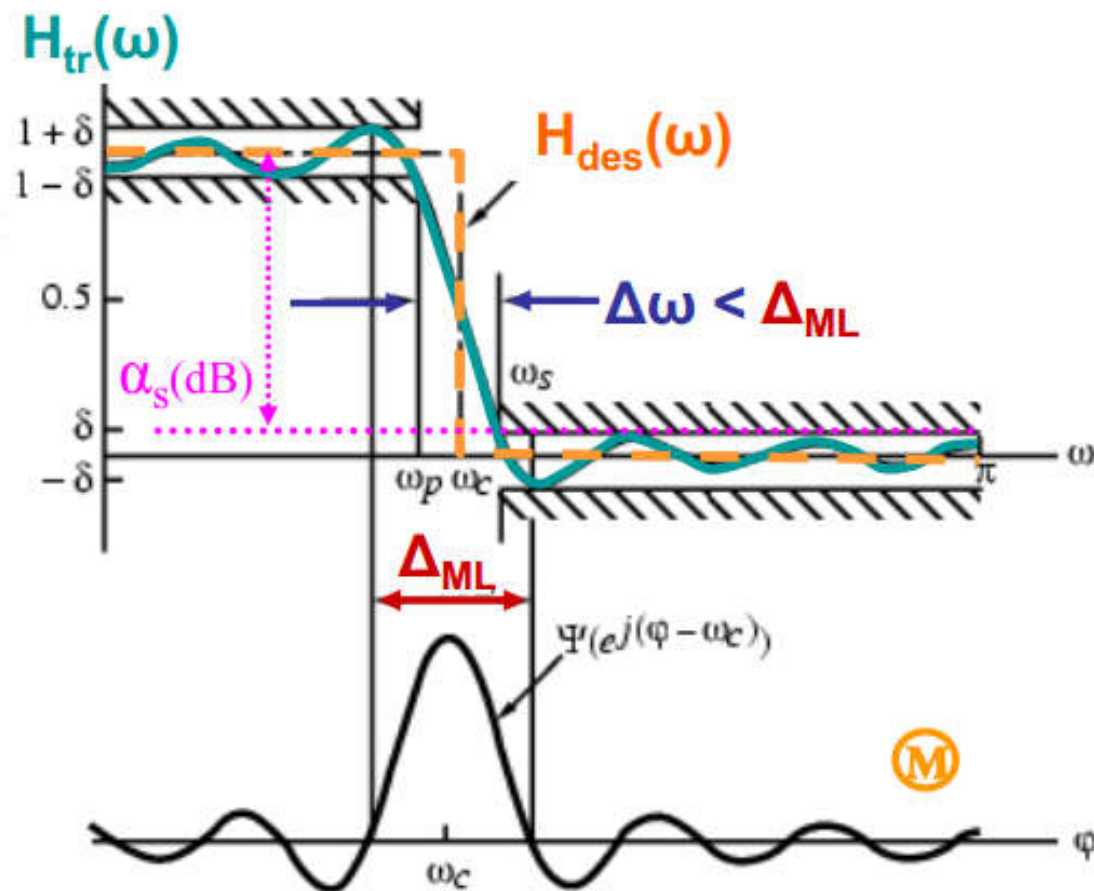


- dB Gain



# Fixed window functions

- All windows shown so far are *fixed window* functions
  - Magnitude spectrum of each window characterized by a main lobe centered at  $\omega = 0$  followed by a series of sidelobes with decreasing amplitudes
  - Parameters predicting the performance of a window in filter design are:
    - Main lobe width ( $\Delta_{ML}$ ) : the distance b/w nearest zero-crossings on both sides or transition bandwidth ( $\Delta\omega = \omega_s - \omega_p$ )
    - Relative sidelobe level ( $A_{sl}$ ): difference in dB between the amp. of the largest sidelobe and the main lobe (or sidelobe attenuation ( $\alpha_s$ ) )
  - For a given window, both parameters are completely determined once the filter order  $M$  is set.





# Fixed window functions

- For these windows, the value of ripples does not depend on filter length or cut-off frequency  $\omega_c$ , and is essentially constant.
- In addition  $\Delta\omega = c/M$ , where  $c$  is a constant for most practical purposes.

