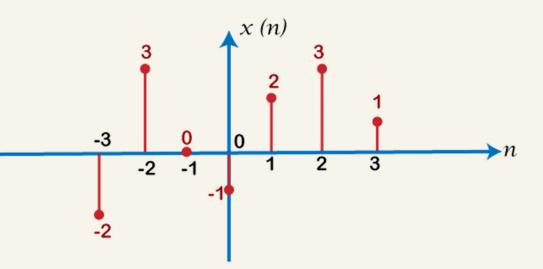


離散時间訊號與系統 Chapter 9 Discrete~Time Signals and Systems



A discrete-time signal

- is defined only at discrete instants of time.
- We denote a discrete-time signal as x[n],
 - where the independent variable *n* may assume only integer values.

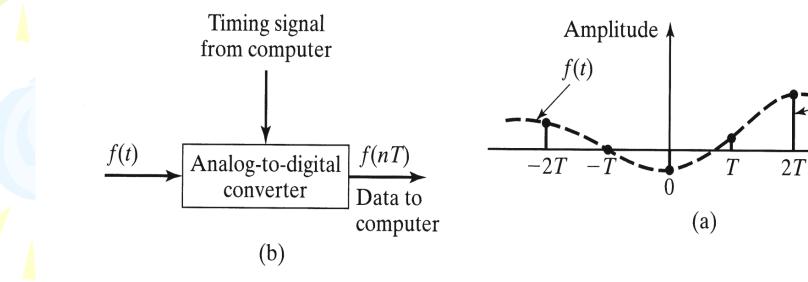
A discrete-time system

- is defined as one in which all signals are discrete-time.
- Discrete-time Signal Processing (DSP)

Sampling

- Continuous-time functions → Discrete-times samples

■ If the signal is sampled at regular increments of time *T*, the number sequence f (nT), n = …, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, …, results. *T* : the sampling period.



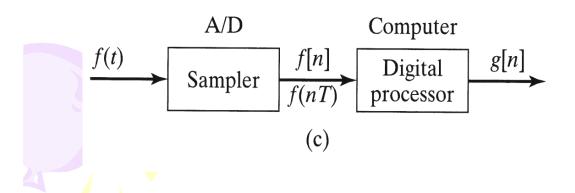


Figure 9.1 Hardware diagram for sampling and processing.

f(nT)

3T

Notations

- f(t) : a continuous-time signal
- f(nT): the value of f(t) at t = nT
- f[n] : a discrete-time signal that is defined only for *n* an integer
- Parentheses () : continuous time
- Brackets []: discrete time.

Continuous-amplitude signal & Discrete-amplitude signal

$$f(nT) = f(t)\Big|_{t=nT}$$
$$f[n] = f(t)\Big|_{t=nT} \neq f(t)\Big|_{t=n}$$

A discrete-time signal can be a amplitude-continuous signal

Discrete-amplitude signal: x[n] can be defined only certain defined amplitude

 \rightarrow Digital signal

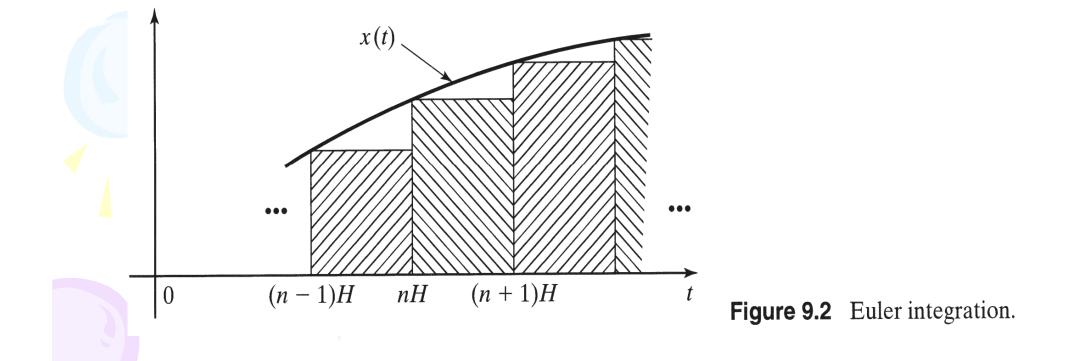
Reasons that engineers are interested in discrete-time signals (Why Digital format?)

- Sampling is required if we are to use digital signal processing (DSP)
- Many communication systems are based on the transmission of discrete-time signals
- Sampling a signal allows us to store the signal in discrete memory.
- Automatically controlling physical systems require digital-computer implementation.
- Consumer products such as CDs, DVDs, digital cameras, and MP3 players use digital signals.



Sec. 9.1 Discrete-Time Signals and Systems

numerical integration as an example



A Difference Equation

$$y(t) = \int_0^t x(\tau) d\tau$$

$$y(t)\Big|_{t=nH} = y(nH) = \int_0^{nH} x(\tau) d\tau$$
$$= \int_0^{(n-1)H} x(\tau) d\tau$$
$$\approx y((n-1)H) + Hx((n-1)H)$$

Ignore ≈

→
$$y(nH) = y((n-1)H) + Hx((n-1)H)$$

 $y[n] = y[n-1] + Hx[n-1]$

Example 9.1 Difference-Equation solution

Consider the numerical integration of a *unit step function* u(t) using Eluer's rule.

Assume initial condition y(0) = 0.

