

Continuous-time standard functions:

- unit step function
- impulse function/Dirac-Impulse
- complex-valued exponential function

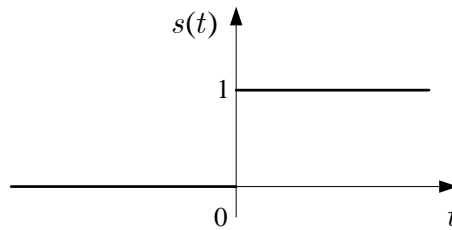
Discrete-time standard sequences:

- unit step sequence
- unit impulse sequence
- complex-valued exponential sequence

Unit step function

The ***unit step function*** (or Heaviside step function) $s(t)$ is defined as

$$s(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & t < 0 \\ 0.5 & t = 0 \\ 1 & t > 0 \end{cases} . \quad (1.1)$$



A wide-variety of functions can be represented as linear combination of step functions:

$$x(t) = x(-\infty) + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} s(t - \tau) \dot{x}(\tau) d\tau \quad (1.2)$$

Often also following definition is used

$$\epsilon(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & t < 0 \\ 1 & t \geq 0 \end{cases} . \quad (1.3)$$

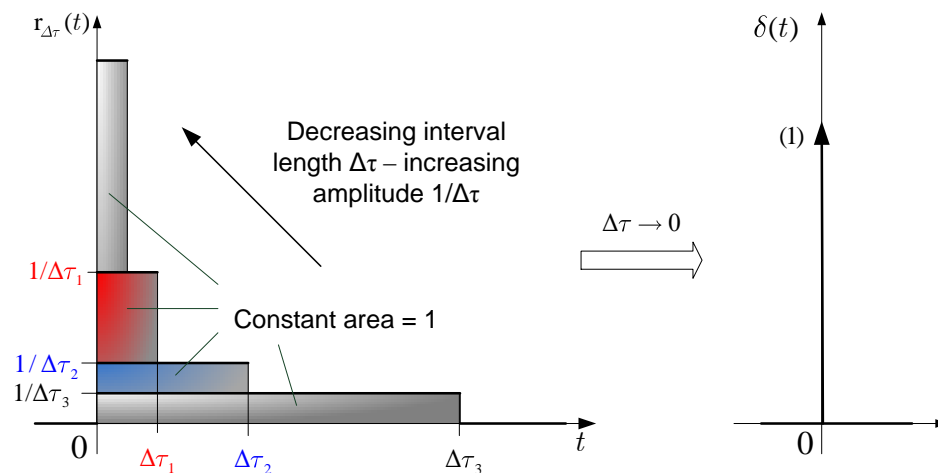
Unit impulse function

The **impulse function** $\delta(t)$ - a so-called generalized function or *distribution* - is defined by the following relation which shall be fulfilled for every continuous function $f(t)$:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(\tau) \delta(t - \tau) d\tau = f(t). \quad (1.4)$$

This relation is referred to as **masking property** of the unit impulse function.

$\delta(t)$ can be considered as limit value of the rectangular function $r_{\Delta\tau}(t)$ for vanishing values $\Delta\tau$:



Every continuous function $x(t)$ can be represented as linear combination (integral) of time-shifted unit impulse functions $\delta(t - \tau)$ with weights $x(\tau) d\tau$

$$x(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(\tau) \delta(t - \tau) d\tau \quad (1.5)$$

Unit impulse function

- Area

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t) dt = 1 \quad \text{bzw.} \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} a\delta(t) dt = a \quad (1.6)$$

- Integration

$$\int_{-\infty}^t \delta(\tau) d\tau = s(t) \quad \text{bzw.} \quad \delta(t) = \frac{ds(t)}{dt} \quad (1.7)$$

- Linear combination of two impulse functions

$$a\delta(t) + b\delta(t) = (a + b)\delta(t) \quad (1.8)$$

- Scaling of time axes/argument

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(at) dt = \frac{1}{|a|} \quad \text{bzw.} \quad \delta(at) = \frac{1}{|a|}\delta(t) \quad (1.9)$$

- Masking for $t = 0$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t)\delta(t) dt = x(0) \quad (1.10)$$

