#### EE 110A Signals and Systems

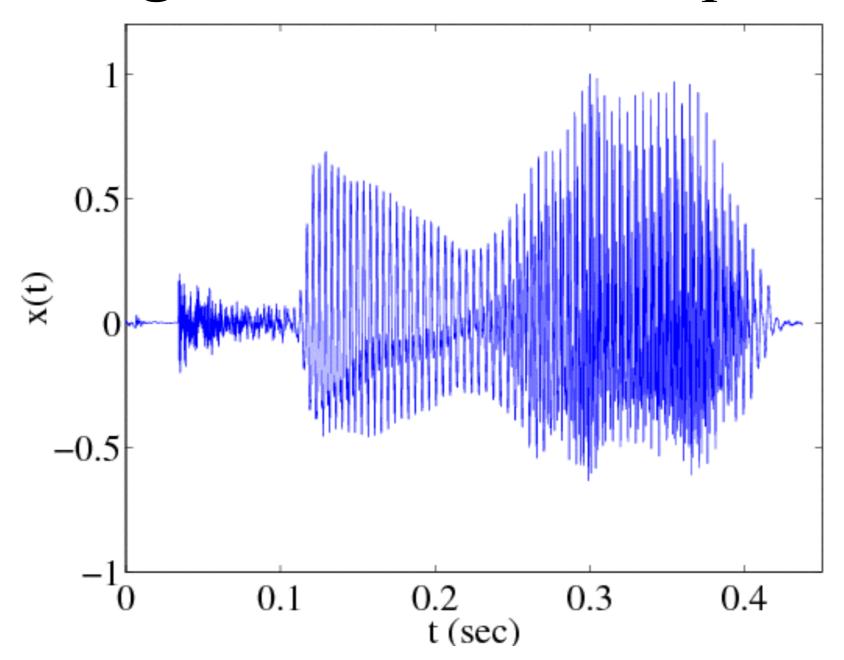
# Introduction to Signals and Systems

Ertem Tuncel

# What is a signal?

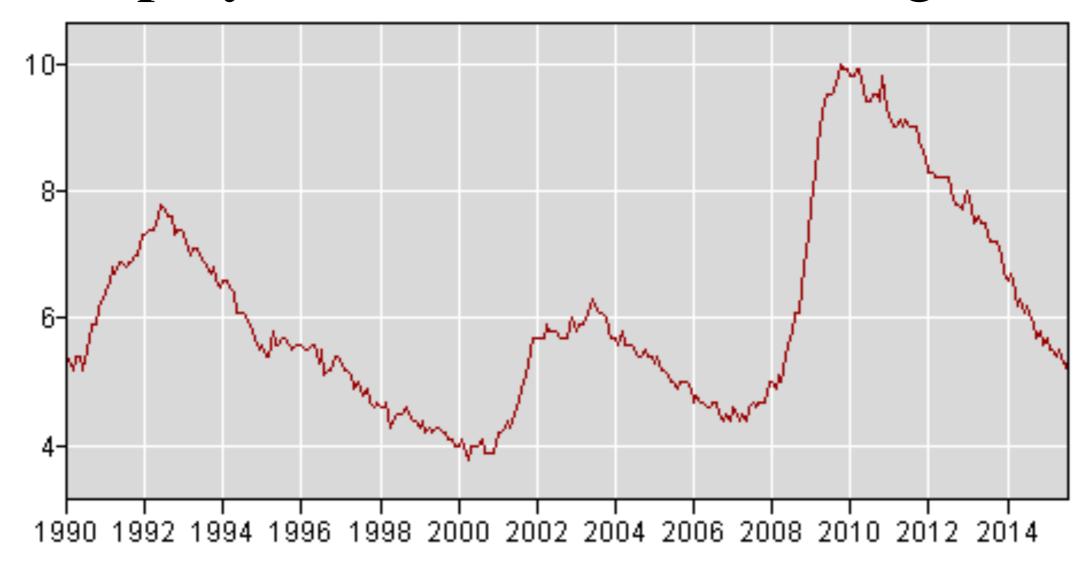
- **Definition**: A signal is a function of one or more *independent variables*.
  - $\bigcirc$  time (t)
  - $\bullet$  space (x) or (x,y)
  - spatiotemporal (x,t) or (x,y,t)

• Speech signal. Time is the independent variable



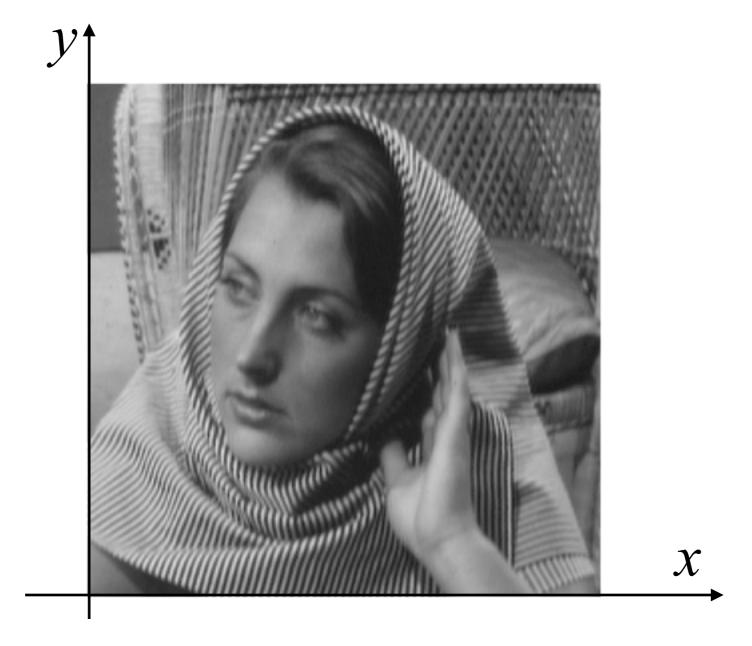
• Amplitude = acoustic pressure

• Unemployment rate. Also a time signal.



• Amplitude = % of unemployment among people over 16 years old.

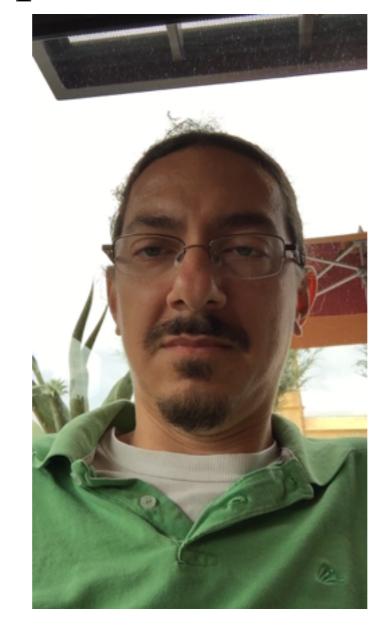
• Image signal. Space variables (x,y)



• Amplitude = brightness

• Video signal. Space variables (x,y) and time

variable t



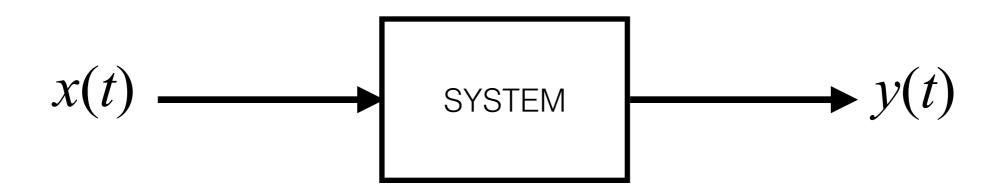
• Amplitude = brightness of RGB components

#### In this course

- We will focus on one-dimensional signals.
- Time will be the independent variable
  - Continuous-time signals (110A)
    - audio signals
    - ovoltage/current in a circuit with AC power
  - Discrete-time signals (110B)
    - unemployment rate
    - stock market data
    - sampled signals

# What is a system?

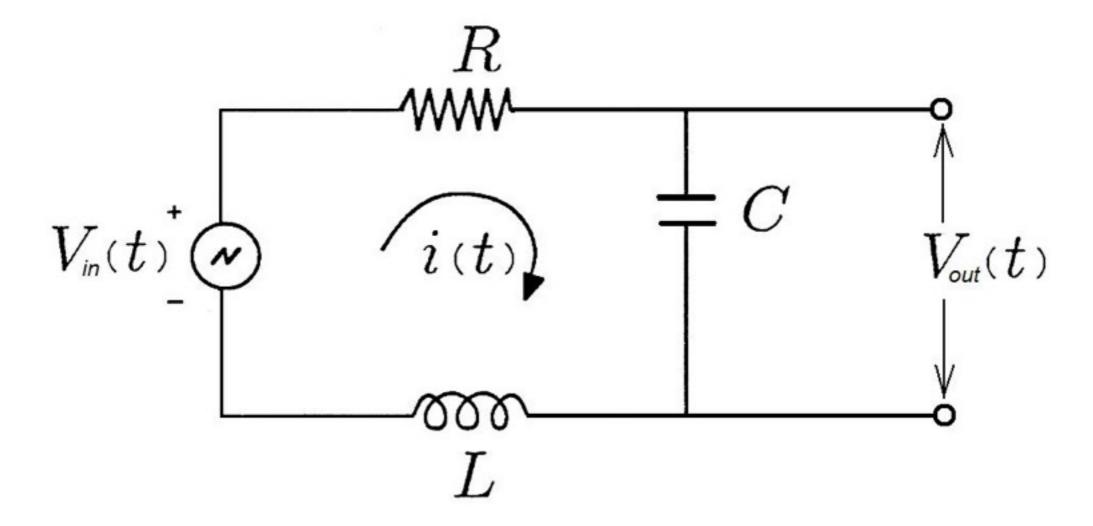
• **Definition**: A system is a relationship between its input signal, typically x(t), and its output signal, typically y(t).



