

A yellow diamond-shaped background. In the top-left corner, there is a red crayon with a yellow body and a black outline, pointing towards the center. A short red squiggly line extends from the tip of the crayon. In the bottom-right corner, there is a blue wavy line that starts from the left and ends at a small blue crayon with a yellow body and a black outline. The text "Signals And Systems" is written in the center of the diamond in a red, stylized font with a yellow outline and a drop shadow.

Signals And Systems



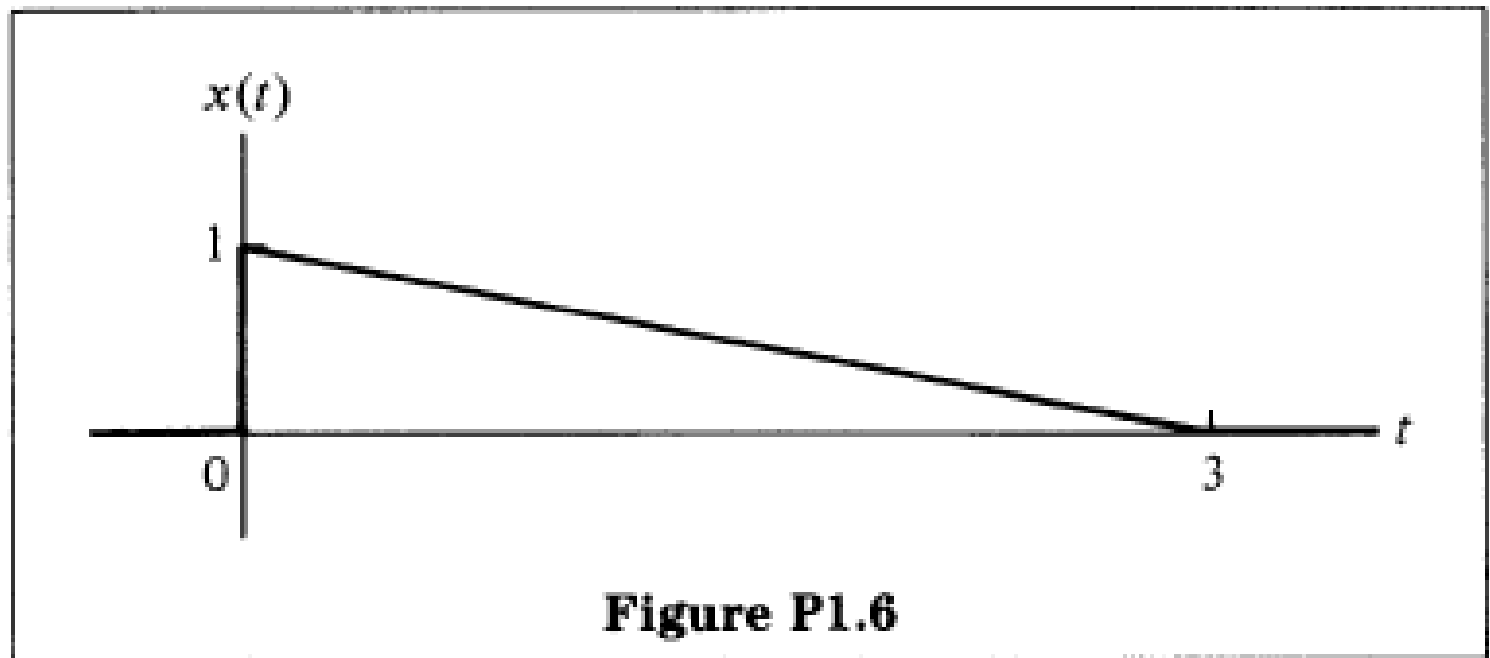
For $x(t)$ indicated in Figure P1.6, sketch the following:

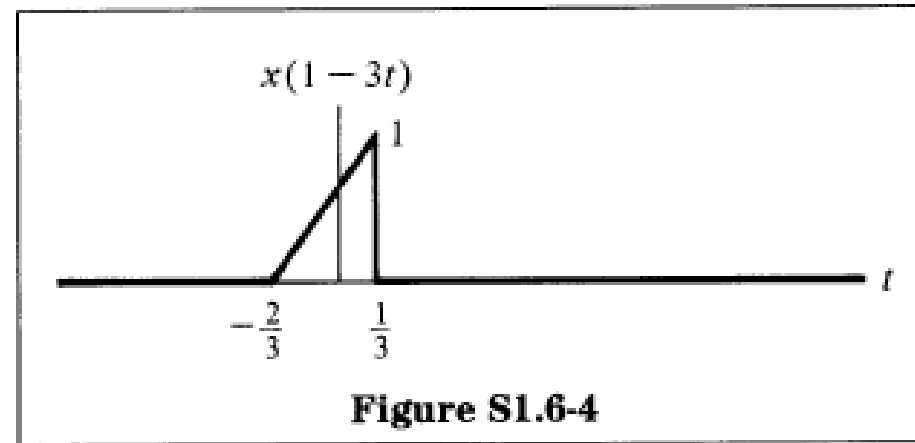
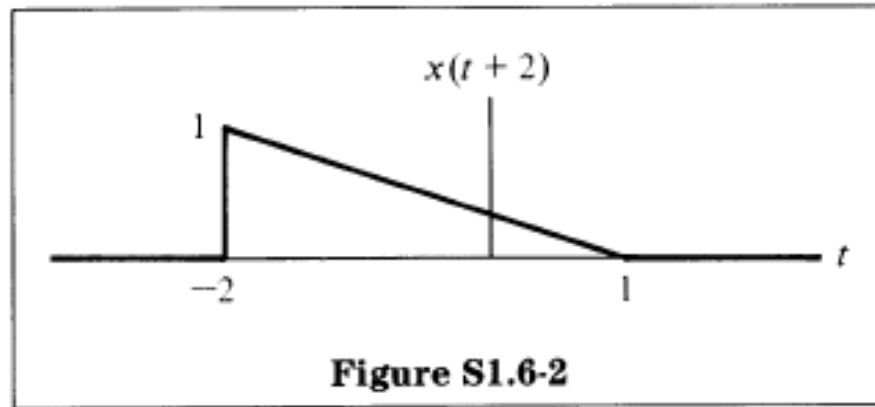
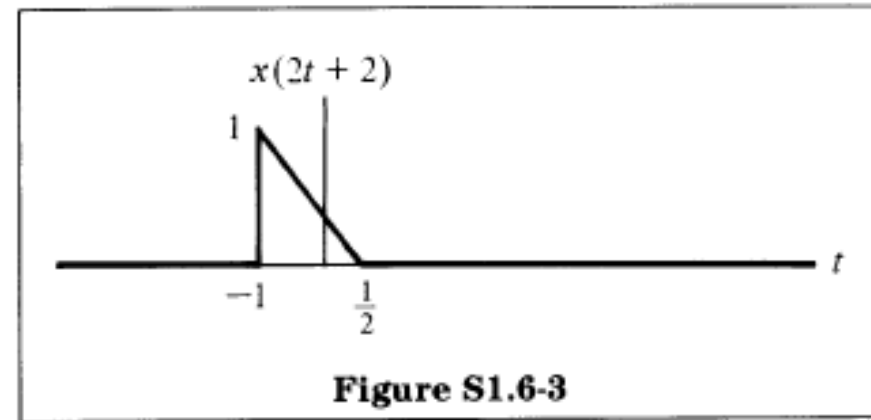
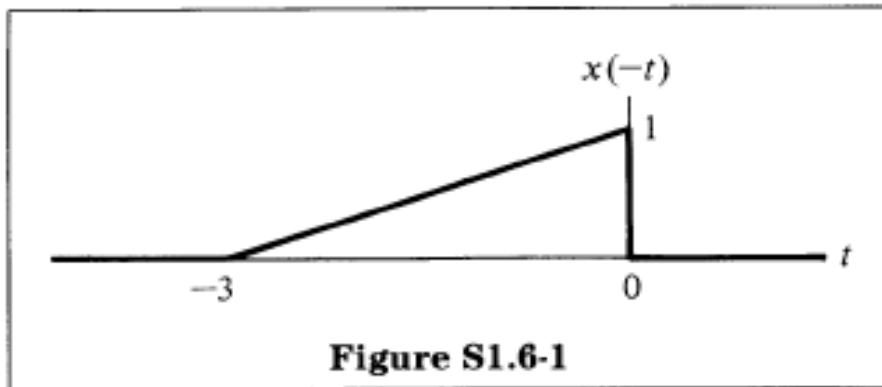
(a) $x(-t)$

