

## Lecture 6- Chapter 4

### Frequency Analysis of Signals and Systems

#### Continuous Signals and Discrete-Time Signals

Periodic

Aperiodic

#### Starting with periodic CT signals:

Recall that a linear combination of harmonically related complex exponentials of the form

$x(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{+\infty} C_k e^{j2\pi k F_0 t}$  is a periodic signal with fundamental period  $T_p = \frac{1}{F_0}$ . In order to find  $C_k$ ,

multiply both sides by  $e^{-j2\pi \ell F_0 t}$  and integrate over one period:

$$\int_0^{T_p} x(t) e^{-j2\pi \ell F_0 t} dt = \int_0^{T_p} e^{-j2\pi \ell F_0 t} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{+\infty} C_k e^{j2\pi k F_0 t} dt = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{+\infty} C_k \underbrace{\int_0^{T_p} e^{-j2\pi (k-\ell) F_0 t} dt}_{\begin{matrix} 0 & k \neq \ell \\ T_p & k = \ell \end{matrix}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_0^{T_p} x(t) e^{-j2\pi \ell F_0 t} dt = C_\ell \cdot T_p$$

$$\therefore C_\ell = \frac{1}{T_p} \int_{T_p} x(t) e^{-j2\pi \ell F_0 t} dt \quad \text{Fourier Series}$$

An important issue is that whether  $\sum_{k=0}^{+\infty} C_k e^{j2\pi k F_0 t}$  representation is equal to  $x(t)$  for every moment

of  $t$ . The Dirichlet conditions guarantee that this series is equal to  $x(t)$  except at the values of  $t$  for which  $x(t)$  is discontinuous. At those values of  $t$ , the series converges to the midpoint (average value) of the discontinuity.

Dirichlet conditions are:

- 1)  $x(t)$  has a finite number of discontinuity in any period.
- 2)  $x(t)$  has a finite number of maxima and minima during each period
- 3)  $x(t)$  is absolutely integrable in any period:

} sufficient but not  
necessary

$$\int_{T_p} |x(t)| < \infty$$

A weaker condition is that signal's energy in one period should be finite:  $\int_{T_p} |x(t)|^2 dt < \infty$

## Power Density Spectrum of Periodic Signals

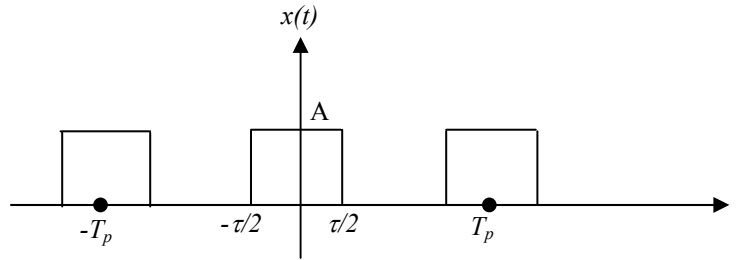
A periodic signal has infinite energy but finite average power.

Parseval's Theorem:

