

## PEI5I103 DIGITAL SIGNAL PROCESSING

### Module-I(10hours)

#### Discrete Time System

Basic Discrete Time Signals and their classifications, Discrete time systems and their classifications, Stability of discrete time system, Analysis and response (convolution sum) of discrete - time linear LTI system, Recursive and Non-recursive discrete time system, Impulse response of LTI system, Correlation of discrete time Signal

#### The Z-Transform and Its Application to the Analysis of LTI Systems:

The Z-Transform: The Direct Z-Transform, The Inverse Z-Transform; Properties of the Z-Transform; Inversion of the Z-Transforms: The Inversion of the Z-Transform by Power Series Expansion, The Inversion of the Z-Transform by Partial-Fraction Expansion; Analysis of Linear Time-Invariant Systems in the z-Domain; Response of Systems with rational System Functions, Transient and Steady-State Responses, Causality and Stability, Pole-Zero Cancellations.

### Module-II (15hours)

#### The Discrete Fourier Transform: Its Properties and Applications

Frequency Domain Sampling; Frequency-Domain Sampling and Reconstruction of Discrete-Time Signals, The Discrete Fourier Transform, The DFT as a Linear Transformation, Relationship of the DFT to other Transforms; Properties of the DFT: Periodicity, Linearity, and Symmetry Properties, Multiplication of Two DFTs and Circular Convolution, Additional DFT Properties; Linear Filtering Methods Based on the DFT: Use of the DFT in Linear Filtering, Filtering of Long Data Sequences; Frequency Analysis of Signals using the DFT; The Discrete Cosine Transform: Forward DCT, Inverse DCT, DCT as an Orthogonal Transform.

#### Efficient Computation of the DFT: Fast Fourier Transform Algorithms

Efficient Computation of the DFT: FFT Algorithms: Direct Computation of the DFT, Radix-2 FFT Algorithms: Decimation-In-Time (DIT), Decimation-In-Frequency (DIF); Applications of FFT Algorithms: Efficient Computation of the DFT of two Real Sequences, Efficient Computation of the DFT of a 2N-Point Real Sequence, Use of the FFT Algorithm in Linear Filtering and Correlation.

(10hours)

### Module-III

#### Structure and implementation of FIR and IIR filter:

Structure for the Realization of Discrete-Time Systems, Structure for FIR Systems: Direct-Form Structure, Cascade-Form Structures, Frequency-Sampling Structures; Structure for IIR Systems: Direct-Form Structures, Signal Flow Graphs and Transposed Structures, Cascade-Form Structures, Parallel-Form Structures.

#### Design of Digital Filters;

General Considerations: Causality and Its Implications, Characteristics of Practical Frequency-Selective Filters; Design of FIR Filters: Symmetric and Antisymmetric FIR Filters, Design of Linear-Phase FIR Filters by using Windows, Design of Linear-Phase FIR Filters by the Frequency-Sampling Method;

Design of IIR Filters from Analog Filters: IIR Filter Design by Impulse Invariance, IIR Filter Design by the Bilinear Transformation.

Basic adaptive filter: System modeling and Identifications using adaptive filter

#### Text Books

1. *Digital Signal Processing – Principles, Algorithms and Applications* by J. G. Proakis and D. G. Manolakis, 4th Edition, Pearson.
2. *Digital Signal Processing – S. Salivahan, A. Vallavraj and C. Gnanapriya, Tata McGrawHill.*
3. *Digital Signal Processing: a Computer-Based Approach – Sanjit K. Mitra, Tata McGraw Hill.*

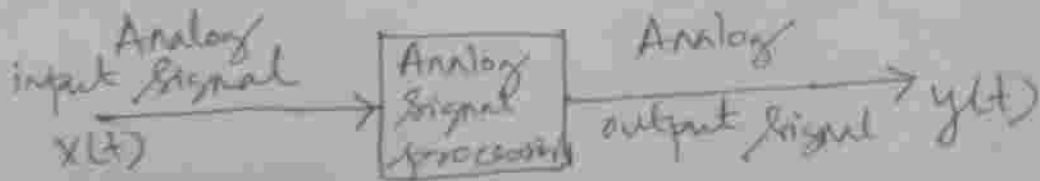
# DSP

Introduction :-

→ A Signal is defined as any physical quantity that varies with time, space, or any other independent variable. Ex -  $x_1(t) = 2t$  and  $x_2(t) = t^2$ .

→ A System is defined as a physical device that performs an operation on a signal.

→ Signal processing is any operation that changes the characteristics of a signal. These characteristics means: the amplitude, shape, phase and frequency content of the signal.



Analog Signal processing System



Digital signal processing.

→ The source of the input signal is from a transducer or a communication signal, the signal be an EEG or an ECG.

→ Input signal is applied to anti-aliasing filter used to remove the high frequency noise and to band limit the signal.

→ The S/H device provides the input to ADC and will be required if the input must remain relatively constant during conversion of the Analog signal to digital format.

### Advantages of DSP

- Greater Accuracy - Analog filter affects the accuracy whereas DSP provides superior control of accuracy.
- Cheaper.
- Ease of data storage.
- Implementation of sophisticated algorithms.
- Flexibility in configuration.
- Application to VLF signals - The very low frequency signals such that occurs in Seismic application can be easily processed using a DSP compared to ASP.
- Time Sharing - DSP allows the sharing of a given processor among a number of signals by time sharing this reducing the cost of processing a signal.

### Limitations

- System complexity - DSP is more complex than ASP because of the devices such as A/D & D/A converters and their associated filters.
- Bandwidth limited by sampling rate.
- Power consumption - DSP chip containing over 400k transistors dissipate more power.

## Application of DSP

(2)

- Telecommunication - Echo cancellation in telephone networks, Telephone dialling applications, Modems, Line repeater, FAX, cellular phone.
- Consumer electronics - FM Stereos, Sound applications, Digital Audio/TV.
- Instrumentation and control - Servo control, Robot control and process control.
- Image processing - Image compression, image enhancement, Image Analysis & Recognition.
- Medicine - CT, x-ray Scanning.
- Speech processing - Speech analysis methods are used in automatic speech recognition, speaker verification and speaker identification.
- Seismology - geophysical exploration for oil and gas, detection of underground nuclear explosion and earthquake monitoring.
- Military - Radar/Sonar signal processing, Navigation, Secure communications.

# Classification of Signals

(a) Continuous-time Signal - A signal that varies continuously with time. It can be represented as  $x(t)$ , where time 't' represents the independent variable. Ex - Sinusoidal signal.

(b) Discrete-time Signal - A signal that has values only at discrete instants of time.  
→ one way obtaining DTS is, sampling a continuous-time signal at regular intervals.

DTS →  $x(nT)$  where  $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots, \infty$  and  $T$  is the time interval between consecutive signal values.

→ DTS is discrete in time but continuous in Amplitude.  
\* DTS (Discrete time signal) is a digital signal which is discrete in both time and Amplitude. It is called digital because their samples are represented by numbers or digits.

## \* Signal Representation

- ① Functional Representation.
- ② Tabular Representation.
- ③ Sequence Representation.

→ An infinite duration sequence with time origin ( $n=0$ ) indicated by the signal ↑ is represented as  
$$x(n) = \{ \dots, 0, 1, 1.5, 2, 0.5, 0, 0, 1, 0, \dots \}$$

↑

A finite duration sequence can be represented

$$x(n) = \{-2, -1, 2, 1, 3, 5\}$$

→ A finite duration sequence that satisfies the condition  $x(n) = 0$  for  $n < 0$  can be represented

$$x(n) = \{0, 2, 4, 2\}$$

### Standard Discrete-time Signals

① Unit Sample Sequence

② Unit Step Sequence

③ Unit Ramp

$$\delta(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } n=0 \\ 0 & \text{for } n \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

$$u(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } n \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{for } n < 0 \end{cases}$$

$$r(n) = \begin{cases} n & \text{for } n \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{for } n < 0 \end{cases}$$

### Exponential Sequence

$$x(n) = a^n \text{ for all } n$$

## Periodic and Aperiodic Signals (4)

(For Both continuous and Discrete time signal)

→ For Discrete time signal, the condition for periodicity can be written as

$$x(n+N_0) = x(n) \quad -b < n < b$$

where  $N_0$  is the sampling period measured in units of number of sample

\* Periodic signals can be represented in general

$$x_p(t) = \sum_{i=-b}^b x(t - iT_0)$$

$$\text{where } x(t) = \begin{cases} x(t), & t_1 \leq t < t_1 + T_0 \\ 0, & \text{else where.} \end{cases}$$

$$x_p(n) = \left[ \sum_{i=-b}^b x(n - iN_0), T \right]$$

$$\text{where } x_0(n) = \begin{cases} x(n), & n_1 \leq n < (n_1 + N_0) \\ 0, & \text{else where.} \end{cases}$$

→ The sum of two or more periodic continuous time signals need not be periodic. They will be periodic if and only if the <sup>ratio</sup> of their fundamental periods is rational.

→ To determine whether the sum of two or more periodic signals is periodic or not, the steps are given below.

Step-I Determine the fundamental period of the individual signals in the sum signal.

Step-II Find the ratio of the fundamental period of the first signal with the fundamental period of every other signal.

Step-III If all these ratios are rational, then the sum signal is also periodic.

\* In DTS, the sum of a no. of periodic signals is always periodic because the ratio of individual periods is always the ratio of integers, which is rational.

Ex - 1-1 (from Salibahan)

### Even and odd Signals

→ If a signal exhibits symmetry in the time domain, it is called an even signal.

\* The signal must be identical to its reflection about the origin.

ex - cosine → For CTS →  $x(t) = x(-t)$   
for DTS →  $x(n) = x(-n)$ .

→ An odd signal exhibits anti-symmetry.  
\* The signal is not identical to its reflection about the origin, but to its negative.

ex -  $x(t) = \sin t$  → For CTS →  $x(t) = -x(-t)$   
For DTS →  $x(n) = -x(-n)$ .