 $x(nH) = 1 \text{ for } n \ge 0 \qquad y[n] = y[n-1] + Hx[n-1]$ $\rightarrow x[n] = 1 \text{ for } n \ge 0$

$$y(t) = \int_0^t u(\tau)d\tau = t, t > 0$$
$$y[n] = nH = y(t)\Big|_{t=nH}$$

$$y[1] = y[0] + Hx[0] = 0 + H$$

$$y[2] = y[1] + Hx[1] = H + H$$

$$y[3] = y[2] + Hx[2] = 2H + H$$

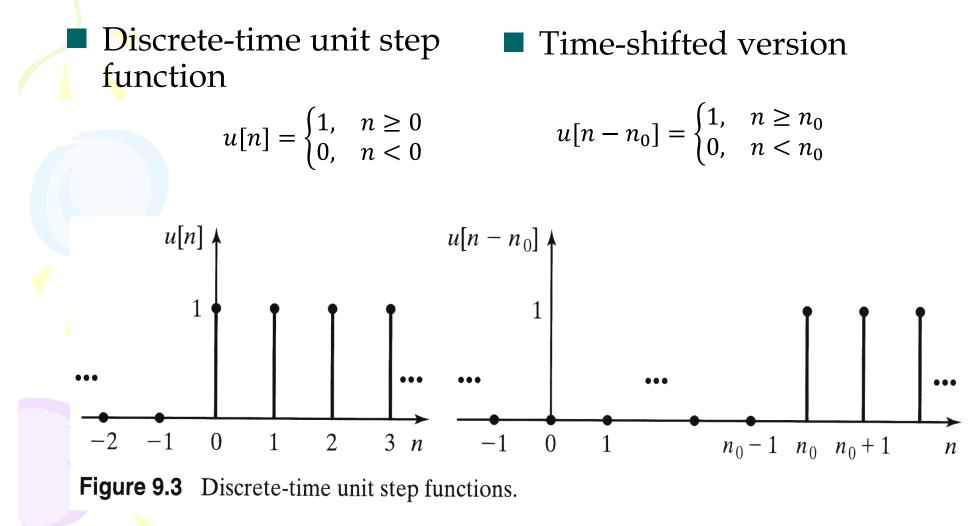
:

$$y[n] = y[n - 1] + Hx[n - 1]$$

$$= (n - 1)H + H = nH$$

Euler's rule gives the exact value for theintegral of the unit step function9/46

Unit Step Functions



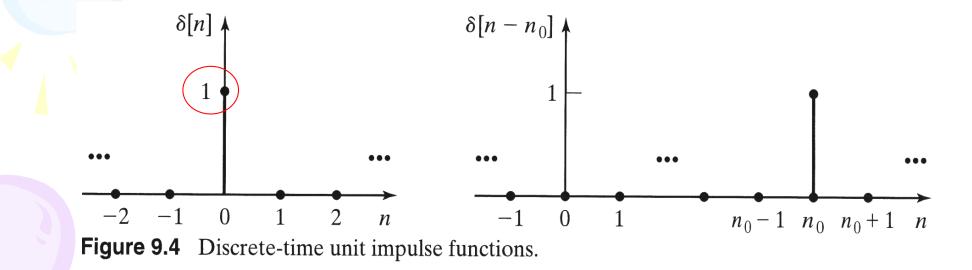
Unit Impulse Functions

Discrete-time unit Impulse function

Time-shifted version

 $\delta[n] = \begin{cases} 1, & n = 0\\ 0, & n \neq 0 \end{cases}$ $\delta[n] \\ = u[n] - u[n-1]$

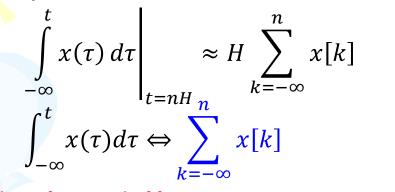
$$\delta[n-n_0] = \begin{cases} 1, & n = n_0 \\ 0, & n \neq n_0 \end{cases}$$



Equivalent Operation

I integration in continuous time⇔ summation in discrete time





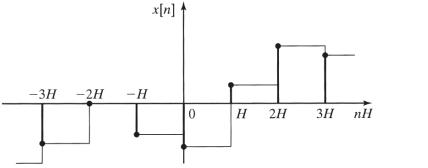
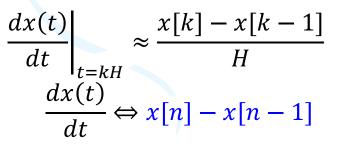


Figure 9.5 Summation yielding approximate integration.

the first difference



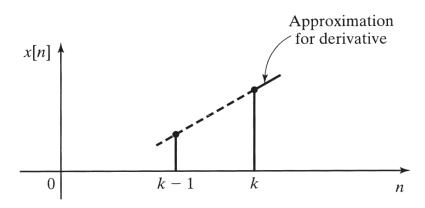


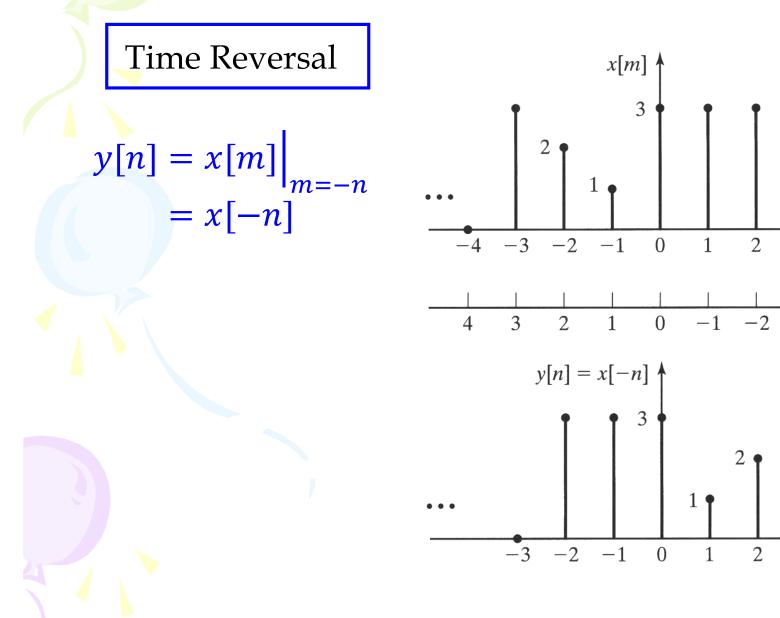
Figure 9.6 Approximate differentiation.