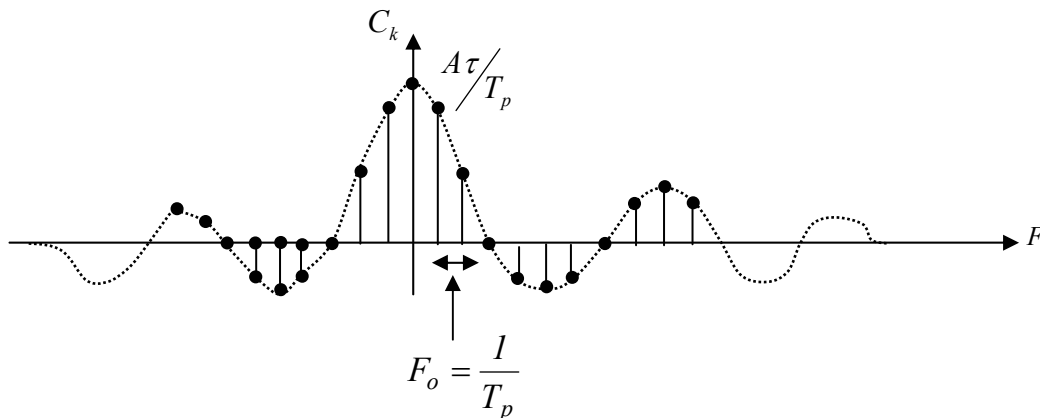
$$\begin{aligned}
 P_x &= \frac{1}{T_p} \int_{T_p} |x(t)|^2 dt = \frac{1}{T_p} \int_{T_p} x(t) x^*(t) dt \\
 &= \frac{1}{T_p} \int_{T_p} x(t) \sum_{-\infty}^{+\infty} C_K^* e^{-j2\pi K F_0 t} dt = \frac{1}{T_p} \sum_{-\infty}^{+\infty} C_K^* \underbrace{\int_{T_p} x(t) e^{-j2\pi K F_0 t} dt}_{T_p C_K} \\
 &= \sum_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |C_K|^2
 \end{aligned}$$

If  $x(t)$  is real then  $C_k^* = C_{-k} \rightarrow |C_k|^2 = |C_{-k}|^2 \Rightarrow PSD$  is an even function in frequency and the phase is an odd function.

**Example:**



$$\begin{aligned}
 C_k &= \frac{1}{T_p} \int_{-\tau/2}^{\tau/2} A e^{-j2\pi k F_0 t} dt = \frac{A}{T_p} \left[ \frac{e^{-j2\pi k F_0 t}}{-j2\pi k F_0} \right]_{-\tau/2}^{\tau/2} \\
 &= \frac{A}{\pi F_0 k T_p} \frac{e^{j\pi k F_0 \tau} - e^{-j\pi k F_0 \tau}}{2} = \frac{A \tau}{T_p} \frac{\sin(\pi k F_0 \tau)}{\pi k F_0 \tau} \\
 &= \frac{A \tau}{T_p} \text{sinc}(\pi k F_0 \tau)
 \end{aligned}$$



Now if  $\tau/T_p$  decreases ( $T_p \rightarrow \infty$ ), then  $C_k \rightarrow 0$ , which means the signal becomes aperiodic  $\rightarrow$  average power becomes zero.

### **CT Aperiodic Signals**

We can say  $x(t) = \lim_{T_p \rightarrow \infty} x_p(t) \Rightarrow \sum \rightarrow \int$

$$x(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(F) e^{j2\pi Ft} dF = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} X(\Omega) e^{j\Omega t} d\Omega \quad \text{and}$$

$$X(F) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(t) e^{-j2\pi Ft} dt = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(t) e^{-j\Omega t} dt$$

Aperiodic signals are energy signals.

$$E_x = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |x(t)|^2 dt$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |X(F)|^2 dF$$

Energy Density Spectrum:  $S_{xx}(F) = |X(F)|^2$

A couple of points:

- 1) Remember that from only ESD or PSD we cannot reconstruct  $x(t)$  because phase information is lost.
- 2)  $C_k$  for  $x_p(t)$  is just samples of  $X(F)$

$$C_k = \frac{1}{T_p} X(kF_o)$$

### **DT Frequency Analysis**

First consider a periodic DT signal  $x(n) = x(n + N)$

$$x(n) = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} C_k e^{j2\pi \frac{k}{N} n}$$

Multiply both sides by  $e^{-j2\pi \frac{\ell}{N} n}$  and sum over one period.

$$\sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) e^{-j2\pi \frac{\ell}{N} n} = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \underbrace{\sum_{K=0}^{N-1} C_K e^{j2\pi \frac{(K-\ell)}{N} n}}_{\substack{\text{Interchange the} \\ \text{sums}}} = \begin{cases} N, & \text{if } K - \ell = 0, \pm N, \pm 2N \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

$$\sum_{n=0}^{N-1} a^n = \begin{cases} N, & \text{if } a = 1 \\ \frac{1-a^N}{1-a}, & \text{if } a \neq 1 \end{cases}$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) e^{-j2\pi \frac{\ell}{N} n} = N \cdot C_\ell$$

$$C_k = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) e^{-j2\pi kn/N}, k = 0, \dots, N-1$$

$$x(n) = \sum_{K=0}^{N-1} C_K e^{j2\pi kn/N}$$

Power  $P_x = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} |C_k|^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} |x(n)|^2$

