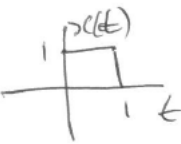



# Convolution

Week 4



# Convolution of two square pulses

convolution of  with 

$$x(t) = h(t) = \begin{cases} 1 & 0 \leq t < 1 \\ 0 & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}$$

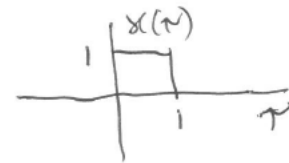
$$y(t) = x(t) * h(t).$$

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

We want to compute  $y(t)$  at some fixed time  $t$   
integrate  $x(\tau) h(t-\tau)$  with  $\tau$  the dummy  
variable of integration



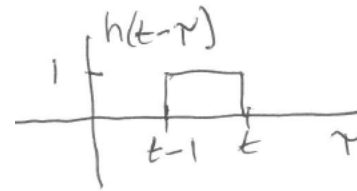
lets think about  $x(\tau)$  &  $h(t-\tau)$  as functions  
of  $\tau$



what about  $h(t-\tau)$ ?

$$h(t) = \begin{cases} 1 & 0 \leq t < 1 \\ 0 & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}$$

$$\text{so } h(t-\tau) = \begin{cases} 1 & 0 \leq t-\tau < 1 \\ 0 & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}$$



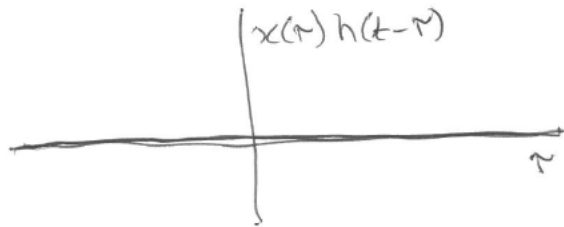
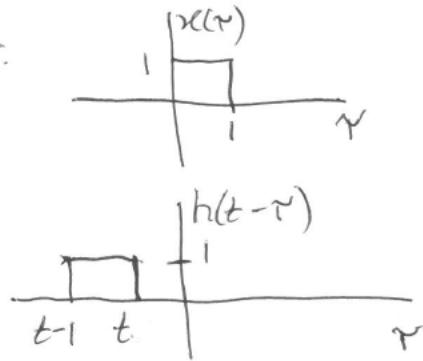
$$= \begin{cases} 1 & t-1 \leq \tau < t \\ 0 & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}$$



What does  $x(\tau)h(t-\tau)$  look like as a function of  $\tau$ ?

Answer: it depends on the value of  $t$

eg. when  $t < 0$ :



product function  
is zero for all  
values of  $\tau$

$$\therefore \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(\tau)h(t-\tau)d\tau = 0$$

in this case



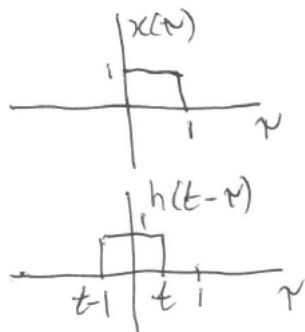
Think of trying to evaluate  $y(t)$  for different values of  $t$ .

For  $t < 0$ ,  $y(t) = 0$

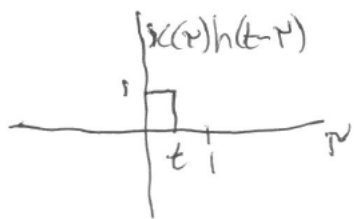
As  $t$  increases, square pulse  $h(t-\tau)$  moves to the right.



When  $0 < t < 1$  what happens?



product function  $x(τ)h(t-τ)$  is no longer identically zero  
(for ALL  $τ$ )



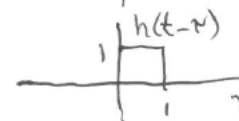
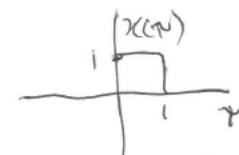
area under this  
function =  $t$

$$\text{So } \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(τ)h(t-τ)dτ = t$$

So, when  $0 < t < 1$ ,  $y(t) = t$

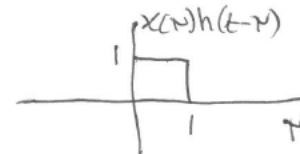


When  $t=1$  what happens?

