

# EE201 - Signals and Systems

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# Chapter 1

## Analysis of Signals and Systems

### 1.1 Energy and Power

	Continuous Time Signal, $x(t)$	Discrete Time Signal, $x[n]$
<b>Energy</b>	$E_x = \int_{t_1}^{t_2}  x(t) ^2 dt$	$E_x = \sum_{n=N_1}^{N_2}  x[n] ^2$
<b>Power</b>	$E_x = \frac{E_x}{t_2 - t_1}$	$P_x = \frac{E_x}{N_2 - N_1 + 1}$

In infinite duration signals ( $-\infty < t < +\infty, -\infty < n < +\infty$ )

	Continuous Time Signal, $x(t)$	Discrete Time Signal, $x[n]$
<b>Energy</b>	$E_\infty = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-T}^T  x(t) ^2 dt$	$E_\infty = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=-N}^N  x[n] ^2$
<b>Power</b>	$E_\infty = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{E_\infty}{2T}$	$P_\infty = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{E_\infty}{2N + 1}$

### 1.2 Periodic Signals

A periodic signal repeats itself after sometime.

#### Continuous signals

If  $x(t) = x(t + T) \forall t, T > 0$  then the signal is periodic. The minimum value of  $T$  that satisfies the condition is called the *fundamental period*.

#### Discrete signals

If  $x[n] = x[n + N] \forall n, N > 0, N \in \mathbb{Z}$  then the signal is periodic. The minimum value of  $N$  that satisfies the condition is called the *fundamental period*.

### 1.3 Exponential Signals

#### 1.3.1 Continuous Time Exponential Signals

A continuous time exponential signal can be represented as

$$x(t) = Ce^{at} \quad (1.1)$$

where  $C, a \in \mathbb{C}$ .

[1] Consider the general case where  $C = |C|e^{j\theta}$  and  $a = \sigma + j\omega$ . The signal becomes

$$x(t) = |C|e^{\sigma t}e^{j(\omega t + \theta)}$$

- $\omega$  is angular frequency. If  $\omega \neq 0$ , the signal is sinusoidal, with  $f = \frac{\omega}{2\pi}$ .
- $\sigma$  is the attenuation factor. If  $\sigma \neq 0$ , the signal decays/grows and is bounded by the envelope  $|C|e^{\sigma t}$ .
- $\theta$  is the initial phase.

### 1.3.2 Discrete Time Exponential Signals

A discrete time exponential signal can be represented as

$$x[n] = Ce^{an} \quad (1.2)$$

where  $C, a \in \mathbb{C}$ .

Consider the general case where  $C = |C|e^{j\theta}$  and  $a = \sigma + j\omega$ . The signal becomes

$$x[n] = |C|e^{\sigma n}e^{j(\omega n + \theta)}$$

- $\omega$  is **related to** angular frequency. If  $\omega \neq 2n\pi, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ , the signal is periodic. Unlike continuous-time signals, the angular frequency cannot take all values. The range is  $[0, 2\pi)$  or  $[-\pi, \pi)$  because

$$e^{j(\omega+2\pi)n} = e^{j\omega n}e^{j2\pi n} = e^{j\omega n}$$

Rate of oscillation is small for  $\omega \sim 2n\pi$ , and high for  $\omega \sim (2n+1)\pi, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

- $\sigma$  is the attenuation factor. If  $\sigma \neq 0$ , the signal decays/grows and is bounded by the envelope  $|C|e^{\sigma n}$ .
- $\theta$  is the initial phase.

### 1.3.3 Periodicity

#### Continuous-time exponential signals

For a continuous-time exponential signal to be periodic

$$\begin{aligned} e^{j\omega(t+T)} &= e^{j\omega t} \\ \Rightarrow e^{j\omega T} &= 1 \\ \Rightarrow \omega T &= 2m\pi, m \in \mathbb{Z} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, continuous-time exponential signal is periodic for all  $\omega > 0$  and their *fundamental time period* is

$$T = \frac{2\pi}{\omega}$$

#### Discrete-time exponential signals

For a discrete-time exponential signal to be periodic

$$\begin{aligned} e^{j\omega(n+N)} &= e^{j\omega n} \\ \Rightarrow e^{j\omega N} &= 1 \\ \Rightarrow \omega N &= 2m\pi, m \in \mathbb{Z} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, discrete-time exponential signal is periodic only if  $\frac{\omega}{2\pi} = \frac{m}{N}$  i.e.  $\frac{\omega}{2\pi}$  is a rational number. The *fundamental period* is

$$N = m \frac{2\pi}{\omega}$$

where  $m$  is smallest positive integer such that  $N$  evaluates to an integer.

