# EE3210 Signals and Systems

Part 2: Basics of Signals



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#### What is a Signal?

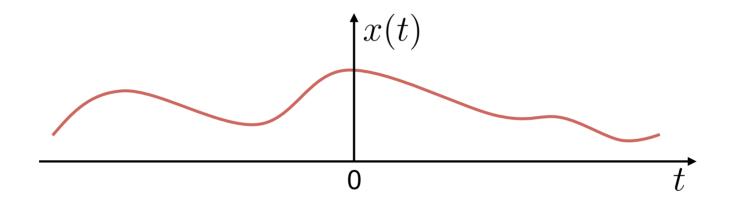
A signal, which is represented mathematically as a function of one or more independent variables (e.g., time, space, distance, etc.), contains information about the behavior or nature of some phenomenon.

#### Examples:

- Voltage/current: A function of time, continuous
- Stock market index: A function of time, discrete
- Audio: A function of time, continuous/discrete
- Image: A function of space, continuous/discrete

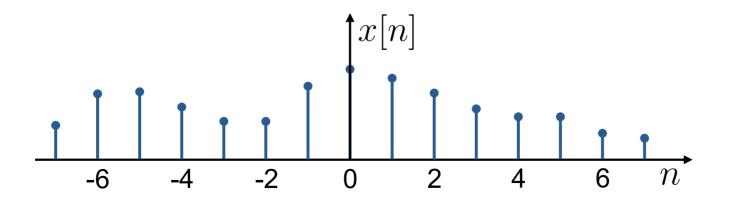
#### Continuous-Time Signals

• Continuous-time signals are defined for a continuum of values x(t) as a function of the continuous-time independent variable t.



## Discrete-Time Signals

- Discrete-time signals are defined only at discrete times n, i.e., for integer values of the independent variable, for a discrete set of values x[n].
  - $\blacksquare x[n]$  is also called a discrete-time sequence.
  - In the case of a very important class of discrete-time signals arising from the sampling of continuous-time signals, *n* is also called the sample number.



## Energy and Power: Continuous-Time Signals

The total energy in a continuous-time signal x(t) over the time interval  $t_1 \le t \le t_2$  is defined as

$$\int_{t_1}^{t_2} |x(t)|^2 dt$$

where |x| denotes the magnitude of the (possibly complex) number x.

■ The time-averaged power of x(t) is obtained as

$$\frac{1}{t_2 - t_1} \int_{t_1}^{t_2} |x(t)|^2 dt$$

## Energy and Power: Discrete-Time Signals

Similarly, the total energy in a discrete-time signal x[n] over the time interval  $n_1 \le n \le n_2$  is defined as

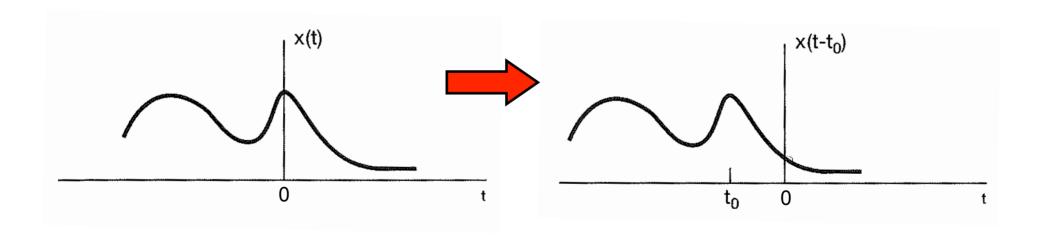
$$\sum_{n=n_1}^{n_2} |x[n]|^2$$

■ The time-averaged power of x[n] is obtained as

$$\frac{1}{n_2 - n_1 + 1} \sum_{n=n_1}^{n_2} |x[n]|^2$$

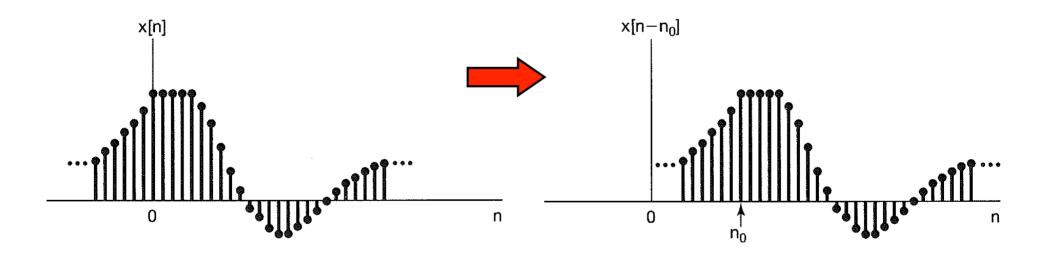
#### Signal Transformations: Time Shift

For a continuous-time signal x(t),  $x(t-t_0)$  represents a delayed (if  $t_0$  is positive) or advanced (if  $t_0$  is negative) version of x(t).



