

# DISCRETE-TIME FOURIER TRANSFORM (DTFT)\*

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## Abstract

Discussion of Discrete-time Fourier Transforms. Topics include comparison with analog transforms and discussion of Parseval's theorem.

The Fourier transform of the discrete-time signal  $s(n)$  is defined to be

$$S(e^{i2\pi f}) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} s(n) e^{-i2\pi f n} \quad (1)$$

Frequency here has no units. As should be expected, this definition is linear, with the transform of a sum of signals equaling the sum of their transforms. Real-valued signals have conjugate-symmetric spectra:  $S(e^{-i2\pi f}) = \overline{S(e^{i2\pi f})}$ .

### Exercise 1

*(Solution on p. 7.)*

A special property of the discrete-time Fourier transform is that it is periodic with period one:  $S(e^{i2\pi(f+1)}) = S(e^{i2\pi f})$ . Derive this property from the definition of the DTFT.

Because of this periodicity, we need only plot the spectrum over one period to understand completely the spectrum's structure; typically, we plot the spectrum over the frequency range  $[-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}]$ . When the signal is real-valued, we can further simplify our plotting chores by showing the spectrum only over  $[0, \frac{1}{2}]$ ; the spectrum at negative frequencies can be derived from positive-frequency spectral values.

When we obtain the discrete-time signal via sampling an analog signal, the Nyquist frequency<sup>1</sup> corresponds to the discrete-time frequency  $\frac{1}{2}$ . To show this, note that a sinusoid having a frequency equal to the Nyquist frequency  $\frac{1}{2T_s}$  has a sampled waveform that equals

$$\cos\left(2\pi \times \frac{1}{2T_s} n T_s\right) = \cos(\pi n) = (-1)^n$$

The exponential in the DTFT at frequency  $\frac{1}{2}$  equals  $e^{-i2\pi \frac{1}{2} n} = e^{-i\pi n} = (-1)^n$ , meaning that discrete-time frequency equals analog frequency multiplied by the sampling interval

$$f_D = f_A T_s \quad (2)$$

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<sup>1</sup>"The Sampling Theorem" <<http://cnx.org/content/m0050/latest/#para1>>

$f_D$  and  $f_A$  represent discrete-time and analog frequency variables, respectively. The aliasing figure<sup>2</sup> provides another way of deriving this result. As the duration of each pulse in the periodic sampling signal  $p_{T_s}(t)$  narrows, the amplitudes of the signal's spectral repetitions, which are governed by the Fourier series coefficients<sup>3</sup> of  $p_{T_s}(t)$ , become increasingly equal. Examination of the periodic pulse signal<sup>4</sup> reveals that as  $\Delta$  decreases, the value of  $c_0$ , the largest Fourier coefficient, decreases to zero:  $|c_0| = \frac{A\Delta}{T_s}$ . Thus, to maintain a mathematically viable Sampling Theorem, the amplitude  $A$  must increase as  $\frac{1}{\Delta}$ , becoming infinitely large as the pulse duration decreases. Practical systems use a small value of  $\Delta$ , say  $0.1 \cdot T_s$  and use amplifiers to rescale the signal. Thus, the sampled signal's spectrum becomes periodic with period  $\frac{1}{T_s}$ . Thus, the Nyquist frequency  $\frac{1}{2T_s}$  corresponds to the frequency  $\frac{1}{2}$ .

### Example 1

Let's compute the discrete-time Fourier transform of the exponentially decaying sequence  $s(n) = a^n u(n)$ , where  $u(n)$  is the unit-step sequence. Simply plugging the signal's expression into the Fourier transform formula,

$$\begin{aligned} S(e^{i2\pi f}) &= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} a^n u(n) e^{-i2\pi f n} \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (ae^{-i2\pi f})^n \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

This sum is a special case of the **geometric series**.