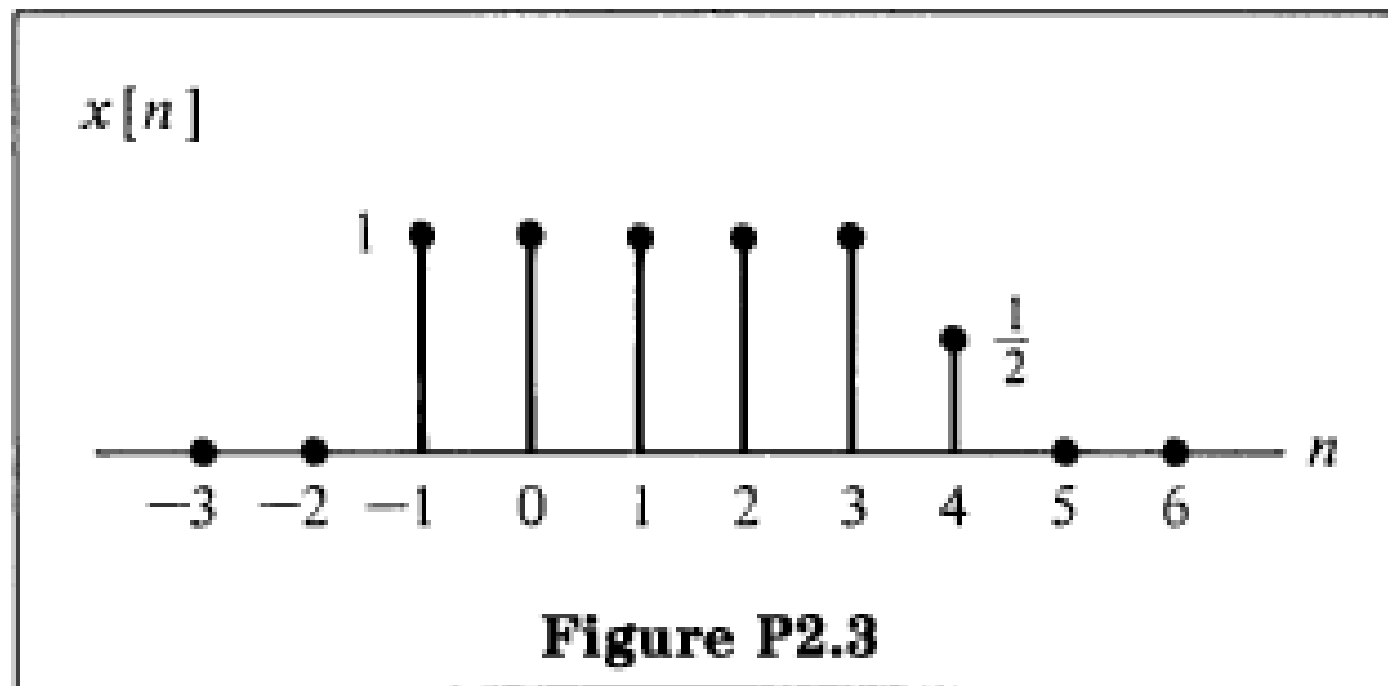
(b) $x(t + 2)$

(c) $x(2t + 2)$

(d) $x(1 - 3t)$



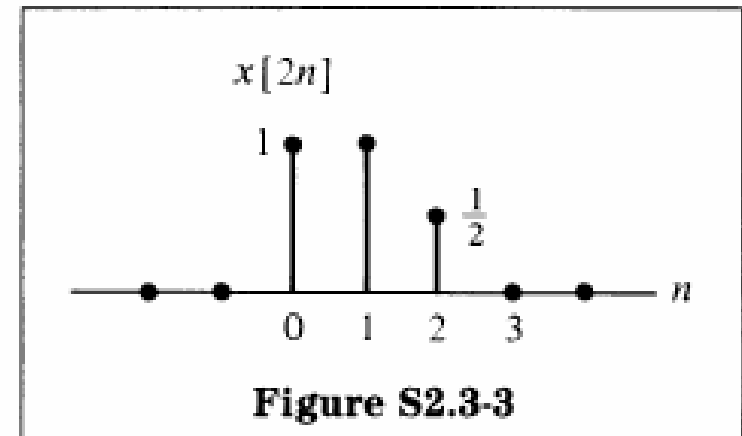
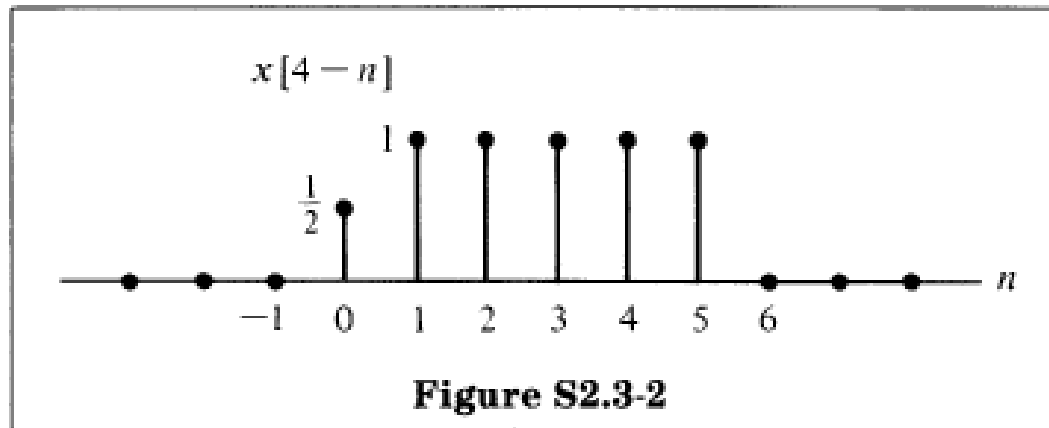
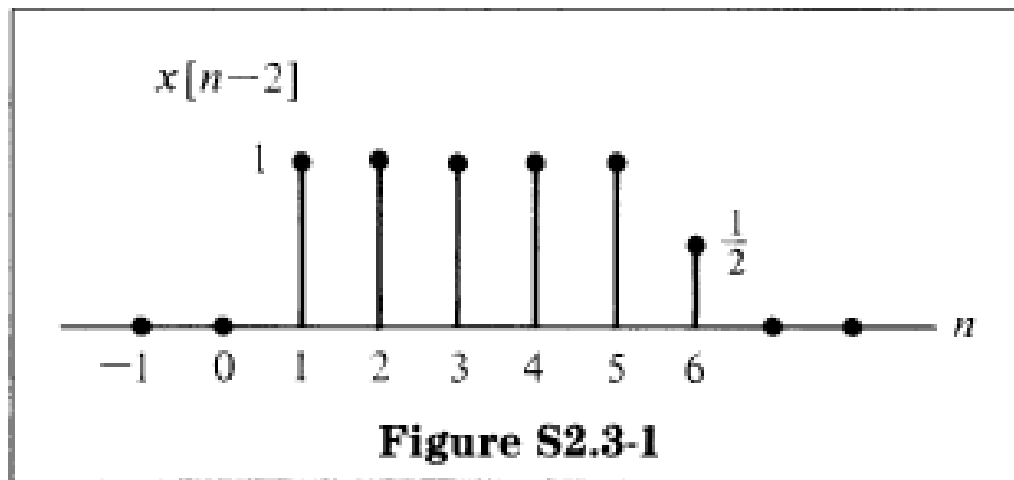
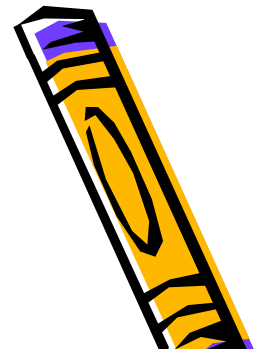




Sketch and carefully label each of the following signals:

- (i) $x[n - 2]$
- (ii) $x[4 - n]$
- (iii) $x[2n]$

What difficulty arises when we try to define a signal as $x[n/2]$?



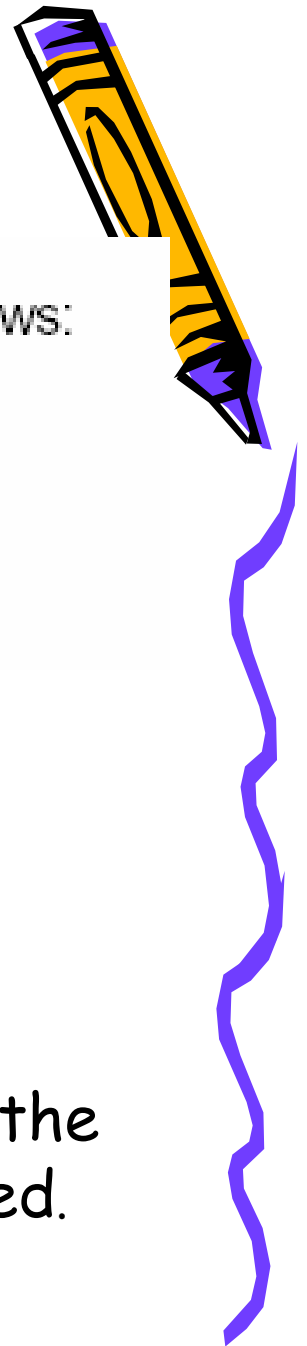