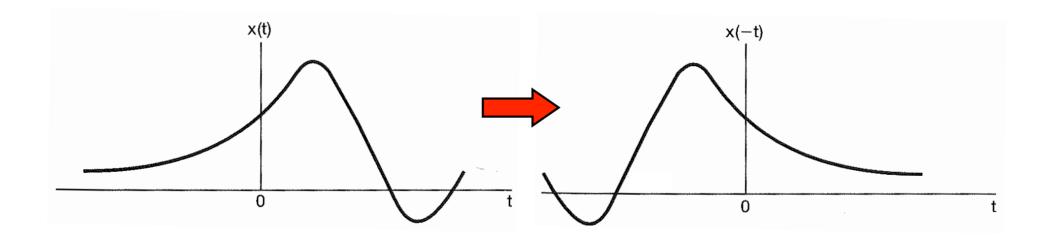
#### Signal Transformations: Time Shift (cont.)

Similar transformation can be defined for a discrete-time signal x[n] to obtain its time shifted version  $x[n-n_0]$ .



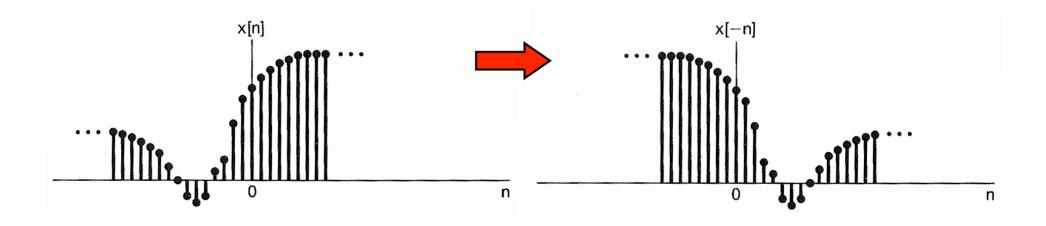
#### Signal Transformations: Time Reversal

For a continuous-time signal x(t), x(-t) is obtained from x(t) by a reflection about t=0.



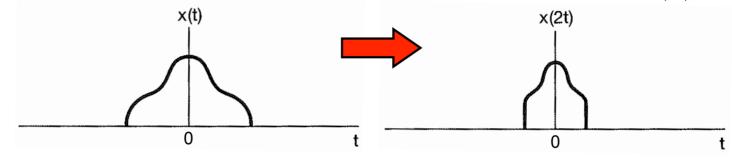
#### Signal Transformations: Time Reversal (cont.)

Similar transformation can be defined for a discrete-time signal x[n] to obtain x[-n] by reversing x[n].

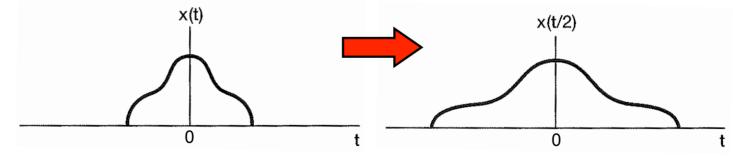


### Signal Transformations: Time Scaling

- For a continuous-time signal x(t):
  - $\mathbf{x}(2t)$  is obtained by linearly compressing x(t).



 $\mathbf{x}(t/2)$  is obtained by linearly stretching x(t).

