

Ve 216: Introduction to Signals and Systems

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Based on Lecture Notes by Prof. Jeffrey A. Fessler

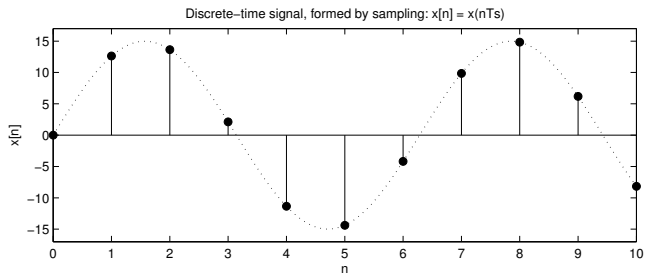
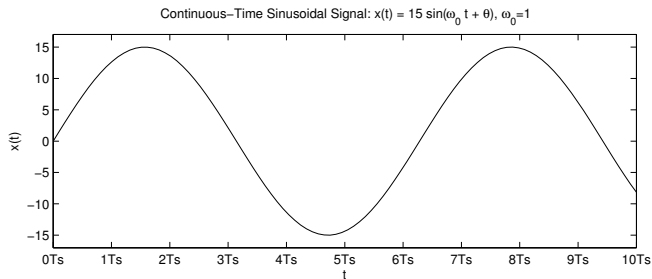
Outline

- 1 Discrete-time signals and systems
 - Discrete-time signals
 - Discrete-time systems
 - Discrete-time LTI systems
 - Properties of LTI systems in terms of the impulse response
 - DT systems described by difference equations

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Discrete-time signals (1)



Discrete-time signals (2)

- Defined only at certain specific values of time.
- Typically use t_n , $n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$ to denote time instants where signal is defined.
- In this course we focus on uniformly spaced time samples

$$t_n = nT,$$

where T denotes the time-spacing between samples.

- In this case we can (and will) use the short hand $x[n]$ as follows:

$$x[n] = x(t_n) = x(nT).$$

Some authors use the notation x_n or $x(n)$.

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2D discrete-time signals

For images, we refer to **continuous-space** functions $f(x, y)$ and **discrete-space** functions $x[n, m]$.

Example

When a “black and white” photograph with intensity $f(x, y)$ is **scanned** by a digital scanner, the output of the scanner is a digital image $x[n, m]$ consisting of uniformly-spaced samples of the original image:

$$x[n, m] = f(n\Delta, m\Delta),$$

where Δ denotes the sample spacing, e.g., “72 dots per inch” means $\Delta = 1/72$ inches.

(PictureMIT, Lecture 17.2 and 17.9)

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Digital signal

Definition

A **digital signal** is a **discrete-time** signal that is also **discrete-valued**.

If the input to a DSP system is originally an **analog signal** (e.g., an acoustic voice signal that has been converted to a voltage signal by a microphone), then the **A/D converter** will convert the analog signal to digital form by **quantizing** its values to a finite discrete set of values.

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Digital signal: example

Example

An 8-bit A/D converter can represent $2^8 = 256$ different values. Each value of the input signal must be rounded to the nearest of the 256 output values.

One focus

Our focus: single-channel, continuous-valued signals, namely **1D discrete-time signals** $x[n]$.

In mathematical notation we write

$$x : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \quad \text{or} \quad x : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$$

- $x[n]$ can be represented graphically by **stem** plot in MATLAB.
- $x[n]$ is **not defined** for non-integer n . (It is not “zero” despite appearance of stem plot.)
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Unit impulse signal

unit sample sequence or **unit impulse** or **Kronecker delta function** (much simpler than the **Dirac impulse**)

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

$$\text{Shifted: } \delta[n - k] \triangleq \begin{cases} 1, & n = k \\ 0, & n \neq k \end{cases}$$

(Picture MIT, Lecture 3.1)

Unit impulse signal properties

Property

- **Scaling property:** $\delta[an] = \delta[n]$

Note that this property is quite different from that of the Dirac impulse.

- **Unity sum:** $\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta[n] = 1$
- **Sampling property:** $\delta[n - n_0] f[n] = \delta[n - n_0] f[n_0]$
- **Sifting property:** $\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta[n - n_0] f[n] = f[n_0]$
- **Symmetry property** $\delta[-n] = \delta[n]$

Unit step signal

unit step signal

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

Useful relationship:

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

. This is the discrete-time analog of the continuous-time property of Dirac impulses:

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

(Picture MIT, Lecture 3.1)

Exponential signal

exponential signal or **geometric progression** (discrete-time analog of continuous-time e^{at})

$$x[n] = a^n$$

(Picture MIT, Lecture 2.15)

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Signal notation

There are several ways to represent discrete-time signals.

- Graphically.
- Set notation:

$$x[n] = \{\dots, 0, 0, \underline{2}, 1, 1, \dots\}$$

- In terms of other functions

$$\begin{aligned}x[n] &= u[n] + \delta[n] = 2\delta[n] + \delta[n-1] + \delta[n-2] + \dots \\&= 2\delta[n] + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \delta[n-k]\end{aligned}$$

- Braces or piecewise notation:

$$x[n] = \begin{cases} 2, & n = 0, \\ 1, & n \geq 1, \\ 0, & n < 0. \end{cases}$$

- Formula

$$x[n] = a^n$$

Example

Skill: *Convert between different discrete-time signal representations.*

Skill: *Choose representation most appropriate for a given problem.* (There are perhaps more viable options than for CT signals.)

