# Chapter 7 Discrete time signal Description 

*comparison with continuous description
7.1 discrete time signals

Come from:
<1> measurable discrete quantities;
example: population
example: electrical quantities

### 7.2 Typical discrete signal sequences*

a) Unit impulse (Kroneck Delta*) sequences

$$
\delta\left(k-k_{0}\right)= \begin{cases}1 & k=k_{0} \\ 0 & k \neq k_{0}\end{cases}
$$

Note: not a singular function!
b) Unit step sequence

$$
u\left(k-k_{0}\right)= \begin{cases}1 & k>k_{0} \\ 0 & k<k_{0} \\ \begin{cases}1 & k=k_{0} \\ \frac{1}{2} & k\end{cases} \end{cases}
$$

Relation with unit impulse*

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \delta(k)=u(k)-u(k-1) \\
& u(k)=\sum_{n=-\infty}^{k} \delta(n)
\end{aligned}
$$


c) Unit ramp sequence

$$
r(k)= \begin{cases}k & k \geq 0 \\ 0 & k<0\end{cases}
$$

d) Unit alternating

$$
\mathrm{u}_{ \pm}(k)= \begin{cases}(-1)^{k} & k \geq 0 \\ 0 & k<0\end{cases}
$$

e) Unit exponential

$$
e^{\lambda k} u(k)
$$


f) Unit sinusoid

$$
\cos \Omega k
$$

g) Complex exponential

$$
e^{j \Omega k}=\cos \Omega k+j \sin \Omega k
$$



Is a discrete sinusoid or complex exponential periodic?
Not necessarily.

### 7.3 Discrete Periodic Signals

$$
f(k+N)=f(k)
$$

$<1>\quad$ For all k
$<2>\quad$ Period N is the smallest number for which signal repeats!

Now look at $e^{j \Omega_{0}}$

$$
e^{j \Omega_{0}(k+N)=} e^{j \Omega_{0} k} e^{j \Omega_{0} N}=e^{j \Omega_{0} k}(\text { if periodic })
$$

Then $e^{j \Omega_{0} N}=1 \Rightarrow \Omega_{0} N=2 \pi n$

$$
\Omega_{0}=\frac{n}{T} 2 \pi \quad \frac{\Omega_{0}}{2 \pi}=\frac{n}{N}
$$

The normalized frequency must be rational for the periodicity of discrete signals.
Distinct value of $\Omega_{0}$ does not always produce periodic signals!

## DISCRETE-TIME PERIODIC SIGNALS

A discrete-time signal $f(\mathrm{k}), \mathrm{k}=0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \ldots$ is said to be periodic with period P , where P is a positive integer, if

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(k)=f(k+P) \tag{7.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all integers k in $(-\infty, \infty)$. If (7.2) holds, then

$$
f(k)=f(k+P)=f(k+2 P)=\cdots=f(k+m P)
$$

for any k and every positive integer m . Thus if $f(\mathrm{k})$ is periodic with period P , it is periodic with period $2 \mathrm{P}, 3 \mathrm{P}, \ldots$ The smallest such P is called the fundamental period. Unless stated otherwise, the period will refer to the fundamental period. The fundamental frequency is defined as $2 \pi / \mathrm{P}$.

Before proceeding, we discuss some differences between sinusoidal functions and sinusoidal sequences. In the continuous-time case, $\sin \omega t$ is periodic for every $\omega$. In the discrete-time case, however, $\sin \omega k$ may not be periodic for every $\omega$. The condition for $\sin \omega k$ to be periodic is that there exists a positive P such that

$$
\sin \omega k=\sin \omega(k+P)=\sin (\omega k+\omega P)
$$

for all k. this holds if and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
\omega P=2 \pi m \text { or } \frac{\omega}{\pi}=\frac{2 m}{P} \tag{7.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

for some integer $m$. Thus $\sin \omega k$ is periodic if and only if $\omega / \pi$ is a rational number.
In other words, $\sin \omega k$ is periodic if and only if there exists an integer m such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
P=\frac{2 m \omega}{\omega} \tag{7.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