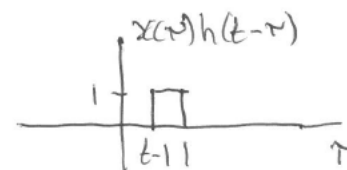
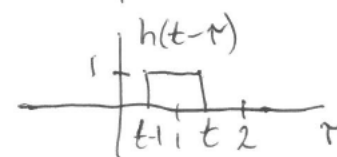


area under this function  
= 1

So,  $y(1) = 1$



what happens for  $1 < t < 2$ ?

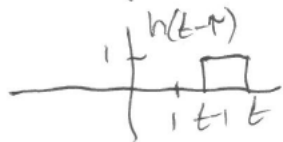
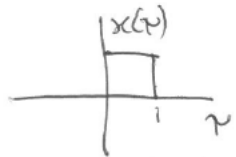


Area under this  
function =  $1 - (t-1)$   
=  $2-t$

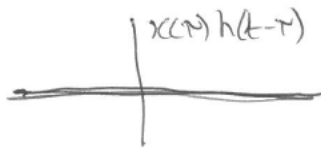
So, when  $1 < t < 2$ ,  $y(t) = 2-t$



For  $t > 2$ :



~~area~~



area = 0

so  $y(t) = 0$

$y(t) =$

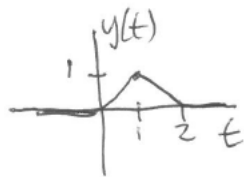
$$\begin{cases} 0 & t < 0 \\ t & 0 \leq t < 1 \\ 2-t & 1 \leq t < 2 \\ 0 & t \geq 2 \end{cases}$$

$t < 0$

$0 \leq t < 1$

$1 \leq t < 2$

$t \geq 2$



This is convolution  
of  $x(t)$  with  $h(t)$



# Convolution of square pulse with exponential

equation for  $h(t)$ :

start with

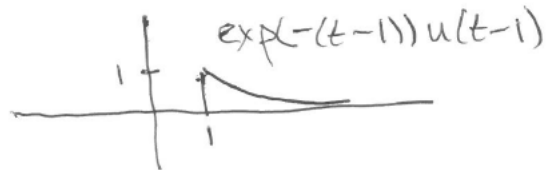


chop off values for  $t < 0$

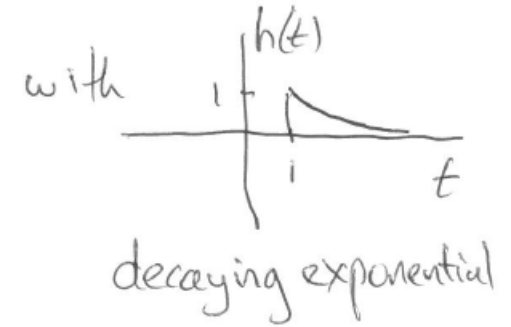
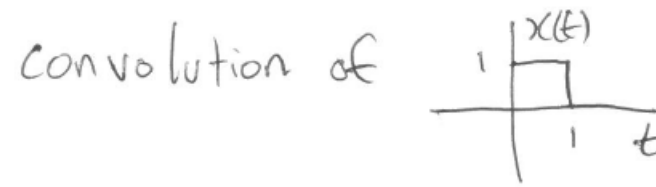


now delay signal by 1 sec

recall:  $t \rightarrow t-1$



so  $h(t) = \exp(-(t-1))u(t-1)$



convolution:

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



what is  $h(t-\tau)$  as a function of  $\tau$ ?

replace  $t$  with  $t-\tau$  in equation for  $h(t)$

$$h(t) = \exp(-(t-1)) u(t-1)$$

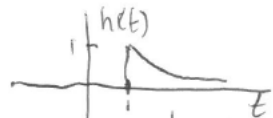
$$\begin{aligned} h(t-\tau) &= \exp(-((t-\tau)-1)) u((t-\tau)-1) \\ &= \exp(-((t-1)-\tau)) u((t-1)-\tau) \end{aligned}$$

lets draw  $h(t-\tau)$ .

note:  $h(1) = 1$  ( $h(t)$  jumps to 1 at  $t=1$ )

so when  $\tau = t-1$ ,  $h(t-\tau) = 1$  also

(\* why?  $h(t-\tau) = h(t-(t-1)) = h(1) = 1$  \*)



when  $\tau > t-1$ ,  $u((t-1)-\tau) = 0$

(\* why? when  $\tau > t-1$ ,  $(t-1)-\tau < 0$

so  $u((t-1)-\tau) = 0$  \*)