- Multiplication with a *continuous* function $x(t)$

$$x(t)\delta(t - \tau) = x(\tau)\delta(t - \tau) \quad (1.11)$$

- Convolution

$$x(t) * \delta(t - \tau) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(\zeta)\delta(t - \zeta - \tau) d\zeta = x(t - \tau) \quad (1.12)$$

The masking property in Eq. (1.4) leads to the ***continuous-time convolution*** which is for arbitrary functions $f(t)$ and $g(t)$ defined as

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(\tau) g(t - \tau) d\tau = f(t) * g(t) = g(t) * f(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t - \tau) g(\tau) d\tau \quad (1.13)$$

The *complex exponential function* is defined as:

$$x(t) = X e^{st}, \quad (1.14)$$

where

- complex amplitude $X = \hat{X} e^{j\varphi}$, $\hat{X} \in \mathbb{R}_0^+$, $\varphi \in \mathbb{R}$,
- complex frequency $s = \sigma + j\omega$, $\sigma, \omega \in \mathbb{R}$.
- angular frequency $\omega = 2\pi f = 2\pi/T$,
- frequency f ,
- period T .

- Functions of exponential order $x(t)$ can be represented as (Laplace-transform)

$$x(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi j} \int_{\sigma-j\infty}^{\sigma+j\infty} X(s) e^{st} ds, \quad X(s) \in \mathbb{C}, \quad (1.15)$$

- Absolutely integrable functions/continuous functions $x(t)$ with a finite number of discontinuities can be represented as (Fourier-Transform)

$$x(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X(f) e^{j2\pi ft} df, \quad X(f) \in \mathbb{C}, \quad (1.16)$$

- Bounded periodic functions $x(t) = x(t + T)$ with a finite number of discontinuities can be represented as (Fourier-series)

$$x(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} X_k e^{jk2\pi ft}, \quad X_k \in \mathbb{C}, \quad f = 1/T \quad (1.17)$$

The *unit impulse sequence* is defined as

$$\delta[k] = \begin{cases} 1, & k = 0 \\ 0, & k \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\} \end{cases} . \quad (1.18)$$

The discrete-time masking property is given as:

$$x[k] = \sum_{\kappa=-\infty}^{\infty} x[\kappa] \delta[k - \kappa] = x[k] * \delta[k]. \quad (1.19)$$

The masking property in Eq. (1.19) leads to the *discrete-time convolution* which is for arbitrary sequences $f[k]$ and $g[k]$ defined as

$$\sum_{\kappa=-\infty}^{\infty} f[\kappa] g[k - \kappa] = f[k] * g[k] = g[k] * f[k] = \sum_{\kappa=-\infty}^{\infty} f[k - \kappa] g[\kappa] \quad (1.20)$$

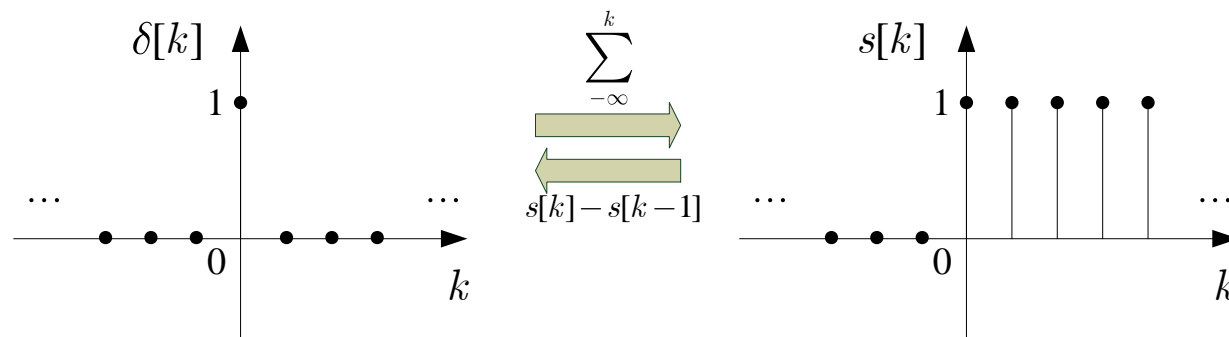
Unit step sequence

The *unit step sequence* is defined as

$$s[k] = \begin{cases} 1, & k \geq 0 \\ 0, & k < 0 \end{cases} . \quad (1.21)$$

Between the unit impulse sequence and unit step sequence holds following relationship:

$$s[k] = \sum_{\kappa=-\infty}^k \delta[\kappa] \Leftrightarrow \delta[k] = s[k] - s[k-1].$$