Example

$$\begin{aligned}x[n] &= \{\underline{1}, 0, 0, \underline{1/2}, 0, 0, \underline{1/4}, 0, \dots\} \\&= \delta[n-0] + \frac{1}{2} \delta[n-3] + \frac{1}{4} \delta[n-6] + \dots \\&= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^k \delta[n-3k].\end{aligned}$$

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MATLAB implementation

In MATLAB you have two basic choices.

- 1 **Enumeration**: `xn = [0 0 1 0 3];` which typically means $x[n] = \delta[n-2] + 3\delta[n-5]$
- 2 **Signal synthesis**: `n = [-5:4]; x = cos(n);` which means $x[n] = \cos(n)$ for $-5 \leq n \leq 4$ (and $x[n]$ is unspecified outside that range).

The `function_handle` is also useful, e.g., the unit impulse is:

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imp = @(n) n == 0
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Support interval

These are signal characteristics related to the **time** axis.

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Roughly speaking the **support interval** of a signal is the set of times such that the signal is not zero.

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Support interval: DT signals

- 1 More precisely the **support interval** of a **continuous-time** signal $x(t)$ is the **smallest time interval**¹ $[t_1, t_2]$ such that the signal is zero outside this interval.
- 2 For a **discrete-time** signal $x[n]$, the support interval is a **set of consecutive integers**: $\{n_1, n_1 + 1, n_1 + 2, \dots, n_2\}$. Specifically, n_1 is the largest integer such that $x[n] = 0$ for all $n < n_1$, and n_2 is the smallest integer such that $x[n] = 0$ for all $n > n_2$.

¹Intervals can be **open** as in (a, b) , **closed** as in $[a, b]$, or **half-open**, **half-closed** as in $(a, b]$ and $[a, b)$. For continuous-time signals, in almost all cases of practical interest, it is not necessary to distinguish the support interval as being of one type or the other.

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Duration

Definition

The **duration** or **length** of a signal is the length of its support interval.

For continuous-time signals, duration = $t_2 - t_1$.

Question

What is the duration of a discrete-time signal?

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duration = $n_2 - n_1 + 1$.

Duration: example

Some signals have **finite** duration and others have **infinite** duration.

Example

Find the support and duration of the signal

$$x[n] = u[n - 3] - u[n - 7] + \delta[n - 5] + \delta[n - 9]$$

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support is $\{3, 4, \dots, 9\}$

duration is 7.

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Energy and Power

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The **energy** of a signal $x[n]$ is defined as

$$E_x \triangleq \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |x[n]|^2.$$

Definition

The **average power** of a signal $x[n]$ is defined as

$$P_x = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2N+1} \sum_{n=-N}^N |x[n]|^2.$$

- If $E_x < \infty$, we say $x[n]$ is called an **energy signal** and $P = 0$.
- If E_x is infinite, then P can be either finite or infinite. If P is **finite and nonzero**, then $x[n]$ is called a **power signal**.

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So $x[n]$ is a power signal.

Since P is nonzero, E is infinite.

Periodicity

Definition

A discrete-time signal $x[n]$ is called **periodic** with period $N \in \mathbb{N}$, or N -periodic, if and only if

$$x[n] = x[n + N], \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

The smallest such N is called the **fundamental period** of the signal.

If no such N exists, the signal is called **aperiodic**.

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Frequency

There are similarities and differences between the meaning of frequency for continuous-time and discrete-time signals.

Consider an analog continuous-time sinusoidal oscillation

$$x(t) = A \cos(2\pi F_0 t + \phi), \quad -\infty < t < \infty$$

- A is the **amplitude**
- ϕ is the **phase** in radians
- F_0 is the **frequency** in Hz (cycles per second)

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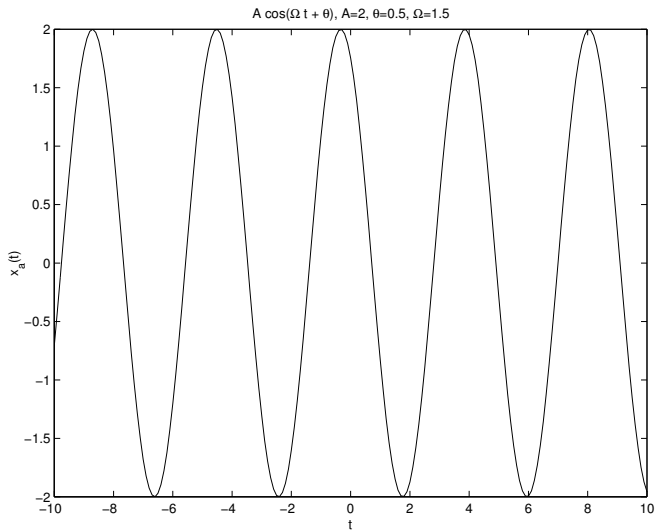
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Continuous-Time Sinusoidal Signals



Properties of analog sinusoidal signals

Property

- 1 The signal $x(t)$ is **periodic** for any fixed value of F_0 , i.e.,

$$x(t + T_0) = x(t)$$

where $T_0 = 1/F_0$ is the **fundamental period** of the signal.

- 2 Continuous-time sinusoidal signals with distinct (different) frequencies are distinct. If $F_1 \neq F_2$ (and both have the same sign) then $\exists t_0$ s.t.
 $A \cos(2\pi F_1 t_0 + \phi) \neq A \cos(2\pi F_2 t_0 + \phi)$.
- 3 Increasing the frequency F_0 increases the **rate of oscillation**, i.e., there will be more periods in a given time interval.

