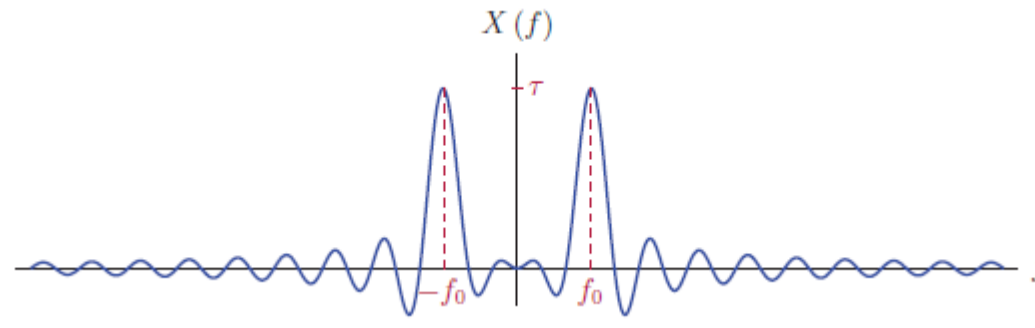


CEDC403: Signals and Systems

Lecture Notes 1: Signal Representation and Modeling: Part A



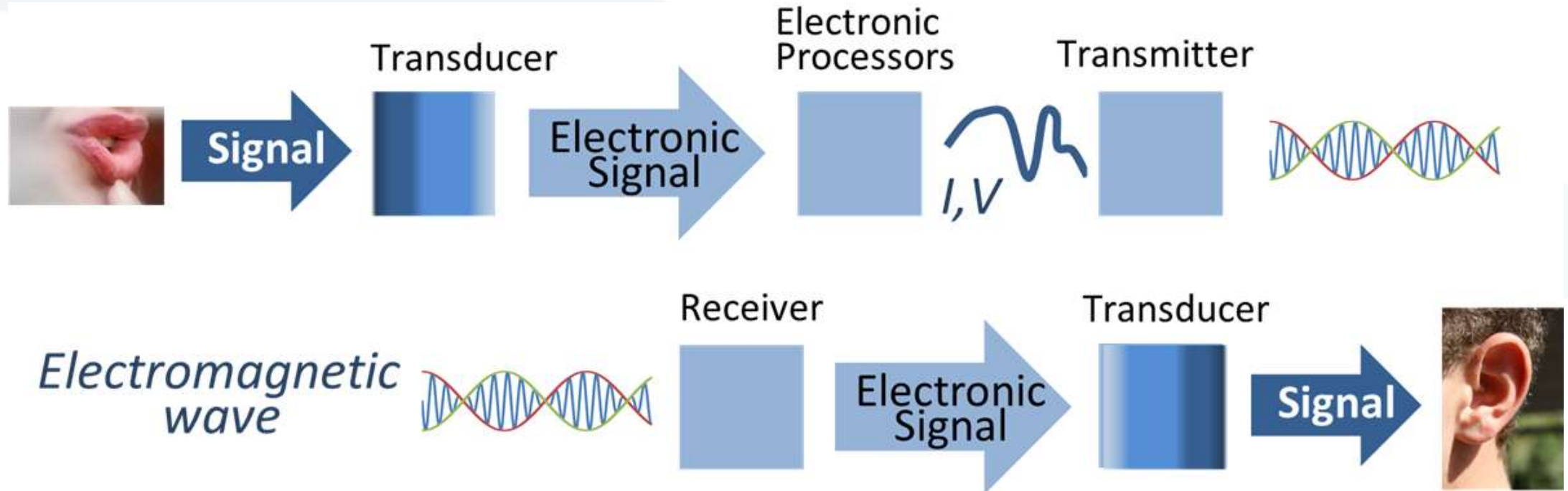
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Chapter 1

Signal Representation and Modeling

1. Introduction
2. Signals and Systems
3. Mathematical Modeling of Signals
4. Continuous-Time Signals
5. Discrete-Time Signals

1. Introduction



- The broadcast example (a commentator in a radio broadcast studio) includes **acoustic**, **electrical** and **electromagnetic** signals.

2. Signals and Systems

- A **signal** is a function of one or more variables that conveys information about some (usually physical) phenomenon.
- **independent variable** = time, space, ...
- **dependent variable** = the function value itself.
- Some examples of signals include:
 - a voltage or current in an electronic circuit.
 - the position, velocity, or acceleration of an object.
 - a force or torque in a mechanical system.
 - a flow rate of a liquid or gas in a chemical process.
 - a digital image, digital video, or digital audio.

Classification of Signals

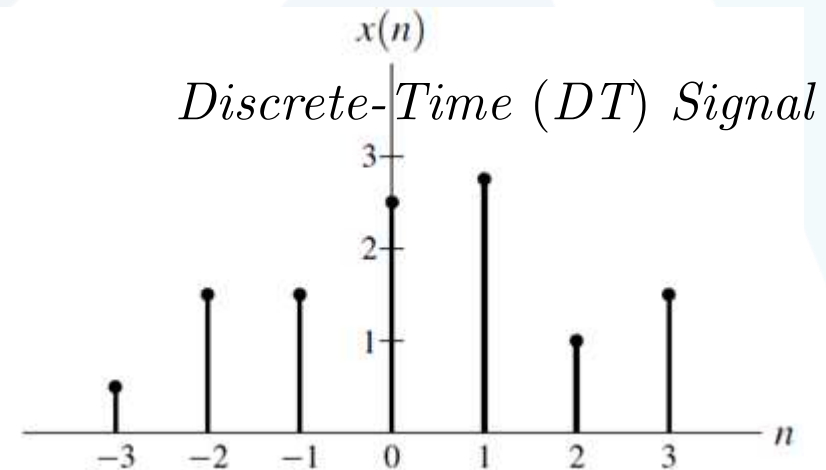
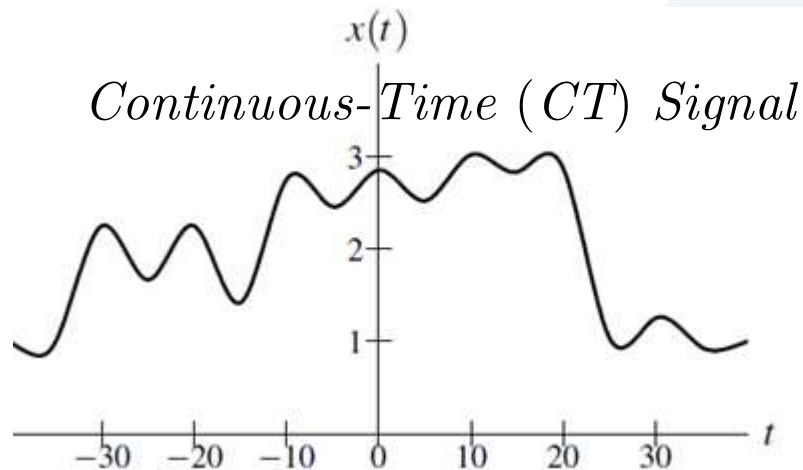
- Number of independent variables (dimensionality):
 - A signal with **one** independent variable is said to be **one dimensional** (audio).
 - A signal with **more than one** independent variable is said to be **multi-dimensional** (image).
- Continuous or discrete independent variables:
 - A signal with **continuous** independent variables is said to be **continuous time (CT)** (voltage waveform). The signal is defined for all values of the independent variable t .
 - A signal with **discrete** independent variables is said to be **discrete time (DT)** (stock market index). The signal is defined only at discrete values of time.

- Continuous or discrete dependent variable:
 - A signal with a **continuous** dependent variable is said to be **continuous valued** (voltage). A **continuous-valued CT** signal is said to be **analog**.
 - A signal with a **discrete** dependent variable is said to be **discrete valued** (digital image). A **discrete-valued DT** signal is said to be **digital**.
- Deterministic or random signals:
 - A signal whose physical description is known completely, in either a **mathematical** form or a **graphical** form, is a **deterministic signal**.
 - A signal whose values cannot be predicted precisely but are known only in terms of **probabilistic** description, such as **mean** value or **mean-squared** value, is a **random signal**.

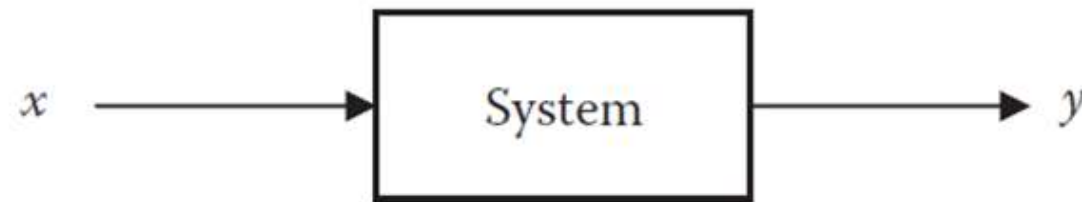
■ Periodic and Nonperiodic Signals

- A **periodic signal** is one that repeats itself. A CT signal $x(t)$ is said to be periodic with **period** T if $x(t) = x(t + T)$ for all t (where t is a real number). Likewise, a DT signal $x[n]$ is said to be **periodic** with **period** N if $x[n] = x[n + N]$ for all n (where n is an integer).

Graphical Representation of Signals

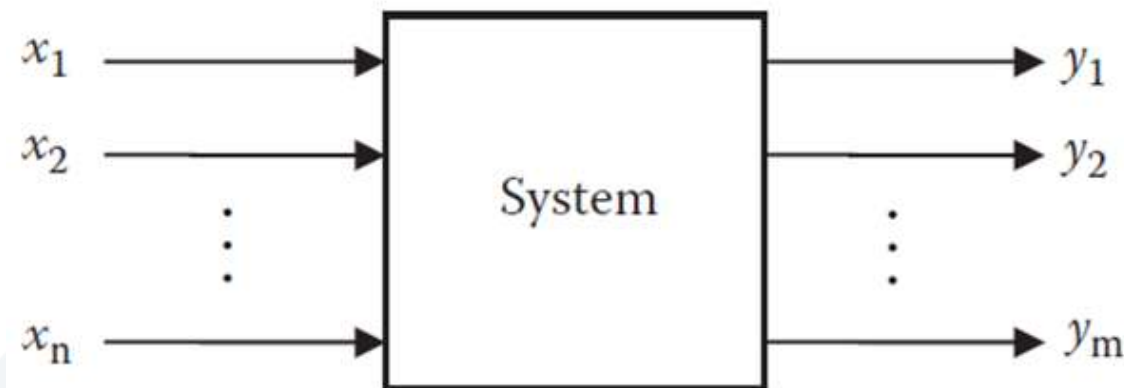


- A **system** is an entity that processes one or more input signals in order to produce one or more output signals.



system with single-input and single-output

Input Signals



Output Signals

system with many inputs and outputs

Classification of Systems

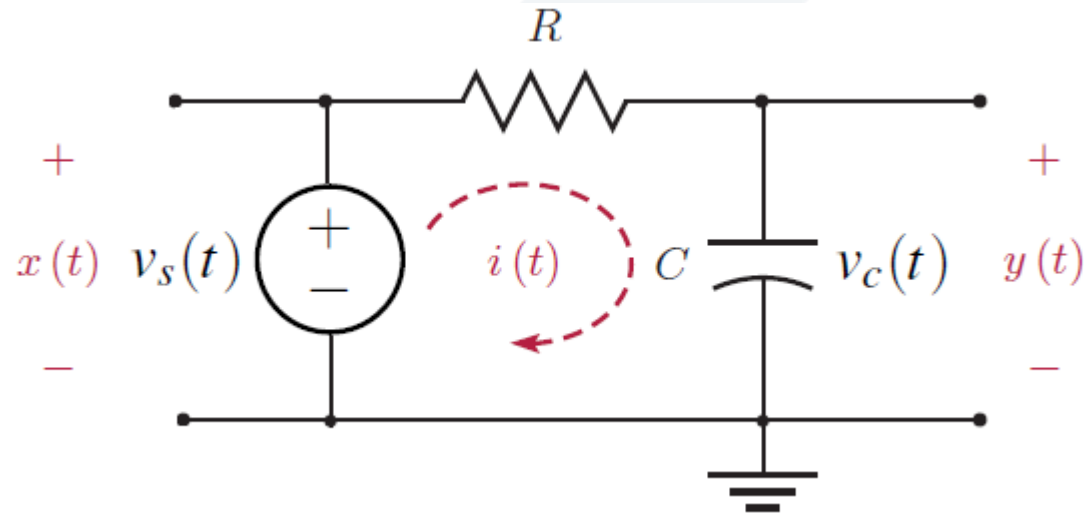
- Number of Inputs:
 - A system with **one** input is said to be **single input (SI)**.
 - A system with **more than one** input is said to be **multiple input (MI)**.
- Number of outputs:
 - A system with **one** output is said to be **single output (SO)**.
 - A system with **more than one** output is said to be **multiple output (MO)**.
- Types of signals processed: A system can be classified in terms of the **types of signals** that it processes:
 - A system that deals with **continuous-time** signals is called a **CT system**.
 - A system that deals with **discrete-time** signals is said to be a **DT system**.

- A system that handles both **continuous-** and **discrete-time** signals, is sometimes referred to as a **hybrid system**.
- A system that deal with **digital** signals are referred to as **digital**.
- A system that handle **analog** signals are referred to as **analog**.
- A system interacts with **one dimensional** signals, the system is referred to as **one-dimensional**.
- A system handles **multi-dimensional** signals, the system is said to be **multi-dimensional**.
- Causal and Noncausal Systems:
 - A **causal system** is one whose present response does not depend on the future values of the input.