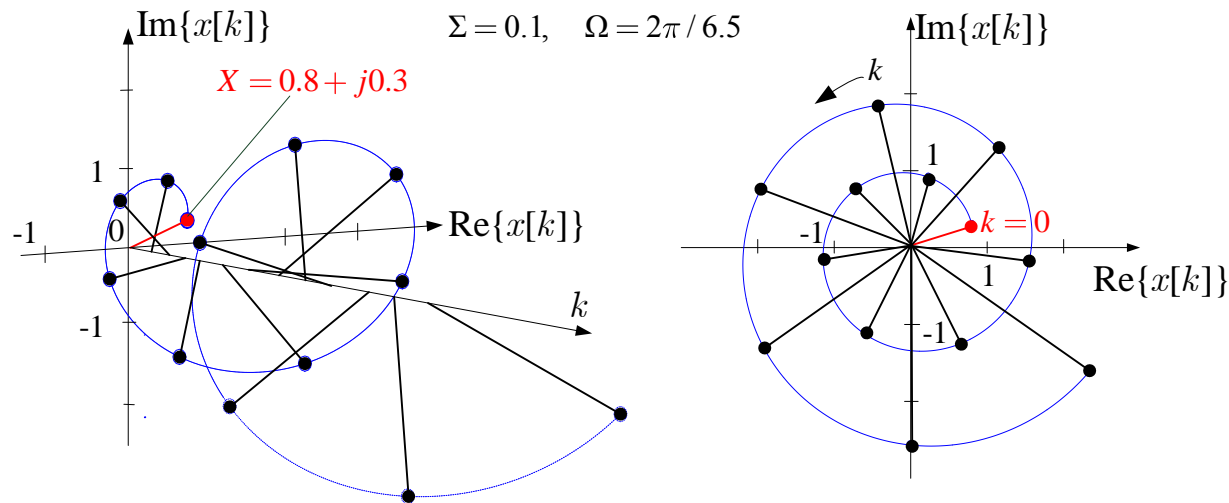
The *complex exponential sequence* is defined as

$$x[k] = X e^{(\Sigma + j\Omega)k} = X \left(r e^{j\Omega} \right)^k = X z^k, \quad (1.22)$$

where

- X : complex amplitude
- $\Sigma = \ln(r)$: attenuation
- Ω : circular frequency
- $z = r \cdot e^{j\Omega}$

Complex exponential sequence



For the unit amplitude *periodic complex exponential sequence* with $X = 1, r = 1$ follows:

$$e^{j\Omega k} = e^{j(\Omega + 2\pi)k}. \quad (1.23)$$

Every shift of the circular frequency Ω by an integer multiple of 2π yields the same sequence:

$$e^{-j\pi k} = e^{j\pi k} = \dots = e^{j(\pi + n2\pi)k}, \quad \Omega = -\pi + n \cdot 2\pi, n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

(This ambiguity is the reason for aliasing if the sampling frequency is not chosen large enough and violates the sampling theorem.)

Complex exponential sequence

- A sequence of exponential order $x[k]$ can be represented as (z -transform)

$$x[k] = \frac{1}{2\pi j} \oint_C X(z) z^{k-1} dz, \quad X(z) \in \mathbb{C}, \quad (1.24)$$

- An absolutely summable sequence $x[k]$ can be represented as (Discrete-time Fourier-Transform)

$$x[k] = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} X(e^{j\Omega}) e^{j\Omega k} d\Omega, \quad (1.25)$$

- M -periodic sequences $x[k] = x[k+M]$ can be represented as (Fourier series or Discrete Fourier-Transform)

$$x[k] = \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} X_m e^{j2\pi km/M}, \quad X_m \in \mathbb{C}. \quad (1.26)$$

