

Lecture 6

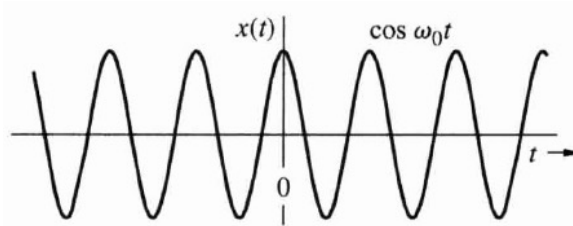
Windowing Effects & Discrete Fourier Transform

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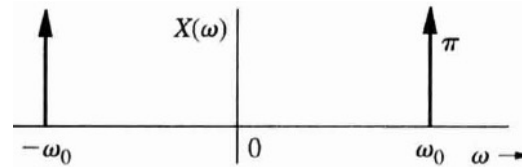
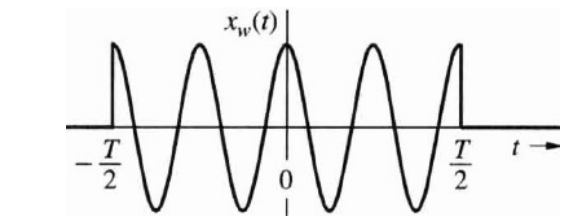
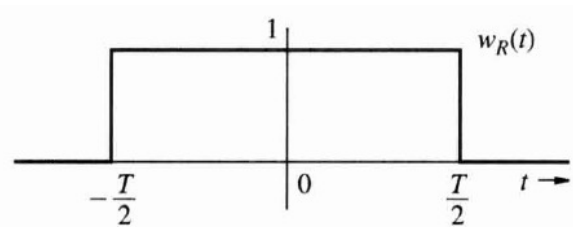
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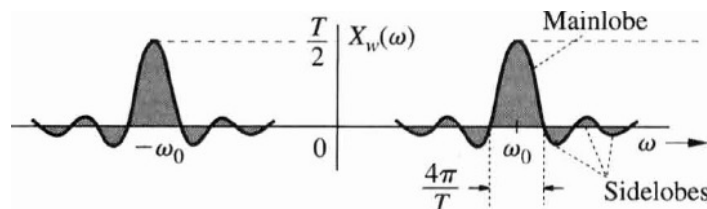
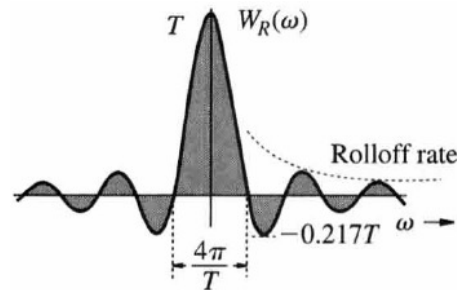
Windowing and its effect