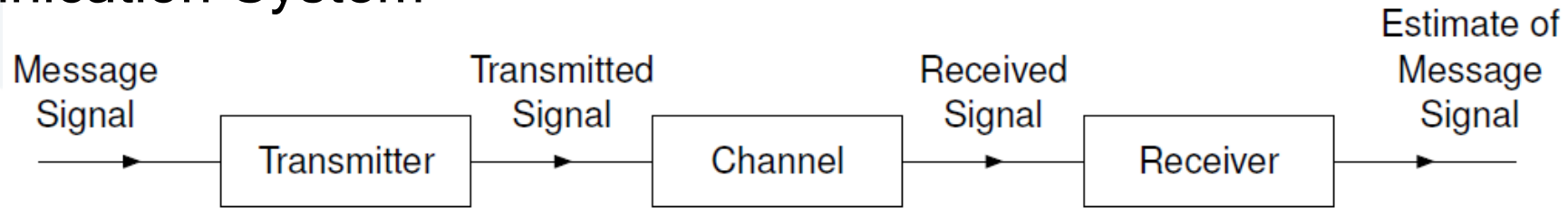
- Linear and Nonlinear Systems.
- Time-Varying and Time-Invariant Systems:
 - A **time-varying system** is one whose parameters vary with time.
 - In a **time-invariant system**, a time shift (advance or delay) in the input signal leads to the time shift in the output signal.
- Systems with and without Memory:
 - A **memoryless system** (**static system**) is one in which the current output depends only on the current input; it does not depend on the **past** or **future** inputs.
 - A **system with memory** (**dynamic system**) is one in which the current output depends on the past and/or future input.

Examples of Systems:

- One very basic system is the resistor-capacitor (RC) network. Here, the input would be the source voltage v_s and the output would be the capacitor voltage v_c .

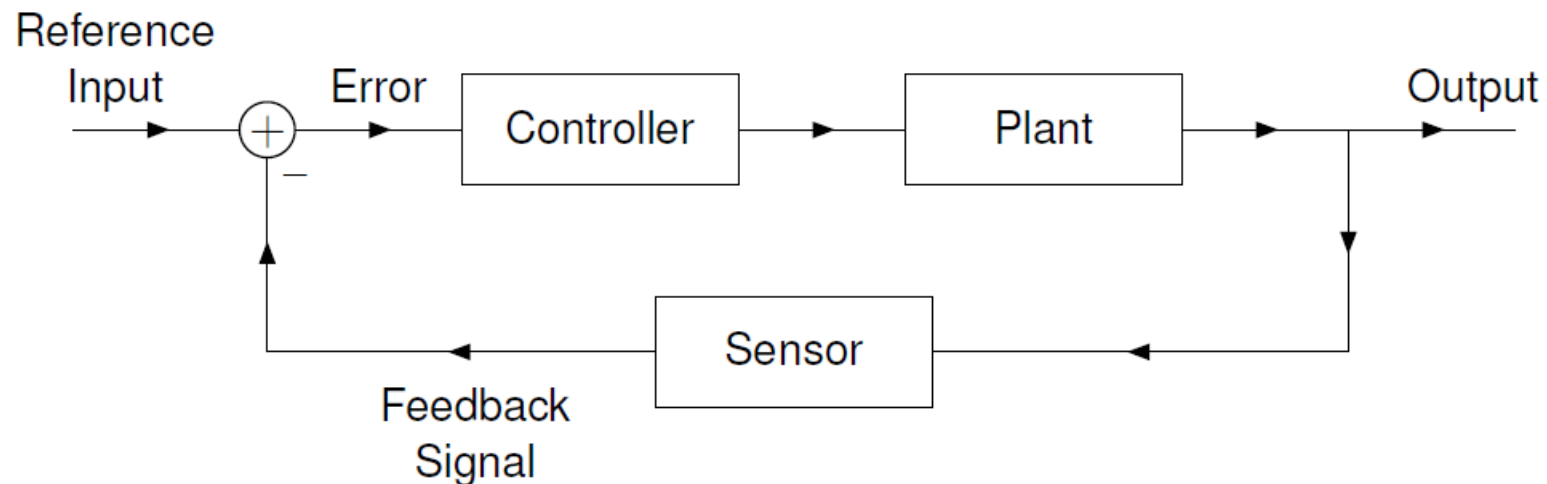


- Communication System



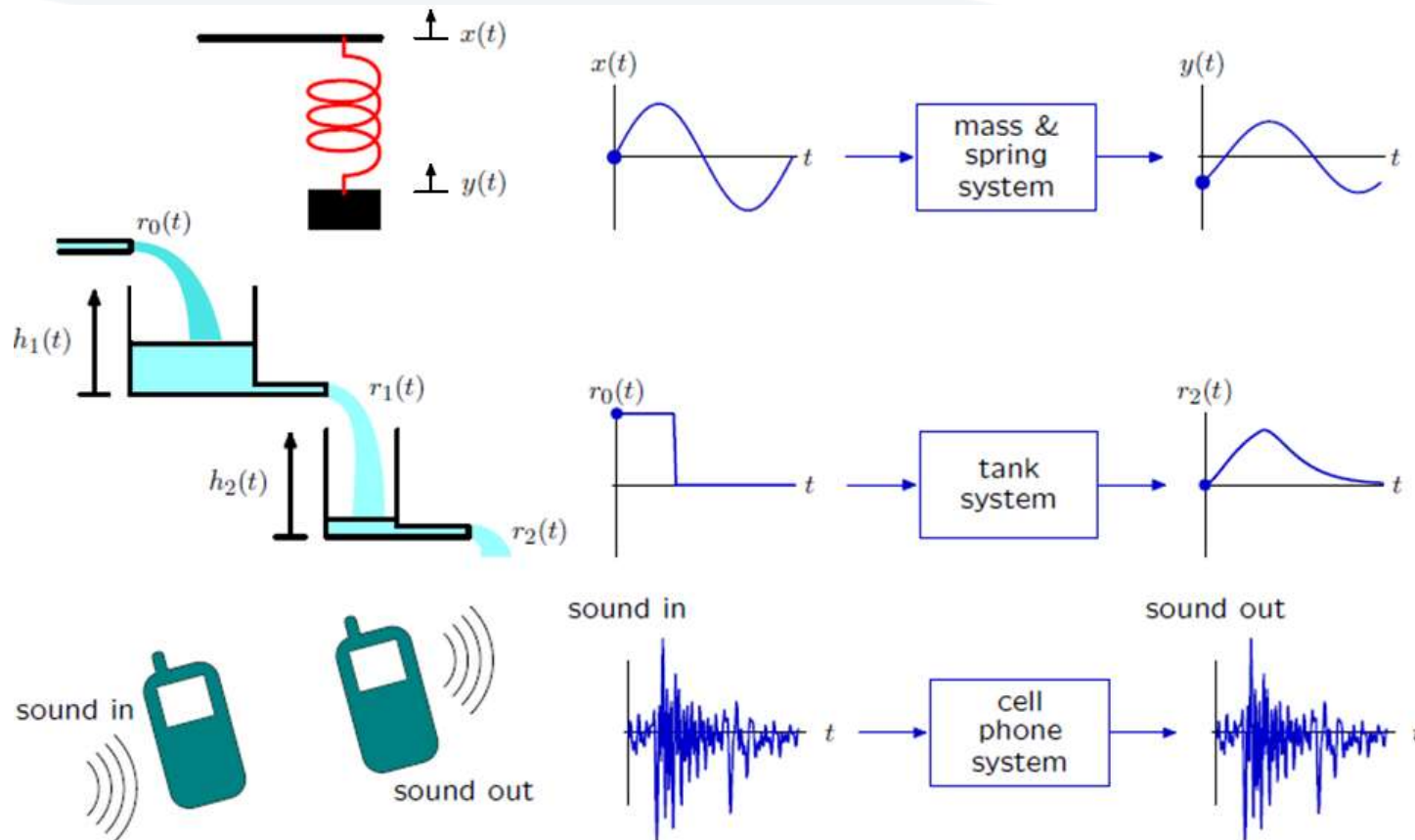
General Structure of a Communication System

- Feedback Control System



General Structure of a Feedback Control System

- The Signals and Systems approach has broad application: **electrical**, **mechanical**, **optical**, **acoustic**, **biological**, **financial**, ...

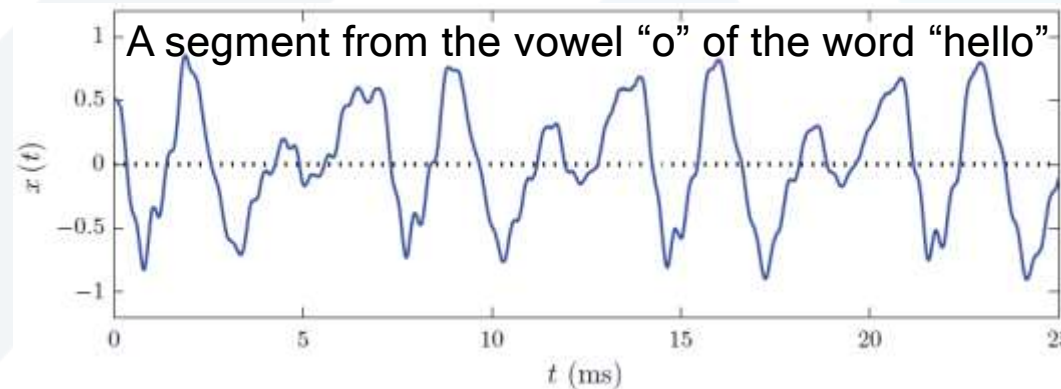
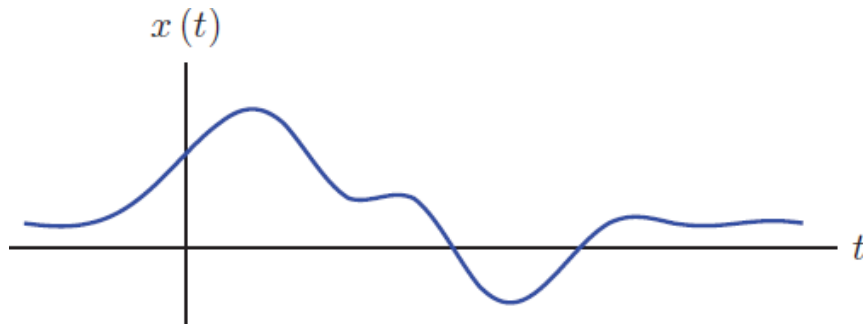


3. Mathematical Modeling of Signals

- Understand the characteristics of the signal in terms of its behavior in time and in terms of the frequencies it contains (**signal analysis**).
- Develop methods of creating signals with desired characteristics (**signal synthesis**).
- Understand how a system responds to a signal and why (**system analysis**).
- Develop methods of constructing a system that responds to a signal in some prescribed way (**system synthesis**).
- The **mathematical model** for a signal is in the form of a **formula**, **function**, **algorithm** or a **graph** that approximately describes the time variations of the physical signal.

4. Continuous-Time Signals

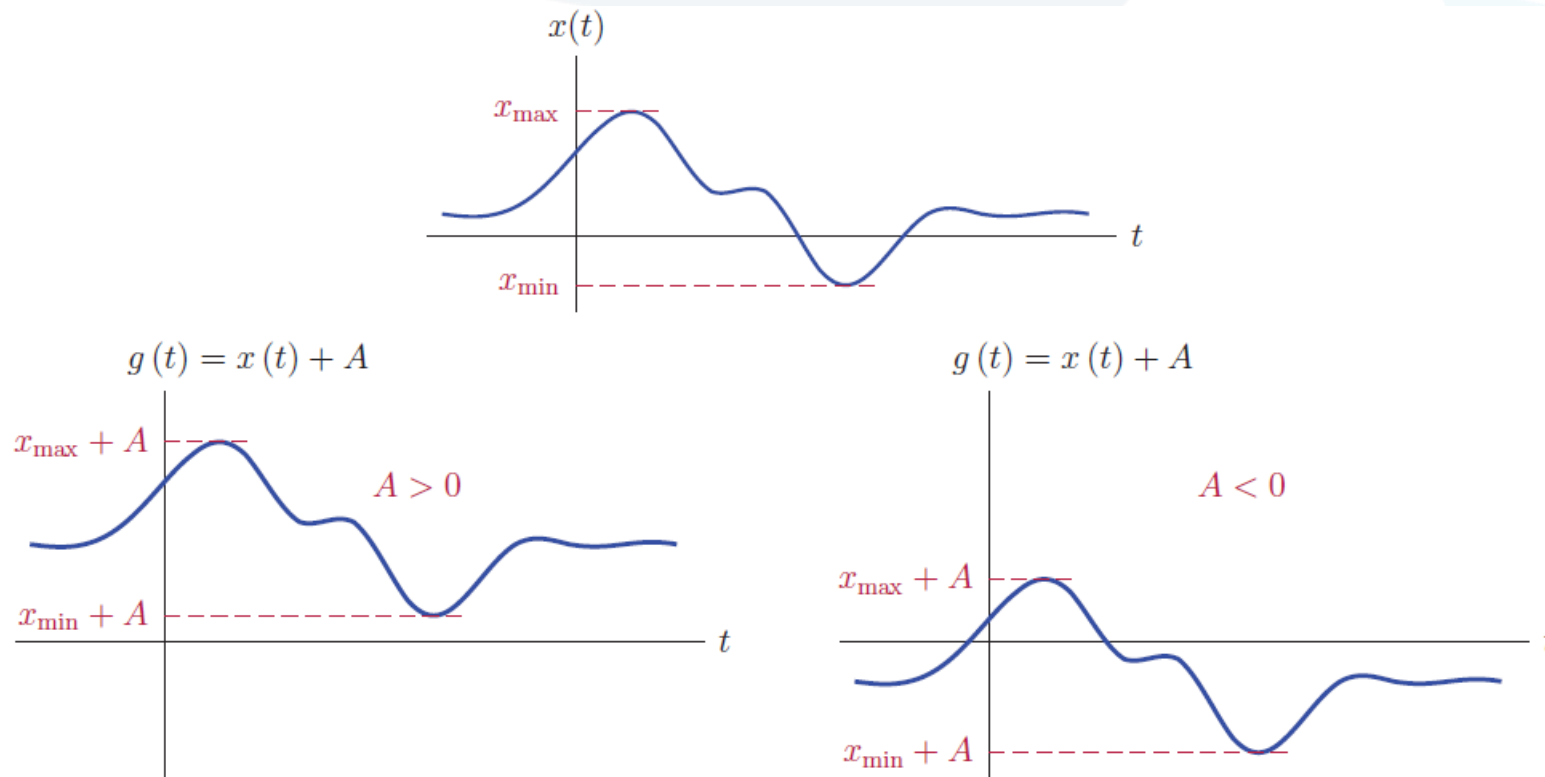
- Consider $x(t)$, a **mathematical function** of time chosen to approximate the strength of the physical quantity at the time instant t .
- The signal $x(t)$, is referred to as a **continuous-time signal** or an **analog signal**. t is the **independent variable**, and x is the **dependent variable**.



