Lecture 12

Signal Transmission & **Windowing Effects** (Lathi 7.4, 7.6, 7.8)

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Signal Transmission through LTI Systems
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• We have seen previously that if x(t) and y(t) are input & output of a LTI system with impulse response h(t), then

$$Y(\omega) = H(\omega)X(\omega)$$

- We can therefore perform LTI system analysis with Fourier transform in a way similar to that of Laplace transform.
- However, FT is more **restrictive** than Laplace transform because the system must be **stable**, and x(t) must itself by Fourier transformable.
- Laplace transform can be used to analyse stable AND unstable system, and apply to signals that grow exponentially.
- If a system is stable, it can shown that the frequency response of the system H(j ω) is just the Fourier transform of h(t) (i.e. H($\dot{\omega}$)):

$$H(\omega) = H(s)|_{s=j\omega}$$

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Example

• Find the zero-state response of a stable LTI system with transfer function $H(s) = \frac{1}{s+2}$

and the input is $x(t) = e^{-t}u(t)$.

- The FT of input x(t) is: $X(\omega) = \frac{1}{i\omega + 1}$
- Since the system is stable, therefore $H(j\omega) = H(\omega)$. Hence

$$H(\omega) = H(s)|_{s=j\omega} = \frac{1}{j\omega + 2}$$

Therefore

$$Y(\omega) = H(\omega)X(\omega) = \frac{1}{(j\omega+2)(j\omega+1)}$$

• Using partial fractions, we get:

$$Y(\omega) = \frac{1}{j\omega + 1} - \frac{1}{j\omega + 2}$$

y(t) = (e^{-t} - e^{-2t})u(t)

Time-domain vs Frequency-domain

Impulse responseSystem response to
$$e^{j\omega t}$$
 is $H(w)e^{j\omega t}$ $\delta(t) \implies h(t)$ $e^{j\omega t} \implies H(\omega)e^{j\omega t}$ $x(t)$ as sum of impulse components $x(t)$ as sum of everlasting
exponential components $x(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(\tau)\delta(t-\tau) d\tau$ $x(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X(\omega)e^{j\omega t} d\omega$ $y(t)$ as sum of responses to impulse
components $y(t)$ as sum of responses to
exponential components $y(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(\tau)h(t-\tau) d\tau$ $y(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X(\omega)H(\omega)e^{j\omega t} d\omega$ $y(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X(\omega)H(\omega)e^{j\omega t} d\omega$

Signal Distortion during transmission

- QUESTION: What is the characteristic of a system that allows signal to pass without distortion?
- Transmission is distortionless if output is identical to input within a multiplicative constant, and relative delay is allowed. That is:

 $y(t) = G_0 x(t - t_d)$

$$Y(\omega) = G_0 X(\omega) e^{-j\omega t_d}$$

But Y(ω)/X(ω) = H(ω), therefore the frequency characteristic of a distortionless system is:

$$H(\omega) = G_0 e^{-j\omega t_d} \qquad \qquad |H(\omega)| = G_0$$
$$\angle H(\omega) = -\omega t_d$$

For distortionless transmission, amplitude response $|H(\omega)|$ must be a constant AND phase response $\angle H(\omega)$ must be linear function of ω with slope $-t_d$.

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Bandpass Systems & Group Delay



• If one applies an input $z(t) = x(t) \cos \omega_c t$, then the output y(t) is:

 $y(t) = G_0 x(t - t_g) \cos \left[\omega_c (t - t_g) + \phi_0\right]$

- That is, the output is the delayed version of input z(t) and the output carrier acquires an extra phase φ₀.
- The envelope of the signal is therefore distortionless.
- For the proof, see Lathi page 723.

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Group Delay (again)

- *LH(ω)* = -ωt_d means that every spectral component is delayed by t_d seconds.
- Therefore a distortionless transmission needs a flat amplitude response and a linear phase response:
- Measure phase linearity with:

 $t_g(\omega) = -\frac{d}{d\omega} \angle H(\omega)$



- If $t_a(\omega)$ is constant, signal is delayed by t_a (assuming constant $H(\omega)$).
- t_q(ω) is known as Group delay or Envelope delay.
- Human ears are sensitive to amplitude distortion, but not phase distortion.
- Human eyes are sensitive to phase distortion, but not (so much) amplitude distortion

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Example

• A signal z(t) shown below is given by $z(t) = x(t) \cos \omega_c t$ where $\omega_c = 2000\pi$. The pulse x(t) is a lowpass pulse of duration 0.1sec and has a bandwidth of about 10Hz. This signal is passed through a filter whose frequency response is shown below. Find and sketch the filter output y(t).



