

## CHAPTER 1: SIGNALS & SYSTEMS

**Signal:** set of data/information

- Mostly functions of time, but applies to other independent variables

**Systems:** entity that processes a set of signals (inputs) to yield another set of signals (outputs)

- Can be hardware or software

### 1.1 Size of Signal

[Def] Number that indicates largeness/strength of entity

- Measure includes amplitude & duration

#### 1.1-1 Signal Energy

- must be finite for a meaningful measure of signal size
- necessary condition
  - *amplitude*  $\rightarrow 0$  as  $|t| \rightarrow \infty$ , else Eq. (1) doesn't converge

Area under signal  $x(t)$  as a measure of signal size:

- accounts for amplitude & duration
- squared to ensure positive & negatives don't cancel

$$E_x = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x(t)|^2 dt \quad (1.1.1-1)$$

simplifies for real-valued signal  $x(t)$  to  $E_x = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2(t) dt$ .

Notes:

- signal energy depends on signal AND load:
  - energy dissipated in normalized load of 1 ohm resistor if voltage  $x(t)$  were applied across resistor
  - indicative of energy capacity of signal, not actual energy; thus conservation of energy doesn't apply

#### 1.1-2 Signal Power

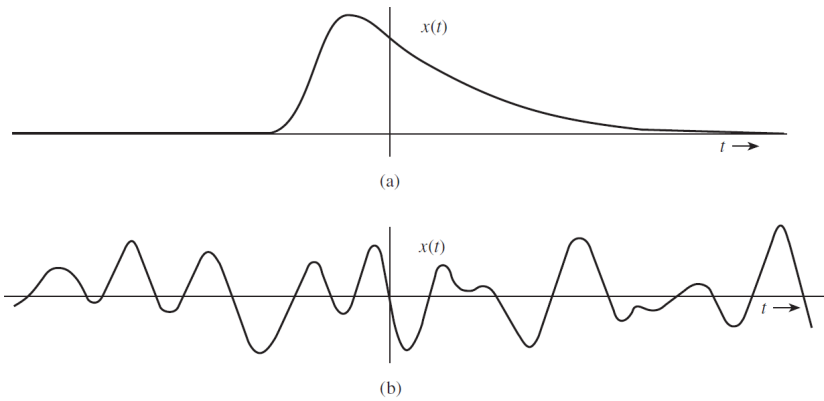
- time average of the energy

When *amplitude* does NOT  $\rightarrow 0$  as  $|t| \rightarrow \infty$ , signal energy is infinite. Thus signal power is a more meaningful measure, if it exists:

$$P_x = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} |x(t)|^2 dt \quad (1.1.2-1)$$

simplifies for real-valued signal  $x(t)$  to  $P_x = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} x^2(t) dt$ .

- mean-square value of  $|x(t)|$
- $\sqrt{P_x}$  is the root-mean-square value of  $x(t)$



**Figure 1.1** Examples of signals: **(a)** a signal with finite energy and **(b)** a signal with finite power.

### Example: Determining Power & RMS Values

a) sinusoid:  $x(t) = C \cdot \cos(w_0 t + \theta)$

Sinusoid, with amplitude C. Period =  $T_0 = 2\pi/w_0$ .

$$\begin{aligned}
 P_x &= \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} C^2 \cos^2(w_0 t + \theta) dt \\
 &= \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{C^2}{2T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} 1 + \cos^2(2w_0 t + 2\theta) dt \\
 &= \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{C^2}{2T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} dt + \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{C^2}{2T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} \cos^2(2w_0 t + 2\theta) dt \\
 &= \frac{C^2}{2} + 0 \\
 &= \frac{C^2}{2}
 \end{aligned}$$

Note:  $RMS = \frac{C}{\sqrt{2}}$ . While  $w_0 \neq 0$ , frequency doesn't affect power. If  $w_0 = 0$ ,  $P_x = C^2$ .