(5)

A Signal can be expressed as a sum of two components, such as even component and odd component of the signal.

$$x(t) = x_{\text{even}}(t) + x_{\text{odd}}(t)$$

where

$$x_{\text{even}}(t) = \frac{1}{2} [x(t) + x(-t)]$$

$$x_{\text{odd}}(t) = \frac{1}{2} [x(t) - x(-t)]$$

### Energy & Power Signals

→ For DTS  $x(n)$ , the energy  $E$  is defined as

$$E = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |x(n)|^2$$

→ The average power of a discrete time signal  $x(n)$  is defined

$$P = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2N+1} \sum_{n=-N}^N |x(n)|^2$$

Ex-1.1 (from Ramesh Babu)

$$x(n) = \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^n u(n)$$

$$\text{Energy } E = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |x(n)|^2$$

$$E = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left[ \left( \frac{1}{3} \right)^n \right]^2 \quad \therefore u(n) = 1 \text{ for } n \geq 0$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left( \frac{1}{9} \right)^n \quad \left[ 1 + a + a^2 + \dots = \frac{1}{1-a} \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{9}} = 9/8$$

Power (Avg)  $P = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2N+1} \sum_{n=-N}^N |x(n)|^2$

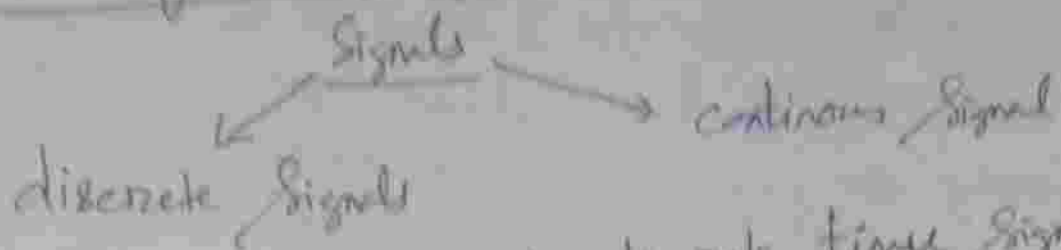
$$= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2N+1} \sum_{n=0}^N \left( \frac{1}{9} \right)^n$$

$$= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2N+1} \left[ \frac{1 - \left( \frac{1}{9} \right)^{N+1}}{1 - \frac{1}{9}} \right]$$

$$= 0$$

\* If Energy Signal 'E' is finite, then  $P_{av} = 0$   
 → If 'E' is infinite, then the Power may be either finite or infinite.

# Classifications of Systems (6)



- Both continuous and discrete time signals are classified into
- Static and dynamic systems
  - Linear and Non-Linear Syst.
  - Time variant and time invariant Syst.
  - Causal and Non-causal Syst.
  - Stable and Unstable Syst.

## \* Static and dynamic Systems

→ A DTS is called static or memoryless if its output at any instant  $n$  depends on the input sample at the same time, but not on past or future samples of the input.

\* In any other case, the system is said to be dynamic or to have memory.

Ex. Static / memoryless ÷

$$y(n) = ax(n)$$

$$y(n) = a n^2 x(n)$$

Dynamic / Memory ÷

$$y(n) = x(n-1) + x(n-2)$$

## Causal and Non-causal System

→ A system is said to be causal if the output of the system at any time  $n$  depends only on present and past inputs, but does not depend on future inputs.

$$y(n) = f[x(n), x(n-1), x(n-2), \dots]$$

→ If the system depends not only on present and past inputs but also on future inputs, then it is said to be Non-causal.

### Ex. 1.4 (Ramash Babu)

Causal System →  $y(n) = x(n) - x(n-1)$

$$y(n) = ax(n)$$

Non-causal system →  $y(n) = x(n) + 3x(n+4)$

$$y(n) = x(n^2)$$

$$\text{For } n=-1 \quad y(-1) = x(1)$$

$$\text{For } n=0 \quad y(0) = x(0)$$

$$\text{For } n=1 \quad y(1) = x(1)$$

## Linear and Non-Linear Systems. (7)

- A system that satisfies the superposition principle, called Linear System

→ A system is linear if and only if

$$T[a_1 x_1(n) + a_2 x_2(n)] = a_1 T[x_1(n)] + a_2 T[x_2(n)]$$

for any arbitrary constants  $a_1$  and  $a_2$ .

- \* A relaxed system that does not satisfy the superposition principle, called Non-linear System.

Ex -  $y(n) = x^2(n)$

The output due to the signals  $x_1(n)$  &  $x_2(n)$  are

$$y_1(n) = T[x_1(n)] = x_1^2(n)$$

$$y_2(n) = T[x_2(n)] = x_2^2(n)$$

The weighted sum of output is

$$a_1 T[x_1(n)] + a_2 T[x_2(n)]$$

$$= a_1 x_1^2(n) + a_2 x_2^2(n) \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

- \*  $y_3(n) = y_1(n) + y_2(n) = T[x_1(n)] + T[x_2(n)]$

output due to weighted sum of inputs is

$$y_3(n) = T[a_1 x_1(n) + a_2 x_2(n)] = \underbrace{[a_1 x_1(n) + a_2 x_2(n)]^2}_{(2)}$$

eqn (1)  $\neq$  eqn (2)

Non-linear

Ex  $y(n) = nx(n)$   $\rightarrow$  Linear System

\* Time variant and Time-invariant System.

$\rightarrow$  A System is called time-invariant if its input-output characteristics do not change with time.

$\rightarrow$  Delay the input sequence by 'k' samples & find output sequence,

$$y(n, k) = T[x(n-k)]$$

$\rightarrow$  Delay the output sequence by 'k' samples i.e.  $y(n-k)$

$$\Rightarrow y(n, k) = y(n-k)$$

If, for possible values of 'k'

$$y(n, k) \neq y(n-k)$$

System is time-variant.

Ex-1.3 (Ramesh Babu)

$$(i) y(n) = x(n) + x(n-1)$$

Sol<sup>n</sup>  $y(n) = T[x(n)] = x(n) + x(n-1)$

$\rightarrow$  input is delayed by 'k' units

$$y(n, k) = T[x(n-k)] = x(n-k) + x(n-k-1)$$

$\rightarrow$  output is delayed by 'k' units in time.

$$y(n-k) = x(n-k) + x(n-k-1)$$

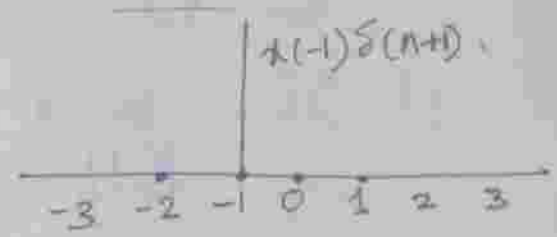
So,  $y(n, k) = y(n-k)$   $\rightarrow$  It is time-invariant.

Representation of Arbitrary Sequence.

$$\sum_{k=-b}^b x(k) \delta(n+k)$$

for  $k=1$   $\sum_{k=-b}^b x(k) \delta(n-1)$

for  $k=-1$   $\sum_{k=-b}^b x(k) \delta(n+1)$



Ex-1.6 Represent the sequence  $x(n) = \{4, 2, -1, 1, 3, 2, 1, 5\}$  as a sum of shifted unit impulses.

Sol<sup>n</sup>  $x(n) = \{4, 2, -1, 1, 3, 2, 1, 5\}$

$\uparrow$

~~n =~~  $-3 \quad -2 \quad -1 \quad 0 \quad 1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 4$

$n = -3 \quad -2 \quad -1 \quad 0 \quad 1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 4$

$$\begin{aligned} x(n) &= x(-3)\delta(n+3) + x(-2)\delta(n+2) + x(-1)\delta(n+1) + x(0)\delta(n) \\ &\quad + x(1)\delta(n-1) + x(2)\delta(n-2) + x(3)\delta(n-3) \\ &\quad \quad \quad + x(4)\delta(n-4) \\ &= 4\delta(n+3) + 2\delta(n+2) - \delta(n+1) + \delta(n) + 3\delta(n-1) \\ &\quad + 2\delta(n-2) + \delta(n-3) + 5\delta(n-4) \end{aligned}$$

## Stable and Unstable

→ A System is said to BIBO Stable if every bounded input produces a bounded output.

→ A bounded signal has an amplitude that remain finite.

\* The conditions for a System to be BIBO Stable are —

(i) If the syst. transfer function is a rational function, the degree of the numerator must be ~~not~~ larger than the degree of the denominator.

(ii) The poles of the syst. must lie in the left half of the s-plane or within the unit circle in the z-plane.

(iii) If a pole lies on the imaginary axis, it must be a single-order one, i.e. no repeated poles must lie on the imaginary axis.

The Systems not satisfying the above conditions are unstable.

Mathematically

Let  $x(n)$  be a bounded i/p sequence,  $h(n)$  be the impulse response of the system and  $y(n)$  be the output sequence.

→ Magnitude of the output

$$|y(n)| = \left| \sum_{k=-b}^b h(k)x(n-k) \right|$$

We know that the magnitude of the sum of the terms is less than or equal to the sum of the magnitude, then  $|y(n)| \leq \sum_{k=-b}^b |h(k)| |x(n-k)|$



(consider the bounded value of the i/p  $\textcircled{9}$  is equal to 'M').

$$\text{So, } |y(n)| < M \sum_{k=-b}^b h(n-k)$$

→ The above condition will be satisfied when

$$\sum_{k=-b}^b |h(n-k)| < b$$

→ The necessary & sufficient condition for stability is

$$\sum_{n=-b}^b |h(n)| < b$$

Ex. 1-15

check the stability -

$$h(n) = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n u(n)$$

Soln

stability condition is  $\sum_{n=-b}^b |h(n)| < b$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{n=-b}^b \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n u(n)$$

$$u(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } n \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{for } n < 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\text{or } \sum_{n=0}^b \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2^2} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^b}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{2}} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{2}} = 2 < b$$

→ System is stable.

$$\left[ \because 1 + a + a^2 + \dots + a^b = \frac{1}{1-a} \right]$$

# \* [FIR & IIR] Exams

## Convolution Sum

$$x(n) \rightarrow \boxed{T} \rightarrow y(n) = T[x(n)]$$

→ unit impulse (i/p)  $x(n) = \delta(n)$ , then o/p of the system is known as impulse response denoted  $h(n)$ .

$$h(n) = T[\delta(n)].$$

→ We know that any arbitrary sequence  $x(n)$  can be represented as a weighted sum of discrete impulse. So,

$$y(n) = T[x(n)] = T\left[\sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x(k)\delta(n-k)\right] \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

For linear system it reduces the above eqn

$$y(n) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x(k) T[\delta(n-k)] \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

\* Response to the shifted impulse sequence can be denoted by  $h(n, k)$  is defined

$$h(n, k) = T[\delta(n-k)] \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

We know that for a time invariant system

$$h(n, k) = h(n-k) \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

By comparing eqn (3) & (4) we can write

$$T[\delta(n-k)] = h(n-k) \quad \text{--- (5)}$$

↓ By substituting eqn (5) in eqn (2) we can get that

$$y(n) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x(k) h(n-k) \quad \text{--- (6)}$$

→ For LTI system if the i/p sequence  $x(n)$  and impulse response  $h(n)$  is given, we can find  $y(n) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x(k)h(n-k)$ .