\*DTFS is periodic like Periodic DT\*

$C_{k+N} = C_k$ . Therefore, the spectrum of a periodic DT,  $x(n)$ , is also periodic with period  $N$ .

$$C_{k+N} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) e^{-j2\pi (k+N)n/N} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) e^{-j2\pi kn/N} = C_k$$

### Example

Find DTFS of the following signals:

$$x(n) = \underbrace{\cos \frac{2\pi}{3} n}_{\substack{x_1(n) \\ N_1=3}} + \underbrace{\sin \frac{2\pi}{5} n}_{\substack{x_2(n) \\ N_2=5}} \quad N = 15 \text{ The smallest common denominator}$$

For this case, we can directly write it is a sum of exponentials.

$$x_1(n) = \frac{1}{2} \left[ e^{j\frac{2\pi n}{3}} + e^{-j\frac{2\pi n}{3}} \right] = \frac{1}{2} \left[ e^{j\frac{2\pi n}{3}} + \underbrace{e^{j\frac{(2-3)2\pi n}{3}}}_{e^{\frac{j2(2\pi)n}{3}}} \right]$$

$$\rightarrow C_1 = \frac{1}{2}, C_2 = \frac{1}{2} \text{ for } x_1(n)$$

$$x_2(n) = \sin \frac{2\pi}{5} n = \frac{1}{2j} \left[ e^{j \frac{2\pi n}{5}} - e^{-j \frac{2\pi n}{5}} \right] = \frac{1}{2j} \left[ e^{j \frac{2\pi n}{5}} - e^{-j \frac{(4-5)2\pi n}{5}} \right]$$

$\rightarrow C_1 = \frac{1}{2j}, C_4 = \frac{-1}{2j}$  for  $x_2(n)$  and 0 else where.

$C_k$  for  $x(n)$  is like  $C_{k \times 5}^{x_1} + C_{k \times 3}^{x_2}$

$$C_k = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2j} & k = 3 \\ \frac{1}{2} & k = 5, 10 \\ \frac{-1}{2j} & k = 12 \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

### Fourier Transform for Aperiodic D.T. Signals

$$\begin{cases} X(e^{j\omega}) \equiv X(\omega) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} x(n) e^{-j\omega n} \\ x(n) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{2\pi} X(\omega) e^{j\omega n} d\omega \end{cases}$$

(recall that for C.T. signals it was over  $\sum_{-\infty}^{+\infty}$  and here is over  $2\pi$  which means that  $X(\omega)$  is periodic).

### Two Basic Differences Between CTFT and DTFT:

1)  $X(\omega) \equiv X(e^{j\omega})$  is periodic with period  $2\pi$

$$X(\omega + 2\pi k) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} x(n) e^{-j(\omega + 2\pi k)n} = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} x(n) e^{-j\omega n} = X(\omega)$$

2) Since  $X(\omega)$  is periodic, (in fact it is a periodic C.T. signal), then it has a Fourier Series and in fact  $x(n)$  are the coefficients of that Fourier Series.

Before visiting a famous example, let's review the concept of convergence.