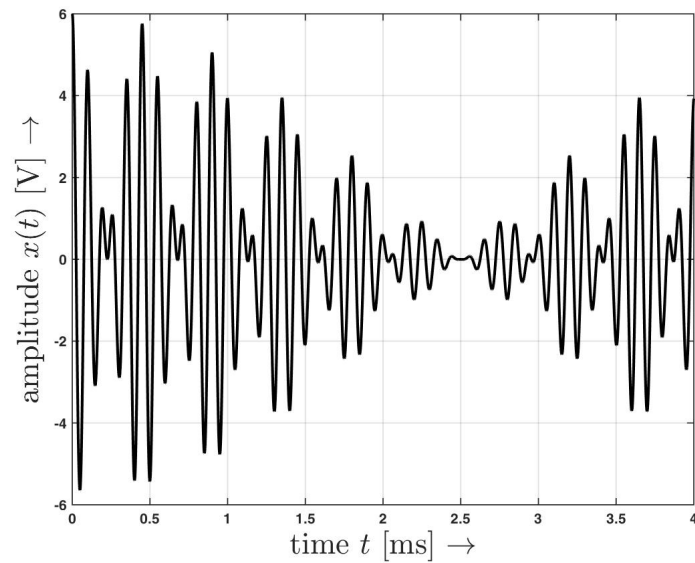
or

$$x[k] = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} X(m) e^{j2\pi km/M}, \quad X(m) \in \mathbb{C}. \quad (1.27)$$

1.1 “Signals”

A **signal** is a function or sequence representing information

Radio signal as example of 1D signal $x(t)$:



Picture as example of 2D sequence $x[k, \ell]$



Energy and power are defined predominantly by assuming that the signal is normalized to a specific unit. For a real eletrotechnical system this would e.g. mean that signal amplitudes are measured in [V] (Volt) with reference to a standard resistance with value $R = 1\Omega$.

The energy E_x of a continuous-time signal $x(t)$ is:

$$E_x = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x(t)|^2 dt. \quad (1.28)$$

The energy E_x of a discrete-time signal $x[k]$ is:

$$E_x = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} |x[k]|^2. \quad (1.29)$$

Signals for which these integrals/sums exist are also referred to as "energy-limited" signals.

Energy and power

The integral/sum from $-\infty$ to ∞ however doesn't converge for many, e.g. periodic, signals. The signal energy has to be replaced by the average signal power in these cases.

The power P_x of a continuous-time signal $x(t)$ is:

$$P_x = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} |x(t)|^2 dt. \quad (1.30)$$

The power P_x of a discrete-time signal $x[k]$ is:

$$P_x = \lim_{K \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{K+1} \sum_{-K/2}^{K/2} |x[k]|^2. \quad (1.31)$$

In a mathematical context the power equals the second moment.

The calculation of the signal power simplifies for the class of *periodic* signals:

The power P_x of a periodic continuous-time signal $x(t) = x(t + T)$ with period T is:

$$P_x = \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} |x(t)|^2 dt. \quad (1.32)$$

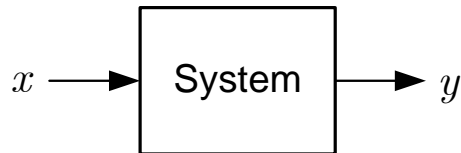
The power P_x of a periodic discrete-time signal $x[k] = x[k + K]$ with period K is:

$$P_x = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} |x[k]|^2. \quad (1.33)$$

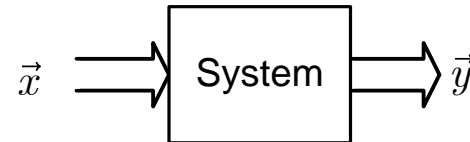
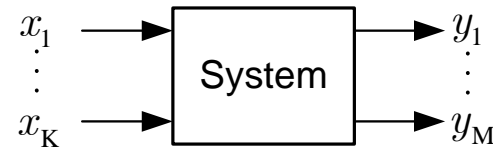
1.2 “Systems”

A **system** is a process or operator which transforms signals and connects them with each other.

one input, one output

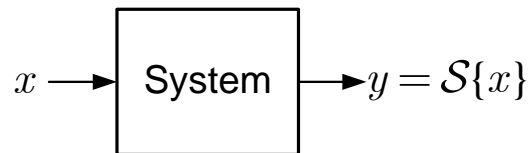


multiple inputs, multiple outputs



The transformation of an input signal x into an output signal y conducted by a system can mathematically be described by means of the operator \mathcal{S} :

$$y(t) = \mathcal{S}\{x(t)\} \quad \text{or} \quad y[k] = \mathcal{S}\{x[k]\}. \quad (1.34)$$



