

# Lecture 2 — Introduction to Signals and Systems

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- Signal Power and Energy

- Definition

- \* Consider signal  $x(t)$  representing the voltage or current in a unit resistance. The signal power is defined as  $p(t) = |x(t)|^2$
    - \* It is a common terminology to refer to  $|x(t)|^2$  or  $|x[n]|^2$  as the signal power even if the signal does not represent voltage or current

- Total energy in a finite duration interval

- \* The total energy in an interval  $T = t_2 - t_1$  is given by:

$$\text{Continuous Time} \rightarrow E = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \underbrace{|x(t)|^2}_{p(t)} dt$$

$$\text{Discrete Time} \rightarrow E = \Delta T \sum_{n=n_1}^{n_2} \underbrace{|x[n]|^2}_{p(t)} \text{ where } T = (n_2 - n_1 + 1)\Delta T$$

- The average power in a finite duration interval

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

or

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

- Power and Energy over an infinite time interval

– Energy

$$\text{Continuous Time} \rightarrow E_{\infty} = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-T}^T \underbrace{|x(t)|^2}_{p(t)} dt$$

$$\text{Discrete Time} \rightarrow E_{\infty} = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \Delta \mathcal{T} \sum_{n=-N}^N \underbrace{|x[n]|^2}_{p(t)}$$

– Power

$$P_{\infty} = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{E_{\infty}}{2T} = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T \underbrace{|x(t)|^2}_{p(t)} dt$$

or

$$P_{\infty} = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{E_{\infty}}{2N+1} = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2N+1} \sum_{n=-N}^N \underbrace{|x[n]|^2}_{p(t)}$$

- Energy Signals versus Power Signals

- The energy or power of a signal quantifies the magnitude of the signal. For this measure to be meaningful, it must be finite. This requirement leads to the following classification of signals:

- \* Energy

- Signals with finite total energy ( $E_{\infty} < \infty$ )
- They have zero average power

$$P_{\infty} = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{E_{\infty}}{2T} = 0$$

$$P_{\infty} = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{E_{\infty}}{2N+1} = 0$$

- \* Power

- Signals with finite average power ( $P_{\infty} < \infty$ )
- They have infinite energy

$$E_{\infty} = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} 2T(P_{\infty}) \rightarrow \infty$$

$$E_{\infty} = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} (2N+1)(P_{\infty}) \rightarrow \infty$$

- \* Any finite signal is automatically an energy signal (think: some value in range, 0 otherwise)

- Periodic Signals

- Periodic signals are classified as power signals because they possess an infinite amount of energy
- The average power of a periodic signal can be determined by averaging its power over one period:

$$P_{\infty} = P_{avg} = \frac{1}{T_o} \int_{-T_o/2}^{T_o/2} |x(t)|^2 dt$$

- Signals with neither finite power nor energy
  - Some signals have neither finite power nor energy
  - An example is a ramp signal, where  $x(t) = t, t \geq 0$
  - Neither the energy nor the power can be defined for such signals
- Transformation of the independent variable
  - In this section, we will explore key elementary signal transformations that involve basic modifications of the independent variable for both discrete and continuous-time signals. These transformations include:
    - \* Time shifting
    - \* Time scaling
    - \* Time reversal
    - \* Combined operations
- Time Shifting
  - Given a signal  $x(t)$ , a shift could be written as  $y(t) = x(t - t_o)$ . This would mean that:
 
$$x(t - t_o) = x(t_{old}) \text{ at } t = t_{old} + t_o$$
  - For shift  $x(t - t_o)$  the signal is shifted to the right, and for shift  $x(t + t_o)$  the signal is shifted to the left
  - For discrete time, a shift has the same effect
- Time Reversal
  - Time reversal is performed using a  $180^\circ$  rotation around the vertical axis. If  $x(t)$  represents an audio recording,  $x(-t)$  is the audio recording played backward
  - For example  $x(t) = t$ , a linear line with slope one, would become  $x(-t) = -t$  upon reversal, with slope negative one (reflected about vertical axis)
- Time Scaling