If we have a limited observation, we will have the truncation effect, and the famous theory of the

Gibbs. Let  $X_N(\omega) = \sum_{n=-N}^N x(n) e^{-j\omega n}$  if  $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \underbrace{X_N(\omega) - X(\omega)} \rightarrow 0$ , then  $X_N(\omega)$  converges uniformly

to  $X(\omega)$  as  $N \rightarrow \infty$ . This convergence is guaranteed if  $x(n)$  is absolutely summable (3<sup>rd</sup> Dirichlet condition).

$$\sum_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |x(n)| < \infty \text{ this implies } |X(\omega)| = \left| \sum_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(n) e^{-j\omega n} \right| < \sum_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |x(n)| < \infty, \text{ which means } X(\omega) \text{ exists and is}$$

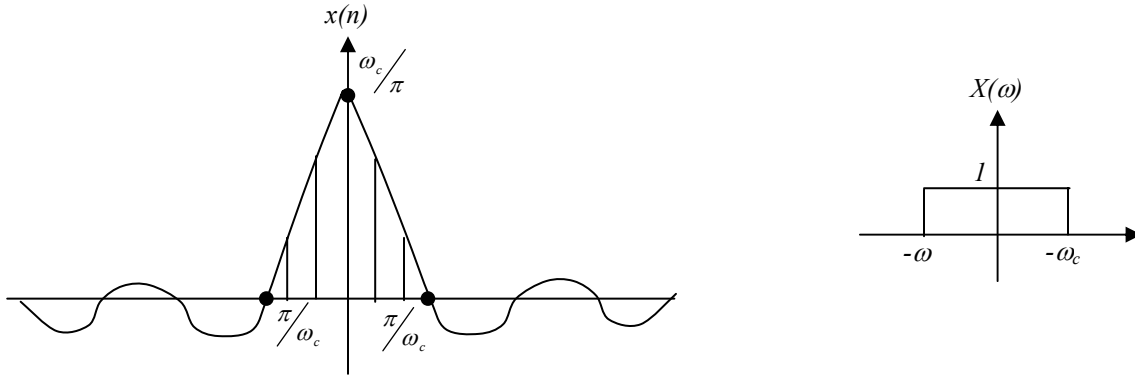
somehow band limited and hence, the uniform convergence.

However, this is a sufficient condition. If  $x(n)$  is not absolutely summable but square summable (finite energy) then  $X(\omega)$  can exist.

If  $E_x = \sum_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |x(n)|^2 < \infty$ , there is not a uniform convergence but there is a mean-square convergence.

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |X(\omega) - X_N(\omega)|^2 d\omega = 0 = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} E(\text{error}) \rightarrow 0$$

Meaning the energy of error goes to zero but not necessarily the error itself.



The example of this particular case is the sinc function.

$$x(n) = \frac{\sin \omega_c n}{\pi n}, \quad -\infty < n < \infty$$

This is not absolutely summable. Hence, the  $X_N(\omega) = \sum_{-N}^N x(n) e^{-j\omega n}$  doesn't converge to  $X(\omega)$

uniformly for all  $\omega$ . However,  $x(n)$  has a finite energy  $E_x = \frac{\omega_c}{\pi}$ . So  $X_N(\omega)$  converges to  $X(\omega)$  in

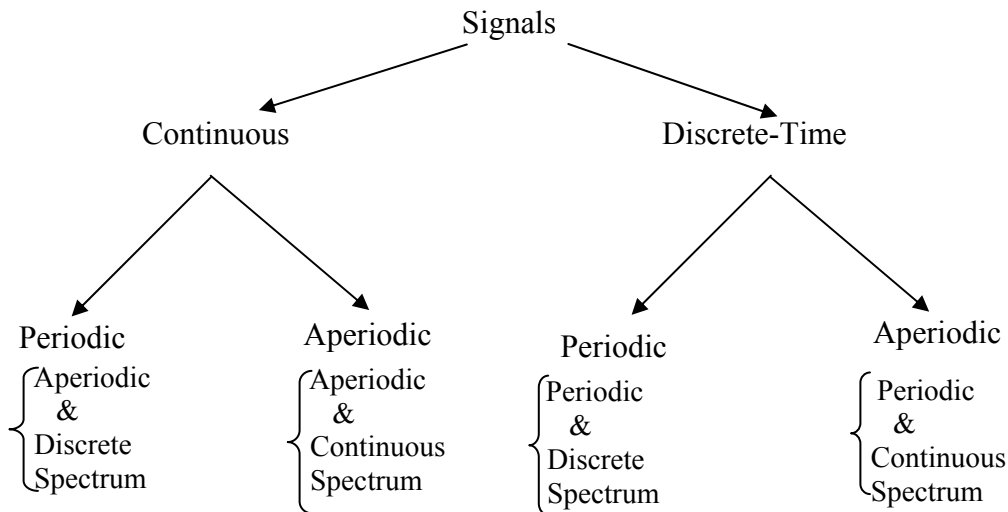
mean square sense.