The difficulty arises when we try to evaluate $x[n/2]$ at $n = 1$, for example (or generally for n an odd integer). Since $x[\frac{1}{2}]$ is not defined, the signal $x[n/2]$ does not exist.



Some Important Continuous and Discrete Time Signals

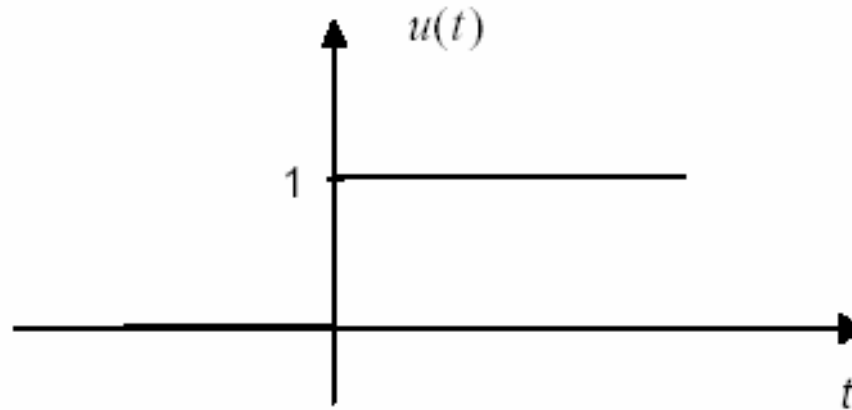


Continuous Time Impulse and Step functions



The continuous-time *unit step* function $u(t)$ is defined as follows:

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

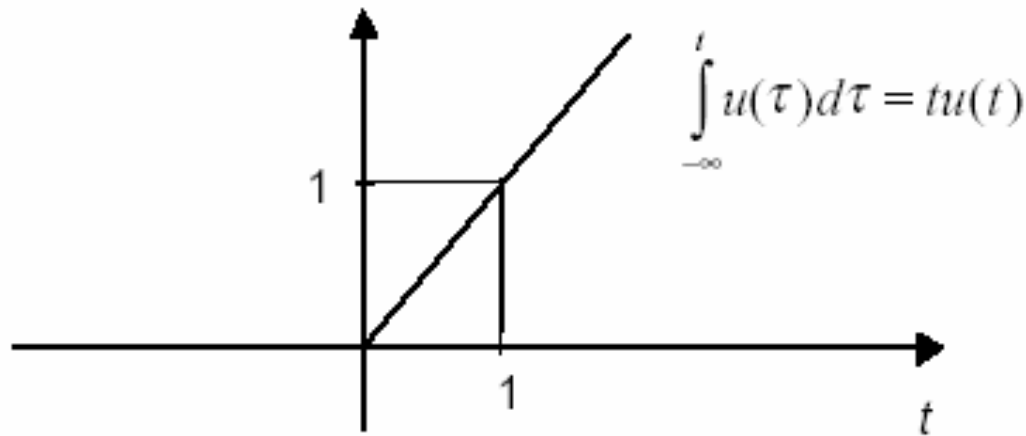


Note that since $u(t)$ is discontinuous at the origin, it can't be formally differentiated.