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Complex exponential signals

The above relationships also hold for **complex exponential** signals

$$x(t) = Ae^{j(2\pi Ft + \phi)}$$

where by the **Euler identity**

$$e^{\pm js\theta} = \cos \theta \pm j \sin \theta.$$

For sinusoidal signals, the **frequency F** is usually taken to be **nonnegative**.

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Discrete-Time Sinusoidal Signals

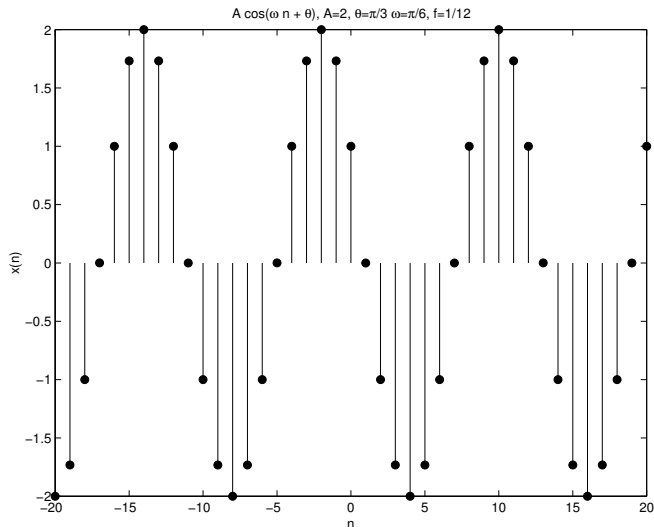
A discrete-time sinusoidal signal may be expressed

$$x[n] = A \cos(\omega_0 n + \phi), \quad n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$$

- n is an integer variable called the **sample number**
- A is the **amplitude**
- ϕ is the **phase** in radians
- ω_0 is the **frequency** in **radians per sample**

Sometimes we express the frequency in cycles per sample using f , where $\omega_0 = 2\pi f$.

Picture of discrete-time sinusoid



Properties of discrete-time sinusoidal signals (1)

Property

A DT sinusoidal signal $x[n]$ is **periodic** if and only if its frequency ω is 2π times a **rational number**, i.e.,

$$\omega = 2\pi \frac{M}{N} \quad \text{for } M, N \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

Question

Why periodic only for rational frequencies?

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Proof

Sinusoidal discrete-time signal with frequency ω_0 is periodic iff $\exists N$ s.t.

$$\cos(\omega_0 n + \phi) = \cos(\omega_0(n + N) + \phi) = \cos(\omega_0 n + \phi + \omega_0 N).$$

Since \cos is periodic with fundamental period 2π , the above relationship holds iff $\omega_0 N$ is an integer multiple of 2π , i.e.,

exists an integer M s.t. $\omega_0 N = 2\pi M$, or equivalently $\omega_0 = 2\pi \frac{M}{N}$.

Thus the frequency must be a ratio of two integers, and hence rational.

Fundamental period of a DT sinusoidal signal

Skill: Finding the fundamental period of a DT sinusoidal signal.

- 1 Express $\omega_0 = 2\pi M/N$, where $M \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $N \in \mathbb{N}$ and M and N have no common divisors.
- 2 Then N will be the **fundamental period** (in samples).
- 3 If no such ratio, then $\frac{\omega_0}{2\pi}$ is irrational and the DT sinusoidal signal is **aperiodic**.

To convert a quantity, such as the period N , from units “samples” to time units (e.g., seconds), multiply by the sampling rate $T_s = 1/F(s)$.

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Properties of discrete-time sinusoidal signals (2)

Property

*DT sinusoidal signals with frequencies separated by **an integer multiple of 2π** are identical (indistinguishable).*

If $\omega_2 = \omega_1 + k2\pi$ then

$$\begin{aligned}\cos(\omega_2 n + \phi) &= \cos((\omega_1 + 2\pi k)n + \phi) = \cos(\omega_1 n + \phi + 2\pi kn) \\ &= \cos(\omega_1 n + \phi)\end{aligned}$$

since \cos is 2π periodic.

Properties of discrete-time sinusoidal signals (2)

Property

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Properties of discrete-time sinusoidal signals (3)

Property

The *highest rate of oscillation* of a discrete-time sinusoid is attained when $\omega = \pi$.

- Discrete-time sinusoidal signals with frequencies in the range $0 \leq \omega \leq \pi$ are distinct.
- Any DT sinusoidal signal with frequency outside the range $0 \leq \omega \leq \pi$ is identical to a DT sinusoidal signal with a frequency within that range (possibly with the negative phase). Hence we refer to such signals as *aliases*, since they are “the same signal with a different name.”