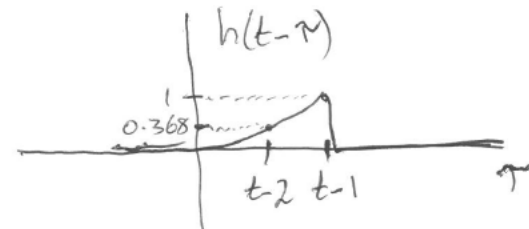
so  $h(t-\tau) = 0$  in this case.

when  $\tau < t-1$ ,  $u((t-1)-\tau) = 1$

so  $h(t-\tau) = \exp(-((t-1)-\tau))$  in this case,

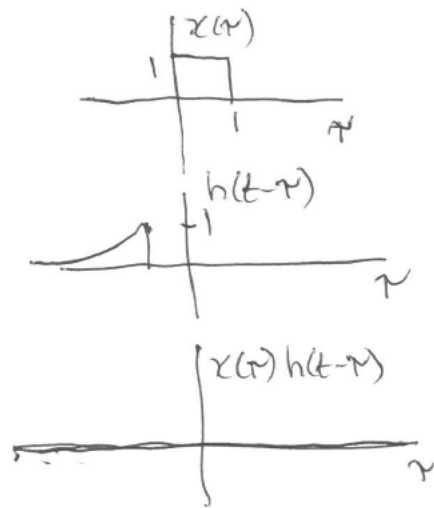
eg if  $\tau = t-2$ ,  $h(t-\tau) = \exp(-1) \approx 0.368$

(\* why?  $(t-1)-\tau = (t-1)-(t-2) = 1$  \*)



now lets draw  $x(\tau)h(t-\tau)$  for different values of  $t$ .

When  $t < 1$ , we have  $t-1 < 0$



$$x(\tau)h(t-\tau) = 0$$

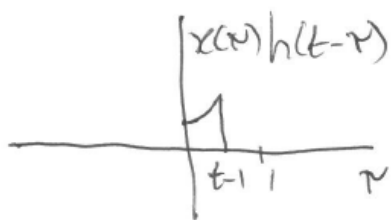
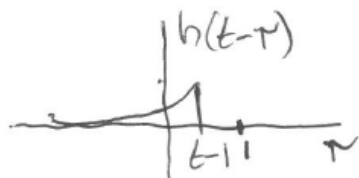
for all  $\tau$

$$\therefore y(t) = 0$$





when  $1 < t < 2$ , we have  $0 < t-1 < 1$



$y(t)$  = area under this function



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

$$= \int_0^{t-1} 1 \cdot \exp(-((t-1)-\tau)) d\tau$$

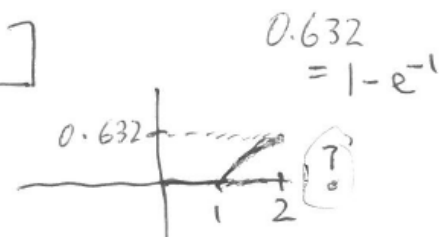
$$= \int_0^{t-1} \exp(-(t-1)) \exp(\tau) d\tau$$