• Any legitimate relation between x(t) and y(t) forms a system.



- x(t) = force applied on the car at time t
- y(t) = displacement of the car at time t



- $V_{in}(t)$  = voltage applied on the circuit at time t
- $V_{out}(t)$  = voltage on the capacitor at time t



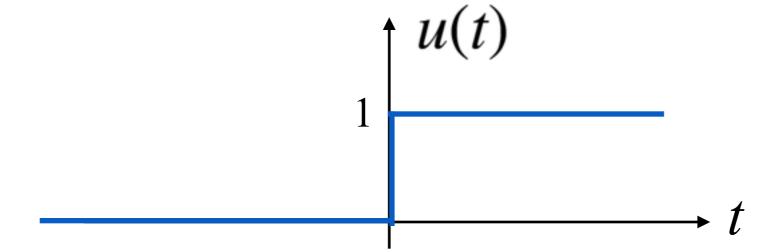
- x(t) = solar radiation at time t
- y(t) = temperature at a location at time t

#### In this course

- We will study important properties of systems.
  - Memory
  - Causality
  - Linearity
  - Time-invariance
  - Invertibility
  - Stability
- The focus will be on linear time-invariant (LTI) systems
  - Continuous-time input and output in EE110A
  - Discrete-time input and output in EE110B

• The unit step signal:

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



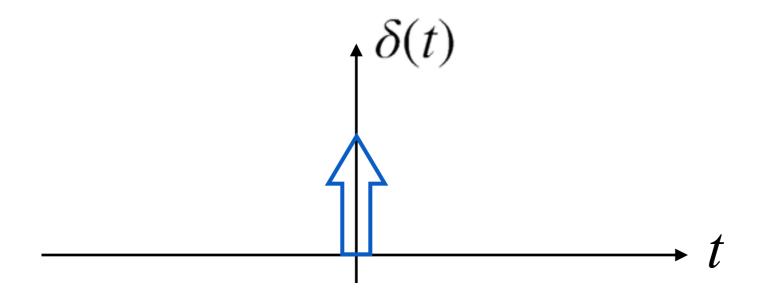
A very simple signal.

#### • The impulse signal:

What if we took the derivative of u(t)?

$$\delta(t) = \frac{du(t)}{dt} = \begin{cases} 0 & t > 0 \\ 0 & t < 0 \\ ? & t = 0 \end{cases} = \begin{cases} 0 & t > 0 \\ 0 & t < 0 \\ \infty & t = 0 \end{cases}$$

At t = 0, it seems that u(t) has infinite slope.



#### • The impulse signal:

For consistency, though, we must remember

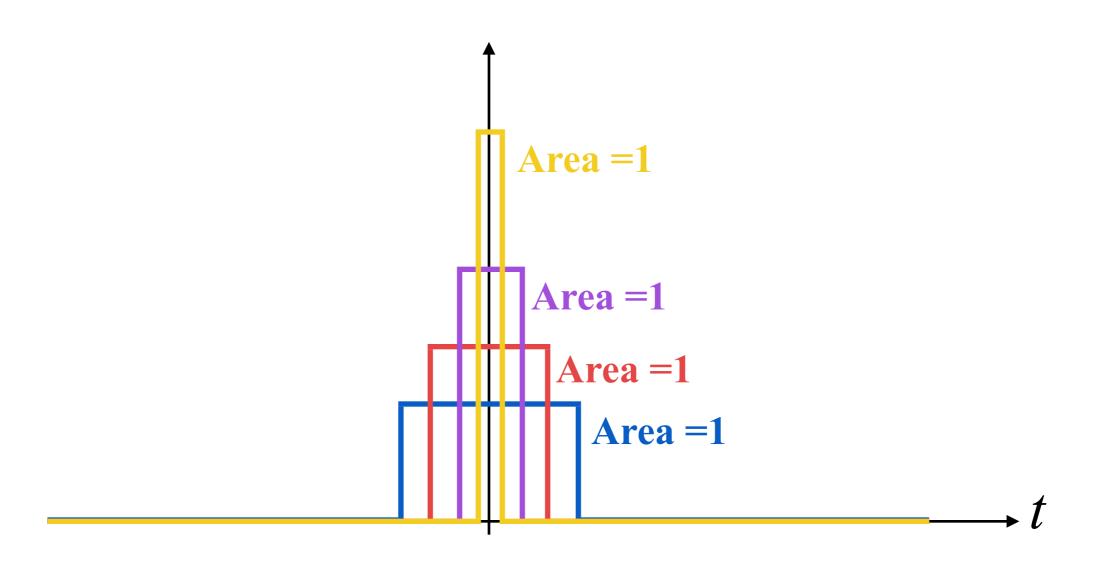
$$u(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{t} \delta(\tau) d\tau$$

What a strange function!!

- o integrate it from  $-\infty$  to -0.00000001 and you get zero
- o integrate it from  $-\infty$  to +0.00000001 and you get one

#### The impulse signal:

To keep this consistency, one can think of the impulse function as a limit.



• The unit ramp signal:

What if we integrate u(t)?

$$r(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{t} u(\tau)d\tau = \begin{cases} 0 & t < 0 \\ t & t \ge 0 \end{cases}$$

$$r(t) = \begin{cases} r(t) & \text{Slope} = 1 \end{cases}$$

• The unit ramp signal:

Conversely, we also have

$$u(t) = \frac{dr(t)}{dt}$$

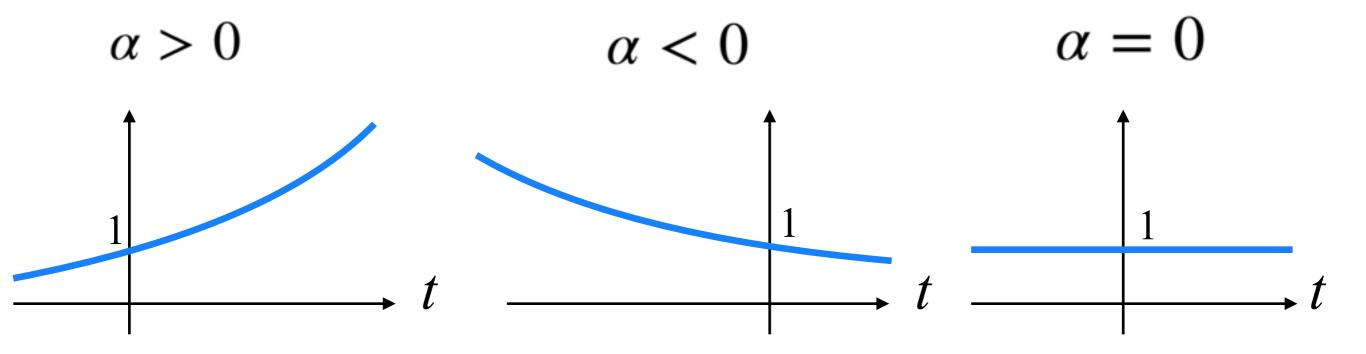
• Summary:

$$\delta(t)$$
 integrate integrate  $\delta(t)$  differentiate  $\delta(t)$  differentiate  $\delta(t)$ 