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \alpha^n = \forall \alpha, |\alpha| < 1 : \left( \frac{1}{1 - \alpha} \right) \quad (4)$$

Thus, as long as  $|a| < 1$ , we have our Fourier transform.

$$S(e^{i2\pi f}) = \frac{1}{1 - ae^{-i2\pi f}} \quad (5)$$

Using Euler's relation, we can express the magnitude and phase of this spectrum.

$$|S(e^{i2\pi f})| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(1 - a\cos(2\pi f))^2 + a^2\sin^2(2\pi f)}} \quad (6)$$

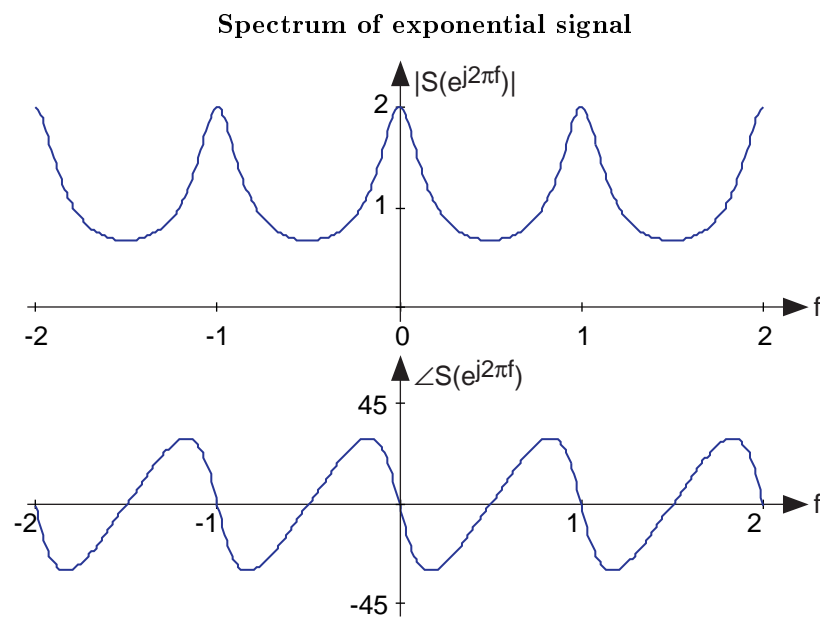
$$\angle(S(e^{i2\pi f})) = -\tan^{-1} \left( \frac{a\sin(2\pi f)}{1 - a\cos(2\pi f)} \right) \quad (7)$$

No matter what value of  $a$  we choose, the above formulae clearly demonstrate the periodic nature of the spectra of discrete-time signals. Figure 1 (Spectrum of exponential signal) shows indeed that the spectrum is a periodic function. We need only consider the spectrum between  $-\frac{1}{2}$  and  $\frac{1}{2}$  to unambiguously define it. When  $a > 0$ , we have a lowpass spectrum—the spectrum diminishes as frequency increases from 0 to  $\frac{1}{2}$ —with increasing  $a$  leading to a greater low frequency content; for  $a < 0$ , we have a highpass spectrum (Figure 2 (Spectra of exponential signals)).

<sup>2</sup>"The Sampling Theorem", Figure 2: aliasing <<http://cnx.org/content/m0050/latest/#alias>>

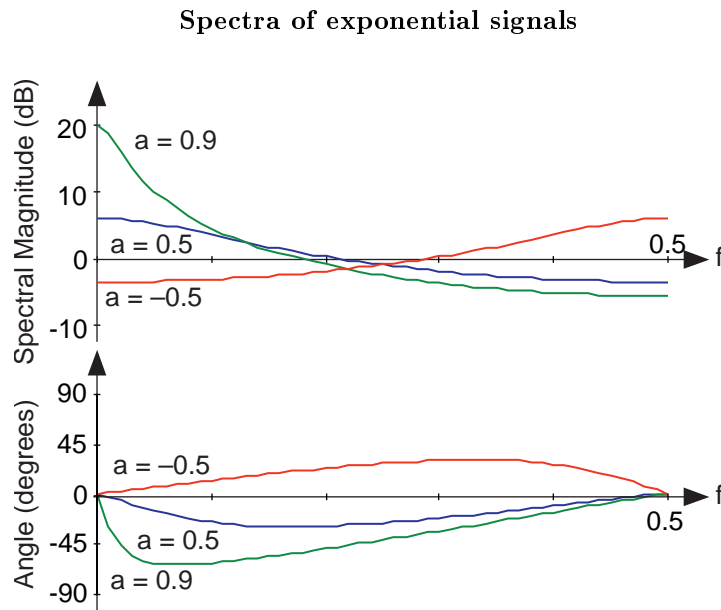
<sup>3</sup>"Complex Fourier Series", (10) <<http://cnx.org/content/m0042/latest/#eqn2>>