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



X





Spectral spreading

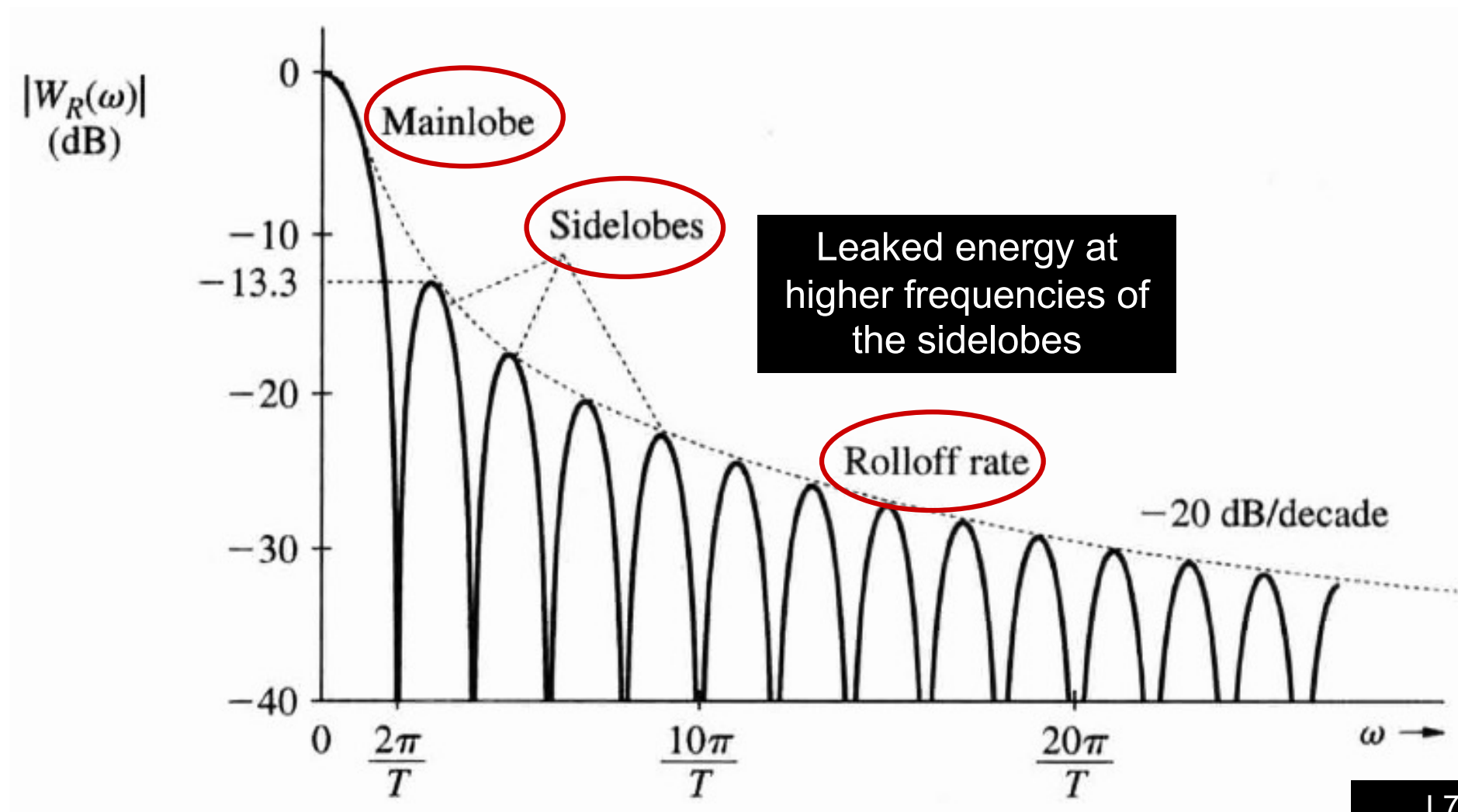
Energy spread out from ω_0 to width of $2\pi/T$ – reduced spectral resolution.

Leakage

Energy leaks out from the mainlobe to the sidelobes.

Mainlobe & Sidelobes in dB

- ◆ Detail effects of windowing (rectangular window):



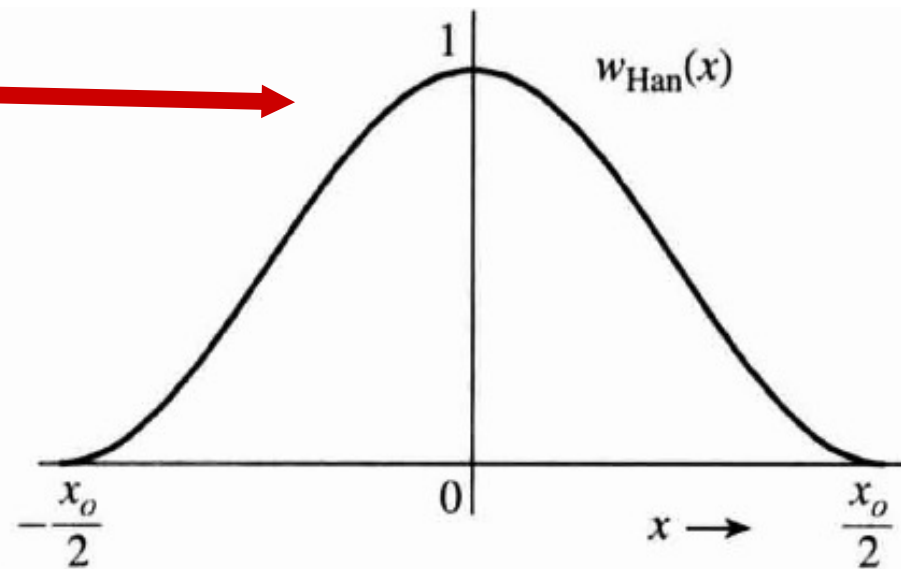
L7.8

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 replace rectangular window with one of these:

- Hamming window
- Hanning window
- Barlett window
- Blackman window
- Kaiser window