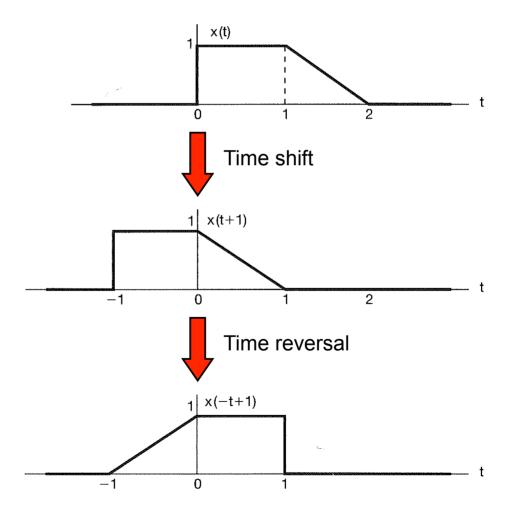


Can we obtain x[2n], x[n/2] from a discrete-time signal x[n]?

#### Combined Transformations: Example 1

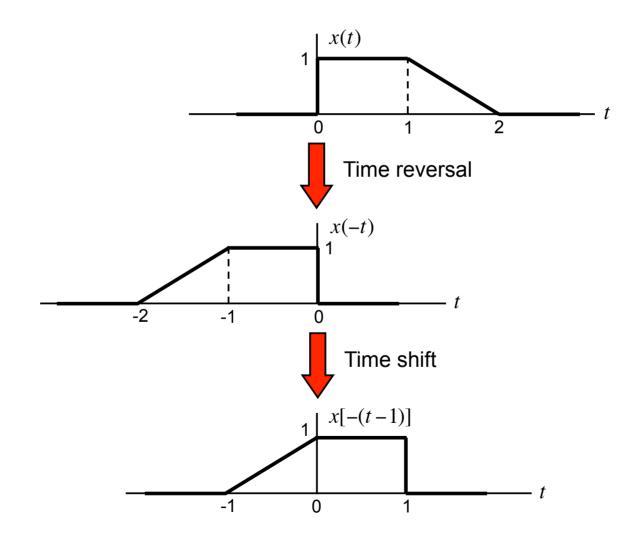
Obtain x(-t+1) from x(t):

- We can do time shift first followed by time reversal.
- Can we do time reversal first followed by time shift?



## Example 1 (cont.)

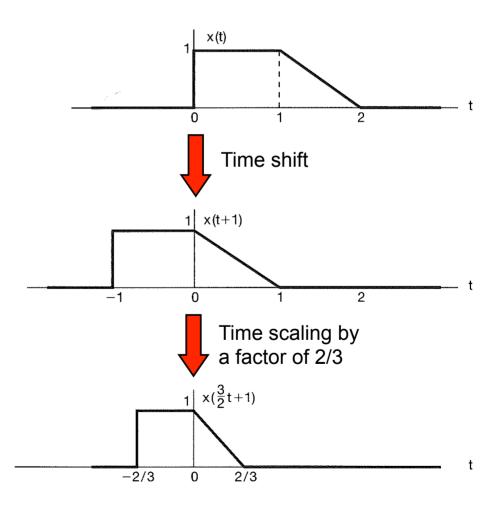
Rewrite x(-t+1) as x[-(t-1)]



#### Combined Transformations: Example 2

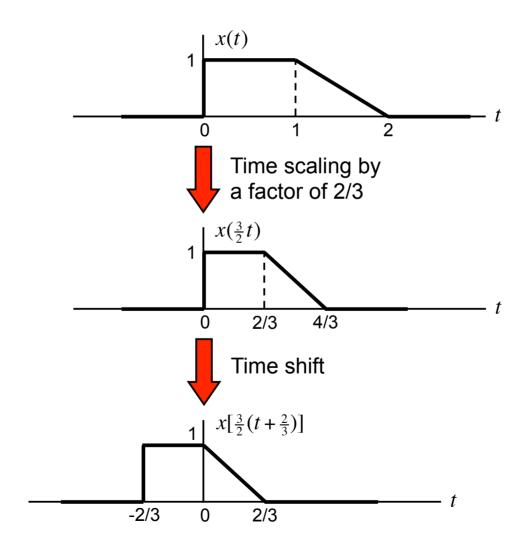
Obtain  $x(\frac{3}{2}t+1)$  from x(t):

- We can do time shift first followed by time scaling.
- Can we do time scaling first followed by time shift?