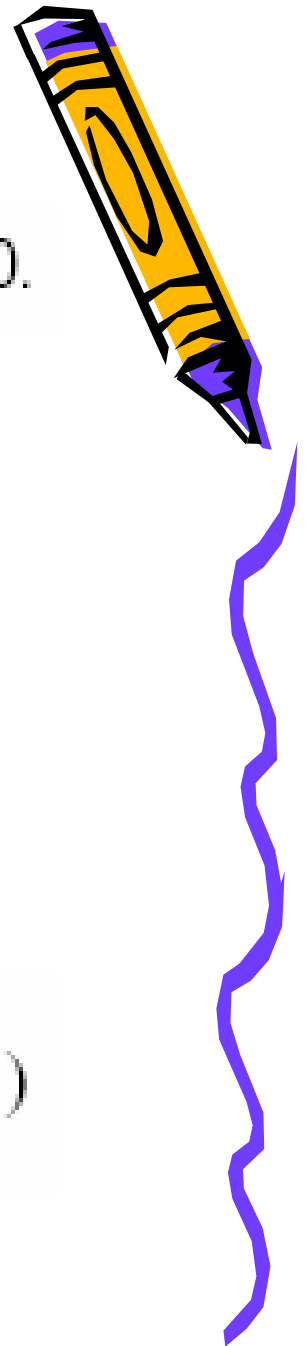
Integrals of $u(t)$

The first integral of $u(t)$ is a unit ramp function starting at $t=0$.



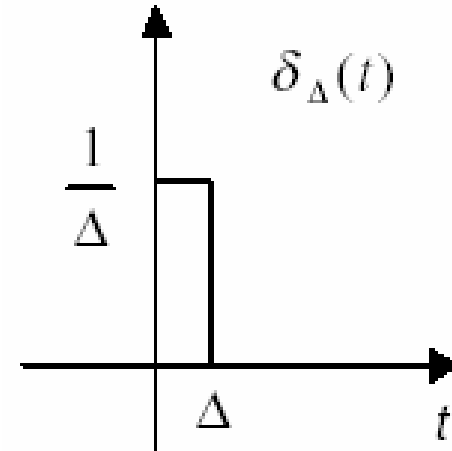
Successive integrals of $u(t)$ are:

$$\int_{-\infty}^t \int_{-\infty}^{\tau_{k-1}} \cdots \int_{-\infty}^{\tau_1} u(\tau) d\tau d\tau_1 \cdots d\tau_{k-1} = \frac{1}{k!} t^k u(t)$$

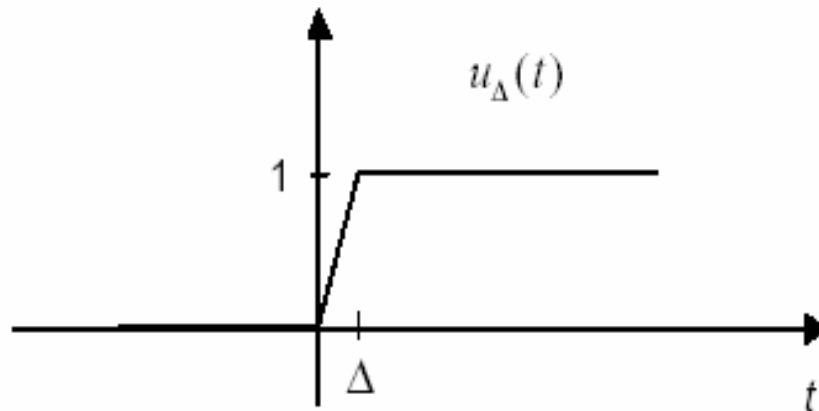


- The unit impulse, a generalized function, can be defined as follows. Consider a pulse function of unit area:

$$\delta_{\Delta}(t) := \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\Delta}, & 0 \leq t < \Delta \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



The integral of this pulse is an approximation to the unit step:





As Δ tends to 0, The pulse $\delta_{\Delta}(t)$ gets taller and thinner, but keeps its unit area, while $u_{\Delta}(t)$ approaches a unit step function. At the limit,

$$\delta(t) := \lim_{\Delta \rightarrow 0} \delta_{\Delta}(t)$$

$$u(t) := \lim_{\Delta \rightarrow 0} u_{\Delta}(t)$$

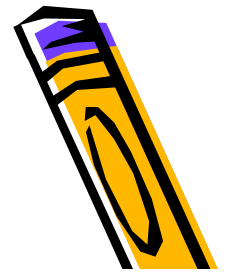


Note that $\delta_{\Delta}(t) = \frac{d}{dt} u_{\Delta}(t)$, and in this sense we can write $\delta(t) = \frac{d}{dt} u(t)$ at the limit.

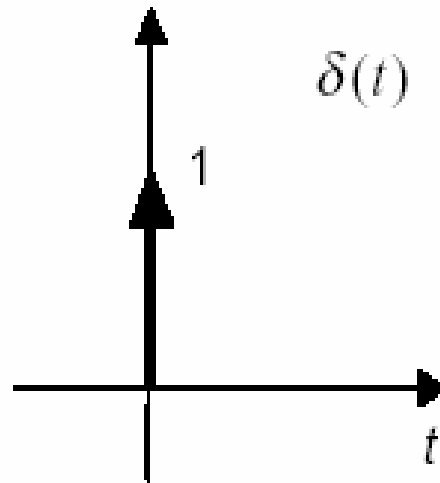
Conversely, we have the important relationship

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





Graphically, $\delta(t)$ is represented by an arrow "pointing to infinity" at $t=0$ with its length equal to its area.





Note that with definition, the area of the impulse is "to the right" of $t=0$, so that



integrating $A\delta(t)$ from $t=0$ will give A , i.e., $\int_0^{\infty} A\delta(t)dt = A$. Had we defined the impulse

as the limit of the pulse $\tilde{\delta}_{\Delta}(t) = \frac{1}{\Delta}[u(t+\Delta) - u(t)]$ whose area lies to the left of $t=0$,

then we would have obtained $\int_0^{\infty} A\delta(t)dt = 0$. To "catch the impulse" the trick is then to

integrate from the left of the y -axis, but infinitesimally close to it. This time is denoted as $t=0^-$. There is a similar definition for $t=0^+$ to the right of the y -axis, so that for our original

