

Digital Signal Processing

Lecture 8 FFT Spectral Analysis

based on slides by J.M. Kahn

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Announcements

- Last time:
 –Started FFT
- Today
 - –Finish FFT
 - -Start Frequency Analysis with DFT
- Read Ch. 10.1-10.2

• Who started playing with the SDR?

• Most FFT algorithms exploit the following properties of W_N^{kn} :

• Conjugate Symmetry

$$W_N^{k(N-n)} = W_N^{-kn} = (W_N^{kn})^*$$

• Periodicity in *n* and *k*:

$$W_N^{kn} = W_N^{k(n+N)} = W_N^{(k+N)n}$$

• Power:

$$W_N^2 = W_{N/2}$$

- Most FFT algorithms decompose the computation of a DFT into successively smaller DFT computations.
 - Decimation-in-time algorithms decompose x[n] into successively smaller subsequences.
 - *Decimation-in-frequency* algorithms decompose X[k] into successively smaller subsequences.
- We mostly discuss <u>decimation-in-time</u> algorithms here.

Assume length of x[n] is power of 2 ($N = 2^{\nu}$). If smaller zero-pad to closest power.

• We start with the DFT

$$X[k] = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x[n] W_N^{kn}, \quad k = 0, \dots, N-1$$

• Separate the sum into even and odd terms:

$$X[k] = \sum_{n \text{ even}} x[n] W_N^{kn} + \sum_{n \text{ odd}} x[n] W_N^{kn}$$

These are two DFT's, each with half of the samples.

Let
$$n = 2r$$
 (n even) and $n = 2r + 1$ (n odd):

$$X[k] = \sum_{r=0}^{(N/2)-1} x[2r] W_N^{2rk} + \sum_{r=0}^{(N/2)-1} x[2r+1] W_N^{(2r+1)k}$$
$$= \sum_{r=0}^{(N/2)-1} x[2r] W_N^{2rk} + W_N^k \sum_{r=0}^{(N/2)-1} x[2r+1] W_N^{2rk}$$

• Note that:

$$W_N^{2rk} = e^{-j\left(\frac{2\pi}{N}\right)(2rk)} = e^{-j\left(\frac{2\pi}{N/2}\right)rk} = W_{N/2}^{rk}$$

Remember this trick, it will turn up often.

• Hence:

$$X[k] = \sum_{r=0}^{(N/2)-1} x[2r] W_{N/2}^{rk} + W_N^k \sum_{r=0}^{(N/2)-1} x[2r+1] W_{N/2}^{rk}$$
$$\triangleq G[k] + W_N^k H[k], \quad k = 0, \dots, N-1$$

where we have defined:

$$G[k] \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \sum_{r=0}^{(N/2)-1} x[2r] W_{N/2}^{rk} \implies \text{DFT of even idx}$$
$$H[k] \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \sum_{r=0}^{(N/2)-1} x[2r+1] W_{N/2}^{rk} \implies \text{DFT of odd idx}$$

An 8 sample DFT can then be diagrammed as



 Both G[k] and H[k] are periodic, with period N/2. For example

$$G[k + N/2] = \sum_{r=0}^{(N/2)-1} x[2r] W_{N/2}^{r(k+N/2)}$$

=
$$\sum_{r=0}^{(N/2)-1} x[2r] W_{N/2}^{rk} W_{N/2}^{r(N/2)}$$

=
$$\sum_{r=0}^{(N/2)-1} x[2r] W_{N/2}^{rk}$$

=
$$G[k]$$

SO

$$G[k + (N/2)] = G[k]$$

 $H[k + (N/2)] = H[k]$

The periodicity of G[k] and H[k] allows us to further simplify.
For the first N/2 points we calculate G[k] and W^k_NH[k], and then compute the sum

$$X[k] = G[k] + W_N^k H[k] \qquad \forall \{k : 0 \le k < \frac{N}{2}\}.$$

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How does periodicity help for $\frac{N}{2} \le k < N$?

$$X[k] = G[k] + W_N^k H[k] \qquad \forall \{k : 0 \le k < \frac{N}{2} \}.$$

• for $\frac{N}{2} \le k < N$:

$$W_N^{k+(N/2)} = ?$$

X[k + (N/2)] = ?

$$X[k + (N/2)] = G[k] - W_N^k H[k]$$

We previously calculated G[k] and $W_N^k H[k]$.