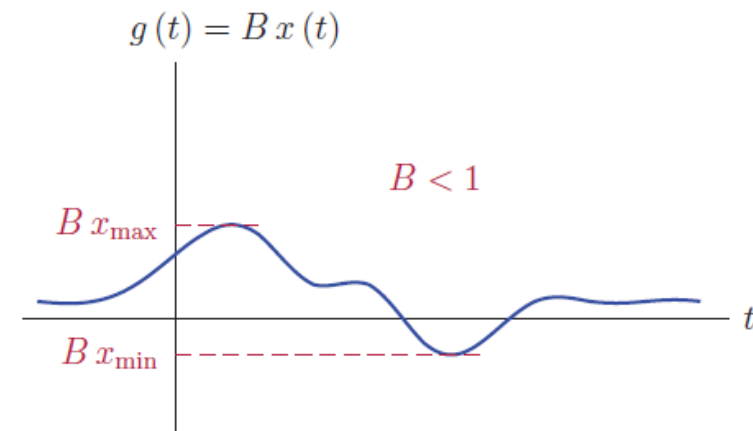
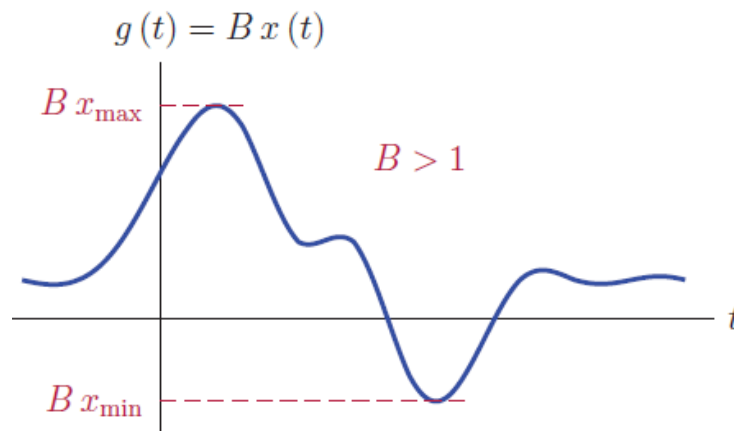
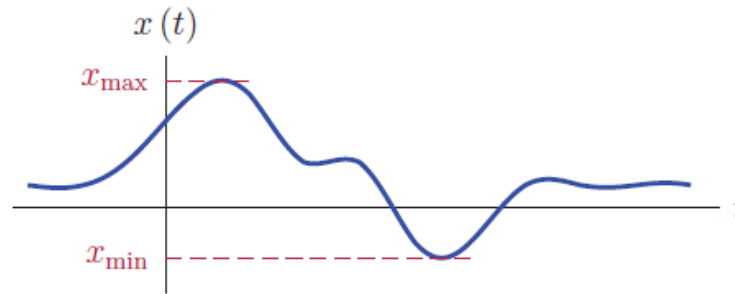
- Some signals can be described **analytically**. For ex., the function $x(t) = 5\sin(12t)$, or by segments as:
- $$x(t) = \begin{cases} e^{-3t} - e^{-5t}, & t \geq 0 \\ 0, & t < 0 \end{cases}$$

Signal operations

- **Amplitude shifting** maps the input signal x to the output signal g as given by $g(t) = x(t) + A$, where A is a real number.

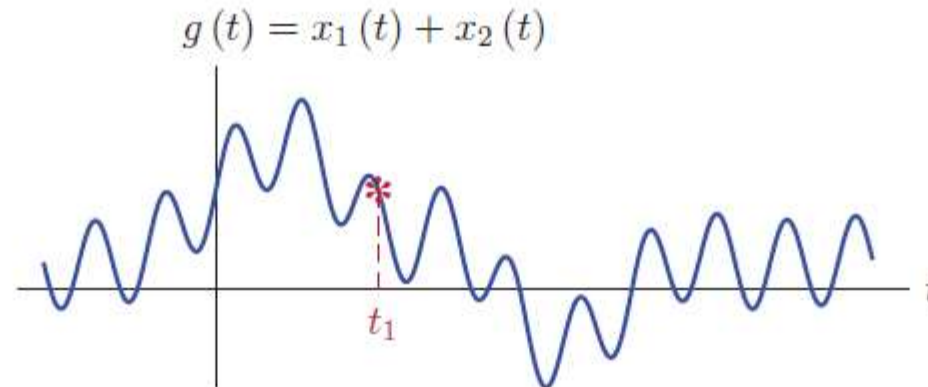
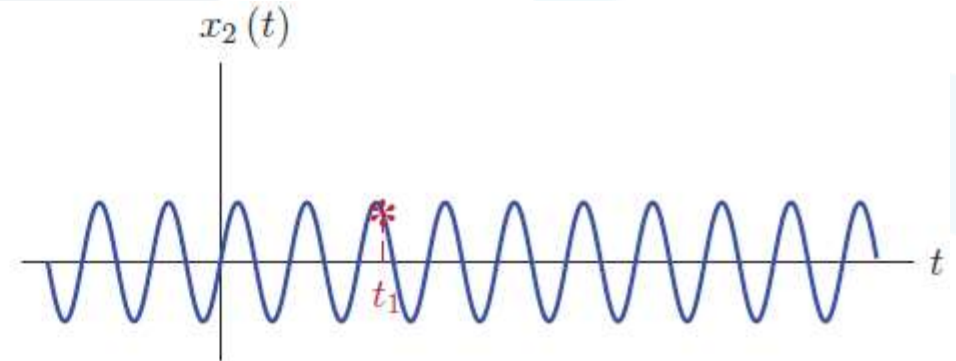
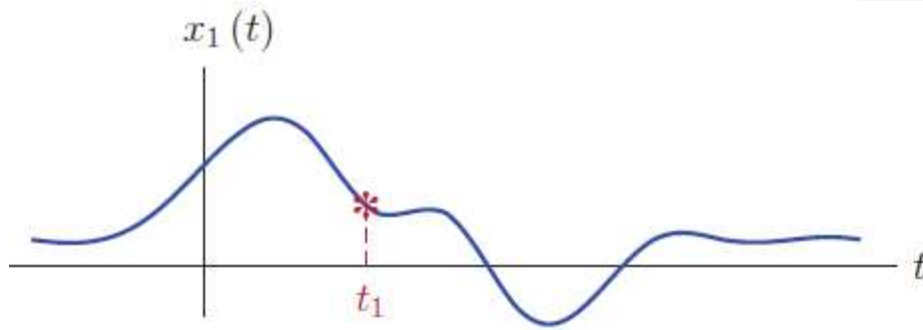


- **Amplitude scaling** maps the input signal x to the output signal g as given by $g(t) = Bx(t)$, where B is a real number.
- Geometrically, the output signal g is **expanded/compressed** in amplitude.

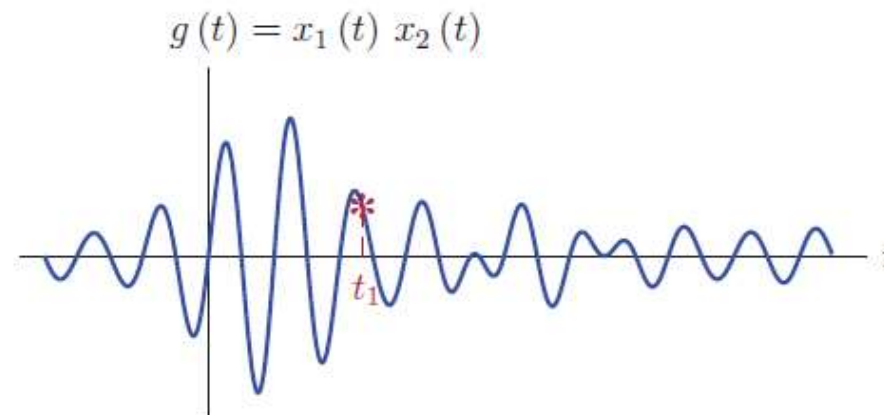
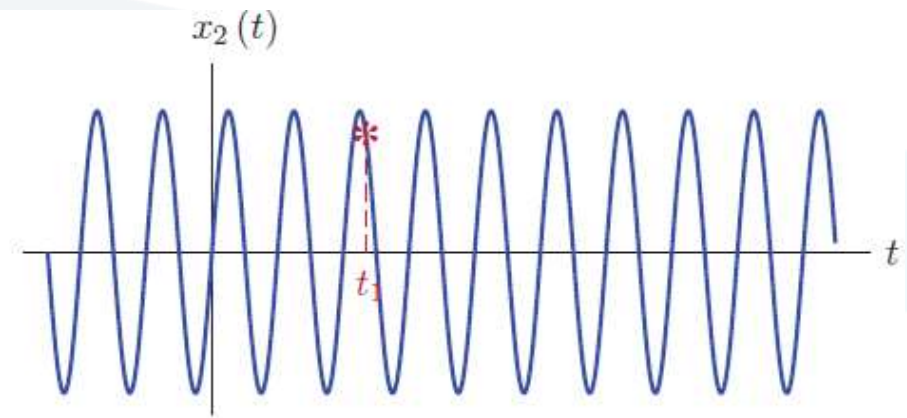
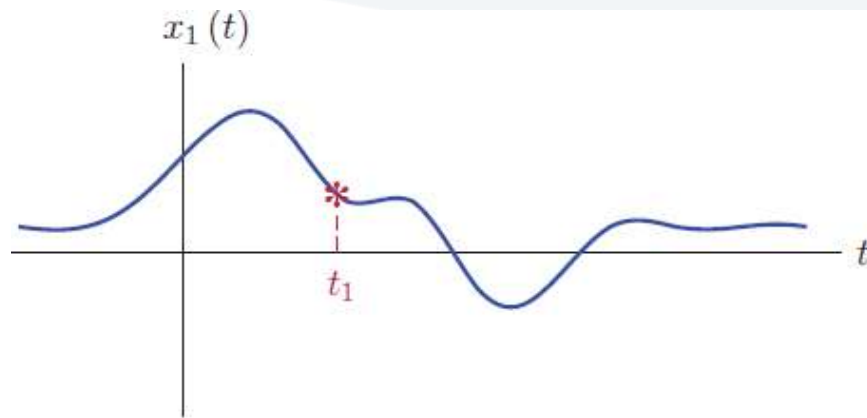


- **Addition and Multiplication** of two signals

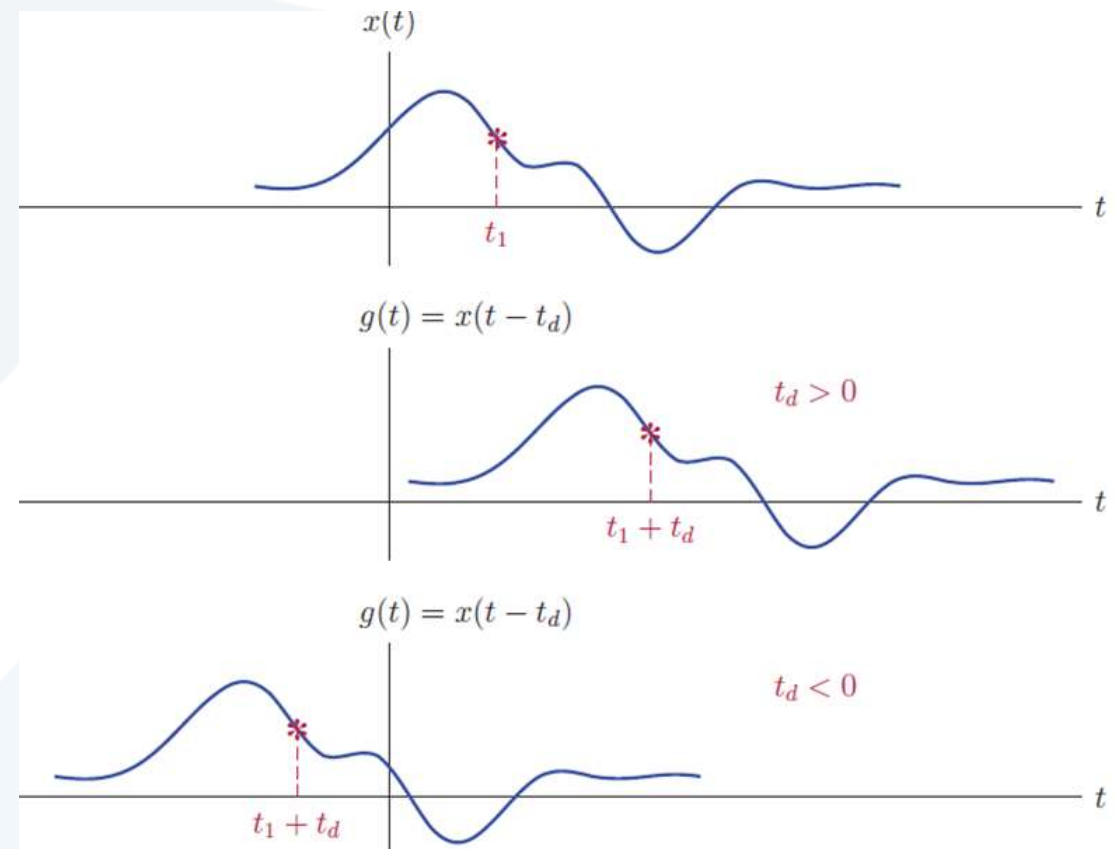
Addition of two signals is accomplished by adding the amplitudes of the two signals at each time instant. $g(t) = x_1(t) + x_2(t)$.