Properties of discrete-time sinusoidal signals (3)

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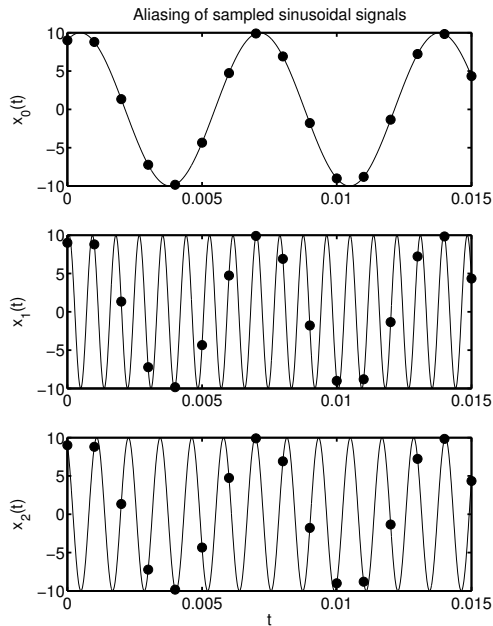
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Example

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$$\begin{aligned}\cos\left(\frac{19\pi}{7}n + \frac{\pi}{3}\right) &= \cos\left(\frac{5\pi}{7}n + 2\pi n + \frac{\pi}{3}\right) = \cos\left(\frac{5\pi}{7}n + \frac{\pi}{3}\right) \\ \cos\left(\frac{9\pi}{7}n + \frac{\pi}{3}\right) &= \cos\left(\frac{-9\pi}{7}n - \frac{\pi}{3}\right) \\ &= \cos\left(\frac{5\pi}{7}n - 2\pi n - \frac{\pi}{3}\right) \\ &= \cos\left(\frac{5\pi}{7}n - \frac{\pi}{3}\right)\end{aligned}$$

Aliasing illustrated



Aliasing illustrated

Three distinct CT sinusoidal signals whose DT samples are identical.

DT **complex exponential** signals:

$$x[n] = Ae^{j(\omega n + \phi)}$$

For sinusoidal signals, we usually take the frequency to be **nonnegative**.

Symmetry

Definition

- $x[n]$ is **symmetric** or **even** iff

$$x[-n] = x[n]$$

- $x[n]$ is **antisymmetric** or **odd** iff

$$x[-n] = -x[n]$$

We can decompose any signal into even and odd components:

$$\begin{aligned}x[n] &= x[n]_e + x[n]_o \\x[n]_e &\triangleq \frac{1}{2} (x[n] + x[-n]) \\x[n]_o &\triangleq \frac{1}{2} (x[n] - x[-n])\end{aligned}$$

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Symmetry: example

Example

Find the even and odd component of the signal

$$x[n] = 2 u[n]$$

Symmetry: example

Example

Find the even and odd component of the signal

$$x[n] = 2 u[n]$$

$$x[n]_e = \frac{1}{2} (2 u[n] + 2 u[-n]) = 1 + \delta[n]$$

$$x[n]_o = \frac{1}{2} (2 u[n] - 2 u[-n]) = u[n-1] - u[1-n]$$

$$\{\dots, 0, 0, \underline{2}, 2, 2, \dots\} = \{\dots, 1, 1, \underline{2}, 1, 1, \dots\} + \{\dots, -1, -1, \underline{0}, 1, 1, \dots\}$$

Outline

- 1 Discrete-time signals and systems
 - Discrete-time signals
 - Some elementary discrete-time signals
 - Signal notation
 - Signal support characteristics
 - Classification of discrete-time signals
 - Simple manipulations of discrete-time signals
 - Discrete-time systems
 - Discrete-time LTI systems
 - Properties of LTI systems in terms of the impulse response
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Amplitude modifications

Amplitude modifications

- amplitude scaling $y[n] = ax[n]$
- amplitude shift $y[n] = x[n] + b$
- sum of two signals $y[n] = x[n]_1 + x[n]_2$
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 k can be positive (delayed signal) or negative (advanced signal) if signal stored in a computer
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Why down-sampling?

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Why down-sampling?

to reduce CPU time in a preliminary data analysis, or to reduce memory.

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- 1 Discrete-time signals and systems
 - Discrete-time signals
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 - Block diagram representation of discrete-time systems
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Discrete-time systems (1)

Definition

A **discrete-time system** is a device or algorithm that, according to some well-defined rule, operates on a discrete-time signal called the **input signal** or **excitation** to produce another discrete-time signal called the **output signal** or **response**.

Mathematically speaking, a system is also a **function**.

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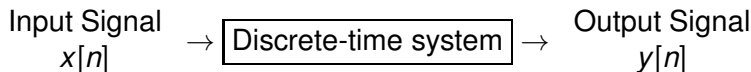
Mathematically speaking, a system is also a **function**.

Discrete-time systems (2)

The input signal $x[n]$ is **transformed** by the system into a signal $y[n]$, which we express mathematically as

$$y[\cdot] = \mathcal{T}x[\cdot] \quad \text{or} \quad y[n] = \mathcal{T}x[\cdot][n] \quad \text{or} \quad x[\cdot] \xrightarrow{\mathcal{T}} y[\cdot].$$

The notation $y[n] = \mathcal{T}[x[n]]$ is mathematically vague. In general $y[n]$ is a function of the entire sequence $\{x[n]\}$, not just the single time point $x[n]$.



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Input-output relationship

A discrete-time system can be described in many ways. One way is by its **input-output relationship**, which is a formula expressing the output signal in terms of the input signal.