	$\Delta_{ML}$	$\Delta_M = C/M$	$A_{sl}(dB)$	$\alpha_s(dB)$
Rectangular	$4\pi/(2M+1)$	$0.92\pi$	13.3	20.9
Hanning	$8\pi/(2M+1)$	$3.11\pi$	31.5	43.9
Hamming	$8\pi/(2M+1)$	$3.32\pi$	42.7	54.5
Blackman	$12\pi/(2M+1)$	$5.56\pi$	58.1	75.3



# Example

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- Design a lowpass filter with  $\omega_p = 0.3\pi$ ,  $\omega_s = 0.5\pi$  and  $\alpha_s = 40dB$ .
  - Determine which type of window is desired, and the length of it.

# Fixed window functions

---

- How to design:
  - Set  $\omega_c = (\omega_p + \omega_s)/2$
  - Choose window type based on the specified sidelobe attenuation ( $A_{sl}$ ) or minimum stopband attenuation ( $\alpha_s$ )
  - Estimate M according to the transition band width ( $\Delta\omega = c/M$ ) and/or mainlobe width ( $\Delta_{ML}$ ).
    - Note that this is the only parameter that can be adjusted for fixed window functions. Once a window type and M is selected, so are  $A_{sl}$ ,  $\alpha_s$ , and  $\Delta_{ML}$
    - Ripple amplitudes cannot be custom designed.
  - Adjustable windows have a parameter that can be varied to trade-off between main-lobe width and side-lobe attenuation.
    - Such as : Kaiser window, Dolph-Chebyshev window, etc.

# Complete design procedure:

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- Depending on your specs, determine what kind of window you would like to use.
  - For fixed windows, once you choose the window, the only other parameter to choose is filter length  $M$ ;
- Compute the window coefficients  $w[n]$  for the chosen window.
- Compute filter coefficients (taps)
  - Determine the ideal impulse response  $h_I[n]$  from the given equations for the type of magnitude response you need (lowpass, highpass, etc.)
  - Multiply window and ideal filter coefficients to obtain the realizable filter coefficients (also called **taps** or **weights**):  $h[n]=h_I[n].w[n]$

# FIR or IIR

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- For FIR filters, the transfer function is a polynomial in  $z^{-1}$ , so the stability is always guaranteed.
- Advantages of FIR filters:
  - Can be designed with exact linear phase
  - Filter structure always stable with quantized coefficients
  - The filter startup transients have finite duration
- Disadvantages of FIR filters
  - Order of an FIR filter is usually much higher than the order of an equivalent IIR filter meeting the same specifications -> higher computational complexity

## 14\_3 Wrap up

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- Design an FIR LPF Filter using window method:
  - Step 1: determine your filter spec (in digital domain);
  - Step 2: design the ideal (desired) filter
    - According to the spec in FD:  $H_d(\omega)$
    - Convert to TD:  $h_d[n]$  (infinitely long and noncausal)
  - Step 3: design the window  $w[n]$  to make the ideal filter practical
    - Choose window type (based on the specified sidelobe attenuation ( $A_{sl}$ ) or minimum stopband attenuation ( $\alpha_s$ ));
    - Estimate the window order / length  $2M+1$  (according to the transition band width ( $\Delta\omega = c/M$ ) and/or mainlobe width ( $\Delta_{ML}$ ))
  - Step 4: multiply the window function and desired filter in TD:
$$h_w[n] = h_d[n] \cdot w[n]$$
  - Step 5: shift it to right by  $M$ 
$$h[n] = h_w[n - M], \quad \text{for } n = 0, 1, \dots, 2M$$

# Chapter 14 Summary

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- Simple FIR filters:
  - 1<sup>st</sup> order LP and HP filters;
  - High order (cascaded 1<sup>st</sup> order) system
- Specification of practical filters:
  - Transition band width
  - Ripples in passband and stopband
- Window method:
  - Truncation = rectangular window
    - Gibb's phenomenon
  - Other windows
    - How to design a LPF/HPF based on window method?