Equivalent Operation

TABLE 9.1 Equivalent Operations

Continuou	ıs Time	Discrete Time
1. $\int_{-\infty}^t x(\tau) d$	au	$\sum_{k=-\infty}^{n} x[k]$
2. $\frac{dx(t)}{dt}$		x[n] - x[n - 1]
3. $x(t)\delta(t) =$	$x(0)\delta(t)$	$x[n]\delta[n] = x[0]\delta[n]$
dt 3. $x(t)\delta(t) =$ 4. $\delta(t) = \frac{du}{dt}$	$\frac{(t)}{t}$	$\delta[n] = u[n] - u[n-1]$
5. $u(t) = \int_{-1}^{1}$	$_{\infty}^{t}\delta(au)d au$	$u[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^n \delta[k]$

Time transformations



n

. . .

2

2

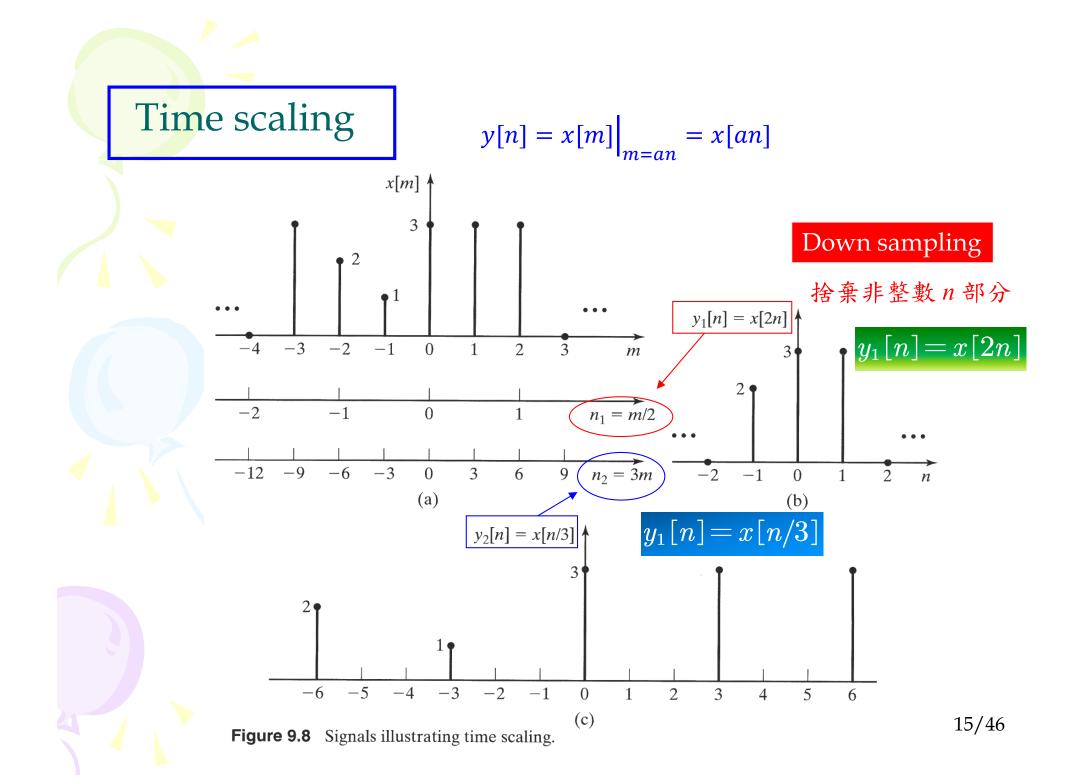
3

4

3

m

-3 n = -m



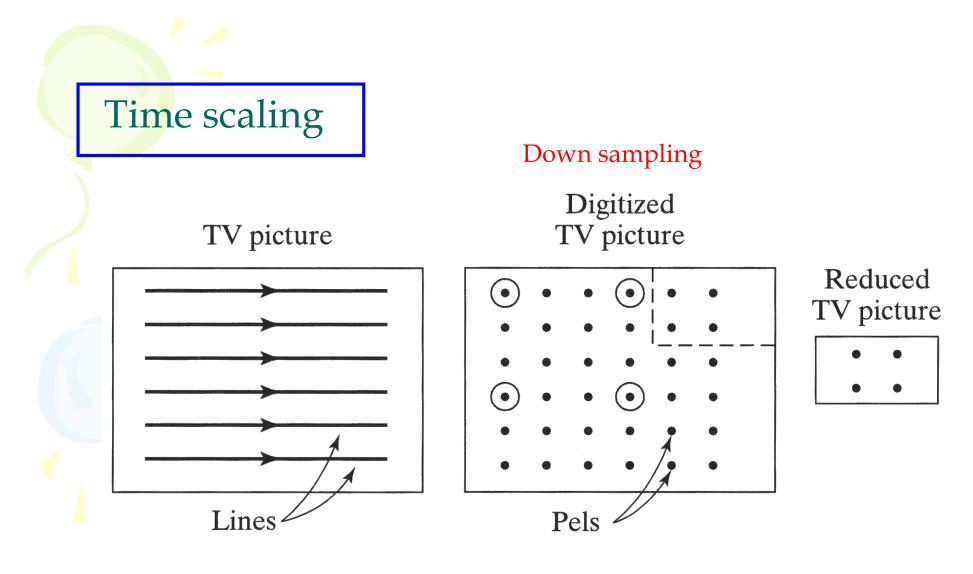
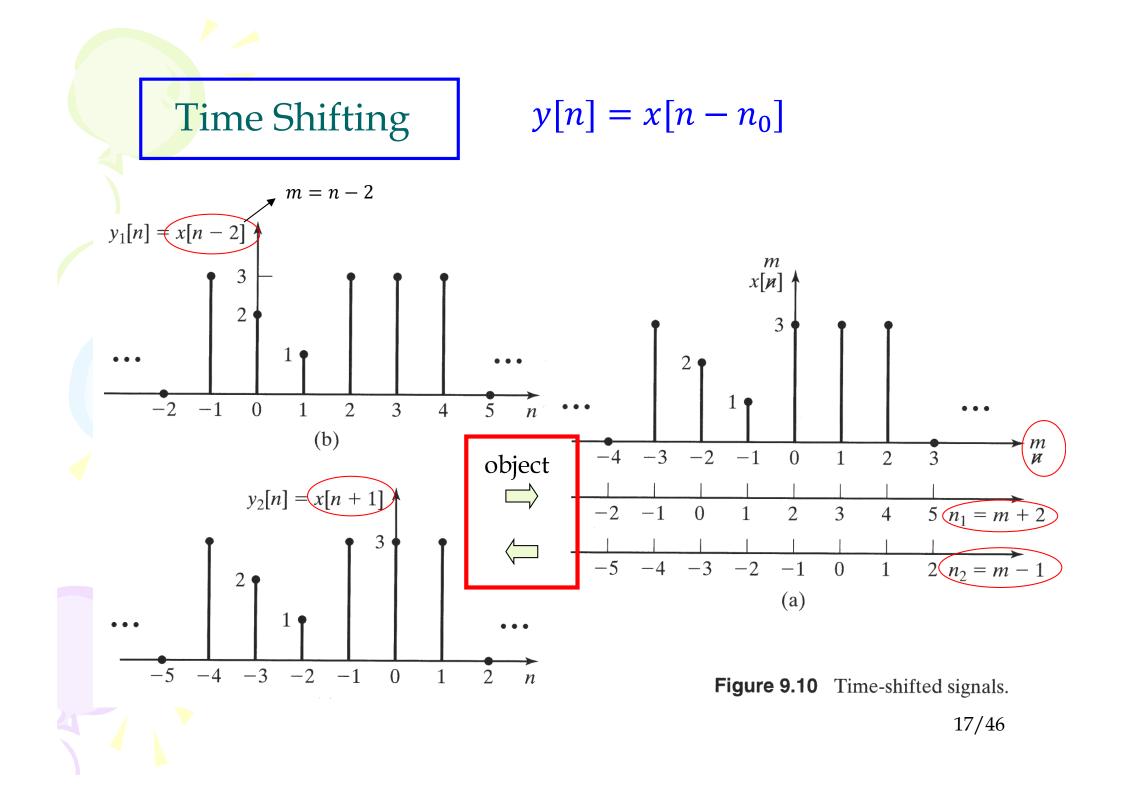


Figure 9.9 Television picture within a picture.

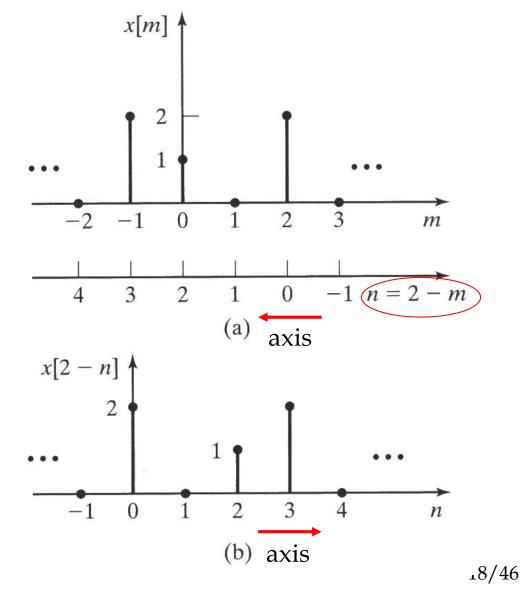


General Form y[n] = x[an + b]