$$X_N(\omega) = \sum_{-N}^N \frac{\sin \omega_c n}{\pi n} e^{-j\omega n}$$

Matlab definition:  $\text{sinc}(x) = \frac{\sin \pi x}{\pi x}$

### Section 4.2.12

There are two time-domain characteristics that determine the type of signal spectrum and they are: Periodicity and Continuity



\*\* Periodicity with period  $\alpha$  in one domain automatically implies discreteness with spacing  $1/\alpha$  in the other domain.

### Properties of the Fourier Transform for Discrete-Time Signals

1. Real signals – if  $x(n)$  is real, the  $X^*(\omega) = X(-\omega)$

Spectrum magnitude:  $|X(\omega)| = |X(-\omega)| \rightarrow \text{even function}$

Spectrum phase  $\angle X(-\omega) = -\angle X(\omega) \rightarrow \text{odd function.}$

2. Real and even  $x(n) \rightarrow \text{Real and Even } X(\omega)$
3. Real and odd  $x(n) \rightarrow \text{Imaginary and odd } X(\omega)$
4. Imaginary and odd  $x(n) \rightarrow \text{Real and odd } X(\omega)$
5. Imaginary and even  $x(n) \rightarrow \text{Imaginary and even } X(\omega)$
6. Linearity  $a_1x_1(n) + bx_2(n) \xLeftrightarrow F a_1X_1(\omega) + bX_2(\omega)$
7. Time-Shifting  $x(n) \xLeftrightarrow F X(\omega)$

$$x(n-k) \xLeftrightarrow F e^{-j\omega k} X(\omega)$$

8. Time-Reversal  $x(n) \xleftrightarrow{F} X(\omega)$

$x(-n) \xleftrightarrow{F} X(-\omega)$  Therefore, FT of an even function is an even function too.

9. Convolution:  $x_1(n) * x_2(n) \xleftrightarrow{F} X_1(\omega).X_2(\omega)$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} x(n) &= \sum_{k=-\infty}^{+\infty} x_1(k)x_2(n-k) \\ X(\omega) &= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{+\infty} x_1(k)x_2(n-k) \underbrace{e^{-j\omega n}}_{e^{-j\omega(n-k)} \cdot e^{-j\omega k}} \\ &= \sum_{k=-\infty}^{+\infty} x_1(k)e^{-j\omega k} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} x_2(n-k)e^{-j\omega(n-k)} \\ &= X_1(\omega).X_2(\omega) \end{aligned}$$

10. Correlation Theorem:  $r_{x_1x_2}(n) \xleftrightarrow{F} X_1(\omega)X_2(-\omega)$

Proof:

Cross-Energy  
Density Spectrum

$$\begin{aligned} r_{x_1x_2}(n) &= \sum_{k=-\infty}^{+\infty} x_1(k)x_2(k-n) \\ S_{x_1x_2}(\omega) &\xleftrightarrow{FT} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} r_{x_1x_2}(n)e^{-j\omega n} = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} \sum_{K=-\infty}^{+\infty} x_1(K)x_2(K-n) \underbrace{e^{-j\omega n}}_{e^{-j\omega(n-K)} \cdot e^{-j\omega K}} \\ RHS &= \underbrace{\sum_{K=-\infty}^{+\infty} x_1(K)e^{-j\omega K}}_{x_1(\omega)} \underbrace{\sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} x_2[-(n-K)]e^{-j\omega(n-K)}}_{x_2(-\omega)} \end{aligned}$$