• The exponential signal:

$$x(t) = e^{\alpha t}$$

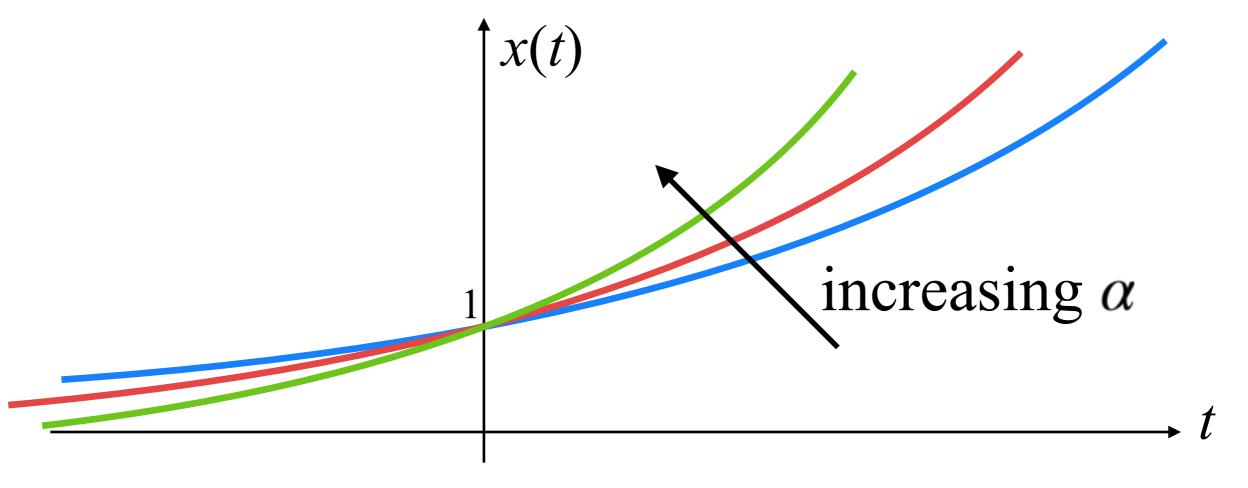
• Three cases:



• The exponential signal:

$$x(t) = e^{\alpha t}$$

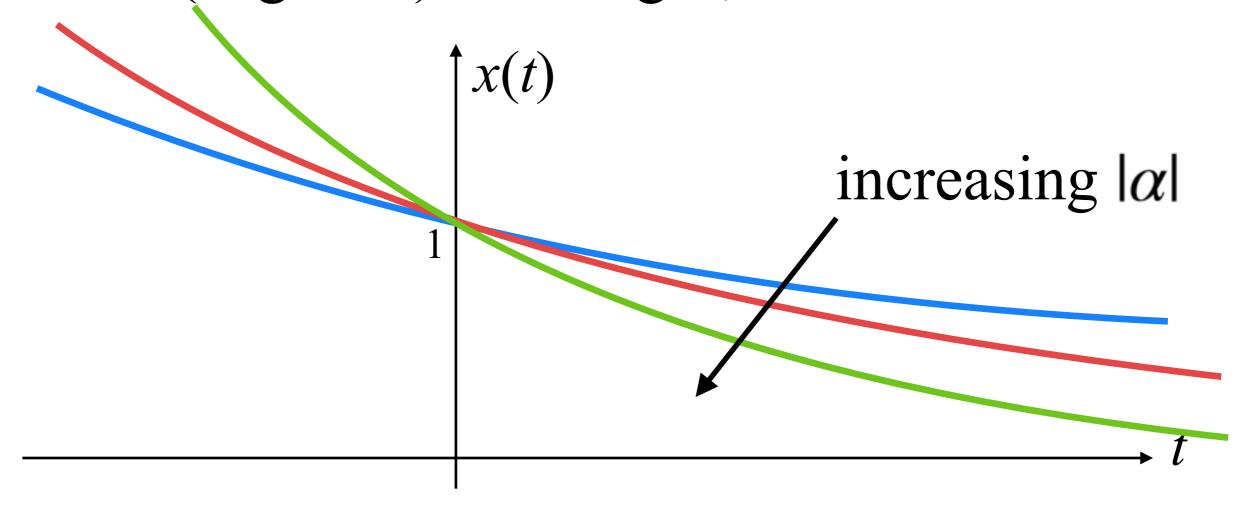
• As (positive)  $\alpha$  changes,



• The exponential signal:

$$x(t) = e^{\alpha t}$$

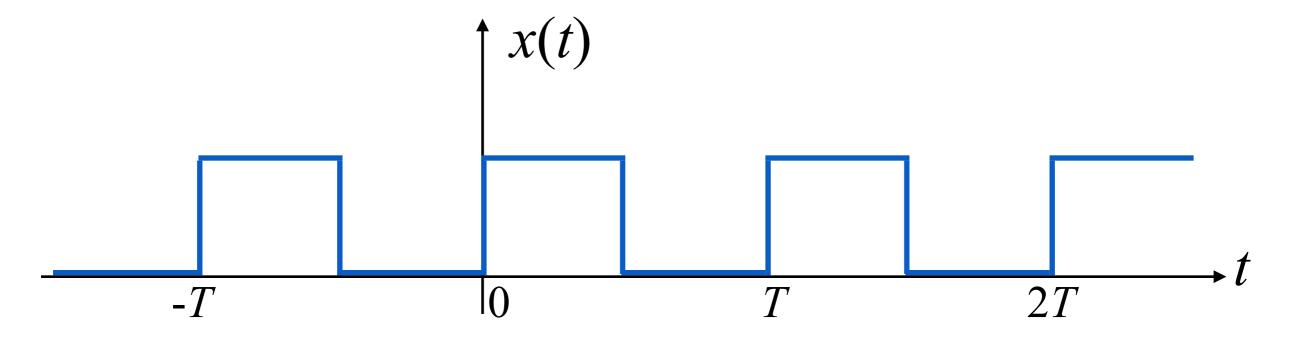
• As (negative)  $\alpha$  changes,



• A signal is said to have a period T if

$$x(t+T) = x(t)$$
  $\forall t$ 

• Example: square wave



• If *T* is a period, so are 2*T*, 3*T*, 4*T*, ...

• An important class of examples is sinusoidals:

$$x(t) = A\cos(\Omega t + \phi)$$

- A is called the amplitude
- $\Omega$  is called the *frequency*
- $\phi$  is called the *phase*
- Convention: A > 0,  $\Omega \ge 0$ ,  $-\pi \le \phi \le \pi$

$$x(t) = A\cos(\Omega t + \phi)$$

• To find T, we need to solve

$$A\cos(\Omega t + \phi) = A\cos(\Omega(t + T) + \phi)$$

• Towards that end, we need to use the identity

$$\cos(\theta) = \cos(\theta + 2\pi k)$$

which is true for any integer k.

- In other words, T must satisfy  $\Omega T = 2\pi k$  for some k.
- Smallest such *T*:

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

 Another way to understand this behavior is to look at complex exponentials

$$x(t) = Ae^{j(\Omega t + \phi)}$$

• For this signal to have a period T, we need

$$Ae^{j(\Omega t + \phi)} = Ae^{j(\Omega(t+T) + \phi)} = Ae^{j(\Omega t + \phi)}e^{j\Omega T}$$

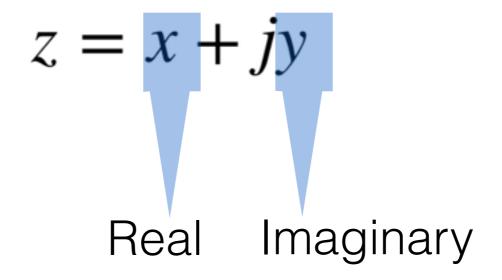
implying that

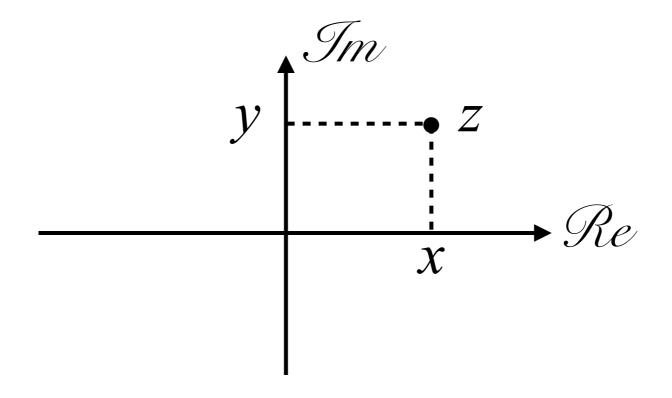
$$e^{j\Omega T}=1$$

or that

$$T = \frac{2\pi k}{\Omega}$$

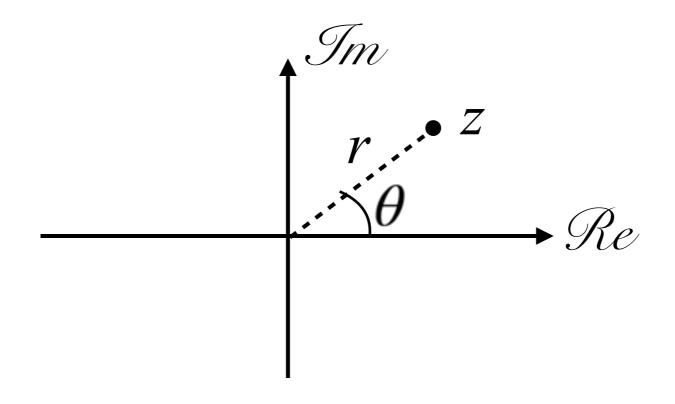
• In rectangular coordinates,





In polar coordinates,

$$z = re^{j\theta} = r\cos(\theta) + jr\sin(\theta)$$
Angle
Magnitude



In rectangular coordinates,

$$z_1 + z_2 = (x_1 + jy_1) + (x_2 + jy_2)$$

$$= (x_1 + x_2) + j(y_1 + y_2)$$

$$z_1 \times z_2 = (x_1 + jy_1) \times (x_2 + jy_2)$$

$$= x_1x_2 + j(x_1y_2 + x_2y_1) + j^2y_1y_2$$

$$= (x_1x_2 - y_1y_2) + j(x_1y_2 + x_2y_1)$$

• In polar coordinates,

$$z_1 \times z_2 = r_1 e^{j\theta_1} \times r_2 e^{j\theta_2} = r_1 r_2 e^{j(\theta_1 + \theta_2)}$$

$$z_1 + z_2 = r_1 e^{j\theta_1} + r_2 e^{j\theta_2}$$

$$= r_1 (\cos \theta_1 + j \sin \theta_1)$$

$$+ r_2 (\cos \theta_2 + j \sin \theta_2)$$

$$= (r_1 \cos \theta_1 + r_2 \cos \theta_2)$$

$$+ j(r_1 \sin \theta_1 + r_2 \sin \theta_2)$$

• Two important identities:

$$\frac{e^{j\theta} + e^{-j\theta}}{2} = \cos(\theta) \qquad \frac{e^{j\theta} - e^{-j\theta}}{2j} = \sin(\theta)$$