Example

The **accumulator** system.

$$① \quad y[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^n x[k] = x[n] + x[n-1] + x[n-2] + \dots$$

$$x[n] = u[n] - u[n-3] = \{\dots, 0, 0, \underline{1}, 1, 1, 0, 0, \dots\}$$

$$② \quad y[n] = \{\dots, 0, 0, \underline{1}, 2, 3, 3, \dots\}.$$

③ Alternative expression:

$$y[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^n x[k] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{n-1} x[k] + x[n] = y[n-1] + x[n]$$

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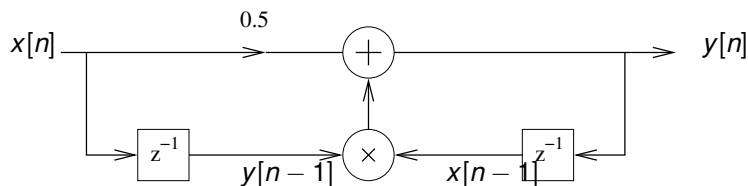
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Block diagram



$$y[n] = y[n-1] x[n-1] + 0.5x[n]$$

- adder
- constant multiplier
- signal multiplier
- **unit delay** element (why z^{-1} clear later)

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Classification of discrete-time systems

Skill: Determining classifications of a given DT system

Two general aspects to categorize:

- ① **time** properties
 - ① causality
 - ② memory
 - ③ time invariance
- ② **amplitude** properties
 - ① stability
 - ② invertibility
 - ③ linearity

Causality

For a **causal** system, the output $y[n]$ at any time n depends **only** on the “present” and “past” inputs, *i.e.*,

$$y[n] = F\{x[n], x[n-1], x[n-2], \dots\}$$

where $F\{\cdot\}$ is any function.

Otherwise **noncausal** system.

Causality is necessary for real-time implementation, but many DSP problems involved stored data, *e.g.*, image processing (OCR) or restoration of analog audio recordings.

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Memory

- For a **static system** or **memoryless** system, the output $y[n]$ depends only on the **current** input $x[n]$, not on previous or future inputs.

Example: $y[n] = e^{x[n]} / \sqrt{n-2}$.

- Otherwise it is a **dynamic system** and must have memory.

Dynamic systems are the interesting ones and will be our focus. (This time we take the more complicated choice!)

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Memory & Causality

Question

- 1 *Is a memoryless system necessarily causal?*
- 2 *Is a dynamic system necessarily noncausal?*

Memory & Causality

Question

- 1 *Is a memoryless system necessarily causal?* **Yes.**
- 2 *Is a dynamic system necessarily noncausal?* **No.**
Dynamic systems can be causal or noncausal.

Time invariance (1)

Systems whose input-output behavior does not change with time are called **time-invariant** and will be our focus.

- “Easier” to analyze.
- Time-invariance is a desired property of many systems.

Time invariance (1)

Definition

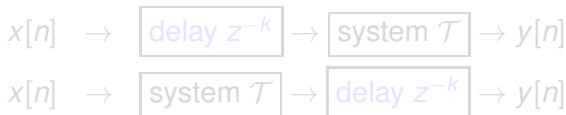
A relaxed system \mathcal{T} is called **time invariant** or **shift invariant** iff

$$x[n] \xrightarrow{\mathcal{T}} y[n] \quad \text{implies that} \quad x[n-k] \xrightarrow{\mathcal{T}} y[n-k]$$

for **every** input signal $x[n]$ and **integer** time shift k .

Otherwise the system is called **time variant** or **shift variant**.

Graphically:



Time invariance (1)

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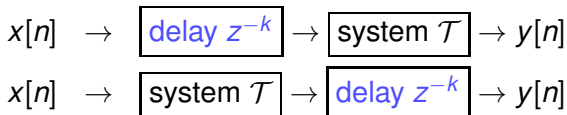
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Recipe for showing time-invariance

Recipe for showing time-invariance.

- 1 Determine output $y_1[n]$ due to a generic input $x[n]_1$.
- 2 Determine the **delayed output** signal $y_1[n - k]$, by **replacing n with $n - k$ in $y[n]$ expression**.
- 3 Determine output $y_2[n]$ due to a **delayed** input $x_2[n] = x_1[n - k]$.
- 4 If $y_2[n] = y_1[n - k]$, then system is time-invariant.

Example (1)

Example

3-point **moving average** $y[n] = \frac{1}{3} (x[n-1] + x[n] + x[n+1])$.
Is this system time invariant?

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3-point **moving average** $y[n] = \frac{1}{3} (x[n-1] + x[n] + x[n+1])$.
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Yes.

Example (2)

Example

down-sampler $y[n] = x[2n]$. Is this system time invariant?

Example (2)

Example

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No. How do we show lack of a property? Find counter-example.

- If $x_1[n] = \delta[n]$ then $y_1[n] = \delta[2n] = \delta[n]$.
- If $x_2[n] = \delta[n - 1]$ then

$$y_2[n] = x_2[2n] = \delta[2n - 1] = 0 \neq \delta[n - 1].$$

Simple counter-example is all that is needed.

Invertibility

A system \mathcal{T} is **invertible** if every output signal corresponds to a unique input signal. If so, then there exists an **inverse system** \mathcal{T}^{-1} that can recover the input signal:

$$x[n] \rightarrow \boxed{\mathcal{T}} \rightarrow y[n] \rightarrow \boxed{\mathcal{T}^{-1}} \rightarrow x[n]$$

Stability

A system is **bounded-input bounded-output (BIBO) stable** iff every bounded input produces a bounded output.

If $\exists M_x$ s.t. $|x[n]| \leq M_x < \infty \forall n$, then there must exist an M_y s.t.
 $|y[n]| \leq M_y < \infty \forall n$.

Usually M_y will depend on M_x .

This property is important for digital systems because all such systems have a finite maximum signal value that can be represented with a finite number of bits, so one must worry about “over-ranging” or “over flow,” *i.e.*, exceeding the maximum value that can be represented.

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Stability: example

Example

Is the accumulator $y[n] = y[n - 1] + x[n]$ stable?

Stability: example

Example

Is the accumulator $y[n] = y[n-1] + x[n]$ stable?