Now if  $x(n)$  is real, then  $X^*(\omega) = X(-\omega)$

$$r_{xx}(\ell) \leftrightarrow S_{xx}(\omega) = x(\omega) \underbrace{x(-\omega)}_{x^*(\omega)} = |x(\omega)|^2$$

Energy Spectral Density

11. Frequency Shifting

$$e^{j\omega_0 n} \xleftrightarrow{F} X(\omega - \omega_0)$$

12 Modulation Theorem

$$x(n)\cos(\omega_0 n) \leftrightarrow \frac{1}{2}[X(\omega + \omega_0) + X(\omega - \omega_0)]$$

$$\cos(\omega_0 n) = \frac{1}{2}[e^{j\omega_0 n} + e^{-j\omega_0 n}]$$

### 13. Parseval Theorem

$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} x_1(n)x_2^*(n) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} X_1(\omega)X_2^*(\omega)d\omega$$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} RHS &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \left[ \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x_1(n)e^{-j\omega n} \right] X_2^*(\omega) d\omega \\ &= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x_1(n) \underbrace{\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} X_2^*(\omega) e^{-j\omega n} d\omega}_{x_2^*(n)} = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x_1(n)x_2^*(n) \end{aligned}$$

Special case:  $x_2(n) = x_1(n) \rightarrow \sum |x(n)|^2 = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{2\pi} |x(\omega)|^2 d\omega$

$$E_x = r_{xx}(0) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} |x(n)|^2 = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{2\pi} \underbrace{|x(\omega)|^2}_{S_{xx}(\omega)} d\omega$$

### 14. Windowing

$$x_1(n) \cdot x_2(n) \xleftrightarrow{F} \frac{1}{2\pi} [X_1(\omega) * X_2(\omega)]$$

$$x(\omega) = \sum_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(n)e^{-j\omega n} = \sum_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x_1(n)x_2(n)e^{-j\omega n}$$

$$\begin{aligned} RHS &= \sum_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \left[ \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{2\pi} X_1(\lambda) e^{j\lambda n} d\lambda \right] x_2(n) e^{-j\omega n} \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{2\pi} X_1(\lambda) d\lambda \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} x_2(n) e^{j\lambda n} \cdot e^{-j\omega n} \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{2\pi} X_1(\lambda) X_2(\omega - \lambda) d\lambda \equiv \frac{1}{2\pi} [X_1(\omega) * X_2(\omega)] \end{aligned}$$