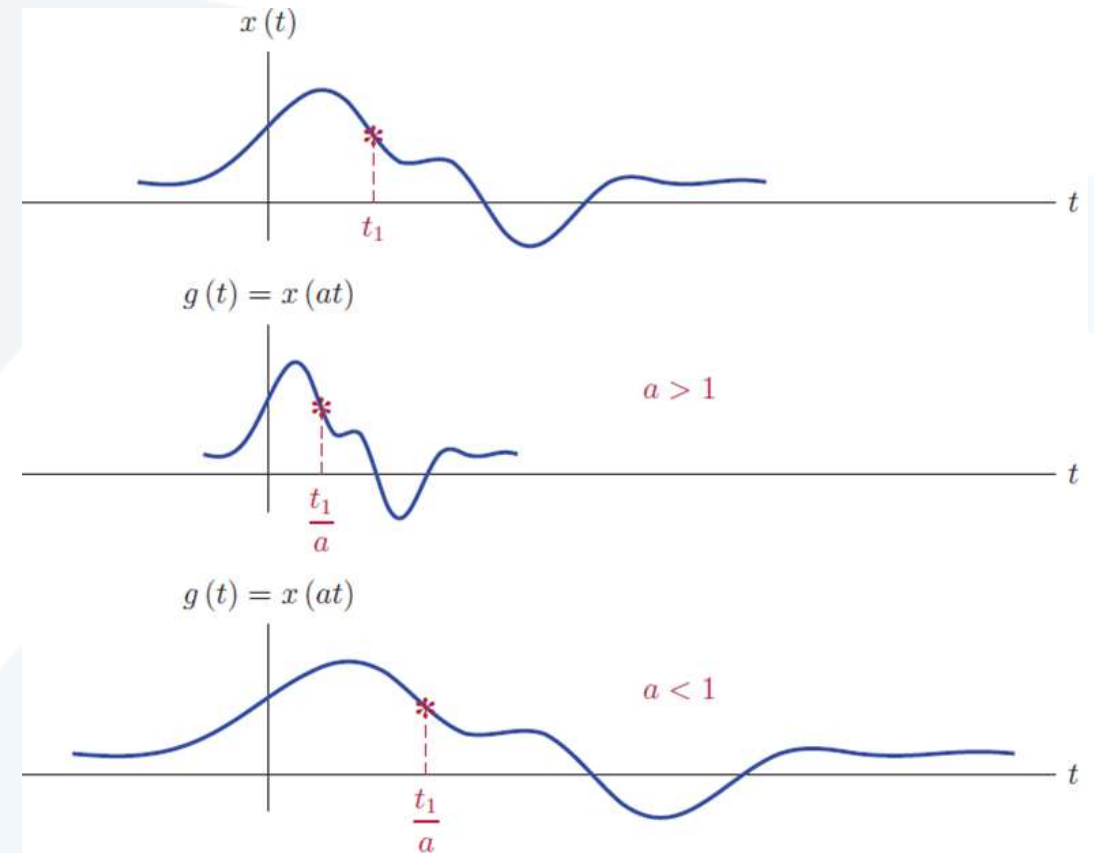
Multiplication of two signals is accomplished by multiplying the amplitudes of the two signals at each time instant. $g(t) = x_1(t) \cdot x_2(t)$.



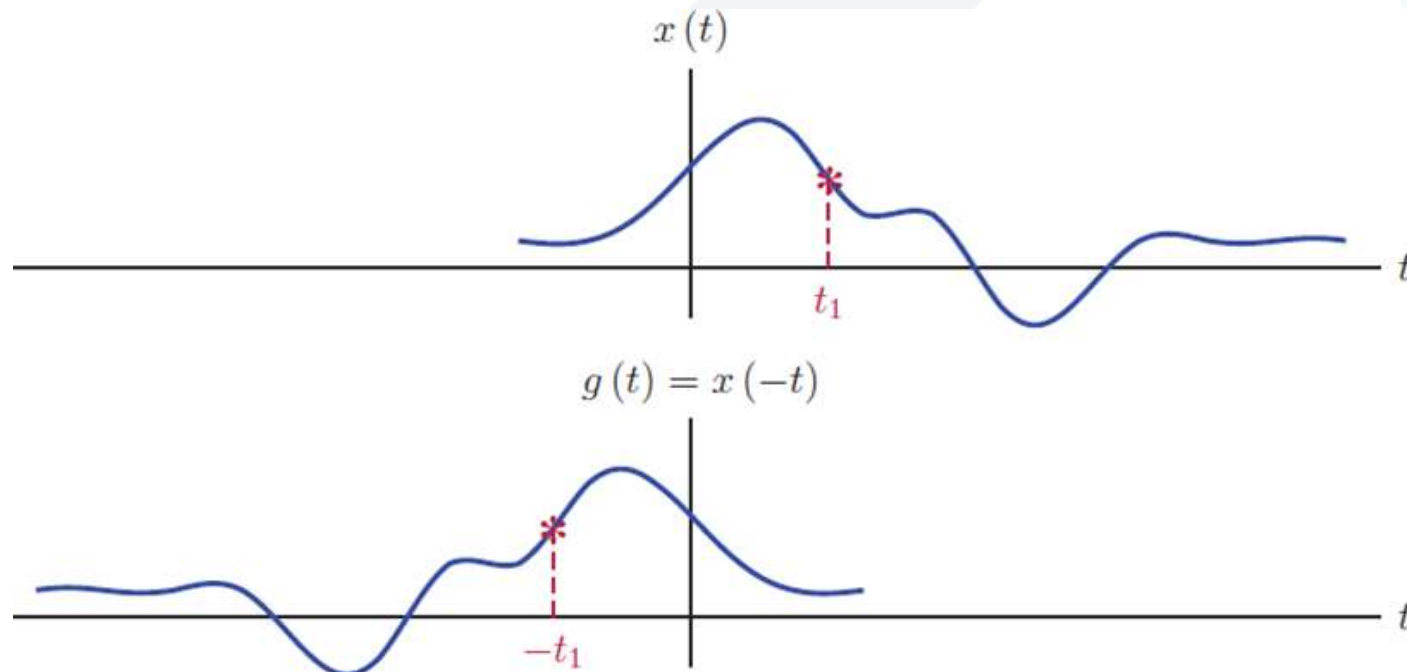
- **Time shifting** (also called **translation**) maps the input signal x to the output signal g as given by: $g(t) = x(t - t_d)$; where t_d is a real number.
- Such a transformation shifts the signal (to the left or right) along the time axis.
- If $t_d > 0$, g is **shifted to the right** by $|t_d|$, relative to x (i.e., delayed in time).
- If $t_d < 0$, g is **shifted to the left** by $|t_d|$, relative to x (i.e., advanced in time).



- **Time scaling** (also called **dilation**) maps the input signal x to the output signal g as given by: $g(t) = x(at)$; where a is a **strictly positive** real number.
- Such a transformation is associated with a compression/expansion along the time axis.
- If $a > 1$, g is **compressed** along the horizontal axis by a factor of a , relative to x .
- If $a < 1$, g is **expanded** (stretched) along the horizontal axis by a factor of $1/a$, relative to x .

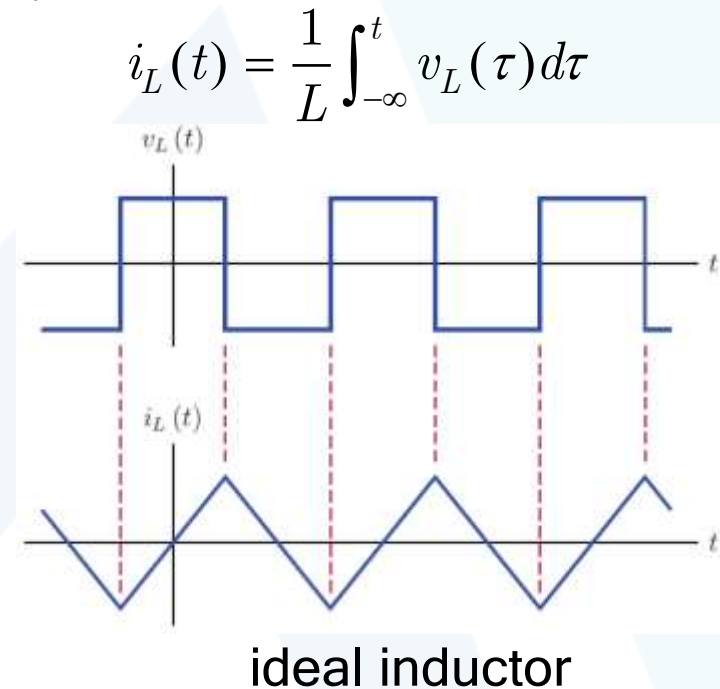
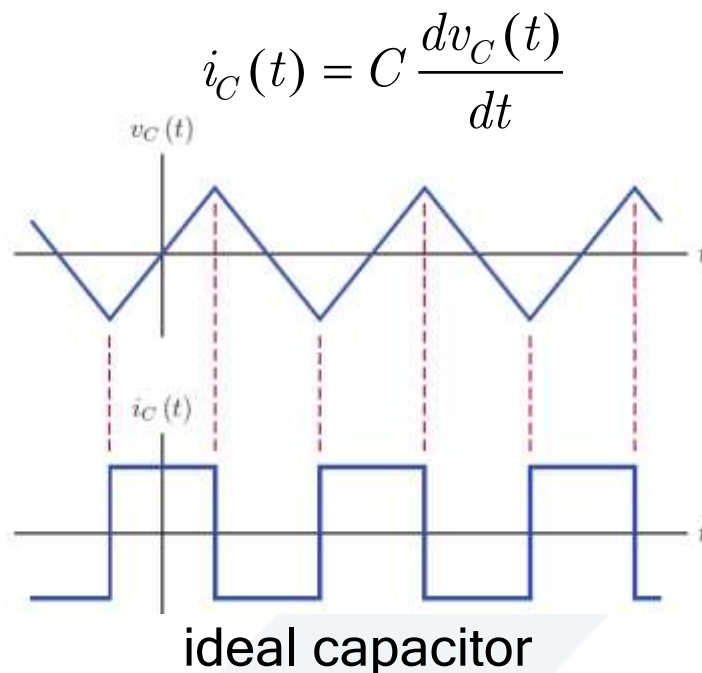


- **Time reversal** (also known as **reflection**) maps the input signal x to the output signal g as given by $g(t) = x(-t)$.
- Geometrically, the output signal g is a reflection of the input signal x about the (vertical) line $t = 0$.



■ Integration and differentiation

Given a continuous-time signal $x(t)$, a new signal $g(t)$ may be defined as its time **derivative** in the form: $g(t) = dx(t)/dt$. Similarly, a signal can be defined as the **integral** of another signal in the form: $g(t) = \int_{-\infty}^t x(\tau) d\tau$



■ Sum of periodic signals

For two periodic signals x_1 and x_2 with fundamental periods T_1 and T_2 , respectively, and the sum $y = x_1 + x_2$:

- The sum y is periodic if and only if the ratio T_1/T_2 is a **rational number** (i.e., the quotient of two integers).
- If y is periodic, its fundamental period is rT_1 (or equivalently, qT_2 , since $rT_1 = qT_2$), where $T_1/T_2 = q/r$ and q and r are integers and **coprime** (i.e., have no common factors). (Note that rT_1 is simply the least common multiple of T_1 and T_2).

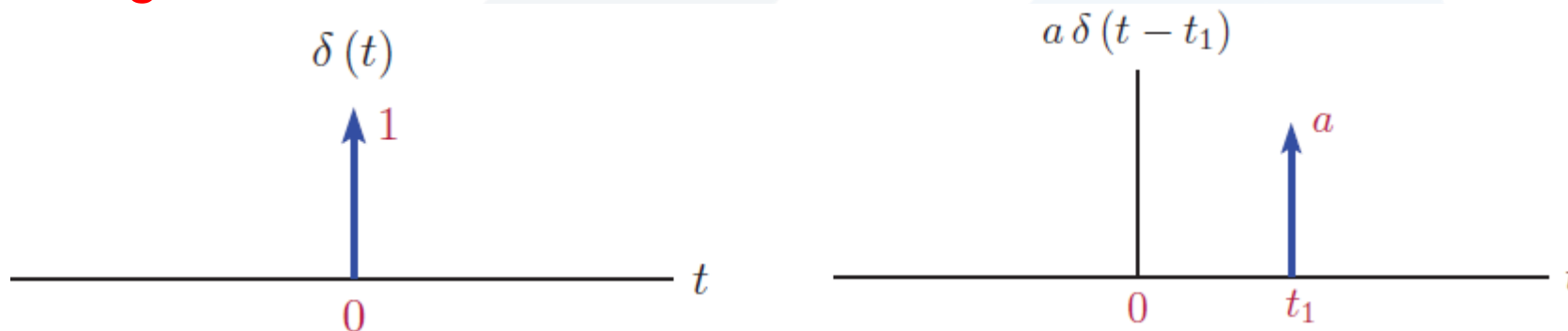
Basic building blocks for continuous-time signals

Unit-impulse function

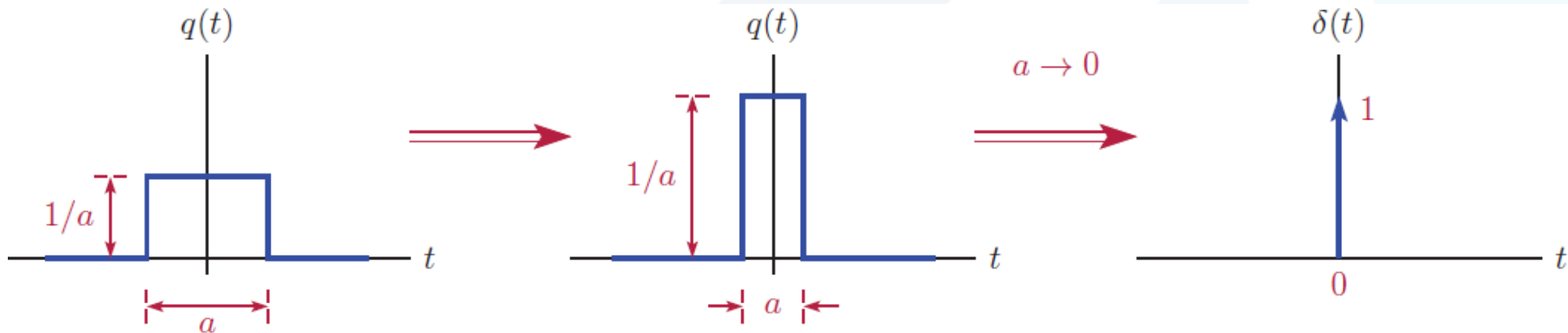
- The **unit-impulse function** (**Dirac delta function** or **delta function**), denoted δ , is defined by:

$$\delta(t) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } t \neq 0 \\ \text{undefined,} & \text{if } t = 0 \end{cases} \quad \text{and} \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t) dt = 1$$

- Technically, δ is not a function in the ordinary sense. Rather, it is what is known as a **generalized function**.