“Principle of superposition” (continuous-time)

Let $x_1(t)$ and $x_2(t)$ be two distinct input-signals and $y_1(t)$ and $y_2(t)$ be the corresponding output-signals of a discrete-time system

$$y_1(t) = \mathcal{S}\{x_1(t)\}, \quad y_2(t) = \mathcal{S}\{x_2(t)\}, \quad (1.35)$$

Iff the ***system is linear***, then any linear combination $x(t) = ax_1(t) + bx_2(t)$ of $x_1(t), x_2(t)$ yields the same linear combination of $y_1(t)$ and $y_2(t)$ as output-signal

$$ay_1(t) + by_2(t) = \mathcal{S}\{ax_1(t) + bx_2(t)\}. \quad (1.36)$$

“Principle of superposition”(discrete-time)

Let $x_1[k]$ and $x_2[k]$ be two distinct input-signals and $y_1[k]$ and $y_2[k]$ be the corresponding output-signals of a discrete-time system

$$y_1[k] = \mathcal{S}\{x_1[k]\}, \quad y_2[k] = \mathcal{S}\{x_2[k]\}, \quad (1.37)$$

Iff the ***system is linear***, then any linear combination $x[k] = ax_1[k] + bx_2[k]$ of $x_1[k], x_2[k]$ yields the same linear combination of $y_1[k]$ and $y_2[k]$ as output-signal

$$ay_1[k] + by_2[k] = \mathcal{S}\{ax_1[k] + bx_2[k]\}. \quad (1.38)$$

1.2.2 Time-invariant systems

Let the input-output-relation of a continuous-time system be described by $y(t) = \mathcal{S}\{x(t)\}$:

The system is ***time-invariant***, if for every time shift τ holds

$$y(t) = \mathcal{S}\{x(t)\} \quad \Rightarrow \quad y(t - \tau) = \mathcal{S}\{x(t - \tau)\}, \quad \tau \in \mathbb{R} \quad (1.39)$$

Let the input-output-relation of a discrete-time system be described by $y[k] = \mathcal{S}\{x[k]\}$.

The system is ***time-invariant***, if for every time shift κ holds

$$y[k] = \mathcal{S}\{x[k]\} \quad \Rightarrow \quad y[k - \kappa] = \mathcal{S}\{x[k - \kappa]\}, \quad \kappa \in \mathbb{Z}. \quad (1.40)$$

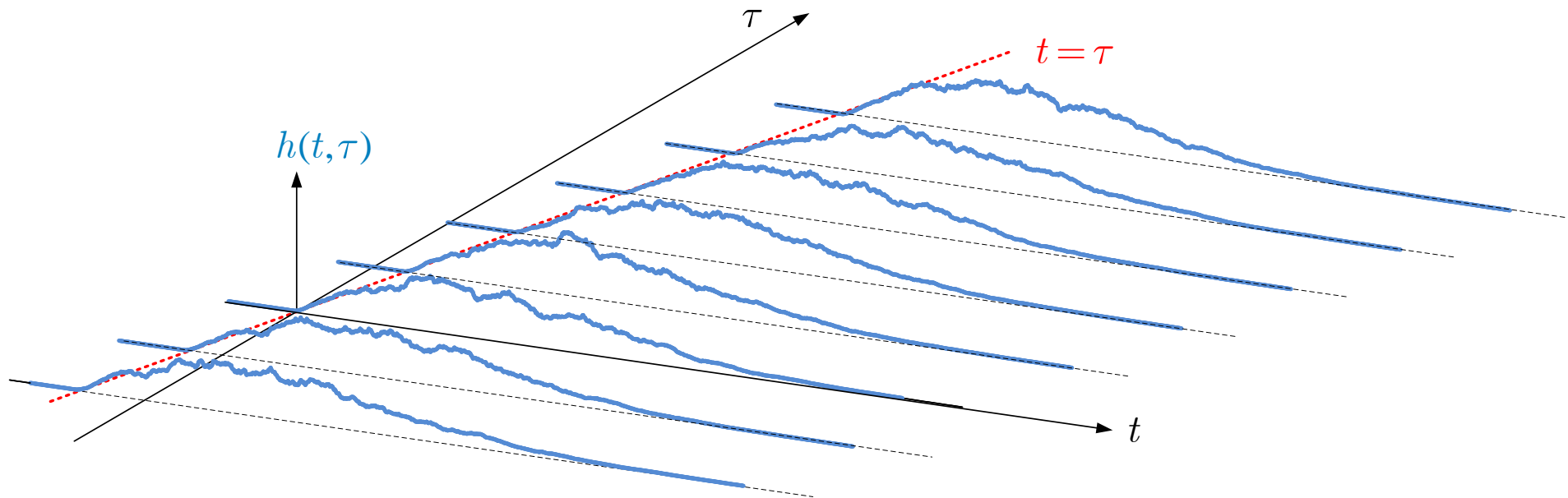
Iff a system is not time-invariant, then it is ***time-variant***.