## Example 2 (cont.)

■ Rewrite  $x(\frac{3}{2}t+1)$  as  $x[\frac{3}{2}(t+\frac{2}{3})]$ 

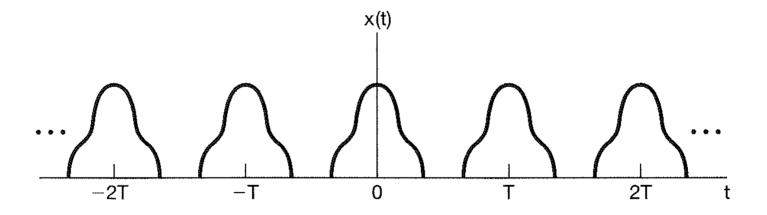


## Continuous-Time Periodic Signals

 $\blacksquare$  A continuous-time signal x(t) is periodic if there is a positive value of T for which

$$x(t) = x(t+T) \tag{1}$$

for all values of t.



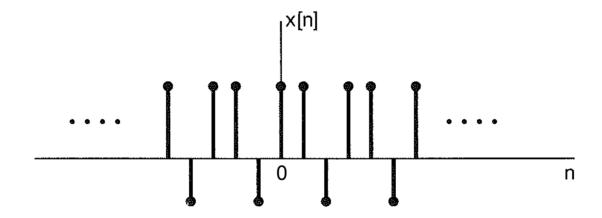
Fundamental period: The smallest positive value of T for which (1) holds.

## Discrete-Time Periodic Signals

ullet A discrete-time signal x[n] is periodic with period N, where N is a positive integer, if

$$x[n] = x[n+N] \tag{2}$$

for all values of n.



Fundamental period: The smallest positive value of N for which (2) holds.

### Analog Frequency versus Digital Frequency

- For a continuous-time periodic signal, its period T can be any real value in the range  $(0,\infty)$ . Therefore, its frequency f=1/T can be arbitrarily large, i.e., when  $T\to 0,\, f\to \infty$ .
- For a discrete-time periodic signal, since the smallest possible value of its period N is 1, its frequency f=1/N is bounded by 1, i.e.,  $f \in (0,1]$ .

## Even and Odd Signals

lacksquare A signal x(t) or x[n] is referred to as even if

$$x(-t) = x(t)$$
 or  $x[-n] = x[n]$ 

lacksquare A signal x(t) or x[n] is referred to as odd if

$$x(-t) = -x(t)$$
 or  $x[-n] = -x[n]$ 

- Any signal can be broken into a sum of two signals, one is even, and one is odd:
  - Even part:  $\mathcal{E}\{x(t)\} = \frac{1}{2}[x(t) + x(-t)]$
  - Odd part:  $\mathcal{O}\{x(t)\} = \frac{1}{2}[x(t) x(-t)]$
  - Same results apply in the discrete-time case.

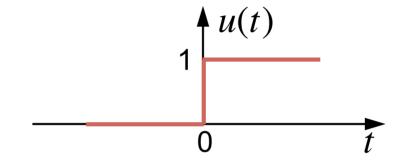
#### Basic Signals

- Four basic continuous-time and discrete-time signals:
  - Unit step
  - Unit impulse
  - Sinusoidal
  - Complex exponential
- These signals can be used as basic building blocks for construction and representation of other signals.

## Continuous-Time Unit Step

■ The continuous-time unit step signal, denoted by u(t), is defined as:

$$u(t) = \begin{cases} 0, & t < 0 \\ 1, & t > 0 \end{cases}$$



- Note: u(t) is discontinuous at t=0.
- The idealized signal u(t) can be approximated by  $u_{\Delta}(t)$ .

$$u(t) = \lim_{\Delta \to 0} u_{\Delta}(t)$$

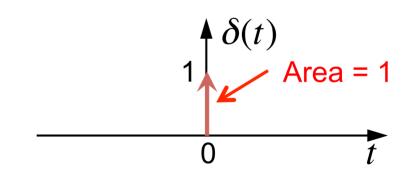
# Continuous-Time Unit Impulse

The continuous-time unit impulse signal, denoted by  $\delta(t)$ , is defined as:

$$\delta(t) = \begin{cases} \infty, & t = 0 \\ 0, & t \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

which satisfies the identity:

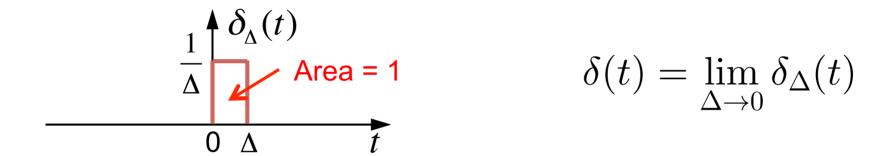
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t)dt = 1$$



■ Note:  $\delta(t)$  is not a function in the traditional sense.