• Proof:

$$e^{j\theta} = \cos(\theta) + j\sin(\theta)$$
  
$$e^{-j\theta} = \cos(-\theta) + j\sin(-\theta) = \cos(\theta) - j\sin(\theta)$$

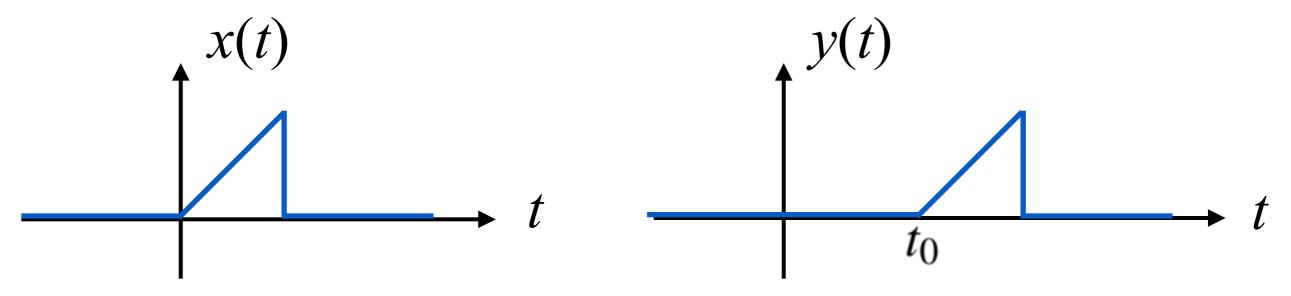
 Add and subtract the two to find the desired result.

#### Simple signal transformations

• Time shift: Let

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

for some  $t_0 > 0$ .

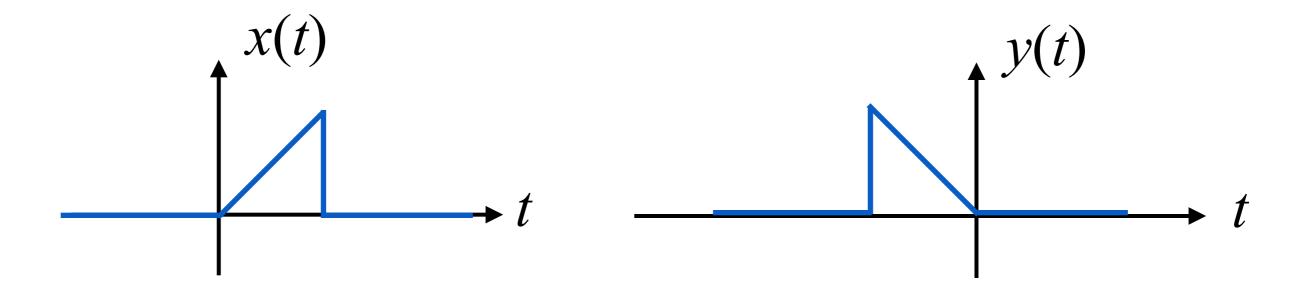


- Why does this cause a right shift?
- The key is to see that the signal y copies at time instant t the "old value" of x at  $t t_0$

#### Simple signal transformations

• Time reversal: Let

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



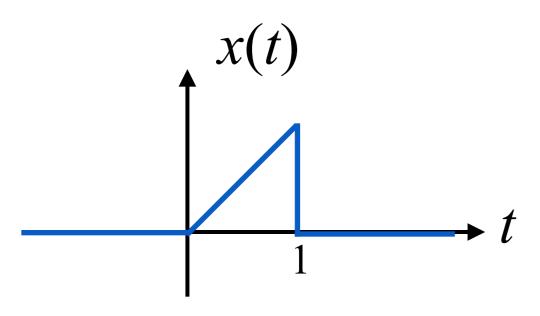
• So this is resulting in the "mirror image" of the signal around the y-axis.

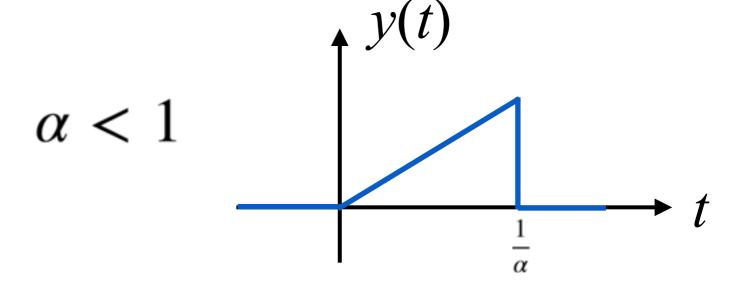
#### Simple signal transformations

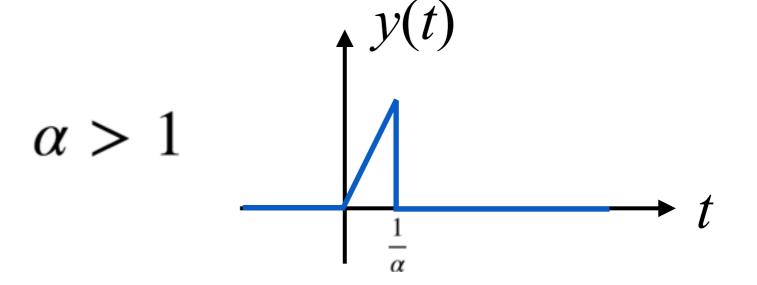
#### • Scaling:

$$y(t) = x(\alpha t)$$

for some  $\alpha > 0$ .





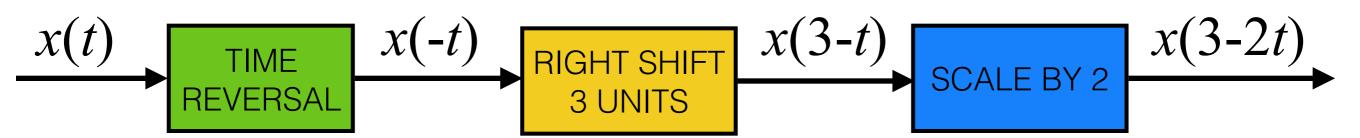


#### Transformation combos

What if we have a transformation such as

$$y(t) = x(3 - 2t)$$
?

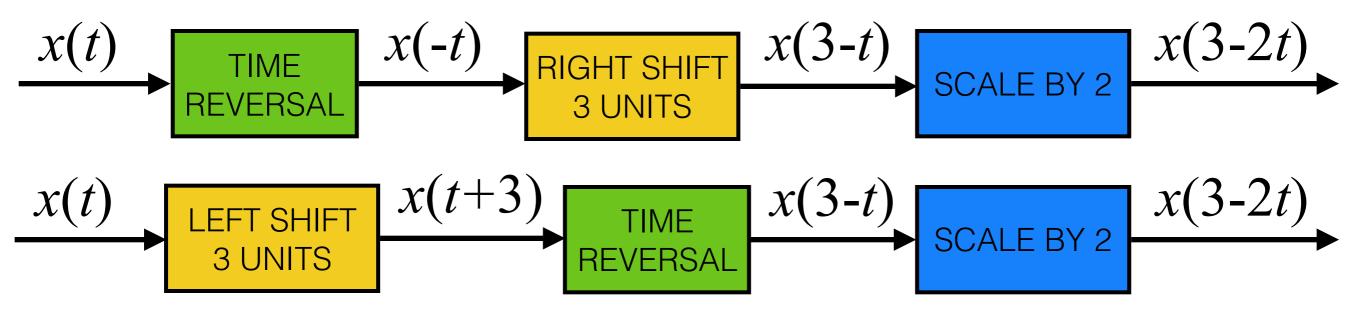
- Looks like a combo of time shift, time reversal, and scaling. But with what order?
- Option 1:



• Option 2:



#### Transformation combos



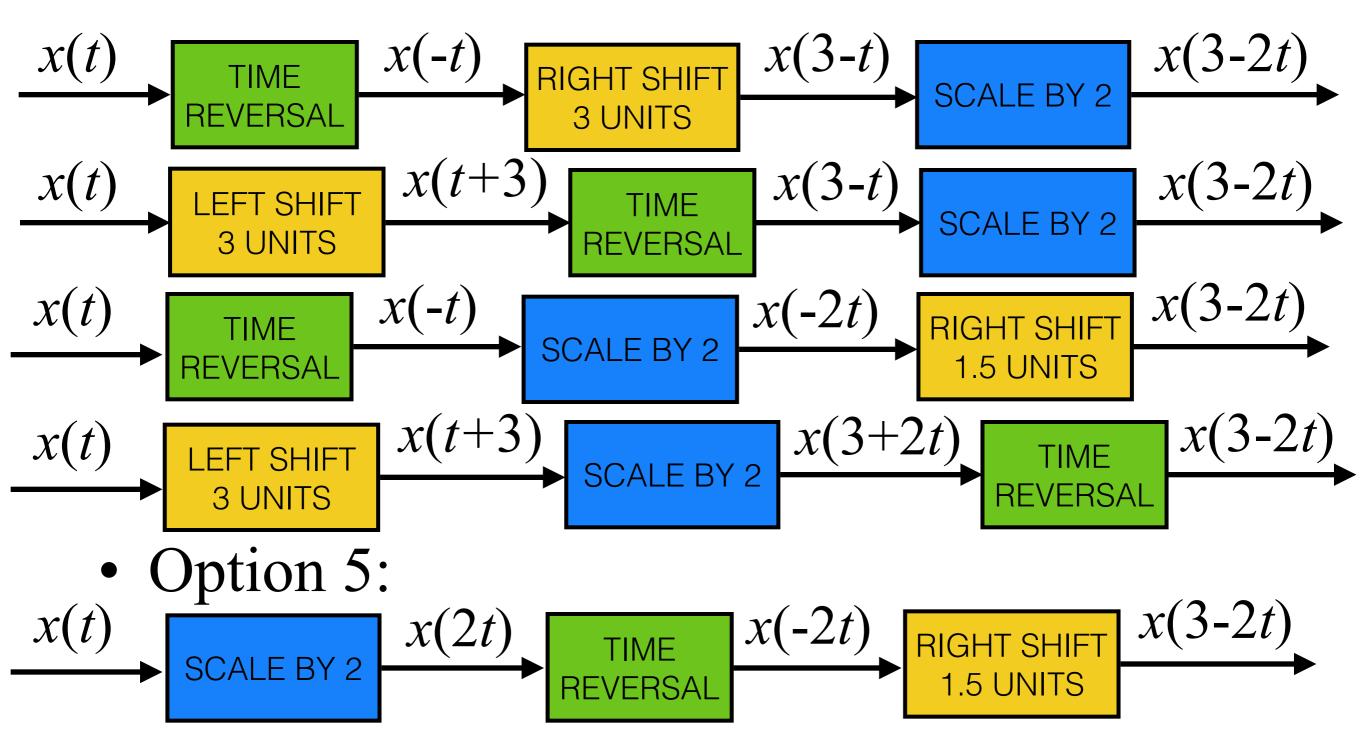
• Option 3:



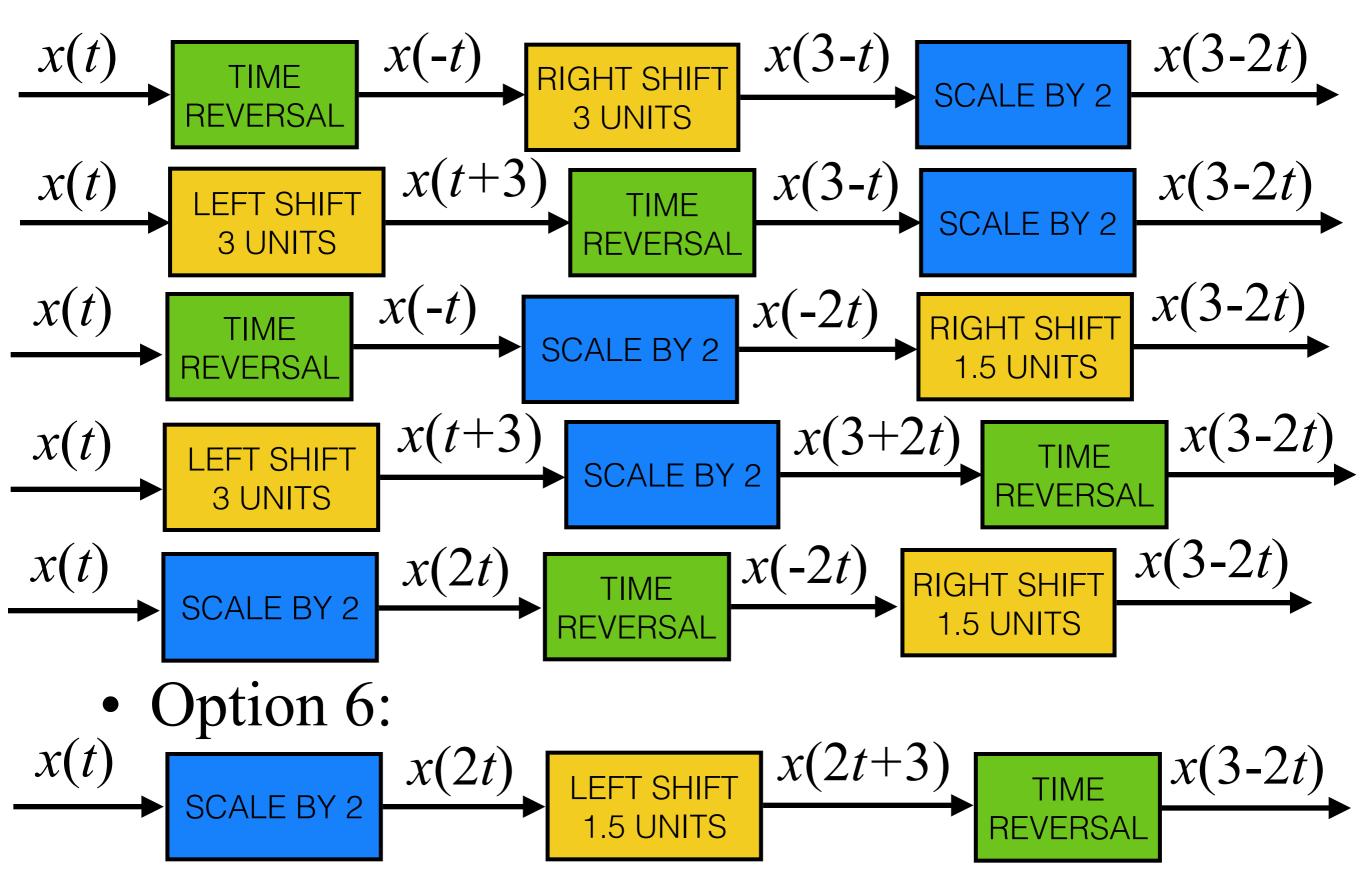
• Option 4:



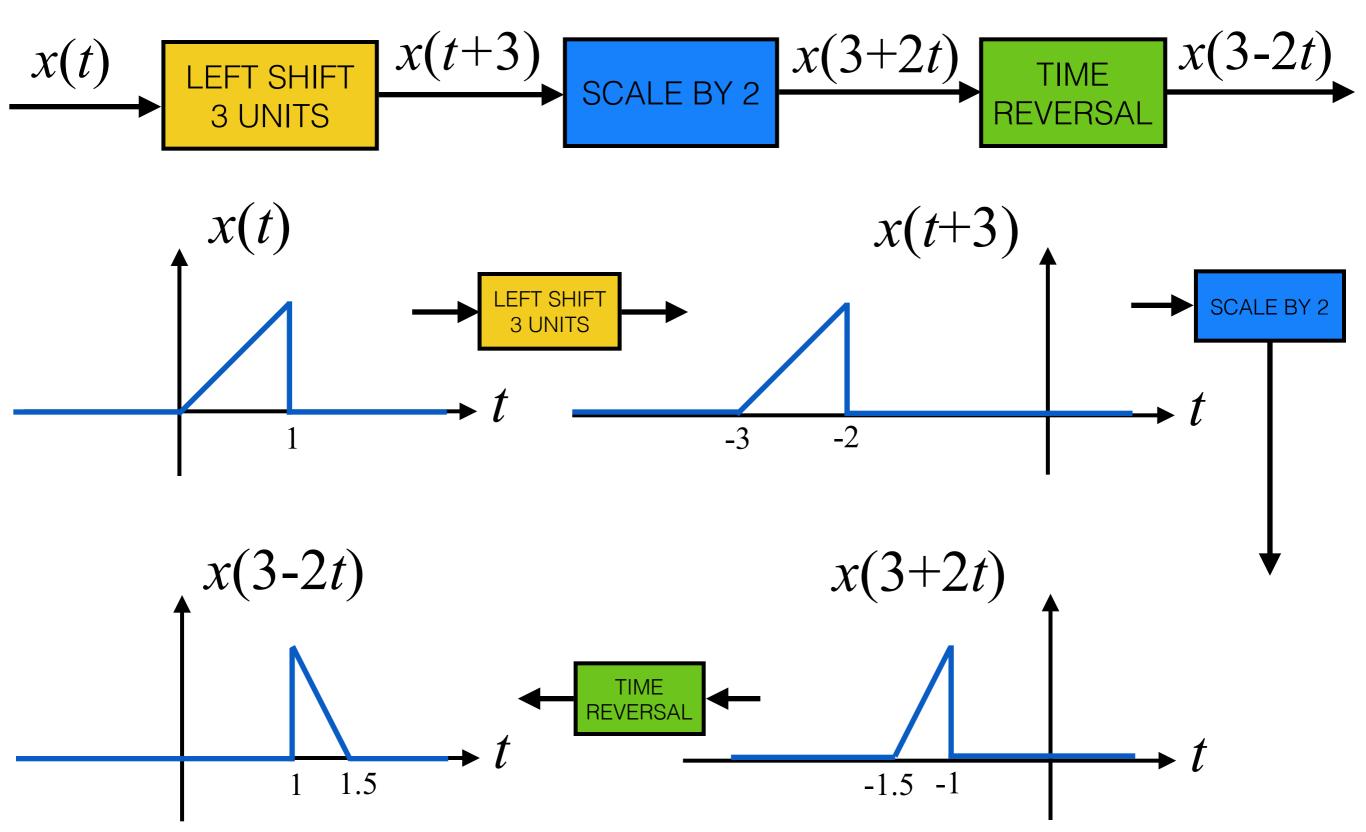
#### Transformation combos



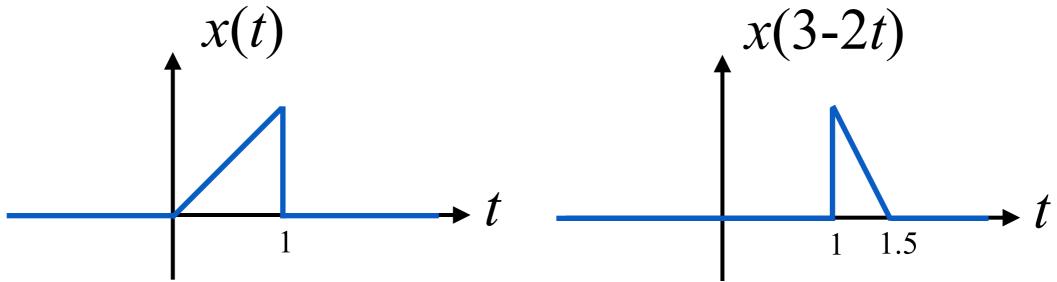
#### Transformation combos



#### Transformation combos



#### Transformation combos



- Could we have computed this without going through the transformations one by one?
- Yes. Pick important time instants in the original signal, and find out what *t* needs to be for 3-2*t* to correspond to those instants.

3-2 <i>t</i>	t
0	1.5
1	1

• A system is linear if

$$x_1(t) \longrightarrow y_1(t)$$

and

$$x_2(t) \longrightarrow y_2(t)$$

implies

$$ax_1(t) + bx_2(t) \longrightarrow ay_1(t) + by_2(t)$$

for any  $x_1(t), x_2(t), a$ , and b

• Problem: Is  $y(t) = t^2 e^{-t} x(t)$  a linear system?

$$x_1(t) \longrightarrow y_1(t) = t^2 e^{-t} x_1(t)$$

$$x_2(t) \longrightarrow y_2(t) = t^2 e^{-t} x_2(t)$$

$$ax_1(t) + bx_2(t) \longrightarrow t^2 e^{-t} (ax_1(t) + bx_2(t))$$

$$= at^2 e^{-t} x_1(t)$$

$$+ bt^2e^{-t}x_2(t)$$

$$= ay_1(t) + by_2(t)$$



• Problem: Is y(t) = x(3 - 2t) a linear system?

$$x_1(t) \longrightarrow y_1(t) = x_1(3-2t)$$

$$x_2(t) \longrightarrow y_2(t) = x_2(3-2t)$$

$$ax_1(t) + bx_2(t) \longrightarrow ax_1(3-2t) + bx_2(3-2t)$$

$$= ay_1(t) + by_2(t)$$

• Problem: Is  $y(t) = \frac{dx(t)}{dt}$  a linear system?

$$x_1(t) \longrightarrow y_1(t) = \frac{dx_1(t)}{dt}$$

$$x_2(t) \longrightarrow y_2(t) = \frac{dx_2(t)}{dt}$$

$$ax_1(t) + bx_2(t) \longrightarrow \frac{d[ax_1(t) + bx_2(t)]}{dt}$$

$$= a \frac{dx_1(t)}{dt} + b \frac{dx_2(t)}{dt}$$
$$= ay_1(t) + by_2(t)$$

• Problem: Is  $y(t) = x(t)^2$  a linear system?

$$x_1(t) \longrightarrow y_1(t) = x_1(t)^2$$

$$x_2(t) \longrightarrow y_2(t) = x_2(t)^2$$

$$ax_1(t) + bx_2(t) \longrightarrow [ax_1(t) + bx_2(t)]^2$$

NONLINEAR 
$$\neq ay_1(t) + by_2(t)$$

- But what about the case a = 1 and b = 0?
- Remember that the condition needs to be satisfied FOR ANY  $x_1(t)$ ,  $x_2(t)$ , a, and b

• Problem: Is y(t) = x(t) + 4 a linear system?

$$x_1(t) \longrightarrow y_1(t) = x_1(t) + 4$$

$$x_2(t) \longrightarrow y_2(t) = x_2(t) + 4$$

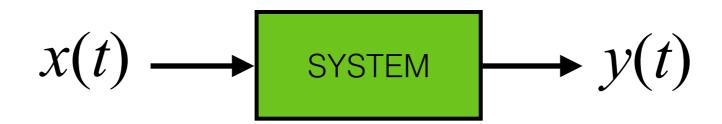
$$ax_1(t) + bx_2(t) \longrightarrow ax_1(t) + bx_2(t) + 4$$

#### NONLINEAR

$$\neq ay_1(t) + by_2(t)$$

• To see this, just take any a and b NOT satisfying a+b=1.

• A system is time-invariant if



implies

$$x(t-t_0)$$
  $\longrightarrow$  SYSTEM  $\longrightarrow$   $y(t-t_0)$ 

for any x(t) and  $t_0$ .

• Problem: Is  $y(t) = x(t)^2$  a time-invariant system?

$$x(t) \longrightarrow y(t) = x(t)^{2}$$

$$x(t - t_{0}) \longrightarrow x(t - t_{0})^{2}$$

$$= y(t - t_{0})$$

• Problem: Is  $y(t) = t^2 e^{-t} x(t)$  a time-invariant system?

$$x(t) \longrightarrow y(t) = t^{2}e^{-t}x(t)$$

$$x(t - t_{0}) \longrightarrow t^{2}e^{-t}x(t - t_{0})$$

$$\text{TIME VARIANT} \neq y(t - t_{0})$$

• Problem: Is  $y(t) = x(t) - 3x(t - 1)^2$  a time-invariant system?

$$x(t) \longrightarrow y(t) = x(t) - 3x(t-1)^{2}$$

$$x(t-t_{0}) \longrightarrow x(t-t_{0}) - 3x(t-t_{0}-1)^{2}$$

$$= y(t-t_{0})$$

• Problem: Is y(t) = x(2t) a time-invariant system?