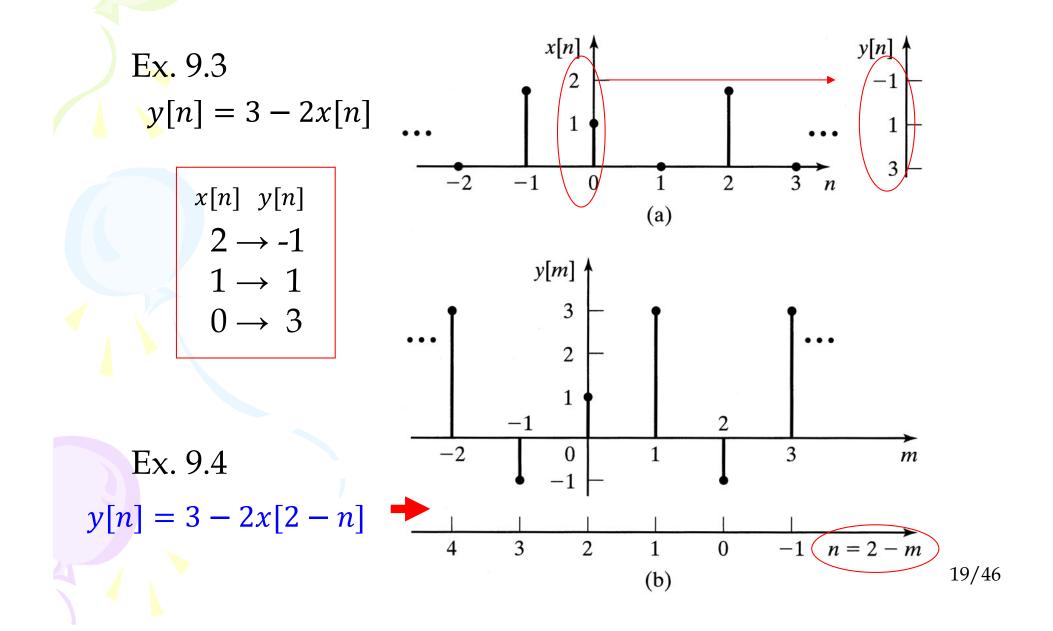
Ex. 9-2

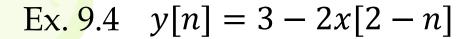
$$y[n] = x[2 - n]$$

$$m = 2 - n \Rightarrow n = 2 - m$$



Amplitude transformation





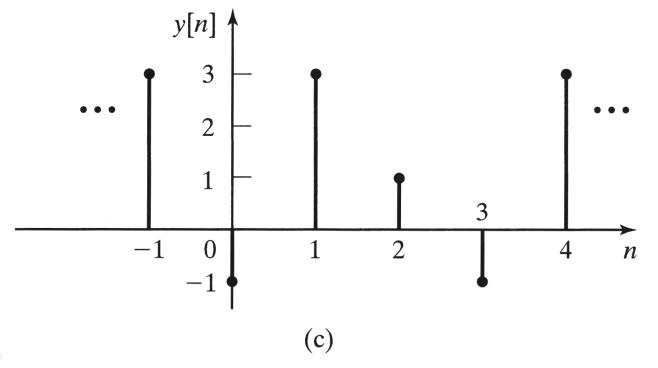


Figure 9.12 Signals for Examples 9.3 and 9.4.

Transformation of signals

TABLE 9.4 Transformations of Signals

Name	y[n]
Time reversal	x[-n]
Time scaling	x[an]
Time shifting	$x[n - n_0]$
Amplitude reversal	-x[n]
Amplitude scaling	A x[n]
Amplitude shifting	x[n] + B

9.3 Characteristics of discrete-time signals

Even and Odd Signals

even $x_e[n] = x_e[-n]$ odd $x_o[n] = -x_o[-n]$ $x[n] = x_e[n] + x_o[n]$

$$x_e[n] = \frac{1}{2} [x[n] + x[-n]]$$
$$x_o[n] = \frac{1}{2} [x[n] - x[-n]]$$

The average value, or mean value, of a discrete-time signal

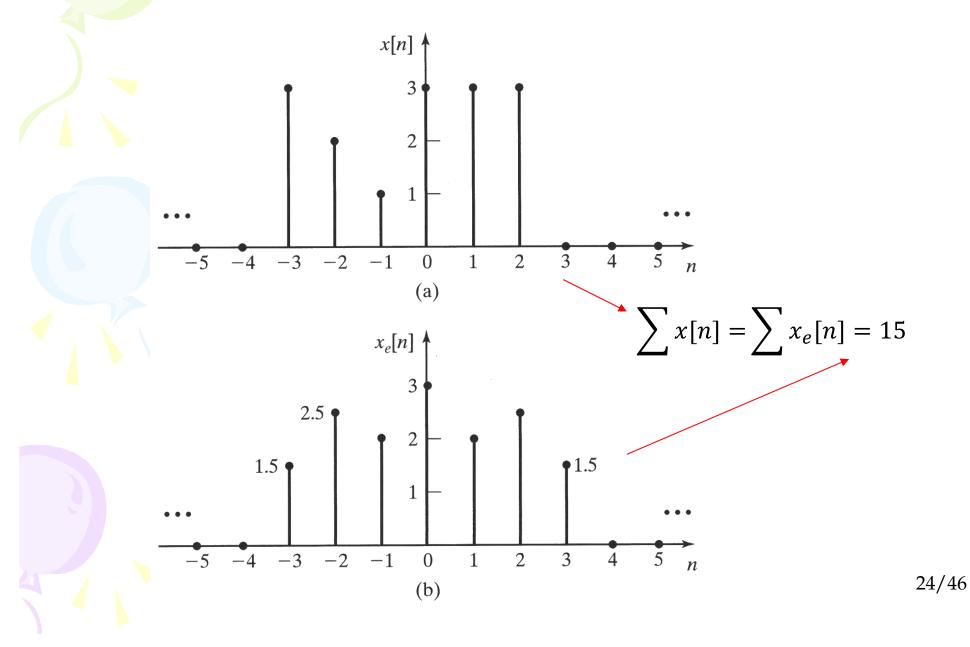
$$A_x = \lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{1}{2N+1} \sum_{k=-N}^{N} x[k]$$

Properties of Even and odd signals

- The sum of two even signals is even.
- The sum of two odd signals is odd.
- The sum of an even signal and an odd signal is neither even nor odd.
- The product of two even signals is even.
- The product of two odd signals is even.
- The product of an even signal and an odd signal is odd.



Ex. 9.5 Even and Odd Functions



Ex. 9.5 Even and Odd Functions

 $x_o[n] + x_o[-n] = x_o[n] - x_o[n] = 0$

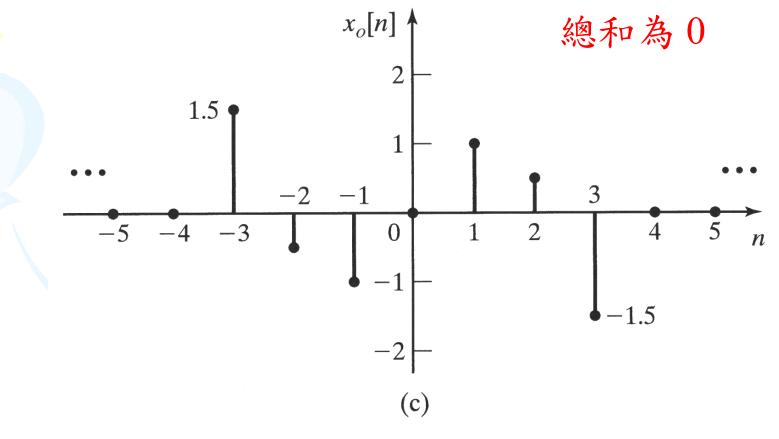


Figure 9.13 Signals for Example 9.5.