$$= \exp(-(t-1)) \int_0^{t-1} \exp(\tau) d\tau$$

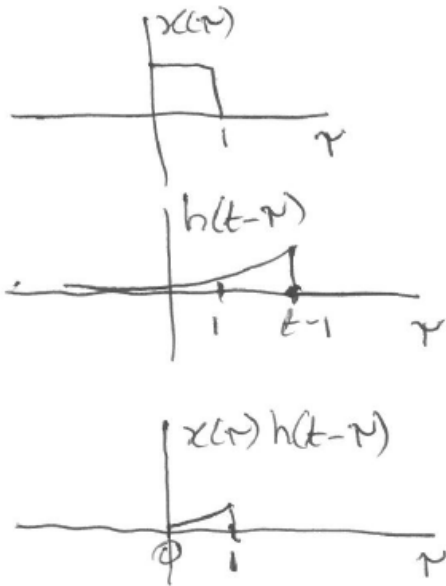
$$= \exp(-(t-1)) [\exp(\tau)]_0^{t-1}$$

$$= \exp(-(t-1)) [\exp(t-1) - 1]$$

$$= 1 - \exp(-(t-1))$$



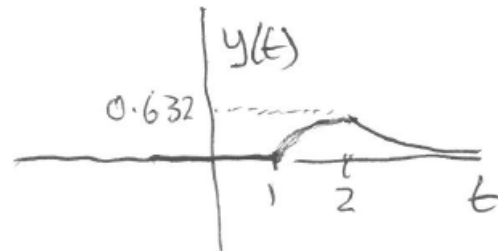
For  $t > 2$ , we have  $t-1 > 1$



$$\begin{aligned} y(t) &= \int_0^1 1 \cdot \exp(-((t-1)-\tau)) d\tau \\ &= \exp(-(t-1)) \int_0^1 \exp(\tau) d\tau \\ &= \exp(-(t-1)) (\exp(1) - 1) \end{aligned}$$

$$y(2) = 1 - \exp(-1) \approx 0.632$$

$$y(t) \downarrow 0 \text{ as } t \uparrow \infty$$



this is convolution  
of  $x(t)$  with  $h(t)$

## Linear Time-invariant Systems and Convolution

Recall, if we have a L.T.I. system with impulse response  $h(t)$ , then the output signal  $y(t)$  from an input signal  $x(t)$  can be computed via convolution:

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

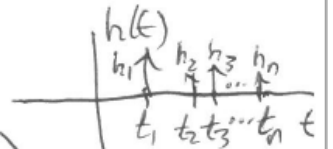
So, convolution is the way to think about L.T.I. systems in the time domain.



L.T.I. Systems are pretty simple when

$h(t)$  is just a train of impulses

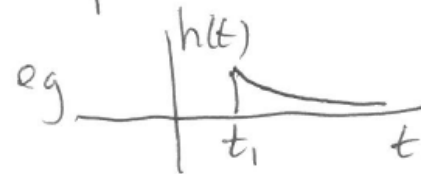
ie when  $h(t) = \sum_{i=1}^n h_i \delta(t-t_i)$



then  $y(t) = x(t) * h(t) = \sum_{i=1}^n h_i x(t-t_i)$

But outputs of L.T.I. systems are harder to

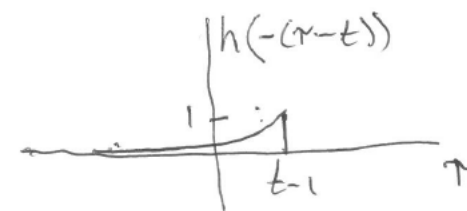
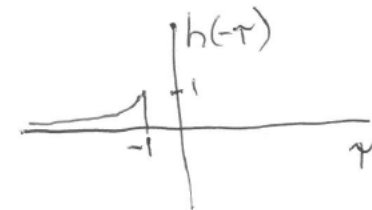
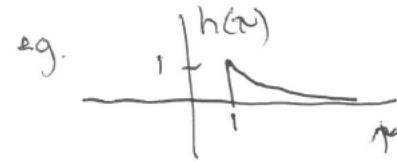
compute when  $h(t)$  is a continuous signal



eg. as we've just seen.  
Proceed as above!

# Convolution: time flip and time shift method

Optional extra: we can obtain  $h(t-\tau)$  – as a function of  $\tau$  – by flip & shift method

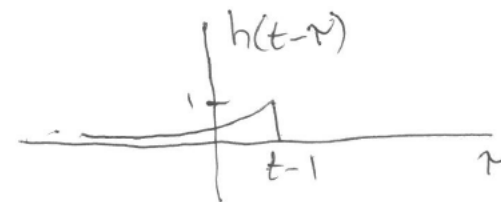


flip time direction  
ie. reverse time  
 $\tau \rightarrow -\tau$

now delay signal  
by  $t$  sec  
 $\Leftrightarrow$  shift it right by  
 $t$  sec  
 $\Leftrightarrow \tau \rightarrow \tau - t$

But note that  $-(\tau - t) = t - \tau$

so the above graph ~~is~~ can equivalently  
be labelled  $h(t-\tau)$



# Frequency Domain View of Signals

Periodic signals can be decomposed as sums of complex sinusoids (Fourier Series)