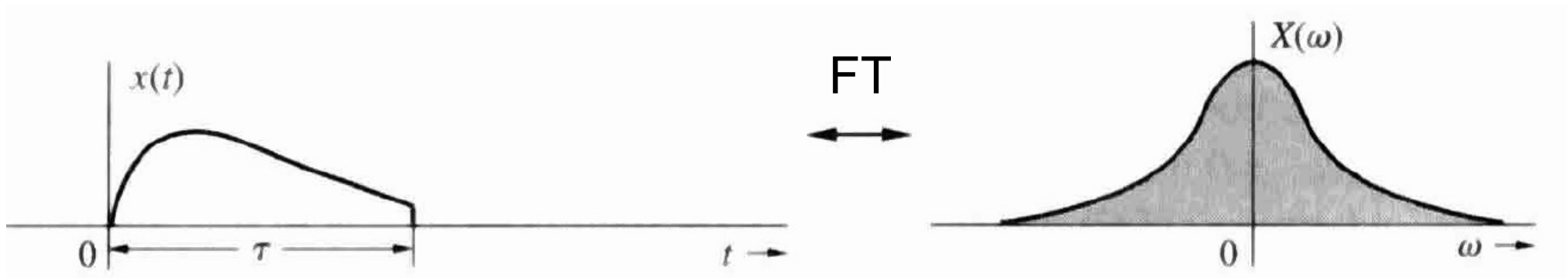
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Comparison of different windowing functions

No.	Window $w(t)$	Mainlobe Width	Rolloff Rate (dB/oct)	Peak Sidelobe level (dB)
1	Rectangular: $\text{rect}\left(\frac{t}{T}\right)$	$\frac{4\pi}{T}$	-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: $\frac{I_0 \left[\alpha \sqrt{1 - 4 \left(\frac{t}{T}\right)^2} \right]}{I_0(\alpha)}$ $0 \leq \alpha \leq 10$	$\frac{11.2\pi}{T}$	-6	-59.9 ($\alpha = 8.168$)

Spectral Sampling (1)

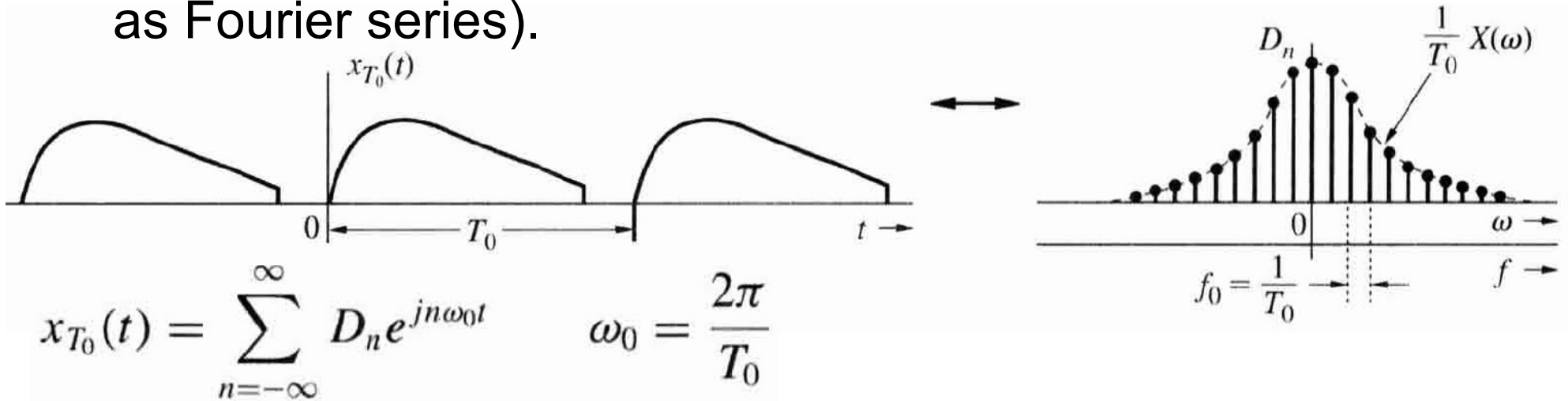
- ◆ As expected, time domain sampling has a dual: spectral sampling.
- ◆ Consider a time limited signal $x(t)$ with a spectrum $X(\omega)$.



$$X(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t)e^{-j\omega t} dt = \int_0^{\tau} x(t)e^{-j\omega t} dt$$

Spectral Sampling (2)

- ◆ If we now CONSTRUCT a periodic signal $x_{T_0}(t)$, we will expect the spectrum of this signal to be discrete (expressed as Fourier series).