$y(n) = x(n) * h(n)$

↓  
Convolution Sum

\* → denotes convolution sum.

\* Procedure to find out the convolution sum of two sequence:—

Step-I choose an initial value of 'n', the starting time for evaluating the output sequence  $y(n)$ . If  $x(n)$  starts at  $n=n_1$  and  $h(n)$  starts at  $n=n_2$  then  $n=n_1+n_2$  is a good choice.

Step-II Express both ~~seq~~ sequence in terms of the index 'k'.

Step-III Fold  $x(k)$  about  $k=0$  to obtain  $x(-k)$  and shift by 'n' to the right if 'n' is +ve and left if 'n' is -ve to obtain  $x(n-k)$ .

Step-IV Multiply the two sequence  $x(k)$  and  $x(n-k)$  element by element and sum the products to get  $y(n)$ .

Step-V Increment the index 'n', shift the sequence  $x(n-k)$  to right by one sample & do Step-IV.

Step-VI - Repeat Step-V until the sum of products is zero for all remaining values of 'n'.

### Properties of convolution

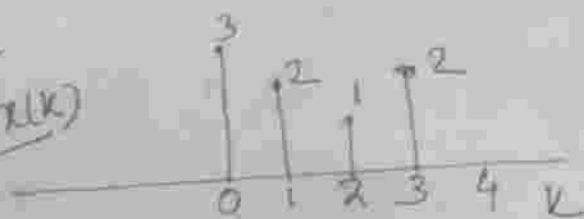
- commutative law:  $x(n) * h(n) = h(n) * x(n)$ .
- Associative law:  $[x(n) * h_1(n)] * h_2(n) = x(n) * [h_1(n) * h_2(n)]$
- Distributive law:  $x(n) * [h_1(n) + h_2(n)] = x(n) * h_1(n) + x(n) * h_2(n)$

Ex-1.7 (Ramesh Babu)

Determine the convolution sum of two sequences  $x(n) = \{3, 2, 1, 2\}$   $h(n) = \{1, 2, 1, 2\}$

Soln

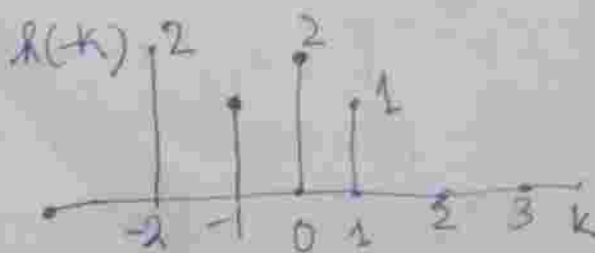
$x(n) = x(k)$



$h(n) = h(k)$



$x(-1-k)$



To check the correctness of the problem

$$\sum x(n) = 8, \sum h(n) = 6$$

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$$y(n) = \sum x(n) \cdot \sum h(n) = 8 \times 6 = 48$$

### Method-2

k	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
$x(k)$					3	2	1	2				
$n=-1$ $h(-1-k)$		2	1	2	1							
$n=0$ $h(0-k)$			2	1	2	1						
$n=1$ $h(1-k)$				2	1	2	1					
$n=2$ $h(2-k)$												
$n=3$ $h(3-k)$												
$n=4$ $h(4-k)$												
$n=5$ $h(5-k)$												

$$y(-1) = 3 \cdot 1 = 3, \quad y(0) = 3 \cdot 2 + 2 \cdot 1 = 8$$

$$y(1) = 3 \cdot 1 + 2 \cdot 2 + 1 \cdot 1 = 8$$

### Method-3

$x(n)$	3	2	1	2
1	3	2	1	2
2	6	4	2	4
1	3	2	1	2
2	6	4	2	4

$$\text{Results } \Rightarrow y(n) = \{3, 8, 8, 12, 9, 4, 4\}$$

\* Length of the sequence  $x(n) = N_1$  and  $h(n) = N_2$

So, length of the convolution sum  $y(n) = N_1 + N_2 - 1$

→ The limits in the convolution sum can be modified according to the type of sequence & system.

\* For a causal system the impulse response  $h(n) = 0$  for  $n < 0$ .

Convolution for causal system -

$$y(n) = \sum_{k=0}^n x(k) \cdot h(n-k)$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^n h(k) \cdot x(n-k)$$

Ex-1.9

Find  $y(n)$  if  $x(n) = n+2$  for  $0 \leq n \leq 3$   
 $h(n) = a^n u(n)$  for all  $n$ .

Sol<sup>n</sup>

$$y(n) = \sum_{k=0}^n x(k) \cdot h(n-k)$$

Given  $x(n) = n+2$  for  $0 \leq n \leq 3$   
 $h(n) = a^n u(n)$  for all  $n$ .

$h(n) = 0$  for  $n < 0$ . So, the system is causal.  
 $x(n)$  is a causal finite sequence whose value is zero for  $n > 3$ .

So, 
$$y(n) = \sum_{k=0}^3 x(k) \cdot h(n-k)$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^3 (k+2) a^{n-k} u(n-k)$$

$$y(n) = 2a^n u(n) + 3a^{n-1} u(n-1) + 4a^{n-2} u(n-2) + 5a^{n-3} u(n-3)$$

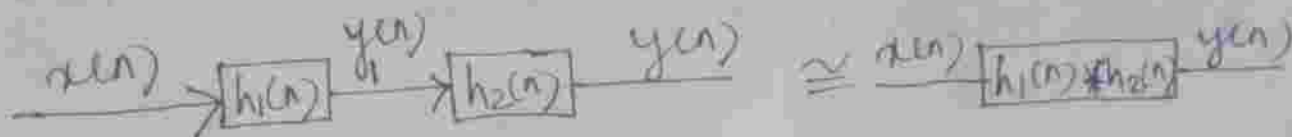
# Interconnection of LTI System

(i) Parallel connection of systems.



\* If the two systems are connected in parallel, the overall response is equal to the sum of two impulse responses.

(ii) Cascade connection of two systems →



\* The impulse response of two LTI systems connected in cascade is the convolution of the individual impulse responses.

## Correlation of two Sequence

Correlation is basically used to compare two signals. It occupies a significant place in signal processing. It has application in radar & sonar systems where the location of the target is measured by comparing the transmitted & reflected signals. Other application is image processing & control engineering.

Def<sup>n</sup>: Correlation is a measure of the degree to which two signals are similar.

- (i) cross-correlation
- (ii) Auto-correlation

## Cross-correlation

→ cross-correlation between a pair of signals  $x(n)$  and  $y(n)$  is given

$$Y_{xy}(l) = \sum_{n=-b}^b x(n) y(n-l) \quad l=0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3 \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

where 'l' is the shift parameter.

order of subscripts (xy) indicates that  $x(n)$  is the reference sequence that remains unshifted in time where  $y(n)$  is shifted 'l' units in time with respect to  $x(n)$ .

\* If we want to fix  $y(n)$  and to shift  $x(n)$ , then correlation can be written

$$\begin{aligned} Y_{yx}(l) &= \sum_{n=-b}^b y(n) x(n-l) \\ &= \sum_{n=-b}^b y(n+l) x(n) \quad \text{--- (2)} \end{aligned}$$

\* If the time shift  $l=0$ , then

$$Y_{xy}(0) = Y_{yx}(0) = \sum_{n=-b}^b x(n) y(n)$$

By comparing eqn (1) & (2),

$$Y_{xy}(l) = Y_{yx}(l)$$

$Y_{xy}(-l)$  is the folded version of  $Y_{xy}(l)$  about  $l=0$ .

We can rewrite (1)

$$\begin{aligned} Y_{xy}(l) &= \sum_{n=-b}^b x(n) y[-l-(n-l)] \\ &= x(n) * y(-l) \quad \text{--- (3)} \end{aligned}$$



## Auto correlation ( $\gamma_{xx}(l)$ )

→ The autocorrelation of a sequence is correlation of a sequence with itself.

Autocorrelation of a sequence  $x(n)$  is defined

$$\gamma_{xx}(l) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(n) x(n-l)$$

$$= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(n+l) x(n)$$

→ If the time shift  $l=0$ , then

$$\gamma_{xx}(0) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x^2(n)$$

\* Properties of cross-correlation & Auto-correlation Sequence =

$$s_{xx}(l) = \frac{\gamma_{xy}(l)}{\gamma_{xx}(0)}$$

↙ This is normalised expression for  $\gamma_{xx}(l)$

→ The normalised cross-correlation sequence is

$$s_{xy}(l) = \frac{\gamma_{xy}(l)}{\sqrt{\gamma_{xx}(0) \gamma_{yy}(0)}}$$

$s_{xy}(l)$  is also known as the cross-correlation coefficient. Its value always lies between -1 & +1.

→ A value '0' for cross-correlation means no correlation.

Ex 1-13 Find the cross-correlation of two finite length sequence  $x(n) = \{1, 2, 1, 1\}$ ;  $y(n) = \{1, 1, 2, 1\}$

Soln  $x(l) = \{1, 2, 1, 1\}$   $y(-l) = \{1, 2, 1, 1\}$

$$Y_{xy}(l) = x(l) * y(-l)$$

		$y(-l)$			
		1	2	1	1
$x(l)$	1	1	2	1	1
	2	2	4	2	2
	1	1	2	1	1
	1	1	2	1	1

$$Y_{xy}(l) = \{1, 4, 6, 6, 5, 2, 1\}$$

computation of correlation

$$Y_{xy}(l) = x(l) * y(-l)$$

## correlation of power and periodic signals (14)

(consider  $x(n)$  &  $y(n)$  are the power signals. Their cross-correlation sequence is defined

$$Y_{xy}(l) = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2N+1} \sum_{n=-N}^N x(n) y(n-l)$$

→ Auto-correlation of power signals

$$Y_{xx}(l) = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2N+1} \sum_{n=-N}^N x(n) x(n-l)$$

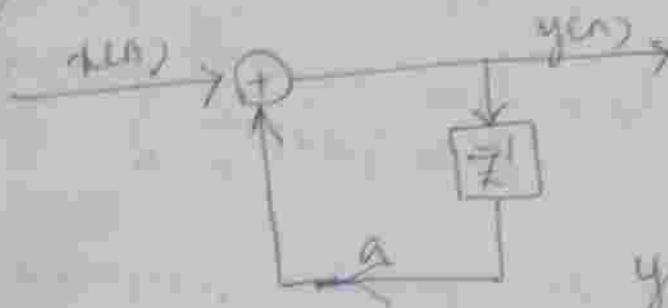
\* If  $x(n)$  &  $y(n)$  are periodic sequences, each with period  $N$ , then

$$Y_{xy}(l) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) y(n-l)$$

$$Y_{xx}(l) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) x(n-l)$$

Linear time-Invariant Syst. Characterize  
by constant-coefficient Difference Equations —

- A family of LTI Systems described by an input-output relation called a difference equation with constant co-efficients.
- Systems described by constant co-efficient linear difference equation. (Recursive Syst)



$$y[n] = ay[n-1] + x[n]$$

↓  
independent of time.