b) sinusoidal sum:  $x(t) = C_1 \cdot \cos(w_1 t + \theta_1) + C_2 \cdot \cos(w_2 t + \theta_2)$ ,  
 $w_1 \neq w_2$

$$\begin{aligned}
 P_x &= \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} [C_1 \cos(w_1 t + \theta_1) + C_2 \cos(w_2 t + \theta_2)]^2 dt \\
 &= \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} C_1^2 \cos^2(w_1 t + \theta_1) dt + \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} C_2^2 \cos^2(w_2 t + \theta_2) dt \\
 &\quad + \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2C_1 C_2}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} \cos(w_1 t + \theta_1) \cos(w_2 t + \theta_2) dt \\
 &= \frac{C_1^2}{2} + \frac{C_2^2}{2}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$RMS = \sqrt{(C_1^2 + C_2^2)/2}$$

If  $w_1 = w_2$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
P_x &= \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} [C_1 \cos(w_1 t + \theta_1) + C_2 \cos(w_2 t + \theta_2)]^2 dt \\
&= TBD \\
&= [C_1^2 + C_2^2 + 2C_1 C_2 \cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2)]/2
\end{aligned}$$

General Case: sum of any n sinusoids with distinct frequencies

$$x(t) = C_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n \cos(w_n t + \theta_n)$$

$$P_x = C_0^2 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n^2$$

c) complex:  $x(t) = D \cdot e^{jw_0 t}$

$$\begin{aligned}
P_x &= \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} |D e^{jw_0 t}|^2 dt \\
&= |D|^2
\end{aligned}$$

$$RMS = |D|$$

## 1.2 Signal Operations

### 1.2-1 Time Shifting

$\exists \phi$  s.t. signals in  $\phi(t)$  are a T second delay of  $x(t)$ . Thus  $\phi(t + T) = x(t)$  and  $\phi(t) = x(t - T)$ .

### 1.2-2 Time Scaling

$\exists \phi$  s.t. signals in  $\phi(t)$  are compressed by factors of  $a$  w.r.t.  $x(t)$ . Thus  $\phi(\frac{t}{2}) = x(t)$  and  $\phi(t) = x(2t)$ .

### 1.2-3 Time Reversal

$\exists \phi$  s.t. signals in  $\phi(t)$  are reflections of  $x(t)$  across the vertical axis. Thus  $\phi(t) = x(-t)$ .

## 1.3 Classification of Signals

### 1.3-1 Continuous-Time & Discrete-Time

signal specified for a continuum of values versus signal specified for discrete values

- nature of signal along time

### 1.3-2 Analog & Digital

- nature of signal along amplitude

**analog signal:** signal whose amplitude can take on any value in continuous range (amplitude can take on infinite values)

**digital signal:** signal whose amplitude takes on only a finite number of values

### 1.3-3 Periodic & Aperiodic

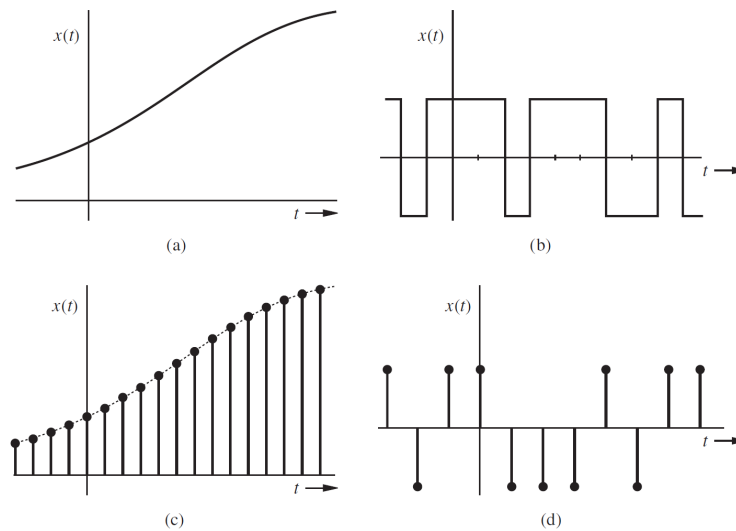
Signal  $x(t)$  is periodic if for some positive constant  $T_0$ ,  $x(t) = x(t + T_0) \forall T$ .

$$\int_a^{a+T_0} x(t) dt = \int_b^{b+T_0} x(t) dt$$

**everlasting signal:**  $-\infty < t < \infty$ . True everlasting signals cannot be generated in practice.

**causal signal:**  $x(t) = 0, t < 0$

**anti-causal signal:**  $x(t) = 0 \forall t \geq 0$



**Figure 1.11** Examples of signals: **(a)** analog, continuous time; **(b)** digital, continuous time; **(c)** analog, discrete time; and **(d)** digital, discrete time.