Now we only have to compute their difference to obtain the second half of the spectrum. No additional multiplies are required.

• The *N*-point DFT has been reduced two *N*/2-point DFTs, plus *N*/2 complex multiplications. The 8 sample DFT is then:



- Note that the inputs have been reordered so that the outputs come out in their proper sequence.
- We can define a *butterfly operation*, e.g., the computation of X[0] and X[4] from G[0] and H[0]:



This is an important operation in DSP.

• Still $O(N^2)$ operations..... What shall we do?



• We can use the same approach for each of the N/2 point DFT's. For the N = 8 case, the N/2 DFTs look like



*Note that the inputs have been reordered again.

 At this point for the 8 sample DFT, we can replace the N/4 = 2 sample DFT's with a single butterfly. The coefficient is

$$W_{N/4} = W_{8/4} = W_2 = e^{-j\pi} = -1$$

The diagram of this stage is then



Combining all these stages, the diagram for the 8 sample DFT is:



This the decimation-in-time FFT algorithm.

- In general, there are $\log_2 N$ stages of decimation-in-time.
- Each stage requires N/2 complex multiplications, some of which are trivial.
- The total number of complex multiplications is $(N/2) \log_2 N$.
- The order of the input to the decimation-in-time FFT algorithm must be permuted.
 - First stage: split into odd and even. Zero low-order bit first
 - Next stage repeats with next zero-lower bit first.
 - Net effect is reversing the bit order of indexes

This is illustrated in the following table for N = 8.

Decimal	Binary	Bit-Reversed Binary	Bit-Reversed Decimal
0	000	000	0
1	001	100	4
2	010	010	2
3	011	110	6
4	100	001	1
5	101	101	5
6	110	011	3
7	111	111	7

The DFT is

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

If we only look at the even samples of X[k], we can write k = 2r,

$$X[2r] = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x[n] W_N^{n(2r)}$$

We split this into two sums, one over the first N/2 samples, and the second of the last N/2 samples.

$$X[2r] = \sum_{n=0}^{(N/2)-1} x[n] W_N^{2rn} + \sum_{n=0}^{(N/2)-1} x[n+N/2] W_N^{2r(n+N/2)}$$

But
$$W_N^{2r(n+N/2)} = W_N^{2rn} W_N^N = W_N^{2rn} = W_{N/2}^{rn}$$
.
We can then write

$$X[2r] = \sum_{n=0}^{(N/2)-1} x[n] W_N^{2rn} + \sum_{n=0}^{(N/2)-1} x[n+N/2] W_N^{2r(n+N/2)}$$

=
$$\sum_{n=0}^{(N/2)-1} x[n] W_N^{2rn} + \sum_{n=0}^{(N/2)-1} x[n+N/2] W_N^{2rn}$$

=
$$\sum_{n=0}^{(N/2)-1} (x[n] + x[n+N/2]) W_{N/2}^{rn}$$

This is the N/2-length DFT of first and second half of x[n] summed.

$$X[2r] = \mathsf{DFT}_{\frac{N}{2}} \{ (x[n] + x[n + N/2]) \}$$
$$X[2r+1] = \mathsf{DFT}_{\frac{N}{2}} \{ (x[n] - x[n + N/2]) W_N^n \}$$

(By a similar argument that gives the odd samples)

Continue the same approach is applied for the N/2 DFTs, and the N/4 DFT's until we reach simple butterflies.

The diagram for and 8-point decimation-in-frequency DFT is as follows



This is just the decimation-in-time algorithm reversed! The inputs are in normal order, and the outputs are bit reversed.

Non-Power-of-2 FFT's

A similar argument applies for any length DFT, where the length N is a composite number.