<sup>4</sup>"Complex Fourier Series", Figure 1 <<http://cnx.org/content/m0042/latest/#pps>>



**Figure 1:** The spectrum of the exponential signal ( $a = 0.5$ ) is shown over the frequency range  $[-2, 2]$ , clearly demonstrating the periodicity of all discrete-time spectra. The angle has units of degrees.

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**Figure 2:** The spectra of several exponential signals are shown. What is the apparent relationship between the spectra for  $a = 0.5$  and  $a = -0.5$ ?

**Example 2**

Analogous to the analog pulse signal, let's find the spectrum of the length- $N$  pulse sequence.

$$s(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } 0 \leq n \leq N - 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

The Fourier transform of this sequence has the form of a truncated geometric series.

$$S(e^{i2\pi f}) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} e^{-i2\pi f n} \quad (9)$$

For the so-called finite geometric series, we know that

$$\sum_{n=n_0}^{N+n_0-1} \alpha^n = \alpha^{n_0} \frac{1 - \alpha^N}{1 - \alpha} \quad (10)$$

for **all** values of  $\alpha$ .

**Exercise 2**

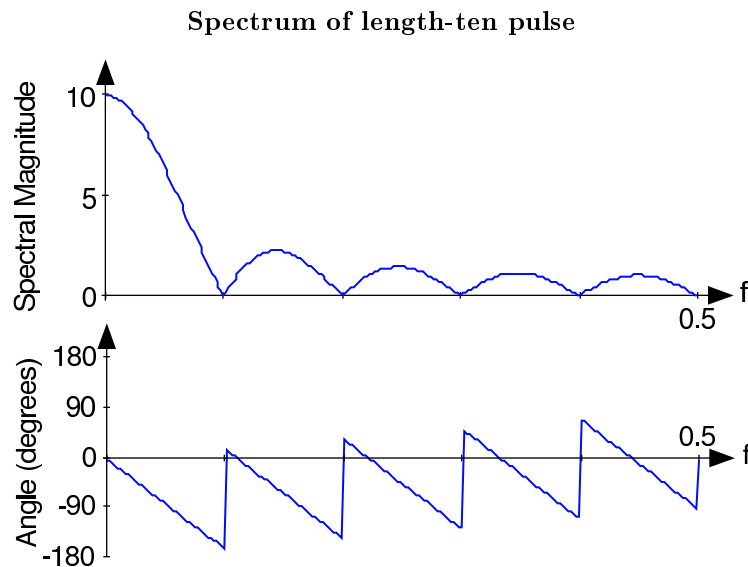
*(Solution on p. 7.)*

Derive this formula for the finite geometric series sum. The "trick" is to consider the difference between the series' sum and the sum of the series multiplied by  $\alpha$ .

Applying this result yields (Figure 3 (Spectrum of length-ten pulse).)

$$\begin{aligned} S(e^{i2\pi f}) &= \frac{1 - e^{-i2\pi f N}}{1 - e^{-i2\pi f}} \\ &= e^{-i\pi f(N-1)} \frac{\sin(\pi f N)}{\sin(\pi f)} \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

The ratio of sine functions has the generic form of  $\frac{\sin(Nx)}{\sin(x)}$ , which is known as the **discrete-time sinc function**  $\text{sinc}(x)$ . Thus, our transform can be concisely expressed as  $S(e^{i2\pi f}) = e^{-i\pi f(N-1)} \text{sinc}(\pi f)$ . The discrete-time pulse's spectrum contains many ripples, the number of which increase with  $N$ , the pulse's duration.



