EITF75: Systems and Signals - Reference Sheet

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Last Edited: September 3, 2019

Contents

1 Sinusoids

There are several ways to characterize Sinusoids. The first is by dimension:

1. Multidimensional/Multichannel Signals
2. Monodimensional/Monochannel Signals

You can also classify sinusoids by their independent variable (usually time) and the values they take.

1. Continuous-Time Signals or Analog Signals
2. Discrete-Time Signals

Defn 1 (Continuous-Time Signals)**.** *Continuous-time signals* or *Analog signals* are defined for every value of time and they take on values in the continuous interval (a, b), where a can be $-\infty$ and b can be ∞. Mathematically, these signals can be described by functions of a continuous variable.

For example,

$$x_1(t) = \cos \pi t,\ x_2(t) = e^{-|t|},\ -\infty < t < \infty$$

Defn 2 (Discrete-Time Signals)**.** *Discrete-time signals* are defined only at certain specifed values of time. These time instants ***need not*** be equidistant, but in practice, they are usually taken at equally speced intervals for computation convenience and mathematical tractability.

For example,

$$x(t_n) = e^{-|t_n|},\ n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \ldots$$

A Discrete-Time Signals can be represented mathematically by a sequence of real or complex numbers.

Remark 2.1. To emphasize the discrete-time nature of the signal, we shall denote the signal as $x(n)$, rather than $x(t)$.

Remark 2.2. If the time instants t_n are equally spaced (i.e., $t_n = nT$), the notation $x(nT)$ is also used.

1.1 Continuous-Time Signals

1.1.1 Frequency in Continuous-Time Signals

A simple harmonic oscillation is mathematically described by Equation (1).

$$x_a(t) = A \cos(\Omega t + \theta),\ -\infty < t < \infty \tag{1}$$

Remark. The subscript a is used with $x(t)$ to denote an analog signal.

This signal is completely characterized by three parameters:

1. A, the *amplitude* of the sinusoid
2. Ω, the *frequency* in radians per second (rad/s)
3. θ, the *phase* in radians.

Instead of Ω, the frequency F in cycles per second or hertz (Hz) is used.

$$\Omega = 2\pi F \tag{2}$$

Plugging (2) into (1), yields

$$x_a(t) = A \cos(2\pi F t + \theta),\ -\infty < t < \infty \tag{3}$$

1.1.2 Properties of Continuous-Time Sinusoidal Signals

The analog sinusoidal signal in equation (3) is characterized by the following properties:

(i) For every fixed value of the frequency F, $x_a(t)$ is periodic.

$$x_a(t + T_p) = x_a(t)$$

where $T_p = \frac{1}{F}$ is the fundamental period.

(ii) Continuous-time sinusoidal signals with distinct (different) frequencies are themselves distinct.

(iii) Increasing the frequency F results in an increase in the rate of oscillation of the signal, in the sense that more periods are included in the given time interval.

1.2 Discrete-Time Signals

1.2.1 Frequency in Discrete-Time Signals

A discrete-time sinusoidal signal may be expressed as

$$x(n) = A\cos(\omega n + \theta), \; n \in \mathbb{Z}, \; -\infty < n < \infty \tag{4}$$

The signal is characterized by these parameters:

1. n, the sample number. MUST be an integer.
2. A, the *amplitude* of the sinusoid
3. ω, the *angular frequency* in radians per sample
4. θ, is the *phase*, in radians.

Instead of ω, we use the frequency variable f defined by

$$\omega \equiv 2\pi f \tag{5}$$

Using (4) and (5) yields

$$x(n) = A\cos(2\pi f n + \theta), \; n \in \mathbb{Z}, \; -\infty < n < \infty \tag{6}$$

1.2.2 Properties of Discrete-Time Sinusoidal Signals

(i) A discrete-time sinusoid is periodic ***ONLY*** if its frequency is a rational number.
(ii) Discrete-time sinusoids whose frequencies are separated by an integer multiple of 2π are identical.
(iii) The highest rate of oscillation in a discrete-time sinusoid is attained when $\omega = \pm\pi$ or, equivalently, $f = \pm\frac{1}{2}$.

A Trigonometry

A.1 Trigonometric Formulas

$$\sin(\alpha) + \sin(\beta) = 2\sin\left(\frac{\alpha+\beta}{2}\right)\cos\left(\frac{\alpha-\beta}{2}\right) \tag{A.1}$$

$$\cos(\theta)\sin(\theta) = \frac{1}{2}\sin(2\theta) \tag{A.2}$$

A.2 Euler Equivalents of Trigonometric Functions

$$e^{\pm \imath\alpha} = \cos(\alpha) \pm \imath\sin(\alpha) \tag{A.3}$$

$$\sin(x) = \frac{e^{\imath x} + e^{-\imath x}}{2} \tag{A.4}$$

$$\cos(x) = \frac{e^{\imath x} - e^{-\imath x}}{2\imath} \tag{A.5}$$

$$\sinh(x) = \frac{e^{x} - e^{-x}}{2} \tag{A.6}$$

$$\cosh(x) = \frac{e^{x} + e^{-x}}{2} \tag{A.7}$$

A.3 Angle Sum and Difference Identities

$$\sin(\alpha \pm \beta) = \sin(\alpha)\cos(\beta) \pm \cos(\alpha)\sin(\beta) \tag{A.8}$$

$$\cos(\alpha \pm \beta) = \cos(\alpha)\cos(\beta) \mp \sin(\alpha)\sin(\beta) \tag{A.9}$$