Signal Periodic in *n*

• A discrete-time signal is periodic with period = N

$$x[n+N] = x[n]$$

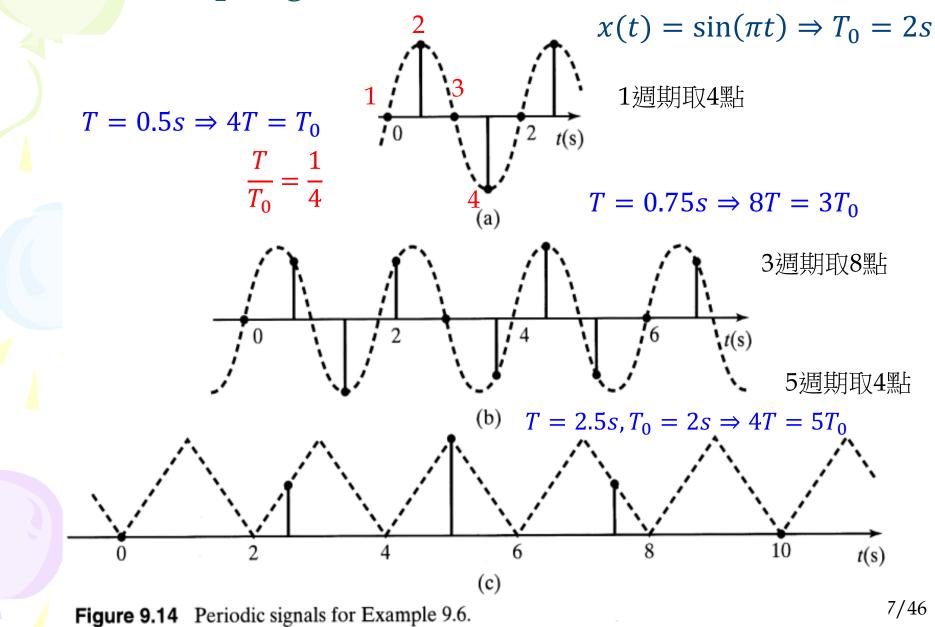
Consider x[n] is obtained by sampling a sinusoidal signal $x(t) = cos(n\omega_0 t)$ every *T* sec.

$$x[n] = \cos(n\omega_0 T)$$

= $x[n + N] = \cos[(n + N)\omega_0 T]$
= $\cos(n\omega_0 T + N\omega_0 T)$

Hence, $N\omega_0 T = N \frac{2\pi}{T_0} T = 2\pi k$, where *k* is any integer $\Rightarrow \frac{T}{T_0} = \underbrace{\frac{k}{N}}_{N} \Rightarrow NT = kT_0$, *N* samples in *k* periods of the signal 26/46

Ex. 9.6 Sampling of a sinusoid



Sampling of complex exponential signal

$$e^{j\omega_0 t}\Big|_{t=nT} = e^{j^{\omega_0 nT}} = x[n]$$

$$e^{jn\omega_0 T} = x[n] = x[n+N]$$

= $e^{j(n+N)\omega_0 T}$
= $e^{jn\omega_0 T} e^{jN\omega_0 T}$
 $e^{jN\omega_0 T} = 1 = e^{j2\pi k}$
 $N\omega_0 T = 2\pi k \Rightarrow NT = kT_0$
 $\Longrightarrow \frac{k}{N} = \frac{T_0}{T}$

The discrete-time exponential signal that is not necessarily obtained by sampling a continuous-time signal.

$$x[n] = e^{jn\omega_0 T} = e^{j\Omega_0 n} = 1\angle(\Omega_0 n)$$

$$x[n] = e^{j\Omega_0 n} = x[n+N]$$

$$= e^{j(\Omega_0 n+\Omega_0 N)}$$

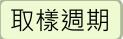
$$= e^{j\Omega_0 n} e^{j2\pi k}$$

$$\Omega_0 N = 2\pi k \Rightarrow \Omega_0 = \frac{k}{N} 2\pi$$

$$x[n] = e^{j\Omega_0 n} e^{j2\pi k}$$

$$\Omega_0 N = 2\pi k \Rightarrow \Omega_0 = \frac{k}{N} 2\pi$$

Real frequency ω_0



Normalized discrete frequency $\Omega_0 = \omega_0 T$

Examples:

 $x[n] = \cos(2n)$

 $\Omega_0 = \frac{k}{N} 2\pi$

$$\Omega_0 = 2, \frac{k}{N} = \frac{1}{\pi} \notin \mathbf{Q} \longrightarrow \text{not periodic}$$

 $x[n] = \cos(0.1\pi n)$

$$\Omega_0 = 0.1\pi, \frac{k}{N} = \frac{1}{20} \in \mathbf{Q} \longrightarrow \text{periodic}$$

(每個連續時間訊號週期,取幾個樣本) N samples/periodic

$$N = \frac{2\pi k}{\Omega_0}$$
, *k* is the smallest integer

Ex: $x[n] = \cos(0.1\pi n)$

$$N = \frac{2\pi k}{0.1\pi} = 20k, k = 1$$

 \Rightarrow *N* = 20 samples/period

N samples/periodic

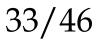
$$N = \frac{2\pi k}{\Omega_0}, k \text{ is the smallest integer}$$
Ex: $x[n] = \cos(5\pi n)$
 $N = \frac{2\pi k}{5\pi} = 0.4k, k = 5$
 $\Rightarrow N = 2$