**Figure 3:** The spectrum of a length-ten pulse is shown. Can you explain the rather complicated appearance of the phase?

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The inverse discrete-time Fourier transform is easily derived from the following relationship:

$$\int_{-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{-i2\pi fm} e^{i2\pi fn} df = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } m = n \\ 0 & \text{if } m \neq n \end{cases} \quad (12)$$

$$= \delta(m - n)$$

Therefore, we find that

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} S(e^{i2\pi f}) e^{i2\pi fn} df &= \int_{-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} \sum_{mm} s(m) e^{-i2\pi fm} e^{i2\pi fn} df \\ &= \sum_{mm} s(m) \int_{-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{-(i2\pi f)(m-n)} df \\ &= s(n) \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

The Fourier transform pairs in discrete-time are

$$\begin{aligned} S(e^{i2\pi f}) &= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} s(n) e^{-i2\pi fn} \\ s(n) &= \int_{-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} S(e^{i2\pi f}) e^{i2\pi fn} df \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

The properties of the discrete-time Fourier transform mirror those of the analog Fourier transform. The DTFT properties table <sup>5</sup> shows similarities and differences. One important common property is Parseval's Theorem.

$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} (|s(n)|)^2 = \int_{-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} (|S(e^{i2\pi f})|)^2 df \quad (15)$$

To show this important property, we simply substitute the Fourier transform expression into the frequency-domain expression for power.

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} (|S(e^{i2\pi f})|)^2 df &= \int_{-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} \sum_{nn} s(n) e^{-i2\pi fn} \sum_{mm} \overline{s(m)} e^{i2\pi fm} df \\ &= \sum_{n,m} s(n) \overline{s(m)} \int_{-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{i2\pi f(m-n)} df \end{aligned} \quad (16)$$

Using the orthogonality relation (12), the integral equals  $\delta(m-n)$ , where  $\delta(n)$  is the unit sample<sup>6</sup>. Thus, the double sum collapses into a single sum because nonzero values occur only when  $n=m$ , giving Parseval's Theorem as a result. We term  $\sum_{nn} s^2(n)$  the energy in the discrete-time signal  $s(n)$  in spite of the fact that discrete-time signals don't consume (or produce for that matter) energy. This terminology is a carry-over from the analog world.

### Exercise 3

*(Solution on p. 7.)*

Suppose we obtained our discrete-time signal from values of the product  $s(t)p_{T_s}(t)$ , where the duration of the component pulses in  $p_{T_s}(t)$  is  $\Delta$ . How is the discrete-time signal energy related to the total energy contained in  $s(t)$ ? Assume the signal is bandlimited and that the sampling rate was chosen appropriate to the Sampling Theorem's conditions.

<sup>5</sup>"Properties of the DTFT" <<http://cnx.org/content/m0506/latest/>>

<sup>6</sup>"Discrete-Time Signals and Systems", Figure 2: Unit sample <<http://cnx.org/content/m10342/latest/#fig2>>

## Solutions to Exercises in this Module

### Solution to Exercise (p. 1)

$$\begin{aligned}
 S(e^{i2\pi(f+1)}) &= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} s(n) e^{-i2\pi(f+1)n} \\
 &= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-i2\pi n} s(n) e^{-i2\pi f n} \\
 &= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} s(n) e^{-i2\pi f n} \\
 &= S(e^{i2\pi f})
 \end{aligned} \tag{17}$$

### Solution to Exercise (p. 4)

$$\alpha \sum_{n=n_0}^{N+n_0-1} \alpha^n - \sum_{n=n_0}^{N+n_0-1} \alpha^n = \alpha^{N+n_0} - \alpha^{n_0}$$

which, after manipulation, yields the geometric sum formula.

### Solution to Exercise (p. 6)

If the sampling frequency exceeds the Nyquist frequency, the spectrum of the samples equals the analog spectrum, but over the normalized analog frequency  $fT$ . Thus, the energy in the sampled signal equals the original signal's energy multiplied by  $T$ .