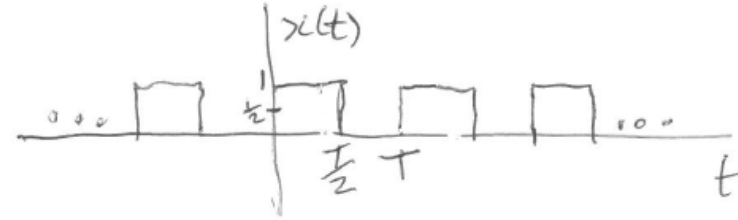
Very simple examples are:

$$\cos(\omega_0 t) = \frac{1}{2} \exp(-j\omega_0 t) + \frac{1}{2} \exp(j\omega_0 t)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \sin(\omega_0 t) &= \frac{1}{2j} (\exp(j\omega_0 t) - \exp(-j\omega_0 t)) \\ &= \frac{j}{2} \exp(-j\omega_0 t) - \frac{j}{2} \exp(j\omega_0 t) \end{aligned}$$

Surprisingly, we can do this for any periodic signal!

eg. periodic square wave



fundamental frequency is  $\omega_0 = \frac{2\pi}{T}$  rad/sec

This signal has a sinusoidal component at frequency  $-\omega_0$  rad/sec & at  $+\omega_0$  rad/sec

It also has sinusoidal components at  $-k\omega_0$  &  $+k\omega_0$  rad/sec for all integers  $k=0,1,2,\dots$



These components are called harmonics.

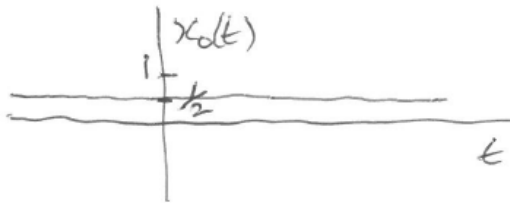
The 1<sup>st</sup> harmonic is the fundamental frequency

All periodic signals are like this!

To see this, consider approximating  $x(t)$  with sinusoids

The zeroth order approximation is

$$x_0(t) = \frac{1}{2} \text{ for all } t \quad \left( \begin{array}{l} \text{* this is the} \\ \text{average value} \\ \text{of } x(t) \text{ *} \end{array} \right)$$

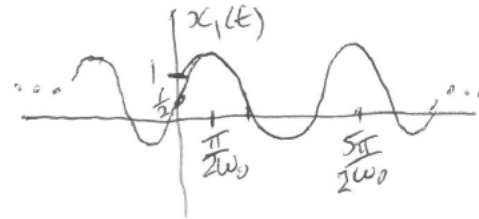


↑  
periodic  
square  
wave  
signal

The 1<sup>st</sup> order approximation adds in a sinusoid

$$x_1(t) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{2}{\pi} \sin(\omega_0 t)$$

$$= \frac{j}{\pi} \exp(-j\omega_0 t) + \frac{1}{2} - \frac{j}{\pi} \exp(j\omega_0 t)$$

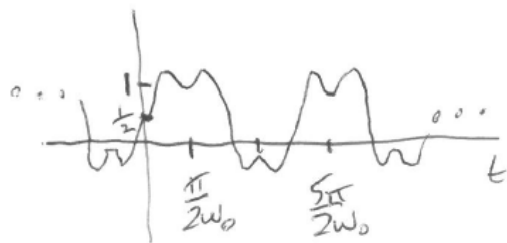


For the next level of approximation, we add in 3<sup>rd</sup> harmonic (since 2<sup>nd</sup> harmonic is not present in  $x(t)$ ) i.e. frequencies  $-3\omega_0$  &  $3\omega_0$  rad/sec

$$x_3(t) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{2}{\pi} \sin(\omega_0 t) + \frac{2}{3\pi} \sin(3\omega_0 t)$$

$$= \frac{j}{3\pi} \exp(-j3\omega_0 t) + \frac{j}{\pi} \exp(-j\omega_0 t) + \frac{1}{2}$$

$$+ \frac{j}{\pi} \exp(j\omega_0 t) - \frac{j}{3\pi} \exp(j3\omega_0 t)$$



starting to look abit like a periodic square wave!