### 1.3.4 Harmonics

#### Continuous-time exponential signals

$$\phi_k(t) = e^{jk[\frac{2\pi}{T}]t} = e^{jk\omega t}$$

#### Discrete-time exponential signals

$$\phi_k[n] = e^{jk[\frac{2\pi}{N}]n} = e^{jk\frac{\omega}{m}n}$$

## 1.4 Unit Impulse and Step Functions

### 1.4.1 Discrete-Time Case

#### Unit Impulse

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

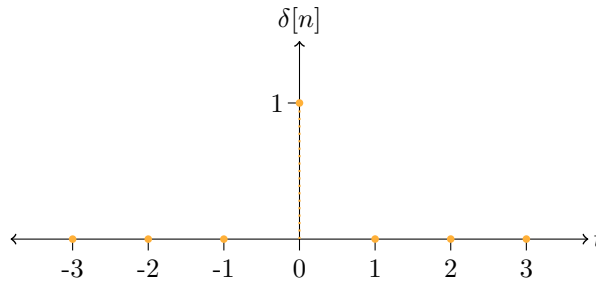


Figure 1.1: Unit impulse function in discrete-time

#### Unit Step

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

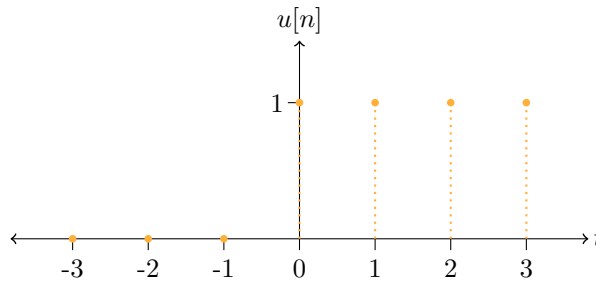


Figure 1.2: Unit step function in discrete-time

**Properties**

1.  $\delta[n] = u[n] - u[n - 1]$
2.  $u[n] = \sum_{m=-\infty}^n \delta[m] = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \delta[n - k]$

**3. Sampling Property of unit impulse function**

$$x[n] \cdot \delta[n] = x[0] \cdot \delta[n]$$

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

**1.4.2 Continuous-Time Case****Unit Step**

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

This function is discontinuous at  $t = 0$ . It is modified a little bit to make it continuous.

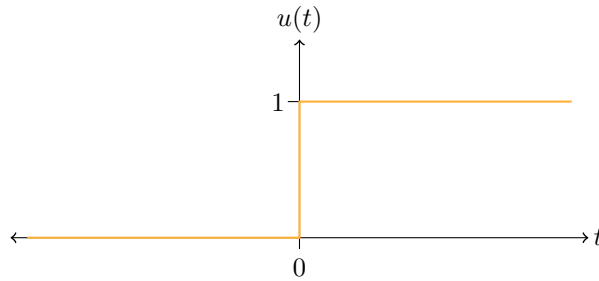


Figure 1.3: Unit step function in continuous-time

$$U_{\Delta}(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & t \leq 0 \\ \frac{t}{\Delta} & 0 < t < \Delta \\ 1 & t \geq \Delta \end{cases}$$

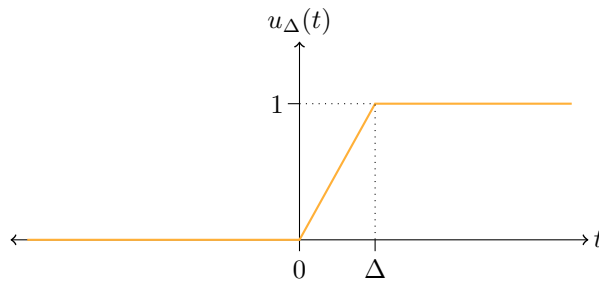


Figure 1.4: Continuous unit step function in continuous-time

**Unit Impulse**

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

$$\delta(t) = \frac{du(t)}{dt}$$

Since,  $u(t)$  is not differentiable.

$$\delta(t) = \lim_{\Delta \rightarrow 0} \frac{dU_{\Delta}(t)}{dt}$$

$$\delta(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & t \leq 0 \\ \frac{1}{\Delta} & 0 < t < \Delta \\ 0 & t \geq \Delta \end{cases}$$

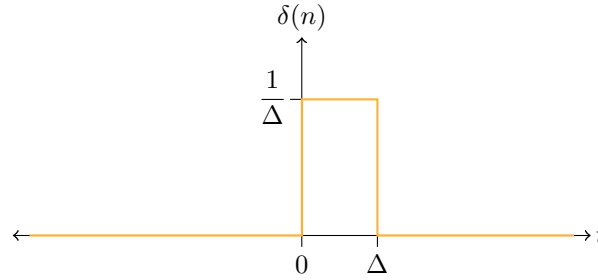


Figure 1.5: Unit impulse function in continuous-time

### Properties

$$1. \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \delta(\tau) d\tau = 1$$

#### 2. Sampling Property of unit impulse function

$$x(t) \cdot \delta(t) = x(0) \cdot \delta(t)$$

$$x(t) \cdot \delta(t - t_0) = x(t_0) \cdot \delta(t - t_0)$$

## 1.5 Systems

System is the interconnection of components/devices/subsystems. A *continuous-time system* is represented by *differential equation* and a *discrete-time system* is represented by *difference equation*.