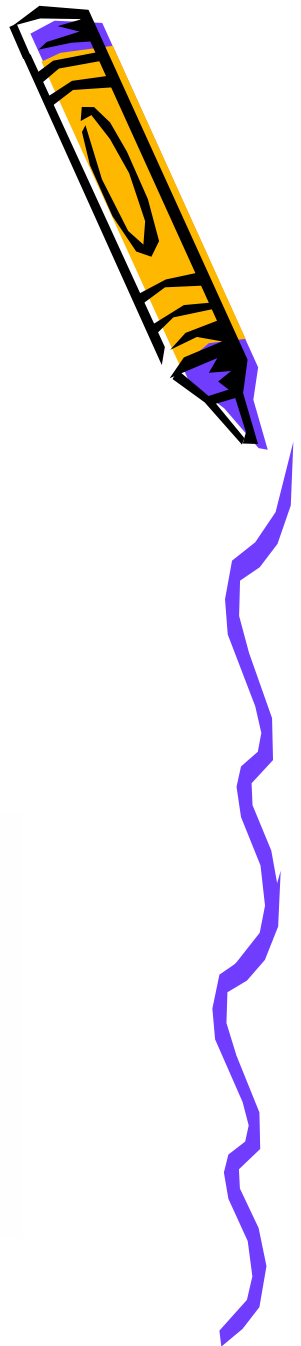
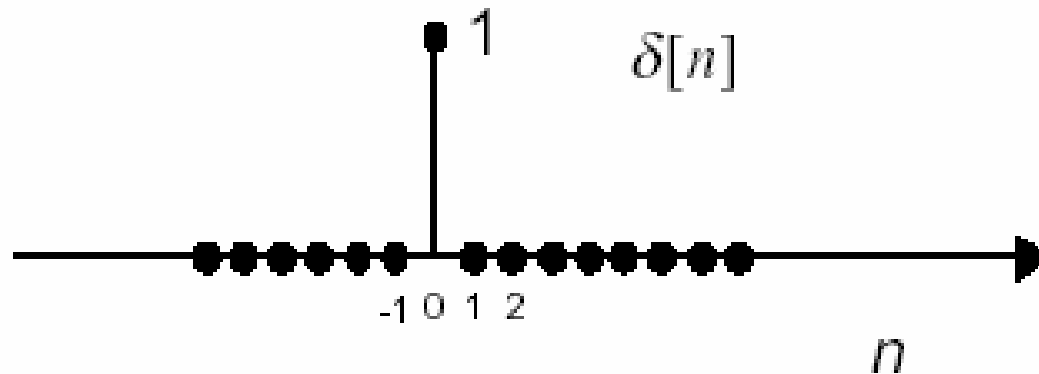
definition of $\delta(t)$, the above integral would have evaluated to $\int_{0^+}^{\infty} A\delta(t)dt = 0$.



Discrete Time Impulse and Step functions

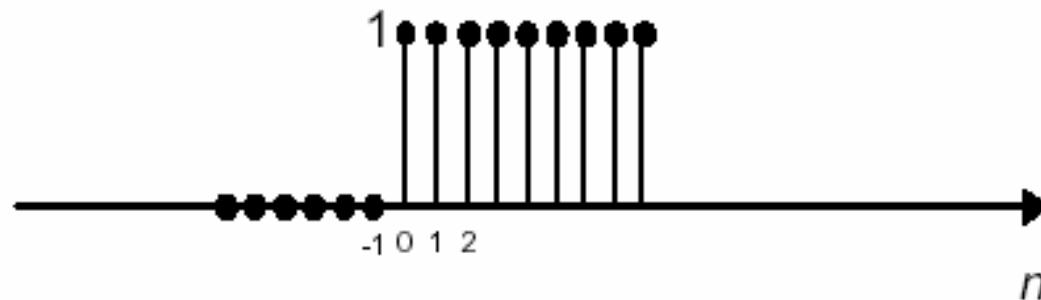
- One of the simplest discrete-time signals is the unit impulse, defined by

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



- The discrete-time unit step is defined by

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



The unit step is the running sum of an impulse:

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

and conversely, the impulse is the first-difference of a unit step

$$\delta[n] = u[n] - u[n-1] \quad \text{Also,} \quad u[n] = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \delta[n-k]$$



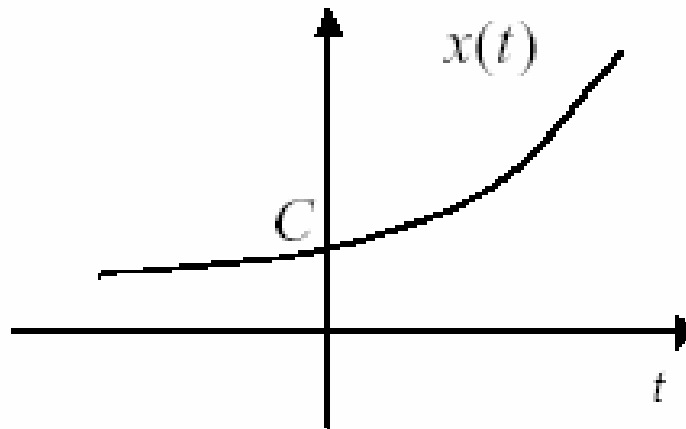
Real Exponential signals

- Continuous-Time

$$x(t) = Ce^{at}, \quad C, a \text{ real}$$

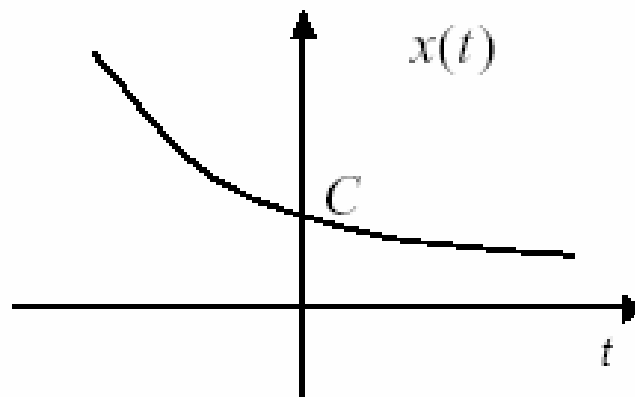
Case $a=0$: We simply get the constant signal $x(t) = C$.

Case $a>0$: The exponential tends to infinity as $t \rightarrow \infty$ (here $C>0$).





Case $a < 0$: The exponential tends to zero as $t \rightarrow \infty$ (here $C > 0$).

