Chapter 7 Discrete time signal Description

*comparison with continuous description

7.1 discrete time signals

Come from:

<1> measurable discrete quantities; example: population
<2> sampled continuous quantities; example: electrical quantities

7.2 Typical discrete signal sequences*

a) Unit impulse (Kroneck Delta*) sequences

$$\delta(k-k_0) = \begin{cases} 1 & k = k_0 \\ 0 & k \neq k_0 \end{cases}$$

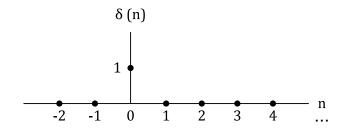
Note: not a singular function!

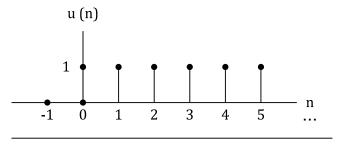
b) Unit step sequence

$$u(k - k_0) = \begin{cases} 1 & k > k_0 \\ 0 & k < k_0 \\ \begin{cases} 1 \\ \frac{1}{2} & k = k_0 \\ 0 \end{cases}$$

Relation with unit impulse*

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





c) Unit ramp sequence

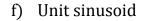
$$r(k) = \begin{cases} k & k \ge 0\\ 0 & k < 0 \end{cases}$$

d) Unit alternating

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

e) Unit exponential

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

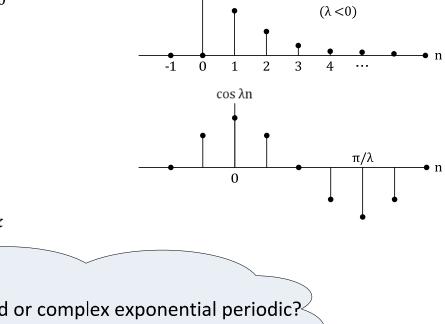


 $\cos \Omega k$

g) Complex exponential

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

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



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

7.3 Discrete Periodic Signals

 $\underline{f(k+N)} = \underline{f(k)}$

<1> For all k

<2> Period N is the smallest number for which signal repeats!

Now look at $e^{j\Omega_0}$

$$e^{j\Omega_0(k+N)} = e^{j\Omega_0 k} e^{j\Omega_0 N} = e^{j\Omega_0 k} (if \ periodic)$$

Then $e^{j\Omega_0 N} = 1 \Rightarrow \Omega_0 N = 2\pi n$

$$\Omega_0 = \frac{n}{T} 2\pi \qquad \frac{\Omega_0}{2\pi} = \frac{n}{N}$$

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(k), $k = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, ...$ is said to be periodic with period P, where P is a positive integer, if

$$f(k) = f(k+P) \tag{7.1}$$

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

$$f(k) = f(k+P) = f(k+2P) = \dots = f(k+mP)$$

for any k and every positive integer m. Thus if f(k) is periodic with period P, it is periodic with period 2P, 3P, ... 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 $2\pi/P$.

Before proceeding, we discuss some differences between sinusoidal functions and sinusoidal sequences. In the continuous-time case, $\sin \omega t$ is periodic for every ω . In the discrete-time case, however, $\sin \omega k$ may not be periodic for every ω . 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

$$\omega P = 2\pi m \quad or \quad \frac{\omega}{\pi} = \frac{2m}{P} \tag{7.2}$$

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

$$P = \frac{2m\omega}{\omega} \tag{7.3}$$

is a positive integer. The smallest such P is the fundamental period of sin ω k. For example, sin 2k is not periodic because $\frac{2}{\pi}$ is not a rational number. In this case, there exists no integer m in $P = \frac{2m\pi}{\omega}$ 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 $P = \frac{2m\pi}{\omega} = \frac{2m\pi}{0.01\pi} =$ 200m = 200 by choosing m = 1. The sequence sin $3\pi k$ is periodic with period $P = \frac{2m\pi}{3\pi} = \frac{2m\pi}{3} = 2$ 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 $\sin \omega k$, we can always reduce ω to the range $[0,2\pi)$ by subtracting or adding 2π or its multiple. Thus in the discrete-time case, we have

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

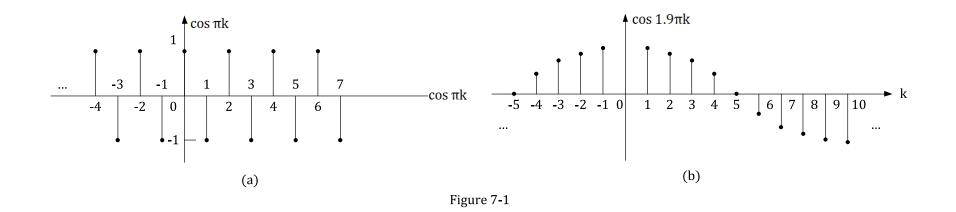
for all integer k. In the continuous-time case, $\sin 6.2\pi t$ and $\sin 0.2\pi t$ are two different functions.

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

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

The smallest integer m to make P an integer is 19. Thus the period of $\cos 1.9\pi k$ is $P = 2 \cdot \frac{19}{1.9} = 20$, and the fundamental frequency is $2\pi/20 = 0.1\pi$. We see that this fundamental frequency is smaller than the one of $\cos \pi k$, thus $\cos \pi k$ changes more rapidly than $\cos 1.9\pi k$ as shown in Fig 7.1. Thus in the discrete-time case, $\cos \omega_1 k$ 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 $\cos \omega k$ is not necessarily equal to ω 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 $2\pi/P$.