- Continuous Time Signals

- \*  $x(\alpha t)$  leads to linear compression if  $\alpha > 1$  and linear stretching if  $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$
- \* If  $x(t)$  is an audio recording, the expression  $x(2t)$  represents the recording played at twice the speed, and  $x(\frac{1}{2}t)$  is the recording played at half the speed
- \* In the time scaling operation,  $t = 0$  serves as a fixed anchor point and remains unchanged, since  $x(t) = x(\alpha t)$  at  $t = 0$
- \* The concepts of compression and expansions differ slightly for discrete time signals

- Discrete Time Signals

- \* Zero remains as an anchor point
- \* Take only equivalent values at integer  $n$  values, and assume  $y[n] = 0$  for non-integer  $n$  values
- \* For  $x[\frac{n}{L}]$ , which increases the sampling rate, (resample) the sequence by a factor of  $L$ , a process known as up-sampling
- \*  $L - 1$  zeros are inserted between each consecutive data points
- \* Usually followed by a low pass filter to interpolate
- \* Compression is much simpler, as a compression would lose information, but will only use integer  $n$  values
- \* First, a low pass filter is used, and the values are down-sampled
- \* For  $x[Mn]$ , the signal is decimated by a factor of  $M$ , which keeps only every  $M$ -th sample

- Combined Operations

- For  $y(t) = x(\alpha t + \beta) = x(t_{old})$  we can write:

$$t_{old} = \alpha t + \beta$$

$$t = \frac{1}{\alpha} (t_{old} - \beta)$$

- \* This means the signal was scaled by  $1/\alpha$  and shifted to the left  $\beta/\alpha$

- Euler Formula

- $Ae^{j(\omega_o t + \phi)} = A \{ \cos(\omega_o t + \phi) + j \sin(\omega_o t + \phi) \}$
- $Ae^{-j(\omega_o t + \phi)} = A \{ \cos(\omega_o t + \phi) - j \sin(\omega_o t + \phi) \}$
- $A \cos(\omega_o t + \phi) = \frac{A}{2} \{ e^{j\omega_o t + \phi} + e^{-j(\omega_o t + \phi)} \} = \text{Re} \{ Ae^{j(\omega_o t + \phi)} \}$
- $A \sin(\omega_o t + \phi) = \frac{A}{2j} \{ e^{j\omega_o t + \phi} - e^{-j(\omega_o t + \phi)} \} = \text{Im} \{ Ae^{j(\omega_o t + \phi)} \}$

- Sinusoidal Waveform, Discrete Time Case: The Discrete Time Frequency

- The continuous time signal  $x(t) = A \sin(\omega_o t + \phi) = A \sin(2\pi f_o t + \phi)$
- The continuous time frequency ( $f_o$ ) is in cycles/second and  $\omega_o$  is in radians/second
- The discrete time signal can be expressed as:

$$x[n] = x(nT_s) = A \sin(2\pi f_o n T_s + \phi) = A \sin\left(2\pi \frac{f_o}{f_s} n + \phi\right) = A \sin(2\pi F n + \phi)$$

- Where  $F = \frac{f_o}{f_s} = \frac{T_s}{T_o}$  is the discrete time frequency, in cycles/sample

$$\frac{T_o}{T_s} = \text{number of samples per one cycle of the signal}$$

$$x[n] = A \sin(\Omega n + \phi), \Omega \text{ is in radians/sample, } \Omega = 2\pi F$$

- $\Omega = 2\pi \frac{f_o}{f_s}$  is the discrete time frequency in radians/sample
- $\Omega = \pi$  is the largest discrete time frequency that corresponds to the lowest sampling rate (Nyquist rate)