Compute successive values of  $y[n]$  for  $n \geq 0$ .

$$\text{for } n=0, \quad y[0] = ay[-1] + x[0]$$

$$n=1, \quad y[1] = ay[0] + x[1] = a \{ ay[-1] + x[0] \} + x[1]$$

$$= a^2 y[-1] + ax[0] + x[1].$$

$$n=2, \quad y[2] = ay[1] + x[2]$$

$$= a \{ a^2 y[-1] + ax[0] + x[1] \} + x[2]$$

$$= a^3 y[-1] + a^2 ax[0] + ax[1] + x[2]$$

$$\vdots$$

$$y[n] = ay[n-1] + x[n]$$

$$= a^{n+1} y[-1] + a^n ax[0] + a^{n-1} ax[1] + \dots + ax[n-1] + x[n].$$

\* More Accurately/compactly

$$y(n) = \underbrace{a^{n+1} y(-1)}_{\substack{\downarrow \\ \text{initial condition} \\ y(-1)}} + \sum_{k=0}^n \underbrace{a^k x(n-k)}_{\text{input signal } x(n)}$$

→ A Recursive System is relaxed if it starts with zero initial condition.

→ Initially relaxed ~~means~~ at time  $n=0$  means memory should be zero. Memory describes its state i.e. zero state & its corresponding output is called zero-state response or forced response. It is denoted by  $y_{zs}(n)$ .

$$y_{zs}(n) = \sum_{k=0}^n a^k x(n-k), \quad n \geq 0$$

→ The output of the system with zero input is called the zero-input response or natural response  $y_{zi}(n)$ . (free response)

$$y_{zi}(n) = a^{n+1} y(-1)$$

$$y(n) = y_{zi}(n) + y_{zs}(n)$$

\* The general form of linear constant-coefficient difference equation

$$y(n) = - \sum_{k=1}^N a_k y(n-k) + \sum_{k=0}^M b_k x(n-k)$$

or  $\sum_{k=1}^N a_k y(n-k) = \sum_{k=0}^M b_k x(n-k) \quad (\because a_0 = 1)$

... 'N' is called the continuity order of the Page-16 difference equations.

\* A System is linear if it satisfies

$$\rightarrow y(n) = y_{z_i}(n) + y_{z_e}(n).$$

$\rightarrow$  The principle of superposition applies to the zero-state response. (zero-state linear)

$\rightarrow$  The principle of superposition applies to the zero-input response (zero-input linear).

\*  $\rightarrow$  for a relaxed system  $y_{z_i}(n) = 0$ .

# Solution of Linear constant-co-efficient difference equations

- (i) Direct method
- (ii) Indirect method  $\rightarrow$  Z-transform approach

$\rightarrow$  The direct solution method says that the total solution is the sum of two parts.

$$y(n) = y_h(n) + y_p(n).$$

$y_h(n) \rightarrow$  homogeneous / complementary soln

$y_p(n) \rightarrow$  Particular solution.

## \* Homogeneous solution of a difference equation

Assuming  $x(n) = 0$ ,

Soln to the homogeneous difference equation

$$\sum_{k=0}^N a_k y(n-k) = 0$$

Soln

$$\rightarrow \text{Let } y_h(n) = \lambda^n$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^N a_k \lambda^{n-k} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda^{n-N} (\lambda^N + a_1 \lambda^{N-1} + a_2 \lambda^{N-2} + \dots + a_{N-1} \lambda + a_N) = 0$$

$\downarrow$  characteristic equation of the syst  
It has 'N' roots. Roots are  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_N$ .  
The roots are real or complex valued.  
 $a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_N$  are usually real.

The most general solution Page-17  
to the homogeneous difference equation

$$y_h(n) = C_1 \lambda_1^n + C_2 \lambda_2^n + \dots + C_N \lambda_N^n$$

Where  $C_1, C_2, \dots, C_N$  are weighting  
co-efficients.

→ These coefficients are determined from the initial conditions specified for the system.

input  $x(n)=0$ , can be used to obtain the zero-input response of the system.

Ex - Determine the homogeneous soln of the system described by the first order difference equation

$$y(n) + a_1 y(n-1) = x(n).$$

Soln → By setting  $x(n)=0$

$$y(n) + a_1 y(n-1) = 0$$

$$\text{let } y(n) = \lambda^n$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda^n + a_1 \lambda^{n-1} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda^{n-1} (\lambda + a_1) = 0$$

$$\lambda = -a_1$$

→ The soln to the homogeneous difference equation is  $y_h(n) = C \lambda^n = C (-a_1)^n$

→ For first order difference eqn  $y_{zi}(n) = a^{n+1} y(-1).$

$$y_{zi}(n) = (-a_1)^{n+1} y(-1).$$

$n=0,$   
 $y(0) = -a_1 y(-1).$   
 $y_h(0) = C = -a_1 y(-1)$   
 $y_h(n) = C \lambda^n = C (-a_1)^n$   
 $= -a_1 y(-1) (-a_1)^n$   
 $= (-a_1)^{n+1} y(-1)$



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Problems

Ex-2 Determine the zero-input response of the described by the homogeneous second order diff equation

$$y(n) - 3y(n-1) - 4y(n-2) = 0$$

Soln

$$\text{Let } y_h(n) = \lambda^n$$

$$\lambda^n - 3\lambda^{n-1} - 4\lambda^{n-2} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda^{n-2} (\lambda^2 - 3\lambda - 4) = 0$$

$$\boxed{\lambda_1 = -1 \text{ \& } \lambda_2 = 4} \rightarrow \text{characteristic equation}$$

homogeneous soln  $y_h(n) = C_1 \lambda_1^n + C_2 \lambda_2^n$

$$= C_1 (-1)^n + C_2 (4)^n$$

→ Zero-input response can be calculated from homogeneous soln by evaluating the constants  $(C_1, C_2)$  given initial condition  $y(-1)$  &  $y(-2)$ .

$$\text{for } n=0, \quad y(0) = C_1 + C_2$$

$$n=1, \quad y(1) = -C_1 + 4C_2$$

$$y(n) = 3y(n-1) + 4y(n-2)$$

$$y(0) = 3y(-1) + 4y(-2)$$

$$y(1) = 3y(0) + 4y(-1)$$

$$= 3\{3y(-1) + 4y(-2)\} + 4y(-1)$$

$$= 13y(-1) + 12y(-2)$$

We can write

$$C_1 + C_2 = 3y(-1) + 4y(-2)$$

$$-C_1 + 4C_2 = 13y(-1) + 12y(-2)$$

After solving the above two equations,

We can get,  $C_1 = -\frac{1}{5}y(-1) + \frac{1}{5}y(-2)$

$C_2 = \frac{16}{5}y(-1) + \frac{16}{5}y(-2)$

→ Zero-input response of the system is

$$y_{zi}(n) = \left[ -\frac{1}{5}y(-1) + \frac{1}{5}y(-2) \right] (-1)^n + \left[ \frac{16}{5}y(-1) + \frac{16}{5}y(-2) \right] (4)^n$$

\* For example  $y(-2) = 0$  &  $y(-1) = 5$ , then  $C_1 = -1$  &  $C_2 = 16$ ,  $y_{zi}(n) = (-1)^{n+1} + (4)^{n+2}$

\* If the characteristic equation contains multiple roots, then the solution is in the form of

$$y_h(n) = C_1 \lambda_1^n + C_2 n \lambda_1^n + C_3 n^2 \lambda_1^n + \dots + C_m n^{m-1} \lambda_1^n + C_{m+1} \lambda_{m+1}^n + \dots + C_N \lambda_N^n$$

The particular solution of the difference equation  
↓  
y<sub>CP</sub>

It depends on specified input signal x(n).

$y_p(n)$  is any solution satisfying  
$$\sum_{k=0}^N a_k y_p(n-k) = \sum_{k=0}^M b_k x(n-k) \quad a_0 = 1$$

General form of the particular sol<sup>n</sup> for several types of input signals

Input signal $x(n)$	Particular solution $y_p(n)$
$A$ (constant)	$K$
$A^n$	$KM^n$
$A^n$	$k_0 A^n + k_1 A^{n-1} + \dots + k_M$
$A^n n^M$	$A^n (k_0 n^M + k_1 n^{M-1} + \dots + k_M)$
$\begin{cases} A \cos \omega n \\ A \sin \omega n \end{cases}$	$k_1 \cos \omega n + k_2 \sin \omega n$

Ex-247 Determine the particular sol<sup>n</sup> of the difference equation  $y(n) = 5/6 y(n-1) - 1/6 y(n-2) + x(n)$  when the forcing function  $x(n) = 2^n, n \geq 0$   
0 elsewhere.

Sol<sup>n</sup>  $y_p(n) = k 2^n \quad n \geq 0$

$$k 2^n u(n) = 5/6 k 2^{n-1} u(n-1) - 1/6 k 2^{n-2} u(n-2) + 2^n u(n)$$

To evaluate the value of  $k$ , for  $n \geq 2$ .

$$4k = 5/6 (2k) - 1/6 k + 4$$

$$k = 8/5$$

→ The particular solution is  $y_p(n) = 8/5 \cdot 2^n, n \geq 0$ .

→ The Z-transform is used to transform of DT signals.

→ It is similar to that of Laplace transform for analog signals.

\* The poles and zeros of transfer function are used for stability analysis of the DT systems.

\* The basic difference between the two transforms is that the s-plane is arranged in a rectangular co-ordinate system, while the Z-transform uses a polar format.

### Need of a Transform

A transform helps in three ways

→ The spectral properties of the signal are better revealed in a transform domain.

→ The system transfer function in a transform domain directly indicates the locations of poles and zeros which helps in analyzing stability of the system.

→ A signal, while transmission over a communication channel, needs to be compressed.

\*\* Relation between Laplace transform and Z-transform

$$Z = e^{sT}$$

\*\* Relation between Fourier Transform (FT) and Z-transform.

$$z = r e^{j\Omega}$$

$r \rightarrow$  represents the magnitude of  $z$   
 $\Omega \rightarrow$  represents the angle or phase of  $z$ .

$$F(r e^{j\Omega}) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} f(nT) (r e^{j\Omega})^{-n}$$

$$\text{As } F(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} f(nT) z^{-n}$$

$$F(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} [f(nT) r^{-n}] e^{-j\Omega n}$$

$\rightarrow$  Analog signal may exist from  $-\infty$  to  $+\infty$ .