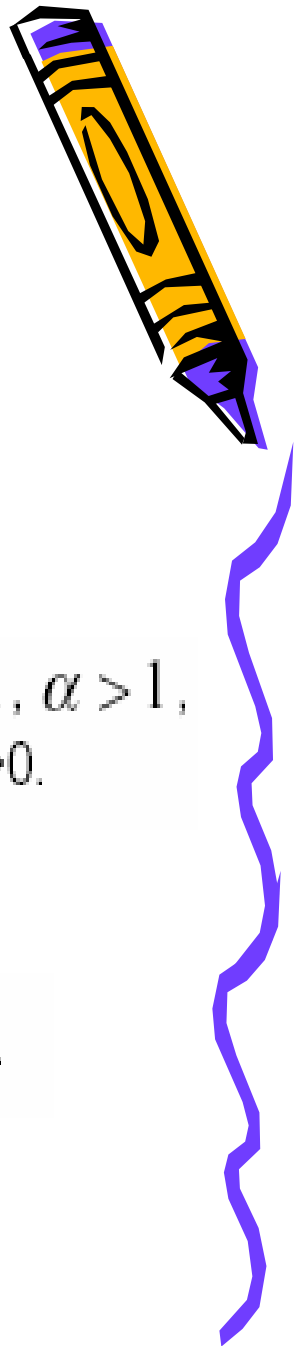


- Discrete-Time

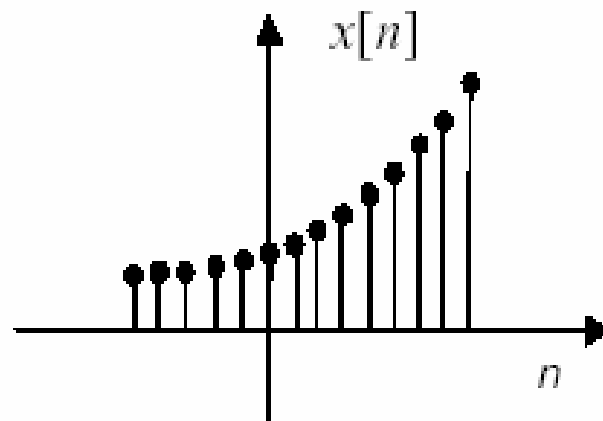
$$x[n] = C\alpha^n, \quad C, \alpha \text{ real}$$

There are six cases to consider (apart from the trivial case $\alpha = 0$): $\alpha = 1$, $\alpha > 1$, $0 < \alpha < 1$, $\alpha < -1$, $\alpha = -1$ and $-1 < \alpha < 0$. Here we assume that $C > 0$.

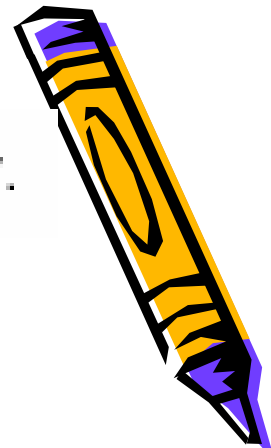
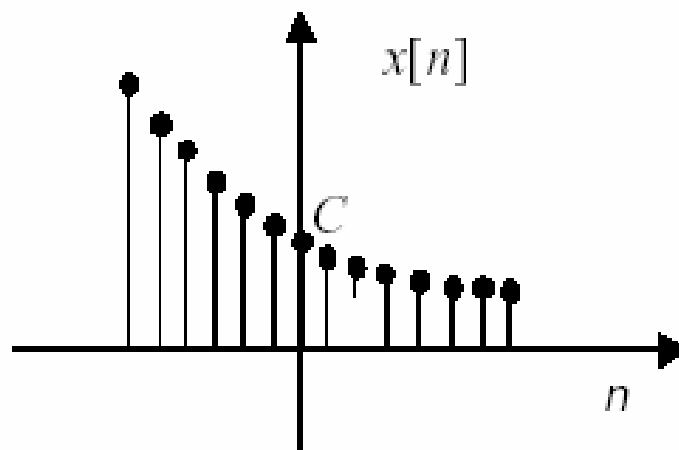
Case $\alpha = 1$: We get a constant signal $x[n] = C$.



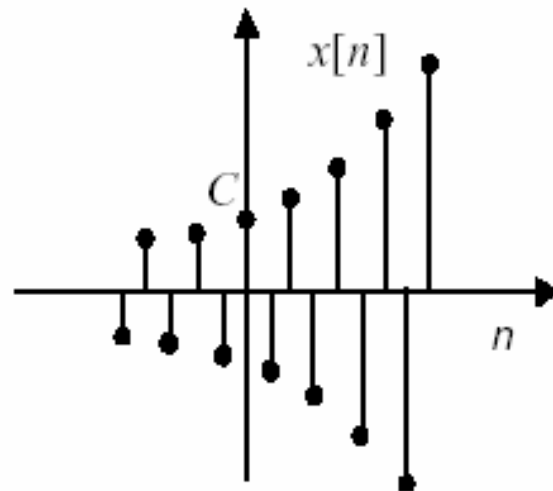
Case $\alpha > 1$: We get a positive signal that grows exponentially.



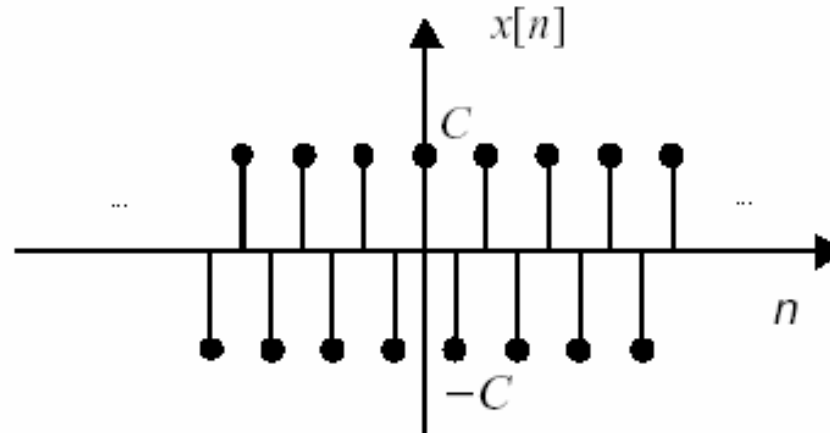
Case $0 < \alpha < 1$: The signal is positive and decays exponentially.

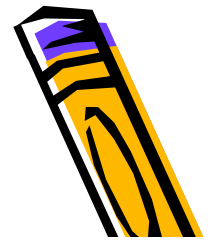


Case $\alpha < -1$: The signal alternates between positive and negative values and grows exponentially.

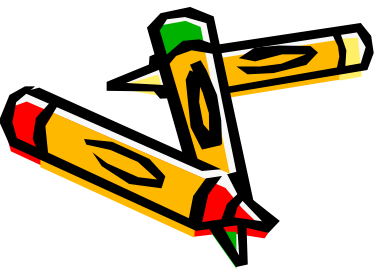
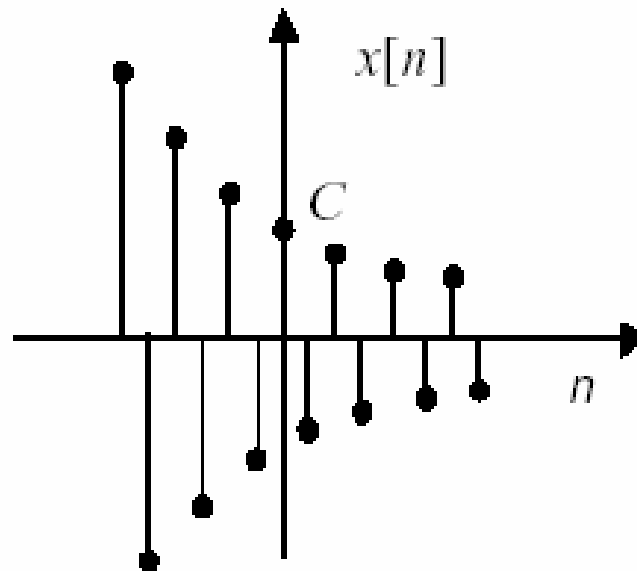


Case $\alpha = -1$: The signal alternates between $+C$ and $-C$.