For example, if N = 6, a decimation-in-time FFT could compute three 2-point DFT's followed by two 3-point DFT's



Good component DFT's are available for lengths up to 20 or so. Many of these exploit the structure for that specific length. For example, a factor of

$$W_N^{N/4} = e^{-j\frac{2\pi}{N}(N/4)} = e^{-j\frac{\pi}{2}} = -j$$
 Why?

just swaps the real and imaginary components of a complex number, and doesn't actually require any multiplies. Hence a DFT of length 4 doesn't require any complex multiplies.

Half of the multiplies of an 8-point DFT also don't require multiplication.

Composite length FFT's can be very efficient for any length that factors into terms of this order.

For example N = 693 factors into

$$N = (7)(9)(11)$$

each of which can be implemented efficiently. We would perform

- 9×11 DFT's of length 7
- 7×11 DFT's of length 9, and
- 7×9 DFT's of length 11

- Historically, the power-of-two FFTs were much faster (better written and implemented).
- For non-power-of-two length, it was faster to zero pad to power of two.
- Recently this has changed. The free FFTW package implements very efficient algorithms for almost any filter length. Matlab has used FFTW since version 6



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FFT as Matrix Operation



• W_N is fully populated $\Rightarrow N^2$ entries.

FFT as Matrix Operation

$$\begin{pmatrix} X[0] \\ \vdots \\ X[k] \\ \vdots \\ X[N-1] \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} W_N^{00} & \cdots & W_N^{0n} & \cdots & W_N^{0(N-1)} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ W_N^{k0} & \cdots & W_N^{kn} & \cdots & W_N^{k(N-1)} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ W_N^{(N-1)0} & \cdots & W_N^{(N-1)n} & \cdots & W_N^{(N-1)(N-1)} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x[0] \\ \vdots \\ x[n] \\ \vdots \\ x[N-1] \end{pmatrix}$$

- W_N is fully populated $\Rightarrow N^2$ entries.
- FFT is a decomposition of W_N into a more sparse form:

$$F_{N} = \begin{bmatrix} I_{N/2} & D_{N/2} \\ I_{N/2} & -D_{N/2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} W_{N/2} & 0 \\ 0 & W_{N/2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \text{Even-Odd Perm.} \\ \text{Matrix} \end{bmatrix}$$

•
$$I_{N/2}$$
 is an identity matrix. $D_{N/2}$ is a diagonal with entries
1, W_N , \cdots , $W_N^{N/2-1}$

Example: N = 4

$$F_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & W_4 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -W_4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Beyond NlogN

- What if the signal x[n] has a k sparse frequency
 - A. Gilbert et. al, "Near-optimal sparse Fourier representations via sampling
 - H. Hassanieh et. al, "Nearly Optimal Sparse Fourier Transform"
 - Others.....
- O(K Log N) instead of O(N Log N)



The DFT can be used to analyze the spectrum of a signal.

It would seem that this should be simple, take a block of the signal and compute the spectrum with the DFT.

However, there are many important issues and tradeoffs:

- Signal duration vs spectral resolution
- Signal sampling rate vs spectral range
- Spectral sampling rate
- Spectral artifacts

Consider these steps of processing continuous-time signals:



Spectral Analysis with the DFT

Two important tools:

- Applying a window to the input signal reduces spectral artifacts
- Padding input signal with zeros increases the spectral sampling

Key Parameters:

Parameter	Symbol	Units
Sampling interval	Т	S
Sampling frequency	$\Omega_{s}=rac{2\pi}{T}$	rad/s
Window length	L	unitless
Window duration	$L \cdot T$	S
DFT length	$N \ge L$	unitless
DFT duration	$N \cdot T$	S
Spectral resolution	$\frac{\Omega_s}{I} = \frac{2\pi}{I \cdot T}$	rad/s
Spectral sampling interval	$\frac{\overline{\Omega_s}}{N} = \frac{2\pi}{N \cdot T}$	rad/s