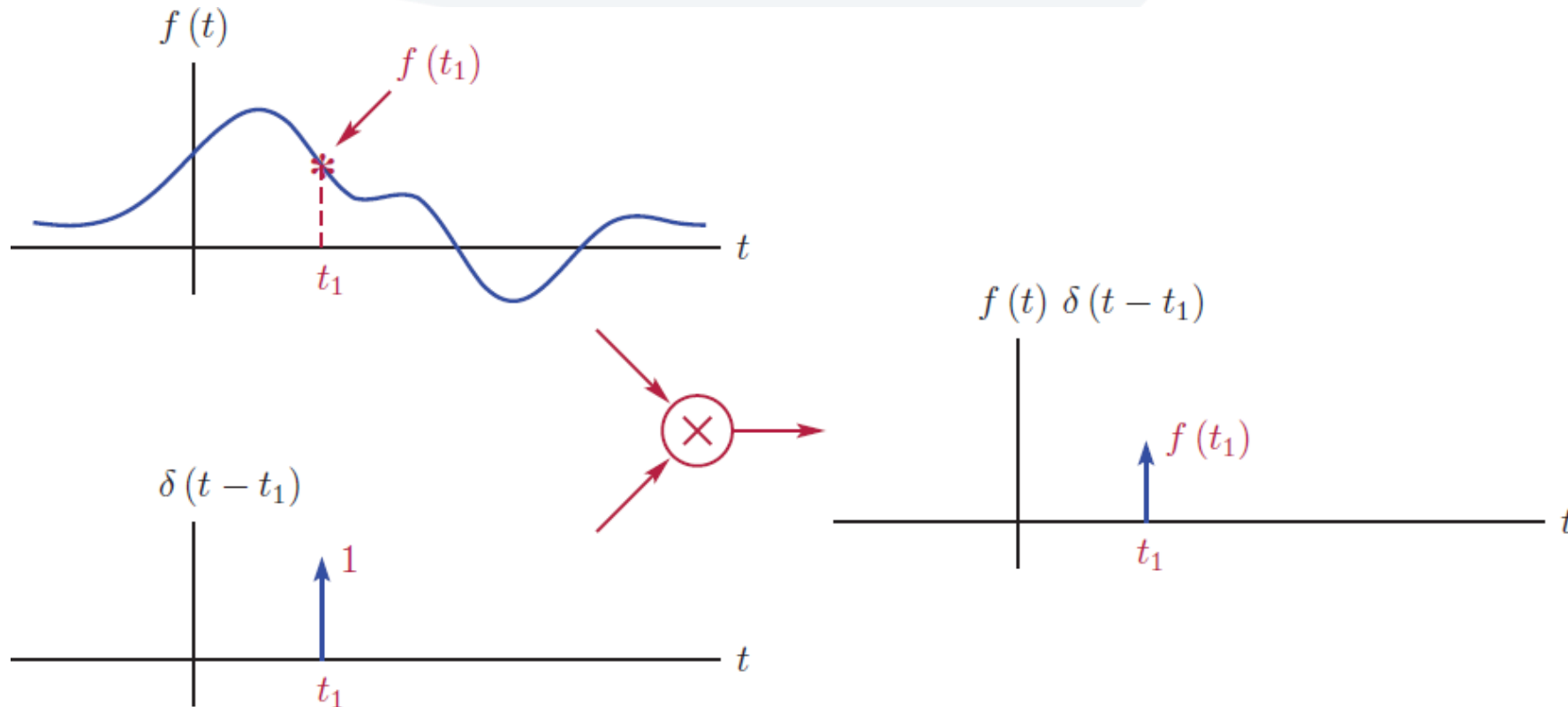
- Define $q(t) = \begin{cases} 1/a, & |t| < a/2 \\ 0, & |t| > a/2 \end{cases}$
- Clearly, for any choice of a , $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} q(t) dt = 1$
- The function δ can be obtained as the following limit: $\delta(t) = \lim_{a \rightarrow 0} q(t)$



- Sampling property.** For any continuous function f and any real constant t_1 , $f(t)\delta(t - t_1) = f(t_1)\delta(t - t_1)$.

- **Sifting property.** For any continuous function f and any real constant t_1 :

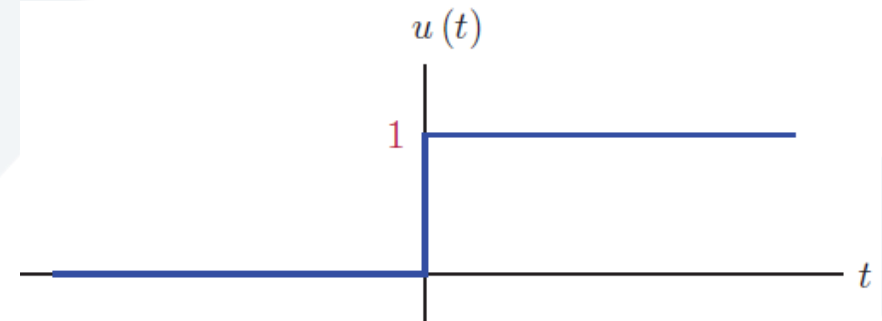
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) \delta(t - t_1) dt = f(t_1)$$



Unit-Step Function

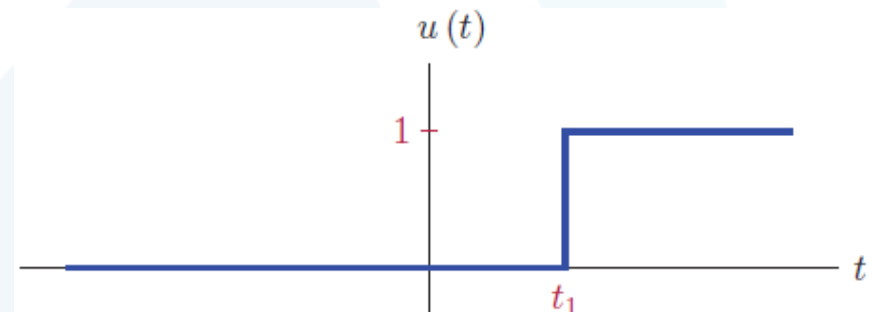
- The **unit-step function** (also known as the **Heaviside function**), denoted u , is defined as:

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



- A time **shifted version** of the unit-step function:

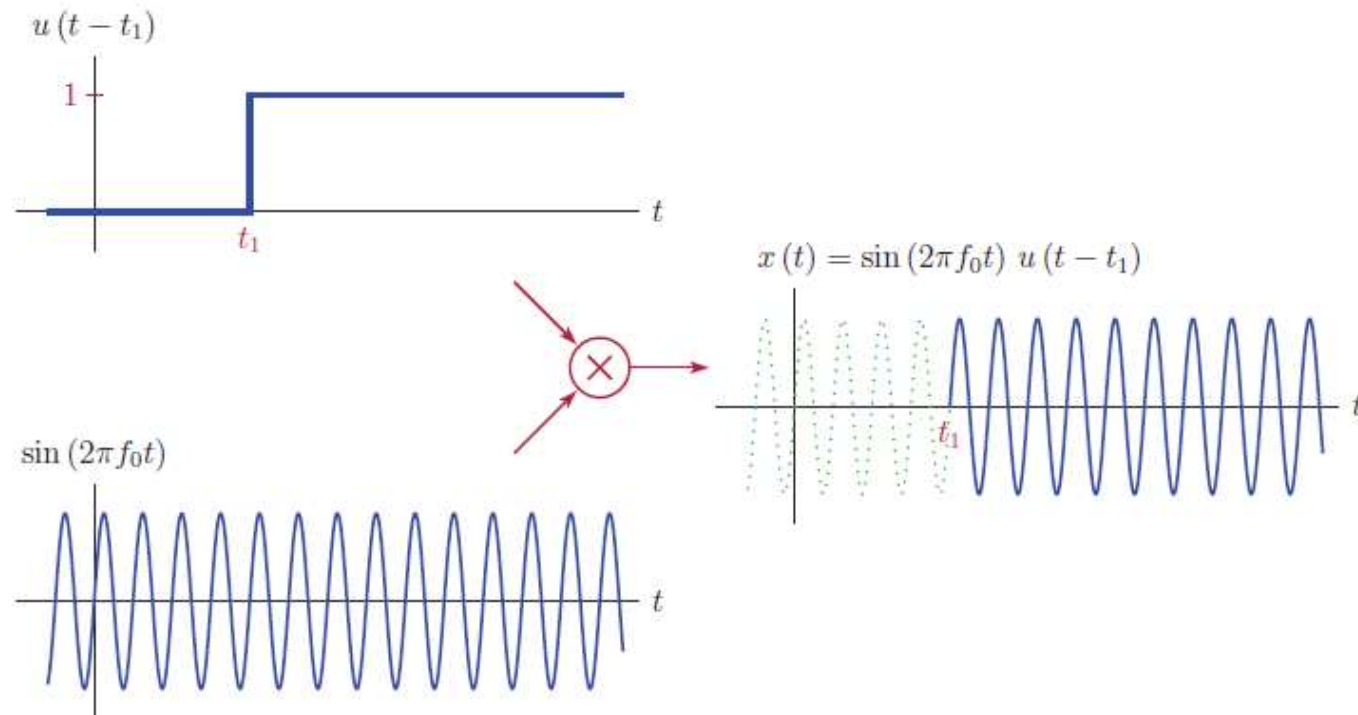
$$u(t - t_1) = \begin{cases} 1, & t \geq t_1 \\ 0, & t < t_1 \end{cases}$$



- Signals begin at $t = 0$ (**causal signals**) can be described in terms of $u(t)$.

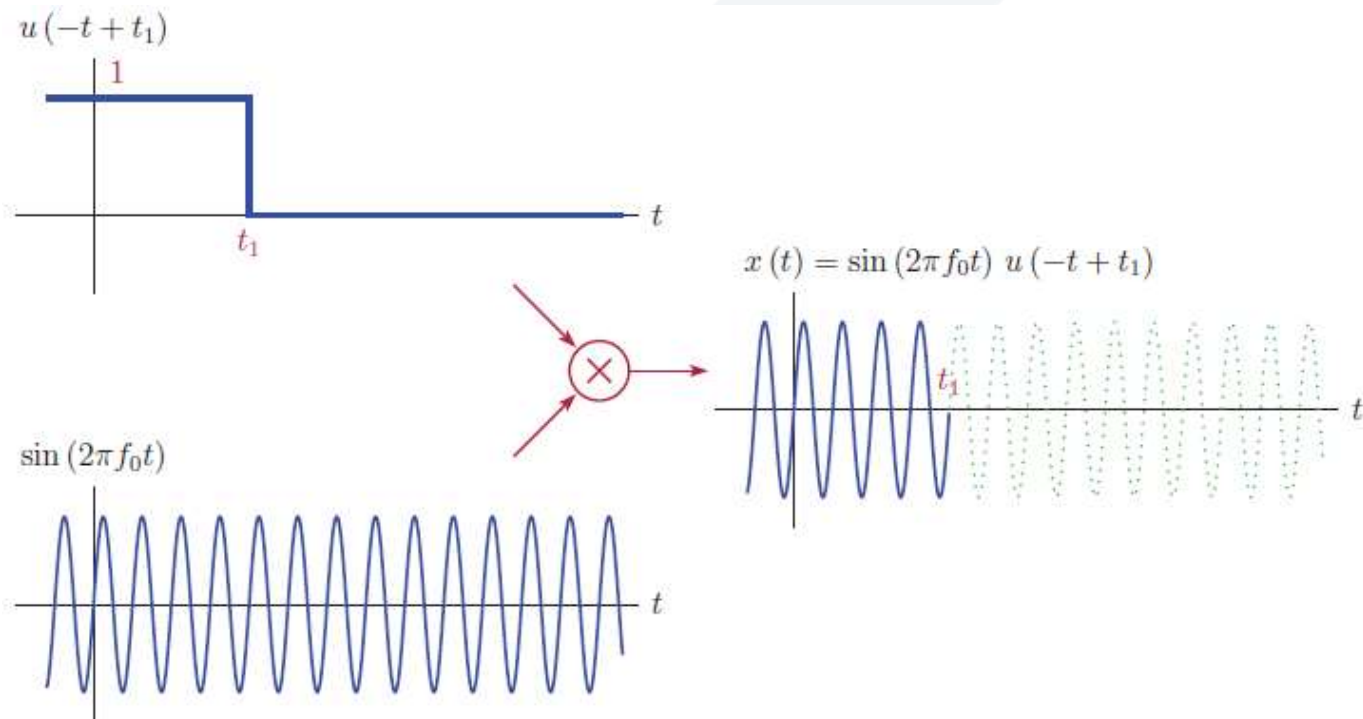
- Using the **unit-step** function to **turn a signal on** at a specified time instant:

$$x(t)u(t - t_1) = \begin{cases} \sin(2\pi f_0 t), & t \geq t_1 \\ 0, & t < t_1 \end{cases}$$

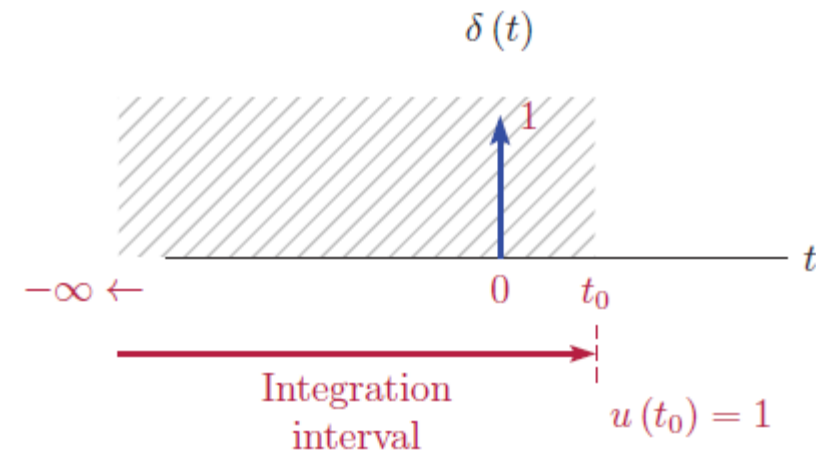
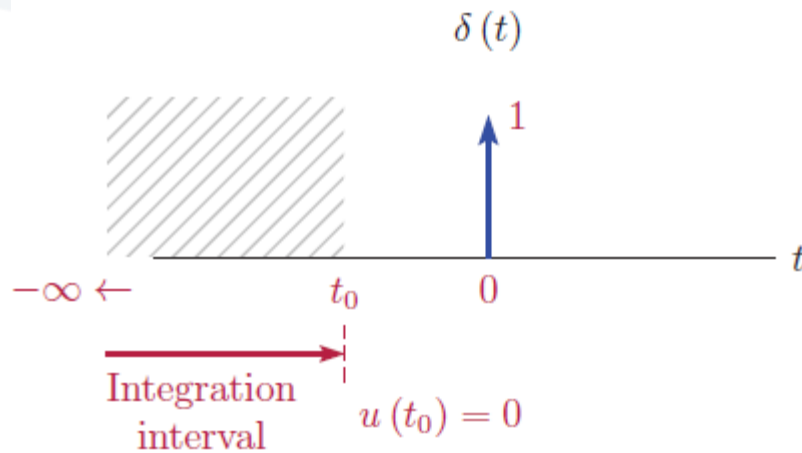