The discrete-time sinusoid $\cos(\Omega_0 n)$

1. $cos(\Omega_0 n)$ is periodic in *n* only if,

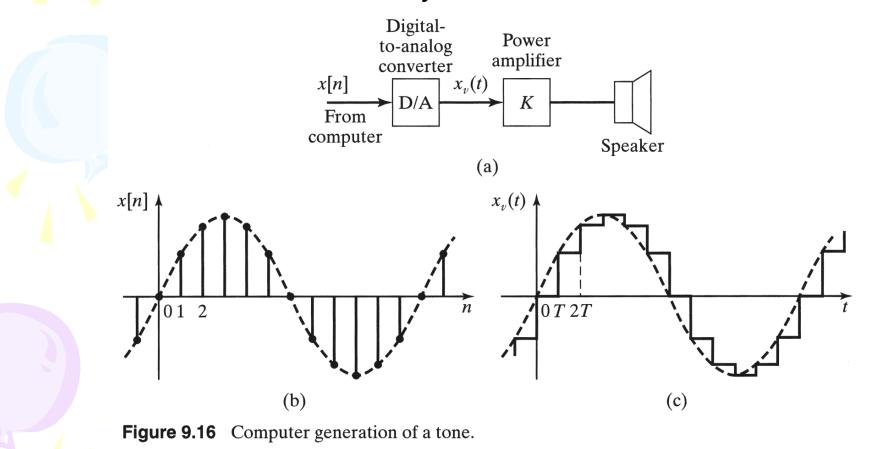
$$\frac{\Omega_0}{2\pi} = \frac{k}{N}$$

2. $\cos(\Omega_0 n)$ is periodic in Ω with periodic 2π $\cos(\Omega_0 n) = \cos(\Omega_0 + 2\pi k) n$



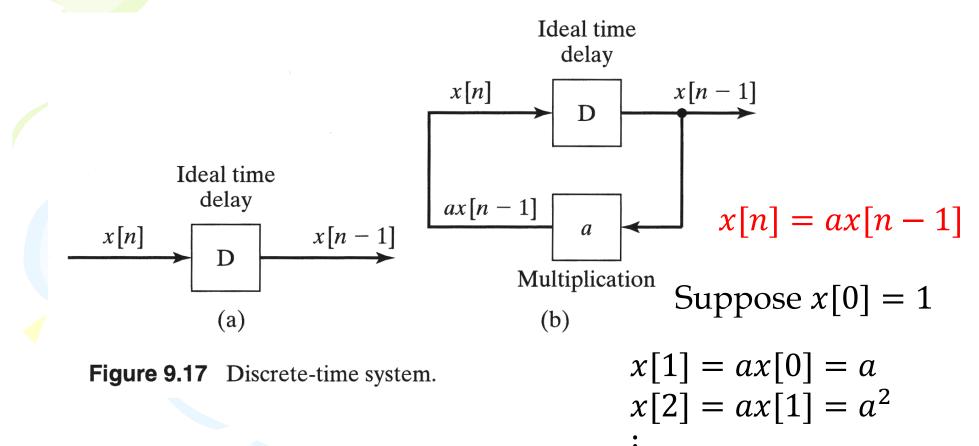
9.4 COMMON DISCRETE-TIME SIGNALS

Some equivalent discrete-time signals are introduced
 These signals can appear in the transient response of certain discrete-time systems.



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COMMON DISCRETE-TIME SIGNALS



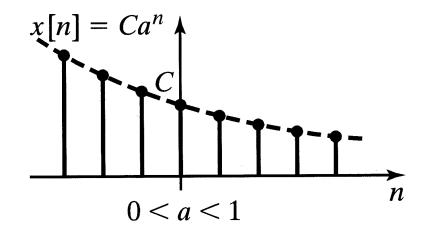
$$x[n] = ax[n-1] = a^n$$

連續時間指數信號

$$e^{-bn} \rightarrow a^{-n}$$

• Letting $a = e^b$, $b = \ln(a)$

$$x[n] = a^n = \left(e^b\right)^n = e^{bn}$$



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Investigate the characteristics of the discretetime signal $x[n] = a^n$ $x[n] = Ca^n$ Let $a = e^b$ $x[n] = a^n = (e^b)^n = e^{bn}$ n 0 < a < 1 $x[n] = 0.9^n$ ex. $0.9 = e^b \Rightarrow b = \ln 0.9 = -0.105$ $x[n] = 0.9^n = e^{-0.105n}$

Suppose we sample an exponential signal every *T* seconds $x(t) = e^{-\sigma nT} = (e^{-\sigma T})^n = (a)^n$, time constant $\tau = \frac{1}{\sigma}$ $\Rightarrow x[n] = (e^{-T/\tau})^n = a^n$ 37/46

每個時間常數,取樣數目
$$e^{-T/\tau} = a \Rightarrow \frac{\tau}{T} = \frac{-1}{\ln a}$$

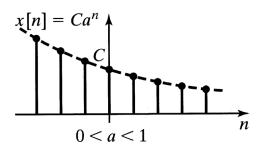
The number of samples per time constant τ /*T*

We can assign a time constant $\tau = \frac{-T}{\ln a}$

to the discrete exponential signal a^n

Ex. 9.7 For the signal $x[n = (0.8)^n$

 $\frac{\tau}{T} = \frac{-1}{\ln 0.8} = 4.48 \Rightarrow \tau = 4.48T$

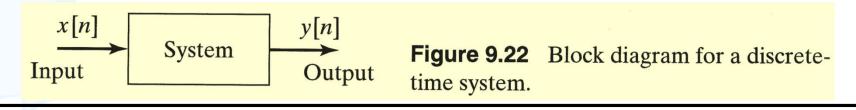


4.48 samples/time constant. Assume $nT > 4\tau$, amplitude can $nT > 4\tau \approx 18T \Rightarrow n > 18$ be neglected. 第18個以後的取樣點可以忽略不計

9.5 COMMON DISCRETE-TIME SIGNALS

■ System

A process for which cause-and-effect relations exist Ex: the Euler integrator y[n] = y[n-1] + Hx[n-1]



Example: A low-pass digital filter the filter removes the higher frequencies in a signal, while passing the lower frequencies.