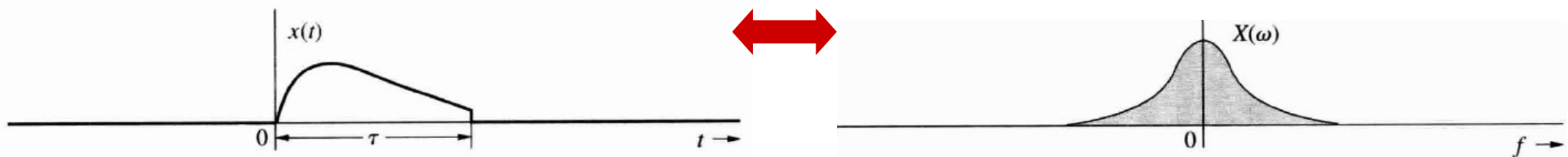
where $D_n = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_0^{T_0} x(t) e^{-jn\omega_0 t} dt = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_0^{\tau} x(t) e^{-jn\omega_0 t} dt$

therefore

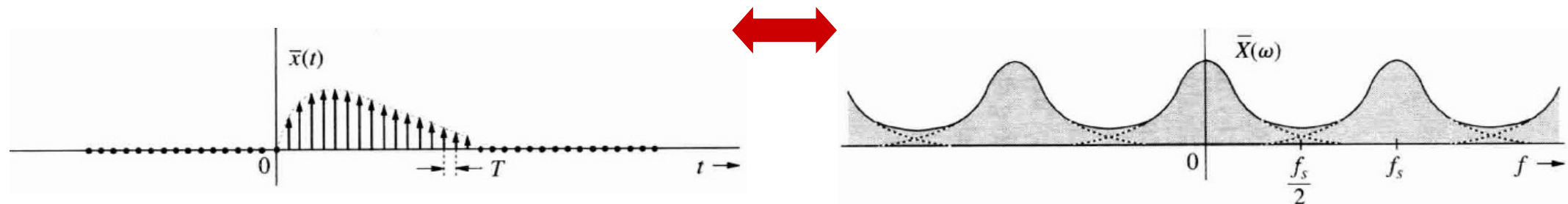
$$D_n = \frac{1}{T_0} X(n\omega_0)$$

The Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT) (1)

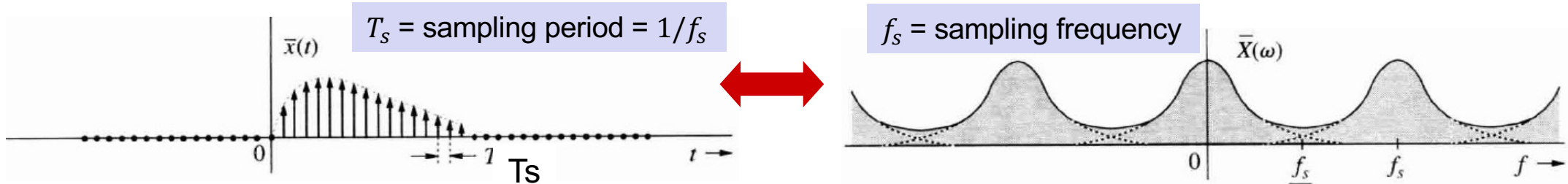
- ◆ Fourier transform is computed (on computers) using discrete techniques.
- ◆ Such numerical computation of the Fourier transform is known as Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT).
- ◆ Begin with time-limited signal $x(t)$, we want to compute its Fourier Transform $X(\omega)$.