Else, aperiodic.

### 1.3-4 Energy & Power

- cannot be both energy and power, but can be neither

**energy signal:** signal with finite energy

**power signal:** signal with finite, non-zero power (infinite energy); power is time average of energy (over an infinitely large [time] interval, else will not approach limit)

**ramp signal:** neither energy nor power signal.

$e^{-at}$  is neither energy nor power signal for any  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ . However, if  $a \notin \mathbb{R}$ , it's a power signal with  $P_x = 1$  regardless of the value of  $a$ .

### 1.3-5 Deterministic & Probabilistic

**deterministic signal:** a signal whose physical description is known completely in math/graphical form

**random signal:** a signal whose values cannot be predicted precisely but are known only in terms of probabilistic description (beyond scope of BME252)

## 1.4 Useful Signal Models

### 1.4-1 Unit Step Function $u(t)$

$$u(t) = \begin{cases} 1 & t \geq 0 \\ 0 & t < 0 \end{cases} \quad (1.4.1-1)$$

Multiply by  $u(t)$  to obtain a signal that starts at  $t = 0$ .

### 1.4-2 Unit Impulse Function $\delta(t)$

Dirac Delta:

$$\delta(t) = 0, t \neq 0, \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t) dt = 1 \quad (1.4.2-1)$$

Rectangular Pulse: width  $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ , height  $1/\epsilon \rightarrow \infty$ . Undefined at  $t = 0$ .

e.g. 1.20(a)  $ae^{-at}u(t)$

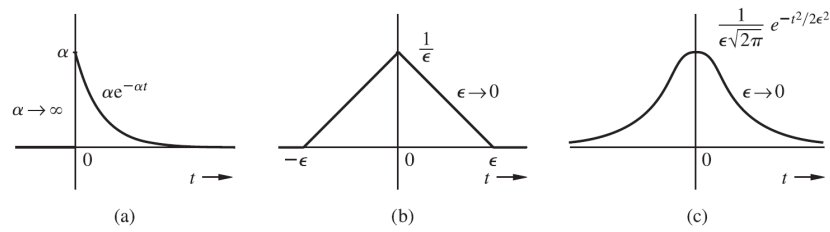


Figure 1.20 Other possible approximations to a unit impulse.

as  $a \rightarrow \infty$ , pulse height  $\rightarrow \infty$ , width/duration  $\rightarrow \infty$ . Yet area under curve is unity regardless of the value of  $a$  because

$$\int_0^{\infty} ae^{-at} dt = 1$$

Exact pulse function cannot be generated in practice, only approached. From 1.4-2, impulse function  $k\delta(t) = 0 \forall t \neq 0$  has area  $k$ .

### Multiplication of a Function by an Impulse

$\exists \phi(t)$  s.t. it's continuous at  $t = 0$ . Since impulse has non-zero value only at  $t = 0$ , and the value of  $\phi(t)$  at  $t = 0$  is  $\phi(0)$ :

$$\phi(t)\delta(t) = \phi(0)\delta(t)$$

Result: an impulse @  $t = 0$ , has strength  $\phi(0)$ .

Generalization:

$$\phi(t)\delta(t - T) = \phi(T)\delta(t - T) \quad (1.4.2-2)$$

### Sampling Property of Unit Impulse Function

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(t)\delta(t - T) dt = \phi(T) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t) dt = \phi(T) \quad (1.4.2-3)$$

\*area under the product of a function with impulse  $\delta(t - T)$  is equal to the value of that function at the instant at which the unit impulse is located

## Unit Impulse as Generalized Function

**generalized function:** defined by its effect on other functions instead of by its value at every instant of time

Impulse function is defined in terms of its effects on test function  $\phi(t)$ .