# Continuous-Time Unit Impulse (cont.)

■ The idealized signal  $\delta(t)$  can be approximated by  $\delta_{\Delta}(t)$ .



- Sampling property: Consider a function x(t) that is continuous at an arbitrary point  $t_0$ . Then,
  - $x(t)\delta(t-t_0) = x(t_0)\delta(t-t_0)$

# Relationship between u(t) and $\delta(t)$

• u(t) is the running integral of  $\delta(t)$ :

$$u(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{t} \delta(\tau) d\tau \tag{3}$$

■ By changing the variable of integration in (3) from  $\tau$  to  $\sigma = t - \tau$ , we have:

$$u(t) = -\int_{\infty}^{0} \delta(t - \sigma) d\sigma = \int_{0}^{\infty} \delta(t - \sigma) d\sigma$$

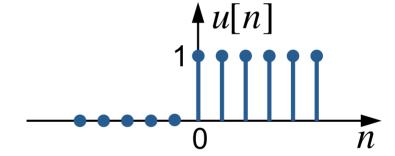
 $\bullet$   $\delta(t)$  is the first derivative of u(t):

$$\delta(t) = \frac{d u(t)}{d t}$$

## Discrete-Time Unit Step

■ The discrete-time unit step signal, denoted by u[n], is defined as:

$$u[n] = \begin{cases} 0, & n < 0 \\ 1, & n \ge 0 \end{cases}$$



# Discrete-Time Unit Impulse

■ The discrete-time unit impulse signal, denoted by  $\delta[n]$ , is defined as:

$$\delta[n] = \begin{cases} 1, & n = 0 \\ 0, & n \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

- lacksquare  $\delta[n]$  is also referred to as the unit sample sequence.
- Sampling property:

$$x[n]\delta[n-n_0] = x[n_0]\delta[n-n_0]$$

## Relationship between u[n] and $\delta[n]$

■ u[n] is the running sum of  $\delta[n]$ :

$$u[n] = \sum_{m = -\infty}^{n} \delta[m] \tag{4}$$

■ By changing the variable of summation in (4) from m to k = n - m, we have:

$$u[n] = \sum_{k=\infty}^{0} \delta[n-k] = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \delta[n-k]$$

 $\bullet$   $\delta[n]$  is the first difference of u[n]:

$$\delta[n] = u[n] - u[n-1]$$

# Continuous-Time Sinusoidal

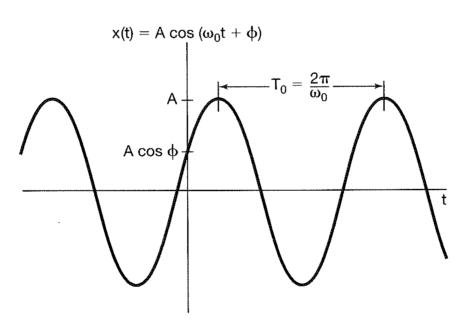
The continuous-time sinusoidal signal has the general form

$$x(t) = A\cos(\omega_0 t + \phi)$$

- Note: In this course, we use the notation  $\omega$  for analog frequency.
- Note: With seconds as the units of t, the units of  $\phi$  and  $\omega_0$  are radians and radians per second, respectively.

#### **Properties**

- Distinct signals x(t) for distinct values of  $\omega_0$ .
- The larger  $\omega_0$ , the higher is the rate of oscillation in x(t).
- x(t) is periodic for any value of  $\omega_0$  with the fundamental period  $T_0$  given by  $T_0 = 2\pi/\omega_0$ .



## Continuous-Time Complex Exponential

The continuous-time complex exponential signal is of the form

$$x(t) = Ce^{at}$$

where C and a are, in general, complex numbers.