For general parameters system characteristics are referred to as shift-invariant or shift-variant.

1.3 System characterization by its impulse response

The response of a linear continuous-time system to an excitation with a unit impulse $\delta(t - \tau)$ is referred to as **impulse response** $h(t, \tau)$

$$h(t, \tau) = \mathcal{S}\{\delta(t - \tau)\}. \quad (1.41)$$



Note: The system is excited with an impulse at time instant $t = \tau$ and the impulse response is in general a function of the actual time t and the excitation time τ !

Using that $x(t)$ can be written as

$$x(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(\tau) \delta(t - \tau) d\tau,$$

the reaction $y(t)$ of the system on the input $x(t)$ is given as for a **linear time-variant** (LTV) system with impulse response $h(t, \tau)$

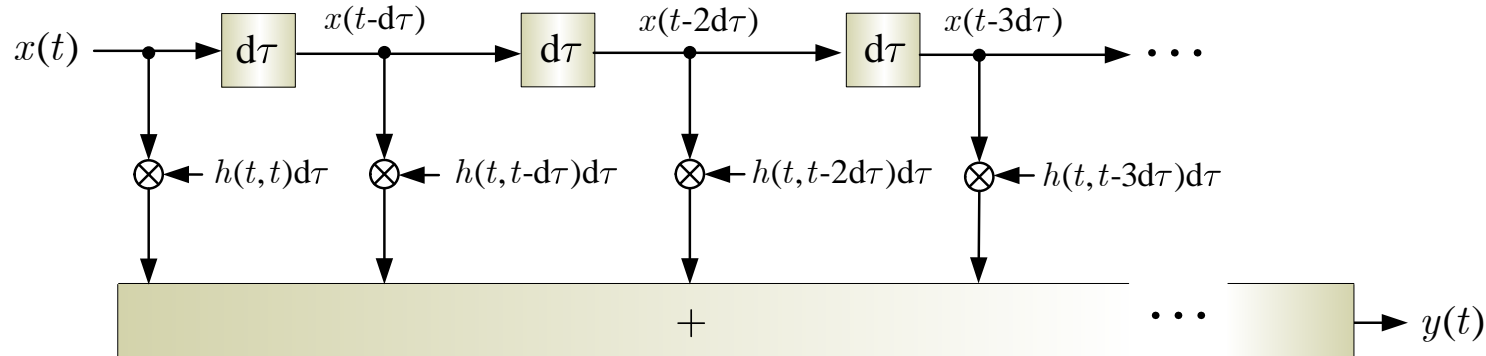
$$y(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(\tau) h(t, \tau) d\tau. \quad (1.42)$$

For the real-world case of causal systems with

$$h(t, \tau) = 0 \quad \forall t < \tau \quad (1.43)$$

and causal signals the output signal is calculated as

$$y(t) = \int_0^t x(\tau) h(t, \tau) d\tau. \quad (1.44)$$



System characterization by its impulse response

For **linear time-invariant** (LTI) systems the impulse response only relies on the time difference between excitation time and actual time