Case $-1 < \alpha < 0$: The signal alternates between positive and negative values and decays exponentially.



Complex Exponential Signals



- Continuous-Time

$$x(t) = Ce^{at}$$

$$C, a \text{ complex, } C = |C|e^{j\theta}, \quad a = r + j\omega_0$$

$$x(t) = Ce^{at} = |C|e^{j\theta} e^{(r+j\omega_0)t} = |C|e^{rt} e^{j(\omega_0 t + \theta)}$$

Using Euler's relation, we get

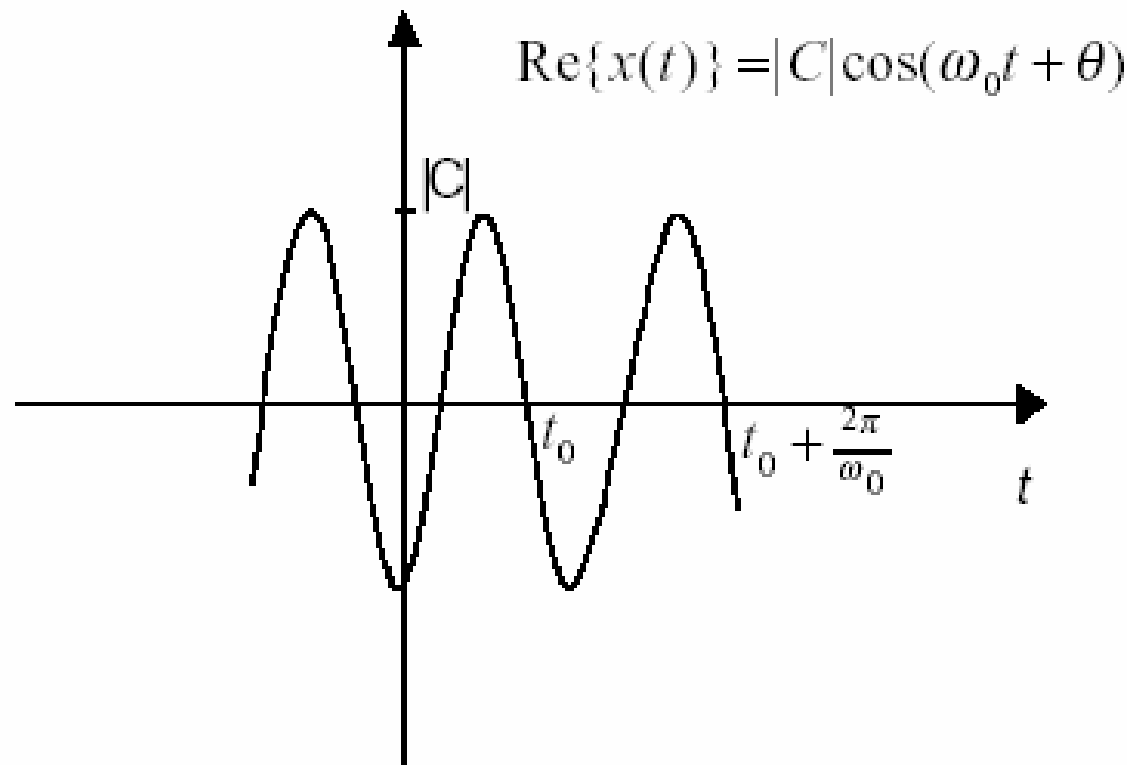
$$x(t) = |C|e^{rt} \cos(\omega_0 t + \theta) + j|C|e^{rt} \sin(\omega_0 t + \theta)$$



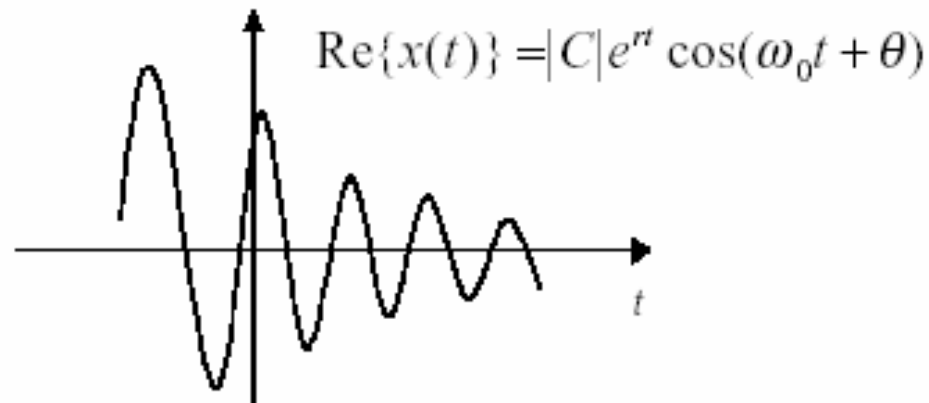


For $r=0$, we obtain a complex periodic signal of period $T = \frac{2\pi}{\omega_0}$ whose real and imaginary parts are sinusoidal

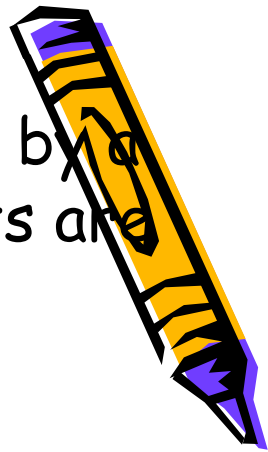
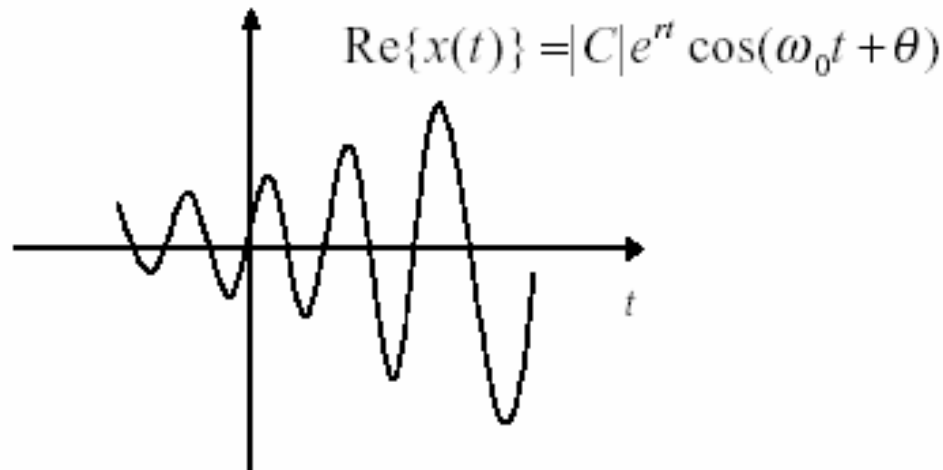
$$x(t) = |C|e^{j\theta}e^{j\omega_0 t} = |C|\cos(\omega_0 t + \theta) + j|C|\sin(\omega_0 t + \theta)$$