- Is a Discrete Time Sinusoidal Waveform Always Periodic

- A continuous time sinusoidal signal in the form  $A \cos(\omega_o t + \phi)$  is always periodic with a fundamental period  $T_o = \frac{2\pi}{\omega_o}$
- For a discrete time sinusoidal signal,  $x[n] = A \cos(\omega_o n)$  to be periodic, we must have an integer period  $N_o$  where  $x[n + N_o] = x[n]$
- $A \cos(\Omega_o(n + N_o)) = A \cos(\omega_o + 2m\pi)$ ,  $m = 0, 1, 2 \dots$
- $N_o = \frac{2\pi}{\Omega_o} m$ , which requires the ratio  $\frac{2\pi}{\Omega_o}$  to be rational

- Exponential and Sinusoidal Waveforms

- These signals occur frequently and serve as fundamental building blocks for constructing more complex signals
- A continuous-time signal would be of form:  $x(t) = C e^{\alpha t}$
- $\alpha > 0 \rightarrow$  rising exponential and  $\alpha < 0 \rightarrow$  decaying exponential
- A discrete-time signal would be of form:  $x[n] = C \alpha^n$
- $|\alpha| > 1 \rightarrow$  rising exponential and  $|\alpha| < 1 \rightarrow$  decaying exponential
- Imaginary Exponentials:  $x(t) = C e^{j\omega_o t}$ , where  $\omega_o$  is the fundamental frequency in radians/s
  - \*  $x(t + T_o) = e^{j\omega_o(t+T_o)} = e^{j\omega_o t} e^{j\omega_o T_o} = e^{j\omega_o t}$  if  $\omega_o T_o = 2\pi$
  - \* This complex exponential signal is periodic with fundamental period  $T_o = \frac{2\pi}{\omega_o}$

- Imaginary Exponentials (Discrete Case):  $x[n] = Ce^{j\Omega_o n}$ 
  - \* The complex exponential can be expressed using the Euler formula in terms of sinusoidal signals  $e^{j\Omega_o n} = C \{\cos(\Omega_o n) + j \sin(\Omega_o n)\}$
- Total energy in one period for such an exponential is  $|C|^2 T_o$
- Total energy is infinite, since there is an infinite number of cycles
- Average power in a period is 1
- Average power in an infinite interval is  $|C|^2$
- Harmonically Related Signals
  - Continuous Time Case
    - \* For a signal form of  $\phi_k(t) = e^{jk\omega_o t}$ , where  $k = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$ 
      - The frequency  $\omega = k\omega_o$  is an integral multiple of the fundamental frequency,  $\omega_o$
      - The period is  $T_k = \frac{2\pi}{|k|\omega_o} = \frac{T_o}{|k|}$
  - Discrete Time Case
    - \* For a signal of form  $\phi_k[n] = e^{jk\Omega_o n}$ , where  $k = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$ 
      - The frequency  $\Omega = k\Omega_o$  is an integral multiple of the fundamental frequency,  $\Omega_o$
      - The period is  $N_k = \frac{2\pi}{|k|\Omega_o} m = N_o \left( \frac{m}{|k|} \right)$
- Combining Complex Exponentials

– Example:

$$x(t) = e^{j\omega_1 t} + e^{j\omega_2 t} \rightarrow 2e^{.5j(\omega_1 + \omega_2)t} \cos\left(\frac{(\omega_1 - \omega_2)t}{2}\right)$$

– Multiply by a conjugate to more easily find the magnitude:

$$|x(t)|^2 = x(t)x^*(t)$$

- General Complex Exponential
  - Continuous Time
    - \*  $x(t) = Ce^{\alpha t}$  (both  $C$  and  $\alpha$  are complex)
    - \*  $C = |C|e^{j\theta}$  and  $\alpha = r + j\omega_o$
    - \*  $x(t) = |C|e^{j\theta}e^{(r+j\omega_o)t} = |C|e^{rt}e^{j(\omega_o t + \theta)}$