### 15. Differentiation in Frequency Domain

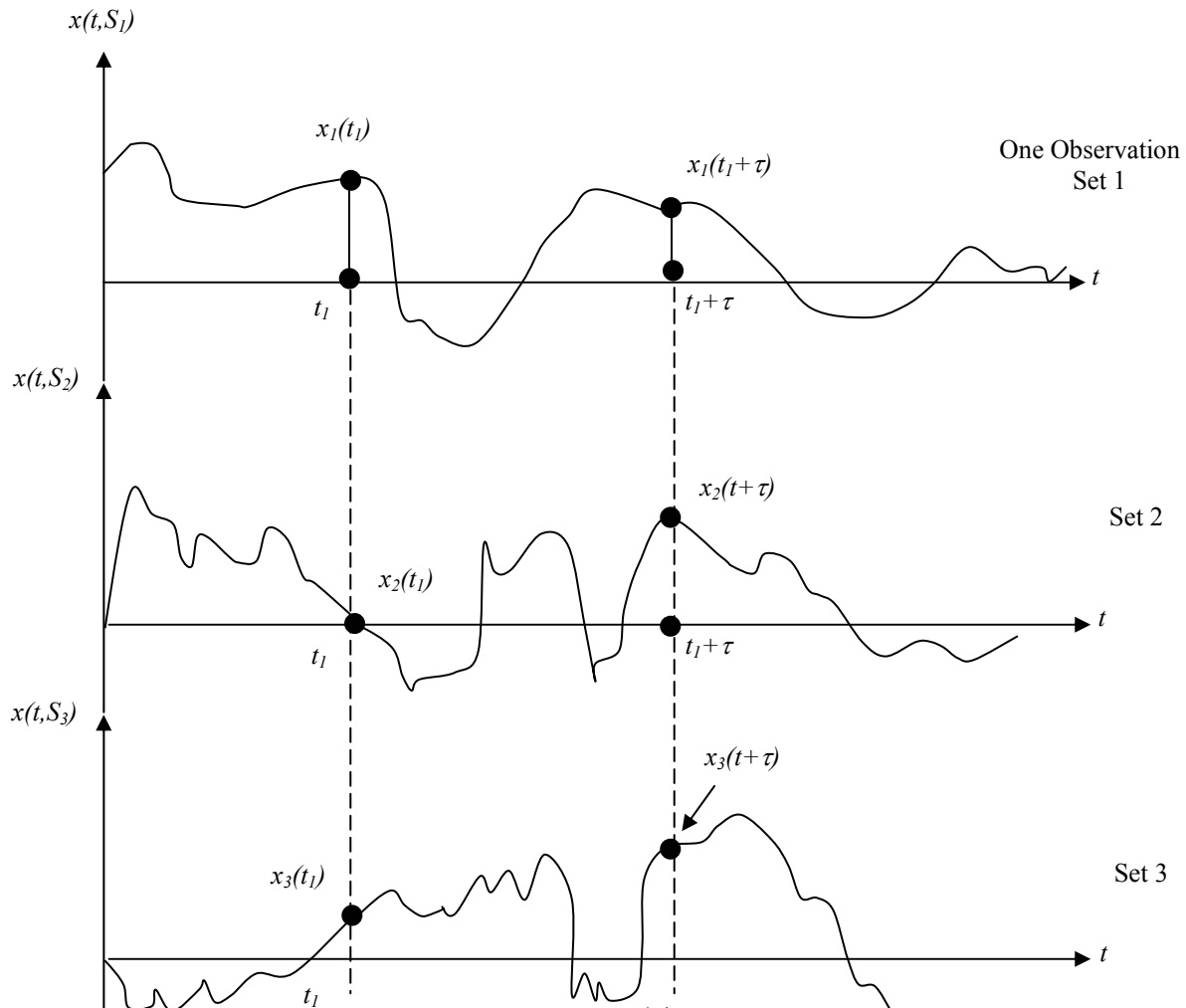
$$n(x)n \xleftrightarrow{F} j \frac{dx(\omega)}{d\omega}$$

Skipping to Section 4.4.8

### **Correlation Function and Power spectra for Random Input Signals**

When the input signal is random, then we have to consider statistical moments of input and output. So here is a bit of introduction about “Stationary Random Process”. Starting with the Definition of Stationary Signals:

If  $X(t)$  is a random process with a point Probability Density Function (PDF),  $P(x) = P(x_{t_1}, x_{t_2}, x_{t_3}, \dots, x_{t_n})$  for  $n$  random variables.  $X(t_i) \equiv x(t_i), i_{1,2,\dots,n}$



If the joint probability of  $P(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)^{t_1} = P(x_1, \dots, x_n)^{t_1 + \tau}$  for all  $t_1$  and  $\tau$  then the random process  $X(t)$  is stationary in strict sense. In other words, statistical properties of a stationary random process is time-invariant, meaning that its mean and variance and other moments are time invariant.

### Statistical (ensemble) Average

$$E(x_{t_i}) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x_{t_i} P(x_{t_i}) dx_{t_i}$$

If we don't have  $P(x_{t_i})$  but have many observations, then  $E(x^{t_i}) = \frac{1}{N} (x_1^{t_i} + x_2^{t_i} + \dots + x_N^{t_i})$ , which of a stationary process it is equal to  $E(x^{t_i})$  for any  $t_i$ .