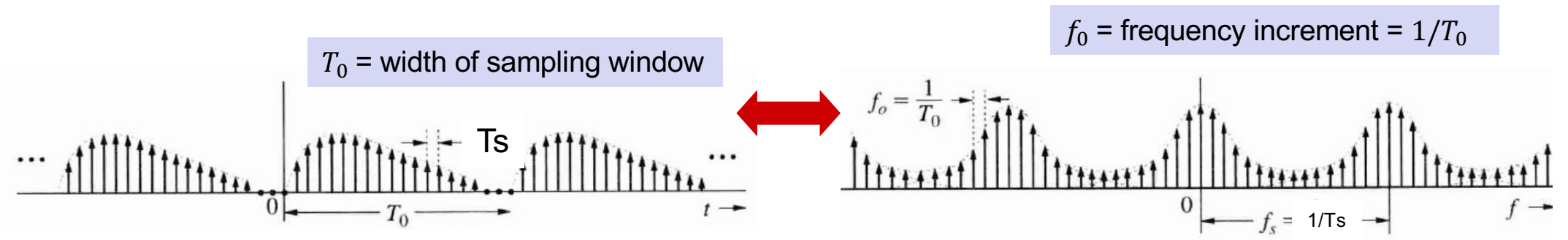
- ◆ We know the effect of sampling in time domain:



The Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT) (2)



- ◆ Now construct the sampled version of $x(t)$ as repeated copies. The effect (from slides 6-8) is sampling the spectrum.



Number of time samples in T_0

$$N_0 = \frac{T_0}{T_s}$$

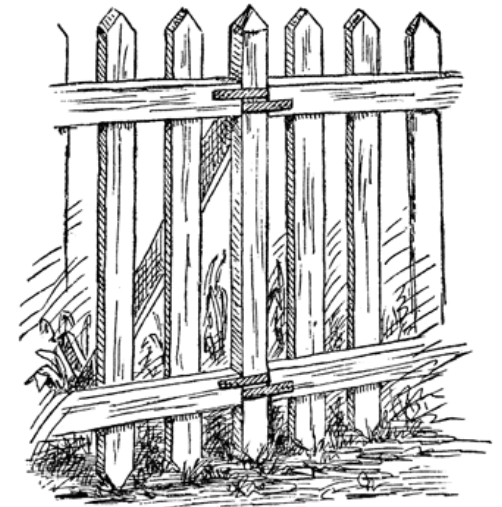
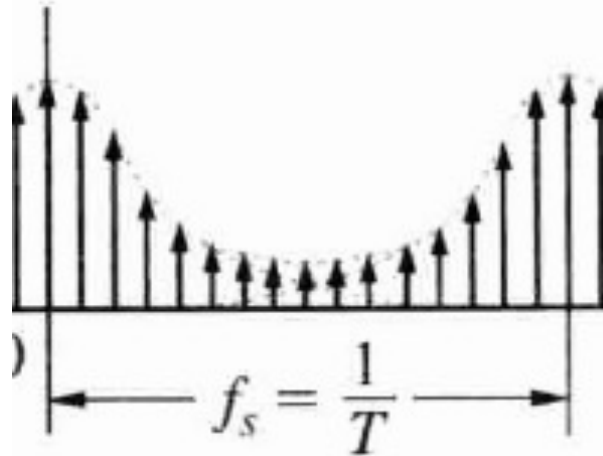
Number of frequency samples in f_s

$$N'_0 = \frac{f_s}{f_0}$$

$$N_0 = \frac{T_0}{T_s} = \frac{1/f_0}{1/f_s} = \frac{f_s}{f_0} = N'_0$$

Picket Fence Effect

- ◆ Numerical computation method yields uniform sampling values of $X(\omega)$.
- ◆ Information between samples in spectrum is missing – picket fence effect:
- ◆ Can improve spectral resolution by increasing number of samples used in the window N_0 , i.e. the period of signal being transformed T_0 .



Formal definition of DFT

- ◆ If $x[nT]$ and $X[r\omega_0]$ are the n^{th} and r^{th} samples of $x(t)$ and $X(\omega)$ respectively, then we define:

$$x_n = T_s \times x[nT_s] = \frac{T_0}{N_0} x[nT] \quad \text{and} \quad X_r = X(r\omega_0)$$

where

$$\omega_0 = 2\pi f_0 = \frac{2\pi}{T_0}$$

- ◆ Then

Forward DFT

$$X_r = \sum_{n=0}^{N_0-1} x_n e^{-jr\Omega_0 n}$$

$$\Omega_0 = \omega_0 T = \frac{2\pi}{N_0}$$

Inverse DFT

$$x_n = \frac{1}{N_0} \sum_{r=0}^{N_0-1} X_r e^{jr\Omega_0 n}$$

Parseval's Theorem

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

$$E_x = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x(t)|^2 dt = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |X(\omega)|^2 d\omega$$

- ◆ Proof:

$$E_x = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x(t)|^2 dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t)x^*(t) dt \quad \boxed{x^*(t) \iff X^*(-\omega)}$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) \left[\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X^*(\omega) e^{-j\omega t} d\omega \right] dt$$