So, we write

$$F(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} [f(nT) r^{-n}] e^{-j\Omega n}$$

for  $r=1$  or equivalently for  $z=1$ , the Z-transform reduces to FT.

$\rightarrow$  Z-transform reduces to FT on the unit circle in complex z-plane.

\* Convergence of Z-transform (ZT) requires the convergence of sequence  $f(n) r^{-n}$ .

$\rightarrow$  The range of values of  $r$  for which the sequence  $f(n) r^{-n}$  converges is called the region of convergence (ROC).

\*\* If ROC includes the unit circle then the FT also converges.

Analysis of LTI System continuous time system using Laplace transform. The counterpart of Laplace transform is called Z-transform for LTI Discrete time systems.

→ Laplace transform converts differential equation to algebraic equation.

→ Z-transform converts difference equation to algebraic equation.

\* The Z-transform comes into two varieties.

→ Bilateral or two-sided ZT

→ Unilateral or one-sided ZT

⇒ Bilateral Z-transform offers insight into the nature of system characteristics such as stability, causality and frequency response.

⇒ Unilateral Z-transform is convenient tool for solving difference equations with initial conditions.

given signal  $x(n)$

$$Z[x(n)] = X(Z) = \sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(n) Z^{-n}$$

⇒ Inverse Z-transform of  $X(Z)$  is

$$x(n) = \frac{1}{2\pi j} \oint_C X(Z) Z^{n-1} dz$$

\*\* Transform relationship between  $x(n)$  &  $X(z)$   
as  $x(n) \leftrightarrow X(z)$

→ Relationship between  $Z$ -transform and Discrete-Time Fourier transform

Discrete time signal  $x(n)$ . Its  $Z$ -transform is as  $Z[x(n)] = X(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(n) z^{-n}$

Let  $z = r e^{j\omega}$

$$Z[x(n)] = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(n) (r e^{j\omega})^{-n} = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} [x(n) r^{-n}] e^{-j\omega n}$$

$$= F[x(n) r^{-n}]$$

$$Z[x(n)] = F[x(n) r^{-n}]$$

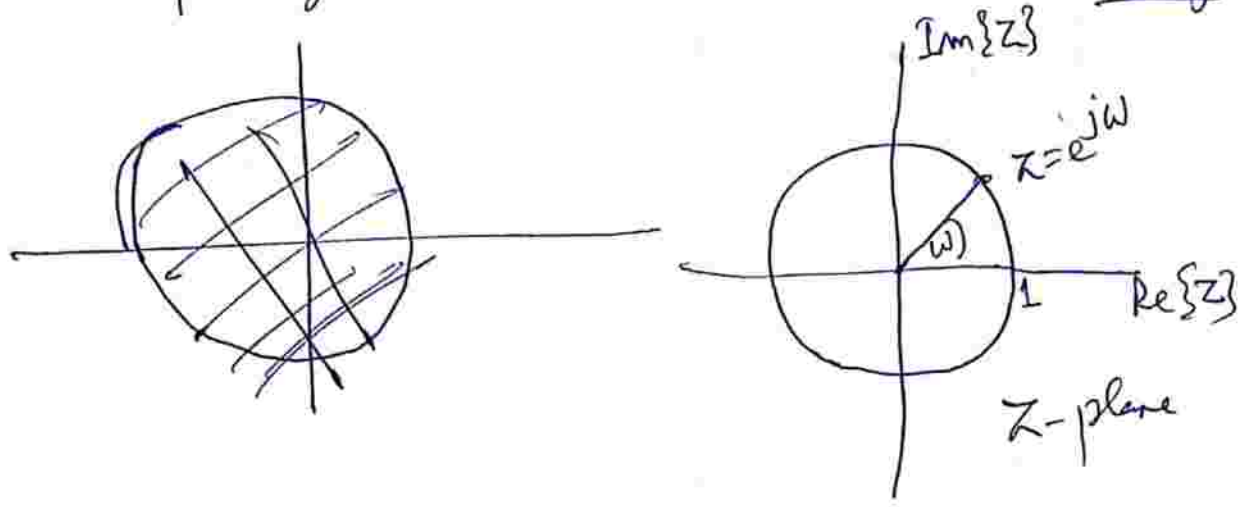
Thus, the  $Z$ -transform of  $x(n)$  is the DTFT of  $x(n) r^{-n}$ .

Now if  $r=1$ , we obtain

$$Z[x(n)] = F[x(n)] \text{ for } r=1$$

The  $Z$ -transform reduces to the DTFT when  $|z|=1$  ( ~~$z = e^{j\omega}$~~   $z = e^{j\omega}$ )

The z-transform reduces to the DTFT on the contour in the complex z-plane corresponding to a circle with radius unity.



### Poles and Zeros

#### Right-hand Sequence

→ A RH sequence is one for which  $x(n) = 0$  for all  $n < n_0$  where  $n_0$  is +ve or -ve but finite.

→ If  $n_0$  is greater than equal to zero, the resulting sequence is causal or a +ve time sequence.

→ For such type of sequence, the ROC is entire z-plane except  $z=0$

Ex  $x(n) = \left\{ \underset{\uparrow}{1}, 0, 3, -1, 2 \right\}$

$$X(z) = x(0) + x(1)z^{-1} + x(2)z^{-2} + \dots$$

$$x(0) = 1 \quad x(1) = 0 \quad x(2) = 3 \quad x(3) = -1$$

$$x(4) = 2$$

$$X(z) = 1 + 3z^{-2} - z^{-3} + 2z^{-4}$$



## Left hand Sequence

→ A left hand sequence  $x(n)$  is one for which  $x(n) = 0$  for all  $n > n_0$ , where  $n_0$  is +ve or -ve but finite. If  $n_0 \leq 0$ , the sequence is anticausal sequence.

→ For such type of sequence, the ROC is entire z-plane except at  $z=0$

Ex  $x(n) = \{-3, -2, -1, 0, \dots\}$

$$x(0) = 1, x(1) = 0, x(2) = -1, x(3) = -2$$

$$x(4) = -3$$

$$X(z) = 1 - z^{-2} - 2z^{-3} - 3z^{-4}$$

## Two sided Sequence

Find the z-transform of the sequence

$$x(n) = \{2, -1, 3, 2, 1, 0, 2, 3, -1\}$$

$$X(z) = ?$$

$$x(0) = \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} x(z)$$

Final Value Theorem

$$x(b) = \lim_{z \rightarrow 1} (1-z^{-1})x(z), \text{ if } (1-z^{-1})x(z)$$

have no pole on or outside the unit circle.

\*\* Parseval Theorem

$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x_1(n) x_2^*(n) = \frac{1}{2\pi j} \oint_C x_1(v) x_2^*\left(\frac{1}{v^*}\right) v^{-1} dv$$

Ex Find the z-transform of  $x(n) = n a^n u(n)$   
we know that-

Sol<sup>n</sup> 
$$z[an^n u(n)] = \frac{1}{1-az^{-1}} \quad |z| > a$$

By differentiation property,

$$z[x[nx(n)]] = -z \frac{d}{dz} x(z)$$

$$z[nan^n u(n)] = \cancel{a} - z \frac{d}{dz} \left[ \frac{1}{1-az^{-1}} \right]$$

$$= \frac{az^{-1}}{(1-az^{-1})^2} \quad \underline{\underline{|z| > |a|}}$$

Sequence	Z-transform	ROC
1. $\delta(n)$	1	All $z$
2. $u(n)$	$\frac{1}{1-z^{-1}}$	$ z  > 1$
3. $-u(-n-1)$	$\frac{1}{1-z^{-1}}$	$ z  < 1$
4. $\delta(n-m)$	$z^{-m}$	All $z$ except 0 (if $m > 0$ )
5. $a^n u(n)$	$\frac{1}{1-az^{-1}}$	$ z  >  a $
6. $-a^n u(-n-1)$	$\frac{1}{1-az^{-1}}$	$ z  <  a $
7. $na^n u(n)$	$\frac{az^{-1}}{(1-az^{-1})^2}$	$ z  >  a $
8. $-na^n u(-n-1)$	$\frac{az^{-1}}{(1-az^{-1})^2}$	$ z  <  a $

Z-transform properties

- Linearity  $\rightarrow a_1 x_1(n) + a_2 x_2(n) \rightarrow a_1 X_1(z) + a_2 X_2(z)$
- \* Time Shifting  $x(n-m) \rightarrow z^{-m} X(z)$
- \* Time Reversal  $x(-n) \rightarrow X(z^{-1})$
- \* Differentiation in  $z$  domain  
 $n x(n) \rightarrow -z \frac{d}{dz} X(z)$

# "Z-transform"

①

## \* The Direct Z-transform

→ The Z-transform of a discrete-time signal  $x(n)$  is defined as power series

$$X(Z) \equiv \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(n) Z^{-n}$$

Where  $Z$  is the complex variable.

→ It is called the direct Z-transform because it transforms the time domain signal  $x(n)$  into its complex plane representation  $X(Z)$ .

→ The Z-transform of a signal  $x(n)$  is denoted by  $X(Z) = Z\{x(n)\}$

Relation between  $x(n)$  &  $X(Z)$  is indicated by  $x(n) \xrightarrow{Z} X(Z)$

→ Z-transform is an infinite power series it exists only for those values of  $Z$  for which this series converges.

\* The Region of convergence (ROC) of  $X(Z)$  is the set of all values of  $Z$  for which  $X(Z)$  attains a finite value.

Ex 3.1.1 Determine the Z-transform of the following finite duration signals.  
(from Proakis, Page-152)

ex-2 Determine the  $z$ -transform of the signal

$$x(n) = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n u(n).$$

Sol<sup>n</sup>  $\div$  The signal  $x(n)$  consists of an infinite no. of non-zero values

$$x(n) = \{1, \frac{1}{2}, (\frac{1}{2})^2, (\frac{1}{2})^3, \dots, (\frac{1}{2})^n, \dots\}$$

$\rightarrow$  The  $z$ -transform of  $x(n)$  is the infinite power series

$$X(z) = 1 + \frac{1}{2}z^{-1} + \frac{1}{2}z^{-2} + \dots + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n z^{-n} + \dots$$

$$X(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n z^{-n} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{2}z^{-1}\right)^n$$

\* Infinite geometric series —  
 $1 + A + A^2 + A^3 + \dots = \frac{1}{1-A}$  if  $|A| < 1$

So,  $X(z) = \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{2}z^{-1}}$ , ROC:  $|z| > \frac{1}{2}$

* $\frac{\text{Zero}}{\text{Pole}} = \frac{N^y}{D^y}$	$D^y = 0$
	$1 - \frac{1}{2}z^{-1} = 0$
	$\frac{1}{2}z^{-1} = 1 \Rightarrow z = \frac{1}{2}$

Region of convergence.