- Let C be expressed in polar form:  $C = |C|e^{j\theta}$
- Let a be expressed in Cartesian form:  $a = r + j\omega_0$
- Then

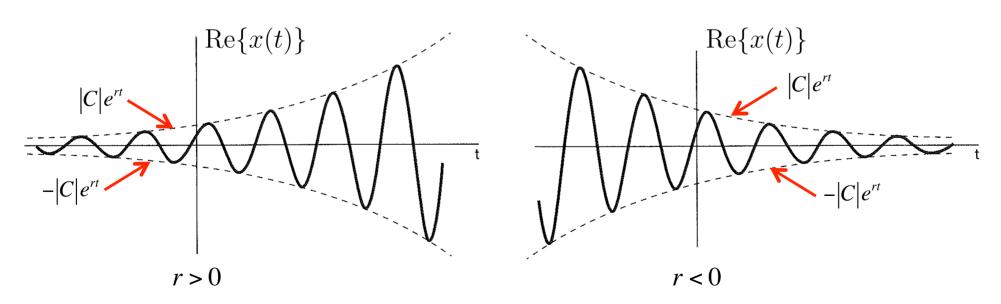
$$x(t) = |C|e^{j\theta}e^{(r+j\omega_0)t} = |C|e^{rt}e^{j(\omega_0t+\theta)}$$
 (5)

Using Euler's formula, we can expand (5) further as

$$x(t) = |C|e^{rt}\cos(\omega_0 t + \theta) + j|C|e^{rt}\sin(\omega_0 t + \theta)$$
 (6)

#### Observations

- We observe in (6) that:
  - For r = 0, Re $\{x(t)\}$  and Im $\{x(t)\}$  are sinusoidal.
  - lacktriangleright For r>0, they are sinusoidal signals multiplied by a growing exponential.
  - For r < 0, they are sinusoidal signals multiplied by a decaying exponential.

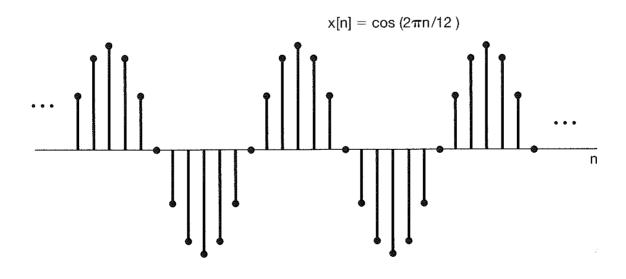


## Discrete-Time Sinusoidal

The discrete-time sinusoidal signal has the general form

$$x[n] = A\cos(\Omega_0 n + \phi)$$

- Note: In this course, we use the notation  $\Omega$  instead of  $\omega$  for digital frequency.
- Note: If we take n to be dimensionless, then both  $\phi$  and  $\Omega_0$  have units of radians.



## **Properties**

• x[n] at frequency  $\Omega_0 + 2\pi k$  is the same as that at frequency  $\Omega_0$  for any integer k, since

$$A\cos[(\Omega_0 + 2\pi k)n + \phi] = A\cos(\Omega_0 n + \phi) \tag{7}$$

- We need only consider a frequency interval of length  $2\pi$  in which to choose  $\Omega_0$ .
- We will use the interval  $0 \le \Omega_0 \le 2\pi$  or the interval  $-\pi < \Omega_0 < \pi$  on most occasions.

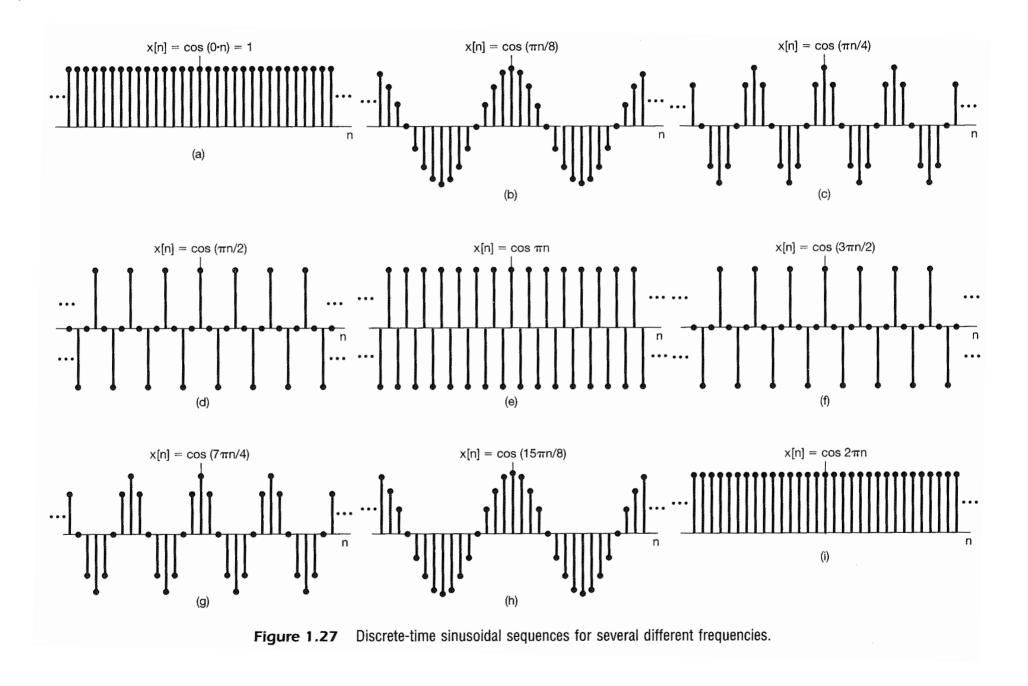
## Properties (cont.)