Change order of integration

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X^*(\omega) \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-j\omega t} dt \right] d\omega$$

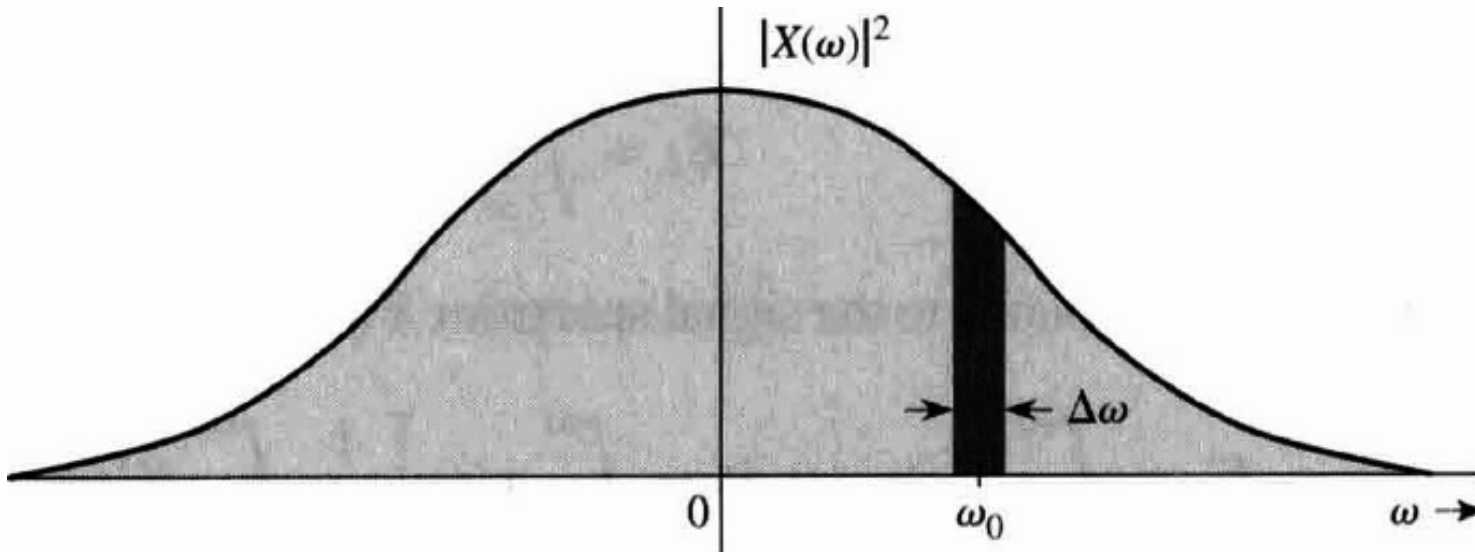
$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X(\omega) X^*(\omega) d\omega$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |X(\omega)|^2 d\omega$$

L7.6

Energy Spectral Density of a signal

- ◆ Total energy is area under the curve of $|X(\omega)|^2$ vs ω (divided by 2π).



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

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

Energy spectral density (per unit bandwidth in Hz)

L7.6

Energy Spectral Density of a REAL signal

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

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

- ◆ 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 ω_1 and ω_2 is:

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

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 $x(t)$:

$$X(\omega) = \frac{1}{j\omega + a}$$

- ◆ By Parseval's theorem:

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

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

$$\frac{0.95}{2a} = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^W \frac{d\omega}{\omega^2 + a^2} = \frac{1}{\pi a} \tan^{-1} \frac{\omega}{a} \Big|_0^W = \frac{1}{\pi a} \tan^{-1} \frac{W}{a}$$

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

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

Three Big Ideas

1. Extracting a portion of a signal can be modelled by multiplying the signal with a **rectangular window**. However, the sudden changes at the window boundaries modify the signal spectrum.
2. This causes **spectral spreading** to neighbouring frequencies and leakages to higher frequencies. Both can be reduced by using other types of **window functions** such as Hamming or Hanning, which have smooth cut offs.
3. **Discrete Fourier Transform** (DFT) is used to calculate the Fourier Transform in a computer. This is done by taking the windowed portion of the signal **and construct a periodic signal** from it. The result is a sampled Fourier Transform with frequency step $f_0 = 1/T_0$, where T_0 is the window function width.