- Using the **unit-step** function to **turn a signal off** at a specified time instant:

$$x(t)u(-t + t_1) = \begin{cases} \sin(2\pi f_0 t), & t \leq t_1 \\ 0, & t > t_1 \end{cases}$$

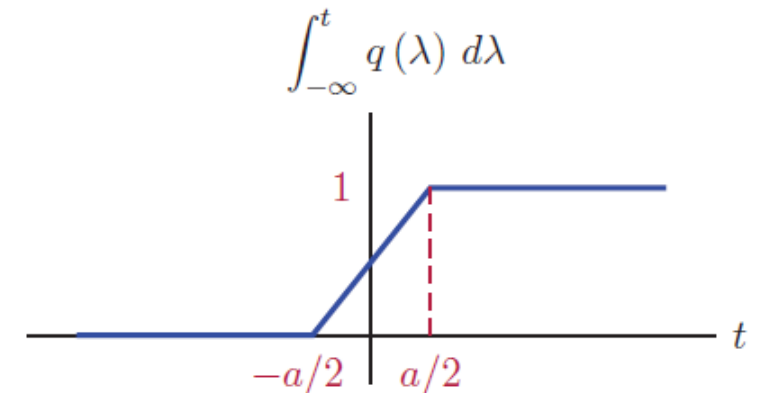
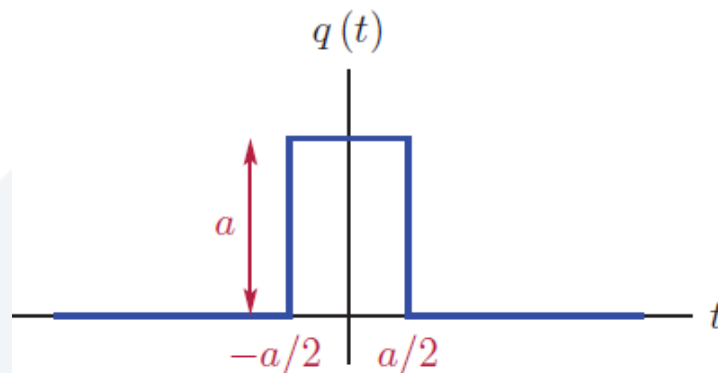


- The **Relationship** between the **unit-step** function and the **unit-impulse** function:



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

$$\delta(t) = \frac{du(t)}{dt}$$

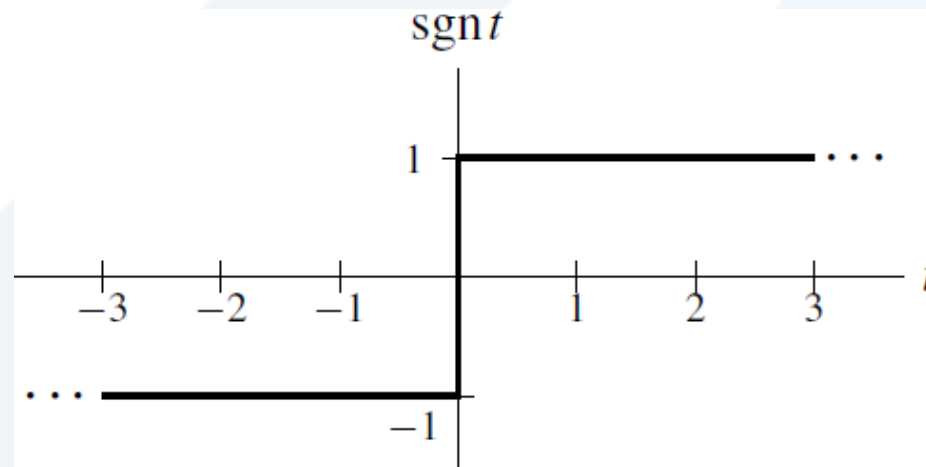


Signum Function

- The **signum function**, denoted sgn , is defined as:

$$\text{sgn}t = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } t > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } t = 0 \\ -1 & \text{if } t < 0 \end{cases}$$

- From its definition, one can see that the signum function simply computes the **sign** of a number.

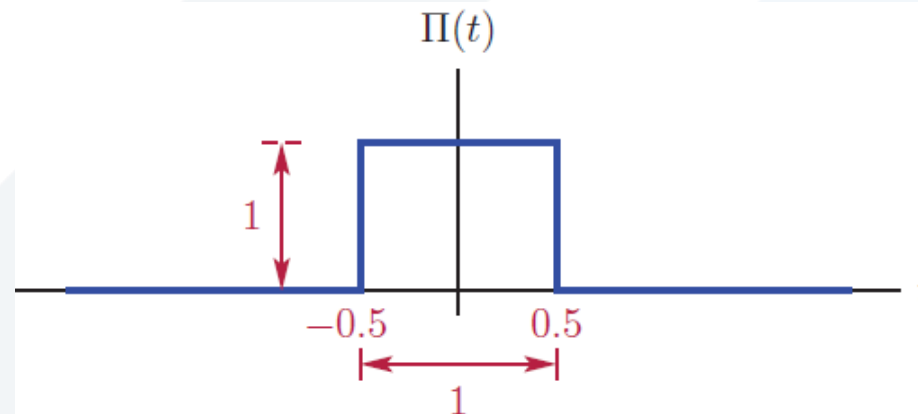


Unit-pulse function

- The **unit-pulse function** (also called the unit-rectangular pulse function), denoted $\text{rect}t$, is given by:

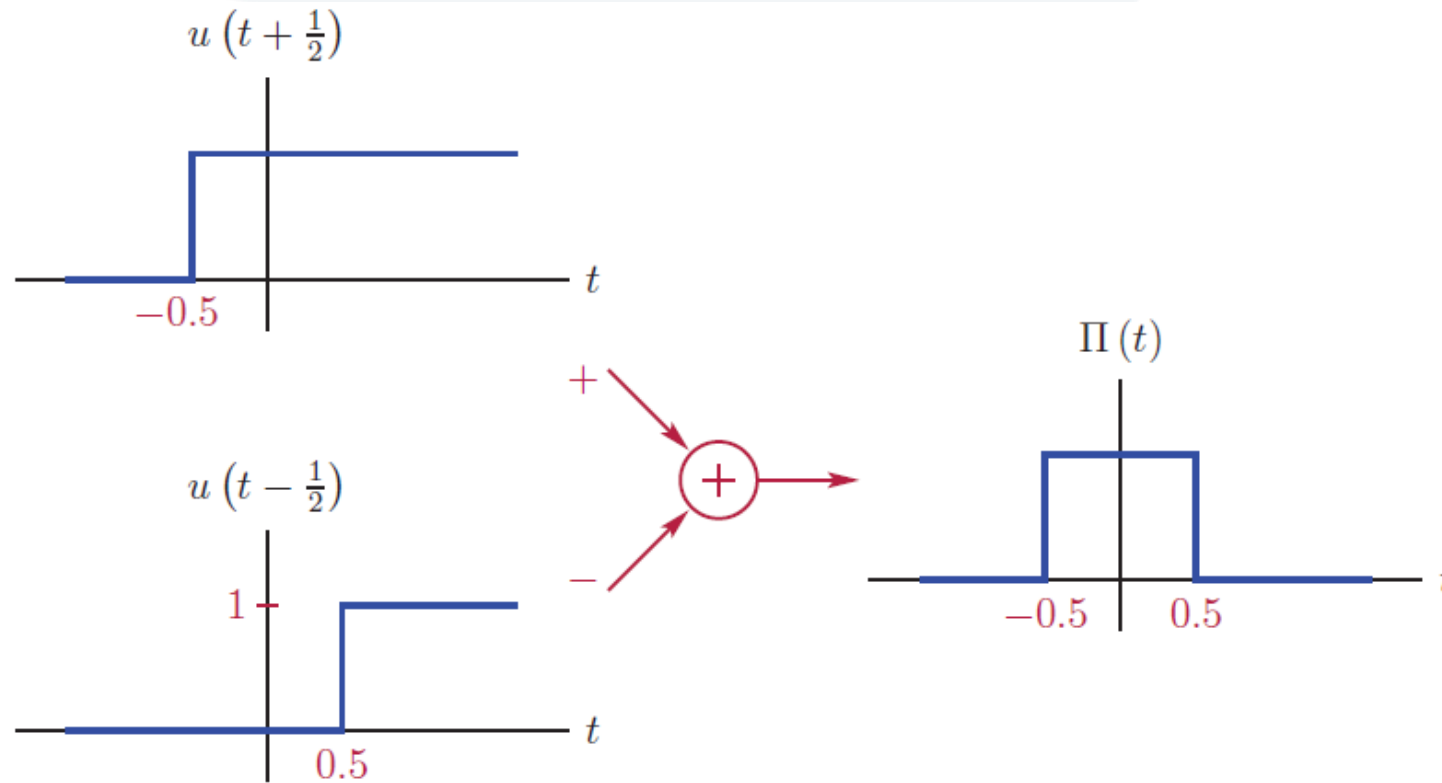
$$\text{rect}t = \Pi(t) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } -\frac{1}{2} < t < \frac{1}{2} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- Due to the manner in which the rect function is used in practice, the actual **value of $\text{rect}t$ at $t = \pm\frac{1}{2}$** is unimportant. Sometimes \neq values are used.



- Constructing a **unit-pulse** function from **unit-step** functions:

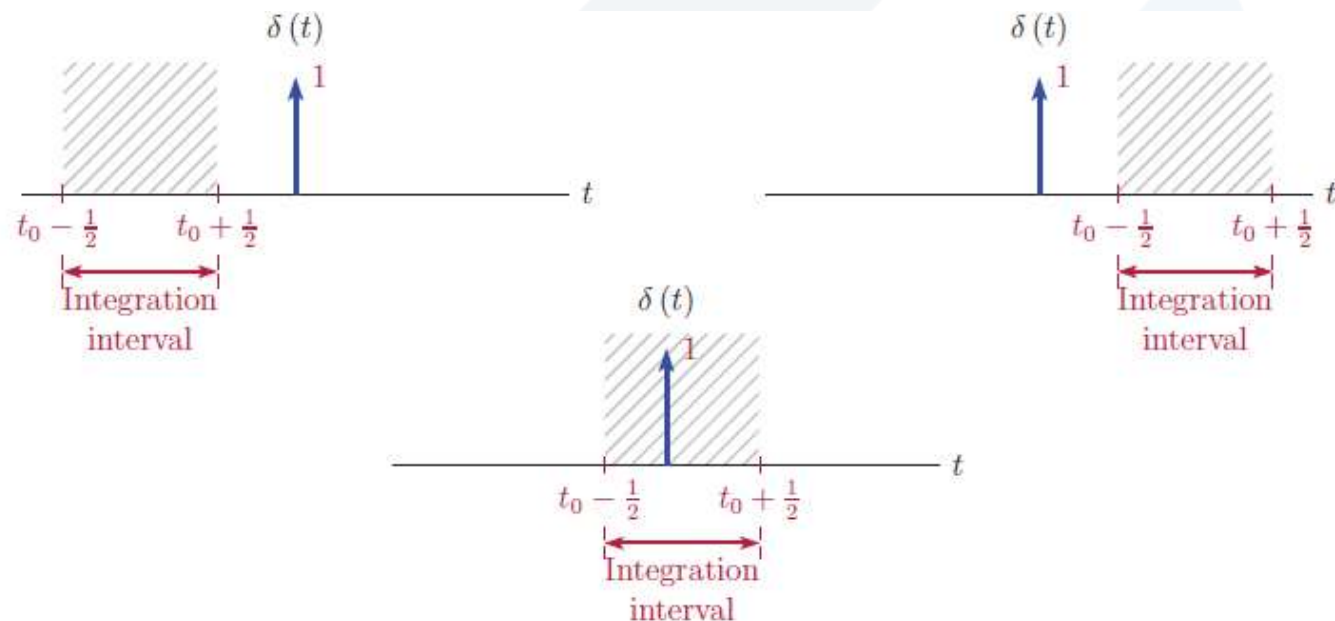
$$\Pi(t) = u(t + \frac{1}{2}) - u(t - \frac{1}{2})$$



- Constructing a **unit-pulse** function from **unit-impulse** functions:

$$\Pi(t) = u(t + \frac{1}{2}) - u(t - \frac{1}{2}) = \int_{-\infty}^{t+1/2} \delta(\tau) d\tau - \int_{-\infty}^{t-1/2} \delta(\tau) d\tau = \int_{t-1/2}^{t+1/2} \delta(\tau) d\tau$$

$$\int_{t-1/2}^{t+1/2} \delta(\tau) d\tau = \begin{cases} 1, & t - \frac{1}{2} < 0 \text{ and } t + \frac{1}{2} > 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} = \begin{cases} 1, & -\frac{1}{2} < t < \frac{1}{2} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