7.4 Basic operations

a) Time-reversal
$$y(k) = x(-k)$$

b) Time-scaling
$$y(k) = x(ak)$$

Note:

 \diamond a has to be integer!

♦ Time-reversal a = -1

c) Time-delay y(k) = x(k-n)

 \diamond n has to be integer!

d) Combinations y(k) = x(m-k)

7.5 symmetry

Even if f(k) = f(-k)

Odd if
$$f(k) = -f(-k)$$

A signal does not have to be even or odd!

An arbitrary signal $f(k) = f_e(k) + f_0(k)$

Where
$$f_e(k) = \frac{f(k) + f(-k)}{2}$$
 $f_0(k) = \frac{f(k) - f(-k)}{2}$

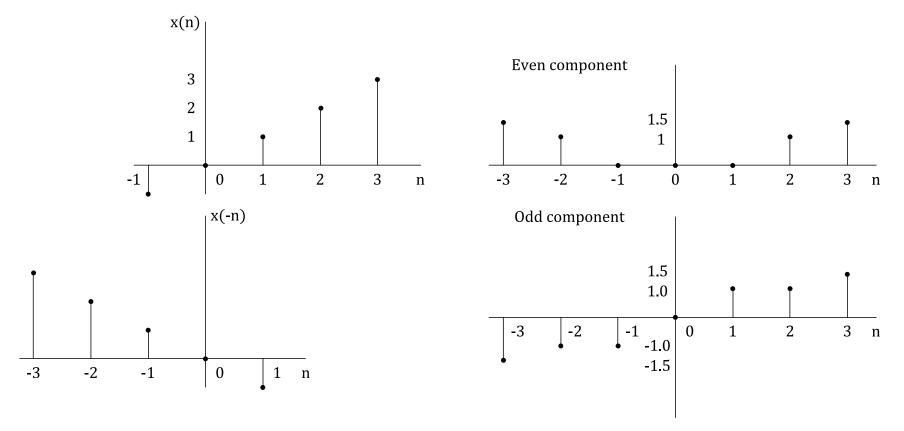


Figure 7.2 odd and even components

7.6 Representation by orthonormal functions

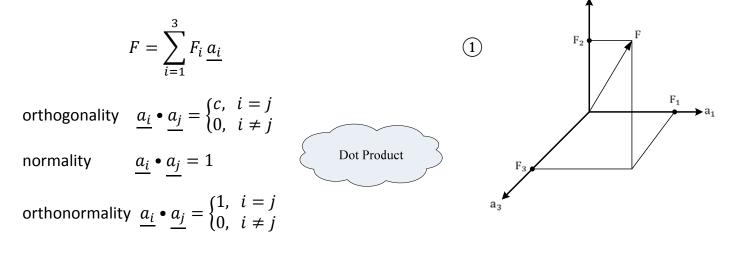
-Signals are often represented in terms of basis functions

-Basis functions are often chosen to be orthonormal

-Basis vectors

*Choose $\{\underline{a_1}, \underline{a_2}, \underline{a_3}\}$ to be basis vectors.

*Project rector F on basis vector, projection coefficients or weights are $\{\underline{F_1}, \underline{F_2}, \underline{F_3}\}$



Projection

$$F_{i} = F \bullet \underline{a_{i}}$$

$$If \left| F - \sum_{i=1}^{3} F_{i} \underline{a_{i}} \right| = 0$$
(2)

Then

F can be represented by
$$\{\underline{a_i}\}$$
 $$ $\{\underline{a_i}\}$ are complete $$ F is in the span of $\{\underline{a_i}\}$

1 and 2 are similar to Fourier Series Expansion.

Basis functions $\{\varphi_i(k)\}$

$$f(k) = \sum_{i=1}^{K} c_i \varphi_i(k)$$

Inner Product

Condition:

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

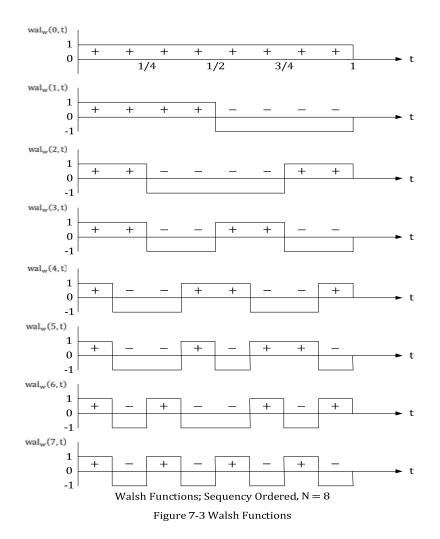
Orthonormal functions:

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

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



Examples

$$-\cos k \frac{2\pi}{N}$$

$$-e^{jk\frac{2\pi}{N}}$$

$$k \in (0, N-1)$$

$$k \in (0, N-1)$$

 $-W eighted \ orthonormal \ function$

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

Basis function can be chosen as

$$\varphi_i(k) = \sqrt{\omega(k)} \Phi_i(k)$$