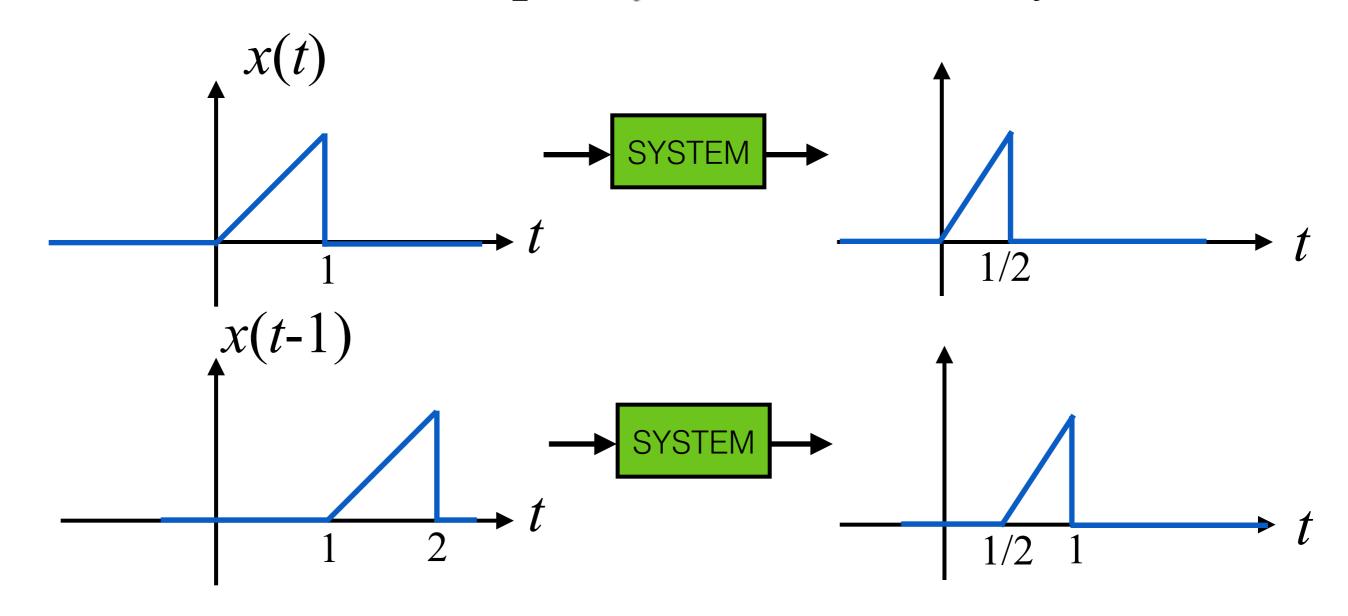
$$x(t) \longrightarrow y(t) = x(2t)$$

$$x(t-t_0) \longrightarrow x(2t-t_0)$$

TIME VARIANT 
$$\neq y(t-t_0)$$

## If in doubt, try this out

- You can try to find an example to prove nonlinearity or time-variance
- For the last example, y(t) = x(2t), try this:



- A system is **memoryless** if at time instant t, the value of y(t) depends only on the *current* value of x(t), and not on any *past* or *future* value of it.
- A system is **causal** if at time instant t, the value of y(t) depends only on the *current* and *past* value of x(t), and not on any *future* value of it.
- Obviously, memorylessness implies causality, but not vice versa.

• Problem: Is  $y(t) = x(t)^2$  a memoryless system? If not memoryless, is it causal?

#### • Solution:

$$y(0) = x(0)^2$$

$$y(1) = x(1)^2$$

$$y(1000.23) = x(1000.23)^2$$
 MEMORYLESS

:



- Problem: Is  $y(t) = x(t) 3x(t-1)^2$  a memoryless system? If not memoryless, is it causal?
- Solution:

$$y(0) = x(0) - 3x(-1)^{2}$$
HAS MEMORY
$$y(1) = x(1) - 3x(0)^{2}$$

$$y(5.234) = x(5.234) - 3x(4.234)^{2}$$

:

**CAUSAL** 



• Problem: Is y(t) = x(2t) a memoryless system? If not memoryless, is it causal?

#### • Solution:

$$y(0) = x(0)$$

$$y(-1) = x(-2)$$

**HAS MEMORY** 

$$y(2) = x(4)$$

**NON-CAUSAL** 

• Problem: Is

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

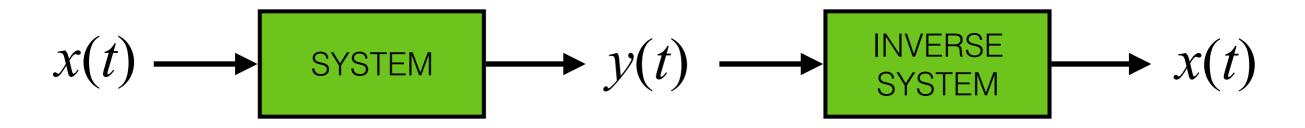
a memoryless system? If not memoryless, is it causal?

• Solution: y(t) clearly depends on all values of x() between the time instants  $-\infty$  and t.

**HAS MEMORY** 

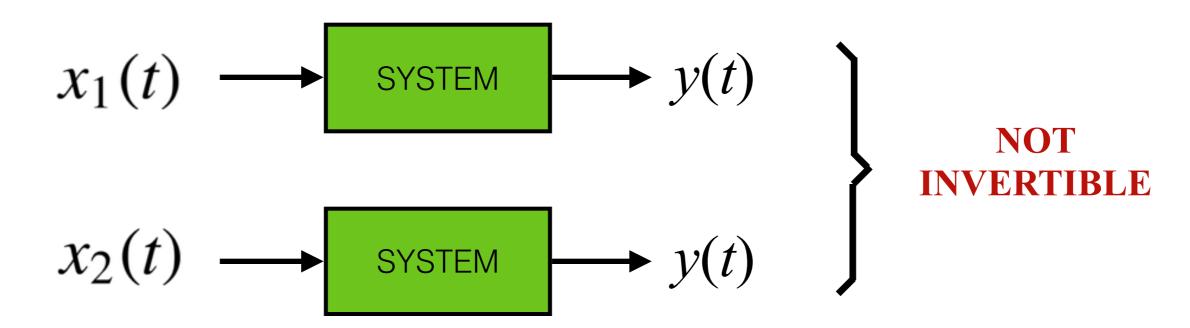


• A system is **invertible** if there exists another system which outputs x(t) when its input is y(t).



• This should be true for ALL x(t).

- But this definition seems to require that you actually *find* the inverse system.
- <u>Alternative definition</u>: A system is **invertible** if no two distinct input signals yield the same output.



• Problem: Is  $y(t) = x(t)^2$  an invertible system?

$$x_1(t) = u(t) \longrightarrow y(t) = u(t)^2 = u(t)$$

$$x_2(t) = -u(t) \longrightarrow y(t) = u(t)^2 = u(t)$$

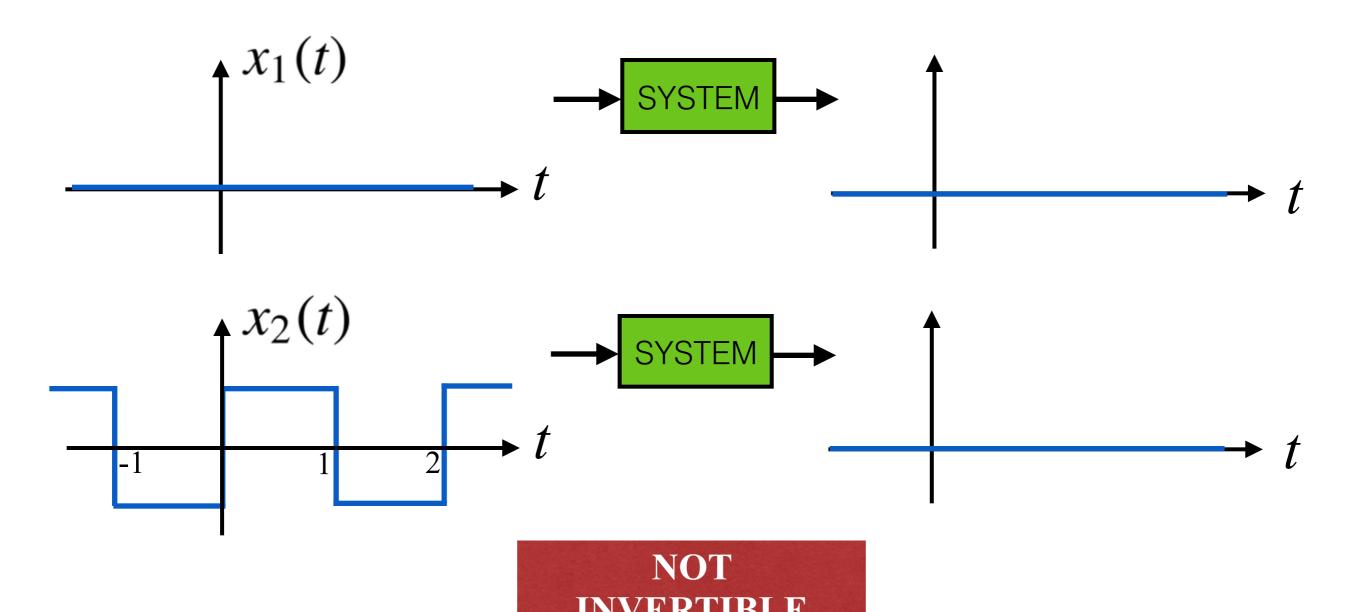
NOT INVERTIBLE

- Problem: Is y(t) = x(2t) an invertible system?
- Solution: Yes, because you can reverse the operation by

$$x(t) = y(0.5t)$$



• Problem: Is y(t) = x(t) + x(t - 1) an invertible system?



• Problem: Is

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

an invertible system?