Unit-Ramp Function

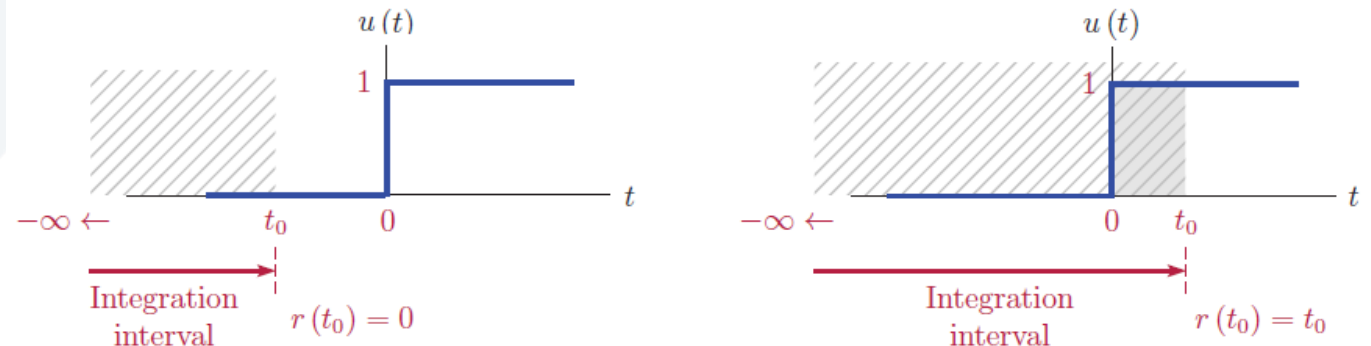
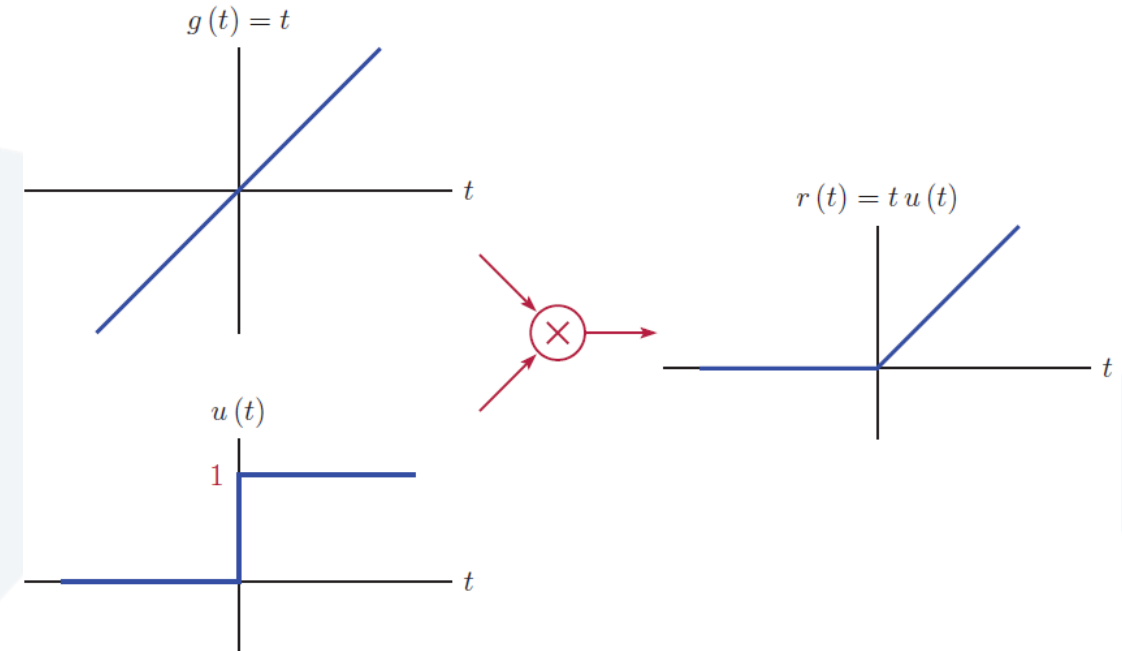
- The **unit-ramp function**, denoted r , is defined as:

$$r(t) = \begin{cases} t, & \text{if } t \geq 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

or, equivalently: $r(t) = tu(t)$.

- Constructing a **unit-ramp** function from a **unit-step**:

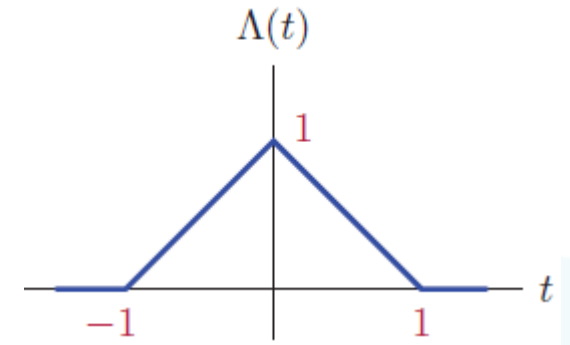
$$r(t) = \int_{-\infty}^t u(\tau) d\tau$$



Unit Triangular Function

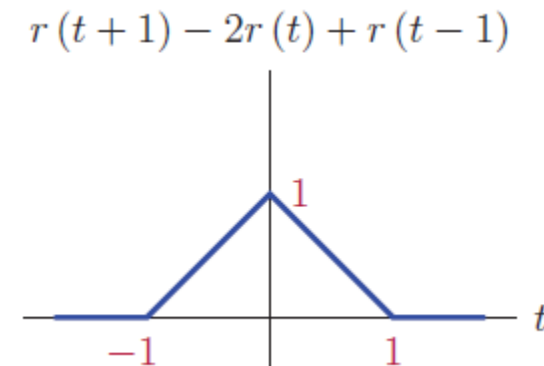
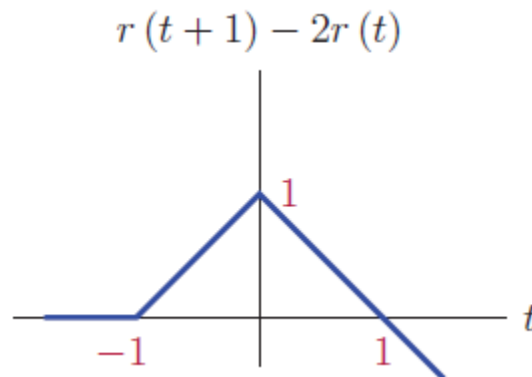
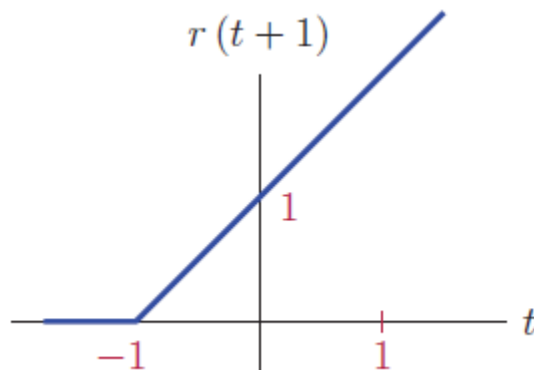
- The **unit triangular function** (**unit-triangular pulse function**), denoted tri , is defined as:

$$\text{tri}t = \Lambda(t) = \begin{cases} 1 - |t|, & \text{if } |t| \leq 1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



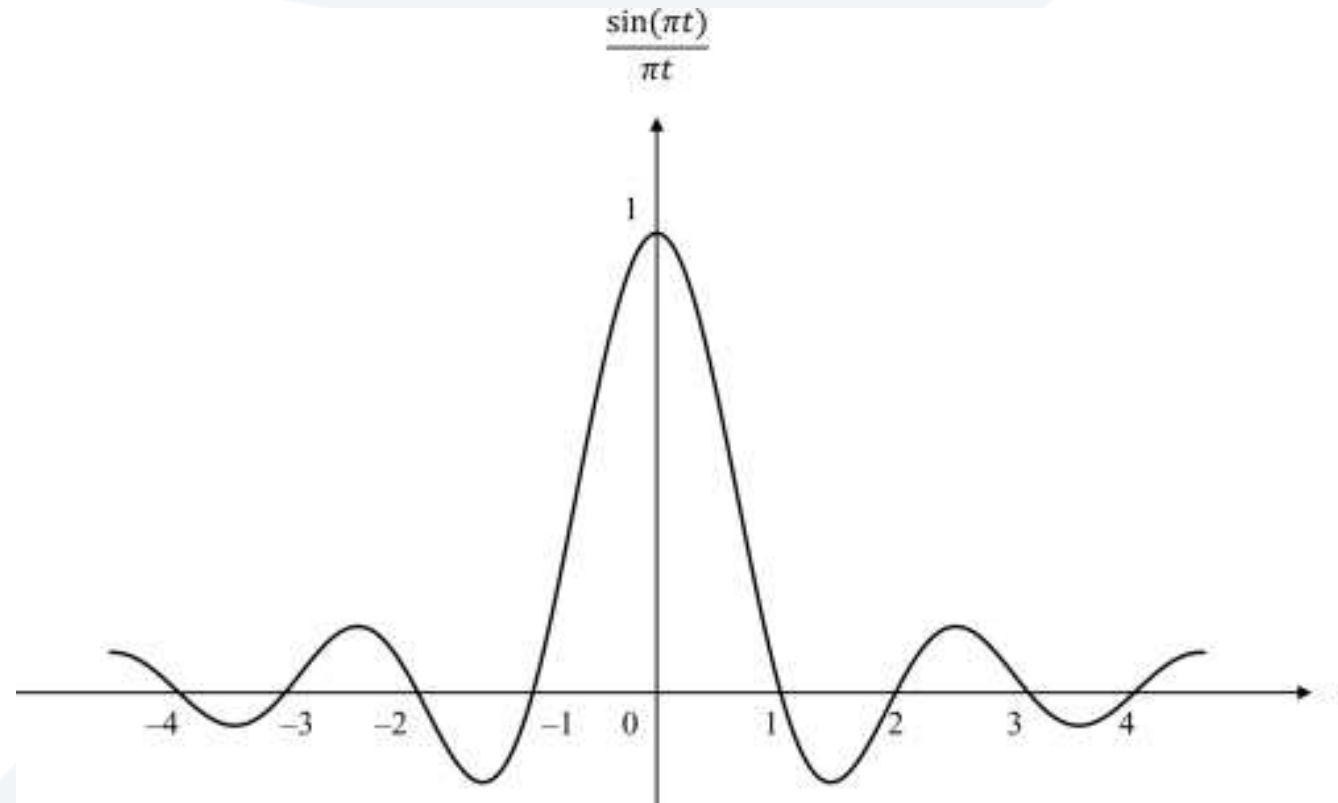
- Constructing a **unit-triangle** using **unit-ramp** functions:

$$\Lambda(t) = r(t+1) - 2r(t) + r(t-1)$$



Cardinal Sine Function

- The **cardinal sine function**, denoted sinc, is given by $\text{sinc}t = \frac{\sin(\pi t)}{\pi t}$



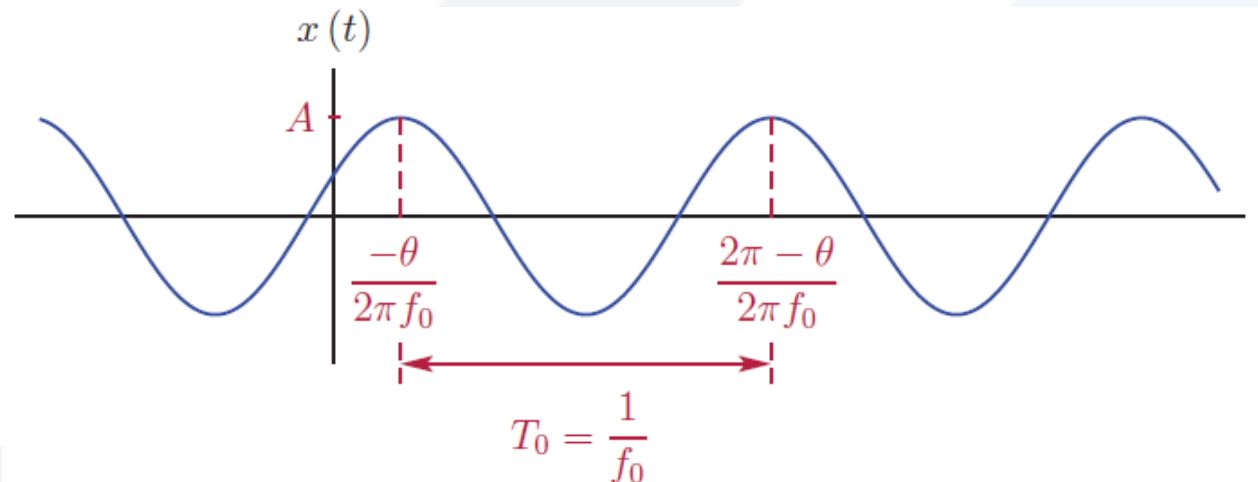
Sinusoidal Signal

- A **real sinusoidal function** is a function of the form:

$$x(t) = A \cos(\omega_0 t + \theta)$$

where A is the **amplitude** of the signal, ω_0 is the **radian frequency** (rad/s), and θ is the initial phase angle (rad), all are **real** constants.

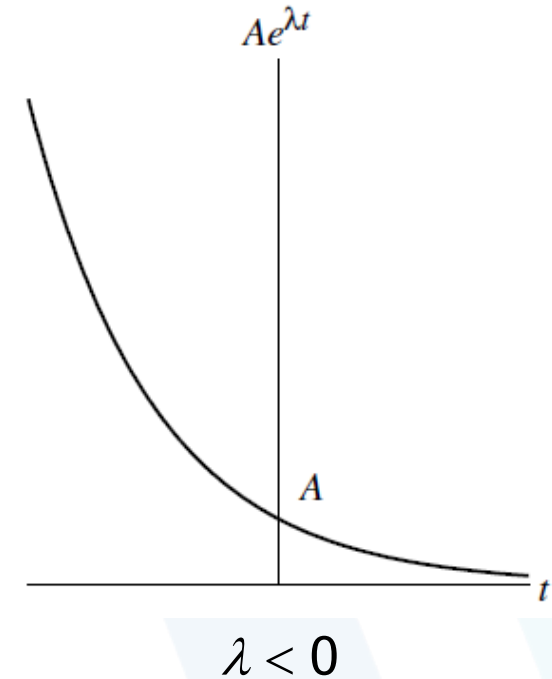
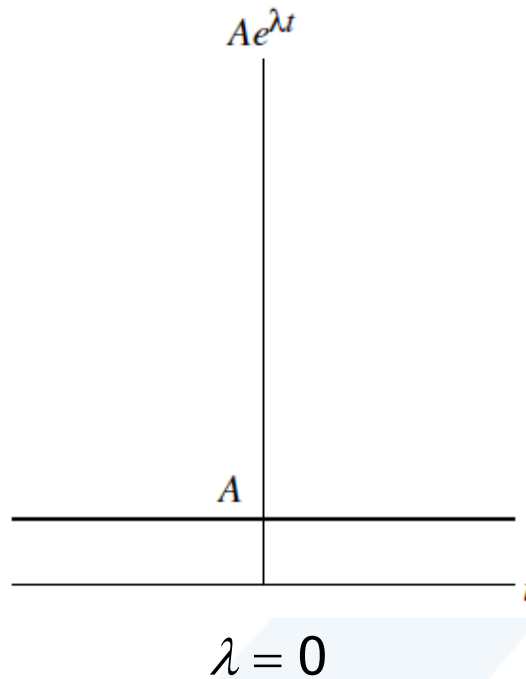
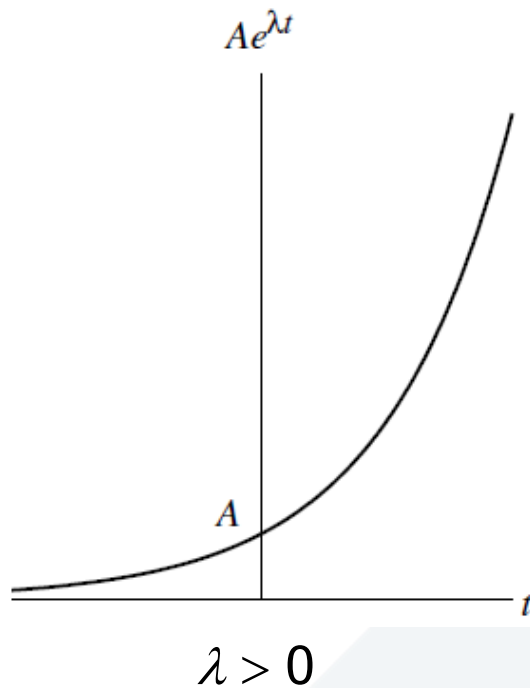
$\omega_0 = 2\pi f_0$ where f_0 is the **frequency** (Hz), $T_0 = 1/f_0$ is the **period** (s).