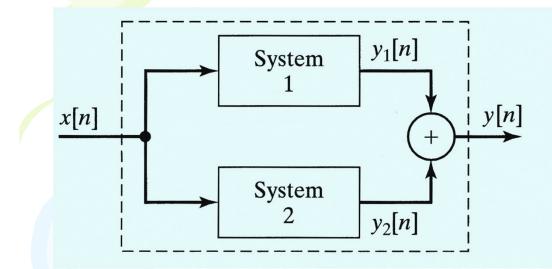
$$y[n] = T(x[n])$$

= $(1 - \alpha)y[n - 1]$ (an α -filter, $0 < \alpha < 1$)

Choices of α and the sample period *T* determine the range of frequencies that the filter will pass.

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Interconnecting Systems



$$y[n] = y_1[n] + y_2[n]$$

= $T_1[n] + T_2[n]$
= $T(x[n])$

Figure 9.23 Parallel connection of systems.

$$y[n] = T_2(y_1[n]) = T_2[T_1(x[n])]$$

= T(x[n])

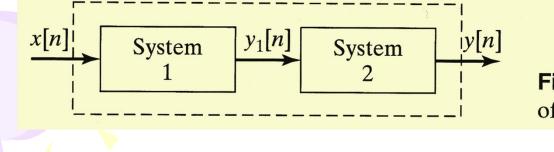


Figure 9.24 Series, or cascade, connection of systems.

9.6 PROPERTIES OF DISCRETE-TIME SYSTEMS

Systems with Memory

A system has memory if its output at time n_o , y[no], depends on input values other than $x[n_o]$

Ex: A simple memoryless discrete-time system y[n] = 5x[n]

(a static system)

Ex: An example of a system with memory

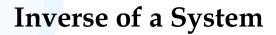
y[n] = y[n-1] + Hx[n-1]

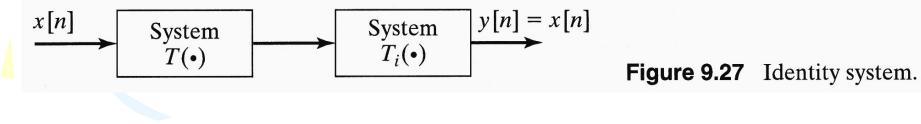
(a dynamic system)

Invertibility

Distinct inputs results in distinct outputs

Ex: y[n] = |x[n]|=> not invertible





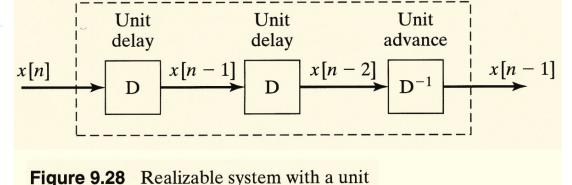
$$y[n] = T_i[T(x[n])] = x[n]$$

Causality Causal Systems

A system is **causal** if the output at any time is dependent on the input only at the present time and in the past.

All physical systems are causal, whether continuous or discrete

Ex: unit delay y[n] = x[n-1] causal Ex: averaging system $y[n] = \frac{1}{3}[x[n-1]+x[n]+x[n+1]]$ noncausal



advance.

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Stability BIBO Stability : the output remains bounded for any bounded input

 $|x[n]| \le M$ for all n. $\Rightarrow |y[n]| \le R$ for all n.

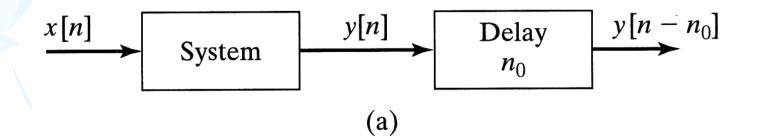
Ex: the Euler integrator y[n] = y[n-1] + Hx[n-1] $y[n] = H \sum_{k=-\infty}^{n-1} x[k]$

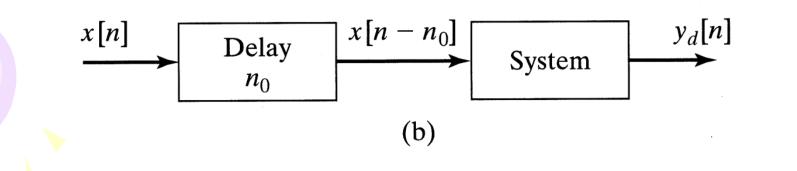
is not stable when x[k] = constant

Time Invariance

if a time shift in the input results only in the same time shift in the output.

$$y[n]\Big|_{n-n_0} = y[n]\Big|_{x[n-n_0]}$$
$$x[n-n_0] \to y[n]|_{x[n-n_0]}$$
$$y[n-n_0] = y_d[n]$$





Linearity

 $a_1 x_1[n] + a_2 x_2[n] \to a_1 y_1[n] + a_2 y_2[n]$

(superposition)

Ex1: Linear system

y[n] = Kx[n]

Ex2: Nonlinear system

 $y[n] = x^2[n]$

Prove it by yourself!

Ex. 9.10 Illustrations of discrete-system properties

$$y[n] = \left[\frac{n+2.5}{n+1.5}\right]^2 x[n]$$

1. Memoryless

2. Invertible
$$x[n] = \left[\frac{n+1.5}{n+2.5}\right]^2 y[n]$$

3. Causal

the output does not depend on the input at a future time

4. stable $|y[n]| \le 9M$, for $x[n] \le M$

Prove it by yourself!

5. Not time-invariant
$$y[n]|_{n-n_0} \neq y[n]|_{x[n-n_0]}$$

6. Linear $a_1 x_1[n] + a_2 x_2[n] \rightarrow \left[\frac{n+2.5}{n+1.5}\right]^2 a_1 y_1[n] + a_2 y_2[n]$ $= a_1 y_1[n] + a_2 y_2[n]$

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- The End of Chapter 9 -