Unit impulse function: a function for which the area under its product with a function  $\phi(t)$  is equal to the value of function  $\phi(t)$  in the instant at which the impulse is located

- assumes  $\phi(t)$  is continuous at location of impulse

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{du(t)}{dt} \phi(t) dt &= u(t) \phi(t) \Big|_{-\infty}^{\infty} - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} u(t) \dot{\phi}(t) dt \\
 &= \phi(\infty) - 0 - \int_0^{\infty} \dot{\phi}(t) dt \\
 &= \phi(\infty) - \phi(t) \Big|_0^{\infty} \\
 &= \phi(0) \\
 \frac{du(t)}{dt} &= \delta(t) \\
 \int_{-\infty}^t \delta(\tau) d\tau &= u(t)
 \end{aligned} \tag{1.4.2-4}$$

### 1.4-3 Exponential Function $e^{st}$

$\exists$  complex number  $s$  s.t.  $s = \sigma + jw$ , therefore

$$e^{st} = e^{(\sigma + jw)t} = e^{\sigma t} e^{jw t} = e^{\sigma t} (\cos(wt) + j \sin(wt))$$

Since  $s^* = \sigma - jw$ , then

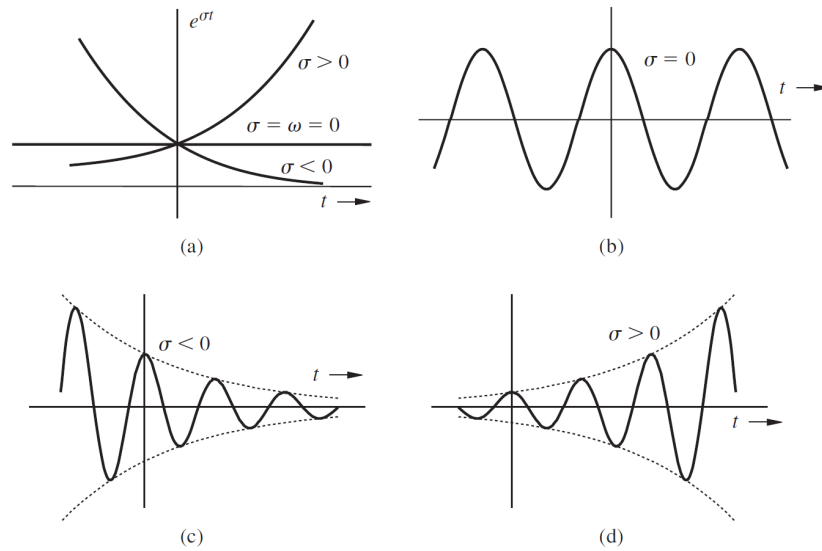
$$e^{s^* t} = e^{(\sigma - jw)t} = e^{\sigma t} e^{-jw t} = e^{\sigma t} (\cos(wt) - j \sin(wt))$$

and

$$e^{\sigma t} \cos wt = \frac{1}{2} (e^{st} + e^{s^* t}) \tag{1.4.3-1}$$

[Euler's formula]  $e^{st}$  is a generalization of  $e^{jw t}$ , where frequency variable  $jw$  is generalized to complex variable  $s = \sigma + jw$ . Class of functions expressed in terms of  $e^{st}$ :

CLASSES	FUNCTIONS	CONDITIONS
Constant	$k = k e^{0t}$	$s = 0$
Monotonic Exponential	$e^{\sigma t}$	$w = 0, s = \sigma$
Sinusoid	$\cos wt$	$\sigma = 0, s = \pm jw$
Exponentially Varying Sinusoid	$e^{\sigma t} \cos wt$	$s = \sigma \pm jw$