- Implied by (7), the discrete-time sinusoidal signal does not have a continually increasing rate of oscillation with an increasing  $\Omega_0$ .
  - Consider  $\Omega_0$  in the interval  $0 \le \Omega_0 \le 2\pi$ . As illustrated in the figure on the next page:
    - For  $0 \le \Omega_0 \le \pi$ , the rate of oscillation  $\uparrow$  as  $\Omega_0 \uparrow$ .
    - For  $\pi \leq \Omega_0 \leq 2\pi$ , the rate of oscillation  $\downarrow$  as  $\Omega_0 \uparrow$ .
    - In particular, for  $\Omega_0 = \pi$ ,

$$\cos(\pi n) = (-1)^n$$

so that this signal oscillates rapidly, changing sign at each point in time.

## Properties (cont.)



## Properties (cont.)

 For the discrete-time sinusoidal signal to be periodic, we must have

$$A\cos(\Omega_0 n + \phi) = A\cos(\Omega_0 n + \Omega_0 N + \phi)$$

where the period N is necessarily a positive integer.

- This requires that  $\Omega_0 N = 2\pi k$ , or equivalently,  $\Omega_0/(2\pi) = k/N$ , where k is an integer.
- Thus, the signal is periodic only if  $\Omega_0/(2\pi)$  is a rational number.
- The fundamental period  $N_0$  is given by  $N_0 = 2\pi k/\Omega_0$  if  $N_0$  and k have no factors in common.

## Examples

- Is  $x[n] = \cos(n/6)$  periodic?
  - Answer:  $\Omega_0 = 1/6 \Rightarrow \Omega_0/(2\pi)$  is irrational  $\Rightarrow$  aperiodic.
- Is  $y[n] = \cos(8\pi n/31)$  periodic?
  - Answer:  $\Omega_0 = 8\pi/31 \Rightarrow \Omega_0/(2\pi)$  is rational  $\Rightarrow$  periodic.
- What is the fundamental period of y[n]?
  - Answer:  $N_0 = 31$ .

#### Discrete-Time Complex Exponential

The discrete-time complex exponential signal is defined by

$$x[n] = C\alpha^n$$

where C and  $\alpha$  are, in general, complex numbers.

- Let C be expressed in polar form:  $C = |C|e^{j\theta}$
- Let  $\alpha$  be expressed in polar form:  $\alpha = |\alpha|e^{j\Omega_0}$
- Then

$$x[n] = |C||\alpha|^n e^{j(\Omega_0 n + \theta)} \tag{8}$$

■ Using Euler's formula, we can expand (8) further as

$$x[n] = |C||\alpha|^n \cos(\Omega_0 n + \theta) + j|C||\alpha|^n \sin(\Omega_0 n + \theta)$$
 (9)

#### Observations

- We observe in (9) that:
  - For  $|\alpha| = 1$ ,  $\text{Re}\{x[n]\}$  and  $\text{Im}\{x[n]\}$  are sinusoidal.
  - For  $|\alpha| > 1$ , they are sinusoidal sequences multiplied by a growing exponential.
  - For  $|\alpha| < 1$ , they are sinusoidal sequences multiplied by a decaying exponential.