*Consider input signal $x[n] = u[n]$, which is bounded by $M_x = 1$.
But*

$$y[n] = y[n-1] + x[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^n x[k]$$

*blows up, so the accumulator is an **unstable** system.*

Linearity (1)

Definition

A system \mathcal{T} is **linear** iff

$$\mathcal{T}[a_1 x[n]_1 + a_2 x[n]_2] = a_1 \mathcal{T}[x[n]_1] + a_2 \mathcal{T}[x[n]_2]$$

i.e.,

$$a_1 x[n]_1 + a_2 x[n]_2 \xrightarrow{\mathcal{T}} a_1 y_1[n] + a_2 y_2[n],$$

for **any signals** $x[n]_1, x[n]_2$, and **constants** a_1 and a_2 .

Otherwise the system is called **nonlinear**.

Response to a weighted sum of input signals is the weighted sum of the individual responses.

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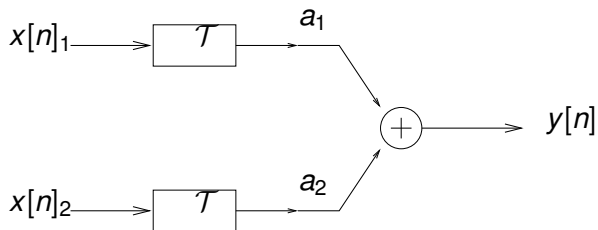
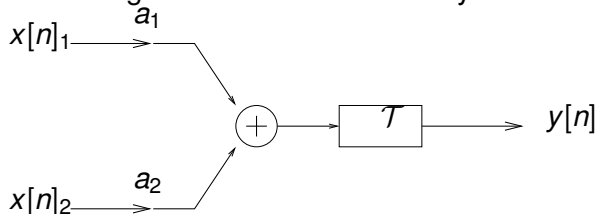
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Linearity (2)

Block diagram illustration of linearity test.



Linearity (3)

Question

We will focus on linear systems. Why?

Linearity (3)

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We will focus on linear systems. Why?

- 1 The class of linear systems is *easier to analyze*.
- 2 Often *linearity is desirable* - avoids distortions (Example: amplifiers, audio mixers (superposition!)).
- 3 *Many nonlinear systems are approximately linear*.

Two important special cases of linearity property (1)

Property

scaling property or homogeneity property:

$$\mathcal{T}[ax[n]] = a\mathcal{T}[x[n]]$$

Note that from $a = 0$ we see that **zero input signal implies zero output signal for a linear system.**

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additivity property:

$$\mathcal{T}[x[n]_1 + x[n]_2] = \mathcal{T}[x[n]_1] + \mathcal{T}[x[n]_2]$$

Using proof-by-induction, one can easily extend this property to the general superposition property

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general superposition property

$$\mathcal{T}\left[\sum_{k=1}^K x[n]_k\right] = \sum_{k=1}^K \mathcal{T}[x[n]_k]$$

In words: the response of a linear system to the sum of several signals is the sum of the response to each of the signals.

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Determining a system is linear or nonlinear

Skill: *Determining a system is linear or nonlinear.*

- 1 Find output signal $y_1[n]$ for a general input signal $x_1[n]$.
- 2 “Repeat” for input $x_2[n]$ and $y_2[n]$.
- 3 Find output signal $y[n]$ when input signal is $x[n] = a_1 x_1[n] + a_2 x_2[n]$.
- 4 If $y[n] = a_1 y_1[n] + a_2 y_2[n] \forall t$, then the system is linear.
- 5 If it does not appear that $y[n] = a_1 y_1[n] + a_2 y_2[n] \forall t$, then find a specific counter-example.

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- 2 “Repeat” for input $x_2[n]$ and $y_2[n]$.
- 3 Find output signal $y[n]$ when input signal is $x[n] = a_1 x_1[n] + a_2 x_2[n]$.
- 4 If $y[n] = a_1 y_1[n] + a_2 y_2[n] \forall t$, then the system is linear.
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Linearity: example (1)

Example

Is the accumulator $y[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^n x[k]$ a linear system?

Linearity: solution (1)

For the accumulator,

① $y_1[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^n x_1[k]$

② $y_2[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^n x_2[k]$.

③ *If the input is $x[n] = a_1 x_1[n] + a_2 x_2[n]$ then the output is*

$$y[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^n x[k] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^n (a_1 x_1[k] + a_2 x_2[k])$$

$$= a_1 \sum_{k=-\infty}^n x_1[k] + a_2 \sum_{k=-\infty}^n x_2[k] = a_1 y_1[n] + a_2 y_2[n].$$

④ *Since this holds for all n , for all input signals $x_1[n]$ and $x_2[n]$, and for any constants a_1 and a_2 , the accumulator is **linear**.*

Linearity: example (2)

Example

Is the system $y[n] = \sqrt{x[n]}$ linear?

Linearity: example (2)

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Is the system $y[n] = \sqrt{x[n]}$ linear?

To show a system is *nonlinear* all that is needed is a *counter-example* to the above linearity properties. The *scaling property* will usually suffice.

- Let $x_1[n] = 2$, a constant signal. Then $y_1[n] = \sqrt{2}$.
- Now suppose the input is $x[n] = 3x_1[n] = 6$, then the output is $y[n] = \sqrt{6} \neq 3y_1[n]$,
so the system is *nonlinear*.

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Discrete-time LTI systems

Overview: $x[n] \rightarrow \boxed{\text{LTI } h[n]} \rightarrow y[n] = x[n] * h[n]$.