In the limit of infinite harmonics, we get the Fourier Series for  $x(t)$

$$x(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} C_k \exp(jk\omega_0 t)$$

$$\text{where } C_k = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} & k=0 \\ 0 & k \text{ even, } k \neq 0 \\ -\frac{j}{k\pi} & k \text{ odd} \end{cases}$$

$C_k$  is the Fourier Series coefficient at harmonic  $k$

$$C_k = |C_k| \exp(j\phi_k)$$

$|C_k|$  is the magnitude of the  $k^{\text{th}}$  harmonic

$\phi_k$  is the phase of the  $k^{\text{th}}$  harmonic

$$x(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} |C_k| \exp(jk\omega_0 t + \phi_k)$$



## Fourier Decomposition when signal is real

If  $x(t)$  is a real-valued signal, then

$$|C_{-k}| = |C_k| \quad \& \quad \arg(C_{-k}) = -\arg(C_k)$$

$$\Rightarrow x(t) = 2 \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} |C_k| \cos(\omega_k t + \phi_k)$$

In fact, in this case,  $C_{-k} = C_k^*$   
(complex conjugates)

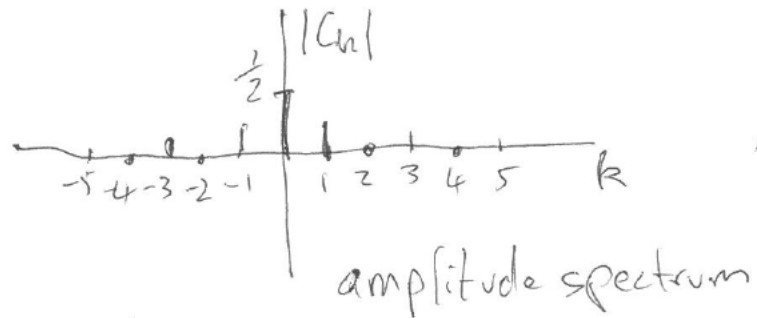




# Amplitude and Phase Spectrum

We can plot the amplitude spectrum & the phase spectrum of  $x(t)$

$$|C_k| = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} & k=0 \\ 0 & k \text{ even, } k \neq 0 \\ \frac{1}{|k\pi|} & k \text{ odd} \end{cases}$$

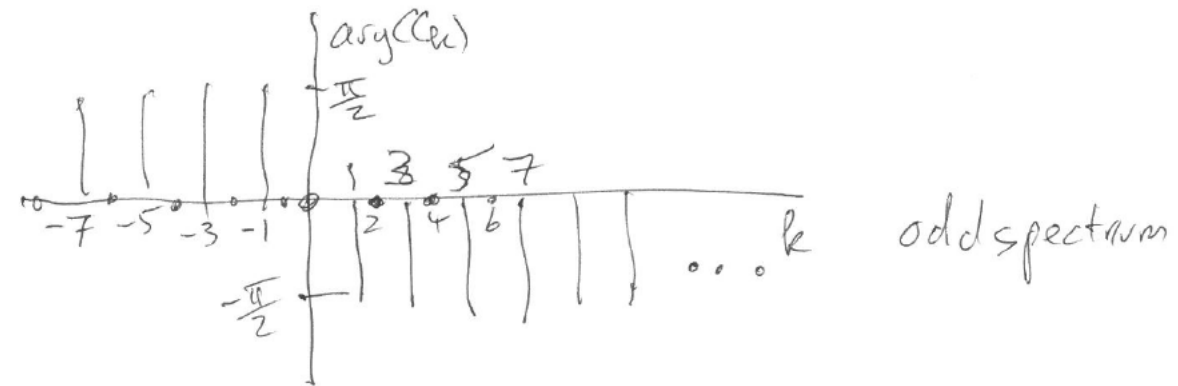


even spectrum

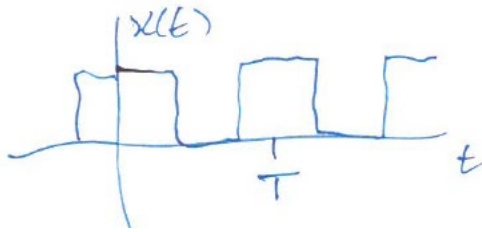


phase spectrum  $C_k = \frac{-j}{k\pi}$   $k$  odd

$$\arg(C_k) = \begin{cases} 0 & k \text{ even} \\ -\pi/2 & k \text{ odd, } k > 0 \\ \pi/2 & k \text{ odd, } k < 0 \end{cases}$$



# Fourier Series: amplitude and phase



$$\omega_0 = \frac{2\pi}{T}$$

Fourier series, Fourier coefficients, and time domain representation:

$$x(t) = \sum_n C_n \exp(j n \omega_0 t)$$

$$C_n = |C_n| \exp(j \theta_n)$$

$$x(t) = \sum_n |C_n| \exp(j(n \omega_0 t + \theta_n))$$

amplitude

phase



The Fourier Series expands the signal  $x(t)$  in terms of a basis of signals made up of complex sinusoids