### 1.5.1 Interconnection of Systems

#### 1. Series (Cascade) Connection

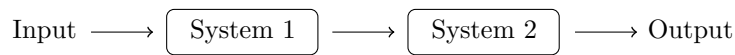


Figure 1.6: Example of series interconnection

#### 2. Parallel Connection

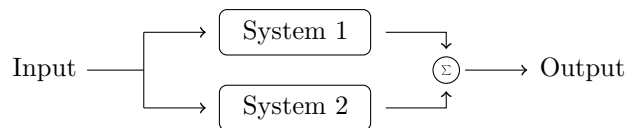


Figure 1.7: Example of parallel interconnection

### 3. Series-Parallel Connection

It is combination of series and parallel connections.

### 4. Feedback Interconnection

In this kind of interconnection, some part of output is again fed as input to the system.

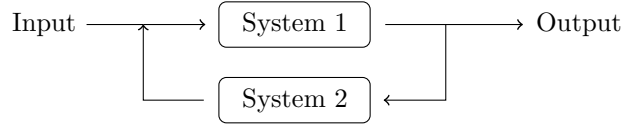


Figure 1.8: Example of feedback interconnection

## 1.6 Basic Properties of a System

Some basic properties of a system are

1. Memory
2. Invertibility
3. Causality
4. Stability
5. Time-invariance
6. Linearity

In all examples below,  $x(t)$ (or  $x[n]$ ) is the input to the system and the output is  $y(t)$ (or  $y[n]$ ).

### 1.6.1 Memory

Systems can be divided into two classes on basis of memory:

1. **Memoryless:** System whose output depends only on present input.

EXAMPLES

- $y[n] = (2x[n] - x^2[n])^2$
- $y(t) = Rx(t)$

2. **With memory:** System whose output depends on past/future value also.

EXAMPLES

- $y[n] = x[n - 1]$
- $y[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^n x[k]$
- $y(t) = \frac{1}{c} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(\tau) d\tau$

### 1.6.2 Invertibility

Systems can be divided into two classes on basis of invertibility:

1. **Invertible:** Systems for which distinct input leads to distinct outputs (i.e. they are one-one and onto).

EXAMPLES

- $y(t) = 2x(t)$



When a system and its inverse system are cascaded then output is same as input and such group of system is called *identity systems* ( $x(t) = t$ ).

2. **Non-invertible:** Systems which are not invertible.

EXAMPLES

- $y(t) = c$

### 1.6.3 Causality

Systems can be divided into two classes on basis of causality:

1. **Causal/Non-anticipative:** Systems whose output is dependent only on present and past (but not future) values of the input.

EXAMPLES

- All memoryless systems(they use only present input)

All practical systems are causal, unless they use recorded signals as future values.

**Note:** *Causal signals* are signals which start after  $t = 0$ , *non-causal signals* are signals that start before  $t = 0$  and *anti-causal signals* are signals that end after  $t = 0$ .

2. **Non-causal system:** Systems which are not causal.

EXAMPLES

- $y(t) = x(t + 1)$

### 1.6.4 Stability

Systems which produce bounded output for bounded input are called *stable system*. Such systems are called BIBO(bounded input, bounded output) stable.

EXAMPLES

- Charging/discharging capacitor

**Note:** A signal is called bounded if  $\exists B > 0$  such that the signal magnitude never exceeds  $B$ . [2]

### 1.6.5 Time Invariance

Systems can be divided into two classes on basis of time-invariance:

1. **Time invariant:** System whose output does not depend on the instant or time of applying the input. Delay in input produces same delay in output.

EXAMPLES

- $y(t) = x(t)$

2. **Time variant:** Systems whose output depend on the time of application of input.

EXAMPLES

- $y(t) = tx(t)$ ,

### 1.6.6 Linearity

Systems can be divided into two classes on basis of linearity:

1. **Linear:** Systems that can be superimposed i.e. they are additive and homogeneous.

EXAMPLES

- $y(t) = x(t_0)$

**Additivity:** If  $x_1(t) \rightarrow y_1(t)$  and  $x_2(t) \rightarrow y_2(t)$ , then

$$x_1(t) + x_2(t) \rightarrow y_1(t) + y_2(t)$$

**Homogeneity:** If  $x(t) \rightarrow y(t)$ , then

$$ax(t) \rightarrow ay(t) \quad (a \in \mathbb{C})$$

2. **Non-linear:** Systems which do not follow additivity or homogeneity or both.