**Figure 1.21** Sinusoids of complex frequency  $\sigma + j\omega$ .

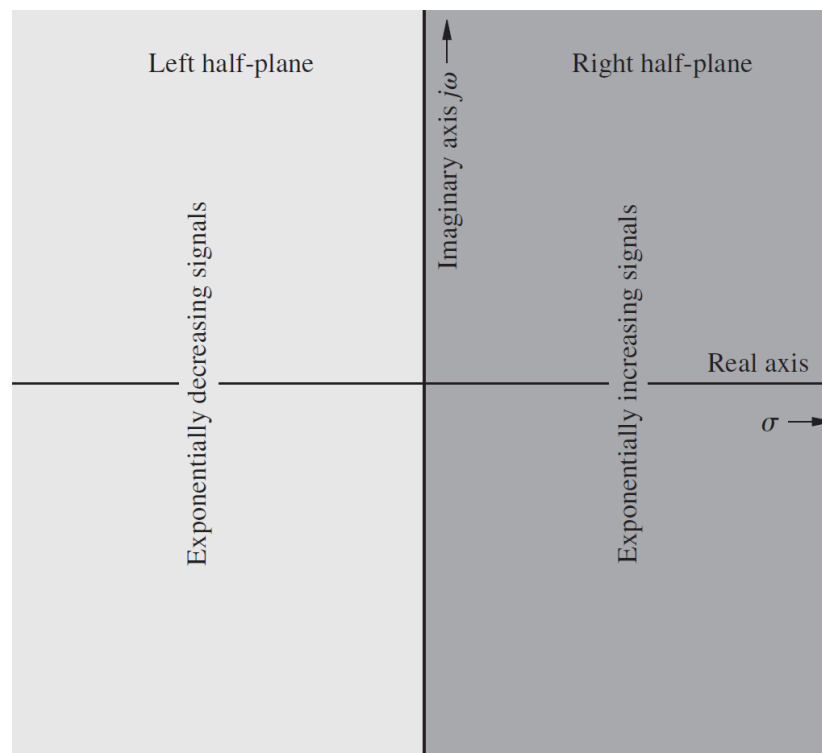
About  $e^{st}$ :

$\omega$ : frequency of oscillation

$\sigma$ : rate of increase/decrease of amplitude

Signals' complex frequencies lie on **real** axis ( $\sigma$  axis, where  $\omega = 0$ ).

If signals' frequencies lie on **imaginary** axis ( $\omega$  axis, where  $\sigma = 0$ ),  $e^{\sigma t} = 1$ .  
 Signals are conventional sinusoids with constant amplitude.



**Figure 1.22** Complex frequency plane.

## 1.5 Even & Odd Functions

[def] even function  $X_e$ : symmetrical about vertical axis

[def] odd function  $X_o$ : antisymmetrical about vertical axis

$$X_e(t) = X_e(-t)$$

$$X_o(t) = -X_o(-t)$$

### 1.5-1 Properties of Even & Odd Functions

$$X_e \times X_o = X'_o$$

$$X_o \times X_o = X_e$$

$$X_e \times X_e = X'_e$$

Area:

$$\int_{-a}^a X_e(t) dt = 2 \int_0^a X_e(t) dt$$

$$\int_{-a}^a X_o(t) dt = 0$$

\*every signal can be expressed as a sum of even & odd functions

### Modification for Complex Signals

- can be decomposed into even & odd components OR conjugate symmetries
- conjugate symmetric if  $x_{cs}(t) = x^*(-t)$   
Real part is even, imaginary part is odd, thus even signal
- conjugate-antisymmetric if  $x_{ca}(t) = -x^*(-t)$   
Real part is odd, imaginary part is even, thus odd signal

$$x(t) = x_{cs}(t) + x_{ca}(t) \text{ where}$$

$$x_{cs}(t) = \frac{x(t) + x^*(-t)}{2}$$

$$x_{ca}(t) = \frac{x(t) - x^*(-t)}{2}$$

## 1.6 Systems

Study of systems consists of mathematical modeling, analysis design.