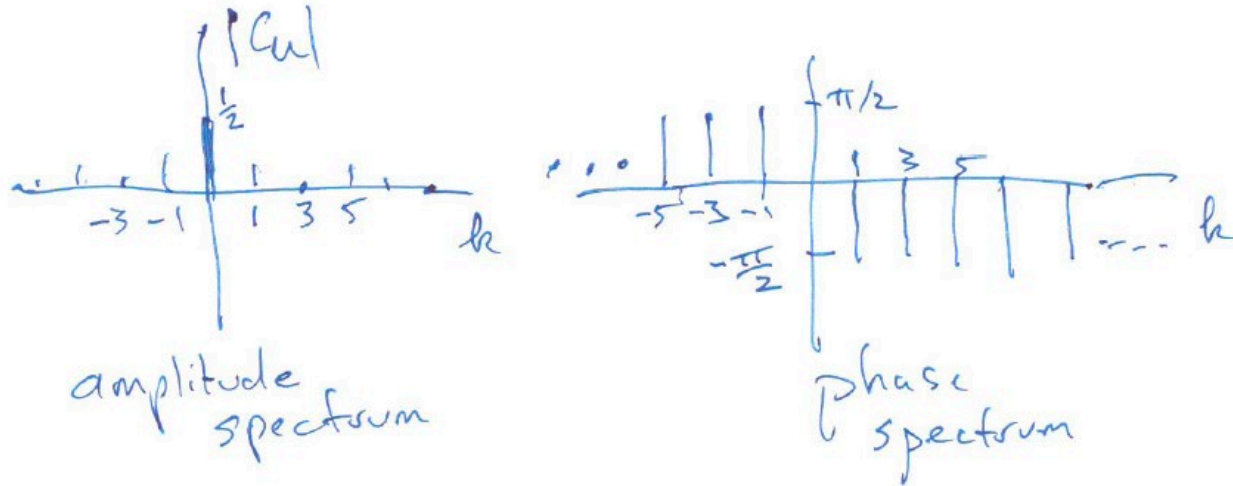
The coefficients of the signal with respect to that basis are the Fourier coefficients

The basis signals are all sinusoids with frequencies restricted to be harmonics of the fundamental frequency  $\omega_0$  rad/sec

$$\exp(j n \omega_0 t)$$

The amplitude and phase spectrum provides the amplitude and phase of the components across all the frequencies in the expansion

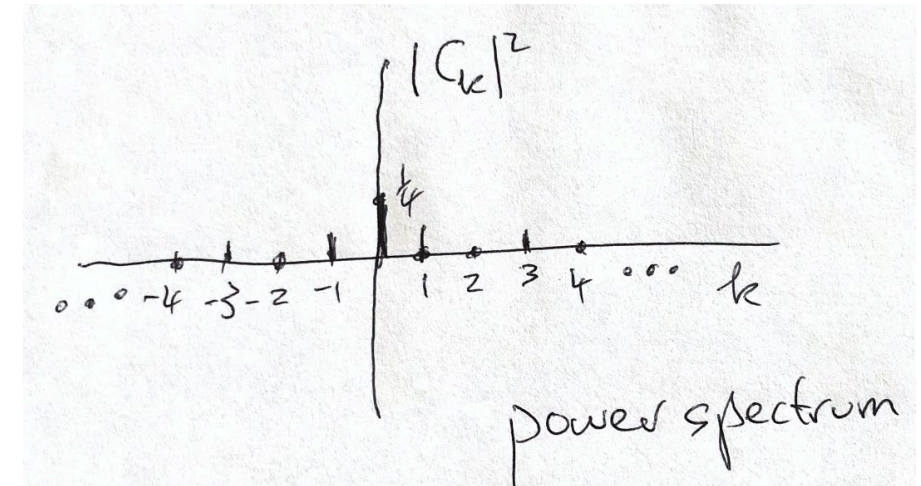
## Amplitude and Phase Spectrum




Amplitude coefficient:

$$|C_k| = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} & k=0 \\ 0 & k \text{ even}, k \neq 0 \\ \frac{1}{|k|\pi} & k \text{ odd} \end{cases}$$

## Power Spectrum



Power coefficient:



$$|C_k|^2 = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{4} & k=0 \\ 0 & k \text{ even}, k \neq 0 \\ \frac{1}{(k\pi)^2} & k \text{ odd} \end{cases}$$