is a positive integer. The smallest such $P$ is the fundamental period of $\sin \omega k$. For example, $\sin 2 k$ is not periodic because $\frac{2}{\pi}$ is not a rational number. In this case, there exists no integer m in $\mathrm{P}=\frac{2 m \pi}{\omega}$ such that P is integer. The sequence $\sin 0.01 \pi k$ is periodic because $\frac{\omega}{\pi}=\frac{0.01 \pi}{\pi}=\frac{1}{100}$ is a rational number. Its period is $\mathrm{P}=\frac{2 m \pi}{\omega}=\frac{2 m \pi}{0.01 \pi}=$ $200 m=200$ by choosing $m=1$. The sequence $\sin 3 \pi \mathrm{k}$ is periodic with period $\mathrm{P}=\frac{2 m \pi}{3 \pi}=\frac{2 m \pi}{3}=2$ by choosing $m=3$.

Consider $\sin 3.2 \pi k$. It can be simplified as

$$
\sin 3.2 \pi k=\sin (2 \pi+1.2 \pi) k=\sin 2 \pi k \cos 1.2 \pi k+\cos 2 \pi k \sin 1.2 \pi k=\sin 1.2 \pi k
$$

where we have used the fact that $\sin 2 \pi k=0$ and $\cos 2 \pi k=1$ for every integer $k$. This implies that when we are given $\sin \omega \mathrm{k}$, we can always reduce $\omega$ to the range $[0,2 \pi)$ by subtracting or adding $2 \pi$ or its multiple. Thus in the discrete-time case, we have

$$
\sin 6.2 \pi k=\sin 0.2 \pi k \text { and } \cos (-2.4 \pi k)=\cos 1.6 \pi k
$$

for all integer k. In the continuous-time case, $\sin 6.2 \pi t$ and $\sin 0.2 \pi t$ are two different functions.
In the continuous-time case, the fundamental frequency of $\sin \omega t$ and $\cos \omega t$ is $\omega$ in radians per second. In view of (7.4), the fundamental frequency of $\sin \omega \mathrm{k}$ and $\cos \omega \mathrm{k}$ may not be equal to $\omega$. To better see the relationship between the fundamental frequency and $\omega$, we plot in Fig. $7.1 \cos \omega \mathrm{k}$ and $\cos 1.9 \pi \mathrm{k}$. The sequence $\cos \pi \mathrm{k}$ has period $\mathrm{P}=2$ and fundamental frequency $\frac{2 \pi}{P}=\pi$. In order to find the period of $\cos 1.9 \pi k$, we compute

$$
P=\frac{2 m \pi}{1.9 \pi}=\frac{2 m}{1.9}
$$

The smallest integer $m$ to make $P$ an integer is 19 . Thus the period of $\cos 1.9 \pi k$ is $P=2 \bullet \frac{19}{1.9}=20$, and the fundamental frequency is $2 \pi / 20=0.1 \pi$. We see that this fundamental frequency is smaller than the one of $\cos \pi \mathrm{k}$, thus $\cos \pi \mathrm{k}$ changes more rapidly than $\cos 1.9 \pi \mathrm{k}$ as shown in Fig 7.1. Thus in the discrete-time case, $\cos \omega_{1} \mathrm{k}$ may
not have a higher fundamental frequency than that of $\cos \omega_{2} k$ even if $\omega_{1}>\omega_{2}$. This phenomenon does not exist in the continuous-time case. In conclusion, the fundamental frequency of $\cos \omega \mathrm{k}$ is not necessarily equal to $\omega$ as in the continuous-time case. To compute its fundamental frequency, we must use (7.3) to compute its fundamental period $P$. then the fundamental frequency is equal to $2 \pi / P$.