# \* Properties of the Z-transform Page-2

→ Linearity:

$$\text{If } \begin{aligned} x_1(n) &\xleftrightarrow{Z} X_1(z) \\ x_2(n) &\xleftrightarrow{Z} X_2(z) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Then } x(n) = a_1 x_1(n) + a_2 x_2(n) \xleftrightarrow{Z} X(z) \\ = a_1 X_1(z) + a_2 X_2(z).$$

$a_1$  &  $a_2$  are constant.

→ Time Shifting:

$$\text{If } x(n) \xleftrightarrow{Z} X(z)$$

$$\text{Then } x(n-k) \xleftrightarrow{Z} z^{-k} X(z)$$

\* The ROC of  $z^{-k} X(z)$  is the same as that of  $X(z)$  except for  $z=0$  if  $k > 0$  and  $z=\infty$  if  $k < 0$ .

→ Scaling in the Z-transform: +

$$\text{If } x(n) \xleftrightarrow{Z} X(z), \text{ ROC: } r_1 < |z| < r_2$$

$$\text{Then } a^n x(n) \xleftrightarrow{Z} X(a^{-1}z), \text{ ROC: } |a|r_1 < |z| < |a|r_2$$

~~where~~ for any constant 'a', real or complex.

→ Time reversal:-

$$\text{If } x(n) \xleftrightarrow{Z} X(z), \text{ ROC: } r_1 < |z| < r_2$$

$$\text{Then } x(-n) \xleftrightarrow{Z} X(z^{-1}) \text{ ROC: } \frac{1}{r_2} < |z| < \frac{1}{r_1}$$

→ Differentiation in the  $z$ -domain -

$$\text{If } x(n) \xleftrightarrow{z} X(z)$$
$$\text{then } nx(n) \xleftrightarrow{z} -z \frac{dX(z)}{dz}$$

→ Convolution of two sequences -

$$x_1(n) \xleftrightarrow{z} X_1(z)$$

$$x_2(n) \xleftrightarrow{z} X_2(z)$$

$$\text{then } x(n) = x_1(n) * x_2(n) \xleftrightarrow{z} X(z) = X_1(z) X_2(z)$$

Ex 3.2.9 find the convolution  $x(n]$  of the signals

$$x_1(n) = \{1, -2, 1\}$$

$$x_2(n) = \begin{cases} 1, & 0 \leq n \leq 5 \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

Sol<sup>n</sup>

$$X_1(z) = 1 - 2z^{-1} + z^{-2}$$

$$X_2(z) = 1 + z^{-1} + z^{-2} + z^{-3} + z^{-4} + z^{-5}$$

$$X(z) = X_1(z) X_2(z) = 1 - z^{-1} - z^{-6} + z^{-7}$$

(how it comes?)

$$x(n) = \left\{ \underset{\uparrow}{1}, -1, 0, 0, 0, 0, -1, 1 \right\}$$

Ans

## Properties of ROC

- ① The ROC is a ring or disk in the  $z$ -plane centered at the origin.
- ② The ROC cannot contain any poles.
- ③ If  $x(n)$  is a causal sequence then the ROC is the entire  $z$ -plane except at  $z=0$ .
- ④ If  $x(n)$  is a non-causal sequence, then the ROC is the entire  $z$ -plane except at  $z=b$ .
- ⑤ If  $x(n)$  is a finite duration, two-sided sequence the ROC is entire  $z$ -plane except at  $z=0$  &  $z=b$ .
- ⑥ If  $x(n)$  is an finite duration, two-sided sequence the ROC will consist of a ring in the  $z$ -plane, bounded on the interior & exterior by a pole, not containing any pole.
- ⑦ The ROC of a LTI stable system contains the unit circle.
- ⑧ The ROC must be a connected region.

### \* Initial value theorem

If  $X_+(z) = Z\{x(n)\}$ , then  $x(0) = \lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} X_+(z)$

Proof:  $X_+(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x(n) z^{-n}$

As  $z \rightarrow \infty$ , all the terms vanish except  $x(0)$ , which proves the theorem.

i.e.  $\lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} X_+(z) = \lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x(n) z^{-n} = x(0)$ .



Final

## Final value theorem

If  $X_+(z) = z\{x(n)\}$ , where the ROC for  $X_+(z)$  includes, but is not necessarily confined to,  $|z| > 1$  and  $(z-1)X_+(z)$  has no poles on or outside the unit circle, then

$$x(\infty) = \lim_{z \rightarrow 1} (z-1)X_+(z).$$

Proof

If  $X_1(z) = Z\{x_1(n)\}$  and  $X_2(z) = Z\{x_2(n)\}$   
 then  $Z[Y_{x_1x_2}(l)] = Z\left[\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x_1(n) x_2(n-l)\right]$

$$= Y_{x_1x_2}(z) = X_1(z) X_2(z^{-1})$$

\* Z-transform of some common z-transform.

→ Find the Z-transform of the signal  $x(n) = [3(3)^n - 4(2)^n]u(n)$

Sol<sup>n</sup> ÷  $X(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(n) z^{-n}$

$$= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} [3(3)^n - 4(2)^n]u(n) z^{-n}$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} [3(3)^n - 4(2)^n] z^{-n}$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 3(3)^n z^{-n} - \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 4(2)^n z^{-n} = 3 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (3z^{-1})^n - 4 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (2z^{-1})^n$$

\* First part series converges, when  $|3z^{-1}| < 1$  i.e.

\* 2nd part series " , when  $\frac{|z|}{2} < 1$ , i.e.

$$|z| > 2.$$

→ Take  $|z| > 3$  as ROC

## \* The System function

→ The general form of constant co-efficient difference equation is

$$y(n) = - \sum_{k=0}^N a_k y(n-k) + \sum_{k=0}^M b_k x(n-k)$$

Taking  $z$ -transform on both sides, applying time shifting property, we obtain

$$Y(z) = - \sum_{k=0}^N a_k Y(z) z^{-k} + \sum_{k=0}^M b_k X(z) z^{-k}$$

$$\Rightarrow Y(z) \left[ 1 + \sum_{k=0}^N a_k z^{-k} \right] = \sum_{k=0}^M b_k z^{-k} X(z)$$

$$H(z) = \frac{Y(z)}{X(z)} = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^M b_k z^{-k}}{1 + \sum_{k=0}^N a_k z^{-k}}$$

↳ transfer function / system function

→ If input  $x(n) = \delta(n)$ ,  $X(z)$  is equal to 1.  
then  $Y(z) = H(z)$ .

\* find the system function & impulse response of the system described by the difference eqn  
 $y(n) = \frac{1}{5} y(n-1) + x(n)$ .

Sol<sup>n</sup>  $Y(z) = \frac{1}{5} z^{-1} Y(z) + X(z)$  ✓

# Inverse Z-transform Page-5

→ four methods <sup>are used</sup> for evaluating Z-inverse

- \* Long division
- \* Partial fraction expansion method
- \* Residue method.
- \* Convolution method.

Long division

$$\rightarrow X(z) = \frac{N(z)}{D(z)} = \frac{b_0 + b_1 z^{-1} + \dots + b_M z^{-M}}{1 + a_1 z^{-1} + \dots + a_N z^{-N}}$$

$$= x(0) + x(1) z^{-1} + x(2) z^{-2} + \dots$$

Ex-  $X(z) = \frac{z+0.2}{(z+0.5)(z-1)}$ ,  $z > 1 \rightarrow$  ROC given

Soln

$$\begin{array}{r} z^{-1} + 0.7z^{-2} + 0.8z^{-3} + 0.775z^{-4} \\ \hline z^2 - 0.5z - 0.5 \quad \begin{array}{l} z + 0.2 \\ z - 0.5 - 0.5z^{-1} \\ \hline 0.7 + 0.5z^{-1} \\ \vdots \end{array} \end{array}$$

# Partial fraction Method

## ③ Residue Method

If  $z$ -transform of a sequence  $x(n)$  is given by

$$X(z) = \sum_{n=-b}^b x(n) z^{-n}$$

→ Multiplying both sides by  $z^{k-1}$  & integrating w.r.t  $z$  about a closed contour  $C$  in the ROC of  $X(z)$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} \oint_C X(z) z^{k-1} dz &= \oint_C \sum_{n=-b}^b x(n) z^{-n+k-1} dz \\ &= \sum_{n=-b}^b x(n) \oint_C z^{k-n-1} dz \end{aligned}$$

Consider that 'C' encloses the origin of the  $z$ -plane. Then by Cauchy residue theorem

$$\oint_C z^{k-n-1} dz = 2\pi j \delta_{kn}$$

where  $\delta_{kn} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } k=n \\ 0 & \text{if } k \neq n \end{cases}$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Hence } \oint_C X(z) z^{k-1} dz &= 2\pi j \sum_{n=-b}^b x(n) \delta_{kn} \\ &= 2\pi j x(k). \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow x(k) = \oint_C \frac{1}{2\pi j} X(z) z^{k-1} dz$$

→ Therefore, the inverse z-transform relation is given by the contour integral

$$x(n) = \frac{1}{2\pi j} \oint_C x(z) z^{n-1} dz$$

Where 'C' is a circle in the z-plane in the ROC of X(z).

→ The above equation can be evaluated by finding sum of all residues of the poles that is inside of the circle 'C'.

So,  $x(n) = \sum [\text{Residue of } x(z)z^{n-1} \text{ at the poles inside 'C'}]$

$$\Rightarrow x(n) = \sum_i (z - z_i) x(z) z^{n-1} \Big|_{z=z_i}$$

Ex 2.25

$$X(z) = \frac{z+1}{z(z+0.2)(z-1)}, \quad |z| > 1$$

find inverse z by residue method.

Soln

We know that -  $x(n) = \frac{1}{2\pi j} \oint_C x(z) z^{n-1} dz$

=  $\sum$  residues of  $x(z) z^{n-1}$  at poles of  $x(z) z^{n-1}$  within 'C'.

=  $\sum$  residues of  $\frac{(z+1) z^{n-1}}{z(z+0.2)(z-1)}$  at poles of same within 'C'.