Linearity leads to the superposition property, which simplifies the analysis. **Time-invariance** then further simplifies.

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Techniques for the analysis of linear systems

- 1 Decompose input signal $x[n]$ into a **weighted sum of elementary functions** $x[n]_k$, i.e.,

$$x[n] = \sum_k c_k x_k[n]$$

- 2 Determine **response** of system to **each elementary function** (this should be easy from input-output relationship):

$$x_k[n] \xrightarrow{\mathcal{T}} y_k[n]$$

- 3 Apply **superposition** property:

$$x[n] = \sum_k c_k x_k[n] \xrightarrow{\mathcal{T}} y[n] = \sum_k c_k y_k[n].$$

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Elementary functions

Two particularly good choices for the elementary functions $x_k[n]$:

- 1 impulse functions $\delta[n - k]$
- 2 complex exponentials $e^{j\omega_k n}$.

Representation of discrete-time signal using impulses

It follows directly from the definition of $\delta[n]$ that

$$x[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x[k] \delta[n - k].$$

This is the **sifting property** of the unit impulse function.

Example

$$x[n] = \{ \underline{8}, \pi, 0, \sqrt{7} \}$$

$$\implies x[n] = 8 \delta[n - 0] + \pi \delta[n - 1] + \sqrt{7} \delta[n - 3].$$

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Response of LTI systems to arbitrary inputs

For an LTI system with impulse response $h[n]$, the response to an arbitrary input is given by the **convolution sum**:

$$x[n] \xrightarrow[\text{LTI}]{\mathcal{T}} y[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x[k] h[n-k] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n-k] h[k]$$

$$y[n] \triangleq x[n] * h[n] = (x * h)[n].$$

The convolution sum shows that with the impulse response $h[n]$, you can compute the output $y[n]$ for **any** input signal $x[n]$. Thus

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Computing convolution

Skill: *convolving*.

$$y[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x[k] h[n-k].$$

Recipe:

- 1 Fold: fold $h[k]$ about $k = 0$ to get $h[-k]$
- 2 Shift: shift $h[-k]$ by n to get $h[n-k]$
- 3 Multiply: $x[k]$ by $h[n-k]$ for every k
- 4 Sum: $y[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x[k] h[n-k]$

Repeat for all possible n ; generally breaks in to a few intervals.

Mathematically, replace n with $n - k$ to complete step 1 and 2.

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Properties of convolution (1)

Skill: Use properties to simplify LTI systems.

Property

1 *Time-shift*

$$x[n] * h[n] = y[n] \implies x[n - n_1] * h[n - n_2] = y[n - n_1 - n_2]$$

2 *Commutative law* $x[n] * h[n] = h[n] * x[n]$

3 *Associative law* $(x[n] * h_1[n]) * h_2[n] = x[n] * (h_1[n] * h_2[n])$

4 *Distributive law*

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

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Properties of convolution (2)

Property

convolution with impulses

① *Time shift / delay:*

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

② *Identity:*

$$x[n] * \delta[n] = x[n]$$

③ *Cascade of time shifts:*

$$\delta[n - n_1] * \delta[n - n_2] = \delta[n - n_1 - n_2]$$

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LTI system properties via impulse response

Since an LTI system is completely characterized by its impulse response, we should be able to express the remaining four properties in terms of $h[n]$.

- T-1 causality
- T-2 memory
- A-2 stability
- A-3 invertibility

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T-1 Causal LTI systems (1)

Recall a system is **causal** iff output $y[n]$ depends only on present and past values of input.

For an LTI system with impulse response $h[n]$:

$$\begin{aligned}y[n] &= \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} h[k] x[n-k] \\&= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} h[k] x[n-k] + \sum_{k=-\infty}^{-1} h[k] x[n-k].\end{aligned}$$

- 1 The first term depends on present and past input samples $x[n], x[n-1], \dots$
- 2 The second term depends on future input samples $x[n+1], x[n+1], \dots$

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Thus the system is causal iff the impulse response terms corresponding to the **second sum** are zero. These terms are $h[-1], h[-2], \dots$

Definition

An LTI system is **causal** iff its impulse response $h[n] = 0$ for all $n < 0$.

In the causal case the convolution summation **simplifies** slightly since we can drop the right sum above:

$$y[n] = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} h[k] x[n-k] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^n x[k'] h[n-k'] \quad (\text{using } k' = n - k).$$

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T-1 Causal LTI systems (3)

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Solution

It is *causal* only if $h[n] = 0$ for all $n < 0$. $\Rightarrow n_0 + 5 \geq 0$.

T-1 Causal LTI systems (4)

Definition

A **causal sequence** is a sequence $x[n]$ which is zero for all $n < 0$.

If the input to a causal LTI system is a causal sequence, then the output is simply

$$y[n] = \begin{cases} 0, & n < 0 \\ \sum_{k=0}^n h[k] x[n-k] = \sum_{k=0}^n x[k] h[n-k], & n \geq 0. \end{cases}$$

The above sum is precisely what is computed by MATLAB's `conv` function, for finite-length $x[n]$ and $h[n]$.