Figure 7-1

### 7.4 Basic operations

a) Time-reversal

$$
y(k)=x(-k)
$$

b) Time-scaling

$$
y(k)=x(a k)
$$

Note:
$\triangleleft a$ has to be integer!
$\diamond$ Time-reversal $a=-1$

$$
y(k)=x(k-n)
$$

$\diamond \mathrm{n}$ has to be integer!
d) Combinations

$$
y(k)=x(m-k)
$$

## 7.5 symmetry

$$
\text { Even if } f(k)=f(-k)
$$

$$
\text { Odd if } f(k)=-f(-k)
$$

A signal does not have to be even or odd!

$$
\text { An arbitrary signal } f(k)=f_{e}(k)+f_{0}(k)
$$

$$
\text { Where } f_{e}(k)=\frac{f(k)+f(-k)}{2} \quad f_{o}(k)=\frac{f(k)-f(-k)}{2}
$$



Figure 7.2 odd and even components

### 7.6 Representation by orthonormal functions

-Signals are often represented in terms of basis functions
-Basis functions are often chosen to be orthonormal
-Basis vectors
*Choose $\left\{\underline{a_{1}}, \underline{a_{2}}, \underline{a_{3}}\right\}$ to be basis vectors.
*Project rector F on basis vector, projection coefficients or weights are $\left\{\underline{F_{1}}, \underline{F_{2}}, \underline{F_{3}}\right\}$

$$
\begin{equation*}
F=\sum_{i=1}^{3} F_{i} \underline{a_{i}} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\text { orthogonality } \quad \underline{a_{i}} \bullet \underline{a_{j}}= \begin{cases}c, & i=j \\ 0, & i \neq j\end{cases}
$$

$$
\text { normality } \quad \underline{a_{i}} \bullet \underline{a_{j}}=1
$$

orthonormality $\underline{a_{i}} \bullet \underline{a_{j}}= \begin{cases}1, & i=j \\ 0, & i \neq j\end{cases}$


## Projection

$$
\begin{align*}
& F_{i}=F \cdot \underline{a_{i}}  \tag{2}\\
& \qquad \text { If }\left|F-\sum_{i=1}^{3} F_{i} \underline{a_{i}}\right|=0
\end{align*}
$$

Then

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
<\mathrm{i}> & \text { F can be represented by }\left\{\underline{a_{i}}\right\} \\
<\text { ii }> & \left\{\underline{a_{i}}\right\} \text { are complete } \\
<\text { iii }> & \text { F is in the span of }\left\{\underline{a_{i}}\right\}
\end{array}
$$

(1) and (2) are similar to Fourier Series Expansion.

Basis functions $\left\{\varphi_{i}(k)\right\}$

$$
f(k)=\sum_{i=1}^{K} c_{i} \varphi_{i}(k)
$$

Inner Product

Condition:

$$
f(k)-\text { square summable } \Leftrightarrow \sum_{k}|f(k)|, \sum_{k}|f(k)| \text { finite }
$$

Orthonormal functions:

$$
\sum_{k} \varphi_{i}(k) \varphi_{j}^{*}(k)= \begin{cases}\left\|\varphi_{i}\right\|^{2}=1 & i=j \\ 0 & i \neq j\end{cases}
$$

Look at

$$
\sum_{k} f(k) \varphi_{j}^{*}(k)=\sum_{k} \sum_{i} c_{i} \varphi_{i}(k) \varphi_{j}^{*}(k)=\sum_{i} c_{i} \sum_{k} \varphi_{i}(k) \varphi_{j}^{*}(k)=c_{j}
$$

## Walsh

## Function



Figure 7-3 Walsh Functions

Examples
$-\cos k \frac{2 \pi}{N}$
$k \in(0, N-1)$
$-e^{j k \frac{2 \pi}{N}}$
$k \in(0, N-1)$

- Walsh Function

$$
\frac{1}{8}\left[\begin{array}{cccccccc}
1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\
1 & 1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 & 1 & 1 \\
1 & 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\
1 & -1 & -1 & 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 \\
1-1 & -1 & 1 & -1 & 1 & 1 & -1 \\
1-1 & 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 & -1 & 1 \\
1 & -1 & 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 & 1 & -1
\end{array}\right]
$$

- Weighted orthonormal function

$$
\sum_{k} \omega(k) \Phi_{i}(k) \Phi_{j}(k)= \begin{cases}1 & i=j \\ 0 & i \neq j\end{cases}
$$

Basis function can be chosen as

$$
\varphi_{i}(k)=\sqrt{\omega(k)} \Phi_{i}(k)
$$