\* ROC  $|z| > 1$  encloses the poles at  $z = -0.2$  &  $z = 1$  and for  $n = 0$  the pole is at  $z = 0$ .

→ So, for  $n=0$

$$x(0) = \sum \text{residues of } \frac{z+1}{z(z+0.2)(z-1)} \text{ at poles } z=0, 1 \text{ \& } -0.2$$

$$= \cancel{\frac{z+1}{z(z+0.2)(z-1)}} \Big|_{z=0} + \frac{(z+0.2)(z+1)}{z(z+0.2)(z-1)} \Big|_{z=-0.2}$$

$$+ \frac{(z-1)(z+1)}{z(z+0.2)(z-1)} \Big|_{z=1}$$

$$\Rightarrow x(0) = -5 + \frac{10}{3} + \frac{5}{3} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow x(0) = 0$$

for  $n \geq 1$

$$x(n) = \sum \text{residues of } \frac{(z+1)z^{n-1}}{(z+0.2)(z-1)} \text{ at poles } z=-0.2 \text{ \& } z=1$$

$$= \text{Residue of } \frac{(z+1)z^{n-1}}{(z+0.2)(z-1)} \Big|_{z=-0.2}$$

$$+ \text{Residue of } \frac{(z+1)z^{n-1}}{(z+0.2)(z-1)} \Big|_{z=1}$$

$$= \frac{(z+1)z^{n-1}}{(z-1)} \Big|_{\text{at } z=-0.2} + \frac{(z+1)z^{n-1}}{(z+0.2)} \Big|_{z=1}$$

$$= -\frac{2}{3}(-0.2)^{n-1} + \frac{5}{3}$$

$$\Rightarrow x(n) = -\frac{2}{3}(-0.2)^{n-1} u(n-1) + \frac{5}{3} u(n-1)$$

2.26 Find  $Z$ -inverse by using Page-7  
Residue method

$$X(z) = \frac{z}{(z-2)(z-3)}, \quad |z| < 2$$

Soln

Two poles  $z=+3$  &  $z=2$  outside the ROC  $|z| < 2$ ,  
So the sequence is Non-causal.

For  $n < 0$

$$x(n) = - \sum \text{Residues of } X(z) z^{n-1} \text{ at poles } z=2 \text{ \& } z=3$$

$$= - \left[ \frac{z \cdot z^{n-1}}{z-3} \Big|_{z=2} + \frac{z \cdot z^{n-1}}{(z-2)} \Big|_{z=3} \right]$$

$$= - \left[ - (2)^n + (3)^n \right] = (2)^n - (3)^n$$

for  $n < 0$   $x(n)$  can be written as

$$x(n) = [2^n - 3^n] u(-n-1), \quad *$$



Solution of difference equations using one sided Z-transform

By using time shift property

Q. 2-34 Use the one sided Z-transform to determine  $y(n)$ ,  $n \geq 0$  if  $y(n) = \frac{1}{2}y(n-1) + x(n)$   
 $x(n) = (\frac{1}{3})^n u(n)$ ;  $y(-1) = 1$ .

Soln By taking Z-transform of  $y(n)$

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

from given data  $Y(-1) = 1$ .

\* find the step response of the system given by  $y(n) = a y(n-1) + x(n)$ . where  $x(n) = u(n)$  &  $y(-1) = 0$ .

Soln Taking Z-transform of both sides

$$Y(z) = a z^{-1} Y(z) + Y(-1) + X(z)$$

$$= a z^{-1} [Y(z) + Y(-1)z] + X(z)$$

As  $Y(-1) = 0$

$$\Rightarrow Y(z) [1 - a z^{-1}] = X(z)$$

$$\Rightarrow Y(z) = \frac{1}{1 - a z^{-1}} \cdot X(z) = \frac{1}{1 - a z^{-1}} \cdot \frac{1}{1 - z^{-1}}$$

By using partial fraction

$$Y(z) = \frac{1}{1-a} \left[ \frac{1}{1-z^{-1}} - \frac{a}{1-a z^{-1}} \right]$$

on taking inverse z-transform, we get

$$y(n) = \frac{1}{1-a} [u(n) - a(a)^n u(n)]$$

$$y(n) = \frac{1}{1-a} [1 - a^{n+1}] u(n).$$

Q. Determine the one-sided z-transform of,  
 $y(n) + \frac{1}{2}y(n-1) - \frac{1}{4}y(n-2) = 0$ ,  $y(-1) = y(-2) = 1$

Sol<sup>n</sup> : Taking z-transform of difference equation

$$y(z) + \frac{1}{2}[y(z)\bar{z}^{-1} + y(-1)] - \frac{1}{4}[y(z)\bar{z}^{-2} + y(-2)] = 0$$

$$y(z) + \frac{1}{2}\bar{z}^{-1}[y(z) + y(-1)\bar{z}] - \frac{1}{4}\bar{z}^{-2}[y(z) + y(-2)\bar{z}^2] = 0$$

given  $y(-1) = y(-2) = 1$

~~$$y(z) + \frac{1}{2}\bar{z}^{-1}[y(z) + \bar{z}]$$~~

$$y(z) + \frac{1}{2}[\bar{z}^{-1}y(z) + y(-1)] - \frac{1}{4}[\bar{z}^{-2}y(z) + y(-1)\bar{z}^{-1} + y(-2)] = 0$$

$$y(z) \left[ 1 + \frac{\bar{z}^{-1}}{2} - \frac{\bar{z}^{-2}}{4} \right] = \frac{\bar{z}^{-1}}{4} + \frac{1}{1} - \frac{1}{2}$$

$$y(z) = \left( \frac{\frac{1}{4}\bar{z}^{-1} - \frac{1}{4}}{1 + \frac{\bar{z}^{-1}}{2} - \frac{\bar{z}^{-2}}{4}} \right)$$

From e. Ramesh Babu  
 Duri, 1994

# DFT

11/2/2016

Page-1

- DFT is a powerful computation tool which allows to evaluate the FT (Fourier transform)  $X(e^{j\omega})$  on digital computer or specially hardware design.
- DFT is defined only for sequence of finite length.  $X(e^{j\omega})$  is continuous and periodic.
- DFT is obtained by sampling one period of the FT at a finite number of frequency points.
- \* DFT plays an important role in the implementation of many signal processing algorithms.
- \* DFT is used to perform linear filtering operations in the frequency domain.

# DFT of a sequence of periodic and in the frequency range 0 to  $2\pi$ .

Many  $\omega$  in the range of 0 to  $2\pi$ .

→ Use digital computer to compute 'N' equally spaced points over the interval of  $0 \leq \omega \leq 2\pi$ ,

Then 'N' points should be located at

$$\omega_k = \frac{2\pi}{N} k, \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, N-1.$$

→ 'N' equally spaced frequency samples of the DTFT are known as DFT. It denoted  $X(k)$

$$X(k) = X(e^{j\omega}) \Big|_{\omega = \frac{2\pi}{N} k}, \quad 0 \leq k \leq N-1.$$

$$\text{DFT } X(k) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) e^{-j2\pi kn/N}, \quad 0 \leq k \leq N-1$$

$$\text{IDFT } x(n) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} X(k) e^{j2\pi kn/N}, \quad 0 \leq n \leq N-1$$

\*  $W_N = e^{-j2\pi/N}$  → twiddle factor

$$X(k) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) W_N^{nk}$$

$$x(n) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} X(k) W_N^{-nk}$$

##  $X(k) = \text{DFT}[x(n)]$   
 $x(n) = \text{IDFT}[X(k)]$

\*\* DFT computes  $N$  equally spaced frequency samples of the DTFT.

# Both the indices ' $n$ ' and ' $k$ ' are ranging from 0 to  $N-1$ .

→ the integer ' $n$ ' is known as time index, it denotes the time instant.

→ the integer  $k$  denotes discrete frequency and called frequency index.

⇒ Twiddle factor is a vector on the Page-3  
unit circle and it represents  $N$  equally spaced samples.

$$W_N^{kN}$$

Assume  $kN = r$

$$W_N^r$$

For  $N = 12 \dots 16$

$$W_8^0 = e^{-0} = 1$$

$$W_8^1 = e^{-\frac{j2\pi}{8}}$$

$$W_8^2 = e^{-\frac{j2\pi \times 2}{8}} = e^{-\frac{j\pi}{2}}$$

\* In general  $W^r = W^{r \pm N} = W^{r \pm 2N} = \dots$

This is known as periodicity property of twiddle factor.

$$W_8^0 = W_8^8 = W_8^{16} = \dots = 1$$

$$W_8^1 = W_8^9 = W_8^{17} = \dots = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} - \frac{j}{\sqrt{2}}$$

\*  $W_8^1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} - \frac{j}{\sqrt{2}}$  and  $W_8^5 = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{j}{\sqrt{2}}$

Similarly  $W_8^2 = -j$  and  $W_8^6 = j$

In general,  ~~$W^r$~~   $W^r = -W^{r \pm N/2}$

This is known as symmetry property of twiddle factor.

→ Frequency analysis of a discrete time signal is performed on a digital signal processor.

→ It converts time domain ~~x(n)~~ sequence  $x(n)$  to an equivalent frequency domain  $X(\omega)$ .

\* An aperiodic DTS  $x(n)$  with Fourier transform

$$X(\omega) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(n) e^{-j\omega n}$$

→ Discrete Fourier transform (DFT) :-

(N-Point DFT)

$$X(k) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) e^{-j\frac{2\pi k n}{N}} \quad \text{where } k=0, 1, 2, \dots, N-1.$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) W_N^{kn} \quad \text{where } W_N^{kn} = e^{-j\frac{2\pi k n}{N}}.$$

→ Inverse Discrete Fourier transform (IDFT).

$$x(n) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} X(k) e^{j\frac{2\pi k n}{N}} \quad ; n=0, 1, 2, \dots, N-1.$$

\* Compute 4-point DFT of causal sequence given by

$$x(n) = \frac{1}{3} ; 0 \leq n \leq 2$$

$$= 0 ; \text{ else.}$$

Soln

$$X(k) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) e^{-j2\pi k \frac{n}{N}}$$

Here  $N=4$ ,

$$X(k) = \sum_{n=0}^3 x(n) e^{-j\frac{2\pi nk}{4}}$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^3 x(n) e^{-j\frac{\pi nk}{2}}$$

$$X(k) = x(0)e^0 + x(1)e^{-j\frac{\pi k}{2}} + x(2)e^{-j\pi k} + x(3)e^{-j\frac{3\pi k}{2}}$$

The values of  $x(k)$  can be evaluated for  $k=0, 1, 2, 3$ .