EXAMPLES

- $y(t) = x^2(t) + c$

## 1.7 Linear Time Invariant(LTI) Systems

Unit impulse signal will be used as a basis for creating other signals. In other words, we will be writing signals as a linear combination of shifted unit-impulse signals.

### 1.7.1 Discrete-Time LTI Systems

Consider an arbitrary signal  $x[n]$ , it can be represented as linear combination of shifted unit-impulse signals.

$$x[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x[k]\delta[n-k] \quad (1.3)$$

This is called *sifting property* of impulse in discrete-time case.

Let  $h_k[n]$  be the impulse response (system response to the unit-impulse  $\delta[n-k]$ ). ( $h_0 = h$ )

$\therefore$  System is linear

$\therefore$  From eq. (1.3), combining the system response to different unit impulses will give the output

$$y[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x[k]h_k[n] \quad (1.4)$$

$\therefore$  System is time-invariant

$\therefore h_k[n] = h[n-k]$

The eq. (1.4), reduces to

$$y[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x[k]h[n-k] \quad (1.5)$$

Using convolution sum[3], eq. (1.5) reduces to

$$y[n] = x[n] * h[n]$$

### 1.7.2 Continuous-Time LTI Systems

Like discrete-time case, we can write any arbitrary signal  $x(t)$  as a linear combination of shifted unit-impulse signals.

$$x(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(\tau)\delta(t-\tau)d\tau \quad (1.6)$$

This is called *sifting property* of impulse in continuous-time case.

Let  $h_\tau(t)$  be the impulse response (system response to the unit-impulse  $\delta(t - \tau)$ ). ( $h_0 = h$ )

$\therefore$  System is linear

$\therefore$  From eq. (1.6), combining the system response to different unit impulses will give the output

$$y(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(\tau)h_\tau(t)d\tau \quad (1.7)$$

$\therefore$  System is time-invariant

$\therefore h_\tau(t) = h(t - \tau)$

The eq. (1.7), reduces to

$$y(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(\tau)h(t - \tau)d\tau \quad (1.8)$$

Using convolution integral[3], eq. (1.8) reduces to

$$y(t) = x(t) * h(t)$$

**Corollary:** Impulse response is complete characterization of LTI system.

### 1.7.3 Properties of LTI Systems

The properties given below are for LTI systems only.

#### 1. Commutative Property

$$y(t) = x(t) * h(t) = h(t) * x(t)$$

$$y[n] = x[n] * h[n] = h[n] * x[n]$$

#### 2. Distributive Property

$$x(t) * [h_1(t) + h_2(t)] = x(t) * h_1(t) + x(t) * h_2(t)$$

$$x[n] * [h_1[n] + h_2[n]] = x[n] * h_1[n] + x[n] * h_2[n]$$

#### 3. Associative Property

$$x[n] * [h_1[n] * h_2[n]] = [x[n] * h_1[n]] * h_2[n]$$

$$x(t) * [h_1(t) * h_2(t)] = [x(t) * h_1(t)] * h_2(t)$$

#### 4. When LTI system is memoryless

$h[n] = 0$  for  $n \neq 0$  and  $h(t) = 0$  for  $t \neq 0$

$$h(t) = k\delta(t)$$

$$h[n] = k\delta[n]$$

$$y(t) = kx(t)$$

$$y[n] = kx[n]$$

**Note:**  $x(t) * \delta(t) = x(t)$  and  $x[n] * \delta[n] = x[n]$

#### 5. LTI system $h_1(t)$ (or $h_1[n]$ ) is invertible if $\exists h_2(t)$ (or $h_2[n]$ ), such that

$$h_1(t) * h_2(t) = \delta(t)$$

$$\text{or } h_1[n] * h_2[n] = \delta[n]$$

6. When LTI system is causal

$$\begin{aligned}
 y[n] &= \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x[k]h[n-k] \\
 &= \sum_{k=-\infty}^n x[k]h[n-k] \quad (\because x[k] = 0, k > n) \\
 &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x[n-k]h[k]
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 y(t) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(\tau)h(t-\tau)d\tau \\
 &= \int_{-\infty}^t x(\tau)h(t-\tau)d\tau \quad (\because x(\tau) = 0, \tau > t) \\
 &= \int_0^{\infty} x(t-\tau)h(\tau)d\tau
 \end{aligned}$$

So, we can also say that for a causal **system**

$$\begin{aligned}
 h(t) &= 0 \quad \forall t < 0 \\
 h[n] &= 0 \quad \forall n < 0
 \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, for a causal **signal**

$$\begin{aligned}
 x(t) &= 0 \quad \forall t < 0 \\
 x[n] &= 0 \quad \forall n < 0
 \end{aligned}$$

**Initial test:** A causal system gives no output unless an input is given.

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