Complex Exponential Function

- A **complex exponential** function is a function of the form $x(t) = Ae^{\lambda t}$, where A and λ are complex **constants**.
- A complex exponential can exhibit one of a number of **distinct modes of behavior**, depending on the values of A and λ .
- For example, as special cases, complex exponentials include real exponentials and complex sinusoids.
- A **real exponential** function is a special case of a complex exponential $x(t) = Ae^{\lambda t}$, where A and λ are restricted to be **real** numbers.
- A real exponential can exhibit one of **three distinct modes** of behavior, depending on the value of λ , as illustrated below.

- If $\lambda > 0$, $x(t)$ **increases** exponentially as t increases (growing exponential).
- If $\lambda < 0$, $x(t)$ **decreases** exponentially as t increases (decaying exponential).
- If $\lambda = 0$, $x(t)$ simply equals the **constant** A .



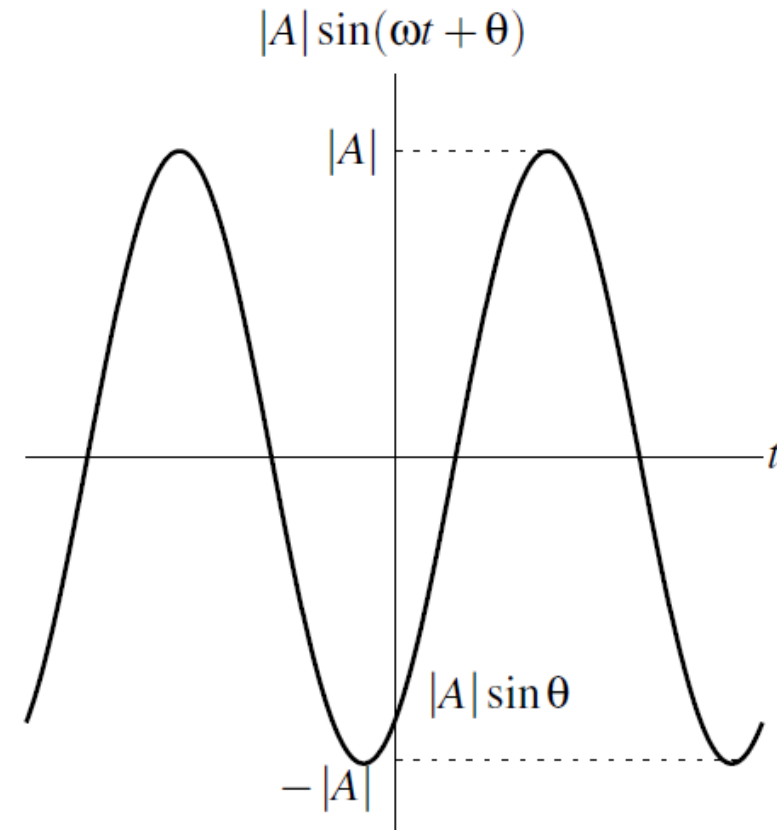
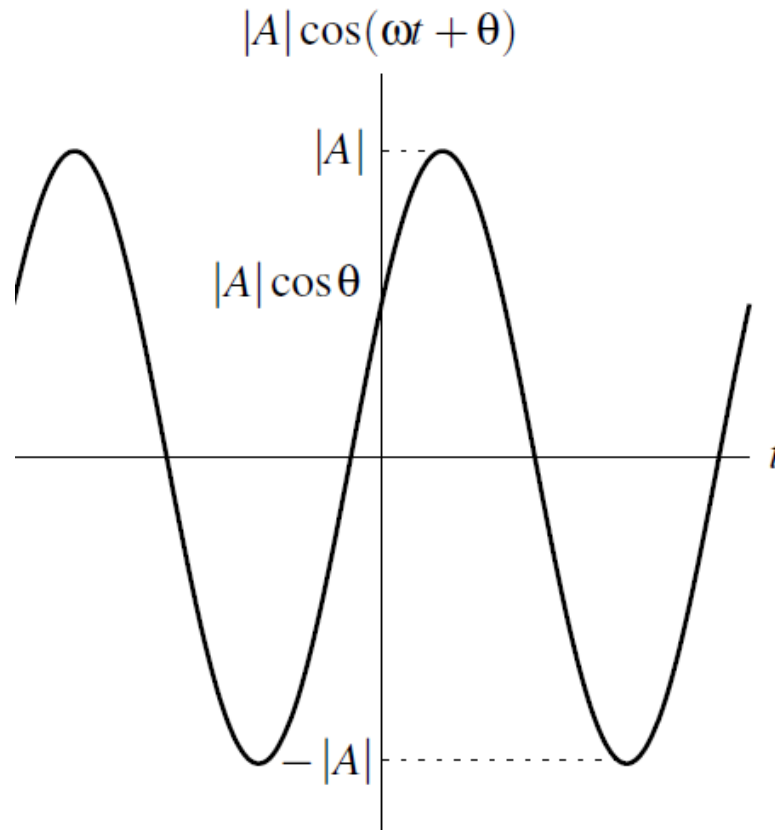
Complex Sinusoidal Function

- A **complex sinusoidal function** is a special case of a complex exponential $x(t) = Ae^{\lambda t}$, where A is **complex** and λ is **purely imaginary** (i.e., $\text{Re}\{\lambda\} = 0$).
- That is, a **complex sinusoidal function** is a function of the form $x(t) = Ae^{j\omega t}$, where A is **complex** and ω is **real**.
- By expressing A in polar form as $A = |A|e^{j\theta}$ (where θ is real) and using Euler's relation, we can rewrite $x(t)$ as:

$$x(t) = \underbrace{|A|\cos(\omega t + \theta)}_{\text{Re}\{x(t)\}} + j \underbrace{|A|\sin(\omega t + \theta)}_{\text{Im}\{x(t)\}}$$

- Thus, $\text{Re}\{x\}$ and $\text{Im}\{x\}$ are the same except for a time shift.

- Also, x is periodic with **fundamental period** $T = 2\pi/|\omega|$ and **fundamental frequency** $|\omega|$.

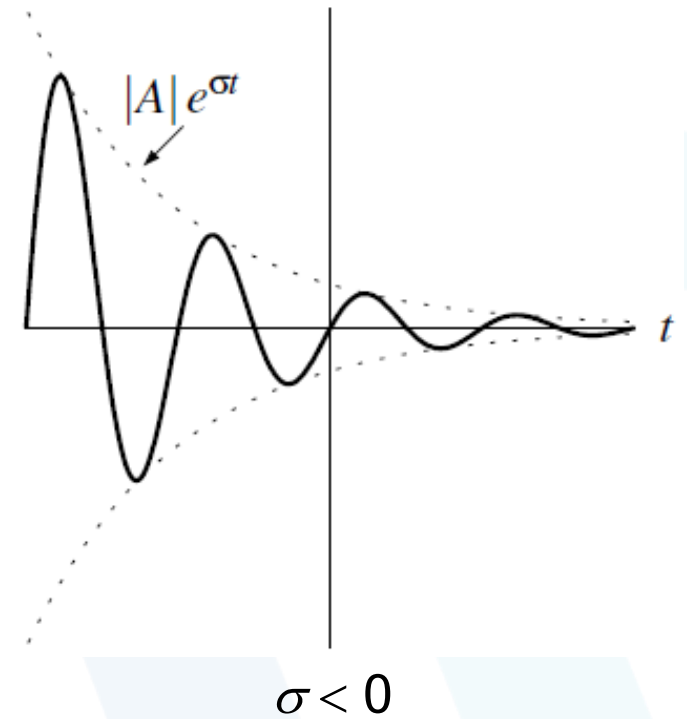
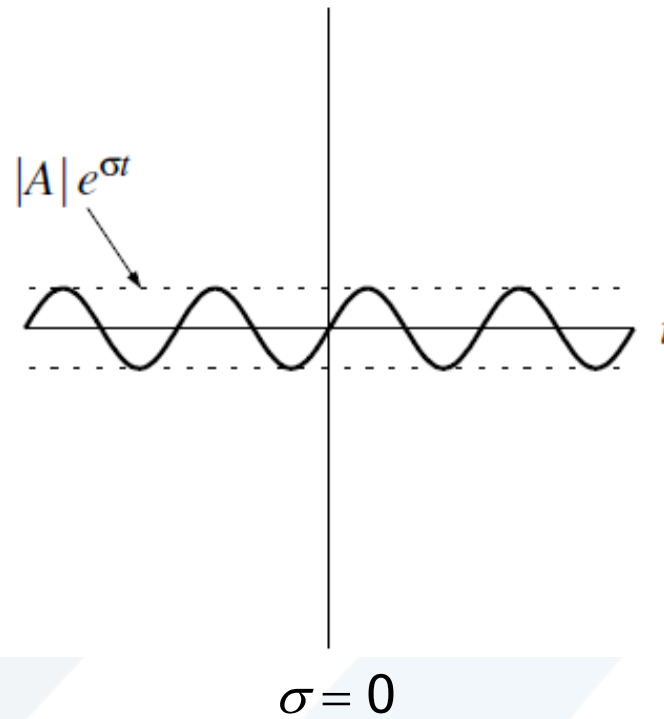
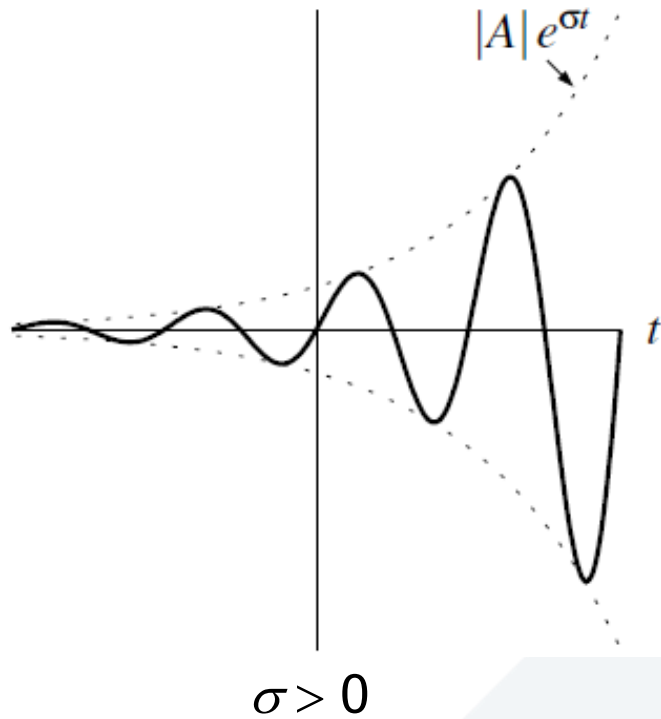


- In the most general case of a complex exponential function $x(t) = Ae^{\lambda t}$, A and λ are both **complex**.
- Letting $A = |A|e^{j\theta}$ and $\lambda = \sigma + j\omega$ (where θ , σ , and ω are real), and using Euler's relation, we can rewrite $x(t)$ as:

$$x(t) = \underbrace{|A|e^{\sigma t}\cos(\omega t + \theta)}_{\text{Re}\{x(t)\}} + j \underbrace{|A|e^{\sigma t}\sin(\omega t + \theta)}_{\text{Im}\{x(t)\}}$$

- One of **three distinct modes** of behavior is exhibited by $x(t)$, depending on the value of σ .
- If $\sigma = 0$, $\text{Re}\{x\}$ and $\text{Im}\{x\}$ are **real sinusoids**.
- If $\sigma > 0$, $\text{Re}\{x\}$ and $\text{Im}\{x\}$ are each the **product of a real sinusoid and a growing real exponential**.

- If $\sigma < 0$, $\text{Re}\{x\}$ and $\text{Im}\{x\}$ are each the product of a real sinusoid and a decaying real exponential.



- From Euler's relation, a complex sinusoid can be expressed as the sum of two real sinusoids as:

$$A e^{j\omega t} = A \cos(\omega t) + j A \sin(\omega t)$$

- Moreover, a real sinusoid can be expressed as the sum of two complex sinusoids using the identities:

$$A \cos(\omega t + \theta) = \frac{A}{2} \left[e^{j(\omega t + \theta)} + e^{-j(\omega t + \theta)} \right] \quad \text{and}$$

$$A \sin(\omega t + \theta) = \frac{A}{2j} \left[e^{j(\omega t + \theta)} - e^{-j(\omega t + \theta)} \right]$$

Impulse decomposition for continuous-time signals

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

$$\hat{x}(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x(n\Delta) \Pi\left(\frac{t - n\Delta}{\Delta}\right)$$