Consider RC circuit with current source  $x(t)$  as input. Output is given by:

$$y(t) = Rx(t) + \frac{1}{C} \int_{-\infty}^t x(\tau) d\tau$$

$$= Rx(t) + \frac{1}{C} \int_{-\infty}^0 x(\tau) d\tau + \frac{1}{C} \int_0^t x(\tau) d\tau$$

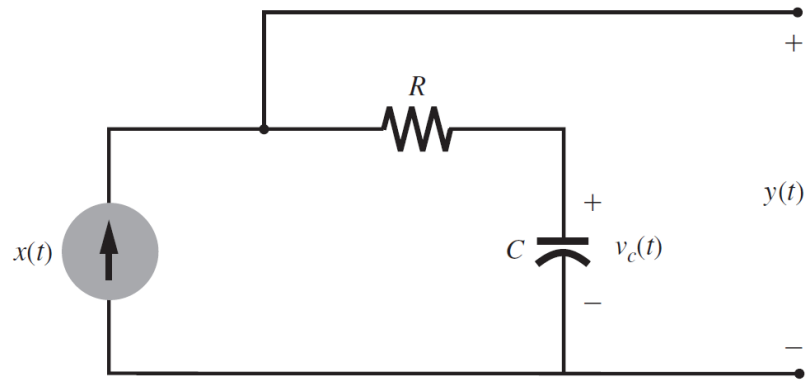
$$= Rx(t) + v_C(0) + \frac{1}{C} \int_0^t x(\tau) d\tau \quad t \geq 0$$

Generalized form\*:

$$y(t) = v_C(t_0) + Rx(t) + \frac{1}{C} \int_{t_0}^t x(\tau) d\tau \quad t \geq t_0 \quad (1.6-1)$$

\* $v_C(t_0)$  is initial capacitor voltage





## 1.7 Classification of Systems

Categories of systems\*:

1. linear & nonlinear
2. constant-parameter & time-varying-parameter
3. instantaneous (memoryless) & dynamic
4. causal & noncausal
5. continuous-time & discrete-time
6. analog & digital
7. invertible & non-invertible
8. stable & unstable

\*other classifications, such as deterministic & probabilistic, are not in this course

### 1.7-1 Linear & Nonlinear Systems

superposition property:

- additivity property:

$$x_1 \rightarrow y_1 \wedge x_2 \rightarrow y_2 \implies x_1 + x_2 \rightarrow y_1 + y_2$$

- homogeneity (scaling property):

$$\text{if } x \rightarrow y, \text{ then } \forall \text{ real and imaginary } k, kx \rightarrow ky$$

Thus,

$$x_1 \rightarrow y_1 \wedge x_2 \rightarrow y_2 \implies k_1 x_1 + k_2 x_2 \rightarrow k_1 y_1 + k_2 y_2 \quad \forall k_1, k_2 \quad (1.7-1)$$

### Response of a Linear System

context: **single input, single output** (SISO) systems

linear system output for  $t \geq 0$ :

- results from 2 independent causes:
  - initial conditions of system (system state) at  $t = 0$
  - input  $x(t)$  for  $t \geq 0$
- must be sum of 2 components:
  - zero-input response (ZIR) resulting from initial response at  $t = 0$  with input  $x(t) = 0$  for  $t \geq 0$ .
  - zero-state response (ZSR) resulting from input  $x(t)$  for  $t \geq 0$  when initial conditions are assumed to be 0.
- both ZIR & ZSR must obey superposition w.r.t. their causes

Linear System Response:

$$\text{total response} = \text{ZIR} + \text{ZSR} \quad (1.7-2)$$

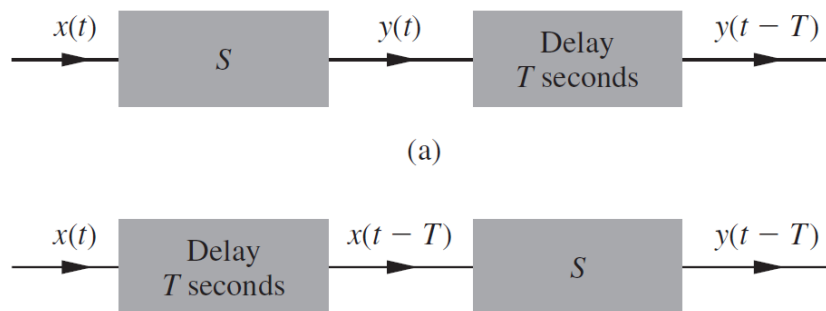
**decomposition property:** permits separation of an output into components resulting from initial conditions & from the input

$$y(t) = \underbrace{v_C(t_0)}_{\text{ZIR}} + \underbrace{Rx(t) + \frac{1}{C} \int_{t_0}^t x(\tau) d\tau}_{\text{ZSR}}$$

### 1.7-2 Time-Invariant & Time-Varying Systems

**time-invariant:** constant parameter

time invariance property:



### 1.7-3 Instantaneous & Dynamic Systems

A system is **instantaneous** if its output at any  $t$  depends, at most, on the strength of its inputs at same instant  $t$ .