Filtered Continuous-Time Signal

We consider an example:

 $\begin{aligned} x_c(t) &= A_1 \cos \omega_1 t + A_2 \cos \omega_2 t \\ X_c(j\Omega) &= A_1 \pi [\delta(\Omega - \omega_1) + \delta(\Omega + \omega_1)] + A_2 \pi [\delta(\Omega - \omega_2) + \delta(\Omega + \omega_2)] \end{aligned}$







Sampled Signal

If we sampled the signal over an infinite time duration, we would have:

$$x[n] = x_c(t)|_{t=nT}, \quad -\infty < n < \infty$$

described by the discrete-time Fourier transform:

$$X(e^{j\Omega T}) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{r=-\infty}^{\infty} X_c \left(j \left(\Omega - r \frac{2\pi}{T} \right) \right), \quad -\infty < \Omega < \infty$$

Recall $X(e^{j\omega}) = X(e^{j\Omega T})$, where $\omega = \Omega T$... more in ch 4.

Sampled Filtered Continuous-Time Signal

In the examples shown here, the sampling rate is $\Omega_s/2\pi = 1/T = 20$ Hz, sufficiently high that aliasing does not occur.





DTFT of Sampled Signal (heights represent areas of $\delta(\Omega)$ impulses)

Block of *L* **Signal Samples**

In any real system, we sample only over a finite block of L samples:

$$x[n] = x_c(t)|_{t=nT}, \quad 0 \le n \le L-1$$

This simply corresponds to a rectangular window of duration L.

Recall: in Homework 1 we explored the effect of rectangular and triangular windowing

Windowed Block of *L* Signal Samples

We take the block of signal samples and multiply by a window of duration L, obtaining:

$$v[n] = x[n] \cdot w[n], \quad 0 \le n \le L - 1$$

Suppose the window w[n] has DTFT $W(e^{j\omega})$.

Then the windowed block of signal samples has a DTFT given by the periodic convolution between $X(e^{j\omega})$ and $W(e^{j\omega})$:

$$V(e^{j\omega}) = rac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} X(e^{j\theta}) W(e^{j(\omega- heta)}) d heta$$

Convolution with $W(e^{j\omega})$ has two effects in the spectrum:

- It limits the spectral resolution. Main lobes of the DTFT of the window
- The window can produce spectral leakage. Side lobes of the DTFT of the window

* These two are always a tradeoff - time-frequency uncertainty principle

Windows (as defined in MATLAB)



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Windows (as defined in MATLAB)

	Name(s)	Definition	MATLAB Command	Graph (<i>M</i> = 8)
	Hann	$w[n] = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \left[1 + \cos\left(\frac{\pi n}{M/2}\right) \right] & n \le M/2 \\ 0 & n > M/2 \end{cases}$	hann (M+1)	hann(M+1), $M = 8$ 1 0.8 0.6 0.4 0.2 0 -5 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
	Hanning	$w[n] = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \left[1 + \cos\left(\frac{\pi n}{M/2 + 1}\right) \right] & n \le M/2 \\ 0 & n > M/2 \end{cases}$	hanning (M+1)	hanning(M+1), $M = 8$
	Hamming	$w[n] = \begin{cases} 0.54 + 0.46 \cos\left(\frac{\pi n}{M/2}\right) & n \le M/2 \\ 0 & n > M/2 \end{cases}$	hamming (M+1)	hamming(M+1), $M = 8$ 1 0.8 0.6 0.4 0.2 0-5 0 5 n
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Windows

- All of the window functions w[n] are real and even.
- All of the discrete-time Fourier transforms

$$W(e^{j\omega}) = \sum_{n=-rac{M}{2}}^{rac{M}{2}} w[n]e^{-jn\omega}$$

are real, even, and periodic in ω with period 2π .

 In the following plots, we have normalized the windows to unit d.c. gain:

$$W(e^{j0}) = \sum_{n=-\frac{M}{2}}^{\frac{M}{2}} w[n] = 1$$

This makes it easier to compare windows.

Window Example



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