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Invertibility of LTI systems

Fact: if an LTI system \mathcal{T} is invertible, then its corresponding inverse system is also LTI. Thus the inverse system has an impulse response, say, $h_{\text{inv}}[n]$ such that

$$x[n] \rightarrow \boxed{h[n]} \rightarrow \boxed{h_{\text{inv}}[n]} \rightarrow x[n].$$

In other words: $\boxed{h[n] * h_{\text{inv}}[n] = \delta[n]}.$

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 - A-2 Stability of LTI systems
 - T-2 Memory of LTI systems
 - DT systems described by difference equations

Stability of LTI systems (1)

Recall $y[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} h[k] x[n-k]$ so by the **triangle inequality**

$$\begin{aligned} |y[n]| &= \left| \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} h[k] x[n-k] \right| \leq \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} |h[k] x[n-k]| \\ &= \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} |h[k]| |x[n-k]| \leq M_x \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} |h[k]| \end{aligned}$$

if $|x[n]| \leq M_x \forall n$.

Stability of LTI systems (2)

Thus, for an LTI system to be **BIBO stable**, it is sufficient that its impulse response be **absolutely summable**, *i.e.*,

$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |h[n]| < \infty,$$

since in that case, if $x[n]$ is bounded, so will be $y[n]$.

Stability of LTI systems (2)

Definition

An LTI system is **BIBO stable** iff its impulse response is **absolutely summable**, *i.e.*

$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |h[n]| < \infty,$$

Example

Accumulator: $y[n] = y[n-1] + x[n]$.

What is impulse response? Is it stable?

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Solution (1)

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Let $x[n] = \delta[n]$, then $y[n] = u[n]$. So $h[n] = u[n]$.

No: $\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |h[n]| = \infty$, so *unstable*.

Outline

- 1 Discrete-time signals and systems
 - Discrete-time signals
 - Discrete-time systems
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 - T-1 Causal LTI systems
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T-2 Memory (1)

Recall a system is **static** or **memoryless** if the output $y[n]$ depends only on the current input $x[n]$, not on previous or future values of the input signal.

For an LTI system with impulse response $h[n]$:

$$y[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} h[k] x[n-k],$$

the only way this can be true is if

$$h[n] = 0, \quad \text{for } n \neq 0$$

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T-2 Memory (2)

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An LTI system is **memoryless** iff its impulse response is $h[n] = a\delta[n]$. Otherwise the system is **dynamic** (has memory).

In this case the response is

$$y[n] = x[n] * h[n] = x[n] * a\delta[n] = ax[n].$$

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T-2 Memory (3)

There are two classes of dynamic systems.

- 1 **finite impulse response** or **FIR**: only a finite number of $h[n]$ are nonzero.
- 2 **infinite impulse response** or **IIR**: an infinite number of $h[n]$ are nonzero.

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Convolution summation

- The convolution summation

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

looks fine on paper, but if the impulse response is **IIR (infinite impulse response)**, it cannot be implemented directly with that formula since there would be an infinite number of adds and multiplies!

- For an arbitrary impulse response $h[n]$, there may not exist an implementation with a finite number of flops. Fortunately however, there is a broad class of interesting and useful IIR systems that one can implement using **difference equations**.

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*Naive approach to implementation would just truncate the infinite sum to **m terms** (may need large m):*

$$\begin{aligned} y[n] &= \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} h[k] x[n-k] = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a^k x[n-k] \\ &\approx x[n] + ax[n-1] + a^2x[n-2] + \cdots + a^m x[n-m]. \end{aligned}$$

Convolution summation: example (2)

Efficient approach uses mathematical properties:

$$\begin{aligned}
 y[n] &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a^k x[n-k] = x[n] + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a^k x[n-k] \\
 &= x[n] + \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} a^{l+1} x[n-(l+1)] \quad (l = k-1) \\
 &= x[n] + a \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} a^l x[(n-1)-l] \\
 &= x[n] + a y[n-1].
 \end{aligned}$$

This simple manipulation led to a **recursive** expression for $y[n]$, and one that is easily implemented using just **one delay, one multiply, and one add**. And, it is **exact**, unlike truncation!

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Constant-coefficient difference equations

A **realizable** system must only require a **finite** number of operations. A very general form is those systems that can be described by **linear constant-coefficient difference equations**:

$$\sum_{k=0}^N a_k y[n-k] = \sum_{k=0}^M b_k x[n-k].$$

Such systems are the discrete-time analog of **linear constant-coefficient differential equations** for continuous-time systems.

$$\sum_{k=0}^N a_k \frac{d^k}{dt^k} y(t) = \sum_{k=0}^M b_k \frac{d^k}{dt^k} x(t).$$

Such systems are **linear** and **time-invariant** and **causal** with **initial rest**.

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Categories

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 - the current output $y[n]$ depends on **past outputs** $y[n-1], \dots, y[n-N]$,
 - the impulse response is **IIR**. (Usually we use z-transform to find $h[n]$.)
- 2 If $N = 0$ **nonrecursive** system
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$$h[n] = \{\underline{b_0}, b_1, \dots, b_M\} = \sum_{k=0}^M b_k \delta[n-k].$$

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Solution of linear constant-coefficient difference equations

The **homogeneous solution** or **zero-input solution** is of the form of linear combinations of $\{\lambda^n, n\lambda^n, \dots, n^N\lambda^n\}$, analogous to $\{e^{\lambda t}, te^{\lambda t}, \dots, t^N e^{\lambda t}\}$ for differential equations, where the λ 's are roots of the **characteristic polynomial** $\sum_{k=0}^N a_k \lambda^{n-k}$.

Impulse response of an LTI recursive system

Impulse response of an LTI recursive system

- 1 Brute force: let $x[n] = \delta[n]$ and execute recursion to find $y[n] = h[n]$.
- 2 Easier to study using z-transform. Later...