- For $r < 0$, we get a complex periodic signal multiplied by a decaying exponential whose real and imaginary parts are "damped sinusoids"



For $r > 0$, we get a complex periodic signal multiplied by a growing exponential



Discrete-Time

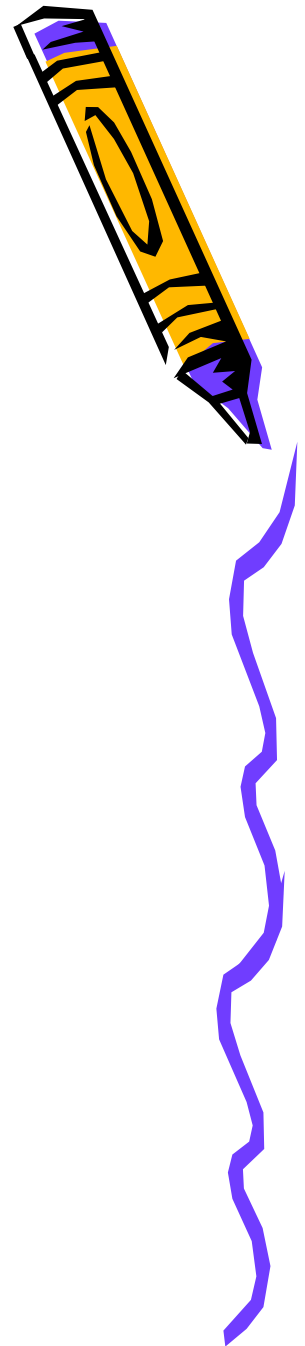
$$x[n] = C\alpha^n$$

$$C, \alpha \text{ complex}, \quad C = |C|e^{j\theta}, \quad \alpha = |\alpha|e^{j\omega_0}$$

$$x[n] = C\alpha^n = |C|e^{j\theta}|\alpha|^n e^{j\omega_0 n} = |C||\alpha|^n e^{j(\omega_0 n + \theta)}$$

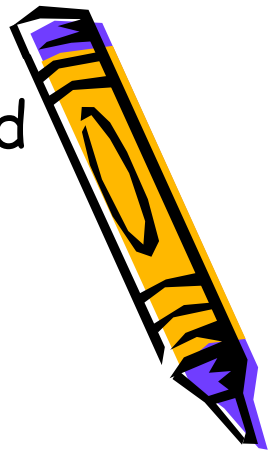
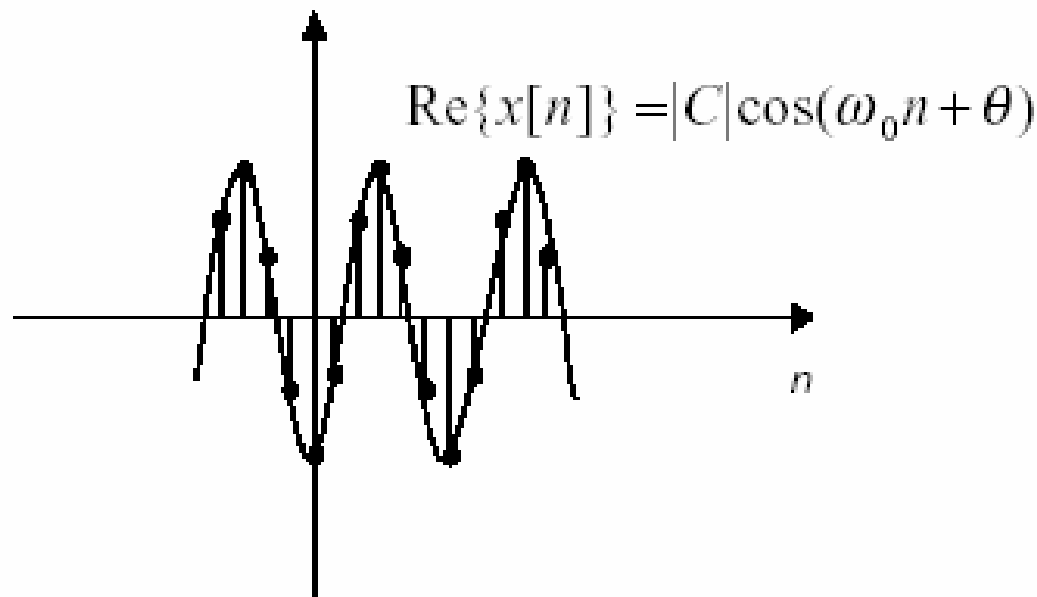
Using Euler's relation, we obtain

$$x[n] = |C||\alpha|^n \cos(\omega_0 n + \theta) + j|C||\alpha|^n \sin(\omega_0 n + \theta)$$

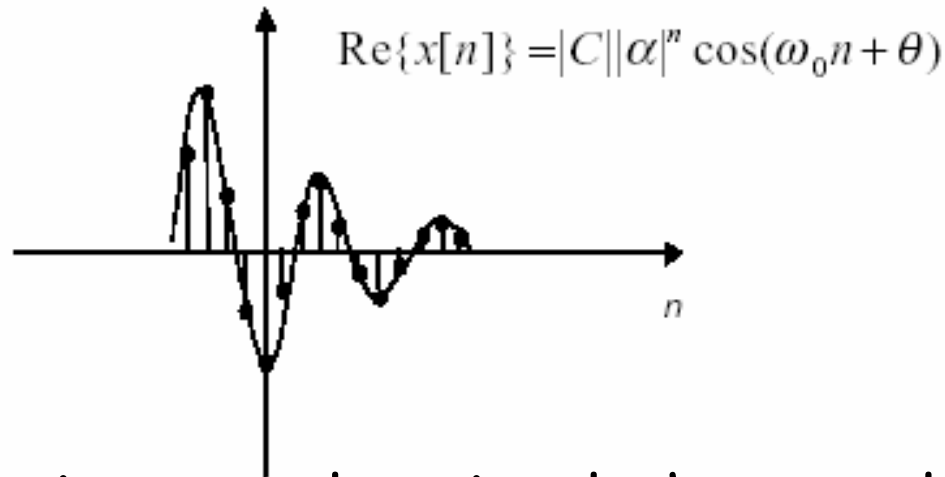


- For $|a|=1$, we obtain a complex signal whose real and imaginary parts are sinusoidal, but not necessarily periodic!

$$x[n] = |C|\cos(\omega_0 n + \theta) + j|C|\sin(\omega_0 n + \theta)$$



- For $|a| < 1$, we get a complex signal whose real and imaginary parts are damped sinusoidal sequences.



For $|a| > 1$, we obtain a complex signal whose real and imaginary parts are growing sinusoidal sequences