$$h(t, \tau) = h(t - \tau). \quad (1.45)$$

That is, a LTI system is fully characterized by the impulse response

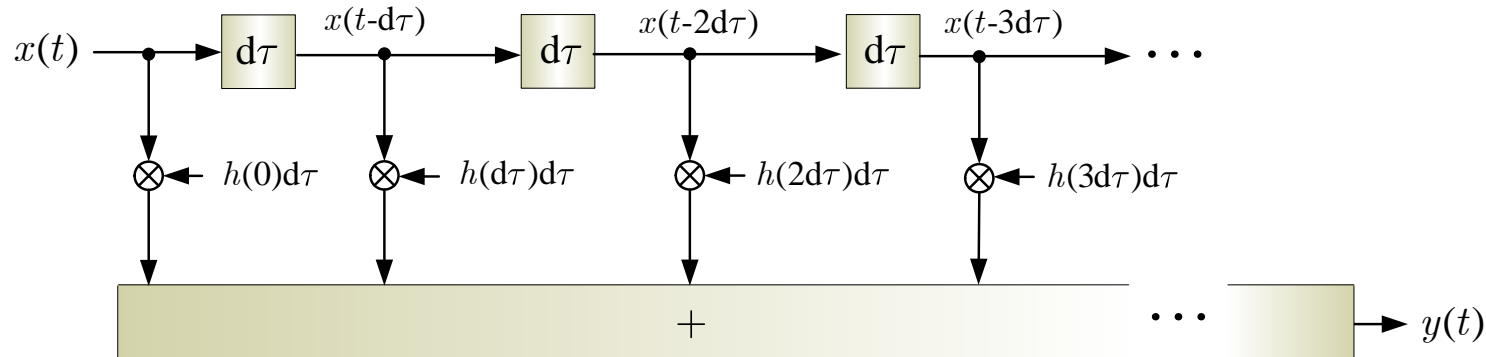
$$h(t) = \mathcal{S}\{\delta(t)\}. \quad (1.46)$$

and the input-output signal relation is given as

$$y(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(\tau)h(t - \tau) d\tau = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t - \tau)h(\tau) d\tau = x(t) * h(t). \quad (1.47)$$

For causal signals and systems this simplifies to

$$y(t) = \int_0^t x(\tau)h(t - \tau) d\tau = \int_0^t x(t - \tau)h(\tau) d\tau. \quad (1.48)$$



The response of a linear discrete-time system to an excitation with a unit impulse $\delta[k - \kappa]$ is referred to as **impulse response** $h[k, \kappa]$

$$h[k, \kappa] = \mathcal{S}\{\delta[k - \kappa]\}. \quad (1.49)$$

Using that $x[k]$ can be written as $x[k] = \sum_{\kappa=-\infty}^{\infty} x[k]\delta[k - \kappa]$, the reaction $y[k]$ of a **linear time-variant** (LTV) system with impulse response $h[k, \kappa]$ on the input $x[k]$ is given as

$$y[k] = \sum_{\kappa=-\infty}^{\infty} x[\kappa]h[k, \kappa]. \quad (1.50)$$

For **linear time-invariant** (LTI) systems the impulse response only relies on the time difference between excitation time and actual time

$$h[k, \kappa] = h[k - \kappa] \quad (1.51)$$

and the input-output signal relation is given as

$$y[k] = \sum_{\kappa=-\infty}^{\infty} x[\kappa]h[k - \kappa] = \sum_{\kappa=-\infty}^{\infty} x[k - \kappa]h[\kappa] = x[k] * h[k]. \quad (1.52)$$

For discrete-time causal LTI systems and causal signals the summation limits are given as

$$y[k] = \sum_{\kappa=0}^k x[\kappa]h[k - \kappa] = \sum_{\kappa=0}^k x[k - \kappa]h[\kappa]. \quad (1.53)$$

2 Fourier transform

Let $x(t)$ be a time-domain function, then its Fourier transform is defined as:

$$X(f) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-j2\pi ft} dt. \quad (2.1)$$

Let the Fourier transform $X(f)$ be a function of the frequency f , then its corresponding time-domain function is defined as:

$$x(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X(f) e^{j2\pi ft} df. \quad (2.2)$$

The correspondence between the pair of Fourier transforms $x(t)$ and $X(f) = \mathcal{F}\{x(t)\}$ is symbolized by:

$$x(t) \circ \bullet X(f) = |X(f)| e^{j \arg\{X(f)\}}. \quad (2.3)$$