$\therefore$  The 4-point DFT sequence of  $x(n)$  is

$$X(k) = \left\{ 1, \angle 0, \frac{1}{3} \angle -\frac{\pi}{3}, \frac{1}{3} \angle 0, \frac{1}{3} \angle \frac{\pi}{2} \right\}$$

$$\text{Magnitude function} = \left\{ 1, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3} \right\}$$

$$\text{Phase function} = \left\{ 0, -\frac{\pi}{3}, 0, \frac{\pi}{2} \right\}$$

# Properties of the DFT

→ Linearity If  $x_1(n) \xleftrightarrow[N]{\text{DFT}} X_1(k)$   
 $x_2(n) \xleftrightarrow[N]{\text{DFT}} X_2(k)$

then  $\boxed{ax_1(n) + bx_2(n) \xleftrightarrow[N]{\text{DFT}} aX_1(k) + bX_2(k)}$

→ Periodicity If  $x(n) \xleftrightarrow[N]{\text{DFT}} X(k)$

then  $x(n+N) = x(n)$

$\boxed{\text{then } x(k+N) = x(k)}$

→ Circular Shift of Sequence:-

$x_c(n) = x_p(n-k)$

$x_c(n) = x[(n-k), \text{modulo } N], 0 \leq n \leq N-1$

$x_c(n) = x[(n-k)N]$

↳ represented as circular ~~convolution~~ <sup>shift</sup>

Generally, circular ~~convolution~~ <sup>shift</sup> is defined

$x_c(n) = \begin{cases} x_p(n-k) = x[(n-k)N] & 0 \leq n \leq N-1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

→ \* circular convolution & multiplication of two DFTs

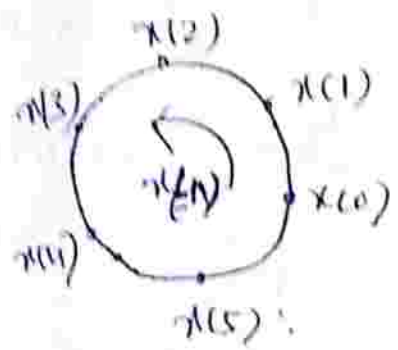
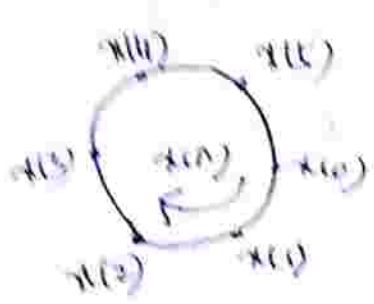


→ Time reversal of a sequence

If  $x(n) \xleftrightarrow[N]{\text{DFT}} X(k)$

then  $x((-n))_N = x(N-n) \xleftrightarrow[N]{\text{DFT}} X((-k))_N$   
 $= X(N-k)$

$x(N-n) \xleftrightarrow[N]{\text{DFT}} X(N-k)$



→ circular frequency shift

If  $x(n) \xleftrightarrow[N]{\text{DFT}} X(k)$

then  $x(n) e^{j2\pi ln/N} \xleftrightarrow[N]{\text{DFT}} X((k-l))_N$

→ circular time shift

If  $x(n) \xleftrightarrow[N]{\text{DFT}} X(k)$

then  $x((n-l))_N \xleftrightarrow[N]{\text{DFT}} X(k) e^{-j2\pi kl/N}$

→ DFT of even & odd sequences :-

- The dft of an even sequence is purely real.
- The dft of an odd sequence is purely imaginary.

→ DFT can be calculated using cosine & sine transforms for even & odd sequences respectively.

\* For even sequence

$$X(k) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) \cos\left(\frac{2\pi nk}{N}\right)$$

\* For odd sequence

$$X(k) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) \sin\left(\frac{2\pi nk}{N}\right)$$

Ex Compute the DFT of sequence defined by  $x(n) = (-1)^n$  for (a)  $N=3$  (b)  $N=4$   
(c)  $N=\text{even}$  (d)  $N=\text{odd}$

C. Ramesh  
Babu durai  
Page-124

Soln

$$X(k) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) e^{-j\frac{2\pi kn}{N}}$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) W_N^{kn} = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} (-1)^n W_N^{kn}$$

$$X(k) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \left[ (c-1) x \omega_N^{kn} \right]^n = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} (-\omega_N^{kn})^n$$

Linear convolution length =  $N_1 + N_2 - 1$

\* Circular convolution length  $N = \text{Max}(N_1, N_2)$   
if  $N_1 > N_2$

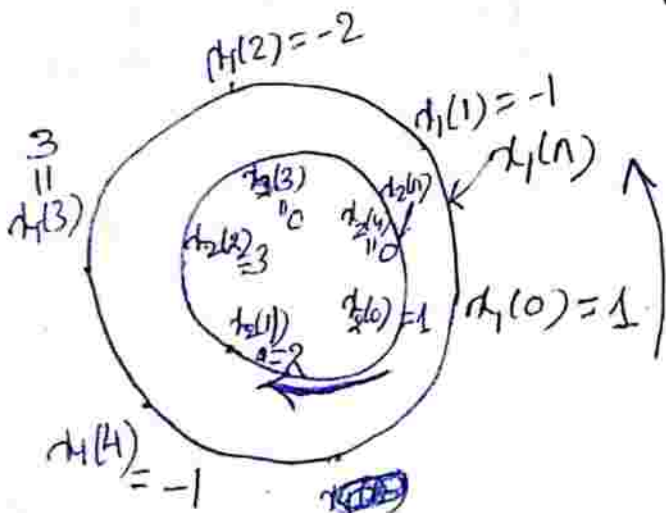
Methods are used for calculating circular convolution — (i) Concentric circle Method  
(ii) Matrix multiplication Method.

Circular convolution

Q.  $x_1(n) = \{1, -1, -2, 3, -1\}$   $x_2(n) = \{1, 2, 3\}$

Soln Needs same length of circular two sequence.

So, we can write  $x_1(n) = \{1, -1, -2, 3, -1\}$   
 $x_2(n) = \{1, 2, 3, 0, 0\}$



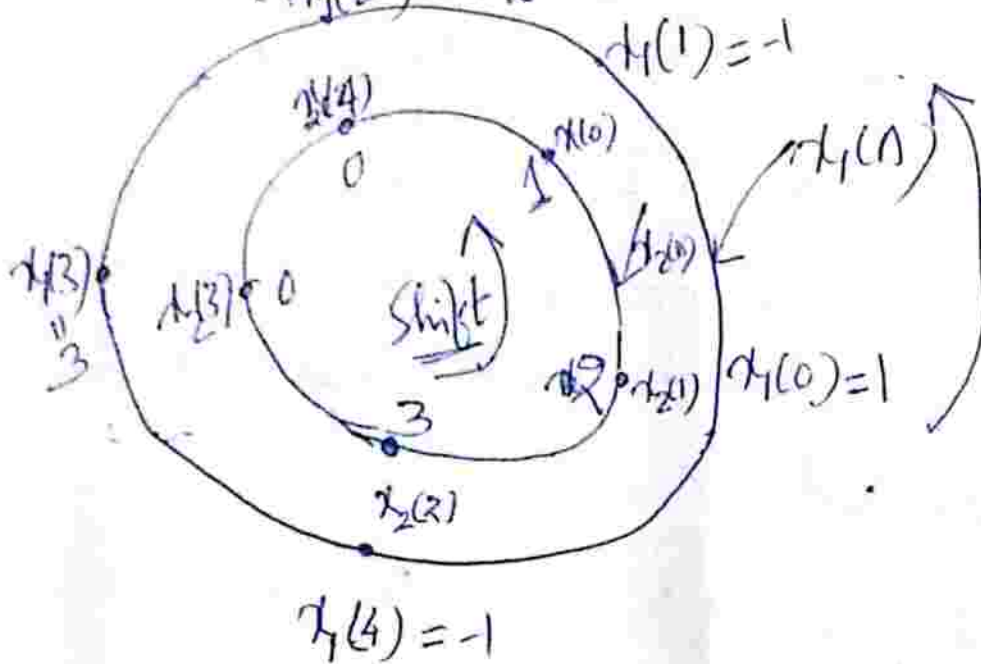
$x_1(n)$  is in counter clockwise direction

$x_2(n)$  is in clockwise direction

$$y(0) = x_1(0)x_2(0) + x_1(1)x_2(4) + x_1(2)x_2(3) + x_1(3)x_2(2) + x_1(4)x_2(1)$$

$$y(0) = (1)(1) + (-1)(0) + (-2)(0) + 3(3) + 2(-1) = 1 + 9 - 2 = 8$$

→ Rotate the inner circle in anti-clockwise direction by one sample, multiply the corresponding samples to obtain  $y(1)$ .



$$y(1) = (1)(2) + (1)(1) + (-2)(0) + 3(0) + (-1)3$$

$$= 2 - 1 - 3 = -2$$

Similarly  $y(2) = -1$ ,  $y(3) = -4$  &  $y(4) = -1$

$$\text{Result } y(n) = \{8, -2, -1, -4, -1\}$$

# \* Matrix Method

$$\begin{bmatrix}
 x_2(0) & x_2(4) & x_2(3) & x_2(2) & x_2(1) \\
 x_2(1) & x_2(0) & x_2(4) & x_2(3) & x_2(2) \\
 x_2(2) & x_2(1) & x_2(0) & x_2(4) & x_2(3) \\
 x_2(3) & x_2(2) & x_2(1) & x_2(0) & x_2(4) \\
 x_2(4) & x_2(3) & x_2(2) & x_2(1) & x_2(0)
 \end{bmatrix}
 \begin{bmatrix}
 x_1(0) \\
 x_1(1) \\
 x_1(2) \\
 x_1(3) \\
 x_1(4)
 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix}
 y(0) \\
 y(1) \\
 y(2) \\
 y(3) \\
 y(4)
 \end{bmatrix}$$

Q Given  $x_1(n) = \{1, -1, -2, 3, -1\}$   
 $x_2(n) = \{1, 2, 3, 0, 0\}$

$$\begin{bmatrix}
 1 & 0 & 0 & 3 & 2 \\
 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 3 \\
 3 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
 0 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\
 0 & 0 & 3 & 2 & 1
 \end{bmatrix}
 \begin{bmatrix}
 1 \\
 -1 \\
 -2 \\
 3 \\
 -1
 \end{bmatrix}
 = \begin{bmatrix}
 y(0) \\
 y(1) \\
 y(2) \\
 y(3) \\
 y(4)
 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{x_2(n)} \quad \underbrace{\hspace{2em}}_{x_1(n)} \quad \underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{y(n)}$

$y(n) = \{8, -2, -1, -4, -1\}$