\*derivatives are NOT instantaneous: slope cannot be determined from a single point. Infinitesimally small memory must exist; see fundamental theorem of calculus.

### 1.7-4 Causal & Noncausal Systems

**causal:** output at any instant  $t_0$  depends only on value of input  $x(t)$  for  $t \leq t_0$

.

\*noncausal systems

- are realizable when independent variable is not time (e.g. space)
- are realizable with time delay
- provides upper bound performance for causal systems

### 1.7-5 Continuous-Time & Discrete-Time Systems

**continuous-time signals:** signals defined over a continuous range of time

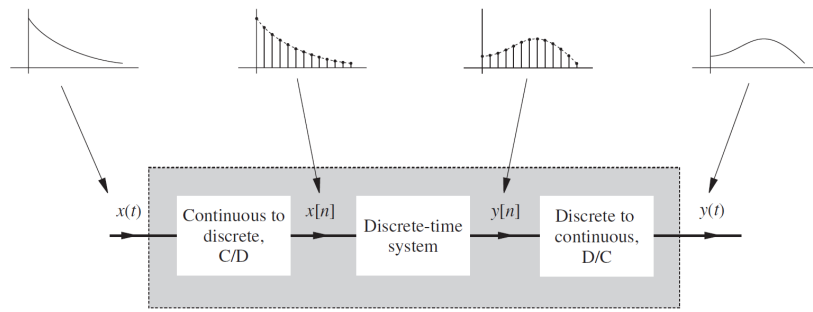
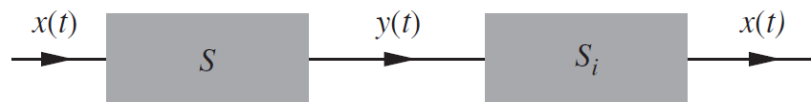


Figure 1.32 Processing continuous-time signals by discrete-time systems.

### 1.7-6 Analog & Digital Systems

e.g. digital computer => digital & discrete system

### 1.7-7 Invertible & Noninvertible Systems



e.g. noninvertible:  $y(t) = |x(t)|$ ,  $y(t) = tx(t)$

### 1.7-8 Stable & Unstable Systems

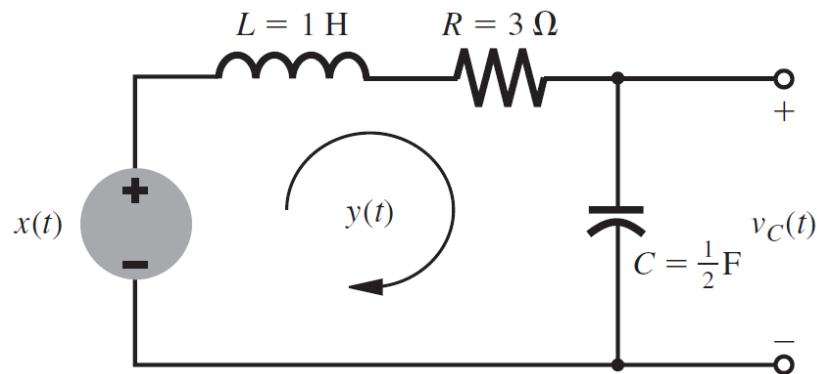
**External Stability:** every bounded input applied at input terminal results in a bounded output (BIBO: bounded-input/bounded-output)

## 1.8 System Model: Input-Output Description

system varieties: electrical, mechanical, hydraulic, acoustic, electromechanical, chemical, social, political, economic, biological, etc.