A.4 Double-Angle Formulae

$$\sin(2\alpha) = 2\sin(\alpha)\cos(\alpha) \tag{A.10}$$

$$\cos(2\alpha) = \cos^2(\alpha) - \sin^2(\alpha) \tag{A.11}$$

A.5 Half-Angle Formulae

$$\sin\left(\frac{\alpha}{2}\right) = \sqrt{\frac{1-\cos(\alpha)}{2}} \tag{A.12}$$

$$\cos\left(\frac{\alpha}{2}\right) = \sqrt{\frac{1+\cos(\alpha)}{2}} \tag{A.13}$$

A.6 Exponent Reduction Formulae

$$\sin^2(\alpha) = \frac{1-\cos(2\alpha)}{2} \tag{A.14}$$

$$\cos^2(\alpha) = \frac{1+\cos(2\alpha)}{2} \tag{A.15}$$

A.7 Product-to-Sum Identities

$$2\cos(\alpha)\cos(\beta) = \cos(\alpha-\beta) + \cos(\alpha+\beta) \tag{A.16}$$

$$2\sin(\alpha)\sin(\beta) = \cos(\alpha-\beta) - \cos(\alpha+\beta) \tag{A.17}$$

$$2\sin(\alpha)\cos(\beta) = \sin(\alpha+\beta) + \sin(\alpha-\beta) \tag{A.18}$$

$$2\cos(\alpha)\sin(\beta) = \sin(\alpha+\beta) - \sin(\alpha-\beta) \tag{A.19}$$

A.8 Sum-to-Product Identities

$$\sin(\alpha) \pm \sin(\beta) = 2\sin\left(\frac{\alpha \pm \beta}{2}\right)\cos\left(\frac{\alpha \mp \beta}{2}\right) \tag{A.20}$$

$$\cos(\alpha) + \cos(\alpha) = 2\cos\left(\frac{\alpha + \beta}{2}\right)\cos\left(\frac{\alpha - \beta}{2}\right) \tag{A.21}$$

$$\cos(\alpha) - \cos(\beta) = -2\sin\left(\frac{\alpha + \beta}{2}\right)\sin\left(\frac{\alpha - \beta}{2}\right) \tag{A.22}$$

A.9 Pythagorean Theorem for Trig

$$\cos^2(\alpha) + \sin^2(\alpha) = 1^2 \tag{A.23}$$

A.10 Rectangular to Polar

$$a + \imath b = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}e^{\imath\theta} = re^{\imath\theta} \tag{A.24}$$

$$\theta = \begin{cases} \arctan\left(\frac{b}{a}\right) & a > 0 \\ \pi - \arctan\left(\frac{b}{a}\right) & a < 0 \end{cases} \tag{A.25}$$

A.11 Polar to Rectangular

$$re^{\imath\theta} = r\cos(\theta) + \imath r\sin(\theta) \tag{A.26}$$

B Calculus

B.1 Fundamental Theorems of Calculus

Defn B.1.1 (First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus)**.** The *first fundamental theorem of calculus* states that, if f is continuous on the closed interval $[a, b]$ and F is the indefinite integral of f on $[a, b]$, then

$$\int_a^b f(x)\,dx = F(b) - F(a) \tag{B.1}$$

Defn B.1.2 (Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus)**.** The *second fundamental theorem of calculus* holds for f a continuous function on an open interval I and a any point in I, and states that if F is defined by

$$F(x) = \int_a^x f(t)\,dt,$$

then

$$\begin{gathered} \frac{d}{dx}\int_a^x f(t)\,dt = f(x) \\ F'(x) = f(x) \end{gathered} \tag{B.2}$$

Defn B.1.3 (argmax)**.** The arguments to the *argmax* function are to be maximized by using their derivatives. You must take the derivative of the function, find critical points, then determine if that critical point is a global maxima. This is denoted as

$$\operatorname*{argmax}_x$$

B.2 Rules of Calculus

B.2.1 Chain Rule

Defn B.2.1 (Chain Rule)**.** The *chain rule* is a way to differentiate a function that has 2 functions multiplied together.

If

$$f(x) = g(x) \cdot h(x)$$

then,

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x) &= g'(x) \cdot h(x) + g(x) \cdot h'(x) \\ \frac{df(x)}{dx} &= \frac{dg(x)}{dx} \cdot g(x) + g(x) \cdot \frac{dh(x)}{dx} \end{aligned} \tag{B.3}$$