• Z(t) is a narrow band signal with bandwidth of 20Hz centered around 1kHz.



Parseval's Theorem

• The energy of a signal x(t) can be derived in time or frequency domain:



Total energy is area under the curve of



Energy Spectral Density of a signal

 $|X(\omega)|^2$ vs ω (divided by 2π).

• The energy over a small frequency band $\Delta \omega$ ($\Delta \omega \rightarrow 0$) is:

$$\Delta E_x = \frac{1}{2\pi} |X(\omega)|^2 \Delta \omega = |X(\omega)|^2 \Delta f \qquad \frac{\Delta \omega}{2\pi} = \Delta f \text{ Hz}$$

Energy spectral density (per

unit bandwidth in Hz)

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Energy Spectral Density of a REAL signal

• If x(t) is a real signal, then $X(\omega)$ and $X(-\omega)$ are conjugate (L11, slide2):

$$|X(\omega)|^2 = X(\omega)X^*(\omega) = X(\omega)X(-\omega)$$

• This implies that $X(\omega)$ is an even function. Therefore

$$E_x = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\infty |X(\omega)|^2 \, d\omega$$

 Consequently, the energy contributed by a real signal by spectral components between ω₁ and ω₂ is:

$$\Delta E_x = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{\omega_1}^{\omega_2} |X(\omega)|^2 d\omega$$

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Example

- Find the energy E of signal x(t) = e^{-at} u(t). Determine the frequency W (rad/s) so that the energy contributed by the spectral component from 0 to W is 95% of the total signal energy E.
 - Take FT of x(t): $X(\omega) = \frac{1}{i\omega + a}$

$$E_x = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\infty |X(\omega)|^2 d\omega = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\infty \frac{1}{\omega^2 + a^2} d\omega = \frac{1}{\pi a} \tan^{-1} \frac{\omega}{a} \Big|_0^\infty = \frac{1}{2a}$$

• Energy in band 0 to W is 95% of this, therefore:

$$\frac{0.95\pi}{2} = \tan^{-1}\frac{W}{a} \implies W = 12.706a \text{ rad/s}$$

 Note: For this signal, 95% of energy is in small frequency band from 0 to 12.7a rad/s or 2.02a Hz!!!

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Windowing and its effect

• Extracting a segment of a signal in time is the same as multiplying the signal with a rectangular window:



Remedies for side effects of truncation

- 1. Make mainlobe width as narrow as possible -> implies as wide a window as possible.
- 2. Avoid big discontinuity in the windowing function to reduce leakage (i.e. high frequency sidelobes).
- 3. 1) and 2) above are incompatible therefore needs a compromise.
- Commonly used windows outside rectangular window are:
 - Hamming windows
 Hanning windows
 Barlett windows
 Blackman windows
 Kaiser windows
 Kaiser windows

Mainlobe & Sidelobes in dB

• Detail effects of windowing (rectangular window):



Comparison of different windowing functions

No.	Window w(t)	Mainlobe Width	Rolloff Rate (dB/oct)	Peak Sidelobe level (dB)
1	Rectangular: rect $\left(\frac{t}{T}\right)$	$\frac{4\pi}{T}$	-6	-13.3
2	Bartlett: $\Delta\left(\frac{t}{2T}\right)$	$\frac{8\pi}{T}$	-12	-26.5
3	Hanning: $0.5\left[1+\cos\left(\frac{2\pi t}{T}\right)\right]$	$\frac{8\pi}{T}$	-18	-31.5
4	Hamming: $0.54 + 0.46 \cos\left(\frac{2\pi t}{T}\right)$	$\frac{8\pi}{T}$	-6	-42.7
5	Blackman: $0.42 + 0.5 \cos\left(\frac{2\pi t}{T}\right) + 0.08 \cos\left(\frac{4\pi t}{T}\right)$	$\frac{12\pi}{T}$	-18	-58.1
6	Kaiser: $\frac{I_0 \left[\alpha \sqrt{1 - 4 \left(\frac{t}{T} \right)^2} \right]}{I_0(\alpha)} 0 \le \alpha \le 10$	$\frac{11.2\pi}{T}$	-6	$-59.9 \ (lpha = 8.168)$
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