• Solution: Yes, because you can reverse the operation by

$$x(t) = \frac{dy(t)}{dt}$$
 INVERTIBLE

- Alternatively, if the system were not invertible, there would exist two inputs  $x_1(t)$  and  $x_2(t)$  yielding the same output.
- But that would mean that for all t and  $t \Delta t$ ,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{t} x_1(\tau)d\tau = \int_{-\infty}^{t} x_2(\tau)d\tau$$

and

$$\int_{-\infty}^{t-\Delta t} x_1(\tau)d\tau = \int_{-\infty}^{t-\Delta t} x_2(\tau)d\tau$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{t} x_1(\tau)d\tau = \int_{-\infty}^{t} x_2(\tau)d\tau$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{t-\Delta t} x_1(\tau)d\tau = \int_{-\infty}^{t-\Delta t} x_2(\tau)d\tau$$

$$\int_{t-\Delta t}^{t} x_1(\tau)d\tau = \int_{t-\Delta t}^{t} x_2(\tau)d\tau$$

• Letting  $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$ , this is the same as

$$x_1(t)\Delta t = x_2(t)\Delta t$$



• Contradiction! No such  $x_1(t), x_2(t)$  can exist.

- A system is **stable** if bounded inputs yield bounded outputs.
- Mathematically speaking, a system is stable if

$$|x(t)| \leq B \quad \forall t$$

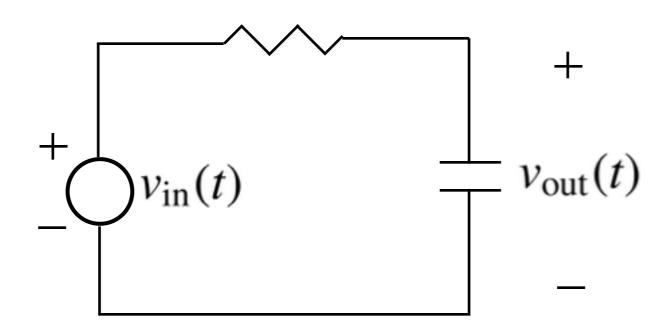
for some B implies

$$|y(t)| \leq C \quad \forall t$$

for some C.

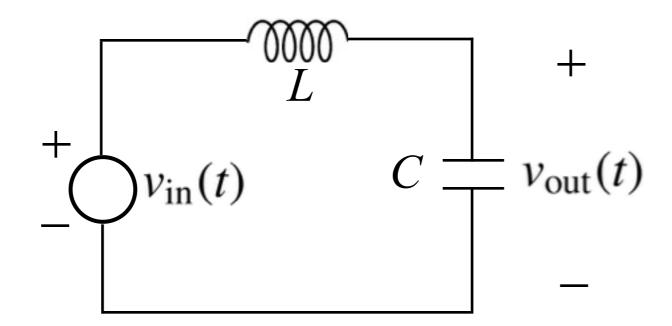
• This should be true for ALL x(t).

• A familiar example of a **stable** system:



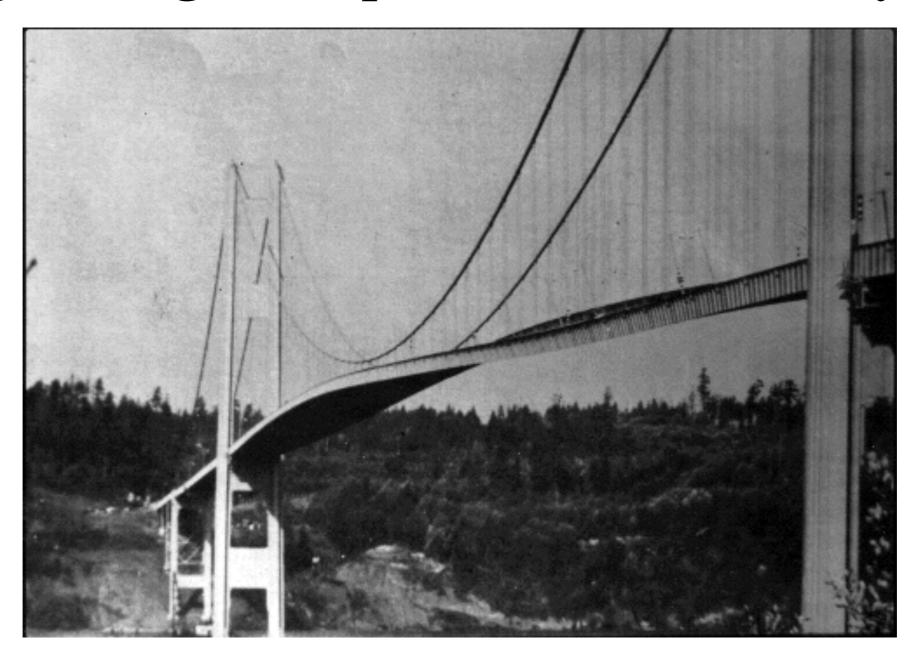
• Obviously no bounded source can create an infinite voltage on the capacitor.

• A familiar example of an unstable system:



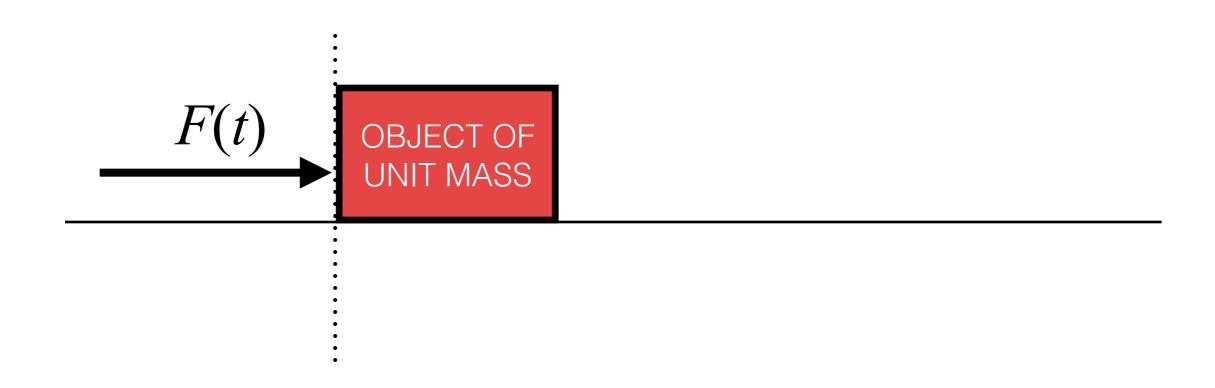
• If  $v_{\rm in}(t) = \cos(\omega t)$  with  $\omega = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}}$ , the output will blow up.

• A frightening example of an unstable system:

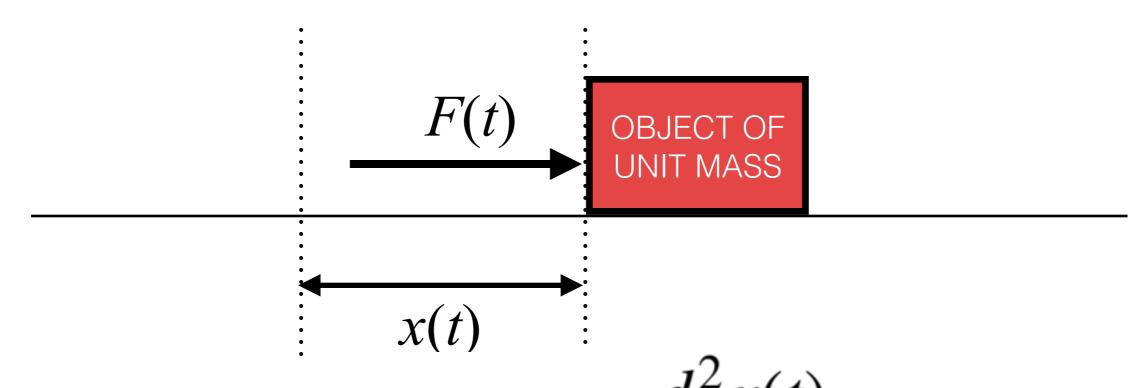


http://youtu.be/j-zczJXSxnw

• Here is another unstable system:



• Here is another unstable system:



- Newton's Law:  $F(t) = \frac{d^2x(t)}{dt^2}$
- This implies that even with a very small force, you can obtain infinite displacement.

- Problem: Is y(t) = x(2t) a stable system?
- Solution: If  $|x(t)| \le B$   $\forall t$ , then certainly

$$|y(t)| = |x(2t)| \le B \quad \forall t$$

• Taking C = B in the definition then leads to the conclusion that the system is...



- Problem: Is  $y(t) = x(t) 3x(t 1)^2$  a stable system?
- Solution: If  $|x(t)| \le B \quad \forall t$ , then

$$|y(t)| = |x(t) - 3x(t-1)^2|$$
  
 $\leq |x(t)| + |3x(t-1)^2| \leq B + 3B^2$ 

• Take  $C = B + 3B^2$ 

**STABLE** 