Also autocorrelation function:

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_{xx}(x^{t_1}, x^{t_2}) &= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x^{t_1} x^{t_2} P(x^{t_1}, x^{t_2}) dx^{t_1} dx^{t_2} \\ &= E[x^{t_1} \cdot x^{t_2}] \end{aligned}$$

If this  $\gamma_{xx}$  depends only on the time difference  $t_1 - t_2 = \tau$ , then  $\gamma_{xx}(\tau) = E[x_{t_1}, x_{t_1+\tau}]$ , which is the case for stationary process. If a process has two features:

- 1) Its  $\gamma_{xx}$  depends only on time difference,  $\tau$ , and
- 2)  $E(x^{t_1}) = E(x^{t_2}) = E(x^{t_i})$

then the process is said to be *stationary in "wide sense"*.

Now if all statistical averages can be obtained by one single realization (or one sample set), then the process is also "*Ergodic*" meaning *Ensemble average*  $\equiv$  *time average*.

$$\mu_x = E(x_n) \text{ and } \hat{\mu}_x = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n)$$

$\hat{\mu}_x$  is an estimate of  $\mu_x$ . It will be said it is an unbiased estimate if  $E(\hat{\mu}_x) = \mu_x$ . Also, it is a good estimator if

$$Var(\hat{\mu}_x) = E(|\hat{\mu}_x|)^2 - |\mu_x|^2 \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } N \rightarrow \infty$$

Therefore, time average  $\rightarrow$  ensemble average.

Autocorrelation:  $\gamma_{xx}(m) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x^*(n)x(n+m)$   $E[\gamma_{xx}(m)] = r_{xx}(m)$  the true autocorrelation.

Now back to systems:

$$x(n) \rightarrow \boxed{h(n)} \rightarrow y(n)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\mu_y &= E\{y(n)\} = E\left\{\sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} h(k)x(n-k)\right\} \\
&= \sum_{-\infty}^{+\infty} h(k)E\{x(n-k)\} = \mu_x \sum_{-\infty}^{+\infty} h(k) = \mu_x H(0)
\end{aligned}$$

The autocorrelation sequence:

$$\begin{aligned}
\gamma_{yy}(m) &= E\{y^*(n)y(n+m)\} = E\left\{\sum_{k=-\infty}^{+\infty} h(k)x^*(n-k) \cdot \sum_{\ell=-\infty}^{+\infty} h(\ell)x(n+m-\ell)\right\} \\
&= \sum_k \sum_{\ell} h(k)h(\ell)E\{x^*(n-k)x(n+m-\ell)\} \\
&= \sum_k \sum_{\ell} h(k)h(\ell)\gamma_{xx}(m-\ell+k)
\end{aligned}$$

Special Form: when  $x(n)$  is a white noise, then  $\gamma_{xx}(m) = \sigma_x^2 \delta(m)$  and  $\sigma_x^2 = \gamma_{xx}(0)$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}
\gamma_{yy}(m) &= \sigma_x^2 \gamma_{hh}(m) \\
\gamma_{yy}(0) &= \sigma_x^2 \gamma_{hh}(0) = \sigma_x^2 \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{2\pi} |H(\omega)|^2 d\omega
\end{aligned}$$

by getting the Fourier transform in general:

$$\begin{aligned}
\Gamma_{yy}(\omega) &= \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} \gamma_{yy}(m) e^{-j\omega m} \\
&= \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} \left[ \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{\ell=-\infty}^{\infty} h(k)h(\ell) \gamma_{xx}(m-l+k) \right] e^{-j\omega m} \\
&\text{let } u = m-l+k \Rightarrow e^{-j\omega m} = e^{-j\omega u} \cdot e^{-j\omega l} \cdot e^{j\omega k} \\
\Gamma_{yy}(\omega) &= \sum_k h(k) e^{j\omega k} \sum_l h(l) e^{-j\omega l} \sum_u \gamma_{xx}(u) e^{-j\omega u} \\
&= H(-\omega) \cdot H(\omega) \cdot \Gamma_{xx}(\omega)
\end{aligned}$$

If the signal is real  $= \Gamma_{xx}(\omega) |H(\omega)|^2$