### 1.8-1 Electrical Systems

e.g. Series RLC circuit



Kirchhoff's voltage law around loop:

$$v_L(t) + v_R(t) + v_C(t) = x(t)$$

$$v_L(t) + Ri(t) + \frac{1}{C} \int_{-\infty}^t i(\tau) d\tau = x(t)$$

$$\frac{dy(t)}{dt} + 3y(t) + 2 \int_{-\infty}^t y(\tau) d\tau = x(t)$$

Differentiating both sides:

$$\frac{d^2 y(t)}{dt^2} + 3\frac{dy(t)}{dt} + 2y(t) = \frac{dx(t)}{dt} \quad (1.8.1-1)$$

Expressed using compact notation:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dy(t)}{dt} &\equiv Dy(t), \quad \frac{d^2 y(t)}{dt^2} \equiv D^2 y(t), \quad \dots, \quad \frac{d^N y(t)}{dt^N} \equiv D^N y(t) \\ (D^2 + 3D + 2)y(t) &= Dx(t) \end{aligned} \quad (1.8.1-2)$$

Integral operator expressed as inverse of differential operator:

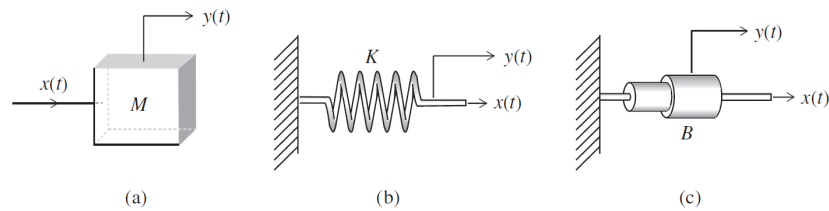
$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-\infty}^t y(\tau) d\tau &\equiv \frac{1}{D} y(t) \\ \frac{d}{dt} \left[ \int_{-\infty}^t y(\tau) d\tau \right] &= y(t) \end{aligned}$$

## 1.8-2 Mechanical Systems

planer motion => translational (rectilinear) motion & rotational (torsional) motion

### Translational Systems

basic elements: ideal masses, linear springs, dashpots (viscous damping)



**Figure 1.36** Some elements in translational mechanical systems.

Newton's law of motion (a):

$$x(t) = M\ddot{y}(t) = M\frac{d^2 y(t)}{dt^2} = MD^2 y(t)$$

Linear spring (K is stiffness) (b):

$$x(t) = Ky(t)$$

Linear Dashpot (B is damping coefficient) (c):

$$x(t) = B\dot{y}(t) = B\frac{dy(t)}{dt} = BDy(t)$$

### Rotational Systems

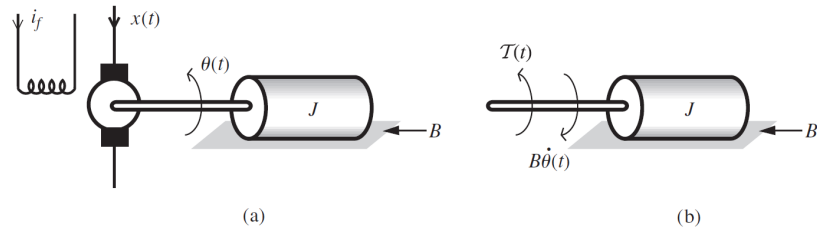
motion about an axis; variables:

- torque
- angular position
- angular velocity
- angular acceleration
- torsional springs

- torsional dashpots

$$\begin{aligned} \text{torque} &= J\ddot{\theta}(t) = J \frac{d^2\theta(t)}{dt^2} = JD^2\theta(t) = JD^2\theta(t) \\ &= K\theta(t)B\dot{\theta}(t) = BD\dot{\theta}(t) \end{aligned}$$

### 1.8-3 Electromechanical Systems



**Figure 1.40** Armature-controlled dc motor.

$$\begin{aligned} J\ddot{\theta}(t) &= \tau(t) - B\dot{\theta}(t) \\ (JD^2 + BD)\theta(t) &= \tau(t) \\ (JD^2 + BD)\theta(t) &= K_T x(t) \\ J \frac{d^2\theta(t)}{dt^2} + B \frac{d\theta(t)}{dt} &= K_T x(t) \end{aligned} \quad (1.8.3-1)$$